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Relationship Between Atmospheric Teleconnections and the Northern Hemisphere’s Circumpolar Vortex

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Abstract The Northern Hemispheric circumpolar vortex (NHCPV) is the hemispheric-scale, middle- and upper-tropospheric wind belt circumnavigating the North Pole. It is delineated by the well-known polar front jet stream, and it bends poleward at ridges and equatorward at troughs at various amplitudes and positions over time. Previous work assessed the accuracy of representing the NHCPV using a new technique through correlations to air-sea teleconnections known to be related to broad-scale, extratropical steering circulation at the monthly scale. Results of that work suggested that the method allows for notable improvements in the calculation of area and circularity of the 500-hPa manifestation of the NHCPV. Because using monthly averaged data to represent the NHCPV may oversimplify analyses, especially for identifying meteorological impacts, this research employs the same technique for identifying the daily NHCPV. Results suggest that CPV area and circularity are even more closely related to variability in the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO), Pacific/North American pattern, and (especially) Arctic Oscillation (AO) teleconnections, and the El Niño/Southern Oscillation phenomenon at the daily scale than at the monthly scale. A principal components analysis reveals the extent of the interrelationships between the teleconnections and NHCPV area and circularity. Results generally affirm that both the individual teleconnections, especially the NAO and AO, and interdependencies among these teleconnections and others, are strongly related to the NHCPV area and circularity. These findings are important because low- and high-frequency variability in the amplitudes and positions of the undulations in the broad-scale flow influence weather systems that exert important impacts on society.

Plain Language Summary The broad-scale, west-to-east, upper-level atmospheric flow separates the frigid polar air from the much more moderate temperate air over the middle latitudes. Popularly known as the “polar vortex,” this circumpolar vortex (CPV) expands equatorward and contracts poleward, and becomes quasi-circular at times and wavier (with south-to-north or north-to-south components of flow) at other times on its general west-to-east trek around the North Pole. Previous work has defined the CPV’s position at a given time using a predetermined, one-size-fits-all elevation at which 500 hPa of atmospheric pressure occurs. Our approach introduced in a previous study is based on the steepest gradient of that elevation. In this study, we demonstrate the effectiveness of this new delineation by showing that the CPV’s area and waviness are linked at the daily scale to several known atmospheric circulation features that have been shown previously to be associated with the CPV. Two atmospheric flow patterns—the so-called Arctic Oscillation and the related North Atlantic Oscillation—are particularly closely linked to the Northern Hemisphere’s CPV (NHCPV), and the El Niño/Southern Oscillation phenomenon is associated less directly with NHCPV variability. Results will help atmospheric scientists as they use model output of the CPV’s position to identify steering patterns that affect daily weather.

1. Introduction

The circumpolar vortex (CPV) is the continuous zone of rapid winds generally flowing cyclonically aloft in the middle-to-upper troposphere circumnavigating each pole. The leading edge of the CPV is the polar front, which steers, supports, and suppresses extratropical surface weather systems by providing upper-level support (or lack thereof) for surface storms. Therefore, knowledge regarding the spatial and temporal variability associated with the CPV can enhance understanding of surface weather and its related impacts.

Bushra and Rohli (2019) identified a new method for identifying the CPV, with diagnostic measurements of the CPV’s area, hemispheric zonality in the form of a circularity ratio ($R_c$)—the ratio of the area enclosed...
within the Northern Hemisphere's circumpolar vortex [NHCPV] polygon to the area of a circle with a circumference equal to the distance enclosed by the polygon, such that near-zero values represent more amplified ridges/troughs and values near 1.0 represent a more circular NHCPV—Rohli et al., 2005, and centroid location. The daily values from Bushra and Rohli (2019) were aggregated and reported at the monthly scale for direct comparison to Wrona and Rohli’s (2007) monthly mean Northern Hemispheric CPV (NHCPV) area and \( R_c \) for the months included in Wrona and Rohli’s (2007) analysis (April, July, October, December, January, and February). Wrona and Rohli (2007) had used the more conventional approach of defining the NHCPV using a pre-determined 500-hPa isohypse recommended by Frauenfeld and Davis (2003), over the 1979–2001 period. Results from Bushra and Rohli (2019) revealed that although the previous work had represented substantial steps forward, the new technique, which delineates the CPV at the steepest 500-hPa geopotential height gradient along each meridian of longitude, is advantageous because it reveals NHCPV variability that is linked more strongly than the previous techniques to known modulators of monthly circulation variability in the form of atmospheric teleconnections. This result is potentially very important, because, if this result is confirmed at the daily scale, then the available daily indices for the major atmospheric teleconnection patterns could lead to an improved understanding of sub-monthly-scale atmospheric variability, such as floods and severe weather events.

