

Response to Editor Review (Philip Woodworth, 2020/10/14)

2020/10/23

We thank the Editor for his thorough review, comments, and suggestions. The Editor comments are in bold, our replies are in normal font.

In the following, the line numbers correspond to the previous submitted version.

There are 2 main things I came across that worried me:

In Figure 12, your suggestion in (a) and (b) is that higher pressure in the south (in (a)), and the implied redistribution of water masses, leads to larger M2 (in (b)). ok, fine - that is what you are implying in Figure 6 (I think mention of (a) and (b) here should refer in the text back to Figure 6).

(I noticed that in your V1 you had figure (a) but said it was MSL and not air pressure - I assume you corrected that now.)

Yes, it has been corrected.

But then in (c) we have higher pressure in the south in Jan rather than July and yet M2 is larger in July. That is the opposite way round, or maybe I am missing something.

I thought at first that (c) might have been mis-labelled from July-Jan but I think it is correct – see for example Figure 3a of Chen et al., Tellus A, 49, 613-621. They show July-Jan but, allowing for the sign, it agrees with your (c). And as we know, during the winter (Jan) the Icelandic Low deepens a lot, so blue in the north ok.

Yes, it has been correctly labelled.

Anyway, I am confused by all this. Could you investigate?

Investigating further, the differences of pressure are opposite in the North Sea between Fig 12 (a) and (c). To be less confusing, Fig 12 (a) and (c) now focus on the North Sea, as well as the corresponding paragraph (lines 354-377).

The second thing is that at line 273 you say the MSL in the following regressions was after VLM correction i.e. Figure 5(b). However, it seems to me that you should surely use the uncorrected MSL (Figure 5a), which is actual water depth depth of whatever origin (VLM or whatever, who cares?) and so has some physical logic to it, rather than corrected for VLM which is a more scientific concept to do with climate budgets etc. You clearly disagreed (line 273) so please say why you made this choice.

We agree that this correction was pointless in the context of this study, and we now consider MSL without correcting for land movement. In the revised manuscript, the corresponding paragraph has been removed (lines 261-268). We have recomputed the two regression models. The figures 5, 8, 9 and 10 were updated.

Some more detailed comments are as follows, many trivial:

7 - The secular trends ..

It has been added.

what does 'overall' mean. Perhaps 'most of them ..'

Yes, we corrected with 'most of them'.

12 - distribution of mean sea level (corresponding to water depth) from

Yes, it has been changed.

16 - have been observed

It has been corrected.

21 - a few

It has been corrected.

24 - a few ... in many estuaries

It has been corrected.

27 - such as changes

It has been corrected.

40 by Pickering

It has been corrected.

where does the -20 to 20 cm refer to, around the whole ocean?

Yes, this refers to the whole ocean, it has been added.

46 characteristics to

It has been corrected.

49 on the M2

It has been corrected.

60 mentioned

It has been corrected.

61 of the NAO

It has been corrected.

66 observed tidal changes

It has been added.

96 found no differences in the

It has been corrected.

97 using either T_Tide

It has been added.

98 temporal sampling was 3 hours

It has been corrected.

103 years --> station-years

It has been corrected.

104 ditto

It has been corrected.

116 centres

It has been corrected.

131 were low-pass filtered

It has been added.

135 We employed ... (20CR) data set version ???

We employed the 20 CR version 3 dataset (this was mentioned in the Acknowledgements). We added the version in the text “20 CR version 3 dataset”.

137 sea-level pressure at each grid point

It has been added.

why do you use 2015 when you use 2018 for the tide gauge time series below?

The 20CR version 3 dataset covers the period 1836-2015. For this reason, it was not possible to go until 2018, as for the tide gauges.

139 pressure at each grid point.

It has been added.

144, 146 - what do 'very similar' and 'high correlation' mean? I think you have to refer the reader to the more quantitative statements below

We have rephrased, mentioning that the variations show similar patterns at all the stations; M2 amplitude decreases up to the 1960s, then increases, and decreases again from the 1990s. We now refer to the ‘similar patterns’ between Brest and Cuxhaven (and not the ‘high correlation’).

149 have noticed

It has been corrected.

152 and the shape

It has been corrected.

153 such as the migration

It has been corrected.

155 such as narrowing

It has been corrected.

157 that have gradually

It has been corrected.

I don't understand the point being made here, and also below. You are implying that most of the Brest data is now affected by engineering when it was more open ocean before? In which case you can't really claim it as part of the wide-scale variability in the last century mentioned below? I think this needs rewording. Also I think you need to say here that your focus below will be on the 20th century (after 1910).

Yes, we have rephrased, mentioning that the high values at Brest before 1910 may be due to local changes, in addition to large-scale changes. We also added that in the following, we will focus mainly on 20th century, as most of the stations start after 1900 (15 among 18 stations)

164 - no obvious linear trend

It has been added.

line 1 Fig 2 caption - .. amplitude 9-year filtered .. The stars in (b) in the 1860s

In Fig 2, normalized annual M2 amplitude is not 9-year filtered.

We added in the caption “in the 1860s”.

179 0.8 cm respectively

It has been added.

189 in Figure ... in Figure

It has been corrected.

193 in Figure

It has been corrected.

195 only 0.36

It has been corrected.

17.5 cm mean amplitude

It has been corrected.

I don't understand the sentence 'The very slow ...'. You are talking about normalised amplitudes here.

Here, we are talking about not normalised M2 amplitudes – see line 192 “The second outcome is that the rate of increase is very different from one station to another (keeping in mind that M2 is normalized by standard deviation on Figure 2).”

To be clearer, we rephrased “The very slow increase of M2...”.

198 Gulf

It has been corrected.

203 trends ... provides some consistency with the hypothesis ... formulated from the

analyses of Brest and other data in Figure 2(a) i.e. ..

It has been corrected.

But then see above, you seem to rule Brest out!

Yes, we have rephrased “formulated from the analyses of the data prior to the XXth century in Figure 2 (a)”.

what is climate-scale? This seems to be from your old title.

Yes, we have rephrased “long-term variations”.

204 introduces some breaks

It has been corrected “long-term variations introduce some breaks...”.

210 I think a problem with Halifax is the big gap. Who knows what changes to instrumentation and the port etc. there were in between

We added a sentence to take into account this comment.

“Note that at Halifax, there is a long gap in the data recording (1898-1919), which raises the possibility of an instrumentation origin in the observed decrease of the M2 amplitude.”

215 that the later results

Yes, it has been added.

253 - the normalised trends? But these are not shown in the Table. The unnormalised trends vary a lot so I don't understand line 254

(Here, we are talking about lines 223 and 224 – and not 253 and 254.)

In the paper, we refer only to not normalised trends (Table 1, Figures 3 and 4).

We have reformulated the line 224, to make it clearer:

“In the North East Atlantic, the trends are consistent with each other (in terms of sign), which is not surprising as the stations vary similarly (Figure 2 (a)).”

227 - I don't understand this 9 and 3, and you have two 'negatives'. You have 18 stations in the table and 5 are from NE Atlantic. How do you get to 12? It looks to me that 10 are negative and 8 positive

Here, we are mentioning that there are more stations with negative trends since 1990 (9 stations with negative trends, see Table 1, column 8), than stations with negative trends from 1910 (3 stations with negative trends, see Table 1 column 7). We have reformulated to make it clearer:

“...9 stations out of 18 have post-1990 negative trends, whereas only 3 stations out of 18 have post-1910 negative trends (Table 1, columns 7 and 8).”

231 The largest trends for 1910 onwards ?

Yes, we added “since 1910”.

252 .. to 5 i.e. their ..

It has been changed.

255-258 - this sentence on modelling is just rambling and the mention of 10 km, coarseness and rough is all the same thing. I would drop (1), leave that alone, and just keep (2) which is true.

We have dropped (1), and just kept (2).

261 - The MSL records ... include

This line has been removed, as we do not correct anymore for land movement (see above the answer to the second main thing).

273 see my second main question above. I am not convinced you have to make VLM corrections, and then you could drop figure 5b, but I realise you would have to recompute the regressions - but that is easy enough.

Yes, we do not make VLM corrections anymore (see above the answer to the second main thing). We have recomputed the two regression models and updated Figures 5, 8, 9 and 10.

276 MSL as well as climate indices

The title of the section has been changed.

273 - see above

We did not correctly understand the suggested correction. Here, we mention that the correlations between M2 and MSL (alone) indicate that M2 varies with MSL. The climate indices will be introduced in the next section.

277 - such as

It has been corrected.

281 act on

It has been corrected.

fig 5 caption line 2 - MSL values are filtered using 9-year windows.

It has been corrected.

294 on the tide

It has been corrected.

295 .. variability, the NAO index tends

It has been corrected.

fig 6 - I was intrigued that the NAO and AO indices have different magnitudes. Maybe ok. But why don't you use normalised indices anyway?

We plotted directly the indices in Figure 6, and we used normalized indices for NAO in model 2, to be consistent with the other parameters (M2, MSL) that were normalized. However, the differences between NAO and normalized NAO are small (mean 0.20, standard deviation 0.18), as NAO index is already the difference of normalized sea level pressure between the Azores and Iceland.

Fig 6 line 1 - M2 amplitudes

It has been corrected.

301 are filtered using the same

It has been corrected.

Fig 7 line 2 - filtered using

It has been corrected.

313 - why do you exclude these 4 for having no NAO correlation? They would appear to be ideal candidates for model 1

We have now added these 4 stations. There is no significant influence of NAO at Boston and New London. More surprising, there is some NAO influence at Charleston and Fort Pulaski (see updated Figure 8 and 9).

321 - 0.7 does not sound like 'no significant correlation'

Yes, we have rephrased. "We checked if there was correlation between NAO and MSL at the stations..."

322 of the NAO

It has been corrected.

323 adding an additional regression ..

It has been corrected.

327 contribution of the NAO

It has been corrected.

328 whereas it is negligible

It has been corrected.

Fig 8 - see above - why don't you have the other 4 in this plot. Also I can't see one with a red bar of 0.7 mentioned above. Also please remove the 1.2 on the y-axis, the max for that is 1.0

The 4 stations are now in the plot (see above).

0.7 is a linear correlation coefficient (r-value), whereas the variance explained by a given model (r²-value) is plotted in Fig 8.

The y-axis of Fig8 has been modified, and the max is now 1.0.

line 2 - filtered using the

It has been corrected.

fig 9 line 2 - the size of each large dot

It has been corrected.

fig 10 line 1 - filtered using

It has been corrected.

329 sensitive to the NAO

It has been corrected.

332 at all four stations

It has been corrected.

The text here doesn't mention the Brest sub-figure

Yes, we added that at Brest, the improvement is less significant.

340 pressure gradient

It has been corrected.

358 - drop 'very'

It has been corrected.

360 They ran

It has been corrected.

371 - a few cm, similar to its variations seasonally?

Yes, it has been added, « similar to its seasonal variations ».

figs 11 and 12 - say in caption what the contour intervals are

fig 12 - see above

We have added in the caption that the contour intervals are every 2 hPa (Fig 11) and 4hPa (Fig12 (a) and (c)), and we have labelled the contours on Figs 11 and 12.

385 - whereas variations appear between stations in the ..

It has been corrected.

386 from one station to

It has been corrected.

395 on the M2 tide

It has been corrected.

398 and currents

It has been corrected.

405 studies (e.g. Ray, 2006) in

We corrected 'studies (e.g. Ray, 2006, in the Gulf of Maine).'

423 - why pick these 2 places and refer to Kemp? I would drop this. There must be many places you would like to look at

We picked these 2 places, because they were mentioned by one of the reviewers, but we agree that other places could be mentioned. It has been removed.

storminess on the tide

It has been corrected.

