

1 **No consistent simulated trends in the Atlantic**
2 **Meridional Overturning Circulation for the past 6,000**
3 **years**

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24 **Key Points:**

- 25 • A multi-model ensemble of Holocene transient simulations by general circulation
26 models is emerging
- 27 • It suggests that neither the overall AMOC strength, nor its variability, changed
28 during the mid-to-late Holocene
- 29 • This lack of overall change is consistent with available proxy reconstructions

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Abstract

The Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) is a key feature of the North Atlantic with global ocean impacts. The AMOC's response to past changes in forcings during the Holocene provides important context for the coming centuries. Here, we investigate AMOC trends using an emerging set of transient simulations using multiple global climate models for the past 6,000 years. We find no consistent changes in the overall AMOC strength across the simulations, which conforms with reconstructions assimilating proxy records. Similarly, the decadal variability of the AMOC does not change during the mid- and late-Holocene. There are interesting AMOC changes seen in the early Holocene, but their nature depends a lot on which inputs are used to drive the experiment.

Plain Language Summary

The Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) is a deep ocean circulation system that is both important for climate and vulnerable to climate changes. Here we use a set of multiple climate models to look at how the AMOC responded to changes in climate drivers over the past few thousand years. The changes are only small in all of the models, and do not always agree in direction. The AMOC naturally varies on decadal timescales, but we do not see any strong trends in its variability either. These results fit with recent data reconstructions suggesting that the models are reasonable in their representation of the Holocene AMOC.

1 Introduction

The Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC; Rahmstorf, 2006) is a large-scale ocean circulation that helps transport heat poleward moderating the climate of Europe and eastern North America (Cherchi, 2019). Direct observations of it only became available in 21st century, and show a noticeable weakening (Smeed et al., 2018) that is not captured by climate models (Weijer et al., 2020). Despite this inconsistency, the IPCC Assessment Report 6 (AR6) projects a further weakening in AMOC strength with high confidence (Fox-Kemper et al., 2021), although the magnitude remains uncertain. Evaluating the response of models to past variations in boundary conditions (such as orbital configuration and greenhouse gases levels, ice sheet extent) against proxy-derived reconstructions of the AMOC can potentially help constrain the uncertainty in future projections (Kageyama et al., 2018).

The Holocene Epoch (roughly the past 12,000 years) saw gradual changes in the seasonal cycle of incoming solar radiation due to the changes in the orbital configuration (Braconnot et al., 2019; Otto-Bliesner et al., 2017). There were also decreasing greenhouse gases (GHG; CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O) concentrations, followed by an gradual increase until industrialisation (Tian et al., 2022; He, 2011). The decaying ice-sheets released meltwater throughout the early Holocene (Peltier et al., 2015; Argus et al., 2014), with an abrupt release into the Labrador Sea during the 8.2 ka event (Aguilar et al., 2021). Reconstructions also show variations in anthropogenic land-use, total solar irradiance (Vieira et al., 2011), and volcanic activity (Kobashi et al., 2017) that was particularly strong at 8.6-8 ka BP and 7.5-7 ka BP.

Proxy reconstructions of Holocene AMOC and its deep water components argue for a range of long-term changes. Those that provide information on the overall integrated AMOC all suggest a slightly weaker early Holocene AMOC. For the mid to late Holocene behaviour they can be split into two main groups. Reconstructions from the Florida Straits (Lynch-Stieglitz et al., 2009) or based on Pa/Th ratios (e.g Ng et al., 2018; Lippold et al., 2019; Hoffmann et al., 2018) suggest little change in AMOC strength since 9,000 years ago. Conversely, reconstructions based on SST fingerprints and changes in seawater Cd concentration suggest a gradual overall decline in AMOC from the mid to late Holocene (Ayache et al., 2018; Valley et al., 2022). Data assimilation approaches also suggest little long-term AMOC change in the Holocene (Ritz et al., 2013; Osman et al., 2021).

79 Snapshot equilibrium simulations for 6,000 years ago (6 ka) have been performed for the
80 *midHolocene* experiment of the Palaeoclimate Modelling Intercomparison Project (PMIP;
81 Kageyama et al., 2018). Brierley et al. (2020) find that the AMOC strength in the *mid-*
82 *Holocene* ensemble is not markedly different. These results are supported by associated
83 simulations of the last interglacial (Jiang et al., 2023). There is known to a resolution de-
84 pendency (Shi & Lohmann, 2016; Shi et al., 2020), which itself could vary by model (Jackson
85 et al., 2020).

86 Currently there is an effort in the community to undertake transient Holocene simula-
87 tions, which focus on analysing the time-dependent interactions between different compo-
88 nents in the Earth system and the long-term climate evolution. Here we collate the emerging
89 set of Holocene transient simulations from different modelling groups to further investigate
90 whether there is a consistent message from the ensemble about trends in (i) AMOC strength,
91 (ii) its spatial structure and (iii) its internal/decadal variability since 6,000 years ago. Sum-
92 mary information about the different transient simulations is given in Section 2, along with
93 an explanation of the analysis procedures. Further information about each of the individual
94 simulations can be found in the supplemental material. The results of the AMOC trends in
95 Holocene transient runs are presented in Section 3, followed by discussion and conclusions
96 in the last section.

