

1 **Title:** Mechanistic understanding of the summer precipitation and recent wetting trend over
2 Northwest China and Mongolia

3

4 **Authors:** Yi Ming¹, Wenhao Dong^{2,3}, Yi Deng⁴, Yongkun Xie⁵, Zhaoyi Shen⁶, Jianping
5 Huang⁷

6

7 **Affiliations:**

8 ¹Schiller Institute for Integrated Science and Society and Department of Earth and
9 Environmental Sciences, Boston College, Boston, MA

10 ²Cooperative Programs for the Advancement of Earth System Science, University Corporation
11 for Atmospheric Research, Boulder, CO

12 ³NOAA/Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory, Princeton, NJ

13 ⁴School of Earth and Atmospheric Sciences, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA

14 ⁵State Key Laboratory of Numerical Modeling for Atmospheric Sciences and Geophysical
15 Fluid Dynamics, Institute of Atmospheric Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing

16 ⁶Department of Environmental Science and Engineering, California Institute of Technology,
17 Pasadena, CA

18 ⁷Key Laboratory for Semi-Arid Climate Change of the Ministry of Education, College of
19 Atmospheric Sciences, Lanzhou University, Lanzhou

20

21 **Key points:**

22 • A hierarchical clustering analysis reveals three distinct summer precipitation patterns over
23 Northwest China and Mongolia.

24 • Strong precipitation events are triggered by the upper-tropospheric disturbances in the form
25 of transient Rossby wave packets.

26 • The recent wetting trend is attributed to more frequent strong precipitation events over the
27 eastern part of the region.

28

29 Corresponding author: Yi Ming, mingy@bc.edu

30

31 **Abstract**

32 The arid region of Northwest China and Mongolia (NCM) receives most of the precipitation in
33 the summer. The need for a better understanding of the synoptic-scale mechanism responsible
34 for precipitation formation is accentuated by the recent wetting trend and its implications for
35 future hydroclimate change. By conducting a hierarchical clustering analysis on an
36 observationally-based daily precipitation dataset, we show that there are three distinct
37 precipitation patterns over NCM, one of which is associated with strong precipitation over the
38 western part of the region and another over the eastern part. The corresponding large-scale
39 circulation anomalies indicate that these strong precipitation events are triggered by the upper-
40 tropospheric disturbances in the form of transient Rossby wave packets. Furthermore, the
41 wetting trend is linked to more frequent strong precipitation events over the eastern NCM,
42 suggesting that it may have been induced remotely by atmospheric circulation perturbations.

43

44 **Plain Language Summary**

45 One of the world's driest regions, Northwest China and Mongolia has seen a significant
46 increase in summer precipitation in the last few decades. The wetting trend has generally been
47 thought of as a superposition of large-scale circulation changes and long-term atmospheric
48 moistening as Earth's climate warms. However, the underlying cause is yet to emerge due to
49 insufficient understanding of the summer precipitation formation on the weather scale. In this
50 study, we apply a hierarchical clustering algorithm to the observed daily precipitation to
51 identify the main spatial patterns. A key finding is that there are three distinct daily
52 precipitation patterns, two of which are associated with strong precipitation events. By
53 analyzing the intensity, duration, and frequency of these events, we also show that the wetting
54 trend results primarily from more frequent events over the eastern part of the region. A detailed
55 analysis of the associated large-scale circulation patterns demonstrates that strong precipitation
56 events over NCM are initiated by the upper-tropospheric disturbances originating from other
57 regions thousands of kilometers away. The results point to new directions in which one can
58 better understand the root cause of the observed wetting trend, and project future changes.

59

60 1. Introduction

61 Far from the ocean and surrounded by mountain ranges, Northwest China and Mongolia
62 (NCM, defined approximately as 80° – 110° E and 35° – 50° N) is home to the vast Taklamakan
63 and Gobi Deserts (Fig. 1a). Although with an annual-mean precipitation of only 0.45 mm d^{-1}
64 the region is considered arid, the distribution of precipitation is highly uneven both temporally
65 and spatially. Most precipitation falls in the summer (June, July and August or JJA) (Baldwin
66 & Vecchi, 2016), which is the focus of this work. Orography plays a central role in determining
67 the spatial distribution of the summer precipitation (Fig. 1b). The mountainous areas receive
68 about $1\text{--}2 \text{ mm d}^{-1}$ during the season, which is key to sustaining local glaciers and grasslands.

