

A Precursory Signal of the Central Pacific El Niño Event: Eastern Pacific Cooling Mode

Tao Lingjiang

Fudan University

Duan Wansuo (✉ duanws@lasg.iap.ac.cn)

LASG, Institute of Atmospheric Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences

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**A precursory signal of the Central Pacific El Niño event: Eastern Pacific cooling
mode**

Tao Lingjiang,^{1,2} Duan Wansuo,^{2,3}

¹ *Department of Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences & Institute of Atmospheric Sciences, Fudan University,
Shanghai 200438, China*

² *LASG, Institute of Atmospheric Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, 100029 Beijing, China*

³ *University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, 100049 Beijing, China*

Corresponding author: Wansuo Duan, duanws@lasg.iap.ac.cn

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ABSTRACT

19 In recent decades, the tropical Pacific frequently experiences a new type of El Niño with
20 warming center in the central tropical Pacific (i.e., the CP-El Niño) with distinct global
21 climate effect to the traditional El Niño (i.e., EP-El Niño). Predicting the El Niño diversity is
22 still a huge challenge for climatologists partly due to the precursory signals of El Niño events
23 with different type is unclear. In the present study, a novel precursory signal that presents a
24 negative sea surface temperature anomaly in the eastern tropical Pacific (i.e., EP-cooling
25 mode) is revealed, which tends to evolve into a CP-El Niño event. The transition from the
26 EP-cooling mode to CP-El Niño is explained by the basin-scale air-sea coupling in the
27 tropical Pacific and teleconnections between the tropical and North Pacific. With the EP-
28 cooling mode as a predictor, the forecast skill for the CP-El Niño in hindcast experiments is
29 obviously improved by using regression models. The results in the present study are therefore
30 instructive for promoting a better understanding of El Niño diversity and predictability.

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33

34 **1. Introduction**

35 The El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) is recognized as one of the most prominent
36 interannual variabilities in the climate system (Philander 1983) and has been extensively
37 explored due to its profound global impacts [see the review by Wang (2019)]. After the
38 1990s, a new flavor of El Niño with the warming center in the central tropical Pacific
39 (hereafter referred to as CP-El Niño), which is different from the conventional El Niño with a
40 warming center in the eastern tropical Pacific (hereafter referred to as EP-El Niño), hoves
41 into view of researchers [see the review by Timmermann et al. (2018)]. Though the CP-El
42 Niño possesses a much smaller amplitude of sea surface temperature (SST) anomalies than
43 the EP-El Niño, their climate effects are comparable (Ashok et al. 2007). Therefore,
44 increasing efforts are focused on better understanding the dynamics of different El Niño
45 events. The EP-El Niño event has been suggested as a basin-scale air-sea coupling
46 phenomenon (Bjerknes 1969; Zebiak and Cane 1987), which can be well explained by the
47 fluctuation of thermocline and charge-recharge theory (Jin 1997). The CP-El Niño event is
48 more likely to be interpreted as resulting from the zonal advection feedback (Kug et al. 2009;
49 Yu and Kim 2010; Duan et al. 2014); in particular, it was observed to be associated with the
50 local development of wind and thermocline anomalies, thus suggesting a local air–sea
51 coupling phenomenon (Kao and Yu 2009).

52 Beyond looking at the dynamics of different types of El Niño formations, the
53 identification of the precursory signals is also vital to understand and predict El Niño
54 diversities. Some studies have suggested that the precursory signals of El Niño events with
55 different types originate from the extratropical Pacific (Ham et al. 2013; Ding et al. 2017;
56 You and Furtado 2017; Wang et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2019a, b). For instance, a dipole
57 structure of sea level pressure (SLP) variability over the North Pacific, known as the North

58 Pacific Oscillation (NPO; Rogers 1981), has the ability to lead a CP-El Niño event (Yu and
59 Kim 2011) through the “seasonal footprinting mechanism” (SFM) (Vimont et al. 2001,
60 2003a, b). Particularly, the NPO can impart a horseshoe SST footprint called the Victoria
61 Mode (VM; Bond et al. 2003, Ding et al. 2015b) onto the North Pacific ocean and influence
62 the SST anomaly (SSTA) in the central tropical Pacific. Thus, the CP-El Niño events
63 occurred frequently in recent decades as the NPO turns into dominant North Pacific climate
64 variability (Yeh et al. 2015). By contrast, the precursory signal of the EP-El Niño events is
65 associated with the south Pacific, e.g., the Pacific–South American (PSA) pattern (Mo 2000)
66 over the south Pacific that is found to have the potential to trigger an EP-warming event in
67 the tropical Pacific (Ding et al. 2015a).

68 Since extratropical climate variability is largely modulated by tropical SST variability
69 (Alexander et al. 2002; Yu and Kim 2011), it is therefore inferred that distinct precursors to
70 two types of El Niño may exist in the tropical Pacific. Several studies have reported that a
71 basin-scale deepened thermocline and positive SSTA in the eastern tropical Pacific are most
72 favorable for the generation of EP-El Niño events after 12 months (Mu et al. 2014; Hu and
73 Duan 2016). Capotondi and Sardeshmukh (2015) emphasized the two-season precursor of
74 thermocline anomalies to the formation of El Niño types; specifically, a deeper thermocline
75 in the central Pacific and a shallower thermocline in the eastern Pacific at a two-season lead-
76 time tend to induce a CP-El Niño event, while a reverse thermocline tends to lead to an EP-El
77 Niño. However, Yu and Kim (2010) focused on the evolution of the CP-El Niño and argued
78 that the generation of CP-El Niño does not depend on the thermocline while its decay does.
79 Obviously, the CP-El Niño precursory signal in the thermocline is still under debate.

80 The dispute regarding to the precursor of the CP-El Niño come partly from the artificial
81 definition of CP-El Niño itself. Many approaches have been proposed to separate EP-El Niño

82 and CP-El Niño events (Ashok et al. 2007; Kao and Yu 2009; Kug et al. 2009; Ren and Jin
83 2011; Sullivan et al. 2016), leading to varying outcomes for El Niño types. Thus, the different
84 precursors of CP-El Niño in some studies is attributable to the definition of El Niño
85 diversities that the authors adopted. To avoid this confusion, a consensus analysis is preferred
86 to classify the El Niño type and then to explore the common precursory signal of CP-El Niño
87 regardless the various definitions. In the present study, the CP-El Niño precursory signals in
88 the tropical Pacific is re-examined and analyzed with observations and model simulations.
89 Particularly, a novel CP-El Niño precursory signal, i.e., the SST cooling mode in the eastern
90 tropical Pacific (hereafter referred to as the EP-cooling mode) is reported to serve an optimal
91 condition for the onset of CP-El Niño. Then, hindcast experiments are conducted to confirm
92 the validity of the EP-cooling mode as a precursory signal for improving SST predictions
93 associated with CP-El Niño events.

94 The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the data and methods
95 that are used to explore the different precursory signals of the CP- and EP-El Niño. In Section
96 3, the EP-cooling mode as CP-El Niño precursor is investigated, followed by discussion in
97 Section 4 on the involved dynamics of the transition from the EP-cooling mode to the CP-El
98 Niño. In section 5, the effect of the previous SSTAs in the eastern tropical Pacific on the
99 ENSO prediction. The paper will end with a summary and discussion in Section 6.

100 **2. Data and Methods**

101 **2.1 Data Sets**

102 In the present study, observational/reanalysis monthly data are adopted to explore the
103 precursory signal of El Niño events. The monthly SST data are from the Met Office Hadley
104 Centre Sea Ice and Sea Surface Temperature (HadISST) dataset (Rayner et al. 2003); the
105 subsurface ocean data are from the Simple Ocean Data Assimilation (SODA, version 2.2.4)

106 (Carton and Giese 2008); and the surface atmospheric and heat flux data are derived from the
107 Twentieth Century Reanalysis (20CR) (Compo et al. 2011). All these data are linearly pre-
108 detrended and analyzed during the period from January 1900 to December 2010, which is
109 when the time series of the relevant data overlap. Anomalies of each physical variable field
110 are obtained on an interannual scale by subtracting the climatological monthly mean from the
111 above data, where the climatology is the climatological annual cycle derived from the
112 corresponding variable data. In addition, the model data that are outputted from the
113 preindustrial simulations by the Climate Model Intercomparison Project version 5 (CMIP5)
114 are also adopted to examine the precursory signal of CP-El Niño events.

115 **2.2 The definition of El Niño events with different types**

116 The El Niño events in the present study are identified as those with a three-month mean
117 of the Niño 3.4 index (i.e., the averaged SSTAs over the Niño 3.4 region) greater than or
118 equal to 0.5°C that persist for at least five consecutive months. As mentioned in the
119 introduction, the definitions of El Niño diversity vary. Here, five methods are adopted to
120 identify the types of El Niño by defining CP and EP indices (Ashok et al. 2007; Kug et al.
121 2009; Sullivan et al. 2016; Ren and Jin 2011; Kao and Yu 2009). In Kug et al. (2009), a CP-
122 El Niño year is defined as the El Niño year when Niño4 index is greater than Niño3 index in
123 the peak phase, where the Niño3 index is referred as EP index (EPI) and the Niño4 index is
124 regarded as CP index (CPI). In Ashok et al. (2007), the CPI is indicated by $\text{CPI} = T_1 - 0.5 \cdot$
125 $(T_2 + T_3)$, where T_1 is area-averaged SSTA over the central tropical Pacific ($165^{\circ}\text{E}\sim 140^{\circ}\text{W}$,
126 $10^{\circ}\text{S}\sim 10^{\circ}\text{N}$). T_2 and T_3 are respectively those over the eastern ($110^{\circ}\text{W}\sim 70^{\circ}\text{W}$, $15^{\circ}\text{S}\sim 5^{\circ}\text{N}$)
127 and western tropical Pacific ($125^{\circ}\text{E}\sim 145^{\circ}\text{E}$, $10^{\circ}\text{S}\sim 20^{\circ}\text{N}$). Ren and Jin (2011) proposed a
128 nonlinear indices based on the Niño3 and Niño4 indices as follows:

129 $\begin{cases} EPI = Nino3 - \alpha \cdot Nino4 \\ CPI = Nino4 - \alpha \cdot Nino3 \end{cases}$, where $\alpha = \begin{cases} \frac{2}{5}, & Nino3 \cdot Nino4 > 0 \\ 0, & otherwise \end{cases}$. Similarly, Sullivan et al.

