

1 **Seasonal forecast of South China Sea summer monsoon onset disturbed by the**
2 **cold tongue La Niña in recent decade**

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6 **ABSTRACT**

7 It has been suggested that a warm (cold) ENSO event in winter is mostly followed
8 by the late (early) onset of the South China Sea (SCS) summer monsoon (SCSSM) in
9 spring. Our results show this positive relationship, which is mainly determined by their
10 phase correlation, has been broken under recent rapid global warming since 2011, due
11 to the disturbance of cold tongue (CT) La Niña events. Different from canonical
12 counterpart, the CT La Niña event is characterized by surface meridional wind
13 divergences in the central-eastern equatorial Pacific, which can delay the SCSSM onset
14 by the enhanced convections in the warming Indian Ocean and the western subtropical
15 Pacific. Owing to the increased Indian-western Pacific warming and the prevalent CT
16 La Niña events, the empirical seasonal forecast of SCSSM onset based on ENSO may
17 be challenged in the future.

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19 **Key words:** South China Sea summer monsoon onset, SCSSM, ENSO, cold tongue La

20 Niña, seasonal forecast, monsoon onset

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22 **Article Highlights:**

23 ● The past positive correlation between the SCSSM onset and ENSO became invalid
24 during 2011-2019.

25 ● The cold tongue (CT) La Niña delayed the SCSSM onset and broke the positive
26 correlation.

27 ● The empirical seasonal forecast of SCSSM onset may fail under future global
28 warming

29 **1. Introduction**

30 The South China Sea (SCS) summer monsoon (SCSSM) onset generally occurs around
31 16 May. It has broadly been regarded as the prelude of East Asian summer monsoon
32 rainy season (Tao and Chen, 1987; Lau and Yang, 1997; Wang et al., 2004; Zhu et al.,
33 2005), and widely concerned in the sub-seasonal to seasonal (S2S) forecast in China
34 (Zhu and Li, 2017). The crucial physical processes during the SCSSM onset are
35 characterized by the eastward extension of the South Asian High (SAH) in the upper
36 level (He et al., 1987; Liu and Zhu, 2016; Wei et al., 2019), eastward withdrawal of the
37 western North Pacific subtropical high (WNPSH) (Xie et al., 1998; Wang et al., 2009),

38 and the generation of convections and cross-equatorial flow over SCS (Gao and Xue,
39 2006; Hu et al., 2018).

40 ENSO has been regarded as the most important factor in the seasonal prediction of the
41 SCSSM onset time on interannual timescale (Zhou and Chan, 2007; Luo et al., 2016;
42 Luo and Lin, 2017; Martin et al., 2019). According to previous understanding, a warm
43 (cold) ENSO event in winter tended to delay (advance) the onset of the SCSSM by
44 strengthening (weakening) the WNPSH (Zhou and Chan, 2007). On decadal time scale,
45 warming sea surface temperature (SST) in the equatorial western Pacific can cause the
46 earlier SCSSM onset by enhancing intra-seasonal variability and tropical cyclone
47 activities (Kajikawa and Wang, 2012), as well as the western Pacific warm pool heat
48 content (Feng and Hu, 2014). However, the observed SCSSM onsets were relatively
49 late in recent decade even though the observed SST keeps on warming over the
50 equatorial western Pacific (Luo and Lin, 2017), particularly under a La Niña-like SST
51 background (Liu and Zhu, 2019).

52 Here we found that the broken relationship between the SCSSM onset and ENSO can
53 be attributed to the disturbance of cold tongue (CT) La Niña events. The prevalent CT
54 La Niña events along with the Indian-western Pacific warming in recent decade could
55 delay the SCSSM onset. Therefore, some previous empirical seasonal forecast models
56 based on ENSO SST indices may fail due to the recently frequent CT La Niña events.

57 **2. Data and Methods**

58 The present study uses monthly and daily SST from the Hadley Centre Sea Ice and SST
59 data set version 1 (HadISST1) with a $1^{\circ}\times 1^{\circ}$ grid (Rayner et al., 2003) and the National
60 Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) High-resolution Blended Analysis
61 of Daily SST (Reynolds et al., 2007), respectively. The NOAA interpolated daily
62 outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) (Liebmann and Smith, 1996), and the monthly
63 mean precipitation from the Climate Prediction Center (CPC) Merged Analysis of
64 Precipitation (CMAP) with a spatial resolution of $2.5^{\circ}\times 2.5^{\circ}$ (Xie and Arkin, 1997) are
65 also used. The daily and monthly atmospheric components are taken from the National
66 Centers for Environmental Prediction/National Center for Atmospheric Research
67 (NCEP/NCAR) reanalysis products (Kalnay et al., 1996) from 1948 to present, with a
68 $2.5^{\circ}\times 2.5^{\circ}$ horizontal resolution. The mean seasonal cycle from 1981 to 2010 was
69 removed to derive the anomalies for all the variables.

