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2 **Modulation of western South Atlantic marine heatwaves by meridional ocean heat**  
3 **transport**

4  
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12 **Key Points:**

- 13 • Marine heat waves and Cold spells associated to westward propagating sea level anomaly  
14 features.
- 15 • Horizontal advection important for the mixed layer heat budget in the western South Atlantic.
- 16 • AMOC leads the beginning of propagating mode in the east by 3-9 months.

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18

## 19 **Abstract**

20 Marine heatwaves and cold spells are extreme surface temperature events that have been  
21 associated with adverse societal and ecosystem impacts in several regions around the globe.  
22 Predicting these events presents a challenge because of their generally short-lived nature and  
23 dependence on air-sea interactions, both locally and remotely. Here we analyze oceanic  
24 propagating features that promote the occurrence of marine heatwaves and cold spells in the  
25 western subtropical South Atlantic. The main interannual feature detected from satellite sea level  
26 data since 1993 shows a westward propagating zonal pattern with a periodicity of 3-5 years. The  
27 pattern has a significant in-phase correlation with sea surface temperature (SST) anomalies in the  
28 western South Atlantic, explaining 77% of the daily extreme warm (90%) and cold (10%) SST  
29 anomalies and consequently modulating interannual variations in the intensity and duration of  
30 marine heatwave and cold spell events. It is found that meridional oceanic advection plays an  
31 important role in the regional heat budget associated with the westward-propagating mode,  
32 modulating the meridional exchange of tropical (warm) and extratropical (cold) waters in the  
33 western subtropical South Atlantic region and thereby setting a baseline for temperature  
34 extremes on interannual timescales. This propagating mode is well correlated ( $r > 0.6$ ) with the  
35 strength of the meridional overturning circulation at 25°S and 30°S with a lag of approximately 5  
36 to 9 months. The lagged response provides a potential for predictability of extreme events in the  
37 western South Atlantic.

## 38 **Plain Language Summary**

39 Here we show that ocean dynamics can affect Marine Heat Waves (MHWs) and Cold Spells  
40 (CSs) in the western subtropical South Atlantic. We focused our analysis on the sea level  
41 anomaly features that propagate westward, crossing the basin in 3-5 years near 30S. As they  
42 propagate, the sea level anomalies drive clockwise (for negative anomalies) or anticlockwise (for  
43 positive anomalies) ocean circulation around them. The circulation transports either tropical or  
44 subpolar waters into the subtropical region, warming and cooling the subtropical region,  
45 respectively, and influencing MHWs and CSs. Since the anomalies influence meridional ocean  
46 transport, we analyzed their link to the basin integrated meridional heat transport associated with  
47 the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation. We show that there is a good correlation  
48 between the phase of the sea level and circulation anomaly propagation (either centered in the  
49 eastern, western or interior of the basin) and the meridional heat transport. Therefore, the AMOC  
50 index can serve as an early warning for a multi-year prediction of MHWs and CSs in the  
51 subtropical western South Atlantic.

## 52 **1 Introduction**

53 Marine heatwaves (MHW) and cold spells (CS) are sustained extreme warm and cold sea  
54 surface temperature (SST) anomalies, respectively. In particular, MHWs have received  
55 considerable attention in recent years because their persistence and intensity can have drastic  
56 impacts on marine ecosystems, such as coral bleaching (Couch et al., 2017; Dalton et al., 2020;  
57 Le Nohaïc et al., 2017), reduced primary productivity (Sen Gupta et al., 2020), pelagic species  
58 mortality (Smale et al., 2019), and closing of commercial and recreational fisheries (Cavole et  
59 al., 2016; Stuart-Smith et al., 2018). The compound effect of MHWs with other stressors such as  
60 ocean acidification, tropical cyclones, algae blooms, and marine pollution, can have long-term  
61 impacts on the marine ecosystems. In addition to these stressors, global warming affects the  
62 baseline of transient anomalies (Hobday et al., 2018) and, therefore, may increase the duration,

63 frequency and intensity of MHWs in most regions of the globe (Frölicher & Laufkötter, 2018;  
64 Oliver et al., 2018; Costa and Rodrigues, 2021).

65 One of the most resilient MHW events was registered in the Northeast Pacific region  
66 during 2013-2016. This event, commonly known as the “Blob”, has been linked to large scale  
67 atmospheric and oceanic patterns such as a reduction in wind-driven upper-ocean mixing and a  
68 shallow mixed layer depth (Amaya et al. 2020; Di Lorenzo and Mantua 2016; Joh and Di  
69 Lorenzo 2017). Other recent studies have shown the importance of the ocean state for similar  
70 types of extreme temperature anomalies in different basins. For instance, the occurrence, location  
71 and intensity of MHWs in the Tasman Sea have been linked to upper 2000 m warm ocean heat  
72 content anomalies on interannual to decadal timescales (Behrens et al. 2019), and the likelihood  
73 of MHWs near the East Australian Current has been shown to be modulated by westward  
74 propagation of Rossby waves (Li et al., 2022).

75 In the western South Atlantic, Rodrigues et al. (2019) linked the occurrence of MHWs to  
76 blocking atmospheric events associated with atmospheric Rossby wave trains propagating from  
77 the South Pacific Ocean. These blocking events are characterized by increased atmospheric sea  
78 level pressure, suppressed formation of clouds and increased solar radiation into the ocean. For  
79 some MHW events, this mechanism can be the trigger. However, the large-scale ocean  
80 circulation may precondition or interact with these events and, thus, modulate their occurrence  
81 on interannual timescales. For example, Goes et al. (2019) showed that the South Atlantic MHW  
82 during the austral summer of 2009/2010 propagated zonally from the center of the basin to the  
83 east coast of South America near 22°S. Upon reaching the western boundary, this MHW  
84 propagated southwards along the Brazil Current and dissipated two months later near 30°S. The  
85 mechanisms by which large-scale ocean processes may influence MHW events in the South  
86 Atlantic are mostly unknown. In other locations, such as the North Atlantic, the tripole pattern,  
87 which is the first mode of interannual variability of SST and sea level anomaly (SLA), has been  
88 linked to convergences and divergences of the integrated meridional heat transport, which  
89 impacts the large scale upper ocean heat content and coastal sea level in neighboring areas (e.g.,  
90 Roberts et al., 2016; Volkov et al., 2019a,b).

91 In the South Atlantic, evidence has been found that the large scale SST pattern can serve  
92 as a fingerprint for South Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) variability  
93 (Dima and Lohman, 2010; Lopez et al., 2016), which may change the baseline for the occurrence  
94 of MHW and CS events in the region. This paper analyzes the effect of basin-scale propagating  
95 ocean anomalies on the occurrence of MHW and CS in the western South Atlantic. Known  
96 methodologies (Section 2.2) are used to detect the propagating modes and the extreme  
97 temperature events. A mixed layer heat budget analysis is presented to investigate the role of  
98 ocean advection and heat fluxes in the western South Atlantic. Finally, a reconstruction of the  
99 AMOC in the South Atlantic will be used to infer the role of large-scale volume and heat  
100 transport in triggering these anomalies. The potential to predict these events is also discussed.

## 101 **2 Data and Methods**

### 102 **2.1 Data**

103 Five main data sets are used in this work, consisting of SST and sea level height from remote  
104 sensing, reanalyses for the ocean (ORAS5) and air-sea interface (ERA5), and an AMOC  
105 reconstruction from satellite altimetry and in-situ temperature.

106 The analysis of SST data is performed using the NOAA Optimum Interpolation Sea Surface  
 107 Temperature data set (OISSTv.2; Reynolds et al. 2007), a blended global gridded product  
 108 available daily at a  $1/4^\circ$  horizontal resolution since January 1982. Daily resolution is used to  
 109 identify metrics of MHW and CS, and monthly resolution is used in basin-scale correlation  
 110 maps. For the purpose of this work, the SST data are spatially regridded using a bilinear  
 111 interpolation to a  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  horizontal resolution from 1993 to 2020.

112 The sea level analysis is performed using the monthly maps of sea level anomaly (SLA) from  
 113 1993 to 2020 processed and distributed by the Copernicus Marine Environment Monitoring  
 114 Service (CMEMS). The SLA maps are produced on a  $1/4^\circ$  grid (Taburet et al., 2019) by merging  
 115 data from all altimetry satellites available at a given time (Pujol et al. 2016). The SLA data at  
 116 each grid point is computed with respect to a twenty-year (1993-2012) mean. The seasonal cycle  
 117 is removed by subtracting the climatological monthly means computed for the whole analyzed  
 118 period.

119 Surface atmospheric variables used in this study come from the European Centre for Medium-  
 120 Range Weather Forecasts' (ECMWF) ERA5 Reanalysis (Hersbach et al., 2020). We use monthly  
 121 fields of zonal and meridional wind, sea level pressure (SLP), and surface heat fluxes  
 122 (shortwave, longwave, latent and sensible) from 1993 to 2020.