69 A multi-decadal (1961–2010) wetting trend over Northwest China has been discussed
70 based primarily on sparse station data in the literature (Peng & Zhou, 2018, and references
71 therein), but is not borne out in the widely used global precipitation datasets (Fig. S1 in the
72 Supporting Information). Instead, this study focuses on the latest two decades (2000–2019),
73 for which the observations are more abundant and reliable, and there is indeed a robust wetting
74 trend. It manifests mainly over the eastern part of NCM (to the east of the Khangai Mountains
75 and the Qilian Mountains) (Fig. 1c). The regional-mean summer precipitation has a linear trend
76 of $0.36 \text{ mm d}^{-1} (20 \text{ yr})^{-1}$, which amounts to 35% of the climatological precipitation (Fig. 1d).
77 Note that the trend analysis presented here is based on the NOAA/Climate Prediction Center
78 (CPC) dataset (see Fig. S2 for other global datasets and station data).

79 A clear picture of the underlying cause of the wetting trend is yet to emerge. Possible
80 contributing factors include the local enhancement of convective instability (Zhou & Huang,
81 2010), and the remote influences of weaker South Asian summer monsoon (Y. Zhao et al.,
82 2014) and stronger subtropical high pressure systems (Li et al., 2016). Attempts were also made
83 to link the wetting to global warming (e.g. Shi et al., 2007), but without strong evidences. The
84 inability to attribute the observed multi-decadal wetting trend over NCM is rooted
85 fundamentally in the lack of understanding of the summer precipitation formation on the
86 synoptic scale. If viewing the issue from the relative importance of dynamic versus
87 thermodynamic processes, one would naturally expect the former to play a more prominent
88 role over an arid (moisture-poor) region than over a wet (moisture-rich) region (such as
89 monsoonal regions). In this sense, it would be difficult to generate insights from analyses on
90 local atmospheric instability (Zhou & Huang, 2010) and moisture sources (Peng & Zhou,
91 2018). G. Chen and Huang (2012) examined the connections between the interannual variations
92 of the summer precipitation over Northwest China and large-scale atmospheric circulation
93 patterns, and identified two major teleconnection pathways realized through stationary Rossby

94 waves, namely the circumglobal (zonal) or Silk Road and the Europe-China (meridional)
95 modes. Although these results may not be directly applicable to the synoptic scale, they
96 highlight the need to better elucidate the role of large-scale dynamics in studying the
97 hydroclimate of arid and semi-arid regions. Rossby wave breaking and associated intense
98 moisture transport, atmospheric rivers being an important manifestation, are known to cause
99 extreme precipitation events over arid regions such as the Middle East and Southwest United
100 States, but NCM is not a hot spot for wave breaking (De Vries, 2021). The goal of this work is
101 to illustrate the physical mechanism of the summer precipitation formation over NCM, and to
102 understand the nature of the past wetting trend (natural versus forced) and possible implications
103 for projecting future changes.

104

105 **2. Methods**

106 This study uses the NOAA/CPC Global Daily Unified Gauge-Based Analysis of
107 Precipitation, which covers 1979–2019 at a horizontal resolution of $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ (M. Chen et al.,
108 2008). Multi-level daily horizontal winds, geopotential height, specific humidity and
109 temperature from the ERA-Interim reanalysis (Dee et al., 2011), at a horizontal resolution of
110 $2^\circ \times 2^\circ$, are also used to compute the large-scale circulation anomalies and covariance terms
111 such as moisture flux and wave flux activity, the latter of which is used to quantify the role of
112 atmospheric waves in energy and momentum transport, providing insights into the mechanisms
113 that drive weather and climate patterns (Takaya and Nakamura, 2001).

114 A hierarchical clustering algorithm is applied to all summer precipitating days to
115 identify prevailing spatial patterns. Precipitating days are defined to be those in the 99th percent
116 of all the domain-average daily precipitation distribution; the cutoff value is approximately 0.1
117 mm d^{-1} . To maximize the sample size, the entire length of the CPC dataset (41 years) is used.
118 This translates to a total of 3734 summer precipitating days ($41 \times 92 \times 0.99$). Each precipitating
119 day is initially considered as a single-element cluster. The pair of clusters with the greatest
120 similarity are then merged. Note that similarity is measured with Ward's minimum variance
121 method (Ward, 1963), which minimizes the total within-cluster variance. This procedure is
122 repeated until every precipitating day becomes a member of a large cluster. The optimal
123 number of clusters is determined by maximizing the average silhouette approach. The large-
124 scale circulation patterns associated with each cluster are constructed by compositing the daily
125 anomalies with respect to the mean values of the 99th-percentile days rather than those of all
126 days (the JJA climatology). This type of clustering analysis has been performed widely for

127 classifying precipitation patterns. For example, S. Zhao et al. (2016, 2017) used it to identify
128 the spatial structures of extreme precipitation events over the contiguous United States.

129 A precipitation event here refers to one or more consecutive precipitation days that fall
130 into one of the identified clusters occurs. Its duration is simply the number of the consecutive
131 days, and its intensity is the average precipitation over these days. For each summer, the
132 frequency of precipitation events in a certain cluster is the total number of precipitation events,
133 while the duration and intensity are averaged over these events.

