Bering Strait Ocean Heat Transport Drives Decadal Arctic Variability in a High-Resolution Climate Model

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Abstract

We investigate the role of ocean heat transport (OHT) in driving the decadal variability of the Arctic climate by analyzing the pre-industrial control simulation of a high-resolution climate model. While the OHT variability at 65@N is greater in the Atlantic, we find that the decadal variability of Arctic-wide surface temperature and sea ice area is much better correlated with Bering Strait OHT than Atlantic OHT. In particular, decadal Bering Strait OHT variability causes significant changes in local sea ice cover and air-sea heat fluxes, which are amplified by shortwave feedbacks. These heat flux anomalies are regionally balanced by longwave radiation at the top of the atmosphere, without compensation by atmospheric heat transport (Bjerknes compensation). The sensitivity of the Arctic to changes in OHT may thus rely on an accurate representation of the heat transport through the Bering Strait, which is difficult to resolve in coarse-resolution ocean models.

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Key Points:

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11	•	Ocean heat transport variability through the Bering Strait has an outsized effect
12		on Arctic sea ice cover and surface temperature
13	•	Atlantic ocean heat transport anomalies into the Arctic are compensated by at-
14		mospheric heat transport anomalies on decadal timescales

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15 Abstract

We investigate the role of ocean heat transport (OHT) in driving the decadal variabil-16 ity of the Arctic climate by analyzing the pre-industrial control simulation of a high-resolution 17 climate model. While the OHT variability at 65°N is greater in the Atlantic, we find that 18 the decadal variability of Arctic-wide surface temperature and sea ice area is much bet-19 ter correlated with Bering Strait OHT than Atlantic OHT. In particular, decadal Bering 20 Strait OHT variability causes significant changes in local sea ice cover and air-sea heat 21 fluxes, which are amplified by shortwave feedbacks. These heat flux anomalies are re-22 gionally balanced by longwave radiation at the top of the atmosphere, without compen-23 sation by atmospheric heat transport (Bjerknes compensation). The sensitivity of the 24 Arctic to changes in OHT may thus rely on an accurate representation of the heat trans-25 port through the Bering Strait, which is difficult to resolve in coarse-resolution ocean mod-26 els. 27

²⁸ Plain Language Summary

We studied how ocean heat transport (OHT) affects decade-timescale variability 29 in the Arctic climate using a high-resolution climate model. Specifically, we compared 30 the impacts of heat entering the Arctic Ocean through the Nordic Seas from the Atlantic 31 and through the Bering Strait from the Pacific. Though more heat is transported from 32 the Atlantic, Arctic surface temperature and sea ice respond more strongly to changes 33 in OHT through the Bering Strait. Unlike Atlantic OHT, changes in Bering Strait OHT 34 impact local air temperatures directly, without compensating changes in atmospheric heat 35 transport. Proper representation of the Arctic's sensitivity to future increased OHT may 36 thus rely on correctly representing OHT through Bering Strait, which is challenging in 37 coarse-resolution ocean models. 38

³⁹ 1 Introduction

The Arctic is warming faster than the rest of the world (Rantanen et al., 2022; Chylek et al., 2022). This amplification of Arctic climate change is caused by a coupling between local feedbacks and increased poleward heat transport from lower latitudes (Hwang et al., 2011; Nummelin et al., 2017; Previdi et al., 2021). However, the mechanisms of this coupling are complex and still poorly understood.

Decadal to multidecadal timescale variability in the Arctic—manifested by changes 45 in sea ice extent, surface temperatures, etc.—has been previously shown to be closely 46 related to ocean heat transport (Zhang, 2015; Jungclaus & Koenigk, 2010). Further, it 47 has been suggested that variability in *total* heat transport into the Arctic is reduced by 48 a phenomenon known as Bjerknes Compensation (BC), whereby anomalies in meridional 49 ocean heat transport (OHT) tend to induce roughly equal and opposite anomalies in merid-50 ional atmospheric heat transport (AHT). Bjerknes (1964) proposed that this result fol-51 lows from energy conservation on timescales where the top-of-atmosphere (TOA) fluxes 52 and ocean heat content remain approximately constant. A recent study (Y. Liu et al., 53 2020) indeed found evidence of decadal-timescale BC in several reanalysis datasets and 54 confirmed the importance of surface heat fluxes in communicating OHT variability to 55 the atmosphere. However, as they note, the exact causal relationships of decadal-timescale 56 heat transport variability are very difficult to parse out in such short observational time 57 series. 58

⁵⁹ Models have thus been indispensable to the study of BC due to the need for suf-⁶⁰ ficiently long time series. In coupled global climate models, BC is typically strongest at ⁶¹ the high northern latitudes (Shaffrey & Sutton, 2006; Swaluw et al., 2007; Outten & Esau, ⁶² 2017; Jungclaus & Koenigk, 2010), due to the presence of strong regional climate feed-⁶³ backs in the marginal ice zone (Z. Liu et al., 2016; Kurtakoti et al., 2023). Specifically,

Swaluw et al. (2007) and Outten and Esau (2017) argue that BC in high northern lat-64 itudes is due to the modulation of sea ice by decadal Atlantic OHT variability. The canon-65 ical mechanism is illustrated as follows: positive OHT anomalies melt back sea ice, en-66 hancing heat loss from the previously ice-covered ocean. The anomalous heat flux into 67 the atmosphere may be amplified by local radiative feedbacks such as the ice-albedo feed-68 back, causing local atmospheric warming. This warming then reduces the meridional tem-69 perature gradient and thus baroclinity, reducing the northward heat transport by atmo-70 spheric eddies. 71

72 This canonical perspective does not take into account significant longitudinal variations in the Earth's geography and climate mean state. In particular, OHT from the 73 sub-Arctic to the Arctic Ocean takes place primarily through two main gateways: flow 74 across the Greenland-Scotland Ridge connects the Arctic Ocean to the subpolar North 75 Atlantic Ocean, while flow through the Bering Strait connects the Arctic to the subpo-76 lar North Pacific. OHT through the Atlantic sector is an order of magnitude larger than 77 that through the Bering Strait, both in mean value and in amplitude of variability. Con-78 sequently, most studies on the connection between decadal Arctic variability and Bjerk-79 nes Compensation have focused mainly on Atlantic OHT variability. An exception is the 80 study by Li et al. (2018), who analyzed three Earth system models (ESM) and demon-81 strated that OHT through both gateways has an important impact on Arctic climate. 82 In fact, they argue that OHT through Bering Strait is more efficient in causing low-frequency 83 variability of Arctic sea ice than OHT through the Atlantic sector. A strong sensitiv-84 ity of Arctic sea ice on Bering Strait throughflow has also been found in observations (Woodgate 85 et al., 2012; MacKinnon et al., 2021). 86

This raises the question: how does the atmosphere respond to OHT variability through the different gateways given the differences in sea ice sensitivity, and what are the consequences for the atmosphere's ability to compensate for this OHT variability?

