

Contrasting the role of regional and remote circulation in driving Asian monsoon biases in MetUM GA7.1

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1 **Contrasting the role of regional and remote circulation in driving Asian monsoon**
2 **biases in MetUM GA7.1**
3

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16 **Key Points:**

- 17 • Nudging can substantially reduce precipitation biases.
- 18 • Seasonal precipitation biases over India and eastern China are mostly driven by local
19 circulation except over eastern China in summer.
- 20 • Nudging improves the simulated El Niño teleconnections to India and China and
21 monsoon onset date in particular over India.
- 22

23 **Key words:** monsoon biases, nudging, regional circulation, remote circulation

24 **Abstract**

25 Monsoon precipitation affects nearly half of the world's population, but monsoon
26 biases are a long-standing problem in climate simulations. We apply dynamical nudging
27 either globally or regionally to demonstrate the role of regional and remote circulation in
28 generating Asian monsoon biases in an atmospheric general circulation model. Monsoon
29 precipitation biases are substantially reduced in response to global nudging but may also be
30 exacerbated over the warm oceanic equatorial areas because of unconstrained sub-grid
31 convection. Regional nudging over Asia appears to be more efficient than nudging outside
32 Asia in reducing seasonal precipitation biases over eastern China and India. This suggests a
33 predominant role of local circulation anomalies in generating monsoon precipitation errors in
34 these regions. An exception is the summer precipitation bias over eastern China, which is
35 more strongly controlled by remote circulation. Besides seasonal mean rainfall, nudging can
36 also improve the simulated interannual and intraseasonal precipitation variability over the
37 subtropics. This results in a better skill in reproducing the observed El Niño teleconnections
38 to India and China and the monsoon onset date. Improved understanding of the origin of
39 Asian monsoon biases and the contribution from regional and remote circulation advances
40 our knowledge of the interplay between the Asian monsoon and large-scale circulation,
41 which can be beneficial to the simulation and interpretation of monsoon projections.

42 **1 Introduction**

43 The Asian monsoon is a key component of the global atmospheric circulation. During
44 the summer, the monsoon southerlies provide around two thirds of the annual precipitation to
45 about half of the world's population, while during the winter northerly winds can lead to cold
46 surges and severe weather (e.g., Li & Yang, 2010; Wang 2006). Given the complexity and
47 spatial extent of the monsoon, its simulation has proven to be a challenging task for climate
48 models, as well as a key testbed to evaluate their processes (Sperber et al., 2013).

49 Numerous studies have documented the model monsoon biases, as well as their
50 spatio-temporal evolution with the annual cycle (e.g., Kang and Shukla, 2006; Zhou et al.,
51 2009). Many of these shortcomings have been persisting for decades (Ramesh and Goswami,
52 2014; Song and Zhou, 2014a). These include the excessive summer rainfall over the
53 northwestern Pacific associated with an anomalously weak Western Pacific Subtropical High
54 (WPSH), and a dipole precipitation anomaly over the Indian monsoon region with a rainfall
55 deficit over the subcontinent and excess precipitation over the tropical Indian Ocean (e.g.,
56 Rodríguez et al., 2017; Sperber et al., 2013). The pervasiveness of these biases across both
57 coupled and uncoupled models (Bollasina and Nigam, 2009; Song and Zhou, 2014b) suggests
58 the underlying causes could be rooted in their atmospheric component. However, there is
59 some evidence that coupled models can better reproduce monsoon precipitation than
60 atmosphere-only models (Kumar et al., 2005; Zou, 2020) from two main reasons: the damped
61 atmospheric interval variability due to negative feedback from the ocean (Zhou et al., 2018)
62 and the compensating effects between atmospheric and sea surface temperature (SST) biases
63 (Prodhomme et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2019).

64 Model biases hinder reliable attribution of past monsoon variations to anthropogenic
65 forcing (e.g., Wilcox et al., 2015), which in turn hampers our confidence in future
66 projections. One of the limiting factors is the interaction between external forcing and

67 internal variability, especially at interannual to decadal time scales (e.g. Deser et al. 2012).
68 Large uncertainties stem from the atmospheric dynamical response (Shepherd, 2014), which
69 is particularly crucial for the Asian monsoon as the large-scale circulation exerts a strong
70 control on Asian climate (Chen et al., 2000). However, large discrepancies exist in the model
71 representation of key circulation characteristics, such as the WPSH (Liu et al., 2014), the East
72 Asian trough (Wei et al., 2014), and the cross-equatorial flow over the western Indian Ocean
73 (Bollasina and Nigam, 2009). Even within the climatological seasonal cycle, our
74 understanding of the interplay between the Asian monsoon and the large-scale tropical and
75 extratropical circulation, and how this influences model biases is far from complete (e.g.
76 Zhou et al. 2016). Addressing these knowledge gaps is critical to reduce uncertainties in
77 future projections of regional water availability over Asia.

78 One approach to reduce the effect of circulation biases is nudging (also known as
79 Newtonian relaxation). By constraining the model large-scale circulation toward reanalysis,
80 nudging can be used to estimate errors in local sub-grid processes (e.g., convection and
81 topography; Telford et al., 2008; Eden et al., 2012). Nudging can also aid the detection of
82 forced signals by constraining natural variability (e.g., Johnson et al., 2019; Kooperman et al.,
83 2012; Lin et al., 2016; Regayre et al., 2014). However, biases may not necessarily decrease
84 with nudging (e.g., Kooperman et al., 2012) as the forcing by the additional relaxation terms
85 may potentially drive the model away from its balanced state (Wehrli et al., 2018).

86 Only few recent studies have investigated the effect of nudging on the simulation of
87 the Asian monsoon, showing that South Asian and Maritime Continent (MC) precipitation
88 biases are closely linked to circulation biases over East Asia and the western Pacific
89 (Rodríguez et al., 2017; Rodríguez and Milton, 2019). Yet, the extent to which nudging over
90 different regions contributes to improving the monsoon simulation, and the underlying
91 mechanisms showing potential for reducing monsoon biases, have not been investigated in a
92 consistent way.

93 **2 Data and Methods**

94 We use version 7.1 of the atmospheric component of the Met Office Unified Model
95 (MetUM GA7.1), which includes significant improvements to the convection and aerosol
96 schemes compared to GA6 (Mulcahy et al., 2018; Williams et al., 2018). The model is run at
97 N96 horizontal resolution ($1.25^\circ \times 1.875^\circ$ in latitude and longitude, respectively), with 85
98 vertical levels up to 85 km (Walters et al., 2019). Daily observed SST and sea ice
99 concentration are taken from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts
100 (ECMWF) Interim reanalysis (ERA-I; Dee et al., 2011). Monthly emissions of anthropogenic
101 aerosols and their precursors are prescribed following CMIP6 (Hoesly et al., 2018).

102 We performed a set of five experiments (see Table 1) for the period December 1991 –
103 December 2012, driven by the same external forcing and surface boundary conditions. The
104 control experiment (CONT), in which the atmospheric model is evolving freely (AMIP-like),
105 is complemented by four simulations with horizontal winds relaxed toward ERA-I with a 6-
106 hourly time scale. In three of these simulations, nudging is applied only above the planetary
107 boundary layer (model level 12, or approximately 850 hPa), which constrains the large-scale
108 circulation and allows low-level winds to adapt to local surface conditions (Telford et al.,
109 2008). In particular, winds are nudged either globally (GLOB) or only over part of the

110 domain, i.e. over or outside Asia (ASIA and ELSE, respectively; Asia is the region 10°–45°N,
111 60°–125°E marked by the purple box in Fig. 1a). The comparison of ASIA and ELSE to
112 GLOB is used to isolate the role of local and remote circulation biases on the simulated
113 monsoon. A fifth experiment with winds nudged globally throughout the whole atmospheric
114 column (GLOB_A) was performed to explore the effect of constraining the circulation in the
115 boundary layer.

116 Three ensemble members, initialised from different atmospheric conditions, were run
117 for CONT and ELSE to test whether internal variability may influence the results. A
118 comparison between the different ensemble members shows marginal differences in
119 precipitation and winds (Fig. S1), indicating that one member is sufficient to isolate the
120 monsoon biases out of internal variability. Note that temperature is not nudged to prevent the
121 appearance of spurious diabatic heating and precipitation anomalies (e.g. Zhang et al. 2014);
122 the effect of additional temperature nudging is briefly discussed in Section 4.

123 The seasonal mean in both winter (December – February) and summer (June – August)
124 and sub-seasonal features at monthly and pentad scales are analyzed for the last 20 simulated
125 years (the first year is discarded as spin-up). The model precipitation is evaluated against the
126 average of the Global Precipitation Climatology Project (GPCP) version 2 (Adler et al., 2003)
127 and the Climate Prediction Center Merged Analysis of Precipitation (CMAP; Xie & Arkin,
128 1997) datasets, while ERA-I is used to assess the simulated three-dimensional circulation. We
129 use the non-parametric Kolmogorov-Smirnov test to evaluate the significance of the
130 differences between the nudged simulations and observations. The significance of the
131 regression coefficients is estimated by the Student's *t* test.

132 The simulated interannual variability (IAV) of precipitation is calculated as the
133 standard deviation of the 20-year long time series of summer mean precipitation at each grid
134 point, while intraseasonal variability (ISV) is computed as the standard deviation of the 20–
135 90-day Butterworth bandpass filtered pentad time series (Russell, 2006), after removing the
136 annual cycle (the time mean and the first three harmonics). We also examined the effect of
137 nudging on the El Niño-monsoon teleconnections and monsoon onset, which are well linked
138 to IAV and ISV, respectively. The relationship between El Niño and the summer monsoon is
139 diagnosed by the simultaneous regressions of precipitation and 925-hPa winds onto the
140 Niño3.4 index using seasonal mean values (Wang et al., 2000). Following Wang and Ho
141 (2002), the onset date is defined as the first pentad of the rainy season whose mean
142 precipitation exceeds 5 mm/day above the corresponding January mean precipitation rate
143 over the monsoon domain.

144 **3 Results**

145 **3.1 Monsoon biases in the control experiment**

146 Fig. 1 shows the precipitation and low-level circulation biases in CONT, as well as
147 their link via vertically-integrated (surface to 300 hPa) stationary moisture fluxes and 200-
148 hPa divergent circulation biases. To provide context, Fig. S2 displays the corresponding
149 observed climatology.

150 In the winter, CONT exhibits a substantial dry bias (above 3 mm/day) over a large
151 area covering the eastern Indian Ocean and the MC (Fig. 1a). Conversely, prominent rainfall

152 excess (up to 5 mm/day) is found over the central and western Indian Ocean and the western
153 Pacific between 30°S and 10°N, with a maximum over the South Pacific Convergence Zone
154 (SPCZ). Albeit of small magnitude, model wet biases over India and eastern China are
155 substantially larger than climatological values (+157% and +70%, respectively, in Table 2).
156 The regions used to compute area-mean biases are displayed in Fig. S3.

157 Accompanying the winter precipitation biases are errors in the simulated lower-
158 tropospheric circulation. A large anticyclonic bias over the northwestern Pacific is associated
159 with an eastward extension of the Siberian High as well as a weaker Aleutian low. This
160 induces a strong moist easterly flow across the warm subtropical Pacific (Fig. 1a), which
161 bifurcates over the southern Philippines Sea. One branch reaches eastern China, opposing the
162 drier climatological northeasterlies (Fig. S2a), and then continues across Indochina and the
163 northern Bay of Bengal (BOB), weakening the climatological northwesterlies and bringing
164 moisture to India. The other branch turns anticlockwise approaching the equator, contributing
165 to the northwesterly bias from the MC to the SPCZ. To the west of the MC, a strong easterly
166 bias and moisture transport from the MC across the Indian Ocean are associated with a
167 stronger and northeastward displaced Mascarene High, counteracting the climatological
168 westerlies (Fig. S2a). These features are linked via anomalous three-dimensional circulation
169 cells both in the zonal (Walker-type) and meridional directions (e.g., Neale & Slingo, 2003;
170 Toh et al., 2018). For example, the dry MC bias and corresponding subsidence is associated
171 with upper-tropospheric inflow from the divergence centers over the Indian and western
172 Pacific Oceans, where increased ascent and excess rainfall occur (Fig. 1e).

173 During the summer, the precipitation bias features a quadrupole with positive
174 anomalies over the equatorial Indian Ocean and the northwestern subtropical Pacific, and
175 drying over the Indian subcontinent and the MC (Fig. 1b). An anomalous near-surface
176 anticyclone over northern India weakens the climatological southwesterly moisture transport
177 from the Arabian Sea and leads to the dry bias over India. The associated northerlies together
178 with enhanced south-equatorial southerlies from a stronger Mascarene high circulation
179 converge along the equatorial Indian Ocean, generating the local rainfall maximum. To the
180 east, the model simulates a weaker WPSH, a common bias across CMIP5 models (e.g., Liu et
181 al., 2014; Wilcox et al., 2015), resulting in anomalous northeasterly wind and weaker
182 moisture transport over central China (Fig. 1d). Albeit spatially confined, rainfall reduces
183 over the Yangtze River basin (10% over 28°–34°N, 110°–125°E). Meanwhile, stronger moist
184 westerlies blow from the BOB across Indochina to the South China Sea and the Northwestern
185 Pacific, where they converge with the northward divergent flow from the MC, leading to
186 enhanced precipitation. A quadrupole structure is also manifest in the 200-hPa stream
187 function bias (not shown), which features a pair of cyclones over the Indian Ocean south and
188 north of the equator, and a pair of anticyclones over the western subtropical Pacific, with the
189 northern hemispheric one particularly extensive. This pattern (and its low-tropospheric
190 counterpart, of baroclinic nature) bears the imprint of a Gill-Matsuno-type response to
191 suppressed diabatic heating over the BOB, similar to the large-scale anomalies associated
192 with perturbed South Asian monsoon heating in idealised baroclinic models (e.g. Lin, 2009;
193 Sardeshmukh & Hoskins, 1988).

194 The coupled zonal and meridional vertical circulations in the summer make
195 identifying the region driving the overall bias pattern across the Indo-Pacific sector less clear.
196 Examination of the 200-hPa divergent circulation bias may provide insights into the existence

197 and strength of such links (Fig. 1f). A strong outflow from the equatorial Indian Ocean is
198 directed toward South Asia and the eastern north equatorial Indian Ocean, consistent with the
199 meridional overturning circulation between the two areas (e.g., Nigam and Chan 2009). The
200 200-hPa inflow over South Asia displays an appreciable contribution from ascent and
201 subsequent upper-tropospheric divergence over the western subtropical Pacific and further to
202 the east, associated with the expansive anomalous cyclone and precipitation increases (Fig.
203 1b). A transverse meridional circulation cell is also recognisable between the western
204 subtropical Pacific and the equatorial MC and the SPCZ (Fig. 1f), consistent with the
205 reciprocal influence of the two areas found in Nigam and Chan (2009) and Lin (2009). Note
206 the link between the eastern sub-equatorial Indian Ocean and the eastern MC appears to be
207 comparatively weak with smaller divergent wind biases, as opposed to the strong zonal
208 circulation during the winter, suggesting their direct influence to be modest.

209 **3.2 Effect of global nudging above boundary layer on the monsoon biases**

210 Fig. 2 displays the differences in precipitation and 925-hPa winds between the four
211 nudged simulations and observations (refer to Fig. S4 for the corresponding differences with
212 respect to CONT). In the winter, GLOB features a reduction in the meridional extent of areas
213 with large precipitation excess compared to observations. Relative drying of the tropics,
214 particularly in the Southern Hemisphere, is partially compensated by enhanced oceanic
215 rainfall near the equator where warmer climatological SSTs are found (Figs. 1a and 2a). This
216 manifests as a northward precipitation shift over both the Indian Ocean and the SPCZ, each
217 associated with an extensive anomalous near-surface subtropical cyclone to the east and wind
218 convergence on its western flank (Fig. S4a). The resulting anomalous westerlies across the
219 equatorial Indian Ocean converge with south-westerlies over the SPCZ, opposing the CONT
220 wind biases and leading to a reduction in the dry bias over the MC by 0.7 mm/day (Table 2).

