



1 East Asian Anthropogenic Aerosols Strongly Influence Past and 2 Present Southern African Hydroclimate and Ecosystem Changes

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32 **Abstract.** Southern Africa (SA) is highly sensitive to rainfall changes, as water availability significantly influences
33 agriculture, ecosystems, and the region's socio-economic stability. Observations reveal substantial multi-decadal changes



34 in December–February precipitation during the second half of the 20th century, characterized by enhanced rainfall over the
35 southern part of SA (hereafter SSA), including Madagascar (MDG), and drying to the north. More recently, however, this
36 long-term wetting tendency has reversed, with widespread drying observed across much of the region since the mid-2000s.
37 Despite their global significance, their impact of anthropogenic aerosols on southern African precipitation has received
38 limited attention, and the underlying mechanisms remain unclear. We show that East Asian (EAS) anthropogenic aerosols
39 played a key role in driving enhanced precipitation over SSA and MDG between 1945 and 2005, alongside the influence
40 of internal variability. Increased EAS sulfate emissions strengthened interhemispheric temperature and pressure gradients,
41 inducing a southward shift of the Intertropical Convergence Zone and associated Hadley circulation, thereby enhancing
42 moisture convergence over SSA and MDG. After the mid-2000s, rapid reductions in EAS aerosols reversed this circulation
43 response and contributed to declining precipitation. Applying this physical framework to near-future scenarios from the
44 Regional Aerosol Model Intercomparison Project further suggests that continued reductions in aerosols will lead to further
45 hydroclimatic adjustments. The recent decline in precipitation (2006–2020) coincides with reduced gross primary
46 productivity and leaf area index, as well as intensified fire-weather conditions. These findings highlight the sensitivity of
47 southern African hydroclimate and ecosystems to remote anthropogenic aerosol emissions.

48

49 **1 Introduction**

50 Southern Africa (SA), including the adjacent southwest Indian Ocean and Madagascar (MDG), is frequently affected by
51 both droughts and floods, with more than 95 % of agricultural production dependent on seasonal precipitation (Ashfaq et
52 al., 2021; Kephe et al., 2021). Owing to its limited adaptive capacity and high exposure to climate variability, SA is widely
53 regarded as one of the most climate-vulnerable regions on the African continent (Bedeke, 2023; Ansah et al., 2024).
54 Improving our understanding of precipitation variability and its causes is essential for managing water resources, improving
55 agricultural productivity, and ensuring ecosystem sustainability in the face of ongoing climate change (Niles et al., 2015;
56 Bartzke et al., 2018).

57 During the peak austral summer monsoon (December–February, DJF), rainfall over SA is primarily associated with tropical
58 low-pressure systems and occasional tropical cyclones propagating westward from the tropics (Barimalala et al., 2020;
59 Ibeuchi, 2023). Rainfall variability is further modulated by meridional shifts of the Intertropical Convergence Zone
60 (ITCZ), which control the seasonal onset and retreat of precipitation (Quagraine et al., 2019; Randriatsara et al., 2022).
61 Beyond the seasonal cycle, rainfall over SA is strongly influenced by internal climate variability. On interannual timescales,
62 the El Niño–Southern Oscillation represents the dominant mode, while variability in Indian Ocean SST and Pacific decadal
63 variability can further modulate regional rainfall (Palmer et al., 2023; Cai et al., 2025). On longer timescales, historical
64 rainfall trends across SA exhibit pronounced spatial heterogeneity (Kusangaya et al., 2014; Marumbwa et al., 2019; Thoithi
65 et al., 2021). Several studies based on long-term observations during the 20th century (e.g., 1921–2015; 1960–2010) indicate
66 regionally varying rainfall changes, with localized drying in the central and north-eastern regions and increases in parts of



67 the southern interior (MacKellar et al., 2014; Kruger and Nxumalo, 2017). In contrast, other analyses identify drying across
68 parts of the region, particularly in the northern and southwestern areas, in more recent decades (Marumbwa et al., 2019;
69 Lim Kam Sian et al., 2021). These contrasting results likely reflect a combination of regional-scale circulation variability,
70 differences in analysis periods, and substantial observational uncertainties, especially in data-sparse regions. As a result, a
71 coherent understanding of multidecadal rainfall trends and their underlying drivers over SA remains limited, particularly
72 regarding the relative roles of external forcing, internal variability, and remote anthropogenic influences.

73 In addition to greenhouse gases (GHGs), anthropogenic activities emit large amounts of aerosols and their precursors,
74 which have substantially increased since industrialization (Hoesly et al., 2018; McDuffie et al., 2020). Although their global
75 effective radiative forcing is smaller than that of GHGs, aerosols exert an overall cooling influence that partially offsets
76 greenhouse-gas-induced warming and remain the largest source of uncertainty in estimates of anthropogenic climate
77 forcing (Andrews and Forster, 2020; Bellouin et al., 2020). Aerosols influence the climate system primarily by scattering
78 and absorbing incoming solar radiation, thereby reducing the amount of shortwave radiation reaching the surface. This
79 leads to surface cooling, thereby increasing lower-tropospheric stability and modifying the large-scale atmospheric
80 circulation (Ming and Ramaswamy, 2009). Beyond this radiative effect and its associated rapid adjustments and feedbacks,
81 aerosols can also affect precipitation through complex interactions with cloud microphysical processes, referred to as
82 aerosol-cloud interactions (Rotstayn and Lohmann, 2002). By acting as cloud condensation nuclei, increased aerosol
83 loading enhances cloud droplet number concentration, leading to higher cloud albedo (Twomey, 1977; Albrecht, 1989).
84 Aerosols can also suppress precipitation efficiency, thereby prolonging cloud lifetime and modifying regional radiative and
85 hydrological balances (Stier et al., 2024).

86 Due to their short atmospheric lifetime, anthropogenic aerosols exhibit pronounced spatial heterogeneity in both loading
87 and associated climate forcing (Allen, 2015; Wilcox et al., 2019). This spatial heterogeneity generates strong regional
88 temperature gradients, which in turn drive substantial changes in atmospheric circulation and enable remote influences,
89 including over the surrounding oceans through ocean–atmosphere interactions (Fahrenbach et al., 2024; Gao et al., 2025).
90 Indeed, the influence of remote forcing can outweigh that of local forcing (Shindell et al., 2012; Lewinschal et al., 2013).
91 For example, 20th-century aerosol increases have been linked to a southward displacement of the ITCZ (Allen, 2015; Voigt
92 et al., 2017; Shonk et al., 2020), severe droughts in the Sahel and Amazonia during the mid-1980s (Hirasawa et al., 2022;
93 Zhang et al., 2022), and weakening of the South and East Asian monsoons (Bollasina et al., 2011; Undorf et al., 2018; Sun
94 et al., 2026). Asian anthropogenic aerosols have also been shown to modify the Australian summer monsoon through large-
95 scale circulation changes (Fahrenbach et al., 2024; Gao et al., 2025). Despite these advances, the link between long-term
96 changes in aerosol emissions and multi-decadal rainfall variability remains widely debated (Li et al., 2016; Wang et al.,
97 2022). Attribution is particularly challenging due to the combined effects of internal variability, model biases, and inter-
98 model differences in simulated responses (Saha and Ghosh, 2019; Liu et al., 2024).



