

The combined influence of the stratospheric polar vortex and ENSO on zonal asymmetries in the Southern Hemisphere upper tropospheric circulation during austral spring and summer

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- ¹ The Combined Influence of the Stratospheric Polar
- ² Vortex and ENSO on Zonal Asymmetries in the
- ³ Southern Hemisphere Upper Tropospheric Circulation
- 4 during Austral Spring and Summer
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Abstract The influence of El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and the Stratoq spheric Polar Vortex (SPV) on the zonal asymmetries in the Southern Hemisphere 10 atmospheric circulation during spring and summer is examined. The main objec-11 tive of the work is to explore if the SPV can modulate the ENSO teleconnections 12 in the extratropics. We use a large ensemble of seasonal hindcasts from the Eu-13 ropean Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts Integrated Forecast System 14 to provide a much larger sample size than is possible from the observations alone. 15 We find a small but statistically significant relationship between ENSO and the 16 SPV, with El Niño events occurring with weak SPV and La Niña events occurring 17 with strong SPV more often than expected by chance, in agreement with previous 18 works. We show that the zonally asymmetric response to ENSO and SPV can be 19 mainly explained by a linear combination of the response to both forcings, and 20 that they can combine constructively or destructively. However the nature of this 21 interference evolves through the spring and summer period, and is not aligned 22 with the traditional seasons. From this perspective, we find that the tropospheric 23 asymmetries in response to ENSO are more intense when El Niño events occur 24 with weak SPV and La Niña events occur with strong SPV, at least from Septem-25 ber through December. In the stratosphere, the ENSO teleconnections are mostly 26 confounded by the SPV signal. The analysis of Rossby Wave Source and of wave 27 activity shows that both are stronger when El Niño events occur together with 28 weak SPV, and when La Niña events occur together with strong SPV. 29

30 Keywords Rossby Waves · Teleconnections · Wave-Activity Fluxes

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31 1 Introduction

The variability of the high-latitude Southern Hemisphere (SH) springtime and 32 summertime atmospheric circulation is dominated by the Southern Annular Mode 33 (SAM) and by teleconnections emanating from tropical latitudes. These telecon-34 nections emerge as a response to changes in tropical convection such as those aris-35 ing during El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) (Mo, 2000). Many works have 36 described the influence of ENSO on the high latitudes through changes in the eddy-37 driven zonal circulation (Seager et al., 2003; L'Heureux and Thompson, 2006) and 38 in the zonally asymmetric circulation (Kidson, 1999; Mo, 2000; Vera et al., 2004; 39 Ding et al., 2012; Wilson et al., 2016). In the case of the zonally asymmetric cir-40 culation, these changes occur mainly through the modulation of the Pacific South 41 America (PSA) pattern, an alternating wave-train of pressure anomalies emanat-42 ing from the tropics in response to convection in the Tropical Pacific. In addition, 43 some works have assessed how the SAM modulates the variability of ENSO tele-44 connections, especially over the South Pacific (Silvestri and Vera, 2003; Fogt and 45 Bromwich, 2006; Fogt et al., 2011). In particular, Fogt et al. (2011) found that 46 the SAM phase and magnitude modulate the South Pacific ENSO teleconnection 47 through an interaction between the ENSO-induced and SAM-induced anomalous 48 eddy momentum fluxes. 49

Another feature of the SH high-latitude circulation during spring to early sum-50 mer is that the stratosphere-troposphere coupling peaks, associated with variabil-51 ity in the timing of the SH Stratospheric Polar Vortex (SPV) breakdown (Thomp-52 son and Wallace, 2000). During this period, the zonal-mean extratropical circula-53 tion is organized under the influence of the SPV (Black and McDaniel, 2007), with 54 a tendency of early breakdown events to be associated with a more equatorward 55 tropospheric jet transition, and of late breakdown events to be associated with a 56 delay in this transition (Byrne et al., 2017). The variability in the tropospheric cir-57 culation that follows the anomalies in the SH stratospheric zonal flow can persist 58 for up to three months (Thompson et al., 2005). The variability of the SPV is also 59 related to the phase of ENSO, with a tendency of having early vortex breakdown 60 events during El Niño years and late vortex breakdown events during La Niña 61 62 years (Byrne et al., 2017). These results support the idea that, while it was pre-63 viously believed that the eddy-driven jet responds directly to the tropical forcing associated with ENSO (L'Heureux and Thompson, 2006), the zonally symmet-64 ric component of the response appears to be primarily through the stratosphere 65 (Byrne et al., 2019). ENSO can also modify the planetary stratospheric waves in 66 spring and summer and affect the phase of the quasi-stationary waves (Hurwitz 67 et al., 2011; Lin et al., 2012; Zubiaurre and Calvo, 2012). This relationship between 68 ENSO, the eddy-driven jet and the SPV, combined with the previous findings on 69 the SAM modulation of ENSO teleconnections in the South Pacific, suggest the 70 idea of an SPV influence on zonal asymmetries in the SH in response to ENSO, at 71 least during spring and summer. This stratospheric modulation of the asymmetric 72 circulation has been widely documented for the Northern Hemisphere (Ineson and 73 Scaife, 2009; Butler et al., 2014) but in the SH has received less attention. 74

