1	The precipitation variability of wet and dry season at the interannual
2	and interdecadal scales over eastern China (1901–2016): The impacts
3	of the Pacific Ocean
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Abstract: The spatiotemporal variability of rainfall in dry (October- March) and wet 22 (April-September) seasons over eastern China is examined based on gridded rainfall 23 dataset from University of East Angela Climatic Research Unit during 1901-2016. 24 Principal component analysis is employed to identify the dominant variability modes, 25 wavelet coherence is utilized to investigate the spectral features of leading modes of 26 precipitation and their coherences with the large-scale modes of climate variability, 27 and Bayesian dynamical linear model is adopted to quantify the time-varying 28 29 correlations between climate variability modes and rainfall in dry and wet seasons. Results show that first and second principal components (PCs) account for 34.2% 30 (16.1%) and 13.4% (13.9%) of variance in dry (wet) season, and their variations are 31 roughly coincident with phase shifts of the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) in 32 both seasons. The anomalous moisture fluxes responsible for the occurrences of 33 precipitation events in eastern China exhibit an asymmetry between high and light 34 rainfall years in dry (wet) season. ENSO has a 4- to 8-year signal of the statistically 35 positive (negative) association with rainfall during dry (wet) season over eastern 36 37 China. The statistically significant positive (negative) associations between Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) and precipitation are found with 9- to 15-year (4- to 7-year) 38 signal. The impacts of PDO on rainfall in eastern China exhibit multiple time scales 39 as compared to ENSO episodes, while PDO triggers a stronger effect on precipitation 40 in wet season than dry half year. The interannual and interdecadal variations in 41 rainfall over eastern China are substantially modulated by drivers originated from 42 Pacific Ocean. In wet season, ENSO exerts a gradually weakening effect on eastern 43 China rainfall from 1901 to 2016, while the effects of PDO decrease before 1980s, 44 45 and then shift into increases after 2000s. The finding provides a metric for accessing the capability of climate models and guidance of seasonal prediction. 46

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48 Keywords: Precipitation over eastern China; Principal component analysis; Wavelet
49 spectral analysis; Bayesian dynamical linear model

51 **1. Introduction**

As a densely populated area with lots of industrial and agricultural activities, eastern 52 53 China is frequently affected by the catastrophic floods and droughts derived from variability of precipitation events (Liu et al., 2015; Gao and Xie, 2016; Huang et al., 54 55 2017; Yang et al., 2017; Luo and Lau, 2018; Ge et al., 2019). For example, intense rainfall in southern China resulted in disastrous floods over the lower reach of 56 Yangtze River basin (YRB) in 1991, 1996, 1998 and 1999. Seriously deficient 57 precipitation in northern China caused a severe drought of 226 days without stream 58 59 discharge over the Yellow River basin (Qian and Zhou, 2014; Xu et al., 2015; Zhang and Zhou, 2015). It is therefore of great importance to investigate the rainfall 60 variability in eastern China and its associated physical mechanisms. 61

62 Both the observed and simulated results demonstrated that the variations in rainfall over eastern China are more closely correlated with the Pacific sea surface 63 temperature (SST) anomalies as compared to Atlantic SST pattern, which plays a 64 65 supplementary role on eastern China rainfall variability (Wang and Zhou, 2005; Huang et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2017). At the interannual scale, heavy rainfall events 66 often occur over southern China during El Niño episodes (e.g., Zhang et al., 1996; 67 Wang et al., 2000; He et al., 2017; Gao et al., 2020). While-the variations in 68 precipitation events over eastern China are remarkably impacted by tropical Pacific 69 SST and western Pacific subtropical high at the interdecadal scale (WPSH, Chang et 70 al., 2000a; Zhu et al., 2011; Li et al., 2019). Moreover, SST anomalies over the 71 tropical Indian Ocean and tropical eastern Pacific also account for the shifts of the 72

positive-negative-positive rainfall patterns in eastern China via their influences on WPSH (Chang et al., 2000b; Hu et al., 2018). Thus, a better understanding of interannual and interdecadal changes stemming from the variability of air-sea interaction over the Pacific Ocean is instrumental to the interpretation and seasonal prediction for the rainfall variability over eastern China.

The El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) is a strong air-sea coupled mode at the 78 interannual scale over the tropics, it is also the important source of interannual 79 variability of the global climate system (Webster et al., 1998). ENSO significantly 80 81 impacts rainfall over eastern China by means of the atmospheric teleconnections (e.g., Wang et al., 2008; Jin et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2017; Gao et al., 2017). 82 Wang et al. (2000) proposed that the key system of Pacific-East Asian teleconnection 83 84 responsible for linkages between ENSO and precipitation anomalies in eastern China is an anomalous low-level anticyclone located over the western North Pacific (WNP), 85 which is induced by local air-sea interactions and large-scale equatorial heating 86 87 anomalies. Wu et al. (2003) further argued that the similar positive correlation 88 between springtime rainfall over the mid-lower reaches of YRB and ENSO is linked to the evolution of ENSO-related seasonal rainfall anomalies over the East Asia. 89 Moreover, the summertime rainfall over the YRB and to its south is expected to be 90 strengthened (weakened) during El Niño (La Niña) years. Huang and Wu (1989) 91 documented that the drought in northern and southern China as well as flood over 92 93 central China are associated with the developing stage of warm ENSO episodes, and the reversed relationship occurs in decaying stage of the warm events. These patterns 94

of rainfall in eastern China can also be plausibly-related to strong convective activities
in the Philippines, with the effects from western Pacific warm pool through shifting
the WPSH northward (Huang and Sun, 1992; Jin et al., 2016). The latest research
suggested that the patterns of seasonal rainfall anomaly in eastern China are impacted
by the different types of La Niña decay, these are attributed to the responses of
large-scale circulation anomalies induced by different types of La Niña episodes
(Chen et al., 2019).

