

## How are large western hemisphere warm pools formed?

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### Abstract

During the boreal summer the Western Hemisphere warm pool (WHWP) stretches from the eastern North Pacific to the tropical North Atlantic and is a key feature of the climate of the Americas and Africa. In the summers following nine El Niño events during 1950–2000, there have been five instances of extraordinarily large warm pools averaging about twice the climatological annual size. These large warm pools have induced a strengthened divergent circulation aloft and have been associated with rainfall anomalies throughout the western hemisphere tropics and subtropics and with more frequent hurricanes. However, following four other El Niño events large warm pools did not develop, such that the mere existence of El Niño during the boreal winter does not provide the basis for predicting an anomalously large warm pool the following summer.

In this paper, we find consistency with the hypothesis that large warm pools result from an anomalous divergent circulation forced by sea surface temperature (SST) anomalies in the Pacific, the so-called atmospheric bridge. We also find significant explanations for why large warm pools do not always develop. If the El Niño event ends early in the eastern Pacific, the Pacific warm anomaly lacks the persistence needed to force the atmospheric bridge and the Atlantic portion of the warm pool remains normal. If SST anomalies in the eastern Pacific do not last much beyond February of the following year, then the eastern North Pacific portion of the warm pool remains normal. The overall strength of the Pacific El Niño does not appear to be a critical factor. We also find that when conditions favor a developing atmospheric bridge and the winter atmosphere over the North Atlantic conforms to a negative North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) pattern (as in 1957–58 and 1968–69), the forcing is reinforced and the warm pool is stronger. On the other hand, if a positive NAO pattern develops the warm pool may remain normal even if other circumstances favor the atmospheric bridge, as in 1991–92. Finally, we could find little evidence that interactions internal to the tropical Atlantic are likely to mitigate for or against the formation of the largest warm pools, although they may affect smaller warm pool fluctuations or the warm pool persistence.

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*Abbreviations:* AMJ, April–June; DJF, December–February; ENP, Eastern North Pacific; ENSO, El Niño–Southern Oscillation; EQA, Equatorial Atlantic; ERA40, ECMWF 40-year reanalysis; FMA, February–March; AGCM, atmospheric general circulation model; IAS, Intra-Americas Sea; ITCZ, inter-tropical convergence zone; JFMA, January–April; JJA, June–August; NAO, North Atlantic Oscillation; NCAR, National Center for Atmospheric Research; NCEP, National Centers for Environmental Prediction; NE, Northeast; NOAA, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration; PACS, Pan-American Climate Studies; PNA, Pacific North American; SLP, sea level atmospheric pressure; SST, sea surface temperature; SSTA, sea surface temperature anomaly; TNA, Tropical North Atlantic; TSA, Tropical South Atlantic; WES, wind evaporation and SST; WHWP, Western Hemisphere warm pool.

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## 1. Introduction

El Niño results in two types of teleconnections, those that quickly (within a month) reach land regions remote from the equatorial Pacific through atmospheric pathways, and those that affect ocean regions, but more slowly (1–3 seasons). The former have been well documented by Ropelewski and Halpert (1987). The best documented example of the latter is the tropical Atlantic warming that occurs during the spring and early summer following the maximum El Niño warming in the Pacific (Hastenrath et al., 1987; Enfield and Mayer, 1997). The two foremost characteristics of the Atlantic response are an anomalous warmth in the tropical North Atlantic (TNA) and a large Western Hemisphere warm pool (WHWP) as defined by the area of temperatures in excess of 28.5 °C (Wang and Enfield, 2001; Wang and Enfield, 2003). As would be expected of these overlapping features, they are well correlated with each other and both are shown to be associated with important land climate anomalies of their own (e.g., Moura and Shukla, 1981; Enfield, 1996; Marshall et al., 2001; Wang and Enfield, 2003; Wang et al., 2006). In this paper we treat these features interchangeably; anomalously large warm pools are used as the clearest indicators of the TNA response to El Niño, whilst the TNA warmings are taken to be the most immediate response to atmospheric forcing and the partial cause of large warm pools.

The WHWP undergoes a very large annual variation in its geographic extent, almost disappearing in the boreal winter while extending from the eastern North Pacific (ENP) into the TNA (east of the Caribbean approximately between 5°N and 25°N) in late summer (Wang and Enfield, 2001; Wang and Enfield, 2003). For the purposes of this paper, the WHWP and its index can be defined as the area of sea surface temperature (SST) warmer than 28.5 °C, including the eastern North Pacific and the Intra-Americas Sea (IAS) extending eastward into the tropical North Atlantic but not including the separate, equatorial Atlantic (EQA) warm pool. Other isotherm definitions can be used (28.0 °C, 27.5 °C) but then the IAS and EQA portions merge during some months and make separation difficult. The EQA is not included within the Atlantic warm pool because its dynamics and thermodynamics are different and its impact on Central and North American climates are not as clear. Inclusion of the ENP, however, is very important because it is part of the total SST heating signal (including the IAS) that the atmosphere sees north of the equator in the boreal summer when the WHWP becomes the heat source for the divergent circulation of the Americas sector of the troposphere. Nevertheless, the processes that affect the ENP are different from those of the Atlantic side and these distinctions must be remembered in analyzing warm pool variability.

A 1950–2000 time series of the WHWP area index (Fig. 1a) is well correlated ( $r = 0.60$ ) with the index of SST in the TNA (Fig. 1d) (Wang and Enfield, 2001). We see that five of the six largest warm pools (1958, 1969, 1983, 1987, 1997 and 1998) occur during the boreal summers following El Niño events and that these also correspond to some of the warmest years for the TNA, in agreement with Enfield and Mayer (1997). However, four other El Niño events in the record (1966, 1973, 1977, 1992) are not associated with large warm pools. Because anomalously large warm pools do not invariably occur with El Niño decay, the mere fact that an El Niño is in progress does not constitute an adequate basis for predicting a large warm pool the following summer, nor the climate impacts attendant on large warm pools. It appears, therefore, that some combination of factors affecting the aftermath of El Niño events may hold the key to predicting large warm pools and a warm TNA, which in turn influence many of the surrounding land climates long after the direct influence of El Niño on the winter climate has abated. The aim of this paper is to shed light on the processes that produce large warm pools following El Niño, and on the possible reasons for the failure of that mechanism under some circumstances.

Fig. 1b and c shows the component area indices for the ENP and IAS portions of the WHWP. In all of the five summers with large warm pools following El Niño peaks, the ENP area is extensive. This is not surprising since the eastern Pacific frequently has significant SST anomalies (SSTA) that persist well into the second year of an El Niño event. Such anomalies are extensions of the well-known Bjerknes feedback mechanism of the El Niño–Southern Oscillation (ENSO). In four of those years the IAS area was also very large but those anomalies cannot

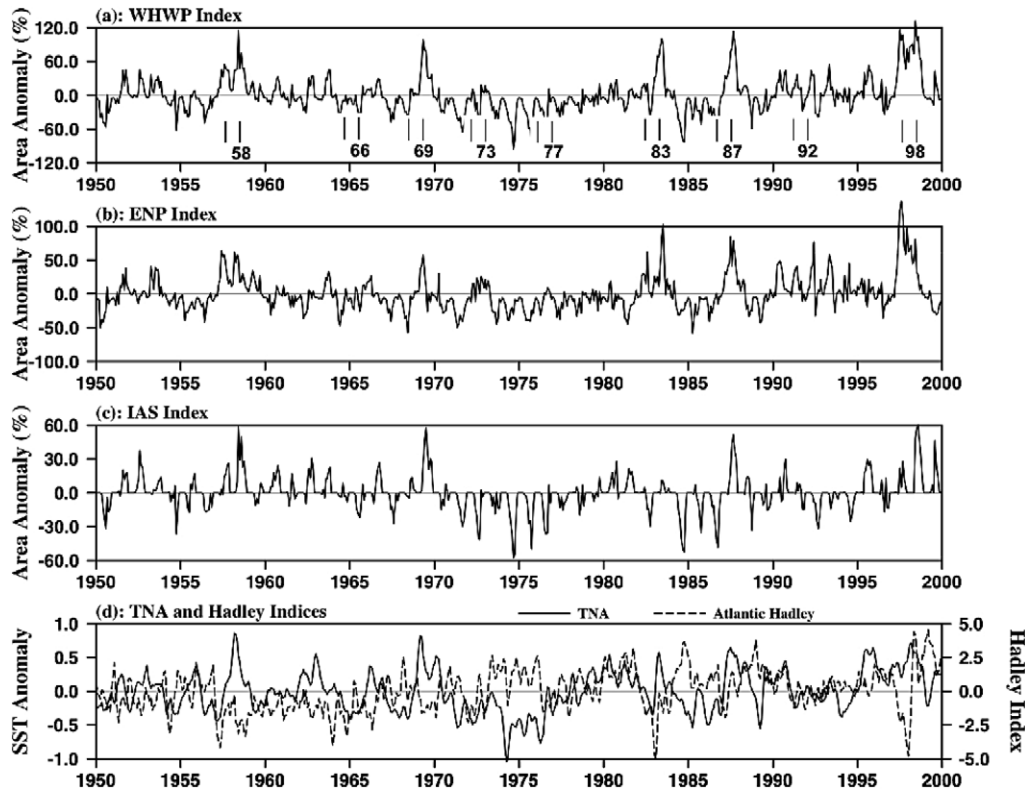


Fig. 1. (a) Time series of the total Western Hemisphere warm pool (WHWP) area index, defined as the anomaly of the area surrounded by the  $28.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  isotherm of sea surface temperature (SST), expressed as a percentage of the average July value. (b) As in (a) but for the eastern North Pacific (ENP) only, expressed as a percentage of the average May value. (c) As in (a) but for the intra-Americas Sea (IAS) only, expressed as a percentage of the average September value. (d) Anomaly of sea surface temperature averaged over the tropical North Atlantic (solid) superimposed with the Atlantic Hadley index of Wang (2004). Years of El Niño onset (0) and decay (+1) are indicated by vertical hash marks in (a).

be explained through an oceanic connection as occurs in the ENP. Therefore, to understand the largest warm pool variations we must also understand how the warm pool-correlated TNA is affected by El Niño.

