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Unrealistic increases in wind speed explain reduced eastern Pacific heat flux in reanalyses Chunlei Liu^{1,2} and Richard P. Allan^{1,2,3} ¹ Department of Meteorology, University of Reading, Reading, UK, ² National Centre for Earth Observation, Reading, UK, ³ National Centre for Atmospheric Science, Reading, UK Corresponding author address: Chunlei Liu, Department of Meteorology, University of Reading, Reading, UK, RG6 6BB E-mail: c.l.liu@reading.ac.uk

ABSTRACT

21	Tropical eastern Pacific sea surface temperature plays a pivotal role in mechanisms that determine
22	global mean surface temperature variability. In this study, the surface flux contribution to recent
23	cooling of the tropical eastern Pacific is investigated using data from three atmospheric reanalyses
24	with full assimilation of observations, an observations-based net surface energy flux reconstruction
25	and fifteen atmospheric-only climate model simulations. For the ERA-Interim reanalysis, 78% of the
26	decrease in net surface flux (-0.65 Wm ⁻² yr ⁻¹ over 1988-2008) is explained by the latent heat flux
27	variability. Latent heat flux variability differs between datasets and this is investigated using a bulk
28	formula. We find that discrepancies in wind speed change explain contrasting latent heat flux trends
29	across datasets. The significant increase of 0.26 ms ⁻¹ decade ⁻¹ in wind speed over the tropical eastern
30	Pacific in the ERA-Interim reanalysis is not reproduced by satellite or buoy observations and
31	atmospheric-only climate model simulations, casting questions on the reliability of reanalysis-based
32	surface fluxes over the tropical eastern Pacific.
33	
34	Key points:
35	1) Latent heat flux explains decreasing surface heat flux trend over tropical eastern Pacific area.
36	2) Near surface wind speed change is the main driver of the latent heat flux variability.

37 3) Changes in heat flux over the tropical eastern Pacific depicted by reanalyses estimates are
38 unrealistic

Key words: Global warming slowdown, tropical eastern Pacific cooling, Surface flux contribution,Reliability

41 **1. Introduction**

Cooling over the Tropical Eastern Pacific (*TEP*) has been identified as an important factor in 42 43 explaining the mechanisms leading to supressed global warming at the beginning of the 21st century [Easterling and Werner, 2009; Knight et al., 2009; Trenberth and Fasullo, 2013; Huber and Knutti, 44 2014; Watanabe et al., 2014; Kosaka and Xie, 2013; Meehl et al., 2014; England et al., 2015]. Using 45 both NOAA (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration) 20th century [Compo et al., 2011] 46 47 and ECMWF (European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts) Interim Reanalysis (ERA-48 Interim) [Dee et al., 2011] atmospheric reanalysis data, as well as model simulations, England et al. 49 [2014] found that the cooling is due to the observed pronounced strengthening in Pacific trade winds which enhance the ocean heat uptake and the upwelling of the subsurface cold water over the TEP 50 51 area. Zhou et al. [2016] found that the sea surface temperature (SST) pattern-induced low cloud increase [Norris and Evan, 2015] over the TEP region can enhance the shortwave reflection and 52 modify the Earth's energy budget. This has been linked to changes in atmospheric stability and can 53 explain increases in climate sensitivity relating to the evolution of SST patterns in response to 54 radiative forcing [Ceppi and Gregory, 2017; Andrews and Webb, 2017]. The cloud feedback on SST 55 changes over the decadal time scale can amplify cooling in TEP region where air descends. Brown et 56 al. [2014] also showed that cooling may be enhanced in both duration and magnitude by increasing 57 58 the shortwave reflection (RSW) over TEP region, where the reduced outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) cannot fully compensate the shortwave reflection, due to the relatively cool marine stratiform 59 clouds present [*Klein and Hartmann*, 1993], reducing the net downward surface energy flux (F_s) and 60 cooling the surface. 61

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On one hand, the cooling *TEP* will suppress the longwave radiation and the turbulent energy
transfer from ocean to the atmosphere, so the net downward energy flux will be increased over this
region, as depicted by the AMIP (Atmospheric Model Intercomparison Project) model simulations

66 [Liu et al., 2015]. On the other hand, increased winds [England et al., 2014] will cause more evaporation, so more latent heat may be lost to the atmosphere and decrease the net downward 67 68 energy flux. In order to further understand the mechanisms and driving factors of the TEP cooling, different surface flux data from atmospheric reanalyses, observational reconstructions [Liu et al., 69 70 2017] and AMIP5 simulations are used to study the surface energy flux contributions to the TEP 71 cooling in this study. Considering the imperfect temporal homogeneities in parameterized reanalysis fluxes [Berrisford et al. 2011; Balmaseda et al. 2013; von Schuckmann et al., 2016], the detailed 72 analysis of the reasons causing the spurious changes is conducted in this study using a bulk formula, 73 so as to investigate the role of meteorological variables in determining latent heat flux changes. 74

