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35 **1. Introduction**

36 Decadal variations of extreme climate impact negatively on agricultural production resulting into
37 massive losses amongst the affected communities and thus deleterious effect on the economy of
38 Eastern African countries. Understanding the nature and causes of decadal fluctuations in
39 climate system is an unresolved problem, partly because observed records are relatively short or
40 sparse and because dynamical processes that operate on this time-scale have not firmly been
41 understood. Over the region, much attention has been devoted to how and why precipitation
42 varies in association with the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) (Mutemi 2003; Indeje et.al.,
43 2000, Ogallo 1988) at diurnal, seasonal and inter-annual time-scales. The impacts of persistent
44 decadal climate anomalies have far reaching socio-economic implications due to persistent
45 climate stress that they would impose on the regional socio-economic systems.

46
47 For example, decadal scale fluctuations are crucial because they control water supplies, affect
48 biota, and may modulate higher-frequency events such as floods and droughts. Furthermore, low
49 frequency natural variability is important in global climate change issues because it may obscure
50 human influences on hydrological variations. Climate parameters have been observed in a global
51 scale during the last several decades (Ryan and Bromwich, 2006; Wu and Liu, 2005, Becker et
52 al. 2010). Examples of such variability include the North Atlantic Oscillations (NAO)
53 phenomenon; drought in California, parts of Australia, or the Sahel and Eastern Africa. Their
54 influences have been observed in lake level fluctuations and inter-annual rainfall records
55 (Awange et al., 2008). Impacts of such decadal variability of extreme climate events would
56 generally require more challenging mitigation strategies. Mitigation and adaptation to any of the
57 climate anomalies would depend on the magnitude and duration of the persistence of the
58 anomalies. Mitigation and/or adaptation measures are likely to involve investment in
59 infrastructure and changes in policy due to the potentially large magnitude of their effects.

60
61 Over Eastern Africa region, Omondi (2005), Schreck and Semazzi (2004), Nicholson (1996,
62 1998, 2000) have shown some evidence of decadal climate variability in the observed rainfall
63 records. Using Climate Prediction Centre (CPC) Merged Analysis of Precipitation (CMAP) data
64 and the Principle Component Analysis (PCA) method, Schreck and Semazzi (2004) investigated
65 variability on the October to December (OND) rainfall over Eastern Africa region based on the
66 period 1961–2001. They found that the most dominant mode (EOF1 explaining about 29% of
67 variance) to correspond to ENSO climate variability. They associated the second empirical
68 orthogonal function (EOF2 explaining about 14% of variance) to decadal trend mode. From their
69 results, the long-term rainfall variability was characterized by positive anomalies over the
70 northern sector of Eastern Africa and opposite conditions over the southern sector.

71
72 Several studies in the region on inter-annual variations of East African rainfall and their possible
73 linkages to global Sea Surface Temperature (SST) changes have been undertaken (e.g., Indeje et
74 al., 2000; Mutemi, 2003; Mutai 2003; Owiti, 2005; Nyakwada 2009). The main focus of these
75 studies were especially on the relation between rainfall anomalies and SST perturbations over
76 the equatorial Pacific and Indian Ocean basins, and to some extent, the Atlantic Ocean (Ogallo et
77 al, 1988; Nicholson and Entekhabi, 1987; Mutai and Ward, 2000; Indeje et al., 2000; Saji et al.,
78 1999; and Goddard and Graham 1999). These studies determine the dominant role played by the
79 ENSO anomaly patterns in influencing the inter-annual variabilities of the equatorial East Africa
80 rainfall (Ogallo et al, 1988; Indeje et al., 2000). Note that the zonal temperature gradient over the
81 equatorial Indian Ocean, often referred to as the Indian Ocean Dipole Mode (IOD) (Saji et al.,
82 2003a and 2003b), therefore, the coupled IOD-ENSO influence have also been linked to some of
83 the wettest periods in the region, such as rainfalls in 1961 and 2006 (Black et al., 2003; Black,
84 2004; Bowden and Semazzi, 2007).

85

86 In this paper, we present attempts made to examine decadal trend mode in observed East Africa
87 rainfall records and its possible linkage to decadal patterns of global SST records. Our
88 investigation extends the previous studies by considering a relatively longer period of rainfall
89 data from 1920-2004 and global SSTs for the period 1950-2004 and studying their interactions
90 within their overlap periods. We made use of advanced multivariate statistical analysis
91 techniques such as VARIMAX-PCA and Canonical Correlation Analysis (CCA) which allow an
92 in-depth investigation of possible correlations between decadal SST and rainfall variations.

93
94 The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: In the next section, we briefly describe the
95 data and method used in the study. The trend results are presented in Section 3. Section 4 and 5
96 summarize the main decadal patterns of rainfall and SST variabilities. The link between SSTs
97 and decadal rainfall patterns over the region is discussed in Section 6. Section 7 gives a
98 summary, the major findings and conclusion of the study.

99 **2. Data and methods**

100 **2.1 Data**

101 In this analysis, monthly observed rainfall data was obtained from IGAD Climate Prediction and
102 Applications Centre (ICPAC), the Kenya Meteorological Department (KMD), Tanzania
103 Meteorological Agency (TMA) and Uganda Meteorological Department (UMD). The observed
104 monthly rainfall data used are from 37 stations (Figure 1) unevenly distributed over East Africa
105 (Omondi 2005). Also used in the study are reconstructed Reynolds SST data for the period 1950
106 to 2004 obtained from the United States (US) National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
107 (NOAA) official website¹. The data are archived as the optimum interpolation (OI), version 2,
108 global SST values on 1° by 1° grid points. The SST values include in-situ and satellite SSTs

¹ <http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/gridded/data.ncep.oisst.v2.html>

109 observations plus those SSTs that are simulated by sea-ice cover. More on the SST data can be
110 obtained from Reynolds and Marsico 1993, Reynolds and Smith 1994, and Reynolds et al. 2002.

111 **2.2 Method**

112 Since our attention is primarily on the lower frequency (long wave-length) variabilities, a 9-point
113 binomial coefficient filter is employed to smooth both the rainfall and SST time series so that all
114 fluctuations of period shorter than 10 years are considerably suppressed. A Graphical method is
115 then used to extract decadal trend modes while Mann-Kendall and the Spearman rank tests
116 statistical methods that are based on rank statistics (Kendall 1976; Kendall and Stuart 1961;
117 WMO 1966) were employed to test the significance of the observed trends.

118
119 The PCA method is a statistical signal extraction technique based on diagonalization of the auto-
120 covariance or auto-correlation matrix of a data set (Wilks, 1995). In this study, the VARIMAX
121 rotated version of PCA was applied to define dominant modes of variability of the low passed
122 rainfall and SST series. The VARIMAX rotation is selected to improve the physical
123 interpretation of the PCA modes and to derive more localized components (see, e.g., Richman,
124 1986). To define the relationship between the dominant modes of decadal rainfall variabilities
125 and SST variations in the global oceans, the Canonical Correlation Analysis (CCA) technique
126 was adopted. Unlike PCA, CCA is a statistical technique that identifies a sequence of pairs of
127 patterns in two multivariate data sets and constructs sets of transformed variables by projecting
128 the original data onto these patterns (Barnett and Preisendorfer (1987); Wilks (1995); Barnston
129 and He (1996); Von Storch and Zwiers (1999); and Mutemi (2003)). CCA, therefore, can be
130 regarded as a multivariate statistical technique that calculates linear combinations of a set of
131 predictors that maximizes relationships, in a least square sense, to the similarly calculated linear
132 combinations of a set of predictand. The patterns are chosen such that new variables defined by
133 projection of the two data sets onto these patterns exhibit maximum correlation but are

134 uncorrelated with the projections of the data onto any of the other identified patterns. The
135 superiority of CCA over other several techniques is its ability to operate on full fields of
136 information and to objectively define the most highly related patterns of predictor and predictand
137 (Barnett and Preisendorfer 1987; Indenje et al., 2000; Mutemi 2003; Omondi 2005; Nyakwada
138 2009).

139 Canonical Correlation Analysis (CCA) goes beyond the limitation of the simple correlation
140 analysis by taking into consideration the full space and time dimensions of the fields analyzed
141 and this is an exceptional skill capability of the technique. It also gives an extensive set of
142 diagnostics that offer some insight into the physical base of the relationships used to form the
143 predictions. The advantages of CCA include ability to operate on full fields of information and
144 to objectively define the most highly related pattern of predictors and predictands. Its capability
145 to define both the space and time evolution of the predictor dataset that best predicts an
146 associated pattern of a predictand is efficient compared to simple correlation technique.

147 In this study, CCA was used to select pairs of spatial patterns of the two space / time
148 dependent variable sets (VRIMAX-PCA of rainfall data and SSTs) such that the (time
149 dependent) pattern amplitudes are optimally correlated. The strength and the sign of the
150 corresponding patterns are described by the canonical correlation coordinates. Since the
151 canonical series are normalized to unit variance, the canonical correlation patterns are expressed
152 in the units of the variable they represent and indicate the "typical" strength of the mode of co-
153 variation described by the patterns. The correlation between the canonical coordinates measures
154 the degree of association between the canonical patterns of predictor and predictand variables (
155 Xoplaki et al., 2003).

156 A CCA transform pairs of original centred data vectors \mathbf{x}' and \mathbf{y}' into sets of new
 157 variables, called *canonical variates*, v_m and w_m , defined by the dot products

158
$$v_m = \mathbf{a}_m^T \mathbf{x}' = \sum_{i=1}^I a_{m,i} x'_i, m=1, \dots, \min(I, J); \dots\dots\dots (1a)$$

159 and

160
$$w_m = \mathbf{b}_m^T \mathbf{y}' = \sum_{j=1}^J b_{m,j} y'_j, m=1, \dots, \min(I, J); \dots\dots\dots (1b)$$

161 This construction of canonical variates is similar to that of the principal components u_m , in that
 162 each is a linear combination of (a sort of weighted average) of elements of the respective data
 163 vectors \mathbf{x}' and \mathbf{y}' . These vectors of weights, \mathbf{a}_m and \mathbf{b}_m , are called the canonical vectors. One
 164 data- and canonical-vector pair need not to have the same dimension as the other. Therefore, in
 165 Equations 1a, vectors \mathbf{x}' and \mathbf{a}_m each have I elements, while those of \mathbf{y}' and \mathbf{b}_m in Equation
 166 1b have J elements each. m is the number of canonical pairs, so called ‘canonical variates’ that
 167 can be extracted from the two data sets. In practice, m is derived as $m = \min(I, J)$.

168 The canonical vectors \mathbf{a}_m and \mathbf{b}_m are the unique choices that result in the canonical
 169 variates having the properties

170
$$\text{corr}[v_1, w_1] \geq \text{corr}[v_2, w_2] \geq \dots \geq \text{corr}[v_m, w_m] \geq 0; \dots\dots\dots (2a)$$

171
$$\text{corr}[v_k, w_m] = \begin{cases} r_{cm}, & k=m \\ 0, & k \neq m \end{cases}; \dots\dots\dots (2b)$$

172 and

173
$$\text{Var}[v_m] = \mathbf{a}_m^T [\mathbf{S}_{x,x}] \mathbf{a}_m = \text{Var}[w_m] = \mathbf{b}_m^T [\mathbf{S}_{y,y}] \mathbf{b}_m = 1, \dots\dots\dots (2c)$$

174 Equation 2a shows that each of the m successive pairs of canonical variates exhibits no greater
 175 correlation than the previous pair. These correlations between the pairs of canonical are called

176 the *canonical correlations*, r_c . Equation 2b states that each canonical variate is uncorrelated
177 with all of the other canonical variates except its specific counterpart in the m^{th} pair. Finally,
178 Equation 2c states that each canonical variate has unit variance.

179 **3. Results of the Decadal Trend Modes**

180
181 Some examples of patterns of the decadal rainfall trend for both the smoothed and unsmoothed
182 time series obtained are shown in Figure 2a and Figure 2b associated with the long rainy season
183 of March-May (MAM). The ten year cycles are clearly discernible in the smoothed series. These
184 modes are better illustrated when the time series of smoothed series are plotted as anomalies in
185 Figure 3a and Figure 3b. The trend mode for the third short rainfall season associated with June-
186 August (JJA) rainfall shows that western and coastal parts of the region receive substantial
187 amount of rainfall, which unlike MAM and OND seasons, are dominated by twenty years cycles
188 (Figure 3b). The major decadal signals observed from the graphs indicated that for MAM
189 seasons, the wet decades were 1921-1930, 1961-1970 and the late 1981-90 while the dry ones
190 included 1931-1940, 1941-1950, 1951-1960, early parts of 1971-1980 and 1991-2000.