134

135 **3. Results**

136 The clustering procedure yields an optimal number of three clusters for the summer
137 precipitation over NCM, referred to as C1, C2 and C3. C1 accounts for most of the precipitating
138 days (71%), while C2 and C3 are roughly of equal weights (14% and 15%, respectively). Their
139 probability density distributions are given in Fig. S3. The top row of Fig. 2 shows that the
140 precipitation rates on C1 days, with a domain-average of 0.8 mm d^{-1} , are biased low almost
141 everywhere in the study region, and there are no coherent large-scale circulation anomalies. By
142 contrast, both C2 and C3 days feature intense precipitation (averaged at 2.1 and 1.8 mm d^{-1} ,
143 respectively), but at different locations. The C2-associated precipitation is primarily over the
144 western part of NCM, while C3 favors the eastern part. In both cases, there is a pronounced
145 cyclonic circulation at 500 hPa over NCM, accompanied by an anticyclonic circulation to the
146 northwest and another to the east.

147 The anomalies in precipitation are in good agreement with those in 700-hPa moisture
148 flux convergence in terms of spatial distribution (the middle row of Fig. 2), suggesting that
149 local evaporation plays a minor role. For C2, moisture seems to originate mainly from the
150 South Asian monsoon region. For C3, the East Asian monsoon region appears to be the main
151 source as moisture transport vector over South Asia is quite small. The alternating positive and
152 negative anomalies in 500-hPa geopotential height in C2 and C3 seen in the third row of Fig.
153 2 are reminiscent of Rossby wave trains (zonal wavenumber ~ 5). As indicated by the wave
154 activity flux, the zonal propagation is from west to east across Eurasia in both cases. On the
155 other hand, the poleward propagation is more pronounced in C2 than in C3. Interestingly, C2
156 is of larger amplitude than C3. Lutsko and Held (2006) showed that the stationary Rossby
157 waves excited by idealized mountains changes from being circumglobal (zonal) to being more
158 meridional as the amplitude increases. The reason is that stronger waves can alter the mid-
159 latitude jet, which serves as waveguide in the circumglobal case. The results presented here

160 seem to be consistent, but more detailed analysis is needed to ascertain that the same
161 mechanisms hold.

162 The vertical structures of the geopotential height anomalies are barotropic in the upper
163 troposphere (above ~500 hPa) (Fig. 3), as one would expect for Rossby waves. The time
164 evolution shows that they are transient in nature. From Day -2 to Day 0, the upper-tropospheric
165 trough moves from upstream into NCM, intensifying along the way. It continues to propagate
166 eastward, and weakens significantly by Day 2. Another interesting observation is that the
167 lower-tropospheric anomalies are baroclinic and tilted against the vertical wind shear around
168 the study region. This suggests that the upper-tropospheric Rossby wave packets can excite
169 baroclinic waves in the lower troposphere. The slantwise convection associated with the latter
170 is the mechanistic driver of intense precipitation over NCM.

171 One can decompose the summer precipitation into the contributions from different
172 cluster. Although C1 accounts for most of the climatological precipitation, the 2000–2019
173 wetting trend is attributed mainly to C3, and to a lesser extent, to C2 (Fig. 4a). The former is
174 statistically significant, while the latter is not. This is consistent with the fact that the wetting
175 trend is more pronounced over the eastern part of NCM (Fig. 1c). The contribution from C1 is
176 effectively unchanged during the two decades. The time series of the main characteristics of
177 each cluster, namely frequency, duration and intensity, are shown in Figs. 4b-d. The increase
178 in C3-associated precipitation is mainly due to more frequent occurrence. The linear trend of
179 $7.73 (20 \text{ yr})^{-1}$ amounts to about 70% of the climatological value. C1 days are also more frequent,
180 but the corresponding duration decreases substantially. These two factors cancel out and results
181 in no net change in precipitation. The duration does not change for C2 and C3. Although the
182 increasing intensity of C1 and C2 is not enough to alter their respective precipitation trends
183 (Fig. 4a), it would be worthwhile to further investigate the controlling factors of the
184 precipitation intensity. A good starting point may be to separate the thermodynamic and
185 dynamic effects.

