



1 **MJO unlocks the stratospheric polar vortex influence on**
2 **winter extreme precipitation over South China**

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17



18 **Abstract**

19 Winter extreme precipitation over South China (SC) exerts profound impacts, yet its stratospheric
20 drivers remain limited understood, with a long-standing puzzle of the statistically weak linkage
21 between the stratospheric polar vortex (SPV) and SC rainfall extremes. Here, using observational
22 analyses and CMIP6 historical simulations, we demonstrate that a Eurasia-shifted SPV (ESSPV)
23 can increase SC winter extreme precipitation, but this modulation is strictly phase-locked to the
24 Madden–Julian Oscillation (MJO), occurring predominantly during MJO phases 2–5. Two
25 synergistic pathways explain this phenomenon. First, the ESSPV excites a Rossby wave across
26 Eurasia, inducing a low-level northeasterly anomaly north of SC that strengthens local moisture
27 convergence. Second, the ESSPV couples with the westerly quasi-biennial oscillation (WQBO),
28 which amplifies the MJO-associated anomalous anticyclone over the western North Pacific and
29 enhances low-latitude moisture transport toward SC. CMIP6 multi-model analyses further
30 confirm that the fidelity of MJO phase 2–5-associated western North Pacific anticyclone
31 determines a model's ability to reproduce the observed linkage, firmly establishing the MJO as
32 the indispensable gateway linking the SPV to SC extreme precipitation.

33 **1 Introduction**

34 Against the background of global warming, the frequency, intensity, and duration of extreme
35 precipitation events have increased markedly across the globe (IPCC, 2021), triggering severe
36 floods, secondary geological disasters, and enormous losses to human lives, socioeconomic assets,
37 and ecosystems (Huang et al., 1998; Zhu et al., 2016; Zhou et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2017).
38 South China (SC), located in the core of the Asian monsoon region, is a hotspot of extreme
39 precipitation with exceptionally high climate vulnerability (Yin et al., 2019). A series of
40 catastrophic winter precipitation extremes have struck SC in recent years. For example, the 2015
41 winter flood affected 1.407 million residents and caused direct economic losses of \$249 million,
42 the February 2022 severe ice-snow disaster impacted 7.314 million people with \$1.2 billion in
43 direct losses, and the April 2024 extensive flood ravaged more than 140,000 hectares of crops and
44 inflicted \$1.797 billion in economic losses (National Disaster Reduction Center of China,
45 <https://www.ndrcc.org.cn>; Ministry of Emergency Management of the People's Republic of China,
46 <https://www.mem.gov.cn>). Improving the understanding of drivers and physical mechanisms
47 underlying SC winter extreme precipitation is therefore critical for regional climate prediction
48 and disaster prevention (Bao et al., 2010; Gao et al., 2009).

49 Existing research on SC winter precipitation variability and extremes has predominantly
50 focused on tropospheric dynamics and air–sea interactions, including the El Niño–Southern
51 Oscillation (ENSO) (Rao et al., 2019; Alexander et al., 2002a, 2002b), Atlantic and Indian Ocean
52 sea surface temperature (SST) anomalies (Han and Zhang, 2022; Zhu et al., 2024), the South
53 Asian High (Liu et al., 2013; Wei et al., 2015), the western North Pacific Subtropical High (Zhou
54 et al., 2024), thermal forcing of the Qinghai–Tibet Plateau (He et al., 2019; Lu et al., 2023), and
55 Arctic sea ice loss (Zhang, 2015). However, the subseasonal-to-seasonal prediction of winter
56 precipitation remains a long-standing challenge (Rivoire et al., 2023; DeFlorio et al., 2019; Zhang



et al., 2024), largely due to incomplete understanding of cross-scale and cross-layer dynamical couplings. In recent years, the stratosphere has emerged as a critical source of predictability for Northern Hemisphere surface climate (Rao et al., 2025; Zhang et al., 2026). As the dominant stratospheric circulation system, the stratospheric polar vortex (SPV) exerts profound and persistent impact on mid-to-high latitudes via stratosphere–troposphere interaction (Zhang et al., 2022; Hu et al., 2024, 2025). While numerous studies have documented a robust linkage between SPV variability and cold air outbreaks over East Asia (Baldwin et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2019; Yu et al., 2018, 2019), its influence on extreme precipitation remains severely understudied. The few relevant investigations are mostly limited to individual case studies, primarily because the SPV–extreme rainfall relationship is statistically weak and unstable in the climatological sense (Wang et al., 2025). This gap motivates a fundamental reconsideration of the necessary conditions for extreme precipitation occurrence. Since extreme rainfall requires both sufficient low-latitude moisture transport and strong local dynamical convergence, yet the SPV is a cold, dry polar system that cannot independently supply the essential moisture, we hypothesize that the SPV's influence on extreme precipitation is "locked" behind a hidden moisture pathway.