Enfield and Mayer (1997) and others have shown that interannual warmings of the TNA region west of West Africa following El Niño respond to a decrease in the strength of the northeast (NE) trade winds and associated latent heat loss and entrainment, with a consequent increase in the surface heat flux retained by the ocean mixed layer. Using primarily surface and satellite data, Klein et al. (1999) confirmed that the reduction of latent heat loss is the primary warming factor, but further showed that an increase in shortwave radiation due to reduced cloudiness constitutes a secondary, reinforcing influence. Enfield and Mayer (1997) argue that reduced wind speeds in the NE trades are largely responsible for the downward heat flux due to decreased evaporation, but Saravanan and Chang (2000) show that changes in the air–sea temperature difference are also involved. The largest part of the warm pool lies to the west of the TNA. But, while the TNA warming mechanisms may not be equally important for the warm pool core, the TNA warming alone can account for much of the increase in the area of the warm pool as defined by the  $28.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ ,  $28.0^{\circ}\text{C}$ , or  $27.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  isotherms.

In this paper, we delve more deeply into some of the relationships and interactions already pointed to by recent research showing how the large warm pools forced (or not) by El Niños can be explained, and perhaps predicted. Following the suggestion of Wang (2002) and Wang and Enfield (2003), we show how the so-called atmospheric bridge from the Pacific to the Atlantic can be affected through the tropical direct circulation as well as through the more indirect route of the Pacific North American (PNA) teleconnection pattern of higher latitudes. More specifically, we show that persistence of eastern Pacific El Niño conditions into the early boreal spring is required for a subsequent large summer warm pool. Through case analysis of individual years we

build on the findings of Mo and Häkkinen (2001), Czaja et al. (2002) and Giannini et al. (2001) to show how the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) can reinforce or interfere with the Pacific influence of El Niño. We also discuss, albeit briefly, the possible role of internal tropical Atlantic variability in these processes. What emerges is a set of guidelines for seasonal prediction of large warm pools through monitoring of global observations, and for validation of numerical models.

After describing our data sources (Section 2), in Section 3 we review the current understanding of how ocean–atmosphere processes affect the tropical North Atlantic. In Section 4 we use composite-average oceanic and atmospheric fields to demonstrate how the warm pool development differs between two sets of El Niño episodes: those with ensuing large warm pools and those without. Section 5 discusses aspects that affect the tropical North Atlantic, other than the atmospheric bridge from the Pacific. In Section 5 we also analyze nine individual cases to see how the atmospheric bridge combines with factors unrelated to El Niño to explain past occurrences, and non-occurrences, of large warm pools. In Section 6 we summarize and discuss our results.

## 2. Data and methods

Our analyses rely primarily on the following monthly averaged fields of the NCAR/NCEP atmospheric reanalysis data (Kalnay et al., 1996), 1950–2000: SST; sea level pressure and vector winds; surface net heat flux, radiative and turbulent surface heat fluxes; 200 hPa velocity potential and irrotational wind; 500 hPa vertical velocity; and 925 hPa pressure height and vector wind. To calculate the WHWP and TNA indices (see Fig. 1) we have used the 2° by 2° gridded reconstructed SST data of Smith et al. (1996). For seasonally averaged and composite maps of SST anomalies we have used the NCEP/NCAR reanalysis data. For the NAO index we use the difference between normalized surface pressures at Lisbon Portugal and Reykjavik Iceland, 1864–1998 (Hurrell, 1995).

Anomalies are formed by subtracting the 1950–2000 climatologies from the monthly fields but no other data treatments (smoothing, etc.) have been applied in preparing seasonal averaged or composite maps. Surface flux anomalies are taken to be positive if they warm the ocean. In the four figures with composite mean distributions, we have computed and shown the 95% confidence interval about the mean to judge the significance of anomaly patterns.

## 3. Forcing of the TNA

We take the El Niño forcing of the ENP portion of the warm pool to be self-evident. If the pattern of El Niño warming in the eastern tropical Pacific persists into the spring following maximum boreal winter anomalies in the equatorial Pacific, and if the persistent warm anomalies overlap the ENP region, then that portion of the warm pool will be larger than normal. Any El Niño event that persists in this way is consistent with this straightforward explanation.

The Atlantic portion of the warm pool is more complex. In general, large Atlantic warm pools coincide with anomalous warming of the TNA region (see Fig. 1b,d) and that TNA warming consistently extends into the Caribbean (Enfield and Mayer, 1997). Three principal explanations have been given for interannual TNA warmings. One is based on a local ocean–atmosphere feedback loop involving wind, evaporation and SST (Xie and Philander, 1994; Carton et al., 1996; Chang et al., 1997). The other two are based on the external forcing by ENSO (Covey and Hastenrath, 1978; Hastenrath et al., 1984; Hastenrath et al., 1987; Enfield and Mayer, 1997; Klein et al., 1999; Giannini et al., 2000) and the NAO (Giannini et al., 2001; Mo and Häkkinen, 2001; Czaja et al., 2002).

### 3.1. Forcing by ENSO

There is general agreement that the El Niño-induced warming in the TNA results from an increased downward heat flux due primarily to a decrease in the strength of the co-located northeast trade winds (Curtis and Hastenrath, 1995; Enfield and Mayer, 1997; Klein et al., 1999; Giannini et al., 2000). Some of the warming may also be attributed to a decrease in the air–sea temperature difference (Saravanan and Chang, 2000), to large-scale tropospheric temperature anomalies (Chiang and Sobel, 2002), or to increased shortwave radiation

(Klein et al., 1999). It appears probable, however, that the decrease in wind in the late stages of El Niño is related to a weakening of the North Atlantic subtropical high pressure ridge (Klein et al., 1999; Hastenrath, 2000; Wang and Enfield, 2003).

Opinions diverge, however, as to the nature of the atmospheric pathway, or bridge between the Pacific El Niño disturbance and the North Atlantic surface pressure anomaly. Hastenrath (2000) attributes this to the train of alternating low and high pressure anomalies along the great circle arc between the two regions, owing to Rossby wave propagation (Hoskins and Karoly, 1981) and commonly known as the Pacific North American (PNA) teleconnection pattern (Horel and Wallace, 1981; Wallace and Gutzler, 1981). Alternately, Saravanan and Chang (2000), Wang (2002) and Wang and Enfield (2003) present evidence that the weakening of the high pressure center is consistent with El Niño-induced anomalies in the divergent (Walker–Hadley) circulation in the Atlantic sector. This ostensibly produces a weakening of the upper troposphere subsidence near 30°N. Upper- and mid-tropospheric subsidence frequently, but not invariably, influences the strength of the co-located surface high pressure system. Fig. 2 shows the normal winter divergent circulation as contrasted with the anomalous circulation for El Niño winters. For the latter, there is anomalous upper troposphere divergence and mid-tropospheric upward velocity over the subtropical North Atlantic.

Most analyses show the Atlantic low-pressure node of the PNA centered approximately over Florida (e.g., Nigam, 2003) whilst the surface wind anomalies associated with TNA warming lie farther east (Enfield and Mayer, 1997), favoring the Walker–Hadley mechanism. Beyond this, however, there is no way to resolve the dichotomy of explanations using observations alone and no modeling experiments have yet been devised to explore this conundrum.

In the ensuing sections we shall assume that if low-level pressure heights (925 hPa) over the subtropical North Atlantic are anomalously low, the low-level winds over the TNA region are weak, and there is evidence of decreased subsidence aloft, then all the conditions for the atmospheric bridge are in place over its Atlantic sector terminus, regardless of the pathway. Such occurrences (or lack thereof) are compared with the characteristics of the Pacific El Niño to see which aspect(s) of El Niño evolution might best explain the occurrence or non-occurrence of atmospheric bridge conditions.

### 3.2. Forcing by the NAO

The NAO is defined as a persistent dipole in surface atmospheric pressure anomaly between the Icelandic Low at high latitudes and the North Atlantic subtropical high pressure center near the Azores (Hurrell, 1995), the polarity of which varies on time scales from seasonal to multidecadal (Marshall et al., 2001). It is quite clear that the NAO pattern over the southern node encompasses the subtropical pressure system and the NE trade winds associated with TNA SST anomalies. It has also been shown that the response of SST in the TNA region to ENSO can be modified by contemporaneous forcing by boreal winter NAO patterns of either polarity (Giannini et al., 2001; Mo and Häkkinen, 2001; Czaja et al., 2002). NAO patterns of positive (negative) polarity are associated with stronger (weaker) than normal NE trade winds and cooler (warmer) than normal TNA SST and can interfere with (reinforce) the influence of El Niño over the same region. Therefore, the influence of the NAO on the TNA appears to be the most likely explanation – other than the El Niño characteristics themselves – for the lack of one-to-one correspondence between Pacific El Niño events and large warm pools, noted in reference to Fig. 1. In this study, we represent the NAO with composite and seasonal averaged maps of boreal winter 925 hPa pressure heights and winds, in an effort to see how well the NAO can explain atypical warm pool responses to ENSO.

