

1 **Gulf Stream Moisture Fluxes Impact Atmospheric**  
2 **Blocks Throughout the Northern Hemisphere**

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6 **Key Points:**

- 7 • Gulf Stream moisture flux suppression reduces atmospheric blocking across the  
8 northern hemisphere.  
9 • Gulf Stream moisture fluxes generate larger jet stream perturbations, fostering faster  
10 westward-propagating Rossby waves.  
11 • Higher resolution models enhance signal transport from the boundary layer to the  
12 upper troposphere.

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**Abstract**

In this study, we explore the impact of oceanic moisture fluxes on atmospheric blocks using the ECMWF Integrated Forecast System. Artificially suppressing surface latent heat flux over the Gulf Stream region leads to a significant reduction (up to 30%) in atmospheric blocking frequency across the northern hemisphere. Affected blocks show a shorter lifespan (-6%), smaller spatial extent (-12%), and reduced intensity (-0.4%), with an increased detection rate (+17%). These findings are robust across various blocking detection thresholds. Analysis indicates a resolution-dependent response, with resolutions lower than Tco639 ( $\sim 18\text{km}$ ) showing no significant change in some blocking characteristics, even with reduced blocking frequency. Exploring the broader Rossby wave pattern, we observe that diminished moisture flux favours eastward propagation and higher zonal wavenumbers, while air-sea interactions promotes stationary and westward-propagating waves with zonal wavenumber 3. This study underscores the critical role of western boundary current's moisture fluxes in modulating atmospheric blocking.

**1 Introduction**

Understanding the mechanisms governing the formation and persistence of large-scale anticyclonic anomalies, commonly known as atmospheric blocks, is crucial for advancements in weather forecasting (Grams et al., 2018) and predicting the associated extreme temperatures (Pfahl & Wernli, 2012). Nearly a decade ago, Pfahl et al. (2015) linked these synoptic-scale features to upstream latent heating, an observation later substantiated by Steinfeld et al. (2020). Their experiment, suppressing latent heating along the warm conveyor belt of a cyclone, resulted in the subsequent suppression of atmospheric blocks, with some blocks failing to form at all within the 10-day simulations.

The ocean's role as a primary moisture source for atmospheric blocks was highlighted by Yamamoto et al. (2021), with theories by Mathews and Czaja (2024) suggesting that western boundary currents, like the Gulf Stream, modulate atmospheric blocking. This link was evidenced by increased blocking following heightened Gulf Stream heat transport, leading to warm water anomalies that boost surface latent heat flux (SLHF) and, consequently, moisture aiding block formation by transferring low potential vorticity (PV) air from lower to upper levels (Wenta et al., 2024).