186

187 **4. Discussion**

188 An insight from this work is that the upper-tropospheric disturbances in the form of
189 transient Rossby waves packets are key to inducing strong precipitation over NCM. The two
190 wave types (C2 and C3), which differ in the relative importance of the meridional versus zonal
191 propagation, are reminiscent of the Europe-Asia and circumglobal teleconnections discussed
192 in G. Chen and Huang (2012), even though the latter operate at the interannual time scale and
193 are realized through stationary Rossby waves. This indicates that similar mechanisms may be

194 involved at the synoptic scale. A prominent feature of the Northern Hemisphere summer
195 circulation is the Asian jet stream. A large body of literature (Lutsko & Held, 2016, and
196 references therein) exists on how a jet can act as waveguide to induce circumglobal Rossby
197 waves under certain conditions. This deviates from the canonical picture that Rossby waves
198 propagate both poleward and equatorward along great circles until they are absorbed and/or
199 reflected near the critical lines (Hoskins & Karoly, 1981). This work shows that both
200 mechanisms contribute approximately equally to the long-term average summer precipitation
201 over NCM, but the circumglobal mode (C3) plays an outsize role in causing the wetting trend
202 in the last two decades. It is not entirely clear how the two wave types interact with each other,
203 and what factors determine their relative importance over NCM.

204 It is well known that multiple sources can give rise to multi-decadal atmospheric
205 variability. One possibility is the nonlinearity of internal atmospheric dynamics in the absence
206 of boundary forcings (James & James, 1989). High-frequency atmospheric noise has been
207 shown to play a crucial role in driving low-frequency variability in the coupled atmosphere-
208 ocean system, a leading example involving the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) and Atlantic
209 Multidecadal Variability (AMV) (Clement et al., 2015; Delworth et al., 2017). External
210 forcings such as greenhouse gases and the solar cycle can also be involved. Note that the latter
211 two effects are usually associated with low-frequency variations in sea-surface temperatures
212 (SST), which play a crucial role in determining diabatic heating. Attribution of the observed
213 wetting trend over NCM is a challenging task without conducting climate model simulations,
214 which will be analyzed in a subsequent study.

215 Although the recent wetting trend may not persist or even reverse, one cannot discount
216 possible influence of anthropogenic climate change on the long-term hydroclimate of NCM.
217 Chemke and Ming (2020) showed that the overall response of mid-latitude eddy kinetic energy
218 (EKE) to global warming varies with zonal wavenumber; large waves become stronger, while
219 small waves weaker. All wavenumbers, however, undergo substantial decreases in JJA (see
220 their Fig. S5). One would naturally expect a drying of NCM. On the other hand, weaker waves
221 may favor the circumglobal mode more, a change that may bring more precipitation to the
222 eastern part of NCM. It would be interesting to further investigate these factors. One should
223 also pay special attention to any change in the summer Asian jet, which is important for
224 understanding Rossby wave propagation. Note that the current climate model ensemble
225 projects very little changes in the location and strength of the jet (Chowdary et al., 2019). On
226 the thermodynamic side, the increase in atmospheric moisture content with temperature (i.e.
227 the Clausius-Clapeyron scaling) has to be taken into account.

228

229 **Acknowledgements**

230 We thank Drs. Ming Zhao and Akshaya Nikumb for commenting on an earlier version of the
231 paper. Wenhao Dong's contribution at Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory is supported
232 by NOAA's Science Collaboration Program and administered by UCAR's Cooperative
233 Programs for the Advancement of Earth System Science (CPAESS) under awards
234 NA16NWS4620043 and NA18NWS4620043B.

235

236 **Open Research**

237 The NOAA CPC Global Unified Gauge-Based Analysis of Daily Precipitation dataset can be
238 found at <https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.cpc.globalprecip.html>. For the ERA-Interim
239 reanalysis datasets, they can be accessed from <https://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds627.0/dataaccess/>.

240

241 **References**

242 Baldwin, J., & Vecchi, G. (2016). Influence of the Tian Shan on arid extratropical Asia. *Journal*
243 *of Climate*, 29 (16), 5741–5762.

244 Chemke, R., & Ming, Y. (2020). Large atmospheric waves will get stronger, while small waves
245 will get weaker by the end of the 21st century. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 47 (22).

246 Chen, G., & Huang, R. (2012). Excitation mechanisms of the teleconnection patterns affecting
247 the July precipitation in Northwest China. *Journal of Climate*, 25 (22), 7834–7851.

248 Chen, M., Shi, W., Xie, P., Silva, V. B. S., Kousky, V. E., Wayne Higgins, R., & Janowiak, J.
249 E. (2008). Assessing objective techniques for gauge-based analyses of global daily
250 precipitation. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 113 (D4).

251 Chowdary, J. S., Hu, K., Srinivas, G., Kosaka, Y., Wang, L., & Rao, K. K. (2019). The Eurasian
252 jet streams as conduits for east Asian monsoon variability. *Current Climate Change Reports*,
253 5 (3), 233–244.

254 Clement, A., Bellomo, K., Murphy, L. N., Cane, M. A., Mauritsen, T., Rädcl, G., & Stevens,
255 B. (2015). The Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation without a role for ocean circulation. *Science*,
256 350 (6258), 320–324.

