

1 **Downward migration of the zonal-mean circulation in**
2 **the tropical atmosphere**

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7 **Key Points:**

- 8 • Zonally coherent, or annular, fluctuations capture a higher fraction of circulation
9 variability in the tropics than they do in midlatitudes
10 • Annular anomalies in tropical geopotential height and zonal wind migrate from
11 the tropopause to the surface over approximately 10 days
12 • Downward migration is associated with a pulsing of the overturning Hadley cir-
13 culation on subseasonal time scales

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Abstract

The annular modes of the extratropical atmosphere have received much attention for quantifying variability of the jet streams and storm tracks, despite the fact that the midlatitude circulation itself does not vary uniformly with longitude. While tropical fluctuations in geopotential height have lower amplitude than in the extratropics, they exhibit stronger zonal coherence, or dynamical annularity. A simple index is developed to characterize zonal-mean anomalies of the tropical circulation. It reveals that anomalies in geopotential height and zonal wind migrate downward from the upper troposphere to the surface on a time scale of about 10 days. These features are distinguishable from known modes of tropical variability, the Madden–Julian Oscillation in particular. Evidence from reanalysis and idealized model experiments confirms that this downward migration is quite generic and driven by mechanically forced variations in the strength of the Hadley circulation on subseasonal time scales.

Plain language summary: Earth’s atmosphere has certain recurring patterns which are “annular,” spanning an entire latitude circle. Annular patterns have proven to be surprisingly useful for weather and climate prediction. However, in the tropics, annular patterns have not been studied. We show that annular variability in the tropics does exist, and it contains interesting features that may be useful for prediction. In particular, anomalies in the circulation migrate downward from the tropopause (about 16 km) to the surface over 10 days. These features are also apparent in a relatively simple climate model, which helps direct further research.

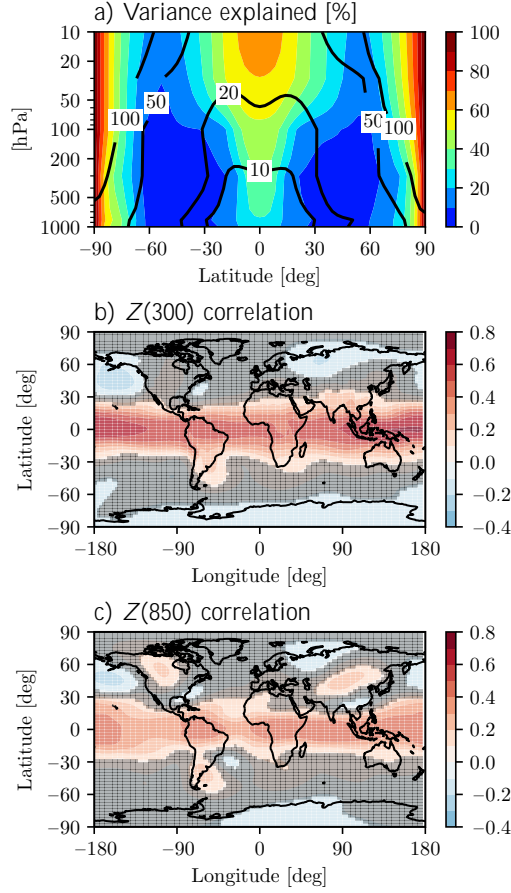
1 Dynamical annularity of the atmospheric circulation

The annular modes of the extratropical circulation have received much attention for their predictive utility and dynamical insight (see Kushner, 2010, for an extensive review). They characterize atmospheric variability in a remarkable variety of contexts, from unforced intraseasonal variability (e.g., Thompson & Wallace, 1998; Feldstein, 2000) to forced responses associated with global warming (Thompson et al., 2000) or stratospheric ozone loss and recovery (Thompson et al., 2002). The designation “annular” refers to their zonally uniform structure, which characterizes an exchange of mass and momentum between the polar cap and midlatitudes (Thompson & Wallace, 2000), although their dynamics fundamentally depends on zonally asymmetric eddies (Hartmann & Lo, 1998).

From the time of their discovery, however, there has been much debate on the extent to which an annular mode, or midlatitude variability more generally, is actually annular. Deser et al. (2000) and Ambaum et al. (2001) observed that while variability of geopotential height becomes zonally uniform over the polar cap in a trivial sense, as the latitude circle approaches the scale of the deformation radius, variations in the midlatitudes are not at all zonally uniform.

More recently, Gerber & Thompson (2017) attributed the zonal structure of the annular mode patterns to the “statistical annularity” of the midlatitude circulation. The annularity of the pattern reflects the fact that the statistics of geopotential height variability are fairly uniform across longitudes, as opposed to the fluctuations themselves. They observed, however, that geopotential height variations in the tropics, while of weaker amplitude, exhibit far more zonal coherence.

