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1 **Global and Full-depth Ocean Temperature Trends during the early 21<sup>st</sup>**  
2 **century from Argo and Repeat Hydrography**

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## ABSTRACT

10 The early 21st century's warming trend of the full-depth global ocean is  
11 calculated by combining the analysis of Argo (top 2000m) and repeat hy-  
12 drography into a blended full-depth observing system. The surface-to-bottom  
13 temperature change over the last decade of sustained observation is equiva-  
14 lent to a heat uptake of  $0.72 \pm 0.09 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  applied over the surface of the  
15 earth, 90% of it being found above 2000m depth. We decompose the tempera-  
16 ture trend point-wise into changes in isopycnal depth (heave) and temperature  
17 changes along an isopycnal (spiciness) to describe the mechanisms control-  
18 ling the variability. The heave component dominates the global heat content  
19 increase, with the largest trends found in the southern hemisphere's extrat-  
20 ropics (0 - 2000m) highlighting a volumetric increase of subtropical mode  
21 waters. Significant heave-related warming is also found in the deep North At-  
22 lantic and Southern Ocean (2000m - 4000m), reflecting a potential decrease in  
23 deep water mass renewal rates. The spiciness component shows its strongest  
24 contribution at intermediate levels (700m - 2000m), with striking localised  
25 warming signals in regions of intense vertical mixing (North Atlantic and  
26 Southern oceans). Finally, the agreement between the independent Argo and  
27 repeat hydrography temperature changes at 2000m provides an overall good  
28 confidence in the blended heat content evaluation on global and ocean scales,  
29 but also highlights basin scale discrepancies between the two independent es-  
30 timates. Those mismatches are largest in those basins with the largest heave  
31 signature (Southern Ocean) and reflect both the temporal and spatial sparse-  
32 ness of the hydrography sampling.

## 33 **1. Introduction**

34 Since the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century, the Earth's climate system has undergone human-induced changes  
35 with potentially large socio-economical impacts. Those changes include increasing global oceanic  
36 heat content (OHC) representing about 93% of the Earth's heat uptake (Intergovernmental Panel  
37 on Climate Change 2013). Major international and national efforts are underway to monitor this  
38 key climatic variable and understand the physical basis behind its variability, as a prerequisite for  
39 better regional and global predictions. These efforts rely on the development of sustained global  
40 observational networks from shipboard and autonomous systems. While the first survey of the full-  
41 depth coast-to-coast oceans by the World Ocean Climate Experiment (WOCE) shed new light on  
42 the physical properties (temperature, salinity, velocity) of the global ocean interior (e.g. Ganachaud  
43 and Wunsch 2003), the follow-up surveys supported by the Climate Variability, Predictability and  
44 Change (CLIVAR) and the Global Ocean Ship-based Hydrographic Investigations (GO-SHIP)  
45 programs enabled quantification of changing properties including global oceanic warming (e.g.  
46 Purkey and Johnson 2010). For the most recent decade, the decadal repeat of hydrographic sections  
47 is being supplemented by the Argo array, which reached its target fleet size in 2007 with 3000 floats  
48 sampling the top two kilometres of the water column on a nominal 10-day cycle (Roemmich and  
49 Gilson 2009). The Argo program has revolutionised our understanding of properties, circulation,  
50 and associated climate variability in the upper 2000m of the ocean.

51 Using the unprecedented sampling resolution of the Argo array, many of the recent analyses of  
52 OHC variability described the upper half of the water column. Estimates of the globally-averaged  
53 warming trends above 2000m fall within the range 0.3 to 0.7 W m<sup>-2</sup> during the years 2006-2012  
54 (von Schuckmann et al. 2016). The most recent estimate is between 0.5 to 0.65 W m<sup>-2</sup> over the  
55 Argo-sampled regions during 2006-2015 (Wijffels et al. 2016). While the observational record

56 is becoming complete enough to ascertain the ongoing rise of the Earth's energy content, the  
57 slowdown of global surface temperature rise - or *hiatus* - during the 2000's (Trenberth and Fasullo  
58 2010) has increased interest in analysis of the regional and vertical signatures of that global trend  
59 (e.g. Meehl et al. 2011; England et al. 2014; Kostov et al. 2014; Drijfhout et al. 2014; Chen and  
60 Tung 2014). Model studies have particularly emphasised the need to measure temperature changes  
61 throughout the whole water column to average out vertical rearrangements and hence capture the  
62 anthropogenic warming more effectively (e.g. Palmer et al. 2015).

63 Focusing on the 1990's to 2000's trend, Purkey and Johnson (2010) reported the significance of  
64 the deep and abyssal layers in the global heat budget, with a hydrography-derived warming rate be-  
65 low 2000 m depth representing about 10-15% of the current trend captured by Argo above 2000m.  
66 Continuing international efforts coordinated by GO-SHIP have now produced another decade of  
67 repeat hydrography sections around the globe. These sections allow some first quantifications of  
68 deep and abyssal ocean changes during the most recent decade, complementing the results ob-  
69 tained via Argo. We therefore extend the regional analysis of Desbruyères et al. (2014) to the  
70 near-global ocean, using a blend of Argo and shipboard repeat hydrography data for the analysis  
71 of OHC trends throughout the water column. In addition to providing estimations of the full-depth  
72 OHC changes on global and regional scale during the last decade of sustained observations, the  
73 blended Argo-Hydrography estimates will be used to characterise some limitations of the current  
74 deep observing system.

75 Argo-based OHC trend estimates show strong regional variations (e.g. Roemmich et al. 2015)  
76 reflecting the dynamical redistribution of heat laterally and vertically on time scales ranging from  
77 weeks to decades. Understanding the anthropogenic imprint on the ocean will be informed by  
78 diagnosing the mechanisms and controls of regional temperature changes. Here, we follow Bindoff  
79 and McDougall (1994) and use a decomposition of the temperature variability into changes in

80 water mass property along isopycnals (referred to as spiciness herein) versus changes related to  
81 vertical displacements of isopycnals (referred to as 'heave herein). Spiciness represents a shift of  
82 the  $\theta/S$  profiles, which implies density-compensated changes in  $\theta$  and  $S$ . The passive spreading of  
83 spice anomalies by the general circulation and their resurfacing at a remote location is one of the  
84 key mechanisms for climate variability teleconnections (Johnson et al. 2005). Heave represents  
85 the change in temperature at a fixed depth due to either adiabatic (e.g. wind forcing) or diabatic  
86 (e.g. subduction of warm waters) processes that leads to vertical migrations of isopycnal surfaces.  
87 This heave/spiciness decomposition, which was first proposed by Bindoff and McDougall (1994),  
88 has been recently used to characterize the historical patterns of the global OHC in the upper 700m  
89 of the water column from ocean reanalysis products and ocean state estimates (Häkkinen et al.  
90 2016). The authors highlighted that the multi-decadal warming climate was accompanied by a  
91 remarkable deepening of mid-thermocline isopycnals, reflecting the lateral spreading of heat from  
92 high-latitude ventilation regions and a global expansion of subtropical mode waters (e.g. Church  
93 et al. 1991). Deeper in the water column, heave-related temperature changes on decadal scale  
94 were also reported around Antarctica in the depth range of Antarctic Bottom Water (Purkey and  
95 Jonhson 2012) and in the North Atlantic Subpolar Gyre in the depth range of Labrador Sea Water  
96 (Desbruyères et al. 2014), suggesting transport changes associated with the lower limb of the  
97 meridional overturning circulation. The heave/spiciness decomposition, which has not yet been  
98 assessed from full-depth global measurements, is here applied to the blended Argo-Hydrography  
99 estimate to complement the description of the regional and vertical distribution of OHC during the  
100 early 21<sup>st</sup> century.

101 The paper is structured as follows. Section 2 describes the Argo and hydrography datasets used  
102 herein. Section 3 describes the three-dimensional distribution of temperature trend and associated  
103 OHC. Section 4 focuses on the respective contribution of heave and spiciness variability, and

104 Section 5 discusses the degree of agreement between the independent estimates provided by Argo  
105 and repeat hydrography. Section 6 discusses and summarises the main results.

