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# Reconciling two alternative mechanisms behind bi-decadal variability in the North Atlantic

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- 17
- MANUSCRIPT ACCEPTED IN PROGRESS IN OCEANOGRAPHY
- 18 Abstract:
- 19

20 Understanding the preferential timescales of variability in the North Atlantic, usually 21 associated with the Atlantic meridional overturning circulation (AMOC), is essential for 22 the prospects for decadal prediction. However, the wide variety of mechanisms 23 proposed from the analysis of climate simulations, potentially dependent on the models 24 themselves, has stimulated the debate of which processes take place in reality. One 25 mechanism receiving increasing attention, identified both in idealised models and 26 observations, is a westward propagation of subsurface buoyancy anomalies that impact 27 the AMOC through a basin-scale intensification of the zonal density gradient, enhancing 28 the northward transport *via* thermal wind balance. In this study, we revisit a control 29 simulation from the Institut Pierre-Simon Laplace Coupled Model 5A (IPSL-CM5A), 30 characterised by a strong AMOC periodicity at 20 years, previously explained by an

upper ocean-atmosphere-sea ice coupled mode driving convection activity south of
Iceland. Our study shows that this mechanism interacts constructively with the basin
mode propagation in the subsurface. This constructive feedback may explain why bidecadal variability is so intense in this coupled model as compared to others.

### 35 **1. Introduction**

36 A growing body of studies reports dominant variability in the North Atlantic at the 20-30 and 50-70 year time scales, in models (Delworth et al., 1993; Timmermann et al., 37 38 1998; Cheng et al., 2004; Dong & Sutton, 2005; Danabasoglu, 2008; Ortega et al., 2012; Escudier et al., 2013), as well as in observational (Schlesinger & Ramankutty, 1994; 39 40 Venegas & Mysak, 2000; Rayner et al., 2003; Frankcombe et al., 2010) and proxy sources 41 (Gray et al., 2004; Sicre et al., 2008; Chylek et al., 2011; Cronin et al., 2014). Nevertheless, 42 to date, no consistent explanation succeeds in providing a common coherent 43 mechanism to any of these two preferential frequency bands.

44 One of the most challenging issues for decadal prediction is the identification of mechanisms with important impacts on climate. The AMOC is a key player for North 45 46 Atlantic multidecadal variability; however, its ultimate drivers are not yet completely understood. Since the pioneering work of Delworth et al. (1993), characterizing an 47 48 AMOC 50-year damped oscillation in an early version of the atmosphere-ocean coupled 49 model of the Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory (GFDL), which resulted from an 50 interplay between North Atlantic deep convection and salinity advection from southern 51 latitudes, many other alternative mechanisms have been identified in other models. 52 Even if many studies still support a leading role of convection on AMOC variability, the 53 feedback processes and the time-scales involved are very diverse. Also, it is not always 54 clear whether and how the AMOC adjust to changes in deep convection and deep water 55 formation (Deshayes & Frankignoul, 2005).

56 A similar mechanism to the one described for the early version of the GFDL model has been identified by Dong & Sutton (2005) in the third Hadley Centre coupled Climate 57 58 Model (HadCM3), but operating at a shorter timescale: ~25 years. Other studies 59 (Danabasoglu, 2008; Ortega et al., 2012) using respectively the Community Climate 60 System Model version 3 (CCSM3) and the coupled model European Centre Hamburg 4-61 Hamburg Ocean Primitive Equation–G (ECHO-G) link Labrador deep water formation 62 and the North Atlantic Oscillation with preferential variability at 20 years. Both support 63 a crucial role of the atmosphere through associated surface fluxes and wind-stress curl 64 forcing. Kwon and Frankignoul (2014) have revisited the former CCSM3 simulation and propose an alternative ocean-only mode instead, where bi-decadal variability results 65 66 from an interaction between the North Atlantic Current (NAC) and the equatorward deep return flow. Feedback mechanisms with the Intertropical Convergence Zone 67 68 (ITCZ) can also produce centennial AMOC modulations, as observed first by Vellinga 69 and Wu (2004) in HadCM3, and later on by Menary et al (2012) in other models. There 70 are also internal ocean mechanisms that relate AMOC variability at long timescales [up 71 to 80 years] to the export of freshwater anomalies from the Arctic into the Nordic 72 (Jungclaus et al., 2005) and Labrador Seas (Hawkins & Sutton, 2007), respectively for 73 the European Centre Hamburg Model version 5-Max Planck Institute Ocean Model 74 (ECHAM5/MPI-OM) and HadCM3. More recently, Escudier et al. (2013) have shown that 75 the East Greenland Current (EGC) intensity is paramount to explain the phase reversal 76 of a bi-decadal ocean mode from the low-resolution version of the Institut Pierre-Simon Laplace Coupled Model 5A (hereafter IPSL-CM5A), involving surface salinity advection 77 78 by the subpolar gyre as a driver of convective activity south of Iceland and subsequently 79 of the AMOC. All these mechanisms are difficult to reconcile, as they might be model-80 dependent. One common aspect identified in several models is the modulation of the AMOC and NAC strength by changes in upper ocean density anomalies at the western margin of the basin, an important region for the thermal wind relation (Tulloch & Marshall, 2012). The source region of these anomalies can however vary from one model to another, depending, for example, on the location of the main regions of convection.

