

Quasi-Biweekly Extensions of the Monsoon Winds and the Philippines

Diurnal Cycle

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ABSTRACT

8 The impact of quasi-biweekly variability in the monsoon southwesterly winds on the precipitation
9 diurnal cycle in the Philippines is examined using CMORPH precipitation, ERA5 reanalysis, and
10 outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) fields. Both a case study during the 2018 Propagation of
11 Intraseasonal Tropical Oscillations (PISTON) field campaign and a 23-year composite analysis are
12 used to understand the effect of the QBWO on the diurnal cycle. QBWO events in the west Pacific,
13 identified with an extended EOF index, bring increases in moisture, cloudiness, and westerly
14 winds to the Philippines. Such events are associated with significant variability in daily mean
15 precipitation and the diurnal cycle. It is shown that the modulation of the diurnal cycle by the
16 QBWO is remarkably similar to that by the boreal summer intraseasonal oscillation (BSISO). The
17 diurnal cycle reaches a maximum amplitude on the western side of the Philippines on days with
18 average to above average moisture, sufficient insolation, and weakly offshore prevailing wind. This
19 occurs during the transition period from suppressed to active large-scale convection for both the
20 QBWO and BSISO. Westerly monsoon surges associated with QBWO variability generally exhibit
21 active precipitation over the South China Sea (SCS), but a depressed diurnal cycle. These results
22 highlight that modes of large-scale convective variability in the tropics can have a similar impact
23 on the diurnal cycle if they influence the local scale environmental background state similarly.

24 **1. Introduction**

25 The Philippines and its surrounding waters are prone to numerous types of atmospheric phe-
26 nomena that make it highly vulnerable to climate risks (Yusef and Francisco 2009). During boreal
27 summer (June-September, JJAS), the islands generally experience the southwest monsoon, which
28 brings much of the region's annual precipitation (Moron et al. 2009; Matsumoto et al. 2020).
29 While the agricultural sector relies on monsoon moisture, it can also bring devastating flooding
30 (Cruz et al. 2013). The southwest monsoon is not always consistent throughout the season, rather,
31 it is subject to numerous active and break cycles (Annamalai and Slingo 2001; Olaguera et al.
32 2020). These alternating periods of relatively enhanced activity and quiescence are modulated by
33 several other modes of variability in the tropics, including the Madden-Julian Oscillation (MJO;
34 or its boreal summer counterpart, the boreal summer intraseasonal oscillation (BSISO); Madden
35 and Julian 1971; Krishnamurti et al. 1985; Lau and Chan 1986; Lawrence and Webster 2002), the
36 quasi-biweekly oscillation (QBWO; Krishnamurti and Bhalme 1976; Krishnamurti and Ardanuy
37 1980; Chen and Chen 1995), equatorial waves (Ferrett et al. 2019), and tropical cyclones (Cayanan
38 et al. 2011; Bagtasa 2019).

39 On a much shorter time scale than the aforementioned modes of precipitation variability is the
40 diurnal cycle, which is of critical importance to the distribution of rainfall in the region (Bergemann
41 et al. 2015; Zhu et al. 2017). The Maritime Continent (MC) region is home to complex topography,
42 very warm sea surface temperatures (SSTs), and abundant heavy rainfall, all of which make for
43 a complex diurnal cycle on each island (Ramage 1968). Islands generally observe an afternoon
44 to evening peak in precipitation rates, instigated by land-sea breezes and mountain-valley breezes
45 caused by differential heating between the land and surrounding waters (Houze et al. 1981; Qian
46 2008). Convection can become organized over large islands and then propagate offshore overnight

47 (Sakurai et al. 2005; Ichikawa and Yasunari 2006), assisted by convectively-generated gravity waves
48 destabilizing the offshore environment (Mapes et al. 2003; Mori et al. 2004; Love et al. 2011; Hassim
49 et al. 2016), and downslope mountain breezes, land breezes, and cold pools propagating storms
50 offshore (Ohsawa et al. 2001; Ichikawa and Yasunari 2008; Wu et al. 2009; Fujita et al. 2011).

51 One of the most widely studied controls on the MC diurnal cycle is the MJO. Many studies
52 have used various datasets to identify a preference for strong diurnal cycles to occur during the
53 suppressed phase of the MJO (Sui and Lau 1992; Rauniyar and Walsh 2011; Oh et al. 2012).
54 Others have more precisely illustrated a preference for the strongest diurnal cycles and offshore
55 propagation in particular to occur in the transition from suppressed to active phase (Peatman et al.
56 2014; Natoli and Maloney 2019). In particular, recent field data from Sumatra has indicated a
57 strong, propagating diurnal cycle as the MJO convective envelope approaches that then ceases once
58 the westerly wind burst arrives (Wu et al. 2017, 2018).

59 While the BSISO has received less attention than its wintertime counterpart, evidence suggests
60 that the above pattern of an enhanced diurnal cycle in the large-scale suppressed state or transition
61 from suppressed to active states also holds true over the Asian summer monsoon region. Over the
62 Philippines, the diurnal cycle appears to reach a maximum during the BSISO suppressed state (Ho
63 et al. 2008; Park et al. 2011; Xu and Rutledge 2018; Xu et al. 2021), although the typical afternoon
64 maximum is still present in the active state (Chudler et al. 2020). Recently, Natoli and Maloney
65 (2019) examined the impact of the BSISO on the Philippine diurnal cycle in detail, and noted a
66 maximum in the diurnal amplitude over land and coastal waters of the South China Sea (SCS)
67 during the transition from suppressed to active BSISO state when the mid-tropospheric moisture
68 begins to increase, but prior to the arrival of strong westerly monsoon winds.

69 A consensus on the mechanisms involved in this interaction remains out of reach. Some studies
70 such as Peatman et al. (2014) have suggested that frictional moisture convergence associated with

71 the Kelvin wave to the east of MJO convection (Gill 1980) contributes to the early increase in the
72 diurnal cycle, although this mechanism is not relevant in off-equatorial regions. Lu et al. (2019)
73 more recently indicated that moisture convergence is indeed an important factor to the diurnal
74 cycle development, but it is the diurnal scale wind (i.e. land-sea breeze) converging the MJO scale
75 moisture that is most important, consistent with Natoli and Maloney (2019).

76 The relationship between the diurnal cycle and other modes of tropical variability has also
77 been recently getting more attention. Notably, Sakaeda et al. (2020) took a thorough look at the
78 impact of various equatorial wave modes on the MC diurnal cycle during boreal winter, noting
79 important differences in behavior between various wave modes and individual islands. They also
80 distinguished diurnal cycle behavior within an individual island related to the position relative to
81 the wind (leeward vs. windward), and aspect of topography. Specifically, the diurnal cycle was
82 found to be enhanced on the leeward side of MC islands for the MJO and $n=1$ equatorial Rossby
83 (R_1) waves, consistent with Virts et al. (2013) and Qian (2020). Leeward enhancement of the
84 diurnal cycle has also been identified in the Philippines (Natoli and Maloney 2019; Riley Dellaripa
85 et al. 2020).

86 As the BSISO (or MJO) can be manifest as active and break periods in the southwesterly monsoon
87 over the SCS (Chen and Chen 1995; Bagtasa 2020), other modes of variability that similarly
88 modulate the monsoonal flow over the Philippines may also impact the diurnal cycle. Differences in
89 how another mode impacts the monsoon background may be insightful in ascertaining the primary
90 controls on the diurnal cycle itself. Variance in boreal summer outgoing longwave radiation (OLR)
91 shows the global maximum of the quasi-biweekly (10-20 day) time scale occurring in the South
92 China and Philippine Seas (Qian et al. 2019). The importance of this mode in determining monsoon
93 activity has been a subject of research for decades, first identified in the Indian monsoon region
94 (Krishnamurti and Bhalme 1976; Krishnamurti and Ardanuy 1980; Chen and Chen 1993), before

95 being later explored in the west Pacific and east Asian monsoon regions (Chen and Chen 1995;
96 Chen et al. 2000).

97 This mode has often been described as the quasi-biweekly oscillation (QBWO), consisting of
98 a northwestward propagating region of anomalous moisture, convection, westerly winds, and
99 cyclonic vorticity (Kikuchi and Wang 2009; Tao et al. 2009; Li et al. 2020). Disturbances tend to
100 emerge in the equatorial western Pacific and propagate through the Philippine Sea, South China
101 Sea, and into Asia, frequently impacting the Philippines (Chen and Sui 2010; Yan et al. 2019).
102 Many of these studies refer to the QBWO in a statistical rather than physical sense, but there is
103 evidence that multiple phenomena can contribute to quasi-biweekly variability, and thus project
104 onto various QBWO indices. The westward propagating mode ubiquitous in the west Pacific is
105 often traced to a moist, R1 wave (Matsuno 1966) that is modified by the monsoon background
106 state (Chatterjee and Goswami 2004). In addition to its modulation of the monsoon onset and
107 persistence (Qian et al. 2019), the QBWO has noteworthy impacts on tropical cyclones (Zhou et al.
108 2018; Han et al. 2020), extreme rainfall (Liu et al. 2014), and heatwaves in China (Chen et al.
109 2016; Gao et al. 2018).

110 Research on the relationship between the QBWO and the diurnal cycle remains sparse. The
111 present study aims to explore this relationship in detail, and determine how well the ideas presented
112 for the MJO/BSISO-diurnal cycle interaction apply to a different mode of tropical convective
113 variability that has received less attention. Specifically, if another large-scale feature impacts
114 the environmental background conditions (e.g. lower tropospheric wind and mid-tropospheric
115 moisture) in a similar way to the BSISO, will the diurnal cycle respond similarly? The first
116 goal is to describe west Pacific variability on the 10-20 day timescale and its importance to the
117 Philippine archipelago. This includes examination of prominent variability on this timescale that
118 occurred during a recent major field program (Sobel et al. 2021). Second, an index for the QBWO

will be described that can be used to composite precipitation and other variables. Third, we aim to establish the impact of the quasi-biweekly mode on the diurnal cycle of the Philippines and its offshore propagation. The final goal is to compare and contrast the QBWO-diurnal cycle relationship with the MJO-diurnal cycle relationship over the Philippines to help reveal important controls on diurnal convection and the mechanisms involved.

The next section will describe the data and methods used, followed by a description of the QBWO index used in this study. In Section 3, results will be discussed, starting with a case study during the 2018 PISTON field campaign, then leading into a composite analysis for the period 1998-2020 from the large scale to the island scale. Section 4 includes a discussion of the mechanisms and a comparison with the BSISO, with a summary and major conclusions outlined in section 5.

2. Data and Methods

a. Data Description

This study employs several datasets to analyze quasi-biweekly variability in the monsoon and the diurnal cycle of precipitation. First, precipitation data comes from version one of the Climate Prediction Center (CPC) Morphing Technique (CMORPH; Joyce et al. 2004; Xie et al. 2017). The data is available as 30-minute total precipitation accumulation estimates at 8-km spatial resolution, covering 60°S-60°N. The CMORPH method takes precipitation rate estimates from passive microwave satellite retrievals and then uses cloud-motion vectors derived from infrared satellites to morph and interpolate through space and time to other passive microwave estimates. Thus, infrared information is only used to predict storm motion, and is not directly used to estimate precipitation rates. These initial estimates are bias-corrected against gauge data and the Global Precipitation Climatology Project (Adler et al. 2003) to yield the final product. Other studies have

141 shown that this bias-corrected CMORPH technique removes most of the bias over land in warm
142 climates (as in this study), and performs favorably when compared with the commonly used TRMM
143 3B42 precipitation dataset (Xie et al. 2017). CMORPH also demonstrates similar skill compared
144 against the IMERG product (Huffman et al. 2015; Sahlu et al. 2016). The same analysis described
145 below was performed for IMERG during the available period of 2000-2020 and the results remain
146 robust.

147 Complementing the precipitation data, the 5th Generation Reanalysis from the European Centre
148 for Medium-Range Weather Forecasting (ERA5; Hersbach et al. 2020; Copernicus Climate Change
149 Service (C3S) 2017) is used for JJAS, 1998-2020. Variables analyzed here include total column
150 water vapor, surface downwelling shortwave radiation, and 850-hPa wind. Each of these fields are
151 considered at 1-hour temporal resolution and 0.25° spatial resolution. In this study, the purpose
152 of the ERA5 data is to contextualize the precipitation results and elucidate potential mechanisms.
153 Additional variables were examined on numerous pressure levels through the troposphere, but
154 these did not add further insight and are not included in this discussion.

155 In addition, interpolated outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) data from the Advanced Very High
156 Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR) is analyzed at daily temporal and 2.5° spatial resolution for JJAS,
157 1979-2020 (Liebmann and Smith 1996). OLR is used to calculate the QBWO index used in this
158 study, as well as track large-scale convection associated with it. Zonal wind data from balloon
159 soundings in the 2018 PISTON field campaign are also used at 3-hourly resolution from the R/V
160 Thomas G. Thompson and 12-hourly resolution from Yap Island (Sobel et al. 2021). Processing
161 and quality control for sounding data follows Ciesielski et al. (2014). These locations relative to
162 the Philippines are shown in Figure 1. Lastly, topographic data from the National Oceanic and
163 Atmospheric Administration's (NOAA) ETOPO2 dataset are incorporated to provide geographic
164 context for the results (National Geophysical Data Center 2006). The BSISO index used in this

165 study for comparison to the QBWO results is that by Lee et al. (2013), which we used in Natoli and
166 Maloney (2019). The QBWO index used will be described below.