221 Nudging substantially improves the simulated circulation in the north-western
222 extratropical Pacific by counteracting the extensive anticyclonic bias (Fig. 2a). This results in
223 anomalous dry northwesterlies over northern India and westerlies over eastern China and the
224 northern South China Sea (Fig. S4a), opposing CONT winds of oceanic origin, considerably
225 alleviating the wet biases there (152%, 32%, and 25%, respectively, in Table 2). The winds,
226 turning to northerlies approaching the equator, converge with the southern hemisphere
227 southerlies, generating the north-equatorial Pacific rainfall excess (Fig. 2a). Inspection of the
228 200-hPa divergent flow shows a much smaller inflow toward the MC, suggesting an
229 anomalous divergent outflow caused by nudging (Fig. 3a). The strongest outflow is directed
230 northeastward to the subtropical western Pacific Ocean (Fig. S5a), leading to strengthening of
231 the WPSH and establishment of a vigorous meridional overturning cell. This suggests a
232 strong influence of the abatement of the MC rainfall bias on the model shortcomings over the
233 surrounding Asian-Pacific region, likely related to an improved local circulation associated
234 with land-sea breezes and the diurnal cycle. The unrealistic representation of these local
235 features related to the complex terrain is the main reason for precipitation biases over the MC
236 in climate models (Im & Eltahir, 2018).

237 During the summer, the amplitude of the quadrupole pattern biases is drastically
238 reduced across the Indo-Pacific sector in GLOB (Fig. 2b). This indicates a general reduction
239 of the model bias except for a reversal over the northern South China Sea, and hints to the
240 existence of a common factor driving the regional rainfall distribution. Other exceptions are

241 the south-equatorial Indian Ocean and the double intertropical convergence zone (ITCZ)
242 region, where rainfall further increases. A plausible physical mechanism will be discussed
243 later in this section.

244 The strong and extensive anomalous cyclone bias almost disappears over the western
245 Pacific in GLOB, denoting a substantial enhancement in the simulated WPSH (Fig. 2b), with
246 a marked reduction of the wet bias by 5.6 mm/day (Table 2). On the southwestern flank of
247 the anomalous anticyclone induced by nudging, strong easterlies oppose the CONT westerly
248 bias, resulting in large moisture transport from the South China Sea across Indochina and the
249 BOB toward India relative to CONT (Fig. S4b). This leads to a reversal of the CONT wet
250 bias over northern Indochina and the northern South China Sea (from +2.0 mm/day to -2.2
251 mm/day over 12°–22°N, 100°–120°E; Fig. 2b). Although the easterly anomalies oppose the
252 climatological westerly winds over India, they converge with the westerly anomalies
253 associated with the equatorial Indian Ocean dry anomalies (Fig. S4b), resulting in a
254 considerable reduction of the dry bias over Indian land areas (Table 2). Additionally, a
255 stronger southerly moisture transport over eastern China makes GLOB wetter than CONT
256 over eastern China, reversing the CONT dry bias over the Yangtze River basin (from -0.6
257 mm/day to +1.0 mm/day in Table 2).

258 GLOB substantially reduces the average summertime dry bias over the MC by 1.4
259 mm/day (Table 2). Note that in GLOB the biases in the MC precipitation and near-surface
260 winds have more spatial variations compared to CONT (Figs. 1b and 2b), possibly associated
261 with a more realistic representation of local circulation and convection. The emergence of
262 local effects is evident in the details of the rainfall pattern. For example, while closer to
263 observations, rainfall remains biased low over the islands with nudging, yet it is biased high
264 over the ocean grid-points.

265 The difference in the 200-hPa divergent flow between GLOB and observations
266 features a clear alleviation of convergent flow bias toward South Asia during boreal summer,
267 particularly over the southern BOB (Fig. 3b). In response to global nudging, the bulk of the
268 flow heads northwestward, similar to the monsoon-desert mechanism (Rodwell & Hoskins,
269 1996), and northeastward toward the northwestern Pacific and even further downstream
270 toward the central basin (Fig. S5b). Albeit weaker, the southward link with the equatorial
271 Indian Ocean is also evident. There is also a strong overturning circulation apparent over the
272 MC and the western subtropical Pacific. Besides, these two main structures of the upper-
273 tropospheric divergent flow display some degree of zonal coupling (e.g., between the eastern
274 MC and the central equatorial Indian Ocean).

275 The MC is at the centre of circulation differences between GLOB and CONT (Fig.
276 S5b), but there are complex changes in the diabatic heating distribution over this deep
277 convective region, which are conflated with strong vertical circulations in the wider Indo-
278 Pacific region (Jiang et al., 2016). Thus, isolation of the influence of the biases over the
279 individual sub-regions in generating the overall pattern displayed in Fig. S5b is a formidable
280 task without the use of further sensitivity simulations. Some conclusions can however be
281 drawn from existing studies using idealised diabatic heating distributions with linear and
282 more advanced models (e.g., Greatbatch et al., 2013; Jiang et al., 2016). Despite intrinsic
283 differences in the model used and experimental settings among the various studies, it is
284 possible to speculate that the MC has a predominant influence on the subtropical western

285 Pacific, while South Asia has an important influence on the Indian Ocean as well as to the
286 east over China and the northwestern tropical Pacific.

287 Overall, the comparison between GLOB and CONT shows that nudging markedly
288 improves simulated precipitation over the Asian subtropics through a better representation of
289 important seasonal and permanent circulation features (Figs. 1 and 2). However, the near
290 equatorial positive rainfall bias may be exacerbated but more confined along the warm
291 oceanic region with nudging despite a better simulated mid- and upper-tropospheric
292 circulation (e.g., ITCZ). Several studies have emphasised the importance of unconstrained
293 sub-grid convection due to the fact that it acts on shorter time scales than nudging (e.g.,
294 Lohmann & Hoose, 2009; Wehrli et al., 2018). Johnson et al. (2019) reported similar findings,
295 albeit in the context of nudged experiments under black carbon forcing, and showed a strong
296 circulation change over the tropics but suppressed dynamical adjustments in the mid-latitudes.
297 A close examination of the positive near-equatorial rainfall bias in both CONT and GLOB
298 (Figs. 1 and 2) suggests its location to be controlled both by the movement of the warm SSTs
299 and by the convergence of near-surface winds associated with meridional SST gradients
300 (Bollasina and Ming, 2013). This is evident over the Indian Ocean in winter for CONT (Fig.
301 1a), and in summer for GLOB (Fig. 2b), as well as over the western Pacific in winter for both
302 experiments.

303 As in CONT, magnitude and spatial pattern of the precipitation bias relative to
304 satellite observations (Fig. 2) broadly follow those in moisture flux convergence (MFC; Fig.
305 S6), particularly over the tropical oceans, suggesting the small contribution from transient
306 eddies. To explore possible reasons for the persistence of some precipitation biases after
307 nudging the circulation globally, we decompose the MFC differences between GLOB and
308 observations into dynamic and thermodynamic terms associated with variations in circulation
309 and humidity, respectively, following Seager et al. (2010). The simulated bias in the dynamic
310 contribution accounts for a large portion of the MFC biases and subsequent precipitation
311 errors in both control and GLOB experiments (e.g., over the double ITCZ; Figs. S6 and S7)
312 while the thermodynamic term is relatively small and shows no appreciable variations (not
313 shown). This implies that a substantial part of the precipitation biases is generated through
314 circulation changes rather than through changes in humidity regardless of whether nudging is
315 applied or not. This argument is also valid for other nudged experiments.

316 **3.3 Effect of additional nudging within the boundary layer**

317 Nudging over the whole atmospheric column (GLOB_A) further constrains the low-
318 level atmospheric circulation and thus may lead to a more realistic simulation of boundary
319 layer processes. Note this too strong constraint is normally not recommended to enable the
320 adjustments of low-level wind to surface conditions (Telford et al., 2008) and the radiative
321 effects of short-lived climate forcers (e.g. aerosols; Regayre et al., 2018).

322 The broad features of the patterns of biases of winter precipitation and 925-hPa winds
323 in GLOB_A are similar to those in GLOB (Figs. 2a and 2c). A notable difference is the
324 further reduction of the CONT dry bias over the MC and the wet bias over the Indian Ocean
325 and ITCZ associated with a more realistic wind distribution. These bias reductions are
326 possibly related to an improved representation of land-sea breezes and their interaction with
327 the complex topography of the region. The additional MC rainfall in GLOB_A compared to

328 GLOB results in stronger upper-tropospheric outflow (Figs. 4a and 4c). Not surprisingly, the
329 corresponding near-surface return flow toward the MC features anomalous equatorial
330 westerlies from the Indian Ocean and easterlies over the Pacific Ocean in GLOB_A
331 compared to GLOB (Fig. 4a), further reducing the model easterly and westerly wind bias,
332 respectively. Also, anomalous northerlies over eastern China lead to a reduction of the CONT
333 wet bias there (Table 2). Conversely, stronger northwesterlies in GLOB_A than in GLOB
334 over northern India, while largely alleviating the model southeasterly bias, lead to a weak dry
335 bias.

336 The patterns of summer GLOB_A and GLOB precipitation and low-tropospheric
337 wind bias are also similar (Figs. 2b and 2d). Inspection of the difference between GLOB_A
338 and GLOB (Fig. 4b) reveals that additional boundary layer nudging reduces the equatorial
339 wet bias in GLOB (Fig. 2b). The response pattern is dominated by increased rainfall and
340 strong upper-tropospheric divergence over the central-eastern north-equatorial Indian Ocean
341 and the western MC relative to GLOB (Figs. 4b and 4d). The divergent flow heads primarily
342 in a zonal direction toward the western equatorial Pacific, where it converges and reduces the
343 wet bias in the ITCZ region. The circulation response also shows a pair of meridional
344 overturning cells in both the Indian and western Pacific sectors. In the former region, the
345 equatorial outflow subsides over India, with relative drying compared to GLOB. The flow
346 reverses over the western Pacific, where the equatorial subsidence is accompanied by ascent
347 and upper-level divergence over the north-western Pacific. Notwithstanding the reduction of
348 the GLOB biases in the equatorial region, the induced meridional vertical circulations in
349 GLOB_A result in additional drying over India and wettening over the western subtropical
350 Pacific, including south-eastern China, due to improved anticyclonic moisture transport from
351 the equator (Fig. 2d).

352 Thus, GLOB_A further reduces the wind and precipitation biases in most of the
353 oceanic areas (Figs. 2b and 2d ; e.g. the MC and the double ITCZ region), indicating the
354 important role of near-surface processes there. Yet, the model adjustment in the circulation
355 induces anomalous convective cells, particularly evident in the summer, which worsen its
356 performance in the northern subtropics. GLOB_A better simulates the near-surface winds
357 over India and China in both seasons, yet the precipitation only improves over China in the
358 winter. One direct implication is that an improved simulation of the WPSH may not alleviate
359 the wet summertime bias over China.

360 **3.4 Effect of remote versus local nudging**

361 Here, we analyse the ELSE and ASIA experiments (i.e., the atmospheric circulation is
362 nudged outside and over Asia, respectively), to disentangle the relative contribution of
363 regional and remote circulation biases in driving the model errors over Asia (Figs. 2e and 2h).
364 Both experiments share overall similar precipitation and near-surface wind anomaly patterns
365 to those of GLOB and GLOB_A, though there are some local differences as expected given
366 the regional nature of the imposed relaxation term.

367 During the winter, compared to GLOB, ELSE features a decrease of precipitation
368 over the equatorial MC area (Figs. 2a and 2e), resulting in a larger precipitation deficit than
369 GLOB (Table 2). By contrast, ASIA is slightly wetter than GLOB over the same area
370 suggesting circulation anomalies over Asia may play an important role in modulating the MC

371 bias. This can also be inferred from the pattern of the anomalous 200-hPa divergent
372 circulation (Fig. 3). The rainfall deficit over the MC is associated with a strong upper-level
373 southward inflow coming from the East China Sea (Figs. 3a, 3e, and 3g), with compensating
374 northward near-surface return flow (Figs. 2a, 2e, and 2g). This anomalous circulation cell is
375 clearly recognizable in ELSE but is much weaker in GLOB and ASIA. Over India, ASIA
376 further reduces the GLOB dry bias compared to observations, while ELSE induces a larger
377 wet bias (Table 2). Similarly, the excess rainfall over central and eastern China in GLOB
378 improves only with regional nudging, while it deteriorates when the local circulation is free
379 to evolve. These results suggest a realistic representation of the local circulation to be more
380 important than that over the surrounding regions for improving the model skill at simulating
381 wintertime precipitation over the Indian subcontinent and China.

382 The summer dry bias over the Indian sector is smaller for the ASIA experiment than
383 for ELSE (Table 2), indicating that the circulation over the Indian subcontinent is more
384 crucial to alleviate the dry summertime bias. Excess precipitation over the equatorial Indian
385 ocean also shows stronger reduction in ASIA than in ELSE (Table 2). Yet, prescribing the
386 circulation either regionally or remotely generally results in much larger biases than with
387 global nudging, indicating the key role of non-linear interactions between the two.

388 The anomalous meridional precipitation dipole over the western Pacific is larger and
389 more longitudinally extensive in ASIA than in ELSE compared to observations, associated
390 with a stronger anomalous cyclone bias in the former (Figs. 2f and 2h). Over central-eastern
391 China, ELSE and ASIA, as with GLOB, reverse the sign of the CONT rainfall dry bias
392 (Table 2), associated with an anomalous anticyclone over the East China Sea and related
393 southerly wind anomalies along its western flank (Fig. S4). However, the magnitude of the
394 wet bias is smaller in ELSE than in ASIA (Table 2). Nudging both local and remote
395 circulation (GLOB) causes a wet bias of 1.0 mm/day, and all nudged experiments
396 overestimate the magnitude of the bias in the control experiment. This suggests that nudging
397 circulation over Asia causes a too-strong adjustment to precipitation that overcompensates for
398 the original model bias. These results emphasize the key role of the model representation of
399 the WPSH in modulating rainfall and circulation biases over the western Pacific and eastern
400 China, consistently with previous studies (Gao et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2013). In turn, biases
401 in the simulated circulation over Asia do have an influence, although secondary to those
402 outside Asia, on location and magnitude of the WPSH (Figs. 3f and 3h).

403 **3.5 The response of precipitation variability to nudging**

404 Several studies have suggested cross-scale interactions may be fundamental in
405 modulating the Asian monsoon annual cycle. For example, IAV of the seasonal mean
406 monsoon rainfall is affected by the nature of ISV (e.g., Yoo et al. 2010), and a realistic
407 representation of these relationship is key for improved seasonal monsoon simulations and
408 predictions (e.g., Achuthavarier & Krishnamurthy, 2010; Fang et al., 2017). Summertime
409 monsoon precipitation variability is closely linked to the occurrence of severe droughts and
410 floods, which have considerable influence on agriculture, economy, and social well-being
411 across Asia (Udmale et al., 2014; Zheng et al., 2006). Here, we evaluate model precipitation
412 variability on two main time scales: IAV and ISV.

413 Large observed IAV occurs along the equatorial Indian Ocean and the western coast
414 of India, over the northern BOB, and over the northwestern tropical Pacific (Fig. 5a; e.g.,
415 Ferranti et al., 1997), which corresponds to areas with large precipitation and warm SST in
416 the seasonal mean (Fig. S2b). The spatial pattern of observed ISV has a close resemblance to
417 that of IAV (Zhang et al., 2019), possibly due to the scale interactions and suggesting a
418 common pattern of variability (Goswami & Mohan, 2001). Note that ISV has a magnitude
419 about 2.5 times the amplitude of IAV (e.g., Achuthavarier & Krishnamurthy, 2010; Ferranti
420 et al., 1997), with largest values over the South China Sea and the Philippine Sea (Fig. 5b).
421 CONT generally captures the observed spatial structure of both IAV and ISV and their
422 relative magnitude (Figs. 5c and 5d). A notable difference is the northward displacement of
423 the maximum IAV over the northern subtropical Pacific.