130 (2016) use normalized Niño3 and Niño4 (denoted as Niño3n and Niño4n) to formulate CPI
131 and EPI, namely, $EPI = Nino3n - 0.5 \cdot Nino4n$, $CPI = Nino4n - 0.5 \cdot Nino3n$. From Kao
132 and Yu (2009), the CPI (EPI) is the principal component of leading mode in the tropical
133 Pacific that is filtered the linear effect of the SSTAs in the eastern (central) tropical Pacific.
134 According to above methods, we used their consensus results to determine the type of El
135 Niño. Then, a total of 17 CP-El Niño and 15 EP-El Niño events are obtained during the
136 period from January 1900 to December 2010 (see Table 1).

137 **2.3 Statistical Methods**

138 To highlight the important role of the precursory signal in promoting the onset of CP-El
139 Niño, the climate variability unrelated to the precursor should be verified to have little impact
140 on the development of the CP-El Niño. In the present study, a filter technique is adopted to
141 obtain the climate variability that is unrelated to the CP-El Niño precursor. This filter
142 technique is described in Eq. (1), and the linear effect of $x(t)$ on $y(t)$ can be removed as
143 follows:

$$144 \quad y_{-x}(t) = y(t) - (\alpha + \beta \cdot x(t)) \quad (1)$$

145 where $y_{-x}(t)$ is the residual variability of $y(t)$ after removing the linear effect of $x(t)$ and α and
146 β are obtained from the regression analysis between $x(t)$ and $y(t)$. Evidently, the residual
147 variability $y_{-x}(t)$ is unrelated to $x(t)$, where if $x(t)$ is a precursor, then $y_{-x}(t)$ is the climate
148 variability that is part of $y(t)$ but unrelated to $x(t)$.

149 The significance of the correlation is determined using a two-tailed Student's test, which
150 involves the effective degree of freedom N_e proposed by Bretherton et al. (1999).

151
$$N_e = N \frac{1-r_x r_y}{1+r_x r_y}, \quad (2)$$

152 where r_x and r_y are the autocorrelation of variables x and y with lag 1, respectively, and N is
153 the length of the variables. The composite analysis that confirms the result indicated by the
154 correlation analysis is also performed.

155

156 **3. Precursory signal of the CP-El Niño events**

157 To classify the EP- and CP-El Niño life cycles in the observation, we conduct a lagged
158 correlation of the wintertime CP-El Niño index (CPI) and EP-El Niño index (EPI) with the
159 SST and wind anomalies in the tropical Pacific (see Figures 1 and 2), where the EPI and CPI
160 are obtained based on the definitions mentioned in section 2. It is easily seen that the initial
161 warming of both EP- and CP-El Niño events, in accordance with the previous studies (e.g.,
162 Wang et al. 2019; Yang et al. 2021), start from the western Pacific warming since the small
163 perturbation of SST in the warm pool are easy to influence the atmosphere and trigger west
164 wind anomalies. Then, this western Pacific warming can be propagated eastward by the
165 ocean current and amplified by the fluctuations of the thermocline. That is, the western
166 Pacific warming tends to develop into an El Niño event via the zonal advection feedback and
167 thermocline feedback processes. However, both EP- and CP-El Niño events can start from
168 the WP warming, the WP warming therefore cannot act as an effective precursor to identify
169 the El Niño types.

170 In fact, much early precursory signals of EP- and CP-El Niño events can be identified
171 from the Figures 1 and 2. Specifically, the early precursor of EP-El Niño event is associated
172 with the basin-scale cooling event that could trigger western Pacific warming and subsequent
173 Bjerknes mode [also see Bjerknes (1969) and Yu and Fang (2018)]. As the warm water

174 accumulates westward, the eastern Pacific of EP-El Niño is so charged that it leads to a
175 strong discharge. The positive SSTA starts to decay rapidly and evolves into a double-year
176 central Pacific cooling event again (Hu et al. 2014). Differed to the EP-El Niño, the early
177 precursory signal of CP-El Niño is significantly related to a localized cooling event by 2
178 years ahead, i.e., a negative SSTA mode in the eastern tropical Pacific (hereafter referred to
179 as the EP-cooling mode). What is worth noting is that the finding is robust for the different
180 methods classifying types of El Niño. Therefore, a hypothesis is that the EP-cooling mode
181 may be a precursory signal (at the two-year lead) of the CP-El Niño, which is different from
182 the initial warm signal with a one-year lead time in the western-central tropical Pacific for the
183 EP- and CP-El Niño.

184 To confirm the validity of the precursory EP-cooling mode of the CP-El Niño in
185 identifying types of El Niño events in advance, we examine whether the tropical Pacific
186 experienced an EP-cooling mode before each of the El Niño events. Here, the EP-cooling
187 mode is defined as a negative and cooler SSTA in the eastern Pacific ($110^{\circ}\text{W}\sim 80^{\circ}\text{W}$,
188 $5^{\circ}\text{S}\sim 5^{\circ}\text{N}$) than the central tropical Pacific ($175^{\circ}\text{W}\sim 110^{\circ}\text{W}$, $5^{\circ}\text{S}\sim 5^{\circ}\text{N}$) from January-June. It
189 is found that the majority of (88.2%) CP-El Niño events were evolved from the EP-cooling
190 mode at 1-2 years lead time during 1900-2010 (see Table 1). Moreover, 67% of EP-El Niño
191 events were unrelated to the previous EP-cooling mode. It is indicated that the EP-cooling
192 mode is a reliable precursory signal for CP-El Niño. This information may provide important
193 insights for classifying the type of upcoming El Niño event in advance.

194 Due to the limitation of the short period of the observation data, the model output from
195 the CMIP5 experiments are analyzed as supplementary. Since current models still exhibit
196 large biases in EP- and CP-El Niño simulations as well as their precursors (Taschetto et al.
197 2014; Wang et al. 2009), we only focus on the changes in the El Niño warming center

198 preceded by central Pacific cooling (CP-cooling) and EP-cooling modes to indicate whether a
199 CP- or EP-El Niño will occur. A heat center index (HCI) is employed to quantify the position
200 of the warming center of the SSTA as follows (Hu and Fedorov 2018):

$$201 \quad \text{HCI} = \frac{\sum lT(l)}{\sum T(l)}, \quad (3)$$

202 where l is the longitude within 160-90°W and T is the averaged SSTA within 5°S to 5°N.
203 Since the warming center of SSTA is only considered in the present study, $T(l)$ with negative
204 values is set to zero to avoid the illusory impact of a negative SSTA on the determination of
205 HCI.

206 The changes in the HCI of the El Niño events from each model are displayed in Figure
207 3. It can be seen that 21 out of 26 models show that the location of the warming centers for
208 the El Niño events originated from the EP-cooling mode are more west than those from the
209 CP-cooling mode (Figure 3). It is indicated that the previous negative SSTAs in the eastern
210 tropical Pacific (i.e., the EP-cooling mode) favor future central Pacific SST warming. These
211 model results further confirm the fact derived from the observation that the EP-cooling mode
212 is a useful precursory signal of CP-El Niño-like events.

213

214 **4. Mechanism to the precursory signal EP-cooling mode transitioning to CP-El Niño** 215 **event**

216 The previous section has fully corroborated the fact that the EP-cooling mode is the
217 precursory signal of the CP-El Niño event, while the processes involved with such evolution
218 is unclear. Therefore, in this section, we will examine how the cooling signal evolve into to a
219 CP-El Niño event from the perspective of the air-sea interaction.

220 **4.1 How does the EP-cooling mode evolve into CP-El Niño?**

221 The transition from the SST cooling signal to the CP-El Niño-like event is possibly
222 bridged by the subtropical Pacific warming that is induced by basin-scale easterly wind
223 anomalies. Figure 4 displays the air-sea evolution associated with the CPI proposed by Ashok
224 et al. (2007) as an example (Note: the CP-El Niño related air-sea evolution is similar when
225 using different CPIs). The EP-cooling mode imposing on the climatological ocean enhances
226 the zonal gradient of the equatorial SST, thereby accelerating the Walker circulation. Thus,
227 southeasterly wind anomalies prevail over the equatorial Pacific (Figure 4b), leading to
228 anomalous mass transport towards the subtropical Pacific and western tropical Pacific.
229 Infected by such V-shaped warming in the tropical subsurface, the tropical Pacific
230 experiences a “Pacific meridional mode” (PMM; Chiang and Vimont 2004)-like air-sea
231 coupling pattern that presents a dipole SSTA coupled with southwest wind anomalies in the
232 eastern tropical Pacific (see Figure 4c). The positive SSTA of the PMM can be maintained
233 and amplified through positive feedback known as the wind-evaporation-SST (WES)
234 feedback (Xie and Philander 1994). Particularly, the anomalous westerly over the subtropical
235 Pacific that acts to slack the trade wind tends to suppress evaporation and warm up the ocean,
236 giving rise to the development of SSTA which will in turn feedback to the atmospheric and
237 enhance the wind anomaly. The positive SSTA and anomalous westerly gradually invade into
238 the central equatorial Pacific, leading to a strong zonal advection feedback, of which
239 conditions are favorable for the formation of CP-El Niño events. Finally, the EP-cooling
240 mode disappears and is replaced by a CP-El Niño-like event.