99 Changes in precipitation caused by aerosols could significantly impact regional ecosystems. Vegetation plays a key role in
100 the climate system by regulating exchanges of energy, water, and trace gases between the land surface and the atmosphere
101 (Agossou and Kang, 2020; Humphrey et al., 2021). Precipitation is a primary climatic control on vegetation distribution
102 and ecosystem productivity, not only through total rainfall amounts but also via its temporal characteristics, including
103 frequency, intensity, seasonal distribution, and interannual variability (Gampe et al., 2021; Feldman et al., 2024b). Given
104 the strong dependence of southern African ecosystems on seasonal rainfall, identifying the drivers of hydroclimatic
105 variability is essential for effective environmental management and long-term ecosystem sustainability (Georganos et al.,
106 2018).

107 Since the second half of the 20th century, anthropogenic aerosol and precursor emissions over Asia, particularly SO₂ over
108 China, have undergone pronounced changes, characterized by a rapid increase followed by a subsequent decline in the
109 early 21st century. While emissions over China have decreased markedly since the mid-2000s and emissions over South
110 Asia (SAS) have continued to increase, reductions over East Asia (EAS) are sufficiently large to dominate the overall Asian
111 trend, resulting in a net decline in aerosol forcing over recent decades (Hoesly et al., 2018; McDuffie et al., 2020; Zheng
112 et al., 2020). Recent studies suggest that these reductions have already influenced global temperature (Samset et al., 2025),
113 implying potential remote impacts on regional hydroclimate, including in SA. Given the strong hydroclimatic sensitivity
114 of SA to precipitation changes, this provides a natural framework to examine the influence of East Asian aerosol forcing
115 on regional rainfall. Here, we combine observations and climate model simulations to investigate this linkage. Section 2
116 describes the data and methods, Section 3 presents the results, and Section 4 discusses the findings and summarizes the
117 main conclusions.

118 **2 Data and Methods**

119 **2.1 Observational data**

120 Monthly gridded land precipitation data were used to investigate multidecadal rainfall variability over Southern Africa
121 (SA). For the period 1945–2005, precipitation was derived from the 0.5° × 0.5° Climate Research Unit dataset (CRU TS
122 v4; (Harris et al., 2020)), which provides a long-term gauge-based record suitable for historical analysis. For the more
123 recent period (2006–2020), precipitation was obtained from the TAMSAT dataset (Tropical Applications of Meteorology
124 using SATellite data and ground-based observations; (Maidment et al., 2017), a satellite-based product specifically
125 developed for data-sparse regions such as Africa. This choice is motivated by the substantial decline in gauge coverage in
126 conventional datasets (e.g., CRU and GPCC) after 2000 (Becker et al., 2013; Harris et al., 2020), whereas TAMSAT
127 provides consistent, high-resolution rainfall estimates constrained by satellite observations. The analysis was conducted by
128 contrasting the two periods (1945–2005 and 2006–2020), which are characterized by opposite rainfall trends over SA.
129 These periods also correspond to contrasting trends in East Asian aerosol emissions, increasing during 1945–2005 and
130 decreasing during 2006–2020 (Fig. S1; (Hoesly et al., 2018; McDuffie et al., 2020). Temporal changes in precipitation



131 were quantified using least-squares linear trends. The analysis focused on austral summer (December–February, DJF), the
132 primary rainy season in the region (Fig. S2). To isolate low-frequency variability, precipitation time series were smoothed
133 using a Lanczos low-pass filter with a 10-year cutoff, removing variability at periods shorter than 10 years. Statistical
134 significance was assessed using a two-tailed Student’s t-test at the 90% confidence level. Monthly mean sea level pressure
135 and 850 hPa winds used to characterize the background climatological circulation and circulation responses were obtained
136 from the ECMWF Reanalysis v5 dataset (ERA5; (Hersbach et al., 2020)).

137 To assess observational robustness, the results were compared with independent precipitation datasets, including the Global
138 Precipitation Climatology Centre dataset (GPCC; (Rustemeier et al., 2025)), the Global Precipitation Climatology Project
139 dataset (GPCP; (Adler et al., 2003)), the CPC Merged Analysis of Precipitation (CMAP; (Xie and Arkin, 1997)). Annual
140 anthropogenic emissions of SO₂ and BC over China and India were obtained from the Community Emissions Data System
141 (CEDS; (Hoesly et al., 2018; McDuffie et al., 2020)) for the period 1900–2023.

142 **2.2 CMIP6 simulations**

143 We examined the role of anthropogenic forcing on the rainfall trend over SA using output from ten Coupled Model
144 Intercomparison Project Phase 6 (CMIP6) models (Eyring et al., 2016), each with 3–10 ensemble members (Table S1), and
145 calculated linear trends over the period 1945–2005. We included experiments from the Detection and Attribution Model
146 Intercomparison Project (DAMIP; (Gillett et al., 2016)), and selected models based on the availability of historical all-
147 forcing (hist-All), greenhouse gas–only (hist-GHG), and anthropogenic aerosol–only (hist-AER) simulations. Model
148 agreement was assessed using a sign-consistency criterion, defined as regions where at least 70% of models agree on the
149 direction of change. All model outputs were interpolated to a common 1.5° × 2° horizontal grid to facilitate intermodel
150 comparison. For each model, ensemble means were first computed to reduce the influence of internal climate variability.
151 These model means were then averaged across models to obtain the final multimodel mean (MMM). This two-step
152 averaging approach further suppressed internal variability and provided a more robust estimate of the externally forced
153 climate response. The MMM reproduced the spatial patterns and magnitude of climatological DJF rainfall and low-
154 tropospheric circulation reasonably well (Figs. 1 and S2), consistent with previous studies (Li et al., 2015; Sreekala et al.,
155 2022; Addisu et al., 2025). Near-surface temperature anomalies were defined relative to the contemporaneous tropical
156 ocean mean (25°S–25°N), and trends were computed from these anomaly fields. The velocity potential was derived from
157 the horizontal wind field using a spherical harmonic decomposition. Vertically integrated moisture flux was calculated as
158 the mass-weighted integral of specific humidity multiplied by horizontal wind from 1000 to 200 hPa, with moisture flux
159 convergence defined as the negative divergence of the flux.

