



1 **Impact of intraseasonal wind bursts on SST variability in the**
2 **far eastern Tropical Atlantic Ocean during boreal spring**
3 **2005 and 2006. Focus on the mid-May 2005 event.**

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8

9 **Abstract.** The impact of spring intraseasonal wind bursts on sea surface temperature variability in the eastern
10 Tropical Atlantic Ocean in 2005 and 2006 is investigated using numerical simulation and observations. We
11 specially focus on the few documented coastal region east of 5° E and between the equator and 7° S. For both
12 years, the southerly winds strengthening induced cooling events through i) upwelling processes; ii) vertical
13 mixing due to vertical shear of zonal current; and for some particular events iii) a decrease of incoming surface
14 shortwave radiation. The strength of the cooling events was modulated by subsurface conditions affected by the
15 arrival of Kelvin waves from the west influencing the depth of the thermocline. Once impinging the eastern
16 boundary, the Kelvin waves excited westward-propagating Rossby waves which, combined with the effect of
17 enhanced westward surface currents, contributed to the westward extension of the cold water. A particularly
18 strong wind event occurred in mid-May 2005 and caused an anomalous strong cooling off Cape-Lopez and in
19 the whole eastern Tropical Atlantic Ocean. From the analysis of oceanic and atmospheric conditions during this
20 particular event, it appears that anomalous strong spring wind strengthening associated to anomalous strong
21 Hadley cell activity made the event as a decisive event which prematurely triggered the rainfall coastal onset in
22 the northern Gulf of Guinea. Results show that no similar atmospheric conditions were observed over the 1998-
23 2008 period. It is also found that the anomalous oceanic and atmospheric conditions associated to the event
24 exerted strong influence on rainfall off Northeast Brazil. This study highlights the different processes through
25 which the wind power from South Atlantic is brought to the ocean in the Gulf of Guinea and emphasizes the
26 need to further document and monitor the South Atlantic region.

27

28 **1.Introduction**

29 The eastern equatorial Atlantic Ocean shows a pronounced seasonal cycle in sea surface temperature (SST)
30 (Wauthy, 1983; Mitchell and Wallace, 1992). One strong signature on the SST seasonal cycle in the eastern
31 equatorial Atlantic is the Atlantic cold tongue (ACT) (Zebiak, 1993) characterized by a fast drop of SST (up to
32 7° C) in boreal spring and summer slightly south of the equator and east of 20°W (Merle, 1980; Picaut, 1983).
33 During boreal summer, the southern boundary of this cooler temperature connects progressively with the austral



34 winter cooling of the Southern hemisphere SSTs. A number of observational (Merle, 1980; Foltz et al., 2003)
35 and modeling (Philander and Pacanowski, 1986; Yu et al., 2006; Peter et al., 2006) studies show that the
36 development of the ACT is driven by the seasonal increase of the Southern Hemisphere trade winds during late
37 boreal winter to early summer (Brandt et al., 2011) associated to the meridional displacement of the Inter-
38 Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) (Picaut, 1983; Colin, 1989; Waliser and Gautier, 1993; Nobre and Shukla,
39 1996). The equatorial cooling would be regulated by a coupling between thermocline shoaling, subsurface
40 dynamics (Yu et al., 2006; Peter et al., 2006; Wade et al., 2011; Jouanno et al., 2011) including turbulent
41 mixing, vertical advection and entrainment, as well as horizontal advection. The equatorial thermocline shoaling
42 is the consequence of local and remote wind forcing: the strengthening of easterly winds in the western
43 equatorial Atlantic remotely forces the seasonal upwelling in the eastern part of the basin via equatorial Kelvin
44 waves (Moore et al., 1978; Adamec and O'Brien, 1978; Busalacchi and Picaut, 1983; McCreary et al., 1984).

45 Besides the dominant seasonal cycle, the eastern tropical Atlantic is under the influence of meridional southerly
46 winds (Picaut, 1984) which fluctuate with a period close to 15 days (Krishnamurti, 1980; de Coëtlogon et al.,
47 2010; Jouanno et al., 2013). These intraseasonal wind fluctuations are therefore expected to be a major
48 contributor to the seasonal SST cooling and their fluctuations occur as a vector of energy and momentum from
49 the South Atlantic to the eastern equatorial Atlantic. A connection between the strength of the St. Helena
50 Anticyclone and SST anomalies in the southeastern tropical Atlantic has been described by Lübbecke et al.
51 (2014). These authors suggest that the St. Helena Anticyclone variability might be an importance source of
52 anomalous tropical Atlantic wind power which affects SST in the eastern equatorial Atlantic via several
53 mechanisms: zonal wind stress changes in the western equatorial basin, wave adjustment, meridional advection
54 of subsurface temperature anomalies, intraseasonal wind stress variations, and possibly even other mechanisms.
55 Through the in situ data analysis of AMMA/EGEE cruises (Redelsperger et al., 2006; Bourlès et al., 2007)
56 carried out in 2005 and 2006, Marin et al. (2009) show that the SST seasonal cooling at the equator east of 10°
57 W is not smooth but results from the succession of short-duration cooling events generated by southeasterly
58 wind bursts due to the fluctuating St. Helena Anticyclone. In addition, according to Leduc-Leballeur et al.
59 (2013), the sharp and durable change in the atmospheric circulation in the northern Gulf of Guinea (durably
60 strong southerlies north of equator) takes place through an abrupt seasonal transition prepared by a succession of
61 southerly wind bursts and possibly triggered by a significantly stronger wind burst. The southerly wind bursts
62 occurring in spring in the Gulf of Guinea thus would play an important role in driving precipitation pattern in
63 the area through air-sea interactions (de Coëtlogon et al., 2010; Nicholson and Dezfuli, 2013) and coupling
64 between the ACT and the West Africa Monsoon (WAM).

65 Improving our understanding of the impact of such wind bursts on SST variability at intraseasonal scale in the
66 eastern Tropical Atlantic is important through its link with the regional climate. However, while the ACT and
67 Angola-Benguela regions have been the object of many studies, the dynamics and SST variability of the coastal
68 eastern region is much less documented.



69 In this study, we therefore first focus our analysis off Cape-Lopez (defined from 0° N-7° S; 5° E-14° E and
70 hereafter called CLR for ‘Cape-Lopez region’) and aim to improve understanding of its seasonal SST variability
71 and the impact of intraseasonal winds on SST variability during spring and summer. To this end, we use
72 regional high resolution model results as well as satellite SST data and sea surface height observations. We first
73 use model outputs from 1998 to 2008 to analyze the seasonal cycle in CLR and to highlight its interannual
74 variability, and then we specially focus on the years 2005 and 2006 to investigate the SST response of
75 intraseasonal wind forcing. These two particular years were largely investigated during the African Monsoon
76 Multidisciplinary Analyses (AMMA) experiment (Redelsperger et al., 2006). The year 2005 is characterized by
77 the lowest SST values in the ACT during the past 3 decades (along with 1982), while 2006 is considered as a
78 normal year (Caniaux et al., 2011). Also, 2005 exhibits the earliest development of the ACT. The study of SST
79 variability at intraseasonal scale during these two years is thus interesting for better understanding their
80 observed differences in SST seasonal conditions. These two particular years have been also chosen by Marin et
81 al. (2009) to study the variability of the properties of the ACT. Their study concerned the equatorial area west of
82 4° E, whereas we propose to focus in CLR, east of 5° E where coastal processes are expected to be involved.

83 Most studies on CLR focused on the analysis of observational dataset to examine the hydrology and its seasonal
84 variation along the frontal (coastal) region of Congo (e.g. Merle, 1972; Piton, 1988) or on the impact of Congo
85 River on SST and mixed layer (e.g. Materia et al., 2012; Denamiel et al., 2013; White and Toumi, 2014) but, to
86 our knowledge, no detailed analysis of SST variability at seasonal and intraseasonal time scales have been
87 realized. A better understanding of ocean-atmosphere interactions in this region is thus needed. Some previous
88 studies related to the whole eastern Tropical Atlantic (Gulf of Guinea) suggest that multiplicity of processes
89 could be in play in CLR, coupling remote and local forcing, and combined with the very low thermal inertia of
90 the mixed layer depth. For example, Giordani et al. (2013) show from regional model results that horizontal
91 advection, entrainment, and turbulent mixing significantly contribute to the heat budget east of 3°W because of
92 the very thin mixed layer. The upper layers of the north CLR might also be impacted by vertical mixing induced
93 by the intense current vertical shear between the South Equatorial Current, flowing westward at the surface, and
94 the subsurface eastward Equatorial Under-Current. In addition to local forcing, the area is also under the
95 influence of the arrival of equatorial Kelvin waves from West and their reflection, once reaching the African
96 coast, poleward as coastally trapped waves and westward as Rossby waves (Moore, 1968; McCreary, 1976;
97 Moore and Philander, 1977). The principal source of the equatorial Kelvin waves has been usually related to the
98 western equatorial zonal wind changes during late boreal winter to early summer (e.g.; Philander, 1990). In
99 order to better understand the triggered mechanism of Kelvin waves generation which conditions the mixed
100 layer properties in the CLR, another purpose of this study is thus to identify the atmospheric conditions
101 coinciding with the Kelvin waves generation in the West of the basin during winter 2005 and 2006.

102 Several studies (e.g. Okumura and Xie, 2004; Caniaux et al., 2011; Nguyen et al., 2011; Thorncroft et al., 2011)
103 put into evidence a high correlation between the ACT and the WAM onset in the Sahelian region. Based on an
104 analysis of 27 years of data, Caniaux et al. (2011) identified the year 2005 as the year with the earliest WAM



105 onset date (around 19 May 2005 whereas they define the mean onset date on 23 June \pm 8 days). According to
106 Marin et al. (2009), the time shift in the development of the ACT between 2005 and 2006 is related to a
107 particular wind burst event in mid-May 2005. This mid-May 2005 event therefore appears as exerting a strong
108 influence on the WAM. In a second part of the study, we thus focus on this particular wind event that preceded a
109 strong cold event in the far eastern Tropical Atlantic along with an early ACT development. We aim to describe
110 i) the atmospheric and oceanic conditions during this particular event; ii) to what extent it is involved in the
111 WAM system; and iii) which processes make it an exceptional event.

112 The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In Sect. 2, the model and observational data used in this
113 study are described. The seasonal and interannual variability of SST, winds, currents, 20° C-isotherm depth and
114 sea surface heat flux in the CLR are analyzed in Sect. 3. The cooling events generated in response to southerly
115 wind bursts and the other forcing mechanisms implied in the CLR are investigated in details for the years 2005
116 and 2006 in Sect. 4. In Sect. 5, we focus our analysis on the unusual wind burst occurring in mid-May 2005.
117 Finally, the main results are summarized and discussed in Sect. 6.

118

119 **2. Model and data**

120 The numerical model used in this paper is the Regional Oceanic Modeling System (ROMS) (Shchepetkin and
121 McWilliams, 2005). The model configuration is the same as employed in Herbert et al. (2016), and the
122 following text is derived from there with minor modifications.

