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**The ‘Elevated Heat Pump’ Hypothesis for the Aerosol–Monsoon
Hydroclimate Link: “Grounded” in Observations?**

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Abstract

The viability of the Elevated Heat Pump hypothesis – a mechanism proposed by Lau and Kim (2006) for absorbing aerosols’ impact on South Asian summer monsoon hydroclimate – is assessed from a careful review of these authors’ own analysis and others since then.

The lack of appreciation of the spatial distribution of the aerosol-related precipitation signal over the Indian subcontinent – its east-west asymmetric structure, in particular – apparently led to the development of this hypothesis. Its key elements have little observational support and the hypothesis is thus deemed untenable. Quite telling is the observation that local precipitation signal over the core aerosol region is negative, i.e., increased loadings are linked with suppressed precipitation, and not more as claimed by the hypothesis.

Finally, motivated by the need to address causality, Bollasina et al.’s (2008) analysis of contemporaneous aerosol-monsoon links is extended by examining the structure of hydroclimate lagged-regressions on aerosols. It is shown that findings obtained from contemporaneous analysis can be safely interpreted as representing the impact of aerosols on precipitation, not vice-versa. The possibility that both are shaped by a slowly-evolving, large-scale circulation pattern cannot however be ruled out.

59 1. Introduction

60 One of the areas of the world with high aerosol concentration is South Asia. The contribution
61 of absorbing aerosols to the *long-term* change in summertime rainfall over the Indian
62 subcontinent has been investigated by *Chung et al.* [2002], *Menon et al.* [2002], *Ramanathan et*
63 *al.* [2005], *Chung and Ramanathan* [2006], *Lau et al.* [2006], *Meehl et al.* [2008], *Randles and*
64 *Ramaswamy* [2008], *Collier and Zhang* [2009], and *Sud et al.* [2009]. The *interannual* variability
65 of aerosol concentration and related summer monsoon rainfall variations has also been analyzed
66 [e.g., *Lau and Kim*, 2006 (hereafter *LK06*); *Bollasina et al.*, 2008 (hereafter *BNL08*)].

67 Atmospheric general circulation models and observational analyses have both been deployed
68 to understand aerosol-monsoon interaction. Modeling studies are insightful because of their
69 ability to associate cause and effect in context of modeling experiments but some caution is
70 necessary as model simulations are known to have significant biases in the climatological
71 distribution and evolution of monsoon precipitation [e.g., *Dai*, 2006; *Bollasina and Nigam*,
72 2008]. Furthermore, aerosol effects are only partially represented in many models [e.g., *Kiehl*,
73 2007], often with large uncertainties [e.g., *Kinne et al.*, 2006]. It is expected that aerosols-clouds-
74 precipitation processes and interactions will be greatly improved in the next generation of
75 climate models [e.g., *Ghan and Schwartz*, 2007]. Observational studies, on the other hand,
76 analyze a realistic system but characterization of the pertinent process sequence remains
77 challenging on account of the myriad of feedbacks in the climate system. The influence of large-
78 scale circulation on both aerosol distribution and regional hydroclimate also confounds efforts to
79 elucidate the aerosol impact mechanisms [*Bollasina and Nigam*, 2009].

80 Several pathways have nonetheless been proposed for aerosol's influence on monsoon
81 hydroclimate:

- 82 • Anomalous heating of air due to shortwave absorption by black carbon aerosols, which
83 enhances regional ascending motions and thus precipitation in atmospheric general
84 circulation models [*Menon et al.*, 2002; *Randles and Ramawamy*, 2008].
- 85 • Modulation of the summertime meridional sea surface temperature (SST) gradient in the
86 Indian Ocean from reduced incidence of downward shortwave radiation in the northern basin
87 in the preceding winter/spring. *Ramanathan et al.* [2005] and *Chung and Ramanathan* [2006]
88 showed that aerosol-induced weakening of the SST gradient (leading to weaker summer
89 monsoon rainfall) more than offsets the increase in summertime rainfall resulting from the
90 “heating of air” effect in a coupled ocean-atmosphere model, leading to a net decrease in
91 summer monsoon rainfall in the latter half of the 20th century. The study of *Meehl et al.*
92 [2008], also with a coupled model but with a more comprehensive treatment of aerosol-
93 radiation interaction, supports Ramanathan et al.’s findings on the effect of black carbon
94 aerosols on the Indian summer monsoon rainfall.
- 95 • Modulation of the meridional tropospheric temperature gradient from anomalous
96 accumulation of absorbing aerosols against the southern slopes of the Himalayas in the pre-
97 monsoon period. The elevated diabatic heating anomaly from aerosol absorption of
98 shortwave radiation (“Elevated Heat Pump”, hereafter EHP; *Lau et al.*, 2006; *LK06*) over the
99 southern slopes of the Tibetan plateau in April-May reinforces the climatological meridional
100 temperature gradient and leads to monsoon intensification in June-July in this scheme.
- 101 • Anomalous heating of the land-surface by aerosol-induced reduction in cloudiness (the
102 “semi-direct” effect) and the attendant increase in downward surface shortwave radiation.
103 Stronger heating of the land-surface in May generates greater ocean-atmosphere contrast and
104 thus more monsoon rainfall in June in this posited mechanism [*Bollasina et al.*, 2008]. The