123 The monthly AMOC strength timeseries at four different latitudes in the South Atlantic ( $35^\circ\text{S}$ ,  
 124  $30^\circ\text{S}$ ,  $25^\circ\text{S}$ , and  $20^\circ\text{S}$ ) for the period 1993-2021 were produced using synthetic temperature  
 125 profiles based on statistical relationships between SLA and the depths of isotherms (Dong et al.,  
 126 2015, 2021), salinity profiles from historical T/S relationships (Goes et al., 2018), and monthly  
 127 surface wind stress data from ERA5. The methodology has been validated against the AMOC  
 128 and meridional heat transport estimates based on cross-basin expendable bathythermograph  
 129 (XBT) high-density transect data near  $35^\circ\text{S}$  (Dong et al., 2015).

130 We examine vertical temperature anomalies and calculate the heat budget in the western South  
 131 Atlantic using the ORAS5 reanalysis (Zuo et al., 2018), which is based on an ensemble of global  
 132 eddy-permitting ( $0.25^\circ$ ) ocean model runs, forced with air-sea fluxes from ERA5 since 1979.

133 The monthly output of ORAS5 is interpolated to a  $1 \times 1^\circ$  horizontal grid and 75 vertical levels.

134 For this work, we use the following ORAS5 fields: temperature ( $T$ ), horizontal velocity ( $\mathbf{v}$ ),  
 135 mixed layer depth ( $h$ ), wind stress ( $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ ) and net surface heat flux ( $Q_{net}$ ) from 1993 to 2021.

136

## 137 **2.2 Methods**

### 138 **2.2.1 Complex EOF**

139 To define the interannual propagating patterns of SLA in the South Atlantic, first the monthly de-  
 140 seasoned SLA fields are filtered using a bandpass wavelet filter of 0.8 to 16 years. Then we  
 141 perform a Complex Empirical Orthogonal function (CEOF) analysis (e.g., Navarra and  
 142 Simoncini, 2010; O'Kane et al., 2014) to extract the main propagating patterns of variability  
 143 between  $15^\circ\text{S}$  and  $40^\circ\text{S}$ . The CEOF uses a principal component analysis on a Hilbert transform  
 144 of a field. Therefore, it produces real and imaginary parts of loadings (maps), here defined as  
 145  $\mathbf{CEO}F_j(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  for a particular mode  $\mathbf{j}$ , and their associated expansion coefficients or principal  
 146 components ( $\mathbf{PC}_j(t)$ ). The CEOFs and PCs are used to compute spatial and temporal amplitudes  
 147 and phases, which are necessary to describe a propagating wave pattern (Majumder et al., 2019).  
 148 The SLA, associated with a particular mode of the variability  $\mathbf{j}$  ( $\text{SLA}_j$ ), can be reconstructed as  
 149 the product of its loadings and its associated expansion coefficients:

150

$$SLA_j(x, y, t) = PC_j(t) \times CEOF_j(x, y). \quad (1)$$

152

153 The time evolution of the mode  $j$  can be examined by rotating in phase the CEOF and the PC by  
 154 an angle  $\theta$  using a rotation matrix  $R_{2 \times 2}(\theta)$ , which produces the same reconstruction:

155

$$SLA_j(x, y, t) = R(\theta).PC_j(t) \times R(\theta).CEOF_j(x, y) \quad (2)$$

157

158 Cross-correlations and composites of SST, SLP and 10-m wind anomalies are obtained for the  
 159 rotated phases of the CEOF modes. To remove sub-annual timescales, the monthly anomalies are  
 160 detrended and low-pass filtered using either a 13-month or 19-month Gaussian filter as specified.  
 161

161

### 162 **2.2.2 Marine Heatwaves and Cold Spells**

163 Extreme SST anomaly (SSTA) events are defined as SSTA above the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile for MHW  
 164 and below the 10<sup>th</sup> percentile for CS. The MHW and CS characterization follows the method  
 165 described in Hobday et al. (2016), using detrended daily values of SSTA at a 1° x 1° degree  
 166 horizontal resolution. The K-means cluster analysis (Arthur and Vassilvitskii, 2007), which is a  
 167 method that minimizes the Euclidean distance between groups of observations, is used to  
 168 determine the large-scale patterns associated with the SSTA during the MHW or CS event,  
 169 therefore categorizing the extreme SSTA in spatial and temporal domains. In the analysis, we  
 170 defined 5 clusters using the duration, maximum intensity, mean intensity and location as input  
 171 parameters of MHW/CS.  
 172

172

### 173 **2.2.3 Mixed Layer Heat budget**

174 To examine the roles of atmospheric and oceanic contributions to the mixed layer temperature  
 175 changes, we use a simplified temperature tendency equation:  
 176

176

$$\underbrace{\frac{\partial T}{\partial t}}_{(a)} = \underbrace{\frac{(Q_{net} - Q_{pen})}{\rho_0 c_p h}}_{(b)} - \underbrace{\mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla_H T}_{(c)} - \underbrace{w \frac{\Delta T}{h}}_{(d)} + \underbrace{R}_{(e)} \quad (3),$$

178

179 which states that the mixed layer temperature tendency (a) is driven by contributions from the  
 180 net surface heat flux (b), horizontal advection (c), and vertical entrainment (d). The residual  $R$  (e)  
 181 represents unresolved processes such as horizontal and vertical mixing, eddy covariances, and  
 182 the accumulation of errors from the terms (a)-(d) (Vialard et al. 2001). The mixed layer depth ( $h$ )  
 183 is calculated using the criterion of an increase in potential density of 0.03 kg.m<sup>-3</sup> from the  
 184 surface. Mixed layer depth typically varies from 15 m to 180 m in the western South Atlantic.  
 185 Temperature ( $T$ ) and horizontal velocity ( $\mathbf{v}$ ) are averaged over the mixed layer. In (b),  $Q_{net}$  is  
 186 reduced by the amount of shortwave radiation that penetrates through the base of the mixed layer  
 187 ( $Q_{pen}$ ), estimated from an exponential function of surface ocean color (Morel and Antonine 1994;  
 188 Sweeney et al., 2005). Shortwave radiation from ERA5 is used in the  $Q_{pen}$  calculation, since  
 189 ORAS5 does not provide shortwave radiation as a standard output. In addition, ocean color is  
 190 derived from the SeaWiFS satellite climatological Chlorophyll-a concentration data, interpolated  
 191 from its original 9 km resolution to the ORAS5 output grid. In the entrainment term (d),  $\Delta T$  is the

192 difference between the mixed layer temperature and the temperature 5 m below the mixed layer  
 193 and  $w$  is the entrainment velocity at the base of the mixed layer (upward only, given by the  
 194 Heaviside function:  $H(w>0) = 1$ ;  $H(w<0) = 0$ ), estimated as:

$$195$$

$$196 \quad w = H(w_h + \frac{\partial h}{\partial t} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla h), \quad (4)$$

197 which consists of a mass flux that crosses an isopycnal surface (Stevenson and Niiler, 1983),  
 198 assuming that the Ekman pumping is the vertical advection contribution ( $w_h = \nabla \cdot \left( \frac{\tau}{\rho_0 f} \right)$ ),  $\partial h / \partial t$   
 199 is the tendency of the mixed layer, and  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla h$  is the horizontal induction across the mixed layer.  
 200 The constants used are the density of seawater ( $\rho_0 = 1,025 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ ) and the specific heat of  
 201 seawater ( $C_p = 4000 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ ).

202 The horizontal advection term (c) can be further decomposed into its mean (bar) and time-  
 203 variable (prime) constituents:

$$204$$

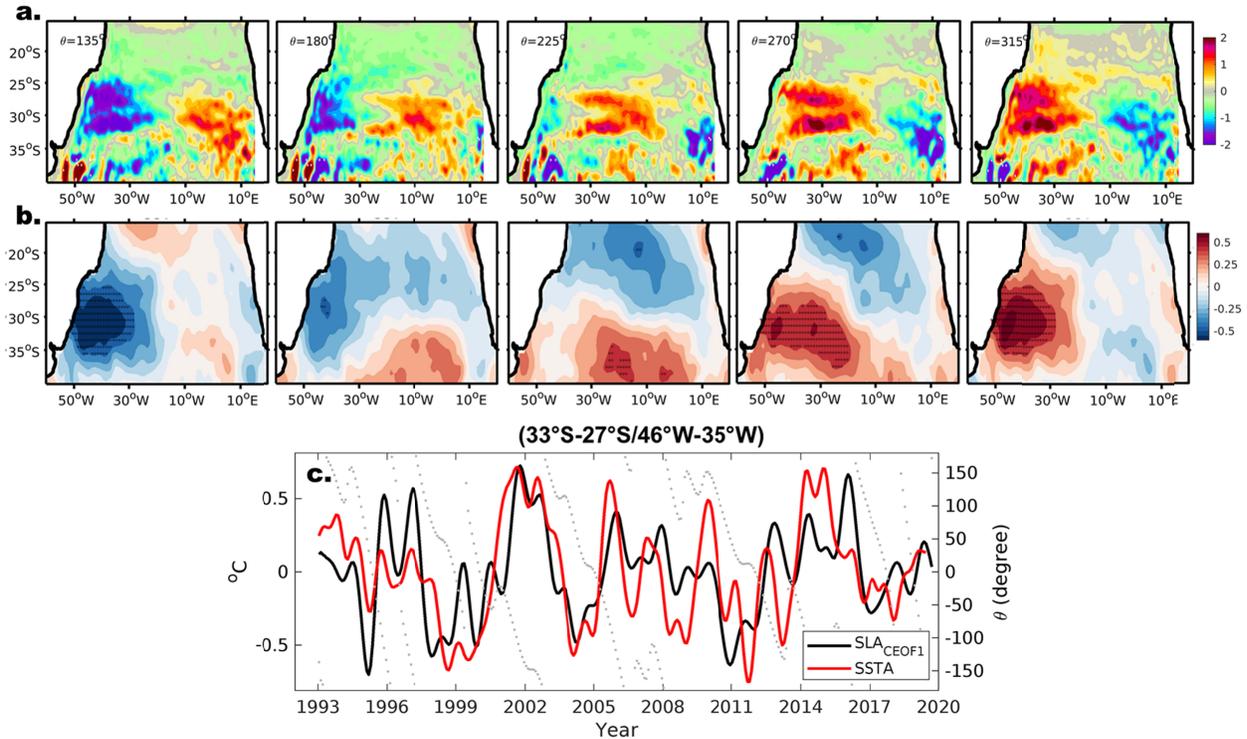
$$205 \quad uT_x + vT_y \approx \overline{u} + \overline{vT} + u'\overline{T}_x + v'\overline{T}_y + \overline{u}T_x' + \overline{v}T_y' \quad (5),$$