241 The EP-cooling mode can also influence the atmospheric state over the North Pacific,
242 thus favoring the development of SSTAs in the central tropical Pacific through the oceanic
243 path. To examine the relationship between the precursory state in the tropical Pacific ocean
244 and the North Pacific atmosphere, a cross-correlation is performed between the SSTAs

245 (meridionally averaged over 5°S-5°N) along the equatorial Pacific in April-May-June (when
246 the precursory signal of the EP-cooling mode usually arises) and the SLP anomalies (zonally
247 averaged over 170°W-160°W) over the North Pacific in February-March (when the NPO
248 peaks) in the next year. As shown in Figure 5a, the SSTAs in the eastern equatorial Pacific
249 (EP-SST) are significantly correlated with the SLP over the North Pacific, presenting a
250 negative correlation with the area north of 30 °N and a positive correlation to the south. This
251 means that the NPO is related to the previous negative EP-SST. However, since the EP-SST
252 is directly link to the ENSO signals, one may wonder whether ENSO or EP-cooling mode can
253 trigger the NPO event. To this end, the correlation is conducted between the SLP and the EP-
254 SST, where the latter is removed by the liner effect of the Niño3.4 indices. Figure 5b clearly
255 shows that the NPO is significantly related to the previous signals in the eastern tropical
256 Pacific. That is, the EP-cooling mode has the potential to trigger a NPO-like atmospheric
257 mode off the tropical Pacific through teleconnection mechanism, where the NPO can induce
258 the occurrence of the CP-El Niño (Yu and Kim 2011; Pegion and Alexander 2013; Yeh et al.
259 2015).

260 We also conduct composites of the EP-cooling mode and its following air-sea states to
261 verify the former mentioned possible mechanisms. Results are shown in Figures 6 and 7.
262 Consistent with the correlation analyses, the occurrence of the EP-cooling mode excites
263 basin-scale east wind anomalies (Figures 6a and 7b), leading to the accumulation of ocean in
264 the western tropical and the transportation of warm water to the subtropical Pacific (Figures
265 6b and 6d, near 10°N). Meanwhile, the EP-cooling mode can act on the SLP in the north
266 tropical Pacific in the spring of the next year and warm up the northeastern part of the north
267 tropical Pacific as a VM-like footprint (Figure 7d). Such warming signal gradually invade
268 into the central tropical Pacific leading to a CP-El Niño event (Figure 7f). Combined the

269 former composite and correlation analyses, it shows that the transition from the EP-cooling
270 mode to the CP-El Niño event is related to the basin-scale air-sea coupling in the tropical
271 Pacific and its induced NPO in the north tropical Pacific.

272 In fact, not all NPOs can force the ocean to influence the central tropical Pacific (e.g.,
273 2002 CP-El Niño event), while EP-cooling-induced NPOs do exert such influence. It is noted
274 that the footprint over the ocean imprinted by the NPO, i.e., the VM, is an important
275 interannual variability of the SST in the North Pacific that transmits the information of the
276 North Pacific to the tropical Pacific. To elucidate the role of the VM that is related to the EP-
277 cooling mode, the lag correlations with the VM index (VMI; i.e., the second principle of
278 SSTA in the north tropical Pacific) and the VMI unrelated to the EP-cooling mode
279 (calculated by Eq. (1)) are calculated with the SST, surface wind, latent heat flux (LHF) and
280 subsurface temperature anomalies (see Figure 3). As shown in Figure 8a, the VM is overlaid
281 by basin-scale cyclone anomalies and possesses a positive SSTA in the North Pacific and a
282 negative SSTA in the Northwest Pacific, which is consistent with the result of Ding et al.
283 (2015b). The south band of the VM with the positive SSTA interacts with the corresponding
284 anomalous southwesterly and tends to span southwestward, finally forcing the warming SST
285 to invade the tropical Pacific through WES feedback, as indicated by the strong positive
286 correlation between the VMI and LHF in the subtropical Pacific (see Figure 8c). Then, this
287 warming SST is further forced by the VM-related equatorial wind anomaly and gradually
288 yields CP-El Niño (Figure 8e). When removing the linear effect of the EP-cooling mode, the
289 structure of the VM changes and the CP warming event does not occur (Figures 8b, 8d and
290 8f). Specifically, the correlation of the VM to the SSTA in the Northwest Pacific is weaker
291 when the linear effect of the EP-cooling mode is filtered, indicating that the zonal gradient of
292 the SSTA in the subtropical Pacific induced by the VM is reduced, which results in a

293 decrease in westerly anomalies over the central North Pacific. Thus, as reflected in Figures 8d
294 and 8f, the strength of the WES feedback that maintains the development of the SSTA is
295 largely weakened as the ocean obtains less heat flux. In a weak WES feedback system, the
296 positive SSTA of the VM and relevant westerly anomalies that tend to extend into the central
297 equatorial Pacific are delayed. In this situation, there is almost no warming signal along the
298 equatorial Pacific in fall (Figure 8f) and the CP-El Niño event fails to take shape.

299 For comparison, the composites of EP-cooling related and unrelated VM are
300 implemented, which are shown in Figures 9 and 10, respectively. In this study, the VM
301 events are defined as when the VMI is larger than the half of its standard deviation during
302 FMA. The composite VM events that are associated with the previous EP-cooling mode
303 exhibit significant positive SSTAs and west wind anomalies in the north tropical Pacific
304 (Figure 9c). This kind of VM acts to warm up the central tropical Pacific at the end year of
305 VM (Figure 9d). In contrast, the composite VM events without the previous EP-cooling mode
306 possess much weaker SSTA than the EP-cooling mode related VM events (Figures 9c and
307 10c). Hence, such weak VM is not strong enough to influence the central tropical Pacific and
308 offset the tropical cooling signal. From the above, it is known that the EP-cooling mode is an
309 important preceding factor to enhance the linkage between the VM and CP-El Niño events.

310 **4.2 Why a CP-cooling mode cannot lead to a CP-El Niño?**

311 Since the EP-cooling mode can evolve into a CP-El Niño event through tropical air-sea
312 coupling and teleconnection between the tropical and North Pacific, it naturally leads us to
313 question why a CP-cooling-like SSTA pattern does not produce such an effect.

314 According to the lag-correlation analysis (Figure 5), the lagged negative SLP anomalies
315 in the high latitudes tend to shift equatorward in response to the movement of the equatorial
316 SSTA from the eastern Pacific to the western Pacific. Hence, the negative SSTA in the

317 central tropical Pacific is unable to trigger a NPO but favors the formation of a negative
318 Aleutian low. When we filter the effect of the EP-SST on the Niño3.4, we find the residual
319 Niño3.4 indices still present significant correlations to the SLP anomalies over the North
320 Pacific (Figure 5c). To better describe the distinct effect of EP-cooling and CP-cooling on the
321 North Pacific, the composites of the air-sea evolution induced by the CP-cooling and EP-
322 cooling modes are conducted and displayed in Figure 7. The CP-cooling triggered
323 atmospheric variability is significantly differed to that induced by the EP-cooling. For the
324 CP-cooling mode, the central tropical Pacific cooling cooperated with the anticyclone flow
325 over the North Pacific (i.e., negative Aleutian low mode) persist for one year (see Figures 7a
326 and 7c). Without the blessing of the positive SSTAs in the eastern subtropical Pacific, the
327 CP-El Niño events hardly occur (see Figure 7e).

328 The response of tropical wind anomalies to the CP-cooling is also different from that to
329 the EP-cooling mode. The CP-cooling tends to promote anomalous divergence of surface
330 wind in the central tropical Pacific (Figure 7a). Then, the CP-cooling-induced westerly
331 anomalies in turn lead to ocean transport in the eastern Pacific converging to the equator, thus
332 triggering the upwelling Rossby wave off the eastern equatorial Pacific (Figure 11a). This
333 kind of cooling wave transmits westward and acts to maintain the negative SSTA in the
334 central Pacific. Therefore, a CP-cooling event (i.e., CP-La Niña) usually persists to the next
335 year (Hu et al. 2014) and then disappears (Figure 7e). Although the upwelling Rossby wave
336 is also found in the EP-cooling case, this wave is delayed compared with the CP-cooling case
337 as it is a kind of reflected Kelvin wave and a part of the wave energy is dissipated (Figure
338 11b). Thus, the cooling wave has little effect on the subtropical Pacific that is occupied by
339 anomalously warm water. Above all, the CP-cooling mode does not favor a transition to a
340 CP-El Niño event while the EP-cooling mode does.

341

342 **5. Hindcast experiments of ENSO with the SSTAs in the eastern tropical Pacific as a**
343 **predictor**

344 The above results have shown that the EP-cooling mode can serve as a useful precursory
345 signal of CP-El Niño events rather than EP-El Niño events, which may indicate that the
346 leading SSTAs in the eastern tropical Pacific are a useful predictor to improve the ENSO
347 prediction as well as the CP-El Niño predictions. To confirm this inference, a twin
348 experiment regarding the regression-based hindcast is carried out. Previous studies (e.g.,
349 Fang and Mu 2018; Lai et al. 2018) have documented that wind and heat content indices are
350 useful predictors of ENSO events and constructed a linear regression air-sea coupling model
351 as in Eq. (4) for ENSO predictions.

352 Model 1: $Nino^m = \alpha \cdot ZW^{MAM} + \beta \cdot HC^{MAM} + \varepsilon.$ (4)

353 where $Nino^m$ is the predicted Niño index (i.e., Niño3, Niño4, or Niño3.4 index) in month m ,
354 ZW^{MAM} and HC^{MAM} represent the springtime (i.e., March-April-May) zonal wind anomaly
355 over the western tropical Pacific (averaged over the region 150°E–160°W, 10°S–10°N) and
356 equatorial thermocline fluctuation (defined as a depth of 20°C sea water temperature
357 averaged in region 120°E–80°W, 2°S–2°N), respectively. The relevant coefficients α, β and ε
358 are optimally obtained by training Model-1 from 1960-2010. Now, we include the leading
359 SST signal of the eastern tropical Pacific in Model 1 with training from 1960-2010 and
360 formulate Model-2 as shown in Eq. (5).

361 Model 2: $Nino^m = \alpha \cdot ZW^{MAM} + \beta \cdot HC^{MAM} + \gamma \cdot EP^{prev} + \varepsilon,$ (5)

362 where EP^{prev} is the leading SSTA (defined as the SSTA averaged over the region $110^{\circ}W$ –
363 $70^{\circ}W$, $5^{\circ}S$ – $5^{\circ}N$ during the last year). These predictor (i.e., ZW^{MAM} , HC^{MAM} , and EP^{prev}) are
364 independent of each other, with correlations less than 0.2 at 99% confidence.