As the new measurement technique has been validated, the purpose of this research is to address the question of how the area and circularity of the NHCPV are linked to teleconnection variability on a daily scale. This question is important to address for two reasons: (a) two extreme anomalies of opposite sign within a month could provide the mistaken impression that a teleconnection was in its “average” mode simply because its index near zero; and (b) the main modes of variability in broad-scale atmospheric flow in the form of atmospheric teleconnections are increasingly predictable at long lead times, yet their most important impacts are at the daily time scale in the form of extreme weather events. In addition to the investigation of high-frequency (i.e., daily) variability of the teleconnection patterns taken individually, the association between some teleconnections to each other calls for an examination of the collective linkage between modes of variability in broad-scale flow and the NHCPV. Thus, a principal components analysis (PCA) is implemented to reduce the dimensionality (number of variables) of the data set and reveal the listic links between the teleconnections and NHCPV area and \( R_c \).

This research addresses the following research questions: (a) to what extent does variability associated with tropical versus extratropical atmospheric teleconnections align with variability in the NHCPV area and \( R_c \)? (b) How does variability in multiple teleconnections, acting together, align with NHCPV area and \( R_c \)? While we acknowledge that geophysical impacts of the El Niño/Southern Oscillation (ENSO) phenomenon require weeks to months to materialize, with different lag times at different times of the year, we include ENSO as part of our analysis, for comparison to the representation of higher-frequency forms of variability in the form of mid-latitude teleconnections.

2. Atmospheric Teleconnections That Influence Extratropical Flow

The identification of major modes of broad-scale atmospheric variability has a rich history, including seminal work by Walker and Bliss (1932), Horel and Wallace (1981), Wallace and Gutzler (1981), and Barnston and Livezey (1987). The most important mode of low-frequency atmosphere-ocean variability is ENSO (Philander, 1990). ENSO is an oscillation between surface atmospheric pressure between the western and eastern equatorial Pacific Ocean. During times when the atmospheric sea level pressure (SLP) is anomalously high (low) in the western tropical Pacific, it is simultaneously low (high) in the eastern tropical Pacific, and this phase corresponds to the El Niño or a “warm event” (La Niña or “cold event”) phase in the ocean. Torrence and Compo (1998) explained the implications of wavelet analysis in the atmospheric sciences using the example of the El Niño–Southern Oscillation (ENSO) time series from 1871 to 1997. Among the many indices representing the mode of ENSO variability, the Southern Oscillation index (SOI) is one of the most commonly used (e.g., Li et al., 2021; Ropelewski & Jones, 1987), particularly in atmospheric research, since it is based on normalized SLP differences—between Tahiti and Darwin, Australia, with positive (negative) SOI representing La Niña (El Niño). A second index is more popular in oceanographic work (e.g., Clarke & van Gorder, 2001; Hardiman et al., 2019; Menendez et al., 2008; Zhi et al., 2020) because it
relies on sea surface temperature (SST) departures; this so-called Niño3.4 index is aligned such that positive (negative) values indicate El Niño (La Niña).

Much previous work has investigated the relationship between tropical teleconnections, particularly ENSO, and the NHCPV. The tendencies for El Niño to be followed by shrinking of the NHCPV with a three-season lag (Angell, 1992) and within the season (Frauenfeld & Davis, 2000) has been noted, presumably because of the poleward shift in the steepest gradient of oceanic temperatures (Bushra & Rohli, 2019), but the eastern Pacific sector of the NHCPV expands during an El Niño event (Angell, 1992). Over the periods 1959–2001, Rohli et al. (2005) found that neither the SOI nor the Niño3.4 SST index show significant correlation with either January NHCPV area or $R_c$. Although Angell and Korshover (1977) had found a tendency for the NHCPV to be contracted when the quasi-biennial oscillation (QBO) was in its westerly phase from 1963 to 1975, Angell (2001) found little evidence for a relationship between the NHCPV area and the QBO over the tropical stratosphere.

