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Southward Shift of Westerlies Intensifies the East Asian Early Summer Rainband Following El Niño

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Authors

Kong, Wenwen
Chiang, John CH

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37 **Abstract**

38 An intensification of East Asian rainfall usually occurs in summers following El Niño. We propose
39 that this teleconnection is mediated via the westerlies impinging on the Tibetan Plateau, through
40 El Niño's control on tropical tropospheric temperature. This is distinct from previous studies that
41 attribute the El Niño's influence to changes in the Western Pacific subtropical anticyclone. The
42 warming in the eastern equatorial Pacific leads to uniform warming of the entire tropical
43 troposphere, which sharpens the temperature gradient between the tropics and the subtropics and
44 shifts the westerlies southward. The westerlies impinge over the Tibetan Plateau for longer and,
45 through interaction with the topography, induce intense and persistent extratropical northerlies
46 downstream of the plateau that in turn intensifies the East Asian rainband. The rainband has
47 previously been shown to intensify in a similar manner in a warming climate, suggesting that the
48 El Niño response provides an analog for future changes.

49

50 **Plain Language Summary**

51 The East Asian summer monsoon (EASM) has profound impacts on agriculture and economics in
52 the region. The intraseasonal evolution of the EASM undergoes substantial year-to-year variations,
53 making its prediction a challenging task. El Niño events, a phenomenon that is associated with
54 anomalous warming in the eastern equatorial Pacific, have been shown to cause more substantial
55 summer rainfall and sometimes flooding over East Asia. Previous interpretations of the physical
56 linkage between the El Niño and the EASM have focused on the role of the subtropical anticyclone
57 in the western Pacific that drives the monsoonal flow into East Asia. Here we propose instead that
58 it is the southward shift of the westerly winds impinging on the Tibetan Plateau that contributes to
59 the intensification of the early summer rainband, particularly in June, through enhancing the
60 plateau-modified flow downstream. Our results have implications for sub-seasonal to seasonal
61 prediction of East Asian summer climate in response to the tropical Pacific sea surface temperature
62 variations.

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68 **1. Introduction**

69 The mei-yu-baiu-changma rainband (mei-yu, hereafter) is the primary intraseasonal rainfall stage
70 of the East Asian summer monsoon (EASM), and tends to intensify during the decaying phase of
71 El Niño episodes (Chang et al., 2000; Huang and Wu, 1989; Shen and Lau, 1995; Wang et al.,
72 2012). Previous work has focused on the intensification of the western Pacific subtropical
73 anticyclone as the underlying cause, through enhancing the water vapor transport into East Asia.
74 Several interpretations have been proposed to explain the anticyclone intensification. One view
75 argues that it occurs as a Rossby wave response (Gill, 1980) to the cold sea surface temperature
76 (SST) anomalies over the western tropical Pacific during the developing phase of El Niño. This
77 anomalous anticyclone persists into the summer following El Niño due to the positive feedback
78 between surface wind, evaporation, and SST (wind-evaporation-SST feedback) (Wang and Zhang,
79 2002; Wang et al., 2000). An alternate view is the “Indian Ocean Capacitor” mechanism (Xie et
80 al., 2009; Yang et al., 2007), which argues that the warming in the tropical Indian Ocean that peaks
81 in the summer following an El Niño mediates the delayed effects of El Niño on East Asia summer
82 climate. The Indian Ocean warming forces an equatorial Kelvin wave extending into the western
83 Pacific, which then suppresses convection in the western North Pacific and establishes the
84 anomalous anticyclone. Another school of thought suggests that the interaction of the annual cycle
85 with ENSO during the latter’s decaying phase (Stuecker et al., 2013, 2014) drives the anomalous
86 lower tropospheric anticyclone over the western North Pacific (Zhang et al., 2015, 2016).

87 We explore an alternative interpretation of the teleconnection between El Niño and the East
88 Asian summer rainband by focusing on the role of the upper-tropospheric westerlies. Recent
89 studies (Chen and Bordoni, 2014a; Chiang et al., 2017; Kong and Chiang, 2019; Sampe and Xie,
90 2010) have shown that the westerlies impinging on the plateau is essential to the formation and
91 maintenance of the East Asian rainband, from the spring rainfall over southeastern China (Park et
92 al., 2012) to the pre-mei-yu and mei-yu stage during June and July (Chen and Bordoni, 2014b;
93 Chiang et al., in press; Kong and Chiang, 2019; Molnar et al., 2010; Sampe and Xie, 2010).
94 Moreover, Chiang et al. (2019) found that the East Asian rain band intensifies in June in the late
95 21st century under the RCP8.5 pathway emission scenario projections from the CESM large
96 ensemble simulations (CESM-LENS, hereafter) (Kay et al., 2014). They attribute this to tropical
97 tropospheric warming, which sharpens the meridional temperature contrast over the subtropics and
98 shifts the westerly jet southward and enhances the westerlies impinging on the Tibetan Plateau.