105 importance and potential impacts of aerosol-land-atmosphere interactions on the Indian
106 monsoon have been summarized by *Niyogi et al.* [2007] and *Pielke et al.* [2007].

107 It is interesting that none of the mechanisms except the last one consider aerosol effects on
108 cloudiness (other than those due to attendant heating and circulation changes). The first three
109 pathways are primarily rooted in the aerosol's direct effect on shortwave radiation: tropospheric
110 absorption and surface dimming over both land and ocean. The impact on cloudiness can,
111 perhaps, be neglected in winter when the central and northern Indian subcontinent is relatively
112 cloud-free, but not in late spring and summer when cloudiness tracks monsoon development.
113 Climate models are still ill-equipped in dealing with the complexities of aerosol-cloud interaction
114 (reckoned important in summer) and can thus provide limited insight on the net effect of aerosols
115 on *summer* monsoon hydroclimate and the related impact mechanisms. The indirect effect is not
116 well understood and thus inadequately represented. As for the semi-direct effect, it is likely
117 underrepresented due to uncertainties in aerosol distribution and optical properties, and potential
118 misrepresentation of related cloud responses.

119 A key objective of the present study is to examine the viability of the interesting EHP
120 mechanism. LK06 investigated the link between absorbing aerosols and summer monsoon
121 rainfall and circulation in an observational analysis, targeting the effects of the pre-monsoon
122 aerosol loading over the Indo-Gangetic Basin (IGB). Using composite and regression analysis
123 keyed to the TOMS Aerosol Index (AI) averaged over the IGB, the authors posit that piling up of
124 absorbing aerosols (i.e., dust and black-carbon) along the Himalayan foothills and southern
125 slopes of the Tibetan Plateau during April-May leads to diabatic heating of the lower-to-mid
126 troposphere from aerosol absorption of solar radiation. The heated air over the southern slopes of
127 the Tibetan Plateau rises, drawing warm and moist low-level inflow from the northern Indian

128 Ocean. Aerosol extinction (due to absorption and scattering) of solar radiation – the “solar
129 dimming” effect – is moreover reckoned to produce surface cooling over central India, with the
130 resulting increased stability leading to rainfall suppression there. A large-scale response,
131 including a regional meridional overturning circulation with rising motion (and increased
132 rainfall) in the Himalayan foothills and northern India and sinking motion over the northern
133 Indian Ocean, is then envisioned (see Section 2 in *LK06* for more discussion). The EHP
134 hypothesis has recently motivated a [NASA field campaign](#) involving ground and remote
135 observations in the IGB and Himalayan-Tibetan regions.

136 A careful review of *LK06* and other analyses since then [*BNL08*; *Gautam et al.*, 2009]
137 however reveals that the EHP hypothesis is not grounded in observations. The study of *BNL08*,
138 observationally based and similar to *LK06* in many respects, indicates in particular that the EHP
139 mechanism is rooted in the *expansive* zonal averaging employed in *LK06*. Such overly-wide
140 averaging is without basis since the western and eastern sectors of the averaged region have
141 oppositely signed hydroclimate signals, leading to spurious collocation of aerosol loading
142 (concentrated in the western sector) and the dominating hydroclimate signal (of the eastern
143 sector). The EHP hypothesis has other difficulties as well, all discussed below.

