The role of heat wave heatwave events on in the occurrence and persistence of thermal stratification in the southern North Sea

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Abstract. Extremes in temperatures Temperatures extremes not only directly affect the marine environment and ecosystems but also have indirect impacts on indirectly influence hydrodynamics and marine life. The role of heat wave events responsible for In this study, the role of heatwave events in the occurrence and persistence of thermal stratification was analysed by simulating the water temperature of the North Sea from 2011 to 2018 using a fully coupled hydrodynamic and wave model within the framework of the Geesthacht Coupled cOAstal model SysTem (GCOAST)for the North Sea. The model results were assessed against satellite reprocessed reprocessed satellite data and in situ observations from field campaigns and fixed MARNET Marine Environmental Monitoring Network (MARNET) stations. To quantify the degree of stratification, a-the potential energy anomaly over-throughout the water column was calculated. A linear correlation existed between the The air temperatures and the potential energy anomaly potential energy anomalies in the North Sea (excluding the Norwegian Trench and the area south of 54° Nlatitude. Contrary to the northern part of the) were linearly correlated. Different from the northern North Sea, where the water column is stratified in the warming warm season each year, the southern North Sea is seasonally stratified in years when a heatwave occurs. The influences of heatwaves on the occurrence of summer stratifications in the southern North Sea are mainly in the form of two aspects, i.e., a rapid rise in sea surface temperature at the early stage of the heatwave period and a relatively higher water temperature during summer than the multiyear mean. Another factor that enhances the thermal stratification in summer is the memory of the water column to cold spells earlier in the year. Differences between the seasonally stratified northern North Sea and the heatwave-induced stratified southern North Sea were ultimately attributed to changes in water depth.

1 Introduction

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Recently, the increased number of extreme events with the In recent decades, extreme temperature events have increased in frequency with global climate changehas attracted more attention from research in , and these events have attracted growing attention from both regional and global earth systems (IPCC, 2012; Herring et al., 2015) research on Earth systems (IPCC, 2021; Herring et al., 2015) res

2011; Hobday et al., 2016). Other causes of MHWs include ocean heat transport (Rouault et al., 2007; Oliver et al., 2017) or remote forcings (Bond et al., 2015; Hu et al., 2017). MHWs have been identified with a trend of increasing intensification (Oliver et al., 2020). Over An increasing intensification trend of MHWs has recently been identified (Oliver et al., 2020). In this context, over the last two decades, numerous record-breaking MHW events have been reported in the Mediterranean Sea (Bensoussan et al., 2010), the Tasman Sea (Oliver et al., 2017; Perkins-Kirkpatrick et al., 2019), west Australia (Feng et al., 2013), northeast the Northeast Pacific (Hu et al., 2017), the western South Atlantic (Manta et al., 2018) and the East China Sea (Tan and Cai, 2018). The study of MHWs has emerged as a rapidly growing field of research due to its substantial influence Accordingly, due to the substantial influences of MHW events on marine hydrodynamics and ecosystems (Wernberg et al., 2013, 2016; Oliver et al., 2020). In the North Sea, waters are predicted to be warming fastest relative to global levels and are highly impacted by the extreme meteorological events (Smale et al., 2019; Hobday and Pecl, 2014); the concequences of MHWs however, have received much less attention (Wakelin et al., 2021), the field of research on MHWs has rapidly grown (Wernberg et al., 2013, 2016; Oliver et al., 2020).

The North Sea, which is located on the northwest European passive continental margin , connects to of Northwest Europe, connects the Baltic Sea in the east and to the Atlantic through the Norwegian Sea in the north and the English Channel in the west (Figure 1). The water depth is shallow in the large depths in most of area of the North Sea are shallow, except for the Norwegian channel, which has an average depth of 400 m deep with a maximum depth of 750 m in the Skagerrak (Otto et al., 1990). The tidal circulation is dominated by the semidiurnal tides (M₂ and S₂) tides and interacts with the North Sea bathymetry. Sources Due to these relatively shallow water depths, the sources of turbulent mixing are the tidal currents at the bottom (Simpson et al., 1994) and the wind-induced waves at the water surface (Staneva et al., 2017), due to the relatively shallow water depth. The North Sea, which is strongly impacted by extreme meteorological events, has been predicted to be warming twice faster than the global levels (Smale et al., 2019; Hobday and Pecl, 2014); nevertheless, the consequences of MHWs, have received little attention (Wakelin et al., 2021).

During the summer of 2018, extreme elimates heatwaye events with record-breaking temperatures were observed in many countries. The German Weather Service (Deutscher Wetterdienst, DWD) observed weekly temperature anomalies of up to $+3 - 6^{\circ} + 3 - 6^{\circ} C$ (Imbery et al., 2018). In addition to the West and North Europe, which suffered significant social and environmental impactsacross West and North Europe, the summer heatwave imposed large perturbations on natural processes in the North Sea, the North Sea (specifically, the natural processes therein) was heavily perturbed by these summer heatwayes. For example, Borges et al. (2019) found that the dissolved methane concentration in surface waters along the Belgian coast was three times higher during the summer of 2018 than during a normal year. The European 2018 heatwaye events Hence, the heatwaye events that struck Europe in 2018 provide a good opportunity for investigating the impact of extreme elimate to investigate the impacts of extreme meteorological conditions on the development of density stratification in the southern North Sea. An identification of In particular, extreme temperature events and how these may have impacts on key fish and shellfish stocks was documented were identified in the recently published Ocean State Report 5, which also documented how these events may impact key fish and shellfish stocks (Wakelin et al., 2021). However, to the best of our knowledge no systematic

studies have yet investigation has been performed to explain this impact these impacts in relation to the changes in vertical stratification during extreme temperature events in the North Sea.

As a fundamental physical process in the North Sea, the development of vertical thermal stratification in the North Sea, a fundamental physical process, is associated with the seasonal cycling of water temperatures, especially in on the shallow shelfseas. From early May to late September, the majority of the North Sea becomes stratified, which is also known as the summer stratification (Pingree and Griffiths, 1978). Understanding the occurrence of this summer stratification and its temporal and spatial variations is important and the interest thus has been the focus of many studies (Becker, 1981; Elliott and Clarke, 1991; Pohlmann, 1996; Schrum et al., 2003; Stips et al., 2004; Sharples et al., 2006; van Leeuwen et al., 2015). In shallow shelfseasOn the shallow shelf, stratification plays an essential role in, e.g., water circulation (van Haren, 2000; Luyten et al., 2003), sediment flocculation and transport (Fettweis et al., 2014), phytoplankton growth (Nielsen et al., 1993; Fernand et al., 2013) and fishery resources (Sas et al., 2019)management (Sas et al., 2019).

