

# Origins of biweekly sea surface temperature variability in the eastern equatorial Pacific and Atlantic

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## Abstract

Biweekly sea surface temperature (SST) variability significantly contributes to over 50% of the intraseasonal variability in the eastern equatorial Pacific (EEP) and Atlantic (EEA). Our study investigates this biweekly variability, employing a blend of in-situ and reanalysis datasets. The research identifies biweekly signals in SST, meridional wind, and ocean currents, notably in September-November in EEP and June-August in EEA. Biweekly southerly (northerly) drives simultaneous northward (southward) ocean currents in EEP, but with a 1-2-day phase delay in EEA. Consequently, these currents lead to SST anomalies with a 3-4-day lag in both EEP and EEA due to the presence of the cold tongue. The study reveals the origin of biweekly wind fluctuations in the western Pacific for EEP and the subpolar Pacific for EEA, connected by Rossby waves validated through a linearized non-divergent barotropic model. This research affirms the influence of subtropical and subpolar atmospheric forcing on equatorial SST.

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# Origins of biweekly sea surface temperature variability in the eastern equatorial Pacific and Atlantic

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## Abstract

Biweekly sea surface temperature (SST) variability significantly contributes to over 50% of the intraseasonal variability in the eastern equatorial Pacific (EEP) and Atlantic (EEA). Our study investigates this biweekly variability, employing a blend of in-situ and reanalysis datasets. The research identifies biweekly signals in SST, meridional wind, and ocean currents, notably in September-November in EEP and June-August in EEA. Biweekly southerly (northerly) drives simultaneous northward (southward) ocean currents in EEP, but with a 1-2-day phase delay in EEA. Consequently, these currents lead to SST anomalies with a 3-4-day lag in both EEP and EEA due to the presence of the cold tongue. The study reveals the origin of biweekly wind fluctuations in the western Pacific for EEP and the subpolar Pacific for EEA, connected by Rossby waves validated through a linearized non-divergent barotropic model. This research affirms the influence of subtropical and subpolar atmospheric forcing on equatorial SST.

## Key points

- Over 50% of intraseasonal SST variability in the eastern equatorial Pacific and Atlantic is attributed to biweekly fluctuations.
- The atmospheric winds play a crucial role in driving the biweekly SST variability.
- Biweekly winds associated with biweekly SST variability in the equatorial regions stem from both the subtropical and subpolar regions.

## Plain language summary

Our research focuses on understanding the regular changes in sea surface temperature (SST) occurring every two weeks, which significantly contribute to the seasonal variations in the eastern equatorial Pacific (EEP) and Atlantic (EEA). By analyzing a mix of direct and reconstructed data, we uncover the distinct patterns of these biweekly changes in SST, winds, and ocean currents. Our investigation shows that the movements of the ocean currents are closely linked to the shifts in wind direction, affecting the temperature of the ocean waters. Notably, we observe a delay in the relationship between wind and SST in both EEP and EEA. Through our analysis, we establish that the origins of these biweekly wind patterns can be traced to specific regions in the Pacific. Moreover, we identify the role of Rossby waves in connecting these wind patterns to their source regions, which helps us understand how changes in atmospheric conditions in different parts of the ocean can impact the equatorial SST.

## 40 **1. Introduction**

41 Intraseasonal variability (ISV) encompasses phenomena characterized by periods shorter than 90  
42 days, primarily manifesting in equatorial oceans. It includes equatorial Kelvin waves with a  
43 period of 60-75 days (Kessler et al., 1995; McPhaden & Taft, 1988), Madden-Julian Oscillation  
44 with a period of 30-60 days which can influence sea surface temperature (SST) through surface  
45 fluxes (Han et al., 2007; Lau & Waliser, 2011; Madden & Julian, 1971; Shinoda et al., 1998),  
46 tropical instability waves (TIWs) with a period of 20-40 days (Chelton et al., 2000, 2001; Düing  
47 et al., 1975; Legeckis, 1977; Lyman et al., 2007), and variability occurring every 10 to 20 days,  
48 often referred to as biweekly variability (Athie & Marin, 2008; Diakhaté et al., 2016; Han et al.,  
49 2006).

50 MJO exerts its strongest influence over the Indian Ocean and Western Pacific regions, but TIWs  
51 are generally observed in the eastern Pacific and western Atlantic. Kelvin waves are often  
52 triggered by wind anomalies (Hendon et al., 1998; Kessler et al., 1995) while the generation of  
53 TIWs is attributed to the instability of the equatorial currents (Cox, 1980; Flament et al., 1996;  
54 Jochum et al., 2004; Luther & Johnson, 1990; Masina et al., 1999; Philander, 1976, 1978; Proehl,  
55 1996; Von Schuckmann et al., 2008; Yu & Liu, 2003). Notably, the biweekly variability,  
56 although less studied than other intraseasonal variabilities, has been observed in the eastern  
57 equatorial Atlantic (EEA) (Athie & Marin, 2008; Coëtlogon et al., 2010; Houghton & Colin,  
58 1987), but, to the best of our knowledge, has yet to be comprehensively investigated in the  
59 eastern equatorial Pacific (EEP).

