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A regime shift in the interhemispheric teleconnection between the Yellow and East China Seas and the southeastern tropical Pacific in the Southern Hemisphere during the boreal summer

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1 Abstract

2 [1] Through statistical estimations on reconstructed datasets for the period 1982–2020 after 3 removing a long-term trend, we observed that there was a drastic regime shift in the early summer's 4 connection between the YECS and the tropical Pacific in the early 2000s. The summer YECS 5 SSTs had seemed to be modulated by local oceanic and atmospheric processes along with their 6 marginal coupling to the tropical Pacific during the pre-2003 period before the regime shift. In 7 contrast, an interhemispheric YECS-tropical southeastern Pacific (SEP) coupling appeared after 8 the regime shift. This teleconnection was at least partially attributed to a reduced El Niño signature 9 in the tropical Pacific, which favors the emergence of the South Pacific meridional mode (SPMM) 10 independently from ENSO signals. Precipitation anomalies in the western tropical Pacific act as 11 an atmospheric bridge to mediate the air-sea interacted variability associated with the SPMM into 12 the North Pacific. The susceptibility of the YECS to atmospheric forcing may highlight the role of 13 SST over the YECS as a potential indicator of basin-scale climate changes.

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Keywords: El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO), Yellow and East China Seas, Regime Shift,
East Asian Summer Monsoon, South Pacific Meridional Mode (SPMM)

18 **1. Introduction**

19 [2] The Yellow and the East China Seas (hereafter YECS; Figure 1a) comprise a well-developed 20 continental shelf supporting productive values as a vast marine ecosystem in the northwestern 21 Pacific marginal seas (e.g., Beardsley et al. 1985; Fan and Huang 2008; Belkin 2009), and have 22 undergone substantial long-term changes in their physical and ecological environments over the 23 last few decades (Belkin 2009; Yeh and Kim 2010; Bao and Ren 2014; Liao et al. 2015; Park et 24 al. 2015; Cai et al. 2017). Research into climate change in the YECS has been focused on the 25 winter sea surface temperature (SST), which represents a primary mode of long-term variability 26 along with the recognition of a remarkable linear trend during the last few decades (Yeh and Kim 27 2010; Zhang et al. 2010; Bao and Ren 2014; Cai et al. 2017; Kim et al. 2018). Less is known about 28 a mechanism for summer SST interannual variability, even though a variance several times greater 29 was estimated relative to that for the winter SST in the YECS (Supplementary Figure S1a).

30 [3] A key process which has been known to regulate local winds, precipitation, typhoons, and 31 thereby to determine the amplitude of the East Asian summer monsoon (EASM; Ha et al. 2012; 32 Seok and Seo 2021), might be associated with the western North Pacific Subtropical High 33 (wNPSH; e.g., Wang et al. 2000, 2013; Yang and Lau 2004; Yim et al. 2008; Du et al. 2011; Fan 34 et al. 2013; Liu et al. 2013; Xiang et al. 2013; Xie et al. 2016). The anomalous wNPSH is triggered by a cold sea surface anomaly, presumably after equatorial Pacific warming (i.e., El Niño) reaches 35 36 its mature phases during the boreal winter months (Wang et al. 2000, 2013; Yang and Lau 2004; 37 Xie et al. 2016). Therefore, the literature has postulated a causal relationship between El Niño and 38 YECS summer SST with a lag of several months (e.g., Wang et al. 2000; Park and Oh 2000; Liu 39 et al. 2013; Wu et al. 2016). Reported correlations are, however, generally low, along with an 40 inconsistent forcing region between studies. Wu et al. (2016), for instance, demonstrated that SST 41 anomalies after removing long-term trends and annual cycles in the YECS (24–42°N/117–130°E) 42 rendered a correlation of 0.31 over six months preceding the Nino3 SST index (SST anomaly 43 averaged over 5°S-5°N/150°W-90°W) for the period 1982-2011. Liu et al. (2013) demonstrated 44 that the China Seas warmed for around 4–10 months after the equatorial Pacific SST anomalies 45 reached their maximum. A power spectrum coherency analysis also showed that anomalous SSTs 46 in the East Asian marginal seas (25-45°N/117-141°E) varied coherently for 5-9 months 47 preceding the Nino34 (5°S–5°N/170°W–120°W) SST index, particularly on a 2–3-year frequency 48 band during the period 1951–1996 (Park and Oh 2000). Meanwhile, several studies pointed out 49 the importance of cooling anomalies in the central equatorial Pacific, i.e., the Nino4 region 50 (5°S–5°N, 160°E–150°W), in strengthening the wNPSH, especially during the development phase 51 of La Niña (Lau and Nath 1996; Fan et al. 2013; Wang et al. 2013), thus suggesting an asymmetric 52 response of summer SST anomalies to El Niño and La Niña events (Hardiman et al. 2018). 53 [4] The discrepancy in the literature on the relationship between the summer SST anomaly of the 54 YECS and ENSO forcing regions could be reconciled with the consideration of an El Niño flavor 55

and the existence of ENSO precursors. First, the flavor is believed to have changed between two

56 types – the canonical eastern Pacific warming type El Niño (EP El Niño) and the central Pacific

57 warming type El Niño (CP El Niño). The latter is known to have occurred more frequently than

58 the typical EP El Niño in recent decades (e.g., Yeh et al. 2009; Di Lorenzo et al. 2010; Yeo et al.