Not unexpectedly, extratropical teleconnections, which are driven largely by CPV behavior, have also been evaluated for their influences on weather. The North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO; Barnston & Livezey, 1987; Hurrell, 1995; van Loon & Rogers, 1981; Wallace & Gutzler, 1981) modulates the atmospheric circulation that impacts weather conditions in western Europe and the eastern United States (Higgins et al., 2000; Hurrell & Van Loo, 1997; Kapala et al., 1998). Higuchi et al. (1999) employed multiresolution Fourier transform spectral analysis to resolve the temporal structure of the variation of the NAO from 1865 to 1991 in terms of various frequency components. The NAO index has been used to measure the surface temperature and differences in normalized SLP (Wallace & Gutzler, 1981) between two locations: Ponta Delgada, Azores, and Akureyri, Iceland (Lamb & Peppler, 1987), or it can be derived based on empirical orthogonal function analysis of mid-tropospheric geopotential heights (e.g., Deser & Blackmon, 1993). Positive (negative) phases of the NAO correspond with a large (small) standardized SLP difference between the Bermuda-Azores subtropical anticyclone and the Icelandic Low, and strong (weak) westerlies across the North Atlantic (Wallace & Gutzler, 1981). The positive (negative) NAO is associated with positive (negative) temperatures departures in the eastern United States and northwestern Europe and negative- (positive-) temperature anomalies in the Greenland/Labrador area (Wallace & Gutzler, 1981). PCA has been used to identify modes of variability associated with teleconnections including the NAO (e.g., Martinez-Artigas et al., 2021).

The Arctic Oscillation (AO), characterized by oscillation of atmospheric mass between the Arctic and the mid-latitudes, is another dominant mode of Northern Hemispheric-scale atmospheric variability (Thompson & Wallace, 1998, 2000). The AO pattern influences weather and climate of the vast regions of North America, Europe, and East Asia (e.g., Higgin et al., 2002; Kolstad et al., 2010; Park et al., 2011; Tomassini et al., 2012). A positive (negative) AO index indicates negative (positive) geopotential height anomalies over the Arctic and anomalously high (low) geopotential heights in lower latitudes and causes a “warm” (cold) phase particularly over northern Europe (Thompson & Wallace, 1998). Variability associated with the AO tends to occur on a multitude of time scales, including decadal, with the 1960s through the 1980s dominated by the negative AO phase and the 1990s through the first two decades of the new century dominated by positive AO conditions, with strongly fluctuating signals in recent years.

Several studies (e.g., Ambaum et al., 2001; Rogers & McHugh, 2002; Wanner et al., 2001) have shown that the AO resembles the NAO and there is a strong correlation between them, although their signs and impacts can differ (D. Wang et al., 2005). The frequency-time appearance of NAO is physically more robust, consistent, and relevant to North Atlantic winter climate variability than the AO (Ambaum et al., 2001). The AO and NAO indices are negatively correlated with the area of the NHCPV in winter (represented by December through February) and spring (represented by April; Wrona & Rohli, 2007), such that the positive or “warm” phase is linked to shrinking, as the warm/cold air boundary shifts northward in this phase. Wrona and Rohli (2007) found no strong evidence at the monthly scale for a link between the AO or NAO and $R_c$.

The Pacific-North American (PNA) pattern is another important component of mid-latitude flow, consisting of anomalies in the geopotential height fields (typically at 700 or 500 hPa) observed over the western and eastern United States (Wallace & Gutzler, 1981). The positive phase consists of above-normal geopotential heights (i.e., ridging) over western North America and below normal geopotential heights (i.e., troughing) over the eastern United States, allowing cold Canadian air to plunge southeastward, resulting in negative
temperature anomalies over the eastern United States and positive temperature anomalies over western North America (Leathers & Palecki, 1992; Leathers et al., 1991). The negative phase features troughing or at least negative height departures over western North America, and simultaneous ridging or positive height departures over the eastern United States, resulting in negative temperature departures in the western mountain cordillera and positive temperature departures over the eastern United States (Leathers & Palecki, 1992). The PNA pattern has been found to be strongly influenced by ENSO (Renwick & Wallace, 1996; Straus & Shukla, 2002; C. Wang et al., 2020), with the positive (negative) phase of the PNA pattern tending to be associated with Pacific warm (cold) episodes (i.e., El Niño [La Niña]). The cumulative effect of the NAO and PNA pattern acting in concert can amplify U.S. temperature anomalies (Baxter & Nigam, 2013; Ning & Bradley, 2016; Notaro et al., 2006). Burnett (1993) found that the increased frequency of the positive mode of the PNA pattern may have supported a temporal increase in NHCPV area from the mid-1960s to the mid-1980s, largely because of amplified troughing over the central Pacific Ocean and eastern North America/Atlantic Ocean. Not surprisingly, because of its amplified ridge-trough configuration in its positive mode, the PNA pattern is negatively correlated to NHCPV $r$, in December, January, and to some extent, October (Bushra & Rohli, 2019; Wrona & Rohli, 2007).