206 where the subscripts denote the gradient in the  $x$  and  $y$  directions, the mean variability is defined  
 207 as a 30-year mean, and the time-variable component is the residual from the mean.  
 208  
 209  
 210

## 211 **3 Results**

### 212 **3.1 The main propagating mode in the South Atlantic**

213 The main propagating mode of SLA at interannual timescales in the South Atlantic (CEOF1) is  
 214 an east-west pattern between 25°S and 35°S, with a periodicity of 3-5 years (Majumder et al.,  
 215 2019; **Figure 1c**). This mode explains ~28% of the interannual variance of SLA in the South  
 216 Atlantic. The correlation between the reconstructed SLA and the band-pass SLA reaches  $r =$   
 217 0.75, and the correlation with SSTA reaches  $r=0.7$ , averaged over 33°S-27°S and 46°W-35°W in  
 218 the western subtropical South Atlantic (**Figure 1c**). The evolution of this pattern for half-cycle  
 219 (0-180° phase) snapshots every 45° (**Figure 1a**) shows that this mode has a signature in the  
 220 South Atlantic SST field (**Figure 1b**), in that the correlation of SSTA with this mode shows an  
 221 in-phase relationship pattern, where positive (negative) SLA are associated with high (low)  
 222 SSTA. These co-located in-phase SLA and SSTA are observed mostly in the eastern and western  
 223 parts of the basin. In the center of the basin, the anomalies in sea level and SST do not overlap;  
 224 instead the SST correlation map shows a dipole pattern centered at ~30°S, which hints at an  
 225 exchange of waters from north and south of the region. This SST dipole pattern is similar to the  
 226 South Atlantic Subtropical Dipole mode (SASD), which is the leading EOF mode of interannual  
 227 SST variability in the South Atlantic, explaining about 24% of the total variance (e.g., Morioka  
 228 et al., 2011; Wainer et al., 2014). This mode has been linked to changes in the strength of the  
 229 subtropical high, which interacts with SST by changing the wind speed pattern and latent heat  
 230 flux (Sterl and Hazeleger, 2003).  
 231

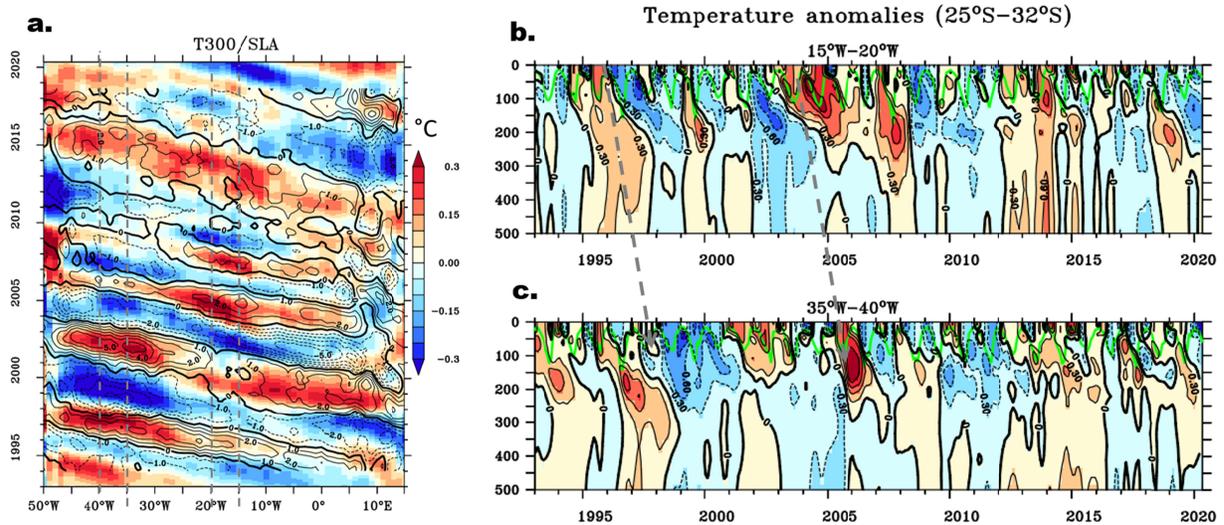


232  
 233 **Figure 1:** (a) SLA spatial phase (cm) of the first interannual CEOF mode at  $45^\circ$  phase snapshots.  
 234 (b) Correlation of SST anomalies from 1993 to 2020 with the PC1 timeseries for the respective  
 235 temporal phases shown on top. SST anomalies were previously low-passed with a 13-month  
 236 Gaussian filter. Hatched regions show the statistically significant regions according to a double  
 237 tailed Student t-test method. (c) Timeseries of SST anomalies (red) and SLA reconstructed by  
 238 the CEOF1 (black) averaged between  $33^\circ\text{S}$ - $27^\circ\text{S}/46^\circ\text{W}$ - $35^\circ\text{W}$ . Dots are the temporal phase (in  
 239 degrees) from the CEOF mode.

240  
 241

242 The vertical structure of temperature anomalies and their association with propagating SLA  
 243 events are shown in **Fig. 2**. The longitude-time diagram of the upper 300 m temperature  
 244 anomalies (T300) from ORAS5 reanalysis and SLA (**Fig. 2a**), averaged between  $32^\circ\text{S}$  and  $28^\circ\text{S}$ ,  
 245 shows that T300 propagates along with the SLA from east to west in approximately 5 years. The  
 246 vertical structure of these temperature anomalies in two different longitudinal areas,  $[15\text{-}20]^\circ\text{W}$   
 247 and  $[35\text{-}40]^\circ\text{W}$  (**Fig. 2b,c**), shows that they are generally subsurface intensified and located  
 248 mostly in the upper 200 m near the base of the mixed layer. This association suggests that SST  
 249 anomalies are linked to ocean dynamics and heat transport.

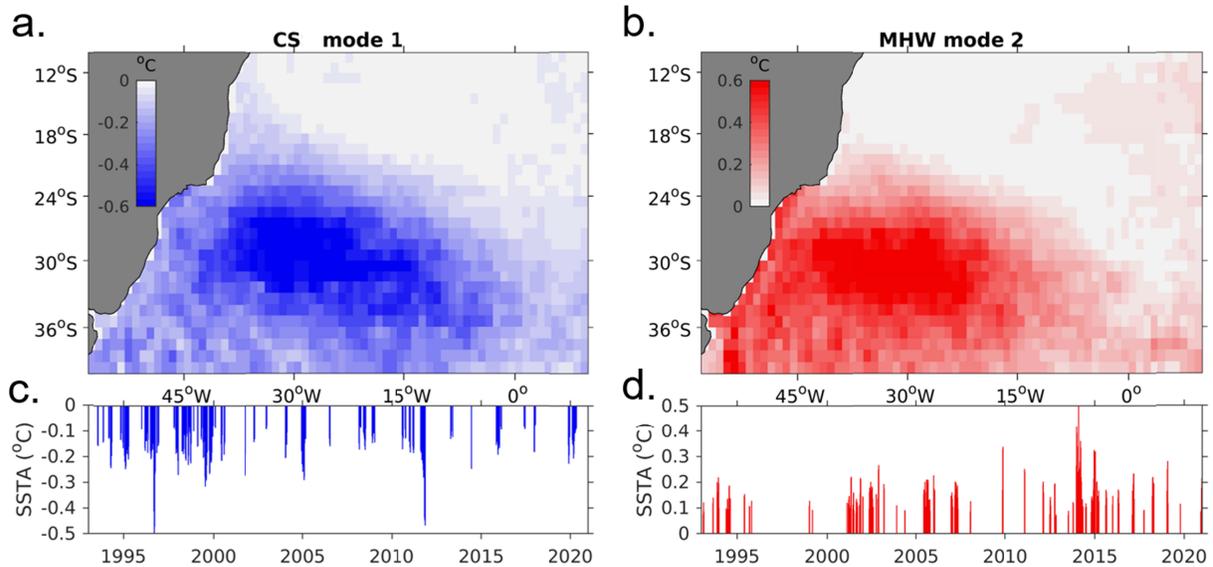
250



251  
 252 **Figure 2:** (a) Longitude-time evolution of the monthly temperature anomalies from ORAS5  
 253 reanalysis averaged between 28–32°S and over the upper 300 m (shaded) overlaid by monthly  
 254 SLA in meters (black contours). Data was detrended, the zonal means were subtracted to show  
 255 the propagating features, and a 25-month triangular filter was applied to highlight the interannual  
 256 variability. Time-depth evolution of detrended ORAS5 temperature anomalies averaged between  
 257 28–32°S and between the longitudinal ranges of (b) 15–20°W, and (c) 35–40°W.  
 258