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Many relevant modelling studies have been conducted within the North Sea (Luyten et al., 2003; Stips et al., 2004; Sharples et al., 2006; Mathis et al., 2015). More recently, the development of Klonaris et al. (2021) recently developed a state-of-the-art three dimensional hydrodynamic model based on ROMS was demonstrated by Klonaris et al. (2021), who showed accurately reproduced the Regional Ocean Modeling System (ROMS) and accurately reproduced the thermohaline variations in the southern North Sea. Considering the interface between the airand the ocean, models that couple Other models have been employed to investigate thermodynamic air—ocean interface processes by coupling the interactions between the air-sea system were integrated to investigate thermodynamic air—ocean interface processes (Ho-Hagemann et al., 2017; Stathopoulos et al., 2017; Stathopoulos et al., 2017; Stathopoulos et al., 2020). Staneva et al. (2021) air—and sea system (Ho-Hagemann et al., 2017; Stathopoulos et al., 2020). For instance, Staneva et al. (2021) presented a new high-resolution model (part of the Geesthacht COAstal model SysTemCoupled cOAstal model SysTem, GCOAST) that couples ocean and wave model systems for the North Sea and the Baltic Sea. This model implemented; this model implements parameterisations that take into account the nonlinear feedback between tidal currents and wind waves. Within this framework, Chen et al. (2021) developed a three-dimensional variational (3DVAR) data assimilation scheme; which improved that improved the modelling of sea surface temperature modelling in the North Sea. In that study; then, the authors further quantified the impact of temperature assimilation on the heat budget estimates for the North Sea.

Based on a 51-year 51 years of simulation data, van Leeuwen et al. (2015) identified five regimes in the North Sea regarding different types of density stratification. The study They classified the presence of stratification according to the influence of freshwater from estuaries, permanent haline stratification in the deep Norwegian Trench, seasonal changes in air temperatures, and strong turbulent mixing by tidal currents and waves. However, these classifications fail to categorise their categories failed to categorise include approximately 30% of the North Sea area, especially in the its southern part, where the water depth is generally less than 50 m and the regime absence of a dominant stratification type accounts for approximately half of the total area. In this area, the density stratification is highly sensitive to the climate conditions and shows lacks a dominant stratification regime. The density stratification in this area is particularly sensitive to changes in climate and exhibits interannual variations. The Therefore, the present study focuses on this unclassified area, in order to quantify the role of heatwaves on in

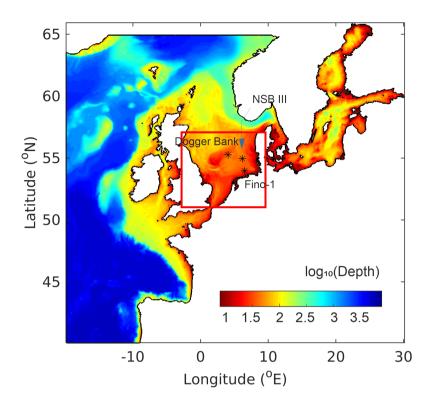


Figure 1. The GCOAST model domain. The bathymetry (metersm) is shown on a log_logarithmic scale. The location of the observations from the Poseidon cruise (Dogger Bank) and MARNET stations (NSB III and Fino-1) are indicated with asterisks. The red frame defines the area of the middle and southern North Sea.

the occurrence of summer stratification. We further address the question "What are the seek to identify the main factors that affect the intensity and duration of the thermal stratification in the southern North Sea?".

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This study applied a fully coupled hydrodynamics hydrodynamic and wind-wave model in to the North Sea and adjacent seasthe adjacent sea areas. The model simulations simulation results were compared with recent field measurements of both short-term (a cruise campaign from 23 July to 1 August 2018) and multiyear (6-year stationary measurements) acquired in recent years. Furthermore, a 38-year-38 years of sea surface temperature (SST) data were reprocessed from satellite observations was used to detect the occurrence and duration of the MHWs. Details MHWs. The details of the observations and the methods used for analysis are described in the next section. The results are presented in Section 3contains the results, and the discussion follows in Section 4. The main conclusions are given in Section 5.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Model

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This study conducted an 8-year (2011-2018) numerical simulation with the Nucleus for European Modelling of the Ocean (NEMO) ocean circulation model NEMO (Madec and the NEMO team, 2016) fully coupled to the wave model WAM (The Wamdi Group, 1988; Günther et al., 1992). The model is set up under the framework of the Geesthacht Coupled cOAstal model SysTem (GCOAST) This model allowed us to analyse the extreme year of 2018, which is a focus of our research, as well as several past heatwave events and cold spells. The model was established under the GCOAST framework covering the Northwest European Shelf, the North Sea, and the Baltic Sea, and it has a horizontal resolution of approximately 3.5 km and a with the vertical resolution of the NEMO standard $\sigma - z^*$ hybrid grid with 50 levels. The present study focuses on the southern North Sea, which is defined as the area between $3 \sim 9^\circ$ within $-3 - 9^\circ$ E longitude and $51 \sim 57^\circ 51 - 57^\circ$ N latitude (shown by the red frame in Figure 1).

For the boundary conditions, the temperature, salinity and barotropic forcing were derived from the hourly output of the Copernicus Marine Environment Monitoring Service (CMEMS) Forecast Ocean Assimilation Model (FOAM) Atlantic Margin Model version 7 (AMM7) output (O'Dea et al., 2012). Tidal harmonic constituents derived from the TPXOv8 model were applied at the open boundaries to force the tidal motions (Egbert and Erofeeva., 2002). The ECMWF (data from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) Reanalysis version 5 (ERA5) data were used at the water surface (Hersbach et al., 2020). The data contained ERA5 data included the air temperature 2 m above the water surface, which was also applied for analysing to analyse the relation between the variation in air temperature and the thermal stratification in the North Sea. The model adopted a baroclinic time step of 100 seconds. Turbulent eddy viscosities/diffusivities were computed with a 'k- ϵ ' closure scheme using turbulence closure scheme with the generic length scale turbulence model (Umlauf and Burchard, 2003). Further details of the model have been are documented in Chen et al. (2021).

2.2 Observational Observation data

In-situ data were acquired by two different methods. From 23 July to 1 August 2018, a field measurement was conducted at field measurements were conducted in the Dogger Bank (Figure 1) during the Poseidon cruise POS526. This was part of a multidisciplinary research initiative of the GEOMAR Helmholtz Center for Ocean Research (GEOMAR, 2019). During the cruise, high-resolution temperature and salinity data were sampled by conductivity-temperature-depth CTD (Sea-Bird SBE 49 Fast-CAT) measurements. Long-term (interannual) data were further obtained from two fixed automatic oceanographic platforms in the North Sea: Nordseeboje III (NSB III, 54°41′N and 6°47′E) and FINO-1 (54°00.892′N and 6°35.258′E)(see Figure 1for the locations). They). Both platforms are part of the Marine Environmental Monitoring Network system (MARNET), which is operated by the German Federal Maritime and Hydrographic Agency (Bundesamt für Seeschifffahrt und Hydrographie, BSH). On these MARNET platforms, water temperature and salinity at different depths are collected continuously and processed to hourly intervalsan hourly intervals.

A 38-year time series SST over the 1982-2019 period was obtained by time series of SST data spanning 38 years (1982 – 2019) was derived from the European Space Agency Sea Surface Temperature (ESA) SST Climate Change Initiative (ESA SST CCI) Level 3 products (1982-2016) (1982 – 2016) (Merchant et al., 2019) and the Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S) Level 3 product (2016-20192016 – 2019). These daily-mean daily-mean datasets cover the European Northwest Shelf Ocean with a spatial resolution of 0.05degrees-° by 0.05degrees. The data were retrieved from the Copernicus Marine Service (https://resources.marine.copernicus.eu/).

