

# *Intraseasonal soil moisture-atmosphere feedbacks on the Tibetan Plateau circulation*

Article

Accepted Version

Talib, J., Taylor, C.M., Duan, A. and Turner, A. ORCID:  
<https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0642-6876> (2020) Intraseasonal  
soil moisture-atmosphere feedbacks on the Tibetan Plateau  
circulation. *Journal of Climate*. ISSN 1520-0442 doi:  
<https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-20-0377.1> Available at  
<http://centaur.reading.ac.uk/90790/>

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To link to this article DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-20-0377.1>

Publisher: American Meteorological Society

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1 **Intraseasonal soil moisture-atmosphere feedbacks on the Tibetan Plateau**  
2 **circulation**

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## ABSTRACT

17 Substantial intraseasonal precipitation variability is observed across the Ti-  
18 betan Plateau (TP) during boreal summer associated with the subtropical jet  
19 location and the Silk Road pattern. Weather station data and satellite obser-  
20 vations highlight a sensitivity of soil moisture and surface fluxes to this vari-  
21 ability. During rain-free periods of two or more days, skin temperatures are  
22 shown to rise as the surface dries, signalling decreased evaporative fraction.  
23 Surface fluxes are further enhanced by relatively clear skies. In this study we  
24 use an atmospheric reanalysis to assess how this surface flux response across  
25 the TP influences local and remote conditions.

26 Increased surface sensible heat flux induced by decreased soil moisture dur-  
27 ing a regional dry event leads to a deepening of the planetary boundary-layer  
28 and the development of a heat low. Consistent with previous studies, heat  
29 low characteristics exhibit pronounced diurnal variability driven by anoma-  
30 lous daytime surface warming. For example, low-level horizontal winds are  
31 weakest during the afternoon and intensify overnight when boundary-layer  
32 turbulence is minimal. The heat low favours an upper-tropospheric anticy-  
33 clone which induces an upper-level Rossby wave and leads to negative upper-  
34 level temperature anomalies across southern China. The Rossby wave inten-  
35 sifies the upper-level cyclonic circulation across central China, whilst upper-  
36 level negative temperature anomalies across south China extends the west Pa-  
37 cific subtropical high westward. These circulation anomalies influence tem-  
38 perature and precipitation anomalies across much of China. The association  
39 between land-atmosphere interactions across the TP, large-scale atmospheric  
40 circulation characteristics, and precipitation in east Asia highlights the impor-  
41 tance of intraseasonal soil moisture dynamics on the TP.

## 42 **1. Introduction**

43 With an average height of 4500m and an area of approximately 2.5 million km<sup>2</sup>, dynamic and  
44 thermodynamic processes over the Tibetan Plateau (TP, shown in Fig. 1a at approximately 28 to  
45 40°N and 80 to 105°E) influence the large-scale atmospheric circulation across Eurasia. The TP  
46 surface provides a mid-tropospheric heat source in the mid-latitudes that opposes the textbook  
47 view of the zonal-mean Hadley circulation, intensifies the Indian and East Asian monsoons  
48 (Kutzbach et al. 1993; Molnar et al. 1993; Zhisheng et al. 2001; Duan and Wu 2005; Jiang  
49 et al. 2008), and varies the East Asian subtropical front location (Jiang et al. 2008; Wang et al.  
50 2008; Liu et al. 2012; Wang et al. 2014). Substantial efforts have taken place to understand the  
51 sensitivity of interannual precipitation variability to TP land surface warming (Li and Yanai 1996;  
52 Duan and Wu 2005; Liu et al. 2012; Wang et al. 2014). However, there has been less attention  
53 paid to the impact of intraseasonal TP surface warming on atmospheric conditions.

54 Surface sensible heat flux (SHF) is controlled by incoming radiation, temperature, humidity,  
55 low-level wind, and land surface characteristics. Certain land surface properties such as veg-  
56 etation cover, leaf area, and aerodynamic roughness change relatively slowly over the season.  
57 Meanwhile soil moisture, particularly near the surface, fluctuates strongly in response to rainfall,  
58 and decreases more gradually during dry spells. When vegetation is sparse, surface fluxes are  
59 sensitive to soil moisture due to substantial variations in evaporation. A recent observational study  
60 at a weather station located in a semi-arid region that extends across the central TP highlights  
61 that sub-seasonal variations in evaporation are predominately due to changes in soil evaporation  
62 rather than plant transpiration (Cui et al. 2020). Favouring of surface SHF over surface latent  
63 heat flux (LHF) during periods of soil moisture deficiency increases near-surface air temperatures  
64 (Koster et al. 2009; Miralles et al. 2012; Berg et al. 2014; Schwingshackl et al. 2017) and impacts

65 boundary-layer and large-scale circulation characteristics (Notaro and Zarrin 2011; Xue et al.  
66 2012; Wan et al. 2017). Variations in surface fluxes also influence the intensity of drought and  
67 heatwave events (Zampieri et al. 2009; Weisheimer et al. 2011; Loikith and Broccoli 2012;  
68 Quesada et al. 2012; Chiriaco et al. 2014; Schumacher et al. 2019). In this study the sensitivity  
69 of surface fluxes and the atmospheric circulation to intraseasonal precipitation and soil moisture  
70 variability across the TP is investigated. In particular the influence of soil moisture deficiency  
71 across the TP on the development of heat lows and remote atmospheric conditions is explored.

72 Numerous observational and modelling studies demonstrate a sensitivity of local and remote  
73 atmospheric conditions to land surface characteristics on intraseasonal to interannual timescales.  
74 For example, interannual boreal summer rainfall variability across southern North America  
75 (Carleton et al. 1990) is associated with land surface characteristics across mountainous regions  
76 in western North America (Gutzler 2000; Lo and Clark 2002; Hu and Feng 2004; Notaro and  
77 Zarrin 2011; Xue et al. 2012, 2016, 2018; Diallo et al. 2019). Anomalously deep snowpack  
78 across high terrain regions in western North America increases surface albedo and provides a  
79 more persistent soil moisture source associated with decreased lower-tropospheric temperatures,  
80 a reduced land-ocean thermal gradient, a delayed poleward migration of the North American  
81 monsoon, and negative rainfall anomalies across southwest North America (Gutzler 2000; Lo  
82 and Clark 2002; Notaro and Zarrin 2011). There is also a significant relationship between late  
83 spring land surface temperature anomalies across western North America and boreal summer  
84 precipitation over the Southern Great Plains (Xue et al. 2012, 2016, 2018; Diallo et al. 2019). A  
85 positive land surface temperature anomaly across western North America increases surface SHF  
86 and induces a positive mid-tropospheric geopotential anomaly, the development of a planetary  
87 wave train, a cyclonic anomaly over the Southern Great Plains and the favouring of positive boreal  
88 summer rainfall anomalies (Xue et al. 2016, 2018). Similar to mountainous regions in western

89 North America, the TP is also a high elevated region at a similar latitude to the sub-tropical jet.  
90 It is hypothesised that mechanisms responsible for atmospheric changes that occur across the TP  
91 and south-east Asia, associated with anomalous land surface characteristics, are similar to those  
92 observed in North America.

93 Heat lows are common across sub-tropical arid and semi-arid regions during months of high  
94 insolation. To understand heat lows across the TP, previous studies analysing heat lows in other  
95 sub-tropical regions can be drawn upon. Heat lows have been observed and analysed across  
96 West Africa (Parker et al. 2005; Sultan et al. 2007; Lothon et al. 2008), Angola (Howard and  
97 Washington 2018), the Iberian Peninsula (Hoinka and Castro 2003), and Pakistan/north-west India  
98 (Bollasina and Nigam 2011) amongst other locations. Idealised modelling studies have focused  
99 on understanding heat low dynamics across western Australia (Rácz and Smith 1999; Spengler  
100 et al. 2005) and regions of high elevation (Smith and Spengler 2011). Heat lows are formed when  
101 strong solar surface heating leads to ascent and increased low-level relative vorticity. Even though  
102 low-level atmospheric temperatures maximise during the afternoon alongside a surface pressure  
103 minima at the centre of heat lows, boundary-layer turbulence inhibits and delays a low-level  
104 wind response. As a result, low-level convergence and relative vorticity do not maximise until  
105 nighttime, once insolation is removed and boundary-layer turbulence is much weaker (Rácz  
106 and Smith 1999; Parker et al. 2005; Smith and Spengler 2011; Howard and Washington 2018).  
107 Above the heat low, an anticyclone develops associated with upper-level divergence. Upper-level  
108 anticyclone characteristics have smaller diurnal variations compared to the low-level cyclone due  
109 to a reduced influence of diurnally-varying boundary-layer turbulence at altitude (Rácz and Smith  
110 1999; Howard and Washington 2018). Idealised modelling experiments have also been performed  
111 to investigate the sensitivity of heat lows to orography (Smith and Spengler 2011). When applying  
112 identical surface heating to elevated and low regions, greater decreases in low-level air density are



113 simulated over elevated regions associated with a shallower atmosphere. The horizontal gradient  
114 in atmospheric density enhances low-level convergence and promotes an intensified heat low  
115 across elevated slopes. There are currently a small number of studies analysing the impact of  
116 intraseasonal soil moisture variations on the development of heat lows across semi-arid regions  
117 (Taylor 2008; Lavender et al. 2010). In this study we highlight the influence of intraseasonal soil  
118 moisture variability on heat low development across the TP using observations and reanalysis.

119 Modelling experiments highlight a sensitivity of local atmospheric conditions to TP surface  
120 warming (Wang et al. 2008; Liu et al. 2012; Wan et al. 2017; Ge et al. 2019). Increased TP surface  
121 warming promotes a heat low circulation associated with an anomalous low-level cyclone and an  
122 anomalous upper-level anticyclone (Wang et al. 2008; Wan et al. 2017; Ge et al. 2019). Alongside  
123 a local atmospheric response to TP surface warming, remote atmospheric conditions are also  
124 impacted (Wang et al. 2008; Wan et al. 2017). Wan et al. (2017) investigated the impact of initial  
125 soil moisture conditions across the TP in the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model on  
126 local and remote atmospheric conditions. Their study was motivated by ten extreme precipitation  
127 events in southeast China, not associated with tropical cyclones, being preceded by anomalous  
128 positive TP near-surface air temperatures of approximately 1 to 2°C five days before. Three  
129 experiments were performed comparing a realistic soil moisture initialisation with idealised wet  
130 and dry soil conditions representing the two extremes in surface hydrology. Dry soil conditions  
131 increase surface SHF, boundary-layer height, and near-surface air temperatures across the TP.  
132 Low-level atmospheric heating induces an anomalous low-level cyclone, associated with positive  
133 temperature anomalies, and an upper-level anticyclone, associated with negative temperature  
134 anomalies. The upper-level anticyclone interacts with the subtropical Eurasian jet and induces  
135 an eastward-propagating Rossby wave, similar to behaviour observed across elevated regions in  
136 North America (Xue et al. 2016, 2018). The subtropical Eurasian jet also promotes the eastward

137 propagation of upper-level negative temperature anomalies. The combination of an upper-level  
138 Rossby wave and upper-level negative temperature anomalies induces a low-level cyclone across  
139 southeast China and extends the subtropical west Pacific high westward over central China. These  
140 two changes restrict the northward propagation of cyclonic circulations that develop in the South  
141 China sea and increase precipitation across southeast China. Changes in precipitation across  
142 China several days after surface drying on the TP highlight that land-atmosphere feedbacks across  
143 the TP can influence precipitation in East Asia.

