Meridional Heat Transport in the DeepMIP Eocene ensemble: non-CO2 and CO2 effects

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January 3, 2023

Abstract

The total meridional heat transport (MHT) is relatively stable across different climates. Nevertheless, the strength of individual processes contributing to the total transport are not stable. Here we investigate the MHT and its main components especially in the atmosphere, in five coupled climate model simulations from the Deep-Time Model Intercomparison Project (DeepMIP). These simulations target the Early Eocene Climatic Optimum (EECO), a geological time period with high CO2 concentrations, analogous to the upper range of end-of-century CO2 projections. Preindustrial and early Eocene simulations at a range of CO2 levels (1x, 3x and 6x preindustrial values) are used to quantify the MHT changes in response to both CO2 and non-CO2 related forcings. We found that atmospheric poleward heat transport increases with CO2, while the effect of non-CO2 boundary conditions (e.g., paleogeography, land ice, vegetation) is causing more poleward atmospheric heat transport on the Northern and less on the Southern Hemisphere. The changes in paleogeography increase the heat transport via transient eddies at the mid-latitudes in the Eocene. The Hadley cells have an asymmetric response to both the CO2 and non-CO2 constraints. The poleward latent heat transport of monsoon systems increases with rising CO2 concentrations, but this effect is offset by the Eocene topography. Our results show that the changes in the monsoon systems' latent heat transport is a robust feature of CO2 warming, which is in line with the currently observed precipitation increase of present day monsoon systems.

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1 2 3	Meridional Heat Transport in the DeepMIP Eocene ensemble: non-CO2 and CO2 effects						
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21	Key Points:						
22 23	• The latent heat transport of the monsoon systems increases through higher CO ₂ concentration, but reduced by the Eocene topography.						
24 25	• The poleward heat transport of midlatitude cyclones is higher in the Northern Hemisphere in the Eocene, due to the different topography.						
26 27	• The Hadley cells are overturning more heat in response to the higher CO ₂ values, but the net poleward heat transport is relatively stable.						
28 29							

30 Abstract

31 The total meridional heat transport (MHT) is relatively stable across different climates. 32 Nevertheless, the strength of individual processes contributing to the total transport are not 33 stable. Here we investigate the MHT and its main components especially in the atmosphere, in 34 five coupled climate model simulations from the Deep-Time Model Intercomparison Project 35 (DeepMIP). These simulations target the Early Eocene Climatic Optimum (EECO), a geological 36 time period with high CO_2 concentrations, analogous to the upper range of end-of-century CO_2 37 projections. Preindustrial and early Eocene simulations at a range of CO₂ levels (1x, 3x and 6x 38 preindustrial values) are used to quantify the MHT changes in response to both CO₂ and non-39 CO₂ related forcings. We found that atmospheric poleward heat transport increases with CO₂, 40 while the effect of non-CO₂ boundary conditions (e.g., paleogeography, land ice, vegetation) is 41 causing more poleward atmospheric heat transport on the Northern and less on the Southern 42 Hemisphere. The changes in paleogeography increase the heat transport via transient eddies at 43 the mid-latitudes in the Eocene. The Hadley cells have an asymmetric response to both the CO₂ 44 and non-CO₂ constraints. The poleward latent heat transport of monsoon systems increases with 45 rising CO₂ concentrations, but this effect is offset by the Eocene topography. Our results show 46 that the changes in the monsoon systems' latent heat transport is a robust feature of CO_2 47 warming, which is in line with the currently observed precipitation increase of present day 48 monsoon systems.

49

50

Plain Language Summary

51 In the Earth's climate system both the atmosphere and the ocean are transporting heat 52 through different processes from the tropics towards the poles. We investigate the transport of 53 the atmosphere in several climate model set ups, which are aiming to describe the very warm 54 climate of the early Eocene (~56-48 Myr ago). This period is relevant for us, because the 55 atmospheric CO₂ concentration was close to our pessimistic projection of CO₂ concentration for 56 the end of the century. In our study we are separating the results depending on their origin, 57 meaning if the changes, seen in the heat transport are due to the larger CO₂ concentration or due 58 to the different set up of the Eocene. We found that with rising CO₂ values the atmosphere 59 transports more heat from the tropics to the polar regions. The different location of the continents 60 and seas is influencing the heat transport of the midlatitude cyclones. The monsoon systems 61 seem to be affecting a globally smaller area in the Eocene, but being more effective in 62 transporting heat due to the higher atmospheric CO₂ concentration. This conclusion is in line 63 with the observation, that current day monsoon systems' precipitation increases, as our CO_2 64 concentration rises.

65

66 **1 Introduction**

The meridional temperature gradient is the main driving force of the atmospheric and oceanic general circulation. It is caused by differential radiative heating, which leads to energy being transported meridionally from the tropics, where there is a net gain of energy by radiation, to the mid- and high latitudes, where there is net radiation deficit. It has been shown that the Meridional Heat Transport (MHT) is very stable in different climate states (Krapp & Jungclaus, 2011; Smith et al., 2006; Yang et al., 2015). Bjerknes (1964) proposed that if the net radiation forcing at the top of the atmosphere (TOA) and the ocean heat storage do not vary too much,

- then the MHT shall be also relatively stable. This leads to the expectation that any large
- variations in heat transport in the atmosphere and in the ocean should be equal in magnitude and
- opposite in sign, nevertheless it does not rule out large changes in both ocean and atmosphere.
 This mechanism since have been known as the Bjerknes compensation (BJC). Stone (1978) later
- 77 This mechanism since have been known as the Bjerknes compensation (BJC). Stone (1978) fate 78 showed that the MHT is mainly determined by the solar constant, the axial tilt, the radius of the
- 79 Earth and the mean planetary albedo. Among these variables only the albedo is an internal
- 80 parameter of the atmosphere-ocean system, and it highly depends on temperature, as a defining
- 81 factor on clouds, ice and snow. The BJC have since been shown to be valid in different paleo
- 82 climate states, for example during the glacial-interglacial phases of the last 22 000 years (Yang et
- al., 2015), or in the warm climate of the Middle Miocene (Krapp & Jungclaus, 2011). Also, it
- 84 was found in preindustrial and in historical simulations of CMIP5 models, where in the latter, the
- climate is not in equilibrium and external forcings are present (Outten et al., 2018). Even in
 extreme theoretical cases, such as the aqua-planet, BJC is shown to be valid (Smith et al., 2006).

87 Even though total MHT is stable in different climate states, the contributions from 88 various transport processes might change. Quantifying transport processes helps identifying the 89 large scale features of different climate states and reveal any compensating mechanism. In the 90 climate system the heat is transported by the atmosphere and the ocean via different mechanisms. 91 In the tropical belt both the atmosphere and the ocean contribute to the MHT equally, while at 92 higher latitudes the atmospheric transport dominates (Masuda, 1988). At lower latitudes the heat 93 is transported mainly by the meridional overturning circulation (MOC), which is represented by 94 the Hadlev cell in the atmosphere and by the wind-driven gyres in the upper ~ 1000 m of the 95 ocean (Held, 2001). Note that we do not evaluate separately the role of the ocean's meridional 96 overturning circulation so that MOC hereafter refers always to the atmosphere in this study. At 97 higher latitudes the heat is transported via different eddies, such as transient eddies (TE), 98 comprised mainly of mid-latitude cyclones, and stationary eddies (SE), which represent 99 monsoons in the subtropics and planetary waves in midlatitudes. The stationary planetary waves

are connected to diverse topography and land-sea thermal contrast (Wills et al., 2019).