140 2.3 Temperature analysis

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Each calendar year was divided into two separate seasons, i.e., the eooling cold season and the warming-warm season, according to the interannual trend of air temperatures in the annual variation. Normally, the eooling cold season lasts from January to mid April and then from September to December September to mid-April of the following year, while the warming season is from mid April warm season endures from mid-April to August. In eooling seasons, cold-spells may be present the cold season, cold spells are considered to occur when there are periods of at least 5 consecutive days in which the temperature is lower than the threshold of the 10th percentile (Wakelin et al., 2021). In the warming warm season, MHW events are identified, following the criteria introduced by Hobday et al. (2016), i.e., when the water temperature exceeds the threshold of the 90th percentile within in a period of at least 5 consecutive days.

2.4 Quantification of stratification

As introduced by Simpson (1981), the potential energy anomaly ϕ , is frequently used as a suitable measure of the degree of stratification. This variable indicates the amount of mechanical energy (per m³) required to instantaneously homogenise the water column with given density stratification. The parameter ϕ is defined as follows:

$$\phi = \frac{1}{D} \int_{-H}^{\eta} gz(\overline{\rho} - \rho) dz, \tag{1}$$

in which where

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$$\bar{\rho} = \frac{1}{D} \int_{-H}^{\eta} \rho dz$$
 (2)

is the vertical mean water density and $g = 9.8 \text{ m s}^{-2}$ is the gravitational <u>constant of</u> acceleration. The instantaneous total water depth is given by $D = \eta + H$, with where η and H being are the sea surface elevation and the time mean time-average water depth, respectively. Note that the water density ρ , which is not part of the standard NEMO model output, was calculated (at 1 atm) following Millero and Poisso (1981) (details are provided in Appendix A).

To quantify the vertical structure of stratification and evaluate its suitability, the gradient Richardson number, Ri, is computed:

$$Ri = \frac{N^2}{S^2},\tag{3}$$

with the definition of the buoyancy frequency

$$N = \left(-\frac{g}{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial z}\right)^{1/2},\tag{4}$$

and the vertical shear

$$S = \left[\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial z} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2}.$$
 (5)

Here, u and v are the horizontal velocity components in (m s⁻¹) obtained from the model in the same time intervals interval as those of the temperature and salinity data.

3 Results

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The model simulation results were compared with the in-situ measurements obtained by multiple operating systems the Poseidon cruise and oceanographic platforms (Figure 2). The model was capable of capturing the main features of the observation observed features. At MARNET station NSB III, which is located in the centre of the central eastern part of the southern North Sea (see Figure 1), the model data temporal variations in the simulated air temperature followed the seasonal cycles of the temporal variations in the observed air temperature from 2011 to 2018. In the water, the difference between the observations and the model usually occurred during the warming period. The observed and simulated water temperatures usually diverged during the warm season of each year (May to September). The interannual cycle of the water temperature followed the interannual variation in the air temperature above the sea surface. However, the intensity of the water stratification showed no obvious seasonal pattern. Its appearance; instead, the thermal stratification was more related to air temperature changes. For example, large stratification occurred during the summers of 2014 and 2018, when the surface-to-bottom surface-bottom tem-180 perature difference was much larger than that during the periods before and after . In 2015 and 2017, the surface-to-bottom (the surface-bottom temperature difference was unapparent, and fluctuations in air temperatures were small, not apparent during 2015 and 2017, and the fluctuations in the air temperature were small). The differences between the modelled and measured water temperatures were in the range of $\pm 2^{\circ}$ C, and the model error was smaller during the winter months than in the summer months.

Figure 3 further compares the model simulated data and observations at different locations of in the southern North Sea in July 2018. At In the Dogger Bank and NSB III sites at the NSB III site, the model reproduced high temperatures within a thin

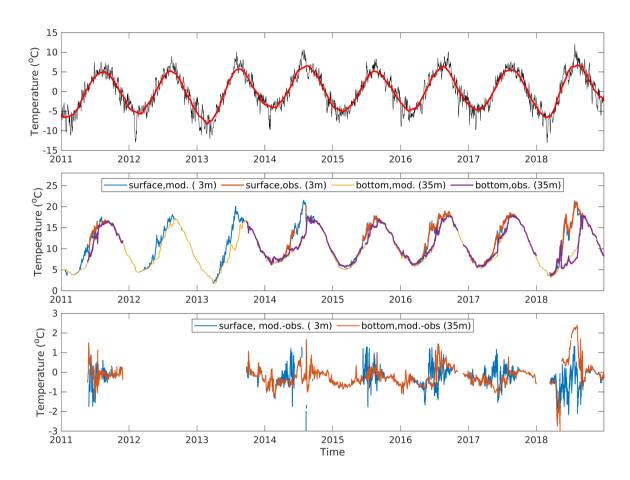


Figure 2. Upper panel: Interannual variation in the air temperature (with the multiyear mean removed) at NSB III. The black line is the daily resolutionair temperature, and the thick red line is represents the 3-month moving averaged data average. Middle panel: At the same location, the The interannual variation in the seawater temperature at the surface and the bottom from the observations observed (obs.) and the simulations simulated (mod.) water temperatures at the surface and the bottom of the same location. Bottom panel: The Water temperature differences between the modelled seawater temperature model and the observed temperature in situ measurements at the surface and the bottom.

layer (approximately $5 \sim 10.5 - 10$ m) near the surface. The temporal change in water temperatures mainly occurred water temperature exhibited temporal variation mainly in the upper water layers (above 20 m depth). Below 20meters m, the water temperature was relatively stable, with values at approximately 10° C. The differences between the surface and the bottom reached more than 15° C in both the model and the observations. At FINO-1, the there was almost no difference between the modelled water temperature and the in-situ measurements was nearly non-existent. Inconsistencies between the model and observations were also observed. However, inconsistencies were observed between the simulated data and observations. The model overestimated the observations at in the deeper layers. Below the For instance, below 20m, e.g., at m, the model yielded temperatures approximately $1 \sim 3^{\circ}$ C higher than the in-situ data in the Dogger Bank and NSB III, the model presented temperatures of approximately $1 \sim 3^{\circ}$ C higher than the in-situ data at site NSB III.

In general, the fully coupled model is capable of reproducing the characteristics of the water temperatures in the North Sea. The model errors were small compared to the annual water temperature variations. One reason for the discrepancies between the model and observations is that the spatial and temporal resolutions of the atmospheric forcing data are coarse. In July–August 2018, the modelled bottom water temperature was warmer than observed (Figure 2). During this heatwave period, a strong spatial temperature gradient was observed, which led to additional heat transport from shallower to deeper regions. At the NSB III site, the observed density stratification in the water column was underestimated by the model. However, considering that the model error is much smaller than the surface–bottom temperature differences $(10 - 12^{\circ}C)$, the main conclusions of the present study are unaffected.