144 Another objective of this study is to extend *BNL08*'s analysis of aerosol-monsoon links
145 which emphasized the aerosol semi-direct effect and attendant *heating* of the land surface. The
146 EHP hypothesis, in contrast, highlights the direct effect of aerosols and related *cooling* (heating)
147 of the land surface (atmosphere). *BNL08*'s contemporaneous analysis for late-spring is
148 complemented here by displaying the aerosol-monsoon links with aerosol loading, which provide
149 further insights into cause and effect, albeit cursorily in view of the monthly analysis resolution.
150 The article is organized as follows: Section 2 articulates the perceived difficulties with the EHP

151 hypothesis vis-à-vis observations, while Section 3 presents key results from the analysis of
152 aerosol-monsoon links. Concluding remarks follow in Section 4.

153

154 **2. Difficulties with the EHP hypothesis**

155 To critique the observational basis for the EHP hypothesis, we first reproduced *LK06*
156 analysis before assessing its sensitivity to some attributes. The EHP hypothesis lacks
157 observational support in our opinion for the following reasons:

- 158 • *LK06*, unfortunately, did not show the IGB AI-related precipitation footprint in May when
159 aerosol concentration is at its peak. The lack of appreciation of the precipitation distribution
160 – primarily zonal, with decreased rainfall over western-central India (where aerosol is
161 concentrated) and increased rainfall over northern Burma and the far eastern Indian state of
162 Assam (Fig. 1a)¹ – must have allowed *LK06* to entertain EHP-type notions, we surmise. Had
163 the authors realized that the IGB AI rainfall regressions in the aerosol-loading region which
164 includes Himalayan foothills (Box-I in *LK06*'s Fig. 1b; green-sided rectangle in Fig. 1a here)
165 are weak and that too of opposite sign (i.e., rainfall reduction) in May, they may have shied
166 away from proposing the EHP hypothesis². The May rainfall signal of a more geographically
167 focused AI time series (defined by solid dots in Fig. 1 of *BNL08*) is also very weak in the
168 Himalayan foothills and northeastern India, with rainfall suppression again indicated (Fig. 3
169 of *BNL08*).

¹ Figure 1 shows the May regressions /correlations on the May IGB AI. The May index was chosen for consistency with *BNL08* but one could have as well chosen the April-May average IGB AI to be fully consistent with *LK06*. The May precipitation regressions on the latter are indistinguishable from those in Fig. 1a.

² The EHP signal should be manifest in the monthly average as the contributing processes operate on shorter time scales.

170 • A figure that plays a key role in the formulation of the EHP hypothesis is Fig. 2 in *LK06*:
171 Panels 2a and 2b depict the monthly evolution of sector-averaged aerosol and precipitation
172 anomalies as a function of latitude. The anomalies are from composites keyed to the IGB AI.
173 Based on this figure – misleading for reasons discussed next – *LK06* (Section 3.2) conclude
174 that “*At the time of the maximum build up of aerosol in May, rainfall is increased over*
175 *northern India (20°–28°N) but reduced over central India (15°–20°N). The rainfall pattern*
176 *indicates an advance of rainy season over northern India starting in May, followed by*
177 *increased rainfall over all-India from June to July, and decreased rainfall in August.*” This
178 incorrectly drawn conclusion is the backbone of the EHP hypothesis. Panel 2b, in particular,
179 is misleading in context of this hypothesis because an overly-wide longitudinal sector
180 average (65°–95°E) is displayed (the sector is marked in yellow in Fig. 1a). Such extensive
181 averaging is misleading as it suggests spatial collocation of aerosol loading and enhanced
182 precipitation, when, in fact, there is little overlap among them: Precipitation is enhanced in
183 the very narrow sector to the far right (90°–95°E), and not at all in region I (70°–90°E); see
184 Fig. 1a. A similar reasoning can be applied to Fig. 3a in *LK06*: Enhanced meridional motion
185 and subsequent upward velocity are actually observed only eastward of 90°E (Fig. 1f of the
186 present work), which is a very narrow band compared to the range of longitudes included in
187 the average. Figures 2b and 3a in *LK06* thus do not provide observational evidence for the
188 EHP hypothesis, contrary to claims. Examination of the IGB AI-related May precipitation
189 anomaly (Fig. 1a) shows clearly that rainfall does not increase over Northern India (where
190 aerosol loadings are largest); it is, in fact, suppressed. *LK06* obtain a precipitation increase
191 only because their overly-wide averaging masks the suppressed precipitation over North
192 India favoring the large precipitation increase farther to the east.