This question is important for several reasons. First, observations over the past few 90 decades (Woodgate, 2018; Tsubouchi et al., 2021) as well as model projections of future 91 climate change (Shu et al., 2022) show a robust increase of northward OHT going into 92 the Arctic from both the subpolar North Atlantic and North Pacific Oceans. The extent 93 to which AHT will compensate these changes is therefore of primary concern for con-94 straining uncertainty in Arctic climate change. Second, the current generation of climate 95 models typically have a spatial resolution of $\sim 1^{\circ}$ in their standard configuration ocean models. Such low resolution leaves narrow channels like the Bering Strait significantly 97 underresolved (Chang et al., in review), while poorly resolved bathymetry also appears 98 to weaken OHT across the Greenland-Scotland Ridge (Heuzé & Arthun, 2019). Conse-99 quently, OHT in standard resolution climate models may be significantly biased, and their 100 results should be treated with caution. 101

Recently, an unprecedented multi-century simulation of a high-resolution global cli-102 mate model was performed (Chang et al., 2020), which at the time of analysis was the 103 longest pre-industrial control simulation run at high resolution (see Data and Methods). 104 In this paper we use this unique data set to investigate the Arctic atmospheric response 105 to OHT variability through the primary oceanic gateways. We find that Bering Strait 106 OHT plays an outsized role in driving Arctic climate variability. By decomposing the 107 meridional energy balance, we show that while the AHT partially compensates for anoma-108 lies in the zonally-integrated OHT, lateral atmospheric energy fluxes do not compensate 109 for anomalies in OHT through Bering Strait. 110

Data and Methods

We use a portion of the 500-year pre-industrial (PI) control simulation of CESM1.3 (Community Earth System Model version 1.3), configured with nominal horizonal res-



Figure 1. (a) Annual-mean climatology of Arctic sea ice concentration in the PI control simulation analyzed in this study. The dotted grey lines show 65°N and the boundary between the Pacific and Atlantic sectors defined in this paper. The white lines indicate the logical latitudes used for integration. (b) Observed 1982-2022 climatology of annual-mean Arctic sea ice concentration (NOAA OISST v2).

olutions of 0.25° in the atmosphere and land models and 0.1° in the ocean and sea-ice models (Chang et al., 2020). The PI control was forced with greenhouse gas conditions kept
constant at the 1850 levels throughout the simulation. We exclude the first 150 years from
our analysis due to model drift, so all time series are 350 years long (see Chang et al.,
2020, for context). The sea ice climatology of the PI control simulation is shown in Figure 1a and shows good agreement with the observed climatology during the satellite era
(Fig. 1b).

We estimate meridional OHT and AHT at 65°N from monthly-averaged fields. We choose 65°N as the boundary of the Arctic, however our results are not sensitive to the choice of latitude. The OHT time series is calculated by integrating the product of meridional velocity (v) and potential temperature (Θ) :

$$OHT = \int_{\varphi_E}^{\varphi_W} \int_{-H}^{0} c_p v \Theta \cos \theta \, \mathrm{d}z \, R_e \mathrm{d}\varphi \tag{1}$$

where we use θ and φ to denote latitude and longitude, respectively. φ_E and φ_W denote 121 the eastern and western boundaries of the basin and H, c_p , z, and R_e denote basin depth, 122 heat capacity of seawater at constant pressure, vertical depth, and the radius of the Earth, 123 respectively. This reconstruction, which ignores contributions by sub-monthly covariance 124 between velocity and temperature, is necessary because the model's online diagnostic OHT 125 output was corrupted for the first 277 years and thus would have significantly shortened 126 the available timespan for our analysis. For ease of computation, we also choose to ap-127 proximate OHT across 65°N by heat transport across a *logical* latitude line of the model's 128 tripolar grid that tracks 65°N reasonably well. A comparison between our OHT time se-129 ries, the OHT time series from the model's online diagnostic output across the same log-130 ical latitude line (after the period of data corruption), and an estimate of the OHT across 131

the actual 65°N latitude line, shows that our OHT time series is an accurate representation of OHT across 65°N in the Atlantic (Supplementary Information).

The AHT time series is estimated by assuming a negligible atmospheric heat capacity and cumulatively integrating the energy flux divergence (e.g., Shaffrey & Sutton, 2006; Swaluw et al., 2007; Outten et al., 2018). We define AHT at the north pole ($\theta = \pi/2$) to be zero and integrate the zonally-integrated flux divergence southward to find the AHT at each latitude θ :

$$AHT = \int_{\theta}^{\pi/2} \int_{0}^{2\pi} (F_{\rm sfc} - F_{\rm TOA}) R_e^2 \cos \theta' \, \mathrm{d}\varphi \, \mathrm{d}\theta' \tag{2}$$

where F_{TOA} and F_{sfc} are the net downward heat flux at the top-of-atmosphere and surface, respectively. By this formulation, northward AHT is positive.

Since we are concerned with variability on decadal timescales, all monthly time series are annually-averaged, detrended, and then smoothed using a 10-year moving average. Moreover, to account for inflated Pearson's r when regressing smoothed time series, we calculate an effective number of degrees of freedom for significance tests. We follow the formulation given in Jungclaus and Koenigk (2010) to estimate the effective number of samples:

$$n_{\rm eff} = \frac{n}{1 + 2(\sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i r'_i)} \tag{3}$$

where *n* is the original length of the time series and r_i, r'_i are the autocorrelations of the two time series at lag *i*. For smoothed time series originally with 341 samples, n_{eff} is on the order of 30-50.