424 The simulated amplitude of both IAV and ISV is considerably higher than observed in
425 most regions, except over the south-equatorial MC, western half of India and the nearby
426 northern Arabian Sea. The resulting quadrupole pattern of variability anomaly across the
427 Indian-western Pacific sector resembles that of the seasonal mean bias (Figs. 5e and 5f).
428 These patterns are consistent with previous findings, which show that precipitation-latent heat
429 flux feedback acts to reduce the overestimated variability in AGCMs when coupled to ocean
430 models (e.g., Fang et al., 2017; Wu & Kirtman, 2005).

431 Nudging above the boundary layer (Figs. 6a and 6b) improves the spatial structure of
432 the simulated IAV and ISV over a large part of the domain, in particular over western India
433 and the western subtropical Pacific. However, GLOB shows negligible improvements or even
434 deterioration compared to CONT over the MC, the western equatorial Pacific and the SPCZ,
435 similar to the corresponding changes in the seasonal mean. This suggests a stronger influence
436 of the circulation on precipitation variability outside the deep tropics (Rasmusson and Arkin,
437 1993; Seager et al., 2005). Conversely, nudging tends to degrade the skill in simulated
438 variability over the oceanic deep convective regions. The similarity in the IAV and ISV
439 pattern changes suggests the presence of common controls, possibly stemming from the
440 relationship between monsoon variability and the underlying seasonally persistent mode (e.g.,
441 Krishnamurthy and Shukla 2000).

442 Additional boundary layer nudging (GLOB_A) further improves the simulated IAV
443 and ISV with respect to GLOB, with the largest improvements across the equatorial Indo-
444 Pacific region (Figs. 6c and 6d). Thus, while model skill in simulating the subtropical
445 variability increases with the extent of vertical nudging, nudging only above the boundary
446 layer actually deteriorates the simulated near-equatorial variability. This emphasises the
447 importance of correctly representing sub-daily coupled processes at the ocean-atmosphere
448 interface for the successful simulation of rainfall in the strongly convective regions.
449 Examination of the regional nudged experiments (Figs. 6e–6h) shows that both ASIA and
450 ELSE have a very close resemblance to GLOB over the nudged domain (Asia and outside
451 Asia, respectively), while they display differences over the free-running region (where they
452 both show similar patterns to CONT). This suggests precipitation variability to be largely
453 dominated by the local circulation.

454 **3.6 The response of the El Niño-monsoon relationship and monsoon onset dates**

455 Improvements in the simulated precipitation IAV and ISV may translate into a more
456 skilful representation of the Asian monsoon link with the El Niño and of monsoon onset,
457 respectively. El Niño is known to exert a strong influence on the Asian monsoon variability at
458 interannual timescale (Lau and Nath 2000; Wang et al. 2000, 2013), while the onset of the
459 rainy season is related to the active and break spells of the monsoon modulated by
460 intraseasonal monsoon oscillations (e.g., Karmakar and Misra 2019). A better representation
461 of these features is crucial for seasonal monsoon forecasts (Achuthavarier et al., 2012; Wu et
462 al., 2009), as well as the establishment of low-level wind reversal and rainfall season (Qi et
463 al., 2009; Wang et al., 2018).

464 During El Niño events, rainfall decreases over the MC (Fig. 7a), resulting from the
465 eastward displacement of the rising branch of the Walker circulation and corresponding
466 convection (Lau and Nath, 2000). To its northwest, an anomalous low-tropospheric
467 anticyclonic circulation develops over the north-equatorial Indian Ocean, consistent with a
468 Gill-type response to the suppressed diabatic heating over Indonesia. Divergent easterly
469 anomalies and subsidence over the south-equatorial Indian Ocean lead to northerlies over
470 India and general drier conditions and thus to a weaker Indian monsoon (Ramu et al., 2018),
471 while westerly anomalies over the equatorial western Pacific weaken the WPSH, leading to a
472 south-wet-north-dry rainfall anomalous pattern over eastern China and a dipolar precipitation
473 anomaly over the equatorial Pacific (e.g., Wang et al. 2020). The positive rainfall anomaly
474 over the central India core monsoon area is also noteworthy as it has recently been suggested
475 to be associated with multi-decadal variations in the ENSO-monsoon relationship (Srivastava
476 et al., 2019) , albeit largely muted in the long-term record (Wang et al., 2020).

477 In CONT, the ENSO convection dipole over the MC and the western Pacific is more
478 intense and shifted north-eastward compared to observations (Fig. 7b). This results in the
479 displacement of the anticyclonic anomaly from the north-equatorial Indian ocean to central
480 India, leading to widespread drying over the Indian subcontinent and the Bay of Bengal.
481 Additionally, the cyclonic anomaly over the western subtropical Pacific intensifies and shifts
482 northward, leading to strong northerlies and a precipitation deficit across eastern China.
483 GLOB significantly improves the precipitation and low-tropospheric circulation anomalies
484 over the entire Indo-Pacific sector (Fig. 7c). The observed MC equatorial precipitation and
485 circulation anomalies are reproduced well, which in turn result in a realistic spatial pattern of
486 the ENSO teleconnection to the north, including the rainfall meridional dipoles over northern
487 India and eastern China.

488 Compared to GLOB, the major improvements in GLOB_A are seen over the tropics
489 such as the better representation of the easterlies over the western MC and the equatorial
490 Indian Ocean sector and of the westerlies over the western equatorial Pacific (Fig. S8d). The
491 resulting more organised anticyclonic flow over the Indian sector further reduces dry biases
492 over India (Fig. 7d). Inspection of the regionally-nudged experiments in comparison to
493 GLOB and observations shows that, while ASIA displays a too strong and northeastward
494 displaced convective dipole over the western equatorial Pacific, similar to CONT, it better
495 simulates rainfall and the westerlies circulation anomalies over Indochina and the MC, which
496 are conversely too large and strong in ELSE, resulting in more realistic rainfall patterns over
497 India and China (Figs. 7e and 7f). This further emphasises the important role of regional
498 circulation over Asia, and particularly over the MC, in realising the ENSO teleconnections to
499 India and China.

500 The monsoon onset, heralding the transition to the rainy season, is critical for
501 agriculture and economy across Asia; yet its prediction represents a major challenge (Martin
502 et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2009). Observations show the monsoon establishment from early to
503 mid-May (pentads 25–29) in a northeastward oriented band extending from southern
504 Indonesia to Japan, representing the Mei-Yu front (Fig. 8a). The onset of the monsoon rainy
505 season occurs progressively later northwestward from the monsoon oceans toward inland
506 areas, with a migration from the BOB (pentad 24) toward northwest India (pentad 37). Note
507 also the delayed progression over the subtropical western Pacific.

508 The most striking feature of the bias in the onset pattern simulated by CONT is the
509 large delay over India and the BOB (exceeding 8 pentads; see Fig. 8b), which is not
510 surprising given the large dry bias over the region. The onset is also delayed, although to a
511 lesser extent (~3–4 pentads), over a southwest to northeast band extending from Indochina to
512 the south of Japan across southeastern China. This bias is associated with the model difficulty
513 in representing the seasonal mean northward extent of the Mei-Yu, which conversely tends to
514 stagnate to the south (Wilcox et al., 2015). In turn, this leads to an earlier onset over the
515 western Pacific. This contrasts with the earlier onset of the monsoon rains over central and
516 northern China, likely reflecting the contribution of local convective activity rather than the
517 northwestward migration of the front.

518 GLOB significantly improves the simulated onset date over most the domain (Fig. 8c),
519 including a critical advancement of the monsoon by 2–4 pentads over central and western
520 India. However, monsoon rains are further delayed in GLOB over the eastern equatorial
521 Indian Ocean and the South China Sea, and arrive too early (by an additional 1–2 pentads)
522 over central and northern China. The changes of onset date caused by nudging are generally
523 consistent with seasonal mean responses except over the South China Sea, suggesting an
524 opposite effect of global nudging on IAV and ISV there.

525 GLOB_A leads to minor changes relative to GLOB (Fig. 8d). ELSE and ASIA
526 produce opposite results over the Indian sector. While ELSE has an earlier and more realistic
527 onset date over the eastern equatorial Indian Ocean and the BOB than ASIA, the
528 northwestern march of the onset date across central and northern India is better captured by
529 ASIA than by ELSE. This suggests the late-spring migration of the monsoon across the
530 Indian Ocean and the BOB is related to the large-scale northward shift of rainfall from the
531 western equatorial Pacific following the movement of the warm SSTs. Conversely, regional
532 circulation is key to the further progression of the monsoon inland-ward across India,
533 possibly associated with local land-atmosphere interactions (Bollasina and Ming, 2013b).
534 Monsoon withdrawal date and monsoon season length (defined following Wang & Ho, 2002)
535 display similar response patterns to nudging to those of monsoon onset (not shown).

536 **4 Discussion and Conclusions**

537 Air temperature is allowed to evolve freely as only winds are nudged in the above
538 experiments. Fig. S9 shows that nudging both winds and temperature over the whole
539 atmospheric column reduces the summer double ITCZ bias in GLOB_A as the latent heat
540 released from convection is further constrained by temperature nudging. However, the dry
541 bias over India becomes even larger in summer compared to that in GLOB_A, implying that
542 temperature nudging can potentially generate new biases. Besides, humidity nudging may

543 also be important for some regions although the anomalies of dynamical term broadly
544 dominate the biases in moisture flux convergence and precipitation in nudged experiments
545 (Figs. S6 and S7). Sun et al. (2019) found that humidity nudging dramatically improves the
546 correlation of tropical precipitation with observations but further increases biases in the long-
547 term simulated cloud and precipitation in the Energy Exascale Earth System Model
548 Atmosphere Model Version 1. Note the nudging effect may be model dependent. Indeed,
549 Wehrli et al. (2018) suggest that the temperature and precipitation biases are
550 thermodynamically driven by local processes including land-atmosphere interactions and
551 atmospheric parameterizations as most of the biases remains after constraining the large-scale
552 circulation. Thus, the robustness of the findings needs to be evaluated using other climate
553 models.

554 This study investigates the impact of atmospheric circulation biases on the simulation
555 of the Asian monsoon seasonal mean climate and variability. We nudge model winds toward
556 the ERA-I reanalysis and quantify the effects on model biases. Additionally, we separate the
557 contribution of circulation errors over Asia and those outside Asia to monsoon precipitation
558 biases, and provide insights into the associated mechanism underpinning the precipitation
559 changes. Despite the remaining errors in nudged simulations, our study suggests that
560 dynamical nudging serves as a useful tool to disentangle the contribution of regional and
561 remote circulation in generating monsoon biases.

562 Nudging the circulation globally (GLOB) substantially reduces seasonal precipitation
563 biases. Key features include a decrease of the dry bias over the Maritime Continent (MC) in
564 winter and a quadrupole pattern of precipitation changes opposite to the bias in summer,
565 associated with an enhanced western Pacific subtropical high (WPSH). The resulting low-
566 level circulation changes serve to alleviate precipitation biases over India and China, showing
567 teleconnections from MC and WPSH to the Asian winter and summer monsoon, respectively
568 (Robertson et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2013). However, the double-ITCZ problem in summer is
569 amplified because nudging cannot constrain sub-grid convection. Additional nudging in the
570 boundary layer (GLOB_A) further reduces the dry bias over the MC in winter, suggesting the
571 importance of simulating boundary layer circulation associated with an improved
572 representation of complex terrain effects and the land-sea breeze circulation (Im & Eltahir,
573 2018). Constraining the circulation only over or outside Asia (i.e., the ASIA or ELSE
574 experiments) reveals that precipitation biases are mainly driven by local circulation errors
575 over eastern China and India. An exception is the summer precipitation bias over eastern
576 China which is more controlled by WPSH anomalies.

577 The similarity of spatial patterns of interannual variability (IAV) and intraseasonal
578 variability (ISV) in both observations and CONT suggests their cross-scale interactions (Yoo
579 et al., 2010). Both GLOB and GLOB_A reduce the generally overestimated magnitude of the
580 IAV and ISV in CONT over the subtropics, which translates a more skillful simulation of the
581 Asian monsoon linkage with El Niño and the monsoon onset, respectively. The ASIA and
582 ELSE experiments resemble GLOB over the nudged domain and CONT over the free-
583 running region in both variability and El Niño teleconnections to India and China. This
584 suggests a dominant role of local circulation anomalies. Over the Indian sector, ELSE better
585 simulates onset date over the equatorial Indian Ocean and the BOB, while ASIA has a more
586 realistic onset over central and northern India.

587 The results in this study help us identify processes that cause biases and understand
588 the interplay between the Asian monsoon and the large-scale circulation. Understanding these
589 interactions and the associated mechanisms is critical to improve the simulation of the Asian
590 monsoon and its responses to anthropogenic forcing for better risk management and
591 adaptation planning in this densely populated region.

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594 **Data Availability Statement**

595 The GPCP and CMAP observational datasets are obtained from
596 <https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/gridded/data.gpcp.html> and
597 <https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.cmap.html>, respectively. The ERA-I reanalysis is
598 provided by the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts
599 (<https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/datasets/reanalysis-datasets/era-interim>). The model
600 outputs in reproducing this work are archived on zenodo
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885

886 **Figures and Tables**

887 *Table 1. Model simulations. The model layer 12 in hybrid-height vertical coordinate is treated as planetary boundary layer*
 888 *(PBL) height, which is around 850hPa in CONT. The location of Asia is represented by the purple box in Fig. 1a.*

Experiment	Description
CONT	Free run without nudging applied
GLOB	Global horizontal wind nudging applied above PBL
GLOB_A	Global wind nudging applied over the whole atmospheric column
ELSE	Wind nudging above PBL applied outside Asia
ASIA	Wind nudging above PBL applied over Asia

889

890 *Table 2. Area-mean precipitation biases (unit: mm/day) over key regions in relative to observations. The numbers in the*
 891 *parenthesis represent the absolute percentage biases with respect to observational values. Abbreviations: MC, Maritime*
 892 *Continent; EC, eastern China; SPCZ, the South Pacific Convergence Zone; EIO: the equatorial Indian Ocean; NSCS:*
 893 *northern South China Sea, WPSH: the Western Pacific Subtropical High. Corresponding region boundaries for computing*
 894 *the area averages are denoted by rectangles in Fig. S3. Note locations of the regions may vary in summer and winter*
 895 *depending on where relatively strong nudging effects are found. * indicates that the area mean is computed over land grid*
 896 *points only.*

Winter						
	MC	India*	EC*	SPCZ	EIO	NSCS
CONT	-3.1 (36%)	0.60 (157%)	1.0 (70%)	4.3 (49%)	1.6 (21%)	0.98 (54%)
GLOB	-2.4 (29%)	-0.02 (5%)	0.5 (38%)	1.5 (17%)	4.2 (55%)	0.53 (29%)
GLOB_A	-0.4 (5%)	-0.16 (42%)	0.1 (7%)	1.5 (17%)	3.7 (50%)	0.36 (20%)
ELSE	-2.7 (32%)	0.21 (55%)	0.9 (65%)	1.5 (18%)	4.1 (55%)	0.56 (31%)
ASIA	-2.1 (25%)	0.01 (3%)	0.4 (31%)	3.8 (43%)	2.5 (33%)	0.51 (28%)
Summer						
	MC	India*	EC*	SPCZ	EIO	WPSH
CONT	-1.8 (38%)	-4.3 (57%)	-0.60 (10%)	4.2 (53%)	2.1 (36%)	5.8 (75%)
GLOB	-0.4 (9%)	-1.0 (14%)	1.0 (16%)	13.5 (169%)	1.8 (31%)	0.2 (2%)
GLOB_A	0.2 (4%)	-1.4 (19%)	1.0 (16%)	11.2 (141%)	1.9 (33%)	1.6 (21%)
ELSE	-0.9 (19%)	-2.4 (33%)	0.9 (15%)	13.0 (163%)	2.6 (45%)	1.1 (14%)
ASIA	-2.2 (47%)	-1.7 (23%)	1.3 (21%)	5.4 (68%)	1.8 (31%)	2.7 (34%)

897

898

899 Fig. 1. Bias in the control simulation measured as differences in precipitation (mm/day) and 925-hPa wind (m/s) with
900 respect to the mean of GPCP and CMAP satellite product and ERA-I reanalysis, respectively, in (a) winter and (b) summer.
901 (c, d) Same as (a, b) but for vertically-integrated stationary moisture flux convergence (MFC; mm/day) and moisture flux
902 (MF; kg/m/s). (e, f) Same as (a, b) but for 200-hPa divergence ($10^6/s$) and divergent wind (m/s). Contours represent
903 climatological ERA-I sea surface temperature ($^{\circ}C$). Black dots indicate differences at the 90% significance level according
904 to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. The purple box denotes the Asia region (10° – $45^{\circ}N$, 60° – $125^{\circ}E$).