While these studies have advanced the understanding of the ENSO-SPV relationship, many of them are based on reanalyses or observations, which limits the confidence in the results due to the uncertainty associated with the limited sample

78 size. The non-random joint distribution of ENSO and SPV anomalies complicates

⁷⁹ the analysis of the climate response to both forcings because regressing on one

 $_{\infty}$ index alone could introduce a confounding influence of the other index. Regressing

out one variable is the usual way to treat this limitation, but it assumes linearity in the relationship and also requires a long observational record. Byrne et al. (2019)

the relationship and also requires a long observational record. Byrne et al. (2019) addressed both issues (sample uncertainty and linearity of the relationship) by us-

ing a large ensemble of data to study the zonally symmetric response to ENSO and

SPV. In this work we propose a similar approach to investigate the asymmetric

⁸⁶ response to both forcings.

The objective of this paper is then to study the combined influence of ENSO 87 and the SPV on the zonal asymmetries of the atmospheric circulation in the SH. 88 We use a large ensemble of seasonal hindcasts from ECMWF System 4 to address 80 the impact of sampling uncertainty and to allow for the detection of nonlinearities 90 in the response to each forcing. The large sample size also allows for detection of 91 signals on a subseasonal (monthly) timescale. We begin by describing the model 92 and methodology used in the study. The results section encompasses the assess-93 ment of the model in simulating anomalies in the SH and the study of the joint 94 influence of SPV and ENSO on the tropospheric anomalies. Finally we discuss the 95 generation and propagation of Rossby waves, followed by the conclusions. 96

97 2 Data and Methods

The European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts System 4 hindcasts 99 were used in the study. The System 4 hindcast ensemble has proven to represent a more realistic circulation variability at polar latitudes than the ECMWF System 5 100 hindcast (Shepherd et al., 2018), possibly due to a better representation of strato-101 spheric variability in the SH. System 4 (S4) consists of the Integrated Forecasting 102 System (IFS) atmospheric component coupled to the Nucleus for European Mod-103 elling of the Ocean (NEMO) ocean model (Molteni et al., 2011). The atmospheric 104 vertical resolution is 91 levels, with a top model level in the mesosphere at 0.01hPa, 105 and the horizontal spectral resolution is T255, which corresponds to approximately 106 80 km in the horizontal. The resolution of the ocean model is 1° in the horizontal 107 and has 42 layers in the vertical. All hindcasts are issued as ensembles with 51 108 members. Here we consider hindcasts initialized on 1 August over the period 1981-109 2018 for austral spring and summer (September-February). We excluded 2002, the 110 year of the Stratospheric Sudden Warming in the SH, from our analysis so that 111 our results are not influenced by this anomalous event. However, we have checked 112 that our results are not significantly affected by this procedure. The variables used 113 in the study are geopotential height, zonal and meridional winds from 200hPa and 114 50hPa to characterize the upper troposphere and the stratosphere, respectively. 115 The ERA-Interim reanalysis was used as observations (Dee et al., 2011). 116

Following Byrne et al. (2019) (see also Hio and Yoden, 2005; Kuroda and 117 Kodera, 1998) we define an index of interannual stratospheric variability as the 118 leading principal component time series resulting from the empirical orthogonal 119 function (EOF) analysis on monthly mean geopotential height at 50hPa averaged 120 over the polar cap $(60^{\circ}\text{S}-90^{\circ}\text{S})$. The method consists of combining X successive 121 months of data in a vector for a given year and therefore each eigenvector has 122 X elements. In this study, X is set to 7 to span the August-February period. We 123 define weak stratospheric polar vortex (SPV) years as those years in the upper 124

quartile of the index (i.e. highest geopotential height) and strong SPV years as those in the lower quartile (i.e. lowest geopotential height). Likewise, we define an ENSO index as the leading principal component time series associated with the EOF analysis of monthly mean sea-surface temperature averaged over the Niño

¹²⁹ 3.4 region (5°N-5°S: 170° W-120°W). El Niño years are defined as those in the

¹³⁰ upper quartile of this index and La Niña years as those in the lower quartile.

131 3 Results

132 3.1 Model Assessment

We start with the validation of the model by comparing the upper tropospheric cir-133 culation during austral spring and summer in the S4 hindcast ensemble against the 134 135 ERA-Interim reanalysis. Figures 1 and 2 show the mean differences in geopotential height and zonal wind at 200hPa, respectively, between hindcast and reanalysis 136 from September until February. In the supplementary material we include the same 137 figures for 50hPa. Overall, the model underestimates the geopotential height and 138 the bias maximum shifts and increases from polar latitudes in September, October, 139 November to low latitudes from December onward. The zonal wind bias is pos-140 itive at tropical latitudes and negative at extratropical latitudes, peaking where 141 the Subtropical Jet and the Eddy Driven Jet are manifest. The differences between 142 143 the ERA-Interim and hindcast variances (see supplementary material Figures S1 and S2) are significant in small regions. Finally, the model bias in the mean and 144 variance in geopotential height at 50hPa (see supplementary material Figures S3 145 and S4) resembles that documented for 200hPa while the bias in zonal wind at 146 50hPa is significant mainly at midlatitudes (see supplementary material Figures 147 S5 and S6). 148

