On the origin of the western equatorial Pacific sea level anomaly prior to the the 1982-1983 El Niño

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Abstract.

A recent study of two strong El Niños highlighted the potential importance of a region of low sea level that developed in the western equatorial Pacific prior to the classic east Pacific El Niños of 1982-1983 and 1997-1998. Here the cause of the low sea level in 1982 is investigated using a series of runs of a global ocean model with different wind fields and initial conditions.

The results indicate that the low sea level was due to the increased wind shear that developed in the western Pacific just north of the Equator during 1982. This generated Ekman divergence at the latitudes of the North Equatorial Trough, raising the underlying density surfaces and increasing the depth of the trough. This in turn increased the strength of the North Equatorial Counter Current which lies on the southern slope of the trough.

The anomalous westerly winds associated with Madden-Julian Oscillations are often held responsible for triggering El Niños through the generation of westerly wind bursts and the resulting equatorial Kelvin waves in the ocean.

However if Webb (2018) is correct, the present results support a different physical mechanism in which westerlies in the western Pacific, possibly MJO related, cause strong El Niños through Ekman pumping at the latitude of the North Equatorial Trough and the resulting increased eastward transport of Warm Pool water by the North Equatorial Counter Current.

1 Introduction

The North Equatorial Countercurrent (NECC) flows from west to east across the Pacific at latitudes between 5°N and 10°N. The total transport is in the range 10-30 Sv, making it comparable with the major northern hemisphere currents (Knauss, 1961; Wyrtki, 1974a,b; Johnson et al., 2002).

Physically it is a geostrophic current lying between the sea level minimum of the North Equatorial Trough and the sea level maximum of the North Equatorial Ridge (Sverdrup, 1947; Neumann and Pierson, 1966). However it is also a shallow current with a depth of only two to three hundred metres, the north-south pressure differences near the surface being balanced by large

north-south gradients in the near surface density surfaces (Wyrtki and Kilonsly, 1984; Taft and Kovala, 1981, 1982; Bryden and Brady, 1985).

The current is important because it carries warm water eastwards out of the west Pacific Warm Pool (Johnson et al., 2002). It is also unusual in that it flows in the opposite direction to the steady trade winds of the North Pacific. Montgomery and Palmen (1940) originally suggested that the current flowed downhill from west to east across the Pacific but, using geostrophic theory, Sverdrup (1947) showed that it was the result of the shear in the wind field at latitudes near the Inter-Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) (See also Munk, 1950). The current also lies in a region where the inverse of the Coriolis term is a rapidly changing function of latitude. As a result small changes in the position of the trough can have a significant effect on the velocity of the current.

Early studies of the current were limited by lack of data but, using data from bathythermographs, Myers (1979) showed that the depth of the North Equatorial Trough had a significant annual signal, which he identified as being due to an annual Rossby wave.

Further developments in ocean instrumentation have provided more information on the NECC, satellite observations of sea surface temperature (SST) showing tropical instability eddies (often called waves: Hansen and Paul, 1984; Chelton et al., 2000; Kennan and Lament, 2000) that both warm the Equatorial Current and cool the NECC (Menkes et al., 2006; Jochum et al., 2007), the effect possibly being least in El Niño years (Yu and Liu, 2003).

Satellite altimeter measurements of sea level have errors of only a few centimetres and, as the North Equatorial Trough has a depth of order one metre, this allows the annual and interannual changes of both the trough and the NECC to be studied in detail (Zhao et al., 2013; Tan and Zhou, 2018).

1.1 Connection with the El Niño

Originally El Niño was the name of a southward flowing current off the coast of Peru which affected fisheries (Wyrtki et al., 1976; Philander, 1989). However the studies reported in Love (1972, 1975) and Wyrtki et al. (1976) connected it to the very large changes in surface temperature and thermocline depth observed in the nearby East Pacific Cold Pool.

Wyrtki (1973) was the first to make the further connection between this oceanographic El Niño and the strength of the NECC in the western Pacific. He also suggested that the NECC might trigger an El Niño by transporting West Pacific Warm Pool water to the east.

Myers and Donguy (1984) then showed that the NECC transport increased by between 25% and 50% while the strong 1982-83 El Niño was developing. They also found that the total transport of warm water (>28°C) by the NECC was consistent with their estimate of the loss of warm water from the West Pacific Warm Pool.

Although Wyrtki's hypothesis was not developed further, his work complimented the study by Bjerknes (1969) which showed a correlation between water temperatures in the equatorial Pacific and the Southern Oscillation (Philander, 1985). This led to further uses of the term El Niño to describe both its world wide influence and the air-sea interaction (or mechanism) behind the event (Cane, 2011).

Bjerknes (1969) also argued that the east-west temperature gradient along the Equator was involved and this is usually taken to imply that the temperature of the East Pacific Cold Pool is a key part of the El Niño mechanism. However Clarke (2014) doubts this, because the east Pacific winds are only weakly affected by an El Niño. If he is correct, temperature changes in the

60   Cold Pool are a consequence of and not a cause of El Niños.

Further studies showed that Bjerknes' correlation was strongest when using ocean temperatures from the central Pacific. As a result most modern studies of the Southern Oscillation use the Nino 3.4 index to measure the strength of an El Niño (Larkin and Harrison, 2005). This is based on the mean sea surface temperature in the central Pacific between 170°W and 120°W, and between 5°S and 5°N.

65   As well as affecting surface winds in the western and central Pacific, the atmospheric El Niño requires the centre of deep atmospheric convection to move from the maritime continent and the western Pacific into the central Pacific. Evans and Webster (2014), following Gadgil et al. (1984) and Zhang (1993), confirmed that this requires sea surface temperatures of 28°C and above during wet seasons and even higher temperatures during dry periods.

In the central Pacific, such temperatures are found on the Equator during an El Niño, but eastern Pacific equatorial tem-

70   peratures never reach this value (Philander, 1985, Fig. 2). Instead the eastward limit of warm water on the Equator is closely correlated with the Southern Oscillation Index (Picaut et al., 1996).

In the eastern Pacific, temperatures sufficient to trigger deep atmospheric convection are often found further north in the ocean off Central America and along the path of the NECC close to the ITCZ.

Meteorological studies also showed that the start of an El Niño was often connected with one or more Madden-Julian

75   Oscillations (MJOs) (Madden and Julian, 1971, 1972). In his review, Zhang (2005) describes MJOs as individual events with lifetimes of between 30 and 100 days and with the property that there is never more than one major event in existence at a time. Each one consists of an area, spanning the Equator, in which there is an increased density of short lived convective cloud groups.

The events progress eastwards at speeds around 5 ms^{-1}, starting in the western Indian Ocean and dying out after passing

80   the western Pacific. At sea level they are associated with inflowing winds from the east and west, but in the Pacific the westerly winds may extend past the centre of the cloud groups.

1.2   El Niño models and theories

Following Wyrtki and Bjerknes, most theoretical studies of the ocean's contribution to El Niño have focussed on the Cold Pool. This is a narrow band of low sea surface temperatures, centred on the Equator in the eastern Pacific. During a normal

85   year this is a result of the wind generated upwelling of cold water from depths of around 200m, but during an El Niño the surface thermocline becomes thicker and less cold water is upwelled.

Early theoretical studies, using analytic models or numerical models with a few layers (Hurlburt et al., 1976; McCreary, 1976, 1985; McPhaden, 1981, 1993), showed that the changes in the Cold Pool could be generated by wind variations in the western and central Pacific. This occurred via the propagation of baroclinic Kelvin waves in the equatorial wave guide. The

studies also showed that only winds close to the equator were responsible (McCreary, 1976) and that off equatorial currents, such as the NECC, were not connected with the El Niño changes to the Cold Pool.

With the development of computer power, it was eventually possible to run ocean models with much more detailed physics and with enough horizontal and vertical resolution to resolve the key currents and structure of the ocean (Bryan, 1969; Semtner, 1974; Philander, 1985; Cox, 1989; Smith et al., 1992). The versions developed by Cox (1989), Madec et al. (1998) and Griffies et al. (2005) have been widely used in stand-alone mode and, coupled to an atmospheric model, for studies of climate.

Unfortunately the NECC can be poorly represented in such models (Lengaigne et al., 2002; Sun et al., 2019). Yu et al. (2000) investigated the forcing of ocean only models and showed that this was a result of the atmospheric reanalysis datasets underestimating the curl of the wind field near the latitudes of the ITCZ (Byrne et al., 2018), and overestimating the strength of easterly winds on the Equator.

