

1 **Extreme air-sea interaction over the North Atlantic subpolar gyre**
2 **during the winter of 2013-14 and its sub-surface legacy**

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19 **Abstract**

20

21 Exceptionally low North American temperatures and record-breaking precipitation over the
22 British Isles during winter 2013-14 were interconnected by anomalous ocean evaporation
23 over the North Atlantic Subpolar Gyre region (SPG). This evaporation (or oceanic latent heat
24 release) was accompanied by strong sensible heat loss to the atmosphere. The enhanced heat
25 loss over the SPG was caused by a combination of surface westerly winds from the North
26 American continent and northerly winds from the Nordic Seas region that were colder, drier
27 and stronger than normal. A distinctive feature of the air-sea exchange was that the enhanced
28 heat loss spanned the entire width of the SPG, with evaporation anomalies intensifying in the
29 east while sensible heat flux anomalies were slightly stronger upstream in the west. The
30 immediate impact of the strong air-sea fluxes on the ocean-atmosphere system included a
31 reduction in ocean heat content of the SPG and a shift in basin-scale pathways of ocean heat
32 and atmospheric freshwater transport. Atmospheric reanalysis data and the EN4 ocean data
33 set indicate that a longer-term legacy of the winter has been the enhanced formation of a
34 particularly dense mode of Subpolar Mode Water (SPMW) - one of the precursors of North
35 Atlantic Deep Water and thus an important component of the Atlantic Meridional
36 Overturning Circulation. Using particle trajectory analysis, the likely dispersal of newly-
37 formed SPMW is evaluated, providing evidence for the re-emergence of anomalously cold
38 SPMW in early winter 2014/15.

39

40 **1. Introduction**

41 The boreal winter of 2013-14 brought extreme weather conditions to both north
42 America (Palmer 2014) and northwest Europe (Mathews et al. 2014). The North American
43 winter was notable for temperatures that were extremely low both for specific episodes and in
44 terms of the winter-long average. On 6 January 2014, record lows in daily temperatures were
45 set in approximately 50 cities across the US (National Aeronautics and Space Administration
46 2014), while for eight mid-western states the December, January and February mean
47 temperature was in the coldest 10% of a 129 year record (National Climatic Data Center
48 2014). In the United Kingdom, December, January and February were the wettest in over 100
49 years and led to flooding of major rivers such as the Thames (Slingo et al. 2014). High levels
50 of precipitation were accompanied by high wind speeds, and when both intensity and
51 duration of the winter cyclones are taken into account, it was the stormiest on record for the
52 UK and Ireland (Mathews et al. 2014). Although considerable attention has been paid to the
53 atmospheric conditions associated with both the North American and European winters
54 (Ballinger et al. 2014; Slingo et al. 2014; Huntingford et al. 2014; van Oldenborgh et al.
55 2015; Screen et al. 2015), less attention has been paid to the air-sea interaction processes that
56 link the two.

57 In this paper, we analyse North Atlantic air-sea fluxes during the winter of 2013-14.
58 We put air-sea flux anomalies of this winter in the context of recent variability, evaluate the
59 immediately observed impact on the ocean-atmosphere system and consider the likely
60 implications for the North Atlantic ocean-atmosphere system on seasonal-to-interannual
61 timescales. Our analysis consists of three parts. Firstly, using atmospheric reanalysis, we
62 determine the anomalous surface heat, freshwater and momentum fluxes along with their
63 contributing components. In addition, the surface conditions that led to the particular patterns

64 of air-sea exchange are diagnosed. Secondly, we examine the immediate effect of the
65 winter's air-sea exchange on ocean and atmospheric transport pathways and local heat
66 storage. Thirdly, through a combined observation-model analysis, we examine the winter
67 formation of Subpolar Mode Water (SPMW) and the potential longer-term impacts of this
68 anomalous water mass on regional climate.

69

70 **2. Data, Model and Analysis Methods**

71 In the following sub-sections, we describe the sources and methods for the air-sea
72 fluxes, atmospheric moisture transport, hydrographic data, water mass transformation, and
73 water mass trajectories.

74

75 **2.1 Air-sea fluxes**

76 Our primary set of monthly air-sea flux fields come from the NCEP/NCAR
77 atmospheric reanalysis (2.5 x 2.5° horizontal resolution) for the period April 1979 to March
78 2014 (Kalnay et al. 1996). The air-sea fluxes employed are net heat flux (and its
79 components, latent heat flux, sensible heat flux, net shortwave radiation and net longwave
80 radiation); net freshwater flux (and its components, precipitation and evaporation) and the
81 momentum flux (wind stress). The surface turbulent heat fluxes (i.e. the sensible heat flux
82 Q_H and the latent heat flux Q_E) can be estimated (and physically interpreted) from the
83 following formulae:

$$84 \quad Q_H = \rho c_p C_h u (T_s - T_a) \quad (1)$$

$$85 \quad Q_E = \rho L C_e u (q_s - q_a) \quad (2)$$

86 Where ρ is the density of air; c_p , the specific heat capacity of air at constant pressure; L , the
87 latent heat of vaporization, C_h and C_e , the stability and height dependent transfer coefficients
88 for Q_H and Q_E respectively; u , the wind speed; T_s , the sea surface temperature; T_a , the air

89 temperature; q_a , the atmospheric specific humidity and q_s , 98% of the saturation specific
 90 humidity at T_s (to allow for the salinity of sea water, e.g. Josey et al. 2013). As well as
 91 considering the latent and sensible heat flux individually, we also analyse the driving
 92 variables u , T_s , T_a and the near surface gradients $(T_s - T_a)$ and $(q_s - q_a)$.