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2. Data and method

77 The three atmospheric reanalyses used in this study are ECMWF ERA-Interim reanalysis [Dee et al., 2011; Berrisford et al., 2011] (hereinafter referred to as ERAINT). JRA55 (the Japanese 55-year 78 Reanalysis, [Kobayashi et al. 2015]) and MERRA2 (Modern Era-Retrospective Analysis for 79 Research and Applications, [Gelaro et al., 2017]). Surface fluxes, including the surface shortwave 80 (SW) and longwave (LW) radiation fluxes, the latent heat (LH) and sensible heat (SH) turbulent 81 fluxes, forecasted directly by the reanalyses, are used. The monthly fluxes available for this study are 82 83 averaged from the forecast every 12 hours for ERAINT, every 6 hours for JRA55 and every hour for MERRA2. A four-dimensional variational analysis is used in ERA-Interim and JRA55 reanalyses, 84 and a three-dimensional variational data assimilation in MERRA2, where data from the full 85 86 observing system are assimilated. The derived net surface heat fluxes based on the atmospheric energy tendencies and transports of ERAINT and TOA (top of atmosphere) satellite radiation budget 87 data [Allan et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2015, 2017] are also exploited based on results from the DEEPC 88 (Diagnosing Earth's Energy Pathways in the Climate system) project. DEEPC takes advantages of 89 the assimilation of full observations in ERA-Interim and the observed energy budget of the Earth 90

system [*Liu et al.*, 2015], the atmospheric energy transports are mass corrected [*Trenberth et al.*]

92 1995; Chiodo and Haimberger, 2010; Mayer and Haimberger, 2012] and the land surface fluxes are

adjusted based on the energy budget conservation [*Liu et al.*, 2017] and has applications in a number

94 of previous studies [Williams et al., 2015; Valdivieso et al., 2015; Senior et al., 2016; Roberts et al.,

2017]. The CERES (Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy System [Loeb et al., 2012]) surface

radiation fluxes are used to infer the surface turbulent fluxes from DEEPC net surface flux.

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The bulk formula used to calculate the latent heat fluxes at surface is from *Singh et al.* [2005],

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$$LH = \rho L C_E U(Q_s - Q_a) \tag{1}$$

where ρ is the air density, L is the latent heat of evaporation, C_E is bulk transfer coefficient for water 100 101 vapor (also called the Dalton number) and can be estimated using near surface wind speed (Bentamy et al. 2003), U is the wind speed at a height of typically 10 m, Q_s is the saturation specific humidity 102 at the surface and can be estimated using SST and sea level pressure, and Q_a is the near-surface 103 specific humidity at the atmospheric measurement level and can be empirically estimated from SST 104 and the total column water vapor content (please see Singh et al. [2005] for the detailed 105 descriptions). The LH estimation is specially designed to use satellite observations. The four input 106 fields are the total column water vapour content (WV), near surface wind speed, SST and mean sea 107 level pressure (MSLP), which are all available as analysis time variables from the reanalyses. 108 Considering the good temporal homogeneity of the SSM/I data (Fig. S1), the observed WV and U 109 from SSM/I are employed and the time series is constructed using F08, F11 and F13 datasets. The 110 wind speed has a general increasing trend before 2009, but decreases after 2012 (Fig. S1a). The data 111 112 from 15 AMIP5 model simulations are also used, with prescribed observed SST and sea ice and realistic radiation forcings [Taylor et al., 2012]. The wind speed data from TAO (Tropical 113 Atmosphere Ocean) moored buoy array [TAO Project Office, 2000] are also used for comparison. All 114 datasets are listed in Table 1 with some brief descriptions. 115

117 **3. Results**

118 **3.1 Trends in surface heat flux**

The net surface heat flux trends from ERAINT, DEEPC and AMIP5 ensemble mean over 1988-119 2008 are shown in Fig. 1, together with the ERAINT SST trend. The corresponding area mean 120 anomaly time series over TEP are also plotted on the right column. The trends of ERAINT SST 121 $(-0.06 \text{ K decade}^{-1})$ and net surface flux from DEEPC $(-0.32 \text{ Wm}^{-2}\text{yr}^{-1})$ and ERAINT $(-0.65 \text{ Wm}^{-2}\text{yr}^{-1})$ 122 show a consistent negative trend over TEP (Figs. 1a-c). The DEEPC F_s is based on a combination of 123 satellite data and ERAINT atmospheric energy transports but does not use the simulated surface 124 fluxes. While both datasets display a negative trend in downward net heat flux over TEP, the DEEPC 125 126 trend is smaller in magnitude than that of ERAINT (Figs. 1f and g). The strong negative trend can also be seen from JRA55 data (Fig. S2a), but is weak in MERRA2 data (Fig. S2b) and not present in 127 AMIP5 ensemble mean simulations (Fig. 1d). Both trends from ERAINT and JRA55 (Fig. 1c and 128 Fig. S2a) show similar spatial patterns, with negative trends over central Indian Ocean, western and 129 eastern Pacific, but positive trends in northeastern Pacific. A contrasting pattern is produced by 130 MERRA2: the trend over northeasten Pacific is negative but positive over most of the TEP area. 131 Trend patterns in SST (Fig. 1a) and AMIP5 ensemble mean simulated F_s (Fig.1d) are anti-correlated, 132 133 indicating that reducing SST leads to reduced heat loss to the atmosphere so more surface flux into the ocean (increased F_s). While in contrast this is not seen in DEEPC (Fig. 1b) and ERAINT (Fig. 134 135 1c). Although the input data used to generate the DEEPC product are not fully coupled, it is considered the best representation of the coupled system available to us. The errors can be introduced 136 from incomplete coverage, biases and model inadequacies during observational input to ERAINT, 137 but it is representative of the coupled system, in which heat fluxes can drive changes in SST (e.g. 138 reduced F_s can cool the ocean and reduce SST). 139

