| 1 | The precipitation variability of wet and dry season at the interannual |
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| 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. During wet season, ENSO exerted a gradually weakening effect on 43 eastern China rainfall from 1901 to 2016, while the effects of PDO decreased before 44 45 1980s, and then shifted into increases after 2000s. The finding provides a metric for assessing the capability of climate models and guidance of seasonal prediction. 46

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

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 due to the 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). The variations in precipitation 68 events over eastern China are remarkably impacted by tropical Pacific SST and 69 western Pacific subtropical high at the interdecadal scale (WPSH, Chang et al., 2000a; 70 Zhu et al., 2011; Li et al., 2019). SST anomalies over the tropical Indian Ocean and 71 tropical eastern Pacific also account for the shifts of the positive-negative-positive 72

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 of 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 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 responsible for linkages between ENSO and precipitation anomalies in eastern China 84 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 between springtime rainfall over the mid-lower reaches of YRB and ENSO is linked 88 to the evolution of ENSO-related seasonal rainfall anomalies over the East Asia. 89 Moreover, the summertime rainfall amount over the YRB and to its south is expected 90 to increase (decrease) 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 related to strong convective activities in the
Philippines, because the western Pacific warm pool shifts 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 the alternating of dry and wet 101 years, with above-normal rainfall around the 1950s and severe droughts around the 102 103 1970s and 1980s. While the YRB and southern China suffered apparent shifts of precipitation patterns in the 1970s and 1990s (Zhu et al., 2015). A growing body of 104 studies indicated that these shifts of rainfall distribution over eastern China are caused 105 106 by the shifts in Pacific decadal oscillation (PDO) phases. Yang and Lau (2004) reported a close relationship between the positive PDO and decreasing trends of 107 summertime rainfall events over eastern China. Based on surface wetness indices, Ma 108 109 (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. 110 The relatively high (low) precipitation over the Huang-Huai (Yangtze) River basin 111 from 2000 to 2008 in comparison with those during 1979–1999 is triggered by the 112 transition from warm to cold phase of the PDO around the 2000s, which is attributed 113 to the weakened westerly winds and warming over the Lake Baikal induced by 114 negative PDO phase after 2000s (Zhu et al., 2011). The possible modulation of the 115 PDO on the East Asian summer monsoon (EASM) and East Asian winter monsoon 116

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

Most previous studies that assessed the impacts of ENSO and PDO on eastern 131 China rainfall are limited to relatively short dataset records. Ouyang et al. (2014) and 132 Yang et al. (2017) performed century-scale analyses of the linkage between rainfall 133 pattern across China and ENSO and PDO, while their time-varying relationships are 134 not sufficiently considered. The latest research documented that rainfall over northern 135 China displays an unstable relationship with ENSO at the centennial scale (Wang et 136 137 al., 2020), particularly, the predictability of seasonal rainfall over the East Asia largely depends on the relationship between large-scale modes and regional precipitation 138

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

156 **2. Data and Methods**

157 **2.1 Data**

A dataset of daily accumulated rainfall amount at 756 meteorological stations during 159 1960-2015 across China is employed in this study. This dataset is managed by the 160 Climate Data Center of the National Meteorological Center of the China

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

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 (Kalnay et al., 1996). SST data are obtained from the Hadley Centre, Met Office (Rayner et al., 2003). ENSO index is obtained from the Climate Prediction Center of 183 NOAA

184 (http://origin.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov/products/analysis_monitoring/ensostuff/detrend.nino

185 34.ascii.txt). The PDO index is extracted from the Earth System Research Laboratory

186 of NOAA (http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/correlation/pdo.data/).

187 **2.2 Method**

188 **2.2.1 Principle component analysis**

The gridded CRU precipitation dataset is subjected to principle component analysis 189 (PCA), which is a widely applied method to extract the dominant temporal and spatial 190 191 modes of the variability based on mutually correlated dataset. The leading principal component (PC) explains the most of variance, with the second PC decreases 192 193 thereafter. Moreover, the leading PCs can reduce dimension of the original dataset, 194 because they capture the most of variance. A detailed description of PCA is available in Hannachi et al. (2007). To identify the effects of climate variability modes on 195 spatio-temporal changes in rainfall over eastern China, the correlations between the 196 leading PCs and climate variability modes are calculated to examine the 197 telecommunications. The composited maps of the variables (e.g., sea surface 198 temperature, sea level pressure and vertically integrated water vapor) are analyzed to 199 detect the physical mechanisms responsible for the rainfall variability by utilizing the 200 high and light 25th percentile values of the daily rainfall in wet and dry seasons, 201 respectively. 202