The Madden–Julian Oscillation (MJO), the dominant mode of tropical intraseasonal variability, has long been recognized as a primary driver of winter monsoon precipitation variability (Madden and Julian, 1971, 1994; Shimizu et al., 2017; Jia et al., 2011; Garfinkel et al., 2014) and a core source of subseasonal-to-seasonal predictability for extreme events (Peng et al., 2024; Kim et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2024; Dey et al., 2020). Through its eastward-propagating convective activity, the MJO modulates tropical and subtropical circulations, exerting pronounced impacts on rainfall distribution over East Asia (Schreck, 2021; Wang et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2020). Notably, the MJO is more active during boreal winter and exerts stronger modulation on winter precipitation across multiple timescales compared to summer (Yao et al., 2015). Given its critical role in delivering low-latitude moisture, the MJO is a natural candidate to provide the missing moisture pathway. However, few studies have recognized the MJO's potential to unlock the puzzle of the weak SPV–extreme precipitation linkage. In this study, we first establish the interannual linkage between the SPV and extreme precipitation, then reveal the strict phase dependence of this linkage on the MJO, and further elucidate the synergistic dynamical pathways underpinning this phenomenon. Multiple coupled climate models from the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6 (CMIP6) are further employed to demonstrate the decisive factor for reproducing the observed SPV–extreme precipitation linkage.

2 Data and Methods

2.1 Reanalysis and CMIP6 simulation datasets

Two precipitation datasets were utilized in this study: (a) the Global Precipitation Climatology Project (GPCP) dataset (Adler et al., 2018), providing daily precipitation on $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grids from 1996 to present; (b) the CN05.1 dataset from the China Meteorological Administration, offering daily precipitation on $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ grids from 1979 to 2022 (Wu and Gao, 2013). Daily and monthly atmospheric variables were sourced from the National Centers for Environmental



Prediction–Department of Energy (NCEP–DOE) reanalysis 2 (Kanamitsu et al., 2002), available from 1979 to the present on $2.5^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$ grids. Daily mean outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) data were obtained from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) interpolated OLR dataset (Liebmann et al., 1996). Monthly mean sea surface temperature (SST) data were obtained from the NOAA Extended Reconstructed Sea Surface Temperature version 5 (ERSST v5) (Huang et al., 2017), covering the period 1979 to 2022.

Historical simulations from 27 coupled climate models participating in the CMIP6 were used (Table S1) (Eyring et al., 2016). The analysis period spans 1964–2014. Model data were interpolated onto a standardized $2.5^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$ grid using bilinear interpolation. Quadratic linear trends were removed from all datasets to mitigate the potential influences of global warming. Leap days were omitted from all datasets, as most CMIP6 models use a 365-day calendar. To eliminate the interference of each model's intrinsic climatology, model anomalies were computed relative to the observational and reanalysis climatology over the common reference period 1981–2010.

2.2 Methods

Winter extreme precipitation was defined as daily rainfall exceeding the 90th percentile of all winter rainy days during November to March (NDJFM), denoted as R90 (Zhang et al., 2011). The ESSPV index was defined as the regionally averaged 50-hPa geopotential height anomaly over the Eurasian sector (50°N – 80°N , 20°E – 100°E). ESSPV winters were defined as those with a standardized NDJFM SPV index lower than -0.7 , and EWSPV winters as those with an index greater than 0.7 . During the analysis period, 13 ESSPV winters and 13 EWSPV winters were identified (Table S2). The MJO indices were derived from the first two principal components of a multivariate empirical orthogonal function analysis of 30–60-day filtered OLR, 200-hPa, and 850-hPa zonal wind anomalies over the tropics (15°S – 15°N). To ensure spatiotemporal consistency, the corrected combined anomaly fields from each CMIP6 model were projected onto the spatial pattern of the MJO mode derived from reanalysis data to obtain the simulated MJO indices. The MJO was classified into eight phases based on the phase angle, and only events with a normalized MJO amplitude exceeding 1.0 standard deviation were retained. To examine whether the ESSPV influence is linearly related to ENSO, the Niño3.4 index (area-averaged SST anomaly over 5°S – 5°N , 170°W – 120°W during NDJFM) was used to represent ENSO variability, and its linear signal was regressed out from all variables prior to analysis

3 Interannual linkage between SPV and extreme precipitation

Since SC exhibits the largest variability in both winter total precipitation and extreme precipitation across China (Figure S1), this region is considered highly sensitive to climate variability. Hence, we begin by examining the statistical association between the stratosphere and SC extreme precipitation. Regression of boreal winter (November to March) mean 50-hPa geopotential height anomalies onto the regionally averaged R90 (defined as daily rainfall exceeding the 90th percentile of all winter rainy days, see Methods) anomaly over SC (21° – 29°N , 107° – 122°E) shows that a Eurasia-shifted stratospheric polar vortex (ESSPV) corresponds to



135 increased extreme precipitation over SC (Figure 1a). Over two-thirds of the SPV negative
136 geopotential height anomaly body is located in the Eastern Hemisphere, with the high-correlation
137 region centered near the Ural Mountains. However, this shift lacks statistical significance,
138 exposing a fragile SPV–extreme precipitation linkage at the winter-mean scale. A singular value
139 decomposition (SVD) analysis further corroborates the ESSPV–increased SC R90 relationship,
140 with the leading mode explaining 85.9% of the total coupled variance. Yet the temporal
141 correlation between the corresponding expansion coefficients is only 0.35, reinforcing the
142 concern that the SPV–extreme precipitation connection is statistically non-robust (Figure S2).