141	The deseasonalized anomaly time series of F_s and its four components (SW, LW, SH and LH) over
142	TEP are plotted in Figs. 1g-h and Figs. S2c-d; the reference period for the anomaly calculation is
143	from 2001-2008. It is clear that the LH variation dominates the F_s variability in three atmospheric
144	reanalyses and the AMIP5 ensemble mean. The LH trend follows the corresponding F_s trend and the
145	correlation coefficients (r) between LH and F_s over 1988-2008 are 0.97, 0.94, 0.90 and 0.96, the LH
146	trend magnitudes are 78%, 98%, 169% and 44% of the F_s trends for ERAINT, JRA55, MERRA2 and
147	the AMIP5 ensemble mean, respectively. The turbulent fluxes (SH and LH) are also derived from
148	the difference of the DEEPC net surface energy fluxes and the CERES surface radiation fluxes and
149	the anomaly time series is plotted in Fig. 1f. The corresponding correlation coefficient between
150	turbulent flux and F_s over 2002-2015 is 0.98. It is apparent that SW and F_s variability are also well
151	correlated ($r = 0.69, 0.72, 0.73$ and 0.56 for ERAINT, JRA55, MERRA2 and AMIP5 ensemble
152	mean, respectively), but the SW trend is generally smaller than the F_s trend. The corresponding SW
153	trend contribution to the F_s trend is 22% for ERAINT and 11% for JRA55, and the contribution of
154	31% in AMIP5 ensemble mean is relatively strong. The SW trend in MERRA2 is in opposite sign
155	with F_s trend. All these correlation coefficients are significant based on the two-tailed test using
156	Pearson critical values at the level of 5% and the trends (except for the LH trend of AMIP5) are also
157	significant using Mann-Kendall test at a significance level of 0.05 [Hipel and McLeod, 1994], which
158	emphasise that the evaporation dominates variabilities and trends in surface fluxes in the equatorial
159	eastern Pacific.

Both ERAINT and JRA55 show strong downward F_s trends of 0.65 Wm⁻²yr⁻¹ and 0.50 Wm⁻²yr⁻¹ over 1988-2008, respectively. MERRA2 also shows a weak negative trend in F_s (-0.13 Wm⁻²yr⁻¹) and LH (-0.22 Wm⁻²yr⁻¹). Considering the global changes may include spurious jumps, as a very crude adjustment, the global mean F_s trend over the same period shown in Fig. S2e is removed, and the corresponding F_s trends over *TEP* are -0.53, -0.29 and -0.35 Wm⁻²yr⁻¹ for ERAINT, JRA55 and

166	DEEPC, respectively. They are all significant using Mann-Kendall test at a significance level of
167	0.05. Considering the ocean heat capacity of $4.2 \times 10^6 \text{ J/K/m}^2/\text{m}$, the mean mixing depth of 100m over
168	eastern Pacific [Roberts et al., 2017] and F_s is 3 Wm ⁻² lower in the 2000s vs the 1990s, the estimated
169	temperature change $\Delta T \approx -2.3$ K is too large considering the observed ocean temperature change over
170	TEP area (Fig. 1e). This suggests that either the trends are unrealistic or changes in ocean heat
171	transport convergence offset these surface heat flux changes. It is noticed that there are
172	discontinuities in global area mean F_s time series of MERRA2 (Fig. S2e): it has a step change near
173	1992, a large negative trend between 1992 and 2008 and an anomalous positive trend after 2009.
174	Since the DEEPC global mean net surface flux is well constrained by the TOA satellite observations
175	[Allan et al., 2014] and the zero global atmospheric energy convergence [Liu et al., 2015, 2017], so
176	the global mean F_s from DEEPC product can be regarded as realistic, and any large trend deviation
177	in the global mean time series from that of DEEPC data can be questioned. It is also noticed both F_s
178	and LH trends from MERRA2 over TEP differ with the other two atmospheric reanalyses.
179	The contributions of SW fluxes to the net surface flux trends over TEP are significant for the later
180	periods (-0.50 Wm ⁻² yr ⁻¹ for 1995-2015 in ERAINT and -0.42 Wm ⁻² yr ⁻¹ over 2000-2015 for JRA55),
181	consistent with evidence of increased low cloud cover (LCC) [Norris and Evan, 2015; Zhou et al.,
182	2016]. However, for the longer 1988-2008 period, <i>LH</i> is found to dominate the changes in Fs.
183	