167 *b. Methods*

168 The compositing method in this study follows that of Natoli and Maloney (2019), in which a
169 single composite diurnal cycle is created for CMORPH precipitation for all days in JJAS in the
170 analysis period, defined here as the boreal summer composite diurnal cycle. In addition, separate
171 composite diurnal cycles are created by averaging measurements from only days in that period
172 in which an index of intraseasonal variability (e.g. QBWO or BSISO) was considered active and
173 in a certain phase (one of eight). An anomaly in this study refers to the difference between the
174 composite of interest and the JJAS mean. Statistical significance of the precipitation results also
175 follows Natoli and Maloney (2019) using a bootstrapping method, where the composite diurnal
176 cycle in an ISO phase was compared against 1000 composite diurnal cycles taken from random
177 days in the study period, with a Poisson distribution used to account for the fact that ISO active
178 days tend to come in non-independent groups of several days. More details can be found in Natoli
179 and Maloney (2019).

180 This study also calculates power spectra for a few different time series. This is done by calculating
181 the spectrum for each season individually (e.g. JJAS 1998, 1999, etc.) after applying a Hanning
182 window to reduce the Gibbs phenomenon. Then, spectra are averaged from all years to increase
183 degrees of freedom, only considering the relevant season (boreal summer). The theoretical red
184 noise spectra follow equation 5 of Gilman et al. (1963), which provides an estimate for how a power
185 spectrum of a pure red noise process with the same autocorrelation as the time series of interest
186 would appear. An F-test is employed to determine if the calculated power spectrum is significantly
187 different from its corresponding theoretical red noise spectrum. OLR data is also bandpass filtered

to 10-20 days in this study to prepare the data for calculation of the QBWO index, and highlight variability on relevant timescales for analysis of the 2018 PISTON period. This is done by applying a Lanczos filter with 93 weights to detrended OLR data at each grid point (Duchon 1979).

c. QBWO Index

An index was created to track the QBWO in the west Pacific and facilitate analysis of its relationship to the Philippine diurnal cycle. Many prior studies have created indices for this features, but a consensus has yet to emerge on the best method (Kikuchi and Wang 2009; Han et al. 2020; Yan et al. 2019; Qian et al. 2019). The timescale studied for the QBWO also differs in the literature, but most include the 10-20 day period, with some extending to 25 or 30 days on the low frequency end, and others extending to 5 or 7 days on the high frequency end. Here, we attempt to exclude both timescales more characteristic of synoptic scale variability (5-10 days), as well as the longer time scales approaching the BSISO mode (20-30 days), and select a band of 10-20 days upon which to base our index. This timescale was found to display consistent westward propagating activity in the region of interest that also resembles the QBWO behavior documented in previous studies (Chatterjee and Goswami 2004; Chen and Sui 2010; Li et al. 2020). Additionally, the 10-20 day band well-captures the spectral peak in lower tropospheric wind variability near the Philippines.

Figure 2a shows the power spectrum calculated from 850-mb ERA5 zonal wind averaged over northern Luzon (box L in Fig. 1) during JJAS 1998-2020. A statistically significant spectral peak is identified around 10-15 days. This peak is robust across averaging domains that vary in both size and shape surrounding the Philippine archipelago. Thus, the 10-20 day band encompasses the spectral peak in the region of interest, produces the structure outlined in previous studies, and excludes other time scales that may muddy results (Chen and Sui 2010; Yan et al. 2019). Fig. 2b

211 shows the same for Mindanao over box M, indicating a weaker but noticeable peak in the 10-15
212 day band that does not reach statistical significance.

213 The architecture of our index is most similar to that of Qian et al. (2019), only differing in
214 temporal and spatial domain, and filtering time scale that improve variance explained by the index.
215 EEOFs are calculated from the 10-20 day OLR anomalies inside the domain of 0-35N, and 115-
216 165W for JJAS 1979-2020, with information included at lags 0, 2, and 4 days prior. The spatial
217 patterns associated with the two leading modes of variability in 10-20 day OLR are shown in Fig.
218 3, which explain 16.67% and 16.31% of the variance respectively. They are well separated from
219 the other EOFs (not shown) and represent a propagating wave-like signal based on a lag correlation
220 analysis of their unfiltered principal components (described below in more detail) that maximizes
221 at 3-4 days. The coherence squared between the two PCs averaged inside the 10-20 day band is
222 0.81. The patterns are presented in Figure 3 such that time progresses going downward, and the
223 pattern at lag 4 of EEOF 2 is roughly equivalent to the lag 0 pattern of EEOF 1. Thus, the time
224 progression continues through EEOF 1 first, and then through the lags of EEOF 2. The spatial
225 patterns shown here were not highly sensitive to choice of domain, filtering timescale (as long as
226 10-20 day band was included), lag timescale, and months analyzed. Other periods in addition to
227 JJAS were considered, but precipitation patterns over the northern Philippines appear somewhat
228 distinct in May or October (not shown), which motivated the choice for the shorter season.

229 To calculate the principal component (PC) time series, the *unfiltered* OLR anomalies (with the
230 seasonal cycle removed) are projected back onto the EEOF patterns in Fig. 3. Since unfiltered OLR
231 anomalies make up the PCs, it must be assured that they still capture the 10-20 day timescale well,
232 as we do allow for other time scales to project on the index. Spectra for both PC1 and PC2 (Fig.
233 3d, h) show strong, statistically significant peaks in spectral power on 10-20 day timescales. While
234 there is some bleeding to both higher and lower frequencies, no distinct peak can be seen elsewhere

235 in the spectrum, which provides confidence that this index is picking up westward propagating
236 signals that oscillate on roughly 10-20 day time scales.

237 The use of an EEOF index also allows for more direct comparison to MJO or BSISO studies
238 that employ the commonly-used RMM index for the MJO (Wheeler and Hendon 2004), or the Lee
239 et al. (2013) index for the BSISO. We can split the phase space into 8 phases according to the sign
240 and magnitude of the corresponding PC time series for each day. Since the choices of the sign of
241 each PC and which PC to make the x-axis or y-axis in the phase space are arbitrary, we defined
242 them in this study such that the “active” phases for the Philippines most closely correspond to the
243 “active” phases of the Lee et al. (2013) index for the BSISO. In other words, phases 2-4 generally
244 correspond to suppressed convection and low-level easterly winds over Luzon for both indices,
245 while phases 6-8 generally indicate enhanced convection and strong westerlies. This allows for the
246 direct comparison of the precipitation behavior and background conditions over the Philippines
247 later in this manuscript.

248 It is important to verify that our QBWO index is reasonably independent from the Lee et al.
249 (2013) BSISO index before composites for each are directly compared in the subsequent sections.
250 Fig. 4 shows the number of days in a certain Lee et al. (2013) BSISO phase classified by each
251 QBWO phase. The vast majority (between 71 and 80%) of active QBWO days have an inactive
252 BSISO, and there is no preference for a day to be classified as the same numbered phase in each
253 index. This percentage is consistent with BSISO activity across the entire study period, as the index
254 is inactive about 75% of the JJAS days between 1998 and 2020. Anti-correlation between QBWO
255 and BSISO activity has also been found on interannual timescales (Yang et al. 2008). The third
256 and fourth multivariate EOF identified by Lee et al. (2013), which are by definition independent
257 from the first two EOFs which make up the BSISO index, have been shown to capture some QBWO

258 variability (Qian et al. 2019). Thus, the QBWO index appears to be randomly selecting from
259 BSISO activity, and we can assume that they are independent.

260 **3. Results**

261 *a. 2018 PISTON Case Study*

262 The operational period of the 2018 PISTON field campaign (14 August - 14 October 2018)
263 is used as a case study to assess this index and 10-20 day variability for a specific time period,
264 before leading into a more general composite analysis in the next subsection. This time period was
265 selected because prominent 10-20 day variability was apparent in raw data during a major field
266 campaign (Sobel et al. 2021). One of the original goals of the 2018-19 PISTON project was to
267 sample lower frequency intraseasonal oscillations, like the BSISO. However, the 2018 leg of the
268 experiment witnessed minimal BSISO activity during the two month long cruise, only sampling a
269 suppressed phase of an MJO-like disturbance in early October. While exploration of the tropical
270 QBWO was not an original goal, the noteworthy variability observed on this timescale described
271 below presents an opportunity to learn more about this feature (Sobel et al. 2021).

272 Figure 5 shows a time-height diagram of zonal wind observations from radiosondes released
273 during PISTON. The top panel shows 12-hourly soundings released from the Yap island, while the
274 bottom shows the 3-hourly soundings released aboard the R/V Thomas G. Thompson, with white
275 space when the ship was in port or in transit (see Fig. 1 for locations). Both locations in the west
276 Pacific observed significant variability in zonal wind on 10-20 day timescales. Roughly every two
277 or three weeks, the region experienced surges of fairly strong westerly winds in the low levels,
278 extending through much of the troposphere and lasting about 7-10 days. Westerly winds tapped
279 into deep monsoonal flow bringing increased moisture and increased mesoscale convective system

activity (Chudler and Rutledge 2021; Sobel et al. 2021). Such monsoon surges were often caused by and/or enhanced by tropical cyclones (TCs) passing northeast of the study domain, similar to events described in Cayan et al. (2011) and Bagtasa (2017). These were interspersed with tranquil periods of weak trade easterlies. The identification of enhanced QBWO activity during the 2018 boreal summer season is consistent with prior work suggesting a preference for such activity during El Niño years (the late summer of 2018 featured a strengthening El Niño event) and during periods of decreased BSISO activity (Yang et al. 2008; Yan et al. 2019).

Fig. 6 shows both the total OLR anomalies from the seasonal cycle averaged from 0-25N, and the anomalies on the 10-20 day time scale (note the difference in color-scale) during the 2018 west Pacific monsoon season and PISTON period. Superimposed on these anomalies are the longitudinal positions of TC storm centers that entered the 0-25N latitude band during the period (Knapp et al. 2018, 2010). It can be seen that the TCs do occasionally project onto this timescale, but the 10-20 day band does include more than just propagating TCs (Ko and Hsu 2006, 2009). 10-20 day filtered anomalies during this period are generally westward-propagating, and consistently active throughout the monsoon season. This holds true when other years are selected, but only 2018 is shown here. Thus, the 2018 field campaign observed notable 10-20 variability in lower tropospheric winds (Fig. 5), which corresponds to westward propagating signals in OLR when filtered to this band (Fig. 6).

The evolution of our QBWO index through the field campaign is shown in Figure 7. It can be seen that prominent 10-20 day variability consistently projected onto the index during the two month period. QBWO activity generally moved through each of the phases in order, and remained in a single phase for 1-2 days. According to this index, the strongest period of activity that progressed through a complete cycle occurred from roughly 11 September to 23 September, with days at

303 least one day in each phase and an amplitude ($a = \sqrt{PC1^2 + PC2^2}$) greater than 1.0 throughout the
304 period.

305 CMORPH precipitation estimates averaged across latitude in Box M (Fig. 1) over Mindanao are
306 shown for this highlighted 13-day period in Figure 8. Fig. 8b shows total column water vapor and
307 850-hPa zonal wind anomalies from the JJAS composite mean diurnal cycle from ERA5 averaged
308 inside box M. Mindanao is shown here rather than Luzon because Typhoon Mangkhut made a
309 direct landfall on 14 September. From 11 Sep to 15 Sep, Mindanao experienced strong westerly
310 winds at 850-hPa with increased moisture. Concurrently, there was relatively little precipitation
311 over the main island, with some heavy precipitation occurring over the Moro Gulf (Box D in Fig. 1)
312 to the west. As the QBWO index moved through phases 7-8 on 15-16 September, drier conditions
313 moved over Mindanao, and there was relatively little precipitation anywhere in the domain. Then
314 from 17-20 September, the main island exhibited pronounced diurnal precipitation over the high
315 topography, with westward propagation into the evening and overnight each day (most prominent
316 on 17 Sep). Moisture was slightly higher than normal during this period, while winds started with
317 easterly anomalies and transitioned to westerly anomalies by the 20th.

318 The end of the cycle from 21-23 September, during phases 4-5 in our index, displayed markedly
319 different diurnal precipitation behavior. With weakly positive moisture anomalies and westerly
320 wind anomalies, the diurnal cycle was relatively inactive over the Moro Gulf and western Mindanao
321 (although there was some nocturnal precipitation on 22 Sep in the Moro Gulf), while the eastern
322 coastline experienced strong evening precipitation each day, with some indication of propagation
323 to the east into the Philippine Sea. Even from a short case study, these results are consistent with
324 other studies pointing to high moisture and offshore lower tropospheric wind as environmental
325 background conditions favoring a strong diurnal cycle, which here is related to 10-20 day variability
326 (Vincent and Lane 2017; Natoli and Maloney 2019; Sakaeda et al. 2020).

327 The PISTON period is used in this study to show that 10-20 variability and its impact on the
328 diurnal cycle can show up in raw data during a major field campaign and test our index during a
329 real event. However, a two month period is not sufficient to draw robust conclusions. Thus, we
330 will discuss a composite analysis based on the index described above in the following sections.