97 2 Data and methods

98 We use nine transient model simulations from eight different coupled climate models
99 (summarised in Table 1). All of the simulations are run continuously towards the present
100 day from 6ka or earlier. Not all of the models are truly independent: EC-Earth3-veg-LR,
101 KCM, and IPSL-CM5 use NEMO ocean model NEMO at different resolutions (Madec et al.,
102 2008; Crosta et al., 2018); AWI-ESM-2, MPI-ESM, and KCM have versions of the ECHAM
103 atmosphere (Shi et al., 2020; Sidorenko et al., 2019; Mauritsen et al., 2019; Roeckner et al.,
104 2003).

105 All simulations incorporate changes in the orbital configuration, and their associated
106 changes in the seasonal distribution of incoming solar radiation across Earth (Otto-Bliesner
107 et al., 2017). Also varying concentrations of well-mixed greenhouse gases are specified in
108 every simulation using ice-core records, although the precise reconstructions used do differ.
109 Those simulations that start in the early Holocene generally incorporate changes in ice-
110 sheet topography and their associated changes in the land-sea mask (Otto-Bliesner et al.,
111 2006; Tian et al., 2022; Hopcroft & Valdes, 2021). Only the simulations with CCSM3
112 impose meltwater fluxes implied by changes in ice-sheet topography. Reconstructions of
113 volcanic forcing and variations in total solar irradiance introduce forced variability into the
114 simulations, although this has only been done in a single simulation (Dallmeyer et al., 2021).
115 Anthropogenic impacts on global vegetation started with the development of farming in the
116 early Holocene, but became much more substantial approaching the industrial period (Smith
117 & Zeder, 2013). These are incorporated by MPI-ESM using the reconstructions after Hurtt
118 et al. (2011) and Lawrence et al. (2016), but only for the last millennium (850 – 1850 CE).

119 The zonal-averaged meridional overturning streamfunction in the Atlantic basin is com-
120 puted for each decade. Given the very weak seasonal cycle in the ocean interior, calendar
121 adjustments to account for variations in the month lengths (Shi et al., 2022) have not been
122 applied. The strength of the AMOC is taken as the maximum streamfunction at 30°N below
123 500m after Brierley et al. (2020). The computation of the standard deviation of the AMOC
124 at 30°N below 500m is based on a sliding 100-year time window, starting from at earliest 7
125 ka BP.

Table 1. The ensemble of Holocene transient simulations, their experimental design and primary publication about the individual model description.

Model	Length of run	Forcings	Ocean resolution (horizontally, vertically)	Reference
AWI-ESM-2	6ka BP - 0ka BP	orbital, GHG	multi-resolution (finest 25km in polar), 46 levels	Shi et al. (2022)
CCSM3	22ka BP - 0ka BP	orbital, GHG, land-ice, meltwater	longitude 3.6°, latitude varies (finer 0.9° near equator), 25 levels	Otto-Bliesner et al. (2006)
CESM1.2.1	11.5ka - 0.1ka BP	orbital, GHG, ice-sheets and topography	1° horizontal grid, 60 levels	Tian et al. (2022)
EC-Earth3-veg-LR	8ka - 0 ka BP	orbital, GHG	1° horizontal grid, 75 levels	Zhang et al. (2021)
HadCM3-M2.1d*	10ka - 0 ka BP	orbital, GHG, ice-sheets and sea-level *	1.25° × 1.25°, 20 levels	Hopcroft and Valdes (2021)
IPSL-CM5†	6ka - 0 ka BP	orbital, GHG	longitude 2°, latitude 0.5-2° (finer near equator), 31 levels	Braconnot et al. (2019)
KCM	9.5ka - 0 ka BP	orbital, GHG	2° × 2°, 31 levels	Segsneider et al. (2018)
MPI-ESM‡	8ka BP - 0.15ka BP	orbital, GHG, land-use, ozone, with or without volcanic and solar	1.5° horizontal grid, 41 levels	Bader et al. (2020)

*In this study, we use the simplest of the HadCM3-M2.1d ensemble members, which is the ‘xokm’ simulation. † This simulation is referred to as ‘TR5AS-V1r01’ in Braconnot et al. (2019). ‡ Two simulations of MPI-ESM are used here: SLO50 is the main focus of Bader et al. (2020) and includes volcanic and solar forcing variations, SLO43 does not include them and is only considered as a sensitivity run in Bader et al. (2020).