139 **3 Results**

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3.1 Arctic response to Pacific and Atlantic OHT

The OHT through the Atlantic and Bering Strait (the blue and red lines in Fig-141 ure 2, respectively) both display decadal to multidecadal variability. OHT anomalies are 142 positively correlated with Arctic-average surface air temperature anomalies and nega-143 tively correlated with sea ice area anomalies (Figure 2a,b). Strikingly, Bering Strait OHT 144 (mean = 8.6 TW, standard deviation = 1.4 TW) has a stronger correlation with both 145 surface temperature and sea ice than Atlantic OHT (mean = 342 TW, standard devi-146 ation = 10.5 TW), even though it is considerably smaller in magnitude. It is not pos-147 sible to conclude from correlation alone whether 1) OHT variability is driving these changes 148 in temperature and sea ice, 2) OHT variability is driven by surface temperature changes, 149 or 3) OHT, temperature, and sea ice covary due to another driving mode of variability. 150 In later sections, however, we present evidence indicating that OHT plays the driving 151 role in modulating sea ice and air-sea heat flux, thus communicating ocean heat anoma-152 lies to the atmosphere. 153

At 65°N, anomalies in AHT and Atlantic OHT compensate each other on decadal 154 timescales, with an anticorrelation of r = -0.61 (Figure 2c). The compensation is in-155 consistent over time, with some periods displaying almost perfect compensation, while 156 others show undercompensation (where the magnitude of the AHT anomaly is less than 157 the magnitude of the OHT anomaly) or overcompensation (where the magnitude of the 158 AHT anomaly exceeds the magnitude of the OHT anomaly). Moreover, Bering Strait 159 OHT is not correlated with the AHT. In general, the total OHT (not shown here) and 160 AHT anomalies are opposite in sign, indicative of Bjerknes compensation on a decadal 161 timescale. 162



Figure 2. (a): Area-averaged surface air temperature anomaly over the Arctic domain (black) plotted with standardized Bering Strait (red) and Atlantic (blue, dotted) OHT anomalies. (b): same as (a), but sea ice area anomaly (black) is shown instead of temperature. (c): same as (a), but AHT anomaly (black) is shown instead of temperature. The time series are not standardized to emphasize their magnitudes. Note that in (c) the vertical scale for Bering Strait OHT has been magnified by a factor of 10 for better visibility. Pearson's r correlation coefficients are given in the top right.



Figure 3. (a): regression of 10-year moving mean sea ice concentration anomalies onto the standardized Bering Strait OHT anomalies at 65° N. Stippling indicates statistical insignificance with respect to a p = 0.05 threshold. (b): as in (a), but regressed onto Atlantic OHT. (c): as in (a), but turbulent heat fluxes (defined as sensible plus latent surface heat flux with positive going from ocean to atmosphere). (d): as in (c), but regressed onto Atlantic OHT. (e): as in (a), but surface air temperature. (f): as in (e), but regressed onto Atlantic OHT.

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3.2 Bering Strait OHT Drives Variability in the Pacific Sector

To better understand the atmosphere-ocean interaction that mediates these distinct OHT-AHT relationships, we regress the sea ice anomaly, surface turbulent heat flux (defined as the sum of latent and sensible heat fluxes) anomaly, and surface air temperature anomaly onto the standardized OHT anomaly across 65°N.

Figure 3 shows the linear regressions of anomalous sea ice concentration, turbu-168 lent heat flux, and surface temperature onto the OHT anomaly through Bering Strait 169 and the Atlantic separately. During periods of anomalously high OHT, ice is lost in the 170 marginal ice zone and anomalous heat flux is transferred from the newly exposed ocean 171 to the atmosphere. The greatest changes associated with Atlantic OHT variability oc-172 cur along the East Greenland Current while the greatest changes associated with Bering 173 Strait OHT variability occur in the Chukchi Sea. The greatest changes in surface heat 174 flux are found at the marginal ice zone, similar to what was found in Outten and Esau 175 (2017), Jungclaus and Koenigk (2010), and Kurtakoti et al. (2023). Regression of anoma-176

lous sea surface temperatures (SST) onto OHT reveals a spatial pattern similar to the
heat flux regression (Figure S1). This positive correlation between SST and heat flux
indicates that anomalous turbulent heat fluxes are primarily driven by changes in SST,
rather than the other way around.

Even though Bering Strait OHT is much smaller compared to Atlantic OHT at 65°N, it has an outsized impact on the local sea ice and heat flux variability. Heat fluxes associated with anomalous OHT in the Pacific sector are comparable in magnitude to those in the Atlantic sector. Furthermore, loss of sea ice in the Pacific sector during periods of high Bering Strait OHT generates a substantial heat dome centered on the same area (Fig. 3e). Thus, we emphasize that the local influence of Bering Strait OHT on the atmosphere cannot be neglected.

3.3 Lateral flux decomposition

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Next, we compare the effects of Atlantic versus Bering Strait OHT variability on the Arctic atmosphere by decomposing the lateral heat balance. Because the AHT is computed by assuming negligible atmospheric heat storage over decadal timescales, the fluxes may be summed and area-integrated over the Arctic domain to recover the AHT like so:

$$AHT(\theta) = \int_{\theta}^{\pi/2} \int_{0}^{2\pi} (LW_{sfc} + SW_{sfc} + LHF + SHF) - (LW_{TOA} + SW_{TOA}) dA$$

where LHF and SHF refer to surface latent heat flux and sensible heat flux, and LW and SW refer to longwave and shortwave radiation respectively. All flux terms above are positive downward to keep consistency with sign conventions in Equation 2. By linearity of integration, we integrate each term separately and refer to each component as an area-integrated flux, denoted as [F]:

 $AHT(\theta) = ([LW_{sfc}] + [SW_{sfc}] + [LHF] + [SHF]) - ([LW_{TOA}] + [SW_{TOA}])$

We linearly regress each timeseries [F] onto Bering Strait OHT and Atlantic OHT; the linear slopes, with units [TW flux per standard deviation OHT] are shown in Figure 4. A positive slope indicates that positive (resp. negative) OHT anomalies are associated with anomalous flux out of (resp. into) the atmospheric sector through either the surface or TOA, and vice versa for negative slopes.

