

**Observational Analysis of the Wind-Evaporation-SST Feedback over the Tropical Pacific Ocean**

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1 **Abstract**

2       Theoretical studies suggested that the wind-evaporation-SST (WES) feedback plays  
3 an important role in maintaining the latitudinal asymmetry of the Intertropical  
4 Convergence Zone (ITCZ) in tropical Pacific Ocean. This study examines the  
5 geographical distribution of the strength of WES feedback over the tropical Pacific Ocean  
6 using multiple long-term observational datasets. The results show that the WES feedback  
7 is very weak over the eastern Pacific warm pool and stratocumulus regions, where the  
8 strongest latitudinal asymmetry of the ITCZ exists, suggesting that some other  
9 mechanisms are responsible for the asymmetry. To the west of 120W, the WES feedback  
10 has larger magnitude but is often statistically insignificant. This is because the air-sea  
11 humidity difference effect tends to offset the wind effect, which is a factor not considered  
12 in the original WES feedback theory.

## 1 **1. Introduction**

2 An important question for tropical mean climate is why the annual mean Intertropical  
3 Convergence Zone (ITCZ) is located north of the equator in the central Pacific, eastern  
4 Pacific and Atlantic Oceans, although the annual mean solar radiation is roughly  
5 symmetric about the equator and has its maximum on the equator. Previous theoretical  
6 studies suggested that ocean-atmosphere feedback plays an important role in maintaining  
7 this latitudinal asymmetry of tropical mean climate (see reviews by Xie 2005 and Chang  
8 et al. 2006). There are two major ocean-atmosphere feedback mechanisms: the wind-  
9 evaporation-SST (WES) feedback (Xie and Philander 1994; Xie 1996a) and the stratus-  
10 SST feedback (Philander et al. 1996; Ma et al. 1996; Yu and Mechoso 1999; Gordon et  
11 al. 2000; de Szoeke et al. 2006), which enhance the meridional asymmetry associated  
12 with the continental forcing in the eastern boundary (e.g. Xie 1996a; Xie and Saito 2001),  
13 seasonal solar forcing (e.g. Xie 1996b), and atmosphere's internal dynamics (e.g.  
14 Charney 1971; Holton 1971; Lindzen 1974; Waliser and Somerville 1994; Chao 2000;  
15 Liu and Xie 2002).

16 Xie and Philander (1994) proposed the WES feedback mechanism for breaking the  
17 equatorial symmetry set by solar radiation (see schematic in Fig. 4-5 of Xie 2005).  
18 Suppose that somehow the sea surface temperature (SST) north of the equator becomes  
19 slightly warmer than to the south. This north-south SST gradient will lead to north-south  
20 sea level pressure (SLP) gradient (Gill 1980; Lindzen and Nigam 1987), which in turn  
21 will drive southerly winds across the equator. The Coriolis force acts to turn these  
22 southerlies westward south and eastward north of the equator. Superimposed on the  
23 background easterly trade winds, the anomalous westerly winds north of the equator

1 decrease surface wind speed and hence latent heat flux (LHF), while the anomalous  
2 easterly winds south of the equator increase surface wind speed and associated LHF.  
3 These changes in LHF amplify the initial interhemispheric SST difference, and thus  
4 provide a positive feedback to the latitudinal asymmetry. The existence of WES feedback  
5 over the tropical Atlantic Ocean has been confirmed by several observational studies (e.g.  
6 Hu and Huang 2006), but the existence of WES feedback in over the tropical Pacific  
7 Ocean has not been examined using observational data.

8 The purpose of this study is to analyze the spatial distribution of the strength of WES  
9 feedback over tropical Pacific Ocean using multiple long-term observational datasets.  
10 The datasets used are described in section 2. Results are presented in section 3. A  
11 summary and discussion are given in section 4.

12

## 13 **2. Data**

14 We use 21 years (1979-1999) of monthly datasets of SST, precipitation, surface  
15 winds and latent heat flux. For each variable, different datasets are used whenever  
16 possible in order to sample the uncertainties associated with measurement/retrieval  
17 /analysis. The datasets used include:

18 (1) SST from the Extended Reconstruction of SST (ERSST; Smith and Reynolds  
19 2004) and the Met Office Hadley Centre's Sea Ice and SST (HADISST; Rayner et  
20 al. 2003), both with a horizontal resolution of 1 degree longitude by 1 degree  
21 latitude,

22 (2) precipitation from the Global Precipitation Climatology Project (GPCP) Version 2  
23 data (Adler et al. 2003) and the CPC Merged Analysis of Precipitation (CMAP;

1 Xie and Arkin 1996), both with a horizontal resolution of 2.5 degree longitude by  
2 2.5 degree latitude, and  
3 (4) surface winds from the NCEP/NCAR reanalysis (Kalnay et al. 1996) and  
4 ECMWF 40-year reanalysis (ERA40; Gibson et al. 1997), both with a horizontal  
5 resolution of 2.5 degree longitude by 2.5 degree latitude.  
6 surface latent heat flux from the OAFLUX dataset (Yu et al. 2004), with a  
7 horizontal resolution of 2.5 degree longitude by 2.5 degree latitude.

