

1 ***PDO-driven interdecadal variability of snowfall over the Karakoram and Western Himalaya***

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32 **Abstract:**

33 Our study reveals that the negative phase of the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO-) leads to
34 increased winter (DJF) snowfall in the Karakoram and Western Himalayas (KH) from 1940 to
35 2022. Interdecadal variations in DJF snowfall during the PDO- are attributed to deep convection
36 and adiabatic cooling near the tropopause in both the northwest Pacific and KH region.
37 Additionally, a wave-like pattern characterized by a trough (anomalous cyclone) north of KH and a
38 ridge (anomalous Tibetan Plateau anticyclone) east of KH in the upper atmosphere, along the
39 northward shift of the DJF Subtropical Jet (STJ) was observed. A strong positive correlation
40 between DJF STJ strength and DJF snowfall in KH as well as a significant negative correlation
41 between DJF STJ strength and DJF PDO, suggests a wave response over KH to the direct forcing
42 over the northwest Pacific Ocean. The intensified STJ across KH results in higher frequency of
43 Western disturbances, leading to anomalous moisture convergence and increased DJF precipitation
44 in the region during the PDO-. These findings hold significant implications for the decadal
45 predictability of winter snowfall in KH by the various phases of PDO.

46

47 **1) Introduction:**

48 Glaciers in the Karakoram and Western Himalaya (KH) exhibit unique stability compared to other
49 alpine glaciers (known as the ‘Karakoram Anomaly’; Hewitt, 2005; Kaab et al., 2012; Gardelle et
50 al., 2013; Kapnick et al., 2014; Forsythe et al., 2017; de Kok et al., 2018; Farinotti et al., 2020;
51 HIMAP, 2020). Winter snowfall plays a significant role in preserving the local snowpack and
52 sustaining the glacial mass balance at higher elevations (Tahir et al., 2011; Bolch et al., 2012;
53 Ridley et al., 2013; Cannon et al., 2015; Dimri et al., 2015), and controls almost 60% of the
54 variability in glacier mass balance in the KH region (Kumar et al., 2019). The decline in average
55 and minimum summer temperatures, along with significant increases in winter, summer, and annual
56 precipitation, have been proposed as crucial factors influencing the stable glacier budget of the KH
57 in recent decades (Archer and Fowler, 2006; Forsythe et al., 2017).

58 The KH receives around 50% of its annual precipitation as snowfall from western disturbances
59 (WDs) (Lang and Barros, 2004; Barros et al., 2006; Bookhagen and Burbank, 2010; Hunt et al.,
60 2024). Furthermore, WDs account for more than 65% of all winter snowfall and nearly 53% of total
61 winter precipitation in the KH (Javed et al., 2022). However, using a less conservative method,
62 Midhuna et al. (2020) found that WDs account for about 80% of winter precipitation in KH. WDs
63 are upper-level troughs in the subtropical westerly jet (STJ), which grow via baroclinic instability

64 (Norris et al., 2015; Cannon et al., 2017; Hunt et al., 2018). Strong WDs are associated with deep
65 uplift to the east of their centre and drive moist lower-tropospheric southwesterlies from the Arabian
66 Sea (Dimri and Dash, 2012; Hunt et al., 2018), resulting in heavy precipitation along the foothills
67 and mountains of KH region (Baudouin et al., 2020). The snowfall from WDs in the KH is heavily
68 influenced by the complex topography of the region, as well as by synoptic and mesoscale factors
69 (Cannon et al., 2015; Norris et al., 2015, 2017, 2018). Subsequent snowmelt in the following spring
70 and summer seasons and associated runoff serve as major sources of downstream river flow and
71 provide relief from drought to populations that are vulnerable to water stress (Bolch et al., 2012;
72 Hewitt et al., 2014; Rana et al., 2019; Pritchard et al., 2019).

73

74 However, the main climatic drivers affecting seasonal precipitation, and hence glacial mass balance
75 in the region are only partially understood (Cannon et al., 2015). WD activity during winter season
76 over the KH has been reported to be influenced by several global climate forcings such as North
77 Atlantic Oscillation/Arctic Oscillation (Yadav et al., 2009; Syed et al., 2010; Filippi et al., 2014;
78 Basu et al., 2017; Midhuna and Dimri, 2019; Hunt and Zaz, 2022), El Niño–Southern Oscillation
79 (ENSO) (Yadav et al., 2010; Dimri, 2013; Kar and Rana, 2014; Cannon et al., 2017; Kamil et al.,
80 2019; Rana et al., 2019; Bharati et al., 2024), Polar/Eurasian Pattern and Siberian High (Wu and
81 Wang, 2002; Cannon et al., 2014), Madden–Julian Oscillation (Barlow et al., 2005; Cannon et al.,
82 2017) and Indian Ocean Dipole (IOD) (Yadav et al., 2007; Hoell et al., 2013) on intraseasonal and
83 interannual timescales. In particular, the ENSO exerts the strongest influence on the interannual
84 variability of winter precipitation in KH (Rana et al., 2019). One of the key aspects of ENSO
85 teleconnection to Indian Himalayas is the southward shift in the latitude of the winter STJ over the
86 KH during the positive phase of ENSO (Cannon et al., 2014, 2017), which leads to heavier WD
87 precipitation as their tracks move closer to their primary moisture source, the Arabian Sea (Bharati
88 et al., 2024).

89

90 Precipitation gauges in the Himalayas are sparse and recognised as inadequate for accurately
91 measuring snowfall (Anders et al., 2006; Rana et al., 2015). While satellite records of precipitation
92 are available, they cover only a limited time frame, whereas our study requires long-term data to
93 analyse the interdecadal variability of precipitation over the KH region. We currently have an 85-
94 year-long reanalysis from ERA5, which has demonstrated a high degree of similarity in both the
95 quantity and variability of winter precipitation across all time scales when compared to observations

96 and satellite data in the KH region (Baudouin et al., 2020). The long dataset from ERA5 is
97 sufficient to examine the interdecadal variability of DJF snowfall over KH. The low-frequency
98 modes of atmospheric variability such as the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO), Inter-decadal
99 Pacific Oscillation (IPO) (Mantua et al., 1998; Zhang et al., 1997; Power et al., 1999; Deser et al.,
100 2004; Dai, 2013), and the Atlantic Multi-decadal Oscillation (AMO) (Enfield et al., 2001) are
101 known to modulate the regional climate of the Northern Hemisphere over inter-decadal to multi-
102 decadal timescales. Among these, the PDO is the dominant mode of SST oscillation in the North
103 Pacific, influencing long-term precipitation patterns globally (Dettinger et al., 1998; Krishnamurthy,
104 2013, 2014; Wang et al., 2014; Dong and Dai, 2015; Yang et al., 2017; Wu and Mao, 2016; Qin et
105 al., 2017; Aggarwal et al., 2023). For example, Indian monsoon rainfall and autumn precipitation in
106 North Central China were found to have an inverse relationship with PDO (Krishnan and Sugi,
107 2003; Krishnamurthy, 2014; Qin et al., 2017). According to Aggarwal et al. (2023), the PDO has a
108 stronger positive correlation with pre-monsoon precipitation in the northwest Himalayas compared
109 to the ENSO and IOD, leading to a significant decrease in precipitation in recent decades. However,
110 there remains a significant gap in our understanding of the PDO's impact on precipitation over the
111 Himalayas during both monsoon and non-monsoon seasons.

112

113 The current study aims to address this knowledge gap by examining the modulation of the
114 interdecadal variability of winter snowfall over KH by PDO. Our study aims to understand the
115 potential influence of the PDO on the Karakoram anomaly, which deviates from the general climate
116 change patterns observed in the KH region and other mountainous areas. The main objective of this
117 study are: (1) To examine the spatial distribution of decadal snowfall in KH in different phases of
118 PDO, (2) how the PDO adjusts global circulation patterns, leading to changes in the STJ, and (3)
119 how these changes cause impact on a local scale over the KH through WDs and moisture transport.