Next, we compare the model and ERA-Interim anomalies in response to ENSO 149 and the SPV. As an example, Figure 3 shows composites of zonal asymmetries of 150 the geopotential height (Z^* , anomalies with respect to the zonal mean field) at 151 200hPa for El Niño minus La Niña in October for the model and for ERA-Interim. 152 Similar results are obtained for the other months considered in the study. The 153 Pacific-South American pattern is present in both composites, although model 154 anomalies look elongated in the zonal direction and negative anomalies are weaker 155 in the model. The composites for weak minus strong SPV events (Figure 4) for 156 the same month and level are also well represented by the model at polar latitudes 157 although anomalies in the model span a larger portion over Antarctica than the 158 observed counterpart. At midlatitudes larger differences are observed in the eastern 159 Pacific and South America. At 50hPa the model reproduces better the composites 160 for SPV events than for ENSO events (see supplementary material Figures S7 161 and S8). For the latter, the largest differences are observed over the Indian Ocean 162 and high latitudes, where negative anomalies in the model are weaker and span a 163 smaller area than in the reanalysis. 164

Overall, despite the mean biases there appears to be good agreement between the hindcasts and the ERA-Interim reanalysis in the representation of the anomalies in response to ENSO and the SPV in the troposphere as well as in the stratosphere. On that basis we proceed to examine their interdependences, exploiting the large sample size provided by the hindcast ensemble.

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170 3.2 ENSO-SPV relationship in the hindcast ensemble

Figure 5 shows the joint distribution of the ENSO and SPV indices for the hindcast 171 realizations and Table 1 lists the number of realizations falling in each category. 172 We performed a chi-square test on the 3 x 3 contingency table of the joint ENSO-173 SPV distribution to determine if the distribution is different from the expected 174 contingency table drawn from independent variables. Nine categories are defined 175 according to whether SPV and/or ENSO indices lie in the lower or upper quartile 176 or are neutral. The correlation between SPV and ENSO indices is low (0.18), in 177 agreement with previous works (Silvestri and Vera, 2009; Fogt et al., 2011), but 178 is nevertheless statistically significant given the large number of cases considered. 179 From the table it is clear that the Niño-strong SPV and Niña-weak SPV combina-180 tions are more underpopulated than expected by chance, and the chi-square test 181 suggests that the null hypothesis of independent categories does not stand (p-value 182 of 9e-11, much smaller than 0.01). This uneven distribution of joint ENSO-SPV 183 events is also observed when deciles instead of quartiles are used to determine cases 184 (p-value of 5e-7). Fogt et al. (2011) found a similar result when the observed ENSO-185 SAM relationship during the 1957-2009 period was considered, with a prevalence 186 of El Niño occurrence during negative SAM and of La Niña occurrence during 187 positive SAM, primarily during the December-January-February season. If we as-188 sociate positive SAM with strong SPV (and late vortex breakdown) and negative 189 SAM with weak SPV (and early vortex breakdown), then Figure 5 and Table 1 are 190 in agreement with the hypothesis of Byrne et al. (2017) of a stratospheric pathway 191 for the ENSO-SAM relationship. Following previous works, in the remaining text 192 we will refer to in-phase events when both indices lie in the lower or upper quartile 193 and are of the same sign, bearing in mind that strong SPV events are associated 194 with a negative SPV index and weak SPV events with a positive SPV index, and 195 to out-of-phase events when both indices are in the extreme quartiles but are of 196 197 opposite sign.

198 3.3 Zonal asymmetries in response to ENSO and SPV events in the hindcast 199 ensemble

We now analyze the joint influence of ENSO and the SPV on the circulation by 200 investigating the zonal asymmetries in the stratosphere and troposphere. Because 201 of the non-random joint distribution of ENSO and SPV anomalies, regressing 202 on one index alone could introduce a confounding influence of the other index, 203 complicating the physical interpretation. We can control for such a confounding 204 influence by conditioning on the other variable. Thus, we first examine the influence 205 of SPV conditional on either El Niño or La Niña conditions; and the influence 206 on ENSO conditional on either a strong or weak SPV. This analysis also tests 207 the linearity of the relationship, i.e. whether it is dependent on the state of the 208 conditioning variable. We then examine all four corners of the contingency table, 209 i.e. the two in-phase and two out-of-phase configurations of the ENSO and SPV 210 indices. Table 2 summarizes the different composites computed. We do this for all 211 the figures in this subsection. 212