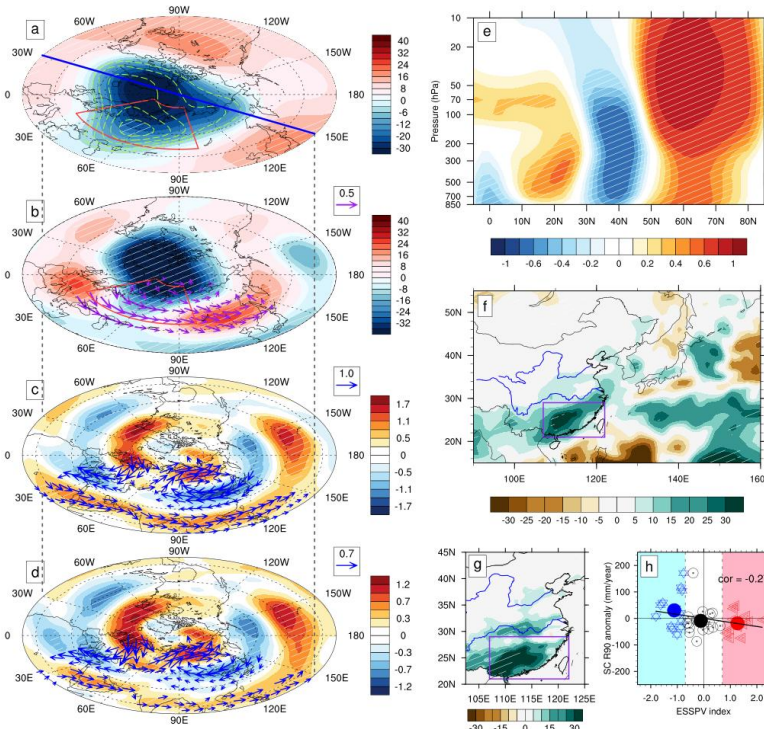
143 Likewise, defining the ESSPV index as the area-averaged 50-hPa geopotential height
144 anomaly over the Eurasian sector (50°–80°N, 20°–100°E) and regressing extreme precipitation
145 onto this standardized index offers a reciprocal perspective. The regressed R90 pattern supports a
146 potential interannual linkage whereby an ESSPV tends to be accompanied by increased extreme
147 precipitation over SC (Figures 1f, g). Notably, this ESSPV index correlates with the concurrent
148 Niño3.4 index at merely –0.17, suggesting that the linkage is linearly independent of ENSO. Yet
149 the scatter plot of the ESSPV index against SC R90 shows considerable dispersion (Figure 1h).
150 While the mean R90 is generally higher under ESSPV conditions and lower under
151 Eurasia-withdraw SPV (EWSPV) conditions, the correlation coefficient reaches only –0.27, still
152 lacking statistical robustness.

153 To explore the dynamical pathways linking the ESSPV to extreme precipitation, we conduct
154 regression analyses of atmospheric circulations onto the ESSPV index. The results reveal a clear
155 Rossby wave train excited by the ESSPV, propagating downstream across Eurasia in the upper
156 troposphere (Figure 1b) and characterized by an anomalous anticyclone over eastern Siberia
157 (Figure 1c). This anticyclone induces pronounced cold, dry northeasterly anomalies in the lower
158 troposphere over eastern China (Figure 1d), which enhance the thermal contrast between cold
159 northern air and warm moist southern air and strengthen low-level moisture convergence over SC.
160 The pressure–latitude cross section of zonal wind associated with the ESSPV index further shows
161 that the ESSPV is characterized by deep westerly anomalies extending from the stratospheric
162 polar region downward to the lower troposphere (Figure 1e). Under the Holton–Tan framework,
163 the SPV is preferentially coupled with the phase of the quasi-biennial oscillation (QBO): 10 out
164 of 13 ESSPV winters correspond to the westerly QBO (WQBO) phase, while 9 out of 13 EWSPV
165 winters correspond to the easterly QBO (EQBO) phase (Table S2). The WQBO-associated
166 tropical stratospheric westerly anomalies arch downward into the lower troposphere, enhancing
167 the background subtropical westerlies over the India–Indochina Peninsula (Figures 1c, d).
168 Additionally, a tropical tropospheric easterly anomaly, arising from the downward propagation of
169 the preceding EQBO phase, is embedded within the alternating QBO zonal wind cycle (Figure
170 1e). Probability density distributions further confirm the interannual coupling among ESSPV,
171 WQBO, and enhanced SC R90, in contrast to the EWSPV–EQBO–reduced SC R90 configuration
172 (Figure S3).