120

121 **2) Data and Methods:**

122 **2.1 Data**

123 **2.1.1) Meteorological data**

124 The study uses meteorological data including geopotential height, zonal (u) and meridional wind (v)
125 at 200 hPa level, vertically averaged temperature from 500 to 300 hPa level, vertically integrated
126 moisture flux (VIMF), vertically integrated moisture flux convergence (VIMFC), and global sea

127 surface temperature (SST) obtained from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather
128 Forecasts (ECMWF) ERA5 reanalysis from 1940 to 2022. The jet latitude and strength are
129 computed by 200 hPa zonal winds over the region ($50^{\circ} - 80^{\circ}\text{E}$, $10^{\circ} - 60^{\circ}\text{N}$). The jet latitude is the
130 mean of the latitudes with the largest value of u for each longitude and jet strength is the mean
131 value of u along these latitudes. ERA5 data have global coverage at hourly frequency and a
132 horizontal resolution of 0.25° .

133

134 **2.1.2) Precipitation data**

135 Precipitation in the KH is mainly observed through satellite derived and reanalysis products
136 (Bosilovich et al., 2008; Joshi et al., 2012; Ménégoz et al., 2013; Palazzi et al., 2013; Rana et al.,
137 2015; Kishore et al., 2016; Baudouin et al., 2020) due to limited and unreliable observations from
138 ground stations in this complex topographical region (Anders et al., 2006; Bookhagen and Burbank
139 2006; Strangeways, 2010; Rana et al., 2015; Dahri et al., 2018). The ERA5 reanalysis has
140 frequently been used for precipitation and snow in recent studies over the KH (Dahri et al., 2018;
141 Baudouin et al., 2020; T. Singh et al., 2021) and neighbouring mountainous areas (Hu and Yuan,
142 2020; Li et al. 2021; Dollan et al., 2014). ERA5 closely matches the most reliable gridded
143 measurements over KH in terms of amount, seasonality, and variability across all timescales during
144 winter (Baudouin et al., 2020). However, the accuracy of precipitation datasets varies depending on
145 the season in the region. We choose ERA5 due to its long period, allowing decadal-scale analysis
146 where other datasets do not.

147 To assess the performance of ERA5 precipitation, we compared the ERA5 precipitation with
148 various gridded precipitation datasets over the KH, including reanalysis datasets from ECMWF
149 ERA5-land, Modern Era Retrospective-analysis for Research, Applications version 2 (MERRA2),
150 and High Asia Refined analysis version 2 (HAR v2), as well as rain gauge, and satellite data from
151 Climate Research Unit version 7 (CRU_TS v7), Global Precipitation Climatology Center version
152 2022 (GPCC), Global Precipitation Climatology Project version 3.2 (GPCP v3.2), Asian
153 Precipitation - Highly-Resolved Observed Data Integration Towards Evaluation (APHRODITE
154 MA_v1101), CPC-Merged Analysis of Precipitation (CMAP), Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission
155 (TRMM) Multi-satellite Precipitation Analysis (TMPA) 3B43, and Global Precipitation
156 Measurement mission-Integrated Multi-satellite Retrievals version 7 (GPM_IMERG v7).

157 We computed the linear correlation coefficient between area-averaged precipitation over the KH
158 (green box in Fig. 2a) in ERA5 and numerous other precipitation datasets. A strong correlation was

159 seen between DJF ERA5 precipitation and rain-gauge-based precipitation products, including
 160 GPCP, GPCP, and CRU, with the exception of CMAP, which exhibited a correlation coefficient of
 161 0.51 (Table 1). All reanalysis products, including ERA5 exhibit similar DJF precipitation variability
 162 as seen in observational and satellite datasets over the KH region. The variability of ERA5
 163 precipitation in the KH region aligns closely with all available gridded datasets, despite the
 164 presence of biases in ERA5 precipitation across this region. Since most of DJF precipitation in KH
 165 occurs as snowfall (fig. 1b), we utilize ERA5 snowfall data to examine the decadal variability of
 166 snowfall in the KH (73° – 78°E, 33° – 38° N).

167 **Table:1 Correlation coefficients of DJF precipitation based on monthly reanalysis, rain-gauge**
 168 **and satellite with ERA5 precipitation**

	Name	Time	Spatial resolution	Correlation with ERA5	Source
Reanalysis	ERA5-land	1980-2022	0.25°	0.99	Hersbach et al., 2018
	HAR v2	1980-2020	0.1°	0.92	Wang et al., 2021
	MERRA2	1980-2022	0.5°	0.94	Gelaro et al., 2017
Rain-gauge based	CRU_TS v7	1980-2022	0.5°	0.84	Harris et al., 2014
	GPCC v2022	1980-2020	2.5°	0.89	Schneider et al., 2018
	GPCP	1998-2022	2.5°	0.89	Adler et al., 2016
	CMAP	1980-2022	2.5°	0.51	Xie and Arkin, 1997
	APHRODITE	1998-2015	0.25°	0.67	Yatagai et al., 2012
Satellite	GPM_IMERG v07	2000-2022	0.1°	0.86	Huffman et al., 2015
	TRMM 3B43	1998-2019	0.25°	0.85	Huffman et al., 2007

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170 **2.1.2) PDO index**

171 The PDO index from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration National Climate Data
172 Center (NOAA-NDC) (<https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/monitoring/pdo/>) is employed to describe
173 the interdecadal variability of the Pacific Ocean over the period 1940 to 2022.

174

175 **2.1.3) Western disturbance data**

176 WD statistics are computed from the WD track catalogue described in Hunt et al., (2018) and
177 Nischal et al., (2022), which is based on ERA5 reanalysis data that is spectrally truncated to T42 to
178 remove noise and small-scale structures. The tracking algorithm detects WDs by identifying upper-
179 tropospheric regions of positive relative vorticity averaged between 450 hPa and 300 hPa, with the
180 locations of candidate WDs identified as centroids of these regions. The candidate WDs are then
181 further refined by only accepting those: 1) whose locations are linked through time to form tracks
182 that generally follow the westerly steering winds associated with the STJ, 2) that persist for at least
183 48 hours, and 3) that pass through north India (50°–77°E, 22°–42.5°N). The northern limit of this
184 box, 42.5°N, is more poleward than has been used previous studies (36.5°N). This allows us to
185 better capture WD impacts over the Karakoram.

186

187 **2.2 Methods**

188 **2.2.1) Lanczos filter**

189 To isolate the decadal signals, we linearly detrended all meteorological variables and the PDO index
190 for DJF. These datasets were then filtered using a 9-year running mean Lanczos filter, which is a
191 low-pass filter based on the sinc convolution (Duchon et al., 1979). The positive (negative) phase of
192 PDO is defined as years when the filtered DJF PDO index is greater than (less than) zero. We define
193 the negative epoch (PDO-) as two negative phases of PDO that occurred from 1948 to 1977 and
194 1989 to 2014, and the positive epoch (PDO+) as a positive phase of PDO that occurred from 1978
195 to 1988 (fig.1b). Also, the detrended variables are used to conduct correlation and composite
196 analyses. The Student's and Welch's t-test are used in the study to determine the statistical
197 significance of correlation and composite analyses, respectively.

198

199 **2.2.2) Wavelet analysis**

200 The PyCWT library (<https://pycwt.readthedocs.io/en/latest/tutorial/cwt/>) is used to calculate the
201 cross-wavelet power spectrum. This library is based on the implementation by Torrence and Compo
202 (1998). We employed the cross wavelet transform to calculate the wavelet spectrum between
203 monthly time series of the PDO index and the area averaged monthly ERA5 snowfall over the KH
204 region. The cross wavelet transform finds regions in time frequency space where the time series
205 show high common power.

