



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

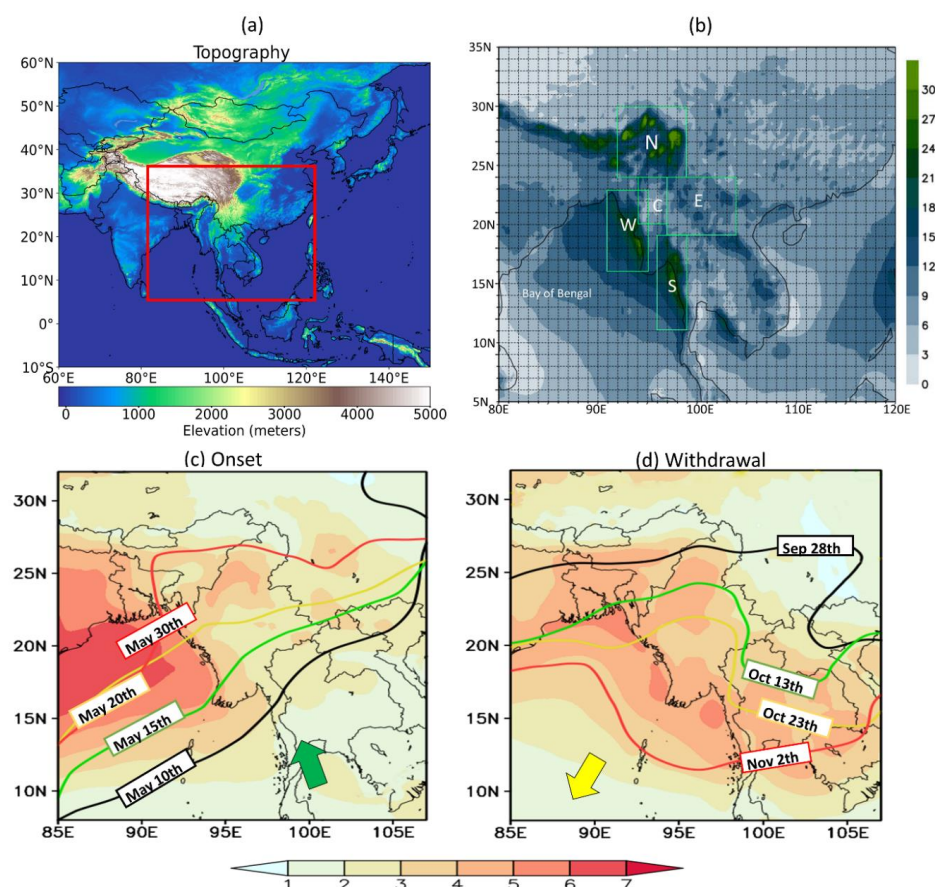
45 **Keywords:** Mainland Indochina, Monsoon Withdrawal, MSwM, SWJ, TEJ, ENSO

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 & Schneider, 2008; Salinger et al., 2014). Base on previous science literature of the Asia-
52 Pacific monsoon classification, there are three primary types of summer monsoons, East Asian
53 (EASM), Indian (ISM), and Western North Pacific (WNPSM) monsoons (Wang & Ho,
54 2002), (Supplementary Fig S-1). The eastern bay of Bengal (EBOB), as known as the mainland-
55 Indochina region (MIC) study area (Fig. 1a) is situated in a transitional zone between the (ISM and the
56 WNPSM systems (Oo & Jonah, 2024). The monsoon indices had been developed to study the transition
57 and boundary between the Indian Summer Monsoon (ISM) and East Asian Summer Monsoon (EASM)
58 (Cao et al., 2012), characterize monsoon onset and withdrawal using rainfall-based metrics (Bombardi
59 et al., 2019; S. Zhang et al., 2024), and define these phases through circulation-based approaches (L.
60 Chen et al., 2023; Hu et al., 2022). The MIC also features complex terrain, with high mountain ranges
61 and long costal area. Simply, the MIC dominates a unique position between the southern areas of East
62 and Middle East Asia, where this monsoon system over MIC exhibiting transitional characteristics
63 between the two monsoon systems (Y. Zhang et al., 2002a). Consequently, significant variation in



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



66

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

70 A range of onset and withdrawal indices has been established, based on rapid changes in extensive
71 atmospheric structures. Especially, the most commonly used atmospheric variables for defining onset
72 and withdrawal indices include rainfall (Ajayamohan et al., 2009; Colbert et al., 2015; Htway &
73 Matsumoto, 2011; Vijaya Kumari et al., 2018), and reversable component wind (CY Li, 1999; Li et
74 al., 2010; Webster & Yang, 1992). The summer monsoon typically onset to MIC between mid-May
75 and early June, with slight variations in indices and statistics (Mao & Wu, 2007; Oo, 2023a; Ren et
76 al., 2022; Wang & Ho, 2002). The MSwM withdrawal displayed significant interannual variability,
77 with a extent of one to two weeks may vary among the earliest and latest withdrawals based on
78 climatological data (Evan & Camargo, 2011; Oo, 2023a).



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

2 Data and Method

The study utilizes data from five sources:

1. **Department of Meteorology and Hydrology, Myanmar (DMH)**: Daily observed rainfall, sea level pressure, and annual onset and withdrawal dates for significant regions were collected from DMH, which operates 79 meteorological stations nationwide. This data help assess validate of reanalysis datasets.
2. **NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis**: This dataset provides zonal (u) and meridional (v) wind components, specific humidity (q), geopotential height (z), and vertical velocity (w) at atmospheric isobaric levels in the troposphere for wind analysis (Kanamitsu et al., 2002).
3. **European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts - ECMWF**: ERA5 offers reanalysis data with a 0.25° geographical resolution for global climate analysis, including sea level pressure (SLP), moisture flux convergence (MFC), and outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) for the period from 1991 to 2020 (Hersbach et al., 2020).
4. **Unified Gauge-Based Analysis of Global Daily Precipitation (CPC)**: This dataset provides rainfall data (M. Chen et al., 2008; Jiao et al., 2021).
5. **Hadley Centre**: Hadley Centre Sea Surface Temperature dataset (HadISST) (Selman & Misra, 2014).

2.1.1 Definition of Monsoon onset and withdrawal by CPM index

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



113 Equation 1

114
$$\text{MFC} = - \int_{\text{Surface}}^{300\text{hPa}} \nabla_p \cdot (\mathbf{U}q) \frac{dp}{g} = P - E + \frac{\partial W}{\partial t}$$

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

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

129 Equation 2

130
$$\text{MSwM (CPM)} = \frac{1}{5} * (\text{D}(\mathbf{U}_1 - \mathbf{U}_2) + \text{D}(\mathbf{P}_1 - \mathbf{P}_2) + \text{D}(\text{MFC}) + \text{D}(\text{TP}_{\text{net}}) + \text{D}(\text{OLR}))$$

131 We determine the normalized values for each factor annually for statistical investigation. The
132 cumulative value change from positive to negative, or vice versa, is verified for further statistical
133 calculations. "D" in Equation (2) expresses the date when the state shifts of positive or negative (+ to
134 - or - to +) values and typically represents the change or difference in the standardize values of each
135 variable in a year.

