

Forced decadal changes in summer precipitation characteristics over China: the roles of greenhouse gases and anthropogenic aerosols

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1	Forced decadal changes in summer precipitation
2	characteristics over China: the roles of greenhouse gases and
3	anthropogenic aerosols
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8	
9	Abstract
10	We investigated the decadal changes in the different types of summer mean precipitation over
11	China across the mid-1990s based on observational datasets. The spatial variations in the observed
12	decadal changes were estimated by comparing the present day time period of 1994-2011 with an
13	earlier period of 1964-1981. The summer total precipitation increased in southern China and
14	decreased in northern China from the early period to the present day. The increases of precipitation
15	in southern China were due to increases in the frequency of heavy and moderate rainfall, whereas
16	the decreases over northern China were mainly due to decreases in the frequency of moderate and
17	light rainfall. Based on a set of numerical experiments using an atmospheric general circulation
18	model coupled with a multi-level mixed-layer ocean model, we found that the increase of
19	precipitation frequency forced by greenhouses gases is the main reason of increasing precipitation
20	over southern and northeastern China, while the decrease of frequency caused by anthropogenic
21	aerosols induces the decreasing precipitation over northern China. The water vapor flux
22	convergence and water vapor flux strengthens in southern China and northeastern China by
23	anthropogenic greenhouses gases. This distribution is also conductive to precipitation in most of
24	southern China and northeastern China. Under the control of weaken southwesterly winds and 850-

hPa divergence, precipitation decreases over northern and southwestern China by anthropogenicaerosols.

Keywords: decadal changes in precipitation; frequency and intensity; numerical experiments;China

29

30 **1. Introduction**

31 China is located in the Asian monsoon region and precipitation in summer is mainly controlled 32 by the East Asian summer monsoon. A decadal shift occurred in East China in the late 1970s, with 33 more precipitation in the Yangtze River valley and less precipitation in northern China (Wu and 34 Chen 1998; Gong and Ho 2002; Yu et al. 2004; Zhai et al. 2005; Ding et al. 2008; Qian and Qin 2008; 35 Zhao et al. 2010). Summer precipitation over southern China then increased after 1992/1993(Yao et 36 al. 2008; Ding et al. 2009; Wu et al. 2010; Fan et al. 2014; Xu et al. 2015). There have been many 37 studies of the decadal variations in different types of precipitation (Qian and Qin 2008; Wang et al. 2011; Yang and Li 2014; He and Zhai 2018). Under the current conditions of global climate change, 38 39 the amount of heavy precipitation in eastern China has increased (Wang et al. 2011; Yang and Li 40 2014) and the contribution of extreme precipitation to the total amount of precipitation in summer 41 has also increased in most parts of China (Min and Qian 2008; He and Zhai 2018), although 42 precipitation has decreased in central Inner Mongolia and the Sichuan Basin (He and Zhai 2018). 43 The frequency and amount of light rainfall in eastern China have shown decreasing trends since the 44 1950s (Qian et al. 2009; Rajah et al. 2014). 45 Many researchers have investigated the possible causes of changes in precipitation in China

46 (Yu et al. 2004; Yu and Zhou 2007; Zhou et al. 2009). The impact of human activity on changes in

47	precipitation has been studied in some regions, including land at high latitudes in the northern
48	hemisphere (Min and Qian 2008; Wan et al. 2015), South Asia (Bollasina et al. 2011) and East Asia
49	(Ma et al. 2017b). Because variations of the East Asian summer monsoon and related rainfall can
50	be caused by both changes in anthropogenic forcing and natural variability, many previous studies
51	have analysed the relative importance of these variations (Shen et al. 2008; Wang et al. 2012,2013;
52	Song et al. 2014). Some studies have shown that changes in greenhouse gas (GHG) concentrations
53	and anthropogenic aerosol(AA) emissions are the most important factors for the Southern-Flood-
54	Northern-Drought pattern (SFND) (Chen and Sun 2017; Ma et al. 2017b; Wang et al. 2013; Xie et
55	al. 2016; Zhang et al. 2017; Dong et al. 2016; Tian et al. 2018). The amount of precipitation in
56	southern China increases with an increase in GHG concentrations, whereas changes in
57	anthropogenic aerosols dominate the drought conditions in northern China. Forcing by
58	anthropogenic aerosols weakens the East Asian summer monsoon, which leads to divergent wind
59	anomalies and reduced precipitation in northern China (Tian et al.2018). The decrease in light
60	rainfall in recent decades is mainly due to dramatic increases in anthropogenic aerosols (Qian et al.
61	2009; Rosenfeld et al. 2007; Wang et al. 2016). A study by Liu et al. (2015) showed that global
62	climate change rather than aerosol effects is the main reason for the change in the intensity of
63	precipitation in eastern China.
64	A large number of global climate models have projected that climate extremes (such as extreme
65	precipitation and the number of consecutive dry days and extremely hot days) will increase with
66	increases in the concentrations of GHGs and decreases in aerosol emissions (Caesar and Lowe 2012;
67	Kharin et al. 2013; Sillmann et al. 2013a; Zhou et al. 2014). The response of precipitation to global

