

# A hemispheric asymmetry in poleward ocean heat transport across climates: implications for overturning and polar warming<sup>☆</sup>

Emily Newsom<sup>a</sup>, Andrew F. Thompson<sup>b</sup>, Jess Adkins<sup>b</sup>, Eric Galbraith<sup>c</sup>

<sup>a</sup>*Department of Physics, University of Oxford, UK*

<sup>b</sup>*Division of Geological and Planetary Sciences, Caltech, USA*

<sup>c</sup>*Earth and Planetary Science, McGill University, Canada*

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## Abstract

The modern Indo-Pacific oceans absorb more heat from the atmosphere than they release. The resulting energy surplus is exported from the Indo-Pacific by the ocean circulation and lost to the atmosphere from other ocean basins. This heat transport ultimately sustains much of the buoyancy lost to deep water formation at high latitudes, a key component of the global overturning circulation. Despite the fundamental link between inter-basin ocean heat transport and global overturning in today's climate, there is no general understanding of how these phenomena vary with climate state. Here, we use an unprecedented suite of fully-coupled climate model simulations, equilibrated for thousands of years to a wide range of CO<sub>2</sub> levels, to demonstrate that major differences in overturning between climates are related to systematic shifts in ocean heat transport between basins. Uniformly, equilibration to

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<sup>☆</sup>Corresponding author

*Email address:* [emily.newsom@physics.ox.ac.uk](mailto:emily.newsom@physics.ox.ac.uk) (Emily Newsom )

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higher CO<sub>2</sub> levels strengthens inter-basin ocean heat transport and global deep water formation. These changes are sustained by increased surface heat uptake within the Indo-Pacific oceans, and increased high-latitude heat loss outside of the Indo-Pacific oceans as the climate warms. However, poleward heat transport and high-latitude heat loss do not increase symmetrically between hemispheres. Between glacial and modern-like states, North Atlantic heat loss intensifies and overturning in the Atlantic strengthens. In contrast, between modern-like and hot climates, heat loss and overturning strengthens in the Southern Ocean. We propose that these differences are linked to a shift in the relative efficiency of northward and southward ocean heat transport — dominated by advection in the North Atlantic and eddy diffusion in the Southern Ocean — with climate state. Our results suggest that, under high CO<sub>2</sub>, future ocean heat transport towards Antarctica would increase disproportionately compared to its changes since the last ice age.

*Keywords:* Paleoclimate, Climate Evolution, Ocean Overturning Circulation, Ocean Heat Transport, Climate Modeling, Last Glacial Maximum

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## 1. Introduction

2 In the modern climate, the combined heat transport by the ocean and  
3 atmosphere alleviates the energy imbalance between the planet's low and  
4 high latitudes. While the atmosphere extends over the entire Earth surface,  
5 the global ocean is instead partitioned by continents into basins. Each basin  
6 differs dramatically in shape and meridional extent, such that the Indian

7 and Pacific Oceans make up most of the tropical global ocean, while the  
8 Atlantic, Arctic, and Southern Oceans comprise its high latitudes. Given  
9 this configuration, the surface heat budgets of each basin need not close.  
10 Instead, imbalances in surface heat fluxes over each basin are compensated  
11 by zonal heat transport between basins, accomplished through an inter-basin  
12 circulation (e.g., 1).

13 In the modern ocean, vast quantities of heat are carried between basins  
14 by the ocean circulation. Specifically, an excess of nearly a petawatt of heat  
15 is gained over the surface of the Indo-Pacific Oceans, which is relieved by a  
16 net heat transport into both the Southern and Atlantic Oceans (e.g., 2). This  
17 imported heat balances the net surface heat loss from these basins and plays  
18 a pivotal role in maintaining the modern deep Atlantic Meridional Over-  
19 turning Circulation (AMOC) (1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7). However, the strength and  
20 configuration of the ocean overturning has varied from its present-day state  
21 over past glacial cycles, as documented in deep ocean tracers and fluctua-  
22 tions in both atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and global surface temperatures (8, 9, 10).  
23 For instance, paleo proxies suggest that the AMOC was shallower and in-  
24 volved less inter-basin flow during the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) than  
25 its present-day counterpart (e.g., 11, 12, 13). A comprehensive explanation  
26 for these changes remains elusive.

27 Despite the link between inter-basin ocean heat transport and the over-  
28 turning circulation in the present-day climate, as well as the consensus that  
29 overturning has varied significantly in the past, no previous study has ex-

30 plored how changes in overturning are more generally connected to modifi-  
31 cations in basin-scale surface heating and inter-basin ocean heat transport.  
32 Moreover, many prevailing dynamical theories for overturning transitions rely  
33 heavily on idealized ocean-only models (14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19), frameworks  
34 that, by construction, do not account for the complex atmosphere-ocean dy-  
35 namics that govern the geographical distribution of surface heat fluxes in a  
36 given climate.

37 In this study, we use an unprecedented ensemble of fully-coupled climate  
38 model simulations to show that the global distribution of surface heat fluxes,  
39 and compensating pathways of inter-basin ocean heat transport, vary sys-  
40 tematically across a range of equilibrated climate states. Specifically, we  
41 find that, while the Indo-Pacific basins are always sites of net heat uptake,  
42 with a magnitude that increases with climate warming, the delivery of heat  
43 to sites of high latitude heat loss varies asymmetrically between the North  
44 Atlantic and Southern Ocean. We argue that this shifting distribution of  
45 global ocean heat loss explains global overturning reconfigurations exhibited  
46 across climates, which are qualitatively consistent with accepted differences  
47 between the overturning during the LGM and today. In addition, our results  
48 inform how past overturning transitions may differ from those possible in  
49 climates much warmer than today.

## 50 **Climate Simulations and Methods**

51     The relationship between the equilibrated ocean overturning state and  
52 global climate has remained unclear, in part, because of the computational  
53 challenges of addressing this relationship in climate models. Doing so inher-  
54 ently requires: (1) coupling of a dynamic ocean, atmosphere and cryosphere;  
55 (2) a large number of simulations that probe different forcing and climate  
56 states; and (3) integrations that span many thousands of years to achieve  
57 a statistically-steady system (e.g., 20). Here, we make use of an unprece-  
58 dented ensemble of simulations that satisfy these requirements. This series  
59 of 24 fully-coupled climate simulations, each equilibrated to a wide range of  
60 different atmospheric carbon dioxide ( $\text{CO}_2$ ) levels under various orbital forc-  
61 ing scenarios, and individually integrated for at least 3000 years, comprehen-  
62 sively span quasi-equilibrium climate states from cold, glacial-like conditions,  
63 through modern-day parallels, and into states much warmer than today (21).

64     The climate model used is the coupled ocean– atmosphere–ice– biogeo-  
65 chemistry model CM2Mc.v2 (22) with a nominal  $3^\circ$  horizontal resolution in  
66 the ocean and in the atmosphere, each comprised of 28 and 24 vertical layers,  
67 respectively, as detailed in (21). The model was forced with one of six levels  
68 of atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$ : 180, 220, 270, 405, 607 and 911 ppm. For each  $\text{CO}_2$   
69 level, the simulation was integrated using one of four different permutations  
70 of orbital forcing, involving two precession angles ( $270^\circ$  or  $90^\circ$ ) and two obliq-  
71 uities ( $22.0^\circ$  or  $24.5^\circ$ ), over timescales ranging from 3200 to 5000 years. The  
72 model set-up and the influence of orbital variations are discussed in depth

73 by (21). To isolate the robust influence of CO<sub>2</sub> level on equilibrium climate,  
74 in this study we present averages at each atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> level across the  
75 4 orbital configurations. The general evolution of climate and ocean over-  
76 turning with CO<sub>2</sub> level, averaged over the various orbital forcing scenarios,  
77 (summarized in Fig. 1a-d) are robust across each individual orbital forcing  
78 case. Fig. S1 expands on the characteristics of the overturning and climate  
79 state for different CO<sub>2</sub> forcing and orbital configurations, the spread of which  
80 is illustrated in the vertical bars in Fig. 1. Interesting differences do exist  
81 between different orbital configurations and will be explored in a subsequent  
82 study.

