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# Coastal and regional marine heatwaves and cold-spells in the Northeast Atlantic

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## Abstract

The latest IPCC report describes an increase in the number and intensity of marine heatwaves (MHWs) and a decrease in marine cold-spells (MCSs) in the global ocean. However, these reported changes are not uniform on a regional to local basis and it remains unknown if coastal areas follow the open ocean trends. Ocean temperature measurements collected by satellites (from 1982-2022) and 13 coastal buoys (from 1990-2022) are analyzed in the Northeast Atlantic and three subregions: English Channel, Bay of Brest and Bay of Biscay. The activity metric, combining the number of events, intensity, duration and spatial extent, is used to evaluate the magnitude of these extreme events. The results from *in situ* and satellite datasets for each of the studied regions are quite in agreement, although the satellite dataset underestimates the amplitude of activity for both MHWs and MCS. This supports the applicability of the method to both *in situ* and satellite data, albeit with caution on the amplitude of these events. Also, this localized study in European coastal Northeast Atlantic water highlights that similar changes are being seen in coastal and open oceans regarding extreme events of temperature, with MHWs being more frequent, longer, and extending over larger areas, while the opposite is seen for MCSs. These trends [can be explained by changes in both the mean and variance of sea-surface temperature](#). Besides, the pace of evolution and dynamics of marine extreme events differs among the subregions. [Among the three studied subregions](#), the English Channel is the region experiencing the [strongest increase in summer MHWs activity](#) over the last four decades. Summer MHWs were very active in the English Channel in 2022 due to long events, in the Bay of Biscay in 2018 due to intense events and in the Bay of Brest in 2017 due to a high occurrence of events. Winter MCSs were the largest in 1987 and 1986 due to long and intense events in the English Channel. Finally, our findings suggest that at an interannual time scale, [the positive North Atlantic Oscillation](#) favors the generation of strong summer MHWs in the Northeast Atlantic, while dominant low-pressure conditions over Northern Europe and a high off the Iberian Peninsula in winter dominates for MCSs. [A preliminary analysis of air-sea heat flux suggests that, in this region, low cloud coverage is a key parameter for the generation of summer MHWs while strong winds and high cloud coverage is important for the apparition of winter MCSs.](#)

50

## 51 **Keywords**

52

53 Extreme events, Sea Surface Temperature, Long-term *in situ* observations, Satellite data,  
54 Marine heatwaves, Marine cold-spells, Bay of Biscay, English Channel, North Atlantic  
55 Oscillation

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## 60 **1. Introduction**

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62 Heatwaves and cold-spells are extreme events in which there is a **strong anomaly** in  
63 temperature for a certain period **which can occur at a regional spatial scale**. This type of  
64 phenomenon can occur both in the atmosphere and in the ocean, with remarkable  
65 consequences both for terrestrial and marine ecosystems (Ruthrof et al., 2018). In the case of  
66 marine events (hereafter referred to as marine heatwaves (MHWs) or marine cold-spells  
67 (MCSs)), severe large-scale biodiversity losses may occur such as species extinction, habitat  
68 destruction and abrupt changes in the geographical distribution and structure of communities,  
69 as well as the nutrient cycle (Frölicher and Laufkötter, 2018; Ruthrof et al., 2018; Smale et al.,  
70 2019). Additionally, a decrease in the density of marine algae forests and coral bleaching  
71 (Wernberg et al., 2016; Smale et al., 2019) have also been reported.

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73 The frequency, duration and intensity of these extreme phenomena affecting ocean  
74 systems have been increasing worryingly in recent decades (Lima and Wethey, 2012; Oliver  
75 et al., 2018; Frölicher et al., 2018; Plecha and Soares, 2020; Simon et al., 2022 and many  
76 others). As a result of global and regional warming heavily influenced by anthropogenic  
77 factors, the intensity and annual number of MHWs will continue to accelerate globally (Oliver  
78 et al., 2019; Plecha et al., 2021). Conversely, as oceans warm, MCSs are diminishing  
79 (Schlegel et al., 2021; Simon et al., 2022) and are expected to continue fading in future  
80 climate conditions (Yao et al., 2022). However, these evolutions are not uniform regionally  
81 and it remains unknown if coastal areas follow the open-ocean trends.

81

82 This paper focuses on the coastal and regional Northeast Atlantic and three subregions  
83 (English Channel, Bay of Brest and Bay of Biscay) as these zones are important for socio-  
84 economic activities (e.g. fishery; Guo et al., 2022) and have contrasted dynamical  
85 environment. Plecha et al. (2021) studied MHWs annual features in the whole North Atlantic  
86 using low-resolution satellite data at  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  over the period 1971-2000. They show that in the  
87 Bay of Biscay, the mean frequency is about 12 events per year and is characterized by  $\sim 12$   
88 days of mean duration and  $0.4^\circ\text{C}$  of mean intensity. Marin et al. (2021) did a global analysis  
89 of MHWs in coastal areas over the period 1992–2016 based on a satellite multi-product at a  
90 resolution from  $0.25 \times 0.25$  up to  $0.05 \times 0.05$ . They found that in the Bay of Biscay and  
91 English Channel from 1992–2016, MHWs occurred on average 3 times per year lasting about  
92 20 days with a mean intensity of  $1.5^\circ\text{C}$ . Here we focus on these regions on the seasonal  
93 features, such as summer MHWs and winter MCSs with a satellite product at  $0.25 \times 0.25$ .

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94 Long-term ocean warming is an important driver of the increase of MHWs (Frölicher  
95 et al., 2018) and the diminishing of MCSs (Schlegel et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2022) but does  
96 not explain shorter variabilities of these events, or justify their interannual variability. These  
97 marine extreme events are also driven by other local and remote processes acting across a

98 large range of spatial and temporal scales (Holbrook et al., 2019; Schlegel et al., 2021).  
99 Modes of atmospheric circulation variability can induce anomalous sea surface temperature  
100 (SST) through modification of air-sea heat fluxes and/or displacement due to ocean current  
101 advection (Deser et al., 2010) which for extreme cases, can lead to MHWs or MCS.

102 Interannual summer atmospheric variability in the North Atlantic-European sector has  
103 been shown to be predominantly led by the summer North Atlantic Oscillation (SNAO)  
104 pattern. The SNAO is identified as strong high-pressure anomalies dominating Northern  
105 Europe and weaker low-pressure over Greenland and the Iberian Peninsula which explains  
106 about 20% of the variance using sea-level pressure (Hurrell et al., 2003). The SNAO is  
107 recognized as a more northerly location and smaller spatial scale than the winter NAO pattern.  
108 During the positive phase of the SNAO, Northern Europe experiences drier, warmer and  
109 reduced cloudiness conditions, and the Bay of Biscay, the English Channel, and the North and  
110 Baltic Seas undergo warmer SST (Folland et al., 2009). The East Atlantic (EA) pattern is also  
111 identified as a dominant mode of North Atlantic atmospheric variability (Barnston and  
112 Livezey, 1987), which is particularly important for the northwest Iberian Peninsula climate in  
113 all seasons (Lorenzo et al., 2008). It is a North–South dipole that spans the entire North  
114 Atlantic Ocean, with centers southeastward to the NAO pattern (winter and summer).

115 Although there is strong evidence of the influence of large-scale features, no  
116 consensus exists on atmospheric patterns associated with summer MHWs in the Bay of  
117 Biscay and the English Channel. On one side, Holbrook et al. (2019) identify the Bay of  
118 Biscay as a region for which there is a significant increase in [annual](#) MHWs days during a  
119 positive phase of the NAO, based on a linearly detrended SST with satellite data and NAO  
120 index. On the other side, Izquierdo et al. (2022a) suggest, based on the analysis of two *in situ*  
121 buoys in the coastal south of the Bay of Biscay, that the incidence, duration, and intensity of  
122 [spring-summer](#) MHWs is higher during the positive phase of the EA. However, for each of  
123 these two studies, only one climate index out of the numerous modes of summer atmospheric  
124 variability in the North Atlantic-Europe sector was considered.

125 MCSs have also been reported to occur as a response to atmospheric forcing through  
126 anomalous winds and air-sea heat fluxes, especially in coastal regions where cold air  
127 outbreaks over shallow water can cause rapid chilling of water (Crisp, 1964; Schlegel et al.,  
128 2021). But to the best of our knowledge, no study has been published focusing on the  
129 connection between MCSs and atmospheric circulation in the Bay of Biscay and the English  
130 Channel.

131  
132 At a more regional scale, Guinaldo et al. (2023) linked the 2022 MHW off France to  
133 above-average solar radiation, below-average cloud coverage and negative wind speed  
134 anomalies showing also the importance of hydrodynamic conditions such as the tide that  
135 allows turbulent vertical mixing. This explains why the Mediterranean sea with weak tidal  
136 ranges presents a more pronounced response to MHWs (Darmaraki et al., 2019; Simon et al.,  
137 2022). Other studies have been carried out in terms of processes and detection of MHWs in  
138 the Bay of Biscay but only along the Spanish Cantabrian coast. Namely, Izquierdo et al.  
139 (2022b), found a steady increase in SST from 1998 to 2019, which was reflected in MHWs  
140 occurrence and consequent match-up to report population shifts in coastal macroalgae. In a  
141 second study, Izquierdo et al. (2022a) compared MHWs with satellite data and found a 6-fold  
142 increase in their incidences in the last four decades with half of this increase related to climate  
143 change.

144 Several studies focus on the impact of MHWs or MCSs on biological systems,  
145 covering the areas of the Bay of Biscay, the English Channel or the Spanish Cantabrian coast,  
146 reaching as far back as the 60s of the XXth century. These studies analyzed the atmospheric  
147 cold-spells of the winter of 1962-1963 on the English coast and the impact on marine animal

148 mortality such as *Pecten Maximus* (Crisp, 1964) or migration of species such as flounder  
149 (Sims et al., 2004). In the English Channel, Gomez and Souissi (2008) made the link between  
150 the MCS of 2005 and the absence of the spring bloom of *Phaeocystis*. A delay in the initiation  
151 of the phytoplankton bloom caused by the presence of MCS at the end of winter in the Bay of  
152 Brest and in the Bay of Vilaine (in the Northern part of the Bay of Biscay) is observed by  
153 Poppeschi et al. (2022). The impact of MHWs on biology is even more studied than the cold  
154 counterpart. Gomez and Souissi (2008) show the link between the heatwave of 2003 in the  
155 English Channel and the abundance of dinoflagellates. Joint and Smale (2017) demonstrate a  
156 link between MHWs and microbial activity assemblage in the English Channel which controls  
157 biogeochemical cycles in the ocean. The MHW of 2018 in the English Channel is present in  
158 the literature for its mortality mass impact on mussels (Seuront et al., 2019), its link to fucoids  
159 (Mieszkowska et al., 2020) or harmful phytoplankton blooms (Brown et al., 2022).  
160 Predictions at the atmospheric scale point to an increase in the future of heatwaves in the Bay  
161 of Biscay (Chust et al., 2011) and a decrease in marine fauna (Wetthey and Woodin, 2022).

162

163 In this context, we aim to describe and explain the evolutions of the MHWs over  
164 summer and MCSs over winter activity in the Northeast Atlantic and to investigate the  
165 regional variability in three subregions: the English Channel, the Bay of Brest and the Bay of  
166 Biscay. The analysis will rely on both *in situ* and satellite data to address MHWs and MCSs  
167 activity, aiming to evaluate the impact of such events in coastal regions and in the open ocean.  
168 This approach will allow us to evaluate the potential use of *in situ* measurements to detect,  
169 characterize and understand such extreme events. In the last section of this paper, we focus on  
170 the influence of the interannual atmospheric mode of variability involved in the occurrence of  
171 MHWs and MCSs in the Northeast Atlantic by finding the atmospheric circulation occurring  
172 in phase with most of the strongest events.

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## 175 2. Material and methods

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### 177 2.1 Satellite and reanalysis data

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179 The global SST data used in this study results from a combination of different  
180 observational platforms, including satellites, ships, buoys and Argo floats, provided by the  
181 National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (hereafter OISST; Reynolds et al., 2007;  
182 Huang et al., 2020). The satellite products have a daily temporal coverage for the 1982-2022  
183 period and are interpolated to a regular global grid of  $1/4^\circ$  spatial resolution. [Monthly  
184 geopotential height at 500 hPa \(Z500\), surface net short-wave radiation flux, surface net long-  
185 wave radiation flux, surface sensible heat flux and latent radiation heat flux data were  
186 obtained from the European Center for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts \(ECMWF\)  
187 reanalysis data ERA5 at a spatial resolution of  \$0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ\$  \(Hersbach et al., 2019\).](#)

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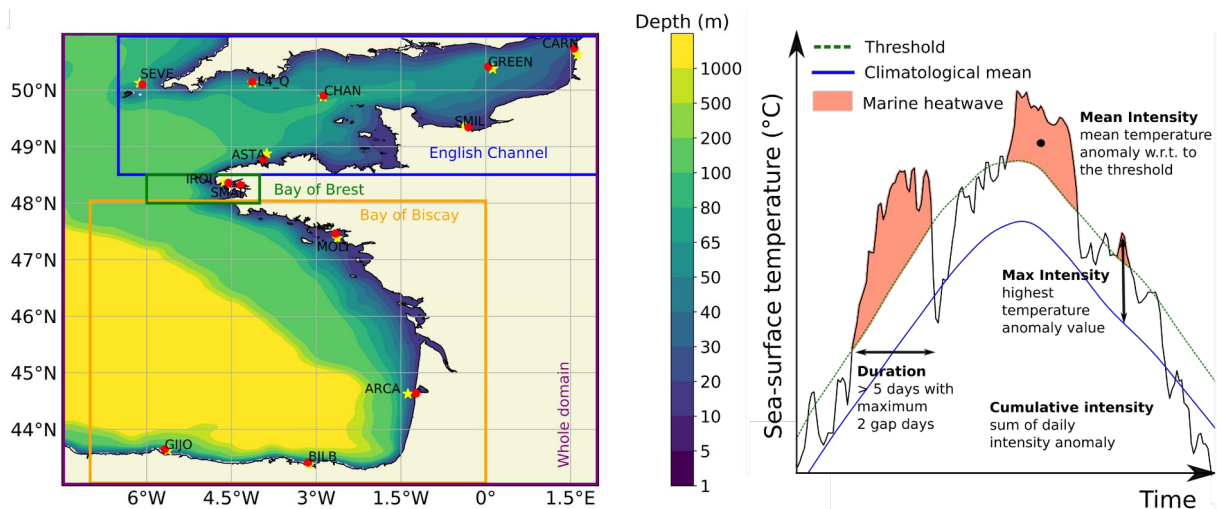
### 190 2.2 Buoy data

191

192 The *in situ* SST data are from autonomous coastal buoys that take continuous high-  
193 frequency measurements from 10 minutes to 1 hour (Figure 1, left panel). These buoys are  
194 from different European organizations, detailed below and in Table S1, covering the coastal  
195 areas of the English Channel, the Bay of Brest and the Bay of Biscay.