191
192 There were significant spatial variations in the observed decadal trend signals, with no
193 noticeable decade with one specific dominant trend over the whole region. This could be
194 attributed to the influence of regional and local factors including the existence of many large
195 inland water bodies and complexity in the East Africa topography.

196
197 The short rainfall season of OND is the second major rain season for the region. The extreme
198 events in one or two years within a decade influenced the general trend of the decadal mean
199 rainfall. Example is the 1997/98 El Niño related floods that made 1991-2000 be a wet decade in
200 most zones. The 1961/1970 decade was wet due to the heavy rainfall that was received over

201 most parts of the region in 1961/1962 that resulted into the rise of Lake Victoria level by over
202 2.5 meters (Yin and Nicholson, 1998, Nicholson, 1998, Phoon et al., 2004).

203 The major decadal signals observed for OND seasons were wet decades of the late 1941-1950,
204 the early 1961-1970, the early 1981-1990 and 1991-2000 while the dry ones included 1921-
205 1930, 1931-1940, early part of 1951-1960 and 1971-1980 (Figure 4). For the JJA seasons, the
206 major decadal variability was relatively longer than ten years. The wet decades included 1941-
207 1950, 1951-1960, 1981-1990, 1991-2000 while the dry ones included 1921-1930, 1931-1940,
208 1961-1970, 1971-1980 for the western parts of the region (Figure 4). The scenario was exactly
209 opposite along the coastal region, i.e., the wet decades were generally 1921-1930, 1931-1940,
210 1961-1970, 1971-1980 while the dry decades were 1941-1950, 1951-1960, 1981- 1990, 1991-
211 2000. There was significant spatial variation in the observed trends (Figure 4).

212 In order to establish whether the observed decadal trend and cyclic modes are significant,
213 statistical tests on the differences amongst some decadal means and the Spearman rank were
214 carried out (Maritz, 1981). A comparison of decadal means and with the long-term seasonal
215 rainfall means showed that the decades of 1921-1930 and 1961-1970 were generally wet while
216 1931-1940, 1951-1960 and 1991-2000 were generally dry during the long rainfall (MAM)
217 seasons of the study period. In order to establish whether there was existence of any spatially
218 coherent decadal differences, the spatial patterns of the various means were plotted in Figure 4.
219 Large scale wet / dry cases were, however, evident for a few specific years. Similar to the MAM
220 seasons as already stated, this could have been due to the influence of regional and local factors,
221 e.g., including the existence of many large inland water bodies and topographical complexity in
222 the region (Mukabana and Pielke 1996; Anyah 2005).

223 **4. Results of VARIMAX-PCA analysis on rainfall**

224 **4.1. VARIMAX-PCA of OND rainfall**

225 The VARIMAX-PCA method was applied on OND rainfall time series. According to the Scree,
226 Kaiser's criterion and North et al. (1982) sampling errors tests, the first five modes accounting
227 for 81.3% of total OND rainfall variance are statistically significant (see Table 1 and Figure 5).
228 For brevity, here, we only show the first 3 dominant modes of OND seasons in Figure 6. The
229 first mode is extended nearly in all parts of the region except the south-eastern segment of
230 Tanzania. Schreck and Semazzi (2004) also found a remarkably similar distribution of EOF
231 loadings, although their analysis covered slightly a bigger domain. The variance in EOF1 of
232 Schreck and Semmazi (2004) was 28%, compared with 15.9% of our corresponding mode. This
233 difference may be attributed to the larger region covered by their analysis. The corresponding
234 PC time series (Figure 6 (b)) indicates some consistence with ENSO variability (so called 'cold
235 ENSO' signal in Ogallo et al. (1988) and Indeje et al. (2000)). According to PC1, the average
236 cold ENSO events were pronounced in the decades 1980-1990 and this brought about general
237 depressed rainfall in the region corresponding to the high peaks of the time series. The reverse
238 condition is represented by PC2 in Figure 6(b) with a dipole spatial pattern over the region. The
239 third mode is related to the decadal trend mode (Bowden and Semazzi, 2007), showing positive
240 mode over the north and south of Lake Victoria and a decrease mainly over the eastern coastal
241 regions (Figure 6 (c)).

242

243 **4.2. VARIMAX-PCA of MAM rainfall**

244 We also applied VARIMAX-PCA on MAM rainfall seasons. Results of the Scree and North et
245 al. (1982) test show that the first six modes accounting for about 80% of variance are statistically
246 significant (see Table 2 and Figure 7). Like in the previous section, we only show the first three
247 dominant modes. Mode one (EOF1 and PC1) depicts the north-south rainfall dipole brought
248 about by the movement of the Sun from one hemisphere to the other i.e. due to the Inter-Tropical
249 Convergence Zone (ITCZ), while the second mode was related to the positive IOD mode and the
250 decadal trend in EOF3 and PC3 (Figure 8).

251 **4.3. VARIMAX-PCA of JJA rainfall**

252 Implementing VARIMAX-PCA on JJA seasons show that parts of the equatorial sector,
253 covering northern Tanzania, western parts of East Africa and the coastal areas generally get
254 rains. Figure 9 and Table 3 indicate that seven PCA modes, accounting for about 93% of the
255 total JJA variance, were significant.

256 Figure 10(a) displays the spatial pattern for the Eastern Africa region in which EOF 1 explains
257 28.6% of the total JJA variance. The distribution of the loadings is characterised by moisture
258 incursion from the Congo air basin causing wetness in the western sector of the region
259 (Nyakwada 2010). The corresponding time series (Figure 10(b)) exhibits both strong inter-annual
260 variability and low-frequency background variability. The evolution of the background
261 variability has positive trend in 1980/1990 decade which reached its highest levels during the
262 early 1998. There is indication of subsequent decline in the amplitude during the late 1990s and
263 early 2000. Combined interpretation of the Regional-EOF1 distribution of loadings (Figure
264 10(a)) and the corresponding time series suggests that the western sector of Eastern Africa had
265 1980/1990 decade wet while the southern sector drier. The southern sector during this season is
266 usually dry and this could have resulted into the negative anomalies.

267 **5. Results for S-mode VARIMAX-PCA analysis for the specific basins' SST anomalies**

268
269 This section presents the results of implementing the VARIMAX-PCA method on the SST
270 records of some specific oceanic basins during OND, JJA and MAM seasons in order to
271 compare the SST behaviours of these oceanic basins with the rainfall patterns over East Africa.
272 The derived VARIMAX solutions are summarized in Table 4 and the derived spatial patterns are
273 shown in Figure 11. The first mode of VARIMAX-PCA derived from decadal SST of the Indian
274 Ocean during OND seasons accounts for 38% of the total variance of SST. The positive loading
275 is centred on the tropical equatorial Indian Ocean and the negative centre is located over the
276 south-western Indian Ocean (Figure 11 (a)). The Indian Ocean EOF 1 for MAM (Figure 11(c)),
277 however, had a dipole structure like pattern of SSTs with positive centre near the Indo-Pacific
278 area while negative centre located near the south-western Indian Ocean. The total variance
279 accounted for this mode is 45.4% (Table 4).

280 Figure 12 (a) shows the spatial patterns for Atlantic Ocean during the same OND seasons.
281 Generally, the equatorial basin of Atlantic shows positive loadings while its northern sector
282 exhibits negative loadings with the highest variance of 64.1% during OND season. It is
283 noteworthy that the OND season had the first and second variances taking nearly all the total
284 variances (Table 4). In other seasons, three variances explained nearly the total variances. This
285 could be attributed to the strong and alternating north-south dipole pattern reflecting the known
286 patterns of the Atlantic Tropical Dipole Oscillation (Chang and Li, 1997). In the Pacific Ocean,
287 the first dominant mode for the four seasons seems to have positive / negative loadings over
288 equatorial eastern / western ocean basin regions (Figure 13) that seem to reflect the ENSO
289 variability mode (Ogallo et al., 1988; Indeje et al., 2000; Mutemi, 2003; Owiti, 2005). This
290 dipole structure like pattern of SSTs has negative centre near the Indo-Pacific area while the
291 positive centre was located near the eastern equatorial Pacific Ocean.

292 The results seem to reflect the El Niño / La Niña variability mode (Tanimoto et al, 1993;
293 Trenberth and Hurrell, 1994 and Mantua et al, 1997).

294 **6. Results from canonical correlation analysis (CCA)**

295 In this section, the strength and the sign of the corresponding patterns are described by the
296 canonical correlation coordinates. The CCA method takes into account analysis of the full space
297 and time dimensions of the two fields (rainfall and SSTs) which make it superior comparing to a
298 conventional correlation analysis.

299 **6.1. CCA results for MAM rainfall seasons**

300 The average December-February (DJF), JJA and MAM SSTs from the various ocean basins
301 were independently correlated with MAM rainfall time series. MAM is the major rainfall season
302 for the region and the skill of its predictability is still very low. Three significant modes were
303 discernible for the Indian Ocean basin with DJF and MAM SSTs. The canonical modes
304 accounting for about 72% and 86.8% respectively of the total variance were selected as inputs
305 into the CCA model. Figures 14 and 15 give examples of the CCA loading patterns for the DJF
306 and MAM SSTs of the Indian Ocean respectively. An area of high significant positive
307 correlation between the mentioned SSTs and the canonical component time series was evident
308 over the central equatorial Indian Ocean (Figure 14 (a)). Similarly, there was significant
309 correlation at most locations with positive loadings over the coastal and Lake Victoria regions
310 and a negative loading over the rest of the region (Figure 14 (b)). The canonical correlation skill
311 between rainfall and the predictor SST modes was about -0.79 (Figure 14 (c)). The canonical
312 correlation score between rainfall and the predictor SST modes was 0.72 and 0.96 for one and
313 zero lags, respectively. The canonical scores of the pattern with warm SST in the Indian Ocean
314 were increasing since the mid 1970s whereas the negative coupling was decreasing. Power et al.,
315 (1998) in his analysis of decadal climate variability showed that decadal variability in Indian
316 Ocean SST south of 40° is associated with rainfall variability over East Australia.

317 **6.2. Results for JJA rainfall season**

318 The averages of MAM and JJA SSTs from the various ocean basins were independently
319 correlated with JJA rainfall. Figures 16 and 17 depict loading patterns for the MAM and JJA
320 SSTs of the Atlantic Ocean with JJA seasonal rainfall modes together with the corresponding
321 temporal functions respectively. The negative loadings over the equatorial north-western and
322 central Atlantic Ocean regions (Figure 16(a)) are associated with the wet/dry regimes over
323 western/eastern sectors of Eastern Africa (Figure 16(b)). The canonical correlation score between
324 rainfall and the predictor SST modes was 0.72 for lag one and 0.87 for zero lag. Lag zero that
325 had maximum weights over the Atlantic Ocean basin and was positively correlated with JJA
326 over the whole of western and coastal regions of Kenya together with Uganda (Figure 17b).
327 Similar results have been derived by previous studies, including those of Preston (2005),
328 Washington et al., (2003), Reason et al., (2004) over the Indian Ocean and South African
329 rainfall.

330 **6.3. Results for October - December rainfall season**

331 The average JJA and OND SSTs from the various ocean basins were independently correlated
332 with OND rainfall. Figures 18 and 19 represent CCA loading patterns for JJA and OND of the
333 Pacific Ocean SSTs and OND rainfall respectively. The highly negative loading over the
334 equatorial eastern Pacific Ocean seems to be the major mode associated with the wetness in
335 nearly whole part of the region with pocket of dryness conditions over southern parts that
336 generally have unimodal rainfall regimes. The canonical correlation skill between OND rainfall
337 and the predictor SST modes was 0.88 at lag one showing stronger influence of eastern Pacific
338 to the region.

339
340 Figure 19 shows the CCA loading patterns for the OND rainfall and predictor of the Pacific
341 Ocean SST modes at zero lag. The negative SST loading over the equatorial eastern Pacific

342 Ocean is linked to the generally dry conditions in the region. The canonical correlation skill
343 between OND decadal rainfall and the predictor SST modes is 0.97. Thus cold ENSO phase
344 would be associated with depressed rainfall season over the whole region, while warm phase (El
345 Niño) would be associated with enhanced decadal rainfall over most parts of the region.