365 Note that the formulated Model 1 is demonstrated to possess high skills in ENSO
366 predictions. Here, a comparison between Models 1 and 2 shows that the leading SST signal
367 of the eastern tropical Pacific can further improve the prediction skill of the SSTA in the
368 central tropical Pacific, as indicated by the correlation of the wintertime Niño4 index
369 increasing from 0.65 to 0.72 (see Figures 12b and 12e). For the Niño3 index, the correlation
370 only increases from 0.76 to 0.77 (see Figures 1a and 12d). In contrast, the prediction skills
371 towards the CPI is increased by nearly 25% from 0.43 to 0.45. Evidently, the leading SST
372 signal in the eastern tropical Pacific is useful for improving the ENSO prediction skill,
373 especially for the CP-El Niño events.

374 The effect role of previous EP-signal in ENSO predictions holds in the cross-validation
375 experiments. We firstly train the models using the data from the period 1960-1985 and
376 predict the SSTAs during 1985-2010 for validation. Then, models trained using the data from
377 1985-2010 is used to predict the SSTA during 1960-1985. The prediction skills are indicated
378 in Figure 13. Clearly, the Model 2 shows better performance than the Model 1 in ENSO
379 predictions during either the training periods or the predication periods, especially for the CPI
380 predictions. The cross-validation experiment sheds light on the important role of the leading
381 EP-SST in the prediction of SSTA in the central tropical Pacific as well as the prediction of
382 CP-El Niño events.

383

384 **6. Conclusions and Discussion**

385 The CP-El Niño, exerting a different global climate effect than the traditional type of El
386 Niño, occurs frequently since the twelve first century. Besides the strength of El Niño,
387 predicting its horizontal pattern is also important. While due to the limitation of climate
388 models, most models lose skills in predicting the El Niño type after one season (e.g., Hendon
389 et al. 2009; Tao et al. 2020), especially for the CP-El Niño prediction. One of main reasons is
390 the lack the knowledge of the origination of EP- and CP-El Niño and their evolution
391 mechanism.

392 To this end, the present study explores CP-El Niño precursory signals using the
393 reanalysis data. It is found that an EP-cooling mode that presents a negative SSTA in the
394 eastern tropical Pacific is much more likely to induce the onset of CP-El Niño events one
395 year later. By observing previous condition of the El Niño events whether are the EP-cooling
396 type or not in the tropical Pacific, the types of El Niño are well pre-identified. It is therefore
397 confirmed that the EP-cooling mode in the tropical Pacific can be served as a reliable
398 predictor for distinguishing the type of El Niño that will occur. Particularly, a linear
399 regression model is constructed to illustrate the validity of the precursory EP-cooling mode in
400 improving CP-El Niño predictions. Physically, the transition from the EP-cooling mode to a
401 CP-El Niño is shown to be related to the basin-scale easterly wind anomalies in the tropical
402 Pacific induced by the EP-cooling mode and the NPO-like atmospheric anomalies in the
403 North Pacific. The occurrence of the EP-cooling mode enhances the Walker circulation so
404 that a basin-scale easterly wind anomaly is triggered to transport warm water poleward and
405 westward. Then, the EP-cooling mode tends to induce a PMM-like SSTA pattern that has the
406 potential to generate the CP-El Niño event under the condition of strong zonal advection
407 feedback in the central western tropical Pacific. Moreover, the EP-cooling mode tends to

408 trigger the NPO-like atmospheric anomaly, which forces the Pacific ocean to warm up the
409 central tropical Pacific by the oceanic path of the VM.

410 An emphasis is that when filtering the effect of the EP-cooling mode, the residual VM
411 can hardly induce a CP-El Niño but tends to generate a weak EP-El Niño event due to the
412 weak WES feedback. The EP-cooling mode is clearly a better precursory signal of the CP-El
413 Niño than the VM or NPO because the latter two can also cause an EP-El Niño event (Ding et
414 al. 2017). What is noteworthy is that the CP-El Niño is more and more related to the
415 precursory EP-cooling mode in recent decades. As show in Figure 14, the connection
416 between the previous EP-signal and the SSTA in the central tropical Pacific is lowest during
417 1930-1960. While, in recent decades, the SSTA in the central tropical Pacific is significantly
418 correlated to the previous EP-signal, where the correlation is up to -0.6. Thus, a more
419 attention is suggested to be payed to the EP-cooling mode so as to improve the El Niño
420 diversity prediction in the situation of the global warming, especially considering the frequent
421 occurrences of CP-El Niño.

422 What favors for the EP-cooling mode is not concerned here but of interest still.
423 According to previous studies, the frequent occurrence of CP-El Niño events is associated
424 with a climatological La Niña-like background and a climatological shallower thermocline of
425 the tropical Pacific (Choi et al. 2011) due to the strong equatorial trade wind and cross-
426 equatorial wind over the eastern Pacific (Hu and Fedorov 2018). These climatological states
427 may provide a favorable background for the occurrence of the EP-cooling mode. Besides,
428 stochastic winds, such as synoptic-scale surface easterly wind surges, also play a role in the
429 formulation of EP-cooling events (Chiodi and Harrison 2015), which may provide another
430 possible source of EP-cooling mode. In any case, longer observation datasets and more
431 numerical experiments are still needed to verify the precursory EP-cooling mode and to

432 explore its origination in future studies. Despite the various horizontal type of El Niño, the
433 diversities in the strength and duration period of El Niño are equally important to be profound
434 studied as well as their specific precursors. These researches including the current study are
435 expected to be helpful for having insights into the variability of short-term climate and then
436 to promote the prediction levels.

437

438

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442 Intercomparison Project (CMIP) that provides the model output freely (downloaded from
443 <https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip5/>)

444

445 **Data availability statement**

446 The monthly SST data from the Met Office Hadley Centre Sea Ice and Sea Surface
447 Temperature (HadISST) dataset were obtained at the website <http://www.metoffice.gov.uk/hadobs/hadisst/data/download.html> (Rayner et al. 2003); the subsurface ocean data are
448 obtained from the Simple Ocean Data Assimilation (SODA, version 2.2.4) (Carton and Giese
449 2008; http://apdrc.soest.hawaii.edu/datadoc/soda_2.2.4.php); and the surface atmospheric and
450 heat flux data are derived from the Twentieth Century Reanalysis (20CR) (Compo et al.
451 2011; downloaded from
452 <http://iridl.ldeo.columbia.edu/SOURCES/NOAA/ESRL/PSD/rean20thcent/>). The Climate

454 Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP) are downloaded from [https://esgf-
456 node.llnl.gov/search/cmip5/](https://esgf-
455 node.llnl.gov/search/cmip5/))

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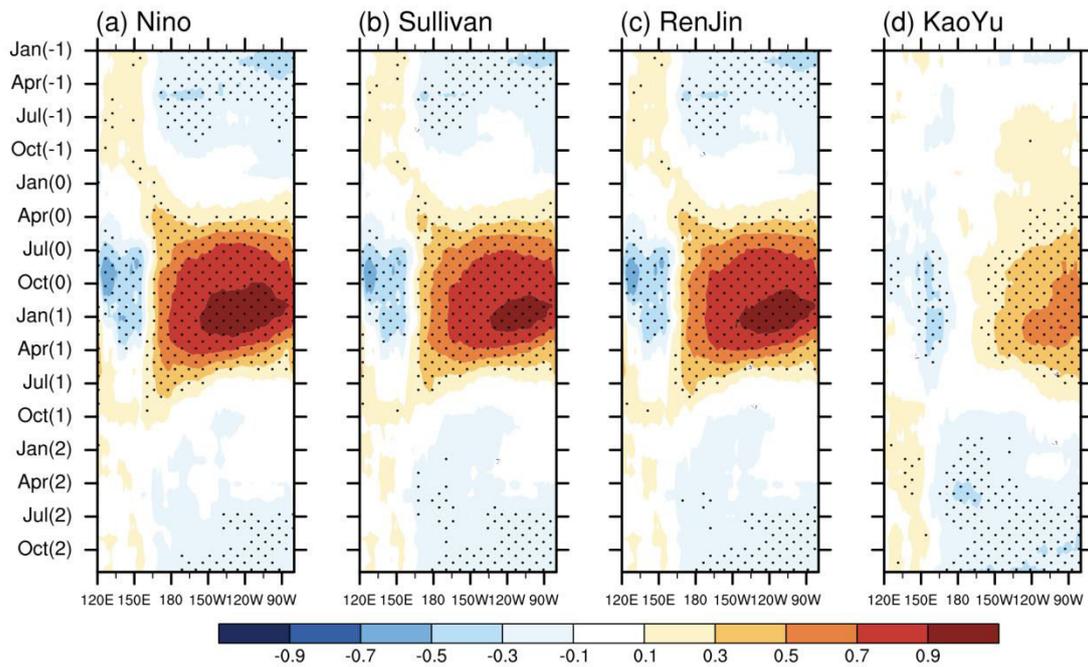
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TABLES

595 **Table 1** EP- and CP-El Niño events from 1900-2010 and their precursors. The types of El
 596 Niño are determined according to the consensus among El Niño types identified by Ashok et
 597 al. (2007), Ren and Jin (2011) and Kao and Yu (2009) according to their proposed El Niño
 598 type definitions. “Y” denotes yes if the tropical Pacific has experienced an EP-cooling-like
 599 mode preceding a CP type or a non-EP-cooling mode preceding an EP-El Niño event;
 600 otherwise, “N” is indicated. And “*” indicates that the EP-cooling mode occurs during the
 601 later winter in the year (-1) and spring in the year (0) of El Niño. It can be found that 15 out
 602 of 17 CP-El Niño events are denoted by “Y”, indicating that these CP-El Niño events have an
 603 EP-cooling precursory signal, which indicates that the majority of the CP-El Niño events
 604 evolved from the EP-cooling mode.