459 - space after am2

It has been added.

figure (a) - you should say in the caption or text why this is detrended and (b) isn't

We have added in the caption, that M2 was detrended in (a) to better fit the nodal modulation.

fig B1 - the delfzijl and hoek van holland have enormous increases in M2 around 1960 which look very odd. Is there no previous mention of this in the literature?

Adding them hasn't benefitted the paper much if they are so obviously different.

Hollebrandse (2015) already mentioned a large tidal range increase at Hoek van Holland during the period 1960-1970. He reported that this increase was likely due to a combination of local changes (construction of the Europoort and the Maasvlakte and the extension of the breakwater Noorderhoofd) and larger scale processes, as 4 other neighbouring stations (Vlissingen, Burghsluis, Scheveningen and IJmuiden) show all a relative strong increase during the same period.

Hollebrandse (2015) also mentioned a large tidal range increase at Delfzijl, between 1960 and 1980. He attributed this to local changes (construction of a breakwater (1963-1966) and the damming of a harbour entrance (1978)).

Finally, the normalised M2 variations are not so different in the North East Atlantic, showing similar patterns (Figure 2 (a)). The addition of Delfzijl and Hoek van Holland in the review process allowed to confirm that changes are partly due to large-scale processes, in addition to local changes.

references - some titles are not capitalised (e.g. Araujo and Pugh) but some are (e.g. Colisi and Munk). Some journal names are given in full and some are abbreviated. Please use the OSD style.

It has been corrected. The titles are not capitalised and journal names are abbreviated. We have used the Latex bibliography style 'copernicus', as mentioned in the OSD Latex template.

Large-scale changes of the semidiurnal tide over the North Atlantic coasts from 1846 to 2018

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Abstract.

We investigated the long-term changes of the principal tidal component M_2 over the North Atlantic coasts, from 1846 to 2018. We analysed 18 tide gauges with time series starting no later than 1940. The longest is Brest with 165 years of observations. We carefully processed the data, particularly to remove the 18.6-year nodal modulation. We found that M_2 variations are consistent at all the stations in the North East Atlantic (Cuxhaven, Delfzijl, Hoek van Holland, Newlyn, Brest), whereas some discrepancies appear in the North West Atlantic. The changes started long before the XXth century, and are not linear. The secular trends in M_2 amplitude vary from one station to another; most of them are ~~they are overall~~ positive, up to 2.5 mm/yr in the period since 1910. Since 1990, the trends switch from positive to negative values in the North East Atlantic. Concerning the possible causes of the observed changes, the similarity between the North Atlantic Oscillation and M_2 variations in the North East Atlantic suggests a possible influence of the large-scale atmospheric circulation on the tide. Our statistical analysis confirms large correlations at all the stations in the North East Atlantic. We discuss a possible underlying mechanism. A different spatial distribution of mean sea level (corresponding to water depth) ~~water level~~ from one year to another, depending on the low-frequency sea-level pressure patterns, could impact the propagation of the tide in the North Atlantic basin. However, the hypothesis is at present unproven.

1 Introduction

Tides have been changing due to non-astronomical factors since the XIXth century (Haigh et al., 2019; Talke and Jay, 2020). In the North Atlantic, secular variations ~~have been were~~ observed at individual tide gauge stations, e.g. Brest (Cartwright, 1972; Wöppelmann et al., 2006; Pouvreau et al., 2006; Pouvreau, 2008), Newlyn (Araújo and Pugh, 2008; Bradshaw et al., 2016), New York (Talke et al., 2014), Boston (Talke et al., 2018), but also at regional scale, e.g. Gulf of Maine (Doodson, 1924; Godin, 1995; Ray, 2006; Ray and Talke, 2019), North Atlantic (Müller, 2011), and at quasi-global scale (Woodworth, 2010; Müller et al., 2011; Mawdsley et al., 2015). Long-term changes in tidal constituents are rather small at coastal stations, but tend to be statistically significant. The order of magnitude of these changes varies spatially, and may reach a few cm/century for M_2 amplitude. For example, Colosi and Munk (2006) reported changes of about 1 cm at Honolulu, Hawaii, between 1915 and 2000. Ray and Talke (2019) found trends varying from -1 to 8 cm/century in the Gulf of Maine over the last century.

25 Woodworth et al. (2010) and Müller et al. (2011) found trends of a few % per century in the Atlantic. The changes can be larger in at many estuaries and rivers (Talke and Jay, 2020).

The physical causes of these changes can be multiple and difficult to disentangle. In particular, the complexity comes from the possible interaction between local and large-scale causes. Changes may have a local scale origin, such as changes in the nearby environment (e.g. harbour development, deepening of channels, dredging, siltation) or changes in the instrumentation (e.g. tide gauge technology, observatory location, instrumental errors). For example, Famikhalili and Talke (2016) show that mean tidal range at Wilmington has doubled since the 1880s, due to channel deepening in the Cap Fear River Estuary. Changes may also have a large-scale origin, i.e. regional or global. Haigh et al. (2019) reported several possible large-scale mechanisms: (1) tectonics and continental drift, (2) water depth changes due to mean sea level rise or geological processes such as the Earth's surface glacial isostatic adjustment (Müller et al., 2011; Pickering et al., 2017; Schindelegger et al., 2018), (3) shoreline position, (4) extent of sea-ice cover (Müller et al., 2014), (5) sea-bed roughness, (6) ocean stratification which may modify the internal tides and bottom friction over continental shelves (Müller, 2012), (7) non-linear interactions and (8) radiational forcing (Ray, 2009).

40 Several authors have explored Mean Sea Level (MSL) rise as a potential mechanism to explain M_2 changes. For example, simulations by from Pickering et al. (2012) show that a 2m sea level rise could modify M_2 from -20 to 20 cm around the whole ocean. Idier et al. (2017) show that depending on the location, the changes can account for +/-15% of the regional sea level rise. Schindelegger et al. (2018) find changes of about 1–5% of the sea level rise. Beyond MSL rise, other mechanisms have been explored to explain M_2 changes. For example, Colosi and Munk (2006) attribute the changes of M_2 amplitude at Honolulu, Hawaii, to a 28° rotation of the internal tide vector in response to ocean warming. Ray and Talke (2019) suggest that long-term changes in stratification could play a role in the Gulf of Maine. Müller (2011) suggests a possible link between M_2 changes and atmospheric dynamics in the North Atlantic; he reported that the timeseries of the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) show similar characteristics to as those of the tidal amplitudes and phases. In the Gulf of Maine, Pan et al. (2019) suggest that changes in the response of the nodal modulation of the M_2 tide from 1970s to 2013 may be linked with the NAO. In Southeast Asian Waters, Devlin et al. (2018) show that the impact of atmospheric circulation (via the wind stress, through Ekman current) on the M_2 seasonal cycle may be significant and comparable to the effect of permanent (geostrophic) currents. In the North Sea, Huess and Andersen (2001) explain a large part of M_2 seasonal cycle by the role of atmospheric dynamics, whereas Müller et al. (2014) and Gräwe et al. (2014) suggest a major role of the thermal stratification. These examples show the diversity of mechanisms that play a role in tide changes. In the present paper, we focus on the role of MSL and atmospheric dynamics.

This paper has two main objectives. The first is to characterize the secular changes of the M_2 tide over the North Atlantic. We focus on the longest time series, i.e. starting no later than 1940. This approach is complementary to previous studies investigating M_2 changes focusing on smaller spatial scales, e.g. Brest (Pouvreau et al., 2006; Pouvreau, 2008), Gulf of Maine (Ray,

60 2006; Ray and Talke, 2019), or focusing on shorter temporal scales, i.e. recent decades (Woodworth, 2010; Müller, 2011). The second objective is to detect if there is any large-scale coherence in the observed changes in the North Atlantic, and investigate the possible link with the atmospheric circulation, already mentioned by Müller et al. (2011), on the basis of qualitative criteria. Here, we further bring quantitative insights on the possible influence of the NAO, and discuss a possible NAO-related climate mechanism that can partly explain the observed changes.

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The paper is organised as follows. The first section describes the data: the sea level data (i.e. tide gauges and their processing) and the atmospheric data (i.e. climate indices and sea level pressure data). The following section presents the results (i.e. M_2 variations and trends). We then discuss a possible link between the observed tidal changes and MSL, as well as climate indices.

2 Data

70 2.1 Sea level data

2.1.1 Tide gauges selection

The tide gauge data were retrieved from the University of Hawaii Sea Level Center (UHSLC, website accessed April 2020). The dataset consists of 249 stations in the Atlantic Ocean, with hourly sea level observations. Two additional long-term stations - Delfzijl and Hoek van Holland - were provided by Rijkswaterstaat (RWS).

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We selected the stations following three criteria: time series (1) starting before 1940, (2) with at least 80 years of data, (3) with tidal amplitude significant enough to detect trends, i.e. M_2 amplitude larger than 10 cm. Note that we selected only years with at least 75% of data (see section 2.1.2). Only 24 stations among the 249 followed the two first criteria (Figure 1). They are all located in the northern hemisphere. On the east side of the North Atlantic, Stockholm, Gedser, Hornbaek, Tregde and
80 Marseille were discarded due to too small an M_2 amplitude (i.e. lower than 10 cm). These stations are located in the Baltic Sea (Stockholm, Gedser), in the strait separating the Baltic and the North Sea (Hornbaek), in the North Sea (Tregde), and in the Mediterranean Sea (Marseille). On the west side of the North Atlantic, Galveston, Pensacola and Cristobal were also discarded due to too small a tidal amplitude (i.e. lower than 10 cm). These stations are located in the Gulf of Mexico (Galveston, Pensacola) and the Caribbean Sea (Cristobal).

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Finally, 18 stations followed the three criteria detailed above, and were selected for this study (see stations in bold in Figure 1, 16 stations are from UHSLC, and 2 from RWS). Among them, 5 are located on the North East Atlantic coasts (Newlyn, Brest, Hoek van Holland, Delfzijl and Cuxhaven - note that Hoek van Holland, Delfzijl and Cuxhaven are located in the North Sea) and 13 are located on the North West Atlantic coasts (Halifax, Eastport, Portland, Boston, Newport, New London, New
90 York, Atlantic City, Lewes, Wilmington, Charleston, Fort Pulaski and Key West).

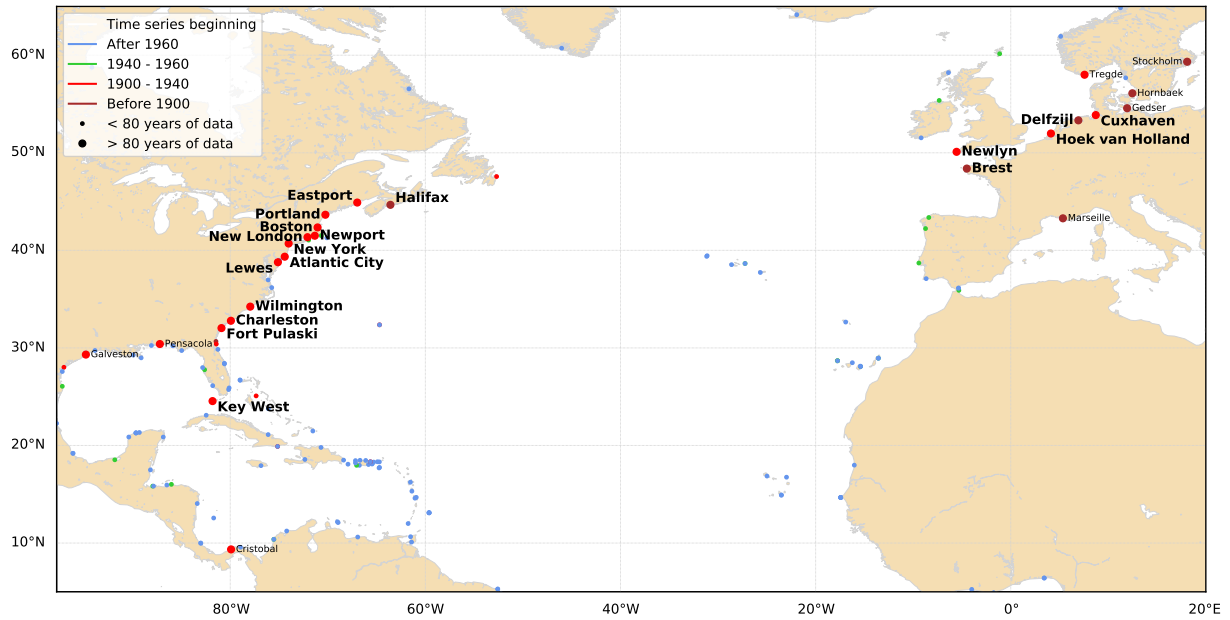


Figure 1. Tide gauges in the North Atlantic. Stations with time series starting before 1940 and longer than 80 years are labelled. Stations selected for this study are in bold.