346 **7. Summary and Conclusion**

347
348 This study has provided some evidence of decadal variability in the inter-annual patterns of East
349 Africa rainfall. The MAM and OND seasonal rainfall are dominated by 10 year cycles of wet
350 and dry phases, while the JJA season showed a 20 years cycle of wet and dry phases. Some
351 teleconnections were also evident between the observed decadal rainfall variability patterns and
352 SST variability modes over parts of the global oceans. The significant correlation between the
353 rainfall and SSTs offers a useful indicator in predicting rainfall of the region at decadal time
354 scale. Specifically, the study has shown that:

- 355 1. Trend analysis results showed that although no significant trend in the inter-annual
356 patterns were discernible at many locations, too much or too little rainfall received in one
357 or two years influenced the general trend of the decadal mean rainfall. Eight and one
358 zones in OND and MAM showed significant positive trends during this period of study,
359 respectively. For the JJA season, when only the western and coastal parts of the region
360 receive substantial amount of rainfall, no significant trends were observed although the
361 decades after 1961 were wetter than before in these western regions but drier along the
362 coastal regions. No decade was observed to have the whole region dominated by one
363 specific trend mode during the period of study except 1931-1940 and 1961-1970 during
364 OND seasons.
- 365 2. Results from CCA, applied independently on the average DJF and MAM SSTs from the
366 various ocean basins and MAM rainfall, show that three significant modes were
367 discernible. One area of high significant positive correlation between the SSTs and the

368 canonical component time series was evident over the central equatorial Indian Ocean.
369 Similarly, there was significant correlation resulting into wet coastal and Lake Victoria
370 regions with the rest of the region found out to be dry.

371 3. The results from the average MAM and JJA SSTs correlated with JJA rainfall had
372 negative loadings centred on the equatorial western and central Atlantic Ocean regions
373 which were associated with the wet / dry regimes over western / eastern sectors of the
374 region. Linkages between the Atlantic Ocean basin and Eastern Africa during JJA are
375 largely influenced by the space-time pattern of both zonal and meridional arms of the
376 ITCZ.

377 4. The average JJA and OND SSTs with OND rainfall produced highly negative loading
378 over the equatorial eastern Pacific Ocean that were associated with rainfall deficit in
379 nearly the whole region but wet conditions over the southern parts of the region. The
380 positive centre over the eastern equatorial Pacific Ocean, however, was associated with
381 wet conditions in nearly all the region.

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389

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539 **Tables**

540 **Table 1: Eigenvalues, variance and accumulated variance extracted by each mode of the decadal**
 541 **OND rainfall**

PERIOD	FACTOR	EIGENVALUE	VARIANCE EXTRACTED (%)	CUMMULATIVE VARIANCE (%)
OND	1	15.9	42.9	42.9
	2	5.3	14.2	57.1
	3	3.9	10.5	67.6
	4	2.7	7.2	74.8
	5	2.4	6.5	81.3

542

543 **Table 2: Eigenvalues, variance and accumulated variance extracted by each mode of the decadal**
 544 **MAM rainfall**

PERIOD	FACTOR	EIGENVALUE	VARIANCE EXTRACTED (%)	CUMULATIVE VARIANCE (%)
MAM	1	7.3	19.7	19.7
	2	6.9	18.6	38.3
	3	5.9	15.9	54.2
	4	4.2	11.4	65.6
	5	3.0	8.1	73.6
	6	2.3	6.3	80.0

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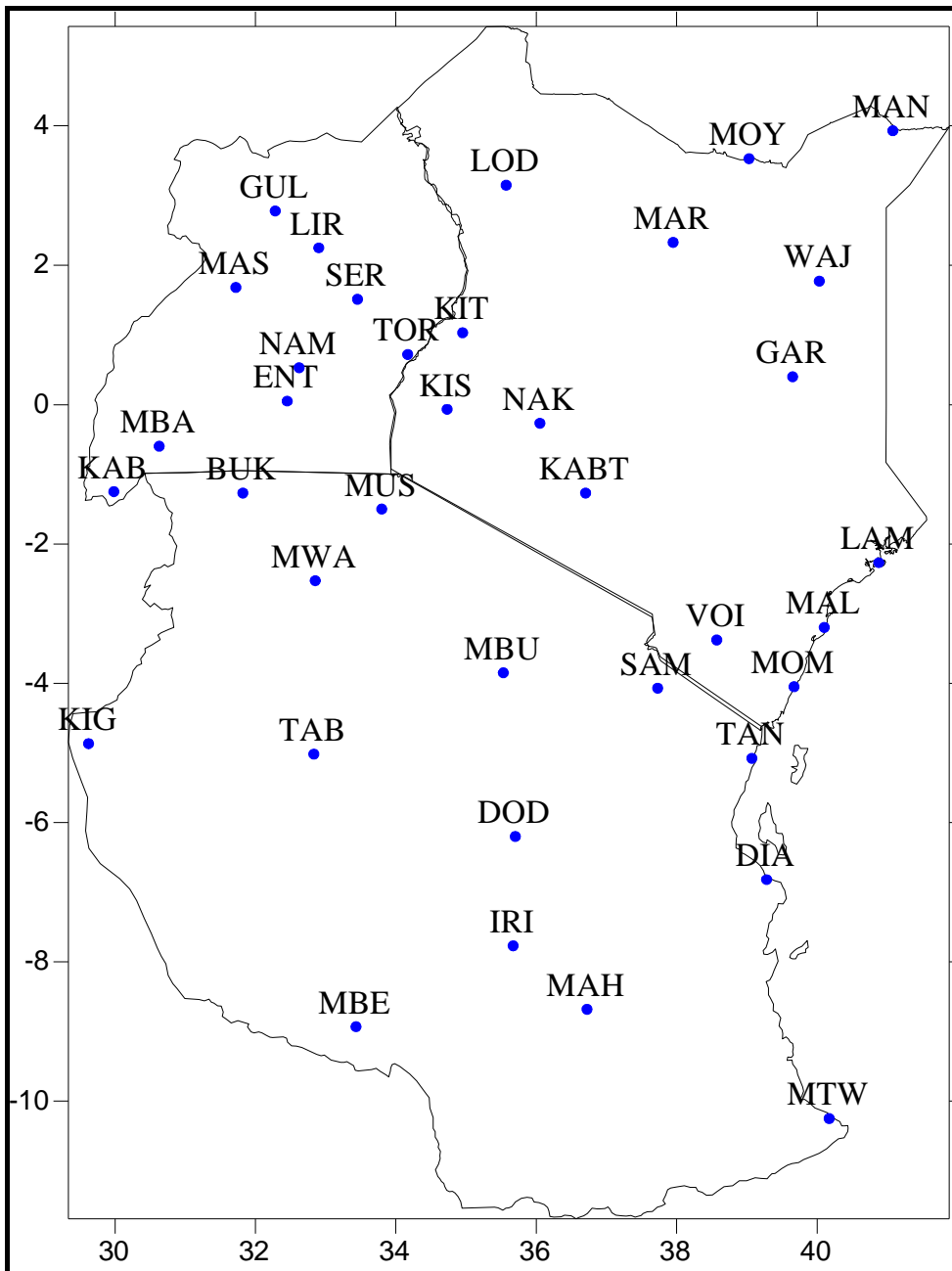
546 **Table 3: Eigenvalues, variance and accumulated variance extracted by each mode of the decadal**
 547 **JJA rainfall**

PERIOD	FACTOR	EIGENVALUE	VARIANCE EXTRACTED (%)	CUMULATIVE VARIANCE (%)
JJA	1	15.8	28.6	28.6
	2	14.6	26.6	55.2
	3	11.4	20.7	75.9
	4	2.9	5.4	81.3
	5	2.8	5.1	86.4
	6	2.5	4.6	91.0
	7	1.2	2.2	93.2

548 **Table 4: Percentage variance extracted by the first 4 RPCs of decadal SST**

		OND	DJF	MAM	JJA
Indian Ocean	PC1	38.0	40.5	45.4	35.2
	PC2	26.0	15.8	41.4	32.5
	PC3	20.1	15.7		24.9
	PC4	11.3	8.5		
Total Variance		95.4	80.5	89.8	92.6
Atlantic Ocean	PC1	64.1	39.1	32.5	39.7
	PC2	34.9	30.6	31.5	34.9
	PC3		13.7	21.8	13.5
	PC4				
Total Variance		99.0	83.4	85.8	88.1
Pacific Ocean	PC1	31.0	40.1	40.9	32.0
	PC2	23.4	30.0	28.2	23.7
	PC3	22.9	11.5	9.6	23.5
	PC4	10.3			
Total Variance		76.6	81.6	78.7	79.2

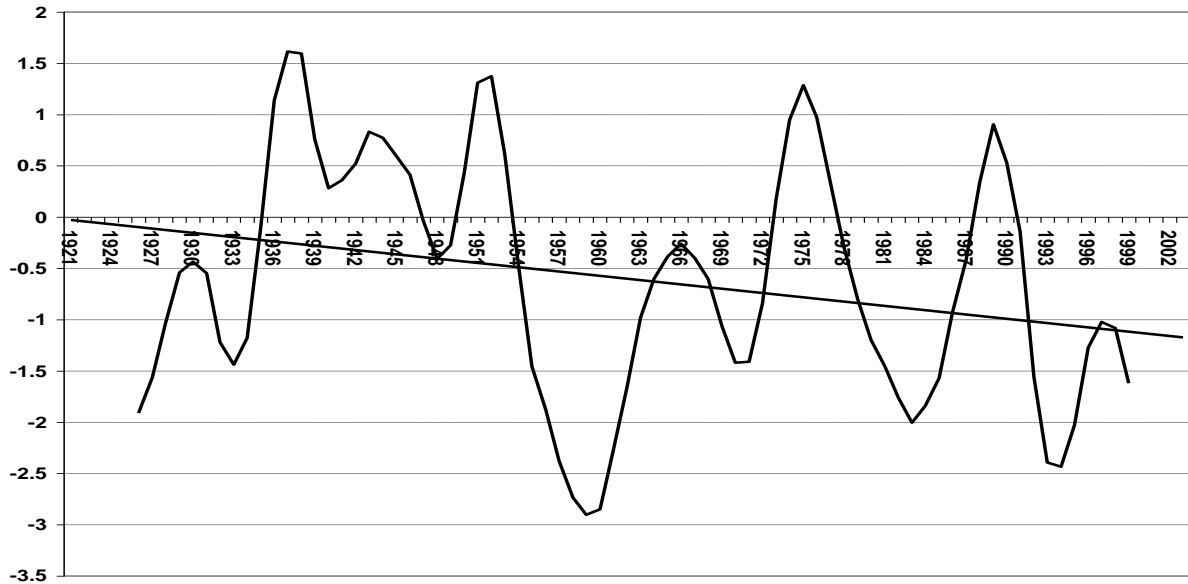
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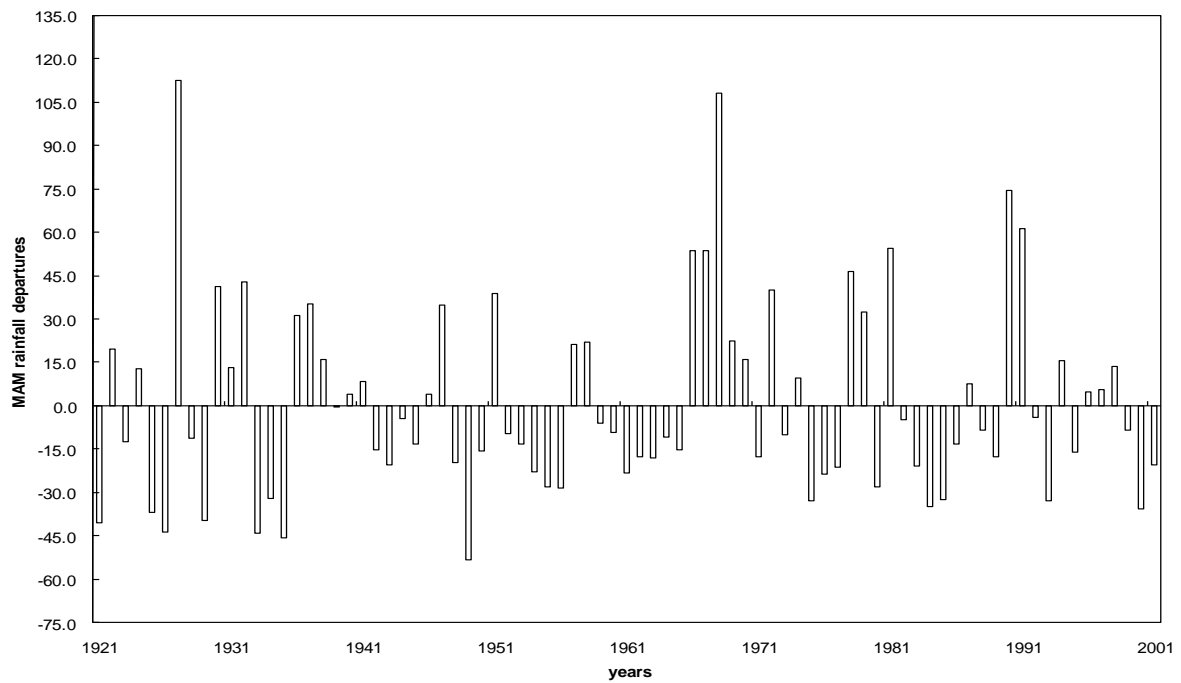
552 **Figure 1: Distribution of representative stations over the study region**