160 **2.3 PDRMIP simulations**

161 Simulations from the Precipitation Driver Response Model Intercomparison Project (PDRMIP) (Myhre et al., 2017) were
162 used to corroborate the historical CMIP6 analysis. We examined experiments with step-function perturbations, including



163 a global doubling of CO₂ relative to year 2000 (Global CO₂ × 2), a fivefold increase in sulfate (Global SUL × 5), a tenfold
164 increase in black carbon (Global BC × 10), and a tenfold increase in sulfate over Asia (10°–50° N, 60°–140° E; Asia SUL
165 × 10). The step-function perturbations applied in PDRMIP differed from the transient evolution of real-world emissions
166 but enabled a clearer identification of equilibrium and fast atmospheric responses to large-magnitude forcings. Model
167 outputs were remapped to a common 1.5° × 2° horizontal grid to ensure consistency across models. Analyses were based
168 on MMM across seven CMIP5-generation models (Table S2). Each perturbed simulation was paired with a corresponding
169 control simulation. We analyzed the fully coupled experiments, integrated for 100 years using a fully coupled atmosphere–
170 ocean configuration, using years 51–100. All reported responses were defined as differences between the perturbation and
171 control experiments.

172 **2.4 RAMIP simulations**

173 We also used simulations from the Regional Aerosol Model Intercomparison Project (RAMIP; Wilcox et al., 2023), part
174 of the extended CMIP6 framework (CMIP6Plus). RAMIP built upon CMIP6 historical simulations (1850–2014) and
175 adopted SSP3–7.0 as the baseline scenario, characterized by relatively weak air-quality controls and sustained aerosol
176 emissions. These simulations were used to isolate and quantify the climate response to regionally perturbed aerosol
177 emissions and their influence on large-scale circulation and precipitation. Regional perturbation experiments were
178 performed by replacing SSP3–7.0 emissions of SO₂, black carbon (BC), and organic carbon (OC) with SSP1–2.6 emissions
179 over specific source regions. In this study, we analyzed the experiments with perturbations over EAS and SAS, allowing
180 assessment of both individual regional influences and associated remote climate responses. RAMIP simulations spanned
181 2015 to at least early 2051 in a fully coupled atmosphere–ocean configuration. We focused on the final 15-year period
182 (2035–2049), during which the perturbation experiments imposed substantial reductions in regional SO₂ emissions
183 (approximately 20 Tg yr⁻¹ over EAS and 15 Tg yr⁻¹ over SAS). While the SSP scenarios prescribed reductions in aerosol
184 emissions in both regions, the magnitude of the reduction over EAS was comparable to recent observed emission declines
185 (Samset et al., 2025), whereas South Asian aerosol emissions have continued to increase in reality. Climate responses were
186 defined as the difference between the perturbation experiments and the baseline simulation (SSP370-EAS126aer – SSP370
187 and SSP370-SAS126aer – SSP370), averaged over 2035–2049. The associated effective radiative forcing patterns, with
188 multimodel global mean values of 0.15±0.07 W m⁻² and 0.10±0.05 W m⁻² respectively, are discussed in Allen et al. (2026).
189 Output from 10 fully coupled atmosphere–ocean Earth system models, each with 10 ensemble members, was regridded to
190 a common 1.5° × 2° horizontal resolution before analysis (Table S3).

191 **2.5 Climate and vegetation indices**

192 In this study, observed gross primary productivity (GPP), leaf area index (LAI), and the Fire Weather Index (FWI) were
193 used to characterize recent changes in vegetation productivity, structure, and fire-conducive climate conditions over SA.



194 GPP was employed as a proxy for ecosystem carbon uptake. We used the FluxSat GPP dataset (FS v2.2), which provides
195 monthly global GPP estimates derived from MODIS surface reflectance and top-of-atmosphere photosynthetically active
196 radiation (Joiner and Yoshida, 2021) at a horizontal resolution of $0.5^\circ \times 0.625^\circ$. DJF GPP was calculated by averaging
197 monthly values over December–February of each hydrological year.

198 LAI was a key vegetation structural parameter that characterized canopy density and leaf area availability. Monthly LAI
199 was obtained from the MODIS MOD15A2 Collection 6 product (Lin et al., 2023), which was aggregated to a $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$
200 horizontal resolution. The DJF mean LAI was used to represent canopy conditions during the austral summer.

201 FWI was used as an indicator of fire danger, integrating meteorological controls on potential fire intensity, including fuel
202 dryness and fire spread. We used FWI from the GEF–ERA5 fire danger reanalysis, derived from the Canadian Fire
203 Weather Index System and driven by ECMWF ERA5 meteorological fields (Copernicus Climate Change Service, 2019).
204 The annual maximum FWI was used to characterize fire-weather risk.

205 **3 Results**

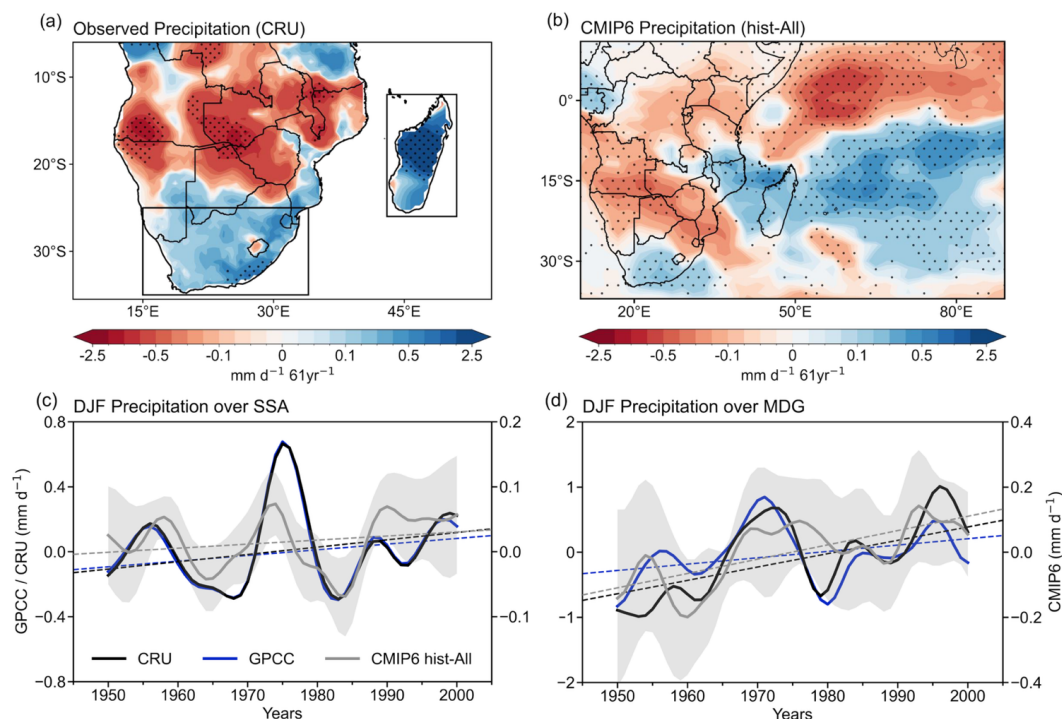
206 **3.1 Observed and simulated precipitation trends**

207 Observational data show that DJF precipitation changes across SA during the second half of the 20th century (1945–2005)
208 exhibit a coherent large-scale pattern (Fig. 1a), with robust features across different datasets (Fig. S3a). A significant
209 increase in precipitation is observed across the southern part of SA (hereafter SSA; $15\text{--}34^\circ\text{E}$, $25\text{--}35^\circ\text{S}$; land only) and
210 MDG ($43\text{--}51^\circ\text{E}$, $12\text{--}26^\circ\text{S}$; land only), in contrast to drying in the northern regions of SA.