60 The study of biweekly SST variability in the EEA dates back to the 1980s, with Houghton and  
61 Colin (1987) identifying a prominent peak every 15 days in the cospectrum of ocean currents and  
62 temperatures near the equator at 4°W. Athie and Marin (2008) conducted a comprehensive  
63 analysis, revealing a distribution pattern east of 10°W during boreal summer, without significant  
64 zonal propagation features. They suggested that the biweekly SST signal is passively driven by  
65 meridional winds and influenced by the cold tongue front, corroborated by Jouanno et al. (2013).  
66 In contrast, de Coëtlogon et al. (2010) proposed a robust negative feedback mechanism between  
67 SST and surface winds in the Gulf of Guinea during boreal spring and summer. They argued that  
68 intensified southerly winds, which may be associated with the St. Helena anticyclone (Banzon et  
69 al., 2016; Reynolds et al., 2007), lead to a cold SST anomaly within 5 days, subsequently  
70 slowing down the surface wind within 2-3 days, thereby maintaining biweekly variability. Other  
71 studies (de Coëtlogon et al., 2014; Leduc-Leballeur et al., 2013) also supported this negative  
72 feedback mechanism, highlighting the influence of biweekly SST on the pressure gradient in the  
73 atmospheric boundary layer in the EEA.

74 Given the unclear source of biweekly wind signals, this study will delve deeper into the origins  
75 of these biweekly wind patterns. Additionally, we will examine and compare the generation  
76 mechanism driving biweekly SST variability in EEP and EEA. The subsequent sections of this  
77 paper will provide a detailed description of the data and methodologies (Section 2), followed by  
78 spatial and temporal analyses of biweekly variability in EEP and EEA (Section 3). Relationships  
79 among biweekly SST, surface wind, and ocean currents in both regions will be explored in  
80 Section 4. Section 5 will focus on deciphering the origins of biweekly atmospheric variabilities  
81 associated with SST. Finally, Section 6 will offer conclusions and discussions.

## 82 **2. Data and methods**

## 83 2.1. Data

84 The study relies on reanalysis datasets from 1994 to 2014. The daily SST data with a spatial  
85 resolution of  $1/4^\circ$  are sourced from the NOAA Optimum Interpolation SST (OISST) version 2,  
86 derived from the satellite data and ship observations (Reynolds et al., 2007). Two different daily  
87 wind datasets are utilized in our analysis. One is the Cross-Calibrated Multi-Platform (CCMP)  
88 version 3.0 dataset with a horizontal resolution of  $1/4^\circ$  (Atlas et al., 2011). The other is from the  
89 ECMWF global reanalysis product known as ERA-interim providing wind vectors up to 0.1 hPa  
90 with horizontal resolution of 80 km (Berrisford et al., 2009; Dee et al., 2011).

91 Surface oceanic currents are taken from HYCOM reanalysis 3.1 with horizontal resolution of  
92  $1/12^\circ$  (Cummings, 2005; Cummings & Smedstad, 2013). Moreover, we incorporate SST data  
93 from two equatorial mooring arrays. One is situated at ( $95^\circ\text{W}, 0^\circ\text{N}$ ) as part of the Tropical  
94 Atmosphere Ocean (TAO) project (McPhaden et al., 1998) while the other is located at  
95 ( $0^\circ\text{W}, 0^\circ\text{N}$ ) within the Prediction and Research Moored Array in the Tropical Atlantic (PIRATA)  
96 network (Bourlès et al., 2008).

