

# 1 Role of Indian Ocean basin mode in driving the interdecadal 2 variations of summer precipitation over the East Asian monsoon 3 boundary zone

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5 Jing Wang<sup>1,\*</sup>, Yanju Liu<sup>2</sup>, Fei Cheng<sup>3,\*</sup>, Chengyu Song<sup>4</sup>, Qiaoping Li<sup>5</sup>, Yihui Ding<sup>2</sup>, Xiangde Xu<sup>6</sup>

6 <sup>1</sup>Tianjin Key Laboratory for Oceanic Meteorology, and Tianjin Institute of Meteorological Science, Tianjin, China

7 <sup>2</sup>National Climate Center, China Meteorological Administration, Beijing, China

8 <sup>3</sup>Ningbo Meteorological Observatory, Ningbo, China

9 <sup>4</sup>Heilongjiang Climate Centre, Harbin, China

10 <sup>5</sup>CMA Earth System Modelling and Prediction Centre, Beijing, China

11 <sup>6</sup>State Key Laboratory of Severe Weather, Chinese Academy of Meteorological Sciences, Beijing, China

12  
13 Correspondence: Yanju Liu (liuyan@cmac.gov.cn)

14 \* Jing Wang and Fei Cheng contributed equally to this work.

15  
16 **Abstract.** Based on long-term observational and reanalysis datasets from 1901 through 2014, this study investigates the  
17 characteristics and physical causes of the interdecadal variations in the summer precipitation over the East Asian monsoon  
18 boundary zone (EAMBZ). Observational evidence reveals that, similarly to previous studies, the EAMBZ precipitation  
19 featured prominent interdecadal fluctuations, e.g., with dry summers during the periods preceding 1927, 1939–1945,  
20 1968–1982, and 1998–2010, and wet summers during the periods of 1928–1938, 1946–1967, and 2011 onwards. Further  
21 analyses identify that the Indian Ocean basin mode (IOBM) is a significant oceanic forcing responsible for the  
22 interdecadal variations of the EAMBZ precipitation, playing an independent and critical modulation role. When the cold  
23 phase of the IOBM occurs, an anomalous cyclonic circulation is excited around the northeast corner of the tropical Indian  
24 Ocean, which further induces a “north-low–south-high” meridional seesaw pattern over the Northeast China–subtropical  
25 western Pacific (SWP) sector. Such seesaw pattern is conducive to the enhanced EAMBZ precipitation through linking  
26 favorable environments for the transportation of water vapor from the SWP and the convergence over EAMBZ at  
27 interdecadal timescales. For this reason, a physical-empirical model for the EAMBZ precipitation is developed in terms  
28 of the IOBM cooling. Despite the fact that the extreme summer EAMBZ precipitation cannot be captured by this model,  
29 it can still well capture its interdecadal fluctuations and reflect their steady relationship. The key physical pathway  
30 connecting the IOBM cooling with the interdecadal variations of the summer EAMBZ precipitation is supported by the  
31 numerical results based on the large ensemble experiment and the Indian Ocean pacemaker experiment. Our findings may  
32 provide new insights into the understanding of the causes of the interdecadal variations in the summer EAMBZ  
33 precipitation, which may favor the long-term policy decision making for the local hydrometeorological planning.

## 34 35 1 Introduction

36  
37 The monsoonal airflows and mid-latitude westerlies are crucial components of the Asian climate system (Li and Zeng,  
38 2002; Ding and Chan, 2005; Wang et al., 2008; Wu et al., 2012; Huang et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2018;  
39 J. Huang et al., 2019). These two subsystems can synergistically induce regional precipitation fluctuations over  
40 subtropical and mid-latitude Asia during the Northern Hemisphere late spring (May) and summer (June–July–August;  
41 JJA) (Qian et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2021; Song et al., 2022; J. Wang et al., 2022). For example, Song et al. (2022) found  
42 that May precipitation over the southeastern extension of the Tibetan Plateau (TP) features notable year-to-year variations,  
43 which are physically linked to a unique interplay between the upstream mid-latitude westerlies and the Bay of Bengal

44 summer monsoon.

45

46 During the early stage of the northern summer, however, the mid-latitude westerlies shift poleward to the north of the TP  
47 abruptly (Yeh et al., 1959; Schiemann et al., 2009). In this context, westerlies of mid-latitude synoptic disturbance and  
48 southerlies of East Asian summer monsoon (EASM) collide with each other frequently over the East Asian monsoon  
49 boundary zone (EAMBZ) (Qian et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2018; J. Huang et al., 2019; Zeng and Zhang,  
50 2019; Chen et al., 2021; Q. Wang et al., 2021, 2022, 2023). It is essential to point out that although the EAMBZ domain  
51 largely overlaps the Northeast Asian area suggested by Si et al. (2021), the EAMBZ is defined from the perspective of  
52 the interaction between the mid-latitude westerly and the EASM [see Fig. 1 in Chen et al. (2021); also see the red box in  
53 Fig. 1 and associated description in Sect. 2.5.1], not from a geographical notion. Accordingly, the EAMBZ is a transitional  
54 climate zone between the EASM-controlled moist region and the westerly-dominated arid region over central Asia (Chen  
55 et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2018, 2021), stretching from the eastern flank of the TP to Mongolia and Northeast China. Notably,  
56 EAMBZ is a distinguished region with agrarian economy and animal husbandry, which is largely susceptible to water  
57 resource variations (Ou and Qian, 2006; Lu and Jia, 2013). Nevertheless, many studies reported that in the past century,  
58 the semi-arid EAMBZ underwent the most profound warming over East Asia, suffering from serious aridification and a  
59 high risk of desertification (J. Huang et al., 2017, 2019, 2020). In this regard, EAMBZ is deemed one of the “hotspots”  
60 highly sensitive to precipitation fluctuations (Qian et al., 2009; Lu and Jia, 2013; J. Huang et al., 2019). Given that the  
61 EAMBZ is of an ecologically fragile environment with water shortage, a deep understanding of the reasons for historical  
62 changes in summer EAMBZ precipitation could be a prerequisite for in situ ecological improvement and socioeconomic  
63 development.

64

65 Existing studies have well documented physical mechanisms responsible for the interannual variability of summer  
66 EAMBZ precipitation, highlighting the external moisture supply pathways, the modulators for the wet-dry condition  
67 variations [e.g., the mid-latitude westerlies within the Asian westerly jet, the western North Pacific subtropical high, and  
68 the EASM], and the remote modulation roles of large-scale teleconnected modes [e.g., Silk Road pattern/circumglobal  
69 teleconnection propagating along the westerly jet and the Eurasian teleconnection] and sea surface temperature (SST)  
70 anomaly patterns (Huang et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2018, 2021; Zhao et al., 2019a, 2019b, 2020; Q.  
71 Wang et al., 2021, 2022, 2023). For instance, Q. Wang et al. (2022) suggested that the positive phase of the Eurasian  
72 teleconnection is connected with a low pressure anomaly in the lower troposphere in EAMBZ and the Mongolia region,  
73 thus favoring enhanced summertime precipitation over EAMBZ; and meanwhile, the circumglobal teleconnection is  
74 positively coupled with the EAMBZ precipitation, with ascending motion anomalies over EAMBZ during its positive  
75 phase. Chen et al. (2021) established that the circulations (i.e., the mid-latitude westerlies and EASM) and the forcing of  
76 SST anomalies (SSTAs) can collectively regulate the summer EAMBZ precipitation variability. The variability of  
77 westerlies is largely modulated by the Silk Road pattern and the meridional displacement of the westerly jet; while the  
78 EASM variability is mainly modulated by the prior wintertime El Niño-Southern Oscillation. The synchronized effects  
79 of EASM and westerlies largely contribute to the rainfall variability in EAMBZ. Note that Chen et al. (2021) also pointed  
80 out that the Indian Ocean basin mode (IOBM) is simultaneously correlated with the EASM in boreal summer on the  
81 interannual timescale, which may be considered as a salient oceanic modulator for the summer EAMBZ precipitation  
82 variability. Nevertheless, they paid little attention to the physical mechanisms of how IOBM regulates the year-to-year  
83 EAMBZ precipitation. Moreover, Zhao et al. (2019a) found that the tropical northern Atlantic SSTAs have significant  
84 impacts on the August rainfall over the monsoon transitional zone in China through inducing a wavetrain over Eurasia  
85 and the western North Pacific anomalous anticyclone.

86

87 Compared with the extensively explored interannual variability of the JJA EAMBZ precipitation, less efforts have been  
88 devoted to its interdecadal variability. To understand and predict the summer EAMBZ precipitation, exploring its  
89 interdecadal variations and the underlying physical causes are also critical, which is the main focus of the present study.  
90 Previous studies suggested that the warm-season precipitation over many Asian areas features interdecadal fluctuations.  
91 For example, J. Wang et al. (2022) reported that the late spring (May) southeastern TP underwent wet conditions for  
92 1928–1961 and 1989–2003, and experienced dry conditions preceding 1927, 1962–1988, and 2004 onwards. Si and Ding  
93 (2016) documented that East Asia experienced dry summers from the early 1920s to the 1940s, while wet summers from  
94 the late 1900s to the early 1920s, in the 1950s, and from the 1980s to the 1990s. Piao et al. (2021) found that the decadal-  
95 filtered summer precipitation over Northeast Asia underwent a sudden decrease around the late 1990s. The interdecadal  
96 oceanic forcings for the interdecadal changes of the Asian summer rainfall are also extensively investigated, highlighting  
97 the crucial modulation roles of basin-scale SST modes of Atlantic multidecadal oscillation (Si et al., 2021), Pacific decadal  
98 oscillation/interdecadal Pacific oscillation (IPO) (Si and Ding, 2016), and IOBM (Zhang et al., 2018). Among these  
99 interdecadal oceanic forcings, it is essential to emphasize the IOBM, a dominant mode of SST variability in the tropical  
100 Indian Ocean (TIO) sector, which usually follows up a wintertime El Niño-Southern Oscillation event and persists into  
101 the summer through the capacitor effect (Klein et al., 1999; Yang et al., 2007; Xie et al., 2009). It is worth noting that the  
102 IOBM also features a basin-scale warming/cooling at interdecadal timescales (Han et al., 2014), exerting active impacts  
103 on the mid-latitude Asian climate (e.g., Wu et al., 2016; Li and Ma, 2018; Zhang et al., 2018; S. Wang et al., 2022). As  
104 for the interdecadal variations of the summer EAMBZ precipitation, we hope to answer the following two questions: 1)  
105 Did the JJA EAMBZ precipitation feature interdecadal variations? If so, 2) is there any intimate connection between  
106 IOBM and the EAMBZ precipitation at interdecadal timescales? As such, this study shall extend previous studies by  
107 exploring what extent and how the JJA IOBM modulate the concurrent EAMBZ precipitation variability at interdecadal  
108 timescales, with the aim of providing a novel understanding for the rainfall variability over the mid-latitude semi-arid  
109 zone in Asia. Note that we employ datasets with a centennial scale in this study [e.g., the precipitation data produced by  
110 the Climatic Research Unit (CRU) and the atmospheric circulation data from the Twentieth Century Reanalysis datasets].  
111 In comparison with the short-term datasets since the latter half of the 20th century, these long-term datasets can separate  
112 the interdecadal variability of EAMBZ precipitation from the externally forced global climate change caused by  
113 anthropogenic (e.g., greenhouse gas) and natural forcings (e.g., volcanic eruption) more effectively (Wu et al., 2016),  
114 which were widely used to investigate the physical causes of how internal fluctuations of the climate system modulate  
115 the interdecadal variations of precipitation over Asia (e.g., Wu et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2019a; Jiang et  
116 al., 2021; J. Wang et al., 2022).

