

1 **Interdecadal Pacific Oscillation responsible for the linkage of decadal**
2 **changes in precipitation/moisture in arid central Asia and humid**
3 **Asian monsoon region during the last millennium**

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5 Hongna Xu¹, Tao Wang^{1,2,*}, Huijun Wang^{1,2}

6 ¹ Collaborative Innovation Center on Forecast and Evaluation of Meteorological
7 Disasters (CIC-FEMD), Nanjing University of Information Science and Technology,
8 Nanjing 210044, China

9 ² Climate Change Research Center and Nansen-Zhu International Research Centre,
10 Institute of Atmospheric Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100029,
11 China

12 * Corresponding author: Tao Wang (wangtao@mail.iap.ac.cn)

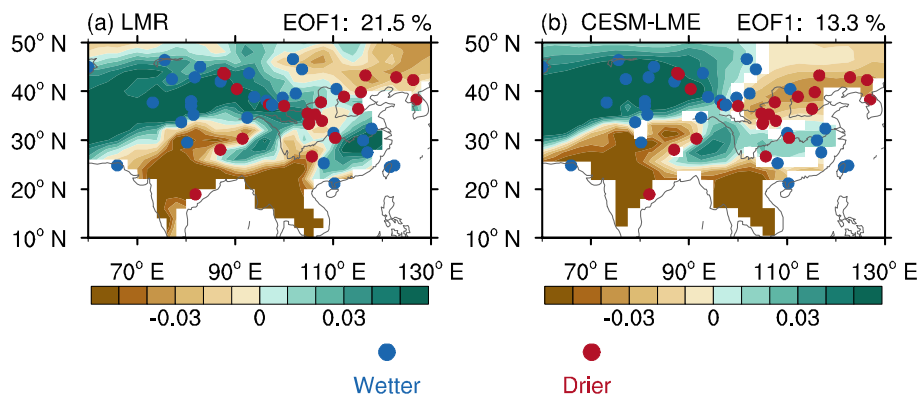
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14 **Abstract**

15 Reconstruction and observational studies imply a potential linkage of
16 moisture/precipitation change in arid central Asia and monsoonal East Asia, in which
17 the evolution of moisture/precipitation in central Asia is out-of-phase with that in
18 northern China, but in-phase with that in southern China. In order to ascertain whether
19 there is a robust linkage between the changes in climate in Asian arid regions and
20 monsoon regions and to elucidate the underlying dynamic mechanisms, we analyzed
21 the Last Millennium Reanalysis dataset and **outputs** from the Community Earth
22 System Model-Last Millennium Ensemble (CESM-LME). The results indicate a
23 significant decadal linkage between precipitation changes in central Asia's arid region
24 and the Asian monsoon region during the last millennium, which is primarily driven
25 by the Interdecadal Pacific Oscillation (IPO). In spring, the positive IPO could
26 enhance westerlies over the Mediterranean Sea and to its east, which could transport
27 more water vapor and cause increased precipitation over central Asia. In summer, the
28 positive IPO is accompanied with weakened Asian monsoon and southward Asian
29 subtropical westerly jet, which can lead to increased (decreased) summer precipitation
30 over southern China (over northern China and South Asia). The IPO plays a dominant
31 role in connecting the decadal variations in precipitation between arid central Asia and
32 monsoonal Asia by modulating the precipitation of their respective major rainy
33 seasons. Model results suggest that this decadal linkage stems entirely from the
34 internal variability present in the CESM-LME control and all single-forcing
35 simulations. Changes in external forcing factors do not alter this inherent linkage

36 caused by IPO. Moreover, based on analyses of the aridity index and soil moisture
37 content, this relationship of precipitation variation also causes a similar decadal
38 linkage of moisture changes in central Asia and monsoonal Asia. The differences in
39 the multi-centennial-scale moisture/precipitation variations in the Asian arid region
40 and the monsoon region between the Medieval Climate Anomaly and Little Ice Age
41 are also likely caused by IPO-like sea surface temperature anomalies.

42 **Graphical abstract**



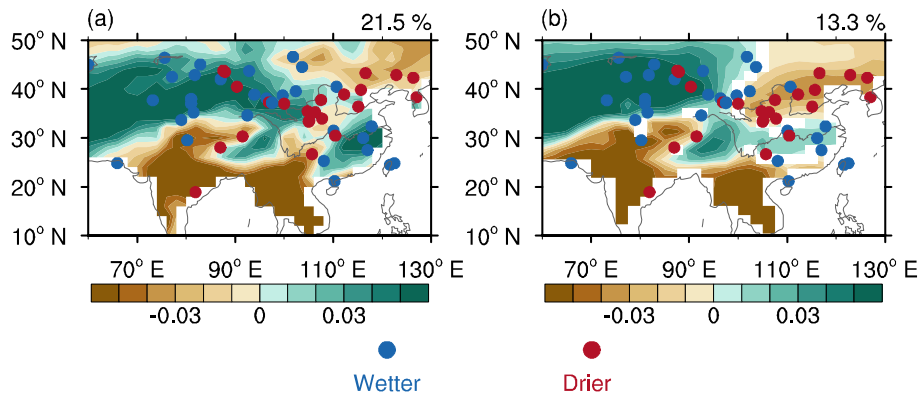
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45 **1 Introduction**

46 The climate of the mid- to low-latitude Asian continent is characterized by an
47 arid central Asian region and a moist monsoonal region. The climate in central Asia is
48 mainly controlled by westerlies as a result of its geographical location and blocking
49 by plateaus and mountains to the southeast (Chen et al., 2010). The main rainy
50 seasons are spring and winter, especially in southern central Asia (Aizen et al., 2001;
51 Chen et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2022). By contrast, the climate in
52 monsoonal Asia is mainly controlled by the East Asian monsoon and the South Asian
53 monsoon. The main rainy season is summer as a result of the warm, moist East Asian
54 summer monsoon (Ding and Chan, 2005) and the South Asian summer monsoon
55 (Turner and Annamalai, 2012).

56 The Asian arid and monsoonal climates should be independent of each other due
57 to the dominance of different systems. However, the reconstruction records suggest a
58 strong linkage between them on a centennial scale. Chen et al. (2015) reviewed
59 numerous reconstruction studies and indicated that the climate was relatively wetter in
60 central Asia and southern China, whereas it was relatively drier in northern China
61 during the Little Ice Age (LIA; 1400–1900 AD) (Fig. 1). During the earlier Medieval
62 Climate Anomaly (MCA; 1000–1300 AD), the wet and dry changes were the opposite,
63 with drier conditions in central Asia and southern China and wetter conditions in
64 northern China.



65

66 **Figure 1.** The reconstructed and simulated first leading precipitation mode. **(a)** The first leading
 67 mode (EOF1) of the nine-year low-pass Lanczos filtered annual precipitation for the time period
 68 850–2000 in the Last Millennium Reanalysis (LMR) dataset. The explained variance is given at
 69 the top-right. **(b)** The average EOF1 of the nine-year low-pass Lanczos filtered annual
 70 precipitation in CESM-LME 12 all-forcing simulations for the time period 850–2005; the shading
 71 shows where at least two-thirds of the members agree on the sign of the average value. The
 72 averaged explained variance is given at the top-right. The dots represent the reconstructed
 73 precipitation/moisture records modified from Chen et al. (2015); the blue (red) dots denote wetter
 74 (drier) conditions in the LIA than in the MCA.

75 Clues to the linkage between the climate of the Asian arid regions and the Asian
 76 monsoon regions can also be found based on the limited length of observational data
 77 from the modern era. Since the mid-20th century, the central Asia has become wetter
 78 (Shi et al., 2007; Jiang et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2011; Huang et al., 2013). During the
 79 same period, southern China experienced more precipitation, whereas northern China
 80 received less precipitation and became drier (Ding et al., 2008; Zhao et al., 2010;
 81 Wang et al., 2013). Focusing on two different climatic regions, the precipitation
 82 observations during the period of 1960–2010 also show similar linkage (Huang et al.,
 83 2015). On a decadal scale, central Asia experienced more (less) summer precipitation,
 84 southern China received more (less) summer precipitation, whereas northern China

85 received less (more) summer precipitation.

86 However, the reconstruction records of the last millennium and the 50-year
87 observational data only cover less than two periods on the multi-centennial or
88 interdecadal scale, respectively. It is not sufficient to demonstrate a significant
89 relationship between the climate of the Asian arid regions and the Asian monsoon
90 regions. The specific mechanisms behind this possible linkage are still not clear. In
91 addition, modeling results also indicate that only one out of nine coupled models
92 within the Paleoclimate Modeling Intercomparison Project Phase 3 (PMIP3) is able to
93 reproduce the similar climatic linkage between the Asian arid and monsoonal regions
94 during the MCA and LIA (Shi et al., 2016). Due to the limitations of data length on
95 the time scales of interest and the large uncertainty in existing model results, therefore,
96 further research is still needed to confirm whether there is an inherent connection
97 between the arid regions and monsoon regions in Asia in terms of their dry-wet
98 variations.