136 In this equation, $D(\mathbf{U}_1 - \mathbf{U}_2)$ and $D(\mathbf{P}_1 - \mathbf{P}_2)$ represent the differences in zonal winds and pressure
137 between the southern and northern regions of the Mainland Indochina (MIC). Specifically, the southern
138 region ($90^\circ\text{--}100^\circ\text{E}$, $10^\circ\text{--}15^\circ\text{N}$) reflects the influence of the broad Indochina Peninsula, where the
139 southwest monsoon winds are most active, while the northern region ($95^\circ\text{--}100^\circ\text{E}$, $25^\circ\text{--}30^\circ\text{N}$) captures
140 the terrain-influenced pressure dynamics near the eastern Tibetan Plateau (Fig. 1a) and the southwest
141 monsoon wind withdrawal pattern (Fig. 1d), we take pressure readings that are different from longitude
142 ranges as two distinct regions. The meridional shear in the 850-hPa zonal winds and the pressure
143 gradient between northern and southern regions which is driving monsoon flows, the key indicators of
144 monsoon circulation, are averaged across two distinct regions: the southern MIC ($90^\circ\text{E}\text{--}100^\circ\text{E}$, 10°N –



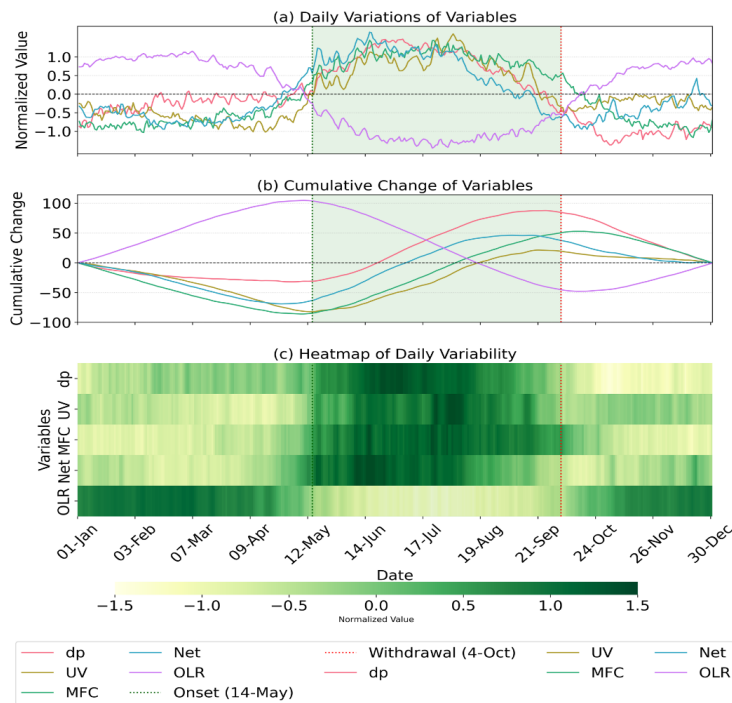
145 15N), referred to as (U1,P1), and the northern MIC (95E-100E, 25N-30N), designated as (U2,P2). The
146 term D(MFC) captures the cumulative changes in moisture transport and convergence, essential for
147 monsoon rainfall, while D(TPnet) represents net precipitation changes, indicating monsoon
148 withdrawal as well as onset by rainfall and D(OLR) the changes in outgoing longwave radiation,
149 closely linked to convective activity and cloud cover to confirm monsoon rainfall, respectively. We
150 calculate the mean change date of the standardized positive/negative value of the outgoing longwave
151 radiation (OLR), the vertically integrated moisture budget transition (MFC), the net precipitation
152 (TpNet), the meridional shear wind (U1-U2) (U-wind), and the pressure differential (P1-P2) (dP). The
153 first day of three consecutive positive or negative days is taken into consideration when determining
154 the change date. Next, we obtained each variable's change point dates for every year. Lastly, the
155 climatology data for every term date was acquired (Supplementary Table S1). We used these findings
156 to compute the MSwM Change Point Index, which is the arithmetic mean onset dates, withdrawal
157 dates, and season length (Supplementary Table S4). A student's t-test is used to calculate the correlation
158 coefficients of these findings at the 95% level of significance. This rounded approach allows for a
159 comprehensive assessment of the interrelationships among these parameters, simplifying the
160 identification of key onset (Fig. 1c) and withdrawal (Fig. 1d). Moreover, common statistical methods
161 such as correlation (Krugman et al., 2018), regression (Ma, 2019), random forest (Breiman, 2001), box
162 and whisker (Schmidhammer, 2000) are also applied in the study at necessary parts.

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



178 **3 Results and Discussion**

179 **3.1 Climatology Outlook**



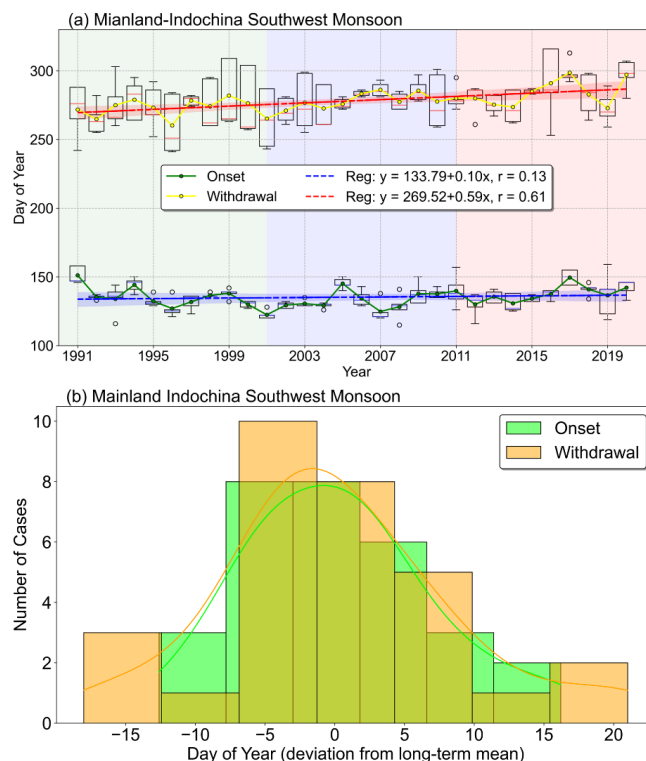
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181 *Fig. 2 Daily and cumulative variations of monsoon parameters with their seasonal progression. (a) Daily variations of normalized*
182 *parameters: pressure gradient (dp; red), wind shear (UV; yellow), moisture flux convergence (MFC; green), net precipitation (Net;*
183 *blue), and outgoing longwave radiation (OLR; purple). (b) Cumulative changes of the same parameters with identical color coding. (c)*
184 *Color strip timeseries showing the daily variability of all parameters throughout the year. Vertical dotted lines indicate monsoon onset*
185 *(green; 14-May) and withdrawal (red; 4-Oct), with light green shading highlighting the monsoon active period in (Fig a nd b). All*
186 *parameters are normalized and calculated according to Eqs. (1) and (2). This figure was created using Python 3.10 with Matplotlib*
187 *3.5.2 (<https://matplotlib.org/>) and Seaborn.*

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



199 The India Monsoon Index (IMI), the Webster and Yang monsoon index for Asia (WYI), the
200 West North Pacific monsoon index (WNPPI), and are some of the well-known monsoon indicators
201 for the South Asian region (Goswami et al., 1999; Wang et al., 2001, 2004; Webster & Yang, 1992).
202 However, seasonal wind variation and uniform rainfall can also be used to designate MSwM zones as
203 sub-regions (Oo, 2022a, 2023b). In terms of annual variability, MSwM and other South Asian
204 monsoon indicators show a comparable time-series pattern and a positive moderate connection
205 (Supplementary Fig S-6).