8 Because we are interested only in the large-scale features, all datasets are averaged to  
9 have a zonal resolution of 10 degrees longitude but the original meridional resolutions are  
10 kept. We further smooth the data zonally using 30-degree running mean. We also tried  
11 50-degree running mean and the results are similar.

12

### 13 **3. Results**

14 Our analysis follows step-by-step the WES feedback loop as discussed in the  
15 introduction. Since we are interested in the effect of WES feedback on the Pacific ITCZ, the  
16 region of interest is between 15°S-15°N, within which the ITCZ is generally confined. First  
17 we look at how the interhemispheric SST difference affects the off-equatorial  
18 precipitation. Figure 1 shows the linear regression of monthly data for 5°N-15°N (solid  
19 and dotted lines) and 5°S-15°S (dashed and dash-dotted lines) averaged precipitation  
20 versus the interhemispheric SST difference ( $\Delta$ SST), which is defined as the difference  
21 between the 5°N-15°N averaged SST and the 5°S-15°S averaged SST. The diamonds (for  
22 solid lines) and squares (for dashed lines) denote that the corresponding linear correlation  
23 is above the 95% confidence level. The results are statistically significant over almost all

1 regions. Precipitation in the northern hemisphere (NH) increases with  $\Delta$ SST increase in  
2 all regions, with a 1 °C increase in  $\Delta$ SST generally leading to more than 1 mm/day  
3 increase in precipitation. On the contrary, precipitation in the southern hemisphere (SH)  
4 decreases with  $\Delta$ SST increase in all regions, although the magnitude is smaller over the  
5 eastern Pacific, which may be related to the lack of deep convection in the stratocumulus  
6 cloud region.

7 Precipitation is the dominant term of vertically-integrated diabatic heating in the  
8 troposphere. Consistent with the amplifying (weakening) of heating in the NH (SH), the  
9 cross-equatorial meridional wind (Figure 2) is enhanced in all regions, with a magnitude  
10 of 0.5-1.3 m/s for 1 °C increase in  $\Delta$ SST. The zonal distribution pattern of zonal wind  
11 anomaly (Figure 3) is quite similar to that of precipitation anomaly in both the NH and  
12 SH (Figure 1), with a 0.5-2 m/s enhancement of zonal wind in NH in almost all regions  
13 and a 0.5-2 m/s decrease of zonal wind in SH over western and central Pacific. The zonal  
14 wind anomaly is small in the SH of eastern Pacific, which is consistent with the lack of  
15 deep convection anomaly in the stratocumulus region. It is also relatively small in the NH  
16 eastern Pacific warm pool region, which may be caused by the influence of nearby  
17 landmass and the associated North American monsoon (e.g. Lin et al. 2008).

18 The existence of time-mean background zonal wind is a necessary condition for the  
19 WES feedback, and its direction determines the sign of the wind speed anomaly. If the  
20 time-mean  $u$  is easterly, an easterly (westerly) zonal wind anomaly will enhance  
21 (suppress) the wind speed. Figure 4 shows the annual mean zonal wind averaged between  
22 5°N-15°N and between 5°S-15°S. The time-mean zonal wind is easterly in all regions.  
23 Consistent with the zonal wind anomaly (Figure 3) and time-mean zonal wind (Figure 4),

1 wind speed decreases with  $\Delta$ SST increase in the NH, but increases with  $\Delta$ SST increase in  
2 the SH (Figure 5). Interestingly, the wind speed sensitivity to  $\Delta$ SST is small for both  
3 hemispheres over the eastern Pacific, where the strongest latitudinal asymmetry of the  
4 ITCZ exists! This is consistent with the weak meridional wind (Figure 2) and zonal wind  
5 (Figure 3) responses in this region.

6 Figure 6 shows the resultant LHF anomaly, whose magnitude corresponds to the  
7 strength of the WES feedback. Figure 6 demonstrates two important points. First, the  
8 WES feedback is very weak to the east of 250E, where the strongest latitudinal  
9 asymmetry of ITCZ exists (with the eastern Pacific warm pool in the NH and  
10 stratocumulus region in the SH). The LHF anomaly in the SH even shows a decrease,  
11 which means a negative feedback to  $\Delta$ SST! This is against the enhancement of wind  
12 speed in this region (Figure 5). Therefore, the WES feedback cannot explain the  
13 latitudinal asymmetry of ITCZ in this region.

