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Seasonal Cycle of Cross-Equatorial Flow in the Central Indian Ocean

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18 **Key Points**

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20 • Mean volume transport is southwards across the equator in the central Indian Ocean in

21 approximate Sverdrup balance with the wind stress curl

22 • Meridional winds force a northward flow near the surface above deeper southward flow to

23 generate an equatorial roll in the surface layer

24 • Surface layer Ekman convergence and thermocline geostrophic divergence is superimposed

25 on annual variations in cross equatorial flow

26 **Abstract**

27 This study investigates the seasonal cycle of meridional currents in the upper layers of
28 central equatorial Indian Ocean using acoustic Doppler current profiler (ADCP) and other
29 data over the period 2004-2013. The ADCP data set collected along 80.5°E is the most
30 comprehensive collection of direct velocity measurements in the central Indian Ocean to date,
31 providing new insights into the meridional circulation in this region. We find that mean
32 volume transport is southwards across the equator in the central Indian Ocean in approximate
33 Sverdrup balance with the wind stress curl. In addition, mean westerly wind stress near the
34 equator drives convergent Ekman flow in the surface layer and subsurface divergent
35 geostrophic flow in the thermocline at 50-150 m depths. In response to a mean northward
36 component of the surface wind stress, the maximum surface layer convergence is shifted off
37 the equator to 0.75°N. Evidence is also presented for the existence of a shallow equatorial roll
38 consisting of a northward wind-driven surface drift overlaying the southward-directed
39 subsurface Sverdrup transport. Seasonal variations are characterized by cross equatorial
40 transports flowing from the summer to the winter hemisphere in quasi-steady Sverdrup
41 balance with the wind stress curl. In addition, semi-annually varying westerly monsoon
42 transition winds lead to semi-annual enhancements of surface layer Ekman convergence and
43 geostrophic divergence in the thermocline. These results quantify expectations from ocean
44 circulation theories for equatorial Indian Ocean meridional circulation patterns with a high
45 degree of confidence given the length of the data records.

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48 **1. Introduction**

49 Unlike the equatorial Pacific and Atlantic Oceans where relatively steady easterly
50 trade winds prevail, the equatorial Indian Ocean is dominated by seasonally reversing
51 monsoon winds [*Schott and McCreary, 2001; Schott et al., 2009*]. Along the equator, winds
52 are westerly during the transitions between the northeast and southwest monsoons and, in the
53 mean, are also westerly rather than easterly as in the other two ocean basins. In addition, the
54 seasonally varying zonal wind stress is nearly anti-symmetric around the equator, with a
55 structure that favors southward cross equatorial transport in the upper layer of the ocean
56 during the boreal summer monsoon and northward transport during the winter monsoon
57 (Figure 1a and 1b) [*Schott et al., 2002; Miyama et al., 2003; Schott et al., 2004; Schott et al.,*
58 *2009; Horii et al., 2013*]. Southward transports in boreal summer connect the upwelling
59 zones in the Northern Hemisphere (primarily off Somalia) and the subduction zone in the
60 southeastern Indian Ocean, forming a cross-equatorial meridional overturning cell [*Wacongne*
61 *and Pacanowski, 1996; Garternicht and Schott, 1997; Lee and Marotzke, 1997; 1998; Schott*
62 *and McCreary, 2001; Miyama et al., 2003*]. During the boreal winter monsoon, the
63 circulation reverses direction. Hence, the meridional currents and their seasonal cycle at the
64 equatorial region play a key role in the interhemispheric exchange of mass and heat in the
65 Indian Ocean [*Hsiung, 1985; Hsiung et al., 1987; Wacongne and Pacanowski, 1996;*
66 *Chirokova and Webster, 2006;*].

67 Most studies of the near equatorial circulation in the Indian Ocean have focused on
68 the zonal flows of the Wyrki jets for which the signal is very large [*Wyrki, 1973; McPhaden,*
69 *1982; Hastenrath and Greischar, 1991*]. On the other hand, previous studies of the

70 meridional circulation have been hampered by relatively weak seasonal signals in meridional
71 vis-à-vis zonal velocity combined with a paucity of direct velocity observations. Variations in
72 meridional currents in the equatorial Indian Ocean have therefore been studied primarily via
73 numerical modeling simulations guided by a limited amount of observational data [*Jensen,*
74 1993; *McCreary et al.*, 1993; *Lee and Marotzke*, 1997; *Miyama et al.*, 2003; *Schott et al.*,
75 2002; *Schott et al.*, 2004; *Chirokova and Webster*, 2006; *Pérez-Hernández et al.*, 2012; *Rao*
76 *et al.*, 2016]. For example, Schott et al. [2002] analyzed moored acoustic Doppler current
77 profiler (ADCP) time series centered at 0°, 80.5°E from the World Ocean Circulation
78 Experiment (WOCE) during 1993-1994 [*Reppin et al.*, 1999] and inferred that near surface
79 cross equatorial meridional currents were governed by Ekman dynamics, consistent with
80 theoretical considerations and model simulations [*e.g. Miyama et al.*, 2003]. However, data
81 used in the *Schott et al.* study covered only 15 months during an El Niño event and one of the
82 strongest Indian Ocean Dipole (IOD) events of 20th century. Thus, representativeness of their
83 results for longer periods is open to question. Also, due to the lack of data, their interpretation
84 of the meridional circulation in terms of Miyama's [2003] theory for cross-equatorial flow
85 did not focus on equatorial wave dynamics and associated zonal pressure gradients, which are
86 significant along the equator [*Nagura and McPhaden*, 2008, 2010a,b]. Horii et al. [2013]
87 analyzed ADCP data from moorings at 0°, 80.5°E and 0°, 90°E for November 2004 to August
88 2008 and January 2001 to December 2008, respectively and also found that annual mean
89 meridional currents were dominated by the boreal summer monsoon during which meridional
90 transports were southward across the equator. However, the strength and phase of the
91 observed meridional transports and the theoretically estimated Sverdrup and Ekman

92 transports based on *Miyama et al.* [2003] did not agree well in their study. Horii et al. [2013]
93 attributed the discrepancy between observations and theory to the presence of significant
94 zonal wind stress forcing in the central equatorial Indian Ocean, as suggested in *Schott et al.*
95 [2002].

96 Here we expand on these studies to describe the meridional structure of the mean
97 seasonal cycle in upper ocean meridional currents near the equator and then to investigate
98 their dynamics. We use nine years (November 2004 to October 2013) of velocity data from
99 a mooring site 0° , 80.5°E and five years (August 2008 to August 2013) of velocity data at
100 seven additional sites along 80.5°E between 4°S and 2.5°N (Figure 1). These unique data
101 come from an array of upward-looking ADCPs mounted on subsurface moorings embedded
102 within the Research Moored Array for Africa Asian Australian Monsoon Analysis and
103 Prediction (RAMA) program [*McPhaden et al.*, 2009]. The 80.5°E meridian is in a region
104 where previous observational and modeling studies suggest that wind driven current
105 variations exhibit a robust seasonal cycle. In contrast to earlier observational work that relied
106 on data of either limited duration [*e.g.*, *Reppin et al.*, 1999; *Schott et al.*, 2002] or latitudinal
107 extent [*e.g.*, *Horii et al.*, 2013; *Rao et al.*, 2016], here we are able to examine in much greater
108 detail the meridional and vertical structure of the meridional flow field in the central
109 equatorial Indian Ocean. Our multi-year time series also provide great discriminating power
110 in testing hypotheses about how the flow in this region responds to that wind forcing.

111 **2. Data Description**

112 The horizontal velocity data used in this study were collected from subsurface ADCP
113 moorings at 8 sites along 80.5°E : 4°S , 2.5°S , 1.5°S , 0.75°S , 0° , 0.75°N , 1.5°N , and 2.5°N

114 (Figure 1). The ADCPs were mounted in floats located at depths of about 300-400 m. The
115 data span November 2004 to October 2013 at 0° and August 2008 to August 2013 at other
116 sites (Figure 1c). Daily averaged velocity data were gridded to uniform 5 m bin widths after
117 adjusting depths based on speed of sound information from historical CTD's near the
118 mooring.

119 Due to reflection of acoustic signals from the air-sea interface, we removed data
120 shallower than 35 m and extrapolated velocity to the surface using a quadratic spline
121 extrapolation. We evaluated the extrapolated values by comparing with point Sontek acoustic
122 Doppler current meter records at 10 m depth from the 1.5°S, 0°, 1.5°N moorings along
123 80.5°E (Figure 1c). As a measure of success for this procedure, the correlation coefficient
124 between extrapolated and measured time series reaches 0.80 with a regression slope close to
125 unity (Figure 2a). The root mean square difference between the measured data and
126 extrapolated data (0.10 m s^{-1}) is likewise smaller than the standard deviation of the measure
127 data (0.14 m s^{-1}).

128 Data gaps in the time series were filled via linear least squares orthogonal regression
129 based on velocities at adjacent sites. To test the accuracy of this procedure, meridional
130 velocities during one deployment from May 2010 to July 2011 at 0.75°N, 80.5°E were
131 removed and then filled via regression. Correlation between the filled and actual velocities is
132 high (coefficient of 0.87) and significant, with a regression slope close to unity (Figure 2b).
133 The root mean square deviation between the actual data and filled data (0.07 m s^{-1}) is
134 significantly smaller than the standard deviation of the actual velocities (0.13 m s^{-1}). These
135 results give us confidence that our gap filling procedures are sufficiently accurate to produce

136 continuous time series for further analysis.

137 An example of a time series filled using these methods at 0° , 80.5°E (Figure 3) shows
138 the predominance of energetic biweekly waves near the equator [*Sengupta et al.*, 2004]. The
139 presence of these energetic waves means that multi-year records, like we have collected, are
140 needed to compute reliable estimates of the mean and mean seasonal cycle of meridional
141 velocity in this region. More details on data characteristics and quality control can be found
142 in *Wang et al.* [2015] and *McPhaden et al.* [2015].

143 For estimates of wind stress, we use daily mean Tropflux data, which are available on
144 a 1° latitude by 1° longitude grid [*Praveen Kumar et al.*, 2013]. Tropflux stresses are based
145 on the COARE v3.0 algorithm using a bias and amplitude corrected ERA-I reanalysis product
146 as input. In a comparison with other widely used daily wind stress products (NCEP, NCEP2,
147 ERA-I and QuikSCAT), Tropflux performs best in the equatorial oceans [*Kumar et al.*, 2013].
148 To interpret the 5- and 9-year long velocity records, we computed the mean seasonal cycle of
149 the wind stress by averaging the data from each day and month across years for the period
150 August 2008 to August 2013 (a 5-year climatology) and November 2004 to October 2013 (a
151 9-year climatology). To check the representativeness of these climatologies based on five to
152 nine years of data, we also calculated a climatology based on 34 years of data, from January
153 1979 to December 2013.

154 We are interested in separating Ekman and geostrophic velocity contribution to the
155 total velocity. Therefore, we compute zonal pressure gradients using absolute dynamic height
156 (ADH) data, which are derived from the Argo plus Aviso altimetry
157 (<http://apdrc.soest.hawaii.edu/projects/Argo/data/Documentation/gridded-var.pdf>) on a $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$

158 latitude/longitude grid by the International Pacific Research Center (IPRC). The ADH is
159 defined as the sea surface height (SSH) minus the geopotential height from the surface to a
160 certain level. The seasonal cycle of zonal pressure gradients is computed using 10° centered
161 differences around 80.5°E (i.e. $80.5^\circ\text{E} \pm 5^\circ$) of monthly ADH data for the same period as the
162 wind stress data (namely, August 2008 to August 2013). Calculations of this pressure gradient
163 are relatively insensitive to using centered differences over intervals from 4° to 16° of
164 longitude. For the $\pm 5^\circ$ span of longitudes over which we calculate these zonal pressure
165 gradients, there are 3461 Argo profiles from 79 floats distributed between August 2008 and
166 August 2013. Thus, we expect that these gradient estimates are well constrained by the
167 observations.