331 *b. Large Scale*

332 Variables are composited by each of the 8 phases of this index, with days on which the index
333 amplitude is less than 1 excluded. The total number of days included in each composite can be
334 found in Fig. 4. Figure 9 shows the large scale structure of the QBWO as captured by this index,
335 with every other phase shown. Daily unfiltered OLR anomalies with ERA5 850-hPa vector wind
336 anomalies superimposed are shown on the left, with ERA5 total column water vapor anomalies
337 and total wind (not anomalies) on the right. The index captures the northwestward propagation
338 of alternating zones of suppressed and enhanced convection, associated with anti-cyclonic and
339 cyclonic wind anomalies respectively, consistent with QBWO structure observed in prior studies
340 (Chen and Sui 2010; Qian et al. 2019; Yan et al. 2019).

341 Suppressed convection dominates much of the tropical western Pacific in phase 1, with anomalous
342 easterly winds and dry air pushing across the region. The remnant of a westerly monsoon surge
343 can be seen with southwesterly winds and moist conditions over the northern South China Sea and
344 Taiwan. By phase 3, the suppressed convection and easterly anomalies are maximized over the
345 northern Philippines, along with a significant dry anomaly. In total wind, this phase is characterized
346 by trade easterlies dominating the entire domain outside of the mid-latitude westerlies on the
347 northern fringes. Some indications of weakly enhanced convection begins to emerge in this phase
348 around 10N, 145E. In phase 5, the enhanced convection becomes much more prominent, with a
349 well defined anomalously cyclonic circulation centered over the Philippine Sea. Monsoon westerly

winds start to strengthen over the Philippines and nearby waters, collocated with increasing moisture content. Enhanced convection, total column water, and westerly winds are maximized over the northern Philippines in phase 7, with an obvious monsoon surge penetrating deep into the Pacific. Overall, these structures are very similar to QBWO structures depicted in prior work (Chen and Sui 2010; Qian et al. 2019).

Figures 10 and 11 show the impact of the QBWO on precipitation across the Philippine archipelago. Daily mean precipitation anomalies generally follow the anomalies in column moisture shown in Fig. 9, consistent with many other studies highlighting the importance of moisture, particularly in the lower to middle free troposphere, for maintaining convection and precipitation (Bretherton et al. 2004; Holloway and Neelin 2009, 2010; Kuo et al. 2017; Vincent and Lane 2017). Enhanced precipitation is manifest in a southwest to northeast band that moves to the northwest. The vast majority of these points are statistically significant at the 95% confidence level determined via a bootstrapping method. An interesting exception is Mindanao in the southern Philippines (see Fig. 1), which generally does not follow the precipitation pattern of neighboring seas. There is some evidence that surges of the monsoon do not provide as significant a modulation of oceanic convection near and south of this island when compared to islands further north (Natoli and Maloney 2019; Xu et al. 2021).

The variability of the amplitude of the diurnal cycle through the QBWO cycle is noted in Fig. 11. Diurnal amplitude is defined in this study as the amplitude of the first diurnal harmonic of the composite diurnal cycle. A strong diurnal cycle begins to emerge over Mindanao in phase 2, peaking there in phase 3. This signal is also present in the Moro Gulf, the small body of water to the southwest of Mindanao, likely indicating offshore propagation from land-based convection (Natoli and Maloney 2019). The central Philippines and Luzon see strong diurnal cycles maximizing in Phases 4 and 5, still about 1/4 cycle ahead of the moisture maximum which occurs around phase

7. As in many prior studies examining the impact of the BSISO on the diurnal cycle in the 8-phase framework, the amplitude of the diurnal cycle over the northern Philippines (Figure 11) is not in phase with the daily mean precipitation (Peatman et al. 2014; Xu and Rutledge 2018; Natoli and Maloney 2019; Chudler et al. 2020). Despite widespread oceanic convection and abundant moisture in phase 7, the amplitude of the diurnal cycle is strongly suppressed over large islands of the Philippines. The strongest diurnal cycle tends to occur several phases before the maximum in daily mean precipitation and column moisture, when winds are still weakly easterly (Fig. 9f,g). Generally, this is consistent with the impact of the BSISO on the diurnal cycle. In subsequent sections, the differences between the diurnal cycle behavior associated with the QBWO and the BSISO are examined in detail with the goal of elucidating the mechanisms important to diurnal cycle regulation.

c. Luzon

Luzon is the largest and most populous island of the Philippines, and presents an excellent case for examining the diurnal cycle due to the north to south orientation of its coastline and mountain ranges (Fig. 1). Fig. 12 shows Hovmöller plots of composite diurnal cycles from each QBWO phase to better interpret offshore propagation. CMORPH precipitation rate is averaged across latitude inside box L (Fig. 1), which covers northern Luzon, and shows a strong diurnal cycle over land peaking in the late afternoon for all phases. While the diurnal cycle is present in all, there is variability in its prominence and behavior. Phase 3, for example, has a weaker precipitation maximum and some initial propagation offshore both east and west, but precipitation dissipates rather quickly. In phases 4 and 5 (which have the strongest diurnal cycle amplitude anomalies in Fig. 11), precipitation rate maximizes over the highest topography and then persists much later into the night while propagating offshore, with the westward direction favored. Oceanic precipitation

increases further in phase 6, while phases 7-8 shows a constantly elevated precipitation rate offshore (particularly west of Luzon), with lesser diurnal variation. There still some evidence of a diurnal cycle over the highest elevations of the island.

While the diurnal cycle over western Luzon and the South China Sea appears to peak around phase 5, there is a notable asymmetry. The diurnal cycle on the eastern part of the island appears stronger in phase 1, with some weak propagation into the Philippine Sea. This asymmetry has also been noted for the impact of both the BSISO/MJO and some convectively coupled equatorial waves on the diurnal cycle (Ichikawa and Yasunari 2006, 2008; Sakaeda et al. 2017, 2020; Natoli and Maloney 2019), and warrants a closer look.

Figure 13 shows the diurnal cycle over certain subsets of the island, with boxes of spatial averaging shown in Fig. 1. Fig. 13a-c show the composite diurnal cycles in these boxes for select phases of the QBWO and the BSISO, according to the Lee et al. (2013) index. The orange lines show the phase with the largest diurnal range (difference between daily maximum and daily minimum precipitation rate) in the composite, while the blue lines show the phase with the smallest. These results were also considered for the diurnal amplitude, and the conclusions are similar. The right column shows the progression of the diurnal range and daily mean precipitation rate through each of the 8 phases of both indices.

The daily mean precipitation rates track together very closely between the BSISO and QBWO in Fig. 13d-f for each region. This indicates that the phase numbers are approximately equivalent in terms of proximity to the peak of the large scale convection associated with the feature of interest. Generally, daily mean precipitation varies slightly more strongly with QBWO phase than with BSISO, but the differences are modest. The diurnal range is also remarkably similar. Over northwest Luzon (Fig. 13e) and the coastal South China Sea (Fig. 13d), the largest range of the diurnal cycle leads the daily mean precipitation by about 1/4 cycle in both the QBWO index and

the BSISO index. The magnitude of the change in diurnal range appears similar for both indices despite the slightly stronger modulation of the daily mean precipitation by the QBWO.

The details of the diurnal cycle (Fig. 13a-c) look remarkably similar as well. Over land in northwest Luzon (Fig. 13b), the highest amplitude phases have a sharply enhanced afternoon peak compared to the JJAS mean, but precipitation is strongly suppressed at all other times of the day. In the smallest diurnal range phases for each index, northwest Luzon sees consistently elevated precipitation rates throughout the day, with a slight bump during the evening peak that doesn't quite reach the JJAS mean precipitation rate at that time. The behavior over the South China Sea (Fig. 13b) is also similar, with phase 5 in each index exhibiting heavier precipitation during the typical peak of around 2100 when westward propagating precipitation arrives. Phase 1 in each index has a fairly constant precipitation rate all day, indicating that little convection that initiates over land is propagating offshore (as also seen in Fig. 12a).

The two modes also exhibit the same east/west asymmetry, with the largest diurnal ranges coming after the convective maximum for each index in the eastern part of the island. Over land in northeast Luzon (Fig. 13f), the strongest diurnal cycle occurs after the peak in daily mean precipitation, in phases 8 and 1 for the BSISO, and phases 1 and 2 for the QBWO. Precipitation rate over this region throughout the day (Fig. 13c) exhibits similar behavior at the end of the convective maximum (phases 8, 1, 2) compared with northwest Luzon (Fig. 13b) in the phases leading up to the convective maximum (phases 3-5) in both indices. This is consistent with conclusions drawn by Sakaeda et al. (2020) on diurnal cycle asymmetry through the passage of a large scale disturbance like the MJO or an R1 wave. Overall, the diurnal cycle behavior over Luzon associated with the QBWO index strongly resembles the results previously seen for the BSISO. This motivates the hypothesis that the impact on the diurnal cycle is not unique to either mode, rather, that each mode impacts the background state near Luzon similarly, leading to congruent diurnal cycle behavior.

d. Mindanao

In Mindanao, the diurnal cycle contributes much more to variability in daily mean precipitation than it does over Luzon (Natoli and Maloney 2019). As such, the disconnect between the diurnal range and daily mean precipitation is not as distinct as for Luzon. Figure 14 demonstrates that the amplitude of the diurnal cycle is more closely aligned with daily mean precipitation over Mindanao, whereas the diurnal amplitude leads the daily mean by about 1/4 cycle over Luzon. Daily mean precipitation in Mindanao is not in phase with the large-scale convective maximum over surrounding waters, as it is over Luzon. This discrepancy likely results from the fact that there is very little precipitation overnight over Mindanao in any phase, as the island appears to not receive as much oceanic precipitation during surges of the monsoon (Natoli and Maloney 2019 and their Figures 7 and 9). Xu et al. (2021) and their Figure 1 also shows that the difference between daily mean precipitation in the active BSISO compared to suppressed BSISO is much greater over the waters west of Luzon than near Mindanao.

While explaining the difference in oceanic precipitation is beyond the scope of this paper, we offer some hypotheses that the greater modulation of total column water vapor (Fig. 9) near Luzon compared to Mindanao may be responsible for this since ambient moisture is a strong control on tropical precipitation (Bretherton et al. 2004; Holloway and Neelin 2009, 2010). It is further speculated that the location of Borneo upstream of Mindanao during the active southwesterly monsoon flow may inhibit the moisture flux. This idea is consistent with recent work by Tan et al. (2021), who showed a systematic increase in precipitation downwind of an MC island when it was removed in a WRF simulation. Future experiments could follow the methods of Tan et al. (2021) applied to the boreal summer monsoon. The behavior of the diurnal cycle for both Luzon and Mindanao is quite similar, but the diurnal cycle appears to determine daily mean precipitation

468 much more strongly over Mindanao considering its relative lack of nearby oceanic precipitation
469 that could impact the island itself.

470 One interesting feature in Fig. 14 is that the BSISO has a noticeably stronger impact than the
471 QBWO on both the diurnal range and (likely as a consequence) the daily mean precipitation rate
472 in Mindanao. However, beyond the magnitude disparity, the diurnal cycle amplitude varies as a
473 function of each index similarly here as in Luzon. It should be emphasized that due to its location
474 further south, both the active QBWO and BSISO impact Mindanao in an earlier phase than Luzon,
475 thus the phase numbers of an active event do not exactly align between the two islands. Over the
476 central portion of the island (Box E in Fig. 1), a strong diurnal cycle is prominent in phase 3 for
477 both modes of intraseasonal variability (ISV) (Fig. 14b,e), which is about 1/4 cycle before the
478 large scale convective maximum in QBWO phase 5 (Fig. 6c). Fig. 14a,d shows that the timing of
479 the strongest diurnal cycle in the Moro Gulf (Box D in Fig. 1) with respect to phase of the ISV
480 mode follows that over land on the western shore, indicating likely offshore propagation.

481 The maximum diurnal cycle over eastern Mindanao Fig. 14c,f occurs in phases 4-5 for the
482 QBWO and phase 8 for the BSISO, while the minimum occurs in phase 2 for both. BSISO phases 4
483 and 5 do experience a slight bump in the range of the diurnal cycle, but it is smaller than the QBWO
484 increase in these phases, and smaller than the range in BSISO phase 8. In summary, the diurnal
485 cycle behavior in Mindanao and Luzon progresses qualitatively similarly through a life cycle of
486 both the QBWO and BSISO, with an elevated diurnal range occurring about 1/4 cycle before the
487 large-scale convective maximum on the western side of the archipelago and over neighboring seas.

4. Discussion

a. Overview

In this section, we will compare and contrast the environmental background conditions associated with the QBWO and the BSISO in an effort to understand the mechanisms through which these large scale features regulate the diurnal cycle. We aim to support a hypothesis that the type of ISV mode itself is of secondary importance, and its impact on the background state through initiation of a monsoon surge is what helps determine the strength of the diurnal cycle. In other words, if two large-scale modes impact the local environmental background conditions in the same way, similar diurnal cycle behavior should be expected.

Figure 15 shows three environmental variables from ERA5 averaged in box L (northern Luzon, Fig. 1) for the left column, and in box M (Mindanao) for the right column. These variables were cited by (Natoli and Maloney 2019) to explain much of the variability in the diurnal cycle. Figure 16 shows maps for phases 3 and 7 (roughly corresponding to the convective minimum and maximum over Luzon shown in Fig. 9) to provide context. Results are composited by QBWO/BSISO phase, with the JJAS mean shown as the dotted black line. As defined by these indices, it is evident that the environmental conditions are modulated similarly by both modes, over both islands.