Figures 6 and 8 show composites of Z^* at 50hPa and 200hPa, respectively, from September to February for weak minus strong SPV conditioned on El Niño

events, weak minus strong SPV conditioned on La Niña events, El Niño minus La 215 Niña conditioned on weak SPV events, and El Niño minus La Niña conditioned 216 on strong SPV events. Figures 7 and 9 show composites of Z^* anomalies at 50hPa 217 and 200hPa, respectively, for in-phase events and out-of-phase events. Coloured 218 regions show statistically significant anomalies at the 5% level based on a t-test. 219 In the stratosphere, the SPV composites conditioned either on El Niño or La Niña 220 (Figure 6 two leftmost columns) present a wave-1 pattern with positive (negative) 221 anomalies occupying most of the eastern (western) Hemisphere in September and 222 October (first and second row). The asymmetries are very intense in middle and 223 high latitudes. In November (third row), at polar latitudes the anomalies reduce 224 their extension and in midlatitudes they shift westward. In December (fourth row), 225 asymmetries are confined to high latitudes and are displaced 90° with respect to 226 previous months. In January and February (fifth and sixth row) the anomalies are 227 almost negligible. On the other hand, the ENSO composites conditioned either on 228 weak or strong SPV (Figure 6 two rightmost columns) present more of a wave-2 229 pattern that is stronger and positive in the south Pacific Ocean and negative in 230 the southeastern Indian Ocean and southwestern Atlantic Ocean in September and 231 October. In November both positive and negative anomalies peak, with positive 232 anomalies spanning the south Pacific Ocean as well as the southeastern Indian 233 Ocean while negative anomalies are observed in the Atlantic Ocean. From Decem-234 ber onward the anomalies are positive over the South Pacific and negative in the 235 Atlantic and over Australia, although they are weaker than in previous months. At 236 this level, the structure of the composites for joint ENSO-SPV events (Figure 7) 237 retain the main characteristics of the SPV composites (that is, composites for 238 strong/weak SPV together with El Niño or La Niña are similar to those for weak 239 minus strong SPV conditioned on ENSO) in September and October, while in 240 January and February the composites for joint ENSO-SPV events resemble those 241 for El Niño minus La Niña conditioned on SPV. In November, the composites for 242 in-phase events (Figure 7 two leftmost columns) are strong while in December the 243 out-of-phase composites (Figure 7 two rightmost columns) are strong. 244

In the troposphere, the SPV composites conditioned on ENSO (Figure 8 two 245 leftmost columns) present maximum asymmetries on both sides of the Antarctic 246 247 peninsula peaking in October and decaying thereafter, being almost negligible in 248 January and February. The ENSO composites conditioned on SPV (Figure 8 two rightmost columns) show the Pacific South American (PSA) pattern wave-train 249 throughout the spring and summer time and peak in October and November. The 250 composites for in-phase events (Figure 9 two leftmost columns) strengthen the 251 PSA pattern observed in ENSO events, while the PSA is weaker when out-of-252 phase events are considered (Figure 9 two rightmost columns), in agreement with 253 previous work (Fogt et al., 2011). It is noticeable that there is no signal at 200 254 hPa of the strong out-of-phase response observed at 50hPa in December. 255

We now assess whether the mentioned similarities and differences between com-256 posites for the different categories are statistically significant or not. To do this, 257 we perform a statistical comparison of the composite fields by comparing the 258 temporal-mean spatial fields (i.e. the composite anomalies) using the pattern cor-259 relation coefficient. We test the null hypothesis that the observed correlation is 260 statistically indistinguishable from an unknown value between 0.9 and 1, which 261 would result if both fields were drawn from the same population, instead of the 262 usual test for correlation, which aims to determine if correlations differ signifi-263

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cantly from zero. To evaluate the significance of this statistic we use a Monte 264 Carlo method to avoid distortions due to the presence of spatial autocorrelation 265 (Wigley and Santer, 1990). Following Wigley and Santer (1990) and Preisendorfer 266 and Barnett (1983) we perform a Monte Carlo significance assessment through 267 a Pool Permutation Procedure of 10000 permutations to obtain the p values. If 268 two fields have a pattern correlation below 0.9 and a p value lower than 0.05 then 269 the null hypothesis is rejected and the two spatial fields compared are considered 270 to be statistically different. Since we are interested in determining the differences 271 observed outside the tropics, correlations are only computed between gridpoints 272 south of 45° . 273

Tables 3 and 4 show the pattern correlation between the composites of geopo-274 tential height for: weak minus strong SPV conditioned on El Niño against weak 275 minus strong SPV conditioned on La Niña, El Niño minus La Niña conditioned 276 on weak SPV against El Niño minus La Niña conditioned on strong SPV, the two 277 in-phase events and the two out-of-phase events, for 50hPa and 200hPa, respec-278 tively. At both levels, the correlations are very high, at least during the spring. 279 In the stratosphere, all the composites considered are not statistically different 280 from unity, the only exception being for ENSO events conditioned on the SPV for 281 January which is significant at the 10% level. Overall this supports the hypothesis 282 of the linearity of the relationship. In the troposphere, the correlation between 283 in-phase events and out-of-phase events is high and not statistically different from 284 unity. However there is evidence of non-linearity in the other comparisons. During 285 the September-December period, which is when the composites for SPV events 286 conditioned on ENSO are meaningful, the correlation between those composites is 287 statistically indistinguishable from unity only in September and October. Finally, 288 the composites of El Niño minus La Niña conditioned on SPV events are highly 289 correlated, but nevertheless those correlations are statistically different from unity 290 during November, December and January. 291

Despite some evidence of non-linearity, the pattern correlations in Tables 3 and 4 are quite high except where the signals are weak. Thus overall, the ENSO response and the SPV response at high latitudes are mainly independent of the state of each other. Both responses can combine constructively or destructively, as is shown by the in-phase and out-of-phase composites, depending on the month considered. The correlations between composites conditioned on the different phases of each index also supports this hypothesis, at least during the spring.