553



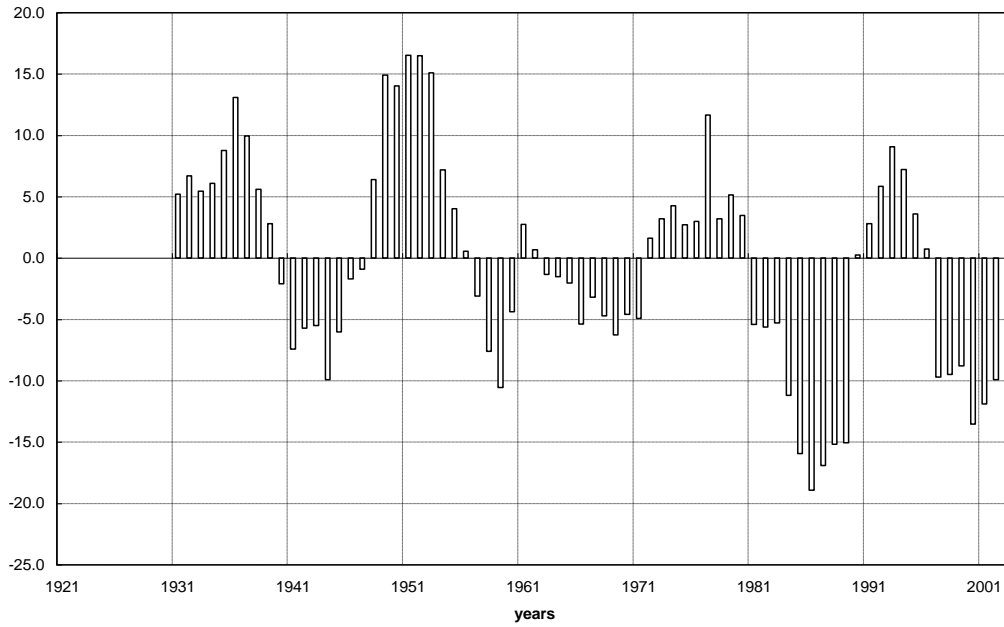
554

555 **Figure 2a: Smoothed inter-annual MAM rainfall anomalies for Voi in Kenya**
 556

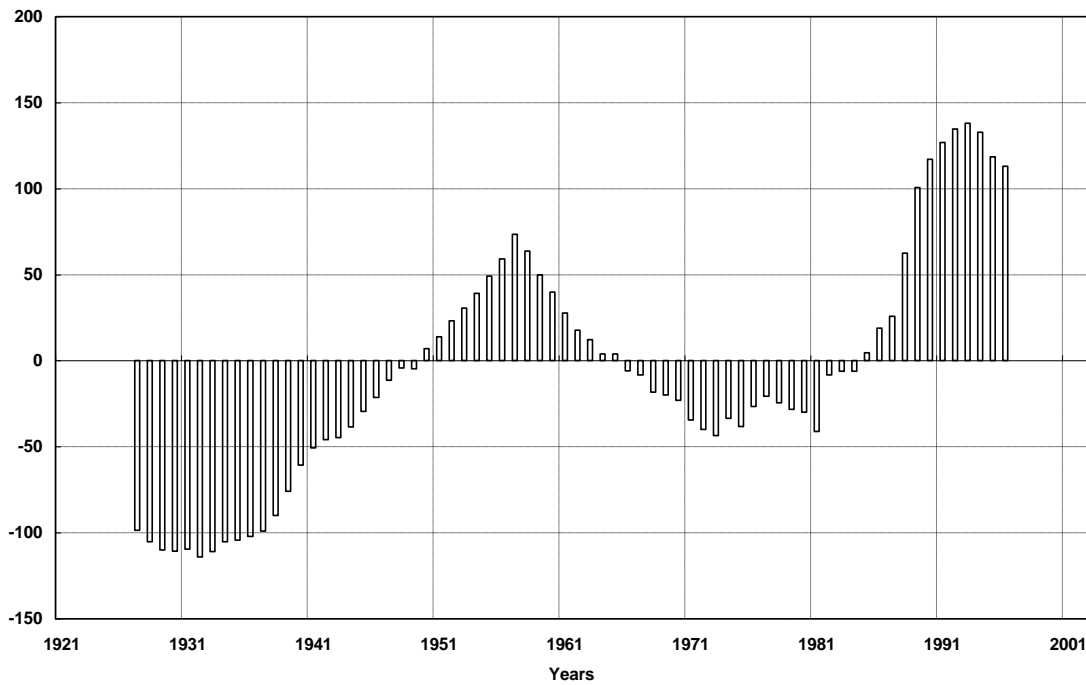


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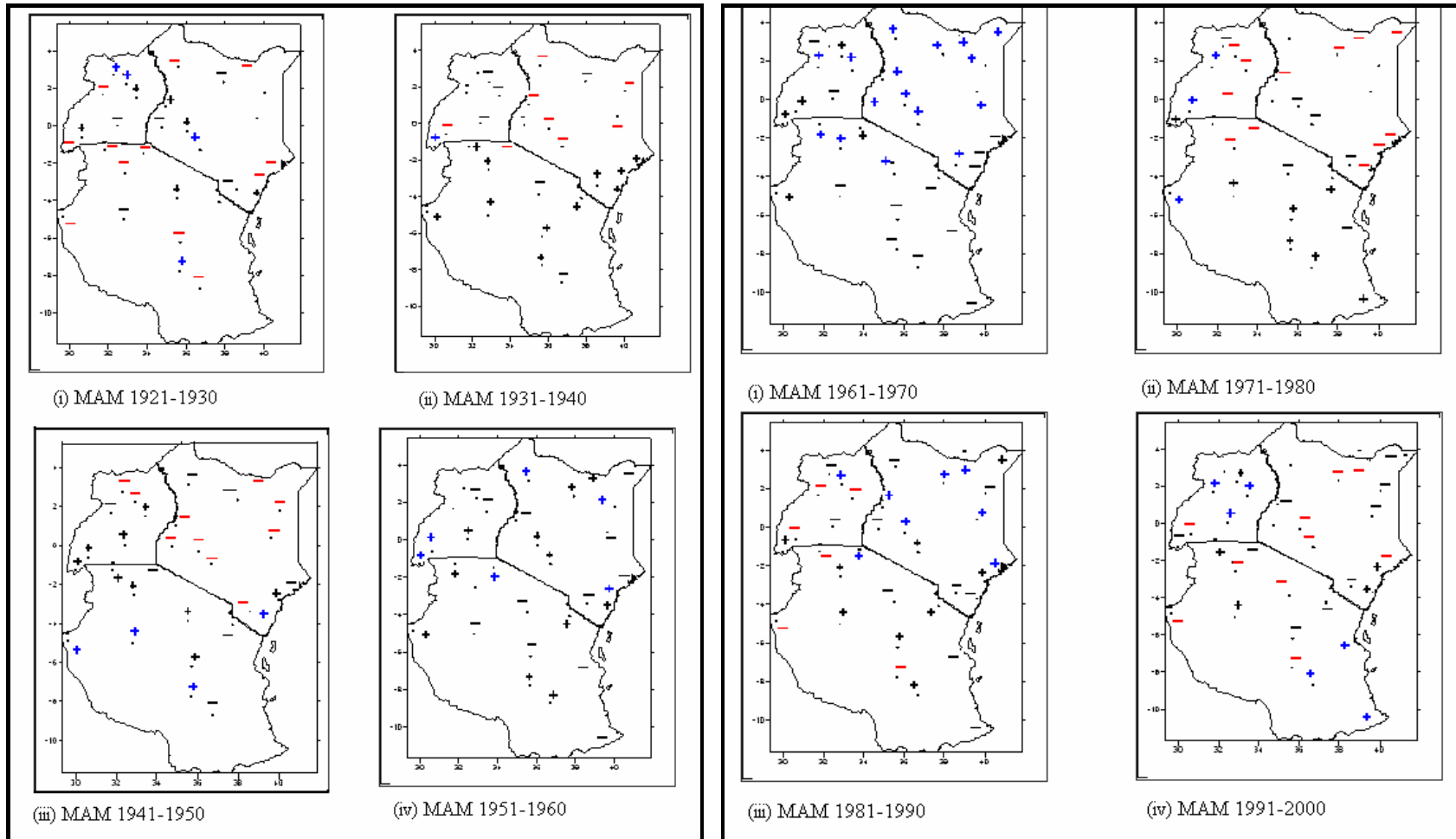
558 **Figure 2b: Unsmoothed inter-annual MAM rainfall anomalies for Voi in Kenya**



559
 560 **Figure 3a: Graphical plot of the smoothed anomalies for OND decadal rainfall variability**
 561 **over Eastern Africa**



562
 563 **Figure 3b: Graphical plot of the smoothed anomalies for JJA decadal rainfall variability**
 564 **over western and coastal sub-regions**



565

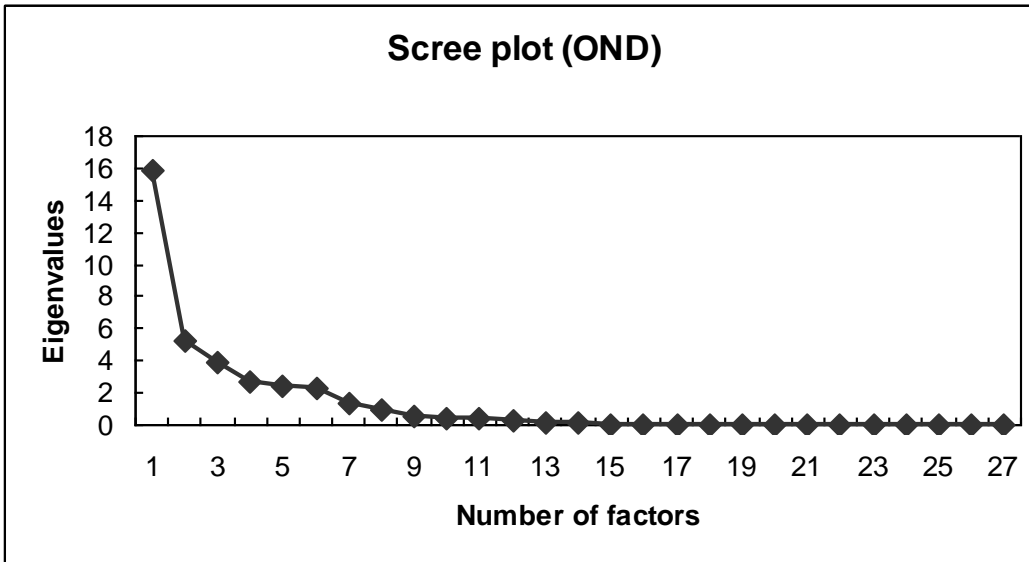
566 **Figure 4: Spatial distribution of the mean decadal rainfall for MAM**

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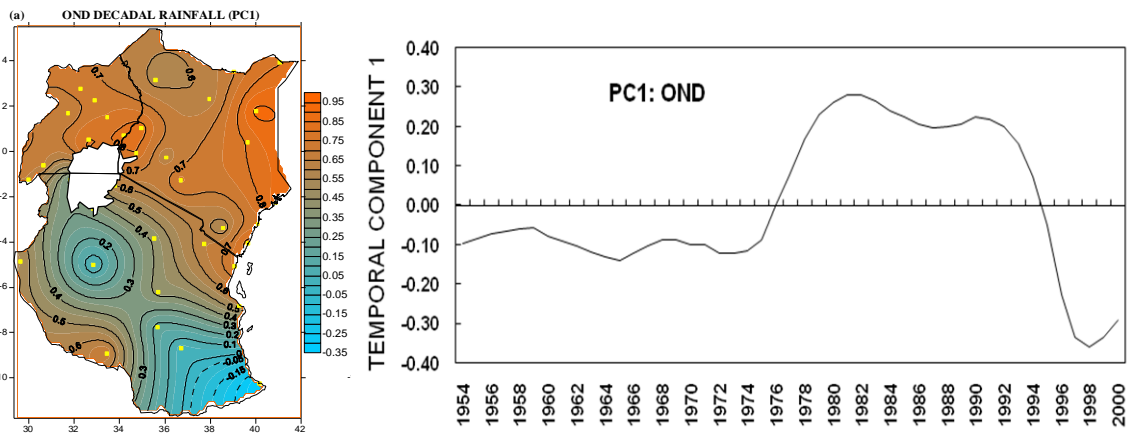
- **Blue:** statistically significant increase in mean decadal rainfall
- **Red:** statistically significant decrease in mean decadal rainfall
- **Black:** no significant increase / decrease in mean decadal rainfall