The study also found that, of the datasets studied, the ECMWF reanalysis was best at generating a realistic NECC. This may be because the ECMWF model was using a spherical harmonic expansion which requires less smoothing than normal finite difference schemes to overcome non-linear instabilities.

There is a related problem with coupled ocean-atmosphere models which fail to generate realistic El Niños (Guilyardi et al., 2009; Ham and Kug, 2012; Flato et al., 2013; Hsu et al., 2021). This again may be due to the limited resolution of the atmospheric component being insufficient to accurately represent features such as the ITCZ.

Further studies using observational data have indicated that there are two types of El Niño (Larkin and Harrison, 2005; Ashok et al., 2007; Tan and Zhou, 2018). The most common are the central Pacific (CP) or Modaki events, in which the centre of atmospheric convection moves to the central Pacific. More rarely the centre of convection moves even further east to give the strong eastern Pacific (EP) El Niños. These behave like the classic El Niños (Philander, 1985), which Wyrtki (1974a) proposed were triggered by the NECC.

1.3 Wyrtki's hypothesis

Although neglected for many years, Wyrtki's hypothesis is supported by more recent studies using altimeter data (Zhang and Busalacchi, 1999; Hsin and Qiu, 2012; Zhao et al., 2013; Wijaya and Hisaki, 2021). These confirm the increased transport by the NECC during EP El Niños, Zhao et al. (2013) showing that the increased transport in the western Pacific occurs before the corresponding change in the Nino 3.4 index. They thus leave open the possibility that the increased transport has a role in triggering subsequent EP El Niños, rather than being part of the ocean's response to the event. The studies also show that there are changes in the NECC during CP El Niños, indicating that both types of El Niño may be affected by the NECC in the western Pacific

Further support for the hypothesis comes from Webb (2018) who used results from a high resolution global ocean model to study the ocean during the strong EP El Niños of 1982-1983 and 1997-1998.

The model used by Webb (2018) was forced by modified ECMWF reanalysis fields (Dussin et al., 2016) and produced sea level and sea surface temperature fields in the equatorial Pacific in close agreement with satellite observations (Webb et al.,

2020). The results indicate that the modified ECMWF reanalysis fields accurately represented the wind stress curl and so generated a realistic NECC.

Unlike previous studies, Webb (2018) concentrated on water with temperatures above 28°C, sufficient to trigger deep atmospheric convection. The study showed that, while the strong El Niños were developing, the NECC carried warm water into the eastern Pacific far in advance of water with similar temperatures on the Equator.

The study also helped explain why the NECC does not carry Warm Pool water into the eastern Pacific every year, by showing that in normal years tropical instability waves mix in cold upwelled water from near the Equator and that this rapidly reduces temperatures in the NECC (See: Baturin and Niiler, 1997). In El Nino years the eddies are weaker so their effect on the NECC is reduced.

It also found that the start time of strong El Niño events resulted in warm water reaching the central and eastern Pacific at a time of year when the annual Rossby wave meant that the NECC was strongest there. This resulted in the warm water arriving off South America around the end of the year, thus providing a physical mechanism to explain the name originally given to classic EP El Niños.

Finally the study showed that both the strong 1982-83 and 1997-98 El Niño events started when the depth of the western section of the North Equatorial Trough was unusually low. As a result the NECC transport, and the flux of Warm Pool water eastwards, were both much stronger than usual.

1.4   Low sea levels in the western Pacific

Webb (2018) suggested that the low sea level in the trough was due to an unusually strong annual Rossby wave prior to each El Niño. However further investigation showed that this is unlikely, as in each case the wave is not unusually large as it crosses the central Pacific.

Another possible explanation is that the stratification in the Pacific, prior to an El Niño, is sufficient to focus the Rossby wave and so cause lower than normal sea levels. Alternatively the low sea level may not be due to the Rossby wave but instead is due to some other process associated with the wind field. This could be a local feature occurring at or just before the period when sea level drops. It could also be a response to forcing elsewhere in the ocean, which later propagates into the western Pacific.

To help clarify the cause of the drop in sea level, this paper reports on series of short ocean model runs which focus on changes in the western Pacific prior to the 1982-1983 El Niño. The study uses an updated version of the Occam global ocean model (Webb et al., 1997; de Cuevas et al., 1999). In each run, the model is initialised from one of the archive datasets from the original run of the Nemo model and forced with ocean surface stresses calculated during the same run.

1.5   Structure of the report

In the first part of the paper, section 2 describes the model being used and how the model fields and forcing were converted from the 1/12° Nemo grid to the 1/4° Occam grid.

Section 3 then describes two tests carried out to validate the lower resolution model. In these the model was started from the Nemo archive datasets from early January 1981 and 1982 and then run for a year using the surface wind stresses from the same year. The resulting model fields were compared with the results from the original Nemo run.

The second part of the paper is concerned with a series of runs of the Occam model with different wind fields. Section 4 reports on two runs where the model was again started from early January 1981 and 1982, but with the wind forcing from the opposite year. The results show that the main changes in sea level depend primarily on the wind field and, to first order, are independent of the stratification at the start of the run.

In section 5 the test that used the 1982 initial conditions with 1981 winds, is repeated but starting later in the year when the annual Rossby wave has developed and is starting to cross the central Pacific. This is done as a check to see if some property of the Rossby wave is responsible for the sea level drop in the western Pacific. The results are similar to the earlier test, indicating that the wind generated Rossby wave is not responsible for the drop in sea level.

Section 6 takes the study further with a run designed to investigate whether the winds causing the drop in sea level are local to the western equatorial Pacific or propagate in from other parts of the ocean. The results show that it is the local winds that are responsible.

This leads to the final part of the paper where, in section 7, a study is made of the Ekman pumping in the western Equatorial Pacific due to the local winds. This concludes that the drop of sea level in the model runs is consistent with an enhanced level of Ekman suction that occurred north of the Equator during the first half of 1982.

The final section discusses these results and how they affect our understanding of how and why strong El Niños develop.

2 The Occam 1/4° global ocean model

Occam is a primitive equation model, based on the Bryan-Cox-Semtner series of models (Bryan, 1969; Cox, 1989; Semtner, 1974). It uses a regular latitude-longitude grid for all the oceans except the North Atlantic and Arctic. For the latter basins it uses a second rotated latitude-longitude grid which is matched to the first grid at the Equator. The Bering Strait between the Arctic and the North Pacific is modelled with a simple channel model.

Occam uses 1/4° resolution in both longitude and latitude. In the vertical it has 66 levels, instead of the 75 levels of the Nemo run, and makes use of an existing global topography that was checked against a database of critical oceanographic sills (Thompson, 1996). Both the Occam and Nemo models have increased vertical resolution in the surface layers, Occam using 24 layers in the top 300m and Nemo 34 layers, the difference being primarily due to Nemo's extra resolution in the top 100m.

Occam uses harmonic mixing in the horizontal and the scheme of Pacanowski and Philander (1981) for vertical mixing. For horizontal advection it uses the second order split-quick scheme (Webb et al., 1998) for both momentum and tracers. For the vertical advection of momentum it uses the scheme of Webb (1995).