99 In this study, we first focus on the decadal scale and intend to analyze whether
100 there is a robust linkage between the changes in precipitation pattern in arid regions
101 and monsoon regions in Asia using the newly released Last Millennium Reanalysis
102 (LMR) dataset (Tardif et al., 2019; Anderson et al., 2019). **Additionally, to further**
103 **explore the possible mechanisms underlying the linkage and the potential impacts of**
104 **different external forcing factors, the Community Earth System Model Last**
105 **Millennium Ensemble (CESM-LME, Otto-Bliesner et al., 2016) is also utilized**
106 **because of its good performance in simulating Asian precipitation and summer**

107 monsoon (e.g., Hu et al., 2023; Mishra and Aadhar, 2021; Shi et al., 2018) and the
108 availability of multiple samples forced by different forcing factors. Thus, the aim of
109 this study is to investigate the linkage between precipitation/moisture changes in arid
110 central Asia and monsoonal Asia during the last millennium and its driving factors.
111 The data and methods used in this study are described in detail in Sect. 2. The linkage
112 between the changes in precipitation/moisture pattern in arid regions and monsoon
113 regions in Asia is examined and its driving factors are analyzed in Sect. 3. Finally, the
114 discussion and conclusions are presented in Sect. 4 and Sect. 5, respectively.

115 **2 Data and methods**

116 **2.1 Reanalysis data and simulations**

117 In this study, we used the reconstructed annual precipitation anomalies (relative
118 to the climatological mean of 1951–1980) at a spatial resolution of 2° for the time
119 period 850–2000 from the LMR Version 2.1 dataset (Tardif et al., 2019; Anderson et
120 al., 2019) to examine the possible linkage between the Asian arid and monsoonal
121 regions. The proxy records assimilated in the LMR Version 2.1 dataset are from
122 PAGES-2k (PAGES2k, 2017). The analyses based on LMR were started with the
123 “grand mean”, which was an average of 20 LMR reconstructions contained in
124 aforementioned array. In addition, the reconstructed sea surface temperature (SST)
125 anomalies from the LMR Version 2.1 dataset are also used to verify the model results.

126 In order to investigate the underlying mechanisms, we analyzed the monthly
127 outputs of CESM-LME project (Otto-Bliesner et al., 2016). The CESM-LME
128 simulations are performed using the CESM 1.1 model, in which the atmospheric

129 component is the Community Atmosphere Model Version 5 (CAM5) (Hurrell et al.,
130 2013). The atmosphere and land (ocean and sea ice) components in the CESM-LME
131 simulations have the same $\sim 2^\circ$ ($\sim 1^\circ$) horizontal resolutions as the CESM1.1 model.
132 We analyzed a total of 35 CESM-LME simulations: one control simulation, 12
133 all-forcing simulations and 22 single-forcing simulations. The single-forcing
134 simulations included a subset of five simulations forced by volcanic eruptions, a
135 subset of four simulations forced by solar activity, a subset of four simulations forced
136 by ozone and aerosols, three subsets of three simulations forced by greenhouse gases,
137 land use and land cover, and the Earth's orbit, respectively. The subset of simulations
138 forced by ozone and aerosols covered the time period 1850–2005, whereas the other
139 simulations were available for the time period 850–2005. The analyses for the
140 all-forcing simulations and the six subsets of single-forcing simulations were all based
141 on the arithmetic mean of multiple members, which was the final step in the analyses.

142 In addition, we also referred to reconstructed moisture/precipitation changes
143 (relative to the median of entire last millennium) in the LIA and MCA summarized by
144 Chen et al. (2015). The reconstructions synthesized by Chen et al. (2015) include 71
145 moisture/precipitation records derived from different types of proxy records (i.e., lake
146 record, speleothem record, historical documents, tree-ring record, ice-core record,
147 marine record, peat record, aeolian record, and river terrace). Based on these
148 moisture/precipitation records, figure 3 in Chen et al. (2015) provided the wetness
149 grades (i.e., the wetness was classified into dry, moderately dry, moderate, moderately
150 wet, and wet) for the LIA and MCA at individual sites. The 55 moisture/precipitation

151 records with different wetness grades between the LIA and MCA were selected in this
152 study to explore the moisture/precipitation changes between these two periods.

153 **2.2 Methods**

154 Following Henley et al. (2015), we defined the Interdecadal Pacific Oscillation
155 (IPO) index as the difference between the SST anomalies averaged over the
156 central-eastern equatorial Pacific (10 °S–10 °N, 170 °E–90 °W) and the average of the
157 SST anomalies over the western-central subtropical North Pacific (25–45 °N, 140 °E–
158 145 °W) and the western-central subtropical South Pacific (50–15 °S, 150 °E–160 °
159 W). The base period for calculating the IPO index was 1850–1900. To obtain the
160 filtered version of the index, a nine-year low-pass Lanczos filter was used, coinciding
161 with the other analyses in this study.

162 We used the aridity index (AI) to quantify the moisture condition of the
163 terrestrial climate (Middleton and Thomas, 1997):

$$164 \quad AI = \frac{P}{PET} \quad (1)$$

165 where P is the annual precipitation (units: mm day⁻¹), representing the water supply to
166 land and PET is the annual potential evapotranspiration (units: mm day⁻¹), which
167 measures **the atmospheric demand of water**. A larger aridity index indicates that
168 relatively more moisture remains in the land, whereas a smaller aridity index
169 represents drier condition. The outputs of the CESM-LME simulations for soil
170 moisture (top 10 cm of soil; units: kg m⁻²) were also analyzed to examine the analyses
171 based on the aridity index. Thus, the analyses related to moisture conditions in this
172 study were based on both the aridity index and soil moisture content.

173 The Penman–Monteith algorithm (Penman, 1948; Monteith, 1965) is widely
174 used to estimate the potential evapotranspiration and is recommended as a standard
175 method by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (Allen et al.,
176 1998):

$$177 \quad PET = \frac{0.408\Delta(R_n - G) + \gamma \frac{900}{T_{\text{mean}} + 273} U(e_s - e_a)}{\Delta + \gamma(1 + 0.34U)} \quad (2)$$

178 where the R_n is the net surface radiation (units: MJ m⁻² day⁻¹), the G is soil heat flux
179 density (units: MJ m⁻² day⁻¹); the difference between them represents the available
180 energy. γ is the psychrometric constant (units: kPa °C⁻¹), T_{mean} is the mean
181 temperature (units: °C; i.e., the average of the 2-m daily maximum and daily
182 minimum air temperatures); Δ is the slope vapor pressure curve (units: kPa °C⁻¹)
183 derived from T_{mean} , U is the 2-m wind speed (units: m s⁻¹); e_s is the saturation vapor
184 pressure (units: kPa), derived from the daily maximum and daily minimum air
185 temperatures; e_a is the actual vapor pressure (units: kPa), calculated from e_s and the
186 relative humidity.

187 Empirical orthogonal function (EOF) analysis was performed on the
188 standardized annual precipitation to identify the first leading precipitation mode over
189 the Asian continent. A nine-year low-pass Lanczos filter was applied to the
190 standardized precipitation before EOF analysis to remove the variability on
191 interannual and shorter timescales. The same analyses were also applied to the aridity
192 index and the annual soil moisture content to obtain the first leading decadal moisture
193 mode over the Asian continent. Linear regression and correlation analyses were
194 applied to understand the root cause of the leading decadal precipitation/moisture

195 modes and their statistical significance was examined by a two-sided t -test. Because
196 of the low-pass Lanczos filter before linear regression and correlation analyses, the
197 effective degree of freedom N^* in the t -test was calculated following Bretherton et al.
198 (1999):

$$199 \quad N^* = N \frac{1-r_a r_b}{1+r_a r_b} \quad (3)$$

200 where r_a (r_b) is the autocorrelation at lag 1 for variables a (b) and N is the original
201 length of the time series. A two-sided t -test was also applied to examine the statistical
202 significance of climate changes between the LIA and the MCA. Besides, the
203 consistency of results derived from multiple members (i.e., analyses based on
204 all-forcing simulations and the six subsets of single-forcing simulations) was
205 examined by counting the percentage of members whose results' signs are the same as
206 the arithmetic mean of multiple members. A power spectrum analysis was performed
207 on the time series of the leading precipitation mode and the IPO index to obtain their
208 dominant periodicity, the statistical significance of which was examined via the power
209 spectrum of the mean red noise (Gilman et al., 1963).

210 In this study, winter, spring, summer, and autumn were defined as December–
211 February, March–May, June–August, and September–November, respectively.