144 In this study we will show the influence of intraseasonal soil moisture fluctuations across the  
145 TP, predominately controlled by precipitation variations, on the local surface energy balance.  
146 Following this, we will build on simulations analysed in Wan et al. (2017) to investigate the impact  
147 of surface flux variations, induced by soil moisture fluctuations, on heat low development across  
148 the TP and atmospheric conditions across East Asia. Through analysing this series of processes,  
149 we are investigating the full feedback cycle between the atmosphere drying and warming the  
150 surface and the land surface heating the atmosphere and modulating the circulation. Section 2  
151 provides an overview of weather station datasets, satellite products and ERA5 (European Centre  
152 for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts Reanalysis version 5; Copernicus Climate Change Service  
153 (C3S) 2017; Hersbach et al. 2020) reanalysis that are utilised in this study. The results are  
154 presented in section 3 and are split into three components. Section 3a discusses the sensitivity  
155 of surface fluxes to intraseasonal precipitation and soil moisture variability across the TP, whilst  
156 sections 3b and 3c discuss the sensitivity of local and remote, respectively, atmospheric conditions  
157 to TP surface warming. Finally sections 4 and 5 provide a discussion and conclusions.

158

## 159 **2. Methodology**

160 In this study we use a combination of in situ weather station measurements, satellite products,  
161 and an atmospheric reanalysis to investigate the impact of soil moisture-atmosphere feedbacks  
162 across the TP. A network of 49 stations (cyan squares in Fig. 1a) above 3000m from the China  
163 Meteorological Administration (CMA) taking six-hourly (00, 06, 12 and 18 UTC) measurements  
164 between 2000 and 2015 of surface temperature ( $T_s$ ), near-surface air temperature ( $T_a$ ), and 10m  
165 wind speed ( $v_{10}$ ), alongside daily precipitation accumulations at 12 UTC, are used to analyse  
166 surface conditions across the TP. CMA in situ measurements were only available between 2000  
167 and 2015. To increase the number of years of precipitation data across the TP, we use daily  
168 precipitation accumulations extracted from APHRODITE (Asian Precipitation - Highly-Resolved  
169 Observational Data Integration Towards Evaluation; Yatagai et al. 2012) at  $0.25^\circ$  resolution from  
170 1979 to 2015. APHRODITE is a gridded, continental-scale precipitation and near-surface air tem-  
171 perature product that utilises a dense network of weather stations (Yasutomi et al. 2011; Yatagai  
172 et al. 2012). Substantial interpolation is required across the TP due to the small number of weather  
173 stations. Values at each  $0.25^\circ$  grid point in APHRODITE are calculated by combining surround-  
174 ing weather station measurements with locations approximated onto a  $0.05^\circ$  grid (Yatagai et al.  
175 2012). In the case where zero rainfall measurements are taken across the  $0.05^\circ$  grid associated  
176 with a  $0.25^\circ$  grid point, interpolation is required from surrounding  $0.25^\circ$  grid values. To minimise  
177 the influence of interpolation,  $0.25^\circ$  grid points in APHRODITE are only analysed if they contain  
178 measurements for at a least one of the  $0.05^\circ$  grid points for a minimum of 95% of boreal sum-  
179 mer days between 1979 and 2015. Even though APHRODITE comprises measurements from 26  
180 different countries resulting in different times of day at which readings are taken (Yatagai et al.  
181 2012), no spatial variations in the timing of measurements is recorded. As all measurements in

182 China are provided by CMA (Yatagai et al. 2012), the same organisation who provided the weather  
183 station data, we assume APHRODITE daily precipitation accumulations are computed at 12 UTC.  
184 We also use near-surface daily-mean air temperatures from APHRODITE to explore surface con-  
185 ditions during dry spells across the TP.

186 Several satellite products are used to understand the land surface response to intraseasonal pre-  
187 cipitation variability across the TP. Precipitation data retrieved between 2000 and 2015 by the  
188 Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission 3B42 version 7 (TRMM 3B42V7; Huffman et al. 2007)  
189 is utilised in this study. TRMM 3B42V7 precipitation data is computed by a combination of  
190 passive microwave data from low Earth-orbiting satellites, infrared data collected by the interna-  
191 tional constellation of geosynchronous earth orbit satellites, and monthly rain gauge data from the  
192 Global Precipitation Climatology Project (GPCP; Adler et al. 2003) and National Oceanic and  
193 Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Climate Prediction Center (Huffman et al. 2007). Hourly-  
194 mean surface radiative fluxes are extracted from Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy System  
195 (CERES; Loeb et al. 2003) to understand changes in the surface energy balance across the TP.  
196 CERES surface fluxes are derived through combining (Kato et al. 2018): observed filtered top-of-  
197 the-atmosphere (TOA) irradiance in the shortwave and longwave (Loeb et al. 2003); cloud prop-  
198 erties retrieved by Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) and geostationary  
199 satellites (Minnis et al. 2011); and temperature, specific humidity, and ozone profiles from the  
200 Goddard Earth Observing System version 5.4.1 reanalysis (Rienecker et al. 2008). Finally, soil  
201 moisture anomalies across the TP are computed using satellite retrievals from the European Space  
202 Agency Climate Change Initiative (ESA CCI) combined soil moisture product v04.4 (Dorigo et al.  
203 2017; Gruber et al. 2017, 2019). ESA CCI combined soil moisture product v04.4 combines four  
204 active and seven passive microwave-based instruments alongside a global land data assimilation  
205 system (GLDAS; Rodell et al. 2004) to obtain a consistent climatology throughout the entire time

206 series (Gruber et al. 2019).

207 CMA weather station data is used to approximate outgoing longwave radiation ( $LW_{up}$ ) and sur-  
208 face SHF:

$$LW_{up} = \varepsilon \sigma T_s^4 \quad (1)$$

$$SHF = \rho C_p C_{DH} v_{10} (T_s - T_a) \quad (2)$$

209 where  $\varepsilon$  is the surface emissivity (assumed here to be fixed at 0.95);  $\sigma$  is the Stefan-Boltzmann  
210 constant ( $5.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-4}$ ),  $C_p$  is the specific heat capacity of dry air at constant pressure  
211 and equals  $1005 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ ;  $\rho$  is density ( $\text{kg m}^{-3}$ ) and decreases exponentially with height;  
212  $C_{DH}$  is the drag coefficient for heat and assumed at  $4.0 \times 10^{-3}$  for all stations (following Duan  
213 and Wu 2008);  $v_{10}$  is the mean wind measured at 10m above the ground ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ );  $T_s$  and  $T_a$  are  
214 the skin and near-surface air temperatures (K) respectively. Combining CERES-derived surface  
215 fluxes with computed  $LW_{up}$  (Eqn. 1) and surface SHF (Eqn. 2) from CMA weather station data  
216 is used to partition the surface energy balance (SEB). The following equation is formulated after  
217 partitioning the SEB into land surface forcings and SEB components that depend on land surface  
218 characteristics:

$$SW_{net} + LW_{down} = LW_{up} + SHF + LHF + G \quad (3)$$

219 where  $SW_{net}$  denotes the surface net-downward shortwave radiation ( $\text{W m}^{-2}$ );  $LW_{down}$  denotes the  
220 surface downward longwave radiation ( $\text{W m}^{-2}$ ); LHF denotes the latent heat flux ( $\text{W m}^{-2}$ ); and G  
221 denotes the ground heat flux ( $\text{W m}^{-2}$ ). If we assume that sub-seasonal changes in surface albedo  
222 are minimal, components on the right-hand side of (Eqn. 3) do depend on sub-seasonal changes

223 in surface characteristics whilst components on the left-hand side do not. Upon subtracting SHF  
224 and  $LW_{up}$  from CERES-derived surface radiation, the remainder is assumed to be a combination  
225 of LHF and G. In this study we only consider instantaneous surface fluxes at 18 UTC. We approx-  
226 imate instantaneous CERES-derived radiative fluxes by averaging hourly-mean retrievals at 1730  
227 and 1830 UTC.

228 We use ERA5 reanalysis (Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S) 2017; Hersbach et al.  
229 2020) to investigate the influence of soil moisture-atmosphere interactions across the TP on lo-  
230 cal and remote atmospheric conditions. ERA5 data is analysed at a three-hourly  $1^\circ$  resolution on  
231 twenty pressure levels (50 to 1000hPa in increments of 50hPa). ERA5, computed using 4D-Var  
232 data assimilation and cycle 41r2 of the Integrated Forecasting System (IFS), provides a detailed  
233 record of the global atmosphere, land and ocean waves (Hersbach et al. 2018, 2020). At the time  
234 of access, ERA5 data was only available from 1979. Finally, due to the large longitudinal range  
235 with which Beijing Time (BT) is used across China, it is inappropriate to use BT as a reference for  
236 local solar conditions across the TP. In light of this we refer to the local solar time (LST) which is  
237 six hours ahead of UTC as the eastern TP is approximately situated at  $90^\circ$  longitude (Fig. 1a).

### 238 **3. Results**

#### 239 *a. Surface response to intraseasonal precipitation variability*

##### 240 1) INTRASEASONAL PRECIPITATION VARIABILITY

241 We first quantify boreal summer intraseasonal precipitation variability across the TP and  
242 east Asia (Fig. 1). To compute the annual-mean power associated with intraseasonal Boreal  
243 summer rainfall variability, the daily precipitation anomaly is standardised using the non-zero  
244 mean precipitation rate. Intraseasonal rainfall variability, shown in Figure 1a, is the total power

245 associated with modes between 7 and 30 days when performing a discrete Fourier transform on  
246 the standardised daily precipitation anomaly. In agreement with previous studies (Wang and Duan  
247 2015), both standardised satellite and weather station data illustrate substantial intraseasonal  
248 precipitation variability across the TP (Fig. 1a, b). In comparison with intraseasonal precipitation  
249 variability across the rest of East Asia, the TP stands out along with the Indian monsoon core zone  
250 (approximately 16 to 22°N and 75 to 85°E; Mandke et al. 2007), associated with active and break  
251 spells of the Indian summer monsoon (Rajeevan et al. 2010; Singh et al. 2014), and the coast of  
252 Myanmar (approximately 20°N and 95°E), associated with orographically-driven precipitation  
253 (Shige et al. 2017). Greater daily precipitation accumulations over the ocean compared to land  
254 lead to a substantial land-sea contrast in intraseasonal precipitation variability. Note that the  
255 stronger power at intraseasonal timescales in CMA compared to APHRODITE (Fig. 1b) is due to  
256 APHRODITE being a gridded dataset whilst CMA is a set of localised weather stations (section  
257 2).