70 We, following Shao et al. (2014), define the SCSSM onset date by considering both the
71 circulation and convection criteria. And the SCSSM onset date anomalies are referred
72 to as the departure from the climatological onset date (May 16; reference line in Fig.
73 1a). The timing of SCSSM onset based on this definition is nearly consistent to the
74 previous work (Shao et al., 2014), especially for the years to be analyzed (Wang et al.,
75 2004; Liu et al., 2016; Liu and Zhu, 2019). Four ENSO indices (Niño 3.4, Niño 3, Niño
76 4, Niño 1+2) are used to access the relationship of ENSO diversity with SCSSM onset.
77 Besides Pearson correlation, Spearman (Kendall) Rank correlation, namely intensity
78 (phase) rank correlation, is used to evaluate the intensity (phase) correlation of ENSO

79 with SCSSM onset. The Spearman Rank (intensity rank) correlation is simply the
80 Pearson correlation coefficient computed using the ranks of the data in intensity. And
81 Kendall (phase rank) correlation here is calculated by considering the matching
82 relationship of the data pairs in phases, where the Niño indices and the SCSSM onset
83 dates are classified into positive, negative and normal (0) categories.

84 **3. Relationship between ENSO and SCSSM onset**

85 The SCSSM onset shows a decadal variability, characterized by alternating late-onset
86 (1979-1993 (P1) and 2011-2019(P3)) and early-onset (1994-2010 (P2)) periods during
87 recent decades. The interdecadal change between P1 and P2 has been discussed in
88 several studies (Kajikawa and Wang, 2012; Feng and Hu, 2014; Chen, 2015). It is
89 suggested the relationship between the SCSSM onset and ENSO varies on decadal time
90 scale (Wang et al., 2013; Ding et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2016). To examine whether the
91 relationship between ENSO and SCSSM onset is stable or not, we calculated the
92 correlations of SCSSM onset anomaly with four ENSO SST indices (Niño 4, Niño 3.4,
93 Niño 3 and Niño 1+2) in previous winter (Fig. 1). The positive correlation during P2 is
94 more notable than that during P1 (Fig. 1b), which seems to be attributed to the Atlantic
95 Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO) or Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) (e.g., Ding et
96 al., 2016; Liu et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2017). However, the Pearson correlations of
97 SCSSM onset with all Niño indices drop significantly during P3, suggesting the
98 traditionally positive relationship between ENSO and SCSSM onset has been broken
99 in recent decade.

100 The Pearson correlation between the SCSSM onset and ENSO indices is a result
101 combining the mutual relationship of the intensities and phases between the two time
102 series. The positive Pearson correlations between the SCSSM onset and ENSO indices
103 during before 2010 (Fig. 1b) are mainly contributed by their phase correlation (Fig. 1c),
104 instead of the intensity correlation (Fig. 1d). This implies that the influences of ENSO
105 on SCSSM onset are mainly determined by the spatial pattern of El Niño-like or La
106 Niña-like SST anomalies instead of the amplitude of ENSO indices (extreme or
107 moderate). It is noted that the warm phase of ENSO is mostly followed by the late
108 SCSSM onset during the whole period 1979-2019, but the cold phase of ENSO can be
109 followed by either earlier or late onset (Fig. 1a). It has been suggested the notable
110 positive correlation between ENSO and SCSSM onset during the early-onset period
111 (P2) are attributed to the frequent La Niña event (Liu et al., 2016). However, the three
112 cold events (2013, 2014 and 2018) during P3, corresponding to the negative phase of
113 ENSO, are all followed by the late SCSSM onset. This suggests that the broken positive
114 correlation between ENSO and SCSSM onset during P3 is possibly contributed by the
115 negative phase of ENSO in recent decade.

116 To verify our hypothesis, we investigate five La Niña-like events (1999, 2000, 2001,
117 2008 and 2009) followed by notable early SCSSM onsets for comparison, and try to
118 reveal the distinct impacts of cold ENSO between P2 and P3. Their composite SST
119 anomalies in previous winter (DJF: December-January-February) resemble the
120 canonical La Niña pattern (Fig. 2a) along with the strengthened pan-tropical Pacific

121 Walker circulation and the enhanced convection over the SCS (Fig. 2b). Two opposite
122 anomalous vertical circular circulation centers are over the west and east of the SCS
123 (Fig. 2b) with strong low-level zonal wind convergence over the SCS (Fig. 2a). The
124 central-east Pacific cooling is likely related to the Bjerknes feedback, which emphasizes
125 the role of the zonal wind in air-sea interaction.

126 Although the three cold events (2013, 2014 and 2018) in P3 share a similar anomalous
127 SST morphology in P2 with the canonical La Niña events in rough, the detailed
128 atmospheric circulation structures are quite different (Fig. 2c-2h vs. Fig. 2a-2b). The
129 cooling areas in the east of the tropical Pacific for the three events are much narrower
130 in the meridional direction (white boxes in Fig. 2c, 2e and 2g) along the equator, and
131 their zonal trade wind anomalies around the dateline are much weaker. The equatorial
132 narrow cooling in the three La Niña events is closely related to the surface meridional
133 wind divergence instead of the zonal trade wind. In addition, the associated convections
134 surrounding the eastern cooling regions are located in the western Pacific, north and
135 south subtropical Pacific (Fig. 2c, 2e & 2g). Compared with the canonical La Niña
136 events in Fig. 2a & 2b, the convections in the recent three cold events are much weaker
137 and located in the east of the SCS. Correspondingly, a strong vertical circular
138 circulation is located on the east of 150°E. Some scattered convections around the SCS
139 also induce several reversed vertical circular circulations, but seem irrelevant to the
140 large-scale Pacific Walker circulation (Fig. 2d, 2f & 2h). Considering the common
141 unique features of the three cold events, these La Niña-like events along with surface