68 climate change takes two forms: an increase in the total amount of rainfall and an increase in the

rain rates of the heaviest events. Trenberth (1999) explained that this differences meansthat the frequency of precipitation changes toward more heavy rains and a decrease of rainfall frequency. Based on Phase 5 of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP5), Pendergrass and Hartmann (2014a) found that rain rates are increasing with global climate change. Using CAM5 model experiments, Wang et al.(2016) found that dramatic increases in anthropogenic aerosols are the main reason for the observed decrease in light rainfall in eastern China since the 1950s.

75 Most published studies have focused on the decadal variations in extreme and light 76 precipitation and how these are affected by human activity. By contrast, the variations indifferent 77 magnitudes of precipitation, especially the changes in the frequency and intensity of rainfall in 78 recent decades, are still unclear. The individual contributions of changes in GHG concentrations and 79 emissions of anthropogenic aerosols to the recent decadal changes in precipitation have not yet been 80 assessed. Therefore the main aims of this work were:(1) to investigate recent decadal changes in the 81 characteristics of summer precipitation (light, moderate and heavy rainfall), their spatial variation and their contributions to the summer mean precipitation over China; and (2) to quantify the relative 82 83 roles of changes in GHG concentrations and the emission of anthropogenic aerosols in shaping these 84 changes.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows:Section 2 revisits the observed decadal changes of the mean summer precipitation and the characteristics of precipitation over China. Section 3 describes the model and experiments and Section 4 reports the simulated changes in response to different changes in anthropogenic forcing. Section 5 describe the initial physical processes of simulating precipitation changes through different anthropogenic forcings, such as GHG concentrations and AA emissions. Finally, a summary and discussion are summarized in Section 6.

2. Observed decadal changes in precipitation characteristics over China

93 2.1 Observational datasets

The daily rainfall data used in this study were selected from the daily rainfall datasets of 2474 stations in China from 1960 to 2013 provided by the National Meteorological Information Center, China Meteorological Administration (Ren et al. 2012). As a result of the construction and removal of individual stations during this time period, 1361 stations were finally included in this study (Fig.2a). The summer mean precipitation refers to the mean precipitation from June to August.

99 2.2 Definition

Because there are many different types of climate in China, the absolute precipitation threshold cannot be used to distinguish the type of precipitation. A percentile value was therefore used to determine the threshold of different types of precipitation. The two relative thresholds of three different types of precipitation on each calendar day for each station were calculated during the baseline period of 1964–1981.The first threshold was the 90th percentile and the second was the 60th percentile of precipitation.

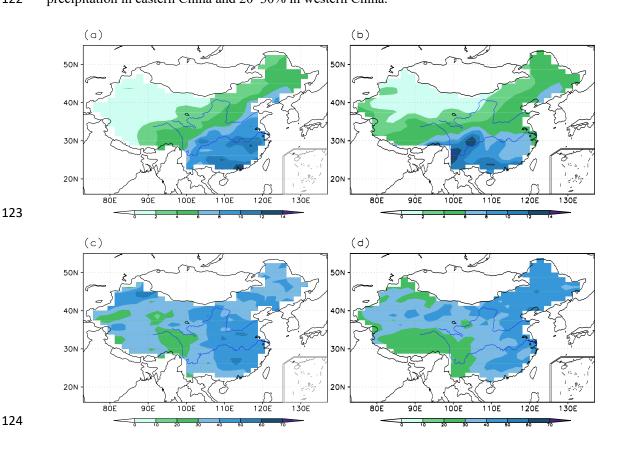
Daily precipitation in China was divided into three types: (1) heavy precipitation (i.e.,
precipitation above the 90th percentile); (2) moderate precipitation (i.e., precipitation between the
90th and 60th percentiles); and (3) light precipitation (i.e., precipitation below the 60th percentile).
Summer precipitation and its characteristics were studied based on the frequency, intensity and
number of dry days. A dry day was defined as a day with daily precipitation <1 mm. The frequency