14 Secondly, to the west of 250E, the WES feedback has larger magnitude, but  
15 interestingly it is often statistically insignificant in spite of the fact that the wind speed  
16 anomaly is always statistically significant (Figure 5). This suggests that some factors  
17 other than the wind speed are strongly affecting the LHF anomaly. The LHF can often be  
18 expressed as (e.g. Liu et al. 1979):

$$19 \quad \text{LHF} = \rho L_v C_D (q_{\text{surface}} - q_{\text{air}}) V \quad (1)$$

20 where  $\rho$  is the surface air density,  $L_v$  is the latent heat of water vapor,  $C_D$  is the transfer  
21 coefficient for latent heat,  $q_{\text{surface}}$  is the surface saturation humidity which is determined  
22 by SST,  $q_{\text{air}}$  is the surface air humidity, and  $V$  is the surface wind speed. Therefore, the  
23 LHF anomaly can be expressed as:

$$\text{LHF}' = \rho L_v C_D [(q_{\text{surface}} - q_{\text{air}})] V' + \rho L_v C_D (q'_{\text{surface}} - q'_{\text{air}}) [V] + \text{higher order terms} \quad (2)$$

where brackets represent annual mean and primes represent anomaly.

The first term on the right-hand side of Eq. 2 represents the wind effect, while the second term represents the air-sea humidity difference effect. As discussed in the introduction, the original WES feedback theory only considered the first term. However, the SST changes can lead to significant changes in surface saturation humidity and thus changes in the air-sea humidity difference. This is confirmed by Figure 7. The SST increase in the NH leads to significant increase of air-sea humidity difference (Figure 7a), which enhances the LHF anomaly and tends to offset the effect of reduced wind speed (Figure 5). Similarly, the SST decrease in the SH results in significant decrease of air-sea humidity difference (Figure 7b), which weakens the LHF anomaly and tends to offset the effect of enhanced wind speed (Figure 5).

To assess quantitatively the relative magnitude of the first term and second term in Eq. 2, Figure 8 shows the annual mean (a) air-sea humidity difference and (b) surface wind speed. The annual mean air-sea humidity difference is about 5 g/kg over most of the tropical Pacific Ocean, while the annual mean surface wind speed ranges from 2-6.5 m/s. When the annual mean air-sea humidity difference is multiplied by the surface wind anomaly (Figure 5), the product is of the same order as the product between annual mean surface wind speed and air-sea humidity difference anomaly (Figure 7). This explains the lack of statistical significance in the LHF anomaly to the west to 250E, and the negative sign of LHF anomaly in the SH stratocumulus region (Figure 6). Therefore, air-sea humidity difference needs to be considered in the WES feedback mechanism.



#### 1 4. Summary

2 Theoretical studies suggested that the WES feedback plays an important role in  
3 maintaining the latitudinal asymmetry of the ITCZ in tropical Pacific Ocean. This study  
4 examines the geographical distribution of the strength of WES feedback over the tropical  
5 Pacific Ocean using multiple long-term observational datasets. The results show that the  
6 WES feedback is very weak over the eastern Pacific warm pool and stratocumulus  
7 regions, where the strongest latitudinal asymmetry of the ITCZ exists. To the west of  
8 120W, the WES feedback has larger magnitude but is often statistically insignificant.  
9 This is because the air-sea humidity difference effect tends to offset the wind effect,  
10 which is a factor not considered in the original WES feedback theory.

11 Because the significant latitudinal asymmetry in the eastern Pacific is the original  
12 motivation for the WES feedback theory, the observed very weak WES feedback over  
13 this region was a surprising result to us, although it may not seem so surprising when the  
14 reader followed step-by-step our analysis. Our results suggest that some other  
15 mechanisms are responsible for the latitudinal asymmetry in this region. As discussed in  
16 the introduction, the possible candidates include the SST-stratus feedback (Philander et  
17 al. 1996; Ma et al. 1996; Yu and Mechoso 1999; Gordon et al. 2000; de Szoeke et al.  
18 2006), continental forcing in the eastern boundary (e.g. Xie 1996a; Xie and Saito 2001),  
19 seasonal solar forcing (e.g. Xie 1996b), atmosphere's internal dynamics (e.g. Charney  
20 1971; Holton 1971; Lindzen 1974; Waliser and Somerville 1994; Chao 2000; and Liu  
21 and Xie 2002).

