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2 **A change in the relation between the Subtropical Indian Ocean Dipole and the**

3 **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 El
47 Niño–Southern Oscillation (ENSO) (Boschat et al., 2013). The two subtropical modes
48 exert a great influence on precipitation in Africa and South America (Reason, 2001;
49 2002; Vigaud et al., 2009; Nnamchi and Li, 2011; Morioka et al., 2012; Wainer et al.,
50 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 wave number-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) are
74 utilized to calculate the SIOD and SAOD indices. To confirm the results, we also use
75 the Kaplan Extended SST V2 data set from the UK Met Office (Kaplan et al., 1998).
76 Following previous studies, we derive the SOD index as the difference in the SST
77 anomalies between the western (55-65°E, 37-27°S) and eastern (90-100°E, 28-18°S)
78 subtropical Indian Ocean (Behera and Yamagata, 2001) and the SAOD index as the
79 difference of SST anomalies between the south-western (10-30°W, 30-40°S) and
80 north-eastern (0-20°W, 15-25°S) South Atlantic Ocean (Morioka et al., 2011).
81 Atmospheric data from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts
82 (ECMWF) fifth-generation reanalysis (ERA5, Hersbach et al., 2020) provide 200-hPa
83 and surface atmospheric variables. We also employ monthly top-of-atmosphere (TOA)
84 outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) from the NOAA Interpolated OLR dataset
85 (Liebmann and Smith, 1996).

86 Correlation and regression analyses are utilized to examine the relationship
87 between the SIOD and the SAOD indices. The confidence levels are determined by
88 the two-tailed Student's *t* test. Before the correlation or regression analyses are



89 applied to the data, the variables and indices are detrended. We also remove the
90 influence from the ENSO signal using the method proposed by An (2003), where the
91 ENSO signal is represented by the Niño 3.4 index. The generation and propagation of
92 planetary waves are identified on the basis of the Rossby wave source (RWS) and the
93 wave activity flux (WAF). The RWS is calculated following Sardeshmukh and
94 Hoskins (1988) and the WAF is derived using the method of Takaya and Nakamura
95 (2001). Notice that due to the peak of the SIOD and SAOD in February (Morioka et
96 al., 2012), the austral seasons in this study refer to summer (January-March), autumn
97 (April-June), winter (July-September), and spring (October-December).

98 **3 Results**

99 The spatial patterns of temporal anomalies of SST depicted by SIOD and SAOD
100 indices display southwest-northeast-oriented dipoles in the subtropical southern
101 Indian Ocean (SIOD, Figure 1a) and Atlantic Ocean (SAOD, Figure 1b). Using the
102 NOAA Extended Reconstructed SST V5 data, the correlations between the SIOD and
103 SAOD indices over the 42-year period are 0.56 for austral summer ($p < 0.05$),
104 becoming insignificant in other seasons with correlation coefficients dropping by
105 nearly half to 0.23 for austral autumn and winter and 0.25 for austral spring.
106 Removing the ENSO signal resulted in small changes in the correlations and their
107 seasonal variations, with summer being the only season when the two indices are
108 significantly correlated (0.45, $p < 0.01$) (Figure 1c). The Kaplan Extended SST V2 data
109 yielded similar results, with slightly lower summertime correlation coefficients: 0.49
110 (with ENSO signal) and 0.38 (without ENSO signal, $p < 0.05$). Henceforth, we focus



111 on the summer time series without the ENSO signal.

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

125 We compare the regression maps of the Southern Hemisphere SST anomalies onto
126 the summertime SAOD and SIOD indices for the 1979-1999 period with those for the
127 2000-2020 period (Figure 3). There are clear differences in the anomalous SST
128 patterns between the two periods. As a response to the positive phase of the SAOD
129 index, significant SST anomalies occur in the southern subtropical Indian Ocean
130 during the 1979-1999 period, with a spatial pattern(Figure 3a) closely resembling the
131 positive phase SIOD index (Figure 1a); however, the SST anomalies for the
132 2000-2020 period are not significant in the southern subtropical Indian Ocean(Figure



133 3b). Similarly, corresponding to the SIOD index, a dipole of significant SST
134 anomalies appears in the South Atlantic Ocean (Figure 3c) for the 1979-1999 period
135 that bear strong resemblance to the positive phase SAOD pattern (Figure 1b), whereas
136 for the 2000-2020 period, the SST anomalies are insignificant (Figure 3d). These
137 results confirm the strong correlation between the SAOD and SIOD indices during the
138 first two decades and the lack of correlation in last two decades, separated by the turn
139 of the century.

