

# More Frequent Extreme Precipitation on the Asian Monsoon Fringes Driven by Evolving Extratropical Planetary-Scale Circulations

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17 **Abstract**

18 In recent decades, the fringes of the Asian summer monsoon, such as Pakistan and Northeast China,  
19 have become hotspots of extreme precipitation. Although such increases are often linked to  
20 thermodynamic changes in a warming climate, the dynamical drivers behind these trends,  
21 particularly the systematic role of extratropical circulations, remain poorly understood. This study  
22 identifies the large-scale atmospheric circulation patterns responsible for intense summertime  
23 rainfall in Northeast China and Pakistan. Clustering analysis reveals that the recent increase in  
24 intense precipitation is driven by a distinct shift in the preferred Rossby wave pathways over  
25 Eurasia. Dynamical analysis with an idealized model indicates that this shift is driven by an  
26 evolving upper-tropospheric mean flow which modifies atmospheric instability and wave  
27 propagation. These results highlight the need to understand the origins of extratropical background  
28 flow changes to improve projections of regional precipitation in a changing climate.

29 **Plain Language Summary:**

30 In recent years, regions on the fringes of the Asian summer monsoon, such as Pakistan and  
31 Northeast China, have suffered from increasingly frequent and severe floods. While a warmer  
32 climate contributes to this by allowing the air to hold more moisture, we find that changes in  
33 midlatitude atmospheric circulations play a critical role. We identify three distinct pathways that  
34 atmospheric waves follow across Eurasia to reach these regions. Critically, a recent shift in the  
35 summer jet stream has effectively guided these waves along a preferred "central" path, which  
36 impacts both Pakistan and Northeast China. Idealized modeling further confirms that these changes  
37 in the background circulations have made the atmosphere more favorable for this specific wave  
38 path to develop.

39     **1 Introduction**

40           The Asian summer monsoon, a major component of the global climate system, brings  
41   heavy summer rainfall across southern and eastern Eurasia each year. It consists of the South Asian  
42   Summer Monsoon (SASM) and the East Asian Summer Monsoon (EASM). The SASM brings  
43   most of the annual precipitation over South Asia between June and September and is characterized  
44   by distinct monsoonal dynamics (B. Wang, 2006; Webster et al., 1998). By contrast, the EASM  
45   exhibits more complex spatiotemporal structures. It extends from subtropical to midlatitude  
46   regions, with elongated rain belts (the Meiyu/Jangma/Baiu front) stretching thousands of  
47   kilometers (Ding et al., 2020; Hu et al., 2021).

48           In recent decades, regions at the fringes of the Asian summer monsoon such as Pakistan  
49   and Northeast China have become hotspots of hydrological extremes (Nanditha et al., 2023; Tang  
50   et al., 2023). Northeast China lies near the northern extent of the EASM where summer rainfall  
51   accounts for up to two-thirds of the annual total (Chen et al., 2015). Since the 1990s, anomalous  
52   summer precipitation events have become more frequent, leading to major agricultural and  
53   economic losses (T. Gao et al., 2017; Sun & Ao, 2013; Yu & Ma, 2022). Pakistan lies at the  
54   northwestern edge of the SASM, where monsoonal moisture lifted over the Himalayan terrain  
55   produces intense rainfall and floods (Khan & Hasan, 2019). The 2022 Pakistan flood, driven by  
56   record-breaking rainfall from mid-June through August, led to a death toll surpassing the toll of  
57   the famous 2010 flood (Nanditha et al., 2023).

58           Precipitation in the Asian monsoon fringes is largely controlled by the spatiotemporal  
59   variability of monsoonal circulations. In Northeast China, the enhanced moisture transport from  
60   low-level southerly wind anomalies in EASM serve as a strong indicator of intense rainfall (L. Sun  
61   et al., 2007, 2017). Similarly, much of Pakistan's precipitation variability arises from

62 spatiotemporal fluctuations of the SASM circulation, along with varying activities of synoptic  
63 systems such as monsoon lows originating near the Bay of Bengal (Houze et al., 2011; Hurley &  
64 Boos, 2015; Y. You & Ting, 2021). Changes in thermodynamic processes, including the enhanced  
65 moisture-holding capacity of the atmosphere under a warming climate, have also been argued to  
66 be partly responsible for the amplified extreme rainfall in Pakistan in recent decades (Ullah et al.,  
67 2023; Y. You et al., 2024).

68 Beyond direct and indirect influences from monsoonal circulations, precipitation in  
69 monsoon fringes is also affected by extratropical dynamics. The Summer North Atlantic  
70 Oscillation (SNAO) can induce meridional dipole patterns in rainfall over central and northern  
71 East Asia by modulating stationary wave activity across Eurasia, leaving a clear footprint on  
72 Northeast China precipitation (Shen et al., 2011; Sun & Wang, 2012; Z. Wang et al., 2018).  
73 Likewise, intrusions of upper-level troughs from higher latitudes into northern Pakistan have also  
74 contributed to regional extreme rainfall (Dengri & Yamada, 2024; Lau & Kim 2012; Trenberth &  
75 Fasullo, 2012). While these studies highlight important mechanisms from higher latitudes, the  
76 current body of literature remains heavily focused on monsoon-related dynamic and  
77 thermodynamic processes. In contrast, systematic assessments of the extratropical circulation  
78 regimes that trigger extreme rainfall remain limited. The variability and trends of these circulation  
79 patterns, along with the processes driving their initiation and development under varying climate  
80 conditions, are not well understood.

81 To address this gap, this study systematically identifies the large-scale extratropical  
82 circulation patterns responsible for intense June-August (JJA) precipitation in Northeast China and  
83 Pakistan. To explain trends in the frequency of occurrence of the identified wave patterns, we  
84 examine changes in the JJA mean flow and apply optimal mode analysis using an idealized

85 barotropic model linearized around the JJA background flow in the early and late periods of the  
86 past four decades. Finally, we assess the consistency between shifts in optimal mode characteristics  
87 and observed trends in the identified wave patterns to reveal the dynamical origins of long-term  
88 trends in intense rainfall over monsoon fringes.

89

## 90 **2 Materials and Methods**

### 91 **2.1 Clustering of Large-scale Circulation Patterns Triggering Intense Precipitation**

92 To systematically evaluate the large-scale forcing mechanisms of intense precipitation, we  
93 perform hierarchical clustering analysis using Ward's method (Ward, 1963; Z. You et al., 2024) on  
94 large-scale circulation patterns associated with high-precipitation days over Northeast China (40°-  
95 50°N, 120°-130°E). Precipitation percentiles are computed using a ±20-day window centered on  
96 each calendar day within JJA. Days with precipitation exceeding the 50th percentile are identified  
97 as days of intense precipitation. For these selected days, 250 hPa geopotential height anomalies  
98 from day -4 to day 0 are extracted as the basis for clustering. The spatial domain of classification  
99 spans 30°-70°N and 0°-140°E. The purpose of choosing this broad spatiotemporal domain is to  
100 capture the full upstream evolution of disturbances (Z. You & Deng, 2022) influencing Northeast  
101 China. Cases with overlapping days are excluded prior to clustering.

### 102 **2.2 Linear Barotropic Model**

103 In this study, we apply a quasi-geostrophic barotropic model at the 250 hPa pressure level  
104 on a midlatitude channel domain spanning 20°-80°N (Holton & Hakim, 2013; Mak, 2011). Linear  
105 damping on relative vorticity is applied to mimic the spin-down effect associated with the presence  
106 of a planetary boundary layer (Holton & Hakim, 2013). A hyperdiffusion term is added for scale

107 selection to damp grid- and subgrid-scale waves (Sardeshmukh & Hoskins, 1988; Simmons et al.,  
108 1983). The model is linearized around a background flow. In this study, two background flows are  
109 used: the JJA mean geopotential height at 250 hPa averaged over 1982-2002 and 2003-2023. To  
110 test robustness, we select three combinations of linear damping parameters and three  
111 hyperdiffusion parameters. Details of the model setup are provided in supporting Text S1.