## 106 **2. Data and methods**

107 The spatial and temporal distributions of the Argo and hydrography datasets are shown in Fig-  
108 ure 1. For their analysis, 33 basins defined by bathymetry and climatological bottom temperature  
109 (Purkey and Johnson 2010) will be assembled into four groups: Atlantic (red), Pacific (dark blue),  
110 Indian (green) and Southern (light blue). Following common practice, the description of the ver-  
111 tical patterns will refer to the 0-700m, 700m-2000m, 2000m-4000m and 4000m-6000m layers as  
112 the upper, intermediate, deep and abyssal layers, respectively.

### 113 *a. Argo*

114 The upper and intermediate layers of the water column are analysed using Argo profiles gath-  
115 ered every 10 days between January 2006 and December 2014 and passed through Argo Delayed  
116 Mode Quality Control (<http://doi.org/10.17882/42182>). This time period was chosen following  
117 the thorough error analysis of Roemmich et al. (2015) that showed the inadequacy of the Argo  
118 array prior to 2006 when studying global ocean trends. The accuracy of temperature, salinity and  
119 pressure measurements are 0.002°C, 0.01 psu and 2.4 dbar, respectively (Roemmich and Gilson  
120 2009). Optimal interpolation (OI) is used to select and map Argo profiles on a regular 2° grid with  
121 a 20 db vertical resolution, as described in Desbruyères et al. (2014) and detailed below. Regions  
122 of highest float densities are found in the northeastern Atlantic, the south Australian basin, the  
123 subtropical Pacific and the Kuroshio area (Figure 1b). Fewer measurements are available in the  
124 subtropical South Atlantic and along continental boundaries (especially Antarctica). The Arctic



125 Ocean and the Caribbean, Mediterranean and Indonesian Seas are not included in the present study  
126 due to lack of data.

127 The OI was carried out on density surfaces (rather than depth surfaces for instance) in order to  
128 preserve the water mass temperature/salinity structure, and temperature anomalies were referenced  
129 to a 2005-2012 climatological field that was largely based on Argo data (World Ocean Atlas 2013).  
130 For a given grid point, the OI determines the weights to be assigned to the surrounded Argo  
131 profiles according to the spatial distribution and the spatial covariance of those profiles. The  
132 weights, determined with a spatial length scale of 500 km, provide the optimal estimate of the  
133 mean anomaly to be mapped. If the data surrounding the grid point is sparse, the mapping error  
134 returned by the OI will be consequently high.

135 The year-long continuous time-series of temperature obtained from the OI were smoothed point-  
136 wise with a 12-month running mean for removing the seasonal cycle (note that subtracting the  
137 monthly average from each corresponding months yields similar results). The temperature ten-  
138 dency with time at each grid point was obtained via a linear regression (in the least-square sense)  
139 and the associated standard error of the local temperature tendency (*SSE*) at each grid point was  
140 derived by combining the time series of the formal mapping error  $\varepsilon$  from the OI and the time series  
141 of the residual misfit of the trend  $r$  (assuming independency of  $\varepsilon$  and  $r$ ) as:

$$SSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(r^2 + \varepsilon^2)}{(n-2)\sum(x-\bar{x})^2}} \quad (1)$$

142 where  $n$  is the number of observations, and  $x$  is time. The number of degree of freedom (DOF)  
143 of each time series was computed by dividing the length of the time series by its autocorrelation  
144 timescales (i.e. first zero crossing of the autocorrelation sequence). The numbers of DOF show  
145 small spatial variability within the global domain, with values of about  $10 \pm 3$ . We choose 10  
146 DOF as a typical value for converting the *SSE* into a 95% confidence interval, following Student

147 t-test distribution. The gridded fields of temperature trends are finally averaged over ocean basins  
148 to examine the vertical structure of the temperature trend (e.g. Figure 2). This is done using the  
149 fractional area of individual grid points as a weight in the integration. Similarly, averaged errors are  
150 computed as the arithmetic weighted sum of the error, providing the upper (conservative) bounds  
151 of the uncertainties at each pressure level (e.g Levitus et al. 2012). Trend estimates and their errors  
152 are also averaged over depth intervals to examine the regional distribution of the temperature trend  
153 (e.g. Figure 3).

#### 154 *b. Repeat hydrography*

155 The deep and abyssal layers of the water column are analysed using shipboard conductivity-  
156 temperature-depth (CTD) data from 60 hydrography repeats carried out along 18 sections since  
157 the year 2000 (Figure 1a and Figure 1c). The North Atlantic has the densest sampling, whilst  
158 the northern Indian, the eastern tropical Pacific and some parts of the Southern Ocean remain  
159 unsampled. The current standards for such measurements are 0.002°C for temperature, 0.002  
160 psu for salinity and 3 dbar for pressure (Hood et al. 2010). The underlying methodology has  
161 been described previously in Purkey and Johnson (2010) and Desbruyères et al. (2014). For each  
162 section, the temperature fields are interpolated along a nominal cruise track on a 3 kilometres x 20  
163 db grid and the linear trend at every grid point is computed from the available number of repeats.  
164 We calculate a mean temperature trend and its standard deviation at every pressure level for each  
165 of the 23 basins sampled by repeat hydrography by dividing the sections at the basin boundaries.  
166 We note here that the repeat hydrography reference sections are designed with the aim of having  
167 one repeat section in each basin, with this section being representative of that ocean basin. If a  
168 basin is crossed by more than one section, the length-weighted average and standard deviation  
169 are used. The uncertainty of the mean trend at every pressure level for each basin is computed

170 by dividing the mean standard deviation of the trend by the square root of a number of degree of  
171 freedom. The latter is derived by dividing the cumulated length of the sections crossing that basin  
172 by a horizontal decorrelation scale of 163 km (Purkey and Johnson 2010). The 95% confidence  
173 interval of the trend at every pressure level is obtained assuming a Student t-test distribution. We  
174 note here that such uncertainty represents a commission error. Omission error will be evaluated  
175 independently in Section 5 by combining hydrography and Argo-derived trends at the 2000 db  
176 horizon. The area of each basin at each pressure level is finally used as a weight to compute five  
177 distinct averaged profiles for the Atlantic, Pacific, Indian, Southern and Global oceans (e.g. Figure  
178 2).

179 Altogether, the sections describe the mean time span 2003-2012, obtained by averaging the  
180 dates of the first and last occupations of all sections. However, the temporal inhomogeneity of the  
181 hydrography sampling implies that the time-spans described may slightly differ between sections  
182 and hence from one basin to the other. The underlying methodology (Purkey and Johnson 2010)  
183 hence assumes that the linear temperature trends computed along each section are representative of  
184 a common time-span. Moreover, such timing restrictions of the hydrography sampling means that  
185 it cannot precisely match the chosen Argo window (January 2006 - December 2014), introducing  
186 potential temporal biases when merging the two independent estimates. From the analysis of  
187 Roemmich et al. (2015) and Durack et al. (2014), we argue that stronger OHC biases would be  
188 introduced above 2000m if the early years of Argo (2003-2005) were included to better match  
189 the hydrography window. The agreement between the two independent datasets will be further  
190 detailed and discussed in Section 5.

### 191 **3. The spatial distribution of temperature changes**

192 The ocean temperature change is presented in two ways. The first is the average temperature  
193 change in  $\text{m}^\circ\text{C yr}^{-1}$  at each pressure level (lines in Figure 2). The second is the OHC trend in  $\text{W}$   
194  $\text{m}^{-2}$  within each 100 m bin (bars in Figure 2, with unit of  $10^{-3} \text{ W m}^{-2}$  for clarity), computed by  
195 multiplying the average temperature trend of individual 100 m layer by the volume, the density  
196 and the thermal heat capacity of the layer. The structures of the average temperature trend and the  
197 associated average OHC trends differ as the latter also depends on the volume of the 100m-thick  
198 layers. Note that the average OHC trends are presented as applied over the entire surface of the  
199 Earth, in order to be directly comparable to top-of-atmosphere measurements without reference to  
200 regional or global ocean areas.