168 To characterize the uncertainties in our seasonal cycle estimates, we compute standard
169 errors ($\sigma_{\bar{x}}$) using the conventional formula $\sigma_{\bar{x}} = \sigma/\sqrt{n}$ Where σ is the standard deviation
170 and n is the number of degrees of freedom. For n , we choose the number of full years in the
171 time series, assuming each year is independent (e.g., 9 degrees of freedom for the means in
172 Figure 3b). Error estimates for \pm one standard error are presented in Figures 3-5 and 7.

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174 **3. Results**

175 **3.1 Mean Meridional Structure**

176 Mean winds near the equator in the Indian Ocean are dominated by the strong
177 southwesterly monsoons. Thus, wind stress near the equator has a westerly component on
178 average (Figure 4a), which is stronger to the north than to the south, and a southerly
179 component to the meridional wind stress. From the sign of the zonal winds one would

180 therefore expect Ekman convergence near the surface and geostrophic divergence in the
181 thermocline in contrast to what is observed in the equatorial Pacific and Atlantic where
182 easterly trade winds prevail [*Johnson et al.*, 2001; *Rabe et al.*, 2008]. This circulation indeed
183 emerges from the 5-year average of the moored meridional currents (Figure 4b). In particular,
184 there is a marked divergence between about 50-150 m in the thermocline, with a weaker
185 convergence near the surface. The divergence is consistent with the poleward geostrophic
186 currents in each hemisphere driven by negative pressure gradient force in balance with the
187 westerly wind stress (see also *Nagura and McPhaden*, 2008). The surface layer convergence
188 is shifted upwind off the equator to about 1°N while divergence is evident to the south of the
189 equator in response to the mean southerly winds, features that are consistent with near
190 equatorial surface layer Ekman dynamics in the response to meridional wind forcing
191 [*Cromwell*, 1953; *De Szoeko et al.*, 2007].

192 The sign of the mean wind stress curl, which is largely determined by the zonal
193 component of wind stress near the equator in the Indian Ocean, is mostly negative between
194 4°S and 2.5°N (Figure 4a). This curl would be expected to drive mean southward volume
195 transports on both sides of the equator in the upper ocean in approximate Sverdrup balance,
196 namely $V_{sv} = (\rho\beta)^{-1} \text{Curl } \boldsymbol{\tau}$, where V is meridional transport, ρ is mean density, β is the
197 meridional gradient of the Coriolis parameter f on the equatorial beta plane (i.e., $f = \beta y$) and $\boldsymbol{\tau}$
198 is vector wind stress [*Horii et al.*, 2013; *Miyama et al.*, 2003; *Reppin et al.*, 1999; *Schott and*
199 *McCreary*, 2001; *Schott et al.*, 2002; *Schott et al.*, 2004; *Schott et al.*, 2009]. The mean
200 meridional current profiles are predominantly southward in the upper 150 m south of 1.5°N,
201 consistent with this expectation. However, it is noteworthy that at and north of 1.5°N,

202 subsurface northward flow is both stronger and vertically broader than the near surface
203 southward current. This is related to the fact that both mean zonal winds and wind stress curl
204 evolve meridionally, with the wind stress curl trending towards zero and the mean zonal
205 winds strengthening from south to north. Thus, assuming Sverdrup dynamics applies,
206 southward Sverdrup transport should weaken towards the north while at the same time
207 northward geostrophic flow in the thermocline, in balance with the zonal pressure gradient set
208 up by the westerly winds, should become more prominent.

209 As noted earlier, the meridional component of the wind stress is weak but northward
210 at all latitudes (Figure 4a), which drives the shallow northward flow near the equator where
211 Coriolis force is negligible. Within 0.75° of the equator, this northward flow overlays the net
212 southward Sverdrup transport driven by the negative wind stress curl (Figure 3b and 4b). This
213 near-surface equatorial overturning cell is referred to as the equatorial roll [*Wacogne and*
214 *Pacanowski, 1996; Miyama et al., 2003; Schott et al., 2002; Schott et al., 2004; Schott et al.,*
215 *2009*]. Our analysis provides observational confirmation of this unique Indian Ocean
216 circulation feature, which is narrowly confined to the equatorial band ($\pm 0.75^\circ$) and depths
217 shallower than about 80 m. The temperature difference between the northward and southward
218 flowing branches of this shallow roll is $\sim 2^\circ\text{C}$, so as noted in *Wacogne and Pacanowski [1996]*
219 and *Schott et al [2009]*, it does not on average significantly contribute to large scale
220 hemispheric heat exchange.

221 **3.2 Mean Seasonal Cycle**

222 As shown in previous studies [*Hsiung, 1985; Schott et al., 2002; Miyama et al., 2003;*
223 *Chirokova and Webster, 2006*], the meridional circulation in the Indian Ocean displays a

224 dramatic seasonal reversal of cross equatorial flow in response to monsoon wind forcing. To
225 illustrate these seasonal variations from our data, we compute the mean seasonal cycle of
226 vertically integrated meridional flow over the upper 140 m using data from 2004-2013. Most
227 of the variability in meridional velocity is confined to this depth range (Figure 5c), though
228 results would be similar for lower limits of integration from 100 m to 200 m. From our
229 analysis, we see that depth integrated flow in the upper 140 m is southward during boreal
230 summer and northward during boreal winter (Figure 5b). The magnitude and direction of this
231 flow is in remarkable agreement with the wind stress curl and in anti-phase with local
232 meridional winds (Figure 5a). The competition between the local meridional wind forcing and
233 the wind stress curl forcing produces the equatorial roll, in which wind driven northward
234 currents in the upper 40-50 m are often directed opposite to deeper flows that are responding
235 curl forcing (Figure 5c). This equatorial roll structure is particularly noticeable from July to
236 October.

237 This wind-forced seasonal meridional circulation is a stable feature of the general
238 circulation as indicated by both the wind forcing and the meridional transport computed over
239 differing periods. For example, the mean seasonal cycle of wind stress curl forcing at this
240 location computed over the 9-year period November 2004 to October 2013 is essentially
241 identical to that computed over the much longer 34-year period January 1979 to December
242 2013 (Figure 5a). Likewise, the mean seasonal cycle of depth integrated meridional velocity
243 computed over the shorter 5-period August 2008 to July 2013 (for which we have velocity
244 data at neighboring latitudes) is essentially identical to that for the 9-year period November
245 2004 to October 2013, though the uncertainties are somewhat larger for the shorter record

246 (Figure 5b).

247 The wind stress curl is largely determined by the meridional structure of the zonal
248 winds (Figure 6a). In particular, during boreal summer months, southwest monsoon winds are
249 westerly north of the equator and easterly south of the equator, while the opposite holds true
250 during the northeast monsoon of boreal winter. *Miyama et al.* [2003] and *Schott et al.* [2004,
251 2009] idealized this wind structure in terms of purely anti-symmetric mean seasonal zonal
252 wind stress forcing varying linearly with latitude. For this idealized forcing, Ekman pumping
253 (defined as $w_{EK} = \rho^{-1} \text{curl}(\boldsymbol{\tau}/f)$) is zero, the flow is horizontally non-divergent and theoretically
254 the meridional Sverdrup volume transport ($V_{SV} = -\tau_y^x / \rho\beta$) is equal to the meridional Ekman
255 transport ($V_{EK} = -\tau^x / \rho f$) where τ^x is the zonal component of wind stress. In this idealization, the
256 ocean adjusts on the time scale of an inertial period without generating equatorial waves,
257 zonal pressure gradients or geostrophic flows. The oceanic response thus represents a
258 succession of steady states on monthly time scales, valid for a range of latitudes spanning and
259 including the equator. The purely anti-symmetric wind stress field along 80.5°E,
260 superimposed on the Sverdrup transport calculated from the observed wind stress
261 [$V = (\rho\beta)^{-1} \text{Curl} \boldsymbol{\tau}$] illustrates this idealized relationship (Figure 6b; see also *Horii et al.*,
262 [2013]).

263 We note however that the observed meridional volume transport is not identical to the
264 Sverdrup transport and that the differences exhibit a coherent relationship with the
265 equatorially symmetric component of the zonal winds (Figure 6c). The differences are
266 smallest on the equator (right panel of Figure 6c), but flow at higher latitudes tends to be
267 poleward in both hemispheres, with northward flow to the north and southward flow to the

268 south of the equator. This meridionally divergent flow tends to be most pronounced when the
269 symmetric component of the zonal winds is strongest, namely in boreal spring (May-June)
270 and fall (November-December). These periods correspond, with lag of ≤ 1 month, to the
271 monsoon transitions when strong westerly winds prevail along the equator.

272 It is known that the ocean adjusts to this zonal wind forcing via equatorial wave
273 radiation that sets up zonal pressure gradients to balance the winds on time scales of a few
274 weeks [Yuan and Han, 2006; Nagura and McPhaden, 2008; Nagura and McPhaden, 2010a].
275 Thus, on monthly time scales we should expect that the observed divergent meridional flow
276 off the equator to be approximately in balance with the zonal pressure gradients set up by the
277 westerly monsoon transition winds. This balance is evident in two different representations of
278 the zonal geostrophic flow calculated at 2°N and 2°S (Figure 7). One is computed from the
279 depth integrated zonal pressure gradient (P) in the upper 140 m based on the mean dynamic
280 height field ($V_{\text{geos}}^{(1)} = -(\rho f)^{-1} P_x$) and the other is based on the difference between the total
281 observed depth averaged meridional velocity in the upper 140 m minus the wind driven
282 Ekman transport inferred from Tropflux wind stresses ($V_{\text{geos}}^{(2)} = V_{\text{obs}} - V_{\text{Ek}}$). These two
283 quantities are in principle not exactly the same because $V^{(2)}$ includes time dependence,
284 nonlinearly and other processes that are not included in the geostrophic balance. However, as
285 discussed in Nagura and McPhaden [2008], these processes are of secondary importance in
286 the depth integrated momentum balance on seasonal time scales in the equatorial Indian
287 Ocean relative to zonal wind stress forcing and pressure gradient force. Thus, to within the
288 uncertainties of the calculations, $V^{(1)}$ and $V^{(2)}$ are essentially identical at both 2°N and at 2°S .
289 Moreover, the geostrophic flow at 2°N is roughly equal to and opposite of that at 2°S and

290 approximately in phase with the zonal wind stress averaged over 2°N-2°S as would be
291 expected based on the zonal pressure gradient set up by these winds. We expect these results
292 based on data from 2008-2013 are representative of longer periods given the similarity in the
293 zonal wind stress forcing for this the 5-year period vs that over a longer 9-year interval from
294 2004 to 2013 (Figure 7a).