### 112 **2.3 Optimal Mode (Nonmodal Instability) Analysis**

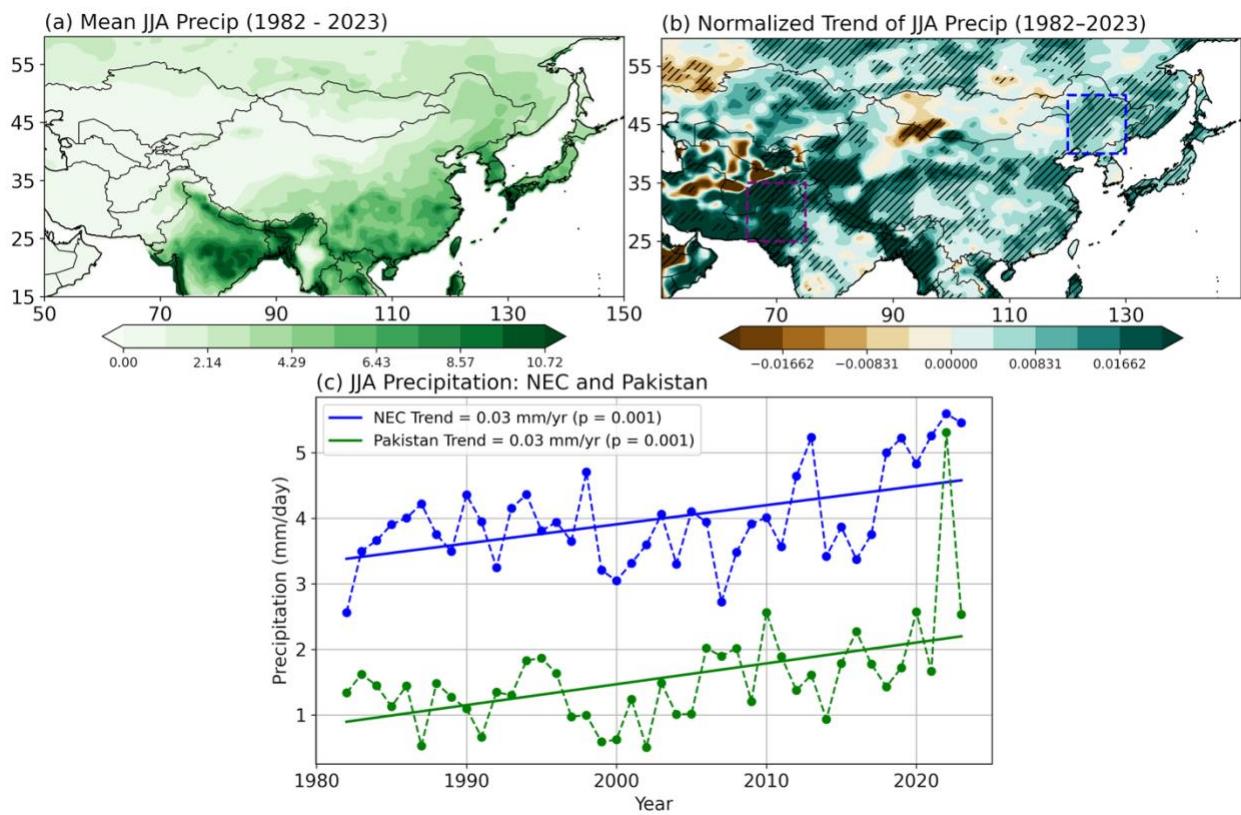
113 After constructing the dynamical model with boundary conditions and finite differencing,  
114 we apply optimal mode (nonmodal instability) analysis (Z. You & Deng, 2025; Zhao et al., 2018,  
115 2020; Zhao & Deng, 2020). This analysis identifies the initial disturbances that amplify most  
116 rapidly (in terms as wave amplitude) over a specified time interval on a prescribed background  
117 flow. Local optimization over the domain of clustering analysis in Section 2.1 is adopted by  
118 applying heavier weights in the wave amplitude over the target domain. The optimal disturbances  
119 are constructed as linear combinations of all intrinsic normal modes and are obtained through an  
120 eigenvalue problem, which yields the structures of the optimal modes for the chosen time interval  
121 and their amplification factors. Detailed procedures for obtaining the optimal modes are provided  
122 in supporting Text S2.

### 123 **2.4 Data**

124 The observational precipitation comes from the Climate Prediction Center (CPC) global  
125 unified gauge-based analysis of daily precipitation data with spatial resolution of  $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$  (Xie  
126 et al., 2007). The atmospheric variables come from the fifth generation of ECMWF reanalysis  
127 dataset (ERA5) with spatial resolution of  $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$  (Hersbach et al., 2020).

129 **3 Results**130 **3.1 Climatology and Decadal Trends of JJA Precipitation**

131 Figure 1 illustrates the spatial distribution and long-term trends of JJA precipitation across  
 132 the Eurasian continent. During JJA, the heaviest precipitation across East and Central Asia occurs  
 133 over the monsoon regions (Figure 1a). To highlight the relative magnitude of precipitation changes,  
 134 Figure 1b shows normalized local precipitation trends by dividing them by the corresponding  
 135 climatological means as shown in Figure 1a. A significant wetting trend extends across much of  
 136 Eurasia, with the strongest increases near the monsoon regions and their fringes, including Pakistan,  
 137 Bangladesh, Myanmar, and eastern China.