This decomposition reveals distinct atmospheric responses to OHT through the At-194 lantic and Bering Strait gateways. Similar to what is found in Figure 2c, there is a stronger 195 compensating AHT anomaly in response to an anomaly in Atlantic OHT than Bering 196 Strait OHT. For both Atlantic and Bering Strait OHT, turbulent heat fluxes are anti-197 correlated with OHT, consistent with Figure 3c,d. A crucial difference in the atmospheric 198 response can be seen in the TOA longwave radiation. While there is essentially no sig-199 nal in the Atlantic sector, the Pacific sector experiences strong changes in TOA long-200 wave radiation covarying with anomalous OHT. This longwave flux at the TOA com-201 pensates the anomalous turbulent heat fluxes driven by Bering Strait OHT variability. 202 Therefore, the primary mechanism for compensation of OHT anomalies in the Pacific 203 sector is through direct adjustment of the TOA energy balance rather than through changes 204 in AHT. 205

Furthermore, consistent with the fact that Bering Strait OHT is closely coupled with sea ice in the Pacific sector (Fig. 3a), it is also positively correlated with downwelling shortwave at both the surface and TOA (yellow and orange bars in Fig. 4). This response magnifies the initial ocean-driven heat anomaly via changes in the summertime absorption of shortwave radiation by the ocean.

It remains unclear why atmospheric heat transport does not adjust to compensate significant changes in air-sea heat fluxes in the Pacific sector. Following the mechanism



Figure 4. Linear regression slopes of area-integrated flux anomalies onto standardized ocean heat transport. Dashed bars are fluxes regressed onto Atlantic OHT, while solid bars are fluxes regressed onto Bering Strait OHT.

proposed by Swaluw et al. (2007), one would expect air temperature variability over the 213 Pacific sector to affect the local baroclinicity and thereby change the energy transported 214 by atmospheric eddies. One possible reason that this does not translate into compen-215 sating AHT is that the mean position of the North Pacific storm track may not extend 216 far enough north for atmospheric eddy heat transport to adjust to changes in baroclin-217 icity centered over the Pacific Arctic. A recent study (Wang et al., 2023) evaluated the 218 Northern Hemisphere storm track in the same simulation used by this study. The mean 219 position of the wintertime storm track (shown in their Figure S1d) indeed extends fur-220 ther north over the Atlantic sector than the Pacific. Therefore, atmospheric eddies may 221 be more efficient at compensating changes in the air-sea heat flux over the Atlantic sec-222 tor than the Pacific. However, the precise mechanisms that preclude AHT compensa-223 tion in the Pacific sector are left for future study. 224

4 Summary and Conclusions

We have shown that decadal variability in Arctic surface air temperature is largely driven by variability of OHT through the Bering Strait in a high-resolution coupled climate simulation. By decomposing the atmospheric response into sector-integrated flux anomalies, we find that Bering Strait OHT anomalies are not damped by Bjerknes Compensation and instead change the TOA longwave energy balance. Thus, Bering Strait OHT, despite its low magnitude compared to Atlantic OHT, has an outsized impact on driving the overall decadal variability in the Arctic.

The main implication of this work is that increases in Bering Strait OHT may be 233 an important driver of future Arctic climate change and, in particular, Arctic Amplifi-234 cation. Our results suggest that even if the total zonally-integrated OHT into the Arc-235 tic is compensated by opposing zonally-integrated AHT anomalies—that is, Bjerknes Com-236 pensation holds—the comparatively small Bering Strait OHT may still exert significant 237 influence on Arctic climate despite not projecting onto the Bjerknes Compensation sig-238 nal. In the PI control simulation analyzed here, this is manifested in the decadal vari-239 ability of sea ice and air temperatures in the Pacific sector. 240

Our results are consistent with Li et al. (2018), who found that simulated multi-241 decadal variability of September Arctic sea ice extent was impacted to similar degree by 242 both Atlantic OHT and Bering Strait OHT, despite the standard deviation of Bering Strait 243 OHT being an order of magnitude smaller. Furthermore, there is observational evidence that accelerated sea ice loss in the Chukchi Sea is indeed linked to additional northward 245 heat inflow through Bering Strait. Woodgate et al. (2010) found that record high Bering 246 Strait OHT in 2007 contributed to anomalous sea ice loss by triggering earlier onset of 247 seasonal sea ice melt and by providing additional subsurface heat during winter months. 248 Furthermore, in-situ mooring data has revealed an increase in Bering Strait OHT over 249 the past three decades (though data between 1991 to 1999 is missing; Woodgate, 2018). 250 This increase has been attributed, about equally, both to increases in ocean tempera-251 tures and northward transport (Woodgate et al., 2012). 252

We will conclude by noting a few caveats of our work and by proposing some next 253 steps. The robustness of these results depends both on the simulated sea ice climatol-254 ogy and the representation of OHT through the Atlantic and Bering Strait gateways. There-255 fore, a natural extension of this work is to analyze the relationship between Bering Strait OHT and the Arctic heat budget in other models of both comparable complexity (i.e., 257 high-resolution Earth system models) and lower complexity (e.g., lower resolution mod-258 els or idealized configurations). Another extension of this work would to consider the mech-259 anisms from a seasonal perspective. Effects of ocean heat transport on sea ice and the 260 overlying atmosphere tend to be amplified in winter, when the ocean is the primary source 261 of heat for the atmosphere while shortwave feedbacks are more prominent in summer (Previdi 262 et al., 2021; Taylor et al., 2022). Finally, to what extent the current analysis of inter-263 nal climate variability provides lessons for the future of the Arctic also remains to be explored. Chang et al. (in review) demonstrate how improved representation of Bering Strait 265 heat transport in this high-resolution configuration of CESM1.3 increases Arctic warm-266 ing under a scenario of future anthropogenic forcing compared to a low-resolution con-267 figuration of the same model, suggesting that our results have immediate relevance for 268 a future that most likely will feature enhanced OHT through Bering Strait. 269

²⁷⁰ 5 Open Research

The code used to produce the figures in this study is available upon request to the authors. The model output from the iHESP project is publicly available through the iH-ESP data archive: https://ihesp.github.io/archive/products/ds_archive/Sunway _Runs.html. The CESM1.3-HR simulation is documented in Chang et al. (2020). The NOAA OISST sea ice product is available at https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/products/ optimum-interpolation-sst.