86 One multidecadal mechanism consistently identified in idealized ocean models (e.g. 87 Colin de Verdière & Huck, 1999; Huck et al., 1999; te Raa & Dijkstra, 2002) is related to 88 the westward propagation of subsurface temperature anomalies across the North 89 Atlantic basin. It will be hereafter referred to as *subsurface basin mode*, to acknowledge 90 the importance of closed east and west boundaries to select the zonal wavenumbers, 91 which set the timescale of the oscillation (Sévellec and Huck, 2015). Its link with the 92 AMOC is explained by a thermal-wind driven interplay between the zonal and 93 meridional overturning circulations (te Raa & Dijkstra, 2002). This mechanism is also 94 referred to as "thermal Rossby mode", because temperature anomalies propagate 95 westwards across the mean temperature gradient, in the same way that Rossby waves 96 do across the background potential vorticity gradient field. There exist evidence of a 97 similar westward propagation in North Atlantic observations of sea-level height (e.g. 98 Tulloch et al., 2009; Vianna & Menezes, 2013), subsurface (Frankcombe et al., 2008), and 99 sea surface temperature (*Feng & Dijkstra, 2014*), with comparable basin-crossing times 100 as for the subsurface basin mode. Despite this consistency between observations, 101 modeling and theory, it is still under debate whether this interdecadal AMOC variability 102 is excited by the atmosphere or maintained by pure ocean dynamics. Whereas *Colin de* 103 *Verdière and Huck (1999) and Sévellec and Huck (2015) suggest that it can be internally* 104 forced by large-scale baroclinic instabilities, *Killworth and Blundell (2007)* and *Sévellec* 105 et al (2009) advocate for the need of an external energy source, either a local wind 106 forcing or a buoyancy exchange (e.g. heat or freshwater fluxes). Recently, Sévellec and 107 Fedorov (2013) have demonstrated that this oscillation appears as the least damped 108 multidecadal oscillatory mode in OPA (Océan PArallélisé), the oceanic component of the 109 IPSL-CM5A model. In their study, the AMOC exhibits a peak of preferential variability at 110 20 years. The damped nature of this mode could point to a necessary role of the 111 atmosphere to sustain the AMOC oscillation, although this feature could be model 112 dependent. It remains therefore unclear whether this potentially damped internal ocean mode will be present when the ocean model OPA is coupled to an atmospheric 113 114 model. Another question is whether this mode is compatible with the convection-driven 115 AMOC mechanisms described above.

116 These two intriguing questions can be addressed within the IPSL-CM5A model. Here we 117 revisit the same coupled control simulation analysed in Escudier et al. (2013) and 118 demonstrate that their upper ocean-atmosphere-sea ice coupled mechanism coexists 119 with a multidecadal subsurface basin mode like the one described in Sévellec and 120 Fedorov (2013) for the ocean component alone. Hence, new questions will be also 121 tackled: Are both modes developing independently, and interact constructively or 122 destructively over time? Otherwise, is one driving the other? Or are both coupled to 123 each other? We will show that both oscillations are intrinsically linked, as two different 124 expressions of a larger coupled mechanism.

The paper is organised as follows. The model and the coupled run are presented in Section 2. This section also includes a detailed description of the two mechanisms investigated. Section 3 assesses the presence of the subsurface basin mode in the coupled model, and Section 4 investigates the potential feedbacks between the two *a priori* different modes. Conclusions and a discussion of implications are included in section 5.

#### 131 **2. Model and theoretical basis**

#### 132 2.1 The IPSL-CM5A model

133 The analysis is based on a 1000-year long control preindustrial run with the IPSL-CM5A 134 model, performed within the framework of the fifth Coupled Model Intercomparison 135 Project (CMIP5). It uses the LMDZ5A (Laboratoire de Météorologie Dynamique-Zoom 136 version 5A) atmospheric circulation model (Hourdin et al. 2013), under a regular 96 x 96 point horizontal grid (*i.e.* 3.75° x 1.875°) with 39 levels in the vertical. The oceanic 137 138 component is the Nucleus for European Modelling of the Ocean (NEMO) version 3.2 (Madec, 2008). It includes the OPA9 ocean circulation model, coupled with the Louvain-139 140 la-Neuve (LIM2) sea-ice model version 2 (Fichefet & Magueda, 1997) and 141 the biogeochemical module PISCES (for Pelagic Interaction Scheme for Carbon & 142 Ecosystem Studies; Aumont & Bopp, 2006). The ocean component includes 31 vertical 143 levels, 15 of them in the upper 150 m and has an irregular horizontal grid of 182 x 149 points, characterized by a nominal resolution of 2° with an enhancement over the Arctic, 144 the subpolar North Atlantic and near the Equator. Further details on the model 145 146 configuration, its different components and the boundary conditions imposed to run the 147 control simulation can be found in *Dufresne et al. (2013)* and references therein. Other 148 studies describing the components and various different aspects of the model 149 performance are compiled in а special issue of Climate **Dynamics** 150 (http://link.springer.com/journal/382/40/9/). In particular, the performance of the 151 oceanic component in the coupled model configuration is assessed in Mignot et al. 152 (2013).

153 2.2 The upper ocean-atmosphere-sea ice coupled mode

In a first analysis of the control IPSL-CM5A simulation, *Escudier et al. (2013)* identified
a strong 20-year periodicity in several key variables across the North Atlantic basin.