The zonal coherence—or “dynamical annularity”, to use the terminology of Gerber & Thompson (2017)—of geopotential height variability is quantified in Figure 1a. Here and throughout the study, data is daily and is taken from ERA–Interim reanalysis (Dee et al., 2011) from 1 January 1979 to 31 December 2017, with eddy statistics provided by Martineau et al. (2018). JRA–55 (Kobayashi et al., 2015) reanalysis yields nearly identical results (not shown).



63 **Figure 1.** (a) The fraction of total variance associated with zonal mean anomalies in geopotential height (shaded), i.e., the power associated with wavenumber 0 in a zonal Fourier decomposition, normalized by the total power; and the RMS amplitude of the zonal mean flow (in meters; contoured). Here and throughout the text, unless specified otherwise, anomalies are defined as departures from a seasonally evolving climatology and highpass-filtered with a 1 year cutoff. (b) Correlation of 300 hPa geopotential height anomalies with our annular variability index $\bar{Z}(300 \text{ hPa})$, described in the text. Hatching indicates regions where the correlation is not significantly different from 0 with 95% confidence, assuming a decorrelation time of 40 days to determine the degrees of freedom. (c) As in (b), but for the correlation of 850 hPa geopotential height anomalies with the $\bar{Z}(850 \text{ hPa})$ index.

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73 In the midlatitude troposphere—from 30° to 60° latitude in both hemispheres—less
74 than 10% of variability is characterized by annular fluctuations. Near the poles, the
75 geometry of the sphere naturally leads to a dominance of zonally coherent motion, but an
76 additional maximum is observed in the tropics. Zonally coherent fluctuations of
77 geopotential height characterize thus approximately a quarter of tropical variability at
78 lower levels, the fraction increasing to almost a half at the tropopause. In this study, we
79 investigate the structure of this zonal mean, or annular, variability in the tropical
80 troposphere.

2 An index of zonal mean variability in the tropics

We first establish a convenient index to quantify annular variability in the tropics: zonal-mean geopotential height at the equator, computed on a given pressure level and denoted $\bar{Z}(p)$. We find that this simple index correlates very highly with more complex metrics, such as the leading time series from Principal Component Analysis of tropical geopotential height (cf. Baldwin & Thompson, 2009). Since these more complex options involve selecting parameters, we proceed with the simplest option. The data is filtered by subtracting the seasonal cycle and subsequently highpass-filtered with a 1-year cutoff to remove trends and low-frequency variability such as El Niño–Southern Oscillation (ENSO). As we discuss below, filtering is not critical.

Figure 1b,c shows the structure of variability associated with $\bar{Z}(850)$ and $\bar{Z}(300)$. The indices characterize broad variations across the entire tropics, extending approximately 20° from the equator, particularly in the Pacific sector which dominates the zonal mean. Broad correlation in geopotential reflects the weak rotation in the tropical atmosphere. In the weak temperature gradient limit (Sobel et al., 2001), any localized heating or cooling of the atmosphere (e.g., by convection) is balanced by ascent or descent, thereby homogenizing the temperature, and hence geopotential height. The enhanced positive correlation in Figure 1b relative to Figure 1c reflects the increase in annular variability with height shown in Figure 1a.

