

Physical drivers and trends of the recent delayed withdrawal of the Southwest Monsoon over Mainland Indochina

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Key point

- Cumulative Change of Mainland Indochina Southwest Monsoon (MSwM) new definition index improves understanding of monsoon transitions.
- Anomalous trends of Subtropical Westerly Jet and Tropical Easterly Jet are linked to changes in wind patterns and monsoon timing.
- Anomalous Sea surface temperatures impact moisture transport during MSwM Retreat phases.

Plain Language Summary

19 The study investigates the delay withdrawal of the Mainland Southwest Monsoon (MSwM)
20 by using spatial trend connections with meteorological and oceanic factors. The new Cumulative
21 Change-Point Monsoon (CPM) definition index well described the definition of monsoon seasonal
22 shifting. The results show that the subtropical westerly jet is getting stronger while the tropical easterly
23 jet is getting weaker within these years. This influences the regional wind patterns and delays the
24 monsoon withdrawal. The study highlights the critical role of ocean-atmosphere interactions and local
25 atmospheric circulation in influencing the summer monsoon. Specifically, warmer sea surface
26 temperatures in the Indian Ocean enhance moisture transport through strengthened southwesterly
27 winds, while atmospheric pressure gradients drive moisture convergence over the region. These
28 processes contribute to prolonged monsoon seasons, increasing the risk of floods and disrupting
29 agricultural schedules, which significantly impact water management and farming in Mainland
30 Indochina.

31 **Abstract**

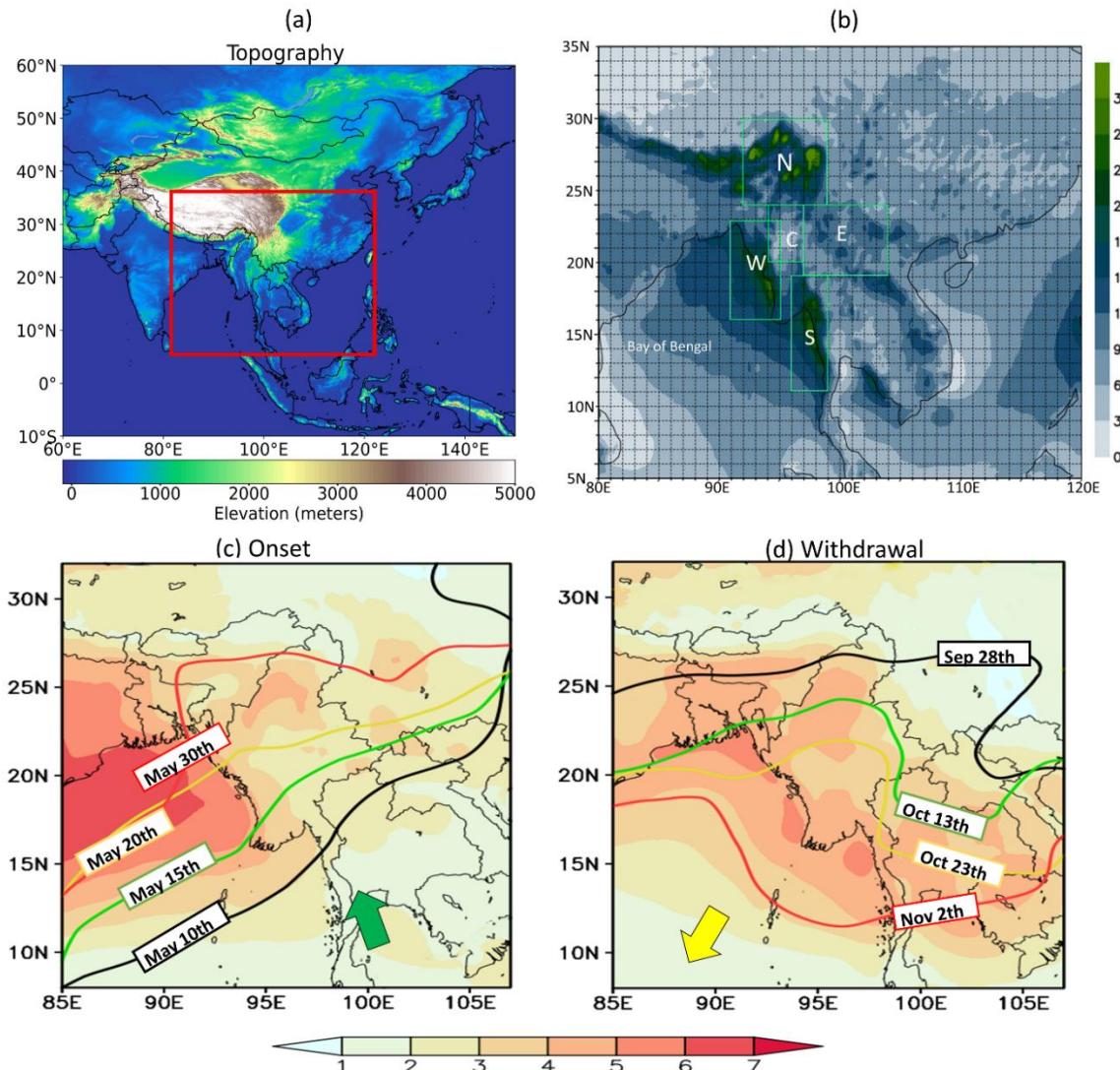
32 The study investigates the key factors that cause the Mainland Indochina Southwest Monsoon (MSwM)
33 to delay withdrawal, utilizing a spatial trend correlation between the monsoon index and various
34 meteorological and oceanic variables such as sea surface temperature (SST), zonal winds, and moisture
35 transport. A significant strengthening trend in the Subtropical Westerly jet (SWJ) and a weakening
36 Tropical Easterly jet (TEJ) not only impacts regional wind patterns but also delays the monsoon
37 departure. The anomalous South China Sea and the equatorial Indo-Pacific Ocean surface temperature
38 (SSTA) further contribute to these delayed withdrawals, and there is a significant correlation between
39 the MSwM withdrawal index and SSTA, moisture transport, and essential atmospheric factors. The
40 results clarify MSwM dynamics, offering significant insights for future climate research associated
41 with MSwM. The study also suggests that the variability of ocean-atmosphere interactions and local
42 atmospheric circulation patterns is critical for understanding monsoon variability, which has a potential
43 impact on climate predictions, water resource management, and agriculture practices over Mainland
44 Indochina.

45 **Keywords:** Mainland Indochina, Monsoon Withdrawal, MSwM, SWJ, TEJ, ENSO

46 **1 Introduction**

47 In tropical Asia, the summer monsoon system is one of the most significant meteorological
48 phenomena in the Northern Hemisphere. This monsoon onset and withdrawal are the most notable
49 intraseasonal variable in monsoon systems. The beginning of the summer rainy season, extensive
50 convection, and a rapid change in atmospheric circulation characterize this period (Aung et al., 2017;
51 Bordoni and Schneider, 2008; Salinger et al., 2014). Based on previous science literature of the Asia-
52 Pacific monsoon classification, there are three primary types of summer monsoons, East Asian, Indian,
53 and Western North Pacific monsoons (Wang and Ho, 2002), (Supplementary Fig S-1). The eastern
54 bay of Bengal (EBOB), as known as the mainland-Indochina region (MIC) study area (Fig. 1a) is
55 situated in a transitional zone between the ISM (India Summer Monsoon) and the WNPSM (Western
56 North Pacific Summer Monsoon) systems (Oo and Jonah, 2024). The monsoon indices had been
57 developed to study the transition and boundary between the Indian Summer Monsoon (ISM) and East
58 Asian Summer Monsoon (EASM) (Cao et al., 2012), characterize monsoon onset and withdrawal using
59 rainfall-based metrics (Bombardi et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2024), and define these phases through
60 circulation-based approaches (Chen et al., 2023; Hu et al., 2022). The MIC also features complex
61 terrain, with high mountain ranges and long costal area. Simply, the MIC dominates a unique position
62 between the southern areas of East and Middle East Asia, where this monsoon system over MIC
63 exhibiting transitional characteristics between the two monsoon systems (Zhang et al., 2002a).

64 Consequently, significant variation in agricultural planting and ploughing times occur over MIC
 65 affected by the monsoon rainfall (Fig. 1b), depending upon the early or late monsoon onset or
 66 withdrawal.



67
 68 *Fig. 1 (a) Topography (m) of the study area, including mainland Indochina. (b) Daily rainfall (mm) during the MSwM season. (c)*
 69 *Climatological onset and (d) withdrawal dates of MSwM with standard deviation values (shaded, days). This figure was created with*
 70 *Python 3.10 (matplotlib 3.5.2 [<https://matplotlib.org/>]), Cartopy 0.20.0 [<https://pypi.org/project/Cartopy/>]).*

71 A range of onset and withdrawal indices has been established, based on rapid changes in extensive
 72 atmospheric structures. Especially, the most commonly used atmospheric variables for defining onset
 73 and withdrawal indices include rainfall (Ajayamohan et al., 2009; Colbert et al., 2015; Htway and
 74 Matsumoto, 2011; Vijaya Kumari et al., 2018), and reversible component wind (CY Li, 1999; Li et
 75 al., 2010; Webster and Yang, 1992). In addition to precipitation and circulation, the thermal and
 76 moisture characteristics of the atmosphere also serve as an important indicator for describing the
 77 progression of the monsoon season (Song et al., 2025; Zhang et al., 2012). The summer monsoon
 78 typically onset to MIC between mid-May and early June, with slight variations in indices and statistics

79 (Mao and Wu, 2007; Oo, 2023a; Ren et al., 2022; Wang and Ho, 2002). The MSwM withdrawal
80 displayed significant interannual variability, with a extent of one to two weeks may vary among the
81 earliest and latest withdrawals based on climatological data (Evan and Camargo, 2011; Oo, 2023a). In
82 addition to ENSO, recent studies have demonstrated that mid-high latitude systems also have
83 significant impacts on ENSO, East Asian monsoon onset and withdrawal, which should also be briefly
84 reviewed ([Hu et al., 2020, 2025](#))

85 The global wind circulation and the El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) have been widely
86 studied for their influence on the interannual variability of monsoon onset (Roxy et al., 2014; Wu,
87 2017), the formation of South Asia's subtropical high (Q Guo, 1988; Wang et al., 2008; Zhang et al.,
88 2002b), and fluctuations in local sea surface temperature (SST) ([Salinger et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2023](#)).
89 Based on these long-term physical atmospheric variables data, this study seeks to examine the factors
90 contributing to the delay withdrawal of the MSwM, with superior weight on ocean-atmosphere
91 interactions and zonal wind dynamics, which have been insufficiently explored in this area, since
92 monsoon rains are crucial for agriculture and fill up water supplies (Win Zin and Rutten, 2017; Zin
93 Mie Mie Sein et al., 2015). In this study, we present the variability of withdrawal dates over interannual
94 scale. Due to the significant up trending of local withdrawal date of MSwM, derived from the
95 combination of reversal of winds circulation ([Ramage, 1971](#)) and vertical moisture flux transport
96 changes (Fasullo and Webster, 2003). We investigate the mechanism driver of these delay withdrawal
97 and potential driver of continues untimely rainfall after MSwM withdrawal.