123 ROMS is a three-dimensional free surface, split-explicit ocean model which solves the Navier-Stokes primitive
124 equations following the Boussinesq and hydrostatic approximations. We used the ROMS version developed at
125 the Institut de Recherche pour le Développement (IRD) featuring a two-way nesting capability based on AGRIF
126 (Adaptive Grid Refinement In Fortran) (Debreu et al., 2012). The two-way capability allows interactions
127 between a large-scale (parent) configuration at lower resolution and a regional (child) configuration at high
128 resolution. The ROMSTOOLS package (Penven et al., 2008) is used for the design of the configuration. The
129 model configuration is built following the one performed by Djakouré et al. (2014) over the Tropical Atlantic.
130 The large scale domain extends from 60° W to 15.3° E and from 17° S to 8° N and the nested high resolution
131 zoom focuses between 17° S and 6.6° N and between 10° W and 14.1° E domain. This configuration allows for
132 equatorial Kelvin waves induced by trade wind variations in the western part of the basin to propagate into the
133 Gulf of Guinea and influence the coastal upwelling (Servain et al., 1982; Picaut, 1983). The horizontal grid
134 resolution is 1/5° (i.e. 22 km) for the parent grid and 1/15° (i.e. 7 km) for the child grid (see Herbert et al.
135 (2016), their Fig. 1). This allows an accurate resolution of the mesoscale dynamics since the first baroclinic
136 Rossby radius of deformation ranges from 150 to 230 km in the region (Chelton et al., 1998). The vertical
137 coordinate is discretized into 45 sigma levels with vertical S-coordinate surface and bottom stretching
138 parameters set respectively to $\theta_s = 6$ and $\theta_b = 0$, to keep a sufficient resolution near the surface
139 (Haidvogel and Beckmann, 1999). The vertical S-coordinate H_c parameter, which gives approximately the
140 transition depth between the horizontal surface levels and the bottom terrain following levels, is set to $H_c = 10$



141 m. The GEBCO1 (Global Earth Bathymetric Chart of the Oceans) is used for the topography (www.gebco.net).
142 The runoff forcing is provided from Dai and Trenberth's global monthly climatological run-off data set (Dai and
143 Trenberth, 2002). The rivers properties of salinity and temperature are prescribed as annual mean values. One
144 river (Amazon) is prescribed in the parent model while five rivers, that correspond to the major rivers present
145 around the Gulf of Guinea, are prescribed in the child model (Congo, Niger, Ogoou, Sanaga, Volta). At the
146 surface, the model is forced with the surface heat and freshwater fluxes as well as 6 hourly wind stress derived
147 from the Climate Forecast System Reanalysis (CFSR) (horizontal resolution of $\frac{1}{4}^{\circ} \times \frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$) (Saha et al., 2010). Our
148 model has three open boundaries (North, South, and West) forced by temperature and salinity fields from the
149 Simple Ocean Data Analyses (SODA) (horizontal resolution of $\frac{1}{2}^{\circ} \times \frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$) (Carton et al., 2000a, 2000b; Carton
150 and Giese, 2008). The simulation has been performed on IFREMER Caparmor super-computer and integrated
151 for 30 years from 1979 to 2008 with the outputs averaged every 2 days. A statistical equilibrium is reached after
152 ~10 years of spin-up. Model analyses are based on the 2-days averaged model outputs from year 1998 to year
153 2008. The model has already been validated successfully with a large set of measurements and climatological
154 data, and more detailed information about the model validations can be found in Herbert et al. (2016).

155

156 For SST observations, we use data obtained from measurements made by the Tropical Rainfall Measuring
157 Mission microwave imager (TMI). The dataset is a merged product available at www.remss.com. The SST data
158 have a spatial resolution of $\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$ and for the present study the 10 years' time series, from 1 January 1998 to 31
159 December 2008, obtained as 3-daily field. The important feature of the microwave retrievals is that it can give
160 accurate SST measurements under clouds (Wentz et al., 2000). However, the major limitation to the microwave
161 TMI observations is land contamination which results in biases of the order of 0.6°K within about 100 km from
162 the coast (Gentemann et al., 2010). Thus, in the Optimal Interpolation TMI product the offshore zone with no
163 data extends at approximately 100 km from the coast. This limits to some degree the analysis of near-coastal
164 regions, in particular those dominated by coastal upwelling dynamics.

165 We also use for this study daily sea surface height (SSH) data, which are available for the period 1993–2012 and
166 maintained by the organization for Archiving, Validation, and Interpretation of Satellite Oceanographic data
167 (AVISO; www.aviso.altimetry.fr). The sea surface height dataset is a merged product of observations from
168 several satellite missions Ssalto/Duacs (Segment Sol multimissions d'ALTimétrie, d'Orbitographie et de
169 localisation précise/Developing Use of Altimetry for Climate Studies) mapped onto a 0.25° Mercator projection
170 grid. All standard corrections have been made to account for atmospheric (wet troposphere, dry troposphere and
171 ionosphere delays) and oceanographic (electromagnetic bias, ocean, load, solid Earth and pole tides) effects.
172 The mean sea surface topography for the period 1993–2012 was removed from the SSH to produce sea surface
173 height anomalies.

174 In addition, surface pressure data were studied using ECMWF Atmospheric Reanalysis (ERA) for the 20th
175 Century product. The four-hourly data are daily averaged and is available on <https://rda.ucar.edu> website. The
176 product assimilates surface pressure and marine wind observations.



177

178 **3. Seasonal variability of surface conditions in CLR**

179 The purpose of this section is to describe the seasonal atmospheric and ocean surface conditions in the CLR.

180 The seasonal variability of SST, surface winds stress, horizontal current intensity, depth of 20° C-isotherm
181 (hereafter referred to as z20), and the surface net heat flux from monthly averaged model outputs in the CLR for
182 each year from 1998 to 2008 and averaged over the period are shown on Fig. 1. The reliability of the model is
183 also provided by comparing the simulated and the corresponding TMI SST climatological seasonal cycle in the
184 CLR (Fig. 1a). The SST variations display an annual cycle with highest temperature in boreal winter (warm
185 season), when the ITCZ reaches its southernmost position and the trade winds are weakest, and minimum values
186 in boreal summer (cold season), when the trades intensify. The most salient features of the atmospheric and
187 hydrographic fields during May-June are also illustrated on Fig. 1 by May-June averaged maps. Despite a warm
188 bias (~1° C) compared to satellite observations, well known in the eastern tropical Atlantic region (e.g. Zeng et
189 al., 1996; Davey et al., 2002; Deser et al., 2006; Chang et al., 2007; Richter and Xie, 2008), the model pretty
190 well reproduces the satellite SST pattern. The SST May-June average map indicates that the boreal summer SST
191 minimum is related with intensified cool SST around 6°S, in the Congo mouth region. In this region, the coast is
192 oriented parallel to the trade flow which reinforces in boreal summer, thus favorable to coastal upwelling
193 processes. The mean alongshore wind stress during May-June reveals in fact that upwelling conditions are
194 observed over most of the CLR. Wind stress magnitude exhibits a semi-annual variability with a second
195 maximum in October–December and a weakening during July-September season (Fig. 1b). The strengthening of
196 winds in spring is associated with a strengthening of mean current speed, particularly off Cape-Lopez between
197 2° S to 4° S and west of 8° E in May-June (Fig. 1c). The orientation of surface current is mostly westward for
198 the May-June season, while it is northward from October to January (not shown). This general picture of surface
199 circulation is consistent with observations (Merle, 1972; Piton, 1988; Rouault et al., 2009).

200 The region is also characterized by a shallow thermocline which depicts a strong semi-annual cycle (Fig. 1d).
201 The evolution of z20 reveals a thinning of the thermocline during May-July and a thickening up to October-
202 November when it exhibits a minimum.

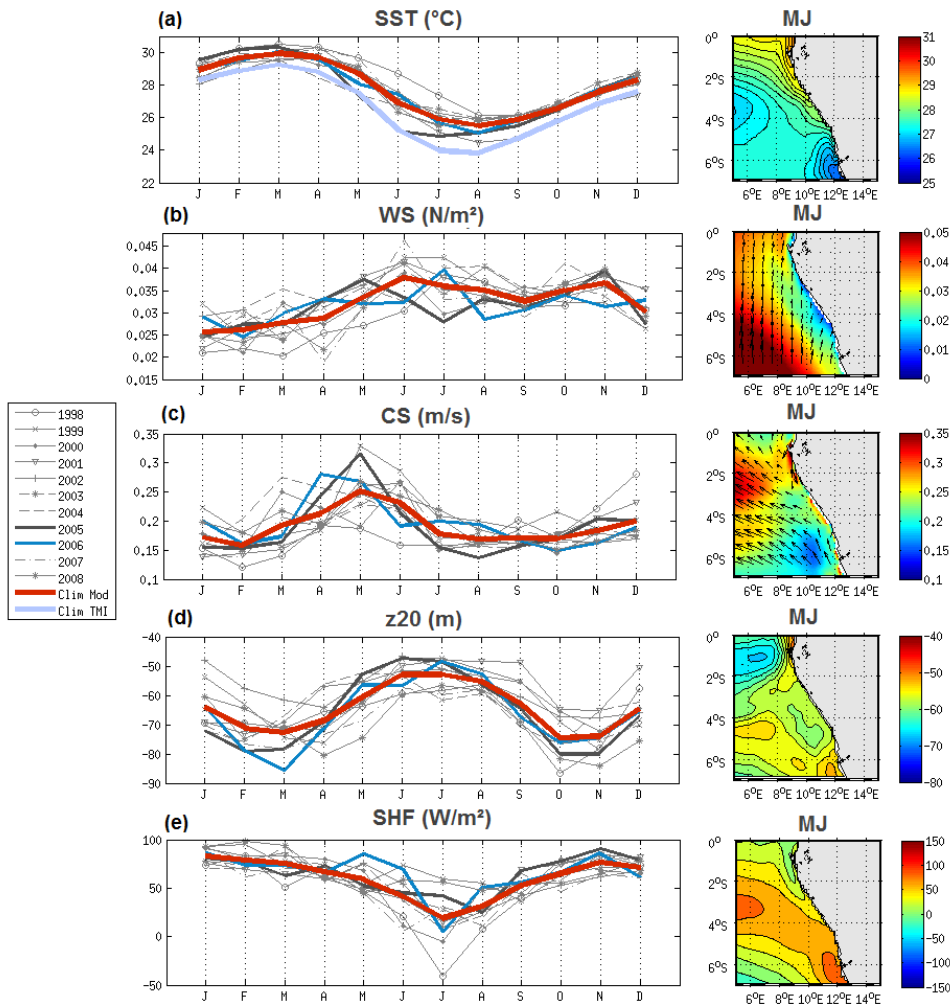
203 The surface net heat flux exhibits a maximum in winter and a minimum in July (Fig. 1e), following the seasonal
204 cycle of solar shortwave radiations. As visible on the May-June average map, greater heating is found over cool
205 waters, due to weaker heat loss via latent heat flux in these areas.