#### 201 *a. The global picture*

202 The global ocean is warming at all pressure levels (Figure 2a), with warming maxima visible at  
203 the surface, 1000m, and 4200m. The full-depth average warming is  $2.2 \pm 0.3 \text{ m}^\circ\text{C yr}^{-1}$ , which  
204 corresponds to a global heat uptake of  $0.72 \pm 0.09 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  (relative to the Earth surface area) and  
205 a thermosteric sea-level rise of  $0.87 \pm 0.13 \text{ mm yr}^{-1}$ . All four major oceans have warmed. The  
206 Southern Ocean shows the strongest OHC trend ( $0.24 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ , that is 34% of the global OHC  
207 change), followed by the Indian Ocean ( $0.17 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ ), the Atlantic Ocean ( $0.16 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ ), and  
208 the Pacific Ocean ( $0.15 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ ). The global warming rate of the 0-2000m layer ( $0.65 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ )  
209 estimated from Argo explains 90% of the full-depth estimate, the remainder ( $0.07 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ ) is esti-  
210 mated by repeat hydrography in the deeper layers. Below, we focus on the temperature trends and  
211 their associated OHC trends within the four distinct layers, describing both their vertical structures  
212 (Figure 2) and their horizontal distributions (Figure 3). Figure 4 highlights the local statistical sig-  
213 nificance of the Argo-derived OHC trends and the percentage of variance they explain.

214 *b. The upper layer*

215 The upper 700m of the water column warms at  $5 \text{ m}^\circ\text{C yr}^{-1}$  and accounts for 44% of the global,  
216 full-depth OHC trend. Vertical temperature change profiles highlight the similar structure of the  
217 Indian (Figure 2d) and Pacific oceans (Figure 2c), with a warming limited to the upper 500m. The  
218 Indian Ocean however shows stronger and significant trends that explain almost half of the whole  
219 upper ocean warming. The Southern Ocean (Figure 2e) depicts a cooling trend in the top 100m  
220 but a significant warming over the remaining part of the upper layer. The Atlantic Ocean (Figure  
221 2b) presents the smallest OHC trend within the upper layer as cooling above 300m compensates  
222 for a warming below.

223 A detailed picture of the global 0-700m OHC trend distribution (Figure 3a,b) primarily locates  
224 the upper warming within a large extratropical band of the southern hemisphere between  $20^\circ\text{S}$   
225 and  $60^\circ\text{S}$  encompassing the Atlantic, Pacific and Indian oceans This warming trend is statistically  
226 significant at the 95% confidence level and can locally explain more than 60% of the total vari-  
227 ance (e.g. central Pacific; Figure 4a). Strong statistically-significant warming also occurred in the  
228 tropical Indian Ocean north of  $20^\circ\text{S}$ , in the northern Pacific, and in the Weddell-Enderby basin  
229 of the Southern Ocean (we note here that caution should be taken when interpreting trend values  
230 near the Antarctic continent due to potentially poor data coverage during austral winter. Although  
231 the formal mapping error ( $\epsilon$  in equation 1) intrinsically includes such information, uncertainties  
232 may still be under-estimated by the isotropic 500 km correlation scale that might projects Antarc-  
233 tic Circumpolar Current's floats into southern marginal seas.) Cooling dominates in the Atlantic  
234 north of  $20^\circ\text{S}$ , with particularly strong trends found over the central and eastern subpolar gyre,  
235 which locally explain up to 50% of the total variance. Minor cooling trends (compared to interan-

236 nual variability) are observed in the southwestern Indian Ocean, and within most of the northern  
237 subtropics (10°N and 30°N) and eastern basins of the Pacific Ocean.

### 238 *c. The intermediate layer*

239 The intermediate layer (between 700m and 2000m depth) shows an averaged warming of 3 m°C  
240 yr<sup>-1</sup> and accounts by itself for 0.34 W m<sup>-2</sup>, almost half of the full-depth OHC trend (Figure 2a).  
241 Ocean basin horizontal-average trends are all positive and show relatively similar structures from  
242 one ocean to the next, with warming generally diminishing with depth. The strongest averaged  
243 temperature trends are located in the Southern Ocean (Figure 2e) followed by the Atlantic Ocean  
244 (Figure 2b). Smaller averaged trends are found in the Indian and Pacific oceans (Figure 2c and  
245 2d), although the latter's contribution to the global OHC trend remains as significant as the Atlantic  
246 Ocean and Southern Ocean due to its large volume.

247 The horizontal distribution of the intermediate OHC trend (Figure 3c,d) and associated uncer-  
248 tainties (Figure 4b) shows only a few areas with statistically-significant cooling trends (e.g. the  
249 Amundsen-Bellingshausen basin in the Pacific sector of the Southern Ocean). The overall picture  
250 is widespread warming within most of the layer, with the dominant warming feature of the upper  
251 layer found in the southern hemisphere extra tropics still visible between 700m and 2000m. In ad-  
252 dition, two localised "hot spots" stand out as having particularly strong and statistically significant  
253 warming in the intermediate layer: the Weddell-Enderby basin in the Southern Ocean (Atlantic  
254 sector) and the subpolar North Atlantic, with the latter explaining more than 70% of the total  
255 variance in that region.

256 *d. The deep layer*

257 The deep layer (2000m - 4000m) warmed globally at  $0.3 \text{ m}^\circ\text{C yr}^{-1}$  and accounts for 7% of  
258 the full-depth OHC trend (Figure 2a). In the Southern Ocean, the vertical uniformity and the  
259 strong magnitude of the deep temperature trends are remarkable (Figure 2e), and as a result clearly  
260 dominate the global OHC trend between 2000m and 4000m. The deep warming of the Southern  
261 Ocean is observed all around Antarctica but is particularly strong in the Amundsen-Bellingshausen  
262 (Pacific sector) and Weddell-Enderby (Atlantic sector) basins (Figure 3e,f). The relatively small  
263 OHC change in the deep Atlantic ( $0.02 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ ) represents a compensation between a 2000m-  
264 3000m warming north of the equator and a 3000m-4000m cooling south of it. The deep Pacific  
265 Ocean shows an overall cooling trend with largest magnitude found within its westernmost basin,  
266 while variable positive and negative trends within the Indian Ocean's basins lead to a small and  
267 largely uncertain spatial average.

268 *e. The abyssal layer*

269 The global temperature trend in the abyssal layer (4000m - 6000m) shows a stronger magnitude  
270 than the deep trend ( $0.4 \text{ m}^\circ\text{C yr}^{-1}$ ), but represents a minor contribution to the OHC trend (4%)  
271 due to a reduced ocean volume (Figure 2a). Average warming is observed in the four main oceans,  
272 although the spatial distribution of the trend shows a clear domination of the southern hemisphere's  
273 basins. We note that this pattern (Figure 3g,h) closely matches that reported in Purkey and Johnson  
274 (2010) for the preceding decades. Cooling trends are observed in the westernmost Pacific Ocean,  
275 in the Agulhas area of the Indian Ocean, and in the abyssal North Atlantic Ocean.

#### 276 4. Heave versus spiciness variability

277 An observed temperature change at a given depth can be due to either vertical migration of  
278 isopycnal surfaces (referred to as heave, herein) and/or temperature changes along isopycnal sur-  
279 faces (referred to as spiciness, herein). Following the study of Bindoff and McDougall (1994),  
280 these two contributions to the total temperature changes are here computed at every point of the  
281 Argo grid and at every grid point of the hydrography section grids, following equation 2:

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} \Big|_p \approx \frac{d\theta}{dt} \Big|_n - \frac{dp}{dt} \Big|_n \left( \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial p} \right) \quad (2)$$

282 where  $\Big|_p$  denotes changes along pressure surfaces and  $\Big|_n$  denotes changes along isopycnal surfaces.

283 Note that this decomposition was recently applied to multi-decadal reanalysis OHC products by  
284 Häkkinen et al. (2016). A residual is obtained from the difference between the true trend (left-  
285 hand side of equation 2) and the sum of both contributions (right-hand side of equation 2). Such  
286 residual is negligible over the whole water column except in the near-surface layer where the  
287 heave/spiciness decomposition is complicated by air-sea interactions and large vertical tempera-  
288 ture gradients.

289 The present representation of heave (second term on the right-hand side of equation 2) does not  
290 necessarily only reflect dynamically-induced adiabatic processes, (e.g. wind-driven Ekman pump-  
291 ing, low frequency Rossby waves) but may also arise, for instance, through downward diffusion  
292 of the surface heating or changes in the rate of water mass renewal in subduction areas (Häkkinen  
293 et al. 2015, 2016). The spiciness component of the temperature trend represents a shift in the  
294  $\theta/S$  profiles at constant density and therefore implicitly involves a change in salinity. Here, the  
295 focus is made on the description of the vertical (Figure 5 and Figure 6) and horizontal (Figure  
296 7) distribution of both contributions to the full-depth temperature and OHC trends of the blended  
297 Argo-hydrography estimates described in Section 3.