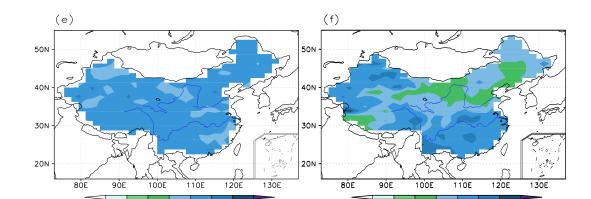
111 was defined as the cumulative number of days in a certain category of precipitation in the summer

of one year. The corresponding intensity was calculated from the average intensity of all events.

113 2.3 Observed decadal change

114 Figure 1a, 1c, 1e and 1g show the spatial distribution of the annual average summer 115 precipitation and the contribution of heavy, moderate and light rainfall, respectively, to the 116 observations during the period from 1994 to 2011.Influenced by the East Asian summer monsoon, 117 summer precipitation in China is mainly concentrated in southeastern China, while the precipitation in northwestern China is less than that in southeastern China. Heavy rainfall accounts for about 40-118 50% of summer precipitation in eastern China and about 20-40% in western China (Fig. 1c). 119 120 Moderate rainfall accounts for about 40-50% of summer precipitation (Fig. 1e), whereas the 121 contribution of light rainfall is in the form of west more and east less and accounts for <20% of precipitation in eastern China and 20-30% in western China. 122





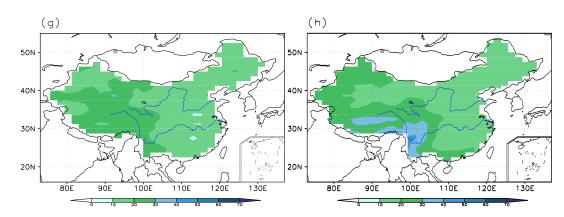


Fig. 1.(a,b)Summer (June, July, August) seasonal mean precipitation (mm day⁻¹) in the observations and model
simulations for the present day (1994–2011).(c, d) Percentage contribution of heavy,(e, f) moderate and (g, h)
light rainfall to the seasonal mean precipitation in the observations and models simulations.



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131 To show the temporal and decadal variation in summer precipitation, we defined summer precipitation indexes for northern (105°E-120°E,35°N-45°N) and southern (105°E-120°E,20°N-132 35°N) China as the same two regions reported by Tian et al. (2018).Fig.2a shows the station 133 134 distribution in China. The total summer precipitation over southern China was about548.6 mm 135 during the early period and increased to 612.4 mm during the present day period (Fig.2b). The decadal increase in the total summer precipitation over southern China is a result of contributions 136 137 from increases in both heavy and moderate precipitation, whereas there is a decrease in the contribution from light precipitation. The total summer precipitation over northern China (Fig. 2c) 138 139 in the early period is about 268.2 mm, which reduces to 254.1 mm during the present day period. 140 The decadal decrease in precipitation in north China is mainly a result of the decrease in light rainfall;

141 the change in moderate and heavy rainfall is not significant in this area (Fig. 2c).

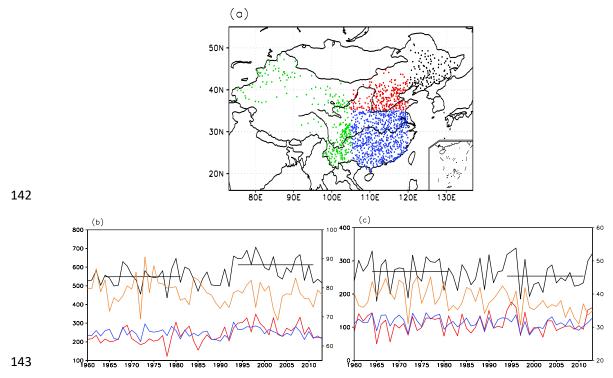
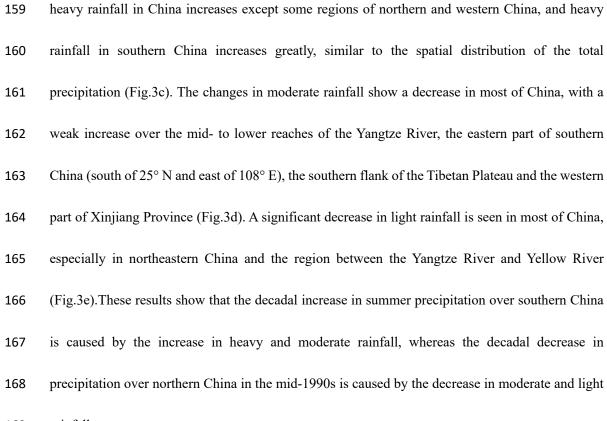