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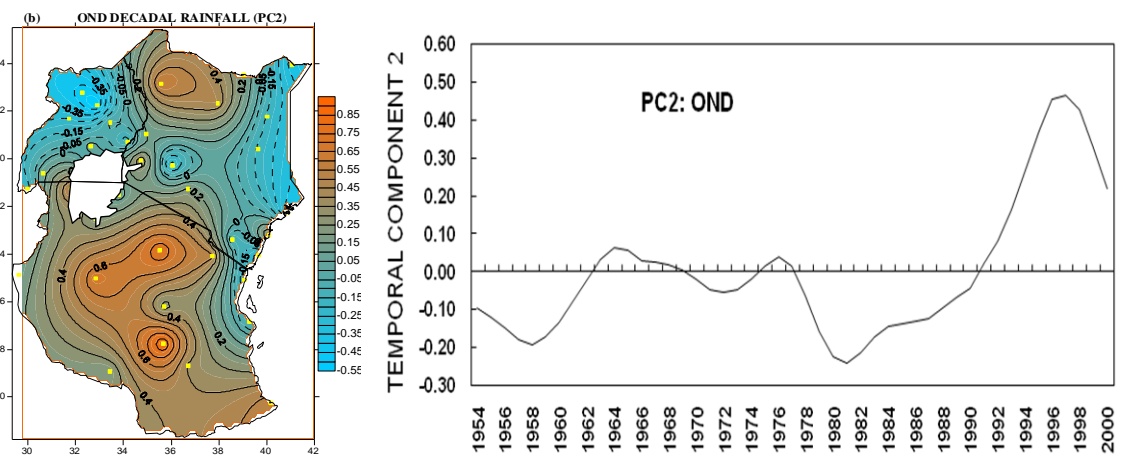
571 **Figure 5: Scree's test selection of dominant Principal Components for OND rainfall**
 572 **seasons.**

573



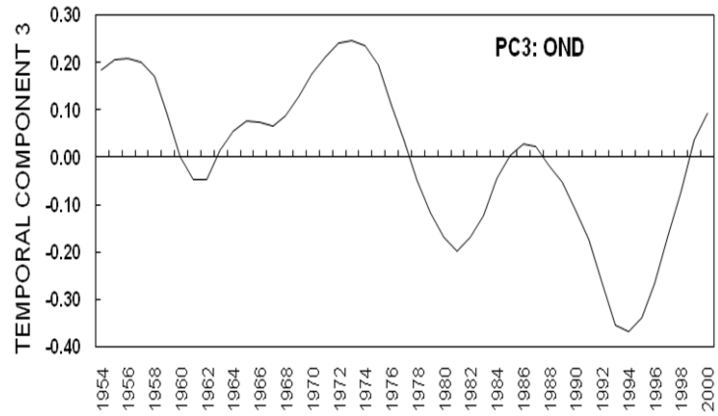
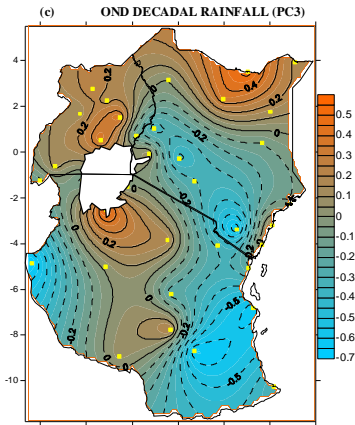
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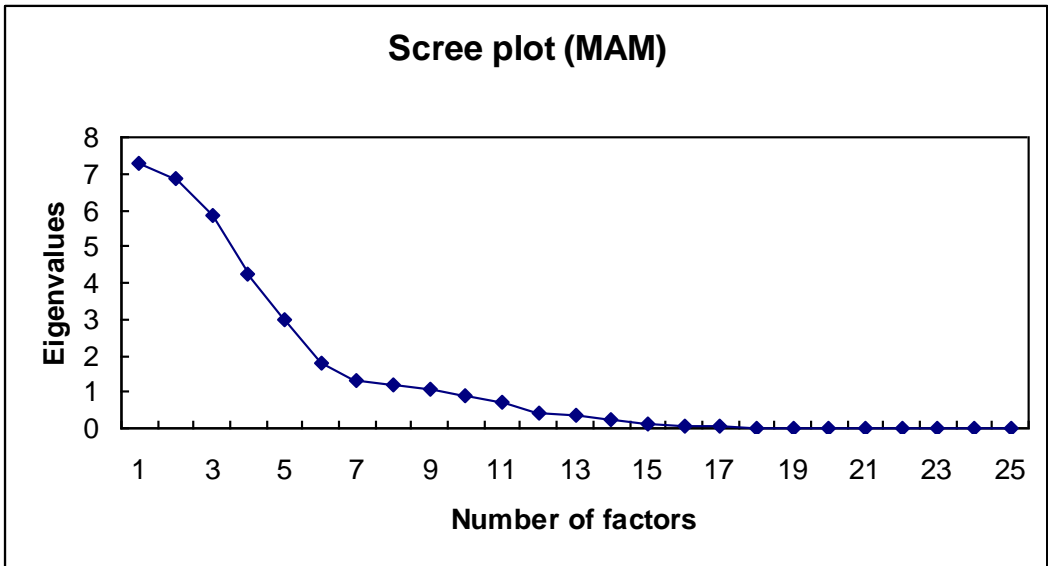
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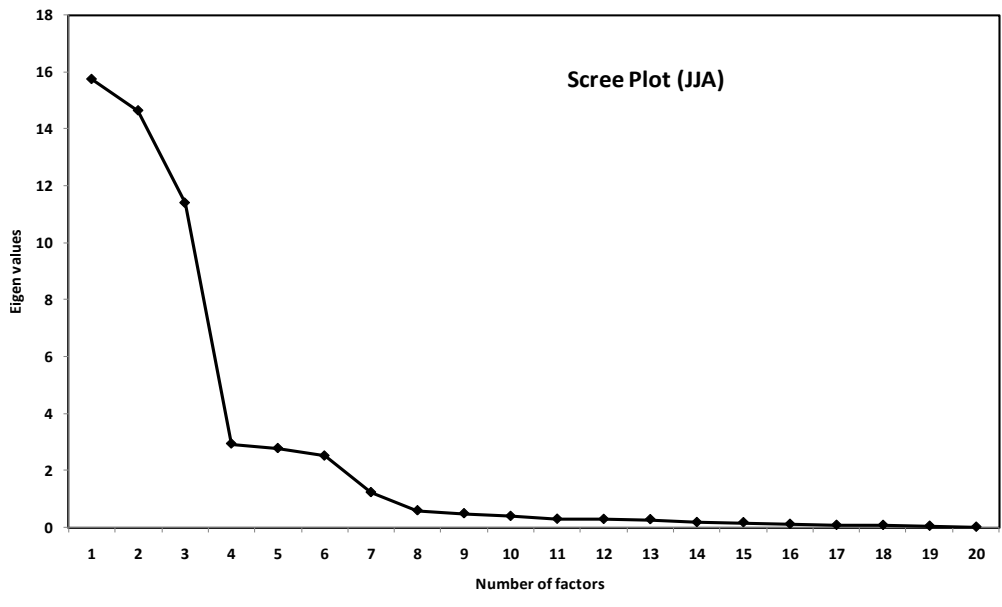


578

579 **Figure 6: Spatial and temporal patterns for EOF1 and PC1 (first row); EOF2 and PC2**
 580 **(second row) and EOF3 and PC3 (third row) for OND decadal rainfall. Dashed / solid**
 581 **contours represent negative / positive values; contour interval is 0.2.**



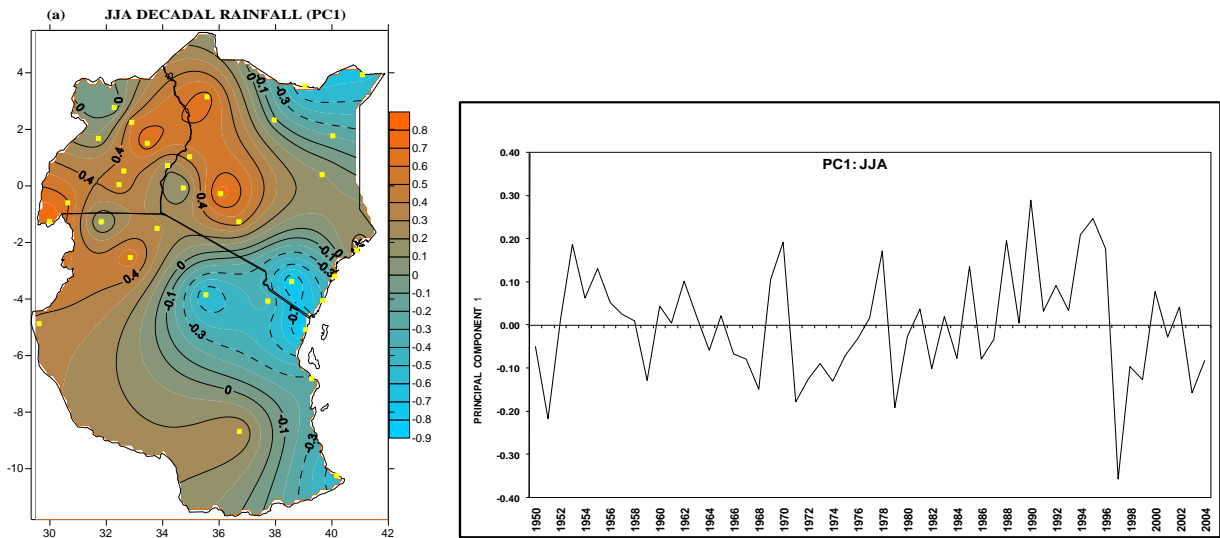
582
583 **Figure 7: Scree's test selection of dominant Principal Components for MAM rainfall**
584 **seasons**



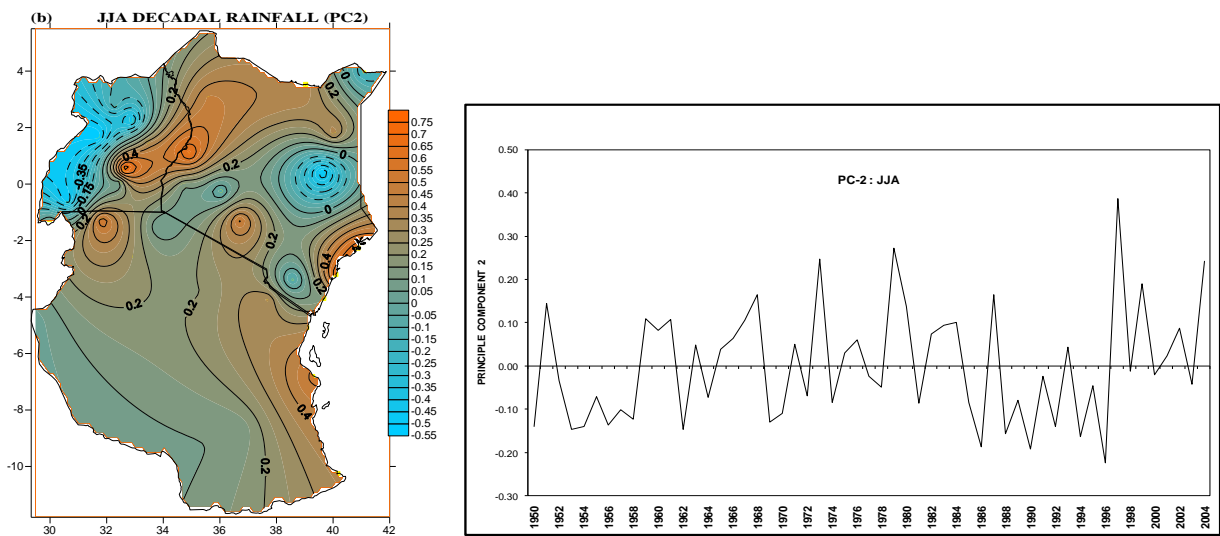
591

592 **Figure 9: Scree's test selection of dominant Principal Components for June-July rainfall**
593 **seasons.**