Although a substantial number of studies has been carried out to demonstrate the relationship between variability in teleconnection indices and atmospheric variables at climatological time scales, none have included the CPV. Given that other studies show significant associations of teleconnections to surface meteorological anomalies, other teleconnections are likely to be linked to NHCPV variability. However, some may have compensating effects across longitudes, yielding no significant net change in NHCPV area or circularity. Others, such as the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO; Newman et al., 2003) are potentially useful but do not have indices that are available on a daily basis. And some indices of teleconnections, particularly those representing ENSO, are unavailable on a daily basis even though daily data exist for other indices of that teleconnection (e.g., Multivariate ENSO index; Wolter & Timlin, 2011). Therefore, the present research is needed to ascertain whether the linkage between the NHCPV area and/or $r$, and the SOI, Niño3.4, NAO, AO, and PNA appear at the daily scale using the “steepest gradient” approach, and at all months rather than only those in winter and one representative month of each season as tested in Bushra and Rohli (2019). This issue is important to address because the size and shape of the CPV is inherently tied to the locations of baroclinicity and upper-level support for surface systems associated with impactful extreme weather.

### 3. Materials and Methods

Statistically standardized daily atmospheric teleconnection index data are downloaded from URLs shown in Bushra and Rohli (2019; their Table 1). To facilitate comparison of results with that of the previous study, NHCPV area and $r$, are calculated from geopotential height data from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction/National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCEP/NCAR; Kanamitsu et al., 2002). Also as in Bushra and Rohli (2019), the leading edge of the CPV is defined by connecting the points representing the steepest gradient of 500-hPa geopotential height along each longitude, daily from 1979 to 2017. NHCPV area is calculated after projecting the polygon using Lambert’s equal area projection. $r$, is defined as in Bushra and Rohli (2019), using the conformal polar stereographic projection. Delineating the daily CPV involves resolving the computational challenges of preserving complicated shapes that appear in the daily data but get “washed out” in monthly mean data, namely perforations such as cutoff lows of colder air surrounded spuriously by warmer air and narrow zones of colder air equatorward of warmer air.

Daily mean teleconnection indices for the NAO, AO, and PNA pattern in the satellite era beginning in 1979 and for the SOI and Niño3.4 since 1991 and 1990, respectively, are used. These time periods are selected to match the periods for which the NHCPV area and $r$, were computed by Bushra and Rohli (2019). For each time period, a Pearson product-moment correlation matrix is calculated between the daily NHCPV area and $r$, with the five standardized indices representing the four teleconnections. To ensure an adequate number of observations while still remaining true to the mission of representing daily variability accurately, the NHCPV area and (separately) $r$, are standardized daily (by subtracting the mean for that Julian day and then dividing by the standard deviation for that Julian day) over the 1979 to 2017 period, while the teleconnections are standardized using all data available between 1979 and 2017.
Table 1
Pearson Product-Moment Correlations of the Area and Circularity Ratio ($R_c$) of the Northern Hemisphere’s Circumpolar Vortex Versus Atmospheric and Sea Surface Temperature Indices, at the Daily Time Scale, for the Periods of Available Records of Teleconnection Indices (January 1979 to September 2017 for the AO, NAO, and PNA Pattern, January 1991 Through December 2017 for the SOI, and January 1990 Through December 2017 for the Niño3.4)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month</th>
<th>Area</th>
<th></th>
<th>$R_c$</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AO</td>
<td>NAO</td>
<td>SOI</td>
<td>Niño3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January</td>
<td>-0.068</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>-0.034</td>
<td>0.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.242</td>
<td>0.502</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February</td>
<td>-0.040</td>
<td>0.110</td>
<td>-0.047</td>
<td>0.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.183</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>0.119</td>
<td>0.461</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March</td>
<td>-0.196</td>
<td>-0.138</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>0.055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>0.678</td>
<td>0.119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>-0.332</td>
<td>-0.057</td>
<td>0.115</td>
<td>-0.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>0.050</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>0.873</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>-0.315</td>
<td>-0.108</td>
<td>0.104</td>
<td>-0.016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>0.640</td>
<td>0.030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>-0.301</td>
<td>-0.262</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>-0.116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>0.541</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>-0.326</td>
<td>-0.181</td>
<td>0.155</td>
<td>-0.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>0.490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August</td>
<td>-0.237</td>
<td>0.062</td>
<td>0.448</td>
<td>-0.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>0.030</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>0.569</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September</td>
<td>-0.247</td>
<td>-0.055</td>
<td>0.227</td>
<td>0.192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>0.061</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>October</td>
<td>-0.213</td>
<td>-0.139</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>-0.099</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>0.233</td>
<td>0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>November</td>
<td>-0.261</td>
<td>-0.098</td>
<td>0.138</td>
<td>0.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>0.077</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December</td>
<td>-0.167</td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td>0.176</td>
<td>0.110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Correlations significant at $\alpha \leq 0.05$ are shown in bold.
AO, Arctic Oscillation; NAO, North Atlantic Oscillation; PNA, Pacific-North American; SOI, Southern Oscillation index.