142 meridional wind divergence and narrow east cooling resembles the so-called cold
143 tongue (CT) mode (Zhang et al., 2010; Li et al., 2015; Jiang and Zhu, 2018,2020),
144 namely a background mode under recent global warming. Therefore, these cold events
145 in P3 can be named as cold tongue (CT) La Niña events. However, it is hard to
146 distinguish these CT La Niña events from the canonical La Niña events only based on
147 the current SST Niño indices. Then a new index is introduced to depict the CT La Niña
148 events.

149 Considering the surface wind features of CT La Niña events, the surface meridional
150 wind divergence ($\frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$) averaged within the box in Fig. 2c, namely MD_c index, is used
151 to depict the variation related to the CT La Niña events. However, the strengthened
152 zonal winds for the canonical La Niña events within the box (U_w index) in Fig. 2a can
153 also induce meridional wind divergence sometimes (Fig. 2i). On the other hand,
154 compared with canonical La Niña events followed by early SCSSM onsets (marked in
155 blue dots), the zonal trade winds (U_w) in the CT La Niña events (marked in red dots)
156 are much weaker. It seems that both strengthened zonal trade wind and the surface
157 meridional wind divergence can uplift the thermocline and cool the SST in the east
158 Pacific. To address the CT La Niña dominated by $\frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$, the residual MD_c is obtained by
159 linearly removing the influence of the U_w index. Fig. 2j illustrates the time series of
160 the observed Niño 3.4 index and that regressed on the residual MD_c and the
161 combination of the residual MD_c and U_w index. Results show that Niño 3.4 index
162 regressed on the combination of the residual MD_c and U_w index gives a times series

163 more correlated with the observed Niño 3.4 index (Mean Squared Error (MSE): 0.12)
164 than that regressed on the residual MD_c alone (MSE:0.67). However, the Niño 3.4
165 indices of the three CT La Niña events are well reproduced by the residual MD_c (MSE:
166 0.016) in recent decade, suggesting the dominant role of the meridional wind
167 divergence in inducing eastern Pacific cooling of the recent three CT La Niña events.
168 Therefore, the residual MD_c is used as an index to depict the CT La Niña events. Since
169 there are distinct differences between the CT La Niña events and the canonical ones,
170 their impacts on the pre-onset stage of the SCSSM onset are further examined.

171 **4. Impact of cold tongue La Niña events on SCSSM onset**

172 The persistence of SST anomalies (SSTA) and the circulation patterns from previous
173 winter to spring may keep the ENSO-SCSSM linear relationship and favor the seasonal
174 forecast of the SCSSM onset (Fig. 3a–f). Fig. 3 shows the time evolution of air-sea
175 anomalies (OLR and SSTA) before the SCSSM onset for each cold event during P2
176 and P3. The five La Niña events followed by early SCSSM onsets in P2 exhibit
177 persisting enhanced convection over the SCS from winter to spring (April) favoring the
178 early onset of the SCSSM (marked by black circles in Fig. 3a–f). In contrast, no obvious
179 persisting enhanced convection signals are observed in SCS following the CT La Niña
180 events in P3, and the suppressed convections over the SCS in May postponed the
181 SCSSM onsets.

182 Being consistent with the persistence of convection over the SCS, the air-sea structures
183 of the canonical La Niña events during P2 also persist from winter to spring (Fig. 4a-

184 4c). However, the structures of the CT La Niña events change a lot in spring. An evident
185 anomalous anticyclone (marked by letter “A” in the left column in Fig. 4) in lower
186 troposphere is centered over the SCS with suppressed convection, which possibly
187 postpone the SCSSM onset. The enhanced convections surrounding the SCS are mainly
188 located over the northern Indian Ocean, Maritime Continents and the western Pacific
189 (150°E-180°), inducing vertical circular circulations influencing the SCSSM onset. For
190 instance, in May 2013, the enhanced convections over the Maritime Continents and
191 northern Indian Ocean induce strong descending motion over the SCS (the second row
192 in Fig. 4). Besides the convections over the Maritime Continents and the northern
193 Indian Ocean, the enhanced convections over the northern subtropical Pacific also
194 suppress the convections over the SCS in 2018 (the last row in Fig. 4).

195 According to the above analyses, the canonical La Niña events in P2 strengthen the
196 pan-tropical Pacific Walker circulation, enhance persisting convection over the SCS
197 and advance the SCSSM onset, supporting the positive relationship between SCSSM
198 onset and ENSO. In contrast, the CT La Niña events in P3 induce a vertical circular
199 circulation over east of the SCS, but it cannot maintain to spring. The late onset of the
200 SCSSM following the CT La Niña years in P3 are mainly postponed by enhanced
201 convections over the northern Indian Ocean, the Maritime Continent and the western
202 Pacific surrounding the SCS.