Year	Type	EP-cooling precursor	Year	Type	EP-cooling precursor
1902	CP	Y	1965	CP	Y
1904	CP	Y	1968	CP	Y
1905	EP	Y	1969	EP	N
1911	EP	Y	1972	EP	Y
1913	EP	Y	1976	EP	Y
1914	CP	Y	1977	CP	Y*
1918	EP	Y	1982	EP	N
1923	CP	Y	1986	EP	N
1925	CP	Y	1987	CP	Y
1930	EP	Y	1991	CP	Y
1939	EP	N	1994	CP	Y*
1940	CP	N	1997	EP	N
1941	EP	Y	2002	CP	Y
1951	EP	Y	2004	CP	Y
1957	CP	Y*	2006	EP	Y
1963	CP	Y	2009	CP	N

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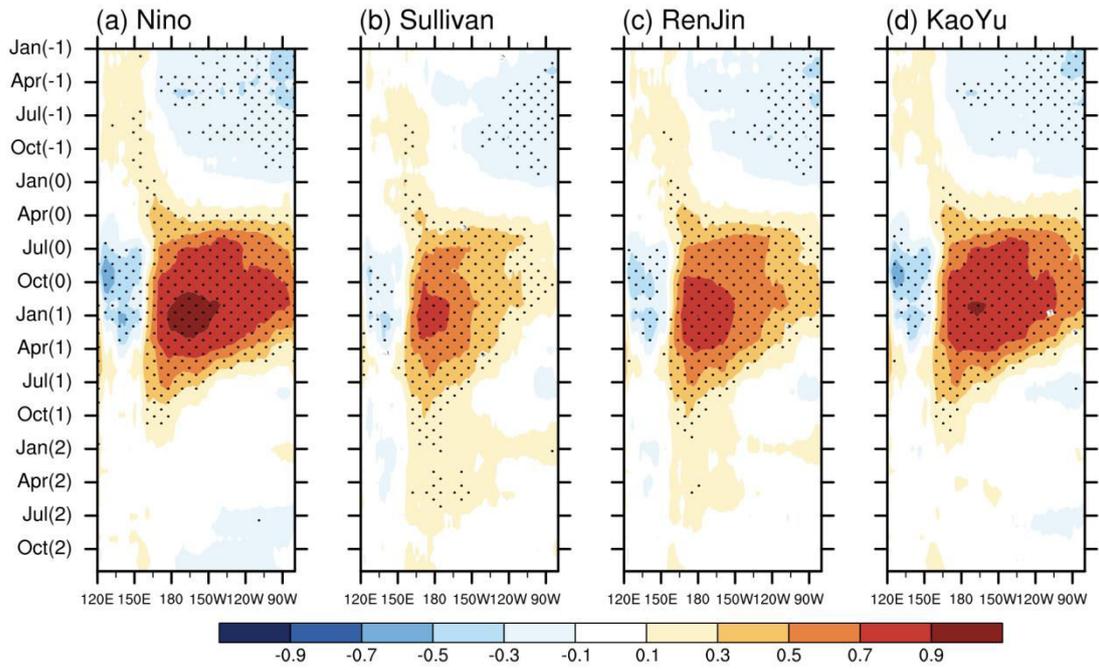


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608 **Figure 1** Correlations between the equatorial SSTA and wintertime (December-January-
 609 February) EP-El Niño indices (EPIs) that are derived through the approaches proposed by (a)
 610 Kug et al. (2009), (b) Sullivan et al. (2016), (c) Ren and Jin (2011) and (d) Kao and Yu
 611 (2007). The correlations above 95% confidence are dotted.

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615 **Figure 2** Same as in Figure 1 but for the CP-El Niño indices (CPIs).

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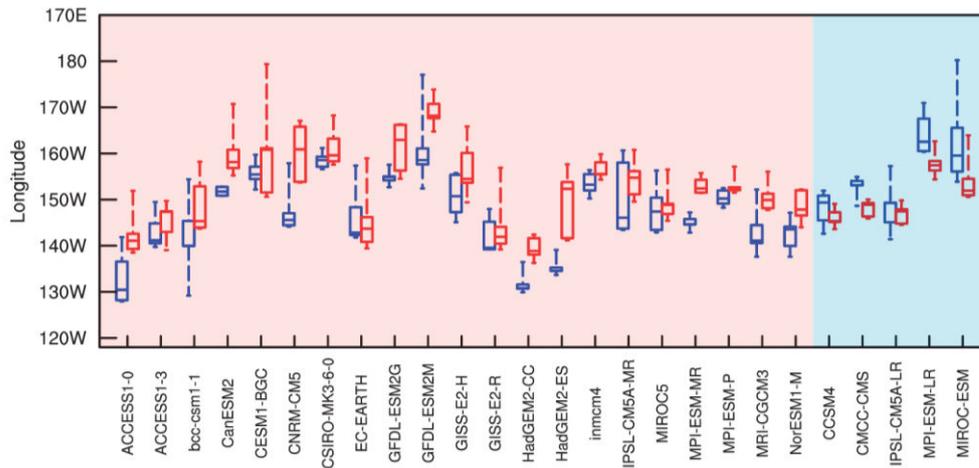
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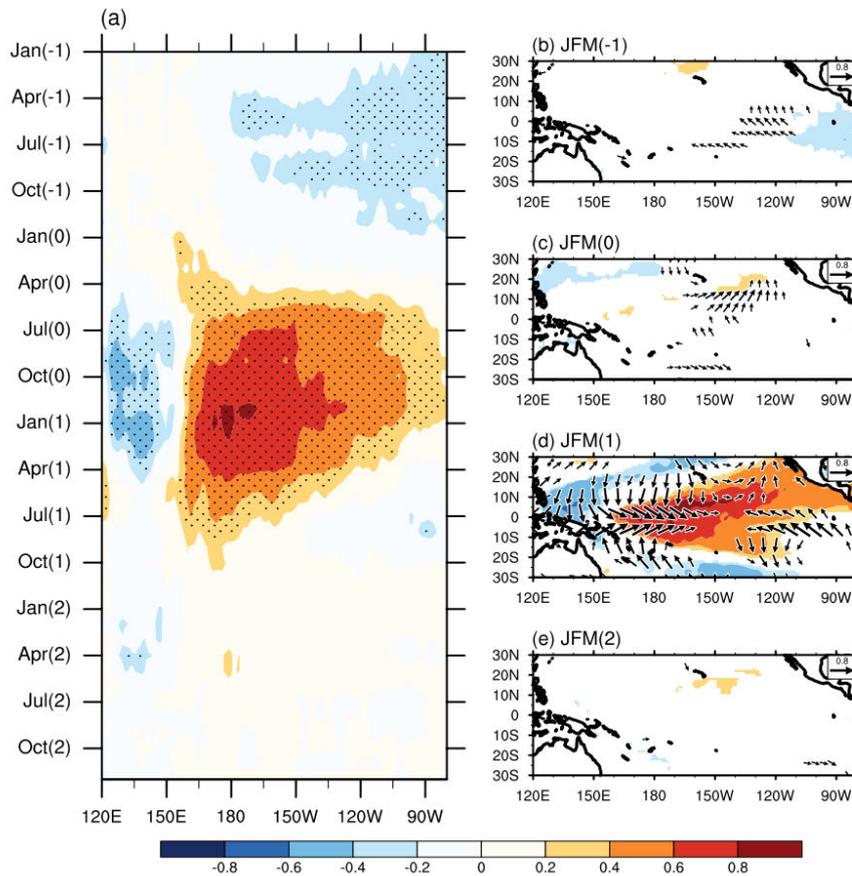
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623 **Figure 3** Boxplot for the HCI of El Niño derived from the preindustrial simulations of
624 CMIP5. Each model has two boxes: one is blue for the HCI after the CP-cooling-like mode;
625 the other is red but for the HCI after the EP-cooling-like mode. An EP-cooling-like mode (a
626 CP-cooling-like mode) is defined as the negative SSTA in the eastern tropical Pacific (in the
627 central tropical Pacific) less than the SSTA in the central tropical Pacific (in the eastern
628 tropical Pacific).

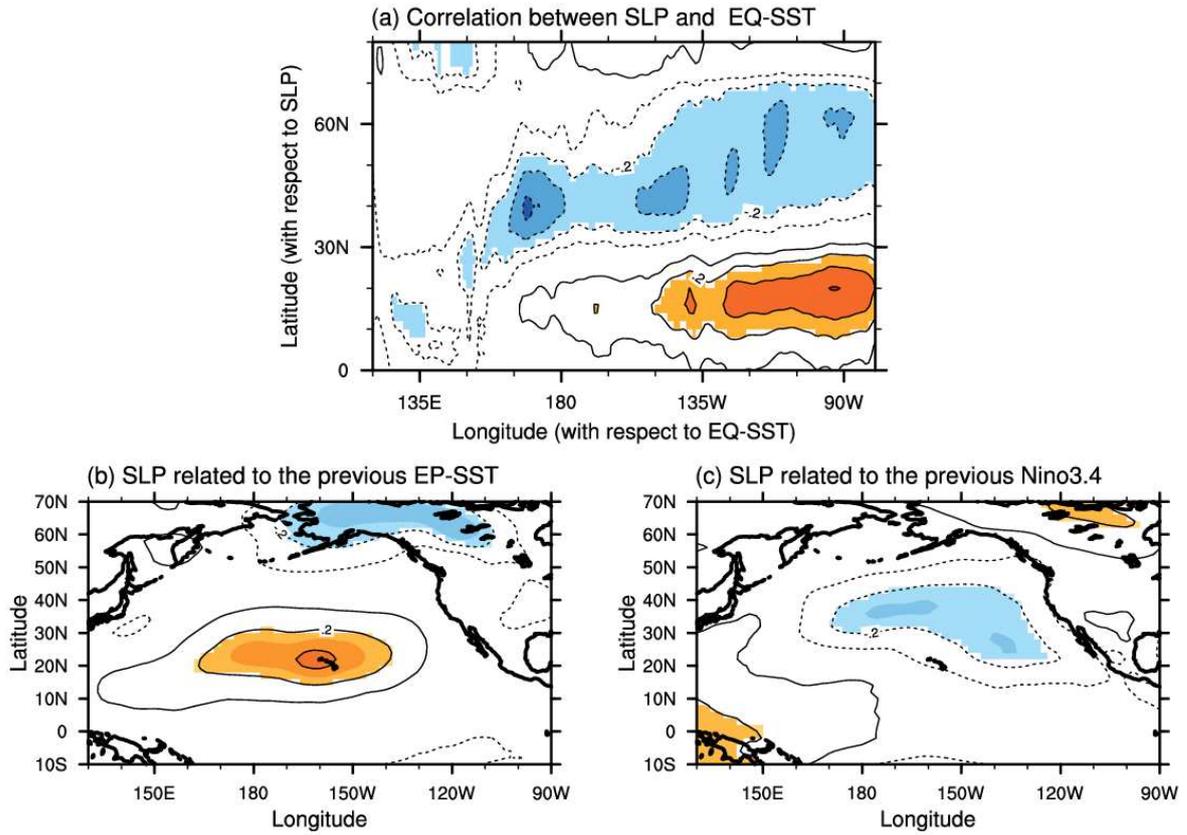
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631 **Figure 4** Correlations between the wintertime (i.e., December-January-February) CPI and
 632 the tropical SST and surface wind anomalies. (a) Correlation of the wintertime CPI with
 633 tropical SST; and (b-e) horizontal distributions of the correlations of the wintertime CPI with
 634 the 3-month (i.e., January-February-March) averaged wind (vector) and SST (shaded). The
 635 CPI is the Modoki index proposed by Ashok et al. (2007). The bracketed number “0” denotes
 636 the correlation of the wintertime CPI with the SST and wind anomalies in the same year; and
 637 “-1”, “1”, and “2” indicate the correlation of the wintertime CPI with the SST and wind
 638 anomalies in the last year, next year, and the year after next, respectively. The correlations
 639 above 99% confidence are dotted in (a), and only correlations above 99% confidence are
 640 shown in (b-e).

