



1 Decadal Shift of NAO-Linked Interannual Sea Level Variability along the US

2 Northeast Coast

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18 **Abstract**

19 Recent studies have linked interannual sea level variability and extreme events along the

20 US northeast coast (NEC) to the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO), a natural internal climate

21 mode that prevails in the North Atlantic Ocean. The correlation between the NAO index and
22 coastal sea level north of Cape Hatteras was weak from the 1960s to the mid-1980s but has
23 markedly increased since ~1987. Causes for the decadal shift remain unknown. Yet
24 understanding the abrupt change is vital for decadal sea level prediction and essential for risk
25 management. Here we use a robust method, Bayesian Dynamic Linear Modeling (DLM), to
26 explore the non-stationary NAO impact on NEC sea level. The results show that a spatial pattern
27 change of NAO-related winds near the NEC is a major cause of the NAO-sea level relationship
28 shift. A new index using regional sea level pressure is developed which is a significantly better
29 predictor of NEC sea level than is the NAO and is strongly linked to the intensity of westerly
30 winds near the NEC. These results point to the vital importance of monitoring regional changes
31 of wind and sea level pressure patterns, rather than the NAO index alone, to achieve more
32 accurate predictions of sea level change along the NEC.

33

34 **1. Introduction**

35 Sea level variability on various timescales affects coastal populations. Climate models
36 suggest that on decadal to multidecadal timescales, anthropogenic warming and Greenland Ice
37 Sheet melt stabilize the stratification of the water column near deepwater formation sites in the
38 North Atlantic, weakening the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) and
39 causing dynamic sea level rise along the US Northeast Coast (NEC) (Yin et al. 2009; Hu et al.
40 2011). Experiments with eddy-permitting (0.25°) ocean models suggest that due to geostrophy,
41 there is an inverse relationship between sea level along the northeast coast of North America and
42 AMOC transport at a rate of approximately -2 cm/Sv on interannual timescales (Bingham et al.

43 2007; Bingham and Hughes 2009). However, other experiments suggest that north of Cape
44 Hatteras, local wind stress rather than the AMOC is the dominant driver of interannual sea level
45 variability (Andres et al. 2013; Woodworth et al. 2014; Piecuch et al. 2016). Local winds are
46 influenced by the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO), which is the dominant pattern of basin-scale
47 interannual sea level pressure variability over the North Atlantic Ocean and is most prominent
48 during the winter months (Hurrell 1995). During positive NAO phases, the pressure gradient
49 between the subtropical Azores High and the subpolar Icelandic Low intensifies, driving
50 intensified westerly winds across the basin. Goddard et al. (2015) have suggested that both
51 reduced AMOC transport and NAO-linked nearshore wind anomalies accompanied the 1-in-850-
52 year extreme sea level rise event of 2009-2010; Piecuch and Ponte (2015), however, have found
53 that the inverse barometer effect explains about 50% of the sea level variation in this event.

54 If local wind stress is indeed a primary driver of interannual NEC sea level variability, it
55 is puzzling that the wintertime NAO impact on wintertime coastal sea level along the northwest
56 Atlantic shelf has been found to be weak over some of the periods studied (1977-2001, 1935-
57 1977, and 1899-1935) (Woolf et al. 2003). However, the difference in annual mean sea level
58 from the tide gauges at Key West and New York City (7-year low-pass filtered) has been found
59 to be correlated with the annual mean NAO index for much of the 20th century, since the
60 correlation coefficient exceeds that between the NAO index and the tide gauge record at each
61 station alone; sea level variability common to both records which is not associated with the NAO
62 is removed in the differencing (Woodworth et al. 2016). Since 1987, a different situation has
63 been found; the correlation between the wintertime NAO index and sea level anomalies (SLAs)
64 north of Cape Hatteras has become strongly negative, likely due to forcing by NAO-associated
65 local along-shelf wind stress and potentially remote wind stress curl over the Labrador Sea

66 (Andres et al. 2013). The aim of this paper is to investigate the variations, both spatially (along
67 the coast) and temporally (regime shifts), in the relationship between the NAO and US East
68 Coast sea level and identify the physical causes of the varying relationship. In Section 2, we
69 discuss the data and methods of our study including a key analytical tool, Bayesian Dynamic
70 Linear Regression Modeling. In Section 3, we analyze the relationship between the NAO and sea
71 level anomalies and present a proposed mechanism. Finally, in Section 4, we summarize the
72 principal findings.

73

74 **2. Data and Methods**

75 Four regional groups of SLAs are constructed by averaging tide gauge records of annual
76 mean Revised Local Reference (RLR) sea level in and around the Gulf of Maine, the Mid-
77 Atlantic Bight, the Chesapeake Bay, and the South Atlantic Bight (Fig. 1; Supplemental Tab. 1)
78 (Holgate et al. 2012; Permanent Service for Mean Sea Level (PSMSL) 2014). Tide gauge records
79 must span 1950-2013 and be at least 80% complete, and missing data is infilled via regression of
80 (detrended) anomalies onto nearby tide gauge records selected. Prior to the averaging, a linear
81 time trend is removed from each record. Various infilling methods (including simple linear
82 interpolation) have been tested and the major findings are robust with respect to the choice of
83 method.