22 In addition to the above possible mechanisms, ocean dynamics may also contribute  
23 significantly to the latitudinal asymmetry in the eastern Pacific. Recently, Shinoda and

1 Lin (2008) investigated the factors controlling the SST over the southeastern Pacific  
2 using an ocean general circulation model. They found that upper ocean heat budget is  
3 dominated by contributions from dynamical processes (costal upwelling and advection)  
4 instead of surface heat fluxes. Further analyses are needed to examine these mechanisms  
5 using observational datasets.

6

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10

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1 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

2 Figure 1. Linear regression of monthly data for 5oN-15oN (solid line and dotted line) and  
3 5oS-15oS (dashed line and dash-dotted line) averaged precipitation vs interhemispheric  
4 SST difference ( $\Delta$ SST). The diamonds (for solid line), triangles (for dotted line), squares  
5 (for dashed line) and crosses (for dash-dotted line) denote that the corresponding linear  
6 correlation is above the 95% confidence level.

7 Figure 2. Same as Figure 1 but for 5oN-5oS averaged surface meridional wind vs  $\Delta$ SST.

8 Figure 3. Same as Figure 1 but for surface zonal wind vs  $\Delta$ SST.

9 Figure 4. Annual mean surface zonal wind averaged between 5oN-15oN (solid line and  
10 dotted line) and 5oS-15oS (dashed line and dash-dotted line).

11 Figure 5. Same as Figure 1 but for surface wind speed vs  $\Delta$ SST.

12 Figure 6. Same as Figure 1 but for LHF vs  $\Delta$ SST.

13 Figure 7. Linear regression versus interhemispheric SST difference ( $\Delta$ SST) for (a) 5oN-  
14 15oN and (b) 5oS-15oS averaged surface saturation humidity (solid line), surface air  
15 humidity (dotted line) and sea-air humidity difference (dashed line). The diamonds (for  
16 solid lines), triangles (for dotted lines) and squares (for dashed lines) denote that the  
17 corresponding linear correlation is above the 95% confidence level.

18 Figure 8. Annual mean (a) air-sea humidity difference and (b) surface wind speed  
19 averaged between 5oN-15oN (solid lines) and 5oS-15oS (dashed lines).

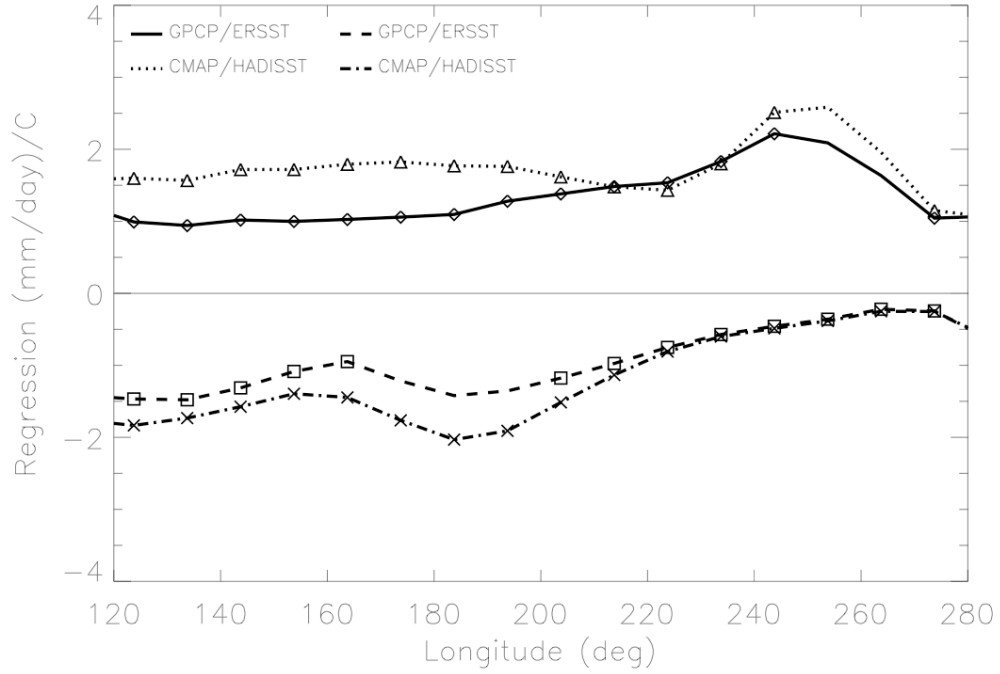


Figure 1. Linear regression of monthly data for 5°N-15°N (solid line and dotted line) and 5°S-15°S (dashed line and dash-dotted line) averaged precipitation vs interhemispheric SST difference ( $\Delta$ SST). The diamonds (for solid line), triangles (for dotted line), squares (for dashed line) and crosses (for dash-dotted line) denote that the corresponding linear correlation is above the 95% confidence level.