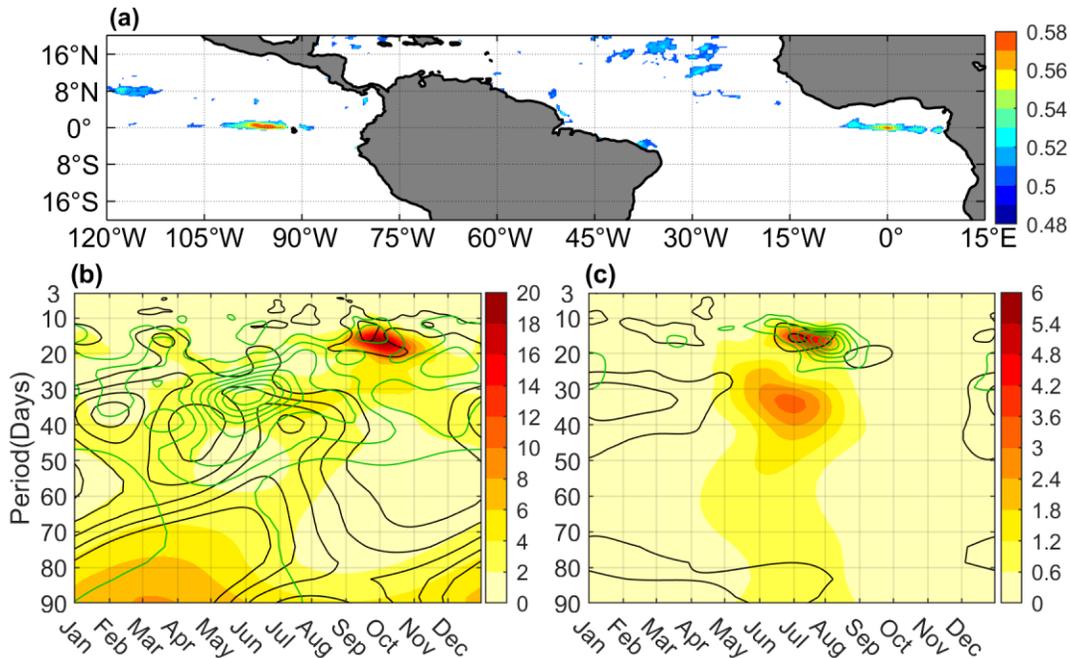
## 97 2.2. Methods

98 Wavelet analysis (Torrence & Compo, 1998) is utilized in this study to extract frequency-related  
99 information from SST, meridional wind, and meridional ocean velocity time series after applying  
100 the Hann filter to reduce spectral leakage. Monthly climatology of wavelet spectrum is employed  
101 to illustrate biweekly oscillations.

102 Singular value decomposition (SVD) is generally used to study covarying patterns of two  
103 interrelated variables (Bretherton et al., 1992). It will be empirical orthogonal function (EOF)  
104 analysis when two variables are the same. Prior to the decomposition process, a 10-20-day  
105 bandpass filter is applied to each variable. The leading SVD mode (SVD1) typically accounts for  
106 the most significant covariance between two variables. By performing SVD on two variables  
107 with time lags, we can explore the temporal relationship between the two variables, providing  
108 insights into potential causality among SST, surface wind and oceanic currents.

## 109 **3. Spatial and temporal characteristics of biweekly variability**

110 Figure 1a shows the ratio between the standard deviation of 10-20-day bandpass filtered SST and  
111 that of 90-day high-pass filtered SST, with a focus on ratios exceeding 0.5. Notably, the  
112 respective largest ratio is in proximity to the coordinates ( $95^\circ\text{W}, 0^\circ\text{N}$ ) in EEP and ( $0^\circ\text{W}, 0^\circ\text{N}$ ) in  
113 EEA, implying the predominance of biweekly SST variability within the spectrum of  
114 intraseasonal variability. In the equatorial Pacific, the strong biweekly SST variability extends  
115 from  $100^\circ\text{W}$  to  $90^\circ\text{W}$ , which is distinct from TIWs' region spanning from  $110^\circ\text{W}$  to  $160^\circ\text{W}$   
116 (Chelton et al., 2000). In alignment with the findings of Athie and Marie (2008), the equatorial  
117 Atlantic shows strong biweekly SST variability within the range of  $10^\circ\text{W}$ - $5^\circ\text{E}$ , which is also  
118 different from the TIWs' region. It is noteworthy that both regions fall within the cold tongue  
119 zone of their respective oceans.



120

121 Figure 1 (a) Ratio of 10-20-day high-pass filtered SST standard deviation to that of 90-day high-  
 122 pass filtered SST (OISST) from 1994 to 2014, displayed for values larger than 0.5; (b) monthly  
 123 climatology of wavelet spectrum of SST from TAO (color), meridional wind from CCMP (black  
 124 contour) and meridional ocean current from HYCOM (green contour) at (95°W,0°N) in 1996,  
 125 2000, 2002, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2011; (c) monthly climatology of wavelet spectrum of SST (color)  
 126 and meridional wind (black contour) from CCMP at (0°W,0°N) in 2003, 2006, 2011, 2012, 2016,  
 127 2017, 2018 and meridional ocean current from HYCOM (green contour) at (0°W,0°N) in 2003,  
 128 2006, 2011, 2012. Black contours start from 0 to 5 with interval as 1, green contours start from 0  
 129 to 0.4 with interval as 0.04.

130

131 Within the regions exhibiting strong biweekly signals, we have access to valuable temporal data  
 132 from two moored buoys for closer examination. One buoy is positioned at (95°W,0°N) from  
 133 TAO, while the other is situated at (0°W,0°N) from PIRATA. To ensure consistency in our  
 134 analysis, we have meticulously chosen seven complete years at each location for evaluation.  
 135 These years include 1996, 2000, 2002, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2011 at (95°W,0°N) and 2003, 2006,  
 136 2011, 2012, 2016, 2017, 2018 at (0°W,0°N). Unfortunately, the corresponding surface wind and  
 137 ocean current measurements have too many missed values. Therefore, we rely on surface wind  
 138 data from CCMP and ocean current data from HYCOM for our analysis. Since HYCOM data is  
 139 only available up to 2015, only 4 years (2003, 2006, 2011, 2012) of ocean current data are used  
 140 in the analysis at (0°W,0°N). Before conducting the wavelet analysis, we concatenate all the time  
 141 series data and eliminate the seasonal cycle to ensure robust and consistent results.