98 2 Data and Method

99 The study utilizes data from five sources:

100 1. ***Department of Meteorology and Hydrology, Myanmar (DMH)***: Daily observed rainfall, sea
101 level pressure, and annual onset and withdrawal dates for significant regions were collected from
102 DMH, which operates 79 meteorological stations nationwide. This data help assess validate of
103 reanalysis datasets.

104 2. ***NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis***: This dataset provides zonal (u) and meridional (v) wind components,
105 specific humidity (q), geopotential height (z), and vertical velocity (w) at atmospheric isobaric
106 levels in the troposphere for wind analysis ([Kanamitsu et al., 2002](#)).

107 3. ***European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts - ECMWF***: ERA5 offers reanalysis
108 data with a 0.25° geographical resolution for global climate analysis, including sea level pressure
109 (SLP), moisture flux convergence (MFC), and outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) for the period
110 from 1991 to 2020 ([Hersbach et al., 2020](#)).

111 4. **Unified Gauge-Based Analysis of Global Daily Precipitation (CPC):** This dataset provides
112 rainfall data (Chen et al., 2008; Jiao et al., 2021).

113 5. **Hadley Centre:** Hadley Centre Sea Surface Temperature dataset (HadISST) (Selman and Misra,
114 2014).

115 2.1.1 Definition of Monsoon onset and withdrawal by CPM index

116 The MSwM region is defined by coordinates 10°N–30°N and 85°E–110°E (Fig. 1; see Appendix
117 for additional details). We examine seasonal fluctuations in the moisture budget and extensive
118 atmospheric circulation, as established by:

119 *Equation 1*

$$120 \text{MFC} = - \int_{\text{Surface}}^{300 \text{hPa}} \nabla_p \cdot (\mathbf{U}q) \frac{dp}{g} = P - E + \frac{\partial W}{\partial t}$$

121 This equation was developed from a prior study on the variability of the Asian Monsoon (Walker et
122 al., 2015). In this context, Moisture Flux Convergence (MFC) is a vital quantity that delineates the
123 equilibrium of moisture in the atmosphere. The initial segment of the equation encapsulates the
124 dynamic component, represented by the divergence of moisture flow " $(\mathbf{U}q) \cdot \nabla p$ " denotes the
125 movement and accumulation of moisture resulting from wind patterns. This dynamic element is
126 essential for comprehending how atmospheric circulation patterns affect moisture availability. The
127 second component, " $P - E + \partial W / \partial t$ " signifies the thermodynamic equilibrium of moisture inside the
128 system. **P** represents precipitation, **E** signifies evaporation, and $\partial W / \partial t$ reflects temporal variations in
129 water storage. This relationship illustrates how thermodynamic mechanisms regulate the moisture
130 budget and influence the overall climate dynamics of the monsoon zone.

131 By integrating dynamic and thermodynamic aspects, the cumulative change of the MSwM
132 (CPM) index provides a strong framework for analyzing the behavior of the monsoon circulation over
133 time. Building upon the MFC, we define the Cumulative Change of the MSwM (CPM) index of onset
134 and withdrawal as follows:

135 *Equation 2*

$$136 \text{MSwM (CPM)} = \frac{1}{5} * (\mathbf{D}(U_1 - U_2) + \mathbf{D}(P_1 - P_2) + \mathbf{D}(\text{MFC}) + \mathbf{D}(\text{TP}_{\text{net}}) + \mathbf{D}(\text{OLR}))$$

137 These five diagnostic variables were used to characterize the onset and withdrawal of the monsoon
138 over the transitional Mainland Indochina (MIC) region, outgoing longwave radiation (OLR), vertically
139 integrated moisture flux convergence (MFC), net precipitation (TpNet), meridional shear in zonal
140 winds ($U_1 - U_2$), and pressure gradient ($P_1 - P_2$). These variables are physically consistent with the
141 governing moisture budget equation. We determine the normalized values for each factor annually for
142 statistical investigation. The cumulative value change from positive to negative, or vice versa, is

143 verified for further statistical calculations. “D” in Equation (2) expresses the date when the state shifts
144 of positive or negative (+ to - or - to +) values and typically represents the change or difference in the
145 standardize values of each variable in a year.

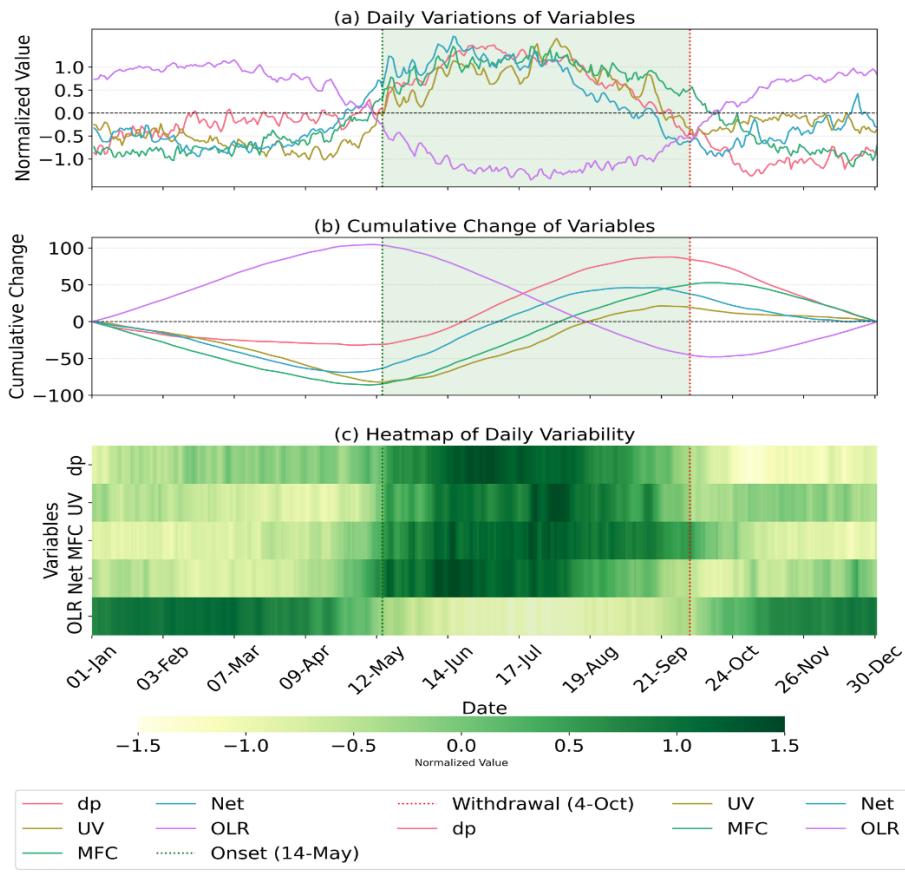
146 Thus, changes in MFC directly link large-scale circulation dynamics with rainfall variability,
147 while TpNet (P-E) and OLR confirm convective activity and cloud cover. In this equation, D (U1-
148 U2) and D(P1 - P2) represent the differences in zonal winds and pressure between the southern and
149 northern regions of the Mainland Indochina (MIC). Specifically, the southern region (90°–100°E, 10°–
150 15°N) reflects the influence of the broad Indochina Peninsula, where the southwest monsoon winds
151 are most active, while the northern region (95°–100°E, 25°–30°N) captures the terrain-influenced
152 pressure dynamics near the eastern Tibetan Plateau (Fig. 1a) and the southwest monsoon wind
153 withdrawal pattern (Fig. 1d), we take pressure readings that are different from longitude ranges as two
154 distinct regions. The meridional shear in the 850-hPa zonal winds and the pressure gradient between
155 northern and southern regions which is driving monsoon flows, the key indicators of monsoon
156 circulation, are averaged across two distinct regions: the southern MIC (90E-100E, 10N-15N), referred
157 to as (U1,P1), and the northern MIC (95E-100E, 25N-30N), designated as (U2,P2). This approach
158 follows the Gill-type tropical circulation response (Gill, 1980), where deep convection excites
159 westward-propagating Rossby wave responses that enhance southwesterlies to the west of the
160 convention center, and the South China Sea–Bay of Bengal circulation system provides a dynamical
161 link between ISM and WNPSM (Wang et al., 2009; Wang and Zhou, 2024). Consequently, the five
162 indices together capture the coupled thermodynamic and dynamic drivers of monsoon evolution in this
163 transitional region. The term D(MFC) captures the cumulative changes in moisture transport and
164 convergence, essential for monsoon rainfall, while D(TPnet) represents net precipitation changes,
165 indicating monsoon withdrawal as well as onset by rainfall and D(OLR) the changes in outgoing
166 longwave radiation, closely linked to convective activity and cloud cover to confirm monsoon rainfall,
167 respectively. We calculate the mean change date of the standardized positive/negative value of the
168 outgoing longwave radiation (OLR), the vertically integrated moisture budget transition (MFC), the
169 net precipitation (TpNet), the meridional shear wind (U1-U2) (U-wind), and the pressure differential
170 (P1-P2) (dP). The first day of three consecutive positive or negative days is taken into consideration
171 when determining the change date. Next, we obtained each variable's change point dates for every year.
172 Lastly, the climatology data for every term date was acquired (Supplementary Table S1). We used
173 these findings to compute the MSwM Change Point Index, which is the arithmetic mean onset dates,
174 withdrawal dates, and season length (Supplementary Table S4). A student's t-test is used to calculate
175 the correlation coefficients of these findings at the 95% level of significance. This rounded approach
176 allows for a comprehensive assessment of the interrelationships among these parameters, simplifying

177 the identification of key onset (Fig. 1c) and withdrawal (Fig. 1d). Moreover, common statistical
178 methods such as correlation (Krugman et al., 2018), regression (Ma, 2019), random forest (Breiman,
179 2001), box and whisker (Schmidhammer, 2000) are also applied in the study at necessary parts.

180 The Random Forest technique, a widely used ensemble machine-learning method, was utilized to
181 find the relative relevance of variables controlling monsoon withdrawal and rainfall. It generates
182 several decision trees during training by sampling subsets of data and features, hence mitigating
183 overfitting and enhancing generalization (Breiman, 2001). Our study incorporated input variables
184 comprising atmospheric and hydrological factors, including Outgoing Longwave Radiation (OLR),
185 Net Precipitation (Net), Moisture Flux Convergence (MFC), Zonal Wind Shear (U), and Pressure
186 Differential (dP). Each tree generated a prediction, and the final output was ascertained by averaging
187 (for regression tasks) or by majority voting (for classification tasks). Box and whisker plots were
188 employed to graphically encapsulate the distributions of essential variables across various phases of
189 the monsoon season (Schmidhammer, 2000). It is good to examine the day-of-year distributions for
190 monsoon withdrawal timing based on many factors, including dP, U, MFC, Net Precipitation, and
191 OLR. This analysis clearly exhibited variability and key tendencies in the data, highlighting the
192 contribution of specific variables to withdrawal patterns. For example, zonal wind shear (U) exhibits
193 narrower variability, indicating a more consistent relationship with withdrawal timing compared to
194 other factors.

