

1 **Past changes in the North Atlantic storm track driven by insolation and sea ice forcing**

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21 **ABSTRACT**

22 Changes in the strength and location of winter storms may cause significant societal and economic
23 impacts under future climate change, but projections of future changes in Northern Hemisphere storm
24 tracks are highly uncertain and drivers of long term changes are poorly understood. Here we develop a
25 Late Holocene storminess reconstruction from northwest Spain and combine this with an equivalent
26 record from the Outer Hebrides, Scotland, to measure changes in the dominant latitudinal position of
27 the storm track over the past 4000 years. The north-south index shows storm tracks moved from a
28 southerly position to higher latitudes over the past 4000 years likely driven by a change from
29 meridional to zonal atmospheric circulation, associated with a negative to positive North Atlantic
30 Oscillation (NAO) shift. We suggest that gradual polar cooling caused by decreasing solar insolation
31 receipt in summer and amplified by sea-ice feedbacks, and mid-latitude warming caused by increasing
32 winter insolation, drove a steepening of the winter latitudinal temperature gradient through the Late
33 Holocene, resulting in the observed change to a more northerly storm track. Our findings provide
34 palaeoclimate support for short-term observational and modelling studies linking changes in the
35 latitudinal temperature gradient and sea-ice extent to the strength and shape of the circumpolar vortex.
36 Together, the evidence now suggests that North Atlantic storm tracks will shift southward under
37 future warming as sea ice extent decreases, increasingly affecting southern Europe.

38 **INTRODUCTION**

39 Future climate change scenarios project with low certainty that there will be a northwards North
40 Atlantic storm track shift (Collins et al., 2013), which would reduce the impact of severe storms in
41 southern Europe and increase winter storminess in northern Europe. In contrast, it has recently been
42 suggested that Arctic amplification of warming resulting from reduced sea-ice extent could have the
43 opposite effect, causing a reduced latitudinal temperature gradient leading to weakening of the
44 circumpolar vortex, meridional circulation patterns and persistent weather extremes in the mid-
45 latitudes (Kim et al., 2014; Francis and Vavrus, 2012). This is an important possibility to consider, as
46 greater than expected economic and societal costs may be incurred if storm tracks shift southwards

47 across mainland Europe. Improving understanding of the drivers of changes in storminess in Europe
48 and elsewhere is critical to reducing uncertainty over the direction and scale of the impact of future
49 climate change. Palaeoclimate records can be used to test different hypotheses on relationships
50 between circulation responses and forcing mechanisms such as sea-ice variability.

51 Previous research suggests a number of key natural forcings on atmospheric circulation and storm
52 track changes. Modelling shows that orbital changes through the Holocene would have caused a
53 progressively steep temperature gradient and a northwards storm track shift (Brayshaw et al., 2010),
54 and some palaeoclimate reconstructions have attributed trends in storminess to orbital forcing (Bakke
55 et al., 2008; Orme et al., 2016). Low solar activity has been associated with negative NAO anomalies
56 and a southward storm track shift (Ineson et al., 2011). Oceanic forcing has also been suggested as a
57 key driver, where greater southward penetration of polar water in the Atlantic may have enhanced the
58 temperature gradient, increasing storm intensity across Europe (Sorrel et al., 2012; Orme et al., 2015;
59 Sabatier et al., 2011). Evidence also suggests that reduced sea-ice can cause a weakening of the
60 circumpolar vortex and a negative NAO pattern in winter (Kim et al., 2014; Alexander et al., 2004;
61 Deser et al., 2010), which would favour a southward storm track shift. Sea-ice may also amplify other
62 forcings. For example, if low solar activity caused increased sea-ice, this would drive a southward
63 shift in the region of deep-water formation in the Arctic, resulting in further cooling and sea-ice
64 formation (Renssen et al., 2006).

65 Here we develop a novel approach to reconstructing storm track strength and position over the Late
66 Holocene and use this as the basis to test the dominant drivers of change over this period. We use
67 records of particulate influx in peat deposits to develop storminess reconstructions from two locations
68 at opposite ends of the storm track gradient, reflected in their relationship with the NAO dipole.
69 Storminess is greater in Spain when the NAO is negative and enhanced in Scotland, when the NAO is
70 positive (Andrade et al., 2008). Thus, we can use the difference between these locations as an index of
71 long term changes in the dominant storm tracks.

72 **METHODS**

73 Pedrido Bog is an ombrotrophic peat bog situated in the Xistral Mountains of northwest Spain (Figure
74 1; 43.4503 N, 7.5292 W; 770 m altitude). A 2.5 m long core was sampled using a Russian corer in
75 2003 as part of the ACCROTELM Project.

76 Eight samples were ^{210}Pb dated and thirty samples were AMS radiocarbon dated following the
77 methods outlined in Stefanini (2008). The age-depth model was created using Bayesian analysis by
78 OxCal version 4.2.3, which used the IntCal13 calibration curve (Ramsey, 2009; Reimer et al., 2013).
79 The median of the 2-sigma age range was used to estimate the age for individual samples down the
80 core.