185 **3.2 Sensitivity of latent heat flux to atmospheric variables**

Since the *LH* change dominates the F_s variability over *TEP* in three atmospheric reanalyses, observation and AMIP5 simulation ensemble mean, it is necessary to investigate the driver for the *LH* change. In order to do this, the bulk formula developed by *Singh et al.* [2005] is employed to compute *LH*. This bulk formula is designed for the application of satellite observations so only four meteorological variables are required for input: *SST*, *MSLP*, *WV* and *U* (near surface wind speed, 191 generally at 10m). For the sensitivity test, climatologies of four fields are applied, and each timevarying individual field is subsequently substituted into the bulk formula to isolate the contribution 192 193 of the determinant variables. Effects on LH trend from the different SST and MSLP datasets are similar, so are not shown and discussed here. An unrealistic decline in global area mean ERAINT 194 195 WV around 1991-1993 compared with SSM/I observations [Allan et al. 2014; Allan, 2017] was removed by adjusting values prior to 1993 to force agreement with the global mean SSM/I WV 196 anomalies over the 1988-1992 period. The influence of water vapour and wind speed changes on LH 197 198 variability (downward defined as positive) are estimated for ERAINT, SSM/I and AMIP5 in Fig. 2. 199 For ERAINT (Fig. 2a-e). The generally positive global net downward LH trend in Fig. 2a is due to 200 the increasing WV (Fig. 3a) which decreases the surface evaporation, but the effect on the LH trend 201 over the TEP region is weak. The estimated influence of changes in U on surface evaporation is substantial (Fig. 2b). The strong negative trend in downward LH over the central and eastern Pacific 202 is driven by the wind speed variability. After combining U and WV, the trend pattern of LH is similar 203 204 to that using U alone (Fig. 2c). When all four actual fields of ERAINT are used, the trend pattern is still dominated by that using the wind speed alone (Fig. 2d) and the LH trend of $-0.20 \text{ W/m}^2/\text{yr}$ over 205 TEP is still significant (the corresponding global trend of $-0.02 \text{ W/m}^2/\text{yr}$ is small and insignificant), 206 indicating that the wind speed is the driver of negative LH trend over TEP in ERAINT. Compared 207 208 with the LH trend from direct model output (Fig. 2e), it can be seen that the model generated LH 209 trend has more extensive negative trend areas over the whole tropical region, and the LH trend over *TEP* is also stronger (-0.51 W/m²/yr, see Fig. 1g). After removing the global *LH* trend, the 210 corresponding LH trend of -0.39 W/m²/yr over TEP area is roughly consistent with -0.18 W/m²/yr 211 from the bulk formula, and their correlation coefficient is 0.81 over 1988-2008 (Fig. S3a). 212

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To check the effect of the data type used in this study on the *LH* estimation, the results from both the daily and monthly data, from the analysis and forecast fields of *SST*, *MSLP*, *WV* and *U*, and from 216 the estimated and model output specific humidities were all tested. The estimated LH trends over the TEP area from 1988-2008 are -0.23, -0.22 and -0.20 W/m²/yr using the daily forecast, monthly 217 218 forecast and monthly analysis fields of ERAINT, respectively. Since there is no direct specific humidity output available for us from ERAINT, the JRA55 data are used for the sensitivity test. The 219 estimated LH trends are -0.35 and -0.46 W/m²/yr using the estimated specific humidity from WV and 220 SST and the reanalysis specific humidity, respectively. Therefore the impact of these factors on 221 222 the LH trend over TEP area is small, so it is assumed that the discrepancies in spatial structure and values between LH estimates from bulk formula and direct model output are mainly due to different 223 bulk formula used in the LH calculation. The bulk formula of Singh et al. [2005] is applied to the 224 monthly data in this study. 225

226 Since only WV and U are available from SSM/I data, the climatologies of four fields from 227 ERAINT are used at first, then the corresponding climatologies are replaced by SSM/I WV (Fig. 2f) and SSM/I U (Fig. 2g), respectively. The spatial pattern of the SSM/I WV effect on LH trend is 228 similar to that of ERAINT WV. The SSM/I wind speed variability also generates negative downward 229 LH trend over TEP region, but it is relatively weak compared with that from ERAINT wind speed 230 (Figs. 2b and g). When combining SSM/I WV and U together, the negative trend over TEP area is 231 greatly reduced (Fig. 2h), and it is further smoothed out after the actual fields of WV and U from 232 SSM/I and SST and MSLP from ERAINT are used. This indicates that the SSM/I wind speed 233 234 variability is not large enough to produce the strong negative LH trend and this will be further investigated in next section. 235

For the AMIP5 data, the above method is applied to each member and the trends are interpolated into a common grid of $3^{\circ}x3^{\circ}$, the ensemble mean results are shown in Figs. 2j-m. The spatial pattern of the mean effect of *WV* on *LH* trend (Fig. 2j) is similar to those in Figs. 2a and f, implying similar *WV* trend in three datasets [*Allan*, 2017]. The wind speed effect is strong in the central Pacific, but weak over *TEP* area where the *LH* trend is overall positive (reduced evaporative flux). The 241 combined WV and U effect enhances the positive trend over TEP region, although the spatial patterns over other regions are similar between these three datasets. After all four fields are used 242 (Fig. 2m), the trend over *TEP* is very weak (~ $-0.02 \text{ W/m}^2/\text{yr}$) and insignificant (Fig. S3b). The mean 243 LH trend from 15 AMIP5 model simulation ensemble mean is in Fig. 2n, which shows similar but 244 stronger spatial pattern compared to that from bulk formula (Fig. 2m) (spatial correlation r = 0.61), 245 particularly the LH trend of 0.11 W/m²/yr over TEP area (Fig. 1h) is stronger, but still insignificant 246 (Fig. S3b). This implies that the application of the bulk formula to the monthly data may smooth the 247 *LH* calculation, even though the global spatial patterns are still consistent (Figs. 2m and n). 248 Therefore, according to the sensitivity test using bulk formula and direct model output, it is clear that 249 250 the bulk formula used in this study can reasonably capture aspects of the main features of the corresponding data. Furthermore, these sensitivity tests highlight discrepancies in LH trends between 251 252 datasets over TEP area and the overall sign of the LH trend depends primarily on the wind speed variability. 253