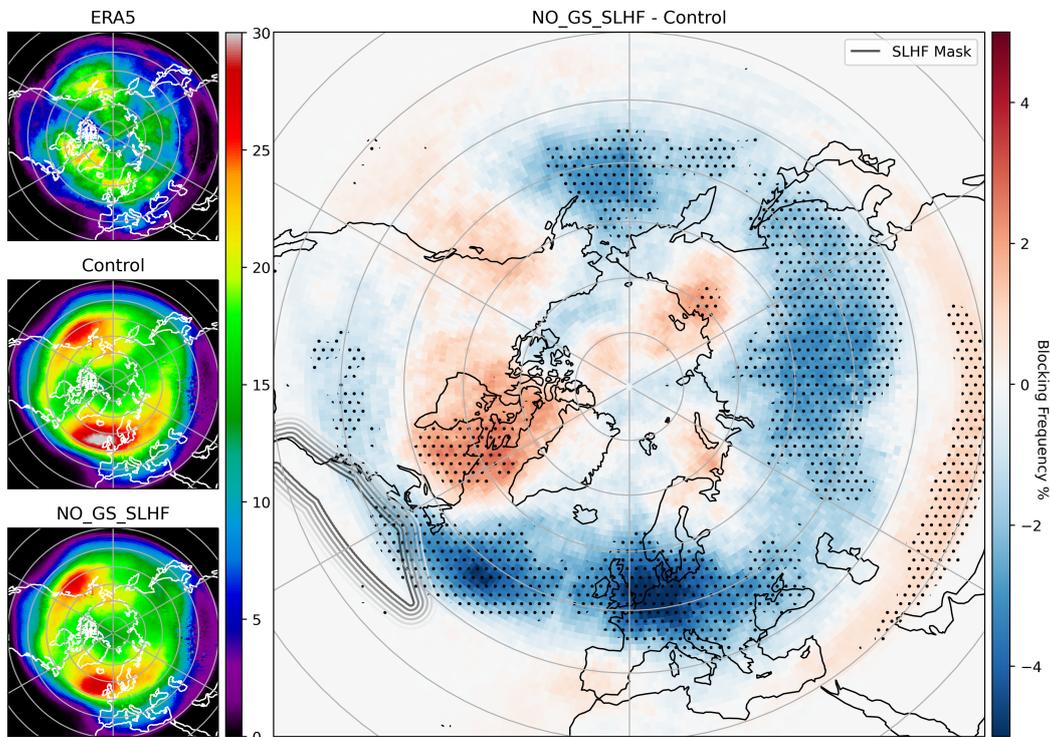
Emphasis has also been placed on both oceanic and atmospheric resolution to accurately represent air-sea interactions in coupled models (Hewitt et al., 2017). Notably, Paolini et al. (2021) found that models with atmospheric resolution coarser than 50km exhibited an entirely different response to sea surface temperature anomalies, showing weakened vertical motion and meridional transient eddy heat transport. The impact this had on atmospheric blocking increased with higher atmospheric resolutions.

In this study, we investigate the effect of moisture fluxes from the Gulf Stream region on atmospheric blocking in the northern hemisphere (NH) using the state-of-the-art European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) Integrated Forecast System (IFS). While this study emphasises changes in atmospheric blocks, we also examine the effect on the broader Rossby wave spectrum, as previously done by Randel and Held (1991). The paper is laid out as follows: Section 2 describes the model setup and the diagnostic methods used. Section 3 shows the effects Gulf Stream moisture suppression has on the upper troposphere, followed by our conclusions in Section 4.

**2 Data and Methodology****2.1 Model Set Up**

The results in this study are based on coupled ensemble reforecasts using the ECMWF IFS cycle 47r3 (ECMWF, 2023), configured as follows. The atmosphere is set up with

61 15 ensemble members, 137 model levels and run on Tco639, Tco319, and Tco199 cubic  
 62 octahedral reduced Gaussian grids, corresponding to resolutions of approximately 18km,  
 63 32km, and 50km, respectively. The IFS is coupled hourly to a 75-level NEMO v3.4 ocean  
 64 model (Madec et al., 2017) and an LIM2 sea ice model (Bouillon et al., 2009; Fichefet  
 65 & Maqueda, 1997), both utilising the ORCA025 tripolar grid with a grid spacing of ap-  
 66 proximately  $0.25^\circ$ . The ocean and atmosphere are fully coupled throughout the 46-day  
 67 forecast, producing output every 12 hours. Fifteen reforecasts are used, and the initial  
 68 dates are listed in the Supplementary Table 1. The atmospheric, land, and wave fields  
 69 were initialised from ERA5 (Hersbach et al., 2020), while the ocean and sea ice fields were  
 70 initialised from OCEAN5 and ORAS5 respectively (Zuo et al., 2019). These dates were  
 71 chosen based on the occurrence of a cyclone over the North Atlantic preceding the initial  
 72 block detected in the North Atlantic or Europe region, as observed from ERA5 data.  
 73 The forecast was initiated approximately 4 days before the observed block was initially  
 74 detected to allow the contributing cyclone to sufficiently interact with the Gulf Stream.  
 75 These events were chosen randomly, excluding the 2010 British Isles cold spell, the 2019  
 76 European heatwave, and the 2022 European cold spell, with priority given to more re-  
 77 cent dates due to higher-quality data assimilation (de Rosnay et al., 2022). All results  
 78 shown are for resolution Tco639 unless otherwise specified.