211 To further characterize long-term precipitation variability, Figs. 1c and 1d present the observed time series of DJF rainfall
212 anomalies over SSA and MDG, respectively. Beyond pronounced interannual and decadal fluctuations, both records exhibit
213 a noticeable multidecadal increase from 1945 to 2005, as also documented in previous studies (MacKellar et al., 2014;
214 Kruger and Nxumalo, 2017). Over SSA (Fig. 1c), DJF precipitation increased by $+0.28\text{ mm d}^{-1}+0.21\text{ mm d}^{-1}$ in
215 CRU/GPCC over 61 years, corresponding to 11–14% of the long-term climatological mean (1961–1990), indicating a
216 consistent increase across datasets, albeit with limited statistical significance. Over MDG (Fig. 1d), DJF precipitation
217 increased by $+1.25\text{ mm d}^{-1}+0.60\text{ mm d}^{-1}$ in CRU/GPCC over 61 years, corresponding to 7–14% of the long-term
218 climatological mean (1961–1990); the increase is robust across datasets, and above the 90% statistical significance in CRU.
219 All trends are calculated from the original (unfiltered) time series, while the smoothed curves are shown only to highlight
220 low-frequency variability. Sliding-window trend analyses further demonstrate that the identified trend is robust across a
221 wide range of start and end years (Fig. S4). Additional EOF analysis of low-pass-filtered precipitation within the domain
222 of Fig. 1a yields the first mode exhibiting a pattern similar to that shown in Fig. 1a and explaining ~26% of the variability,
223 with the corresponding principal component showing a positive trend over the examined period (not shown). This provides
224 further evidence that the precipitation anomalies identified above are part of a coherent large-scale mode of variability,
225 suggesting the influence of a consistent driving mechanism.



226 Despite its coarser resolution, the hist-All MMM captures the main spatio-temporal characteristics of the observed
227 precipitation trends. However, amounts are smaller (Fig. 1b). The ensemble simulates enhanced oceanic rainfall south of
228 the equator and reduced precipitation to the north, consistent with observations. In particular, the simulated rainfall pattern
229 over South Africa and the surrounding areas aligns with observations, although the amounts are slightly underestimated.
230 This reduced amplitude is expected, as the MMM isolates the externally forced response by averaging across ensemble
231 members and models, thereby suppressing internal climate variability that may contribute to the observed trends. In
232 addition, intermodel averaging across differing model responses likely further smooths spatial patterns and reduces regional
233 contrasts (Knutti et al., 2010; Hegerl and Zwiers, 2011). The sign of the key precipitation anomalies is consistent across
234 most of the models (at least 7 out of 10), highlighting the robustness of this meridional contrast. The hist-AER MMM
235 closely resembles the hist-All response, exhibiting a pronounced meridional precipitation dipole over SA and the adjacent
236 Indian Ocean, consistent with a southward displacement of the ITCZ (Fig. 2a). The aerosol-related precipitation response
237 is also robust across most of the model ensembles (at least 7 out of 10). In contrast, the hist-GHG MMM displays a similar
238 large-scale pattern but with the opposite sign (Fig. 2b). This follows from a GHG-induced increase in temperature and
239 associated moistening, which amplifies existing patterns of moisture convergence and divergence, consistent with the “wet-
240 gets-wetter, dry-gets-drier” paradigm (Held and Soden, 2006). These results suggest that aerosol forcing plays a dominant
241 role in shaping the observed multidecadal changes in precipitation over SA. Some sub-regional discrepancies between
242 observations and models remain, such as over parts of MDG, likely associated with unresolved fine-scale interactions
243 between winds and complex topography (Munday et al., 2025).

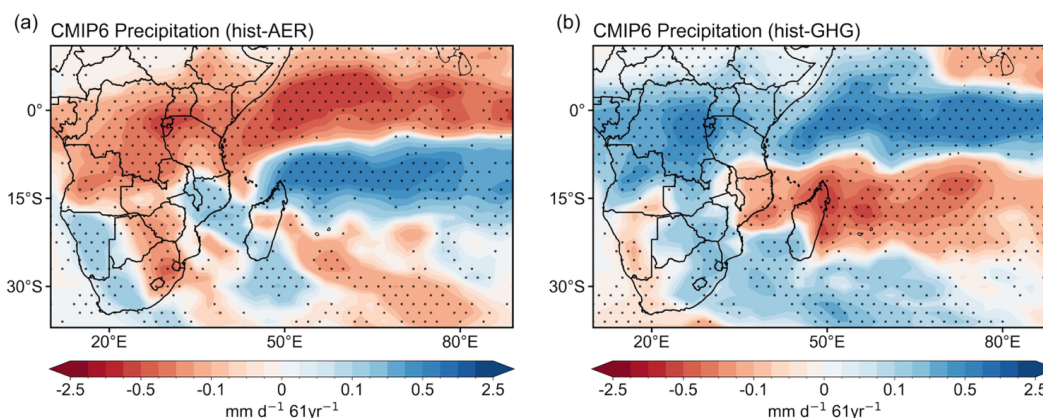


244

245 **Figure 1: Spatial distribution of the 1945–2005 linear trend in DJF precipitation for (a) CRU and (b) the CMIP6 hist-All MMM.**
 246 **Stippling in (a) indicates statistical significance at the 90% confidence level, while stippling in (b) indicates regions where at least**
 247 **70% of models agree on the sign of change. Time series of area-averaged DJF precipitation anomalies (relative to the 1961–1990**
 248 **climatology) over (c) SSA (15–34°E, 25–35°S; land only) and (d) MDG (43–51°E, 12–26°S; land only). The time series are**
 249 **smoothed using a 10-year Lanczos low-pass filter to highlight low-frequency (multidecadal) variability. Black and blue lines**
 250 **represent CRU and GPCP observations, respectively, while the gray line denotes CMIP6 hist-All MMM. Gray shading indicates**
 251 **±0.5 standard deviations across the 10 models. The 1945–2005 least-squares linear trends are calculated from the original**
 252 **(unfiltered) time series and are shown as dashed lines in the corresponding colors.**

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254



255

256 **Figure 2: Spatial distribution of the 1945–2005 linear trend in DJF precipitation for the CMIP6 MMM of (a) hist-AER and (b)**
257 **hist-GHG simulations. Stippling indicates regions where at least 70% of models agree on the sign of change.**

258

259 3.2 Atmospheric Circulation Response to Aerosol Forcing

260 To provide context for the circulation and precipitation responses discussed below, we first examine the DJF climatological
261 mean state over 1961–1990 (Fig. S2). Climatological precipitation is concentrated over central Africa and northern MDG,
262 while relatively dry conditions prevail over SSA and southern MDG (Fig. S5c). The associated large-scale circulation is
263 characterized by low-level easterlies over the tropical Indian Ocean and westerlies south of the equator, consistent with the
264 mean position of the Hadley circulation and the regional monsoon system (Fig. S5d). This background circulation defines
265 the climatological moisture transport pathways into SA.

