Curr Clim Change Rep manuscript No. (will be inserted by the editor)

- Observational Advances in Estimates of Oceanic
- ² Heating
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- 6 Received: date / Accepted: date

Abstract Since the early 21^{st} century, improvements in understanding cli-7 mate variability resulted from the growth of the ocean observing system. The 8 potential for a closure of the Earth's energy budget has emerged with the 9 unprecedented coverage of Argo profiling floats, which now provide a decade 10 (2006 - 2015) of invaluable information on ocean heat content changes above 11 2000m. The expertise gained from Argo and repeat hydrography sections mo-12 tivated the extension of the array toward the ocean bottom, which will pro-13 gressively reveal the poorly known deep ocean and reduce the uncertainty of 14 its presumed 10-15% contribution to the global ocean warming trend of 0.6515 - 0.80 W m⁻². The sustainability and synergy of various observing systems 16 helped to corroborate numerical models and decipher the internal variability 17 of distinct ocean basins. Due to unique observations of the circulation in the 18

Damien Desbruyères National Oceanography Centre E-mail: dades@noc.ac.uk Elaine L. McDonagh National Oceanography Centre Brian A. King National Oceanography Centre ¹⁹ North Atlantic, particular attention is paid to heat content changes and their

 $_{\rm 20}$ $\,$ relationship to dynamic variability in that region.

Keywords Oceanic heating · Argo · Repeat Hydrography · GO-SHIP · North
 Atlantic

23 1 Introduction

Observational data show an unequivocal warming of the Earth's climate sys-24 tem since the mid-twentieth century (Rhein et al. 2013). Every past decade 25 has been warmer than its predecessor, and the year 2015 now stands as the 26 warmest ever recorded (Tollefson 2016). This positive temperature trend at the 27 Earth's surface is driven by a radiative imbalance at the top of the atmosphere 28 (e.g. Allan et al. 2014), which is widely attributed to human activities and the 29 increased concentration of greenhouse gases in the troposphere (e.g. Trenberth 30 et al. 2014). The global surface signal is, however, being constantly modulated 31 by natural fluctuations of the climate system acting over a wide range of spatial 32 and temporal scales (e.g. volcanic eruptions, solar cycles, oceanic circulation). 33 For instance, those natural changes can significantly reduce the increase in 34 global mean surface temperature over periods of decades (e.g. Meehl et al. 35 2011), and mislead the wider community regarding the fate of global warming (Trenberth and Fasullo 2010). 37 The observational record, however, is becoming complete enough to as-38

certain the on going rise of the Earth's energy content. Amongst the heat 39 reservoirs, the global ocean plays a critical role in capturing heat from the 40 atmosphere and slowly redistributing it around the globe. More than 90% of 41 the anthropogenic heat enters the ocean at a rate of $0.65 - 0.80 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ (Rhein 42 et al. 2013; Wijffels et al. 2016). For a few decades, global and regional ocean 43 variability have been increasingly revealed by the synergy of several observing systems maintained and co-ordinated by strong international collaborations. 45 The repeat of full-depth hydrography sections (Talley et al. 2016), the remote 46 detection of sea-level changes (Church et al. 2011), the systematic sampling 47

of the upper ocean by profiling floats (Roemmich and Gilson 2009), and the 48 maintenance of trans-basin moored arrays (McCarthy et al. 2015a) became 49 the heart of our current understanding of the ocean's role in climate change. 50 They have, for instance, validated numerical models that provided complete 51 explanations of the recent surface warming slowdown at global scale (e.g. Fyfe 52 et al. 2016; Xie 2016), and also explained regional patterns of heat content 53 changes (e.g. Bryden et al. 2014). Important observational gaps however re-54 main, with the Achilles' heel of climate studies residing in the under-sampled 55 deep ocean and its uncertain contribution of 10-15% to recent changes in the 56 global heat and sea-level balances (Palmer et al. 2011). The systematic ob-57 servation of the deep and abyssal layers at sufficient resolution is needed to 58 average out vertical rearrangements of the heat field and hence capture the 59 anthropogenic warming more effectively. The emergence of a Deep Argo array 60 (Johnson et al. 2015) represents a significant step forward in that direction. 61