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Bering Strait Ocean Heat Transport Drives Decadal Arctic Variability in a High-Resolution Climate Model

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Key Points:

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11	•	Ocean heat transport variability through the Bering Strait has an outsized effect
12		on Arctic sea ice cover and surface temperature
13	•	Atlantic ocean heat transport anomalies into the Arctic are compensated by at-
14		mospheric heat transport anomalies on decadal timescales

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15 Abstract

We investigate the role of ocean heat transport (OHT) in driving the decadal variabil-16 ity of the Arctic climate by analyzing the pre-industrial control simulation of a high-resolution 17 climate model. While the OHT variability at 65°N is greater in the Atlantic, we find that 18 the decadal variability of Arctic-wide surface temperature and sea ice area is much bet-19 ter correlated with Bering Strait OHT than Atlantic OHT. In particular, decadal Bering 20 Strait OHT variability causes significant changes in local sea ice cover and air-sea heat 21 fluxes, which are amplified by shortwave feedbacks. These heat flux anomalies are re-22 gionally balanced by longwave radiation at the top of the atmosphere, without compen-23 sation by atmospheric heat transport (Bjerknes compensation). The sensitivity of the 24 Arctic to changes in OHT may thus rely on an accurate representation of the heat trans-25 port through the Bering Strait, which is difficult to resolve in coarse-resolution ocean mod-26 els. 27

²⁸ Plain Language Summary

We studied how ocean heat transport (OHT) affects decade-timescale variability 29 in the Arctic climate using a high-resolution climate model. Specifically, we compared 30 the impacts of heat entering the Arctic Ocean through the Nordic Seas from the Atlantic 31 and through the Bering Strait from the Pacific. Though more heat is transported from 32 the Atlantic, Arctic surface temperature and sea ice respond more strongly to changes 33 in OHT through the Bering Strait. Unlike Atlantic OHT, changes in Bering Strait OHT 34 impact local air temperatures directly, without compensating changes in atmospheric heat 35 transport. Proper representation of the Arctic's sensitivity to future increased OHT may 36 thus rely on correctly representing OHT through Bering Strait, which is challenging in 37 coarse-resolution ocean models. 38

³⁹ 1 Introduction

The Arctic is warming faster than the rest of the world (Rantanen et al., 2022; Chylek et al., 2022). This amplification of Arctic climate change is caused by a coupling between local feedbacks and increased poleward heat transport from lower latitudes (Hwang et al., 2011; Nummelin et al., 2017; Previdi et al., 2021). However, the mechanisms of this coupling are complex and still poorly understood.

Decadal to multidecadal timescale variability in the Arctic—manifested by changes 45 in sea ice extent, surface temperatures, etc.—has been previously shown to be closely 46 related to ocean heat transport (Zhang, 2015; Jungclaus & Koenigk, 2010). Further, it 47 has been suggested that variability in *total* heat transport into the Arctic is reduced by 48 a phenomenon known as Bjerknes Compensation (BC), whereby anomalies in meridional 49 ocean heat transport (OHT) tend to induce roughly equal and opposite anomalies in merid-50 ional atmospheric heat transport (AHT). Bjerknes (1964) proposed that this result fol-51 lows from energy conservation on timescales where the top-of-atmosphere (TOA) fluxes 52 and ocean heat content remain approximately constant. A recent study (Y. Liu et al., 53 2020) indeed found evidence of decadal-timescale BC in several reanalysis datasets and 54 confirmed the importance of surface heat fluxes in communicating OHT variability to 55 the atmosphere. However, as they note, the exact causal relationships of decadal-timescale 56 heat transport variability are very difficult to parse out in such short observational time 57 series. 58

⁵⁹ Models have thus been indispensable to the study of BC due to the need for suf-⁶⁰ ficiently long time series. In coupled global climate models, BC is typically strongest at ⁶¹ the high northern latitudes (Shaffrey & Sutton, 2006; Swaluw et al., 2007; Outten & Esau, ⁶² 2017; Jungclaus & Koenigk, 2010), due to the presence of strong regional climate feed-⁶³ backs in the marginal ice zone (Z. Liu et al., 2016; Kurtakoti et al., 2023). Specifically,

Swaluw et al. (2007) and Outten and Esau (2017) argue that BC in high northern lat-64 itudes is due to the modulation of sea ice by decadal Atlantic OHT variability. The canon-65 ical mechanism is illustrated as follows: positive OHT anomalies melt back sea ice, en-66 hancing heat loss from the previously ice-covered ocean. The anomalous heat flux into 67 the atmosphere may be amplified by local radiative feedbacks such as the ice-albedo feed-68 back, causing local atmospheric warming. This warming then reduces the meridional tem-69 perature gradient and thus baroclinity, reducing the northward heat transport by atmo-70 spheric eddies. 71

72 This canonical perspective does not take into account significant longitudinal variations in the Earth's geography and climate mean state. In particular, OHT from the 73 sub-Arctic to the Arctic Ocean takes place primarily through two main gateways: flow 74 across the Greenland-Scotland Ridge connects the Arctic Ocean to the subpolar North 75 Atlantic Ocean, while flow through the Bering Strait connects the Arctic to the subpo-76 lar North Pacific. OHT through the Atlantic sector is an order of magnitude larger than 77 that through the Bering Strait, both in mean value and in amplitude of variability. Con-78 sequently, most studies on the connection between decadal Arctic variability and Bjerk-79 nes Compensation have focused mainly on Atlantic OHT variability. An exception is the 80 study by Li et al. (2018), who analyzed three Earth system models (ESM) and demon-81 strated that OHT through both gateways has an important impact on Arctic climate. 82 In fact, they argue that OHT through Bering Strait is more efficient in causing low-frequency 83 variability of Arctic sea ice than OHT through the Atlantic sector. A strong sensitiv-84 ity of Arctic sea ice on Bering Strait throughflow has also been found in observations (Woodgate 85 et al., 2012; MacKinnon et al., 2021). 86

This raises the question: how does the atmosphere respond to OHT variability through the different gateways given the differences in sea ice sensitivity, and what are the consequences for the atmosphere's ability to compensate for this OHT variability?

