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Journal

Climate Dynamics, 46(3-4)

ISSN

0930-7575

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Publication Date

2016-02-01

DOI

10.1007/s00382-015-2620-3

Peer reviewed

Orbital control of the western North Pacific summer monsoon

Chi-Hua Wu¹ · John C. H. Chiang^{1,2} · Huang-Hsiung Hsu¹ · Shih-Yu Lee¹

Received: 11 November 2014 / Accepted: 13 April 2015 / Published online: 22 April 2015

Abstract Orbital forcing exerts a strong influence on global monsoon systems, with higher summer insolation leading to stronger summer monsoons in the Northern Hemisphere. However, the associated regional and seasonal changes, particularly the interaction between regional monsoon systems, remain unclear. Simulations using the Community Earth System Model demonstrate that the western North Pacific (WNP) summer monsoon responds to orbital forcing opposite to that of other major Northern Hemisphere monsoon systems. Compared with its current climate state, the simulated WNP monsoon and associated lower-tropospheric trough is absent in the early Holocene when the precession-modulated Northern Hemisphere summer insolation is higher, whereas the summer monsoons in South and East Asia are stronger and shift farther northward. We attribute the weaker WNP monsoon to the stronger diabatic heating of the summer Asian monsoon—in particular over the southern Tibetan Plateau and Maritime Continent—that in turn strengthens the North Pacific subtropical high through atmospheric teleconnections. By contrast, the impact of the midlatitude circulation changes on the WNP monsoon is weaker when the solar insolation is higher. Prior to the present WNP monsoon onset, the upper-tropospheric East Asian jet stream weakens and shifts northward; the monsoon onset is highly affected by the jet-induced high potential vorticity intrusion. In the

instance of the extreme perihelion-summer, the WNP monsoon is suppressed despite a stronger midlatitude precursor than present-day, and the midlatitude circulation response to the enhanced South Asian precipitation is considerable. These conditions indicate internal monsoon interactions of an orbital scale, implying a potential mechanistic control of the WNP monsoon.

Keywords Holocene · Orbital forcing · Paleomonsoon · Precession · Western North Pacific

1 Introduction

Evidence from multiple paleoproxy records and numerical modeling has firmly established that orbital changes on Milankovitch timescales alter the global summer monsoons (Wetherald and Manabe 1975; Kutzbach and Guetter 1986; Weber et al. 2004; Berger et al. 2006; Hsu et al. 2010; Ivanova et al. 2012), exerting a substantial effect on the monsoons in North Africa (Martine 1983; Pokras and Mix 1987; Tuenter et al. 2003), Australia (Wyrwoll et al. 2007), India (Braconnot and Marti 2003), and East Asia (An 2000; Wang et al. 2001). However, important details associated with the changes in monsoon seasonality remain unclear (Wang et al. 2003; Liu et al. 2004; Conroy and Overpeck 2011; Chiang et al. 2014), in particular with specific regional responses and the potential interactions between

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various monsoon subsystems.

Recent work has focused on understanding the impact of precession on the East and South Asian monsoons (Fleitmann et al. 2007; Wang et al. 2008; Shi et al. 2012; Liu et al. 2014). This activity has been largely motivated by the introduction of high-resolution paleoclimate records during the Holocene that revealed valuable details on the

Regional and seasonal changes (An et al. 2000; Wang et al. 2001; Braconnot and Marti 2003; Liu et al. 2003; Staubwasser 2006; Jiang et al. 2013, 2014; Nagashima et al. 2013). The summer monsoons in East and South Asia were stronger and penetrated farther north during the early and mid-Holocene compared to today (An et al. 2000; Liu et al. 2014). As the precession-modulated Northern Hemisphere summer insolation decreased after the early Holocene, the “summer optimum” over East Asia (i.e., the timing of peak Holocene rainfall) shifted southwards from northern China in the early Holocene, to central China in the mid-Holocene, and to southern China in the late Holocene (An et al. 2000). Nagashima et al. (2013) furthermore suggested that the path of the westerly jet over East Asia varied over the Holocene, apparently in concert with the spatial-temporal variation in East Asian summer precipitation intensity.

In South Asia, Kutzbach and Guetter (1986) found that summer precipitation increased by 10–20 % during the early- to mid-Holocene, but the increase showed large regional contrasts (proxy record). According to Staubwasser (2006), water discharged from the Ganga–Brahmaputra

to the Bay of Bengal and precipitation along coastal Oman suggest that the Holocene monsoon wind from the western Arabian Sea exhibited a long-term decrease from its maximum before the mid-Holocene. In western India, however, rainfall increased during the late Holocene, as reflected by an increase in runoff into the eastern Arabian Sea from the Western Ghats (Staubwasser et al. 2002; Staubwasser 2006). These records suggest a southward shift of the Holocene summer monsoon in South Asia.

By contrast, relatively few studies have examined paleomonsoon changes in the western North Pacific (WNP). The WNP monsoon is a major component of the modern Asian-Pacific monsoon (Murakami and Matsumoto 1994; Wang and Lin 2002; Wu et al. 2009). The onset of the modern WNP summer monsoon typically occurs in late July, much later than the summer monsoon onsets in East and South Asia. At onset, a deepened lower-tropospheric monsoon trough appears covering the tropical and subtropical WNP. This occurs simultaneously with an abrupt northward shift of the WNP high that also marks the termination of the Meiyu–Baiu rainy season (Suzuki and Hoskins 2009; Chou et al. 2011); with this transition, the East Asia-WNP region enters into a new monsoon phase (Li and Wang 2005; Wu and Chou 2012; Hsu et al. 2014). The WNP high is also climatically important because of its link to tropical cyclones (Holland 1995; Ueda and Yasunari 1996). The impact of precession on the WNP summer monsoon provides a potential avenue for exploring its dynamics; in particular, its influences and relationship to the adjacent East and South Asian monsoons.

Paleoproxy records, although limited, suggest that the WNP monsoon was weaker during the early Holocene. Previous studies have suggested that the hydroclimate of the western equatorial Pacific region (e.g., northern Borneo, Papua New Guinea, and the southern Philippines) shifted in phase with precessional forcing (Kissel et al. 2010; Tachikawa et al. 2011; Carolin et al. 2013; Fraser et al. 2014), with lowest precipitation during Northern Hemisphere insolation maximum and vice versa.

In this study, we use model simulations to investigate how the seasonal evolution of the WNP summer monsoon is altered under the influence of the precessional cycle. Unlike the other Northern Hemisphere monsoons, we show that the simulated WNP summer monsoon weakens when the precession-modulated Northern Hemisphere summer insolation increases. This indicates that the dynamics of the WNP summer monsoon is quite different from these other monsoons, and we examine the underlying causes of this difference. The data, model, and simulation design are described in Sect. 2. Section 3 reviews the current WNP summer monsoon. Section 4 explores the impact of precession on the WNP summer monsoon, and Sect. 5 explores the potential dynamical causes, focusing on the direct response of the monsoon to

changing solar insolation as well as the teleconnected influence of neighboring regional monsoons. We conclude with a summary and discussion in Sect. 6.

2 Data, models, and simulation designs

The data used include precipitation from the Global Precipitation Climatology Project (GPCP) (Huffman et al. 2001) from 1997 to 2013 with a temporal resolution of 1 day and a 1° latitude–longitude spatial resolution; and temperature, humidity, and dynamical fields from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) reanalysis (Kalnay et al. 1996) from 1979 to 2013 with a temporal resolution of 6 h and a 2.5° latitude–longitude spatial resolution.