195 **3 Results and Discussion**

196 **3.1 Climatology Outlook**



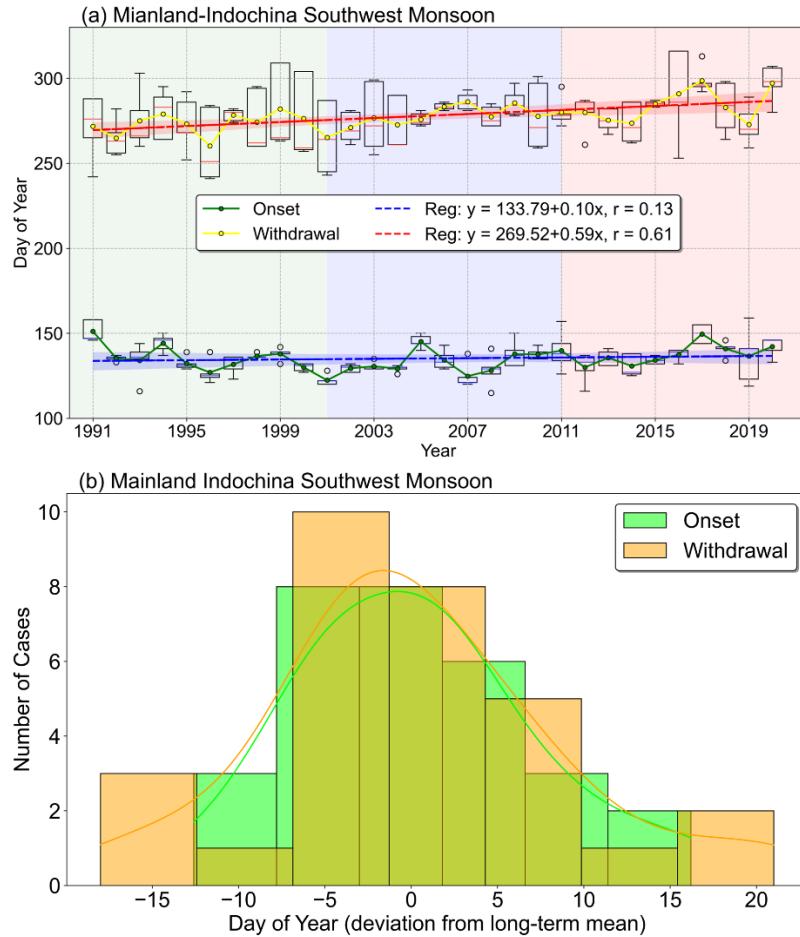
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198 *Fig. 2 Daily and cumulative variations of monsoon parameters with their seasonal progression. (a) Daily variations of normalized
199 parameters: pressure gradient (dp; red), wind shear (UV; yellow), moisture flux convergence (MFC; green), net precipitation (Net;
200 blue), and outgoing longwave radiation (OLR; purple). (b) Cumulative changes of the same parameters with identical color coding.
201 (c) Color strip timeseries showing the daily variability of all parameters throughout the year. Vertical dotted lines indicate monsoon onset
202 (green; 14-May) and withdrawal (red; 4-Oct), with light green shading highlighting the monsoon active period in (Fig a nd b). All
203 parameters are normalized and calculated according to Eqs. (1) and (2). This figure was created using Python 3.10 with Matplotlib
204 3.5.2 (<https://matplotlib.org/>) and Seaborn.*

205 Fig. 2 explained how the MSwM (CPM) index is constructed by combining both thermodynamic
206 and dynamic climatology daily contribution (Fig. 2.a) and their cumulative change (Fig. 2.b) of same
207 variables. Cumulative change curves (CMFC, Cdp, Cwind) help track the transitions in atmospheric
208 conditions that define the onset and withdrawal of the monsoon. The simultaneous positive and
209 negative shifts in MFC, OLR, pressure differentials, and wind shear facilitate the identification and
210 calculation of monsoon onset and withdrawal. Both figures underscore the significance of cumulative
211 effects in the MSwM index, where prolonged alterations over several days in moisture flux, wind shear,
212 and pressure differentials signify critical transitions in the monsoon cycle, thereby illustrating the
213 seasonal progression of the monsoon in contrast to mere daily variations. The Color strip timeseries
214 (Fig. 2.c) support more clarity transaction of monsoon season by same variables values. The
215 climatology dates for each year are shown in Table S-1 and S-2 of the supplemental material.

216 However, the small asynchrony among variables in Fig. 2 arises because each diagnostic reflects
217 different aspects of the monsoon system with distinct adjustment timescales: dynamical fields (wind
218 shear, pressure gradient) respond rapidly to convective heating through Gill-type circulation, while
219 thermodynamic fields (MFC, TpNet, OLR) involve moisture storage and cloud–radiation feedbacks
220 that introduce short lags (Gill, 1980; Wang et al., 2009). The CPM index minimizes this effect by
221 averaging across all five variables, so that the central onset and withdrawal dates are robust, while the
222 spread provides an objective measure of uncertainty.

223 Some studies have indicated that the monsoon onset over the Bay of Bengal is significantly
224 correlated with that over the South China Sea and India ([Xing et al., 2016](#)). The India Monsoon Index
225 (IMI), the Webster and Yang monsoon index for Asia (WYI), the West North Pacific monsoon index
226 (WNPMI), and are some of the well-known monsoon indicators for the South Asian region (Goswami
227 et al., 1999; Wang et al., 2001, 2004; Webster and Yang, 1992). However, seasonal wind variation and
228 uniform rainfall can also be used to designate MSwM zones as sub-regions ([Oo, 2022a, 2023b](#)). In
229 terms of annual variability, MSwM and other South Asian monsoon indicators show a comparable
230 time-series pattern and a positive moderate connection (Supplementary Fig S-6).

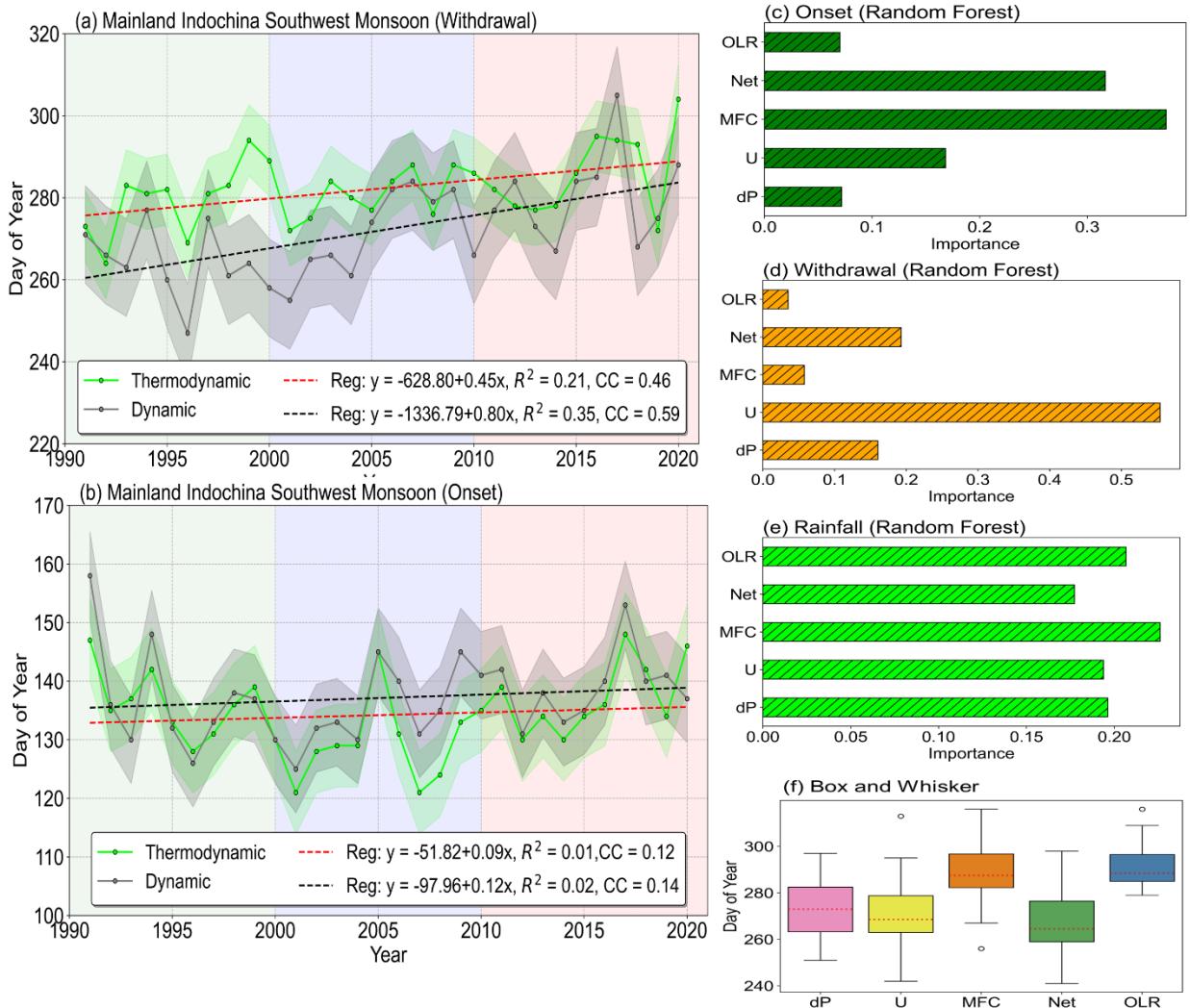


231

232 *Fig. 3 (a) Interannual variability of MSwM onset (green line) and withdrawal (yellow line) dates, with trends. (b) Frequency distribution*
 233 *of deviations from mean onset and withdrawal dates, with implications for Indochina agriculture. This figure was created with Python*
 234 *3.10 (Matplotlib 3.5.2 [<https://matplotlib.org/>]).*

235 Examining the distribution patterns of the onset and withdrawal dates of the MSwM across
 236 MIC is interesting, despite the MSwM index reflecting changes in the whole MIC rather than a specific
 237 region within its domain. In this study, we only consider interannual variability over southern region
 238 (95E-100E, 10N-15N) (“S” area in Fig. 1.b) where is the first onset point (during onset) and last
 239 withdrawal point (during withdrawal) in north-south-north shifting of monsoon characteristic due to
 240 its role in the migration of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ), which shifts northward during
 241 boreal summer, initiating intense convective activity and precipitation. At this latitude, the strong land-
 242 ocean thermal contrast generates a pressure gradient, drawing moist southwesterly winds from the
 243 Indian Ocean that converge and bring rainfall (Goswami and Xavier, 2005). This region aligns with
 244 the early onset of monsoon rainbands and moisture convergence observed in climatological data, as
 245 well as the geographical position of southern Myanmar, India and Sri Lanka, which are the first
 246 landmasses to experience the advancing monsoon (K Lau, 2000). Fig. 3.a shows interannual variation
 247 of onset and withdrawal dates with their trend including whisker statistical box. It indicates the timing
 248 of onset and withdrawal phases, which are vital for understanding how the regional monsoon system

249 is developing. Over the MIC, early or delayed onset and withdrawal of the monsoon can dramatically
250 affect the seasonal rainfall patterns, which may lead to regional crop production and society plans. The
251 trend lines in both phases suggest possible long-term shifts in monsoon behavior (Fig. 3.a), may be
252 influence of the broader climatic drivers such as variability of ENSO or Indian Ocean dipole (IOD)
253 (Ding et al., 2011a; Wang and Ho, 2002). While ENSO/IOD influence monsoon dynamic circulation,
254 their direct impact on MSwM onset timing is secondary to regional thermodynamics (Oo, 2021, 2022b;
255 Oo et al., 2025; Oo and Jonah, 2024). The time-series of dynamic and thermodynamic trend displayed
256 that withdrawal dates are significantly greater variation than onset dates within five variables of CPM
257 index for each year especially in dynamic boundary (Fig. 4). The frequency distribution of deviations
258 from the mean onset and withdrawal dates (Fig. 3.b), which explained that onset and withdrawal date
259 may early or delay generally one to two weeks (5 to 7 days as usual in general). The longest delay
260 (early) withdrawal phases occurred with 20 days (15 days) during this 30-year study period 1991-2020.
261 The onset phases are generally characterized by a rapid shift in moisture flux and dynamic
262 transformations over MIC, whereas the withdrawal phases occurs more gradually and may be affected
263 by extensive atmospheric patterns (Seager et al., 2010), including modifications in subtropical jets,
264 mid-latitude disturbances, and tropical easterly waves, which can introduce variability in the timing of
265 the retreat (Hu et al., 2019).