### 3.3. Forcing by local ocean–atmosphere interaction

It is difficult or impossible to determine the role of feedback effects involving wind, evaporation and SST (WES) (Xie and Philander, 1994) from observations. It has been shown that SST variations in the tropical South and North Atlantic are uncorrelated and that dipole configurations between the two sides of the Inter-Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) occur infrequently and no more than expected by chance (Houghton and Tourre, 1992; Enfield and Mayer, 1997; Enfield et al., 1999). Hence, even the occurrence of a dipole in SST would not signal the influence of local interaction on the evolution (or not) of a large warm pool. Moreover,

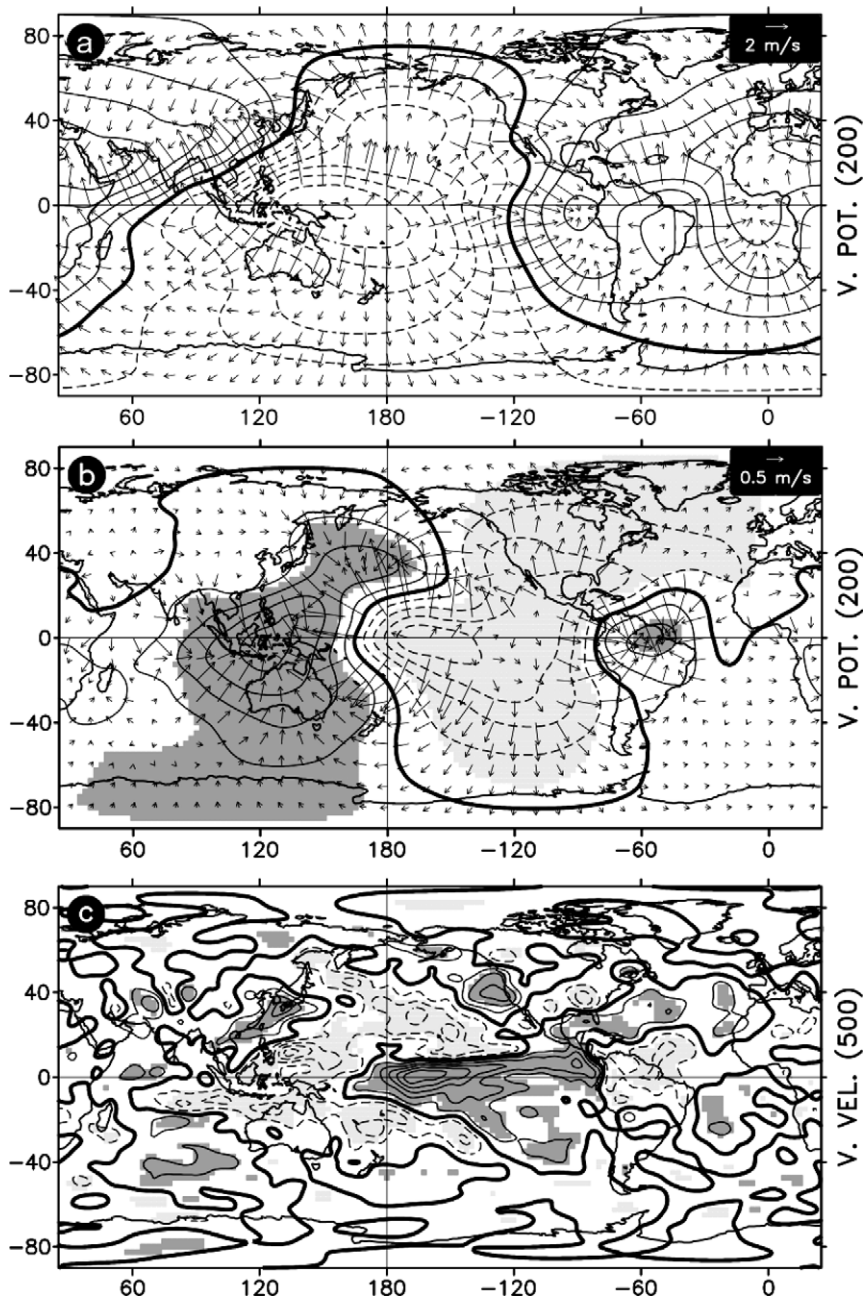


Fig. 2. (a) Climatological boreal winter (December–January–February) velocity potential and divergent wind at 200 hPa from the NCAR/NCEP reanalysis (Kalnay et al., 1996). (b) As in (a) but for anomalies composited for El Niño winters. (c) Anomalies of 500 hPa vertical velocity composited for El Niño winters. Positive anomalies of vertical velocity near 25–30°N in the Atlantic indicate reduced subsidence and negative values over northern South America indicate reduced convection.

Okajima et al. (2003) show that the WES feedback is greatly weakened when the ITCZ is displaced north of the equator, which is true for all seasons except March–May. Klein et al. (1999) show that the first four calendar months are the most critical for the ENSO forcing of the TNA region, and during the latter part of that season the ITCZ is at or near the equator and can potentially affect this process. More recently, Giannini et al. (2004) have used an atmospheric general circulation model (AGCM) with observations to argue that winter preconditioning of the tropical Atlantic through WES-type interactions can indeed influence the outcome of

the teleconnection from the Pacific. In this paper we only attempt to detect the known spatial signature of wind and SST in the tropical Atlantic seasonal maps, to assess the possibility that WES feedback may be involved.

#### 4. Evolution of large warm pools

In Fig. 1a we see that 1958, 1969, 1983, 1987 and 1998 are all years with large warm pools. Each of these is the second year in a two-year sequence, the first year (0) being the El Niño onset phase and the second year (+1) being the decay phase of the event (Rasmusson and Carpenter, 1982). Typically, the peak of the equatorial heating anomalies in the eastern Pacific occurs around November–December of the onset year (Enfield, 1989). The group of biennia with large warm pools includes two very strong events (1982–83, 1997–98), one strong event (1957–58), and two weak-to-moderate events (1968–69, 1986–87) (Quinn et al., 1987; Quinn and Neal, 1992). In each case, we see that the summer of the second year has a warm pool ranging from 70% to 120% larger than the climatological July warm pool size.

In contrast, there appears to be no clear pattern regarding the size of the warm pool during the previous summers (onset years); they are near normal on average. The only onset year with a large warm pool was 1997, which was entirely due to the ENP (Fig. 1b) with no contribution from the Atlantic side (Fig. 1c). The ENP warm pool was large in 1997 because significant SST anomalies were established early in the eastern Pacific (McPhaden, 1999). We can also see evidence of large ENP warm pools in other onset years, but the IAS warm pool does not show any consistent tendency to be large. In contrast, the IAS warm pool was large in four of the five (+1) years in which the total warm pool was large (Fig. 1c).

The lack of large IAS warm pools in onset years is easily understood. In the early months of onset years when the Atlantic warm pool and TNA are forced (Klein et al., 1999) the Pacific SST anomalies are small or negligible and not expected to force an atmospheric bridge in a significant way, and therefore cannot create the conditions required in the Atlantic for a large Atlantic warm pool by early summer. Atlantic warm pool developments during the onset year are therefore mainly subject to atmosphere-ocean variability internal to the Atlantic sector and not correlated to El Niño.

Large warm pools do not follow a second group of widely recognized El Niño events, the (+1) years being 1966, 1973, 1977, and 1992 (Fig. 1a). This group includes one strong event (1972–73) and three weak-to-moderate events (1965–66, 1976–77 and 1991–92) (Quinn et al., 1987; Quinn and Neal, 1992). That this group is comprised of predominantly weaker El Niño events than in the first group suggests that the Pacific El Niño characteristics, such as intensity or timing, are a primary factor influencing the tropospheric forcing. However, the strong 1972–73 event (normal warm pool) does not fit this pattern as also the weak 1968–69 episode (large warm pool). An alternate or supplementary hypothesis is that some external factor, such as the NAO, reinforces or interferes with the development of the atmospheric bridge.

It is clear that both the ENP and Atlantic portions of the warm pool contribute to large warm pool anomalies and that they are correlated with the total warm pool index ( $r = 0.80, 0.85$ ; lag =  $-1, 0$  months) and with the tropical North Atlantic SSTA index ( $r = 0.42, 0.49$ ; lags =  $0$  months) (Fig. 1). The rest of this section deals primarily with the remote forcing of the Atlantic portion of the warm pool.

##### 4.1. Composite evolution of SSTA

In Fig. 3 we show the composite-averaged SSTA evolutions for the two sets of El Niño episodes: those followed by large warm pools (WP) on the left, and those not (wp), on the right. The first panel of each group shows the average SSTA distribution for December–January–February (DJF), centered on January of year (+1) when the Pacific equatorial cold tongue anomaly is usually at its maximum. The second panel displays the January–April (JFMA) period of year (+1). This four-month period is the one during which the resulting tropospheric anomalies noted by Klein et al. (1999) are persistent and force the tropical North Atlantic Ocean. The last two panels are for April–June (AMJ) and June–August (JJA), or early and mid-summer of year (+1), respectively, when the cumulative effects of surface flux anomalies become evident in the warm pool characteristics.