298 *a. The global picture*

299 The global and basin averaged profiles shows that the relative contribution of heave and spiciness  
300 to the total temperature and OHC trends varies both amongst oceans and layers (Figure 6). On the  
301 global scale, 63% of the full-depth OHC trend is associated with heave (Figure 6a), although this  
302 number primarily reflects a striking opposition between a heave-related warming and a spiciness-  
303 related cooling in the upper Pacific Ocean (Figure 6c). We quantify the deepening of isopycnal  
304  $\left. \frac{dp}{dt} \right|_n$  as an intermediary step in calculating the heave component of the temperature change (Figure  
305 5). A global deepening of isopycnal surfaces is consistently seen, with the largest displacements  
306 occurring in the Atlantic and Southern oceans at the  $\sim 27.1 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$  density level. In these two re-  
307 gions, water masses lighter than  $\sim 27.1 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$  (typically subtropical mode waters) have increased  
308 their volume, while denser water masses (typically subpolar mode waters) have undergone volume  
309 loss. Such a strong deepening of mid-thermocline isopycnals was also reported from the analysis  
310 of multidecadal reanalysis products, and was interpreted as the subduction and lateral spreading  
311 of anomalous heat from the ventilation areas of subtropical mode water (Häkkinen et al. 2016).  
312 The changes in isopycnal depth in the Indian Ocean differs from that observed in the three other  
313 oceans: light isopycnals went down while heavy isopycnals went up in the water column. This  
314 potentially reflects an increased heat transport from the Pacific Ocean in the upper layer (Lee et al.  
315 2015), and local overturning shifts with deep waters returning farther up in the water column in the  
316 late 2000s than in the early 2000s (Hernández-Guerra and Talley 2016). In following subsections,  
317 we focus on the horizontal distributions of the heave and spiciness temperature trends and their  
318 associated OHC trends within the four distinct layers.

319 *b. The upper layer*

320 As stated above, the description of heave and spiciness within the uppermost layer is hampered  
321 by strong residuals near the surface (see dashed lines in Figure 6) and we therefore only evaluate  
322 the changes between 200m and 700m. The predominance of heave on the global OHC increase  
323 above 700m still stands out (Figure 6a), with the strongest averaged contributions to the global  
324 OHC found in the Indian and Pacific oceans (Figure 6c and Figure 6d). In both the Atlantic and  
325 Southern Ocean, the averaged heave trends mostly compensate within the upper layer (cooling  
326 above 400m and warming below), leaving spiciness as the dominant contributor to the OHC in-  
327 crease (Figure 6b and 6e).

328 The detailed horizontal distribution of heave and spiciness within the upper layer shows the  
329 largest heave-induced warming within the southern hemisphere extra-tropical band between 20°S  
330 and 60°S and in the subtropical North Pacific (Figure 7a). These heave-related warming trends are  
331 significantly damped by cooling along isopycnal revealed by the spiciness component of the trend  
332 (Figure 7b). This opposition between the two components of the total trend is consistent with the  
333 "pure warming" scenario of a typical subtropical water column (warm/salty waters over cold/fresh  
334 waters) described by Bindoff and McDougall (1994), where the subsurface warming separates into  
335 positive heave and negative spiciness. The opposite situation is usually found in subpolar regions  
336 (warm/fresh waters over cold/salty waters) where both components tend to have the same sign.  
337 This is here verified in the subpolar North Atlantic (heave and spice cooling), and with a smaller  
338 magnitude in the Atlantic sector of the Southern Ocean (heave and spice warming).

339 *c. The intermediate layer*

340 Both heave and spiciness are significantly involved in warming the global 700m-2000m inter-  
341 mediate layer and explain 40% and 60% of the global OHC trend, respectively (Figure 6a). In the

342 Indian Ocean, isopycnal surfaces within the intermediate depth range were found to move upward  
343 in the water column (26.9 - 27.3 kg m<sup>-3</sup> density range in Figure 5), and the averaged heave trend is  
344 consistently negative in that basin (Figure 6d). The averaged heave trends are positive in the three  
345 other oceans, with only few areas showing heave-related cooling: the western Pacific, the eastern  
346 Indian, the Amundsen-Bellinghshausen basin in the Southern Ocean (Pacific sector) and the equato-  
347 rial North Atlantic (Figure 7d). The heave-related warming trends of the northwestern Pacific and  
348 of the southern hemisphere extra tropics that were found to dominate the upper layer picture are  
349 deep-reaching signals, still visible in the intermediate layer. Heaving also causes a warming of the  
350 Atlantic Ocean north of 20°N, which is further augmented by isopycnal warming in the subpolar  
351 gyre (north of 40°N) and diminished by isopycnal cooling in the western subtropical area between  
352 20°N and 40°N (Figure 7e). Nonetheless, the most striking signal within the intermediate layer  
353 is a strong increase of temperature along isopycnal in the Weddell-Enderby basin of the Southern  
354 Ocean (Atlantic sector), explaining by itself almost half of the global spiciness OHC trend within  
355 that layer.

#### 356 *d. The deep and abyssal layers*

357 The global 2000m-4000m deep layer shows a heave-related warming (Figure 6a), which is pri-  
358 marily found in the Atlantic and Southern oceans (Figure 7g). Strong heave-related cooling trends  
359 are found in the westernmost Pacific Ocean and within most of the Indian Ocean. The spiciness  
360 trend is negative within most of the deep layer, except in the northwestern Atlantic and Southern  
361 Ocean basins (Figure 7h). Finally, the OHC trend associated with the abyssal warming is, on  
362 the global scale, mostly induced by heave (Figure 6a) although the temperature trends associated  
363 with spiciness become increasingly important near the ocean bottom within the four major oceans  
364 (Figure 6b,c,d,e), with the strongest signals found in the southern hemisphere (Figure 7j).

## 365 **5. The agreement between Argo and repeat hydrography at 2000m**

366 Temperature trends deeper than 2000m (Sections 3d and 3e ) are calculated from the analysis  
367 of relatively sparse repeat hydrographic sections (Figure 1). The uncertainty that we report for  
368 these hydrography-derived trends is a standard error and relates to how well the mean of the trend  
369 is described by the sections in a basin, or ocean or globally. Essentially this uncertainty reflects  
370 how spatially comprehensive sampling on repeat hydrographic section is. Here, we investigate  
371 further the nature of the hydrography-derived uncertainty by considering the mismatch between the  
372 hydrography-based trends at 2000m and the independent Argo-based values at 2000m, allowing  
373 us to assess an additional source of uncertainty associated with the deep observing system.

374 Overall, the globally averaged temperature trend reveals a good agreement between the inde-  
375 pendent Argo-based values at 2000m and the corresponding hydrography values, such that the  
376 Argo estimate agrees (to within uncertainty) with the repeat hydrography temperature change at  
377 that depth (Figure 2a). Although this overall agreement gives good confidence in the blended es-  
378 timates of the OHC trend, the extent to which the two independent datasets agree with each other  
379 varies between basins. Those mismatches can be partly attributed to the slightly different time-  
380 windows described by both datasets, but we argue that they primarily arise from high frequency  
381 signals (monthly to interannual) that alias the relatively sparse hydrography sampling. This hy-  
382 pothesis is supported by larger discrepancies between the observing systems associated with the  
383 heave component of the trend (Figure 6), which is more likely to be influenced by high-frequency  
384 ocean dynamics and fast adiabatic redistributions not easily resolved by the synoptic hydrography  
385 repeats. Furthermore, the largest mismatches between Argo and hydrography are found in the At-  
386 lantic and Southern oceans (Figure 2b and 2e), which is consistent with the relatively deep exten-

387 sion of intense dynamical regimes associated with deep-water formation processes and MOC-type  
388 cells.