The atmospheric general circulation model (AGCM) used is the Community Atmospheric Model (CAM) Version 5.1 of the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR), coupled with a slab ocean model (SOM) (<http://www.cesm.ucar.edu>). Observed present-day heat transports by ocean currents are prescribed on the SOM through a so-called “Q-flux” during the simulation to maintain a simulated sea surface temperature (SST) close to the observed. Boundary and initial conditions are adopted from the Community Earth System Model (CESM) preindustrial control experiment (Vertenstein et al. 2010). Our CAM/SOM simulations are integrated using a finite-volume dynamical core with a standard resolution of 30 vertical levels at a horizontal resolution of approximately 1° . For each simulation case, the model is integrated for 40 years and the outputs for years 21–40 are analyzed. Our analysis of space

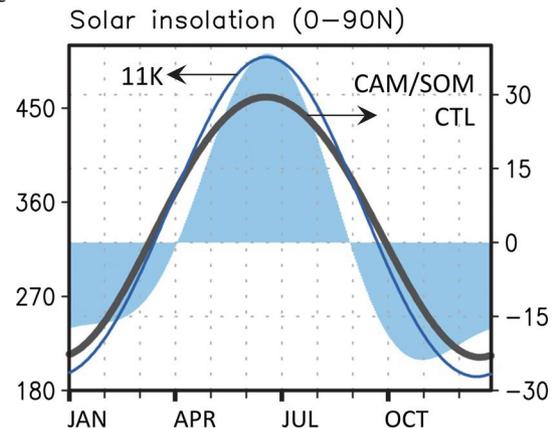


Fig. 1 Annual cycle of solar insolation at the top of the atmosphere in the Northern Hemisphere ($0\text{--}90^\circ\text{N}$). Thick-black (thin-blue) line denotes the CAM/SOM present-day (11 K) simulation ranging from 180 to $500 W m^{-2}$, and shadings denote the 11K simulation minus control simulation (right side coordinate)

model transients indicate that 20 years is sufficient for the model to reach a quasi-equilibrium state; this is consistent with other AGCMs when coupled with SOM (Kitoh 2002; Danabasoglu and Gent 2009).

The CAM/SOM control simulation is conducted with the present-day orbital conditions. The early Holocene simulation (hereafter the ‘11K simulation’) uses orbital conditions 11,000 years before the present day (11 ka BP); the changes to the orbit are primarily from its precessional component; the other boundary conditions are kept the same as present-day conditions. In the Northern Hemisphere, the summer solar insolation in 11 ka BP is much higher than the present-day value (Fig. 1). However, the comparison between paleodata and our 11K simulation is limited to the extent that the imposition of present-day land-surface conditions and greenhouse forcings affects the simulation.

We also use a simplified global climate model (Simplified Parameterizations, primitive-Equation Dynamics, SPEEDY) to investigate the responses of circulation to regional diabatic heating and distinct solar insolation. The 8-layer SPEEDY, developed at the International Centre for Theoretical Physics (ICTP), has relatively simplified physical parameterizations implemented with a relatively coarse 3.75° longitude–latitude resolution (Molteni 2003; Kucharski et al. 2006); it is also coupled to a SOM. It is computationally lightweight and allows for longer integrations and more cases.

(a) The SPEEDY simulation is 100 years long. The first 71–100 days are analyzed. Despite the short duration, the simulation is able to simulate the major circulation features in the Asia–WNP sector, particularly the WNP high.

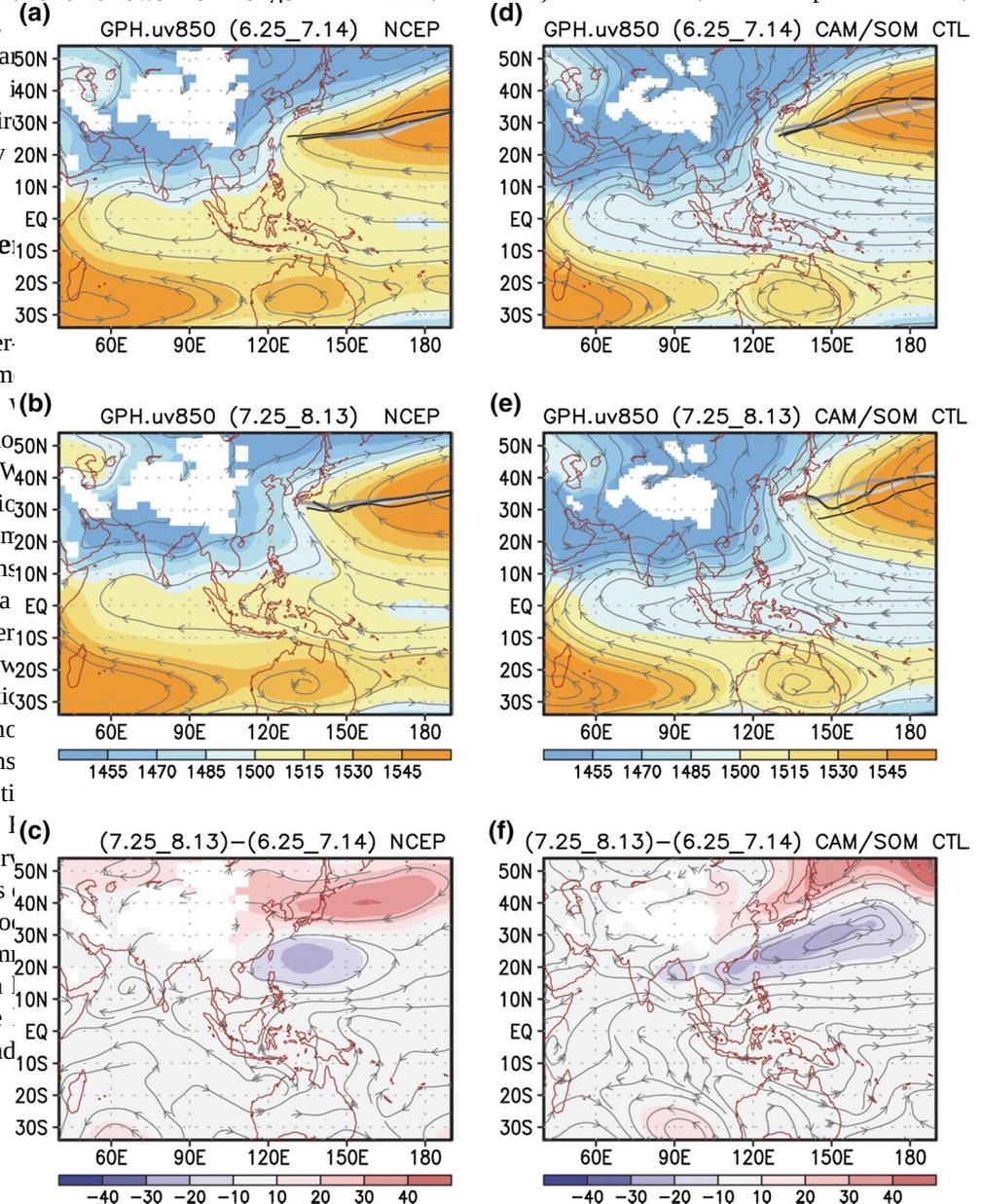
3 Present-day western North Pacific summer monsoon

The evolution of the lower-tropospheric circulation significantly affects the summer monsoon over East Asia. The late-July transition is associated with the deepening of the monsoon and a rapid northward shift of the monsoon trough. This is associated with the onset of the monsoon and the Japan (PJ) pattern, is an intrinsic feature of the East Asia–WNP region, the evolution of the monsoon elsewhere is likely insignificant. The effect in simulating the present-day transition is readily observed in comparison with the reanalysis.