The composite WP and wp evolutions differ considerably in both the Pacific and the Atlantic. The entire WP sequence shows stronger development in the Pacific, with the positive cold tongue anomaly being more

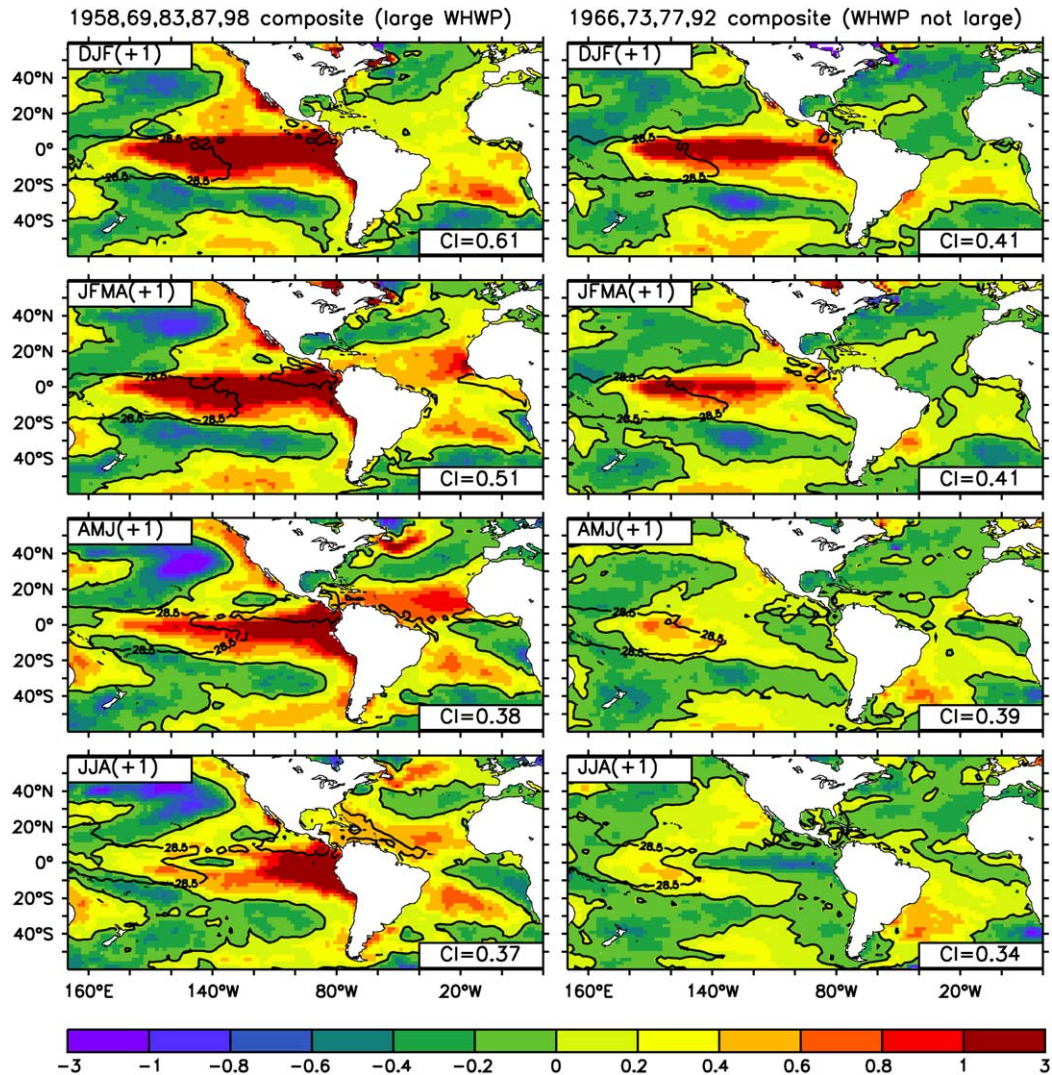


Fig. 3. Left panels: seasonal evolution of the global distribution of sea surface temperature anomaly (shading) from boreal winter (DJF) to summer (JJA), averaged for five Niño +1 years with extraordinarily large warm pools (Fig. 1a) and superimposed with the climatological average isotherms (27.5 °C, 27.0 °C and 28.5 °C, solid contours) that define the tropical warm pools. Right Panels: as on the left, but for four Niño +1 years in which large Atlantic warm pools did not develop (Fig. 1a). In the lower right corner of each map is the value of the 95% confidence interval for the anomalies averaged over the tropical Atlantic (5°–25°N).

extensive, more intense, and with positive values lasting well into the summer of the (+1) year. This sequence has significant (at 95%) SST anomalies between +0.5 °C and +1 °C over most of the tropical Atlantic, from JFMA through JJA, with the strongest during AMJ. The largest Atlantic WP anomalies (1 °C) begin off West Africa in JFMA and extend all the way to the Caribbean by AMJ. During AMJ the anomalous SST of the lingering El Niño in the ENP region west of Central America is significant, hence both the ENP and IAS portions of the warm pool are enhanced: the ENP directly, through Pacific Ocean dynamics such as Rossby and coastal Kelvin waves, and the IAS indirectly, through the atmospheric bridge (Section 3).

The wp sequence, in contrast, shows the onset of post-El Niño cold anomalies in the eastern equatorial Pacific as early as AMJ, and by JJA the Pacific cold tongue is clearly colder than normal. By AMJ, SST has returned to normal in the ENP region off Central America and the Atlantic portion of the WHWP straddles climatology, with anomalies far below the 95% confidence interval for the composite mean. This means that during the JFMA period of Atlantic forcing, the heating anomaly in the Pacific has weakened



considerably and that the conditions conducive to a well-developed atmospheric bridge do not exist. In the tropical Atlantic, SST anomalies are in the range of  $\pm 0.2$  °C throughout the wp sequence, with predominantly small negative values north of the equator.

One prominent feature of the WP distributions should be noted. While SST is clearly above normal over the TNA region during JFMA and AMJ, it is below normal north of about 20°N during JFMA, extending into the Gulf of Mexico.

#### 4.2. Surface flux forcing

Does the forcing by surface fluxes in the tropical Atlantic reflect the differences seen in Atlantic SSTA between the WP and wp groups of events? Fig. 4 shows the WP (left) vs. wp (right) comparison for the net surface flux ( $Q_{\text{NET}}$ , upper panels) and the latent heat flux and short wave radiation components ( $Q_{\text{LHF}}$ ,  $Q_{\text{SWR}}$ , lower panels). To demonstrate the degree of variability between flux data sets, the  $Q_{\text{NET}}$  for both the NCEP reanalysis and the ERA40 (Gibson et al., 1997) are shown, while for the components we show only the NCEP distributions. The period composited is JFMA, shown by Klein et al. (1999) to be the critical period of strong forcing emanating from the Pacific anomaly.

The left-side panels (WP) clearly confirm the relationships shown by Enfield and Mayer (1997) and Klein et al. (1999). While the Pacific cold tongue is being cooled by surface fluxes in response to the strong positive SST anomaly there, the TNA is being strongly heated over the entire region between West Africa and Central America. Heating rates in the range of  $-25$  to  $-60$   $\text{Wm}^{-2}$  and  $+25$  to  $+50$   $\text{Wm}^{-2}$  are the norm for the Pacific and TNA, respectively. In effect, there has been a transfer of heat from the equatorial Pacific to the TNA, through the troposphere, during years of extensive warm pool development in the Atlantic.

The main difference between the NCEP and ERA40 reanalysis data for  $Q_{\text{NET}}$  is the smaller area of strong heat loss in the equatorial Pacific, shown in the NCEP reanalysis. The Atlantic shows very similar distributions for both reanalyses. In particular, note that both show a strong heat loss in the Gulf of Mexico and western North Atlantic north of about 20°N, which corresponds well to the contemporaneous (JFMA) negative SST anomalies seen in Fig. 3. The greater Gulf of Mexico cooling is expected during El Niño winters because of the southward-displaced storm track over the southern tier states and Gulf coast region (Compo et al., 2001; Compo and Sardeshmukh, 2004). Notice also that both indicate a strong warming in the high-latitude North Atlantic north of about 40 °N, and that taken together, the North Atlantic anomalies conform to a familiar tripole pattern (Marshall et al., 2001).

Both component flux terms show a contribution to the TNA heating for the WP group of events: about 15–35  $\text{Wm}^{-2}$  from reduced evaporation ( $Q_{\text{LHF}}$ ) and 10–15  $\text{Wm}^{-2}$  from increased insolation ( $Q_{\text{SWR}}$ ). The  $Q_{\text{SWR}}$  contribution has about half the intensity of the  $Q_{\text{LHF}}$  anomaly and covers a more limited area east of Venezuela that overlaps with the southern fringe of the  $Q_{\text{LHF}}$  area. This is consistent with the relative importance of these fluxes as described by Klein et al. (1999) for the Atlantic sector. In comparison with  $Q_{\text{LHF}}$  and  $Q_{\text{SWR}}$ , the amplitudes of longwave and sensible heat flux anomalies are smaller (not shown).

The wp group shows a very different picture for the fluxes (Fig. 4, right side). While a coherent positive spatial pattern of net flux still covers most of the TNA region, the heating is much less intense, the same being true of the component flux anomalies. The anomalies are statistically insignificant for NCEP  $Q_{\text{NET}}$  and only 90% significant for ERA40. For  $Q_{\text{LHF}}$  the significance only reaches 95% over small areas of the TNA. The weakness of TNA anomalies for wp events probably reflects a lack of month-to-month persistence in the atmospheric bridge forcing during the JFMA period.

#### 4.3. Divergent circulation

We now focus on the tropospheric patterns that are likely responsible for the North Atlantic surface flux distributions of Fig. 4. Fig. 5 shows the NCEP distributions of anomalous velocity potential and divergent wind at 200 hPa and the anomalous vertical velocity at 500 hPa, all during the critical forcing period of JFMA. Similar distributions can be seen just before and after JFMA, but less intense (not shown). The ERA40 distributions are very similar to Fig. 5 (not shown).