266

267 *Fig. 4 Interannual variation of thermodynamic and dynamic factors during (a) onset and (b) withdrawal phases of MSwM, with trends,*
 268 *highlighting the impact on mainland Indochina. And their sensitivity tests by random forest method (c) for CPM index onset,*
 269 *(d) for CPM index withdrawal and (e) for monsoon regional rainfall. (f) The boxes whisker plot of five physical parameters to determine the*
 270 *MSwM onset and withdrawal (Oo et al. 2023). This figure was created with Python 3.10 (Matplotlib 3.5.2 [<https://matplotlib.org/>]).*

271 The interannual variations of the Mainland Indochina Southwest Monsoon (MSwM) onset and
 272 withdrawal dates from 1991 to 2020 reveal a clear divergence in behavior between the two phases
 273 when analyzed through thermodynamic and dynamic components using the CPM index (Fig. 4). The
 274 onset phase shows minimal long-term change, with weak regression slopes of +0.09 days/year for the
 275 thermodynamic component and +0.12 days/year for the dynamic component, both statistically
 276 insignificant (Fig. 4.b). In contrast, the withdrawal phase exhibits a significant delay, especially in the
 277 dynamic processes, with a regression slope of +0.80 days/year and a moderate correlation ($R^2 = 0.35$,
 278 $CC = 0.59$). The thermodynamic component also shows a positive trend, albeit weaker, at +0.45
 279 days/year ($R^2 = 0.21$, $CC = 0.46$), indicating that dynamic atmospheric factors, such as upper-level
 280 wind changes, are increasingly contributing to the delayed monsoon withdrawal (Fig. 4.a).

281 The random forest analysis further supports these findings. For onset prediction, the Net heat
282 flux (Net) and Moisture Flux Convergence (MFC) are the most important factors, reflecting the
283 dominant role of thermodynamic processes (Fig. 4.c). For withdrawal prediction, however, the 850-
284 hPa zonal wind (U) emerges as the most critical driver, followed by pressure gradient (dP), with MFC
285 playing a secondary role (Fig. 4.d). Regarding seasonal rainfall, all five parameters (U, dP, MFC, Net,
286 OLR) contribute relatively evenly (Fig. 4.e), highlighting the coupled influence of both dynamic and
287 thermodynamic factors on rainfall variability.

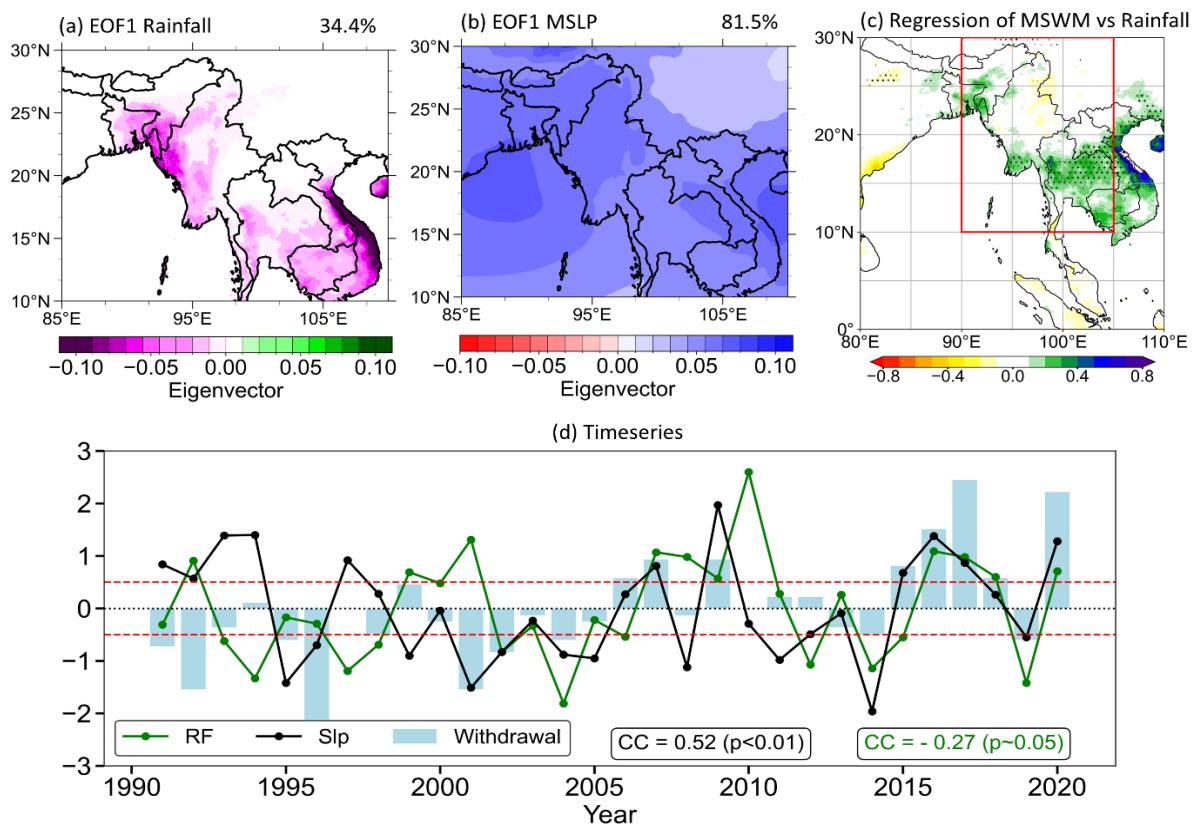
288 The box-whisker plot (Fig. 4.f) shows that MFC and OLR tend to correspond with delayed
289 withdrawal dates, suggesting that lingering moisture convergence and persistent convective activity
290 can postpone the withdrawal phase. This aligns with previous findings that regional convective
291 systems and late-season tropical cyclones (Akter and Tsuboki, 2014; Fosu and Wang, 2015; Oo et al.,
292 2024) can sustain rainfall events even after large-scale monsoon winds weaken (Chou et al., 2009).
293 These results collectively point to a dynamic-thermodynamic asymmetry: while monsoon onset is
294 controlled primarily by energy build-up and moisture availability, the withdrawal is increasingly
295 modulated by dynamic atmospheric circulation anomalies, such as upper-level wind changes and
296 tropical disturbances from the South China Sea (Wang and Zhou, 2024).

297 The analysis suggests that the two phases of monsoon are influenced by distinct mechanisms
298 with weak interdependence. The onset phase remains stable over the study period, primarily driven by
299 thermodynamic factors, while the withdrawal phase shows a significant delay due to dynamic factors
300 (Fig. 4). This decoupling might be explained by different large-scale climate processes governing the
301 two phases: onset is mainly linked to pre-monsoon land-sea thermal contrasts and moisture build-up,
302 whereas withdrawal is more sensitive to post-monsoon circulation shifts, tropical cyclone activity, and
303 upper-level wind anomalies. However, this finding also highlights the need for further research into
304 potential indirect links, such as how early or late onsets may influence intra-seasonal rainfall breaks,
305 which in turn could modulate withdrawal characteristics.

306 **3.2 Variation of MSwM withdrawal dates and Rainfall in October**

307 The first Empirical Orthogonal Function (EOF) modes of October rainfall and mean sea level
308 pressure over the study area, and their normalized principal components (PCs) expressed in Fig. 5. The
309 first EOF for rainfall, explaining 34.4% of the variance (Fig. 5.a) and the first EOF for MSLP,
310 explaining a larger 81.5% of variance, indicating its stronger influence on regional climate (Fig. 5.b).
311 Positive and negative eigenvectors suggest the impact of MSLP and rainfall distribution over
312 withdrawal phases that reduction in rainfall and increasing in pressure. The regression between
313 monsoon withdrawal dates by MSwM definition index (CPM) and regional rainfall explained positive

relations (green areas in Fig. 5.c) suggest that the index can significantly reflect the October rainfall over the study area with 95% confidence. This show CPM index is significantly reflected to southern MIC (“S” area in Fig. 1.b), where is the last point of monsoon withdrawal, regional rainfall during withdrawal phases. Moreover, PCs time series of rainfall (RF), and SLP, from 1991 to 2020 (Fig. 5.d), are comparing with monsoon withdrawal dates and the correlation between withdrawal dates and SLP shows 0.41, and between RF exhibited 0.24, with statistically confidence ($p > 0.05$). However, the weak correlation between withdrawal timing and PCs RF suggests that while the timing of monsoon withdrawal affects the overall seasonal rainfall, it does not directly influence the spatial distribution of rainfall. This is because spatial distribution is primarily governed by local factors such as topography, moisture transport, and mesoscale atmospheric dynamics rather than the withdrawal timing alone. A late withdrawal may extend the period of rainfall over certain regions, increasing total rainfall. This dominant EOF modes capture the large-scale spatial variability of October rainfall and sea level pressure pattern, which is vital for understanding the dynamics of the transition from the warm wet southwest monsoon to the cold dry northeast monsoon season over MIC (Hannachi, 2004; Oo, 2022c; Wu and Mao, 2018).