206 The seasonal cycle is modulated by strong year-to-year variations. The mean SST in the CLR in 2005 cools as
207 early as March from TMI data and April from the model data. SST reaches weaker values than the climatologic
208 ones, as observed by Marin et al. (2009) and Caniaux et al. (2011) west of 4° E. This 2005 cold anomaly is
209 associated with positive wind speed and surface current speed anomaly in April-May (Fig. 1b&c) as well as
210 shallower-than-average thermocline depth. In 2006, SST variations are very close to the climatologic ones.

211



212 Thus, the April-June season in the CLR appears as a transitional period characterized by strong seasonal
 213 evolution, primarily governed by the local winds which generate coastal upwelling in Congo mouth region and
 214 modulated by the variation of thermocline depth.



215
 216 **Figure 1:** Monthly average of the (a) sea surface temperature (°C); (b) wind stress magnitude ($\text{N}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$); (c)
 217 horizontal current speed ($\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$); (d) 20°C -isotherm depth anomalies (m); and (e) surface heat flux ($\text{W}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$) from
 218 January to December from 1998 to 2008 and for the climatology (averaged over 1998-2008) simulated by the
 219 model (red curve) and from the observations : monthly average TMI 3-daily SST data (light blue curve in (a));
 220 averaged over 5°E - 14°E and 7°S - 0°S . Right panel: maps of each variable over May-June. For the wind and
 221 the surface current, the color field shows the wind stress magnitude and the current speed respectively.



222

223 **4. Analyze of cooling events in CLR in 2005 and 2006**

224 In this section, we examine the impact of intraseasonal wind bursts on SST in CLR during the particular years
225 2005 and 2006 (Marin et al., 2009; Caniaux et al., 2011). We propose here to analyze in details the SST
226 conditions in CLR, east of 5° E, for both years.

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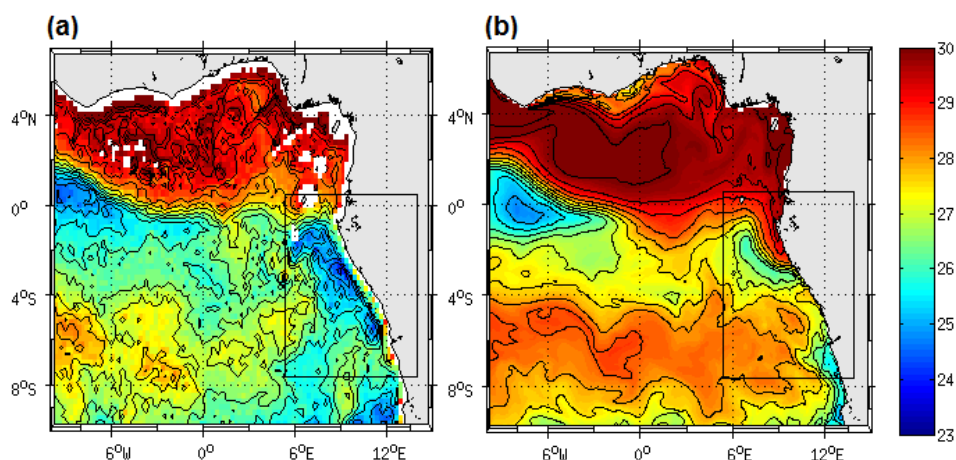
229 **4.1 SST variations**

230 In order to delineate the sequence of cooling events, we analyze the SST variations from 2-days averaged model
231 outputs in 2005 and 2006 over the CLR, i.e. between 5° E and 12° E (Fig. 3a&4a). In 2005, the intraseasonal
232 cooling events took place on 22-24 April, 8-12 May, 16-20 May, 26-30 May, 12-16 June and 30 June-2 July,
233 with a temperature drop ranging between -0.2°C to -1.7°C. The cooling events occurred east of 5° E from May
234 to September. They concerned especially the southern equatorial region (around ~3-4° S), except for the
235 strongest events where they reached more northern equatorial regions, especially for the mid-May and late-May
236 2005 events. These latter were associated with an intense meridional SST front between the cold water south of
237 the equator and the warmer water north of the equator, as visible on SST map for 12 May 2005 presented on
238 Fig. 2. We can see cold waters extending along the eastern coast and in ACT region west of 5° W. In the model,
239 cold waters are deflected offshore off Cape-Lopez, due to recursive bias in warm water intrusion toward the
240 south.

241 Besides, model SST fields (Fig. 3a) indicate that the SST minimum (~24° C) in 2005 was reached in July, i.e.
242 one month earlier than in 2006, as also noticed in seasonal variations of SST averaged in the region (Fig. 1a).
243 These results illustrate the important role in the CLR of the succession of quick and intense cooling events in the
244 establishment of persistent cold anomalies, as highlighted by Marin et al. (2009) in the equatorial region.

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246



247

248 **Figure 2:** Map of the sea surface temperature ($^{\circ}$ C) on 12 May 2005 from 3-days average TMI data (a) and from
249 the 2-days average model output (b). Note that for the model it corresponds to 11-12 May average whereas for
250 TMI data it is 10-11-12 May average. The black square indicates the Cape-Lopez region (called 'CLR').

251

252 4.2 Forcing mechanisms

253 4.2.1. Local forcing

254 To examine the local forcing mechanisms responsible for the observed cooling events in CLR, the intraseasonal
255 variations of wind stress magnitude anomalies are examined and compared in 2005 and 2006 (Fig. 3b & 4b).

256 In 2005, successive periods of 6-16 days wind intensification occurred from late-March to late-May. The main
257 cooling events described above are associated with positive wind stress speed anomalies occurring on 12-24
258 April, 2-6, 12-16 & 24-28 May, 8-12 & 28 June, with a maximum for the 12-16 May event peaking on 14 May
259 (at $\sim 0.03 \text{ N.m}^{-2}$). Another period of wind intensification is evidenced in late March – early April but it did not
260 generate significant cooling despite comparable or even higher wind intensity than following wind events. In
261 2006, periods of wind intensification were slightly shorter than in 2005 and extended from mid-March to mid-
262 May, interrupted by periods of negative wind anomalies. The main wind events occurred in 16-18 March, 2-4 &
263 16-24 April, 4-6 & 12-18 May, with maximum wind stress magnitude anomaly in 16-24 April. Also, the wind
264 event in late April 2006 did not generate a surface cooling as strong as the mid-May 2006 one, despite higher
265 wind stress magnitude anomalies. To depict the subsurface conditions during cooling events in CLR for both
266 years, anomalies of the 20° C-isotherm depth averaged from 5° E to 12° E are presented on Fig. 3c & 4c. They
267 indicate strong correlation with SST anomalies on intraseasonal time scale with maximum values (up to + 25 m)
268 observed during the 14 May 2005 event. In early April 2005 and before the late-April 2006, the thermocline was
269 deeper, that can explain why wind intensification did not generate a surface cooling at these times. Indeed, at the



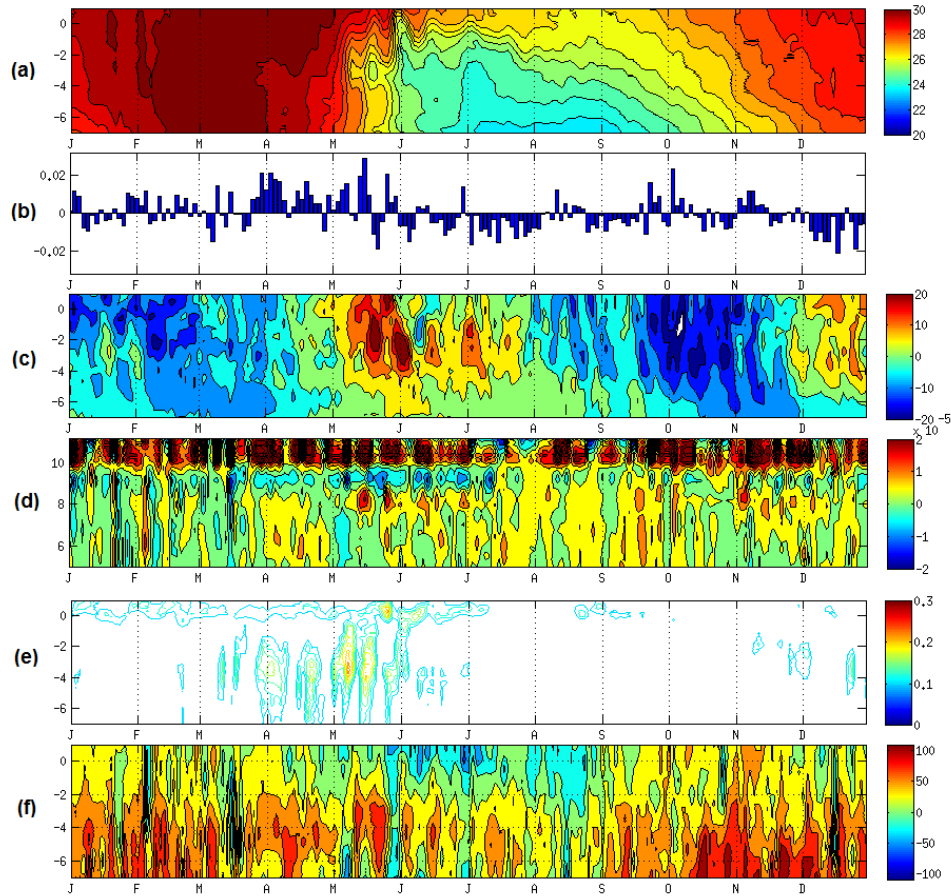
270 time of the strong 16-24 April 2006 wind event, the z20 anomalies was weaker south of the equator than during
271 the 14-16 May 2005 event, making the SST less reactive to comparable wind intensification. The same feature is
272 observed in early May 2006, when the z20 anomalies indicate deeper thermocline south of the equator around 4°
273 S than a few days later. Besides, the thermocline appeared shallower south of the equator in 2005 than in 2006,
274 in agreement with the difference of the cooling intensity observed between the two years.

275 The Ekman pumping velocity w_e averaged along 3-4° S is shown on Fig. 3d. It is correlated with wind intensity,
276 with maximum around 8°E at the dates of the 2005 and 2006 events, in agreement with the cooling events
277 identified mostly around 3-4°S (Fig. 3a & 4a). The maximum upward velocity sometimes extended west of 8°
278 E, as during April 2005 and June 2006 events.

279 Another process that may contribute to the cooling in the upper layer is the vertical mixing due to intense
280 vertical shear of the zonal current. The maximum of the zonal current vertical shear fields in CLR, averaged
281 between 5° and 12° E for 2005 and 2006 (Fig. 3e & 4e), exhibited intensification south of the equator, centered
282 around 3-4° S. Weaker intensification also occurred occasionally at the equator (located around 80 m depth
283 between the westward surface South Equatorial Current – SEC – and the eastward subsurface Equatorial Under-
284 Current). Around 3-4° S, the vertical shear was driven by the SEC, reinforced by prevailing southerly winds
285 events through Ekman transport. It thus occurred at the date of wind events previously identified for 2005 and
286 2006, with stronger vertical shear occurring in early May 2005. The intensity of the maximum of vertical shear
287 during the events was quite similar between 2005 and 2006. The main difference lied in their meridional extent,
288 related to the meridional extent of the strengthened southerly winds which reached equatorial region during the
289 May 2005 events (not shown). We can also notice that for comparable wind intensification, the spring and
290 summer wind events were not associated with comparable intensity of vertical shear. The meridional wind
291 component favorable to westward Ekman transport was actually stronger during April and May events than
292 during summer ones (not shown).