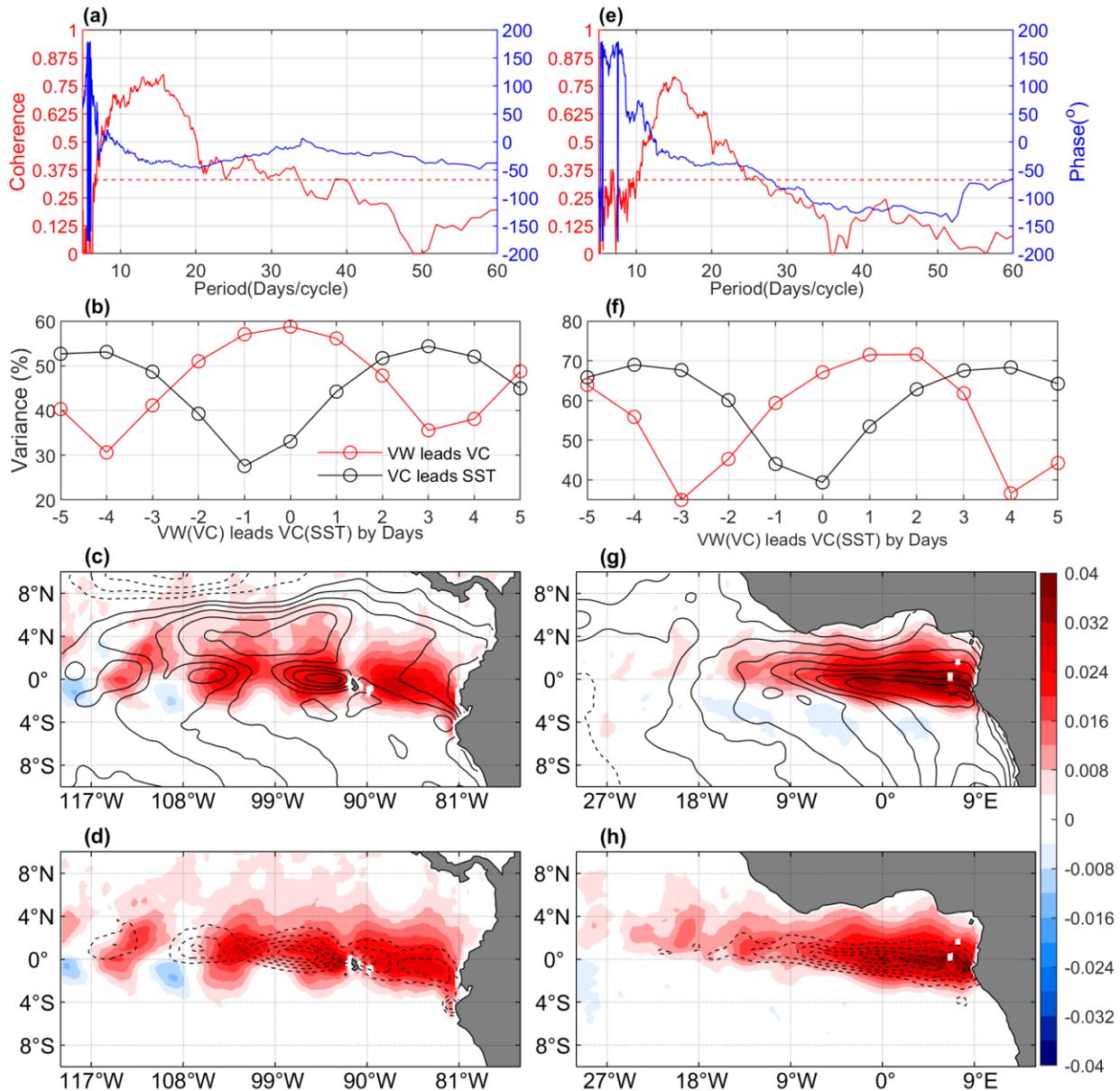
142 Figure 1b and 1c present the monthly climatology of wavelet energy spectrums for SST  
 143 (shading), meridional wind (black contour) and meridional ocean current (green contour) at  
 144 (95°W,0°N) and (0°W,0°N), respectively. In the case of SST, the spectrum reveals a prominent  
 145 energy peak occurring between 10-20 days from September to November at (95°W,0°N).

146 Similarly, meridional wind and ocean current exhibit local energy peaks during these months, as  
147 well as from February to April. We also note that 30-50-day meridional wind variability is more  
148 dominant and persists for a longer duration, but there is no strong SST variability in this  
149 frequency band that corresponds to the wind variability. As shown in Figure 1c, all three  
150 variables exhibit energy peaks during June-August at (0°W,0°N), with meridional wind and  
151 ocean velocity also showing a minor peak in March, which aligns with the findings of Diakhaté  
152 et al. (2016).

153 Two notable distinctions in biweekly SST variability between the Pacific and Atlantic regions  
154 emerge. Firstly, the timing of occurrence appears to be linked to the development of the cold  
155 tongue phenomenon, which is well-established during the boreal fall in the Pacific (Wyrski, 1981)  
156 and in the boreal summer in the Atlantic (Xie & Carton, 2004). Secondly, there is a disparity in  
157 amplitude, with the Pacific exhibiting higher SST variance, potentially reaching up to 18,  
158 compared to the Atlantic's variance, which typically reaches around 5. It's important to  
159 emphasize that this study's primary focus is on understanding the generation mechanisms of  
160 biweekly variabilities, rather than the amplitude disparities. For the forthcoming analysis, we  
161 will utilize data spanning from May to August in the Atlantic and from August to November in  
162 the Pacific. This choice allows us to commence our analysis from the month before biweekly  
163 variability becomes fully developed in each respective region. Additionally, given that OISST  
164 can replicate buoy SST spectral characteristics (Figure S1), we will employ OISST data in our  
165 subsequent analyses.