266 Against this climatological background, coherent adjustments in large-scale circulation accompany the aerosol-forced
267 precipitation response. In the CMIP6 hist-AER MMM, anthropogenic aerosols cool the Northern Hemisphere relative to
268 the Southern Hemisphere (Fig. 3a), producing an anomalous interhemispheric temperature gradient and a southward shift
269 of the Hadley circulation that helps compensate for the associated energy imbalance. The resulting cross-equatorial energy
270 transport occurs primarily in the upper troposphere as dry static energy and is associated with the northward branch of the
271 Hadley cell (Hwang et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2018). At the same time, the upper branch of the Hadley cell exhibits a southward
272 shift (as seen in the 200-hPa panel; Fig. 3b), consistent with a southward displacement of the tropical rain belt toward SA
273 latitudes.

274 In addition to this hemispheric-scale adjustment, aerosols generate near-surface temperature and sea level pressure
275 gradients across the Indian Ocean (Figs. 3a, c). Relative to the climatological state, this represents a strengthening and
276 southward shift of the cross-equatorial flow, enhancing moisture transport into SA further to the south. A large anomalous
277 anticyclone over South and Eastern Asia, generated by local aerosol cooling of the land as well as of the surrounding



278 oceanic areas, leads to anomalous northeasterlies over the north-equatorial Maritime Continent and the eastern Indian
279 Ocean. The flow turns to north-westerlies after crossing the equator because of the Coriolis effect, resulting in marked
280 south-equatorial westerlies across the Indian Ocean. In the Southern Hemisphere, in addition to the overall weaker oceanic
281 cooling (relative warming) compared to the Northern regions and the widespread ascent, a negative Indian Ocean Dipole-
282 like pattern emerges, with enhanced sea surface warming and ascent in the eastern subtropical basin compared to the
283 western part. This zonal gradient, albeit secondary to the mean aerosol-induced meridional shift, enhances moisture
284 transport from the tropical Indian Ocean toward southern Africa and intensifies moisture convergence over SSA and MDG,
285 while relative drying occurs over the tropical regions to the north of SA. Interactions between the prevailing southeasterlies
286 and local topographical features, and the induced low-level divergent flow (e.g., over eastern South Africa), help explain
287 the presence of localized land drying (Fig. 3d).

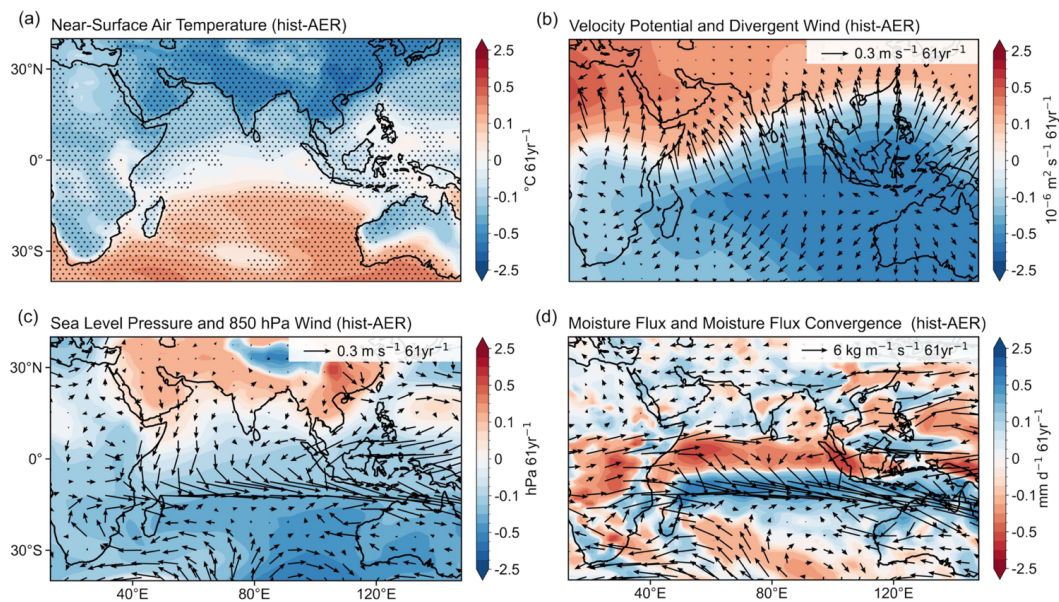
288 The close correspondence between precipitation, moisture fluxes, and circulation trends in hist-All and hist-AER indicates
289 that anthropogenic aerosols play a dominant role in shaping the forced component of historical Indo–southwestern Indian
290 Ocean hydroclimate variability via changes in wind patterns (Figs. 3 and S5, which shows the equivalent of Fig. 3 for hist-
291 All).

292 To assess the potential role of Asian aerosols in driving this circulation–precipitation linkage further, we analyze idealized
293 PDRMIP perturbation experiments (Figs. 4 and S6). The global $\text{CO}_2 \times 2$ and $\text{BC} \times 10$ experiments do not reproduce the
294 characteristic Indian Ocean meridional precipitation dipole seen in hist-All (Figs. S6a, b). Global sulfate forcing ($\text{SUL} \times$
295 5) produces a hemispheric-scale precipitation response characterized by a southward displacement of the ITCZ (Fig. 4a),
296 consistent with an aerosol-induced interhemispheric temperature gradient. This large-scale adjustment is accompanied by
297 consistent sea level pressure anomalies and circulation changes over the Indo–Pacific region, featuring a northward
298 pressure gradient and anomalous near-equatorial westerlies (Fig. 4c). However, despite the meridional shift of the tropical
299 rain belt, the precipitation response over SSA and MDG exhibits a more widespread drying tendency compared to hist-All
300 associated to a more pronounced anomalous anticyclone. By contrast, the Asian sulfate perturbation (Asia $\text{SUL} \times 10$) shows
301 strong agreement with the CMIP6 hist-All and hist-AER patterns, producing a pronounced cross-equatorial pressure
302 gradient, a strengthened and southward-shifted monsoonal westerly flow (Fig. 4d), and an Indian Ocean meridional
303 precipitation dipole accompanied by increased rainfall over SA (Fig. 4b). The response pattern is robust across different
304 PDRMIP models and, in particular, does not depend on the specific aerosol prescription methodology (i.e., emissions versus
305 concentrations). Together, the CMIP6 circulation diagnostics and the targeted PDRMIP experiments provide consistent
306 evidence that changes in Asian sulfate aerosols are associated with southern African rainfall anomalies through large-scale
307 circulation adjustments over the Indo–western Pacific region.