203 2.2.2 Wavelet coherence

204 The wavelet coherence is a widely employed technique, based on how coherent the

cross-wavelet transform is in time frequency space. It can preferably assess 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 and Y, the wavelet coherence of them can be expressed as

210
$$W^{XY} = W^X W^{Y^*}$$
 (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 and Y, 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) by the following equation;

216
$$R_n^2(s) = \frac{\left|S(s^{-1}W_n^{XY}(s))\right|^2}{S(s^{-1}\left|W_n^X(s)\right|^2) \cdot S\left(s^{-1}\left|W_n^Y(s)\right|^2\right)}$$
(2)

217 where *s* is the wavelet scale, the subscript *n* is defined as the time series length. 218 *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 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,

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

where k_t is the leading PCs of rainfall over eastern China, j_t is the covariate (climate variability modes, i.e., ENSO and PDO), and ∂_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 precipitation with time. This method has been used to model monsoonal precipitation 242 243 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 time series of mean 264 rainfall based on the two datasets (not shown) and the similar results are also obtained. 265 Those indicate that the rainfall variability for CRU dataset coincides with 266 observations over eastern China. We use CRU dataset since it covers a much longer 267 period and is therefore more suitable to investigate the interdecadal variability. We 268

present the following analyses in wet and dry seasons, respectively, to provide aconcise result.

271 **3.2 Dry season**

The two leading PCs explain 34.22% and 13.44% of the total variance, they together 272 capture around 50% variance. Fig. 3 depicts the time series of first PC that is flipped 273 for convenient comparison, which is well consistent with the spatial mean rainfall. 274 The first two eigenvectors, including spatial components and corresponding PCs, are 275 shown in Fig. 4. The spatial pattern of the first eigenvector exhibits similar 276 277 magnitudes and signs, indicating that the dominant pattern is coherent in eastern China, especially over southern China and coastal regions (Fig. 4a), this may be 278 associated with the propagation of the EAWM into mainland China. The second 279 280 eigenvector displays a southeast-southwest dipole over southern China, this feature is coincident with the location and movement of the EASM (Ding et al., 2009). The time 281 series of PCs also show considerable temporal changes with time, which are discussed 282 283 in the spectral analysis.

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 rainfall variability over eastern China. The correlation between PC1 and SSTs displays strong positive coefficients over the equatorial tropical Pacific and North Pacific. While the negative connections are mainly found over the South China Sea (SCS) and central-east Pacific, where it is featured by a La Niña SST pattern (Fig. 5a). 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 291 areas, leading to strengthened rainfall events, and vice versa in El Niño episodes. The 292 293 pattern of correlation with SLP is inconsistent with ones for SSTs, the significant positive correlations are principally seen over the South Pacific and some tropical 294 regions immediate close to the Indian and Pacific oceans (Fig. 5b). Whereas, some 295 significant positive coefficients are located over the East China Sea, this may enhance 296 the southeastern wind anomalies that transport more water vapor fluxes into southern 297 China, providing conducive environmental backgrounds of forming more rainfall 298 299 events. Considering correlations with the geopotential heights at 500 hPa (Fig. 5c), the significant negative coefficients over the tropical central-east Pacific suggest a 300 weakened EAWM. When the EAWM weakens, the strengthened cold and dry air 301 302 intrudes into southern China and converges with warm and wet air from the oceans, facilitating the occurrence of convective activities resulting in heavy precipitation 303 events (Huang et al., 2018). 304

305 Correlation of SSTs with PC2 is reminiscent of the El Niño pattern, even though it 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 307 SLP exhibiting positive coefficients are mainly distributed in the North Pacific and 308 Siberia, while the negative coefficients are principally situated over the equatorial 309 Pacific and Indian Oceans (Fig. 5e). Correlation coefficient between PC2 and 500 hPa 310 311 is relatively smaller and barely remarkable (Fig. 5f). Those imply that larger portion of the variability induced by climate variables occurs in the first mode. 312

