The effect of the 18.6-year lunar nodal cycle on steric sea level changes

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Abstract

We show that steric sea-level varies with a period of 18.6 years along the western European coast. We hypothesize that this variation originates from the modulation of semidiurnal tides by the lunar nodal cycle and associated changes in ocean mixing. Accounting for the steric sea level changes in the upper 400 m of the ocean solves the discrepancy between the nodal cycle in mean sea level observed by tide gauges and the theoretical equilibrium nodal tide. Namely, by combining the equilibrium tide with the nodal modulation of steric sea level, we close the gap with the observations. This result supports earlier findings that the observed phase and amplitude of the 18.6-year cycle do not always correspond to the equilibrium nodal tide.

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13	Key points:
14 15	 Steric sea level changes are influenced by the 18.6-year lunar nodal cycle along the western European coast
16 17	• This influence could result from the modulation of semidiurnal tides by the lunar nodal cycle and the associated change in ocean mixing
18 19 20	• This finding is a step toward resolving the long-standing discrepancy between the theoretical long-period nodal tide and observed signal
20	Abstract
21	We show that steric sea-level varies with a period of 18.6 years along the western European coast. We
23	hypothesize that this variation originates from the modulation of semidiurnal tides by the lunar nodal cycle
24	and associated changes in ocean mixing. Accounting for the steric sea level changes in the upper 400 m
25	of the ocean solves the discrepancy between the nodal cycle in mean sea level observed by tide gauges
26	and the theoretical equilibrium nodal tide. Namely, by combining the equilibrium tide with the nodal
27	modulation of steric sea level, we close the gap with the observations. This result supports earlier findings
28	that the observed phase and amplitude of the 18.6-year cycle do not always correspond to the equilibrium
29	nodal tide.
30	
31	Plain language summary:
32	The orbital position of the moon and the gravity pull it exerts on the earth varies with a period of 18.6
33	years. This cycle is called the lunar nodal cycle and it results in small variations of yearly averaged sea
34	level (~1 to 2 cm). Understanding this variability is important because it allows, for example, to quickly
35	detect an acceleration in local sea-level rise due to global warming. Here we show that the lunar nodal
36	cycle also has an influence on the temperature and salinity in the surface 400m of the ocean. As a result,
37	the ocean density changes and amplifies sea level variations along the western European coast. We
38	make the hypothesis that since the lunar nodal cycle also influences the amplitude of the semidiurnal
39	tides, and since those tides are known to be responsible for a large part of ocean mixing, a change in

40 ocean mixing could be the cause of the ocean density variability that we observe.

- 41 **1.** Introduction
- 42

43 The 18.6-year lunar nodal cycle, the precession of the lunar ascending node, produces the main 44 modulation of the tidal range on decadal timescales (Pugh, 1987). Therefore, this cycle is important when 45 considering inter-annual variations in extreme sea level events and coastal flooding. The nodal 46 modulation of the tidal range amounts to up to 30 cm in different locations around the world (Haigh, Eliot, 47 & Pattiaratchi, 2011; Peng et al., 2019; Thompson et al., 2021; Enriquez et al., 2022). The spatial 48 variations in the amplitude and phase of the nodal modulations depend on the tidal characteristics, e.g. 49 diurnal or semidiurnal (Haigh, Eliot, & Pattiaratchi, 2011). Theoretically, the nodal modulation has an 50 effect of 3.7% on the semidiurnal M2 tide. The effect is relatively larger on the diurnal tides, K1 and O1, 51 namely 11% and 19% (Pugh, 1987). However, the equilibrium theory (i.e., assuming the constituents 52 conform to the tide-generating potential) seems to overpredict the nodal modulation of the semidiurnal M2 53 tide in several regions of the world (Feng et al., 2015, Pineau-Guillou et al., 2021).

54

55 The nodal cycle is not only observed in the tidal range but also in mean sea level. The theoretical

56 equilibrium nodal tide has a maximum amplitude at the poles, zero amplitude at ±35°N, is out-of-phase

57 between poles and equator and has no zonal dependence, much like a standing wave (Proudman, 1960).