Environmental moisture, particularly in the lower to middle free troposphere, has been shown to be a primary control the strength and longevity on tropical convection (Bretherton et al. 2004; Holloway and Neelin 2009). A rich supply of moisture in the environment will promote heavy rainfall, and longer-lived convection that propagates further offshore overnight. Dry conditions may weaken convection through entrainment, resulting in weaker rain rates and thus a weaker diurnal cycle that dissipates more rapidly (Kuo et al. 2017). The second variable considered is surface downwelling shortwave radiation, which is primarily modulated by cloud cover. Some

511 studies have identified higher insolation as being responsible for stronger diurnal cycles occurring
 512 in the suppressed phase of the MJO (Rauniyar and Walsh 2011; Peatman et al. 2014; Bergemann
 513 et al. 2015; Birch et al. 2016). During large-scale suppressed convection, the sky is relatively clear
 514 and the increased insolation promotes a stronger sea-breeze circulation, which then leads to an
 515 enhanced diurnal cycle. The last key variable is the lower tropospheric wind, considered in this
 516 study at 850-hPa. Onshore wind tends to inhibit the diurnal cycle on the windward side of an
 517 MC island, and enhance it on the leeward side, while also promoting leeward offshore propagation
 518 (Ichikawa and Yasunari 2006, 2008; Oh et al. 2012; Yanase et al. 2017; Sakaeda et al. 2020). A
 519 sufficiently strong background wind may ventilate the land surface and reduce the land-sea thermal
 520 contrast, leading to a weakened diurnal cycle (Shige et al. 2017; Wang and Sobel 2017; Qian 2020).
 521 Thus, sufficient ambient moisture, increased solar radiation, and weakly offshore winds each are
 522 proposed to promote a strong diurnal cycle over land (Vincent and Lane 2016). Propagation
 523 offshore to the west may be more sensitive to moisture content, given that afternoon convection
 524 develops over land (Hassim et al. 2016; Coppin and Bellon 2019).

525 *b. QBWO and BSISO Similarities*

526 Each mode strongly modulates total column water vapor (TCWV) over the Philippines (Figs.
 527 15a,d, 16a-b,g-h). This is roughly in line with the large-scale convective maximum tracked by
 528 OLR (Figs. 9, 16c-d,i-j). Surface downwelling solar radiation is anti-correlated with TCWV,
 529 maximizing during the large-scale suppressed period, and minimizing on the cloudy days of the
 530 active state (Fig. 15b,e). The strongest diurnal cycles appear to occur when none of the above
 531 variables are strongly unfavorable, which materializes during the transition from suppressed to
 532 active large-scale convection for both modes. TCWV and insolation have competing influences,
 533 with the active phases of each mode exhibiting high TCWV, which supports diurnal precipitation

(Vincent and Lane 2016), and low insolation, which inhibits the diurnal cycle (Rauniyar and Walsh 2011; Peatman et al. 2014; Birch et al. 2016). Lower tropospheric wind perpendicular to the coast (zonal wind in this case, since the coastline is oriented north to south), can be invoked to explain why the transition from inactive to active is associated with stronger diurnal cycles than the opposite transition (Figs. 15c,f, 16e-f,k-l)

Both the QBWO and BSISO strongly modulate low-level wind over the Philippines. Over Luzon, both indices capture easterly wind anomalies at 850-hPa in phases 3-5, and westerly wind anomalies in phases 7, 8, and 1. The phases (4 and 5 in each index) with the strongest diurnal cycles over northwest Luzon are associated with easterly wind anomalies, and weak total easterly offshore winds. In the opposite transition (phase 1 of each index), Luzon experiences near average moisture and near average shortwave radiation, but the diurnal cycle amplitude is much weaker than phase 5 on the western coast and the SCS, associated with continued westerly wind anomalies (Figs. 11a,e, 12a,e, and 13d,e.). Thus, high amplitude diurnal cycles appear to occur on the leeward side of the island when neither moisture or insolation are strongly unfavorable, consistent with other studies exploring the MJO-diurnal cycle relationship (Virts et al. 2013; Qian 2020).

Offshore propagation is also similarly influenced by each mode. The phase numbers refer to the corresponding conditions for Luzon for both modes, but the mechanism is still valid for Mindanao approximately 2 phases earlier. When large-scale convection is strongly suppressed and winds are slightly anomalously easterly (phases 2-3, Fig. 9), precipitation still forms over land during the afternoon, but it dissipates quickly rather than propagating offshore (Figs. 12b,c, 13e). This section of the cycle is likely too dry for the most robust offshore propagation. The transition from suppressed to active (phases 4-5) exhibits continued strong diurnal cycles over land associated with easterly low-level wind anomalies, neutral insolation anomalies, and increasing moisture content. Offshore propagation to the west is most robust here (Figs. 12, 13d), as more moist air is entrained

558 into developing convection (Hassim et al. 2016; Coppin and Bellon 2019). During the large-scale
559 convective maximum (phases 6-7), moisture is plentiful, but strong onshore westerly winds and
560 cloudy conditions inhibit the diurnal cycle despite abundant oceanic precipitation in the SCS. The
561 opposite transition in both modes (phases 8, 1) experiences continuing westerly winds despite
562 insolation becoming more favorable. The onshore wind reduces the diurnal cycle on the west
563 (windward) side, but strong diurnal cycles can still be found on the east (leeward) side with weak
564 leeward propagation into the Philippine Sea (Ichikawa and Yasunari 2006; Virts et al. 2013).

565 *c. QBWO and BSISO Differences*

566 There are also some subtle differences in diurnal cycle behavior for the QBWO versus the BSISO
567 life cycles, possibly due to subtle differences in modulation of the environmental background
568 conditions. The diurnal cycle amplitude over Mindanao in phases 3 and 4 of the QBWO is smaller
569 than phases 3 and 4 of the BSISO (Fig. 14a-b,d-e) despite rather similar values of environmental
570 moisture and isolation in each (Fig. 15d-e). However, the 850-hPa zonal wind appears to be more
571 precisely in phase with the increase in moisture and cloudiness during a QBWO life cycle, with all
572 three maximizing in phase 5 and minimizing in phase 1. For the BSISO, the increase in low level
573 wind appears to lag the increase in moisture and cloudiness by one phase, resulting in more a more
574 westerly wind in phases 3-5. Mindanao thus experiences more anomalously westerly winds during
575 QBWO phases 3-5, corresponding to a weaker diurnal cycle compared to BSISO phases 3-5, and
576 less anomalously westerly winds during QBWO phases 6-8, corresponding to a stronger (i.e. less
577 suppressed) diurnal cycle compared to BSISO phases 6-8.

578 Moreover, despite the stronger modulation of moisture and insolation, the QBWO appears to
579 modulate lower tropospheric zonal wind more weakly (Fig. 16e-f,k-j) over both islands. Such
580 behavior could hint at a possible stronger diurnal cycle regulation by the low-level wind compared

to the other variables, as the diurnal cycle amplitude varies similarly or even slightly less with QBWO phase compared to BSISO phase. It is also worth noting here that the spectral power of 850-hPa wind over Mindanao in the 10-15 day band cannot be statistically distinguished from red noise at the 90% confidence level (Fig. 2b). This is consistent with Mindanao observing noticeably greater maximum diurnal amplitude in the BSISO composites compared to the QBWO composites. The subtle difference in the timing and strength of the wind variability with the QBWO life cycle could present a plausible explanation for some of the differences in precipitation behavior. However, more work, particularly model sensitivity tests, would be required to address this more directly.

5. Conclusions

This study has examined the variability of the Philippine diurnal cycle on the quasi-biweekly (10-20 day) time scale. To the knowledge of the authors at the time of writing, this is the first study to explore the relationship between the quasi-biweekly oscillation (QBWO), a northwestward propagating mode of variability in tropical convection and wind in the northwest tropical Pacific, and the diurnal cycle of precipitation in this region. While the MJO/BSISO-diurnal cycle relationship has received considerable attention, comparatively little has been dedicated to the quasi-biweekly mode despite accounting for a similar or even larger slice of the variance in convection (Kikuchi and Wang 2009; Qian et al. 2019). These findings complement and are generally consistent with that of Sakaeda et al. (2020) who examined the variability in the diurnal cycle associated with several other large-scale modes of tropical variability. This study also extends some of their ideas to the Asian and west Pacific summer monsoon region. The main findings are summarized as follows:

- The Philippines and surrounding waters experience noteworthy variability in convection and wind on the 10-20 day timescale (Figs. 2, 6, and 8), and this was observed in the field during the 2018 campaign Propagation of Intraseasonal Tropical Oscillations (PISTON; Figs. 5 and 6; Sobel et al. 2021).
- A QBWO index is described that captures a northwestward propagating area of enhanced convection on 10-20 day timescales, associated with increased moisture, cyclonic vorticity, and a surge of southwesterly monsoon winds (Fig. 9).
- Daily mean precipitation over the Philippines and coastal waters tracks with the large-scale convective envelope, except over Mindanao (Fig. 10). This is similar to results seen for the BSISO (Natoli and Maloney 2019; Chudler et al. 2020; Xu et al. 2021), but the QBWO appears to have a slightly stronger impact over Luzon.
- The amplitude of the diurnal cycle on the west side of the Philippines is maximized during the late-suppressed stage and transition from suppressed to active convection (Figs. 11, 13, and 14).
- Prominent offshore propagation to the west into the South China Sea occurs when moisture and insolation are sufficiently high, and the low-level wind points offshore, which occurs during the transition to active convection (Figs. 12, 13a,d, 14a,d, 15). This is also consistent with findings for the BSISO, but the diurnal modulation by the QBWO appears to be slightly weaker over Mindanao (Fig. 14).
- The increase in moisture, cloudiness, and westerly winds arrive more or less in phase for the QBWO, while moisture leads by one phase for the BSISO (Fig. 15). This, combined with the slightly weaker modulation of low-level wind by the QBWO (Fig. 16) is hypothesized to

explain why the QBWO does not modulate the amplitude of the diurnal cycle more strongly than the BSISO, particularly in Mindanao (Fig. 14).

These results show that the widely studied impact of the MJO/BSISO on the tropical diurnal cycle (e.g. Peatman et al. 2014; Vincent and Lane 2016, 2017; Sakaeda et al. 2017; Lu et al. 2019) is not unique to this phenomenon, complementing several other studies exploring distinct modes of variability and their impacts on local scale precipitation (Ferrett et al. 2019; Sakaeda et al. 2020). We hypothesize that the large scale mode is rather unimportant beyond its impact on the environmental background conditions to the island of interest, namely, low-level wind, free tropospheric moisture, and insolation.

Heavy daily mean precipitation (Fig. 10), unsurprisingly, appears to closely follow total column water vapor (Fig. 9; Bretherton et al. 2004; Holloway and Neelin 2009, 2010; Kuo et al. 2017), with some orographic adjustments based on prevailing wind. The amplitude of the diurnal cycle and its longevity when propagating offshore appear to be strongly related to competing the influences of insolation and moisture (which support the diurnal cycle but are out of phase with one another), and onshore wind (which inhibits the diurnal cycle and offshore propagation by decreasing the land-sea thermal contrast and thus the sea-breeze; e.g. Wang and Sobel 2017; Qian 2020). The strongest diurnal cycles with most pronounced offshore propagation generally occur on days with average to above average moisture, sufficient insolation, and weakly offshore prevailing wind. This is found for both the QBWO and the BSISO.

Testing the relative contributions of each of these key variables identified here is the subject of ongoing analysis. While we have hypothesized a possible connection between these key variables and the diurnal cycle behavior based on observations of very similar modulation by both the QBWO and the BSISO, this analysis is insufficient to make more definitive statements and determine

causality. Consequently, we anticipate that our ongoing work isolating the response of the diurnal cycle to these variables in high resolution models will provide additional insight.

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Data availability statement. Sounding data from the PISTON field campaign can be found at <https://www-air.larc.nasa.gov/cgi-bin/ArcView/camp2ex>. CMORPH bias-corrected precipitation data as described in Xie et al. (2017) can be downloaded at <https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/data/cmorph-high-resolution-global-precipitation-estimates/access/30min/8km/>. ERA5 data as described in Hersbach et al. (2020) can be download at <https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/datasets/reanalysis-datasets/era5>. OLR data as described in Liebmann and Smith (1996) can be downloaded at https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.interp_OLR.html. IBTrACS data as described in Knapp et al. (2010) can be found at <https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/ibtracs/>.