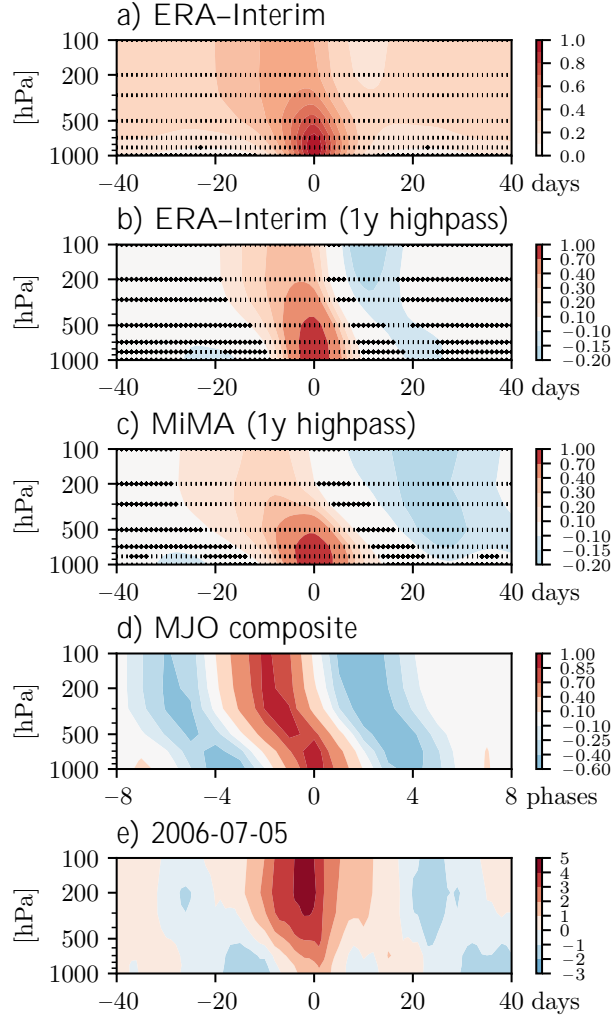
To characterize the zonal structure of variability, Gerber & Thompson (2017) suggest comparing single-point correlation maps in longitude, as shown in Figure S1. At lower levels, a given point is, on average, positively correlated with all other points around the latitude circle, the correlation decaying to zero towards the antipode. At upper levels, however, all points exhibit substantial positive correlation with others around the entire globe; at 300 hPa, the correlation is still approximately 0.4 at the antipode. This suggests that the zonal mean index characterizes broad variability at lower levels, albeit dominated by particular sectors at any given instant, which becomes increasing globally in nature in the upper troposphere. As a result, the zonal-mean index provides a convenient measure of large-scale variability across the tropics (Figure 1b,c), and capturing a substantial fraction of the total variability at all locations (Figure 1a).

3 Downward migration of annular circulation anomalies in the tropics

To explore the vertical coupling between zonal mean anomalies in geopotential height, Figure 2a shows the cross-correlation of $\bar{Z}(p)$ with $\bar{Z}(850)$. We begin with unfiltered data (from which only the annual cycle has been removed), but even in this raw reanalysis data, we see a downward migration of geopotential height anomalies from the upper troposphere to the surface on a time scale of about 10 days, followed by the hint of an opposite-signed anomaly which also migrates downward. A comparable picture emerges if we choose other levels (e.g., 300 hPa) as our base level of correlation.

Low-frequency variability (primarily ENSO) and trends lead to significant redness in the unfiltered cross-correlations. The subseasonal time scale becomes more apparent after applying a highpass filtering with 1 year cutoff (Figure 2b). This conservative approach to removing the red background of the unfiltered cross-correlations still allows in more than half of the variance at a time scale of 1 year, and reveals more clearly a downward-migrating signal, anticorrelated with preceding and proceeding anomalies. In testing we find that the results are not sensitive to the cutoff provided it is short enough to remove ENSO.

Several approaches to significance testing underscore the robustness of this phenomenon. Hatching in Figure 2 indicates statistical significance assuming a decorrelation time scale of 40 days, a conservative approach to estimating the effective degrees of freedom. Subsetting the dataset by decades leads to similar results, as does



119 **Figure 2.** (a–d) Cross-correlation of $\bar{Z}(p)$ with $\bar{Z}(850)$. Data (a) from ERA–Interim unfil-
 120 tered, (b) from ERA–Interim with a 1-year highpass filter, (c) from MiMA with a 1-year highpass
 121 filter, (d) composited by MJO RMM phase (amplitude-weighted; see text for details). (e) ERA–
 122 Interim $\bar{Z}(p)$ with a 1-year highpass filter, normalized to have unit variance, centered around July
 123 5, 2006. In (a–c), hatching indicates inability to reject the null hypothesis that the correlation is
 124 zero with 95% confidence, using a decorrelation time of 40 days.

137 employing composites instead of cross-correlations (not shown). Significance will further
 138 be assessed dynamically and by comparing observations with a numerical model.

139 We first ask: is this downward migration simply the zonal mean manifestation of a
 140 known tropical mode of variability? Both the MJO (Andersen & Kuang, 2012) and ENSO
 141 (Seager et al., 2003) are known to exhibit zonally coherent variability. With respect to the
 142 latter, the high pass filtering in Figure 2b is one approach to removing the ENSO signal.
 143 (Alternatively, removing ENSO variability by regressing out the signal linearly correlated
 144 with the Niño 3.4 index yields a very similar result to Figure 2a). The highpass filter,
 145 however, will tend to amplify the relative importance of the MJO. To ensure the
 146 downward migration exists independently of the MJO, we repeated the analysis after
 147 regressing away variability linearly correlated with the principal components of the

148 Real-time Multivariate MJO (RMM) index (Wheeler & Hendon, 2004). Again, the results
149 (not shown) are qualitatively identical with all MJO variability removed linearly.