156 This common variability is explained through a coupled atmosphere-ocean mode 157 mainly acting in the upper ocean (Figure 1). The 20-year cycle starts, for example, with 158 a deceleration of the EGC, which reduces the export of fresh and cold polar waters 159 through the Denmark Strait. This generates within 3 years anomalous warm and salty 160 upper waters in the Labrador Sea that are advected eastward by the subpolar gyre, and 161 reach, in 5 years time, a region of convection located South of Iceland, and 2 years after 162 the Nordic Seas. The region South of Iceland is the major area for deep convection in the 163 model, but its role is less important in the real world (Marshall and Schott, 1999). This 164 model bias should be kept in mind when assessing the realism of this mode. In the Nordic Seas, the warm temperature anomalies contribute to reduce the sea-ice extent, 165 166 and produce a cyclonic atmospheric circulation response, leading to an intensification of the Ekman transport over the Denmark Strait, and ultimately of the EGC strength. 167 168 This atmospheric link, although rather weak, provides the necessary feedback for the 169 phase reversal 10 years after the initial EGC weakening. The EGC phase reversal is also 170 fostered by a reduction in the sea ice cover over the Denmark Strait region, which 171 increases the momentum exchange between the atmosphere and the ocean. The second 172 part of the cycle evolves similarly, this time with fresh and cold surface waters from the 173 Arctic being advected along the subpolar gyre, and giving rise 7 years later to positive 174 sea ice extent and negative SLP anomalies in the Nordic Seas. The AMOC does not seem to play an active role in this mechanism. Nevertheless, it does respond passively, with 8-175 176 9 years lag, to changes in deep convection in the region South of Iceland. The reasons 177 for this particular lagged response were not addressed in the original study of Escudier 178 et al (2013) and are further explored in the present study.

Due to the predominant role of surface variables in this bi-decadal mode, the IPSL-CM5A model has a great potential for AMOC initialization and decadal prediction.

181 Indeed, two perfect model analyses by Persechino et al. (2013) and Servonnat et al. 182 (2015) have respectively shown that, in the model, the AMOC has an average potential 183 predictability of 8 years and can be successfully recovered, by applying a nudging to sea 184 surface temperature and salinity fields, that is able to initialize its major precursors (e.g. 185 EGC, convection South of Iceland). Likewise, Swingedouw et al. (2013) argued that this 186 advective surface mechanism may explain two of the observed Great Salinity Anomalies 187 occurring in the 1970s and 1990s (Belkin et al., 1998), which in the model follow an 188 excitation of this 20-year cycle by Mt Agung eruption.

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Figure 1: Schematic representation of the advective mechanism, modified from Figure 13 in Escudier et 192 al. (2013). Estimated time-lags are indicated along the arrows. The corresponding sign of the anomalies 193 appears next to each variable.

194

195 2.3 The subsurface basin mode 196 This multidecadal oscillatory mechanism has been identified in several idealized models 197 and theoretical studies (e.g. Colin de Verdière & Huck, 1999; Huck et al. 1999; Te Raa & 198 Dijkstra, 2002; Sévellec & Huck, 2015), as well as in the linearized version of the ocean 199 component of IPSL-CM5A, as described in Sévellec and Fedorov (2013). It is 200 characterised by a large-scale westward propagation of subsurface density anomalies, 201 typical of large-scale baroclinic Rossby waves (Colin de Verdière & Huck, 1999). This 202 westward propagation can occur even under the presence of a dominant eastward 203 mean flow, due to the contribution of two additional terms that oppose the *mean zonal* 204 advection: the geostrophic self-advection and the ß-effect. Geostrophic self-advection, 205 initially characterised within the paradigm of the non-Doppler shift effect (e.g. Rossby, 206 1939; Held, 1983; Killworth et al., 1997), is triggered by a local density perturbation 207 (either thermal or haline) embedded along a mean meridional density gradient 208 (normally increasing northward). For instance, positive local density anomalies 209 produce a geostrophic cyclonic response, bringing denser waters from the south to its 210 western flank, and lighter waters from the north to its eastern flank, thus leading to an 211 effective propagation to the west. Note that negative density anomalies also move 212 westward, because they induce an anticyclonic response instead. The other term, the ß-213 effect, is typical of long non-dispersive baroclinic Rossby waves. It works similarly to 214 self-advection, but relies on the variation of the Coriolis parameter with latitude 215 (instead of the isopycnal depth). In the Northern Hemisphere, the *β-effect* is always 216 positive and thereby contributes to a westward propagation. The combination of the 217 mean zonal flow, the geostrophic self-advection and the ß-effect determines the full 218 speed of the propagation (Sévellec and Fedorov, 2013).

The multidecadal oscillatory mode can be described following four major phases (twoof them shown in Figure 2). In Phase I, a large-scale positive density anomaly appears in

221 the middle of the basin in the North Atlantic, and propagates westward consistently 222 with the self-advective mechanism. The propagation eventually leads to Phase II, in 223 which a zonal density gradient is established, with denser waters at the west and lighter 224 waters at the east of the Atlantic basin. This configuration strengthens the AMOC via 225 thermal wind balance. As a result of the associated enhanced downwelling in the North 226 Atlantic, the sign of the initial density anomalies is reversed a few years later. To 227 complete a full oscillation cycle, the two previous phases are followed by their two corresponding opposite phases: negative density anomalies in the middle of the basin 228 229 propagating westward; and a weakening in the AMOC strength, caused by a reversal of 230 the zonal gradient in Phase II.