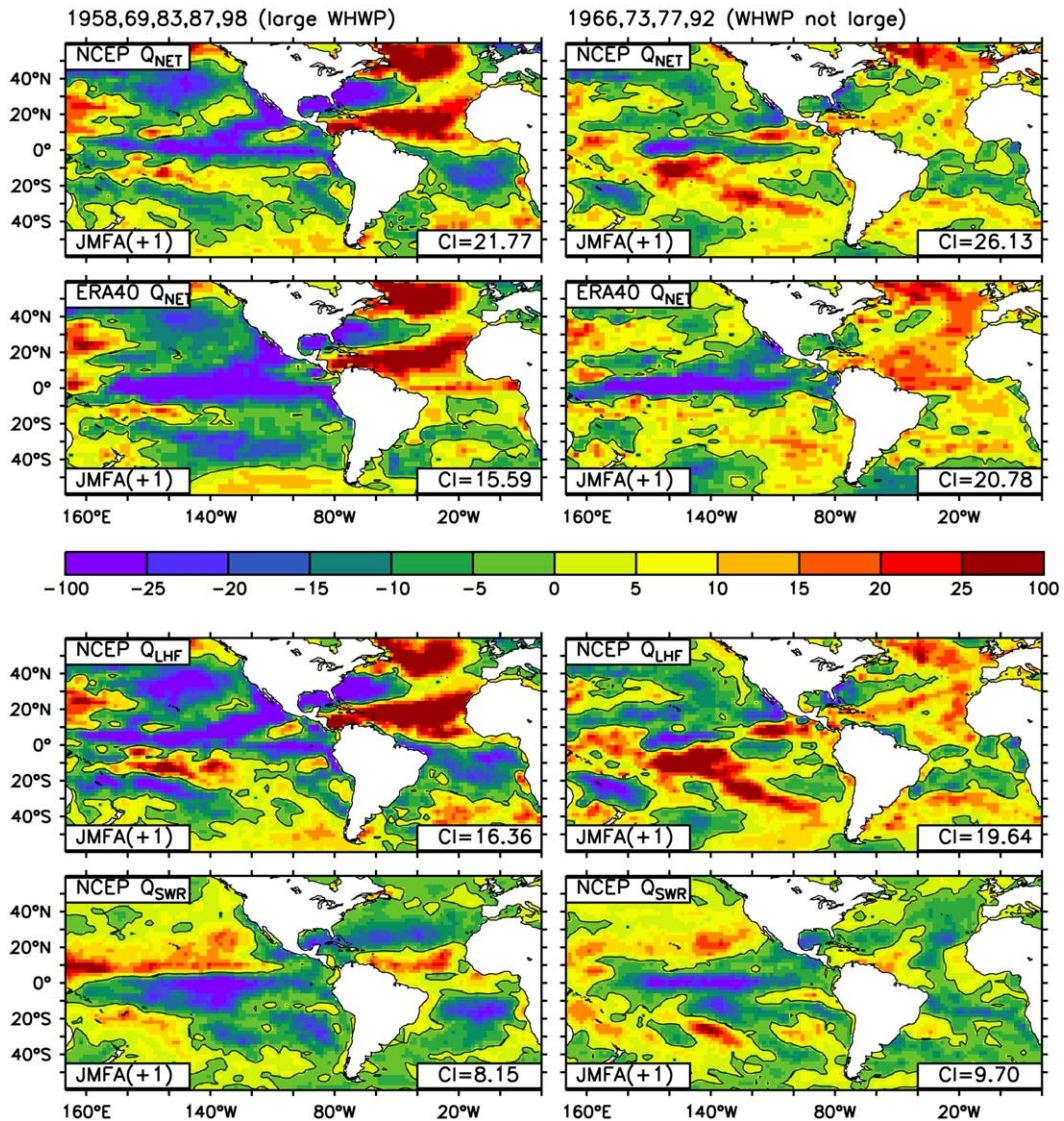


Fig. 4. Left panels: global distribution of late winter to early spring (JFMA) heat flux anomaly (shading) averaged for five Niño +1 years with extraordinarily large warm pools (Fig. 1). Net surface heat flux ( $Q_{NET}$ ) from the NCEP and ERA40 reanalyses is shown above the color bar; latent heat flux ( $Q_{LHF}$ ) and shortwave radiation ( $Q_{SWR}$ ) are shown below. Right panels: as on the left, but for four Niño +1 years in which large Atlantic warm pools did not develop (Fig. 1). Units are  $W/m^2$ . In the lower right corner of each map is the value of the 95% confidence interval for the anomalies averaged over the tropical Atlantic ( $5^{\circ}$ – $25^{\circ}$ N).

We first note that the anomalous patterns are similar for both the WP (left) and the wp (right) groups, but the latter being much weaker. We will later show for individual cases that the weakness of the wp pattern results from three of the four events lacking any bridge signature. Consistent with the surface flux composites, this may indicate a lack of persistence in the wp events because of a Pacific heating anomaly that has decayed earlier in the forcing sequence (Fig. 3). In contrast, the peak period of Pacific SST anomalies at the end of the onset year of WP El Niño episodes (Fig. 3) induces a persistent anomalous tropospheric response during the succeeding winter months, consisting of weakened uplift over the Indonesian sector and weakened subsidence over the eastern Pacific. Also as expected, the anomalies of the associated regional Hadley circulations extend northward into the subtropics of the winter (northern) hemisphere in the western Pacific and western Atlantic.

Insofar as the Atlantic sector development is concerned, there are two features of particular note. First, the anomalous upper tropospheric divergence over the eastern equatorial Pacific extends northeastward into the

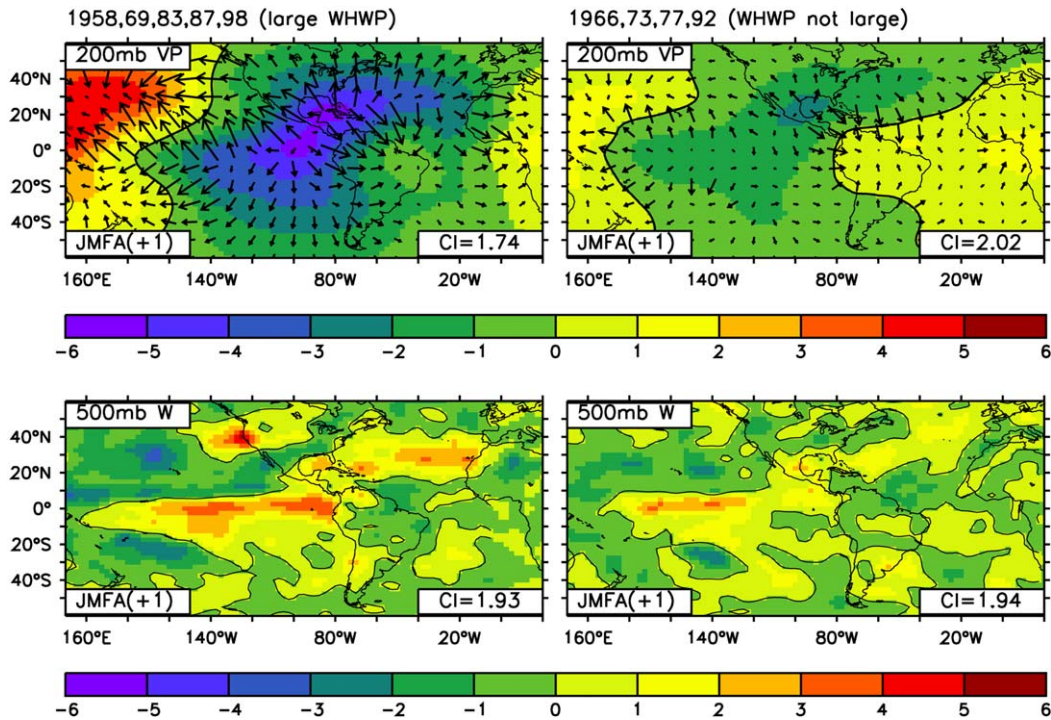


Fig. 5. Left panels: from top to bottom, the January–April (JFMA) composite anomalies of velocity potential (shading) and divergent wind (vectors) at 200 hPa levels of the troposphere, and the vertical velocity (shading) at 500 hPa, averaged for five Niño +1 years with extraordinarily large warm pools (Fig. 1). Right panels: as on the left, but for four Niño +1 years in which large Atlantic warm pools did not develop (Fig. 1). In the lower right corner of each map is the value of the 95% confidence interval for the anomalies averaged over the subtropical to mid-latitude Atlantic (20°–40°N). Velocity potential units are  $10^6 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$  and vertical velocity is in  $-10^{-2} \text{ Pa/s}$  (negative pressure velocity). The largest arrows correspond to a wind anomaly of about 2 m/s.

subtropical North Atlantic; and second, an anomalous convergence forms over northeastern South America, weakening the normal monsoonal convection prevalent there during the boreal winter. Together these two features account for a weakening of the normal winter meridional circulation that emanates from the South American convection (convergent wind vectors) northward into the subtropical North Atlantic (divergence). The weakened 200 hPa convergence over the subtropical North Atlantic near 30°N results in reduced subsidence which is evidenced by the positive mid-tropospheric anomaly of vertical velocity there (500 hPa).

Fig. 1d shows the Atlantic regional Hadley index of Wang (2004) superimposed on the SSTA time series for the TNA region. The Hadley cell index is defined by the 500-mb vertical velocity anomaly difference between the regions of 2.5°–7.5°S, 40°–20°W, and 25°–30°N, 40°–20°W. The Hadley index has a significant correlation of  $-0.38$  with the Pacific NINO-3 SSTA index. The figure shows that the Hadley index for the Atlantic is consistently negative (weak meridional cell) in association with a warm TNA.

The impact of the weakened regional Hadley cell in the Atlantic sector can be seen for the WP composite in Fig. 6. In early winter (DJF) but even more clearly in late winter (JFMA), an anomalous cyclonic surface circulation and low sea level pressure form in the subtropical North Atlantic under the reduced subsidence near 30°N. The associated southwesterly surface wind anomalies along 20°N are fully consistent with the reduced evaporative heat loss there and conform to the previous findings of Enfield and Mayer (1997) and others. By AMJ, when the SST anomalies have become fully established (Fig. 3), the cyclonic pattern has disappeared. Note that in the wp composite the cyclonic anomaly is reduced and restricted to mid- and high latitudes during DJF, and that there is no weakening of the NE trades near 20°N. During the JFMA forcing season there is no cyclonic pattern at all.