905

906 Fig. 2. Biases in precipitation (mm/day) and 925-hPa wind (m/s) between GLOB and observations in (a) winter and (b)
907 summer. (c, d), (e, f), and (g, h) Same as (a, b) but for GLOB_A, ELSE and ASIA simulations, respectively.

908

909 Fig. 3. Same as Fig. 2 but for 200-hPa divergence ($10^6/s$) and divergent wind (m/s).

910

911 Fig. 4. Differences in precipitation and 925-hPa wind between GLOB_A and GLOB in (a) winter and (b) summer. (c, d)
912 Same as (a, b) but for 200-hPa divergence ($10^6/s$) and divergent wind (m/s).

913

914 Fig. 5. The summer climatology of precipitation (a) interannual variability (mm/day) and (b) intraseasonal variability
915 (mm/day) measured as the average of GPCP and CMAP pentad precipitation variability. (c, d) Same as (a, b) but for CONT.
916 Bias in the control simulation measured as the differences in summer precipitation (e) interannual variability and (f)
917 intraseasonal variability in relative to observations.

918

919 Fig. 6. Bias in the GLOB measured as the differences in summer precipitation (a) interannual variability and (b)
920 intraseasonal variability in relative to observations. (c, d), (e, f), and (g, h) Same as (a, b) but for GLOB_A, ELSE and ASIA
921 simulations, respectively.

922

923 Fig. 7. Simultaneous regression coefficients of summer precipitation and 925-hPa wind onto Niño3.4 index in (a)
924 observations, (b) CONT, (c) GLOB, (d) GLOB_A, (e) ELSE, and (f) ASIA. Black dots indicate the regression coefficients at
925 the 90% significance level according to the Student's t test.

926

927 Fig. 8. (a) Observed monsoon onset date measured as the average of monsoon onset date using GPCP and CMAP pentad
928 precipitation. Bias in monsoon onset date in (b) CONT, (c) GLOB, (d) GLOB_A, (e) ELSE, and (f) ASIA with respect to
929 observations.

Figure 1.

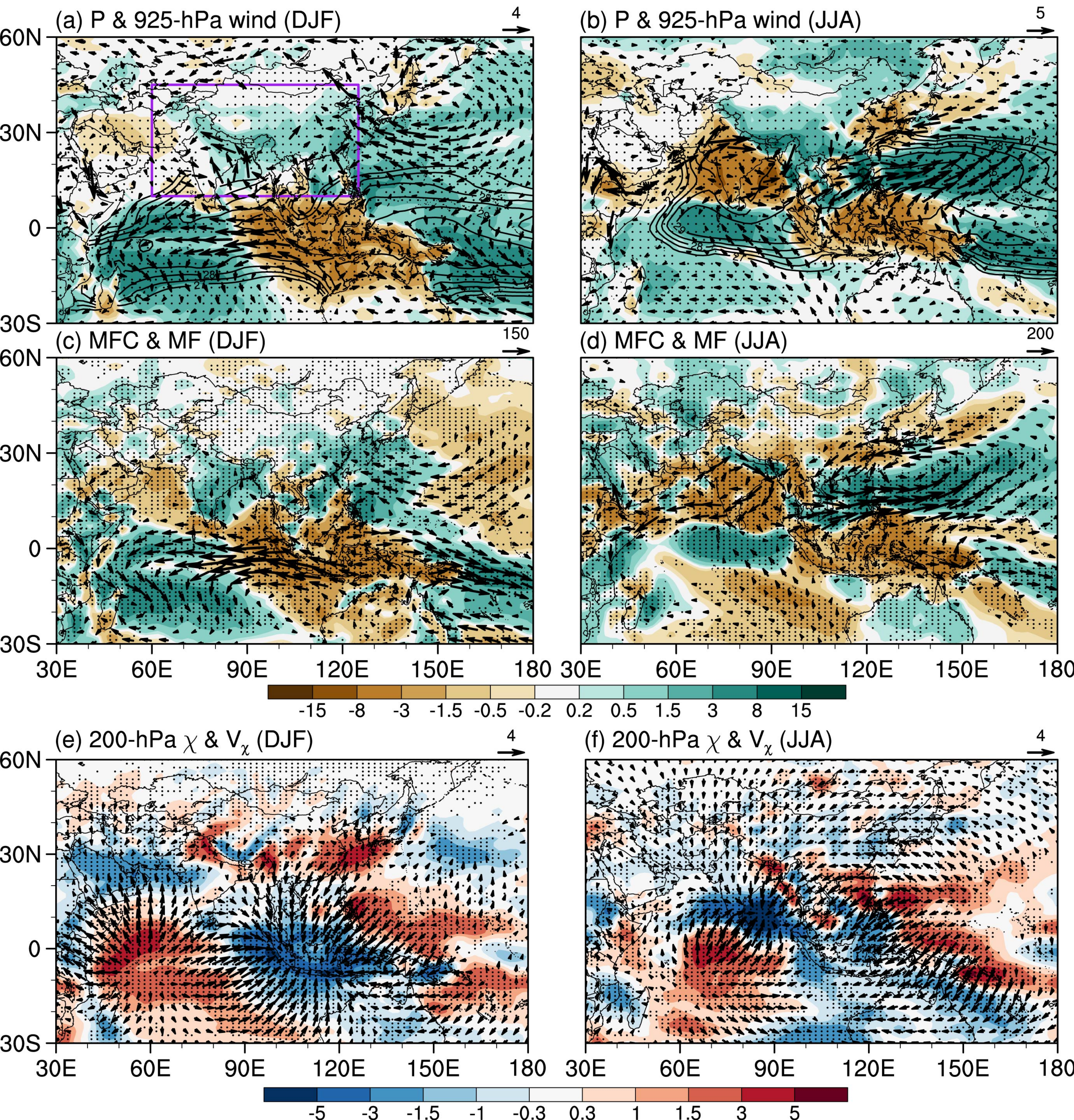


Figure 2.

P & 925-hPa wind & SST

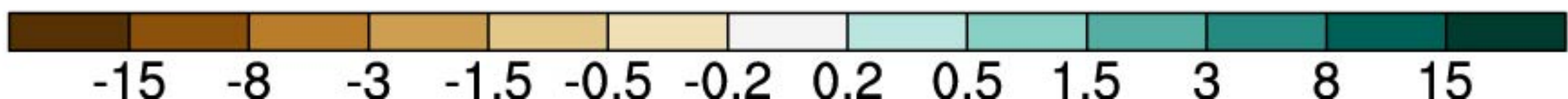
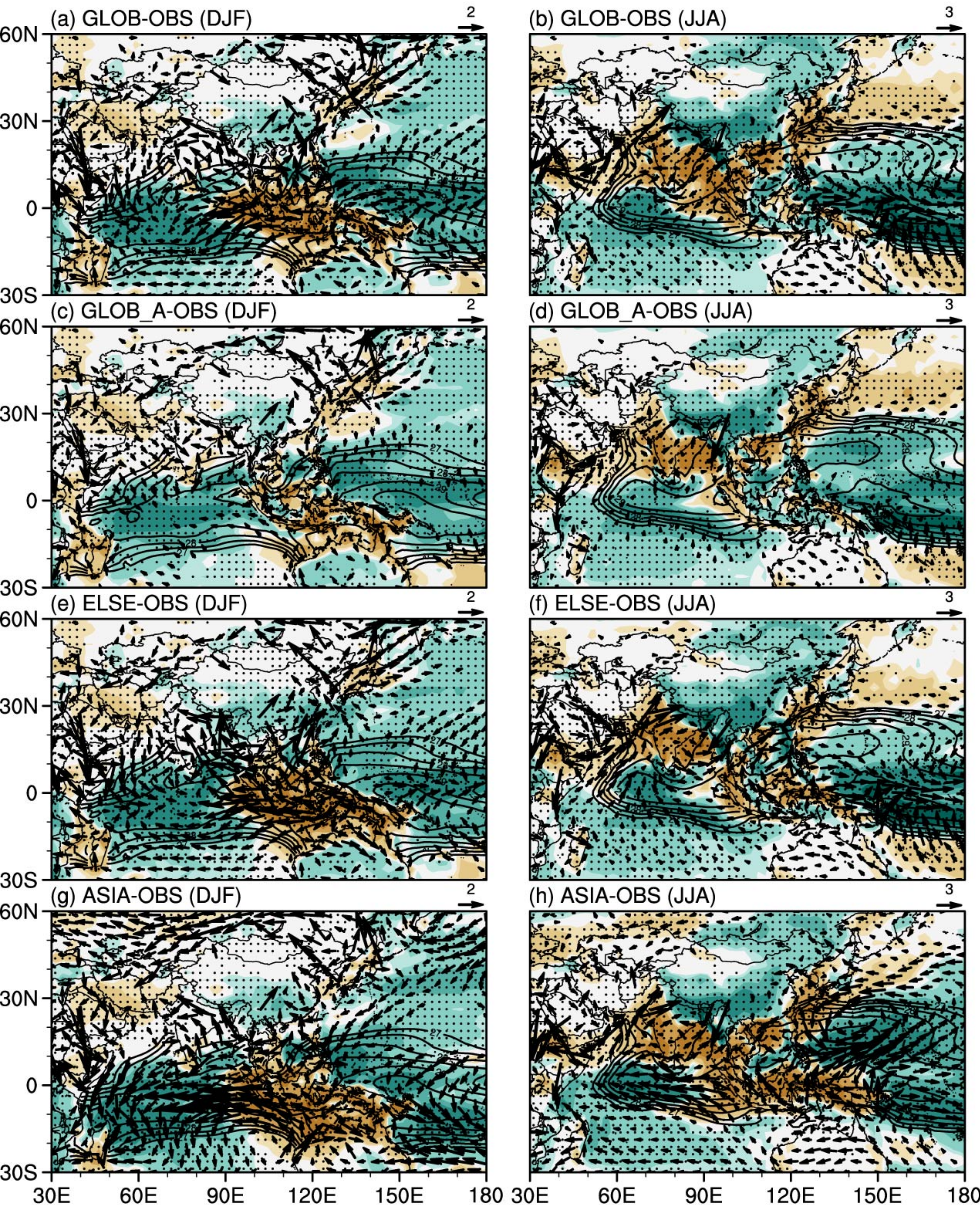


Figure 3.

200-hPa χ & V_χ

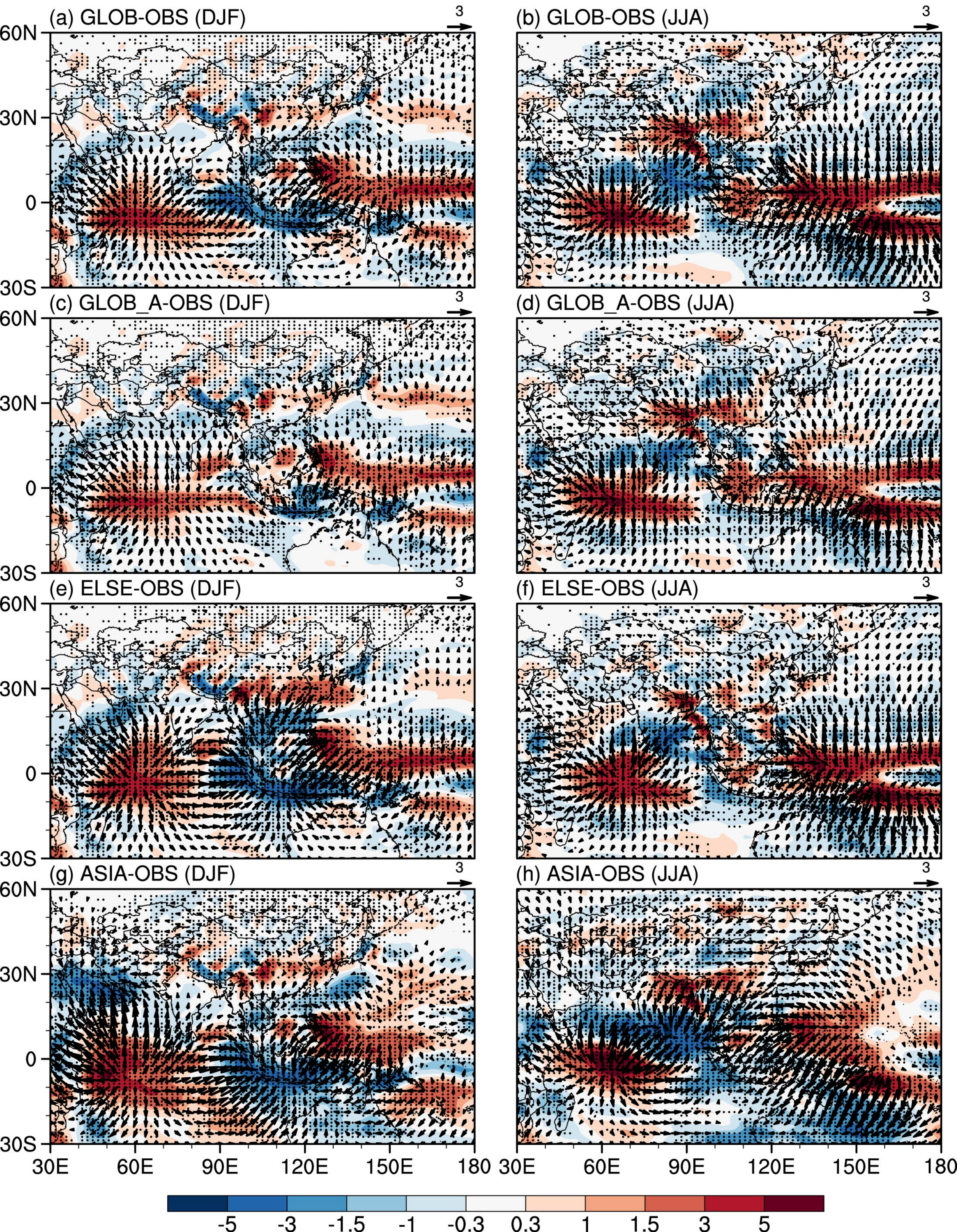


Figure 4.