295 In contrast to the divergent geostrophic flow in the thermocline, Ekman transport
296 computed from the wind stress at 2°N and 2°S is on average convergent (Figure 7c), with
297 flow generally to the south at 2°N and to the north at 2°S. This convergent circulation results
298 from the zonal component of winds, which is in the mean westerly at these latitudes. Ekman
299 transports in both hemispheres exhibit predominantly annual variations such that, relative to
300 the mean, flow is more towards the south in boreal summer and more towards the north in
301 boreal winter. These variations in Ekman transport at 2°N and 2°S resemble those for the
302 Sverdrup transport both in magnitude and phasing (cf. Figures 5b and 6b) but it is clear that
303 the two are not equivalent like simple idealizations of the meridional flow field would
304 suggest [Miyama *et al.*, 2013; Schott *et al.*, 2004, 2009]. It is also interesting that when taking
305 the difference of the Ekman transports at 2°N and 2°S, in-phase annual variations tend to
306 cancel, emphasizing the semi-annual convergent flow associated with the semi-annual zonal
307 wind stress forcing along the equator. Thus, to fully understand the near equatorial meridional
308 circulation in the Indian Ocean, one must take into account zonal wind stress forcing and the
309 associated pressure gradients variations.

310 **4. Discussion**

311 The annual mean and seasonal cycle of meridional currents presented in Figure 4-7

312 reveal features peculiar to the central equatorial Indian Ocean. In the equatorial Pacific and
313 Atlantic, easterly trade winds drive shallow subtropical cells (STCs) in each hemisphere that
314 are associated with near equatorial surface poleward Ekman flows and a subsurface
315 equatorward geostrophic flows [Johnson *et al.*, 2001; Schott *et al.*, 2004]. In contrast, we find
316 that flow is directed towards the equator in the surface layer and away from the equator in the
317 thermocline of the equatorial Indian Ocean. The reason for this contrast between the ocean
318 basins is that the zonal winds are on average westerly along the equator in the Indian Ocean
319 and easterly in the Pacific and Atlantic. As a consequence, we expect mean downwelling to
320 prevail along the equator in the Indian Ocean as opposed to upwelling as found in the Pacific
321 and Atlantic. This downwelling favorable meridional circulation explains why on average no
322 equatorial cold tongue develops in sea surface temperature in the Indian Ocean in contrast to
323 the Pacific and Atlantic.

324 We also find that on average there is a southward transport across the equator in the
325 upper 140 m driven by the wind stress curl. Mean southward cross-equatorial flow was
326 detected from measurements made at 73°E in the mid-1970s [McPhaden, 1982] and 90°E
327 from ADCP measurements made between 2000 and 2009 [Hori *et al.*, 2013]. This flow
328 represents the surface branch of the cross-equatorial cell that carries water upwelled off the
329 equator in the Northern Hemisphere (e.g., along the coasts of Somalia, the Arabian Peninsula,
330 and Sri Lanka) back towards subduction zones in the Southern Hemisphere subtropics. This
331 hemispherically asymmetric cross-equatorial cell is in sharp contrast to the more
332 hemispherically symmetric STCs in the Pacific and Atlantic. Moreover, because of the
333 competing effects of the wind stress curl favoring mean southward flow and the meridional

334 wind stress favoring northward flow at the equator, a shallow equatorial roll develops, which
335 is a unique feature of the Indian Ocean circulation.

336 Mean seasonal variations are also strikingly different between the Indian Ocean and
337 the other two ocean basins. In the Pacific and Atlantic the zonal and meridional circulation
338 waxes and wanes with season depending on the strength of the trades [e.g., *Philander and*
339 *Pacanowski, 1986; Richardson and Walsh, 1986; Yu and McPhaden, 1999; Johnson et al.,*
340 *2002*]. In contrast, dramatic cross-equatorial flow reversals occur in the Indian Ocean in
341 response to monsoon wind forcing. Flow is generally from the summer to the winter
342 hemisphere, transporting heat across the equator to moderate seasonal climate variability in
343 the region [*Hsiung, 1985; Hsiung et al., 1987; Wacogne and Pacanowski, 1996*]. In addition
344 to these predominantly annual period cross equatorial flows, strong zonal winds associated
345 with the monsoon transitions generate the semi-annual period Wyrтки jets [*Wyrтки, 1973*],
346 intense eastward flowing zonal currents that have no analog in the Pacific and Atlantic. These
347 jets are fed in part by convergent Ekman flow in the surface layer. They also transport
348 significant mass from west to east [*McPhaden et al., 2015*], setting up a transient zonal
349 pressure gradient force in the upper ocean. This pressure gradient force, which is directed to
350 the west, lags the winds by a few weeks due to equatorial wave adjustment [*Yuan and Han,*
351 *2006; Nagura and McPhaden, 2008; Nagura and McPhaden, 2010a*] and amplifies divergent
352 geostrophic flow in the thermocline relative to the annual mean.

353 **5. Summary**

354 In this paper we have examined circulation patterns in the central equatorial Indian
355 Ocean using nine years of moored ADCP time series data between 2004 and 2013 in

356 conjunction with Argo profile data and Tropflux wind stress data. Key findings are that the
357 mean depth integrated volume transport is southwards across the equator in Sverdrup balance
358 with the wind stress curl. Embedded in this southward transport is a shallow northward
359 wind-driven frictional mean flow, which leads to an equatorial roll in the surface layer. The
360 temperature difference between the northward and southward flowing branches of the roll is
361 $\sim 2^{\circ}\text{C}$, so as noted in previous studies it does not on average significantly contribute to cross
362 equatorial heat transport. Mean westerly winds near the equator drive Ekman convergence in
363 the surface layer and geostrophic divergence in the thermocline, implying a downwelling
364 circulation that is in sharp contrast to the mean equatorial upwelling circulation that occurs in
365 the equatorial Pacific and Atlantic Oceans in response to easterly trade wind forcing. The
366 center of surface convergence and thermocline divergence is shifted downwind off the
367 equator to about 0.75°N because of the mean northward wind stress component in the central
368 equatorial Indian Ocean.

369 The mean seasonal cycle is characterized by pronounced annually reversing
370 cross-equatorial volume transport variations in approximate steady state balance with annual
371 variations in wind stress curl. Frictional counterflow develops at the surface from July in
372 response to northward wind stress forcing during the southwest monsoon at a time when
373 significant negative curl drives southward volume transport. These competing forces lead to
374 the generation of a transient equatorial roll that persists into boreal fall. Superimposed on the
375 annual cycle are significant semi-annual variations in Ekman convergence in the surface layer
376 and geostrophic divergence in the thermocline forced by semi-annual variations in westerly
377 wind stress. These westerly wind stresses are strongest during the monsoon transition

378 seasons of April-May and October-November, leading to the set of up zonal pressure
379 gradients along the equator in geostrophic balance with poleward thermocline flows in both
380 hemispheres.

381 Our documentation of meridional circulation patterns in the central equatorial
382 Indian Ocean is the most comprehensive to date based on direct velocity measurements. From
383 these observations we are able to confirm some basic expectations from wind-driven theories
384 of ocean circulation, demonstrating both the uniqueness and complexity of the mean
385 seasonally varying meridional currents in this region. There are, however, still questions that
386 require further research. For instance, the peak divergent geostrophic flow in May-June is
387 significantly larger than the peak flow in October-December (Figure 6a) while westerly wind
388 forcing and the Wyrтки jets tend to be stronger in the boreal fall rather than boreal spring for
389 the time period covered by our data [*McPhaden et al.*, 2015]. This disparity may be related to
390 the wave dynamics associated with the zonal wind stress forcing, but it requires further
391 investigation. Also, the structure of the meridional velocity field indicates equatorial
392 downwelling is prevalent in the central basin, but its magnitude and seasonal evolution
393 require additional analysis. How the meridional circulation varies zonally and from
394 year-to-year along the equator likewise requires further study [see for example, *Horii et al.*,
395 2013 for a preliminary discussion of these issues]. Our analysis provides a starting point for
396 considering these and other outstanding issues. Moreover, despite the fact that many
397 questions remain unanswered about the meridional circulation in the equatorial Indian Ocean,
398 we expect that our results will be valuable for validating circulation models models used for
399 climate research and forecasting.

400 **Acknowledgments**

401 Special thanks to the Ministry of Earth Sciences (MoES) of India for providing the ship
402 time necessary to maintain RAMA and the ADCP array; and to NOAA for providing RAMA
403 and ADCP mooring equipment. Argo data can be obtained from the University of Hawaii at
404 <http://apdrc.soest.hawaii.edu/projects/Argo/data/Documentation/gridded-var.pdf> and Tropflux
405 wind stresses from <http://www.incois.gov.in/tropflux/>. Moored time series data are available
406 from PMEL. We thank Professor Liu Qinyu in OUC for helpful discussions and two
407 anonymous reviewers for their constructive comments on an earlier version of this
408 manuscript. Yi Wang is supported by Natural Science Foundation of China (NSFC) no.
409 41490643 and NSFC-Shandong Joint Fund for Marine Science Research Centers no.
410 U1406401, and Michael J. McPhaden is supported by NOAA. This is PMEL contribution no.
411 4581.

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502 **Figure Captions**

503 Figure 1: (a) and (b) Location of the ADCP mooring sites (green triangles) superimposed on
504 of surface wind stress vectors and calculated meridional Sverdrup volume transports
505 (color shading) for (a) February and (b) August climatological means based on
506 Tropflux wind data for the period 2008 to 2013; (c) availability of moored ADCP
507 velocity data (black) and current meter data at 10 m depth (red).

508 Figure 2: (a) Meridional velocity estimated via a quadratic spline extrapolated to 10 m depth
509 from ADCP data compared to measured velocity at 10 m depth at 1.5°, 0°, and 1.5°S,
510 80.5°E. (b) Meridional velocity estimated via linear least squares orthogonal
511 regression for the period May 2010 to July 2011 compared to observed velocities for
512 the same period in three depth ranges. All the time series have been smoothed with a
513 5-day running mean filter. Crosscorrelation coefficients and Root Mean Square
514 Differences (RMSD) for each ensemble are shown in the upper left quadrants.

515 Figure 3: Meridional currents (in m s^{-1}) observed at 0°, 80.5°E. Time series of daily averaged
516 data in (a) are smoothed with a 5-day running mean. Screened segments of the time
517 series indicate gaps that have been filled via either linear least squares orthogonal
518 regression or quadratic spline extrapolation as described in the text. Record length
519 means of the time series \pm one standard error are shown in (b) where the dashed line
520 denotes values based on the quadratic spline extrapolation.

521 Figure 4: (a) Mean zonal (τ^x) and meridional (τ^y) wind stress components and wind stress curl
522 between 2.5°N and 4°S along 80.5°E. The curl is computed using central differences
523 on a 1° latitude \times 1° longitude grid. Shading indicates \pm one standard error. (b) Mean

524 meridional currents are shown as vectors overlotted on ocean temperatures (color
525 shading). Only velocity values larger than 0.01 m s^{-1} are shown. The dashed black
526 contours denote the zonal pressure gradient force computed from absolute dynamic
527 height data. The pink solid line is the isothermal layer depth defined as the depth at
528 which temperatures are 0.5°C lower than at 10 m. The dashed pink line is the mixed
529 layer depth based on the density equivalent of 0.5°C decrease from 10 m using the
530 method of *Sprintall and Tomczak* [1992]. Green triangles indicate the locations of the
531 mooring sites.