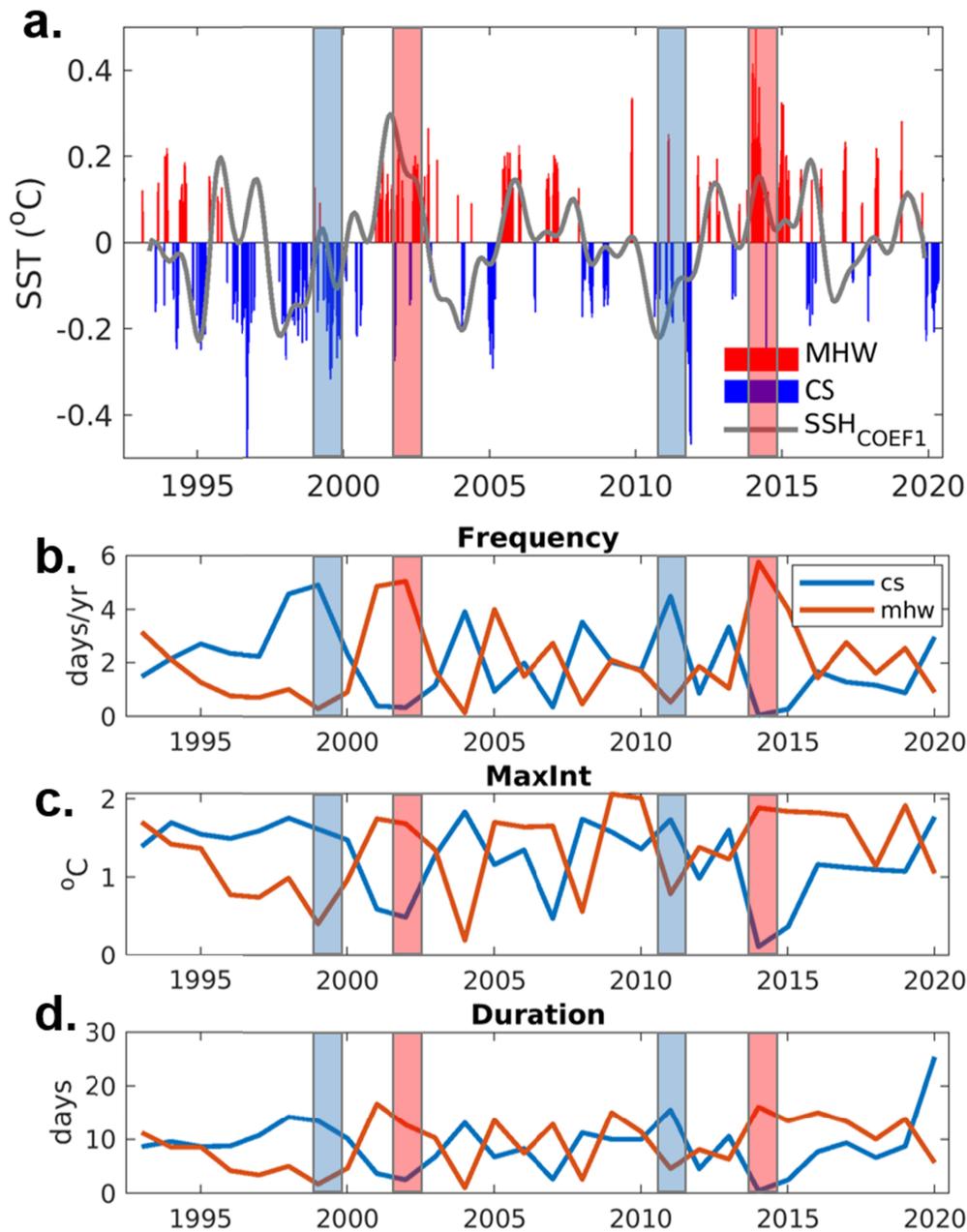
### 259 3.2 Detection of Marine Heatwaves and Cold Spells

260 Given the in-phase relationship found between the propagating SLA and SST signals in the  
 261 South Atlantic, in this section we investigate whether this mechanism can serve as a precursor  
 262 for the frequency and duration of extreme daily near-surface temperature. Applying a cluster  
 263 analysis to the extreme SST events calculated on a 1°x1° grid, we define the MHW and CS  
 264 modes in the western South Atlantic that show similar patterns: large-scale cooling (**Fig. 3a**) and  
 265 warming (**Fig. 3b**) centered near 30°S/30°W with a maximum intensity of approximately 0.6 °C.  
 266 The temporal evolution of their occurrence and intensity shows year-to-year variability with a  
 267 slight trend toward more frequent MHW events in recent years relative to CS.  
 268



**Figure 3:** Marine (a,c) cold spell and (b,d) heatwave SST anomaly modes derived from a cluster analysis. Top panels (a,b) show the spatial maps of the anomalies and bottom panels (c,d) are the respective time series calculated from the averaged patterns on panels (a,b).

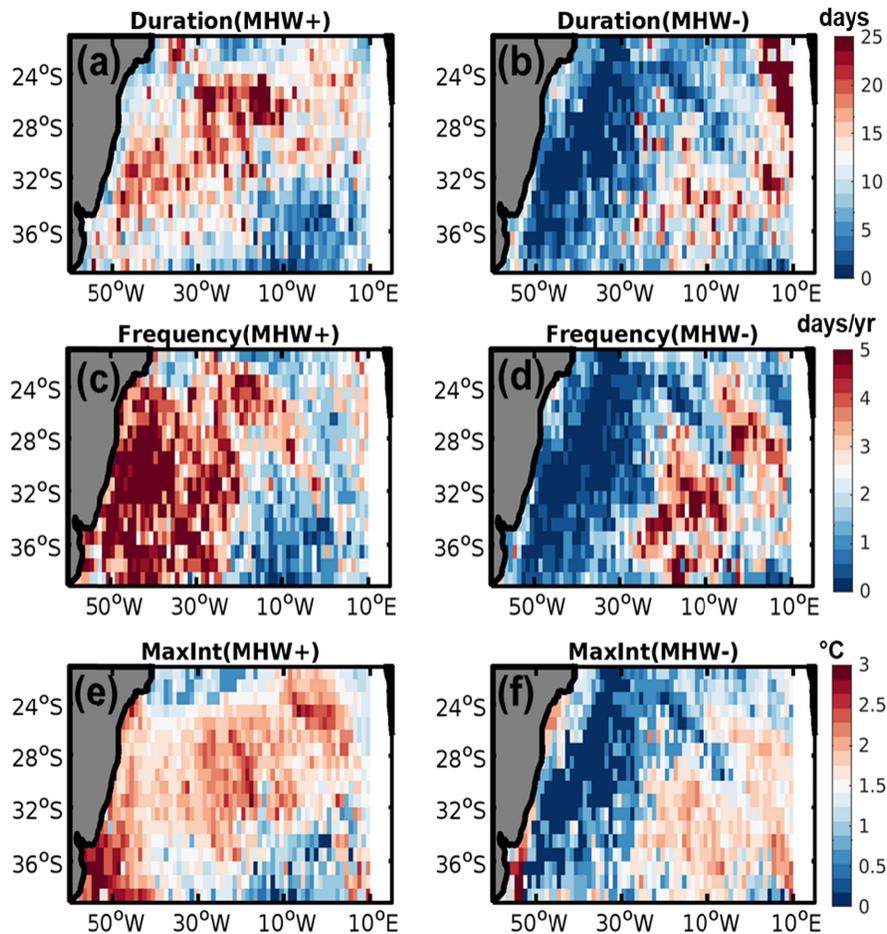
To understand the co-variability of the extreme SST events and the propagating SLA features, the joint variability of MHW and CS cluster modes of **Figure 3** is compared with the reconstructed SLA from the CEOF1 mode in the western South Atlantic (**Fig. 4a**). A clear correspondence between the extreme SST events and the propagating SLA mode is observed, in which daily warm SST extremes are associated with high SLA anomalies, and vice-versa. To quantify this relationship, a conditional probability is calculated. The probability of MHW and CS events conditional to the CEOF phase is calculated using the Bayes' theorem (Supplementary Material). Four probabilities are examined, which are calculated from the combination of two binary variables, one associated with the sign of the CEOF1 SLA reconstruction (CEOF+, CEOF-) and the other to the occurrence of extreme daily SST events (MHW, CS). The estimated values of conditional probabilities (**Fig S1**) suggest that the occurrence of extreme SST events and SLA with the same phase, i.e.,  $P(\text{MHW} | \text{CEOF+}) = 69.7\%$  and  $P(\text{CS} | \text{CEOF-}) = 84.2\%$ , are much more likely than the events with opposite phase, i.e.,  $P(\text{MHW} | \text{CEOF-}) = 15.8\%$  and  $P(\text{CS} | \text{CEOF+}) = 30.3\%$ . The total conditional probability that both MHW and CS events are in phase with the SLA reconstructed from the CEOF1 mode is calculated simply by averaging their two conditional probabilities,  $P(\text{MHW} | \text{CEOF+})$  and  $P(\text{CS} | \text{CEOF-})$ , which results in  $\sim 77\%$  of the occurrences, suggesting a strong potential for using the propagating mode to predict such extreme events.