101 In present, the changes in the poleward atmospheric and oceanic heat transport has been 102 shown to contribute to the polar amplification (Forster et al., 2021). In a warmer climate the 103 increase in the equator-to-pole gradient in atmospheric moisture leads to enhanced poleward 104 latent heat transport, which plays an important role in polar amplification. The increase in latent 105 heat transport is partially compensated by decrease in dry-static energy transport arising from a 106 weakening of the equator-to-pole temperature gradient (Forster et al., 2021). The latest IPCC 107 report shows that in our current warming climate large scale circulation patterns such as the 108 Hadley cell or the monsoon systems have been changing. There has been a likely widening of the 109 Hadley circulation since the 1980s, and a strengthening of the Hadley circulation, particularly in 110 the northern hemisphere (Gulev et al., 2021). Monsoon precipitation shows a likely increase 111 mainly due to a significant positive trend in the north hemisphere summer monsoon precipitation 112 (Gulev et al., 2021).

Investigating past warm periods of Earth's climate system can help to better understand our future. Paleoclimate model simulations in contrast to future projections, have the advantage, that there are proxy data available, which help to validate the model's response to any changes in the forcing. Proxies help reducing the uncertainties, when modelling a climate state in extreme circumstances. One of the best examples of past warm periods is the Early Eocene Climatic

118 Optimum (EECO, ~56-48 Myr ago). It is the period of greatest sustained (> 1 Myr) warmth in 119 the last 65 million years (Lunt et al., 2017), when CO₂ concentrations are estimated to have 120 fallen between 1170 and 2490 ppm (Anagnostou et al., 2020) and the estimated global mean 121 surface temperatures reached 27.0 °C (23.2 to 29.7 °C), approximately 10 to 16 °C warmer than preindustrial climate (Inglis et al., 2020). It has been shown (Evans et al., 2018), that the 122 123 meridional temperature gradient was much weaker in the Eocene's warm climate than at present, 124 thus indicating strong polar amplification, which is a challenge to capture for most climate 125 models. There has been a community effort in creating a framework for the intermodel 126 comparison of Paleocene-Eocene simulations (Lunt et al., 2017) and also to coordinate the 127 methodology of a proxy data compilation focusing on temperature and CO₂ concentrations from 128 this period (Hollis et al., 2019). This coordinated effort is the Deep Time Model Intercomparison 129 Project (DeepMIP), and the time intervals its focusing on are the latest Paleocene (pre-PETM), 130 Paleocene–Eocene thermal maximum (PETM) and early Eocene climatic optimum (EECO). In 131 DeepMIP, the atmospheric CO₂ concentrations and other boundary conditions, such as the 132 paleogeography, orbital configurations, solar constant, vegetation, and lack of continental ice 133 sheets were uniformly defined. Eight modelling groups participated in performing paleo 134 simulations, with the agreed boundary conditions. Three of the models (the Community Earth 135 System Model, CESM; the Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory, GFDL, model; and the 136 Norwegian Earth System Model, NorESM) showed results that are broadly consistent with the 137 proxies in terms of the global mean temperature, meridional SST gradient, and CO2, without prescribing changes to model parameters (Lunt et al., 2021). The closest agreement with proxy 138 139 data is found four simulations at 6x times the preindustrial CO₂ concentration, which also aligns 140 with the best-estimate CO_2 signal from proxy data. In terms of the meridional temperature 141 gradient the most successful simulation is from CESM. Other models also show positive results 142 for example in terms of the first-order spatial patterns in the comparison with SST proxies, but

143 with discrepancies at regional scale (Lunt et al., 2021).

In our work we focus on the simulated changes in the atmospheric transport processes of the EECO. We separate these changes depending on their underlying causes, namely if they are driven by the CO_2 increase or the non- CO_2 forcing of the paleo simulations. We compare the results of five different models from the DeepMIP ensemble. Dividing the changes into non- CO_2 and CO_2 forcing helps us to also assess the relevance of the results for future climate scenarios, where the CO_2 -driven processes become more relevant than any geographical changes. Our study aims to answer the following questions:

- Can the DeepMIP model ensemble capture the characteristics of transport processes in the preindustrial control (PI) simulations?
- What are the impacts of non-CO₂ constraints (paleogeography, vegetation, no continental ice sheet) on the different atmospheric transport processes?
- What are the impacts of CO₂ concentration increase on the atmospheric transport
 processes in the 3x and 6x CO₂ EECO simulations?
- How does the overall change (non-CO₂ and CO₂ constraints) between the preindustrial control and EECO simulations look like? Which physical processes are affected the most?

160 The paper is structured as follows, in section 2 we briefly introduce the DeepMIP 161 experimental design, the selected models and reanalysis. In section 3 we explain the methods 162 used in the analysis. Then the results section shows the transport changes due to the non- CO_2 and

the CO_2 constraints, first individually and then their combined effect on changes between past

and present climates. Then section 5 discusses the three large scale circulation patterns, which

are affected by either one or both of the CO_2 and non- CO_2 constraints. In section 6 we

summarize our findings and conclusions.

167 **2 Data**

168 In this study we analyze climate model simulations from DeepMIP simulations. We 169 further include present day data from the ERA5 reanalysis to compare it with the respective 170 preindustrial simulations of the DeepMIP models.

171 2.1 Experimental design

172 The experimental design and the different models included in DeepMIP are described in 173 Lunt et al. (2017, 2021), here we only introduce them briefly. DeepMIP was conducted to offer a 174 consistent framework for climate model simulations of three warm periods in the latest 175 Paleocene and early Eocene (~ 55 to ~ 50 Ma), which are the Early Eocene Climatic Optimum 176 (EECO), the Paleocene–Eocene Thermal Maximum (PETM) and the period just before the 177 PETM (pre-PETM). These time periods of Earth's climate are characterized by high atmospheric 178 CO2 concentrations estimated to be between 800 and 3160 ppm (Anagnostou et al., 2020), which 179 means at least 3x higher concentrations than the preindustrial value (280 ppm) and almost 12x 180 more at its highest. The concentrations during the EECO, which is the longest of the three, is estimated to fall between 1170 and 2490 ppm. This is around 4x and 9x the preindustrial 181 182 concentration level. Many DeepMIP groups performed multiple experiments at various CO₂ 183 levels, for example at 1x, 3x, 6x or 9x the preindustrial CO₂ concentration, to capture this 184 uncertainty. Apart from the atmospheric CO₂ concentrations other boundary conditions, such as 185 the paleogeography, orbital configurations, solar constant, vegetation, continental ice sheets and 186 aerosols, are needed to be defined to set up a deep-time simulation. The paleogeography 187 represents the Ypresian stage of the Eocene, where the most notable differences to today's 188 geography are the lack of the Himalaya, the lack of the enclosed Mediterranean basin, the proto-189 Paratethys and the Siberian Sea and a narrower Atlantic basin. The digital reconstruction from 190 Herold et al. (2014) is used for the paleogeography, vegetation, and river routing. The orbital 191 configuration is set to the modern values, since its has relatively low eccentricity, and so 192 represents a forcing close to the long-term average (Lunt et al., 2017). Both the solar constant, 193 and non-CO₂ greenhouse gas concentrations are set to preindustrial values, to find a middle 194 ground between the uncertainty on the increased radiative forcing associated with enhanced non-195 CO₂ greenhouse gases and the decrease in radiative forcing via a reduced solar constant (Lunt et al., 2017). One additional important initial constraint is that there are no continental ice sheets in 196 197 the Eocene simulations. Initial condition for ocean temperature and salinity are given in Lunt et 198 al. (2017) but each modeling group followed their individual approach based on their previous 199 paleo simulations or experiences with model instabilities. 200 To accept a model simulation as the representation of the paleoclimate of EECO, PETM, or pre-