Composited analyses of anomalous water vapor fluxes and divergence based on 313 highest 75th and lightest 25th percentile rainfall values, respectively, during dry 314 315 season are shown in Fig. 6. Considering the 25th percentile conditions, an anomalous anticyclone appears over the WNP, while one branch of anomalous moisture fluxes to 316 the southern flank is transported eastward to eastern Pacific, meanwhile, another 317 branch is transported westward to Indian Ocean (Fig. 6a). As a result, the divergence 318 occurs over eastern China, which is not suitable for the formation of precipitation 319 events. The adverse phenomena are found for the 75th percentile events (Fig. 6b). The 320 321 westward transportation of anomalous water vapor fluxes is prominent over the equatorial pacific, converging with the eastward transportation of moisture flux 322 anomalies from Indian Ocean over the SCS. Then the converged moisture fluxes are 323 324 transported northward, forming an anomalous cyclone over the WNP. The anomalous water vapor fluxes over northern and western flanks of the WNP are transported into 325 eastern China, and anomalous terrestrial water vapor fluxes from Eurasia are also 326 transported into study domain. Those patterns provide favorable environmental 327 background and sufficient moisture supply for the formation of the convergence, 328 which is conducive to the occurrences of heavy rainfall events. 329

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 335 (Fig. 7b). The ENSO index (Niño3.4) exhibits a significant peak of 2- to 7-year period 336 337 and a relatively weaker peak of 8- to 16-year period (Fig. 7c). Fig. 7e displays that ENSO has a positive association with rainfall from 1900 to 1930, with a 4- to 8-year 338 signal. There is also a positive relationship from 1980 to 2010, with an 1- to 6-year 339 signal. These suggest that ENSO has a statistically positive impact on precipitation 340 over eastern China in dry season. Wavelet filtering of the PC1 in the 4- to 8-year 341 period with ENSO being coherent (Fig. 7c) is also made and illustrated in Fig. 3 as the 342 343 solid line. PDO has a statistically positive connection with rainfall from 1940 to 1970, with a 7- to 8-year signal. While a negative association is seen from 1980 to 2000, 344 with an 8- to 9-year signal (Fig. 7f). Particularly, the PDO is closely correlated with 345 346 precipitation over eastern China.

347 3.3 Wet season

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

which has a close correlation with the variability of spatial mean precipitation (Fig. 8). 357 This rainfall pattern is also associated with the location and propagation of the EASM 358 359 (Jin et al., 2016). In a wet season, the northward advance of the EASM circulations is followed by three major rainy seasons sequentially: from May to mid-June, early 360 summer rainy season presents in southern China, then the mei-yu season occurs over 361 the Yangtze-Huai river basins, and the late summer rainy season ultimately forms over 362 northern China (Ding and Chan, 2005). Correspondingly, multiple synoptic and 363 climatological systems contribute to the occurrence of these rainfall events (Gao et al., 364 365 2016; Luo et al., 2016). The second eigenvector exhibits the magnitudes of the coherent signs in eastern China, with the peaks over the mid-lower reaches of YRB 366 (Fig. 9b). Moreover, the first two PCs display considerable temporal changes (Fig. 9c, 367 368 d) that are described in the discussion of spectral analysis.

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

negative coefficients are principally discovered over the eastern Pacific, reminiscent 379 of the La Niña episode. This is suggestive of the La Niña telecommunication 380 381 mechanisms responsible for the rainfall over eastern China during wet season. Note that statistically significant positive coefficients are mainly distributed over the 382 northern Indian Ocean, resembling the Indian Ocean basin mode. To response the 383 basin-wide warming of Indian Ocean, the strengthened convective heating in the 384 tropical Indian Ocean will drive the Kelvin-wave-like eastern anomalies to the east. 385 Then, the anticyclonic shear of the Kelvin-wave-like easterlies may drive the 386 387 boundary layer divergence over the WNP by Ekman pumping, and therefore suppresses convection there. These suppressed convections simulate an anomalous 388 anticyclone to the west. Ultimately, the anomalous anticyclone in the tropical WNP 389 390 intensifies rainfall in eastern China (Li et al., 2017; Cao et al., 2020). The correlation of PC2 with SLP is much weaker compared to that of PC1, with significant negative 391 coefficients located over the far WNP (Fig. 10e). There also exists a weaker 392 393 correlation with 500 hPa in comparison with PC1, and negative values mainly situate over the WNP (Fig. 10f). 394

