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**A change in the relation between the Subtropical Indian Ocean Dipole and the
South Atlantic Ocean Dipole indices in the past four decades**

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23 **Abstract**

24 We utilized the global atmospheric reanalysis (ERA5) and reconstructed sea
25 surface temperature (SST) data from 1979 through 2020 to examine the stability of
26 the relationship between the SST oscillations in the southern Indian and the Atlantic
27 Oceans described by the Subtropical Indian Ocean Dipole (SIOD) and the South
28 Atlantic Ocean Dipole (SAOD) indices. We note a significant positive correlation
29 between the two indices prior to the year 2000 but practically no correlation
30 afterwards. We show that in the two decades prior to 2000, a positive phase of SAOD
31 is associated with more convective activities over the subtropical southern Atlantic
32 Ocean and eastern Brazil, which trigger a stronger upper-atmosphere wavetrain, and
33 further produces stronger southern subtropical highs and surface anti-cyclonic
34 circulations and therefore a stronger correlation between the two indices. The
35 situation is reversed after 2000. Our results are potentially applicable for predictions
36 of precipitation in southern Africa and South America.

37 **1 Introduction**

38 A southwest-northeast-oriented dipole mode characterizes the anomalous sea
39 surface temperature (SST) patterns over the subtropical South Indian and Atlantic
40 Oceans (Wang, 2010). The former is referred to as the Subtropical Indian Ocean
41 Dipole (SIOD) mode (Behera and Yamagata, 2001) and the latter is named as the
42 South Atlantic Ocean Dipole (SAOD) mode (Venegas et al., 1997). The two
43 subtropical modes display similar seasonal variability with their peaks in austral
44 summer (Morioka et al., 2012). Surface latent heat flux anomalies play a vital role in

45 their variability (Sterl and Hazeleger, 2003; Suzuki et al., 2004; Hermes and Reason,
46 2005). Moreover, the interannual variability of the two modes has been linked to the
47 El Niño–Southern Oscillation (ENSO) (Boschat et al., 2013). The two subtropical
48 modes exert a great influence on precipitation in Africa and South America (Reason,
49 2001; 2002; Vigaud et al., 2009; Nnamchi and Li, 2011; Morioka et al., 2012; Wainer
50 et al., 2020) and, therefore, understanding the relationship between the two modes has
51 practical implications for precipitation forecasts in Africa and South America on
52 seasonal scale and beyond.

53 Using observational data, Fauchereau et al. (2003) noted the co-variability of the
54 SIOD and SAOD indices in austral summer. Hermes and Reason (2005) confirmed
55 the co-variability of the two indices and attributed it to an anomalous subtropical high.
56 Both studies suggested a linkage between the two indices and an atmospheric zonal
57 wavenumber-4 pattern in the Southern Hemisphere. Lin (2019) also suggested the
58 atmospheric zonal wavenumber-4 pattern controlling the South Atlantic–South Indian
59 Ocean SST pattern. The atmospheric wavenumber-4 was also observed in other
60 studies (Chiswell, 2021; Senapati, et al., 2021). The global wavenumber-4 pattern in
61 SST includes southern subtropical Indian and Atlantic Ocean components that
62 resemble the two subtropical dipole modes (Senapati et al., 2021). The linkage
63 between the SST patterns in the Southern Hemisphere ocean basins and their relation
64 with atmospheric wavenumber-4 pattern is a challenging and active research topic
65 worthy of further investigation.

66 Although previous studies have suggested that a relationship exists between the

67 SIOD and the SAOD indices, few have focused on the stability of the relationship. In
68 this study, we examine the SIOD-SAOD relationship over the past four decades from
69 1979 through 2020. We underscore a change in the relationship that occurred around
70 2000 and provide a physical explanation for the change.

71 **2 Datasets and methods**

72 Monthly SST data from the United States National Oceanic and Atmospheric
73 Administration (NOAA) Extended Reconstructed SST V5 (Huang et al., 2017) is the
74 primary dataset utilized to calculate the SIOD and SAOD indices. A secondary SST
75 data, the Kaplan Extended SST V2 data set from the UK Met Office (Kaplan et al.,
76 1998), is also used to confirm the results. Following previous studies, we derive the
77 SIOD index as the difference in the SST anomalies between the western (55-65°E,
78 37-27°S) and eastern (90-100°E, 28-18°S) subtropical Indian Ocean (Behera and
79 Yamagata, 2001) and the SAOD index as the difference of SST anomalies between
80 the south-western (10-30°W, 30-40°S) and north-eastern (0-20°W, 15-25°S) South
81 Atlantic Ocean (Morioka et al., 2011). Atmospheric data from the European Centre
82 for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) fifth-generation reanalysis (ERA5,
83 Hersbach et al., 2020) provide the upper-level (200-hPa) and surface atmospheric
84 variables used in our analyses except for the monthly top-of-atmosphere (TOA)
85 outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) that is from the NOAA Interpolated OLR dataset
86 (Liebmann and Smith, 1996). For SST or atmospheric variables, the anomalies refer
87 to the departure from their climatology computed as the 42-year averaged value.