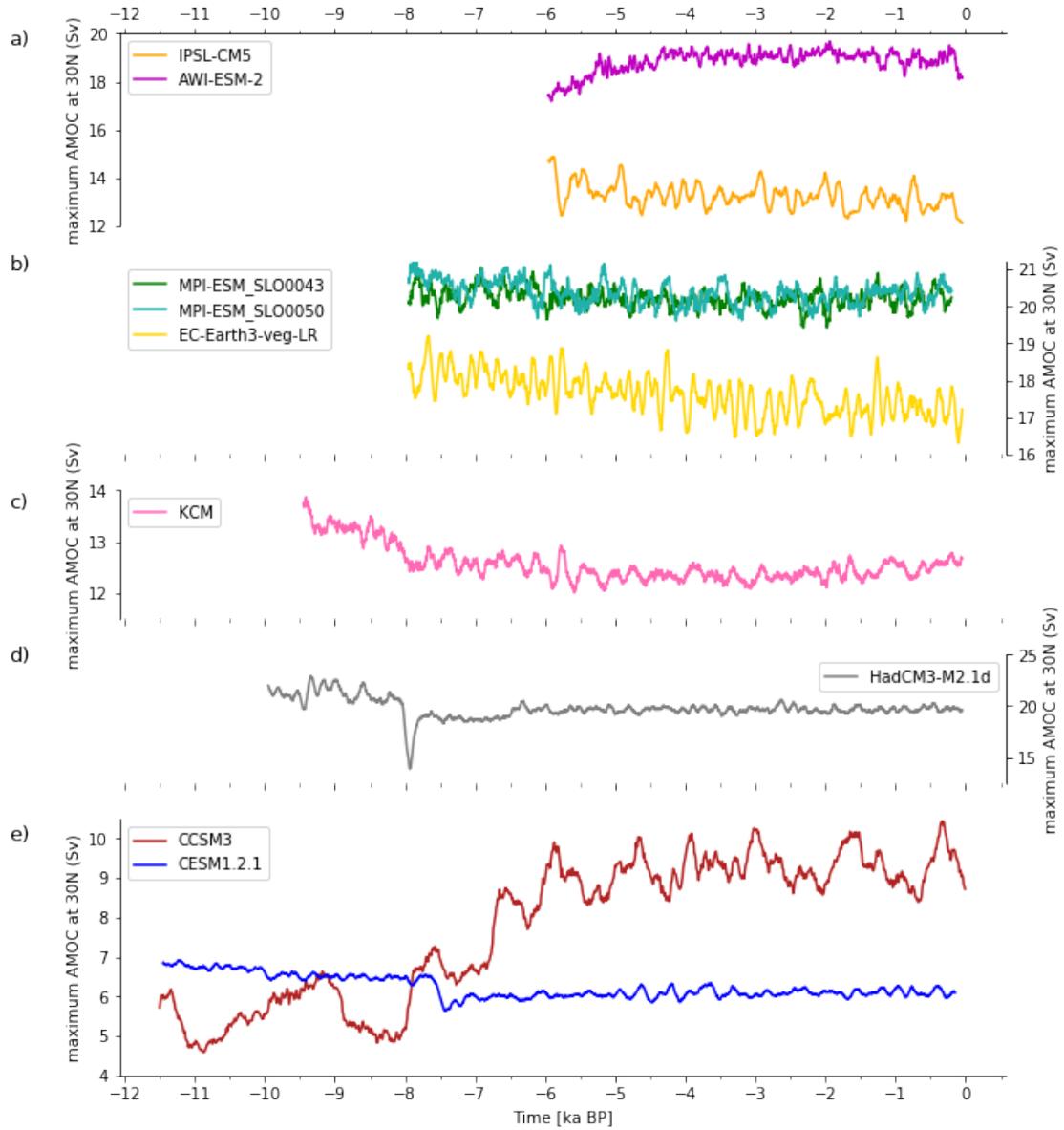


Figure 1. Evolution of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) in nine climate model simulations. The AMOC strength is tracked by the maximum meridional overturning streamfunction at 30°N below 500m (at a decadal resolution, smoothed by a 100-year running mean). Note the different vertical scales.

126 3 Results

127 3.1 Trends in maximum AMOC Strength

128 The evolution of maximum AMOC strength in each transient simulation is shown in
 129 Fig. 1. Changes in AMOC since industrialisation are not captured through a combination
 130 of the varying simulation end dates and the 100-year running mean used to smooth the
 131 timeseries. Absolute AMOC strength differs substantially between the models (Fig. 1),
 132 which is mainly due to the model physics. Two simulations show an overall increasing trend
 133 during the past 7,000 years: AWI-ESM-2 (Shi et al., 2022) and CCSM3 (Otto-Bliesner et
 134 al., 2006). AWI-ESM-2 sees an enhancement of the AMOC by 10% during 6-4 ka BP, after
 135 which the AMOC remains relatively stable and a slight decreasing trend is shown in the late
 136 Holocene. The increasing trend in CCSM3 is dominated by the strengthening of AMOC in
 137 the early to mid-Holocene, with only a subtle trend from 6 ka BP onwards. Conversely three
 138 simulations show an overall decreasing AMOC trend for the maximum AMOC: IPSL-CM5
 139 (~ 2 Sv), EC-Earth3-veg-LR (~ 1 Sv) and KCM. In KCM there is a decrease of approximately
 140 10% in the early portion, but after roughly 6 ka it remains relatively stable with a marginal
 141 increase in the late Holocene (Segschneider et al., 2018). The other simulations do not show
 142 any obvious trends in the overall maximum AMOC strength at 30°N through the Holocene
 143 (MPI-ESM, HadCM3 and CESM1.2.1). Both transient runs with the MPI-ESM (SLO0043
 144 and SLO0050) do display a slightly higher maximum AMOC strength at 8 to 6 ka BP
 145 compared to later periods in the Holocene. In HadCM3, the AMOC strength before and
 146 after the 8.2 ka event event remain relatively stable at ~ 19.5 – 21 Sv. CESM1.2.1 exhibits a
 147 step-change at 7.5 ka BP, but the AMOC is very stable afterwards.