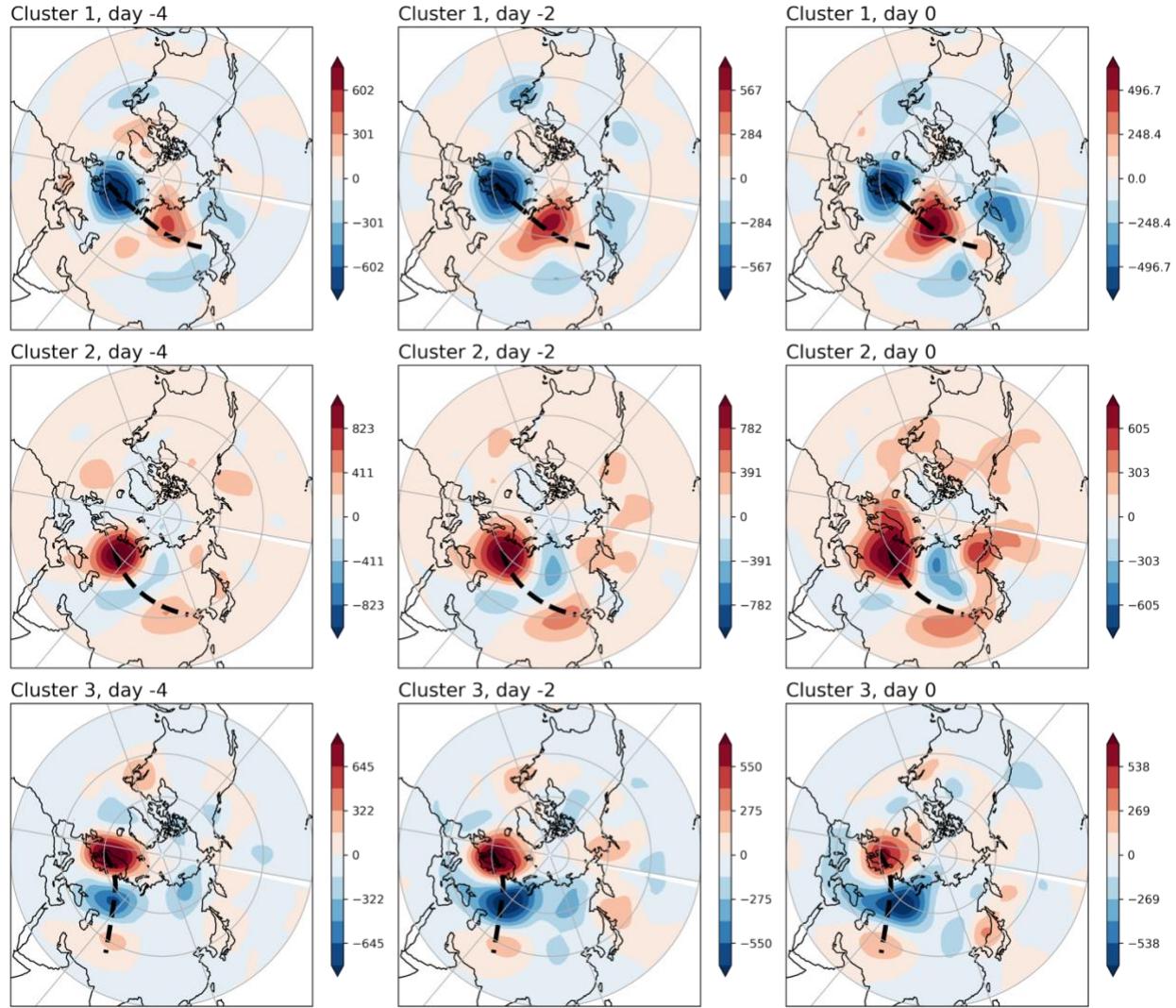


138  
 139 **Figure 1.** (a) Climatology of JJA (June-August) mean precipitation (mm/day) over East and  
 140 Central Asia during 1982–2023. (b) Interannual trend in JJA mean precipitation (mm/day/year)  
 141 over the same period normalized by the climatology in (a). (c) Time series and trend lines, for JJA  
 142 mean precipitation averaged over Northeast China ( $40^{\circ}$ - $50^{\circ}$ N,  $120^{\circ}$ - $130^{\circ}$ E; blue lines) and the  
 143 Pakistan region ( $25^{\circ}$ - $35^{\circ}$ N,  $65^{\circ}$ - $75^{\circ}$ E; green lines).

144  
145        In the two focus regions of this study, i.e., Northeast China (blue box in Figure 1b) and  
146        Pakistan (purple box in Figure 1b), Figure 1c further demonstrates that both Northeast China and  
147        Pakistan have experienced comparable upward trends, despite receiving less rainfall on average  
148        than the core monsoon regions of East and South Asia. The absolute magnitudes of the trends are  
149        similar in both regions ( $\sim 0.03 \text{ mm day}^{-1}\text{year}^{-1}$ ), although the relative increase is smaller in  
150        Northeast China due to its larger climatological mean. Notably, 2010 and 2022 stand out as  
151        exceptionally wet years in Pakistan, and 2013 and 2022 in Northeast China. The consistent upward  
152        trends across both northern and western monsoon fringes emphasize the need to examine the  
153        circulation anomalies responsible for this intensification.

154        **3.2 Large-Scale Forcing Patterns Triggering Intense Precipitation**

155        The hierarchical clustering on the large-scale circulation patterns preceding extreme events  
156        (in Section 2.1) reveals three dominant circulation patterns (clusters) associated with intense  
157        precipitation in Northeast China. All three composite forcing patterns feature quasi-stationary  
158        Rossby waves with low phase speeds and evident downstream energy dispersion (Figure 2).  
159        Cluster 1 features an intense low-pressure anomaly over Scandinavia and a pronounced ridge over  
160        northern Siberia. The circulation pattern near Northeast Asia resembles the “dipole pattern”  
161        (anomalies over northern Siberia and East Asia) linked to the Summer North Atlantic Oscillation  
162        (SNAO) (Sun & Wang, 2012). Cluster 2 is characterized by a strong high-pressure anomaly over  
163        eastern Europe, with downstream energy dispersing toward Northeast China by day 0. Cluster 3  
164        features a wave train extending from northern Europe into central Asia, with weaker energy  
165        dispersion into Northeast China. Clusters 1, 2, and 3 account for 39%, 31%, and 30% of intense  
166        precipitation events in Northeast China, respectively.



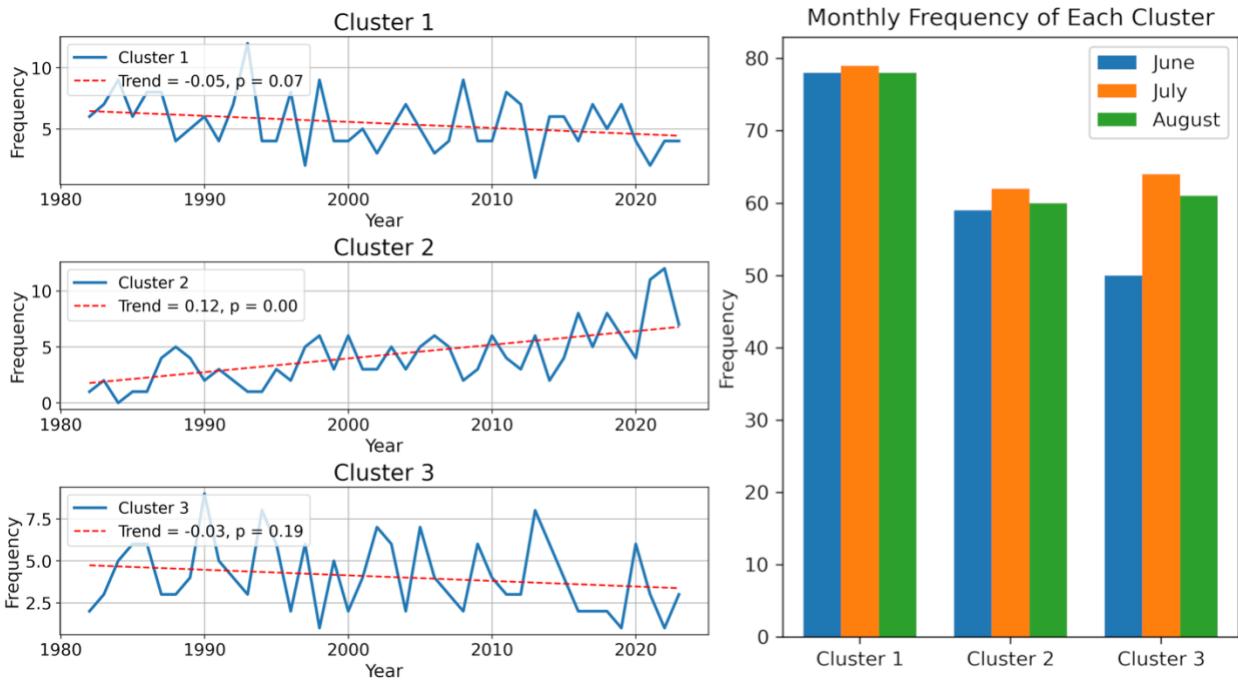
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168 **Figure 2.** Composite anomalies of 250 hPa geopotential (shading; m<sup>2</sup>/s<sup>2</sup>) associated with each  
169 cluster from day -4 to day 0. Columns represent different lead times (-4, -2, and 0 days), and  
170 rows correspond to individual clusters. Black dashed lines indicate approximate pathways of  
171 disturbance propagation within each cluster.