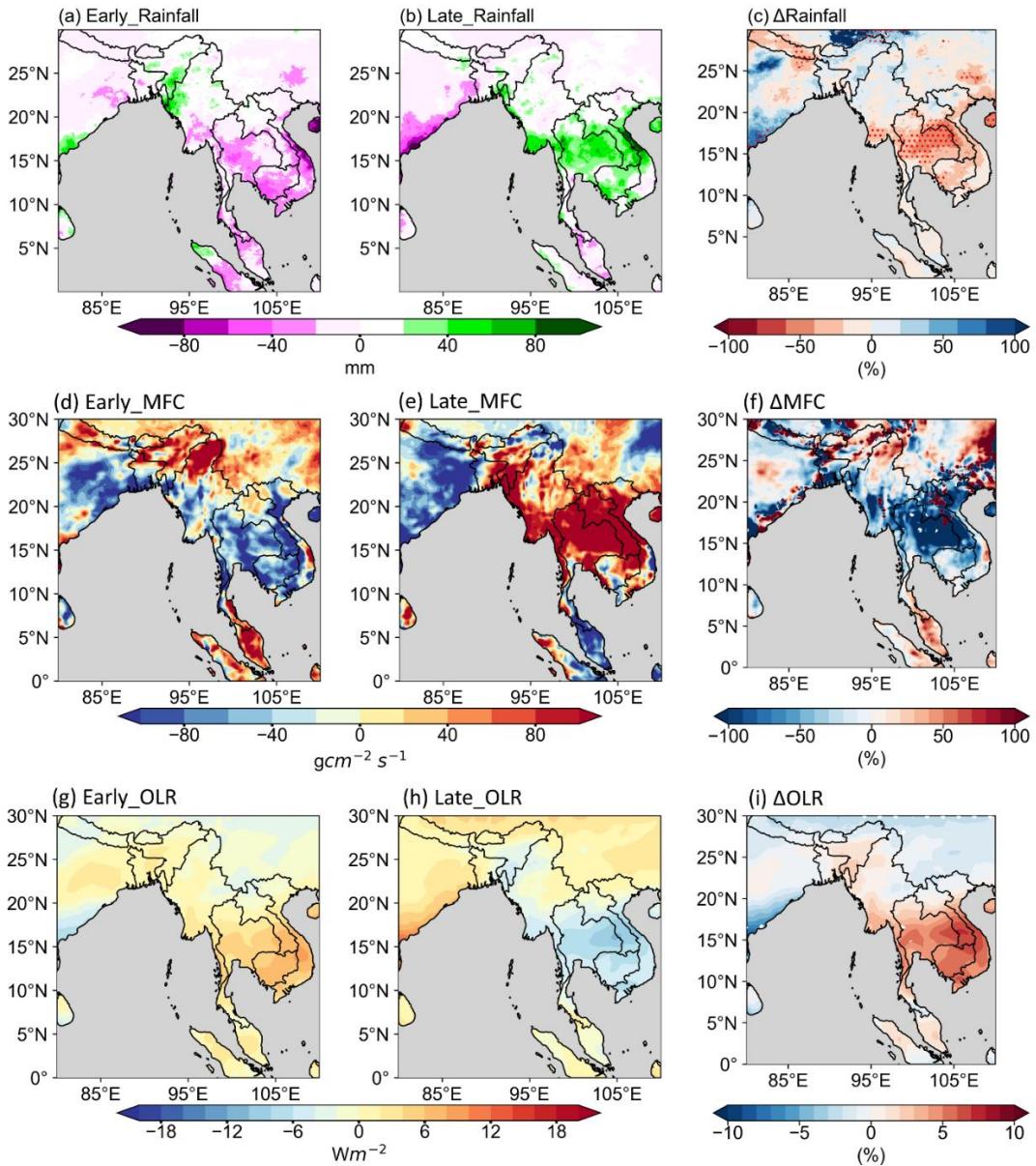


329
330 Fig. 5 First EOF modes of (a) rainfall and (b) Slp. (c) The regression values of withdrawal CPM index and regional october rainfall
331 with dotted area of 95% statistically confident by t-test. (d) The interannual varaiton of normalized PCs of first two EOF and normalized
332 MSWM withdrawal dates with their correlation CC by respective color. The horizontal red dotted sperated the late (>0.5) and early (<-0.5)
333 withdrawal years by their normalized anoamlies varues. This figure was created with Python 3.10 (Matplotlib 3.5.2
334 [<https://matplotlib.org/>]), Cartopy 0.20.0 [<https://pypi.org/project/Cartopy/>]).

335 In addition, the SLP patterns are directly related to the atmospheric circulation that initiates
336 rainfall and weather conditions over the region (Loikith et al., 2019). The shift in the SLP pattern could
337 indicate changes in the positioning of the low-level monsoon winds and subtropical high-pressure
338 systems, which bring the moisture-flux into mainland Indochina (Liu et al., 2021) (Fig S-5 in
339 supplementary). The PCs associated with these modes provide a temporal perspective, indicating how
340 these dominant patterns advance over time. To perform composite analysis we collected eight delay
341 withdrawal years (2006, 2007, 2009, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018 and 2020) and eight early withdrawal
342 years (1991, 1992, 1995, 1996, 2001, 2002, 2004 and 2019) by anomalies timeseries with PCs, we
343 collected positive(negative) 0.5 (+/- renormalize 5-7 days) values years into late (early) withdrawal
344 years.

345 **3.3 Composite**

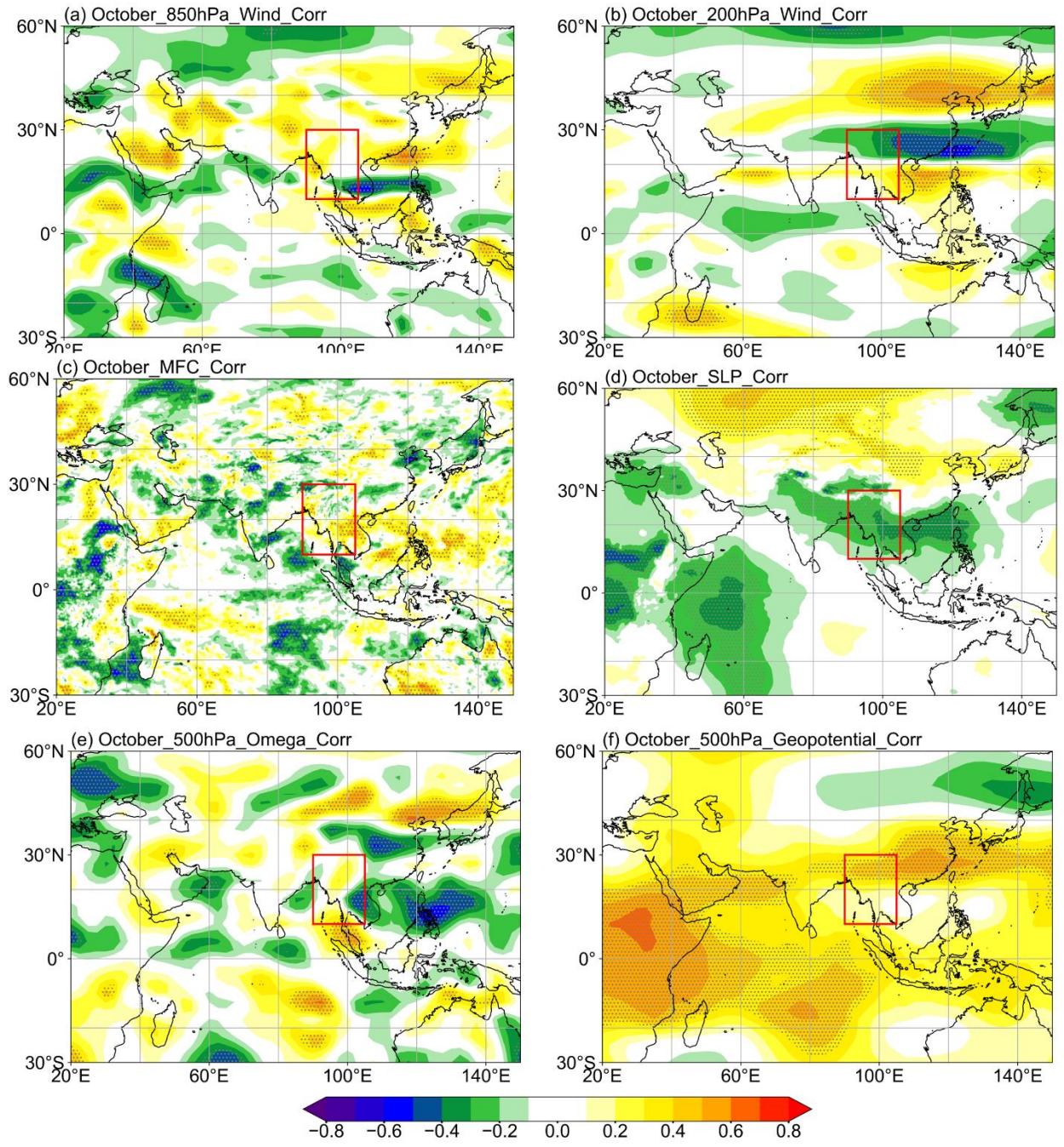
346 The composite anomalies analysis of three majors' variables what are used to define monsoon
347 onset and withdrawal are explained in Fig. 6. The climatological values between early years (first
348 column) and late years (middle column), with their percentage difference (last column) over mainland
349 Indochina, were compared. The analysis indicates notable patterns in the distribution of monsoonal
350 rainfall, especially in southern MIC. The difference % map delineates areas where rainfall has either
351 diminished or increased, namely over southern MIC (Fig. 6.a and b). Their different percentages also
352 result significantly in the same region as shown in Fig. 6.c. This confirmed that the most accurate
353 classification skill of the MSwM CPM index over this southern MIC region as in (Fig. 5.c).



354

355 *Fig. 6 Climatological anomalies mean rainfall (mm), MFC ($g/cm^2/s$) and mean OLR (Wm^{-2}) for (a,d,g) early years, (b,e,h) late years,*
 356 *and (c,f,i) the percentage difference, illustrating changing moisture dynamics over mainland Indochina. Red dotted show the area of*
 357 *95% statistically confident by t-test. This figure was created with Python 3.10 (Matplotlib 3.5.2 [<https://matplotlib.org/>], Cartopy 0.20.0*
 358 *[<https://pypi.org/project/Cartopy/>]).*

359 Changes in Moisture Flux Convergence (MFC) also impact rainfall patterns, with decreased
 360 MFC potentially reduction rainfall and increasing it, leading to wet conditions (Fig. 6.c and d). The
 361 figure compares climatologically to mean MFC in low-lying areas over southern MIC show similar
 362 negative/ positive patterns is validated by their different values (Fig. 6.f). Same patterns are also found
 363 for OLR of early and late withdrawal years over southern MIC. Thus, the MSwM CPM index is
 364 significantly reflected in this area.



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368
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Fig. 7 Correlation between withdrawal date and October (a) 850 hPa wind, (b) 200 hPa wind, (c) MFC, (d) SLP, (e) 500 hPa Omega, and (f) 500 hPa geopotential, highlighting the drivers of monsoon withdrawal in mainland Indochina. Dotted shows the area of 90% statistically confident by t-test. This figure was created with Python 3.10 (Matplotlib 3.5.2 [<https://matplotlib.org/>]), Cartopy 0.20.0 [<https://pypi.org/project/Cartopy/>]).