Occam was chosen for these tests primarily because of its computational efficiency and because the amount of computer time available was limited. The efficiency arises partly because, unlike Nemo, it uses a regular grid and partly because the code includes fewer of the complex physical options included in Nemo.
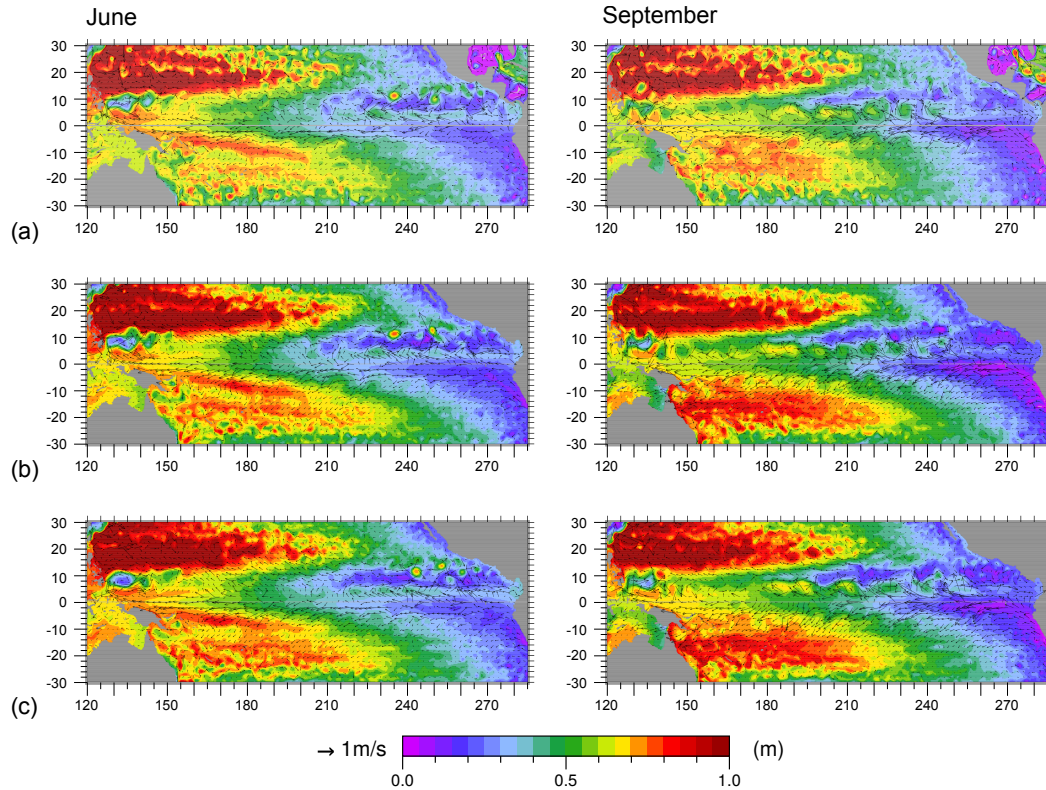
Figure 1. Sea level (m) plus surface currents on the 6th June and 9th September for (a) Nemo in 1981, (b) Occam in 1981, started January 1981 (c) Occam in 1982, started January 1982 but with 1981 winds.

However most ocean models are limited not by the speed of the processor but by the length of time needed to transfer data from main memory. Occam's main advantage is that it overcomes this by vectorising the code in the vertical[1].

2.1 Initialisation and forcing

The model runs reported here were initialised by averaging the archived data from the high-resolution Nemo model onto the Occam grid. Variable values within each Occam ocean cell were calculated by averaging over the intersection of the Occam and Nemo cells. In the case of vector quantities, vectors were rotated to the Occam grid before averaging.

The runs were also carried out with zero flux of heat and salt across the ocean surface. Each run is for only a few months and, although the surface temperatures and salinities are affected, this approximation allows the analysis to concentrate on the effects of wind stress and of advection and diffusion within the ocean.

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[1]This means that all the variables needed to time step the cells in a vertical column are held in high speed cache at the same time and no extra references to main memory are required. Also when moving from one column of ocean cells to the next, most of the data required is already in cache.
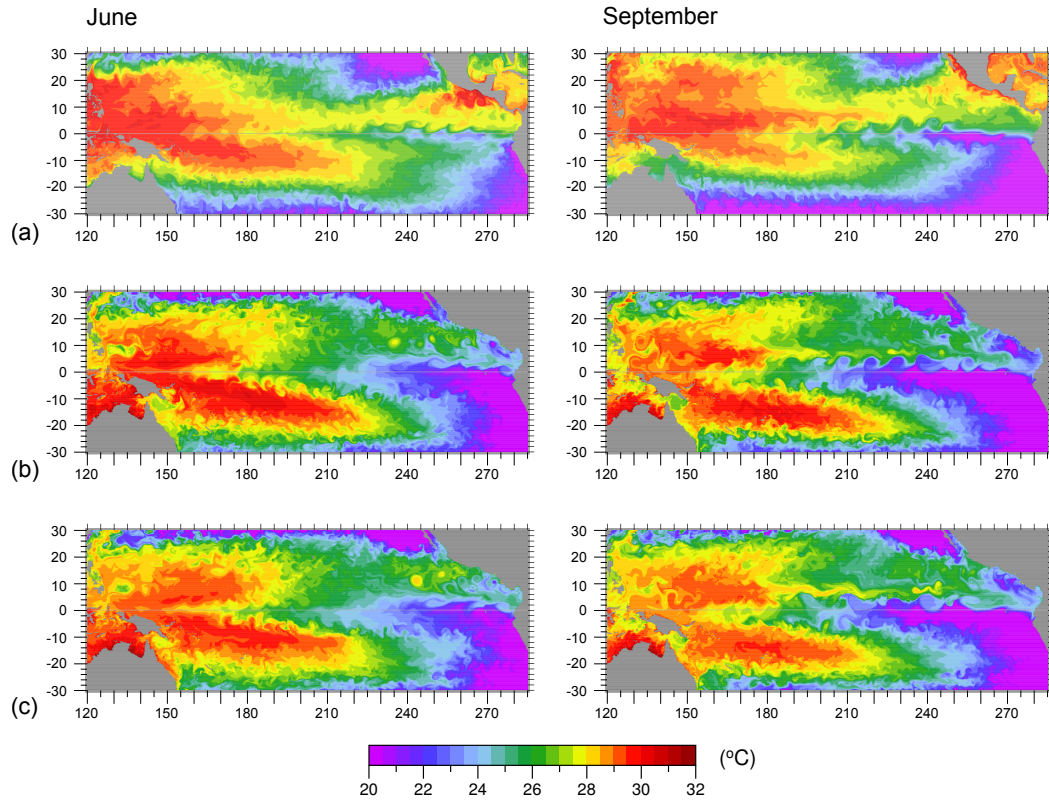
Figure 2. Surface temperature (°C) on the 6th June and 9th September for (a) Nemo in 1981, (b) Occam in 1981, started January 1981 (c) Occam in 1982, started January 1982 but with 1981 winds.

Each Nemo archive datasets contain the ocean and forcing fields averaged over the previous 5 days. Thus when initialising the Occam model and when specifying the wind forcing, the time of each Nemo dataset is set to the central time of the averaging period. However when specifying particular Nemo archive files, the original archive date is used.

200   The use of five day averages filters out higher frequency components of the wind field and also means that the ocean state used to initialise the Occam model may be unusually smooth. The resulting lack of high frequency oscillations may affect vertical mixing in the ocean but should otherwise have little effect on lower frequency variations in sea level and current velocity, which are the focus of this study.

3   Validation

205 Previously the Occam model has been widely used for successful oceanographic research but here the use of Occam with the modified forcing from the Nemo archive was validated by comparing the model results over a full year with the results from the Nemo 1/12° run. The latter was validated against observations by Webb et al. (2020).
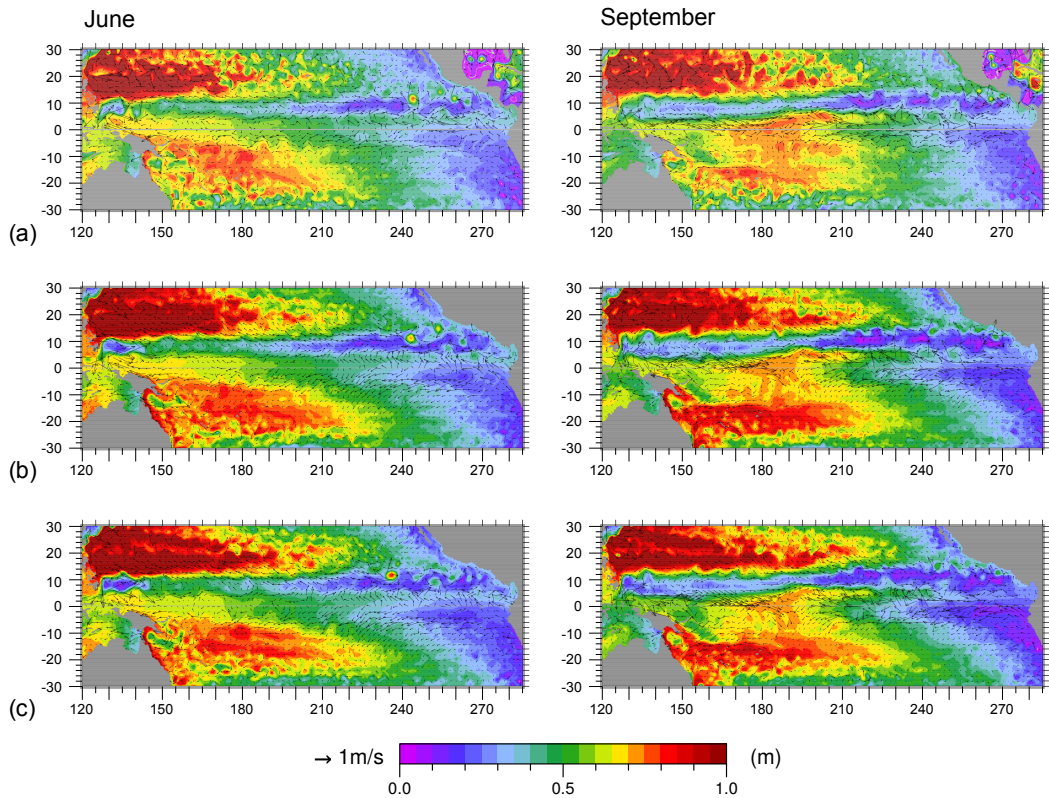
Figure 3. Sea level (m) plus surface currents on the 6th June and 9th September for (a) Nemo in 1982, (b) Occam in 1982, started January 1982 (c) Occam in 1981, started January 1981 but with 1982 winds.