Because the position and amplitude of the NHCPV’s ridges and troughs may not necessarily be associated with NHCPV area (i.e., the ridges and troughs could simply progress or retrogress, or amplify in some places and dampen simultaneously in others), and because the ridges and troughs progress and retrogress temporally, it is important to identify the teleconnections that, individually or collectively, may vary coincidentally with CPV area and/or CPV $R_c$. Thus, PCA is applied to identify trends in the main modes of holistic spatio-temporal variability of the relationships between the NHCPV and the teleconnections (Demšar et al., 2013).

PCA is one of the oldest and most popular dimensionality reduction methods applied in the atmospheric sciences, operating by identifying common patterns within a data set by linearly transforming the original data to new dimensions that explain successively less data set variability (Jackson, 2005). As such, PCA is useful for illustrating the teleconnection/CPV relationship, in which broad-scale dynamics are inferred from inspection of patterns resulting (primarily) from PCA, through space and time simultaneously. To date, PCA has been used in atmospheric research such as in identifying and assessing analog forecasting...
(Grimmer, 1963), spatial variability (e.g., Kutzbach, 1967; Stidd, 1967), classification (e.g., Dyer, 1975) and regionalization (e.g., Comrie & Glenn, 1998; Mallants & Feyen, 1990; Richman & Lamb, 1985), and circulation changes (e.g., Compagnucci & Vargas, 1998).


In this research, an input matrix consisting of seven columns (i.e., the five daily standardized teleconnection indices and the two daily standardized indices of the NHCPV [i.e., area and $R_c$]) and 9,705 rows (i.e., month/day/year), is input into a P-mode PCA data structure (Richman, 1986). The correlation matrix of the seven daily standardized variables against each other is then produced, with the loadings matrix output consisting of the seven variables along the rows versus the first seven principal components. The output component scores matrix, by principal component (columns) versus time (rows) allows for detailed analysis of the time series of changes in the atmospheric configuration consisting of the teleconnections and NHCPV properties. Then, 16 additional, separate PCAs are run on the same daily standardized data, for each of the 12 months and for each meteorological season (D-J-F, M-A-M, J-J-A, and S-O-N), to identify the extent of consistency and aid in explanation of forcing features.

While the standardization process satisfies the PCA assumption of non-stationarity in the seasonality of the atmospheric data, the Durbin-Watson (D-W) test (Savin & White, 1977) is used to assess the validity of the assumption of the absence of serial autocorrelation (Vanhatalo & Kulahci, 2016). A D-W test statistic of 0–4 is output, whereby values above (below) 2 suggest (negative) positive autocorrelation, mostly applicable for time series data. According to Field (2009), values below 1

### Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Area</th>
<th>$R_c$</th>
<th>AO</th>
<th>NAO</th>
<th>PNA</th>
<th>SOI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$R_c$</td>
<td>−0.528**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AO</td>
<td>−0.141**</td>
<td>0.383**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAO</td>
<td>−0.012</td>
<td>0.210**</td>
<td>0.551**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNA</td>
<td>0.132**</td>
<td>−0.268**</td>
<td>−0.147**</td>
<td>0.046**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOI</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>0.044**</td>
<td>0.048**</td>
<td>0.048**</td>
<td>0.031*</td>
<td>−0.069**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niño3.4</td>
<td>−0.028*</td>
<td>−0.049**</td>
<td>−0.016</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>0.066**</td>
<td>−0.469**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. *p < 0.05 **p < 0.01.
AO, Arctic Oscillation; NAO, North Atlantic Oscillation; PNA, Pacific-North American; SOI, Southern Oscillation index.

### Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Before C-O procedure</th>
<th>After C-O procedure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Area</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>1.993</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R_c$</td>
<td>1.974</td>
<td>1.997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AO</td>
<td>0.884</td>
<td>1.990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAO</td>
<td>0.905</td>
<td>1.894</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNA</td>
<td>1.738</td>
<td>*Did not converge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOI</td>
<td>1.682</td>
<td>*Did not converge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niño3.4</td>
<td>0.351</td>
<td>2.034</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*An iterative approach continues until there is convergence in calculating the regression coefficients.

AO, Arctic Oscillation; C-O, Cochrane-Orcutt; NAO, North Atlantic Oscillation; PNA, Pacific-North American; SOI, Southern Oscillation index.
or exceeding 3 could be cause for concern. The Cochrane-Orcutt (C-O) method (Montgomery et al., 2012) is used to remove any such autocorrelation.

4. Results

4.1. Pearson Correlation Analysis

Pearson correlations are calculated at the daily scale between NHCPV area (and separately, $R_c$) versus each of the five teleconnection indices, for each of the 12 months, as was done in Bushra and Rohli (2019). A greater number of statistically significant correlations occurred between NHCPV area and (separately) $R_c$ versus the teleconnection indices at the daily scale than Bushra and Rohli (2019) reported at the monthly scale. Specifically, 37 (38) statistically significant (although not necessarily practically significant) correlations, or 61.67% (63.33%) of the pairs of variables, for CPV area ($R_c$) exist, respectively (Table 1). These numbers compare to 18 (27), or 30.0% (45.0%), as shown in Table 3 from Bushra and Rohli (2019) for the same teleconnections and study period, but for monthly data. It should be noted that the PDO was analyzed at the monthly scale by Bushra and Rohli (2019), but this teleconnection was not analyzed here because daily values were unavailable. However, the relatively low explained variance for some correlations suggests that caution should be exercised in the interpretation of results.

Table 1 reveals many interesting patterns. As was the case at the monthly scale, the AO shows the strongest relationship among the teleconnection indices to both NHCPV area and $R_c$. The AO is correlated significantly to both area (negatively) and $R_c$ (positively) in 11 of the 12 months, with February having a significant correlation only to $R_c$. Also expectedly similar to the work at the monthly scale, the daily NAO is linked in largely the same manner as the AO, with a positive NAO index associated with a significantly anomalously small and circular NHCPV, but only in seven months each for area and $R_c$. The NAO’s linkage to the NHCPV weakens or even reverses in winter, a finding that was largely supported in previous monthly scale analysis (Bushra & Rohli, 2019), perhaps owing to the NAO’s regional scope versus the NHCPV’s hemispheric scope. The daily PNA pattern has a significantly positive link to NHCPV area in eight months, with a weaker association in winter, and a negative link to $R_c$ in all months. The two ENSO indices correlate more weakly with NHCPV and $R_c$, though they are still statistically significant in some months, as compared to the three indices of extratropical teleconnections.

Daily NHCPV area is inversely associated with $R_c$, and several of the daily teleconnection indices are correlated with each other (Table 2). For example, it is not surprising that strongly significant positive relationships exist between the AO and NAO, and significant negative relationships exist between SOI and Niño3.4.
Overall daily correlations across all months verify the results in Table 1, with even the tropical teleconnections showing evidence for linkages to the NHCPV. A surprising result is the positive correlation between NAO and PNA pattern, which contradicts past research (Pinto et al., 2011) and the NAO versus AO correlation. It is possible that the observed lag with the NAO leading the PNA of opposite sign (Baxter & Nigam, 2013) may explain the positive, non-lagged relationship found here. In general, the association between variables calls for PCA to identify the main modes of data set variability independently of these associations.

4.2. Durbin-Watson and Cochrane-Orcutt Tests

Because teleconnections tend to change relatively slowly over time, it is not surprising that the D-W test on daily teleconnection indices (and CPV area and $R_c$ affected by them) reveals the existence of serial correlation for the first-order autoregressive process. However, much reduced values of the D-W statistic result for the AO, NAO, and Niño3.4 after applying the C-O procedure (Table 3). Although the PNA pattern index and SOI did not converge (which is a continuation of an iterative approach until calculating the regression coefficients, $\rho$) after applying the C-O adjustment, they were input into the PCA before applying the C-O procedure since the original D-W test statistics fell within the range of 1.5–2.5.