389 We interpret the mismatch between the Argo and hydrography-derived trends at 2000m as rep-  
390 resenting the combined impact of spatial and temporal sparseness of the hydrography repeats  
391 (referred to as the total mismatch hereafter). In Figure 8a we show the total mismatch versus the  
392 hydrography uncertainty. In the majority of basins the total mismatch is larger than the hydrogra-  
393 phy uncertainty (points lie to the right of the red 1:1 line, Figure 8a), implying that on average the  
394 hydrography uncertainty is an underestimate of the total uncertainty. Basins with the largest total  
395 mismatch are in the Southern Ocean. In the Atlantic and Indian Oceans more basins have total  
396 mismatch (uncertainty) greater than the hydrography uncertainty than less than it. However in the  
397 Pacific all except one basin lies to the left of the 1:1 line and the hydrography uncertainty is a not  
398 an underestimate of the total uncertainty.

399 We further analyse the total mismatch at 2000m into a spatial and temporal contribution by  
400 subsampling the Argo data along the hydrographic sections. We compare the temperature trends  
401 from the subsampled Argo data with the full Argo data and refer to the difference as the spa-  
402 tial mismatch (Figure 8b). We then compare the temperature trends from the subsampled Argo  
403 data with the temperature trends at 2000m from hydrographic data and refer to the difference as  
404 the temporal mismatch (Figure 8c). The majority of basins show spatial mismatch smaller than  
405 the hydrography-derived uncertainties (to the left of the red 1:1 line in Figure 8b), and temporal  
406 mismatches larger than the hydrography-derived uncertainties. Thus analysis further supports our  
407 hypothesis that the hydrography-derived uncertainties (e.g. Figure 2) are a good measure of the  
408 spatial representativeness of the hydrography-derived trends at 2000m, but they underestimate the  
409 contribution of the temporal sparseness of the hydrography sampling.

410 There are some basins where both the spatial and temporal mismatch in temperature trend reach  
411 high values. This is particularly true in the Southern Ocean, which dominates the spatial distri-  
412 bution of both components (Figure 8d and 8e). In other words, those basins where the largest  
413 deep trends, and largest heave-component of the trends, were previously reported (see Figure 2e  
414 and Figure 3e) are also those with the largest sampling-related uncertainties. Note that while this  
415 comparison focuses on the 2000m depth horizon and may not apply deeper in the water column,  
416 we assume the magnitude of the sampling-related uncertainty to decrease with depth as the heave  
417 related variability decreases as one moves toward the more quiescent abyssal ocean.

## 418 **6. Discussion and conclusion**

419 A combination of repeat hydrography and Argo data was used to provide the first assessment  
420 of the full-depth global distribution of oceanic temperature changes during the early 21<sup>st</sup> century.  
421 The global ocean has warmed at  $2.2 \pm 0.2$  °C decade<sup>-1</sup>, which is equivalent to a heat uptake  
422 of  $0.72 \pm 0.09$  W m<sup>-2</sup> and a thermosteric sea-level rise of  $0.87 \pm 0.13$  mm yr<sup>-1</sup>, in line with  
423 previously published values (von Schuckmann et al. 2016; Wijffels et al. 2016). The uptake of  
424 heat has a significant vertical structure and our results agree with previous studies in suggesting  
425 a combination of mechanisms for storing heat below the upper mixed layer and decreasing the  
426 surface warming rate (Meehl et al. 2011; Chen and Tung 2014). The Atlantic and Southern oceans  
427 particularly follow that pattern, with negative trends near the surface but significant heat uptake in  
428 the remaining part of the water column.

429 A significant fraction (44%) of the global ocean warming is found in the first seven hundred  
430 meters of the water column, half of it being observed in the Indian Ocean. This Indian Ocean's  
431 warming, recently attributed to an increased heat transport from the Pacific Ocean via the Indone-  
432 sian through flow (Lee et al. 2015), is embedded in a large-scale warming pattern encompassing the

433 southern hemisphere extra-tropics, as already noted by Roemmich et al. (2015). This widespread  
434 signal extends relatively deep in the water column and still represents a significant fraction of the  
435 intermediate warming between 700m and 2000m depth. However, the intermediate layer shows  
436 its strongest trends in the North Atlantic Ocean and in the Weddell-Enderby basin in the Atlantic  
437 sector of the Southern Ocean that warmed much faster than any other region. This highlights the  
438 critical role played by these two regions for the global energy budget, with pronounced vertical  
439 overturning cells that connect the surface to the ocean interior and transport the temperature sig-  
440 nals to depth in the water column. Finally, repeat hydrography reveals a  $\sim 10\%$  contribution of the  
441 deep and abyssal layers (below 2000m depth) to the global OHC trend, with a dominant Southern  
442 Ocean contribution and an associated warming ( $0.07 \pm 0.06 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ ) similar to that of the longer  
443 1990's to 2000's trend reported by Purkey and Johnson (2010). This consistent warming rate rela-  
444 tive to the previous decade suggests that no accelerated warming was detected in the lower half of  
445 the water column during the surface warming slowdown of the 2000's .

446 A decomposition of the linear trends into a heave (vertical displacements of isopycnal surfaces)  
447 and a spiciness (density-compensated changes along isopycnal surfaces) component provides a  
448 framework for interpreting the Argo-Hydrography estimates (Bindoff and McDougall 1994). Over  
449 the time period considered here, the regional heave and OHC trends are significantly impacted by  
450 wind-driven and adiabatic redistribution of water masses, most especially within the upper layer.  
451 However, the impact of such redistributions should reduce when globally averaging the full-depth  
452 trends, so that the observed global deepening of isopycnals must be predominantly forced by  
453 increased heat fluxes from the atmosphere.

454 The heave/spiciness decomposition reveals that a large fraction of the global ocean heat uptake  
455 during the recent decade was associated with a deepening of isopycnal surfaces. This deepening  
456 shows large values in the density/depth range of subtropical mode waters, and explains the dom-

457 inant warming signal found in the southern hemisphere's extratropics. As first hypothesized by  
458 Church et al. (1991) and recently confirmed by an analysis of multidecadal upper OHC changes  
459 (Häkkinen et al. 2016), this global pattern potentially reflects the lateral spreading of warming  
460 signals from high-latitude subduction areas of subtropical mode waters. On the other hand, the  
461 spiciness component of the temperature trend is largest within the intermediate layer, and is no-  
462 tably responsible for the warming "hot-spots" observed in the subpolar North Atlantic and in the  
463 Southern Ocean that encompass sites of intense vertical mixing associated with mode and inter-  
464 mediate water formation (e.g. Mauritzen et al. 2012).

465 The present analysis of repeat hydrography data confirms previous results (e.g. Desbruyères  
466 et al. 2014) by showing heave-induced temperature changes not only restricted to the upper ocean  
467 but reaching down to the deepest portions of the water column. Strong positive values are no-  
468 tably found in the North Atlantic and Southern Ocean, which likely reflects the reduced renewal  
469 rates of Labrador Sea Water in the North Atlantic subpolar gyre during the early 2000's (Robson  
470 et al. 2014) and Antarctic Bottom Water around Antarctica (Purkey and Johnson 2012). Those  
471 heave-related trends at deep levels are, however, associated with largest uncertainties revealed by  
472 the mismatch with the Argo-derived trends at the 2000m interface. Subsampling the full Argo  
473 estimates of the trend at 2000m shows that this mismatch results from both the limited number of  
474 repeats (temporal mismatch) and the limited number of sections (spatial mismatch) of the hydrog-  
475 raphy dataset. Both sources of mismatch have their largest contributions in the Southern Ocean,  
476 which is where the largest deep trends are observed, and which requires both more reference sec-  
477 tions and more frequent occupations. Other regions, such as the Indian and south Atlantic oceans,  
478 present smaller mismatches mostly related to temporal sparseness of the hydrography sampling.  
479 This indicates that more regular occupations rather than more reference sections would improve  
480 the sampling of the decadal changes there. Our analysis further highlights the requirement for the



481 implementation of the systematic observing system *Deep-Argo* that will complement repeat hy-  
482 drography in capturing the high frequency signals below 2000m depth (Johnson et al. 2015). For  
483 the study of long-term (decadal) temperature trends, our results indicate that the Southern Ocean  
484 is the priority region deep float deployments.