#### 166 **4. Relationships between SST, surface wind and ocean currents**

167 Figure 2a and 2e show the results of coherence between 90-day high-pass filtered SST and  
168 meridional wind at (95°W,0°N) and (0°W,0°N), respectively. Evidently, coherence values peak  
169 within the 10- and 20-day range in both the Pacific and Atlantic regions. The corresponding  
170 phase between SST and wind hovers around  $-50^\circ$ , indicating that SST leads wind by  
171 approximately 2 days or, conversely, wind leads SST by roughly 5 days.



172

173 Figure 2 Coherence (red) and phase (blue) between SST (OISST) and meridional wind (CCMP)  
 174 at  $(95^{\circ}\text{W}, 0^{\circ}\text{N})$  in the Pacific **(a)** and at  $(0^{\circ}\text{W}, 0^{\circ}\text{N})$  in the Atlantic **(e)** with a dashed red line  
 175 indicating the 99% significance level. Negative phase represents SST leads wind speed.  
 176 Explained variance by SVD1 for meridional wind (VW) and ocean current (VC, red), and SST  
 177 and VC (black) is presented for different lead-lag times in the Pacific **(b)** and Atlantic **(f)**. **(c)**  
 178 SVD1 of VW (contour) and VC (shading) with zero lag in the Pacific; **(d)** SVD1 of SST  
 179 (contour) and VC (shading) with VC leading SST by 3 days in the Pacific; **(g)** similar to (b), but  
 180 with VW leading VC by 2 days in the Atlantic; **(h)** similar to (d), but with VC leading SST by 4  
 181 days in the Atlantic. Dashed (solid) contours represent negative (positive) value. Contours start  
 182 from -0.05 to 0.05 with interval 0.002 for VW and 0.01 for SST. All data used here are from  
 183 August to November in the Pacific and from May to August in the Pacific in 1994-2014.

184 To verify the relationships between SST, meridional wind and ocean current, we conducted a  
185 lagged SVD analysis. Figure 2b illustrates the explained covariance by SVD1 at various time  
186 lags in the Pacific. It is evident that the explained covariance between meridional wind and  
187 current reaches the maximum (58.76%) at lag=0. The explained covariance by ocean current and  
188 SST reaches maximum (54.36%) when ocean current leads SST by 3 days.

189 The simultaneous SVD1 of biweekly meridional wind and ocean current is shown in Figure 2c.  
190 Both biweekly wind and ocean current exhibit a wave-like structure along the equator. It's  
191 important to note that the Wheeler-Kiladis dispersion relation analysis, although not shown here,  
192 does not reveal any distinct propagating waves. Despite the biweekly wind (black contour)  
193 demonstrating a broader spatial pattern compared to the ocean current (color shading), the  
194 overall consistency in structures of these two confirms that the northward wind leads to  
195 northward current. In Figure 2d, the spatial patterns of SVD1 with the meridional ocean current  
196 (color shading) leading SST (black contour) by 3 days highlight northward ocean currents can  
197 result in SST cooling.

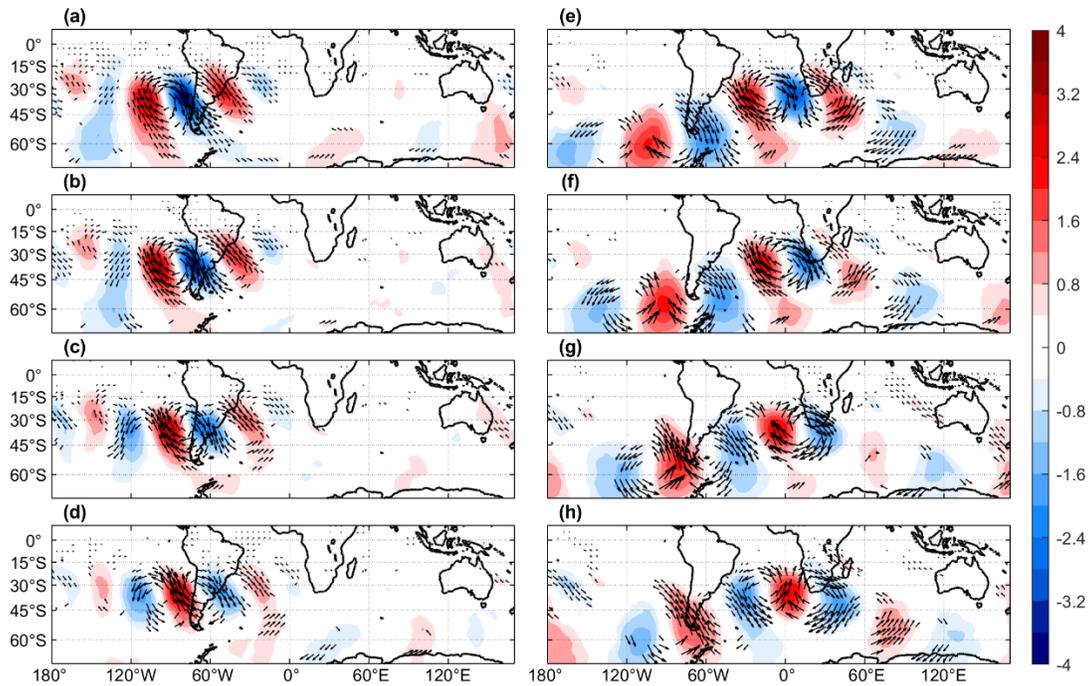
198 In the Atlantic, the maximum of the explained covariance (Figure 2f) occurs when wind leads  
199 ocean current by 1 or 2 days (71.59%) and ocean currents then leads SST by 3 or 4 days  
200 (68.34%). Spatial patterns of SVD1 with the highest explained covariance in the Atlantic (Figure  
201 2g&2h) are similar to those in the Pacific. The structures of biweekly SST exhibit asymmetry  
202 across the equator in both the Pacific and Atlantic. This asymmetry is likely a result of the  
203 positioning of SST fronts in the Pacific and Atlantic (De Szoeki et al., 2007; Giordani &  
204 Caniaux, 2014), which agrees with the argument by Athie and Marie (2008) that SST front can  
205 modulate biweekly SST variability. In summary, the SVD analysis suggests that biweekly  
206 meridional wind drives variability in meridional ocean current. Consequently, the northward  
207 (southward) ocean current transports cold (warm) water northward (southward), contributing to  
208 the generation of biweekly SST variability.