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 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, 401 which is not conducive to the occurrences of rainfall events. Fig. 11a shows that 402 403 eastern China is principally dominated by divergence during light rainfall years. For the 75th percentile precipitation events, an anomalous cyclone appears over the WNP, 404 even though it is relatively weak. The water vapor anomalies originated from WNP 405 converge with those from Eurasia over eastern China (Fig. 11b). Most of the eastern 406 China is dominated by convergence, providing conducive environmental backgrounds 407 of the occurrences of heavy rainfall events. In addition, the anticyclone and cyclone 408 409 are seen over the Indian Ocean during low and high rainfall years, respectively, which is generally consistent with the Indian Ocean capacitor effects on the Indo-western 410 Pacific climate in summer (Xie et al., 2009). 411

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

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

impact of PDO on PC1 is decreasing during this period. Then the positive connection 445 of PC2 and PDO become strengthened after 2000s, suggesting that the effect of PDO 446 447 on PC2 is enhanced after this period. These results have important applications on the predictability of the rainfall events over eastern China based on the ENSO and PDO 448 (Gao et al., 2017), since the ENSO and PDO has impacted the predictability of early 449 summer monsoon precipitation in south China with the changes in connections 450 between climate variability modes and rainfall (Chan and Zhou, 2005). 451

452

4. Discussion and conclusions

453 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 454 gridded and observed rainfall datasets. In the overlapping period of 1960-2015, these 455 456 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 457 period (1901-2016) and is more suitable to examine the interdecadal variability of 458 rainfall. 459

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

467 during dry season are also affected by the intensity of EAWM and the patterns of SLP.
468 In wet seasons, first and second eigenvectors show dipole and coherence of rainfall
469 patterns, respectively, which are approximately contrary to that in dry season. And the
470 two leading PCs account for 16.1% and 13.9% of variance. The circulations
471 responsible for the changes in rainfall over eastern China are also generally opposite
472 to those during dry season.

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

noting that the anticyclone and cyclone in Indian Ocean also play an important role in
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. The results advance the understanding 511 of 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 514 515 China. The insights of spatiotemporal variability of rainfall over eastern China at 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

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|-----|---|
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739 Figure captions

Figure 1. Annual 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 by the 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

758 statistical significance at the 95% confidence level. Black rectangle denotes the 759 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 by the 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

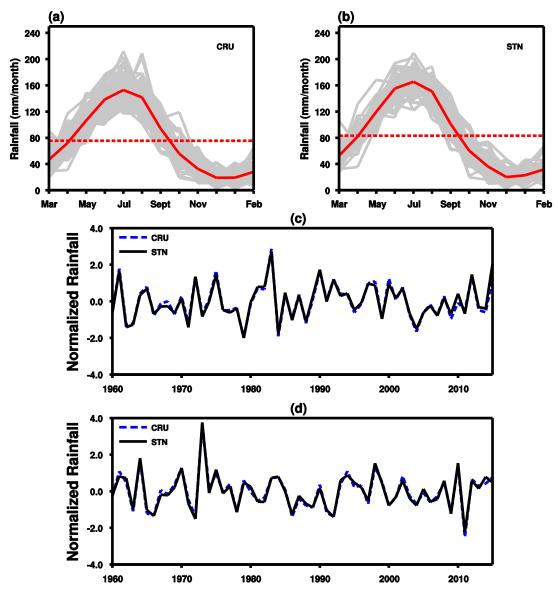
Figure 10. Correlation coefficients in wet season. (a) sea surface temperature and PC1,

(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
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.

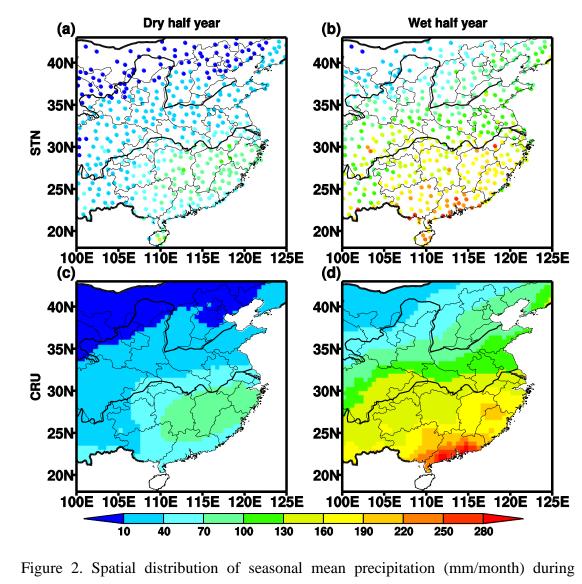
Figure 12. Wavelet spectra for wet season. (a) PC1, (b) PC2, (c) Niño3.4 index, (d) PDO index, (e) wavelet spectral coherence of PC1 and Niño3.4, and (f) wavelet spectral coherence of PC2 and PDO. The global spectra are shown on the right side of the time varying wavelet spectra and, the black lines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



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Figure 1. Annual 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.