81 In ombrotrophic peat bogs such as Pedrido Bog mineral material can only be received from the
82 atmosphere, so therefore measurements of sand content through a peat core can be used as a
83 storminess proxy (Björck and Clemmensen, 2004). The storminess reconstruction was developed by
84 establishing the Ignition Residue and weight of sand sized sediment (120-180 μm and $>180 \mu\text{m}$) in 5
85 cm^3 of wet material at 1 cm increments following the methods in Orme et al., (2016).

86 A North-South index of storm track position was calculated by contrasting between sand content from
87 the Pedrido Bog reconstruction and a two-site reconstruction from the Outer Hebrides (Orme et al.,
88 2016). The two Hebrides reconstructions (ignition residue measurements) and the Pedrido
89 reconstruction (120-180 μm sand fraction) were selected as these proxies best represented the sand
90 content in each core. These were standardised and each smoothed and downsampled to the same 20
91 year resolution. The Outer Hebrides results were then averaged together and the normalised Pedrido
92 reconstruction subtracted from the combined Hebrides reconstruction.

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94 **LATE HOLOCENE STORMINESS IN NORTHWEST SPAIN**

95 Sediment influx in the Spanish site (Pedrido Bog) was significantly greater in the early part of the
96 record between c. 4000 and 1800 cal yr BP than during the last 1800 years (Figure 2). There are also a
97 series of peaks in sediment content between 3900 and 1800 cal yrs BP (c.3800, 3550, 3300, 2850,

98 2400 and 1950 cal yrs BP) each spanning 150 - 400 years, suggesting shorter phases of more intense
99 storminess were overlain on the multi-millennial trend of higher to lower storminess. The reduced
100 sediment content between 1800 and 500 cal yrs BP suggests that lower storminess prevailed until
101 around the start of the Little Ice Age. Although previous research has suggested that dust influx can
102 result from human disturbance (e.g. Martínez-Cortizas et al., 2005), comparison with regional climate
103 reconstructions from marine cores supports the interpretation that the sand influx was driven by the
104 frequency and/or intensity of extratropical cyclones (Orme et al., 2015). There was a strong
105 hydrodynamic regime (caused by prevalent winter storms) at 4800-2200 cal yrs BP (Martins et al.,
106 2007), high terrestrial input (caused by high precipitation) at 4200-2100 cal yrs BP (Pena et al., 2010)
107 and humid conditions between 3500-1800 cal yrs BP (Mojtahid et al., 2013), supporting the
108 interpretation of the Pedrido reconstruction as a record of regional storminess variability.

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110 **NORTH-SOUTH STORM TRACK INDEX**

111 The north-south storm track index (Figure 2), shows low (high) values when the reconstructed storm
112 track was in a southerly (northerly) position. The index suggests that there was a more southerly storm
113 track earlier in the late Holocene from c. 4000 cal yrs BP, with a transition to a northerly storm track
114 occurring through the period and especially from around 3000 to 800 cal yrs BP.

115 The long term trend of a northward movement of the storm track over the Late Holocene is associated
116 with a series of other indicators of ocean circulation and terrestrial climate. Increased wind-driven
117 Atlantic Water inflow to the Nordic Sea (Giraudeau et al., 2010; Figure 3A), gradually increasing
118 storminess in northern Europe (Andresen et al., 2005) and increasing winter precipitation, reflected in
119 records of glacial extent in Norway (Bakke et al., 2008). Similarly, a negative-to-positive NAO
120 transition at 2000 cal yrs BP (Olsen et al., 2012; Figure 3B) supports the contention that there is a
121 consistent relationship between storminess and the NAO over millennial timescales. The long-term
122 movement of the storm track may reflect a change from meridional to zonal circulation of the
123 circumpolar vortex (Bakke et al., 2008), as more meridional circulation of the atmosphere between

124 3100-2400 cal yrs BP has also been suggested as a driver of high sea-salt and dust influx in Greenland
125 (O'Brien et al., 1995) and warmer and less stable conditions in the Norwegian Sea (Moros et al.,
126 2004).

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128 **STORM TRACK FORCINGS**

129 The primary driver of the long-term change in storminess and changes in the winter latitudinal
130 temperature gradient is a shift in orbitally-driven solar insolation (see summary in Figure 4). In mid-
131 latitudes (45-60°N) the winter insolation receipt has increased since 4000 cal yrs BP, with December
132 insolation at 60°N increased by around 3 W m^{-2} (Berger and Loutre, 1991; Figure 3G), a much larger
133 change than the short-term reductions associated with a grand solar minima of $\sim 1 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ (Steinhilber
134 et al., 2012; Figure 3E). The mid-latitudes therefore would have warmed in winter through this period.