206

207 **3) Results:**

208 **3.1) PDO and KH winter snowfall**

209 This study aims to examine the long-term variability in DJF snowfall in the KH region in relation
210 with the PDO from 1940 to 2022. There is a significant negative correlation between the lowpass-
211 filtered and detrended time series of DJF PDO and DJF snowfall in the KH (Fig 1b), with a
212 coefficient of -0.51. However, the PDO is not a single phenomenon, but rather a set of processes
213 that occur in both the tropics and the extratropics and reflects the influence of various processes
214 occurring at distinct timescales (Newman et al., 2016). More precisely, elevated sea surface
215 temperature (SST) in the eastern tropical Pacific is linked to lower SST in the central and western
216 North Pacific, while higher SST is observed in the eastern North Pacific (Deser et al. 2004;
217 Newman et al., 2016). Thus, decadal variability in the North Pacific SSTs is linked to tropical
218 Pacific decadal variability, specifically in terms of the long-lasting seasonal ENSO patterns
219 (Newman et al., 2011; Wittenberg et al. 2014) as well as the ENSO like multidecadal oscillation
220 (i.e., IPO; Zhang et al., 1997). Occasionally, the AMO may also influence multidecadal variability
221 of the PDO (Zhang and Delworth, 2007). After excluding of the influences of ENSO and IPO, the
222 correlation slightly increases to -0.53 and -0.54, and rises to -0.67 upon the elimination of the
223 AMO's impact.

224

225 The spatial structure of the correlation between PDO and KH snowfall in winter (Fig 2a) is
226 significantly negative along the western and central Himalayas and much of the southern
227 Karakoram, but positive over the Tibetan Plateau and north India. The snowfall in the KH region
228 during the boreal autumn (SON) and spring (MAM) has a strong positive correlation with the PDO

229 (not shown), whereas the summer monsoon season (JJA) displays a weak but positive correlation
230 with the PDO. The different signs of the correlation suggest that the dynamic processes driving KH
231 snowfall either vary by season, or the seasonal influence of the PDO on KH snowfall changes.

232

233 Figure 2b displays the regional distribution of the difference in detrended DJF snowfall between the
234 negative and positive phases of PDO, hereafter referred to as PDO- and PDO+, respectively. The
235 difference is significantly positive in the KH area, particularly over the southern part of the
236 Karakoram region. DJF snowfall in the KH accounts for around 80-90% of total annual snowfall
237 during the time period (not shown). During PDO+, DJF snowfall over KH is nearly 7% lower than
238 the average seasonal snowfall, while during PDO- it is about 6% higher. It indicates that the
239 difference in DJF snowfall in KH varies significantly depending on the phase of the PDO across
240 several decades.

241

242 This strong relationship between PDO and snowfall in the KH is also demonstrated through a cross-
243 wavelet frequency spectrum analysis between the unfiltered monthly time series of PDO index and
244 snowfall over the KH from 1940 to 2022 (Fig 2c). The band of strong and significant power in the
245 period of ~ 1 year in the cross-wavelet indicates that the PDO and KH snowfall both have strong
246 interannual variability. The well-known influence of ENSO on snowfall in the region (operating on
247 interannual timescales) during DJF is also slightly modulated by the low-frequency oscillation of
248 PDO. Another band of significant power exists in the 6-15 year range, indicating a high decadal
249 scale correlation between these two time series. The significant power in the 6-15-year range
250 occurred between 1940 and 1970 and again from 1998 to 2015, coinciding with the negative phases
251 of the PDO. An insignificant weak power appeared within the same range from 1971 to 1988,
252 coinciding with the positive phase of the PDO. A long band of strong power exists throughout the
253 16–20-year range, observed from 1950 to 1990, while a weaker power is shown from 2000 to 2022.
254 This indicates that the low-frequency variability of KH snowfall is influenced by decadal
255 oscillations over various time scales, while the interdecadal variability of KH snowfall is found to
256 influenced by the phase of the PDO.

257

258 **3.2) Sea Surface temperature (SST) variability during DJF**

259 Figure 3a illustrates the well-known positive (or warm) phase of the PDO over the North Pacific,
260 shown as a correlation between lowpass filtered and detrended sea surface temperature (SST) and
261 PDO index during DJF. The correlation pattern also reveals a strong El-Nino like pattern in the
262 eastern equatorial-tropical Pacific Ocean. For comparison, the correlation pattern between the DJF
263 SST anomalies and the DJF snowfall anomalies in the KH region is shown in Fig 3b. This
264 correlation strongly resembles the negative (or cool) phase of the PDO over the North Pacific
265 Ocean. It is characterised by positive SST anomalies in the northwest Pacific and negative SST
266 anomalies in the northeast Pacific. Additionally, there are negative SST correlations in the tropical
267 eastern Pacific region and eastern Indian Ocean adjacent to Western Australia, while positive
268 correlations are observed in the southwest Indian Ocean and across the northwest Atlantic Ocean.
269 The correlation pattern in the southern Indian Ocean reveals the subtropical Indian Ocean Dipole
270 signature (positive phase) (Behera & Yamagata, 2001; Yamagami & Tozuka, 2014).

271

272 **3.3) Upper atmosphere circulation response with PDO and snowfall**

273 To understand the anomalous atmospheric circulations that connect the PDO with anomalous DJF
274 snowfall in the KH region, we computed the correlation of 200 hPa geopotential height with both
275 the DJF PDO index (Fig 4a) and DJF snowfall (Fig 4b). The correlation pattern between the PDO
276 and upper-level geopotential height shows a prominent upper-level trough over east China, Japan
277 and the northwest Pacific, which is known as East Asian trough (EAT; Qin et al., 2018; Yin and
278 Zhang, 2021). In contrast, the correlation pattern over the Caspian Sea, KH, and Lake Baikal region
279 is associated with positive geopotential height anomalies. The EAT is a well-known upper
280 atmospheric response to the positive phase of PDO to the East Asia-North Pacific region during the
281 Northern Hemisphere winter (Newman et al, 2016; Qin et al., 2018; Yin and Zhang, 2021). The
282 intensity of the EAT is strongly linked to the strength of the winter monsoon in East Asia and the tilt
283 in the EAT axis is connected to midlatitude baroclinic processes, such as the eddy-driven jet or WD
284 tracks over the East Asia-North Pacific region (Wang et al., 2009). Therefore, changes in location
285 and intensity of the EAT can lead to, or otherwise indicate, regional climate anomalies, such as
286 temperature in the upper troposphere which subsequently influence DJF precipitation in East Asia
287 as well as the KH during the positive phase of the PDO.

288 These patterns change sign during negative phases of PDO, when KH snowfall is enhanced,
289 implying an anomalous upper-level trough to the west of the Karakoram, consistent with increased
290 WD frequency or intensity. The correlation between upper-level geopotential height and snowfall

291 has a similar pattern to the PDO-geopotential correlation, but as expected, with reversed sign. The
292 correlation pattern exhibits a strong ridge (or a weakened EAT) over the northwest Pacific and
293 Japan characterised by the significant positive geopotential height anomalies. The negative
294 correlation to the west of the KH area shows a trough, which is stronger than the positive
295 correlation between PDO and geopotential height, indicating the linkage of seasonal snowfall to the
296 passage of WDs is stronger than the link between the PDO and WDs. Both, however, are important.
297 The appearance of the anomalous trough in both pairs of correlations implies that the PDO may
298 affect KH snowfall by somehow modulating WD activity. Therefore, it is essential to understand
299 how decadal fluctuations in DJF snowfall in the KH are driven by WDs and how the PDO
300 influences WD behaviour. This can be accomplished by investigating the DJF STJ, followed by a
301 detailed investigation of the WDs.