485 Overall, the present reconciliation of Argo and repeat hydrography provides a new representa-  
486 tion of changes in ocean temperature and heat content from the last decade of sustained obser-  
487 vations, while improving uncertainty estimates in the current deep and abyssal observing system.  
488 The mechanistic analysis of the temperature change, as applied to the full-depth and global es-  
489 timates, enabled us to identify regions and layers where the 21<sup>st</sup> century's warming was either  
490 dominantly linked to vertical migration of isopycnal surfaces, or to density-compensated temper-  
491 ature anomalies.

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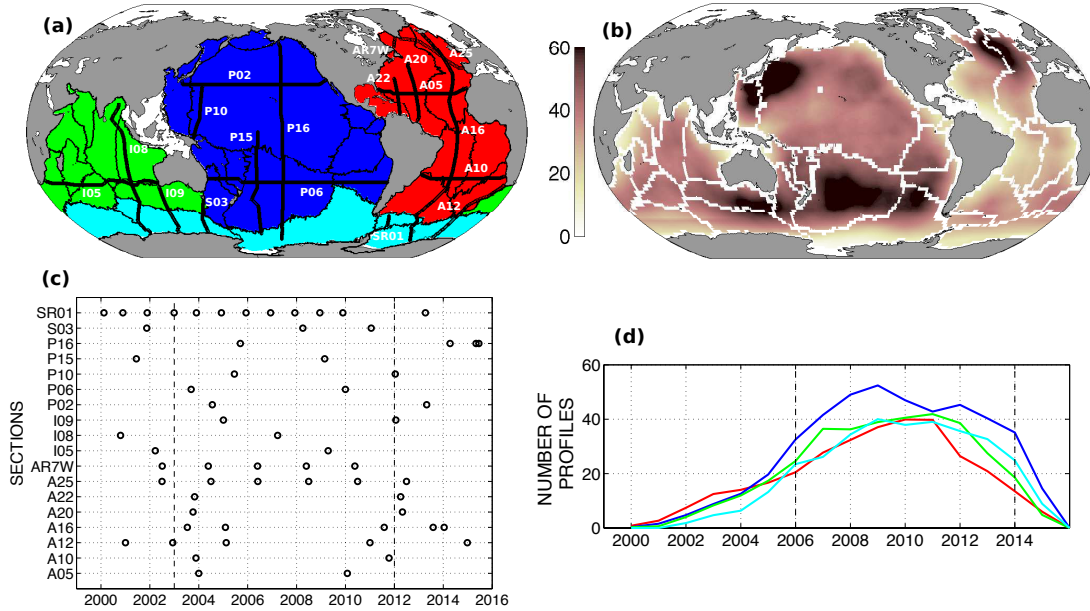
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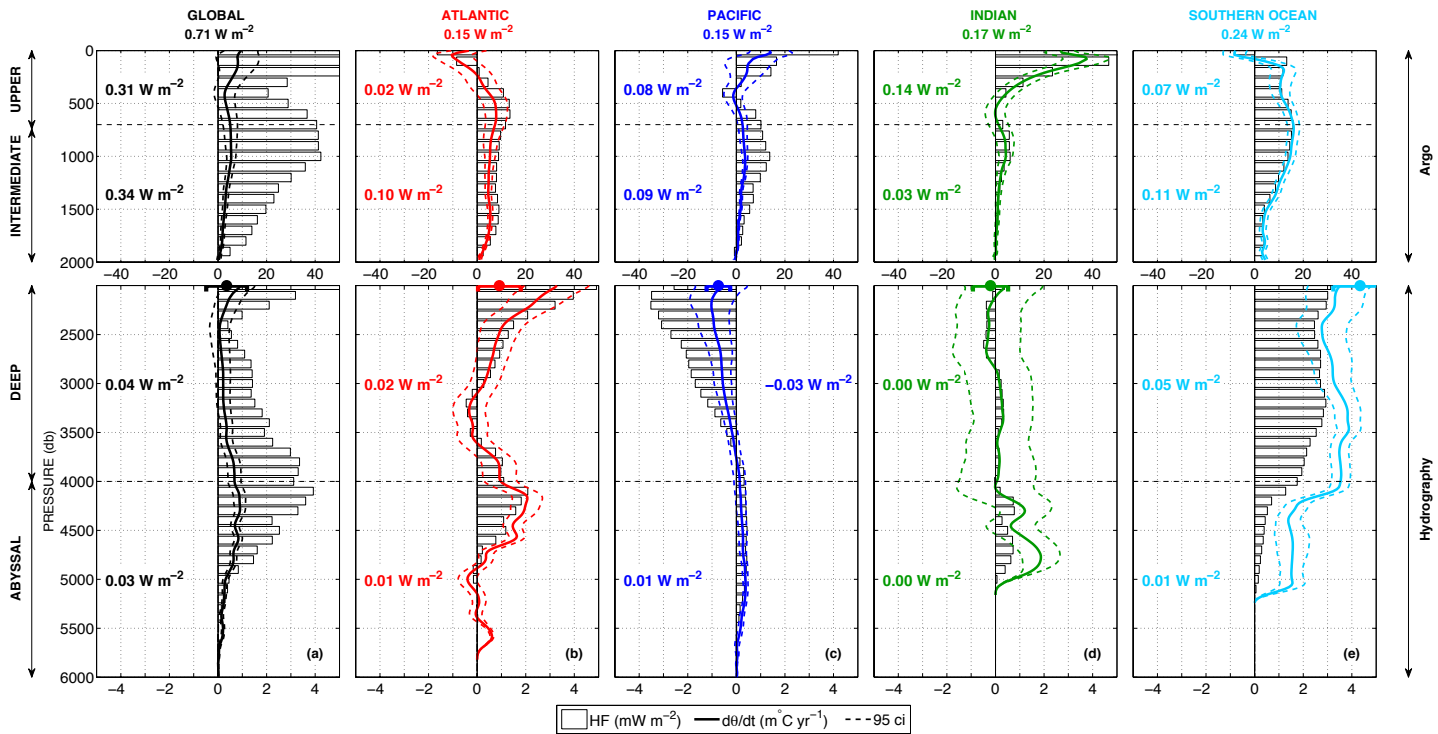
618 spiciness changes (red) are shown in (c), (f), (i) and (l). Note the different colour scales  
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631 the sampling-related mismatch, respectively. . . . . 38

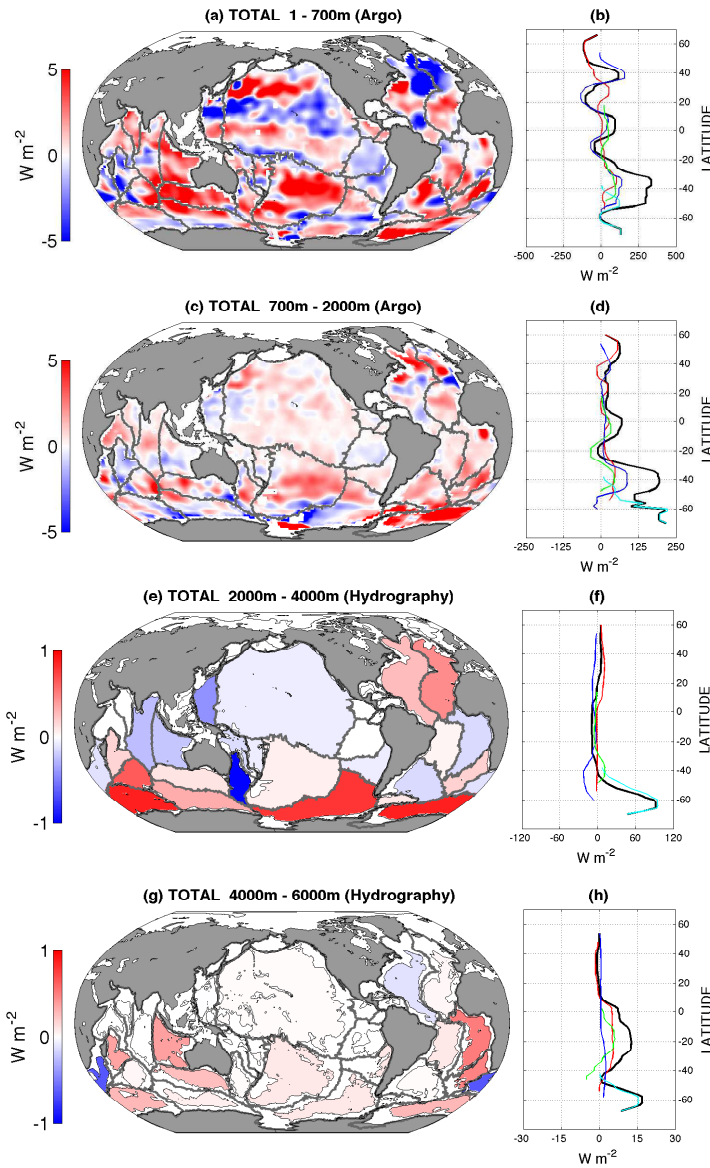


632 FIG. 1. Spatial and temporal distribution of the Argo and repeat hydrography datasets. (a) The locations of  
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 639 grid boxes for each of the four main oceans (same colour code as (a)). The dashed lines indicate the period  
 640 considered for the Argo analysis (January 2006 - December 2014).