**Figure 1.** Mean blocking frequency for ERA5 (top left), the control run (middle left), the NO\_GS\_SLHF run (bottom left), and the difference between the NO\_GS\_SLHF and control runs (right). The grey contours indicate the SLHF mask applied, with the darkest (lightest) contour indicating complete suppression (permission). Stippling indicates areas that exceeded the 95% confidence interval.

79 To assess the impact of Gulf Stream (GS) SLHF on atmospheric blocking, a sensi-  
 80 tivity experiment was conducted. It compared the full physics control run to a corre-  
 81 sponding simulation with GS SLHF suppressed (here-after referred to as NO\_GS\_SLHF).

82 GS SLHF is turned off by applying a mask to the moisture transfer scheme (ECMWF,  
 83 2021), preventing moisture transfer where the mask is applied. This mask linearly re-  
 84 laxes, allowing complete moisture transfer after a distance of  $5^\circ$  from the original mask,  
 85 as illustrated by the grey contours in Fig. 1. The mask roughly corresponds to the re-  
 86 gion of  $200\text{Wm}^{-2}$  SLHF from wintertime ERA5 climatology in the North Atlantic and  
 87 was applied throughout the entire run.

## 88 2.2 Diagnostic Methods

89 Following Schwierz et al. (2004), blocking is identified as an upper-level negative  
 90 PV anomaly that surpasses defined thresholds for overlap, amplitude, spatial scale, and  
 91 duration. Initially, the PV field is averaged between 500hPa and 150hPa, and a two-day  
 92 running average is applied. To calculate the anomaly, a two-day smoothed daily ERA5  
 93 climatology is subtracted from the averaged PV field. The upper PV anomaly field is  
 94 then analysed using the Steinfeld (2020) algorithm, with thresholds for overlap, dura-  
 95 tion, amplitude, and size being 40%, 5 days,  $-1.2\text{PVU}$  and  $10^6\text{km}^2$  respectively. The re-  
 96 latively low overlap threshold is chosen due to the 12-hourly temporal output from the  
 97 model and to maximise the difference between the NO\_GS\_SLHF and control runs. Var-  
 98 ious threshold values were tested, and most results were comparable across different over-  
 99 lap and amplitude thresholds, as discussed in Section 3.3. Each detected block is labelled,  
 100 and its characteristics, including duration, size, and intensity (total PV per area), are  
 101 calculated for each time step. These characteristics are related to the overall blocking  
 102 frequency in the NH, as seen in Table 1, through the equations:

$$\text{Frequency}(x, y) = \frac{1}{TDM} \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{d=1}^D \sum_{m=1}^M f(x, y, t, d, m), \quad (1)$$

$$f(x, y, t, d, m) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if blocking is detected at grid point} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}, \quad (2)$$

$$\iint_{NH} \text{Frequency}(x, y), dx dy = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N \text{Duration} \times \overline{\text{Size}}}{\text{Forecast Length}}, \quad (3)$$

103

104 where  $T$ ,  $D$ ,  $M$ , and  $N$  represent the number of time steps, initial dates (as seen  
 105 in Supplementary Table 1), ensemble members, and blocks detected, respectively. The  
 106 overbar denotes the average over the life cycle of the block.

107 The phase speed - wavenumber analysis is conducted following Jiménez-Estevé et  
 108 al. (2022). First, an area-weighted latitudinal mean between  $40^\circ\text{N}$  and  $60^\circ\text{N}$  is computed  
 109 using the same upper PV anomaly field used for blocking detection. A fast Fourier trans-  
 110 form is then applied in the longitudinal direction. The phase speed of the Rossby waves  
 111 is calculated as per Randel and Held (1991).

112 Statistical significance at the 95% confidence interval is determined using a two-  
 113 tailed t-test between the ensemble members of the NO\_GS\_SLHF and control runs.

