

1 **Historical changes in wind driven ocean circulation can accelerate global**
2 **warming**

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13 **Key Points:**

- 14 • Externally forced changes to wind driven ocean circulation accelerate global warming by
15 17% in a coupled climate model
- 16 • The Antarctic Circumpolar Current and Pacific ocean circulations are influenced by
17 externally forced wind stress changes
- 18 • Externally forced changes to wind driven ocean circulation amplify Southern Hemisphere
19 warming
20

21 **Abstract**

22 Mitigation and adaptation strategies for climate change depend on accurate climate projections
23 for the coming decades. While changes in radiative heat fluxes are known to contribute to
24 surface warming, changes to ocean circulation can also impact the rate of surface warming.
25 Previous studies suggest that projected changes to ocean circulation reduce the rate of global
26 warming. However, these studies consider large greenhouse gas forcing scenarios, which induce
27 a significant buoyancy driven decline of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation
28 (AMOC). Here, we use a climate model to quantify the previously unknown impact of changes
29 to wind driven ocean circulation on global surface warming. Wind driven ocean circulation
30 changes amplify the externally forced warming rate by 17% over 1979-2014. Accurately
31 simulating changes to the atmospheric circulation is key to improving near term climate
32 projections.

33 **Plain Language Summary**

34 Global warming of surface air temperature is largely due to increases in greenhouse gases, which
35 lead to increased radiative heat fluxes towards Earth's surface. However, the exact pattern and
36 rate of global warming is also influenced by the uptake and redistribution of heat by the ocean,
37 which can be altered by warming. Previous studies have quantified the role of the changing
38 ocean circulation as a whole on the rate and pattern of global warming. However, the relative
39 contribution of different ocean dynamical processes has not been explored yet. Ocean circulation
40 can broadly be divided components driven by wind and density differences. Here, we quantify
41 the role of changes to the wind driven ocean circulation onto global air temperature warming.
42 We find that changes to the wind driven ocean circulation amplify global warming by 17% over
43 1979-2014. Climate models need to adequately simulate changes to the winds, and the ocean's
44 response to these wind changes, to accurately project climate change.

45 **1 Introduction**

46
47 Anthropogenic forcing is expected to alter the atmospheric circulation as a response to
48 increased net absorbed radiative heat fluxes (Held & Soden, 2006; Lu et al., 2008; Vecchi &
49 Soden, 2007). The adjustment of the atmospheric circulation to anthropogenic forcing can then
50 impact the ocean circulation by altering winds or buoyancy fluxes, two major drivers of the
51 large-scale ocean circulation. The large-scale ocean circulation plays a key role in setting the
52 spatially varying pattern of sea surface temperature (SST) warming by redistributing the heat
53 taken up by the ocean from increased downward heat flux (Banks & Gregory, 2006; Hu et al.,
54 2020, 2022; Liu et al., 2018; Lyu et al., 2020). This pattern of SST warming can feed back onto
55 the atmosphere through pattern dependent radiative feedbacks, largely linked to cloud-SST
56 feedbacks (termed “the pattern effect”; (Armour, 2017; Armour et al., 2013; Dong et al., 2019,
57 2020; Rose et al., 2014; Stevens et al., 2016). Therefore, changes to the atmospheric circulation
58 that drive a change in ocean circulation could alter the globally averaged rate of anthropogenic
59 warming.

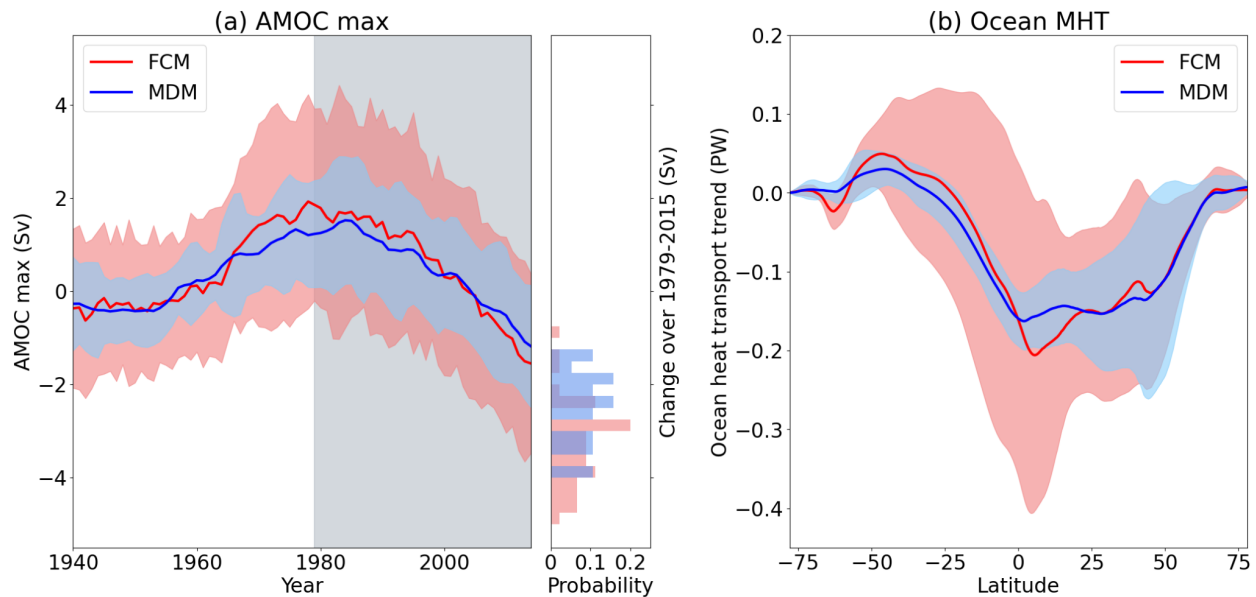
60 Externally forced changes to the atmospheric circulation, and the impacts of these
61 changes onto the oceanic circulations, have already begun to occur over the historical record.
62 The Southern Hemisphere midlatitude winds have increased over the past 4 decades (Thompson
63 et al., 2011; Thompson & Solomon, 2002), altering the wind driven circulation in the South
64 Indian and South Pacific subtropical gyres (Beal & Elipot, 2016; Lee et al., 2015; McMonigal et

65 al., 2018, 2022; Palmer et al., 2004; Roemmich et al., 2007, 2016). In the tropical Pacific, the
 66 trade winds have increased in strength (M. H. England et al., 2014; McGregor et al., 2012;
 67 Merrifield et al., 2012; Timmermann et al., 2010), leading to cooling in the equatorial Pacific
 68 (Seager et al., 2022).

69 Previous studies have quantified the role of the ocean circulation on the rate of
 70 anthropogenic warming under high emissions scenarios, such as a doubling or quadrupling of
 71 CO₂ (Garuba et al., 2018; Trossman et al., 2016; Winton et al., 2013). In these scenarios, the
 72 projected decline of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) dominates the
 73 oceanic response of the climate system, by cooling the high latitude North Atlantic and allowing
 74 for increased deep ocean heat uptake within the North Atlantic (Rugenstein et al., 2013). This
 75 leads to a decrease in the globally averaged surface warming, thus the overall role of the ocean is
 76 to mediate the surface warming rate. Beyond the impacts from AMOC decline, whether
 77 externally forced changes in the wind driven ocean circulation mediate or amplify the warming
 78 rate is relatively unexplored despite its potential influence on regional scales. Moreover,
 79 developing mitigation and adaptation strategies relies on accurate near term (20-40 year) climate
 80 projections (Hewitt & Lowe, 2018; Nissan et al., 2019), a timescale over which large AMOC
 81 trends are not expected (Lobelle et al., 2020; Weijer et al., 2020).