To summarize, the WP and wp composite evolutions do indeed support the notion that the nature of the El Niño anomaly in the Pacific is related to the establishment (or not) of an atmospheric bridge from the Pacific to the Atlantic and to a related large warm pool. As we shall see, however, other factors can influence the

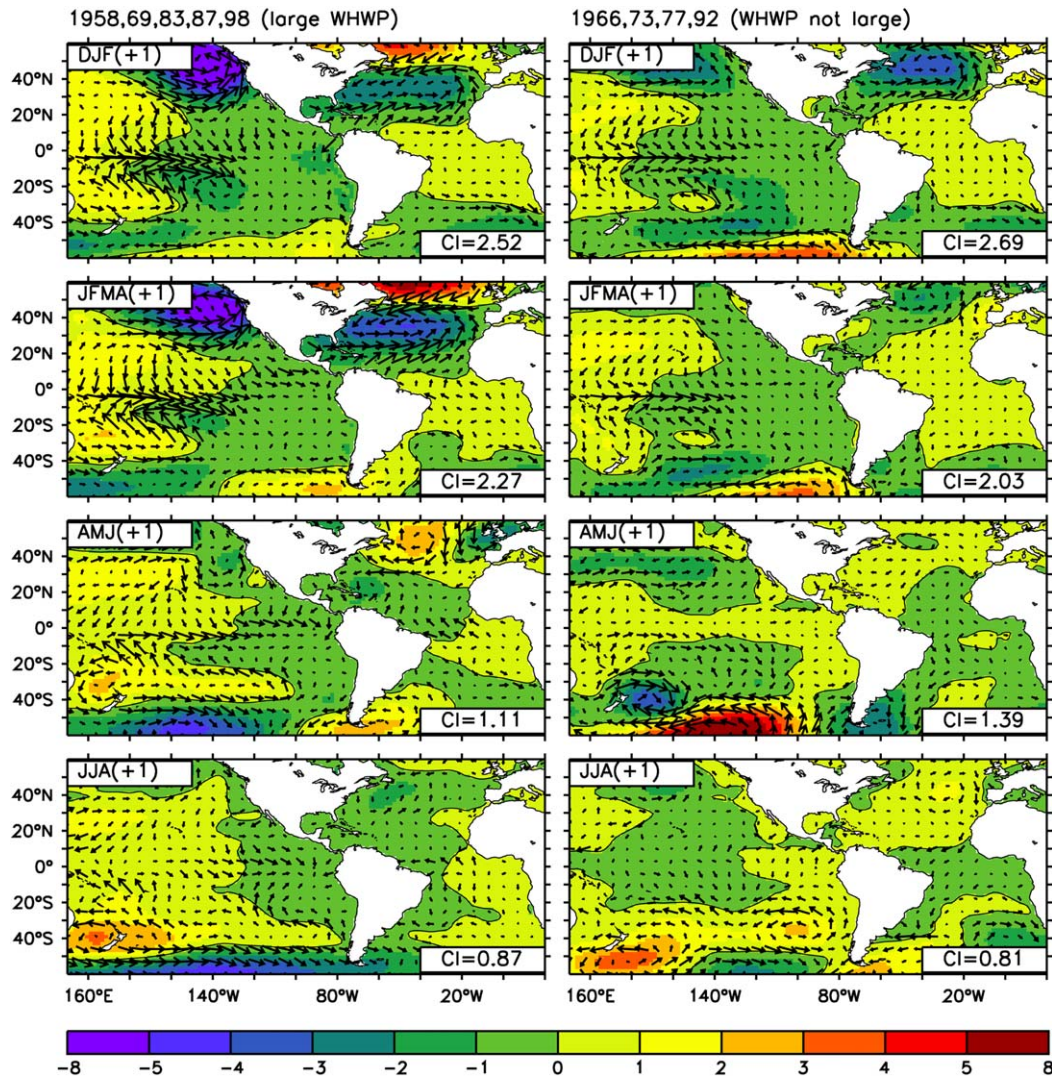


Fig. 6. Left panels: seasonal evolution of the global distribution of anomalous sea level pressure (hPa, shading and contours) and surface wind (m/sec, vectors) averaged for five Niño +1 years with extraordinarily large warm pools (Fig. 1). Right Panels: as on the left, but for four Niño +1 years in which large Atlantic warm pools did not develop (Fig. 1). In the lower right corner of each map is the value of the 95% confidence interval for the anomalies averaged over the subtropical to mid-latitude Atlantic (20°–40°N). The largest arrows correspond to a wind anomaly of about 4 m/s.

bridge and/or its effectiveness and the El Niño events of the last 50 years cannot be cleanly categorized into the binary possibilities of bridge or no-bridge.

**5. Influences other than the atmospheric bridge**

Besides the remote forcing from the Pacific to the Atlantic, several additional factors can potentially influence the development of large warm pools.

*5.1. Eastern north Pacific SST anomalies*

The first and most obvious factor is that if the El Niño in the easternmost, low-latitude Pacific persists into the summer of the second (+1) year, the ENP portion of the warm pool can be larger and thus can result in a

larger than normal WHWP regardless of the existence (or not) of a teleconnection into the Atlantic. We have already cited the large warm pool of 1997 as an example of this. ENP developments do not involve the Atlantic teleconnection process; rather, they depend on how the low-latitude eastern Pacific anomalies evolve during an El Niño event in response to ocean–atmosphere interactions farther west. They are important, however, because they affect the total warm pool size (Fig. 1a) seen by the atmosphere during the tropical rainy season.

In Fig. 7 we show the biennial evolutions of the NINO 1 + 2 index (80–90°W, 0–10°S) for the WP (upper panel) and wp (lower panel) events. In the upper panel we can see that all the WP events have positive eastern Pacific SST anomalies of one degree or more at least until July (+1). Of the wp events, however, only 1992 had significant persistence into the March–May period (+1). This clearly suggests that the warm pool in the Pacific did not have enough persistence through the late winter and early spring of most wp events to energize the atmospheric bridge. However, it also signals that at least part of the warm pool anomaly of WP events can be due to the warmth of the ENP region after May (+1), in addition to or in lieu of an Atlantic anomaly.

From Figs. 3–7 one can hypothesize that the persistence of eastern Pacific El Niño conditions into the boreal late winter and early spring is a necessary condition but not a guarantee for the generation of a large warm pool. We now consider how the Pacific influence may be modified.

### 5.2. North Atlantic Oscillation

The North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) is an ubiquitous and persistent feature of the boreal winter climate variability in the North Atlantic (Barnston and Livezey, 1987) and is mostly independent of ENSO (Poza-Vazquez et al., 2001). The NAO is characterized by sea-level atmospheric pressure (SLP) nodes near southern

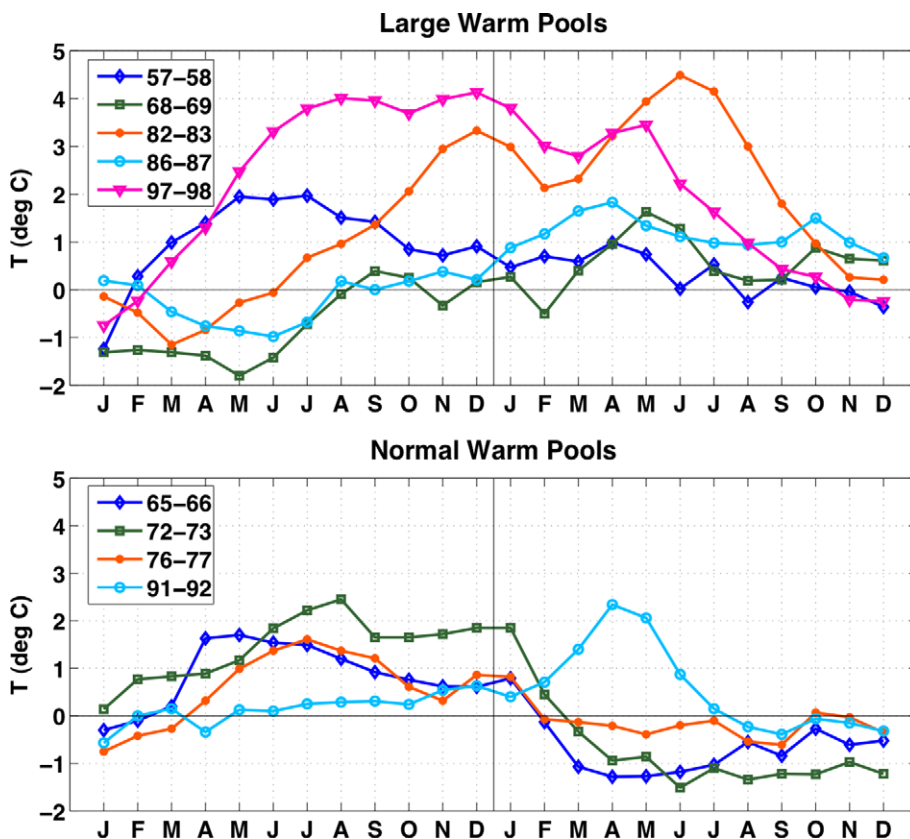


Fig. 7. Upper panel: Two-year evolution of Pacific El Niño events in the eastern equatorial Pacific (NINO 1+2 index) for five El Niños followed by large warm pools. Lower Panel: As above, but for four Niño +1 years in which large Atlantic warm pools did not develop (Fig. 1).

Greenland (mean SLP low) and the eastern subtropical Atlantic (mean SLP high) (Marshall et al., 2001). When the pressure of the former is higher than normal and that of the latter is lower, the NAO is said to be in its negative phase and the westerly winds between the nodes are weaker than normal. The SSTA signature of the NAO is a tripole pattern which for positive NAO is cool in a broad region south of Greenland, cool in the TNA and somewhat warm between those regions, off the east coast of the United States (Marshall et al., 2001). This pattern is induced by stronger westerlies in the mid-to-high latitudes of the North Atlantic and stronger easterlies in the TNA region, both consonant with a stronger subtropical high pressure system. The correlation of winter seasonal anomalies (January–March) of the Lisbon–Reykjavik index of the NAO versus those of the NINO 3.4 index for the equatorial Pacific is maximum at zero lag but insignificant ( $-0.18$ ). Hence, the interannual fluctuations of the NAO can randomly interfere with or act constructively with the atmospheric bridge forcing from the Pacific during the winter months when both patterns are active (Giannini et al., 2001; Mo and Häkkinen, 2001; Czaja et al., 2002). Thus, when the winter NAO is positive it will tend to interfere with the development of the bridge from the Pacific, and vice-versa.