99 By separating the contributions of the SST warming and the direct effect of greenhouse gases
100 (GHG), they found that the SST warming dominates the pronounced tropical upper tropospheric
101 warming while the direct GHG forcing counters the influence of SST warming. In a similar vein,
102 Zhou et al. (2019) suggest that the projected warming over the eastern equatorial Pacific from the
103 Climate Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5) (Taylor et al., 2011) leads to southward
104 displacement of westerlies and intensification of the early summer rainband. Both Zhou et al.
105 (2019) and Chiang et al. (2019) point out a close connection between tropical oceanic warming,
106 southward displacement of the jet, and intensification of East Asian summer rainband. However,
107 both studies are based on model simulations, and the question remains whether the connection can
108 be discerned from observations.

109 Here, El Niño provides a real-world test of the proposed linkage between tropical
110 tropospheric temperature, westerlies, and the East Asian rainband. Warming in the eastern
111 equatorial Pacific leads to uniform warming in the tropical troposphere (Chiang and Lintner, 2005;
112 Chiang and Sobel, 2002), which sharpens the temperature gradient between the tropics and the
113 subtropics, resulting in an anomalous southward displacement of the westerlies during the time
114 when the westerlies undergo their seasonal northward migration across the Plateau. The westerlies
115 thus linger over the Plateau latitudes for longer, inducing intense and persistent extratropical
116 northerlies downstream of the plateau that in turn leads to an intensified rainband. Note that the
117 location and intensity of the East Asian westerlies usually covary with the tropospheric
118 temperature gradient (Kuang and Zhang, 2005; Schiemann et al., 2009). The southward
119 displacement of westerlies during summers following El Niño coexist with a strengthening of its
120 intensity. We do not disentangle these two aspects of changes in this study. As will be shown later,
121 we argue that the changes in the latitude of westerlies matter most (Kong and Chiang, 2019) for
122 the East Asian summer rainband intensification.

123

124 **2. Data and Methods**

125 **2.1 Rain Gauge and Reanalysis Data**

126 Observed rain gauge data is from the APHRODITE daily product, APHRO_MA_025deg_V1101,
127 at $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ resolution (Yatagai et al., 2012). Historical SST is from the monthly $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$
128 Hadley Centre SST data set (HadISST1) (Rayner et al., 2003). We obtain daily and monthly zonal
129 and meridional winds, geopotential height, air temperature, and specific humidity from the

130 NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis-1 dataset (Kalnay et al., 1996). We identify the ENSO phase from the
131 winter of 1950/51 to 2014/15 and focus on the East Asian summer climate following El Niño peaks
132 during 1951 to 2015. The Japanese 55-year Reanalysis (JRA-55) dataset (Ebita et al., 2011) is also
133 employed to test the robustness of the results of the NCEP/NCAR dataset (see the supplementary
134 material).

135

136 **2.2 Model Simulations**

137 We examined 300 years of output from the Large Ensemble 1° Pre-Industrial Fully Coupled
138 control simulation with the Community Earth System Model version 1 (CESM1) (Hurrell et al.,
139 2013), which has the same configuration as the CESM-LENS that is analyzed in Chiang et al.
140 (2019). The case name of the simulation is b.e11.B1850C5CN.f09_g16.005, and model years 1901
141 to 2200 from the simulation were analyzed. This allows us to directly compare the East Asian
142 response to El Niño in this run with the East Asian response to RCP8.5 forcing in Chiang et al.
143 (2019).

144

145 **2.3 Definition of the ENSO phase**

146 We define the ENSO phase based on the Oceanic Niño Index (referred to as ONI). The ONI is
147 defined as the 3-month running means of SST anomalies in the Niño 3.4 region
148 ($5^{\circ}N - 5^{\circ}S, 120^{\circ} - 170^{\circ}W$). We average the ONI over December-February (hereafter the DJF
149 ONI), then detrend and standardize the resulting interannual timeseries (Lehner et al., 2016;
150 McGraw and Barnes, 2016). An El Niño year is defined when the value exceeds +0.75, and a La
151 Niña when this value is less than -0.75; all other years are defined as neutral ENSO. We identified
152 13 El Niño events, 16 La Niña events, and 36 neutral ENSO events from 1950/51 to 2014/15
153 (Table S1). We similarly identified 64 El Niño events, 73 La Niña events, and 163 neutral ENSO
154 events from the CESM1 control simulation (not shown).

155 Past studies examining ENSO impacts usually compare responses contrasting the warm
156 and cold phase of the ENSO. However, previous work suggests the response of the East Asian
157 summer climate to El Niño and La Niña is asymmetric (Hardiman et al., 2018). We thus compare
158 the East Asian climate in the summer following an El Niño with that during neutral summer and

159 use the former minus the latter to denote their differences. We use the two-tailed student's t-test to
160 show the statistical significance of our results.