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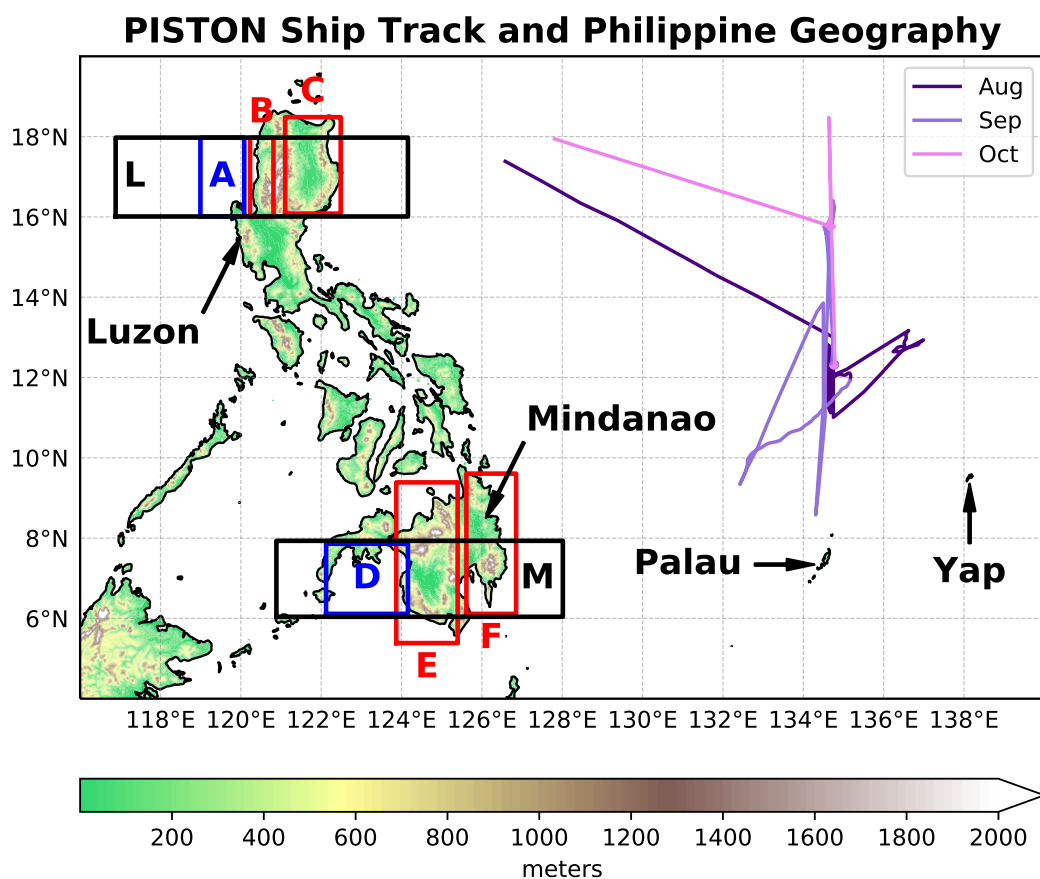


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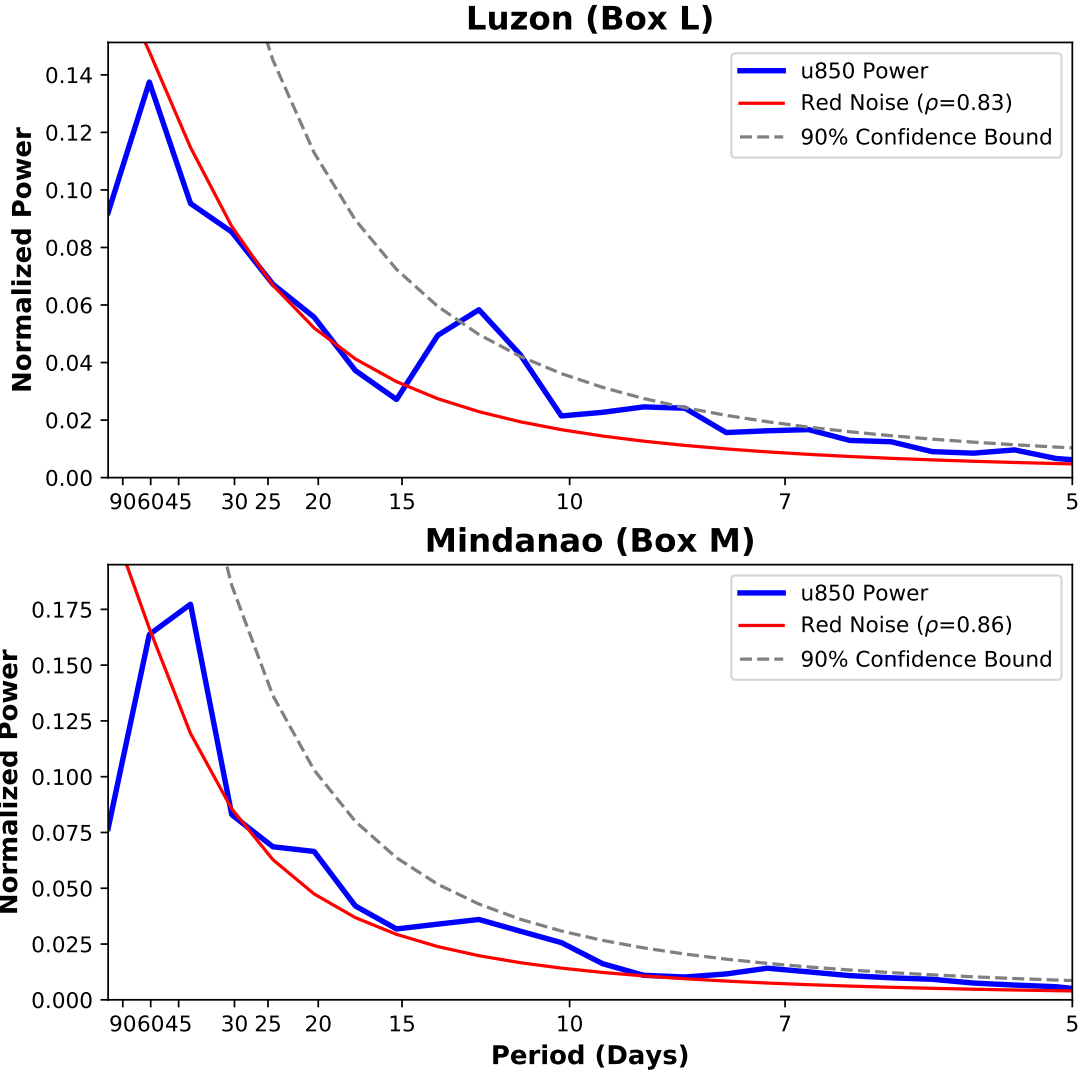


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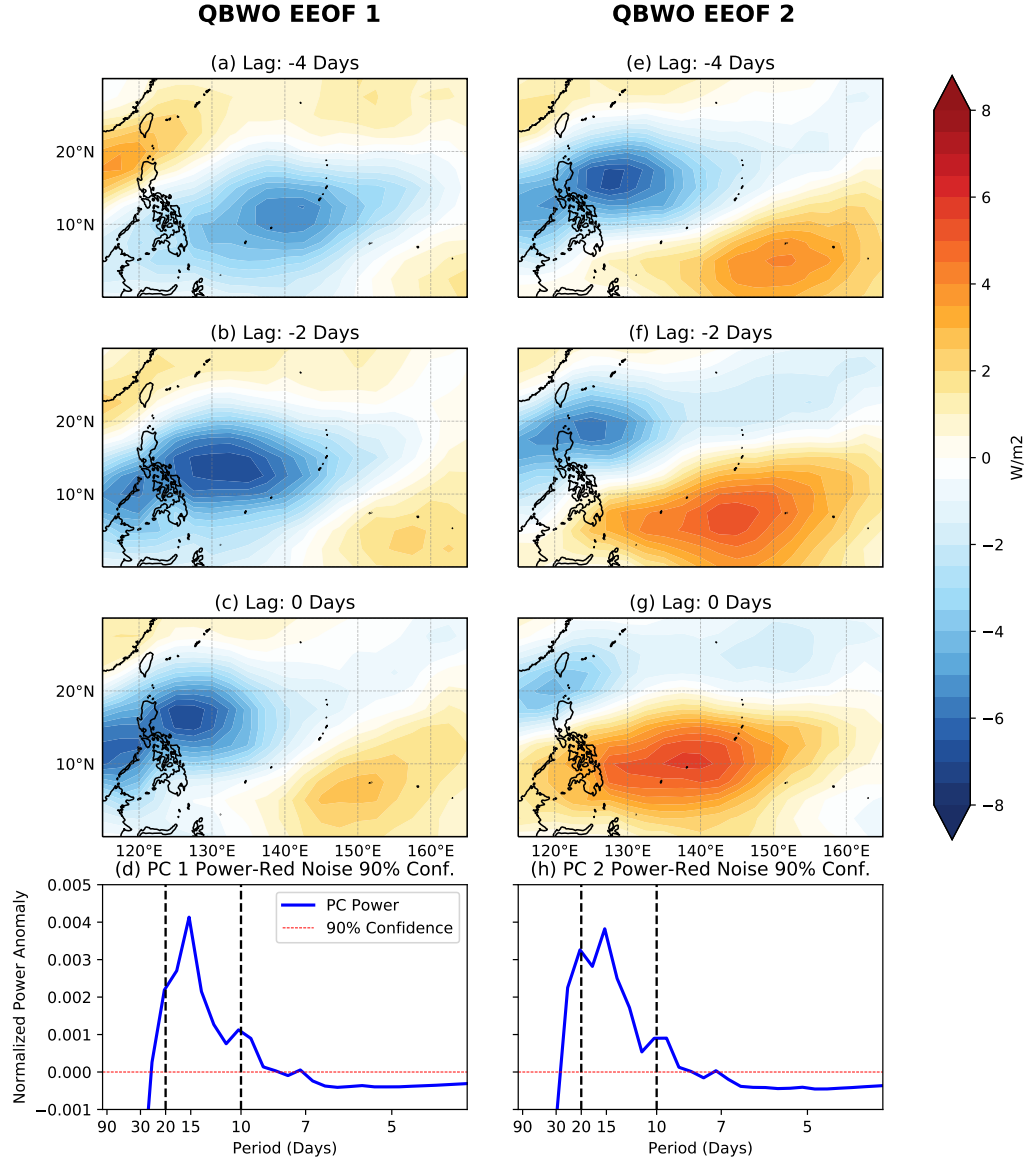


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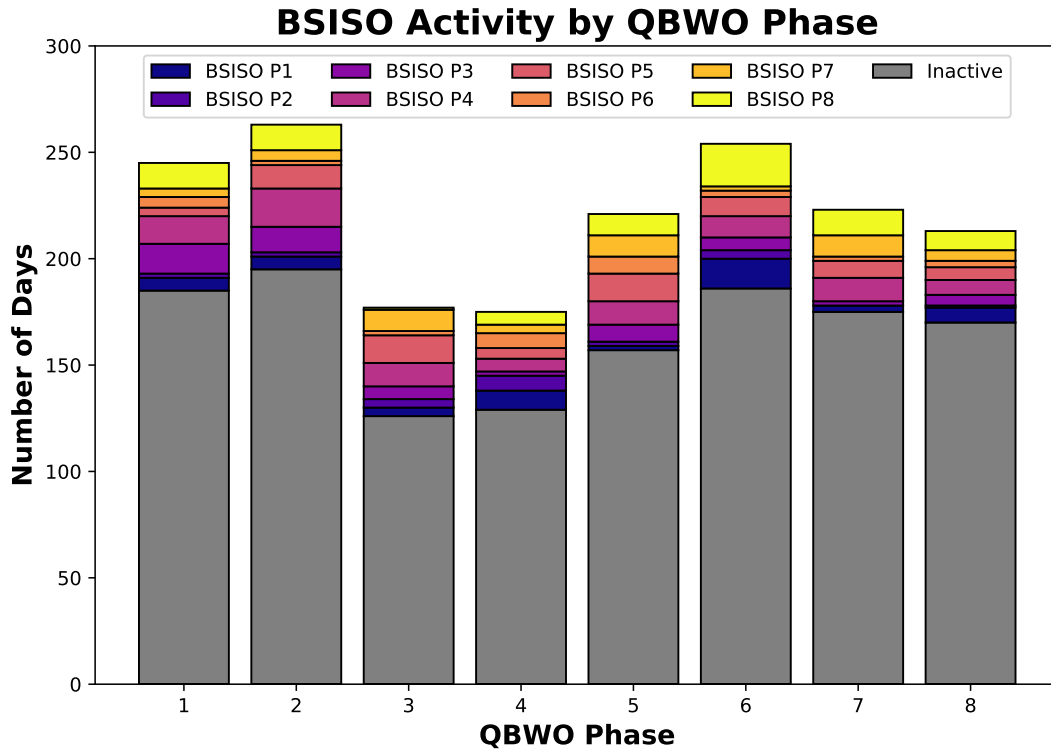


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PISTON 2018 Soundings of Zonal Wind