Abraham et al. (2013) provided a comprehensive review of the observing 62 systems used to assess temperature and oceanic heat content (OHC) changes 63 in the ocean, and detailed the major OHC indices and their uncertainties 64 from five decades of in situ measurements (1960-2011). Here, we (1) review 65 recent findings on the 21st century OHC variability revealed by the growing 66 observational record, (2) report innovative approaches for elucidating regional 67 mechanisms of OHC variability from in situ measurements (North Atlantic 68 focus), and (3) inform on the upcoming opportunities for closing the global 69 energy budget. 70

⁷¹ 2 The unabated heating of the upper ocean

⁷² 2.1 The global picture drawn by the Argo array

The first deployments for the Argo array of autonomous profiling floats were made in 2000. The array reached its target fleet size in 2007 with 3000 floats sampling the top two kilometres of the water column on a nominal 10-day cycle

(Roemmich and Gilson 2009). Today, in 2016, the Argo database provides more 76 than a million profiles of temperature (and salinity) with nominal accuracy of 77 0.002C for temperature and 2.4 dbar for pressure (Abraham et al. 2013). More 78 than 80% of the profiles in the current (to 2016) Argo database were obtained 79 after 2006, and the earlier description of the 0-2000m OHC was consequently 80 found to depend strongly on the choice of climatological references in data-81 sparse regions (Lyman and Johnson 2013; Cheng and Zhu 2015; Gaillard et al. 82 2016). Undersampled areas, particularly located in the southern Hemisphere, 83 may have significantly biased low the estimates of global OHC trends between 84 1970 and 2004 (Durack et al. 2014). The uncertain nature of the multi-decadal 85 record was further highlighted by the difficulty of correcting significant biases 86 in expendable bathythermograph measurements, which represented the main 87 source of upper-ocean temperature profiles before the launch of Argo (Lyman 88 et al. 2010; Goes et al. 2015). Overall, the OHC curves prior to the mid 2000's 89 have large error-bars, and the year-to-year variations typically show limited 90 agreement with the net TOA fluxes estimated from satellite products (Loeb 91 et al. 2012; Smith et al. 2015). It is therefore for about a decade (since the Argo 92 fleet neared completion), that the observing system has been adequate for the 93 global analysis of upper OHC changes, although persistent spread between the 94 various 0-2000m OHC estimates still hampers a robust closure of the current 95 Earth energy budget (von Schuckmann et al. 2016). 96

Through comparison of three Argo analyses, the global OHC trend above 97 2000m during the period 2006-2015 was estimated as 0.50 - 0.65 W $\rm m^{-2}$ over 98 the effectively sampled ocean (Figure 1 - from Wijffels et al. (2016)). As ex-99 pected, the global warming rate shows its strongest magnitude in the first 100 few hundred meters of the water column and the interannual variability above 101 500m shows pronounced changes that control the global temperature variations 102 at the air-sea interface (Roemmich et al. 2015). Those upper OHC changes re-103 flects in large part the El-Niño/Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and its influence 104 on the horizontal tilt of the equatorial thermocline in the Pacific. In addition 105 to this interannual signal, the shift from a positive to a negative phase of the 106

Pacific Decadal Oscillation in the early 2000's significantly cooled the Eastern
Pacific, which reduced the positive trend in global mean surface temperature
while increasing subsurface heat uptake (e.g. England et al. 2014; Meehl et al.
2011; Johansson et al. 2015). It is now widely accepted that the global mean
surface temperature is a poor indicator of the global heat gain (e.g. Palmer
and McNeall 2014).