161

162 **3. Observed responses during the summer following El Niño**

163 The seasonal evolution of the East Asian summer monsoon rainfall in summers following an El
164 Niño resembles those for neutral summers (Figure 1a), except for a pronounced rainfall
165 intensification from June to mid-July over the south to central East China (Figures 1b, 1g, 1h).
166 Relative to the amount received in neutral summer years, the intensification of June to July
167 precipitation over south-central East China exceeds 1.5 mm/day (Figure 1b). In climatology, the
168 pre-mei-yu season starts in mid-May over southeastern China, while the mei-yu season starts in
169 mid-to-late June when the rainband jumps northward to central-eastern China and ends in late July
170 (Ding and Chan, 2005). The timing of the rainfall intensification co-incides with the pre-mei-yu
171 and mei-yu stages, and both rain stages feature banded precipitation (Chiang et al., 2020; Day et
172 al., 2018). Here, the “banded” rainfall is associated with large-scale convergence, while the “local”
173 rainfall is driven by local buoyancy or topography (Day et al., 2018). Indeed, partitioning of the
174 banded and local rainfall suggests that the rainfall intensification primarily arises from the banded
175 precipitation, suggesting an enhancement in the large-scale convergence over the region during
176 summers following El Niño (Day et al., 2018; see Text S1 and Figures S1-S2). We also examined
177 the NCEP/NCAR-1 precipitation, which includes values over the ocean and is physically
178 consistent with the NCEP/NCAR-1 circulation field. Intensification of the NCEP/NCAR-1
179 precipitation is weaker than the APHRODITE, and their spatial patterns differ; this difference may
180 arise from the fact that the NCEP/NCAR-1 does not assimilate observed precipitation and thus is
181 an entirely modeled quantity. That said, the NCEP/NCAR-1 response also features rainfall
182 intensification concentrating over south-central East China from June to July (Figure S3). Similar
183 analysis with the CMAP (CPC Merged Analysis of Precipitation) dataset (Xie and Arkin, 1997)
184 further supports that the rainband intensification is a robust response during summers following
185 El Niño, and that this intensification is strongest in June (Figure S4).

186 In the following subsections, we will discuss the physical cause of the June and July
187 intensification separately. In particular, we will show that the southward shift of westerlies is the
188 reason for the June rainband intensification over East Asia.

189

190 **3.1 Southward shift of westerlies intensifies the rainband in June**

191 There is a delayed northward migration of the westerlies across the Tibetan Plateau in June and
192 July following an El Niño (Figures 1c-d). Since the climatological westerlies reach the northern
193 edge of the plateau ($\sim 40^\circ N$) in June, this delayed migration implies that the westerlies linger longer
194 over the Plateau latitudes (Figures 2a-c). As suggested by Kong and Chiang (2019) and Chiang et
195 al. (in press), this will lead to enhanced flow-orography interaction between the westerlies and the
196 plateau, resulting in stronger extratropical northerlies downstream of the plateau; this is indeed
197 observed in the 500 mb meridional wind response following an El Niño (Figures 1e-f and Figures
198 2d-f).

199 The synchronous changes in the June rainfall, westerlies, and northerlies of East Asia
200 resemble the results of Chiang et al. (2019), who found similar responses of East Asian summer
201 climate at the end of the 21st century in the RCP8.5 as simulated by the CESM-LENS. They show
202 that the root cause of the projected intensification of East Asian early summer rainband is the
203 warmer tropical tropospheric temperatures resulting from tropical oceanic warming, that in turn
204 strengthens the subtropical jet impinging on the Tibetan Plateau. A similar response occurs here,
205 except that in our case the tropical tropospheric warming is driven by El Niño. In agreement with
206 previous findings (Seager et al., 2003), there is a tropics-wide warming of the tropical troposphere
207 and cooling in the mid-high latitudes over the Eurasian continent. The atmospheric temperature
208 gradient between the tropics and the extratropics thus sharpens over Eurasia (Figure 2h and Figure
209 S5a), and the westerly jet shifts to the south of its climatological position (Figures 2b-c). Consistent
210 with the tropics-wide tropospheric warming, there is basinwide warming of the tropical SST in
211 both the tropical Indian and Atlantic Oceans (Figure 2g).

212 By using a vertically integrated moisture budget analysis, our recent studies find that
213 enhancement of extratropical northerlies and the resultant strengthening of meridional wind
214 convergence is key to intensify the East Asian rainband (Chiang et al., 2019; Kong and Chiang,
215 2019). Here, we also employed moisture budget analysis for the summers following El Niño and
216 found that changes in the meridional wind convergence appear to be the root cause of the June
217 rainband intensification (Text S2 and Figure S6). This is in agreement with the cause of the late
218 21st century rainband intensification as diagnosed in Chiang et al. (2019). Finally, the June rainfall
219 intensification over the western North Pacific also results from enhanced meridional moisture flux

220 convergence (Figure S3 and Figure S6g), implying that the rainfall intensification over the ocean
221 is part of a large-scale rainband intensification.