59 2012; Xiang et al. 2013; Jo et al. 2015; Capotondi et al. 2015; Yeh et al. 2015; Stuecker 2018) due

60

61 Pacific meridional mode and thus enhanced coupling between the CP El Niño and meridional

to global warming (Yeh et al., 2009; Yeo and Kim 2014), and its positive feedback with the North

62 mode (Liguori and Di Lorenzo, 2018; Stuecker, 2018). A shift in the flavor would trigger resultant 63 interactions between SST and atmospheric variables such as wind, heat flux, and precipitation in 64 the forcing region, possibly yielding a marginal teleconnection between the YECS and equatorial 65 Pacific if studies do not consider the abrupt change of a forcing region. The second candidate that 66 accounts for this discrepancy is the existence of ENSO precursors: North/South Pacific meridional 67 modes (e.g., Vimont et al. 2003; Chang et al. 2007; Zhang et al. 2014a; Min et al. 2017; You and 68 Furtado 2017; Larson et al. 2018; Stuecker 2018; Zhang et al. 2021). Approximately two or three 69 seasons before an El Niño event reaches its mature phase, a weakening of the off-equatorial trade 70 winds modulates latent heat fluxes, thereby exciting warm SST anomalies along the western coasts 71 of North/South America (Vimont et al. 2003; Chang et al. 2007; Zhang et al. 2014a). These 72 temperature anomalies tend to extend toward the equatorial Pacific via the Wind-Evaporation-SST 73 (WES) feedback and background current, modulate precipitation over the Inter-Tropical 74 Convergence Zone (ITCZ), and thus form an extratropical teleconnection by altering the Rossby 75 wave train (Trenberth et al. 1998; Deser and Phillips 2004; He et al. 2011; Wu et al. 2015). If these 76 meridional modes directly impact the summer monsoon in the western North Pacific, the low correlations estimated from the YECS summer SST and the ENSO SST indices in previous studies 77 78 might be justifiable.

79 [5] This study aims to investigate the teleconnected impact of the tropical Pacific on the YECS 80 summer SSTs by considering these two hypotheses. To elucidate the atmospheric bridge 81 connecting the equatorial Pacific and the YECS, we have characterized the large-scale atmospheric 82 circulation and precipitation anomalies associated with the year-to-year summer SST variance in 83 the YECS. Here, we will contrast the large-scale atmospheric and oceanic fields in shaping the summer SSTs in the YECS; the EP El Niño-like pattern seems to have played a role in modulating the EASM through forming wind anomalies by the wNPSH, but to have left a marginal signal in the YECS summer SSTs before the early 2000s, while the South Pacific Meridional Mode (SPMM hereafter; Zhang et al. 2014a) has determined the YECS summer SSTs likely through modulating the Rossby wave train initiated from the western Pacific precipitation anomaly in recent summers when the EP El Niño was inactive after the early 2000s.

90 [6] The rest of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 describes the observational and 91 reanalysis datasets and analysis methods. Section 3 shows that the regime shift in terms of 92 teleconnection between these two regions took place in the early 2000s. In section 4, we discuss 93 that this regime shift could be related to the mean state of the equatorial Pacific. Section 5 contains 94 the summary and conclusions.

95

96 **2. Data and methods**

97 [7] This study has analyzed mainly OISSTv2 data from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric 98 Administration (NOAA; Reynolds et al. 2007) for the recent 39-year period of 1982-2020 with 99 the spatial resolution of $1/4^{\circ} \times 1/4^{\circ}$. This dataset is optimally merged based on Advanced Very 100 High-Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR) observations with ancillary in-situ measurements. Inter-101 comparison studies have suggested that the OISSTv2 is consistent with surface drifters and other 102 SST datasets, not only in open oceans (Reynolds and Chelton 2010) but also in coastal seas (Lima 103 and Wethey 2012; Liao et al. 2015; see Figure S1) with the unique advantage of a persistent quality 104 over almost four decades. Considering the spatial coverage of the YECS (117–129.5°E/26–41°N) 105 spanning 12.5° longitude by 15° latitude, the OISSTv2 might be a unique and pertinent dataset for this long-term SST variability study in the YECS. Other reanalysis datasets with coarser resolutions such as the Hadley Centre Ice and Sea Surface Temperature (HadISST; 1° horizontal resolution; Rayner et al. 2003) or the Extended Reconstructed Sea Surface Temperature (ERSSTv5; 2° resolution) do not alter our results, as discussed below in section 3.1. The domain does not fully cover the southern part of the East China Sea in order to exclude a local impact from the Kuroshio Current; our findings presented here are not sensitive to the meridional span of the domain (not shown). In this study, spring and summer both refer to the boreal seasons.

113 [8] We estimated monthly anomalies by subtracting the study period (1982–2020) means from 114 each calendar month and a linear trend at each grid point. The average SST trend throughout the 115 YECS was 0.22°C per decade, which accounts for 26.5% of the total variance after the seasonal 116 cycle was removed. The early summer of May-June-July (hereafter MJJ) means were computed 117 from the monthly anomalies to disengage a sub-seasonal perturbation associated with a tropical 118 cyclone. The genesis of the tropical cyclone and its activity over the western North Pacific form a 119 climatological peak in August and September as the cross-equatorial flows and monsoonal 120 westerlies fully develop (Wang and Zhou 2008; Choi and Ha 2018), thereby tending to leave 121 impulsive signals on the climatic variability of summer SSTs over the YECS (Park et al. 2019).