58 The amplitude increases with about 25% when accounting for loading and self-attraction (Agnew &

59 Farrell, 1978; Woodworth, 2012). Multiple studies have observed the nodal tide in mean sea level time-

series from tide gauge records across the globe (Rossiter, 1967; Lisitzin, 1974; Iz, 2006; Cherniawsky et

al., 2010). Recently, research has found that the nodal cycle can influence estimates of sea level rise

62 acceleration (Houston & Dean, 2011; Baart et al., 2012; Keizer et al., 2023). However, the observed

63 phase and amplitude do not always seem to correspond to the equilibrium tide (Baart et al., 2012). This

64 may be partly due to a contamination of the signal with other multi-decadal oscillations (e.g., ocean-

65 atmosphere internal variability), as suggested by Woodworth (2012).

66

67 The question as to what extent the nodal tide - the long-period oscillation of mean sea level - follows the 68 equilibrium tide is thus still unresolved. Up to now, this guestion has been considered as detached from 69 the other nodal effect, the 18.6 years modulation of the tidal range and the associated modulation of tidal 70 current amplitudes. In this paper, we propose a possible connection between the two, via a long-period 71 modulation of tidal mixing and associated steric sea level changes. Internal tides have a large influence 72 on diapycnal mixing in the ocean (Munk & Wunsch, 1998; Garrett & St. Laurent, 2002, Vic et al., 2019). 73 Internal tides are generated when tidal waves encounter rough topography, such as mid-ocean ridges 74 and continental shelves (Polzin et al., 1997). They are a significant source term for the power input to the 75 oceanic internal wave field (Waterhouse, et al., 2014).

76

- 77 The influence of the nodal cycle on diapycnal mixing was hypothesized by Loder and Garrett (1978), who
- vised a model of vertical mixing showing significant variation in sea surface temperature (SST). McKinnell
- 8 Crawford (2007) showed a significant cross-correlation of the air temperature record and SSTs with the
- 80 lunar nodal cycle. Bi-decadal oscillations of SST were attributed to the nodal modulation of the high
- 81 frequency tides (Osafune & Yasuda, 2006), and the modified SST may be amplified through a midlatitude
- 82 air-sea interaction (Osafune, Masuda, & Sugiura, 2014). Recently, Joshi et al. (2023) suggested that not
- 83 only the SST, but also salinity and temperature at depth vary with the nodal cycle. This implies that the
- 84 density varies with the nodal cycle as well.
- 85
- 86 Interestingly, Frederikse et al. (2016), while closing the sea level budget for the Northwestern European
- 87 continental shelf, concluded that the observed nodal cycle follows the equilibrium law, which is in
- 88 apparent contradiction with Baart et al. (2012) and Keizer et al. (2023). However, Frederikse et al. (2016)
- 89 considered the signal that is left after having removed the effect of steric variations (as well as wind
- 90 effects and mass changes) on sea level. We argue in this paper that steric sea level changes are
- 91 responsible for the observed discrepancy between the 18.6-year cycle observed from tide gauges along
- 92 the western European coast and the equilibrium lunar nodal tide.
- 93

94 **2.** <u>Data</u>

95

96 Tide gauges

97 Yearly averaged mean sea-level measurements are used from fourteen tide gauges along the European 98 coast, namely: Cascais, Brest, Newlyn, Vlissingen, Hoek van Holland, IJmuiden, Den Helder, Harlingen, 99 Delfzijl, Cuxhaven, Esbjerg, North Shields, Stavanger and Bergen (Figure 1a). These stations are chosen 100 because their temporal coverage includes at least five nodal cycles. In addition, they have few data gaps. 101 The data before 1890 was discarded for all tide gauges to avoid the inclusion of a sea-level jump around 102 1885 (Frederikse and Gerkema, 2018; Baart et al., 2019).

3





109 *(blue)*.