At the interdecadal scale, northern China experienced dry and wet alternations, 102 103 with above-normal rainfall around the 1950s and severe droughts around the 1970s and 1980s. While the YRB and southern China suffered apparent shifts of 104 precipitation patterns in the 1970s and 1990s (Zhu et al., 2015). A growing body of 105 106 studies indicated that these shifts of rainfall distribution over eastern China are caused by the shifts in Pacific decadal oscillation (PDO) phases. Yang and Lau (2004) 107 reported a close relationship between the positive PDO and decreasing trends of 108 109 summertime rainfall events over eastern China. Based on surface wetness indices, Ma 110 (2007) further pointed out an anti-correlation between rainfall in northern China and PDO phases, suggesting more droughts during positive phase of PDO, and vice versa. 111 The strengthened (weakened) precipitation over the Huang-Huai (Yangtze) River 112 basin from 2000 to 2008 in comparison with those during 1979-1999 is triggered by 113 the transition from warm to cold phase of the PDO around the 2000s, which is 114 115 attributed to the weakened westerly winds and warming over the Lake Baikal induced by negative PDO phase after 2000s (Zhu et al., 2011). The possible modulation of the 116

PDO on the East Asian summer monsoon (EASM) and East Asian winter monsoon 117 (EAWM), which are associated with summer and winter rainfall changes in eastern 118 119 China, respectively, has also documented in previous studies (e.g., Yu, 2013; Chen et al., 2013). Zhou et al. (2013) pointed out an anti-correlation between the PDO and 120 EASM since 1950s, and negative phases of the PDO correspond to a stronger EASM 121 with more precipitation events over northern China. A much stronger EASM tends to 122 appear after a weak EAWM in positive phases of the PDO than that in negative phases 123 of the PDO (Chen et al., 2013). Existing studies also reported the similar relationship 124 125 between positive phase of the PDO and dryness in northern China, and revealed that a warm phase of PDO in the 1976/1977 resulted in a weakened EASM associated with 126 aridity in northern China in the 1980s and 1990s (Qian and Zhou, 2014; Zhu et al., 127 128 2015; Yang et al., 2017; Gao and Wang, 2017). Furthermore, the relationship between interdecadal variability of rainfall patterns over eastern China and phase transitions of 129 PDO is also identified and verified by coupled climate model simulations (e.g., Li et 130 131 al., 2010; Yu et al., 2015).

Most previous studies that assessed the impacts of ENSO and PDO on eastern China rainfall are limited to relatively short dataset records. Ouyang et al. (2014) and Yang et al. (2017) performed century-scale analyses of the linkage between rainfall pattern across China and ENSO and PDO, while their time-varying relationships are not sufficiently considered. The latest research documented that rainfall over northern China displays an unstable relationship with ENSO at the centennial scale (Wang et al., 2020), particularly, the predictability of seasonal rainfall over the East Asia largely

depends on the relationship between large-scale modes and regional precipitation 139 (Chan and Zhou, 2005). Moreover, the variations in climatological seasonal rainfall 140 141 are employed in aforementioned analyses, while the main rainy season in China, in particularly for eastern China, does not follow conventional seasonal boundaries, 142 which smears out natural variability of precipitation seasonality based on 143 climatological seasons, since the rainfall in eastern China is principally concentrated 144 during April-September (Bao 1987; Domroes and Peng 1988; Zhai et al., 2005). 145 Usage of boreal standard seasons may therefore unavoidably break the natural rainy 146 147 distribution at the temporal scale, affecting the robustness of the analytical results. Zhai et al. (2005) have investigated trends of precipitation extremes during wet season 148 (April-September) and dry season (October-March) in China, and suggested that 149 150 utilization of six months as the dry (wet) half year facilitates to characterize the variations in extreme events. While up to now, the issue on whether the ENSO and 151 PDO can contribute to the interannual and interdecadal rainfall variability in major 152 153 rainy seasons over eastern China remains unclear. In this study, we utilize April–September as the wet half year (wet season) and October–March as the dry half 154 year (dry season), respectively, to fill the gap of detecting robust signals of the 155 time-varying effects of ENSO and PDO on the precipitation variability in eastern 156 China based on long-term datasets. Data and methods are described in section 2. The 157 results are provided in section 3. Section 4 presents the discussion and conclusions. 158

- 159 **2. Data and Methods**
- 160 **2.1 Data**

A dataset of daily accumulated rainfall amount at 756 meteorological stations during 161 1960-2015 across China is employed in this study. This dataset is developed at 162 Climate Data Center of the National Meteorological Center of the China 163 Meteorological Administration (http://cdc.cma.gov.cn/dataSetDetailed.do), including 164 almost all the first and second class national climatological stations. The accurate 165 quality control procedures are conducted to check the temporal inhomogeneity and 166 missing values, and screen the related stations in the following analyses, meaning that 167 the stations having too many missing rainfall values are dropped. For example, a year 168 169 is considered as the missing year if there exists more than 10% missing days, and a station with less than 5% missing years is retained. After these procedures, 436 170 stations meet these criteria and are retained in the subsequent analyses. Another 171 172 rainfall dataset is a global land monthly precipitation dataset from University of East Angela Climatic Research Unit (CRU), which has a high resolution of $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$ 173 over land from 1901 to 2016. The CRU data covers a longer period compared to 174 175 observed counterpart, more information about this dataset is referred to Harris et al. 176 (2014). The observed rainfall datasets at 436 stations are used to access the robustness of reliability and representativeness of the CRU gridded data with much longer time 177 series over eastern China, since the long-term gridded precipitation data during 178 1901-2016 are more suitable for examining multi-decadal variability. 179