93 As well as NCEP/NCAR, further analysis was undertaken with the ERA-Interim
 94 reanalysis (Dee et al. 2011) and the Woods Hole Oceanographic Institute Objectively
 95 Analyzed Air-Sea Fluxes for the Global Ocean (OAFlux, Yu and Weller 2007). The results
 96 using these additional datasets are very similar to those using the NCEP/NCAR dataset so, to
 97 avoid undue repetition, selected ERA-Interim and OAFlux results are shown in addition to
 98 NCEP/NCAR where appropriate. For the purpose of the analysis, unless otherwise stated,
 99 the winter of 2013-14 (hereafter W14) is defined as the mean of December 2013, January
 100 2014 and February 2014. The extent that the W14 air-sea fluxes departed from the long-term
 101 mean is examined using spatial maps. The longer-term mean here is defined as being the 35-
 102 year mean 1979-1980 to 2013-2014.

103

104 2.2 Atmospheric moisture transport

105 In addition to using the surface fields from the reanalysis, the tropospheric fields of
 106 wind and specific humidity are used to calculate the integrated water vapour transport (e.g.
 107 Lavers et al. 2012),

$$IVT = \sqrt{\left(\left(\frac{1}{g} \int_{1000}^{300} q u_z dp \right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{g} \int_{1000}^{300} q u_m dp \right)^2 \right)}$$

108

109 where u_z and u_m are the zonal and meridional components of the wind speed (m s^{-1})
 110 respectively, q is the specific humidity (kg kg^{-1}), p (Pa) is the atmospheric pressure and g is
 111 the acceleration due to gravity (m s^{-2}) and the transport is integrated from 1000mb to
 112 300mb. The units of IVT are $\text{kg m}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$.

113

114 2.3 Hydrographic data and calculations

115 Monthly estimates of ocean temperature and salinity for the period January 2002 to
116 July 2014 are taken from objectively-analysed gridded fields of the EN4 dataset provided by
117 the UK Met Office Hadley Centre. From 2002, the Argo float programme provided
118 significantly improved the EN4 data coverage in the Atlantic Ocean. EN4 comprises global
119 gridded fields of potential temperature and salinity at 1° resolution with 42 vertical levels
120 (Good et al. 2013). The gridded temperature and salinity estimates were used to examine
121 changes in upper ocean heat content, changes in the vertical temperature structure and
122 changes in the zonal geostrophic flow of the North Atlantic Current. Using TEOS-10
123 software (<http://www.teos-10.org/>), geostrophic currents were computed from horizontal
124 density gradients according to the thermal wind relation, assuming a level of no motion at
125 1000 m.

126

127 2.4 Water mass transformation

128 In addition, the surface salinity fields were used in conjunction with the heat and
129 freshwater fluxes from the NCEP/NCAR reanalysis to estimate the water mass formation
130 rate for the eastern (i.e. east of 30° W) Subpolar Gyre of the North Atlantic. This was
131 achieved by taking the diapycnal divergence of diapycnal volume fluxes, following Walin
132 (1982), Speer and Tziperman (1992), Marsh (2000), Grist et al. (2009) and others.

133

134 2.5 Water mass trajectories

135 Water particle trajectory analyses are undertaken with hindcast datasets for 1988-
136 2007 using the 1/12th degree NEMO ocean model (Madec 2008) and for 1980-2010 using the
137 1/10th degree OFES ocean model (Masumoto et al. 2004). The NEMO simulation, which is

138 hindcast ORCA0083-N001 in the DRAKKAR data set of simulations (Barnier et al. 2006;
139 DRAKKAR-Group, 2007), is referred to as ORCA12 in this paper. Further details of
140 ORCA12 are documented in Duchez et al. (2014). The Ocean General Circulation Model for
141 the Earth Simulator (OFES) spans 75°S to 75°N, and is forced with a combination of data
142 from the NCEP/NCAR reanalysis. Within both models, virtual particles representative of
143 selected anomalous mode water in the eastern SPG are advected using the three-dimensional
144 velocity fields, at five-day resolution for ORCA12 and three-day resolution for OFES.
145 ARIANE software (Blanke and Raynaud 1997) is used to calculate trajectories in ORCA12
146 in a manner similar to Grist et al. (2014). The Connectivity Modelling System (CMS) v1.1
147 (Paris et al. 2013) is used to calculate the trajectories in OFES. By using two different
148 particle-tracking methods with model output from two different eddy-resolving hindcasts,
149 agreement in the derived Lagrangian statistics increases confidence in our conclusions
150 regarding the short-term transport and mixing of anomalous mode water.

151

152 **3. Results**

153 3.1 Anomalous Air-Sea Fluxes During Winter 2013-14

154 We first examine the extent that W14 air-sea fluxes of net heat, freshwater and
155 momentum differed from the long-term mean. We then examine the flux components and the
156 surface terms that caused the anomalous fluxes.