84 To understand the nonstationary impact of the NAO and explore the causes for the NEC
85 sea level variability, we analyze tide gauge observations of sea level, satellite-observed winds
86 and atmospheric reanalysis products. The Hurrell station-based December, January, February,
87 March (DJFM) mean NAO index (1865-present) is obtained from

88 <https://climatedataguide.ucar.edu/climate-data/hurrell-north-atlantic-oscillation-nao-index->
89 station-based NAO (Hurrell and National Center for Atmospheric Research Staff (Eds) 2017).
90 NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis I (1948-present; Kalnay et al. 1996) and 20th Century Reanalysis V2c
91 (1851-2014; Compo et al. 2011) momentum flux/wind stress and sea level pressure data are
92 provided by the NOAA/OAR/ESRL PSD, Boulder, Colorado, USA, and is obtained from their
93 Web site at <http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/>. In addition, monthly mean NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis I
94 wind stress curl is downloaded from KNMI Climate Explorer, <https://climexp.knmi.nl/>. The
95 NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis I monthly mean surface wind stress (T62 Gaussian grid; 192 x 94;
96 ~2°), wind stress curl, and sea level pressure (2.5° x 2.5°) are averaged to form the annual mean.
97 The 20th Century Reanalysis sigma level 0.995 6-hourly zonal and meridional winds (2.0° x 2.0°)
98 are used to estimate the annual mean zonal and meridional wind stress; the monthly mean sea
99 level pressure (2.0° x 2.0°) is averaged to form the annual mean. The Japanese 55-year
100 Reanalysis (Kobayashi et al. 2015) 6-hourly surface zonal and meridional winds (1.25° x 1.25°),
101 available for 1958-present, are used to estimate the annual mean zonal and meridional wind
102 stress, and the monthly mean sea level pressure (1.25° x 1.25°) is averaged to form the annual
103 mean. The JRA-55 wind and sea level pressure data are available at
104 <https://doi.org/10.5065/D6HH6H41> (6-hourly) and <https://doi.org/10.5065/D60G3H5B>
105 (monthly). The Cross-Calibrated Multi-Platform (CCMP; Atlas et al. 2011) Ocean Surface Wind
106 Vector Analyses monthly mean pseudostress (0.25° x 0.25°) is obtained from
107 <https://podaac.jpl.nasa.gov/> and is used to estimate the annual mean wind stress. Finally, the Met
108 Office Hadley Centre monthly mean sea level pressure dataset (HadSLP2; 5.0° x 5.0°; Allan and
109 Ansell 2006) is obtained from www.metoffice.gov.uk/hadobs and averaged to form the annual
110 mean.

111 The Bayesian Dynamic Linear Model (DLM) (Petris et al. 2009) is a generalization of the
 112 “static” linear regression model (SLM) in that the DLM permits time-varying model coefficients,
 113 compared to the constant coefficients of the SLM. Consequently, the DLM can capture
 114 nonstationary relationships between the predictors and predictand, which is more realistic than
 115 the “static” relationship described by the SLM, since climate variability (e.g., NAO) often has a
 116 nonstationary relationship with sea level (see Section 1). Indeed, this method has recently been
 117 used to understand the nonstationary influence of internal climate modes on the Indian monsoon,
 118 and Indonesian rainfall and Indo-Pacific Walker Circulations (Krishnaswamy et al. 2014; Yanto
 119 et al. 2016; Han et al. 2017). Other Bayesian statistical methods have recently been used in a
 120 wide variety of contexts (Kwon and Lall 2016; Sarhadi et al. 2016; Piecuch et al. 2017).

121 Specifically, Bayesian DLM involves two sets of equations:

$$122 \quad Y_t = \beta_{0,t} + \sum_i \beta_{i,t} X_{i,t} + \varepsilon_t \quad (1)$$

$$123 \quad \beta_{i,t} = \beta_{i,t-1} + w_{i,t}, \quad i = 0, \dots, p-1 \quad (2)$$

124 In the above, Y_t and $X_{i,t}$ are time series of the predictand and $p-1$ predictor variables, respectively,
 125 $\beta_{i,t}$ represents a time-varying coefficient, ε_t is an error term, and $w_{i,t}$ is a noise term. Here $\beta_{0,t}$
 126 represents a time-varying level that is not explained by the predictors. Using Kalman filtering
 127 and smoothing, Equations 1-2 yield coefficients $\beta_{i,t}$ for each time step t . A simple example is the
 128 DLM model with the NEC SLAs as the predictand and the NAO index as the predictor (see Fig.
 129 1). For technical details about the Bayesian DLM, see Section 1 of the Supplemental Text and
 130 Han et al. (2017).

131

132 3. Results

133 a) Decadal change of NAO impact on NEC SLAs

134 Bayesian DLM with DJFM NAO as the predictor is able to reasonably simulate the
135 observed coastal sea level variability (compare the solid and dashed colored curves of Fig. 1).
136 However, the NAO effect varies considerably in time, and the NAO alone can only explain a
137 significant portion of sea level variability after 1987 (compare the black and colored curves). The
138 NAO influence on coastal SLAs reveals two distinct decadal regimes north of Cape Hatteras, but
139 not to the south (Figs. 1-2). From 1960-1986, NAO-SLA correlations are negligible or positive
140 in all four regions shown in Fig. 1 (Supplemental Tab. 2). In contrast, beginning around 1987 the
141 correlations abruptly reverse sign north of Cape Hatteras (Fig. 2; Supplemental Tab. 2). As the
142 tide gauge at New York City has a nearly continuous record over the 100-year period since 1893,
143 it is particularly instructive to compare the NAO-sea level relationship prior to 1950 with that of
144 the period after (Supplemental Fig. 1b). Over the period 1893-2013, the correlation between the
145 SLAs and the DJFM NAO index is weak ($r = -0.17$). This weak relationship is consistent with
146 the weak correlation between the SLAs as New York and the annual mean NAO index found by
147 Woodworth et al. (2016), with $r = -0.14$ for 1913-2014 ($r = -0.37$ for 7-year low-pass filtered
148 data). From the early 1890s to the 1940s, the relationship between the NAO and sea level at New
149 York was overall weakly positive, with considerable nonstationarity. However, the strongly
150 negative relationship during 1987-2013 has a precedent, in that a similar event occurred during
151 the 1950s. This suggests that the relationship shift during 1987-2013 may not be a “permanent”
152 shift related to the long-term trend but a component of natural variability. In fact, nonstationary
153 relationships between the NAO and North Atlantic sea surface temperature, surface air

154 temperature, and sea level pressure exist on timescales ranging from interannual to decadal
155 (Polyakova et al. 2006; Xu et al. 2015).