196 The National Observation Infrastructure network (COAST-HF, [www.coast-hf.fr](http://www.coast-hf.fr))  
197 operates 14 buoys taking measurements of several physical and biogeochemical data all

198 around French coasts. Among them, 7 buoys are used here and are located in the English  
 199 Channel - CARNot (<https://doi.org/10.17882/39754>), SMILe (<https://doi.org/10.17882/53689>)  
 200 and ASTAn; in the Bay of Brest - IROise (<https://doi.org/10.17882/74004>) and SMART  
 201 (<https://doi.org/10.17882/86020>) and in the Bay of Biscay - MOLIt  
 202 (<https://doi.org/10.17882/46529>) and ARCAchon. The Met Office ([www.metoffice.gov.uk](http://www.metoffice.gov.uk))  
 203 manages several buoys in each facade of England and also at offshore sites. The buoys used  
 204 here are located in the English Channel, on the South coast of England, SEVEN Stones;  
 205 CHANnel and GREENwich. The Western Channel Observatory (WCO,  
 206 [www.westernchannelobservatory.org.uk](http://www.westernchannelobservatory.org.uk)), situated within the western English Channel  
 207 operates two oceanographic moorings. The station L4\_Q located near the city of Plymouth,  
 208 approximately 7 km offshore is used here. Puertos del Estado ([www.puertos.es](http://www.puertos.es)) operated two  
 209 buoys along the Spanish coast: BILBao and GIJOn located in the Cantabrian Sea, both of  
 210 them are used here.  
 211



212  
 213 **Figure 1:** (Left) Map of the study area including the whole domain/Northeast Atlantic (purple  
 214 box) as well as the three subregions which are the English Channel (blue box), the Bay of  
 215 Brest (green box) and the Bay of Biscay (orange box). The buoys are represented by red dots  
 216 and the **closest** satellite points are represented by yellow stars. (Right) Schematic of MHW  
 217 detection and properties as defined by Hobday et al. (2016).  
 218  
 219

### 220 2.3 Detection of MHWs and MCS

221  
 222 To detect marine temperature extreme anomalies, we use the definition of Hobday et  
 223 al. (2016). First, a climatology over 40 years, from 1982 to 2022, is calculated from the  
 224 satellite product. Then, we apply the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile on summers (JJAS) for MHW and the 10<sup>th</sup>  
 225 on winters (DJFM) for MCS. Finally, a MHW (MCS) is detected if values are above (below)  
 226 the threshold for at least 5 days. For *in situ* data, the same detection method is applied  
 227 considering the climatology calculated from the satellite product. Only seasons (summer or  
 228 winter) with more than 80% of available data are analyzed.

229 To characterize MHW and MCS, we analyze parameters such as the number of events,  
 230 the duration, the spatial extent and the cumulative intensity, defined as in Hobday et al. (2016)  
 231 (Figure 1, right panel). We also explore an integrated indicator of these different parameters  
 232 characterizing the marine temperature extreme events (MHWs and MCS), called activity and  
 233 defined by Simon et al. (2022). This indicator estimates for each grid point the cumulative  
 234 combination of the mean intensity, the duration and the affected area of each extreme event



235 within a selective time range (for example JJAS). This activity index accounts explicitly for  
 236 the area, as in most SST products a grid cell area differs from one latitude to another and  
 237 marine thermal events can expand over large areas. The activity is calculated for each grid  
 238 point. It sums the product of the mean intensity, duration within the selected time range, and  
 239 area of each detected event occurring within the selected time range. The activity is written as  
 240 follows:

$$241 \quad Activity = \sum_{EE \in Time\ Range} mean\ intensity_{EE} \cdot duration_{EE \cap Time\ Range} \cdot area_{EE}$$

242  
 243 Where  $EE \in time\ range$ , denotes the extreme event (EE) that occurs within the selected time  
 244 range; the mean intensity of EE (in °C) is the mean temperature anomaly with respect to the  
 245 threshold of the event; duration  $EE \cap time\ range$  (in days) is the duration of the event that  
 246 remains within the considered time range, and  $area_{EE}$  (in km<sup>2</sup>) is the area affected by the  
 247 discrete event within a predefined domain. Time series involving the activity metric for a  
 248 domain are calculated as the mean of every grid cell considered. The activity for each station  
 249 is computed in °C.days without considering the area influenced by the events as it can not be  
 250 estimated from single localized stations.

251 This method of detection and characterization of marine thermal extreme events is  
 252 performed over the whole domain of this study, referred to as the Northeast Atlantic (8° W to  
 253 2° E - 43° N to 51° N) and at each station where *in situ* observations are available. As  
 254 illustrated in Figure 1, three different subregions will be analyzed in detail, namely (i) the  
 255 English Channel (6.5° W to 2° E - 48.5° N to 51° N), (ii) the Bay of Brest (6° W to 4° W -  
 256 48° N to 48.5° N) and (iii) the Bay of Biscay (7° W to 0° W - 43° N to 48° N). This will allow  
 257 us to explore these regions separately and highlight regional patterns. Those three subregions  
 258 can be associated with three contrasted hydrodynamical regimes: macrotidal (English  
 259 Channel), semi-enclosed bay (Bay of Brest), mesotidal (Bay of Biscay; Charria et al., 2013).

260

## 261 3. Results

262

### 263 3.1 Evolution of marine heatwave activity

264

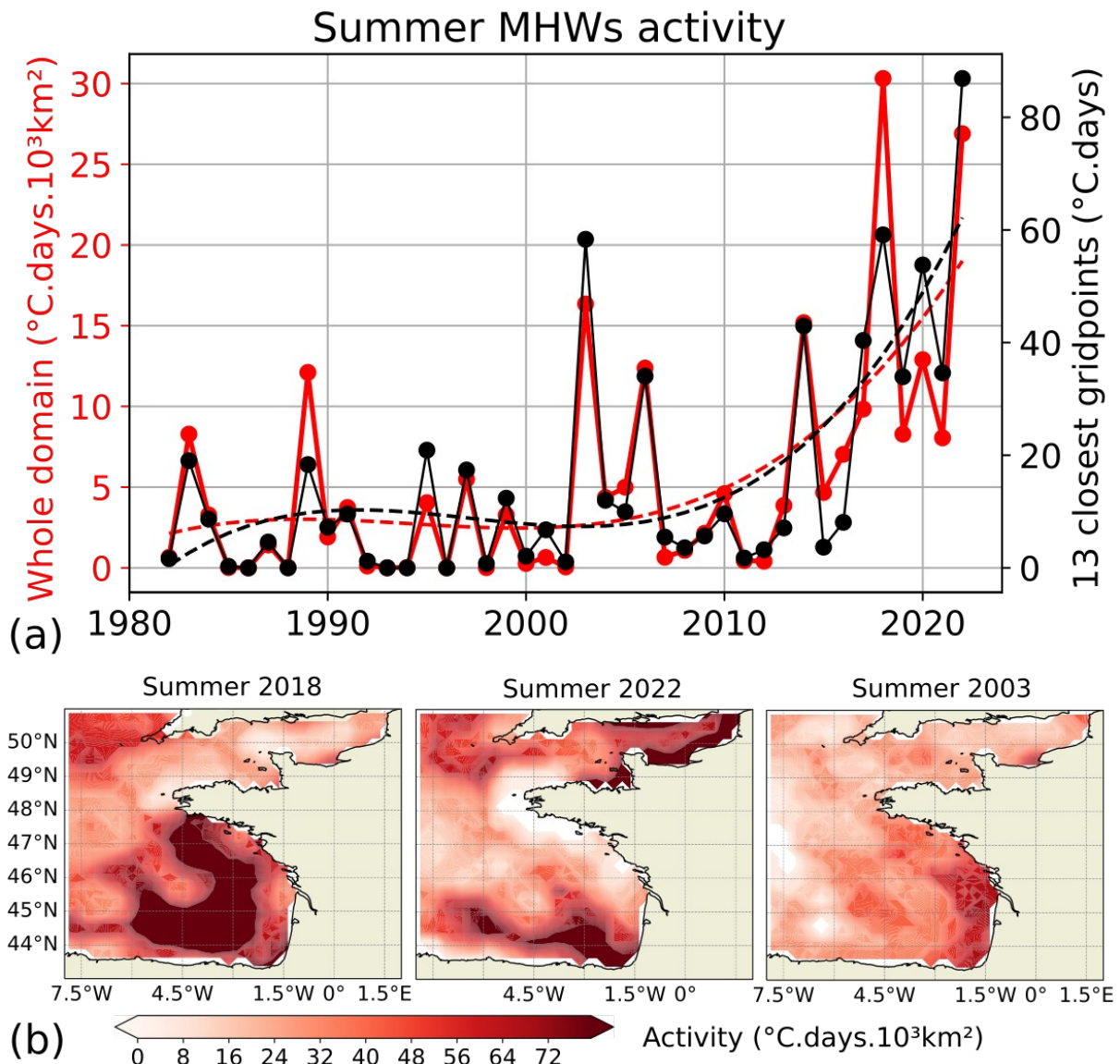
#### 265 3.1.1. An integrated regional view

266

267 MHWs were detected over the Northeast Atlantic. The activity index (Figure 2a)  
 268 highlights two main periods in the MHWs dynamics. Before 2003, MHWs activity remained  
 269 moderate to weak with activity generally lower than 5 °C.days.10<sup>3</sup> km<sup>2</sup> corresponding to 1.2  
 270 mean occurrences per summer with a mean duration limited to 8 days (Figure 3). Only the  
 271 summer of 1989 displayed strong MHWs activity (exceeding 10 °C.days.10<sup>3</sup> km<sup>2</sup>) before  
 272 2000. From 2003 onward, the activity increased over 30 °C.days.10<sup>3</sup> km<sup>2</sup> for summers 2018  
 273 and 2022 associated with more than 2.5 mean occurrences lasting around 20 days. The mean  
 274 intensity remains quasi-steady during the whole period. The interannual variability and trend  
 275 of the summer MHWs activity for the whole domain is similar to the one obtained for the  
 276 average activity of the 13 grid cells closest to the buoy locations (black line of Figure 2),  
 277 suggesting that at first order of magnitude, coastal and open ocean follow the same evolution.

278

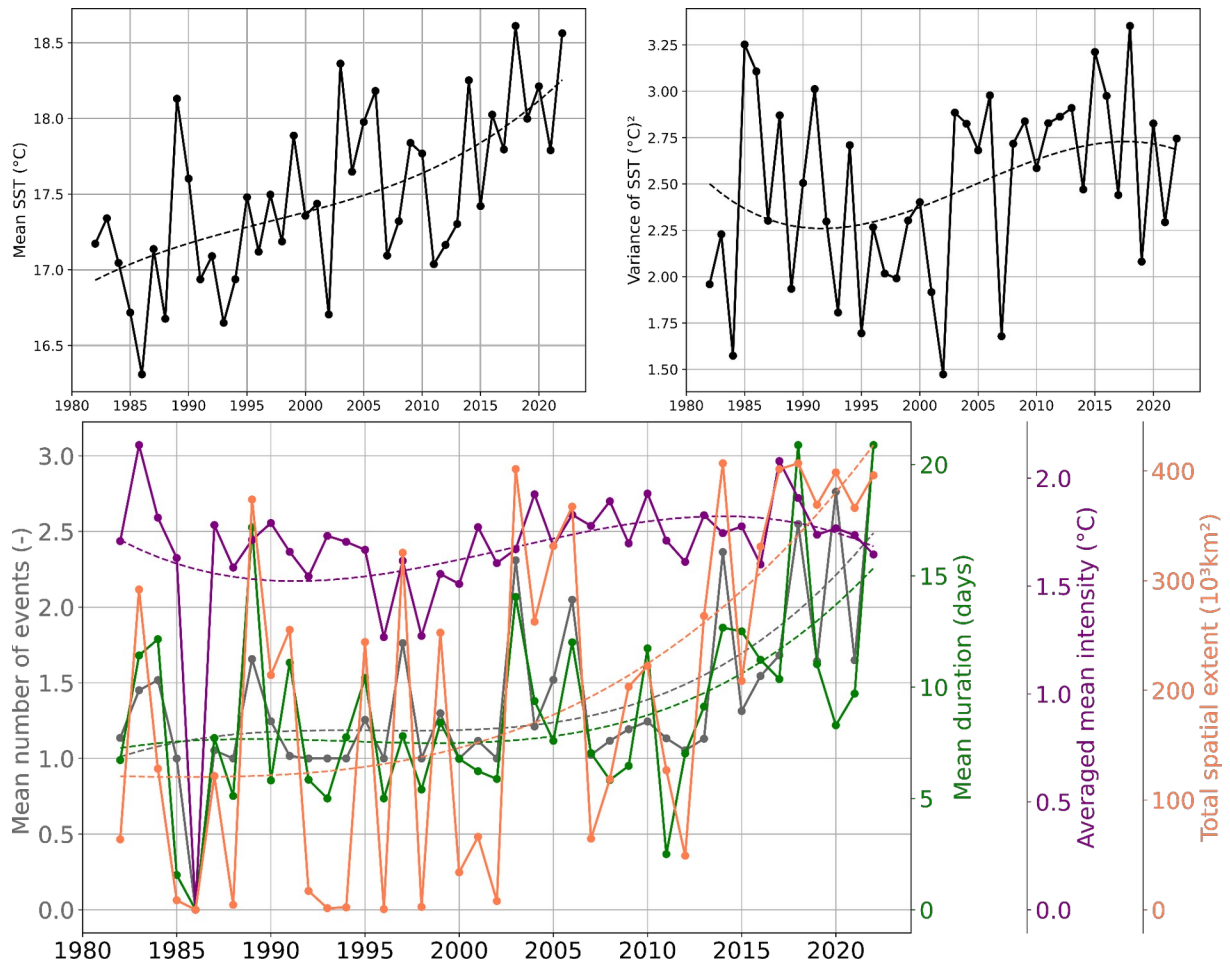
279



280  
281 Figure 2: (a) Times series of summer (JJAS) MHWs mean activity in the Northeast Atlantic  
282 from the satellite product (red curves) and for the average of the 13 grid cells closest to the  
283 buoys from the satellite product (black curves). Dash lines represent the regression of a third-  
284 order polynomial of the solid line with the same color. (b) Summer (JJAS) activity (first row;  
285 in  $^{\circ}\text{C.days}\cdot 10^3\text{ km}^2$ ) for the top 3 summers in terms of activity in the Northeast Atlantic (from  
286 left to right).