302

303 **3.4) Modulation of WD and Subtropical Westerly Jet by the PDO**

304 To further illustrate the above relationship between PDO and DJF snowfall in KH, we examine the
305 composite differences in 200 hPa wind, geopotential height, and temperature (Fig. 5) between PDO-
306 and PDO+. Figure 5a displays the difference in 200 hPa circulation over East Asia, Arabian
307 Peninsula and northwest Pacific region. During the PDO-, there is a large negative geopotential
308 height anomaly to the north of KH region, which extends from the Caspian Sea-Arabian Peninsula
309 to KH. Strong westerlies are observed to the south of this trough with a stronger STJ prevailing
310 across KH during the PDO-. An anomalous trough in the upper atmosphere is indicative of
311 increased WD frequency (or intensity) and the frequency of WDs is strongly affected by variations
312 in both the latitude and intensity of the STJ (Dimri et al., 2015; Hunt et al., 2017, 2018) over South
313 Asia. Therefore, we now focus on understanding the relationship between the PDO and the STJ.

314

315 Upper-level jets are thermal wind responses to upper-level meridional temperature gradients. In Fig
316 5b, we show the difference in mid-to-upper (from 500 hPa to 300 hPa) tropospheric temperature
317 between PDO- and PDO+. A quadrupole in the upper air temperature gradient is present across the
318 KH, Tibetan Plateau (TP) and the northwest Pacific region during PDO-. Over the Pacific, this is
319 effectively a direct response to the anomalous surface heating provided by the PDO. Anomalous
320 warm SSTs over the northwest Pacific lead to adiabatic cooling near the tropopause, which results
321 in deep convection over the Maritime Continent during the PDO- (e.g., Wang et al., 2016).
322 Upstream, over continental Asia, the relationship is more complicated and is probably a wave

323 response to the direct forcing over the ocean. Therefore, a strongly enhanced meridional
324 temperature gradient over the KH and TP, leading to a stronger and more meridionally-locked STJ.

325

326 Figure 5c displays the lowpass filtered time series of latitude and strength of the DJF STJ. During
327 the PDO-, the STJ tends to sit slightly further north but is also substantially stronger. The
328 correlation of the time series of the strength of DJF STJ with DJF PDO is significantly negative (-
329 0.22), and the correlation between DJF STJ strength and DJF snowfall in KH is strong positive
330 (0.51). The positive (negative) phase of the PDO enhances the movement of the STJ towards the
331 south (north) through a response to the decreased (increased) SST over the northwest Pacific and
332 modulates the cyclonic (anticyclonic) circulation over the northwest Pacific and adjacent maritime
333 continents (Matsumura & Horinouchi, 2016). During PDO-, we observed a quadrupole in the
334 anomalous upper-level temperature gradient (Fig. 5b), resulting in a negative anomaly in the
335 temperature gradient and an anticyclonic circulation (Fig. 5a) over the TP. Thus, by modulating the
336 STJ, the negative phase of the PDO leads to more frequent (more intense) WDs at slightly higher
337 latitudes than usual (e.g. into the Karakoram, where the signal is the strongest).

338

339 The presence of a stronger STJ along with a wave-like pattern of trough (anomalous cyclone) over
340 the northern region of KH, and a ridge (anomalous TP anticyclone) in the upper atmosphere,
341 increases the occurrence of WDs over KH during the PDO-. After examining the impact of the PDO
342 on the STJ, we now quantify its influence on WDs directly. Maps of the difference in the frequency
343 of DJF WDs between PDO- and PDO+ (Fig 6a) indicate that WDs are more frequent (with a 9%
344 higher frequency) over the KH region during PDO- compared to PDO+. Also, the frequency of
345 WDs is found to be reduced by around 3% in both the northern and southern regions of the KH
346 during PDO- compared to PDO+. These WDs are observed to be more intense in the vicinity of the
347 Caspian Sea and north of the KH during PDO- rather than PDO+ (not shown).

348

349 **3.5) Atmospheric-ocean response of PDO on moisture transport in KH**

350 Increased frequency and intensity of WDs have a significant impact on precipitation in the KH and
351 surrounding region because they govern southwesterly moisture transport from the Arabian Sea
352 (Baudouin et al., 2021; Hunt and Dimri 2021). The composite difference of DJF VIMF and VIMFC
353 between PDO- and PDO+ is now examined to determine the response of moisture transport to the

354 PDO and its subsequent effect on the KH (Fig. 6b). The average difference of VIMFC between
355 PDO- and PDO+ is about $0.8 \times 10^{-5} \text{ kg m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ within KH region. An advection of moisture from the
356 Black Sea, Red Sea, and eastern Mediterranean Sea through the Arabian Peninsula/Arabian Sea
357 towards the KH in westerly fashion is observed. The precipitation associated with WDs is mostly
358 determined by their intensity and proximity to the Arabian Sea (Baudouin et al., 2020). The
359 variations in the moisture transport across the Arabian Peninsula/Arabian Sea are not directly linked
360 to changes in VIMF over the northwest Pacific, but the presence of more WDs south of the strong
361 DJF STJ over KH clearly result in greater moisture transport towards KH during PDO-. Hence, the
362 anomalous moisture transport nearly perpendicular to KH, results in increased moisture flux
363 convergence about 16% greater during the PDO- compared to the PDO+ and leads to greater
364 precipitation in the region during PDO-.

365

366 **4) Conclusion and Discussion:**

367 The recent impacts of climate change over the KH, particularly in mean and extreme winter
368 precipitation, have been largely attributed largely to anthropogenic forcing, such as greenhouse
369 gases, aerosols, and changes in land use. However, these changes cannot be solely explained by
370 natural forcing (Krishnan et al., 2018). Oceanic conditions, especially changes in SSTs over the
371 equatorial-tropical Pacific and north Pacific, play an important role in driving interdecadal
372 variability in atmospheric circulation and hence winter precipitation over the KH.

373

374 DJF snowfall in the KH accounts for around 80-90% of total annual snowfall during the time
375 period, hence a 15% difference in DJF snowfall can have a significant influence on agriculture in
376 this region, especially since most of the rivers in this region, such as tributaries of Indus, Tarim and
377 Ganges are partially fed by snowmelt in the spring and later seasons (Armstrong et al., 2018).
378 Understanding the interdecadal variability and its relationship with the PDO is important for
379 understanding the long-term climate of the KH. We have analysed the long-term variability in
380 winter snowfall over the KH due to PDO by using ERA5 reanalysis data from 1940 to 2022. We
381 found that a strong negative correlation of -0.51 between the PDO and DJF snowfall in the KH.
382 Mean KH snowfall during DJF is approximately 6% greater than the DJF seasonal average during
383 PDO-, and 7% lower during PDO+.

384

385 PDO associated anomalous warming of SST in the northwest Pacific modulates the snowfall in the
386 KH via changes in upper-level temperatures over the Pacific and Asia. The warm SSTs lead to
387 increased deep convection and subsequent upper-tropospheric adiabatic cooling over the Pacific.
388 During PDO-, the anomalous heating of the tropospheric column over North Pacific leads to a wave
389 like pattern with an upper-level trough over the north of KH and upper-level ridge over the Tibetan
390 Plateau. This results in a stronger STJ to the west of, and over, the KH, before it is deflected
391 northwards over the Tibetan Plateau. There is a strong positive correlation between the strength of
392 DJF STJ and DJF snowfall in KH, with a correlation coefficient of 0.51, and a significant negative
393 correlation between the strength of STJ and PDO, with a correlation coefficient of -0.22 during DJF
394 at decadal scale. These results indicate a wave response over KH to the direct forcing of the north
395 Pacific Ocean.