[9] This study has employed primary statistical tools, including linear regression, correlation, and the singular value decomposition (SVD, also known as maximum covariance analysis) analyses, to identify an atmospheric pattern that evolves coherently with the MJJ mean SST of the YECS. We define the MJJ SST anomalies averaged over the YECS as a YECS summer SST index (Figure 1b). This index is almost identical to the primary PC time series (PC1) for the summer SST anomalies in the YECS with a correlation coefficient of 0.90 between this index and the PC1,

128 which explains approximately 51% of the total year-to-year SST variance of the YECS, and is 129 clearly separate from higher modes according to North et al. (1982). To identify an atmospheric 130 bridge, we have analyzed the Climate Prediction Center (CPC) Merged Analysis of Precipitation 131 (CMAP) data (Xie and Arkin 1997), as well as wind, geopotential height, precipitation fields from 132 the fifth-generation European Centre for Medium-range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) 133 atmospheric reanalysis for the period 1982–2020 with a spatial resolution of 0.5° (Hersbach et al. 134 2020). For the statistical significance test, we estimated a p-value based on a two-tailed student's 135 t-test with an effective degree of freedom computed considering a lag-1 autocorrelation in the time 136 series (Bretherton et al. 1999).

137

138 **3. Results**

139 3.1 Relationship of the YECS summer SST with Pacific and Indian Ocean SSTs

140 [10] Figure 2a shows the simultaneous correlation map of the SST anomalies in the Pacific and 141 Indian Oceans to the YECS SST index for 39 years (1982-2020). The coefficients that are 142 statistically significant at a 90% confidence level are displayed in Figure 2a. Apparent correlations 143 appear in three regions: the mid-latitude of the Northwest Pacific around the YECS, the southeast 144 tropical Pacific (SEP; 20-10°S/130°-100°W, red box) near South America, and the southwest 145 tropical Indian near the east of Madagascar Island (hereafter SWI; 25–17°S/35–60°E). While high 146 correlations around the YECS seem reasonable, those in the Southern Hemisphere are unexpected. 147 The correlations, however, are barely significant at a 95% confidence level for the SEP (r = 0.42) 148 and at a 90% confidence level for the SWI (r = -0.34). We plot the time series of the YECS and 149 the SEP averaged SST anomalies together in Figure 2b, which represents a contrast in the SST temporal evolution of the YECS and SEP regions before and after the early 2000s: the year-toyear fluctuation of the summer YECS SST anomalies (the black bars in Figure 2b) was precisely in tune with those of the SEP (the red line) only during the later years of the period 2003–2020 (r = 0.74), but not during the early years of the period 1982–2002 (r = 0.19). A similar contrast with a reduced correlation for the later years was estimated for the SWI (not shown).

155 [11] The correlations between the YECS summer SST index and the SEP SST anomalies that were 156 estimated by applying a nine-year sliding window also rendered a robust YECS-SEP coupling only 157 during the period after the 2000s (Figure 2c). An eleven-year window, or a seven-year one, yielded 158 a similar result. The correlation in the sliding estimation went up to 0.94 in around early 2010, and 159 then tended to decrease slightly in the last few years. The sliding correlations that applied to the 160 HadISST, which spanned the period 1900-2020, were similar to those shown in Figure 2c: the 161 significant correlations between the YECS and the SEP/SWI SST anomalies during the recent 162 years after the early 2000s (not shown). The ERSSTv5, which has a further coarse horizontal 163 resolution of 2°, also yielded significant correlation coefficients but only with the SEP SST for the 164 period after the late 1990s. These results suggest the insensitivity of one of our key findings – a 165 regime shift that happened at least throughout the early 2000s in terms of the YECS-SEP summer 166 SST teleconnection – to the dataset. It is noteworthy that the calculated correlations for the pre-167 satellite era are of questionable quality due to the lack of in-situ observations in both the YECS 168 and SEP/SWI regions (Kim et al. 2018; Zhang et al. 2014a; Zhang et al. 2021).

169 [12] Since previous articles have suggested a lagged relationship between the equatorial Pacific 170 SSTs and summer SSTs around the YECS, this study conducted a lead-lag cross-correlation 171 analysis between the YECS summer SST index and the SST anomalies for the periods 1982–2002

172 (Figure 3a-e) and 2003–2020 (Figure 3f-j), respectively, before and after the regime shift with 173 various time lags between four months preceding (i.e., JFM) and four months following (SON) 174 our study months. With regard to the contribution of the equatorial Pacific SSTs to the YECS 175 summer SST variance, we failed to find a meaningful correlation in the eastern or central Pacific 176 for any lagged month for both periods before and after the early 2000s. Insignificant correlations 177 less than ±0.15 between the YECS summer SST index and the lead-lag ENSO indices for different 178 regions – Nino3, Nino3.4, and Nino4 – might be more evidence for the ENSOs' marginal forcing 179 role in altering the summer YECS SSTs (Figure S2). Besides, any significant relationship does not 180 stand between the YECS summer SST index and either the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) - a 181 low-frequency modulation of the ENSO - or the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO; Figure 182 S2), which has been mentioned in previous articles as a key index for modulating low-frequency 183 SST variability in the YECS (Zhang et al. 2010; Liao et al. 2015; Kim et al. 2018).

184 [13] During the period before the regime shift, a region characterized by close correlations begins 185 to appear during the JFM months in the South China Sea (Figure 3a), which is geographically 186 connected upstream of the Taiwan warm current to the YECS through the Taiwan Strait. The 187 region of close correlations seems to expand northward toward the South China Sea (Figure 3b), 188 then turns eastward to the East/Japan Sea and the Northwest Pacific, presumably associated with 189 local currents and winds (Figure 3c-3e; Cai et al. 2017; Kim et al. 2018). For years after the regime 190 shift, in contrast, a region of robust correlations in the SEP off the coast of Chile emerged almost 191 four months before the early summer (Figure 3f). The correlations reached a maximum of up to 192 0.85 at a lag of -2 months (Figure 3g). After that, the region of robust correlations seemed to 193 spread diagonally toward the western Pacific warming pool between the equator and the southern South Pacific Convergence Zone (SPCZ). Next, we will explore how the SEP affected the year-to-year summer variance of the YECS during each period.