172

173 The three clusters exhibit distinct circulation patterns and particularly distinct pathways of  
174 wave energy dispersion, illustrated by black dashed lines in Figure 2. Cluster 1 follows a zonal  
175 pathway stretching from Scandinavia across Siberia into Northeast Asia. Cluster 2 propagates  
176 across Mongolia into eastern China, indicating a “central” pathway, while Cluster 3, characterized  
177 by an equatorward pathway, tracks along a great-circle route moving across central Asia. As shown

178 later (Figure 4), these pathways are closely linked to changes in the cluster occurrence frequency  
179 between the early (1982-2002) and recent (2003-2023) period.



180  
181 **Figure 3.** (Left) Interannual time series and linear trends in the JJA frequency of each cluster from  
182 1982 to 2023. Each panel shows the annual frequency of clusters with the linear trend line (red  
183 dashed). (Right) Monthly frequency of each cluster during June, July, and August.

184  
185 Clusters 1 and 3 occur with similar frequency across June, July, and August, while Cluster  
186 2 is more common in July and August (Figure 3, right). In terms of interannual frequency, only  
187 Cluster 2 exhibits a statistically significant positive trend over the past 40 years (Figure 3, left).  
188 Interestingly, Cluster 2 frequently leads to intense precipitation in Pakistan in addition to Northeast  
189 China. For instance, during July-August 2010, the persistent Pakistan flood and the Russian heat  
190 wave, were dynamically connected through an extratropical circulation pattern resembling Cluster  
191 2 (Di Capua et al., 2021; Lau & Kim, 2012). Although many studies have analyzed the  
192 meteorological patterns associated with these events (Di Capua et al., 2021; Lau & Kim, 2012;  
193 Trenberth & Fasullo, 2012), efforts to trace the origins of the relevant large-scale disturbances

194 remain inconclusive. The robust upward trend in the Cluster 2 occurrence motivates further  
195 investigation, which forms the focus of the remainder of this study.

196 **3.3 Changes in Summer Mean Flow and Rossby Waveguides**

197 To explain the observed changes in cluster occurrence frequency, we first examine  
198 differences in the background (summer mean) flow between the later period (2003-2023) and the  
199 earlier period (1982-2002) (Figure 4). The background shifts match with the observed trends in  
200 the extratropical Rossby wave pathway in Figure 3. The shift and extension of the North Atlantic  
201 jet in the later period (Figure 4b) supports greater downstream wave propagation, consistent with  
202 the increasing frequency of Cluster 2 and the decreasing frequencies of Clusters 1 and 3 over the  
203 past four decades (Figure 3). The intensified Asian jet and its extension into Northeast China  
204 (Figure 4b) also align with the rising trend in intense precipitation in that region.

205 To connect mean flow changes with Rossby wave propagation, we calculate the stationary  
206 wavenumber  $K_s$  following the waveguide formulation (Hoskins & Ambrizzi, 1993):

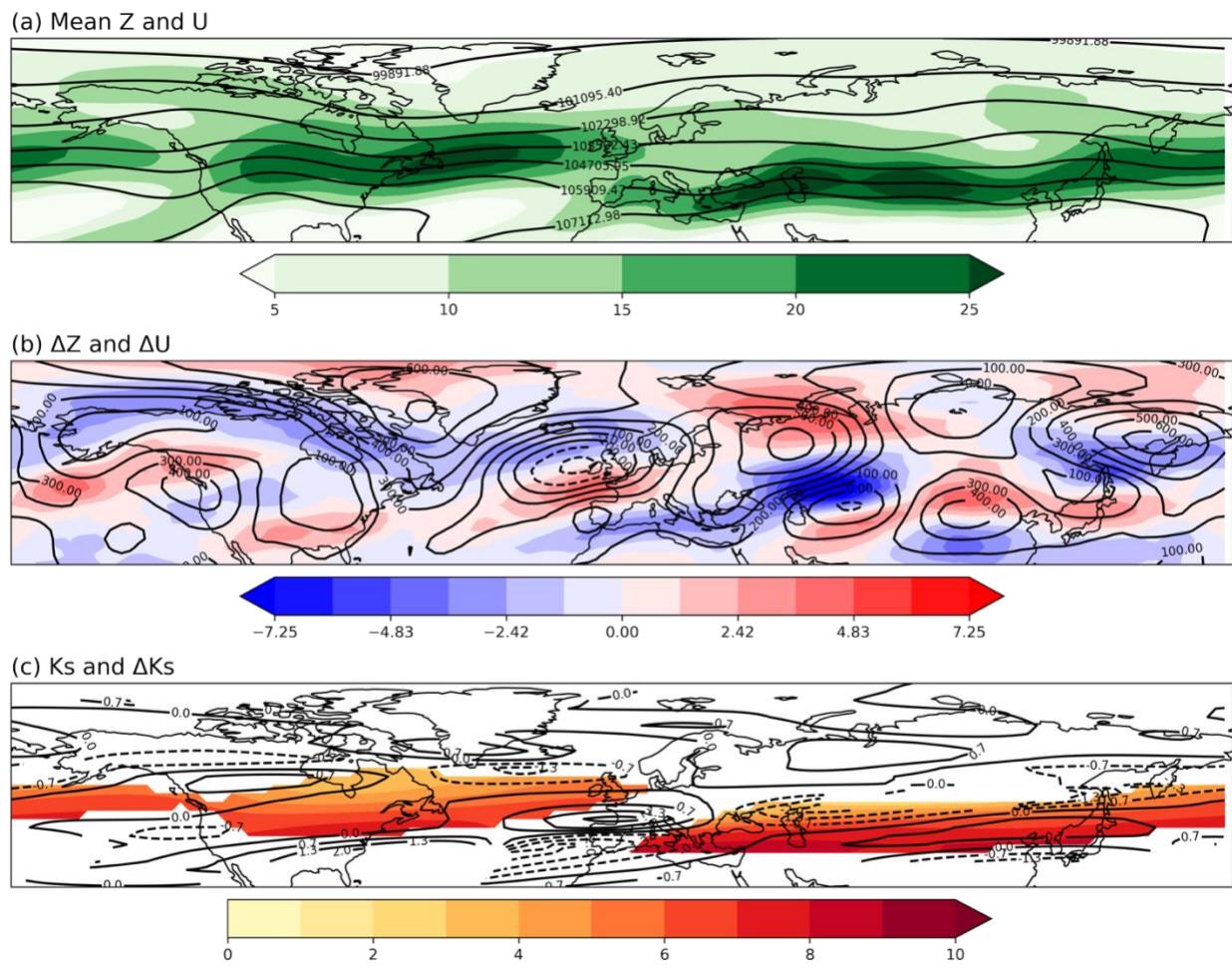
207 
$$K_s = a \left( \frac{\beta_M}{U_M} \right)^{1/2} \quad (1)$$

208 where  $U_M$  is the mean zonal wind,  $a$  is Earth's radius, and  $\beta_M$  is the meridional gradient of the  
209 absolute vorticity (planetary vorticity  $f$  and relative vorticity of the background flow  $U_M$ ). The full  
210 expression for  $\beta_M$  is:

211 
$$\beta_M = \frac{2\Omega \cos^2 \varphi}{a} - \frac{\cos \varphi}{a^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \varphi} \frac{1}{\cos \varphi} \frac{\partial}{\partial \varphi} (U_M \cos^2 \varphi) \quad (2)$$

212 Stationary Rossby waves tend to refract toward large  $K_s$  values. Thus, local maxima in  $K_s$  act as  
213 "paths" guiding the propagation of quasi-stationary Rossby waves (Branstator, 2002; Bannister  
214 & Teng, 2017; Hoskins & Ambrizzi, 1993).