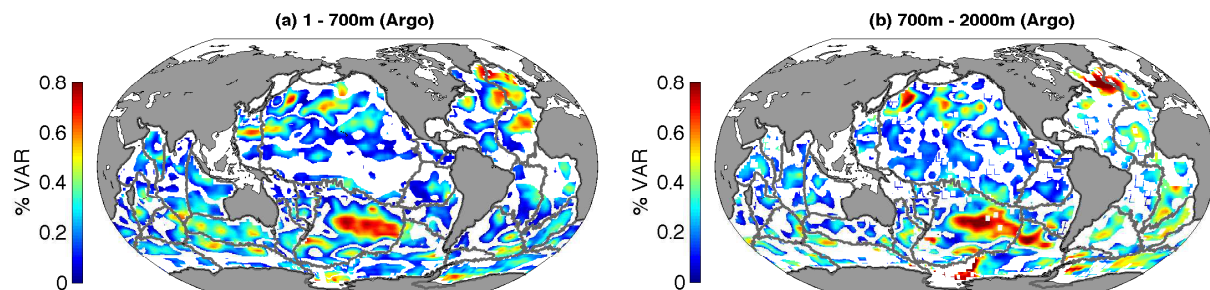




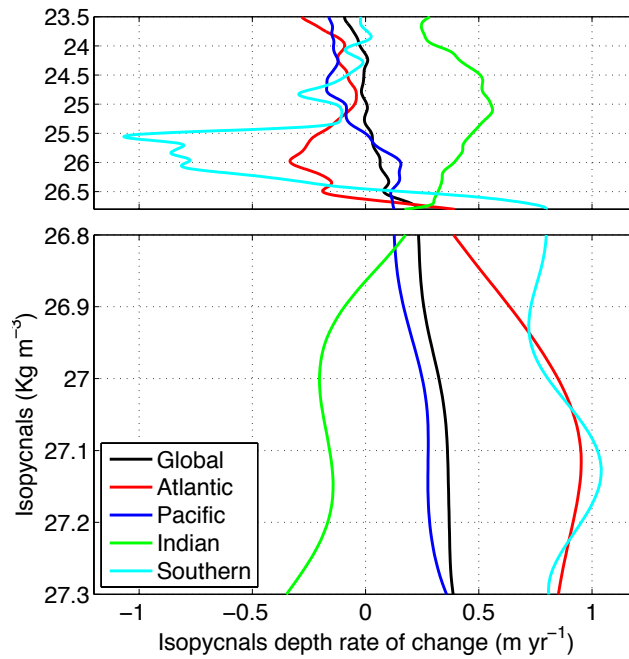
641 FIG. 2. The surface-to-bottom profiles of temperature trend (solid lines) for the (a) global, (b) Atlantic, (c)  
 642 Pacific, (d) Indian and (e) Southern Ocean. The associated 95% confidence intervals are shown in dashed lines.  
 643 The bars indicate the contribution of 100m-thick layers to the global heat uptake (relative to global surface area).  
 644 Numerical values between horizontal dashed lines indicate the OHU within the upper (0-700m), intermediate  
 645 (700m-2000m), deep (2000m-4000m) and abyssal (4000m-6000m) layers. Note the different x-axis scales used  
 646 for Argo and hydrography-related profiles. Dots indicate the Argo-derived trend values and uncertainties at  
 647 2000m depth.



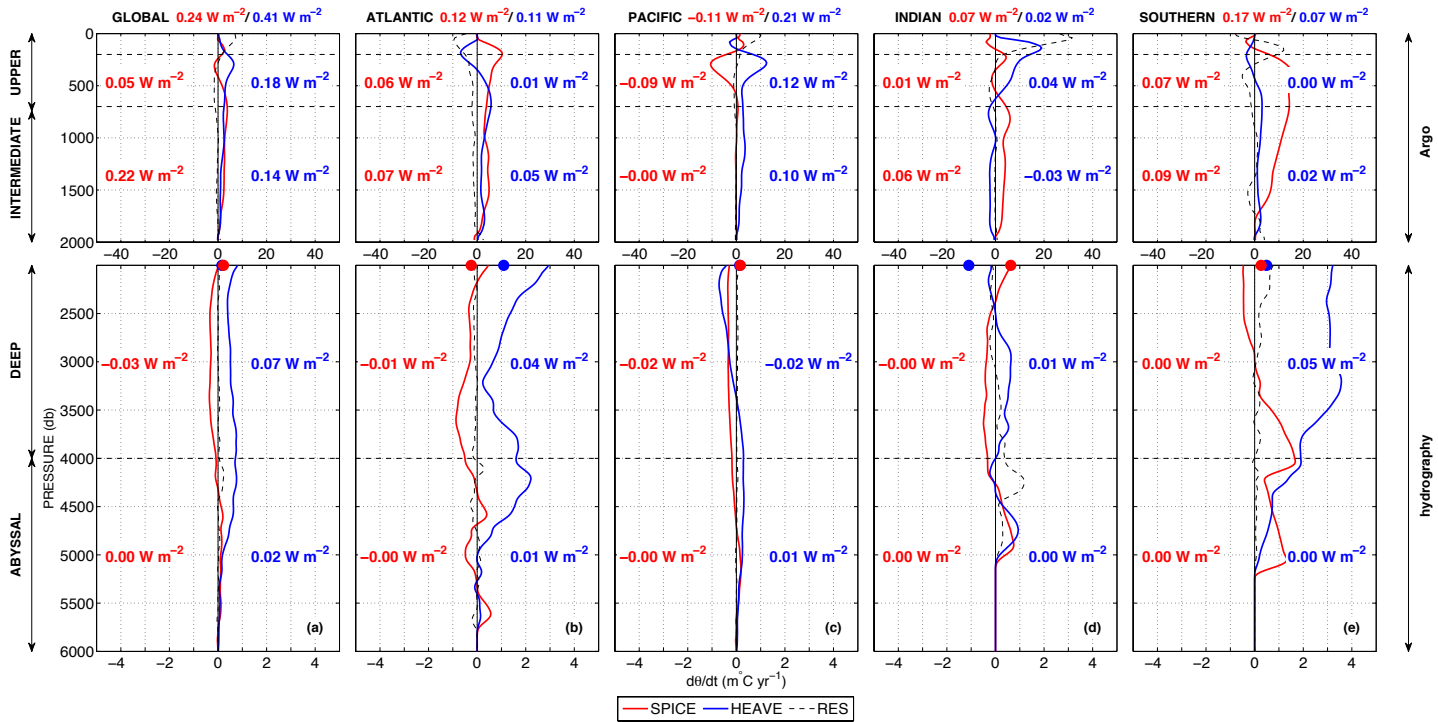
648 FIG. 3. The spatial distribution of local heat content trend within (a) the upper 0-700m layer, (b) the interme-  
 649 diate 700m-2000m layer, (c) the deep 2000m-4000m layer and (d) the abyssal 4000m-6000m layer. Argo values  
 650 are contoured depth-average of a  $2^\circ$  grid. Repeat hydrography analysis gives single values for each basin. Thin  
 651 black line in (e) and (g) indicate the 2000m and 4000m isobaths, respectively. Note the different colour scales  
 652 used for Argo and hydrography-related values. The right panels show the zonally-averaged profiles for each  
 653 layer and the related contributions of the Atlantic (red), Pacific (blue), Indian (green) and Southern (light blue).  
 654 Units are  $\text{W m}^{-2}$ .