201 PETM it needs to be in (or close to) equilibrium. To assure these three constraints are given (a) a

simulation shall be at least 1000 years in length, and (b) have an imbalance in the top-of-

202 atmosphere net radiation of less than 0.3 W m-2 (or have a similar imbalance to that of the

preindustrial control), and (c) have sea-surface temperatures that are not strongly trending (less

than 0.1°C per century in the global mean). These latter two shall be based on the final 100 years
 of the simulation. Most of the simulations fulfill these conditions, and those which not only

207 overstep them slightly, thus Lunt et al. (2021) concluded them to be sufficiently equilibrated.

208

209 **Table 1**

- *List of models used in this study from the DeepMIP ensemble.*
- 210 211

Model (short name)	Experiments	Length of simulations	Atmospheric resolutions
		(years)	(lat x lon)
CESM	piControl	2000	1.9° x 2.5°
(CESM1.2_CAM5)	1x,3x,6x		
COSMOS	piControl	9500	3.75° x 3.75°
(COSMOS-landveg_r2413)	1x,3x		
GFDL	piControl	6000	3° x 3.75°
(GFDL_CM2.1)	1x,3x,6x		
HadCM3	piControl	7800	3.75° x 2.5°
(HadCM3B_M2.1aN)	1x,3x		
MIROC	piControl	5000	2.79° x 2.81°
(MIROC4m)	1x,3x		

- 212
- 213

214 2.2 Models

In total 8 models participated in DeepMIP from which we selected 5, depending on the 215 216 available experiment types. In our study we focus on the CO₂ and non-CO₂ effects, thus we 217 needed from all models a preindustrial control simulation, a 1x CO2 Eocene simulation and also at least one simulation with a higher CO_2 concentration. The three models, which we did not 218 219 include in our study (INMCM, IPSL, NorESM), are left out because there was no available 1x 220 CO2 simulation from them. We have chosen 3x and 6x CO2 concentration simulations, where 221 they were available (see Table1). These concentrations, represent the pre-PETM and the 222 EECO/PETM conditions respectively. All models are coupled ocean-atmosphere models. The 223 selected simulations are summarized in Table 1. An overview of each model is listed below, 224 while the more elaborate description of the simulations and models are found in Lunt et al.

225 (2021) and in the corresponding papers.

226 CESM stands for the Community Earth System Model version 1.2, it consists of the 227 Community Atmosphere Model 5.3 (CAM), the Community Land Model 4.0 (CLM), the Parallel 228 Ocean Program 2 (POP), the Los Alamos sea ice model 4 (CICE), the River Transport Model 229 (RTM), and a coupler connecting them (Hurrell et al., 2013). The atmospheric part of the 230 coupled system has 30 hybrid sigma-pressure levels and a horizontal resolution of $1.9^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$ 231 (latitude \times longitude). The ocean and sea ice model use a nominal 1°x1° displaced pole 232 Greenland grid with 60 vertical levels in the ocean. Some modifications were needed to make the 233 Earth system model applicable for a paleoclimate simulation with a high CO2 level applicable.

These effected the radiation parametrization, and the marginal sea balancing scheme. The ocean

was initialized from a previous PETM simulation (Kiehl & Shields, 2013) without any sea ice,

and all simulations have been integrated for 2000 model years, with the exception of 1xCO2which was run for 2600 model years.

238 COSMOS is developed at the Max Planck Institute for Meteorology and uses the 239 atmospheric general circulation model ECHAM5 (Roeckner et al., 2003) and the Max-Planck-240 Institute for Meteorology Ocean Model (MPIOM) (Marsland et al., 2003) for the the ocean and 241 sea ice components. The atmospheric part has 19 vertical hybrid sigma-pressure levels and a 242 horizontal resolution approximately $3.75^{\circ} \times 3.75^{\circ}$. The ocean and sea ice dynamics are 243 calculated on a bipolar curvilinear model grid with formal resolution of $3.0^{\circ} \times 1.8^{\circ}$ (longitude \times 244 latitude) and 40 unequal vertical levels. COSMOS' performance in paleoclimate studies is 245 described in Stepanek and Lohmann, (2012). The ocean was initialized with uniformly horizontal 246 and vertical temperatures of 10 °C in the 3×CO2 concentration simulation and then the 247 simulations with 1 × and 4× CO2 concentrations were restarted from $3 \times CO2$ after 1000 years. 248 All simulations were run with transient orbital configurations until the model year 8000. 249

Subsequently, they were run for 1500 years (to the model year 9500), with fixed, preindustrial orbital parameters.

251 GFDL stands for the Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory (GFDL) CM2.1 model 252 (Delworth et al., 2006), with modifications to the late Eocene (Hutchinson et al., 2018, 2019). 253 The CM2.1 consists of Atmosphere Model 2, Land Model 2, the Sea Ice Simulator 1. The ocean 254 is calculated by the modular ocean model (MOM) version 5.1.0. The atmosphere has 24 vertical 255 levels and a horizontal resolution of $3^{\circ} \times 3.75^{\circ}$. The ocean and sea ice components are 256 calculated over 50 vertical levels with the horizontal resolution of $1^{\circ} \times 1.5^{\circ}$ (latitude \times 257 longitude), and a tripolar grid is used as in Hutchinson et al. (2018). Due to the paleogeography 258 some manual adjustments are made to ensure that no isolated lakes or seas exist and that any 259 narrow ocean straits are at least two grid cells wide to ensure non-zero velocity fields, also the 260 minimum depth of ocean grid cells is 25 m. The ocean temperature was initiated from idealized 261 conditions, similar to those outlined in Lunt et al. (2017). The simulations were run for a total of 262 6000 years, where in the initial 2000 year two adjustments were performed in order to accelerate 263 the approach to equilibrium. This approach led to instabilities at 6xCO2 level, this this 264 simulation was instead initialized using a globally uniform temperature of 19.32 °C and was run 265 continuously for 6000 years.

266 HadCM3 stands for the Hadley Centre Climate Model (Valdes et al., 2017). The 267 atmosphere has 19 vertical levels and a horizontal resolution of $3.7^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$, while the ocean is calculated on a $1.25^{\circ} \times 1.25^{\circ}$ grid over 20 vertical levels. A few changes were necessary to adapt 268 269 the model to the deep-time simulations, such as a salinity flux correction, prognostic 1D ozone 270 scheme instead the fixed vertical profile, and also the disabling of modern-day specific 271 parametrizations, e.g., in the Mediterranean and the Hudson Bay. The ocean was initialized from 272 the final state of Eocene model simulations using lower resolution in the ocean, HadCM3L. The 273 HadCM3L simulations were initialized from a similar idealized temperature and salinity state as 274 described in Lunt et al., (2017). HadCM3 simulations were started from the respective 275 HadCM3L integrations after 4400 to 4900 years of spin up and run for a further 2950 years.