206

207 Fig. 3 (a) Interannual variability of MSwM onset (green line) and withdrawal (yellow line) dates, with trends. (b) Frequency distribution
208 of deviations from mean onset and withdrawal dates, with implications for Indochina agriculture. This figure was created with Python
209 3.10 (Matplotlib 3.5.2 [<https://matplotlib.org/>]).

210 Examining the distribution patterns of the onset and withdrawal dates of the MSwM across
211 MIC is interesting, despite the MSwM index reflecting changes in the whole MIC rather than a specific
212 region within its domain. In this study, we only consider interannual variability over southern region
213 (95E-100E, 10N-15N) ("S" area in Fig. 1.b) where is the first onset point (during onset) and last
214 withdrawal point (during withdrawal) in north-south-north shifting of monsoon characteristic due to
215 its role in the migration of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ), which shifts northward during



216 boreal summer, initiating intense convective activity and precipitation. At this latitude, the strong land-
217 ocean thermal contrast generates a pressure gradient, drawing moist southwesterly winds from the
218 Indian Ocean that converge and bring rainfall (Goswami & Xavier, 2005). This region aligns with the
219 early onset of monsoon rainbands and moisture convergence observed in climatological data, as well
220 as the geographical position of southern Myanmar, India and Sri Lanka, which are the first landmasses
221 to experience the advancing monsoon (K Lau, 2000). Fig. 3.a shows interannual variation of onset and
222 withdrawal dates with their trend including whisker statistical box. It indicates the timing of onset and
223 withdrawal phases, which are vital for understanding how the regional monsoon system is developing.
224 Over the MIC, early or delayed onset and withdrawal of the monsoon can dramatically affect the
225 seasonal rainfall patterns, which may lead to regional crop production and society plans. The trend
226 lines in both phases suggest possible long-term shifts in monsoon behavior (Fig. 3.a), may be influence
227 of the broader climatic drivers such as variability of ENSO or Indian Ocean dipole (IOD) (Ding et al.,
228 2011a; Wang & Ho, 2002). The timeseries trend displayed that withdrawal dates are significantly
229 greater variation than onset dates within five variables of CPM index for each year especially in
230 dynamic boundary (Fig. 4). The frequency distribution of deviations from the mean onset and
231 withdrawal dates (Fig. 3.b), which explained that onset and withdrawal date may early or delay
232 generally one to two weeks (5 to 7 days as usual in general). The longest delay (early) withdrawal
233 phases occurred with 20 days (15 days) during this 30-year study period 1991-2020. The onset phases
234 are generally characterized by a rapid shift in moisture flux and dynamic transformations over MIC,
235 whereas the withdrawal phases occurs more gradually and may be affected by extensive atmospheric
236 patterns (Seager et al., 2010), including modifications in subtropical jets, mid-latitude disturbances,
237 and tropical easterly waves, which can introduce variability in the timing of the retreat (Hu et al., 2019).

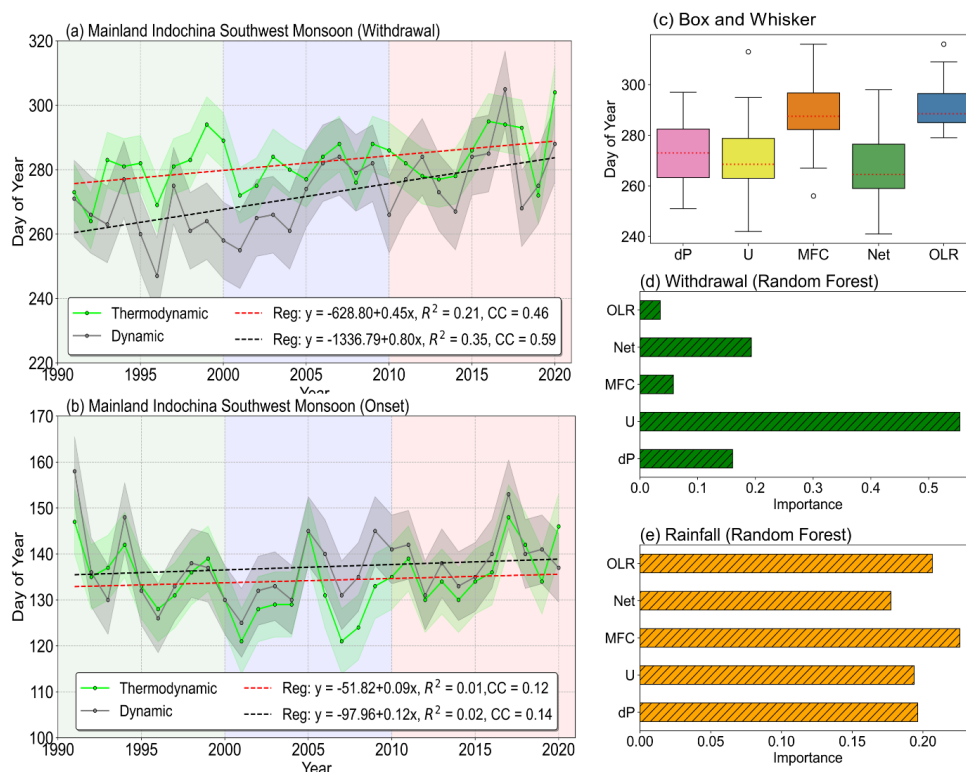


Fig. 4 Interannual variation of thermodynamic and dynamic factors during (a) onset and (b) withdrawal phases of MSwM, with trends, highlighting the impact on mainland Indochina. (c) the box whisker plot of five physical parameters to determine the MSwM onset and withdrawal (Oo et al. 2023). And their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

The interannual variation trends of the onset and withdrawal dates of MSwM from 1991 to 2020, have a clear divergence in behavior between the two phases while studied split into dynamic and thermodynamic according to CPM index (Fig. 4). The onset of the MSwM shows slight changes over time, with weak regression slopes of 0.09 and 0.12 days per year for the thermodynamic and dynamic components respectively under weak statistically significant (Fig. 4.b). However, the withdrawal phase exhibitions a much more marked positive trend, especially the dynamic component has an even steeper slope of 0.80 days per year, while thermodynamic component for withdrawal shows a regression slope of 0.45 days per year with 95% statistically significant respectively (Fig. 4.a). This indicates that dynamic factors, such as changes in large-scale wind patterns, are playing a more significant role in driving the delayed monsoon withdrawal.