117

118 The remainder of this paper is arranged as follows. Section 2 describes the datasets and methods used in this study. Section  
119 3 elucidates the characteristics of the interdecadal variations of summertime EAMBZ precipitation and the associated  
120 background circulations, illustrates the mechanisms of how IOBM modulates the EAMBZ precipitation, establishes a  
121 linear regression model using the IOBM to predict the interdecadal precipitation anomalies over EAMBZ, and verifies  
122 the IOBM-related physical processes using numerical model simulations. A summary of the major findings and further  
123 discussions are provided in Section 4.

124

## 125 2 Datasets and methods

126

### 127 2.1 Observational Data

128

129 Several monthly mean observational datasets are utilized in the present study, including (1) the global land high-resolution

130 gridded CRU time series precipitation dataset version 3.26 (CRU TS3.26; spatial resolution:  $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ ; Harris et al., 2014)  
 131 for 1901–2017, (2) the Extended Reconstructed SST version 5 (ERSSTv5; spatial resolution:  $2^\circ \times 2^\circ$ ; B. Huang et al., 2017)  
 132 for 1854–present derived from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA), and (3) atmospheric  
 133 variables derived from NOAA–Cooperative Institute for Research in Environmental Sciences (CIRES) Twentieth Century  
 134 Reanalysis version 2c (20CRv2c; spatial resolution:  $2^\circ \times 2^\circ$ ; Compo et al., 2011), except for the precipitation data, with  
 135 192 points in longitude and 94 points in latitude, for 1851–2014. Note that all observational datasets cover the common  
 136 time period of 1901–2014, which is the focused period in the present research.

137

## 138 2.2 Rossby wave source

139

140 Following Sardeshmukh and Hoskins (1988), the Rossby wave source (RWS) is calculated as:

$$141 \quad RWS = -\nabla \cdot [\mathbf{V}_\chi (\zeta + f)], \quad (1)$$

142 where  $\mathbf{V}_\chi$  is the divergent wind,  $\zeta$  is the relative vorticity, and  $f$  is the planetary vorticity.

143

## 144 2.3 Moisture flux and associated divergence

145

146 The vertically integrated horizontal water vapor transport ( $\langle WVT \rangle$ ) and WVT-associated divergence ( $\langle WVT\_div \rangle$ ) are  
 147 calculated using the following equations (Sun et al., 2019b; J. Wang et al., 2022):

$$148 \quad \langle WVT \rangle = -\frac{1}{g} \int_{P_s}^{300} q \vec{V} dp, \quad (2)$$

$$149 \quad \langle WVT\_div \rangle = -\frac{1}{g} \int_{P_s}^{300} \nabla_p \cdot (q \vec{V}) dp, \quad (3)$$

150 where  $\nabla_p \cdot ()$  denotes the horizontal divergence in the pressure coordinates;  $g$  is the gravitational acceleration;  $P_s$  is the

151 surface pressure;  $q$  is the specific humidity; and  $\vec{V} = (u, v)$  is the horizontal wind vector ( $u$  and  $v$  represent the zonal and

152 meridional winds, respectively).

153

## 154 2.4 Statistical methods

155

156 This study focuses on interdecadal fluctuations in variables. The data are 11-year low-pass filtered by adopting a Lanczos  
 157 filter (Duchon, 1979) to extract the corresponding interdecadal signal. Several statistical methods are used, including  
 158 empirical orthogonal function (EOF) analysis, composite analysis, correlation analysis, and linear regression analysis. A  
 159 two-tailed Student's  $t$  test is used to evaluate the statistical significance. Considering the 11-year low-pass filtered method  
 160 can significantly reduce the degrees of freedom of the data, the following approximation is therefore deployed to calculate  
 161 the effective degrees of freedom ( $N^{eff}$ ):

$$162 \quad \frac{1}{N^{eff}} \approx \frac{1}{N} + \frac{2}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \frac{N-j}{N} \rho_{XX}(j) \rho_{YY}(j), \quad (4)$$

163 where  $N$  is the sample size, and  $\rho_{XX}(j)$  and  $\rho_{YY}(j)$  are the autocorrelations of two sampled time series  $X$  and  $Y$ ,  
 164 respectively, at time lag  $j$  (Li et al., 2013).

165

166 In this study, we focus on the boreal summer season (JJA). All variables in observations and model simulations are  
167 linearly detrended before further calculations and analyses to exclude potential impacts of long-term trends.

168

## 169 2.5 Definitions

170

### 171 2.5.1 The research domain of EAMBZ

172

173 From the long-term (1901–2014) perspective of the climatological mean state of converged <WVT> and pronounced  
174 precipitation over the mid-latitude Asia, the EAMBZ (box in Figs. 1a and 1b; 35°–55°N, 105°–130°E) is defined as the  
175 collision and convergence zone between JJA dry westerly <WVT> and moist southwesterly <WVT> (Fig. 1a). As such,  
176 there exist wetter conditions over the EASM-dominated part and drier conditions over the westerly-controlled part (Fig.  
177 1b), suggesting the semi-arid transitional feature of EAMBZ (Xing and Wang, 2017). Our defined research domain of  
178 EAMBZ largely matches the monsoon boundary zone defined by Chen et al. (2021), covering Inner Mongolia, Gansu,  
179 Ningxia, Shaanxi, Shanxi, Hebei, Beijing, Tianjin, Shandong, Jilin, Liaoning, and Heilongjiang in China, as well as  
180 eastern Mongolia and Korean peninsula. Note that our focused EAMBZ domain differs from the Northeast Asian domain  
181 (29°–50°N, 108°–140°E) suggested by Si et al. (2021). Although they are extensively overlapped, the EAMBZ is located  
182 more westward and northward, and defined from the climatic system perspective, not from a pure geographical  
183 perspective. Since the areal mean precipitation over EAMBZ in boreal summer is the highest of the year accompanying  
184 the largest standard deviation (i.e., largest rainfall variability) (Fig. S1), the summer season is focused in the present study.

185

### 186 2.5.2 Climate indices

187

188 The IOBM index ( $I_{IOBM}$ ) is defined as areal mean SSTAs over the TIO domain of 20°S–20°N, 40°–100°E (Xie et al.,  
189 2009). The IPO index is calculated using a method identical to that defined in Henley et al. (2015), that is, the difference  
190 between SSTAs averaged over the central equatorial Pacific (10°S–10°N, 170°E–90°W) and the average of SSTAs in the  
191 northwest (25°–45°N, 140°E–145°W) and the southwest Pacific (50°S–15°S, 150°E–160°W). In observations,  
192 considering the coupled nature of IOBM and IPO at interdecadal timescales in boreal summer [cf. Fig. 2a in Wu et al.  
193 (2016)], we hence remove the potential influence of the contemporaneous IPO on precipitation via eliminating the forcing  
194 of IPO from the data of climate variables based on the partial regression technique, which is widely used in previous  
195 studies (e.g., Dou and Wu, 2018; J. Wang et al., 2022).

196

## 197 2.6 Model simulations

198

199 To validate our proposed mechanisms of how the TIO SSTAs (i.e., IOBM-associated SSTAs) remotely modulate the  
200 summer EAMBZ precipitation on interdecadal timescales, following the method of Zhang et al. (2019) and Yang et al.  
201 (2020), we adopt monthly mean outputs from two experiments of the Community Earth System Model version 1 (CESM1),  
202 which is a fully coupled Earth system model incorporating components of atmosphere, ocean, land, and sea ice (Hurrell  
203 et al., 2013).

204

205 The first experiment is the CESM1 Large Ensemble Numerical Simulation (referred to as CESM1\_LENS; Kay et al.,  
206 2015). Among total 40 ensemble members in CESM1\_LENS (Yang et al., 2020), we use the first 35 individual members  
207 according to many previous studies (e.g., Touma et al., 2021; J. Wang et al., 2023), which were completed at the climate  
208 modeling center of National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR). Note that all ensemble members in

209 CESM1\_LENS were imposed with the same radiative forcing scenario (Taylor et al., 2012), with historical forcing for  
210 1920–2005 and high-emission forcing scenario (i.e., Representative Concentration Pathway 8.5) for 2006–2080 (Moss et  
211 al., 2010; Touma et al., 2021). The ensemble members were further generated with slightly differentiated perturbations  
212 of atmospheric states (Kay et al., 2015; Touma et al., 2021). The second experiment is the CESM1 Indian Ocean  
213 Pacemaker Ensemble Simulation (referred to as CESM1\_IOPES), with 10 ensemble members (Zhang et al., 2019; Yang  
214 et al., 2020). We adopt CESM1\_IOPES to highlight the impact of SSTAs over the broader TIO domain (15°S–15°N,  
215 African coast to 174°E). For the convenience of subsequent calculations and analyses, the African coast is designated as  
216 40°E in this study, and a small change in the longitudes regarding the African coast may not affect the main results.

217  
218 As indicated by Yang et al. (2020), the CESM1\_LENS 35-member ensemble mean results can better provide an estimate  
219 of the influence of the due to external perturbations such as greenhouse gases on the climate system. Furthermore, the 10-  
220 member ensemble mean results in CESM1\_IOPES contain the responses to both the time-evolving radiative forcing due  
221 to external perturbations and the restored observed time-varying SSTAs over the above broader TIO domain (Yang et al.,  
222 2020). Note that though the ozone forcing data used in CESM1\_IOPES differ from those in CESM1\_LENS, the  
223 differences in the corresponding simulated tropical and extratropical climates were indistinguishable (e.g., Schneider et  
224 al., 2015; Schneider and Deser, 2018; Zhang et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2020). Therefore, by subtracting the CESM1\_LENS  
225 ensemble mean from the CESM1\_IOPES ensemble mean (i.e., removing the shared radiative forcing described above),  
226 we can obtain the response of the climate system to the internal variability stemming from the time-varying SSTAs over  
227 the specific TIO, isolating the intrinsic climate variability driven by TIO SSTAs through excluding the impacts of the  
228 time-evolving external radiative forcing. More details about CESM1\_LENS and CESM1\_IOPES can be found in Kay et  
229 al. (2015) and Yang et al. (2020), respectively. The variables employed here comprise precipitation and wind in  
230 atmosphere component of Community Atmospheric Model version 5, with a spatial resolution of 1.25° in longitude and  
231 0.9° in latitude; and SST in the ocean component of Parallel Ocean Program version 2, with 320 grids in longitude and  
232 384 grids in latitude. Before further analyses, model outputs are interpolated at a resolution of 2°×2° using a bilinear  
233 interpolation method (Mastyło, 2013), identical to that of 20CRv2c. In the current study, we focus on the historical  
234 simulation period of 1920–2005.

235  
236 Here, it is important to stress the following two points. First, although the TIO domain in CESM1\_IOPES is broader than  
237 that for defining  $I_{IOBM}$ , there exist highly consistent temporal variations in SSTAs between them in observations (Fig. S2)  
238 and simulations (Fig. S3) at interdecadal timescales, with temporal correlation coefficients (TCCs) of 0.93 and 0.87 ( $P <$   
239 0.01), respectively. Second, when selecting the SSTAs over the broader TIO domain (purple box in Fig. S4) as a metric,  
240 it can be found that the observed (Fig. S4a) and modelled (Fig. S4b) large and intense loadings of the positive SSTAs are  
241 still concentrated around the narrower TIO domain (black box in Fig. S4). As such, it is plausible to adopt the above-  
242 mentioned Indian Ocean pacemaker experiment with broader TIO SSTAs to validate our proposed mechanisms tied to  
243 the interdecadal IOBM variations.