The main characteristics of the 18 selected stations are summarised in Table 1. Among them, only Brest, Hoek van Holland and Halifax started in the XIXth century, respectively in 1846, 1879 and 1896 (Table 1, column 2). The number of years with data for each station varies between 81 and 165 years, Brest being the longest time series (Table 1, column 3).

95 2.1.2 Data processing

Harmonic analysis was performed in order to compute the M_2 amplitude. We used the MAS program (Simon, 2007, 2013), developed by the French Hydrographic Office (SHOM). This program gives results similar to the T_Tide harmonic analysis toolbox (Pawlowicz et al., 2002). For instance, Pouvreau et al. (2006) found **no differences in non-significant-differences-of** the yearly amplitudes of M_2 at Brest over the period 1846 to 2005 using **either** T_Tide or MAS. Hourly time series were analysed yearly. Note that at Delfzijl and Hoek van Holland, data had to be interpolated every hour before 1970, as the temporal **sampling was 3 resolution-was-of-3** hours. We processed only years with at least 75% of data, to avoid M_2 seasonal modulation. In the North Atlantic, M_2 is affected by a seasonal variation of a few percent (Pugh and Vassie, 1976; Huess and Andersen, 2001; Müller et al., 2014; Gräwe et al., 2014). Considering only years with at least 75% of data resulted in excluding up to 15 years for a given station (Table 1, columns 3 and 4). We carefully removed the nodal modulation of M_2 amplitude (Simon, 2007, 2013), as described briefly in Appendix A. Finally, 3 **station-years** were discarded due to problems in the record (1953 and 1962 at Delfzijl, 1953 at Hoek van Holland), and 2 more **station-years** due to doubtful M_2 values (1972 at Eastport, 1978 at Newport).

Table 1. Main characteristics of tide gauge records selected for this study. Name of the station, timespan, number of years with data, number of years analysed (i.e. with at least 75% of data), M_2 average amplitude and standard deviation over the period 1910-2010, M_2 nodal modulation, estimated trends in M_2 amplitude since 1910 and since 1990 (standard errors are 1-sigma).

Name	Timespan	Nb of yrs with data	Nb of yrs analysed	$\overline{M_2}$ (cm) [1910-2010]	M_2 nod. mod. f_{nod}	M_2 trends since 1910 (mm/yr)	M_2 trends since 1990 (mm/yr)
Cuxhaven	1918-2018	102	101	135.05 ± 3.68	1.8 %	0.68 ± 0.10	-0.47 ± 0.41
Delfzijl	1879-2018	138	138	125.58 ± 6.96	1.7 %	2.02 ± 0.09	-0.09 ± 0.24
Hoek van Holland	1900-2018	88	82	76.95 ± 2.63	0.8 %	0.85 ± 0.06	-0.45 ± 0.14
Newlyn	1916-2016	102	98	170.66 ± 0.75	3.3 %	0.14 ± 0.02	-0.28 ± 0.14
Brest	1846-2018	165	158	204.54 ± 0.91	3.8 %	0.13 ± 0.02	-0.36 ± 0.12
Halifax	1896-2012	99	95	62.83 ± 0.64	3.7 %	-0.15 ± 0.02	0.32 ± 0.17
Eastport	1930-2018	90	82	263.51 ± 2.50	2.5 %	0.80 ± 0.07	1.01 ± 0.39
Portland	1910-2018	109	104	135.07 ± 1.84	2.8 %	0.56 ± 0.03	0.72 ± 0.20
Boston	1922-2018	98	96	136.57 ± 1.03	2.9 %	0.27 ± 0.03	0.42 ± 0.20
Newport	1931-2018	89	84	50.86 ± 0.41	4.1 %	-0.09 ± 0.01	-0.03 ± 0.08
New London	1939-2018	81	76	35.93 ± 0.25	3.5 %	0.06 ± 0.01	0.03 ± 0.05
New York	1921-2018	95	80	65.13 ± 0.83	3.7 %	0.33 ± 0.02	0.93 ± 0.12
Atlantic City	1912-2018	107	101	58.48 ± 0.31	3.8 %	0.00 ± 0.01	-0.18 ± 0.07
Lewes	1919-2018	85	72	59.91 ± 0.43	3.1 %	-0.06 ± 0.02	-0.33 ± 0.06
Wilmington	1936-2018	84	82	56.84 ± 6.16	1.7 %	2.51 ± 0.09	1.80 ± 0.20
Charleston	1901-2018	101	100	76.40 ± 1.33	3.0 %	0.32 ± 0.03	-0.02 ± 0.08
Fort Pulaski	1936-2018	84	78	100.60 ± 1.01	3.1 %	0.18 ± 0.04	-0.01 ± 0.17
Key West	1913-2018	106	104	17.50 ± 0.36	2.9 %	0.08 ± 0.01	0.13 ± 0.02

At all the stations, we computed the normalized M_2 amplitude, removing the average and dividing by the standard deviation over the period 1910-2010

$$110 \quad \text{Normalized } M_2(t) = \frac{M_2(t) - \overline{M_2}_{[1910,2010]}}{\sigma_{M_2[1910,2010]}} \quad (1)$$

the average $\overline{M_2}$ and standard deviation σ_{M_2} over the 1910-2010 period being given in Table 1 (column 5). The idea is to scale the data, in order to compare all the stations together.

2.2 Atmospheric data

2.2.1 Climate indices

115 We investigated the correlation between secular changes in the tide and climate indices, such as the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) or the Arctic Oscillation (AO) - also called Northern Annular Mode (NAM) (Hurrell, 1995; Hurrell and Deser, 2009; Thompson and Wallace, 2000; Thompson et al., 2000). These climate indices are related to the distribution of atmospheric masses. They are based on the difference of average sea-level pressure between two ~~centres~~ ~~centers~~ of actions (i.e. stations) over long periods (e.g. monthly, seasonal, annual).

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The NAO is the major pattern of weather and climate variability over the Northern Hemisphere (Hurrell, 1995; Hurrell and Deser, 2009). Variations of NAO drive the climate variability over Europe and North America (Hurrell et al., 2003). We used the wintertime (December to March) Hurrell station-based NAO Index (retrieved from <https://climatedataguide.ucar.edu/climate-data/hurrell-north-atlantic-oscillation-nao-index-station-based>). It is based on the difference of normalized average winter sea-
125 level pressure between Lisbon (Portugal) and Stykkisholmur/Reykjavik (Iceland). The normalization involves removing the mean (1864–1983) and dividing by the long-term standard deviation. The NAO index covers the period 1864-2019, with yearly values.

The Arctic Oscillation (AO) is another index which resembles to NAO index. It is defined as the first EOF of northern hemi-
130 sphere winter sea-level pressure data (Thompson and Wallace, 1998, 2000; Thompson et al., 2000). The AO index is highly correlated with the NAO. We used the wintertime Hurrell AO index (retrieved from <https://climatedataguide.ucar.edu/climate-data/hurrell-wintertime-slp-based-northern-annular-mode-nam-index>). The AO index covers the period 1899-2019.

To remove the interannual variability and estimate low frequency variations, climate indices were ~~low-pass~~ filtered with a
135 9-year mean filter.

2.2.2 Sea level pressure

We ~~employed~~ ~~explored-the~~ the Twentieth Century Reanalysis (20CR ~~version 3 dataset~~) (Compo et al., 2011; Slivinski et al., 2019), a historic weather reconstruction from 1836 to 2015, with a 1° gridded global coverage. We computed the mean winter (December to February) sea-level pressure ~~at each grid point~~ over the period 1850-2015. We averaged from 1850 rather than
140 1836 (20CR starting date) to be consistent with the temporal coverage of the tide gauge measurements. We also computed yearly anomalies, i.e. removing the average sea-level pressure ~~at each grid point~~.

3 Results

3.1 M_2 variations

For the North East Atlantic, the variations of normalized M_2 amplitude are presented in Figure 2 (a).

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The first result is that since 1910, the variations ~~show similar patterns are very similar~~ at all the stations; M_2 amplitude decreases up to the 1960s, then increases, and decreases again from the 1990s. This suggests that these changes are probably due to large-scale processes, rather than local effects due to changes in the environment (e.g. harbor development, dredging, siltation) or instrumentation errors. The ~~similar patterns high correlation~~ between Brest and Cuxhaven may be surprising, as Cuxhaven is located in the North Sea, and not in the open Atlantic Ocean, and far away from Brest, around 1300 km. This indicates that the spatial scale of the processes responsible for these changes must be at least as large as the North East Atlantic. Different authors ~~have~~ noticed the increase of tidal range from 1960 to 1990 in the southern North Sea. Hollebrandse (2005) found a gradual increase during the period 1955-1980 at all the stations of the Dutch coast (5 stations including Hoek van Holland) and the German coast (7 stations). Mudersbach et al. (2013) found a significant increase in M_2 amplitude at Cuxhaven since around the mid-1950s. Note that Cuxhaven is located in the German Bight; shallow depths and ~~the~~ shape of the coastline may induce some amplification. Variations in M_2 at Cuxhaven are therefore sensitive to local effects, ~~such~~ as the migration of the underwater channels and the evolution of the tidal flats (Jacob et al., 2016). Moreover, Cuxhaven is located in the Elbe estuary, and some river engineering works, ~~such~~ as narrowing and deepening, may induce tidal amplification (Winterwerp and Wang, 2013; Winterwerp et al., 2013).

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160 Before 1910, ~~normalized~~ M_2 values are higher at Brest than at Delfzijl. ~~The This may be explained by the~~ construction of dykes that ~~have~~ gradually closed the harbor of Brest since the end of the XIXth century ~~, and~~ may have altered the tide at Brest. ~~The high values before 1910 may be due to local changes, in addition to large-scale changes.~~ To go further, the potential role of these successive constructions needs to be investigated (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Brest_Arsenal). Cartwright (1972) made a first attempt to evaluate the influence of reducing the width of access to the harbour but did not take into account a potential

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175 role of dredging for which we have no information. This example underlines the complexity of interpretation of the variations when changes of local and large-scale origin occur at the same time. ~~Note that in the following, we focus mainly on the XXth century, as most of the stations start after 1900 (15 out of 18 stations).~~

The second result, is that there is no ~~obvious~~ linear trend in M_2 variations, but rather break or change points, M_2 increasing and then decreasing, depending on the periods considered. Overall, M_2 decreases from 1910 until 1960, increases again until 1980-1990, to finally decrease since 1990; note that the curve flattens between 1920 and 1940. Pouvreau et al. (2006) already noticed these variations at Brest and Newlyn, and suggested a long-period oscillation of around 140 years, rather than a steady secular trend. A careful analysis of the harmonic development of the tidal potential showed that no tidal component could explain this oscillation. Similarly, no linear combination of tidal harmonic components could explain it (Pouvreau et al., 2006).