150 As an additional approach to answering this question, we consider a numerical
151 model which explicitly lacks ENSO or MJO-related variability. The Model of an Idealized
152 Moist Atmosphere (MiMA; Jucker & Gerber, 2017) is an idealized aquaplanet, and
153 modifications to the original model have been made to incorporate realistic zonal
154 asymmetries in the lower boundary; a later iteration of this configuration has been
155 published in Garfinkel et al. (2020). There is explicitly no oceanic variability and the
156 model does not capture the MJO. The model has no cloud feedbacks and only resolves the
157 large-scale circulation, employing a simplified parameterization of tropical convection.

158 Despite these substantial simplifications, geopotential anomalies also migrate
159 downward in MiMA, on comparable temporal and vertical scales (Figure 2c). If anything,
160 the cross-correlations in MiMA are slightly reduced in magnitude, implying that the full
161 physics of the actual atmosphere act to strengthen the downward migration, rather than
162 weaken it. Furthermore, the horizontal structure of tropical geopotential height variations
163 in the model is comparable to Figure 1b,c (not shown).

164 We have shown idealized moist aquaplanet integrations because this is perhaps the
165 simplest configuration that can reproduce the phenomenon. When one removes the
166 impact of moisture from the model, as in the idealized atmospheric model of Held &
167 Suarez (1994), the downward migration of geopotential anomalies is not apparent (not
168 shown). Dry dynamical cores are fully capable of capturing the annular modes (e.g.,
169 Gerber & Vallis, 2007), or the more recently discovered Baroclinic Annular Modes (Barnes
170 & Thompson, 2014), but our results indicate that additional complexity is critical to
171 capturing the annular variations of the tropics.

172 Although the MJO is not necessary for the downward-migrating signal in equatorial
173 geopotential height, it does exhibit a similar signal. To quantify the MJO's signature on
174 zonal-mean geopotential, we construct weighted composites of normalized geopotential
175 anomalies at each level as a function of RMM phase (Wheeler & Hendon, 2004). Noting
176 that 8 phases of the oscillation correspond to approximately 40 days, these composites
177 show qualitatively similar downward migration on consistent time scales (Figure 2d).
178 While a pure traveling wave would not project on to the zonal mean, we interpret this
179 signal to be associated with the growth and decay of MJO anomalies. Thus in isolation an
180 MJO event is sufficient, but not necessary, to achieve downward migration.

181 Besides the MJO, might other tropical waves play a role in the zonal mean?
182 Convectively coupled tropical waves are a source of variability that is absent in a dry
183 dynamical core, but present in the real atmosphere and MiMA. This is a difficult
184 hypothesis to probe quantitatively, as filtering of tropical waves is typically nonlinear due
185 to pre-filtering of the red background (e.g., Wheeler & Kiladis, 1999). We have shown
186 that subseasonal anomalies emerge from a red spectrum (Figure 2a,b).

187 There is some theoretical evidence that zonally symmetric variability could also
188 drive vacillations. Zhao & Ghil (1991) investigated symmetric inertial instability in a
189 zonally averaged two-layer model and found a solution with zonal mean oscillations in
190 geopotential shear. However, further investigation is needed to bridge their idealized
191 study with observational data. In particular, our analysis indicates that eddy momentum
192 fluxes also fluctuate coherently (Section 4), which suggests a pathway for waves to impact
193 the zonal mean.

194 To get a sense of the actual variability, an example of downward migration for both
195 positive and negative anomalies in the reanalysis record is shown in Figure 2e. The
196 vertical coherence and time scales of these events are similar to the mean cross-correlated
197 picture.

198 These events and the cross-correlated average are reminiscent of the “dripping paint
 199 plots” of extratropical annular mode composites (Baldwin & Dunkerton, 2001), although
 200 the resemblance is superficial, as the dynamics of the two are quite distinct. Downward
 201 migration in the Northern and Southern annular mode indices involves coupling between
 202 the tropospheric extratropical jet and the stratospheric polar vortex: a deceleration of the
 203 polar vortex is usually followed by a nearly barotropic response in the troposphere
 204 (Thompson & Wallace, 2000; Baldwin & Dunkerton, 2001). In the tropics, the downward
 205 migration is entirely within the troposphere. In addition, downward migration in the
 206 extratropical annular modes, while very robust, only appears in composite analysis and is
 207 not evident from simple cross-correlation, unlike the tropical variability explored here.

208 Longitude–height cross-sections of geopotential height at key lags are shown in
 209 Figure S2 (left column) to characterize the zonal structure of the downward migration.
 210 Fluctuations of the zonal mean are positively correlated with individual points at all
 211 longitudes, but an additional wave-1 structure indicates enhanced activity over the
 212 Indo–Pacific as observed in Figure 1b,c. Similar coherence of geopotential height in
 213 longitude and height are also observed with the 2006-07-05 event (Figure S2, right
 214 column), albeit with additional variability on synoptic scales.