The march of present monsoon and the WNP high in early summer to the WNP monsoon onset is almost stationary in time (the high is located near Taiwan around

appears to follow the progression of the entire Asian monsoon system. By the middle of June, the column-integrated atmospheric heating over the Tibetan Plateau reaches its highest value (Fig. 3a). The South Asian summer monsoon enters its mature phase (as indicated by the strength of the 200-hPa geopotential height shown in Fig. 3a), and the period also corresponds to the onset of the Meiyu–Baiu season over East Asia (Fig. 4a). The center of the upper-tropospheric high over Asia is also relatively stationary in the period prior to the WNP monsoon onset, around 27°N – 30°N over the southern Tibetan Plateau (Fig. 3a). The meridional position of this high coincides with the location of the Meiyu–Baiu rain band, implying that the regulation of the present monsoons in South Asia and East Asia and the WNP high is potentially related in the early summer.

Prior to the WNP monsoon onset, the surface westerlies are weak and the cloud amount is small because of the strong WNP high. Consequently, the heating of the ocean is strong and this increasing SST has been suggested to favor the sudden northward shift of convection from the Philippine Sea during the WNP monsoon onset (Ueda et al. 1995; Wu 2002). Nevertheless, the atmosphere is stable,



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Ueda et al. 2009; Suzuki and Hoskins 2009). In general, the onset monsoons over South and Southeast Asia (including the WNP monsoon) have a stepwise character, and there is a general eastward progression in its occurrence. The stepwise monsoon onset is primarily attributed to the air–sea interaction (Wu 2002) as well as seasonal phase-locked intraseasonal oscillation (Wu and Wang 2001).

A number of studies have also suggested that midlatitude planetary waves resulting from continental heating is responsible for the monsoon transition over the East Asia–WNP region (Sato et al. 2005; Wu et al. 2009; Wu and Chou 2012). Suzuki and Hoskins (2009) suggest that an equivalent barotropic Rossby wave-train developing downstream across Eurasia terminates the Baiu season. Wu and Chou (2012)

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examine the interannual variability in the WNP monsoon onset from 1974 to 2010, concluding that remote forcing is responsible for rapid intensification of convection during the WNP monsoon onset. They find that, prior to the rapid transition, the northeastern stretch of the South Asian high as well as the upper-tropospheric East Asian jet stream weakens, upper-level divergence in the region southwest of the mid-North Pacific trough increases, and convection is enhanced. In concert with a southward and westward intrusion of the upper-level high potential vorticity (PV), convection expands from the midocean region westward to cover the entire subtropical WNP (e.g., 130°E–150°E shown in Fig. 4a).

In brief, the present-day WNP monsoon onset can be primarily attributed to a strong extratropical-tropical interaction.

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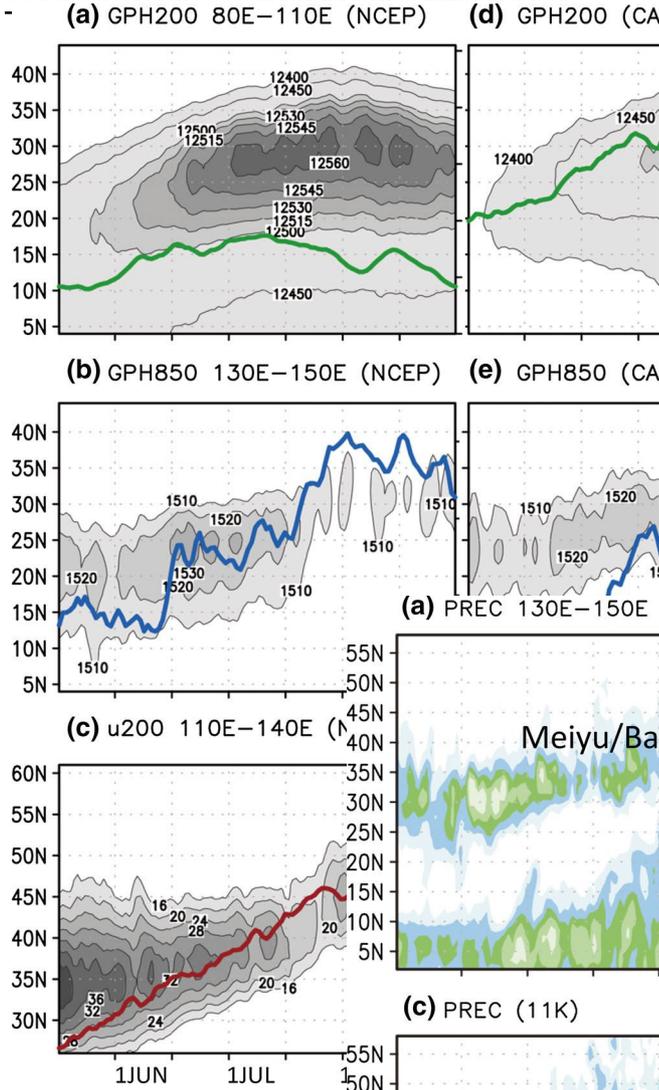


Fig. 3 Latitude-time cross sections of geopotential height (gpm) in **a** 80°E–110°E, **b** 130°E–150°E and **c** 200-hPa zonal wind (m s⁻¹) in 110°E–140°E from the NCEP reanalysis data (left column) and the results of the simulations, respectively (right column). Green lines denote the column-integrated total heating (W m⁻²) (higher than 3 km, Hsu and Liu 2003). Blue lines denote the 200-hPa zonal wind speed (m s⁻¹) in the region (100°E–130°E, 20°N–30°N) (Wang and Fan 1999). Red lines denote the 200-hPa zonal wind speed (m s⁻¹) in the region (110°E–140°E, 30°N–50°N). Right-side coordinates are for the three indices.

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Prior to the WNP monsoon onset, the South and East Asian monsoons as well as the WNP high are all at their respective maxima, and relatively stationary; the suggestion is that these monsoon peaks and the peak WNP high are causally related. During early Holocene climate, the monsoons are stronger and shift farther northward in South Asia and East Asia, as a result of the increased summer insolation. We hypothesize that (1) a stronger