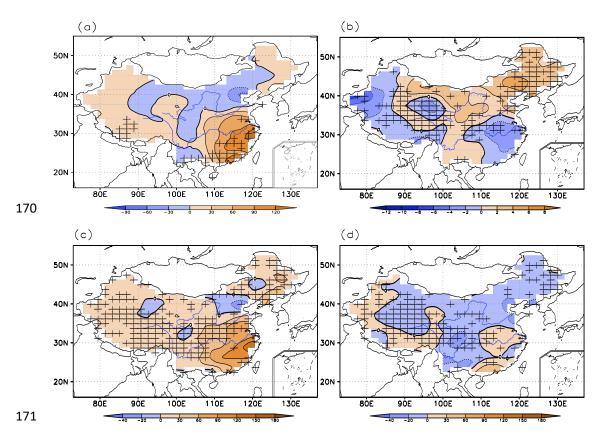
Fig.2. (a) Distribution of stations in the observational dataset. The green, red, black and blue dots represent the subregions of western, northern, northeastern and southern China, respectively. Time series of the area-averaged total summer precipitation (mm) based on observations over southern (b) and northern China (c), respectively. The black line is total rainfall (left-handy-axis), the red line is heavy rainfall (left-handy-axis), the blue line is moderate rainfall (left-handy-axis) and the orange line is light rainfall (right-handy-axis). The two black horizontal bars indicate the present day (1994–2011) and early period (1964–1981) rainfall.

151	Fig.3 shows the spatial distribution of the decadal changes in total summer precipitation, the
152	number of dry days and the contribution of heavy, moderate and light rainfall in China across the
153	mid-1990s in the observational dataset. Precipitation increased in southern China and decreased in
154	northern China. This pattern is named as SFND pattern across the mid- 1990s (Fig.3a). The spatial
155	distribution of the number of dry days shows that northern and southwestern China show opposite
156	changes, whereas southern China show a downward trend, indicating that the change in the number
157	of dry days contributes to the change in the total summer precipitation in the mid-1990s (Fig.3b).
158	According to the spatial distribution of the decadal variations in the three types of precipitation,

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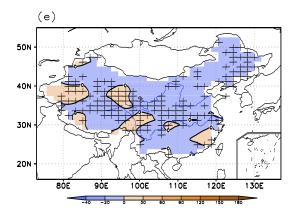
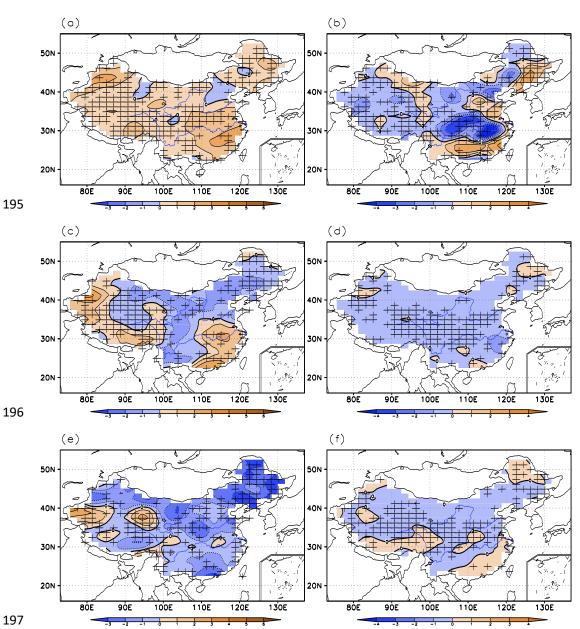




Fig.3. Spatial patterns of the differences in precipitation between the present day (1994–2011) and the early period
(1964–1981) in summer. (a) Total precipitation (mm), (b) number of dry days (days) and contribution (mm) of (c)
heavy, (d)moderate and (e)light rainfall in the observational dataset. The grid highlight regions where the differences
are statistically significant at the 90% level using a two-tailed Student t-test.