## 244 245 3 Results

### 246 247 3.1 Observed interdecadal variations of the summer precipitation over EAMBZ and related 248 background circulations

249  
250 Figure 1c plots the spatial distribution of the interdecadal standard deviation of precipitation. This distribution is quite  
251 similar to that of the climatology (Fig. 1b), suggesting relatively strong (weak) interdecadal precipitation fluctuations

252 over the EASM-dominated (westerly-controlled) part of the EAMBZ. Moreover, we show the first EOF mode of JJA-  
253 mean EAMBZ precipitation (Fig. 1d), which accounts for 28% of the total variance and distinguishes from the remaining  
254 eigenvectors according to the criterion defined by North et al. (1982). The leading EOF mode bears close resemblance to  
255 the standard deviation of the EAMBZ precipitation on interdecadal timescales (Figs. 1c and 1d), with larger loadings  
256 occupying the Bohai Sea and Korean peninsula and their adjoining regions. The interdecadal TCC between the principal  
257 component of the EOF1 and area-averaged precipitation over the research domain of EAMBZ ( $35^{\circ}$ – $55^{\circ}$ N,  $105^{\circ}$ – $130^{\circ}$ E)  
258 [EAMBZ precipitation index ( $I_{EAMBZP}$  for short); Fig. 1e] is 0.93 ( $P < 0.001$ ). The aforementioned results indicate that  
259 that our defined  $I_{EAMBZP}$  can serve as a good indicator of the predominant fluctuations in the precipitation anomalies over  
260 EAMBZ at interdecadal timescales. As such, from the time series of 11-year low-passed filtered  $I_{EAMBZP}$  (Fig. 1e), we can  
261 observe that the summer EAMBZ precipitation delineates notable interdecadal fluctuations. For example, EAMBZ  
262 experienced dry summers during the periods preceding 1927, 1939–1945, 1968–1982, and 1998–2010, but underwent  
263 wet summers during the periods of 1928–1938, 1946–1967, and 2011 onwards. Note that to some extent, the observed  
264 major interdecadal fluctuation periods of summertime EAMBZ precipitation are dissimilar from those tied to summertime  
265 Northeast Asian precipitation revealed by observations (1900–2012) from 11 local meteorological stations (Si et al., 2021),  
266 e.g. the above-normal precipitation over EAMBZ (Fig. 1e) vs. the below-normal precipitation over Northeast Asia around  
267 1990 (Si et al., 2021; their Fig. 2a).

268

269 Before examining the modulation of IOBM on the interdecadal EAMBZ precipitation fluctuations, it is essential to  
270 scrutinize the JJA-mean  $I_{EAMBZP}$ -associated circulation anomalies. The highest mid-latitude positive correlation region  
271 can be discerned north of the TP ( $38^{\circ}$ – $46^{\circ}$ N,  $80^{\circ}$ – $112.5^{\circ}$ E; blue box in Fig. 2a), suggesting that the interdecadal  
272 enhancement of the summer EAMBZ precipitation is intimately correlated with the acceleration of the upstream mid-  
273 latitude westerlies at 400 hPa. In light of the method of Chen et al. (2021) and J. Wang et al. (2022), we correlate the  
274  $I_{EAMBZP}$  with the zonal winds averaged over the longitudinal range of EAMBZ at multiple levels (Fig. 2b) to further check  
275 whether the most significant correlation occurs at 400 hPa. Evidently, on interdecadal timescales, the largest positive  
276 correlation between precipitation and mid-latitude westerlies within  $38^{\circ}$ – $46^{\circ}$ N does occur at the mid-tropospheric level  
277 of 400 hPa, with a TCC of 0.46 ( $P < 0.01$ ) between the  $I_{EAMBZP}$  and areal mean 400-hPa zonal winds over the upstream  
278 westerly-dominated domain (Fig. 2c). Note that this correlation pattern exhibits a barotropic structure (Fig. 2b).  
279 Additionally, we correlate the  $I_{EAMBZP}$  with the 850-hPa meridional winds. The  $I_{EAMBZP}$  is positively correlated with the  
280 key monsoonal southerly domain east of the TP ( $25^{\circ}$ – $33^{\circ}$ N,  $102.5^{\circ}$ – $112.5^{\circ}$ E; green box in Fig. 2d), which is located in  
281 the western portion of the EASM domain (Ying et al., 2023). The interdecadal correlation pattern between meridional  
282 winds and the summer EAMBZ precipitation at multiple levels exhibits a baroclinic structure, with the significant positive  
283 correlations confined below 500 hPa (Fig. 2e). Note that the strongest positive correlation is detected at 850 hPa within  
284  $102.5^{\circ}$ – $112.5^{\circ}$ E, with a TCC of 0.63 (Fig. 2f;  $P < 0.001$ ) between  $I_{EAMBZP}$  and areal mean 850-hPa meridional winds over  
285 the key EASM-controlled domain (Fig. 2d).

286

287 Figure 3 gives the JJA-mean  $I_{EAMBZP}$ -regressed circulation anomalies at interdecadal timescales. The interdecadal  
288 enhancement of the EAMBZ precipitation is significantly linked to a localized quasi-barotropic cyclonic (low-pressure)  
289 anomaly. At 400 hPa, significant westerly anomalies prevail in its southern flank, inducing the acceleration of westerlies  
290 upstream of EAMBZ (Fig. 3a). At 850 hPa, the enhanced EAMBZ precipitation is connected to a north-south meridional  
291 seesaw pattern, with a significant anticyclonic (high-pressure) anomaly over the subtropical western Pacific (SWP) and a  
292 significant cyclonic anomaly over EAMBZ (Fig. 3b), exhibiting a somewhat barotropic structure (Figs. 3a and 3b).  
293 Significant southerly anomalies prevail in the western flank of this SWP clockwise gyre anomaly (SWPCGA). Moreover,  
294 from the perspective of  $\langle WVT \rangle$  (Fig. 3c), the magnitudes of southerly  $\langle WVT \rangle$  anomalies over the key EASM-controlled

295 domain tied to the SWPCGA are much greater than the westerly  $\langle WVT \rangle$  anomalies over the westerly-dominated domain.  
296 Note that the southerly  $\langle WVT \rangle$  anomalies are significantly divergent, pushing copious amounts of warm and moist vapor  
297 over the SWP into EAMBZ. Then, with the aid of the local anticlockwise  $\langle WVT \rangle$  gyre pattern (Fig. 3c), the EASM  
298 southerlies from the low latitudes, which bring warm temperature advection anomalies, may easily collide with the mid-  
299 level cold temperature advection anomalies brought by mid-latitude enhanced westerlies (Figs. 4a and 4b), manifesting  
300 the extratropical–tropical interplay around EAMBZ on interdecadal timescales. Such interplay is basically aligned with  
301 that on interannual timescales (cf. Chen et al., 2021). Under such environments, atmospheric instability over EAMBZ can  
302 be triggered to generate in situ significant ascending motion anomalies responsible for increased precipitation (Fig. 5a).  
303 Note that considering the greater magnitudes of anomalies of  $\langle WVT \rangle$  and warm temperature advection connected to the  
304 southerlies over the key EASM-controlled domain, we presume that the monsoonal southerlies play a predominant  
305 dynamical role in the interdecadal enhancement of precipitation over EAMBZ. To verify this presumption, we further  
306 propose an East Asian monsoon index ( $I_{MI}$  for short), defined as the areal mean meridional winds at 850 hPa over the key  
307 monsoonal southerly domain, and a westerly index ( $I_{WI}$  for short), defined as the areal mean 400-hPa zonal winds over  
308 the upstream westerly-dominated region. The  $I_{MI}$ -regressed results can well and realistically reproduce the magnitudes  
309 and distributions of the anomalous upward motions tied to  $I_{EAMBZP}$  (Fig. 5b vs. 5a). However, the magnitudes of  $I_{WI}$ -  
310 regressed results are highly weakened, along with the major loadings shifting more southward (Fig. 5c). Above results  
311 could allow us to conclude that the anomalous southerlies over the key monsoonal southerly domain could be the  
312 predominant driving factor for the interdecadal enhancement of summer EAMBZ precipitation, whereas the upstream  
313 accelerated westerlies play a secondary dynamical amplification role.

314

### 315 3.2 Interdecadal relationship between IOBM and the summer EAMBZ precipitation

316

317 Many previous studies have substantiated that the IOBM can remotely modulate summer rainfall fluctuations over the  
318 mid-latitude Asia at interdecadal timescales (e.g., Zhang et al., 2018; S. Wang et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2022). Note that the  
319 existing studies primarily highlighted the impacts of IOBM on the summer rainfall variations over northwest portion of  
320 the mid-latitude Asia a (e.g., S. Wang et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2022). As for the work of Zhang et al. (2018), although this  
321 study focused the northeast portion of the mid-latitude Asia including the EAMBZ, it highlighted the combined roles of  
322 IOBM, AMO and PDO. In the present study, however, we identify that it is the IOBM that may exert profoundly  
323 simultaneous impacts on the interdecadal variations of the EAMBZ precipitation in boreal summer, which will be revealed  
324 subsequently.

325

326 Figure 6a exhibits the correlation pattern between the JJA-mean  $I_{EAMBZP}$  and the contemporaneous global gridded SST at  
327 interdecadal timescales. The most pronounced and significant correlations are found in the TIO sector, which largely  
328 matches the domain for delineating the IOBM mode (black frame in Fig. 6a). There exists a salient out-of-phase  
329 relationship between the interdecadal EAMBZ precipitation changes and the IOBM mode, with a TCC of  $-0.57$  between  
330  $I_{EAMBZP}$  and  $I_{IOBM}$  (Fig. 6b;  $P < 0.01$ ). This result suggests that IOBM warming (cooling) is significantly connected with  
331 dry (wet) EAMBZ summers, which serves as a critical oceanic modulator. On interdecadal timescales, the IOBM can  
332 remotely spark conducive dynamical circumstances for increased precipitation over EAMBZ, i.e., the collision between  
333 cold and warm airflows around EAMBZ (Figs. 4c and 4d) and the locally significant convergent ascending motion  
334 anomalies resembled those tied to the positive  $I_{EAMBZP}$  (Fig. 5d vs. 5a). However, the extratropical cold (tropical warm)  
335 temperature advection anomalies west (south) of the EAMBZ, which are tied to the strengthened westerlies (southerlies),  
336 are quite insignificant (significant) (Figs. 4c and 4d). This indicates that the IOBM may exerts a more profound influence  
337 on the southerly wind anomalies over the EASM-controlled domain, which is more important for enhanced EAMBZ



338 precipitation; whereas the IOBM may insignificantly modulate the westerly anomalies over the westerly-dominated  
339 region. The possible underlying mechanisms of how IOBM links the summertime circulation anomalies responsible for  
340 the interdecadal fluctuations in the EAMBZ precipitation will be illuminated in the next subsection.