287  
288 The three most active summers are 2018, 2022 and 2003 (Figure 2a). During 2018  
289 (Figure 2b), maximum activity is located in the Bay of Biscay over the outer continental shelf  
290 and the continental slope from the southern part of the Biscay. These events are also  
291 extending to the North until the South of Brittany and is limited by the Ushant tidal front (Le  
292 Boyer et al., 2009; Müller et al., 2010) developed during summer. Regions of minimum  
293 activity during 2018 are West of French Brittany in the Ushant front region where tides are  
294 efficiently vertically mixing the water column. Similarly, the activity remains weak in the  
295 English Channel, as it is a macrotidal region. In terms of duration, longer events are observed  
296 in the Southern part of the Bay of Biscay exceeding 30 days (Figure S1). The 2022 summer is  
297 the second most active year for the whole domain, with over  $25^{\circ}\text{C.days}\cdot 10^3\text{ km}^2$ , and also the  
298 strongest in terms of marine activity over coastal regions as shown by the maximum value of  
299 the average activity near the 13 buoys considered (Figure 2a). Spatially, the English Channel

300 and the North of Spain record the strongest MHWs activity while the French Brittany coast  
 301 has no occurrence over this year (Figure 2b). In the English Channel, the mean duration of the  
 302 summer 2022 events was around 35 days (Figure S2) with localized events lasting more than  
 303 50 days (Figure S1). In Northern Spain, the duration of the events was around 20 days,  
 304 however, they occurred very frequently over the summer with strong mean MHWs intensities  
 305 of around 2 °C (Figure S1). In 2003 (Figure 2c), the MHWs activity spatial distribution was  
 306 different than in 2018 and 2022. The activity is larger over the inner continental shelf along  
 307 Western French coasts in the Bay of Biscay. This region is under the influence of main river  
 308 plumes along this coast (Adour, Gironde and Loire rivers). During this year, river discharge  
 309 could have induced stratification (inducing faster warming of the surface mixed layer in  
 310 regions of freshwater influence; Oh et al., 2023) and warmer waters from rivers suggest that  
 311 observed MHWs were sustained by an atmospheric event more centered over lands. During  
 312 this summer, the number of events is larger in the Western English Channel but shorter and  
 313 less intense than in the Bay of Biscay. These top three active summers highlight the  
 314 interannual spatial variability of MHWs activity. The detailed mean features (number of  
 315 events, duration and mean intensity) of summer MHWs over the period 1982-2022 in the  
 316 Northeast Atlantic, English Channel, Bay of Brest and Bay of Biscay are documented in  
 317 Table S2.  
 318



319 Figure 3: Time series of the mean (upper-left) and variance (upper-right) of SST (black curve)  
 320 of summers (JJAS) over the Northeast Atlantic for the period 1982-2022. The SST variance is  
 321 calculated for each year over the respective domain and measures the spread of the spatial  
 322 distribution. (Bottom) Mean properties of summer (JJAS) MHWs in the Northeast Atlantic.  
 323 The mean number of events (grey curve) is the number of events within the summer averaged  
 324



325 over the domain ([without considering cells with zero event](#)). Mean duration (green curve) is  
 326 the average duration of every event within the summer and domain. Averaged mean intensity  
 327 (purple curve) is the average of the mean intensity of every event within the period and  
 328 domain. Total spatial extent (orange curve) is the sum of each grid cell area where one or  
 329 more events occur. If more than one MHWs occurs on the same cell, only one grid cell area is  
 330 taken into account. Dash lines represent the regression of a third-order polynomial of the solid  
 331 line with the same color.

332  
 333 The mean SST has been increasing over the 40 years with an approximately linear  
 334 trend, showing a mean warming of nearly 1.5 °C for the whole domain since 1982 (Figure 3).  
 335 Regionally, it is observed that the increase in the mean SST is almost yearly constant for the  
 336 Bay of Biscay region, and quadratic for the English Channel and Bay of Brest, where a  
 337 plateau is observed around 1995-2010 (Figure S2).

338 [The SST variance is calculated for each year over the respective domain and measures](#)  
 339 [the spread of the spatial distribution](#). Over the Northeast Atlantic, [during 1985-2002](#) and the 5  
 340 most recent years are characterized by a decline in the SST variance, while around 1992-2017  
 341 an increase in the [SST variance](#) is observed. This interannual trend is similar to the ones  
 342 observed for the events' intensity, with the exception of the English Channel, showing a direct  
 343 relationship between the SST variance and the mean intensity of the MHWs events. In the  
 344 English Channel, Bay of Brest and Bay of Biscay, the mean SST is warming and the variance  
 345 is increasing. [This estimation points that they](#) both contribute to the changes in the respective  
 346 MHWs activity (Figure S2).

347 Contributing to this recent increase [in the Northeast Atlantic](#) is primarily the sharp  
 348 trend of the events' spatial extent ( $\sim 180$  to  $400$  °C.days. $10^3$  km<sup>2</sup>), followed by the rise of the  
 349 number of events (1.2 to 2.5) and also their duration (7 to 15 days; [Figure 3](#)). One should note  
 350 that, for the same number of events, the events' spatial extent can differ depending on their  
 351 spatial repartition, as in the events' spatial extent only one grid cell area is taken into account  
 352 when more than one event occurs on the same grid. Furthermore, over the most recent years  
 353 the mean number of events, their mean duration and total spatial extent reached the maximum  
 354 recorded values. Since 2017, the total spatial extent over the Northeast Atlantic has recorded  
 355 consecutive high values, exceeding  $360.10^3$  km<sup>2</sup>. The summers of 2018, 2020 and 2022  
 356 recorded on average more than 2.5 events for almost all subregions, with events lasting on  
 357 average more than 20 days in 2018 (Bay of Biscay) and 2022 (English Channel; [Figure S2](#)).  
 358 [Among the three studied subregions](#), the English Channel is the region experiencing the  
 359 [strongest increase in summer MHWs activity](#) over the last four decades ([see trend in Figure](#)  
 360 [S3](#)). The longest mean duration is seen in the English Channel (35 days in summer 2022), the  
 361 highest mean number of events occurred in the Bay of Brest (2.7 in summer 2020) and the  
 362 highest mean intensity is present in the Bay of Biscay (2.2 °C in 2017; [Figure S2](#)).

### 363 3.1.2. Coastal MHWs activity

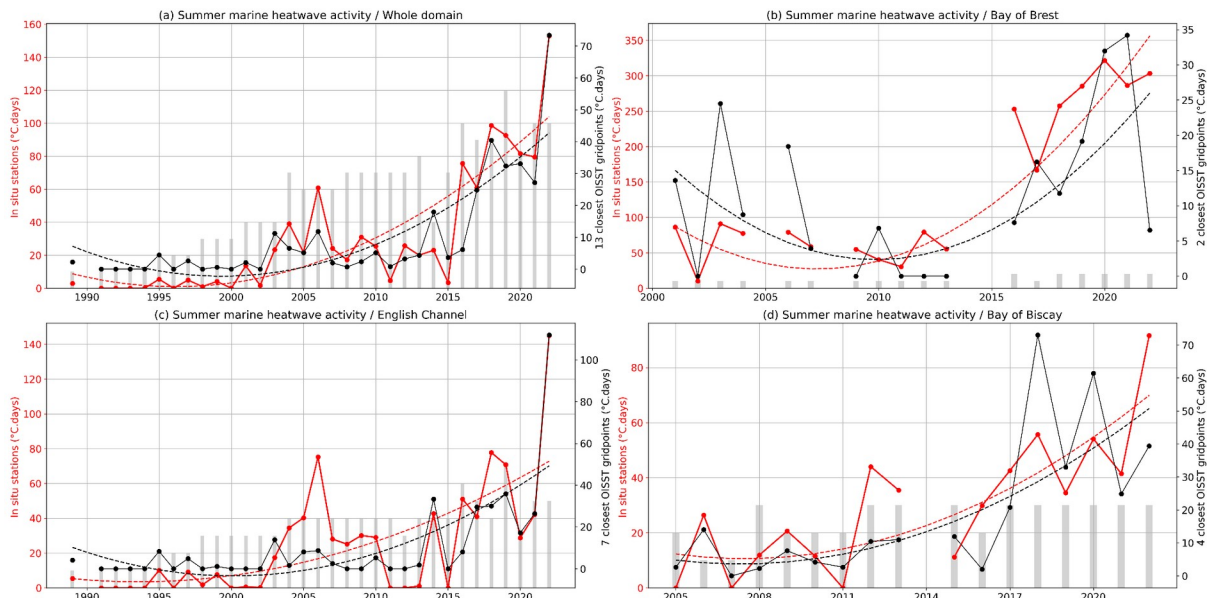
364  
 365 The spatial heterogeneity of the MHWs occurrence and activity can influence the  
 366 impact of MHWs along the coastline. We then explore MHWs activity detected along the  
 367 coast from *in situ* observations compared with remotely sensed observations. Figure 4 shows  
 368 the activity detected for the whole Northeast Atlantic domain and in the three subregions  
 369 where long-term *in situ* observations exist. [To compare in situ and satellite data, for each](#)  
 370 [station, time series based on satellite data consider only years where in situ data exists \(see](#)  
 371 [Table S1 for the starting date\) and exceeds 80% of available data for the considered season.](#)  
 372 Linked with the whole domain activity (Figure 4a), we observe an increase in the MHWs  
 373 activity in the three subregions (Figure 4b, c, d). Similar evolutions are observed when the  
 374

375 satellite product or coastal buoys are considered. In the Bay of Brest, we also observe a  
 376 similar increase but with larger activity in *in situ* observation as the intensity of extreme is  
 377 underestimated by the satellite in this semi-enclosed bay. The use of *in situ* observation is  
 378 limiting the length of the analyzed time series. However, we can observe larger activity in  
 379 recent years from both datasets. For most cases, similar most active years are detected with *in*  
 380 *situ* observations and satellite data.

381 Considering coastal stations over the observed periods, we see a more pronounced  
 382 increase in MHWs activity from 2010. The English Channel and the Bay of Biscay *in situ*  
 383 stations highlight the year 2022 as the most active year exceeding 140 °C.days. In the Bay of  
 384 Brest, the impact of the 2022 MHWs is less pronounced, in agreement with satellite  
 385 observation (Figure 2b) due to tidally driven vertical mixing.

386 When we compare MHWs activity estimated from *in situ* stations and satellite product, values  
 387 are generally larger from *in situ* stations. Those differences are explained by the  
 388 underestimation of extreme temperatures in coastal regions in remotely sensed products.  
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391

392 **Figure 4:** Time series of summer (JJAS) MHWs mean activity (a) in the whole domain  
 393 (Northeast Atlantic) and in three subregions: (b) Bay of Brest, (c) the English Channel, and  
 394 (d) Bay of Biscay. The red curve represents the activity based on *in situ* observations. The  
 395 black curve represents the activity based on satellite dataset for the closest non-masked points  
 396 with *in situ* stations *when in situ data exists*. Dash lines represent the regression of a third-  
 397 order polynomial of the solid line with the same color. Grey bars are proportional to the  
 398 number of considered *in situ* time series. MHWs activity from *in situ* time series with less  
 399 than 80% of observation during the analyzed season is not computed.

400

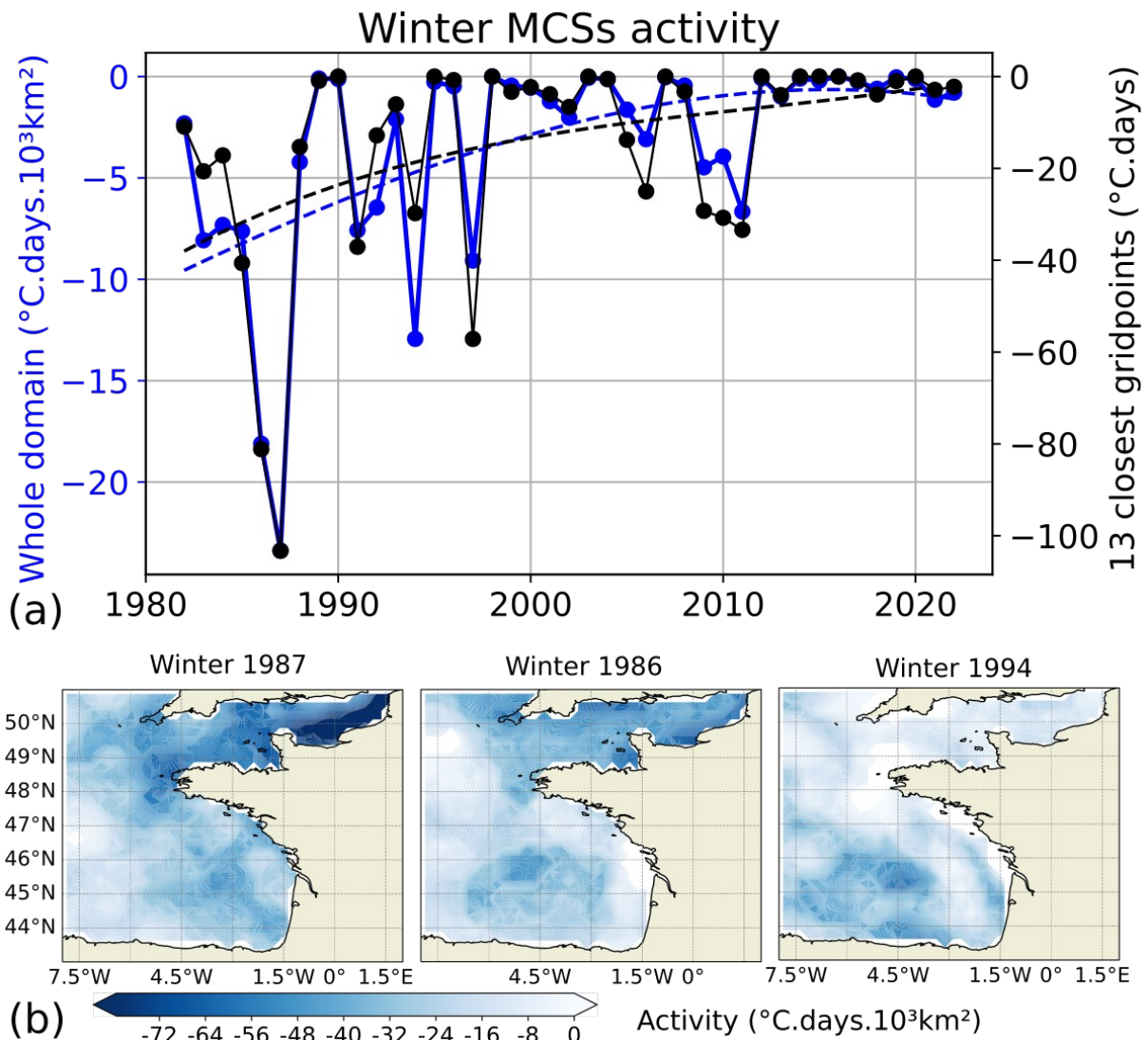
## 401 3.2 Evolution of marine cold-spell activity

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### 403 3.2.1 An integrated regional view