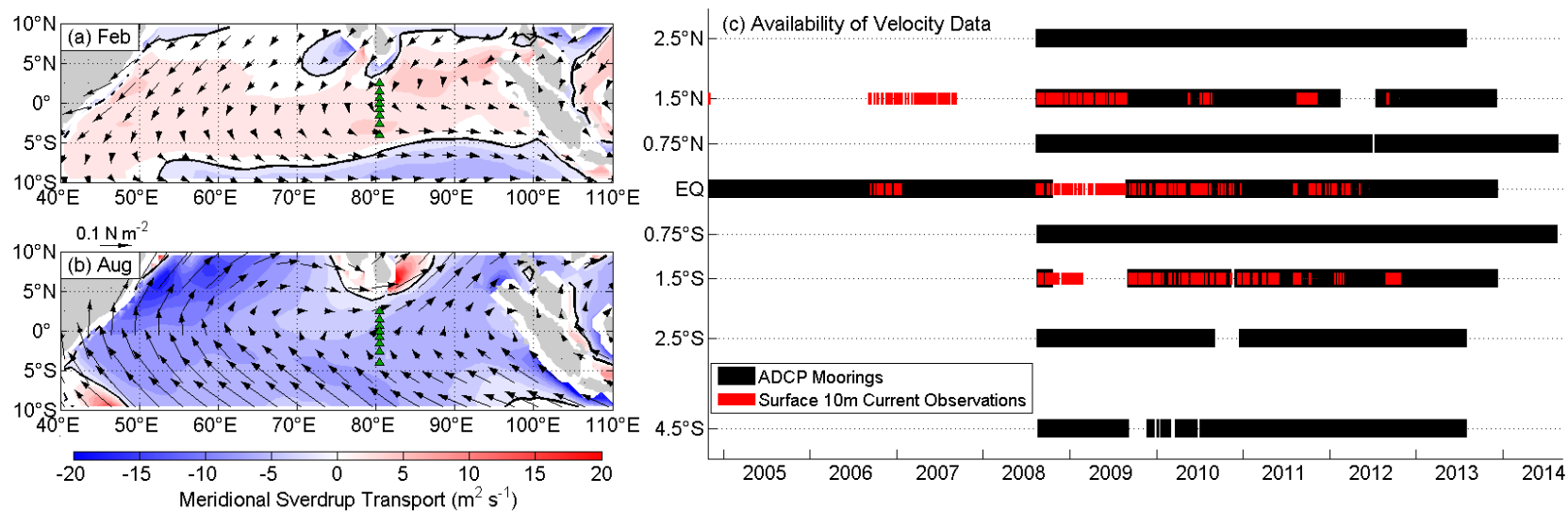
532 Figure 5: The mean seasonal cycle at $0^\circ, 80.5^\circ\text{E}$ of (a) meridional wind stress (τ^y) and
533 meridional Sverdrup transports [$V_{sv}=(\rho\beta)^{-1}\text{Curl } \tau$], (b) vertical integral of observed
534 meridional currents in the upper 140 m, and (c) meridional velocity as a function of
535 depth in the upper 200 m. Daily data for all time series were first smoothed with a
536 61-day triangle filter before computing the seasonal cycle, then smoothed again with a
537 7-day running mean to reduce noise and end point effects evident in late October in
538 panel (c) for example where the start (27 October 2004) and end (26 October 2013) of
539 the 10 year records have different values. The Sverdrup transports in (a) are computed
540 for two different time periods, namely November 2004 to October 2013 and January
541 1979 to December 2013. Vertical integrals in (b) are also computed for two different
542 time periods, namely November 2004 to October 2013 and August 2008 to July 2013.
543 Shading in (a) and (b) indicates \pm one standard error.

544 Figure 6: The mean seasonal cycle of (a) measured meridional mass transports computed as
545 the depth averaged velocity in the upper 140 m (color shading) and surface wind

546 stress (vectors), (b) Sverdrup transports (color shading) and the component of wind
547 stress that is anti-symmetric about the equator (vectors), and (c) the differences
548 between measured (a) and computed Sverdrup (b) transports (color shading) and the
549 component of the wind stress that is symmetric about the equator (vectors). Right
550 panels show the standard deviations of the transports shown in the left panels.
551 Seasonal cycles are based on averages from 8 August 2008 to 7 August 2013. Daily
552 data for all time series were first smoothed with a 61-day triangle filter before
553 computing the seasonal cycle, then smoothed again with a 7-day running mean to
554 reduce noise and end point effects. Wind stress vectors are plotted at monthly
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559 Figure 7: The mean seasonal cycle of (a) zonal wind stress averaged within 2°S - 2°N ,
560 75°E - 85°E , (b) geostrophic meridional transport in the upper 140 m (lines), and the
561 observed transport in the upper 140 m minus Ekman transport (bars) at 2°N (red) and
562 2°S (blue), (c) Ekman transport at 2°N (red), 2°S (blue), and the difference of 2°N
563 minus 2°S (black). In (a), the red line is the average from August 2008 to July 2013
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565 observed velocity at 2°N and 2°S is obtained by interpolating between the velocities
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567 and at 1.5°S and 2.5°S for the 2°S value. Shading in (a) (b) (c) and error bars in (b)

indicate \pm one standard error.