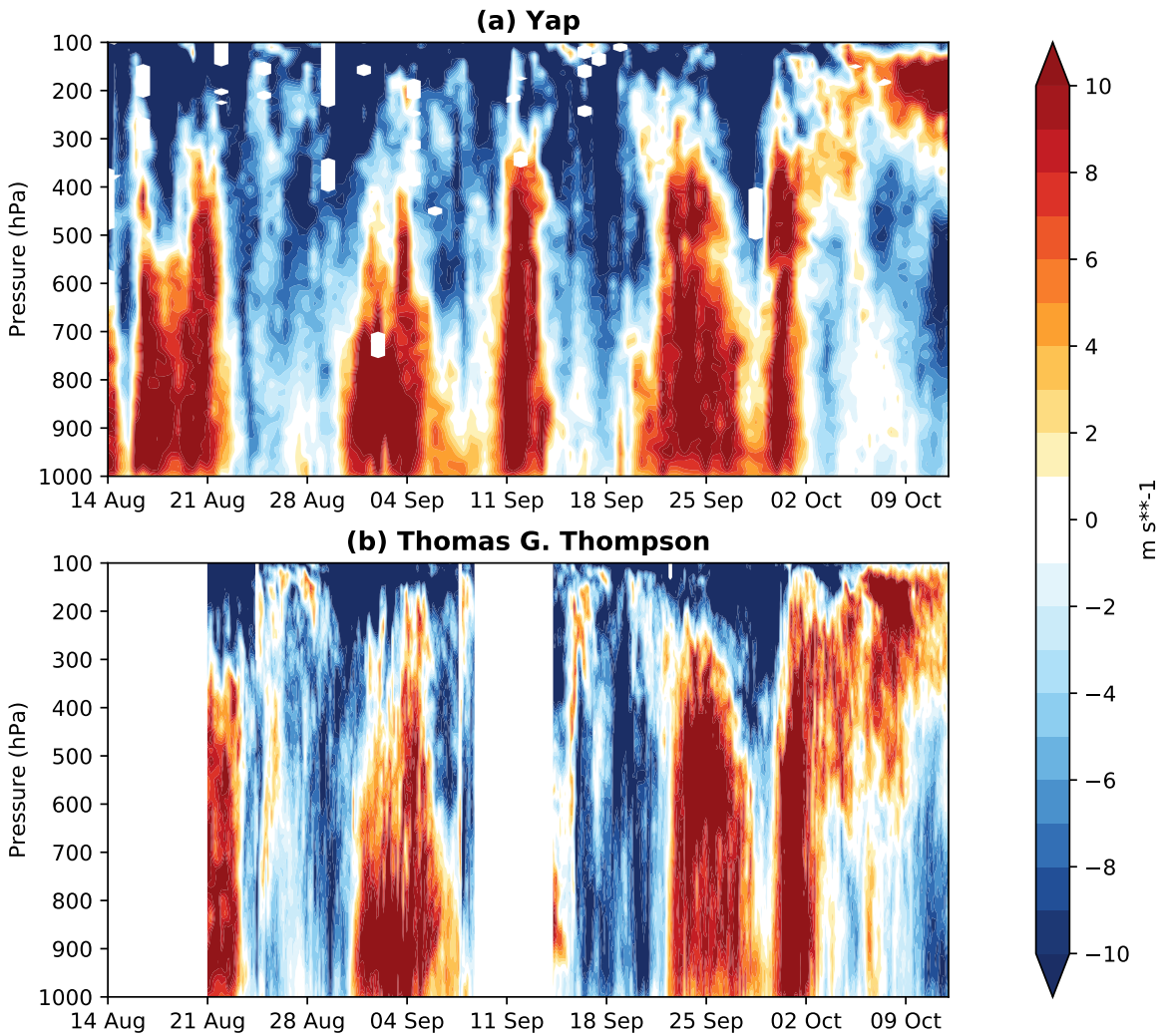


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OLR Anomalies on Various Timescales: PISTON 2018

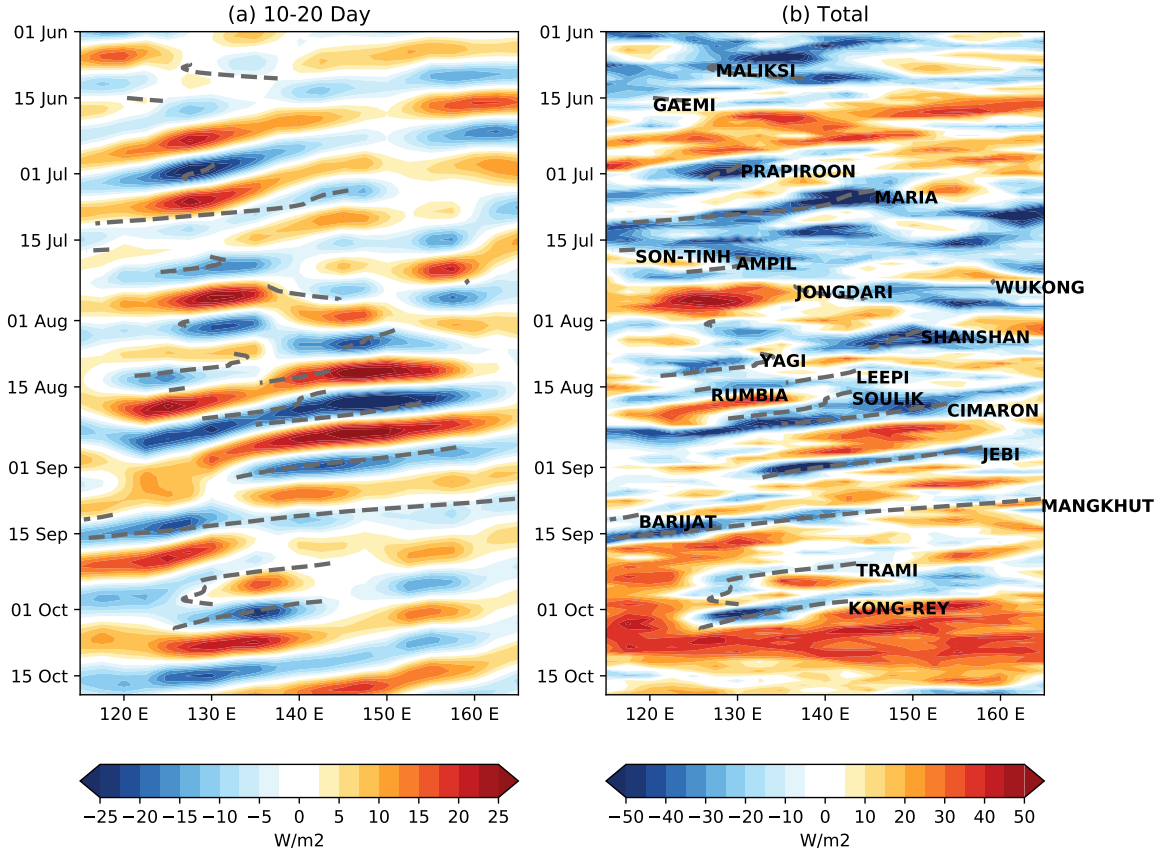


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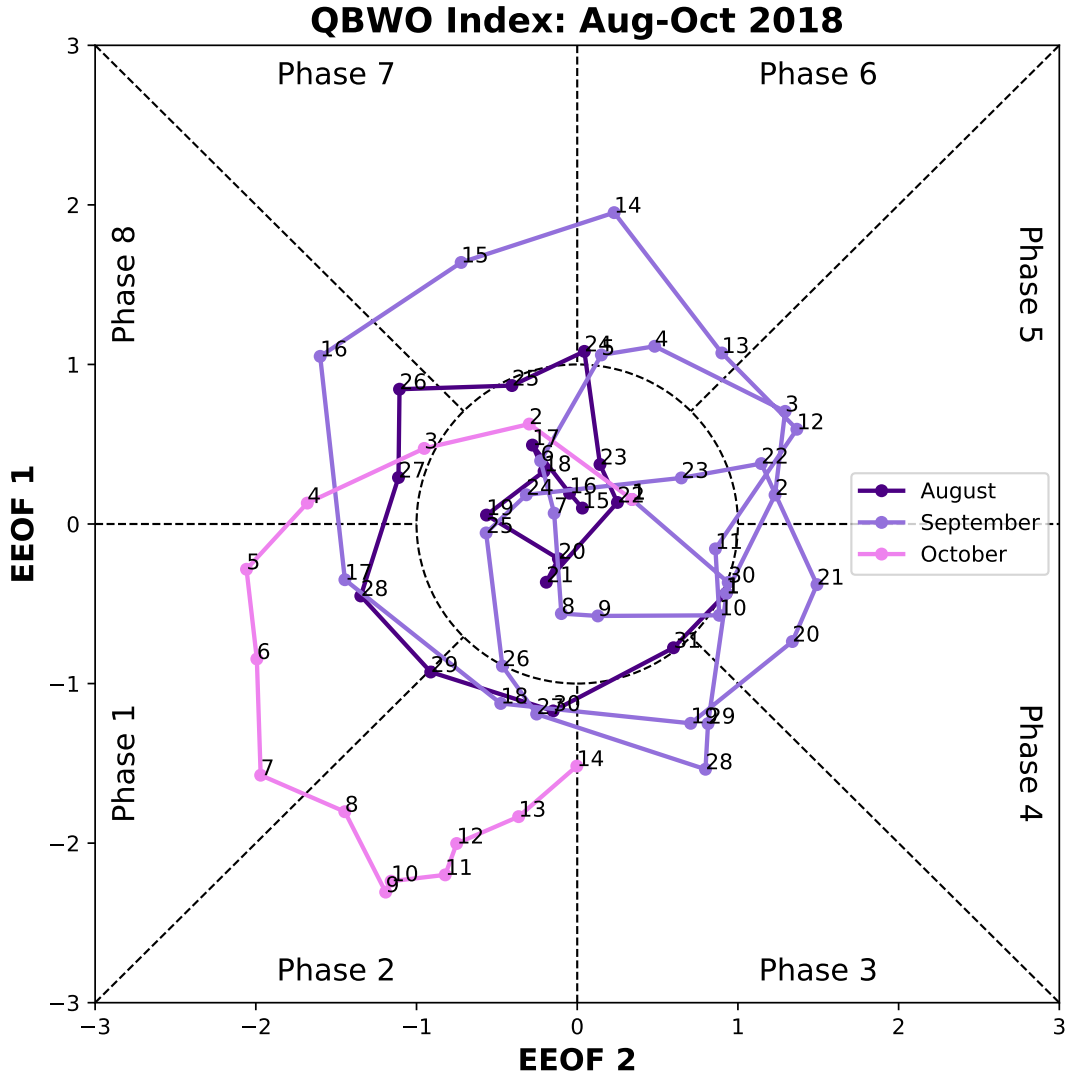


FIG. 7. Phase space diagram of the QBWO index activity from 14 August-14 October 2018 (the PISTON field campaign period), with the first principal component on the y-axis and the second principal component on the x-axis. The split between the 8 phases is denoted with black dotted lines, while days with an amplitude less than 1 (inside the center circle) are considered inactive, and not part of any phase. August is shown in the darkest color, with October in the lightest pink. The corresponding numbers indicate the date of each month.

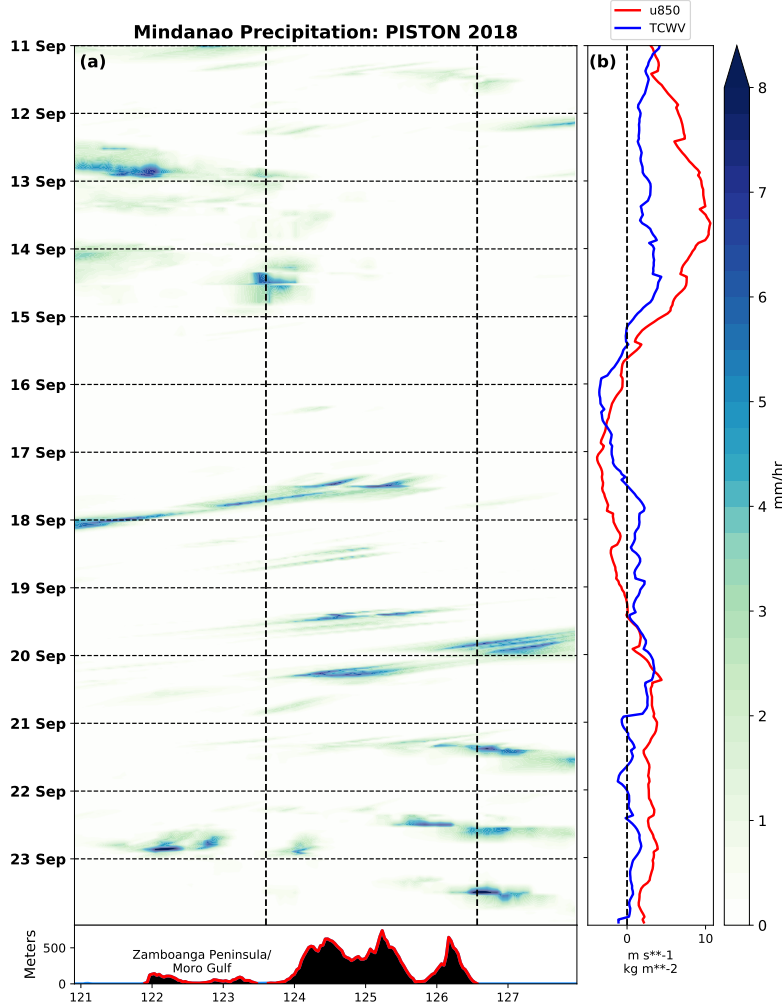


FIG. 8. (a) CMORPH precipitation rate estimates (mm/hr) averaged from 6N-8N across Mindanao (Box M, Fig. 1) from 11 September 2018 to 23 September 2018, during one full cycle of the QBWO index. The average topography in this box from NOAA ETOPO2 is shown on the bottom, with the coastlines drawn as vertical dashed black lines. Note that there are some land points west of the western coastline here, part of the Zamboanga Peninsula. The horizontal dashed black lines correspond to 00 UTC, or 0800 local time. (b) Zonal wind at 850-hPa averaged across both latitude and longitude in Box M (red line) and total column water vapor (blue line) from ERA5, with the JJAS composite diurnal cycle removed at each hour.