215 Changes in  $K_s$  are largely consistent with changes in the mean zonal wind (Figure 3c). The  
 216 waveguide extends farther into Europe and strengthens within the Asian jet region during the  
 217 recent two decades, while  $K_s$  decreases slightly on the northern and southern flanks of the high- $K_s$   
 218 core. Shifts in  $K_s$  and mean zonal wind indicate that background summer mean flow changes favor  
 219 a more active “central” pathway (Cluster 2) and less active “zonal” (Cluster 1) and “equatorward”  
 220 pathway (Cluster 3) of wave propagation in recent decades.



221  
 222 **Figure 4.** (a) JJA climatology of 250 hPa geopotential (contours,  $\text{m}^2/\text{s}^2$ ) and zonal wind (shading,  
 223 m/s) for 1982-2002. (b) Difference in 250 hPa geopotential (contours,  $\text{m}^2/\text{s}^2$ ) and zonal wind  
 224 (shading, m/s) between 2003-2023 and 1982-2002. (c) JJA climatology of zonal stationary wave  
 225 number, shown only where the zonal-mean wind exceeds 15 m/s (color shading) and difference in  
 226 zonal stationary wave number between the two periods (contours).  
 227

228

### 3.4 Optimal Modes in a Linear Barotropic Model

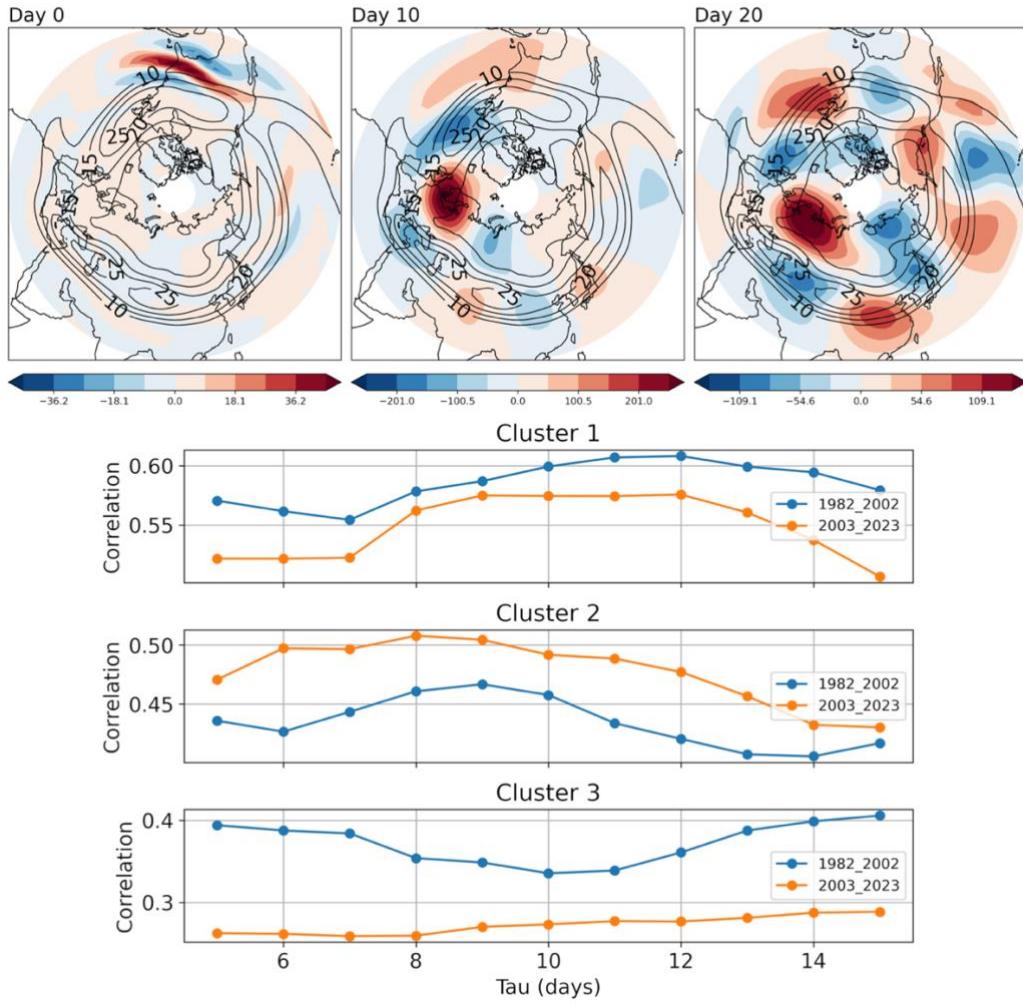
229

The mean flow and waveguide analysis provides a preliminary explanation for the observed changes in wave pathways. To further understand how changes in mean flow affect wave characteristics such as excitation and propagation, we conduct an optimal mode analysis (Section 2.3), using a barotropic model linearized around the early and late mean flows (Section 2.2). Differences in optimal mode statistics between the early and later period highlight the impact of mean flow changes on the properties of Rossby waves (optimal modes) that spontaneously grow and subsequently decay within the mean flow.

236

The optimal modes obtained from this highly idealized model of the upper troposphere closely resemble the cluster patterns seen in Figure 2. The upper panels of Figure 5 show the evolution of the leading optimal mode for optimization time  $\tau = 10$  days, a timescale representative of quasi-stationary atmospheric disturbances such as the identified clusters. The disturbance originates over eastern North America. By day 10 (the optimization time), it evolves into a Rossby wave train extending from the North Atlantic into Eurasia with a strong high anomaly over Scandinavia. By day 20, this high anomaly persists over Scandinavia and eastern Europe, with significant downstream dispersion toward Pakistan and Northeast China. The overall wave structure over Eurasia closely matches the composite height anomalies of Cluster 2. The subsequent (2<sup>nd</sup> to 5<sup>th</sup>) optimal modes for  $\tau = 10$  days are shown in Figure S1.

tau = 10.0 days, mode 1 amp factor: 85.38



246

247 **Figure 5.** (Top) Spatial evolution of the first optimal mode using the mean flow of JJA 1982–2002  
 248 with  $\tau = 10$  days. Shading indicates the evolving disturbance patterns and contours show the  
 249 background zonal wind (m/s). (Bottom) Weighted average of the maximum correlation between  
 250 optimal modes and day 0 cluster composite patterns as a function of  $\tau$  (in days), for each cluster.  
 251 Results are shown for two periods: 1982–2002 (blue) and 2003–2023 (orange).

252

253 The lower panels of Figure 5 present the maximum spatial correlations between the optimal  
 254 modes (day 0 to day 20) and the day 0 composite height anomalies for each cluster, as a function  
 255 of optimization time  $\tau$  (in days). Correlations are computed over the clustering domain and  
 256 weighted by the amplification factors of the top 10 optimal modes (amplification factors decrease  
 257 sharply as in Figure S1 and become negligible beyond mode 10). To ensure the robustness of the

258 analysis, the results in Figure 5 represent averages across the optimal modes derived from different  
259 linear damping and hyperdiffusion parameter sets (supporting Text S1).