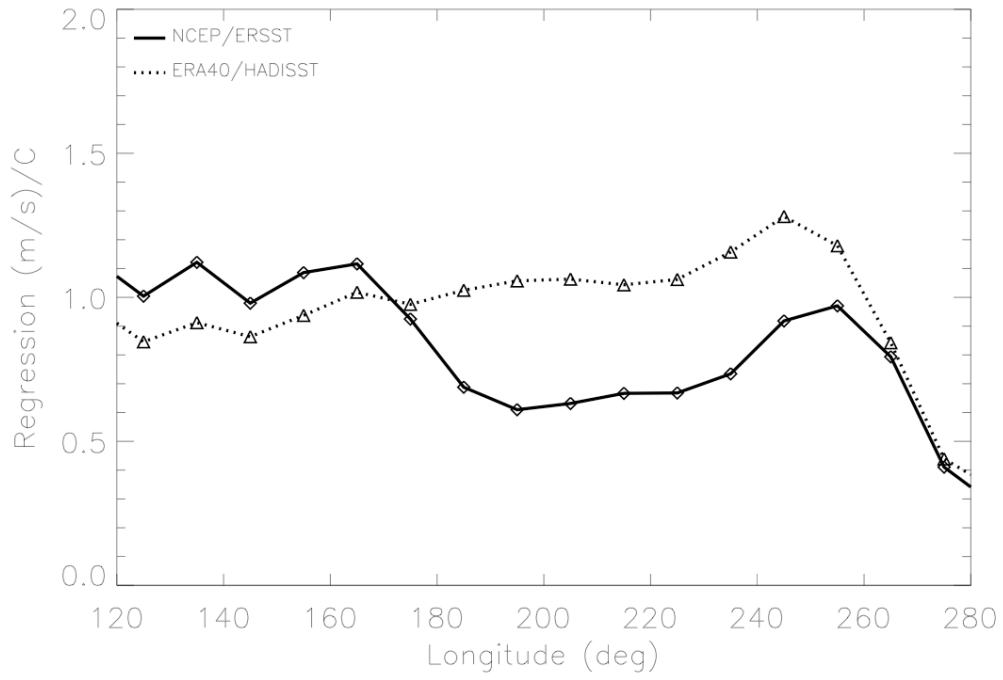


Figure 2. Same as Figure 1 but for 5°N-5°S averaged surface meridional wind vs  $\Delta$ SST.



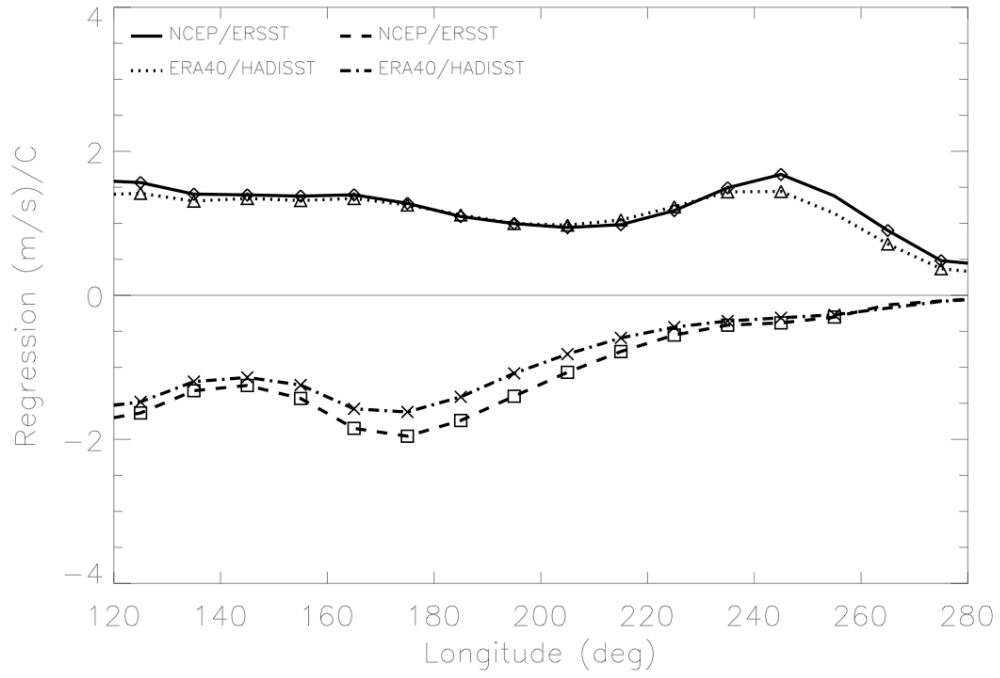


Figure 3. Same as Figure 1 but for surface zonal wind vs  $\Delta$ SST.