222

223

224 **3.2 Rainband intensification in July**

225 The proposed bridging effect by the westerlies between El Niño and the East Asian rainband does
226 not appear to operate for July. It is because the tropospheric temperature response to El Niño
227 gradually damps following an El Niño. Compared to June, the temperature contrast between the
228 tropics and the subtropics is considerably reduced in July (Figure S5b). Thus, though the westerlies
229 over the Plateau latitudes also show a southward shift during July following El Niño (Figure 1d),
230 this perturbation is not strong enough to strengthen the orographic downstream northerlies as seen
231 in June (cf. Figures S7e-f and Figures 2e-f). The results discussed below do not change even when
232 we focus our analysis from early to mid-July (not shown), the interval when July rainfall
233 intensification occurs (Figure 1b).

234 We attribute the rainfall intensification in July to an enhancement of the western Pacific
235 subtropical high, which intensifies the monsoonal southwesterlies. Indeed, the moisture budget
236 analysis in July suggests that the zonal wind convergence from anomalous westerlies (not shown)
237 and the meridional wind convergence from anomalous southerlies (Figures S7f-g) dominate the
238 moisture flux convergence in central East China. Figures 3a-d present the lower tropospheric
239 winds and the mid-tropospheric eddy geopotential height. The eddy geopotential height is a
240 measure of the western Pacific subtropical high, which by nature is a planetary wave (Rodwell and
241 Hoskins, 2001). We calculate the eddy geopotential height by deviation of geopotential height
242 from the regional averaged over $0^{\circ} - 40^{\circ}N, 180^{\circ}W - 180^{\circ}E$, which is recommended by He et al.
243 (2015) as a more reasonable measure of the western Pacific subtropical high than removing the
244 zonal mean at each latitude. In June, cyclonic circulation and northerly anomalies dominate
245 central-northern East China, while the intensification of the subtropical high is confined over the
246 South China sea. In July, however, the enhancement of extratropical northerlies disappears and the
247 anticyclonic anomalies dominate south to central China.

248 Taken together, the above observational analysis suggests that following El Niño, the East
249 Asian summer rainband intensifies from June to July, with the most of the intensification occurring
250 in June. For the June rainfall intensification, we did not find evidence supporting previously

251 suggested contributions from the western Pacific subtropical high. Instead, we argue that the June
252 rainband intensification results from enhanced extratropical northerlies, which is induced by the
253 flow-orography interaction due to a southward shift of westerlies (Kong and Chiang, 2019). The
254 effects of perturbation in westerlies on the rainband disappear in July, and during this time the
255 enhancement of the western Pacific subtropical high presumably comes into play. We repeated the
256 above analysis with the JRA-55 dataset (Ebita et al., 2011) and found similar results (Text S3 and
257 Figs. S13-17).

258

259 **4. Results from CESM1 pre-industrial control simulation**

260 We further examine the El Niño teleconnection to East Asia in a CESM1 pre-industrial control
261 simulation. This allows for a considerably larger sample of El Niño events to assess statistical
262 significance, and furthermore the changes inferred here can be directly compared to the CESM-
263 LENS results in Chiang et al. (2019) given that the same model is used.

264 Similar to the observations, the East Asian rainband in the summer following El Niño in
265 the CESM1 control run undergoes intensification in June and July (Figures 4a-b and g-h). This
266 intensification is accompanied by a southward shift of westerlies over the Plateau, and enhanced
267 extratropical northerlies downstream of it (Figures 4c-f and Figures S9-S10). The strong southward
268 displacement in the westerlies following El Niño episodes persists into July in the model
269 simulations, which differs from results in section 3. As a result, the extratropical northerly
270 anomalies are strong in both months, and lead to intensified rainbands in both June and July. We
271 think that the persistence of the signal into July arises from the simulated El Niño magnitude being
272 stronger and the decay from peak El Niño being more gradual than the observations (Figure S11),
273 resulting in a more persistent tropical SST and tropospheric warming in the summer following El
274 Niño (Figure S12). The enhancement of both northerlies and southerlies results in enhancement of
275 large-scale frontal convergence and explains why the July rainband intensification is so
276 pronounced in the CESM1 simulation.

277

278 **5. Summary and Discussion**

279 We reveal a teleconnection mechanism between El Niño and the East Asian early summer rainband
280 through the former's control on the westerlies impinging on the Tibetan Plateau. Both
281 observational analysis and model simulations show that westerlies during the summer following

282 El Niño are shifted southward, prolonging the westerlies' impinging on the Plateau. The resulting
283 orographic forcing leads to a strengthening of the northerlies downstream of the Tibetan Plateau,
284 and intensification of rainfall over south to central East China. This mechanism is similar to ones
285 proposed in recent studies that show a dynamical linkage between the latitude of westerlies
286 impinging on the plateau and the timing and duration of East Asian summer rainfall (Chiang et al.,
287 2020; Kong and Chiang, 2019). In this instance, the southward shift of westerlies results from a
288 sharpening of meridional temperature contrast at the subtropics, arising from a warming of the
289 tropical troposphere in response to the warming in the eastern equatorial Pacific.