203 To further verify the impact of the CT La Niña event on the late SCSSM onset, we
204 firstly remove the influence of the zonal wind (U_w), and then indicate the variations of

205 the CT La Niña events by the DJF residual MD_c index. By regressing SST anomalies
206 on the DJF residual MD_c index, the winter (DJF) SST anomalies pattern resembles
207 that of the three CT La Niña events, featured by a narrow cooling in the east equatorial
208 Pacific along with significant meridional wind divergence (Fig. 5a). In addition, there
209 is slight cooling over the Indian Ocean and the oceans surrounding the Maritime
210 Continent.

211 The warming Indian Ocean-western Pacific and the cooling along the coast of Peru in
212 the CT La Niña events during P3 are mainly contributed by their trends under global
213 warming (Fig. 5b). And the northern and southern subtropical Pacific are warming
214 significantly via the wind-evaporation-sea surface temperature (WES) feedback (Fig.
215 5a). Considering the seasonal march of the warm pool regions (purple lines in Fig. 5a
216 & 5c) and the evolutions of the CT La Niña event, the convections over the SCS should
217 be suppressed thanks to the enhanced convections surrounding, particularly over the
218 Indian Ocean and the northern subtropical Pacific.

219 Besides the interannual variation, the warming trend of the Indian Ocean (IO) is also
220 significant. Although the IO Capacitor effect (Xie et al., 2009) after ENSO can still be
221 detected by the phase-lag relationship of SSTA between the eastern Pacific (EP) and
222 IO (Fig. 5e), the SSTA can hardly get cooled due to the rapid warming in IO in recent
223 decade, suggesting an asymmetrical response of IO SSTA to ENSO. For three CT La
224 Niña events during P3, the warming surrounding the SCS could enhance convections
225 and postpone the SCSSM onset, Since the SCSSM onset can be also triggered by the

226 synoptic or intra-seasonal activities, the warming SST in IO can enhance convection
227 and atmospheric disturbance and in turn bring greater uncertainties for the seasonal
228 forecast of SCSSM onset. Following an El Niño event, the warming SSTA could
229 become remarkable in IO, and result in enhanced convection disturbances to trigger an
230 early onset of the SCSSM. For example, the extreme early SCSSM onset in 2019 is
231 attributed to the intra-seasonal oscillation (Hu et al., 2020) and typhon “Fani” (Liu and
232 Zhu, 2020). Liu and Zhu (2020) indicated that the anomalous condensation heating
233 released by the typhon “Fani” not only shifted the South Asian High (SAH) northward
234 but also reinforced the upper-level barotropic trough to the west of the Tibetan Plateau
235 (TP) at midlatitudes. It facilitated the early establishment of monsoon convection by
236 intensifying the upper-level pumping over the SCS.

237 **5. Summary and discussion**

238 ENSO has been treated as the most important predictor for the SCSSM onset in the
239 empirical and dynamical model (Zhu and Li, 2017; Martin et al., 2019). A warm (cold)
240 ENSO event is often followed by the late (early) onset of SCSSM. However, this
241 positive correlation does not work during 2011-2019. Our results show the anomaly of
242 SCSSM onset is mainly determined by the phases (warm or cold) of ENSO, instead its
243 amplitude of anomalous SST index. The recently invalid positive correlation of SCSSM
244 onset with ENSO can be attributed to the disturbance of cold tongue (CT) La Niña
245 events during 2011-2019.

246 The anomalous SST morphology of the CT La Niña resembles the conventional ones,
247 but its cooling area is narrowed along the equator with weaker trade winds. We found
248 that the cooling SST of CT La Niña events are dominated by the meridional wind
249 divergence in the eastern Pacific, this is distinct from the canonical (?) La Niña events
250 with strong trade winds. Following the CT La Niña in preceding winter, the suppressed
251 convections over the SCS in May postpone the SCSSM onset, which is mainly due to
252 the enhanced convections over the northern Indian Ocean, the western Pacific as well
253 as the Maritime Continent. It is suggested that both the evolution of the CT La Niña
254 and the warming SST in the Indian-western Pacific contribute to the late SCSSM onset.
255 The CT La Niña events dominated by the surface meridional wind divergence more
256 likely occur in recent years, and is hardly distinguished from the canonical ones by the
257 SST ENSO indices alone. Due to the distinct influences of the CT La Niña events, some
258 known empirical seasonal forecast models based on ENSO SST indices may be
259 challenged. Therefore, besides these SST ENSO indices, the additional indices, such as
260 U_w and MD_c , are also suggested to be used to monitor ENSO issues for the seasonal
261 forecast of SCSSM onset. The increasing CT La Niña events may also affect the ENSO
262 diversity including the SST patterns and evolutions. Hence more studies should be
263 carried on for understanding the CT La Niña events.

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270 The HadISST1 data set was obtained from the Met Office Hadley Centre and can be
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272 NOAA High-resolution Blended Analysis of Daily SST, NCEP reanalysis data,
273 interpolated OLR data and CMAP precipitation data provided by the
274 NOAA/OAR/ESRL PSD, Boulder, Colorado, USA can be obtained from their website
275 at <https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/>.