293 The heat content within the mixed layer is also impacted by the sea surface heat fluxes.
294 The net heat fluxes averaged between 5° E and 12° E are shown on Fig. 3f & 4f for 2005 and 2006 respectively.
295 They indicate a net heating ($\sim 50-100 \text{ W.m}^{-2}$) over the 2° S - 5° S latitude band, where the SST cooling was
296 strongest, suggesting other mechanisms involved. However, we notice some particular events during which the
297 net heat flux was negative over most of the region. The strongest net cooling (-30 W.m^{-2}) occurred during the
298 26-28 May 2005 event. It was mainly due to a sudden decrease of incoming surface short wave radiation (drop
299 of about 140 W.m^{-2} between 22 and 28 May; not shown) suggesting increased cloud cover.

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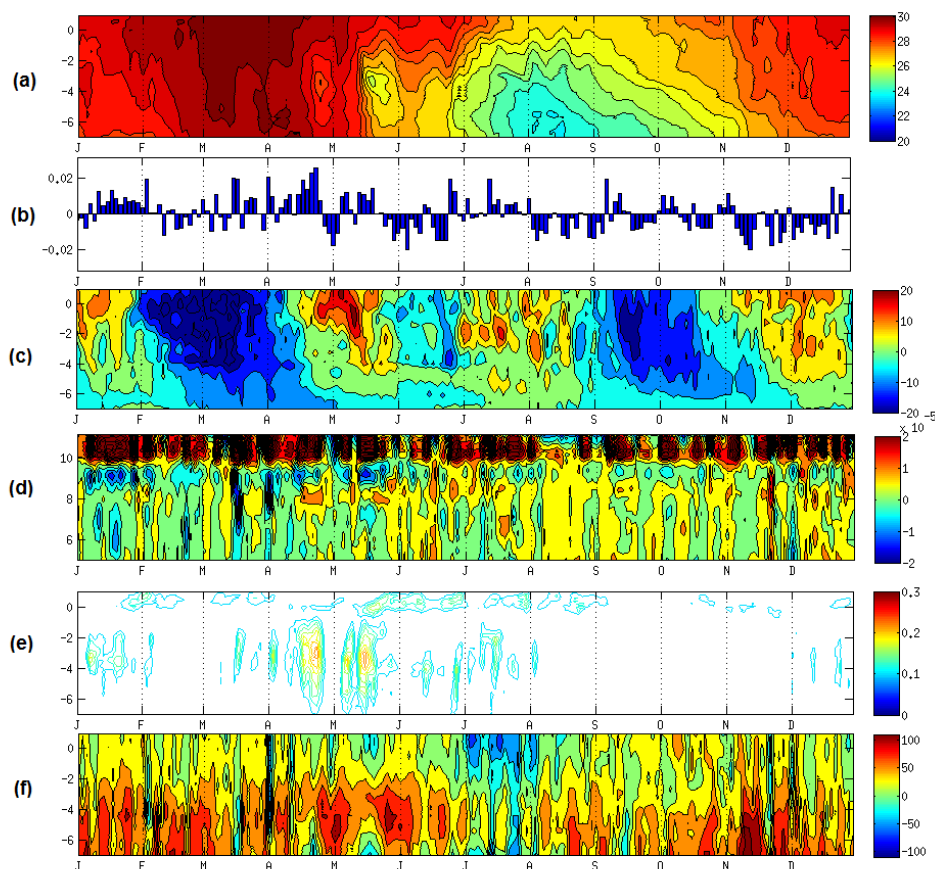
301

302 **Figure 3:** (a) Time-latitude diagram, from 7° S to 1° N, of the sea surface temperature (in ° C) averaged
303 between 5° E and 12° E; (b) Time evolution of the wind stress amplitude anomalies (N.m^{-2}) averaged between
304 5° E and 12° E and between 3° S and 0° S; (c) Latitude-time diagram of the 20° C-isotherm depth anomalies
305 (m) averaged between 5° E and 12° E; (d) Longitude-time diagram of Ekman Pumping anomalies (m.s^{-1})
306 averaged between 3° S and 4° S; (e) Latitude-time diagram of the maximum of the zonal current vertical shear
307 (m.s^{-1}) averaged between 5° E and 12° E (only the values $> 0.1\text{m.s}^{-1}$ are plotted) ; (f) Latitude-time diagram of
308 the net heat flux (W.m^{-2}) averaged between 5° E and 12° E; from 1st Jan. to 31 Dec. 2005.

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Figure 4: Same than Figure 3 but for 2006.

314

315 4.2.2. Remote forcing

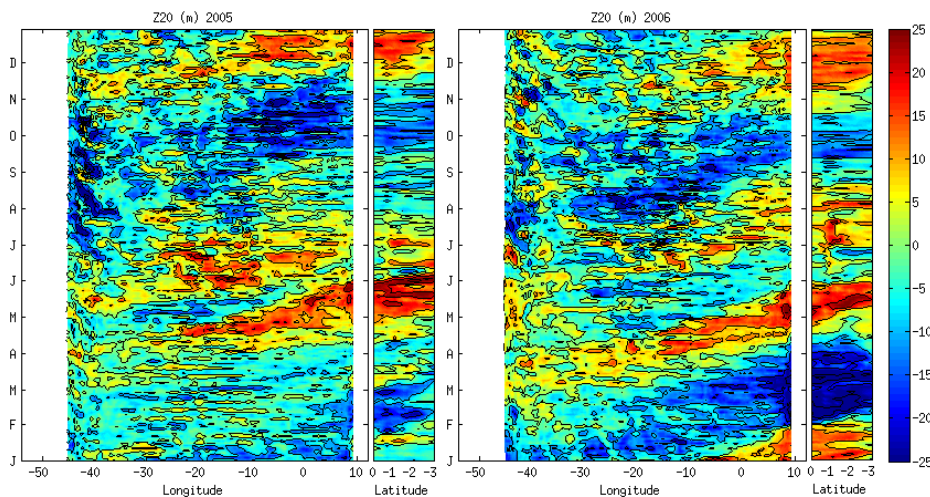
316 a. Highlighting of Kelvin wave propagation

317 As previously shown, the time of occurrence of the cold events in the CLR coincides with steeper thermocline
318 slope which allows a mixed layer temperature to be more reactive to surface forcing. Indeed, because of its
319 proximity to the equator, the thermocline in CLR is affected by the arrival of equatorial waves, initiated in the
320 west part of the basin. Pairs of alternate downwelling and upwelling Kelvin waves occur usually in February-
321 March, July-September and October-November. Upon impingement with the eastern boundary, the incoming
322 equatorial Kelvin wave excites westward-propagating Rossby waves and poleward-propagating coastal Kelvin
323 waves (Moore, 1968; Moore and Philander, 1977; Illig et al., 2004; Schouten et al., 2005; Polo et al., 2008). The



324 20° C-isotherm depth anomalies along the equator and along 9°E are presented on Fig. 5 and clearly evidence
325 large positive anomalies indicating shallower-than-average thermocline, propagating eastward along the equator
326 and then southeastward for both years. The eastward propagation of Kelvin wave along the equator and
327 southeastward along the coast is also well visible in the basin-wide SSH anomalies (Fig. 6) with a phase
328 velocity of about 1.1-1.3m.s⁻¹, which fits well in the range between the second and third baroclinic equatorial
329 Kelvin wave modes. The upwelling wave is in fact detectable by negative SSH anomalies, associated with
330 shallower-than-average thermocline. In 2005, negative (positive) SSH (z20) anomalies occurred in the West in
331 early April and in mid-May, whereas they occurred around late-March and early May in 2006. The first Kelvin
332 wave thus reached the CLR slightly earlier in 2006 than 2005, at the beginning of May.

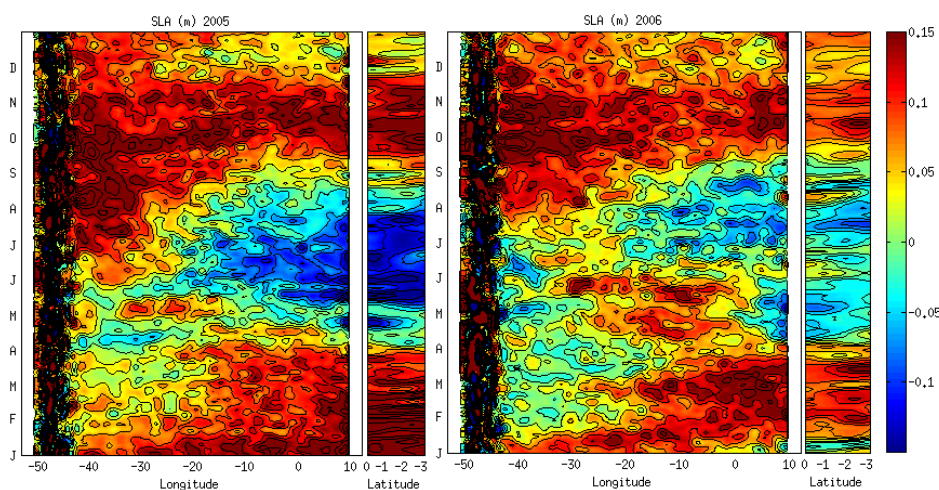
333 Thus, the intensity of the cold events observed in spring and summer 2005 and 2006 resulted from both the
334 basin preconditioning by remotely forced shoaling of the thermocline, local mixing and upwelling processes in
335 response to strong southerly local winds, as well as heat flux variations. In 2005, stronger wind intensification
336 and favorably preconditioned oceanic subsurface conditions, made the coupling between surface and subsurface
337 ocean processes more efficient than in 2006, resulting in stronger cooling.
338



339

340 **Figure 5:** Time evolution of the 20° C-isotherm depth anomalies (m) along the equator (between 54° W and 12°
341 E) and along 9° E (between the equator and 3° S) for 2005 (left) and 2006 (right).

342



343

344 **Figure 6:** Time evolution of the sea level anomaly (m) along the equator (between 54° W and 12° E) and along
345 9° E (between the equator and 3° S) for 2005 (left), and 2006 (right) from AVISO data.

