

1 Increased hurricane frequency near Florida during Younger  
2 Dryas Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation  
3 slowdown

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15 **ABSTRACT**

16 The risk posed by intensification of North Atlantic hurricane activity remains  
17 controversial, in part due to a lack of available storm proxy records that extend beyond  
18 the relatively stable climates of the late Holocene. Here we present a record of storm-  
19 triggered turbidite deposition offshore the Dry Tortugas, south Florida, USA, that spans  
20 abrupt transitions in North Atlantic sea-surface temperature and Atlantic Meridional  
21 Overturning Circulation (AMOC) during the Younger Dryas (12.9–11.7 k.y. B.P.).  
22 Despite potentially hostile conditions for cyclogenesis in the tropical North Atlantic at

23 this time, our record and numerical experiments suggest that strong hurricanes may have  
24 regularly impacted Florida. Less severe surface cooling at mid-latitudes ( $\sim 20\text{--}40^\circ\text{N}$ ) than  
25 across much of the tropical North Atlantic ( $\sim 10\text{--}20^\circ\text{N}$ ) in response to AMOC reduction  
26 may best explain strong hurricane activity during the Younger Dryas near the Dry  
27 Tortugas and, potentially, along the entire southeastern coast of the United States.

## 28 **INTRODUCTION**

29       Reduction in Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) during the  
30 Younger Dryas (YD), most often attributed to meltwater release during drainage of  
31 glacial Lake Agassiz (e.g., Clark et al., 2001 and refs. therein), may have lowered sea-  
32 surface temperatures (SSTs) in the North Atlantic (e.g. Schmidt and Lynch-Stieglitz,  
33 2011) and therefore, the potential intensity of tropical cyclones (TCs). However, the  
34 environmental controls on TC activity (genesis, track, intensity) are complex, responding  
35 not only to changes in local SST but also vertical wind shear and humidity. For instance,  
36 Kerty et al. (2012) showed a globally heterogeneous response of TC activity to  
37 universally colder temperatures in PMIP2 (<http://pmip2.lscce.ipsl.fr/>) simulations of the  
38 Last Glacial Maximum (21 k.y. B.P.). Future, multi-model mean (CMIP5, [http://cmip-  
39 pcmdi.llnl.gov/index.html](http://cmip-pcmdi.llnl.gov/index.html)), projections, assuming a high emissions scenario, anticipate  
40 increased TC potential intensity across much of the tropical North Atlantic by the end of  
41 this century (Sobel et al., 2016), but it remains unclear if this would translate into more  
42 landfalling intense hurricanes along the basin margins. Historic observations (1947–2015  
43 CE) demonstrate that warm SSTs and low vertical wind shear in the Main Development  
44 Region (MDR) (Fig. 1A) have often fostered increased basin-wide TC activity while  
45 coinciding with less favorable conditions for storm intensification along the Eastern

46 Seaboard (Kossin, 2017). No proxy records or comparable modeling experiments of TC  
47 activity currently exist for the YD that could be used to test if severe changes in MDR  
48 thermodynamic structure, likely to impact cyclone intensity, were counter-balanced by  
49 more favorable conditions elsewhere in the basin.

50 Proxy-based reconstruction of past TC activity using coarse-grained overwash  
51 deposits in lower energy back-barrier marshes or lagoons (e.g., Donnelly et al., 2001) has  
52 typically been limited to the mid-late Holocene (typically < 5 k.y. B.P.) due to shoreward  
53 transgression of these environs in response to deglacial sea-level rise (Bard et al., 2010).  
54 However, re-suspension of sediment on continental shelves by storm-induced currents, its  
55 subsequent transport offshore and deposition within margin sedimentary sequences could  
56 potentially yield much longer records of past TC landfalls. Shanmugam (2008) reviewed  
57 observations from modern storms which document bottom water velocities regularly in  
58 excess of  $1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  on continental shelves and offshore sediment transport. Toomey et al.  
59 (2013) found that deposition of coarse-grained layers in an offbank transect of multi-  
60 cores (~200–500 m below sea level [mbsl]) from the Bahamas (Fig. 1B) closely tracked  
61 the passage of 10 major hurricanes between ~1915 and 1965 CE. Older deposits at that  
62 site, thought to reflect increased mid-late Holocene hurricane activity, are consistent with  
63 published Caribbean back-barrier overwash records (Toomey et al., 2013 and refs.  
64 therein).