- 193 • The EHP hypothesis is predicated on the piling up of absorbing aerosols against the southern
194 slopes of the Himalayas and over southern Tibetan plateau. The core of the May aerosol
195 standard deviation is however located not over elevated terrain but well south of the
196 Himalayan range (Fig. 1b in *BNL08* and Fig. 1b in *LK06*).
- 197 • An important element of the EHP hypothesis is the diabatic heating of the troposphere above
198 elevated terrain. Citing *Gautam et al. [2009]*, “According to the EHP hypothesis, aerosol
199 forcing resulting from absorption of solar radiation due to enhanced build-up of dust
200 aerosols in May, mixed with soot from industrial/urban pollution over the IGP, may cause
201 strong convection and updrafts in the middle-upper troposphere resulting in positive
202 tropospheric temperature anomalies northward, most pronounced over the southern slopes
203 of the TP and the Himalayas [*Lau et al., 2006; Lau and Kim, 2006*].” The AI-related
204 tropospheric (1000-300 hPa layer-average) warming (Fig. 4a in *LK06*) is, of course, not
205 evidence of this (although it is taken as such in *Gautam et al., 2009*) as the displayed
206 warming signal lags AI by one month in the *LK06* figure. The IGB-AI related
207 contemporaneous (May) warming in the lower (surface-700 hPa) and upper troposphere
208 (700-300 hPa) is shown in Figs. 1b-c, respectively. Correlation analysis shows only the
209 former to be significant. In neither case, however, positive temperature anomalies are found
210 northward of the core aerosol loading region, and certainly not above the 700 hPa level. As
211 discussed later, the lower tropospheric warming arises from the warming of the land-surface,
212 as evident from the vertical structure of the AI-related temperature signal (Fig. 7 in *BNL08*).
- 213 • The EHP hypothesis posits that rainfall enhancement is confined to the foothill region
214 because aerosol induced “solar dimming” leads to the cooling of the Indo-Gangetic Plains,
215 limiting convective instability. There is no evidence for this in observations. To the contrary,

216 the AI-related downward shortwave radiation anomaly (Fig. 1d)³ is positive over much of the
217 subcontinent, leading to a warmer land-surface. Other factors, e.g., advection may contribute
218 as well. The associated 2-m temperature anomaly (Fig. 1e) reflects the modulation of
219 insolation. The “solar dimming” feature of the EHP hypothesis was perplexing to begin with,
220 as detection of “solar dimming” is far more challenging in late spring and early summer
221 when cloudiness variations can be confounding. Observational evidence shows an
222 unambiguous warming of the land surface in May when aerosol loading is anomalously high,
223 attesting to the dominance of the aerosol semi-direct effect (or decreased cloud cover) over
224 any “solar dimming” due to aerosol extinction.

225 • Recently, *Gautam et al.* [2009] have correlated the lower and upper tropospheric temperature
226 anomalies over Northern India in March-May with the concurrent AI over the region (their
227 Fig. 3), finding significant correlations (~ 0.65). This correspondence however cannot be
228 considered evidence for the EHP hypothesis any more than it can for the aerosol semi-direct
229 effect. As discussed above (and in Fig. 9 of *BNL08*), the AI-related signal in downward
230 surface shortwave radiation is positive over the subcontinent, leading to surface (and lower
231 tropospheric) warming, providing forceful evidence for the dominance of the semi-direct
232 effect.

233 • The non-collocation of the aerosol loading and rainfall enhancement regions in May is
234 concerning in context of the EHP hypothesis, as noted above. A more reasonable and
235 straightforward explanation for increased rainfall over northeastern India is orographic uplift

³ The downward surface shortwave radiation is from the [International Satellite Cloud Climatology Project \(ISCCP\) FD SRF data set](#) [*Zhang et al.*, 2004]. The field is generated by NASA’s Goddard Institute of Space Studies (GISS) general circulation model using ISCCP cloud fields and the GISS aerosol climatology. As shown in Fig. 9 in *BNL08*, this analysis of surface shortwave radiation compares favorably with the Global Energy and Water Cycle Experiment’s (GEWEX) SRB diagnosis [*Gupta et al.*, 1999].