²⁹⁹ 4 Wave generation and propagation

Previous works investigated the mechanisms of how the tropical SST can influence 300 the stratospheric circulation. Rossby wave theory suggests that changes in tropical 301 convection can excite Rossby wave trains that propagate from the tropics into 302 the extratropics, with some of them penetrating the stratosphere and changing 303 the circulation there (Sardeshmukh and Hoskins, 1988). Lin et al. (2012) showed 304 that Rossby wave trains emanating from the Pacific sector propagate southward 305 and upward from their tropical source, with wave-train like patterns discernible 306 in the troposphere as well as the stratosphere. The ENSO composites presented 307 in the previous section show these wave train features in the troposphere and 308 the stratosphere are in agreement with the ENSO composites shown by previous 309

works (Lin et al., 2012; Hurwitz et al., 2011). Figure 10 shows composites of 310 Rossby Wave Source (RWS) and divergent winds at 200hPa for the eight cases 311 previously discussed against the climatology. Both variables are almost negligible, 312 with the exception of a small region east of Australia, for composites of weak minus 313 strong SPV conditioned on either El Niño or La Niña (first and second row). On 314 the other hand, for El Niño minus La Niña events, conditioned on either weak or 315 strong SPV (third and fourth row), RWS anomalies are negative over southeastern 316 Australia and positive in the southeastern Pacific. Consequently, those regions also 317 show significant convergent and divergent wind anomalies. When composites are 318 computed for in-phase events (fifth and sixth row), RWS anomalies as well as 319 divergent winds reinforce El Niño and La Niña signals to the east of Australia and 320 span a larger area. This region of anomalous RWS lies in the core of the subtropical 321 jet and could be responsible for the stronger Z^* anomalies emanating from the 322 tropics and observed in the extratropical troposphere during in-phase events. Ding 323 et al. (2012) showed that Rossby waves emanating from subtropical Australia 324 propagate to west Antarctica, shaping the SAM pattern over the Amundsen Sea 325 region. The strong anomalies observed on each side of the Antarctic Peninsula 326 could be the result of the stronger RWS anomalies favoured by in-phase events. 327 Conversely, the composites for El Niño and strong SPV (seventh row) (respectively 328 La Niña and weak SPV, eighth row) present weaker RWS anomalies and weaker 329 divergent winds than for El Niño and weak SPV (respectively La Niña and strong 330 SPV), especially in the Pacific Ocean. 331

From the analysis presented we can infer that the effect of the different combi-332 nation of drivers is mainly linear. The zonally asymmetric patterns are modulated 333 in independent ways by ENSO and by SPV variability, although there is a corre-334 lation in the underlying variability, and these modulations can act either in-phase 335 or out-of-phase. The position and intensity of the anomalies due to each forcing 336 are the key to understand the composites observed for in-phase and out-of-phase 337 events. We further explore the wave activity to understand the nature of the ob-338 served response. Figure 11 shows the ensemble mean horizontal wave-activity flux 339 response and its divergence (Takaya and Nakamura, 2001) at 50hPa (left column) 340 and 200hPa (right column) for the in-phase (first and second row) and out-of-341 342 phase events (third and fourth row). At 200hPa, the response spans the entire 343 hemisphere and is stronger for in-phase events than for out-of-phase events, particularly in the South Pacific and Atlantic sectors. At 50hPa, wave activity fluxes 344 are confined to middle and high latitudes and, as was observed for the troposphere, 345 the response for in-phase events is stronger than for out-of-phase events, especially 346 in the Pacific. 347

We decompose the ensemble-mean wave response into the ensemble-mean lin-348 ear (EM_{LIN}) response and the ensemble-mean non-linear response (EM_{NL}) , see 349 appendix). This type of diagnosis has proven to be helpful in understanding the 350 wave activity flux response to drivers (Fletcher and Kushner, 2011; Smith et al., 351 2010). The EM_{LIN} reflects the linear interference effect, that is, the phase dif-352 ference between the wave response and the climatological wave. If wave responses 353 are additive in the forcing, their EM_{LIN} terms should be additive. On the other 354 hand, the EM_{NL} term reflects the effect associated with the wave response alone 355 and is not additive. This analysis shows that EM_{LIN} is the dominant contributor 356 to EM (see supplementary figures S9-S10). Therefore, most of the wave activity 357 response is characterized by constructive or destructive interference between the 358