65 Here we use jumbo piston cores (JPCs) from offshore the Dry Tortugas, Florida,  
66 that span the YD and early Holocene (EH) (Lynch-Stieglitz et al., 2011), to extend the  
67 Bahamas paleo-hurricane reconstruction of Toomey et al. (2013) (located ~400 km east).  
68 Florida is in the path of storms tracking out of the eastern Atlantic, western Caribbean

69 and Gulf of Mexico; sedimentary archives there are well positioned to capture changes in  
70 North Atlantic cyclogenesis. Together with analysis of general circulation model (GCM)  
71 experiments, we address two main questions: (1) how do cooler SSTs and/or AMOC  
72 slowdown impact North Atlantic TC activity? (2) Are model-simulated changes in  
73 storminess consistent with our proxy-based record of TC landfalls near Florida?

## 74 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

75 The Florida margin (Fig. 1) near the Dry Tortugas Islands (25°N, 83°W) can be  
76 divided into four general bathymetric zones: bank-top (~0–60 mbsl), upper-slope (~60–  
77 250 mbsl, 2% grade), mid-slope (250–500 mbsl, 5% grade) and toe-of-slope (500–1000  
78 mbsl, 1% grade). An offbank depth transect of cores (JPC25: 494 mbsl; JPC26: 546 mbsl;  
79 and JPC59: 358 mbsl) stretching from the upper-slope into the Florida Straits was  
80 collected aboard the R/V *Knorr* in January 2002 CE (cruise KNR166-02). Grain size was  
81 measured at ~1 cm intervals in these cores, using a Beckman-Coulter (LS13320) laser  
82 particle-size analyzer. Bulk mean grain-size data from JPC25, presented in Figure 2A, is  
83 archived in the GSA Data Repository<sup>1</sup>. Existing radiocarbon chronology and  
84 *Globigerinoides ruber*  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  from JPC 26 (Lynch-Stieglitz et al., 2011) was  
85 stratigraphically correlated to JPC25/59 using X-ray fluorescence (ITRAX) ln(Ca/Fe),  
86 defining the YD and EH boundaries in each core (Fig. DR1). We note, however, that this  
87 approach is not aimed at differentiating events occurring in rapid succession and/or short-  
88 term changes in local sedimentation rate within the YD or EH.

89 We also analyzed environmental conditions known to favor TC development and  
90 intensification in two segments of the Transient Climate Evolution Experiment (TraCE),  
91 a globally coupled ocean-atmosphere-land model simulation performed with Community

92 Climate System Model version 3.0 (CCSM3) (e.g., Liu et al., 2009). TraCE captures  
93 much of the YD SST cooling seen in comparable North Atlantic proxy reconstructions  
94 (see Table DR1). We computed TC potential intensity, absolute vorticity, and  
95 tropospheric wind shear, which is a measure of tropospheric saturation deficits (see the  
96 Data Repository). These metrics can be combined into a genesis potential index (Korty et  
97 al., 2012), which measures the combined effects of wind shear, moist thermodynamics,  
98 and convection in producing favorable conditions for tropical cyclones to form and  
99 intensify. We calculated these variables using monthly TraCE output spanning the middle  
100 of the YD (12.5–12.0 k.y. B.P.), during which the North Atlantic was subject to  
101 freshwater hosing, and during a later 600-yr segment (10.8–10.2 k.y. B.P.) following  
102 establishment of reduced EH meltwater fluxes. Genesis potential was calculated for each  
103 month and then summed over June to November of each year; the seasonal totals were  
104 averaged over both the YD and EH segments.