The reanalysis datasets are utilized to detect the physical mechanisms responsible for the interannual and interdecadal variability of the eastern China rainfall. We select monthly global circulation variables from National Centers for Environmental

Prediction/National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCEP/NCAR) Reanalysis data 183 (Kalnay et al., 1996). SST data are obtained from the Hadley Centre, Met Office 184 185 (Rayner et al., 2003). ENSO index is obtained from the Climate Prediction Center of NOAA 186 (http://origin.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov/products/analysis_monitoring/ensostuff/detrend.nino 187 34.ascii.txt). The PDO index is extracted from the Earth System Research Laboratory 188 of NOAA (http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/correlation/pdo.data/). 189 2.2 Method 190 2.2.1 Principle component analysis 191 The gridded CRU precipitation dataset is subjected to the principle component 192 193 analysis (PCA), which is a widely applied method to extract the dominant temporal 194 and spatial modes of the variability based on mutually correlated dataset. The leading principal component (PC) explains the most of variance, with the second PC 195 decreases thereafter. Moreover, the leading PCs can reduce dimension of the original 196 dataset, because they capture the most of variance. The detailed description of the 197 PCA refers to Hannachi et al. (2007). To identify the effects of climate variability 198 modes on changes in rainfall over eastern China, the correlations between the leading 199 PCs and climate variability modes are calculated to examine the telecommunications. 200 The composited maps of the atmospheric variables are analyzed to detect the physical 201 mechanisms responsible for the rainfall variability by utilizing the high and light 25th 202 203 percentile values of the daily rainfall in wet and dry seasons, respectively.

204 **2.2.2 Wavelet coherence**

The wavelet coherence is a widely employed technique, based on how coherent the cross-wavelet transform is in time frequency space. It can preferably access the detailed relationships between two time series with different time periods and disparate frequency ranges (e.g., Grinsted et al., 2004; Coulibaly and Burn, 2005). Given two particular time series x_n and y_n , the wavelet coherence of them can be expressed as

211
$$W^{XY} = W^X W^{Y^*}$$
 (1)

where * represents their complex conjunction. Correspondingly, the cross-wavelet power can be expressed as $|W^{XY}|$. And complex argument arg (W^{XY}) is considered as local relative phases between the time series x_n and y_n , which are applicative in both frequency and time domains. The wavelet coherence of the time series can be defined according to Torrence and Webster (1999).

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$$R_n^2(s) = \frac{\left|S(s^{-1}W_n^{XY}(s))\right|^2}{S(s^{-1}|W_n^X(s)|^2) \cdot S\left(s^{-1}|W_n^Y(s)|^2\right)}$$
(2)

218 where S is the smoothing operator, which is further written as,

219
$$S_{time}(W) = S_{scale}(S_{time}(W_n(s)))$$
(3)

where S_{scale} and S_{time} denote the smoothing along wavelet scale axis and time, respectively. It is natural to design the smoothing operator so that it has a similar footprint as the wavelet.

The related codes for the wavelet coherence used in the present study can be freely downloaded from http://www.pol.ac.uk/home/research/waveletcoherence/. The wavelet coherence is used to investigate the correlations between ENSO/PDO and 226 rainfall over eastern China.

227 2.2.3 Bayesian dynamic linear model

The increases in amplitude of the SST anomaly patterns over the Pacific Ocean in the context of global warming trigger non-stationarity changes in regional rainfall (Wang et al., 2013; Krishnaswamy et al., 2015; Rajagopalan and Zagona, 2016). The Bayesian dynamic linear model (BDLM) is utilized to examine the non-stationarity and epochal fluctuations between the climate variability modes and rainfall in eastern China. The description of BDLM model as follows,

$$\begin{cases} y_t = \alpha_t + x_t \beta_t + v_t, & v_t \sim N(0, V_t) \\ \alpha_t = \alpha_{t-1} + \omega_{\alpha,t}, & \omega_{\alpha,t} \sim N(0, W_{\alpha,t}) \\ \beta_t = \beta_{t-1} + \omega_{\beta,t}, & \omega_{\beta,t} \sim N(0, W_{\beta,t}) \end{cases}$$
(4)

where y_t is the leading PCs of rainfall over eastern China, x_t is the covariate (climate variability modes, i.e., ENSO and PDO), and a_t and β_t are the dynamic intercept and slope coefficients at time $t \cdot \omega_t$ is the corresponding evaluation error and W_t is the corresponding scalar greater than zero.

239 Unlike traditional linear regression methods that cannot characterize the robust time-varying relationship, BDLM can model and understand the non-stationarity in 240 the relationships between large-scale modes of climate variability and regional 241 242 precipitation with time. This method has been used to model monsoonal precipitation 243 variability in India and China, and shows better performance and more interesting insights than the traditional regression method (Krishnaswamy et al., 2015; Gao et al., 244 245 2017). For the BDLM, the regression coefficient varies with time compared to the traditional regression, in which the coefficient remains fixed. 246