236 of the moisture laden air from the Bay of Bengal. The southerly flow is generated as part of
237 the anomalous low-level cyclonic circulation (Fig. 1f), anchored by land-surface heating
238 (Figs. 1e, 1b) and resulting low pressure over the subcontinent. [More generally, the aerosol
239 loading and rainfall enhancement/suppression regions need not be collocated as the aerosol
240 impact is often generated from induced regional circulation anomalies.]

241 The EHP hypothesis is not without conceptual difficulties as well: For instance, if aerosol-
242 induced rising motions were to lead to *local* rainfall enhancement in the foothill region, aerosol
243 washout would rapidly occur. The EHP would then serve as an *aerosol self-limiting mechanism*
244 in the Himalayan foothills, limiting its efficacy in impacting summer monsoon evolution over the
245 larger subcontinent.

246

247 **3. Aerosol-leading hydroclimate links**

248 The contemporaneous analysis of aerosol-monsoon hydroclimate links for May reported in
249 *BNL08* precludes attribution of cause and effect. One interpretation of the findings, as discussed
250 in section 5 of that paper, could have been that aerosol loading responds to concurrent rainfall
251 variations due to washout effect, which is not an unreasonable proposition. This possibility was
252 however ruled out in *BNL08* by additional analysis in which the April AI over the Indo-Gangetic
253 Plain (IGP) was regressed on May and June's precipitation and circulation. Although discussed
254 to some extent, the lagged regression patterns were not displayed in *BNL08*, leading to some
255 lingering concerns on causality.

256 Monthly lagged regressions on the IGP aerosol index (defined as in *BNL08*) can be insightful
257 provided that the AI itself is autocorrelated on time scales longer than a month. Figure 1f in

258 *BNL08* shows the autocorrelation structure of both April and May indices. The indices are
259 significantly correlated (~ 0.6), indicating anomaly persistence longer than one month. Figure 2
260 in *BNL08* provides context for the multi-month timescale by showing how ‘aerosol events’ over
261 the Indo-Gangetic Plain can be generated in the pre-monsoon period from advection of dust and
262 pollutants by the prevailing low-level westerlies, i.e., by a process other than local precipitation
263 which operates on much shorter time scales.

264 The contemporaneous and lagged precipitation regressions on the April IGP AI are shown in
265 Fig. 2 (a-c). Close comparison with Fig 3 in *BNL08* (top row; contouring and shading intervals
266 are identical) indicates striking similarity between the contemporaneous and one-month aerosol-
267 leading regressions of May precipitation [*BNL08*’s Fig. 3 (top-left panel) and Fig. 2b,
268 respectively]. The east-west asymmetry, in particular, is well captured in the aerosol-leading
269 regressions. The similarity extends to the June precipitation patterns: the 2-month lagged
270 regressions on the April AI and the 1-month lagged regressions on the May AI. The April and
271 May IGP AI regressions of the May 2-m air temperature also exhibit notable similarity [Fig. 2d-e
272 and *BNL08*’s Fig 8 (top-left), respectively], indicating coherent development of surface warming
273 and the dominance of the aerosol semi-direct effect over the direct one.

274 The extensive similarity between the aerosol-leading and contemporaneous regressions of
275 precipitation along with evidence for the multi-month duration of aerosol episodes in the pre-
276 monsoon onset period should address the causality issue. The findings of *BNL08* obtained from
277 contemporaneous analysis thus represent the impact of aerosols on precipitation, not vice-versa.

278

279

280 4. Concluding Remarks

281 The study seeks to ascertain the viability of the EHP hypothesis – a mechanism proposed by
282 *LK06* for absorbing aerosols' impact on South Asian summer monsoon hydroclimate. A careful
283 review of *LK06*'s analysis and others since then [*Bollasina et al.*, 2008; *Gautam et al.*, 2009]
284 reveals that the EHP hypothesis is not grounded in observations. A lack of appreciation of the
285 spatial distribution of the aerosol-related May precipitation signal over the Indian subcontinent –
286 its east-west asymmetric structure, in particular – as reflected in gross zonal-averaging (65°-
287 95°E) of the signal in *LK06* (Fig. 2b) led to this hypothesis.