212 **3 Results**

213 **3.1 Reconstructed and simulated first leading precipitation mode**

214 Based on the LMR data, the first leading mode (EOF1) of the decadal changes in
215 Asian precipitation in the last millennium showed the same changes in precipitation in
216 arid central Asia and southern China, which were the opposite of those in the South

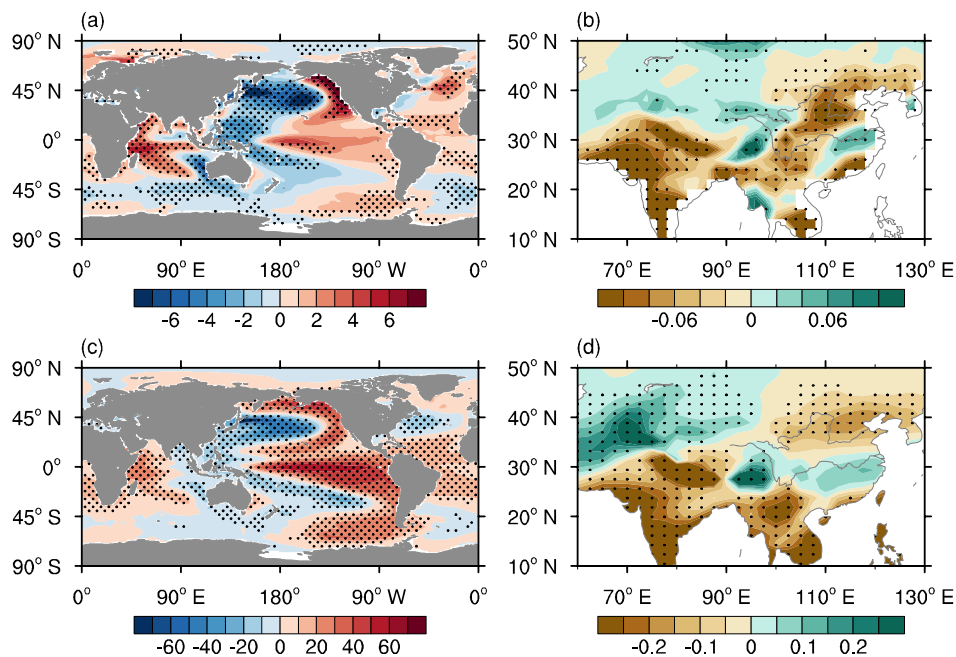
217 Asian monsoon region (including the southern Tibetan Plateau, the Indian Peninsula
218 and the Indo-China Peninsula) and most of northern China (Fig. 1a). This mode
219 accounted for 21.5% of the total variance of precipitation in Asia in the last
220 millennium.

221 We also analyzed the outputs of the CESM-LME simulations. In the all-forcing
222 simulations, most members reproduced similar first leading precipitation mode with
223 the reconstruction for the time period 850–2005 (Fig. S1). Their ensemble pattern was
224 also consistent with the reconstruction (Fig. 1b). The averaged explained variance was
225 13.3% (ranging from 11.7 to 14.8%). These same patterns of changes in precipitation
226 between the long-term simulations and the reconstruction suggest that, on the decadal
227 scale, there is a robust linkage between the changes in precipitation pattern in arid
228 regions and monsoon regions. This decadal linkage suggests that the evolution of
229 precipitation in central Asia is out-of-phase with that in northern China and South
230 Asian monsoon region, but in-phase with that in southern China. The linkage between
231 the arid central Asian region and the East Asian monsoon region is consistent with the
232 relationship of changes in precipitation based on observational data for the last 60
233 years (Huang et al., 2015). Our analysis suggests that this observed relationship has
234 persisted over the last millennium. Our results also indicated that the decadal changes
235 in precipitation in the South Asian monsoon region are also closely related to the
236 changes in the arid central Asian region and the East Asian monsoon region.

237 **3.2 Dominant role of the IPO**

238 Many studies have shown that the SST anomaly is an important factor in

239 modulating the decadal variability in precipitation over Asia (e.g., Chu et al., 2018;
 240 Huang et al., 2019). We therefore calculated the linear regression of the SST onto the
 241 time series of the leading precipitation mode. Figure 2a and 2c show that higher
 242 (lower) SSTs appeared over the central-eastern equatorial Pacific (the western-central
 243 parts of both the subtropical North Pacific and South Pacific) in the LMR and
 244 all-forcing simulations. The Pacific basin-wide SST anomalies resembled the positive
 245 pattern of the IPO (Power et al., 1999; Henley et al., 2015; Wang and Miao, 2018).
 246 The precipitation anomalies during the positive phases of the IPO showed positive
 247 anomalies in arid central Asia and southern China and negative anomalies in the
 248 South Asian monsoon region and most of northern China (Fig. 2b and 2d), resembling
 249 the leading decadal precipitation mode in the LMR and all-forcing simulations. It is
 250 therefore likely that the IPO dominated the decadal linkage between the changes in
 251 precipitation pattern in arid regions and monsoon regions in Asia.



252
 253 **Figure 2.** The dominant role of the IPO. The reconstructed (a) annual SST anomalies (units: °C)
 254 regressed onto the time series of the leading decadal precipitation mode and (b) annual

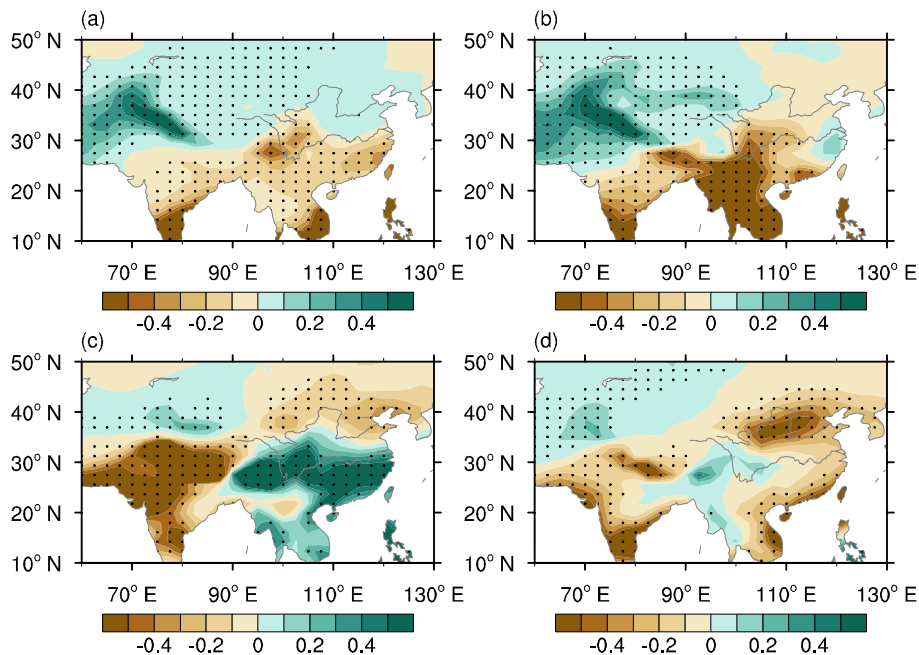
255 precipitation anomalies (units: mm day⁻¹) regressed onto the time series of the IPO index in the
256 LMR dataset. The dots in parts (a, b) show significant anomalies at the 95% confidence level. (c)
257 Annual SST anomalies (units: °C) regressed onto time series of the leading decadal precipitation
258 mode and (d) annual precipitation anomalies (units: mm day⁻¹) regressed onto the time series of
259 the IPO index simulated by multiple members of the CESM-LME all-forcing runs. Dots in parts (c,
260 d) show that at least two-thirds of the members simulate significant changes (at the 95%
261 significance level), and these significant changes agree on the sign of the average of multiple
262 members.

263 We applied power spectrum analysis to explore the temporal characteristics of
264 the first leading precipitation mode and the IPO. Both the leading precipitation mode
265 and the IPO had a common frequency band of 10–20 years in the LMR and
266 all-forcing simulations (Figs. S2–4), indicating that the IPO dominated the linkage
267 between the changes in precipitation pattern in arid regions and monsoon regions in
268 Asia at decadal to bi-decadal scales during the last millennium. The consistency
269 between the reconstruction and the simulations indicates the reliability of the
270 simulations, which is the foundation of the following analyses on the relevant
271 mechanism based on simulations.