196

197 3.2 Atmospheric fields in association with the summer YECS index

198 *a. Before the regime shift*

199 [14] This section investigates atmospheric fields in the context of regime shift; the linear fractions 200 of those variables - SST, precipitation, wind (U850), geopotential height (H850) at 850 hPa, and 201 meridional winds along the dateline - that are congruent with the YECS summer SST index 202 (Figure 4); the magnitudes of the regressed fields represent anomalies corresponding to one 203 standard deviation of the YECS SST index. Before the regime shift, positively regressed SST 204 anomalies which extended from the YECS toward the center of the North Pacific aligned with 205 easterly wind anomalies (Figure 4a). These anomalies represented a weakening of the mean 206 westerly winds over the North Pacific, thus decreasing turbulent heat fluxes into the atmosphere 207 and, in turn, likely resulting in oceanic warming (e.g., Yeh and Kim 2010; Cai et al. 2017; Kim et 208 al. 2018). A positive geopotential height anomaly located northeast of the YECS centered at 42°N 209 and 180°E, and a negative one centered around 140°E and 25°N within the western North Pacific 210 seemed to generate these easterly wind anomalies in the mid-latitudes. The negative one (i.e., low-211 pressure anomaly) was accompanied by southwest-northeast-oriented enhanced rainfall 212 throughout the western subtropical North Pacific and suppressed rainfall over the East China Sea 213 and southern East/Japan Sea (Figure 5b). Another remarkably dry anomaly appeared in the region 214 west of the dateline around the equator that was associated with a lower-level divergence of the

meridional winds and an upper-level convergence around the equator that invoked a descendingmotion near the equator (Figures 4b; 4c).

217 [15] This low-pressure anomaly in the western North Pacific that was accompanied by a tripole 218 structure of precipitation anomalies bore a resemblance, but opposite to the primary EOF mode 219 (EOF1) estimated from H850 over the Asian-Australian monsoon domain (20°S-40°N, 220 30°E-180°E; refer to Figures 2a and 2b in Wang et al. 2013). This pattern represented the 221 southwest-northeast tilted wNPSH. The spatial analogy might hint at the role of the eastern 222 equatorial Pacific and the northern Indian Ocean in shaping the EASM through modulating the 223 tilted wNPSH during the period before the regime shift (Wang et al. 2000, 2013; Yim et al. 2008; 224 Xiang et al. 2013; Xie et al. 2016). However, the teleconnected influence of the eastern equatorial 225 Pacific and Indian Ocean on the YECS SST anomalies seemed statistically insignificant during 226 the early period before the regime shift, as demonstrated in Figures 2 and 3.

227

228 b. After the regime shift

229 [16] The YECS-wNPSH coupling has no longer been pertinent in recent summers after the regime 230 shift (Figure 4d-f). The high SST that had previously extended from the YECS into the central 231 North Pacific (Figure 4a) seems to have been confined within the YECS after the regime shift 232 (Figure 4d). The eastward limit of high temperatures and dry anomalies is likely demarcated by a 233 low-pressure anomaly extending from the northeastern Pacific to the southwest. This SST 234 regression in the YECS appears with a positive geopotential height anomaly of 4 m and a negative 235 precipitation anomaly higher than -1.6 mm/day, implying a clear sky and increased solar radiation 236 for warm summer SSTs in the YECS.

237 [17] Although the regressions are on the YECS summer SST index, more remarkable atmospheric 238 and oceanic signals have appeared in the Southern Hemisphere in recent years, such as a zonal 239 dipole pattern of high and low geopotential heights from the west to the east over the Indian and 240 the Pacific Oceans (Figure 4e). This large-scale atmospheric circulation field invokes southerly 241 winds from the south over the SWI and southwestern tropical Pacific, resulting in cold SST 242 anomalies, while northerly wind anomalies from the equator in the southeastern tropical Indian 243 and SEP regions (Figure 5d) contribute to warm SST anomalies. This large-scale atmospheric 244 circulation reminds us of the role of air-sea turbulent fluxes in forming a wave-like subtropical 245 dipole in the Southern Hemisphere (Wang 2010; Zhang et al. 2014a). This tropical SST variation, 246 particularly in the SEP, could be enhanced by the WES feedback (Zhang et al. 2014a) and 247 interactive ocean dynamics (Okumura 2013), and seems to contribute to the convective 248 precipitation in the western equatorial Pacific around the dateline (enhanced rainfall) and ITCZ 249 (reduced rainfall) by affecting the meridional winds (Figure 4e and 4f; see section 4.2 for a more 250 detailed discussion).

251 [18] One of most important features during the recent period might be a "hemispheric symmetry" 252 both in H850 and precipitation over the Pacific Ocean, as shown in Figure 4e. First, there are 253 meridional dipole patterns of positive- and negative-pressure anomalies from high to low latitudes 254 in both hemispheres. The pressure pattern in the Southern Hemisphere is the South Pacific 255 Oscillation (SPO), with a meridional dipole pattern and barotropic structure throughout the 256 troposphere over mid to high latitudes (You and Furtado 2017; Figure 4e, 4f). In addition, a weak 257 high-pressure anomaly over the YECS mirrors one occupying the east of Australia. In the 258 precipitation field, the hemispheric symmetry seems to be centered with a negative precipitation

259 anomaly on the ITCZ around 7°N, and is associated with the divergence of low-level winds, as 260 shown in Figure 4f. Outside the ITCZ, a band of intensified rainfall has appeared as a tilted feature in the north of the SPCZ, with a weaker one extending toward the center of the North Pacific. On 261 262 the poleward sides, negative anomalies are located over the SPCZ in the Southern Hemisphere and 263 a northeastward-tilted region from the East China Sea in the Northern Hemisphere. This 264 hemispheric symmetry presumably resulted from the Rossby wave train from the tropics into both 265 hemispheres (Trenberth et al. 1998; Zhang et al. 2014a), and might be a key determinant through 266 which the SSTs in the YECS evolve along with ones in the southern oceans.