173 Thus, the ESSPV provides a physically credible large-scale circulation background for SC
174 extreme precipitation via two distinct preliminary pathways: a high-latitude Rossby wave train
175 that enhances local dynamical convergence, and a tropical-stratospheric pathway via Holton–Tan



176 coupling with the WQBO that strengthens subtropical westerlies. Yet this background does not
177 translate into a strong statistical linkage at the winter-mean scale, because a favorable
178 seasonal-mean state alone cannot directly trigger extreme precipitation events. This disconnect
179 motivates us to further explore the intraseasonal dynamical processes that may unlock the SPV's
180 influence on extreme rainfall.



181
182 **Figure 1 | Circulation background and responses of extreme precipitation over South China**
183 **under SPV modulation.** **a.** Regressed NDJFM mean 50-hPa geopotential height anomalies
184 (shading, unit: gpm) and correlation coefficients (green dashed contours; interval -0.05 , starting
185 from -0.1) onto the regionally averaged R90 anomaly over SC. White slashes indicate regressed
186 geopotential height anomalies significant at the 95% confidence level. **b.** Regressed NDJFM
187 mean 200-hPa geopotential height anomalies (shading, unit: gpm) and wave activity flux (vectors,
188 unit: $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$) onto the ESSPV index (multiplied by -1). White slashes indicate significant
189 geopotential height anomalies at the 95% confidence level. **c–d.** Same as **b**, but for (c) 500-hPa
190 and (d) 700-hPa horizontal wind anomalies (vectors, unit: m s^{-1} , only those significant at the 95%
191 confidence level are shown) and the zonal wind component (shading, unit: m s^{-1}). White slashes
192 indicate significant zonal wind anomalies at the 95% confidence level. **e.** Pressure–latitude cross
193 section of correlation coefficients between the zonal wind anomalies averaged over 30°W – 150°E
194 and the ESSPV index. White slashes indicate significant correlation coefficients at the 95%
195 confidence level. **f–g.** Same as **b**, but for (f) GPCP and (g) CN05.1 R90 anomalies (shading, unit:



196 mm). White slashes denote significant R90 anomalies at the 95% confidence level. **h.** Scatter plot
197 of the normalized NDJFM ESSPV index versus regionally averaged R90 over SC. The
198 correlation coefficient is shown in the panel. Blue, red, and black dots indicate ESSPV, EWSPV,
199 and neutral winters, respectively. Large solid dots represent the mean values. The red and purple
200 boxes denote the ESSPV (50°–80°N, 20°–100°E) and SC (21°–29°N, 107°–122°E) domains,
201 respectively.

202 **4 Role of MJO in the impact of Eurasia-shifted SPV on extreme** 203 **precipitation**

204 The seasonal-mean background associated with the ESSPV only provides a favorable
205 precondition for SC extreme precipitation, rather than directly triggering extreme rainfall events.
206 This explains why the SPV–SC extreme precipitation linkage remains statistically weak in the
207 climatology, and leads us to hypothesize that intraseasonal variability acts as the critical key that
208 unlocks the SPV's influence. To test this, we examine the periodicity of daily precipitation
209 anomalies over SC during ESSPV and EWSPV winters. The results show that SC precipitation
210 exhibits a dominant intraseasonal periodicity of 30–60 days, with significantly stronger spectral
211 power during ESSPV winters than during EWSPV winters (Figure 2a, Figure S4). This
212 30–60-day periodicity matches the characteristic timescale of the MJO, strongly suggesting that
213 the MJO mediates the linkage between the interannual ESSPV background and intraseasonal
214 rainfall extremes over SC.

215 Composite precipitation anomalies across all eight MJO phases under ESSPV and EWSPV
216 backgrounds confirm the MJO's phase-dependent modulation of the SPV–extreme precipitation
217 linkage. Relative to EWSPV winters, SC precipitation during MJO phases 2–5 is markedly
218 enhanced under the ESSPV background, whereas no consistent enhancement is observed during
219 phases 6–8 and 1 (Figure 2b, Figure S5). Probability density distributions of regionally averaged
220 SC precipitation further validate this phase dependence: during MJO phases 2–5, the 90th, 75th,
221 and 50th percentiles, as well as the mean daily precipitation over SC, are heavily skewed toward
222 higher values in ESSPV winters than in EWSPV winters (Figure 2c). Notably, the amplitude of
223 MJO phases 2–5 is actually weaker under the ESSPV background than under the EWSPV
224 background (solid dot octagons in Figure 2c, Figure S6), likely because the WQBO associated
225 with the ESSPV generates a warm temperature anomaly near the tropical tropopause, whose
226 enhanced static stability suppresses the upward development of MJO deep convection (Green and
227 Furtado, 2019; Liu et al., 2014; Martin et al., 2021). Yet, despite this reduced convective intensity,
228 MJO phases 2–5 under the ESSPV background still yield a significantly higher probability of
229 extreme precipitation occurrence than the same phases under EWSPV conditions, using the 90th
230 percentile as the extreme rainfall threshold. This "weaker MJO intensity–stronger extreme
231 precipitation" paradox firmly establishes that the ESSPV amplifies SC extreme precipitation not
232 by strengthening the MJO itself, but by enhancing its teleconnection and circulation response,
233 thereby positioning the MJO as the indispensable key that unlocks the SPV–extreme precipitation
234 linkage, with this amplification almost exclusively restricted to MJO phases 2–5.