247 **3. Results**

248 **3.1 Comparison between observed and CRU rainfall datasets**

249 The variations in monthly and annual rainfall over eastern China based on both the observed stations and CRU gridded points from 1960 to 2015 are illustrated in Fig. 1. 250 The monthly mean precipitation is shown in dashed lines and the climatological 251 average is depicted in solid red lines (Fig. 1a, b). Fig. 1 shows that the climatological 252 variability of observed rainfall along with months is quite similar to CRU gridded 253 dataset. The slight disagreement is that the annual mean rainfall is larger and smaller 254 255 than 80 mm for CRU and observed datasets, respectively. The climatological rainfall is greater (lesser) than annual mean value from April to September (October to 256 March), consistent with the periods of wet (dry) season (half year) selected in this 257 258 study. These changes in rainfall confirm that it is reasonable to categorize wet and dry seasons over eastern China. We further compare the time series of mean rainfall 259 between observation and CRU datasets during wet and dry seasons (Fig. 1c, d), which 260 261 indicates a strong level of similarity between observed and CRU datasets. High spatial 262 similarity of the observed and CRU datasets during dry (Fig. 2a, c) and wet (Fig. 2b, d) seasons suggests that the spatial patterns from these two datasets are also consistent. 263 In addition, the spectral analysis is also performed using the mean rainfall series of 264 the two datasets (not shown) and the similar results are also obtained. Those indicate 265 that the rainfall variability for CRU dataset coincides with observations over eastern 266 267 China. We use CRU dataset since it covers a much longer period and is therefore more suitable to investigate the interdecadal variability. We present the following 268

analyses in wet and dry seasons, respectively, to provide a concise result.

270 **3.2 Dry season**

271 The two leading PCs explain 34.22% and 13.44% of the total variance, they together capture around 50% variance. Fig. 3 depicts the time series of first PC that is flipped 272 273 for convenient comparison, which is suggestive of a well correspond with the spatial mean rainfall. The first two eigenvectors, including spatial components and 274 corresponding PCs, are shown in Fig. 4. The spatial pattern of the first eigenvector 275 exhibits similar magnitudes and signs, indicating that the dominant pattern is coherent 276 277 in eastern China, especially over southern China and coastal regions (Fig. 4a), this may be associated with the propagation of the EAWM into mainland China. The 278 second eigenvector displays a southeast-southwest dipole over southern China, this 279 280 feature is coincident with the location and movement of the EASM (Ding et al., 2009). The time series of PCs also show considerable temporal changes with time, which are 281 discussed in the spectral analysis. 282

283 Fig. 5 shows the correlation maps of climate variables and PC1 and PC2. Note that the signs of the PCs are flipped to ensure that the correlations are directly inferred as 284 rainfall variability over eastern China. The correlation between PC1 and SSTs 285 displays strong positive coefficients over the equatorial tropical Pacific and North 286 Pacific. While the negative connections are mainly found over the South China Sea 287 (SCS) and central-east Pacific, where it is featured by a La Niña SST pattern (Fig. 5a). 288 289 This indicates that when the eastern Pacific is colder as it is the case in La Niña episodes, the strengthened convections may occur over southern China and adjacent 290

areas, leading to strengthened rainfall events, and vice versa in El Niño episodes. The 291 pattern of correlation with SLP is inconsistent with ones for SSTs, the significant 292 293 positive correlations are principally seen over the South Pacific and some tropical regions immediate close to the Indian and Pacific oceans (Fig. 5b). Whereas, some 294 significant positive coefficients are located over the East China Sea, this may enhance 295 the southeastern wind anomalies that transport more water vapor fluxes into southern 296 China, providing conducive environmental backgrounds of forming more rainfall 297 events. Considering correlations with the geopotential heights at 500 hPa (Fig. 5c), 298 299 the significant negative coefficients over the tropical central-east Pacific suggest a weakened EAWM. When the EAWM weakens, the strengthened cold and dry air 300 intrudes into southern China and converges with warm and wet air from the oceans, 301 facilitating the occurrence of convective activities resulting in heavy precipitation 302 events (Huang et al., 2018). 303

Correlation of SSTs with PC2 is reminiscent of the El Niño pattern, even though it 304 305 is not evident (Fig. 5d), an indication suggests that El Niño episode yields a dipole 306 pattern of the rainfall over southern China during dry season. The correlations with SLP exhibiting positive coefficients are mainly distributed in the North Pacific and 307 Siberia, while the negative coefficients are principally situated over the equatorial 308 Pacific and Indian Oceans (Fig. 5e). Correlation coefficient between PC2 and 500 hPa 309 is relatively smaller and barely remarkable (Fig. 5f). Those imply that larger portion 310 311 of the variability induced by climate variables occurs in the first mode.

312 Composited analyses of anomalous water vapor fluxes and divergence based on

highest 75th and lightest 25th percentile rainfall values, respectively, during dry 313 season are shown in Fig. 6. Considering the 25th percentile conditions, an anomalous 314 315 anticyclone appears over the WNP, while one branch of anomalous moisture fluxes to the southern flank is transported eastward to eastern Pacific, meanwhile, another 316 branch is transported westward to Indian Ocean (Fig. 6a). As a result, the divergence 317 occurs over eastern China, which is not suitable for the formation of precipitation 318 events. The adverse phenomena are found for the 75th percentile events (Fig. 6b). The 319 westward transportation of anomalous water vapor fluxes is prominent over the 320 321 equatorial pacific, converging with the eastward transportation of moisture flux anomalies from Indian Ocean over the SCS. Then the converged moisture fluxes are 322 transported northward, forming an anomalous cyclone over the WNP. The anomalous 323 324 water vapor fluxes over northern and western flanks of the WNP are transported into eastern China, and anomalous terrestrial water vapor fluxes from Eurasia are also 325 transported into study domain. Those patterns provide favorable environmental 326 background and sufficient moisture supply for the formation of the convergence, 327 which is conducive to the occurrences of heavy rainfall events. 328

The wavelet coherence is performed on the PCs with large-scale ocean-atmosphere circulation patterns to investigate the temporal variability of leading modes of rainfall (Fig. 7). The local and global spectrums of PC1 indicate spectral peaks in the 1- to 4-year band and 6- to 10-year band further, which seems to be active during recent decades (Fig. 7a). For PC2, the 1- to 4-year band is active before the middle part of the twentieth century, while the 5- to 7-year band is concentrated in recent decades