308 Overall, these results indicate that the southern African precipitation response to Asian sulfate forcing is primarily mediated
309 by ocean–atmosphere coupling rather than fast atmospheric adjustments. In the coupled simulations, enhanced Asian
310 sulfate emissions cool the Northern Hemisphere relative to the Southern Hemisphere, generating an interhemispheric



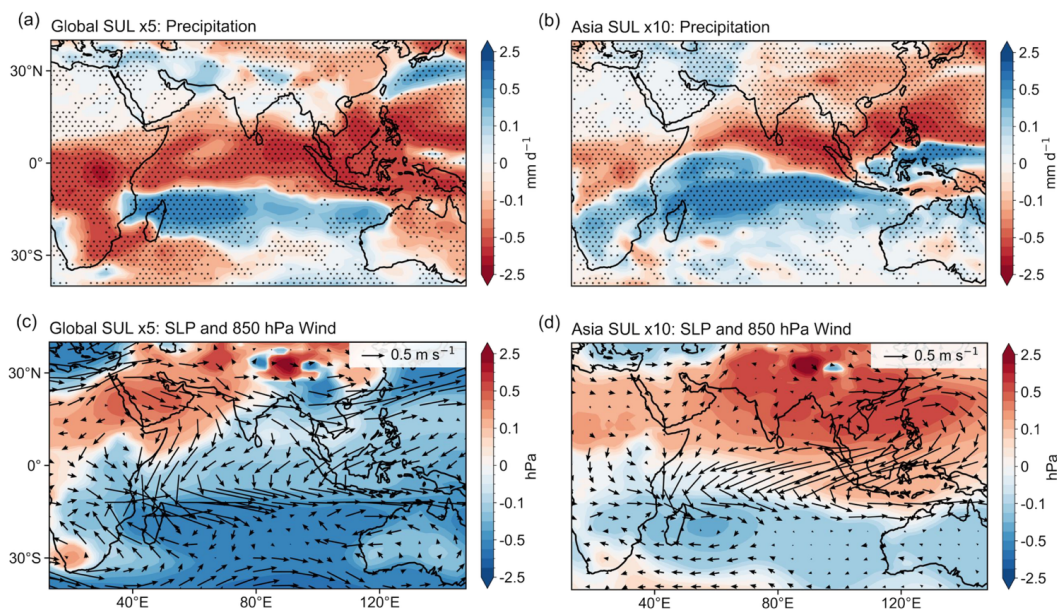
311 energy imbalance that alters Indian Ocean SST. The resulting hemispheric temperature contrast strengthens the cross-
312 equatorial sea level pressure gradient and shifts the Hadley circulation and associated monsoonal westerlies southward.
313 The associated Indian Ocean SST anomalies induce a zonal gradient and strengthen cross-equatorial flow, enhancing
314 moisture transport and convergence over SSA while promoting drying to the north of SA.



315

316 **Figure 3: Spatial distribution of trends over 1945–2005 for DJF: (a) near-surface temperature relative to the contemporaneous**
317 **tropical ocean mean (25°S–25°N), (b) velocity potential (shading) with divergent wind (vectors) at 200 hPa, (c) mean sea level**
318 **pressure (shading) with 850 hPa winds (vectors), and (d) vertically integrated moisture flux (vectors) and moisture flux**
319 **convergence (shading) for the hist-AER simulations. All trends are based on the MMM across 10 CMIP6 models. Stippling**
320 **indicates regions where at least 70% of the models agree on the sign of change.**

321



322

323 **Figure 4: Spatial anomalies during DJF in (a, b) precipitation, (c, d) mean sea level pressure (colour) with 850-hPa winds**
 324 **(vectors) for the total equilibrium response in the (left) Global SUL×5, and (right) Asia SUL×10 simulations from PDRMIP.**
 325 **Seven models were used to calculate the MMM, and stippling indicates regions where at least 70% of the models agree on the**
 326 **sign of change.**

327

328 3.3 Mid-2000s hydroclimatic reversal and ecosystem responses

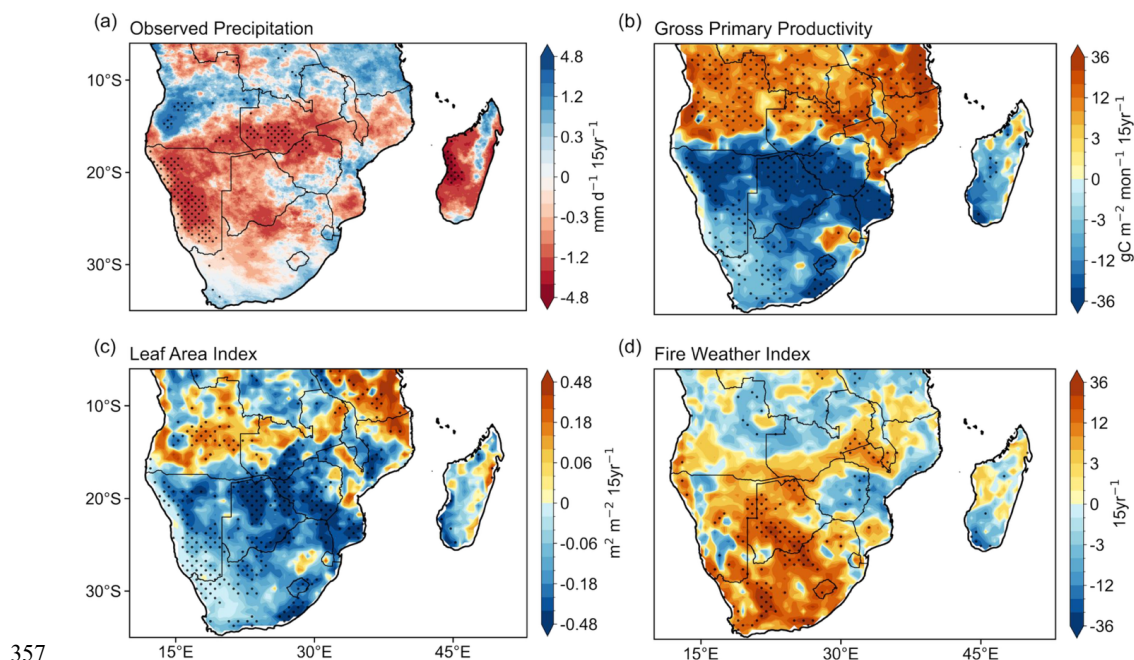
329 Since the mid-2000s, anthropogenic aerosol emissions over EAS have declined rapidly (Hoesly et al., 2018; McDuffie et al., 2020). Over the same period (2006–2020), DJF precipitation shows a widespread drying signal across much of SA (Fig. 330 5a). For this period, we primarily rely on the TAMSAT rainfall dataset (Fig. 5a; Fig. S3), as gauge-based products such as 331 CRU and GPCC suffer from substantially reduced station coverage over central Africa after 2000, leading to increased 332 uncertainties (Becker et al., 2013; Harris et al., 2020). In contrast, TAMSAT, which is primarily based on satellite 333 observations, provides more spatially complete and temporally consistent estimates over Africa, making it particularly 334 suitable for analyzing recent hydroclimatic changes (i.e., post-2000s). Over regions with relatively dense station coverage, 335 such as South Africa, TAMSAT shows good agreement with gauge-based datasets, supporting its reliability. This provides 336 confidence in its representation of drying patterns over data-sparse regions such as central Africa. Interestingly, the rainfall 337 trend during 2006–2020 exhibits a spatial pattern broadly similar to that during 1945–2005, but with the opposite sign, and 338 with a larger magnitude. 339