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This indicates that these variations are not due to an astronomical component. However, in contrast to Brest, M_2 at Delfzijl

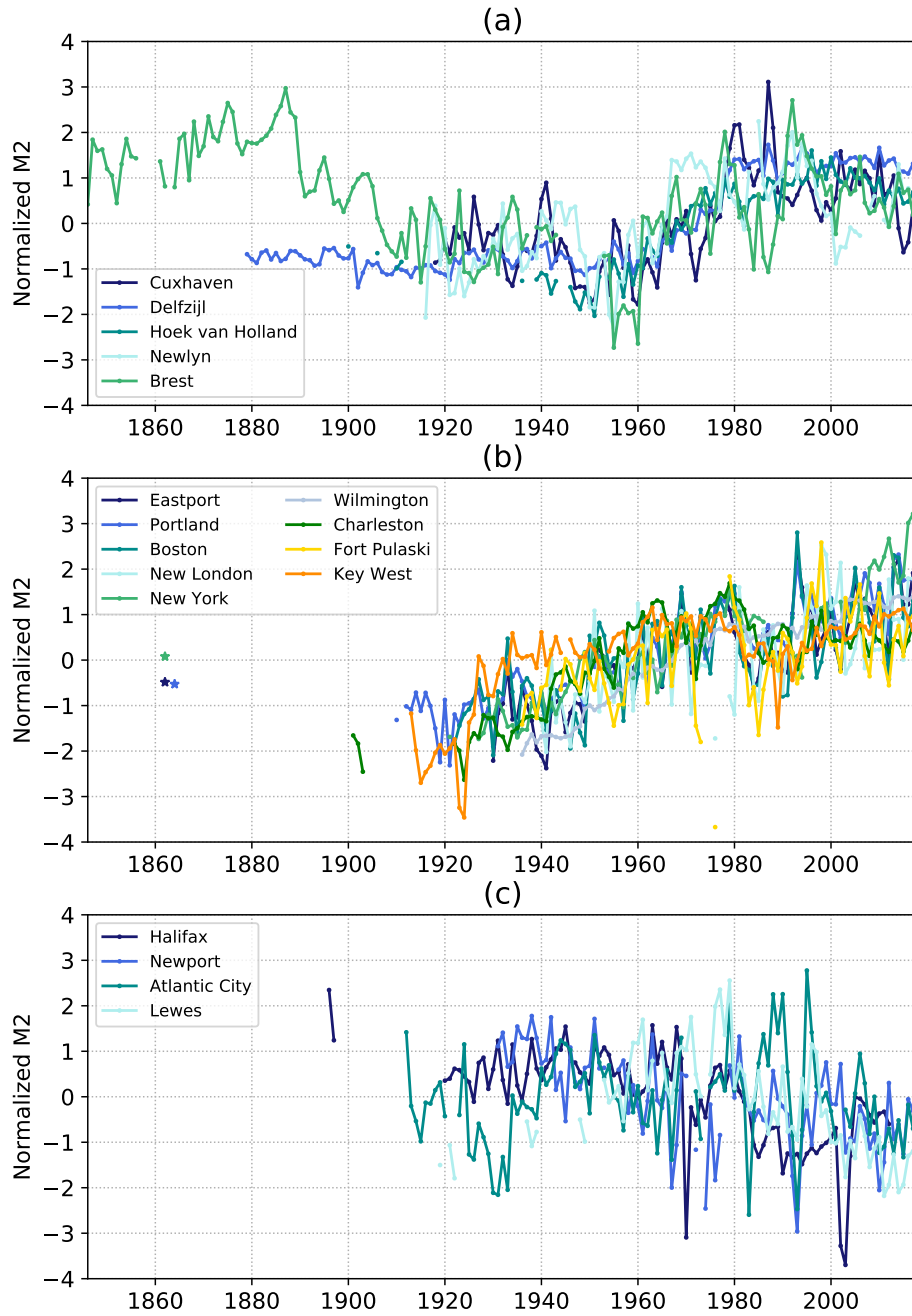


Figure 2. Normalized annual M_2 amplitude (a) in the North East Atlantic (b) in the North West Atlantic, stations with positive trends (c) in the North West Atlantic, stations with negative or no trend. The stars in (b) in the 1860s correspond to M_2 amplitude at Eastport and Portland from Ray and Talke (2019), and New York from Talke et al. (2014), after normalization (Eq. (1)).

stays flat between 1880 and 1920. The decrease observed at Brest between 1880 and 1920 may be due to harbour development and/or dredging (see above). This underlines the importance of sea level data archaeology, for research studies related to long-term changes (Pouvreau, 2008; Woodworth et al., 2010; Marcos et al., 2011; Talke and Jay, 2013, 2017; Ray and Talke, 2019; Bradshaw et al., 2015, 2020).

180

The third result is that changes in M_2 have not the same order of magnitude at each station (see Figure B1 in Appendix B for time series of M_2). Note that Figure 2 represents normalized M_2 , i.e. removing the average and dividing by the standard deviation. The order of magnitude of (not normalized) M_2 changes are roughly the same at Brest and Newlyn (standard deviations of 0.9 and 0.8 cm **respectively**, Table 1, column 5), but more than three times larger at Cuxhaven (standard deviation of 3.7 cm), and even larger at Delfzijl (standard deviation of 7 cm). This suggests that the North Sea may be more sensitive to the processes responsible for these changes. Note also that the environmental setting of Cuxhaven and Delfzijl in the Elbe and Ems estuaries, respectively, could introduce some amplification (Winterwerp and Wang, 2013; Winterwerp et al., 2013).

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For the North West Atlantic, the variations of normalized M_2 amplitude are presented in Figure 2 (b) and (c). The first feature is that M_2 amplitude varies differently in the North West and in the North East Atlantic. The second is that there are discrepancies between stations, even when close to each other (e.g. Atlantic City and Lewes). We split the stations into two groups, in order to facilitate the detection of patterns, each being consistent in terms of trends: one with positive trend (group 1 **in** ~~on~~ Figure 2 (b)), the other one with negative or no trend (group 2 **in** ~~on~~ Figure 2 (c)).

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The first group (with positive trends) consists of 9 stations (Figure 2 (b)). Three outcomes can be highlighted. The first is that M_2 amplitude increases overall since 1900. However, between 1980 and 1990, all the stations slightly decrease, and since 1990 they increase again. The second outcome is that the rate of increase is very different from one station to another (keeping in mind that M_2 is normalized by standard deviation **in** ~~on~~ Figure 2). Portland is increasing 1.4 times faster than Charleston (standard deviations being respectively of 1.82 and 1.33 cm), and 28 times faster than Key West (standard deviation being only ~~of~~ 0.36 cm at Key West). The very slow increase **of** M_2 at Key West is due to a small tidal amplitude (i.e. only 17.5 cm ~~of~~ mean amplitude for M_2 , see Table 1, column **65**). The large increase in Portland may be explained by some amplification in the Gulf of Maine. In many semienclosed basins, resonance leads to tidal amplification (Talke and Jay, 2020; Haigh et al., 2019). In the Gulf of Maine, Ray and Talke (2019) reported that the tides in the **G**ulf are in resonance, with a natural resonance frequency close to the N_2 tide (Garrett, 1972; Godin, 1993). Tides may be then very sensitive to any changes in the environment (e.g. basin configuration - shape, depth - but also external forcing). The third outcome, and probably the most interesting one, is related to the values of M_2 at Eastport, Portland and New York in the 1860s, estimated from Ray and Talke (2019) and Talke et al. (2014), and represented (after normalization) as stars on Figure 2 (b). These values are not consistent with the positive linear trends **s** observed since 1900, which provides some **consistency with confirmation of** the hypothesis formulated from the **analyses of the data prior to the XXth century in Figure 2 (a): long-term Brest analysis: climate-seale** variations **introduce** ~~show~~ some breaks or change points, M_2 increasing and then decreasing, depending on the periods considered. The decrease

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observed between 1870s and 1920s at the four stations (Brest, Eastport, Portland, New York) suggests a possible large-scale signal, in addition to local processes.

The second group (with negative or no trend) consists of 4 stations (Figure 2 (c)). Two points can be highlighted. The first is that M_2 decreases overall for Halifax, Newport and Lewes. This is less clear for Atlantic City, which is quite noisy and shows no significant trend. The second point is that at Halifax, M_2 values in 1896-1897 are higher than those after 1920. This suggests that the decrease may have started before the XXth century. **Note that at Halifax, there is a long gap in the data recording (1898-1919), which raises the possibility of an instrumentation origin in the observed decrease of the M_2 amplitude.**

3.2 Estimated trends

We estimated the trends for M_2 amplitude at each station, using linear regression. We computed the trends over two periods: 1910-2018, which corresponds roughly to the whole period of data (only 5 stations start before 1910), and 1990-2018, which corresponds to recent decades. Some tests showed that the later results were not very sensitive to the start date (moving 1990 to 1985 or 1995). The results are summarised in Table 1 (columns 7 and 8) and Figures 3 and 4.

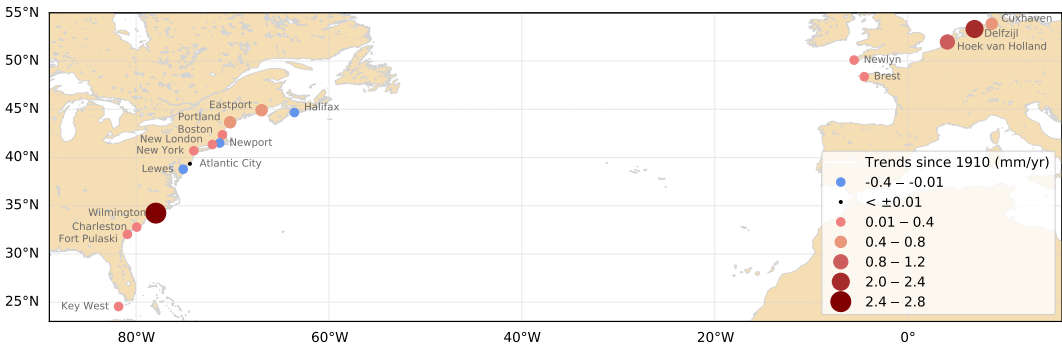


Figure 3. Estimated trends in M_2 amplitude over the period 1910-2018

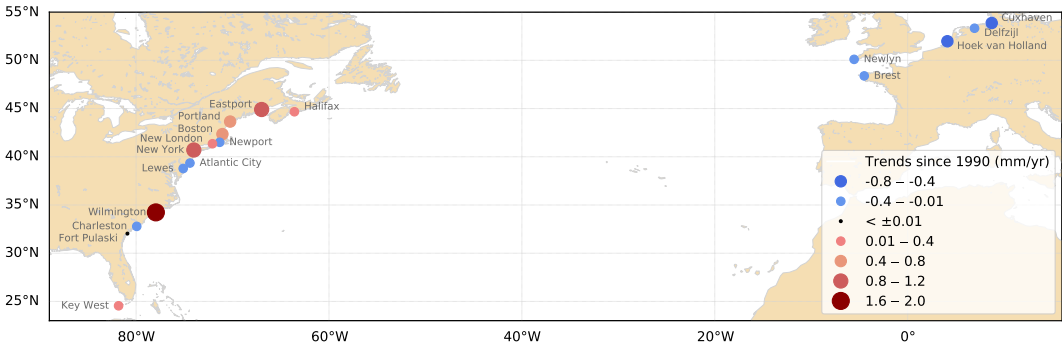


Figure 4. Estimated trends in M_2 amplitude over the period 1990-2018

225 The trends estimated from 1910 vary significantly from one station to another (Figure 3). They are positive overall (up to 2.5 mm/yr at Wilmington), which is consistent with previous findings (Araújo and Pugh, 2008; Ray, 2009; Woodworth, 2010; Müller et al., 2011; Ray and Talke, 2019). They are slightly negative at three stations (Halifax, Newport, Lewes), and one station shows no significant trend (Atlantic City). The estimates are statistically consistent with those found previously by different authors (e.g. 0.15 ± 0.02 mm/yr at Newlyn compared to 0.19 ± 0.03 mm/yr in Araújo and Pugh (2008), $0.56 \pm$
230 0.03 mm/yr in Portland, compared to 0.59 ± 0.04 mm/yr in Ray and Talke (2019)). In the North East Atlantic, the trends are consistent with each other (in terms of sign), which is not surprising as the stations vary similarly (Figure 2 (a)).