157

158 3.1.1 Net Heat, Freshwater and Momentum Fluxes

159 Anomalous air-sea fluxes of net heat, freshwater (precipitation minus evaporation)
160 and momentum (surface wind stress) for W14 from the NCEP/NCAR atmospheric reanalysis
161 are shown in Fig. 1. The period was characterized by anomalously strong heat loss (Fig. 1a)
162 over the subpolar region. In particular, over the eastern subpolar gyre (SPG) (30° W - 20° W,

163 40° N - 50° N) heat loss was more than 110 Wm^{-2} (or three standard deviations) greater than
164 the long-term mean. In the subtropical gyre, the W14 heat fluxes were anomalously weak
165 (strong) heat loss in the western (eastern) half of the basin. Although these subtropical
166 anomalies formed coherent large-scale patterns, they were not of the extreme levels that
167 occurred in the subpolar region.

168 The field of anomalous net freshwater surface flux (Fig. 1b) for W14 indicates two
169 regions of significant increase in ocean freshwater gain; one in the south-western subtropical
170 gyre (STG) (80° W- 60° W, 25° N – 30° N) and the other in the eastern SPG (20° W -10°W,
171 50°N to 60°N), slightly to the north of the region of the greatest anomalous heat flux. The
172 latter region is in contrast to the western SPG/Labrador Sea, where there was increased net
173 evaporation. Considering the prevailing west-east passage of mid-latitude storms, the pattern
174 suggests an atmospheric transfer of freshwater from the western to the eastern SPG. The
175 other significant net freshwater flux anomaly in the North Atlantic during W14 was increased
176 net evaporation in the central STG (40° W -30° W, 30° N – 40° N). This feature is consistent
177 with the stronger surface easterlies implied by the enhanced subtropical heat flux in Fig. 1a
178 and seen in Fig.1d.

179 The field of anomalous W14 momentum flux is dominated by a band across the
180 Atlantic between 45°N and 55°N where the flux is up to 0.2 Nm^{-2} greater than normal. The
181 anomaly is greater and more significant in the eastern half of the basin. The east-west band
182 corresponds with the southern side of the track of a series of unusually well clustered mid-
183 latitude storms (Slingo et al. 2014). The northern flank of the passage of these storms is also
184 characterized by enhanced momentum flux between 40°W and 20°W and 60°N and 70°N.

185 In summary, the strongest W14 surface flux anomalies were in the net heat flux and
186 the momentum flux over the SPG, with particularly enhanced fluxes over the eastern half of

187 the basin. We now examine the anomalies of the different components of the heat and
188 freshwater fluxes, with a particular emphasis on the subpolar (or mid-latitude) region where
189 the largest anomalies are evident.

190

191 3.1.2 Components of the surface heat flux

192 The anomalous components of the W14 net heat flux, that is the latent heat flux,
193 sensible heat flux, net shortwave radiation and net longwave radiation are shown in Fig. 2. It
194 is clear from the figure that the turbulent fluxes (latent and sensible heat) dominate the
195 increase in the oceanic heat loss over the mid-latitude band, with the anomalous radiative
196 fluxes (Fig. 2 c and d) contributing relatively little. Both the latent and sensible heat loss
197 anomalies occupy similar areas stretching from the Labrador Sea in the west to the north-
198 eastern tip of the Iberian Peninsula in the south-east and the Rockall Trough in the north-east.
199 The significance of both the turbulent fluxes is greater in the eastern half of the basin, where
200 the anomalies are more than three standard deviations from the long-term mean. However the
201 strength of the sensible heat anomaly is greater in the west, with anomalies peaking at -54
202 Wm^{-2} at 47°W , 50°N , compared with a peak of -67 Wm^{-2} at 20°W , 50°N in the latent heat
203 flux.

204 Similar results are obtained when alternative datasets (ERA-Interim and OAFflux) are
205 considered, thus indicating that our conclusions are not sensitive to the choice of flux
206 product. First, the anomalous net heat flux for W14 from ERA-Interim together with the
207 associated sea level pressure and wind fields are shown in Fig. 3. Very similar spatial patterns
208 to those already found with NCEP/NCAR are obtained. In particular, in ERA-Interim an
209 enhanced heat loss that is slightly smaller in magnitude but still more than three standard
210 deviations from the long-term mean is found in the same eastern SPG location, as with
211 NCEP/NCAR. A similar pattern is also obtained in the subtropics although the significance

212 level of the anomalies is enhanced in the ERA-Interim analysis (contours in the figure
213 indicate two subtropical regions where the anomalies are greater than two standard deviations
214 from the long-term mean). Note that W14 net heat flux data is not yet available from OAFlux
215 but turbulent heat flux data is available and we consider that below. The NCEP/NCAR
216 patterns of turbulent flux anomalies are compared with corresponding fields from ERA-
217 Interim and OAFlux in Fig 4. Again the flux anomalies are very similar in terms of
218 magnitude and spatial distribution. The only substantive difference from NCEP/NCAR is that
219 the subtropical anomalies are more significant (greater than two standard deviations from the
220 long-term mean) in ERA-Interim and OAFlux.