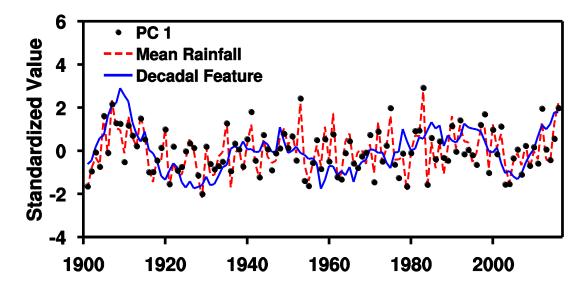


Figure 3. Standardized time series of all dry season precipitation over eastern China as

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

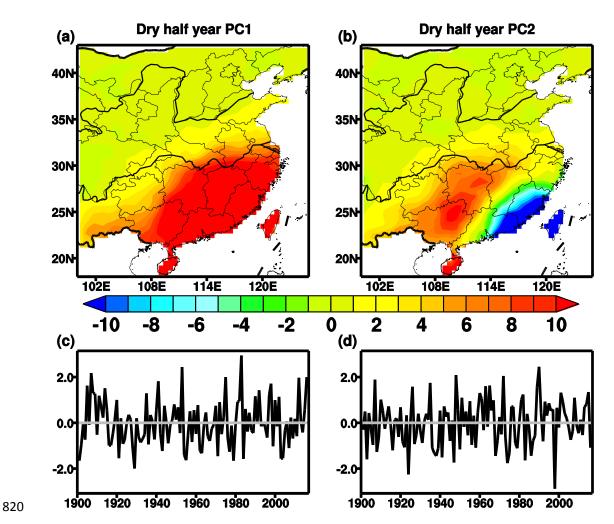


Figure 4. (a) The first and (b) second EOFs for the rainfall in dry season. (c) The first and (d) second principal components (PCs) correspond to these EOFs from the rainfall in dry season. Both time series are normalized with respect to the corresponding standard deviations.

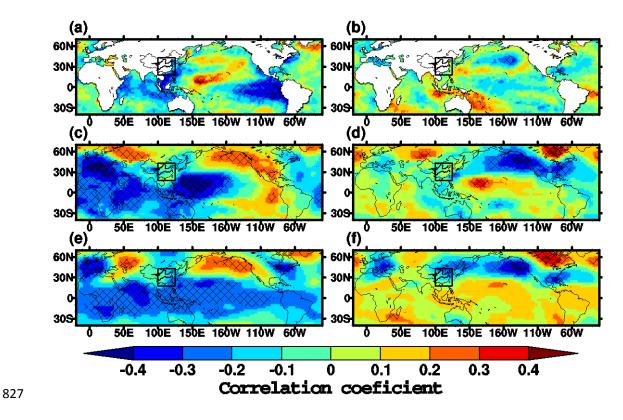


Figure 5. Correlation coefficients in dry season. (a) sea surface temperature and PC1, (b) mean sea level pressure with PC1, (c) geopotential height at the 500 hPa and PC1, (c) sea surface temperature and PC2, (e) mean sea level pressure with PC2 and (f) geopotential height at the 500 hPa with PC2. Hatching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