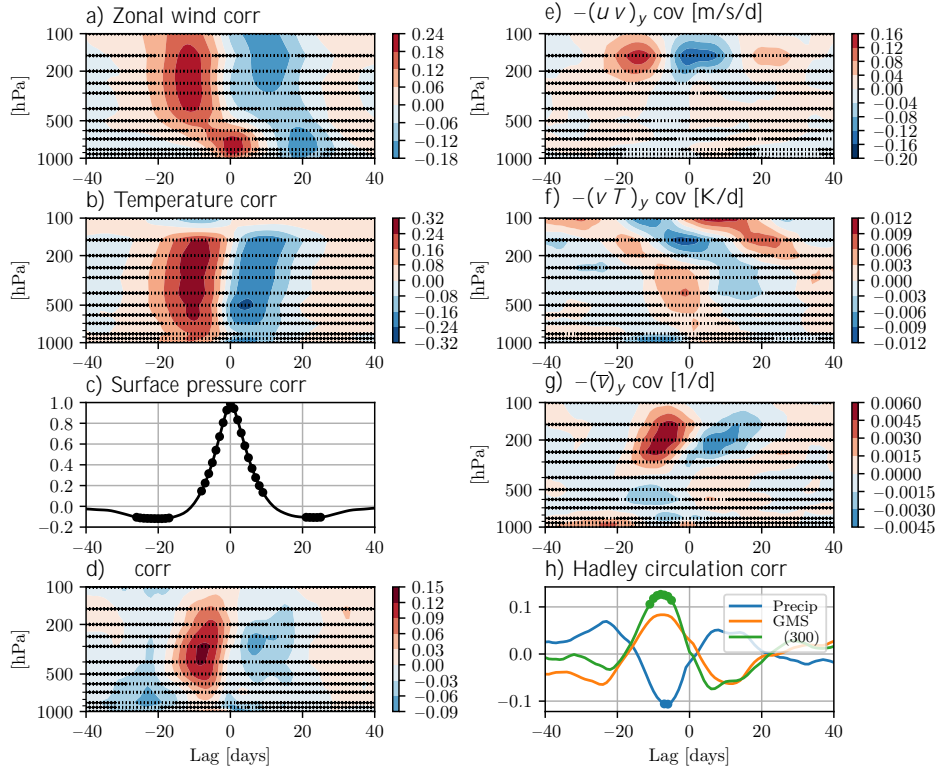
215 Downward migration in the tropical circulation is also apparent in other
 216 meteorological variables, as shown in cross correlation of the zonal mean zonal wind with
 217 $\bar{Z}(850)$ in Figure 3a. Weakened trade winds migrate downward in association with
 218 anomalously high geopotential height, reflecting cyclostrophic balance. Conversely,
 219 strengthened trade wind anomalies migrate downward in concert with negative
 220 geopotential height anomalies. In the next section, we parse the structure of downward
 221 migrating geopotential and zonal wind by cross-correlating with the key dynamical fields
 222 at play.

223 4 Mechanically forced variations in the Hadley Circulation

224 Geopotential height is the altitude of a given pressure surface of the atmosphere,
 225 and thus depends on both the surface pressure and the temperature of the atmosphere
 226 below. A pressure surface is elevated when the surface pressure increases; that is, when
 227 the local mass of the atmospheric column is increased, requiring one to ascend higher
 228 through the atmosphere to reach a given pressure. Similarly, a pressure surface is elevated
 229 if the atmosphere below it is warmer, and so less dense, again requiring a higher ascent to
 230 reach a given pressure. The downward migration of geopotential height anomalies shown
 231 in Figure 2 thus corresponds to a coordination, or phase locking, between temperature
 232 anomalies and surface pressure anomalies in the tropics.

245 Figure 3b,c show that anomalously high low-level geopotential (or surface pressure)
 246 is preceded by anomalously warm temperatures throughout the tropical troposphere,
 247 which lifts geopotential height at upper levels. Correlation between low-level geopotential
 248 and temperature reaches a maximum at a lead of 10 days (-10 on the horizontal axis), at
 249 which time surface pressure anomalies are uncorrelated: the atmosphere is warmest when
 250 surface pressure is neutral. The atmosphere cools as surface pressure anomalies build,
 251 with temperature anomalies vanishing at lag 0, just as surface pressure reaches a
 252 maximum. The atmosphere continues to cool, as surface pressure relaxes, reaching a
 253 maximum negative anomaly near a lag of 10 days (10 on the horizontal axis), maintaining
 254 quadrature with the surface pressure field.