82 In this study, we quantify the role of externally forced changes to the wind driven ocean
 83 over 1979-2014 in the Community Earth System Model version 2 (CESM2). We isolate this
 84 effect by comparing two large ensembles within CESM2: one including the role of changes to
 85 the wind driven ocean circulation, and the other excluding it. Crucially, the effect of changes in
 86 the wind driven ocean circulation is opposite in sign to the role of ocean circulation on global
 87 warming under higher emission scenarios (Garuba et al., 2018; Trossman et al., 2016; Winton et
 88 al., 2013). This implies that the role of the changing ocean circulation on the globally averaged
 89 rate of surface warming depends on the ocean dynamics at play, with opposing roles of boundary
 90 driven ocean circulation changes like AMOC, and wind driven ocean circulation changes.

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Fig. 1

94 (a) Ensemble mean AMOC intensity in each simulation (thick lines) with two standard deviation
95 shading. Histogram shows trends over 1979-2014 in each ensemble member. (b) Ensemble mean
96 trends in ocean meridional heat transport (MHT; thick lines) with two stand deviation shading.
97

98 **2 Method**

99 2.1 Experimental design

100 We use two CESM2 ensembles forced by realistic, time-varying 1850-2014 external
101 forcing, including greenhouse gasses, anthropogenic aerosol emissions, natural aerosols (e.g.
102 volcanic), and solar irradiance. In the first ensemble, referred to as FCM for “Fully Coupled
103 Model”, the ocean and atmosphere exchange time varying buoyancy and wind stress
104 (momentum) fluxes. In the second ensemble, referred to as MDM for “Mechanically Decoupled
105 Model”, the ocean and atmosphere exchange time varying buoyancy fluxes but the ocean is
106 forced by a fixed wind stress climatology, calculated from pre-industrial conditions. The
107 atmospheric winds in MDM vary in time; only the wind stress forcing onto the ocean is fixed to
108 a climatology. Both models have similar pre-industrial mean climates and ocean circulation
109 (Figure S1, S2, S3). Additionally, because the low frequency, interhemispheric component of
110 AMOC is predominantly buoyancy forced (Biastoch et al., 2008; Medhaug et al., 2012; Polo et
111 al., 2014; Yeager & Danabasoglu, 2014), FCM and MDM simulate similar AMOC mean states
112 (Larson et al., 2020), similar externally forced declines in AMOC (Fig. 1a), and similar
113 externally forced trends in ocean meridional heat transport (Fig. 1b).

114 To isolate the externally forced trends, we compute the ensemble mean linear trends in
115 each simulation to remove the internal variability (Bengtsson & Hodges, 2019; Deser et al.,
116 2012, 2020; Hawkins et al., 2016; Machete & Smith, 2016). The difference between the
117 ensemble mean trends in the FCM and MDM isolates climate changes due to externally forced
118 trends in the wind driven ocean circulation. We refer to this component of the trends as due to
119 the dynamic response of the ocean to changes in the “Winds”, as we expect the total forced trend
120 to be a linear superposition of wind and buoyancy forced trends (Fyfe et al., 2007; Yeager &
121 Danabasoglu, 2014). In this coupled model set up, ocean circulation trends can feedback onto the
122 atmosphere, sea ice, and land.

123 2.2 Model ensembles

124 Both FCM and MDM ensembles were run using the smoothed biomass burning set up of
125 the Community Earth System Model version 2 (CESM2; (Danabasoglu et al., 2020; Fasullo et
126 al., 2022; Rodgers et al., 2021). This model consists of the Community Atmosphere Model
127 version 6, the Parallel Ocean Project version 2 (Smith et al., 2010), the Community Land Model
128 version 5 (Lawrence et al., 2019), and the Los Alamos Community Ice CodE version 5 (Hunke et
129 al., 2017). The model components communicate through the Common Infrastructure for
130 Modeling the Earth (CIME) coupler. The alteration of the wind stress forcing passed to the ocean
131 in the MDM ensemble is done within CIME, by overwriting the time varying wind stress forcing
132 passed from the atmosphere to the ocean. Both models were forced by realistic 1850-2014
133 greenhouse gas emissions.

134 CESM2 is a part of CMIP6. In CMIP6, stratospheric ozone trends are prescribed, but no
135 tropospheric ozone trends are included (Liu et al., 2022). Anthropogenic aerosols are prescribed,

136 and lead to a SST cooling that is similar in structure to the greenhouse gas induced warming (Xie
137 et al., 2013) but show distinct regional patterns in surface wind trends (Wang et al., 2016).
138 CESM2 has a horizontal ocean resolution of approximately 1° .

139 The FCM ensemble was created by branching 50 ensemble members from a spun up, pre
140 industrial model run for more than 1000 years. This includes 10 macro ensemble members,
141 where each of the members is branched from a different pre industrial climate state, and 4 sets of
142 10 micro ensemble members, where each set of micro ensemble members are branched from a
143 different pre industrial climate, and each ensemble member is created by adding a random, round
144 off error level perturbation to the atmospheric potential temperature field.

145 The MDM ensemble was created by branching 20 ensemble members from a spun up,
146 pre industrial MDM model run. The wind stress climatology forcing in the MDM runs was
147 calculated from 50 years of the FCM preindustrial run. Each ensemble member was branched
148 from a different year of the preindustrial MDM run, making it a macro ensemble.

149 The FCM and MDM pre industrial runs have similar mean states. In the pre industrial
150 run, sea surface temperatures are warmer and mixed layer depths are shallower in MDM (Fig.
151 S1, S2). The ocean circulation mean state is similar in the two models, in all regions except the
152 Southern Ocean (Fig. S3). MDM has a stronger Antarctic Circumpolar Current, likely due to
153 alterations of the isopycnals across the Southern Ocean.

154 2.3 Observational data

155 For comparison to the modeled trends, observational trends were estimated by using
156 GISS Surface Temperature Anomaly version 4 (GISTEMP) surface air temperature and
157 ECMWF reanalysis version 5 (ERA5) wind stress.

158 2.4 Analyses

159 To analyze the globally averaged surface temperature response, we consider the ensemble
160 mean reference height air temperature. AMOC max is calculated as the maximum AMOC
161 streamfunction between 20° and 65°N , at each time step. All trends shown are linear trends
162 calculated from annual mean anomalies from the climatology calculated over 1941-1970 period,
163 to remove any dependence on mean state differences. Trends are multiplied by the length of the
164 time period, to give units that match the variable of interest. Top of atmosphere total radiation,
165 longwave radiation, and shortwave radiation are defined as positive downward. For the radiative
166 flux regressions shown in Fig. S10, the earlier time period trends are calculated as the linear
167 trends over 1966-1987, excluding 1975, 1982, and 1983. This is due to large volcanic influence
168 during the three excluded years. The later time period trends are calculated as the linear trends
169 over 1996-2014, to avoid the large volcanic influence of Mt. Pinatubo in 1991.

170 2.5 Significance testing

171 To determine the regions and time periods where trends are significantly different, we
172 consider the spread of the ensemble members as a normal distribution. To test if the distributions
173 are significantly different, we calculate the Z statistic and use 95% significance ($Z \geq 1.96$) as a
174 threshold, where:
175

176

$$Z = \frac{X_{FCM} - X_{MDM}}{\sqrt{\sigma_{FCM}^2 - \sigma_{MDM}^2}}$$

177

178 X is the ensemble mean from each simulation. σ is the standard deviation of each ensemble
179 member divided by the square root of the number of ensemble members.

180 The global mean temperature difference is also significant at the 95% level when
181 considering temporal correlations of residuals of the difference of ensemble means, following
182 (Santer et al., 2000).