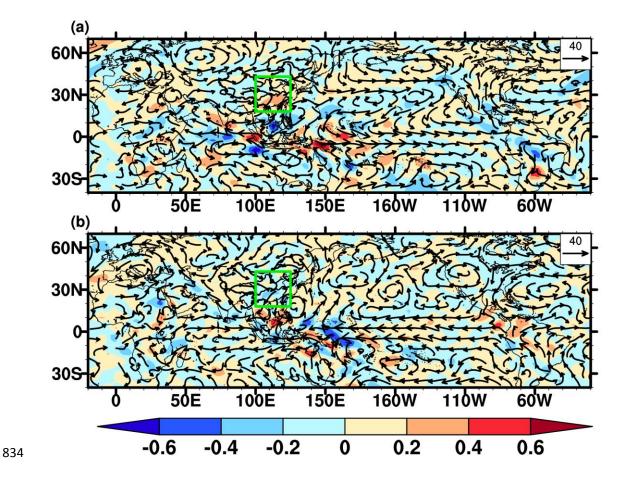


Figure 6. Vertically integrated water vapor anomalies (vector) and water vapor flux divergence (shading) composited from the lightest 25th (a) and highest 75th (b) percentile rainfall events in dry season. The water vapor flux unit is kg m⁻¹ s⁻¹ for and the water vapor flux divergence is kg m⁻² s⁻¹.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

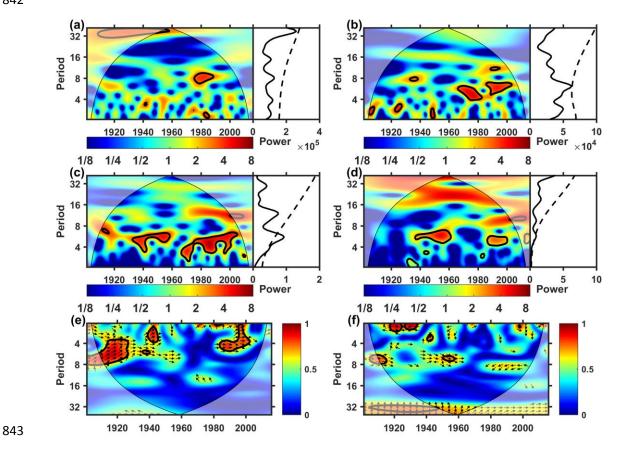


Figure 7. Wavelet spectra for dry season. (a) PC1, (b) PC2, (c) Niño3.4 index, (d) PDO index, (e) wavelet spectral coherence of PC1 and Niño3.4, and (f) wavelet spectral coherence of PC2 and PDO. The global spectra are shown on the right side of the time varying wavelet spectra and, the black lines denote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

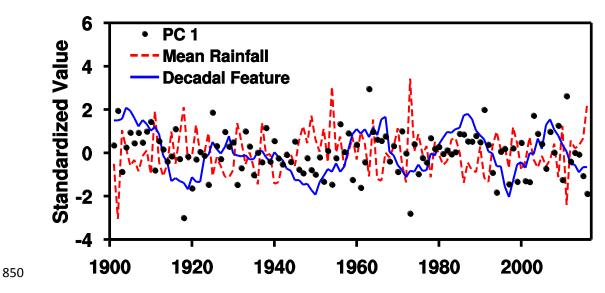


Figure 8. Standardized time series of all wet season precipitation over eastern China

as shown by the red dashed line, the black dots denote flipped PC1 and the blue lines

- 853 denote the decadal features of wet season precipitation.

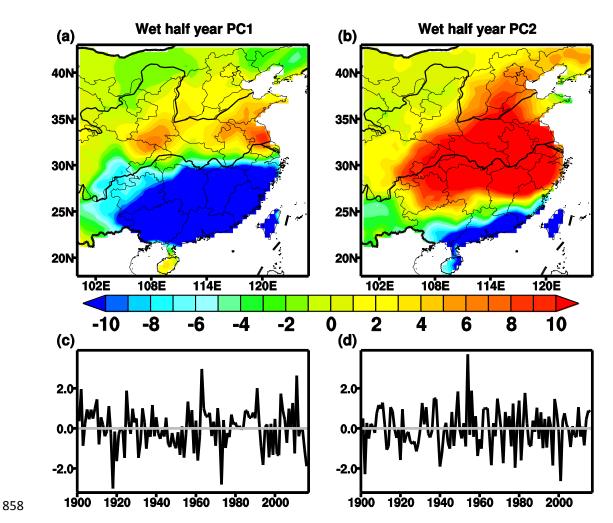


Figure 9. (a) The first and (b) second EOFs for the rainfall in wet season. (c) The first and (d) second principal components (PCs) correspond to these EOFs from the rainfall in wet season. Both time series are normalized with respect to the corresponding standard deviations.