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3.3 Evaluation of water vapor and wind speed trends

To understand the influence of WV and U variability on LH and surface heat flux trend patterns, 256 257 the trends of WV and U from ERAINT, SSM/I and the AMIP5 ensemble mean over 1988-2008 are investigated (Fig. 3). For WV trends (Figs. 3a-c), the spatial patterns from the three datasets are 258 259 similar; the trend pattern from ERAINT WV is in close agreement with SSM/I which is unsurprising since this is assimilated by ERAINT over the ice-free oceans. Both JRA55 and MERRA2 show 260 261 strong positive trends in the central and eastern tropical Pacific (Figs. S4a-b). The similarity of the WV trend across datasets can also be clearly seen from the area mean anomaly time series over 262 263 *TEP* (Fig. 3g and Fig. S4e). The *WV* trends from the AMIP5 ensemble mean (Fig. 3c) and fifteen 264 members (Fig. S5) are also similar. The LH trend spatial pattern in Figs. 2a, f, j and the WV trend

spatial pattern in Figs. 3a-c are similar, confirming that the higher WV in the atmosphere column will
supress local evaporation.

267 The wind speed trends contrast across datasets. Both ERAINT (Fig. 3d) and JRA55 (Fig. S4c) show strong positive wind speed trends over the central and eastern Pacific, but positive trends from 268 both SSM/I and MERRA2 are much weaker (Fig. 3e and Fig. S4d). This can also be clearly seen 269 270 from the area mean wind speed anomaly time series over TEP as shown in Fig. 3h and Fig. S4f (good agreement between 1995 and 2008 is due to the selection of the reference period of 2001-271 2008). The trends over 1988-2008 are both 0.26 m/s/decade for ERAINT and JRA55, larger than 272 273 those from SSM/I (0.10 m/s/decade, Fig. 3e) and the AMIP5 ensemble mean (0.07 m/s/decade, Fig. 274 3f). Although the trends are different, variability is similar (Fig. 3h and Fig. S4f). All AMIP5 275 members show strong wind speed trends in the central Pacific, but weak trends over TEP (Fig. S6). In order to see if the MSLP drives the wind changes, the MSLP trend over 1988-2008 and the 276 multiannual mean were compared (Fig. S7). The similarity of the trend structure in ERAINT (Fig. 277 S7a) and JRA55 (Fig. S7b) in the meridional direction indicates similar gradient changes of MSLP 278 between subtropics and equator, which may explain the agreement of wind speed trend structure 279 between them. The relatively weak trend of the subtropical high south of the TEP in MERRA2 (Fig. 280 S7c) and AMIP5 (Fig. S7d) indicates weak gradient changes of MSLP between the south subtropics 281 and equator, which may explain the weak wind speed trend over TEP area. Therefore, although the 282 MSLP change over TEP area has very small direct effect on the LH trend estimation, their spatial 283 structure difference can affect the gradient and further change the wind speed. In addition, *Boisséson* 284 et al. [2014] found good agreement for zonal wind speed trends over the tropical Pacific between 285 ERAINT and observations. However they noted that the discontinuities between different satellite 286 products are not taken into account, such as the big jumps between ERS2 (European Remote Sensing 287 satellite) and QSCAT (Quick Scatterometer) near 2000 in their Fig. 2a and between ERS2 and 288

289 ENVISAT satellite near 2003 in their Fig. 2b. Different conclusions may be obtained if these290 discontinuities are considered.

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3.4 Comparison with buoy observations

293 The large discrepancies in wind speed changes over TEP cast doubt on the reliability of the wind speed in these datasets. To further check the wind speed quality, data from TAO moored buoy array 294 295 (220-255°E, 9°N-8°S) are used in this study for comparison [TAO Project Office, 2000]. There are 27 buoys working in this area; they are all calibrated before deployment and there is no post-deployment 296 297 calibration involved. Data quality control information can be found at http://tao.ndbc.noaa.gov/proj_overview/qc_ndbc.shtml. The locations of the buoys are plotted in Fig. 298 4a (colored dots represents the wind speed trend from the buoy), which is an enlargement of Fig. 3d 299 300 showing the ERAINT wind speed trend. From January 1990 to December 2015, there are 312 months; the minimum coverage period from start month to end month over all stations is 202 301 months at station 8N110W (Fig. S8a), so all buoy records span at least 65% of the record length. 302 However, there are considerable gaps in the buoy timeseries: the minimum fraction of the data 303 coverage over 1990-2015 is about 30% at station 5N125W (Fig. S8b) and the mean fraction is 50%. 304 At each station, the anomaly is calculated by removing the monthly mean (over 2001-2008) which is 305 calculated if the total number of months is ≥ 2 . The wind speed anomaly time series is plotted in Fig. 306 S9, but the actual number of valid buoy data points is not well reflected due to the smoothing of six 307

308 month running mean. The wind speed trends from individual buoy records (Table S1) are generally

insignificant: only 9 out of 27 display significant trends and 8 of these are positive (see also Fig. S9)

trends calculated from ERAINT grid points nearest to the corresponding buoy stations (bottom right

while the composite trend of -0.05 m/s/decade is small and insignificant. 21 out of 27 wind speed

matrix of Table S1) are positive and significant, and the composite trend of 0.28 m/s/decade is also

significant. When the ERAINT grid box time series are sampled to mimic the intermittent buoy time

series (bottom middle matrix of Table S1), 16 out of 27 of the trends remain positive and significant
and the composite trend of 0.25 m/s/decade is significant. Therefore, although intermittent data
coverage reduces the significance of trends, there are more robust positive trends in the ERA-Interim
data when sampled to mimic the buoy spatial and temporal coverage.

