

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

3  
4 Jeremy P. Grist<sup>1</sup>, Simon A. Josey<sup>1</sup>

5 Zoe L. Jacobs<sup>2</sup>, Robert Marsh<sup>2</sup>, Bablu Sinha<sup>1</sup>, and Erik Van Sebille<sup>3,4</sup>

6  
7  
8 <sup>1</sup>National Oceanography Centre, European Way, Southampton, SO14 3ZH, UK  
9 (jeremy.grist@noc.ac.uk; simon.a.josey@noc.ac.uk; bablu.sinha@noc.ac.uk)

10 <sup>2</sup>Ocean and Earth Science, National Oceanography Centre Southampton  
11 Waterfront Campus

University of S  
European Way Southan

12 (zlj1e13@soton.ac.uk; robert.marsh@noc.soton.ac.uk)

13 <sup>3</sup>Climate Change Research Centre and ARC Centre of Excellence for Climate System Science,  
14 University of New South Wales Sydney, NSW 2052, Australia

15 <sup>4</sup>Grantham Institute & Department of Physics, Imperial College London, London, SW7 2AZ, United  
16 Kingdom (E.van-Sebille@imperial.ac.uk)

17  
18

19 **Abstract**

20

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

39

## 40 **1. Introduction**

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

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

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

69

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

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

74

### 75 **2.1 Air-sea fluxes**

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

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

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

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

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

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

103

## 104 2.2 Atmospheric moisture transport

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

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

108

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

113

### 114 2.3 Hydrographic data and calculations

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

126

### 127 2.4 Water mass transformation

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

133

### 134 2.5 Water mass trajectories

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

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

151

### 152 **3. Results**

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

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

157

##### 158 3.1.1 Net Heat, Freshwater and Momentum Fluxes

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

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

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

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

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

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

190

### 191 3.1.2 Components of the surface heat flux

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

264

### 265 3.1.3 Surface Freshwater Fluxes

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

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

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

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

293

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

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

298

### 299 3.2.1 Atmospheric Moisture Transport Pathways

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

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

315

### 316 3.2.2 Ocean circulation

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

331

### 332 3.2.3 Ocean heat storage

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

353

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

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

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

359

### 360 3.3.1 Formation of SPMW

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

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

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

384

### 385 3.3.2 Transport, dispersal and transformation of anomalous SPMW

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

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

408

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

415

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

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

434

#### 435 **4. Summary**

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

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

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

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

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

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

478

479 **Acknowledgements**

480 RM acknowledges the support of a Faculty of Science Research Fellowship awarded by the  
481 University of New South Wales, and the support of a 2013 Research Bursary awarded by the  
482 Scottish Association for Marine Science. EVS was supported by the Australian Research  
483 Council via grant DE130101336. ZJ is supported by a studentship from the Graduate School  
484 of the National Oceanography Centre Southampton.

485

486 **References**

487

488 Ballinger TM, Allen MJ, Rohli RV (2014) Spatiotemporal analysis of the January Northern  
489 Hemisphere circumpolar vortex over the contiguous United States. *Geophys Res Lett* 41:  
490 3602-3608. doi:10.1002/2014GL060285

491

492 Barnier B, Madec G, Penduff T, Molines J-M, Treguier A-M, Le Sommer J, Beckmann A,  
493 Biastoch A, Böning C, Dengg J, Derval C, Durand E, Gulev S, Remy E, Talandier C,  
494 Theetten S, Maltrud M, McClean J, De Cuevas B (2009) Impact of partial steps and  
495 momentum advection schemes in a global ocean circulation model at eddy permitting  
496 resolution. *Ocean Dyn* 56: 543-567. doi:10.1007/s10236-006-0082-1

497

498 Blanke B, Raynaud S (1997) Kinematics of the Pacific Equatorial Undercurrent: a Eulerian  
499 and Lagrangian approach from GCM results. *J Phys Oceanogr* 27: 1038-1053

500

501 de Boisséson E, Thierry V, Mercier H, Caniaux G (2012) Origin, formation and variability  
502 of the subpolar mode water observed over the Reykjanes Ridge. *J Geophys Res (Oceans)*  
503 117: C12005, doi:10.1029/2011JC007519

504

505 Dee DP, et al. (2011) The ERA-Interim reanalysis: Configuration and performance of the  
506 data assimilation system. *Quart J Roy Meteor Soc*, 137, 553–597. doi:10.1002/qj.828

507

508 DRAKKAR Group (2007) Eddy-permitting Ocean Circulation Hindcasts of past decades.  
509 *CLIVAR Exchanges*, 42, 12(3), 8-10.