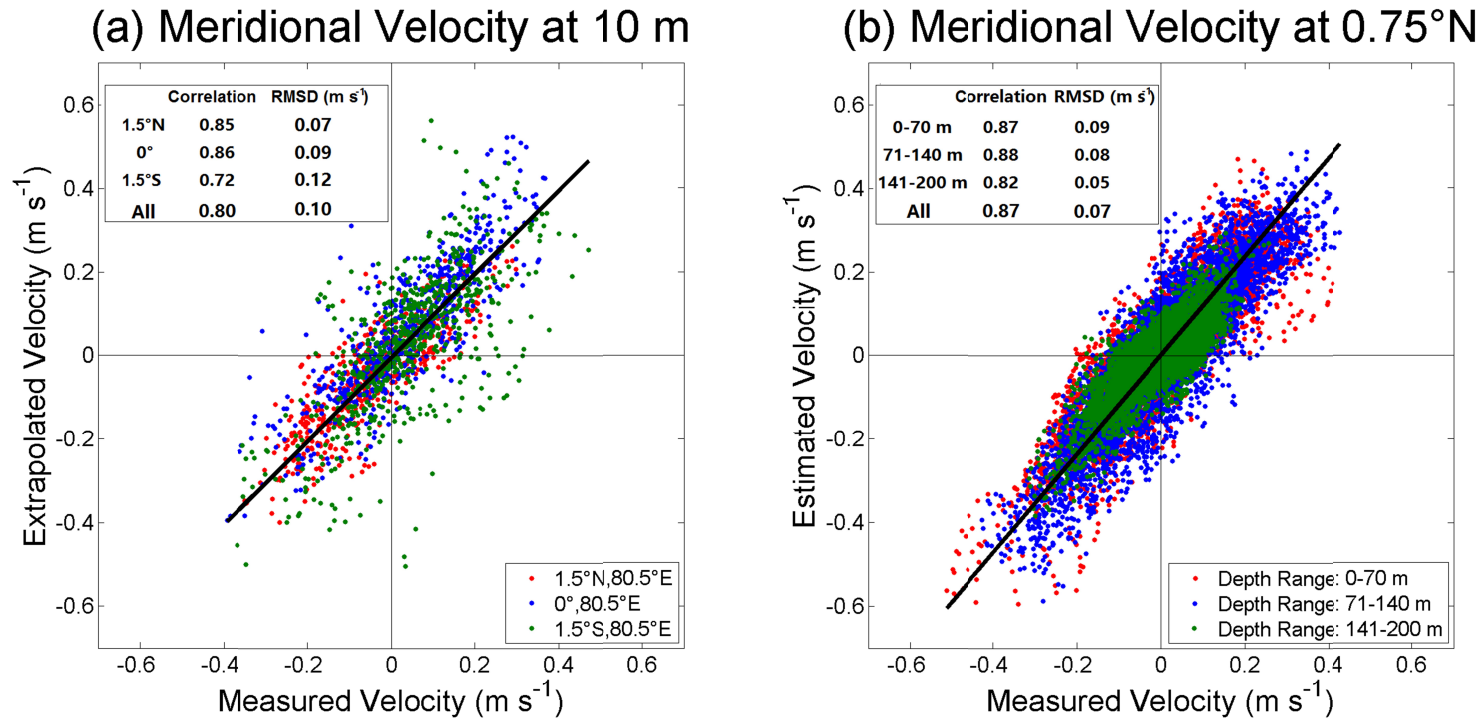


569

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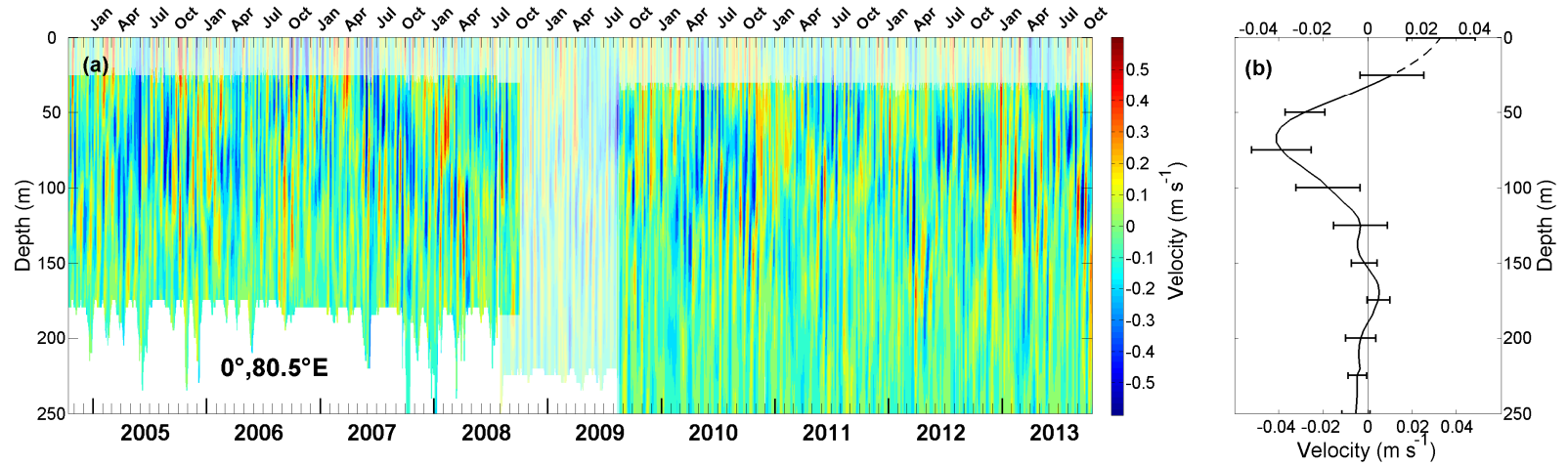
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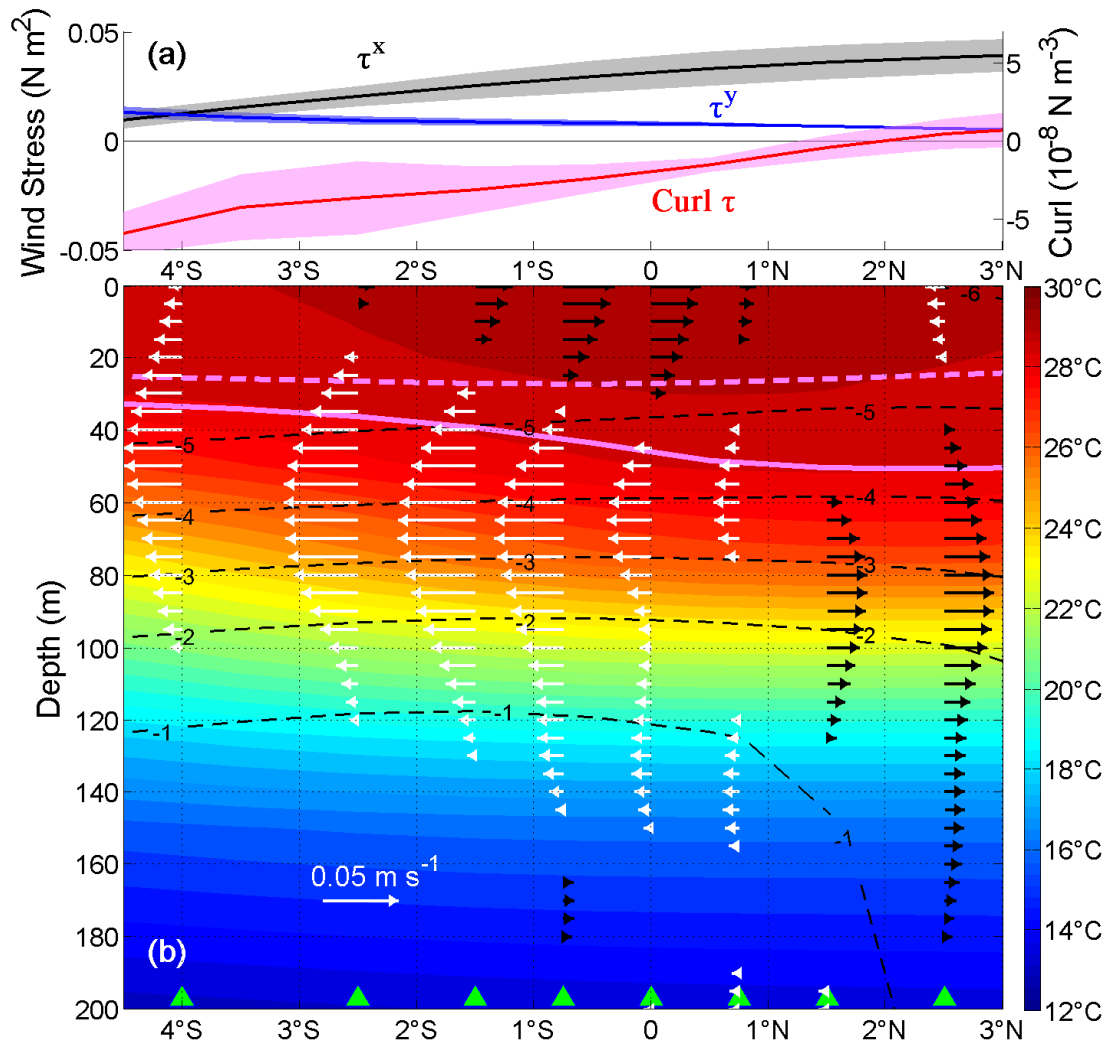
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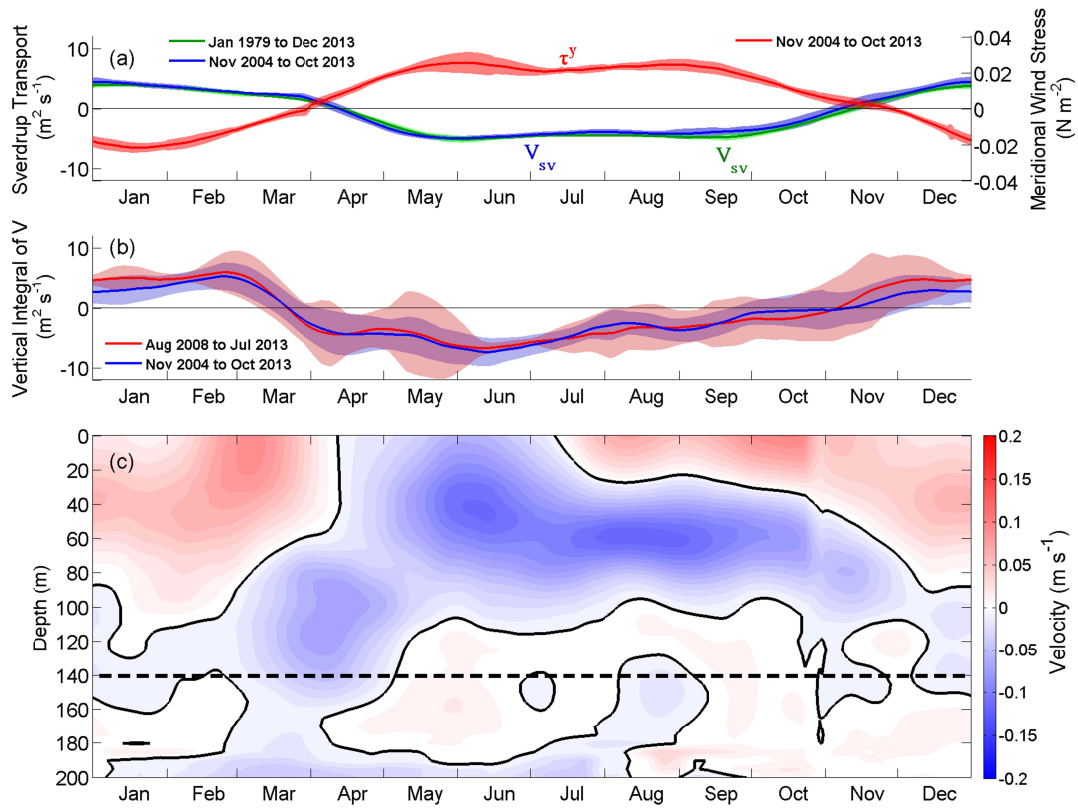
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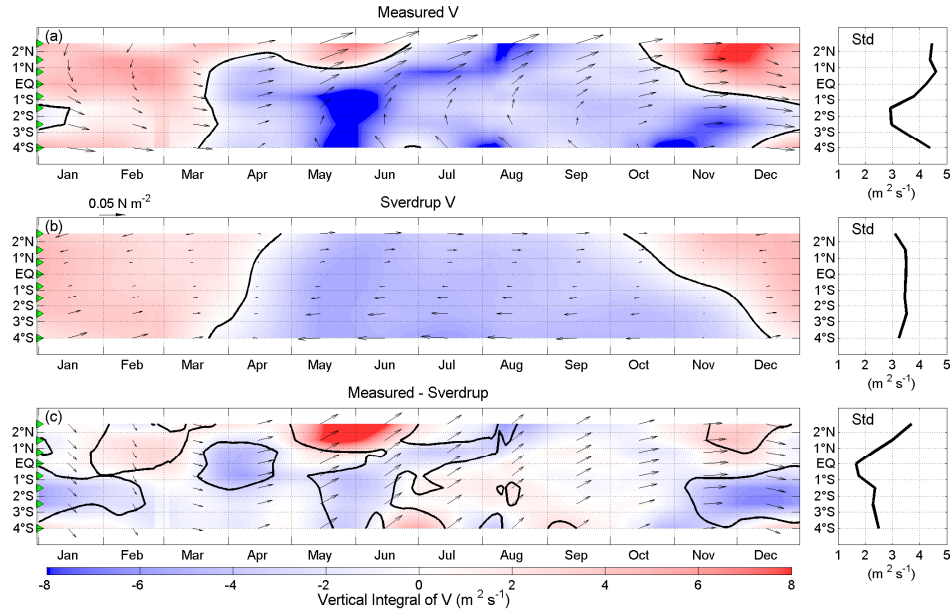
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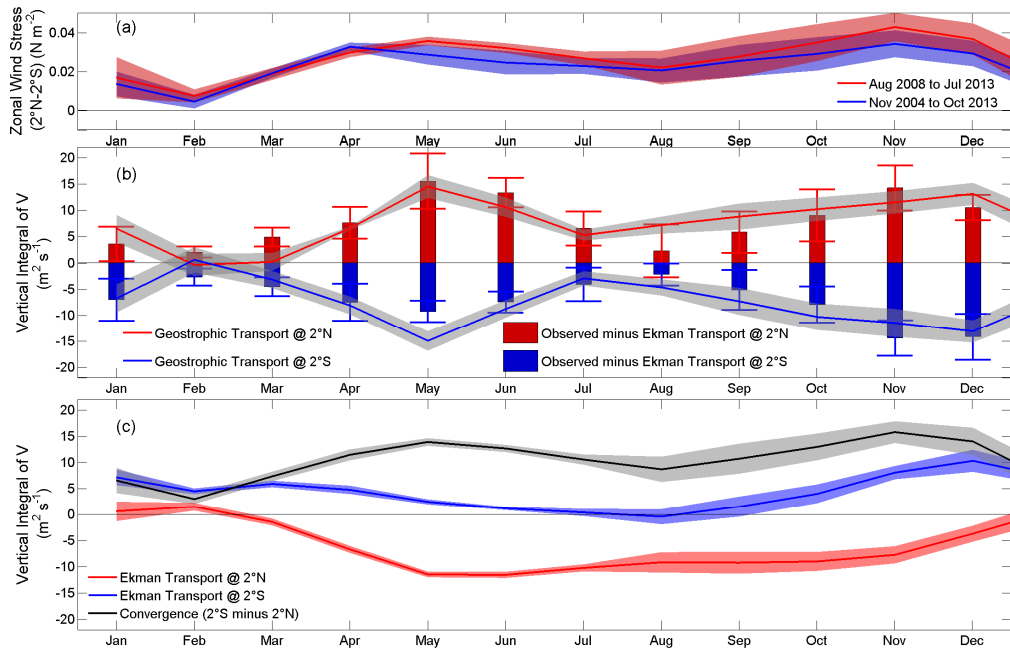
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Figure 1.