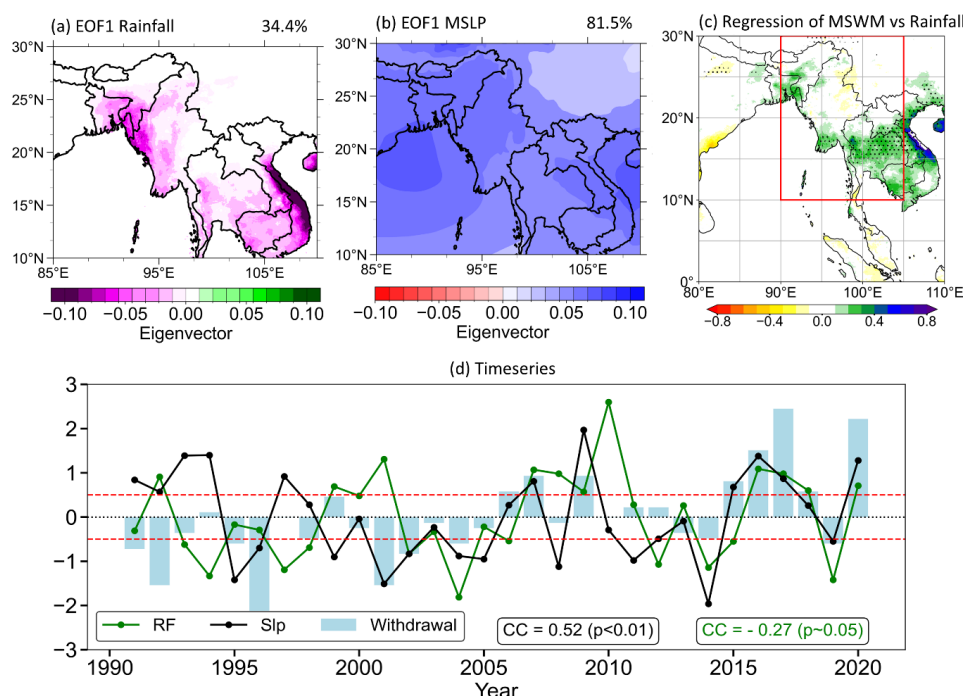
The box plot (Fig. 4.c) reveals that MFC and OLR correspond to delay withdrawal dates, indicating that delayed MFC may play key roles in postponing the withdrawal. The result is generally correct due to the rainfall days remaining due to regional local convective activities and tropical



256 cyclone effect during the post monsoon season (Akter & Tsuboki, 2014; Fosu & Wang, 2015; Oo et
257 al., 2024). When we go dive into this, Fig. 4.e displays that monsoon rainfall variability is impacted
258 by U, dP, MFC, and OLR, though their standing is more evenly spread, the random forest results
259 highlight U (850-hPa zonal wind) as the most critical factor driving the withdrawal, followed by dP
260 (Fig. 4.d). The strong influence of U suggests that zonal wind shifts, possibly linked to tropical
261 disturbances such as easterly wave from south China sea, upper jet stream anomaly, local tropical
262 cyclones, could further affect the timing of withdrawal. This indicates that rainfall events are still
263 remain usual even after the monsoon winds was withdrawal from the study region (Chou et al., 2009).
264 To reach this conclusion, we will go further into the next section.

265 3.2 Variation of MSwM withdrawal dates and Rainfall in October

266 The first Empirical Orthogonal Function (EOF) modes of October rainfall and mean sea level
267 pressure over the study area, and their normalized principal components (PCs) expressed in Fig. 5. The
268 first EOF for rainfall, explaining 34.4% of the variance (Fig. 5.a) and the first EOF for MSLP,
269 explaining a larger 81.5% of variance, indicating its stronger influence on regional climate (Fig. 5.b).
270 Positive and negative eigenvectors suggest the impact of MSLP and rainfall distribution over
271 withdrawal phases that reduction in rainfall and increasing in pressure. The regression between
272 monsoon withdrawal dates by MSwM definition index (CPM) and regional rainfall explained positive
273 relations (green areas in Fig. 5.c) suggest that the index can significantly reflect the October rainfall
274 over the study area with 95% confidence. This show CPM index is significantly reflected to southern
275 MIC ("S" area in Fig. 1.b), where is the last point of monsoon withdrawal, regional rainfall during
276 withdrawal phases. Moreover, PCs time series of rainfall (RF), and SLP, from 1991 to 2020 (Fig. 5.d),
277 are comparing with monsoon withdrawal dates and the correlation between withdrawal dates and SLP
278 shows 0.41, and between RF exhibited 0.24, with statistically confidence ($p > 0.05$). However, the
279 weak correlation between withdrawal timing and PCs RF suggests that while the timing of monsoon
280 withdrawal affects the overall seasonal rainfall, it does not directly influence the spatial distribution of
281 rainfall. This is because spatial distribution is primarily governed by local factors such as topography,
282 moisture transport, and mesoscale atmospheric dynamics rather than the withdrawal timing alone. A
283 late withdrawal may extend the period of rainfall over certain regions, increasing total rainfall. This
284 dominant EOF modes capture the large-scale spatial variability of October rainfall and sea level
285 pressure pattern, which is vital for understanding the dynamics of the transition from the warm wet
286 southwest monsoon to the cold dry northeast monsoon season over MIC (Hannachi, 2004; Oo, 2022b;
287 X. Wu & Mao, 2018).



288

289 Fig. 5 First EOF modes of (a) rainfall and (b) SLP. (c) The regression values of withdrawal CPM indexd and regional october rainfall
 290 with dotted area of 95% statistically confident by t-test. (d) The interannual variation of normalized PCs of first two EOF and normalized
 291 MSwM withdrawal dates with their correlation CC by respective color. The horizontal red dotted sperated the late (>0.5) and early (<
 292 -0.5) withdrawal years by their normalized anoamlies varues. This figure was created with Python 3.10 (Matplotlib 3.5.2
 293 [https://matplotlib.org/], Cartopy 0.20.0 [https://pypi.org/project/Cartopy/]).

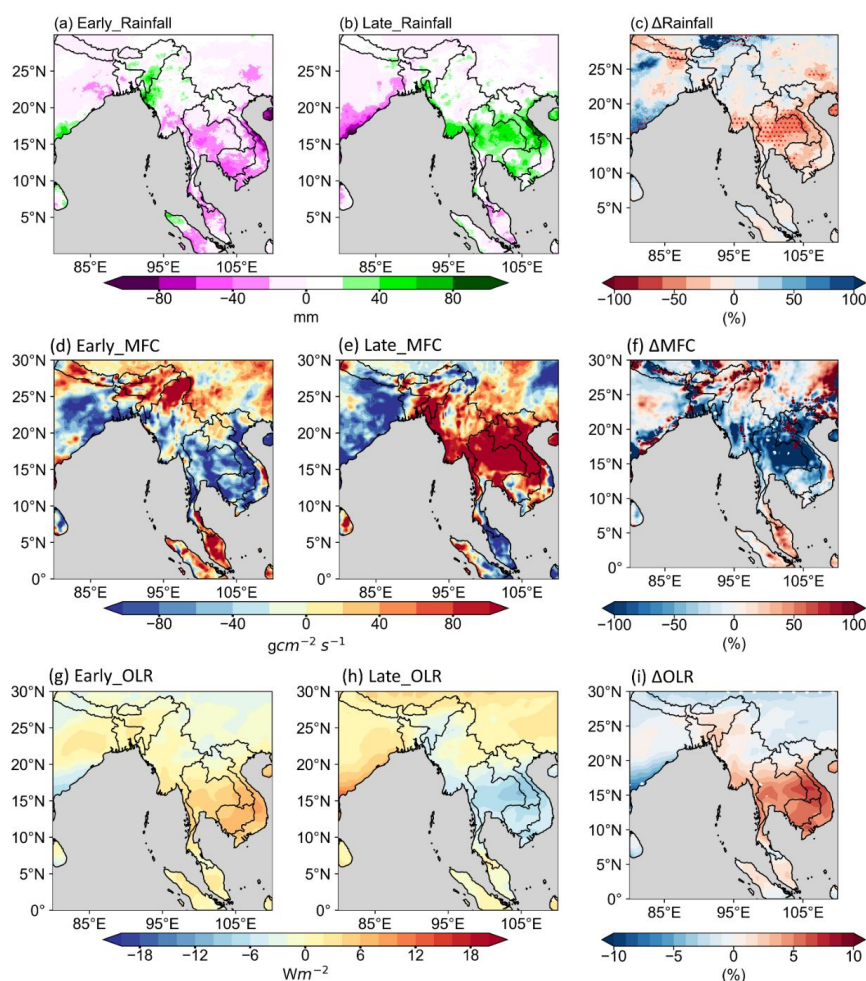
294 In addition, the SLP patterns are directly related to the atmospheric circulation that initiatives
 295 rainfall and weather conditions over the region (Loikith et al., 2019). The shift in the SLP pattern could
 296 indicate changes in the positioning of the low-level monsoon winds and subtropical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