260 The correlation analysis reveals an intriguing signal. The summer mean flow during the  
261 later period (2003-2023) produces lower correlations with Clusters 1 and 3 and higher correlations  
262 with Cluster 2. This behavior is remarkably consistent with the observed changes in cluster  
263 frequencies (Figure 2). This result remains consistent for all  $\tau$  values, parameter choices, and  
264 clusters (Figures S2-S4). The robustness of the correlation trends indicates that the shifts in cluster  
265 occurrence frequency are largely driven by changes in the summer mean flow. In other words,  
266 evolving seasonal mean flows, related to either natural variability or anthropogenic forcing,  
267 modify the atmospheric instability properties (wave excitation) and the pathways of wave  
268 propagation, thereby altering the frequency of intense precipitation in the two monsoon fringe  
269 regions of interest.

270

#### 271 **4 Conclusions**

272 This study investigates the large-scale circulation patterns responsible for intense summer  
273 (JJA) precipitation in two Asian monsoon fringes, i.e., Northeast China and Pakistan, where  
274 rainfall variability carries major socioeconomic impacts. By combining clustering of observations  
275 with idealized modeling, we identify the key flow regimes linked to regional intense precipitation  
276 events and assess how changes in the Northern Hemisphere summer background flow influence  
277 the relative occurrence frequencies of these flow regimes.

278 We first apply hierarchical clustering to classify the dominant circulation patterns  
279 associated with high-precipitation events in Northeast China. These clusters capture distinct

280 pathways of Rossby wave propagation across the northern extratropics. To explore the dynamical  
281 origins of these circulation patterns, we employ an idealized barotropic model to investigate  
282 atmospheric instability in the upper troposphere during boreal summer. The model is linearized  
283 around two climatological background states corresponding to JJA of two periods (1982-2002 and  
284 2003-2023). Nonmodal instability analysis subsequently identifies the most rapidly amplifying  
285 disturbances (optimal modes) for selected optimization times representative of the growth  
286 timescales of low-frequency, quasi-stationary disturbances.

287 The results show that changes in the summer mean flow modify large-scale wave excitation  
288 and propagation in the Northern Hemisphere. In particular, the waveguide has intensified and  
289 extended farther westward into Europe in recent decades. Over Asia, the waveguide exhibits  
290 strengthening and extension within the Asian subtropical jet region and weakening on the northern  
291 and southern flanks of the jet, consistent with the increased frequency of wave propagation along  
292 the central pathway. Optimal modes obtained from the instability analysis for the later period  
293 (2003-2023) further support this finding, exhibiting higher similarities with circulation patterns  
294 representing the central pathway of wave propagation (Cluster 2), while their correlations with the  
295 circulation patterns characterized by the zonal and equatorward pathways of wave propagation  
296 (Clusters 1 and 3) decrease in the later period. These findings establish the direct connections  
297 between changes in atmospheric background state and variations in the excitation and propagation  
298 of Rossby waves on that background. In a simplest-possible model setting, the contrasting  
299 properties of optimal disturbances obtained for the two periods provide insights into the origins of  
300 regional precipitation changes over the Asian monsoon fringes emphasizing the impacts of  
301 extratropical dynamical processes. Future work will investigate the root causes of the summer

302 background flow changes and examine their attributions to natural variability and anthropogenic  
303 forcing, contrasting tropical and extratropical influences.

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308

309 **Conflict of Interests**

310 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

311

312 **Data Availability Statement**

313 The observational precipitation data are produced by the Climate Prediction Center and archived  
314 by the NOAA Physical Sciences Laboratory  
315 (<https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.cpc.globalprecip.html>). The ERA5 reanalysis data are  
316 available on the Copernicus Climate Change Service Climate Data Store  
317 (<https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/datasets/reanalysis-era5-pressure-levels>).

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**Supporting Information for**

**More Frequent Intense Precipitation on the Asian Monsoon Fringes Driven by Evolving  
Extratropical Planetary-Scale Circulations**

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Contents:

Text S1 to S2

## Text S1. Setup for the linear barotropic model

In this study, the barotropic model is applied at the 250 hPa pressure level on a midlatitude channel domain spanning 20°-80°N. The unforced quasi-geostrophic (QG) barotropic vorticity equation is written as (Holton & Hakim, 2013; Mak, 2011):

$$\frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial t} + f^{-1} J(Z, \zeta + f) = -\epsilon_1 \zeta - \epsilon_2 \nabla^4 \zeta \quad (1)$$

Here, the Jacobian operator  $J(A, B) = A_x B_y - A_y B_x$  represents the horizontal advection terms. Vorticity  $\zeta$  and geopotential  $Z$  are related to each other by the equation  $\zeta = f^{-1} \nabla^2 Z$  in the QG system.  $f = 2\Omega \sin \varphi$  is the Coriolis parameter with  $\Omega$  being the angular velocity of the Earth's self-rotation and  $\varphi$  is the latitude. Linear damping on relative vorticity is applied using a coefficient  $\epsilon_1$  to mimic the spin-down effect associated with the presence of a planetary boundary layer (Holton & Hakim, 2013). To improve model performance, differential damping is used over land and ocean. A hyperdiffusion term is added for scale selection to damp small-scale waves. The model is linearized around a background flow. In this study, two background flows are used: the JJA mean geopotential height at 250 hPa averaged over 1982-2002 and 2003-2023.

To test robustness, we select three combinations of linear damping parameters and three hyperdiffusion parameters:

Linear damping:

- a.  $(40 \text{ days})^{-1}$  over ocean and  $(20 \text{ days})^{-1}$  over land
- b.  $(20 \text{ days})^{-1}$  over ocean and  $(10 \text{ days})^{-1}$  over land
- c.  $(10 \text{ days})^{-1}$  over ocean and  $(5 \text{ days})^{-1}$  over land

Hyperdiffusion:  $(0.8, 1.6, 3.2) \times 10^{16} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$

The linear damping values reflect realistic timescales of large-scale atmospheric circulation decay at 250 hPa. The hyperdiffusion values are chosen within a range that damps grid- and subgrid-scale waves while preserving planetary-scale disturbances (Sardeshmukh & Hoskins, 1988; Simmons et al., 1983).

## Text S2. Procedures for obtaining the optimal modes

First, we solve for the normal modes of the linearized barotropic vorticity model under a prescribed background state. After applying appropriate boundary conditions and discretizing the model using finite differences, the system can be expressed as follows:

$$\frac{dZ'}{dt} = AZ' \quad (2)$$

Here,  $Z'$  is a vector of length  $N$ , where  $N$  is the number of grid points in the model horizontal domain.  $\mathbf{A}$  is the linear dynamical operator, a square matrix of size  $N \times N$ . Matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is the model's linear dynamical operator which contains all the information about this dynamical system such as the pre-determined parameters and the prescribed background state.

Assuming wave solutions, we write the prognostic variable  $Z'$  as:

$$Z'(\lambda, \varphi, t) = \Phi(\lambda, \varphi) e^{\sigma t} \quad (3)$$

where  $\Phi(\lambda, \varphi)$  is the perturbation amplitude at a given model grid point (latitude  $\varphi$  and longitude  $\lambda$ ).  $\sigma$  is the complex frequency with the real part indicating growth rate of the perturbation amplitude and the imaginary part indicating the perturbation frequency.

Substituting Equation (3) into the linearized equations (2), we obtain an equation in matrix form:

$$\sigma \Phi^T = \mathbf{A} \Phi^T \quad (4)$$

Equation (4) is solved as an eigenvalue problem where  $\sigma$  is the eigenvalue and  $\Phi^T$  is the corresponding eigenvector, yielding  $N$  pairs of eigenvalues and eigenvectors. Each pair corresponds to one normal mode of the linear dynamical model.