267 [19] The characteristic structures shown in Figures 4d and e - off-equatorial weakened 268 southeasterly trade winds and a meridional SST dipole pattern in the SEP accompanied by the 269 northern lobe of the SPO and its hemispheric symmetry pattern - match exactly the atmospheric-270 oceanic signatures of the SPMM (Zhang et al. 2014a; Min et al. 2017; Larson et al. 2018; Amaya 271 2019; see Figure 1b of Zhang et al. 2014a), which is known as a precursor of the EP El Niño 272 (Zhang et al. 2014a; Min et al. 2017; You and Furtado 2017) or a modulator of the ENSO's 273 amplitude (Imada et al. 2016; Larson et al. 2018). This EP Niño signature generally overwhelms 274 this meridional mode; therefore, the SPMM by itself is analogous to a typical El Niño-like pattern 275 particularly in the presence of ocean involved dynamics within the equatorial Pacific (Zhang et al. 276 2014a; Min et al. 2017; You and Furtado 2017).

277

278 3.3 Atmospheric fields in association with the SPMM index

[20] Figure 5 shows the same regressed fields as in Figure 4, but on the standardized MJJ SSTanomaly averaged over the SEP region. We defined this time series as the SPMM index. After the

281 regime shift, the general patterns of the regressed fields, as expected, were almost identical to those 282 regressed onto the YECE SST index because the two indices were coherent during this period, as 283 shown in Figure 2b. The SPMM tends to render an El Nino-like pattern before the regime shift, as 284 expected from previous studies (Figures 5a and b). The convergence of regressed winds east of 285 150°E is accompanied by reinforced precipitation and warm SST anomalies over the central to 286 eastern equatorial Pacific (Figure 5a-c). Concurrently, a subtropical high-pressure system 287 juxtaposed with robust depressed precipitation has appeared in the western North Pacific. This 288 spatial structure has a typical southwest-northeast tilted wNPSH pattern, whose northern rim 289 delimits the southern boundary of the YECS around 30°N, implying a limited influence of the 290 equatorial signature on the YECS SST anomalies.

291 [21] Owing to the similarity between the SPMM and ENSO, studies on the meridional modes have 292 devoted substantial efforts to remove the ENSO signals, for instance, by adopting linear regression 293 to separate the cold tongue index from the reanalysis dataset (Chiang and Vimont 2004; Min et al. 294 2017); by coupling a slab ocean mixed layer model to remove oceanic dynamics, thus pulling apart 295 the Bjerknes feedback and Rossby wave adjustments (Zhang et al. 2014a); by prescribing 296 climatological winds which have no anomalous ENSO-related forcing to the ocean model (Larson 297 et al. 2018; Zhang et al. 2021). We do not attempt to remove the oceanic dynamics, and the ENSO-298 like signature before the regime shift is unsurprising. However, the independent SPMM pattern 299 after the regime shift is quite intriguing. The obvious emergence of the SPMM signature in recent 300 years might hint that the amplitude of the canonical ENSO might have been substantially reduced 301 after the early 2000s, as several articles have argued (e.g., McPhaden 2012; Kohyama et al. 2017; 302 Li et al. 2019). This hypothesis is further investigated in the following section.

304 *3.4 SPMM-related modes before and after the regime shift*

305 [22] To investigate what has changed systematically in the tropical Pacific and western North 306 Pacific, an SVD analysis was applied to a cross-covariance matrix between the MJJ SST in the 307 domain of the tropical Pacific (20°S-20°N/140°E-70°W) and the MJJ precipitation in the western 308 Pacific (20°S-50°N/110°E-150°W) to extract the leading variability for the respective periods by 309 following Yim et al. (2008). Figure 6 illustrates the SPMM-related SVD modes and their 310 corresponding principal components: the primary mode for the period before the regime shift and 311 the third mode for the period after the regime shift based on the fact that the SPMM index covaried 312 with the PC1s for the early period and the PC3 for the recent period (see Figures 6b and 6e). The 313 correlations between the SPMM index and SST PC1 for the early period and SST PC3 for the 314 recent period are -0.61 and 0.78, respectively; these correlations are significant at a 95% 315 confidence level.

316 [23] The SST spatial pattern of the primary mode during the early years had a cold tongue pattern 317 that extended from the equatorial eastern Pacific, indicating this mode was also related to the EP 318 El Niño (i.e., the correlation between the SST PC1 and Nino3 index was -0.98), and its 319 corresponding rainfall pattern was a typical southwest-northeast tilted pattern of the wNPSH. The 320 correlation between the principal components of the SST and precipitation was 0.92, suggesting a 321 strong coupling between the EP El Niño-like pattern and precipitation over the western North 322 Pacific. Besides, the analogy between Figures 6a and 4b might demonstrate that the EP El Niño-323 related wNPSH partially determined the East Asian summer monsoon during the period before the 324 regime shift in agreement with previous findings such as those by Yim et al. (2009) and Wang et al. (2013). This primary EP El Niño-wNPSH coupling mode explains approximately half (48.5%)
of the square covariance between the two fields.