The most recent OHC trend (2006-2015) was marked by a clear hemispheric 113 asymmetry, with the southern hemisphere heating much faster than northern 114 latitudes (Roemmich et al. 2015). A full understanding for such a striking 115 warming of the Southern Hemisphere extra-tropics across the three oceans 116 is, however, still missing. The inhomogeneous radiative forcing by ozone and 117 aerosols may have played a role (Shindell 2014), so did internal ocean vari-118 ability. In fact, the horizontal distribution of the OHC trend in the upper 119 layer emphasizes substantial redistribution of heat driven by the intrinsic dy-120 namics of each ocean basin. Amongst them, a strong OHC rise in the Indian 121 Ocean stood out, with a temperature trend between 2006 and 2015 accounting 122 for 50-70% of the global OHC trend above 700m (Nieves et al. 2015). Such 123 a rise in the Indian Ocean's OHC presumably originated in the western Pa-124 cific following a dynamical response to a shift toward a negative phase of the 125 Interdecadal Pacific Oscillation, and a subsequent intensification of the heat 126 transport through the Indonesian Archipelago (Lee et al. 2015). 127

Moving down through the water column, the contribution of the interme-128 diate layer (700-2000m) to the global OHC change above 2000m was about 129 50% of the full water column during 2006-2015 (Figure 2), that is 20% higher 130 than the long-term (1955-2010) estimation of Levitus et al. (2012). This recent 131 and on going increase in the sequestration of heat below the upper layer has 132 been supported by model-based analysis (Gleckler et al. 2016) and linked to a 133 combination of multiple underlying mechanisms driven by the local modes of 134 atmospheric variability (Trenberth and Fasullo 2013). In particular, the signif-135 icant warming of the North Atlantic and Southern Ocean in the depth range 136 of Labrador Sea Water and Antarctic Intermediate Water (Chen and Tung 137

2014) reinforced the idea of a strong link between convective processes, meridional overturning cells (MOC), and intermediate/deep heat storage (e.g. Meehl
et al. 2011; Katsman and van Oldenborgh 2011; Robson 2014; Drijtfhout et al.
2014; Williams et al. 2014; Rahmstorf et al. 2015). This link has received increased attention from the observational community in recent years, through
the development of sustained observing systems and innovative methodologies.

¹⁴⁴ 2.2 Observational insights into the regional dynamics: An Atlantic 'lead'

Direct and sustained observations of the ocean circulation are difficult tasks, 145 and there exist very few observational records capable of linking ocean dy-146 namics and decadal variability of the climate system. Ocean reanalysis (ORA) 147 that assimilate in situ and satellite data in a dynamical and statistical way can 148 be used to provide such a link with satisfactory degrees of consistency (e.g. 149 Balmaseda et al. 2013). Yet, the multitude of assimilation-based analysis has 150 to be interpreted in the light of poor observational constrains below the upper 151 layer and large spreads between models due to the different dynamic schemes 152 employed (Palmer et al. 2015). These sources of uncertainties and model bi-153 ases are being tackled within the ocean reanalysis inter-comparison project 154 (Balmaseda et al. 2015), but their understanding will also rely on valuable 155 observations that infer the dynamics of OHC changes. 156

Due to its major role in the meridional and vertical rearrangement of heat, 157 the Atlantic became in the last decade a targeted field for innovative observa-158 tional experiments. The establishment in 2004 of the RAPID-MOCHA observ-159 ing system to measure the MOC at 26°N has led to unprecedented views on 160 the internal dynamics of a critical ocean basin in the climate system (Srokosz 161 and Bryden 2015). In addition to detecting a MOC weakening over a decade of 162 magnitude exceeding the strength predicted by climate models (Smeed et al. 163 2014), the RAPID time-series proved the close relationship between short-164 term changes in oceanic heat transport (30% AMOC reduction in 2009/10) and 165 rapid OHC events in the North Atlantic sector ($\sim 1.3 \ 10^{22}$ J lost between 25°N 166