## 209 **5. Origins of biweekly wind variability**

210 To examine the dominant mode of biweekly winds, we present EOF1 and PC1 of 10–20-day  
211 wind vector during August–November in the Pacific and during May–August in the Atlantic in  
212 Figure S2. The expansive structure of the wind extends to at least 20°S in both the Pacific and  
213 Atlantic (Figure S2b&d), suggesting a potential linkage between the equatorial winds and  
214 subtropical winds. Patricola and Chang (2017) and Risien et al. (2004) also found biweekly  
215 variability of wind along the Africa coast near 20°S in the Atlantic. This raises the possibility  
216 that the equatorial biweekly variability may be associated with atmospheric processes in the  
217 subtropical regions. de Coëtlogon et al. (2010) and Patricola and Chang (2017) highlighted that  
218 biweekly wind variabilities in the equatorial or Benguela regions are closely related to the St  
219 Helena high. The wind vectors in Figure S2b&d demonstrate a coherent large-scale atmospheric  
220 circulation pattern, indicating a connection between wind variability in the subtropics and  
221 equatorial regions in both the Pacific and Atlantic.

222 To ascertain the origins of the biweekly wind signals in the eastern Pacific, we conducted a  
223 regression analysis of the 90-day high-pass filtered wind at 500hPa during August–November  
224 onto PC1 of the surface wind (Figure S2a) at various time lags of 0, 2, 4, and 6 days (Figure 3a-  
225 d). The results reveal a distinct eastward propagation of a biweekly wave train from the east of  
226 Australia to the South America, with a zonal wavelength of approximately 6,000 km. This wave  
227 train bears a close resemblance to similar findings reported by Ambrizzi et al. (1995). Moreover,

228 Li et al. (2015) demonstrated that the western Pacific region around 20°S-40°S serves as a  
 229 significant Rossby wave source, influenced by the strong jet and the descending branch of the  
 230 Hadley Cell. Shimizu and de Albuquerque Cavalcanti (2011) also identified the Western Pacific  
 231 (160°E-160°W, 10°S-30°S) as a significant Rossby wave source. Therefore, we hypothesize that  
 232 the biweekly wave train depicted in Figure 3a-d originates from the western South Pacific around  
 233 30°S with a slight southward propagation and finally is trapped between 30°S and 45°S. The  
 234 wave patterns not only manifest at 500hPa but also extend up to 300hPa (Figure S3a-d),  
 235 suggesting the Rossby waves exhibit barotropic structures.