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407 Figure 5: Same as Figure 2 but for MCSs in winter (DJFM).  
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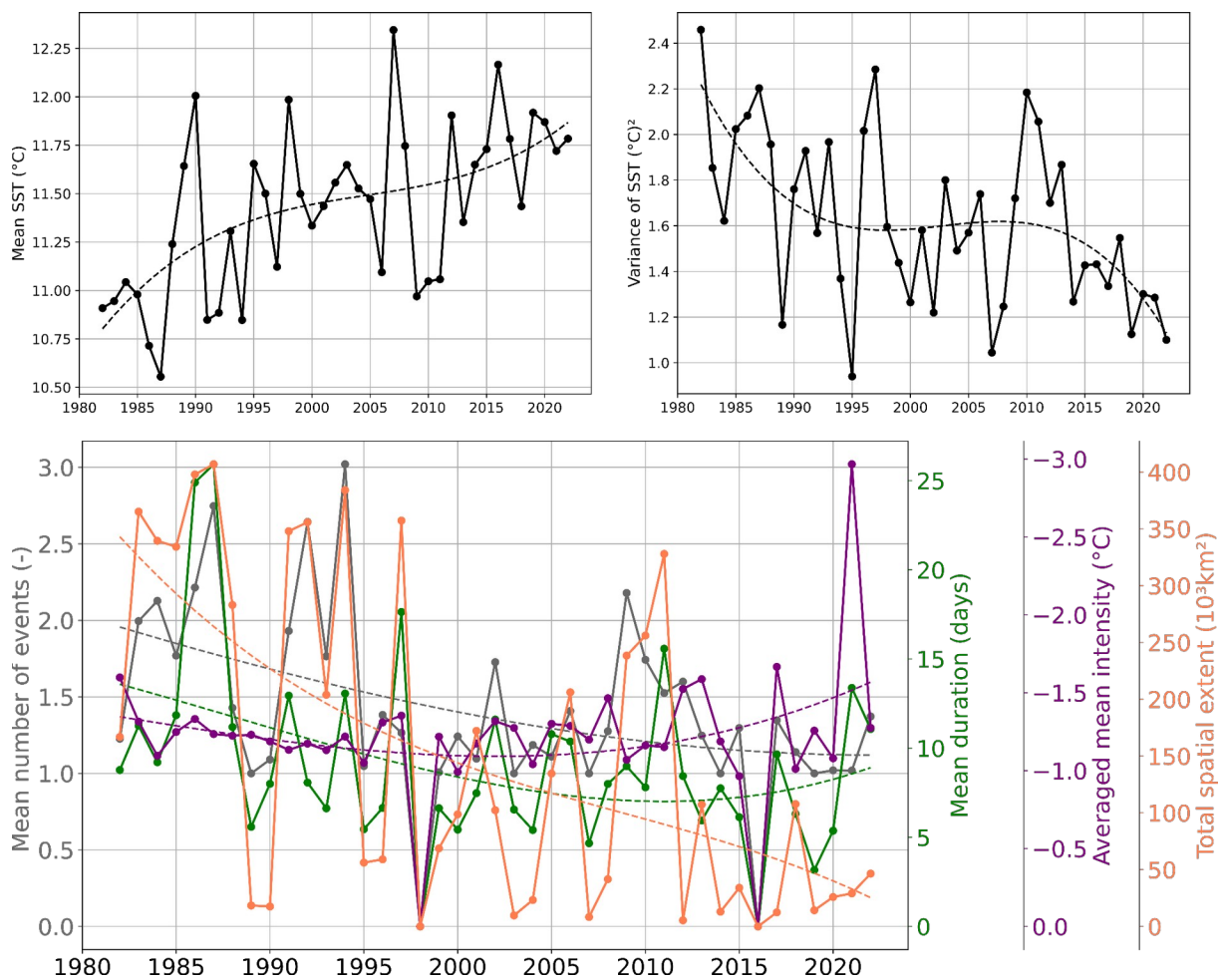
410 Figure 5 depicts winter MCSs evolution for the whole domain over the last four  
411 decades (1982-2022). MCSs activities decrease linearly during the first half of the period,  
412 showing almost no occurrence after 2000 with the exception of 2006 and 2009 to 2011. A  
413 similar evolution is seen by considering the average of the 13 grid points closest to each *in situ* station.

414  
415 The three most active MCSs occur in winter 1987 ( $-24\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C.days}\cdot 10^3\text{km}^2$ ), 1986 ( $-18$   
416  $^{\circ}\text{C.days}\cdot 10^3\text{km}^2$ ) and 1994 ( $-13\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C.days}\cdot 10^3\text{km}^2$ ). In the two coldest winters, MCSs were  
417 dominant in the English Channel, especially off the Northern French Coast in winter 1987.  
418 These two winters are characterized by long ( $\sim 50$  days) and intense ( $\sim -2.5\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  anomalous  
419 SST) and few events ( $\sim 1$  event; Figure S4). This region is subject to high turbulent mixing  
420 generated by the tidal current, which could favor cold conditions. By contrast to these two  
421 winters (1987 and 1986), winter 1994 featured strong MCSs activity in the center of the Bay  
422 of Biscay, due to numerous ( $\sim 5$  events) but moderate intensity ( $\sim -1.3\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and relatively short  
423 (20 days) events. The three winters 2009-2011 present very localized extreme cold conditions  
424 along the coastal Armorican Shelf, and additionally in the English Channel for 2011 (not  
425 shown). **The detailed mean features (number of events, duration and mean intensity) of winter**

426 MCSs over the period 1982-2022 in the Northeast Atlantic, English Channel, Bay of Brest  
 427 and Bay of Biscay are documented in Table S3.

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432 **Figure 6:** Same as Figure 3 but in winter (DJFM) and MCSs (blue curve)

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The mean and variance evolution of SST, as well as the mean evolution of MCSs properties (occurrence, duration, mean intensity and spatial extent) are presented over the whole domain (Figure 6) and separately for the English Channel, the Bay of Brest and the Bay of Biscay (Figure S5). Over the whole Northeast Atlantic domain, the SST mean increases and spatial dispersion (variance) decreases with both a plateau around 1995-2010, following the English Channel and the Bay of Biscay evolution. On the contrary, a steady increase in the mean SST and a nearly constant variance of SST is seen in the Bay of Brest.

The warmer winter seen over the whole domain and for the three subregions is consistent with the decrease of the extremely cold conditions, depicted by the mean MCSs activity. The decrease in the mean MCSs activity is controlled by the strong decrease in spatial extent (350 to 50  $10^3 \text{ km}^2$ ), the moderate decrease in the number of events (2 to 1.2 events), and the small decrease in duration (13 to 9 days). The mean intensity does not show any trend ( $\sim -1.5 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ).

The decrease of spatial dispersion (variance) of SST over the whole domain indicates a more uniform evolution which is explained by a dominant warming trend stronger for colder areas. Indeed, the relatively cold English Channel's temperature increased by  $1.5 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  (from 9



450 °C to 10.5 °C) and the relatively warmer Bay of Biscay increased by 0.8 °C (from 11.8 °C to  
451 12.6 °C) over the 1982-2022 period. When considering individually the three subregions,  
452 localized enough to be under a similar trend, the variance also decreases (Figure S5). The  
453 decrease of variance is more pronounced for the English Channel than for the Bay of Brest  
454 and Bay of Biscay. Therefore, a first estimate shows that mean SST warming and the variance  
455 changes both contribute to the changes in MCSs activity in the English Channel, Bay of Brest  
456 and Bay of Biscay.

457 MCSs activity generally follows the SST evolution, albeit with small differences.  
458 Indeed, winter 1991 and 1994 have a similar mean SST (10.8 °C) but the MCSs activity is  
459 three times higher in 1994 than in 1991, driven by a higher number of events (3 instead of 2  
460 events with similar duration, mean intensity and spatial extent).

461 Even if changes in winter occur in the Bay of Brest and Bay of Biscay, more drastic  
462 changes are seen in the English Channel over the period 1982-2022 (see trend in Figure S6).  
463 In the English Channel, the trend of MCSs shows at the beginning of the period, a mean  
464 occurrence of 2 events/winter, lasting 15 days with a mean intensity of -1.5 °C over an area of  
465  $100 \cdot 10^3 \text{ km}^2$ , followed by a sharp decline ending to no detected MCSs in the last four years  
466 (2019-2022). In the Bay of Brest over the same period, MCSs properties decrease from 1.5  
467 events during 15 days at a mean intensity of -1.4 °C over  $11 \cdot 10^3 \text{ km}^2$  to 0.5 events during 8  
468 days at a mean intensity of -0.8 °C over  $0.5 \cdot 10^3 \text{ km}^2$ . Exceptional long events occurred in the  
469 winter of 1987 with a mean duration of 55 days. In the Bay of Biscay, the MCSs decline in  
470 occurrence (from 2 to 1 event), duration (from 11 to 9 days) and spatial extent ( $170$  to  $40 \cdot 10^3$   
471  $\text{km}^2$ ) while the mean intensity rises from -1.3 °C to -1.5 °C. The increase is explained by  
472 winter 2021; without these events, the mean intensity would have been nearly constant around  
473 -1.3 °C. Indeed, winter 2021 shows a small activity but the highest mean intensity (-3 °C over  
474 the whole domain) which is explained by a localized event in the coastal area off South-West  
475 of France with a maximum intensity of (-5.6 °C). Apart from a very intense and localized  
476 event in the coastal area off South-West of France in winter 2021 and a very long event in the  
477 Bay of Brest in winter 1987, severe MCSs occurred predominantly in the English Channel  
478 (winter 1987 and 1986).

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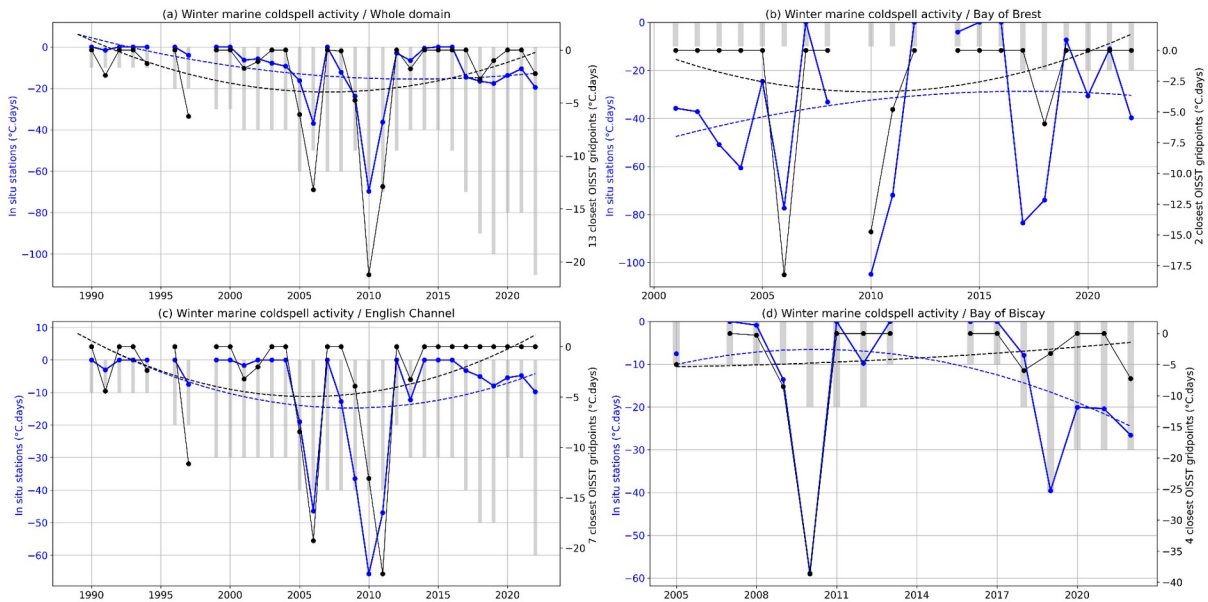
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### 481 3.2.2. Coastal MCSs activity

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483 Figure 7 shows the time series of MCSs activity for *in situ* data and satellite data  
484 considering the same missing data as each *in situ* station data. Along the coasts, MCSs  
485 activity as determined by local buoys remains weaker than MHWs activity as defined using  
486 satellite data. As for the MHWs, MCSs intensity is underestimated in satellite observations  
487 but evolutions are similar. From *in situ* observations from coastal stations, two years can be  
488 highlighted due to their intense MCSs: 2006 and 2010 (Figure 7). The year 2010 is the most  
489 intense, in terms of MCSs. The mean activity is reaching -100 °C.day in the Bay of Brest and  
490 around -60 °C.day in the Bay of Biscay and the English Channel. In 2006, the activity was  
491 also important compared with other years: around -80 °C.day in the Bay of Brest and around -  
492 50 °C.day in the English Channel. This extreme year 2006 was also unique with a peak in  
493 MHWs activity during the summer (Figure 4). Before the year 2000, only observed in the  
494 English Channel from coastal stations, three other years reveal intense MCSs activity: 1997,  
495 1991, 1994 (from the most intense to the less active winter) from satellite data at the closest  
496 point of *in-situ* data.

497 We do not detect a significant trend in the interannual evolution of MCSs activity  
 498 along the coasts. For the Bay of Biscay and the Bay of Brest, it can be directly connected to  
 499 the lack of observation before 2000 when the largest MCS occurs. In the English Channel, the  
 500 lack of observation also explains the observed lack of trend. Indeed, only one time series was  
 501 available before 1995 and this station (GREENwich) is not detecting an important MCSs  
 502 activity before 2000.  
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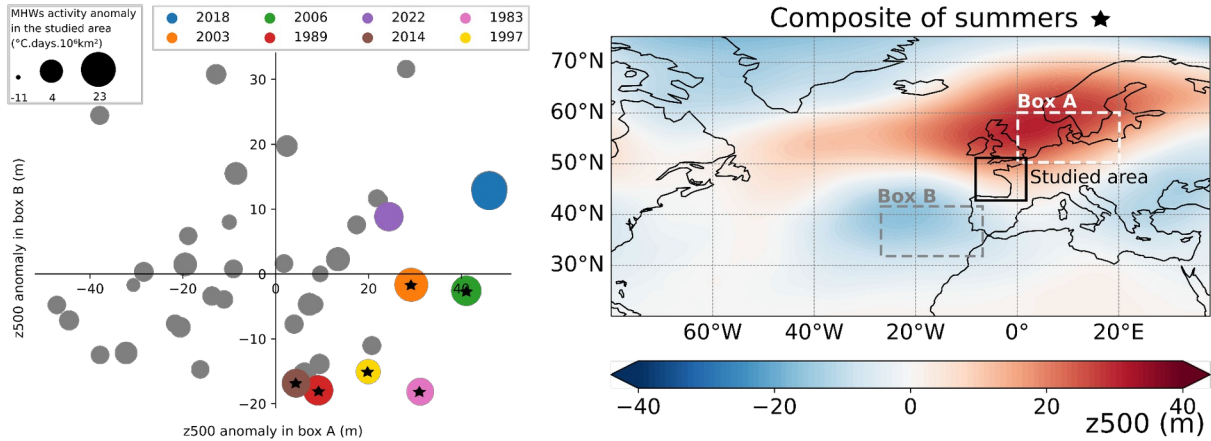


506  
 507 **Figure 7:** Same as Figure 4 but for MCSs in winter (DJFM).  
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### 509 3.3 Associated atmospheric patterns