140 Lin (2019) related a South Atlantic-South Indian Ocean pattern to a wavetrain
141 induced by the South Atlantic Convergence Zone anomaly. We hypothesize that the
142 stability of the SAOD-SIOD relation may also be related to the strength of the
143 wavetrain. To test this hypothesis, we examine the regression patterns of several
144 atmospheric variables related to convective and wave activities (OLR, RWS, WAF,
145 200-hPa divergent wind, and streamfunction), to the SAOD index in austral summer
146 separately for the 1979-1999 period and the 2000-2020 period (Figure 4). Over the
147 1979-1999 period, corresponding to the positive phase of the SAOD index,
148 convective activities are enhanced over the southern subtropical Atlantic Ocean and
149 eastern Brazil, which are flanked by suppressed convective activities over tropical and
150 mid-latitude South Atlantic Ocean (Figure 4a). The convective activities over western
151 subtropical southern Atlantic Ocean and eastern Brazil produce positive RWS and
152 200-hPa divergent wind (Figure 4c), which trigger a wavetrain propagating
153 southeastwards into the South Atlantic Ocean, and then eastwards into the South
154 Indian Ocean, Australia and the South Pacific Ocean (Figure 4e). The wavetrain



155 generates negative streamfunction anomalies over the South Indian and Atlantic
156 Oceans (Figure 4e). In contrast, over the 2000-2020 period, the magnitude of the
157 anomalous OLR is less significant than that over the 1979-1999 period (Figure 4b).
158 Weaker RWS and upper level divergent wind (Figure 4d) indicate a weaker wavetrain,
159 which results in weaker streamfunction anomalies over the South Atlantic and Indian
160 Oceans (Figure 4f).

161 Although the magnitudes of the SST anomalies related to the SAOD index are
162 comparable over the two periods (Figure 4a and 4b), the anomalous OLR and RWS
163 and the related wavetrain associated with the SAOD index are substantially different
164 between the two periods. The differences in the climatological conditions over the two
165 periods may provide a plausible explanation. For example, over the subtropical
166 southern Atlantic Ocean and most of Brazil, OLR anomalies are generally negative
167 during the 1979-1999 period, suggesting stronger convective activity favorable for the
168 generation of the wavetrain (Figure 5a), but in contrast, OLR anomalies are mostly
169 positive during 2000-2020, indicating suppressed convective activities unfavorable
170 for the formation of the wavetrain (Figure 5b). Thus, the interdecadal variability of
171 the OLR activities can modulate the effect of the SAOD mode on atmospheric
172 circulation patterns over other ocean basins.

173 Similarly, we have also obtained the patterns of the aforementioned atmospheric
174 circulation variables associated with the SIOD index separately for the two periods
175 (Figure 6). During 1979-1999, the anomalous OLR, RWS and 200-hPa divergent
176 wind fields favor the causal chain for the wavetrain generation, but this is not the case



177 during 2000-2020.

178 The SAOD and SIOD modes are related to the subtropical highs in the South
179 Atlantic and Indian Oceans, with stronger high corresponding to the positive phase of
180 the two indices due to wind-induced evaporation (Wang, 2010; Behera and Yamagata,
181 2001; Venegas et al., 1997). We proceed to examine the climatological mean sea level
182 pressure and surface wind field related to the aforementioned wavetrain over the two
183 periods (Figure 7). The position and strength of the climatological subtropical highs
184 and the associated surface winds in the southern Indian and the Atlantic Oceans show
185 little difference over the two periods (Figure 7a and 7b). However, the regression of
186 the mean sea level pressure to the SAOD index for the two periods show considerably
187 stronger subtropical highs and anti-cyclonic circulations in the South Atlantic and the
188 Indian Oceans over the 1979-1999 period than the 2000-2020 period (Figure 7c and
189 7d). According to the study of Hermes and Reason (2005), a stronger subtropical high
190 favors larger magnitude of the SST anomalies represented by the SAOD and SIOD
191 indices. The large decrease in the strength of the summertime subtropical high
192 associated with SAOD from the first two decades to the next two (Figure 7c, 7d)
193 corroborates the sharp drop in the SAOD-SIOD correlation (Figure 1d).