183 3 Wind stress and wind driven ocean circulation trends

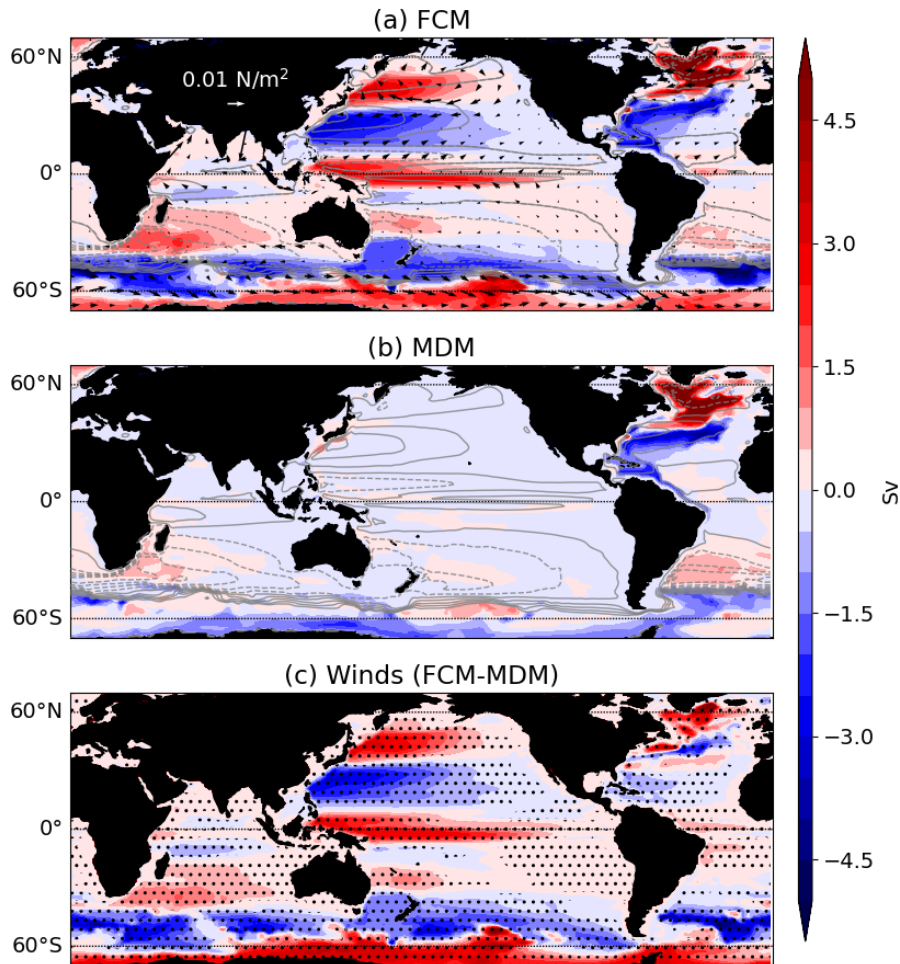
184 Externally forced changes to the wind stress primarily manifest within the Southern
185 Hemisphere westerlies and the Pacific trades and North Pacific westerlies (Fig. 2a). The
186 Southern Hemisphere westerlies strengthen and shift poleward beginning in 1970 (Fig. S4) and
187 broadly agree with reanalysis wind stress trends in the region (Fig. S5). The strengthening and
188 shifting of the Southern Hemisphere westerlies has been linked to both stratospheric ozone and
189 greenhouse gas forcing (Thompson et al., 2011; Thompson & Solomon, 2002). The Pacific
190 trades and North Pacific westerlies weaken beginning in 1990 (Fig. S4). The weakening of the
191 Pacific trades is inconsistent with reanalyses (M. H. England et al., 2014; McGregor et al., 2012;
192 Merrifield et al., 2012; Timmermann et al., 2010), while the weakening of the North Pacific
193 westerlies broadly matches the reanalysis trend (Fig. S5).

194 These wind stress trends lead to externally forced changes in the horizontal barotropic
195 ocean circulation (BSF) over 1979-2014 (Fig. 2c; mean barotropic streamfunction shown in Fig.
196 S6). The Antarctic Circumpolar Current accelerates due to wind stress trends, in agreement with
197 the observed acceleration of Antarctic Circumpolar Current velocities (Shi et al., 2021). The
198 tropical and North Pacific circulations weaken. Trends in the barotropic circulation are generally
199 similar to trends in ocean currents averaged over the upper 150 m (Fig. S7).

200 Comparing the role of buoyancy (illustrated by the MDM trend) and wind stress forcing
201 (illustrated by Winds trend) on externally forced changes in the BSF shows that buoyancy
202 forcing dominates the changes in the Atlantic Ocean (Fig. 2b,c). The buoyancy forced weakening
203 of the North Atlantic circulation is consistent with the simulated decline in the interhemispheric
204 AMOC in the model (Fig. 1a). Although the simulated AMOC decline is similar in both models,
205 a significantly larger decline of 3.5 Sv is seen in FCM, while MDM simulates a decline of 2.6
206 Sv. This suggests that, although buoyancy forcing dominates the forced AMOC decline, the
207 changes in surface wind stress act to enhance the AMOC decline by about 25%. Both buoyancy
208 and wind stress changes contribute to a weakening of the South Indian Ocean subtropical gyre.
209 This is the opposite sign of the observed strengthening of the Southern Hemisphere gyres
210 (McMonigal et al., 2018; Palmer et al., 2004; Roemmich et al., 2007, 2016), suggesting that the
211 model may be biased or low frequency internal variability projects onto the observed trends.
212 Both buoyancy and wind stress changes contribute to changes in the Antarctic Circumpolar
213 Current strength, although with opposite signs. Wind stress changes accelerate the Antarctic
214 Circumpolar Current, while buoyancy changes slightly weaken it. This is opposite to the role of
215 buoyancy forcing found under stronger greenhouse gas forcing (Peng et al., 2022; SHI et al.,
216 2020). This suggests that the response of the Southern Ocean to buoyancy forcing may depend
217 on timescale or magnitude of forcing.

218 Overall, the modeled externally forced acceleration of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current
219 due to changes in the overlying westerlies is in agreement with atmospheric and oceanic

220 observations. The weakening of the Pacific circulations due to weakening of the overlying winds
 221 is not corroborated by atmospheric reanalyses.



222

223 **Fig. 2**

224 (a) Trend in FCM ensemble mean barotropic streamfunction (BSF) over 1979-2014 (colored
 225 contours) and wind stress (arrows). Gray contours show the 1941-1970 mean BSF, with contour
 226 values every 15 Sv from -75 Sv to 60 Sv. (b) Trend in MDM ensemble mean barotropic
 227 streamfunction over 1979-2014 (colored contours) and wind stress (arrows). Gray contours show
 228 the 1941-1970 mean BSF, with contour values every 15 Sv from -75 Sv to 60 Sv. (c) Winds
 229 ensemble mean trends. Stippling shows where FCM and MDM ensemble mean trends are
 230 significantly different. For all panels, negative values indicating counterclockwise circulation are
 231 dashed and positive values indicating clockwise circulation are solid.