Two runs of the Occam model are considered. In the first, designed to check performance in a normal year, Occam was initialised from the Nemo archive datasets from the 5th January 1981. In the second, a test of a strong El Niño year, the model was started from the 5th January 1982. Both runs were then continued for a full year, using the Nemo archived surface wind stresses from that year.

3.1 Comparison of 1981 results

In Fig. 1, the top two pairs of figures show sea level from the Nemo and Occam models on the 6th June and the 9th September 1981. The 6th June is chosen because the corresponding date in 1982 can be used to check the early deepening of the North Equatorial Trough in the western Pacific that occurs prior to the 1982-1983 El Niño. Similarly the 9th September is chosen as a check on how well Occam reproduces the increased depth of the trough, and corresponding increased strength of the NECC, across the whole of the Pacific, during the autumn months.

At the largest scales the Occam model is in close agreement with Nemo, the main differences arising from slightly more extreme maxima and maxima. Thus in September, maximum sea level in the South Pacific Gyre is slightly higher in Occam. Similarly the minimum sea levels in the Cold Pool on the Equator and within the North Equatorial Trough are slightly lower.

This paper is primarily concerned with the behaviour of the NECC and the associated sea levels in the North Equatorial Trough. Here Occam shows a similar westward propagation of the trough during the year and a similar growth of the ridge on the southern side of the NECC. The September figures also show a similar development in Occam of the short wavelength features on the ridge, associated with the growth of tropical instability eddies.

In June, both Nemo and Occam show that the trough is particularly weak in the central Pacific resulting in an almost non-existant NECC. However in September, with a greater contrast between ridge and trough, both models show a stronger NECC.

At the western ends of the trough and ridge, Occam shows a similar development of the high and low sea level regions associated with both the Halmahera and Mindinau eddies (Kashino et al., 2003) and the initial meanders of the NECC. In September these decay in amplitude, in contrast to the growth of the trough and ridge features seen in the central and eastern Pacific.

The development of sea level during the year at 6°N in both Nemo and Occam is shown in panels (a) and (c) of Fig. 5.

The average slope in sea level in Occam matches that of Nemo and in the central and eastern Pacific, Occam shows a similar development of the ridges due to the growth and propagation of tropical instability eddies. The figure also shows the low sea levels due to the propagation on the annual Rossby wave at 6°N. This starts in the eastern Pacific early in the year and reaches the dateline in July and August.

The corresponding sea levels on the Equator are shown in panels (a) and (c) of Fig. 6. Again the overall east-west slope is similar and Occam reproduces the eastward propagating equatorial waves that can be generated by westerly wind bursts in the western equatorial Pacific. There are differences between the two model runs but in both models sea level is a maximum either close to the western boundary or near 150°E.

Sea surface temperatures, in June and September 1981, are shows in the top pairs of panels in Fig. 2. As Occam includes no surface warming or cooling it is expected to show no seasonal changes and this is seen to be the case, Occam showing warmer temperatures in the southern hemisphere in both June and September and cooler temperatures in the north.

The differences are largest off Central America, where Occam fails to reproduce the East Pacific Warm Pool, and in the western section of the South Pacific, where there is little reduction of Occam temperatures between June and September. The regions of cold water, with temperatures at or below 20°C, also behave very differently in Occam and Nemo.

Along the line of the NECC at 6°N, Occam fails to show the warming during the first half of the year, but by September it does show a narrow band of warm water being advected into the eastern Pacific by the NECC. It also shows it being eroded by tropical instability eddies.

3.2 Comparison of 1982 results

Corresponding sets of panels for 1982, during the development of the 1982-1983 El Niño, are shown in Figs. 3, 4, 5 and 6.

In Fig. 3, Occam shows, in agreement with Nemo, a much deeper North Equatorial Trough in early June together with a well developed NECC. This is emphasised further in September with a deep trough in the west which extends almost as far as the Mindanao Eddy.

The Hovmöller diagrams of Fig. 5 show that in 1982 the annual Rossby wave, in both Occam and Nemo, links with the region of low sea level that develops at the western end of the trough. Webb (2018) argued that it was this drop which generated the increase the NECC strength which triggered the development of a classic oceanographic El Niño.

At the Equator (Fig. 6), Occam shows, in agreement with Nemo, the movement of the maximum sea level away from the western boundary to a region near 200°E. In Figs. 3 and 4 this is seen to correspond to the region of high sea level on the equator where the warmest Equatorial temperatures are also found.

3.3 Summary of comparisons

The results show that the Occam model is capturing the key features in the sea level field which affect the strength of the NECC, the strength of tropical instability eddies and processes occurring on the Equator. It is less effective at capturing changes to sea surface temperature field. This may partly be due to the lack of surface heat fluxes in this version of the model. It may also be partly due to the much reduced horizontal resolution of the model.

However by bearing these strengths and weaknesses into account, there is no reason why it cannot be used to study the effect of the winds and the initial state of the ocean on the development of the 1982-1983 El Niño, as is done here.

4 Tests using wind stresses from different years

Although Webb (2018) identified a number of processes contributing to the development of a strong El Niño in 1982 and 1997, the study was not able to explain why the events started in those years and not, say, a year earlier or a year later.

One possibility, suggested by Webb (2018), is that there was something different about the stratification of the ocean in early 1982 and 1997, which focused the annual Rossby waves, so that they had a larger amplitude than usual once they reached the western Pacific. Another possibility is that the difference was due to the wind. This may have generated a stronger than normal annual Rossby wave that year. Alternatively some independent wind event may have occurred which lowered sea level in the western Pacific around the time that the leading edge of the annual Rossby wave arrived.

In an attempt to distinguish between these possibilities, the two Occam runs starting in January 1981 and 1982 were repeated, but this time forced by the winds from the opposite year. If focusing is important then the January 1982 ocean, forced by the 1981 winds, might generate a similar enhanced annual Rossby wave in the western Pacific. Alternatively if the winds are important then the January 1981 run, forced by the 1982 winds, might generate the low sea level in the western Pacific.