341

### 342 3.3 Possible mechanisms

343

344 Figure 7 shows partial regression of the JJA-mean anomalies of SST and large-scale precipitation over TIO and its  
345 neighboring areas onto the  $I_{IOBM}$  at interdecadal timescales with the IPO forcing removed. Corresponding to higher  $I_{IOBM}$   
346 years, warm SSTAs cover almost all areas of TIO, with large loadings appearing in the central-southern TIO and relatively  
347 small loadings appearing in the northern TIO (Fig. 7a), which are aligned with the previous studies (Wu et al., 2016; Y.  
348 Huang et al., 2019). Moreover, there are striking suppressed precipitation around the northeast corner of the TIO domain  
349 (Fig. 7b), suggesting profoundly localized atmospheric responses (viz. the release of regional anomalous atmospheric  
350 cooling) to the warm TIO SSTAs. Note that corresponding to cold TIO SST years, there exist positive precipitation  
351 anomalies around the northeast corner of TIO, suggesting the release of anomalous atmospheric heating (figure not  
352 shown). Since the significant out-of-phase relationship between summertime IOBM and EAMBZ precipitation at  
353 interdecadal timescales, we adopt negative  $I_{IOBM}$ -regressed patterns to express the influence of cold SSTAs over the TIO  
354 region. Figure 8 displays the anomalous patterns of the RWS, velocity potential, and divergent horizontal winds regressed  
355 onto the negative  $I_{IOBM}$ . The velocity potential anomalies with larger negative (positive) loadings in the upper (lower)  
356 troposphere are concentrated surrounding the northeast corner of TIO. Under these circumstances, local upper (lower)  
357 tropospheric divergence (convergence) and negative (positive) RWS anomalies can be observed (Fig. 8), suggesting  
358 enhanced ascending motions and convection activities in situ and thereby exciting the localized increased  
359 precipitation/atmospheric heating. The above results indicate that IOBM cooling may transmit its interdecadal influence  
360 via the intermediate atmospheric bridge of enhanced convective activities around the northeast corner of TIO, exerting a  
361 remote modulation on an interdecadal enhancement of the EAMBZ rainfall.

362

363 Next, we further discuss the physical pathway linking IOBM cooling with the far-reaching downstream circulation  
364 anomalies responsible for the interdecadal enhancement of EAMBZ precipitation, as shown in Fig. 9. Because the  
365 cyclonic anomaly at 400 hPa shifts more eastward compared to the  $I_{EAMBZP}$ -regressed counterpart (Fig. 9a vs. 3a), only  
366 fractional westerly anomalies occupy the eastern part of the westerly-dominated region. The TCC between  $I_{IOBM}$  and  $I_{WI}$   
367 is nearly equal to zero ( $r = -0.06$ ), thus linking the insignificant cold temperature advection displayed in Fig. 4c.  
368 Nevertheless, in the lower troposphere, a “north-low–south-high” meridional seesaw pattern over the Northeast China–  
369 SWP sector is found to be linked with IOBM cooling (Fig. 9b). Note that this negative  $I_{IOBM}$ -regressed seesaw pattern  
370 exhibits a quasi-barotropic structure, with an anticlockwise  $\langle WVT \rangle$  gyre in the north and a SWPCGA in the south (Fig.  
371 9c), which is highly similar to that shown in Fig. 3. Significant anomalies of 850-hPa meridional winds and southerly  
372  $\langle WVT \rangle$  prevail over the key monsoonal southerly domain, lying on the western flank of SWPCGA (Figs. 9b and c). The  
373 TCC between  $I_{IOBM}$  and  $I_{MI}$  is  $-0.33$ , significant at 0.05 on interdecadal timescales, thereby linking the significant warm  
374 temperature advection anomalies indicated in Fig. 4d.

375

376 One may ask how IOBM cooling induces the above-mentioned meridional seesaw pattern. Previously, we have revealed  
377 that negative SSTAs over TIO may exert remote interdecadal impacts through an atmospheric bridge, i.e., vigorous  
378 convective activities around the northeast corner of TIO (Figs. 7 and 8). In effect, there exists a low-level cyclonic  
379 anomaly in situ (Fig. 9b). Such cyclonic anomaly can be interpreted as a typical Gill–Matsuno-type response (Matsuno,  
380 1966; Gill, 1980) to the regional anti-symmetric atmospheric heating caused by IOBM cooling with the coldest center

381 located south of the equator, which is more clear within the lower levels (Fig. 9b). As a result, consistent easterly  
 382 anomalies appear from SWP to its northern flank around 15°N, denoting the active role of depressed air pressure. The  
 383 consistent easterly anomalies over SWP could lead to local anticyclonic wind shear anomalies (Wang et al., 2019). In  
 384 such a scenario, a quasi-barotropic SWPCGA can be induced (Fig. 9c). Further, local downward motions tied to SWPCGA  
 385 could induce significant upward motions to its north via a meridional overturning circulation (J. Wang et al., 2021), thus  
 386 exciting a quasi-barotropic cyclonic anomaly and an anticlockwise <WVT> gyre pattern centered over Northeast China  
 387 (Figs. 9a–c). Therefore, positive summertime rainfall anomalies over EAMBZ at interdecadal timescales can be induced  
 388 (Fig. 9d). Notably, circulation and precipitation anomalies during the warm phase years of the IOBM (Fig. S5) highly  
 389 mirror those tied to the IOBM cooling with opposite signs.

390

### 391 3.4 Results from CESM1 simulations

392

393 In this subsection, we use the pacemaker experimental data based on the ensemble mean of CESM1\_IOPES and  
 394 CESM1\_LENS to validate our proposed mechanisms regarding the modulation of IOBM cooling on the interdecadal  
 395 enhancement of summer EAMBZ precipitation. Considering the predominant role of southerly anomalies over the key  
 396 monsoonal southerly domain, we therefore emphasize the low-level (850 hPa) atmospheric anomalies at interdecadal  
 397 timescales tied to the IOBM-like SST cooling, as depicted in Fig. 10. We can observe a clearly anomalous cyclonic  
 398 circulation around the northeast corner of TIO, accompanied by local positive precipitation anomalies and easterly  
 399 anomalies that stretch from SWP to its northern flank, which are generally resembled those in the observation (Fig. 9). In  
 400 this circumstance, a similar “north-low–south-high” meridional seesaw pattern over the Northeast China–SWP sector can  
 401 be simulated to spark and sustain the enhanced EAMBZ precipitation in boreal summer (Fig. 10). In summary, by and  
 402 large, the ensemble mean composite results can well reproduce the observed anomalous circulation and precipitation  
 403 driven by IOBM-related SSTAs, confirming the crucial role of IOBM cooling in driving enhanced summer precipitation  
 404 over EAMBZ at interdecadal timescales.

405

### 406 3.5 Estimation of the interdecadal variations of summer EAMBZ precipitation

407

408 In the last three subsections, we suggest that the IOBM cooling can serve as a significant oceanic modulator for increased  
 409 summer EAMBZ precipitation at interdecadal timescales based on observation evidences and pacemaker experiments,  
 410 and present the corresponding physical mechanisms. To estimate their steady antiphase relationship, in the following, the  
 411 negative  $I_{IOBM}$  is selected to construct a physical-based empirical model by using the simple linear regression analysis and  
 412 the cross-validation method (You and Jia, 2018; Chang et al., 2021; Jeong et al., 2021), representing the impact of IOBM  
 413 cooling. The physical-based model is given as follows:

414

$$415 I_{EAMBZP} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 I_{IOBM} + \varepsilon, \quad (5)$$

416

417 where  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  are regression coefficients, and  $\varepsilon$  denotes the residuals. The time series of  $I_{EAMBZP}$  and  $I_{IOBM}$  are detrended  
 418 and 11-year low-pass filtered beforehand.

419

420 Following the method of Jeong et al. (2021), a “leaving one out” cross-validation strategy is employed to determine the  
 421 robustness of the hindcast estimates. The normalized time series of summer  $I_{EAMBZP}$  and associated leave-one-out cross-  
 422 validated hindcast estimates are shown in Fig. 11. The TCC between the physical-based predicted hindcast estimates (blue  
 423 line) and the observed  $I_{EAMBZP}$  (red line) for 1901–2014 can reach 0.56 ( $P < 0.05$ ), suggesting that the physical-based

424 model can well capture the interdecadal  $I_{\text{EAMBZP}}$  variations and reflect their steady relationship.

425

426 Although our proposed physical-based empirical model could confirm the concurrently intimately interdecadal  
427 relationship between IOBM and EAMBZ precipitation, we should acknowledge the shortcomings of the model.  
428 First, the amplitudes of the hindcast estimates are fairly lower, which cannot well capture the extreme precipitation  
429 years (e.g., years around 1960; Fig. 11). Second, the simultaneous forcing of IOBM cannot be served as a predictor  
430 for summertime EAMBZ precipitation variations. As such, this model inherently lacks the ability to predict the  
431 interdecadal EAMBZ precipitation anomalies in advance.

432

## 433 4 Conclusions and discussion

434

435 In this study, by analysis of the long-term observational and reanalysis datasets during 1901–2014, the temporal  
436 characteristics of interdecadal variations in the summer EAMBZ precipitation and associated circulation background are  
437 revealed. The potential modulation of IOBM on the variations is further discussed. As a summary of our major findings,  
438 Fig. 12 schematically synthesizes how IOBM-associated SST mode remotely drives the interdecadal precipitation  
439 fluctuations via a tropical route.

440

441 The summer EAMBZ precipitation exhibited a salient interdecadal fluctuations, e.g., with dry summers during the periods  
442 preceding 1927, 1939–1945, 1968–1982, and 1998–2010, as well as wet summers during the periods of 1928–1938,  
443 1946–1967, and 2011 onwards. It is indicated that the cold airflows brought by the mid-latitude accelerated upstream  
444 westerlies over the westerly-dominated domain collide and converge with the warm and humid airflows brought by the  
445 enhanced southerlies over the key EASM-controlled domain, suggesting the local extratropical–tropical interplay. Further  
446 diagnostic results suggest that the monsoonal southerly anomalies could be viewed as the predominant driving factor for  
447 the interdecadal enhancement of EAMBZ precipitation, whereas the upstream westerlies play a secondary dynamical  
448 amplification role. Such circulation anomalies are closely linked to a “north-low–south-high” meridional seesaw pattern  
449 over the Northeast China–SWP sector, which provides favorable environments for the transportation of water vapor from  
450 the SWP and the convergence over EAMBZ to spark enhanced summer EAMBZ precipitation at interdecadal timescales.

451

452 We further identify that the IOBM-related SST anomaly pattern is a salient oceanic forcing for the interdecadal variations  
453 of the summer EAMBZ precipitation via the Gill–Matsuno mechanism, playing an independent and critical modulation  
454 role. When the cold phase of the IOBM occurs, an anomalous cyclonic circulation is excited around the northeast corner  
455 of TIO in terms of the regional anti-symmetric atmospheric heating. As a response, consistent easterly anomalies appear  
456 from SWP to its northern flank, leading to local anticyclonic wind shear anomalies and thus inducing a SWPCGA pattern  
457 and a resultant anticlockwise gyre pattern centered over Northeast China. On interdecadal timescales, such meridional  
458 seesaw pattern tied to the IOBM cooling is responsible for enhanced summer precipitation over EAMBZ through linking  
459 the predominant driving factor of strengthened monsoonal southerly anomalies west of the SWPCGA pattern. As such,  
460 the water vapor transportation from the SWP and the convergence over EAMBZ can be triggered to induce and sustain  
461 the enhancement local precipitation. Correspondingly, a physical-based model based the negative  $I_{\text{IOBM}}$  is constructed,  
462 which can well capture the interdecadal fluctuations in the EAMBZ precipitation and reflect their steady relationship.  
463 Furthermore, the results based on the large ensemble experiment and the Indian Ocean pacemaker experiment also  
464 confirm the crucial physical pathway linking the SST variations over TIO with the summer precipitation over EAMBZ  
465 via the influence of SST variations on the aforementioned meridional seesaw pattern at interdecadal timescales.