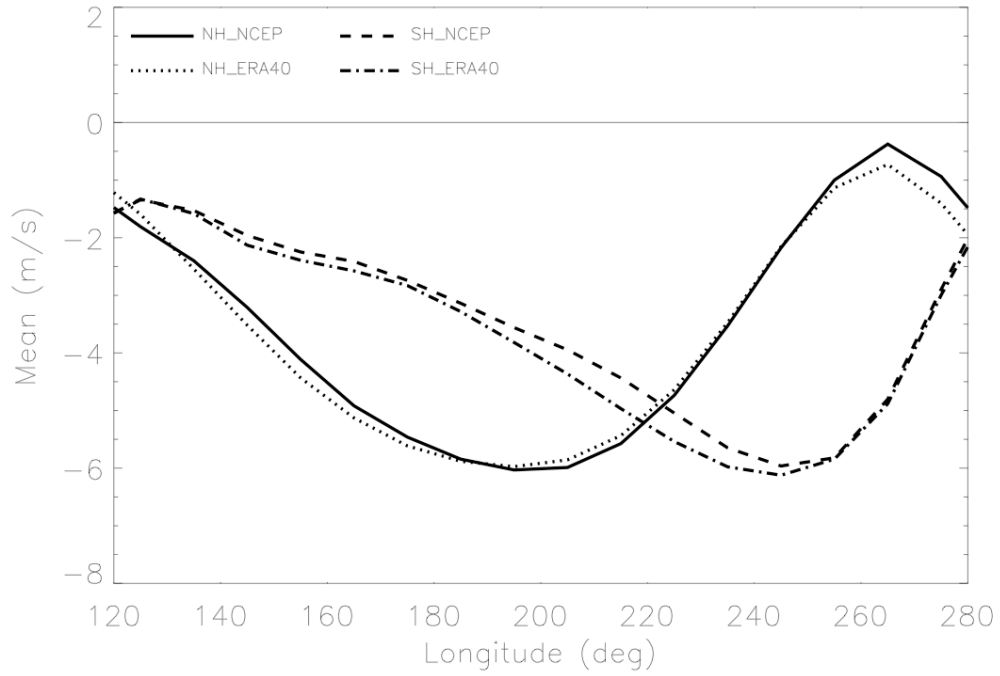


Figure 4. Annual mean surface zonal wind averaged between 5°N-15°N (solid line and dotted line) and 5°S-15°S (dashed line and dash-dotted line).

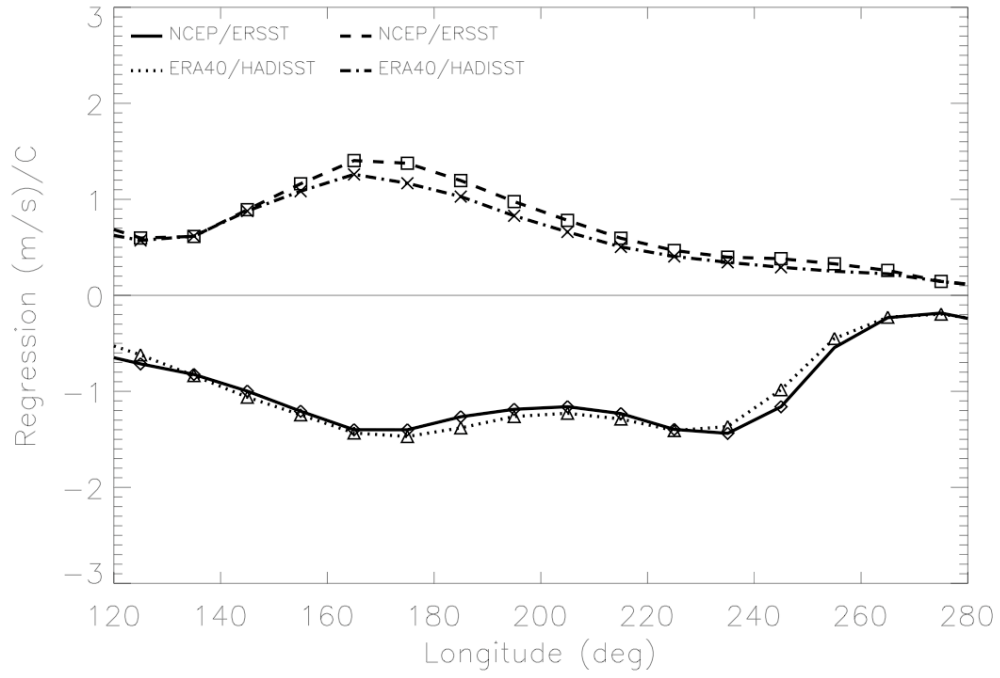


Figure 5. Same as Figure 1 but for surface wind speed vs  $\Delta$ SST.