346

347 **b. Kelvin wave generation and coinciding atmospheric conditions in the West**

348 In order to identify the wind activity which accompanies the excitation of Kelvin upwelling waves in winter
349 2005 and 2006 in the west part of the basin, we analyze the position of the ITCZ (averaged over 50° W-35° W)
350 identified as the latitude where the meridional wind stress goes to zero (Fig. 7a). The anomaly of zonal and
351 meridional components of the wind stress (Fig. 7b&c), the wind stress curl anomaly (Fig. 7d), as well as the z20
352 and SSH anomalies (Fig. 7e&f), averaged in the equatorial band (over 1° S and 1° N), are also presented. For
353 the zonal wind stress, the frequencies > 1 month are removed by a low-pass filtering and superimposed with the
354 anomalies (red curve on Fig. 7c). Many authors suggest that the source of the equatorial Kelvin wave is mainly
355 related to a sudden change of the western equatorial zonal wind (e.g. Picaut, 1983; Philander, 1990): a
356 symmetric westerly (easterly) wind burst along the equator will generate Ekman convergence (divergence) and
357 thus force downwelling (upwelling) anomalies which then propagate eastward as a Kelvin wave (Battisti, 1988;
358 Giese and Harrison, 1990). In 2005, shallower-than-average thermocline, evidenced by positive (negative) z20
359 (SSH) anomalies, occurred in the end of March-beginning of April in the west part of the basin (Fig. 7e&f). The
360 meridional and zonal wind stress anomalies indicate that the maximum of thermocline slope anomaly was
361 associated with a strengthening of northeast trades followed by a strengthening of southeast trades from either
362 side on the equator. At the equator, we notice indeed a sudden reversing of meridional winds which turned
363 southward on 27-28 March 2005 related to an abrupt southward displacement of the ITCZ which was then found
364 south of the equator in the west part of the basin (Fig. 7a&b). The ITCZ returned its initial position four days
365 later followed by a strengthening of easterlies which persisted for ~20 days (Fig. 7c). Climatologically, the



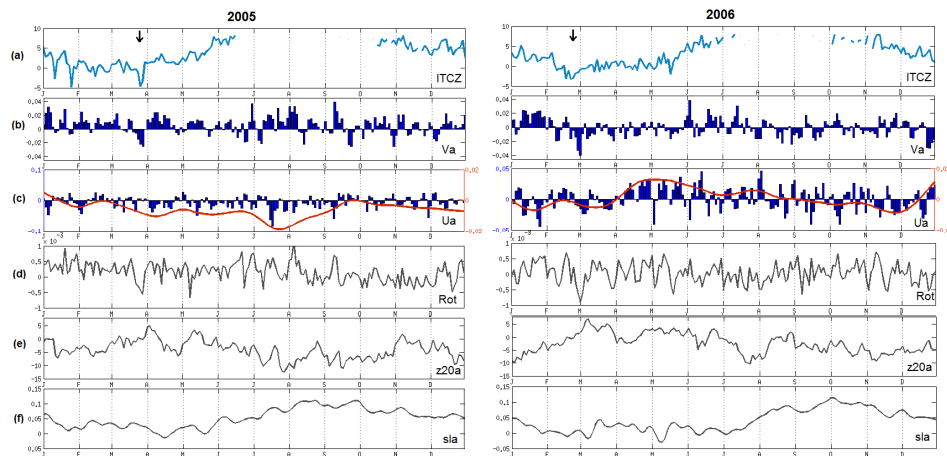
366 latitudinal position of the ITCZ varies from a minimum close to the equator in boreal spring (March-May) in the
367 west to a maximum extension of $10^{\circ}\text{N} - 15^{\circ}\text{N}$ in late boreal summer (August) in the east. Positive (negative)
368 wind stress curl is found north (south) of the ITCZ. When the ITCZ is north of the equator, it induces upward
369 (downward) Ekman pumping to the north (south) of the ITCZ. Thus, the southward shift of the ITCZ on 27-28
370 March 2005 accompanied with strong northerlies led to negative anomaly of wind stress curl south of the
371 equator resulting in upward Ekman pumping. Results show indeed a strong negative anomaly on 22-26 March
372 2005 associated with the southward shift of the ITCZ just before the upwelling signal, initiated on 28 March.
373 These changes contributed to a rise in the oceanic thermocline with a time lag of some days (Fig. 7e&f). The
374 upwelling signal might then be reinforced by the symmetric easterly wind which concerned a large part of the
375 western basin. Besides, we identify on Fig. 6d another peak of negative wind stress curl anomaly on 6-8 May
376 2005, more sudden than the previous winter one. It was associated with positive (negative) z_{20} (SSH) anomaly
377 indicator of a thermocline rise initiated on 6 May 2005 in the west of the basin and which propagated eastward
378 along the equator. The zonal wind stress anomalies (Fig. 6b) also indicate an easterly wind strengthening
379 initiated in the beginning of May, which a maximum on 8-10 May, just after the minimum of wind stress curl.

380 In 2006, the upwelling Kelvin wave is identified in the first half of March in the west part of the basin (Fig.
381 7e&f). The coinciding atmospheric conditions were slightly different than the ones identified in 2005. In winter,
382 the position of the ITCZ had a more southern position in 2006 than in 2005. It crossed the equator during a
383 longer period (about 10 days from ~ Feb. 10 2006), reaching minimum latitude on 22-24 February. This location
384 south of the equator induced a negative wind stress curl anomaly (Fig. 7d). As in 2005, the reversion of the
385 meridional wind at the equator was followed by a strengthening of westward component of the wind stress few
386 days after, which lasted for about ten days (Fig. 6c); however, it was of a lesser magnitude compared to 2005
387 and only concerned the westernmost part of the basin. In addition, the negative zonal wind anomaly concerned
388 mainly the northeasterlies rather than the southeasterlies, leading to an anti-symmetric meridional wind pattern as
389 well as symmetric zonal wind pattern on either side on the equator (not shown). These wind patterns were
390 expected to generate Ekman convergence at the Equator and thus to reinforce the observed upwelling anomalies.

391

392 Thus, for both years, Kelvin upwelling wave occurred in the west while easterly winds were strengthened from
393 either side of the equator after the ITCZ reached its southernmost location. This latter was observed one month
394 earlier in 2006 than in 2005, and was associated with a negative wind stress curl anomaly. In winter 2005, the
395 ITCZ was found south of the equator after a very sudden southward shift and was followed by strong easterlies
396 during ~20 days, while in winter 2006, the ITCZ was found closer to the equator less sharply and during a
397 longer period, followed by weaker easterlies compared to 2005.

398



399

400 **Figure 7:** Time evolution, from 2-days averaged model outputs, of (a) the position (in latitude, between 5° S
 401 and 10° N) where the meridional wind stress value equal zero (indicator of the position of the ITCZ), over Jan-
 402 Dec 2005 (left) and Jan-Dec 2006 (right); (b) the meridional wind stress anomalies ($\text{N}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$) averaged between
 403 50° W and 35° W and between 1° S and 1° N; (c) same as (b) but for zonal wind stress anomalies ($\text{N}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$) (in
 404 blue). The red curve is after the frequencies > 1 month are removed by a low-pass filtering; (d) the wind stress
 405 curl anomalies ($\text{N}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$) ; (e) the 20° C isotherm depth anomalies (m); (f) the sea level anomalies (m). The black
 406 arrow in (a) indicates the southward shift of the ITCZ before the excitation of the Kevin wave (see text).

407

408 4.3. Westward extension of the CLR cooling

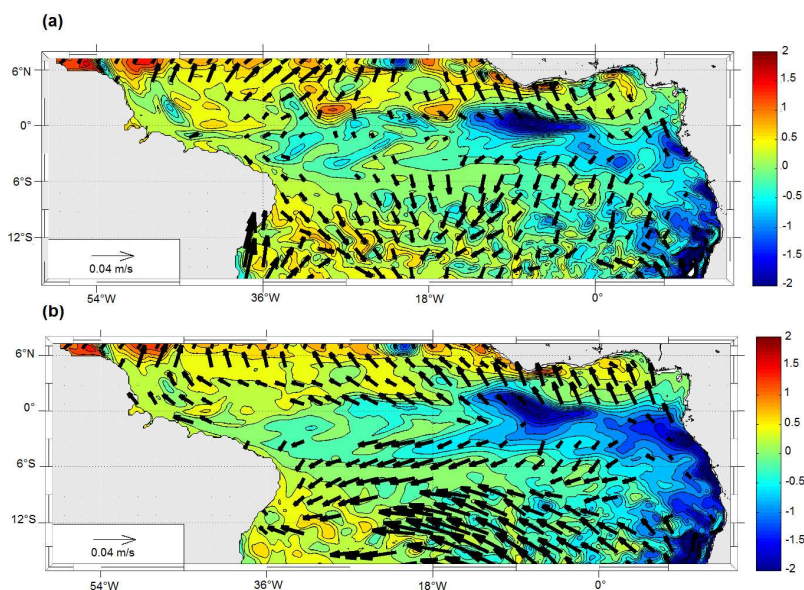
409 In the east, the cooling generated by southerly wind bursts in the CLR then progressively extended westward to
 410 connect with the southern boundary of the equatorial ACT. This phenomenon was more obvious in 2005 when
 411 the cooling which first concerned coastal area extended further offshore a few days after the two strong events
 412 occurring in the second half of May. To evidence the effect of these events on SST, maps of SST anomalies and
 413 wind stress monthly anomalies averaged over May 2005 and over the weeks before the strong events (from 1 to
 414 10 May) are presented on Fig. 8. The results illustrate an enhancement after 10 May of the cooling in the east
 415 associated with southerly wind intensification and an extension of the cooling especially south of the equator up
 416 to 20°W.

417

418

419

420



421

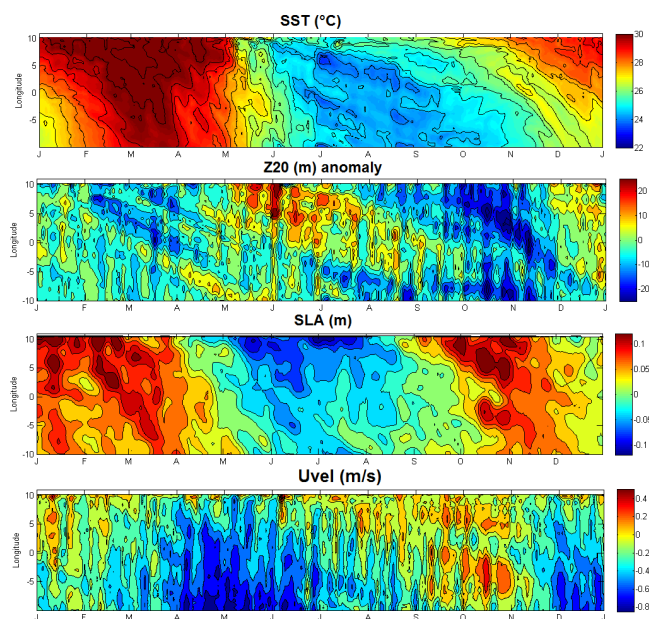
422 **Figure 8:** (a) Sea surface temperature anomalies ($^{\circ}$ C; color) superimposed with wind stress intensity anomalies
423 (arrows) averaged over May 2005. Only the values $> 0.02\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ are plotted; (b) same but averaged between 1
424 May and 10 May 2005 (b)