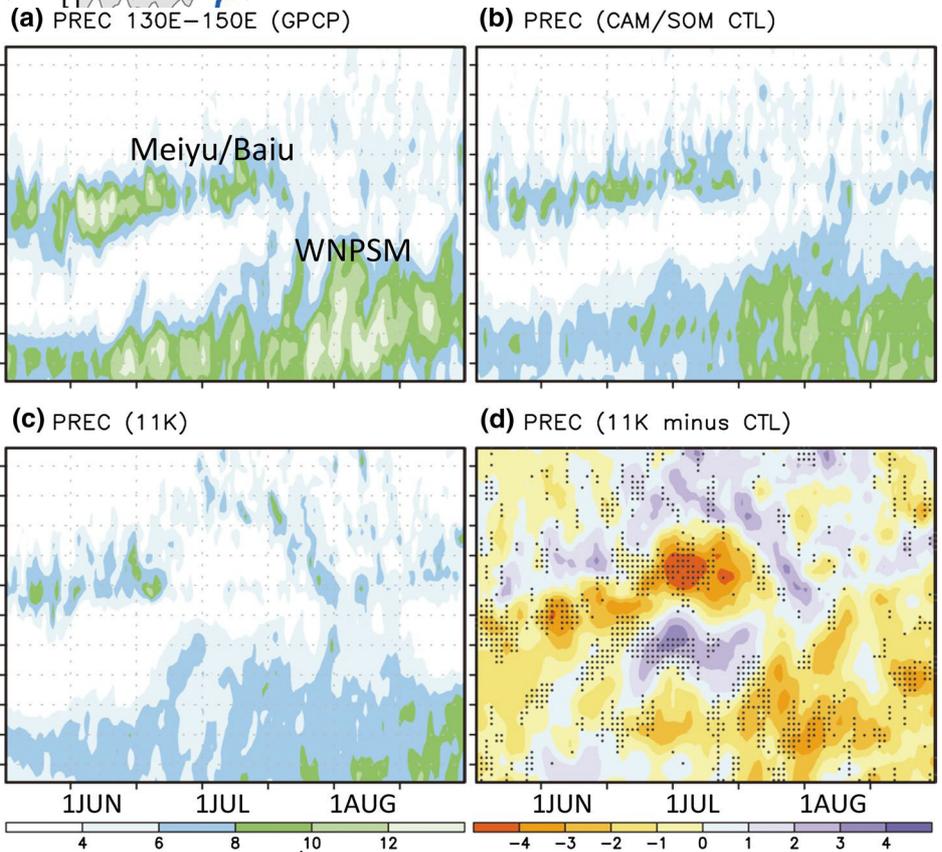
Asian monsoon and the corresponding strengthened WNP high suppress the WNP monsoon; and (2) the extratropical influence on the WNP climate weakens after the land–sea thermal contrast becomes dominant.

4 spacePrecessional forcing on the western North Pacific summer monsoon

4.1 Modulation of seasonality

In the 11K simulation, the upper-tropospheric high over South Asia (Fig. 3g) and the lower-tropospheric high over the WNP (Fig. 3h) strengthen considerably relative to the present-day, in particular during July. This indicates a substantial change in the large-scale controls of the 11K WNP summer monsoon. A measure of the WNP monsoon

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space strength (as shown by the blue line of Fig. 3h) reflects weaker monsoon conditions during 11K, presumably due to the dominance of an anticyclonic ridge

with a prevailing easterly wind in the south (Fig. 3h). The East Asian jet stream weakens considerably in June; its wind speed drops to almost zero in early July (Fig. 3i). We infer that the land–sea thermal contrast induced by stronger 11K Northern Hemisphere summer solar heating forces a continental–low and oceanic–high stationary wave pattern.

Figure 4 shows the precipitation evolution in the East Asia–WNP region in a cross section along the 130°E–150°E longitudinal band. The simulated seasonal changes of precipitation in the control run are reasonably consistent with the current climatology (compare Fig. 4a with 4b). Along the northern edge of the WNP high (Fig. 3b, e), the Meiyu–Baiu precipitation band is the major feature of the early-summer monsoon in the domain (Fig. 4a, b) until mid-late July, when the major convection region shifts from the Meiyu–Baiu region (30°N–40°N) to the subtropical WNP (5°N–25°N) (Ueda et al. 1995) and the WNP summer monsoon onset occurs. In the 11K simulation, precipitation over the subtropical WNP is much weaker than that in the present-day simulation (Fig. 4d) because of the stronger WNP high (Fig. 3h). There is a surge in precipitation in late June over the subtropical spaceWNP which extends into July (Fig. 4c, d), but this should not be interpreted as an earlier WNP monsoon onset because the monsoon trough is absent.

The earlier break in Meiyu–Baiu precipitation may be attributed to the abrupt development of the WNP high. As shown in Fig. 3h, the WNP high shifts northward and matures in mid-June, a month ahead of that in the present-day simulation. This earlier break is consistent with a proxy record of Japan Sea sediments that shows an early-Holocene environment drier than that in the present day (Nagashima et al. 2013).

4.2 Modulation of the western North Pacific monsoon precursors

Due to the precession-induced stronger summer insolation, the surface temperature is higher than present-day levels in most regions especially over the Eurasian continent, and the thermal contrast between the Asian continent and North Pacific is greatly enhanced (Fig. 5c). The enhanced land–sea thermal contrast induces a stronger and northward-shifted continental low over Asian land areas and an enhanced and westward-shifted oceanic subtropical high over the North Pacific (Fig. 5c). Figure 6 shows the vertical distribution of geopotential height and vertical space

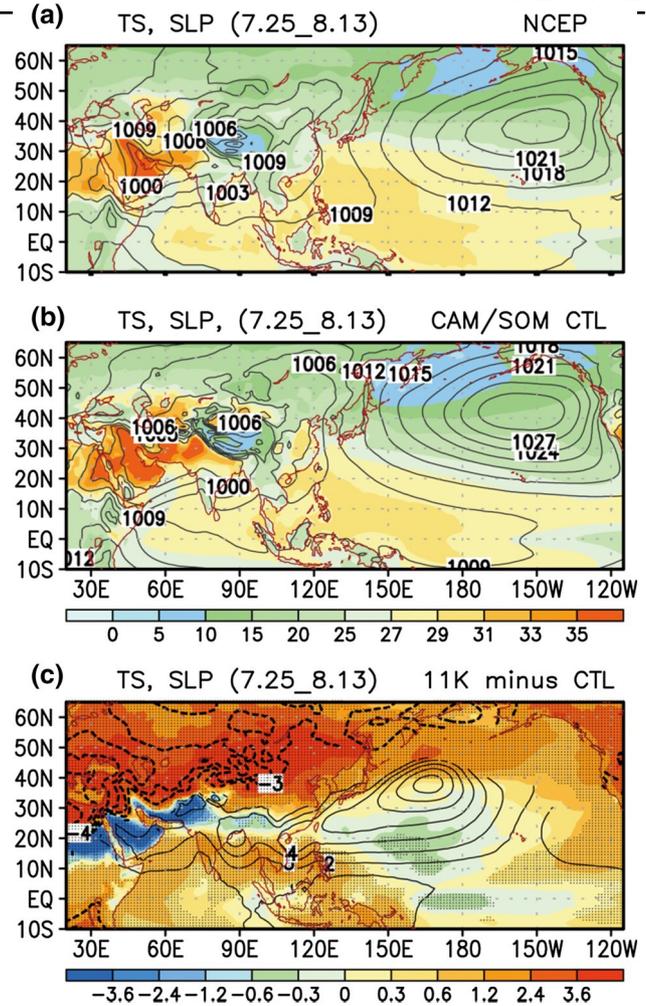


Fig. 5 Surface temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$, *shadings*) and sea-level pressure (hPa, *contours*) from 25 July to 13 August: **a** reanalysis data; **b** CAM/ SOM control simulation; **c** 11K simulation minus control simulation. Temperature (sea-level pressure) response with a 99 % confidence level is marked by *dots* (plotted)

air motion along the 20°N–40°N latitudinal band. The geopotential height in the figure has been subtracted from the zonal average between 20°E and 115°W. Compared with the present-day simulation, the 11K simulation shows a deeper upper-tropospheric trough, stronger lower-tropospheric high pressure over the WNP, and an enhanced low pressure over the Asian continent. Correspondingly, both upward motion over East Asia and downward motion over the North Pacific strengthen (Fig. 6c). The upward motion near the East Asian coast is substantially reduced in 11 ka BP because of the westward expansion of the North Pacific high. The atmospheric response to the perihelion-summer solar insolation is consistent with a stronger zonal land–sea thermal contrast.