110 Temperature and salinity

- 111 Two analysis products for temperature and salinity data are used, namely EN4.2.2 (Good et al., 2013)
- 112 with bias correction from Gouretski and Franco Reseghetti (2010) and IAP (Cheng et al., 2017). The
- 113 datasets contain objective analyses from the temperature and salinity data. Both datasets are gridded at
- 114 a 1°x1° horizontal resolution. The vertical resolution varies with depth with a higher resolution close to the
- 115 surface than at depth. The EN4 dataset covers the period 1900 to present and has 42 depth levels going
- 116 down to over 5000m water depth, while IAP provides data from 1940 to present covering 41 depth levels
- 117 down to a depth of 2000m.
- 118

119 Atmospheric reanalysis

- 120 The monthly mean zonal and meridional wind at 10m from two atmospheric reanalysis products are used.
- 121 The ERA5 reanalysis is available from 1940 to present (Hersbach et al., 2023), and has a spatial
- 122 resolution of 0.25°×0.25°. The second product, the Twentieth Century Reanalysis Version 3 (20CRv3) is
- 123 available from 1836 to 2015 (Slivinski et al., 2019), with a spatial resolution of 1.0°×1.0°.
- 124
- 125 **3.** <u>Method</u>

126

127 Equilibrium tide

- 128 The phase and the amplitude of the theoretical equilibrium tide for each location are determined using the
- equation provided by Woodworth (2012), which is based on Agnew & Farrell (1978). We assume that the
- 130 amplitude approximates the self-consistent equilibrium law, accounting for self-attraction and loading
- 131 (Richter et al., 2013), by including the factor *L*=*1.2* in Eq. 1, and that the phase does not shift (Woodworth,
- 132 2012). The period is 18.61 years, with the reference set at 1922.7. High extremes close to the poles occur
- 133 at the same time as low extremes along the equator, with a latitude of separation at $\pm 35.3^{\circ}$ N. The
- amplitude is dependent on the latitude as well, with the maximum amplitude at the poles:

135
$$n = A \cos\left(\frac{2\pi(t-1922.7)}{18.61} + \pi\right)$$
 with $A = A_e L(1+k_2-h_2)\left(3\sin(\frac{lat*\pi}{180})^2 - 1\right)$ [Eq. 1]

Where *n* is the surface displacement due to the nodal cycle, $k_2 = 0.298$, $h_2 = 0.6032$ and the amplitude A is expressed in cm; time t is measured in years. The parameters k_2 and h_2 are Love numbers and are included to account for the change in potential and elastic response of the solid Earth. The amplitude at the equator A_e is 0.88 cm (Table 1 from Woodworth (2012)).

140

141 Determining the nodal signal

- 142 To estimate the nodal cycle from the observations, a statistical model called Generalized Additive Model
- 143 (GAM) is used (Hastie and Tibshirani, 2017; Wood, 2020). This model is like a multi-linear regression with
- 144 the added benefit that it is not necessary to make assumptions on the shape of the trend. For the annual
- 145 averaged tide gauge data the model includes a trend, a sinusoidal function with free amplitude and phase
- 146 at the period of the nodal cycle, and zonal and meridional wind stress (Keizer et al., 2023). The wind
- 147 stress is included via terms $\sqrt{u^2 + v^2} * u$ and $\sqrt{u^2 + v^2} * v$, where *u* and *v* are the zonal and meridional
- 148 wind from the reanalysis. Wind from the nearest reanalysis grid box from the tide gauges are used in the
- 149 $\$ regression model. To model steric sea-level change, we do not include wind since there is no direct
- 150 physical mechanism relating them. The model fit to steric sea level change and one tide gauge are shown
- 151 in Figure 1b and 1c.
- 152

153 Steric sea level changes

- 154 Ocean density is computed from temperature and salinity data using the GSW-Python toolbox (TEOS-10,
- 155 2017), a python implementation of the Thermodynamic Equation of Seawater 2010 (TEOS-10).
- 156 Subsequently, steric sea level changes are derived. Steric sea-level changes on the continental shelf are
- 157 negligibly small because it is shallow. However, those in the deep ocean are felt on the shallow shelf
- 158 areas by mass transfer (Landerer et al., 2007). The choice for the appropriate deep-sea region and depth
- 159 of integration of steric sea-level change to estimate the influence of steric sea-level change on tide gauge
- 160 measurements was discussed in Bingham and Hughes (2012). Here we choose the region of the
- 161 extended Bay of Biscay (Figure 1a) which has a strong correlation with sea-level variability in the North
- 162 Sea (Frederikse et al., 2016). Frederikse et al. (2016) also showed that satellite altimetry observations