## 114 3 Results

### 115 3.1 The Effect on Atmospheric Blocking

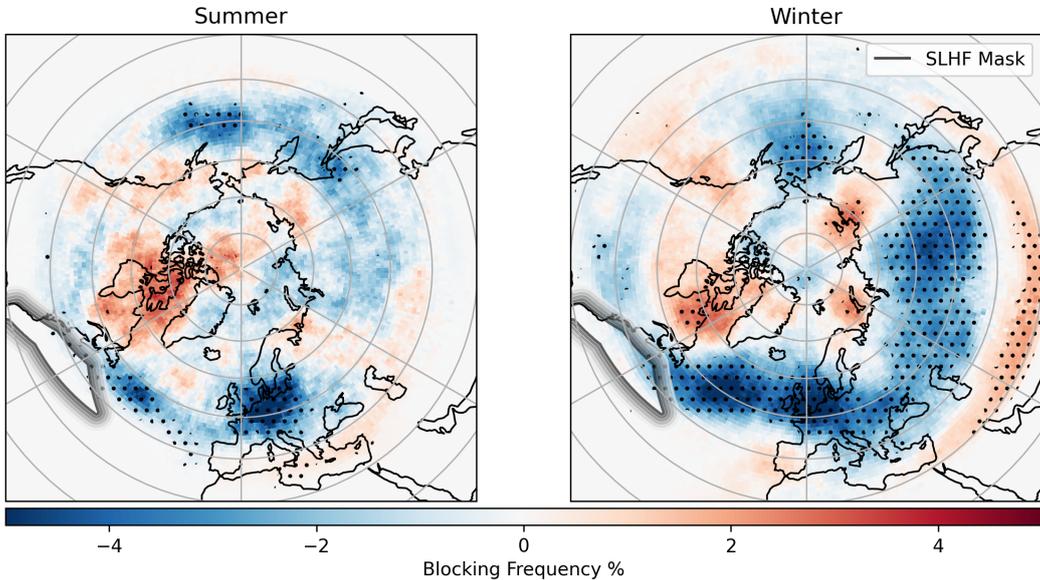
116 Fig. 1 compares average blocking frequencies from ERA5 data, control, and NO\_GS\_SLHF  
 117 simulations over a 46-day forecast. Both simulations show a more extensive frequency  
 118 of atmospheric blocking across the Northern Hemisphere than observed in ERA5, with

119 a smoother signal attributed to ensemble spread. The NO\_GS\_SLHF simulation reveals  
 120 a significant decrease in blocking frequency, by up to 30%, over the North Atlantic storm  
 121 track, Western Europe, Russia, and the North Pacific compared to the control, as high-  
 122 lighted in the right panel of Fig. 1. Conversely, it shows an increase in blocking over north-  
 123 eastern Canada and central Asia, though with a smaller spatial footprint and intensity,  
 124 suggesting a complex shift in blocking patterns.

**Table 1.** Percentage change in blocking frequency over the NH relative to the control run for the entire reforecast period is presented. The first two weeks of the forecast are shown in brackets. Winter reforecasts correspond to NDJFMA, while Summer corresponds to MJJASO, as indicated in Supplementary Table 1. Results significant over the 99% confidence interval are depicted in **bold**.

Resolution	All Dates	Winter	Summer
Tco639	<b>-4.34%</b> (-4.22%)	<b>-5.9%</b> (-6.64%)	<b>-2.45%</b> (-1.33%)
Tco319	<b>-3.88%</b> (-2.96%)	<b>-5.32%</b> (-4.90%)	<b>-2.60%</b> (-0.18%)
Tco199	<b>-3.35%</b> (-3.55%)	-3.30% (-5.27%)	<b>-3.41%</b> (-1.51%)