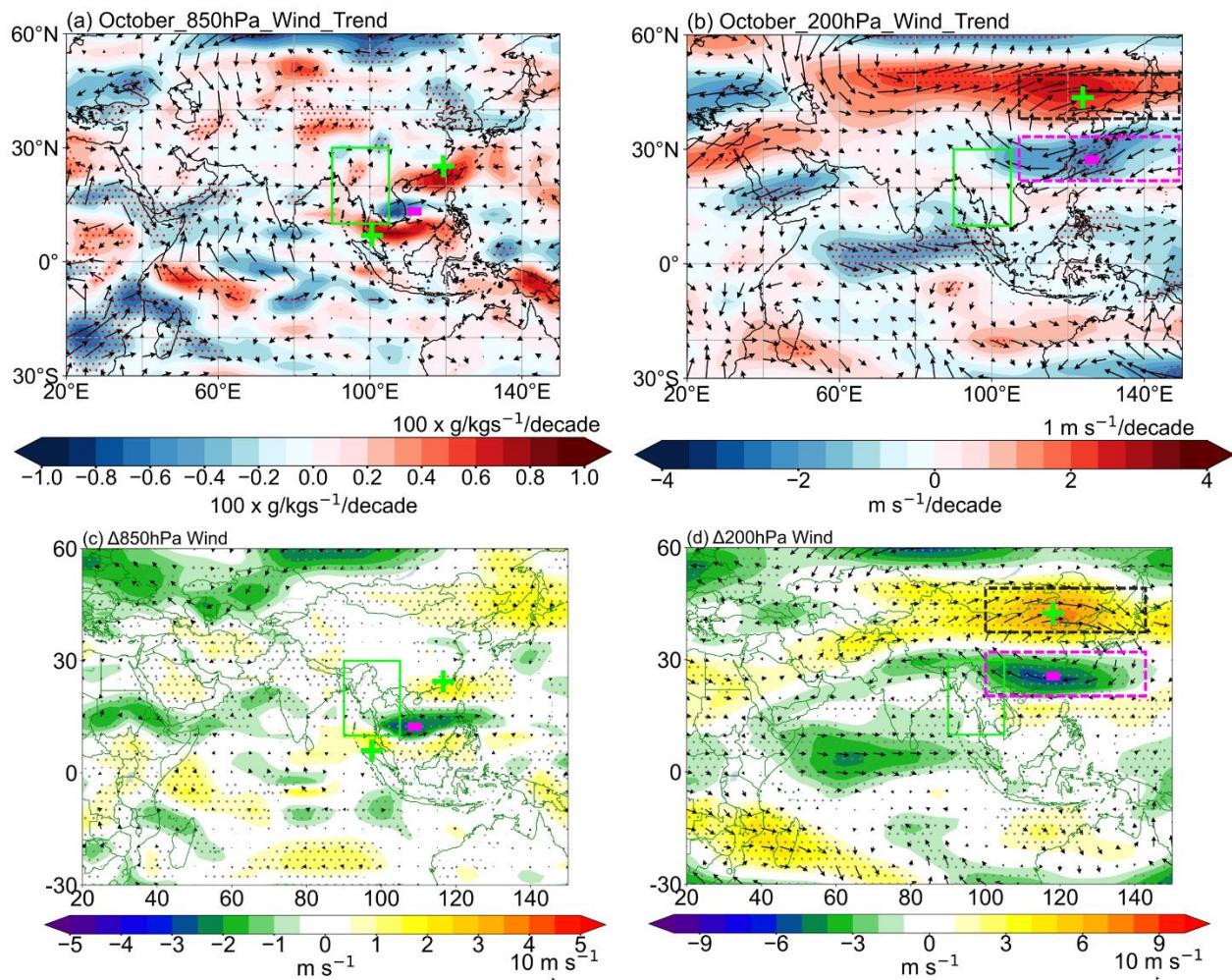
370 The correlation between these various atmospheric variables, showing how relation of these
371 variables with the delayed monsoon withdrawal (Fig. 7). The correlation between the withdrawal date
372 and wind speed was calculated at each grid point, analyzing the withdrawal date against both the u-
373 component and v-component speed. Statistical significance was determined using a student's t-test,
374 with the dotted areas marking regions where the correlation is significant at the 90% confidence level.
375 The correlations for 850 hPa wind speed (Fig. 7.a) expose strong negative relationships over MIC,
376 indicating that weaker low-level winds contribute to the delay in withdrawal. This aligns with the

positive-negative-positive trend pattern as in the Fig. 8.a and c, where negative correlations suggest a weakened low-level wind over MIC. In contrast, the 200 hPa wind correlation (Fig. 7.b) shows a positive relationship, particularly over the northern regions, suggesting stronger upper-level winds during delayed monsoon retreat periods, which likely strengthens the subtropical westerly jet (SWJ) region and weakening in Tropical Easterly Jet region (TEJ). The SWJ, defined as a dominant westerly wind stream at approximately 200 hPa in mid-latitudes, and the TEJ, a tropical Easterly wind at similar altitudes. Similar patterns are also exhibited in trend plots Fig. 8. b and d. A delayed withdrawal sustains the thermal gradient between the Indian Ocean and the Asian continent, maintaining a strong meridional temperature gradient in the upper troposphere and thereby intensifying the SWJ. Simultaneously, the TEJ weakens due to reduced upper-tropospheric divergence and the diminishing impact of tropical heating as the monsoon season transitions.

The correlation with Moisture Flux Convergence (MFC) (Fig. 7.c) also specifies a significant positive relationship in key study areas and positive trends also exhibited over same area (Fig S-7 in supplementary). This positive trend suggests that delayed monsoon withdrawal is associated with stronger moisture convergence, trapping moisture likely to experience rainfall in southern MIC for a longer period and it's also association with previous composite analysis as in Fig. 6. The Sea Level Pressure (SLP) correlation (Fig. 7.d) also shows a study area of negative correlation, which suggests that lower pressure systems dominate during delayed withdrawal, promoting cyclonic activities that extend the monsoon season and rainfall. Meanwhile, the positive correlations with 500 hPa Omega (Fig. 7.e) highlight the role of vertical motion over southern MIC, where positive Omega values (upward motion) correlate with a delayed withdrawal, can lead to cloud formation and rainfall if the conditions are right. Moreover, the 500 hPa geopotential positive correlations (Fig. 7.f) also show a weakened mid-tropospheric ridge over the subtropics with positive trend (Fig S-7 in supplementary), leading to the late monsoon withdrawal as the atmospheric circulation shifts.

The wind trends and anomalies highlight a significant alteration in both the lower (850 hPa) and upper (200 hPa) wind patterns (Fig. 8). The 850 hPa wind pattern (Fig. 8.a) indicates a weakening easterly flow over the South China Sea and southern MIC, and the 200 hPa wind trend (Fig. 8.b) indicates an intensification of the westerly flow linked to the SWJ, enhancing the upward motion and which may lead to anomaly lower-upper dynamic circulation patterns, and it may lead to delaying the timing of seasonal withdrawal of the monsoon. There is a noticeable positive-negative zonal wind anomaly pattern, especially at the 200 hPa level, in the difference in wind structure between late and early years (late years minus early years) at both altitudes, and this pattern changes significantly over time (Fig. 8.c and d). Delays in the MSwM withdrawals are directly affected by changes in jet stream dynamics, such as the strengthening of the SWJ and the weakening of the Tropical Easterly Jet (TEJ).

411 The results of these additional investigations provided confirmation of this pattern of dynamic
 412 abnormality. Specifically, across the SWJ and TEJ regions, variations in wind intensity and direction
 413 are critical in affecting the delayed withdrawal trend, according to the CPM index analysis of these
 414 dynamic circulation patterns. Important regions where wind anomalies are strongly linked to delayed
 415 withdrawal are highlighted by the plus and minus signs in the Fig. 8. This emphasizes as they indicate
 416 critical areas where wind anomalies are closely associated with delayed withdrawal.

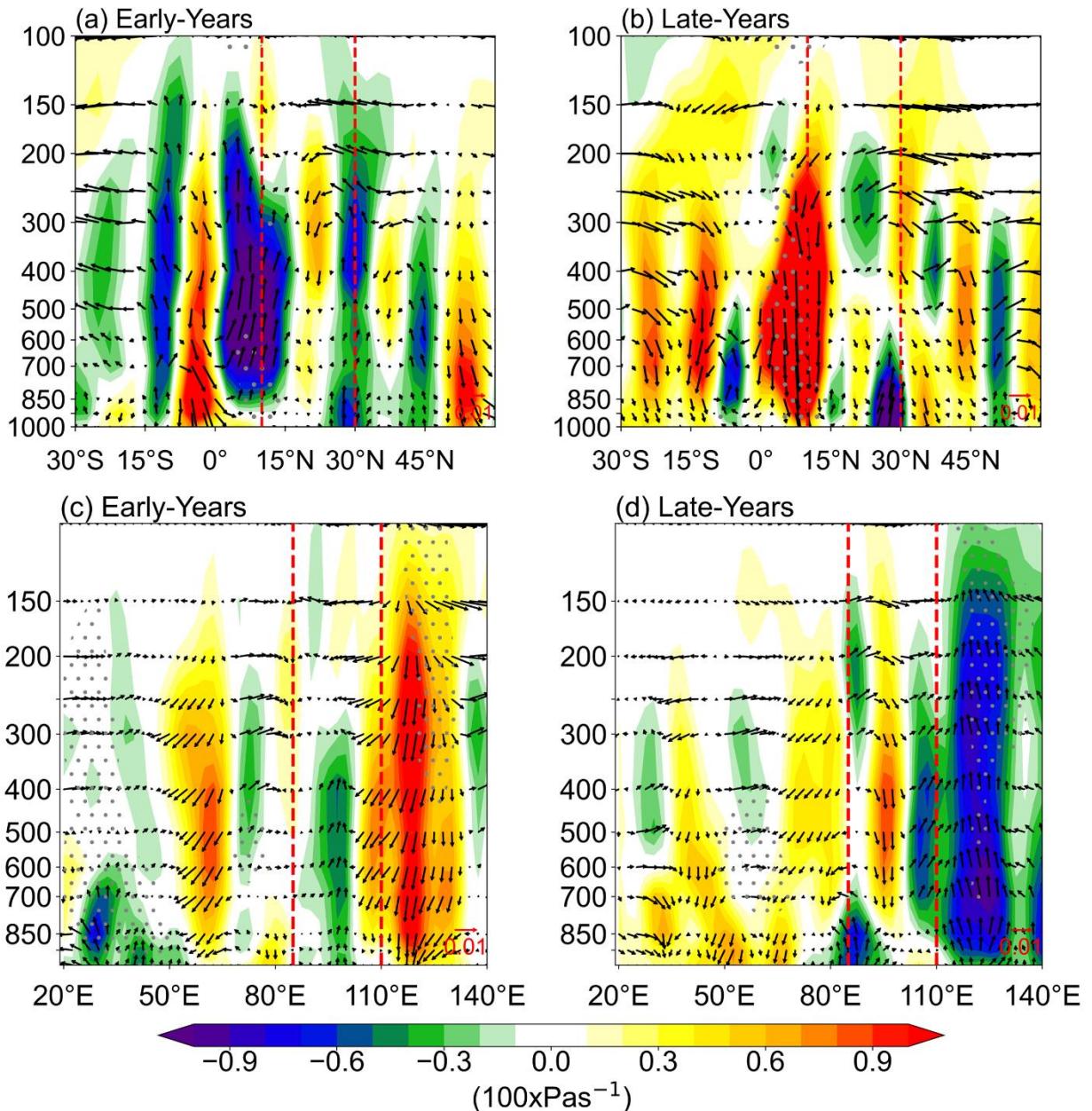


417
 418 Fig. 8 The spatial trend of (a) 850hPa horizontal moisture transport($\text{g}/\text{kg s}^{-1}$) and 200hPa wind component (m/s). Percentage difference
 419 (late minus early) in horizontal wind patterns at (c) 850 hPa, and (d) 200 hPa between late and early years of MSwM withdrawal month
 420 October during 1991-2020. Red and grey dotted show the area of 95% statistically confident by t-test. This figure was created with
 421 Python 3.10 (Matplotlib 3.5.2 [<https://matplotlib.org/>]), Cartopy 0.20.0 [<https://pypi.org/project/Cartopy/>]).