148 All the simulations that start in the early Holocene (CCSM3, HadCM3, KCM and
 149 CESM1.2.1) show stronger changes in AMOC prior to 8 ka than afterwards. The early
 150 Holocene saw the 8.2 ka event with a large amount of meltwater entering into the Labrador
 151 Sea (e.g. Barber et al., 1999; Matero et al., 2017) through three possible freshwater sources:
 152 the sudden discharge of Lake Agassiz, the altered route of the continental freshwater in
 153 the North America due to the Laurentide ice sheet melting, and the continuous retreat of
 154 Laurentide ice sheet and meltwater release from 9-6 ka BP (Aguiar et al., 2021). However,
 155 the different forcings imposed in the simulations (Tab. 1) mean that only CCSM3 responds
 156 directly to a changed meltwater flux.

157 The early Holocene decline in KCM implies an AMOC response to increasing Green-
 158 house gases, as the lack of a continued trend into the late Holocene rules out an orbital
 159 influence (Segschneider et al., 2018). The sudden reduction in AMOC strength in HadCM3
 160 around 8 ka BP arises from the opening of Hudson Bay, when the land sea mask is updated.
 161 This connected a large volume of freshwater to the Atlantic and weakened the AMOC for
 162 around 250 years. The run with CESM1.2.1 demonstrates an abrupt decrease in AMOC
 163 strength by 18% at 7.7 - 7.5 ka BP, after which the AMOC recovered and stabilised, but
 164 never returned to the same intensity as that in the early Holocene. The accumulated effect
 165 of the rapid retreat of the Laurentide ice sheet from 9 to 7 ka BP (Tian et al., 2022) could
 166 be the main cause for the abrupt weakening of AMOC at around 7.7 ka BP in this run.

167 In conclusion, the transient simulations do not have a consistent message about changes
 168 in the overall AMOC strength. Several models simulate changes of roughly $\pm 10\%$, but these
 169 are not of the same sign across models, nor do they exhibit similar temporal behaviours.
 170 The few simulations that start in the early Holocene all exhibit stronger changes prior to 6
 171 ka BP than afterwards. This is likely related to the loss of the remnant glacial ice through
 172 either meltwater or sea-level changes.

173 3.2 Trends in spatial structure of streamfunction

174 There could be robust changes in the the spatial structure of the AMOC, even if there
 175 are not consistent changes in its overall strength. We investigate this possibility by mapping