258 We now exploit the availability of a network of long-term in situ surface temperature measure-  
259 ments from CMA and satellite soil moisture observations to examine the land surface response  
260 to intraseasonal precipitation variability across the TP. An initial look at a typical summer season  
261 (JJA 2013) illustrates that intraseasonal soil moisture fluctuations across the TP are strongly  
262 controlled by precipitation variations. As well as this, substantial changes in the five-day  
263 running-mean 12 LST surface temperature anomalies are broadly out of phase with rainfall (Fig.  
264 1c). During periods of minimal rainfall, i.e. mid-June 2013, surface soil moisture decreases and  
265 skin temperature anomalies of approximately +10°C are observed at 12 LST. During wet periods,  
266 i.e. the majority of July 2013, surface soil moisture increases and negative skin temperatures  
267 anomalies of approximately -5°C are observed at 12 LST. Substantially smaller skin temperature  
268 anomalies are observed at other times of the day illustrating a diurnally-varying sensitivity of the

269 land surface to precipitation variability associated with the diurnal cycle of insolation. This time  
270 series suggests a strong sensitivity of daytime surface heating across the TP to dry events and  
271 qualitatively, similar features are found in every boreal summer of the CMA dataset (not shown).

272

## 273 2) STATION-SCALE LAND SURFACE RESPONSE TO DRY EVENTS

274 To better understand the surface response to precipitation variability across the TP, a dry event  
275 composite is computed at each CMA weather station. Daily precipitation accumulations are used  
276 to identify “dry events”. Similar to Gallego-Elvira et al. (2016), a dry event is defined when the  
277 initial precipitation rate is above  $5 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$  and succeeded by a least two days with less than 1  
278  $\text{mm day}^{-1}$ . In Gallego-Elvira et al. (2016), a maximum threshold of  $0.5 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$  is used to de-  
279 fine a dry day. However, when compositing CMA weather station data this threshold gave a small  
280 number of dry events. In CMA approximately 3800 two-day dry events are observed between  
281 2000 and 2015 with the number of dry events decreasing exponentially with dry event length (Fig.  
282 2). We also composite the nearest ESA CCI soil moisture observation to each weather station  
283 during a dry event. Note that there are approximately 62% fewer observations of soil moisture  
284 than temperature in this composite due to limited availability in the ESA CCI dataset.

285 Compositing dry events across all weather stations illustrates a strong sensitivity of soil mois-  
286 ture and daytime skin temperatures to prolonged periods of minimal rainfall (Fig. 2a). As the  
287 surface dries, peak daytime skin temperatures increase by approximately  $10^\circ\text{C}$  in five days. The  
288 same diurnal variability is observed in near-surface air temperatures but to a smaller amplitude  
289 (only approximately  $2^\circ\text{C}$  in five days). As the surface SHF depends on the temperature difference  
290 between the ground and near-surface, Fig. 2a indicates that increasing daytime near-surface air  
291 temperatures during a prolonged period of minimal rainfall is surface-driven.



292 As expected from the smaller sensitivity of near-surface air temperatures to minimal precipita-  
293 tion compared to surface temperatures (Fig. 2a), anomalous daytime surface SHF increases with  
294 dry event length (Fig. 2b). Increasing surface temperatures are also associated with increasing  
295  $LW_{up}$ . After five days of minimal rainfall, both SHF and  $LW_{up}$  have increased to approximately  
296  $50 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ . The initial high precipitation accumulation at the start of a dry event is associated  
297 with cloud cover and daytime surface radiation anomalies of approximately  $-70 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ . Surface  
298 radiation anomalies then increase to approximately  $70 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  by day 2 and remain relatively  
299 constant throughout the remainder of the dry event. As the inputted radiation anomaly remains  
300 relatively constant throughout the dry event composite, increased SHF and  $LW_{up}$  is associated  
301 with decreased LHF and G in order to maintain surface energy balance. This shows that the evap-  
302 orative fraction, the fraction of turbulent energy fluxes used for evaporation, decreases as the dry  
303 spell length increases following high values on days 0 and 1. Even over short dry spells of two  
304 to three days, reduced soil moisture drives a shift in the partitioning of fluxes from latent to sen-  
305 sible heat. This is consistent with satellite-based analysis across semi-arid regions of the world  
306 (Gallego-Elvira et al. 2016). We also considered whether our dry spell flux composite was repre-  
307 sentative of all sites, or just those in climatologically drier regions. Compositing data from only  
308 the 10 wettest stations (boreal summer seasonal mean rainfall  $\geq 2.27 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$ ), we still found  
309 a clear dry spell imprint on evaporative fraction (not shown), albeit of a slightly weaker amplitude  
310 than the full station composite, as expected.

### 311 3) REGIONAL SURFACE RESPONSE TO DRY EVENTS

312 Individual weather stations highlight a sensitivity of local surface characteristics and SEB  
313 components to a prolonged period of minimal rainfall. In this subsection we investigate diurnal  
314 variations in land surface characteristics on a regional scale. We expect these to differ quantita-

315 tively due to the spatial scaling properties of rainfall.

316 Regional dry events are identified when the station-mean daily precipitation accumulation is  
317 below the boreal summer station-mean twentieth percentile for three consecutive days, having  
318 first removed periods with zero rainfall before calculating percentiles. Using this threshold for  
319 rainfall and dry event length reveals a suitable number of dry events across the TP required to  
320 obtain a substantial surface response. Thirty-seven three-day regional dry events are identified  
321 in the CMA dataset. During days of minimal precipitation, the composite-mean, station-mean  
322 daytime CMA near-surface air temperature anomalies increase to approximately  $1.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Fig. 3a).  
323 As seen on a localised scale (Fig. 2), skin temperatures are more sensitive to minimal rainfall  
324 than near-surface air temperatures with a peak anomaly just below  $6^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Fig. 3a). Focusing on  
325 SEB components observed at 12 LST highlights that the difference between anomalous skin  
326 and near-surface air temperatures is associated with an increased surface SHF of approximately  
327  $45\text{ W m}^{-2}$  and a decreased LHF and G total by approximately  $50\text{ W m}^{-2}$  (Fig. 3b). During  
328 the dry event, anomalous daytime LHF decreases associated with surface drying; surface soil  
329 moisture observations from ESA CCI highlight a 10% reduction between the start and end  
330 of a three-day regional dry event (Fig. 3a). Surface soil moisture values from ERA5 and the  
331 Global Land Data Assimilation System (GLDAS) Noah Land Surface Model (Rodell et al.  
332 2004) also reveal a similar sensitivity of soil moisture to regional dry spells (not shown). The  
333 diurnally-varying sensitivity of near-surface air and skin temperatures (Fig. 3a) is associated with  
334 a diurnally-varying sensitivity of SEB components (not shown). In the following section the  
335 sensitivity of the regional circulation to surface warming and increased surface SHF, associated  
336 with minimal precipitation and surface drying, is investigated.

337 Weather station data from CMA highlights the sensitivity of SEB components to minimal  
338 precipitation. However, due to data only being available from 2000 to 2015 (section 2), only 37

339 regional dry events are observed. To increase the number of regional dry events a composite using  
340 precipitation accumulations since 1979 from APHRODITE is produced. Seventy-two regional dry  
341 events are observed in APHRODITE, just under double the number of events observed in CMA.  
342 At a local scale the sensitivity of daily-mean near-surface air temperatures to minimal rainfall  
343 is similar in APHRODITE and CMA (Fig. 4). After five days of minimal rainfall, near-surface  
344 daily-mean air temperature anomalies are approximately 1.3°C in both datasets. After seven  
345 days of minimal rainfall, daily-mean air temperature anomalies continue to increase in CMA but  
346 plateau in APHRODITE, associated with a smaller number of localised dry events lasting longer  
347 than seven days in APHRODITE. Because the CMA and APHRODITE datasets share a similar  
348 sensitivity of daily-mean near-surface air temperature anomalies to minimal precipitation, we  
349 assume that the sensitivity of surface temperatures and SEB components is similar in regional  
350 dry events extracted from both datasets. As APHRODITE contains nearly double the number of  
351 three-day regional dry events compared to CMA (Fig. 3), the rest of this study focuses on regional  
352 dry events identified in APHRODITE.

353

#### 354 *b. Influence of TP surface warming on regional atmospheric conditions*

355 In this section we consider how enhanced daytime surface heating on the TP during three-day  
356 regional dry events feeds back onto the atmosphere. However, we first examine the large-scale at-  
357 mospheric conditions at the start of a regional dry event. At 200 hPa the beginning of a three-day  
358 dry event is associated with anomalous north-easterly winds across the western TP, an anomalous  
359 cyclone across east TP, and an anomalous anticyclone northwest of TP (Fig. 5a). The anomalous  
360 upper-level circulation pattern observed at the start of regional dry events is associated with the  
361 Silk Road pattern (SRP) teleconnection (Lu et al. 2002; Enomoto et al. 2003; Hsu and Lin 2007).

362 Forced by diabatic heating across the Eurasian continent (Hsu and Lin 2007), the SRP develops  
363 during boreal summer and is associated with a propagating Rossby wave along the subtropical  
364 Eurasian jet (Lu et al. 2002; Enomoto et al. 2003). The propagation of the SRP onto the TP is  
365 best observed in the vertically-averaged upper-tropospheric meridional wind (Fig. 6a). Significant  
366 meridional wind and geopotential anomalies are observed over Europe five to eight days before  
367 a dry event across the TP. At 500 hPa, approximately just above the east TP surface, anomalous  
368 northerly winds dominate at the beginning of a dry event associated with an anomalous anticy-  
369 clone (Fig. 5b).

370 Temperature anomalies at 500 hPa across the TP during regional dry events increase by approx-  
371 imately 2.5°C (Fig. 6e). As surface warming peaks during daytime hours of regional dry events,  
372 we investigate sub-daily variations in atmospheric conditions to try to identify the surface influ-  
373 ence on local atmospheric conditions. Sub-daily temperature variations at 500 hPa highlight that  
374 low-level warming predominately occurs during daytime hours (red line in Fig. 7a). The depth  
375 of positive temperature tendencies increases as the day progresses associated with a deepening  
376 boundary-layer (Figs. 7a and 8). Sub-daily tendencies in anomalous temperatures across the TP  
377 during regional dry events are similar to those in heat low studies that use idealised experiments  
378 (Rácz and Smith 1999; Smith and Spengler 2011) and observations (Hoinka and Castro 2003;  
379 Parker et al. 2005; Howard and Washington 2018). Sub-daily variations in geopotential height  
380 and surface pressure also resemble heat low characteristics with reductions in surface pressure and  
381 low-level geopotential height occurring after sunset (Fig. 7b, c). As described in Rácz and Smith  
382 (1999), substantial surface warming drives boundary-layer turbulence during the daytime which  
383 restricts a horizontal wind response to the developed pressure gradient. Once insolation is removed  
384 and the surface cools, a stable surface layer develops. This leads to minimal boundary-layer turbu-  
385 lence, allowing the horizontal flow to strengthen. Low-level zonal convergence and vertical ascent

386 develop in the evening across the eastern TP, with the latter extending to 200 hPa (Fig. 8h). The  
387 low-level (500 hPa) flow becomes more geostrophic during the evening and generates positive  
388 low-level relative vorticity (Fig. 9d).