Our particular focus here is the influence of CO<sub>2</sub> level on global overturn-  
ing and heat transport. We define the global overturning streamfunction  
from the residual circulation along and across density surfaces, given by

$$\Psi(y, \sigma) \equiv - \int_{-H}^{\zeta} \int_{x_E}^{x_W} \mathbf{v}(x, y, z) \mathcal{H}(\sigma'(\mathbf{x}) - \sigma) dx dz. \quad (1)$$

83 Eq. 1 quantifies the meridional transport of waters denser than isopycnal  
84  $\sigma$ , where  $\mathbf{v}(x, y, z)$  is the local residual meridional velocity (including bolus  
85 contributions),  $H$  is the depth of the ocean bottom,  $\zeta$  the sea-surface height,  
86  $\mathcal{H}$  is the Heaviside Function, where  $\mathcal{H}(n) = 1$  for  $n \geq 0$  and  $\mathcal{H}(n) = 0$  for  
87  $n < 0$ ,  $X_E$  and  $X_W$  are zonal boundaries of the domain, which can span a  
88 closed basin or a full longitude circle, and  $y$  is latitude. To exclude the surface  
89 gyres, the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) strength is

90 defined as the maximum in  $\Psi$  within the Atlantic basin for all  $\sigma > 34 \text{ kg/m}^3$ .  
91 Global abyssal overturning strength is defined as the minimum in  $\Psi$  for all  
92  $\sigma > 34 \text{ kg/m}^3$  and north of  $30^\circ\text{S}$ , which captures the global overturning of the  
93 bottom waters destroyed through buoyancy gains north of  $30^\circ\text{S}$ . Total global  
94 overturning (Fig. 1c) is defined as the sum of the absolute magnitude of each  
95 overturning branch, quantifying the net global cycling of waters from high to  
96 low densities (and, generally, from lower to higher temperatures). Note that  
97 the maximum in the abyssal branch south of  $30^\circ\text{S}$ , or the “Southern Ocean  
98 recirculation” (e.g. 23), follows a trajectory distinct from the “global” value.  
99 This relationship, closely linked to Antarctic sea ice, and orbital forcing, will  
100 be explored in a subsequent study.

101 An key point is that the overturning rates we report are equilibrated to  
102 each  $\text{CO}_2$  level and, in general, will differ from the ocean’s transient response  
103 to changes in  $\text{CO}_2$  forcing between states. While we have not performed a  
104 20th-21st century simulation in this version of the model, we note the AMOC  
105 weakens in its transient response to historical and RCP8.5 forcing in two very  
106 similar model configurations (CM2M.v1 by (24) and GFDL ESM2M (25)),  
107 consistent with most coupled climate models. In contrast, several studies  
108 have shown that the AMOC ultimately recovers or exceeds its preindustrial  
109 strength as the climate equilibrates (over millennial timescales) to higher  
110 than present day  $\text{CO}_2$  levels (20, 26, 27). This AMOC strengthening is in  
111 broad agreement with our simulations.

112 Several limitations of the simulations relevant to global overturning should

113 be noted. Due to its coarse resolution, the ocean model does not resolve  
114 geostrophic turbulence and therefore parameterizes the effect of mesoscale  
115 eddies. Lateral diffusion and skew diffusion of tracers along isopycnals is  
116 represented using the parameterization of (28) with a spatially-varying dif-  
117 fusion coefficient. The coefficient depends on the horizontal shear between  
118 100 and 2000 m, and is bounded by minimum and maximum values of 200  
119  $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$  and  $1400 \text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$ , respectively. Overall, CM2Mc generates a relatively  
120 strong response to changes in baroclinicity, as suggested by observations in  
121 the Southern Ocean (29). The parameterization is an imperfect surrogate  
122 for eddy effects, and will therefore bias the results to some degree. Note,  
123 however, most of the large-scale aspects of interest here are captured rela-  
124 tively well by similar parameterizations (30). Additionally, like most global  
125 climate models, CM2Mc cannot capture the many processes involved in the  
126 coastal formation and overflow of deep waters, resulting in the dominance of  
127 bottom water formation through open-ocean convection. This likely biases  
128 the sensitivity of deep water formation to  $\text{CO}_2$  change to some degree. More  
129 details of these limitations are discussed by (21). Of particular importance  
130 for our results is a cold bias in the North Pacific in its preindustrial control  
131 simulation, associated with more expansive sea ice and more vigorous inter-  
132 mediate water formation than observed in the region in the modern climate.  
133 In contrast, the Southern Ocean is warmer in preindustrial simulations than  
134 observed, though its preindustrial sea ice extent agrees relatively well with  
135 observations and quite well with CMIP5 and CMIP6 models, on average (31).



136 Finally, there is a small imbalance in the net surface heat flux, which when  
137 summed globally ranges from 0.01 – 0.06 PW across climate states (Fig. S2),  
138 remaining 1 – 2 orders of magnitude smaller than both net inter-basin heat  
139 transports and changes in inter-basin heat transport across climates. Re-  
140 gardless, deep ocean temperatures remain quite steady, changing less than  
141 0.001°C on average over the final century of integration. We consider the  
142 potential impact of these model biases on our results in our Discussion.

## 143 **Results**

144 As expected, climate simulations equilibrated to progressively higher CO<sub>2</sub>  
145 levels warm monotonically, as measured by the atmospheric global mean  
146 surface temperature (GMST) (see 21). Warming of the climate state, in these  
147 simulations, also leads to major reconfigurations in inter-basin ocean heat  
148 transport, as we discuss in detail in the following sections. Changes in inter-  
149 basin transport can first be inferred by comparing the net heat flux over each  
150 basin (Fig. 1a-b). Across all climate states, the Indo-Pacific serves as the  
151 global ocean’s primary heat source. This basin, defined as the region between  
152 30°S and the Bering Strait in the Pacific and Indian Oceans, receives more  
153 heat from the atmosphere than it loses, meaning the Indo-Pacific surface heat  
154 flux is in surplus (is positive in the net, see Fig. 1a), irrespective of the climate  
155 state. Furthermore, this Indo-Pacific heat surplus grows monotonically with  
156 GMST, which, as a consequence, requires more heat to be exported from the  
157 basin in progressively warmer climates. However, the partitioning of heat

158 loss to the atmosphere between the Atlantic-Arctic region (north of 30°S  
159 and including the marginal seas, henceforth “Atlantic”) and the Southern  
160 Ocean (south of 30°S) follows a complex trajectory with increasing GMST  
161 (Fig. 1b).

162 The global overturning rate is tightly linked to basin-scale heating. Indi-  
163 vidually, the Atlantic-sourced (AMOC) and Southern Ocean-sourced (abyssal  
164 cell) branches of the global circulation tightly co-vary with the total heat fluxes  
165 in their respective basin (Fig. 1d). Yet the combined magnitudes of each  
166 branch, which we term the global overturning rate, increases monotonically  
167 with the increasing Indo-Pacific heat uptake (Fig. 1c). We are not aware of  
168 prior discussion regarding this general relationship between the global over-  
169 turning rate and global mean temperature — it would, in fact, be impossible  
170 to recover in a model that imposes surface fluxes or temperatures in the  
171 lower latitudes (15, e.g.). In what follows, we refer to three distinct over-  
172 turning states spanned by these simulations, termed “Cold” (low CO<sub>2</sub> at 180  
173 ppm), “Warm” (near modern-day, at 405 ppm) and “Hot” (high CO<sub>2</sub>, at  
174 905 ppm), which differ in both the relative importance of the Atlantic and  
175 Southern Oceans in closing the global ocean heat budget and the relative  
176 contribution of the AMOC and abyssal cells to global overturning. Due to  
177 the equilibrated nature of the simulations, we cannot assess the transient ad-  
178 justment that produces these changes in overturning, but we can determine  
179 the processes that sustain distinct configurations between climates. We first  
180 describe these key dynamical differences and then propose an explanation for

181 why the circulation transitions between regimes.