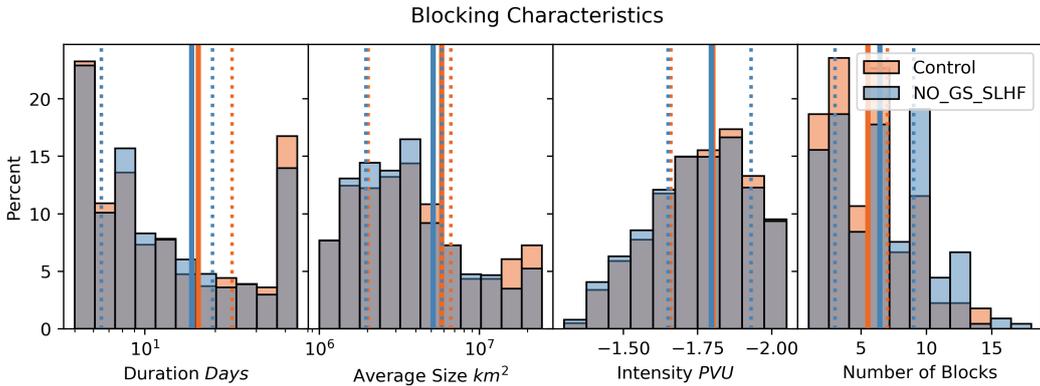
125 Results from the first two weeks of reforecasts align more closely with ERA5 (Sup-  
 126 plementary Fig. 1), indicating a significant decrease in blocking over the North Atlantic  
 127 and Western Europe. This suggests that the signal has not had sufficient time to prop-  
 128 agate, either directly through advection (Yamamoto et al., 2021) or indirectly via jet stream  
 129 resonance (Coumou et al., 2014; He et al., 2023), to the other oceanic basin. An over-  
 130 all reduction of 4.22% in Northern Hemisphere blocking frequency for this period was  
 131 observed, as detailed in Table 1.



**Figure 2.** The difference in mean blocking frequency between the NO\_GS\_SLHF and control runs for the extended summer (left) and extended winter (right). The grey contours indicate the SLHF mask applied, with the darkest (lightest) contour indicating complete suppression (permission). Stippling indicates areas that exceeded the 95% confidence interval.

132 Turning to the seasonal strength of this signal, the same analysis was conducted  
 133 for dates within the extended winter (NDJFMA) and extended summer (MJJASO) pe-  
 134 riods, as indicated in Supplementary Table 1. The results of this seasonal analysis are  
 135 presented in Fig. 2. The summer composite reveals a significant decrease in blocking over  
 136 the North Atlantic storm track, Western Europe, Northern Japan, and the North Pa-  
 137 cific. Additionally, during winter, a more prominent area of reduced blocking spans from  
 138 the Western North Atlantic to East Asia, accompanied by a signal in the North Pacific.  
 139 Notably, only the extended winter period exhibits the same spatial increases in block-  
 140 ing frequency as depicted in Fig. 1. Expanding this perspective to encompass the over-  
 141 all change in blocking frequency across the NH, once more, the dominance of the signal  
 142 in extended winter becomes evident, as displayed in Table 1.

143 Examining the changes in the atmospheric block’s characteristics reveals the im-  
 144 pact of air-sea interactions on individual blocks. Figure 3 shows the probability distribu-  
 145 tions of these characteristics. The solid line, representing the mean value, illustrates  
 146 that in the NO\_GS\_SLHF run, the blocks have shorter life cycles, a more compact spa-  
 147 tial signature, and exhibit weaker intensity, indicating a weaker negative PV anomaly  
 148 inside the blocks. Interestingly, the NO\_GS\_SLHF run detects more individual blocks com-  
 149 pared to the control run. However, due to their decreased duration and size, this discrep-  
 150 ancy is not substantial enough to result in an overall increase in blocking frequency, as  
 151 indicated in Table 1 and seen in Fig. 1 and 2. The dotted lines in Fig. 3 illustrate the  
 152 upper and lower quartiles of the distribution. This demonstrates that in the NO\_GS\_SLHF  
 153 run, there is a narrower range of block durations and sizes, indicating reduced variabil-  
 154 ity. Conversely, the NO\_GS\_SLHF run demonstrates wider variability in terms of the num-  
 155 ber of individual blocks detected and their respective intensities.