## 105 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

106 A matrix composed largely of carbonate mud and trace quantities of iron-bearing  
107 fines supports coarser-grained biogenic grains in JPC25/26/59. Despite relatively uniform  
108 composition, downcore changes in color and iron abundance versus calcium-rich  
109 sediments derived from the bank top (Fig. DR1), define tie-points between cores  
110 coincident with deglacial flooding of the bank-top (~13 k.y. B.P.), the YD/EH transition  
111 (~11.7 k.y. B.P.) and platform submergence (~10 k.y. B.P.). In general, the sediments  
112 appear largely structureless, however, evidence of low-density turbidite deposition such  
113 as parallel lamina (mm-scale) and sand lenses occur sporadically. Burrows, avoided  
114 during sampling, were also occasionally identified by visible changes in sediment

115 structure and/or color. The  $>63 \mu\text{m}$  sediment fraction is dominated by benthic  
116 foraminifera (primarily miliolids and rotalids), planktonic foraminifera, and occasional  
117 pelycopod shell fragments. While we caution that no benthic foraminifera diagnostic of  
118 shallow-water origin were observed in the coarsest layers, most of the pelycopod shells  
119 were fractured and angular suggesting their taphonomic history included breakage during  
120 transport from elsewhere.

121 We propose that the most likely mechanism for emplacement of coarse-grained  
122 material in these cores is entrainment of sediment on the banktop and deposition offshore  
123 by turbidites during storms. Grain-size increases downslope (Fig. DR2) and the coarsest  
124 beds are poorly sorted relative to background sediments—observations that are  
125 inconsistent with winnowing by the Florida Current. Preferential contourite formation  
126 during the YD is also unlikely given evidence for greatly reduced AMOC strength at this  
127 time (Lynch-Stieglitz et al., 2011; McManus et al., 2004; Fig. 2). Extensive seismic  
128 surveying of the southwest Florida margin by Brooks and Holmes (1989) shows  
129 depositional units are oriented offbank, not along the path of the Florida Current. We also  
130 note higher sedimentation rates during the YD than the ensuing EH, suggesting coarse-  
131 grained beds in the YD unit are net-depositional rather than erosional. General agreement  
132 between grain-size records from JPC25/26 and JPC59, the latter located  $\sim 15$  km west  
133 along-bank, likely excludes local mass wasting as a viable alternative mechanism for  
134 emplacement of coarser-grained units. These sites face no known active margins likely to  
135 produce frequent, large, tsunamis nor do they occupy the type of steep continental margin  
136 thought to be susceptible to slope failures triggered by distant earthquakes (Johnson et al.,  
137 2017). While comparable TC records do not currently exist with which to definitively

138 rule out other local sediment transport mechanisms, given (1) little evidence for  
139 contourite formation or tsunami-triggered mass wasting, (2) widespread observations of  
140 sediment entrainment on continental shelves during modern storms (Shanmugam, 2008)  
141 and (3) sedimentary evidence of density current deposition offbank the Bahamas from  
142 historic major hurricanes (Toomey et al., 2013), we argue coarse-grained material in  
143 cores JPC25/26/59 is largely derived from storm-triggered turbidites.

144 Grain-size variability in our cores suggests relatively more frequent high-energy  
145 events during the YD with an abrupt transition to finer grained deposition moving into  
146 the EH (Fig. 2A; Fig. DR2). For instance, mean grain-size in JPC 25 is  $23 \pm 4 \mu\text{m}$   
147 through the YD but drops to  $19 \pm 2 \mu\text{m}$  during the EH section (11.7–10.2 k.y. BP).  
148 Transgressive drowning of Florida Bank during Meltwater Pulse 1B (MWP1B), ~11.4–  
149 11.1 k.y. B.P., limiting entrainment of sediment by storm waves, could provide another  
150 explanation for the lack of coarse-grained deposits during the EH; however, recent  
151 drilling of drowned reefs offshore Tahiti (Bard et al., 2010, and references therein)  
152 indicates a relatively gradual change in the rate of sea-level rise from the YD (~8 mm/yr)  
153 to the EH (12 mm/yr), calling into question the existence of MWP1B. Instead, we  
154 propose below that sustained AMOC reduction during the YD (McManus et al., 2004)  
155 produced environmental conditions that were more hostile to storms across much of the  
156 tropical North Atlantic, but locally more favorable near the southeastern U.S.