88 Correlation and regression analyses are utilized to examine the relationship

89 between the SIOD and the SAOD indices. The confidence levels are determined by
90 the two-tailed Student's t test. Before the correlation or regression analyses are
91 applied to the data, the variables and indices are detrended. We also remove the
92 influence from the ENSO signal using the method proposed by An (2003), where the
93 ENSO signal is represented by the Niño 3.4 index. The generation and propagation of
94 planetary waves are identified on the basis of the Rossby wave source (RWS) and the
95 wave activity flux (WAF). The RWS is calculated following Sardeshmukh and
96 Hoskins (1988) and the WAF is derived using the method of Takaya and Nakamura
97 (2001). Notice that due to the peak of the SIOD and SAOD in February (Morioka et
98 al., 2012), the austral seasons in this study refer to summer (January-March), autumn
99 (April-June), winter (July-September), and spring (October-December).

100 **3 Results**

101 The regressed SIOD and SAOD indices on detrended SST anomalies display
102 southwest-northeast-oriented dipoles in the subtropical southern Indian Ocean (Figure
103 1a) and Atlantic Ocean (Figure 1b). The correlations between the SIOD and SAOD
104 indices over the 42-year period are 0.56 for austral summer ($p < 0.05$), becoming
105 insignificant in other seasons with correlation coefficients dropping by nearly half to
106 0.23 for austral autumn and winter and 0.25 for austral spring. Removing the ENSO
107 signal resulted in small changes in the correlations and their seasonal variations, with
108 summer being the only season when the two indices are significantly correlated (0.45,
109 $p < 0.01$) (Figure 1c). The Kaplan Extended SST V2 data yielded similar results, with
110 slightly lower summertime correlation coefficients of 0.49 (with ENSO signal) and

111 0.38 (without ENSO signal, $p < 0.05$). Henceforth, we focus on the summer time series
112 without the ENSO signal.

113 To assess the stability of the SIOD-SAOD correlation over the past four decades,
114 we calculate moving correlation of the two indices using 15-year and 20-year sliding
115 windows (Figure 1d). For the 15-year window, the correlation is above (below) the 95%
116 confidence level before (after) 1998 and for the 20-year sliding window the shifting
117 occurs in 2003. Similar results are obtained using the Kaplan Extended SST V2 data
118 (Figure 2). There is a remarkable difference in the correlation between the two indices
119 prior to and after 1999 (Figure 1d). For the 1979-1999 period, the correlation
120 coefficient is 0.64 ($p < 0.01$), dropping sharply to only 0.19 ($p > 0.05$) for the 2000-2020
121 period. Results derived using the Kaplan Extended SST V2 data are very similar, with
122 the correlation coefficients of 0.60 ($p < 0.01$) for the 1979-1999 period and 0.20
123 ($p > 0.05$) for the 2000-2020 period. This notable drop in the correlation between the
124 SIOD and SAOD indices from the first two decades to the next two warrants further
125 investigation. Below we explore the reasons behind the change.

126 We compare the regression maps of the Southern Hemisphere SST anomalies on
127 the summertime SAOD and SIOD indices for the 1979-1999 period with those for the
128 2000-2020 period (Figure 3). There are clear differences in the anomalous SST
129 patterns between the two periods. As a response to the positive phase of the SAOD
130 index, significant SST anomalies occur in the southern subtropical Indian Ocean
131 during the 1979-1999 period, with a spatial pattern (Figure 3a) closely resembling the
132 positive phase SIOD index (Figure 1a); however, the SST anomalies for the

133 2000-2020 period are not significant in the southern subtropical Indian Ocean (Figure
134 3b). Similarly, corresponding to the SIOD index, a dipole of significant SST
135 anomalies appears in the South Atlantic Ocean (Figure 3c) for the 1979-1999 period
136 that bear strong resemblance to the positive phase SAOD pattern (Figure 1b), whereas
137 for the 2000-2020 period, the SST anomalies are insignificant (Figure 3d). These
138 results confirm the strong correlation between the SAOD and SIOD indices during the
139 first two decades and the lack of correlation in the last two decades, separated by the
140 turn of the century. The SST anomalies in Figure 3 display the appearance of the SST
141 wavenumber-4 mode (Senapati et al., 2021), including the SIOD and SAOD pattern.
142 Senapati et al. (2022) suggested that the weakening of the SST wavenumber-4 pattern
143 after 2000 is related to South Pacific Meridonal Mode. In addition, the weaker
144 SIOD-SAOD relationship after 2000 may be related to the decadal variability of a
145 warm pool dipole, with opposite SST anomalies in the southeastern Indian Ocean and
146 the western-central tropical Pacific Ocean (Zhang et al., 2021).