(Fig. 7b). ENSO index (Niño3.4) exhibits a significant peak of 2- to 7-year period and 335 a relatively weaker peak of 8- to 16-year period (Fig. 7c). Fig. 7e displays that ENSO 336 337 has a positive association with rainfall from 1900 to 1930, with a 4- to 8-year signal. There is also a positive relationship from 1980 to 2010, with an 1- to 6-year signal. 338 These suggest that ENSO has a statistically positive impact on precipitation over 339 eastern China in dry season. Wavelet filtering of the PC1 in the 4- to 8-year period 340 with ENSO being coherent (Fig. 7c) is also made and illustrated in Fig. 3 as the solid 341 line. PDO has a statistically positive connection with rainfall from 1940 to 1970, with 342 a 7- to 8-year signal. While a negative association is seen from 1980 to 2000, with an 343 8- to 9-year signal (Fig. 7f). Particularly, the PDO is closely correlated with 344 precipitation over eastern China. 345

346 3.3 Wet season

The total variance captured by first two PCs is about 30%, with PC1 and PC2 347 explaining 16.06% and 13.93%, respectively, during wet season. These are smaller 348 than total variances explained by two leading PCs of rainfall during dry season. The 349 spatial mean precipitation is also captured by first PC (Fig. 8), which is flipped for 350 easily comparing with spatial pattern. The solid line indicates the decadal smoother of 351 first PC, and will be discussed later. While the low frequency of temporal variability 352 is seen in Fig. 8. The spatial components and corresponding PCs of first two 353 eigenvectors are shown in Fig. 9. A north-south dipole pattern is found for the first 354 355 eigenvector, with strong negative values located over southern China (Fig. 9a), which has a close correlation with the variability of spatial mean precipitation (Fig. 8). This 356

rainfall pattern is also associated with the location and propagation of the EASM (Jin 357 et al., 2016). In wet season, the northward advance of the EASM circulations is 358 359 followed by three major rainy seasons sequentially: from May to mid-June, early summer rainy season occurs in southern China. Then the mei-yu season presents over 360 the Yangtze-Huai river basins. The late summer rainy season ultimately forms over 361 northern China (Ding and Chan, 2005). Correspondingly, multiple synoptic and 362 climatological systems contribute to the occurrence of these rainfall events (Gao et al., 363 2016; Luo et al., 2016). The second eigenvector exhibits the magnitudes of the 364 365 coherent signs in eastern China, with the peaks over the mid-lower reaches of YRB (Fig. 9b). Moreover, the first two PCs display considerable temporal changes (Fig. 9c, 366 d) that are described in the discussion of spectral analysis. 367

368 The correlation map of PC1 with SSTs shows the strong positive coefficients over the North Pacific and western tropical Pacific (Fig. 10a), while some statistically 369 negative correlations are distributed over the WNP. The positive correlations with SLP 370 371 exhibiting statistical significance are seen over the eastern Pacific, and the negative values are found over the WNP and oceans to the eastern Australia (Fig. 10b). This is 372 roughly an opposite correlation pattern of SLP compared to dry season (Fig. 5b and 373 10b). For 500 hPa, the positive correlations are mainly located over the WNP, with 374 positive values principally situated over the equatorial western Pacific, which are 375 weaker in comparison with the correlations in dry season. The correlation between 376 SSTs and PC2 exhibits evident spatial features (Fig. 10d). Statistically significant 377 negative coefficients are principally discovered over the eastern Pacific, reminiscent 378

of the La Niña episode_x this is suggestive of the La Niña telecommunication 379 mechanisms responsible for the rainfall over eastern China during wet season. Note 380 381 that statistically significant positive coefficients are mainly distributed over the northern Indian Ocean, resembling the Indian Ocean basin mode. To response the 382 basin-wide warming of Indian Ocean, the strengthened convective heating in the 383 tropical Indian Ocean will drive the Kelvin-wave-like eastern anomalies to the east. 384 Then, the anticyclonic shear of the Kelvin-wave-like easterlies may drive the 385 boundary layer divergence over the WNP by Ekman pumping, and therefore 386 387 suppresses convection there. These suppressed convections simulate an anomalous anticyclone to the west. Ultimately, the anomalous anticyclone in the tropical WNP 388 intensifies rainfall in eastern China (Li et al., 2017; Cao et al., 2020). The correlation 389 390 of PC2 with SLP is much weaker compared to that of PC1, with significant negative coefficients located over the far WNP (Fig. 10e). There also exists a weaker 391 correlation with 500 hPa in comparison with PC1, and negative values mainly situate 392 393 over the WNP (Fig. 10f).

Composited maps of moisture fluxes and divergence in high and light precipitation years during wet season are illustrated in Fig. 11. Unlike the anomalous changes in dry season (Fig. 6), the anomalous westward transportation of water vapor fluxes is found over the equatorial Pacific for the lightest 25th percentile precipitation events, while the water vapor anomalies that are transported from Indian Ocean into eastern China are not apparent (Fig. 11a). However, anomalous moisture fluxes are transported northeastward passing eastern China, and therefore fail to from

convergence there, which is not conducive to the occurrences of rainfall events. Fig. 401 11a shows that eastern China is principally dominated by divergence during light 402 403 rainfall years. For the highest 75th percentile precipitation events, an anomalous cyclone appears over the WNP, even though it is relatively weak. The water vapor 404 anomalies originated from WNP converge with those from Eurasia over eastern China 405 (Fig. 11b). Most of the eastern China is dominated by convergence, providing suitably, 406 environmental backgrounds of the occurrences of heavy rainfall events. In addition, 407 the anticyclone and cyclone are seen over the Indian Ocean during light and high 408 409 rainfall years, respectively, which is generally consistent with the Indian Ocean capacitor effects on the Indo-western Pacific climate in summer (Xie et al., 2009). 410