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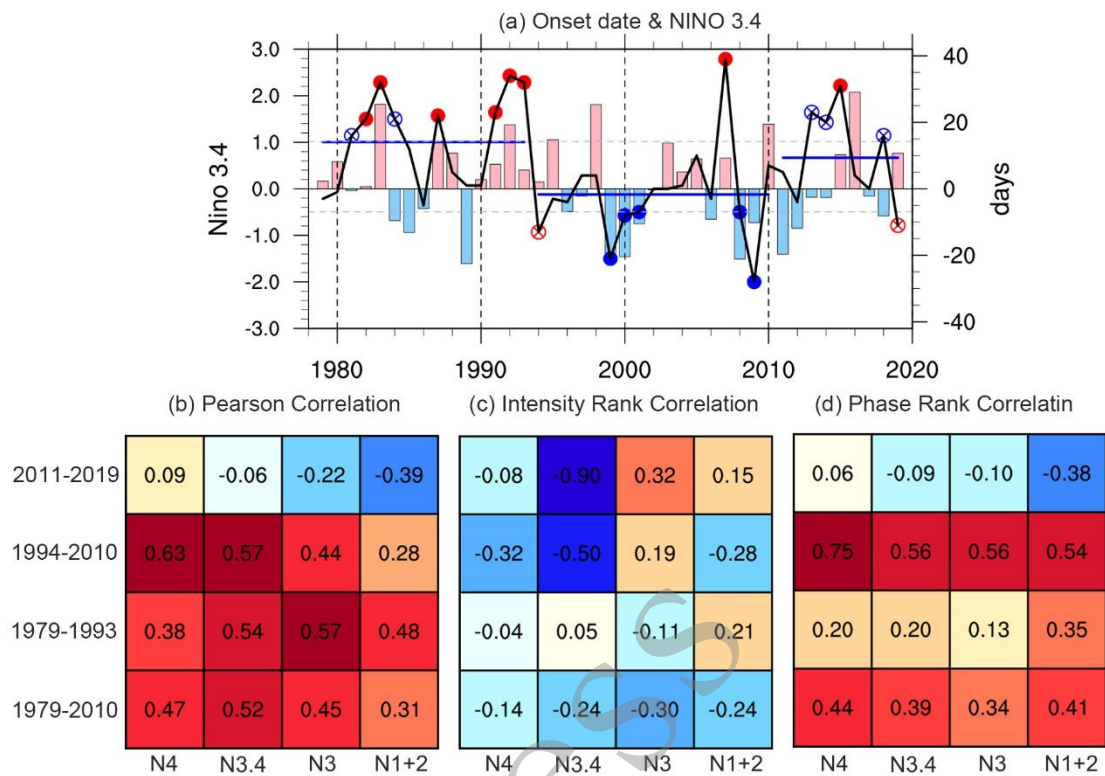
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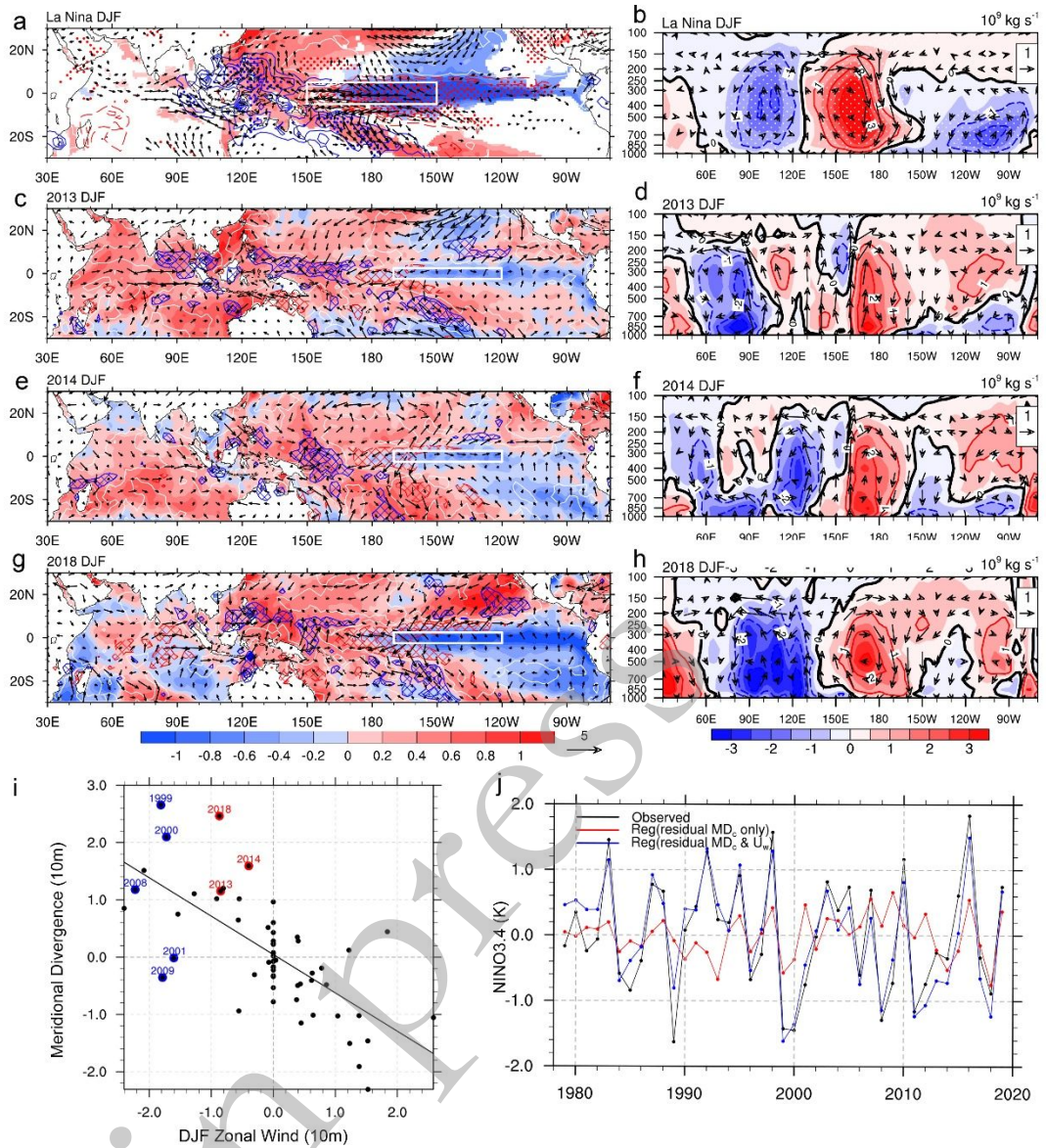
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382 **Fig. 1.** (a) Time series of the SCSSM onset date anomalies and the DJF Niño 3.4 index
 383 (bars). The two horizontal dashed lines represent the averaged values for the late and
 384 early onset date anomalies respectively. The SCSSM onset dates exceeding the dashed
 385 lines are marked by the dots and circles. The red (blue) dots indicate a late (an early)
 386 onset with a positive (negative) Niño 3.4 index in previous winter, and instead the
 387 others with a reverse relationship are marked by the circles. The blue lines illustrate the
 388 averaged onset dates for the periods of 1979—1994, 1995—2010 and 2011—2019. (b-
 389 d) Correlation coefficients between four ENSO indices and SCSSM onset date during
 390 the three periods. The Pearson correlation, Intensity Rank correlation and Phase Rank
 391 correlation are illustrated in (b), (c) and (d), respectively.