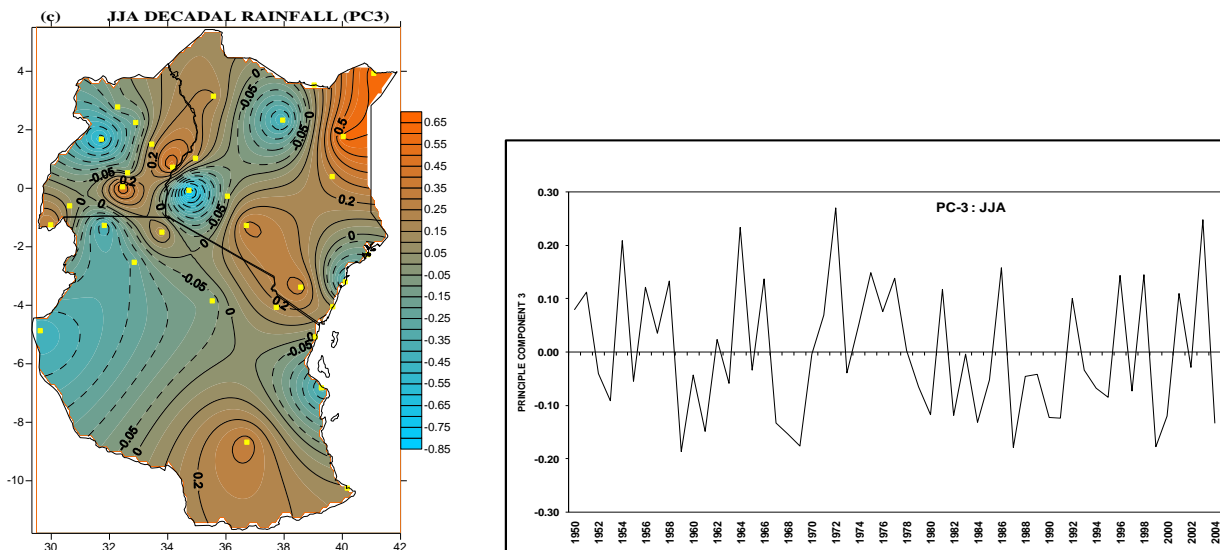
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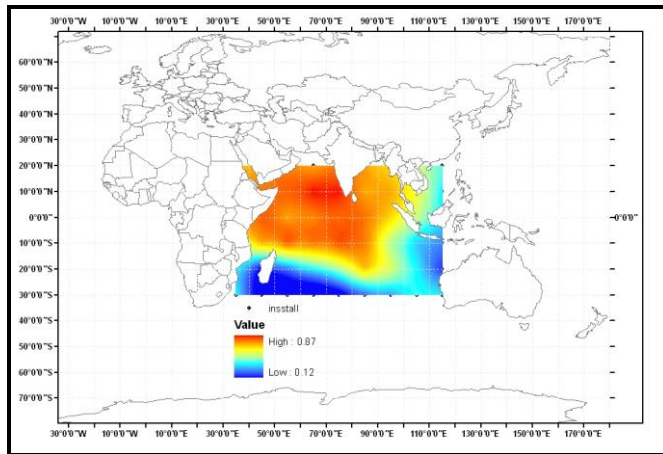
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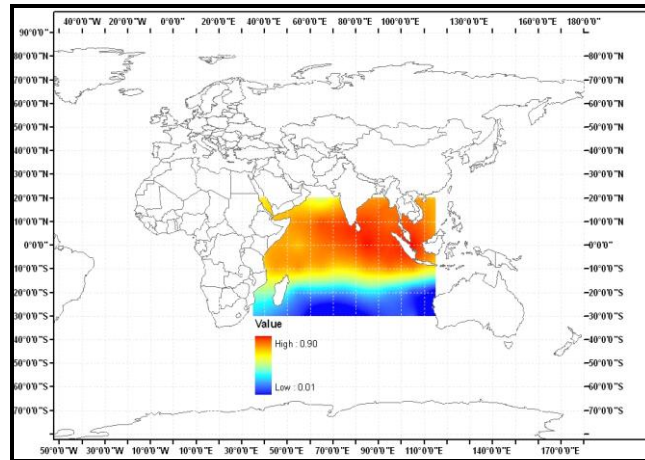
Figure 10: Same as Figure 6 but for JJA decadal rainfall.

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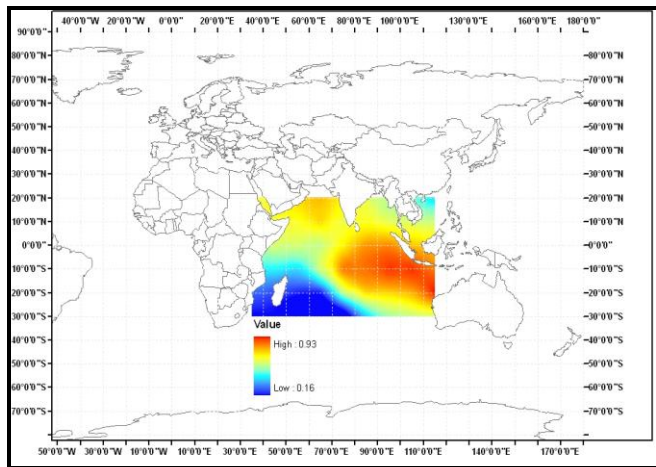


(a) Indian Ocean October – December (OND) PC1

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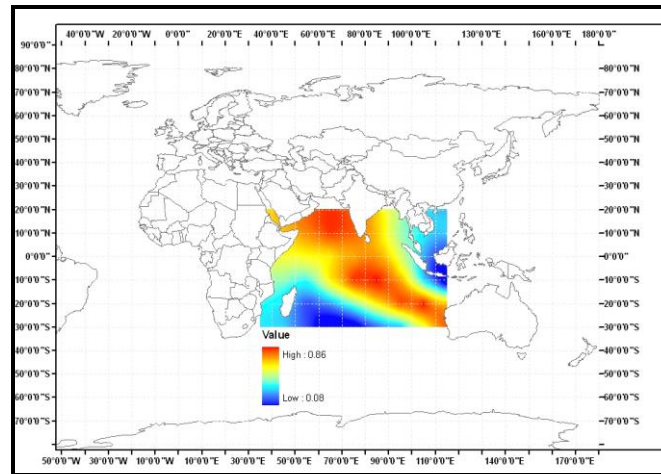


(b) Indian Ocean December – February (DJF) PC1



(c) Indian Ocean March – May (MAM) PC1

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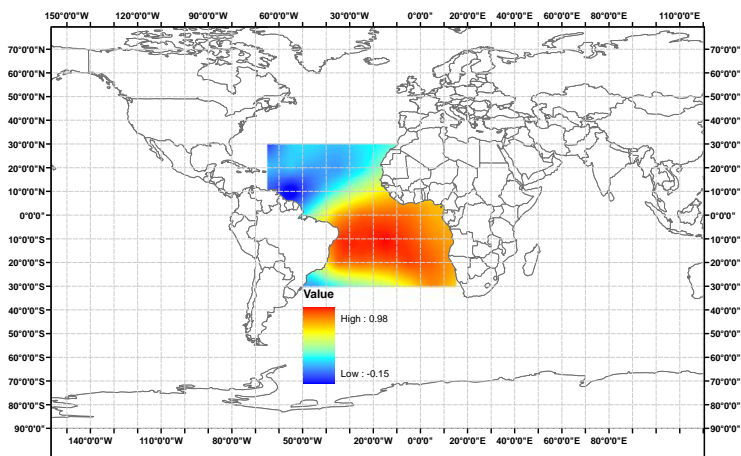


(d) Indian Ocean June – August (JJA) PC1

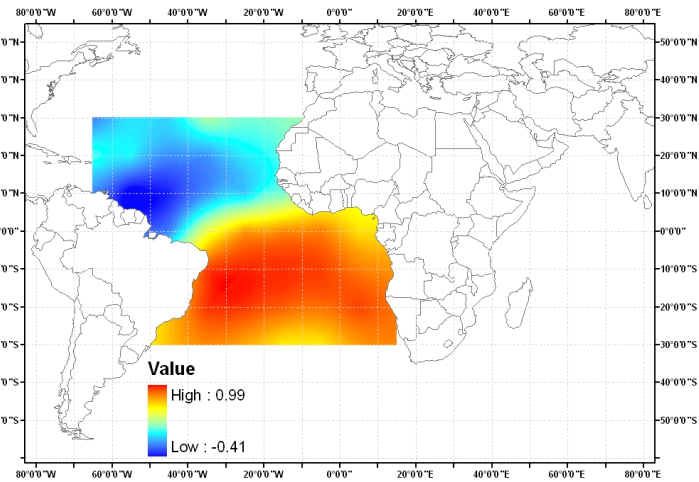
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Figure 11: The spatial patterns of the first 9-term binomial coefficient filtered SST PCA modes for the Indian Ocean.

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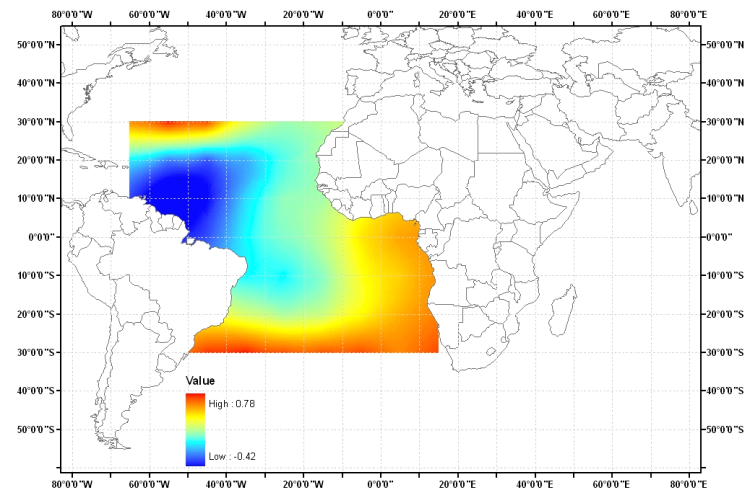


(a) Atlantic Ocean October-December PC1

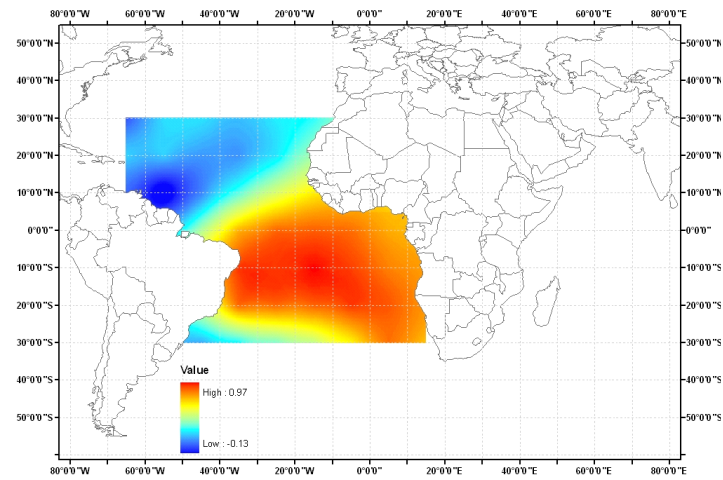


(b) Atlantic Ocean December-February PC1

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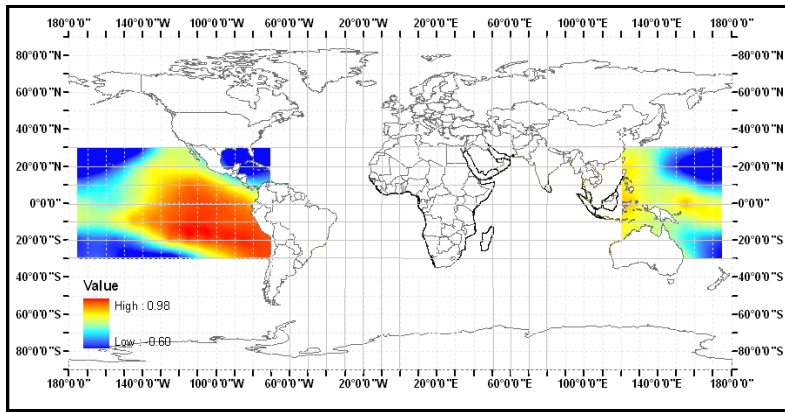
(c) Atlantic Ocean March-May PC1



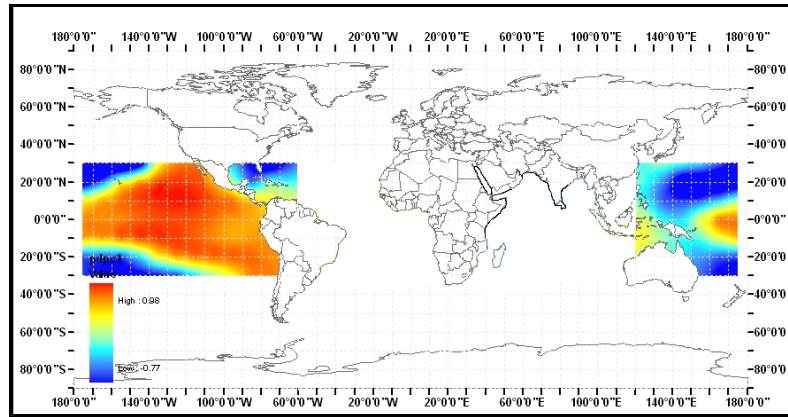
(d) Atlantic Ocean June-August PC1

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Figure 12: The spatial patterns of the first 9-term binomial coefficient of the filtered SST PCA modes for the Atlantic Ocean.