276

MIROC stands for Model for Interdisciplinary Research on Climate (Chan & Abe-Ouchi,

2020). The land surface model is the Minimal Advanced Treatments of Surface Interaction and

- 278 Runoff (MATSIRO) (Takata et al., 2003). The ocean component is the version 3.4 of the CCSR
- (Center for Climate System Research) Ocean Component Model (COCO) (Hasumi, 2000). The
 atmosphere has 20 vertical sigma levels and a horizontal resolution of approximately 2.79° x
- 2.80° atmosphere has 20 vertical signa levels and a horizontal resolution of approximately 2.79° x 281 2.81° (latitude x longitude). The ocean has 44 levels and a horizontal resolution is set to 256 ×
- 2.61 (language). The occan has 44 levels and a horizontal resolution is set to 2.50×196 (longitude × latitude), with a higher resolution in the tropics. The atmosphere is initialized
- from a previous experiment without ice sheets and with a \times 2 CO2 concentration. The ocean is
- 284 initialized based on previous MIROC paleoclimate experiments and on the recommendations
- from Lunt et al. (2017). For the experiments the model was run for 5000 model years.
- 286 2.3 Reanalysis

We use the atmospheric reanalysis ERA5 (Hans Hersbach et al., 2020) to evaluate the DeepMIP ensembles performance for the preindustrial control simulation. ERA5 is a comprehensive reanalysis from Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S) produced by ECMWF and it is based on the Integrated Forecasting System (IFS) Cy41r2 which was operational in 2016. In our study we used monthly averaged data on pressure levels and on single levels (H. Hersbach et al., 2019b, 2019a) from the time period 1991-2020 on a horizontal resolution of approximately 0.25°x0.25°.

- 294 **3 Methods**
- 295 3.1 Partitioning the meridional heat transport

In our study we analyze not only the total meridional heat transport, but also its
components, with focus on the atmosphere. We follow the method described in Donohoe et al.
(2020). First the MHT is partitioned between the ocean and the atmosphere

(1)

MHT = OHT + AHT,

and the atmospheric transport is further partitioned into contributions from meridional
 overturning circulation (MOC), stationary eddies (SE) and transient eddies (TE)

Furthermore, all parts of Eq. (2) are divided into dry and moist energy transport (Eq. 3), where the moist part consists the transport of energy via latent heat and the dry part consists the transport of potential energy and sensible heat.

- $306 \qquad \qquad AHT = AHT_{moist} + AHT_{dry}$
- $307 MOC = MOC_{moist} + MOC_{dry}$

$$308 SE = SE_{moist} + SE_{dry}$$

 $TE = TE_{moist} + TE_{dry}$ (3)

310 The total meridional heat transport at a latitude circle can be calculated with dynamic and

- 311 energetic approaches, where in the energetic approach the MHT is balanced by the spatial
- 312 integral of the net radiative deficit at the top of the atmosphere (TOA) and in the dynamic
- approach MHT is the vertically and zonally integrated net transport of energy. Here we use the
- 314 energetic approach to calculate MHT (Eq.4)

315
$$MHT(\Phi) = 2\pi a^2 \int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\Phi} \cos \Phi' \left[ASR(\Phi') - OLR(\Phi')\right] d\Phi',$$
(4)

316 where ϕ is the latitude circle, *a* is the radius of the Earth, ASR is the absorbed solar 317 radiation, OLR is the outgoing longwave radiation. The boundary condition is that the transport 318 has to be zero at the pole, because non-zero values have no physical meaning. To fulfill the 319 boundary conditions at both poles, we need to balance the global budget. For this we assume that 320 the imbalance is spatially uniform, thus the area-weighted global average energy imbalance is 321 subtracted at all latitudes before calculating the integral in Eq. (4).

OHT can also be calculated with the energy approach from the surface heat fluxes (SHF)
 (Eq. 5)

324
$$OHT(\Phi) = 2\pi a^2 \int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\Phi} \cos \Phi' \left[SHF(\Phi')\right] d\Phi', \tag{5}$$

325 where SHF is positive downward. The above equation is true with the assumption that the ocean is in equilibrium, so the heat storage is negligible. If the ocean is not in an equilibrium 326 327 state, then Eq. (5) represents the implied OHT, which is the sum of OHT and the spatial integral 328 of the tendency of ocean heat content. The DeepMIP simulations have been required to fulfill 329 different criteria to prove that they reached the equilibrium state. The criteria considered the 330 length of the simulations, the radiation imbalance at the TOA and the sea surface temperature. 331 All of the included simulations satisfy at least two of the three criteria, except for CESM at $\times 3$ 332 which is nonetheless close to both missed criteria, thus all, here considered simulations, have 333 been accepted to be sufficiently equilibrated (Lunt et al., 2021). We consider Eq.(5) defining 334 OHT and that balancing the global radiative budget at the TOA does not largely affect largely the 335 calculation of MHT.

After calculating MHT and OHT given Eq. (1) AHT is known as the residual. The direct
 dynamical calculation of AHT is the vertically and zonally integrated meridional transport of
 moist static energy (MSE):

$$MSE = c_p T + Lq + gZ$$

340
$$AHT(\Phi) = \frac{2\pi a \cos \Phi}{q} \int_0^{P_s} \left[\overline{V} \right] \left[\overline{MSE} \right] + \left[V^* MSE^* \right] + \left[\overline{V'^* MSE'^*} \right] + \overline{\left[V \right]' \left[MSE \right]'} dp,$$

341

(6)

where cp is the specific heat capacity of air at constant pressure, T is temperature, L is the latent heat of vaporization of water, q is the specific humidity, g is the acceleration of gravity, Z is the geopotential height, P_s the surface pressure, V is the meridional velocity. The square brackets [x] denote zonal averages, the overbars \bar{x} denote time averages (monthly means), x* denote zonal anomalies, and x' means time anomalies. In Eq. (6) the first term defines the energy

- transported via MOC the second is SE, the third is TE, and the last one has been referred as the
- 348 transient overturning circulation (TOC) (Marshall et al., 2014), which is two orders of
- 349 magnitudes smaller than MOC at the tropics and the eddy terms at midlatitudes. Thus, we do not
- try to consider TOC on its own, but handle it together with TE. Note that the calculation of TE and TOC would require high temporal resolution data, which is not available for the DeepMIP
- and TOC would require high temporal resolution data, which is not available for the DeepMIP simulations, thus we cannot calculate AHT only from Eq. (6), hence we use the residual method
- via Eq. (1). Nevertheless, the transport via MOC and SE is calculated from Eq. (6) with monthly
- 354 mean data. The remaining atmospheric transport, which we refer to as TE, is again defined with
- a residual method. This TE calculation, has been shown to be successful in calculating the
- apartitions from monthly mean data with good accuracy (Donohoe et al., 2020).