194 **4 Conclusion and discussion**

195 In this study, we examined the relation between the oscillations of the SST in the
196 subtropical South Indian and the Atlantic Oceans described by the SIOD and SAOD
197 indices and the stability of the relation using the ERA5 global atmospheric reanalysis
198 and reconstructed SST data from 1979 through 2020. We found significant relation



199 between the two indices in austral summer. Through moving correlation analyses, we
200 discovered that the relation in austral summer was not stable for the past four decades.
201 Specifically, the correlation between the two indices was significant prior to 2000 but
202 insignificant afterwards. The change in the relation between the two indices is
203 attributed to a change in the strength of the atmospheric wavetrain induced by
204 anomalous convective activity over the subtropical southern Atlantic Ocean and
205 eastern Brazil. More convective activities prior to 2000 excited stronger wavetrain,
206 which produced stronger subtropical highs during the positive phase of SAOD,
207 resulting in a stronger relation between the two indices. The opposite occurred after
208 2000.

209 The interdecadal variability of OLR over the subtropical South America and
210 Atlantic Ocean is key to the relation between the SAOD and SIOD indices. What
211 determined the OLR anomalies in the region prior to and after 2000 needs to be
212 further investigated. Hermes and Reason (2005) suggested that the southern
213 subtropical high is related to the Antarctic Oscillation (AAO) and the linkage
214 strengthened after mid-1970s. The influence of the change in the AAO index on the
215 relation between the SAOD and the SIOD indices needs to be assessed. Yu et al.
216 (2017) noted a phase change of the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO) and the
217 Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) indices in the late 1990s, with PDO shifting from
218 positive to negative and AMO switching from negative to positive around 1999. Dong
219 and Dai (2015) noted the influence of IPO on precipitation in Brazil. However, the
220 influence from the same phase of the IPO has great uncertainty and depends on the



221 period and dataset (Dong and Dai, 2015). Jones and Carvalho (2018) suggested more
222 precipitation in Brazil during the negative phase of the AMO than during its positive
223 phase. Longer datasets are utilized to examine the effect of the IPO and AMO on
224 convective activity over the subtropical South America and Atlantic Ocean on the
225 interdecadal time scale. Although our results are only based on statistical analyses,
226 they have potential for improving the prediction of precipitation in southern Africa
227 and South America.

228 *Data Availability*

229 The monthly SST data from the U.S. NOAA Extended Reconstructed Sea Surface
230 Temperature (ERSST) version 5 (ERSST v5) are available online
231 (<https://www1.ncdc.noaa.gov/pub/data/cmb/ersst/v5/netcdf/>). Kaplan Extended SST
232 V2 data are derived from below website
233 ([https://psl.noaa.gov/cgi-bin/db_search/DBSearch.pl?Dataset=Kaplan+Extended+SST](https://psl.noaa.gov/cgi-bin/db_search/DBSearch.pl?Dataset=Kaplan+Extended+SST+V2&Variable=Sea+Surface+Temperature)
234 [+V2&Variable=Sea+Surface+Temperature](https://psl.noaa.gov/cgi-bin/db_search/DBSearch.pl?Dataset=Kaplan+Extended+SST+V2&Variable=Sea+Surface+Temperature)). The monthly ERA5 reanalysis data are
235 available from the Copernicus Climate Data Store
236 (<https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/datasets/reanalysis-datasets/era5>). The monthly
237 OLR data are derived from the NOAA Interpolated OLR
238 ([https://psl.noaa.gov/cgi-bin/db_search/DBSearch.pl?Dataset=NOAA+Interpolated+O](https://psl.noaa.gov/cgi-bin/db_search/DBSearch.pl?Dataset=NOAA+Interpolated+OLR&Variable=Outgoing+Longwave+Radiation)
239 [LR&Variable=Outgoing+Longwave+Radiation](https://psl.noaa.gov/cgi-bin/db_search/DBSearch.pl?Dataset=NOAA+Interpolated+OLR&Variable=Outgoing+Longwave+Radiation)).