257 Dee, D. P., Uppala, S. M., Simmons, A. J., Berrisford, P., Poli, P., Kobayashi, S., . . . Vitart, F.
258 (2011). The ERA-Interim reanalysis: configuration and performance of the data assimilation
259 system. *Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society*, 137 (656), 553–597.

260 Delworth, T. L., Zeng, F., Zhang, L., Zhang, R., Vecchi, G. A., & Yang, X. (2017). The central
261 role of ocean dynamics in connecting the North Atlantic Oscillation to the extratropical
262 component of the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation. *Journal of Climate*, 30(10), 3789–3805.

263 De Vries, A. J. (2021). A global climatological perspective on the importance of Rossby wave
264 breaking and intense moisture transport for extreme precipitation events. *Weather and Climate
265 Dynamics*, 2 (1), 129–161.

266 Hoskins, B. J., & Karoly, D. J. (1981). The steady linear response of a spherical atmosphere to
267 thermal and orographic forcing. *Journal of the Atmospheric Sciences*, 38 (6), 1179–1196.

268 James, I., & James, P. (1989). Ultra-low-frequency variability in a simple atmospheric
269 circulation model. *Nature*, 342 (6245), 53–55.

270 Li, B., Chen, Y., Chen, Z., Xiong, H., & Lian, L. (2016). Why does precipitation in northwest
271 China show a significant increasing trend from 1960 to 2010? *Atmospheric Research*, 167,
272 275–284.

273 Lutsko, N. J., & Held, I. M. (2016). The response of an idealized atmosphere to orographic
274 forcing: Zonal versus meridional propagation. *Journal of the Atmospheric Sciences*, 73 (9),
275 3701–3718.

276 Peng, D., & Zhou, T. (2018). Why was the arid and semiarid northwest China getting wetter in
277 the recent decades? *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 122 (17), 9060–9075.

278 Shi, Y., Shen, Y., Kang, E., Li, D., Ding, Y., Zhang, G., & Hu, R. (2007). Recent and future
279 climate change in northwest China. *Climatic Change*, 80 (3), 379–393.

280 Takaya, K., & Nakamura, H. (2001). A formulation of a phase-independent wave-activity flux
281 for stationary and migratory quasi geostrophic eddies on a zonally varying basic flow. *Journal
282 of the Atmospheric Science*, 58 (81), 608–627.

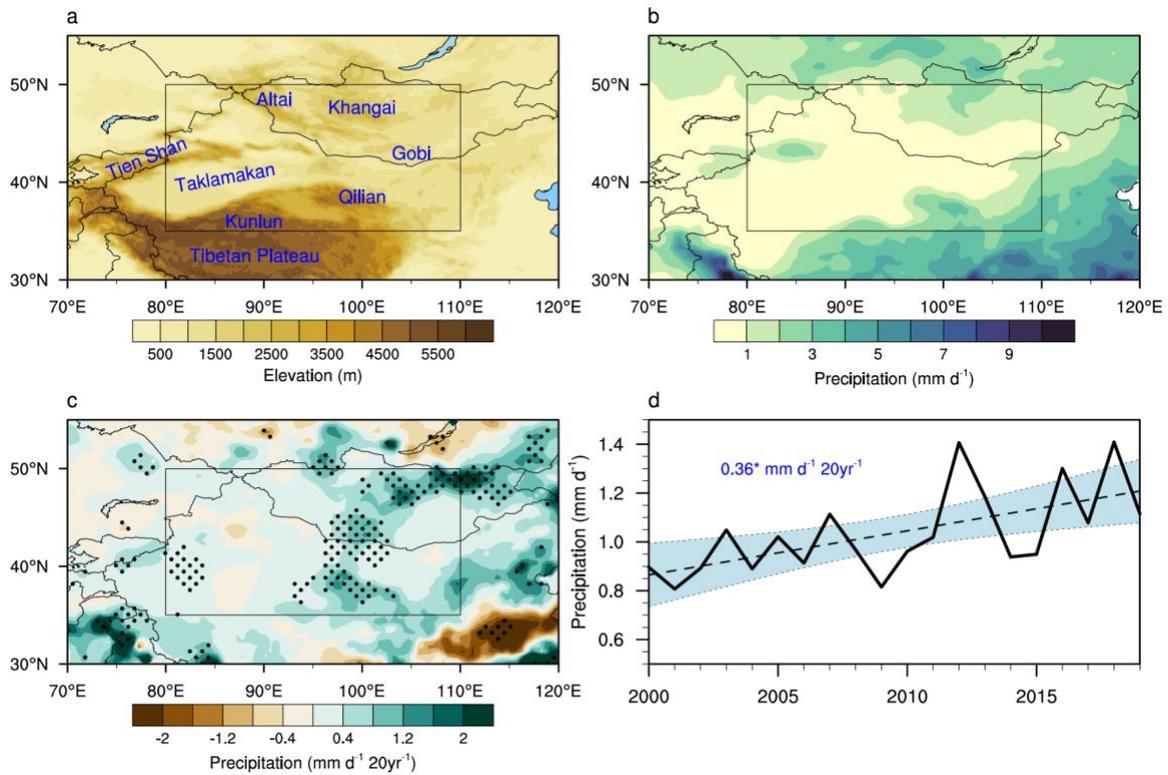
283 Ward, J. H. (1963). Hierarchical Grouping to Optimize an Objective Function. *Journal of the
284 American Statistical Association*, 58(301), 236–244.