### 5.3. Comparison of individual El Niño episodes

All of the four factors discussed above (bridge, ENP, NAO and WES feedback) can be perceived in one way or another by examining individually the nine El Niño events shown in Fig. 1a, for the AMJ season. In Fig. 8 we show a nine-map plot of the Pacific–Atlantic SSTA distributions with the five WP events (1958, 1969, 1983, 1987, 1998) arranged along the left and the bottom and the four wp events (1966, 1973, 1977, 1992) in the  $2 \times 2$  group in the upper right sector. All five WP events have some enhancement of tropical Atlantic SST, with 1958 and 1969 being the strongest, while all but 1987 have significant persistence of ENP anomalies north of  $5^\circ\text{N}$  in the eastern Pacific. Clearly the Atlantic warming is ubiquitous for the five years with large warm pools, but the persistence of SST anomalies in the ENP region is also a major contributor in most cases. Three of the wp events (1966, 1973 and 1977) had returned to cool conditions in the equatorial Pacific and there is no sign of anomalous warmth in the TNA region, while the ENP is also normal or cool. This is consistent with the lower panel of Fig. 7. 1966 is somewhat equivocal because the eastern TNA is warm

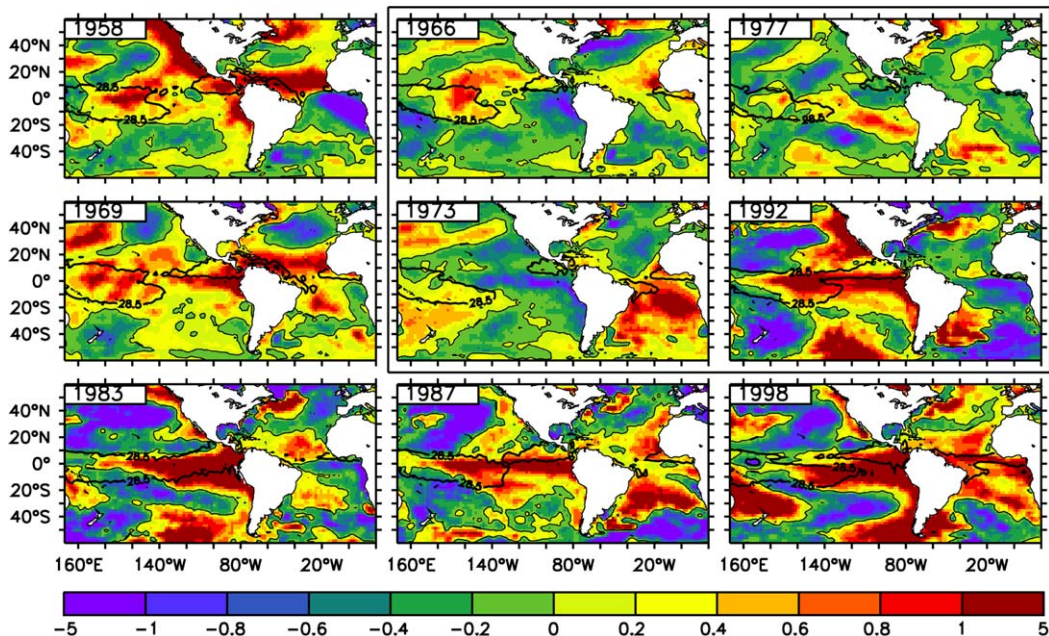


Fig. 8. Left and bottom panels: Sea surface temperature anomaly ( $^\circ\text{C}$ , shading) and climatological warm pool isotherms (contours) for the April–May–June period of (+1) years with large warm pools following El Niño. Upper-right panels circumscribed by rectangle: SST anomaly for four Niño +1 years in which large Atlantic warm pools did not develop (see discussion of Fig. 1).

while the IAS and total warm pool sizes are not large (Fig. 1a and c). Apparently, the eastern TNA warming off West Africa did not extend far enough west to affect the warm pool size. Finally, we again note the outlier case (Fig. 7) in which the equatorial Pacific was still warm in the spring of 1992, yet there was no warming in the Atlantic. This case clearly does not fit the overall behavior seen in Figs. 3–7.

Fig. 9 shows a similar nine-panel plot of the anomalous 200 hPa divergent circulation during the February–March period immediately preceding the SSTA maps of Fig. 8. The maps for the WP years show a generally weakened regional Hadley circulation between northeastern South America (or eastern equatorial Atlantic) and the subtropical North Atlantic although this is not always so clear, especially over northern South America. What is quite clear, however, is a consistent ridge of high (divergent) velocity potential in the North Atlantic subtropics. In the case of the strong El Niños of 1982–83 and 1997–98 the divergence anomalies are especially strong and are part of a drastically altered divergent circulation around the globe. The wp events of 1973 and 1977 clearly lack this feature while 1966 shows a reduced convection (anomalous convergence) over South America but the opposite divergence over Mexico does not extend into the subtropical North Atlantic, presumably required to affect the North Atlantic subtropical high pressure system.

Once again, the outlier year that does not fit the WP/wp dichotomy is 1992. That year is somewhat opposite to 1966 in that the convergence (reduced convection) over South America is weak, but the pattern of divergence extending from the eastern North Pacific into the subtropical North Atlantic is clearly present, similar to 1983 and 1998 but not as intense. Hence, in the upper troposphere the forcing appears to have been favorable for producing a large warm pool. Yet, the TNA region was slightly cool (Fig. 8) and the warm pool was close to normal (Fig. 1a).

The 925 hPa geopotential height and wind anomalies in Fig. 10 illustrate the extent to which the NAO might have played a role in two of the nine events. In AMJ of 1958 and 1969, the SST anomalies and warm pool contours (Fig. 8) show that the western Pacific warm pool was only weakly anomalous compared with the strong El Niños of 1982–83 and 1997–98 when the warm pool extended much farther east. The anomalous divergent circulation, though favorable for the atmospheric bridge, was also much weaker (Fig. 9). Yet, the 925 hPa anomalies were quite strong in the North Atlantic and correspond to a strongly negative NAO

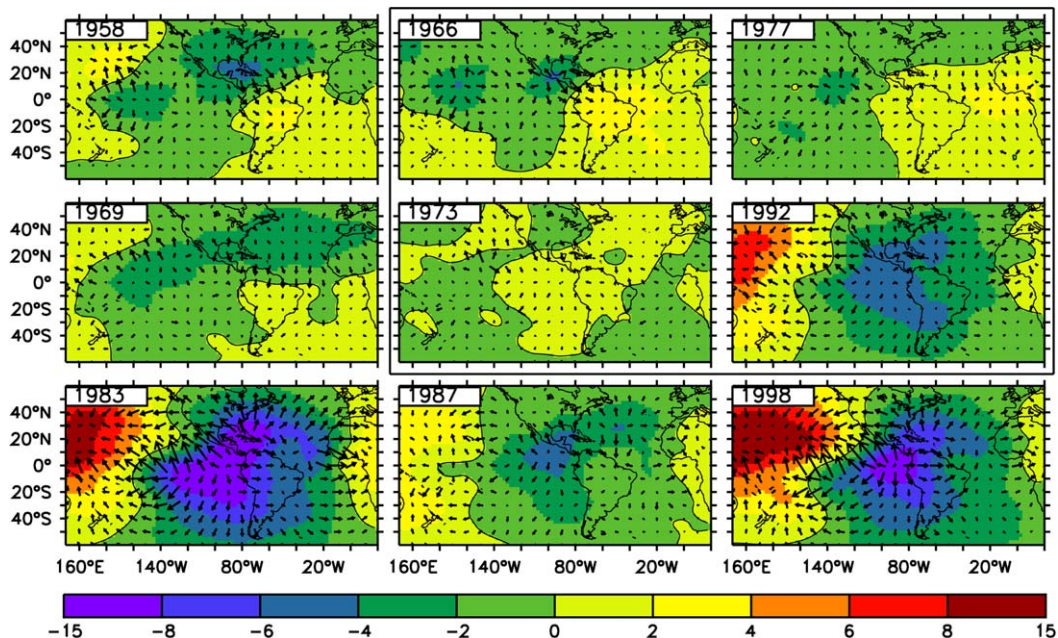


Fig. 9. Left and bottom panels: Anomaly of velocity potential ( $10^6 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ ) and divergent wind on the 200 hPa geopotential surface for the February–March–April period of (+1) years with large warm pools following El Niño. Upper-right panels circumscribed by rectangle: Anomaly of velocity potential and divergent wind for four Niño +1 years in which large Atlantic warm pools did not develop (see discussion of Fig. 1). The largest arrows correspond to a wind anomaly of about 4 m/s.