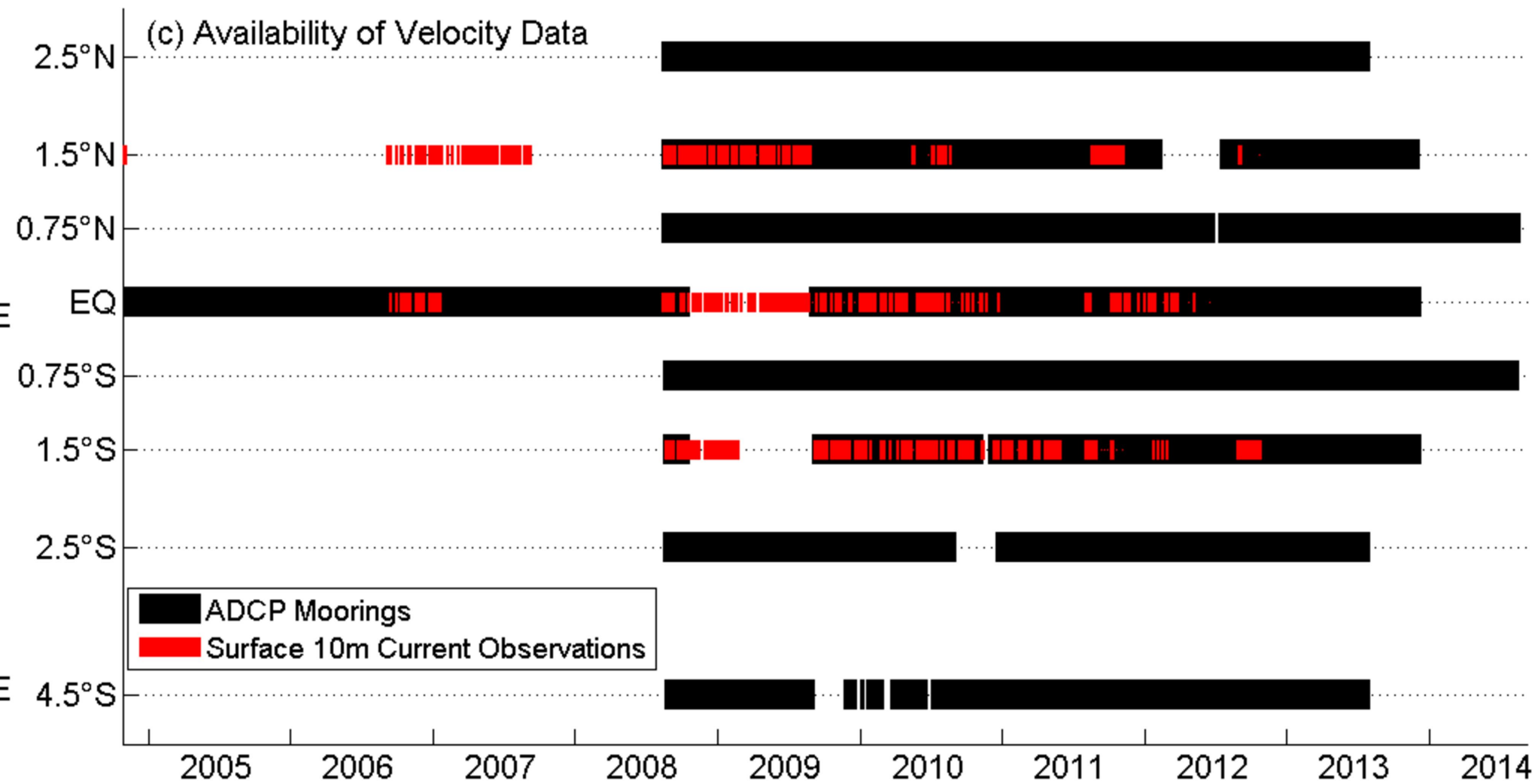
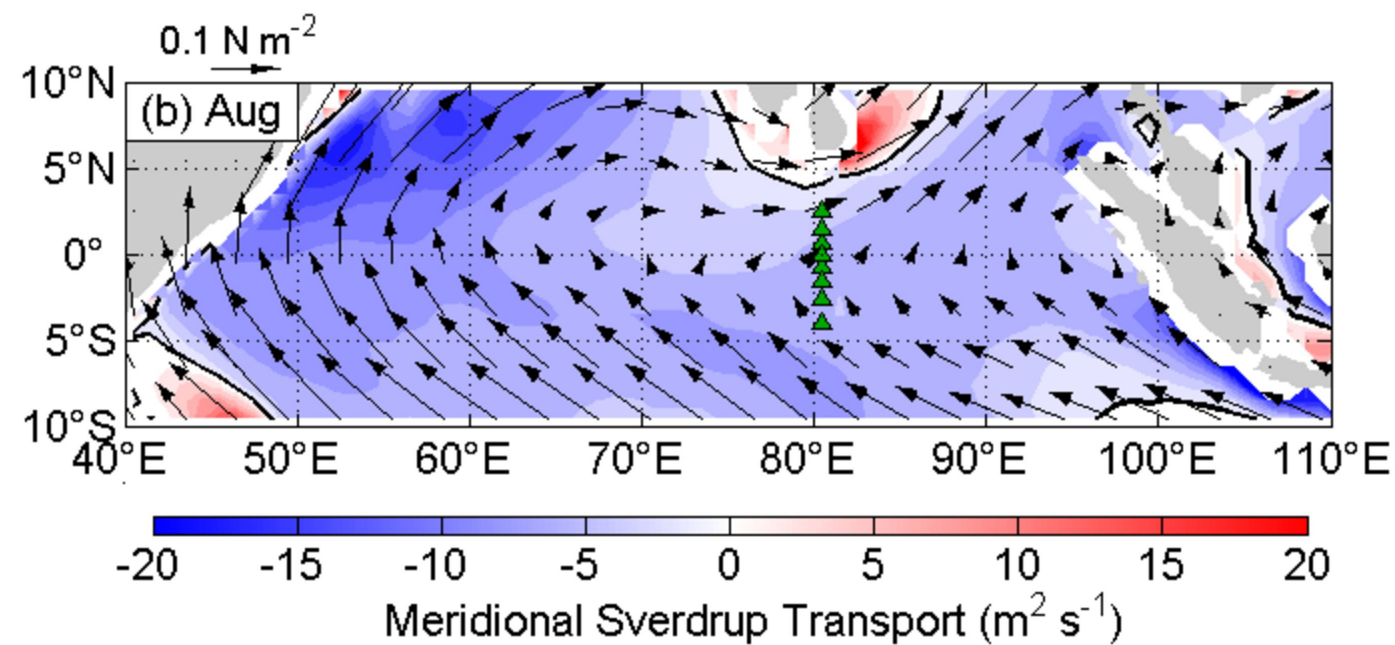
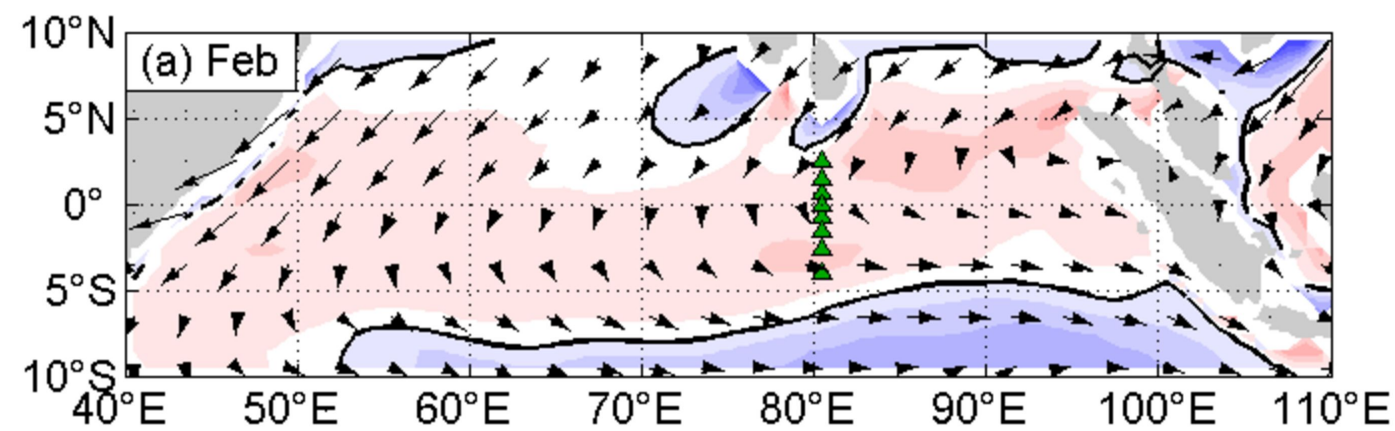
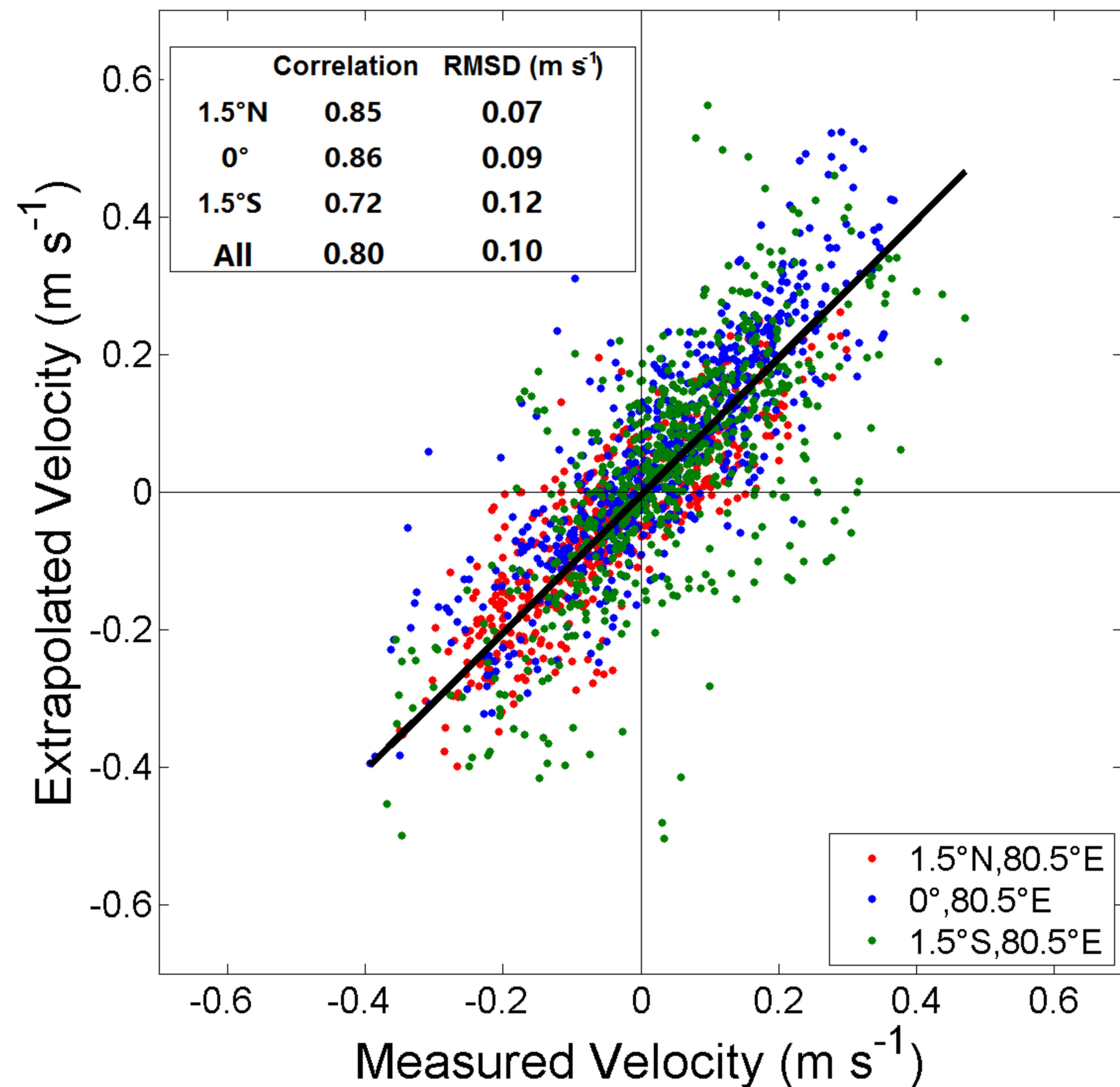


Figure 2.