The results were further compared with reprocessed satellite data. Figure 4 shows an annual variation in the annual variations in the modelled and remotely sensed SST at the NSB III platform in 2018. The modelled SST was compared with the satellite reprocessed data. The features of the SST annual variation annual SST variations at other stations were similar to those of at NSB III and thus are not shown. The model represented reproduced the satellite data from January to May and from mid-August to December , with an error with errors of less than 1°C. Differences between the two dataset datasets were mainly found from June to August, where when the fluctuations in the satellite reanalysed reprocessed satellite data were much smaller than those in the model. One reason could be the smoothed measurements due to This could be attributed to the smoothing of the measurements by the gridding and gap-filling of level Level 3 data. Marine heatwave events MHWs in the North Sea region were detected with the 90th-percentile threshold (Hobday et al., 2016) , obtained from obtained from the statistics of the 38-year time series SST statisticsdata. In 2018, two MHWs were detected at NSB III: one lasting from May 24 to June 28 and another occurring from July 8 to August 5. Note that May 4 ~ 15 was another period of intensive SST incline. However, it the SST rose intensely during May 4 – 15; however, this period was not defined as an MHW event because of the relatively low temperatures.

Regarding the relationship between air temperature variations and the occurrence of seasonal seasonal cyclicity of the thermal stratification, further comparisons were made between among a typical normal year — (i.e., 2015), the extreme heat wave heatwave year of 2018and multiyear means, and the multiyear mean (Figure 5). In the warming period warm season of 2018, there were three periods in which the air temperature was higher than the multiyear mean. The maximum air temperature anomaly reached 6°C. Correspondingly, three 'heat spikes' were 'heat spikes' are present on the SST curve. During each

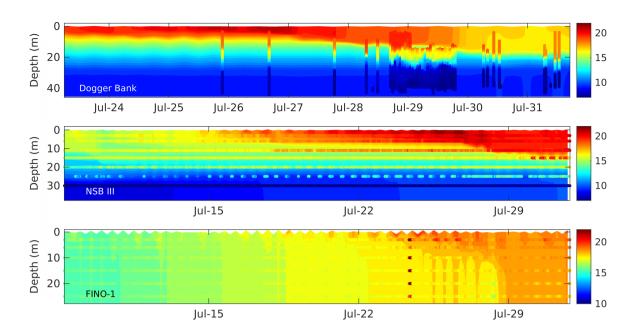


Figure 3. Water-In situ-measured and model-simulated water temperatures (in °C) of the in-situ observations and the model simulations in July. In the upper panelDogger Bank, observations are taken-measurements were obtained by the a CTD profiler during the Poseidon campaignand in . At the middle MARNET stations NSB III and lower panelsFINO-1, the dotted lines are MARNET data temperatures were measured at in fixed water layers.

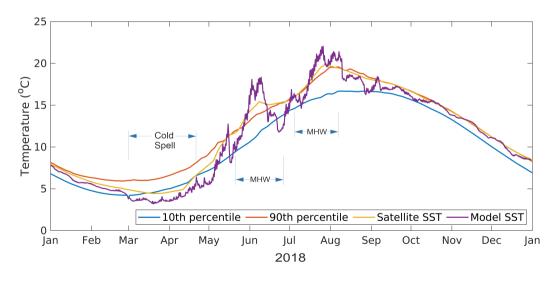


Figure 4. Annual SST variation (in °C)at the NSB III platform of in 2018. In addition to the satellite datameasurements (yellow curve) and the simulation results (purple curve), the model simulations in 2018-10th- and the 10th/90th-percentile SST of SSTs from the multiyear statistics are shown. One cold-spell cold spell and two MHWs are were detected based on the 10th and 90th percentiles.

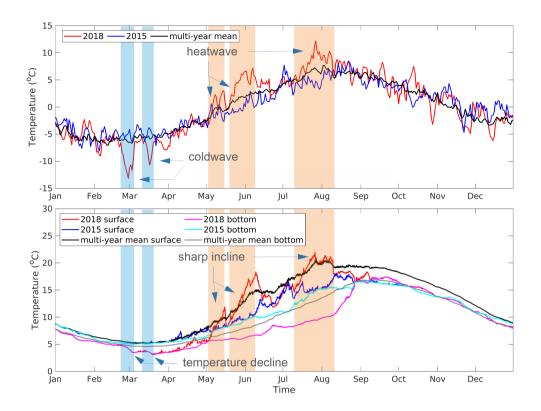


Figure 5. Upper panel: Annual variation in the simulated air temperature (with the multiyear mean removed) at NSB III for 2018 (red line), 2015 (blue line) and the multiyear mean (black line). The In the warm season of 2018, the periods in which the air temperature increased rapidly during was higher than the warming season of 2018 multiyear mean and the SST increased are demonstrated delineated with orange frames. Likewise, in the early spring of 2018, the periods in which the air temperature decreases rapidly in early spring was lower than the multiyear mean and the SST decreased are demonstrated delineated with blue frames. Bottom panel: Similar to the upper panel but for the simulated seawater water temperature at the surface and the bottom.

period of these three periods, the SST sharply inclined increased, whereas the water temperature in the deep deeper layers hardly changed. In 2015, the SST 'heat spikes' were present in the SST associated with a rapid air temperature increase associated with rapidly increasing air temperatures from June to July. However, contrast to the summer of 2018, the summer of 2015 was colder than the average during the warming season warm season average, with the maximum air temperature anomaly being 3°C lower than the multiyear mean.

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In the absence of turbulent mixing, high air temperatures (warmer summers) lead to a high SST high SSTs and intensify the temperature differences between the local sea surfaceand the bottom. This can be seen local surface—bottom temperature differences. This is evident in the three 'heat spike' 'heat spike' periods in 2018. Note that the first 'heat spike' in 2018, the first 'heat spike' was not identified in as an MHW event due to the relatively low temperature. In 2015 temperatures

therein. Furthermore, no atmospheric heatwave or MHW events were detected -in 2015. Correspondingly, the SST was below the average, and the surface-to-bottom surface-bottom temperature difference was smaller than the multiyear mean.

The Seawater exhibits a longer memory of seawater than that of air to low temperatures leads to low temperatures than does the atmosphere; this leads to a larger and more stable temperature thermal stratification. As shown in Figure 5, at the end of February to middle March into mid-March 2018, there were two periods of 'cold waves' cold spells with air temperatures 7°C lower than the multiple-year mean. As a multiyear mean. In response, the seawater was colder than usual, causing the bottom temperature to be 2°C lower than the average. This low-temperature signal remained much longer in the water than in the atmosphere and yielded colder bottom water temperatures over the entire warming warm season.

The monthly mean spatial distribution of the potential energy anomaly (ϕ) in the southern North Sea in 2018 (Figure 6) provides an overview of the seasonal cycle of water thermal stratification development during the extreme temperature conditions extreme temperature events. The water become stratified column was considered to be stratified when ϕ exceeds 50 J m⁻³, which implies the amount of energy required to instantaneously homogenise a 60 m deep water column with a surface—bottom density difference of 1 kg m⁻³, where 60 m is approximately the average water depth of the North Sea (excluding the Norwegian Channel). The water becomes stratified by April in the northern part of the domain, i.e., the north side to the north of the 50m isobath. From May to August, the stratification developed m isobath, whereas to the south, density stratification hardly occurs in the winter months (December through February), except off the Dutch coast and the German Bight. The potential energy anomaly increases after April, while stratification develops in the area north to of 54°N latitude: South of the 50 m isobath, the from May to August. The potential energy anomaly reached reached 400 J m⁻³ on average from July to early August, with a maximum value of approximately 800 J m⁻³ in the area between the Dogger Bank and MAR-NET station NSB III. In September, the 50 J m⁻³ isoline retreated retreats to the north of the 50 m depth line. South isobath. Moreover, south of 54°N latitude, the water column was is mostly well mixed. The and the stratification near the Dutch coast and the German Bight was due is attributable to river runoff.