290 The similarity in the mechanism of rainband intensification found here, with that found in
291 Chiang et al. (2019) for the intensification in the late 21st century from RCP 8.5 simulations,
292 suggests that observed East Asian early summer rainband response to El Niño can be viewed as a
293 modern-day analog to projected rainband changes under global warming. If this is indeed the case,
294 then these observed instances can potentially be used to provide guidance on the nature of the
295 future East Asian rainfall changes, in particular with changes to rainfall extremes. Notably, the
296 CESM-LENS projections suggest that East Asian summer rainfall extremes will double in the late
297 21st century (Chiang et al., 2019).

298 Recent studies suggest that ENSO possesses rich diversity in the structure and warming
299 magnitude of SST and remote impacts (Capotondi et al., 2014; Johnson, 2013; Takahashi et al.,
300 2011). The relationship of our proposed mechanism to the type of ENSO event remains to be
301 explored. An additional question worth exploring is whether the asymmetric response of East
302 Asian summer rainfall to El Niño and La Niña (Hardiman et al., 2018) arises from different
303 responses of the westerlies to positive versus negative SST anomalies in the eastern equatorial
304 Pacific. Another problem that we leave for future study is how our mechanism relates to previous
305 studies that tie the teleconnection to the role of the western Pacific subtropical high. One intriguing
306 question in particular is how the enhancement of the western Pacific subtropical high and the
307 northward shift of westerly jet are dynamically linked.

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313 ([https://figshare.com/projects/Data_and_code_for_Changing_character_of_rainfall_in_eastern_C](https://figshare.com/projects/Data_and_code_for_Changing_character_of_rainfall_in_eastern_China_1951-2007_/28563)
 314 [hina_1951-2007_/28563](https://figshare.com/projects/Data_and_code_for_Changing_character_of_rainfall_in_eastern_China_1951-2007_/28563)). We obtained the NCEP-NCAR1 dataset from
 315 <https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/gridded/data.ncep.reanalysis.html>. The NCEP-NCAR 1
 316 precipitation rate is downloaded from the IRI/LDEO Climate Data Library. The CMAP
 317 Precipitation data is provided by the NOAA/OAR/ESRL PSL, Boulder, Colorado, USA, from
 318 their website at <https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.cmap.html>. The JRA-55 dataset can be
 319 obtained from Research Data Archive at the National Center for Atmospheric Research,
 320 Computational and Information Systems Laboratory ([https://climatedataguide.ucar.edu/climate-](https://climatedataguide.ucar.edu/climate-data/jra-55)
 321 [data/jra-55](https://climatedataguide.ucar.edu/climate-data/jra-55)). We thank the APHRODITE's Water Resources
 322 (<https://www.chikyu.ac.jp/precip/english/>) for providing the APHRODITE dataset. The HadISST
 323 dataset is obtained from <https://www.metoffice.gov.uk/hadobs/hadisst/data/download.html>. We
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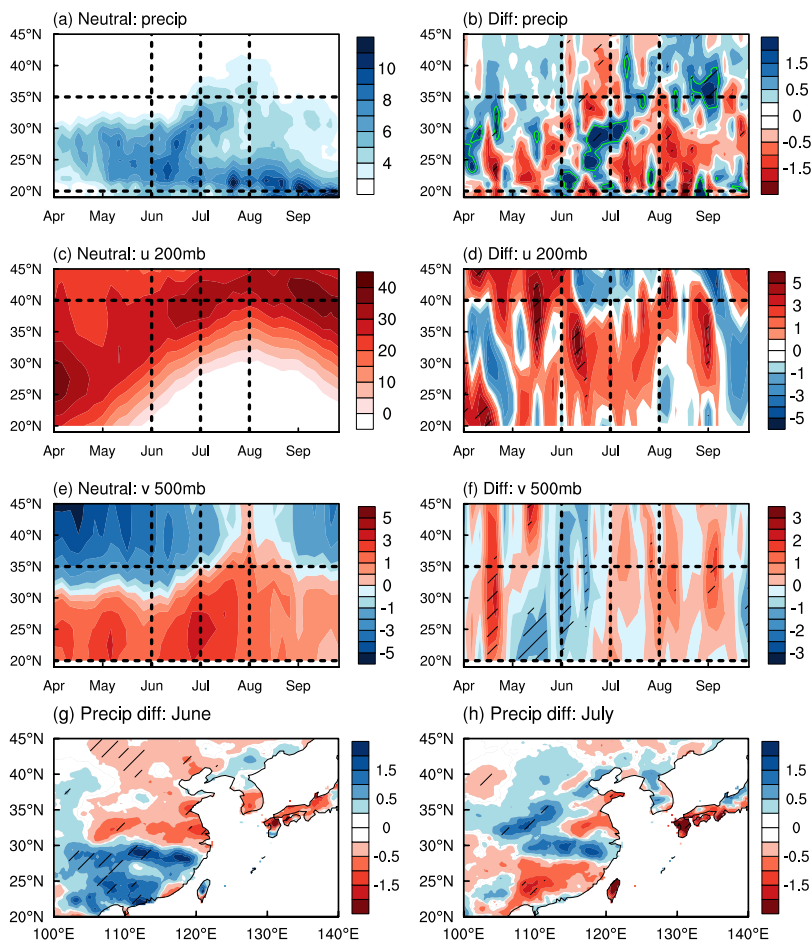
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Neutral summer and anomalies following El Niño