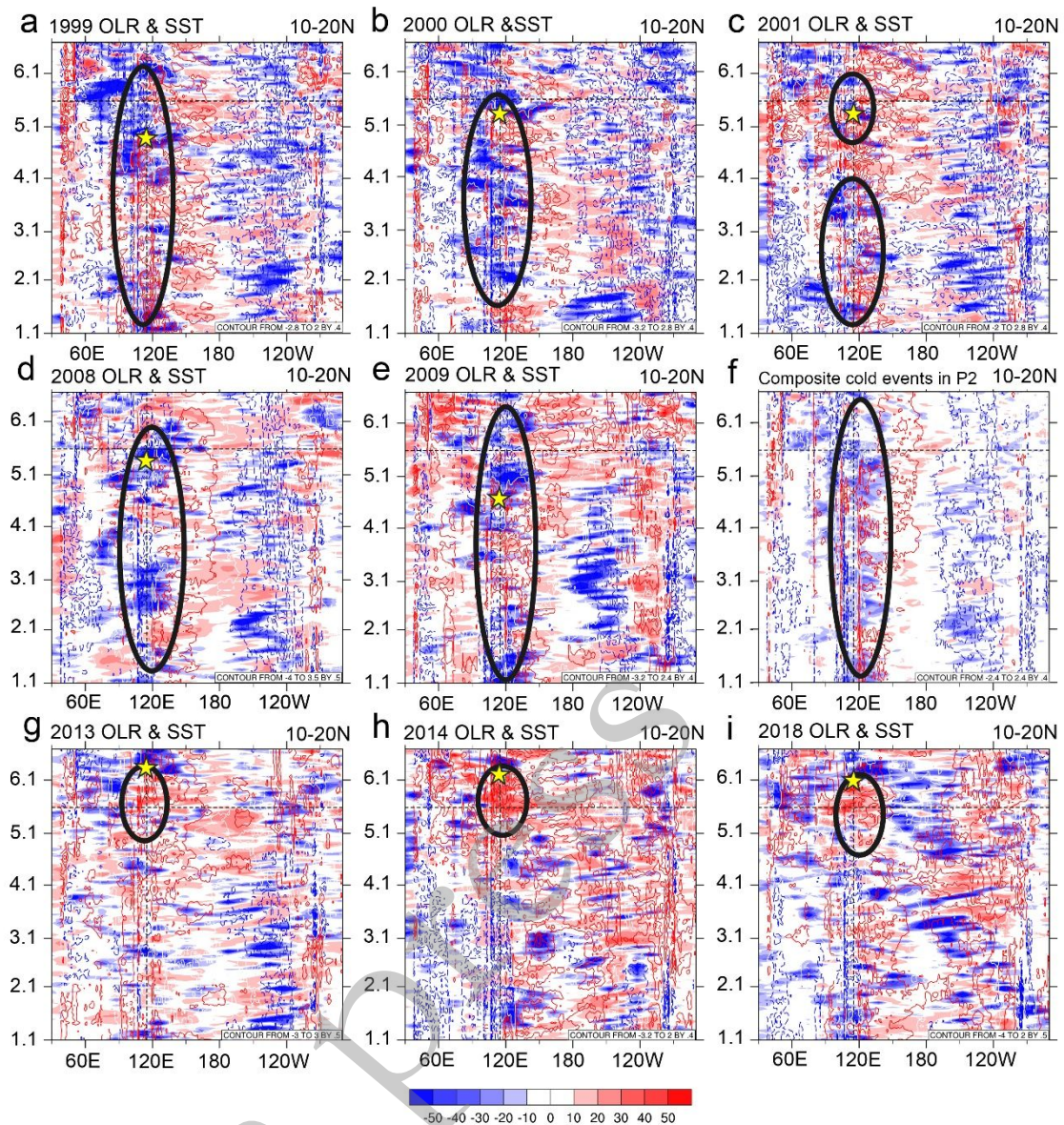
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394 **Fig. 2.** (a) DJF SST (shading), 10-m wind (vector) and precipitation anomalies
 395 (contour; blue: positive, red: negative), and (b) zonal mass streamfunction, pressure
 396 velocity ($\omega \times -50$; Pa/s), and zonal divergent wind (m/s) averaged within 5°S–5°N
 397 for the composited La Niña event (1999, 2000, 2001, 2008 and 2009). The second, third
 398 and fourth rows represent those in 2013, 2014 and 2018 (precipitation anomalies:
 399 contour with crossing lines, 2 mm/day interval). Only the values for the wind and SST