272 **3.3 Processes of the IPO modulating the leading precipitation pattern**

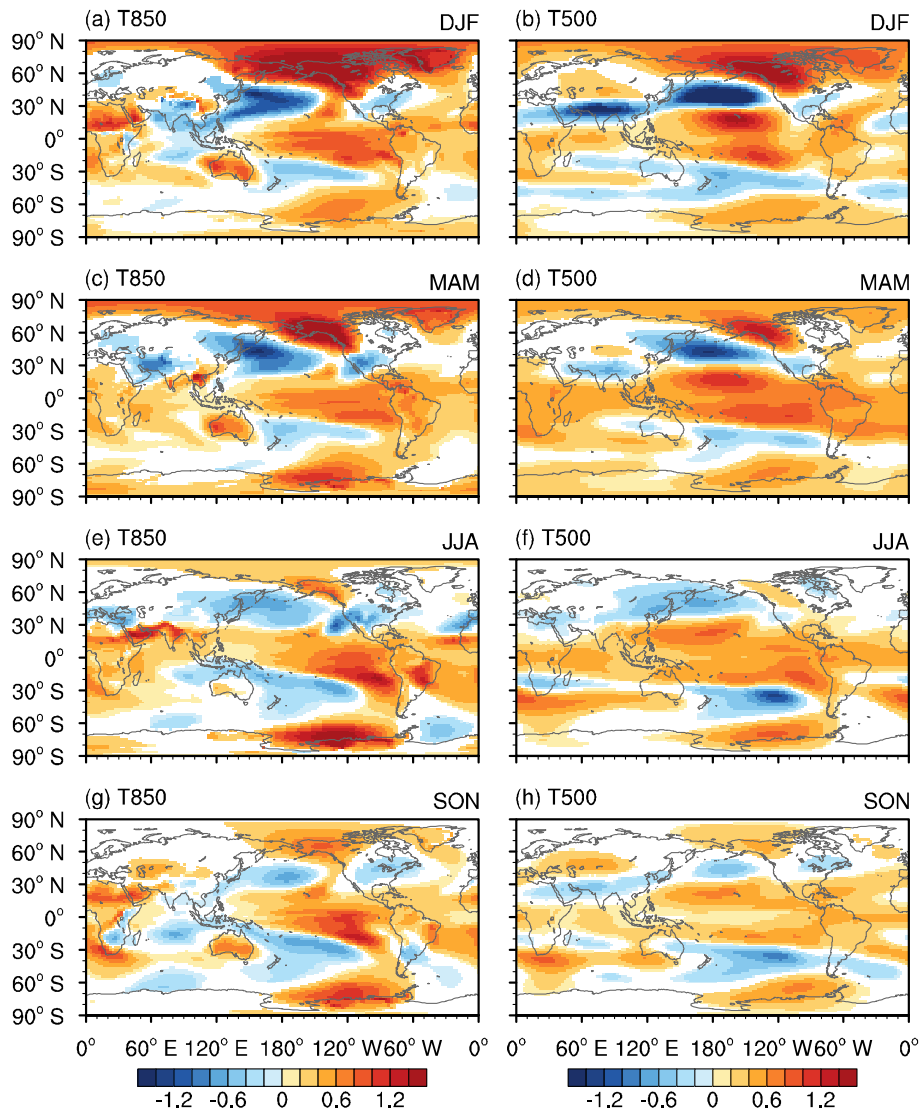
273 Because there is a seasonal cycle in precipitation and the atmospheric circulation
274 over Asia, especially over monsoonal Asia, we analyzed the seasonal changes in
275 precipitation associated with the IPO. During the positive phases of IPO, in the arid
276 central Asia, the precipitation in the four seasons all increased and made a positive
277 contribution to the increase in annual precipitation (Fig. 3). The precipitation
278 anomalies were larger in spring and winter, especially in spring, in which season the

279 precipitation accounted for the most of the annual precipitation (Fig. S5). The largest
 280 increase in spring precipitation was mainly in southern central Asia. In East Asia,
 281 summer precipitation increased (decreased) over southern (northern) China and
 282 autumn precipitation decreased over northern China, both contributing positively to
 283 the annual changes in precipitation. By contrast, spring and winter precipitation both
 284 decreased over southern China, partly offsetting the positive contribution of summer
 285 precipitation to the increase in annual precipitation in this region. Precipitation in all
 286 four seasons decreased in most of the South Asian monsoon regions, contributing
 287 positively to the decrease in annual precipitation. Then, we analyzed the seasonal
 288 atmospheric circulation anomalies associated with the IPO to determine the processes
 289 by which the IPO modulated these seasonal changes in precipitation.



290
 291 **Figure 3.** Simulated seasonal precipitation anomalies during the positive phases of the IPO.
 292 Regressed maps of (a) winter, (b) spring, (c) summer, and (d) autumn precipitation anomalies
 293 (units: mm day⁻¹) onto the time series of the IPO index simulated by multiple members of the
 294 CESM-LME all-forcing runs. Dots show that at least two-thirds of the members simulate

295 significant changes (at the 95% significance level), and these significant changes agree on the sign
 296 of the average of multiple members.



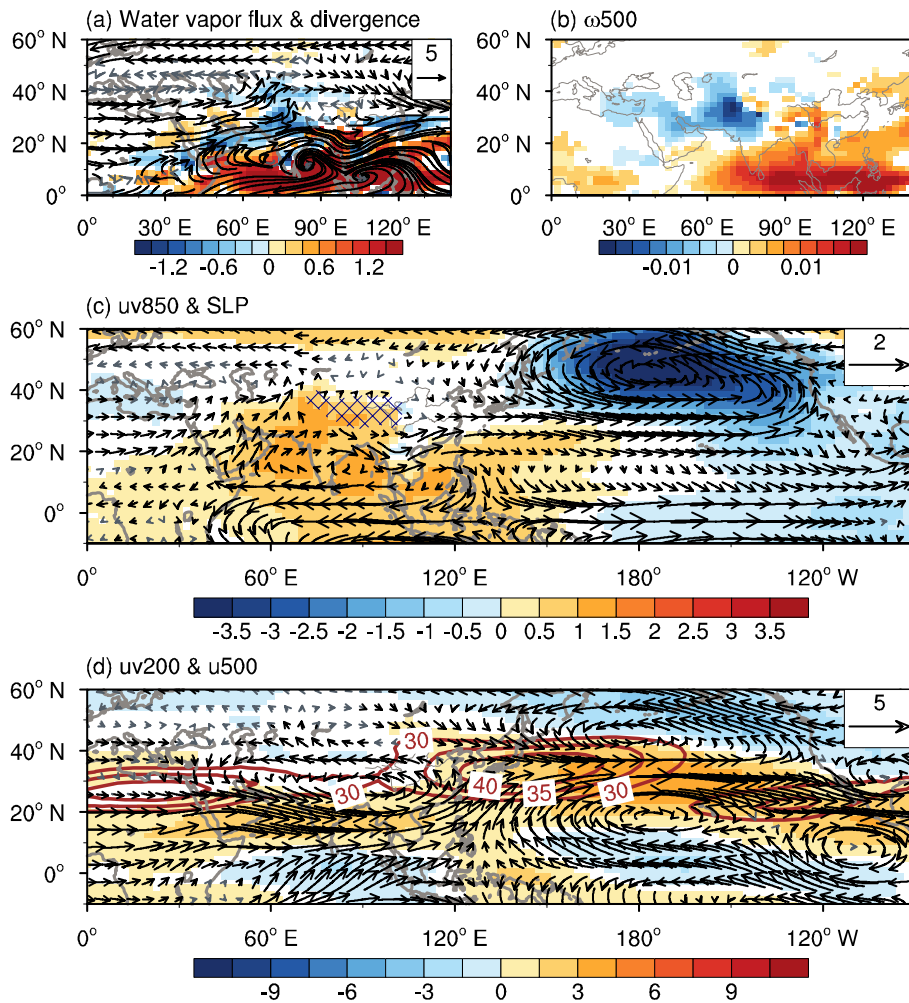
297
 298 **Figure 4.** Simulated seasonal temperature anomalies during the positive phases of the IPO.
 299 Regressed maps of 850 hPa temperature anomalies (units: °C) in (a) winter, (c) spring, (e) summer,
 300 and (g) autumn onto the time series of the IPO index simulated by multiple members of the
 301 CESM-LME all-forcing runs. (b) Winter, (d) spring, (f) summer, and (h) autumn for 500 hPa
 302 temperature anomalies (units: °C). Shading shows that at least two-thirds of the members simulate
 303 significant changes (at the 95% significance level), and these significant changes agree on the sign
 304 of the average of multiple members.

305 3.3.1 Arid central Asia

306 In spring, warming appeared over the northern low and high latitudes, whereas
307 cooling appeared over the northern mid-latitudes, especially in the eastern hemisphere,
308 corresponding to a positive phase of the IPO (Fig. 4c and 4d). The tropospheric
309 temperature anomalies led to an enhanced (weakened) meridional temperature
310 gradient over low (high) latitudes as the climatological temperature decreased from
311 low to high latitudes. The anomalies in the temperature gradient contributed to
312 enhanced westerlies over low latitudes and weakened westerlies over high latitudes
313 via the thermal wind relation (Fig. 5c and 5d), indicating a southward shift of the
314 mid-latitude westerlies. The enhanced westerlies over the Mediterranean Sea and to
315 its east transported more water vapor from the Mediterranean Sea to southern central
316 Asia (Fig. 5a).

317 Positive sea-level pressure (SLP) anomalies appeared over the Indo–western
318 Pacific warm pool and negative SLP anomalies appeared over the eastern tropical
319 Pacific (Fig. 5c), consistent with the SST anomalies during positive IPO phases. The
320 distribution of the SLP anomalies indicated a weakened Walker circulation over the
321 Pacific Ocean, which further led to suppressed convection over the maritime continent
322 (Li et al., 2022). The decreased latent heating associated with the decreased
323 precipitation over the maritime continent can produce westward-propagating
324 baroclinic Rossby wave trains (Jiang et al., 2021). This resulted in anomalous
325 low-level anticyclone and upper-level cyclone over the Indian subcontinent, both of
326 which led to anomalous southerlies over central Asia (Fig. 5c and 5d). The anomalous
327 southerlies induced warm advection and led to anomalous ascending motion in this

328 region (Fig. 5b). In addition, the anomalous southerlies at low troposphere also could
 329 transport more water vapor from low latitudes to central Asia (Fig. 5a). The enhanced
 330 transport of water vapor and the anomalous ascending motion both favored increased
 331 precipitation in spring over central Asia. In summary, the IPO affected the
 332 precipitation from westerly winds through modulating the mid-latitude westerlies and
 333 the Walker circulation in the Pacific Ocean.