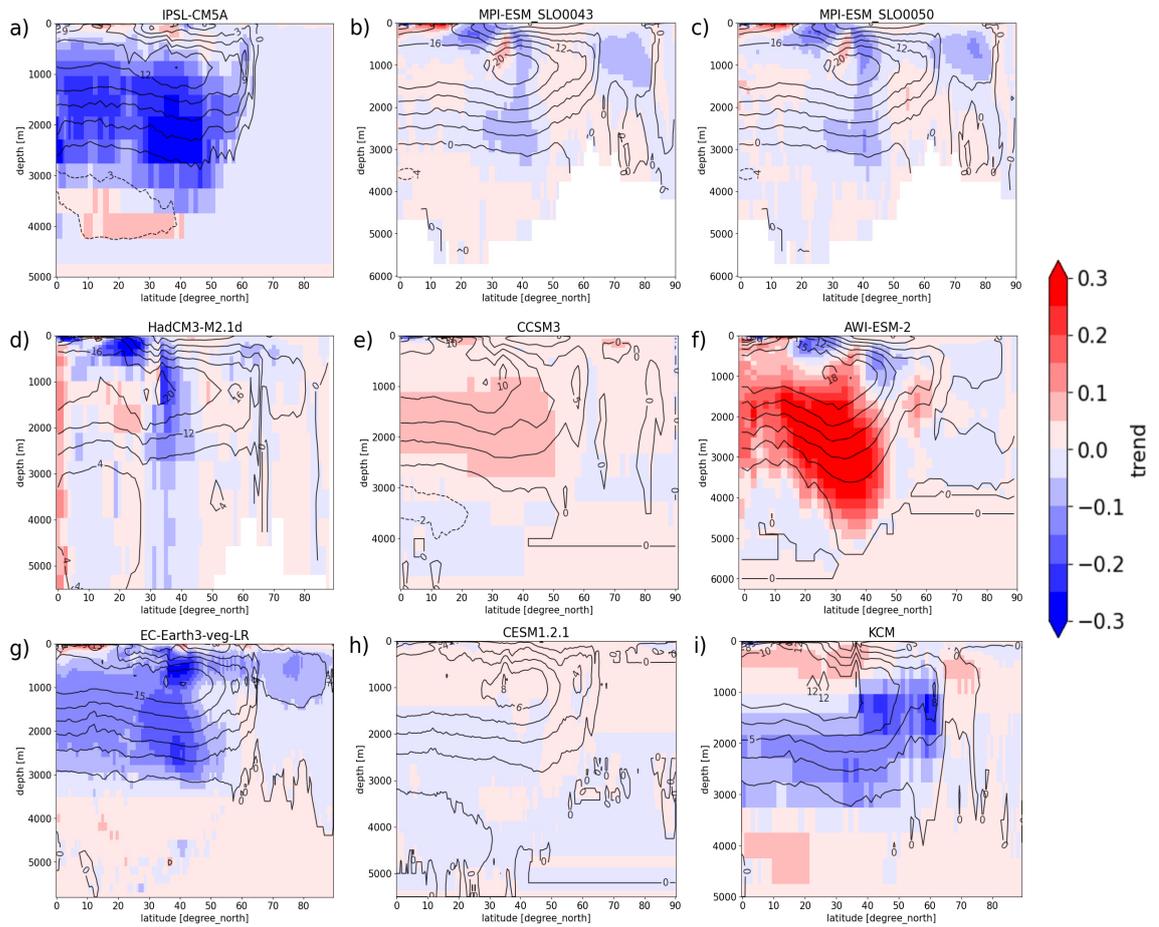


Figure 2. Trend in the meridional streamfunction in the North Atlantic Ocean from 6 ka BP to present (Sv/kyr). The overlaid contours are the mean AMOC spatial pattern at 6-0 ka BP in each model: (a) IPSL-CM5A, (b) MPI-ESM_SLO0043, (c) MPI-ESM_SLO0050, (d) HadCM3-M2.1d, (e) CCSM3, (f) AWI-ESM-2, (g) EC-Earth3-veg-LR, (h) CESM1.2.1, (i) KCM.

176 the trend in overturning streamfunction at each grid box from 6 ka BP to present (Fig. 2).
 177 Two different forms of AMOC change emerge – one showing the whole circulation spinning
 178 up (or down) together, and another with a tripole pattern.

179 Four simulations show a broadly coherent change in terms of in their own streamfunction
 180 in the deep southward return flow at 30-50°N, 1,700-3,000m (Fig. 2a, e, g, i; below the
 181 maximum AMOC location shown by the overlaid contours). IPSL-CM5 and EC-Earth3-
 182 veg-LR show an opposite direction of trend compared to CCSM3, as might be expected
 183 given their opposite trends in maximum AMOC strength (Fig. 1). The run with EC-
 184 Earth3-veg-LR demonstrates this shift below 3,000 m, but with a similar trend above this
 185 level too (Fig. 2g).

186 A tripole pattern in the mid-latitudes, extending down to ~1200m, is seen in the
 187 simulations by MPI-ESM, HadCM3 and AWI-ESM-2 (Fig. 2b-d,f). This could potentially
 188 be associated with changes in the Mediterranean outflow, given the latitude. Ivanovic et
 189 al. (2013) explore the impact of the Mediterranean outflow parameterisation in one of the
 190 models used here, HadCM3, and demonstrate that it can create changes in AMOC of a
 191 similar spatial pattern (Ivanovic et al., 2014). Conversely, Swingedouw et al. (2019) show
 192 Mediterranean outflow impacts in IPSL-CM5 that project onto the more-uniform pattern,
 193 but then IPSL-CM5 is already in that other set so maybe this is model-specific. The
 194 CESM1.2.1 transient run has the weakest trend among all the simulations (Fig. 2h), with
 195 almost no trend at any individual sites for the North Atlantic basin from 6-0.1 ka BP.
 196 Taken as an ensemble, the simulations do not demonstrate a consistent trend in meridional
 197 streamfunction from 6-0 ka BP at any individual locations. Rather they highlight two
 198 possible categories of behaviour – either changes in the deep southward return flow (mid-
 199 latitudes, 1,700 -3,000 m) or a tripole pattern of change seen in upper subtropics (down to
 200 1,200 m).