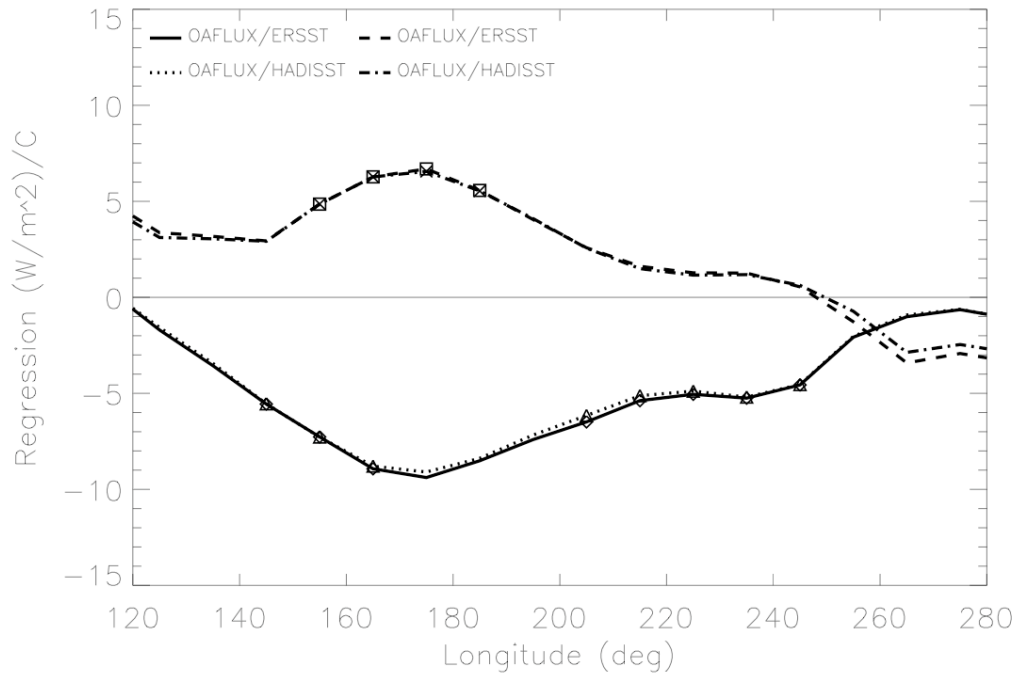


Figure 6. Same as Figure 1 but for LHF vs  $\Delta$ SST.