334
 335 **Figure 5.** Simulated spring atmospheric circulation anomalies during the positive phases of the
 336 IPO. Regressed maps of anomalous (a) vertically integrated water vapor flux from 1000 to 300
 337 hPa (vectors; units: $\text{kg m}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$) and its divergence (shading; units: $10^{-5} \text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), (b) 500 hPa
 338 vertical velocity (ω_{500}) (units: Pa s^{-1}), (c) 850 hPa wind (uv850) (vectors; units: m s^{-1}) and SLP
 339 (shading; units: hPa), (d) 200 hPa wind (uv200) (vectors; units: m s^{-1}) and 500 hPa zonal wind
 340 (u500) (shading; units: m s^{-1}) onto the time series of the IPO index simulated by the CESM-LME

341 all-forcing runs. The blue hatched patterns in part (c) indicate the region with an altitude >3000 m.
342 The brown contours in part (d) are the climatological 200 hPa zonal wind (units: m s^{-1}). The
343 shading shows that at least two-thirds of the members simulate significant changes (at the 95%
344 significance level), and these significant changes agree on the sign of the average of multiple
345 members. The black vectors show that for the zonal or meridional component, at least two-thirds
346 of the members simulate significant changes (at the 95% significance level), and these significant
347 changes agree on the sign of the average.

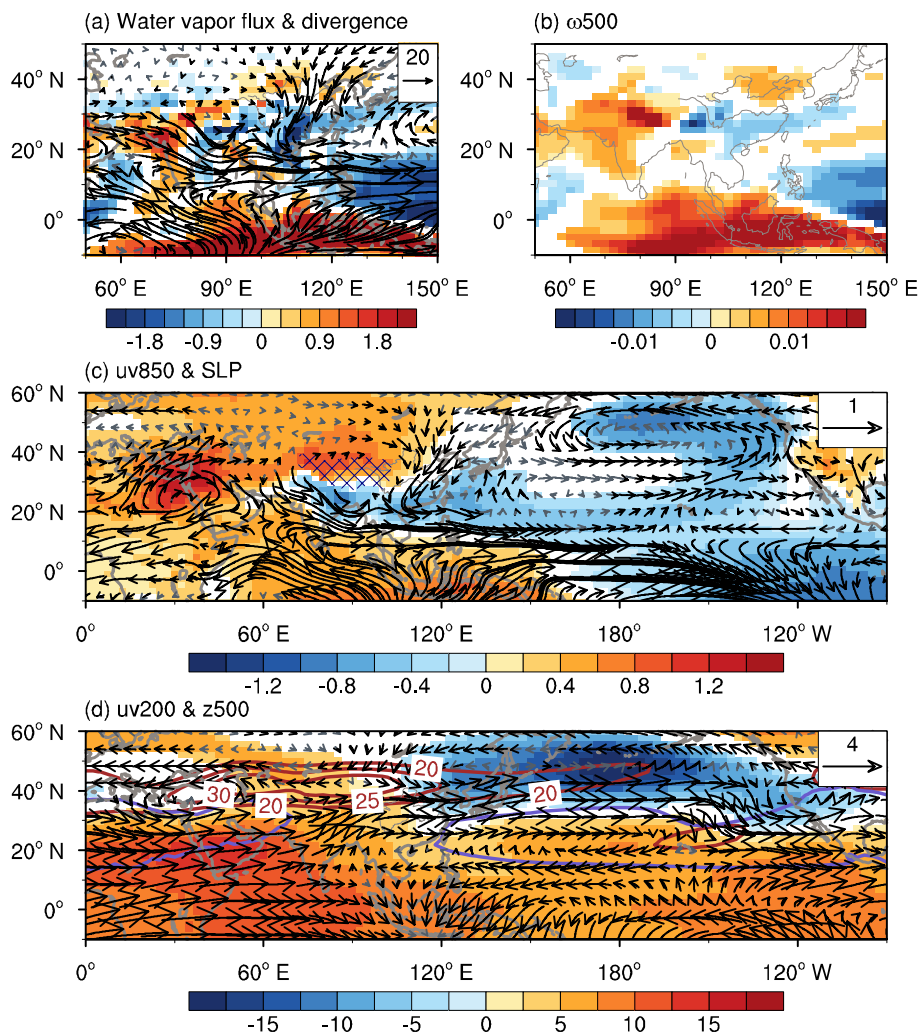
348 The circulation anomalies associated with the IPO in winter were similar to those
349 in spring (Fig. S6), indicating that the processes by which the IPO modulated winter
350 precipitation in central Asia were similar to those in spring.

351 **3.3.2 Asian monsoon regions**

352 In summer, higher (lower) SLPs appeared over the most of the Asian continent
353 (northern Pacific) during the positive phases of the IPO (Fig. 6c). This was the reverse
354 of the climatological state, in which the SLP over most of the Asian continent was
355 lower than that over the neighboring oceans. A weakened land–sea thermal contrast
356 was therefore induced. The weakened land–sea thermal contrast led to a weakened
357 Asian summer monsoon (ASM), featured by northerly anomalies at 850 hPa over the
358 whole of monsoonal Asia (Fig. 6c). The northerly anomalies further led to weakened
359 water vapor transport in this region (Fig. 6a).

360 Anomalies also appeared in the tropospheric temperature (Fig. 4e and 4f) and
361 caused westerly (easterly) anomalies over the south (north) of the climatological
362 Asian subtropical westerly jet at 200 hPa (Fig. 6d). The wind anomalies indicated the
363 southward shift in the Asian subtropical westerly jet and the associated secondary
364 meridional–vertical circulation (Cressman, 1981; Ding, 2005; Zhang and Huang,

365 2011), which led to anomalous downward motion over northern China and anomalous
 366 upward motion over southern China (Fig. 6b) (Wang et al., 2013; Zhu et al., 2015).
 367 The western Pacific subtropical high shifted southeastward (Fig. 6d), which did not
 368 favor the transport of water vapor to northern China (Fig. 6a). These circulation
 369 anomalies all indicate a weakened ASM system (Webster and Yang, 1992; Wang,
 370 2001). Precipitation over southern China therefore increased in summer, whereas
 371 precipitation over northern China and most of the South Asian monsoon regions
 372 decreased. In summary, the IPO affected the monsoon precipitation through
 373 modulating the ASM system.



374
 375 **Figure 6.** Simulated summer atmospheric circulation anomalies during the positive phases of the

376 IPO. Regressed maps of anomalous **(a)** vertically integrated water vapor flux from 1000 to 300
377 hPa (vectors; units: $\text{kg m}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$) and its divergence (shading; units: $10^{-5} \text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), **(b)** 500 hPa
378 vertical velocity (ω_{500}) (units: Pa s^{-1}), **(c)** 850 hPa wind (uv850) (vectors; units: m s^{-1}) and SLP
379 (shading; units: hPa), and **(d)** 200 hPa wind (uv200) (vectors; units: m s^{-1}) and 500 hPa
380 geopotential height (z500) (shading; units: m) onto the time series of the IPO index simulated by
381 the CESM-LME all-forcing runs. The blue hatched patterns in part **(c)** indicate the region with an
382 altitude >3000 m. The brown contours in part **(d)** are the climatological 200 hPa zonal wind (units:
383 m s^{-1}). The purple line in part **(d)** is the isoline with a value of 5860 m in the climatology state.
384 The shading shows that **at least two-thirds of the members simulate significant changes (at the 95%**
385 **significance level), and these significant changes agree on the sign of the average of multiple**
386 **members.** The black vectors show that **for the zonal or meridional component, at least two-thirds**
387 **of the members simulate significant changes (at the 95% significance level), and these significant**
388 **changes agree on the sign of the average.**

389 In autumn, negative anomalies in the 500 hPa geopotential height appeared over
390 the Korean Peninsula (Fig. S7d), indicating a strengthened East Asian trough (EAT)
391 during the positive phases of the IPO (Qin et al., 2018, 2020; Li et al., 2020). The
392 strengthened EAT contributed to northerly anomalies over East Asia (Fig. S7c), which
393 led to weakened water vapor transport in this region (Fig. S7a). The anomalous
394 northerlies to the west of the strengthened EAT induced cold advection (Fig. S7c and
395 S7d) and led to anomalous descending motion over northern China (Fig. S7b).
396 Precipitation therefore decreased over northern China in autumn.