147 Lin (2019) related a South Atlantic-South Indian Ocean pattern to a wavetrain
148 induced by the South Atlantic Convergence Zone anomaly. We hypothesize that the
149 stability of the SAOD-SIOD relation may also be related to the strength of the
150 wavetrain. To test this hypothesis, we examine the regression patterns of several
151 atmospheric variables related to convective and wave activities (OLR, RWS, WAF,
152 200-hPa divergent wind, and streamfunction) to the SAOD index in austral summer
153 separately for the 1979-1999 period and the 2000-2020 period (Figure 4). Over the
154 1979-1999 period, corresponding to the positive phase of the SAOD index,

155 convective activities are enhanced over the southern subtropical Atlantic Ocean and
156 eastern Brazil, which are flanked by suppressed convective activities over tropical and
157 mid-latitude South Atlantic Ocean (Figure 4a). The convective activities over western
158 subtropical southern Atlantic Ocean and eastern Brazil produce positive RWS and
159 200-hPa divergent wind (Figure 4c), which trigger a wavetrain propagating
160 southeastwards into the South Atlantic Ocean, and then eastwards into the South
161 Indian Ocean, Australia and the South Pacific Ocean (Figure 4e). The wavetrain
162 generates negative streamfunction anomalies over the South Indian and Atlantic
163 Oceans (Figure 4e). In contrast, over the 2000-2020 period, the magnitude of the
164 anomalous OLR is less significant than that over the 1979-1999 period (Figure 4b).
165 Weaker RWS and upper level divergent wind (Figure 4d) indicate a weaker wavetrain,
166 which results in weaker streamfunction anomalies over the South Atlantic and Indian
167 Oceans (Figure 4f).

168 Although the magnitudes of the OLR anomalies related to the SAOD index are
169 comparable over the two periods (Figure 4a and 4b), the anomalous OLR and RWS
170 and the related wavetrain associated with the SAOD index are substantially different
171 between the two periods. The differences in the climatological conditions over the two
172 periods may provide a plausible explanation. For example, over the subtropical
173 southern Atlantic Ocean and most of Brazil, the climatological OLR anomalies are
174 generally negative during the 1979-1999 period, suggesting stronger convective
175 activity favorable for the generation of the wavetrain (Figure 5a), but in contrast, OLR
176 anomalies are mostly positive during 2000-2020, indicating suppressed convective

177 activities unfavorable for the formation of the wavetrain (Figure 5b). Thus, the
178 interdecadal variability of the OLR activities can modulate the effect of the SAOD
179 mode on atmospheric circulation patterns over other ocean basins.

180 The SAOD and SIOD modes are related to the subtropical highs in the South
181 Atlantic and Indian Oceans, with stronger high corresponding to the positive phase of
182 the two indices due to wind-induced evaporation (Wang, 2010; Behera and Yamagata,
183 2001; Venegas et al., 1997). We proceed to examine the climatological mean sea level
184 pressure and surface wind field related to the aforementioned wavetrain over the two
185 periods (Figure 6). The position and strength of the climatological subtropical highs
186 and the associated surface winds in the southern Indian and the Atlantic Oceans show
187 little difference over the two periods (Figure 6a and 6b). However, the regression of
188 the mean sea level pressure to the SAOD index for the two periods show considerably
189 stronger subtropical highs and anti-cyclonic circulations in the South Atlantic and the
190 Indian Oceans over the 1979-1999 period than the 2000-2020 period (Figure 6c and
191 6d). According to the study of Hermes and Reason (2005), a stronger subtropical high
192 favors larger magnitude of the SST anomalies represented by the SAOD and SIOD
193 indices. The large decrease in the strength of the summertime subtropical high
194 associated with SAOD from the first two decades to the next two (Figure 6c, 6d)
195 corroborates the sharp drop in the SAOD-SIOD correlation (Figure 1d).

196 Similarly, we have also obtained the patterns of the aforementioned atmospheric
197 circulation variables associated with the SIOD index separately for the two periods
198 (Figure 7). During 1979-1999, negative OLR anomalies occur over the northern South

199 America, corresponding to upper-level divergent wind and positive RWS anomalies,
200 while positive OLR anomalies exist over the southern Atlantic Ocean, leading to
201 upper-level convergent wind and negative RWS anomalies (Figure 7a and 7c). Those
202 anomalous RWSs produce an anomalous Rossby wavetrain propagating from the
203 southern Atlantic Ocean to southern Indian Ocean (Figure 7e). During 2000-2020,
204 negative (positive) OLR anomalies over the tropical (subtropical) central Pacific
205 Ocean generate anomalous upper-level winds and RWSs, which excite a wavetrain
206 propagating from the Pacific to South America and the southwestern South Atlantic
207 Ocean (Figure 7b, 7d, and 7f). Meanwhile, stronger convective activities over the
208 southwestern Indian Ocean and weaker convective activities over central Indian
209 Ocean also produce anomalous RWSs, which trigger a local wavetrain propagating
210 eastwards into Australia. However, the two wavetrains are controlled by different
211 factors and are not connected to each other over the South Atlantic Ocean. We also
212 examine the MSLP and surface wind field related to the SIOD index in austral
213 summer for the 1979-1999 and 2000-2020 periods (Figure 8). Over the 1979-1999
214 period, stronger subtropical highs develop over the South Indian and Atlantic Oceans,
215 which induce the positive phase of the SIOD and SAOD modes, respectively (Figure
216 8a), suggesting that the SIOD and SAOD index is connected to each other through the
217 aforementioned wavetrain (Figure 7e). Over the 2000-2020 period, positive MSLP
218 anomalies and anomalous anticyclonic circulation dominate over the South Indian
219 Ocean, though negative MSLP anomalies and anomalous cyclonic circulation occur
220 over the southwestern South Indian Ocean (Figure 8b). The atmospheric circulation