135 In contrast to warming winters at mid-latitudes, orbital changes drove a decrease in summer insolation
136 of around 17 W m^{-2} since 4000 cal yrs BP that would have had an especially strong influence in the
137 polar regions, where summer insolation is a much greater proportion of the total insolation receipt
138 (Berger and Loutre, 1991; Figure 3F). This, plus the effect of decreasing solar activity (Steinhilber et
139 al., 2012; Figure 3E), is likely to have caused the decrease in Arctic temperatures through the Late
140 Holocene, as shown by ice-core and marine archives (Alley, 2004; Kim et al., 2004). Summer cooling
141 also caused more extensive sea-ice formation, especially after c.2000 cal yrs BP (Müller et al., 2012;
142 Vare et al., 2009; Figure 3D). Sea-ice extent may have been further amplified by a positive feedback
143 between climate cooling and sea-ice, through a southward shift of the region of deep-water formation,
144 causing further ocean cooling and enhanced sea-ice formation (Renssen et al., 2006). Sea-ice provides
145 a mechanism through which the summer insolation receipt would also have influenced winter
146 temperatures, as low (high) sea-ice extent and formation enhances (reduces) the heat flux from the
147 ocean to the atmosphere, particularly in winter (Alexander et al., 2004). Therefore, before c.2000 cal
148 yrs BP, higher insolation receipt in Arctic summers would have caused low sea-ice extent and winter

149 warming, and decreasing summer insolation after 2000 cal yrs BP enhanced sea-ice extent resulting in
150 gradual winter cooling of the atmosphere (Figure 4).

151 The combination of Arctic sea-ice driven cooling in winter, and orbitally driven mid-latitude winter
152 warming, caused a gradual steepening of the latitudinal temperature gradient between the mid to high
153 latitudes. This would have strengthened the polar vortex and driven a change from meridional to more
154 zonal circulation and a northwards shift in the storm track observed in the North-South Index (Figure
155 4).

156 **CONCLUSIONS**

157 The findings support the hypothesis that storm tracks shifted southwards during periods with reduced
158 winter insolation, such as the mid-Holocene (Brayshaw et al., 2010). We show that storm tracks
159 moved northwards during the Late Holocene and propose that it was the combined effects of Arctic
160 summer insolation receipt and ensuing sea-ice feedbacks, as well as winter insolation at mid-latitudes,
161 which together controlled the temperature gradient and storm track patterns in winter. The
162 atmospheric circulation and North Atlantic storm track position may therefore be highly sensitive to
163 relatively small changes in the latitudinal temperature gradient. Our results thus provide palaeoclimate
164 evidence that supports predictions that future Arctic amplification of warming and sea-ice reductions
165 have the potential to reduce the latitudinal temperature gradient, resulting in meridional circulation
166 and higher winter storminess in southern Europe (Francis and Vavrus, 2012; Kim et al., 2014), rather
167 than a northward movement as previously suggested (Collins et al., 2013). This result has important
168 implications for assessments of future climate impacts and necessary adaptation measures in the
169 region, raising the risk of greater-than-expected environmental, societal and economic damage in
170 different regions to those currently thought to be most at risk.

171

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176 core.

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283 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

284 Figure 1: Map illustrating the location of Pedrido Bog. *Left*: locations of Pedrido Bog in northwest
285 Spain and storm reconstruction sites from the Outer Hebrides, Scotland (Orme et al., 2016) used to
286 develop the North-South storm track index. *Right*: Pedrido Bog location in the Xistral Mountains,
287 Galicia.

288 Figure 2: Records used in the development of the North-South storm track Index (from left): a) Age
289 estimates from Pedrido Bog (Spain) and age-depth model (shaded) (see supplementary information).
290 Note error estimates are shown but smaller than symbols. b) Sediment content for Pedrido (Spain)
291 shown as weight of sand fractions (120-180 μm , grey line and $>180 \mu\text{m}$, black line). c) Standardised

292 120-180 μm fraction measurements from plot b (grey line) and smoothed results (black line). d)
293 Standardised sediment influx measurements from two sites in the Outer Hebrides (Orme et al., 2016),
294 with standardised combined reconstruction (black, continuous line). e) North-South Index of storm
295 track position, derived from the difference between the records in c) and d).

296 Figure 3: Comparison between the north-south storm track reconstruction (C), reconstructions of the
297 NAO (B) (Olsen et al., 2012) and wind-driven Atlantic Water Inflow (A) (Giraudeau et al., 2010),
298 with key forcings illustrated by changes in sea ice abundance from the Fram Strait (D) (Müller et al.,
299 2012), Total Solar Irradiance reconstruction (E) (Steinhilber et al., 2012), June Insolation at 90°N (F)
300 and December Insolation at 60°N (G) (Berger and Loutre, 1991). The latter is shown to represent the
301 increasing winter temperature gradient between 60°N and 90°N.

302 Figure 4: Schematic summary of the relationship between insolation receipt, latitudinal temperature
303 gradients, sea ice extent and the influence of these changes on the strength and circulation pattern of
304 the polar vortex and storm tracks. The top panel shows the patterns dominant between 4000 and 2000
305 cal yrs BP, and the lower panel shows the patterns dominant from 2000 cal yrs BP to present.