The trends estimated since 1990 are quite different from those estimated since 1910 (Figures 3 and 4), with more stations with negative trends: 9 stations out of 18 have post-1990 negative trends, whereas only 3 stations out of 18 have post-1910
235 negative trends (Table 1, columns 7 and 8). In the North East Atlantic, they all switch from positive to negative trends. This underlines (1) some recent changes in recent decades (Müller, 2011; Ray and Talke, 2019) and (2) the difficulty to estimate long-term trends from short records (i.e. less than 30 years), especially if the data are noisy (interannual variability) and the underlying processes non-linear (change points).

240 The largest trends since 1990 are mainly observed in semi-closed basins: Wilmington in the Cape Fear River Estuary, Delfzijl in Ems estuary, Cuxhaven in Elbe estuary, Eastport and Portland in the Gulf of Maine. This suggests a possible amplification due to resonance effects (e.g. Gulf of Maine) and/or propagation in shallow waters (e.g. Cuxhaven), in addition to local effects. The stations located in estuaries or in a harbour with a channel may have been subject to dredging. Channel deepening increases the water depths, which reduces the effective drag, and leads to tidal range amplification. This effect may be particularly large
245 in estuaries (Ralston et al., 2019; Talke and Jay, 2020), and may explain the larger trends at Wilmington (Famikhali and Talke, 2016) and Delfzijl. Finally, the shifting locations of amphidromic points could also play a role (Haigh et al., 2019). In the North Sea, different authors show a possible migration of the present day amphidromes, under a 2 m sea-level rise scenario (Pickering et al., 2012; Idier et al., 2017).

250 The trends have to be interpreted very carefully as the M_2 variations are not linear, and may increase or decrease depending on the years; as a consequence, the estimated trends depend strongly on the period considered to estimate it. The interannual variability also plays an important role, and when substantial, trends can vary depending on the computational period. For example, at Cuxhaven, the large interannual variability leads to a large uncertainty on the trend computed since 1990 (-0.47 ± 0.41 mm/yr).

4.1 Possible link with mean sea level rise

The MSL rise could partly explain M_2 changes. Simulations show that MSL rise can result in an change of M_2 up to $\pm 10\%$ of the rise (Pickering et al., 2017; Idier et al., 2017; Schindelegger et al., 2018). Schindelegger et al. (2018) show that the sign of the observed M_2 trend is correctly reproduced at 80% of the tide gauges on a global scale, but their simulated trends
 260 tend to differ from observations by a factor 3 to 5, i.e. ~~their~~. ~~Their~~ simulations underestimate the M_2 response to MSL rise in terms of magnitude. Schindelegger et al. (2018) conclude that “magnitudes of observed and modeled M_2 trends are within a factor of 4 (or less) from each other in nearly 50% of the considered cases”. ~~These strong discrepancies between simulations and observations have to be carefully interpreted. (1) Numerical simulations are great tools to perform sensitivity studies and understand processes, but results in quantitative terms may be far from ground truth for many reasons as wide spatial resolution~~
 265 ~~(~ 10 km in Schindelegger et al. (2018)), coarse bathymetry, rough parameterizations, tuning parameters, inadequate forcing, lack of coupling (e.g. with atmosphere).~~ (2) The large discrepancies between the simulations and the observations ~~also~~ strongly suggest that MSL rise is not the only process that may explain M_2 changes – other large-scale processes, in addition to local processes, may also play a role.

270 ~~The MSL obtained from tide gauges include a solid Earth component as they are referenced to the land. Consequently, if the land is subsiding, MSL as observed with a tide gauge will increase (Wöppelmann and Marcos, 2016). Estimates of vertical land motion from SONEL (Système d’Observation du Niveau des Eaux Littorales, www.sonel.org, Santamaría-Gómez et al. (2017)) show that the stations considered here are quite stable or falling slightly in the North East Atlantic (i.e. vertical land movements smaller than -1 mm/yr). In the North West Atlantic, they are falling more strongly (i.e. trends up to -2 mm/yr),~~
 275 ~~except in the Gulf of Maine, where the land tends slightly to rise. Note that these trends are computed on relatively short periods (i.e. generally < 15 years), making it difficult to infer robust trends over the last century.~~

Figure 5 shows the annual MSL ~~(, after removing the average over the period 1910-2010, and filtering with a 9-year time win-~~
 280 ~~dows), with and without land movement correction. The correction is applied linearly from SONEL estimates (Santamaría-Gómez et al. (2017) solution), and leads to more consistent MSL trends at the basin scale (Figure 5 (b)). Note that in the following, MSL is systematically corrected for land movement.~~ The correlations between M_2 and MSL indicate that M_2 varies strongly with MSL (see section 4.2). However, M_2 variations show some variability in the North East Atlantic (Figure 2 (a)), which may not be explained with MSL rise alone.

4.2 Possible link with **MSL and** climates indices

285 Other processes than MSL rise may impact the tide (see section 1), ~~such~~ as the atmospheric circulation and the ocean stratification. Ocean and atmosphere are fully coupled, and air-sea fluxes are responsible for the exchange of momentum, water (evaporation and precipitation budget) and heat at their interface. Among the wide range of possible interactions, two mech-

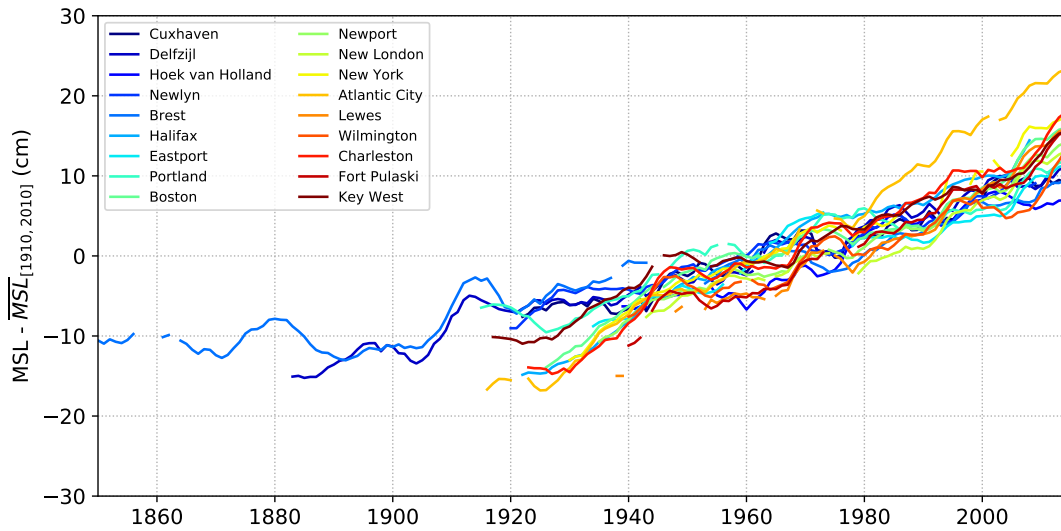


Figure 5. Annual Mean Sea Levels (MSL), after removing the average over the period 1910-2010, ~~(a) without land-movement correction (b)~~ ~~with land-movement correction~~. MSL values are filtered using ~~over a~~ 9-year ~~time~~ windows.

anisms have been explored for their ability to modify the tide. (1) The momentum flux (wind stress) and the gradient of sea level pressure which acts on the barotropic tide and (2) the water and heat fluxes which induce changes in both temperature and salinity distribution in the ocean. The latter effect acts on the stratification which in turn could impact the tide in two different ways. The first way is the internal tide generation which transfers energy from barotropic and baroclinic motion and modifies surface tidal expression (Colosi and Munk, 2006). However, in the present study, most of the observations comes from coastal stations sheltered by wide continental shelves which dampen internal waves. More important is the second way: the stratification acts on the eddy viscosity profile by modifying currents profile and bottom drag over continental shelf, which in turn modify the M_2 surface expression (Kang et al., 2002; Müller, 2012; Katavouta et al., 2016).

Here, we focus on the effect of the atmospheric circulation on tide. We used pressure indices (NAO and AO) that are relevant to represent atmospheric circulation. The NAO index represents the difference of normalized sea level pressure between the Azores high pressure system and the Iceland low pressure one (Hurrell, 1995). It indicates the redistribution of atmospheric masses between the Subtropical Atlantic and the Arctic (Hurrell and Deser, 2009). In the North East Atlantic, the similarity between the variations of the low-frequency winter NAO index and those of M_2 (Figure 6) suggests a possible impact of large-scale atmospheric circulation on the tide. The NAO index varies from positive to negative phases. Filtering the interannual variability, the NAO index tends overall to decrease between 1910 and 1970, then increase until 1990, and once again decrease. The same way, M_2 amplitude tends to decrease up to 1960, then increase until 1990, and once again decrease. These similar patterns raise a possible connection between NAO and M_2 variation, already mentioned by Müller (2011) on the basis

of qualitative criteria. In the following, we bring quantitative insights on the possible influence of NAO.

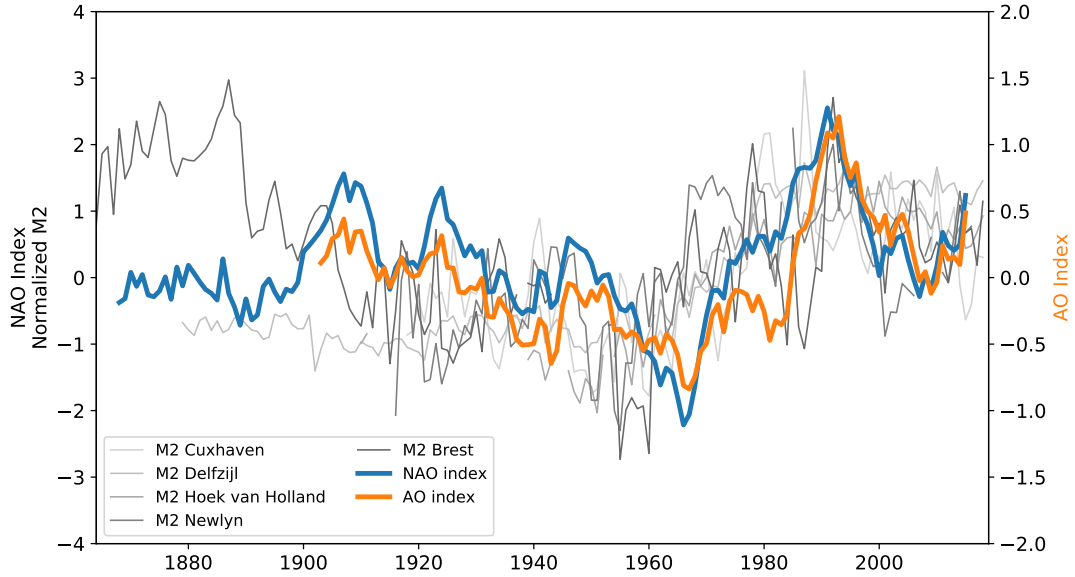


Figure 6. Low frequency winter NAO and AO indices, obtained with a 9-year mean filter. Normalized annual M_2 amplitudes in the North East Atlantic (from Figure 2 (a)) are also plotted in grey.