396 These anomalous jet conditions over KH are linked to a higher occurrence of WDs across the
397 region. Using a track catalogue, we found that WDs are 9% more frequent across the KH and drop
398 by approximately 3% in both the northern and southern regions of the KH during PDO- compared
399 to PDO+. However, the WDs are found to be more intense in the vicinity of the Caspian Sea and
400 north of the KH during PDO- rather than PDO+, which is not shown in this study. This increase in
401 WD frequency results in anomalous moisture transport from the Arabian Sea, Black Sea, Red Sea,
402 and eastern Mediterranean Sea towards the KH. The moisture transport is almost perpendicular to
403 the orography of the KH, leading to a strong moisture convergence about 16% greater during the
404 PDO- compared to the PDO+ and thus increased DJF precipitation in the region during the negative
405 phases of the PDO.

406 Our findings highlight the importance of considering interdecadal variability when trying to
407 quantify the effects of anthropogenic climate change in the KH. The recent PDO- has led to
408 increased WD activity, and hence increased winter snowfall over this region, and may be masking
409 the effects of climate change. More research is needed to disentangle climate change from the
410 effects of interdecadal variability over this vulnerable region, so that policymakers can be better
411 informed. The uncertainty in the snowfall and precipitation datasets, along with the limitations of
412 the short timeseries available from reanalysis for examining decadal oscillations, are insufficient to
413 demonstrate such studies. Future long-term climate simulations could be used for subsequent work
414 if the models accurately represent the interaction between the PDO and snowfall/precipitation in
415 this region.

416

417 **5) List of figures:**

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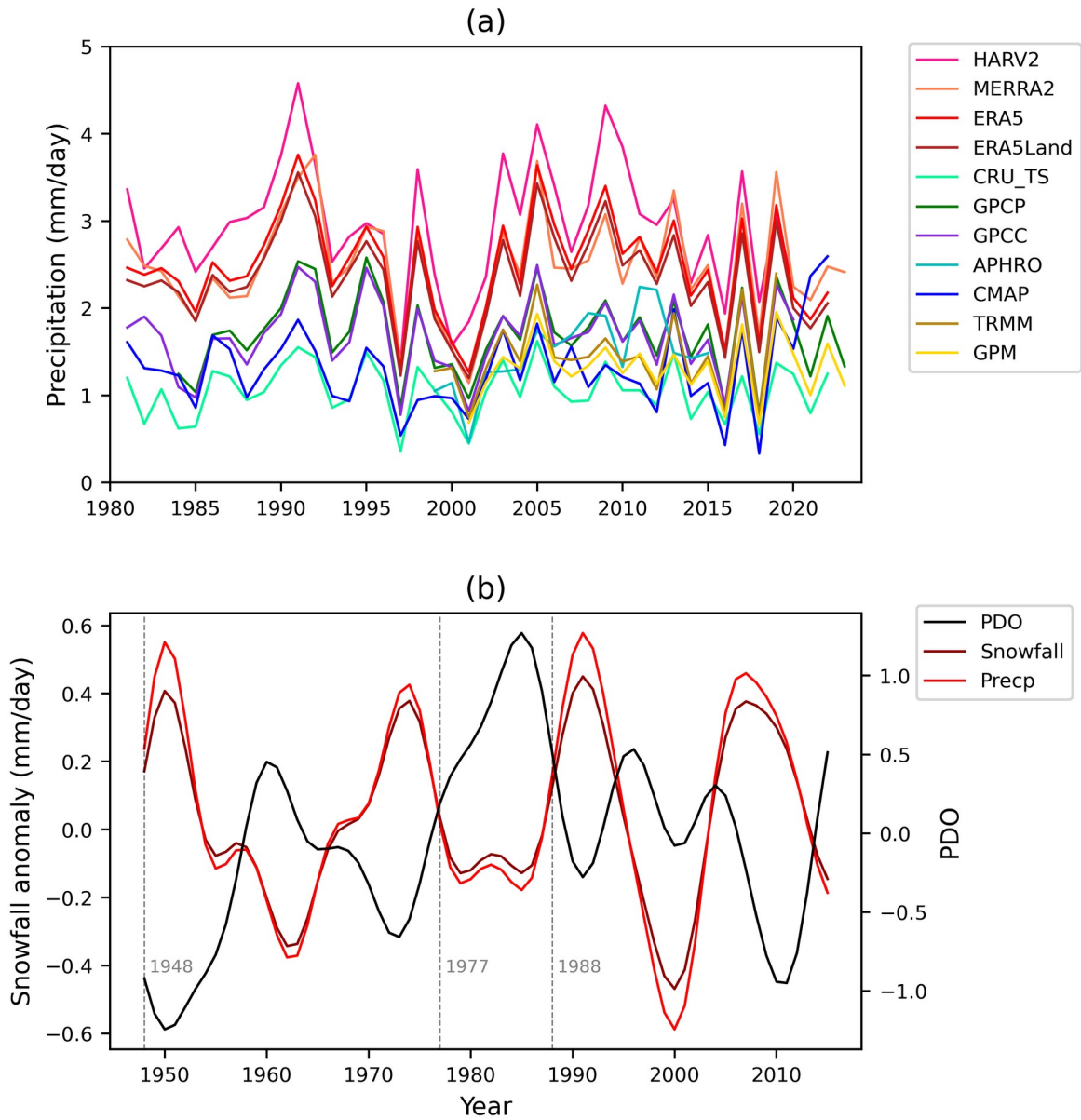
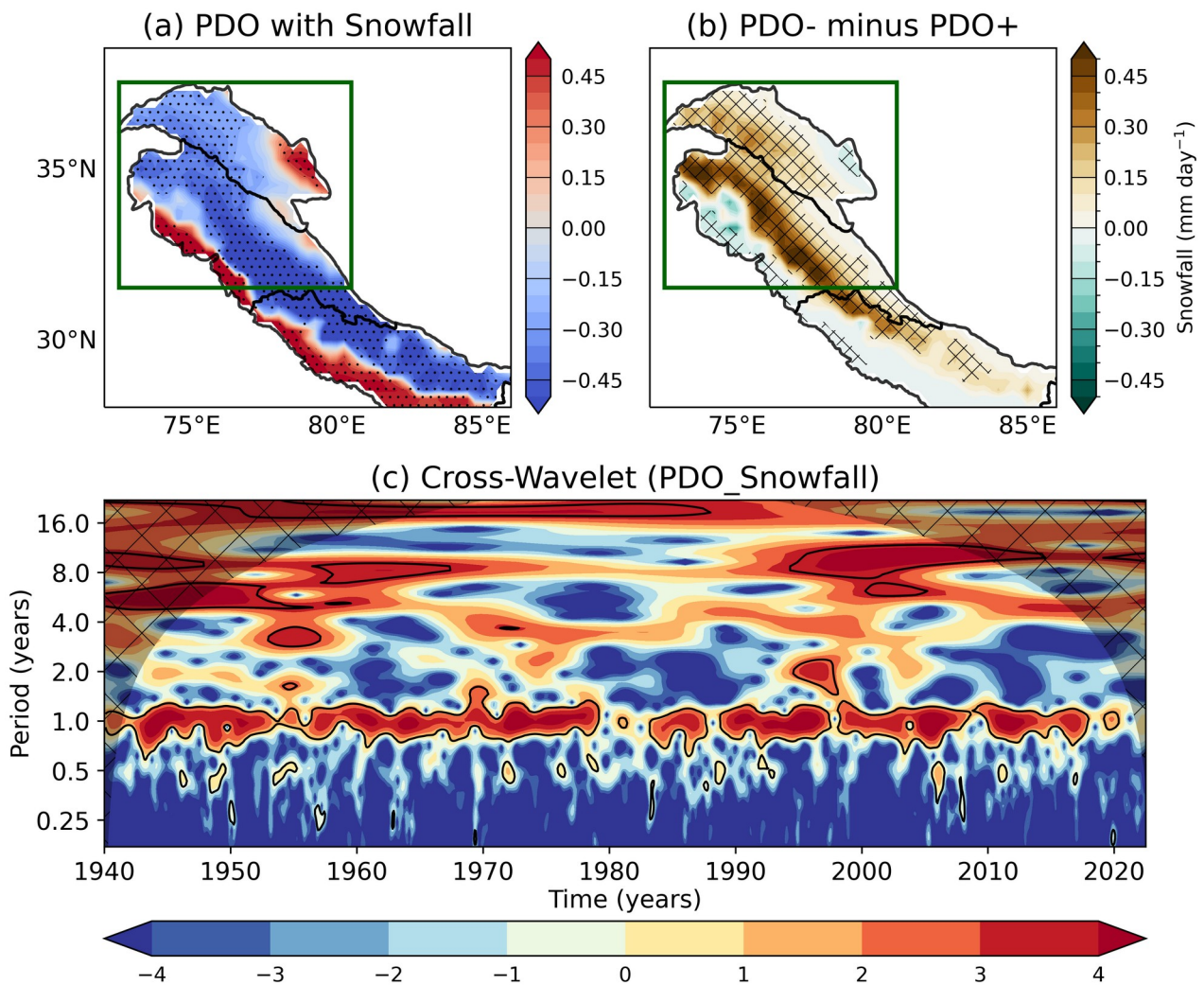
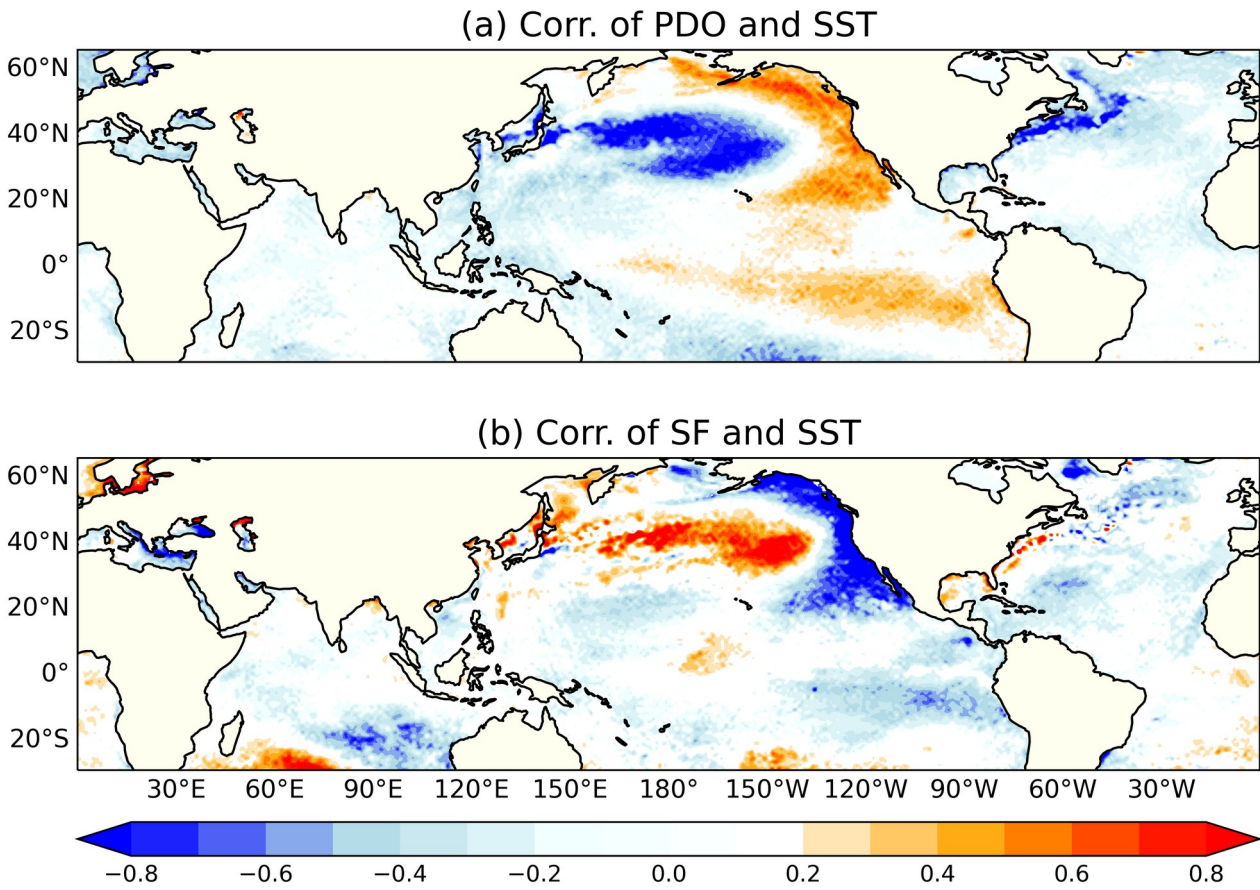