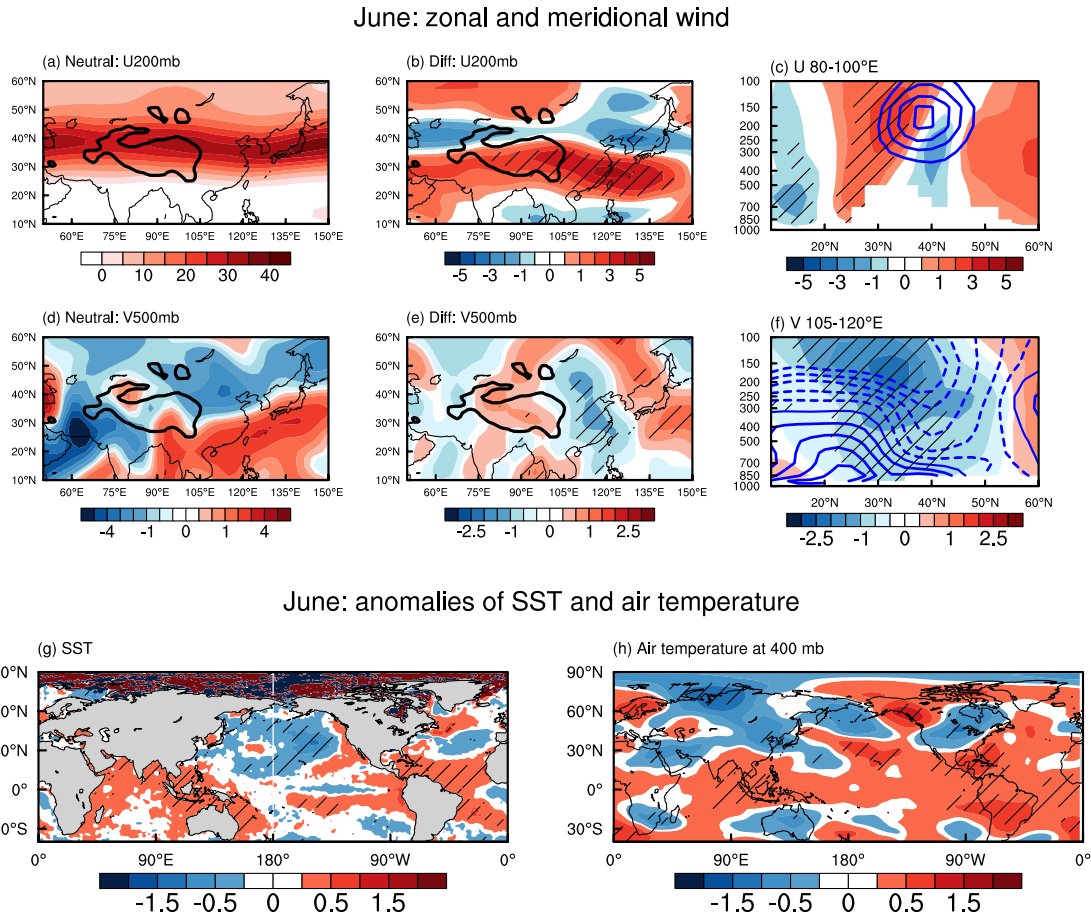


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441 **Figure 1.** APHRODITE rain gauge data, NCEP1 200mb zonal wind, and 500mb meridional wind
442 in decaying phase of El Niño events and the neutral summers. (a)-(b) Hovmöller diagram of rainfall
443 over East China ($105^{\circ}E - 120^{\circ}E$) for (a) neutral summers, and (b) the difference between the
444 two categories (El Niño minus neutral), where the green solid contour highlights precipitation
445 anomalies exceeding 1.5 mm/day. (c)-(d) Hovmöller diagram of 200mb zonal wind averaged in
446 the Tibetan Plateau region ($80^{\circ}E - 100^{\circ}E$) for (c) neutral summers, and (d) difference between
447 the two categories. (e)-(f) Hovmöller diagram of 500mb meridional wind averaged over East China
448 ($105^{\circ}E - 120^{\circ}E$) for (e) neutral summers, and (f) difference between the two categories. (g)-(h)
449 Precipitation of El Niño decaying phase minus neutral summers in (g) June and (h) July. Unit:
450 mm/day for (a)-(b), (g)-(h); m/s for (c)-(f). The horizontal dashed lines in (a)-(b) and (e)-(f) denote
451 south to central East China between $20^{\circ}N$ and $35^{\circ}N$, and the horizontal dashed lines in (c)-(d)
452 denote the approximate northern edge of the Tibetan Plateau. The vertical dashed lines in (a)-(f)
453 highlight June and July. Hatched area in (b), (d), (f), (g), and (h) indicates that the difference
454 between the two categories exceeds statistical significance level at 90%.