389 Above the heat low an anticyclone develops at approximately 200 hPa associated with negative  
390 temperature tendencies (Fig. 8). Upper-level anticyclone characteristics vary diurnally, with posi-  
391 tive geopotential tendencies reaching their maximum during the afternoon and evening (Fig. 8f, h)  
392 associated with sub-daily variations in mid-tropospheric warming between 250 and 400 hPa (Fig.  
393 8e, g). Diurnal variations in upper-level anticyclonic characteristics are inconsistent with mod-  
394 elling work performed by Rácz and Smith (1999) due to diurnal variations in mid-tropospheric  
395 heating. Different mechanisms are responsible for mid-tropospheric heating during the afternoon  
396 and evening. In the afternoon mid-tropospheric warming is associated with a deepening of the  
397 boundary-layer, whilst mid-tropospheric warming during the evening, is associated with increased  
398 mid-tropospheric shear turbulence due to difference in wind direction between the sub-tropical  
399 westerly jet and easterly component of low-level convergence. Not only does anomalous turbulent  
400 mixing increase mid-tropospheric temperatures, but it also increases mid-tropospheric zonal wind  
401 (Fig. 8g) due to the downward transport of zonal momentum from the sub-tropical westerly jet  
402 (Fig. 10a). Warming between 250 and 400 hPa alongside cooling at 150 hPa increases geopo-  
403 tential height at 200 hPa. As expected, upper-level relative vorticity tendencies are also strongest  
404 during the afternoon and evening (not shown).

405 Regional-scale three-day dry spells across the TP, initially driven by upper-tropospheric geopo-  
406 tential anomalies, lead to surface warming, the formation of a heat low, and positive upper-level  
407 geopotential tendencies. In the following section we investigate the influence of positive geopoten-  
408 tial upper-tropospheric tendencies, associated with the development of a heat low, on the remote  
409 circulation and weather conditions across east Asia.

410 *c. Influence of TP surface warming on remote atmospheric conditions*

411 Regional dry events across the TP favour the development of a heat low (section 3b). It is  
412 challenging to isolate the influence of anomalous atmospheric conditions across the TP on the  
413 remote atmospheric circulation using observations alone due to the influence of other factors,  
414 notably the large-scale circulation. However, Wan et al. (2017) performed modelling sensitivity  
415 experiments to investigate the influence of soil moisture across the TP on atmospheric conditions  
416 during an extreme rainfall event in southeast China. In this section we will compare remote  
417 atmospheric changes observed in our regional dry spell composite with the sensitivity of remote  
418 atmospheric conditions to TP soil moisture in Wan et al. (2017).

419 In Wan et al. (2017) extreme decreases in soil moisture across the TP increase surface SHF and  
420 lead to the development of a heat low. The heat low influences remote atmospheric conditions  
421 through two mechanisms: (1) the development of an upper-level planetary Rossby wave train; and  
422 (2) the eastward propagation of upper-level negative temperature anomalies. During our regional  
423 dry event composite negative upper-level geopotential tendencies are observed east of the TP  
424 alongside positive upper-level geopotential tendencies further east (Figs. 5c and 6b). The diurnal  
425 cycle of geopotential tendencies is approximately 20% greater east of the TP during the afternoon  
426 and evening (Fig. 8), the same time period where geopotential tendencies maximise due to the  
427 development of a heat low. Both of these factors are indicative of a Rossby wave forcing. In  
428 our composite the upper-level Rossby wave forcing associated with the heat low intensifies an  
429 upper-level cyclone east of TP across central China (Figs. 5c, 6b). The intensified upper-level  
430 cyclone also decreases geopotential height at 500 hPa, and by the end of the dry spell, significant  
431 negative geopotential anomalies are observed across central China at 200 and 500 hPa (Figs.  
432 5 and 6). The upper-level Rossby wave forcing observed in our regional dry event composite

433 agrees well with Wan et al. (2017). However, Wan et al. (2017) show an intensified cyclone at  
434 850 hPa over southeast China, meanwhile in our composite, geopotential height anomalies at  
435 850 hPa are minimal at the end of dry events (Fig. 10d). It may also be argued that the SRP is  
436 solely responsible for geopotential tendencies observed. However, as upper-level anomalies in  
437 meridional wind and geopotential height dramatically decrease after day 3 (Fig. 6a, b), we infer  
438 that the SRP is not solely responsible for upper-level geopotential anomalies downstream of the  
439 TP during dry spells.

440 Alongside an immediate atmospheric response to heat lows across the TP due to Rossby wave  
441 forcing, the remote atmosphere is also influenced several days after regional dry events. Negative  
442 upper-level temperature anomalies associated with heat lows (Figs. 7a and 10c) propagate along  
443 the sub-tropical jet (Fig. 10a) reaching southern China three days after minimal precipitation  
444 across the TP (Figs. 6d and 10e). This advected cool upper-level air increases geopotential  
445 height beneath it and favours a westward extension of the western north Pacific sub-tropical  
446 high (Fig. 10f). In Wan et al. (2017) the advection of cool air generates positive geopotential  
447 height anomalies across central China, whilst in our dry event composite low-level geopotential  
448 height anomalies are much smaller and located over central and southern China (Fig. 10f). Even  
449 increasing the length of regional dry events to promote further surface drying across the TP and  
450 leading to surface soil moisture anomalies more similar to Wan et al. (2017), has a minimal effect  
451 on remote geopotential height anomalies (not shown). Advection of negative vorticity from an  
452 anticyclone northwest of TP (Fig. 5b) along the sub-tropical jet (Fig. 10a) leads to a broad region  
453 of positive geopotential anomalies across northern China (Fig. 5e, f).

454 To conclude our analysis we examine the association of dry events across the TP with weather  
455 conditions across East Asia. Dry events across the TP are associated with a dipole in daily-mean  
456 temperature changes (Fig. 11b, d, f, h). Several days after dry events across the TP, daily-mean

457 temperatures increase by 1.2°C across central and eastern China and decrease by 0.5°C in  
458 southeast China and the Indochinese peninsula. Figure 11h highlights that surface-atmosphere  
459 interactions across the TP during dry spells significantly increases near-surface temperatures  
460 across heavily populated and agriculturally intensive regions of East Asia. In Wan et al. (2017)  
461 reducing soil moisture across the TP increases total and extreme precipitation in southeast China.  
462 In our study a dipole in mean precipitation changes is observed several days after surface drying  
463 across the TP (Fig. 11a, c, e, g). Across central and eastern China mean precipitation significantly  
464 decreases whilst precipitation increases in southeast China and the Indochinese peninsula.  
465 During days 3 and 4 the dipole in mean precipitation changes is associated with an intensified  
466 cyclone across central China (Fig. 5c, d), whilst by day 6, the westward extension of the west  
467 Pacific sub-tropical high (Fig. 10f) restricts northward moisture propagation and increases  
468 precipitation across southern China. Wan et al. (2017) highlight an increased probability of  
469 extreme precipitation in southeast China when drying the TP surface. However in our composite,  
470 the increased likelihood of extreme precipitation in southeast China is insignificant (not shown).  
471 There are several reasons for the different responses in extreme precipitation. Firstly, Wan et al.  
472 (2017) only investigate the influence of soil moisture across the TP during a single extreme  
473 precipitation event where atmospheric conditions may not be typical for when the TP surface  
474 is dry. Secondly, soil conditions in our dry event composite are substantially less extreme than  
475 in sensitivity experiments by (Wan et al. 2017). As a result, surface sensible heat fluxes across  
476 the TP are much greater in Wan et al. (2017) compared to those in our dry event composite  
477 (Fig. 3b) by approximately 70 W m<sup>2</sup>. Finally, the influence of tropical cyclones on extreme  
478 precipitation rates across East Asia have not been considered in this study. Hence, the influence  
479 of land-atmosphere interactions across the TP on extreme precipitation rates is challenging to  
480 detect due to the influence of tropical cyclones. Whilst the influence of dry events across the TP



481 on extreme precipitation rates requires further investigation, significant mean precipitation and  
482 temperature changes highlight the importance of land-atmosphere interactions.

483

#### 484 **4. Discussion**

485 The warming rate of surface temperatures relative to near-surface air temperatures can be used  
486 to highlight the land surface response to dry spells (Gallego-Elvira et al. 2016). Combining in situ  
487 weather station measurements with satellite-derived datasets, we have highlighted the sensitivity  
488 of land surface characteristics across the TP to even short dry spells of two to three days. In  
489 situ measurement shown here reveal an average relative warming rate of approximately 0.38 K  
490 day<sup>-1</sup> across the eastern TP for dry spells of approximately five days. During periods of minimal  
491 rainfall across the TP, surface LHF is limited, due to soil moisture availability, and surface SHF  
492 increases. In general, changes in evaporative fraction during dry spells are difficult to capture in  
493 climate models (Gallego-Elvira et al. 2019). Given the feedback on the atmosphere by the flux  
494 response to surface drying across the TP shown here and previous studies (Wan et al. 2017; Xue  
495 et al. 2018), analysis of model depictions of TP dry spells is warranted.

496 Through investigating the sensitivity of local atmospheric conditions to regional dry events  
497 across the TP we diagnose the formation of heat lows. In agreement with idealised modelling  
498 studies (Rácz and Smith 1999; Spengler et al. 2005; Smith and Spengler 2011) and observations  
499 of heat lows in other sub-tropical regions (Parker et al. 2005; Bollaşina and Nigam 2011; Howard  
500 and Washington 2018), land-atmosphere interactions play a crucial role in the diurnal cycle of heat  
501 low characteristics. Whilst daytime surface heating reaches its maximum during the afternoon,  
502 boundary-layer turbulence inhibits a low-level horizontal wind response. Once insolation is  
503 removed and a stable surface layer develops, low-level horizontal convergence and relative

504 vorticity maximises. This is the first study to show how dry spells across the TP influence the  
505 diurnal cycle of heat lows. Even though idealised modelling studies conclude a minimal diurnal  
506 cycle of upper-level anticyclonic characteristics (RÁCZ and Smith 1999; Smith and Spengler  
507 2011), we find that mid-tropospheric heating during the afternoon and evening, associated with  
508 increases in boundary-layer depth and mid-tropospheric turbulent mixing, result in sub-daily  
509 variations in anticyclonic characteristics.

510 The influence of land-atmosphere interactions on other circulation systems across the TP re-  
511 mains to be investigated. For example, Tibetan Plateau vortices (TPVs) are mesoscale circulations  
512 distinguished by substantial low-level relative vorticity and responsible for a substantial fraction  
513 of precipitation across the TP (Curio et al. 2019). In this study surface drying increases low-level  
514 relative vorticity thereby motivating future work to investigate the influence of land-atmosphere  
515 interactions in the development and intensity of TPVs. Recent studies have also shown that  
516 soil moisture gradients across the TP favour the initiation of convective systems (Barton et al.  
517 submitted).

518 Soil moisture-atmosphere interactions during dry events across the TP also influence atmo-  
519 spheric and weather conditions across east Asia. Previous observational and modelling studies  
520 have shown how large-scale surface temperature anomalies across the TP promote an atmospheric  
521 stationary wave that extends eastward from the original surface temperature anomaly (Wan et al.  
522 2017; Xue et al. 2018). Our results are consistent with these findings. Future work should  
523 investigate whether these soil moisture-atmosphere feedbacks are observed in weather forecasting  
524 models to improve sub-seasonal forecasting capabilities across East Asia.