288 We show that key elements of the EHP hypothesis have no basis in observations and the
289 hypothesis is thus deemed untenable:

- 290 • The core of the May aerosol standard deviation is located not over the southern Himalayan
291 slopes or elevated terrain but southward over the northern Indo-Gangetic Plain.
- 292 • Aerosol-related downward surface shortwave radiation and 2-m air temperature signals are
293 positive over the core region and the northern subcontinent, i.e., increased loadings are
294 associated with more surface insolation and a warmer land surface (not a colder one, as per
295 EHP hypothesis). This indicates the dominance of the aerosol semi-direct effect over the
296 direct one (solar dimming).
- 297 • More importantly, the concurrent local precipitation signal over the core aerosol region in
298 May is negative, i.e., increased loadings are linked with suppressed precipitation (not more,
299 as claimed by the EHP hypothesis).
- 300 • Aerosol-related tropospheric warming is confined to the lower troposphere. Sensible heating
301 from the land-surface is, perhaps, most important (see Fig. 8 in BNL08).

- 302 • The EHP hypothesis has a self-limiting element: If aerosol-induced rising motions were to
303 lead to local rainfall enhancement in the foothill regions, as claimed, aerosol washout would
304 occur, limiting its intensity and large-scale influence.
- 305 • The EHP hypothesis can perhaps be mimicked by atmospheric models but this cannot be an
306 indication of its relevance in nature as the representation of aerosol indirect and semi-direct
307 effects in models mentioned above is primitive. Observational analysis is, of course, not
308 without its own uncertainties.

309 Finally, we extend the analysis of contemporaneous aerosol-monsoon links reported in
310 *BNL08* by examining the structure of the one- and two-month aerosol-leading regressions on
311 hydroclimate. The extension is motivated by the need to address causality. The extensive
312 similarity between the aerosol-leading and contemporaneous regressions on precipitation along
313 with evidence for the multi-month duration of aerosol episodes in the pre-monsoon period
314 suggest that the *BNL08* findings obtained from contemporaneous analysis represent the impact of
315 aerosols on precipitation, not vice-versa.

316 The possibility that both aerosol and precipitation anomalies, in turn, are shaped by a slowly
317 evolving, large-scale circulation pattern cannot presently be ruled out, in part because current
318 atmospheric models and observational analyses are unable to tease apart regional feedbacks from
319 the large-scale influence. Some caution is thus warranted in the interpretation of aerosol
320 mechanisms, as further discussed in *Bollasina and Nigam* [2009].

321

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325

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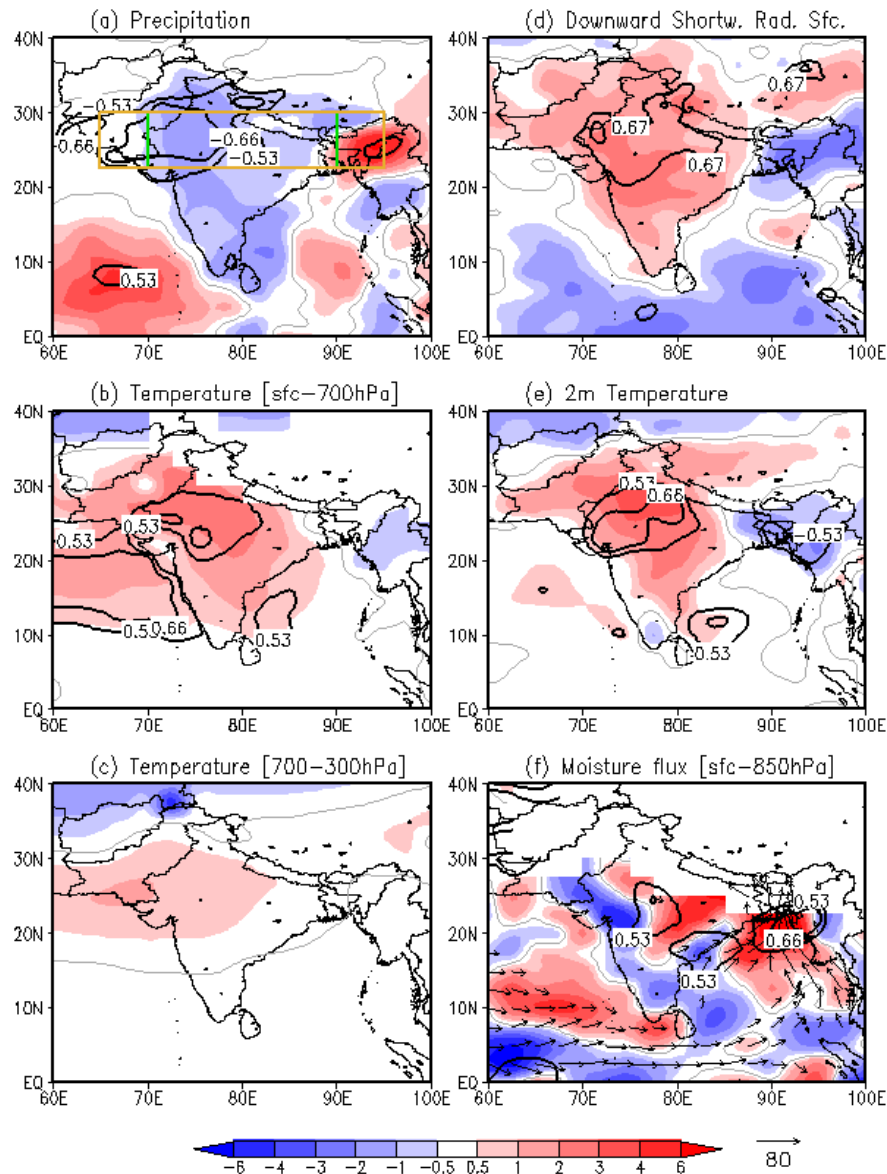
386 **Figure Captions**