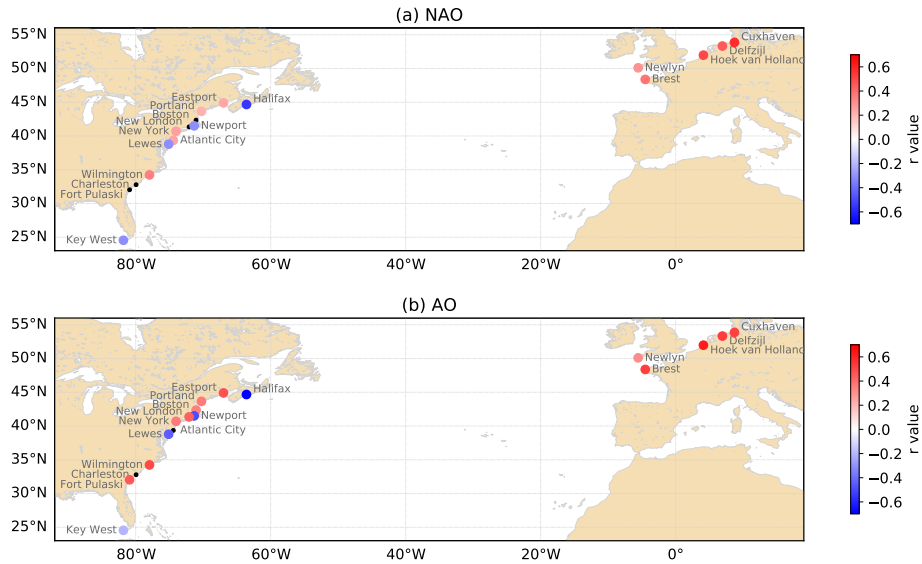


Figure 7. Correlation (r -value) since 1910 between M_2 and (a) North Atlantic Oscillation and (b) Arctic Oscillation. Black dots are stations with no significant correlation. M_2 , NAO and AO are filtered using the same time window (9 years).

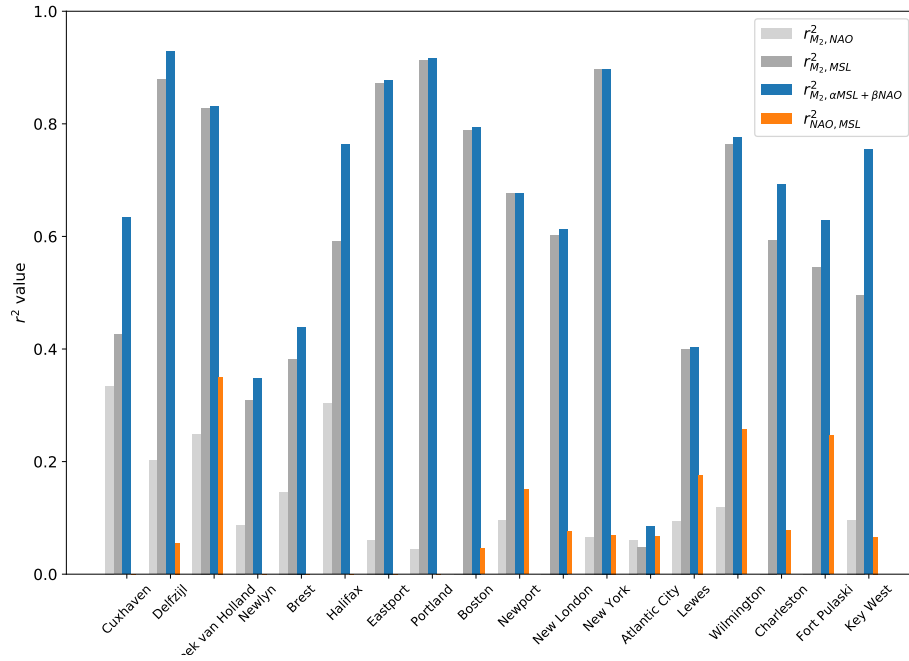


Figure 8. Variance explained (r^2 -value) since 1910 between M_2 and NAO, M_2 and MSL, M_2 and fitted model $\alpha MSL + \beta NAO$ (model 2), NAO and MSL. M_2 , NAO and MSL are filtered using on the same time window (9 years). Note that there is no orange bar for NAO-MSL correlation when the correlation is not significant ($p > 0.05$).

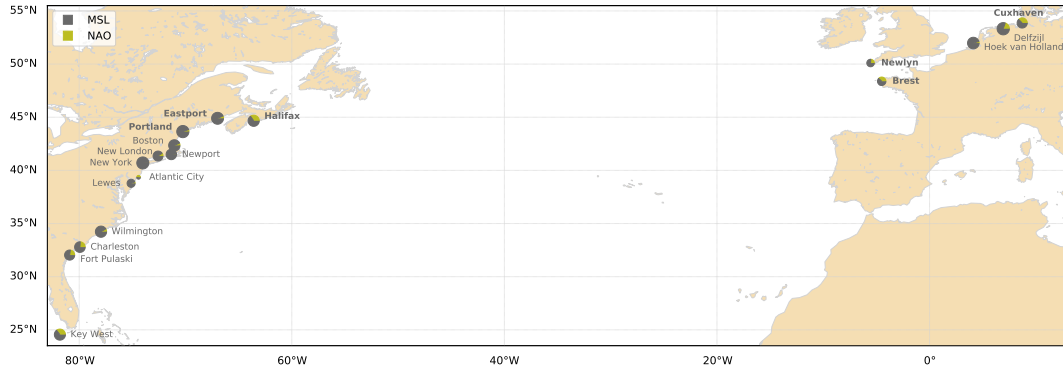


Figure 9. Relative contribution of α compared to β in the fitted model $\alpha MSL + \beta NAO$. Black dots are stations with no significant M_2 -NAO correlation. The size of each large dot is proportional to the correlation between M_2 and the fitted model. Stations with no MSL-NAO correlations are labelled in bold.

We computed the correlations (r -value) between normalized M_2 and climate indices, NAO and AO (Figure 7). M_2 , NAO and AO are filtered using on the same time window (9 years). The correlations are computed since 1910, to have similar periods for all the stations. The correlations are considered as significant only if the p -value is lower than 0.05 (95% significance level).

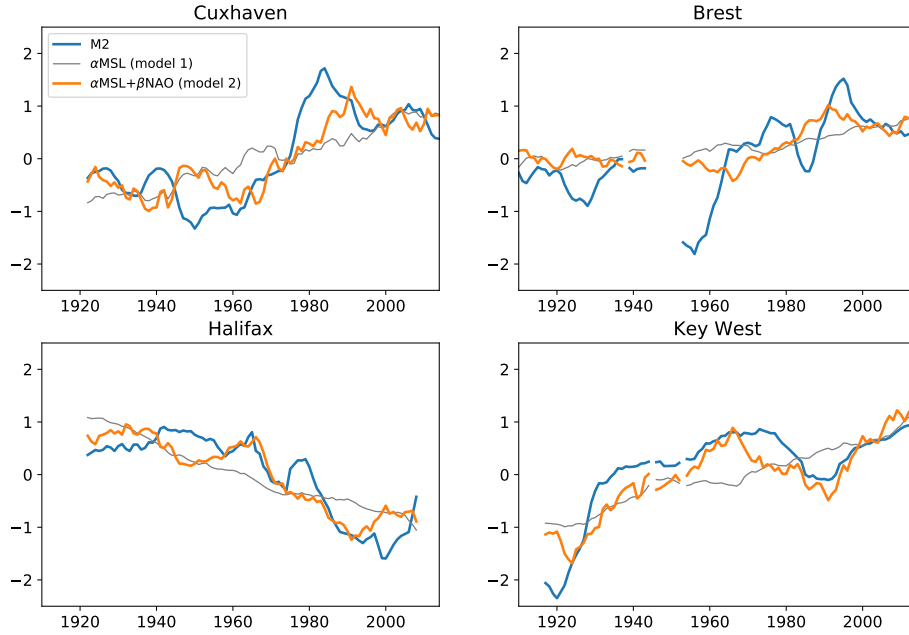


Figure 10. Variations since 1910 of M_2 , α MSL (model 1), α MSL+ β NAO (model 2). M_2 , NAO and MSL are filtered using on the same time window (9 years).

The results are the following: (1) for NAO, 14 stations out of 18 show significant correlation. Note that at Brest, the correlation is significant since 1910, but not since 1864 (NAO index used in this study starts only in 1864). This can be explained by the M_2 larger amplitude over all the XIXth century, which decreases between 1890 and 1910 (Figure 2 (a)), possibly due to harbour development and dykes construction (see section 3.1). (2) In the North East Atlantic, all the stations are positively
315 correlated with NAO. (3) The strongest correlations (i.e. greater than 0.5) are in the northern part of the North Atlantic, with strong positive correlations at Cuxhaven and Hoek van Holland, and strong negative correlation at Halifax (-0.55). (4) For AO, we found similar, but overall larger, r-values. This is not surprising as these two indices are highly correlated.

To go further in the relative contribution of MSL and NAO in M_2 variability, we fitted two linear regression models on M_2
320 variations. In the following, M_2 , MSL and NAO are filtered over 9-year time windows and normalized. ~~We did not consider stations without M_2 -NAO correlation (Boston, New London, Charleston, Fort Pulaski, black dots in on Figure 7).~~ At all the other stations, we fitted M_2 variations with a MSL linear regression model (model 1), and a MSL and NAO multiple linear regression model (model 2). Models 1 and 2 may be expressed as:

$$\text{Model 1} = \alpha_1 MSL \quad (2)$$

$$Model\ 2 = \alpha MSL + \beta NAO \tag{3}$$

The correlations between M_2 and using model 1 (MSL) and model 2 (NAO and MSL) are presented in Figure 8. We checked if that there was no-significant correlation between NAO and MSL at the stations (there is no correlation at 7 6 stations, and r-value is between 0.2 and 0.7 0.6 at 7 8 stations, see Figure 8 and discussion below). The results are the following: (1) M_2 varies at first order with MSL (Figure 8). (2) The introduction of the NAO (model 2) allows to increase the predictive performance of the model, beyond the inherent effect of adding an additional regression parameter. Indeed, on average, the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) is 106.3 99.9 for model 2, instead of 118.6 112.7 for model 1. On average, the r^2 -value is 0.65 0.67 for model 2 instead of 0.59 0.61 for model 1. At some stations, the increase is quite large. For example at Cuxhaven, the r^2 -value jumps from 0.42 to 0.63 0.64 between model 1 and 2. (3) The ratio $\frac{\beta}{\alpha+\beta}$ represents roughly the relative NAO contribution of the NAO compared to the total effect of MSL and NAO (Figure 9), as MSL and NAO are normalized. We found a significant contribution at some stations (e.g. more than 30% at Cuxhaven and Halifax), whereas it is negligible at others (e.g. lower-than only 5% at Portland). 8 stations out of 18 show large NAO contribution ($> 20\%$). The North East Atlantic seems to be more sensitive to the NAO. Note that the interpretation of the results is tricky when MSL-NAO correlation is significant (orange bars in Figure 8). For example, at Hoek van Holland, the relative NAO contribution is very small, mainly because MSL and NAO are highly correlated ($r = -0.65$ $r = 0.59$). Figure 10 shows M_2 variations along with the predictions from the two models, at all four the stations where the NAO contribution is significant ($\frac{\beta}{\alpha+\beta} > 0.25$) and the correlation between M_2 and model 2 is large enough ($r > 0.3$). At Cuxhaven, Halifax and Key West, the model 2 (MSL and NAO dependent) better captures the M_2 variations than the model 1 (MSL dependent); at Brest, the improvement is less significant. The trend-switch observed since the 1990 in the North East Atlantic could be partly explained by the influence of the NAO on the tide.