The local and global spectrum of PC1 suggests the spectral peaks in the 1- to 5-year 411 412 and 6- to 10-year bands, as well as 16- to 32-year band further, these periods are likely more active during recent decades (Fig. 12a). On the other hand, the PC2 shows 413 2- to 5-year and 5- to 8-year bands, as well as 16- to 24-year band. The first period 414 415 seems to be active in recent decades, and second and third periods are active from 1920 to 1980 (Fig. 12b). The ENSO index exhibits remarkable peaks of the 3- to 416 7-year period, which is active after 1950s (Fig. 12c). ENSO events have a statistically 417 negative relationship with rainfall over eastern China in wet season, with a 4- to 418 8-year signal, while other signals are not evident enough, although they occur 419 intermittently during the entire twentieth century (Fig. 12e). These suggest that the 420 421 modulation of ENSO on wet season precipitation is mainly concentrated at the interannual scale, consistent with those in dry season. This also coincides with the 422

interannual band of the wavelet filtering of the PC1 (Fig. 8). Fig. 12f shows that PDO
events have statistically significant positive associations with wet season rainfall from
1920 to 1940, with a 9- to 15-year signal. The significant negative connection with
rainfall exhibits a 4- to 7-year signal from 1930 to 1950. It can be seen from Fig. 7f
and Fig. 12f that PDO events have a stronger influence on rainfall in wet season than
that in dry season.

The changing connections between leading modes of precipitation and large-scale 429 modes of climate variability with time are accessed by BDLM (Fig. 13). We display 430 431 the results that have discernable changes along with time, and ignore the results without discernable variations. The intercept from BDLM of PC1 and ENSO exhibits 432 a slight increase from 1920 to 1960, then turns into a decrease condition and 433 434 experiences zero value around the 1980s (Fig. 13a), suggesting that ENSO triggers a negative (positive) impact before (after) the 1980s, and the influences of ENSO 435 become strengthened during recent decades. The intercept of PC2 and ENSO shows 436 negative values, and is gradually decreasing with time, which indicates that the 437 impacts of ENSO on PC2 are weakening during the entire century (Fig. 13b). 438 Considering the effects of PDO, the positive connection between PDO and PC1 439 exhibits a decrease until 1980s, then the impacts of PDO on rainfall over eastern 440 China are strengthening in recent decades (Fig. 13c). However, almost the opposite 441 phenomenon is found for the connection between PC2 and PDO (Fig. 13d). The 442 negative intercept is getting close to zero with time before 1980s, implying that the 443 impact of PDO on PC1 is decreasing during this period. Then the positive connection 444

of PC2 and PDO become strengthened after 2000s, suggesting that the effect of PDO
on PC2 is enhanced after this period. These results are important applications on the
predictability of the rainfall events over eastern China based on the ENSO and PDO
(Gao et al., 2017), since the ENSO and PDO has impacted the predictability of early
summer monsoon precipitation in south China with the changes in connections
between climate variability modes and rainfall (Chan and Zhou, 2005).

451 **4. Discussion and conclusions**

Space-time variability of rainfall during dry and wet seasons over eastern China is examined by utilizing PCA, wavelet coherence and BDLM, based on the CRU gridded and observed rainfall datasets. In the overlapping period of 1960-2015, these two rainfall datasets are consistent in their temporal and spatial patterns during wet and dry seasons over eastern China. While the CRU gridded data have a much longer period (1901-2016) and is more suitable to examine the interdecadal variability of rainfall.

459 The PCs exhibit notably temporal changes at the interannual and interdecadal scales. In dry season, the first and second eigenvectors account for 34.2% and 13.4% 460 of variance, they exhibit coherent and dipole patterns of rainfall over southeastern and 461 southern China, respectively, which are generally coincident with the shifts of ENSO 462 phases. Particularly, the strengthened rainfall over southeastern China is associated 463 with the La Niña episodes, and the dipole pattern of precipitation in southern China 464 465 occurs during El Niño years. Moreover, the variations in rainfall over eastern China during dry season are also affected by the intensity of EAWM and the patterns of SLP. 466

In wet season, first and second eigenvectors show dipole and coherence of rainfall patterns, respectively, which are approximately contrary to that in dry season. And the two leading PCs account for 16.1% and 13.9% of variance. The circulations responsible for the changes in rainfall over eastern China are also generally opposite to those during dry season.

Composited analyses illustrate the southeastward and southwestward 472 transportations of moisture flux anomalies from southern portion of eastern China, 473 and there is no convergence occurred over study region for 25th percentile rainfall 474 475 events during dry season. In the years with highest (75th percentile) rainfall events, the anomalous moisture fluxes from equatorial Pacific and Indian Ocean are 476 transported into eastern China through SCS, leading to the convergence with the 477 478 anomalous water vapor fluxes from WNP and Eurasia over eastern China, providing sufficient moisture supply and environmental backgrounds for the occurrences of 479 precipitation events. In wet season, the anomalous variations in moisture fluxes are 480 481 different with that during dry season. For the lightest rainfall years, the water vapor 482 anomalies that are transported from equatorial Pacific pass through eastern China, this northeastward transportation of water vapor anomalies fails to form a convergence in 483 study region. Thus, most of the eastern China is consequently dominated by the 484 divergence. However, the opposite phenomena are found for the 75th percentile 485 events, the water vapor anomalies from WNP converge with the anomalous moisture 486 487 fluxes from Eurasia, they are transported southwestward into eastern China, resulting in heavy precipitation events. It is worth noting that the anticyclone and cyclone in 488

Indian Ocean also play an important role to the occurrences of rainfall events over
eastern China in addition to the forcing factors originated from Pacific Ocean (Xie et
al., 2009; Li et al., 2017).