This question is important for several reasons. First, observations over the past few 90 decades (Woodgate, 2018; Tsubouchi et al., 2021) as well as model projections of future 91 climate change (Shu et al., 2022) show a robust increase of northward OHT going into 92 the Arctic from both the subpolar North Atlantic and North Pacific Oceans. The extent 93 to which AHT will compensate these changes is therefore of primary concern for con-94 straining uncertainty in Arctic climate change. Second, the current generation of climate 95 models typically have a spatial resolution of $\sim 1^{\circ}$ in their standard configuration ocean models. Such low resolution leaves narrow channels like the Bering Strait significantly 97 underresolved (Chang et al., in review), while poorly resolved bathymetry also appears 98 to weaken OHT across the Greenland-Scotland Ridge (Heuzé & Arthun, 2019). Conse-99 quently, OHT in standard resolution climate models may be significantly biased, and their 100 results should be treated with caution. 101

Recently, an unprecedented multi-century simulation of a high-resolution global cli-102 mate model was performed (Chang et al., 2020), which at the time of analysis was the 103 longest pre-industrial control simulation run at high resolution (see Data and Methods). 104 In this paper we use this unique data set to investigate the Arctic atmospheric response 105 to OHT variability through the primary oceanic gateways. We find that Bering Strait 106 OHT plays an outsized role in driving Arctic climate variability. By decomposing the 107 meridional energy balance, we show that while the AHT partially compensates for anoma-108 lies in the zonally-integrated OHT, lateral atmospheric energy fluxes do not compensate 109 for anomalies in OHT through Bering Strait. 110

Data and Methods

We use a portion of the 500-year pre-industrial (PI) control simulation of CESM1.3 (Community Earth System Model version 1.3), configured with nominal horizonal res-



Figure 1. (a) Annual-mean climatology of Arctic sea ice concentration in the PI control simulation analyzed in this study. The dotted grey lines show 65°N and the boundary between the Pacific and Atlantic sectors defined in this paper. The white lines indicate the logical latitudes used for integration. (b) Observed 1982-2022 climatology of annual-mean Arctic sea ice concentration (NOAA OISST v2).

olutions of 0.25° in the atmosphere and land models and 0.1° in the ocean and sea-ice models (Chang et al., 2020). The PI control was forced with greenhouse gas conditions kept
constant at the 1850 levels throughout the simulation. We exclude the first 150 years from
our analysis due to model drift, so all time series are 350 years long (see Chang et al.,
2020, for context). The sea ice climatology of the PI control simulation is shown in Figure 1a and shows good agreement with the observed climatology during the satellite era
(Fig. 1b).

We estimate meridional OHT and AHT at 65°N from monthly-averaged fields. We choose 65°N as the boundary of the Arctic, however our results are not sensitive to the choice of latitude. The OHT time series is calculated by integrating the product of meridional velocity (v) and potential temperature (Θ) :

$$OHT = \int_{\varphi_E}^{\varphi_W} \int_{-H}^{0} c_p v \Theta \cos \theta \, \mathrm{d}z \, R_e \mathrm{d}\varphi \tag{1}$$

where we use θ and φ to denote latitude and longitude, respectively. φ_E and φ_W denote 121 the eastern and western boundaries of the basin and H, c_p , z, and R_e denote basin depth, 122 heat capacity of seawater at constant pressure, vertical depth, and the radius of the Earth, 123 respectively. This reconstruction, which ignores contributions by sub-monthly covariance 124 between velocity and temperature, is necessary because the model's online diagnostic OHT 125 output was corrupted for the first 277 years and thus would have significantly shortened 126 the available timespan for our analysis. For ease of computation, we also choose to ap-127 proximate OHT across 65°N by heat transport across a *logical* latitude line of the model's 128 tripolar grid that tracks 65°N reasonably well. A comparison between our OHT time se-129 ries, the OHT time series from the model's online diagnostic output across the same log-130 ical latitude line (after the period of data corruption), and an estimate of the OHT across 131

the actual 65°N latitude line, shows that our OHT time series is an accurate representation of OHT across 65°N in the Atlantic (Supplementary Information).

The AHT time series is estimated by assuming a negligible atmospheric heat capacity and cumulatively integrating the energy flux divergence (e.g., Shaffrey & Sutton, 2006; Swaluw et al., 2007; Outten et al., 2018). We define AHT at the north pole ($\theta = \pi/2$) to be zero and integrate the zonally-integrated flux divergence southward to find the AHT at each latitude θ :

$$AHT = \int_{\theta}^{\pi/2} \int_{0}^{2\pi} (F_{\rm sfc} - F_{\rm TOA}) R_e^2 \cos \theta' \, \mathrm{d}\varphi \, \mathrm{d}\theta' \tag{2}$$

where F_{TOA} and F_{sfc} are the net downward heat flux at the top-of-atmosphere and surface, respectively. By this formulation, northward AHT is positive.

Since we are concerned with variability on decadal timescales, all monthly time series are annually-averaged, detrended, and then smoothed using a 10-year moving average. Moreover, to account for inflated Pearson's r when regressing smoothed time series, we calculate an effective number of degrees of freedom for significance tests. We follow the formulation given in Jungclaus and Koenigk (2010) to estimate the effective number of samples:

$$n_{\rm eff} = \frac{n}{1 + 2(\sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i r'_i)} \tag{3}$$

where *n* is the original length of the time series and r_i, r'_i are the autocorrelations of the two time series at lag *i*. For smoothed time series originally with 341 samples, n_{eff} is on the order of 30-50.