The stronger land–sea thermal contrast in turn leads to a northward shift of monsoon precipitation in South and space

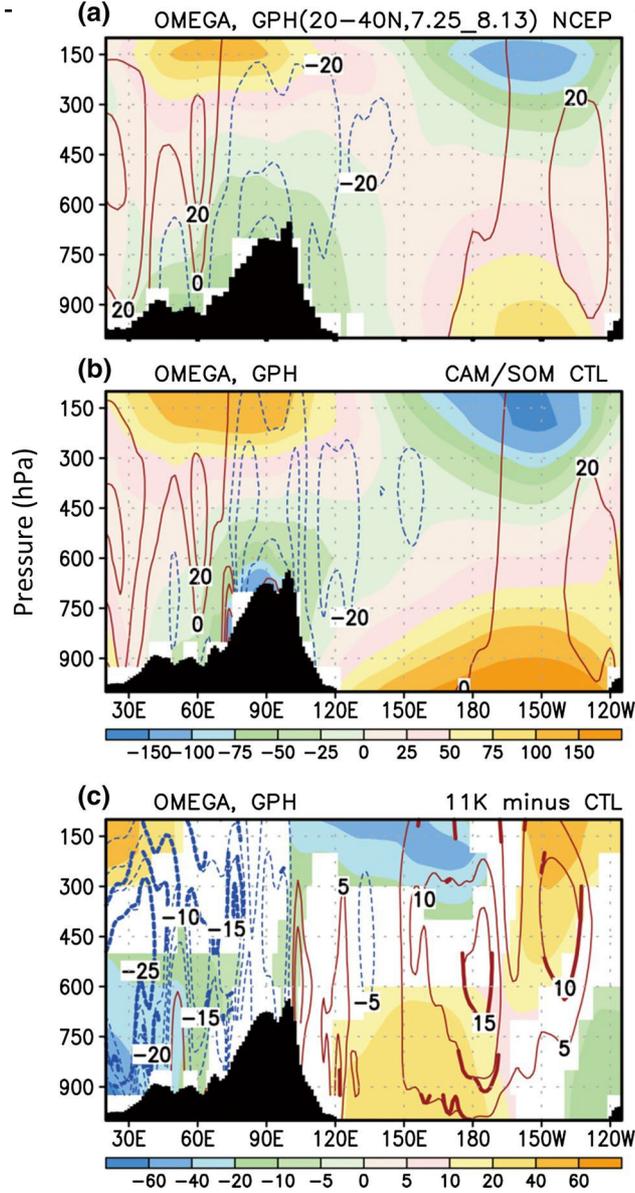


Fig. 6 Vertical velocity (hPa day^{-1} , contours) and geopotential height (gpm, shadings, zonal mean has been subtracted) in the 20°N – 40°N longitude–pressure plane from 25 July to 13 August: **a** reanalysis data; **b** CAM/SOM control simulation; **c** 11K simulation minus control simulation. Geopotential height response only with a 99 % confidence level is shown; *thick contours* denote the vertical velocity response with a 99 % confidence level. *Black bars* denote topography

East Asia (Figs. 7c, 8c), i.e., more precipitation over the South Asian lands, northern China, and northeastern Asia; less precipitation over the South Asian oceanic areas, the South China Sea, the WNP, central eastern China, and Japan. The overall precipitation changes are consistent with the documented paleo-monsoon characteristics in the early Holocene (An et al. 2000). Similar changes in the North Pacific high and monsoon precipitation in response

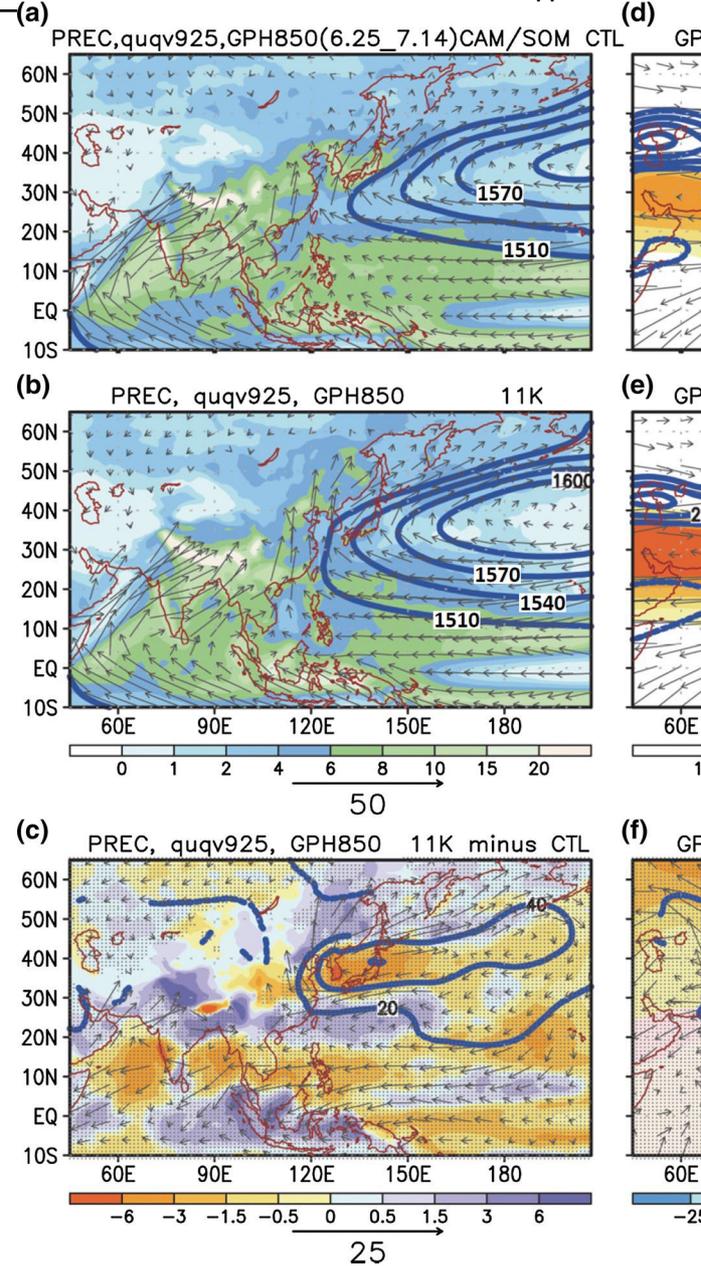


Fig. 7 a–c Precipitation (mm day^{-1} , shadings), 925-hPa moisture flux ($\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{m s}^{-1}$), and 850-hPa geopotential height (gpm, contours) and **d–f** 200-hPa wind vector, geopotential height (shadings), and zonal wind speed (m s^{-1} , contours) of CAM/SOM control simulation, 11K simulation, and their difference from 25 June to 14 July.

The difference in lower-level moisture flux and geopotential height and upper-level wind reaching a 99 % confidence level is shown; the difference in precipitation and the 200-hPa geopotential height having a 99 % confidence level is denoted by *dots*

to precessional forcing are apparent in fully coupled modeling studies (Liu et al. 2003; Mantsis et al. 2010, 2013; Jin et al. 2014). We also notice dissimilar precipitation changes among the models over certain areas of East Asia. A number of studies have focused on the topographic effects on the monsoon and suggested that a poorly represented topography might lead to model

biases (Wu et al. 2014 and reference therein); however, it is not well

space understood how a fine-scale mountain would affect the monsoon circulation.