510  
 511 Apart from the long-term trend of increasing SST, we also see high interannual  
 512 variability which is potentially connected with atmospheric forcing modes (Holbrook et al.  
 513 2019; Izquierdo et al., 2022a). Figure 8 presents the atmospheric circulation in the North  
 514 Atlantic associated with strong interannual MHWs in the Bay of Biscay and the English  
 515 Channel. For each summer of the 1982-2022 period, MHWs total activity anomaly in the  
 516 studied area box (Northeast Atlantic) with respect to the third-order long-term trend (red  
 517 dotted curved in Figure 2a) was computed. This anomaly represents the detrended or  
 518 interannual MHWs activity. Eight summers were identified as having high interannual  
 519 activities (anomalous total activity exceeding a threshold of  $4 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}\cdot\text{days}\cdot 10^6\cdot\text{km}^2$ , coloured  
 520 marker in Figure 8 left panel). The year 2018 ( $23 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}\cdot\text{days}\cdot 10^6\cdot\text{km}^2$ ), 2003 ( $17$   
 521  $^\circ\text{C}\cdot\text{days}\cdot 10^6\cdot\text{km}^2$ ) and 2006 ( $12 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}\cdot\text{days}\cdot 10^6\cdot\text{km}^2$ ) are the three strongest summers. Six out of  
 522 these eight summers (all except 2018 and 2022) have an anomalous geopotential height at 500  
 523 hPa which is positive over Northern Europe (box A in Figure 8) and negative in the West of  
 524 the Iberian Peninsula (box B in Figure 8). The composite of the anomalous geopotential  
 525 height at 500 hPa for these six summers shows in the North Atlantic-Europe sector a positive  
 526 summer NAO-like pattern, with a high over the Nordic sea and two lows over the Iberian  
 527 Peninsula and Greenland. This overall result is not sensitive to small displacements of boxes  
 528 (a few latitude and longitude degrees; not shown).  
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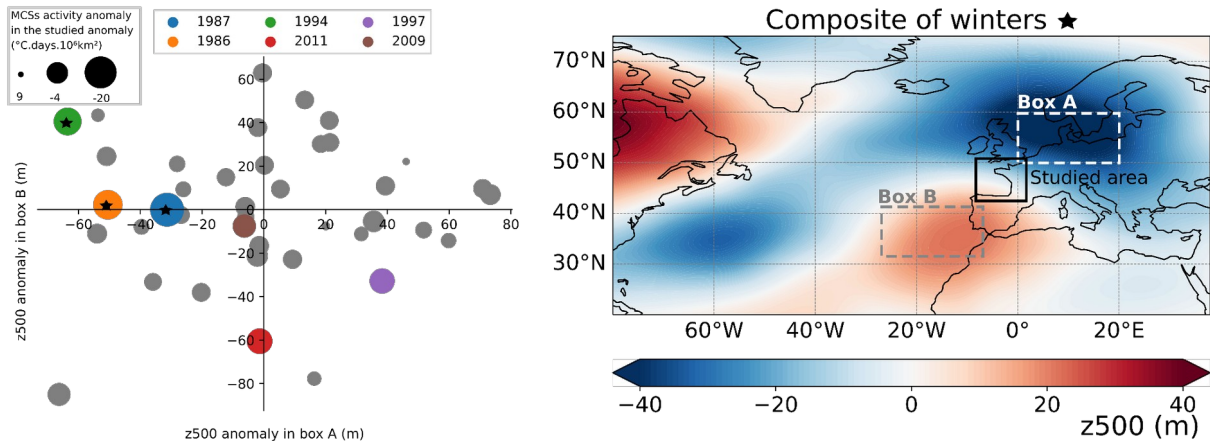
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Figure 8: (Left panel) Scatter plot of anomalous summer (JJAS) geopotential height at 500 hPa (z500; in m) in box A versus the anomalous geopotential height at 500 hPa in box B with respect to the summer period 1982-2022. The size of the marker is proportional to the anomalous summer (JJAS) MHWs total activity, calculated as the sum of all grid point activity in the studied area (in  $^{\circ}\text{C}\cdot\text{days}\cdot 10^6\cdot\text{km}^2$ ) with respect to the trend (red dotted curved in Figure 2a). Markers are in color when this value exceeds  $4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}\cdot\text{days}\cdot 10^6\cdot\text{km}^2$  and the stars are indicated when markers in color are in the lower-right “cluster” of the graph. (Right panel) Composites of summers (JJAS) marked with stars in the left panel of the anomalous geopotential height at 500 hPa (m) with respect to the summer period 1982-2022. Box A is the domain  $0^{\circ}\text{E}$  to  $20^{\circ}\text{E}$ - $50^{\circ}\text{N}$  to  $60^{\circ}\text{N}$  and box B is the domain  $33^{\circ}\text{W}$  to  $13^{\circ}\text{W}$  -  $31^{\circ}\text{N}$  to  $41^{\circ}\text{N}$ .

Summer (JJAS) 2018 has the strongest anomalous MHWs activity in the Northeast Atlantic but, at the difference to the six next summers in the ranking of detrended MHWs activity, does not present a decrease in the geopotential height at 500 hPa in the West of Iberian Peninsula (box B). A broad high-pressure system in the North Atlantic-European sector is seen (including box A), except in the Eastern Mediterranean and up to  $60^{\circ}\text{N}$  where a low occurs (Figure S7). This response in box B for summer 2018 is primarily due to late summer (August and September) atmospheric circulation (Figure S7). These months have a minor contribution to MHWs total activity for the whole summer (JJAS; Figure S8). When considering the month of June, with 2018 MHWs peaks (Figure S8), the North Atlantic shows a positive summer NAO regime, similar to the next six summers' highest MHWs activity. This analysis demonstrates that MHWs in the Northeast Atlantic is closely associated with a high-pressure system over Northern Europe, and a low off the Iberian Peninsula, resembling the positive phase of the summer NAO. By performing this analysis with SST instead of MHWs activity, we obtain similar results, albeit with a less extended high over Northern Europe (Figure S9).

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563  
 564 Figure 9: Same as Figure 8 but for MCSs in winter (DJFM). MCSs anomalies are calculated  
 565 with respect to the third-order trend (blue dotted curved in Figure 5). Markers are in color  
 566 when this value is below  $-4 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C} \cdot \text{days} \cdot 10^6 \cdot \text{km}^2$  and stars are indicated when markers in color  
 567 are in the upper-left section of the graph.

568 Regarding MCS, the three highest detrended MCSs activities are winter 1987 ( $-20$   
 569  $^{\circ}\text{C} \cdot \text{days} \cdot 10^6 \cdot \text{km}^2$ ), 1986 ( $-13 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C} \cdot \text{days} \cdot 10^6 \cdot \text{km}^2$ ) and 1994 ( $-10 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C} \cdot \text{days} \cdot 10^6 \cdot \text{km}^2$ ; Figure 9).  
 570 These three most active winters are in the same “cluster”, with an anomalous geopotential  
 571 height at 500 hPa negative over Northern Europe and positive in the West of the Iberian  
 572 Peninsula. Composite of the anomalous geopotential height at 500 hPa for these three winters  
 573 shows in the North Atlantic-Europe sector a broad and strong low in Northern Europe, a  
 574 weaker low-pressure system sitting in the Northwest Atlantic, and two highs off the Iberian  
 575 Peninsula and over the Hudson Bay. This analysis suggests that extreme MCSs in the  
 576 Northeast Atlantic might be closely associated with a low over Northern Europe and a high  
 577 off the Iberian Peninsula. By performing this analysis with SST instead of the MCSs activity  
 578 (Figure S10), the result are sparse, showing only winter 1986 as strong anomalous cold SST  
 579 linked to an anomalous geopotential height at 500 hPa over Northern Europe and positive in  
 580 the West of the Iberian Peninsula.

581 When comparing the anomalous geopotential height conditions for the most intense  
 582 summer MHWs and winter MCS, we see that the geopotential height conditions are somehow  
 583 opposite, although the amplitude is stronger for winter, consistent with stronger climatology  
 584 (Folland et al., 2009). However, while summer MHWs are associated with a positive summer  
 585 NAO, winter MCSs do not present a negative winter NAO general pattern.

586 To provide indications on the drivers of these events, we have considered the different  
 587 components of air-sea heat flux anomalies concomitant with MHWs and MCSs. For the eight  
 588 most severe interannual summer MHWs (see marker in color Figure 8) and the six most  
 589 severe interannual winter MCSs (see marker in color Figure 9), the anomalous (i) short-wave  
 590 radiation flux, (ii) surface net long-wave radiation flux, (iii) surface sensible heat flux and (iv)  
 591 latent heat flux are depicted, respectively Figure S11 and Figure S12. The interannual (or  
 592 detrended) summer MHWs are predominantly driven by high short-wave radiation flux,  
 593 except for years 1983 and 1997 that only shows important positive downward latent heat flux.  
 594 The other air-sea flux have a smaller contribution. The interannual winter MCSs seem to be  
 595 mostly driven by high sensible heat flux and low short-wave radiation flux. This suggests that,  
 596 in this region, low cloud cover is a key parameter for the generation of summer MHWs while  
 597 strong winds and high cloud cover are important for the apparition of winter MCSs. Further



598 analysis needs to be done to attribute quantitatively the contribution of each air-sea heat flux  
599 component.

## 600 4. Discussion

601

602 In the Northeast Atlantic, an increase in the MHWs activity and a decrease in MCSs  
603 activity were observed. Interannual changes confirm that general large scale trends (Oliver et  
604 al., 2018; Schlegel et al., 2021) are also observed in regions where the coastal hydrodynamics  
605 could limit the impact due to active vertical mixing processes (*e.g.* barotropic and internal  
606 tides, wind-driven mixing in shallow waters).

607 The most active summer MHWs analyzed over the Northeast Atlantic and in the  
608 period 1982-2022 occurred in the Bay of Biscay (2018) and the most active winter MCSs  
609 occurred in the English Channel (1987). This is consistent with Schlegel et al. (2021) who  
610 found that the maximum intensity of MHWs dominates MCSs in the Bay of Biscay, and vice  
611 versa in the English Channel. Along the coasts, the maximum of MHWs activity is detected in  
612 2022 in the English Channel which might be related to the summer European heatwaves  
613 recorded (ECMWF, 2022; Savu, 2022; Guinaldo et al., 2023).

614 In the Bay of Biscay, we see a linear warming rate in summer since the beginning of  
615 the studied period. This is in accordance with DeCastro et al. (2009) which shows a steady  
616 linear warming rate since the 1970s, based on data from 1854-2006. Mean SST together with  
617 SST variance increase justify the rise of MHW. This increase of MHWs is consistent with  
618 Izquierdo et al. (2022a) who determined more precisely an equal contribution of each of these  
619 two factors for the South coast of the Bay of Biscay. [This is specific to this region \(as well as  
620 for the Bay of Brest and the English Channel\), as for most of the other regions of the world,  
621 the mean warming and not the SST variability changes contribute to the increase in MHWs  
622 features \(Alexander et al., 2018; Oliver et al., 2020\).](#) Besides, we found a positive trend for  
623 the MHWs activity parameter using both satellite data and the 4 buoys in the Bay of Biscay,  
624 and for the duration and occurrence using satellite data. The trends are quasi-similar  
625 considering only the two buoys on the South coast of the Bay of Biscay (GIJO and BILB) and  
626 the two on the West coast of the Bay of Biscay (ARCA and MOLI; not shown) and are  
627 marked by the high activity present in the more recent summers. This evolution in the  
628 occurrence and duration of MHWs were not seen in Izquierdo et al. (2022b) using two buoys  
629 in the South coastal Bay of Biscay over the period 1998-2018, which could be explained by  
630 local process or studied season (March to August).

631

632 The results from *in situ* and satellite datasets for each of the studied regions are quite  
633 in agreement, albeit the satellite underestimates the amplitude of activity for both MHWs and  
634 MCS. Conversely, Izquierdo et al. (2022a) found an overestimation of the MHWs using  
635 satellites compared to *in situ* in the coastal upwelling region South of the Bay of Biscay,  
636 which might be related to local processes. The satellite's coarse resolution mostly (i) smoothes  
637 small-scale and short events and (ii) interpolates with offshore regions, having greater thermal  
638 inertia (Marin et al., 2021) which can lead to the overestimation of the duration of events and  
639 the underestimation of the intensity. However, we show that coastal *in situ* stations distributed  
640 along the Northeast Atlantic coasts allow the detection of large-scale evolutions of MHWs  
641 and MCSs activity. Analyzed locally, they can also inform on evolutions related to local  
642 hydrodynamics.

643

644 Internal variability of winter MCSs is related to low pressure over Northern Europe  
645 and a high-pressure West of the Iberian Peninsula for three (1987, 1986 and 1994) out of the  
646 six most intense events. Among other strong interannual MCSs, winter 2011 does not present

647 this pattern but could have been generated by a cold air outbreak brought by a ridge over  
648 Greenland (Norris et al., 2013). A relation at an interannual timescale could exist between  
649 MCSs (Figure 7, middle panel) and extreme low-salinity events (Poppeschi et al., 2021) in  
650 winter in the Bay of Brest, as, using the same *in situ* buoys (COAST-HF-Iroise from 2000-  
651 2018), two out of the four most severe low-salinity events are concomitant with MCSs (winter  
652 2001 and 2007). These extreme events could be both influenced by intense mid-latitude  
653 depressions, but river discharges are also an important driver in this region. Unlike MHWs  
654 (Figure 2), extreme cold conditions occurred several winters in a row: three in 2009-2011 and  
655 two in 1986-1987. This might be explained by the re-emergence of cold water originating  
656 from the previous winter, as for the 2013-2016 north Atlantic cold Blob (Duchez et al., 2016a;  
657 Josey et al., 2018; Schlegel et al., 2021).

658  
659 Summer 2018 presents the most active MHWs in the Northeast Atlantic for the period  
660 1982-2022, consistent with the reported warmer SST (+1 to +3 °C above the long-term  
661 climatology) the same summer in the proximity of the United Kingdom (McCarty et al.,  
662 2019). On the continental side, this summer was also recorded as the hottest in the United  
663 Kingdom since 1884 (McCarty et al., 2019) and one of the hottest over northwestern Europe  
664 (Met Office, 2018; Météo-France, 2018). On top of the underlying warming climate forcing  
665 (Vogel et al., 2019; Yiou et al., 2020), this extreme continental warm conditions in 2018 have  
666 been previously reported as a consequence of the positive summer NAO anomalies combined  
667 with elevated SST (McCarty et al., 2019) or combined with stationary Rossby waves in  
668 synoptic anomalies (Drouard et al., 2019; Kornhuber et al., 2019). More generally, the  
669 positive phase of the summer NAO is associated with warm anomalies from the West of the  
670 United Kingdom to the Baltic (Folland et al., 2009). Our findings on the ocean side  
671 corroborate the continental counterpart as extremely warm conditions in the Bay of Biscay  
672 and the English Channel are likely associated with positive summer NAO, consistent with the  
673 result of Holbrook et al. (2019).