387 **Figure 1.** May regressions (shaded, with the grey line indicating the zero contour) and correlations
388 (black contours) on the TOMS AI time series averaged over the area (70° - 90° E, 22.5° - 30° N, green
389 rectangle in (a); the Box-I domain in LK06) of: (a) precipitation (mm day^{-1} , from the Global Precipitation
390 Climatology Project, GPCP); (b) surface-700 hPa average temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$, from the ECMWF Reanalysis,
391 ERA-40); (c) 700-300 hPa average temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$, from ERA-40); (d) downward shortwave radiation at
392 the surface ($0.1 \times W \text{ m}^{-2}$, from the ISCCP FD dataset), (e) 2-m air temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$, from ERA-40), (f)
393 moisture flux ($\text{Kg m}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$; vectors, values below $20 \text{ Kg m}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ have been masked out) and its convergence
394 ($\text{Kg m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$; shaded, positive values representing convergence) mass-weighted and vertically integrated
395 between the surface and 850 hPa. The time series were not detrended before computing the correlations,
396 to closely compare with maps in LK06. Data are for the period 1979-1992, except radiation which is only
397 available from 1984. Correlations are only shown in terms of the 95% and 99% significance levels (± 0.53
398 (± 0.67) and ± 0.66 (± 0.79), respectively). Inconsistency in the AI time series after 1992 restricted the
399 correlations to the 14-year period considered here. Green and yellow rectangles in Fig. 1a denote the
400 regions (70° - 90° E, 22.5° - 30° N and 65° - 95° E, 22.5° - 30° N, respectively) used by LK06 to define the AI
401 time series (their Fig. 1c) and for displaying cross-sections of composite anomalies (their Figs. 2b and 3),
402 respectively.