221 anomalies over the South Indian Ocean are related to the OLR anomalies and induced
222 a local wavetrain (Figure 7b, 7d and 7f). The positive MSLP anomalies and
223 anticyclonic circulation anomalies are absent over the South Atlantic Ocean (Figure
224 8b). These results indicate that the SIOD mode over the 2000-2020 period is related to
225 local convective activities, not to those over the South Atlantic Ocean.

226 **4 Conclusion and discussion**

227 In this study, we examined the relation between the oscillations of the SST in the
228 subtropical South Indian and the Atlantic Oceans described by the SIOD and SAOD
229 indices and the stability of the relation using the ERA5 global atmospheric reanalysis
230 and reconstructed SST data from 1979 through 2020. We found significant relation
231 between the two indices in austral summer. Through moving correlation analyses, we
232 discovered that the relation in austral summer was not stable for the past four decades.
233 Specifically, the correlation between the two indices was significant prior to 2000 but
234 insignificant afterwards. The change in the relation between the two indices is
235 attributed to a change in the strength of the atmospheric wavetrain induced by
236 anomalous convective activity over the subtropical southern Atlantic Ocean and
237 eastern Brazil. More frequent and stronger convective activities prior to 2000 excited
238 stronger wavetrain, which produced stronger subtropical highs during the positive
239 phase of SAOD, resulting in a stronger relation between the two indices. The opposite
240 occurred after 2000.

241 The interdecadal variability of OLR over the subtropical South America and
242 Atlantic Ocean is the key to the relation between the SAOD and SIOD indices. What

243 determined the OLR anomalies in the region prior to and after 2000 needs to be
244 further investigated. Hermes and Reason (2005) suggested that the southern
245 subtropical high is related to the Antarctic Oscillation (AAO) and the linkage
246 strengthened after mid-1970s. The influence of the change in the AAO index on the
247 relation between the SAOD and the SIOD indices needs to be assessed. Yu et al.
248 (2017) noted a phase change of the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO) and the
249 Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) indices in the late 1990s, with PDO shifting from
250 positive to negative and AMO switching from negative to positive around 1999. Dong
251 and Dai (2015) noted the influence of IPO on precipitation in Brazil. However, the
252 influence from the same phase of the IPO has great uncertainty and depends on the
253 period and dataset (Dong and Dai, 2015). Jones and Carvalho (2018) suggested more
254 precipitation in Brazil during the negative phase of the AMO than during its positive
255 phase. Longer datasets are utilized to examine the effect of the IPO and AMO on
256 convective activity over the subtropical South America and Atlantic Ocean on the
257 interdecadal time scale. Although our results are only based on statistical analyses,
258 they have potential for improving the prediction of precipitation in southern Africa
259 and South America.

260 *Data Availability*

261 The monthly SST data from the U.S. NOAA Extended Reconstructed Sea Surface
262 Temperature (ERSST) version 5 (ERSST v5) are available online
263 (<https://www1.ncdc.noaa.gov/pub/data/cmb/ersst/v5/netcdf/>). Kaplan Extended SST
264 V2 data are derived from below website

265 (https://psl.noaa.gov/cgi-bin/db_search/DBSearch.pl?Dataset=Kaplan+Extended+SST
266 +V2&Variable=Sea+Surface+Temperature). The monthly ERA5 reanalysis data are
267 available from the Copernicus Climate Data Store
268 (<https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/datasets/reanalysis-datasets/era5>). The monthly
269 OLR data are derived from the NOAA Interpolated OLR
270 (https://psl.noaa.gov/cgi-bin/db_search/DBSearch.pl?Dataset=NOAA+Interpolated+O
271 LR&Variable=Outgoing+Longwave+Radiation).

272 *Acknowledgments*

273 We thank the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) for
274 the ERA5 data. This study is financially supported by the National Key R&D
275 Program of China (2022YFE0106300), the National Science Foundation of China
276 (41941009), and the European Commission H2020 project Polar Regions in the Earth
277 System (PolarRES; Grant101003590).

278 *Author contributions.* LY designed the research, analyzed the data, and wrote the first
279 draft of the paper. S Z and TV revised the first draft and provided useful insights
280 during various stages of the work. CS and BS provided some comments and helped
281 with editing the paper.