510

511 Duchez A, Frajka-Williams E, Castro N, Hirschi J, Coward A (2014) Seasonal to interannual  
512 variability in density around the Canary Islands and their influence on the Atlantic meridional  
513 overturning circulation at 26°N. *J Geophys Res Oceans* 119: 1843–1860.  
514 doi:[10.1002/2013JC009416](https://doi.org/10.1002/2013JC009416)

515

516 Good, SA, Martin MJ, Rayner NA (2013) EN4: quality controlled ocean temperature and  
517 salinity profiles and monthly objective analyses with uncertainty estimates. *J. Geophys. Res.*,  
518 118, 6704-6716, doi:10.1002/2013JC009067

519

520 Grist JP, Josey SA, Boehme L, Meredith MP, Laidre KL, Heide- Jørgensen MP, Kovacs  
521 KM, Lydersen C, Davidson FJM, Stenson GB, Hammil MO, Marsh R, Coward AC (2014)  
522 Seasonal variability of the warm Atlantic Water layer in the vicinity of the Greenland shelf  
523 break. *Geophys Res Lett* 41: 8530–8537, doi: 10.1002/2014GL062051

524

525 Grist JP, Josey, SA, Marsh R, Good SA, Coward AC, de Cuevas BA, Alderson SG, New AL,  
526 Madec G (2010) The roles of surface heat flux and ocean heat transport convergence in  
527 determining Atlantic Ocean temperature variability. *Ocean Dyn* 60: 771–790. doi:  
528 10.1007/s10236-010-0292-4

529

530 Grist JP, Marsh R, Josey SA (2009) On the relationship between the North Atlantic  
531 meridional overturning circulation and the surface-forced overturning stream function. *J*  
532 *Clim* 22: 4989-5002. doi:10.1175/2009JCLI2574.1

533

534 Hanawa K, Sugimoto S (2004) Re-emergence areas of winter sea surface temperature  
535 anomalies in the world's oceans. *Geophys. Res. Lett* 31: doi:10.1029/2004GL019904

536

537 Hátún H, Sandø AB, Drange H, Hansen B, Valdimarsson H (2005) Influence of the Atlantic  
538 Subpolar Gyre on the Thermohaline Circulation. *Science* 309: 1841-1844, doi:  
539 10.1126/science.1114777

540

541 Hecht, MW, Smith RD (2013) Toward a physical understanding of the North Atlantic: a  
542 review of model studies in an eddying regime. *Geophys Monogr Ser* 177: 213–239

543

544 Hobbs WR, Willis JK (2012) Midlatitude North Atlantic heat transport: A time series based  
545 on satellite and drifter data. *J Geophys Res* 117: C01008. doi:10.1029/2011JC007039

546

547 Huntingford C, Marsh T, Scaife AA, Kendon EJ, Hannaford J, Kay AL, Lockwood M,  
548 Prudhomme, Reynard NS, Parry S, Lowe JA, Screen JA, Ward HC, Roberts M, Stott PA,  
549 Bell VA, Bailey M, Jenkins A, Legg T, Otto FEL, Massey MN, Schaller N, Slingo J, Allen  
550 MR (2014) Potential influences on the United Kingdom's floods of winter 2013/14. *Nature*  
551 *Climate Change* 4: 769-777. doi:10.1038/nclimate2314.

552

553 Josey SA, Gulev S, Yu L, (2013) Exchanges through the ocean surface, in *Siedler, G.,*  
554 *Griffies, S., Gould, J. and Church, J. (Eds.): Ocean Circulation and Climate 2nd Ed. A 21st*  
555 *century perspective*, Academic Press, International Geophysics Series, Volume 103, p. 115-  
556 140.