156

157 *b) Decadal change of NAO-linked winds and sea level pressure*

158 Northeastward (southwestward) along-shelf wind drives off-shelf (on-shelf) Ekman transport
159 and therefore induces coastal upwelling (downwelling), causing sea level fall (rise) along the
160 coast. The cross-shelf sea level gradient is in balance with an along-shelf geostrophic current,
161 which flows in the direction of the wind, with high sea level to its right in the Northern
162 Hemisphere. Consequently, local along-shelf wind should be negatively correlated with coastal
163 SLAs along the NEC. However, nearshore wind stress is not consistently represented by the
164 NAO index. Between 1960-1986 and 1987-2013, the NAO-linked sea level pressure and surface
165 wind patterns in the NEC region experienced striking changes, even though the large-scale
166 patterns over the North Atlantic basin remained similar (Figs. 3-4). NAO-linked winds north of
167 Cape Hatteras are comparatively cross-shelf and perpendicular to the coast from 1960-1986 but
168 parallel to the coast from 1987-2013. Surface wind and sea level pressure patterns from
169 NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis I, JRA-55, and 20th Century Reanalysis together with HadSLP2 sea
170 level pressure and satellite-observed CCMP winds and are all consistent, suggesting that the
171 signals are robust to cross-dataset differences (Fig. 3b-c; Supplemental Fig. 2).

172 NAO-associated winds and sea level pressure remain similar before and after 1987 over
173 the basin interior generally, but not within the NEC, where correlations between the NAO and
174 zonal wind stress, meridional wind stress, wind stress curl and sea level pressure markedly
175 change or reverse sign (Fig. 4). However, in the remote Labrador Sea region, wind stress curl has

176 been shown to correlate with NEC SLAs from 1970-2012 (Andres et al. 2013); correlations
177 between the NAO and Labrador Sea wind stress curl increased during 1987-2013 relative to
178 1960-1986 (Fig. 4k), suggesting the possibility that this shift in wind stress curl may also have
179 contributed to the decadal shift of the NAO-SLA relationship.

180

181 *c) Effect of regional wind stress on NEC sea level variability*

182 The NEC SLAs are significantly correlated with local and remote winds throughout the
183 1950-2013 period. Specifically, SLAs within the Mid-Atlantic Bight are highly correlated with
184 remote sea level pressure loci within the central US (35.0 °N, 87.5 °W) and the North Atlantic
185 (57.5 °N, 50.0 °W) (Fig. 5); the latter location is near a region in the Labrador Sea over which
186 the wind stress curl has been shown to correlate with SLAs along the Atlantic shelf (Andres et al.
187 2013). For this reason, we construct a “West Atlantic Index” (WAI) by normalizing the sea level
188 pressure time series at each locus, and then taking the difference (Fig. 5). The WAI is associated
189 with a large-scale atmospheric circulation pattern with a strong along-shelf wind component near
190 the western boundary of the North Atlantic (Fig. 6a), but it is only weakly correlated with the
191 NAO ($r = 0.21$ for DJFM NAO index and $r = 0.31$ for annual mean NAO index) for 1950-2013.
192 Unlike the NAO, the WAI is strongly related to SLAs throughout 1950-2013 in the Gulf of
193 Maine, Mid-Atlantic Bight, and Chesapeake Bay, but not the South Atlantic Bight (Supplemental
194 Figs. 3-4; Supplemental Tab. 2). Basin-scale spatial patterns of wind stress and sea level pressure
195 associated with the WAI and DJFM NAO are similar, consisting of a sea level pressure dipole
196 between the subtropical basin interior and the subpolar regions. However, the NAO-associated
197 nearshore wind pattern is relatively cross-shelf (Fig. 6b), while the WAI-associated pattern is

198 relatively along-shelf (Fig. 6a), providing additional evidence that local and regional along-shelf
199 wind stress is a strong driver of interannual sea level variability. From 1987-2013, the NAO
200 influence on sea level pressure extends westward and produces along-shelf wind stress anomalies
201 similar to the WAI pattern (Fig. 3b; Supplemental Fig. 2), which explains the intensified NAO-
202 SLA correlation north of Cape Hatteras.

203 The NAO is not strongly correlated with the area-mean along-shelf wind stress in and
204 around the Mid-Atlantic Bight, due in part to the changes in the sign of the correlation with the
205 zonal wind stress (Fig. 4). Therefore, principal component analysis is used to extract leading
206 modes of along-shelf (i.e., N70°E) wind stress variability over the ocean in the region of 35°-52°
207 N and 80°W-60° W. The two leading principal components (PCs; Supplemental Fig. 5) of
208 regional along-shelf wind stress explain ~75% of the total variance from 1948-2013
209 (Supplemental Fig. 6). While the NAO index is independent of PC1 throughout 1950-2013, it is
210 significantly correlated with PC2 after 1987 (Supplemental Tab. 2; Supplemental Figs. 7-8). This
211 strengthens the case that the NAO is associated with significant variability in regional winds
212 from 1987-2013, but not from 1960-1986.