178 Fig.4 shows the spatial pattern of the decadal variations in the frequency and intensity of 179 three types of precipitation over China in the mid-1990s in the observational dataset. The main 180 characteristics are that the frequency of heavy rainfall increases and the frequency of light rainfall 181 decreases over most of China (Fig. 4a and 4e). The frequency of moderate rainfall increases in southern China, the western part of Xinjiang province and most part of Tibetan Plateau, whereas it 182 decreases in northern, northeastern China, and the region between 100°E and 110°E (Fig. 4c). The 183 184 intensity of heavy rainfall increases in the southern part of southern China and the eastern part of 185 Yellow-Huai River and northeastern China, and decreases in most other areas (Fig. 4b). The intensity of moderate rainfall shows little change except in the central part of eastern China (Fig. 186 187 4d). The variation in the intensity of light rainfall in China is very weak (Fig. 4f). 188 These results show that the frequency and intensity of the three types of precipitation vary in different regions of China. The similarity between the frequency distribution of the three types of 189 190 precipitation and the contribution of different kinds of precipitation to summer precipitation shows

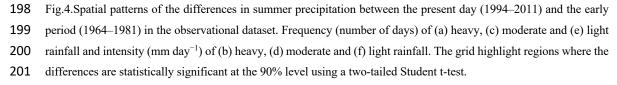
191 that the changes in frequency of the three types of precipitation dominate the overall change in



summer rainfall over northern China is the decrease in the frequency of moderate and light rainfall.

summer precipitation. The frequency increase of heavy and moderate rainfall over southern China

is mainly due to the increase of total rainfall. By contrast, the main reason for the decrease of



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These observational analyses show the changes in the three types of precipitation over China

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with respect to their frequency, intensity and their contributions to the change in the summer seasonal mean precipitation over different regions of China across the mid-1990s. The increasing frequency of heavy and moderate rainfall is the main reasons for the increase of precipitation over southern China. The main reason for the decrease of precipitation in northern China is the decrease of the frequency of moderate and light rainfall. We carried out a series of numerical experiments to solve this question to determine the driving factors for these decadal changes in precipitation over China.

3 Model, experimental design and model climatology

212 3.1 Model and experiment design

213 The atmospheric-ocean mixed-layer coupled model MetUM-GOM1 (Hirons et al. 2015) was 214 used to assess the contribution of changes in GHG emissions and anthropogenic aerosols together 215 or individually to the decadal variations in precipitation in China through a set of numerical 216 experiments. MetUM-GOML1 is a near-globally-coupled atmosphere-ocean-mixed-layer model. The coupled model comprise the Met Office Unified Model (MetUM) Global Atmosphere, version 217 218 3 (Hewitt et al. 2011; Walters et al. 2011) coupled to the Multi-Column K-profile parameterization (MC-KPP) mixed layer ocean model. The resolution in current study is 1.875° longitude and 1.25° 219 220 latitude with 85 vertical layers, the model lid is at 850 km. Details about the MetUM-GOML1model 221 and the numerical experiments (Table 1) have been reported previously by Su and Dong (2019). 222 Firstly, we perform a relaxation experiment (R0) for 12 years, in which the present day (PD,1994-223 2011) greenhouses gases (GHG) and anthropogenic aerosols (AA) forcings are used and the ocean 224 temperature and salinity were relaxed to a PD climatology, which is derived from the Met Office ocean analysis (Smith and Murphy 2007). Using different forcings, four other time-sliced 225

226	experiments are performed, that is, the C-EP experiment conducted using mean GHG			
227	concentrations and AA emissions from 1964 to 1981 (EP), the C-PD-GHG experiment forced by			
228	the mean GHG concentrations during the period from 1994 to 2011 (PD), the appropriate EP mean			
229	AA emissions, and the C-PD-AA experiment forced by the PD mean AA emissions, the EP mean			
230	GHG concentrations. All experiments are run for 50 years and use the climatological PD sea ice			
231	extent from HadISST (Rayner et al. 2003). The last 45 years of each experiment are used for analysis.			
232	The same set of experiments were used to study the forcing changes of summer precipitation in East			
233	Asiaby Tian et al. (2018), the decadal changes in temperature extremes over China by Chen and			
234	Dong (2018) and the decadal changes in heatwaves by Su and Dong (2019). We used the same			
235	model and numerical experiments to study the decadal changes in precipitation over China.			