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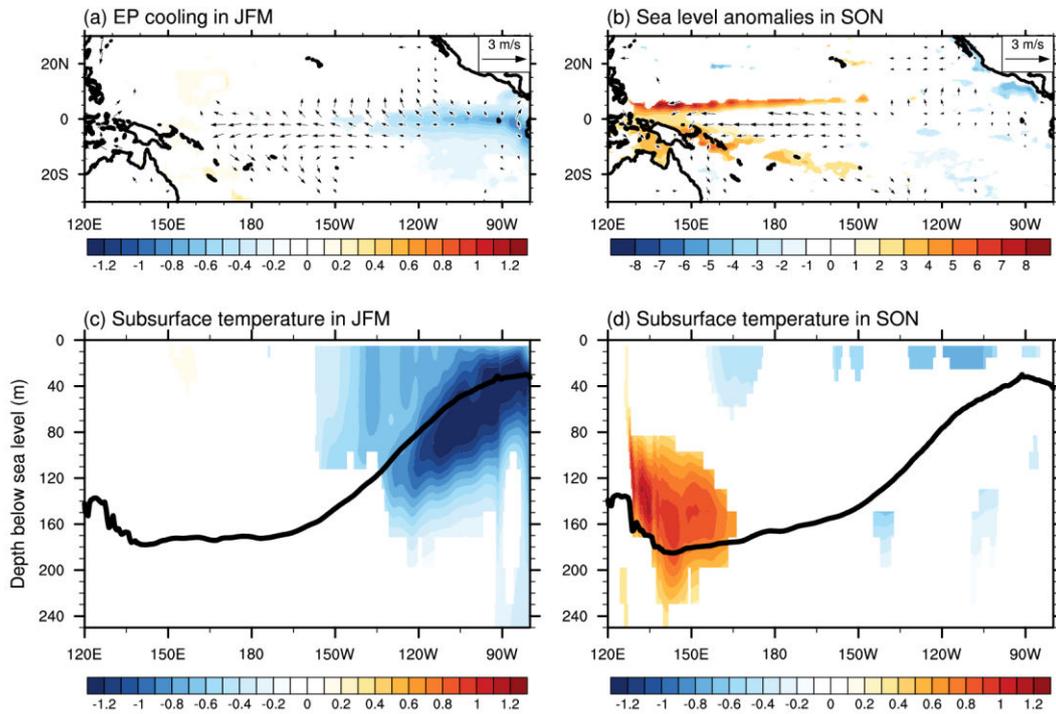
643 **Figure 5** (a) Cross-correlations between the April-May-June averaged SSTAs along the
 644 equatorial Pacific and the February-March-April averaged SLP anomalies over the North
 645 Pacific one year later; Correlation maps between the SLP anomalies and (b) the SSTAs in the
 646 eastern tropical Pacific (EP-SST) that are filtered the linear effect of the Niño3.4 indices and
 647 (c) Niño3.4 indices that are filtered the linear effect of the EP-SST. In Figure a, the SSTAs
 648 are meridionally averaged between 5°S and 5°N, and the SLP anomalies are zonally averaged
 649 between 170°W and 160°W. Correlations above 95% confidence are shaded.

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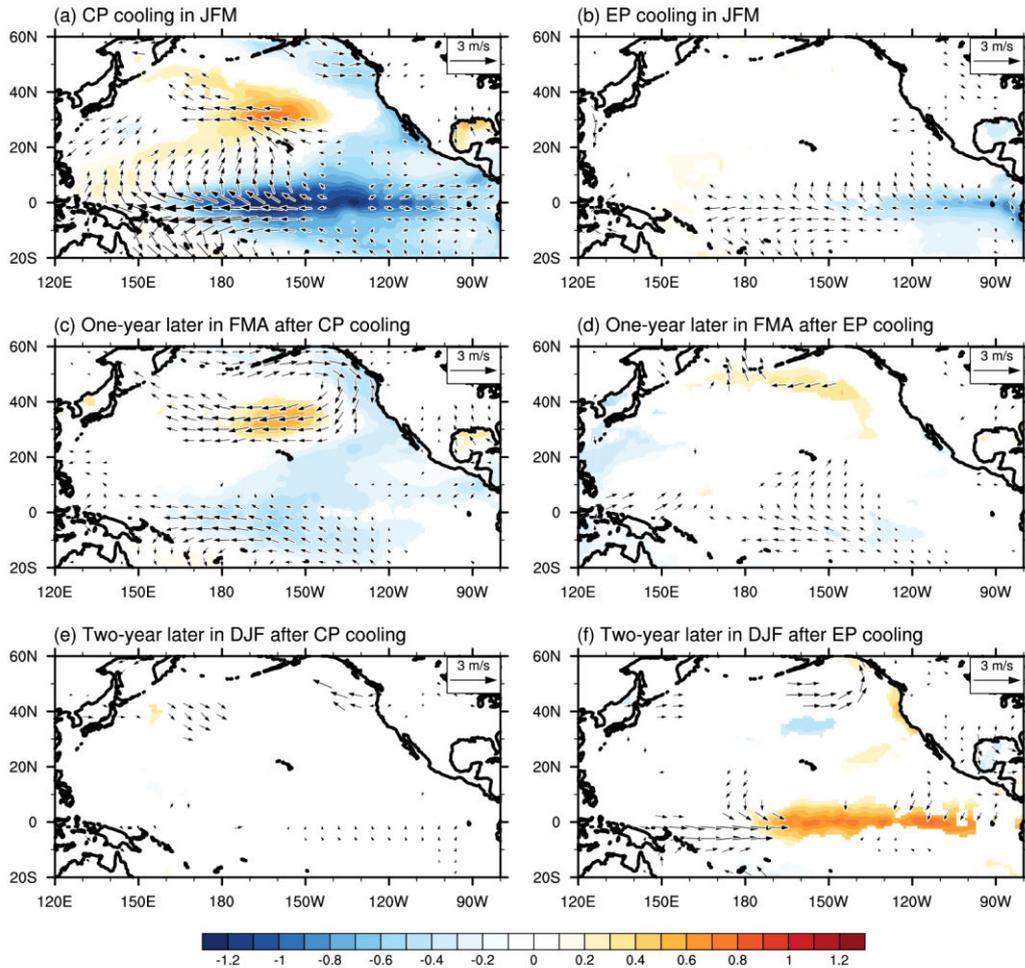
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656 **Figure 6** Composites of (a) EP-cooling-related winter (JFM) SST and wind anomalies,
 657 (b) EP-cooling-induced SL anomalies in September-October-November, (c) EP-cooling-
 658 related subsurface temperature anomalies in winter and (d) EP-cooling-induced subsurface
 659 temperature anomalies in September-October-November. Here, the EP-cooling mode is
 660 determined as the SSTAs in the eastern tropical Pacific (averaged over the region
 661 $110^{\circ}\text{W}\sim 80^{\circ}\text{W}$, $5^{\circ}\text{S}\sim 5^{\circ}\text{N}$) during winter and spring (i.e., January-June) less than -0.7 its
 662 standard deviation and especially less than those in the central tropical Pacific. The year of
 663 EP-cooling mode is therefore identified and a composite analysis is finally made for the
 664 climate variables as well as the following year climate states. The results that pass 90%
 665 confidence level are shown.

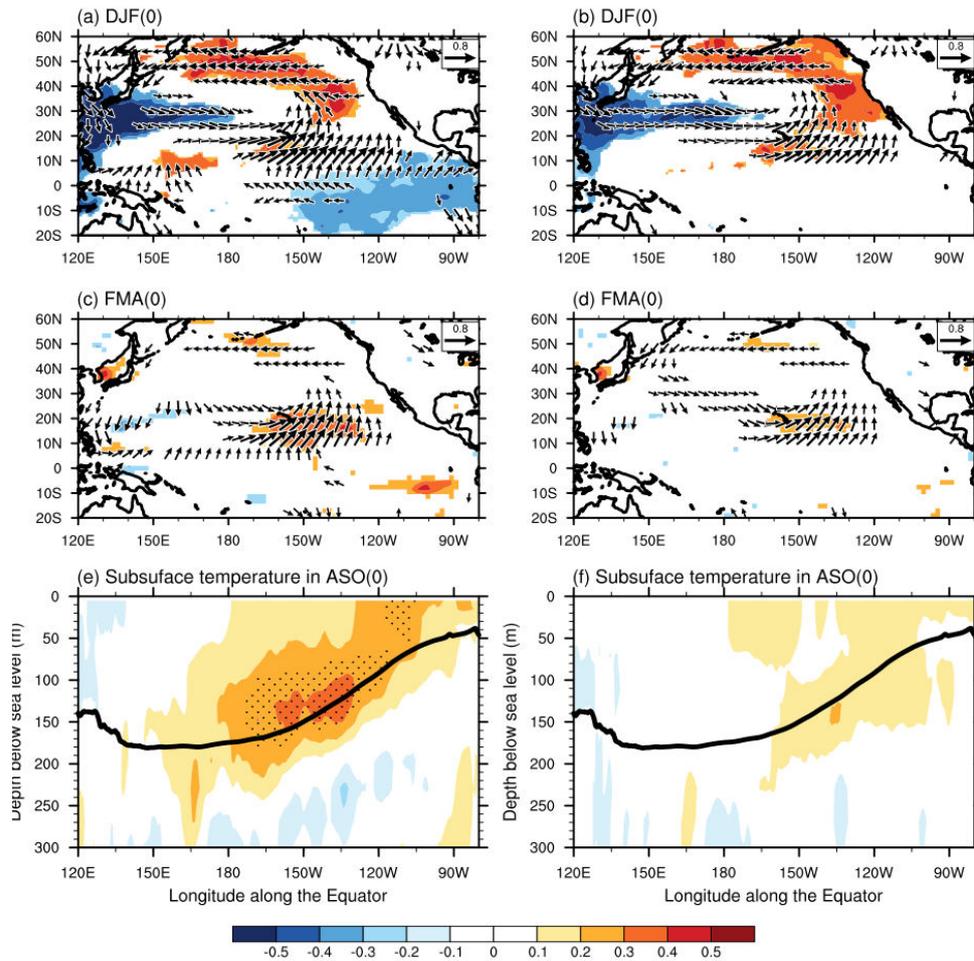
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667