GLOB_A-GLOB

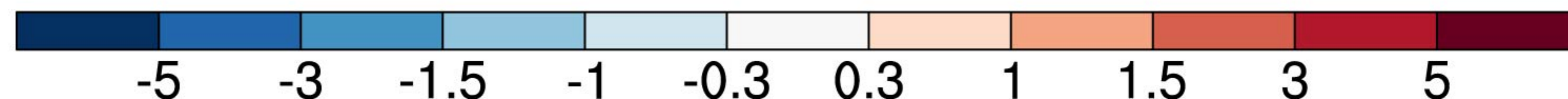
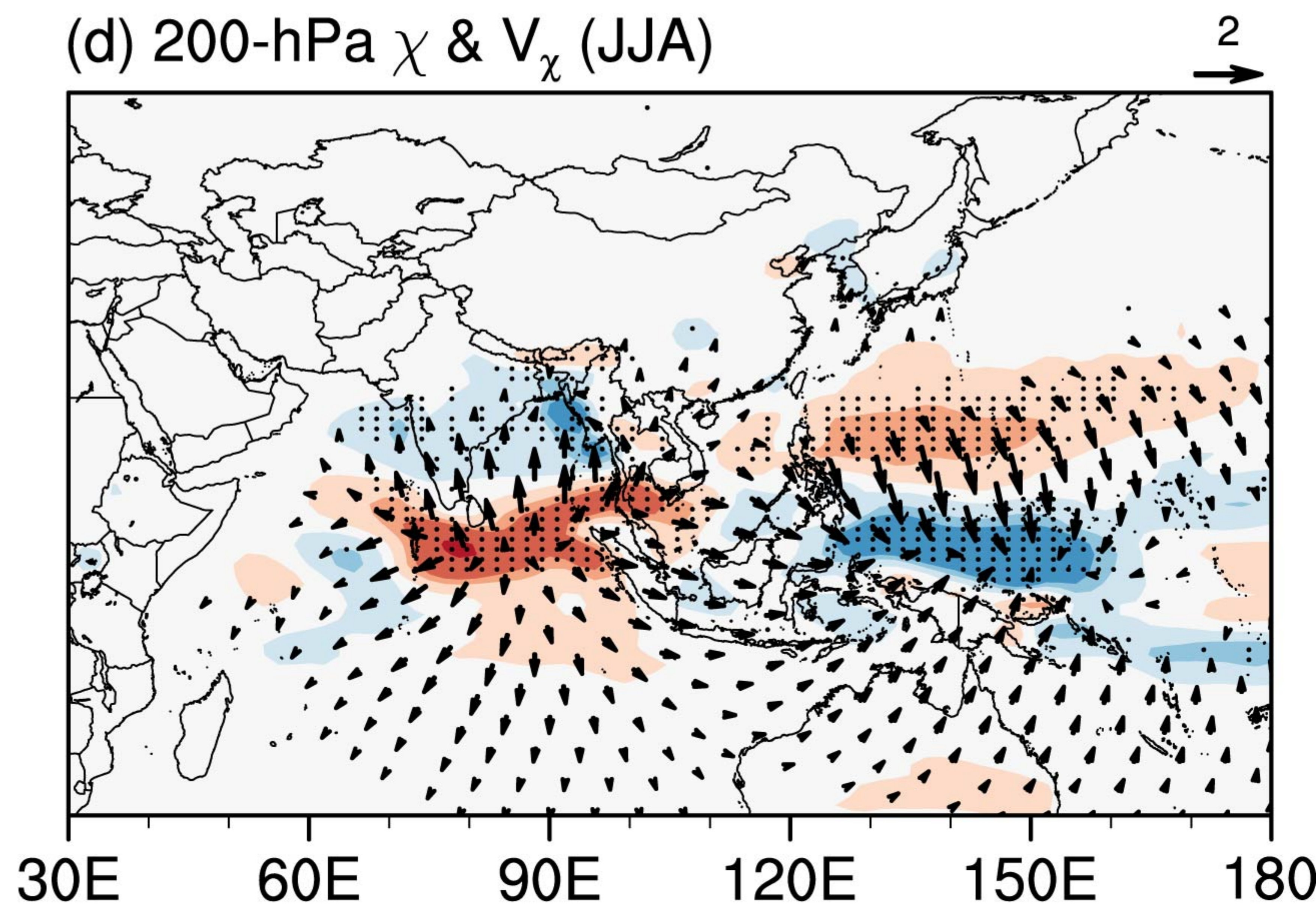
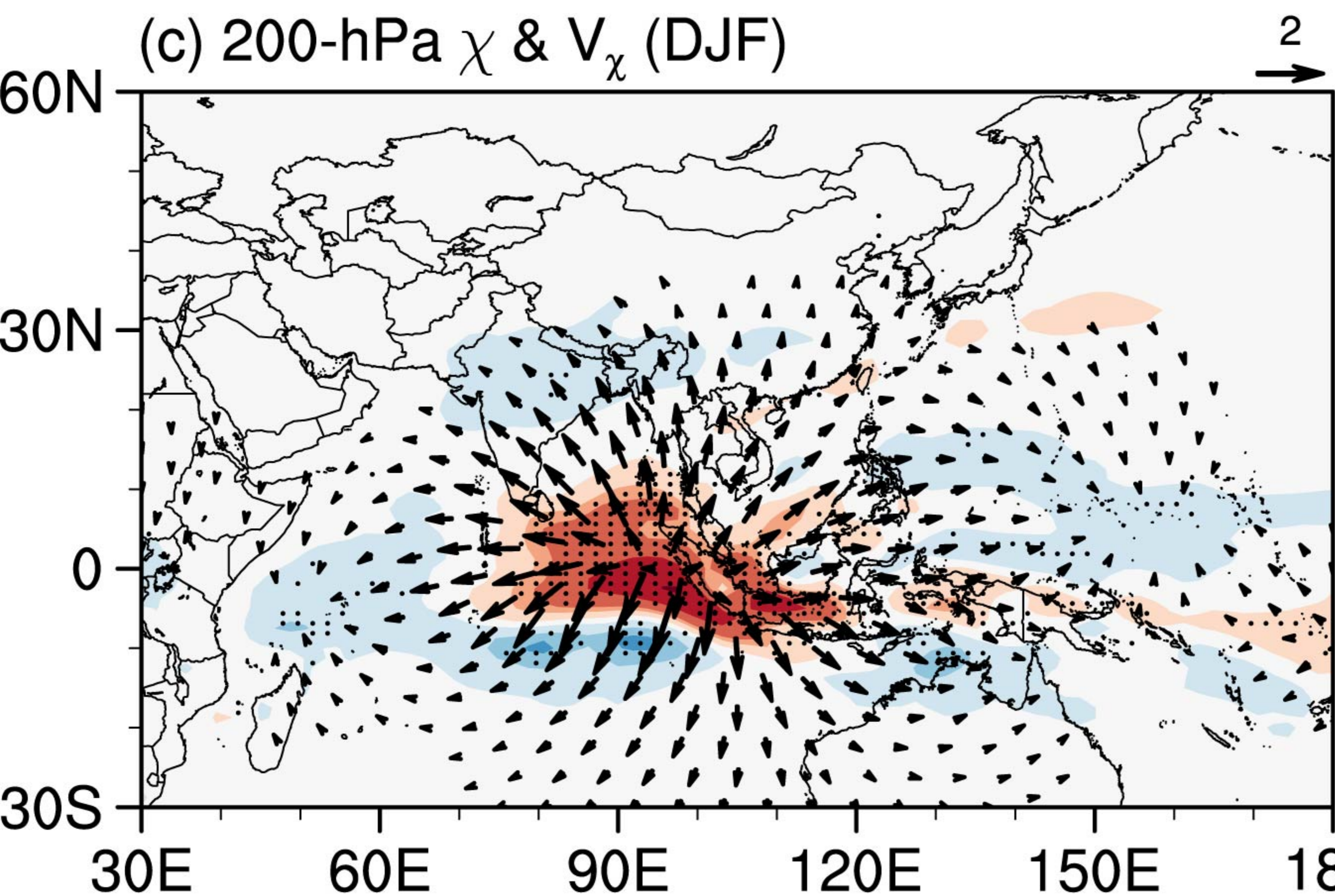
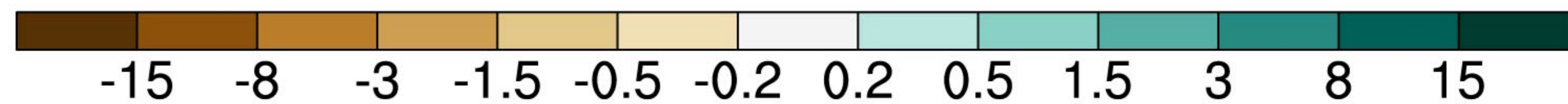
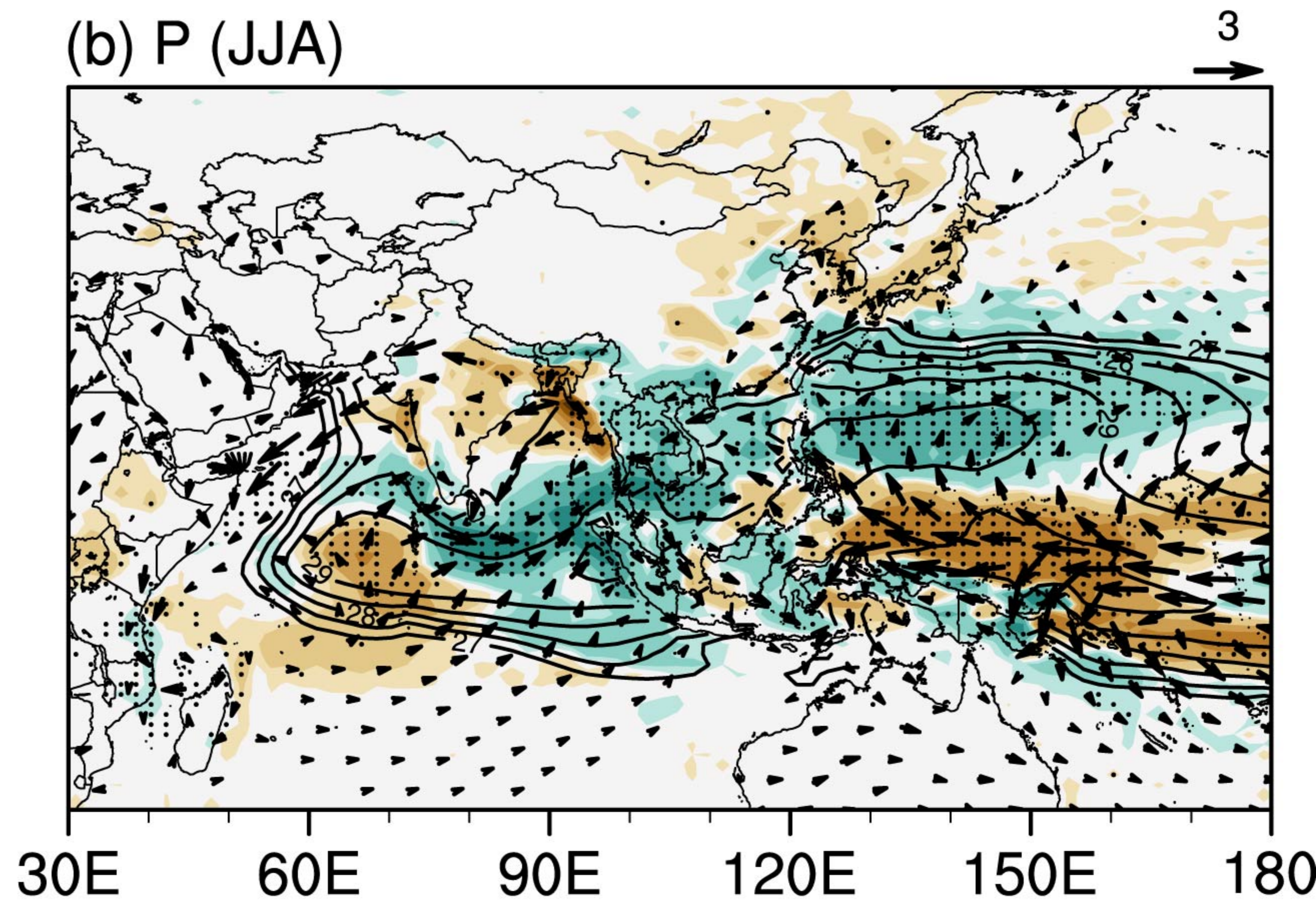
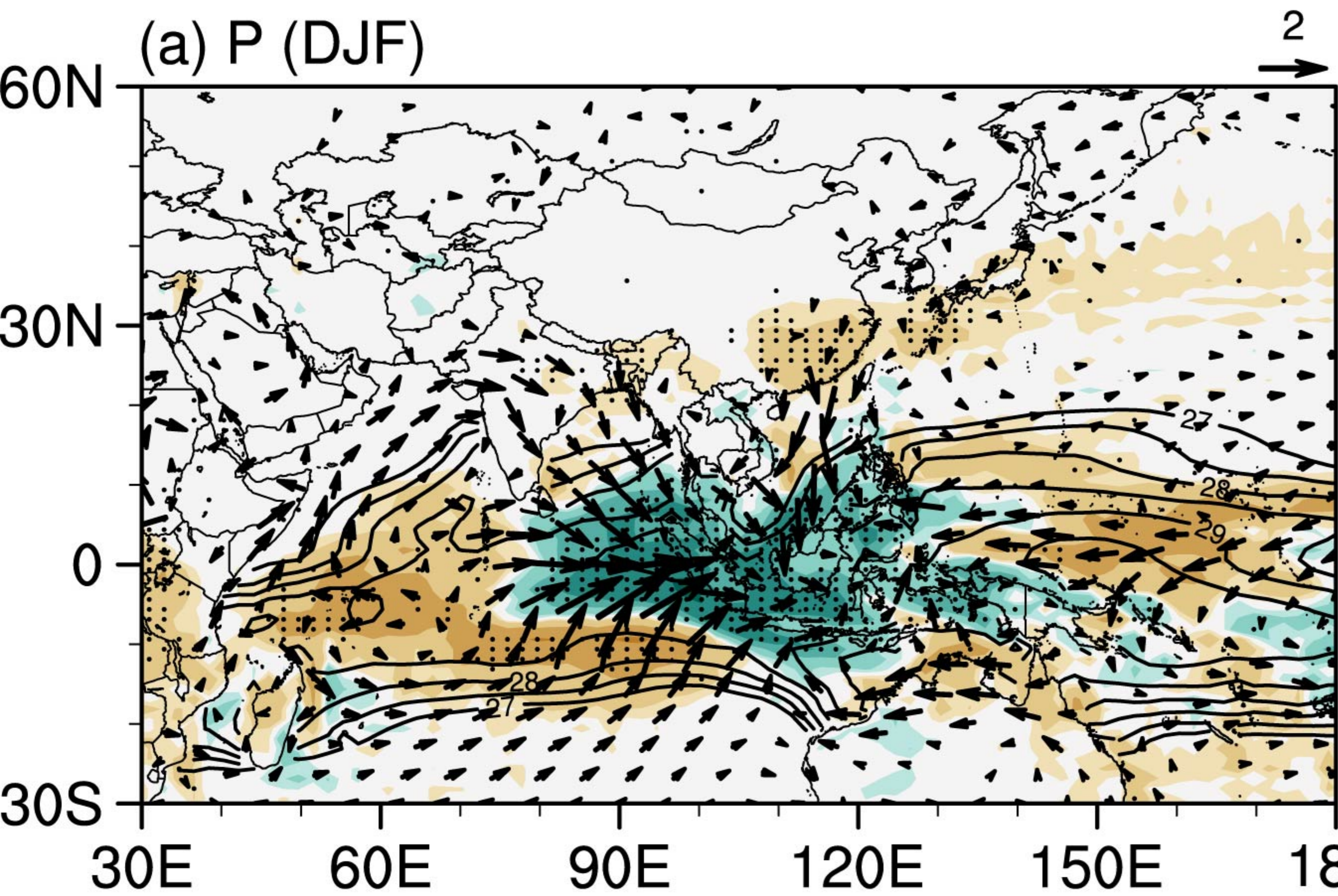


Figure 5.