Figure 1: (a) Seasonal variability of DJF precipitation in KH (green rectangle in fig.2; 73° – 78° E, 33° – 38° N) from ERA5, ERA5-land, MERRA2, HARv2, CRU_TS, GPCP, GPC, and CMAP during the period from 1980 to 2020, APHRODITE from 1998 to 2015, TRMM from 1998 to 2019, and GPM from 2000 to 2023. (b) Time series of 9-year filtered DJF PDO index and area-averaged DJF ERA5 snowfall (and precipitation) anomalies over KH from 1940 to 2022. The vertical grey lines represent phase transitions of PDO.



448 **Figure 2: (a) Spatial map of correlation between the 9-year filtered PDO index and the**
 449 **snowfall (mm) over KH during DJF, and (b) composite difference of DJF snowfall (mm)**
 450 **between negative and positive epoch of PDO, (c) cross-wavelet of DJF snowfall (mm) over KH**
 451 **and DJF PDO index from 1940 to 2022. Traditional boundaries of Karakoram-Western and**
 452 **Central Himalayan regions are marked by thick black lines in (a) and (b). Stippling in (a) and**
 453 **(b) denotes regions where the correlation and composite differences are significant at a 95%**
 454 **confidence level, as determined by the two-tailed Student's t-test and Welch's t-test,**
 455 **respectively. Black line contours on the power spectra in (c) indicate where the spectral power**
 456 **of the cross-wavelet is significantly greater than zero at a 95% confidence level.**

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461 **Figure 3: Spatial map of correlation of the 9-year filtered (a) DJF PDO index, and (b) area**
 462 **averaged DJF snowfall over the green box (fig.2) with 9-year filtered DJF sea surface**
 463 **temperature from 1940 to 2022. The correlations patterns are statistically significant at the**
 464 **95% confidence level, as determined by the two tailed student's t-test.**