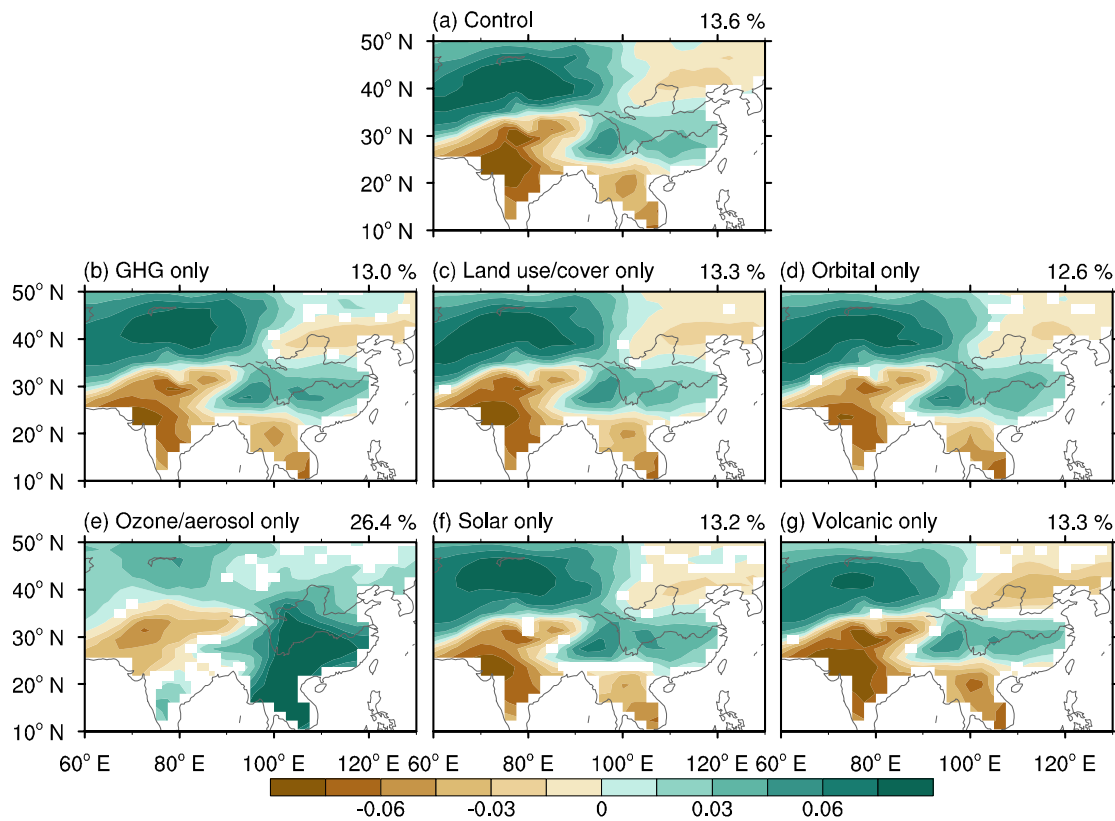
397 Consistent with the SST anomalies during the positive phases of the IPO,
398 positive (negative) SLP anomalies appeared over the Indo–western Pacific warm pool
399 (eastern tropical Pacific) in all four seasons (Figs. 5c, 6c, S6c and S7c), indicating a
400 weakened Walker circulation in the Pacific Ocean, which is in agreement with the

401 results in Dong and Lu (2013) and Zhao et al. (2021). This weakened Walker
402 circulation contributed to decreased precipitation over most of the South Asian
403 monsoon regions (Krishnamurthy and Krishnamurthy, 2014; Li et al., 2021).

404 **3.4 Decisive role of internal variability**

405 Many studies have suggested that both external forcings and internal variability
406 could affect the decadal variability of precipitation over Asia (e.g., Wang et al., 2013;
407 Jin et al., 2019; Zhu et al., 2022). To identify the roles of internal variability and
408 external forcing, Fig. 7 shows the first leading decadal precipitation modes of the
409 control and single-forcing simulations. The decadal linkage between the changes in
410 precipitation pattern in central Asia and monsoonal Asia in the all-forcing simulations
411 also appeared in the control simulation (Fig. 7a), implying this decadal linkage was
412 mainly caused by the internal variability. Nearly all the single-forcing simulations
413 presented similar decadal linkage with all-forcing simulations, apart from the
414 simulations forced by ozone and aerosols (Fig. 7b–g). This indicated that, during the
415 last millennium, volcanic eruptions, solar activity, greenhouse gases, land use and
416 land cover, and the Earth’s orbit were unable to change the decadal linkage between
417 the changes in precipitation pattern in arid regions and monsoon regions in Asia,
418 which was dominated by the internal variability. Only in the ozone and aerosols
419 forcing simulations, which covered the period of 1850–2005, the decadal linkage of
420 precipitation changes disappeared. We further examined the results of other forcing
421 simulations for the period of 1850–2005 (Fig. S8), and all the first decadal
422 precipitation modes simulated by other forcing experiments still indicated similar

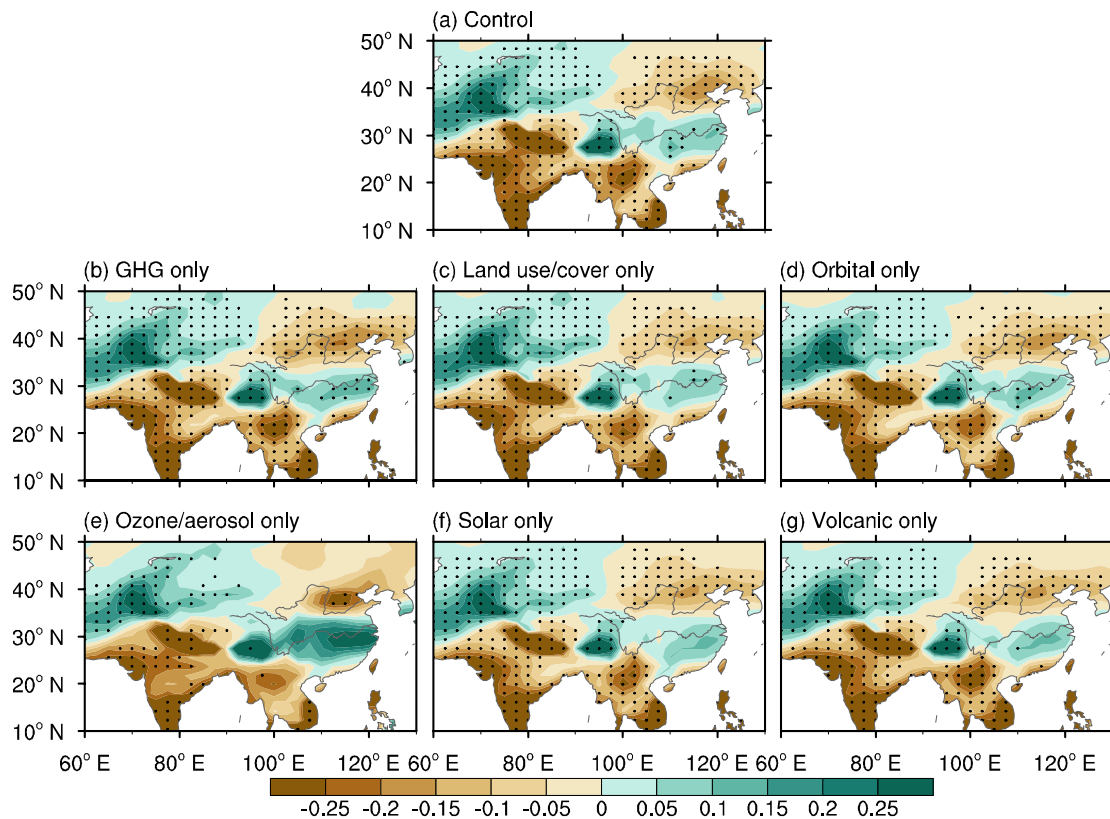
423 decadal linkage with all-forcing last-millennium simulations. This meant that since
 424 the industrial revolution, only the ozone and aerosol forcing factors can change the
 425 dominant mode of the reverse variation of precipitation in East Asia from north to
 426 south and present stronger local climate effects. As noted by Wang et al. (2013), it
 427 may be that anthropogenic aerosols play a more important role in regulating
 428 precipitation in East Asia, which needs further analysis.



429
 430 **Figure 7.** The leading decadal precipitation mode for the time period 850–2005 in the control and
 431 single-forcing simulations, with the exception of leading mode for the time period 1850–2005 in
 432 experiment forced by ozone and aerosols. (a) EOF1 of the nine-year low-pass Lanczos filtered
 433 annual precipitation in the control simulation. The explained variance is given at the top-right. (b–
 434 g) The average EOF1 of the nine-year low-pass Lanczos filtered annual precipitation in six subsets
 435 of the single-forcing simulations: a subset of three simulations forced by greenhouse gas
 436 emissions (GHG); a subset of three simulations forced by land use and land cover; a subset of
 437 three simulations forced by the Earth’s orbit; a subset of four simulations forced by ozone and

438 aerosols; a subset of four simulations forced by solar activity; and a subset of five simulations
439 forced by volcanic eruptions. The averaged explained variance is given at the top-right. The
440 shading in parts **(b–g)** shows where at least two-thirds of the members agree on the sign of the
441 average of multiple members.

442 Apart from the simulations forced by ozone and aerosols, the SST anomalies
443 associated with the leading precipitation mode in the control and single-forcing
444 simulations all showed a positive IPO pattern (Fig. S9), consistent with the all-forcing
445 simulations. At the same time, the precipitation anomalies associated with the positive
446 IPO in the control and single-forcing simulations all showed positive anomalies in
447 arid central Asia and southern China and negative anomalies in the South Asian
448 monsoon region and most of northern China (Fig. 8), also consistent with the
449 all-forcing simulations. This suggested that these external forcing factors cannot
450 change the dominant influence of IPO on Asian decadal precipitation and lead to the
451 decadal linkage between the changes in precipitation pattern in arid regions and
452 monsoon regions in Asia during the last millennium. It is therefore clear that the
453 internal variability associated with the IPO had a decisive role in shaping the decadal
454 linkage of precipitation changes.