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ensemble mean response to both the SPV and ENSO driver and the climatolog-350 ical wave. The differences in the direction of the vectors between composites for 360 strong/weak SPV and ENSO events can be related to the differences in the spatial 361 coherence between the climatological wave-1 and -2 and the wave anomalies, which 362 are of opposite sign between strong and weak SPV events and between El Niño 363 and La Niña (not shown). For in-phase events the anomalous wave fluxes work 364 together in the South Pacific and Atlantic sector while when out-of-phase events 365 are considered the fluxes are weaker in the eastern South Pacific. The non-linear 366 terms are smaller but still important. The EM_{NL} response for in-phase events 367 shows highest activity and convergence and divergence in the southeastern Pacific 368 sector, showing an eastward propagation, and in the Indian Ocean sector. This 369 response is almost absent for out-of-phase events. 370

371 5 Conclusions

In this work we studied the combined influence of ENSO and the SPV on the 372 zonal asymmetries in the extratropical SH during spring and summer. We used 373 a large ensemble of seasonal forecast hindcasts to increase the robustness of the 374 results and to avoid issues related to sampling uncertainty. The large sample size 375 also allows an investigation of the subseasonal evolution of the ENSO and SPV 376 influence through the spring/summer period, which is not well aligned with the 377 traditional seasons (SON and DJF). Associating a strong SPV with a positive SAM 378 379 and a weak SPV with a negative SAM, we found that the relationship between the ENSO and SAM observed in previous works also holds for ENSO and SPV with 380 a tendency of El Niño (La Niña) events to be observed with weak (strong) SPV 381 more often than expected by chance (Fogt et al., 2011; Fogt and Bromwich, 2006; 382 Silvestri and Vera, 2003). In addition, the large sample size of the hindcast ensem-383 ble helps detect any non-linearities in the response to the ENSO and the SPV. We 384 showed that the asymmetric response to ENSO and SPV can be mainly explained 385 by a linear combination of the response to both forcings. In this sense, we found 386 that the tropospheric asymmetries in response to ENSO are more intense when 387 El Niño events occur with weak SPV and La Niña events occur with strong SPV 388 (in-phase events), at least from September until December. In contrast, when out-389 of-phase events occur, the extratropical asymmetries observed are weaker than the 390 typical ENSO response. This result extends the relationship between the ENSO 391 teleconnection at midlatitudes with the phase of the tropospheric SAM found by 392 Fogt et al. (2011) to the stratosphere, at least during the austral spring. In Fig-393 ure 12 we present a schematic diagram that shows the influence of ENSO and SPV 394 on the tropospheric zonal asymmetries and how both forcings combine during in-395 phase and out-of-phase events. ENSO composites conditioned on the strength of 396 the SPV are independent of the status of the SPV (Figure 12a), while SPV com-397 posites conditioned on ENSO are independent of the phase of ENSO (Figure 12b). 398 For in-phase events, the anomalies associated with SPV and ENSO reinforce each 399 other mainly in the Pacific sector (Figure 12c), while the opposite happens during 400 out-of-phase events (Figure 12d). In the stratosphere, the SPV signal dominates 401 over the ENSO signal for September and October; while in November and De-402 cember the asymmetries are stronger when in-phase and out-of-phase events are 403 considered, respectively, implying that both drivers play a non-negligible role. 404

⁴⁰⁵ Note that the linearity of the asymmetric response to both forcings implies that
⁴⁰⁶ the model biases documented in this study may not influence significantly the re⁴⁰⁷ sults presented, and helps explain why the model responses to forcings are quite
⁴⁰⁸ realistic (Figures 3 and 4).

Previous works showed that Rossby wave trains emanating from the tropics 409 associated with ENSO can propagate upwards to the stratosphere in midlatitudes 410 (Hurwitz et al., 2011; Lin et al., 2012). We showed that tropospheric waves ema-411 nating from the tropical Pacific are stronger during in-phase events associated with 412 a stronger RWS to the east of Australia. This can partially explain the stronger 413 asymmetries observed during in-phase events. Our results are also in agreement 414 with previous works that show that during in-phase events, enhanced eddy mo-415 mentum fluxes are observed in the Pacific sector, which might be responsible for 416 the stronger tropospheric asymmetries there (Fogt et al., 2011; Lin et al., 2012). 417 Our interpretation is that both mechanisms can be argued to explain the observed 418 response to ENSO and the SPV, and they are not incompatible (see Lin et al., 419 2012). This RWS analysis also suggests that the enhanced RWS observed dur-420 ing in-phase events could partially explain the correlation between the SPV and 421 ENSO shown in Figure 5 and Table 1. More investigation is needed to assess this 422 hypothesis, which is beyond the scope of the present study. 423

Having established the role of the SPV in shaping the extratropical asymmetric 424 circulation response to ENSO, the question of the predictability associated with 425 the occurrence of ENSO alongside with a strong/weak SPV arises. Previous works 426 427 showed that predictability of the tropospheric circulation is larger during ENSO events than for non-ENSO events (Jha et al., 2016; Osman et al., 2016). In addition, 428 the predictability of zonal circulation associated with SPV variability is larger 429 during austral spring and summer (Seviour et al., 2014; Byrne et al., 2019). It 430 could also be the case that the asymmetric circulation is more predictable when 431 the ENSO manifests and the SPV varies from its climatological state. In a future 432 work we will assess the predictability of the asymmetries reported in this work as 433 well as the impact on surface variables, such as precipitation and temperature. 434