340 This hydroclimatic shift is accompanied by pronounced ecosystem responses (Figs. 5b–d). During 2006–2020, both GPP

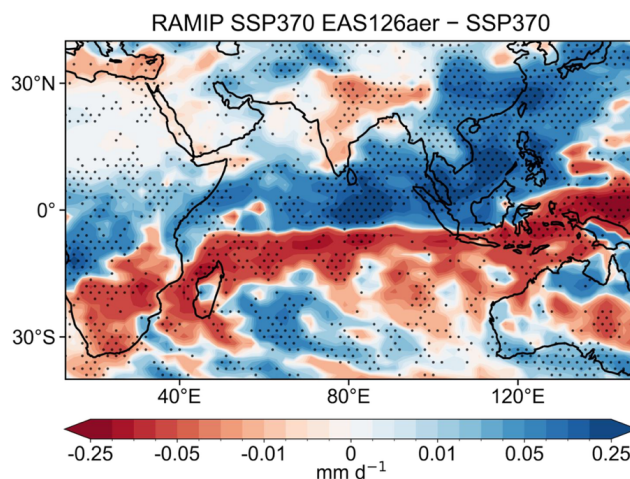


341 and LAI decline over large parts of SA, while increases are observed over parts of central Africa (Figs. 5b, c). These
 342 changes are consistent with reduced soil moisture availability and enhanced plant water stress under drier conditions (Zhou
 343 et al., 2021; Feldman et al., 2024a). Concurrently, the FWI increases across much of the region (Fig. 5d), particularly in
 344 areas experiencing pronounced drying, indicating more favorable atmospheric conditions for wildfire occurrence and
 345 spread (Abatzoglou and Williams, 2016; Jain et al., 2022; Ribeiro et al., 2022). Note that while we do not quantify the
 346 specific contribution of rainfall deficits to these trends, which may also reflect concurrent changes in temperature, humidity,
 347 and wind speed, rainfall deficits are widely recognized as a primary driver of vegetation dryness and wildfire risk in the
 348 tropics (Brando et al., 2014; Wimberly et al., 2024).

349 To assess whether the observed hydroclimatic reversal is dynamically consistent with aerosol-driven circulation
 350 adjustments, we analyze the RAMIP regional aerosol perturbation experiments over EAS. The EAS reduction experiment
 351 produces a clear Indo–western Pacific meridional precipitation dipole (Fig. 6), with enhanced rainfall over the equatorial
 352 Indian Ocean and reduced precipitation over the southern Indian Ocean and SA. This pattern closely resembles the observed
 353 post–mid-2000s drying over SA (Fig. 5a). This agreement suggests that reductions in East Asian anthropogenic aerosol
 354 emissions can induce large-scale circulation adjustments that favor drying over southern Africa. Taken together with the
 355 observed temporal correspondence and ecosystem responses, these results provide strong evidence that East Asian aerosols
 356 have played an important role in the recent hydroclimatic changes over the region.



357
 358 **Figure 5: Spatial distribution of trends over 2006–2020 for (a) observed DJF precipitation from TAMSAT, (b) DJF mean GPP,**
 359 **(c) DJF mean LAI, and (d) annual maximum FWI. Stippling indicates statistical significance at the 90% confidence level.**



360

361 **Figure 6:** Spatial distribution of the DJF mean over 2035–2049 for precipitation from the RAMIP simulations. Results are
362 shown as the MMM across 10 models (100 ensemble members) and are defined as the difference between the East Asian
363 perturbation (SSP370-EAS126aer) and the baseline simulation (SSP370). Stippling indicates regions where at least 70% of
364 models agree on the sign of change.

365

366 **4 Discussion and Conclusions**

367 This study investigates the influence of anthropogenic aerosol forcing from EAS on austral summer (DJF) rainfall over SA
368 on multidecadal timescales. Observations reveal a meridional contrast, with a persistent decline in precipitation over the
369 northern part of SA and adjacent tropical regions, alongside increased rainfall across SSA, MDG, and the adjacent southern
370 Indian Ocean during 1945–2005, followed by a reversal of these trends over 2006–2020. The timing of the reversal
371 coincides with the rapid decline in East Asian aerosol emissions since the mid-2000s.

372 CMIP6 single-forcing simulations indicate that anthropogenic aerosols account for a substantial fraction of the forced
373 precipitation response over the southwestern Indian Ocean. The hist-AER ensemble reproduces the observed meridional
374 precipitation dipole, with increased rainfall over SSA, MDG, and the adjacent southern Indian Ocean, and concurrent
375 drying over the northern part of SA and the adjacent tropical ocean, whereas hist-GHG simulations produce an opposing
376 response. The aerosol-forced signal is associated with coherent circulation adjustments, including an anomalous
377 interhemispheric temperature gradient induced by Northern Hemisphere cooling and a consequent southward displacement
378 of the Hadley circulation. The resulting circulation changes strengthen low-level westerlies and enhance moisture transport
379 from the adjacent tropical oceans into SA, leading to increased low-level moisture convergence and enhanced precipitation
380 over SSA, MDG and the adjacent southern Indian Ocean, alongside concurrent drying over the northern part of SA and the
381 adjacent tropical ocean. Idealized PDRMIP experiments corroborate the above findings on the role of aerosols, and also



382 further help to gain insights into the nature of the forcing. Global CO₂ and black carbon perturbations do not reproduce the
383 key Indian Ocean–southern African precipitation structure. In contrast, the regional Asian sulfate perturbation produces
384 circulation and precipitation responses that closely resemble those of the CMIP6 historical simulations.