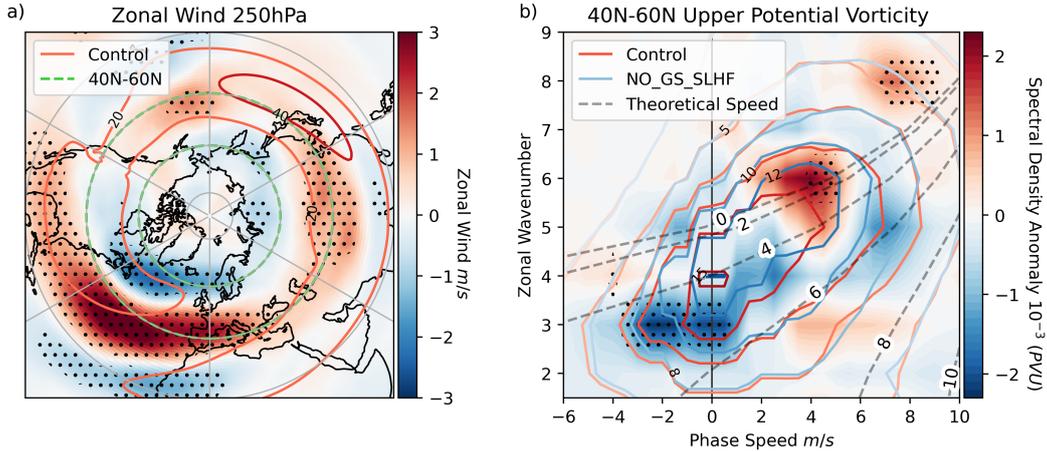


**Figure 3.** The distributions of the block characteristics for the control (light red) and NO\_GS\_SLHF (light blue) runs. From left to right the block’s duration, average size, intensity (total PV per area), and the number of individual blocks detected per forecast are shown. Solid lines represent the mean values, while dotted lines represent the upper quartiles.

### 156 3.2 Changes in the Jet Stream and Rossby Wave Characteristics

157 Examining the overall change in the jet stream due to suppressed GS SLHF reveals  
 158 a signal across the NH. Figure 4a illustrates the difference in the zonal wind at 250hPa  
 159 between the NO\_GS\_SLHF and control runs, with the average zonal wind for the con-  
 160 trol run depicted with the red contours. In the North Atlantic, an equatorward shift is  
 161 seen in the eddy-driven jet, while a poleward shift is seen in the subtropical jet, sugges-  
 162 tive of a merged jet. Further downstream over central Asia and the North Pacific, there

163 are signs of a poleward shift in the jet. Additionally, there is a more general increase in  
 164 jet speed over the North Pacific that aligns with the decrease in atmospheric blocking  
 165 seen in Figs. 1 and 2. This is in line with the links between zonal wind and atmospheric  
 166 blocking seen by Riboldi et al. (2020). While there is a small but significant increase in  
 167 the zonal wind above the 95% confidence interval for the entire NH of 0.9% in the NO\_GS\_SLHF  
 168 run, there is no dipole signal when averaging above and below the jet stream maximum,  
 169 suggestive of no overall meridional shift in the jet stream. This result is also confirmed  
 170 by meridional cross sectional composites (Supplementary Fig. 2).



**Figure 4.** The zonal wind at 250hPa (a) and the power spectrum of the vertically averaged anomalous PV field from 500hPa to 150hPa within the latitudinal range of 40°N to 60°N (b) are presented. In both figures, the shading illustrates the difference between the NO\_GS\_SLHF and control runs, with the blue and red contours representing their respective reforecast means. The region between 40°N and 60°N is indicated by green dashed lines. The theoretical phase speed for different meridional wavenumbers at 40°N, applying a background flow of 16.4 m/s as observed, is depicted with grey dashed lines. Areas that exceed the 95% confidence interval are highlighted with stippling.

171 Analysing the centre of mass of the blocks to infer any stationary differences be-  
 172 comes challenging due to the merging and splitting of negative PV anomaly air masses  
 173 (Hauser et al., 2023). However, a spectral-based approach proves more effective. Fig. 4b  
 174 presents the power spectrum of the vertically averaged anomalous PV field from 500hPa  
 175 to 150hPa, spanning the latitudinal range of 40°N to 60°N. The contours depict the spec-  
 176 tral density of the NO\_GS\_SLHF (blue) and control runs (red), while the shading shows  
 177 the difference between the two. This figure illustrates that both the NO\_GS\_SLHF and  
 178 control runs exhibit faster westward propagation with decreasing zonal wave number.