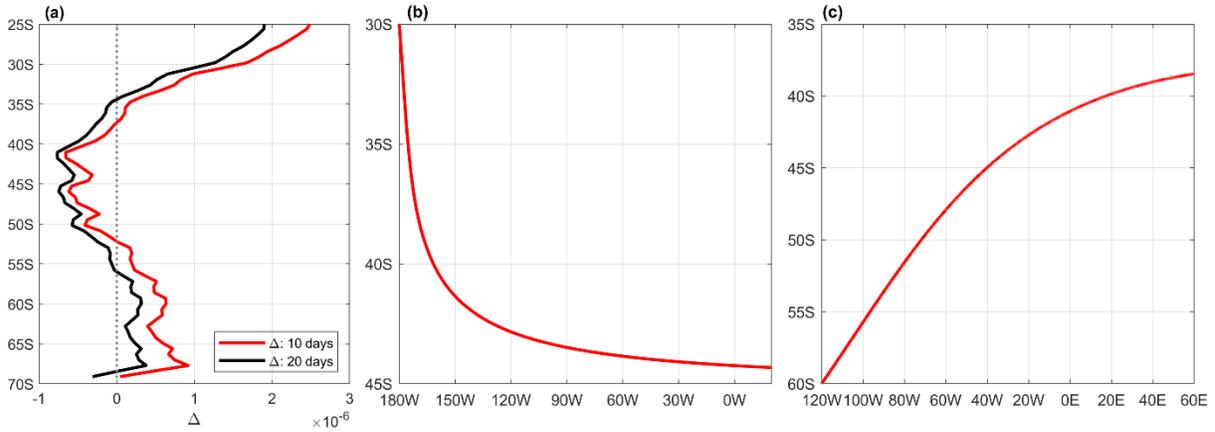


236 Figure 3 (a)-(d) Regression coefficient of 90-days high-passed wind at 500hPa in August-  
 237 November onto the PC1 in Figure S2a with lagged time of 0, 2, 4, 6 days; (e)-(h) similar to (a)-(d)  
 238 but in May-August onto the PC1 in Figure S2c. Shading represents regression coefficients of  
 239 meridional wind.  
 240

241  
 242 Figure 3e-h illustrates the regression coefficient of 90-day high-passed wind at 500hPa during  
 243 May-August onto the PC1 of the surface wind in the Atlantic (Figure S2b). The resulting  
 244 biweekly wave train exhibits a trajectory extending to the subpolar South Pacific with a zonal  
 245 wavelength of approximately 9,000 km and meridional wavelength of 2,000 km. In accordance  
 246 with Shimizu and de Albuquerque Cavalcanti (2011), the region south of Australia is recognized  
 247 as another significant Rossby wave source. Therefore, we postulate that the origin of the  
 248 biweekly wave train may be attributed to the Rossby wave source situated south of Australia. To  
 249 further substantiate our hypotheses, we will analyze biweekly wave energy propagation  
 250 according to Rossby wave ray theory (Hoskins & Ambrizzi, 1993; Hoskins & Karoly, 1981;  
 251 Karoly, 1983).

252 As shown in Figure 3a-d, the biweekly wave trains in the Pacific are trapped in the subtropics,  
 253 with a zonal wavelength (wavenumber) of trapped waves is approximately 6,000 km ( $1.01 \times 10^{-6}$

254 rad/m). Based on the linearized vorticity equation, the necessary condition for trapped Rossby  
 255 waves can be expressed as  $\Delta = \beta_M k / (kU - \omega) - k^2 < 0$ , where  $U$  represents the zonal mean  
 256 velocity from 180°E to 120°W (Figure S4),  $\beta_M = \beta - U_{yy}$  is the meridional gradient of absolute  
 257 vorticity,  $\omega$  is the frequency, and  $k$  is the zonal wavenumber. By considering  $k = 1.01 \times$   
 258  $10^{-6} \text{ rad/m}$ , the variation of  $\Delta$  with latitude for  $\omega = 2\pi/10\text{days}$  and  $2\pi/20\text{days}$  is presented  
 259 in Figure 4a. The results suggest that biweekly Rossby waves with a small meridional  
 260 wavenumber are likely to be trapped between 35°S and 55°S.



261  
 262 Figure 4 (a) Necessary conditions as function of latitude with frequency as  $2\pi/10\text{days}$  (red) and  
 263  $2\pi/20\text{days}$  (black) for the Pacific case, where zonal velocity is taken as the climatology of  
 264 zonal mean between 180°W and 120°W from ERA-Interim; (b) Trajectory of Rossby waves  
 265 from linearized barotropic non-divergent model for the Pacific case. (c) similar to (b), but for the  
 266 Atlantic case.

267 Ray theory provides an additional approach for verifying the trace of Rossby waves (Huskins  
 268 and Karoly, 1981). The trajectory of Rossby waves can be derived from the dispersion relation as  
 269 follows:

$$270 \quad \frac{dk}{dt} = -\frac{\partial\omega}{\partial x} = 0, \quad \frac{dl}{dt} = -\frac{\partial\omega}{\partial y} = -U_y k + \frac{\beta_M y k}{k^2 + l^2}, \quad \frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{\partial\omega}{\partial k} = \frac{\omega}{k} + \frac{2\beta_M k^2}{(k^2 + l^2)^2}, \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{\partial\omega}{\partial l} = \frac{2\beta_M k l}{(k^2 + l^2)^2},$$

271 where  $l$  is the meridional wavenumber decaying rapidly with the increase of  $|y|$ . The ray for  
 272 biweekly Rossby waves with  $k = 1.01 \times 10^{-6} \text{ rad/m}$  (Figure 4b) suggests that the waves  
 273 generated at 30°S will propagate poleward and eventually be trapped between 30°S and 45°S.  
 274 The coherence between the observations and theoretical results provides evidence supporting the  
 275 likelihood that biweekly variability in the eastern Pacific originates from western Pacific.