232 **4 Wind driven ocean circulation trend feedbacks**

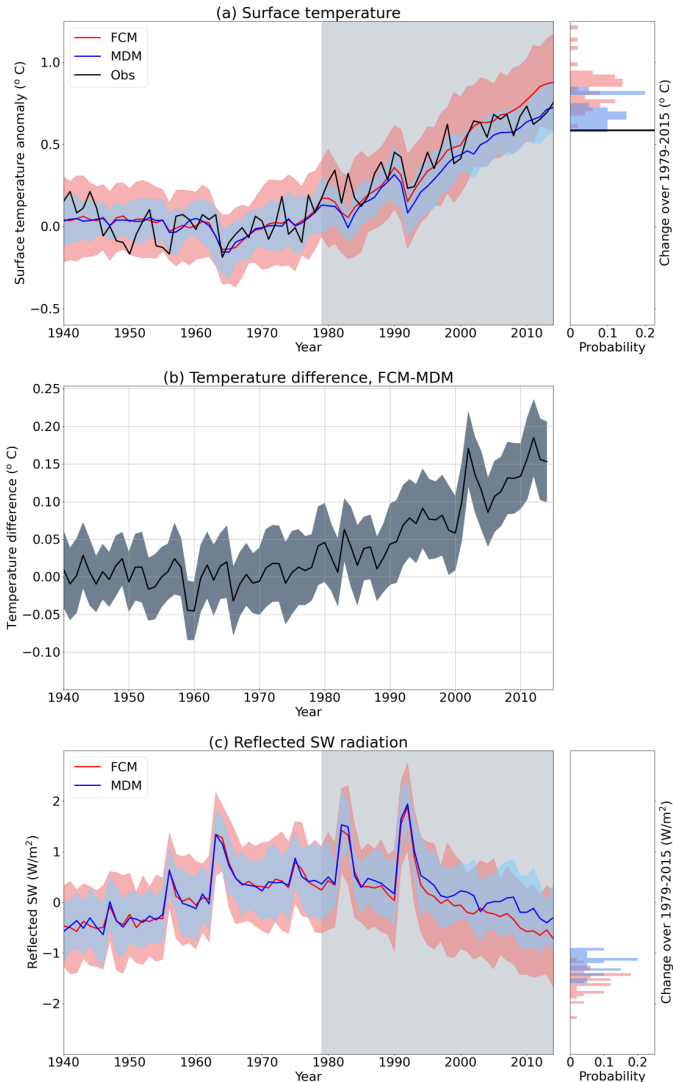
233 Global mean surface temperature anomalies are very similar with and without wind
 234 driven ocean circulation changes, until the 1970s (Fig. 3a). Trends in the wind stress forcing on
 235 the ocean lead to statistically significant global mean surface warming differences in the early
 236 1990s (Fig. 3b). This is several decades after changes in the Southern Ocean winds, and
 237 temporally aligned with changes to the Pacific trade winds (Fig. S4). Changes to the wind stress

238 driven ocean circulation lead to increased global warming of 0.15°C , or 17% of the trend in
239 FCM (Table S1). The observed rate of global surface temperature change (0.59°C) is within the
240 range of the MDM ensemble and is slightly colder than the range of possibilities simulated by
241 the FCM ensemble. To understand the cause of the amplified warming in FCM compared to
242 MDM, we first focus on the differences in the warming patterns between the two simulations.

243 Changes in the wind driven ocean circulation lead to more warming over the Southern
244 Hemisphere and the eastern tropical Pacific (Fig. 4d). In both regions, models commonly show
245 too much warming as compared to observations (Fan et al., 2014; Seager et al., 2022; Turner et
246 al., 2013). In these regions, the MDM simulation shows better agreement with observations as
247 compared to the more realistic FCM simulation, suggesting that a component of the model biases
248 could be due to incorrect wind stress trends or incorrect ocean response to wind stress trends. In
249 the Northern Hemisphere, trends in wind stress forcing shift warming patterns, including a zonal
250 shift of the North Atlantic warming hole and a meridional shift of the simulated location of
251 maximum warming in the North Pacific. Trends in wind stress forcing also significantly alter
252 surface temperature trends over land, leading to a faster warming rate over much of the
253 Americas, Europe, Africa, and Australia and slower warming over parts of Asia.

254 As an initial assessment of the dynamics leading to the warming pattern in Winds, we
255 compare the surface air temperature trend (Fig. 4d) to the upper 2000 m ocean heat content
256 (OHC) trend (Fig. S8c) and the mixed layer depth trend (Fig. S9c). Changes to the wind driven
257 ocean circulation lead to more OHC warming (greater surface heat fluxes into the ocean) in the
258 Southern Hemisphere, North Atlantic, and high latitude North Pacific, and less OHC warming
259 (surface heat fluxes out of the ocean) in the tropical Pacific. In the zonal mean, heat flux into the
260 ocean is larger in FCM than MDM in the subtropics, while near the equator, FCM has surface
261 heat fluxes out of the ocean while MDM has surface heat fluxes into the ocean (Fig. S10a).
262 Changes to the wind driven ocean circulation lead to a deeper mixed layer depths in the Southern
263 Ocean and high latitude North Atlantic. Therefore, in the Southern Ocean, warmer surface
264 temperatures in Winds are collocated with regions of larger OHC warming (Fig. S8) and deeper
265 mixed layers (Fig. S9), suggesting that atmospheric processes may dominate. In contrast, in the
266 tropical Pacific, Winds shows amplified air temperature warming, reduced OHC warming,
267 surface heat fluxes out of the ocean, and an altered mixed layer depth gradient across the basin
268 (Fig. S8,S9). This suggests that dynamic oceanic processes dominate the wind driven warming
269 seen in the Pacific. Further study using regional heat budgets will elucidate specific dynamics at
270 play.

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272

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Fig. 3

274 (a) Surface air temperature anomalies, with red showing FCM and blue showing MDM. Thick
 275 lines are ensemble means. Shading shows 2 standard deviations across ensemble members. Thick
 276 black line shows the GISTEMP observational product. Right-hand side histograms show the
 277 trend over 1979-2015 multiplied by the time period, to yield the change of each field. (b)
 278 FCM-MDM temperature difference, with shading showing the 95% confidence interval. (c)
 279 Same as (a) but for global mean all sky top of atmosphere upward shortwave radiation
 280 anomalies.

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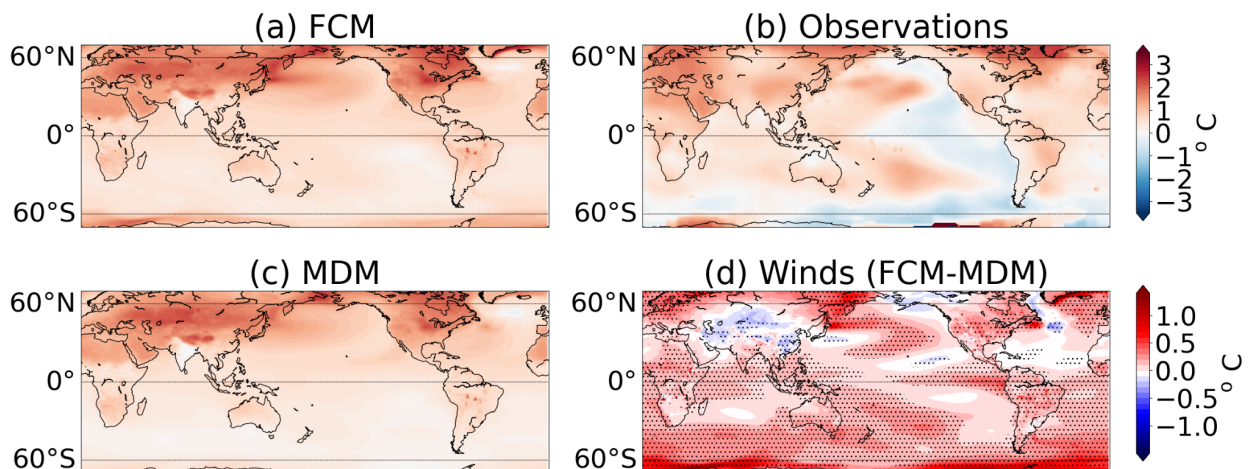
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The different warming patterns in each simulation could drive the different globally averaged warming rates through ocean heat uptake differences, or through differences in radiative feedbacks which alter the top of atmosphere radiation balance. Specifically, when comparing two simulations with the same external forcing, the simulation with a faster global warming rate must either have smaller ocean heat uptake or larger net radiative energy absorption by the planet (i.e. a larger top of atmosphere radiation imbalance) than the simulation with a slower global warming rate. The zonally averaged ocean heat uptake patterns in FCM and MDM are different, especially in the tropics where FCM takes up less heat than MDM (Fig.