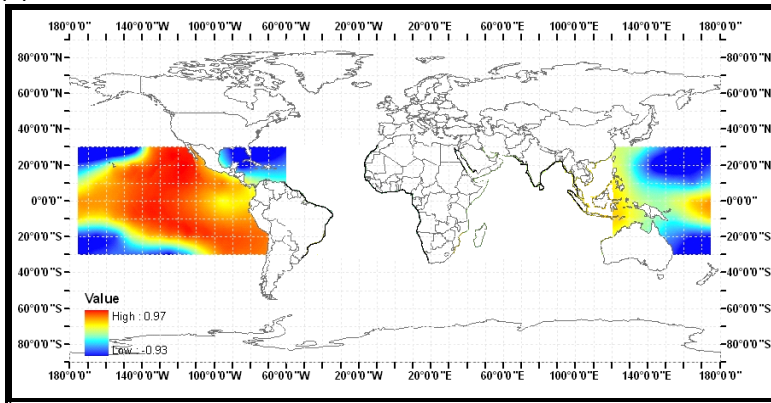
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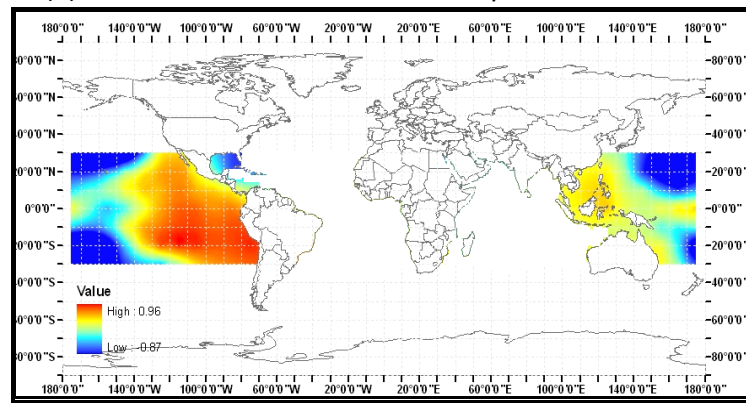
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(a) Pacific Ocean October - December PC1

(b) Pacific Ocean December - February PC1



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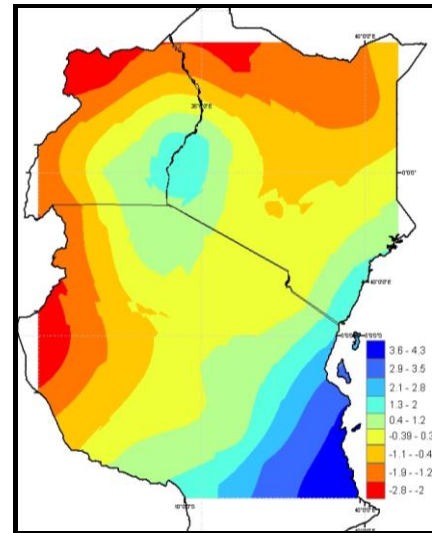
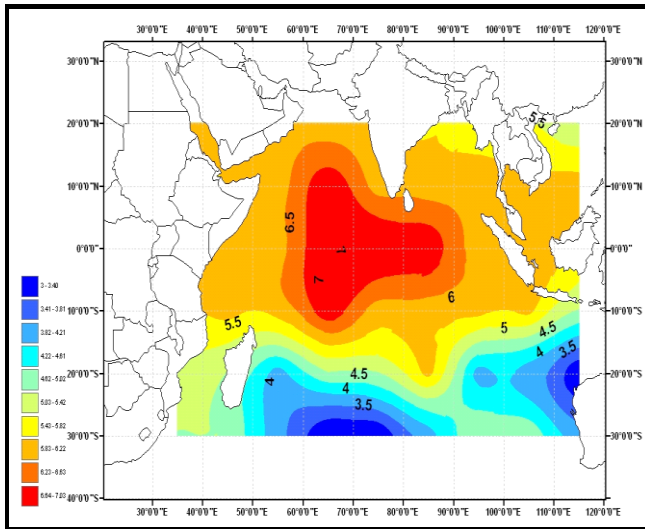
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(c) Pacific Ocean March-May PC1

(d) Pacific Ocean June-August PC1

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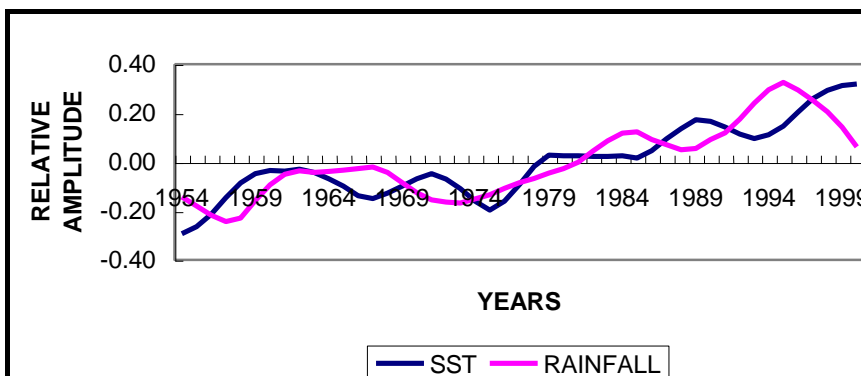
Figure 13: The spatial patterns of the first 9-term binomial coefficient filtered SST PCA modes for the Pacific Ocean



615

616 (a) CCA-1 December-February SST

(b) CCA-1 MAM Rainfall

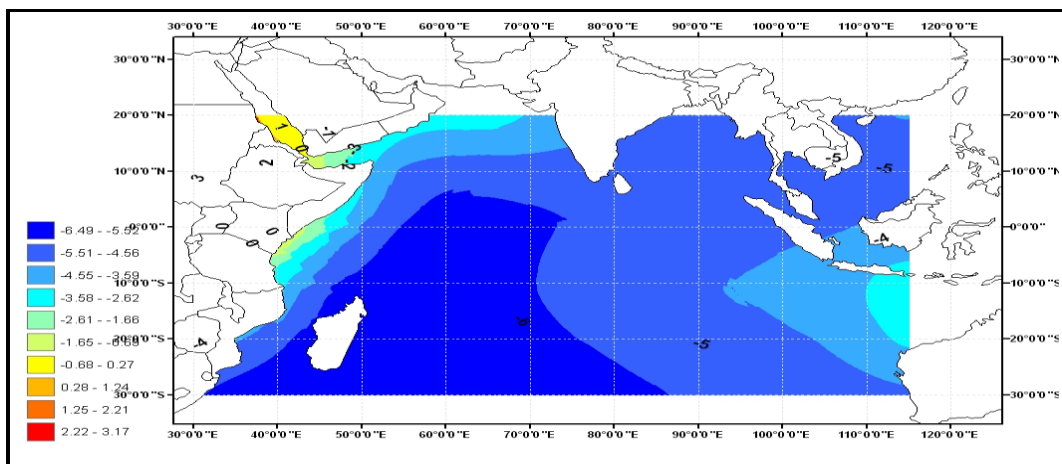


617

618 (c) CCA MODE1 (CORRELATION = -0.79)

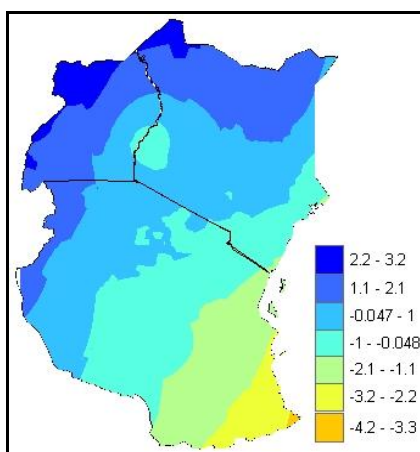
619 **Figure 14: The first spatial pattern pair for canonical correlation between decadal DJF of**
 620 **the Indian SST and MAM rainfall ;(a) correlation between the predictor (SST) and the**
 621 **canonical vector (u); (b) correlation between the predictant (rainfall) and canonical vector**
 622 **(v) and; (c) normalized temporal functions (u and v) of the first CCA patterns for rainfall**
 623 **and SST**

624



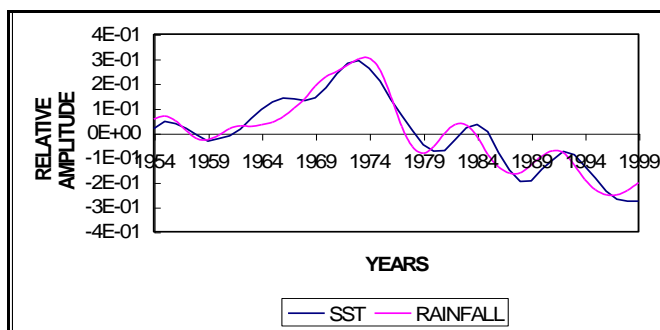
625

626 (a) CCA-1 March – May SST



627

628 (b) CCA-1 March – May Rainfall



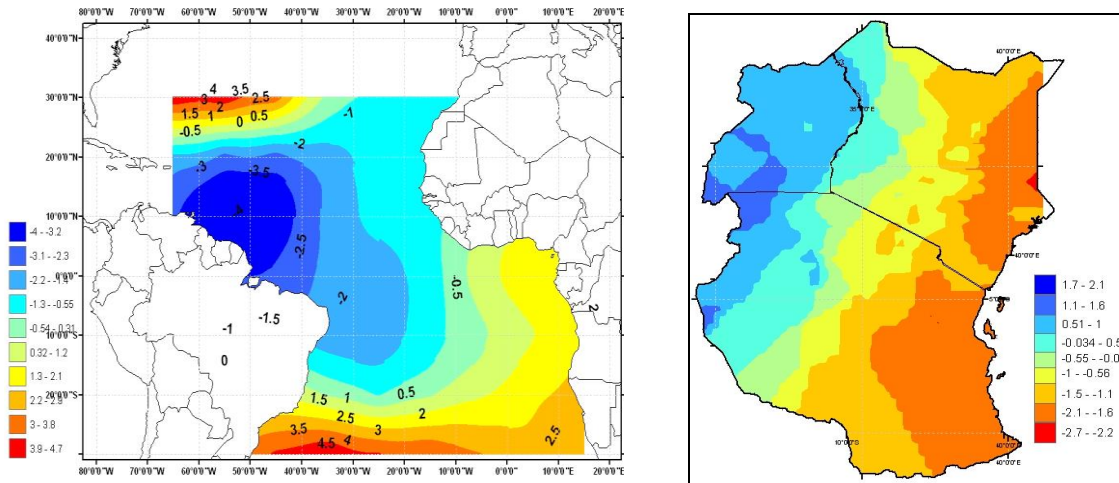
(c) CCA Model (Correlation 0.96)

629 **Figure 15: Same as Figure 14 but for MAM of the Indian Ocean SST (lag zero).**

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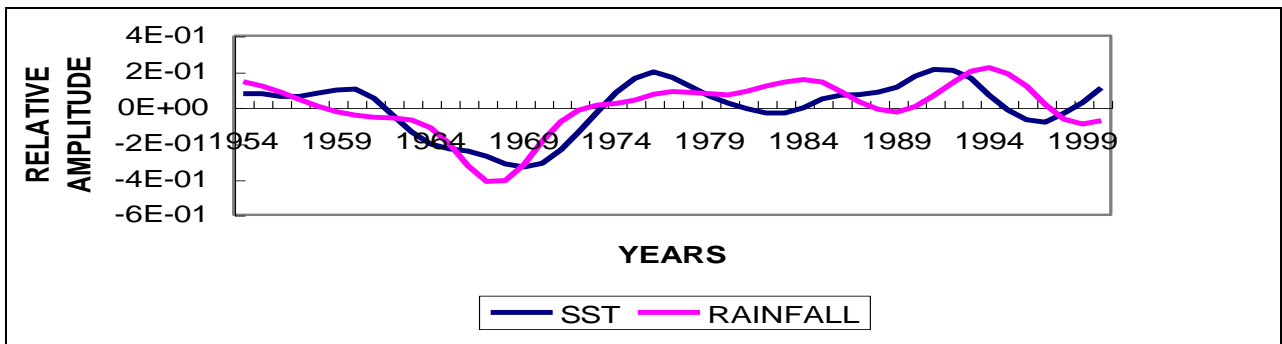
631 (a) CCA-1 March-May SST