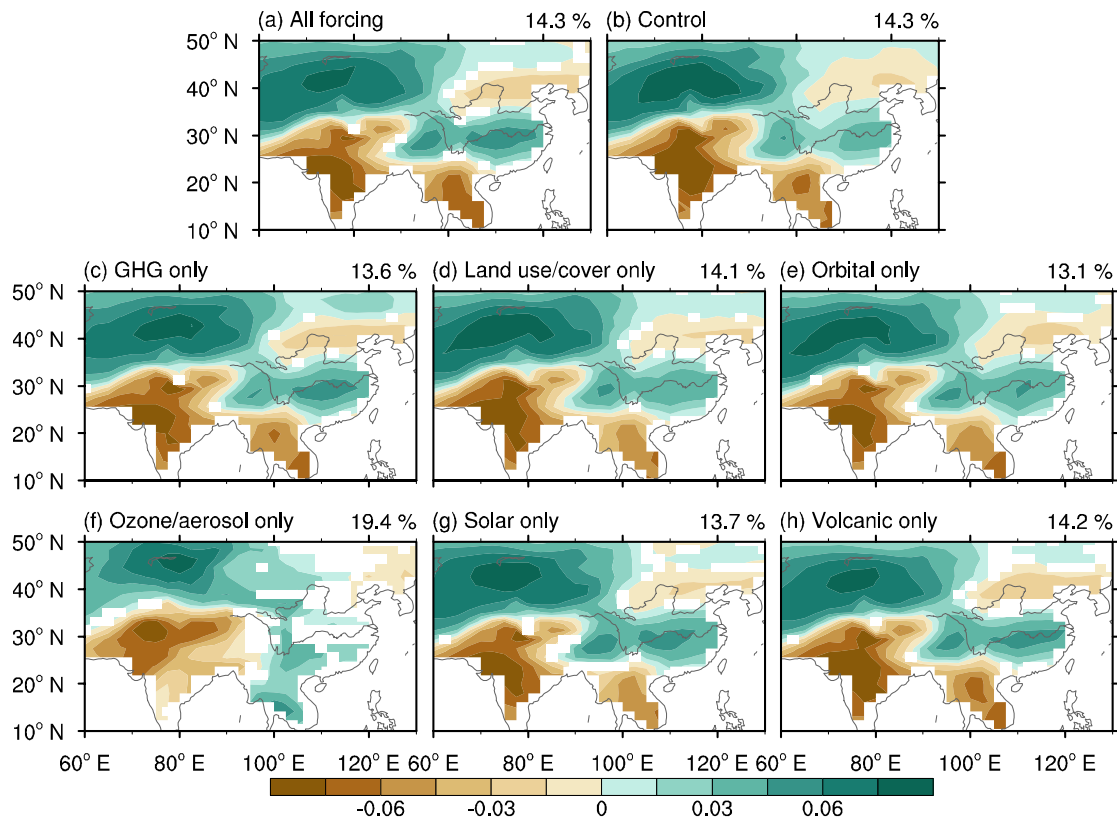
455

456 **Figure 8.** Simulated precipitation anomalies during the positive phases of the IPO in the control
 457 and single-forcing simulations. **(a)** Precipitation anomalies (units: mm day^{-1}) regressed onto the
 458 time series of the IPO index in the control run. **(b–g)** Precipitation anomalies (units: mm day^{-1})
 459 regressed onto the time series of the IPO index in six subsets of the single-forcing simulations.
 460 The dots in part (a) show significant anomalies at the 95% confidence level and the dots in parts
 461 (b–g) denote that at least two-thirds of the members simulate significant changes (at the 95%
 462 significance level), and these significant changes agree on the sign of the average of multiple
 463 members.

464 In the ozone and aerosols forcing simulations, we can find positive precipitation
 465 anomalies in arid central Asia and southern China and negative precipitation
 466 anomalies in the South Asian monsoon region and most of northern China during the
 467 positive phases of the IPO (Fig. 8e). However, the changes in East Asian precipitation
 468 were no longer significant, which meant that the impacts of IPO on East Asian
 469 precipitation in this experiment were weakened.

470 **3.5 Simulated first leading moisture mode**

471 Terrestrial moisture conditions are closely related to precipitation changes and
472 could strongly affect terrestrial ecosystems. The terrestrial moisture condition is
473 quantified by both aridity index and soil moisture content here. Based on our analyses
474 of the aridity index (Fig. 9a) and the soil moisture content (Fig. S10a), we found that
475 the EOF1 of the decadal changes in Asian moisture during the last millennium also
476 showed the same changes in moisture in arid central Asia and southern China, which
477 were the opposite of those in the South Asian monsoon region and most of northern
478 China. This is consistent with the first leading precipitation mode, suggesting the
479 important contribution of precipitation to the decadal linkage between the changes in
480 moisture pattern in arid regions and monsoon regions in Asia. Similar first leading
481 moisture mode was seen in all the experiments apart from those with only ozone and
482 aerosol forcing (Figs. 9 and S10), indicating the decisive role of internal variability on
483 the decadal linkage of moisture changes.

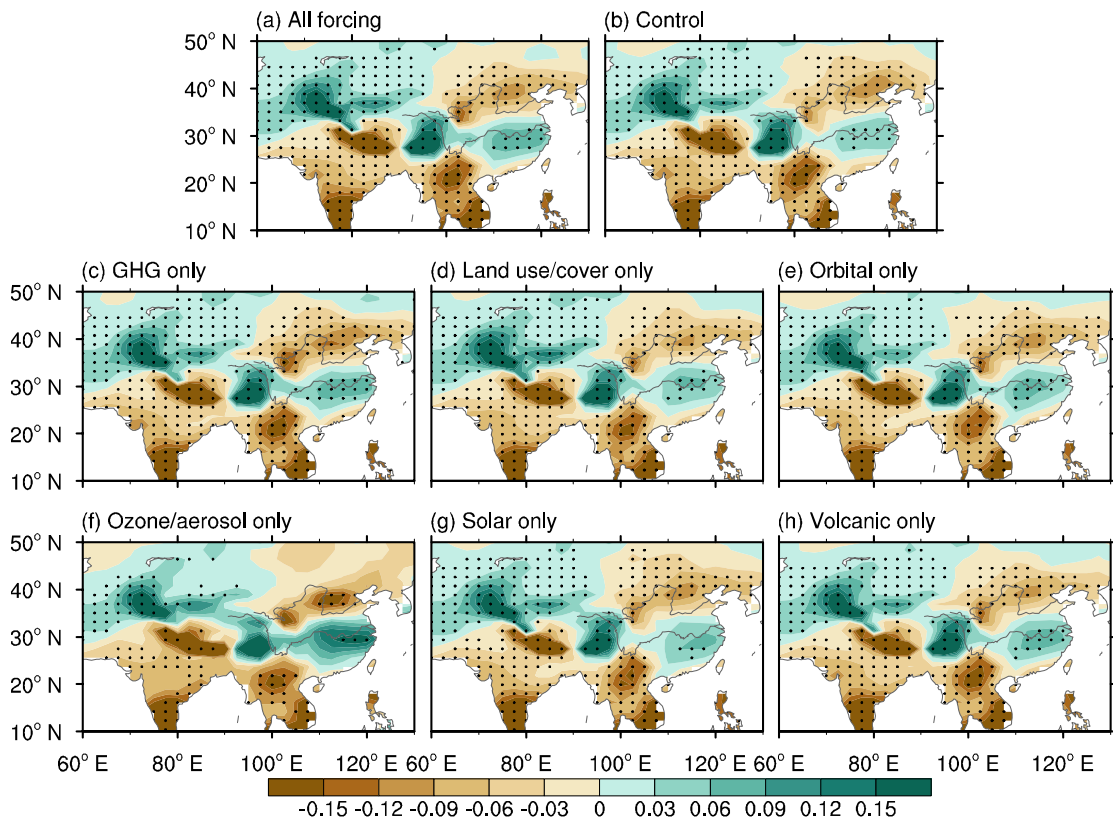


484

485 **Figure 9.** The simulated leading decadal aridity index mode for the time period 850–2005 in all
 486 the experiments, with the exception of leading mode for the time period 1850–2005 in experiment
 487 forced by ozone and aerosols. (a) The average EOF1 of the nine-year low-pass Lanczos filtered
 488 aridity index in the all-forcing simulations. The averaged explained variance is given at the
 489 top-right. (b) EOF1 of the nine-year low-pass Lanczos filtered aridity index in the control
 490 simulation. The explained variance is given at the top-right. (c–h) The average EOF1 of the
 491 nine-year low-pass Lanczos filtered aridity index in six subsets of the single-forcing simulations.
 492 The averaged explained variance is given at the top-right. The shading in parts (a, c–h) shows
 493 where at least two-thirds of the members agree on the sign of the average of multiple members.