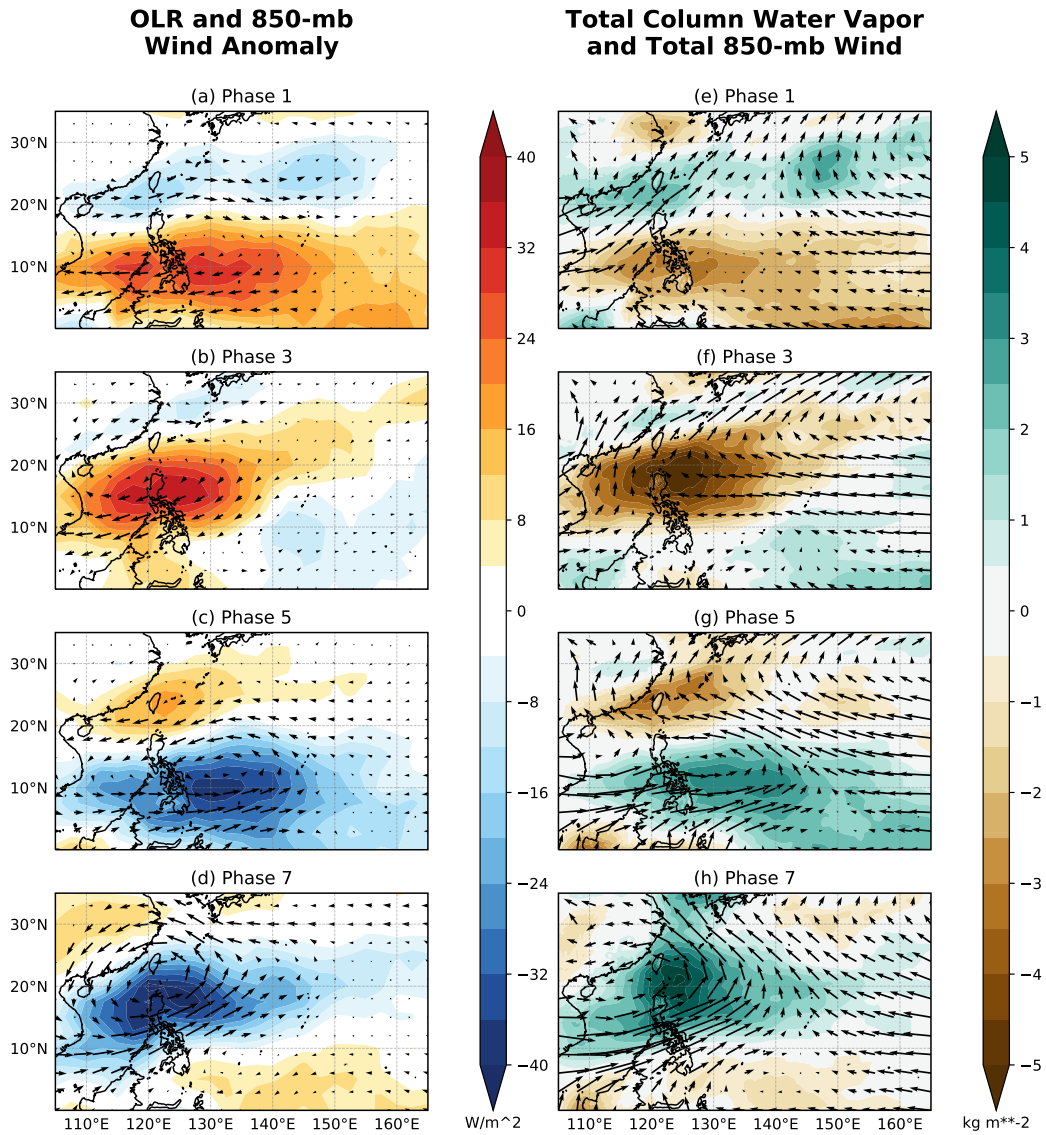


FIG. 9. Composite maps by select QBWO phase over the West Pacific ocean of anomalies of OLR (W m^{-2}) and vector anomalies of 850-mb wind from ERA5 (left column), and anomalies of ERA5 total column water vapor (kg m^{-2}) with total 850-mb vector wind (right column). The total number of days in each composite can be ascertained from Figure 4

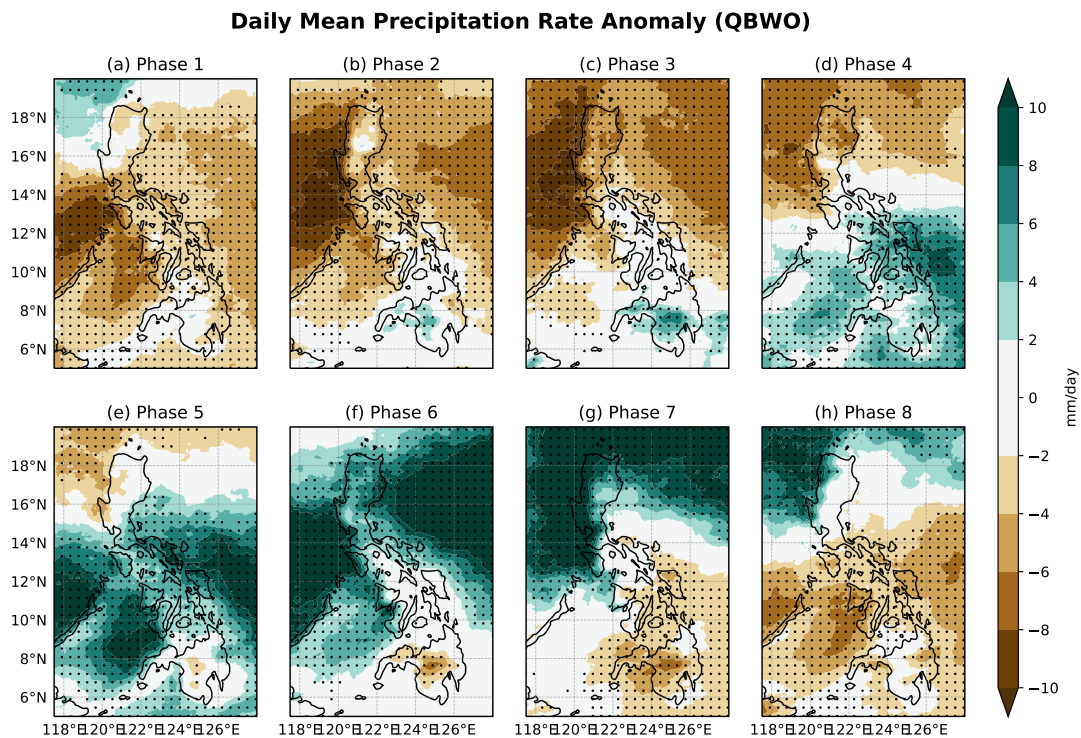


FIG. 10. Anomalies in daily mean CMORPH precipitation rate composited by QBWO phase, with statistical significance at the 95% confidence level shown as dots.

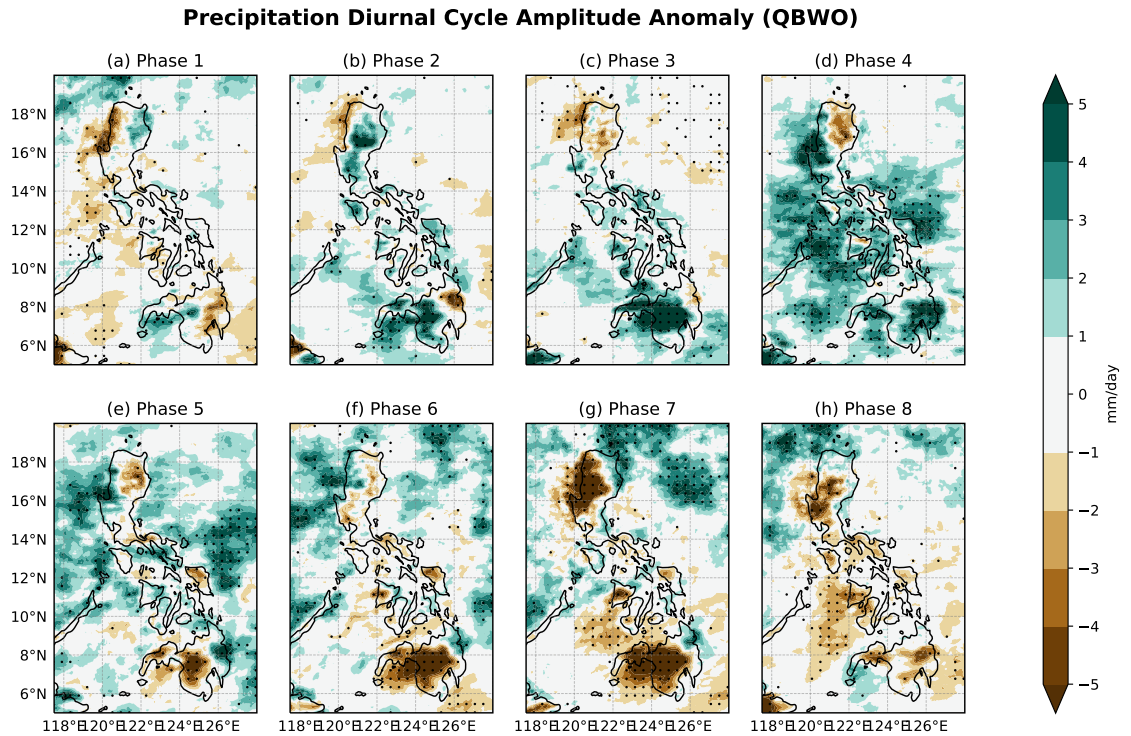


FIG. 11. Anomalies in the amplitude of the CMORPH precipitation rate diurnal cycle by QBWO phase. Anomalies are calculated as the difference in diurnal amplitude between each phase composite, and amplitude of the JJAS composite diurnal cycle. Statistical significance at the 95% confidence level is shown as dots.

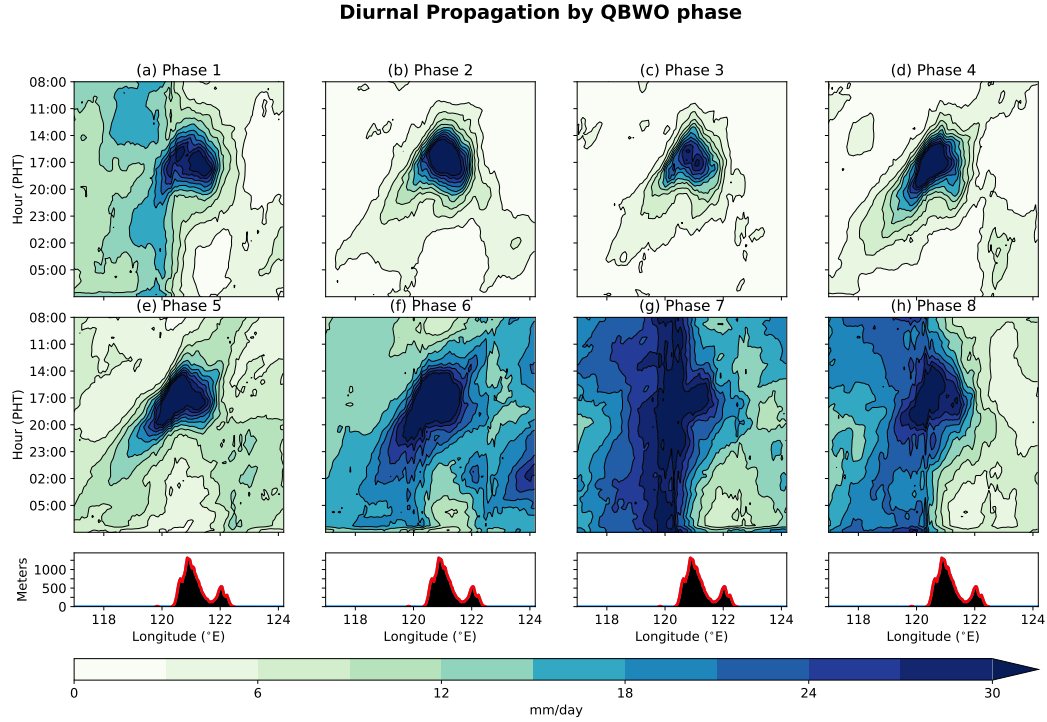


FIG. 12. Hovmöller diagrams of the composite diurnal cycle of CMORPH precipitation rate (mm/day) for select phases of the QBWO index calculated by projecting unfiltered OLR anomalies onto the EEOF spatial patterns shown in Fig. 3 (top), and the index calculated by projecting 10-20 day bandpass filtered OLR anomalies onto the same EEOF patterns (bottom). Precipitation rates are averaged across latitude in box L (Fig. 1), with corresponding longitude noted below. The average elevation of topography from NOAA ETOPO2 inside box L is shown at the bottom for reference.