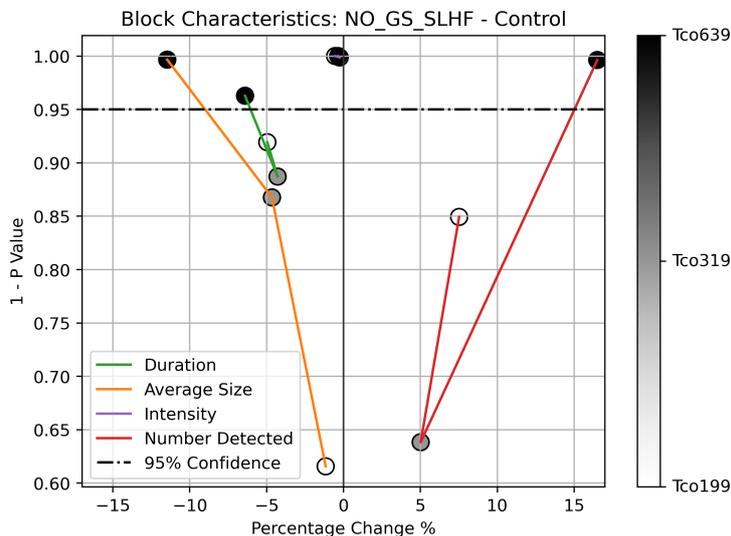
179 Comparing the differences between the two, the NO\_GS\_SLHF runs exhibit a more  
 180 pronounced inclination toward higher wavenumbers, facilitating faster eastward propa-  
 181 gation. Conversely, the control run displays a preference for westward and stationary  
 182 zonal waves characterised by lower wavenumbers. There is no significant change in the  
 183 average zonal wind between 40N-60N, and hence we can deduce that this signal is not  
 184 due to a change in jet speed but a result of suppressed Rossby wave forcing. This ob-  
 185 served distinction aligns with expectations, considering the increased blocking size in the  
 186 control run, as seen in Fig. 3, and again agrees with the observations of Riboldi et al.  
 187 (2020) linking low phase speed with atmospheric blocking.

188 Examining the seasonal change in this signal (Supplementary Fig. 3), the power  
 189 spectrum shifts from primarily exhibiting wavenumbers 4-7 in summer to 3-5 in winter.  
 190 Additionally, the most pronounced stationary wave changes from zonal wavenumber 4  
 191 in summer to wavenumber 3 in winter, consistent with the increased zonal wind observed  
 192 during winter. Furthermore, the difference between the NO\_GS\_SLHF and control runs  
 193 shifts from the dipole signature seen in Fig. 4b in summer to an overall reduction of wavenum-  
 194 bers 3-5 in winter. This again underscores the comparatively strong signal exerted by  
 195 air-sea interactions in winter compared to summer. We now compare the difference be-  
 196 tween model resolutions.

### 197 3.3 Dependence on Model Resolution

198 Firstly, examining the change in blocking frequency, Table 1 illustrates the vari-  
 199 ation in blocking frequency between the NO\_GS\_SLHF and control runs for the entire  
 200 NH. While this reveals a significant decrease in blocking frequency for the entire run across  
 201 all resolutions, the strength of this signal diminishes with decreased resolution. However,  
 202 this trend is not consistent when considering only the first two weeks of the forecast, al-  
 203 though Tco639 still exhibits the most substantial change. Surprisingly, the opposite is  
 204 true when focusing solely on summer dates, with lower resolutions showing a larger dif-  
 205 ference between the two runs.

206 Analysing the change in blocking frequency for lower resolutions (Supplementary  
 207 Fig. 4 and Fig. 5) a smaller spatial signature is observed in both lower resolution runs,  
 208 neither of which propagates to the North Pacific. The Tco199 run has the largest spatial  
 209 signature among the lower resolution runs, albeit with a considerably weaker mag-  
 210 nitude. All three resolutions show an increase in blocking over Northeastern Canada, which  
 211 shifts westward with lower resolution.



**Figure 5.** The percentage change in the block's characteristics for the NO\_GS\_SLHF run with respect to the control run for all resolutions. The block's duration, average size, intensity, and the number of individual blocks detected per forecast are shown in green, orange, purple, and red, respectively. The darkest dots indicate the highest resolution. The dashed black line indicates the 95% confidence level.