304 3.3 Composite

305 The composite anomalies analysis of three majors' variables what are used to define monsoon
 306 onset and withdrawal are explained in Fig. 6. The climatological values between early years (first
 307 column) and late years (middle column), with their percentage difference (last column) over mainland



Indochina, were compared. The analysis indicates notable patterns in the distribution of monsoonal rainfall, especially in southern MIC. The difference % map delineates areas where rainfall has either diminished or increased, namely over southern MIC (Fig. 6.a and b). Their different percentages also result significantly in the same region as shown in Fig. 6.c. This confirmed that the most accurate classification skill of the MSwM CPM index over this southern MIC region as in (Fig. 5.c).



313

314 Fig. 6 Climatological anomalies mean rainfall (mm), MFC ($\text{g}/\text{cm}^2/\text{s}$) and mean OLR (W/m^2) for (a,d,g) early years, (b,e,h) late years,
315 and (c,f,i) the percentage difference, illustrating changing moisture dynamics over mainland Indochina. Red dotted show the area of
316 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
317 [<https://pypi.org/project/Cartopy/>]).

Changes in Moisture Flux Convergence (MFC) also impact rainfall patterns, with decreased MFC potentially reduction rainfall and increasing it, leading to wet conditions (Fig. 6.c and d). The figure compares climatologically to mean MFC in low-lying areas over southern MIC show similar negative/ positive patterns is validation by their different values (Fig. 6.f). Same patterns are also found



for OLR of early and late withdrawal years over southern MIC. Thus, the MSwM CPM index is significantly reflected in this area.

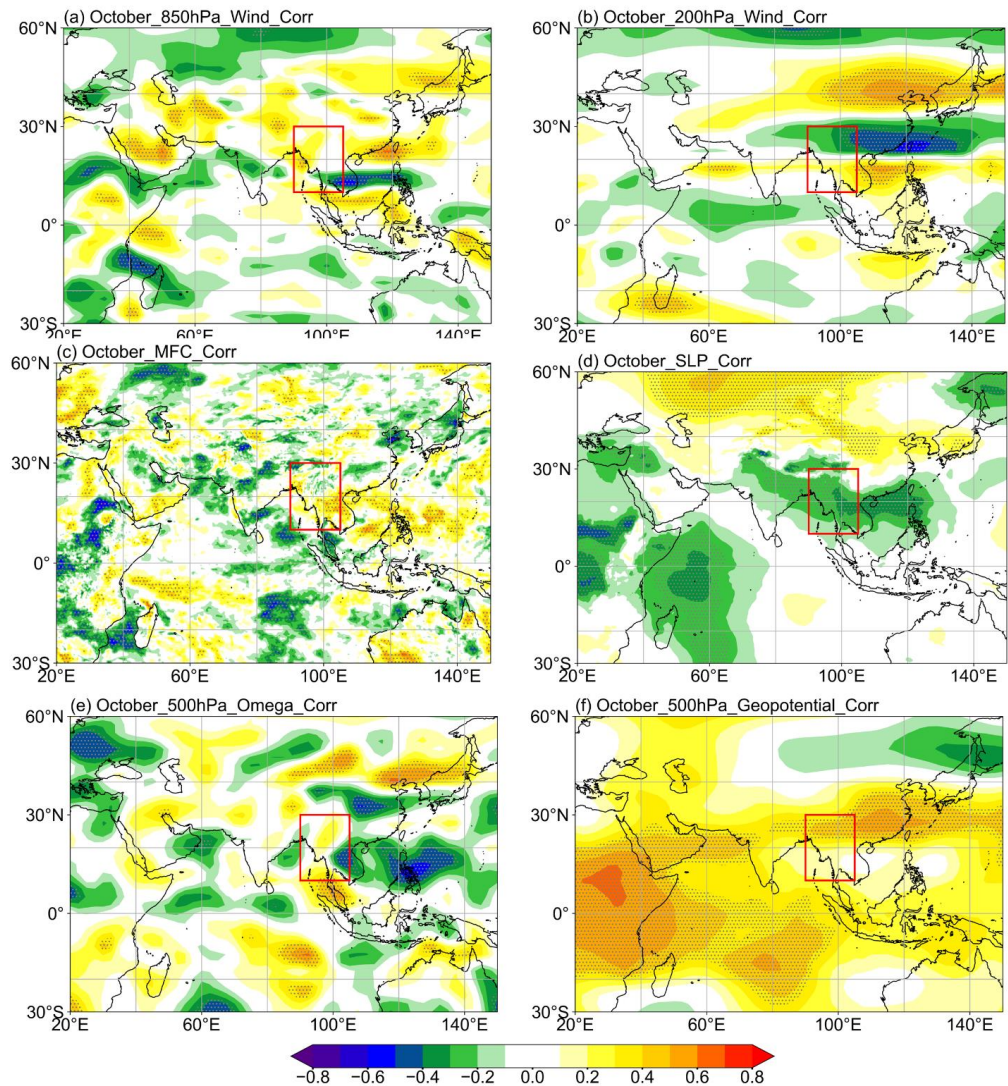


Fig. 7 Correlation between withdrawal date and October (a) 850 hPa wind, (b) 200 hPa wind, (c) MFC, (d) SLP, (e) 500 hPa Omega, and (f) 500 hPa geopotential, highlighting the drivers of monsoon withdrawal in mainland Indochina. Dotted shows the area of 90% statistically confident by t-test. This figure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

The correlation between these various atmospheric variables, showing how relation of these variables with the delayed monsoon withdrawal (Fig. 7). The correlation between the withdrawal date and wind speed was calculated at each grid point, analyzing the withdrawal date against both the u-