4.3. Principal Components Analysis (PCA)

The first PC explains nearly 29% of the data set variance, while the first three components explain more normalized variance than the original variables that compose them, as indicated by their eigenvalues that exceed 1.0. A scree plot (Jackson, 2005) in Figure 1 suggests that the first five components, which collectively explain almost 90 percent of the data set variability, should be examined more closely. This approach accomplishes the goal of data reduction, to identify the main modes of variability in the data set, so that intercorrelations among the different teleconnections and CPV area and $R_c$ are removed. The explained variance by principal component (Figure 2) shows that $R_c$ is the most strongly represented variable in PC1, while PCs 2 and 5 capture the ENSO indices most effectively. PC3 best represents the NAO with strong representation of both NHCPV area and the NAO-related AO. PC4 is the “PNA pattern” component. The PCA-generated eigenvalues for individual months and seasons suggest that a relatively consistent relationship among the variables across the monthly and seasonal time scales exists (Table 4). Moreover, similar patterns of prominence of $R_c$, ENSO, NAO, and PNA in PCs 1 through 4, respectively, persist in general in each season (Figure 3), verifying the robustness of the results. In every case, approximately 80% of the variance is explained by the four PCs, but differences from month to month for PC1 and PC2 are noteworthy, as indicated by eigenvalues that exceed 1.0 (Table 4). Specifically, PC1 is slightly less important in late winter/early spring than at most other times of the year while PC2 is more important, and other months have complimentary explained variance for these two components (Figure 4). Similar complimentary patterns are apparent between PC3 and PC4 but with less explained variability. Not surprisingly, the ENSO-dominated PC2 shows less prominence in April through July (Figure 4), which overlaps substantially with a time when ENSO has its weakest signature.

The PCA-generated scores matrix provides a time series of influence of the various PCs. Linear tests for trend suggest that PC3 is weakening significantly over time ($p < 0.001$), while PCs 4 and 5 are strengthening temporally ($p < 0.001$; Figure 5). PCs 1, 2, 6, and 7 show no significant linear temporal trend.
5. Discussion

5.1. Teleconnection Analysis

The increased number of significant correlations at the daily scale, as compared to the monthly scale in previous work, suggests that monthly analyses may “wash out” some of the sub-monthly-scale variability that links atmospheric flow and NHCPV properties. The finding that the extratropical teleconnections...
The finding that NHCPV area is inversely related to the daily AO index in all months except February comes as no surprise, as the positive AO index is linked to a poleward retreat of the polar front (Budikova, 2008). The finding of a strongly positive association between $R_c$ and the AO in every month at the daily scale confirms that the areal retreat is tied to zonal flow in the positive phase (Thompson & Wallace, 2000) and meridional (i.e., wavy) flow in the negative phase (Shi et al., 2021). The similarity of associations between the regional expression of the AO—the NAO—and the NHCPV, with positive (negative) NAO tied to small and more circular NHCPV, corroborates these findings. In contrast, studies based on the observational record have found decreased Northern Hemisphere zonality in past decades associated with warming (Cattiaux

Figure 3. As in Figure 2, but by meteorological season (a) D-J-F, (b) M-A-M, (c) J-J-A, and (d) S-O-N.
et al., 2016), and decreased zonality during autumn and summer over North America albeit amid a general increase in zonality during summer (Di Capua & Coumou, 2016).

Our finding regarding NHCPV area and $R_c$ tendencies could shed light in the ongoing debate over the role of Arctic amplification in driving changes to the mid-latitude steering flow (Holland & Bitz, 2003; Pithan & Mauritsen, 2014) by supporting the assertion of Cattiaux et al. (2016) that increased zonality is to be expected under future warming conditions. More specifically, our result suggests, albeit indirectly, that an increasingly positive AO index might affect the transfer of energy from the tropics to the poles in both the atmosphere (e.g., Cohen et al., 2014) and ocean (e.g., Praetorius, 2018; Rahmstorf et al., 2015), but Cohen et al. (2018) suggested that increasing severe weather might accompany the negative AO. But on the other hand, Arctic amplification may also impact the circularity of the NHCPV by weakening the zonal winds, including in the lower stratosphere in winter (Kretschmer et al., 2018), in part because of non-uniform warming rates by latitude, which may be connected to changes in Rossby wave activity. Francis and Vavrus (2012, 2015) suggested that amplified waviness is more likely in the future as a result of these weakened zonal winds. Despite the fact that our results here tend to favor the suggestion of Cattiaux et al. (2016), further work must be done to ascertain more clearly the most likely scenario, as Vavrus (2018) summarized the conflicting evidence and lamented the continuing lack of consensus. Our work is but one piece of a complicated puzzle.