290 S10a), which likely plays a role in the different zonal mean rates of surface warming (Fig. S10b)
 291 and differing values of ocean heat uptake efficiency (Table S1). Globally averaged, however,
 292 FCM warms more than MDM while also taking up more heat into the ocean (Table S1).
 293 Therefore, ocean heat uptake cannot explain the amplified warming in FCM. Instead, radiative
 294 fluxes, which are known to be dependent on the pattern of surface warming, lead to the
 295 amplification of the globally averaged warming rate in FCM. FCM begins to warm faster than
 296 MDM in about 1990 (Fig. 3c), and so we focus the next analyses on the period 1995-2014.

297 Over 1995-2014, the all-sky, top of atmosphere (TOA) radiation imbalance in FCM
 298 increases at a faster rate than in MDM (Fig. S10c), signifying the planet is gaining radiative
 299 energy at a faster rate in FCM than in MDM. This increase in radiative energy occurs in
 300 shortwave radiation under all-sky conditions but not in clear-sky conditions (Fig. S10f) nor in
 301 longwave radiation under all-sky conditions (Fig. S10e), suggesting shortwave cloud radiative
 302 effects explain the difference in the overall net radiative trends between FCM and MDM. In
 303 context of the different SST warming patterns between the simulations, we expect to see
 304 different net radiative trends. The amplified warming beginning in 1995 is consistent with when
 305 the Pacific trades weaken in FCM, leading to increased warming in the eastern equatorial Pacific
 306 (Fig. 4d) through ocean dynamical processes. Anomalous SST warming in the eastern tropical
 307 Pacific is known to decrease the lower tropospheric stability and reduce low clouds locally
 308 (Andrews et al., 2015; Andrews & Webb, 2018; Ceppi & Gregory, 2017; Zhou et al., 2017),
 309 thereby reducing the global reflected shortwave radiation (Fig. 3c) and resulting in an increased
 310 downward top of atmosphere radiation imbalance (Fig. S10c). These results suggests that the
 311 weakening of the Pacific trades may play a larger role than the poleward intensified Southern
 312 Hemisphere westerlies in the amplification of global surface warming in FCM. However, it is
 313 possible that regional warming differences in the Southern Hemisphere are more impacted by the
 314 Southern Hemisphere westerly changes than the Pacific trade changes. Additionally, the
 315 Southern Hemisphere westerly wind shift and the weakened Pacific trades could be indirectly
 316 linked through an extratropical to tropical teleconnection (Dong et al., 2022; M. R. England et
 317 al., 2020).

318



319

320

321 **Fig. 4**

322 (a) Ensemble mean trend in surface air temperature over 1979-2014 in FCM. (b) Same but for
 323 GISTEMP observational product (c) Same but for MDM. (d) Same but for Winds. Stippling in
 324 bottom right is where FCM and MDM ensemble means are statistically different.

325 **5 Conclusions**

326 Our study demonstrates that the wind driven ocean circulation plays a critical role in
327 pacing the global warming rate over 1979-2014 in a CMIP6 model, under realistic greenhouse
328 gas and aerosol forcing. Externally forced changes to the wind driven ocean circulation lead to
329 increased surface warming of 0.15°C (17%). This increased warming is distributed as amplified
330 warming over most of the Southern Hemisphere and a shifting of warming patterns in the
331 Northern Hemisphere. The increased rate of warming caused by trends in wind driven ocean is
332 opposite in sign to the decreased rate of global warming due to ocean circulation changes found
333 in previous studies (Garuba et al., 2018; Trossman et al., 2016; Winton et al., 2013). We
334 hypothesize that this discrepancy is due to the different role of the AMOC decline, which
335 dominates in studies that use large greenhouse gas forcings, and wind driven ocean circulation
336 changes which are isolated in our experimental set up. This suggests that the role of ocean
337 circulation changes on global surface warming are dependent on dynamics and that at any point
338 in time, the competing effects of an AMOC decline driven cooling and a wind driven ocean
339 circulation warming dictate the total role of ocean circulation changes on surface warming. If
340 this hypothesis is correct, ocean circulation changes could be contributing to time variability in
341 the climate feedback parameter (Andrews et al., 2015). Over long time periods, AMOC decline
342 likely dominates the oceanic warming feedback, and reduces global surface warming, whereas
343 over shorter time scales (like those investigated here), wind driven ocean circulation changes can
344 amplify surface warming.

345 Wind driven ocean circulation changes amplify SST warming in the eastern tropical
346 Pacific, which feeds back onto the top of atmosphere radiation imbalance and leads to amplified
347 global surface warming. What this means for the climate system depends on whether the wind
348 stress trends in coupled models are systematically biased. Coupled climate models commonly
349 simulate inaccurate SST trends in the eastern tropical Pacific (Seager et al., 2019, 2022), which
350 can lead to global biases through cloud-SST feedback (Dong et al., 2021). Under this
351 interpretation, biased wind stress trends or an incorrectly simulated oceanic response to the wind
352 stress trends may be driving an overestimate of the rate of global surface warming. On the other
353 hand, it is possible that the model-bias mismatch in the eastern tropical Pacific is due to natural
354 variability, which offsets the forced trend isolated by model ensembles (Bordbar et al., 2017;
355 Olonscheck et al., 2020; Watanabe et al., 2021). This interpretation would imply that the role of
356 wind driven ocean circulation changes could amplify the surface warming rate, once the eastern
357 tropical Pacific internal variability changes phases. In either case, it is crucial to understand
358 climate model behavior to ensure future climate model projections are accurate.

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366

367 **Open Research**

368 CESM2 FCM output is available from the Earth System Grid Federation (ESGF; at
369 <https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/>) as part of the CESM2 Large Ensemble (LENS2;
370 <https://www.cesm.ucar.edu/projects/community-projects/LENS2/>). GISTEMP output was
371 obtained freely from the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) Goddard
372 Institute for Space Studies (<https://data.giss.nasa.gov/gistemp/>). ERA5 output was obtained
373 freely from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF;
374 <https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/dataset/ecmwf-reanalysis-v5>). Data analyzed from the
375 CESM2 MDM are available in the Zenodo data repository at
376 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7154374>. CESM2 MDM model source code changes and wind
377 stress climatology forcing datasets are available in the Zenodo data repository at
378 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6678286>. Code to make the figures is available in the Zenodo
379 data repository at [10.5281/zenodo.7158684](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7158684).

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Historical changes in wind driven ocean circulation can accelerate global warming

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Contents of this file

Figures S1 to S10

Table S1

Introduction

This file contains ten figures and one table as supporting information for “Historical changes in wind driven ocean circulation can accelerate global warming”.

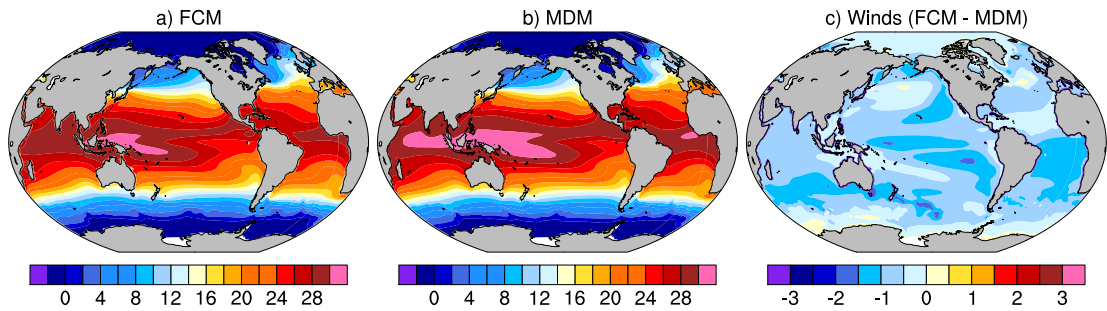


Figure S1: Pre industrial time mean sea surface temperature in a) FCM, b) MDM, and c) FCM – MDM. Units are °C.