282 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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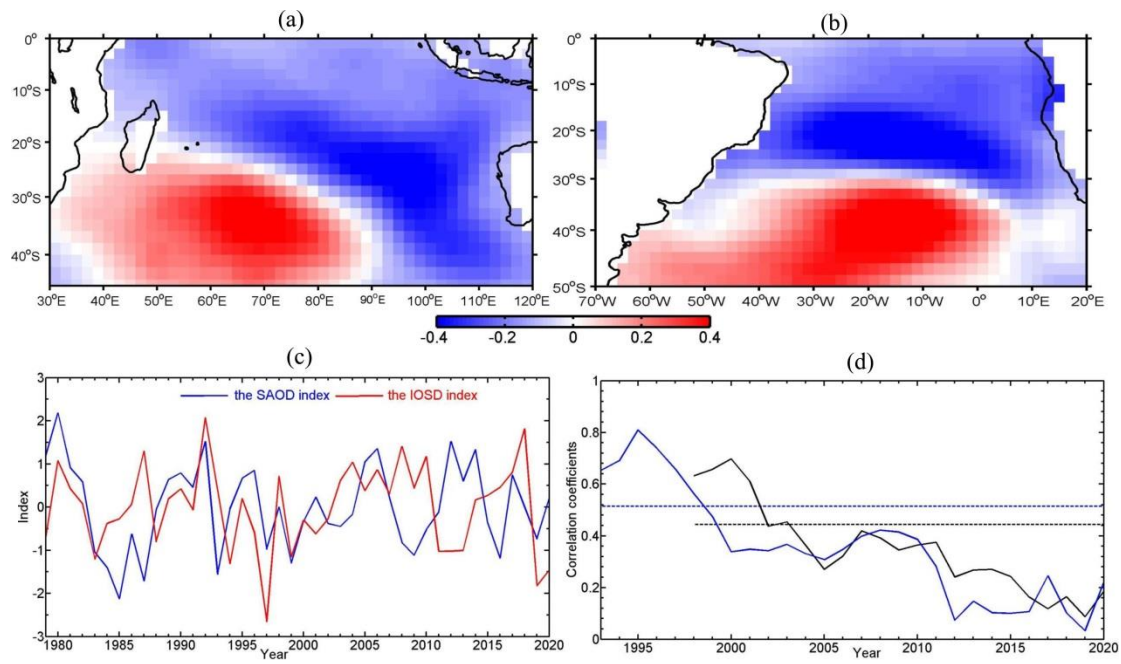
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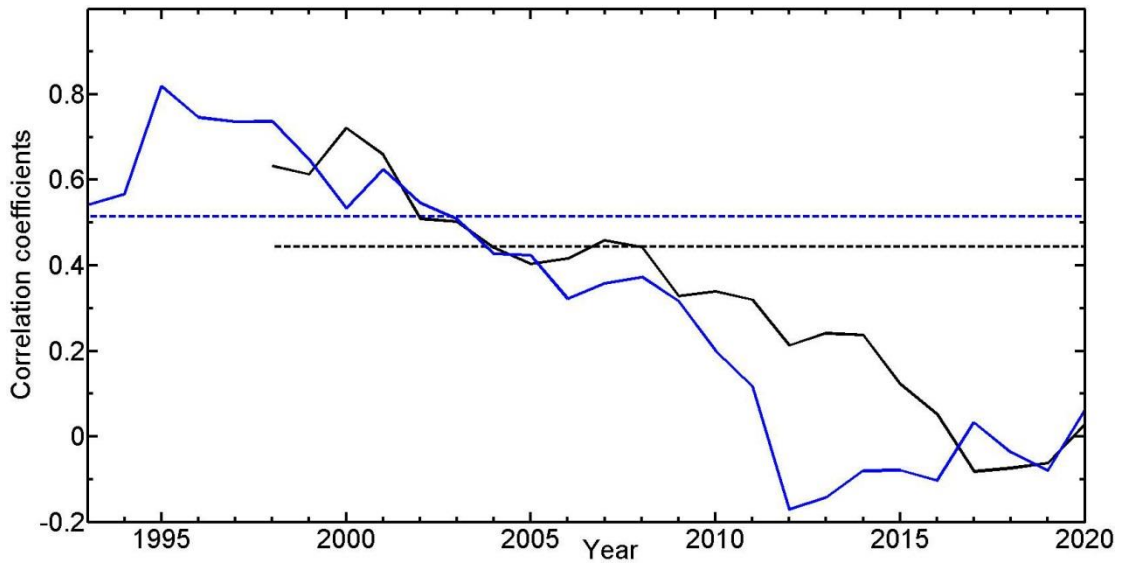
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374 Figure 1. Regression patterns of austral summer (JFM) SST anomalies ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) on the positive phase
 375 of the summertime indices of (a) the Subtropical Indian Ocean Dipole (SIOD), (b) the South
 376 Atlantic Ocean Dipole (SAOD), (c) their time coefficients, and (d) the moving correlations
 377 between the detrended and ENSO-signal-removed SIOD and SAOD indices (time coefficients)
 378 using a 20-year (black solid line) and a 15-year (blue solid line) sliding window. In (d), the dashed
 379 lines denote the correlation coefficients with the 95% confidence level for 20 (black) and 15 (blue)
 380 samples and the abscissa indicates the end year of the moving correlations. The above results are
 381 derived using the NOAA Extended Reconstructed SST V5 data.