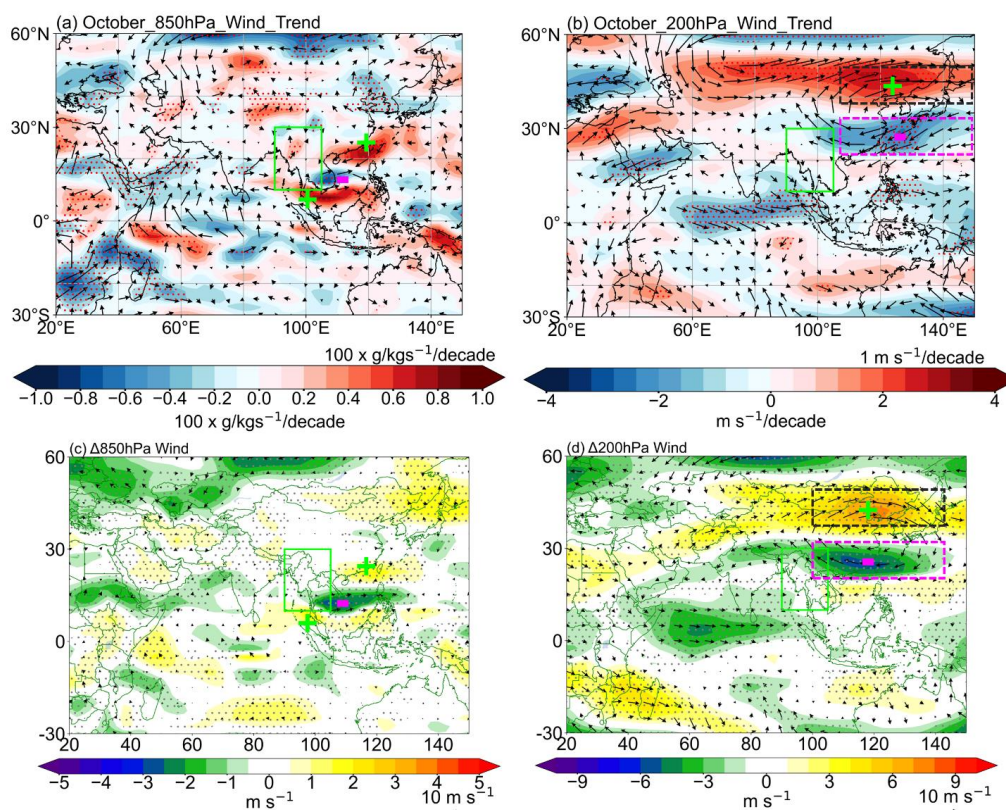
332 component and v-component speed. Statistical significance was determined using a student's t-test,
333 with the dotted areas marking regions where the correlation is significant at the 90% confidence level.
334 The correlations for 850 hPa wind speed (Fig. 7.a) expose strong negative relationships over MIC,
335 indicating that weaker low-level winds contribute to the delay in withdrawal. This aligns with the
336 positive-negative-positive trend pattern as in the Fig. 8.a and c, where negative correlations suggest a
337 weakened low-level wind over MIC. In contrast, the 200 hPa wind correlation (Fig. 7.b) shows a
338 positive relationship, particularly over the northern regions, suggesting stronger upper-level winds
339 during delayed monsoon retreat periods, which likely strengthens the subtropical westerly jet (SWJ)
340 region and weakening in Tropical Easterly Jet region (TEJ). The SWJ, defined as a dominant westerly
341 wind stream at approximately 200 hPa in mid-latitudes, and the TEJ, a tropical Easterly wind at similar
342 altitudes. Similar patterns are also exhibited in trend plots Fig. 8. b and d. A delayed withdrawal
343 sustains the thermal gradient between the Indian Ocean and the Asian continent, maintaining a strong
344 meridional temperature gradient in the upper troposphere and thereby intensifying the SWJ.
345 Simultaneously, the TEJ weakens due to reduced upper-tropospheric divergence and the diminishing
346 impact of tropical heating as the monsoon season transitions.

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

360 The wind trends and anomalies highlight a significant alteration in both the lower (850 hPa)
361 and upper (200 hPa) wind patterns (Fig. 8). The 850 hPa wind pattern (Fig. 8.a) indicates a weakening
362 easterly flow over the South China Sea and southern MIC, and the 200 hPa wind trend (Fig. 8.b)
363 indicates an intensification of the westerly flow linked to the SWJ, enhancing the upward motion and
364 which may lead to anomaly lower-upper dynamic circulation patterns, and it may lead to delaying the
365 timing of seasonal withdrawal of the monsoon. There is a noticeable positive-negative zonal wind



366 anomaly pattern, especially at the 200 hPa level, in the difference in wind structure between late and
367 early years (late years minus early years) at both altitudes, and this pattern changes significantly over
368 time (Fig. 8.c and d). Delays in the MSwM withdrawals are directly affected by changes in jet stream
369 dynamics, such as the strengthening of the SWJ and the weakening of the Tropical Easterly Jet (TEJ).
370 The results of these additional investigations provided confirmation of this pattern of dynamic
371 abnormality. Specifically, across the SWJ and TEJ regions, variations in wind intensity and direction
372 are critical in affecting the delayed withdrawal trend, according to the CPM index analysis of these
373 dynamic circulation patterns. Important regions where wind anomalies are strongly linked to delayed
374 withdrawal are highlighted by the plus and minus signs in the Fig. 8. This emphasizes as they indicate
375 critical areas where wind anomalies are closely associated with delayed withdrawal.



376

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

381 The vertical structure of zonal wind, vertical motion, and moisture transport, comparing early
382 and late years of the monsoon are exhibited in Fig. 9. The cross-section of vertical velocity over
383 mainland Indochina, which is essential for understanding how wind circulation at different



384 atmospheric layers contributes to vertical motion and convective processes (Kotal et al., 2014; Sawyer,
385 1947). The weak upward motion over MIC had occurred during the early years (Fig. 9.a) and found
386 exceeds and shifts northward during the late years as a reverse (Fig. 9.b). This reflects a strengthening
387 in monsoon intensity and this is consistent with the observed weakening of TEJ, which decreases
388 upper-level divergence and leads to delayed monsoon withdrawal.