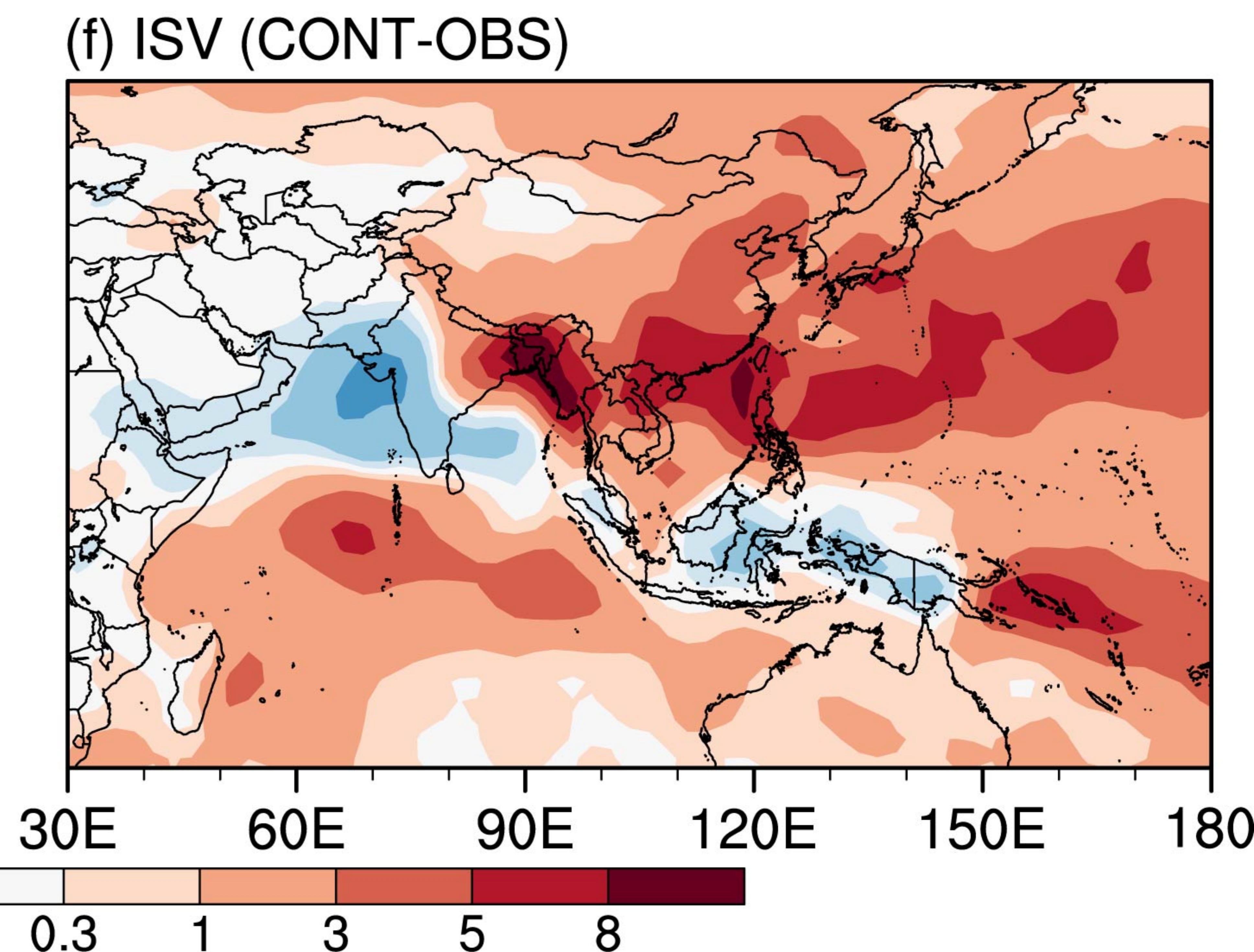
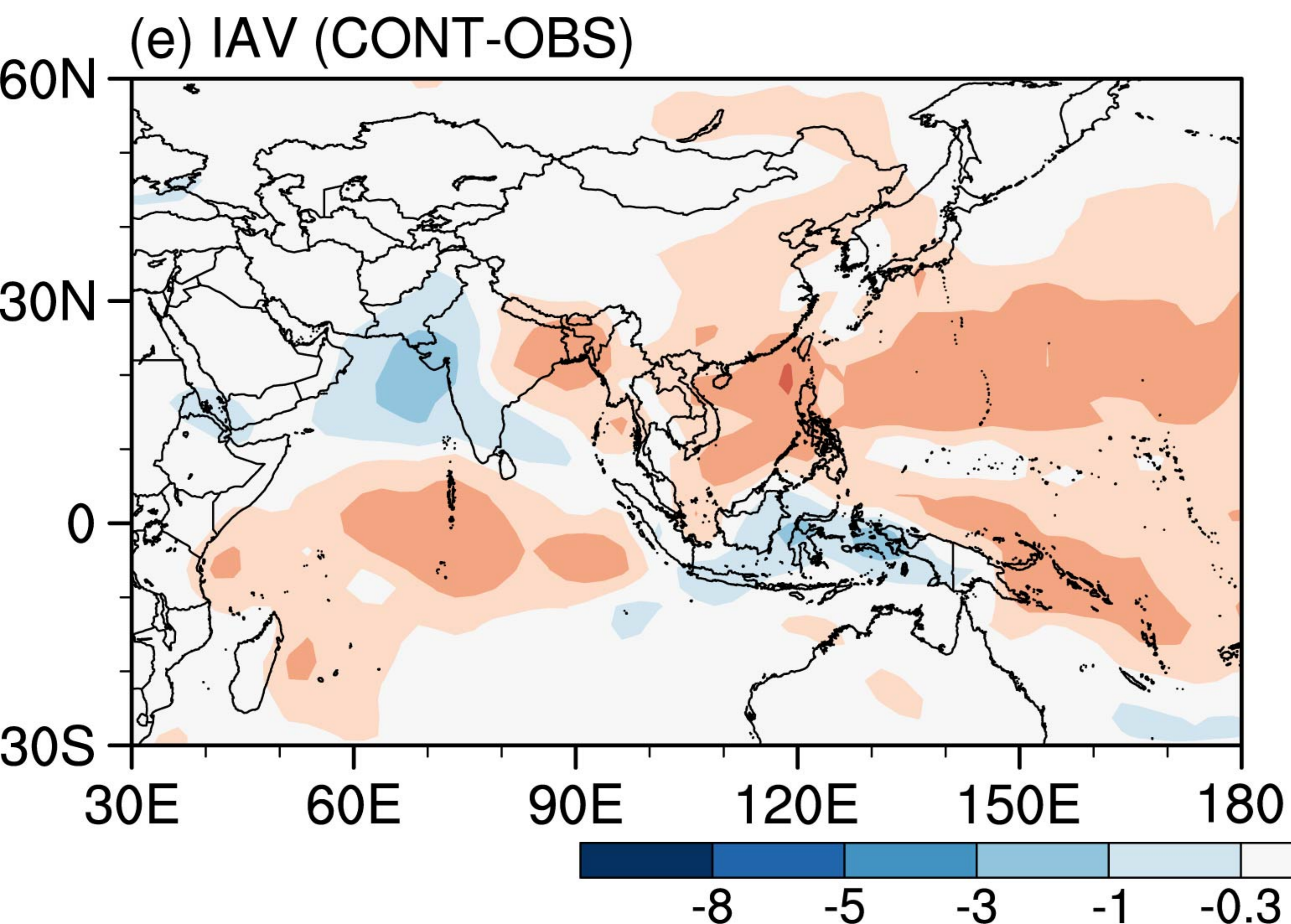
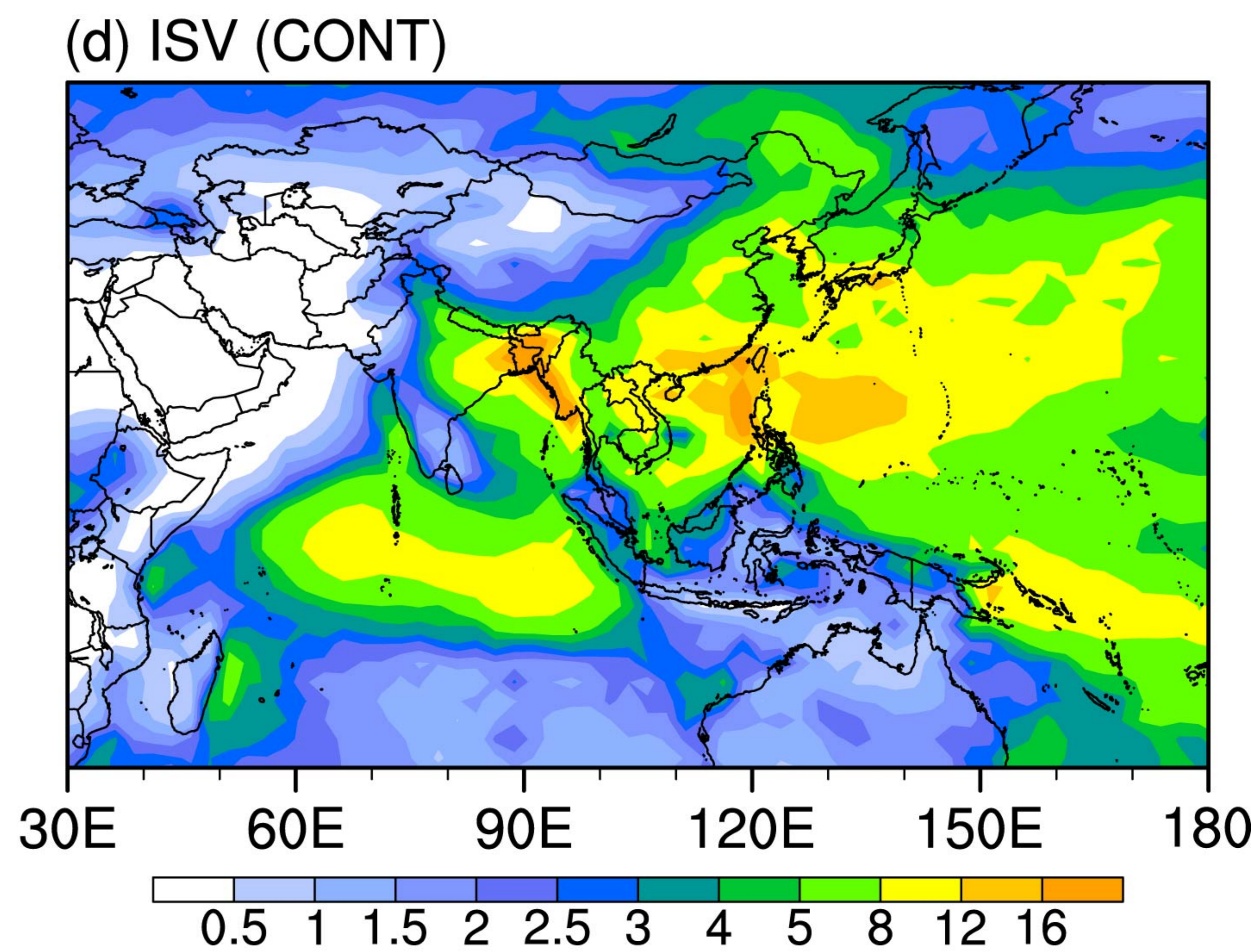
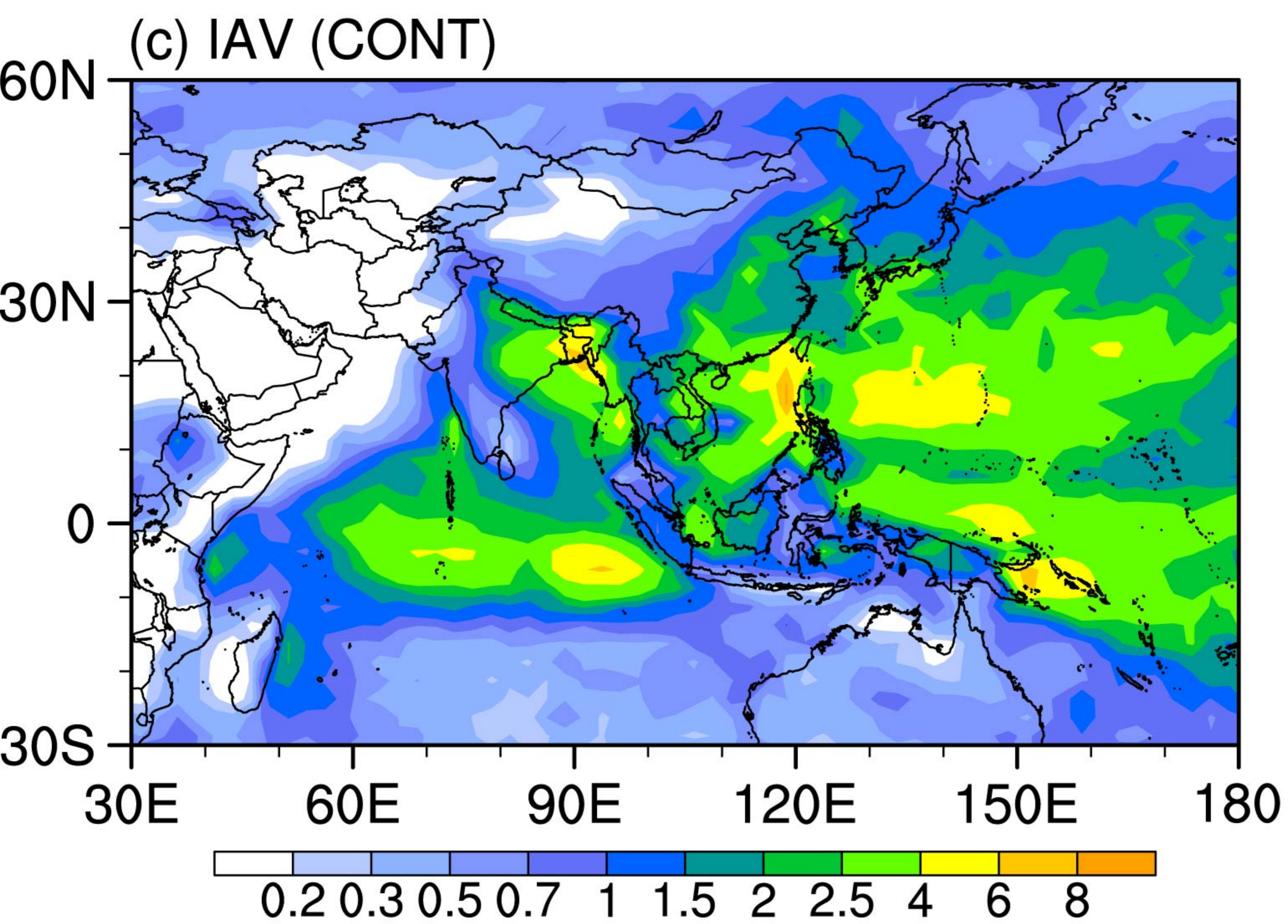
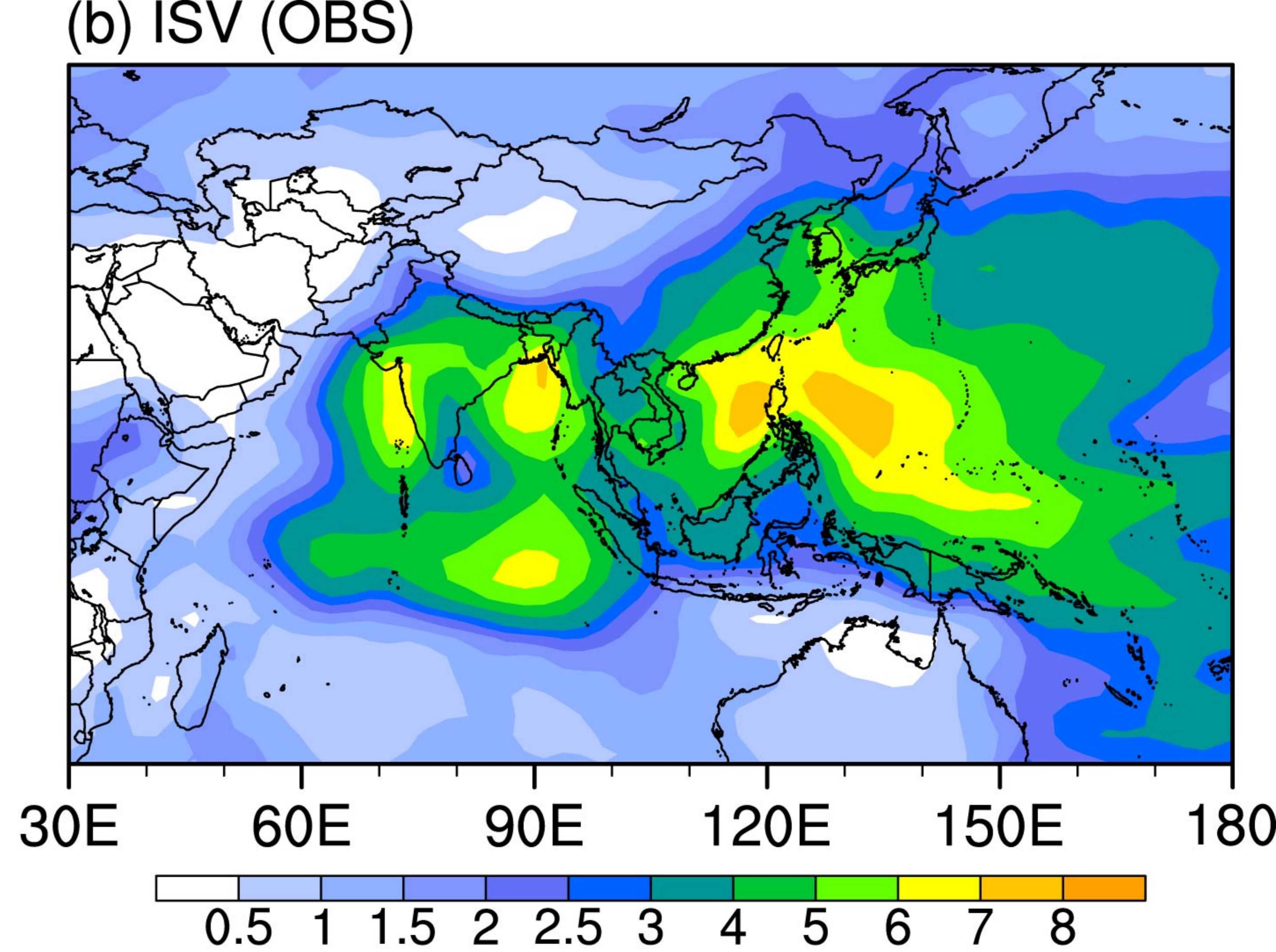
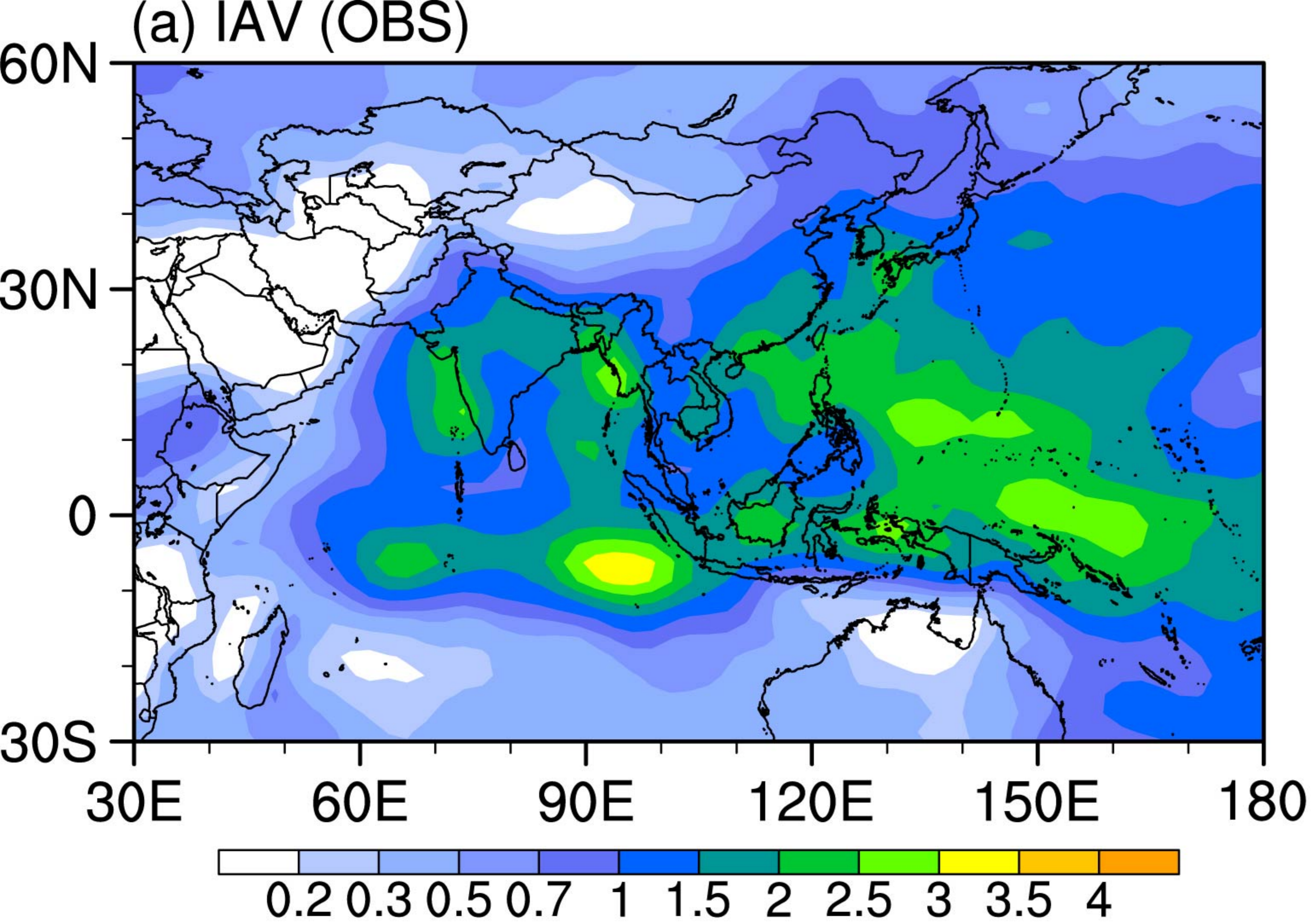