Wu and Chou (2012) suggested that the extratropical disturbances in the upper troposphere play a crucial role in preconditioning the current late-July monsoon onset over the WNP. This view has been substantially supported by Geng et al. (2014). The extratropical disturbance, which is induced by the weakening of the East Asian jet

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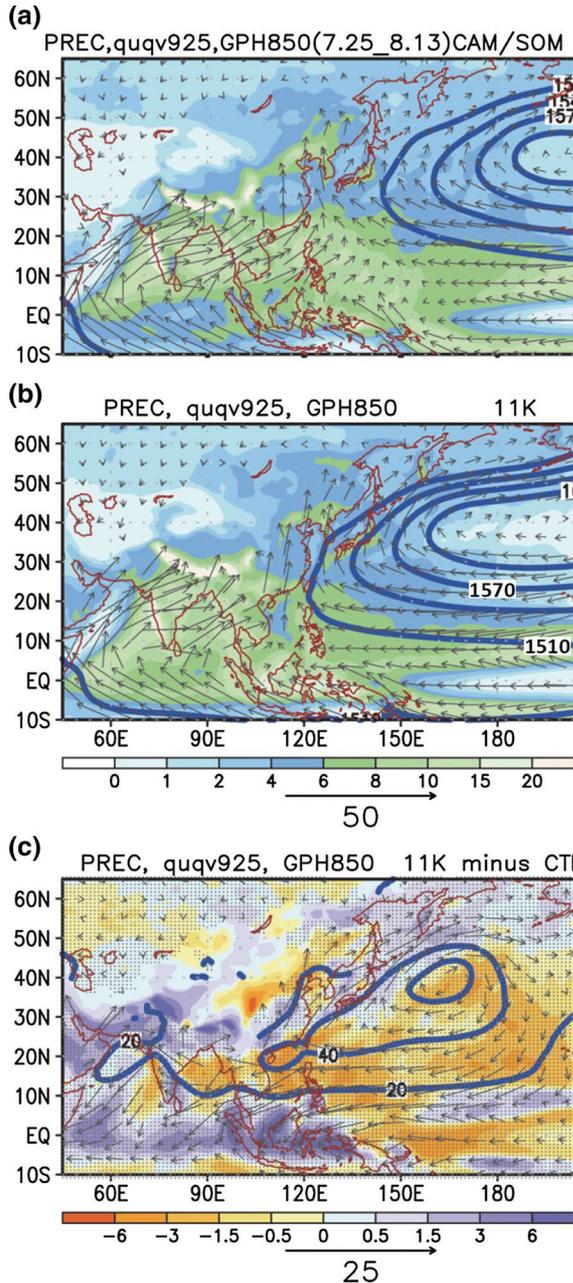


Fig. 8 Same as Fig. 7, but shows the results for 25 July to 13 August

spacestream, affects the WNP monsoon by the southward and westward intrusion of upper-level high PV. Prior to the WNP monsoon onset, convection is enhanced over the mid North Pacific associated with the high-PV evolution; the further expansion of the convection triggers the monsoon onset.

To illustrate the impact of precession on the extratropical disturbances in preconditioning the monsoon, Fig. 7 shows the key thermal and dynamical conditions from 25 June to 14 July. As noted before, the South and East Asian precipitation in the 11K simulation shifts markedly northward compared with that in the present-day simulation. This shift appears to be a result of a number of factors. First, the monsoonal lower-tropospheric moisture flux increases and penetrates further northwards (Fig. 7c). There is also an increase in the horizontal temperature advection in the midtroposphere into the Meiyu–Baiu region (30°N–40°N, not shown in the figure); Sampe and Xie (2010) argues

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space that this warm advection is a controlling factor in ascending motions (and hence precipitation) in the Meiyu–Baiu region. In the upper troposphere, the East Asian jet stream is weaker, shifts northward, and is confined over the continent; this is consistent with the anticyclonic circulation and high pressure anomaly in East Asia (Fig. 7f).

During 25 June to 14 July, the mid North Pacific upper-level trough is much deeper in the 11K simulation than in the present-day simulation (compare Fig. 7d with 7e). The deepened upper-level trough, which generally corresponds to a marked intrusion of high PV air, favors the development of pre-monsoon convection over the ocean. In response to precessional forcing, precipitation is enhanced over the subtropical WNP prior to the WNP monsoon onset, despite the lower-level monsoon trough not being formed. In the present-day climate, enhanced precipitation over the subtropical WNP deepens the upper-level trough (Fig. 7c, f), bringing about a positive feedback. The response of PV and vertical motion to the precessional forcing demonstrates the impact of the deepened trough. Along the 20°N–25°N latitudinal band (coinciding with the deepened upper-level trough) the PV is much greater in the 11K simulation than in the present-day simulation (not shown in the figure). Again, the increase in precipitation in this period over the subtropical WNP should not be interpreted as an earlier WNP monsoon onset because the monsoon trough is absent.

The stronger WNP high in the 11K simulation that continues into late July and August suppresses the development of the WNP monsoon trough. From 25 July to 13 August, when the present-day WNP monsoon occurs, there is no monsoon trough over the WNP in the 11K simulation (Fig. 8b). During this period, the South Asian high is much stronger and covers a much larger area (compare Fig. 8d with 8e), and precipitation increases markedly in the south-

ern Tibetan Plateau and North India (Fig. 8a–c). Because of precessional forcing, monsoon heating in South Asia is greatly enhanced after early summer. Over the Tibetan Plateau, atmospheric column-integrated diabatic heating is 35 % (23 %) greater from 25 June to 14 July (25 July to 13 August) in the 11K simulation than in the present-day simulation. The enhancement and northward shift of precipitation in South Asia as well as much higher heating over the Tibetan Plateau plays a crucial role in enhancing the WNP high.

The change seen in 25 June–14 July indicates a much weakened Meiyu–Baiu activity, and the change in 25 July–13 August indicates a much weakened or disappeared WNP summer monsoon. These changes seem to make the sub-seasonal northward march of the East Asia–WNP monsoon phase less apparent. The mid-summer monsoon transition seen in current climate might not be the case 11 ka BP.

5 spaceInterconnection of monsoon subsystems and impact of solar insolation change

5.1 Sensitivity to the monsoon heating of South Asia

Mantsis et al. (2013) simulated the large expansion of the summer anticyclone over the North Pacific during a precessional maximum and suggested that the remote diabatic heating associated with the strengthened summer monsoon in Southeast Asia and Africa could force the WNP high to expand. As shown in Figs. 7c and 8c, precipitation over the Himalayas and North India (60°E–100°E, 20°N–35°N; SA) and the Maritime Continent (90°E–135°E, 5°S–5°N; MC) increases markedly in the 11K simulation.

To test this idea, we investigate the simulated atmospheric response to the diabatic heating in these two regions from July to August using the SPEEDY model. The reasonable simulation of the mean July–August climatology shown in Fig. 9a, b demonstrates the ability of the model in evaluating the influence of anomalous heating. Three extra 100-year simulations are conducted by prescribing 0.5 K day⁻¹ heating in South Asia and the Maritime Continent, individually (SA, MC) and also combined (SA MC). The WNP high and upper-level jet stream response in the SPEEDY model to the imposed tropospheric heating (SA MC, Fig. 9g, h) is similarly to that seen in our CAM/SOM simulations, in particular an anomalous anticyclone over the WNP (compare Figs. 8c, 9g) and northeastern Asia (compare Figs. 8f, 9h).