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

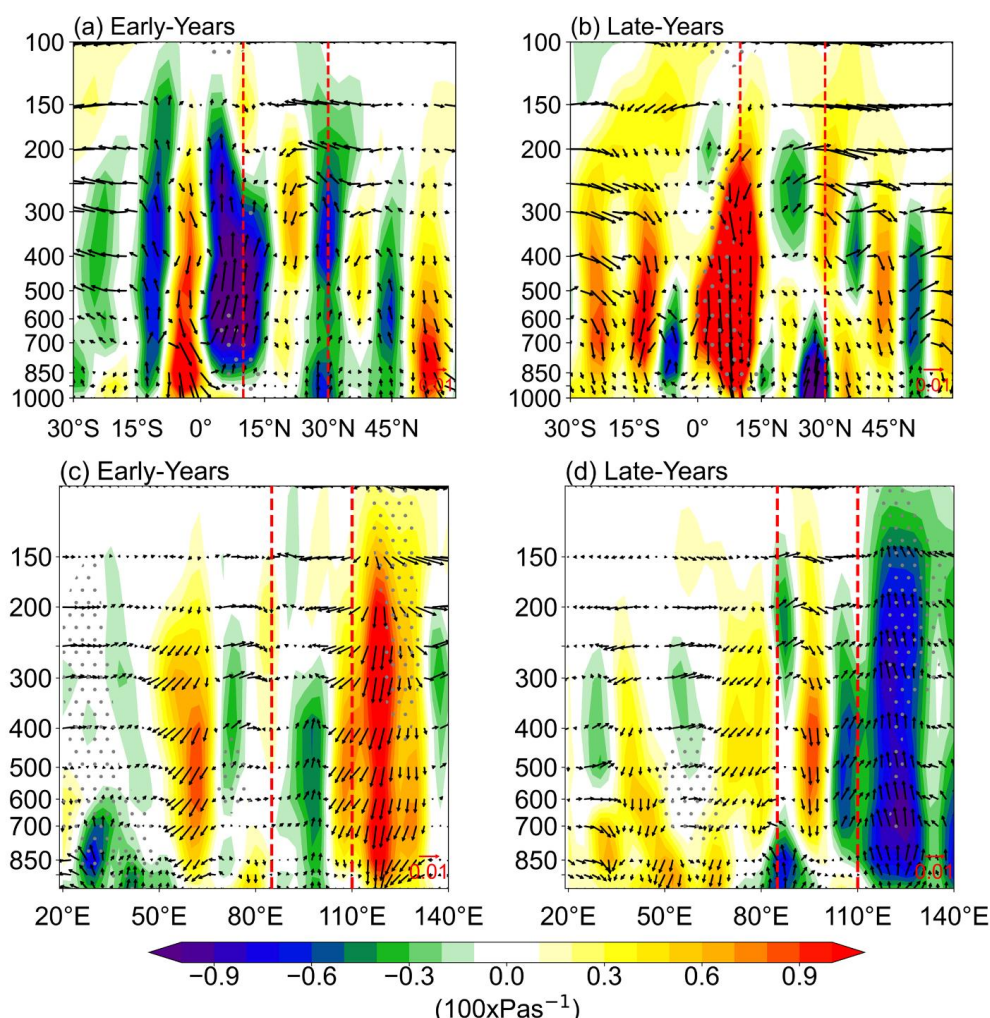
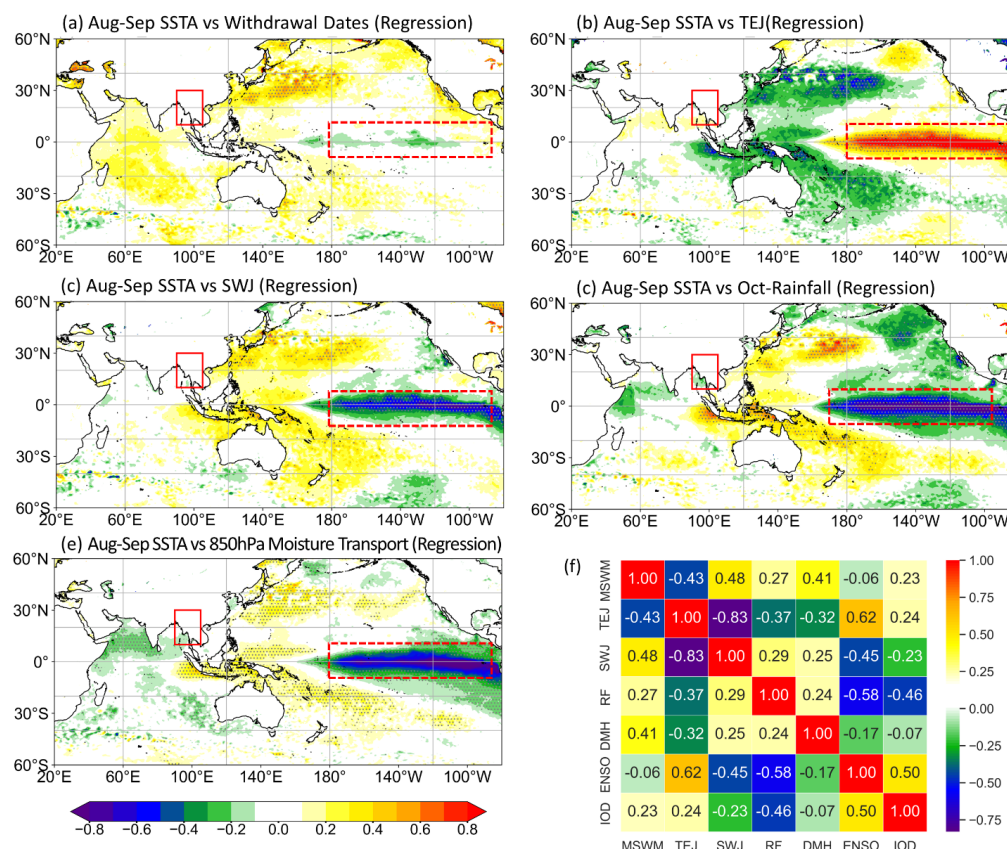


Fig. 9 Vertical cross section of omega (Pas^{-1}) of longitudinal averaging over (90°E - 110°E) and latitudinal averaging (10°N - 30°N) (a,c) for early years, (b,d) for late years. Grey dotted show the area of 95% statistically confident by t-test. This figure was created with Python 3.10 (Matplotlib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

The analysis of the correlation (Fig. 7) and trend (Fig. 8) exhibited feature the critical role of atmospheric circulation patterns in influencing the delayed MSwM withdrawal. Extended moisture convergence and delayed withdrawal of monsoon systems are caused by the SWJ's strengthening and the TEJ's weakening at 200 hPa. Previous research has shown that conditions are conducive for extended monsoon motion when lower-level easterlies weaken, and upper-level westerlies intensify. This conclusion lends credence to those earlier findings (Krishnamurti et al., 2012; Roxy et al., 2015). In addition, prior research has demonstrated the connection between sustained moisture transport and extended convective activity with the monsoon, which is supported by the positive link between moisture flux convergence and delayed monsoon withdrawal (Goswami et al., 2006). The atmospheric



406 dynamics anomaly, specifically the weakening of the TEJ and the intensification of the SWJ, are
407 significant variables influencing the noted trend of delayed monsoon withdrawal.



408

409 Fig. 10 Regression between Aug-Sep Sea surface temperatures (SSTs) and (a) MSWM withdrawal dates, (b) October tropical easterly
410 jet, (c) October sub-tropical westerly jet, (d) October rainfall over MIC and (e) October 850hPa moisture divergent. Dotted hatches
411 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
412 the strongest negative positive correlation. (f) Correlation heatmap between variables used in this study. DMH refers to the MSWM
413 withdrawal dates from National weather services recorded. This figure was created with Python 3.10 (Matplotlib 3.5.2
414 [https://matplotlib.org/], Cartopy 0.20.0 [https://pypi.org/project/Cartopy/]).

415 The relationship between August-September SST anomalies and the delayed withdrawal of the
416 MSWM showing not significant correlation over the equatorial Pacific Ocean (Fig S-9, supplementary),
417 indicating that negative anomaly SSTs in this region are associated with delayed monsoon withdrawal
418 (Fig. 10.a). This is constant with the role of warm SSTs over Indochina region are maintaining
419 convective activity (Roxby et al., 2015; Krishnan et al., 2016) and preventing the on-time withdrawal
420 of the monsoon however cold SSTs over Niño3-4 region does not directly impact on withdrawal dates.
421 The red dotted boxed region shows the area in the Pacific with the strongest negative/positive
422 correlation, suggesting a link between SST anomalies in the central Pacific and the timing of monsoon
423 withdrawal. The relationship between SST and the tropical easterly jet (TEJ) and subtropical westerly



424 jet (SWJ) in October, the strong positive correlation between SST and TEJ over the Pacific Ocean (Fig
425 S-9.b, supplementary) suggests that warmer SSTs exceeding the strength of TEJ (Fig. 10.b). This
426 agreed with the previous trend and composite finding (Fig. 8) that the weakening of the TEJ is a critical
427 factor in delaying the monsoon withdrawal. The weakening of the TEJ boost the lower-level monsoon
428 circulation to endure for an extended duration over MIC (Huang et al., 2020; Sreekala et al., 2014). In
429 contrast, Fig. 10.c shows a negative regression between SST and SWJ, this demonstrates that cooler
430 SSTs over same area also strengthen the SWJ. This finding supports the idea that a positive anomalies
431 SWJ also impact to delayed withdrawal (Dimri et al., 2015; Sreekala et al., 2014).