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To illustrate inter-annual The intensity of the summer stratification varies over time. To illustrate the interannual variability of the water stratification in the southern North Sea, the potential energy anomaly of each year to the multi-year meant relative to the multiyear mean (2011-2018) is computed by averaging for threemonths the anomalies over a three—month period from June to August (the main stratification period, see Figure 6). The results are shown in Figure 7. In the years 2013, 2014 and 2018, the stratification is stronger than the average, whereas, in the other years the stratification is weaker. In the area areas where the water depth is less shallower than 50meters m, the largest inter-annual interannual variation occurs between 3-83 and 8°E longitude and north to 54°N latitude. The mean potential energy anomaly is 300 ~ 400 300 - 400 J m⁻³ higher than the multiyear mean in 2018, while it is 200 ~ 300 200 - 300 J m⁻³ lower than average in 2015. Note that the largest inter-annual variations of interannual variations in the stratification occur in the east eastern part of the southern North Sea.

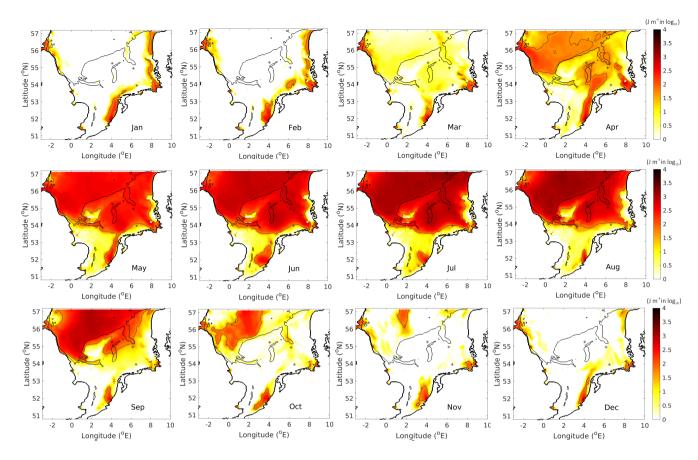


Figure 6. Evolution of the monthly mean potential energy anomaly ϕ (see equation Eq. 1, unit: J m⁻³ in log10 on a log10 scale) in for 2018. Dashed The dashed line indicates the location where $\phi = 1.7$ J m⁻³ on log10 scale (or $\phi = 50$ J m⁻³). The water column is considered to be stratified when ϕ is above this value. Thin black lines indicate the location of the 50 m depthisobath.

4 Discussion

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As illustrated in Figures 6 and 7, the stratification/destratification process in the North Sea was temporally and spatially dependent. The data analysed at a single point was were incapable of revealing a complete image of the relationship between the seasonal thermal stratification and the varying air temperatures in the North Sea. van Leeuwen et al. (2015) investigated the physical conditions in the North Sea, and attributed regimes of different types of stratification to thermal-inducedthermally induced, salt-induced, river-induced and turbulent tidal mixing. They found that in the southern North Sea, a large area could not be characterised by a dominant physical mechanism. With the focus on thermal-induced stratification, we analysed Focusing on thermally induced stratification, the relation between the variation in air temperature and the seasonal thermal stratification in the North Sea. A was analysed. The correlation coefficient R that indicates a reflecting the linear correlation between the air temperature and the potential energy anomaly for the summer of 2018 was computed and mapped, as shown, and its

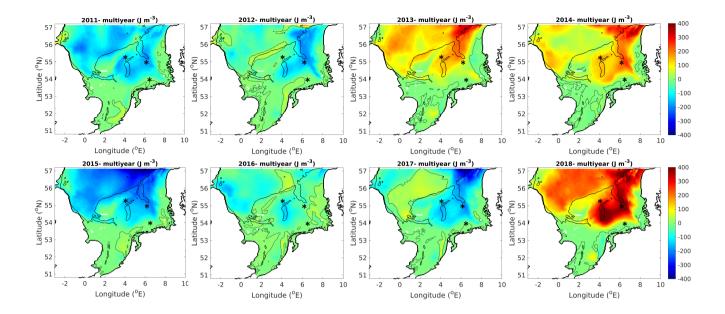


Figure 7. The difference in the three-monthly mean (June, July, August) potential energy anomaly (J m⁻³) averaged over three month (June, July and August) between a specific year and the multiyear mean. Dashed The dashed line indicates $\phi = 50$ J m⁻³. Thin black lines indicate the location of the 50 m depthisobath.

distribution is mapped in Figure 8. The coefficient High coefficients (R > 0.8 was) were obtained mainly in the middle and northern parts of the North Sea (Figure 8a). This area was is consistent with the regime of seasonal stratification identified in van Leeuwen et al. (2015). Closer to the coast, a lower R was values were obtained. Five scattered locations in the southern North Sea were selected regarding the different values of R (see Figure 8a) and scattered based on the air temperature versus potential energy anomaly (Figure 8b). Note that both the Dogger Bank and the NSB III are stations site are located in the regime region for which the stratification type was unclassified in van Leeuwen et al. (2015). A linear correlation existed between the increase in air temperature and the increasing stratification, with R = 0.8 at Northsea Mid the Northsea Mid site and R = 0.7 at the Dogger Bank. The larger potential energy anomaly anomalies in the middle and northern North Sea (see 'Northsea Mid' in Figure 8a) was due were attributed to the deeper water depthdepths therein. At NSB III, R = 0.5 also illustrates similarly reflects a linear increase in stratification with the air temperature. At Off the Dutch Coast and along the Norwegian Trench, R was negative. For ; at the former location, the water column was stratified due to river runoff, and for while at the latter, the water was permanently stratified. The potential energy anomaly was uncorrelated with the air temperatures at the two locations. Mapping the correlation between the air temperature and the potential energy anomaly for different years yielded similar spatial patterns and values of R in the North Sea except for the middle part of the southern North Sea, where lower R values

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temperature.

were found for the years with relatively <u>colder_cold</u> summers. For example, in 2015, R fell by $0.1 \sim 0.3$ in the area between the Dogger Bank and NSB III (not shown), indicating a much lower correlation between the summer stratification and air

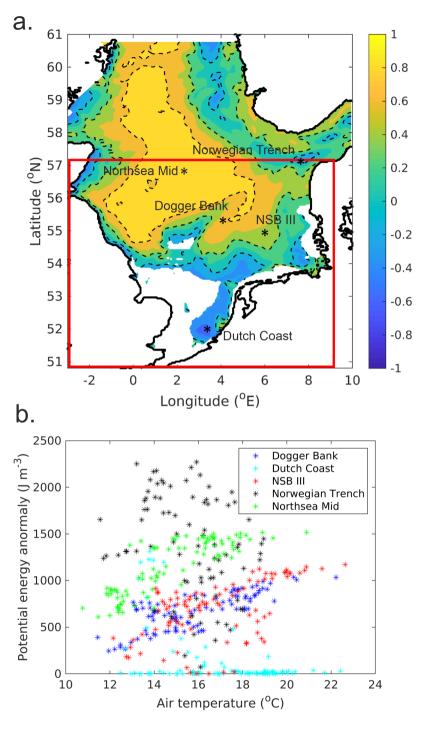


Figure 8. (a): Computed correlation coefficient ${}^4R^4R^2$ between the air temperature and the potential energy anomaly for summer 2018 (June-August June, July and August). Note that the area with no stratification ($\phi < 50 \text{ J m}^{-3}$) is eut offexcluded. Dashed contours indicate R = 0,0.4 and 0.8. (b): The relationship Relationship between the air temperature and the potential energy anomaly in the different regimes of the North Sea. The locations are illustrated in (a). The red frame indicates the region of the southern North Sea.