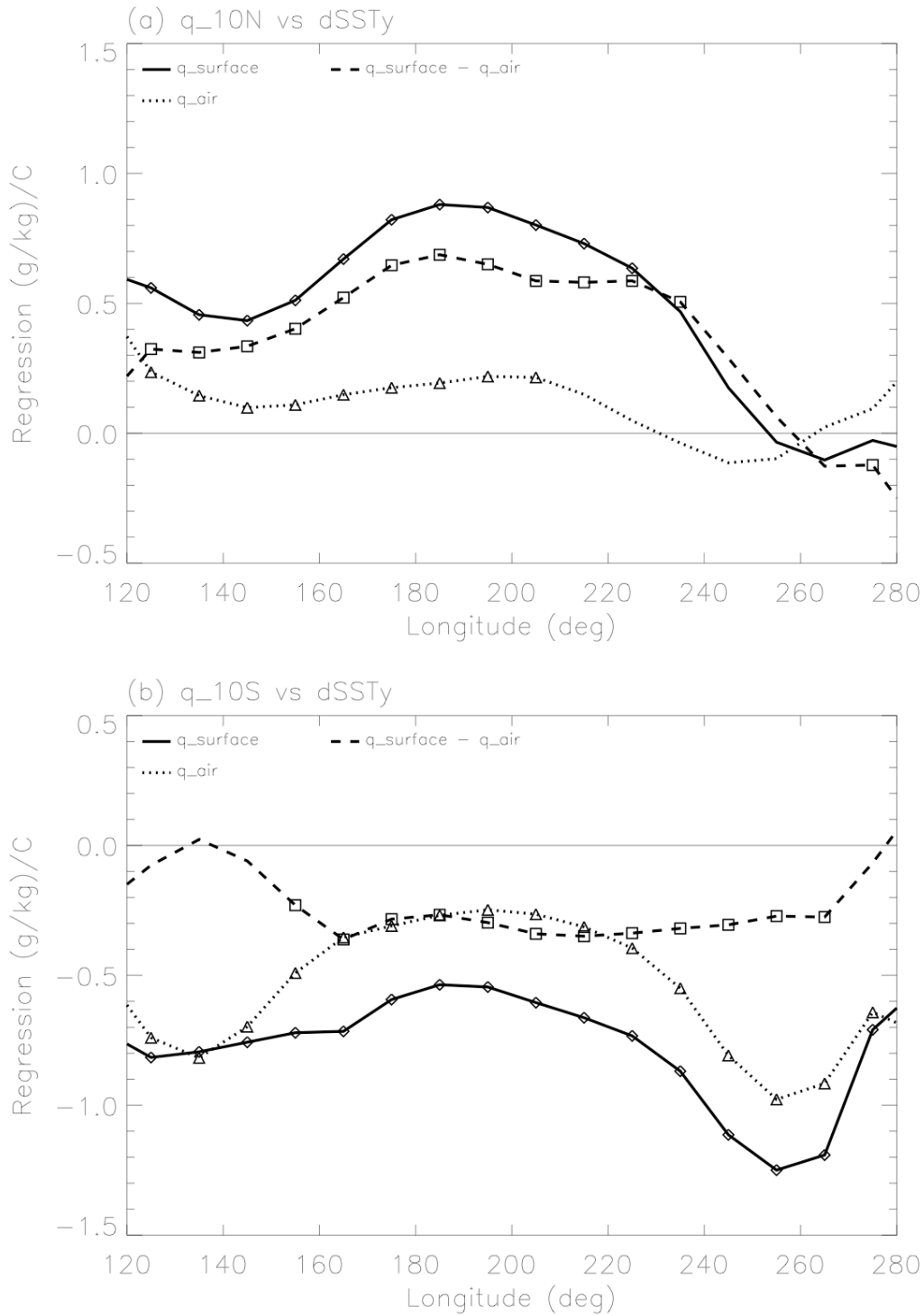


Figure 7. Linear regression versus interhemispheric SST difference ( $\Delta SST$ ) for (a)  $5^{\circ}N$ - $15^{\circ}N$  and (b)  $5^{\circ}S$ - $15^{\circ}S$  averaged surface saturation humidity (solid line), surface air humidity (dotted line) and sea-air humidity difference (dashed line). The diamonds (for solid lines), triangles (for dotted lines) and squares (for dashed lines) denote that the corresponding linear correlation is above the 95% confidence level.

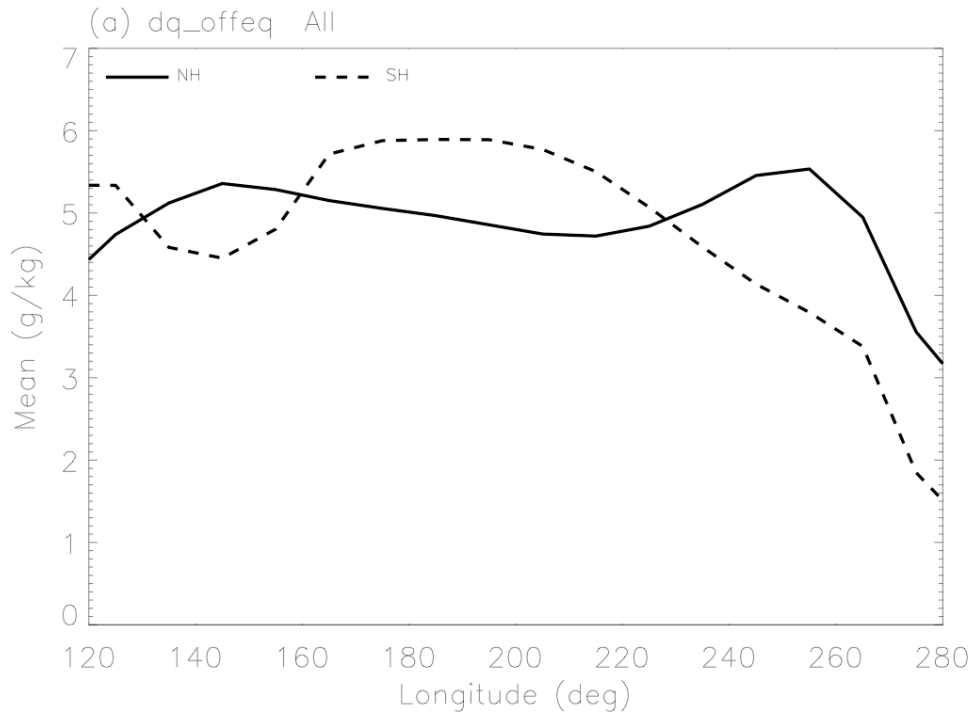


Figure 8. Annual mean (a) air-sea humidity difference and (b) surface wind speed averaged between 5°N-15°N (solid lines) and 5°S-15°S (dashed lines).