422 The vertical structure of zonal wind, vertical motion, and moisture transport, comparing early
 423 and late years of the monsoon are exhibited in Fig. 9. The cross-section of vertical velocity over
 424 mainland Indochina, which is essential for understanding how wind circulation at different
 425 atmospheric layers contributes to vertical motion and convective processes (Kotal et al., 2014; Sawyer,
 426 1947). The weak upward motion over MIC had occurred during the early years (Fig. 9.a) and found
 427 exceeds and shifts northward during the late years as a reverse (Fig. 9.b). This reflects a strengthening

428 in monsoon intensity, and this is consistent with the observed weakening of TEJ, which decreases
 429 upper-level divergence and leads to delayed monsoon withdrawal.

430 The strong walker circulation over the study regions in the early years (Fig. 9.c), and weakens
 431 in the late years (Fig. 9.d) are suggesting that the significant of TEJ and vertical circulation have
 432 declined, contributing to the delayed monsoon withdrawal. The reduced convective activity and
 433 moisture transport highlights how weaker jets are affecting monsoon dynamics (Roxy et al., 2015).



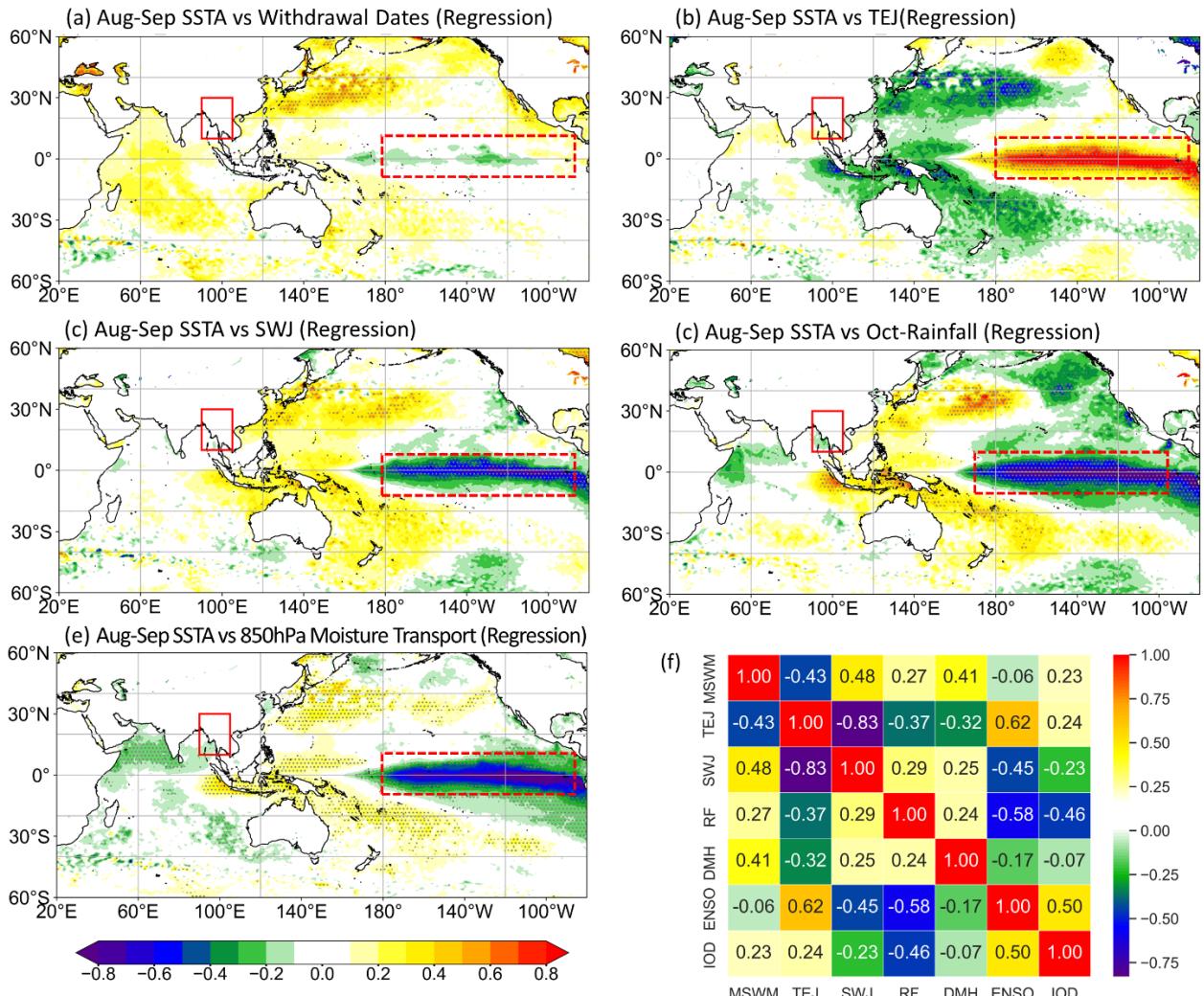
434

435 Fig. 9 Vertical cross section of omega (Pas^{-1}) of longitudinal averaging over $(90^\circ\text{E}-110^\circ\text{E})$ and latitudinal averaging $(10^\circ\text{N}-30^\circ\text{N})$
 436 (a,c) for early years, (b,d) for late years. Grey dotted show the area of 95% statistically confident by t-test. This figure was created
 437 with Python 3.10 (Matplotlib 3.5.2 [<https://matplotlib.org/>]), Cartopy 0.20.0 [<https://pypi.org/project/Cartopy/>]).

438 The weakening of the Tropical Easterly Jet (TEJ) and the concurrent intensification of the
 439 Subtropical Westerly Jet (SWJ) exert a pivotal control on the monsoon withdrawal process through

440 modifications of the upper-tropospheric thermodynamic and dynamic structures. A pronounced
441 negative trend in the 200 hPa zonal wind over the tropical belt signifies a weakening TEJ, while an
442 enhanced westerly anomaly over the subtropics indicates a strengthening SWJ (Fig. 8.[b](#) and [d](#)). This
443 shift reflects a northward migration of the jet core and a weakening of the upper-level Easterly
444 ventilation, which reduces the divergent outflow critical for maintaining deep convection during the
445 mature monsoon phase. The low-level wind trends (Fig. 8.[a](#) and [c](#)) depict a weakening of the 850 hPa
446 monsoon westerlies, leading to reduced moisture convergence over the Indo-China Peninsula, as
447 supported by the negative moisture flux convergence correlations. Furthermore, the suppressed
448 ascending motion at mid-troposphere levels (Fig. 7.[e](#)), coupled with positive 500 hPa geopotential
449 height anomalies (Fig. 7.[f](#)), signify the onset of mid-level atmospheric stabilization and the collapse of
450 the monsoon thermal structure.

451 The vertical cross-sections reveal that during the late years, corresponding to delayed
452 withdrawal events, the upper-tropospheric divergence weakens (associated with TEJ weakening),
453 while the upper-level westerly shearing and subsidence induced by the intensified SWJ strengthen (Fig.
454 9.[c](#) and [d](#)) This enhanced subsidence promotes tropospheric drying and suppression of convection,
455 which together act as a dynamical brake on the monsoon system, facilitating its withdrawal.
456 Collectively, these findings exhibited the barotropic and baroclinic adjustments in the upper-level
457 circulation, where the interaction between the weakening TEJ and the intensifying SWJ modifies the
458 large-scale monsoon dynamics, disrupts the monsoon Hadley circulation, and accelerates the seasonal
459 transition toward the dry post-monsoon regime. This conclusion lends credence to those earlier
460 findings ([Krishnamurti et al., 2012](#); [Roxy et al., 2015](#)). In addition, prior research has demonstrated
461 the connection between sustained moisture transport and extended convective activity with the
462 monsoon, which is supported by the positive link between moisture flux convergence and delayed
463 monsoon withdrawal ([Goswami et al., 2006](#)). The atmospheric dynamics anomaly, specifically the
464 weakening of the TEJ and the intensification of the SWJ, are significant variables influencing the noted
465 trend of delayed monsoon withdrawal.



466

467 *Fig. 10 Regression between Aug-Sep Sea surface temperatures (SSTs) and (a) MSwM withdrawal dates, (b) October tropical easterly*
 468 *jet, (c) October sub-tropical westerly jet, (d) October rainfall over MIC and (e) October 850hPa moisture divergent. Dotted hatches*
 469 *mean 95% confident area by t-test statically. The red boxed show MSwM region and red dotted box show the area in the Pacific with*
 470 *the strongest negative positive correlation. (f) Correlation heatmap between variables used in this study. DMH refers to the MSwM*
 471 *withdrawal dates from National weather services recorded. This figure was created with Python 3.10 (Matplotlib 3.5.2*
 472 *[<https://matplotlib.org/>], Cartopy 0.20.0 [<https://pypi.org/project/Cartopy/>]).*