Furthermore, by imposing the heating in different regions (see Fig. 9) we find that (1) the weakened lower-tropospheric westerly winds and reduced rainfall in subtropical South Asia between the Arabian Sea and South China Sea result from enhanced heating over the Maritime Continent; (2) the enhanced southerly winds and

rainfall over North India and the Bay of Bengal result from locally enhanced heating; and (3) the enhancement of the WNP high can be attributed to both heating changes: northern part by heating anomaly over South Asia, southern part by heating anomaly over the Maritime Continent.

5.2 Monsoon response to changing solar insolation

In consideration of the similar responses of the SPEEDY and CAM/SOM simulations, we continue to explore the monsoon response to changing solar insolation, with the solar constant varying between 331 and 354 W m⁻² by increments of 3 W m⁻². The idea here is to isolate the climate response to increasing insolation during the summertime Northern Hemisphere, similar to what happens during 11K. We acknowledge that the insolation forcing applied here differs from that caused by changes to the precessional

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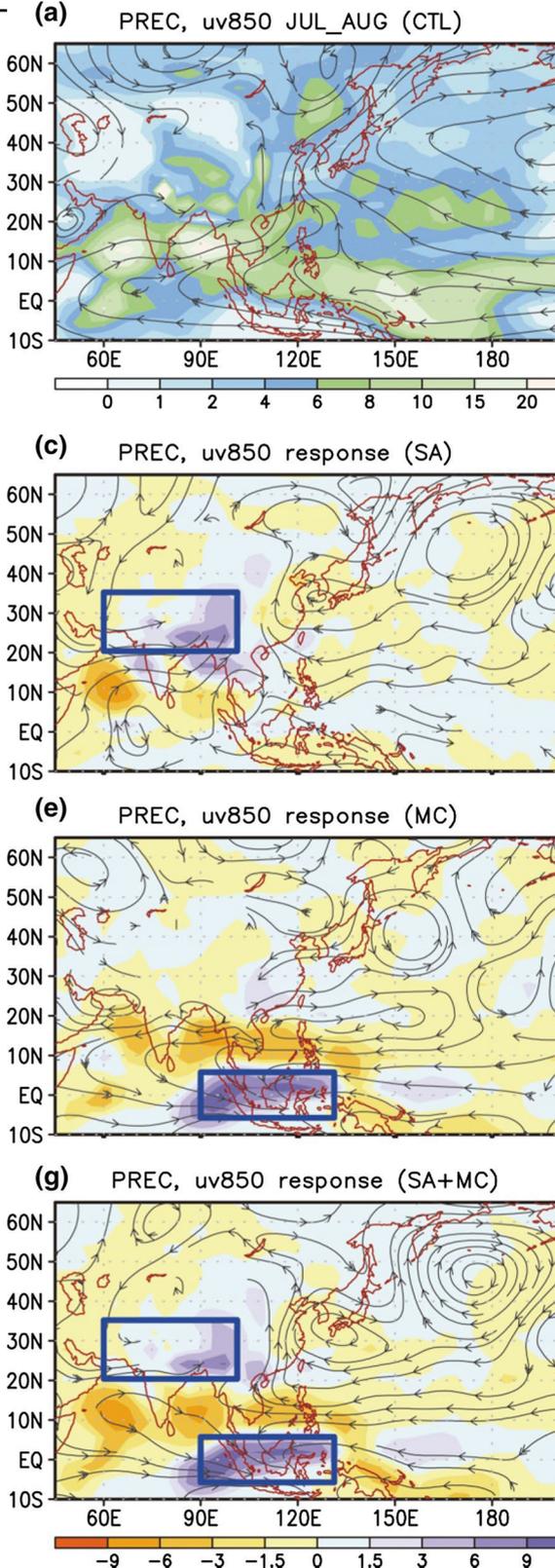


Fig. 9 **a** Precipitation (mm day^{-1}) and 850-hPa streamlines and **b** 200-hPa zonal winds and streamlines of SPEEDY control simulation from July to August. **c-h** Same as **a**, **b**, but shows the influence of

spaceanomalous heating by prescribing 0.5 K day^{-1} heating in South Asia and the Maritime Continent, individually (SA, MC) and also com- bined (SA + MC)

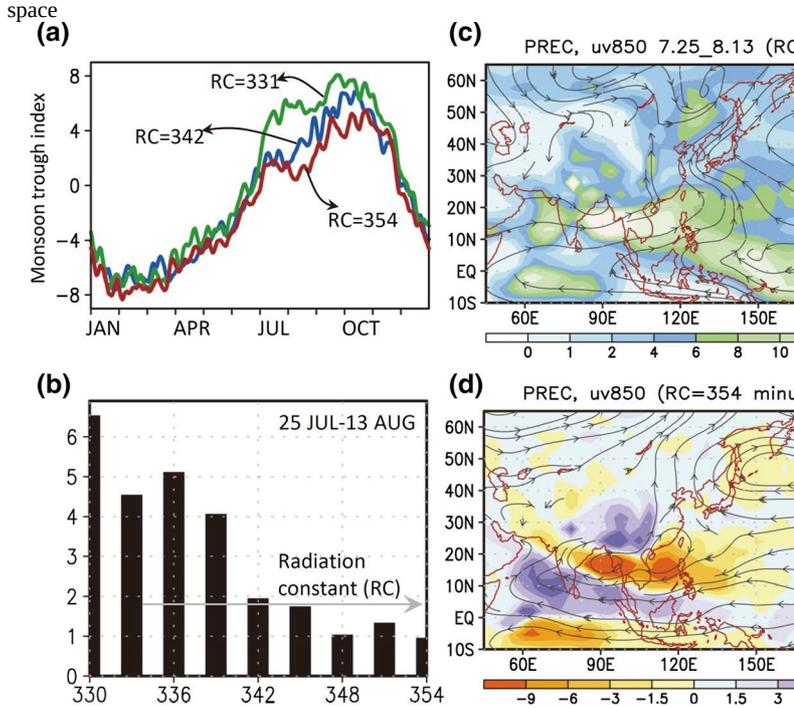


Fig. 10 **a** Temporal evolution of WNP monsoon index (identified in Fig. 3) of SPEEDY simulations; green, blue and red lines denote the response to radiation constants (RCs) of 331, 342, and 354 W m^{-2} , respectively. **b** Mean WNP monsoon index from 25 July to 13 August in response to the RC between 331 and 354 W m^{-2} in

spaceincrements of 3 W m^{-2} . **c** Precipitation (mm day^{-1}) and 850-hPa streamlines from 25 July to 13 August forced by RC 331 W m^{-2} . **e** Same as **c**, except 200-hPa zonal wind speeds (m s^{-1}) and stream- lines were applied. **d**, **f** Same as **c**, **e**, except the difference between RC = 354 W m^{-2} and RC = 331 W m^{-2}

space cycle in that insolation changes with the latter has sub-stantial latitudinal gradients as well as temporal variation; as such, this may limit the applicability of these idealized simulations to the 11K simulation. One unrealistic setup in our simulations compared to the precession effect is the constant insolation throughout the year. This has the largest potential impact on winter climate. Considering the small bias in insolation caused by this assumption, we assume the impact on the simulation results is minimal. As we will show below, the simulated changes in the summer monsoons are quite significant. These hypothetical simulations turn out to be informative in understanding the WNP monsoon response to insolation changes.