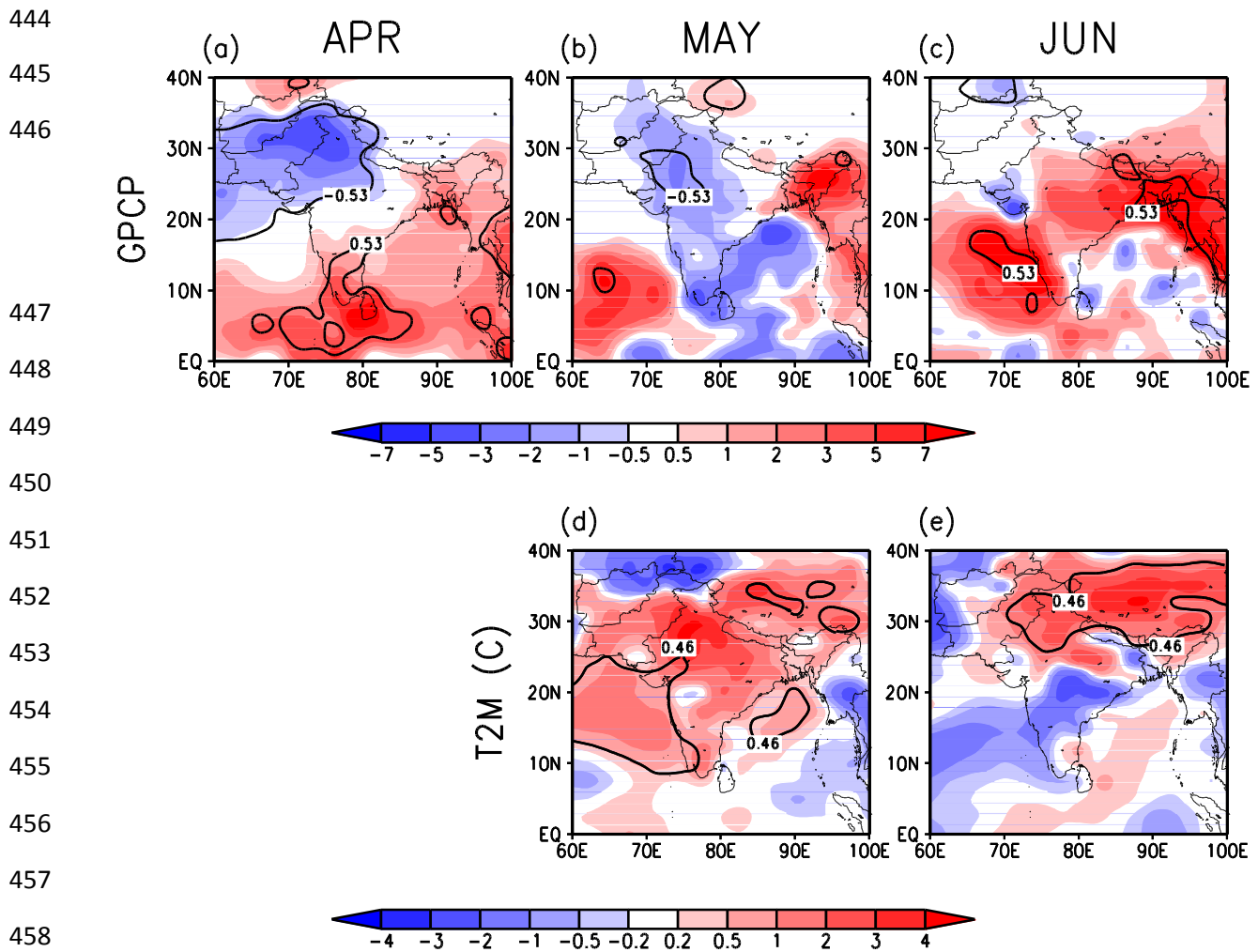
403 **Figure 2.** *Top panels:* GPCP precipitation (mm day^{-1}) regressed on the April TOMS AI time series
404 (averaged over the same points highlighted in Fig. 1a of BNL08) for (a) April, (b) May, and (c) June. The
405 ± 0.53 contour line shows the 95% confidence level. *Bottom panels:* 2-m air temperature (T2M, $^{\circ}\text{C}$; data
406 from ERA-40) regressed on the April AI time series for (d) May and (e) June (the ± 0.46 contour line
407 show the 90% confidence level). Data are for the period 1979-1992. Both data were detrended before
408 computing the regressions.

409

410 **Figures**



428 **Figure 1.** May regressions (shaded, with the grey line indicating the zero contour) and correlations (black
 429 contours) on the TOMS AI time series averaged over the area (70°-90°E, 22.5°-30°N, green rectangle in
 430 (a); the Box-I domain in LK06) of: (a) precipitation (mm day⁻¹, from the Global Precipitation Climatology
 431 Project, GPCP); (b) surface-700 hPa average temperature (°C, from the ECMWF Reanalysis, ERA-40);
 432 (c) 700-300 hPa average temperature (°C, from ERA-40); (d) downward shortwave radiation at the
 433 surface (0.1×W m⁻², from the ISCCP FD dataset), (e) 2-m air temperature (°C, from ERA-40), (f)
 434 moisture flux (Kg m⁻¹ s⁻¹; vectors, values below 20 Kg m⁻¹ s⁻¹ have been masked out) and its convergence
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