525 The sensitivity of remote atmospheric conditions to surface drying across the TP is substantially  
526 different in our dry event composite compared to sensitivity experiments performed by Wan et al.  
527 (2017). The difference in atmospheric response is most likely associated with the magnitude

528 of soil moisture forcing in these two studies. In Wan et al. (2017) soil moisture is reduced to  
529 the surface layer's wilting point, effectively fixing evapotranspiration to zero. In our dry event  
530 composite soil moisture fluctuations are much smaller and the change in latent heat flux is  
531 approximately  $70 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  smaller compared to latent heat flux changes when drying the TP in  
532 Wan et al. (2017). We therefore conclude that it is unrealistic to fix evapotranspiration to zero  
533 across the TP and the difference in soil moisture fluctuations leads to a much greater surface and  
534 atmospheric response in Wan et al. (2017). For example, the difference in surface SHF between  
535 a normal and dry TP surface is approximately three times greater in Wan et al. (2017) compared  
536 to anomalies observed in our dry event composite. Stronger surface SHF anomalies in Wan et al.  
537 (2017) promote an intensified localised heat low, colder upper-level temperature anomalies, and  
538 increased low-level geopotential height tendencies across east Asia. The westward extension  
539 of the western North Pacific sub-tropical high is further north in Wan et al. (2017) compared  
540 to changes observed in our dry event composite. This may be due to Wan et al. (2017) only  
541 performing sensitivity experiments for a single persistent heavy precipitation event in south-east  
542 China. The different atmospheric mean states and fluctuations in land surface characteristics  
543 between this study and sensitivity experiments analysed in Wan et al. (2017), vary the influence  
544 of land-atmosphere interactions across the TP on extreme precipitation events across east Asia.  
545 Surface conditions across East Asia may influence the atmospheric response to dry spells across  
546 the TP. For example, it may be the case that near-surface warming across north China several days  
547 after a TP dry spell would be larger during a local drought. However, the small number of dry  
548 spells in our sample precludes further subsetting. We would recommend a modelling approach to  
549 understand this dependence. Work in this study and by Wan et al. (2017) highlight the importance  
550 of land-atmosphere interactions across the TP in determining weather conditions across east Asia.  
551 Improving the simulation of land-atmosphere interactions across the TP at all time scales may

552 lead to improvements in climate models over a much larger region. Warming across the TP  
553 provides a heat source in the mid-latitudes that intensifies the Indian monsoon (Kutzbach et al.  
554 1993; Molnar et al. 1993; Zhisheng et al. 2001). Improving the sensitivity of surface temperatures  
555 to intraseasonal precipitation variability across the TP may intensify the Indian monsoon and  
556 partly improve the long-standing boreal summer dry bias across the Indian continent (Sperber  
557 et al. 2013; Bush et al. 2015). The influence of intraseasonal fluctuations in land surface char-  
558 acteristics across the TP should also be considered when predicting the atmospheric response to  
559 anthropogenic climate change across east Asia. Not only has anthropogenic climate change been  
560 associated with surface warming across the TP (Wang et al. 2008), but also substantial glacial  
561 loss (Yao et al. 2007, 2012), which may increase the area of semi-arid land and intraseasonal  
562 variability of surface fluxes. An increased influence of the TP land surface on local and remote  
563 atmospheric conditions may change weather conditions across east Asia.

564

## 565 **5. Conclusions**

566 Using a combination of weather station data and satellite observations we show that soil  
567 moisture and surface fluxes across the TP are sensitive to intraseasonal precipitation variability.  
568 Decreases in soil moisture during dry spells of even two to three days drive increases in surface  
569 temperatures and sensible heat fluxes. Atmospheric reanalysis shows how the anomalous surface  
570 warming feeds back onto the atmosphere and promotes the development of a heat low across the  
571 TP. Consistent with studies from other parts of the world, we illustrate strong diurnal variations in  
572 heat low characteristics. During daytime hours anomalous surface warming increases boundary-  
573 layer temperatures. However, boundary-layer turbulence restricts a low-level wind response until  
574 the surface cools and a stable layer develops. As a result, low-level horizontal convergence and

575 relative vorticity reach their maximum after sunset along with a reduction in surface pressure.  
576 Above the boundary-layer, heat lows promote an anticyclone associated with negative temperature  
577 anomalies. The local atmospheric response to surface warming due to precipitation variability  
578 across the TP highlights the importance of land-atmosphere interactions.

579 The development of heat lows across the TP also influences remote atmospheric conditions. The  
580 development of an upper-level anticyclone during dry spells promotes an upper-level stationary  
581 wave that intensifies a cyclonic circulation across central China. Negative temperature anomalies,  
582 associated with the upper-level anticyclone, propagate along the sub-tropical Eurasian jet towards  
583 south-east China, associated with a westward extension of the western North Pacific subtropical  
584 high. Both the intensification of a cyclonic circulation across central China and the westward  
585 extension of the western North Pacific subtropical high significantly impact weather conditions  
586 in east Asia. Understanding of land-atmosphere interactions across the TP is thus important  
587 for short-term weather forecasting across East Asia. Given the rapidly changing nature of the  
588 hydrological cycle on the TP in response to anthropogenic warming, it may also be relevant for  
589 climate projections across the region. Future work should therefore investigate the simulation of  
590 these soil moisture-atmosphere interactions in both weather and climate models.

591

592 *Acknowledgments.* This work and its contributors (JT, CT, AD, AT) were supported by the  
593 UK-China Research & Innovation Partnership Fund through the Met Office Climate Science for  
594 Service Partnership (CSSP) China as part of the Newton Fund.

595 The authors would like to express their gratitude to those at the Chinese Meteorological  
596 Administration for providing weather station data. APHRODITE precipitation and temperature  
597 data was accessed at <http://www.chikyu.ac.jp/>. TRMM 3B42V7 and CERES satellite products

598 were obtained from the NASA/Goddard Earth Sciences Data and Information Services Center  
599 (GES-DISC). ESA CCI soil moisture satellite data and ERA5 reanalysis data was accessed at  
600 <https://www.esa-soilmoisture-cci.org/> and <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp/home> respec-  
601 tively. We also thank three anonymous reviewers for their comments.

602

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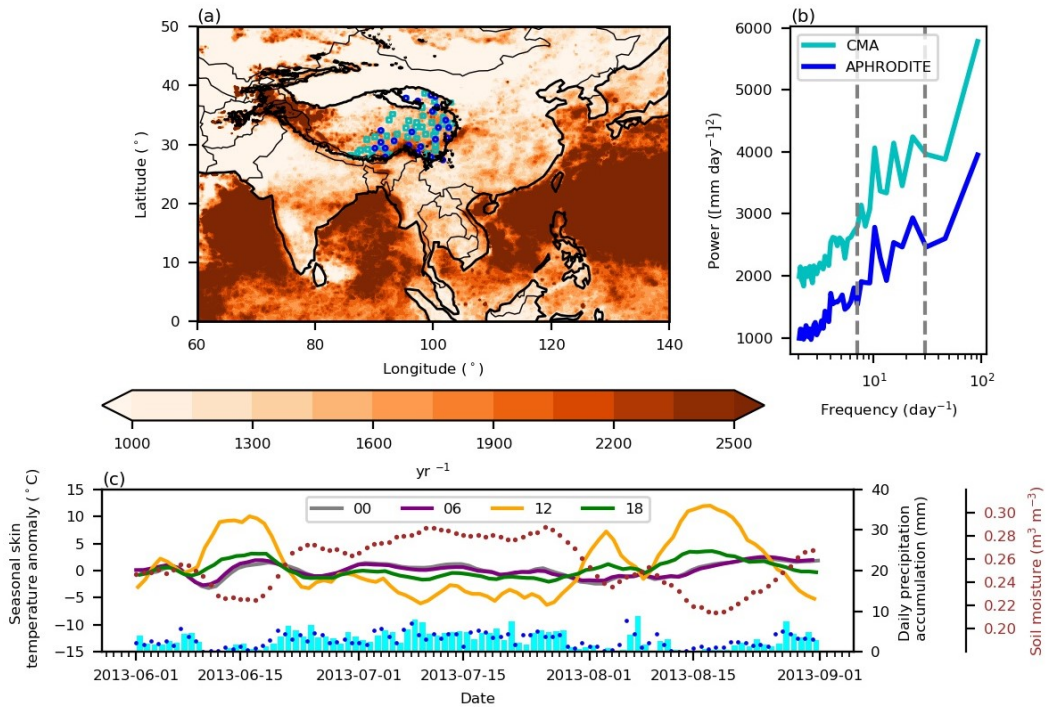
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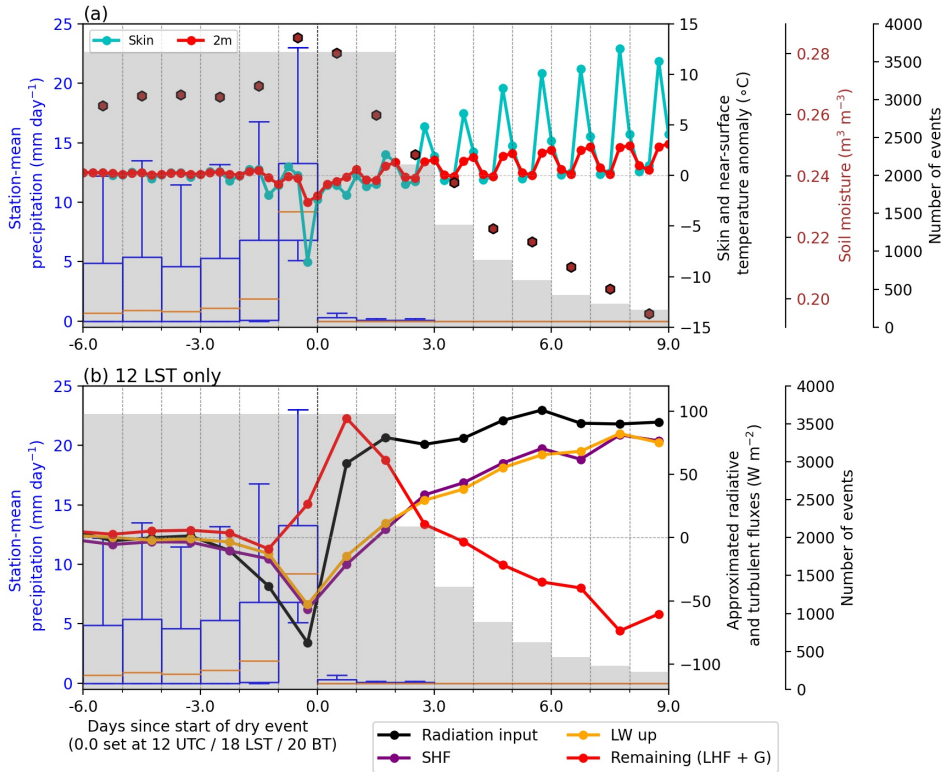