Considerable changes in both the strength and timing of onset of the WNP summer monsoon occur as a consequence of increasing the solar constant; the WNP monsoon is stronger and has earlier onsets when the insolation is weaker (Fig. 10a). The effect on the WNP monsoon strength from the solar constant changes appears to be largest during July and August. Between 25 July and 13 August, the

change in the strength of the WNP monsoon is not a linear response to the changing insolation. An insolation of approximately 342 W m^{-2} (Fig. 10b) seems to be a threshold: the WNP monsoon strengthens considerably

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when the insolation is weaker than 342 W m^{-2} . The potential mechanism is beyond the scope of this study, but will be explored in a future study.

The spatial changes associated with the WNP summer monsoon response to solar constants of 331 and 354 W m^{-2} are shown in Fig. 10c–f. The WNP monsoon trough and upper-level jet stream are much weaker (the monsoon trough only occurs near 125°E) in the 354 W m^{-2} simulation than in the 331 W m^{-2} simulation. Similar to the precessional response in the CAM/SOM simulation (Fig. 8c), precipitation in the 354 W m^{-2} simulation is reduced in response to the prevailing anticyclonic anomaly over the Bay of Bengal, South China Sea, and the WNP, but is enhanced to both north and south over the southern Tibetan Plateau and the tropical northern Indian Ocean (Fig. 10c, d). Correspondingly, the East Asian jet stream and tropical easterly are weaker (Fig. 10e, f). By contrast, the lower-tropospheric westerly is stronger in response to a decrease in solar insolation over the Indochina Peninsula, South China Sea, and the Philippine Sea; this observation is consistent with the presence of a deeper WNP monsoon trough and more precipitation over the region.

Thus, the SPEEDY result suggests—at least qualitatively—that the WNP summer monsoon is suppressed

northward relative to its current location (light blue m s^{-1} contours denote area where precipitation is enhanced). The upper-level Pacific trough is deeper, corresponding to the weaker upper-level jet stream

spacebecause of the direct effect of increased summertime Northern Hemisphere solar insolation. The question regarding the sensitivity of the WNP summer monsoon to insolation changes warrants further study, but is not done here.

6 Concluding remarks and discussion

A CAM/SOM simulation with 11 ka BP orbital forcing is conducted to investigate the impact of precessional changes on the WNP summer monsoon. Our key finding is that unlike the other Northern Hemisphere monsoon systems that increase in intensity when peak Northern Hemisphere summer insolation increases, the WNP summer monsoon actually weakens to the point where the WNP monsoon trough disappears. The reason for the weaker WNP monsoon is because the WNP high strengthens, which in turn has an adverse effect on the WNP summer monsoon. The WNP high strengthens as a consequence of the enhanced land–sea contrast between the Eurasian continent and the North Pacific. In addition, the increased diabatic heating over the southern Tibetan Plateau and the Maritime Continent also contribute to enhance the WNP high. These changes indicate an interconnection between the Asian-Pacific monsoon subsystems regarding orbital forcing; a strong South Asian summer monsoon may have had an effect on the weakening of the WNP summer monsoon. We used idealized simulations with the SPEEDY model to test the linkages proposed here, and the results support this finding. Besides, we also find that the extratropical

spaceinfluence on the WNP climate weakens after the land–sea thermal contrast becomes dominant.

Figure 11 summarizes the atmospheric responses to precessional change as well as the modulation of the WNP summer monsoon by showing a comparison of the results of the 11K and present-day CAM/SOM simulations. Due to the enhanced land–sea thermal contrast, the upper-tropospheric South Asian high and lower-tropospheric North Pacific high is much stronger. The upper-level jet stream weakens, shifts farther north, and is confined over the Asian continent; and precipitation in South Asia and East Asia markedly shifts northward relative to its present-day location. The northward shift of East Asian precipitation is related to the northward shift of the jet stream and expansion of the WNP high. Furthermore, the upper-level Pacific trough is deeper, corresponding to the weaker upper-level jet stream; this upper-level circulation change is consistent with the stronger triggering mechanism for the present-day WNP summer-monsoon onset. These atmospheric changes occur despite suppression of the WNP monsoon,

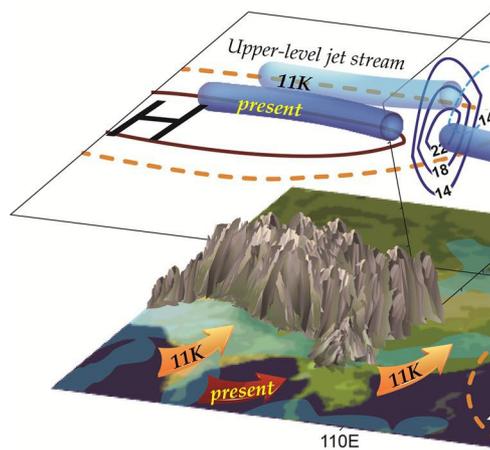


Fig. 11 Schematic diagram of the atmospheric response to the 11 ka BP solar forcing (light colors and dashed contours) from 25 July to 13 August. Compared with present-day conditions (dark colors and solid contours), the precession-enhanced land–sea thermal contrast results in much stronger upper-tropospheric South Asian high and lower-tropospheric North Pacific high. The upper-level jet stream

spaceweakens, shifts farther north, and is confined over the Asian continent (blue contours denote zonal wind speeds, m s^{-1}); and precipitation in South Asia and East Asia markedly shifts

apparently as a consequence of the stronger land–sea thermal contrast as well as the stronger WNP high resulting from enhanced diabatic heating over the southern Tibetan Plateau and the Maritime Continent.

In the 11K simulation, the stronger WNP high and weaker East Asian jet stream similarly occurs in the period prior to the WNP monsoon onset; correspondingly, the Meiyu–Baiu precipitation terminates earlier in late June. The mid-summer monsoon transition seen in present-day climate may not be the case 11 ka BP.

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A recent fully-coupled modeling study suggested that El Niño and Southern Oscillation (ENSO)-like forcing substantially affects the monsoon orbital-scale changes in the East Asia–WNP region. Shi et al. (2012) suggested that the precession-scale monsoon variability in East Asia may be influenced by surface cooling over the WNP and surface warming over the eastern tropical Pacific in winter and spring at times of precession maxima. Although a surface-cooling anomaly of the WNP is observed in spring (not shown in the figure) in our CAM/SOM simulation, the SST change is not significant in the eastern tropical Pacific. Internal oceanic feedback could significantly influence the monsoon response to precessional forcing (Caley et al. 2014); this feedback is not accounted for in this study, and warrants further study.

Acknowledgments This work was supported by the Consortium for Climate Change Study (CCliCS) under the auspices of the Ministry of Science and Technology (MOST), Taiwan, under grant MOST 100–2119–M–001–029–MY5 (CHW, HHH) and MOST 102–2611–M–001–006–(SYL). JC was also supported by NSF grant AGS-1405479. We acknowledge the use of the CESM (<http://www.cesm.ucar.edu>) of the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) and SPEEDY from the International Centre for Theoretical Physics (ICTP, <http://www.ictp.it/research/esp/models/speedy.aspx>), as well as data sets available from the Global Precipitation Climatology Project (GPCP) and National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP), and the National Center for High-performance Computing for computer time and facilities. We also thank the two anonymous reviewers for their constructive comments and suggestions and Ms. Hai-Wei Lin for preparing schematic diagram.

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