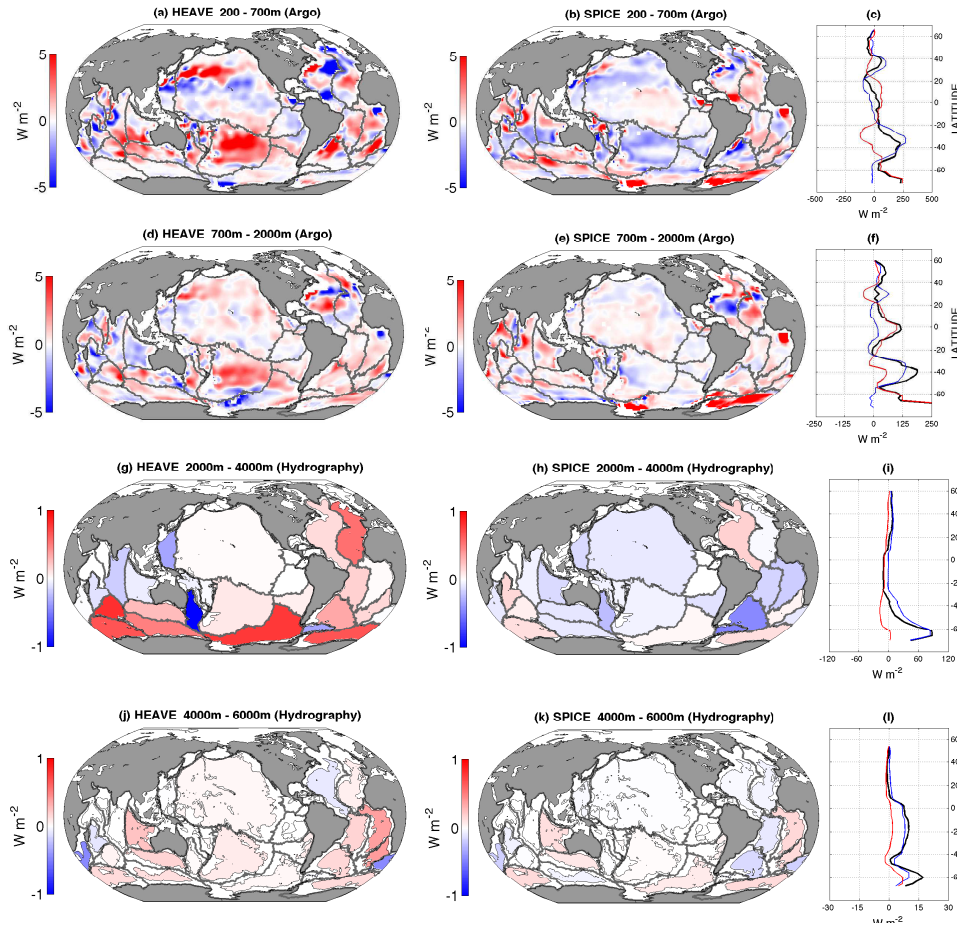
655 FIG. 4. The percentage of variance explained by the linear temperature trend for (a) the upper layer and (b)  
 656 the intermediate layer. Regions where the linear temperature trends falls within the 95% confidence interval are  
 657 masked in white (see equation 1 and text for details).



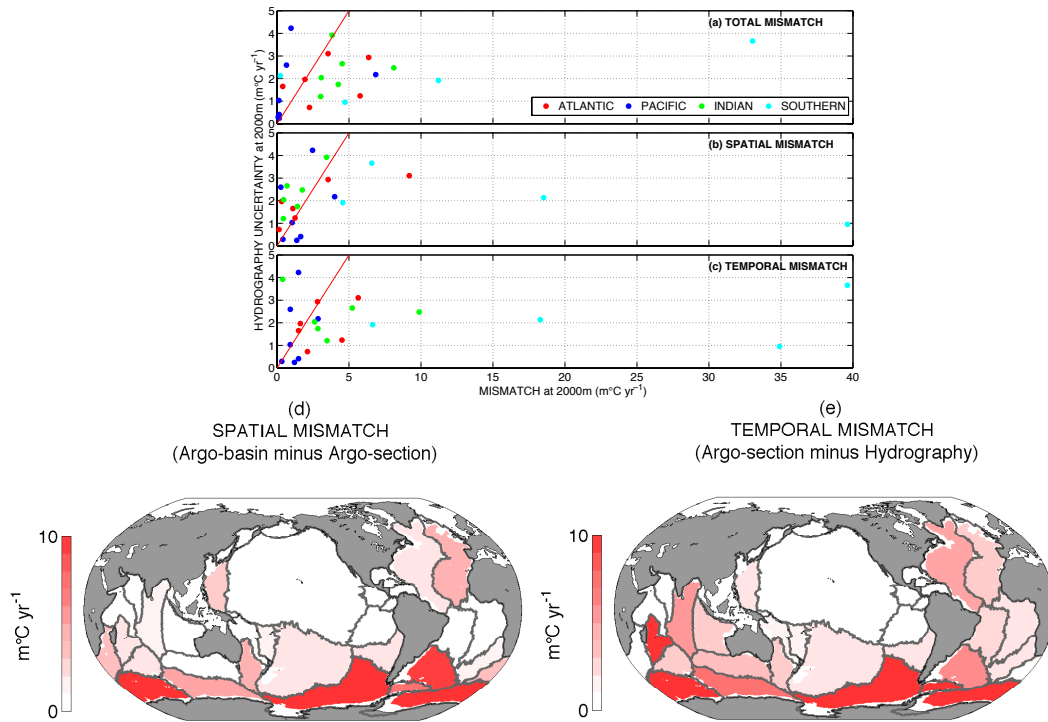
658 FIG. 5. The rate of change of the depth of isopycnal surfaces for the global (black), Atlantic (red), Pacific  
 659 (blue), Indian (green) and Southern Ocean (light blue). Positive values mean that isopycnal are increasing their  
 660 depth. Units are  $\text{m yr}^{-1}$ .



661 FIG. 6. The surface-to-bottom profiles of temperature trend decomposed into a heave (blue) and a spici-  
 662 ness change (red) components for the (a) global, (b) Atlantic, (c) Pacific, (d) Indian and (e) Southern Ocean.  
 663 The dashed lines indicate the residual term of the decomposition. Numerical values indicate the OHU within  
 664 the upper (0-700m), intermediate (700m-2000m), deep (2000m-4000m) and abyssal (4000m-6000m) layers as-  
 665 sociated with heave (blue) and spiciness changes (red). Note the different x-axis scales used for Argo and  
 666 hydrography-related profiles. Dots indicate the Argo-derived trend values and uncertainties at 2000m depth for  
 667 both components.



668 FIG. 7. The spatial distribution of local heat content trend associated with the heave component within (a)  
 669 the upper 100-700m layer, (d) the intermediate 700m-2000m layer, (g) the deep 2000m-4000m layer and (j) the  
 670 abyssal 4000m-6000m layer. Similarly, the spiciness component is shown in (b), (e), (h) and (k), and the zonally-  
 671 averaged distributions of heave (blue) and spiciness changes (red) are shown in (c), (f), (i) and (l). Note the  
 672 different colour scales used for Argo and hydrography-related values. Thin black line in (g,h) and (j,k) indicate  
 673 the 2000m and 4000m isobaths, respectively. Units are  $W m^{-2}$ .



674 FIG. 8. (a) The comparison of the hydrography-derived uncertainty (see Section 2b) with (a) the sampling-  
 675 related mismatch (computed as the absolute difference between the hydrography-derived trends at 2000m and  
 676 the full Argo-derived trends at 2000m), (b) the spatial component of the sampling-related mismatch (computed  
 677 as the absolute difference between the full Argo-derived trends at 2000m and the Argo-derived trends at 2000m  
 678 subsampled along the hydrography cruise tracks), (c) the temporal component of the sampling-related mismatch  
 679 (computed as the absolute difference between the hydrography-derived trends at 2000m and the Argo-derived  
 680 trends at 2000m subsampled along the hydrography cruise tracks). Colours indicate whether a basin belongs to  
 681 the Atlantic (red), Pacific (blue), Indian (green) or Southern (cyan) oceans. (d,e) The spatial distribution of the  
 682 spatial and temporal component of the sampling-related mismatch, respectively.