Figure 6.

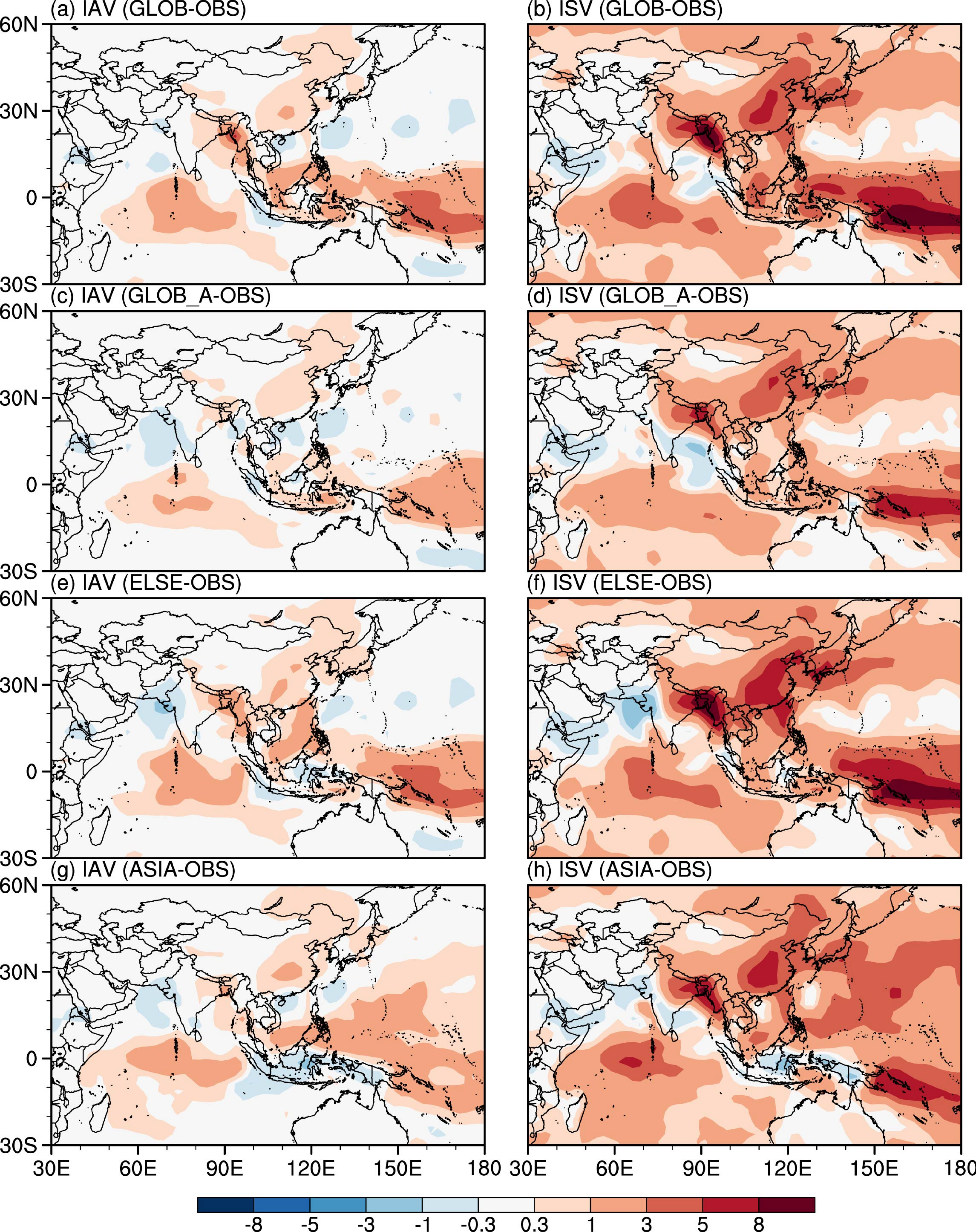


Figure 7.

P reg. onto Nino3.4 (JJA)

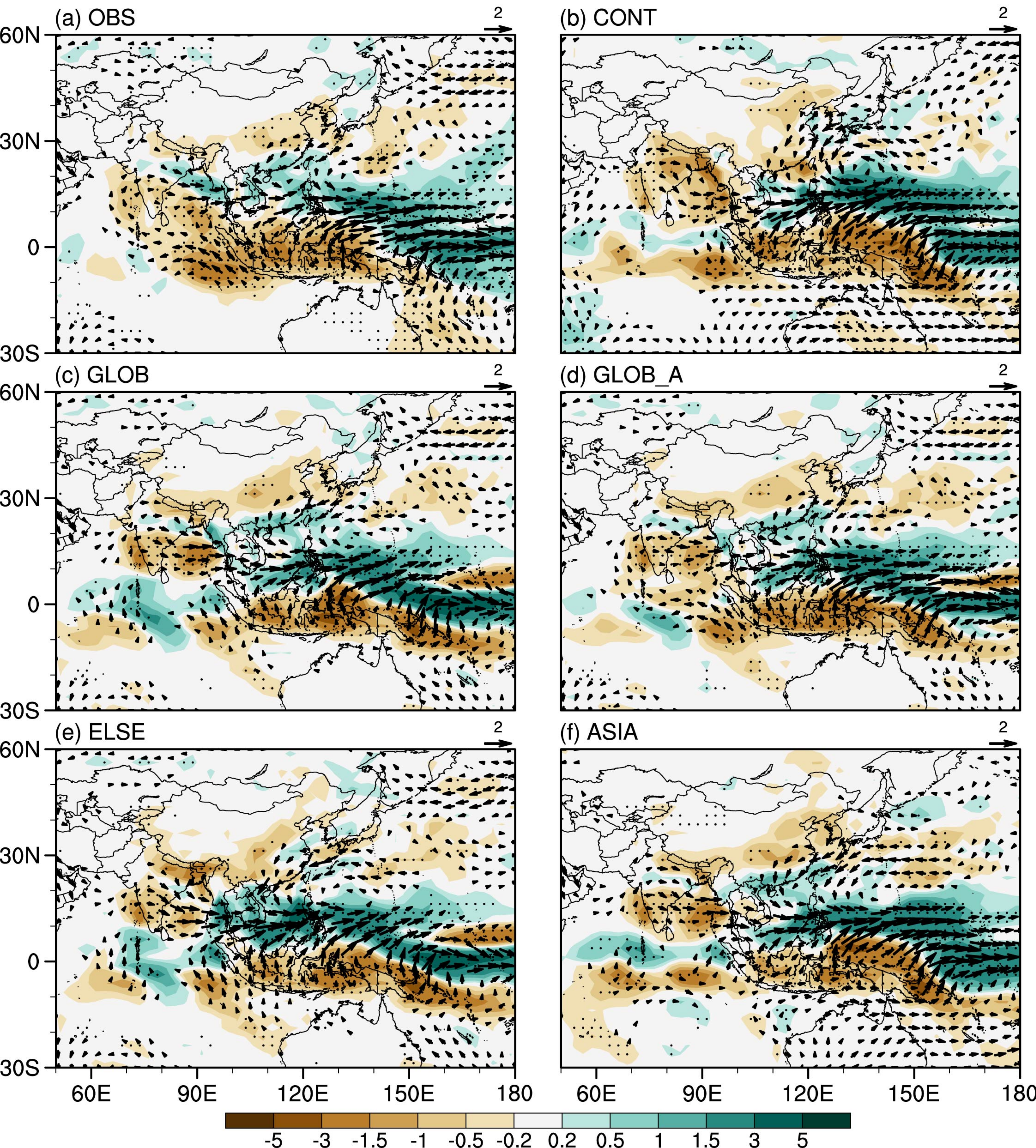
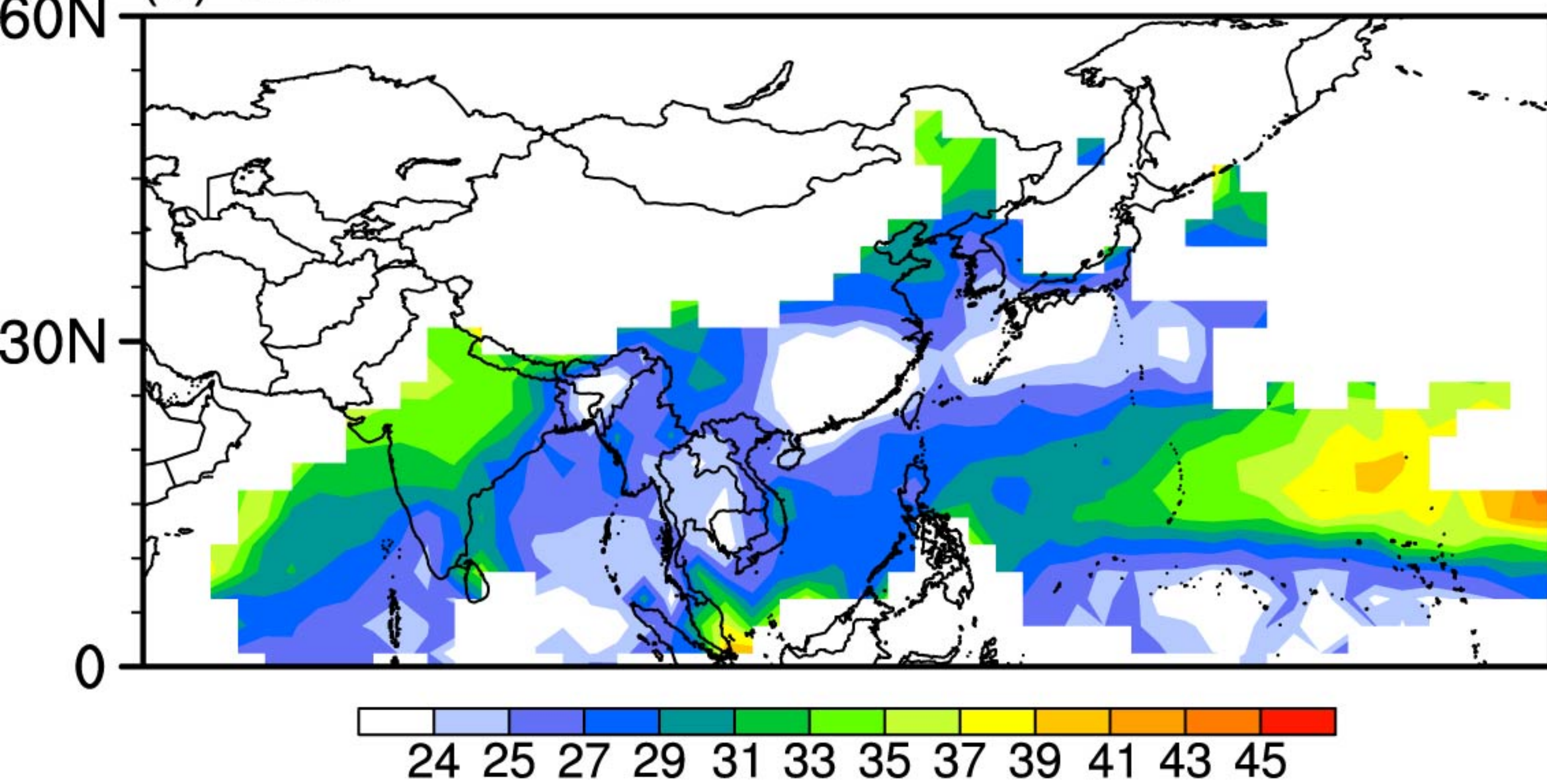