221 The sensible and latent heat fluxes have similar patterns in the subtropics and thus
222 contribute to the decreased (increased) net oceanic heat loss in the western (eastern) parts of
223 the basin. The increased latent heat flux in the subpolar region and the decreased latent heat
224 flux in the western subtropics imply that the source of increased water vapour in the
225 atmosphere during W14 was primarily from the subpolar region. Previously, it has been
226 hypothesized that the long-term warming of the sub-tropical Atlantic Ocean would have
227 provided the source of extra atmospheric moisture feeding UK bound storms (Slingo et al.
228 2014). While this is a valid generalized response to long-term warming of the subtropical
229 Atlantic, we note that in W14 the source of this additional moisture was not an increase in
230 ocean evaporation from the subtropical Atlantic. More specifically, Fig. 5 shows the total
231 evaporation from the Atlantic Ocean as a function of latitude band for the 35-year mean and
232 also for W14. Although, in the mean there is more evaporation in the subtropics than at
233 subpolar latitudes, in W14, evaporation was reduced in the subtropics and enhanced in the
234 subpolar region. This conclusion is supported by a corresponding calculation carried out with
235 ERA-Interim and OAFlux (see Fig. 5b and c). To further understand the subpolar-subtropical

236 difference in W14 flux anomalies, we examine next the surface variables that drive the
237 fluxes.

238 The turbulent fluxes are proportional to the difference between T_s and T_a in the case
239 of sensible heat flux, and the difference between q_s and q_a in the case of latent heat flux. The
240 anomalous W14 fields for T_a , T_s and $\Delta T (=T_s-T_a)$ are plotted in Fig. 6. The T_a field shows a
241 broad negative anomaly approaching $-2\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ over much of the SPG. There is also a negative
242 anomaly in T_s but this is weaker ($-1\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) and more spatially confined. Consequently, ΔT is
243 larger than the mean (as the cold T_a anomaly is only partially offset by that in T_s) by of order
244 $1\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ over the enhanced flux region of the SPG (Fig. 6c). Between 40°W and 20°W , this is
245 greater than two standard deviations difference from the long-term mean. In the western
246 subtropics, the anomalously weak sensible heat loss is associated with warmer than normal
247 T_a , partly offset by warmer than normal T_s .

248 The subpolar latent heat flux is likewise enhanced, due to similar surface conditions
249 (Fig. 7). An enhanced difference between q_s and q_a of order 1 g kg^{-1} is particularly evident in
250 the eastern SPG. This is associated with anomalously dry air over the $40\text{-}55^\circ\text{N}$ band, partly
251 offset by lower than normal values of q_s (due to the anomalously cool sea surface). In the
252 western subtropics, decreased latent heat loss is associated with increased q_a , offset by higher
253 than normal values of q_s .

254 Summarizing the analysis of surface net heat flux, the strongest, most significant
255 anomalies of W14 occurred over the SPG, and in particular to the east of 40°W . They were
256 caused by colder and drier surface air exiting the North American continent and Nordic Seas,
257 and enhanced winds associated with the passage of a series of particularly strong mid-latitude
258 storms. These factors acted together to produce greatly enhanced sensible and latent heat
259 fluxes. The enhanced turbulent fluxes were opposed to some extent by cooler T_s (and the

260 corresponding lower values of q_s). The implication is that the air-sea fluxes were largely
261 forced by atmospheric variability. However, the caveat to this is that compared to recent
262 decades, SSTs were relatively high in the subpolar gyre at the onset of winter 2013/14, and
263 thus the region was somewhat preconditioned for enhanced wintertime heat loss.

264

265 3.1.3 Surface Freshwater Fluxes

266 We now turn our attention to the components of the freshwater flux and the sea
267 surface salinity anomalies (Fig. 8). Anomalously high mid-latitude precipitation is evident in
268 W14 concentrated on the eastern Atlantic (45-65°N, 30°W-0°E) (Fig. 8a). The increase of 0.5
269 $\times 10^{-8}$ m/s (equivalent to just over 13 mm month⁻¹) just to the west of Ireland was over three
270 standard deviations greater than the long-term average. As regards to the surface freshwater
271 flux, the precipitation anomaly is largely cancelled out by the enhanced evaporation
272 (discussed previously in the form of the latent heat flux) that occurred in the subpolar region
273 stretching from the Labrador Sea to the Bay of Biscay (Fig. 8b). However, there remains a
274 small region (55-65°N, 20-10°W) with significantly enhanced net freshwater input into the
275 ocean (see Fig 1b). The March 2014 sea surface salinity (SSS) anomaly field in the subpolar
276 gyre does not show a clear correspondence with the P-E field and has features greater than
277 one standard deviation from the long-term mean. This suggests that the ocean circulation and
278 mixed layer processes have played a significant role in quickly redistributing (vertically and
279 horizontally) W14 surface freshwater flux anomalies in the subpolar gyre.

280 By contrast there is one region in the central subtropical Atlantic where the surface
281 freshwater fluxes appear to have left an imprint on the surface salinity field. Near 40°W and
282 30°N, the March salinity was more than two standard deviations greater than the mean. This
283 change in salinity is consistent with the increased net evaporation due to both decreased

284 precipitation and the increased evaporation mentioned previously in the context of the latent
285 heat flux.