494 The SST anomalies associated with the leading moisture mode in all experiments,
 495 apart from those with only ozone and aerosol forcing, showed a positive IPO pattern
 496 (Figs. S11 and S12), indicating the dominant role of the IPO on the decadal linkage of
 497 moisture changes. The moisture anomalies associated with the positive IPO showed
 498 positive anomalies in arid central Asia and southern China and negative anomalies in

499 the South Asian monsoon region and most of northern China in all the experiments
 500 (Figs. 10 and S13), consistent with the leading moisture mode. This further confirmed
 501 the **mentioned** dominant role of the IPO. Therefore, the internal variability
 502 associated with the IPO also had a decisive role in shaping the decadal linkage
 503 between the changes in moisture pattern in arid regions and monsoon regions in Asia
 504 through regulating precipitation during the last millennium.



505
 506 **Figure 10.** Simulated aridity index anomalies during the positive phases of the IPO. The aridity
 507 index anomalies regressed onto the time series of the IPO index in the (a) all-forcing simulations,
 508 (b) control simulation, and (c–h) six subsets of the single-forcing simulations. The dots in part (b)
 509 show significant anomalies at the 95% confidence level and the dots in parts (a, c–h) denote that
 510 **at least two-thirds of the members simulate significant changes (at the 95% significance level),**
 511 **and these significant changes agree on the sign of the average of multiple members.**

512 **4 Discussion**

513 **4.1 Limited impacts of external forcings on decadal precipitation linkage**

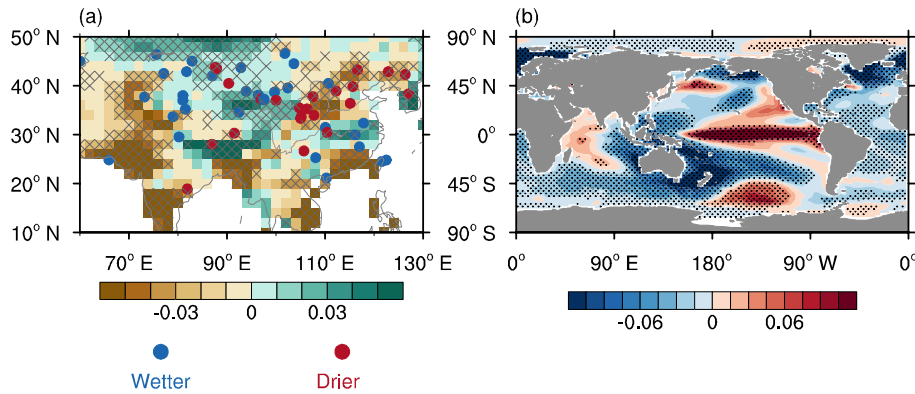
514 As stated in section 3.4, the spatial pattern of leading decadal precipitation mode
515 in all-forcing simulations also appears in control and all single-forcing simulations,
516 apart from the simulations forced by ozone and aerosols. This indicates the dominant
517 role of internal variability in shaping the spatial pattern of leading decadal
518 precipitation mode during the last millennium. Moreover, this process can be partially
519 influenced by the impacts of ozone and aerosol forcing since the industrial revolution.
520 During this period, ozone and aerosols have played crucial roles in regulating the
521 climate at mid-latitudes in the Northern Hemisphere (Miao et al., 2022). However, the
522 relative impact of internal variability and external forcings on the time variations of
523 the leading decadal precipitation mode during the last millennium remains unclear.
524 Thus, we calculated the correlations across the time series of the leading decadal
525 precipitation mode (i.e., the principal components) simulated by CESM-LME 12
526 all-forcing simulations (Table S1). Except for autocorrelations for each principal
527 component, the other correlations range from -0.06 to 0.35, and only 13.6%
528 correlations are significant at the 95% confidence level. These relatively small
529 correlations indicate the impacts of external forcings on the time variations of the
530 leading decadal precipitation mode are very weak. The several significant correlations
531 suggest that, to a limited extent, the time variations of the leading decadal
532 precipitation mode could be affected by external forcings (e.g., volcanic eruptions and
533 solar radiation) (Ning et al., 2020; Xue et al., 2023). Therefore, internal variability
534 played a dominant role in shaping the time variations of the leading decadal

535 precipitation mode.

536 In summary, the impacts of external forcings on both spatial pattern and time
537 variations of the leading decadal precipitation mode are relatively weak, which
538 indicates limited impacts of external forcings on decadal linkage between
539 precipitation changes in arid central Asia and humid monsoonal Asia during the last
540 millennium. This is quite different from the dominating role of external forcings in
541 regulating the variations of Asian precipitation at suborbital and longer timescales (Xu
542 et al., 2023).

543 **4.2 Centennial precipitation/moisture linkage**

544 The features of decadal linkage between moisture/precipitation changes in arid
545 central Asia and humid monsoonal Asia during the last millennium have been
546 investigated and the dynamic mechanisms associated with the decadal linkage have
547 been explored above. Next, the potential linkage on multi-centennial scale implied by
548 reconstruction is discussed here. Between the LIA and MCA, on multi-centennial
549 scale, wetter (drier) conditions over arid central Asia and southern China (most of
550 northern China) were reconstructed in Chen et al. (2015) (Fig. 11a). Besides, the
551 changes in precipitation between the LIA and the MCA based on the LMR showed
552 more (less) precipitation over eastern central Asia and southern China (the South
553 Asian monsoon region and most of northern China) (Fig. 11a), consistent with the
554 reconstructed changes in precipitation/moisture in Chen et al. (2015). These results
555 suggest a robust centennial linkage of the changes in precipitation/moisture in central
556 Asia and monsoonal Asia, similar to the decadal precipitation/moisture linkage.



557

558 **Figure 11.** Reconstructed changes in **(a)** precipitation (units: mm day⁻¹) and **(b)** SST (units: °C)
 559 between the LIA and MCA in the LMR. The gray hatched patterns in part **(a)** and black dots in
 560 part **(b)** indicate significant anomalies at the 95% confidence level. The dots in part **(a)** represent
 561 the reconstructed precipitation/moisture records modified from Chen et al. (2015); the blue (red)
 562 dots denote wetter (drier) conditions in the LIA than in the MCA.

563 The reconstructed changes in the SST between the LIA and MCA showed higher
 564 (lower) SSTs over the central-eastern equatorial Pacific (the western-central parts of
 565 both the subtropical North Pacific and South Pacific) (Fig. 11b). According to the
 566 present study, the IPO-like condition may be the primary cause of the centennial
 567 linkage of changes in precipitation/moisture in central Asia and monsoonal Asia.
 568 However, most current models still cannot reproduce the evolution of the Pacific
 569 Decadal Oscillation (Wang and Miao, 2018). The CESM-LME simulations were also
 570 unable to produce the reconstructed centennial changes in SST between the LIA and
 571 MCA. Therefore, in the present study, we cannot directly obtain the evidence of the
 572 **aforementioned** centennial linkage from the CESM-LME results. The failure of
 573 CESM-LME simulations in reproducing the centennial linkage further limits our
 574 understanding of the relative roles of the external forcings and internal variability **in**
 575 **shaping** the centennial linkage. Thus, further investigation remains needed.

576 **5 Conclusions**

577 Based on the LMR dataset and CESM-LME all-forcing simulations, the first
578 leading precipitation mode in Asia on decadal scale during the last millennium
579 showed the same changes in precipitation in arid central Asia and southern China,
580 which were the opposite of those in the South Asian monsoon region and most of
581 northern China. This mode indicated a robust linkage between the changes in
582 precipitation pattern in arid regions and monsoon regions in Asia on decadal scale, in
583 which the evolution of precipitation in central Asia was out-of-phase with that of
584 northern China and the South Asian monsoon regions and in-phase with that of
585 southern China.

586 Further analysis based on CESM-LME all-forcing, control and all single-forcing
587 simulations showed that the internal variability associated with the IPO plays a
588 dominant role in connecting the decadal variations in precipitation between arid
589 central Asia and monsoonal Asia by modulating the precipitation of their respective
590 major rainy seasons during the last millennium. In spring, the positive IPO could
591 enhance westerlies over the Mediterranean Sea and to its east, which could transport
592 more water vapor and cause increased precipitation over central Asia. In summer, the
593 positive IPO is accompanied with weakened Asian summer monsoon and southward
594 Asian subtropical westerly jet, which further lead to increased (decreased) summer
595 precipitation over southern China (over northern China and South Asian monsoon
596 region). Besides, the positive IPO can weaken Pacific Walker circulation, which
597 contributes to precipitation decrease over South Asian monsoon regions in all four

598 seasons.

599 In addition, this decadal linkage of precipitation variation also causes a similar
600 decadal linkage of moisture changes in central Asia and monsoonal Asia during the
601 last millennium.

602

603 **Data availability.** The Last Millennium Reanalysis (LMR) Version 2.1 dataset (Tardif
604 et al., 2019; Anderson et al., 2019) used in this study are available at
605 <https://www.atmos.uw.edu/~hakim/LMR/>. The Community Earth System Model-Last
606 Millennium Ensemble (CESM-LME) (Otto-Bliesner et al., 2016) can be founded at
607 <https://www.cesm.ucar.edu/community-projects/lme>.

608

609 **Author contributions.** TW designed the study; HX analyzed the dataset and plotted
610 the figures; HX, TW and HW all contributed to writing the manuscript and
611 interpreting results; Funding was acquired by TW and HX.

612

613 **Competing interests.** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

614

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621

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