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These results suggest that a NAO-related mechanism may explain part of the variability of M_2 . The underlying mechanism could be due to the difference of spatial distribution of water level, depending on the NAO index. Figure 11 (a) shows the average sea-level pressure during the period 1850-2015, derived from the Twentieth Century Reanalysis (20CR) (Compo et al., 2011; Slivinski et al., 2019). A positive NAO winter (e.g. 1989) corresponds to a situation with a stronger pressure gradient pressure than average, between the two pressure systems of Azores and Iceland (Figure 11 (c)). By contrast, a negative NAO winter (e.g. 1969) corresponds to a weaker gradient pressure than usual (Figure 11 (b)). This way, from one year to another, the large-scale atmospheric masses are distributed differently, and as a consequence, the water volumes are also distributed differently in the Northern Atlantic. In a situation of NAO^+ , the surface waters are pushed onshore, moving from Iceland to the European coasts of France, Spain and Portugal. Figure 12 (a) shows the redistribution of the sea-level pressure, between two years with high and low NAO indices (here 1989 and 1969). Note that this is an extreme situation, as these years have strong positive and negative indices. The changes in terms of water level may vary from -15 cm to 24 cm, assuming an inverse barometer response of sea level. This variation of a few tens of cm is probably negligible offshore, but may have some impact on tide propagation along the continental shelves and in shallow waters. It could also shift slightly the amphidromic points.

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Assuming that these changes have a similar impact (in terms of magnitude) on M_2 as MSL changes, that is, $\pm 10\%$ in shallow
360 waters according to recent simulations (Pickering et al., 2017; Idier et al., 2017), we find that they can yield changes in M_2
amplitude up to a few centimeters. In other words, their order of magnitude is in agreement with the changes observed in M_2
(Table 1).

We conducted further investigations in the North Sea to test if the magnitude of sea-level pressure changes induced by large-
365 scale atmospheric circulation (Figure 12 (a), a dozen few-tens of hPa) can generate the observed decadal-scale M_2 changes at
Cuxhaven (Figure 12 (b), few cm). Note that M_2 changes due to large-scale atmospheric circulation are only a small part of the
total observed changes (20 cm at Cuxhaven), as the changes are also due to MSL rise. The underlying mechanism invoked in
the present paper (i.e. the influence of the atmospheric circulation on the tide) is very close to the one described in Huess and
Andersen (2001), except that we are considering a longer time scale (decadal instead of seasonal). Huess and Andersen (2001)
370 explain partly M_2 seasonal variations through the effect of atmospheric circulation. They ran ~~run~~ a barotropic model in the
North Sea, forced (1) with tides only and (2) with both tides and meteorological fields. Their results show that the M_2 seasonal
modulation is better captured when the model is forced with both tides and meteorological fields (their Figure 2, top right,
amplitude higher than 10 cm in the German Bight) rather than with tides only (their Figure 2, top left, amplitude lower than 5
cm in the German Bight). It is important to underline that their model is barotropic, and that there is no effect of stratification,
375 which may also play a role in M_2 changes (see 3.3.6 in the review of Haigh et al. (2019)). At seasonal scale, we computed
monthly (instead of yearly) M_2 variations at Cuxhaven over 5 years (2010-2015), and we obtained results in agreement with
Huess and Andersen (2001). That is, a seasonal cycle with a range of around 15 cm, maximum in summer and minimum in
winter (Figure 12 (d)). According to Huess and Andersen (2001), this seasonal cycle is partly due to the atmosphere circulation.
We then computed the differences of monthly sea-level pressure between January and July 2015 (Figure 12 (c)), and obtained
380 values close to the ones in Figure 12 (a) in terms of magnitude (a dozen of hPa). This shows that the order of magnitude of
sea-level pressure changes between a NAO^+ and NAO^- years (Figure 12 (a), a dozen few-tens of hPa) may lead to the M_2
observed changes at Cuxhaven (Figure 12 (b), a few cm, similar to its seasonal variations). The assumption that changes of a
dozen few-tens of hPa in the North Sea Northern-Atlantic may generate a sea level response of few centimeters is reasonable,
but dedicated simulations should be conducted to confirm or discard the water volume redistribution hypothesis. Note that here,
385 we followed the hypothesis mentioned in Huess and Andersen (2001), who consider that the atmospheric circulation may be
partly responsible of M_2 seasonal variations in the North Sea. But there are other hypotheses; Müller et al. (2014) and Gräwe
et al. (2014) rather consider that the stratification plays a major role in the North Sea. However, it is difficult to disentangle the
respective contribution of each of these two processes in M_2 seasonal changes, only from the available observations.

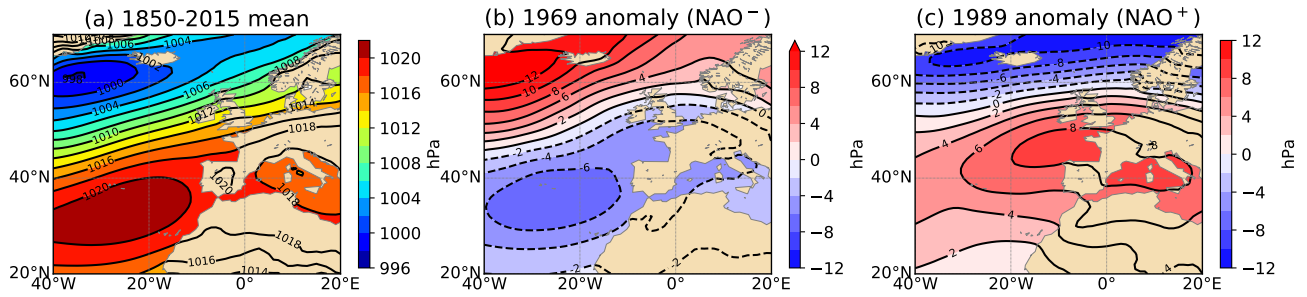


Figure 11. Winter sea-level pressure over the North East Atlantic (a) average over 1850-2015 (b) anomaly in 1969 (NAO^-) (c) anomaly in 1989 (NAO^+). Contour intervals are every 2 hPa.

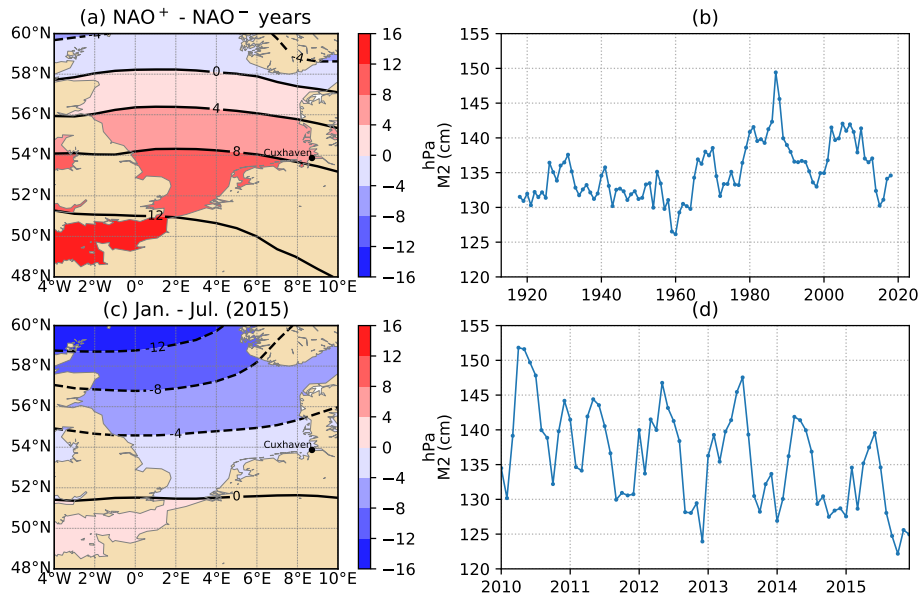


Figure 12. At decadal time scale: (a) Difference of winter sea-level pressure between 1989 (NAO^+) and 1969 (NAO^-) in the North Sea (b) Annual M_2 amplitude at Cuxhaven from 1918 to 2018. At seasonal time scale: (c) Difference of monthly sea-level pressure between January and July 2015 in the North Sea (d) Monthly M_2 amplitude at Cuxhaven from January 2010 to December 2015. Contour intervals are every 4 hPa in (a) and (c).

390 5 Conclusions

We investigated the long-term changes of the principal tidal component M_2 over the North Atlantic coasts. We analysed 18 tide gauges with time series starting no later than 1940. The longest is Brest with 165 years of data. We carefully processed the data, particularly to remove the 18.6-year nodal modulation.

395 We found that M_2 variations were consistent at all the stations in the North East Atlantic (Cuxhaven, Delfzijl, Hoek van Hol-
land, Newlyn, Brest), whereas ~~variations some discrepancies~~ appear ~~between stations~~ in the North West Atlantic. The changes
started long before the XXth century, and are not linear. The trends vary significantly from ~~one a~~ station to another; they are
overall positive, up to 2.5 mm/yr, or slightly negative. Since 1990, in many stations, the trends switch from positive to negative
400 on short records, i.e. less than 30 years, especially if the data are noisy (interannual variability) and the underlying processes
non-linear (change points).

Concerning the causes of the observed changes, M_2 varies primarily with the MSL, but MSL rise is not sufficient to ex-
plain the variations alone. The similarity between the North Atlantic Oscillation and M_2 variations in the North East Atlantic
405 suggests a possible influence of the large-scale atmospheric circulation on the tide. Our statistical analysis confirms large cor-
relations at all the stations in the North East Atlantic. The trend-switch observed since 1990 could be the signature of the
large-scale atmospheric circulation on ~~the~~ M_2 tide. The underlying mechanism would be a different spatial distribution of wa-
ter level from one year to another, depending on the low-frequency sea-level pressure patterns, and impacting the propagation
of the tide in the North Atlantic basin. In the future, dedicated modelling studies should be undertaken to confirm or discard
410 this hypothesis. These simulations should also allow to estimate the effect of the wind (through the Ekman current) and ~~the~~
currents on M_2 changes (Devlin et al., 2018).

In this study, we focused only on M_2 amplitude. A similar analysis on the phase lag would draw a more complete picture
of the M_2 variations (Müller, 2011; Woodworth, 2010; Ray and Talke, 2019). Other constituents are also affected. Results
415 show that S_2 amplitude decreases at all the stations located in the North West Atlantic, and in contrast, tend to increase in the
North East Atlantic (not shown). The large-scale decrease of S_2 observed in the North West Atlantic is consistent with previous
studies (~~e.g. Ray, 2006, in the Gulf of Maine~~) ~~;-e.g. Ray(2006) in the Gulf of Maine~~. Further investigations should be definitely
conducted to extend this work to more constituents.

420 The historic data show that the changes started long before the XXth century. This conclusion would not have been possible
without the huge work of data rescue undertaken over the past decades (e.g. Pouvreau et al., 2006; Pouvreau, 2008; Bradshaw
et al., 2016). This underlines the great importance of sea level data archaeology, which allows to extend and improve histori-
cal datasets (Pouvreau, 2008; Woodworth et al., 2010; Marcos et al., 2011; Talke and Jay, 2013, 2017; Ray and Talke, 2019;
Bradshaw et al., 2015, 2020; Haigh et al., 2019). This is essential for studies related to climate change.