Similar to that of Figure 4, the MHW events for each warming warm season (May 1 to August 31) of during the simulation period $2011\sim -2018$ were detected, and the number of MHW days (\mathcal{M}) was counted. Then, the changes in \mathcal{M} with respect to its multiyear mean $\sum_{i=1}^n \left| \mathcal{M}_i - \overline{\mathcal{M}_n} \right|$ was computed for the modelling period. Here, "n=1, 2, 3,..." counts denotes the number of years. The , and an overline ($\bar{\cdot}$) denotes the multiyear mean. Similarly, the number of days (\mathcal{N}) that the water column was stratified ($\phi > 50 \text{ J m}^{-3}$) and the changes in stratified days $\sum_{i=1}^n \left| \mathcal{N}_i - \overline{\mathcal{N}_n} \right|$ were computed. The Finally, the sensitivity of stratification to the occurrence of heatwaves was quantified with the ratio between the varying r between the change in the number of heatwave days and varying water-stratified the change in the number of water stratification days:

$$r = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left| \mathcal{N}_{i} - \overline{\mathcal{N}}_{n} \right|}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left| \mathcal{M}_{i} - \overline{\mathcal{M}}_{n} \right|}.$$
 (6)

Note that the region where no MHW events were detected ($\mathcal{M}=0$) was not considered. Figure 9 shows the spatial distribution of r in the North Sea. The value of where r varies between $0\sim1.0$ and 1. When r=0, the number of days that when the water column is stratified does not change interannually. This pattern occurs for both permanently stratified regions and permanently mixed regions. The former was found in the Norwegian Trench and the latter was mainly found in the west found mainly in the western part of the southern North Sea, as well as in the shallow shoal of the Dogger Bank, along the Danish coast and in the southern part of the German Bight. If the ratio In contrast, when r=1, i.e., the changes the change in the number of water stratification days equal the equals the change in the number of MHW days, it which illustrates the dependence of the thermal stratification on the occurrence of MHWs. In the region where the water depth was is greater than 50m-m, r<0.2. This region was is consistent with the region where R>0.6, where stratification seasonally occurs with annual varying air temperature. South to occurs seasonally with annually varying air temperatures. South of the 50m depth m isobath, r>0.3 and increased towards the coasts, indicating an enhanced influence of MHWs on water stratification. The region where r reached the maximum peaked was between 6.5°E and the Danish coast. It is worth noting that an MHW causes density stratification within the water column, and that the resulting stratification hampers the transfer of heat along the water column and intensifies the occurrence of an MHW.

Large values for of r were also observed between the MHW-induced stratification region and the permanently mixed region and near the UK coast-United Kingdom coastline in the northern North Sea. These regions are shallow and mostly mixed by tides. The water stratification is due to the short and intensive increase in air temperature. As shown in Figure 5, three periods of stratification ($\phi > 50 \text{ J m}^{-3}$) were detected. Similar to the counting of MHW days, we counted how MHW days were counted, the number of days from May to August of 2011–2018 during 2011–2018 in which the air temperature sharply increased was obtained. In the present study, the criterion was set to 0.2°C/day , i.e., the air temperature increase rate was at least two times larger than the warming period averaged increase rate of rate of increase in the multiyear mean averaged over the warm season (see Figure 5, upper panel). After applying Eq. 6, a the ratio between the changes in intensive air temperature change in the number of water stratification days was obtained (see Figure 10). Overall, the spatial distribution of the ratio between the changes in intensive air temperature

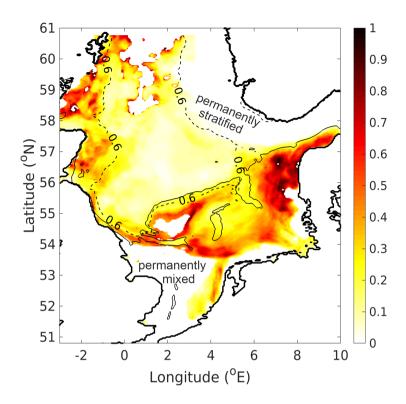


Figure 9. The ratio between Ratio of the number of water stratification days when to the water was stratified and the number of days with MHW events days. The dashed contour line corresponds to the correlation coefficient ${}^{4}R = 0.6$ between the air temperature and the potential energy anomaly for the multiyear mean of the summer time of the summer

the the numbers of MHW and water stratification this ratio was similar to that of the ratio between the changes in MHW days and the the numbers of MHW and water stratification days. This was particularly found true in the area adjacent to the tidal mixing zone and the MHW-induced stratification zone. The region was; this region is consistent with the intermittently stratified domain characterised by van Leeuwen et al. (2015). It is also important to stress the role of the winter spring cold spell, which reduces the SST (see Figure 4), thus increasing the vertical instability of the water column and enhancing vertical mixing. This results in the seawater being colder than average before the summer temperature rises, especially in the deeper water layers, via the redistribution of the heat through the water column. Hence, a more persistent thermal stratification is likely to be obtained in the southern North Sea.

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The sensitivity of thermal stratification to summer heatwaves the occurrence of an MHW was related to changes in water depth. Figure 11 presents the annual variation in the gradient Richardson number R_i for the selected stations with different depths in the regime where $R \ge 0$ (see Figure 8). The water column was considered stably stratified when $\log_{10}(R_i) \ge 1$; i.e., the buoyancy was an order of magnitude larger than the vertical shear. For In both 2015 and 2018, the water column became stratified from May to September in the middle of the North Sea, with a comparable value of the gradient exhibiting comparable

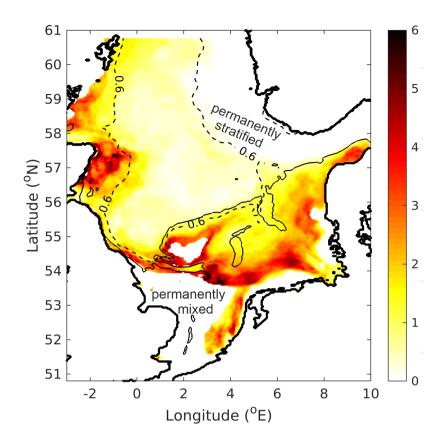


Figure 10. The ratio Ratio between the number of days when the water is stratified and the number of days in intensive when the air temperature incline intensively increases. The contour line with a value of 0.6 indicates the area with a correlation coefficient ${}^{4}R = 0.6$ between the air temperature and the potential energy anomaly for the summer time of the multiyear mean of the summer time. The thin solid line indicates the 50 m isobath.

values of R_i . While approaching the coast, the gradient Approaching the coast (with decreasing water depth), R_i decreases with the reduced water depth decreases. At Fino-1, the water column was mostly well-mixed, despite some intermittent stratifications on the time scale of $1 \sim 2 \cdot 1 - 2$ days. Differences between 2015 and 2018 were observed at in the Dogger Bank and at NSB III. At In the Dogger Bank, stratification occurred from June to the end of August in 2015, which was both shorter and less intensive than the same period in 2018. At NSB III, stable stratification existed only in 2018.