Table 1 Summary of numerical experiments. Abbreviations: AA, anthropogenic aerosols; EP, early
 period; GHG, greenhouse gas; PD, present day.

Abbreviation	Experiment	Ocean	Radiative forcing
R0	Relaxation run	Relax to PD mean 3D	Relax to PD
		ocean temperature	greenhouse gases
		and salinity to	over PD and
		diagnose	anthropogenic aerosol
		climatological	emissions over 1994-
		temperature and	2010 with GHG and
		salinity tendencies	AA after 2006 from
			RCP4.5 scenario
CEP	Early period	Climatological	EP mean GHG and EP
		temperature and	mean AA emissions
CPD	Present day with	salinity flux	PD mean GHG and
	GHG and AA forcing	tendencies from	PD mean AA
		relaxation run	emissions
CPDGHG	Present day with		PD mean GHG and
	GHG forcing		EP mean AA
			emissions
CPDAA	Present day with AA		EP mean GHG and
	forcing		PD mean AA
			emissions

240 The heavy, moderate and light rainfall in the experiments were defined in the same way as in 241 the observational dataset and the relative thresholds were calculated as the daily 90th and 60th 242 percentiles of precipitation based on the last 45 years of the CEP experiment. A pair of experiments 243 contains and excludes a specific forcings, and the difference between the two experiments represents the response to the compulsion. The difference between the CPD and CEP experiments shows the 244 245 combined influence of changes in both GHG concentrations and the emission of anthropogenic 246 aerosols (hereafter referred to as ALL forcing). The influence of greenhouse gas concentration change (hereinafter referred to as GHG forcing) is the difference between cpdghg and CEP models, 247 248 while the impact of anthropogenic aerosol emission change (hereinafter referred to as AA forcing) 249 is the difference between cpdaa and CEP models.

250 3.2 Model climatology

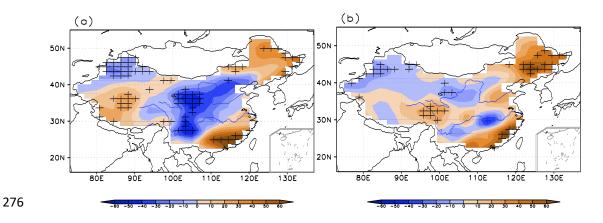
251 Fig.1(b,d,f,h) shows the simulated summer precipitation and the contributions of the three 252 types of precipitation to the summer seasonal mean values in the present day simulation. The main feature of the summer precipitation simulated by the model is that there is more precipitation over 253 254 southern China and less precipitation over northwestern China (Fig. 1b), with heavy rainfall 255 accounting for 30-40% of summer precipitation over large areas of eastern China and accounting 256 for about 10-30% of summer precipitation over western China (Fig. 1d). Moderate rainfall explains 257 about 50-60% of summer precipitation. This contribution is about 10% higher than in the 258 observational dataset and 10% higher than the contribution from heavy precipitation in the model simulation (Fig. 1c, 1d, 1e and 1f). The contribution from light precipitation shows the form of west 259 260 more and east less that accounts for<20% of summer precipitation in eastern China and 20–30% over western China, which is similar to the observational dataset. These results show that the main 261

characteristics of summer precipitation and the contributions of the three types of precipitation to
summer precipitation in the observational dataset are well reproduced by the MetUM-GOML1
model.

4 Model simulated responses to different anthropogenic forcings

266 4.1 Spatial pattern of responses to different forcings

Fig. 5 shows the spatial patterns of changes in the total summer precipitation in response to 267 ALL forcing and GHG forcing and AA forcing. By ALL forcing, the total precipitation shows a +-268 + pattern from north to south over China east of 100° E. Precipitation increases over southern and 269 270 northeastern China, but decreases over northern and most parts of southwestern and northwestern China which is similar to the variability of precipitation calculated by the observational dataset. 271 272 Through comparison, it is found that the increase of precipitation in southern China and northeastern 273 China is mainly caused by greenhouses gases emissions, while the decrease of precipitation in northern China and most parts of southwestern and northwestern China is mainly caused by 274 anthropogenic aerosols. 275



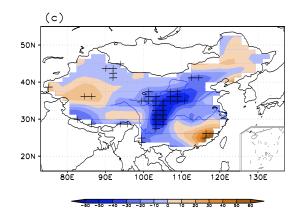




Fig.5 The changes of the total summer precipitation in response to ALL forcing (a) and GHG forcing (b) and AA
forcing (c). The grid highlight regions where the differences are statistically significant at the 90% level using a twotailed Student t-test.