It is also not surprising that the amplified ridge-trough configuration over mid-latitude North America captured by the positive mode of the PNA pattern is linked to an anomalously enlarged and less circular NHCPV. The implication is that an expanded pool of polar air in the Northern Hemisphere is associated with meridionality over North America and a smaller pool of polar air is linked to zonality over North America. However, the fact that this linkage is weaker in winter is somewhat surprising and is perhaps explained by the importance of other factors, namely the variability in extent and position of Eurasian snow cover as a driver of the winter NHCPV area and circularity. In general, these results support the findings at the monthly scale reported by Bushra and Rohli (2019).

### 5.2. PCA

The PCA procedure confirms the close association between the NHCPV area and the AO and NAO through space and time. The temporal weakening of PC3 (the NAO component) may suggest that this teleconnection is becoming less dominant than the AO regarding NHCPV area and $R_c$. On the other hand, the increasing role of two components that explain lesser variance (the PNA pattern and the second ENSO pattern) implies that these may have become more prominent players in recent years, including, perhaps, as drivers of the NHCPV area and $R_c$. The latter implication contradicts findings of Cohen (2016), who found weakened tropical forcing due to ENSO in recent decades. One possible explanation is that a blurring of the lines delineating the NHCPV (i.e., weakening if the NHCPV) as the poles continue to warm at faster rates than the tropics may allow for more meandering of the leading edge of the NHCPV (Kretschmer et al., 2018), leading to ridge amplification in the region of the Pacific and western North America and increased influence of tropical Pacific air-sea variability.

The complementarity of the PCA time series between PC1 and PC2 (Figure 4), along with the data in Table 2, suggest that a near-circular NHCPV is related to the La Niña phase of ENSO, while a wavy NHCPV is linked to the El Niño phase. This connection was noticed by Frauenfeld and Davis (2000) who identified an expanded extratropical circulation over the Pacific and contracted circumpolar vortex over western North America (reminiscent of the positive PNA pattern) during the El Niño phase, with opposite and weaker impacts in La Niña. Furthermore, Frauenfeld and Davis (2000) noted the importance of identifying ENSO based on SST for capturing the continuity of the warm pool associated with the El Niño phase, suggesting
Nevertheless, the relatively weak association between ENSO and the NHCPV (Table 1) largely corroborates the results of Straus and Shukla (2002), who suggested that El Niño phase does not force the PNA pattern, and that the La Niña phase was inconclusive in its influence of the PNA pattern. The complementarity between PC3 and PC4 (Figure 4) confirms the intuitive oscillation of importance between the NAO and PNA, with zonal flow associated with the NAO tied to the negative PNA index, and meridional NAO flow linked to a

Figure 5. Significant linear temporal trends in daily principal components analysis-generated scores for PCs 3, 4, and 5.
positive PNA, despite the fact that this linkage is not revealed through simple correlation of the two indices (Table 2). The fact that the relative influence of the PCs on data set variability remains largely consistent throughout the year suggests that the CPV/teleconnection relationship is important in all months.

6. Summary and Conclusion

This research assesses the linkages between the atmospheric teleconnections and the NHCPV area and $R_c$. Results suggest that both NHCPV area and $R_c$ are more strongly correlated with the extratropical AO, NAO, and PNA teleconnections than with the tropical ENSO phenomenon. Most notably, the warm (i.e., positive) phase of the AO, which dominates the latter part of the study period, is tied to an anomalously small and circular NHCPV. The PCA suggests that NHCPV $R_c$ is closely tied to the PC dominated by the AO and NAO, acting together. Results also point to a linkage between NHCPV area and the component dominated by the PNA teleconnection. These results represent a step forward in using predicted or observed high-frequency shifts in the teleconnection indices to anticipate potential extreme events at short lead times.

Future work should investigate the vertical consistency of these results, so that inferences can be drawn about whether changes in height of the NHCPV over time in response to surface warming might be confounding results shown here. Furthermore, the reduced amplitudes of the Rossby waves in the Southern Hemisphere as compared to those in the Northern Hemisphere might call for a more precise and sensitive method of evaluating daily variability and long-term changes in the Southern Hemisphere CPV, such as the method proposed by Bushra and Rohli (2019) employed here. An analysis of the degree of synchronicity of anomalies in area and circularity of the two CPVs could shed light on the cross-hemisphere influence of the teleconnections. In general, improvements in our understanding of the CPVs, at both the daily and monthly time scales, may identify signatures that might provide a harbinger of abrupt, impactful weather and climate events and impacts of longer-term climatic changes.

Data Availability Statement

The gridded data set was obtained from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP)/Department of Energy (DOE) Reanalysis 2 project. The data are available at https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/gridded/data.ncep.reanalysis2.pressure.html.

References