385 The observed post mid-2000s changes exhibit a reversal of the earlier meridional precipitation dipole, with drying over
386 SSA and MDG and concurrent wetting over the northern part of SA. These hydroclimatic changes are accompanied by
387 coherent land–ecosystem responses. During 2006–2020, decreases in GPP and LAI occur alongside the drying signal, and
388 FWI increases over large parts of the region, consistent with drier fuel conditions and more fire-favorable meteorology.
389 These concurrent changes suggest that the hydroclimatic reversal is reflected not only in rainfall but also in ecosystem
390 functioning and fire-weather risk.

391 RAMIP experiments further demonstrate that changes in Asian aerosol emissions, particularly reductions over EAS, can
392 produce a meridional precipitation dipole over the Indo–western Pacific. The response features reduced rainfall over the
393 southern Indian Ocean and SA and enhanced rainfall closer to the equatorial Indian Ocean. This projected pattern closely
394 resembles the observed post–mid-2000s changes, supporting the interpretation that recent and ongoing aerosol reductions
395 in EAS can contribute to drying over the southwestern Indian Ocean region by altering large-scale circulation. A key
396 question is whether South Asian aerosols contribute to the recent changes, which is plausible given their proximity to the
397 analysed region. However, aerosol changes over SAS are much smaller and produce an opposite precipitation response,
398 suggesting a limited contribution to the observed drying (Fig. S7). Together, these results highlight the dominant role of
399 East Asian aerosol reductions in driving the recent hydroclimatic reversal over SA.

400 An important consideration is the extent to which SST, particularly over the Indian Ocean, contributed to shaping the
401 aerosol signal discussed above. While the hist-All ensemble exhibits widespread warming across the Indian Ocean, this
402 warming is most pronounced over the western and central south-equatorial basin, with weaker temperature increases
403 (relative cooling) north of 10°N across parts of the Arabian Sea, the Bay of Bengal, and the South China Sea, as well as
404 around 30°S. Similar patterns have been reported in previous studies over slightly different periods (Yoo et al., 2006; Jeong
405 et al., 2022). In contrast, aerosol-induced SST trends show widespread cooling across the basin, with pronounced negative
406 temperature anomalies north of 10°N, associated with radiation dimming from increased aerosol loading. As a result, SSTs
407 display a clear cross-equatorial southward meridional gradient in the central and eastern basin in both hist-All and hist-
408 AER. This gradient contributes to the development of a cross-equatorial meridional pressure gradient and the associated
409 northeasterly-to-northwesterly low-level winds. While SST changes over the central and eastern Indian Ocean in hist-All
410 are broadly consistent with the pattern expected from aerosol forcing, the warming in the western north-equatorial Indian
411 Ocean and the overlying northwestward low-level flow appear more consistent with GHG forcing. These features are likely
412 driven by enhanced warming and related thermally induced anomalous large-scale cyclonic circulation over the Arabian
413 Peninsula.



414 We acknowledge several limitations of this study. First, the magnitude of the observed austral summer precipitation trend
415 over SA during 1945–2005 is underestimated in the CMIP6 MMM, although most models capture the correct sign of
416 change. The presence of individual model realizations that reproduce the observed amplitude suggests that the historical
417 trend likely reflects a combination of anthropogenic aerosol forcing and internal climate variability. This reduced amplitude
418 is expected, as multimodel and multi-member averaging suppresses internal climate variability, which can contribute
419 substantially to the observed trend. In addition, observational uncertainties remain, particularly over central Africa where
420 rain gauge coverage is sparse and has declined substantially in recent decades, increasing uncertainty in gridded
421 precipitation products (Becker et al., 2013; Harris et al., 2020). Second, our analysis focuses on the role of East Asian
422 anthropogenic aerosols, motivated by their dominant contribution to global aerosol emissions during the late 20th century
423 and their marked opposite trends during the last few decades (Hoesly et al., 2018; McDuffie et al., 2020). As a result,
424 regional forcing factors within and around Africa, including land use change and biomass burning emissions, are not
425 considered here. Biomass burning and SO₂ emissions have also undergone substantial changes over the same period and
426 have been shown to influence regional precipitation patterns (Hodnebrog et al., 2016; Shikwambana et al., 2020), and may
427 therefore contribute to the observed hydroclimatic variability over SA. Finally, inherent uncertainties in simulating aerosol
428 radiative effects remain a challenge. The representation of aerosol–cloud interactions is a well-known source of diversity
429 among CMIP6 models, which can lead to variations in the simulated magnitude of the interhemispheric temperature
430 gradient and the resulting sensitivity of the ITCZ shift (Bellouin et al., 2020; Smith et al., 2020).

431 Our results improve the understanding of how East Asian anthropogenic aerosols influence rainfall variability over SA and
432 the associated dynamical mechanisms. Reducing uncertainties in future rainfall projections under evolving aerosol
433 emission trajectories remains an important challenge, particularly for informing adaptation strategies in regions vulnerable
434 to hydroclimatic change (Li et al., 2017; Samset et al., 2019). Future work could further examine how aerosol forcing
435 modulates intra-seasonal rainfall variability and seasonal characteristics, including rainfall onset, duration, and dry spells.
436 These processes are particularly relevant given emerging ecosystem stresses across SA, including increasing wildfire
437 activity, shifts in vegetation productivity, and growing vulnerability of rain-fed agricultural systems. Climate change and
438 shifting precipitation patterns may also affect biodiversity-rich ecosystems in SA, where rainfall variability strongly
439 influences vegetation dynamics and drought stress, potentially threatening ecosystem stability, particularly in the northern
440 forest and savanna regions (Hannah et al., 2008; Sintayehu, 2018).

441 **Data availability**

442 GPCP data are available at https://opendata.dwd.de/climate_environment/GPCC/html/. CRU data are available at
443 <https://crudata.uea.ac.uk/cru/data/hrg/>. TAMSAT data are available at <https://research.reading.ac.uk/tamsat/>. GPCP and
444 CMAP data are available at https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data_gpcp.html and
445 https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data_cmap.html. ERA5 data are available at <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/>. PDRMIP
446 model data are available at <https://www.wdc-climate.de/ui/>. RAMIP model data are available at



447 <https://catalogue.ceda.ac.uk/uuid/4680fd74cf2244ba8476ed2617e3b41f/>. LAI data are available at
448 <http://globalchange.bnu.edu.cn/research/data>. GPP data are available at <https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/>. FWI data are available
449 at <https://ewds.climate.copernicus.eu/>. CEDS emissions data are available at <https://zenodo.org/records/15059443>.

450 **Author contribution**

451 BS and MAB designed the study. BS performed the analysis, processed the data, and completed the first draft of the
452 manuscript. HW and LJW assisted with the analysis. BS and MAB discussed the results and edited the manuscript. ASG,
453 LJW, TPSR, CTSB, QL, PN, RJA, BHS, JM, GGP, TT, KT, SA, MTE, KVS, and DMW provided suggestions on the
454 analysis and interpretation of the results.

455 **Competing interests**

456 At least one of the (co-)authors is a member of the editorial board of Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics. The authors
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