318 Mean wind speed variability in the TEP for 1990-2008 is displayed in Fig. 4b for ERAINT using a variety of spatial and temporal sampling strategies and the composite of the buoy measurements. The 319 320 fraction of valid buoy data in each month increases steadily from about 1990 to 2000 and then 321 becomes stable afterwards while there is a drop between 2011 and 2015 (Fig. S8c). Variability in mean ERAINT wind speed over the TEP (Fig. 4b, thick red line) is similar to when only grid boxes 322 corresponding to the buoy locations are sampled (cyan line). This indicates that the area mean from 323 324 the buoy spatial coverage is representative of the wider, completely sampled region; trends over the 325 1990-2015 period are significant (based on the Mann-Kendall test at significance level of 0.05) and positive for both although is larger for the TEP region (0.34 m/s/decade) than for the buoy grid 326 points (0.28 m/s/decade). The composite wind speed time series from buoys (Fig. 4b, thick black 327 line) displays an insignificant negative trend of -0.05 m/s/decade over 1990-2008. Sampling 328 329 ERAINT to also match the temporal coverage of the buoys (magenta line) alters the timeseries 330 substantially demonstrating the substantial effect of incomplete observational coverage. Agreement between ERAINT buoy spatial and temporal sampling (magenta line) and the buoy time series 331 332 variability is markedly improved (r = 0.92), indicating successful assimilation of the observational variability by ERAINT. However, the ERAINT composite (magenta line) trend remains positive 333 (0.25 m/s/decade) and substantially larger than the corresponding trend from the buoy data. The 334 335 corresponding plot for LH, similar to Fig. 4b, is shown in Fig. S8d for reference.

The ERAINT minus buoy wind speed difference using consistent spatiotemporal sampling (Fig. 4c) depicts an increasing trend (0.14 m/s/decade over 1990-2015) which contributes about 50% to the overall trend of ERAINT wind speed over *TEP*. Thus, the discrepancy between the buoy and

339 ERAINT wind speed trends cannot easily be explained by the variable buoy coverage. It is not currently clear how the assimilation of data from an evolving observing system simply explains this 340 discrepancy and further investigation is merited. The remaining difference is apparently associated 341 with the fact the influence of the assimilation declines rapidly with distance from the buoy as pointed 342 343 out by Josey et al. [2014]. Based on the comparison and analysis, the area mean from the limited buoy spatial coverage (cyan line in Fig. 4b) is representative of that over the wider, completely 344 345 sampled TEP area (red line in Fig. 4b), and the intermittent buoy wind speed variability is well 346 assimilated into the ERA-Interim model. However, increases in the ERAINT minus buoy wind 347 speed, when consistently sampled in space and time, indicate that increases in wind speed and therefore also surface latent heat flux are unrealistic and so the large decreases in net downward 348 energy flux into the tropical eastern Pacific are questionable. 349

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4. Conclusions

Cooling of the surface ocean over the tropical eastern Pacific influences the global mean rate of 352 surface temperature change [Kosaka and Xie, 2013; Trenberth and Fasullo, 2013; England et al., 353 2015]. In order to understand the mechanism of the cooling, numerous studies have been conducted 354 355 [Meehl et al., 2011; Hansen et al., 2011; Guemas et al., 2013; Katsman and van Oldenborgh, 2011; Solomon et al., 2010, 2011; Kaufmann et al., 2011; Norris and Evan, 2015; Brown et al. 2014; Zhou 356 et al., 2016]. Motivated by a discrepancy between observations-based estimates of surface heat flux 357 changes and simulations from atmosphere-only models over the TEP [Liu et al. 2015], an 358 359 investigation of the causes of the surface energy flux is conducted using data from three atmospheric 360 reanalyses, fifteen AMIP5 model simulations and the DEEPC observations-based reconstruction. It is found that the net downward surface flux change over TEP is dominated by the LH variability and 361 the trend is significantly negative in ERAINT, JRA55 and DEEPC data. The negative trend 362 over TEP from DEEPC is not as strong as that from ERAINT (Figs. 1f and g) due to the contrasting 363

methodologies. In contrast, the F_s and LH trends in AMIP5 ensemble mean show positive trend over *TEP* region, and the spatial pattern is closely related to the *SST* pattern, indicating that *SST* changes are driving heat flux changes in the AMIP5 model simulations. Since the atmosphere simulations do not permit a coupled response to the surface fluxes, it is possible that they are missing an important mechanism yet the negative trends depicted by the reanalysis-based estimates appear unrealistically large.