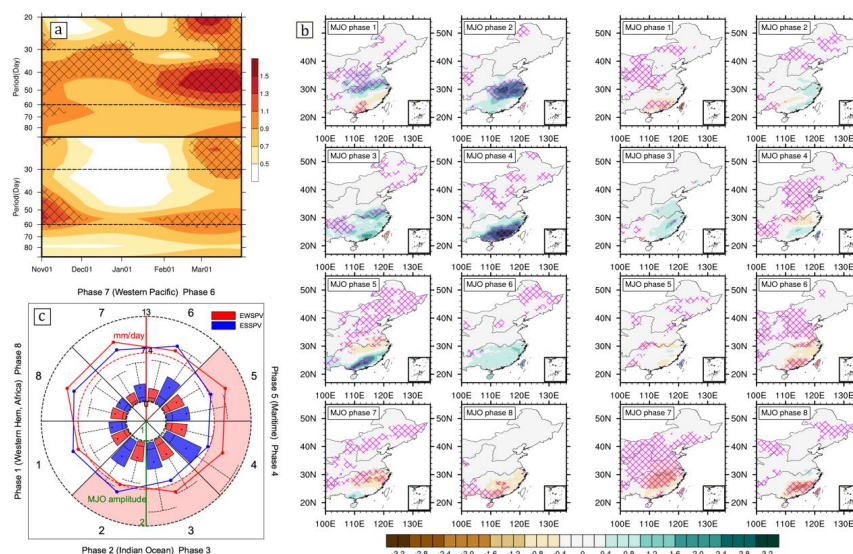


Figure 2 | Precipitation responses under the synergistic impacts of ESSPV and MJO. a. Mean wavelet spectra of the regionally averaged daily precipitation anomalies over SC for each ESSPV (top) and EWSPV (bottom) winter. Time labels on the bottom x-axis represent the 1st day of each month. Black meshes indicate the 95% confidence level. **b.** Composite evolution patterns of MJO phases 1–8 precipitation anomalies (unit: mm day⁻¹) associated with ESSPV (left) and EWSPV (right) winters. Meshes indicate significant precipitation anomalies at the 95% confidence level. **c.** Probability density distributions of daily precipitation in SC during MJO phases 1–8 in ESSPV (blue box) and EWSPV (red box) winters. The box bounds indicate the 10th, 25th, 50th, 75th, and 90th percentiles, and dots indicate the mean. The solid dot octagons denote the average amplitude of MJO in ESSPV (blue) and EWSPV (red) winters. The red dashed line indicates the wintertime 90th percentile threshold for SC precipitation (about 7.4 mm day⁻¹).

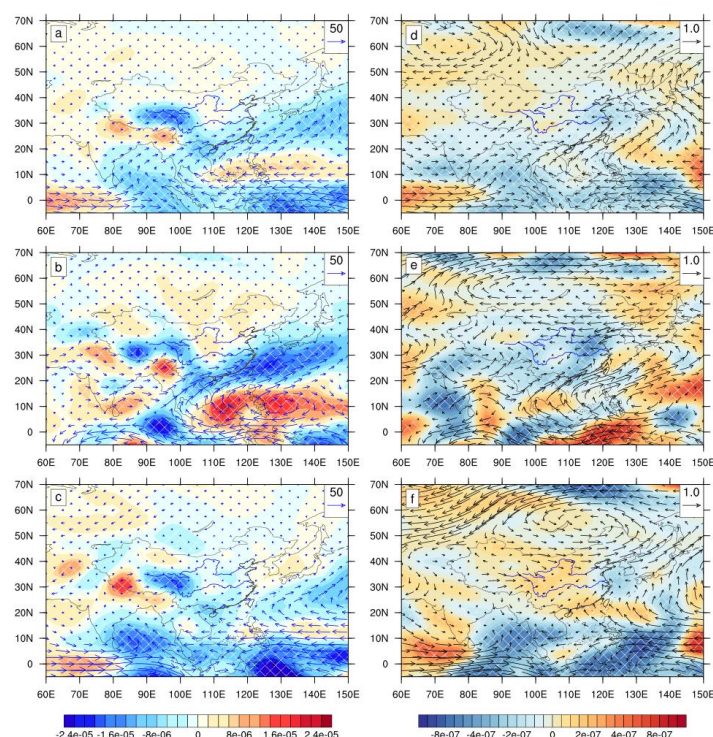
To elucidate the synergistic dynamical mechanism of the ESSPV and MJO in amplifying SC extreme precipitation, we composite the vertically integrated water vapor flux and its divergence, as well as the 850-hPa horizontal winds and their divergence, under different SPV backgrounds during MJO phases 2–5 (Figure 3). Under climatological conditions, MJO phases 2–5 are characterized by enhanced convection over the tropical Indian Ocean and Maritime Continent. The tropical easterly inflows on the eastern flank of this convection curl northward into the subtropics, forming an anomalous anticyclone over the western North Pacific that transports abundant moisture from the low-latitude ocean toward SC, resulting in above-normal precipitation (Figures 3a, d).