293  
 294 **Figure 4:** (a) Averaged daily SST anomalies (°C) associated to the western South Atlantic  
 295 cluster mode of MHW (red bars) and CS (blue bars) overlaid by the time series of the SLA in the  
 296 western South Atlantic reconstructed from the CEOF1 mode. Annual averages of (b) Frequency,  
 297 (c) Maximum Intensity (MaxInt), and (d) Duration of MHW (red) and CS (blue) in the western  
 298 South Atlantic.

299  
 300 In further analysis, the annual metrics of the MHW and CS are analyzed (**Fig. 4b, c, d**). The time  
 301 evolutions of the duration, frequency and intensity of the MHW and CS events averaged in the  
 302 western South Atlantic often show out-of-phase relationships. The years with more intense,  
 303 frequent and longer MHWs show weaker, less frequent and shorter CS events. Particular years

304 that show such out-of-phase relationships are 2002/2014 for more positive (MHW) events, and  
 305 1999/2004 for more negative (CS) events. During those years with increased MHW occurrence  
 306 there are approximately 5 to 6 events, with an intensity of 1.5 to 2 °C and a duration of 10 to 20  
 307 days per event. A composite analysis of the three MHW metrics for the selected years with  
 308 increased and decreased MHW (**Fig. 5**) show that these events are both characterized by a dipole  
 309 between the eastern and western sides of the basin. Such a pattern suggests an out-of-phase  
 310 occurrence of SST extreme events between east and west, which can be related to the  
 311 propagating SLA mode for those years.  
 312



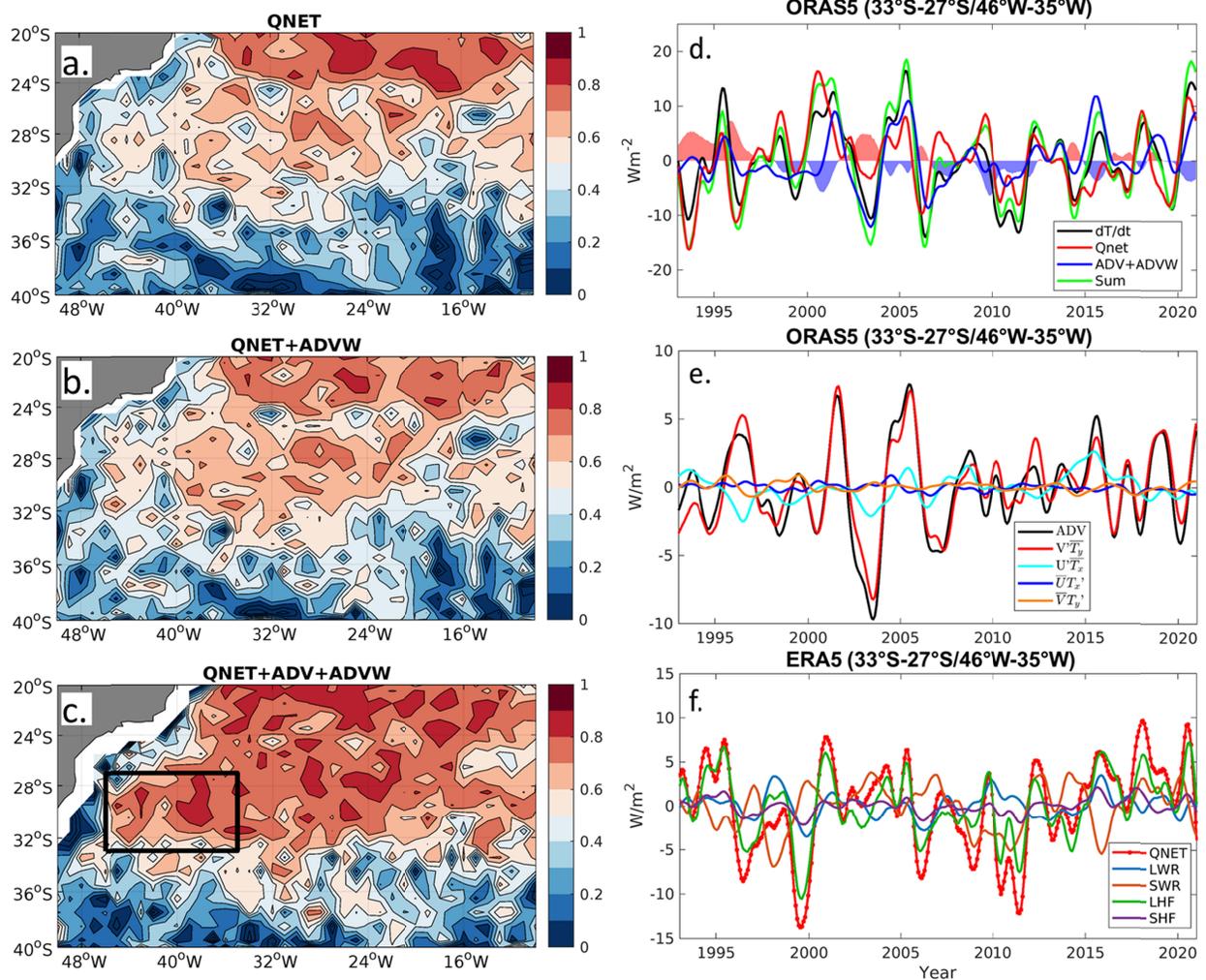
313  
 314 **Figure 5:** Composites of annual marine heatwave metrics for (left) years with high MHW  
 315 occurrences (MHW+: years 2002 and 2014) and (right) for years with low MHW occurrences  
 316 (MHW-: years 1999 and 2004). The MHW metrics are (a,b) duration, (c,d) frequency, and (e,f)  
 317 maximum intensity (MaxInt), calculated according to Hobday et al. (2016).  
 318  
 319

### 320 3.3 Mixed Layer Heat Budget

321 Here, we explore the potential role of surface heat fluxes and ocean advection in modulating  
 322 MHW on interannual timescales, using data from the ORAS5 and ERA5 reanalyses. The mixed  
 323 layer heat budget is performed in a box within the region of maximum warming in the western

324 subtropical South Atlantic, defined as 35°-46°W/27°-33°S (**Fig. 6a**). The seasonal cycle of the  
325 mixed layer heat budget (**Figure S2**) is dominated by the  $Q_{net}$  term.  $Q_{net}$  warms the ocean  
326 during summer (November-March), and damps the temperature during winter (May-September).  
327 The advection term is small, and vertical advection cools the ocean during fall (March-June), a  
328 period in which the mixed layer depth increases from 20 m to 180 m. To focus on interannual  
329 timescales, monthly anomalies of the heat budget terms (equation 3) are calculated, and a low-  
330 pass filter of 19 months is applied. To understand the spatial contributions of the terms in the  
331 mixed layer heat budget, a correlation analysis was performed between  $\partial T/\partial t$  and the three  
332 analyzed components (**Figure 6a-c**) by adding the components sequentially at each grid point.  
333 The correlation between  $\partial T/\partial t$  and  $Q_{net}$  (**Figure 6a**) shows strong correlations ( $r > 0.7$ )  
334 particularly in the tropical region north of 25°S, and more modest correlations ( $0.7 > r > 0.4$ ) in  
335 the subtropical region. Adding the vertical entrainment to  $Q_{net}$  does not increase the correlation  
336 values considerably, but some improvement is observed in the subtropical region. When  
337 horizontal advection is included, the correlations in the subtropical region north of 33°S increase  
338 almost everywhere, reaching values of  $r=0.9$  and above, which shows the importance of the  
339 oceanic contribution to changes in mixed layer temperature in the western South Atlantic.  
340 The time evolution of the heat budget terms averaged in the western subtropical South Atlantic  
341 (box in **Figure 6c**) estimated in ORAS5 shows that the atmospheric ( $Q_{net}$ ) and oceanic  
342 (horizontal advection and vertical entrainment) terms contribute similarly to the SST tendency  
343 (**Fig. 6d**). The variability of the residual between the SST tendency and the sum of the  
344 atmospheric and oceanic contributions is smaller than the individual components, meaning that  
345 the residual does not have a major impact on the heat budget variability in the selected region.  
346 Other regions such as the western boundary and south of 35°S show lower correlations between  
347 changes in mixed layer temperature and the sum of atmospheric and oceanic terms (**Fig. 6c**),  
348 probably due to eddy covariance and mixing terms.