### 182 *Indo-Pacific Heat Uptake*

183 We begin with the mechanisms sustaining the Indo-Pacific net heat sur-  
184 plus and its remarkably monotonic relationship with GMST. Across all cli-  
185 mate states, most of the heat uptake in the basin (and globally) occurs in  
186 the tropical Pacific (here defined from 10°S to 10°N in the Pacific, (the red  
187 box in Fig. 2a). Tropical heat uptake exceeds total heat losses elsewhere in  
188 the basin in all climates (leading to the surplus in Fig. 1a). Moreover, heat  
189 uptake in the tropical Pacific, where wind-driven upwelling exposes cooler  
190 underlying waters to intense shortwave radiation, is relatively consistent be-  
191 tween climates, decreasing by roughly 10% from 1.8 PW in the Cold state  
192 to 1.6 PW in the Hot state (Fig. 2b). In contrast, surface fluxes over the  
193 basin’s dominant heat loss site — the North Pacific, defined as 12 – 55°N  
194 (the blue box in Fig. 2b) — varies more significantly with climate. In the  
195 Cold state, 1.38 PW of heat is lost over this region (a net flux of  $-1.38$  PW),  
196 whereas in the Hot state, regional heat loss falls 34% to  $-0.91$  PW (Fig.  
197 2b). This reduction is due to a weaker sensible heat loss. In fact, North  
198 Pacific sensible heat loss weakens more dramatically than the total heat loss,  
199 decreasing nearly two-fold from  $-1.53$  PW to  $-0.85$  PW between the Cold  
200 and Hot states (Fig. 2b). While sensible heat fluxes dominate total regional  
201 reductions, they are slightly offset by other flux components.

202 We attribute the change in sensible heat loss to a reduction in the air-sea

203 temperature contrast (a primary control on sensible heat loss) over the North  
204 Pacific. In the glacial-like Cold state, regional surface air temperatures are  
205  $3.3^{\circ}\text{C}$  colder, on average, than the sea surface below (i.e., an air-sea contrast  
206 of  $-3.3^{\circ}\text{C}$  in Fig. 2c). As GMST increases, however, regional surface air  
207 temperatures warm more than sea-surface temperatures. This likely occurs  
208 because surface waters carried northward in western boundary currents ac-  
209 quire their characteristic temperatures from lower latitudes, where surface  
210 warming varies less with climate state. In contrast, North Pacific surface  
211 air temperatures are more sensitive to continental effects (e.g., 32)) and are  
212 influenced by the disproportionate warming of the land surface, relative to  
213 the ocean, between climates (e.g., 33, 34). This reasoning suggests that re-  
214 ductions in mid-latitude sensible heat loss may be a general expectation of  
215 a warming climate, an inference supported by the robust, wide-spread re-  
216 duction in North Pacific and mid-latitude sensible heat loss in 20th and 21st  
217 century warming scenarios in the CMIP5 ensemble (35). While the compari-  
218 son of these transient simulations to our results is indirect, we are not aware  
219 of any study examining the equilibrated regional heat flux response to  $\text{CO}_2$   
220 changes in other models. In our simulations, changes in regional surface cli-  
221 mate significantly reduce the air-sea temperature contrast (to  $-1.6^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) in the  
222 North Pacific in the Hot state, consistent with the strong reduction in sen-  
223 sible heat flux between the climate states (Fig. 2c). While the magnitude of  
224 this heat loss may be influenced by the regional cold bias noted under prein-  
225 dustrial forcing (21), we argue that the qualitative change between climate

226 states is not. That is, because North Pacific heat loss is more sensitive to  
227 climate state than tropical Pacific heat uptake, the basin-scale Indo-Pacific  
228 surface heat budget falls increasingly out of balance with increasing GMST.

### 229 *Atlantic and Southern Ocean Heat Loss*

230 To understand the (non-monotonic) evolution of basin-scale heat loss in  
231 the Atlantic and Southern Oceans (Fig. 1b,d), we first consider the dynamics  
232 that govern lateral heat transport. In the glacial-like Cold climate state,  
233 polar regions are extensively ice covered and global high-latitude heat loss  
234 is at its minimum (Fig. 2a and S3). In the Atlantic, the AMOC, which  
235 even in this climate is sustained by heat loss (Fig. 3), is relatively weak  
236 (at 15 Sv) and shallow (Fig. S6). Note that Fig. 3 depicts the surface  
237 water-mass transformation (e.g., Walin (36), and defined in Appendix A),  
238 which quantifies the relative roles of heat and freshwater fluxes in dense  
239 water formation.

240 The glacial AMOC is shallow and largely confined to the Atlantic basin,  
241 weakening to 8 Sv at 30°S, and there is a negligible heat transport into  
242 the basin (Fig. 1, S4). This implies that the AMOC is maintained by  
243 heat gained over lower latitudes within the Atlantic basin, consistent with  
244 the inference of reduced intermediate water inflow during past weak AMOC  
245 states (37). These features also generally agree with evidence of a shallower  
246 AMOC during the LGM, relative to present day (e.g., 8, 9, 10, 11). Previous  
247 analysis of CM2Mc has shown that the presence of a large Laurentide ice

248 sheet intensifies local dense water formation and overturning rates within the  
249 shallow AMOC (21), but this effect is not included here. Deep and bottom  
250 water formation in the Southern Ocean, in contrast to the North Atlantic, is  
251 primarily sustained by vigorous brine rejection from Antarctic sea ice (Fig.  
252 3 and (21)). This behavior again conforms to proxy-based reconstructions  
253 of a salinity-driven glacial abyssal overturning (38, 39). Thus in both the  
254 Atlantic and Southern Ocean in these simulations, Cold state overturning is  
255 qualitatively consistent with paleoclimate records and does not rely on net  
256 heat transport into the basin.

257 In warmer climates, global surface heat flux patterns shift, with important  
258 implications for deep overturning. As noted above, increasing Indo-Pacific  
259 heat uptake must be compensated by intensified heat loss elsewhere. Between  
260 the Cold and Warm states, the intensified cooling rates occur almost exclu-  
261 sively within the North Atlantic. North of  $50^{\circ}\text{N}$ , heat loss from a now ice-free  
262 surface more than doubles, from  $-0.22$  PW to  $-0.47$  PW, and accounts en-  
263 tirely for the nearly two-fold increase in deep water formation (Fig. 3) and  
264 AMOC strength (Fig. 1d). The enhanced AMOC is deeper and is no longer  
265 maintained by heat sourced within the Atlantic basin, but instead relies on a  
266 significant zonal heat transport (Fig. S4) from the Indo-Pacific and into the  
267 Atlantic along the canonical “warm route” (40). An increase in inter-basin  
268 circulation and heat transport with climate warming is also inferred from  
269 reconstructions (16) and is consistent with the strengthening and southward  
270 extension of Southern Hemisphere westerly wind stress (Fig. S8 and e.g.,

271 (41, 42)), also expected in warmer climates (e.g., 43). Stronger and deeper  
272 heat and buoyancy transport out of the Indo-Pacific and into the Atlantic  
273 (Fig. S6) is also a signature of inter-basin overturning (e.g., 6, 7), and is more  
274 consistent with the modern state (e.g., 5). In contrast to the North Atlantic,  
275 high-latitude heat loss in the Southern Ocean ( $> 60^\circ S$ ) remains largely un-  
276 changed between Cold and Warm states. Deep water formation and abyssal  
277 overturning rates weaken moderately, though this is primarily due to reduced  
278 Antarctic sea ice formation (Fig. 3), consistent with the  $\approx 26\%$  decline in  
279 sea ice area. Further, Antarctic sea ice changes between the Cold and Warm  
280 state are small, relative to the precipitous reduction (by  $\approx 84\%$ ) in Northern  
281 Atlantic ice area (Fig. 4a). Heat loss outside the Antarctic ice pack weakens,  
282 part of a robust global reduction in mid-latitude sensible heat loss (Fig. S3  
283 and consistent with (35)).