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

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

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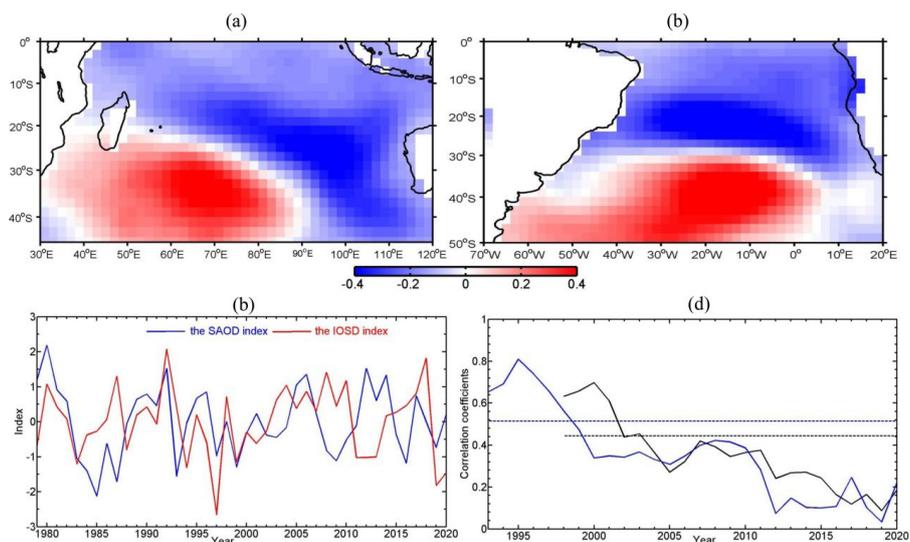
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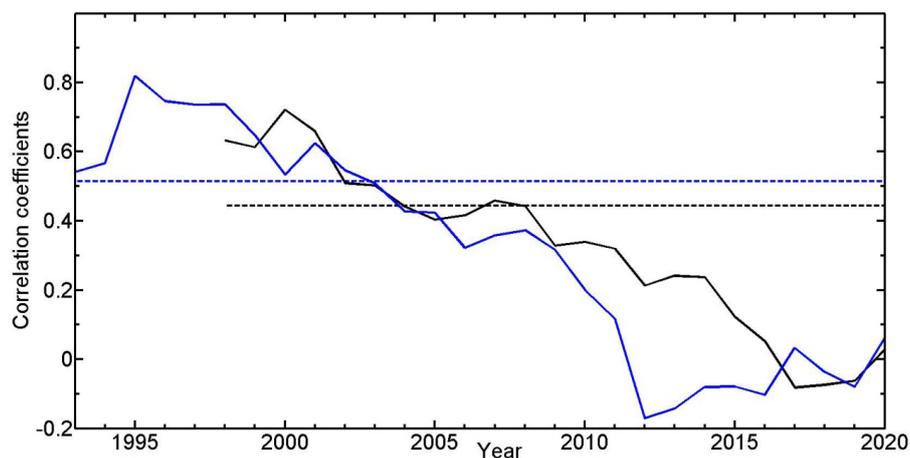
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348 Figure 1. Spatial patterns of austral summer (JFM) SST anomalies ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) for the positive phases of
349 the indices of (a) the Subtropical Indian Ocean Dipole (SIOD), (b) the South Atlantic Ocean
350 Dipole (SAOD), and (c) their time coefficients, as well as (d) the moving correlations between
351 the detrended and ENSO-signal-removed SIOD and SAOD indices (time coefficients) using the
352 20-year sliding window (black solid line) and 15-year sliding window (blue solid line). In (d),
353 dashed lines denote the correlation coefficients with the 95% confidence level for 20 samples
354 (black line) and 15 samples (blue line) and the abscissa indicates the end year of the moving
355 correlations. The above results are derived using the NOAA Extended Reconstructed SST V5 data.