327 [23] The primary mode for the period 2003–2020 was also an El Niño-like pattern, but with extra 328 loading in the central equatorial Pacific, and its corresponding rainfall pattern changed with 329 increased precipitation sitting over the western Pacific warm pool instead of over the wNPSH 330 region, as reported by Yim et al. (2008) (not shown). Noteworthy was a substantial decrease in the 331 square covariance: the SVD1 during the recent period only accounted for 31.0% of the square 332 covariance between the two time series, which was an approximately 20% decrease in the 333 explained percentage by the primary mode during the period before the regime shift. The SPMM-334 related pattern appeared in the third mode during the recent period (Figure 7d-f). While this mode's 335 contribution to the total variability was 14.3%, a robust correlation higher than 0.80 between the 336 PCs of SST and precipitation demonstrated a close coupling between the SST over the SEP and 337 the rainfall in the western North Pacific. Intriguingly, the rainfall pattern of SVD3 (Figure 7d) had 338 a meridionally dipole pattern in the western tropical Pacific and depressed precipitation over the 339 YECS, which was quite similar to the regressed rainfall patterns on the YECS SST index (Figure 340 5e) and the SPMM index (Figure 6e). This result indicates that the ocean and atmospheric signals 341 appearing in the western North Pacific, including the YECS, could be a large-scale atmospheric 342 response to tropical precipitation changes (Deser and Phillips 2006; He et al. 2011; Wu et al. 2015; 343 Liu et al. 2018) triggered by tropical SST and amplified by the ocean-atmospheric dynamic 344 coupling (Okumura 2013; Song and Zhang 2016). The SVD analysis and regression analysis in 345 Figure 5 and previous articles, collectively confirm that the SPMM had an ENSO-like signature, 346 but for the period 1982–2002. The situation seems to have changed throughout the early 2000s.

The SPMM appeared as an independent mode, as the dominant El Niño signature has been substantially weakened, which hints that the mean state of the tropical Pacific might be a La Niñalike condition, as we will discuss in the next section.

- 350
- 351 4. Discussion
- 352 4.1. La Niña-like state during the post-2003 regime

353 [25] To elucidate the systematic change in the tropical Pacific during the early 2000s, we have 354 estimated the epoch differences between two periods, i.e., the recent period of 2003–2020 minus 355 the early period of 1981–2002 for SST, zonal winds at an 850 hPa level, and precipitation (Figure 356 7). As the YECS summer SST is closely related to the SEP anomalies for extended months, as 357 depicted in Figure 3, we show the mean differences averaged for the months from February to 358 July. These spatial patterns of epoch difference are not sensitive to the selection of the months. 359 The SST difference shows that the western tropical Pacific warms more than the eastern tropical 360 Pacific, with the highest warming of up to 0.8°C being located in the southwestern tropical Pacific 361 centered around the dateline. Weak but cold anomalies appear over the cold tongue region and the 362 SEP off the coast of Chile, and over the northeast subtropical Pacific off the Californian coast 363 toward the central equatorial Pacific. This SST difference pattern coincided with trade winds that 364 strengthened by 12.5% relative to the period before the regime shift (the red box in Figure 7b). 365 The zonal precipitation gradient was also enhanced by 22.3% (Figure 7c) around the central 366 equatorial Pacific. These results reflect that the Walker Circulation was intensified for the post-367 2003 period relative to the previous period, suggesting a La Niña-like mean state. The shift from

an El Niño-like to a La Niña-like regime might have been related to the resultant modulation of
 the weakened air-sea thermodynamic coupling over the SEP during the post-2003 era.

370 [26] The strength of El Niño events tends to fluctuate substantially, while that of La Niña remains 371 flat (Kohyama et al. 2017). This nonlinear characteristic of the ENSO means that an inactive ENSO 372 for a specific period can be understood as the tropical mean state being rectified to become La 373 Nina-like, and vice versa (An and Jin 2004). The ENSO activity, therefore, can be illustrated with 374 a sliding standard deviation for the ENSO indices, as demonstrated by Kohyama et al. (2017). 375 Figure 8 presents the February to July mean Nino3 SST index (the grey line) and its nine-year 376 sliding standard deviation (the black dashed line). The sliding standard deviation of the Nino3 377 index for the early years was higher than 0.7, and then reduced drastically to around 0.3 during the 378 early 2000s, indicating that the background tropical Pacific state shifted suddenly from an El Niño-379 like to a La Niña-like regime. This result is consistent with the explained squared covariance by 380 the SVD1, showing that the EP El Niño-like pattern was substantially reduced from 48.5% to 31%, 381 as noted in the above section.

382 [26] The shift from the El Niño-like to the La Niña-like regime might have been related to the 383 resultant modulation of the weakened air-sea thermodynamic coupling over the SEP during the 384 post-2003 era. Song and Zhang (2016) prescribed a cold SST anomaly within the SEP to remedy 385 the double ITCZ problem that has frequently emerged in coupled climate models. Their 386 experiment consequently projected an anomalous descending motion via the southeasterly wind 387 anomalies over the SEP which concurrently decreased precipitation, and then, in turn, intensified 388 sea surface cooling through increased evaporation. The interaction of cold SST anomalies with 389 low-level off-equatorial winds over the SEP could have constituted the positive feedback and 390 reflected a forcing role of the cold SEP SST anomaly in driving the La Niña-like mean state as a 391 low-frequency response. This long-term modulation of the ENSO-mean state reminds us of a 392 positive to negative phase shift of the Interdecadal Pacific Oscillation (IPO), the leading mode of 393 the TPDV (Okumura et al. 2017), in around the year 2000 (e.g., Dong and Dai 2016; Hu et al. 394 2017; Li et al. 2019). The decadal phase shift inferred from our analysis is also consistent with 395 evidence from previous studies that have demonstrated an overall weakening of the 396 thermodynamical variability in the eastern equatorial Pacific in recent years (Hu et al. 2017), 397 including the decreased transport of oceanic heat from the western warm pool region to the eastern 398 equatorial Pacific via suppressed oceanic Kelvin waves in association with both a weakening of 399 the low-level westerly winds (or a westward shift of the atmosphere-ocean coupling) in the central 400 and eastern tropical Pacific (Li et al. 2019), reduced oceanic thermocline feedback (Guan and 401 McPhaden, 2016), and intensified thermal stratification within the upper ocean in the eastern 402 equatorial Pacific (Imada et al. 2016; Hu et al. 2017; Kohyama et al. 2017). It is noteworthy that 403 the standard deviation of the Nino3 SST index has gradually bounced back in recent years, as 404 shown in Figure 9, presumably reflecting the gradually weakening YECS-SEP coupling in recent 405 years, as shown in Figure 2c. The hypothesis that the tropical Pacific mean state could determine 406 the interhemispheric teleconnection might be in line with the asymmetric teleconnection of the 407 ENSO forcing associated with the IPO's phase (Dong and Dai 2015; Dong et al. 2018), which 408 needs further research.