- 163 indicate a coherence between the North Sea and the Norwegian coast. Therefore, for all tide gauge
- 164 stations, we assume that the steric sea-level changes are equal to those of the extended Bay of Biscay.
- 165 As we go back in time the quality and quantity of temperature and salinity observations reduces. We find
- 166 that using steric sea-level data for the period 1960-2020 and integrating to a depth of 400m provides the
- 167 best fit with tide gauge observations (see supplementary material).
- 168

169 **4.** <u>Results</u>

170 We fit the GAM including a trend and a sinusoidal function with free amplitude and phase at the period of 171 the nodal cycle to each point of the steric sea-level change dataset to obtain the spatial variation of the 172 phase and magnitude (Figure 2a-b). For a large region from Northern Morocco to Ireland the nodal cycle 173 in the steric sea-level peaks around 2002 (Figure 2a). Along the coasts of the southern North Sea, the 174 peak in the steric sea-level change occurs later in time. To compare steric sea level-change to tide 175 gauges, we compute the difference between the nodal cycle estimated from the observed sea level signal 176 and the equilibrium tide at each tide gauge station. This provides an estimate of the influence of steric 177 sea-level change at the tide gauges. We see that for all tide gauges the phase of the maximum is around 178 2002, like in the region of the extended Bay of Biscay, even though local steric sea-level changes are 179 different. North of Scotland a sharp shift occurs, with a peak around 2004 in the Atlantic Ocean, while the 180 cycle in the Norwegian Sea peaks around 1995. The regions are therefore out-of-phase.

181 The amplitude of the nodal modulation in the steric sea level changes (Figure 2b) is small in the region 182 North of Scotland, where the phase is shifted. This might be due to the North Atlantic Current impinging 183 on the shelf and advecting steric anomalies away (Daniault et al., 2016). The amplitude is larger in the 184 extended Bay of Biscay, about 1 cm. On the northwest European shelf the amplitude is smaller, around 185 0.3 cm, because of the shallow depth. The smallest amplitude occurs in the southern North Sea. 186 However, at the tide gauges surrounding the North Sea, the amplitudes are larger than the amplitude in 187 the local steric sea level changes. These amplitudes are in the range of the amplitude in the steric sea 188 level changes in the extended Bay of Biscay. The results for both phase and magnitude of the estimated 189 steric sea-level changes at the tide gauges endorse the choice of the extended Bay of Biscay at the 190 region influencing the most the mass transport to the western European shelves resulting from steric sea-191 level changes.

192 To assess whether the period of the nodal cycle is dominant in the observed signal of steric sea-level 193 changes in the extended Bay of Biscay, we compute the spatially averaged steric sea-level in that region 194 and apply the GAM model with varying periods of the sinusoidal signal. We find that the amplitudes are 195 largest around 18.6 years (Figure 2c). This points towards the nodal cycle as the dominant multi-year 196 cycle and makes it unlikely that the observed signal would be the result of internal ocean-atmosphere 197 variability.



198

Figure 2. a) Phase and b) amplitude of the nodal modulation in the steric sea level changes integrated over the top 400m of the 200 ocean for the EN4 dataset. The phase is defined as the year when the sinusoidal signal reaches a maximum between 1993 and 201 2011. The dots indicate the phase (a) and amplitude (b) of the observed sea level minus the equilibrium tide at the tide gauges. c) 202 Amplitude of the sinusoidal function through the steric sea level changes for different periods expressed in years. d) Amplitudes 203 and e) phase of the different components of the nodal cycle for the fourteen tide gauges. The observed amplitudes include error 204 bars representing ± 1 standard deviation in the estimation of the nodal cycle from the tide gauge data. The average error in the 205 observed phase is 0.87 years [0.62-1.42 years]. Because the phase is annually resolved, the error bars are not shown. MSL 206 stands for Mean Sea Level in the legends of panels d and e.