**Figure 2:** Schematic of the multidecadal oscillatory mode modified from Figure 4 of *Sévellec and Fedorov* (2013). The background colour degradation represents the mean density distribution, with lighter waters in white and heavier waters in blue. (Left) Background conditions correspond to a mean meridional density gradient and an eastward mean zonal velocity *ū*. (Middle) In the first phase, positive density anomalies appear in the middle of the basin and generate a geostrophic cyclonic flow that induces a westward propagation. (Right) In phase II the original positive density anomaly has reached the western boundary, and negative anomalies have emerged in the east. This zonal density gradient intensifies the northward surface flow *v*' through thermal wind balance.

- 240
- The basin mode is fundamentally linked to the existence of zonal boundaries, which
- allow the reemergence of density anomalies at the eastern boundary, opposite in sign to
- the anomalies reaching the western boundary. In OPA9, this reemergence is consistent
- 244 with a fast adjustment by Kelvin waves propagating southward along the western
- 245 boundary, through the equator, and subsequently northward along the eastern

boundary (Sévellec and Fedorov, 2013), as previously described in Johnson andMarshall (2002).

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249 2.4 Computation of the thermal wind transport.

As described above, the effect of the subsurface basin mode on the AMOC arises through a modulation of the west-to-east density gradient, which triggers a meridional thermal wind response. The northward thermal wind transport at a particular depth z' is calculated using the following decomposition:

254 
$$\psi_{tw}(z) = \int_{x_w}^{x_e} dx \int_{-H}^{z} (\tilde{v} - v_0) dz'$$
 [1]

where  $x, \psi_{tw}, H, x_e, x_w, \tilde{v}$  and  $v_0$  represent respectively the zonal coordinate, the thermal-wind contribution to the meridional streamfunction, the total ocean depth, the longitude of the eastern and western boundaries, the meridional velocity associated with the zonal density gradient and a correction term introduced to guarantee mass conservation without affecting the vertical shear.

260 The meridional velocity  $\tilde{v}$  is calculated from the zonal density gradient as 261 follows:

262 
$$\tilde{v}(z) = \frac{g}{\rho_0 f} \int_{-H}^{z} \frac{1}{L(z)} (\rho_w - \rho_e) dz' \quad [2]$$

where  $z, g, \rho_0, \rho_e, \rho_w, f, L$  and H are respectively the vertical coordinate, the gravitational acceleration, a reference density, the density at the eastern and western boundaries, the Coriolis parameter, the basin width, and the bottom of the ocean. Note that, in essence, this decomposition is based on the geostrophic balance, the hydrostatic approximation and mass conservation. It was derived and tested in depth in *Hirschi and Marotzke (2007)*, and has been used in an operational context for monitoring AMOC variations within the RAPID array (*Cunningham et al., 2007*).

#### 270 2.5 Analysis and statistical assessment

Our study is mainly based on the statistical links of different indices among themselves and also with other large-scale climate fields. All data correspond to annual means, and anomalies are calculated with respect to the simulation long-term mean (*i.e.* 1000 years). Statistical significance of all the regression and correlation coefficients is assessed following a two-tailed Student's *t* test. Sample size is corrected by taking into account the series autocorrelation, thus reducing the sample degrees of freedom to its effective value (*Bretherton et al., 1999*).

#### **3. Characterizing the subsurface basin mode propagation in IPSL-CM5A**

The climatological maximum of the AMOC streamfunction is approximately 10 Sv, well below the range of observational estimates (*Ganachaud & Wunsch, 2000; Talley et al., 2003*). This is probably caused by a misrepresentation of Labrador convection in the model, and an underestimation of the outflows from the Nordic Seas (*Escudier et al., 2013*).

284 To highlight the 20-year cycle in the AMOC, we define a meridional overturning index as 285 the maximum streamfunction value at 48°N (MOI-48N) and remove the Ekman 286 transport contribution. This is the latitude where the climatological means of both the 287 full AMOC streamfunction and the thermal wind transport become maximum (Figure 3). 288 Note that the differences between both quantities in Figure 3 relate to the contribution 289 of the Ekman transport and to the approximations considered to derive Equation 1. 290 Despite the climatological differences, more important at depth, both quantities show 291 rather similar variability in the vicinity of the climatological maximum. The MOI-48N 292 and an equivalent index for the thermal wind transport are strongly correlated, with a 293 correlation coefficient *r* of 0.8 (significant at the 95% confidence level).

294



Figure 3: Long-term mean of the northward thermal wind transport in the North Atlantic (shaded, in Sv)
 as computed from the density fields at the coastal boundaries following Equation 1. The mean Atlantic
 meridional overturning circulation streamfunction (also including the Ekman transport) is superposed in
 contours (also in Sv).