466

467 The following two points deserve further discussion. First, although results from CESM1\_LENS and CESM1\_IOPES  
468 can reasonably confirm our proposed physical pathway of how IOBM cooling exerts a distant modulation on the  
469 interdecadal enhancement of summer precipitation over EAMBZ, we can still notice the weakness of the model  
470 simulations. That is, positive precipitation anomalies around the northeast corner of TIO and the easterly anomalies  
471 exhibit weaker magnitudes compared to the observations (Fig. 10 vs. 7b and 9b). Besides, systematic biases exist  
472 regarding the simulated positions of the upper (lower) tropospheric divergence (convergence) and negative (positive)  
473 RWS anomalies (Fig. S6), manifesting themselves in the eastward displacement tendency in contrast to those around the  
474 northeast corner of the TIO (Fig. 8).

475

476 Second, this study merely identifies the physical linkage between the interdecadal summer EAMBZ precipitation  
477 and the contemporaneous SST mode over the TIO basin from the tropical route. Nonetheless, the contemporaneous  
478 IOBM is not a predictor. According to many previous studies (e.g., Wang et al., 2015; Li et al., 2023), the physical-  
479 based empirical model based on multiple predictors may better improve the forecast skill. Thus, it is urgent to find  
480 out more salient precursor forcings of the lower boundary anomalies [e.g., sea ice (Han et al., 2021)] and figure out  
481 associated mechanisms for interdecadal EAMBZ precipitation changes to construct an effective prediction model.

482

483 Code and data availability. The CRU time series precipitation data version 3.26 (CRU TS3.26) from CRU at the University  
484 of East Anglia are available online (<https://catalogue.ceda.ac.uk/uuid/3f8944800cc48e1cbc29a5ee12d8542d>; CRU, 2022).  
485 The ERSSTv5 data from the US NOAA are available from the following website:  
486 <https://www1.ncdc.noaa.gov/pub/data/cmb/ersst/v5/netcdf/> (NOAA 2020). The 20CRv2c datasets from NOAA-CIRES  
487 are available from the following website: [https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.20thC\\_ReanV2c.html](https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.20thC_ReanV2c.html) (NOAA-CIRES,  
488 2022). The model simulation datasets regarding CESM1\_LENS are available online  
489 (<https://www.cesm.ucar.edu/community-projects/lens/data-sets>; NCAR 2023). The model simulation datasets regarding  
490 CESM1\_IOPES are available online (<https://www.earthsystemgrid.org/dataset/ucar.cgd.cesm4.IOD-PACEMAKER.html>;  
491 NCAR 2023).

492 Codes are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

493

494 Author contributions. YL designed the research; JW wrote the first draft of the paper; FC and CS downloaded and  
495 analyzed the data, and plotted the figures used in this study. All authors, including QL, YD, and XX, contributed to the  
496 discussion of the results and reviewed the manuscript.

497

498 Competing interests. The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

499

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503

504 Acknowledgements. Yanju Liu acknowledges the support by the Key Innovation Team of China Meteorological  
505 Administration "Climate Change Detection and Response" (CMA2022ZD03).

506

507 Financial support. This study was supported by the Second Tibetan Plateau Scientific Expedition and Research (STEP)  
508 program (2019QZKK010204-02 and 2019QZKK0102), Guangdong Major Project of Basic and Applied Basic Research  
509 (2020B0301030004), and Innovation and Development Special Project of China Meteorological Administration  
510 (CXFZ2022J039).

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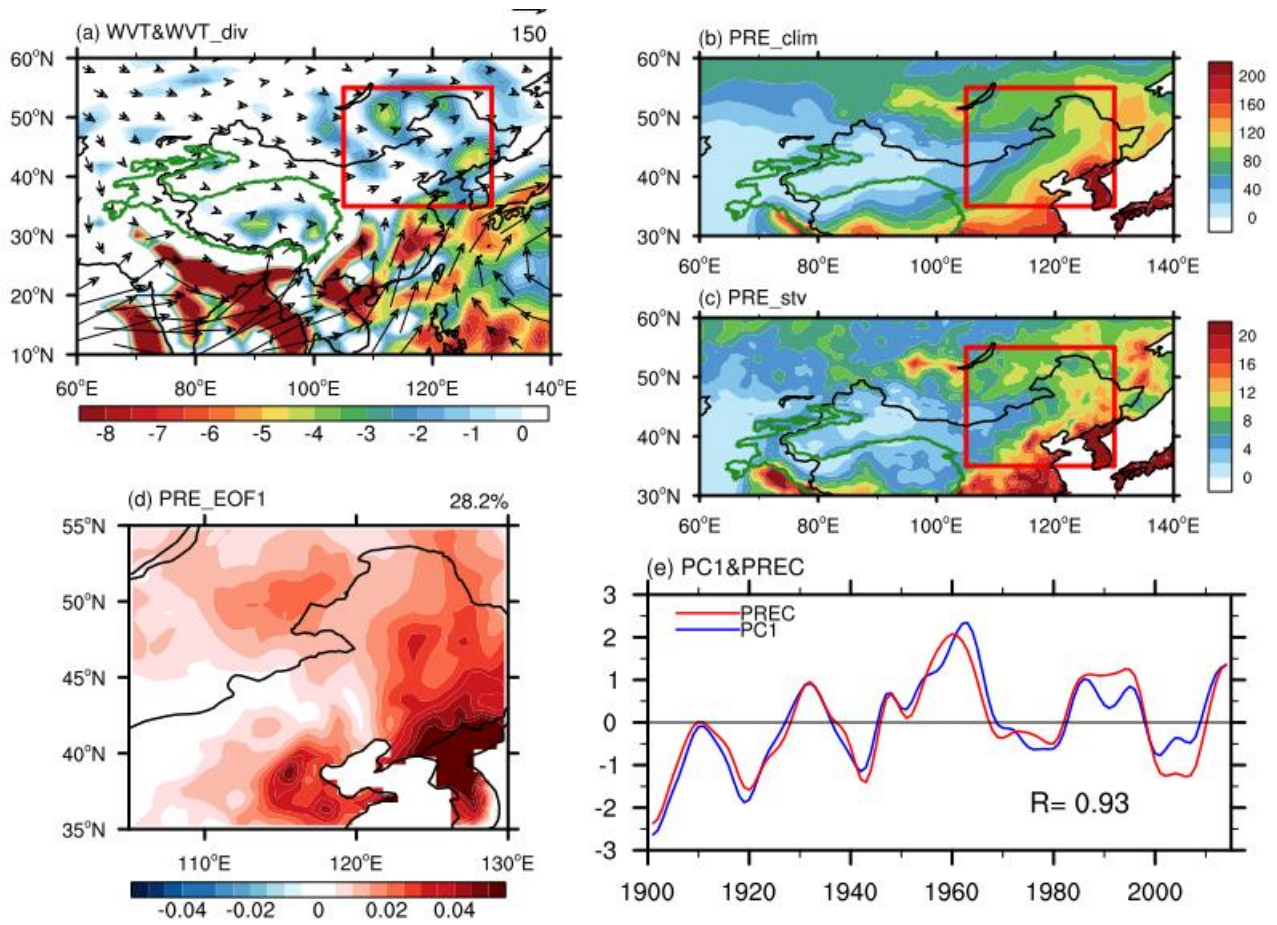
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725 Figures  
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728 Figure 1. The climatological JJA-averaged (a)  $\langle WVT \rangle$  (vectors;  $\text{kg m}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) and  $\langle WVT\_div \rangle$  (shading;  $10^{-5} \text{ kg m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), (b)  
729 precipitation ( $\text{mm month}^{-1}$ ), and (c) interdecadal standard deviation of precipitation ( $\text{mm month}^{-1}$ ) during the period 1901–2014. The  
730 red box ( $35^{\circ}$ – $55^{\circ}\text{N}$ ,  $105^{\circ}$ – $130^{\circ}\text{E}$ ) outlines the research domain of EAMTZ (the same hereinafter). (d) Spatial pattern of the first  
731 empirical orthogonal function (EOF1) mode of JJA-mean EAMTZ precipitation. (e) Normalized time series of the JJA-mean EAMTZ  
732 precipitation index ( $I_{EAMTZP}$ ) (red line) and associated first principal component (PC1) (blue line), with the number denoting the  
733 temporal correlation coefficient (TCC) between the corresponding time series. In panels (c)–(e), variables are detrended and 11-year  
734 low-pass filtered. The green outline in panels (a)–(c) represents the terrain of the Tibetan Plateau (TP) at 2000 m (the same hereinafter).  
735 The precipitation is derived from the CRU TS3.26 precipitation data, while other variables are from the 20CRv2c datasets.