207 The amplitude and phase of the different nodal cycle components (observed signal, equilibrium tide, 208 steric signal, sum of steric and equilibrium signal) at each tide gauge are shown in Figures 2d and 2e. 209 The amplitude of the equilibrium tide increases with latitude and is smaller than the observed nodal 210 amplitude at all tide gauges. The equilibrium tide only overlaps with the uncertainty range of observed 211 nodal cycle in Bergen. The nodal modulation of the steric sea-level changes is the same for all tide 212 gauges, as it is equal to the steric sea level changes of the extended Bay of Biscay. The steric amplitude 213 agrees more closely with the observed amplitude. Adding the steric and equilibrium components results in 214 most cases in an amplitude close to the observed amplitude. The sum is outside the observed uncertainty 215 range only for Brest. The equilibrium tide peaks in 2006, while the observed nodal cycle peaks in 2003 or 216 2004 for most tide gauge stations (Figure 2e). The nodal modulation in the steric sea-level change on the 217 other hand peaks earlier, in 2002. The sum of the steric and equilibrium nodal signals falls approximately 218 in the middle and approaches the phase of the observed signal better than the steric or equilibrium nodal

219 cycle for most tide gauges.

220 From the phase of the different components of the nodal cycle, it was apparent that the peak of the nodal

steric component precedes the peak of the equilibrium nodal tide. This can be clearly seen in Figure 3a.

222 The nodal steric leads the equilibrium tide by approximately four years. The M_2 tide is dominant in this

region and its range varies with the nodal cycle (Pineau-Guillou et al. 2021) as shown in Figure 3a for the

- tide gauge of Brest. It is in opposition of phase with the equilibrium tide, peaking around 1997. The effect of the nodal modulation on the M_2 tide at Brest is $\pm 4.3\%$ (Pineau-Guillou et al., 2021). The modulation in the steric sea level changes is in quadrature with the modulation in the tides, it increases when the amplitude of tides is larger than average, while the opposite occurs when the amplitude of tides is smaller than average. This suggests that larger tides, by increasing ocean mixing, drive a steric expansion of the top 400m in the extended Bay of Biscay.
- 230

231 Up to now we have considered steric sea level changes, which integrate density anomalies vertically, but

the effect of the nodal cycle on the density varies with depth (Figure 3b). The amplitude in the density is

233 largest in the top 400m of the water column, with a peak in amplitude around 50-100m water depth. The

difference in amplitude between the EN4 and IAP datasets is small. The phase of the nodal cycle

influence on density also varies with depth. Near the surface, the nodal signal in the density peaks around

236 2001, while at 400m water depth the peak occurs around 2005 (Figure 3c). Deeper than 400m depth

there is a discrepancy between EN4 and IAP possibly because of a lack of data before the deployment ofArgo floats.

239 We now look at vertical density profiles at different stages of the nodal cycle (Figure 3d). The density is

smallest at the moment of a maximum of steric sea level changes in the top 400m, while there is a small

positive anomaly for the deeper layers. The opposite is the case for the moment of a minimum amplitude,

where in the upper layers the density is largest. At the moment of a maximum increase in the steric sea

243 level, which corresponds with the largest amplitude in M2 tides, there is a negative anomaly in the top

244 200m and a positive one in the deeper water columns. This could be an indication of increased vertical

245 mixing.

246



Figure 3. a) Amplitude of the M2 tide in Brest from Pineau-Guillou et al. (2021), equilibrium nodal tide in Brest and modulation in
the steric sea level changes in the extended Bay of Biscay. b) Amplitude and c) phase of the nodal cycle in the density for water
depths between 0 and 1000m for the EN4 and IAP datasets. d) Density anomaly at four instances of the nodal modulation of
steric sea level changes between 0 and 1000m water depth for the EN4 dataset.