ENSO has a statistically positive (negative) association with rainfall during dry 492 (wet) season in eastern China, with a 4- to 8-year signal. The impacts of ENSO on 493 rainfall are principally concentrated at the interannual scale in both dry and wet 494 seasons. PDO has a statistically positive (negative) relationship with rainfall in both 495 seasons, exhibiting a 7- to 8-year (8- to 9-year) signal in dry season. And the 496 497 statistically significant positive (negative) associations between PDO and precipitation over eastern China is seen with 9- to 15-year (4- to 7-year) signal. In 498 short, the effects of PDO on rainfall show multiple time scales compared to these of 499 500 ENSO. Moreover, the PDO triggers a stronger impact on precipitation over eastern China in wet season than dry season. Previous studies have revealed that PDO has a 501 significant effect on the movement of rainbelt over eastern China during the rainy 502 503 seasons, which influence the spatial distribution of rainfall events (i.e., southern flood and northern drought) (Li et al., 2010; Gao et al., 2017). Our findings further confirm 504 the occurrences of those phenomena in eastern China at the interdecadal scale. 505

The analyses using BDLM suggest that there exists no significant time-varying relationship between large-scale modes of climate variability and rainfall over eastern China in dry season. In wet season, the intercept of ENSO and PC2 gradually decreases with time, suggesting that the influences of ENSO on PC2 are gradually weakening in the entire century. The effect of PDO on PC1 is decreasing before 1980s,

then shifts into positive connection after 2000s. These advance the understanding of 511 the time-varying linkage between climate variability modes and regional rainfall in 512 513 China. In addition, using a century-scale rainfall dataset allows us to obtain an insight into the long-term time-varying correlations with precipitation events over eastern 514 China. The insights of spatiotemporal variability of rainfall over eastern China at 515 different time scales, and quantifying temporal variability of the strengths between 516 climate variability modes (ENSO and PDO) and rainfall will be of great importance 517 for developing skillful precipitation forecasting model (Zhang et al., 2014). Moreover, 518 519 BDLM provides a flexible regression method to incorporate the predictors with varying strengths, the model parameters are therefore estimated dynamically at each 520 time, enabling to capture the time-varying predictors. The results in this study can 521 522 also be adopted to develop seasonal precipitation forecasting models. Particularly, the asymmetry of the rainfall over eastern China and ENSO teleconnections in dry and 523 wet seasons indicate the different underlying causes during El Niño and La Niña 524 episodes, which can potentially improve the forecasting skills, these phenomena are 525 also true for different phases of PDO episodes. The physical and human 526 infrastructures over eastern China have suffered from severe floods and droughts, 527 therefore, the skillful hydroclimate projections of space-time variability of rainfall 528 will facilitate policy makers to develop the effective mitigation strategies. 529

530

532	Author contributions.
533	Gao T and Cao F designed all the experiments. Gao T and Cao F conducted all the
534	experiments and analyzed the results. All the authors contributed to the preparation of
535	the English editing.
536	
537	Competing interests.
538	The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
539	
540	Acknowledgments
541	We are heartily grateful to our editor, Prof. Dominic Mazvimavi, for his generous
542	encouragement and great kindness for providing us with an opportunity to improve
543	the quality of this manuscript. We cordially thank two anonymous reviewers for their
544	professional comments and suggestions that were greatly helpful for further
545	improvement of the quality of this manuscript. This study is jointly supported by
546	Natural Science Foundation and Sci-tech development project of Shandong Province
547	(No. ZR2018MD014; J18KA210), Key research and development plan of Shandong
548	province in 2019 (No. 2019GGX105021), Project funded by China Postdoctoral
549	Science Foundation (No. 119100582H; 1191005830), and Project of National Natural
550	Science Foundation of China (No. 41630532).
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739 Figure captions

Figure 1. Annual climatological rainfall at all stations (STN) and grid (CRU) points
shown as grey lines and their mean in a solid red line, (a) observation and (b) CRU.
Seasonal mean precipitation anomalies from observation (black) and CRU (blue), (c)
dry season and (d) wet season.

Figure 2. Spatial distribution of seasonal mean precipitation (mm/month) during
1960-2015 over eastern China from observation and CRU datasets, (a) and (c) are for
dry season; (b) and (d) are for wet season.

Figure 3. Standardized time series of all dry season precipitation over eastern China as
shown in red dashed line, the black dots denote flipped PC1 and the blue lines denote
the decadal features of dry season precipitation.

Figure 4. (a) The first and (b) second EOFs for the rainfall in dry season. (c) The first and (d) second principal components (PCs) correspond to these EOFs from the rainfall in dry season. Both time series are normalized with respect to the corresponding standard deviations.

Figure 5. Correlation coefficients in dry season. (a) sea surface temperature and PC1, (b) mean sea level pressure with PC1, (c) geopotential height at the 500 hPa and PC1, (c) sea surface temperature and PC2, (e) mean sea level pressure with PC2 and (f) geopotential height at the 500 hPa with PC2. Hatching denotes the regions with statistical significance at the 95% confidence level. Black rectangle denotes the eastern China.

Figure 6. Vertically integrated water vapor anomalies (vector) and water vapor flux divergence (shading) composited from the lightest 25th (a) and highest 75th (b) percentile rainfall events in dry season. The water vapor flux unit is kg m⁻¹ s⁻¹ for and the water vapor flux divergence is kg m⁻² s⁻¹. Green rectangle denotes the eastern China.

Figure 7. Wavelet spectra for dry season. (a) PC1, (b) PC2, (c) Niño3.4 index, (d) PDO index, (e) wavelet spectral coherence of PC1 and Niño3.4, and (f) wavelet spectral coherence of PC2 and PDO. The global spectra are shown on the right side of

the time varying wavelet spectra and, the black lines denote the statistical significanceat the 95% confidence level.