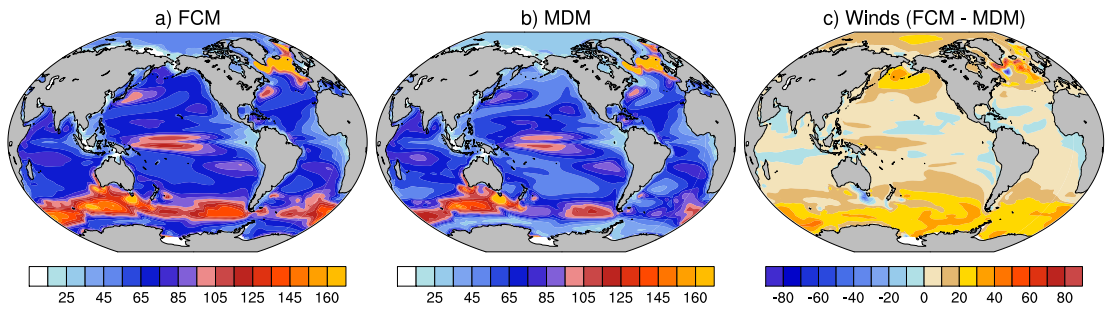


Figure S2: Pre industrial time mean mixed layer depth in a) FCM, b) MDM, and c) FCM – MDM. Units are meters.

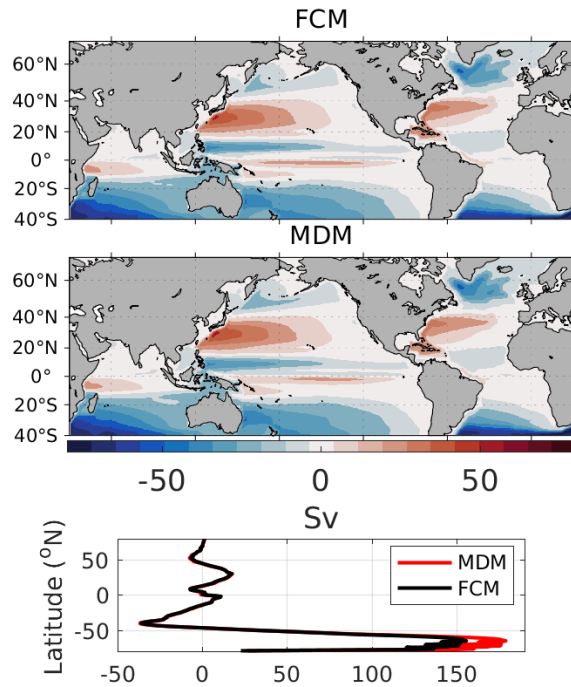


Figure S3: Pre industrial, annual mean barotropic stream function (BSF) in the FCM and MDM CESM2 simulations. The bottom panel shows the zonally averaged BSF. Units are Sverdrups (Sv). Positive values indicate clockwise flow in the x,y-plane and negative values indicate counterclockwise flow.

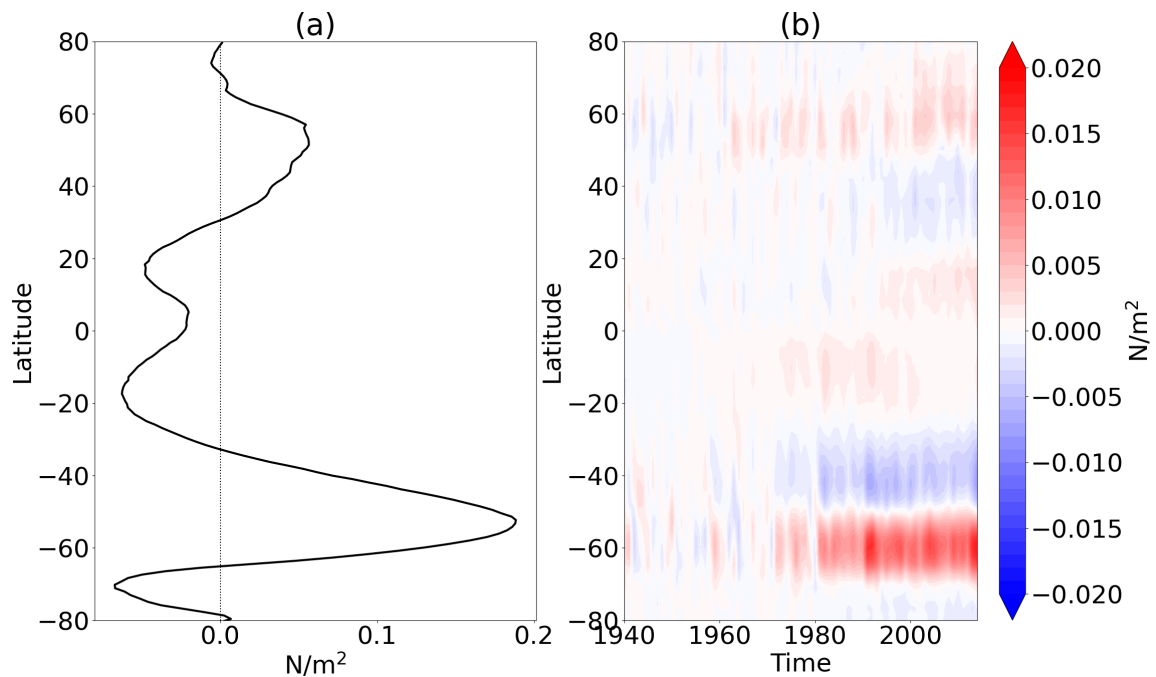


Figure S4. (a) 1941-1970 mean zonal mean wind stress in FCM ensemble mean. (b) Hovmoller plot of zonal wind stress changes relative to 1941-1970 in FCM ensemble mean.

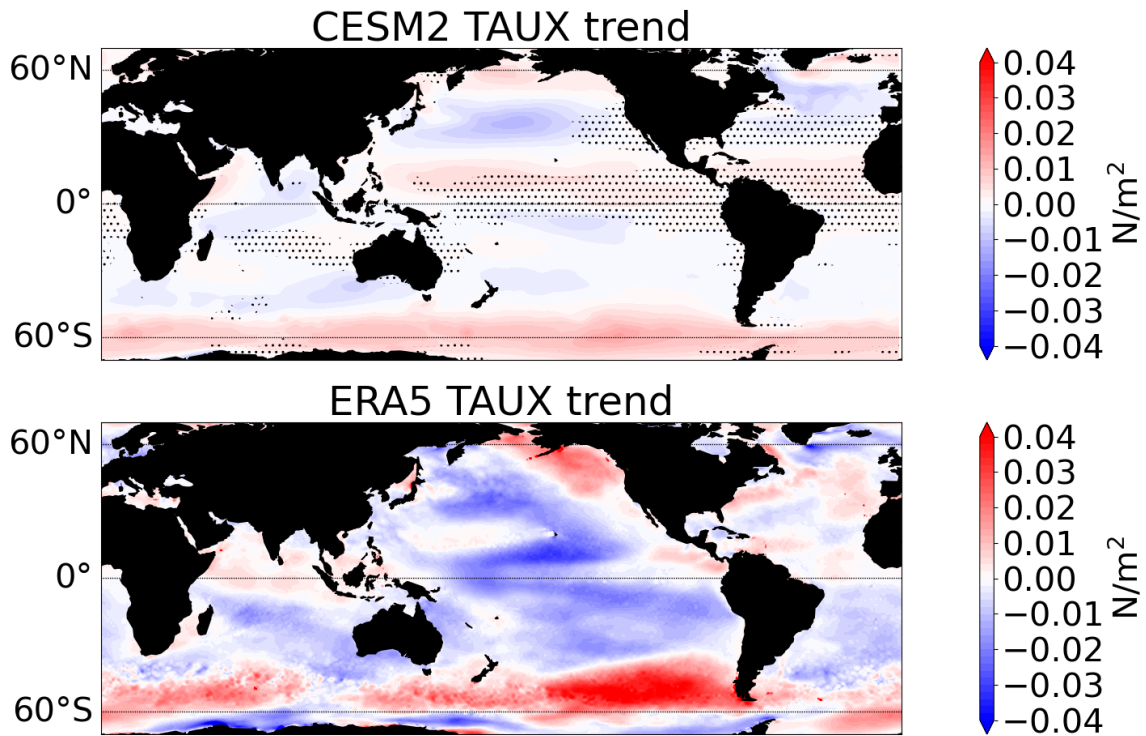


Figure S5. (top) Ensemble mean 1979-2014 trend in zonal wind stress from the FCM experiment with stippling showing where observations are outside of the range of model ensemble members. (bottom) ERA5 1979-2014 trend in zonal wind stress.