201 3.3 Trends in AMOC variability

202 The key difference between the two MPI-ESM simulations is the inclusion of externally-
 203 forced variability (Bader et al., 2020). This motivates us to explore the AMOC variability
 204 throughout the Holocene, which we assess using the standard deviation of the decadal
 205 averaged, maximum overturning streamfunction at 30°N calculated over a sliding 100-year
 206 time window (Fig. 3). The standard deviation in MPI-ESM SLO0050 is occasionally higher
 207 than MPI-ESM SLO043, reflecting the impact of the externally-forced forcing in periods with
 208 enhanced volcanic activity (Jungclauss et al., 2014). However, there is clearly a strong role for
 209 internal variability, even in the simulation with volcanic and solar forcing. The magnitude
 210 of the (internal) variability varies substantially between simulations (Fig. 3). The run with
 211 CESM1.2.1 has the smallest magnitude of the internal variability and indicates its simulated
 212 AMOC is very stable since 7 ka BP. Meanwhile, the transient runs with CCSM3, IPSL and
 213 KCM model also demonstrate relatively smaller magnitude compared to all other runs.
 214 Other simulations typically show a magnitude of the internal variability ranging from 1 to
 215 1.5 Sv, with the strongest fluctuations in AWI-ESM2, IPSL and EC-Earth3-veg-LR. The
 216 CCSM3 simulation also demonstrates a millennium internal variability for the maximum
 217 AMOC at 30°N in the Holocene – this not seen in any other model (Fig. 1), nor in other
 218 simulations with the same model (He & Clark, 2022).

219 None of the simulations show a statistically significant trend in the standard deviations
 220 (Fig. 3). Even the largest trend for the standard deviation is less than -0.02 Sv/kyr (in EC-
 221 Earth3-veg-LR), which is represents a reduction of under 10% throughout the simulation.
 222 Additionally, both small decreasing trends and increasing trends for the internal variability
 223 are shown across all the runs, seemingly at random without obvious drivers. Therefore, the
 224 internal variability of the AMOC does not change noticeably between 7 ka to present in
 225 any of the transient simulations, and there is no consistent message from the ensemble for
 226 a trend in the decadal variability of the maximum AMOC at 30°N (Fig. 3).