411 [27] An important question that needs to be answered is how the air-sea variability signal in the 412 SEP could have crossed the equator and reached the extratropics of the Northern Hemisphere in 413 recent years. Many previous studies have argued that interhemispheric teleconnection is likely 414 determined through modulating precipitation around the ITCZ (e.g., Trenberth et al. 1998; Deser 415 and Phillips 2006; Zhang et al. 2014b; Ding et al. 2015; Wu et al. 2015; Liu et al. 2018). Besides, 416 the fact that the ITCZ is located north of the equator at around 7°N for most of the year allows the 417 propagation of the SEP signals onto the central to western equator through the WES and shallow 418 wind-driven meridional circulation (Gu and Philander 1997; Okumura 2013; Zhang et al. 2014a;b), 419 thus likely resulting in convective precipitations in the western tropical Pacific. Figure 9 shows 420 the lagged regression of anomalous components for convective (left column) and large-scale 421 (right) precipitation onto winter (JFM) mean SST anomalies in the SEP region. The selection of 422 the JFM months is based on the significant relationship of the MJJ mean SEP SST anomalies to 423 one for these months, as illustrated in Figure 3. As we expected from the SVD analysis above, 424 increased precipitation throughout the region between the ITCZ and SPCZ, along with the 425 accompanying compensated suppressed precipitation over the convergence zones, are remarkable 426 in the regressed fields for the convective component (see Figures 9a-j). The maximum convective 427 precipitation anomalies appeared for a one- or two-month lagged field (Figure 9b-c) and seemed 428 to last until the summer months (Figure 9e). This result demonstrates that the convective 429 precipitation changes in the western tropical Pacific followed SST variance within the SEP by one 430 or two months. As an extratropic response to the convective precipitation over the tropical Pacific, 431 the large-scale precipitation component appeared to decrease over the western North Pacific, and 432 finally over the YECS in the spring and summer months (Figures 9i-k).

433 [28] To explore the detailed role of the atmospheric bridge of tropical precipitation in transferring 434 the SEP signals to the Northern Pacific, we quantitatively portray the precipitation index as the difference in the standardized winter (JFM) average convective precipitation between the two 435 436 boxes, as shown in Figure 9a (red minus blue boxes). Figure 10 illustrates the regression fields of 437 the low-level (i.e., 1000 hPa) divergence anomaly of the winds with a superposed 850 hPa 438 geopotential height anomaly onto the winter SPMM index - the SST anomaly over the SEP - (left-439 hand column in Figure 10) and onto the precipitation index (right-hand column). It is immediately 440 apparent that the large-scale atmospheric responses to the SEP SST anomalies in the Northern 441 Hemisphere (Figure 10a) were quite analogous to those for the convective precipitation in the 442 tropical Pacific (Figure 10f) with negative geopotential height signals in the extra-tropics in both 443 hemispheres and a positive one over the western Pacific. This result hints that the precipitation 444 anomaly in the western tropical Pacific could have acted as an atmospheric bridge between the 445 SEP and the northwestern Pacific. A close inspection reveals that the response to the SPMM in the 446 Northern Hemisphere had a maximum for a one-month lagged field (Figure 10b), while the one 447 for the western tropical convective precipitation appeared with a zero-month lag. Our 448 interpretation is that the air-sea interactive signals over the SEP region seem to have reached the 449 equator in one month, then spontaneously modulated large-scale atmospheric circulation in the 450 Northern Hemisphere by altering the western tropical precipitation. This anomalous low-level 451 convergence (or upper tropospheric divergence) in the tropics and divergence in the subtropics, as 452 shown in Figure 10, could have acted as a Rossby wave source with an alternate stream function 453 emanating from the western Pacific over both hemispheres (Trenberth et al. 1998; Terray 2011;

454 Zhang et al. 2014a). This wave response will be discussed in a future paper based on linear455 baroclinic model experiments.

456 [29] An intriguing feature which comes from comparing the figures in the left-hand column with 457 those in the right-hand column in Figure 10, is that the regressed fields driven from the SST 458 anomaly over the SEP persisted for a longer period than those from the precipitation index over 459 the western tropical Pacific. This observation was due to the large thermal inertia of the ocean, 460 indicating an ocean-atmospheric thermodynamic coupling of the SEP SST anomaly (Zhang et al. 461 2014a; Min et al. 2017).

462

463 5. Summary and concluding remarks

464 [30] This paper was motivated by an attempt to explain why the reported ENSO-induced YECS 465 SST modulation was weak and a forcing region inconsistent in the literature. We have explored 466 this question by assuming a decadal change in the mean state of the tropical Pacific in around the 467 early 2000s and the existence of the ENSO's precursor, i.e., the meridional modes. Consistent with 468 these hypotheses, we found a shift in the decadal relationship between the summer (MJJ) mean 469 SST in the YECS and tropical Pacific anomalies for the period 1982–2020 (Figure 2).