212 Fig. 5 displays the percentage change in atmospheric blocking characteristics ver-  
 213 sus the significance of this result, with higher model resolution depicted with darker dots.  
 214 This figure reaffirms that, across all resolutions, when GS SLHF is suppressed, blocks  
 215 exhibit a shorter duration, are spatially smaller, and have weaker intensity, though more  
 216 individual blocks are detected. Importantly, this signal is significant at the 95% confi-  
 217 dence interval (above the dashed line) only for the highest resolution, Tco639, exclud-  
 218 ing the change in intensity. Lower resolutions show a weaker change in these character-  
 219 istics, albeit not linearly. As observed in Table 1, Tco199 generally exhibits a larger dif-  
 220 ference between the two runs when compared to Tco319 in all characteristics, exclud-  
 221 ing the block’s average size.

222 To assess the robustness of this result, different overlap and PV anomaly thresh-  
 223 olds were tested (not shown). For Tco639, blocking intensity and average size were sig-  
 224 nificant for all overlap values below 0.7 and 0.6 at PV thresholds of -1.2PVU and -1.3PVU  
 225 respectively. However, blocking duration and the number of blocks detected showed strongest  
 226 significance between 0.4 to 0.5 overlap for both PV anomaly thresholds. This sensitiv-  
 227 ity is likely due to merging and splitting events, which simultaneously alter the block’s  
 228 life-cycle and the number of individual blocks detected (Hauser et al., 2023). The change  
 229 in sign was consistent across all threshold values. While air-sea interactions are suspected  
 230 to help maintain blocks, this result is less robust than blocking size and intensity. Analysing  
 231 lower resolutions shows a noisier signal. Although occasionally exhibiting significant sig-  
 232 nals for block intensity and average size, Tco199 generally exhibits a larger difference be-  
 233 tween the two runs when compared to Tco319. Neither lower resolution run exhibits sig-  
 234 nificant signals for duration or the number of individual blocks detected.

## 235 4 Conclusions

236 In this study, the impact of suppressing Gulf Stream surface latent heat flux on at-  
 237 mospheric blocking was analysed using a coupled ensemble reforecast on the ECMWF  
 238 IFS. When this air-sea interaction was suppressed:

- 239 1. Atmospheric blocking frequency reduced over the majority of the Northern Hemi-  
 240 sphere by up to 30%.
- 241 2. The duration, average size, and intensity of atmospheric blocks decreased by ap-  
 242 proximately 6.4%, 11.5%, and 0.35%, respectively. Additionally, a 16.5% increase  
 243 in the number of individual blocks detected per forecast was observed.
- 244 3. Faster eastward-propagating Rossby waves with larger zonal wave numbers were  
 245 evident.
- 246 4. Resolutions lower than Tco639 (~18km) exhibited a weaker, non-significant change  
 247 in block duration, average size, and the number of individual blocks detected per  
 248 forecast. However, a reduction in blocking frequency and intensity was seen across  
 249 all resolutions.

250 We have investigated the effects of air-sea interactions, specifically the influence  
 251 of the Gulf Stream’s surface latent heat flux, on atmospheric blocking. This experiment  
 252 highlights the significant role that air-sea interactions play in modulating the strength  
 253 of atmospheric blocks and their potential impacts, both locally and remotely. However,  
 254 the underlying mechanisms of this process has yet to be understood. A theory proposed  
 255 by Mathews and Czaja (2024) suggests that air-sea interactions may diabatically influ-  
 256 ence boundary layer air, which is subsequently transported to the block via warm con-  
 257 veyor belts, altering the quality and quantity of its negative PV anomalies. Ultimately,  
 258 further research is needed to fully comprehend this process, including its seasonality and  
 259 robustness across different models.

## Appendix A Open Research

Spectral analysis calculations were computed following Randel and Held (1991) using code from Jiménez-Esteve et al. (2022) which is available at [https://github.com/bernatj/paper\\_GRL\\_phase\\_locked\\_circumglobal\\_heat\\_extremes](https://github.com/bernatj/paper_GRL_phase_locked_circumglobal_heat_extremes).

Atmospheric blocks were detected following Schwierz et al. (2004) using the Steinfeld (2020) algorithm, which is available at <https://github.com/steidani/ConTrack>.

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