4.1 January 1982 ocean forced by 1981 winds

In this test, the model was initialised from the Nemo archive dataset dated the 5th January 1982, but then forced with winds from 1981. Figure 5e shows how sea level developed at 6°N. During the first few months of the year the annual Rossby wave
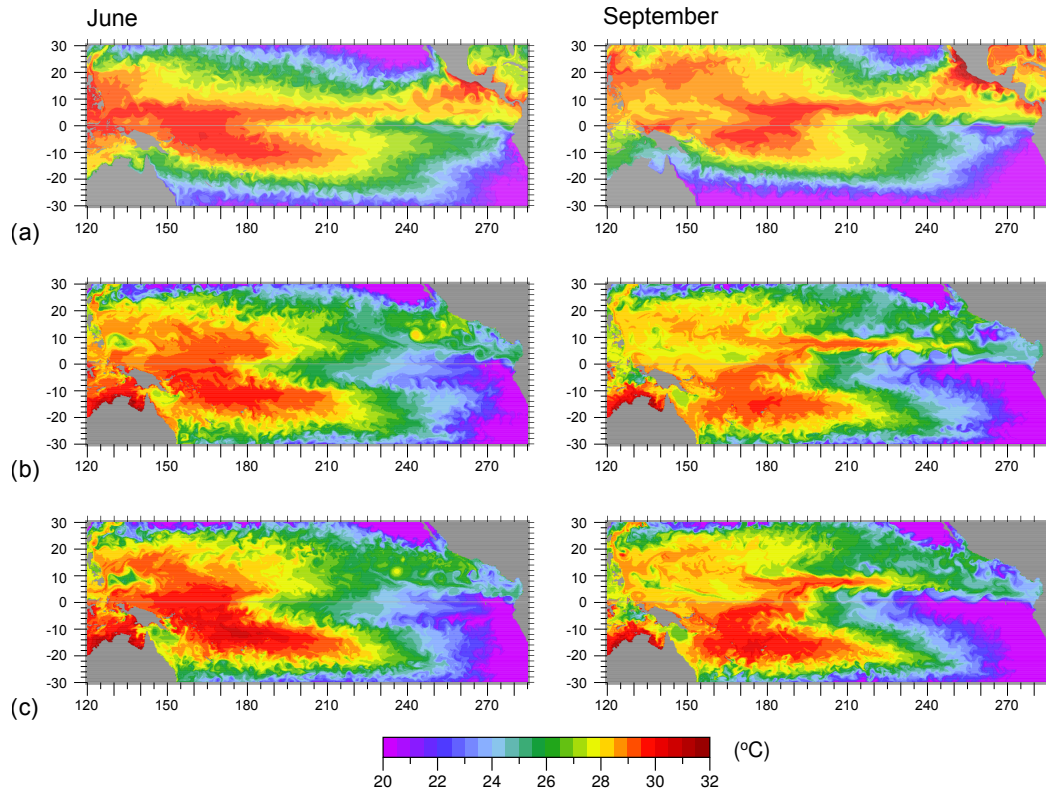
Figure 4. Surface temperature (°C) on the 6th June and 9th September for (a) Nemo in 1982, (b) Occam in 1982, started January 1982 (c) Occam in 1981, started January 1981 but with 1982 winds.

develops and propagates westwards as normal but in mid-ocean the amplitude declines so by the time the wave reaches 180°E the signal is weak.

On the Equator (Fig. 6e), sea level starts high in the western Pacific, as in the previous run with 1982 winds (Fig. 6d), but as the year develops it stays in the west and there is no movement into the central Pacific.

Figures 1c and 2c show the sea level and temperature fields for June and September. Previous runs with 1982 winds show that by June the depth of the trough is starting to increase more than in a normal year but here this is not happening and instead the response is closer to that of Nemo in 1981. Similarly in September the trough fails to develop further and the response again lies closer to that of Nemo in 1981.

The surface temperature field is also closer to the Nemo results from 1981, with the bulk of the Warm Pool water remaining in the west. However there is a thin core of warmer NECC water extending into the eastern Pacific, which is not present in the run started in January 1981 with 1981 winds. This indicates that there was some change in the structure of the ocean between January 1981 and 1982 which aided the transport of warm water eastwards by the NECC.
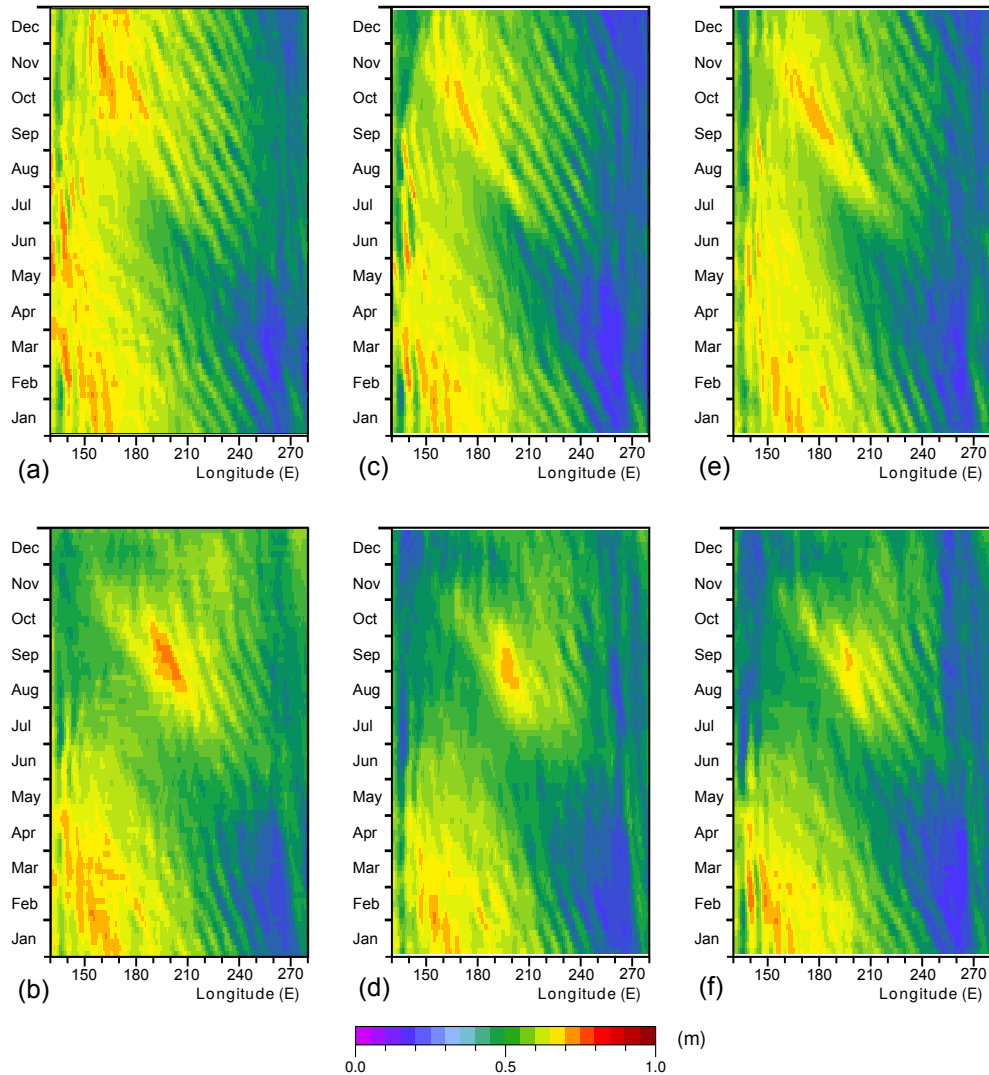
Figure 5. Hovmöller diagrams of sea level (m) at 6°N in the Pacific for (a) Nemo model in 1981, (b) Nemo in 1982, (c) Occam starting January 1981, (d) Occam starting January 1982, (e) Occam starting January 1982 but with 1981 winds, (f) Occam starting January 1981 but with 1982 winds. The figures are based on 1° averages of the model data.