349 On interannual timescales, the net surface heat flux from ERA5 is mostly dominated by the latent  
350 heat flux (**Fig. 6e**), with a regression coefficient of 0.71, compared to much lower values for  
351 sensible (0.13), shortwave (0.07), and longwave (0.08) radiation components, and there is a good  
352 degree of compensation between shortwave and longwave + sensible radiative fluxes. Most of  
353 the contribution of the vertical entrainment term comes from the tendency of the mixed layer  
354 term ( $\partial h/\partial t$ ), with smaller contributions from Ekman vertical advection and lateral induction  
355 terms (not shown). The decomposition of the horizontal advection term into meridional and  
356 zonal mean and time-variable components shows that  $v'\overline{T_y}$  is by far the dominant component  
357 (**Figure 6f**). This suggests that meridional velocity is driving the oceanic exchanges in the  
358 region.

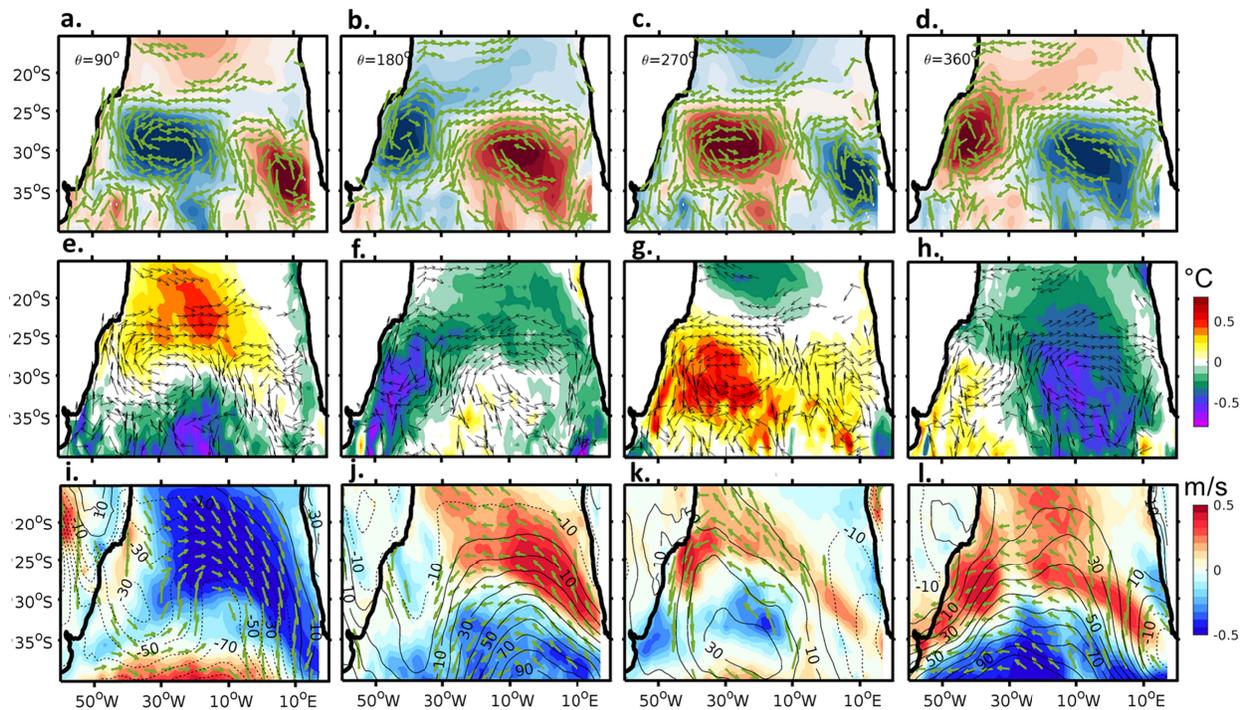


359  
 360 **Figure 6:** (a-c) Maps of correlation between the anomalies of temperature tendency ( $dT/dt$ ) and  
 361 the anomaly terms of the mixed heat budget: (a) Qnet, (b) Qnet + ADVW, and (c) Qnet +  
 362 ADVW + ADV. The black box in (c) represents the region where the heat budget timeseries  
 363 were calculated (27-33°S/35-46°W). (d) Mixed layer heat budget anomalies averaged in the box.  
 364 Red/blue shading represent the residuals ( $dT/dt$  minus Sum). (f) Timeseries of the components of  
 365 the anomalous surface heat flux (Qnet) from ERA5 reanalysis: latent (LHF), sensible (SHF),  
 366 shortwave (SWR) and longwave (LWR) fluxes. The mixed layer budget terms are labeled mixed  
 367 layer temperature tendency ( $dT/dt$ ), surface fluxes (Qnet), horizontal advection (ADV), vertical  
 368 advection (ADVW) and Sum = QNET + ADV + ADVW. Anomalies are calculated by  
 369 subtracting the monthly climatology of the monthly averages, and Gaussian low-pass filter of 19  
 370 months is applied to the timeseries.

371  
 372

373 The results above suggest that the relationship between SLA and SST in the interior of the basin  
 374 is mainly due to variations in advection and latent heat fluxes in the mixed layer (**Fig. 7**). Using  
 375 the SLA field for each phase of the propagating feature, we calculated the associated geostrophic  
 376 velocities from the thermal wind relationship. For better visualization, the SLA was smoothed  
 377 using a 5x5 degree Gaussian filter. According to geostrophy in the Southern Hemisphere, flow is

378 cyclonic (clockwise) around a negative SLA, and anticyclonic (counterclockwise) circulation  
 379 flows around a positive SLA. Therefore, a positive SLA anomaly would favor advection of warm  
 380 tropical waters ahead of the westward propagating SLA, and cooler subpolar waters behind the  
 381 SLA anomaly (**Fig. 7a-d**). Warm anomalies are then generally associated with southward  
 382 advection and cold anomalies with northward advection. Consequently, the dipolar SST  
 383 circulation centered over the SLA monopole anomaly (**Fig. 7e, g**) is generated because of the  
 384 exchange of waters between the subpolar and tropical regions that takes place in the subtropics.  
 385 In addition, the CEOF1 mode is related to sea level pressure (SLP) anomalies in the center and  
 386 south of the basin (**Fig. 7i-l**). SLP anomalies are collocated with SLA from the CEOF1 mode  
 387 pattern at the center of the basin ( $90^\circ$  and  $270^\circ$  phase angles) and have the same sign. A positive  
 388 SLP anomaly (**Figure 7k**) may warm the surface locally due to a reduction of winds and cloud  
 389 cover. It also generates an anticyclonic wind pattern around it, reinforcing the subtropical  
 390 circulation and increasing the latent heat flux, particularly north of  $30^\circ\text{S}$ , thus contributing  
 391 significantly to the dipole SST pattern. The opposite happens for the reverse phase ( $90^\circ$ , **Figure**  
 392 **7i**). In the western side of the basin, strengthened winds may dampen the positive SSTA (**Fig.**  
 393 **7k,l**), similar to what was shown in Sterl and Hazeleger (2003), leading to the transition to the  
 394 next phase of the oscillation.