425 To better understand the oceanic processes implied in this cooling extension, we examined the z20 anomalies,
426 SSH anomalies and zonal velocities along 3° S (Fig. 9 b-d). They reveal that the cooling westward extension
427 was associated with a westward propagation of a steeper thermocline and negative SSH anomalies from the
428 African coast up to 5° - 10° W combined with enhanced surface westward current fluctuations at the dates of the
429 successive events from April-June. The fluctuations of the westward surface current occurring off Gabon with
430 periods of ~ 8 -10 days were related to the strengthening of southerly winds during the wind bursts at the same
431 periods (Fig. 3b & 4b). The surface current in this area is part of the westward SEC which is known to intensify
432 during the cold season (Okumura and Xie, 2006). Our study implies shorter time scales than seasonal scale but
433 the intensification of the SEC during wind bursts through Ekman transport processes might contribute to the
434 westward extension of the cooling by advection of cold eastern upwelled water. This is in agreement with
435 DeCoëtlogon et al. (2010) who found from model results that at short time scale (a few days), more than half of
436 the cold SST anomaly around the equatorial cooling could be explained by horizontal oceanic advection
437 controlled by the wind with a lag of a few days. In addition, the z20 and SSH show respectively negative and
438 positive anomalies propagating westward at 3° S (Fig. 9), initiated from the coast with a propagating speed of
439 around $10\text{cm}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, which is very close to the phase speed of Rossby waves. Indeed, the excitation of the
440 westward waves at the coast coincided with the arrival of Kelvin waves (see Fig. 5) suggesting the possibility of
441 Kelvin wave's reflection processes into symmetrical westward propagating Rossby waves. A westward



442 propagation of z20 and SSH anomalies, although less obvious, was presently also identified at 3° N (not shown).
443 In 2006, no similar wave generation process is observed (not shown). In 2005, the locally wind-forced
444 component of the wave might reinforce the remote part of the reflected wave signal at the coast by the sea level
445 slope which balanced the strengthening of alongshore winds blowing during the mid-May and late-May events.
446 The quantitative and respective contributions of local and remote wind forcing to this wave is out of the aim of
447 this study and would require further analysis.

448 Thus, the combined effects of westward surface currents (via advection and vertical mixing through horizontal
449 current vertical shear), local wind influences (via vertical mixing) and wave westward propagation, resulted in
450 the extension of cold upwelled water from the eastern coast to near 20° W.



451

452 **Figure 9:** Time-longitude diagrams at 3° S between 10° W and 10° E, and from 2-days averaged model outputs
453 from January to December 2005, of (from top to bottom) i) the sea surface temperature (° C); ii) the 20° C
454 isotherm-depth anomalies (m); iii) the sea level anomalies from AVISO data (m); and iv) the zonal component
455 of surface velocity ($\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$).

456

457 5. Focus on the mid-May 2005 event

458 We have previously identified five main cold events in 2005 (22-24 April, 8-12 May, 16-20 May, 26-30 May
459 and 14-18 June), characterized by a temperature drop ranging from -0.2° C to -1.7° C in the model. Analysis of



460 wind stress magnitude has revealed that each event is associated with strengthening of equatorward winds,
461 especially during the 14-16 May event when the wind stress magnitude anomaly averaged over the CLR is the
462 strongest one. This particular event has been found to be responsible for the sudden and intense SST cooling in
463 the eastern equatorial Atlantic and identified as part of manifestation of temporal variability of the St. Helena
464 Anticyclone (Marin et al., 2009). In this section, we focus on this mid-May event, to better understand the
465 processes in play during this unusual event.

466

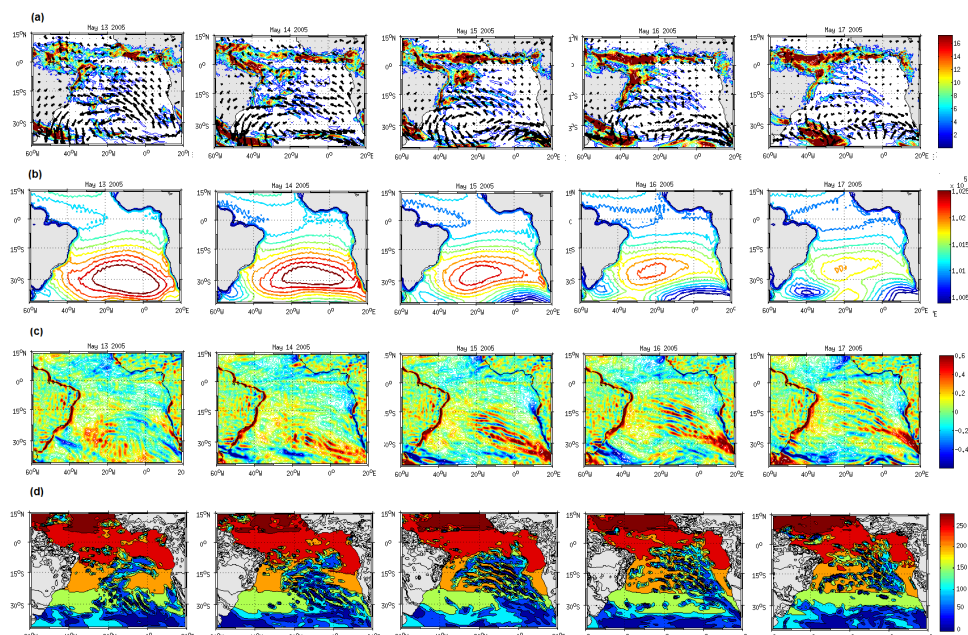
467 **5.1 Atmospheric conditions**

468

469 **5.1.1 Wind and surface atmospheric pressure**

470 The spatial distribution of the mid-May 2005 wind event can be inferred from Fig. 10 where anomalous CFSR
471 wind speed fields superimposed with daily precipitation fields, surface pressure, wind speed curl, and downward
472 shortwave radiation, are presented from 13 May to 17 May. The event was characterized by intense
473 southeasterly wind anomalies east of 15° W and from 30°S to the equator from 13-14 May, concomitant with a
474 strengthening of the easterlies west of 30° W between 30° and 15° S (Fig. 10a). The wind anomaly extended
475 then westward up to 15-16 May when the maximum was located in the western part of the basin off northeastern
476 Brazilian coast. Simultaneously, a strengthening of southerly winds occurred north of the equator in the Gulf of
477 Guinea. The anomalous strong winds during the event were associated with anomalous high pressure core of the
478 Saint Helena Anticyclone, especially on 13-14 May, also associated with particularly low pressure under the
479 ITCZ.

480



481
 482 **Figure 10:** Daily-averaged, from 13 May to 17 May 2005 (left to right panels), of (a) precipitation rate ($\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}/\text{day}$) (color field) superimposed with wind speed anomalies (vectors) ($\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) from CFSR fields; (b) surface
 483 $^2/\text{day}$) between $5^\circ - 9^\circ \text{ N}$ and off northeast Brazil from the coast to 15° W and from 10° S to 3° S . The maximum
 484 precipitation rate in this region occurred on 15-16 May concomitant with the easterly winds strengthening. This
 485 convective zone, located between the ITCZ north of the equator and the South Atlantic Convergence Zone
 (SACZ) in southern tropics, is the Southern Intertropical Convergence Zone (SICZ) (Grodky and Carton,
 2003). This zone forms usually later, by June-August, when the southern branch of the convection separates
 from the ITCZ which moves north of the equator. Grodky and Carton (2003) showed that this rainfall pattern
 appears closely linked to the seasonal change in SST difference between the ACT region (which they defined
 between $15^\circ \text{ W} - 5^\circ \text{ W}$, $2^\circ \text{ S} - 2^\circ \text{ N}$) and the SITCZ region ($25^\circ \text{ W} - 20^\circ \text{ W}$, $10^\circ \text{ S} - 3^\circ \text{ S}$). They argued that the
 seasonal appearance of the ACT along the equator sets up pressure gradients within the boundary layer that
 induce wind convergence in the SITCZ region. Based on Grodky and Carton (2003) results, the unusually

486

487 5.1.2 Precipitation

488

489 The maps of precipitation rate during the event (Fig. 10a) display a band of heavy precipitation ($9\text{-}17 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}/\text{day}$)
 490 $^2/\text{day}$) between $5^\circ - 9^\circ \text{ N}$ and off northeast Brazil from the coast to 15° W and from 10° S to 3° S . The maximum
 491 precipitation rate in this region occurred on 15-16 May concomitant with the easterly winds strengthening. This
 492 convective zone, located between the ITCZ north of the equator and the South Atlantic Convergence Zone
 493 (SACZ) in southern tropics, is the Southern Intertropical Convergence Zone (SICZ) (Grodky and Carton,
 494 2003). This zone forms usually later, by June-August, when the southern branch of the convection separates
 495 from the ITCZ which moves north of the equator. Grodky and Carton (2003) showed that this rainfall pattern
 496 appears closely linked to the seasonal change in SST difference between the ACT region (which they defined
 497 between $15^\circ \text{ W} - 5^\circ \text{ W}$, $2^\circ \text{ S} - 2^\circ \text{ N}$) and the SITCZ region ($25^\circ \text{ W} - 20^\circ \text{ W}$, $10^\circ \text{ S} - 3^\circ \text{ S}$). They argued that the
 498 seasonal appearance of the ACT along the equator sets up pressure gradients within the boundary layer that
 499 induce wind convergence in the SITCZ region. Based on Grodky and Carton (2003) results, the unusually



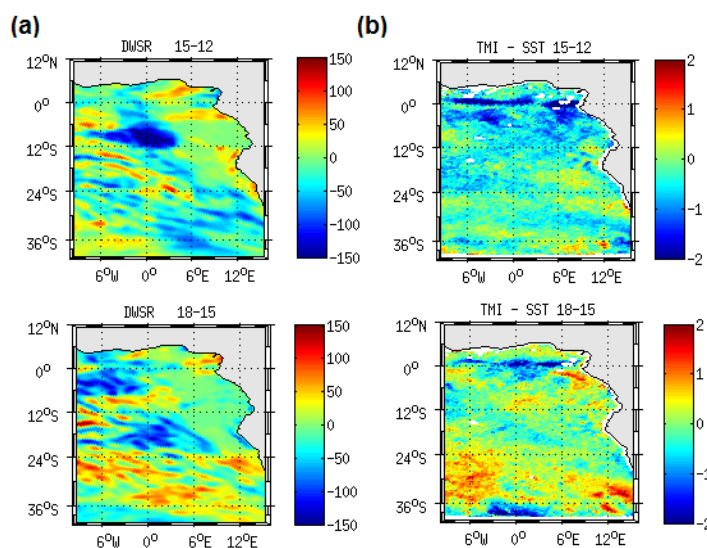
500 rainfall conditions during mid-May event might thus be explained by strong SST gradient between the two
501 regions caused by unusually early cooling in the ACT region at this time of the year.