Under the ESSPV regime, two pronounced changes emerge. First, the MJO-associated anomalous anticyclone over the western North Pacific is significantly reinforced. This intensification is linked to the WQBO phase that accompanies the ESSPV, which strengthens the tropical easterlies and subtropical westerlies in the troposphere, thereby amplifying moisture



261 transport and convergence over SC (Figure 3b). Second, this western North Pacific anticyclone
262 and the ESSPV-induced anomalous anticyclone over eastern Siberia confront each other, creating
263 a sharp wind-field contrast between low-latitude southwesterlies and high-latitude northeasterlies
264 that further enhances convergence and upward motion (Figure 3e). Although the MJO itself
265 weakens under the ESSPV background, the two processes associated with its remote anticyclonic
266 response together make extreme precipitation over SC substantially more likely.

267 During EWSPV winters, the western North Pacific anticyclone weakens, suppressing
268 moisture transport (Figure 3c). Moreover, the anomalous circulation over eastern Siberia shifts to
269 cyclonic; the weakened low-latitude southwesterlies are met by high-latitude southwesterly
270 anomalies, providing little contribution to convergence and upward motion (Figure 3f).
271 Consequently, even during MJO phases 2–5, which are otherwise favorable for SC precipitation,
272 the EWSPV background suppresses rainfall and reduces the probability of extreme precipitation.
273 During MJO phases 6–1, however, an anomalous cyclonic circulation dominates the western
274 North Pacific and inherently suppresses precipitation over SC irrespective of the SPV background
275 (Figure S7). This contrast further underscores the strict phase dependence of the SPV–extreme
276 precipitation linkage.



277

278 **Figure 3 | Circulation responses under the synergistic impacts of ESSPV and MJO phases**
279 **2–5. a–c.** Composites of vertically integrated (surface to 300 hPa) water vapor fluxes (vectors,
280 unit: $\text{kg m}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$) and their divergence (shading, unit: $\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) during MJO phases 2–5 for (a) all
281 winters, (b) ESSPV winters, and (c) EWSPV winters. **d–f.** Same as **a–c**, but for 850-hPa



282 horizontal winds (vectors, unit: m s^{-1}) and their divergence (shading, unit: s^{-1}). White meshes
283 indicate significant anomalies at the 95% confidence level.

284 **5 CMIP6 validation of the MJO-dependent SPV–extreme precipitation**

285 **linkage**

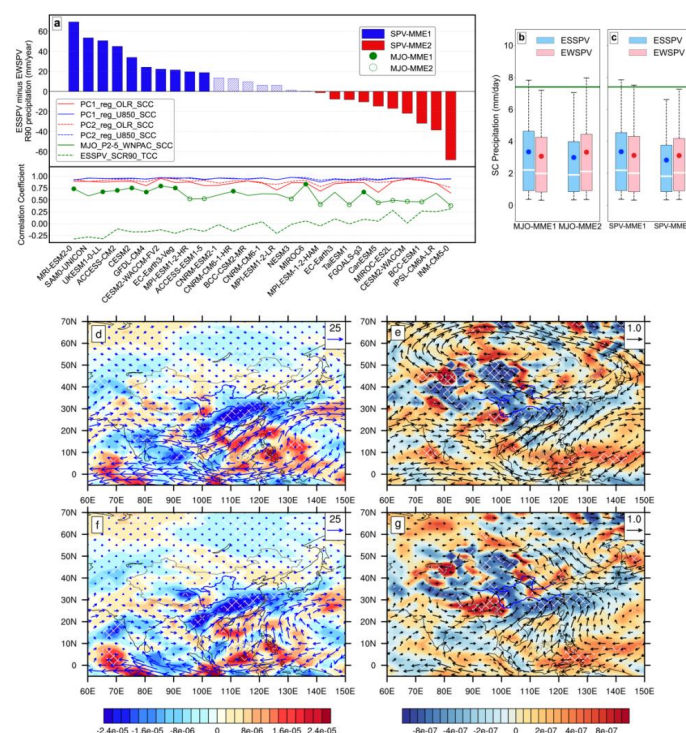
286 To validate the gatekeeping role of the MJO, historical simulations from 27 CMIP6 coupled
287 climate models are further analyzed (see Methods, Table S1). We first quantify each model's
288 ability to reproduce the observed SPV–SC extreme precipitation linkage using two metrics: (1)
289 the composite difference in SC R90 between ESSPV and EWSPV winters, and (2) the temporal
290 correlation coefficient between SC R90 and the ESSPV index (Figure 4a). The model ranking
291 based on the composite difference is broadly consistent with the correlation results: models with
292 an ESSPV–more (less) SC extreme precipitation composite difference correspond to a more
293 negative (positive) correlation coefficient. Given the critical role of the MJO phases
294 2–5-associated western North Pacific anticyclone revealed in Figure 3, we further evaluate each
295 model's skill in simulating this anticyclone and the MJO itself. Notably, the ESSPV–SC extreme
296 precipitation ranking does not closely align with model performance in reproducing the MJO
297 overall, but is strongly tied to the fidelity of the anticyclone simulation. Models with superior
298 simulation of this anticyclone exhibit a tighter positive linkage between the ESSPV and amplified
299 SC R90, whereas those that reverse or fail to capture the observed SPV–SC extreme precipitation
300 linkage consistently show poor anticyclone representation.