255 Since the surface pressure indicates the total mass of the atmospheric column,
 256 downward migration in tropical geopotential can thus be described as a progression from
 257 *hot* to *heavy* (more mass) to *cold*. The cross-correlation is symmetric, by construction, but
 258 additional testing via composite analysis (not shown) reveals that this symmetry does



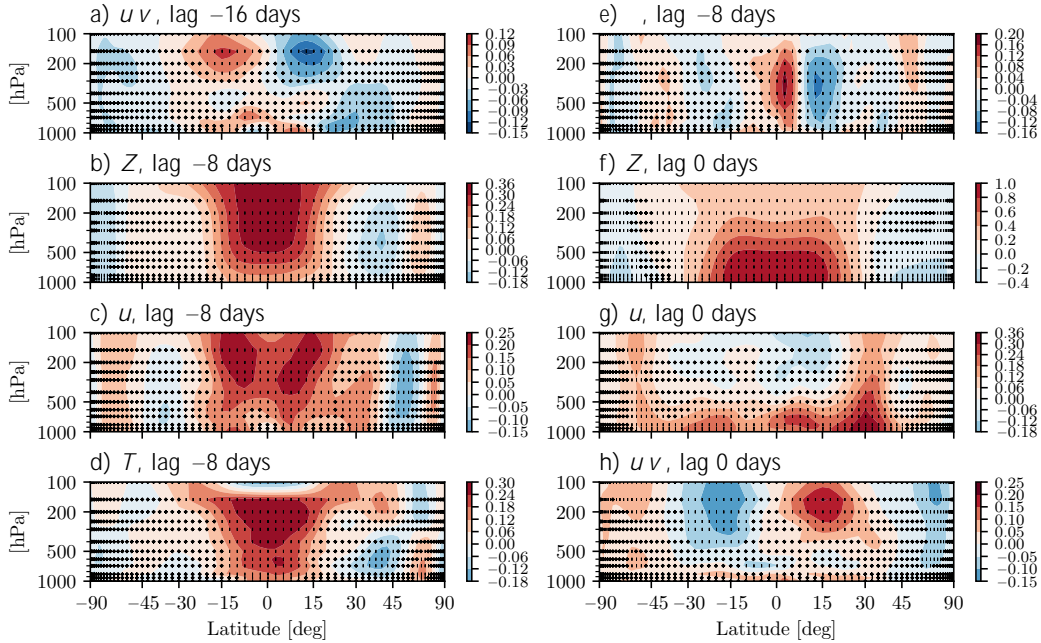
233 **Figure 3.** Cross-correlation and covariance of normalized $\bar{Z}(850)$ with anomalous zonally averaged equatorial (a) temperature, (b) zonal wind, (c) surface pressure p_s , (d) pressure velocity ω , (e) eddy momentum flux convergence, (f) eddy temperature flux convergence, (g) meridional wind convergence, and (h) Hadley circulation metrics. Panels (a–d) and (h) are correlations; panels (e–g) are shown as the covariance to give the dynamical tendencies physical units which can be compared across pressure levels. In (h), the Hadley circulation is characterized by precipitation rate (Precip), gross moist stability (GMS; moist static energy at 850 hPa minus 200 hPa), and vertical velocity ω at 300 hPa. Hatching and missing dots indicate the inability to reject the null hypothesis at 95% confidence. We have assumed a conservative decorrelation time scale of 40 days for the more persistent fields in (a–c) and (h), as in previous figures. The decorrelation scale of eddy fluxes, ω , and v_y is much shorter, on the order of days. For (d–g), we have therefore assumed a time scale of 10 days.

259 hold between positive and negative anomalies: downward migration of negative
 260 geopotential height anomalies are associated with a cold–light–warm pattern.

261 This phase locking between temperature and surface pressure reflects a common
 262 dynamical origin: a pulsing of the Hadley circulation, seen in the vertical (pressure)
 263 velocity in Figure 3d and other metrics in Figure 3h. The positive correlation between the
 264 pressure velocity ω and temperature, however, indicates that the anomalies must be
 265 mechanically forced: warmer temperature is associated with anomalous downwelling. For
 266 thermodynamic forcing to create kinetic energy, warm air must rise. This suggests that
 267 the temperature tendency is more attributable to the anomalous downwelling, which
 268 reduces the overall adiabatic cooling by the ascending branch of the Hadley Circulation.
 269 We also observe a concomitant reduction in precipitation in Figure 3h, suggesting that the
 270 temperature anomalies are not being forced by enhanced latent heating. The reduction in

271 precipitation is consistent with increase in gross moist stability associated with warming
 272 of the free troposphere.