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377 Figure 2 Moving correlations of the IOSD and SAOD indices using the 20-year sliding window
378 (black solid line) and 15-year sliding window (blue solid line) (d). The two indices are removed
379 from the ENSO signal and their trends. Dashed lines denote the correlation coefficients with the
380 95% confidence level for 20 samples (black line) and 15 samples (blue line). Abscissa indicates
381 the end year of the moving correlations. The above results use Kaplan Extended SST V2 data.

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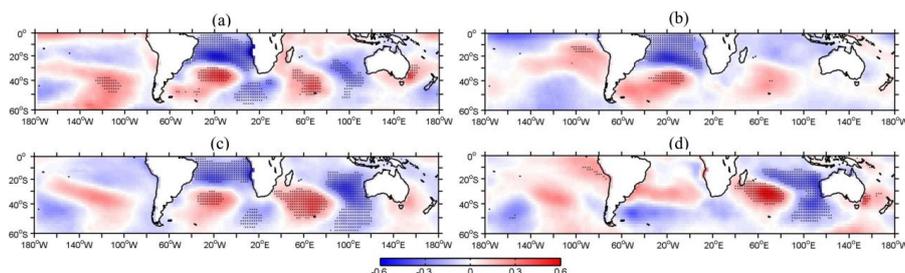
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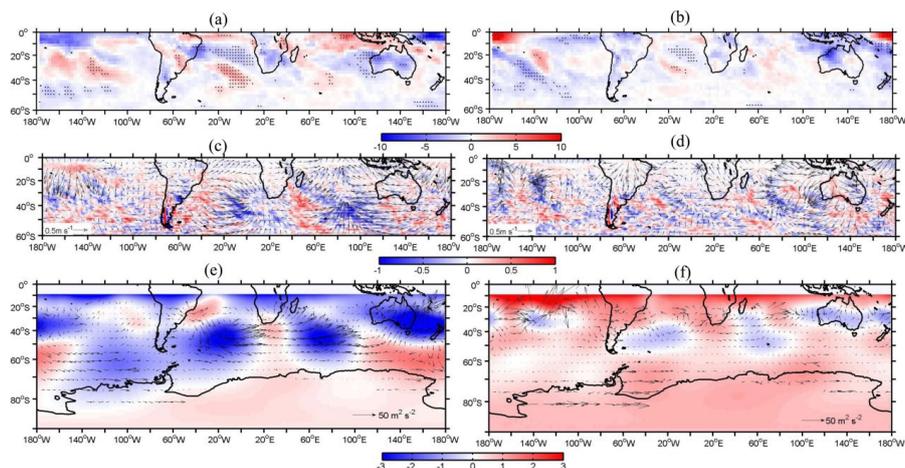


401
402 Figure 3. Regression maps of the SST anomalies ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) onto the summertime indices of (a, b) SAOD
403 and (c, d) SIOD, over the periods of (a, c) 1979-1999 and (b, d) 2000-2020. Dots denote the
404 regions of above 95% confidence level.