and 45°N) Bryden et al. (2014). Promising use of altimetry data for retracing 167 past MOC changes at 26N have been proposed (Frajka-Williams 2015), while 168 alternative methodologies based on coastal sea-level changes along the US east 169 coast demonstrated the hypothesized multi-decadal correlation between circu-170 lation changes and upper OHC in the mid-latitude North Atlantic (McCarthy 171 et al. 2015b). The dominant role of heat transport convergence in driving 172 long-term OHC changes in the North Atlantic was also deduced through com-173 prehensive analyses of ORA models (Williams et al. 2014; Häkkinen et al. 174 2015). These multi-decadal OHC changes exert a strong influence on surface 175 temperature patterns such as the Atlantic Multi-decadal Oscillation (Delworth 176 and Mann 2000), which subsequently drive turbulent heat fluxes at the air-sea 177 interface and associated atmospheric responses (Gulev et al. 2013). 178

At higher latitudes, an exceptionally long hydrography time series (1975-179 present) of full-depth temperature and salinity in the northeastern Atlantic 180 also showed significant interannual and decadal OHC fluctuations likely to 181 be driven by circulation changes (Holliday et al. 2015). The observed upper 182 cooling of the eastern subpolar gyre during the most recent years (2006-2014) 183 derived from repeat hydrography appeared in line with Argo-derived trends 184 (Desbruyères et al. 2014), and suggested an on going eastward expansion of 185 cold subpolar waters and a southward retreat of warm subtropical waters 186 (e.g. Häkkinen et al. 2013; Desbruyères et al. 2013). A similar hydrography 187 time series in the western subpolar gyre has recently revealed the return of 188 intense deep convection in the winter of 2013/14, generating a new vintage 189 of Labrador Sea Water (LSW) currently spreading within the subpolar gyre 190 (Kieke and Yashayaev 2015) and affecting the heat content of the intermediate 191 and deep layers (e.g. Mauritzen et al. 2012). The intensity of deep convection 192 in the Greenland and Icelandic seas conversely shows a multi-decadal decline, 193 with potential implication for the properties of the densest water masses filling 194 the Atlantic bottom layer (Moore et al. 2015). 195

During the summer of 2014, the North Atlantic's observing system made another step change with the deployment of a mooring array in the Labrador

Sea, Irminger Sea and Iceland basin ("Overturning in the Subpolar North At-198 lantic Program" - OSNAP - http://www.o-snap.org). The OSNAP array will 199 reveal the mechanisms governing changes in the subpolar overturning circu-200 lation, and complement existing local indices based on Argo, altimetry and 201 repeat hydrography (e.g. Mercier et al. 2013). The combination of findings 202 from RAPID and OSNAP, along with the continuing efforts to continuously 203 monitor the meridional circulation at southern latitudes (Biastoch et al. 2015; 204 Ansorge et al. 2014; Meinen et al. 2013), will soon provide new insights into 205 ocean dynamics connectivity and the associated evolution of the Atlantic OHC. 206

²⁰⁷ 3 Tackling uncertainties: a deep ocean perspective

Our understanding of OHC changes in the deep and abyssal ocean comes from 208 the synoptic shipboard occupations of repeat hydrographic sections (Talley 209 et al. 2016). While these sections represent the most accurate component of 210 the observing system (accuracy of 0.002°C), they have limited temporal reso-211 lution and spatial coverage. Following the first mapping of water masses over 212 the globe by the World Ocean Climate Experiment (WOCE) (Ganachaud and 213 Wunsch 2003), the follow-up surveys co-ordinated by the "Climate Variability 214 (CLIVAR)" and the "Global Ocean Ship-based Hydrographic Investigations 215 (GO-SHIP)" programs have yielded quantifications of the global and regional 216 deep and abyssal changes in OHC. Purkey and Johnson (2010) estimated a 0.07 217 \pm 0.06 W m⁻² heat flux across the 2000m isobar during 1993 - 2006 from hy-218 drography sections occupied in 1990's and 2000's. The abyssal warming below 219 the 4000m isobar was estimated as 0.027 ± 0.009 W m⁻², with the strongest 220 trends observed in the Southern Ocean and in deep western boundary currents 221 along the northward routes of Antarctic Bottom Water (AABW) (Kouketsu 222 et al. 2011; Sloyan et al. 2013). Both slow advective processes and compara-223 tively fast wave-like dynamics can lead to deep and abyssal OHC trends (e.g. 224 Masuda et al. 2010). Multiple factors have accordingly been proposed to ex-225 plain the decadal warming of AABW, including freshening of the Ross Sea 226