282 Fig.6 shows the spatial patterns of changes in the contributions from heavy, moderate and light 283 rainfall in response to ALL forcing. The increase in heavy rainfall is the main reason for the increase in summer total precipitation in southern China in the ALL forcing experiment (Fig.6a), which is 284 285 consistent with the observational dataset(Fig. 3c). However, the region in which precipitation and 286 the contribution of heavy rainfall increase simulated by the model is located over southeastern China and there is no clear northward expansion. The decrease in heavy, moderate and light rainfall over 287 northern China leads to the decrease in the total summer precipitation, consistent with the 288 289 observational dataset.

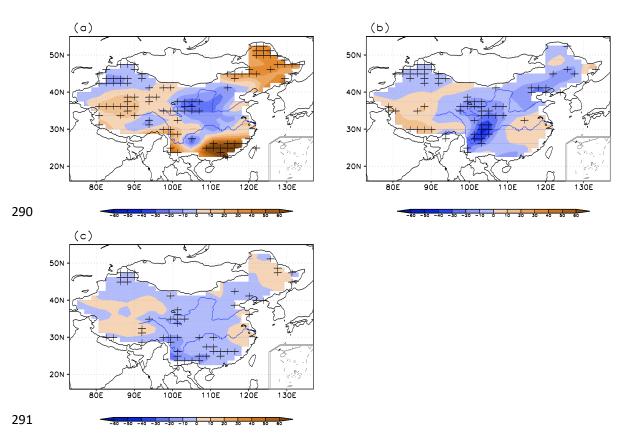
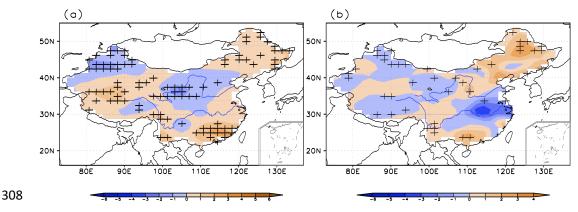


Fig.6.Model simulated changes in (a) heavy rainfall, (b) moderate rainfall and (c) light rainfall (mm) in response to
ALL forcing (CPD-CEP). The grid highlight regions where the differences are statistically significant at the 90% level
using a two-tailed Student t-test.

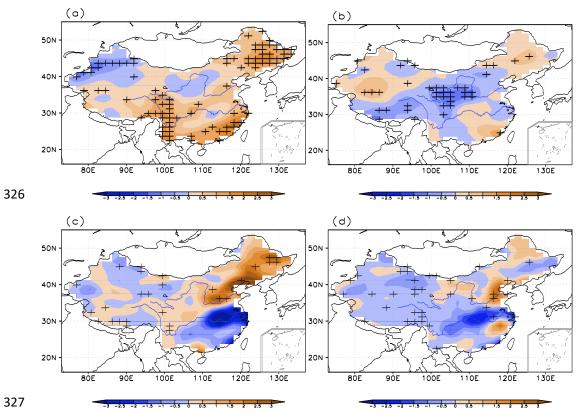
296 Because the variation in heavy rainfall is the main contributor to the change in total 297 precipitation in summer, Fig.7 shows the changes in the frequency and intensity of heavy rainfall in the ALL forcing experiment. In the ALL forcing experiment, the principle features of the changes 298 in heavy precipitation are that the frequency increases significantly over southern and northeastern 299 300 China, and most of the area west of 100°E, but decreases over northern China (Fig.7a). These main 301 features have some spatial similarities with the observed changes (Fig. 4a), although the spatial extent of the decrease in frequency of heavy rainfall over northern China is larger than in the 302 303 observational dataset. The change of intensity in heavy precipitation in response to changes in ALL 304 forcing (Fig.7b) show an+ - +pattern from northern China to southern China, is consistent with the 305 observational datasets (Fig. 4b). These changes are more similar to the spatial variations in the



307 frequency, consistent with the observational dataset.

Fig.7.Model simulated changes in (a) frequency (number of days) and (b) intensity (mm day⁻¹) of heavy rainfall in
response to changes in ALL_forcing. The grid highlight regions where the differences are statistically_significant at the
90% level using a two-tailed Student t-test.