285 Zhao, S., Deng, Y., & Black, R. X. (2016). Warm season dry spells in the central and eastern
286 United States: Diverging skill in climate model representation. *Journal of Climate*, 29 (15),
287 5617–5624.

288 Zhao, S., Deng, Y., & Black, R. X. (2017). A dynamical and statistical characterization of US
289 extreme precipitation events and their associated large-scale meteorological patterns. *Journal
290 of Climate*, 30 (4), 1307–1326.

291 Zhao, Y., Huang, A., Zhou, Y., Huang, D., Yang, Q., Ma, Y., . . . Wei, G. (2014). Impact of
292 the middle and upper tropospheric cooling over central Asia on the summer rainfall in the
293 Tarim Basin, China. *Journal of Climate*, 27 (12), 2704721–4732.

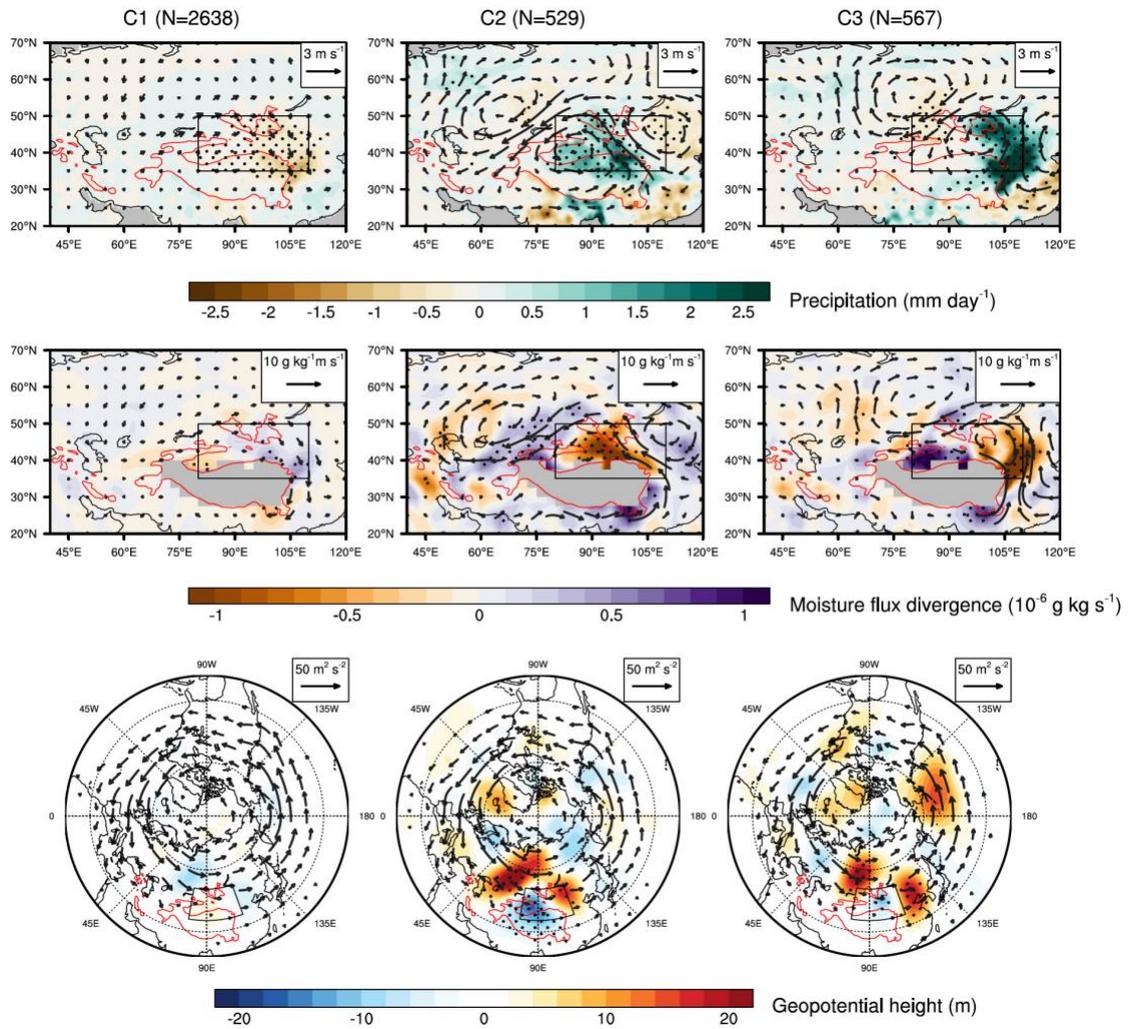
294 Zhou, L. T., & Huang, R. H. (2010). Interdecadal variability of summer rainfall in Northwest
295 China and its possible causes. *International Journal of Climatology*, 30 (4), 549–557.
296