286 Again, similar results are obtained for the W14 precipitation and evaporation
287 anomalies with ERA-Interim (note precipitation fields are not available from OAFflux but the
288 evaporation anomalies, not shown, are similar to both NCEP/NCAR and ERA-Interim). The
289 ERA-Interim W14 precipitation and evaporation anomaly fields are shown in Fig. 9. In each
290 case, the anomaly fields are very similar in terms of magnitude and spatial distribution to
291 those already presented for NCEP/NCAR. Thus, our freshwater flux conclusions remain the
292 same when a different reanalysis product is considered.

293

294 3.2 Short-term Changes and Impacts in the Ocean-Atmosphere System

295 We now examine some of the short-term changes and impacts, in the atmosphere and
296 ocean, associated with the anomalous air-sea fluxes, with particular emphases on atmospheric
297 moisture transport, ocean circulation and ocean heat storage.

298

299 3.2.1 Atmospheric Moisture Transport Pathways

300 Extensive flooding in mid-latitude regions, such as that which occurred in the British
301 Isles during W14, has been associated with anomalous patterns of moisture transport in the
302 lower troposphere (e.g. Lavers et al 2012). We therefore examine the atmospheric moisture
303 transport (also known as the “atmospheric river”) in W14 compared to climatology (Fig. 10
304 a,b). We also examine the transport associated with mean winds and W14 humidity (Fig.
305 10c), and with W14 winds and mean humidity (Fig. 10d), to separate the influence of
306 anomalous winds and anomalous humidity. The mean path of maximum water vapour
307 transport is from 75°W 35°N in the subtropics, north-eastward to 30°W 45°N. In W14, the
308 path was strengthened throughout and extended at its northern end. This northern extension

309 curves to the north north-east, reaching the far-eastern SPG (15° W, 45°N). Considering the
310 decomposed fields (Fig. 10c,d), we note that anomalous humidity (Fig. 10c) increases
311 (slightly decreases) moisture transport in the subtropics (eastern subpolar region). However,
312 north of 40°N most of the enhanced moisture transport, in particular the extension to the north
313 north-east, was associated with the stronger winds (Fig. 10d) rather than higher moisture
314 content.

315

316 3.2.2 Ocean circulation

317 Using the EN4 dataset we have calculated the mean and anomalous 2014 March
318 potential temperature for the latitude-depth section along the 30°W meridian (Fig. 11).
319 These potential temperature data have been used along with corresponding salinity data to
320 calculate the mean and anomalous baroclinic geostrophic velocity along the same section.
321 The strong meridional temperature gradient near 45°N denotes the location of the North
322 Atlantic Current (NAC). While the NAC transports warm saline water eventually northward
323 to the Nordic Seas, it has a large zonal component at this location. With regard to March
324 2014, we note that north of 40°N significant surface cooling (as much as 1-2° C) penetrates to
325 500 m. In the absence of any significant cooling to the south of 40°N and relatively smaller
326 changes in salinity, the effect of the northern cooling is to strengthen the meridional density
327 gradient and consequently increase the zonal geostrophic flow, by up to 5 cm s⁻¹ (Fig. 11b).
328 The cooling on the poleward flank of the NAC also causes the maximum temperature
329 gradient and core of the NAC to shift southwards by around 2° (comparing black and green
330 lines in Fig. 11b).

331

332 3.2.3 Ocean heat storage

333 The impact of the anomalous heat loss on SPG heat content is now considered. Fig.
334 12a shows a January 2002 - June 2014 time series of anomalous heat content for the top
335 2000m of the subpolar gyre region (from 41°N to 65°N, across the whole basin). The time
336 series is derived from EN4 data and has the annual cycle removed. During the first three
337 months of 2014, ocean heat content declined markedly from an anomalously high state to the
338 lowest value since January 2004. The loss of heat was due to either anomalous ocean heat
339 transport divergence, the anomalous surface heat flux as previously described, or a
340 combination of the two. Unfortunately, there are no ocean observations that measure these
341 two processes with sufficient accuracy to specifically diagnose their relative contributions to
342 temporal changes in heat content. However, surface fluxes from atmospheric reanalyses do
343 provide strong evidence that the recent reduction in heat content was primarily due to
344 anomalous air-sea heat exchange. After removing the annual cycle, between November 2013
345 and April 2014 there was 6.7×10^{21} J reduction in the SPG ocean heat content. According to
346 the de-seasoned NCEP/NCAR net heat flux fields, this coincided with an increase in ocean
347 heat loss from surface fluxes of 5.6×10^{21} J from climatology for this time of year. The
348 attribution of this large change in SPG heat content to anomalous air-sea fluxes is atypical,
349 further indicating the unusual nature of winter 2013-14. Numerous studies using hindcasts
350 from high resolution ocean models have indicated that it appears to be more typical for large
351 changes in the SPG heat content, such as the mid 1990s warming, to be driven by variability
352 in the mid-latitude meridional ocean heat transport (Marsh et al. 2008; Grist et al. 2010).

353

354 3.3 Long-term Impacts on the Regional Climate System.

355 We finally consider the longer-term impacts of anomalous W14 forcing on the ocean,
356 and possibly the atmosphere, hence the regional climate system. First, we quantify the

357 anomalous wintertime formation of Subpolar Mode Water (SPMW), and then investigate the
358 regional reverberation of this water mass formation through trajectory analyses.