We then use the obtained normal modes as base functions to derive optimal modes  $\psi$  for a specified optimization time  $\tau$ , which aims to identify an initial perturbation that intensifies the most over the time interval  $\tau$  in the specified basic flow. The geopotential perturbation at  $t = \tau$  can be expressed as:

$$\psi(\lambda, \phi, \tau) = \sum_{i=1}^N \Phi_i e^{\sigma_i \tau} a_i = P \Lambda a \quad (5)$$

Here,  $P$  is a  $N \times N$  matrix whose columns are composed of normal modes  $\Phi_i$ .  $\Lambda$  is a diagonal  $N \times N$  matrix with diagonal elements  $\{e^{\sigma_i \tau}\}$ .  $a$  is a vector containing the projection coefficients  $\{a_i\}$  of the initial perturbation onto the normal modes. Following Mak (2011), the intensity of a perturbation at  $t = \tau$  is calculated as

$$\mathcal{A}(\tau) = \psi^H D \psi = a^H \Lambda^H P^H D P \Lambda a = a^H B(\tau) a \quad (6)$$

where  $\psi^H$  is the Hermitian transpose of  $\psi$ .  $D$  is an identity matrix if Euclidean norm is used. This is the default setup for “global optimization” (i.e., optimization across the entire model domain) in which all grid points are considered to carry the same weights in measuring the perturbation intensity. If perturbation growth over a particular region (local optimization) is to be emphasized, the diagonal elements of  $D$  corresponding to this region can be kept as 1 while other diagonal elements are set to small values such as 0.01.

The amplification factor (the ratio between an optimal mode’s amplitude at the end of the selected time interval and its initial amplitude) of a disturbance is defined as

$$\gamma = \frac{a^H B(\tau) a}{a^H B(0) a} \quad (7)$$

Equation (7) can be further reduced to a new eigenvalue problem:

$$\gamma B(0)\mathbf{a} = B(\tau)\mathbf{a} \quad (8)$$

This again leads to  $N$  pairs of eigenvalues  $\gamma$  and eigenvectors  $\mathbf{a}$ , and thus  $N$  optimal modes for every specified optimization time  $\tau$ . For a given  $\tau$ , the optimal mode with the largest amplification factor  $\gamma$  is denoted as the first optimal mode. The remaining optimal modes are ranked by decreasing values of  $\gamma$ . From Equation (5), the spatial structure of each optimal mode (corresponding to one pair of  $\gamma$  and  $\mathbf{a}$ ) at time  $t$  follows as:

$$\Psi(\lambda, \phi, t) = \sum_{i=1}^N \Phi_i e^{\sigma_i t} \mathbf{a}_i \quad (9)$$

The spatiotemporal evolution of optimal disturbances can therefore be easily obtained.

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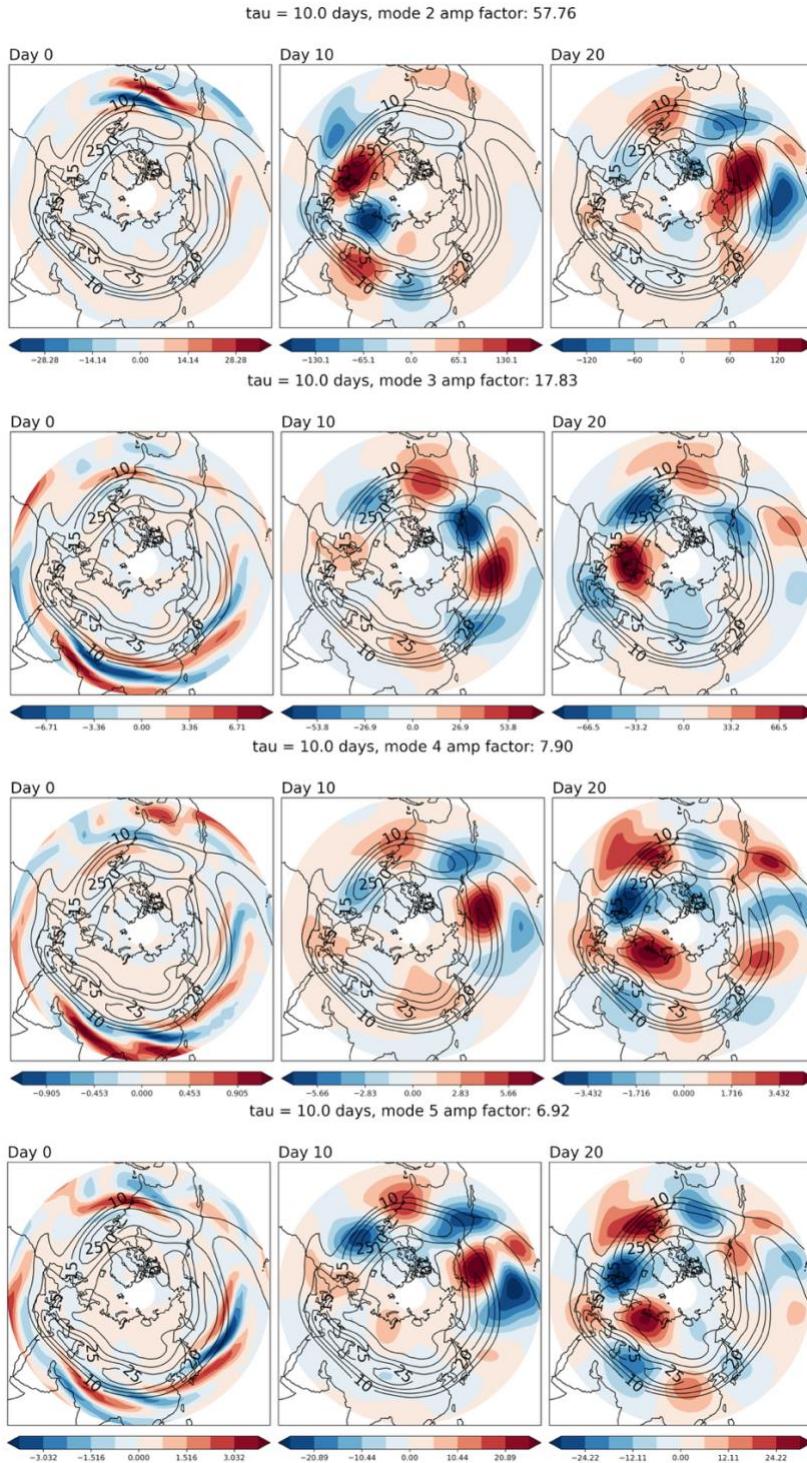
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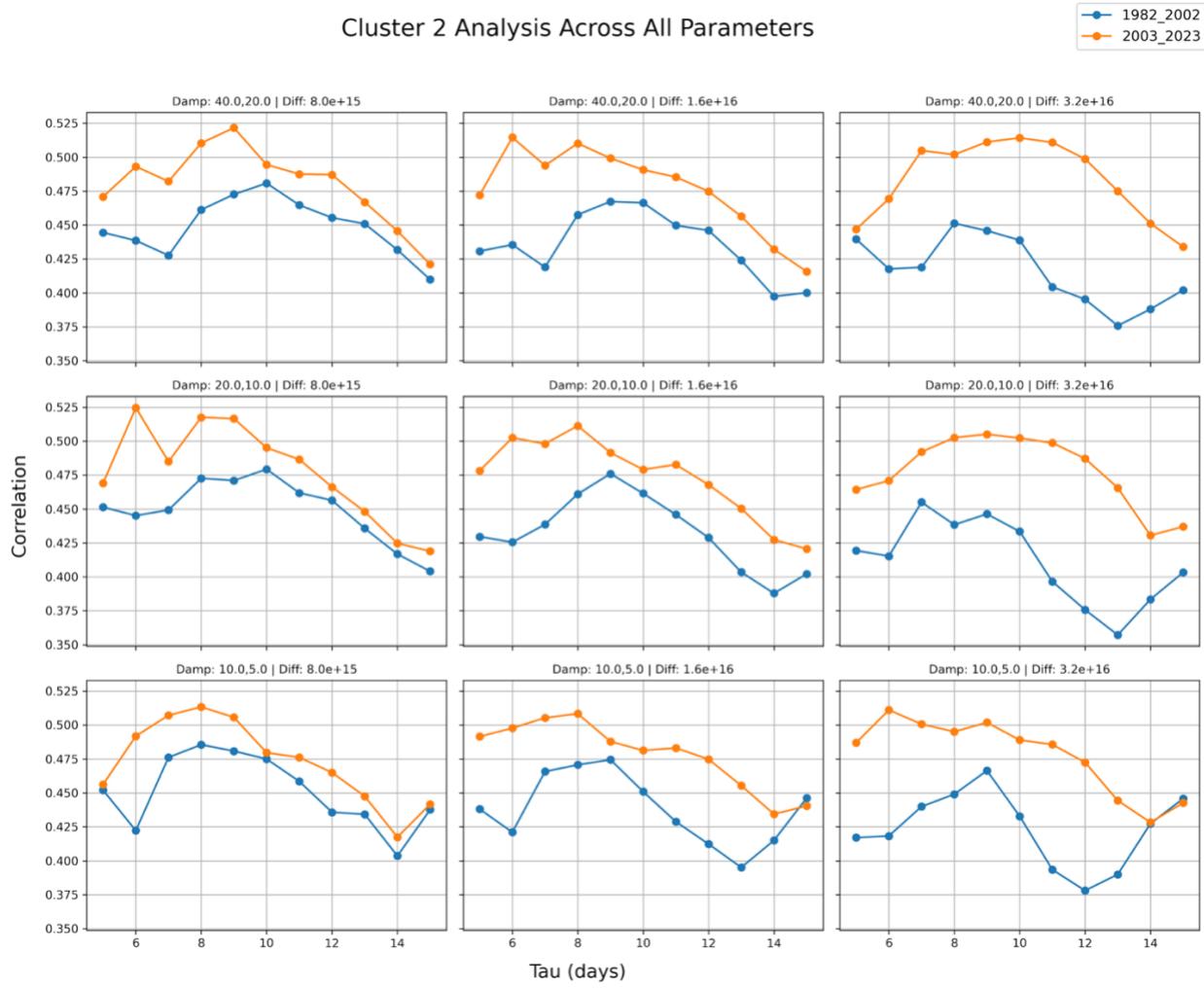
Figures S1 to S4