400 (precipitation) anomalies above the 90% confidence level are shown (marked by dots)
401 in (a). The white boxes in (a) and (c) represent the areas that define U_w and MD_c
402 indices, respectively. (i) Scatterplot of U_w and MD_c for winters (DJF) from 1979 to
403 2019. Blue dots represent the La Niña events followed by early SCSSM onset. 2013,
404 2014 and 2018 cases with late SCSSM onset are shown as red dots. (j) shows the time
405 series of DJF Niño 3.4 index: (gray) observations, (red) linear regression with the
406 residual MD_c as the only predictor, and (blue) linear regression with both the U_w and
407 residual MD_c indexes as predictors.

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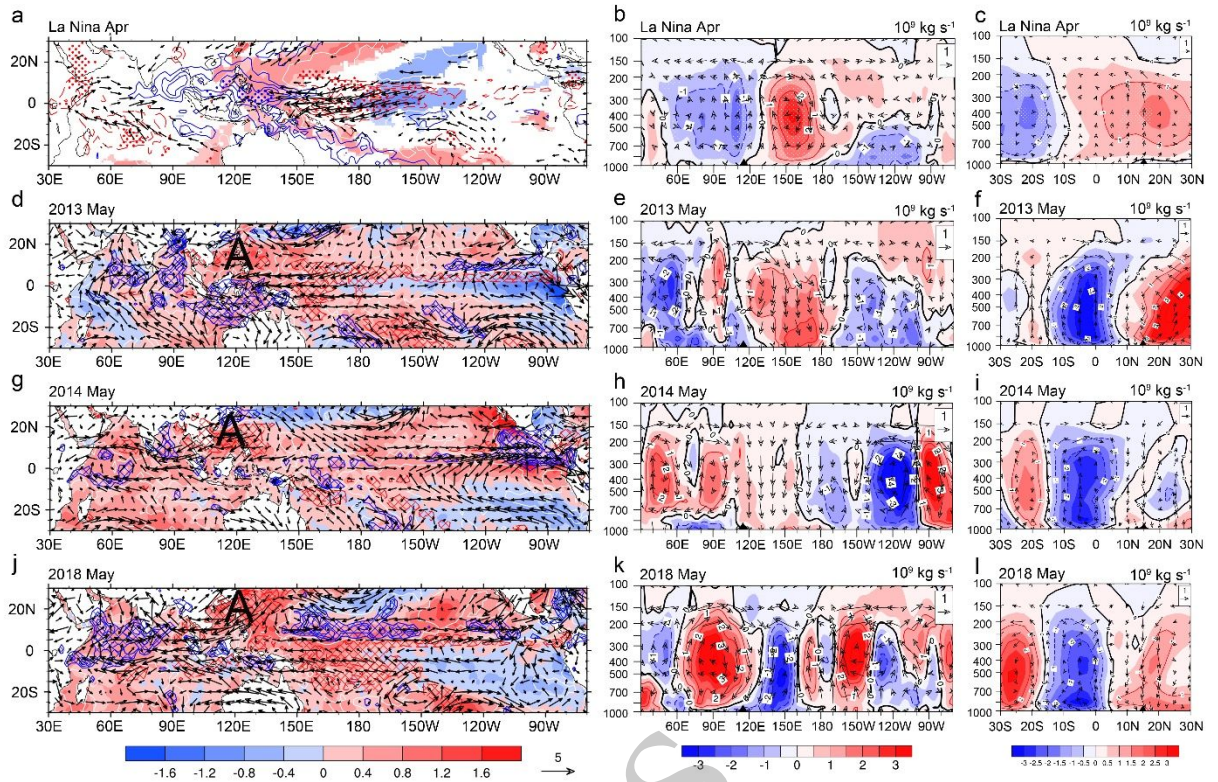
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410 **Fig. 3.** Hovmoller diagrams for OLR (shading) and SST (contours; red (blue): positive
 411 (negative)) anomalies averaged within the tropical band (10°N – 20°N) for composited
 412 (f) and individual cases. (f) represents the case composited by (a-e). The horizontal and
 413 vertical reference lines represent the climatological SCSSM onset date and the SCS
 414 position. The yellow stars indicate the SCSSM onset dates for different years.