284 While the transition between the Warm and Hot states is again char-  
285 acterized by increased inter-basin heat transport, in contrast to the Cold-  
286 to-Warm transition, North Atlantic heat transport and AMOC strength are  
287 nearly unchanged (Figs. 1, 3). Westerly winds remain sufficiently southward  
288 to enable exchange between the Indo-Pacific and Atlantic, yet heat trans-  
289 port along this pathway, as well as North Atlantic cooling rates, saturate  
290 at their Warm state levels (Figs. 4a, S4). Instead, increased Indo-Pacific  
291 heat uptake is compensated in the Southern Ocean. Specifically, southern  
292 high-latitude ( $> 60^\circ S$ ) cooling increases from  $-0.33$  PW in the Warm state  
293 to its peak across all climates,  $-0.42$  PW, in the Hot state. Additionally,

294 Antarctic sea ice, relatively resilient to moderate changes in GMST, declines  
295 dramatically (Fig. 4a), even while bottom water formation and abyssal over-  
296 turning reach their highest rates across all climate states. Notably, similar  
297 increases in AABW formation and abyssal overturning, concurrent with se-  
298 vere reductions in Antarctic sea-ice, were noted in climates equilibrated to  
299 above-present day CO<sub>2</sub> levels in other models (44, 45).

300 Crucially, this increased overturning is now maintained by intensified sur-  
301 face heat loss (Fig. 3), representing a systematic shift from an abyssal circula-  
302 tion driven by brine rejection in the Cold state to an exclusively heat-driven  
303 overturning in the Hot state. Enhanced meridional heat transport across  
304 the ACC balances surface flux changes (Fig. 4a). These changes are likely  
305 enabled by a southward shift of the ACC, resulting in its intensified inter-  
306 action with topography and, thus, the formation of standing meanders (Fig.  
307 S4). Standing meanders are known sites of increased eddy activity and eddy  
308 fluxes (46, 47); indeed southward eddy heat fluxes increase nearly two-fold  
309 between the Warm and Hot states (Fig. S5). Deeper penetration of heat  
310 (and buoyancy) into the abyssal Indo-Pacific further implies enhanced cou-  
311 pling between low-latitude surface fluxes and global abyssal overturning (Fig.  
312 S6). Despite key differences in the Cold-to-Warm overturning reconfigura-  
313 tion versus the Warm-to-Hot, both are characterized by increased deep water  
314 formation driven primarily by increasing surface heat loss in the presence of  
315 declining sea ice (Fig. 3).



317 Climate warming in these simulations is characterized by intensified heat  
 318 transport from the tropics and towards the high latitudes. Yet, the parti-  
 319 tioning of heat transport to the North Atlantic and Southern Ocean differs  
 320 systematically across climates (Fig 4a). These differences are highlighted by  
 321 the ratio

$$R_h \equiv \left( \frac{\Delta F_h^{\text{NA}}}{\Delta F_h^{\text{SO}}} \right), \quad (2)$$

322 where  $R_h$  captures the relative change in heat transport into the high lat-  
 323 itudes of the North Atlantic ( $\Delta F_h^{\text{NA}}$ ) versus the Southern Ocean ( $\Delta F_h^{\text{SO}}$ )  
 324 between each climate. For  $R_h > 1$  — a “Northern Receiving” regime —  
 325 increases in North Atlantic heat transport exceed increases in heat transport  
 326 across the Southern Ocean. For  $R_h < 1$  — a “Southern Receiving” regime —  
 327 the Southern Ocean is favored.  $R_h$ , diagnosed from the model output (Fig.  
 328 4b), indicates that the Warm state marks a transition from Northern Receiv-  
 329 ing between the coldest climates simulated ( $R_h \approx 11$ ) to Southern Receiving  
 330 ( $R_h \approx 0.001$ ) between the warmest.

331 We propose that this evolution in  $R_h$  may be linked to how efficiently  
 332 an adjustment in ocean dynamics can enable poleward heat transport in the  
 333 North Atlantic and Southern Ocean. Qualitatively, this argument is based  
 334 on the idea that heat transport by the AMOC depends sensitively on the  
 335 meridional temperature gradients it acts across, gradients that may differ

336 significantly between climates. In general, meridional heat transport  $F_h$  can  
 337 have both mean and eddy contributions:  $F_h \propto \overline{vT} = (\overline{vT} + \overline{v'T'})$ , where  
 338  $\overline{(\ )}$  and  $(\ )'$  represent a zonal and temporal mean, and deviations from this  
 339 mean, respectively. North Atlantic heat transport is largely advective, such  
 340 that  $\overline{vT} \approx \overline{vT}$  (e.g., 48), and the heat transport scales as  $F_h^{\text{NA}} \sim \Psi \Delta T^{\text{NA}}$ .  
 341 Here,  $\Psi$ , a volume transport, represents the AMOC strength, and  $\Delta T^{\text{NA}}$  is  
 342 the temperature difference between the subtropical and sub-polar Atlantic  
 343 (as detailed in Appendix B). Heat transport across the zonally-unbounded  
 344 Southern Ocean, on the other hand, depends on the efficiency of mixing and  
 345 transport by mesoscale eddies (49), such that  $\overline{vT} \approx \overline{v'T'}$ , and the Southern  
 346 Ocean heat transport scales as  $F_h^{\text{SO}} \sim WHK \Delta T^{\text{SO}} / \ell$ . Here  $W$  and  $H$  are the  
 347 zonal and vertical extent of the ACC,  $K$  is a turbulent eddy diffusivity, and  
 348  $\Delta T^{\text{SO}}$  and  $\ell$  are the characteristic temperature difference and length scale  
 349 across the ACC frontal zone, respectively (Appendix B).

350 Critically, the magnitudes of both  $F_h^{\text{SO}}$  and  $F_h^{\text{NA}}$  depend on aspects of the  
 351 background climate state. This dependence also means that an equivalent  
 352 perturbation to ocean dynamics in either region (i.e.,  $\delta\Psi$  or  $\delta\ell$ ) will modulate  
 353 meridional heat transport differently in different climates.

354 To isolate this effect, we calculate linear perturbations to  $F_h^{\text{NA}}$  and  $F_h^{\text{SO}}$ ,  
 355 i.e.,  $\delta F_h^{\text{NA}}$   $\delta F_h^{\text{SO}}$ , about each climate state and keep only terms containing  
 356 dynamical perturbations (see Appendix B). Doing so assumes temperature  
 357 differences  $\Delta T^{\text{NA}}$  and  $\Delta T^{\text{SO}}$  are representative features of the mean climate  
 358 state. Here we assume  $K$  is constant across climate states, while acknowl-

359 edging that previous studies have shown that  $K$  may vary with surface wind  
 360 stress in the Southern Ocean (50). Uncertainty in  $K$  is incorporated in our  
 361 estimate of  $\delta\ell$ . Combining these scalings,

$$R_h \approx \left( \frac{\delta F_h^{\text{NA}}}{\delta F_h^{\text{SO}}} \right) \sim R_e \left( \frac{\delta\Psi}{K\delta\ell} \right), \quad (3)$$

$$R_e \equiv \left( \frac{\Delta T^{\text{NA}}}{\Delta T^{\text{SO}}} \frac{\ell^2}{WH} \right). \quad (4)$$

362 Here,  $R_e$  describes how efficiently a perturbation in AMOC strength ( $\delta\Psi$ ),  
 363 relative to an equivalent contraction of the frontal zone in the ACC ( $\delta\ell$ , and  
 364 scaled by  $K$ ), would sustain increased heat transport to the high latitudes  
 365 in a given climate. By this argument, the magnitude of  $R_e$  predicts whether  
 366 climate warming will dynamically favor increased heat transport into the  
 367 North Atlantic (“Northern Receiving”,  $R_e > 1$ ) or into the Southern Ocean  
 368 (“Southern Receiving”,  $R_e < 1$ ), assuming that ocean dynamics (i.e., the  
 369 scaling relationships for  $F_h^{\text{NA}}$  and  $F_h^{\text{SO}}$ ) modulate this evolution. Note that  
 370  $R_e$  does not predict the total magnitude of the increased heat transport,  
 371 which will also depend on changes to  $\Psi$  and  $\ell$  (the last term in Eq. 2).  
 372 Instead,  $R_e$  depends only on properties of the mean climate state, which we  
 373 propose should precondition the efficiency of dynamic perturbations.