213 The relationship between the regional along-shelf wind stress and SLAs north of Cape
214 Hatteras can help to illuminate the causes of the decadal reversal of the relationship between the
215 NAO and SLAs. PC1 has a strongly negative relationship with SLAs in the South Atlantic Bight,
216 Chesapeake Bay, and Mid-Atlantic Bight from 1960-1986, which weakens considerably from
217 1987-2013. In the South Atlantic Bight, PC1 is relatively influential over both periods. These
218 relationships are also clearly captured by Bayesian DLM (Supplemental Figs. 9-16). Therefore,
219 regional winds independent of NAO are a significant driver of sea level variability from 1960-
220 1986. The leading empirical orthogonal function (EOF1) of wind stress anomalies corresponding

221 to PC1 is unipolar over the region of interest (Supplemental Fig. 5), and the negative correlation
222 north of Cape Hatteras is consistent with a hypothesized Ekman transport mechanism (Andres et
223 al. 2013).

224 In contrast, the relationship between PC2 and SLAs north of Cape Hatteras is weak from
225 1960-1986, but strengthens considerably from 1987-2013 when PC2 becomes significantly
226 correlated with the NAO (Supplemental Tab. 2). PC2 corresponds to a spatial dipole mode of
227 along-shelf winds (EOF2), with positive anomalies near the Gulf of Maine and negative
228 anomalies around the Chesapeake Bay and southern Mid-Atlantic Bight (Supplemental Fig. 5).
229 The negative correlation between PC2 and SLAs in the Gulf of Maine is consistent with an
230 Ekman transport mechanism, but the negative correlation in the southern Mid-Atlantic Bight and
231 Chesapeake Bay is not, since EOF2 in these regions has an opposite sign compared to the
232 regions in the north. What, then, might explain the sign of the correlation? It has been suggested
233 that annual mean sea level anomalies from tide gauges ranging from the Gulf of Maine to Cape
234 Hatteras are coherent and are highly correlated with a regional average ($r \sim 0.8-0.9$) from 1970-
235 2013 (Andres et al. 2013). We propose that the equatorward shelf current on the coastal margin
236 of the Gulf Stream balances a sea level gradient through geostrophy, with a southward current
237 associated with higher coastal sea level along the shelf (Andres et al. 2013; Li et al. 2014).
238 Coastal Kelvin waves driven by the remote along-shelf winds over the Gulf of Maine and Nova
239 Scotian Shelf propagate southward, opposing the current driven by the local along-shelf wind
240 over the shelf of the Chesapeake Bay and Mid-Atlantic Bight (Li et al. 2014) and explaining the
241 negative PC2-SLA correlation.

242 It has been suggested that NAO-linked nearshore wind anomalies cannot fully account
243 for the extreme sea level rise event of 2009-2010, since concomitant sea level changes were not

244 observed during strong negative wintertime NAO events (e.g., 1969) (Goddard et al. 2015). Our
245 results suggest that this comparison may be misleading since we have shown that the NAO had a
246 much weaker relationship with western boundary nearshore winds in the 1960s than during
247 recent decades. Furthermore, NAO-linked regional wind stress anomalies have been a significant
248 driver of interannual sea level variability along the western boundary during recent decades, and
249 findings to the contrary may be explained by treating the NAO-sea level relationship as a
250 stationary one.

251

252 **4. Conclusions**

253 The strength of the correlation between the DJFM NAO index and coastal SLAs north of
254 Cape Hatteras markedly increased over the period of 1987-2013 relative to 1960-1986. However,
255 the correlation between the DJFM NAO index and coastal SLAs south of Cape Hatteras
256 remained weak over both periods. Bayesian DLM is able to capture the time-varying influence of
257 the NAO on SLAs. Using this method, we have shown that the decadal shift in the relationship
258 between the NAO and SLAs is related to a spatial pattern shift in the regional winds (particularly
259 the along-shelf component) linked to the NAO. Therefore, we have developed a new sea level
260 pressure index for the West Atlantic region, the WAI, which is more strongly correlated with
261 coastal SLAs north of Cape Hatteras than the NAO index and is linked to the intensity of
262 westerly winds near the US Northeast Coast. These results are consistent with numerous recent
263 studies which have identified the dominant role of regional wind stress in driving interannual sea
264 level variability along the northwest Atlantic shelf (Andres et al. 2013; Woodworth et al. 2014;
265 Piecuch et al. 2016). Our results suggest that monitoring fluctuations in regional winds and sea

266 level pressure, rather than the NAO index alone, may be necessary for formulating accurate
267 predictions of interannual sea level changes along the US Northeast Coast.

268

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279

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373

374

375 **Figure Captions**

376

377 Fig. 1. a) Tide gauges used to construct the time series of SLAs in and around the Gulf of Maine
378 (GoM), Mid-Atlantic Bight (MAB), Chesapeake Bay (CB) and South-Atlantic Bight (SAB). b)
379 Solid colored lines show observed SLAs in the GoM, MAB, CB, and SAB, respectively. Dashed
380 colored lines show Bayesian DLM model ($\beta_{0,t} + \beta_{1,t}NAO_t$) of SLAs with DJFM NAO ($X_{1,t}$) as
381 predictor. Black lines represent the estimated NAO contribution ($\beta_{1,t}NAO_t$) alone. Also indicated
382 are correlations between observed SLAs and DLM-modeled SLAs.

383

384 Fig. 2. Results from the Bayesian DLM for each of the four regions shown in Fig. 1. Colored
385 curves show coefficients $\beta_{1,t}$ from the Bayesian DLM of SLAs in each region (Y_t in Equations 1-
386 2) with DJFM NAO as predictor ($X_{1,t}$) over 1950-2013, where $\beta_{1,t}$ represents the time-varying
387 NAO effect. Also shown are the corresponding static linear model regression coefficients b_1 (i.e.,
388 percent of the observed standard deviation in SLAs explained by NAO) from 1950-2013 (solid
389 black lines) and 95% confidence intervals on the static linear model coefficient (gray region);
390 static linear model coefficients over 1960-1986 and 1987-2013 (dashed colored lines); and zero
391 lines (dashed black lines). Since the NAO index and SLAs are normalized by their standard
392 deviations, the static linear model coefficients are equal to correlation coefficients.