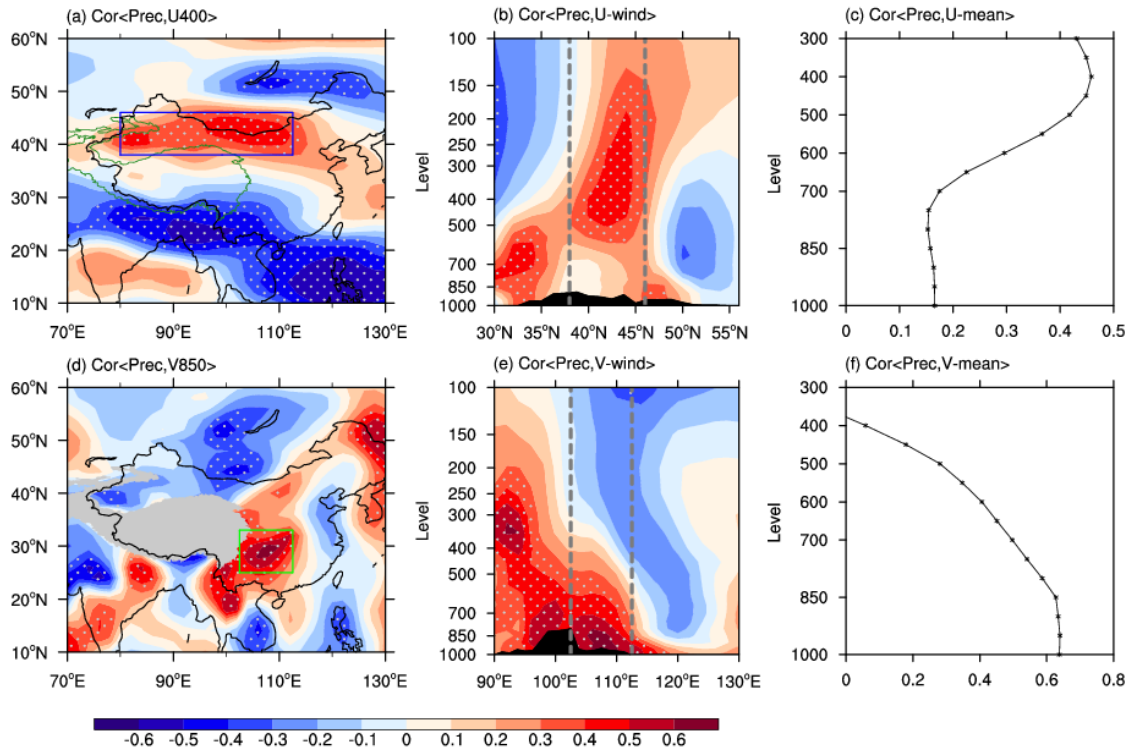
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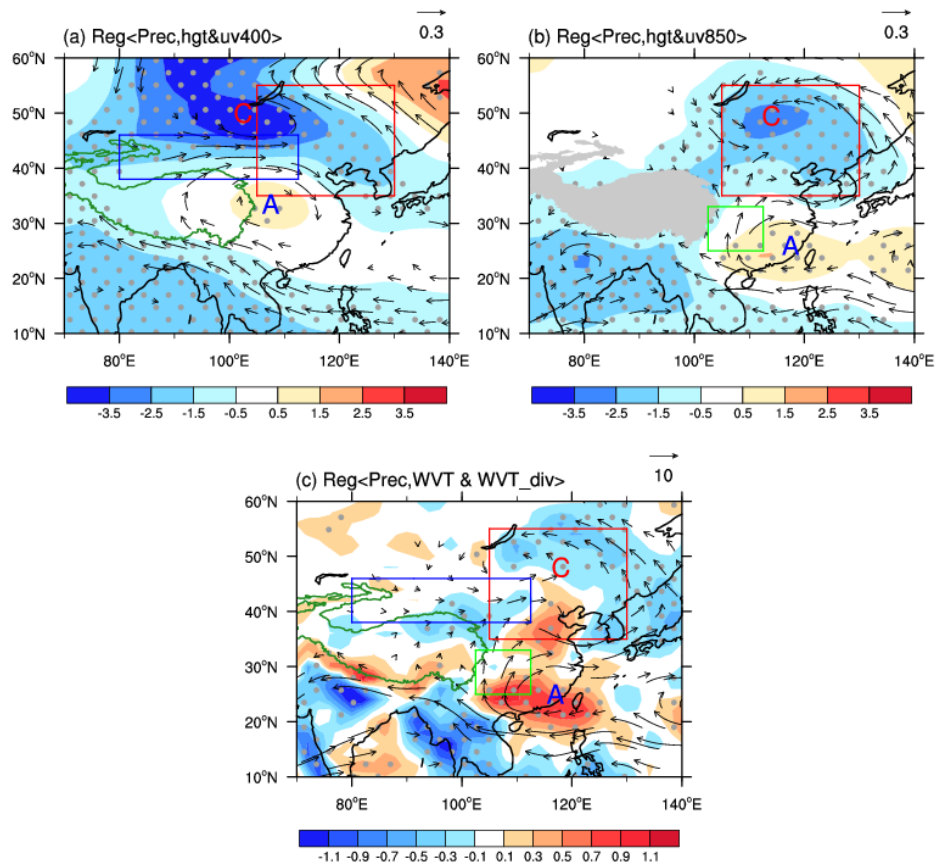
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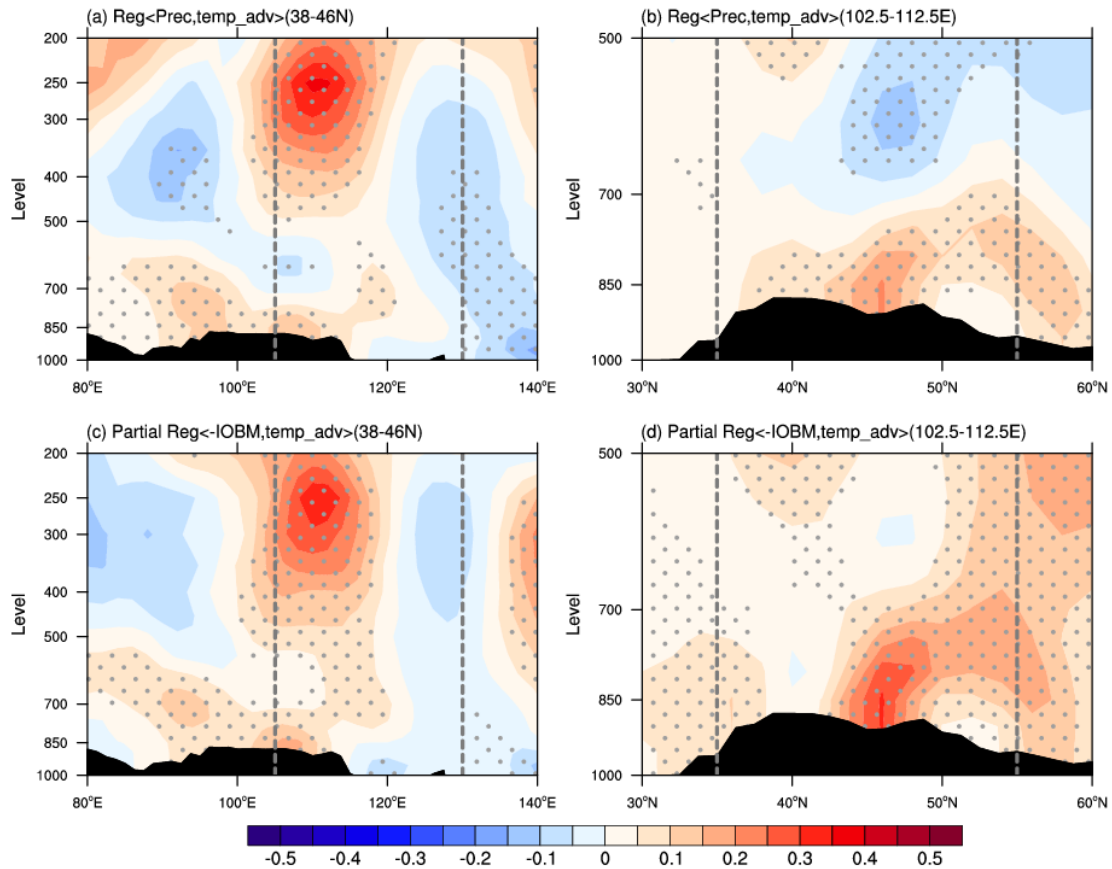
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Figure 2. Correlation maps of the JJA-averaged  $I_{EAMBZP}$  with the simultaneous (a) 400-hPa zonal wind and (d) 850-hPa meridional wind, and (b) height–latitude cross-section of zonal winds averaged over  $80^{\circ}$ – $112.5^{\circ}$ E, and (e) height–longitude cross-section of meridional winds averaged over  $25^{\circ}$ – $33^{\circ}$ N, during the period 1901–2014. The blue box ( $38^{\circ}$ – $46^{\circ}$ N,  $80^{\circ}$ – $112.5^{\circ}$ E) in (a) and the green box ( $25^{\circ}$ – $33^{\circ}$ N,  $102.5^{\circ}$ – $112.5^{\circ}$ E) in (d) represent the upstream westerly domain and the monsoonal southerly domain significantly tied to the interdecadal variations of precipitation over EAMBZ, respectively (the same hereinafter). The grey-dashed vertical lines in (b) and (e) represent the latitudinal and longitudinal range of the westerly and the monsoonal southerly domain, respectively. (c) Profile of correlation coefficients between the JJA-averaged  $I_{EAMBZP}$  and the simultaneous area-averaged zonal winds over the upstream westerly domain at multiple levels during the period 1901–2014. (f) As in (c), but for the meridional winds over the monsoonal southerly domain. All variables are detrended and 11-year low-pass filtered. Areas with significant values exceeding the 95% confidence level are stippled. The black shading indicates the topography. The grey shaded areas denote the TP areas above 2000 m (the same hereinafter). The  $I_{EAMBZP}$  is calculated based on the CRU TS3.26 precipitation data, while other variables are from the 20CRv2c datasets.



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 765 Figure 3. Regression maps of the JJA-mean anomalies of (a) 400-hPa geopotential height (Z400; shading; m) and wind field (UV400;  
 766 vectors;  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ), (b) 850-hPa geopotential height (Z850; shading; m) and wind field (UV850; vectors;  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ), and (c)  $\langle \text{WVT} \rangle$  (vectors;  
 767  $\text{kg m}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) and  $\langle \text{WVT}_{\text{div}} \rangle$  (shading;  $10^{-5} \text{ kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) onto the concurrent  $I_{\text{EAMBZP}}$  during the period 1901–2014. All variables are  
 768 detrended and 11-year low-pass filtered. Letter A (C) represents the center of anticyclonic (cyclonic) anomaly (the same hereinafter).  
 769 Areas with significant values of Z400, Z850, and  $\langle \text{WVT}_{\text{div}} \rangle$  that exceed the 95% confidence level are stippled, respectively. Only  
 770 vectors that are significant at the 95% confidence level are shown. The  $I_{\text{EAMBZP}}$  is calculated based on the CRU TS3.26 precipitation  
 771 data, while other variables are from the 20CRv2c datasets.

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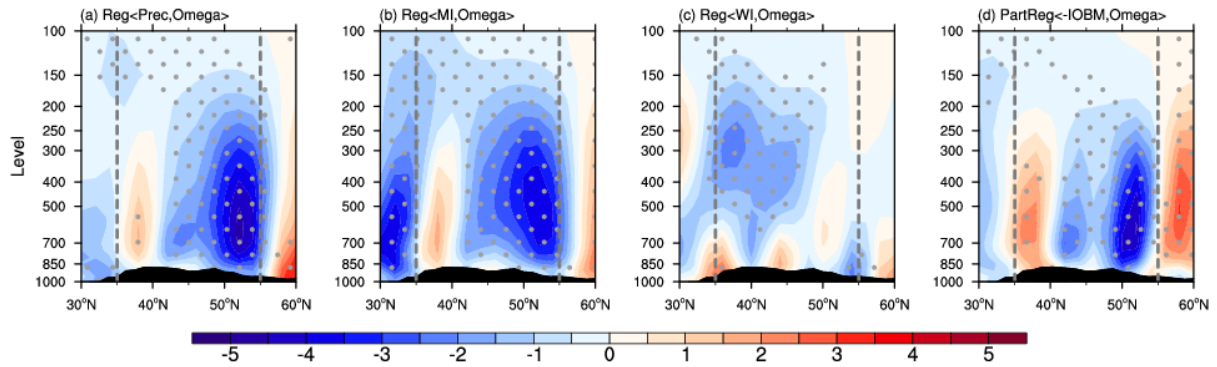
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Figure 4. (a) Height–longitude cross-section (averaged over 38°–46°N) and (b) height–latitude cross-section (averaged over 102.5°–112.5°E) of the JJA-mean temperature advection anomalies (shading;  $10^{-5} \text{ K s}^{-1}$ ) regressed onto the concurrent  $I_{EAMBZP}$  during the period 1901–2014. (c, d) As in (a, b), but for patterns of the partial regression coefficient between temperature advection and negative  $I_{IOBM}$  without the IPO forcing. The gray vertical lines in (a, c) and (b, d) represent the longitudinal and latitudinal range of the research domain of EAMBZ, respectively. The black shading indicates the topography. All variables are detrended and 11-year low-pass filtered. Areas with significant values exceeding the 95% confidence level are stippled. The  $I_{EAMBZP}$  and  $I_{IOBM}/\text{IPO}$  index are calculated based on the CRU TS3.26 precipitation data and the ERSSTv5 dataset, respectively; whilst other variables are from the 20CRv2c datasets.