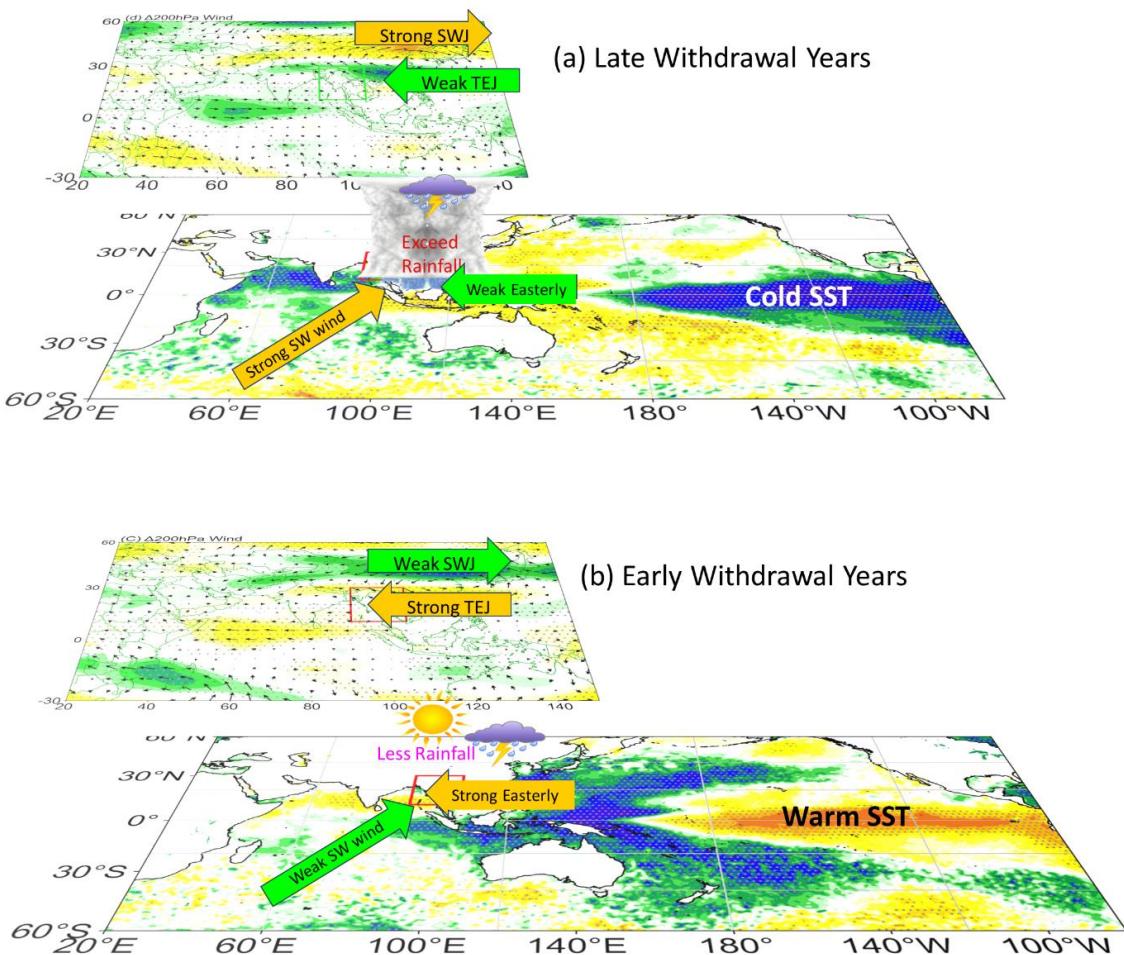
473 The relationship between August-September SST anomalies and the delayed withdrawal of the
 474 MSwM showing not significant correlation over the equatorial Pacific Ocean (Fig S-9, supplementary),
 475 indicating that negative anomaly SSTs in this region are associated with delayed monsoon withdrawal
 476 (Fig. 10.a). This is constant with the role of warm SSTs over Indochina region are maintaining
 477 convective activity (Roxy et al., 2015; Krishnan et al., 2016) and preventing the on-time withdrawal
 478 of the monsoon however cold SSTs over Niño3-4 region does not directly impact on withdrawal dates.
 479 The red dotted boxed region shows the area in the Pacific with the strongest negative/positive
 480 correlation, suggesting a link between SST anomalies in the central Pacific and the timing of monsoon
 481 withdrawal. The relationship between SST and the tropical easterly jet (TEJ) and subtropical westerly
 482 jet (SWJ) in October, the strong positive correlation between SST and TEJ over the Pacific Ocean (Fig
 483 S-9.b, supplementary) suggests that warmer SSTs exceeding the strength of TEJ (Fig. 10.b). This

484 agreed with the previous trend and composite finding (Fig. 8) that the weakening of the TEJ is a critical
485 factor in delaying the monsoon withdrawal. The weakening of the TEJ boost the lower-level monsoon
486 circulation to endure for an extended duration over MIC (Huang et al., 2020; Sreekala et al., 2014). In
487 contrast, Fig. 10.c shows a negative regression between SST and SWJ, this demonstrates that cooler
488 SSTs over same area also strengthen the SWJ. This finding supports the idea that a positive anomalies
489 SWJ also impact to delayed withdrawal (Dimri et al., 2015; Sreekala et al., 2014).

490 The Aug-Sep SST of tropical Pacific and Indian ocean and rainfall within October can also
491 predict to MIC October rainfall. The negative correlation otherwise (La Niña) in the equatorial Pacific
492 and the negative Indian Ocean Dipole (IOD) mode are associated with exceeding rainfall over MIC
493 (Fig. 10.d), which is a mark of a extended monsoon (as mentioned in Fig. 4). This association supports
494 the earlier finding that increased SSTs are associated with extended rainfall during the late monsoon,
495 especially in the central Pacific and the Indo-Pacific Warm Pool (Ghosh et al., 2009; Sabeerali et al.,
496 2014). Furthermore, the pattern of connection associates with the impact of global climate models like
497 the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO), which changes regional SSTs and rainfall distributions in
498 the Indo-Pacific area.

499 To confirm this SST anomaly influence over regional rainfall or moisture flux patterns, we
500 performed the correlation between 850-hPa moisture transport strength over MIC and Indo-Pacific
501 SST (Fig S-9.e, supplementary). The negative regression coefficients over the central Pacific and the
502 northern western Indian Ocean indicate that negative ENSO and IOD enhance moisture transport at
503 lower levels (Fig. 10.e). However, ENSO significantly influences the monsoon onset in the Indochina
504 region, where El Niño tends to delay onset, as seen in the central Pacific's warm SSTs positively
505 correlated and regressed with later onset (Fig.S-10). These vice versa correlation and regression results
506 all together point to the critical role of SSTs in driving the extended moisture convergence that
507 maintains convective activity and delays monsoon withdrawal (Roxy et al., 2019; Sharmila et al.,
508 2013). While this study identifies ENSO and IOD as key modulators of MSWM onset and withdrawal,
509 emerging evidence suggests that Arctic-monsoon teleconnections may also play a role. Recent work
510 demonstrates that MSWM intensity anomalies can drive September Arctic Sea ice variability via
511 atmospheric bridges (Than Oo et al., 2025). Moreover, Chen et al., (2024) and Cheng et al., (2025)
512 highlight Arctic sea ice potential feedback on tropical modes (ENSO/IOD), which in turn affect
513 monsoon dynamics. Although our analysis focuses on tropical drivers, the bidirectional nature of these
514 interactions, particularly the Arctic's indirect influence on withdrawal via ENSO/IOD, and this should
515 be prioritized for further investigation.

516 In addition, the correlation matrix in Fig. 10.f summarizes the links among the main variables of
 517 the research, including the MSwM withdrawal index, TEJ, SWJ, rainfall (RF), 850-hPa moisture
 518 transport, and indices indicative of ENSO and IOD. This exhibited the anomalous SSTs, especially in
 519 the central Pacific and northern Indian Ocean, significantly influence the intensity of the TEJ and SWJ,
 520 as well as moisture transport and rainfall patterns. The weakened TEJ, strengthened SWJ, and positive
 521 moisture convergence led to the well-known delay of MSwM departure (Fig. 11). The results align
 522 with the current literature connecting SST anomalies, major climate models like ENSO and IOD, and
 523 monsoon variability (Ding et al., 2011b; Jia et al., 2013; Krishnamurthy and Kirtman, 2009).
 524 Comprehending these linkages enhances long-term predictions and prepares agricultural systems for
 525 modifications in the southwest monsoon departure date from MIC.



526
 527 Fig. 11 Air-Sea interaction Dynamical schematic of (a) late and (b) early withdrawal years. This figure was created with Python 3.10
 528 ([Matplotlib 3.5.2](https://matplotlib.org/) [<https://matplotlib.org/>]), Cartopy 0.20.0 (<https://pypi.org/project/Cartopy/>]).

529 4 Conclusion

530 Focusing on the timing of the monsoon onset and withdrawal, the study offers vital insights into
 531 the changing dynamics and interannual variability of the Mainland Indochina Southwest Monsoon

532 (MSwM). With the development of the Cumulative Change of the MSwM (CPM) index, a more
533 thorough knowledge of monsoon transitions may be achieved than with typical daily measurements.
534 This index effectively captures the continuous build-up of crucial atmospheric components.

535 Withdrawal timing has been noticeably delayed over the past few decades, according to the
536 findings, which also show clear patterns in the start and withdrawal phases. SWJ and the TEJ, which
537 control the monsoon withdrawal processes, have had a significant impact on this delay. Additionally,
538 the MSwM atmospheric circulation and moisture transport are significantly influenced by SST
539 anomalies, especially in the western Pacific and Indian Oceans. In mainland Indochina, extended
540 monsoon seasons increase the risk of flooding and interfere with agricultural cycles, underscoring the
541 urgent need for efficient water management and flexible farming techniques.

542 As conclusion, the MSwM CPM index is a great tool for tracking monsoon variability, and the
543 framework it gives for studying how climate change is affecting the regional monsoon system through
544 composite correlation and trend analysis is invaluable. Improving our understanding of monsoon
545 behavior and constructing more accurate prediction models will require further studies, specifically on
546 the teleconnection mechanisms between large-scale climatic drivers (such ENSO and IOD) and
547 MSwM.

548 **Data Availability**

549 **Source Data**

550 All Reanalysis rainfall, wind components, OLR, and Mean Seal Level Pressure netcdf4 data for this
551 study were downloaded from the NCEP and ECMWF data portal.

552 The historical record of onset and withdrawal dates by DMH of Myanmar the actual monthly rainfall
553 observation data and mean sea level pressure data from 79 observation stations used to support the
554 findings of this study was provided under permission by Myanmar's Department of Meteorology and
555 Hydrology (DMH) and hence cannot be freely distributed. Requests for access to these data should be
556 made to the Director-General of DMH, Myanmar. <https://www.moezala.gov.mm/>

557 **Software availability**

558 Open Grads (<http://opengrads.org/>), Climate data operator (<https://code.mpimet.mpg.de/>), Python and
559 IBM SPSS are mainly used for this study. Among these first two are open-source applications for
560 everyone. Codes are also available upon request.

561 **Conflicts of Interest**

562 I declared that there is no potential conflict of interest with any of the following statements.

- 563 1. For any component of the submitted work, the author received no cash or services from a third
564 party (government, commercial, private foundation, etc). (including but not limited to grants,
565 data monitoring board, study design, manuscript preparation, statistical analysis, etc.).
- 566 2. The author is not affiliated with any entity that has a direct or indirect financial interest in the
567 manuscript's subject matter.
- 568 3. The author was involved in the following aspects of the project: (a) idea and design, or data
569 analysis and interpretation; (b) authoring the article or critically reviewing it for essential
570 intellectual content; and (c) approval of the final version.
- 571 4. This work has not been submitted to, and is not currently being reviewed by, any other journal
572 or publishing venue.
- 573 5. The author has no patents that are broadly relevant to the work, whether proposed, pending, or
574 issued.
- 575 6. The author received no payment or services from a third party for any aspect of the submitted
576 work (government, commercial, private foundation, etc). (including but not limited to grants,
577 data monitoring board, study design, manuscript preparation, statistical analysis, etc.).

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592 **Author Contribution**

593 **Kyaw**: Conceptualization, methodology, data curation, writing- original draft preparation.,
594 visualization and investigation.

595 **Chen**: Supervision.

596 **Jonah**: Writing – review & editing.

597 **Du**: Writing – review & editing.

598

599

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