301 Figure 4 shows in-phase correlations between the MOI-48N index and the density 302 profile at the same latitude. From Equation 2, increased northward thermal wind 303 transport is only possible when  $\rho_w > \rho_e$ . This implies that the MOI-48N can be interpreted 304 in terms of the thermal wind only below 300m, as the zonal gradient is reversed above 305 this level. More precisely, the strongest positive west-to-east density gradient is 306 established between 300 and 1000 m, enhanced simultaneously by denser waters at the 307 west and lighter at the east side of the basin. The climatological density gradient is also 308 stronger at these subsurface levels (black contours in Fig. 4).



**Figure 4:** Correlation profile (depth-longitude) between the MOI-48N and local density (referenced to the sea surface) at the same latitude. Significant values at the 95% confidence level are enclosed by the thick grey contours. Black thin contours describe the background density stratification in contour intervals of 0.2 kg/m<sup>3</sup>. Horizontal dotted lines delimit the levels at which the  $\rho_{west}$  -  $\rho_{east}$  gradient is strongest.

315 As expected from Figure 4, the spatial correlations between MOI-48N and the vertically 316 averaged subsurface density fields (300-1000m, Figure 5a) are consistent with a basin-317 wide northward thermal wind response. Strong positive correlations appear all along 318 the western coast of North America, with maximum values near the Labrador Sea and 319 east of Nova Scotia. Negative correlations are observed in the convection region south 320 of Iceland (green lines in Figure 5) and near the coasts of France and Spain. A rather 321 different picture emerges for the upper ocean (Figure 5b), more characterized by a 322 north-south dipole at subpolar latitudes, probably due to other contributions than the 323 thermal wind. The advective mechanism discussed in Escudier et al. (2013) has in 324 particular been shown to exhibit maximum signals at these levels. All of the above 325 suggests that the two modes might be operating at two different depth ranges.



Figure 5: Correlation maps between the MOI-48N index and the vertically averaged density between: a)
 300-1000m and b) 0-300m. Only those correlation coefficients significant at the 95% confidence level
 are shown. The background density field is represented in black contours. The green thick contour line
 encloses the region of convection South of Iceland.

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333 Now that the optimal depths and regions contributing to the intensification of the 334 northward thermal wind transport are well constrained, we can verify whether the 335 positive density anomalies at the western side of the basin have propagated from the 336 east, as it would be expected if the westward propagation from the subsurface basin 337 mode was present. This is addressed in Figure 6. The first two columns represent the 338 regressions at different lags between the standardized MOI-48N index and the 339 subsurface (i.e. 300-1000m) density averaged over two different latitude ranges. In the 340 subpolar region (*i.e.* 34 to 65°N) positive density anomalies are indeed formed near 30°W and propagate slowly to the west reaching the coast about 5 years later, when the 341 AMOC becomes maximum (lag zero). This evolution is coherent with the multidecadal 342 subsurface basin mode. However, no propagation of anomalies of opposite sign 343 344 reaching the western side of the basin is observed at subsequent lags. This latitudinal 345 band is the same where Sévellec and Fedorov (2013) identified their westward 346 propagation. Yet, they observed it in the upper ocean, where our model presents an 347 eastward propagation (not shown) and where the advective mechanism of *Escudier et* 348 al. (2013) mainly takes place. When the analysis is restrained to the northernmost part

of the region, where the zonal density gradient is strongest (*i.e.* 50-65°N), the westward propagation is more clear. The Hovmöller in Figure 6b shows how positive and negative density anomalies move westwards with bi-decadal periodicity (T=20 years), in accordance with the changes in the AMOC. These features remain coherent for density anomalies integrated down to 3000 m (not shown). By contrast, no basin-wide westward propagation of density anomalies is observed at the surface levels (Figure 6c).



Figure 6: Hovmöller plot (Time lag vs. Longitude) of the regression (in kg/m<sup>3</sup>) between the standardized
 MOI-48N and the meridionally averaged density anomalies at: a) 300-1000m in the latitude band 34 65°N; b) 300-1000m in 50-65°N and c) 0-300m in 50-65°N. Significance is assessed as in Figure 4.

355

360 To determine the role of the mean zonal flow in explaining the propagation, the mean 361 zonal velocities in the North Atlantic are compared qualitatively to the evolution of density anomalies (Figure 7), represented by the correlation contours of  $r=\pm0.5$ 362 between the MOI-48N and the vertically averaged density fields at different lags. In the 363 upper ocean (Figure 7a), where the advective mechanism is at play, correlation 364 365 contours describe a loop across the subpolar gyre as the AMOC strengthens (lags -10 to 366 0) and weakens (lags 0 to 6), with an excursion of anomalies into the Nordic Seas. 367 Westward advection is only observed in the northern subpolar gyre and is almost 368 exclusively confined to the EGC pathway, whereas eastward advection only occurs in 369 the south, in a region with predominant mean eastward currents. All of this supports 370 the major role of the mean subpolar gyre currents already described in *Escudier et al.* 371 (2013). A somewhat different picture is found for the subsurface levels (Figure 7b), 372 where mean currents are comparably weaker. Positive density anomalies start at lag -8 373 in the region south of Iceland and move westward across a wide latitudinal range (~56-374 67°N), including areas of positive (*i.e.* eastward) mean zonal velocities. This is possible 375 due to the contribution of the *geostrophic self-advection* and β-effect terms described in 376 Section 2.3, two key features of the subsurface basin mode. Note that, as expected, the 377 propagation is faster in the EGC region, where mean zonal velocities are negative. These fast-propagating anomalies reach the western Greenland Sea at lag -6, and feed the 378 379 Labrador Sea Current going south along the coast. The presence of this outflow is hinted 380 by the eastward propagating anomalies from 55 to 50°W in Figure 6b. At lag -2, the 381 density anomalies from the Labrador Current merge back with the anomalies propagating slowly outside of the EGC region, reaching the Newfoundland coast at this 382 383 stage. In the immediate subsequent lags, there is a fast adjustment along the western 384 boundary that strengthens the zonal density gradient and thus the AMOC. Note the 385 appearance at lag 2 of negative correlation contours in the region of convection south of 386 Iceland, also propagating slowly to the west outside of the EGC region, consistently with 387 the oscillatory basin mode.