557

558 Langehaug HR, Rhines PB, Eldevik T, Mignot J, Lohmann K (2012) Water-mass  
559 transformation and the North Atlantic Current in three multi-century climate model  
560 simulations. *J Geophys Res*: doi:10.1029/2012JC00802

561

562 Lavers DA, Villarini G, Allan RP, Wood EF, Wade AJ (2012) The detection of atmospheric  
563 rivers in atmospheric reanalysis and their links to British winter floods and the large-scale  
564 climatic circulation. *J Geophys Res* 117: D20106. doi:10.1029/2012JD018027

565

566 Madec, G (2008) NEMO Ocean Engine, Note du pôle modélisation 27, Institut Pierre-Simon  
567 Laplace (IPSL).

568

569 Marsh R (2000) Recent variability of the North Atlantic thermohaline circulation inferred  
570 from surface heat and freshwater fluxes. *J Clim* 13 : 3239-3260

571

572 Marsh R, Josey SA, de Cuevas BA, Redbourn LJ, Quartly, QD (2008) Mechanisms for recent  
573 warming of the North Atlantic: insights gained with an eddy-permitting model. *J Geophys*  
574 *Res* 113:C04031. doi:10.1029/2007JC004096

575

576 Masumoto Y, Sasaki H, Kagimoto T, Komori N, Ishida A, Sasai Y, Miyama T, Motoi T,  
577 Mitsudera H, Takahashi K, Sakuma H, Yamagata T (2004) A fifty-year eddy-resolving

578 simulation of the world ocean: Preliminary outcomes of OFES (OGCM for the Earth  
579 simulator). *J. Earth Simul* 1: 35–56  
580  
581 Mathews T, Murphy C, Wilby RL, Harrigen S (2014) Stormiest winter on record for Ireland  
582 and UK. *Nature Climate Change* 4: 738-740. doi:10.1038/nclimate2336  
583  
584 Palmer T (2014) Record-breaking winters and global climate change. *Science* 344: 803-804.  
585 doi:10.1126/science.1255147  
586  
587 Paris, CB, Helgers J, Van Sebille E, Srinivasan A (2013) Connectivity modeling system: A  
588 probabilistic modeling tool for the multi-scale tracking of biotic and abiotic variability in the  
589 ocean. *Environ. Modell. Software* 42: 47–54, doi:10.1016/j.envsoft.2012.12.006  
590  
591 Screen JA, Deser C, Sun L (2015) Reduced risk of North American cold extremes due to  
592 continued Arctic Sea-Ice Loss. *Bull Amer Meteor Soc* (Early on line Release). doi:  
593 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-14-00185.1>  
594  
595 Slingo, J, Belcher S, Scaife A, McCarthy, M, Saulter A, McBeath K, Jenkins A, Huntingford  
596 C, Marsh T, Hannaford J, Parry S (2014) *The Recent Storms and Floods in the UK*. Exeter,  
597 UK Met Office, 27pp. [<http://nora.nerc.ac.uk/505192/>]  
598  
599 Speer K, Tziperman E (1992) Rates of water mass formation in the North Atlantic Ocean *J*  
600 *Phys Oceanogr* 22: 93-104  
601  
602 Sugimoto S, Hanawa K (2005) Remote re-emergence areas of winter sea surface temperature

603 anomalies in the North Pacific. *Geophys Res Lett.*, 32: doi:10.1029/2004GL021410  
604

605 Taws SL, Marsh R, Wells NC, Hirschi J (2011) Re-emerging ocean temperature anomalies in  
606 late-2010 associated with a repeat negative NAO. *Geophys Res Lett* 38(20): L20601.  
607 ([doi:10.1029/2011GL048978](https://doi.org/10.1029/2011GL048978)).

608 van Oldenborgh, GJ, Haarsma R, De Vries H, Allen MR (2015) Cold Extremes in North  
609 America vs. Mild Weather in Europe: The Winter of 2013–14 in the Context of a Warming  
610 World. *Bull Amer Meteor Soc* 96: 707–714. doi: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-14-](http://dx.doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-14-00036.1)  
611 [00036.1](http://dx.doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-14-00036.1)

612

613 Walin, G (1982) On the relation between sea-surface heat flow and thermal circulation in the  
614 ocean. *Tellus* 34: 187-195

615

616 Yu, L., and R. A. Weller (2007) Objectively Analyzed air-sea heat Fluxes for the global oce-  
617 free oceans (1981–2005). *Bull. Ameri. Meteor. Soc.*, 88, 527–539.

618 **Figures**

619

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

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

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

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

640

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

679 **Fig. 14** Thickness (m) of the layer bound by  $\sigma_0$  surfaces  $27.3$  and  $27.5 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ , for March-  
680 July: averaged over 1979-2013 (a, c, e, g and i) and for the “2014 minus 1979-2013 mean”  
681 anomaly (b, d, f, h, and j).

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

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

691  
692