298

299 **Figure 1.** (a) Elevation of the study region, with the main geologic features (i.e. deserts and
 300 mountain ranges) labeled in blue, and Northwest China and Mongolia (NCM) defined
 301 approximately as 80°–110°E and 35°–50°N (the black rectangle). (b) Spatial distribution of the
 302 summer mean precipitation (2000–2019). (c) Spatial distribution of the linear trend of the
 303 summer precipitation (2000–2019). Stippling denotes statistical significance at the 95%
 304 confidence level. (d) Time series of the NCM-average summer precipitation. The best linear
 305 fit and prediction errors are represented by the black dashed line and blue shading, respectively.
 306 The linear trend is given, with an asterisk denoting statistical significance at the 95%
 307 confidence level.

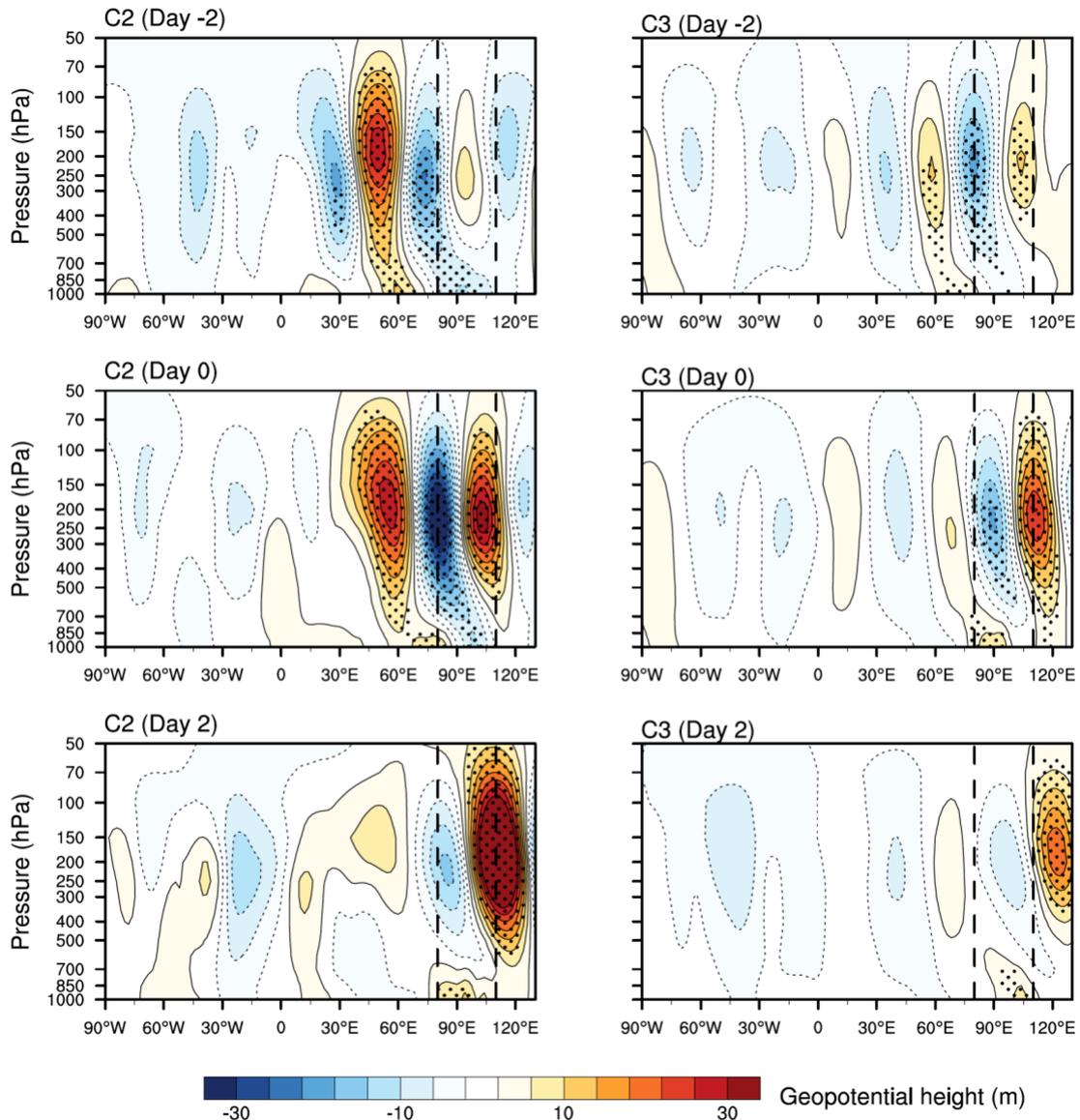
308



309

310 **Figure 2.** Composite anomalies for the three clusters (one column for each cluster). N is the
 311 number of samples in each cluster. Top row: precipitation (shadings) overlaid with 500-hPa