251 252

5. Conclusion and discussion

253

254 We used observational data to determine the effect of the lunar nodal cycle on steric mean sea level 255 changes. The results show that there is a nodal modulation of steric mean sea level changes in the 256 extended Bay of Biscay. This is linked to the nodal modulation of the semi-diurnal tides and, presumably, 257 the associated changes in tidal mixing. We argue that the nodal modulation of steric sea level combines 258 with the equilibrium nodal cycle at the western European coast by showing that their sum agrees more 259 closely with the observed nodal cycle than the equilibrium nodal tide alone. This confirms the findings of 260 earlier research that concluded that the observed nodal cycle does not follow the equilibrium tide 261 (Cherniawsky et al., 2010; Baart et al., 2012; Keizer et al., 2023). Accounting for the steric sea level

changes, as was done by Frederikse et al. (2016), closes the gap with the observed nodal cycle, thusresolving the discrepancy.

264

265 We propose that the observed nodal modulation of steric sea-level changes is a result of changes in tidal 266 mixing. This proposed mechanism is based on earlier research, linking changes in temperature and 267 salinity at depth to the nodal cycle (Joshi et al., 2023), and our findings that the modulation in the steric 268 signal is related to the modulation in high-frequency tides. However, we do not demonstrate the 269 mechanism directly. The variation in mixing intensity has a direct effect at the edge of the Northwest 270 European Continental shelf, but it remains unknown how this translates to the deep ocean. Numerical 271 computations with a regional ocean model would be needed to demonstrate how changes in mixing 272 intensity at the shelf affect the Bay of Biscay.

273

274 The mechanism we propose here for the western European coast cannot be directly generalised to other 275 regions. One of the limiting factors to determine the observed nodal cycle is the availability of long tide 276 gauge records. Another reason why the mechanism cannot be observed consistently in other regions of 277 the world might be the presence of ocean currents (Talley et al., 2011). In the extended Bay of Biscay, 278 the presence of strong ocean currents is limited, as the North Atlantic Current deflects towards the north 279 and south near the edge of the northwest European shelf (Daniault et al., 2016). The local density 280 anomalies remain relatively unaffected, and the small nodal signal can be detected. This is not the case 281 for most other coastal systems. For example, along the Japanese coast the Kuroshio current is strong 282 and the combined signal at the tide gauges in these regions does not approach the observed nodal signal 283 well. However, we found two other tide gauges for which the mechanism we propose seem to also be at 284 work. At the Pensacola tide gauge, in the Gulf of Mexico, the observed nodal cycle is approached 285 relatively well by adding the steric and equilibrium signals. This might be due to the weaker current further 286 into the Gulf. Another exception is the Ketchikan tide gauge. This tide gauge lays approximately between 287 the Alaska Current and the California Current System therefore the steric sea-level changes might be 288 relatively unaffected by these two current systems. 289

290 Open Research

All data and code necessary to reproduce the results presented in this paper are openly available. The tide gauge data was obtained from the Permanent Service for Mean Sea Level (https://psmsl.org, Holgate et al., 2013). EN.4.2.2 data were obtained from https://www.metoffice.gov.uk/hadobs/en4/ and are © British Crown Copyright, Met Office, provided under a Non-Commercial Government Licence http://www.nationalarchives.gov.uk/doc/non-commercial-government-licence/version/2/. The IAP data is

- 296 available from
- 297 <u>http://www.ocean.iap.ac.cn/ftp/cheng/CZ16_v3_IAP_Temperature_gridded_1month_netcdf/Monthly/</u> for
- 298 temperature and

- 299 <u>http://www.ocean.iap.ac.cn/ftp/cheng/CZ16_v0_IAP_Salinity_gridded_1month_netcdf/Monthly/</u> for
- 300 salinity. Surface wind from ERA5 are available from
- 301 https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-single-levels-monthly-
- 302 <u>means?tab=overview</u>. The 20th Century Reanalysis data is available at
- 303 <u>https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.20thC_ReanV3.html</u>. The ETOPO2 data is available at
- 304 <u>https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/products/etopo-global-relief-model</u>.
- 305 The code used to produce the results described in this paper is available on GitHub at
- 306 <u>https://github.com/KNMI-sealevel/CodeNodalCyclePaper</u> under the GNU General Public License v3.
- 307
- 308

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