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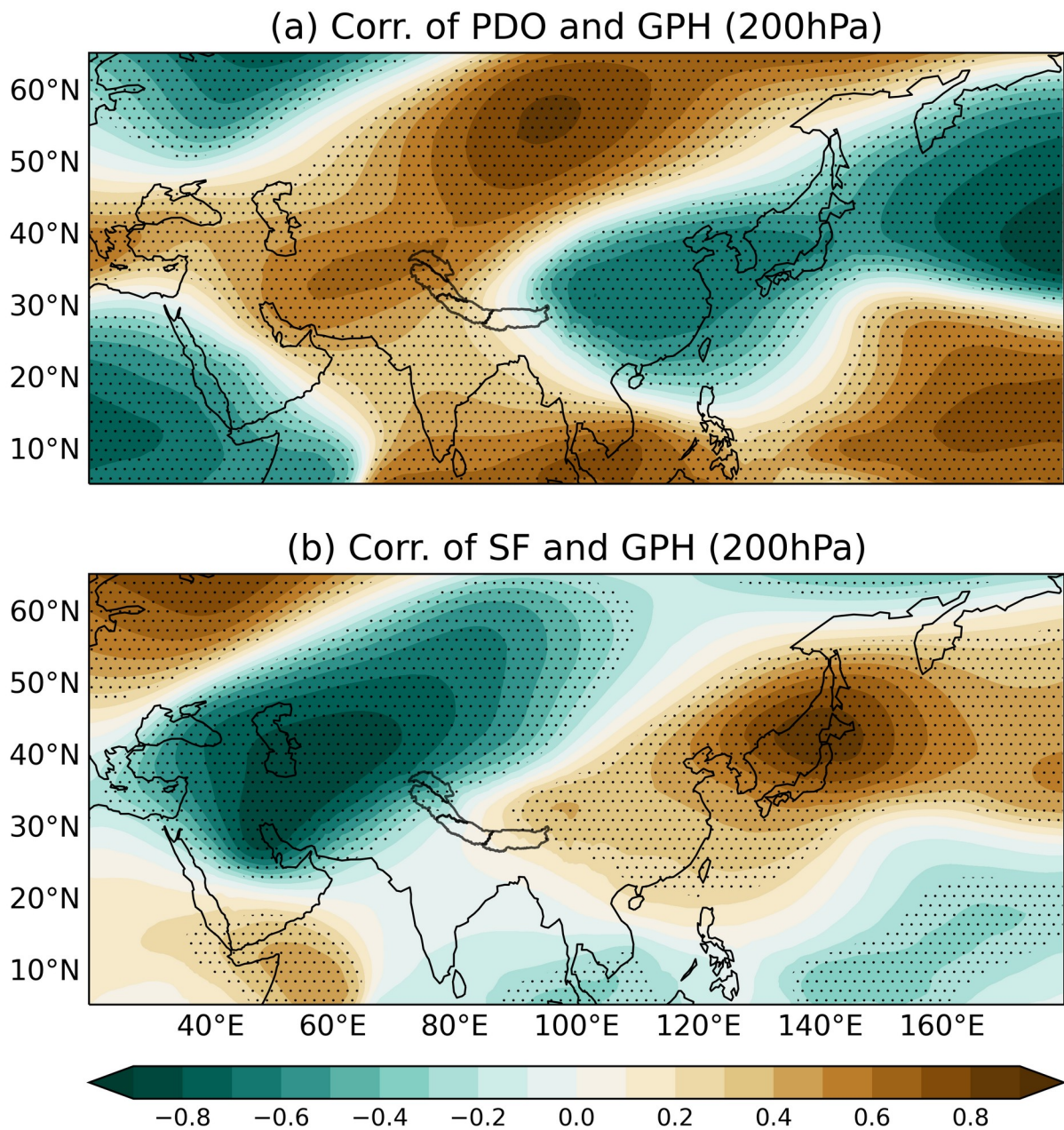
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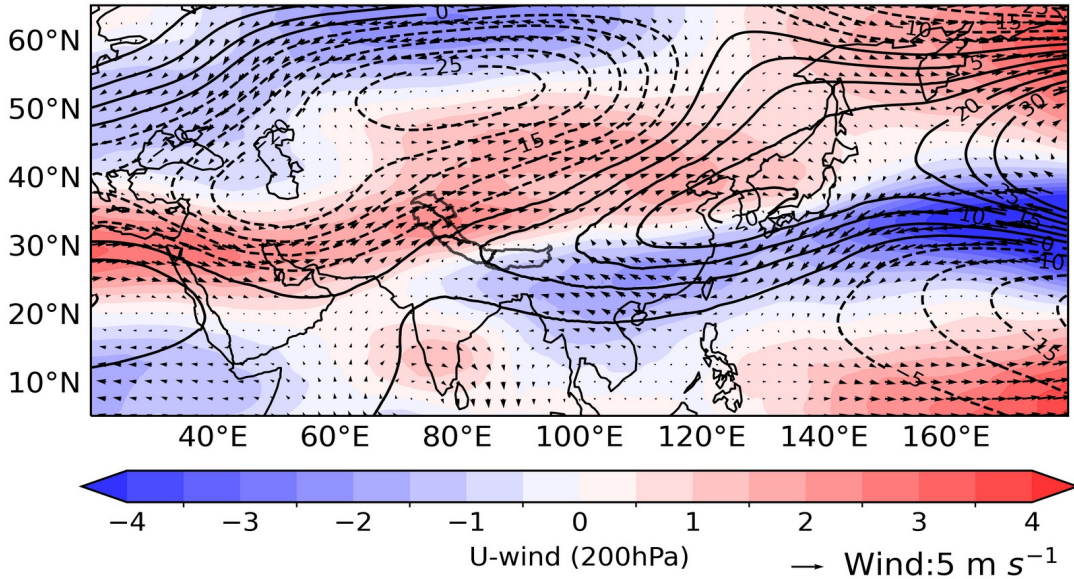
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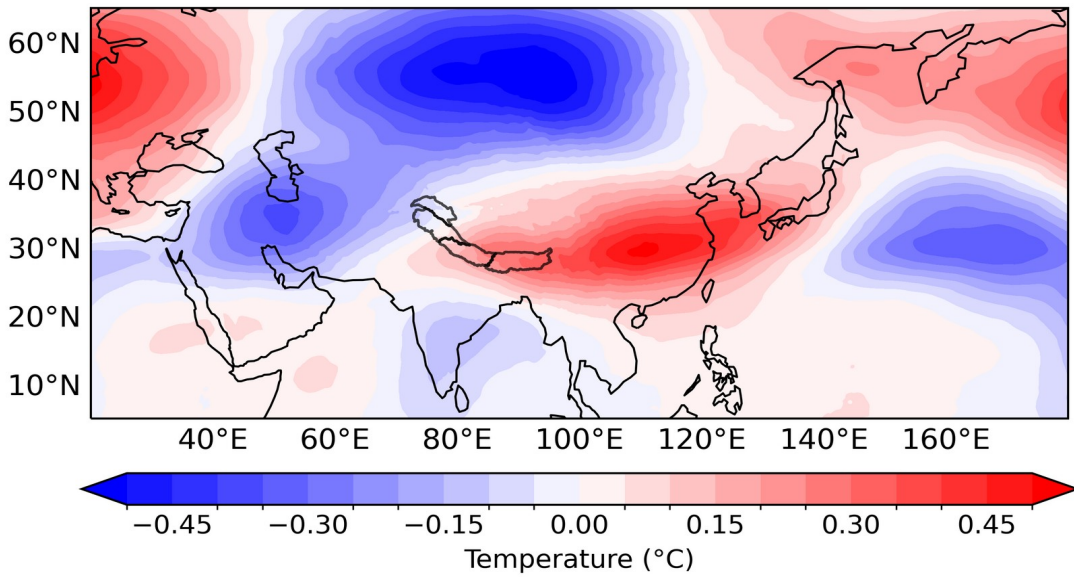


474 **Figure 4: Spatial map of correlation of the 9-year filtered (a) DJF PDO index, and (b) area**
 475 **averaged DJF snowfall (mm) over the green box (fig.2) with 9-year filtered DJF geopotential**
 476 **height at 200hPa (m) from 1940 to 2022. Stippling in (a) and (b) indicate where the**
 477 **correlations are significant at a 95% confidence level, as determined by the two tailed**
 478 **student's t-test.**