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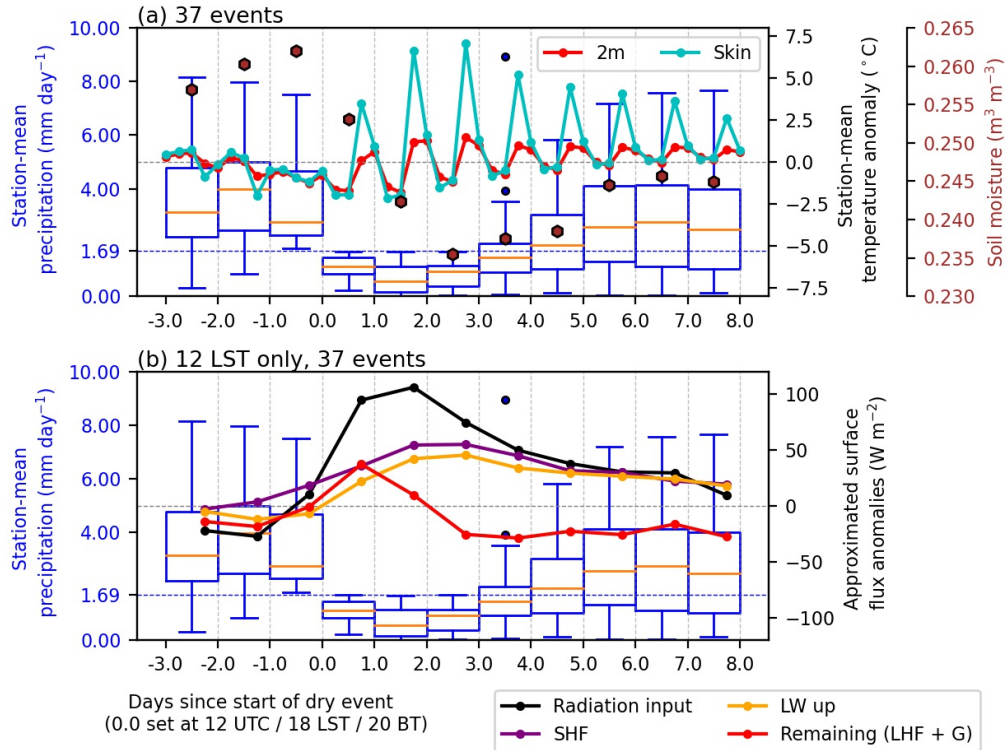
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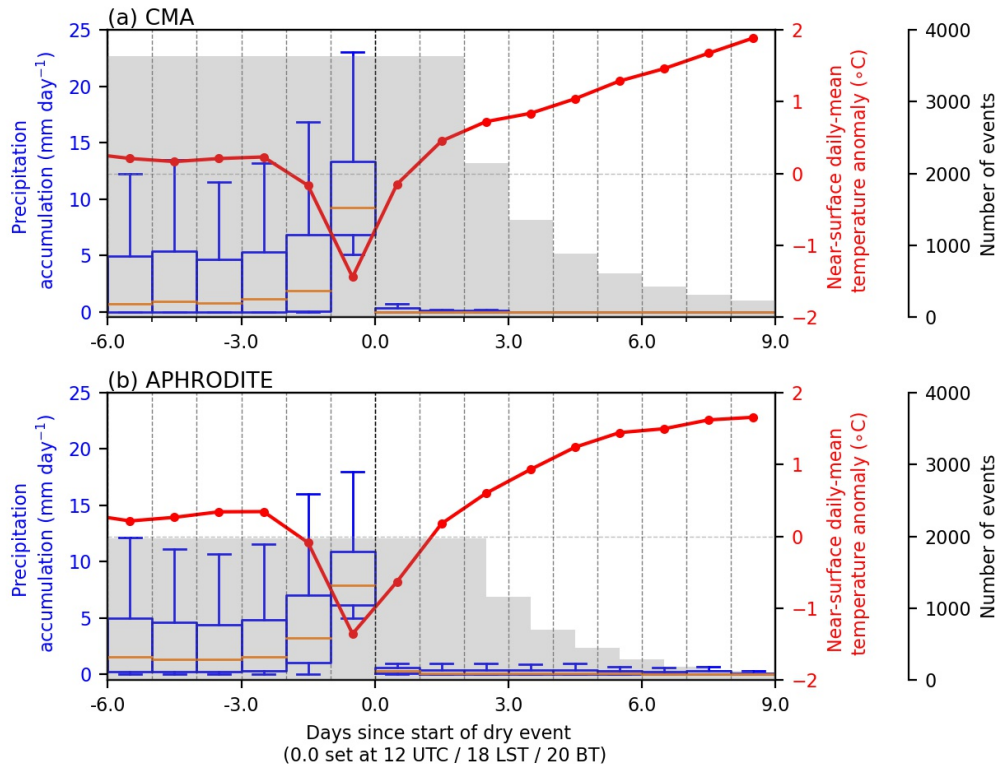
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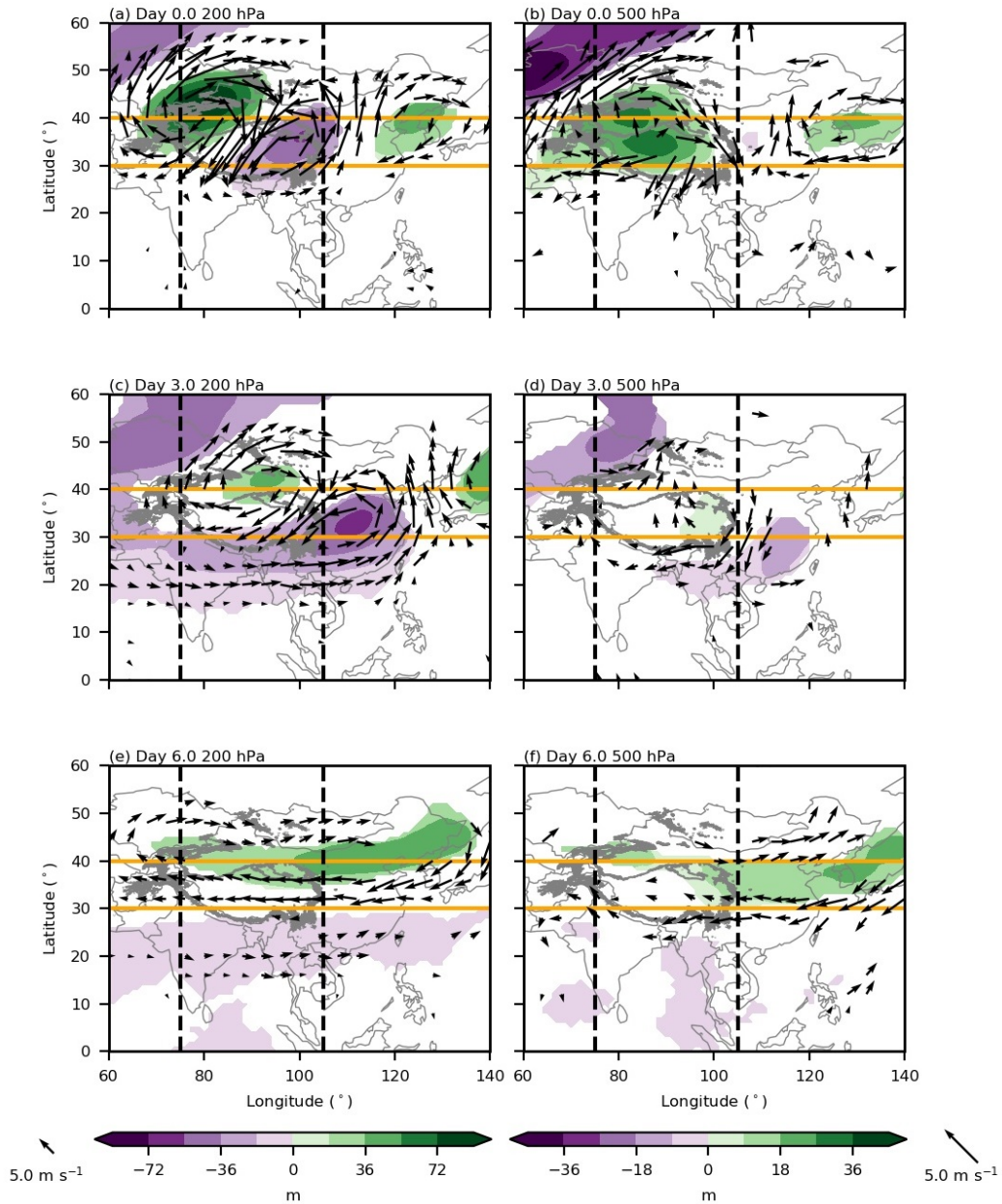
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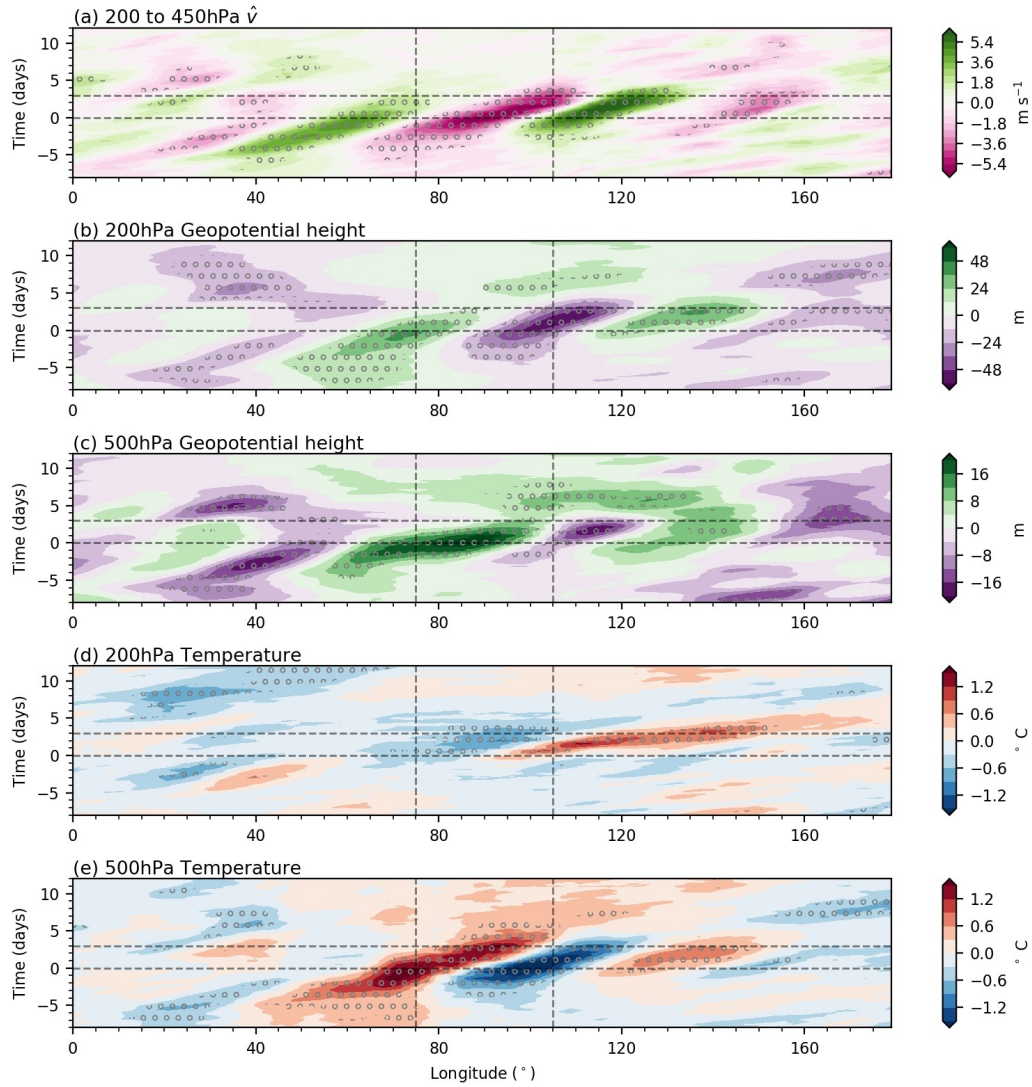
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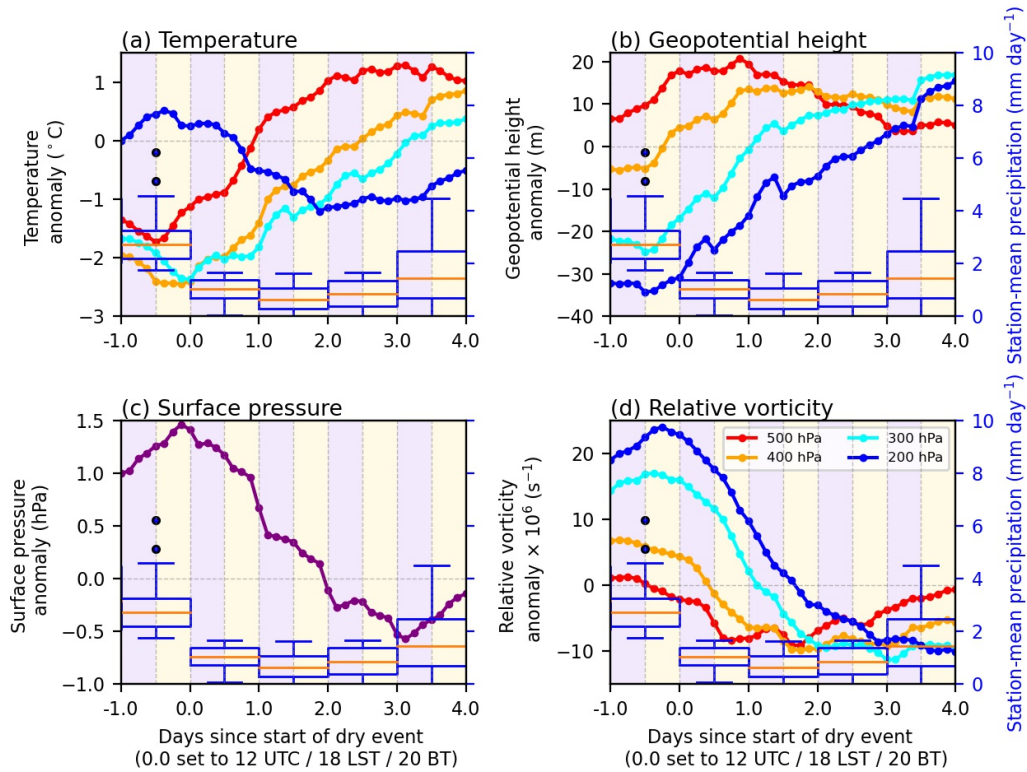


