

1 **Observational Advances in Estimates of Oceanic**  
2 **Heating**

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7 **Abstract** Since the early 21<sup>st</sup> century, improvements in understanding cli-  
8 mate variability resulted from the growth of the ocean observing system. The  
9 potential for a closure of the Earth's energy budget has emerged with the  
10 unprecedented coverage of Argo profiling floats, which now provide a decade  
11 (2006 - 2015) of invaluable information on ocean heat content changes above  
12 2000m. The expertise gained from Argo and repeat hydrography sections mo-  
13 tivated the extension of the array toward the ocean bottom, which will pro-  
14 gressively reveal the poorly known deep ocean and reduce the uncertainty of  
15 its presumed 10-15% contribution to the global ocean warming trend of 0.65  
16 - 0.80 W m<sup>-2</sup>. The sustainability and synergy of various observing systems  
17 helped to corroborate numerical models and decipher the internal variability  
18 of distinct ocean basins. Due to unique observations of the circulation in the

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19 North Atlantic, particular attention is paid to heat content changes and their  
20 relationship to dynamic variability in that region.

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

## 23 **1 Introduction**

24 Observational data show an unequivocal warming of the Earth’s climate sys-  
25 tem since the mid-twentieth century (Rhein et al. 2013). Every past decade  
26 has been warmer than its predecessor, and the year 2015 now stands as the  
27 warmest ever recorded (Tollefson 2016). This positive temperature trend at the  
28 Earth’s surface is driven by a radiative imbalance at the top of the atmosphere  
29 (e.g. Allan et al. 2014), which is widely attributed to human activities and the  
30 increased concentration of greenhouse gases in the troposphere (e.g. Trenberth  
31 et al. 2014). The global surface signal is, however, being constantly modulated  
32 by natural fluctuations of the climate system acting over a wide range of spatial  
33 and temporal scales (e.g. volcanic eruptions, solar cycles, oceanic circulation).  
34 For instance, those natural changes can significantly reduce the increase in  
35 global mean surface temperature over periods of decades (e.g. Meehl et al.  
36 2011), and mislead the wider community regarding the fate of global warming  
37 (Trenberth and Fasullo 2010).

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

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

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

## 71 **2 The unabated heating of the upper ocean**

### 72 **2.1 The global picture drawn by the Argo array**

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

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

Through comparison of three Argo analyses, the global OHC trend above 2000m during the period 2006-2015 was estimated as 0.50 - 0.65 W m<sup>-2</sup> over the effectively sampled ocean (Figure 1 - from Wijffels et al. (2016)). As expected, the global warming rate shows its strongest magnitude in the first few hundred meters of the water column and the interannual variability above 500m shows pronounced changes that control the global temperature variations at the air-sea interface (Roemmich et al. 2015). Those upper OHC changes reflects in large part the El-Niño/Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and its influence on the horizontal tilt of the equatorial thermocline in the Pacific. In addition to this interannual signal, the shift from a positive to a negative phase of the

107 Pacific Decadal Oscillation in the early 2000's significantly cooled the Eastern  
108 Pacific, which reduced the positive trend in global mean surface temperature  
109 while increasing subsurface heat uptake (e.g. England et al. 2014; Meehl et al.  
110 2011; Johansson et al. 2015). It is now widely accepted that the global mean  
111 surface temperature is a poor indicator of the global heat gain (e.g. Palmer  
112 and McNeall 2014).

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

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

138 2014) reinforced the idea of a strong link between convective processes, merid-  
139 ional overturning cells (MOC), and intermediate/deep heat storage (e.g. Meehl  
140 et al. 2011; Katsman and van Oldenborgh 2011; Robson 2014; Drijfhout et al.  
141 2014; Williams et al. 2014; Rahmstorf et al. 2015). This link has received in-  
142 creased attention from the observational community in recent years, through  
143 the development of sustained observing systems and innovative methodologies.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

### 207 **3 Tackling uncertainties: a deep ocean perspective**

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



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

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

258 local temperature and global OHC below 2000m with unprecedented accuracy  
259 (1 to 26 m°C decade<sup>-1</sup> and 3 TW, respectively). The program is at an early  
260 stage, priority is now to monitor the mechanical behaviour of deployed floats  
261 and to assess sensor behaviours and drift to validate the first temperature and  
262 salinity profiles.