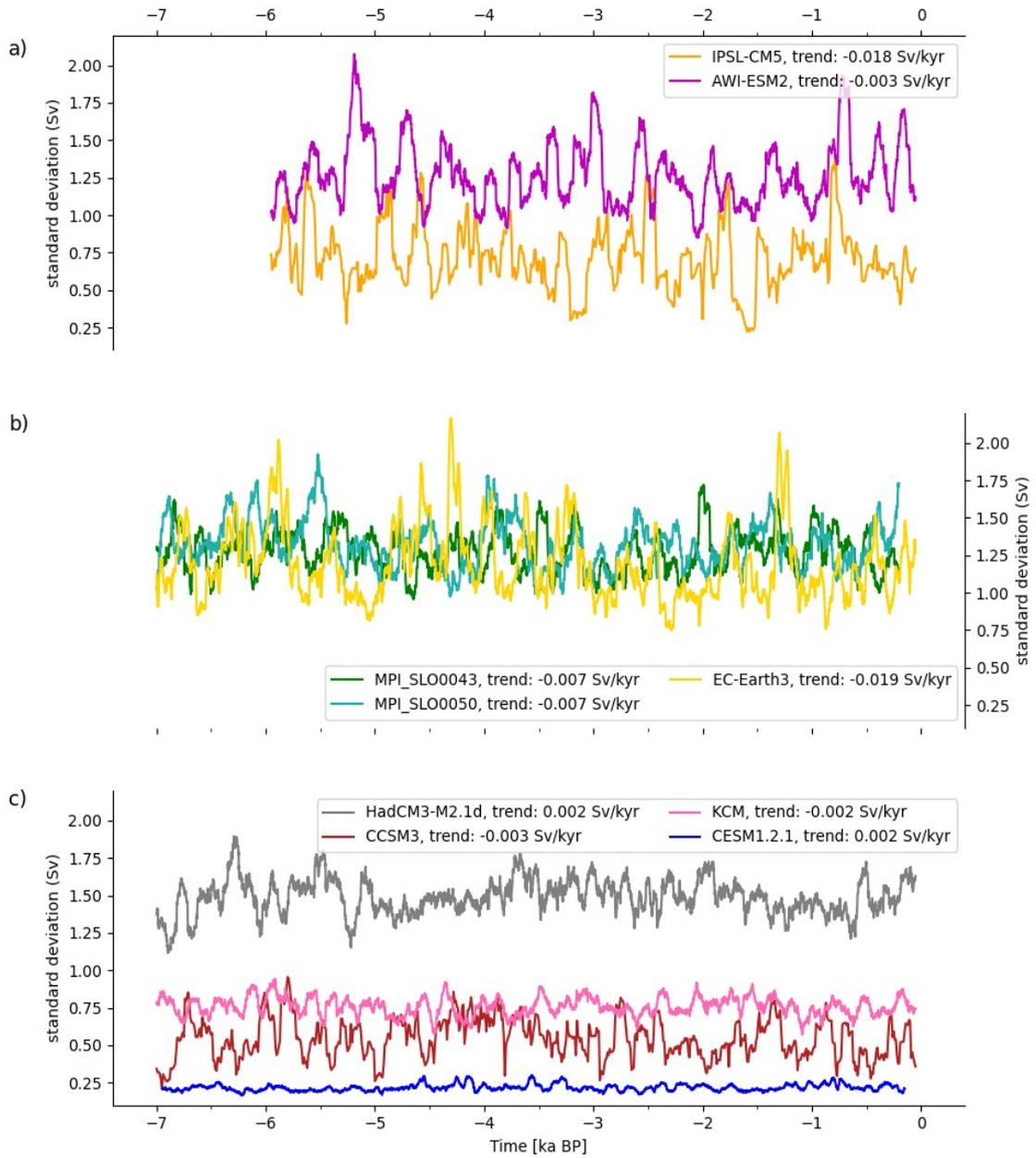


Figure 3. Running standard deviations of the maximum AMOC strength at 30°N below 500m from 7 ka BP to present (based on a sliding 100-year time window).

4 Discussion and conclusions

Overall, there is little support from this ensemble of simulations for changes in AMOC over the past 7,000 years. This is true for trends in overall AMOC strength, and its internal variability. The different experimental set-ups used in the simulations did not appear to play a large role in AMOC evolution since 7,000 years ago, but there were clear consequences from the choice of imposed forcings in the early Holocene. This conclusion fits well with results from PMIP, which performed snapshot simulations for 6,000 years ago. They also found no consistent changes in AMOC strength (Brierley et al., 2020). Combining those mid-Holocene snapshot simulations alongside Last Interglacial simulations suggests that variations in precession would not be expected to alter AMOC (Jiang et al., 2023).

This overriding message of no robust changes in AMOC coming from the ensemble of Holocene transient model simulations is consistent with various reconstructions of the overall AMOC (Fig. 4). These include Pa/Th reconstructions, which have the benefit of (at least potentially) recording the integrated strength of AMOC from a few key sites (Lippold et al., 2019). Multiple independent AMOC reconstructions based upon data assimilation are also now available (Ritz et al., 2013; Osman et al., 2021). Additionally, the winter SST index of Caesar et al. (2018) can be applied to Holocene reconstructions of temperature anomalies (in this instance from Erb et al., 2022) to reconstruct past Holocene AMOC strength. Because the proxy reconstructions are not solely recording November-May SST, the correlation to AMOC is likely slightly weakened and a direct conversion to absolute AMOC changes is not appropriate. Nonetheless this SST fingerprint approach should retain the timing and directions of any AMOC deviations and trends. Collectively these reconstructions also show little change in the AMOC during the mid-to-late Holocene (Fig. 4).

There are, however, some proxy reconstructions do argue for a long-term mid-to-late Holocene decline in AMOC (Ayache et al., 2018; Valley et al., 2022) which at face value would be inconsistent with most of the transient model results presented here (only IPSL-CM5 and EC-Earth3-veg-LR show weakened AMOC since mid-Holocene). Reconstructions can be biased towards individual components of the AMOC, and prior research suggests that a lack of overall AMOC change could be a result of compensation between different AMOC components (Renssen et al., 2005). Furthermore, both the reconstructions derived from surface temperature data assimilation efforts (Fig. 4b,d) show a drop in AMOC over the past 2,000 years. Yet this is not captured by the transient simulations, nor do direct proxy reconstructions show a strong long-term decrease over the last 2,000 years (Rahmstorf et al., 2015; Thornalley et al., 2018).

It has been suggested that the AMOC may play a role in Holocene centennial events, such as the 4.2 ka and 2.8 ka BP events (i.e. Jalali et al., 2019; Denton & Broecker, 2008; Oppo et al., 2003; Keigwin & Boyle, 2000). None of the individual transient simulations capture an event around 4.2 ka or 2.8 ka, (Fig. 1), nor do the assimilation products (Fig. 4), although in the transient ensemble mean the weakest two centennial-scale periods of AMOC occur at \sim 4.2 ka and 2.8 ka (Fig. 4). This warrants investigation in further studies, especially as explanations involving volcanic or solar forcing seem unlikely as the majority of simulations do not include them.

In summary, this research suggests that the overall AMOC maintained its strength over the past 7,000 years until the recent changes. The evidence for this conclusion comes from an ensemble of transient simulations using fully-coupled general circulation models, supported by snapshot simulations and data assimilation products. Additionally, we find no consistent trend in the internal variability of the overall AMOC, as the amplitude of decadal variations does not change noticeably between 7 ka to present in any of the simulations. Neither did this research show any support for zonal mean streamfunction trends at particular latitudes or depths. Most paleoceanographic proxies are more sensitive to reconstructing local oceanographic features rather than the zonally integrated AMOC more local conditions, yet this research did not explore compensation between different components and sources