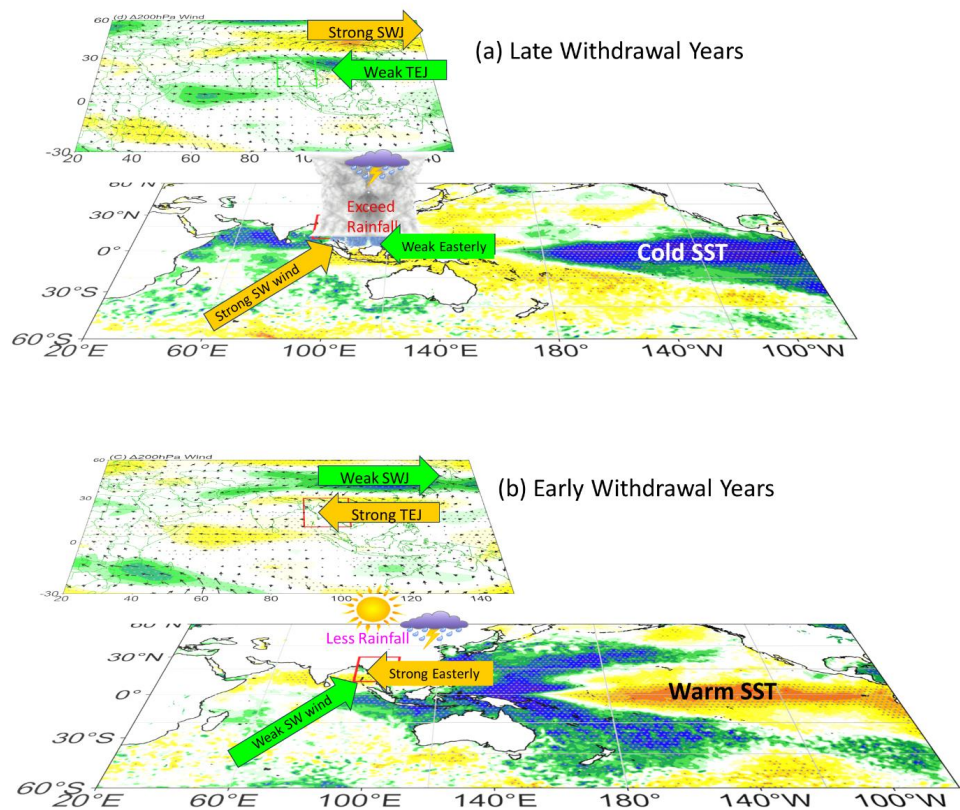
432 The Aug-Sep SST of tropical Pacific and Indian ocean and rainfall within October can also
433 predict to MIC October rainfall. The negative correlation otherwise (La Niña) in the equatorial Pacific
434 and the negative Indian Ocean Dipole (IOD) mode are associated with exceeding rainfall over MIC
435 (Fig. 10.d), which is a mark of a extended monsoon (as mentioned in Fig. 4). This association supports
436 the earlier finding that increased SSTs are associated with extended rainfall during the late monsoon,
437 especially in the central Pacific and the Indo-Pacific Warm Pool (Ghosh et al., 2009; Sabeerali et al.,
438 2014). Furthermore, the pattern of connection associates with the impact of global climate models like
439 the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO), which changes regional SSTs and rainfall distributions in
440 the Indo-Pacific area.

441 To confirm this SST anomaly influence over regional rainfall or moisture flux patterns, we
442 performed the correlation between 850-hPa moisture transport strength over MIC and Indo-Pacific
443 SST (Fig S-9.e, supplementary). The negative regression coefficients over the central Pacific and the
444 northern western Indian Ocean indicate that negative ENSO and IOD enhance moisture transport at
445 lower levels (Fig. 10.e). The correlation and regression results all together point to the critical role of
446 SSTs in driving the extended moisture convergence that maintains convective activity and delays
447 monsoon withdrawal (Roxby et al., 2019; Sharmila et al., 2013).

448 In addition, the correlation matrix in Fig. 10.f summarizes the links among the main variables of
449 the research, including the MSwM withdrawal index, TEJ, SWJ, rainfall (RF), 850-hPa moisture
450 transport, and indices indicative of ENSO and IOD. This exhibited the anomalous SSTs, especially in
451 the central Pacific and northern Indian Ocean, significantly influence the intensity of the TEJ and SWJ,
452 as well as moisture transport and rainfall patterns. The weakened TEJ, strengthened SWJ, and positive
453 moisture convergence led to the well-known delay of MSwM departure (Fig. 11). The results align
454 with the current literature connecting SST anomalies, major climate models like ENSO and IOD, and
455 monsoon variability (Ding et al., 2011b; Jia et al., 2013; Krishnamurthy & Kirtman, 2009).



456 Comprehending these linkages enhances long-term predictions and prepares agricultural systems for
457 modifications in the southwest monsoon departure date from MIC.



458
459 Fig. 11 Air-Sea interaction Dynamical schematic of (a) late and (b) early withdrawal years. This figure was created with Python 3.10
460 (Matplotlib 3.5.2 [<https://matplotlib.org/>], Cartopy 0.20.0 [<https://pypi.org/project/Cartopy/>]).

461 4 Conclusion

462 Focusing on the timing of the monsoon onset and withdrawal, the study offers vital insights into
463 the changing dynamics and interannual variability of the Mainland Indochina Southwest Monsoon
464 (MSwM). With the development of the Cumulative Change of the MSwM (CPM) index, a more
465 thorough knowledge of monsoon transitions may be achieved than with typical daily measurements.
466 This index effectively captures the continuous build-up of crucial atmospheric components.

467 Withdrawal timing has been noticeably delayed over the past few decades, according to the
468 findings, which also show clear patterns in the start and withdrawal phases. SWJ and the TEJ, which
469 control the monsoon withdrawal processes, have had a significant impact on this delay. Additionally,
470 the MSwM atmospheric circulation and moisture transport are significantly influenced by SST



471 anomalies, especially in the western Pacific and Indian Oceans. In mainland Indochina, extended
472 monsoon seasons increase the risk of flooding and interfere with agricultural cycles, underscoring the
473 urgent need for efficient water management and flexible farming techniques.

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



480 **Data Availability**

481 **Source Data**

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

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

489 **Software availability**

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

493 **Conflicts of Interest**

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

- 495 1. For any component of the submitted work, the author received no cash or services from a third
496 party (government, commercial, private foundation, etc). (including but not limited to grants,
497 data monitoring board, study design, manuscript preparation, statistical analysis, etc.).
- 498 2. The author is not affiliated with any entity that has a direct or indirect financial interest in the
499 manuscript's subject matter.
- 500 3. The author was involved in the following aspects of the project: (a) idea and design, or data
501 analysis and interpretation; (b) authoring the article or critically reviewing it for essential
502 intellectual content; and (c) approval of the final version.
- 503 4. This work has not been submitted to, and is not currently being reviewed by, any other journal
504 or publishing venue.
- 505 5. The author has no patents that are broadly relevant to the work, whether proposed, pending, or
506 issued.
- 507 6. The author received no payment or services from a third party for any aspect of the submitted
508 work (government, commercial, private foundation, etc). (including but not limited to grants,
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Author Contribution

Kyaw Than Oo: Conceptualization, methodology, data curation, writing- original draft preparation., visualization and investigation.

Haishan Chen: Supervision.

Kazora Jonah: Writing – review & editing.

Xinguan Du: Writing – review & editing.

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