393

394 Fig. 3. a) Regression pattern of annual mean NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis I sea level pressure (color
395 contours) and wind stress (arrows) from 1960-1986 on DJFM NAO index. b) Same as a) but for

396 1987-2013. c) Same as a) but for HadSLP2 sea level pressure (color contour) and satellite-
397 observed CCMP wind stress (arrows) from 1988-2011. The time period 1988-2011 shown in the
398 figure is constrained by the CCMPv1.1 data availability. Box indicates local region with marked
399 shift in NAO-linked winds and sea level pressure.

400

401 Fig. 4. a) Correlation coefficients between DJFM NAO index and annual mean NCEP/NCAR
402 Reanalysis I zonal wind stress from 1960-1986. b) Same as a), but for meridional wind stress. c)
403 Same as a), but for wind stress curl. d) Same as a), but for sea level pressure. e)-h) Same as a)-d)
404 but for 1987-2013. i)-l) Difference between correlation coefficients over 1987-2013 period and
405 1960-1986 period. Box indicates local region with marked shift in NAO-linked winds and sea
406 level pressure.

407

408 Fig. 5. a) Correlation coefficients between SLAs in the Mid-Atlantic Bight and NCEP/NCAR
409 Reanalysis I sea level pressure from 1950-2013. Grid points of maximum correlation and
410 anticorrelation (black and white dots; 57.5°N , -55.0°E and 35.0°N , -87.5°E). b) Difference
411 between normalized sea level pressure at the two points indicated defining the WAI as discussed
412 in the text.

413

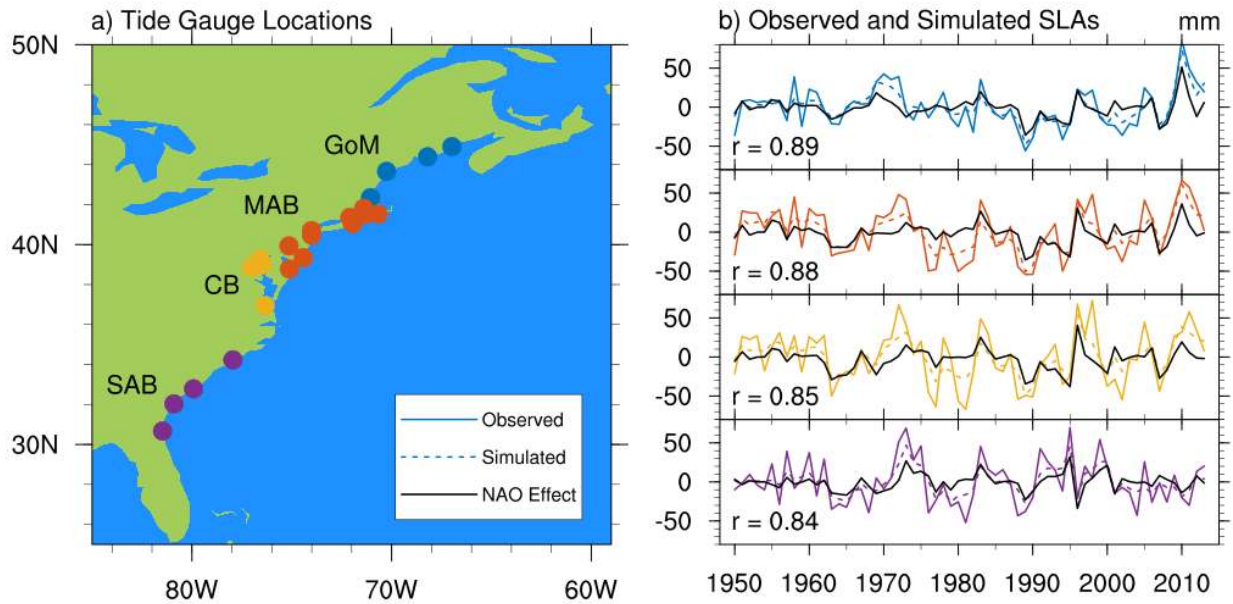
414 Fig. 6. a) Regression pattern of NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis I sea level pressure (color contours)
415 and surface wind stress (arrows) on the West Atlantic Index (WAI) from 1950-2013. b) Same as
416 a), but for DJFM NAO as predictor. Each regression model is fit separately. To facilitate
417 comparison, predictors are each re-normalized to have unit variance from 1950-2013. Results for

418 annual mean NAO are similar in spatial pattern with increased intensity in some regions. c) Solid
419 colored lines show observed SLAs in the Gulf of Maine, Mid-Atlantic Bight, Chesapeake Bay,
420 and South Atlantic Bight, respectively. Dashed black lines show NAO contribution ($\beta_{1,t} X_{1,t}$ in
421 Equations 1-2) in Bayesian DLM model of SLAs. Solid black lines are the same but for WAI as
422 predictor. Also indicated are correlations between observed SLAs and the DLM-modeled NAO
423 contribution (NAOE) and WAI contribution (WAIE).