139 **3 Results**

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3.1 Arctic response to Pacific and Atlantic OHT

The OHT through the Atlantic and Bering Strait (the blue and red lines in Fig-141 ure 2, respectively) both display decadal to multidecadal variability. OHT anomalies are 142 positively correlated with Arctic-average surface air temperature anomalies and nega-143 tively correlated with sea ice area anomalies (Figure 2a,b). Strikingly, Bering Strait OHT 144 (mean = 8.6 TW, standard deviation = 1.4 TW) has a stronger correlation with both 145 surface temperature and sea ice than Atlantic OHT (mean = 342 TW, standard devi-146 ation = 10.5 TW), even though it is considerably smaller in magnitude. It is not pos-147 sible to conclude from correlation alone whether 1) OHT variability is driving these changes 148 in temperature and sea ice, 2) OHT variability is driven by surface temperature changes, 149 or 3) OHT, temperature, and sea ice covary due to another driving mode of variability. 150 In later sections, however, we present evidence indicating that OHT plays the driving 151 role in modulating sea ice and air-sea heat flux, thus communicating ocean heat anoma-152 lies to the atmosphere. 153

At 65°N, anomalies in AHT and Atlantic OHT compensate each other on decadal 154 timescales, with an anticorrelation of r = -0.61 (Figure 2c). The compensation is in-155 consistent over time, with some periods displaying almost perfect compensation, while 156 others show undercompensation (where the magnitude of the AHT anomaly is less than 157 the magnitude of the OHT anomaly) or overcompensation (where the magnitude of the 158 AHT anomaly exceeds the magnitude of the OHT anomaly). Moreover, Bering Strait 159 OHT is not correlated with the AHT. In general, the total OHT (not shown here) and 160 AHT anomalies are opposite in sign, indicative of Bjerknes compensation on a decadal 161 timescale. 162



Figure 2. (a): Area-averaged surface air temperature anomaly over the Arctic domain (black) plotted with standardized Bering Strait (red) and Atlantic (blue, dotted) OHT anomalies. (b): same as (a), but sea ice area anomaly (black) is shown instead of temperature. (c): same as (a), but AHT anomaly (black) is shown instead of temperature. The time series are not standardized to emphasize their magnitudes. Note that in (c) the vertical scale for Bering Strait OHT has been magnified by a factor of 10 for better visibility. Pearson's r correlation coefficients are given in the top right.



Figure 3. (a): regression of 10-year moving mean sea ice concentration anomalies onto the standardized Bering Strait OHT anomalies at 65° N. Stippling indicates statistical insignificance with respect to a p = 0.05 threshold. (b): as in (a), but regressed onto Atlantic OHT. (c): as in (a), but turbulent heat fluxes (defined as sensible plus latent surface heat flux with positive going from ocean to atmosphere). (d): as in (c), but regressed onto Atlantic OHT. (e): as in (a), but surface air temperature. (f): as in (e), but regressed onto Atlantic OHT.

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3.2 Bering Strait OHT Drives Variability in the Pacific Sector

To better understand the atmosphere-ocean interaction that mediates these distinct OHT-AHT relationships, we regress the sea ice anomaly, surface turbulent heat flux (defined as the sum of latent and sensible heat fluxes) anomaly, and surface air temperature anomaly onto the standardized OHT anomaly across 65°N.

Figure 3 shows the linear regressions of anomalous sea ice concentration, turbu-168 lent heat flux, and surface temperature onto the OHT anomaly through Bering Strait 169 and the Atlantic separately. During periods of anomalously high OHT, ice is lost in the 170 marginal ice zone and anomalous heat flux is transferred from the newly exposed ocean 171 to the atmosphere. The greatest changes associated with Atlantic OHT variability oc-172 cur along the East Greenland Current while the greatest changes associated with Bering 173 Strait OHT variability occur in the Chukchi Sea. The greatest changes in surface heat 174 flux are found at the marginal ice zone, similar to what was found in Outten and Esau 175 (2017), Jungclaus and Koenigk (2010), and Kurtakoti et al. (2023). Regression of anoma-176

lous sea surface temperatures (SST) onto OHT reveals a spatial pattern similar to the
heat flux regression (Figure S1). This positive correlation between SST and heat flux
indicates that anomalous turbulent heat fluxes are primarily driven by changes in SST,
rather than the other way around.

Even though Bering Strait OHT is much smaller compared to Atlantic OHT at 65°N, it has an outsized impact on the local sea ice and heat flux variability. Heat fluxes associated with anomalous OHT in the Pacific sector are comparable in magnitude to those in the Atlantic sector. Furthermore, loss of sea ice in the Pacific sector during periods of high Bering Strait OHT generates a substantial heat dome centered on the same area (Fig. 3e). Thus, we emphasize that the local influence of Bering Strait OHT on the atmosphere cannot be neglected.

3.3 Lateral flux decomposition

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Next, we compare the effects of Atlantic versus Bering Strait OHT variability on the Arctic atmosphere by decomposing the lateral heat balance. Because the AHT is computed by assuming negligible atmospheric heat storage over decadal timescales, the fluxes may be summed and area-integrated over the Arctic domain to recover the AHT like so:

$$AHT(\theta) = \int_{\theta}^{\pi/2} \int_{0}^{2\pi} (LW_{sfc} + SW_{sfc} + LHF + SHF) - (LW_{TOA} + SW_{TOA}) dA$$

where LHF and SHF refer to surface latent heat flux and sensible heat flux, and LW and SW refer to longwave and shortwave radiation respectively. All flux terms above are positive downward to keep consistency with sign conventions in Equation 2. By linearity of integration, we integrate each term separately and refer to each component as an area-integrated flux, denoted as [F]:

 $AHT(\theta) = ([LW_{sfc}] + [SW_{sfc}] + [LHF] + [SHF]) - ([LW_{TOA}] + [SW_{TOA}])$

We linearly regress each timeseries [F] onto Bering Strait OHT and Atlantic OHT; the linear slopes, with units [TW flux per standard deviation OHT] are shown in Figure 4. A positive slope indicates that positive (resp. negative) OHT anomalies are associated with anomalous flux out of (resp. into) the atmospheric sector through either the surface or TOA, and vice versa for negative slopes.

This decomposition reveals distinct atmospheric responses to OHT through the At-194 lantic and Bering Strait gateways. Similar to what is found in Figure 2c, there is a stronger 195 compensating AHT anomaly in response to an anomaly in Atlantic OHT than Bering 196 Strait OHT. For both Atlantic and Bering Strait OHT, turbulent heat fluxes are anti-197 correlated with OHT, consistent with Figure 3c,d. A crucial difference in the atmospheric 198 response can be seen in the TOA longwave radiation. While there is essentially no sig-199 nal in the Atlantic sector, the Pacific sector experiences strong changes in TOA long-200 wave radiation covarying with anomalous OHT. This longwave flux at the TOA com-201 pensates the anomalous turbulent heat fluxes driven by Bering Strait OHT variability. 202 Therefore, the primary mechanism for compensation of OHT anomalies in the Pacific 203 sector is through direct adjustment of the TOA energy balance rather than through changes 204 in AHT. 205

Furthermore, consistent with the fact that Bering Strait OHT is closely coupled with sea ice in the Pacific sector (Fig. 3a), it is also positively correlated with downwelling shortwave at both the surface and TOA (yellow and orange bars in Fig. 4). This response magnifies the initial ocean-driven heat anomaly via changes in the summertime absorption of shortwave radiation by the ocean.