Neutral summer and anomalies following El Niño



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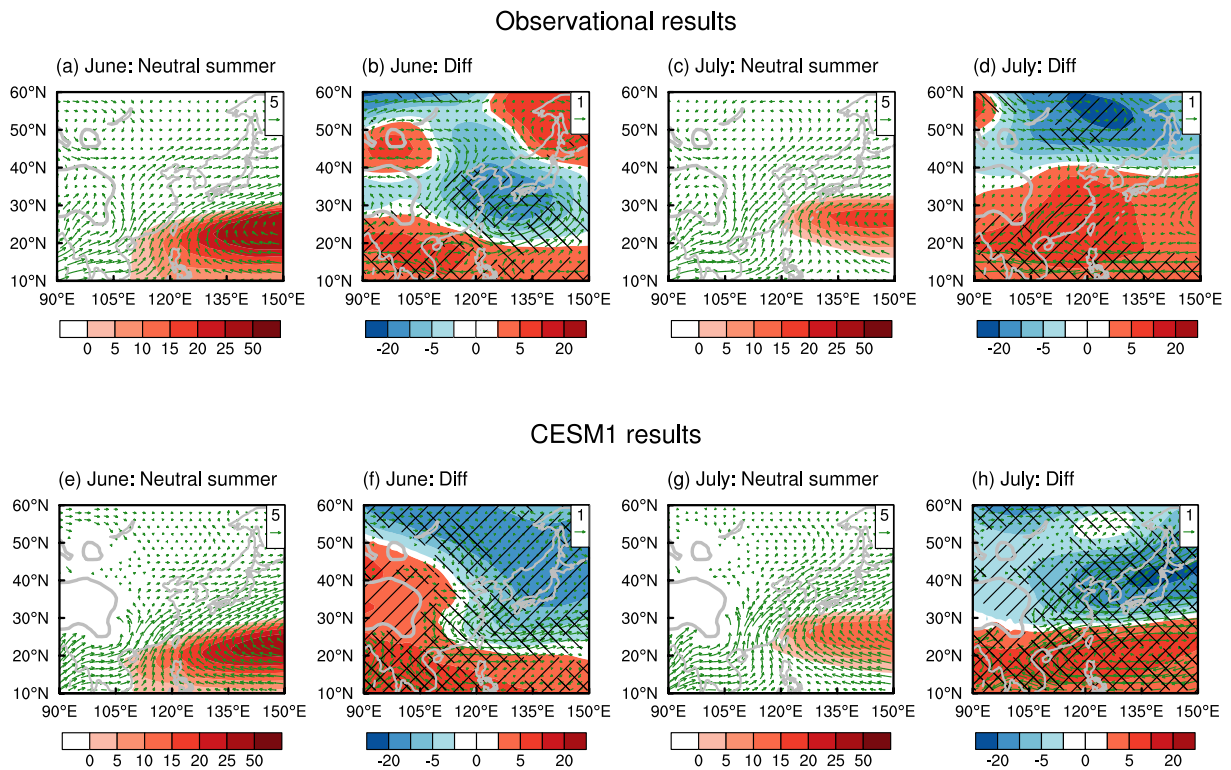
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Figure 2. June zonal and meridional winds (unit: m/s), sea surface temperature (SST) and air temperature (unit: deg C). (a) 200 mb zonal winds in neutral summer, (b) anomalies of 200mb zonal wind during summers following El Niño (El Niño minus neutral summer), and (c) pressure-latitude cross section of zonal wind averaged in $80^{\circ}E - 100^{\circ}E$, where contours show values from neutral summer (contour interval 5 m/s), and color shading show anomalies during summers following El Niño. (d) 500mb meridional winds in neutral summer, (e) anomalies of 500mb meridional wind during summers following El Niño, and (f) pressure-latitude cross section of meridional wind averaged in $105^{\circ}E - 120^{\circ}E$, where contours show values from neutral summer (negative values are dashed, contour interval 1 m/s), and color shading show anomalies during summers following El Niño. (g)-(h) Anomalies during El Niño decaying phase for (g) SST, and (h) air temperature at 400 mb. Hatched area indicates that the difference between the two categories

468 exceeds statistical significance level at 90%. The thick black contours in (a)-(b) and (d)-(e) indicate
 469 areas with elevation exceeding 2000 meters.