Despite this, the main conclusion from this run is that the ocean state at the start of 1982 was not sufficient to trigger an El Niño in mid-year. Although a reasonable annual Rossby wave was generated early in the year, this was not focused and did not generate or contribute to the lowering of sea level in the western Pacific.
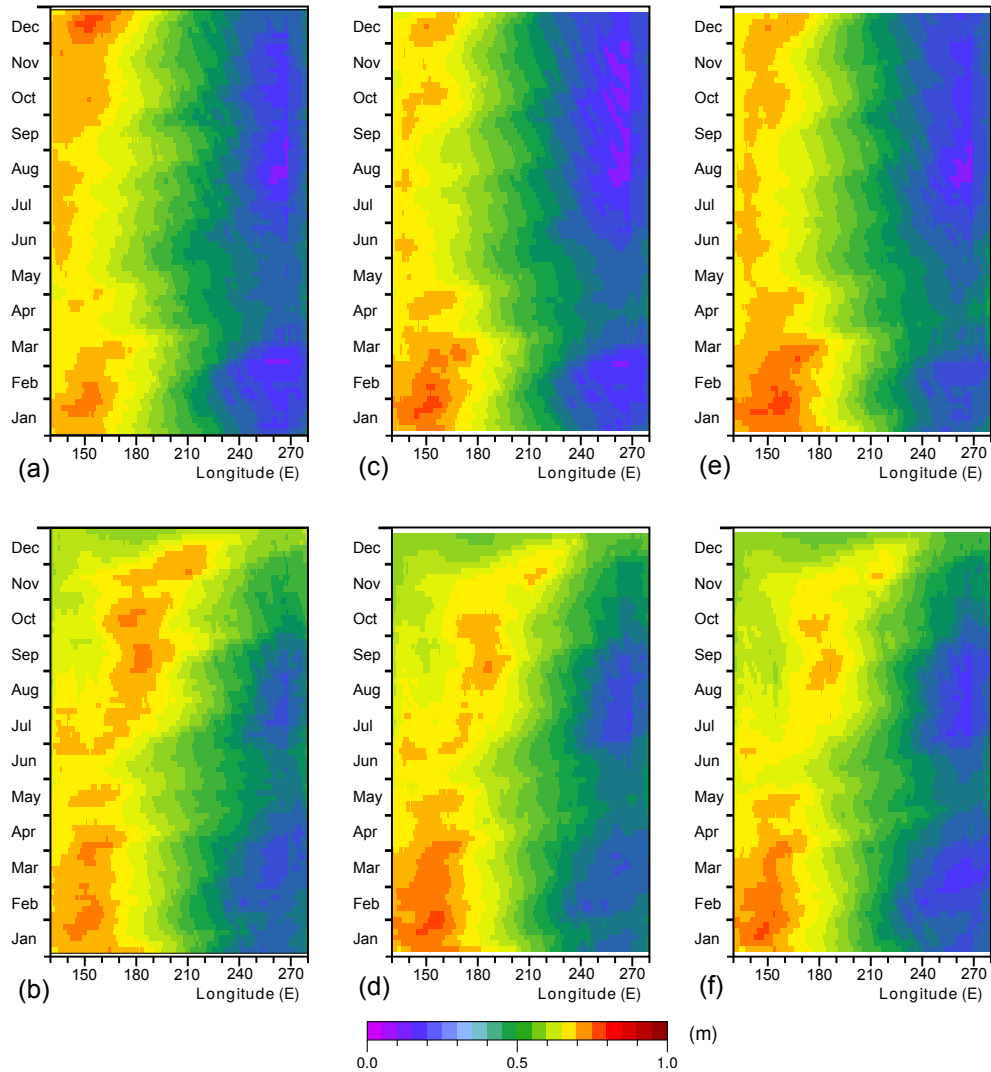
Figure 6. Hovmöller diagrams of sea level (m) on the Equator for (a) Nemo model in 1981, (b) Nemo in 1982, (c) Occam starting January 1981, (d) Occam starting January 1982, (e) Occam starting January 1982 but with 1981 winds, (f) Occam starting January 1981 but with 1982 winds. The figures are based on 1° averages of the model data.

4.2 January 1981 ocean forced by 1982 winds

In the second test, the ocean is initialised from the Nemo archived dataset dated the 5th January 1981, but then forced with 1982 winds. Figure 5f shows the sea level during the year at 6°N. The annual Rossby starts as before, but this time it continues
300 past 180°E and links up with a region of low sea level in the western Pacific - as might be expected at the start of a strong El Niño.
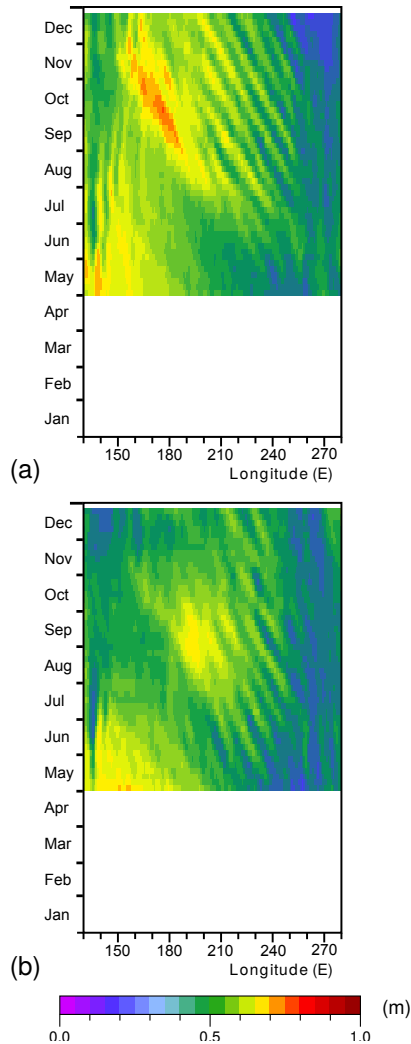
Figure 7. Hovmöller diagram of sea level (m) at 6°N during 1982 for (a) when started from the Nemo model archive from the 30th April 1982 but forced by 1981 winds, (b) started from the Nemo model archive from the 30th April 1981 but forced by 1982 winds.

On the Equator (Fig. 6f) the ocean again starts with high sea levels in the west. In mid-year these move into the central Pacific - again as might be expected at the start of a strong El Niño.

Figures 3c and 4c show that in mid-year the distribution of sea surface temperature is similar to the other Occam runs, but sea level shows a well developed North Equatorial Trough with a strong NECC developing on its southern slope.

By September the trough has developed further and the temperature plot shows warm surface water being advected rapidly into the eastern Pacific. The area of warm water involved is not as large as in the original Nemo run in 1982, but as with Fig. 4b, this is probably a result of setting the surface flux of heat to zero in these test runs.

One conclusion from this test is that the ocean will produce an El Niño like response when forced by the winds from an El Niño year. This has been reported before, but based primarily on the large sea level and temperature anomalies that develop in the eastern Pacific Cold Pool towards the end of the first year of a classic oceanographic El Niño.

The present study is different in that it shows the winds having a significant effect during the first half of the year, well before any changes in the Cold Pool region are noticeable. The results also show that by mid-year the 1982 winds have produced significant changes in the western section of the North Equatorial Trough. What is not clear is whether the increased depth of the trough is due to the mean winds during the first part of the year or due to one or more isolated events.

It is also not clear whether it is due to a local change in the winds along the line of the trough, or whether the key wind forcing occurs elsewhere and the signal propagates into the region lowering the level of the trough. The remaining tests reported here attempt to obtain a clearer answer to these questions.

5 Tests starting in late April

One possibility that has not been discounted is that, early in the 1982, the winds generated a Rossby wave, or similar, which was later responsible for the drop sea level drop in the western Pacific. To test this hypothesis, the model was started from the Nemo archive dataset dated the 30th April 1982 and then forced with the 1981 winds. The start date is just before the start of the drop in sea level in the western Pacific. If the Rossby or other waves are responsible, then by that date they should be established enough to reproduce the drop in sea level despite the change in the wind field.

Fig. 7a shows how sea level delops along 6°N. The annual Rossby wave starts propagating across the central Pacific as normal but near the dateline its amplitude is greatly reduced and there is no connection with the lower sea levels of the far western Pacific. Thus, although the test does not exclude events occurring before the 30th April having some impact, they can not be the prime cause of the sea level drop that increases the strength of the NECC near 160°E.

The complimentary test was also carried out, in which the ocean was started from the 30th April 1981 but forced with 1982 winds. The result, shown in Fig. 7b, shows that sea level does drop. This implies that it is the winds after the 30th April 1982 that are responsible.

6 The role of local winds in the western Pacific

Figure 8 shows the difference between the 1982 and 1981 wind stress vectors for the Pacific when averaged between the 16th March and the 8th August. It shows that in the western Pacific near the Equator, there is a significant westerly component to the wind stress anomaly. North of New Guinea this drops to zero near 10°N. This distance is typical of the atmospheric equatorial Rossby radius, a scale which also determines the northward extent of Madden-Julian Oscillations (Madden and Julian, 1971, 2012).

MJOs are reported to be stronger over the western Pacific prior to eastern Pacific El Niños (Chen et al., 2016). Thus the anomaly and the large north-south gradient in the wind stress may be connected with the MJOs.
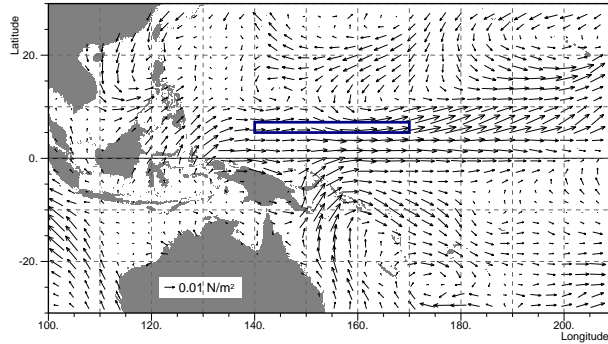
Figure 8. Wind stress vector anomaly (Nm^{-2}), for the period 16th March to the 8th August 1982 relative to the same period in 1981. The blue rectangle shows the region between 140°E and 170°E and between 5°N and 7°N.