Shelf Water and the associated downward heave of isopycnal surfaces, as well 227 as wind-driven variability of the Weddell gyre (Purkey and Jonhson 2012; 228 Purkey and Johnson 2013; Katsumata et al. 2014). Updating the hydrography 229 dataset with section repeats up to 2015 has enabled a calculation and compar-230 ison of deep and abyssal warming rates during the 1990's and 2000's decades. 231 The comparison of these decadal changes revealed no statistically significant 232 difference in the magnitude and structure of the global decadal warming rate 233 at deep and abyssal levels (Desbruyères et al. (a)). However there are differ-234 ences in the regional trends, specifically trend reversals in the deep Atlantic 235 and deep Pacific consistent with the simulated redistribution of heat during 236 hiatus periods (Meehl et al. 2011). Estimations of deep temperature trends 237 from repeat hydrography during 2003-2012 have been further combined with 238 the Argo-based analysis of the 0-2000m layer to yield a blended estimate of the 239 full-depth ocean heat uptake $(0.71 \pm 0.12 \text{ W m}^{-2}, 10\% \text{ found below 2000m})$ 240 and a new representation of its vertical structure from the last decade of sus-241 tained observations (Figure 2). 242

The reported uncertainties of hydrography-derived temperature trends be-243 low 2000m remain large. There are still significant gaps in the sampling cov-244 erage that introduce an unknown bias in the above estimates (see for instance 245 the mismatch between the Argo-derived trend and the hydrography-derived 246 trend at 2000m in Figure 2), and alternative methodologies based on sea-level 247 and Argo measurements raised further concerns about the significance of the 248 reported trend in deep ocean and its contribution to the global planetary en-249 ergy budget (Llovel et al. 2014). An emerging technology that will bring us 250 closer to the closure of the global heat budget is Deep-Argo: a new observing 251 system of profiling floats that will operate deeper than 2000 m (Johnson and 252 Lyman 2014). The array design has been informed by analysis of core-Argo 253 and repeat hydrographic sections (Johnson et al. 2015). Specifically, estima-254 tions of temporal and spatial decorrelation scales using full-depth CTD profiles 255 and Argo-derived time series showed that an array deployed at 5 latitude x 5 256 longitude x 15-day cycle (about 1200 floats) would provide decadal trends of 257

local temperature and global OHC below 2000m with unprecedented accuracy
(1 to 26 m°C decade⁻¹ and 3 TW, respectively). The program is at an early
stage, priority is now to monitor the mechanical behaviour of deployed floats
and to assess sensor behaviours and drift to validate the first temperature and
salinity profiles.

263 4 Conclusion

The precise quantification and understanding of global and regional climate 264 change is strongly dependent on how well the oceans are observed. The sys-265 tematic sampling of the upper water column by Argo profiling floats marked 266 a transition for the historical oceanographic record, until then hampered by 267 under-sampled areas and instrumental biases that made any quantification of 268 global OHC changes challenging. The Argo array has now captured a decade 269 of temperature changes, including the warming trend driven by anthropogenic 270 forcing. This upward ocean temperature trend is being constantly deformed 271 by internal and external fluctuations of the climate system acting over a wide 272 range of spatial and temporal scales. The most recent variability in global and 273 regional OHC within the upper water column has been particularly assessed in 274 the context of a significant slow-down of surface temperature rise, and focuses 275 were consequently made on vertical rearrangements of the oceanic heat field. 276 These global rearrangements, which appear to be dominated by variability in 277 the top 500m of the Pacific related to El-Nino type regime shifts, have been pri-278 marily understood as a result of analysis of numerical model output. However, 279 innovative observational experiments have effectively elucidated some essen-280 tial mechanisms of regional OHC variability. Amongst the major ocean basins, 281 the extensive observation of the North Atlantic by a sustained moored array 282 in the subtropics and hydrography records of unprecedented length at higher 283 latitudes was used to decipher some links between ocean dynamics (MOC and 284 horizontal gyres) and interannual to decadal OHC signals. 285