674  
675 Depending on the region and the event, MHWs can be associated with anomalous air–  
676 sea heat fluxes which can include high short-wave, due to less cloud cover and greater  
677 insolation, high sensible heat fluxes when the surface air is warm and/or low latent heat loss  
678 from the ocean, due to weak winds (Oliver et al., 2021). In the English Channel and the Bay  
679 of Biscay, Guinaldo et al. (2023) linked the summer of 2022 sea-surface temperature to  
680 abnormally high short-wave radiation in the Bay of Biscay and English Channel. In this study,  
681 a similar conclusion is found by considering the eight most severe interannual MHWs in the  
682 Northeast Atlantic (which includes the English Channel and the Bay of Biscay, and summer  
683 of 2022). Abnormally high short-wave radiation is likely associated with reduced cloudiness  
684 and Folland et al. (2009) have found that during the positive index phase of the summer NAO,  
685 northwest Europe experiences significantly reduced cloudiness. This is consistent with our  
686 suggestion that the positive phase of the summer NAO favours the generations of summer  
687 MHWs in the Northeast Atlantic through reduced cloudiness. MCSs in the English Channel  
688 are associated with high sensible heat flux, consistent with reported MCSs often driven by  
689 strong winds in shallow waters, enabling a rapid chilling of the surface water (Crisp, 1964;  
690 Schlegel et al., 2021). We also found a possible role of weaker short-wave radiation, which  
691 might be related to increased cloud coverage.

692  
693 In the future and under increasing greenhouse gas concentrations, climate models  
694 predict that the ocean surface in the Bay of Biscay and the English Channel will continue to  
695 warm (Fox-Kemper et al., 2021) and a trend toward a positive summer NAO pattern (Faranda  
696 et al., 2019). Both these effects imply the long-term likelihood of increased MHWs in the

697 Northeast Atlantic, but to what extent are the long-term and the interannual variability  
698 contributions remain to be shown. Also, the role of large-scale ocean circulation features,  
699 such as the Shelf Edge Current (Alheit et al., 2019) or Iberian Poleward Current (Charria et  
700 al., 2013), [upper ocean preconditioning \(Josey et al., 2018\)](#), and the importance of remote  
701 large-scale climate modes of variability, such as the Indian Ocean Dipole (Holbrook et al.,  
702 2019) in amplifying or suppressing MHWs occurrences in the Bay of Biscay and English  
703 Channel would need specific investigation. Along the coasts, the role of main river inflow at  
704 the land-sea continuum can also lead to specific answers on the coastal ocean to future climate  
705 evolutions.

706  
707

## 708 5. Conclusions

709

710 The activity index, a combination of the properties of marine extreme events, shows a  
711 positive trend for summer MHWs in the Northeast Atlantic (since 2000 and more pronounced  
712 since 2010) and in the three subregions, the English Channel, the Bay of Brest and the Bay of  
713 Biscay for both *in situ* and satellite data. This is explained by both a mean and variance SST  
714 increase. Conversely, a decrease in MCSs activity was detected, with almost no events after  
715 2000, more clearly with the satellite data due to the longest time series (40 years) compared  
716 with the *in situ* (20 to 30 years). These changes are fast for the three subregions, with the  
717 English Channel being the subregion with the more drastic growth.

718 In the Northeast Atlantic, MHWs are more frequent, longer, and extend over larger areas,  
719 while the opposite is seen for MCSs. For both MHWs and MCSs, the mean intensity shows  
720 only weak changes over the last four decades.

721 Moreover, we found that the satellite dataset used is in good accordance with *in situ* data in  
722 the Northeast Atlantic, except for the fact that satellites underestimate the amplitude of both  
723 hot summer and cold winter marine extreme events in the coastal areas. The implemented *in*  
724 *situ* stations appear as a well-designed observing system to detect the long-term evolution of  
725 MHWs and MCSs activity and to document local features related to coastal hydrodynamics.

726

727 MHWs activity is particularly high in 2018 and 2022 through two different situations.  
728 The year 2018 is characterized by a large extent of MHWs in the Bay of Biscay with long  
729 events in the South of the Bay and intense events in the Armorican Shelf. The summer of  
730 2022 features long MHWs mainly in the English Channel. MCSs activity is the highest in  
731 1986 and 1987 due to long and intense events in the English Channel.

732 Our findings show that summers with strong MHWs activity due to internal variability  
733 (after removing the trend) in Northeast Atlantic have often been associated with a ridge over  
734 the northern Europe sea and a trough West of the Iberian Peninsula; the opposite situation is  
735 seen for MCSs. In the case of MHW, the wide atmospheric pattern resembles the positive  
736 phase of the summer NAO. [This preliminary analysis of air-sea heat flux suggests that in the  
737 Northeast Atlantic interannual \(or detrended\) summer MHWs are predominantly driven by  
738 high short-wave radiation flux and interannual winter MCSs by high sensible heat flux and  
739 low short-wave radiation. This suggests that, in this region, low cloud cover is a key  
740 parameter for the generation of summer MHWs while strong winds and high cloud cover is  
741 important for the apparition of winter MCSs.](#) We caution that the proposed connection does  
742 not necessarily indicate causal links but these relations can provide indications of drivers.

743

744 Despite contrasted hydrodynamical regimes (meso- and macro-tidal) and circulation  
745 (shallow water under freshwater influence, shelf circulation, active sub-mesoscale), the  
746 Northeast Atlantic region displays similar changes in MHWs and MCSs activity between

747 coastal and open ocean regions. Those changes need to be anticipated to mitigate the impacts  
748 on coastal ecosystems.  
749

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759

## 760 **Declaration of competing interest**

761 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal  
762 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

## 763 **Authors contributions**

764 All authors contributed to the conception and design of the study. AS performed the  
765 calculation and designed the figures involving the satellite dataset, GC and CP did so for the  
766 *in situ* dataset. All authors contributed to the discussion, writing and review of the manuscript.  
767

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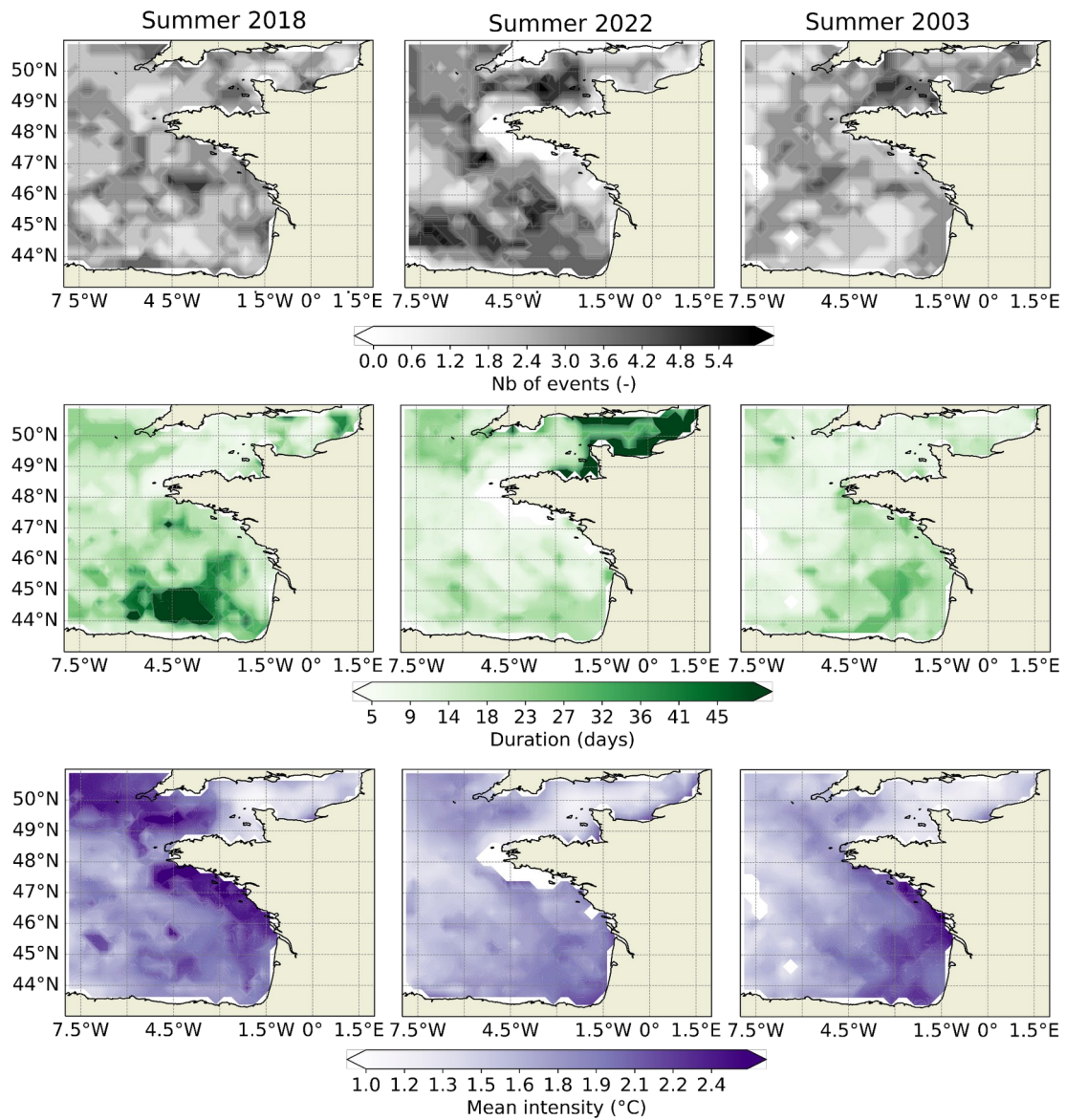


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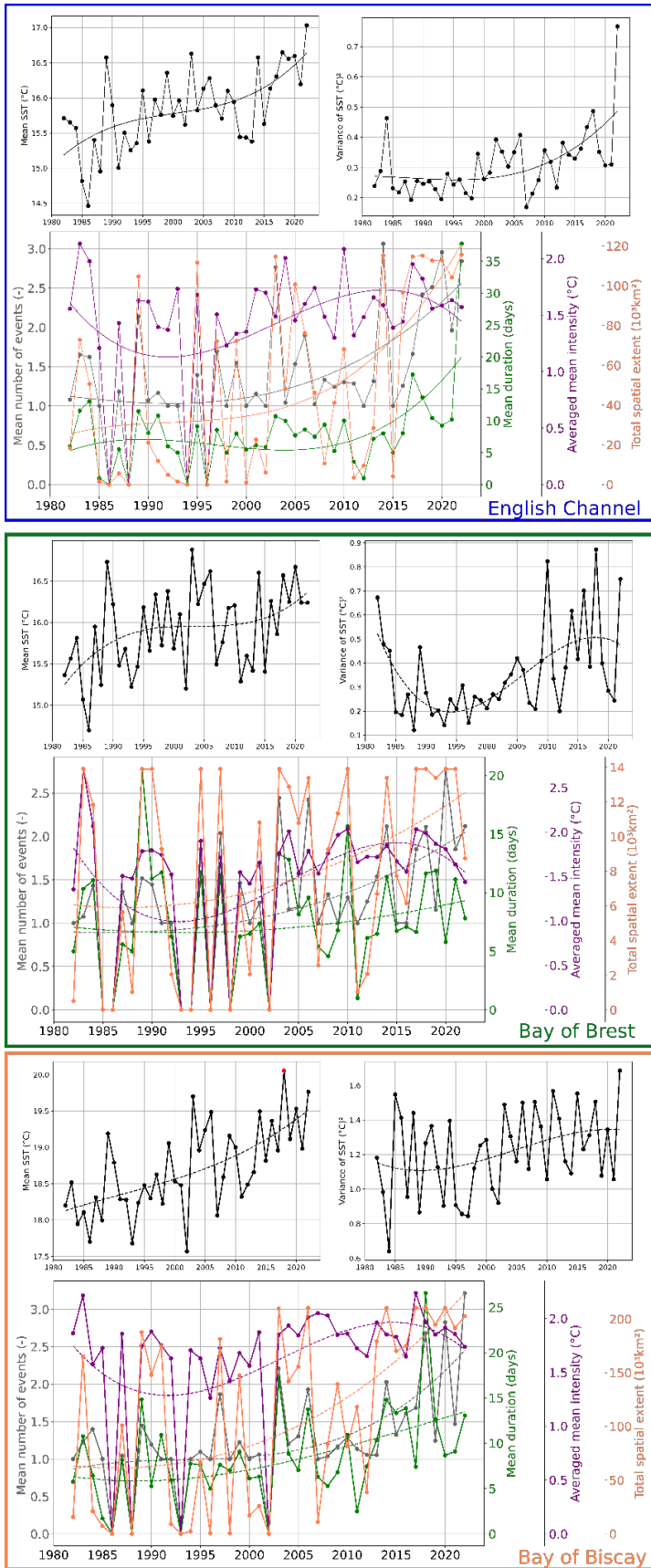
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## Supplementary files

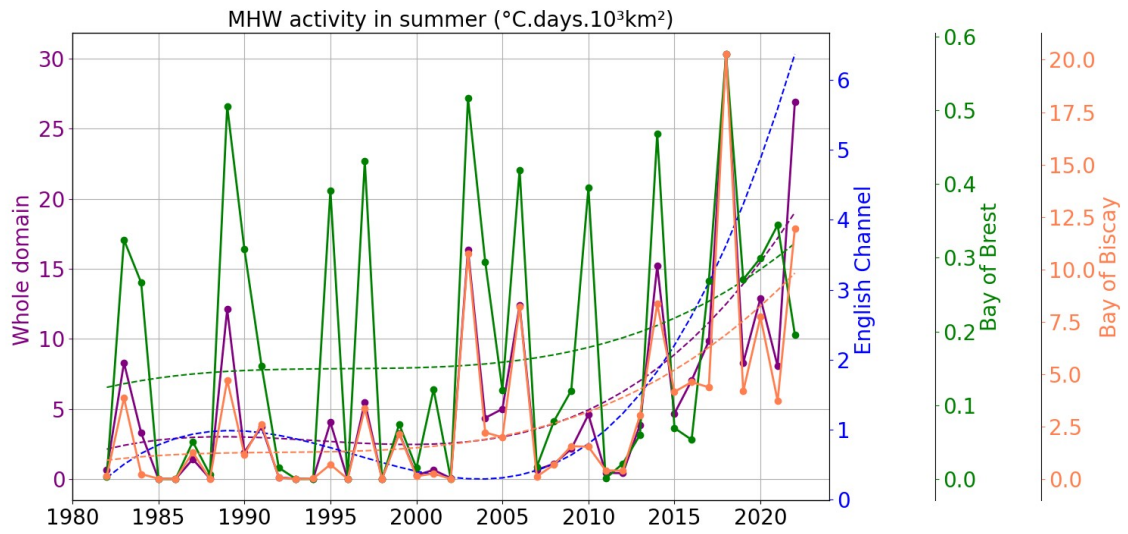


1016  
1017 Figure S1: Summer (JJAS) number of events (first row), average duration (second row; in  
1018 days) and average intensity (third row; in °C) for the top 3 summer in term of total activity in  
1019 the whole domain (from left to right)