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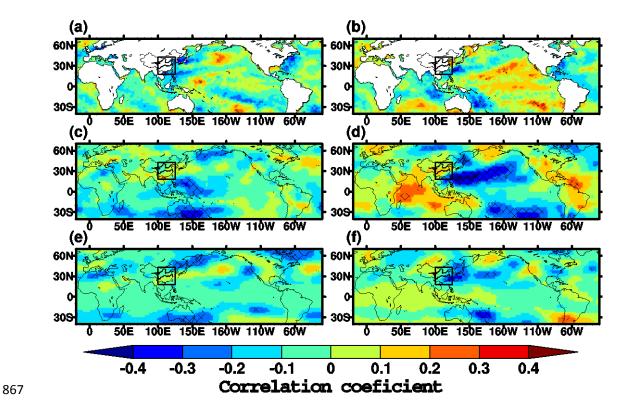


Figure 10. Correlation coefficients in wet season. (a) sea surface temperature and PC1, (b) mean sea level pressure with PC1, (c) geopotential height at the 500 hPa and PC1, (c) sea surface temperature and PC2, (e) mean sea level pressure with PC2 and (f) geopotential height at the 500 hPa with PC2.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

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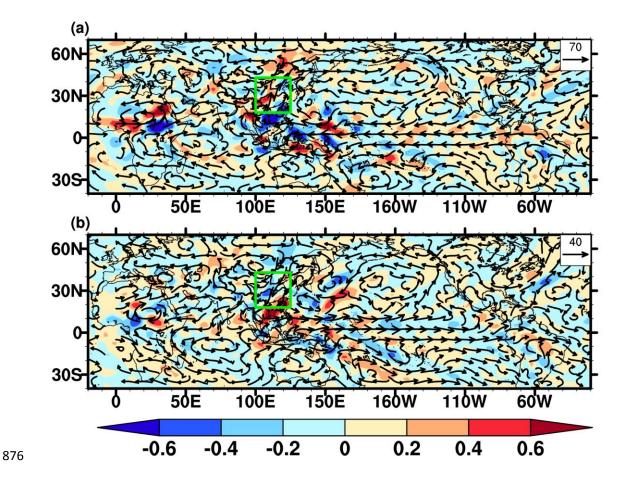
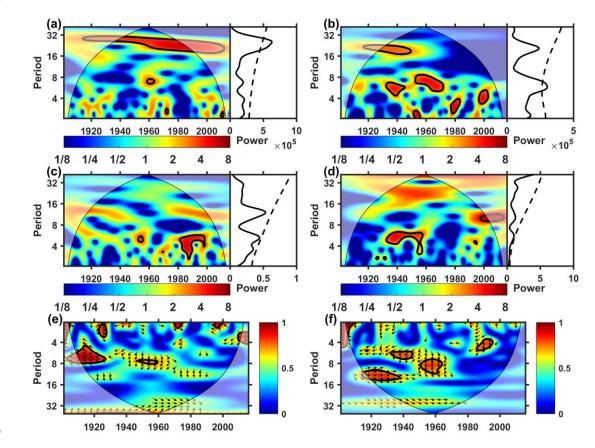


Figure 11. Vertically integrated water vapor anomalies (vector) and water vapor flux divergence (shading) composited from the lightest 25th (a) and highest 75th (b) percentile rainfall events in wet season. The water vapor flux unit is kg m⁻¹ s⁻¹ for and the water vapor flux divergence is kg m⁻² s⁻¹.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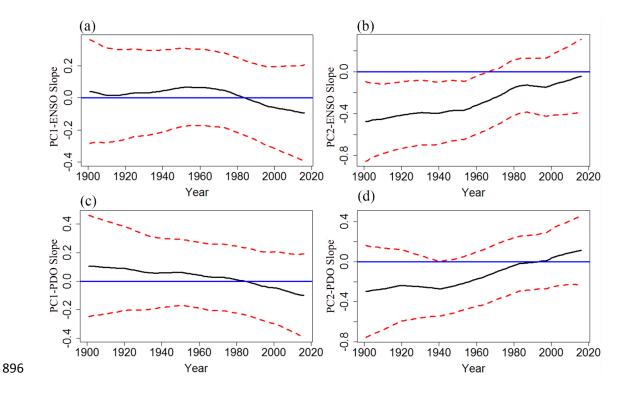


Figure 13. Changes in the relationships between rainfall and ENSO/PDO over time during 1901-2015. Black solid lines denote the estimated time-varying slopes, along with 25th and 75th percentile credible interval lines (red dashed lines) from the Bayesian dynamic linear model analysis.