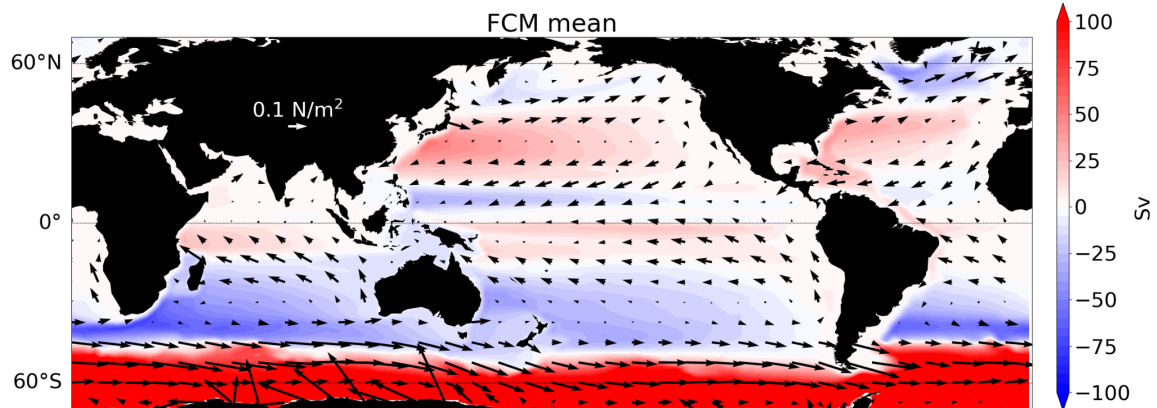


Figure S6. 1941-1970 mean BSF (colors) and wind stress (arrows) in FCM.

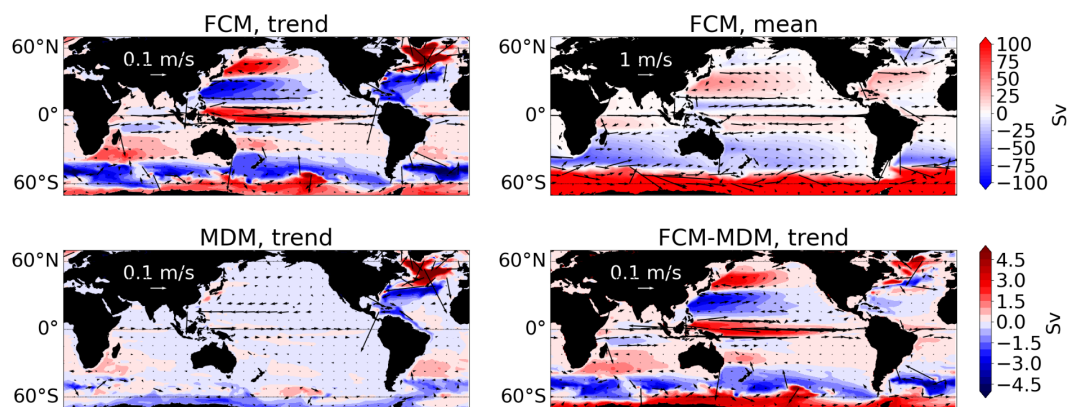


Figure S7. Comparison of barotropic streamfunction (colors) and upper 150 m ocean currents (arrows) for (top left) FCM trend over 1979-2014, (top right) FCM time mean over 1850-2014, (bottom left) MDM trend over 1979-2014, and (bottom right) FCM minus MDM trend over 1979-2014. Positive values of the barotropic streamfunction denote clockwise, negatives denote counterclockwise.