389Figure 7: Vertically averaged zonal velocities (shaded, in m/s) in the levels: a) 0-300 m; b) 300-1000 m.390The colored solid (dotted) contours represent the correlation contours of r=0.5 (r=-0.5) between the391MOI-48N index and the vertically averaged density fields at different lead/lag times.

393 Further evidence of the basin mode propagation is provided in Figure 8a, showing the 394 lead-lag regressions of the normalized MOI-48N with the vertically averaged density 395 and velocity anomalies between 300 and 1000m. The first panel corresponds to a weak 396 AMOC situation (-T/2; i.e. 10 years before the MOI-48N peaks), and shows a negative 397 zonal density gradient ( $\rho_{west} < \rho_{east}$ ) leading to a reduced northward transport via 398 thermal wind balance. South of Iceland and north of 50°N there is a positive cell of 399 density anomalies, also present in the upper layer (Figure 8b), generating by 400 geostrophy a cyclonic flow response similar to the one described in *Sévellec and Fedorov* 401 (2013). This cyclonic response, through an interaction with the background density field 402 (Figure 5, black contours), also contributes to the westward displacement. The self-403 *advection* term is higher in the regions where the south-to-north background density 404 gradient is stronger, and can thereby compensate the eastward *mean zonal velocities* at 405 the eastern side of the basin (Figure 7b). Thus, both contributions along with the  $\beta$ -406 *effect* – of smaller amplitude than them but by definition always negative – can account 407 together for an effective basin-wide westward propagation of the initial density 408 anomalies. Indeed, at lag -T/4 the cyclonic cell is visibly displaced to the west, growing 409 also in strength, notably along the Greenland coast. Note that at this stage the cyclonic 410 cell extends also into the upper ocean (Figure 8b), where it intensifies the southward transport through the Denmark Strait, and therefore also the EGC strength. This link 411 412 will be discussed in more detail in section 4.2. Strengthened AMOC situations (lag zero) 413 set up when the positive anomalies have reached the Labrador coast and new negative 414 anomalies (inducing this time an anticyclonic geostrophic response) are formed south 415 of Iceland, thus reversing the initial zonal gradient and intensifying the northward 416 transport through thermal wind balance. These negative density anomalies appear as a 417 result of a reduction in convection following the arrival of negative upper density

- 418 anomalies from the Denmark Strait and Labrador regions (Figure 8, lags -T/4 and -T/2).
- 419 For the positive lags (AMOC leading) *T*/4 and *T*/2 the opposite phase of the propagation
- 420 takes place, this time with the negative density anomalies moving eastward in response
- 421 to the associated anticyclonic flow bringing lighter waters into the west (coming from
- 422 southern regions) and denser waters into the eastern flank (advected from the north).



423

**Figure 8:** Time-lag regressions between the normalised MOI-48N index and both the vertically averaged density (shaded) and ocean velocity (vectors) anomalies in: a) 300-1000 m layer; b) 0-300 m layer. The lag is written in fractions of the period *T* (20 years). Significance is assessed as in Figure 4. The yellow box encloses the region where the index  $\rho_{\text{NE-Atl}}$  is defined.

The balance of evidence presented here is thus consistent with the existence of a multidecadal basin mode in subsurface (300-1000m) linked to the variability of the AMOC. Furthermore, this mechanism operates at a similar timescale and in the same basin as the upper-ocean (0-300m) advection mechanism from *Escudier et al (2013)*. We now assess whether both mechanisms are independent, or interact with each other.

#### 433 **4. Interactions between the two bi-decadal modes**

Given that both mechanisms vary at similar timescales and share several dynamical components, our working hypothesis is that both are coupled. There are two key quantities that could explain a link between the two modes: *deep convection* and the *EGC*.

# 438 <u>4.1 From the upper ocean advective mechanism to the subsurface basin mode: the role</u> 439 <u>of convection</u>

440 The most evident link is ocean convection, because it connects the upper and the deeper ocean. Indeed, winter convection enhances oceanic heat release to the atmosphere, 441 resulting in a net cooling and densification of the water column (Swingedouw et al., 442 443 *2007*). In the coupled model, the convection region located south of Iceland (Figure 5) 444 is the one showing strongest correlations with the AMOC (Escudier et al., 2013). Its variability is driven by anomalies in upper ocean salinity, which are built up in the 445 446 Labrador Sea and advected eastward by the subpolar gyre. The arrival of positive salinity anomalies coincides with minimum values in the AMOC strength, a situation 447 448 that weakens the meridional heat transport and gradually cools and densifies the upper layers in the North Atlantic. This effect of the AMOC on the vertical density structure in 449 the convection region is illustrated in Figure 9. The MOI-48N is anticorrelated with 450 451 density anomalies near the surface (mostly thermally driven), but also directly 452 correlated with salinity-driven density anomalies at depth (Figure 9). Thus, weakened