370 To investigate the realism and cause of the implied changes in surface heat flux, sensitivity tests 371 using turbulent heat flux bulk formula are applied. These indicate that the LH changes depicted by ERAINT are dominated by wind speed changes, which show increasing trends over the eastern 372 373 Pacific. This wind speed trend is very weak in SSM/I satellite observations and is absent in AMIP5 374 ensemble mean simulations. After further comparison with buoy observations, it is found that few 375 buoy stations show significant positive wind speed trends, although the corresponding composite 376 trends from ERAINT grid points nearest to the stations are significantly positive. The variable spatial 377 coverage of the buoy wind speed is assimilated by ERA-Interim and the buoy coverage is shown to 378 reasonably represent the TEP area mean wind speed (cyan line in Fig. 4b). However, an increase in 379 ERAINT minus buoy wind speed, when consistently sampled in space and time, suggest that the 380 increases in wind speed depicted by ERAINT are overestimated. This further implies that increased 381 evaporative fluxes and reduced downward heat flux trends depicted by ERAINT and other datasets may be unrealistic. The discrepancies between different datasets cast questions on the reliability of 382 383 the reanalysed surface fluxes over the tropical eastern Pacific area. In AMIP5 simulations, models 384 are forced by SST, so the SST decrease over TEP suppresses the evaporation and reduce the upward 385 LH flux, enhancing the downward net surface flux. In the atmospheric reanalysis, such as the 386 ERAINT the dominant contribution of strong wind speed trend to the LH flux changes is evident. The strong ERAINT LH trend is unrealistic considering the observed temperature changes over TEP 387 388 region (based upon energy budget arguments) and comparison with buoy data when accounting for

389 sampling. This will indirectly affect the budget-based DEEPC product since erroneous wind speeds 390 will influence the energy transports used in the calculation of surface fluxes; the precise influence is uncertain but has implications for budget-based indirect estimates of surface energy fluxes [Liu et al. 391 392 2017; Trenberth et al. 1995; Chiodo and Haimberger, 2010; Mayer and Haimberger, 2012; Trenberth and Fasullo, 2017]. Josey et al. [2014] found that assimilation of TAO mooring 393 contributed to unrealistic near surface humidity and wind speed anomalies in ERAINT. The impact 394 395 of these unrealistic anomalies on the latent heat flux in the tropical Pacific may play a role in the unrealistic LH trend. However, these results do not appear to contradict the mechanisms invoked to 396 397 explain TEP cooling discussed by England et al. [2014] since this key region of wind enhancement centres on the central pacific where satellite data and simulations broadly agree on recent changes. 398 Nevertheless, the TEP is a key region in determining global climate variability and time-varying 399 climate sensitivity [Ceppi and Gregory, 2017; Andrews and Webb, 2017] so understanding the role 400 401 of surface fluxes in this region is crucial. While AMIP5 simulations are temporally homogeneous, 402 they do not represent the key atmospheric feedbacks on ocean temperature so additional in-depth 403 investigation is necessary to elucidate the mechanisms of decadal variability in ocean temperature, including using data from the ocean reanalysis and ECMWF ERA5 for further comparisons and 404 405 coupled reanalysis for feedback mechanism studies.

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Table 1. Datasets

Dataset	Period	Resolution	References
	(in this study)		
Reconstruct (DEEPC)			
Surface net flux: F _s	1985-2015	$0.7^{ m o} imes 0.7^{ m o}$	Liu et al. [2015, 2017]
CERES	2001-2016	$1.0^{\circ} \times 1.0^{\circ}$	Loeb et al. [2012]
SSM/I			
F08	1987-2016	$0.25^{\rm o} \times 0.25^{\rm o}$	Wentz and Spencer [1998]
F11			Vila et al. [2010]
F13			
Atmospheric reanalyses			
ERA-Interim (ERAINT)	1985-2015	$0.7^{ m o} imes 0.7^{ m o}$	Dee et al. [2011]
JRA55	1985-2014	$0.56^{\rm o} \times 0.56^{\rm o}$	Kobayashi et al. [2015]
MERRA2	1985-2016	$0.5^{\circ} imes 0.625^{\circ}$	Gelaro et al., [2017]
TAO buoy	1990-2017		TAO Project Office, [2000]
AMIP5 models	1985-2008		
ACCESS1-0		1.25°×1.875°	<i>Bi et al.</i> [2013]
CanAM4		2.79°×2.81°	<i>Arora et al.</i> [2011]
CCSM4		0.94°×1.25°	<i>Gent et.al.</i> [2011]
CMCC-CM		0.75°×0.75°	Scoccimarro et al. [2011]
CNRM-CM5		$1.40^{\circ} \times 1.41^{\circ}$	Voldoire et al. [2012]
FGOALS-g2		$3.0^{\circ} \times 2.81^{\circ}$	<i>Li et al.</i> [2013]
GFDL-CM3		$2.0^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$	Delworth et al. [2006]
GISS-E2-R		$2.0^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$	Schmidt et al. [2014]
HadGEM2-A		1.25° ×1.875°	Collins et al. [2011]
INM-CM4		1.5°×2.0°	Volodin et al. [2010]
IPSL-CM5A-LR		1.89°×3.75°	Dufresne et al. [2013]
MIROC5		1.39° ×1.41°	Watanabe et al. [2011]
MPI-ESM-LR		$1.85^{\circ} \times 1.875^{\circ}$	Raddatz et al. [2007]
MRI-CGCM3		1.11°×1.13°	Yukimoto et al. [2012]
NorESM1-M		1.89° ×2.5°	Zhang et al. [2012]

593 **Figure captions**

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Fig. 1. Left column is the trend of (a) SST and (b-d) net surface flux over 1988-2008. Right column 595 is the corresponding area mean anomaly time series over tropical eastern Pacific (marked area: from 596 597 20° N- 20° S and 210° E to the west coast of Central America). Four components of F_s are also plotted in g and h, and the SW and LW from CERES are plotted in f, together with the turbulent flux derived 598 599 from the difference between DEEPC net surface flux and CERES radiation fluxes. The reference 600 period is 2001-2008. The datasets are from ERAINT, DEEPC and AMIP5 15 member ensemble. All fluxes are downward positive. All lines are six month running means and some linear trends are also 601 602 displayed.