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 933 meridional direction.

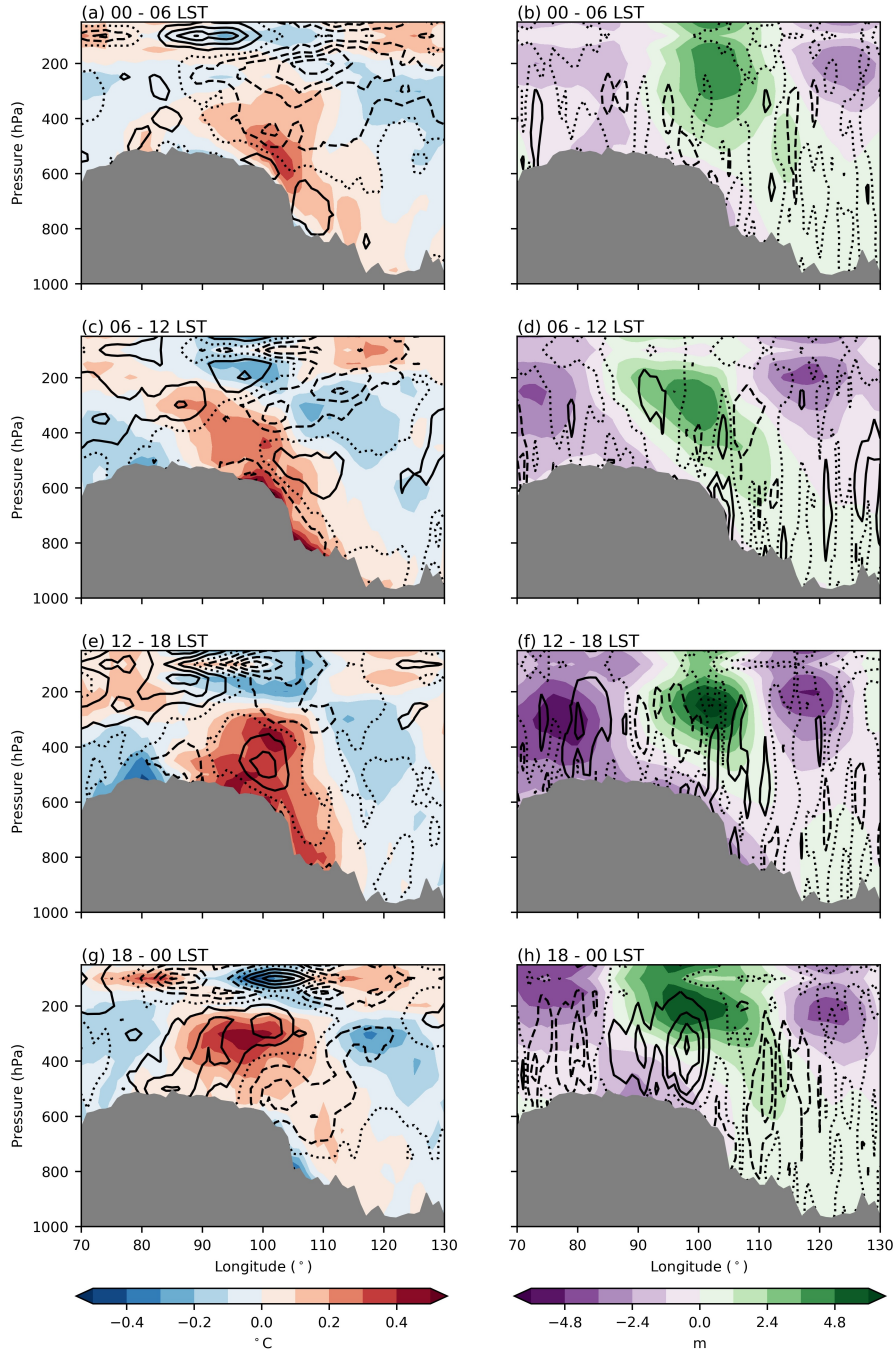


934 FIG. 6. Hovmöllers of ERA5 composite-mean, meridional-mean (30 to 40° latitude) anomalies in (a)  
 935 vertically-averaged meridional wind ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) between 200 and 450 hPa, (b, c) geopotential height (m) at (b)  
 936 200 and (c) 500 hPa, and (d, e) temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) at (d) 200 and (e) 500 hPa in the three-day regional dry-event  
 937 composite. Vertical black dashed lines at 75 and 105° longitude highlight TP's western and eastern boundaries  
 938 whilst horizontal dashed lines denote days 0.0 and 3.0 of the regional dry event composite. Stippling denotes  
 939 anomalies significant at the 95% confidence level.