424 **Figures**

425

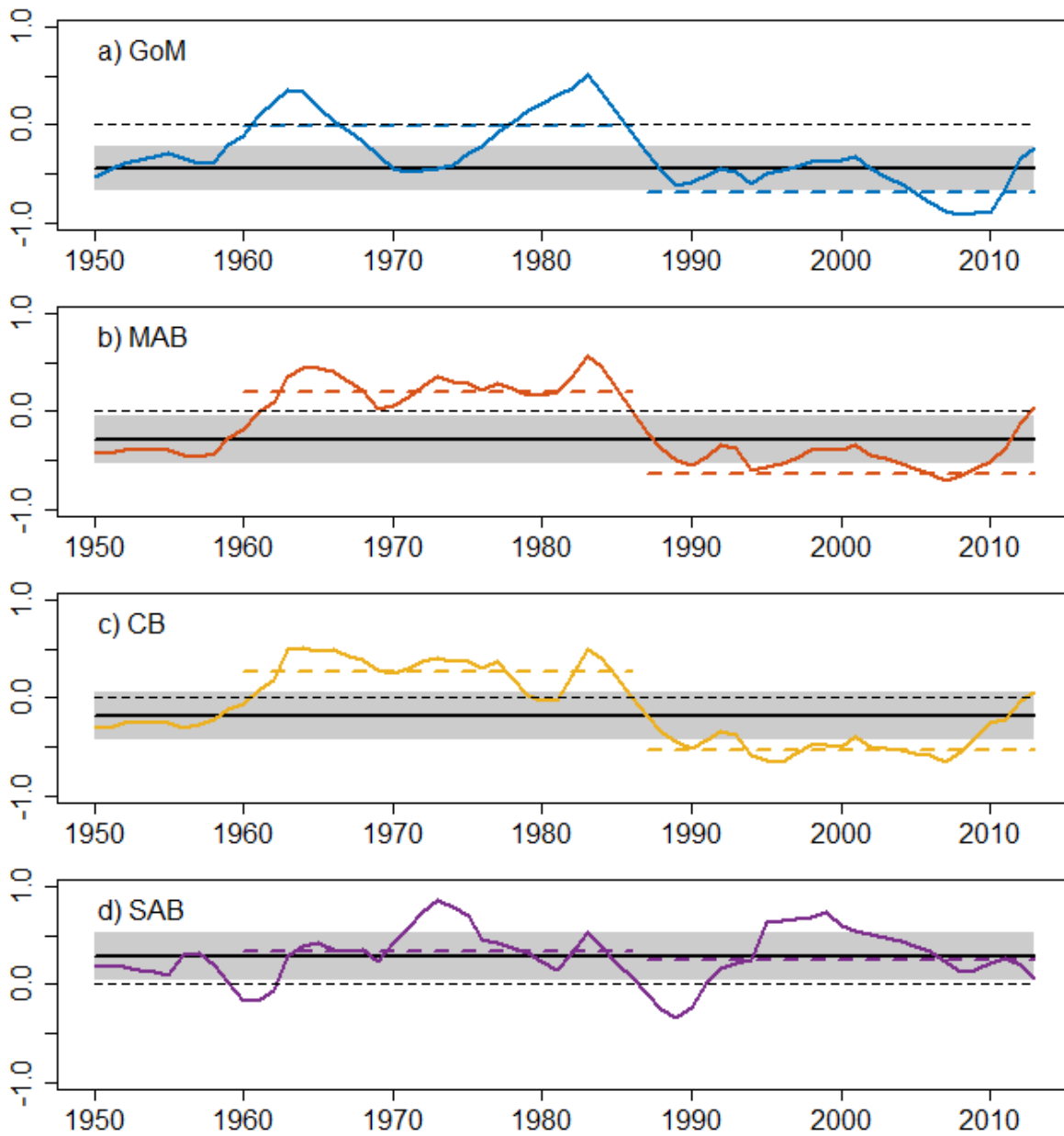
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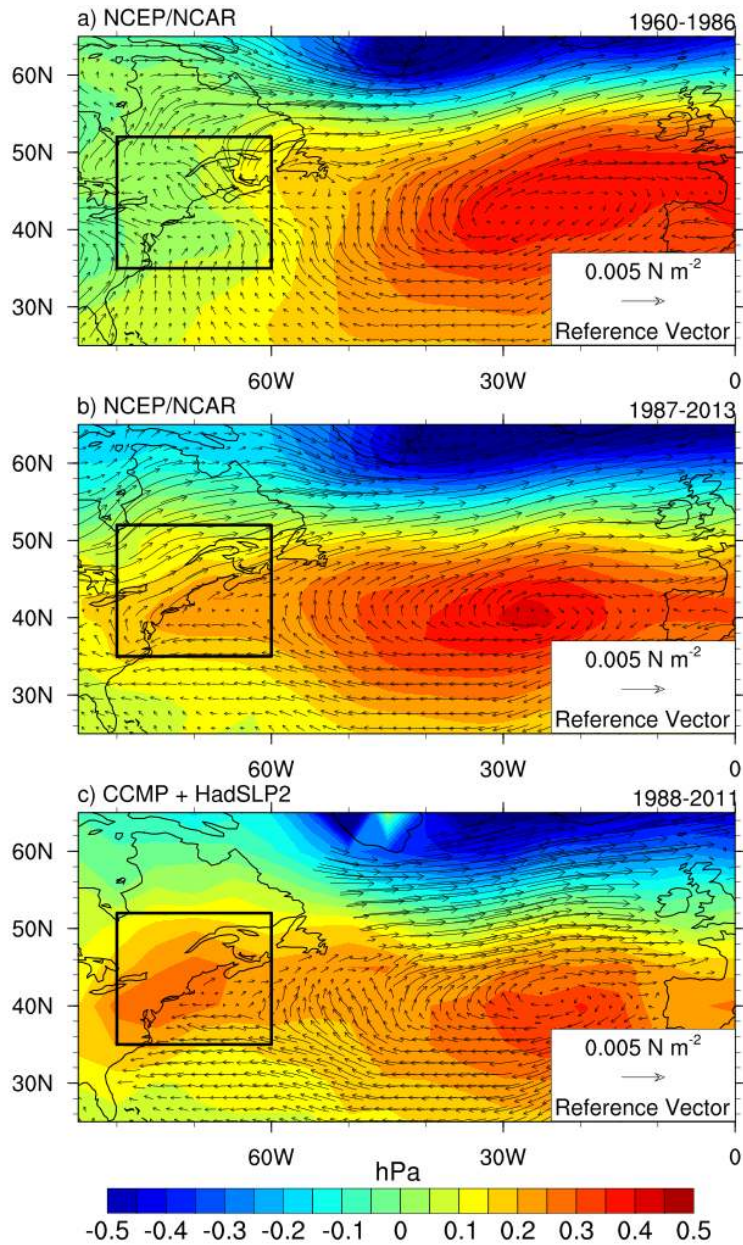
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432 *colored lines show Bayesian DLM model ($\beta_{0,t} + \beta_{1,t}NAO_t$) of SLAs with DJFM NAO ($X_{1,t}$) as*
433 *predictor. Black lines represent the estimated NAO contribution ($\beta_{1,t}NAO_t$) alone. Also*
434 *indicated are correlations between observed SLAs and DLM-modeled SLAs.*