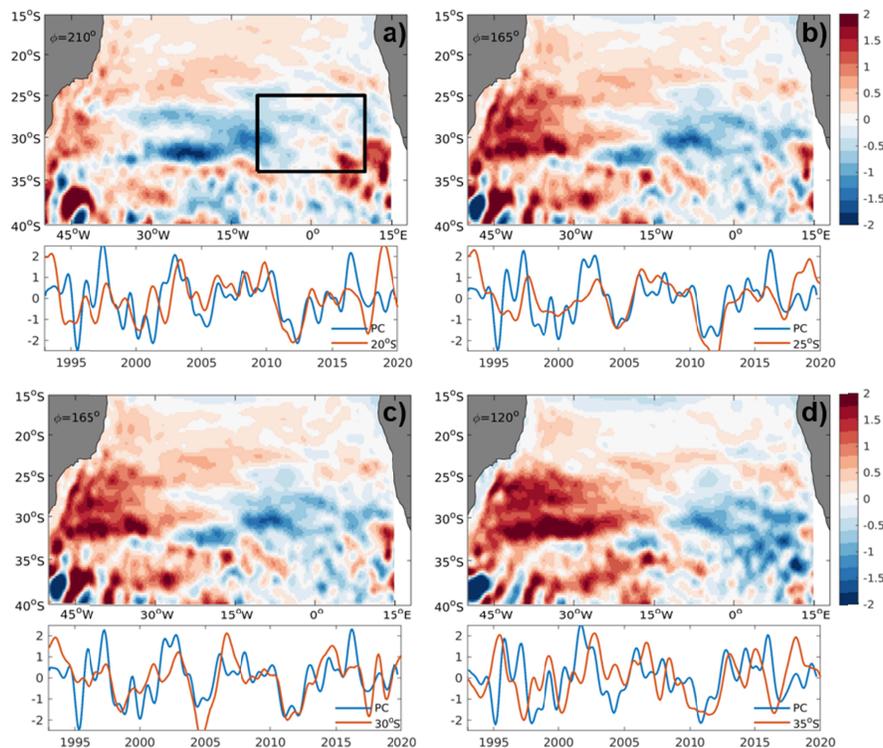
396  
 397 **Figure 7:** Composites for different phases of the propagating CEOF1 mode of SLA. Top panels:  
 398 CEOF1 spatial pattern at  $90^\circ$  phases shown at the top left of panels a-d. The associated  
 399 geostrophic current vectors are overlaid. Middle panels: Composites of SST anomalies ( $^\circ\text{C}$ ) with  
 400 the geostrophic current vectors overlaid. Bottom panels: Composites of surface wind anomalies  
 401 with the direction given by the arrows and speed (m/s) given by the shades. Overlaid on panels  
 402 (i-l) are the contours of SLP anomalies (Pa).

403

404

### 3.4 Propagating SLA and AMOC

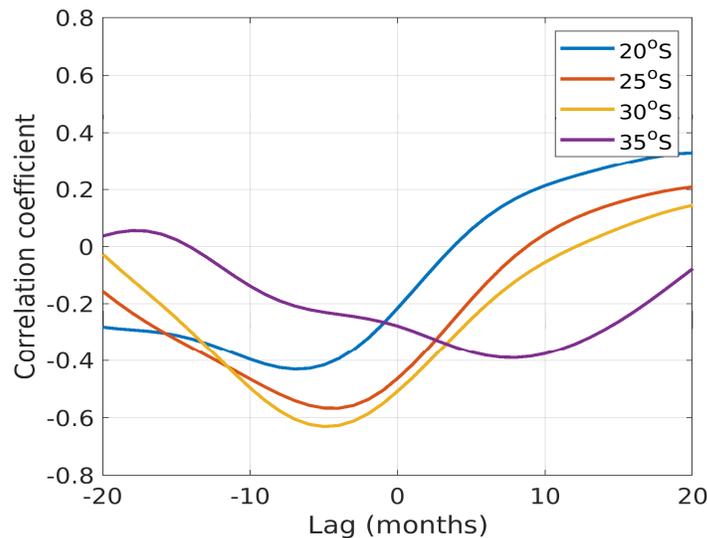
405 Volkov et al. (2019) showed that the tripole SLA pattern in the subtropical North Atlantic is  
 406 partly driven by heat and freshwater divergence associated with the AMOC. Here, we investigate  
 407 the link between the South Atlantic MOC at four different latitudes and the dominant SLA  
 408 propagating feature. For this, we use the same methodology that was applied for generating **Fig.**  
 409 **1**, in which the CEOF1 mode is rotated in phase (**Equation 2**). Similar to a lagged correlation,  
 410 we calculate the correlation between the real part of PC1 and AMOC strength for each rotation  
 411 angle  $\theta$ , and select the angle at which the best correlation is achieved (**Fig. 8**). This is performed  
 412 with the AMOC time series at the four latitudes (20°S, 25°S, 30°S, and 34.5°S) computed by  
 413 Dong et al. (2021). The AMOC time series agree reasonably well with PC1 at all analyzed  
 414 latitudes, with correlations above 0.4. At 34.5°S, the phase relationship was not as clear in the  
 415 beginning of the timeseries but improved after 2000. The weaker relationship may be due to the  
 416 fact that the spatial pattern of the CEOF1 mode is more dominant north of 33°S. Indeed, Dong et  
 417 al. (2021) showed that the AMOC at 34.5°S does not agree well with the AMOC at the other 3  
 418 latitudes further north. In addition, we can observe a slight shift toward the combination of  
 419 higher angles and SLA patterns moving westward as the latitude at which the AMOC is  
 420 calculated moves farther north (**Fig. 8**), suggesting that coherent anomalies are advected from the  
 421 south.



422

423 **Figure 8:** CEOF1 pattern of SLA in cm (maps) and PC1 (timeseries) associated with the  
 424 maximum correlation between PC1 mode and the AMOC at four different latitudes: (a) 20°S, (b)  
 425 25°S, (c) 30°S, and (d) 35°S. The maximum correlation between the AMOC and the CEOF1 is  
 426 estimated by rotating the CEOF1 phase. The black box in (a) shows the region where the CEOF1  
 427 reconstructed SLA is used to calculate lagged correlations with the AMOC strength (**Figure 9**).  
 428

429 The lagged correlation between the AMOC and SLA reconstructed from CEOF1 mode in the  
 430 eastern part of the basin (25°S-33°S/10°W-10°E) (**Fig. 9**) shows that the magnitude of the  
 431 correlation is largest at 30°S ( $r=-0.63$ , lag=-4; significant at 90%), followed by 25°S ( $r=-0.56$ ,  
 432 lag=-3), 20°S ( $r=-0.43$ , lag=-5), and 35°S ( $r=-0.4$ , lag=9). The negative correlations indicate that  
 433 when the AMOC is stronger, there is a negative sea level anomaly in the east and therefore a  
 434 positive SLA in the western side of the basin. These correlations are mostly driven by the  
 435 geostrophic component of the AMOC, with correlations of about 0.55 for 25°S and 30°S, with  
 436 the Ekman component playing a smaller role. The typical lags are between 3 and 9 months,  
 437 similar to the timescales of northward propagation defined in Dong et al. (2021). The negative  
 438 lags suggest that the AMOC leads the propagating pattern and therefore could be a precursor to  
 439 the propagation.

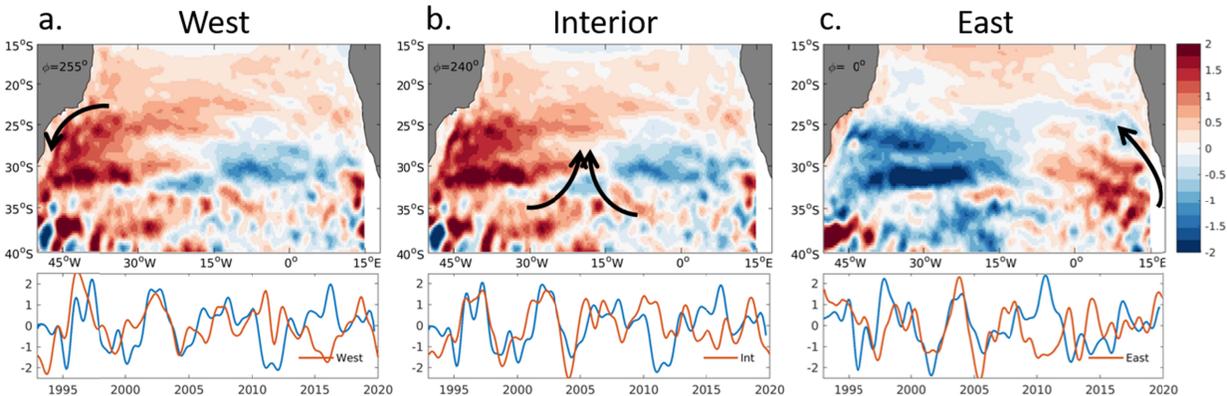


440 **Figure 9:** Lagged correlation of the reconstructed SLA in the eastern side of the basin (10°W-  
 441 10°E/34°S-25°S; box in Fig. 9a) with the AMOC at four different latitudes (20°S, 25°S, 30°S  
 442 and 35°S) in the South Atlantic. For negative lags, the AMOC leads SLA.  
 443

444  
 445

446 To further explore links between the propagating mode, the AMOC, and meridional heat  
 447 transport (MHT), we calculated MHT across 30°S, the latitude with the highest correlation  
 448 between CEOF1 and the AMOC. We divided the MHT across 30°S into western (west of 43°W),  
 449 eastern (east of 3°E), and interior contributions, similar to what was performed in Dong et al.  
 450 (2009) across 35°S. To focus on the upper layer of the ocean, we integrated the heat transport  
 451 contributions from the surface to 500 m, instead of through the full ocean depth. The mean  
 452 transport contribution in the west is southward ( $-0.59 \pm 0.12$  PW), and it is northward in the  
 453 interior ( $0.74 \pm 0.19$  PW) and east ( $0.58 \pm 0.16$  PW). Following the same procedure described  
 454 above, the phase of the CEOF1 mode with the highest correlation with MHT anomalies is  
 455 calculated for each of the three areas (**Fig. 10**). The optimal propagation phase in each area  
 456 confirms the role of the CEOF mode in regulating the amount of heat exchanged between the  
 457 tropics and extratropics, as highlighted by the arrows in **Fig. 11**. As such, stronger heat transport  
 458 southward in the west and northward in the interior correspond to the CEOF1 phase with a  
 459 positive SLA in the west (**Fig. 10a, b**), and an increased northward transport in the east  
 460 corresponds to a CEOF1 phase with high SLA in the east (**Fig. 10c**).