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Further analysis of the vertical distribution of the gradient R_i revealed that the maximum value of R_i was obtained in the middle of the water column. At the Northsea Mid, it was located the peak was located at a depth of approximately 35m in depth m. Below 45 m, $\log_{10}(R_i) \sim 0$, and the water column was homogeneous throughout the entire year. At NSB III, the period in which the large R_i values occurred were recorded was consistent with the occurrence of MHW events. In 2018, $\log_{10}(R_i) \geq 1$ during June and from early July to August. Moreover, in the Dogger Bank and at NSB IIIthat, the maximum R_i shifted from the upper water layers down to the bottom with the value increased during the early stage of the warming warm

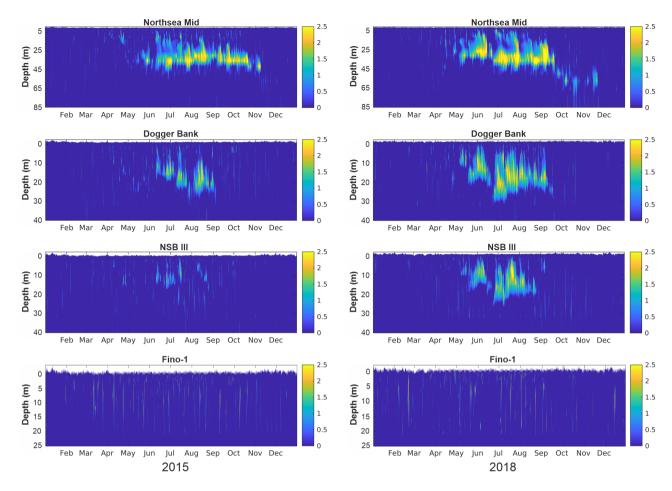


Figure 11. Gradient Ri Richardson numbers R_i for 2015 (left column) and 2018 (right column) at the Northsea Mid, Dogger Bank, NSB III and Fino-1 on a log10 log10 scale.

season. However, in the late warming warm season (July and August), the maximum R_i remained in the middle water layers. At both Dogger Bank and NSB III, the water column below the 25m depth m was homogeneous throughout the entire year. At Fino-1, the water depth (25 m) was too shallow to maintain long-term stable stratification.

Note that the present study takes into account the impact of ocean waves on circulation. Such an impact usually results from different processes, e.g., turbulence due to breaking/nonbreaking waves and the transfer of momentum from breaking waves to currents (Davies et al., 2000; Babanin, 2006; Breivik et al., 2015). The latter is important in shallow waters such as the Baltic Sea (Alari et al., 2016) and the North Sea (Staneva et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2019). By including wave-induced turbulent mixing, the simulation was capable of resolving the turbulent mixing length and modelling the vertical stratification and circulation in the North Sea (Staneva et al., 2017, 2021), especially near the coastal zones. Figure 12 shows the modelled seasonal mean mixed layer depth (MLD) of the coupled NEMO-WAM model run in 2018 and the relative changes when comparing the fully coupled run with the uncoupled run, i.e., (MLD_{coupled} – MLD_{uncoupled})/MLD_{coupled} × 100%. Following the annual water

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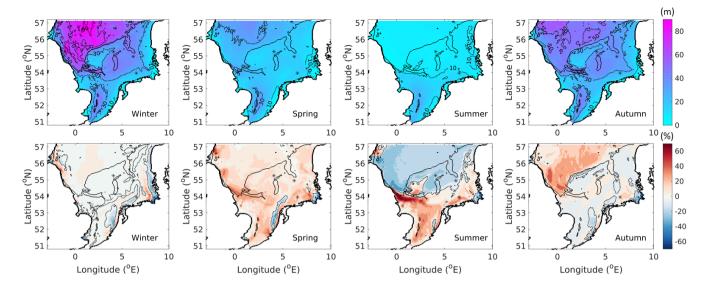


Figure 12. Upper panels: The seasonal mean mixed layer depth (MLD) of the coupled NEMO-WAM model run. Lower panels: The relative changes in the MLD when comparing the coupled run with the stand-alone NEMO (uncoupled) run. Dotted lines in the lower panels indicate the 0% contour.

temperature cycle, the MLD in the southern North Sea decreases from winter to summer and rises again in autumn. The MLD changes more quickly in deeper regions than in shallow coastal areas. There is almost no seasonal cycle along the coast of the German Bight. The large difference in the MLD between the coupled and uncoupled runs is found from spring to autumn, when stratification develops with the changing air temperature. In summer, the MLD of the coupled run is approximately 20 - 40% larger than that of the uncoupled run in the southern North Sea, whereas it is approximately 20% smaller north to the 54° N. In autumn, the stratification disappears in the southern North Sea, where the MLD differences drop between -10 and 10%. In the north, where the water depth is deeper than 50 m, the MLD of the coupled run is approximately 20% larger than the MLD of the uncoupled run.

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Wave-induced processes also change the heat fluxes at the water surface (Figure 13). The net heat flux is positive overall (from the air to the sea) in spring and summer and negative (from the sea to the air) in winter and autumn. The importance of wave forcing for ocean predictions in the North Sea has been demonstrated by Staneva et al. (2017). Wave-induced processes impact the distribution of the heat fluxes. In summer, in the southern North Sea, the fluxes increase by approximately 20 - 40%, while a reduction of 20 - 50% occurs along the coastal, well-mixed area of the German Bight. For further details of the wave impacts, refer to the Supplemental materials for Materials for the results of the model that run where NEMO was uncoupled with WAM.

Apart from circulation-wave coupling, the stratification itself also influenced circulation. On a time mean momentum budget, where baroclinic forcing balances the internal friction, turbulent eddy viscosity decreases while turbulence is eliminated by the increasing degree of stratification. Baroclinic circulation is influences the circulation. Baroclinic circulation, a result of

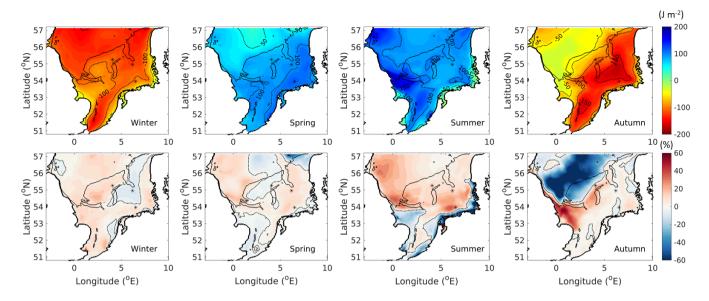


Figure 13. Same as Figure 12, but for the surface heat fluxes. In the upper panels, positive values denote net fluxes from the air to the sea.