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APPENDIX

444 A Wave activity flux decomposition

Wave activity fluxes are used to investigate the propagation of waves. We use the horizontal component of the wave activity flux W derived by Takaya and Nakamura (2001) which describes the propagation of wave disturbances on a zonally varying basic flow:

$$\mathbf{W} = \frac{1}{2\left|\overline{U}\right|} \begin{bmatrix} \overline{u}(\psi_x^{*2} - \psi^*\psi_{xx}^*) + \overline{v}(\psi_x^*\psi_y^* - \psi^*\psi_{xy}^*) \\ \overline{u}(\psi_x^*\psi_y^* - \psi^*\psi_{xy}^*) + \overline{v}(\psi_y^{*2} - \psi^*\psi_{yy}^*) \end{bmatrix}$$

where $\overline{U} = (\overline{u}, \overline{v})$ is the basic wind field and ψ^* is the streamfunction obtained from the zonal asymmetries Z^* . We decompose the ensemble mean of W (*EM*) into its linear term (*EM*_{LIN}) and non linear term (*EM*_{NL}). The decomposition follows Fletcher and Kushner (2011) and is illustrated here for the first term in the x-direction, but similar arguments apply to the rest of the terms. For each realization in the ensemble, we have

$$\psi^* = \langle \psi^* \rangle + {\psi^*}', \psi^*_x = \langle \psi^*_x \rangle + {\psi^*_x}', \psi^*_{xx} = \langle \psi^*_{xx} \rangle + {\psi^*_{xx}}'$$

where the angle brackets denote an ensemble mean and the prime a departure from the ensemble mean. The mean response, Δ {...}, for the first term in the x-direction can be decomposed as

$$\Delta\left\{\psi_{x}^{*2}-\psi^{*}\psi_{xx}^{*}\right\}=\Delta\left\{\left\langle\psi_{x}^{*}\right\rangle^{2}-\left\langle\psi^{*}\right\rangle\left\langle\psi_{xx}^{*}\right\rangle\right\}+\Delta\left\{\left\langle\psi_{x}^{*'2}\right\rangle-\left\langle\psi^{*'}\psi_{xx}^{*'}\right\rangle\right\}.$$

The first term of the right-hand-side of the equation is the response associated with the ensemble mean eddy response (EM), while the second term is the response associated with the departures from the ensemble mean (FL). The EM term can be further decomposed if we separate the ensemble mean as follows:

$$\psi^{*}\rangle = \psi_{c}^{*} + \Delta \left\langle \psi^{*} \right\rangle, \left\langle \psi_{x}^{*} \right\rangle = \psi_{xc}^{*} + \Delta \left\langle \psi_{x}^{*} \right\rangle, \left\langle \psi_{xx}^{*} \right\rangle = \psi_{xxc}^{*} + \Delta \left\langle \psi_{xx}^{*} \right\rangle$$

where the subscript c refers to the climatology. Then,

$$EM = EM_{LIN} + EM_{NL}$$

445 where EM_{LIN} and EM_{NL} in the mentioned example turn out to be

$$EM_{LIN} = \left\{ 2\psi_{xc}^* \Delta \langle \psi_x^* \rangle - \psi_c^* \Delta \langle \psi_{xx} \rangle - \psi_{xxc}^* \Delta \langle \psi_x \rangle \right\}$$

446 and

$$EM_{NL} = \left\{ \left(\Delta \left\langle \psi_x^* \right\rangle \right)^2 - \Delta \left\langle \psi^* \right\rangle \Delta \left\langle \psi_{xx}^* \right\rangle \right\}.$$

The EM_{LIN} term represents the linear interference effect, which involves the phase difference between the wave response and the climatological wave. The EM_{NL} term reflects the wave activity change intrinsic to the wave response itself.

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Fig. 1 Monthly mean climatological differences in Z between hindcasts and ERA-Interim (m) for (a) September, (b) October, (c) November, (d) December, (e) January, (f) February 1981-2018. The year 2002 has been excluded. Coloured regions indicate differences that are statistically different at the 5% level based on a two-sided t-test. Hindcasts are initialized on 1 August.



Fig. 2 Same as Figure 1 but for zonal wind u.

Table 1 Number of cases by category used in the composites based on the joint SPV-ENSO distribution shown in Figure 5.