425

Finally, we should mention several additional limitations and perspectives in this study. (1) We processed the time series con-
sidering that they were quality controlled. A fuller analysis of the data quality before processing would probably be valuable.
(2) We did not investigate the history of each station. There are probably some local changes (e.g. environment or instrumenta-
tion) that may explain a part of the variability of M_2 amplitude, and some discrepancies between stations. (3) The tide gauges

430 are located mainly in harbours. They are affected at the same time by local and regional/global scale changes, that are difficult to separate. Moreover, they may be not representative of changes offshore. A similar study based on satellite altimetry data would probably be of great interest, even if temporal scale for satellite data is still rather short (i.e. < 30 years) compared to climate-scale processes. (4) We focused mainly on the UHSLC dataset, which consists of 249 stations in the Atlantic Ocean. Other relevant stations (that are not in this dataset) may be considered in future studies, ~~among them on the US coast Sandy~~
 435 ~~Hook and Long Island Sound (Kemp et al., 2017)~~. (5) We did not investigate the impact of storminess on the tide. Dedicated studies are necessary to estimate if changes in storminess could affect significantly tidal constituents. (6) We used only winter AO and NAO indices, which show more variability than annual indices. A similar analysis with annual indices shows similar results for the correlation with AO or NAO (positive correlation on the North East Atlantic). With annual rather than monthly indices, the difference of pressure fields will decrease, and as a consequence, the magnitude of the sea-level response will also
 440 decrease. Further investigations should be conducted on this point.

Appendix A: Nodal modulation

The M_2 component is subject to a 18.6-year modulation, separated from a neighboring line in the tidal potential (m_2) whose Doodson number differs in its 5th frequency (255 555 and 255 545 for M_2 and m_2 , respectively) (Doodson and Warburg,
 445 1941; Pugh and Woodworth, 2014). This 5th frequency corresponds to N' , the negative of the mean longitude of the Moon ascending node - hence the "nodal" term - whose period is 18.6 years. Note that there is also another component close to M_2 , whose Doodson number differs only from the 5th frequency (255 565), but it is negligible, its amplitude in the tidal potential being only 0.05% of M_2 , whereas m_2 amplitude is 3.7 % of M_2 (Simon, 2007, 2013). With one year of hourly data, the two components M_2 and m_2 cannot be separated by a yearly harmonic analysis (at least 18.6 years are necessary). As a
 450 consequence, M_2 amplitude is modulated by m_2 . However, we can estimate this modulation, and remove it. The harmonic formulation is expressed schematically as a sum of harmonic components

$$h(t) = \sum_i a_i \cos(V_i(t) - \kappa_i) \quad (\text{A1})$$

where $h(t)$ is the sea level height at time t , $V_i(t)$ is the astronomical argument (computed from Doodson number) and a_i , κ_i the amplitude and phase lag of each component. Considering that M_2 and m_2 are very close in terms of frequency, we can
 455 assume that their phase lags are similar ($\kappa_{M_2} \simeq \kappa_{m_2}$). As their difference of astronomical arguments is $V_{m_2} - V_{M_2} = N' + \pi$, the M_2 and m_2 contributions to the total water level may be expressed as

$$h_{M_2}(t) + h_{m_2}(t) = h_{M_2}(t)[1 + f_{nod} \cos(N' + \pi)] \quad (\text{A2})$$

where f_{nod} , the nodal modulation, is the ratio of the amplitude of m_2 and M_2 . As M_2 and m_2 are very close in terms of frequency, f_{nod} is generally considered as close to the ratio of their amplitude in the tidal potential, A_{m2} and A_{M2}

$$460 \quad f_{nod} = \frac{a_{m2}}{a_{M2}} \simeq \frac{A_{m2}}{A_{M2}} \simeq 0.037. \quad (A3)$$

The negative of the mean longitude of the Moon ascending node is expressed simply as a function of time (p. 116 in Simon (2007), p. 112 in Simon (2013))

$$N' = -N = 234.555 + 1934.1363T + 0.0021T^2 \quad (A4)$$

with N' in degrees, and T the time elapsed since 2000/01/01 at 12:00, expressed in Julian centuries (36 525 days).

465

The tidal program we used (MAS) corrected M_2 applying the usual 3.7% nodal modulation (Eq. (A3)). However, this value may vary significantly from one station to another; Ray (2006) reported values ranging from 2.3 % to 3.6 % in the Gulf of Maine. Here, we computed directly f_{nod} from the observed data, proceeding as follows. (1) We added the default nodal correction $1 + 0.037\cos(N' + \pi)$ to the M_2 variations. (2) We detrended the obtained signal removing the last Intrinsic Mode Function (IMF) of an Empirical Mode Decomposition (EMD) (Huang et al., 1998); note that the EMD is an analysis tool which partitions a series into 'modes' (i.e. IMFs), the last one being the trend of the signal. (3) We fitted a function $a_{m2} \cos(N' + \pi)$ to this detrended signal to estimate a_{m2} , N' being expressed as in Eq. (A4). (4) We finally computed f_{nod} as the ratio between m_2 and M_2 amplitudes (Eq. (A3)). Figure A1 (a) shows an example of estimate of M_2 modulation at Newlyn: the fit leads to a nodal modulation of 3.3 %. Note that this value is consistent with Woodworth (2010) (3.2 %), whereas Woodworth et al. (1991) gave a slightly different value (2.8 %). Figure A1 (b) shows the impact of this value rather than the default one: oscillations of 18.6 years are clearly reduced. Note that in this study, the m_2 amplitude - and then the nodal correction - could have been computed from the full time series harmonic analysis, as records are longer than 18.6 years. However, the method presented here to compute the nodal correction can be applied even for time series shorter than 18.6 years.

480 The computed nodal modulations are summarised in Table 1 (column 6). They vary from 0.8 to 4.1 %. Note that these values are consistent with those obtained by previous authors (Ray, 2006; Müller, 2011; Woodworth, 2010; Ray and Talke, 2019). Only the value at Charleston differs significantly: 3.0 % in our study compared to 3.7% in Müller (2011).

Appendix B: Time series of annual M_2 amplitude at all the stations

485 *Author contributions.* LPG analysed the data and wrote the paper. PL and GW contributed to the interpretation of the data and the writing of the paper.

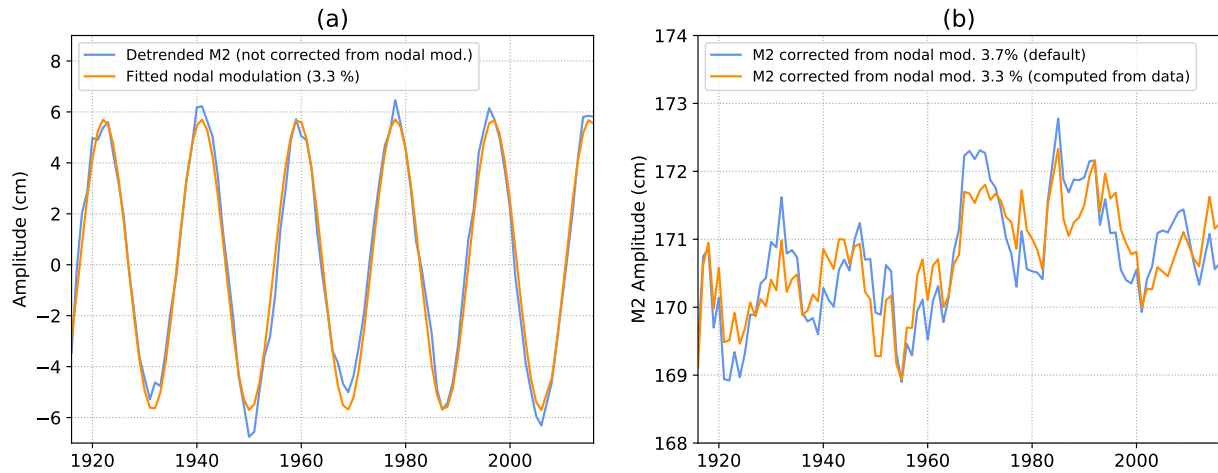


Figure A1. (a) Estimation of the nodal modulation of M_2 amplitude (mean removed) at Newlyn (b) Impact on M_2 amplitude of the nodal modulation correction at Newlyn. M_2 is detrended in (a) to better fit the nodal modulation.

Competing interests. The authors declare no competing interests.

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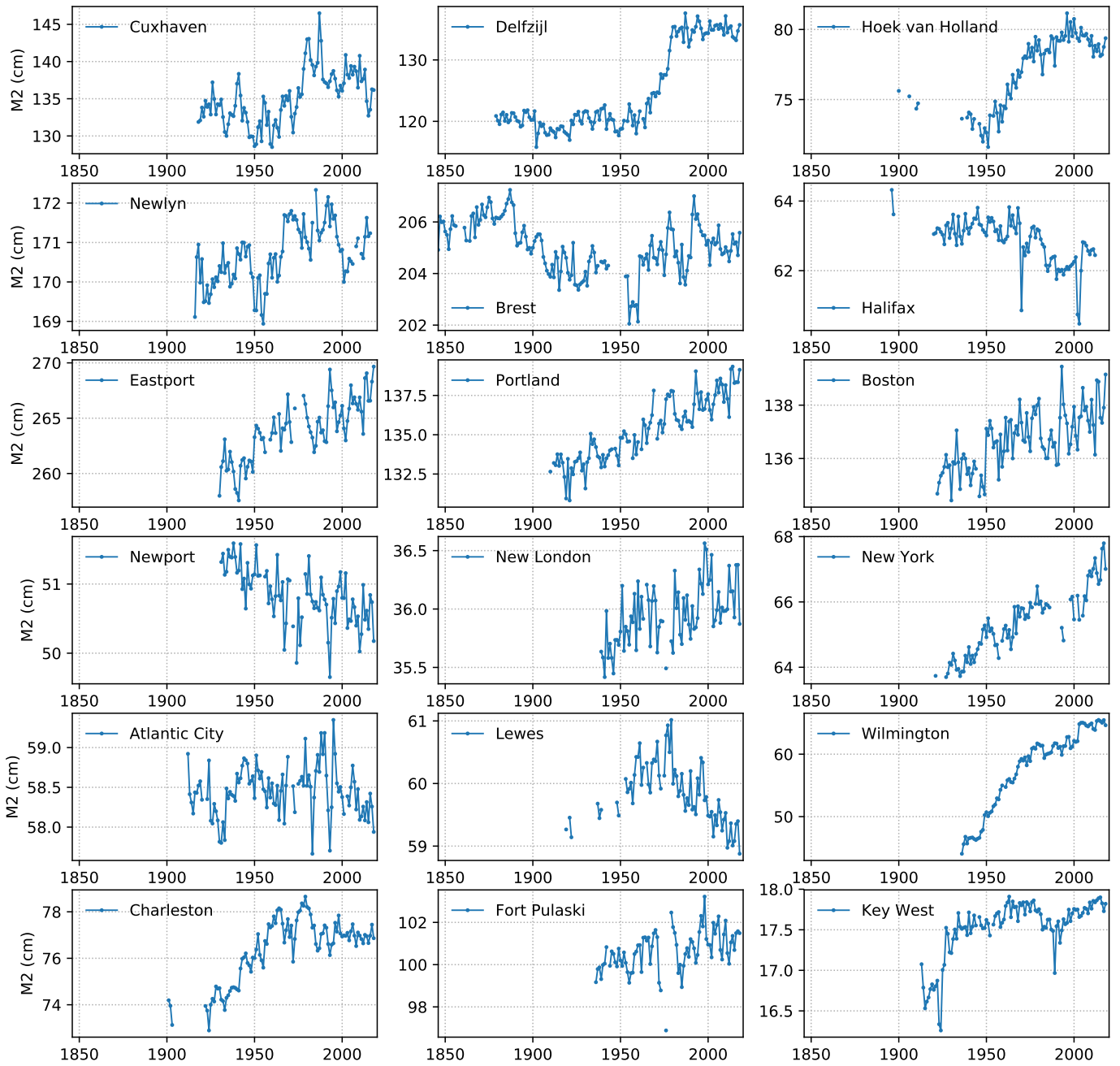


Figure B1. Annual M_2 amplitude at the 18 selected tide gauges

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