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the balance between baroclinic forcing and friction, becomes more pronounced with stronger current velocities (larger vertical shear) in warmer climate conditions. Huang et al. (1999) modelled the seasonal thermal stratification and baroclinic circulation under warmer conditions when the turbulent eddy viscosity is eliminated by the increased stratification. Huang et al. (1999) showed that water transport in the Bohai Sea, where the water depth is shallow (with a maximum of approximately 70 m). They showed an enhancement of water transport by baroclinic circulation from a weakly stratified situation is enhanced from weak stratification in spring to a strongly stratified situation strong stratification in summer. In the North Sea, Lwiza et al. (1991) conducted a study of thermal-induced circulation along tidal mixing fronts in summer. Luyten et al. (1999) further analysed the the relations between the cycle of thermal fronts and baroclinic circulation in the North Sea at different ranges of timescales . They showed the increase/decrease in vertical mixing with the enhancement/reduction of the depth mean temperature in summer through the surface heat flux. Moreover, decreased vertical turbulent mixing reduced were analysed at different timescales (Lwiza et al., 1991; Luyten et al., 1999). Decreased vertical turbulent mixing reduces the magnitude and horizontal shear of the baroclinic currents. This was found to be important feedback from turbulent mixing to the frontal temperature gradients and baroclinic circulation (Luyten et al., 2003). These mechanisms would be pronounced in the case of the extreme events. Schrum et al. (2003) identified unusual stratification and these mechanisms become further pronounced when extreme meteorological events occur. By analysing 40 years of data, Schrum et al. (2003) identified an unusual stratification due to wind and volume transport in the 1990sby analysing 40-year data. However, the study was still in a preliminary stage and with a focus on decadal timescale wind impacts on the exchange flow at the open boundaries. Recently, Chen et al. (2021) investigated the heat budget of the North Sea. They demonstrated that modifying water temperatures by assimilating satellite SST had an impact on the water circulation on an annual timescale and further affected advective heat transport and demonstrated that the modification of SST affects the advection of water and transport of heat in the North Sea. Comparatively, extreme events, i.e., summer heatwaves, had have more intensive influences on SSTbut within a relatively, albeit on a shorter timescale. Exploring the reaction Certainly, exploring the responses of the regional water circulation to extreme events in the southern North Sea is an interesting topic and deserves further study.

5 Conclusions

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This study investigated the influence of extreme elimate_meteorological events, i.e., European heatwaves, on the occurrence of the summer stratification in the North Sea. With a numerical model that simulated the water temperatures in over multiple years, the this work addressed the question remaining after the study by van Leeuwen et al. (2015): What kind of 'interannual variability' results in the failure of classifying to classify the stratification regimes in one-third of the North Seaas one of the defined stratification regimes?

Based on the model simulations, a potential energy anomaly was calculated for multiple years in the North Sea model domain. In the southern North Sea, stratification developed from May to August. The intensity of this stratification presented an obvious interannual variation that was related to the occurrence of summer heatwave events. The data from 2018 were analysed as a case study and compared with those of the multiple year the multiyear mean and the normal year 2015. data during a normal year (i.e., 2015). Regarding the main factors that affect the intensity and duration of the thermal stratification in the southern North Sea, the comparison of temperature data near the water surface and the bottom revealed three aspects. The first was the intense increase in SST in over a short timeand, the second was a relatively higher water temperature during summer compared to the multiple-year mean. The than the multiyear mean, and the third was the memory of the near-bottom water layer to the low air temperatures during early spring.

By computing the correlation coefficient (*R*) between the air temperatures and the potential energy anomaly, we identified the region of thermal stratification in the North Sea was identified (*R* > 0). The region covered This region covers the North Sea north of 54°N of the North Sea, excluding the permanently stratified Norwegian Trench and the permanently well-mixed coastal seas near the Danish Wadden Sea. Features in stratification were different between the north and south sides at a 50-m depth. Contrary The features of this stratification differed between the northern and southern sides of 54°N at a depth of 50 m. In contrast to the northern part, where the water column was seasonally stratified every year, the southern part was stratified in the years when heatwaves occurred. The dependence of thermal stratification on heatwave events was quantified by the ratio *r* between the change in the number of water stratification days in 2011-2018-2011 and the change in the number of MHW days during the same period. The A ratio *r* = 1 indicates that the change in the number of thermal stratification days is the same as the change in that of MHW days. Large ratios (*r* > 0.8)were found on the southern side to the south of the 50m isobath m isobath (between 6.5°E and the Danish coast, which covered), covering most of the region left with an unclassified stratification regime of by van Leeuwen et al. (2015).

Water depth appeared to be the factor that controlled the sensitivity of the stratification to the summer heatwave. Apart from summer heatwave events. In addition to proximity to the coast, the stratified period was more stratification period was highly

dependent on the number of days a heatwave event lasted. After analysing the structure of the gradient Richardson number R_i , it was found that heatwave-induced seasonal stratification mainly occurred occurred mainly in the region where the water depth was is between 35 m and 50 m.

This research is the first to link heat wave events with heatwave events to the occurrence and persistence of density stratification in the southern North Sea. In a broader context, this research will is expected to have fundamental significance for further discussion of investigating the secondary effects of heat wave heatwave events, such as in ecosystems, fisheries, and sediment dynamics. With the growing debate regarding the impacts of increasing extreme climate events, increasingly extreme meteorological events, future assessments of these factors will be of more only growing importance in the North Seain the future.

Code availability. The model code is available at https://www.nemo-ocean.eu/for NEMO and https://github.com/mywave/WA M for WAM.

Data availability. The outputs of the GCOAST simulations (in NetCDF format) are available upon request to the corresponding author.

Appendix A: Estimates of the oceanic water seawater density

The water density ρ in Eq. 2 is given by

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$$\rho(S,T) = \rho_r + AS + BS^{\frac{3}{2}} + CS^2$$
. (A1)

In this the above equation, S is the salinity of sea water in ppt (seawater in parts per thousand by volume (ppt). The reference density ρ_r , and the coefficients A, B and C are also functions of the potential temperature T in (°Cwith-) following the expressions given by Millero and Poisso (1981):

$$\begin{split} \rho_{\rm r} = &999.842594 + 6.793952 \times 10^{-2}T - 9.095290 \times 10^{-3}T^2 \\ + &1.001685 \times 10^{-4}T^3 - 1.120083 \times 10^{-6}T^4 \\ &+ 6.536332 \times 10^{-9}T^5; \\ \mathbf{A} = &8.24493 \times 10^{-1} - 4.0899 \times 10^{-3}T + 7.6438 \times 10^{-5}T^2 \\ &- 8.2467 \times 10^{-7}T^3 + 5.3875 \times 10^{-9}T^4; \\ \mathbf{B} = &- 5.72466 \times 10^{-3} + 1.0227 \times 10^{-4}T \\ 450 &- 1.6546 \times 10^{-6}T^2; \\ \mathbf{C} = &4.8314 \times 10^{-4}. \end{split}$$

Here, S and T are obtained from the model with a temporal resolution of 6-hours. Moreover, at the 6-hour resolution model output of the sea surface elevation η is taken for computation (see the main text eqEq. 1 and 2Eq. 2 in the main text).

Author contributions. Wei Chen wrote the article and analysed and interpreted the results. Wei Chen and Joanna Staneva conceived the study. Sebastian Grayek ran the simulations and was responsible for all technical issues of the modelling. Joanna Staneva and Johannes Schulz-Stellenfleth contributed to the writing. Jens Greinert performed the field work and collected observational data.

Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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