374 Fig. 4e illustrates that  $R_e$  is indeed prognostic of heat transport adjust-  
 375 ments between each climate (although  $R_e$  does not scale with  $R_h$  alone).  
 376 Like  $R_h$ ,  $R_e$  falls sharply across simulations, primarily because  $\Delta T^{\text{NA}}$  weak-

377 ens with GMST (and the loss of North Atlantic sea ice, Fig. 4c, 5a, and S8),  
 378 while  $\Delta T^{\text{SO}}$  strengthens (Fig. 4c) as subtropical waters warm more than  
 379 those around Antarctica (Fig. S7). As a result,  $\Delta T^{\text{NA}}/\Delta T^{\text{SO}}$  falls roughly  
 380 five-fold across the simulations (Fig. 4d). Additionally,  $\ell$  contracts in warmer  
 381 climates (Fig. 4d and S8) with the formation of more vigorous standing me-  
 382 anders in, and thus sharper fronts across, the ACC as discussed above (Fig.  
 383 S5). In summary, characteristics of a cold climate result in  $R_e \gg 1$  (Fig.  
 384 4e), suggesting that heat transport increases dynamically favor an adjust-  
 385 ment of the AMOC (increasing  $\delta\Psi$ ). Characteristics of warmer climates,  
 386 however, hamper the efficiency of the northern mode of heat transport (i.e.,  
 387  $R_e$  plummets to  $R_e \approx 0.9 < 1$  in the Hot state); heat transport towards  
 388 the Southern Ocean becomes a more viable pathway. The evolution of  $R_e$   
 389 is consistent with the systematic differences in the transitions between the  
 390 Cold and Warm versus the Warm and Hot states (Fig. 1b, 4a-b). A key  
 391 implication of this evolution, in the context of these simulations, is that the  
 392 adjustment of ocean heat transport and overturning to forcing perturbations  
 393 is climate-state dependent.

## 394 **Discussion and Conclusions**

395 While these simulations display complex changes in the global overturning  
 396 between different climates, we draw attention here to several robust emer-  
 397 gent features that suggest a new, relatively simple understanding. Across all  
 398 states, climate warming involves a progressive poleward shift in the primary

399 sites of global surface heat loss, met with reduced mid-latitude (primarily  
400 sensible) heat loss (Fig. S3). This poleward migration of heat loss impacts  
401 the total surface heat flux, summed over each basin, and is accompanied by  
402 enhanced heat redistribution between basins. This increased inter-basin cou-  
403 pling is linked to stronger cooling-driven deep-water formation (Fig. 3) and  
404 the incorporation of increasingly deep components of the ocean’s overturn-  
405 ing circulation in global heat transport (Fig. S7). The magnitude of these  
406 adjustments are phased differently in each hemisphere in a way that is con-  
407 sistently linked to key features of the background climate state (i.e., Eq. 4).  
408 Examined in isolation, these changes have a complicated relationship with  
409 GMST. Yet consideration of both hemispheres together shows that global  
410 overturning changes across all climates balance the magnitude of excess en-  
411 ergy gained over the disproportionately tropical Indo-Pacific oceans.

412 The dynamics governing these changes in oceanic heat uptake and trans-  
413 port depend on fundamental properties of the climate and are thus likely to  
414 be robust across models. Yet, some limitations of our model may influence  
415 details of our results. For instance, a cold bias in the model’s preindustrial  
416 North Pacific (21) could potentially impact the sensitivity of regional heat  
417 loss to CO<sub>2</sub> changes. Additionally, ours (and most) climate models cannot  
418 resolve the localized processes involved in deep-water formation. Yet sev-  
419 eral lines of evidence suggest that these biases don’t underpin the qualitative  
420 evolution we describe. First, paleo-proxies suggest stronger North Pacific  
421 Intermediate Water formation during the (colder) LGM, while North Pacific

422 sensible heat loss robustly weakens under 21st century (warming) scenarios  
423 in CMIP5 models (35). The consistency of these studies with ours may stem  
424 from the driving role of continentally-sourced westerlies in mid-latitude sen-  
425 sible heat loss (e.g., 32, 51), coupled with amplification of warming over land,  
426 relative to ocean, under CO<sub>2</sub> forcing (e.g., 33, 34). They imply that a reduc-  
427 tion in the (disproportionately tropical) Pacific basin’s ability to close its heat  
428 budget locally may be a basic feature of climate warming, which we leave  
429 for interrogation in other models. Secondly, the global overturning behav-  
430 iors discussed here are qualitatively consistent with multiple inferred changes  
431 since the LGM, including the deepening of the AMOC (e.g., 8, 9, 10, 11),  
432 the reduced role of sea-ice in the AABW formation (e.g., 38, 39, 21, 12), and  
433 increasingly inter-basin global overturning (e.g., 16, 17, 13, 37). Overturning  
434 in the warmer states we describe is also consistent with the millennial-scale  
435 response to above present-day CO<sub>2</sub> forcing in other climate models, specif-  
436 ically the recovery or strengthening of the AMOC (20, 26, 27, 52) and the  
437 intensification of AABW production despite the near or total disappearance  
438 of Antarctic sea ice (27, 45). In sum, while our simulations are inevitably  
439 imperfect representations of the climate system, their behavior is relatively  
440 consistent with available comparisons. Most importantly, a key point of our  
441 study — illustrated by our simulations but not dependent upon them — is  
442 that overturning changes involving large changes in oceanic heat loss must  
443 also involve large changes in heat uptake and transport.

444 Finally, our results have important implications for ongoing surface cli-

445 mate evolution, with particular relevance to polar amplification patterns ob-  
446 served today: intense Arctic warming compared to more moderate Antarctic  
447 changes. Across simulated climates, the partitioning of heat, taken up in the  
448 tropics and exported towards the northern and southern polar regions, bears  
449 a close relationship with the expression of polar amplified warming in each  
450 hemisphere. Between the Cold and Warm climate simulations, the “Northern  
451 Receiving” regime, in which heat transport into the high northern latitudes  
452 intensifies, surface warming north of  $60^{\circ}\text{N}$  is three times larger than the global  
453 warming of  $5.6^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; temperatures south of  $60^{\circ}\text{S}$  increase by only a factor of 1.2  
454 (Fig. 5). In contrast, between Warm and Hot states, the “Southern Receiv-  
455 ing” regime in which the heat transport towards Antarctica increases, high  
456 latitude warming in each hemisphere is roughly equivalent, at almost twice  
457 (1.8 times) the global mean of  $4.4^{\circ}\text{C}$ , in agreement with the hemispherically-  
458 symmetrical, polar-amplified long-term warming response to high  $\text{CO}_2$  levels  
459 discussed by Rugenstein et al. (44). Our results imply that asynchronous  
460 polar changes are set, at least in part, by ocean dynamics through their in-  
461 fluence on sea ice extent (53, 54), and thus high latitude radiative feedback  
462 strength (e.g. 55, 56). This evolution emphasizes that the ocean’s impact  
463 on global climate evolution is likely to be state dependent. This result is  
464 important in the context of other state-dependent aspects of climate evolu-  
465 tion, arising from “slow” earth-system dynamics (57) and “faster” climate  
466 feedbacks (58), including radiative processes (59, 60). Such components of  
467 the climate system highlight how past climate changes are imperfect proxies

468 for those in the future. While appreciating model limitations, our results  
 469 suggest that sustained future increases in radiative forcing may result in an  
 470 equilibrated Southern Hemisphere warming that exceeds, relative to global  
 471 mean temperature changes, what would be expected from past differences  
 472 between glacial and interglacial states.