359

360 3.3.1 Formation of SPMW

361 Surface-forced water mass transformation and formation rates in the SPG, calculated
362 as outlined in Section 2 (following Speer and Tziperman, 1992), are shown in Fig. 13. In the
363 density range $27.1 < \sigma_0 < 27.4 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$, transformation rates for W14 exceed the standard
364 deviation about long-term means averaged over 1979-2013, peaking around 20 Sv at $\sigma_0 =$
365 27.3 kg m^{-3} , compared to a long-term mean of $\sim 12.5 \text{ Sv}$ (Fig. 13a). The corresponding
366 formation rates (derivatives of transformation rates with respect to density, computed at
367 “mid-point” densities) reveal anomalous water mass formation of $\sim 7 \text{ Sv}$ centred on $\sigma_0 =$
368 27.35 kg m^{-3} , substantially above the long-term mean of $\sim 2 \text{ Sv}$ (Fig. 13b). The similarly large
369 negative anomalies at $\sigma_0 = 26.85$ and 27.05 kg m^{-3} are consistent with stronger
370 “consumption” of water in these lighter density classes, balancing the stronger formation of
371 SPMW. To put SPMW formation of W14 in more historical context, in Fig. 13c we show
372 annual formation rates in two density classes representative of SPMW – centered on $\sigma_0 =$
373 27.35 and 27.45 kg m^{-3} , close to core values in the region (see de Boissésion et al. 2012, and
374 references therein) – and the mean of these two classes. It is evident that the combined
375 formation rates for these two densities reached the highest value since 1979, in W14.

376 Identifying enhanced surface formation in the density range $27.3 < \sigma_0 < 27.5 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$,
377 in Fig. 14 we map the thickness of the corresponding layer in the EN4 data, for March (the
378 end of winter) to July, averaged over 1979-2013, for 2014, and the “2014 minus 1979-2013
379 mean” anomalies. The mean thickness distributions reveal maximum thickness in the
380 northeast Atlantic, with thickness gradually eroded over March-July. In 2014, the area where

381 thicknesses exceeded 400 m spread notably to the south and west. This is evident in the
382 anomaly fields, with the most extensive thickness anomalies (> 200 m) evident in April, but
383 thickness anomalies > 100 m persisting along the southern flank of the SPG through July.

384

385 3.3.2 Transport, dispersal and transformation of anomalous SPMW

386 To investigate the likely fate of the SPMW thickness anomaly over seasonal to
387 interannual timescales, we make a first-order assumption that this mode water will move
388 passively with the general circulation and disperse as in previous years. To illustrate the
389 transport of SPMW, horizontal dispersal by eddies and diapycnal transformation through
390 mixing and subsequent air-sea interaction, we generate ensembles of particle trajectories
391 using the property and velocity fields from two eddy-resolving ocean model hindcasts,
392 ORCA12 and OFES, calculated with methods that have been developed for particle-tracking
393 in each hindcast (ARIANE and CMS respectively). Using 5-daily ORCA12 velocity and
394 tracer fields, ARIANE particles are released five times, 5 days apart, through April of 1988-
395 2006, on a $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid at 77 locations where the April 2014 SPMW layer thickness anomaly
396 exceeded 200 m, every ~ 100 m from 100-500 m. The 3D location and property for each
397 particle is saved to file every 5 days, up to day 540 (109 times). A similar strategy is adopted
398 for OFES and CMS, where velocity fields are available every three days. We then sample the
399 particles after 180, 360 and 540 days, to obtain maps of particle density (as a fraction of the
400 original number of particles released), illustrating the transport, lateral mixing and diapycnal
401 erosion of the representative SPMW anomaly. The results are summarized in Figure 15.
402 Overall, the two methods and datasets provide the same indication of drift to the northeast,
403 with a limited number of particles reaching the East Greenland Current and the Norwegian
404 Coastal Current by day 180, and substantial spreading both initially (by day 180) and
405 subsequently (over days 180-540). By day 540, there is considerable divergence of particles

406 between destinations in the SPG and the Norwegian Sea, with overall stronger dispersion and
407 divergence, but less erosion via further transformation, in OFES.

408

409 To further explore the likely re-emergence of anomalously cold SPMW in the subsequent
410 winter of 2014/15, we analyse OFES/CMS trajectories to see where and when particles are
411 re-entrained into the mixed layer. For each particle, we find out where and when it first
412 reached into the mixed layer (as defined by the mixed layer depth field from the OFES
413 simulation). To count only re-emergence in the subsequent winter, we do not consider
414 crossings into the mixed layer during the first 165 days (from April).