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385 Figure 2 Moving correlations of the detrended and ENSO-signal-removed SIOD and SAOD
386 indices using a 20-year (black solid line) and a 15-year (blue solid line) sliding window. Dashed
387 lines denote the correlation coefficients with the 95% confidence level for 20 (black) and 15 (blue)
388 samples. Abscissa indicates the end year of the moving correlations. The above results are
389 obtained using the Kaplan Extended SST V2 data.

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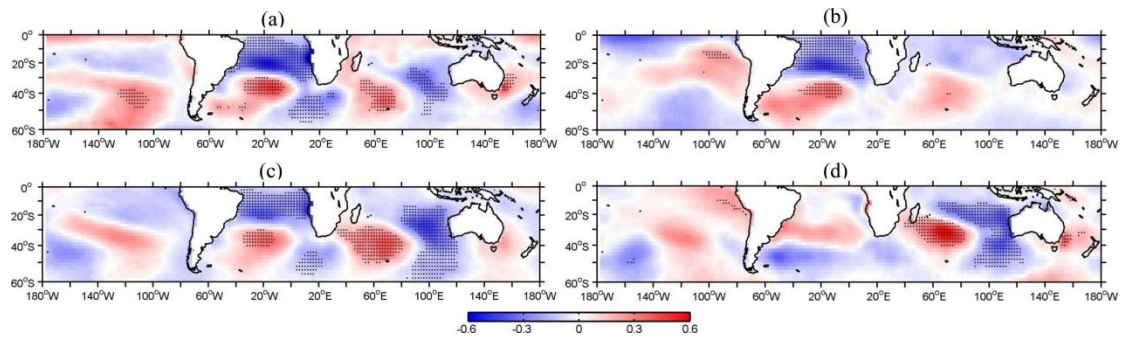
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Figure 3. Regression maps of the SST anomalies ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) onto the summertime indices of (a), (b) SAOD and (c), (d) SIOD, over the periods of (a), (c) 1979-1999 and (b), (d) 2000-2020. Dots denote the regions of above 95% confidence level.

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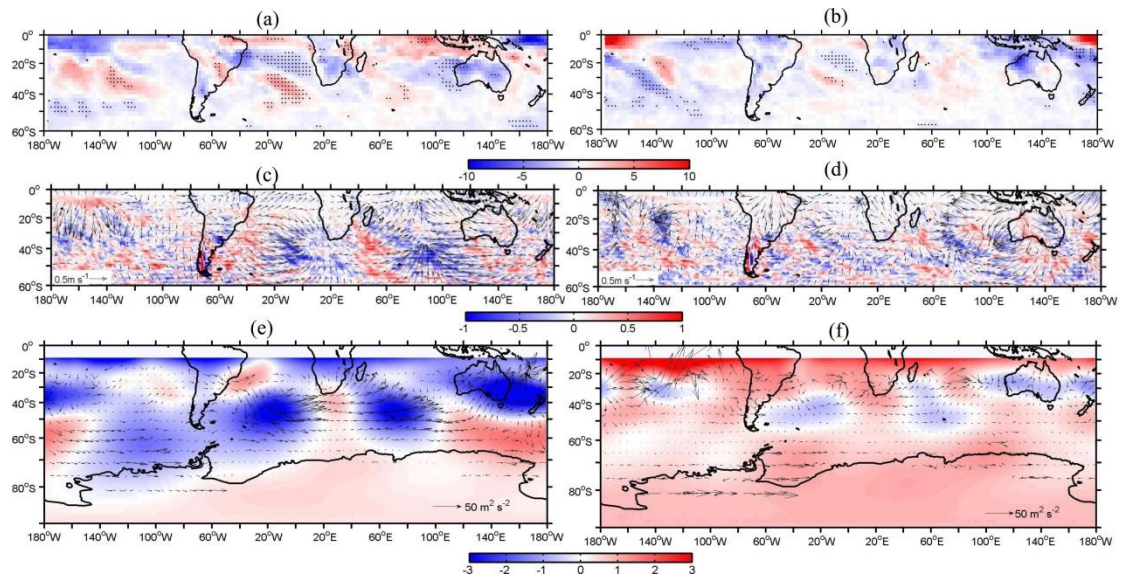
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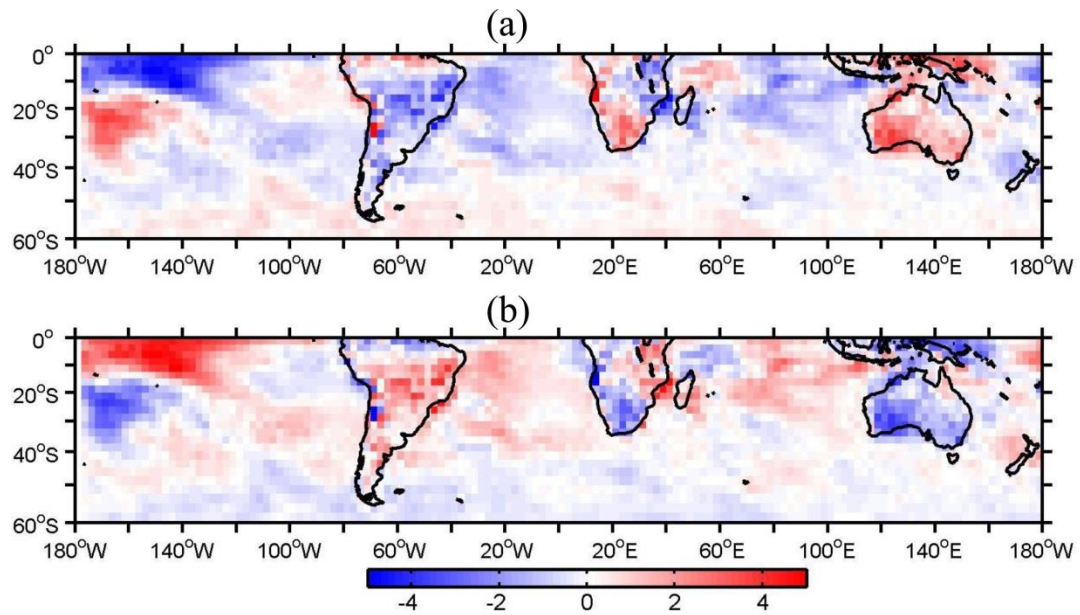
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Figure 4. Regression maps of (a), (b) the anomalous outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) (W m^{-2}) at the top of the atmosphere, (c), (d) Rossby wave source (RWS) (10^{-10}s^{-2}) and 200-hPa divergent wind (vector), and (e), (f) wave activity flux (WAF) (vector) and streamfunction ($\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$) onto the summertime SAOD index over the periods of (a), (c), (e) 1979-1999 and (b), (d), (f) 2000-2020.