## 473 **Appendix**

### 474 *Appendix A. Surface Transformation and overturning*

Our study concerns mechanisms of deep water formation in the North Atlantic and Southern Ocean. The total formation rate of surface waters, and the relative contribution of heat and freshwater forcing components, can be calculated through the water mass transformation framework (36). Specifically, the circulation across a given density class ( $\Psi$ , Eq. 1), sustained by surface buoyancy fluxes can be quantified exactly and is referred to as the surface (water mass) transformation:

$$F(y, \sigma) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \int_{A[\sigma' > \sigma]} f_{surf} \mathcal{H}(\sigma'(\mathbf{x}) - \sigma_{min}(y)) dA \quad (5)$$

where

$$f_{surf}(x, y, t) = -\frac{\alpha}{c_p} f_H(x, y, t) - \frac{\rho_0}{\rho_{FW}} S_0 f_{FW}(x, y, t) \quad (6)$$

475 is the local surface buoyancy flux,  $\alpha$  and  $c_p$  are the coefficients of thermal  
 476 and haline expansion, respectively,  $f_H$  and  $f_{FW}$  are the surface heat and  
 477 freshwater fluxes, and  $\rho_0$ ,  $\rho_{FW}$ , and  $S_0$ , are the reference density, freshwater



478 density, and salinity, respectively. Also in Eq. 3,  $\sigma_{min}(y)$  is the minimum  
 479 density at latitude  $y$ , and  $A$  is the surface outcrop area for all densities greater  
 480 that a given density,  $\sigma$ . Eq. 3 can be decomposed into contributions to the  
 481 buoyancy flux from heat and freshwater, as shown in Fig. 3. Further, each  
 482 component can be decomposed into contributions from specific processes. In  
 483 Fig. 3, the contribution from sea ice formation, melt, and redistribution is  
 484 presented. This calculation reveals that across all states, NADW is largely  
 485 heat-driven and that elevated formation rates in both hemispheres between  
 486 state are dominantly heat-driven.

#### 487 *Appendix B. Scaling relations*

488 We use scaling relationships to relate the meridional heat flux in each  
 489 hemisphere to climate state properties:  $F_h^{NA} \sim \Psi \Delta T^{NA}$  and  $F_h^{SO} \sim WHK \Delta T^{SO} / \ell$ .  
 490 Perturbations to the meridional heat transport,  $\delta F_h^{NA}$  and  $\delta F_h^{SO}$  about a given  
 491 mean state will depend on the properties of the climate, as

$$\delta F_h^{NA} = \delta \Psi (\Delta T^{NA}) + \Psi (\delta \Delta T^{NA}), \quad (7)$$

$$\delta F_h^{SO} = \left( \delta K \frac{\Delta T^{SO}}{\ell} + K \frac{\delta \Delta T^{SO}}{\ell} - K \Delta T^{SO} \frac{\delta \ell}{\ell^2} \right) \times WH. \quad (8)$$

492 Here, we keep only  $\delta \Psi$  and  $\delta \ell$  terms to isolate how the background state  
 493 influences the relative efficiency of an adjustment in North Atlantic versus  
 494 Southern Ocean dynamics, respectively, such that

$$\delta F_h^{\text{NA}} \approx \Delta T^{\text{NA}} \delta \Psi, \quad (9)$$

$$\delta F_h^{\text{SO}} \approx -\frac{WHK\Delta T^{\text{SO}}}{\ell^2} \delta \ell. \quad (10)$$

495 We therefore ignore perturbations in the mean temperature gradient,  
 496 which assumes that they are relatively constant with climate state. Un-  
 497 certainty in changes to  $K$  in the Southern Ocean are included in estimates  
 498 of the effective ACC frontal length scale,  $\ell$  (see below). We note that as  $\delta \ell$   
 499 contracts, eddies may become more vigorous (50), increasing  $K$ , though this  
 500 behavior also predicts a reduction in  $R_h$  in a warmer climate (Eqs. 1 and 3).

The ratio

$$\frac{\delta F_h^{\text{NA}}}{\delta F_h^{\text{SO}}} \sim \underbrace{\left( \frac{\Delta T^{\text{NA}}}{\Delta T^{\text{SO}}} \right) \left( \frac{\ell^2}{WH} \right)}_1 \underbrace{\left( \frac{\delta \Psi}{K \delta \ell} \right)}_2, \quad (11)$$

501 then captures the relative efficiency of dynamic adjustments in either hemi-  
 502 sphere in sustaining increased heat transport. Term 2 represents the two  
 503 ocean dynamical perturbations that could adjust to accompany increased  
 504 equatorial heat uptake, while term 1,  $R_e$  in Eq. 3, incorporates all aspects  
 505 of the climate state that influence this efficiency (Fig. 3e).

506 Climate parameters  $\Delta T^{\text{SO}}$  and  $\Delta T^{\text{NA}}$  and  $\ell$  are defined as follows.  $\Delta T^{\text{NA}}$   
 507 diagnoses the characteristic temperature difference between the northward  
 508 flowing sub-tropical surface waters and sub-polar waters in NADW forma-

509 tion regions. The northern boundary of the subtropical gyre is defined as  
510 the minimum in the meridional temperature gradient (in this hemisphere,  
511 temperatures generally decrease with latitude). This dynamically-defined lo-  
512 cation migrates across climate states (Fig. S7), and  $\Delta T^{\text{NA}}$  differences the  
513 temperature of subtropical waters which cross this boundary, defined as the  
514 average temperatures of waters within  $1^\circ$  latitude to the south of this max-  
515 imum in each climate. In contrast, because the region where dense NADW  
516 overflows form is largely bathymetrically constrained, we define the average  
517 temperatures of subpolar waters as those between  $54 - 56^\circ\text{N}$ . NADW forma-  
518 tion increases significantly in climates where heat transport into this region  
519 increases.

520 The diagnostic  $\Delta T^{\text{SO}}$  characterizes the temperature difference across the  
521 ACC's Polar Front. As in the North Atlantic, this front shifts poleward as the  
522 climate state warms (Fig. S7).  $\Delta T^{\text{SO}}$  is defined as the difference between  
523 the mean temperature of waters  $\pm 1^\circ$  latitude from the maximum in the  
524 temperature gradient, south of  $50^\circ\text{S}$ , corresponding to the southern boundary  
525 of the ACC. These diagnostics are representative of the robust weakening or  
526 strengthening of temperature gradients in the high latitude North Atlantic  
527 and Southern Ocean, as evident in Fig. S7. As such, qualitatively similar  
528 trends in behavior were found for various definitions and latitudes tested.

The interaction of the ACC with topographic features leads to the for-  
mation of downstream meanders, associated with a significant tightening of  
horizontal temperature gradients and enhanced lateral eddy fluxes (46, 47).

These meanders, as well as co-located lateral eddy heat fluxes, become more prevalent in warmer simulations (Fig. S5). To capture this intensified lateral gradient, we define the frontal length-scale as

$$\ell \equiv \frac{\Delta T^{\text{SO}}}{\langle |\nabla T| \rangle}, \quad (12)$$

529 where  $\Delta T^{\text{SO}}$  is defined above,  $\langle \rangle$  indicates a spatial mean south of 50°S,  
530 and  $|\nabla T| = \left[ (\partial T / \partial x)^2 + (\partial T / \partial y)^2 \right]^{1/2}$ . This region is chosen to capture  
531 the increasingly efficient pathways of heat transport into the Antarctic mar-  
532 gins; the distribution of  $\Delta T^{\text{SO}} / |\nabla T|$  for this region (averaged for each  $\ell$ ) is  
533 presented in Fig. S7.

#### 534 *Data Archival*

535 All simulations and source code used are publicly available at:  
536 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3976952>.