157 The spatial pattern of changes in potential intensity (PI) during the YD (Fig. DR3)  
158 shows that it was much lower where SSTs fell most dramatically across low latitudes of  
159 the tropical Atlantic, but PI was little changed or sometimes higher where SSTs were  
160 warmer relative to the remainder of the basin. Near Florida, the seasonal (June–

161 November) max PI remained high enough to support Category 5 storms throughout the  
162 YD and EH (Fig. 3C; YD = 70 m s<sup>-1</sup>, EH = 74 m s<sup>-1</sup>). Vecchi and Soden (2007) showed  
163 that PI is strongly related to relative SST rather than to absolute SST: PI is the highest  
164 where waters are locally warmer than the regional average. On average, storm season  
165 wind shear was higher during the YD than EH across the tropical Atlantic (Fig. DR3), but  
166 lower near Florida ( $\Delta = -0.3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) and in the subtropics. In colder atmospheres, a  
167 smaller quantity of water vapor is required to saturate an air column. This, in combination  
168 with lower shear, yields higher genesis potential (GP in Fig. 3B) with conditions more  
169 favorable for tropical cyclones near the Dry Tortugas, outweighing lower absolute local  
170 SST (TraCE: YD = 25 °C, EH = 26 °C, comparable to Mg/Ca proxy SST from JPC26;  
171 Schmidt and Lynch-Stieglitz, 2011).

172 In addition to the potential for increased storm activity in the western sub-tropics,  
173 genesis potential appears largely unchanged (YD versus EH) in the southern Caribbean  
174 (Fig. 3B)—the source region for most major storms tracking near the Dry Tortugas today.  
175 Since 1848 CE, 11 of the 12 storms passing the JPC25 core site ( $\leq 65 \text{ km}$  radius) as major  
176 hurricanes ( $\geq$ Category 3) formed within or proximal to the Caribbean Sea (Fig. 1A,  
177 Knapp et al., 2010), often steered by late season westerlies north/northwest over deep,  
178 warm, waters on their way toward Florida. A more southerly mean position of the ITCZ  
179 (Haug et al., 2001) and westerlies during the YD could have shifted hurricane tracks  
180 toward Florida in late summer when warm Caribbean waters often reach their maximum  
181 extent.

182 Coarse discretization of the TraCE ocean domain (25 vertical levels and ~200–  
183 400 km horizontal resolution at these latitudes), however, may limit its sensitivity to

184 thermocline structure and therefore sub-surface warming during episodes of sustained  
185 AMOC reduction and/or migrations of the Florida Current itself (~100 km wide)—which  
186 may have further augmented favorable TC conditions near our site. Tropical North  
187 Atlantic sub-surface temperature is thought to be anti-correlated with AMOC strength  
188 (Zhang, 2007) and Mg/Ca temperature estimates from southern Caribbean indicate  
189 substantial warming (~3-4 °C) at intermediate depths during the YD (Schmidt et al.,  
190 2012). Entrainment of cold water from the thermocline into the surface mixed layer by  
191 hurricane-force winds brings colder water to the surface, working as a negative feedback  
192 on storm intensity by reducing the transfer of heat to the atmosphere (e.g., Price, 1981).  
193 In turn, however, increased hurricane mixing is thought to enhance poleward heat flux  
194 (Emanuel, 2001) and, potentially, could have acted as negative feedback on YD high-  
195 latitude cooling.

## 196 **CONCLUSIONS**

197       Despite cooler local surface temperatures, reconstructed hurricane strikes and  
198 GCM experiments suggest relatively strong storm activity along the coast of Florida  
199 during the Younger Dryas. While YD conditions for tropical cyclone development appear  
200 unfavorable across much of the North Atlantic, the large-scale environment was more  
201 conducive for TC genesis and intensification near the southeastern U.S. coast, where SST  
202 cooling was less than elsewhere in the basin. Subsurface warming may also have  
203 contributed to strong hurricane development near the Dry Tortugas during the YD,  
204 motivating future modeling experiments that can better resolve changes in thermocline  
205 depth. Complementary storm records along the Eastern Seaboard are also needed to  
206 isolate the impact of deglacial sea-level rise on site sensitivity and establish whether

207 increased western North Atlantic hurricane activity is a robust feature of other  
208 Pleistocene cold events (i.e., Heinrich) or, possibly, periods of slower AMOC regimes in  
209 general.