453 AMOC situations reduce the vertical stratification, and contribute to facilitate deep 454 convection when the positive surface salinity anomalies arrive. Following the increases in convection south of Iceland, anomalously dense waters are formed from the surface 455 456 down to 2000 m depth (Figure 10), thus including the depth range where the basin 457 mode propagation is observed. These are most probably the same density anomalies 458 observed at lag -*T*/2 in the northeast Atlantic (NE-Atl, yellow box in Figure 8), both in 459 the upper (0-300) and intermediate (300-1000m) levels, and propagating westward in 460 response to the induced anomalous cyclonic flow. This is supported by Figure 11a, showing that upper 1000m density anomalies in the northeast Atlantic box ( $\rho_{\text{NE-Atl}}$ ) are 461 462 highly correlated with mixed layer depth changes in the region south of Iceland (MLD<sub>S-</sub> Ice; green contours in Figure 5). These anomalies lead the changes in the AMOC by about 463 8 years, which is the time they require to reach the western coast, enhance the zonal 464 density gradient and thus increase the meridional thermal wind transport, as 465 demonstrated by Sévellec and Fedorov (2015). It is therefore through a stimulation of 466 subsurface basin mode that the advective mechanism at the surface, and ultimately 467 468 convection, comes to impact the variability of the AMOC several years after. Following 469 *Sévellec and Fedorov (2015)* we have been able to provide a mechanistic explanation to 470 the long delay between convection south of Iceland and the AMOC response previously 471 reported in *Escudier et al. (2013)*.



- 472 Figure 9: Vertical profile of the correlations between the MOI-48N index and density anomalies in the 473
- region of convection in the eastern North Atlantic (enclosed by the green contour in Figure 5). Both the full density and the related thermal and haline contributions are shown for comparison. Significant values
- 474 475





476 Figure 10: Correlation profile (longitude-depth) between an index of North Atlantic convection (region 477 enclosed by the green contour in Figure 5) and the latitudinally averaged densities between 50-65°N. The 478 index of convection is defined as the annual mixed layer depth mean in the region. Significance is 479 assessed as in Figure 4.



482

Figure 11: Lead-lag time correlation plot of several indices with: a) Northeast Atlantic density in the upper 1000m and b) the East Greenland Current intensity. Significant values at the 95% confidence level are highlighted with dots.

487 <u>4.2 From the subsurface basin mode to the advective mechanism in the upper ocean:</u>
488 <u>the role of the EGC</u>

489 In order to understand whether and how the subsurface basin mode feeds back onto the 490 subpolar-gyre advective mode at the surface, we focus on the EGC (cf. Escudier et al., 491 2013). Indeed, this upper-ocean current, linking the Arctic waters with the subpolar 492 gyre, is essential to explain the phase reversal of the salinity anomalies advected by the 493 subpolar gyre in the advective mechanism. Here, we use the same definition as in 494 Escudier et al. (2013): the EGC is calculated as the outflow of waters through the 495 Denmark Strait with mean salinity values lower than 34 psu. These are localized in the 496 upper 200 m near the Greenland coast. In Escudier et al. (2013), EGC strengthenings 497 were explained by a decrease in sea-ice cover in the Nordic Seas, producing an 498 anomalous atmospheric cyclonic response that subsequently intensified Ekman 499 transport through the Denmark Strait. This link, even if physically consistent, was found 500 in that study to be somewhat weak. We revisit this interpretation under our new 501 framework, in which the subsurface basin mode propagation is also at play. Figure 8 502 already showed that at the lag -T/4 (*i.e.* 5 years before an AMOC peak), the anomalous 503 cyclonic cell, present both in the surface and the subsurface, is located near the 504 Greenland coast, with a particularly intense southward transport branch at its western 505 flank. This explains why EGC variability is strongly linked with the appearance, 5 years 506 before (although with maximum correlation for a 2-year lead time), of the positive 507 density anomalies in the northeast Atlantic (Figure 11b), which was shown before to be 508 associated with increased convection. This EGC change, fueled by the anomalous 509 cyclonic cell, is also characteristic of the oceanic adjustment to the large-scale baroclinic 510 Rossby waves described in Sévellec and Fedorov (2013). EGC changes translate into an 511 increased export of fresher waters into the subpolar gyre, which reverses the sign of the

initial salinity anomalies in the upper Labrador Sea (S300<sub>LAB</sub>). This process is key to
sustain the 20-year cycle in the advective mechanism. Here, we have shown that it is
convection, the associated changes in subsurface density, and their later impact on the
EGC that provide the two-way coupling between the two mechanisms.



516

Figure 12: Schematic of the variables and interactions involved in the North Atlantic 20-year cycle in
 IPSL-CM5A.