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Fig. 2. Sensitivity test of LH trend using bulk formula over 1988-2008. The climatologies of SST, 604 605 MSLP, WV and wind speed from ERAINT are used at first, then the corresponding climatologies are replaced by (a) ERAINT WV, (b) ERAINT wind speed, (c) ERAINT WV and wind speed, (d) all 606 607 four fields from ERAINT, (f) SSM/I WV, (g) SSM/I wind speed, (h) SSM/I WV and wind speed and 608 (i) WV and wind speed from SSM/I, SST and MSLP from ERAINT. The LH trend from directly 609 ERAINT reanalysis is in (e). The same method is applied to each of 15 AMIP5 models, and the ensemble means are plotted in (j-m). The mean LH trend from 15 AMIP5 model simulations is in 610 (n). 611

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Fig. 3. (a-f) Trends of *WV* and wind speed over 1988-2008 from ERAINT, SSM/I and AMIP5

ensemble mean. (g-h) Corresponding deseasonalized time series of area mean WV and wind speed

over *TEP*. The shaded areas of AMIP5 are 15-member ensemble mean (solid black line) ± 1 standard

616 deviation. The reference period is 2001-2008 for anomaly calculation. The wind speed trends over

617 1988-2008 are also displayed in (h).

618 Fig. 4. (a) Wind speed trend from ERAINT (enlargement of Fig. 4d). Colored dots indicate 27 TAO buoy locations and wind speed trends. (b) Deseasonalized wind speed anomaly (relative to 2001-619 2008 period) time series from buoy stations (composite, thick black line), ERAINT area weighted 620 621 mean over TEP (thick red line), ERAINT mean from grid points nearest to buoy stations including 622 all data points (thick cyan line, no area weighting) and the ERAINT mean including data points where the buoy station has the valid data (magenta line, no area weighting). All lines are 12 month 623 624 running mean. (c) The time series of mean wind speed bias between ERAINT and buoy data using consistent spatiotemporal sampling. The trend of 0.14/m/s/decade over 1990-2015 is also displayed. 625 626



Fig. 1. Left column is the trend of (a) SST and (b-d) net surface flux over 1988-2008. Right column 654 is the corresponding area mean anomaly time series over tropical eastern Pacific (marked area: from 655 20°N–20°S and 210°E to the west coast of Central America). Four components of F_s are also plotted 656 in g and h, and the SW and LW from CERES are plotted in f, together with the turbulent flux derived 657 658 from the difference between DEEPC net surface flux and CERES radiation fluxes. The reference 659 period is 2001-2008. The datasets are from ERAINT, DEEPC and AMIP5 15 member ensemble. All fluxes are downward positive. All lines are six month running means and some linear trends are also 660 661 displayed.



Fig. 2. Sensitivity test of LH trend using bulk formula over 1988-2008. The climatologies of SST, 686 MSLP, WV and wind speed from ERAINT are used at first, then the corresponding climatologies are 687 replaced by (a) ERAINT WV, (b) ERAINT wind speed, (c) ERAINT WV and wind speed, (d) all 688 four fields from ERAINT, (f) SSM/I WV, (g) SSM/I wind speed, (h) SSM/I WV and wind speed and 689 (i) WV and wind speed from SSM/I, SST and MSLP from ERAINT. The LH trend from directly 690 ERAINT reanalysis is in (e). The same method is applied to each of 15 AMIP5 models, and the 691 ensemble means are plotted in (j-m). The mean LH trend from 15 AMIP5 model simulations is in 692 693 (n).



Fig. 3. (a-f) Trends of WV and wind speed over 1988-2008 from ERAINT, SSM/I and
AMIP5 ensemble mean. (g-h) Corresponding deseasonalized time series of area mean WV
and wind speed over *TEP*. The shaded areas of AMIP5 are 15-member ensemble mean (solid
black line) ±1 standard deviation. The reference period is 2001-2008 for anomaly calculation.
The wind speed trends over 1988-2008 are also displayed in (h).



Fig. 4. (a) Wind speed trend from ERAINT (enlargement of Fig. 4d). Colored dots indicate 751 27 TAO buoy locations and wind speed trends. (b) Deseasonalized wind speed anomaly 752 (relative to 2001–2008 period) time series from buoy stations (composite, thick black line), 753 ERAINT area weighted mean over TEP (thick red line), ERAINT mean from grid points 754 nearest to buoy stations including all data points (thick cyan line, no area weighting) and the 755 ERAINT mean including data points where the buoy station has the valid data (magenta line, 756 no area weighting). All lines are 12 month running mean. (c) The time series of mean wind 757 speed bias between ERAINT and buoy data using consistent spatiotemporal sampling. The 758 759 trend of 0.14/m/s/decade over 1990-2015 is also displayed.