301 Based on these metrics, we select the 10 best-performing models in simulating the MJO
302 phases 2–5-associated western North Pacific anticyclone (denoted as MJO-MME1) and the 10
303 poorest-performing models (denoted as MJO-MME2). Independently, we select the 10 models
304 that reproduce the strongest observed positive ESSPV–extreme precipitation linkage (denoted as
305 SPV-MME1) and the 10 that most fail to do so (denoted as SPV-MME2). The two sets of selected
306 models overlap considerably: most models that perform well (poorly) in simulating the
307 anticyclone also perform well (poorly) in reproducing the ESSPV–extreme precipitation linkage.
308 We then conduct a statistical analysis of regionally averaged precipitation over SC during MJO
309 phases 2–5 under different SPV backgrounds for both MME pairs (Figures 4b, c). The
310 precipitation distributions in MJO-MME1 and SPV-MME1 are generally consistent with the
311 observational result (Figure 2c): the 90th percentile of SC precipitation in ESSPV winters is
312 clearly higher than the wintertime 90th percentile threshold, whereas in EWSPV winters it falls
313 below the threshold; additionally, the 75th percentile, 50th percentile, and mean precipitation are
314 all notably higher under ESSPV than under EWSPV. In both MJO-MME2 and SPV-MME2, by
315 contrast, the precipitation difference between ESSPV and EWSPV winters is nearly opposite to
316 the observed pattern, yielding a spurious SPV–SC extreme precipitation relationship.

317 The dynamical mechanisms underlying these contrasts are further validated by compositing
318 the differences in atmospheric circulation and moisture fields between the two MME pairs
319 (Figures 4d–g). Taking MJO-MME as an example, relative to MJO-MME2, MJO-MME1 exhibits
320 a more pronounced anomalous anticyclone over the western North Pacific, which drives



321 sufficient southwesterly moisture transport toward SC, together with a stronger ESSPV-associated
322 anomalous anticyclone over eastern Siberia, which delivers cold northeasterly flow that increases
323 precipitation efficiency and favors extreme rainfall. These circulation contrasts align closely with
324 the observational patterns in Figure 3, and collectively explain why the two model ensembles
325 produce opposite ESSPV–SC extreme precipitation linkages. The SPV-MME comparison yields
326 consistent results. Taken together, the CMIP6 results confirm that a clear ESSPV influence on SC
327 extreme precipitation requires the coexistence of two pathways: the high-latitude route, whereby
328 the ESSPV-induced anticyclone north of SC advects cold air southward to confront warm moist
329 air, and the tropical route, whereby the MJO phases 2–5-driven western North Pacific anticyclone
330 provides sufficient moisture that cannot be established without the MJO. The stark contrast
331 between the two MME pairs prominently highlights this low-latitude anticyclonic circulation,
332 underscoring its critical role in supplying both the moisture and the convergent wind field
333 necessary for vertical motion. Given that the MJO-MME groups differ little in their simulation of
334 the ESSPV background and its coupling with the WQBO (Figure S9), these results firmly validate
335 that the MJO is the decisive factor determining whether a model can capture the ESSPV–extreme
336 precipitation linkage over SC.



337
338 **Figure 4 | CMIP6 model validation of the MJO-dependent SPV–extreme precipitation**
339 **linkage.** a. Bar charts denote composite differences of NDJFM-accumulated R90 regionally
340 averaged over SC between ESSPV and EWSPV winters across 27 CMIP6 models (unit: mm).
341 Blue (red) solid bars indicate the 10 models selected for SPV-MME1 (SPV-MME2). The green