Regarding the moist and dry partitioning for AHT we define AHT_{moist} as the latent heat transport at a given latitude, which is the integral of evaporation (E) minus precipitation (P) multiplied by the latent heat of vaporization:

360
$$AHT_{moist}(\Phi) = 2\pi a^2 \int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\Phi} \cos \Phi' \{ L[E(\Phi') - P(\Phi')] \} d\Phi' .$$
(7)

The dry contribution to AHT is then calculated by subtracting the moist part from the total (Eq. 3). The moist and the dry parts of MOC an SE are calculated via Eq.(6), but MSE has been split into dry, the sensible heat and potential energy (cpT+gZ) and moist part, the latent heat (qL) (Donohoe et al., 2020). The moist and dry contributors to TE are can be calculated via the residual method, with the use of Eq. (3) and :

$$366 \qquad AHT_{moist} = MOC_{moist} + SE_{moist} + TE_{moist}.$$

367 3.2 Meridional Streamfunction

There are several metrics to quantitively analyze the Hadley cell, its edge and its circulation. We choose to use the average meridional streamfunction Ψ (Xian et al., 2021) to quantify its intensity, which is defined as :

371
$$\Psi(p,\Phi) = \frac{2\pi a \cos \Phi}{g} \int_{P_s}^0 [v] dp \, .$$

A stronger streamfunction means a stronger Hadley cell circulation.

373 3.3 Monsoon Area

374 The monsoon climate is characterized by seasonal reversal of prevailing surface winds 375 which results in a rainy summer and dry winter. To assess the geological area where monsoon 376 was probably present in the EECO, we use a simple monsoon definition, which is also used in 377 the 6th Assessment Report of IPCC (IPCC, 2021). The global monsoon is defined as the area, 378 where the local annual range of precipitation exceeds 2.5 mm per day (Kitoh et al., 2013). The 379 annual range is defined by the local summer- minus-winter precipitation, i.e. MJJAS minus 380 NDJFM in the Northern Hemisphere and NDJFM minus MJJAS in the Southern Hemisphere. 381 The 2.5 mm per day threshold is defined based on current conditions, which might not hold so 382 well in a warmer world, nevertheless we accept it for our rough estimations. A more detailed

analysis of the monsoon systems is to follow this study, where not just such simple indices willbe used.

385 4 Results

386 4.1 Preindustrial control simulation

387 We start our analysis by evaluating the selected models' representation of present day 388 climate, more precisely the climate of the preindustrial period. To assess the models' results we 389 compare them to transport values calculated from the ERA5 reanalysis from 1991-2020. Note 390 that this comparison is not entirely fair since the models and the reanalysis represent two 391 different climate periods approximately 150 years apart, and in this one and a half century the 392 climate constraints, especially the CO2 concentration have changed. Nevertheless, both models 393 and reanalysis represent a climate with current topography, continental ice sheets and relatively 394 similar meridional temperature gradient, when compared to our knowledge of ECOO's climate. 395 Thus, we accept these discrepancies and focus on the structure of the transport processes, and not 396 on the quantitative amounts.

The meridional heat transport and its partitions calculated from the DeepMIP models and the ERA5 reanalysis are shown in Figure 1. Overall, there is good agreement between the mean of the model ensemble and the reanalysis. The values and distributions of the MHT and its components fit well also to previous studies which are based on reanalysis values (Donohoe et al., 2020; Masuda, 1988).

MHT reaches maximum of above 5 PW at around 40° both South and North. The ocean transports more heat than the atmosphere in a narrow tropical belt (0-10 °N), outside of which the atmospheric heat transport dominates (Figure 1a). The reanalysis is within the spread of the ensemble, and the ensemble mean fits the reanalysis over the southern hemisphere better than the north, where the models transport more via the atmosphere and less via the ocean. These two compensate each other resulting in a good fit for the total MHT.

408 The atmospheric transport partitioned into latent heat and dry static energy transport 409 (Figure 1c) shows that the two have similar order, but the dry static energy transport is at all 410 latitudes poleward, while the latent heat transport is equatorward at the tropics and poleward at 411 the rest of the latitudes.

412 Atmospheric heat transport is partitioned into meridional overturning circulation, 413 stationary and transient eddies, where the major energy transport is done by the transient eddies 414 at midlatitudes (Figure 1b). In the tropical region the energy is transported dominantly by the 415 atmospheric meridional overturning circulation, i.e., the Hadley cells. The tropical belt is where 416 some differences between the models and the reanalysis arises, namely over the Southern 417 Hemisphere the reanalysis shows more northward transport via meridional overturning 418 circulation and more southward transport via transient eddies. Since these two mechanisms act in 419 the different direction the AHT does not show large differences between the reanalysis and the 420 models' mean. The separation of the MOC into its dry and moist parts (Figure 1e) reflects the 421 poleward transport of potential and sensible heat in the upper part of the Hadley cell and the 422 equatorward latent heat transport in the lower part of the Hadley cell. The transport of the two

- 423 parts do not balance out each other resulting in a net poleward energy transport. Stationary
- 424 eddies show importance in the poleward latent heat transport around 30° both North and South,
- 425 representing the monsoon systems (Figure 1d). Stationary eddies also transport dry static energy
- to the northern midlatitudes, mainly during winter, representing planetary waves (Masuda,
- 427 1988). Transient eddies, meaning extratropical cyclones, transport the major share of
- 428 atmospheric energy at the midlatitudes both in moist and dry form (Figure 1b and f).





Figure 1. Annual meridional heat transport and its different parts in the preindustrial control
simulations of the 5 DeepMIP ensemble members and the ERA5 reanalysis. Bold lines
representing the ensemble mean thin lines representing each model and dashed lines are

- 433 calculated from ERA5 (1991-2020) reanalysis. The partitions of MHT are: a)Meridional Heat
- 434 Transport, divided between Atmospheric (AHT) and Oceanic (OHT) part b) Atmospheric

- 435 transport divided into Meridional Overturning Circulation (MOC), Stationary Eddies (SE) and
- Transient Eddies (TE) c) Atmospheric transport divided to dry and moist parts d) Atmospheric
- transport via SE and its dry and moist parts e) Atmospheric transport via MOC and its dry and
- 438 moist parts f) Atmospheric transport via TE and its dry and moist parts.
- 439 4.2 Effect of the Non-CO₂ forcing on the Eocene MHT

440 Comparing the preindustrial control simulations to the respective Eocene simulations at 441 the same preindustrial CO_2 level (1xCO₂) reveals the combined influence of the non-CO₂ related 442 changes, such as the paleogeography, vegetation, or the lack of continental ice sheets, on MHT 443 changes. The early Eocene 1xCO₂ simulations are 3-5 °C warmer than the preindustrial 444 simulations due to these non-CO₂ boundary conditions (Lunt et al., 2021). Figure 2 shows the 445 differences between the 1xCO₂ and preindustrial control simulation. The difference shows that 446 there is more southward MHT in the 1xCO₂ simulation than in the pre-industrial one, which is 447 mainly due to an increase in the oceanic southward heat transport (Figure 2a). This results in 448 smaller poleward MHT in the Northern Hemisphere but larger in the Southern Hemisphere 449 during the Eocene. In other words, due to the Eocene boundary conditions in the Northern 450 Hemisphere the atmospheric poleward transport increases and the ocean transport decreases and 451 in the Southern Hemisphere the other way around.

452 The change in the dry and moist transport of the atmosphere is asymmetric. North from 453 the Tropic of Cancer (30°N), more latent heat is transported northward and south from it more 454 latent heat is transported southward. The dry static heat transport changes show the opposite 455 sign. When taking into consideration the direction of transport (see Figure 1c), this means that 456 over the Northern Hemisphere there is more moisture transport equatorward in the tropics and 457 more poleward transport at midlatitudes, while the dry static energy transport compensates these 458 changes, with more poleward transport at the tropics and less at higher latitudes (Figure 2c). On 459 the other hand, over the Southern Hemisphere the tropical equatorward latent heat transport 460 decreases and the extratropical poleward latent heat transport increases. The poleward dry static 461 energy transport decreases at all southern latitudes. These together lead to a net increase 462 (decrease) in atmospheric poleward transport in the Northern (Southern) Hemisphere, which as 463 mentioned above is overcompensated by the ocean. An increase in poleward latent heat transport 464 also has an important role in polar amplification.