The repeat of hydrographic sections has demonstrated the likelihood of a 286 concomitant warming of the water column below 2000m, representing about 287 10-15% of the whole oceanic heat uptake, and showing no sign of significant in-288 tensification during the hiatus era. The uncertain nature of this deep warming 289 trend has highlighted the need for a sustained and systematic deep observing 290 system that will complement the crucial repeat of shipboard measurements. 291 The community response is the nascent Deep-Argo array, which promises to 292 yield, in about a couple of decades, unprecedented insights into the dynamics 293 of the abyssal circulation while providing measurements of the "missing heat" 294 for closing the Earth energy and sea level budgets. 295

Acknowledgements This work is a contribution to the DEEP-C project, funded by the 296 British National Environmental Research Council (NERC - grant NE/K004387/1). GO-297 SHIP CTD data were made available by data originators either as public data on the 298 CCHDO website (http://cchdo.ucsd.edu), where cruise participants can be identified, or 299 directly by cruise PIs. Argo data (http://doi.org/10.17882/42182) were collected and made 300 freely available by the International Argo Program and the national programs that con-301 tribute to it (http://www.argo.ucsd.edu, http://argo.jcommops.org). The Argo Program 302 is part of the Global Ocean Observing System. The $26.5^\circ\mathrm{N}$ array is a collaborative effort of the second seco 303 fort supported through the NERC RAPID-WATCH program, the NSF meridional over-304 turning circulation heat-flux array project, and the NOAA western boundary time series 305 project. Data from the RAPID-WATCH and MOCHA projects are freely available online 306 (www.rapid.ac.uk/rapidmoc; www.rsmas.miami.edu/users/mocha). We thank the many in-307 vestigators who contribute to these observing systems, and gratefully acknowledge the two 308 anonymous reviewers for their positive feedback and their help in improving the clarity of 309 the paper. 310

Conflict of Interest On behalf of all authors, the corresponding author states that there is no conflict of interest.

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Fig. 1 Ocean warming rates and distributions. a, Globally averaged surface temperature anomaly (STA, $^{\circ}$ C), from 5 m Argo OI temperature (red), NOAA (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration) global ocean (turquoise) and a 6-month running mean of NOAA global land averages (grey). b, Global average ocean temperature anomalies from the Argo OI (contour interval is 0.01 for colours, 0.05 $^{\circ}$ C in grey). c, Global ocean 0-2,000 m heat content anomaly as a function of time, with the OI version a 4-month running mean. d, Global average 2006-November 2015 potential temperature trend ($^{\circ}$ C per decade). e, Zonally integrated heat content trends in 1° latitude bands from the three mapping methods. For line plots c, d and e, the sources are: OI (red), RSOI (blue) and RPF (black-dashed). From Wijfells et al, (2016), Nature Climate Change.



Fig. 2 The surface-to-bottom profile of global temperature trend (solid red line) computed from Argo and repeat hydrography data. The associated 95% confidence intervals are shown in dashed lines. The bars indicate the contribution of 100m-thick layers to the global heat uptake (relative to global surface area). Numerical values indicate the heat content trend within the upper (0-700m), intermediate (700m-2000m), deep (2000m-4000m) and abyssal (4000m-6000m) layers. Note the different x-axis scales used for Argo and hydrography-related profiles. The dot indicates the Argo-derived trend values and uncertainties at 2000m depth.