519

#### 520 Summary and Discussion

To summarize, an updated view of the processes and interactions responsible for the bidecadal AMOC variability in IPSL-CM5A is provided in the schematic of Figure 12. Until now, AMOC variability in the model was explained through salinity-driven changes in the deep convection regions. By characterizing and including the subsurface basin mode we are now able to explain the process by which convection impacts the AMOC. Furthermore, the two modes can coexist and show the same preferential variability because they have accommodated to interact constructively with each other. 528 In essence, the whole cycle develops as follows. Upper ocean positive salinity anomalies 529 are advected by the subpolar gyre from the Labrador Sea into the sinking regions south 530 of Iceland (in 5 years), where they enhance deep convection and a negative thermal 531 anomaly is formed from the surface down to 2000 m. This induces a geostrophic 532 response, characterized by a cyclonic flow that propagates westwards in the subsurface 533 as a result of its interaction with the mean meridional density gradient. As the 534 anomalies reach the eastern Greenland coast 2 years after, the associated cyclonic flow 535 leads at the surface to an intensification of the EGC. This effect on the EGC comes on top 536 of the weak feedback mechanism with sea ice and SLP anomalies in the Nordic Seas already described in Escudier et al. (2013), and contributes to synchronize the two 537 538 multidecadal modes. At depth, density anomalies continue their westward propagation 539 until they reach the Canadian coast 6 years after, propagating southward along the 540 western boundary current, and establishing a strong zonal gradient that triggers a 541 northward thermal wind response, thus strengthening the AMOC. Phase reversal in the 542 upper ocean is related to the EGC, and its export of fresh waters from the Arctic into the 543 subpolar gyre, building up large anomalies in the Labrador Sea 3 years after (10 years if 544 we count from the beginning of the cycle). Accordingly, the phase reversal in the deeper 545 ocean appears when these negative salinity anomalies reach the vicinity of Iceland 5 years later, and debilitate deep convection. Note that at this stage, surface waters over 546 547 the region are gradually warming, in response to the increase in northward heat 548 transport that follows the strengthened AMOC phase. This suggests that the AMOC plays 549 a preconditioning role in the phase reversal of convection.

550 Observational records do support a prominent 20-year time scale in the North Atlantic, 551 supported, for instance, by sea level estimates at the east and western boundaries 552 (*Frankcombe & Dijkstra, 2009*), and also in reconstructed estimates of Greenland

553 temperature (Chylek et al., 2011) and the sea ice edge in the Nordic Seas (Divine & Dick, 554 2006). Regarding the specific variables involved in our mechanism, there exist evidence 555 of decadal fluctuations in salinity measurements of the Labrador Sea, shaped by the 556 occurrence of the Great Salinity Anomalies (Belkin et al., 1998; Swingedouw et al., 2015). 557 It is not clear, however, if they also present a modulation at 20 years. Only short records 558 for the EGC variability are available, insufficient to assess its multidecadal changes. 559 There is, however, a long proxy record for local SST in its vicinity that exhibits a 560 significant peak at 20 years (Sicre et al., 2008). All of the above suggests that some of 561 the features of our mechanism might be realistic. Yet, it is important to keep in mind that some other aspects are inherent to the model and its main biases. For example, one 562 563 important limitation of IPSL-CM5A and former versions is its inability to represent deep convection in the Labrador Sea, due to too fresh local climatological conditions over the 564 565 area (Swingedouw et al., 2007). This misrepresentation is probably decisive to allow for the salinity advection mechanism in *Escudier et al. (2013)* and its particular 566 567 arrangement with the subsurface basin mode. Otherwise, EGC-driven salinity anomalies 568 would first arrive and impact the Labrador region, being partly transformed into a 569 thermal anomaly reaching deeper levels. Hence, it could modify the upper and lower 570 ocean signals being advected by the subpolar gyre and possibly compromise the 571 westward propagation from the region south of Iceland.

572 Our results nevertheless support the coexistence of a multidecadal subsurface basin 573 mode with an advective mechanism at the surface, and prompts for further 574 investigations in other coupled climate models. In IPSL-CM5A, the westward 575 propagation is excited and sustained by salinity-driven deep convection following 576 surface oscillatory mechanism (Escudier et al., 2013), and not simply by stochastic 577 forcing from the atmosphere like other analyses suggest *(Frankcombe et al., 2009;* 

578 *Sévellec et al., 2009*). This may explain why the 20-year variability is so pronounced in 579 IPSL-CM5A. Identifying this kind of mechanism in other coupled climate models, with 580 different representations of North Atlantic convection and the AMOC, is essential to 581 ascertain whether the basin mode propagation is actually predominant or if, on the 582 contrary, its signal becomes strongly damped by the influence of the atmosphere. 583 Tulloch and Marshall (2012) described a similar mechanism in both CCSM3 and the 584 GFDL Climate Model version 2.1 (CM2.1), involving a westward propagation of 585 subsurface density anomalies in a timescale broadly consistent with the transit of first 586 baroclinic mode Rossby waves, which affects the AMOC through a thermal wind response. Interestingly, in both models a predominant 20-year time-scale for the AMOC 587 588 was also identified, despite some differences in their upper ocean variability. This 589 suggests that the subsurface basin mode may be the key mechanism to generate bi-590 decadal AMOC variability, and that it can appear under other coupled model 591 configurations. In the particular case of our study, we have seen that the subsurface 592 basin mode is also compatible with an upper ocean mechanism driven by EGC 593 variations, which share similarities with some of the observed Great Salinity Anomalies 594 (Swingedouw et al., 2013, 2015).

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