It remains unclear why atmospheric heat transport does not adjust to compensate significant changes in air-sea heat fluxes in the Pacific sector. Following the mechanism



Figure 4. Linear regression slopes of area-integrated flux anomalies onto standardized ocean heat transport. Dashed bars are fluxes regressed onto Atlantic OHT, while solid bars are fluxes regressed onto Bering Strait OHT.

proposed by Swaluw et al. (2007), one would expect air temperature variability over the 213 Pacific sector to affect the local baroclinicity and thereby change the energy transported 214 by atmospheric eddies. One possible reason that this does not translate into compen-215 sating AHT is that the mean position of the North Pacific storm track may not extend 216 far enough north for atmospheric eddy heat transport to adjust to changes in baroclin-217 icity centered over the Pacific Arctic. A recent study (Wang et al., 2023) evaluated the 218 Northern Hemisphere storm track in the same simulation used by this study. The mean 219 position of the wintertime storm track (shown in their Figure S1d) indeed extends fur-220 ther north over the Atlantic sector than the Pacific. Therefore, atmospheric eddies may 221 be more efficient at compensating changes in the air-sea heat flux over the Atlantic sec-222 tor than the Pacific. However, the precise mechanisms that preclude AHT compensa-223 tion in the Pacific sector are left for future study. 224

4 Summary and Conclusions

We have shown that decadal variability in Arctic surface air temperature is largely driven by variability of OHT through the Bering Strait in a high-resolution coupled climate simulation. By decomposing the atmospheric response into sector-integrated flux anomalies, we find that Bering Strait OHT anomalies are not damped by Bjerknes Compensation and instead change the TOA longwave energy balance. Thus, Bering Strait OHT, despite its low magnitude compared to Atlantic OHT, has an outsized impact on driving the overall decadal variability in the Arctic.

The main implication of this work is that increases in Bering Strait OHT may be 233 an important driver of future Arctic climate change and, in particular, Arctic Amplifi-234 cation. Our results suggest that even if the total zonally-integrated OHT into the Arc-235 tic is compensated by opposing zonally-integrated AHT anomalies—that is, Bjerknes Com-236 pensation holds—the comparatively small Bering Strait OHT may still exert significant 237 influence on Arctic climate despite not projecting onto the Bjerknes Compensation sig-238 nal. In the PI control simulation analyzed here, this is manifested in the decadal vari-230 ability of sea ice and air temperatures in the Pacific sector. 240

Our results are consistent with Li et al. (2018), who found that simulated multi-241 decadal variability of September Arctic sea ice extent was impacted to similar degree by 242 both Atlantic OHT and Bering Strait OHT, despite the standard deviation of Bering Strait 243 OHT being an order of magnitude smaller. Furthermore, there is observational evidence that accelerated sea ice loss in the Chukchi Sea is indeed linked to additional northward 245 heat inflow through Bering Strait. Woodgate et al. (2010) found that record high Bering 246 Strait OHT in 2007 contributed to anomalous sea ice loss by triggering earlier onset of 247 seasonal sea ice melt and by providing additional subsurface heat during winter months. 248 Furthermore, in-situ mooring data has revealed an increase in Bering Strait OHT over 249 the past three decades (though data between 1991 to 1999 is missing; Woodgate, 2018). 250 This increase has been attributed, about equally, both to increases in ocean tempera-251 tures and northward transport (Woodgate et al., 2012). 252

We will conclude by noting a few caveats of our work and by proposing some next 253 steps. The robustness of these results depends both on the simulated sea ice climatol-254 ogy and the representation of OHT through the Atlantic and Bering Strait gateways. There-255 fore, a natural extension of this work is to analyze the relationship between Bering Strait OHT and the Arctic heat budget in other models of both comparable complexity (i.e., 257 high-resolution Earth system models) and lower complexity (e.g., lower resolution mod-258 els or idealized configurations). Another extension of this work would to consider the mech-259 anisms from a seasonal perspective. Effects of ocean heat transport on sea ice and the 260 overlying atmosphere tend to be amplified in winter, when the ocean is the primary source 261 of heat for the atmosphere while shortwave feedbacks are more prominent in summer (Previdi 262 et al., 2021; Taylor et al., 2022). Finally, to what extent the current analysis of inter-263 nal climate variability provides lessons for the future of the Arctic also remains to be explored. Chang et al. (in review) demonstrate how improved representation of Bering Strait 265 heat transport in this high-resolution configuration of CESM1.3 increases Arctic warm-266 ing under a scenario of future anthropogenic forcing compared to a low-resolution con-267 figuration of the same model, suggesting that our results have immediate relevance for 268 a future that most likely will feature enhanced OHT through Bering Strait. 269

²⁷⁰ 5 Open Research

The code used to produce the figures in this study is available upon request to the authors. The model output from the iHESP project is publicly available through the iH-ESP data archive: https://ihesp.github.io/archive/products/ds_archive/Sunway _Runs.html. The CESM1.3-HR simulation is documented in Chang et al. (2020). The NOAA OISST sea ice product is available at https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/products/ optimum-interpolation-sst.

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Supporting Information for "Bering Strait Ocean Heat Transport Drives Decadal Arctic Variability in a High-Resolution Climate Model"

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1. Figure S1

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Figure S1. Sea surface temperature anomaly regressed onto standardized Bering Strait (Left) and Atlantic (Right) OHT anomaly. Regressions are between timeseries smoothed with a 10year moving mean to emphasize decadal timescale relationships. Stippling indicates statistical insignificance above the p = 0.05 threshold. The pseudo-zonal dashed lines indicate the oceanic gateways for which OHT is calculated

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