461 These results suggest that the 3-5 year propagation period of this mode from east to west could  
 462 be modulated by and also modulate the AMOC on interannual timescales.  
 463



464  
 465 **Figure 10:** Same as Figure 8 but for the (a) West, (b) Interior, and (c) East components of the  
 466 meridional heat transport across 30°S integrated between 0 and 500 m. The black arrows on  
 467 maps show the direction of the increased geostrophic transport for each phase of the CEOF1  
 468 mode.  
 469

#### 470 4 Discussion

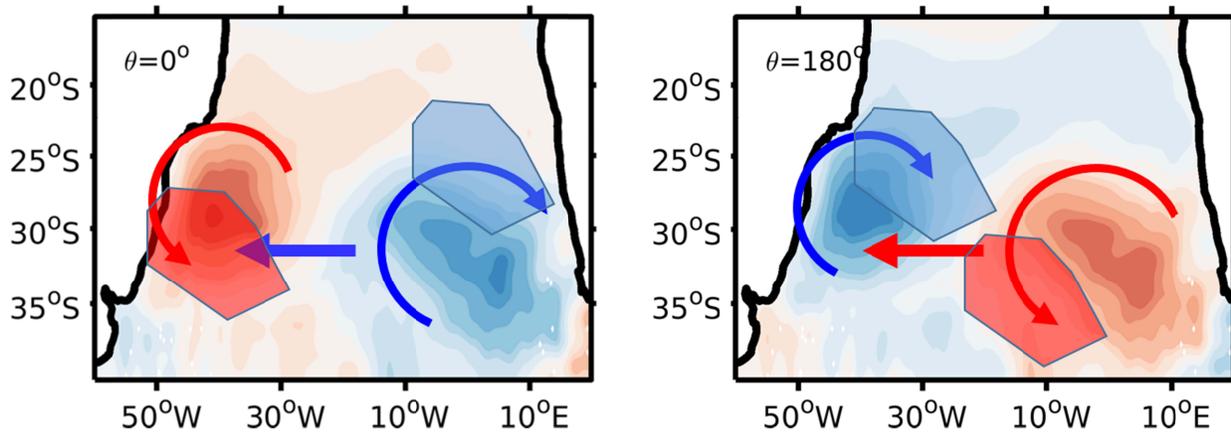
471 In a recent study, Rodrigues et al. (2019) analyzed the mixed layer heat budget in the western  
 472 South Atlantic for the 2014/2015 MHW event. They showed that surface heat flux anomalies,  
 473 including increased shortwave radiation from reduced cloud cover and reduced latent heat loss  
 474 from weaker winds, were responsible for the onset of marine heatwaves in the region. The onset  
 475 of the 2014/2015 MHW was associated with the Madden-Julian oscillation (MJO) (Barreiro et  
 476 al., 2019), which is the dominant mode of atmospheric variability on intraseasonal timescales in  
 477 the tropics (mainly between 40-60 days; Madden and Julian, 1972). As the MJO propagates from  
 478 the tropics, it affects convection, tropospheric winds, rainfall and surface fluxes (e.g., Matthews  
 479 et al., 2004). On interannual timescales, El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and the Southern  
 480 Annular Mode (SAM) can influence the strength and location of the South Atlantic subtropical  
 481 high (e.g., Sun et al., 2018), which is also associated with the propagating mode here identified  
 482 through wind stress curl or enhanced coastal upwelling in the Benguela Current System region.  
 483

484 The role of the ocean has received much less attention than atmospheric teleconnections. Here  
 485 we show that the large-scale ocean circulation (through the AMOC) is a pacemaker for the  
 486 interannual occurrence of marine heatwaves in the western subtropical South Atlantic. This  
 487 relationship was hypothesized here from the strong relationship between western South Atlantic  
 488 temperature anomalies and sea surface height anomalies on interannual timescales. The SLA  
 489 variability in the western South Atlantic is highly correlated ( $r=0.77$ ) with the main propagating  
 490 mode of SLA. The propagation of this mode agrees with the first baroclinic Rossby wave mode  
 491 (Majumder et al., 2019), which is linked to the large-scale ocean adjustment. This mechanism  
 492 seems to be related to the one described in Colin de Verdière and Huck (1999) and Te Raa and  
 493 Dijkstra (2002), in which by crossing the South Atlantic, a warm anomaly induces southward  
 494 velocity perturbations to the west and northward to the east of the center of the anomaly. This

495 leads to a phase difference between the temperature and velocity anomalies. The perturbed  
496 velocities advect warm water southward to the west and cold water northward to the east of the  
497 initial anomaly, thereby moving the warm anomaly westward. Our results suggest that, as the  
498 mode propagates, it influences the meridional heat transport of eastern and western boundary  
499 currents and the ocean interior in different phases (**Fig. 10**). A similar mechanism was also  
500 suggested for other western boundary currents (Elzahaby et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021).  
501 Because the AMOC consists of both boundary flows and ocean adjustment, this mechanism may  
502 modulate but also be influenced by AMOC variability. This relationship is supported by the  
503 significant correlation between the AMOC and the cross-basin SSH (**Fig. 10**). Therefore, this  
504 work highlights the importance of sustained AMOC monitoring for regional climate in the South  
505 Atlantic. The AMOC in the South Atlantic has been monitored for more than a decade by in-situ  
506 observations (e.g., Dong et al., 2009; Meinen et al., 2013), and for almost three decades using  
507 satellite observations (e.g., Dong et al., 2015, Schmid and Majumder, 2016). Previous studies  
508 have linked the AMOC to SST fingerprints in the South Atlantic (Dima and Lohman, 2010;  
509 Lopez et al., 2016), which can extend these time series back more than a century. Recently,  
510 Bodnariuk et al. (2021) found a link between the propagating modes in the South Atlantic and  
511 Indian and South Pacific basins, suggesting that there could be coherence of oceanic features  
512 throughout the Southern Hemisphere. Further investigations of links between the propagating  
513 SSH modes, the AMOC, and atmospheric teleconnections should be performed using numerical  
514 and simplified model studies.  
515

## 516 **5 Conclusions**

517 The leading mode of the interannual variability of SLA in the South Atlantic is characterized by  
518 westward propagating anomalies centered at 30°S, with a periodicity of 3 to 5 years. The  
519 propagating SLA signals associated with this mode are positively correlated with SSTA in the  
520 western subtropical South Atlantic. The temporal phase of the propagating mode is well  
521 correlated with interannual modulations of the MHW and CS mode centered in the western  
522 South Atlantic. We estimated that there is a 77% probability that the extreme daily sea surface  
523 temperature events occur when the SLA associated with the propagating mode bears the same  
524 sign. Our analysis shows that SST modulation by SLA in the subtropical region is driven mainly  
525 by latent heat flux anomalies and by oceanic horizontal advection. The latent heat flux appears to  
526 be related to wind speed anomalies associated with the subtropical high and atmospheric waves.  
527 The oceanic advection term mediates the exchange of tropical (warm) and subpolar (cold) waters  
528 in the region (**Figure 11**): clockwise circulation around a negative SLA anomaly favors  
529 advection of cold subpolar waters toward the subtropics, while counterclockwise circulation is  
530 generated around a positive SLA anomaly. The analyzed westward-propagating mode is  
531 significantly (at 90%) correlated ( $r = 0.63$ ) with the AMOC at 30°S, and its origin in the eastern  
532 part of the basin lags the AMOC by approximately 3 to 9 months. Therefore, the sustained  
533 AMOC observations in the South Atlantic can provide strong multi-year predictability for  
534 extreme temperature and rainfall events in the western side of the basin.



535

536 **Figure 11:** Schematic of the effect of the propagating oceanic heat transport on the warming and  
 537 cooling of the western and eastern South Atlantic regions at two opposite phases. The contours  
 538 (colored shading) are for SLA and horizontal arrows indicate westward propagation that causes  
 539 cooling (left plot) and warming (right plot). The red and blue arrows indicate the tendency for  
 540 warming and cooling of the regions represented by the polygonal regions.

541

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 552 downloaded from <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu>. The ORAS5 reanalysis was downloaded  
 553 from <https://www.ecmwf.int/en/research/climate-reanalysis/ocean-reanalysis>. SeaWiFS Chl-a

554 data are available at  
555 [https://oceandata.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/SeaWiFS/Mapped/Monthly\\_Climatology/9km/chlor\\_a/](https://oceandata.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/SeaWiFS/Mapped/Monthly_Climatology/9km/chlor_a/).

556

## 557 **Open Research**

558 All calculations and figures were performed in Matlab v. 2019 and Ferret v. 7.6. The CEOF  
559 methodology was performed using the pcatool toolbox in Matlab, and the mixed layer heat budget  
560 was performed using Ferret.

561

562

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