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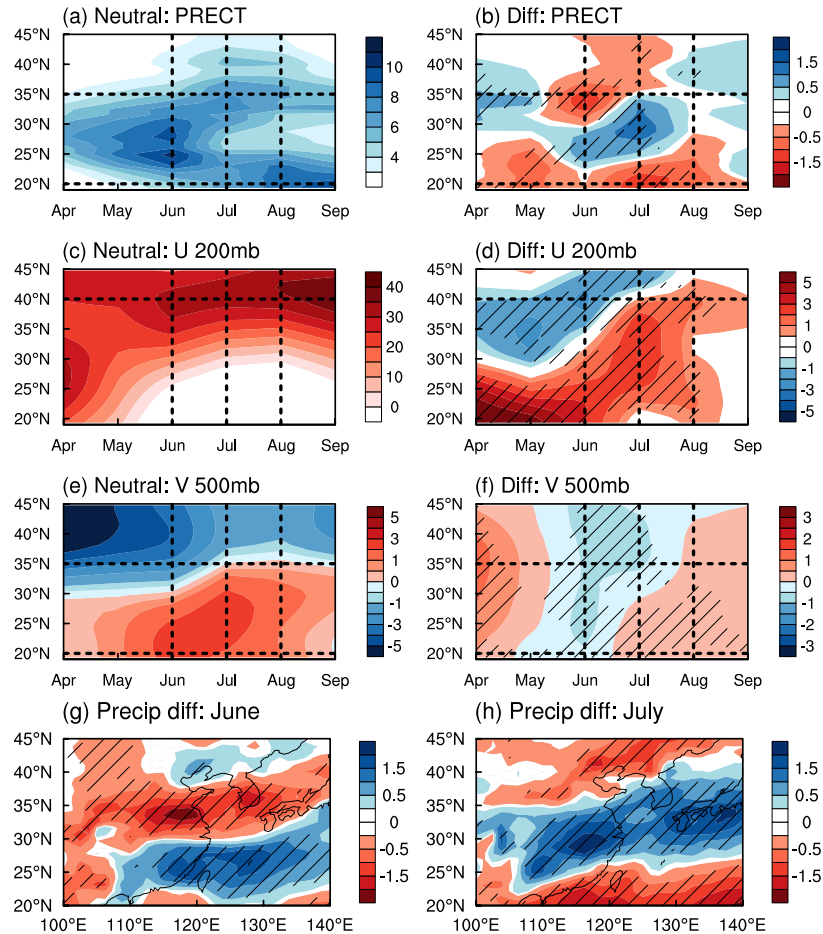
500mb eddy height & 850mb winds



474 **Figure 3.** Eddy geopotential height at 500 mb (colors shading, unit: meters) and horizontal winds
 475 at 850 mb (green vectors, unit: m/s) from (top) observational analysis and (bottom) CESM1 control
 476 run. (a)-(b) and (e)-(f) show results in June, and (c)-(d) and (g)-(h) show results in July. Results
 477 from neutral summers are shown in (a), (c), (e), and (g). Results from anomalies during summers
 478 following El Niño are shown in (b), (d), (f), and (h). Hatched areas in (b), (d), (f), and (h) indicate
 479 that the difference exceeds statistical significance level at 90%, where the forward diagonals
 480 denote the significance for the 850 mb horizontal winds while the backward diagonals denote the
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482 significance for the 500 mb eddy geopotential height. The thick grey contours over land indicate
 483 areas with elevation exceeding 2000 meters.
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CESM1 control: neutral & anomalies following El Niño



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487 **Figure 4.** Total precipitation, 200 mb zonal wind, and 500 mb meridional wind from the CESM1
 488 control run. (a)-(f) Hovmöller diagram of (a)-(b) total precipitation over East China ($105^{\circ}E -$
 489 $120^{\circ}E$), (c)-(d) 200 mb zonal wind over the plateau region ($80^{\circ}E - 100^{\circ}E$), and (e)-(f) 500 mb
 490 meridional wind over East China ($105^{\circ}E - 120^{\circ}E$). (a), (c), (e) show results from neutral
 491 summers, and (b), (d), (f) show anomalies during summers following El Niño. (g)-(h) show
 492 precipitation anomalies during summers following El Niño for (g) June and (h) July. Unit: mm/day
 493 for (a)-(b), (g)-(h); m/s for (c)-(f). The horizontal dashed lines in (a)-(b) and (e)-(f) denote south
 494 to central East China between $20^{\circ}N$ and $35^{\circ}N$, and the horizontal dashed lines in (c)-(d) denote
 495 the approximate northern edge of the Tibetan Plateau. The vertical dashed lines in (a)-(f) highlight
 496 June and July. Hatched area indicates that the difference between the two categories exceeds
 497 statistical significance level at 90%.
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