465 Among the different physical processes in the atmosphere the most prominent change is 466 the increased heat transport by transient eddies between 30°N-60°N and 60°S-90°S (Figure 2b). 467 These represent heat transport by extratropical cyclones, so either the number of cyclones is 468 higher or the strength of them is stronger in the Eocene simulation (or both). To quantify the 469 number of cyclones and their features, a higher than monthly temporal resolution is needed for 470 the model outputs. The increased energy transport by transient eddies is mostly compensated by 471 the stationary eddies and the meridional overturning circulation (Figure 2b). There is also a 472 decrease in the transport of the Northern Hemispheric monsoon systems, meaning the moist 473 stationary eddies at the subtropics (Figure 2d). The Hadley circulation, MOC at the tropical belt, 474 also shows an asymmetric shift, with more energy being overturned in the northern cell, and less 475 in the southern one, while the net poleward MOC energy transport stays close to the control 476 simulation (Figure 2e).



477

478 Figure 2. Meridional Heat Transport and its parts, same as Figure 1, but showing the differences
479 between the 1xCO₂ Eocene and the preindustrial control simulations.

481 4.3 Effect of the CO₂ forcing on the Eocene MHT

482 The effect of higher CO₂ concentrations on early Eocene transport processes is studied by 483 quantifying the changes between the $3xCO_2$ and $6xCO_2$ simulations relative to the $1xCO_2$ 484 simulation (Figure 3 and 4). We compare the 6xCO2 simulation also to the 1xCO2 one to display 485 the intensification of the signal due to CO_2 rise. The DeepMIP ensemble has more models 486 available with 3xCO₂ simulations, thus for this comparison we use 5 different models (CESM, 487 COSMO, GFDL, HadCM3, MIROC), while for the 6xCO₂ comparison we only include two 488 simulations from the CESM and GFDL models. Nevertheless, these two latter simulations, are 489 proven to be the most successful in representing the global mean surface temperature, global 490 mean SST and global meridional SST gradient when compared to proxy data (Lunt et al., 2021).

491 When comparing the changes relative to the Equator, we see mostly symmetric changes, 492 thus the effect of CO2 rise is global and influences both hemispheres in a similar way. For the 493 3xCO2 simulation we find an increase in poleward MHT, which mainly results from the 494 atmosphere (Figure 3a), while at the 6xCO2 simulation the MHT is fluctuating around zero 495 (Figure 4a) In the latter case anomalies in the atmospheric and ocean heat transport counteract 496 one another, i.e., the Bjerknes compensation is present. The differences between the two figures, 497 and hence CO₂ concentrations, can also arise from the different set of models used for the 498 ensemble mean. Especially, since GFDL presents a non-linear behavior, and from 4xCO2 to 499 6xCO2 concentration a slight decrease in the full MHT is found over the Northern Hemisphere. 500 Its magnitude is smaller than the CESM signal, thus the ensemble mean still indicates a positive 501 poleward transport change. Nevertheless, both at 3xCO2 and 6xCO2 concentration, the poleward 502 atmospheric heat transport increases and ocean's heat transport decreases or stays close to the 503 1xCO2 value in the ensemble mean. Polar amplification is also represented via the increased 504 latent heat transport from the subtropics towards the poles, compensated by the dry static heat 505 transport (Figure 3c and 4c). Regarding the different physical processes in the atmosphere, we 506 see similar changes in both 3xCO₂ and 6xCO₂ simulations. (Figure 3b and 4b). At the tropics the 507 change in the net meridional overturning circulation transport is close to zero, but the dry static 508 and latent heat energy transport of the Hadley cell increases more so at the northern cell than at 509 the south (Figure 3e and 4e). The subtropics, are mostly defined by the increased poleward 510 transport of moist stationary eddies, namely the transport of the monsoon systems, more in the 511 6xCO2 than in the 3xCO₂ simulation (Figure 3d and 4d). At midlatitudes the poleward transport 512 of transient eddies increases slightly, especially in the 6xCO₂ simulations (Figure 4f), but the 513 magnitude of change is smaller than, what the non- CO_2 constraints caused in the $1xCO_2$ 514 simulations (see Figure 2f).





516 **Figure 3**. Meridional Heat Transport and its parts, same as Figure 2, but showing the differences 517 between the 3xCO₂ and the 1xCO₂ paleo simulation.





Figure 4. Meridional Heat Transport and its parts, same as Figure 3, but showing the
 differences between the 6xCO₂ and the 1xCO₂ paleo simulation. The ensemble here consists only
 two models: CESM, GFDL.

523 4.4 Total change between present and past

524 Finally, we investigate the overall heat transport changes between the simulated 525 preindustrial and most-likely Eocene climate states. This is important as it is the relevant change 526 when comparing Eocene proxy data to present day conditions, and because the individual 527 changes due to the CO2 and the non-CO2 constrains are potentially nonlinear and can counteract 528 each other.

529 In the full meridional heat transport, we see more changes in the Northern Hemisphere, 530 where the atmosphere transports more energy while the ocean compensates this with less 531 transport (Figure 5a). There is an increase of latent heat transport toward the polar regions at 532 both hemispheres in the EECO climate, which is compensated by the decrease in dry static 533 energy transport at the midlatitudes (Figure 5c). In the tropics we find that the net transport via 534 meridional overturning circulation stays close to the preindustrial values, but the dry (poleward) 535 and moist (equatorward) energy transport increases in the Hadley cell, especially in the northern 536 cell (Figure 5e). At the southern subtropics slightly more latent heat transport via stationary 537 eddies is shown in the EECO simulations (Figure 5d). This means that the monsoon systems in 538 the Southern Hemisphere transported more energy during the EECO. Nevertheless, it has been 539 shown in the previous two subsections that the monsoon in the Northern Hemisphere also 540 changed, but with opposite signs due to the respective CO2 and non-CO2 forcings. Thus, the 541 overall monsoonal transport changes in the Northern Hemisphere are small. At the midlatitudes, 542 especially in the Northern Hemisphere more energy is transported via transient eddies (cyclones) 543 during the Eocene, which is again compensated by less transport via stationary eddies (Figure 544 5b,d,and e). In the Southern Hemisphere we find slightly less transient eddy transport in the 545 EECO than in the preindustrial simulations.



548 **Figure 5**. Meridional Heat Transport and its parts, same as Figure 1, but showing the 549 preindustrial control (solid lines) and 6xCO2 (dashed lines) simulation results. The included 550 models are: CESM, GFDL.

551 **5 Discussion**

552 The analysis of the different transport processes identified those large scale circulation 553 patterns, which are either effected by the changes in the paleo set up or by the changes in the 554 CO₂ concentration. These, heading from the tropics to the pole, are the Hadley cell, the monsoon 555 and the mid-latitude cyclones. In this section we discuss the changes in these large scale patterns 556 in more detail.