668 **Figure 7** Composites of the SSTA and surface wind anomalies that are induced by the
 669 CP-cooling and EP-cooling modes. The composite for CP-cooling mode is made when the
 670 SSTAs in the central tropical Pacific (averaged over the region 175°W~110°W, 5°S~5°N) are
 671 less than -0.8 its standard deviation during winter and spring and simultaneously lower than
 672 the values in the eastern tropical Pacific. Only the results that pass the 90% confidence level
 673 are shown.

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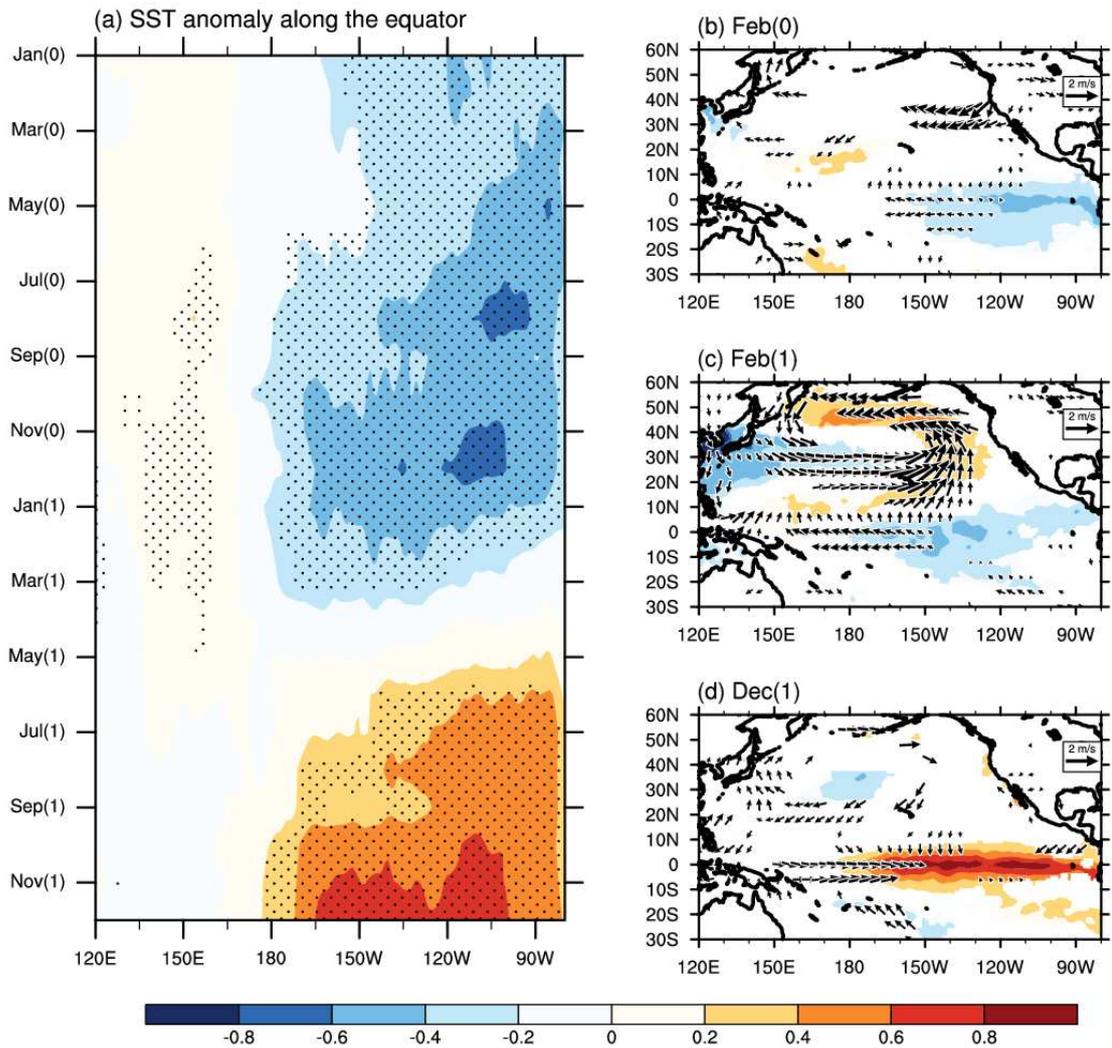


675

676 **Figure 8** Correlations of the VMI in spring (i.e., February-March-April) with the (a)
 677 surface wind (vector) and SSTA (shaded) during December-January-February, (c) surface
 678 wind and latent heat flux anomaly (shaded) during February-March-April and (e) subsurface
 679 temperature during August-September-October. The right panels (b, d and f) show the
 680 correlation of residual VMI that filters the linear effect of the leading SSTAs in the eastern
 681 tropical Pacific. The black curves in (e) and (f) denote the depths of the thermocline along the
 682 equator. The correlations pass 95% confidence are shown in (a)-(d) and dotted in (e) and (f).

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Figure 9 Composites of SSTA and wind that are related to the VM and EP-cooling mode.

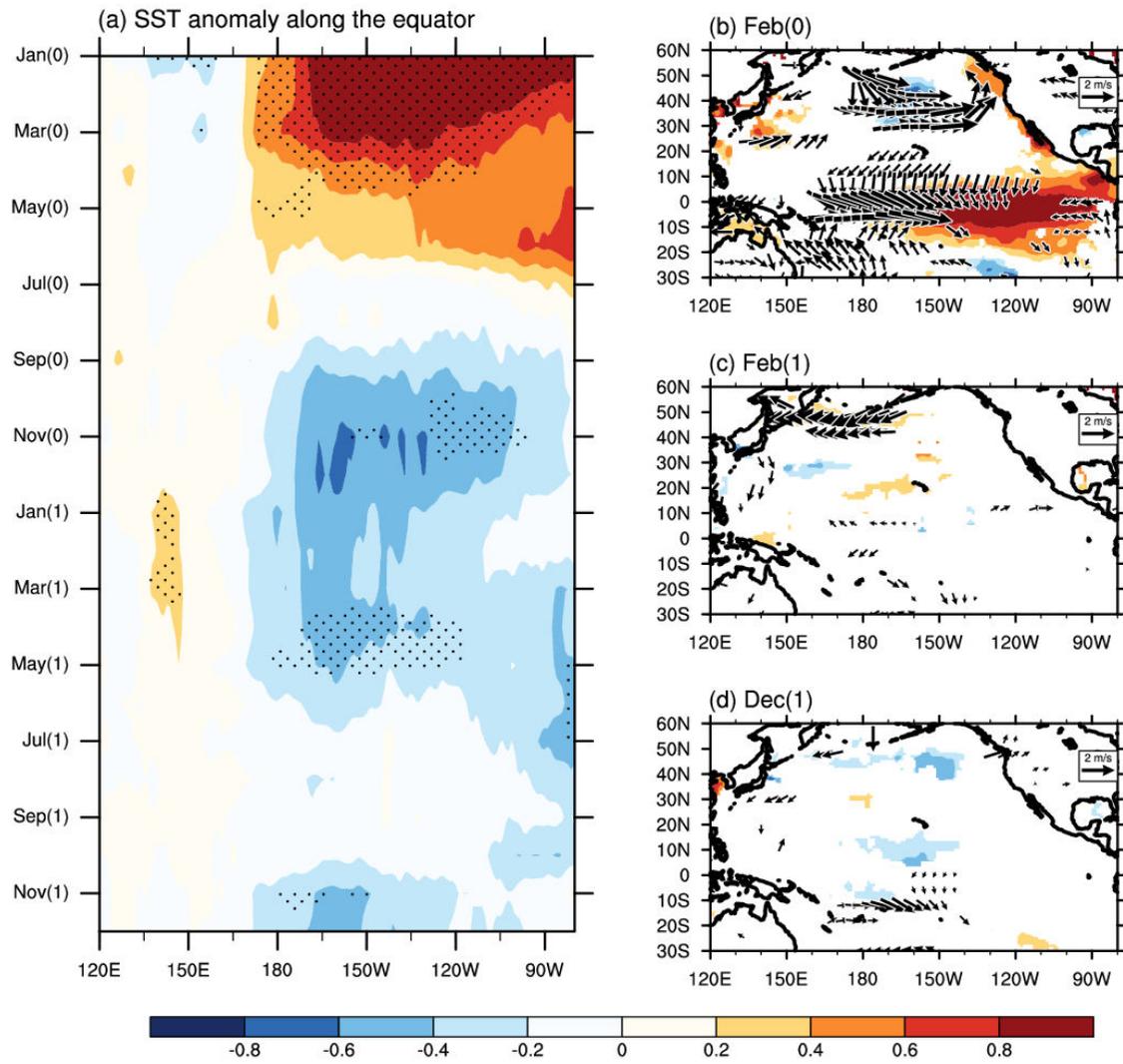
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Dots in (a) indicate the composite SSTA pass 90% confidence. Only composites that pass

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90% confidence are shown in (b)-(d).