(b) CCA-1 June – August Rainfall



632

633 (a) CCA Model 1(Correlation = 0.72)

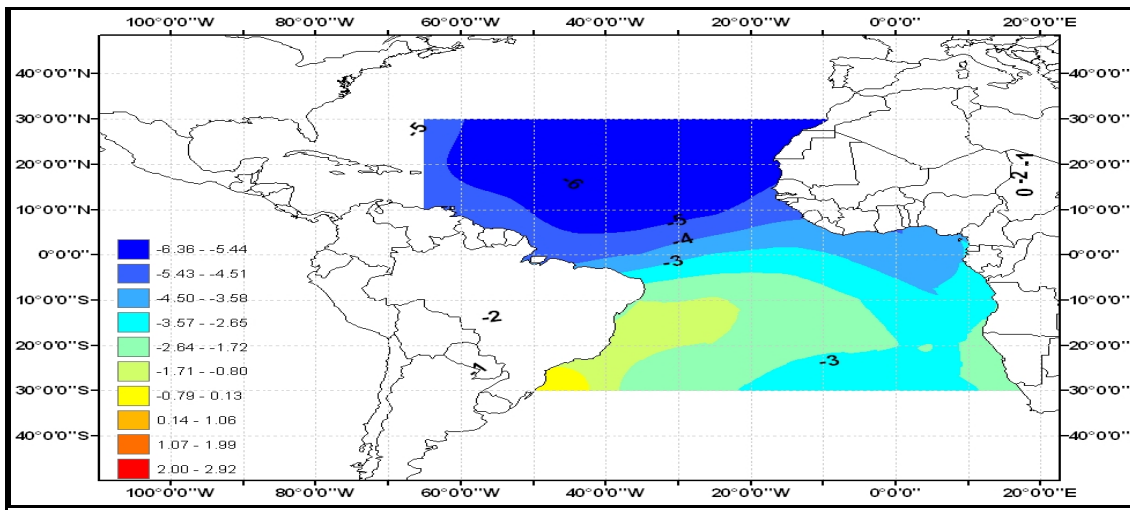


634

635 **Figure 16: The first spatial pattern pair for canonical correlation between decadal MAM**
636 **Atlantic SST and JJA rainfall ; (a) correlation between the predictor (SST) and the**
637 **canonical vector (u); (b) correlation between the predictant (rainfall) and canonical vector**
638 **(v) and; (c) normalized temporal functions (u and v) of the first CCA patterns for rainfall**
639 **and SST.**

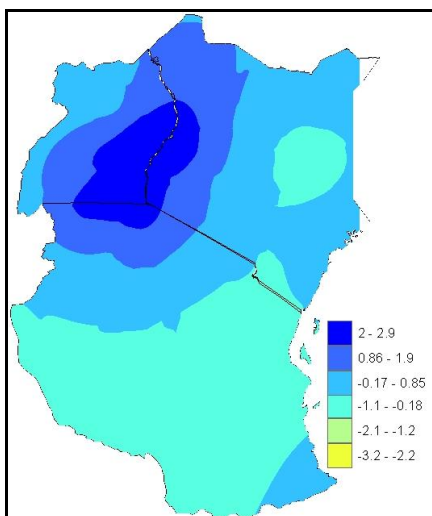
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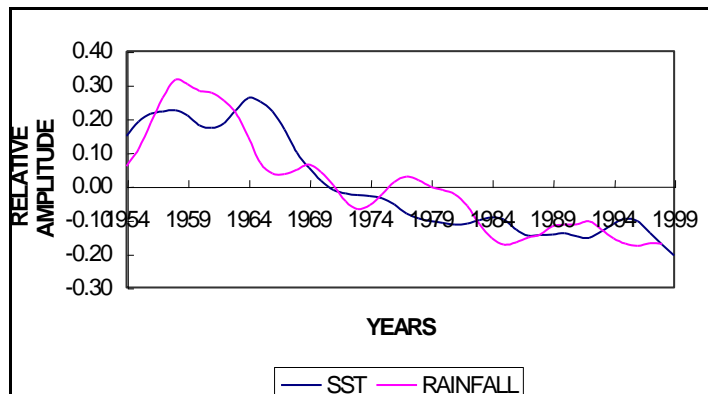


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643 CCA-1 June – August Atlantic Ocean SST



644

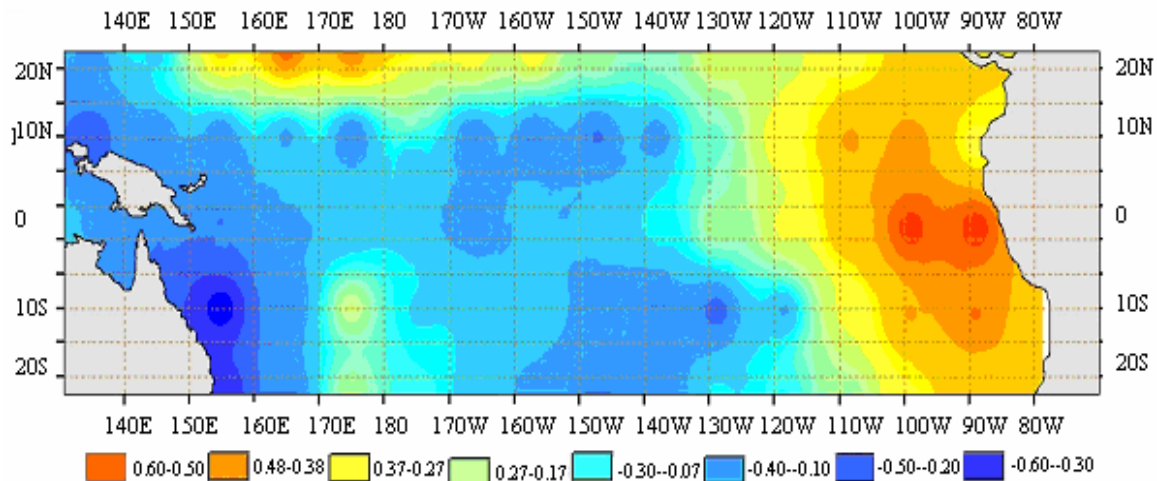


645 (b) CCA-1 June – August Rainfall

(c) CCA Model (Correlation = 0.87)

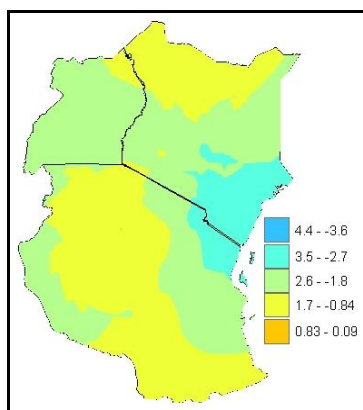
646 **Figure 17: Same as Figure 17 but for JJA SST (lag zero).**

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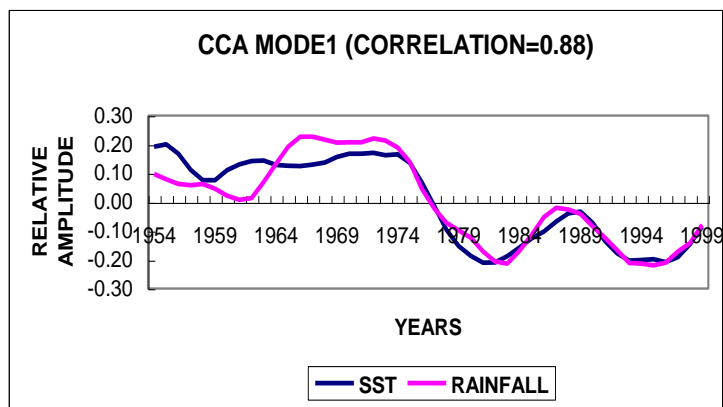
648

649 (a) CCA-1 June – August SST



650

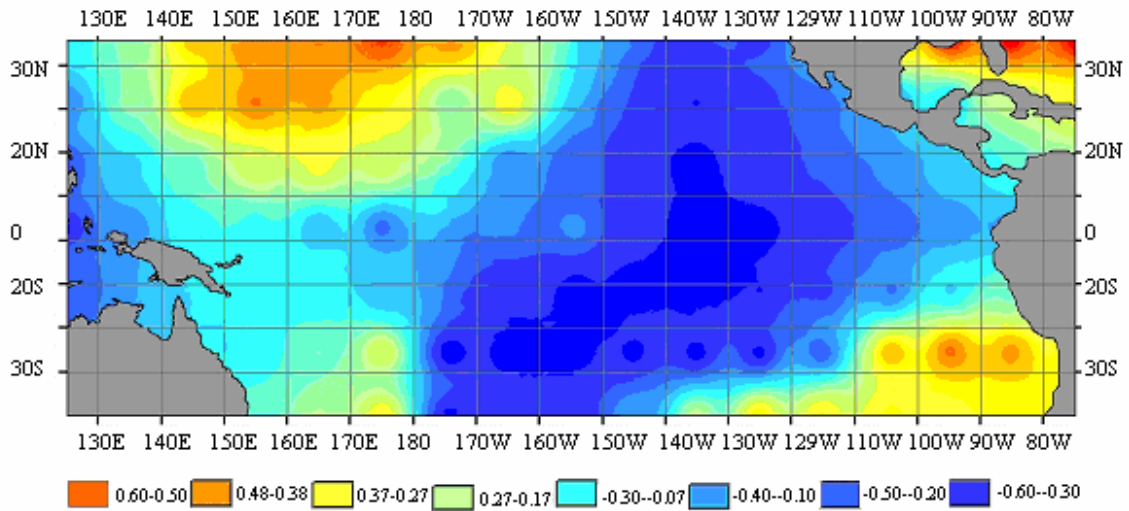
651 (b) CCA-1 October-December Rainfall



651 (c) CCA MODE1 (CORRELATION=0.88)

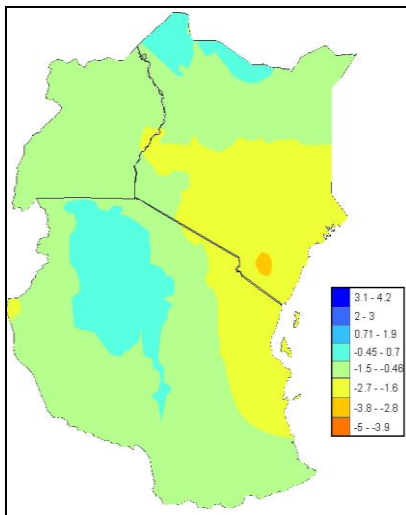
652 **Figure 18: The first spatial pattern pair for canonical correlation between decadal JJA**
 653 **Pacific SST and OND rainfall; (a) correlation between the predictor (SST) and the**
 654 **canonical vector (u); (b) correlation between the predictant (rainfall) and canonical vector**
 655 **(v) and; (c) normalized temporal functions (u and v) of the first CCA patterns for rainfall**
 656 **and SST.**

657



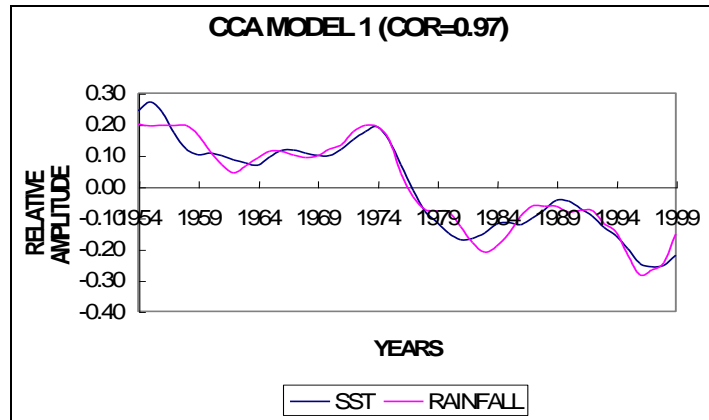
658

659 (a) CCA-1 October-December SST



660

661 (b) CCA-1 OND Rainfall



662 (c) CCA MODEL (CORRELATION = 0.97)

662 **Figure 19: Same as Figure 19 but for OND SST (lag zero).**

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