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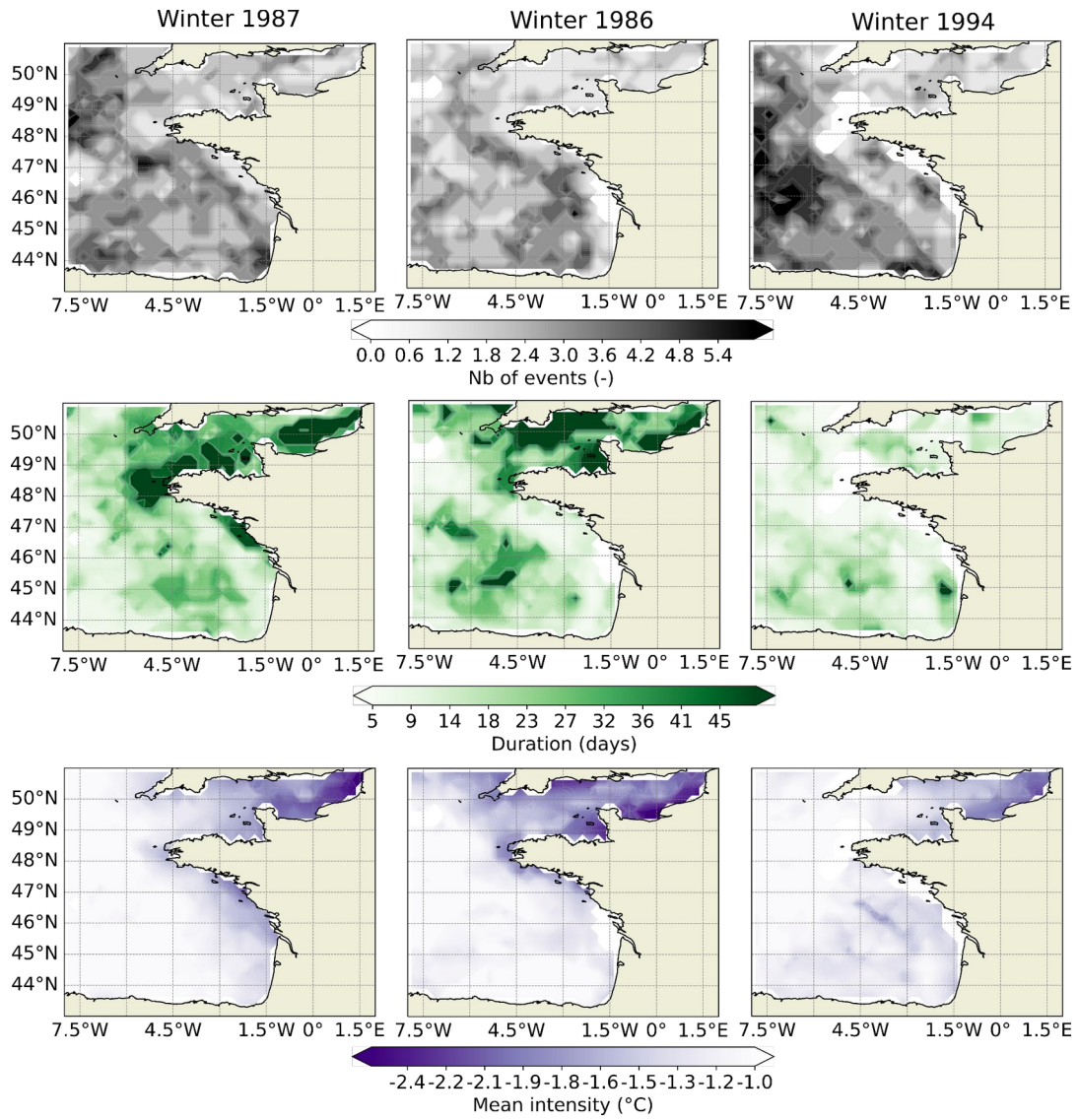
Figure S2: Same as for Figure 3 for summer MHWs but for three subregions: the English Channel (top), the Bay of Brest (middle) and the Bay of Biscay (bottom).



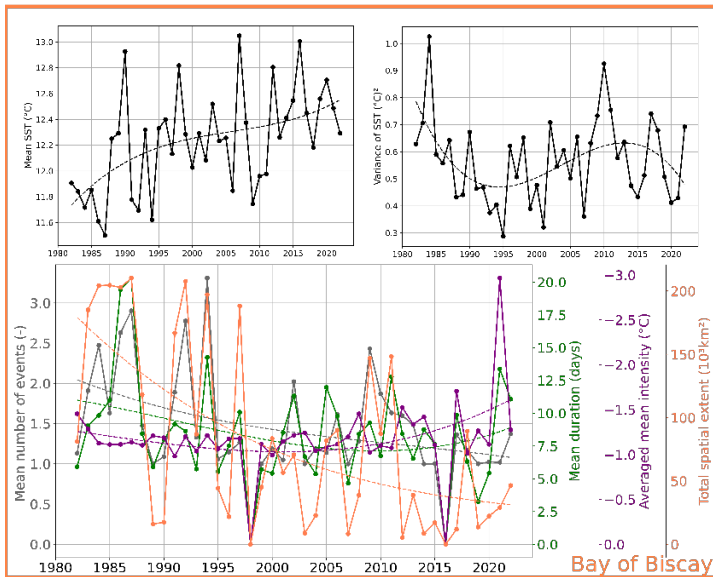
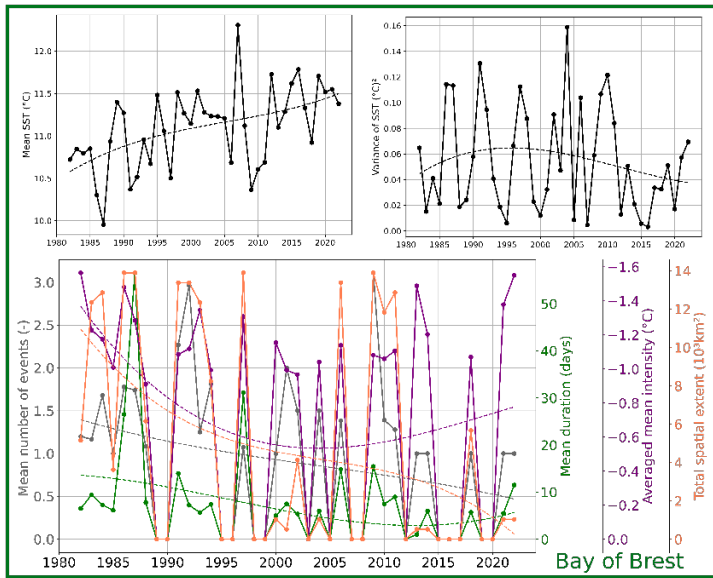
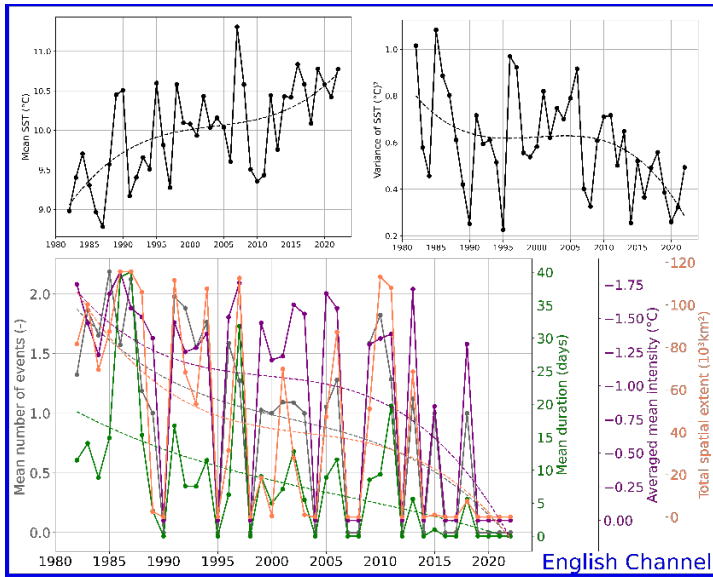
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Figure S3: Time series of summer (JJAS) MHWs activity (°C.days.10<sup>3</sup>km<sup>2</sup>) for the whole domain (purple curve), the English Channel (blue curve), the Bay of Brest (green curve) and the Bay of Biscay (orange curve). Dash lines represent the regression of a third-order polynomial of the solid line with the same color.

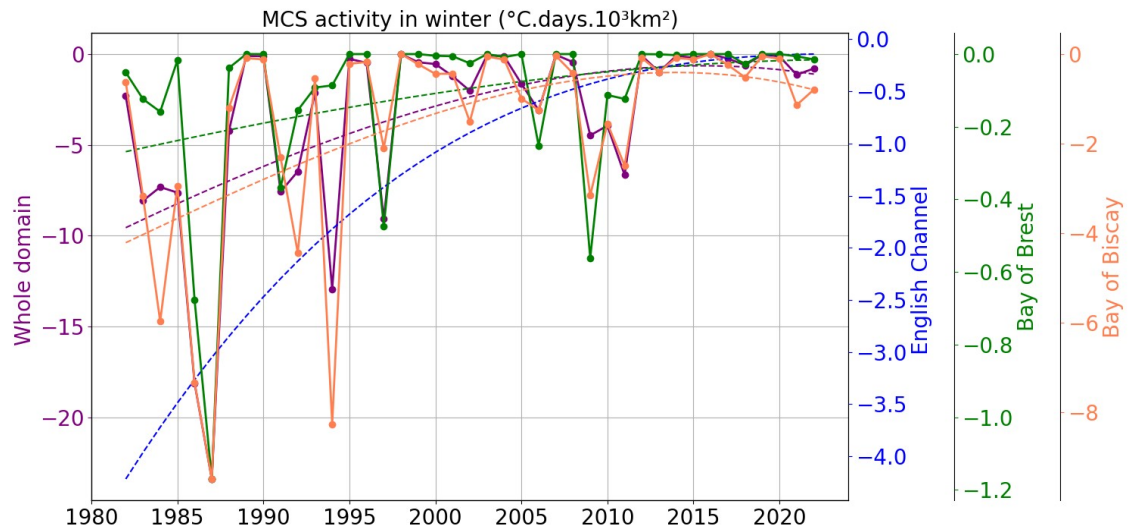




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1032 Figure S4: Same as Figure S1 but for MCSs in winter (DJFM).  
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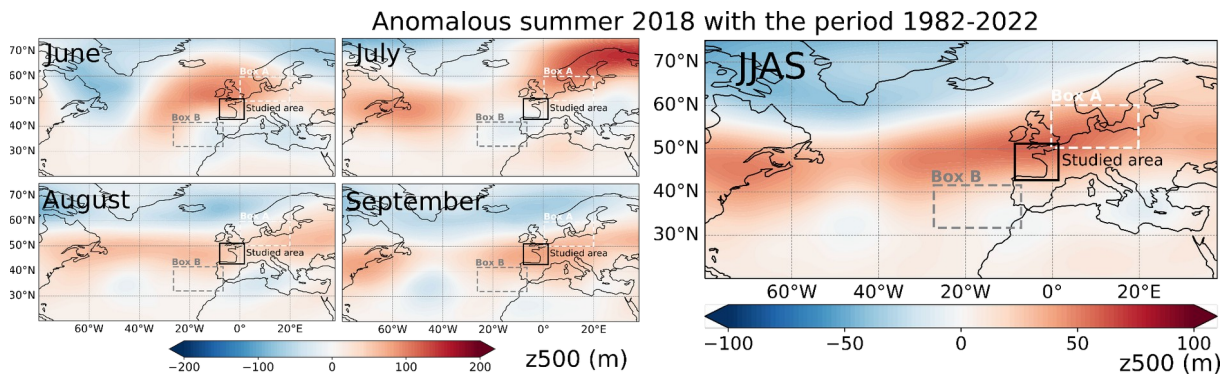
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1036 **Figure S5:** Same as Figure S2 but in winter (DJFM) and MCSs (blue curve).  
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1040 Figure S6: Same as for Figure S3 but for winter (DJFM) MCSs

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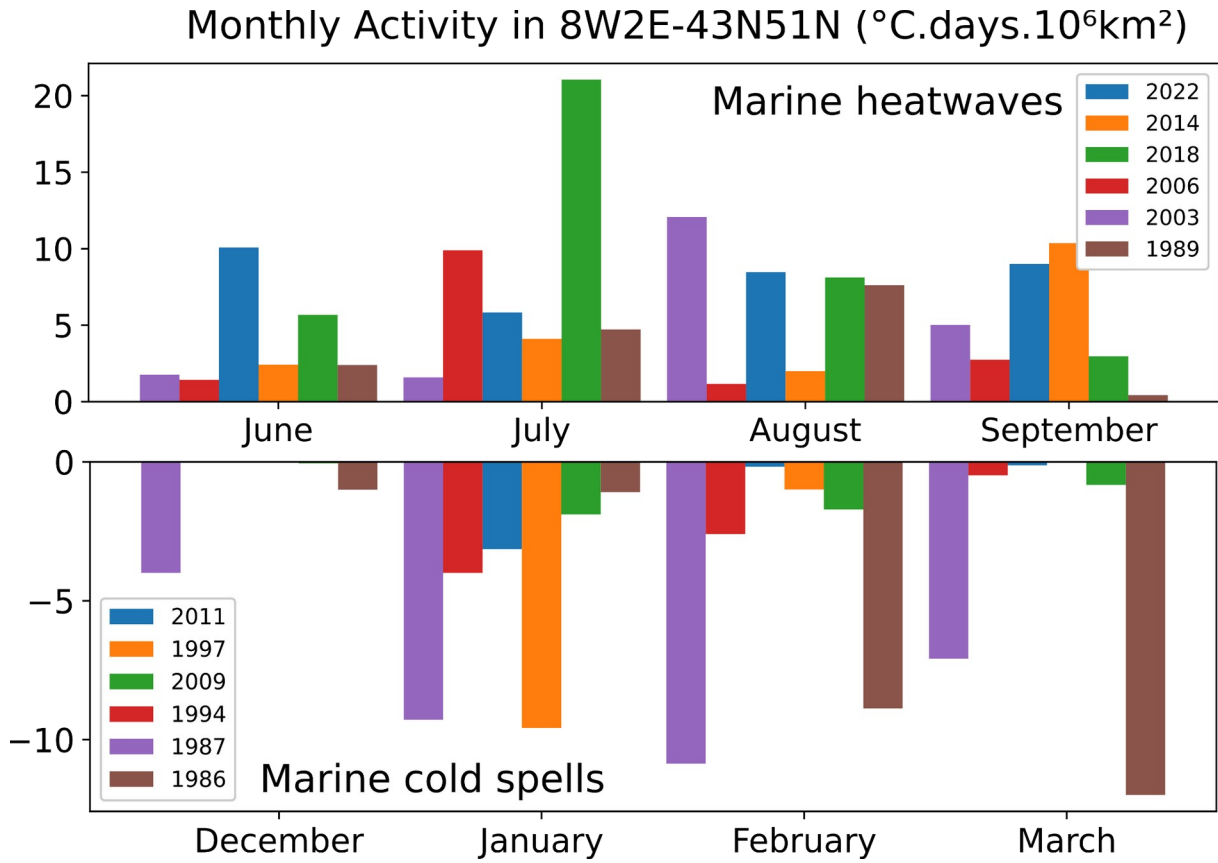


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1043 Figure S7: Anomalous geopotential height at 500 hPa (left panel) in June (top-left), July (top-  
 1044 right), August (bottom-left) and September (bottom-right) and June to September with the  
 1045 period 1982-2022 (right panel). Box A is the domain 0E20E-50N60N and box B is the  
 1046 domain 33W13W-31N41N.