273 The dynamical origin of the vacillation can be traced back to anomalous eddy-driven
 274 momentum convergence in the upper troposphere at a lead time of 16 to 20 days relative
 275 to the $\bar{Z}(850)$ index, as seen in Figure 3e. The eddy forcing can be characterized by the
 276 divergence of the momentum flux at the equator, which reflects a broad anomaly in
 277 momentum forcing across the tropics, as shown in the meridional cross-section of the
 278 momentum flux at a lead of 16 days in Figure 4a. This positive anomaly reflects a
 279 weakening of the climatological momentum flux out of the tropics, which drives the
 280 downwelling anomaly peaking at a lead of 8 days (Figure 3d) as in the eddy-driven pump
 281 mechanism of Holton et al. (1995). Strictly speaking, this mechanism cannot be applied at
 282 the equator, but the momentum flux anomaly is spread over the tropics (Figure 4a).
 283 Momentum fluxes out of the Hadley circulation allow flow across angular momentum
 284 surfaces, enhancing the thermodynamically driven cell. A weakening of momentum flux
 285 leads to a temporary slowdown of the circulation, particularly at upper levels, which can
 286 be inferred from the convergence of the meridional velocity (v_y), shown in Figure 3g.



287 **Figure 4.** Cross-correlations of $\bar{Z}(850)$ with zonal mean fields as a function of latitude (de-
 288 grees) and height (hPa) at varying lead/lag times: (a) eddy momentum flux (lag -16 days), (b)
 289 geopotential height (-8 days), (c) zonal wind (-8 days), (d) temperature (-8 days), (e) pressure
 290 velocity (-8 days), (f) geopotential height (0 days), (g) zonal mean wind (0 days), and (h)
 291 eddy momentum flux (0 days). As before, fields are climatological anomalies and highpass-filtered
 292 with a cutoff of 1 year. Negative lags indicate that the specified field leads $\bar{Z}(850)$. Statistical
 293 significance is assessed as in Figure 3: 40 days for (b,c,d,f,g), and 10 days for (a,e,h).

294 At a lead time of 8 days, broad anomalies in geopotential and temperature
 295 anomalies are observed throughout the tropics, extending 20 into each hemisphere, as
 296 shown in the meridional cross-sections in Figure 4b,c. Anomalies in the trade winds peak
 297 off the equator, near 10 N and S. The pressure velocity field at the same time, shown in
 298 Figure 4b, exhibits more fine scale structure. A reduction of upwelling (positive !) is

299 observed within 10° of the equator in both hemispheres, but the correlation is stronger in
 300 the Northern Hemisphere. Anomalous upwelling is observed polewards of 10°, again, more
 301 significantly in the boreal hemisphere. This suggests that a simple reduction in adiabatic
 302 expansion driven by the reduction of upwelling cannot explain the meridional temperature
 303 structure. A detailed budget is the subject of further analysis, but we find that the eddy
 304 temperature flux (Figure 3f) generally acts to damp the temperature anomalies, although
 305 it exhibits evidence of a signal extending higher into the stratosphere.

306 Figure 4f,g,h shows the correlation of anomalies of zonal mean geopotential height,
 307 wind, and eddy momentum flux, concomitant with maximum positive anomalies of
 308 $\bar{Z}(850)$. As seen in Figure 2, geopotential height anomalies have descended toward the
 309 surface across the tropics from 20° S to 20° N, peaking at levels below 500 hPa, and
 310 associated with low level trade wind anomalies that extend further into the extratropics.
 311 Eddy momentum flux anomalies have flipped sign relative to earlier lags, driving the
 312 subsequent propagation of opposite anomalies in height and wind at positive lags,
 313 essentially repeating the same cycle, but with opposite sign.

314 Lastly, it is important to account for the surface pressure anomalies, which are
 315 essential to the downward propagating signal. The slowdown of the circulation before lag
 316 0 also enhances mass convergence over the equator, focused at upper levels where the
 317 tropospheric branch of the Hadley circulation diverges (Figure 3g). This accounts for the
 318 surface pressure fluctuations, as the meridional contribution to the surface pressure
 319 tendency is (in pressure coordinates):

$$320 \quad \frac{\partial \bar{p}_s}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \overline{\int_0^{p_s} v dp} = \int_0^{\bar{p}_s} \frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial y} dp - \overline{v(p_s) \frac{\partial p_s}{\partial y}} - \overline{\int_{\bar{p}_s}^{p_s} \frac{\partial v^d}{\partial y} dp} \quad (1)$$

321 The zonal average tendency is dominated by the vertical integral of \bar{v}_y (the first term on
 322 the RHS) as mass convergence is occurring at upper levels, rather than at the lower
 323 boundary (the second and third terms on the RHS). The convergence of mass is consistent
 324 with the slowdown in the circulation driven by momentum fluxes, peaking in the upper
 325 half of the atmosphere where the momentum forcing is strongest.