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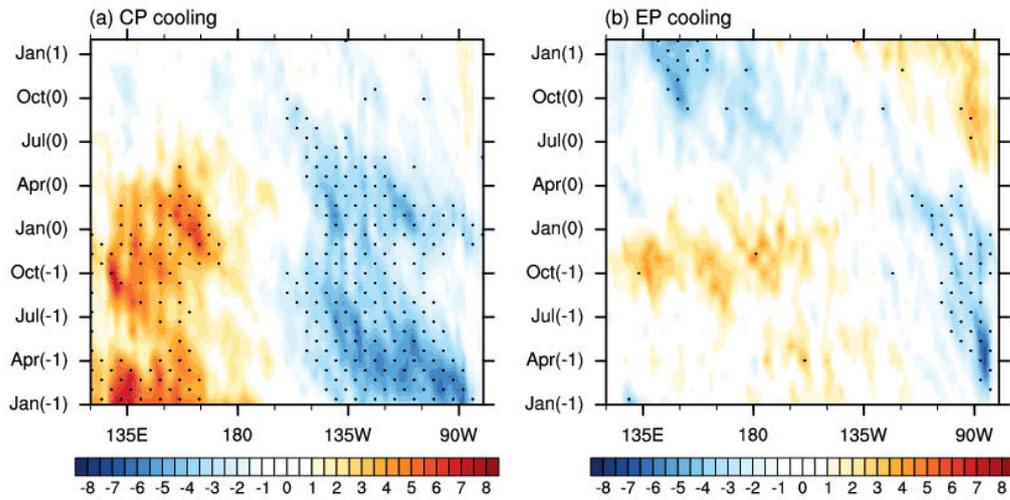


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691 **Figure 10** Same as in Figure 9, except for those related to VM but unrelated to EP-
 692 cooling.

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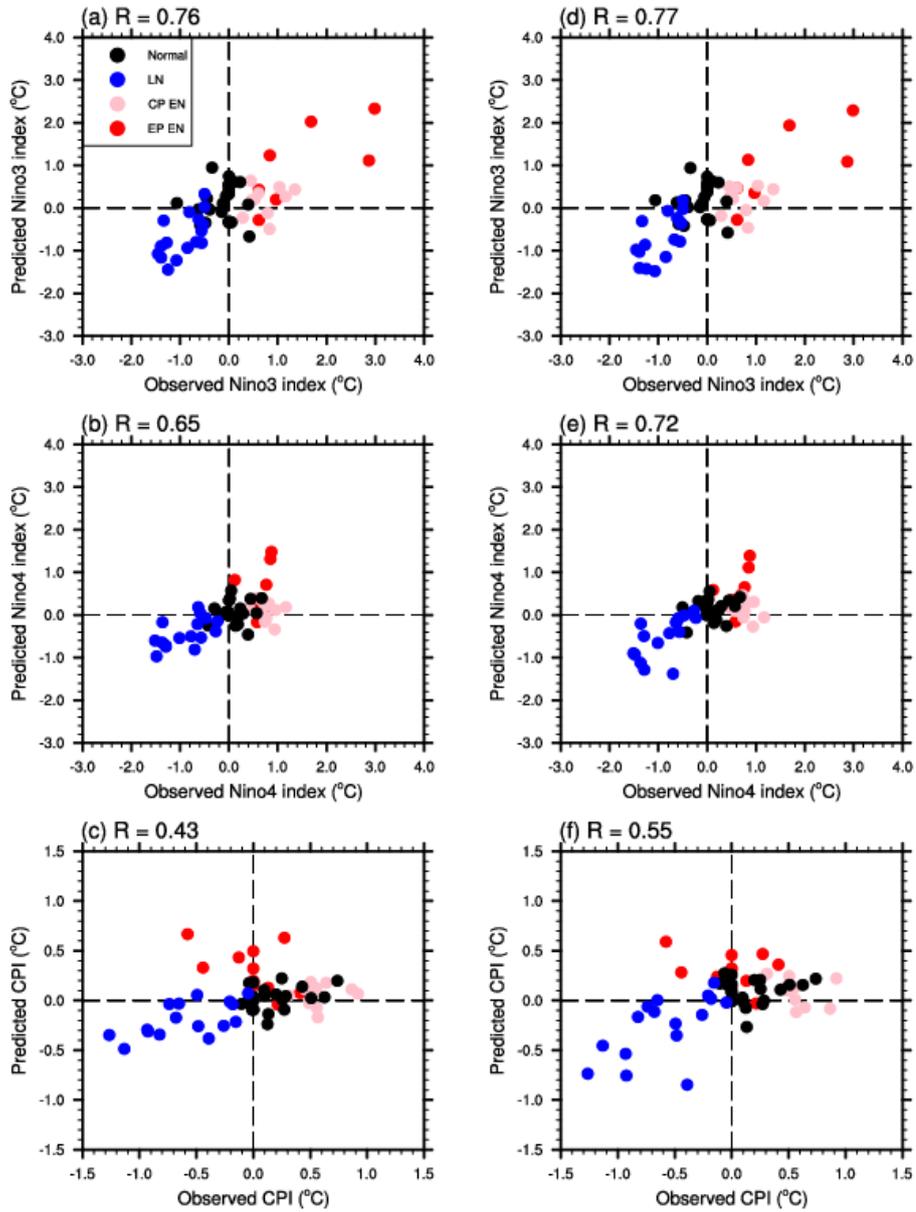
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696 **Figure 11** Evolutions of the SL anomalies off the equator (average meridionally in 6°N-
 697 12°N) that are induced by the (a) CP-cooling and (b) EP-cooling modes. Dots indicate that
 698 the composites of SL anomalies pass the 90% confidence level.

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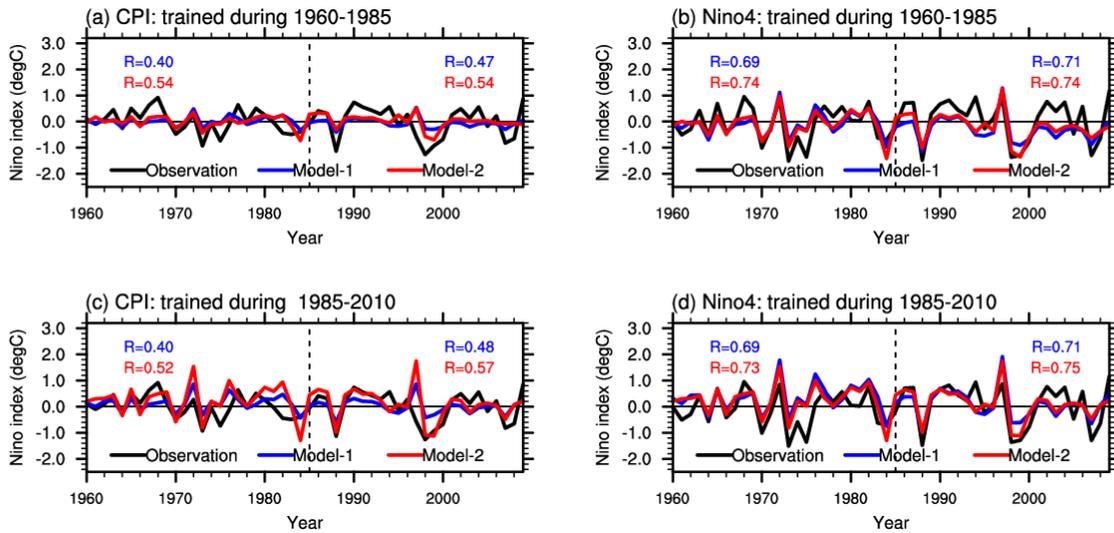
700

701 **Figure 12** Relations between the predicted and observed Niño indices in winter during
 702 1960-2010. The left panels are derived from the Model 1 prediction, and the right panels are
 703 from the Model 2 prediction.

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708 **Figure 13** Times series of Niño indices derived from observation and model predictions.

709 (a) and (b) are from the predictions by the models that are trained during 1960-1985, (c) and

710 (d) are from the models that are trained during 1985-2010. The correlations between

711 predicted and observed Niño indices during the period 1960-1985 and the period 1985-2010

712 are listed over the left and right part of each panel, respectively. The black curves are the

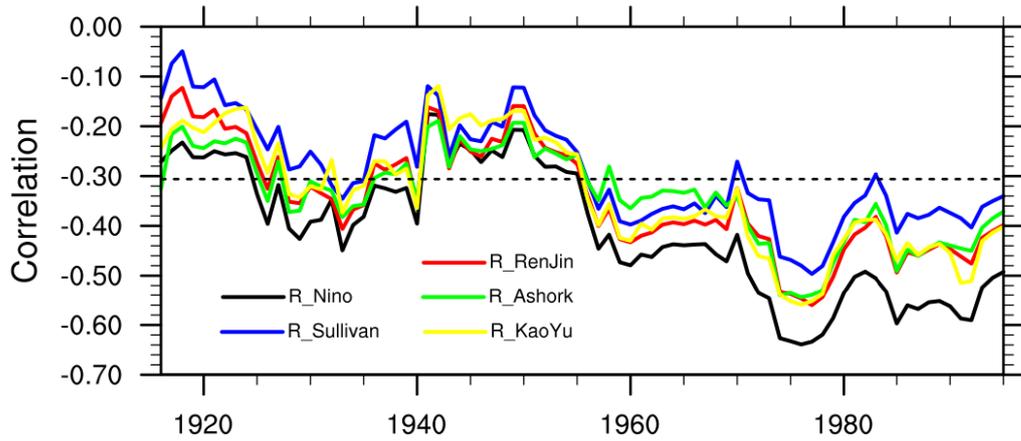
713 observation. The red and blue curves are prediction results from Model 1 and Model 2,

714 respectively. The CPI, i.e., the CP-El Niño index, is obtained by the method proposed by

715 Ashok et al. (2007).

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717



718

719 **Figure 14** The decadal variability of correlations between wintertime CPI and leading
 720 EP-SST under a 30-year sliding window. Each colored curve is calculated by using the CPIs
 721 that proposed by the corresponding researchers.

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