340   Further east the ITCZ often lies close to 10°N. It is not clear whether this is related to the equatorial Rossby radius, but the figure shows that this is also a region where both the wind stress anomaly and its north-south gradient can be large.

    To see if the local wind fields in the western Pacific were responsible for the drop in sea level in 1982, a modified wind field was constructed which combined both the 1981 and 1982 winds. The weighting for the 1982 winds was defined so that it equalled one within the region 140°E to 180°E and the Equator to 15°N and was zero outside the region 130°E to 190°W and
345 10°S to 25°N. Linear interpolation was used between the two boundaries. Weighting for the 1981 field was set to one minus the 1982 weighting.

    This results in the 1982 wind field being used for the area where the main sea level drop is observed and the 1981 wind fields being used elsewhere but with a smooth transition zone. The combined wind field was then used for two runs. As with the previous tests using 1982 winds, the first started from the ocean state for the 3rd January 1981 and the second from the 30th
350 April 1981. If the drop in sea level is due to local winds then the change in sea level should be similar to those obtained using only the 1982 wind field.

    The resulting sea levels along 6°N are shown in Fig. 9. In both cases sea level starts dropping in the western Pacific in early May, confirming the importance of the local winds after the 30th April.

6.1 Intercomparison

355 Fig. 10 shows the changes in sea level from the different runs, averaged over the region 140°E to 170°E and 5°N to 7°N, as outlined in Fig. 8. The Occam runs start with a slight offset from the corresponding runs of the Nemo model, due to the initial adjustment to the new coast and topography.

    In this figure, colour is used to distinguish the different winds forcing the ocean, blue for 1981 and red for 1982. Even with the different starting conditions, the runs soon split into two distinct groups, sea levels with the 1981 winds staying roughly
360 constant whereas the 1982 winds generate a 20 cm drop between March and August. As pressures in the deep ocean remain roughly constant, this drop in sea level must correspond to a significant rise in the density surfaces within the ocean.
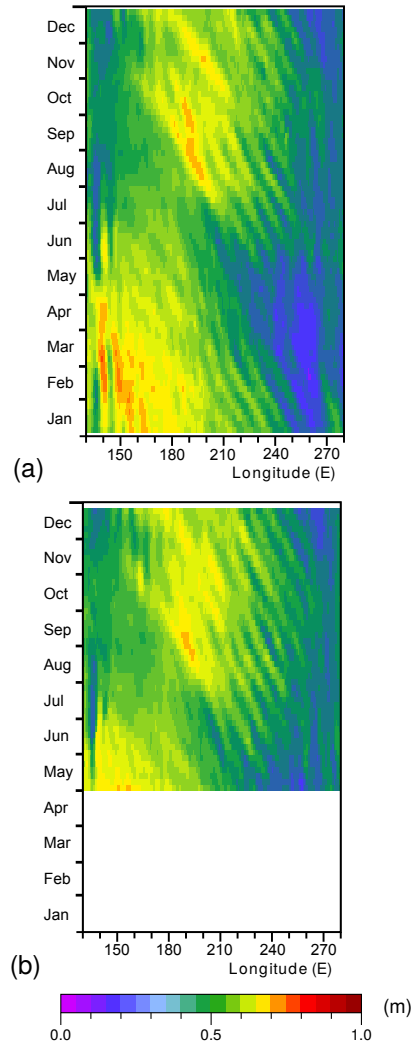
Figure 9. Hovmöller diagram of sea level (m) at 6°N during 1981, forced by the combination of 1981 and 1982 winds described in the main text when started from the NEMO archive for (a) 5th January 1981, (b) 30th April 1981.

To quantify the differences between the groups, sea levels from the end of April and August are given in Table 1, split into runs forced by 1981 winds and those forced either by 1982 winds or by the combined wind fields. A t-test shows that the probability of both sets belonging to the same group at the end of April is around 0.5, as might be expected. By the end of

365 August the probability drops to around 0.00002. A test using the sea level change over the period gives a similar value.

Table 1. Mean sea levels (m) between 140°E and 170°E and between 5°N and 7°N, at the end of April and August for the different runs, identified by the model and start month. The two groups correspond to runs forced by the 1981 winds and by either the 1982 winds or the combined winds.

		Start	Apr	Aug
81 Winds	Occam	Jan 81	0.620	0.557
	"	Jan 82	0.632	0.581
	"	Apr 81	0.633	0.520
	Nemo	Jan 81	0.605	0.570
82 Winds	Occam	Jan 82	0.582	0.341
	"	Jan 81	0.577	0.316
	"	Apr 81	0.672	0.356
	Nemo	Jan 81	0.559	0.364
Combined	Occam	Jan 81	0.590	0.354
	"	Apr 81	0.668	0.387
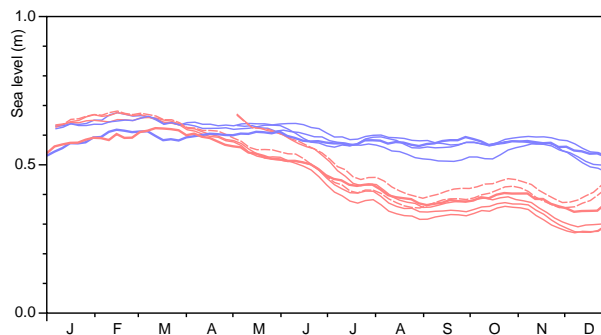
Figure 10. Sea level (m) in the different runs averaged between 140°E and 170°E and between 5°N and 7°N. Solid red lines correspond to runs forced by 1982 winds, blue to 1981 winds. Thick lines are from the original Nemo run, thin lines are from the Occam runs. The red dashed lines corresponds to the runs started in 1981 but with 1982 winds only in the western Pacific.

7   Winds and Ekman Divergence

Given that local winds appear to be responsible, the most likely cause of the rise in the density surfaces is that it is due to a divergence in the wind generated Ekman transport in the surface layers of the ocean.

Here the possibility is investigated by calculating the Ekman pumping in the region 140°E to 170°E and 5°N to 7°N.

If the Ekman transport vector is $E(\theta, \phi)$, where θ and ϕ are latitude and longitude, then

$$E(\theta, \phi) = \tau(\theta, \phi) \wedge \hat{n}/(\rho f(\theta)) \tag{1}$$
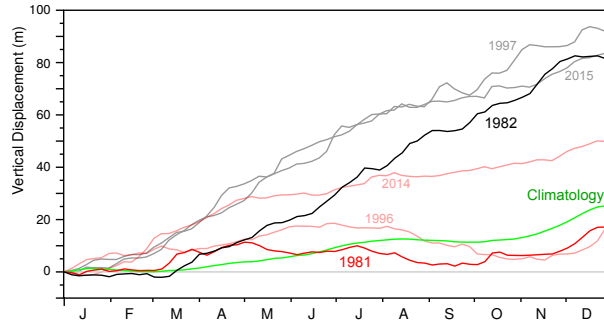
Figure 11. Integral over time of the vertical velocity due to Ekman divergence in the region bounded by 140°E, 170°E, 5°N and 7°N, during (black) 1982, (red) 1981, (green) climatology 1958-2015. In the background are the corresponding plots for the years prior to the 1997-1998 and 2015-2016 El Niños.

where $\tau(\theta,\phi)$ is the wind stress vector, $\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}$ the unit vertical vector, ρ is the density and $f(\theta)$ is the Coriolis term, equal to,

$$f(\theta) \;\; = \;\; 2\,\Omega\,\sin(\theta). \tag{2}$$

Ω is the angular rotation rate of the Earth.

375   The averaged vertical velocity in a region, due the divergence of the Ekman flux, is then given by integrating the outward flowing Ekman transport around the region of interest,

$$P \;\; = \;\; -(1/A) \oint E(\theta;\phi) \wedge \hat{n} \; \cdot \; d\hat{s}, \tag{3}$$

$$\;\; = \;\; (1/A) \oint \tau(\theta,\phi) \cdot d\hat{s}/(\rho f(\theta)). \tag{4}$$

where $\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}$ is the unit vector tangential to the boundary and A the area enclosed.

380   Fig. 11, shows the results obtained by integrating the vertical velocity over time. It shows that in 1982 the Ekman divergence (given by the slope of the curve) was positive for most of the period between April and late November, and that it had the potential for raising density surfaces within the ocean by 80 m. During the period mid-March to mid-August the potential rise is approximately 50 m.