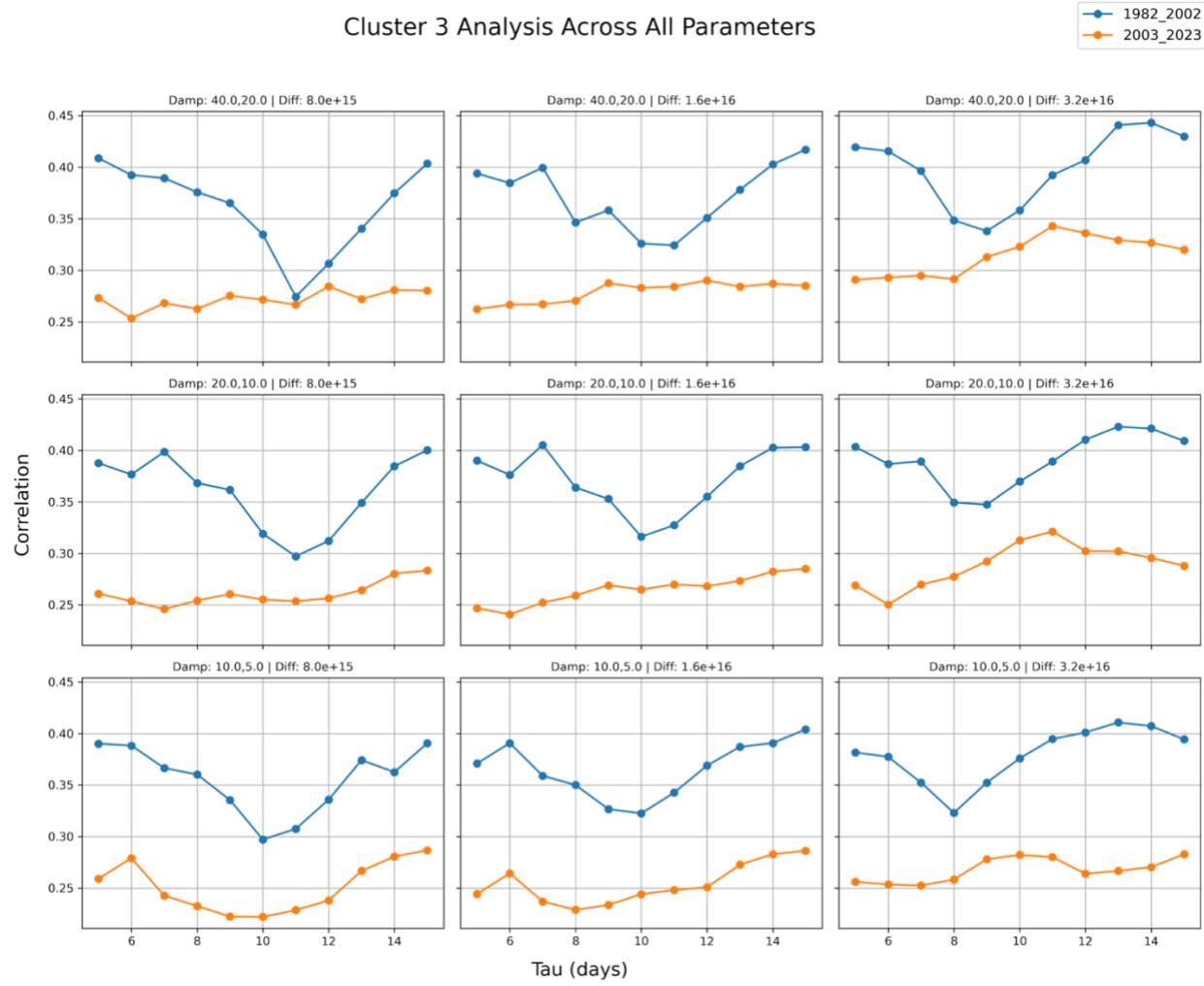
**Figure S1.** Evolution of optimal disturbances from the linear barotropic vorticity model for  $\tau = 10$  days, showing modes 2-5. Each row presents one mode with its amplification factor indicated above the panels. Columns show the structures at day 0, day 10, and day 20. Shading represents geopotential anomalies, and contours indicate the climatological zonal wind ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ).



**Figure S2** Correlations between optimal disturbances and the Cluster 1 composite pattern as a function of optimization time ( $\tau$ , days). Rows show results for different linear damping values, and columns show results for different hyper-diffusion values. Blue lines represent the earlier mean flow (1982-2002), and orange lines represent the later mean flow (2003-2023). Each value is the average correlation of the top 10 optimal modes, weighted by their amplification factors.



**Figure S3.** Same as Figure S2, but for Cluster 2.



**Figure S4.** Same as Figure S3, but for Cluster 3.