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478 Figure 5. Climatological OLR anomalies (W m^{-2}) during (a) 1979-1999 and (b) 2000-2020, with
 479 respect to the 42-year climatology over the 1979-2020 period.

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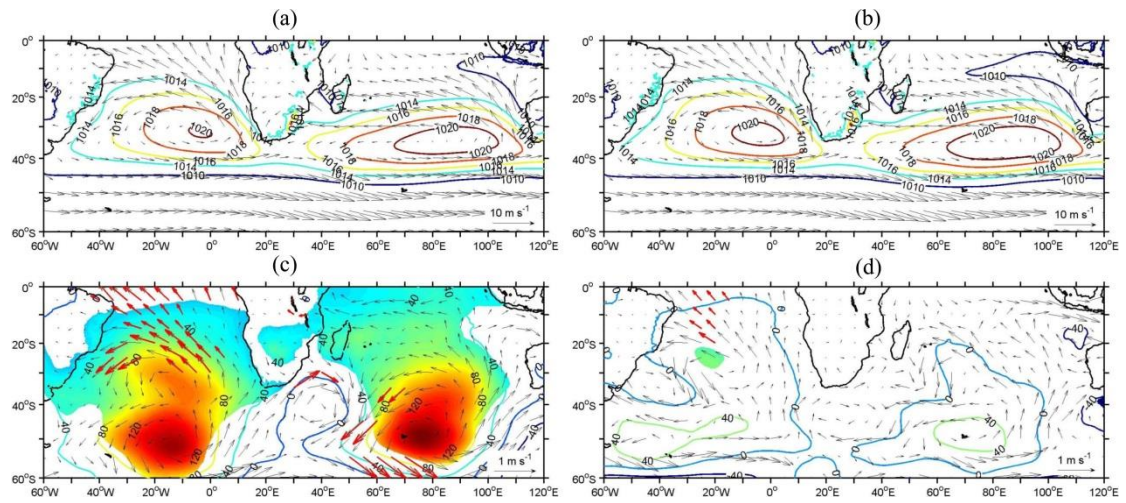
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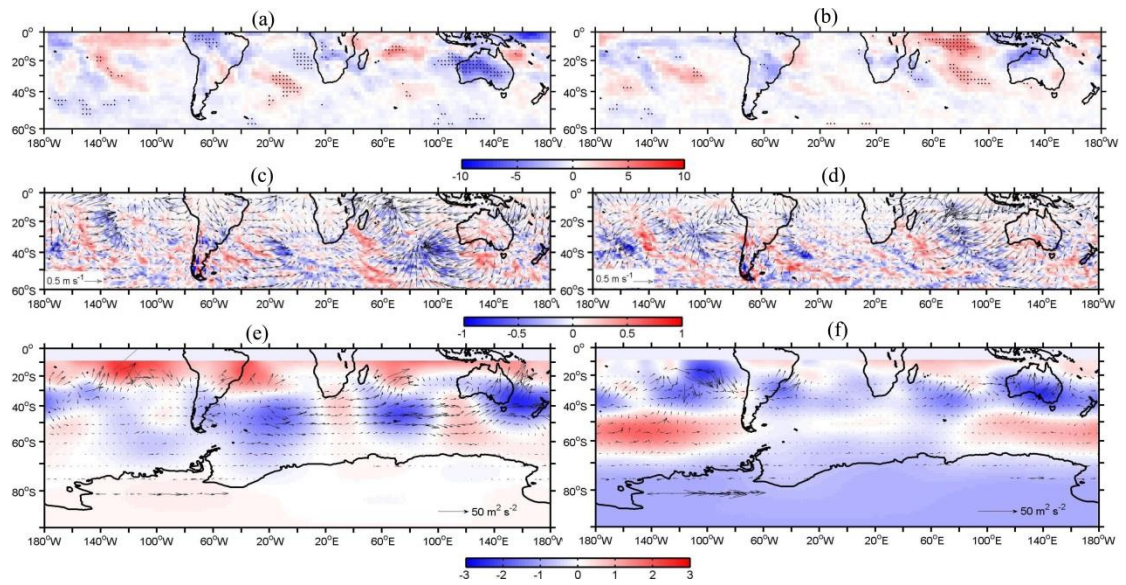
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Figure 6. Climatological mean sea level pressure (MSLP, in hPa) and 10-m wind field (vector) over the periods of (a) 1979-1999 and (b) 2000-2020, and regression maps of MSLP (in Pa) and 10-m wind field (vector) onto the summertime SAOD index over the periods of (c) 1979-1999 and (d) 2000-2020. Shaded regions and red vectors indicate above 95% confidence level.