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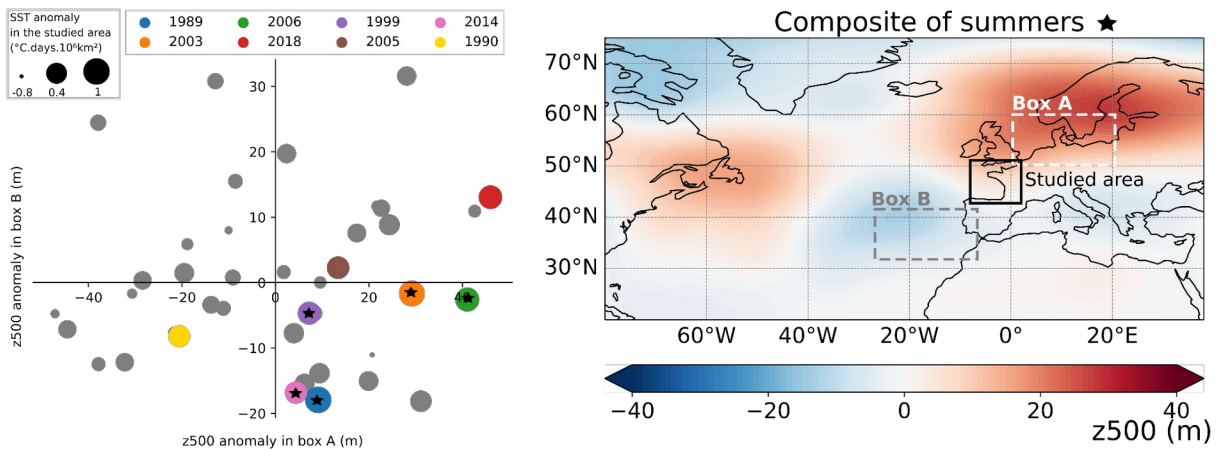
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1050 Figure S8: Total monthly activity in the Northeast Atlantic studied area (8W2E-43N51N) for  
 1051 marine heatwaves in summer months (top) and for marine cold-spells in winter months  
 1052 (bottom).

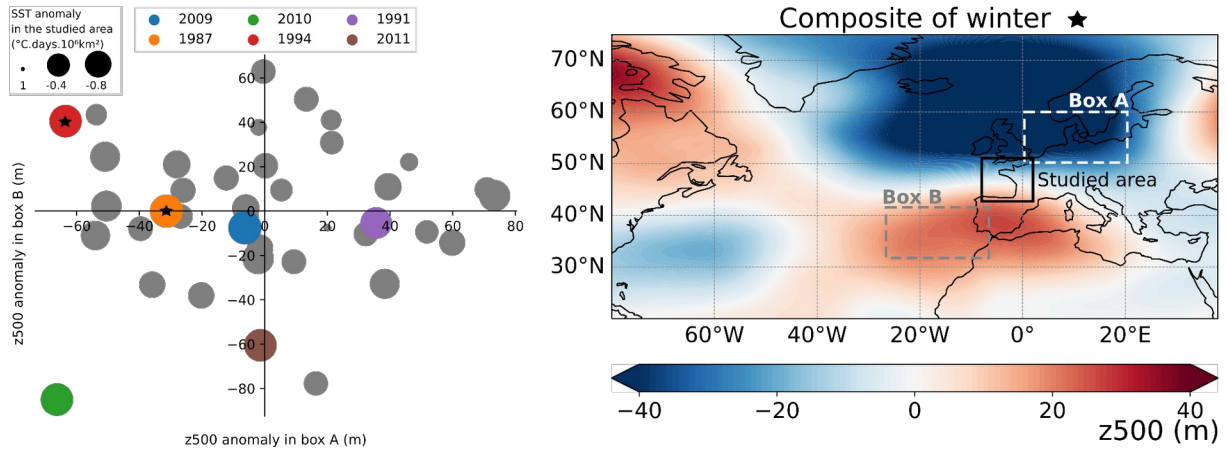
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1055 Figure 9: Same as Figure 8 but with SST instead of marine heatwave activity. SST anomalies  
 1056 are calculated with respect to the third-order trend (black dotted line in the top panel Figure  
 1057 3). Coloured mark summer is for anomalous SST averaged of the studied area exceeding 0.4  
 1058 °C.

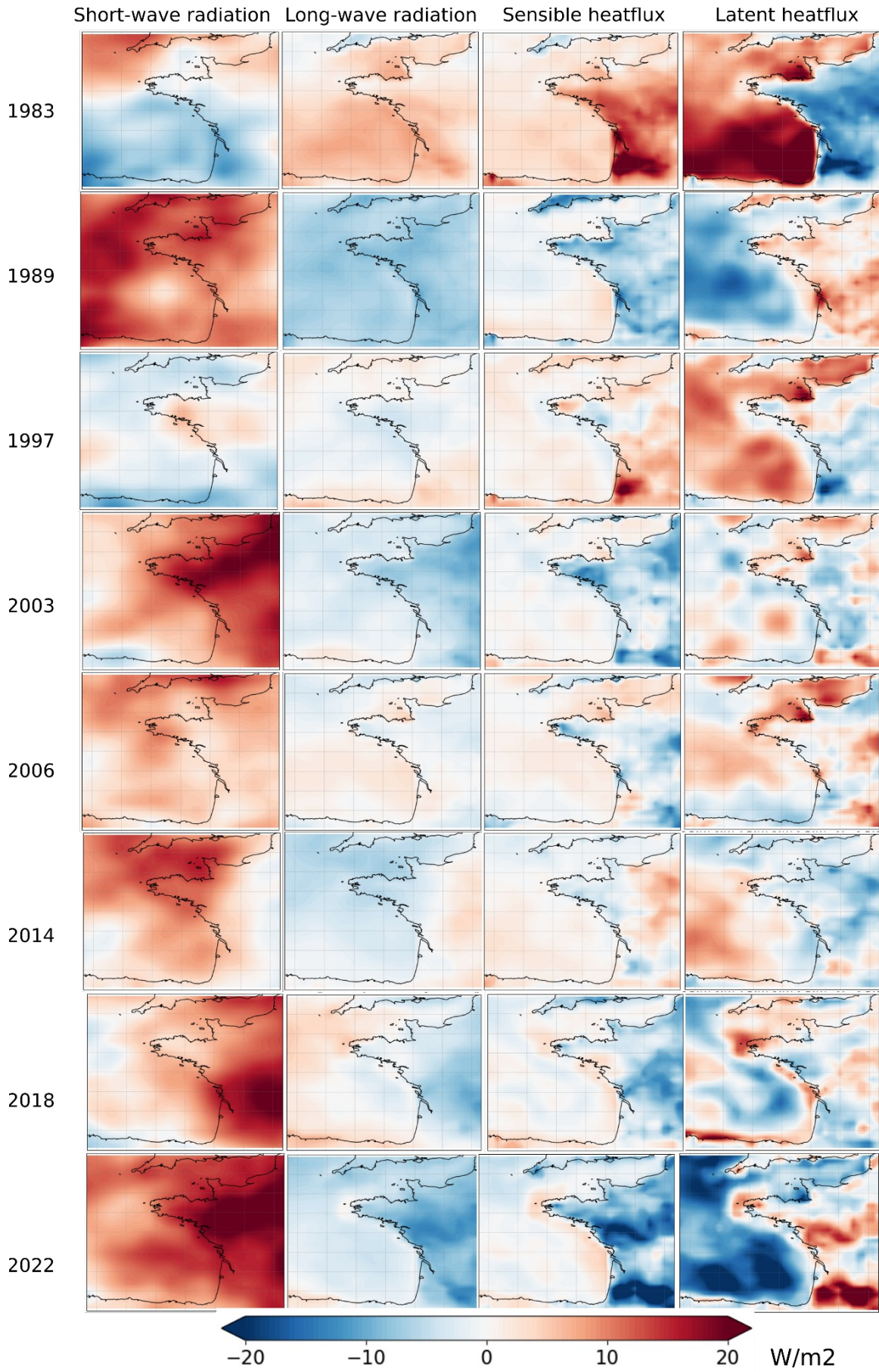
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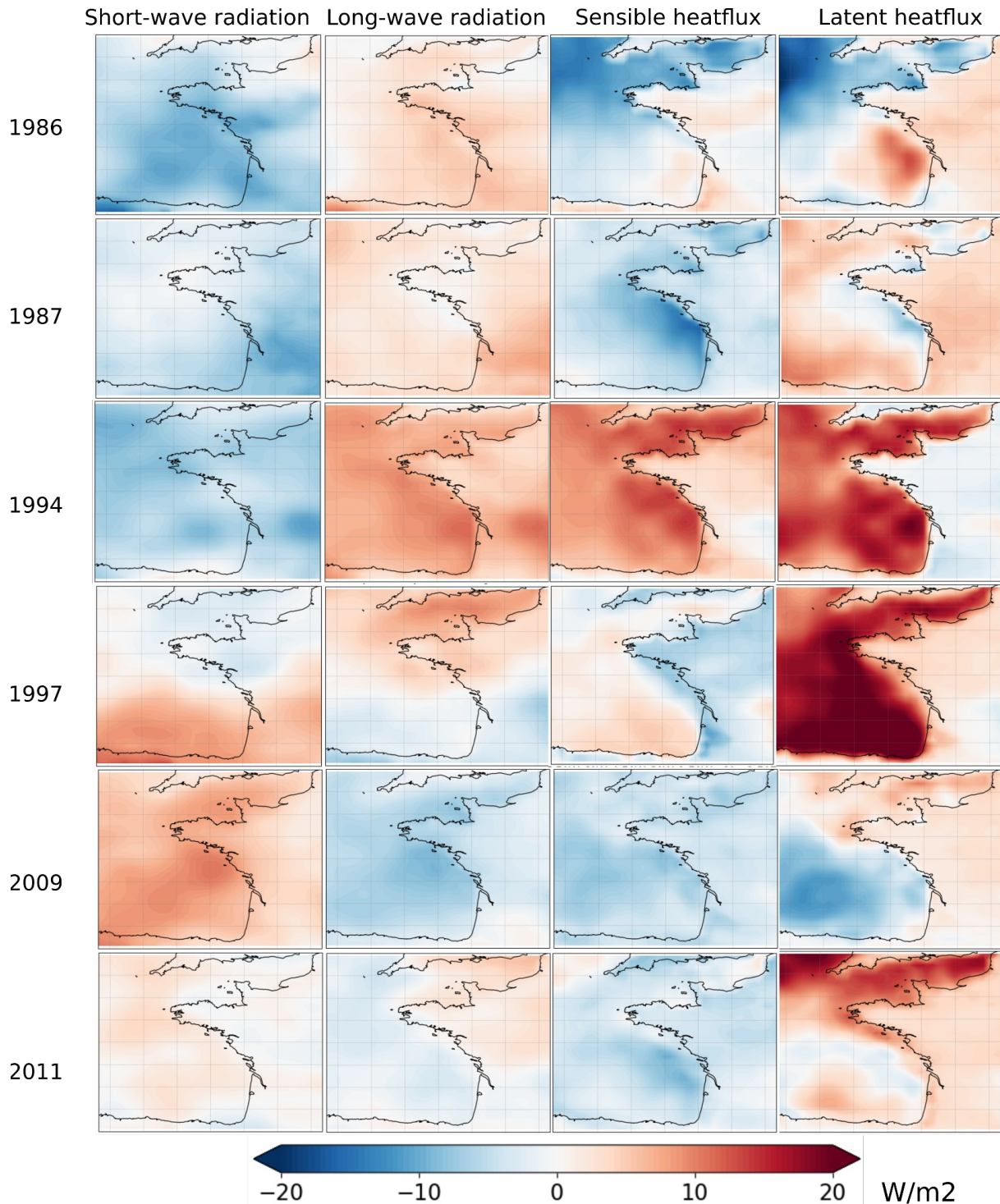
1061 Figure S10: Same as Figure 9 but with SST instead of marine cold-spells activity. SST  
 1062 anomalies are calculated with respect to the quadratic trend (black dotted line in the top panel  
 1063 Figure 6). The colored mark winter is for anomalous SST averaged of the studied area below -  
 1064 0.4  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Box A is the domain 0E20E-50N60N and box B is the domain 33W13W-31N41N.







1066 Figure S11: Anomalous short-wave radiation (first column; W/m<sup>2</sup>), long-wave radiation  
 1067 (second column; W/m<sup>2</sup>), sensible heat flux (third column; W/m<sup>2</sup>) and latent heat flux (fourth  
 1068 column; W/m<sup>2</sup>) compared to the period 1982-2022 for the eight most severe interannual  
 1069 summer (JJAS) MHWs. Positive fluxes are downward.  
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 1072 Figure S12: Same as Figure S13 but for the six most severe interannual winter MCSs.  
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<i>Buoy names</i>	<i>Coordinates</i>	<i>Start acquisition</i>
<i>CARNot</i>	1.56°E, 50.74°N	2004
<i>GREENwich</i>	0.04°E, 50.41°N	2006
<i>SMILe</i>	0.30°W, 49.34°N	2015
<i>CHANnel</i>	2.86°W, 49.90°N	1991
<i>L4_Q</i>	4.13°W, 50.15°N	2009
<i>SEVEN stones</i>	6.07°W, 50.09°N	1995
<i>ASTAn</i>	3.93°W, 48.77°N	2015
<i>IROlse</i>	4.55°W, 48.35°N	2000
<i>SMART</i>	4.33°W, 48.31°N	2016
<i>MOLIt</i>	2.65°W, 47.46°N	2008
<i>ARCAchon</i>	1.23°W, 44.63°N	2017
<i>BILBao</i>	3.14°W, 43.41°N	2004
<i>GIJOn</i>	5.68°W, 43.64°N	2004

1075  
1076 Table S1: Characteristics of the 13 *in situ* measurement buoys. Buoys indicated in blue are  
1077 located in the English Channel, in green in the Bay of Brest and in orange in the Bay of  
1078 Biscay.

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<b>Summer MHWs</b>	Number of events (-)	Duration (days)	Mean intensity (°C)
Northeast Atlantic	1.4	8.9	1.7
English Channel	1.4	8.0	1.4
Bay of Brest	1.2	7.3	1.5
Bay of Biscay	1.3	8.3	1.6

1081 Table S2: Mean properties (number of events, duration, mean intensity) of summer (JJAS)  
1082 MHWs over the period 1982-2022 in the Northeast Atlantic, English Channel, Bay of Brest  
1083 and Bay of Biscay

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<b>Winter MCSs</b>	Number of events (-)	Duration (days)	Mean intensity (°C)
Northeast Atlantic	1.4	9.1	-1.4
English Channel	0.9	8.3	-1.0
Bay of Brest	0.9	7.0	-0.7
Bay of Biscay	1.4	8.4	-1.2

1086 Table S3: Same as Table S2 but for winter (DJFM) MCSs

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