## 210 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

211 This work was supported by the U. S. Geological Survey Climate and Land Use  
212 Change Research and Development Program (Toomey), the Woods Hole Oceanographic  
213 Institution Ocean and Climate Change Institute (Toomey) and National Science  
214 Foundation grants (OCE-1356708 to Donnelly; 1356509 to van Hengstum). Additional  
215 technical support was provided by S. Madsen, R. Sullivan, and E. Roosen. We also thank  
216 T. Cronin, M. Robinson, and three anonymous reviewers for their helpful feedback on  
217 earlier versions of this manuscript. Any use of trade, firm, or product names is for  
218 descriptive purposes only and does not imply endorsement by the U.S. Government.

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294 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

295 Figure 1. Site maps. A: Historic North Atlantic hurricane tracks passing within 65 nm of  
296 our site at major hurricane strength (96 kts, 1 min maximum sustained wind [MSW])  
297 since 1848 CE (Knapp et al., 2010). White circle pinpoints the Dry Tortugas, abbreviated  
298 DT. Location used in Figure 2 proxy reconstructions by dots: red—Vema 12–107 (VM);  
299 yellow—Bermuda Rise (BR); light gray—Barbados (BB); dark gray—Cariaco Basin  
300 (CB). Tracks noted of major hurricanes that formed in the Caribbean (dark gray) versus  
301 one from the eastern North Atlantic (light gray). Background color map was compiled  
302 from National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) monthly satellite-  
303 derived ocean heat content data for the 2013–2015 CE storm seasons (Data Repository  
304 [see footnote 1]). B: Regional map of southern Florida, northern Caribbean, and Gulf of  
305 Mexico. Red arrow shows the generalized path of the Yucatan (YC), Loop and Florida  
306 Currents (FC). Location of transect shown in inset C is given by black line from DT to c.  
307 Bahamas hurricane reconstruction sites from Toomey et al. (2013) indicated by triangle.  
308 Blue shading indicates shallow water areas (<120 mbsl). C: Schematic profile across  
309 offbank core transect. Jumbo piston core (JPC) 59 is located ~15 km west of JPC25/26  
310 and projected into line DT-c. Maps were created using Matlab<sup>®</sup> m\_map function suite  
311 written by Rich Pawlowicz (University of British Columbia).

312

313 Figure 2. Climatic variability across the Younger Dryas/ early Holocene (YD/EH)  
314 transition. A: Grain-size record from Florida Straits core KNR166–2 JPC25. Raw data  
315 are shown in gray with 50-yr moving average filtered time-series given by blue line. Note  
316 broken y-axis. B: Mg/Ca paleo-temperature proxy data (red) from core VM12–107  
317 (Schmidt et al., 2012). C: Bermuda Rise (core OCE326-GGC5) <sup>231</sup>Pa/<sup>230</sup>Th record of

318 Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) (McManus et al., 2004) (yellow).  
319 D: Subsidence corrected relative sea-level records from Barbados (gray) and Tahiti (light  
320 blue) adapted from Bard et al. (2010, and references therein). E: Cariaco Basin,  
321 Venezuela (Ocean Drilling Program [ODP] Site 1002), %Ti (Haug et al., 2001) (dark  
322 gray). Blue and pink shading highlights early Holocene (EH) and Younger Dryas (YD)  
323 Transient Climate Evolution Experiment (TraCE) segments, respectively.