 312 winds (arrows). Middle row: 700-hPa moisture flux divergence (shadings) overlaid with
 313 moisture flux (arrows). Bottom row: 500-hPa geopotential height (shadings) overlaid with
 314 wave activity flux (arrows). Black rectangle denotes NCM while gray shading in the first two
 315 rows denotes regions where the data are not available.

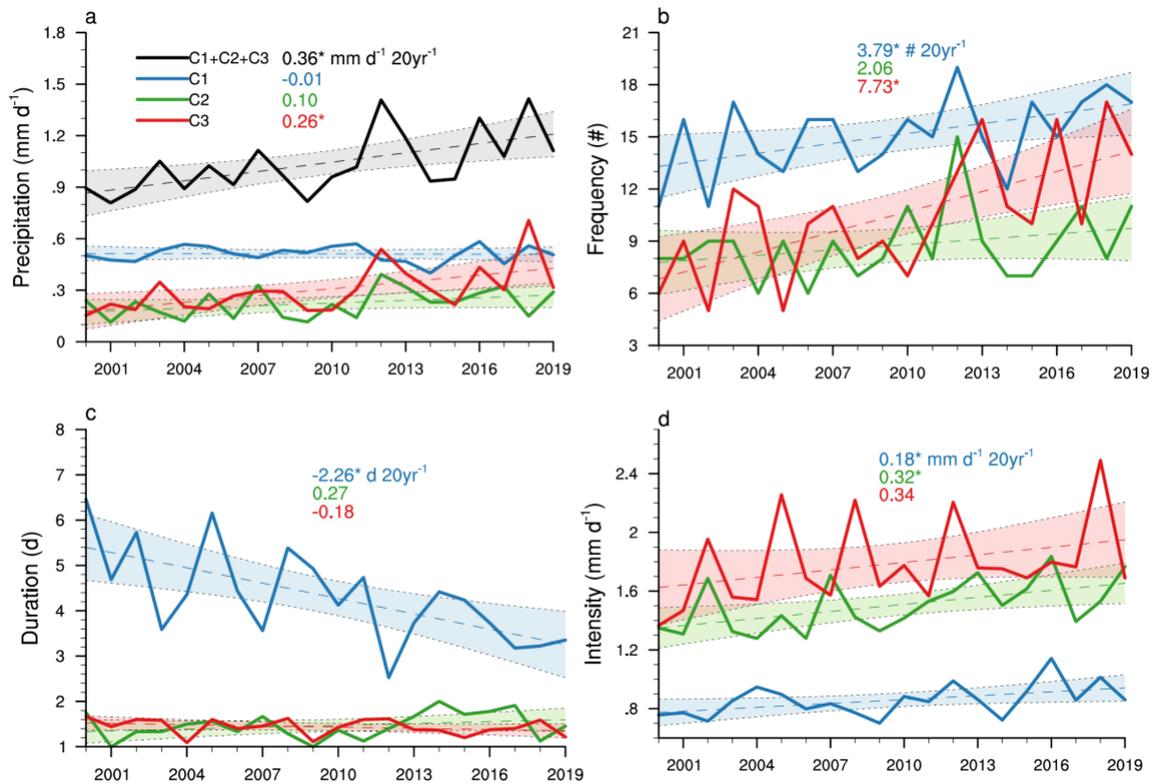
316



317

318 **Figure 3.** Vertical structures of the composite anomalies in geopotential height averaged over
 319 30°–50°N on Day -2 (top row), 0 (middle row) and 2 (bottom row) in C2 (left column) and C3
 320 (right column). Vertical dash lines are the longitudinal boundaries for NCM.

321



322

323 **Figure 4.** Time series of the (a) combined precipitation, (b) frequency, (c) duration and (d)
 324 intensity of the three clusters. For each series, the best linear fit and prediction errors are
 325 represented by the dashed line and shading, respectively. The linear trends are given, with
 326 asterisks denoting statistical significance at the 95% confidence level.