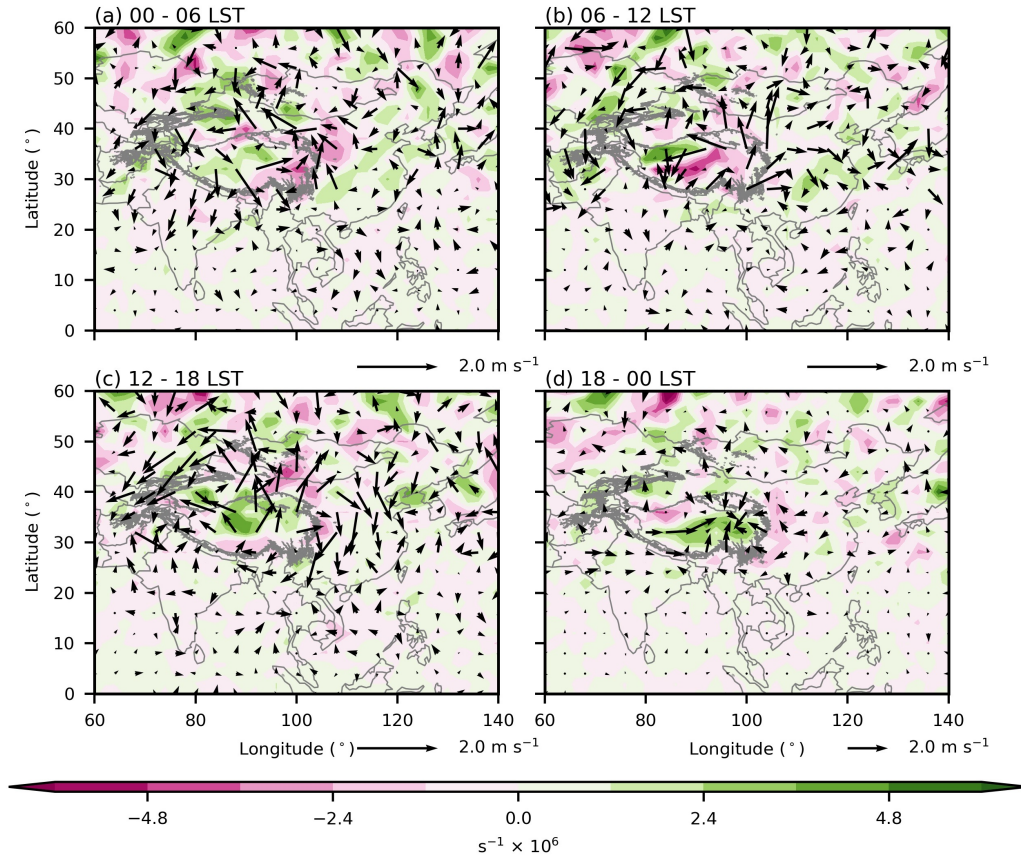




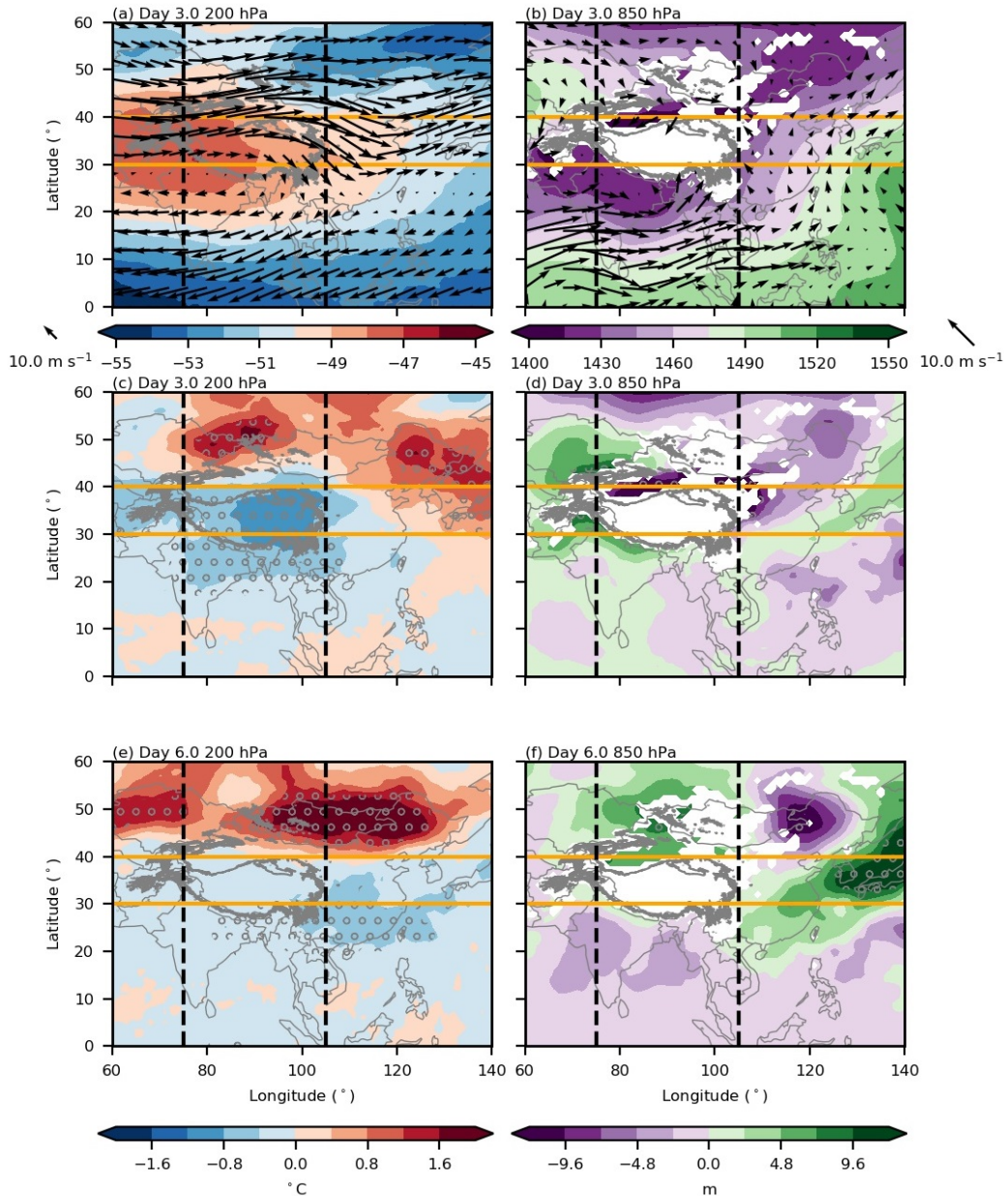
940 FIG. 7. Composite-mean, regional-mean ( $30$  to  $40^\circ$  latitude,  $90$  to  $100^\circ$  longitude) anomalous (a) temperature  
 941 ( $^\circ\text{C}$ ), (b) geopotential height (m), (c) surface pressure (hPa), and (d) relative vorticity ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ) during the three-day  
 942 regional dry event composite. For a, b, and d, anomalous values are shown at 500 (red), 400 (orange), 300 (cyan),  
 943 and 200 (blue) hPa. Box-and-whisker plots in all panels show station-mean daily precipitation accumulations  
 944 ( $\text{mm day}^{-1}$ ). Upper and lower quartiles are denoted by the top and bottom of boxes; box whiskers denote  
 945 the 10th and 90th percentiles; and the mean is denoted by an orange line. Background colours in each panel  
 946 highlight daytime (yellow, 06 to 18 LST) and nighttime (purple, 18 to 06 LST) hours.



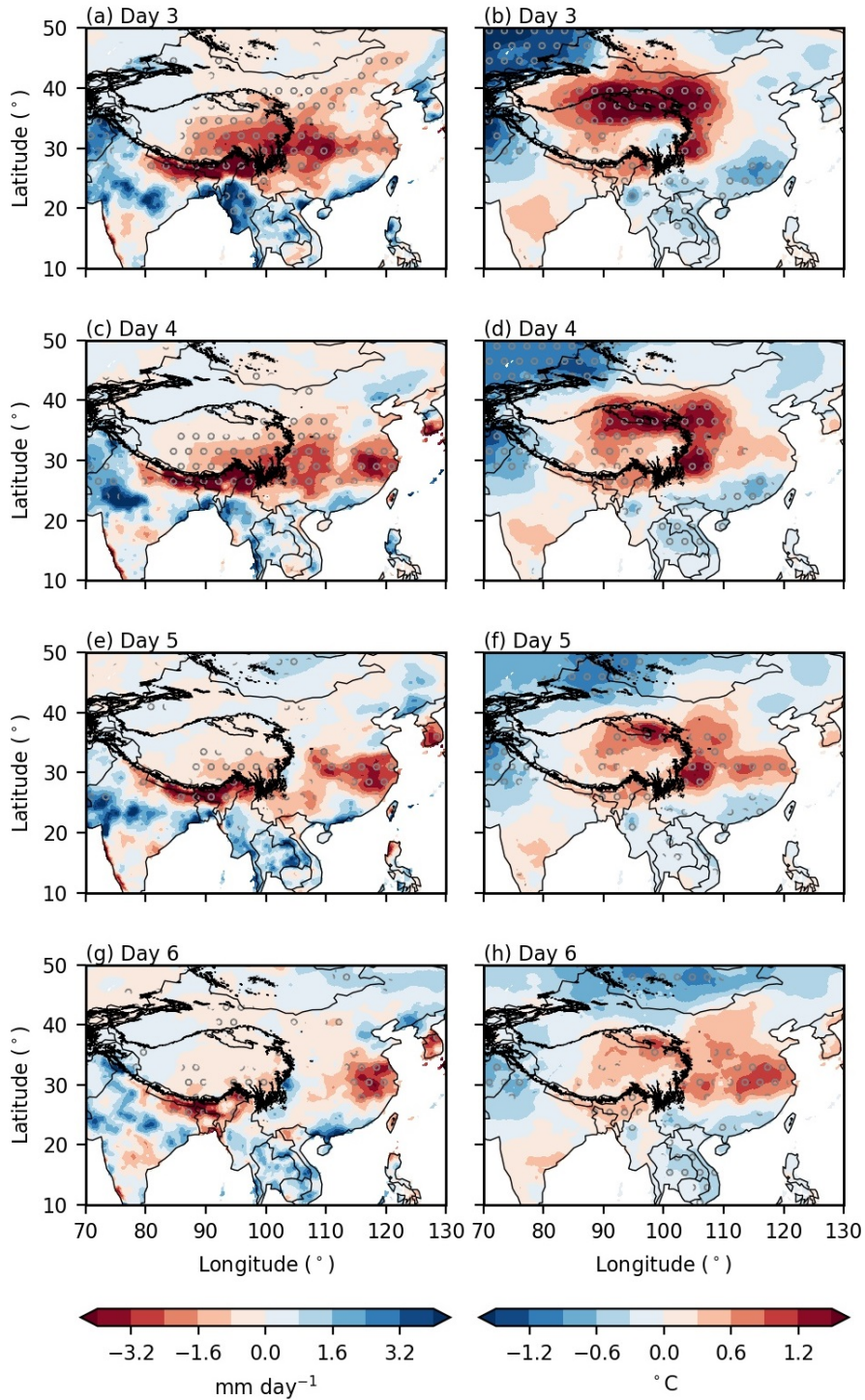
947 FIG. 8. Changes in composite-mean, daily-mean, meridional-mean (30 to 40° latitude) (a, c, e, g) temperature  
 948 (filled, °C), zonal wind (lined,  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ), (b, d, f, h) geopotential height (filled, m), and vertical wind (lined,  $\text{hPa s}^{-1}$ )  
 949 between (a, b) 00 to 06, (c, d) 06 to 12, (e, f) 12 to 18, and (g, h) 18 to 00 LST during the three days of minimal  
 950 regional precipitation in the three-day regional dry-event composite. Zonal and vertical wind changes are in  
 951 intervals of  $0.3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  and  $1.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ hPa s}^{-1}$  respectively with solid/dashed lines denoting positive/negative  
 952 values. The dotted contour denotes the zeroth value. Grey shading in each panel denotes the minimum surface  
 953 pressure observed at each longitude in the regional three-day dry event composite.



954 FIG. 9. Composite-mean, daily-mean changes in relative vorticity (filled,  $s^{-1}$ ) and horizontal wind (arrows,  
 955  $m s^{-1}$ ) at 500 hPa between (a) 00 to 06, (b) 06 to 12, (c) 12 to 18, and (d) 18 to 00 LST during three days of  
 956 minimal TP precipitation in the dry event composite. Horizontal wind is regridded to  $2^\circ$  latitude and longitude  
 957 for relative vorticity tendencies. The TP is denoted by a 3000m grey contour in each panel. A horizontal wind  
 958 scale is shown to the bottom right of each panel.



959 FIG. 10. (a, b) Mean state (a) temperature (filled,  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) at 200 hPa and (b) geopotential height (filled, m) at 850  
 960 hPa during day 3.0 of the regional dry event composite. Arrows denote mean state horizontal winds at (a) 200  
 961 and (b) 850 hPa. (c-f) Composite-mean anomalies relative to the monthly-mean in (c, e) temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ , filled  
 962 contours) at 200 hPa and (d, f) geopotential height (m, filled) at 850 hPa during days (c, d) 3.0, and (e, f) 6.0 of  
 963 the regional dry event composite. The TP is denoted by a grey 3000m contour in each panel. Vertical dashed  
 964 black lines at  $75^{\circ}$  and  $105^{\circ}$  longitude highlight TP's western and eastern boundaries. Orange horizontal lines at  
 965  $30^{\circ}$  and  $40^{\circ}$  latitude denotes the meridional range averaged for Hovmöllers (Fig. 6) and vertical composites (Fig.  
 966 8). Grey stippling denotes significance at the 95% confidence level. Regions filled in white in panels b, d, and f  
 967 denotes locations where the surface is above 850 hPa. 50



968 FIG. 11. Changes in average (a, c, e, g) daily-accumulated precipitation (mm day<sup>-1</sup>) and (b, d, f, h) daily-  
 969 mean temperature (°C) in days (a, b) 3.0, (c, d) 4.0, (e, f) 5.0, and (g, h) 6.0 of the regional three-day dry event  
 970 composite compared to the boreal summer average. Stippling denotes a significant change in mean precipitation  
 971 and temperature at a 95% confidence level. TP is denoted by a 3000m contour in each panel.