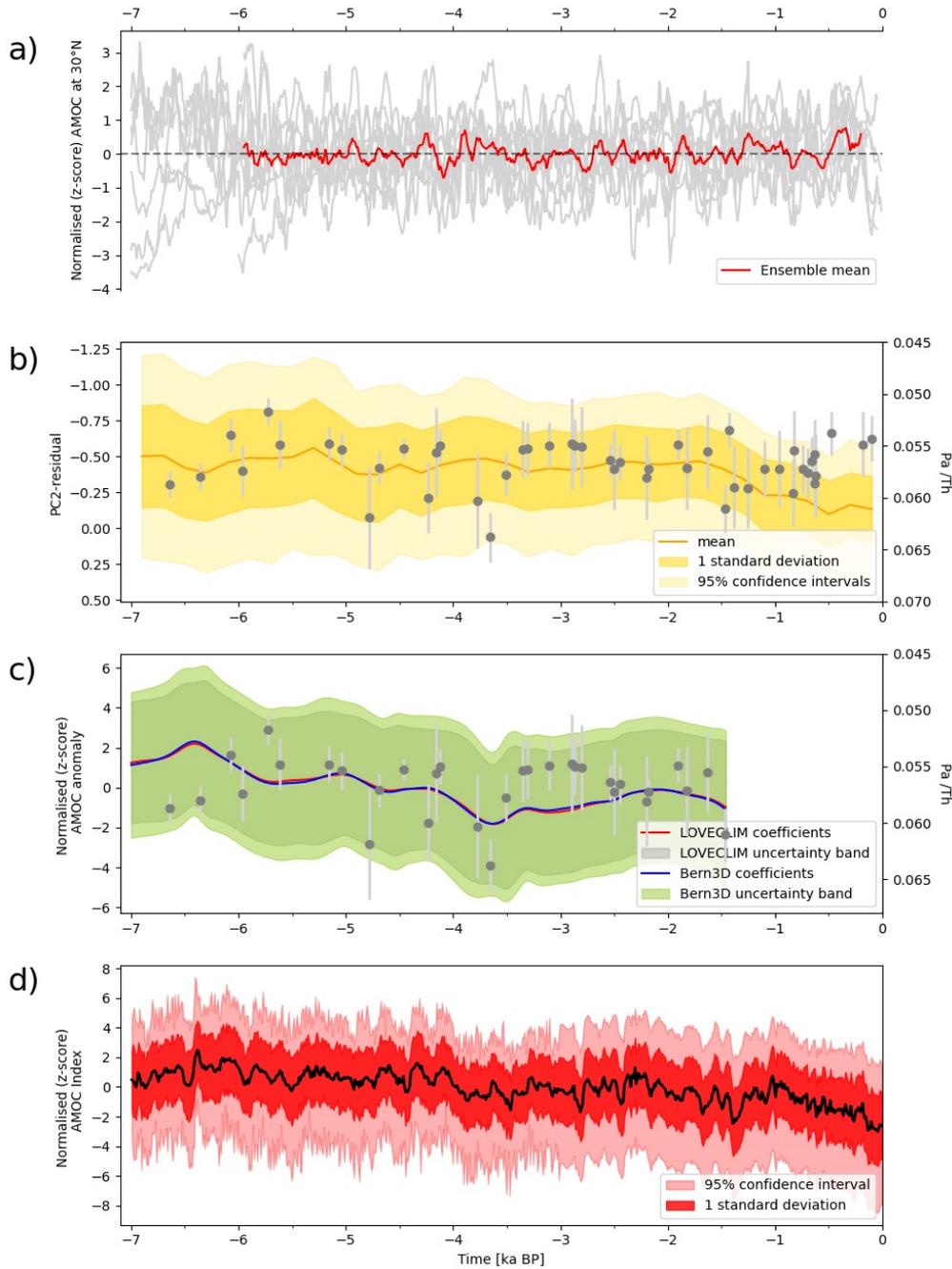


Figure 4. Comparison of AMOC simulations with reconstructions. (a) Ensemble mean of maximum AMOC at 30°N, after each simulation has been standardised by conversion to a z-score over the period 6-0 ka BP. (b) The AMOC reconstruction identified in the reanalysis of Osman et al. (2021). This reanalysis combines marine geochemical data with climate model experiment using proxy system models and data assimilation. Dark and lighter shading on the timeseries indicate $\pm 1\sigma$ and 95% confidence intervals, respectively. (c) AMOC variations reconstructed by Ritz et al. (2013) using data assimilation with priors based on either LOVECLIM or Bern3D simulations. Gray dots are Pa/Th proxy data from Lippold et al. (2019), on the right axis. (d) AMOC variations resulting from applying an annualised SST index (after Caesar et al., 2018) to the surface temperature anomalies reconstructed by Erb et al. (2022) using data assimilation of the temperature12k database (Kaufman et al., 2020).

279 of North Atlantic deep water. Therefore, further work combining simulations and proxy
 280 reconstructions to explore possible compensation between different sub-components of the
 281 AMOC may provide useful additional information on future AMOC projections.

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295 Open Research

296 The data from the transient runs that used for analysing the AMOC evolution through-
 297 out the Holocene in this study are available at Github repository via [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7499260)
 298 [10.5281/zenodo.7499260](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7499260).

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