326 We acknowledge that cross-correlation analysis does not indicate causation, and that
 327 the signals presented in Figures 3 and 4 are weak relative to background noise, i.e., the
 328 abundance of tropical processes that survive the 1-year high pass filter. More aggressive
 329 filtering increases the magnitude of the correlation (not shown), but we have taken a
 330 conservative filtering approach to avoid artificially amplifying variability on subseasonal
 331 timescales. Our confidence in the mechanism rests primarily on the dynamical consistency
 332 between the eddy forcing and zonal mean circulation eddies, taken together. It is an open
 333 question as to what drives the anomalous eddy forcing that triggers the cycle, and further
 334 research is required to untangle the role of tropical and extratropical wave sources.

335 5 Summary

336 Annular variations in geopotential height capture a higher fraction of the natural
 337 variability in the tropical atmosphere as compared to the midlatitudes. We constructed a
 338 simple index to characterize the annular variability of the tropics: zonal-mean
 339 geopotential at the equator. The index tracks broad variations of the height fields at each
 340 level, extending approximately 20 degrees in latitude into both hemispheres.
 341 Cross-correlation between levels reveals downward-migrating circulation anomalies on
 342 intraseasonal time scales. Positive geopotential height anomalies, associated with
 343 decreased trade winds, migrate from the tropopause to the surface on a time scale of
 344 approximately 10 days. Likewise, enhanced trade winds migrate downward with negative
 345 geopotential height anomalies.

346 While the Madden–Julian Oscillation (MJO) is associated with a similar zonal mean
 347 signature, we find that these downward migration circulation anomalies are more generic.

They reflect a phase locking of temperature and surface pressure anomalies associated with variations in the overturning circulation on subseasonal time scales. Anticorrelation between the vertical velocity and temperature indicates that these variations are mechanically driven, consistent with anomalies in eddy momentum flux convergence. Simulations with idealized atmospheric models attest to the generic nature of these downward migrating anomalies, but indicate that the mechanism depends on the presence of tropical variability. Future work intends to explore the mechanism in greater detail, and investigate the predictability of these oscillations.

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Data availability. This study is based on atmospheric reanalyses and integrations with an idealized model atmospheric model. ERA–Interim reanalysis was obtained from ECMWF at <https://apps.ecmwf.int/datasets/> and is documented by (Dee et al., 2011). Eddy statistics derived from ERA–Interim were provided by Martineau et al. (2018), available at <https://catalogue.ceda.ac.uk/>. Key results were checked with JRA-55 reanalysis (not shown), available and documented at https://jra.kishou.go.jp/JRA-55/index_en.html. MiMA is documented by Jucker & Gerber (2017) and Garfinkel et al. (2020). The source code and run parameters for the original MiMA model are available at <https://github.com/mjucker/MiMA>, and the modified configuration at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1401407>.

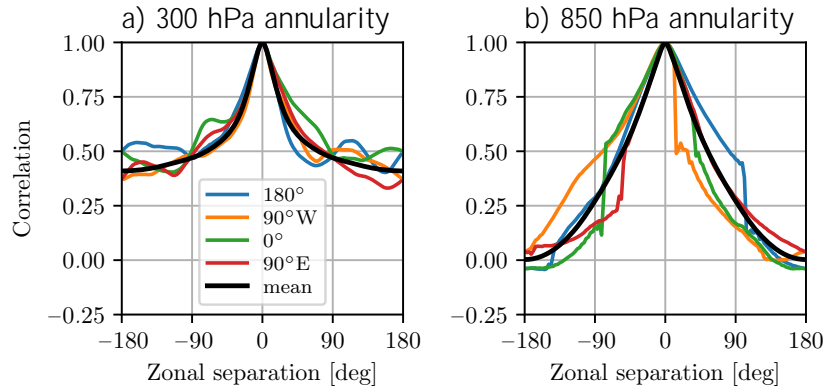
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441

Supplemental figures



442

Figure S1. Pairwise correlation between geopotential height anomalies on the equator

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as a function of longitudinal separation at (a) 300 and (b) 850 hPa. Explicitly, this is:

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$\text{corr}(Z_{\phi_0}; Z_{\phi_0+\Delta})$, for four base longitudes ϕ_0 (indicated by the legend) as a function of zonal

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separation Δ in degrees longitude. As explored by Gerber & Thompson (2017), this allows one

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to compare the correlation structure in different sectors. The black line is the mean of the corre-

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lation maps over all longitudes (not just the four points shown). As with the analysis in the main

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text, anomalies are climatological and highpass-filtered with a cutoff of 1 year. The abrupt drops

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and kinks in correlation at 850 hPa are associated with orography at the equator.