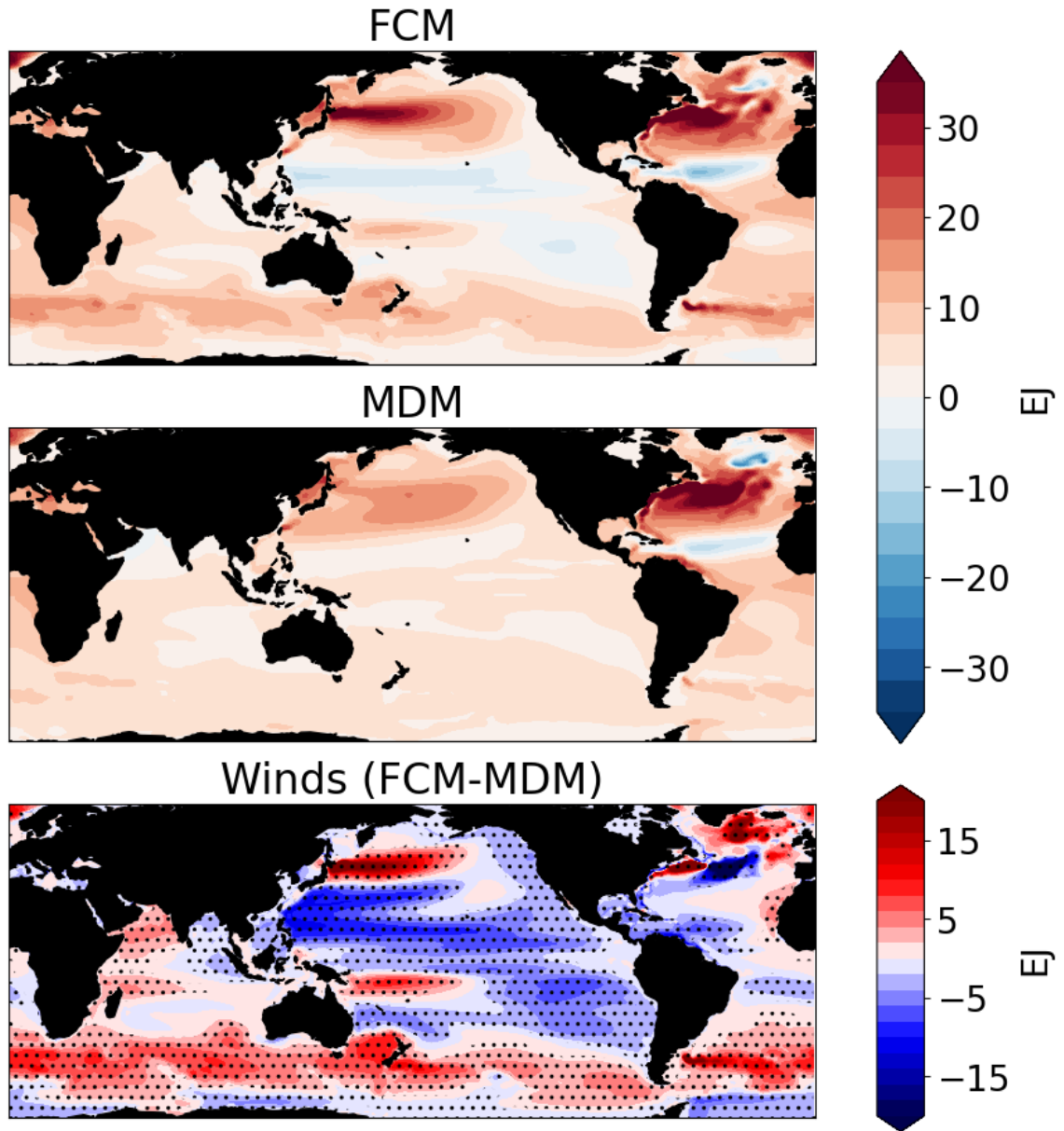


Figure S8. Ensemble mean 0-2000 m ocean heat content trend over 1979-2014

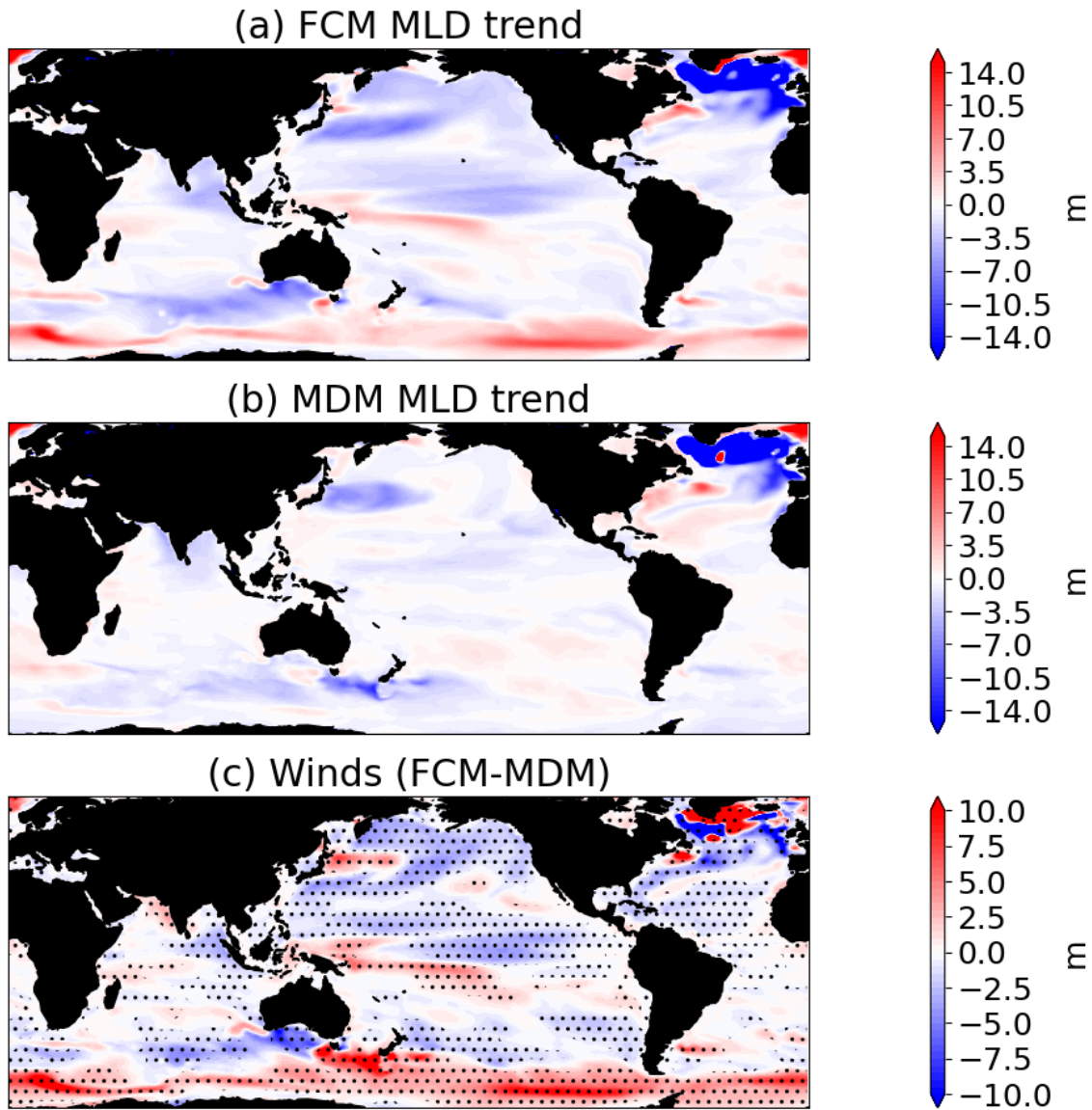


Figure S9. Mixed layer depth trend over 1979-2014 in (a) FCM ensemble mean (b) MDM ensemble mean (c) FCM-MDM.

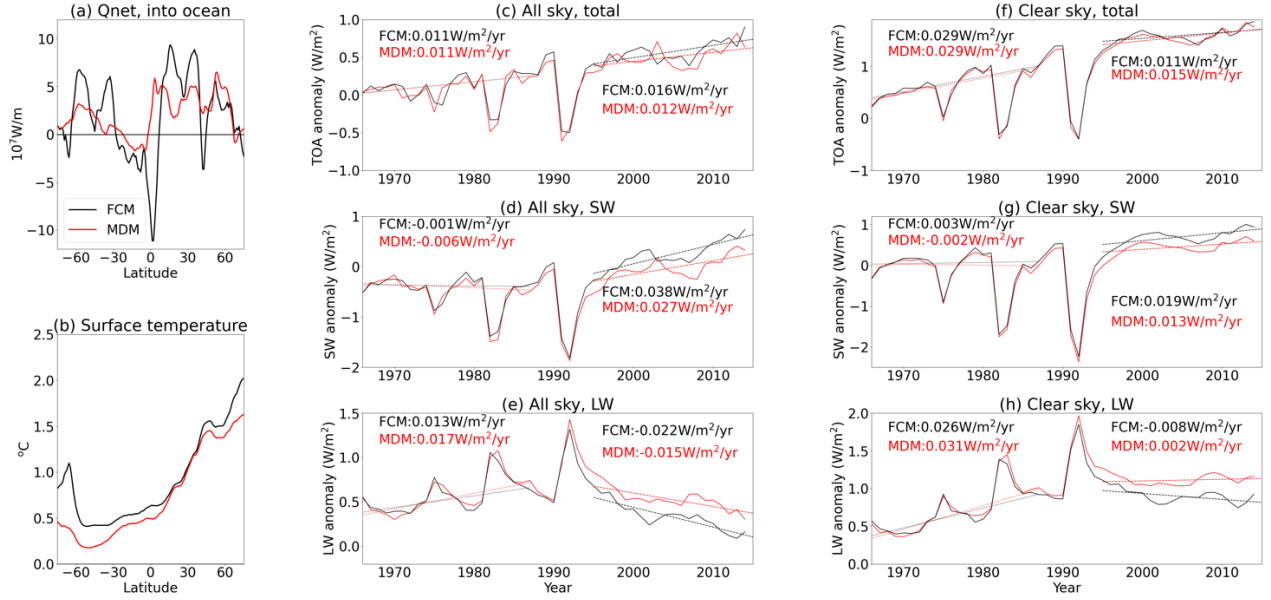


Figure S10. Ensemble mean 1979-2014 trends in zonally averaged (a) Qnet and (b) surface air temperature as a function of latitude. FCM is the black line and MDM is the red line. (c-h) Top of atmosphere radiation anomalies relative to 1941-1970, with regression line slopes. Black solid lines are FCM ensemble means, red solid lines are MDM ensemble means. Black and red dotted lines are the linear trends over 1966-1987, excluding 1975, 1982, and 1983, from FCM and MDM respectively. Black and red dashed lines are the linear trends over 1996-2014 from FCM and MDM respectively. All radiation values are defined as positive downward.

	FCM ensemble mean	MDM ensemble mean
Ocean heat uptake (W/m^2)	0.751	0.695
Warming (K)	0.847	0.699
Ocean heat uptake efficiency ($\text{W/m}^2/\text{K}$)	0.89	0.99

Table S1. Ocean heat uptake, surface air temperature warming, and ocean heat uptake efficiency (defined as ocean heat uptake/surface air temperature warming) over 1979-2014.