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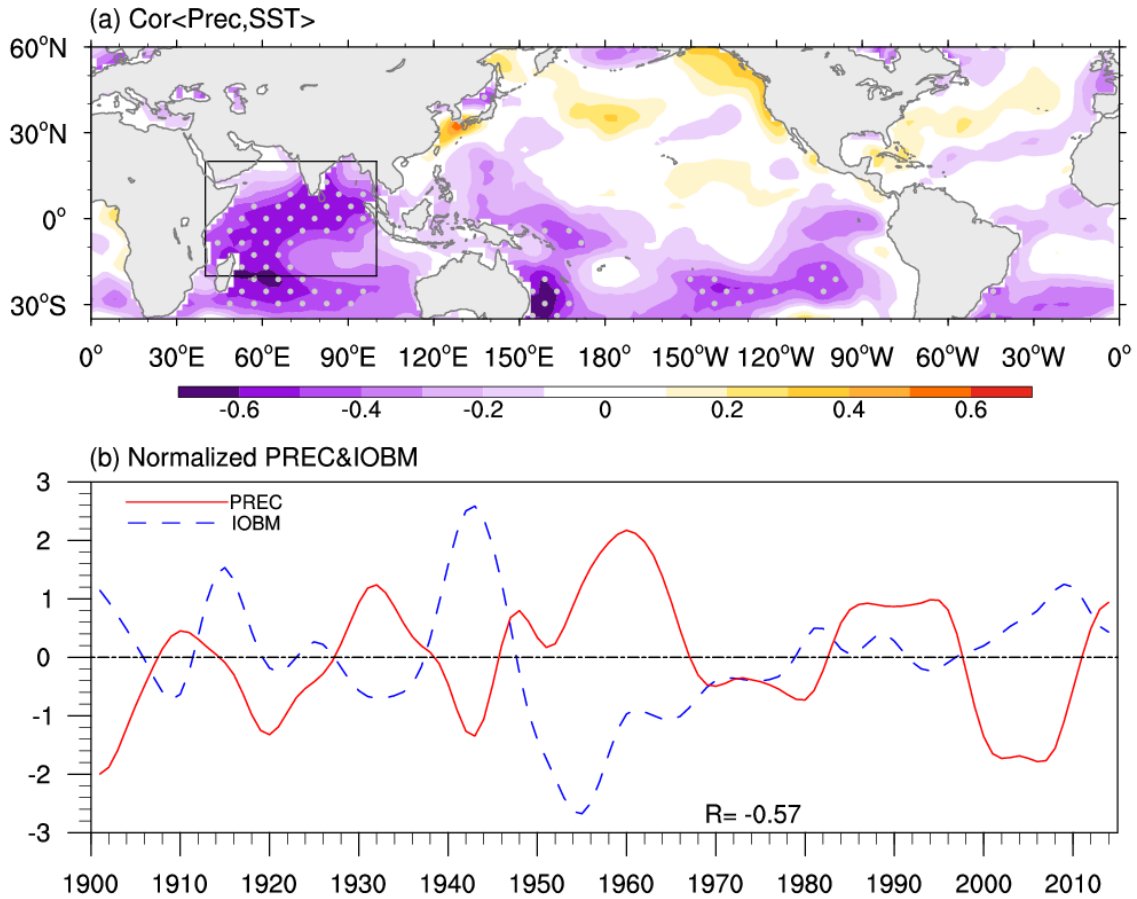
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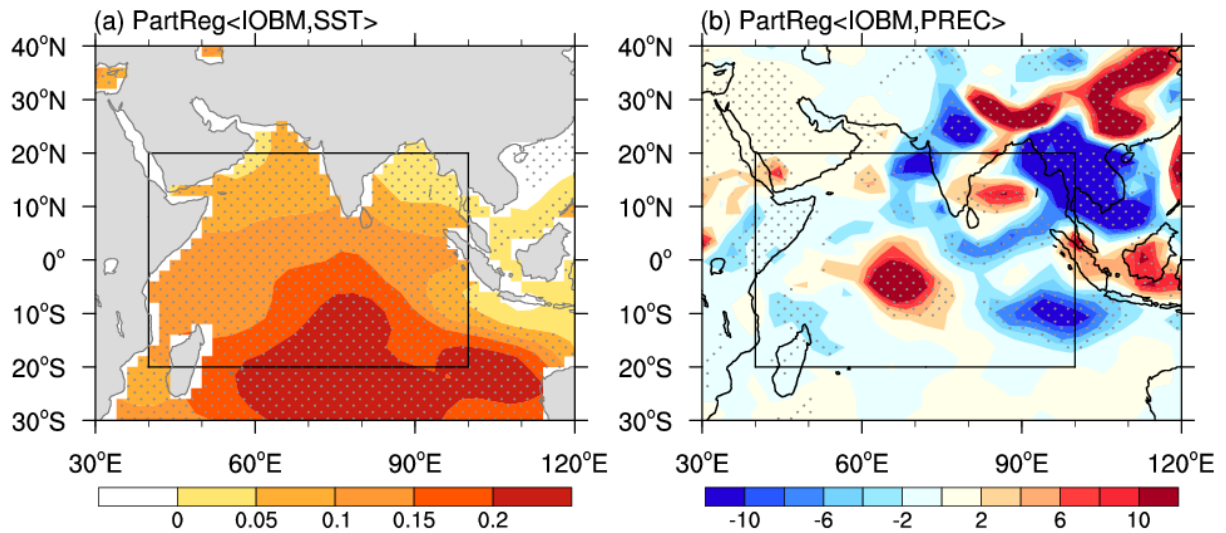
Figure 5. Height–latitude cross-section (averaged over 105°–130°E) of the JJA-mean vertical velocity anomalies ( $10^{-3} \text{ Pa s}^{-1}$ ) regressed onto the concurrent (a)  $I_{EAMBZ}$ , (b)  $I_{MI}$ , and (c)  $I_{WI}$  during the period 1901–2014. (d) As in (a), but for the partial regressed anomalies onto the negative  $I_{IOBM}$  with the IPO forcing removed. The gray vertical lines represent the latitudinal range of EAMBZ. The black shading indicates the topography. All variables are detrended and 11-year low-pass filtered. Areas with significant values exceeding the 95% confidence level are stippled. The  $I_{EAMBZ}$  and  $I_{IOBM}/\text{IPO}$  index are calculated based on the CRU TS3.26 precipitation data and the ERSSTv5 dataset, respectively; whilst other variables are from the 20CRv2c datasets.



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 840 Figure 6. (a) Correlation map of the JJA-mean  $I_{EAMBZP}$  with the concurrent near-global SST ( $35^{\circ}\text{S}$ – $60^{\circ}\text{N}$ ) during the period 1901–2014.  
 841 The black frame ( $20^{\circ}\text{S}$ – $20^{\circ}\text{N}$ ,  $40^{\circ}$ – $100^{\circ}\text{E}$ ) outlines the domain for delineating the IOBM mode (the same hereinafter). Areas with  
 842 significant values exceeding the 99% confidence level are stippled. (b) Normalized time series of the JJA-mean  $I_{EAMBZP}$  (red line) and  
 843  $I_{IOBM}$  (blue line) from 1901 to 2014. The numeral at the bottom represents the TCC between the corresponding time series. All variables  
 844 are detrended and 11-year low-pass filtered. The SST is from the ERSSTv5 dataset. The  $I_{EAMBZP}$  and  $I_{IOBM}$  are calculated based on the  
 845 CRU TS3.26 precipitation data and the ERSSTv5 datasets, respectively.

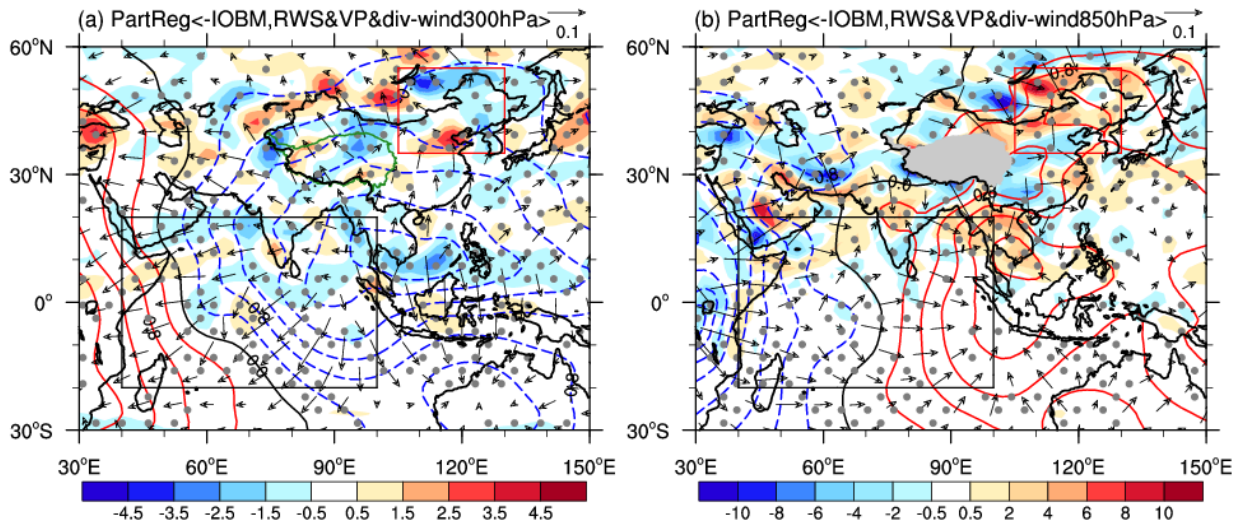
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 860 Figure 7. Partial regression of the JJA-mean (a) SST (°C) and (b) precipitation (mm month<sup>-1</sup>) anomalies over TIO and its neighboring  
 861 areas onto the concurrent  $I_{IOBM}$  with the IPO forcing removed for the period 1901–2014. All variables are detrended and 11-year low-  
 862 pass filtered. Areas with significant values exceeding the 95% confidence level are stippled. The  $I_{IOBM}$ /IPO index is calculated based  
 863 on the ERSSTv5 dataset. The SST and the precipitation are derived from the ERSSTv5 dataset and the 20CRv2c dataset, respectively.

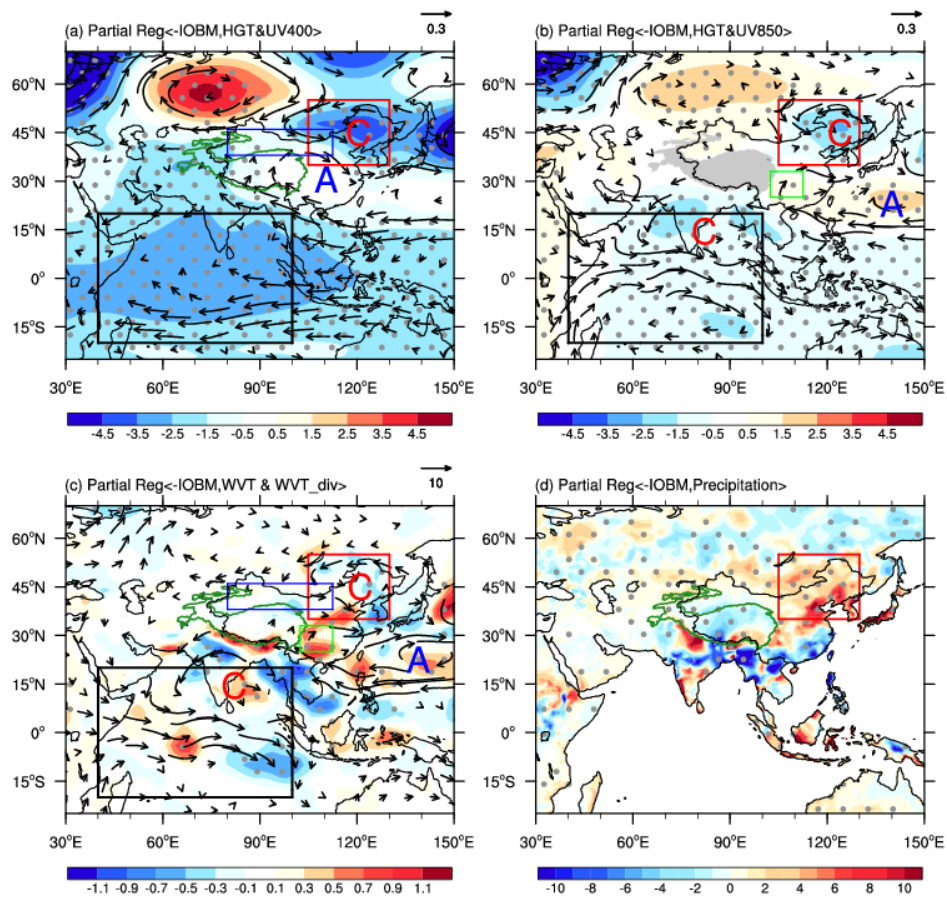
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 882 Figure 8. Partial regression of the JJA-mean (a) 300- and (b) 850-hPa RWS (shading;  $10^{-11} \text{ s}^{-2}$ ), velocity potential (contours; interval:  
 883  $0.4; 10^5 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), and divergent horizontal wind (vectors;  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) anomalies against the concurrent negative  $I_{\text{IOBM}}$  with the IPO forcing  
 884 removed during the period 1901–2014. All variables are detrended and 11-year low-pass filtered. Areas with significant values of RWS  
 885 exceeding the 95% confidence level are stippled. The  $I_{\text{IOBM}}$ /IPO index is calculated based on the ERSSTv5 dataset; whilst other  
 886 variables are from the 20CRv2c datasets.