#### 263 **4 Conclusion**

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

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

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307 ([www.rapid.ac.uk/rapidmoc](http://www.rapid.ac.uk/rapidmoc); [www.rsmas.miami.edu/users/mocha](http://www.rsmas.miami.edu/users/mocha)). We thank the many in-  
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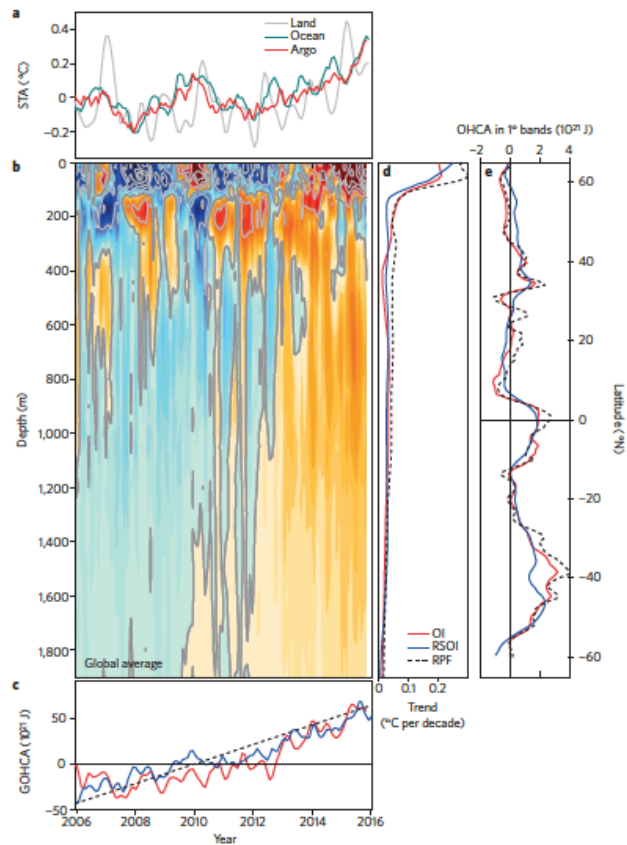
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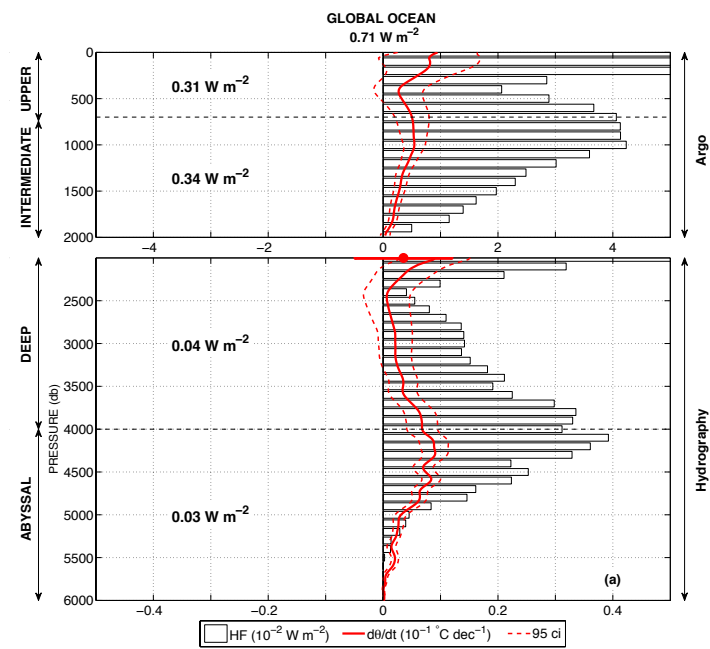
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**Fig. 1** Ocean warming rates and distributions. a, Globally averaged surface temperature anomaly (STA, °C), from 5 m Argo OI temperature (red), NOAA (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration) global ocean (turquoise) and a 6-month running mean of NOAA global land averages (grey). b, Global average ocean temperature anomalies from the Argo OI (contour interval is 0.01 for colours, 0.05 °C in grey). c, Global ocean 0-2,000 m heat content anomaly as a function of time, with the OI version a 4-month running mean. d, Global average 2006-November 2015 potential temperature trend (°C per decade). e, Zonally integrated heat content trends in 1° latitude bands from the three mapping methods. For line plots c, d and e, the sources are: OI (red), RSOI (blue) and RPF (black-dashed). From Wijffels et al, (2016), *Nature Climate Change*.



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