[31] During the period before the early 2000s, a canonical EP El Niño-like signature was prevalent
and overwhelmed the air-sea interacted variability in the southeastern tropical Pacific (SEP) –
South Pacific Meridional Mode (SPMM); the ENSO-related western North Pacific Subtropical
High (wNPSH; Wang et al. 2013) seemed to partially regulate the meridional winds and
precipitation over the EASM region. This ENSO-related atmospheric modulation in the western
North Pacific, however, had an insignificant effect on the SST in the YECS. On the other hand,

476 during the post-2003 era, when the mean state of the equatorial Pacific reverted to being La Niño-477 like, the SPMM, characterized by an off-equatorial wind-induced SST anomaly associated with an 478 anomalous South Pacific subtropical high, appeared to be an independent mode from the ENSO. 479 We believe that the convective precipitation over the western tropical Pacific acted as an 480 atmospheric bridge to mediate this interhemispheric teleconnection and induced an upward motion 481 in the troposphere, resulting in increased convective precipitation between the ITCZ and SPCZ 482 regions and suppressed rainfall over these convergence zones. This convective forcing might have 483 rendered Rossby-wave patterns in the extratropical regions in both hemispheres (Trenberth et al. 484 1998), thus causing hemispheric symmetric patterns in geopotential height and precipitation fields, 485 as argued by Zhang et al. (2014a).

486 [32] The reason an apparently SST signature for the SPMM appeared over the YECS is unclear, 487 since the SPMM-related, most remarkable pressure system in the Northern Hemisphere was 488 located near the Aleutian Islands (Figure 4b). Compared to the deep open ocean, where intrinsic 489 variability is more important due to its large thermal inertia, the shallow water of the YECS (its 490 mean depth is only 75m) can increase its susceptibility to climate forcing. Despite the debatable 491 role of the discharged riverine waters on the YECS SST, the change in precipitation-induced 492 riverine waters associated with the SPMM might have amplified the atmospheric forced SST 493 variability, especially from May to July, through their horizontal advection as an instantaneous 494 response (Belkin 2009; Park et al. 2011; Kako et al. 2016).

[33] Our results have implications for the predictability of the strength of the EASM, which
modulates weather, intense summer precipitation, tropical storms, and marine heatwaves (Wang
et al. 2013; Zhang et al. 2016), thus having a broad socio-economic impact on the western North

498 Pacific. The robust relationship presented here between the two seasons preceding the SPMM and 499 the EASM, particularly during the inactive ENSO period, complements the well-known 500 relationship between the wNPSH and EASM (Wang et al., 2013) and could drive a more concrete, 501 empirical prediction model.

502 [36] The present study focused on the interannual variance of the SPMM due to a lack of reliable 503 multidecadal SST time series. Previous studies, however, have underlined the critical role of 504 stochastic forcing from weather systems in the Southern Hemisphere (Okumura 2013; Liguori and 505 Di Lorenzo 2019; Zhang et al. 2021), in tandem with a subsurface temperature anomaly driven by 506 the subtropical shallow meridional subduction in the SPMM region (Gu and Philander 1997; Imada 507 et al. 2016), on driving decadal ENSO-like variability, IPO. Kohyama and Hartmann (2017) 508 proposed a nonlinear ENSO warming suppression (NEWS) mechanism to show that La Nina-like 509 mean-state warming is also a possible candidate in a warm climate because of the nonlinear 510 rectification effect (Jin et al. 2003). If the NEWS mechanism is pertinent to future projections, 511 SPMM-YECS coupling may become more common with global warming (Ashok et al. 2012; 512 Imada et al. 2016). However, future projections are controversial in climate models. Therefore, the 513 following issues require attention: the future tendencies of the SPMM with global warming; the 514 decadal variation of the SPMM and its impact on climate such as the ENSO's flavor and the global 515 warming hiatus; the decadal evolution of the YECS-SPMM coupling; the cause-effect relationship 516 between the mean state in the tropical Pacific and the frequency of extreme El Nino events.

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527

528 Data availability

529 The data used in this work are available to download from their developers' or authorized websites.530

531 Declarations

532 Conflict of interest The authors declare no knowledge of any conficts of interest that could533 infuence the publication of this work.

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871 Figure S1. Time series of the surface temperature at the center of the Yellow and East China Seas. (a) Mean 872 surface temperature (solid line) with \pm one standard deviation (dashed lines) observed at a depth of 3 m 873 from the Ieodo Ocean Research Station (I-ORS; see Figure 1a for the location; Ha et al. 2019) for the period 874 2004–2016. (b) Observed surface temperature in 2010 from the I-ORS (black) and SSTs from the gridded 875 datasets, i.e., OISSTv2 (red) and OSTIA (blue), and (c) the differences between the gridded datasets and 876 the in-situ observation. The numbers in parentheses in (c) indicate the standard deviation between the SSTs 877 from the gridded data and the observed surface layer temperature from the I-ORS in 2010, respectively. 878 This comparison shows that both datasets are congruent with the in-situ observations (r > 0.99; Figure S1), 879 while the standard deviation for OISSTv2 from the observation (0.76°C) is somewhat lower than for the 880 OSTIA (0.87°C). The OSTIA dataset has had a higher horizontal resolution of 1/20° but a much shorter 881 data span since 2006 than OISSTv2. 882



884 Figure S2. Cross correlations of the YECS summer SST index with climate indices (i.e., Nino3, Nino34,

- Nino4, AMO, PDO) at seasonal leads/lags for the period 1982–2020. Every correlation is not significant at
- the 95% confidence level.
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