502

503 **5.1.3 Generation of atmospheric gravity wave**

504

505 The precipitation fields during the mid-May event (Fig. 10a) also evidence rainfall pattern typical of
506 atmospheric gravity wave train characterized by a horizontal wave length ~500 km and initiated by a front
507 system (forming the northern boundary of a low pressure system) which developed around 17° S on 14 May and
508 traveled northeastward until 17 May. The rainfall train was associated with oscillatory wind stress curl train
509 alternating between positive and negative anomalies (Fig. 10c) as well as alternating downward shortwave
510 radiation minimum (Fig. 10d) associated with the wave clouds. Gravity waves are known to play an important
511 role in transporting the momentum and energy through long distances (Fritts, 1984). Here, they would be a way
512 to carry momentum and energy from South Atlantic to the equator during the strong event. To estimate the
513 effect of the passage of the wave on SST, the SST TMI fields have been analyzed. Given the time resolution of
514 the dataset (3-days averaged) a propagating train in SST fields cannot be highlighted; instead, 3-daily TMI SST
515 averaged (available east of 10° W) differences, as well as 3-daily averaged downward shortwave radiation
516 (hereafter DSWR) fields differences, between 13-14-15 May averaged and 10-11-12 May averaged and between
517 16-17-18 May averaged and 13-14-15 May averaged. Results indicate a good correlation between the two fields,
518 suggesting a northeastward propagation of the cooling associated to northeastward propagation of the DSWR
519 minimum associated with the displacement of the atmospheric gravity wave. A cooling first occurred south of
520 24° S associated with DSWR minimum, and then reached more northern region concomitant with the northward
521 migration of DSWR. Thus, these results suggest that the arrival of atmospheric gravity wave initiated in South
522 Atlantic following atmospheric disturbance would contribute to the cooling observed in the Gulf of Guinea at
523 the time of the mid-May event.



524

525 **Figure 11:** Three daily-averaged differences, between 10° W and 15° E and between 40° S and 12° N from 15-
526 12 May and 18-15 May 2005 (the dates indicated in the titles correspond to the last day taken into account for
527 the calculation of the average. e.g.: ‘SST 15-12’ corresponds to the difference between the mean of SST over
528 13-14-15 May and over 10-11-12 May) of downward short-wave radiation ($W.m^{-2}$) from CFSR fields (a); and
529 SST from TMI data (b);

530

531 5.2 A decisive event for coastal monsoon onset

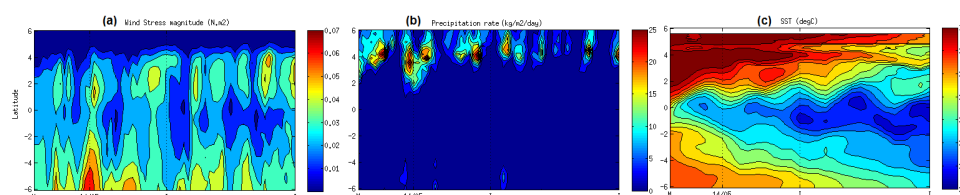
532

533 In order to analyze the air-sea pattern in the northern Gulf of Guinea during May-June 2005, we show on Fig. 12
534 the wind stress magnitude, precipitation rate, and SST fields averaged from 10° W to 6° W. The wind
535 strengthening appeared first south of the equator on 12-16 May and then north of the equator from 14-18 May. It
536 was associated with strong rainfall extending southward up to 2° N. Equatorial cooling occurred 4 days after
537 the event and slowed down the overlying winds by feedback mechanisms. The winds north of the equator then
538 remained stronger than in the ACT region and strengthened again north of the Equator on 22-28 May together
539 with precipitation maximum pushed northward (around 5° N) after the event.

540 Thus, this mid-May event appears as the “decisive event” which triggered the abrupt transition between the two
541 wind patterns in the northern Gulf of Guinea, when the wind north of the equator became and remained stronger
542 than south of the equator. It occurred 15 days earlier than the average date (31 May) identified by Leduc-
543 Leballeur et al. (2013) over 2000-2009 period. According to these authors, the time of occurrence of this
544 phenomenon would be related with the strength of anomalous moisture flux. They explain that in April-May the
545 low atmospheric local circulation is present only during an equatorial SST cooling and surface wind



546 strengthening north of the equator, both generated by a southerly wind burst, before disappearing until the next
547 wind burst. In June-July the low atmospheric local circulation is then always present and intensified by the wind
548 bursts. Thus, the establishment of an abrupt seasonal transition event as observed in 2005, occurring much
549 earlier than the reference date, supposed anomalously strong equatorial cooling caused by unusual strong
550 southerly winds which allowed, through air-sea interactions mechanisms, to trigger the deep atmospheric
551 convection in the Gulf of Guinea at a self sustaining level.
552



553
554 **Figure 12:** Time evolution, in May and June 2005 between 6° S and 6° N and averaged between 10° W and 6°
555 W, of the (a) daily averaged wind stress magnitude (N.m^{-2}) computed from CFSR wind speed fields ; (b) daily
556 averaged precipitation rate ($\text{kg.m}^{-2}/\text{day}$) from CFSR fields and (c) 2-daily averaged SST ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) fields, from the
557 forced model.

558

559 5.3. Why the mid-May 2005 event was so singular?

560

561 To better understand which makes the particularity of the mid-May 2005 event, the atmospheric and oceanic
562 conditions (wind stress magnitude, short-wave radiation flux (hereafter RADSW), z20, SST, and meridional
563 SST gradient) averaged over the 10° W-6° W region and between 15° S to 5° N during April-May are analyzed
564 along the 1998-2008 period (Fig. 13). The wind stress magnitude during mid-May event appears to be one of the
565 strongest over the whole 1998-2008 period. These strong wind conditions are usually met later in late boreal
566 spring or summer, when the St. Helena Anticyclone strengthens and shifts northward toward the warm
567 hemisphere. The wind intensification in mid-May 2005 was associated with particularly weak RADSW from
568 South Atlantic to the northern equatorial region, suggesting cloud albedo effect during the event which tended to
569 cool the mixed layer. We can notice that the April-May 2005 period was characterized by the weakest mean
570 RADSW.

571 In addition, at the time of the event, the surface waters were already cooled by previous wind bursts (e.g. 20
572 April and 8 May). The SST response to the mid-May event occurred 4-6 days later, inducing the weakest
573 equatorial SST values for April-May season over the whole 1998-2008 period. The cooling also caused an
574 enhanced SST front around 1° N, as shown on Fig. 13 (bottom panel), which was found to be the earliest and
575 strongest one over the 1998-2008 period. This meridional SST gradient was responsible for the wind surface
576 intensification north of the equator (Fig. 12 and 13a) through air-sea interaction mechanisms as described by
577 Leduc-Leballeur et al. (2011). Another SST gradient maximum is found at the end of May 1998 but it was not
578 extended as eastward than during the mid-May 2005 event (not shown).



579 When the wind burst occurred on 14 May 2005, the 20°C-isotherm depth in the area was shallow south of the
580 equator and slightly deeper at the equator (Fig. 13c). The thermocline shoaling associated with the Kelvin wave
581 appeared in fact a few days earlier providing favorable subsurface conditions which made the SST response to
582 previous wind bursts (20 April and 8 May) more effective. At the time of the mid-May event, the wave already
583 reached more eastern areas, as shown in previous sections.

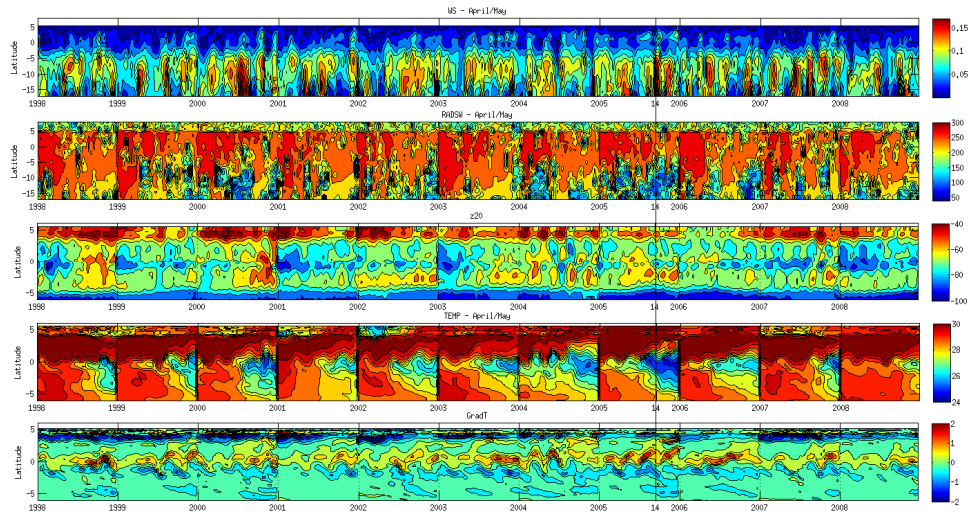
584

585 The mid-May 2005 event was also characterized by a particularly low surface pressure under the ITCZ, as
586 shown on Fig. 14a which displays the surface pressure north of the equator averaged between 45° W and 20° W
587 for April-May over the 1998-2008 period. The pressure fall during the mid-May 2005 event appeared as the
588 lowest in May over the whole decade. It coincided with particularly high surface pressures in St. Helena
589 Anticyclone region 4 days earlier (Fig. 14b). The meridional surface pressure gradient during the event is thus
590 found to be the strongest over 1998-2008 period (Fig. 14c). That suggests strong Hadley circulation intensity
591 during the mid-May event and therefore strong anomalous equatorward moisture flux, allowing the deep
592 atmospheric convection in the Gulf of Guinea to be triggered at a self-sustaining level, as previously described
593 in Sect. 5.2.

594

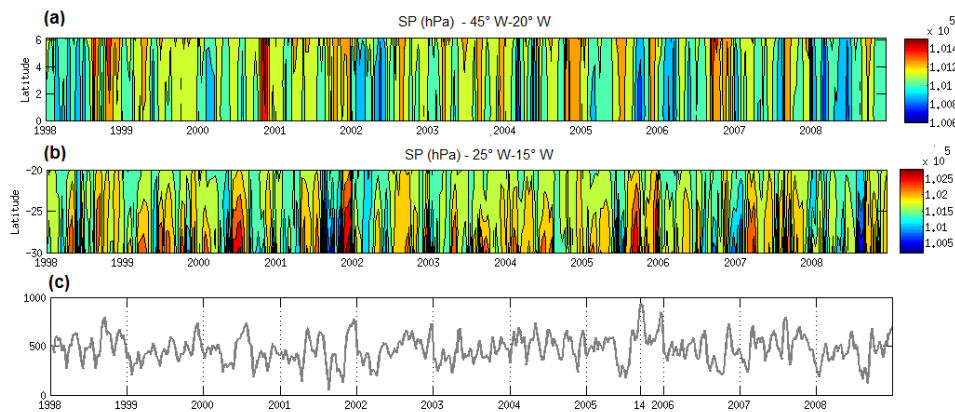
595 Thus, the particularity of the mid-May 2005 event mainly lies in the i) anomalous atmospheric conditions
596 related to anomalous strong St. Helena Anticyclone perturbation; ii) cooling initiated by the succession of
597 previous wind bursts; and iii) favorable subsurface local ocean conditions preconditioned by equatorial waves
598 which shoaled the mixed layer. Another wind burst of comparable intensity occurred at the beginning of May
599 2000 while the thermocline was shallow, causing SST cooling at the equator (Fig. 13&14). However, the wind
600 strengthening was less sudden than during the mid-May 2005 event and the resulting cooling took place over a
601 less broad region (not shown). In addition, the surface pressure drop in the ITCZ region was not as pronounced
602 as during mid-May 2005 event.