435
 436 *Fig. 2. Results from the Bayesian DLM for each of the four regions shown in Fig. 1. Colored*
 437 *curves show coefficients $\beta_{1,t}$ from the Bayesian DLM of SLAs in each region (Y_t in Equations 1-*
 438 *2) with DJFM NAO as predictor ($X_{1,t}$) over 1950-2013, where $\beta_{1,t}$ represents the time-varying*
 439 *NAO effect. Also shown are the corresponding static linear model regression coefficients b_1 (i.e.,*
 440 *percent of the observed standard deviation in SLAs explained by NAO) from 1950-2013 (solid*

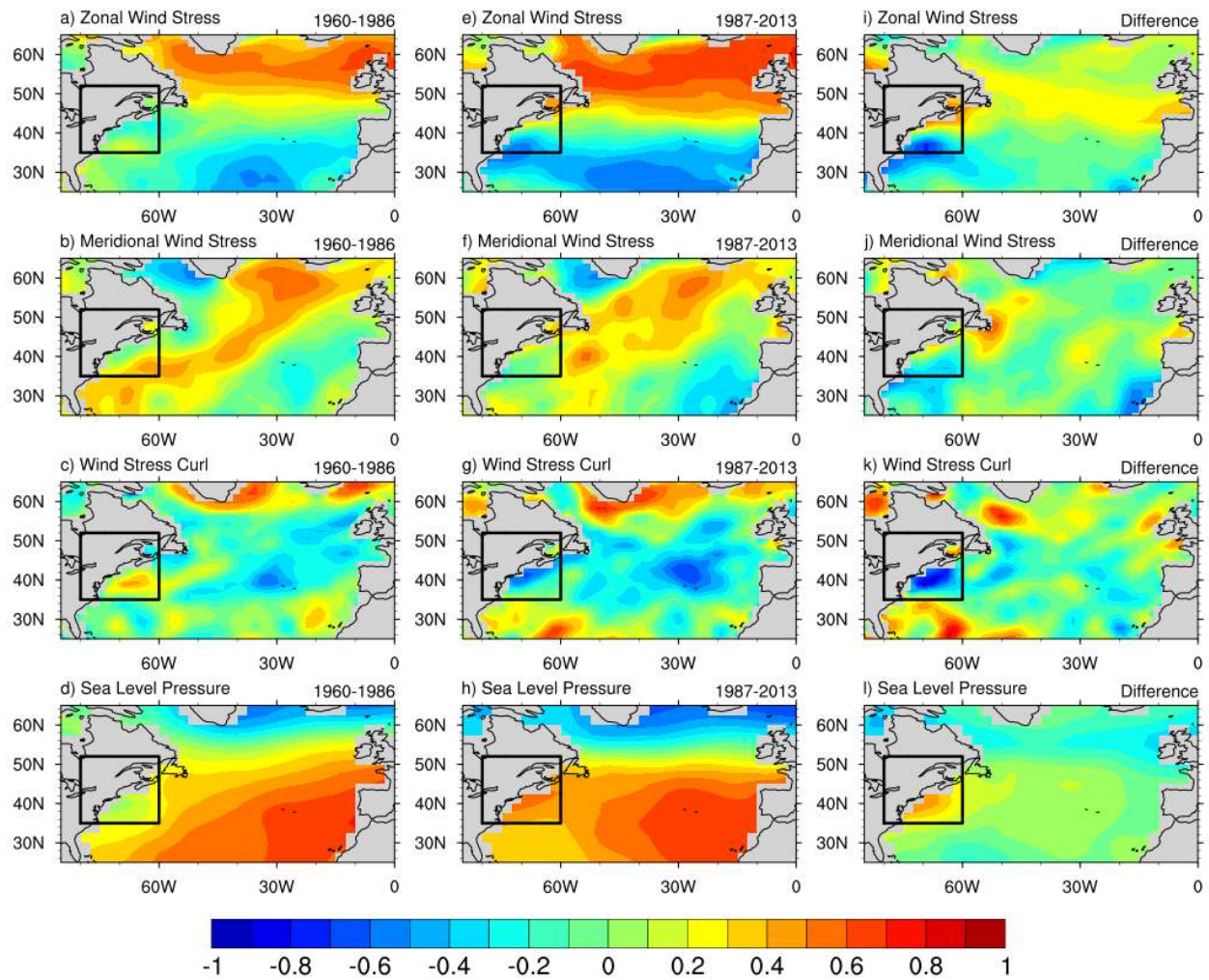
441 *black lines) and 95% confidence intervals on the static linear model coefficient (gray region);*
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444 *deviations, the static linear model coefficients are equal to correlation coefficients.*