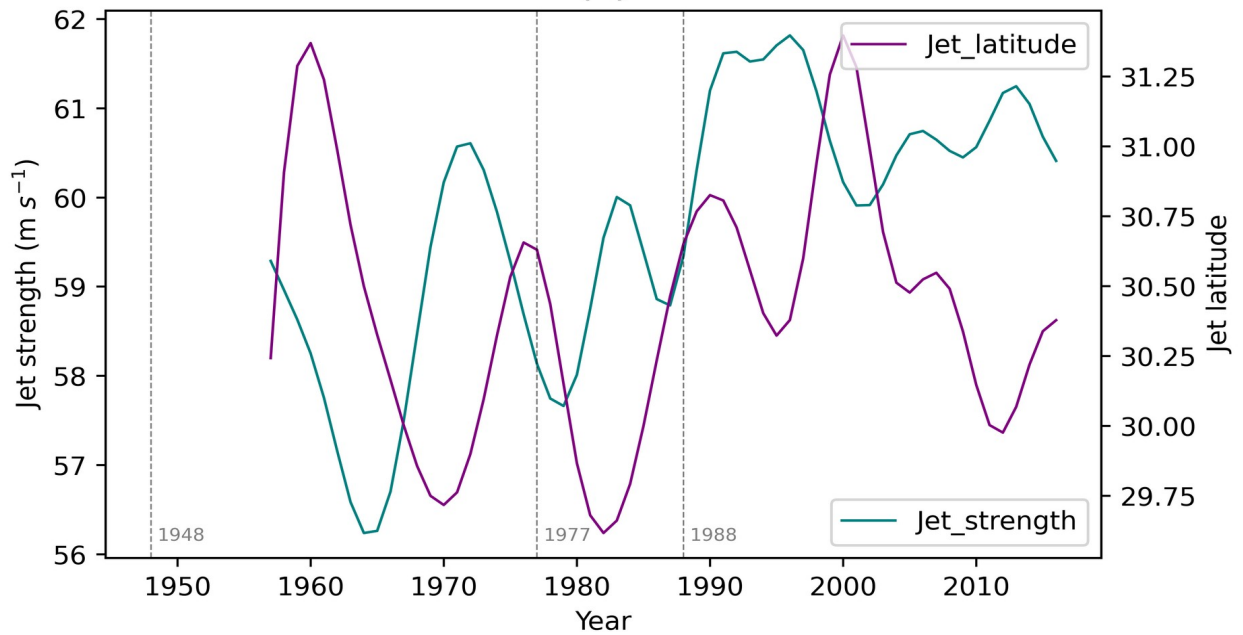
(a) PDO- minus PDO+



(b) PDO- minus PDO+



(c)



480 **Figure 5: Composite difference of (a) U-wind (colour; m/s), wind (vectors; m s⁻¹), and**
 481 **geopotential height (contours; m), (b) vertically averaged temperature (°C) from 300hPa to**
 482 **500hPa level during DJF between negative and positive epoch of PDO, (c) time series of 9-year**
 483 **filtered strength (red) and latitude (blue) of DJF subtropical westerly jet (STJ) over KH**
 484 **(green box; fig. 2) from 1940 to 2022.**

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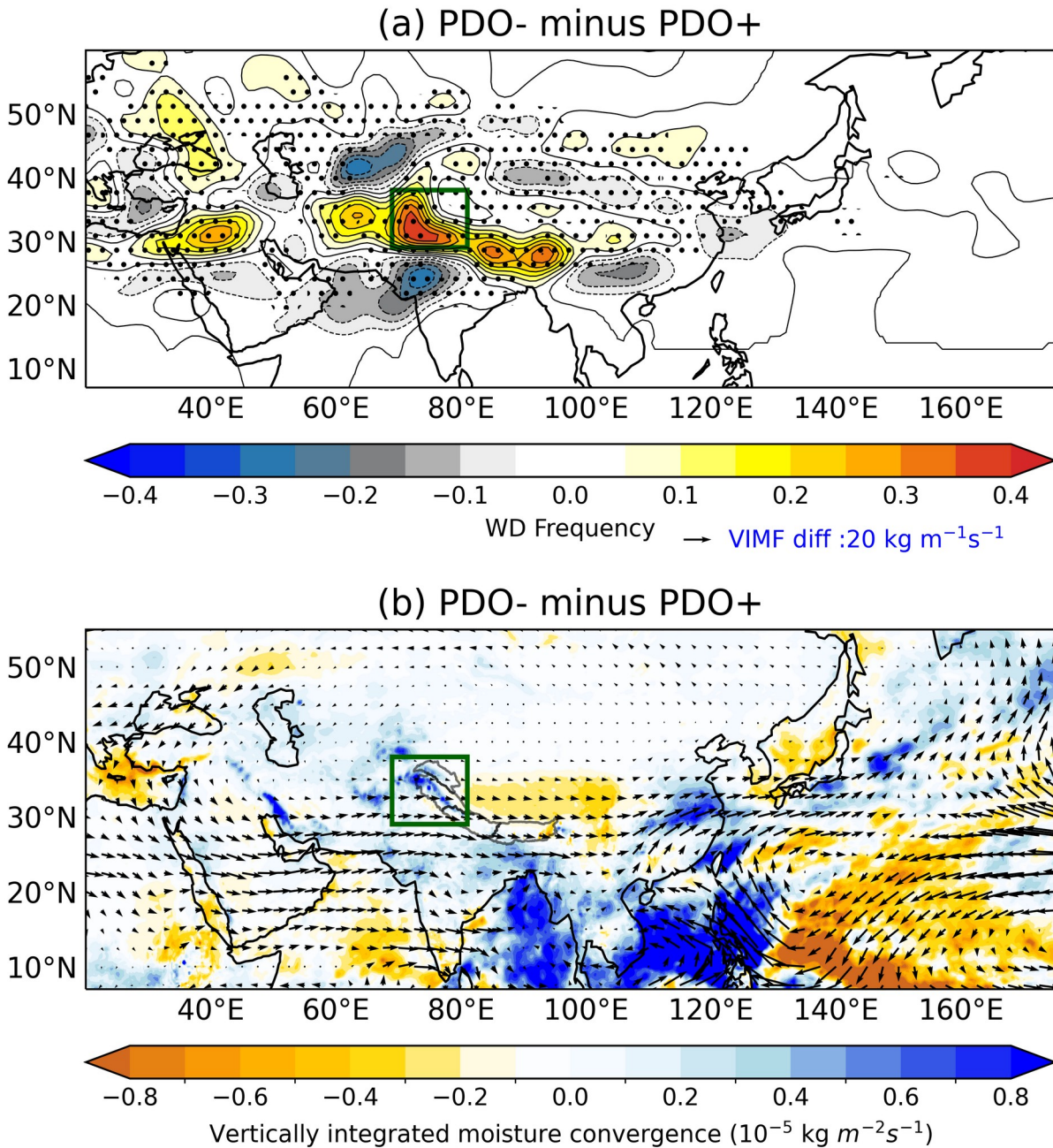
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510 **Figure 6: Composite difference of (a) WD frequency, and (b) vertically integrated moisture**
 511 **flux (vectors; kg m⁻¹ s⁻¹) and vertically integrated moisture convergence (colours; kg m⁻² s⁻¹)**
 512 **during DJF between negative and positive epoch of PDO from 1940 to 2022. Stippling in (a)**

513 indicates where the differences are significant at a 95% confidence level, as determined by the
514 two tailed Welch's t-test.

515

516 **Author Contributions:**

517 **Priya Bharati:** conceptualization; formal analysis; methodology; investigation; software;
518 visualization; writing original draft. **Kieran M. R. Hunt:** conceptualization; methodology;
519 software; writing - review and editing. **Pranab Deb:** supervision; conceptualization; writing –
520 review and editing.

521

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524

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