QBWO vs. BSISO Diurnal Cycles

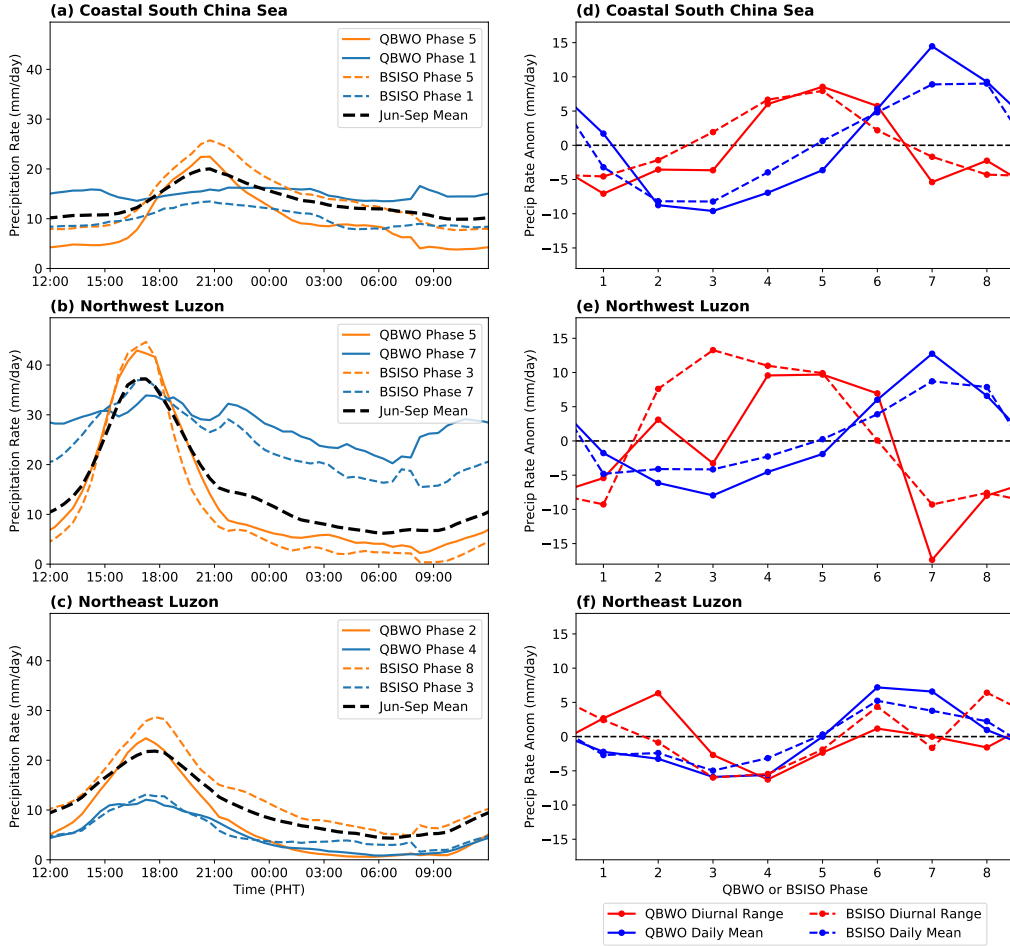


FIG. 13. (a-c) Composites of the spatially averaged diurnal cycle of CMORPH precipitation rate (mm/day) in the QBWO (solid) and Lee et al. (2013) BSISO (dotted) phase with the highest diurnal range (orange), the QBWO/BSISO phase with the smallest diurnal range (blue), and the full JJAS composite (dotted black). Spatial averaging is done over ocean points inside box A (a), and land points inside boxes B (b) and C (c). (d-f) The corresponding daily mean precipitation (blue) and diurnal range (red) in mm/day of each phase's spatially averaged composite diurnal cycle, by QBWO phase (solid) and BSISO phase (dotted). Each box covers a domain near Luzon.

QBWO vs. BSISO Diurnal Cycles

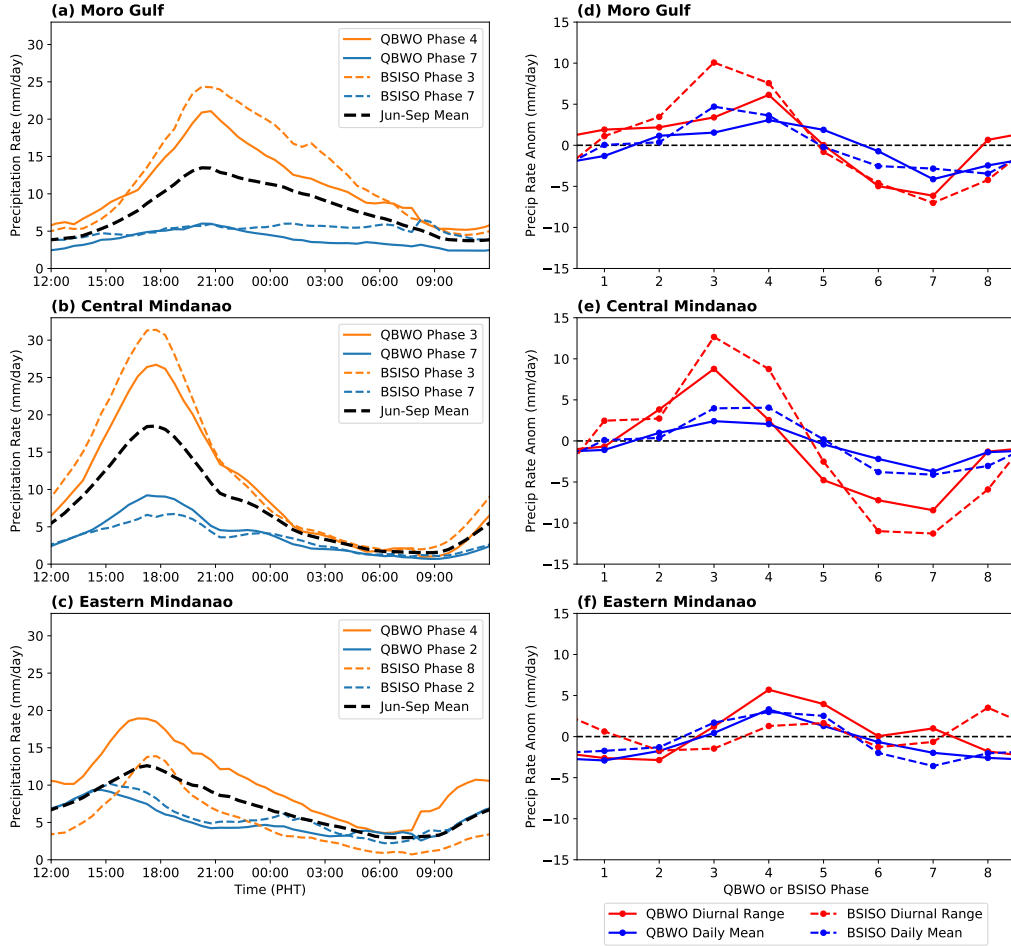


FIG. 14. (a-c) Composites of the spatially averaged diurnal cycle of CMORPH precipitation rate (mm/day) in the QBWO (solid) and Lee et al. (2013) BSISO (dotted) phase with the highest diurnal range (orange), the QBWO/BSISO phase with the smallest diurnal range (blue), and the full JJAS composite (dotted black). Spatial averaging is done over ocean points inside box D (a), and land points inside boxes E (b) and F (c). (d-f) The corresponding daily mean precipitation (blue) and diurnal range (red) in mm/day of each phase's spatially averaged composite diurnal cycle, by QBWO phase (solid) and BSISO phase (dotted). As in Fig. 13 but for Mindanao.

ERA5 Daily Averaged Variables, QBWO vs. BSISO

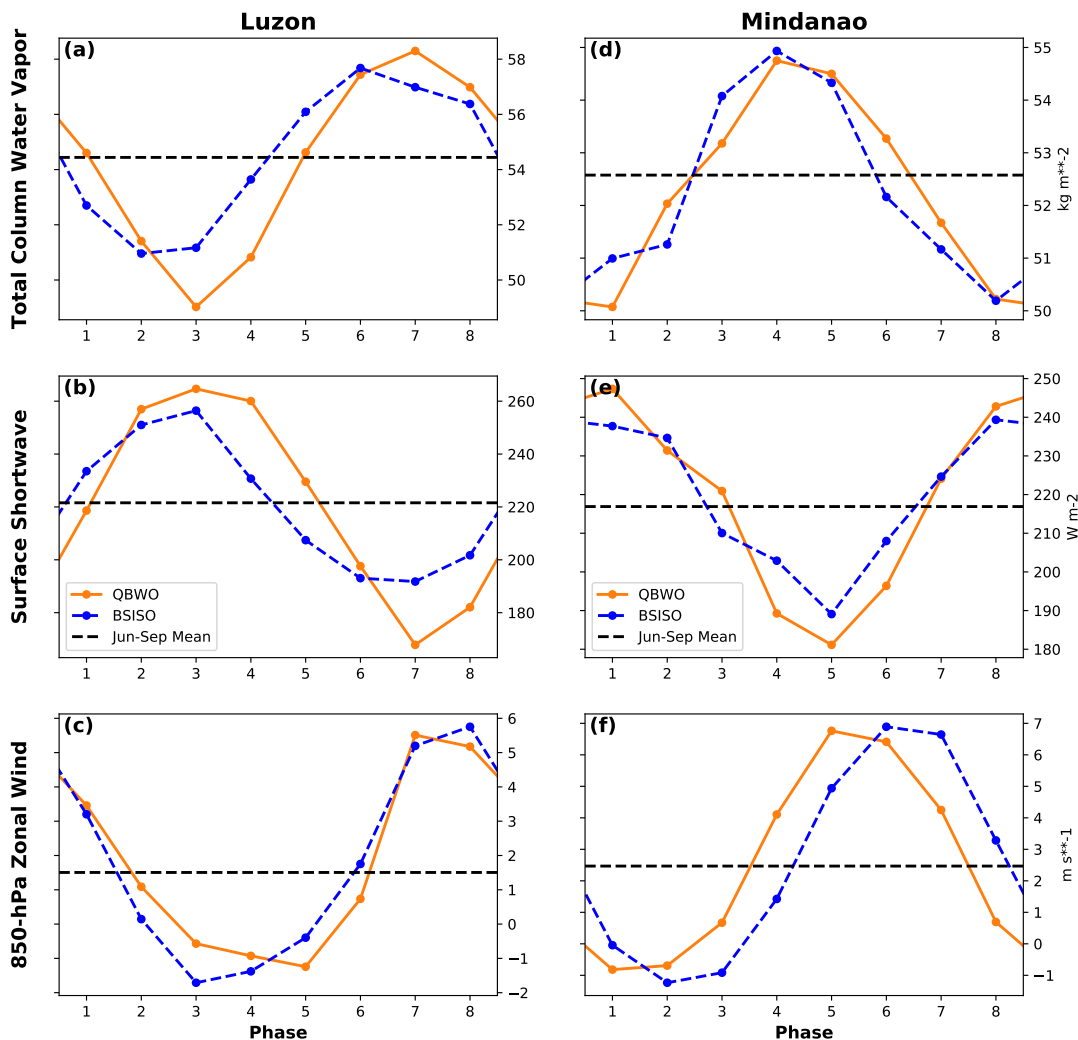


FIG. 15. Daily mean values of select variables from ERA5 composited by QBWO phase (solid, orange) and BSISO phase (dotted, blue), averaged over box L covering Luzon (left) and box M covering Mindanao (right). Total column water vapor (kg m^{-2}) is shown on top (a, d), downwelling shortwave radiation (W m^{-2}) at the surface in the middle row (b, e), and 850-hPa zonal wind (m s^{-2}) at the bottom (c, f). Corresponding JJAS mean values for each variable on each island are shown as a horizontal dotted black line.

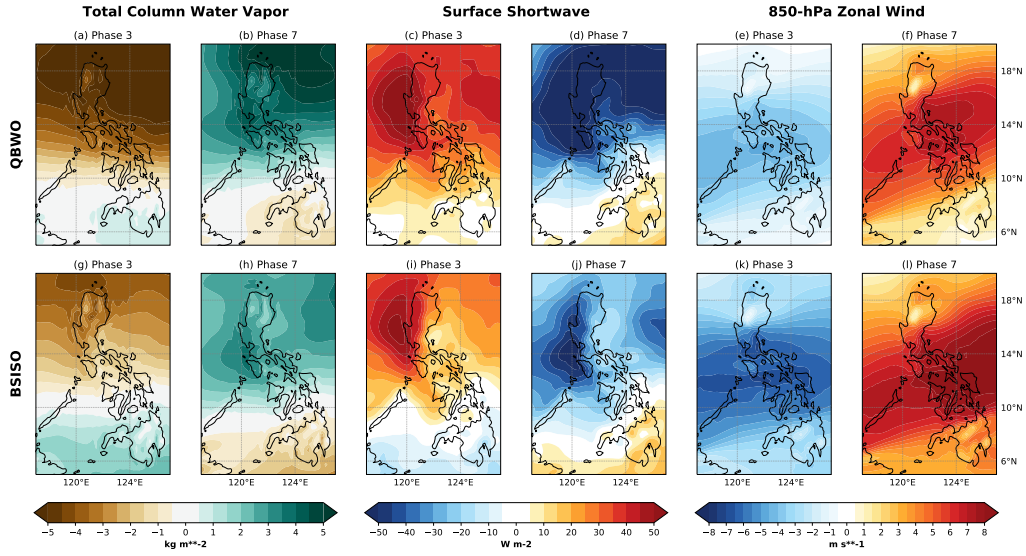


FIG. 16. Daily mean anomalies from JJAS average of select variables from ERA5 composited by QBWO phase (top) and BSISO phase (bottom) over the Philippines. For each variables, phase 3 of each index is shown at the left, and phase 7 at the right. The grouping of 4 panels at the left shows total column water vapor (kg m^{-2}), the middle grouping shows downwelling shortwave radiation (W m^{-2}) at the surface, and the right grouping shows 850-hPa zonal wind (m s^{-2}).