415

416 Fig. 16 shows when (Fig. 16a,b) and where (Fig. 16c) particles cross into the mixed layer.
417 Most re-entrainment into the mixed layer happens between the UK and Iceland, in the early
418 winter after the year of release (so 7 to 10 months after the month of April for which we
419 started the particle trajectories), i.e., between November and January; 77% of all particles
420 actually re-emerge in the first winter season after release, according to this analysis. Fig 16c
421 provides a projection of where the component of any autumn 2014 SST anomaly associated
422 with anomalous W14 SPMW may occur. However, considering the strength and depth of
423 W14 ocean cooling, reemergence may not be restricted to SPMW or this specific area.
424 Furthermore other air-sea interactions of winter 2014-2015 may lead to additional negative
425 (and positive) SST anomalies. We have examined whether there are any early signs of re-
426 emergence using NCEP/NCAR SST fields for late summer and early winter 2014. Figure 16d
427 shows the difference in SSTA for 1-10 November 2014 relative to the earlier 10 day period
428 September 20-30 2014 (chosen because it samples conditions at the end of summer when
429 significant re-emergence is not yet expected to have occurred). This figure indicates the
430 development of a cool SST feature over much of the region. This is consistent with the

431 proposal that some of the water cooled in W14 will undergo reemergence the following
432 autumn/winter and that part of the re-emergent signal is associated with the anomalous
433 formation of SPMW.

434

435 **4. Summary**

436 We utilized NCEP/NCAR and ERA-Interim reanalyses and the OAFlux data set to
437 examine the extreme North Atlantic winter of 2013-14, with a particular focus on the role of
438 air-sea interaction and subsequent impacts on the ocean. The strongest anomalies in the net
439 surface heat flux were located in the SPG and these were notably enhanced in the eastern half
440 of the basin. This anomaly was comprised primarily of exceptional latent and sensible heat
441 loss in the northeast Atlantic, associated with anomalously strong north-westerly winds,
442 bringing exceptionally cold and dry air across the northeast Atlantic.

443 The anomalous surface heat loss left an immediate imprint on the ocean in a number
444 of ways. First the cooling to depth on the poleward flank of the NAC, led to a strengthening
445 of the meridional temperature (and density) gradient. This had the effect of increasing the
446 maximum zonal geostrophic flow associated with the NAC. Additionally there was a
447 southward shift of this core. Second, the heat content of the upper 2000 m reduced markedly
448 to the lowest level since January 2004. Previous modelling studies (e.g. Marsh et al. 2008;
449 Grist et al. 2010) indicate that the attribution of such a significant change in SPG heat content
450 to air-sea fluxes is atypical, illustrating the strength of the heat flux anomalies in W14.

451 The longer-term legacy of winter 2013/14 is an anomalously cold and dense volume
452 of Subpolar Mode Water - one of the precursors of North Atlantic Deep Water (e.g.,
453 Langehaug, et al. 2012, and references therein) and thus an important component of the
454 Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC). The subpolar gyre has previously
455 been linked to decadal-timescale changes further to the north (Hátún et al., 2005). Here, we

456 have focused on a possible shorter-term response. Using particle trajectory analysis, we
457 investigated the likely dispersal of this SPMW on timescales up to 18 months, to encompass
458 seasonal-interannual impacts on the regional climate system.

459 Re-emergence of wintertime SSTA patterns in subsequent winters is ubiquitous
460 throughout much of the extratropical World Ocean (Hanawa and Sugimoto, 2004). The 2013-
461 14 winter SSTAs are similar in magnitude to previous re-emergence episodes in the wider
462 North Atlantic (e.g. winters 2009-10 and 2010-11, Taws et al., 2011), but are more clearly
463 subject to dynamical influences (the North Atlantic Current) that will lead to a degree of
464 “remote re-emergence” (Sugimoto and Hanawa, 2005). Consequently, we expect downstream
465 re-emergence of the anomalously cold W14 SPMW in subsequent winters. Coherent drift and
466 limited dispersal of the majority of SPMW “particles” suggest to us that statistically
467 significant negative SST anomalies may indeed re-emerge during winter 2014/15 between the
468 British Isles and Iceland, to the northeast of the initial formation site. This prediction is
469 supported by preliminary analysis of re-emergent OFES/CMS particles, with further ancillary
470 evidence in the evolving SSTA field for early November 2014 (Fig. 16).

471 To conclude, the winter of 2013-14 was exceptional as regards to the turbulent heat
472 flux anomalies experienced in the North Atlantic eastern subpolar gyre. These left an imprint
473 on the ocean both in the sea surface temperature and the formation rate of SPMW that may be
474 expected to have near-term consequences through re-emergent surface temperature signals.
475 Possible longer-term consequences are a slow baroclinic adjustment of the subpolar gyre to
476 perturbed density gradients and/or a response of the AMOC to “upstream” changes in SPMW
477 formation.

478

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485

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618 **Figures**

619

620 **Fig. 1** Anomalous NCEP/NCAR air-sea fluxes over the North Atlantic for W14 relative to
621 the 35 winters from 1979-80 to 2013-14. a) net heat flux (W m^{-2}), b) net freshwater flux (m s^{-1}) (precipitation minus evaporation) and c) momentum flux (N m^{-2}). The black contours
622 denote anomalies that are greater than two and three standard deviations from the mean. d)
623 anomalous W14 sea level pressure (shading, mb) and 10 m wind vectors (arrows). Positive
624 values denote fluxes into the ocean.
625

626 **Fig. 2** Anomalies in the different components of the W14 NCEP/NCAR surface net heat flux.
627 a) Latent heat flux b) sensible heat flux; c) net shortwave radiation; d) net longwave
628 radiation. All units are W m^{-2} . The black contours denote anomalies that are greater than two
629 and three standard deviations from the mean. Negative values denote an increase in oceanic
630 heat loss.