276 As indicated in Figure 3e-h, the waves related to the biweekly signals in the Atlantic propagate  
 277 northeastward from the subpolar Pacific to the subtropical Atlantic. This trajectory differs from  
 278 the one associated with biweekly variability in EEP that shows no northward propagation. The  
 279 ratio of meridional wind velocity to zonal wind velocity reaches 0.4 in the subpolar Pacific  
 280 (Figure S5), emphasizing the significance of meridional velocity in modulating Rossby waves in  
 281 this region. Therefore, meridional velocity is considered in the reproduction of wave rays using  
 282 the barotropic nondivergent model proposed in Karoly (1982):  $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + V \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right) \left(\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial y^2}\right) +$

283  $q_y \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} + q_x \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} = 0$ , where  $q = \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial y^2} + f$  and  $f$  is Coriolis parameter,  $U$  is taken as constant,  
284 and  $V$  is meridional velocity as a function of latitude. The wave solution, with the form of  
285  $\psi = A(X, Y, T)e^{i(kx+ly-\omega t)}$ , yields the dispersion relation :  
286  $\omega = Uk + Vl + (q_x l - q_y k)/(k^2 + l^2)$ . Based on the conservations of crests and the definition  
287 of group velocity, the equations governing wave rays can be expressed as  $\frac{dgk}{dt} = -\frac{\partial \omega}{\partial x} = 0$ ,  
288  $\frac{dgl}{dt} = -\frac{\partial \omega}{\partial y} = -U_y k - V_y l + \frac{q_{yy}k - q_{xy}l}{k^2 + l^2}$ ,  $\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial k} = U + \frac{(k^2 - l^2)q_y - 2klq_x}{(k^2 + l^2)^2}$ ,  $\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial l} = V +$   
289  $\frac{2klq_y + (k^2 - l^2)q_x}{(k^2 + l^2)^2}$ . Consequently, when the meridional velocity  $V$  and  
290  $[2klq_y + (k^2 - l^2)q_x]/(k^2 + l^2)^2$  are balanced, the waves will be trapped within a specific  
291 latitude band. Considering  $U$  as 15 m/s and  $V$  gradually decreasing from 6 m/s to 0 m/s toward  
292 the equator, the Rossby waves show northeastward propagation and eventually become trapped  
293 between 30°S and 45°S (Figure 4c). The agreement between the trajectories obtained by ray  
294 theory and the lag regression indicates that the Rossby waves associated with the biweekly wind  
295 variability in the Atlantic can be traced back to their origin in the Pacific.

## 296 6. Conclusion and discussion

297 In this study, we investigate biweekly variabilities in EEP and EEA using the buoy and  
298 reanalysis datasets from 1994 to 2014. Our findings suggest that biweekly SST variability can  
299 account for more than 50% intraseasonal variability. Wavelet analyses of SST, meridional wind  
300 and ocean current corroborate the prevalence of strong biweekly fluctuations, primarily  
301 occurring between September and November in EEP and between June and August in EEA.  
302 Coherence analysis and lead-lag SVD analyses both indicate that biweekly SST variability is  
303 primarily driven by the atmosphere forces with ocean currents acting as intermediaries. Biweekly  
304 meridional ocean currents are propelled by wind forcing, with a lag of 1-2 days in EEA but  
305 occurring simultaneously in EEP. Subsequently, ocean currents transport cold (warm) water  
306 northward (southward), resulting in the development of cold (warm) SST anomalies along the  
307 equator in 3-4 days.

308 Several studies (Garzoli, 1987; Houghton & Colin, 1987; Jouanno et al., 2013) suggested that  
309 biweekly ocean current variability in the eastern Atlantic is mixed Rossby-gravity wave  
310 following a dispersion relation of  $k = \omega/c - \beta/\omega$ . If  $c$  is taken as first baroclinic gravity wave  
311 speed 2.3 m/s, biweekly waves should have a corresponding wavelength 2300 km. However, our  
312 SVD analyses and the conclusions of Athie and Marin (2008) do not support the presence of  
313 propagation features in biweekly variabilities, contrary to the expectations of mixed Rossby-  
314 gravity waves. Furthermore, the observations used in Houghton and Colin (1987) and Garzoli  
315 (1987) were from a single point, lacking necessary wavelength information. In addition, Athie  
316 and Marin (2008) suggested the impact of the cold tongue on biweekly SST variability, a  
317 proposition that aligns with the results in this study.

318 The biweekly wind shows a broader structure compared to SST and ocean currents, extending to  
319 at least 20°S, suggesting a potential connection between equatorial and subtropical winds. By  
320 employing lead-lag regression analysis and a linearized barotropic nondivergent model, we  
321 establish the origin of biweekly wind variability in the eastern Pacific as the western Pacific and  
322 in the eastern Atlantic as the subpolar Pacific. While biweekly Rossby waves might not directly  
323 propagate to the equatorial regions, they can still influence the EEP and EEA through the trade

324 winds (Figure S2b&c). However, it is important to note that our trajectory analyses rely on  
325 simplified meridional wind velocity representations, assuming zero values in the EEP analysis  
326 and an exponentially decaying function in the EEA analysis. To further validate biweekly  
327 Rossby wave generation, it would be beneficial to conduct experiments using comprehensive  
328 atmosphere models in the future.

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### 333 **Open Research**

334 OISST is available at Reynolds et al. (2007). CCMP wind vector product is available at Remote  
335 Sensing Systems (2022). EAR-Interim wind vector product is available at ECMWF (2019).  
336 HYCOM data is available at NRL (2017).

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