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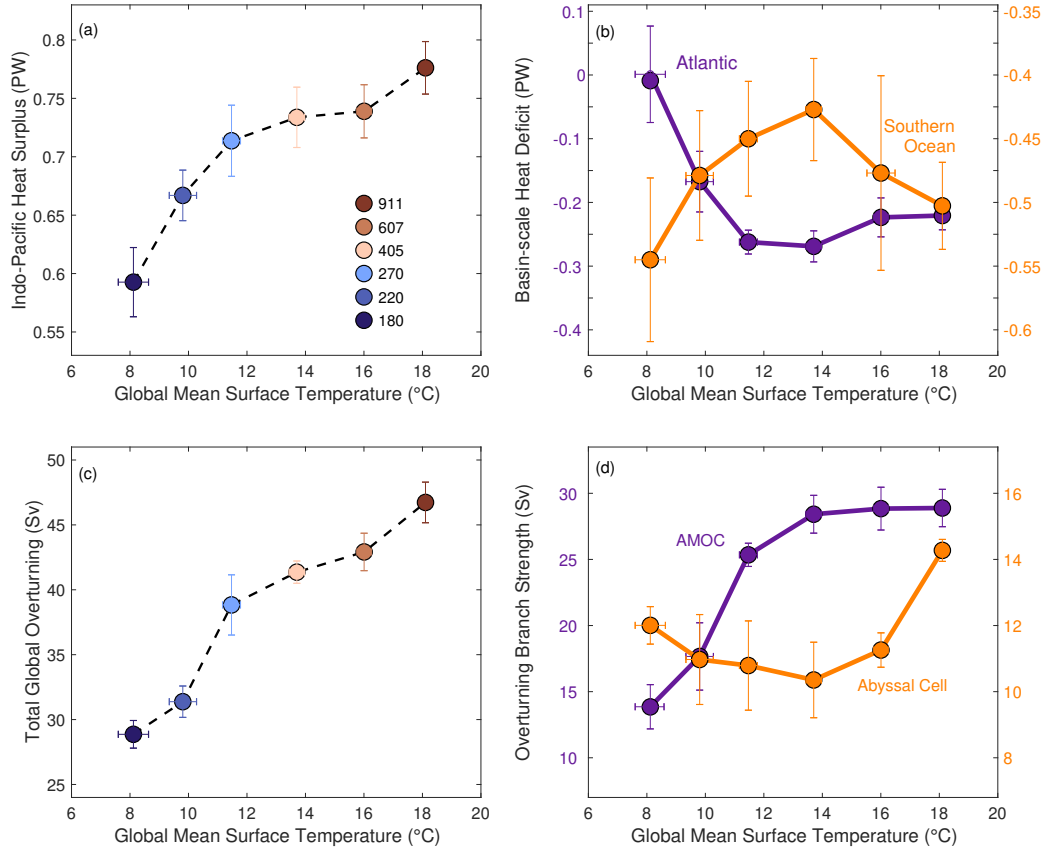


Figure 1: Basin-scale heat uptake and overturning across climate states. All panels show variations as a function of Global Mean Surface Temperature (GMST); each value is the average of four orbital configurations with the same atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> levels (colored circles in panel a). Area-integrated surface heat flux (PW) over (a) Indo-Pacific (north of 30°S) and (b) Atlantic (north of 30°S and including the Arctic and marginal seas ; purple curve) and Southern Ocean (south of 30°S; orange curve); c) total global overturning (sum of the magnitude of the AMOC and abyssal branch, Sv = 10<sup>6</sup> m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>); d) individual magnitudes of the AMOC and abyssal overturning (see Methods). Bars represent 1 standard deviation of spread across orbital configurations (Fig. S1).

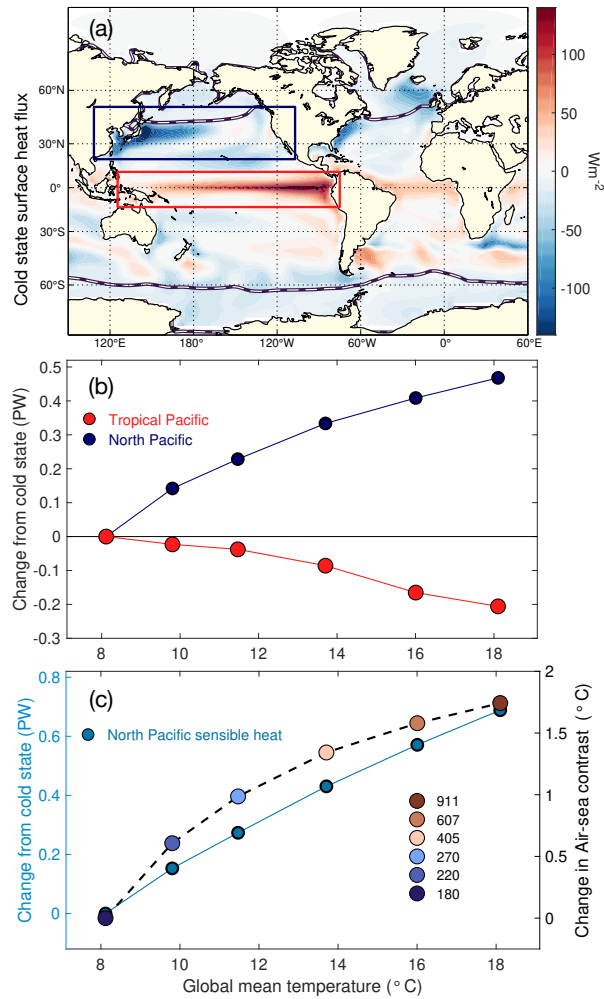


Figure 2: Summary of Indo-Pacific surface heat uptake and loss mechanisms. (a) Global distribution of surface heat flux (positive into the ocean) in the Cold state. Overlaid are the location of the 10% sea ice cover (black dashed line), the “North Pacific,” which is the Indo-Pacific’s primary site of heat loss (blue box), and the “Tropical Pacific,” its primary site of heat uptake (red box). (b) Anomaly in total heat flux relative to the Cold state with GMST. Shown are both total Tropical Pacific heat uptake (surface heat flux summed between 10°S and 10°N, red box in panel a), shown here in red circles, and total North Pacific heat uptake (summed between 12°N and 51°N, blue box in panel a), in blue circles. Note that in all states, total North Pacific heat flux is negative; the positive anomaly shown here (blue) represents a reduction in total regional heat loss. (c) Anomaly in the North Pacific sensible heat flux (i.e., the sensible component of the total anomaly in panel b, shown here in blue circles, left axis) and the anomaly in North Pacific air-sea temperature contrast (difference between surface air temperature (SAT) and SST, here colored circles and right axis), both relative to their Cold state values, with increasing GMST. Note that sensible heat flux changes comprise the majority of the anomaly in total North Pacific heat flux in b).