631 **Fig. 3** a) Anomalous ERA-I net heat flux over the North Atlantic for W14 relative to the 35
632 winters from 1979-80 to 2013-14. The black contours denote anomalies that are greater than
633 two and three standard deviations from the mean. b) anomalous W14 sea level pressure
634 (shading, mb) and 10 m wind vectors (arrows).

635 **Fig. 4** W14 Anomalies in the turbulent heat fluxes in ERA-I and OAFlux a) latent heat flux
636 (ERA-I); b) sensible heat flux (ERA-I) ; c) latent heat flux (OAFlux) d) sensible heat flux
637 (OAFlux). All units are W m^{-2} . The black contours denote anomalies that are greater than two
638 and three standard deviations from the mean. Negative values denote an increase in oceanic
639 heat loss.

640

641 **Fig. 5** The total winter (DJF) evaporation (kg) in 1° latitude band over the North Atlantic
642 Ocean. The black line denotes the long-term mean and the grey line denotes W14. a) NCEP-
643 NCAR, b) ERA-I and c) OAFflux.

644 **Fig. 6** Anomalous NCEP/NCAR W14 fields for a) 2m air temperature; b) surface or skin
645 temperature and c) surface minus air temperature or ΔT . All units are °C. The black contours
646 denote anomalies that are greater than two and three standard deviations from the mean.

647 **Fig. 7** Anomalous NCEP/NCAR W14 fields for a) 2m specific humidity; b) saturation
648 specific humidity at the surface or skin temperature and c) b) minus air a) or Δq . All units are
649 g kg^{-1} . The black contours denote anomalies that are greater than two and three standard
650 deviations from the mean.

651 **Fig. 8** Anomalous NCEP/NCAR W14 fields of a) precipitation and b) evaporation. Units are
652 m s^{-1} . c) Anomalous EN4 sea surface salinity (SSS) for W14. The black contours denote
653 anomalies that are greater than two and three standard deviations from the mean. Note
654 precipitation minus evaporation is shown in Fig. 1b).

655 **Fig. 9** Anomalous ERA-I W14 fields of a) precipitation and b) evaporation. Units are m s^{-1} .
656 The black contours denote anomalies that are greater than two and three standard deviations
657 from the mean.

658 **Fig. 10** Integrated atmospheric zonal moisture transport IVT for DJF of a) mean of winter
659 1979-80 to winter 2013-14, b) for W14. c) the IVT calculated using the mean winter winds
660 and the W14 humidity and d) calculated with W14 winds and the mean winter humidity
661 fields. Atmospheric moisture transport is vertically integrated from 1000mb to 300mb and the
662 units are $\text{kg m}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. The relevant zonal and meridional components are shown as arrows.

663 **Fig. 11** a) Mean 2002-14 March Temperature at 30°W as function of latitude and depth. b) as
664 a) but showing anomaly for March 2014. c) Mean 2002-14 March geostrophic velocity at
665 30°W as function of latitude and depth. d) as c) but showing anomaly for March 2014 (red

666 denotes an increase in the westward flow). Black lines in c) and d) are the 0.2 ms^{-1} contour
667 depicting the location of the strongest eastward flow and in particular the NAC at 43° N .
668 Grey line in d) shows the same but for March 2014. The black dashed lines in b) and d)
669 denote where the anomalies are greater than two and three standard deviations from the
670 mean.

671 **Fig. 12** Time series of ocean heat content (Joules) in the North Atlantic SPG (41°N to 65°N)
672 from January 2002 to June 2014 derived from the EN3 data set. The annual cycle has been
673 removed.

674 **Fig. 13** Surface-forced water mass transformation and formation rates in the eastern subpolar
675 gyre: (a) transformation rates averaged over 1979-2013 (blue curves, with standard
676 deviations) and for 2014 (red curve); (b) corresponding formation rates; (c) annual formation
677 rates in two density classes representative of SPMW and the mean of the two classes. The
678 two SPMW density classes are also shown denoted by green and magenta errorbars in b).

679 **Fig. 14** Thickness (m) of the layer bound by σ_0 surfaces 27.3 and 27.5 kg m^{-3} , for March-
680 July: averaged over 1979-2013 (a, c, e, g and i) and for the “2014 minus 1979-2013 mean”
681 anomaly (b, d, f, h, and j).

682 **Fig. 15** The proportion of SPMW particles (density ranging $27.3 < \sigma_0 < 27.5 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) in $1^\circ \times$
683 1° gridboxes: (a), (b) after 180 days; (c), (d) after 360 days; (e), (f) after 540 days; particle
684 distributions in (a), (c) and (e) are computed with ARIANE and ORCA12 datasets; particle
685 distributions in (b), (d) and (f) are computed with CMS and OFES datasets.

686 **Fig. 16** a) Frequency distribution of time taken for SPMW particles reach the mixed layer. b)
687 Frequency distribution of calendar month in which SPMW particles reach mixed layer. c)
688 Geographic frequency distribution of locations where SPMW particles reach mixed layer
689 after. All are based on the trajectory analysis with the CMS in the OFES model. d) The
690 NCEP/NCAR SST anomaly for October 2014.

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692