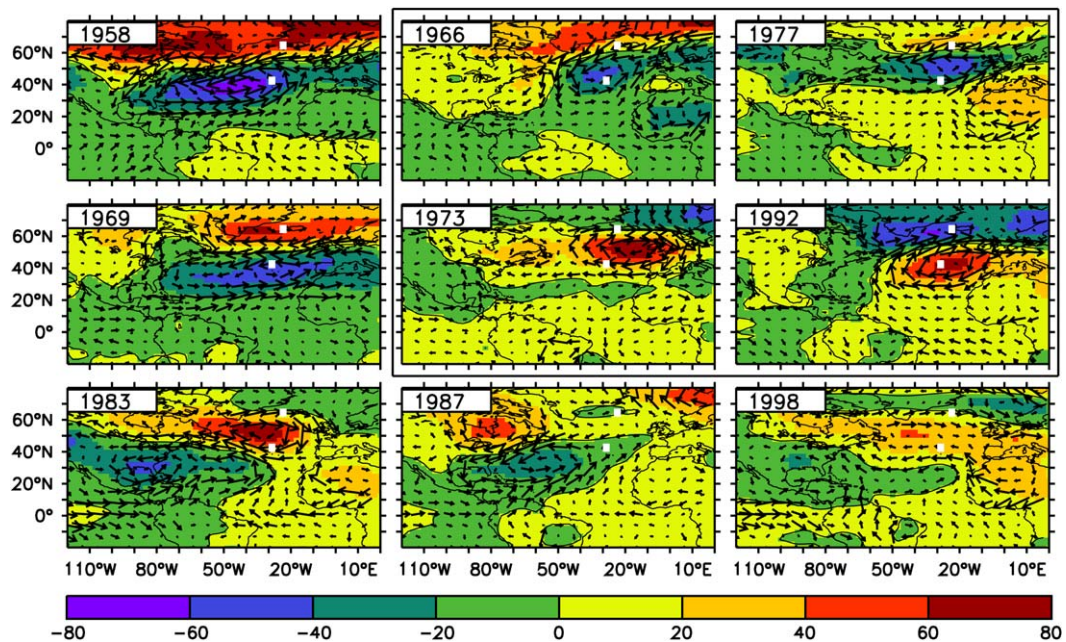


Fig. 10. Left and bottom panels: Anomaly of geopotential height (gpm) and wind at 925 hPa for the February–March–April period of (+1) years with large warm pools following El Niño. Upper-right panels circumscribed by rectangle: Anomaly of geopotential height and wind for four Niño +1 years in which large Atlantic warm pools did not develop (see discussion of Fig. 1). The small white boxes represent the nominal centers of the NAO nodes in the Azores Islands and western Iceland. The largest arrows correspond to a wind anomaly of about 8 m/s.

pattern, while the SST anomalies in the TNA region are stronger and more extensive than in 1983 and 1998, both strong El Niño events. Hence, these two years are a good example of how the NAO pattern can reinforce the atmospheric bridge in the Pacific and produce a remarkable enhancement of the Atlantic warm pool. Six other events – 1966, 1973, 1977, 1983, 1987, 1998 – show no NAO influence of either polarity. The patterns are spatially inconsistent with the canonical pattern of the NAO, as indicated by the small white boxes at the NAO node centers (Azores and Iceland), and the wind anomalies in the TNA region are not consistent with the kind of NAO forcing seen in 1958 and 1969.

The outlier year – 1992 – shows evidence of interference by the NAO. That year is enigmatic, as it runs contrary to the logic of the atmospheric bridge. The large Indo-Pacific warm pool persists into the spring of 1992 with strong SST anomalies in the eastern equatorial Pacific (Fig. 7), and there is evidence of atmospheric bridge development in the Atlantic sector (Fig. 9). Yet the TNA had weak-to-moderate negative SST anomalies during AMJ. Fig. 10 shows a positive NAO pattern with stronger than normal low-level easterly flow over the TNA region, suggesting that the surface high pressure system was not weakened by the reduced upper tropospheric subsidence over the subtropical North Atlantic.

Finally, we note that only one year – 1958 – had a strong positive dipole distribution of SSTA straddling the ITCZ in the tropical Atlantic, suggestive of a wind–evaporation–SST feedback between the tropical North Atlantic (TNA) and South Atlantic (TSA). For that period we also see the characteristic pattern of southerly winds across the Atlantic ITCZ, veering to the northeast as the air flow moves into the southern TNA (Fig. 10). However, considering the strong combination of atmospheric bridge plus the negative NAO of that winter, both favorable for TNA warming, it seems more likely that the TNA anomaly forced the TSA region, rather than vice-versa. This is also consistent with the analysis of (Enfield et al., 1999) who show statistically that TNA forcing of TSA is more probable than the reverse. A negative SSTA dipole appears in 1973 (Fig. 8), which could have played a role in the small IAS warm pool seen that year (Fig. 1c). However, the expected wind signature – opposite of that in 1958 – does not materialize (Fig. 10), so the likelihood that a WES feedback occurred in 1973 is questionable. Hence, the observational evidence for a WES feedback role is equivocal at best.



## 6. Discussion and conclusions

Our analysis has verified that the nature of the Pacific El Niño can affect the development (or not) of a teleconnection to the tropical North Atlantic SST. The primary factor, however, appears to be the persistence of eastern Pacific anomalies rather than the overall intensity of El Niño. The suggestion from the composite analysis (Section 4) that the intensity of the Pacific El Niño plays a role in energizing the atmospheric bridge is borne out neither by Fig. 7 nor by the examination of individual events (Section 5d). El Niño events of all intensities can result in Atlantic teleconnections, provided the Pacific SST anomalies persist into the boreal late winter and early spring. Three of the events that produced large warm pools (1957–58, 1968–69, 1986–87) had eastern Pacific anomalies of less than 1.5 °C at the end of the onset year when the atmospheric bridge typically begins to be forced, whilst one strong event with SSTA over 2 °C (1972–73) did not produce a large warm pool. Except for the enigmatic case of 1992, which was apparently interfered with by the NAO, the critical factor seems to be whether or not significant SST anomalies in the Pacific persist into the boreal spring months of the following year (Fig. 7).

Our search for Atlantic sector phenomena that may independently influence atmospheric bridge development reveals that in two of the nine events (1958 and 1969) a strong boreal winter, negative NAO pattern reinforced the signal from the Pacific to produce extraordinarily strong warmings of the TNA. One clear instance of interference by a positive NAO pattern was found for 1992, which otherwise would probably have had a large warm pool that summer. Finally, no clear evidence could be found that internal tropical Atlantic variability (WES feedback) modifies the teleconnection from the Pacific, but we cannot categorically discard the possibility that the 1958 warm pool was partly enhanced by a favorable WES feedback. We can speculate that the possible role of the WES feedback, when it occurs, is to enhance the persistence of the TNA anomaly.

We have shown that extraordinarily large Western Hemisphere warm pools occur following El Niño events in the Pacific, but that this only happens about half of the time, not consistently enough to make the fact of an El Niño the basis for anticipating a large warm pool. However, the knowledge gained here can be used to form a strategy for predicting large warm pools 1–2 seasons in advance of the summer following El Niño events. Two factors must be monitored during the winter through early spring: the persistence of the SST anomalies in the eastern Pacific and the presence of a significant positive or negative NAO pattern in the North Atlantic. If the Indo-Pacific warm pool remains anomalous into the early months of the year and eastern Pacific SST anomalies persist well past February, the ENP portion of the warm pool will be large and the atmospheric bridge to the Atlantic will likely be active, both favoring a large WHWP if no mitigating NAO pattern exists. If a negative NAO pattern develops, typically between December and March, it is highly likely that a strong warm pool will develop as in 1958 and 1969, even if the Pacific El Niño event is not strong. If a positive NAO pattern develops, this will likely mitigate against having a large Atlantic warm pool, as occurred in 1992.

The ability of present coupled models of the Pacific Ocean and global atmosphere to help in the prediction of large warm pools is limited. As shown by Landsea and Knaff (2000), the skill of these models in predicting either the intensity or the timing of onset and decay of El Niño events is quite poor. However, it is possible that some of the models may have enough skill at short lead times that they may be used to predict SSTA persistence in the Pacific during the critical March–May (MAM) (+1) period if they are initialized at the end of the onset year. Huang et al. (2002) have achieved some success at predicting the ENSO teleconnection to the Atlantic with a coupled model, for example. On the other hand, we know of no coupled models that can simultaneously predict the evolution of the teleconnection to the Atlantic as well as the future state of the NAO. However, some success has been obtained by forcing AGCMs with specified SST (Chang et al., 2003), which might aid in the Atlantic forecast if the Pacific SST anomaly is known to be persisting. Hence, for the foreseeable future the best hope for warm pool prediction is to monitor Pacific SSTA and the NAO in the Atlantic during the boreal winter of the mature phase of El Niño, using the global observation system.

In reference to Fig. 1 we showed that, unlike the year following El Niño, the El Niño onset years show no clear tendency toward having large Atlantic warm pools. A fair question is, if El Niño-induced warm pool anomalies are not favored during the onset year, why is a developing El Niño in the Pacific associated with fewer hurricanes in the Atlantic (Gray, 1984; Landsea, 2000)? The answer, we feel, is that the Atlantic Ocean is not involved in mediating the teleconnection to Atlantic hurricanes during the onset year (Tang and Neelin, 2004). As the Indo-Pacific warm pool anomaly grows into the summer of the onset year, the tropical

atmosphere quickly induces upper-level zonal wind anomalies in the Atlantic sector, most likely as a thermal wind response to atmospheric Kelvin wave propagation of tropospheric temperature anomalies (Tang and Neelin, 2004). This increases the upper-tropospheric wind shear in the Atlantic, which in turn discourages hurricane development. In fact, other meteorological anomalies also occur in the western hemisphere during the June–October period of the onset year for similar reasons (Ropelewski and Halpert, 1987). However, even if the Atlantic surface winds were also affected, modification of the ocean surface heat budget in the Atlantic requires a 1–2 season delay, by which time the Atlantic warm pool season has ended.

An analysis of small warm pools and cool TNA is beyond the scope of this paper. However, consideration of the nonlinearities in the teleconnections due to ENSO has shown that the impact of a cold Pacific in producing a cool TNA is even stronger than the El Niño association analyzed here (Hoerling et al., 1997; Hoerling et al., 2001; Larkin and Harrison, 2002). Moreover, while Pozo-Vazquez et al. (2001) find no clear association between El Niño events and NAO-like pressure patterns in the North Atlantic, they do see a significant occurrence of positive NAO-like patterns in conjunction with ENSO cold events. This reinforces the notion that the association between ENSO cold events and small Western Hemisphere warm pools could be strong and merits further investigation.

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