Figure 8. Standardized time series of all wet season precipitation over eastern China
as shown in red dashed line, the black dots denote flipped PC1 and the blue lines
denote the decadal features of wet season precipitation.

Figure 9. (a) The first and (b) second EOFs for the rainfall in wet season. (c) The first and (d) second principal components (PCs) correspond to these EOFs from the rainfall in wet season. Both time series are normalized with respect to the corresponding standard deviations

Figure 10. Correlation coefficients in wet season. (a) sea surface temperature and PC1,

(b) mean sea level pressure with PC1, (c) geopotential height at the 500 hPa and PC1,
(c) sea surface temperature and PC2, (e) mean sea level pressure with PC2 and (f)
geopotential height at the 500 hPa with PC2. Hatching denotes the regions with
statistical significance at the 95% confidence level. Black rectangle denotes the

782 eastern China.

Figure 11. Vertically integrated water vapor anomalies (vector) and water vapor flux divergence (shading) composited from the lightest 25th (a) and highest 75th (b) percentile rainfall events in wet season. The water vapor flux unit is kg m⁻¹ s⁻¹ for and the water vapor flux divergence is kg m⁻² s⁻¹. Black rectangle denotes the eastern China.

Figure 12. Wavelet spectra for wet season. (a) PC1, (b) PC2, (c) Niño3.4 index, (d) PDO index, (e) wavelet spectral coherence of PC1 and Niño3.4, and (f) wavelet spectral coherence of PC2 and PDO. The global spectra are shown on the right side of the time varying wavelet spectra and, the black lines denote the statistical significance at the 95% confidence level.

Figure 13. Changes in the relationships between rainfall and ENSO/PDO over time during 1901-2015. Black solid lines denote the estimated time-varying slopes, along with 25th and 75th percentile credible interval lines (red dotted lines) from the Bayesian dynamic linear model analysis.


Figure 1. Annual climatological rainfall at all stations (STN) and grid (CRU) points
shown as grey lines and their mean in a solid red line, (a) observation and (b) CRU.
Seasonal mean precipitation anomalies from observation (black) and CRU (blue), (c)
dry season and (d) wet season.



1960-2015 over eastern China from observation and CRU datasets, (a) and (c) are for
dry season; (b) and (d) are for wet season.



Figure 3. Standardized time series of all dry season precipitation over eastern China as

shown in red dashed line, the black dots denote flipped PC1 and the blue lines denote
the decadal features of dry season precipitation.



Figure 4. (a) The first and (b) second EOFs for the rainfall in dry season. (c) The first and (d) second principal components (PCs) correspond to these EOFs from the rainfall in dry season. Both time series are normalized with respect to the corresponding standard deviations.



Figure 5. Correlation coefficients in dry season. (a) sea surface temperature and PC1, (b) mean sea level pressure with PC1, (c) geopotential height at the 500 hPa and PC1, (c) sea surface temperature and PC2, (e) mean sea level pressure with PC2 and (f) geopotential height at the 500 hPa with PC2. Hatching denotes the regions with statistical significance at the 95% confidence level. Black rectangle denotes the eastern China.



Figure 6. Vertically integrated water vapor anomalies (vector) and water vapor flux divergence (shading) composited from the lightest 25th (a) and highest 75th (b) percentile rainfall events in dry season. The water vapor flux unit is kg m⁻¹ s⁻¹ for and the water vapor flux divergence is kg m⁻² s⁻¹. Green rectangle denotes the eastern China.



Figure 7. Wavelet spectra for dry season. (a) PC1, (b) PC2, (c) Niño3.4 index, (d) PDO index, (e) wavelet spectral coherence of PC1 and Niño3.4, and (f) wavelet spectral coherence of PC2 and PDO. The global spectra are shown on the right side of the time varying wavelet spectra and, the black lines denote the statistical significance at the 95% confidence level.



Figure 8. Standardized time series of all wet season precipitation over eastern China as shown in red dashed line, the black dots denote flipped PC1 and the blue lines

- denote the decadal features of wet season precipitation.



Figure 9. (a) The first and (b) second EOFs for the rainfall in wet season. (c) The first and (d) second principal components (PCs) correspond to these EOFs from the rainfall in wet season. Both time series are normalized with respect to the corresponding standard deviations.

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Figure 10. Correlation coefficients in wet season. (a) sea surface temperature and PC1, (b) mean sea level pressure with PC1, (c) geopotential height at the 500 hPa and PC1, (c) sea surface temperature and PC2, (e) mean sea level pressure with PC2 and (f) geopotential height at the 500 hPa with PC2. Hatching denotes the regions with statistical significance at the 95% confidence level. Black rectangle denotes the eastern China.

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Figure 11. Vertically integrated water vapor anomalies (vector) and water vapor flux divergence (shading) composited from the lightest 25th (a) and highest 75th (b) percentile rainfall events in wet season. The water vapor flux unit is kg m⁻¹ s⁻¹ for and the water vapor flux divergence is kg m⁻² s⁻¹. Green rectangle denotes the eastern China.

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Figure 12. Wavelet spectra for wet season. (a) PC1, (b) PC2, (c) Niño3.4 index, (d) PDO index, (e) wavelet spectral coherence of PC1 and Niño3.4, and (f) wavelet spectral coherence of PC2 and PDO. The global spectra are shown on the right side of the time varying wavelet spectra and, the black lines denote the statistical significance at the 95% confidence level.

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Figure 13. Changes in the relationships between rainfall and ENSO/PDO over time during 1901-2015. Black solid lines denote the estimated time-varying slopes, along with 25th and 75th percentile credible interval lines (red dashed lines) from the Bayesian dynamic linear model analysis.