(a) Meridional Velocity at 10 m



(b) Meridional Velocity at 0.75°N

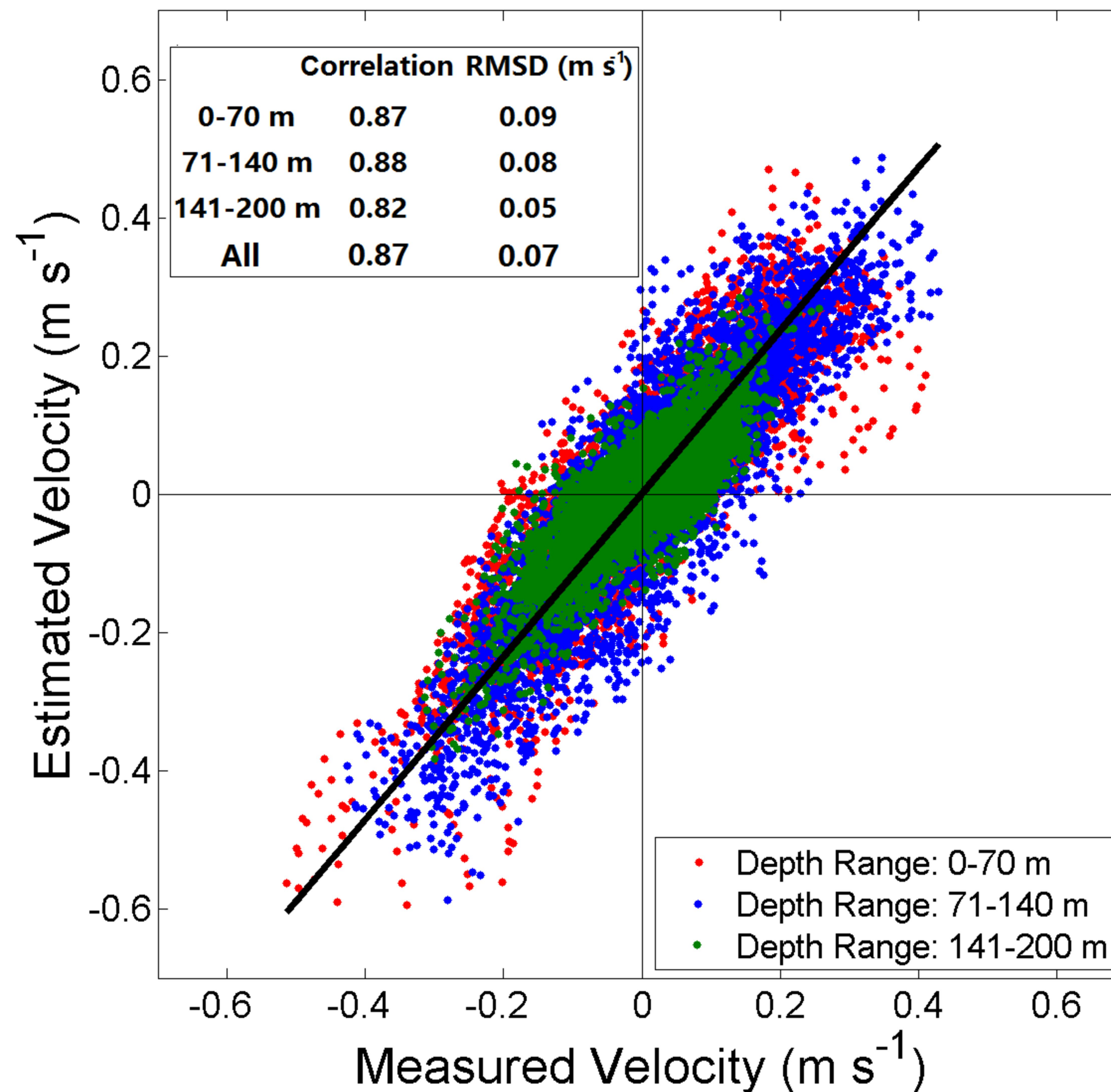


Figure 3.

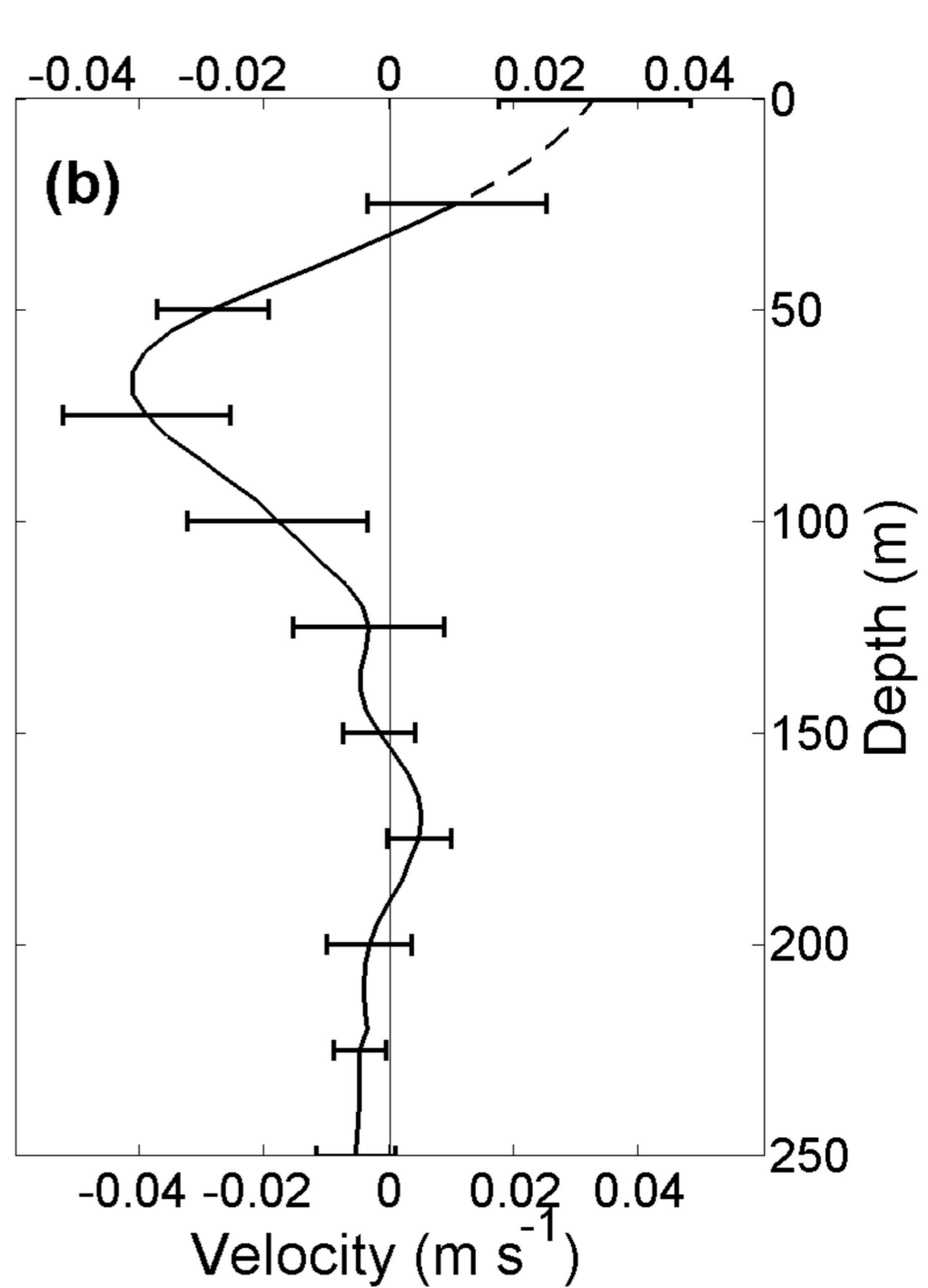
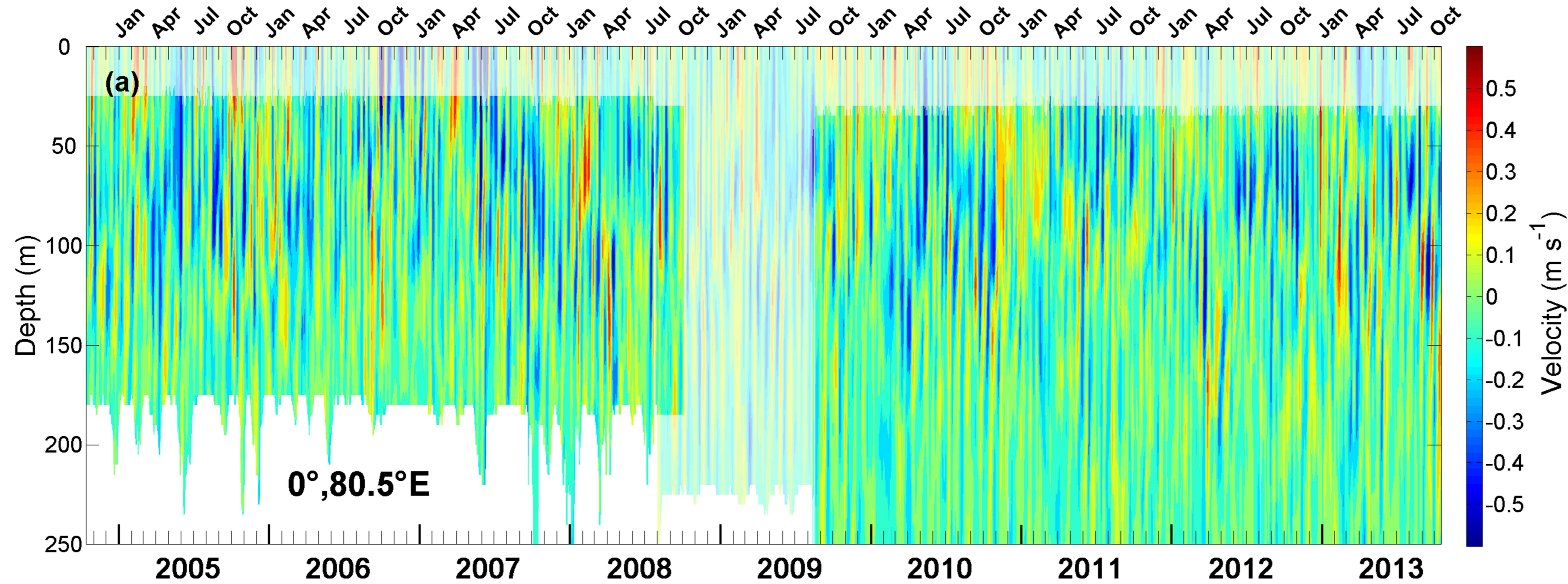


Figure 4.

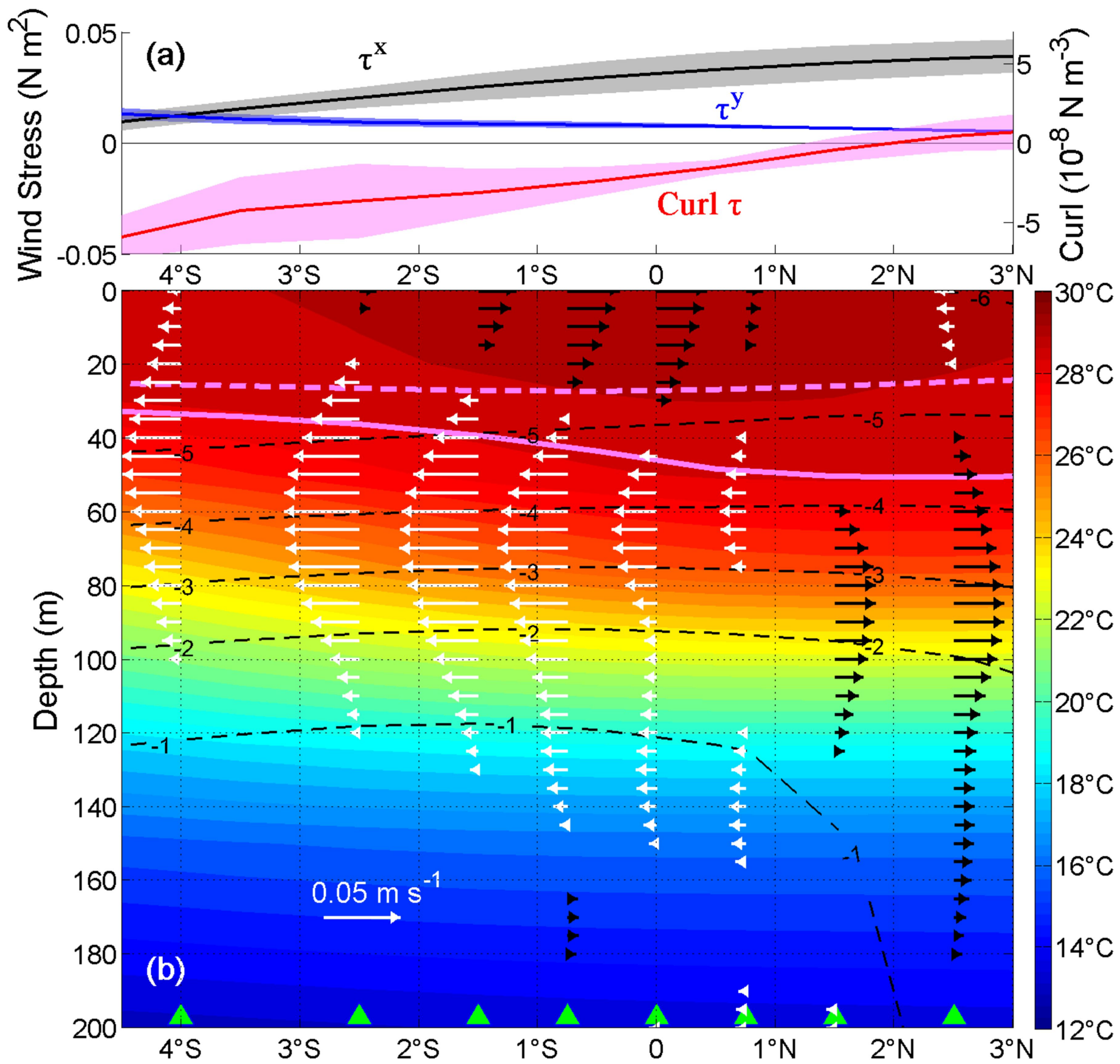


Figure 5.