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

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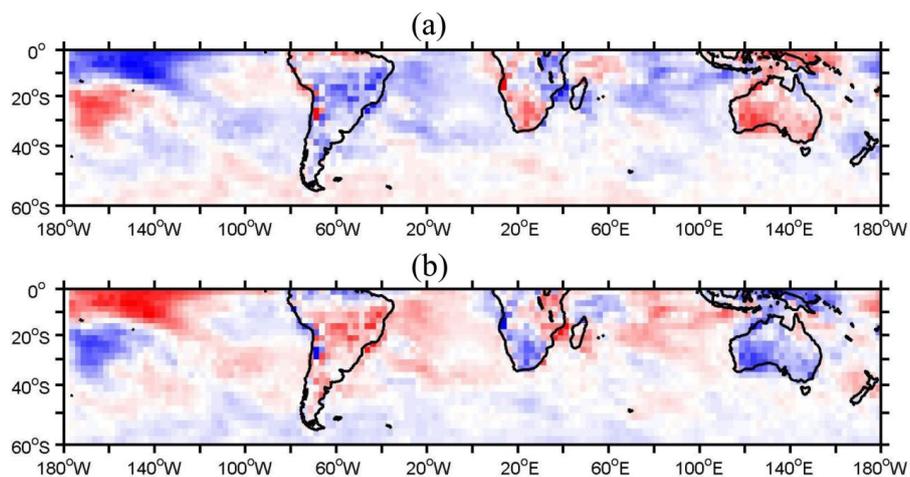
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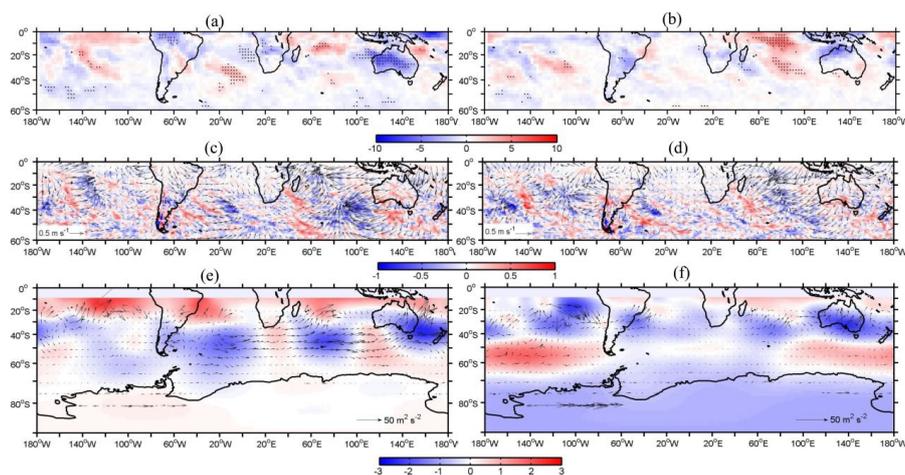
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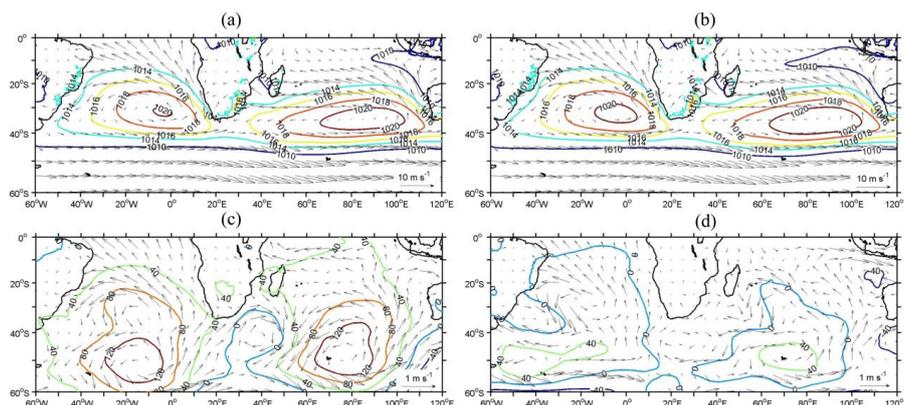
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470 Figure 5. Climatological OLR anomalies during (a) 1979-1999 and (b) 2000-2020, with respect to
471 the 42-year climatology over the 1979-2020 period.

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500 Figure 6. Regression maps of outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) (W m^{-2}) (a), (b), Rossby wave
501 source (RWS) (10^{-10} s^{-2}) and 200-hPa divergent wind (vector) (c), (d), wave activity flux (vector)
502 and streamfunction ($\text{m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$) (e), (f) onto the summertime IOSD index over the 1979-1999 period
503 (a), (c), (e) and the 2000-2020 period (b), (d), (f).

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523 Figure 7. Climatological mean sea level pressure (MSLP, in hPa) and 10-m wind field (vector)
524 over the periods of (a) 1979-1999 and (b) 2000-2020, and regression maps of MSLP (in Pa) and
525 10-m wind field (vector) onto the summertime SAOD index over the periods of (c) 1979-1999
526 and (d) 2000-2020.

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