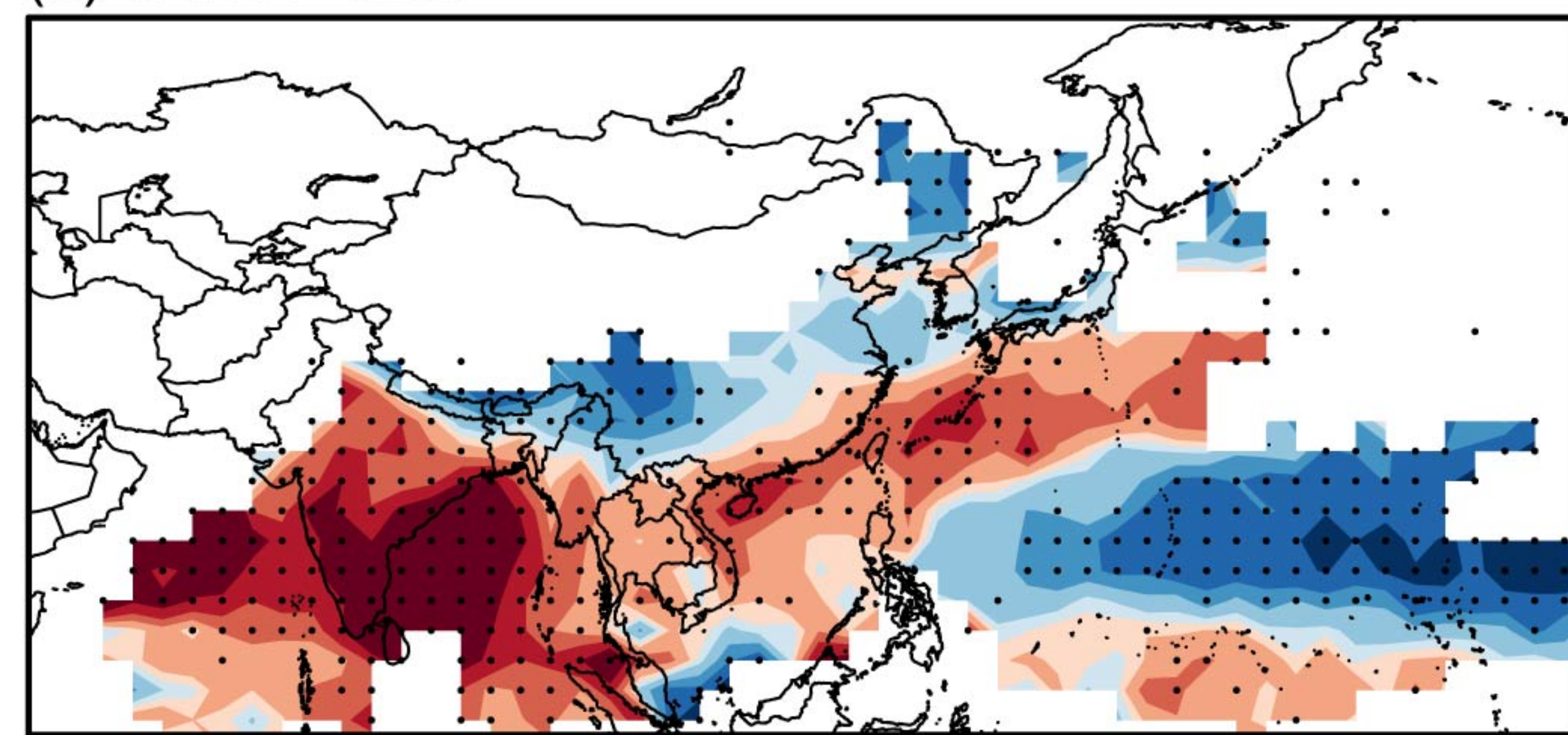
Figure 8.

Monsoon onset

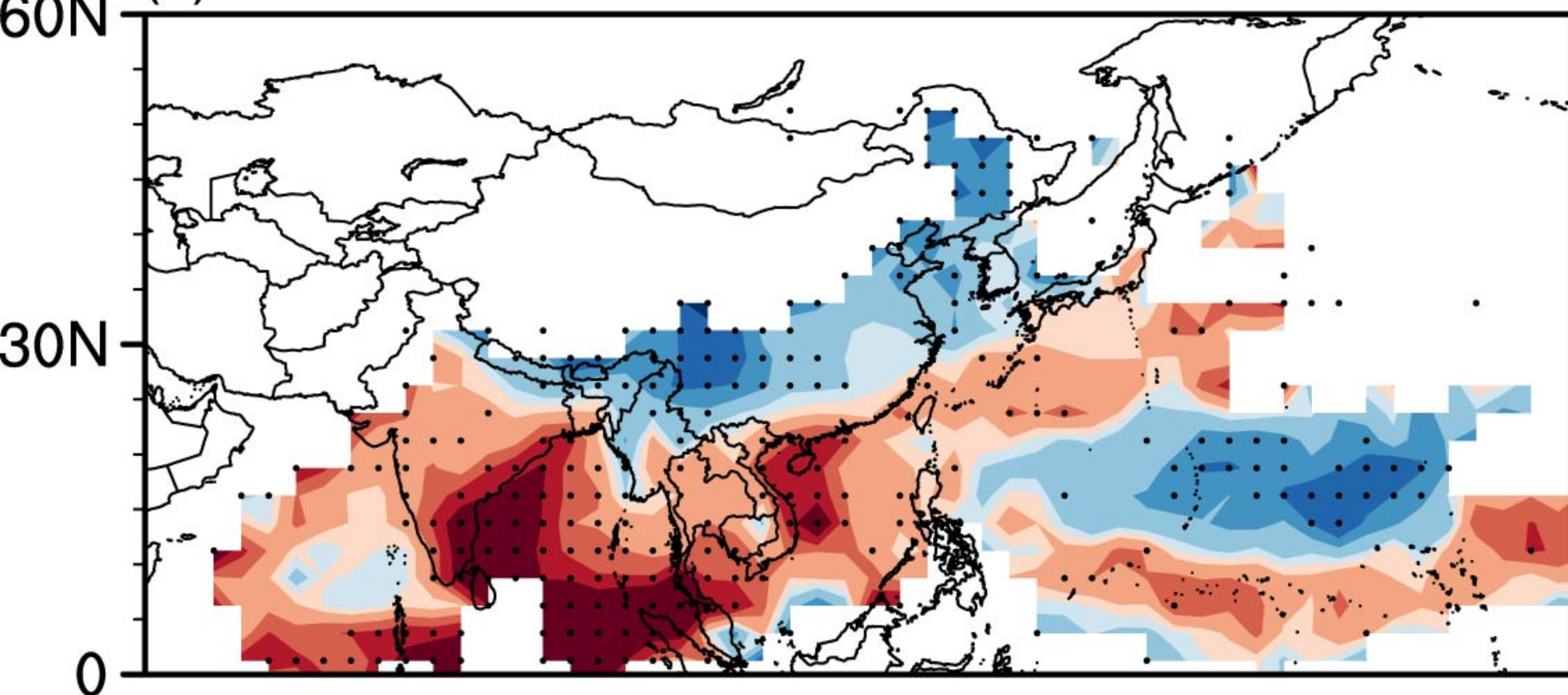
(a) OBS



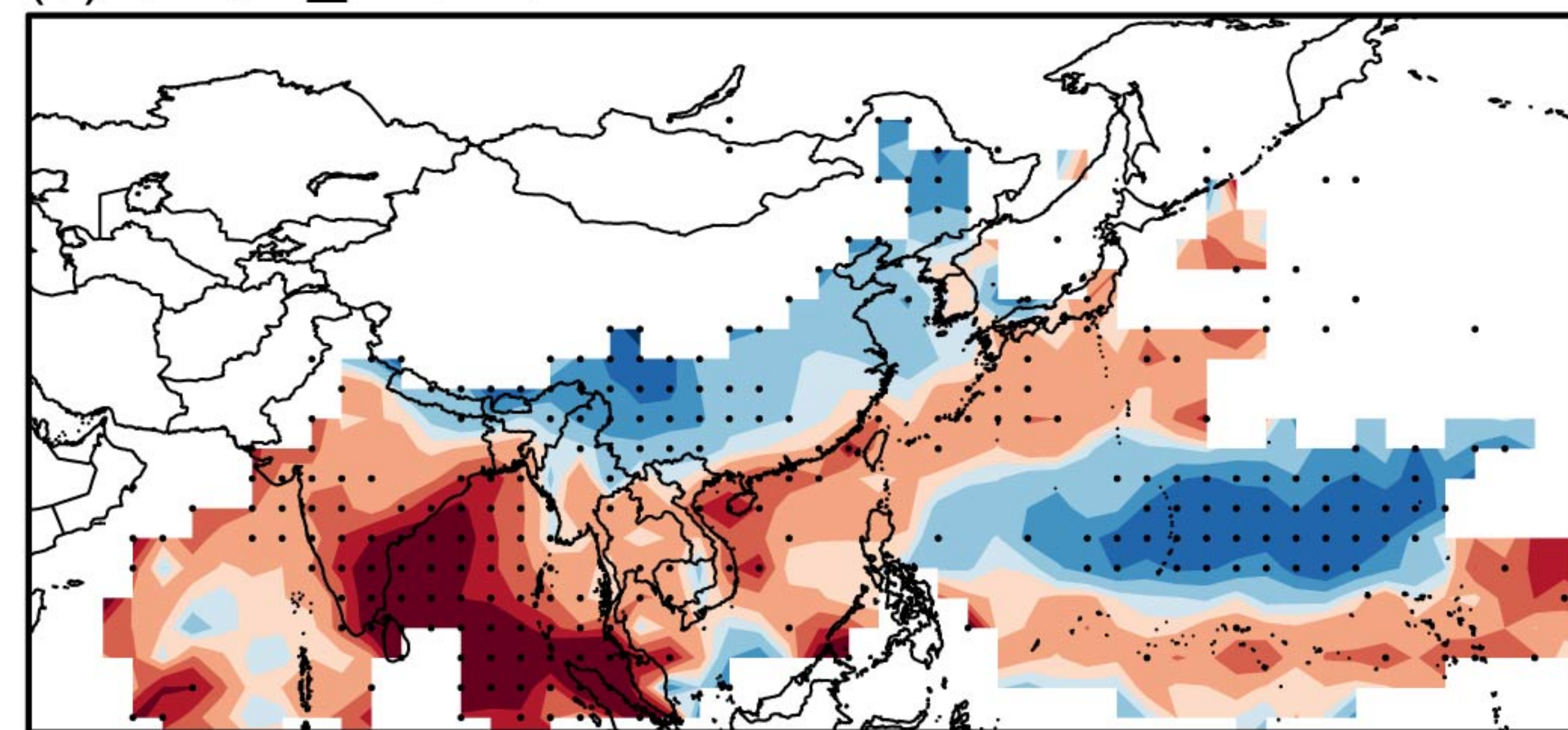
(b) CONT-OBS



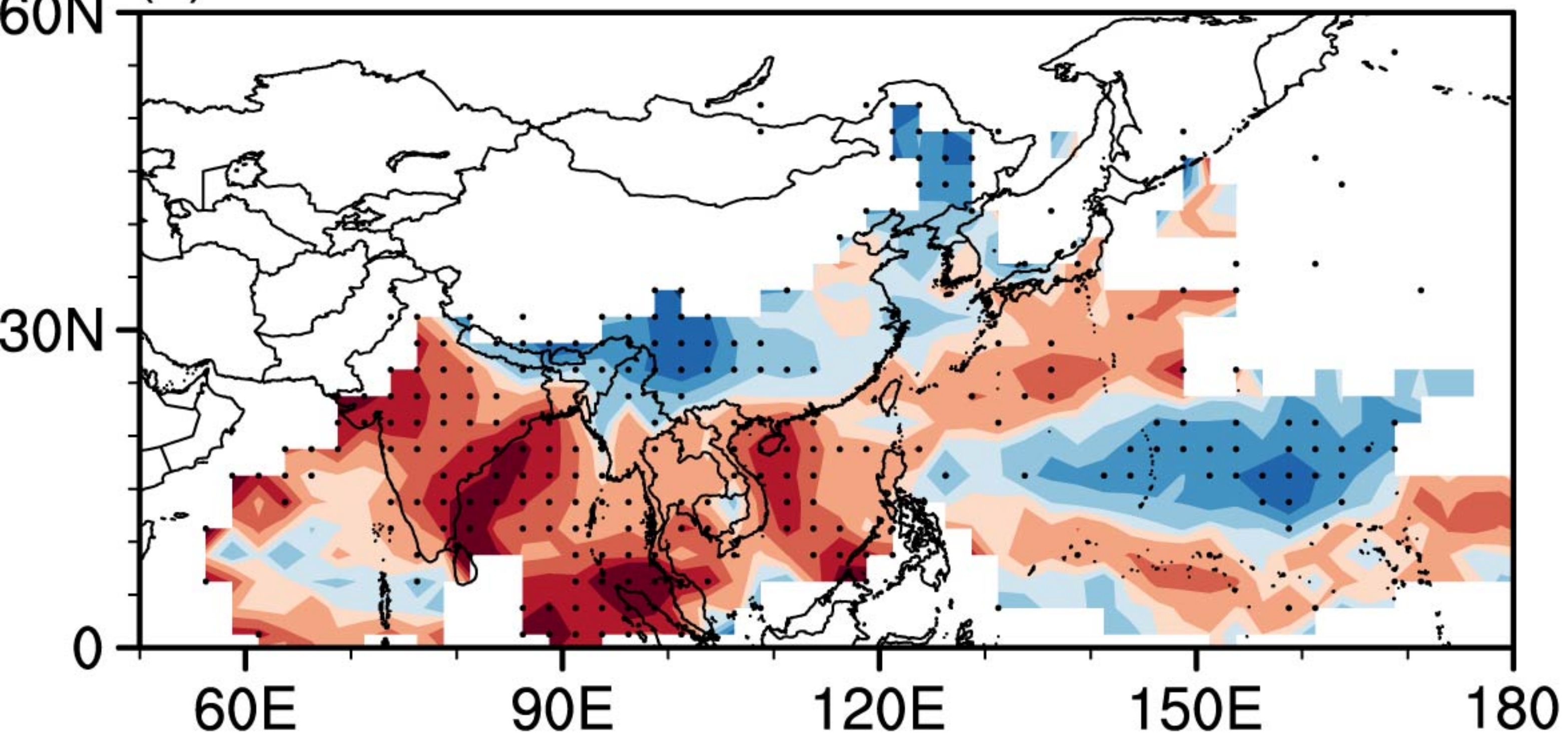
(c) GLOB-OBS



(d) GLOB_A-OBS



(e) ELSE-OBS



(f) ASIA-OBS