324

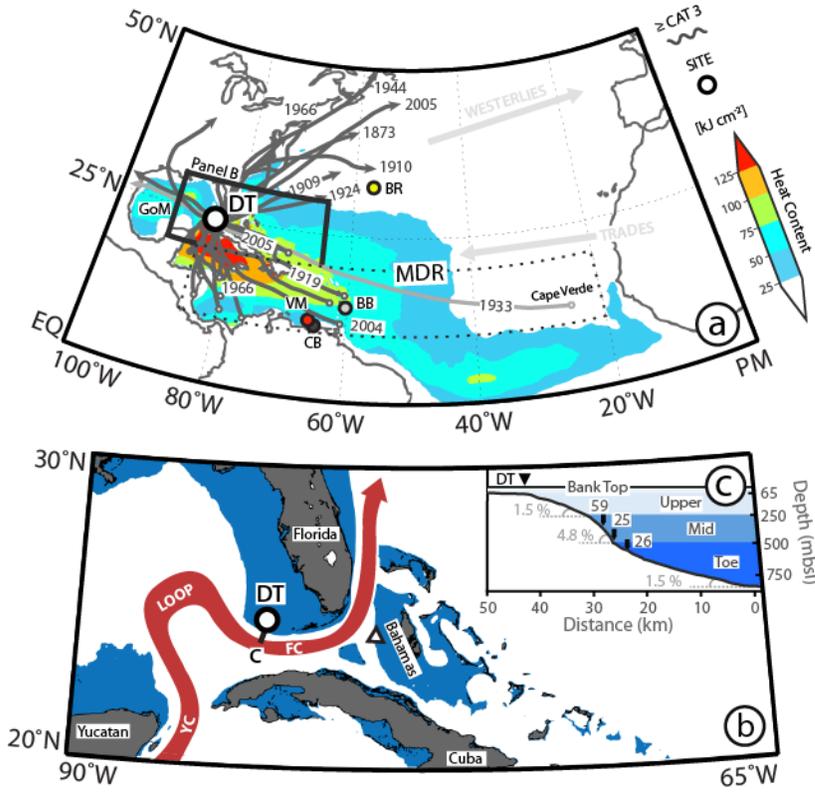
325 Figure 3. Simulated changes in climatic controls on hurricane activity between the  
326 Younger Dryas (YD, 12.0–12.5 k.y. B.P.) and early Holocene (EH, 10.2–10.8 k.y. B.P.).  
327 Spatial difference in storm season (A) surface temperature and (B) genesis potential  
328 index (GPI), averaged for each Transient Climate Evolution Experiment (TraCE)  
329 interval. C: Filtered (20 yr) time series of maximum potential intensity near the Dry  
330 Tortugas (red) and Barbados (gray) from 13,850 yr B.P. through the EH.

331

332 <sup>1</sup>GSA Data Repository item 2017xxx, grain-size data, is available online at  
333 <http://www.geosociety.org/datarepository/2017/> or on request from  
334 [editing@geosociety.org](mailto:editing@geosociety.org).

335

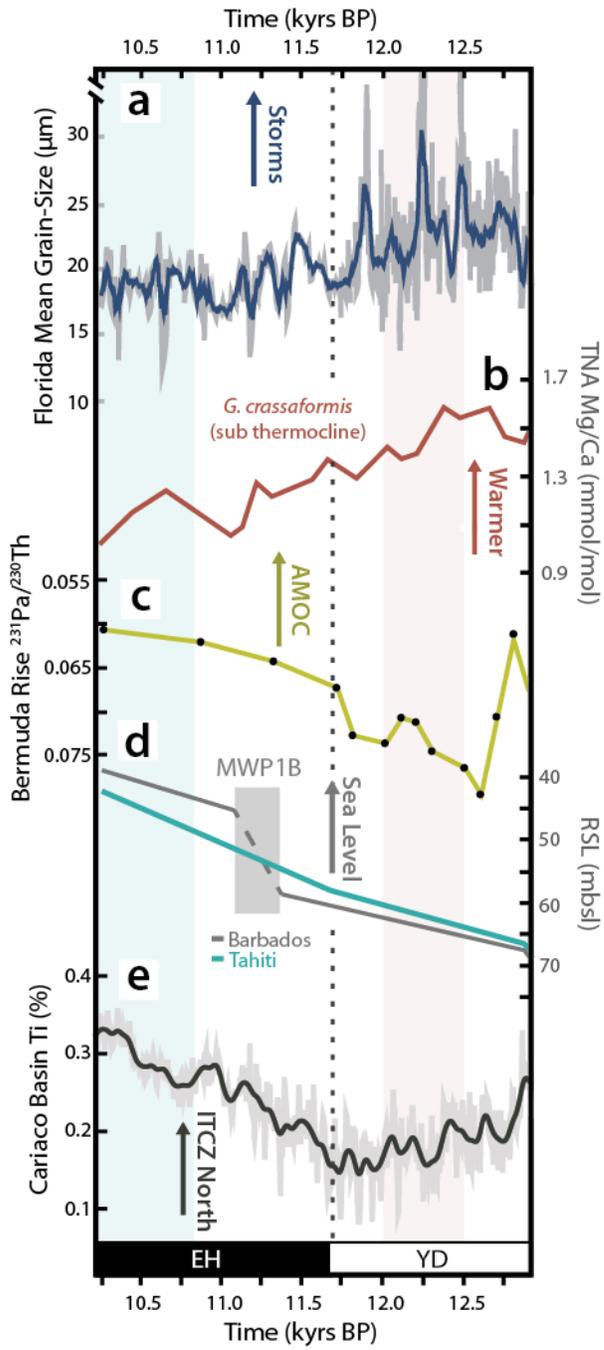
336 Figure 1:



337

338

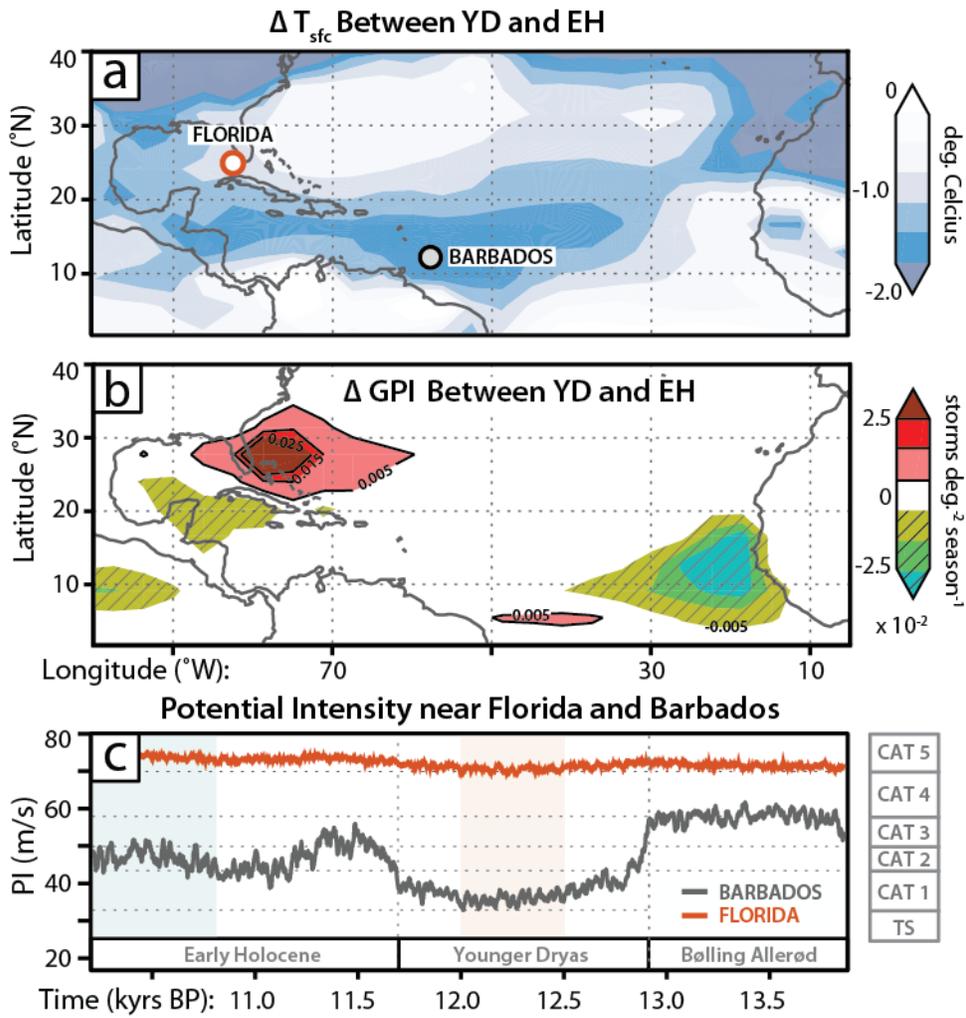
339 Figure 2:



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341

342 Figure 3:



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