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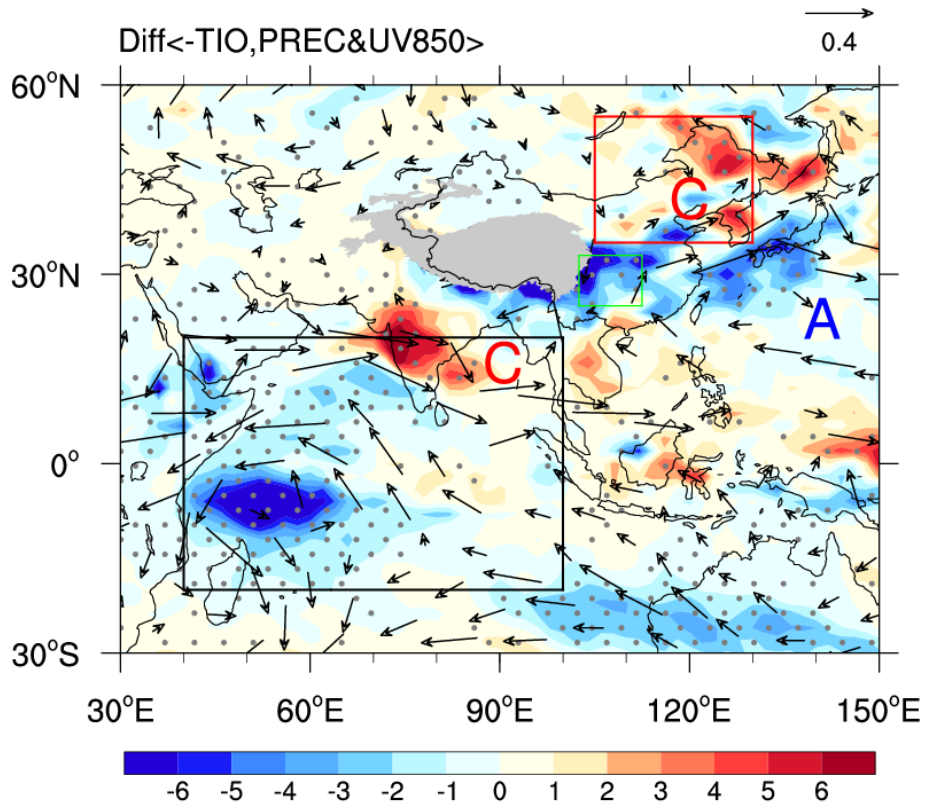
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Figure 9. Partial regression of the JJA-mean (a) Z400 (shading; m) and UV400 (vectors;  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ), (b) Z850 (shading; m) and UV850 (vectors;  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ), (c)  $\langle \text{WVT} \rangle$  (vectors;  $\text{kg m}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) and  $\langle \text{WVT}_{\text{div}} \rangle$  (shading;  $10^{-5} \text{ kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ), and precipitation ( $\text{mm month}^{-1}$ ) anomalies onto the concurrent negative  $I_{\text{IOBM}}$  with the IPO forcing removed during the period 1901–2014. All variables are detrended and 11-year low-pass filtered. Areas with significant values of Z400, Z850, and  $\langle \text{WVT}_{\text{div}} \rangle$  that exceed the 95% confidence level are stippled, respectively. Only vectors that are significant at the 95% confidence level are shown. The  $I_{\text{IOBM}}$ /IPO index is calculated based on the ERSSTv5 dataset; the precipitation is derived from the CRU TS3.26 precipitation data; whilst other variables are from the 20CRv2c datasets.



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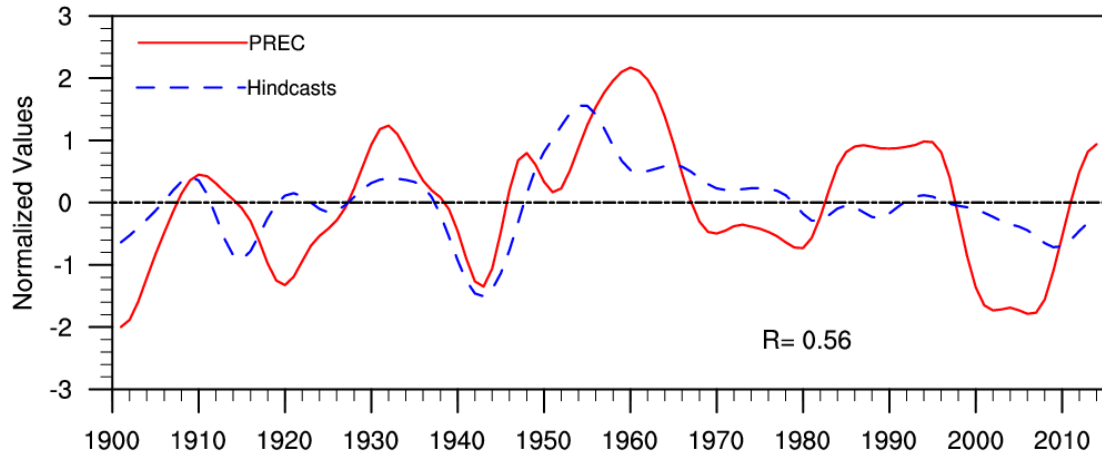
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Figure 10. Simulated composite differences of JJA-mean UV850 (vectors;  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) and precipitation (shading;  $\text{mm month}^{-1}$ ) between cold and warm SST years over the broader TIO domain in CESM1\_IOPES ( $15^{\circ}\text{S}$ – $15^{\circ}\text{N}$ ,  $40^{\circ}$ – $174^{\circ}\text{E}$ ; purple box in Fig. S4). The warm and cold TIO SST years are selected based on the  $\pm 0.5$  standard deviations of the simulated time-evolving SSTAs during 1920–2005, as shown in Fig. S3 (red line). All variables are detrended and 11-year low-pass filtered. Areas with significant values of precipitation that exceed the 95% confidence level are stippled. Only vectors that are significant at the 95% confidence level are shown. The simulated anomalies of UV850 and precipitation are calculated based on the difference between the CESM1\_IOPES ensemble mean and the CESM1\_LENS ensemble mean (former minus latter), highlighting the internally driven impacts of TIO SSTAs.



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Figure 11. Normalized time series of the JJA-mean  $I_{EAMBZP}$  (red line) and associated leave-one-out cross-validated hindcast estimates (blue line) for 1901–2014, with the number denoting the TCC between the corresponding time series.

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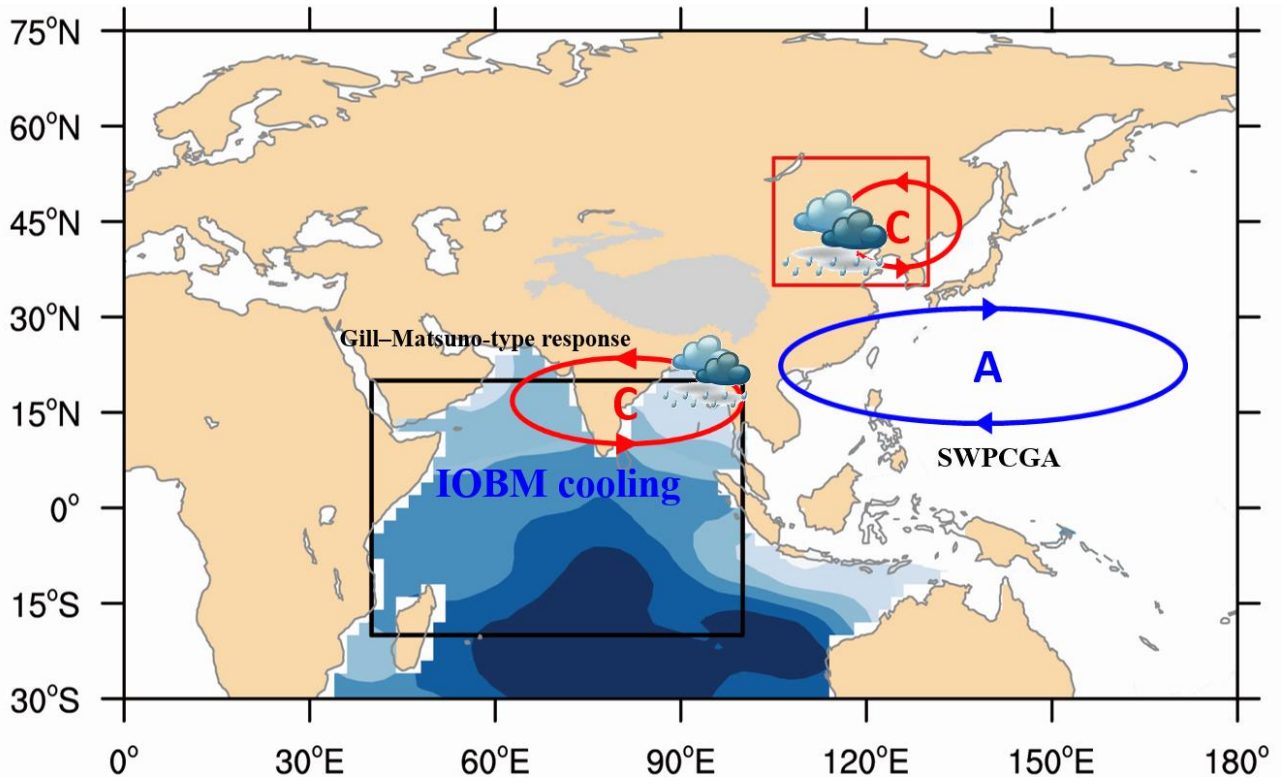
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Figure 12. Schematic diagram showing how IOBM-related SST anomaly pattern drives the summer EAM/BZ precipitation fluctuations at interdecadal timescales. Blue shading illustrates the IOBM cooling. Letter A (C) indicates the center of the anticyclonic (cyclonic) gyre anomaly.