	Strong SPV	Neutral SPV	Weak SPV	Sum
Niño	65	236	158	459
Neutral	255	452	211	918
Niña	139	230	90	459
Sum	459	918	459	1836

 ${\bf Table \ 2} \ {\rm Composites \ computed \ to \ analyze \ the \ response \ to \ ENSO \ and \ SPV.}$

Composite	Reference		
Weak - Strong SPV cond Niño	SPV composites cond Niño		
Weak - Strong SPV cond Niña	SPV composites cond Niña		
Niño - Niña cond Strong SPV	ENSO composites cond Strong SPV		
Niño - Niña cond Weak SPV	ENSO composites cond Weak SPV		
Niño & Weak SPV	In-phase events		
Niña & Strong SPV	In-phase events		
Niño & Strong SPV	Out-of-phase events		
Niña & Weak SPV	Out-of-phase events		



Fig. 3 Composite differences of Z^* at 200hPa between El Niño and La Niña in October for (a) ERA-Interim and (b) hindcasts. Units are in m and coloured regions are statistically different from zero at the 5% level based on a t-test.



Fig. 4 Composite differences of Z^* at 200hPa between weak and strong SPV in October for (a) ERA-Interim and (b) hindcasts. Units are in m and coloured regions are statistically different from zero at the 5% level based on a t-test.



Fig. 5 Scatter plot between ENSO and SPV indices. Red (blue) symbols denote weak (strong) SPV events, which correspond to positive (negative) SPV indices. Horizontal and vertical dashed lines define the limits of each category. Green colours are used for neutral SPV events that occur simultaneously with either positive or negative ENSO events while triangles denote neutral ENSO events that occur simultaneously with either strong or weak SPV events.

Table 3 Pattern correlation between monthly composites of Z^* at 50hPa for Strong/Weak SPV and those for in phase and out of phase events. Bold (italic) denotes correlations statistically different from ± 1 at the 5% and (10%) levels based on a Pool Permutation Procedure.

	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb
Weak-Strong SPV cond El Niño vs Weak-Strong SPV cond La Niña	0.98	0.98	0.93	0.92	0.39	0.71
El Niño-La Niña cond Weak SPV vsi El Niño-La Niña cond Strong SPV	0.90	0.78	0.94	0.67	0.79	0.90
El Niño-Weak SPV vs La Niña-Strong SPV	-0.95	-0.97	-0.86	-0.60	-0.65	-0.94
El Niño-Strong SPV vs La Niña-Weak SPV	-0.96	-0.94	-0.47	-0.98	-0.84	-0.74

Table 4 Same as Table 3 but for composites at 200hPa.

	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb
Weak-Strong SPV cond El Niño vs Weak-Strong SPV cond La Niña	0.87	0.95	0.89	0.67	0.38	0.47
El Niño-La Niña cond Weak SPV vs El Niño-La Niña cond Strong SPV	0.93	0.90	0.89	0.78	0.85	0.85
El Niño-Weak SPV vs La Niña-Strong SPV	-0.73	-0.97	-0.97	-0.89	-0.81	-0.81
El Niño-Strong SPV vs La Niña-Weak SPV	-0.79	-0.77	-0.69	-0.53	-0.62	-0.53



Fig. 6 Monthly mean Z^* at 50hPa composites for: Weak minus Strong SPV conditioned on El Niño events (first column); Weak minus Strong SPV conditioned on La Niña events (second column); El Niño minus La Niña conditioned on Weak SPV (third column); El Niño minus La Niña conditioned on Strong SPV (fourth column). Contour intervals are 20m. Coloured regions are statistically different from zero at the 5% level based on a t-test.



Fig. 7 Monthly mean Z^* at 50hPa anomaly composites for: El Niño-weak SPV (first column); La Niña-strong SPV (second column); El Niño-strong SPV (third column); La Niña-weak SPV (fourth column). Contour intervals are 20m. Coloured regions are statistically different from zero at the 5% level based on a t-test.



Fig. 8 Same as Fig. 6 but for Z^* differences at 200hPa.



Fig. 9 Same as Fig. 7 but for Z^* differences at 200hPa.

Composites S4 RWS (s-1) and Divergent wind (m/s) 200hPa - Oct



Fig. 10 Composite differences of Rossby Wave Source (shaded, units 1e-10 s^{-1}) and divergent wind (arrows, units m/s) at 200hPa for the eight categories defined in Table 1 against climatology. Zonal wind values are displayed in green contours (contour values: 30m/s and 40 m/s).



Composites EM Plumb fluxes and its divergence - Oct

Fig. 11 Ensemble mean Wave activity Flux response (arrows) and its divergence (shaded) at 50hPa (left column) and 200hPa (right column) to in-phase and out-of-phase events. Convergence/Divergence levels are \pm 0.3e-6ms⁻² and \pm 1e-6ms⁻².



Fig. 12 Schematic showing the role of ENSO and SPV on Z* at 200hPa during springtime. a) El Niño minus La Niña composites conditioned on SPV, b) Weak minus Strong SPV conditioned on ENSO, c) In-phase events (El Niño (solid lines) and Weak SPV (dotted lines) events; composites for La Niña and Strong SPV events are similar but with opposite signs), d) Out-of-phase events (El Niño (solid lines) and Strong SPV (dotted lines) events; composites for La Niña and Weak SPV events are similar but with opposite signs). Red lines denote positive anomalies while blue lines denote negative anomalies. Red (blue) shading in c) and d) denotes regions where positive (negative) anomalies are reinforced due to the combination of ENSO and SPV, while gray shading denotes regions where anomalies partially cancel.