557 5.1 Hadley Cell

558 We found that due to both the CO₂ and non-CO₂ constraints more dry static energy and 559 latent heat is turned around by the Hadley cells. Since all these simulations have a generally 560 warmer climate than the control simulation it means that part of the surplus of energy compared 561 to the preindustrial simulation, is coming from the higher capacity of air to hold water vapor due 562 to the warmer atmosphere. Both the CO₂ and non-CO₂ constraints cause a larger change of the 563 Northern Hadley cell. When investigating the circulation of the Hadley in the high CO₂ 564 simulations via streamfunction, all models show a weakening intensity of the Southern cell and a 565 shift of the Northern cell towards south. The intensity of the Northern cell is strengthening in 566 HadCM3, MIROC and COSMOS, while CESM and GFDL show a slight weakening (see Table 567 2). In Figure 6 one can see this on the example of GFDL. The southern cell is decreasing in 568 intensity with the CO₂ rise, while the northern cell is expanding, mostly southward, and slightly 569 increases in intensity. The equatorward expansion of the northern cell can be partially explained 570 by the paleogeography. In the Eocene less continental land areas were located in the northern 571 tropical belt. This could lead to a relative southward shift of the Intertropical Convergence Zone 572 (ITCZ), given that during the summer half year the ITCZ travels poleward mostly over the continental areas. Nevertheless, the reason for the hemispheric asymmetry in overturned energy, 573 574 intensity and position between the northern and southern Hadley cell due to CO₂ constraints is 575 not entirely clear. These findings are in line with what we see in the modern day changing, 576 warming climate. The 6th IPCC report states that there has been a likely widening of the Hadley 577 circulation since the 1980s, accompanied by a strengthening of the Hadley circulation,

578 particularly in the Northern Hemisphere (Gulev et al., 2021).

579

580 **Table 2**

581	Streamfunction maximum and minimum values [kg/s] in the different models and
582	simulations, indicating the intensity of each Hadley cell.

	CESM		GFDL		HadCM3		COSMOS		MIROC	
	South	North								
piControl	1,0E+11	-8,8E+10	7,8E+10	-8,2E+10	9,2E+10	-9,6E+10	9,1E+10	-7,3E+10	1,1E+11	-7,3E+10
1xCO ₂	6,1E+10	-7,4E+10	6,7E+10	-7,6E+10	9,0E+10	-1,4E+11	8,7E+10	-9,2E+10	9,2E+10	-8,8E+10
3xCO ₂	5,5E+10	-6,7E+10	5,1E+10	-6,8E+10	7,9E+10	-1,3E+11	8,1E+10	-8,6E+10	8,4E+10	-9,9E+10
6xCO ₂	5,4E+10	-6,6E+10	4,2E+10	-6,5E+10						



584



587 5.2 Monsoon

588 At the subtropics the transport via moist stationary eddies represents the transport of 589 monsoon systems. The analysis of the non- CO_2 effects showed a decrease in their transport in the 590 Northern Hemisphere and the CO_2 effects analysis showed an increase in transport with the CO_2 591 rise. Thus, we investigate the monsoon area to better evaluate these changes. The monsoon area 592 is defined by a precipitation index in all simulations.

593 In Figure 7 the monsoon areas are plotted from the CESM preindustrial 1x, 3x and $6x_{CO2}$ 594 concentration simulation. Paleogeography plays an important role in defining monsoon areas, 595 this is shown in that the fraction of monsoon area is smaller in the early Eocene set-up than in the 596 preindustrial. From the preindustrial to the $1xCO_2$ simulations, the percentage of monsoon areas 597 decreases slightly or stays the same in all models (see Table 3). The mean of the ensemble shows 598 that in the preindustrial simulations the monsoon covers 18.7% of the globe, while in the 1xCO₂ 599 this area is reduced to 14.8%. This correlates well with the slight decrease in the transport of 600 moist stationary eddies in the subtropics on Figure 2d. From the 1x to the 3x and to the $6xCO_2$

simulations (for CESM), the monsoon area increases at higher CO₂. This also correlates well

602 with the results seen in the transport figures, where there is an increase in moist stationary eddy

transport in the subtropics (Figure 3d and 4d). The only exception from the increase of monsoon area with CO_2 rise, is GFDL there is a decrease in monsoon area between the 3x and $6xCO_2$

605 simulation.

606 When comparing the preindustrial climate to the EECO, namely the preindustrial 607 simulations to the 6xCO₂ simulations for CESM and GDFL simulations, we see that the effect of the non-CO₂ constraints (smaller monsoon area in the Eocene) and the effect of the CO₂ forcing 608 609 (higher water holding capacity of the warmer atmosphere) compensate each other in terms of the 610 energy being transported. This agrees well with the findings of Licht et al. (2014), who 611 investigated proxy data from Asia in the late Eocene (gastropod shells and mammal teeth from 612 Myanmar, and aeolian dust deposition in northwest China) and found monsoon like patterns in rainfall and wind. They also concluded that the enhanced greenhouse conditions counterbalanced 613 614 the negative effect of lower Tibetan relief on precipitation. In summary, when comparing present 615 and EECO monsoon systems from the energetic point of view, there is no large difference (Figure 5d), nevertheless the reason for this is due to compensating mechanisms. Note that this 616 617 does not indicate that there is no significant change in monsoon precipitation intensity.

a) piControl b) 1xCO₂



618

Figure 7. Monsoon area defined by the Monsoon Precipitation Index (MPI) with the unit of
 mm/day : a) preindustrial control b) 1xCO₂ c) 3xCO₂ and d) 6xCO₂ simulation of the CESM
 model.

622

624 Table 3

625

Global monsoon area in percentages in the different models and simulations.

626

	CESM	GFDL	HadCM3	MIROC	COSMOS	ENS
piControl	18.83	21.87	17.97	16.36	18.45	18.70
1xCO ₂	14.61	19.17	13.59	10.47	16.43	14.85
3xCO ₂	14.91	19.95	14.26	12.75	22.43	16.86
6xCO ₂	15.42	18.04	-	-	-	16.73

627

628 5.3 Midlatitude cyclones

629 We found that in the paleo set up even without the CO₂ increase, more energy is being 630 transported via midlatitude cyclones especially in the Northern Hemisphere (Figure 2b). This can 631 be explained by an increase in semi-permanent low pressure systems, in other name centers of 632 action, in the Eocene simulations. On Figure 8 the sea level pressure anomalies are representing 633 these centers of action. In the Northern Hemisphere in the preindustrial simulation one can 634 identify two main low pressure systems during winter (Figure 8a), the Icelandic and the Aleutian 635 lows, while in the Eocene even four low pressure centers can be identified. We call these the 636 Icelandic, the Aleutian, the Gulf of Alaska and the Eurasian Low (Figure 8c).

637 The development of these semi-permanent pressure features is connected to the thermal 638 contrast between the ocean and the continent during winter, due to the different heat capacity of 639 land and sea. This also explains why the semi-permanent pressure systems develop differently in 640 the paleo set up. In the Eocene world there was a wider Pacific basin and a narrower Atlantic 641 basin together with the existence of the Turgai Sea or West Siberian Sea, an epicontinental sea 642 separating Europe from Asia. The existence of the West Siberian Sea, which is located in the 643 northern midlatitudes, lead, in the models, to the development of an Eurasian Low pressure system that is not in present in the modern times. The wider Pacific basin and the presence of the 644 645 Bering land bridge lead, in the models, to a split in the Aleutian Low, so in the Eocene both an 646 Aleutian Low and a Gulf of Alaska Low are present in the simulations. Over the Southern 647 Hemisphere the position of the Antarctic continent did not change so much thus the pressure 648 systems in the models developed similarly as in the present climate (Figure 8 b and d).