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530 Figure 7. Regression maps of (a), (b) OLR ($W m^{-2}$), (c), (d) RWS ($10^{-10} s^{-2}$) and 200-hPa
 531 divergent wind (vector), (e), (f) WAF (vector) and streamfunction ($m^2 s^{-1}$) onto the summertime
 532 SIOD index over the 1979-1999 period (a), (c), (e) and the 2000-2020 period (b), (d), (f).

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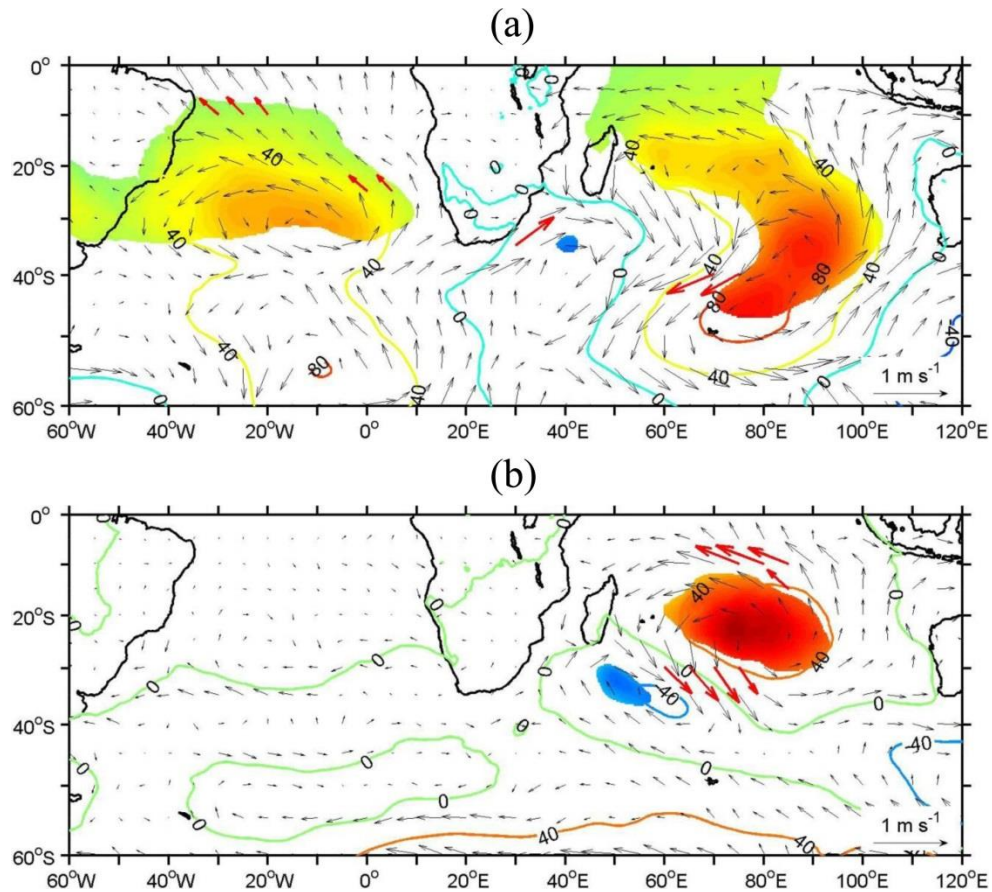
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556 Figure 8. Regression maps of MSLP (in Pa) and 10-m wind field (vector) onto the summertime
 557 SIOD index over the periods of (a) 1979-1999 and (b) 2000-2020. Shaded regions and red vectors
 558 indicate above 95% confidence level.

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