445

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 447 *contours) and wind stress (arrows) from 1960-1986 on DJFM NAO index. b) Same as a) but for*
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 449 *observed CCMP wind stress (arrows) from 1988-2011. The time period 1988-2011 shown in the*

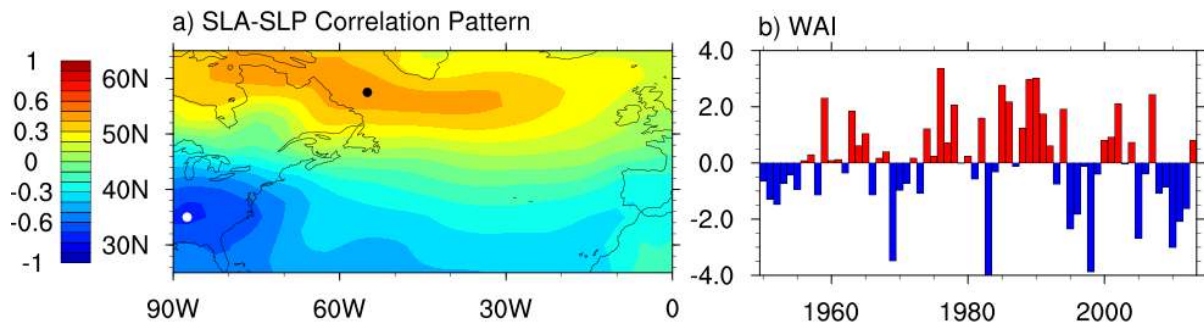
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451 *shift in NAO-linked winds and sea level pressure.*



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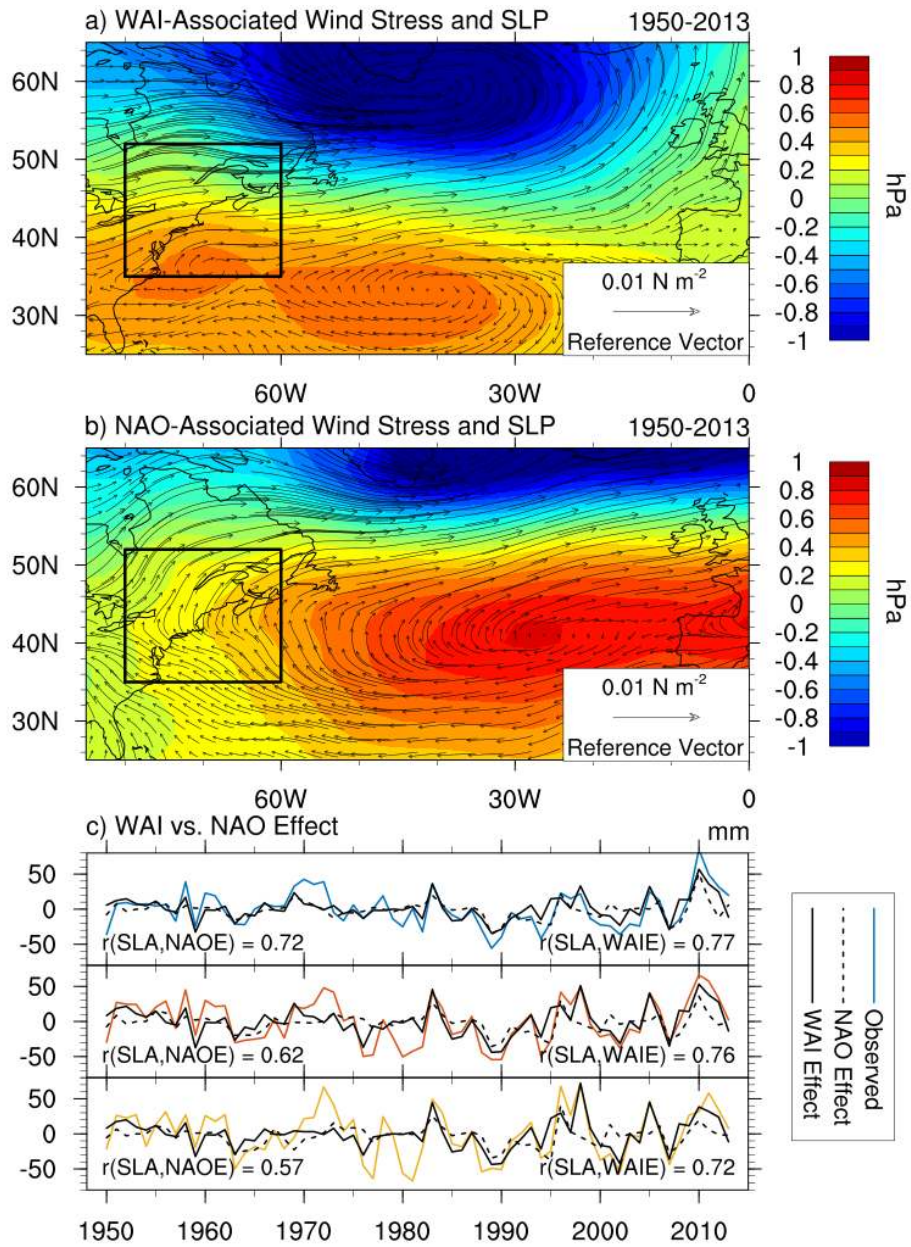
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465

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 469 *comparison, predictors are each re-normalized to have unit variance from 1950-2013. Results*
 470 *for annual mean NAO are similar in spatial pattern with increased intensity in some regions. c)*

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