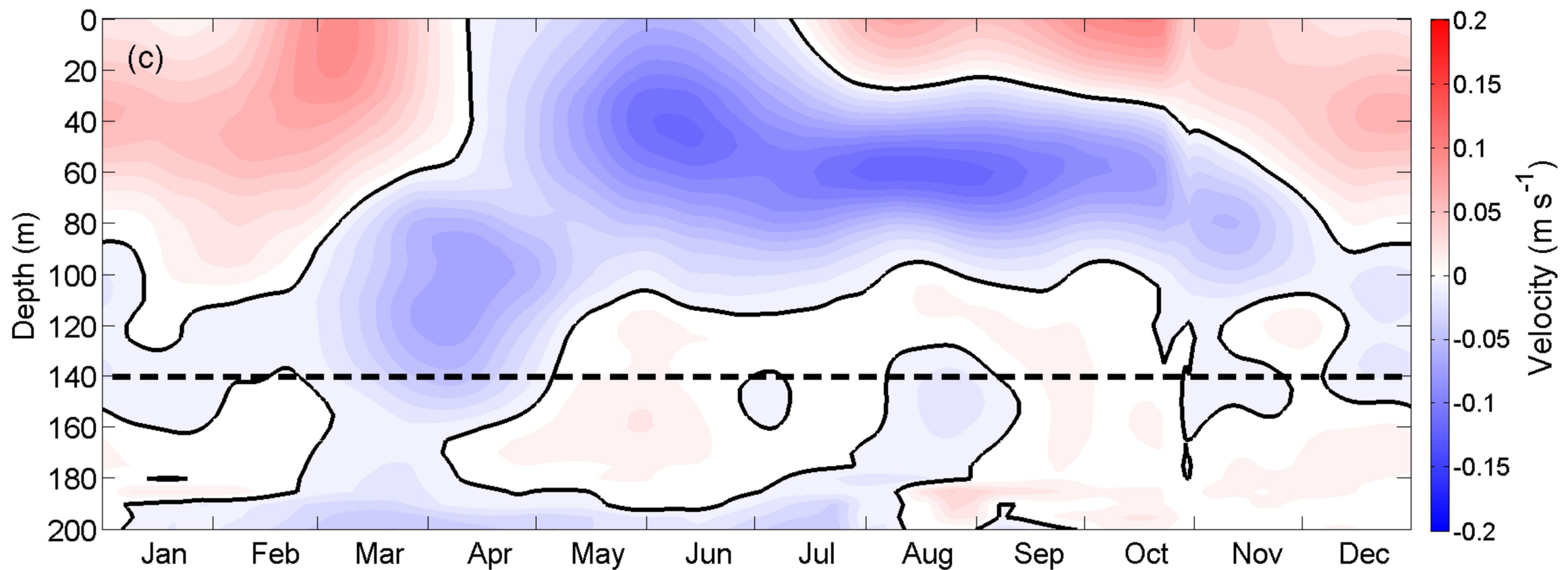
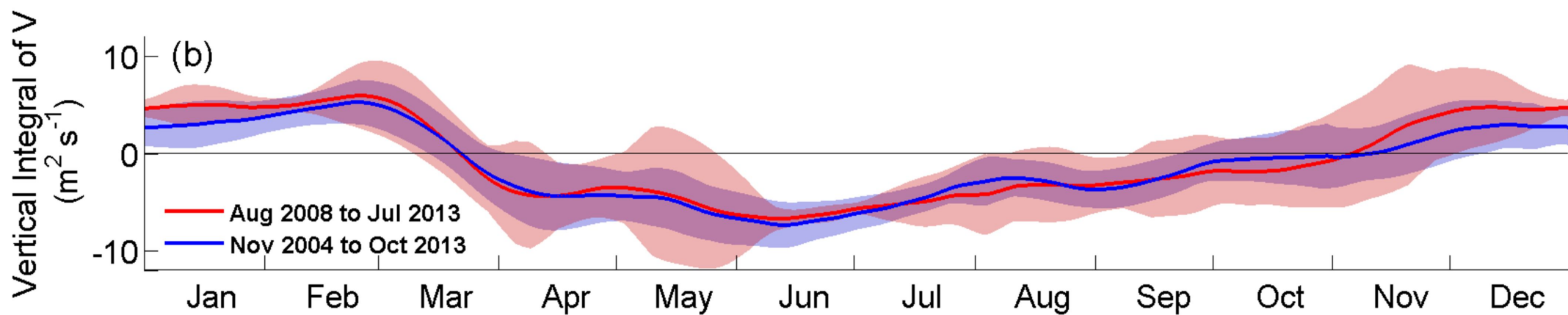
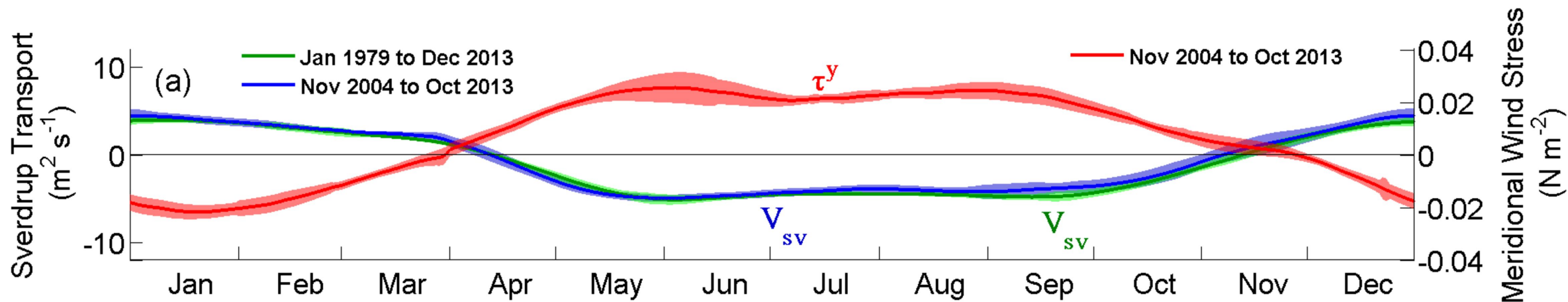


Figure 6.

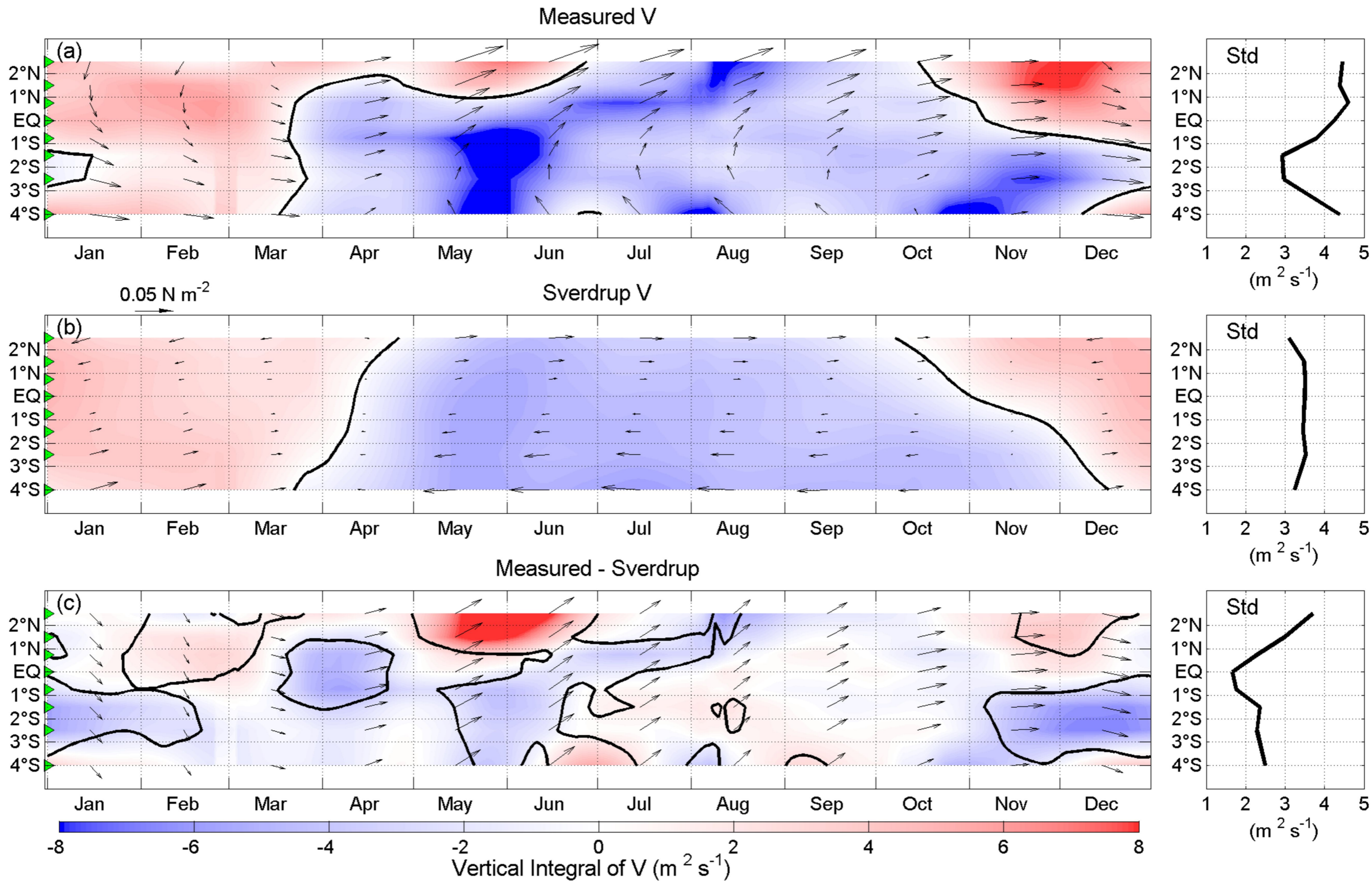


Figure 7.