649 We hypothesize that the increase in the energy transport via transient eddies in the 650 paleosimulations are due to the increase in cyclonic activity due to more semi-permanent low 651 pressure systems over the northern midlatitudes. This can mean more and/or deeper cyclones 652 than in the present climate. To quantitatively assess this, the model output in our study with the 653 monthly temporal resolution is insufficient.



654



657 6 Conclusions

658 In this study we calculated and analyzed the meridional heat transport and its partition in 659 the atmosphere in climate model simulations of the preindustrial and the Early Eocene Climatic 660 Optimum (EECO). We used simulations from five climate models (CESM, COSMOS, GFDL, 661 HadCM3, and MIROC) provided by the DeepMIP community. The transport values are 662 calculated from monthly mean data, and we distinguish between the different physical 663 mechanisms, which transport energy in the atmosphere. The impacts of the non-CO₂ related 664 conditions (paleogeography, vegetation, no continental ice sheets) and the CO₂ concentration 665 forcing on the transport processes are calculated first separately, and then in combination, to 666 allow a full comparison of heat transport in the preindustrial and early Eocene. The transport 667 processes via the Hadley cell, the monsoon systems and the midlatitude cyclones are analyzed in 668 more detail as these large-scale circulation patterns are identified as being different in the EECO 669 compared to present day.

670 Our first research question investigates the DeepMIP models' skill in capturing the 671 characteristics of transport processes in the preindustrial simulations (section 4.1). Overall, the 672 DeepMIP ensemble mean and the reanalysis transport values show good agreement. Only the 673 Southern Hemispheric tropical MOC transport shows marked differences, but due to two 674 compensating mechanisms the overall atmospheric heat transport is still similar between the 675 reanalysis and the multi-model mean.

676 The impacts of non-CO₂ constraints (paleogeography, vegetation, no continental ice 677 sheet) on the different transport processes show hemispheric asymmetry. In the $1xCO_2$ Eocene 678 simulations the total poleward MHT is smaller in the Northern Hemisphere but larger in the 679 Southern Hemisphere. This is mainly due to an increase in oceanic heat transport towards the

- 680 South Pole, which is in line with the findings of Zhang et al. (2022), who investigated deep 681 water formation in the DeepMIP simulations. They found strong Southern Hemisphere-driven
- 682 oceanic overturning circulation in the Eocene opposed to today's North Hemispheric-driven one.
- 683 Considering the different physical processes most notable is the extra heat transport by transient
- 684 eddies at the mid latitudes, which is compensated by a loss in energy transport via stationary
- 685 eddies. The increase in cyclonic heat transport is explained by changes in paleogeography. The
- existence of an extra epicontinental sea at the north midlatitudes, with possible high land-sea
 thermal contrast, results in a semi-permanent pressure system, which impacts the transient eddies
- at the midlatitudes. Also, the wide Pacific basin results in a split in the Aleutian Low. Thus, in
- 689 the end during the Eocene winter there were probably 4 semi-permanent low pressure systems 690 present at the northern midlatitudes as opposed to the only two in present day climate. The
- 691 increase in semi-permanent lows likely results in an increase in cyclone numbers as well, but to
- 692 quantify this, one needs high temporal resolution output from the models. A decrease in North
- Hemispheric monsoon latent heat transport, is also linked to the change in topography, since the
- 694 location of land areas highly determines the monsoon area.

695 Transport changes, which are solely due to CO₂ increases in the 3x and 6x CO₂ EECO 696 simulations, are especially relevant to better understand and predict changes under the future 697 climate change. We find that with increasing CO₂, the atmosphere transports more heat 698 poleward, while the ocean transports the same amount or less. The results also show that the 699 Hadley cell overturns more heat on the northern side of the Equator more than on the southern 700 side. Also, monsoon systems transport more latent heat from the subtropics to the higher 701 latitudes. This indicates that with CO₂ rise the hydrological cycle intensifies. This agrees well with what have been found in our current changing climate. At the end of the 20th century the 702 703 Hadley circulation is shown to be strengthening particularly in the Northern Hemisphere, while 704 the global monsoon precipitation shows a positive trend in the Northern Hemisphere (Gulev et 705 al., 2021).

706 Our third research question considers the total change between the preindustrial control 707 and EECO simulations, and asks which physical processes are affected the most. In our results 708 we see more changes in the Northern Hemisphere, where the atmosphere transports more heat 709 poleward while the ocean compensates this with less poleward heat transport (Figure 5a). There 710 is an increase of latent heat transport towards the polar regions in both hemispheres in the EECO 711 climate and a decrease in poleward dry static energy transport. This is connected to the intense 712 polar amplification of the EECO world. Of the effected physical processes, the Hadley cell 713 changes both under the CO₂ and non-CO₂ constraints, with an asymmetric shift. More energy is 714 being overturned in the northern cell, and less in the southern one, while the net poleward MOC 715 heat transport stays close to the control simulation. Monsoon systems are also affected by both 716 the non-CO₂ and CO₂ constraint, but in an opposite way. We found smaller monsoon areas in the 717 Eocene, due to the different topography, while at a higher CO₂ concentration, the warmer 718 atmosphere's higher water holding capacity means that more heat is transported poleward by the 719 monsoons. Thus, the overall transport change of the monsoon systems is not large. At the 720 midlatitudes cyclones' heat transport increase mainly in the Northern Hemisphere, due to the 721 before mentioned topography differences.

In summary we found that transport processes indicate a more intense hydrological cycle and also polar amplification in the warmer EECO climate. The different boundary conditions and higher CO₂ concentration lead to asymmetric changes in the Hadley circulation and its strength,

also to smaller but more intense monsoon systems, and a possible increase in Northern

726 Hemisphere midlatitude cyclones due to the different distribution of land and see at the northern

midlatitudes. A more detailed analysis of these large scale circulation patterns in higher temporal

and spatial resolution model results and their comparison to proxy data is the focus of our furtherresearch.

730

731 Acknowledgments

732 733 This research was funded through the VeWA consortium (Past Warm Periods as Natural 734 Analogues of our high-CO₂ Climate Future) by the LOEWE programme of the Hessen Ministry 735 of Higher Education, Research and the Arts, Germany. The CESM project is supported 736 primarily by the National Science Foundation (NSF). This material is based upon work 737 supported by the National Center for Atmospheric Research, which is a major facility sponsored 738 by the NSF under Cooperative Agreement No. 1852977. The GFDL simulations were performed 739 using resources from the Swedish National Infrastructure for Computing (SNIC) at the National 740 Supercomputer Centre (NSC), partially funded by the Swedish Research Council grant 2018-741 05973. ADB acknowledges support from Swedish Research council grant 2020-04791. SS 742 acknowledges funding from the NERC SWEET grant (grant no. NE/P01903X/1). The 743 MIROC4m simulations were performed on the Earth Simulator supercomputer and funded by 744 Kakenhi grants 17H06104 and 17H06323. The results contain modified Copernicus Climate 745 Change Service information 2022. Neither the European Commission nor ECMWF is 746 responsible for any use that may be made of the Copernicus information or data it contains.

747

748 Open Research

The DeepMIP PI and Eocene simulations are available by following the instructions
at <u>https://www.deepmip.org/data-eocene/</u>; please see (Lunt et al., 2021). Hersbach, H. et al.,
(2019) was downloaded from the Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S) Climate Data Store.

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