603



610

611
 612 **Figure 13:** Time-latitude diagrams for April-May along the 1998-2008 period, of 2-days average, from top to
 613 bottom, i) wind stress magnitude ($N \cdot m^{-2}$) from CFSR fields; ii) short-wave radiation surface flux ($W \cdot m^{-2}$) from
 614 CFSR fields; iii) 20°C isotherm depth (m) computed from the forced model SST; iv) SST ($^{\circ}C$) and v)
 615 meridional SST gradient (every 0.5° of latitude), from the forced model; averaged over 10° W-6° W. The
 vertical black line indicates the date of 14 May, 2005.



611

612 **Figure 14:** Time-latitude diagram, for April-May over the 1998-2008 period, of the surface pressure (hPa) from
 613 ERA-20C reanalysis; (a) from 0° N to 6° N averaged between 45° W and 20° W ; and (b) from 30° S and 20° S
 614 averaged between 25° W and 15° W; (c) differences between (a) and (b);.

615



616 6. Summary and discussion

617 In this study, the impact of intraseasonal winds on SST in the far eastern Tropical Atlantic during boreal spring
618 2005 and 2006 has been investigated observations and numerical simulation. We first focus our study in Cape-
619 Lopez region (CLR), east of 5°E and between the equator and 7° S, where the seasonal and interannual SST
620 variability is poorly documented. There, the boreal spring (AMJ) season corresponds to a transitional period
621 between high SST in boreal winter and weak SST in boreal summer, under the influence of local winds.
622 Intensified cool SSTs are observed in the coastal upwelling area located around 6° S in the Congo mouth region,
623 associated with mean alongshore wind conditions. Spring season is in fact characterized by maximum winds
624 amplitude, influence of which is made more effective by shallow thermocline depth, itself strongly influenced
625 by remote forcing. The seasonal cycle in the CLR is modulated by strong year-to-year variations, as observed in
626 spring 2005 when cold SST anomaly are associated with shallower-than-average thermocline depth and positive
627 wind speed anomaly.

628 The intraseasonal wind bursts which occurred in spring 2005 and 2006 generated cooling events especially
629 around 3°-4° S but for some strongest events when the cooling reached more northern equatorial region,
630 especially during the mid-May and end-May 2005 events. The intensity of the cold events resulted from both
631 basin preconditioning by remotely forced shoaling of the thermocline (via Kelvin wave), local mixing (induced
632 by current vertical shear) and upwelling processes in response to strong southerly local winds. For some
633 particular event, as the 26-28 May 2005, the net heat flux also tended to cool the surface water, due to enhanced
634 cloud cover which decreased the incoming solar radiations. In CLR, stronger wind intensification and favorably
635 preconditioned oceanic subsurface conditions in 2005 made the coupling between surface and subsurface ocean
636 processes more efficient than in 2006, resulting in stronger cooling.

637 The preconditioning of subsurface conditions in the area via Kelvin wave at the dates of the wind bursts
638 depended on the atmospheric conditions in the western part of the basin a few weeks earlier. Previous studies
639 (e.g. Picaut, 1983; Philander, 1990) suggest that the source of the equatorial Kelvin wave is mainly related to a
640 sudden change of the zonal wind in the west. Analysis of atmospheric and oceanic conditions at intraseasonal to
641 daily scale in winter 2005 and 2006 showed that for both years, Kelvin upwelling wave was initiated in the west
642 while easterly winds were strengthened from either side of the equator just after the ITCZ to be at its
643 southernmost location. This latter was observed one month earlier in 2006 (late February – early March) than in
644 2005 (late March-early April), and was associated with a negative wind stress curl anomaly. In winter 2005, the
645 ITCZ was found south of the equator after a very sudden southward shift and was followed by strong easterlies
646 during ~20 days, while in winter 2006, the ITCZ was found closer to the equator less sharply and during a
647 longer period, followed by weaker easterlies when compared to 2005. These results obtained for 2005 and 2006
648 years do not imply that same atmospheric conditions would be observed for winter upwelling Kelvin wave of
649 other years. Especially, the year 2005 was very particular and also exhibited anomalously cold SSTs in the south
650 Atlantic and anomalously warm SSTs in the north Atlantic initiated in fall 2004, signature of a meridional mode
651 (Virmani and Weisberg, 2006; Foltz and Mc. Phaden, 2006; Hormann and Brandt, 2009).



652 Upon impingement with the eastern boundary, the incoming equatorial Kelvin wave excites westward-
653 propagating Rossby waves and poleward propagating coastal Kelvin waves. In 2005, the Kelvin wave reached
654 the coast around mid-May while southerly winds strengthened, allowing the reflected wave to be reinforced by
655 the local wind. This resulted in westward propagation of positive (negative) z_{20} (SSH) anomalies which,
656 combined with enhanced westward surface currents, provided favorable conditions to westward extension of
657 cold upwelled water from the eastern coast to near 20°W through advection and vertical mixing.

658 In the second part of the study, we specially focused on the mid-May 2005 event (13 May to 16 May) that was
659 characterized by strong southerly wind strengthening in the eastern Tropical Atlantic Ocean. It was found to be
660 responsible for the sudden and intense SST cooling in the Gulf of Guinea and the CLR, and involved in the early
661 onset of the ACT development in 2005 and therefore in early onset of the WAM. The analysis of atmospheric
662 and oceanic conditions in the Gulf of Guinea associated to this event allowed to show that the mid-May event,
663 controlled by the St. Helena Anticyclone, can be identified as a “decisive event” which triggered the abrupt
664 transition between two wind patterns in the northern Gulf of Guinea. Unusual strong southerly winds induced
665 anomalously strong equatorial cooling which in turns slowed down the overlying wind feedback mechanism and
666 generated stronger than normal southerlies north of the equator through the SST front around 1°N . This
667 triggered the deep atmospheric convection in the Gulf of Guinea at a self-sustaining level and the beginning of
668 coastal precipitation. The time of occurrence of this phenomenon, 15 days earlier than the averaged date (31
669 May from Leduc-Leballeur et al., 2013), suggests that the mid-May 2005 event was associated with anomalous
670 strong moisture flux. The description of atmospheric conditions over the 1998-2008 period has shown that the
671 2005 event was characterized by the strongest surface pressure gradient between the St. Helena high pressures
672 and the low pressures under the ITCZ, inducing anomalous strong Hadley cell activity. No similar atmospheric
673 pattern was observed during the whole 1998-2008 period. Another wind burst of comparable wind intensity
674 occurred at the beginning of May 2000. This event also induced a cooling at the equator but the surface pressure
675 decrease in ITCZ region was not as pronounced than during mid-May 2005 event and the SST gradient around
676 1°N was weaker. In addition to coastal precipitation in the Gulf of Guinea and due to the early cooling in the
677 ACT region, unusually rainfall conditions also occurred between the northeast coast of Brazil and 15°W within
678 the SITCZ, which generally forms in early boreal summer.

679 Finally, this study highlights the impact of a strong southerly wind burst in the eastern tropical Atlantic during
680 boreal spring season, which is a transitional period during which an anomalous strong energy input may tip the
681 energy balance from an equilibrium state toward another one and thus impact the WAM system. The analysis of
682 atmospheric and oceanic conditions during the mid-May 2005 wind event allows to highlight the different
683 processes through which the wind power provided by the wind burst is brought to the ocean: i) direct effect of
684 the wind on the SST in the eastern tropical Atlantic, ii) energy transport via atmospheric gravity waves from
685 South Atlantic, and iii) energy supply to Rossby wave. In addition to unusual atmospheric conditions in mid-
686 May 2005, the ocean response intensity to this event was also enhanced by the subsurface conditions, made
687 favorable by previous wind bursts, either local (e.g. in 6-8 May) or occurring a few weeks before in the West.



688 It is crucial to better describe the atmospheric and oceanic processes in play during such extreme event, notably
689 in order to reduce the well known warm bias in the southeastern tropics in coupled models in both atmospheric
690 and oceanic components (Zeng et al., 1996; Davey et al., 2002; Deser et al., 2006; Chang et al., 2007; Richter
691 and Xie, 2008). This warm bias is well evidenced in our numerical simulation (Fig. 1&2) and our results clearly
692 show that the cooling events were underestimated in the CLR, implying the need to investigate more in depth
693 the oceanic and atmospheric processes in play in this particular region. As the intraseasonal wind bursts are
694 related to the fluctuations of St. Helena Anticyclone, their impact on SST variability in the eastern tropical
695 Atlantic and regional climate suggests the need of better understand the St. Helena Anticyclone variability.

696 It is also important to note that the mid-May 2005 event occurred during an unusually active year. The year
697 2005 exhibited a pronounced meridional mode pattern with strong SST gradient between the two hemispheres.
698 Several authors (Foltz et al., 2006 ; Virmani and Weisberg, 2006 ; Marengo et al., 2008a, 2008b ; Zeng et al.,
699 2008) studied this particular year, marked by anomalously warm SST in the tropical North Atlantic during
700 March-July, the warmest from at least 150 years. This anomalous warming was associated with the most active
701 and destructive hurricane season on record (Foltz et al., 2006; Virmani and Weisberg, 2006) and an extreme and
702 rare drought in the Amazon Basin (Marengo et al., 2008a, 2008b; Zeng et al. 2008; Erfanian et al., 2017). From
703 these authors, primary causes of the anomalous warming in 2005 were a weakening of the northeasterly trade
704 winds and associated decrease in wind-induced latent heat loss as well as changes in shortwave radiation and
705 horizontal oceanic heat advection. This 2005 temperature record is made even more remarkable given that,
706 unlike the 1998's one, it occurred in the absence of any strong El Niño anomaly (Shein, 2006). Some studies
707 (Goldenberg et al., 2001) attribute these SST increases to the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO), while
708 others suggest that climate change may instead be playing the dominant role (Emanuel, 2005; Webster et al.,
709 2005; Mann and Emanuel, 2006; Trenberth and Shea, 2006). Comparable anomalously warm tropical Atlantic
710 SSTs have been observed in 2010 also associated with extreme drought in the Amazon. However, from time
711 series of monthly anomalies constructed for the two basins (North and South Atlantic) by using OISST monthly
712 mean data, Erfanian et al. (2017) show that the warmer-than-usual SSTs in the North Atlantic in 2010 was not
713 associated with colder-than-usual SST in South Atlantic contrarily to 2005 (their Fig. S4e).

714 While the warming in North Tropical Atlantic during 2005 has been investigated by several authors, the cooling
715 in South Atlantic has received less attention. This study highlights the need to further document and monitor the
716 South Atlantic region and the St. Helena Anticyclone, through additional high resolution analysis and
717 observations.

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719

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