A noticeable feature of Figs. 10 and 11 is that, during 1982, the drop in sea level and the vertical displacement due to the

385   Ekman divergence are both relatively steady processes occurring over many months. There are short periods when the rate of change is reduced or reverses, but overall the results imply that the changes are a result of a long term systematic change in the wind field.

To check that the Ekman pumping is sufficient to cause the observed change in sea level, Fig. 12 shows density profiles from the original Nemo 1/12° model run averaged over the same area as before.

390   Figure 12a shows that during 1981, the changes in the depth of the density surfaces were small and at most depths had balanced out by the end of the year.
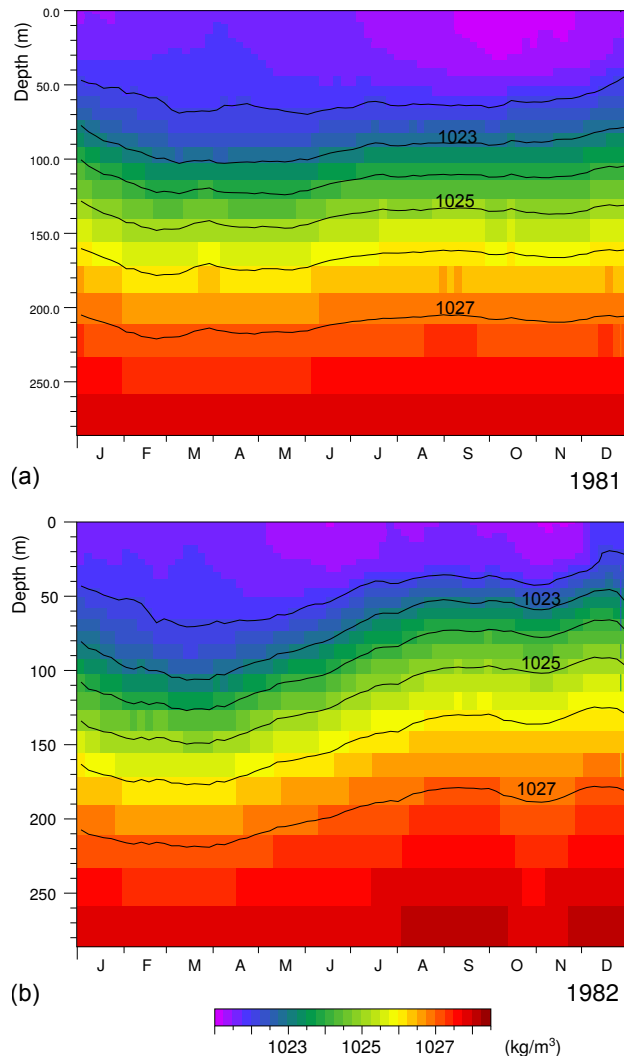
Figure 12. Nemo 1/12° model potential density averaged between 140°E and 170°E and between 5°N and 7°N, for (a) 1981 and (b) 1982. Contours at integer values of density (kg m^{-3}).

In contrast, during 1982 (Fig. 12b), there was a significant shallowing of the density surfaces. The figure shows that in mid-March, water with densities of 1025 kg m^{-3} (approx 21.5°C) lay near 150 m, and that by mid-August it had risen to near 100 m. This rise of approximately 50 m is comparable with the Ekman pumping estimate. However after this period, although the negative Ekman pumping continued there was no further shallowing in the density surfaces near the surface and there is evidence of a rebound at depth.

7.1 The 1997-1998 and 2015-2016 El Niños

Figure 11 also shows the integrated Ekman pumping during the years prior to the strong EP El Niños of 1997-1998 and 2015-2016. In 1997 and 2015, the net vertical displacement was similar to the 1982 value but in both cases the Ekman pumping started earlier in the year.

The results also show that 1996 was not very different from climatology, but in 2014 the displacement curve starts by following the curves for 1997 and 2015 and it is only after April that the pumping is reduced. The displacement then continues to increases until the end of the year.

A number of papers, including Min et al. (2015), Chiodi and Harrison (2017) and Wang and Hendon (2017), suggest that an eastern Pacific El Nino started to develop in 2014 but was then prevented by a change in the winds. It is possible that the 2014 curve in Fig. 11 reflects this event.

The main conclusion to be taken from the results is that, between mid-March and mid-August 1982, there was a large amount of negative Ekman pumping (i.e. Ekman suction) in the western Pacific around 6°N due to a wind anomaly. Similar amounts of Ekman pumping also occurred prior to the strong 1997-1998 and 2015-2016 El Niños. In each case the results indicate that the pumping was due to a systematic change in the local wind field which lasted for many months.

Previously, Hu et al. (2017) found a correlation between Ekman pumping north of the Equator and cooling within the Warm Pool during an El Niño. Zhao et al. (2013) and Tan and Zhou (2018) described similar correlations with the strength of the NECC. However, given the processes and timings involved, the present results emphasise how the NECC can be part of an active trigger of strong El Niños rather than always representing a passive response to events elsewhere.

8   Conclusions

The primary aim of this study has been to understand the cause of the low sea levels that developed in the western Pacific, along the line of the North Equatorial Trough, during the growth of the strong 1982-1983 El Niño.

A comparison of results from the Nemo 1/12° and Occam 1/4° global ocean models indicated that the latter was suitable for studying the development of the 1982-1983 El Niño in the Pacific.

The Occam model was then used in a series of short runs to determine whether the state of the ocean or the wind field was responsible for the low sea levels. The tests, in which the model was started from the ocean state at the beginning of 1981 and 1982 and forced by the winds from the opposite year, showed that the initial state of the ocean was not critical, but that the model needed the 1982 winds in order to generate the sea level drop in the western Pacific.

Similar tests, starting in mid-April, were used to check if Rossby or other waves, generated early each year, were important. However the results showed that they had no significant effect.

In the final pair of tests, the model was forced by 1981 winds everywhere except for a localised region in the western equatorial Pacific, where 1982 winds were used. Both runs reproduced the drop in sea level in the western Pacific, indicating that it was primarily the local winds that were responsible.

A plot of the wind stress anomalies in 1982, showed that at latitudes between 5°N and 12°N in the western equatorial Pacific
there was a significant gradient in the wind stress. Because of this, the amount of Ekman pumping was calculated. It was found
that in 1981 the term was small, but that in 1982 significant Ekman pumping occurred between April and November. The
original Nemo model archive showed that from April onwards there was corresponding rise in the density surfaces, but that the
rise stopped in August as the shallowest density surfaces neared the surface.

Allowing for this, the results indicate that the deepening of the North Equatorial Trough, between 140°E and 170°E during
the early development of the 1982-1983 El Niño, was due to Ekman suction caused by a period of anomalous surface wind
stress.

North of New Guinea the anomalous wind stress has a structure similar to that expected from the westerly wind phase of
a Madden-Julian Oscillation, with a maximum near the Equator and dropping to near zero at a latitude corresponding to the
atmospheric Rossby radius. Further east the anomaly appears to be more connected to the shears associated with an active
ITCZ.

El Niños are often thought to be triggered by Madden-Julian Oscillations. Although not checked here it is possible that in
1982 one or more MJOs were initially responsible for the westerlies that developed north of New Guinea. Westerlies would
generate an eastward flowing current along the Equator which, by transporting warm water, would have extended the region
over which deep atmospheric convection could occur.

However acting over a period of months, the winds also increased the depth of the North Equatorial Trough through Ekman
pumping. As found in the NEMO model results (Webb, 2018), this increased the strength of the NECC which then carried
water, warm enough to trigger deep atmospheric convection, into the eastern Pacific.

So in conclusion, a study of current and sea level changes in the equatorial Pacific, prior to the 1982-83 El Niño, has
emphasised the role of the wind shears north of the Equator, the large amount of Ekman divergence that results, and the
potential core role of these processes in triggering strong EP El Niños.

At a more general level, this study has also emphasised the mismatch between the ocean's equatorial Rossby radius, the
scale of the ocean's tropical cell and the much large scale of the atmosphere's equatorial Rossby radius. Without this mismatch
the North Equatorial Tough would probably not be so deep and the NECC could not have had such a important role in the
development of the 1982-1983 El Niño.

Code and data availability.   At the time of publication the Nemo model datasets are freely available at "http://gws-access.ceda.ac.uk/public/nemo/runs/ORC
N06/means/". The Nemo ocean model code and its documentation are available from "http://forge.ipsl.jussieu.fr/nemo/wiki/Users". The
Occam model is based on the Moma ocean model available from "https://github.com/djwebb/moma".

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