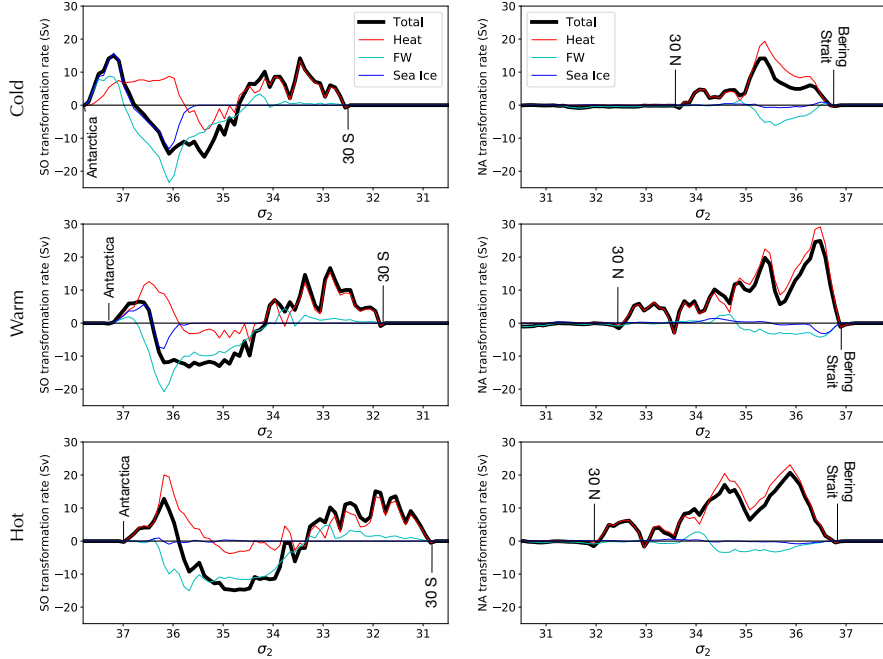


Figure 3: Surface water mass transformation (Eq. 5) in the Southern Ocean (south of  $30^\circ$  S, left) and North Atlantic (north of  $30^\circ$  N, right) in the cold (top row), warm (middle row), and hot (bottom row) climate states. Surface transformation is calculated as a function of potential density referenced to 2000 m ( $\sigma_2$ ). The total transformation from all diabatic processes is provided in black: the sum of contributions from heat (red) and freshwater (blue). The contribution to the freshwater component specifically from sea ice formation, melt, and snow redistribution is shown in cyan. For visualization, approximate geographical boundaries are labeled. Here, positive transformation represents a volume flux towards denser classes and quantifies the role of flux components in deep water formation (see Appendix A). Note that the global ocean is less dense, on average, in warmer states, which explains the general translation of surface transformation towards lighter density classes.

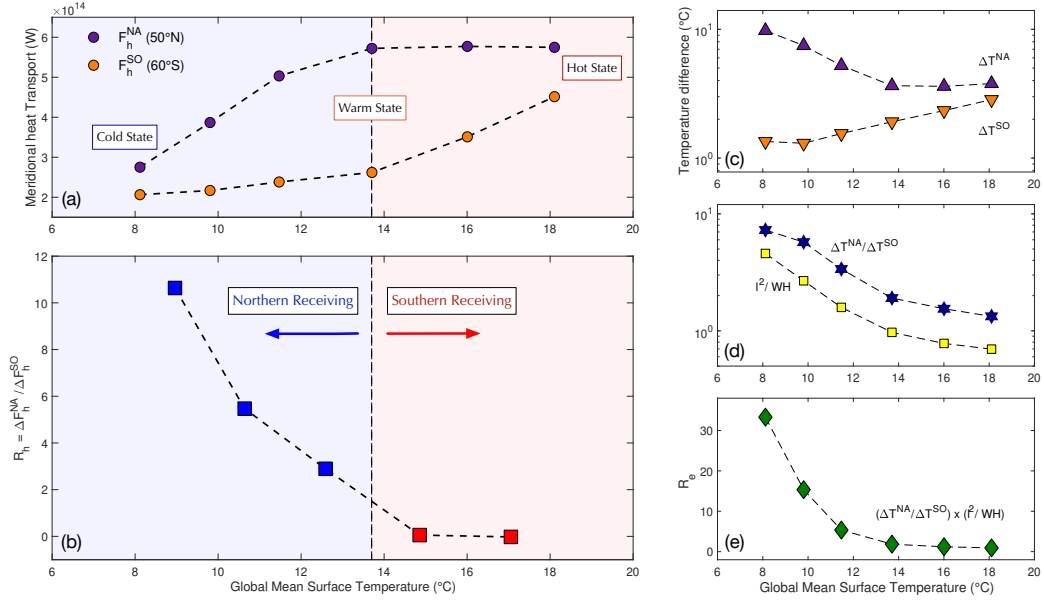


Figure 4: Characterization of meridional heat transport processes in each hemisphere across climates. a) Total meridional heat transport, MHT (PW), including parameterized cross- (GM) and along- (Redi) isopycnal eddy contributions, as diagnosed from the simulations across 50°N (purple circles) and 60°S (orange circles). b) Diagnosed ratio  $R_h$  (Eq. 1) representing how increases to MHT are partitioned between hemispheres between states, *i.e.*,  $\Delta MHT_{50^\circ N} / \Delta MHT_{60^\circ S}$ . c) Characteristic temperature differences across North Atlantic and Antarctic slope front (see Methods). d) Purple stars: ratio of characteristic meridional temperature contrasts in the North Atlantic and Southern Ocean with respect to GMST. Yellow squares: geometric characteristics of the ACC with GMST. Terms in (d) are multiplied to arrive (e), the ratio  $R_e$  (Eq. 3), here plotted with increasing GMST. See Appendix B and Fig. S7 for further discussions of terms.



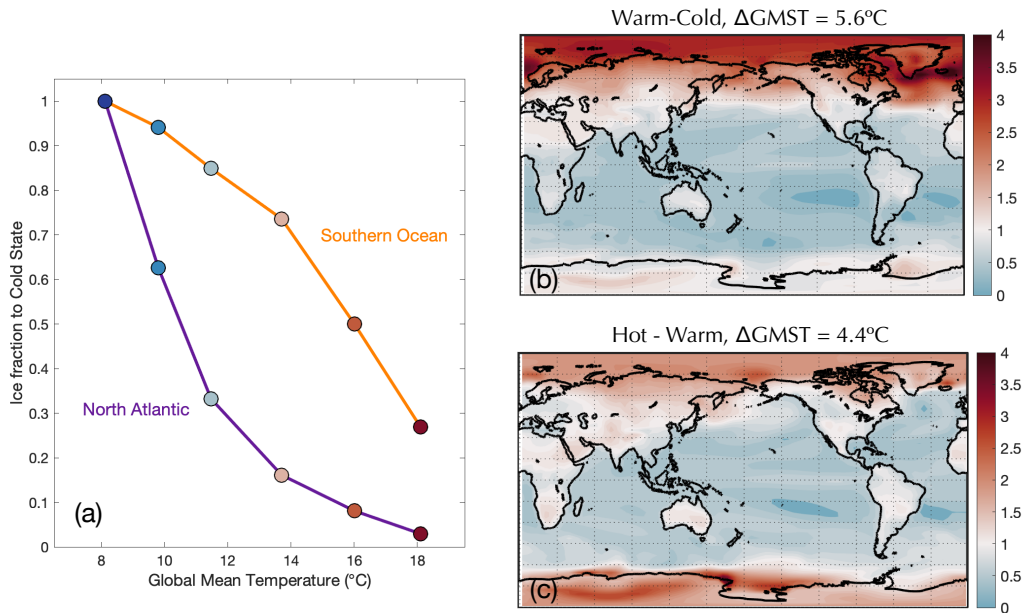


Figure 5: High-latitude characteristics across climate states. (a) Fractional Atlantic (purple) and Southern Ocean (orange) sea ice extent relative to the Cold state extent. (Right) Surface air temperature change  $\Delta\text{SAT}$  (°C, color) normalized by the global mean change ( $\Delta\text{GMST}$ ):  $\Delta\text{SAT}(x, y)/\Delta\text{GMST}$  for the: b) Warm - Cold states and c) Hot - Warm states. Blue [red] colors indicate where local warming is below [exceeds] global mean warming. These patterns show differences in polar amplification between states: dramatic sea ice loss and polar amplification are confined to the northern hemisphere between Cold and Warm states. Significant Antarctic declines emerge only between the Warm and Hot states.

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**Declaration of interests**

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

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

## **Declaration of author contributions**

Emily Newsom led in designing the study, analyzing the results, and writing the manuscript.

Andrew Thompson contributed to the study design, analysis, and manuscript writing.

Jess Adkins contributed to the study design, analysis and edited the manuscript

Eric Galbraith performed the numerical simulations, interpretation of results, and edited the manuscript.

## Highlights

- Total ocean heat uptake over the Indo-Pacific increases monotonically in warmer climate states.
- Cooling from Atlantic and Southern polar regions increases asymmetrically with climate warming.
- Reconfigurations in heat-driven global ocean overturning evolve with polar cooling changes.
- Polar-amplified warming accompanies asymmetric overturning changes in each hemisphere.