solid line denotes the spatial pattern correlation coefficient between each model's MJO phases 2–5-associated western North Pacific anticyclone (defined by the combined OLR and 850-hPa wind pattern over 0°–30°N, 100°–150°E) and the observed counterpart. Green solid (hollow) circles indicate the 10 models selected for MJO-MME1 (MJO-MME2). The green dashed line denotes the temporal correlation coefficient between the winter-mean ESSPV index and SC R90 for each model. Red (blue) lines represent the spatial pattern correlation coefficient between model-derived and observational Hovmöller diagrams (constructed from PC1 and PC2 of OLR and 850-hPa zonal wind anomalies; see Figure S8), with solid (dashed) lines corresponding to PC1 (PC2). **b.** Probability density distributions of daily precipitation (unit: mm day⁻¹) in SC during MJO phases 2–5 in ESSPV (blue) and EWSPV (red) winters for MJO-MME1 and MJO-MME2. Box bounds indicate the 10th, 25th, 50th, 75th, and 90th percentiles; dots indicate the mean. The green solid line marks the observational 90th percentile threshold (approximately 7.4 mm day⁻¹). **c.** Same as **b**, but for SPV-MME1 and SPV-MME2. **d.** Composite differences of vertically integrated (surface to 250 hPa) water vapor fluxes (vectors, unit: kg m⁻¹ s⁻¹) and their divergence (shading, unit: kg m⁻² s⁻¹) between ESSPV and EWSPV winters during MJO phases 2–5 for MJO-MME1 minus MJO-MME2. **e.** Same as **c**, but for 850-hPa horizontal winds (vectors, unit: m s⁻¹) and their divergence (shading, unit: s⁻¹). Meshes indicate significant anomalies at the 95% confidence level. **f–g.** Same as **d–e**, but for SPV-MME1 minus SPV-MME2.

6 Conclusion and discussion

In this study, we defined the longitudinal displacement of the SPV to examine its modulatory effect on extreme precipitation over SC. Under the ESSPV (EWSPV) background, SC extreme precipitation tends to be increased (decreased), yet this linkage is statistically modest. Two factors contribute to this fragility. First, the ESSPV is a seasonal-mean background state that, while favorable for steering cold air southward, does not directly drive moisture transport. Second, a seasonal-mean background alone cannot explain why extreme rainfall events, as transient weather processes, occur on some occasions but not others under the same background. Integration of the MJO, however, reveals that this modulation is not ubiquitous but concentrated in MJO phases 2–5, indicating a distinct phase dependence of the SPV–extreme precipitation relationship on the MJO (Figure 5). When the ESSPV background coincides with MJO phases 2–5, two pathways synergistically enhance extreme precipitation. At high latitudes, the SPV-induced anticyclone north of SC advects cold northeasterly flow, strengthening the thermal contrast between cold northern air and warm moist southern air, which favors wind convergence and sustained upward motion. At low latitudes, the WQBO-associated westerlies, linked to the ESSPV via the Holton–Tan effect, amplify the MJO-induced southwesterly wind anomalies and enhance low-latitude moisture transport toward SC from the western North Pacific anticyclone. The synergy of these multi-latitude pathways creates optimal conditions for SC extreme precipitation. CMIP6 model simulations further validate the robustness of this mechanism: models that more accurately reproduce the MJO phases 2–5-associated western North Pacific anticyclone tend to better capture the negative ESSPV–SC extreme precipitation correlation on the winter-mean timescale, with the inter-model relationship exceeding the 95% significance level. These findings

[illegible]



2019; Lu et al., 2021, 2023). How such SPV intraseasonal processes synergize with the MJO to trigger extreme precipitation remains an open question. Finally, given that the SPV and MJO jointly drive extreme precipitation through two distinct pathways from high and low latitudes, translating this mechanistic understanding into improved subseasonal-to-seasonal prediction of extreme precipitation represents an important challenge for future work (Garfinkel et al., 2012; Garfinkel and Schwartz, 2017). Given these implications, we emphasize the importance of closely monitoring SPV states and MJO signals in future climate projections, encompassing both mid-to-high and low latitudes, with substantial value for formulating disaster prevention and mitigation policies.

Code and data availability

All datasets in this study are publicly available. The daily GPCP precipitation dataset can be obtained from <https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/data/global-precipitation-climatology-project-gpcp-daily/access/>. The CN05.1 precipitation dataset can be found at <https://ccrc.iap.ac.cn/resource/detail?id=228>. The NCEP–DOE reanalysis dataset is accessible via <https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.ncep.reanalysis2.html>. The NOAA interpolated OLR dataset is available from <https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.olrldr.interp.html>. The ERSST version 5 is available from NOAA (<https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/products/extended-reconstructed-sst>). All CMIP6 datasets can be accessed via the Earth System Grid Federation (ESGF) Data Portal: <https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/projects/cmip6/>.

The Python 3.10.9 and software National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) Command Language (NCL; available at <http://www.ncl.ucar.edu/>) are employed for plotting. The code that supports the findings of this study is available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Author contributions

F.Z. contributed to the conceptualization, methodology, investigation, formal analysis, project supervision, and manuscript revision. S.H. contributed to the methodology, investigation, formal analysis, visualization, and original draft. Z.Y. contributed to the investigation and manuscript revision. T.H. and D.H. contributed to the methodology and manuscript revision. All co-authors contributed to the discussion of the results.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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