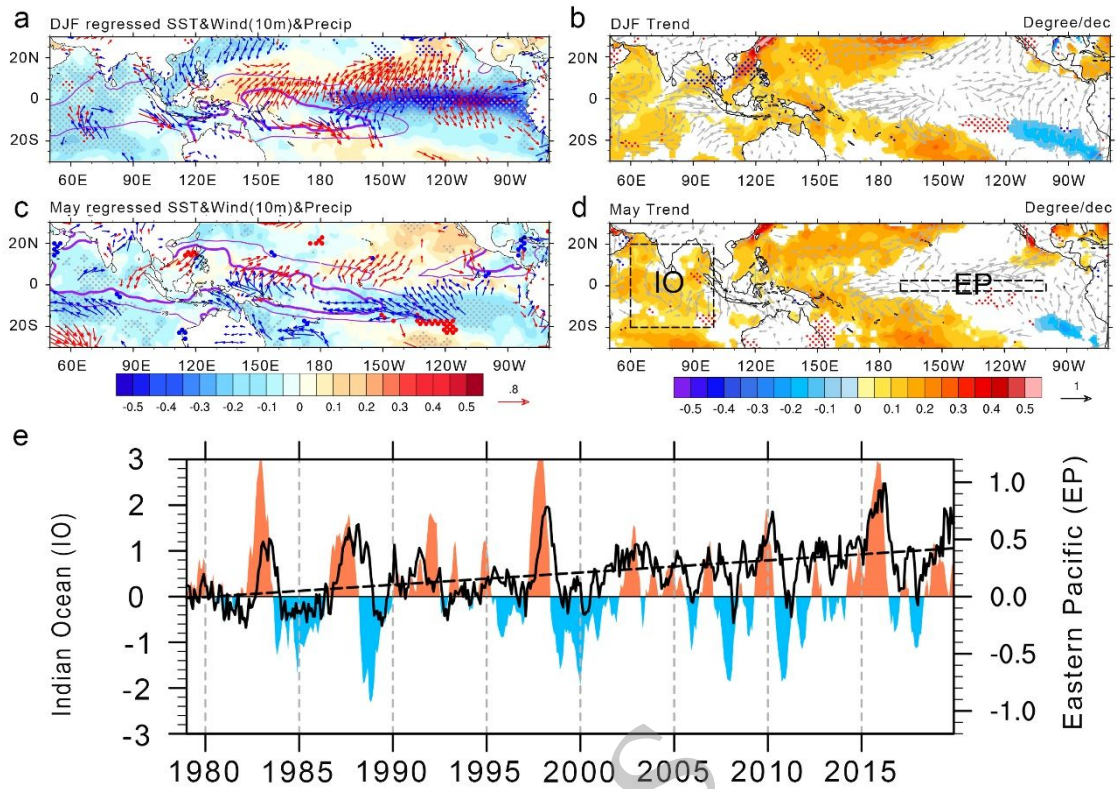
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417 **Fig. 4.** Similar as Fig. 2. (a) SST (shading), 10-m wind (vector) and precipitation
 418 (contour; blue: positive, red: negative) anomalies, (b) zonal mass stream function,
 419 pressure velocity ($\omega \times -50$; Pa/s), and zonal divergent wind (m/s) averaged within
 420 $10\text{--}20^\circ\text{N}$, (c) meridional mass stream function, pressure velocity ($\omega \times -50$; Pa/s),
 421 and meridional divergent wind (m/s) averaged within $110\text{--}120^\circ\text{N}$ for the composited
 422 La Niña case in May. The second, third and fourth rows represent those in 2013, 2014
 423 and 2018. The location of the SCS is marked by black triangle in the last two rows.

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425
 426 **Fig. 5.** (a) The DJF residual MD_c -regressed (a) DJF and (c) May SSTA spatial
 427 distribution (shading; 0.05 K interval), horizontal wind at 10m (vectors), and
 428 precipitation (dots; mm day^{-1}). The blue (red) dots indicate the positive (negative)
 429 precipitation anomalies. The surface wind anomalies strengthen (weaken)
 430 climatological winds are in blue (red). The thin and thick purple lines indicate the
 431 climatological 28 and 29°C isotherms in (a) DJF and (c) May. Trends in SST ($^{\circ}\text{C dec}^{-1}$),
 432 10m winds (arrows ($\text{m s}^{-1} \text{dec}^{-1}$)), and precipitation (blue (red) dots: positive
 433 (negative)) for (b) DJF and (d) May, respectively. (e) SSTA averaged within the Indian
 434 Ocean (IO: black solid line) and Eastern Pacific (EP: blue and red shading) regions
 435 (marked in (d)), and the dashed line indicates the linear trend for the time series of the
 436 IO SSTA.