Separate forcing experiments suggested that changes in the concentration of GHG emissions 313 314 increase the frequency of heavy rainfall over almost all regions of China, especially over southern 315 and northeastern China, whereas changes in anthropogenic aerosols play a dominant part in reducing 316 the frequency of heavy rainfall over northern China (Fig. 8a and 8b). The variation in intensity of 317 heavy rainfall in response to GHG forcing (Fig.8c) is similar to that in the ALL forcing experiment (Fig.7b), especially the increased intensity over the eastern part of northern and northeastern China 318 and the decreased intensity over southern China. The results indicate that the dominant contribution 319 320 of anthropogenic changes to changes in summer precipitation is mainly realized by the changes in 321 the frequency of heavy rainfall. The increase in the concentration of GHGs plays an important part 322 in the increase in summer precipitation over southern China and northeastern China, which is mainly 323 caused by the increase in the frequency of heavy rainfall. The changes in anthropogenic aerosols 324 are important in the decrease in precipitation over northern China, which is mainly due to the 325 decrease in the frequency of heavy rainfall (Fig. 8).



328 Fig.8.Model simulated changes in frequency (number of days) of heavy rainfall in response to changes in (a) GHG 329 forcing and (b) anthropogenic aerosol forcing. Model simulated changes in intensity (mm day⁻¹) of heavy rainfall in 330 response to changes in (c) GHG forcing and (d) anthropogenic aerosol forcing. The grid highlight regions where the 331 differences are statistically significant at the 90% level using a two-tailed Student t-test.

332 *4.2 Area-averaged responses to different forcings*

Based on the unique characteristics of the climate in China, we studied the decadal changes in 333 334 precipitation in four sub-regions of China: northern China (105°E-120°E,35°N-45°N), northeastern 335 China (north of 40°E and east of 120°E), southern China (105°E–120°E, 20°N–35°N) and western 336 China (west of 105°E). Fig.2a shows the distribution of the stations over the four sub-regions. Fig.9 337 shows the area-averaged changes in the frequency of the three types of precipitation over the four 338 sub-regions for both the observational dataset and the model experiments. Besides the change in frequency of heavy rainfall in northern China, moderate rainfall in southern China and light rainfall 339 340 in northeastern China, the changes in the three types of precipitation in response to the changes in ALL forcing simulated by the model are consistent with the observational dataset. The simulated 341

342 increases in the frequency of heavy precipitation by ALL forcing averaged over southern, 343 northeastern and western China are similar to the observed changes, but the increases in frequency 344 over southern and western China are weaker than the observed changes (Fig. 9a). Changes in GHG 345 emissions play a leading part in the changes in frequency averaged over southern, northeastern and western China. The changes in the frequency of moderate rainfall averaged over northern, 346 347 northeastern and western China in the ALL forcing experiment are close to those in the observations 348 (Fig. 9b). Changes in anthropogenic aerosols play a key part in the changes in the frequency of moderate rainfall over northern and northeastern China. The simulated changes in the frequency of 349 350 light rainfall averaged over northern, southern and western China in the ALL forcing experiment are close to those in the observational dataset (Fig. 9c). The variations in light rainfall over southern, 351 352 northern and western China are clearly influenced by the changes in GHG emissions.

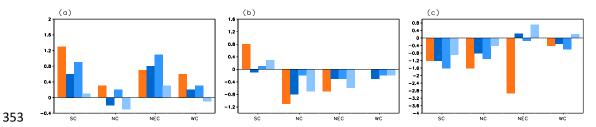


Fig.9. Area-averaged changes in frequency (number of days) of (a) heavy rainfall, (b) moderate rainfall and (c) light
rainfall (mm day⁻¹)over southern, northern, northeastern and western China in the observational dataset (orange bars)
and the simulations forced by ALL forcing (dark blue bars), GHG forcing (blue bars) and anthropogenic aerosol
forcing (light blue bars).

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Fig.10 shows the area-averaged changes in intensity of the three types of precipitation over the four sub-regions for both the observational dataset and the model experiments. For heavy rainfall, as presented by Fig.10a, the observed decreases in the intensity of precipitation averaged over southern China are simulated by the ALL forcing, but the change is underestimated. The changes in the concentration of GHGs explain the response in the simulated changes of heavy precipitation

over southern and northeastern China, indicating the predominant role of changes in GHG emissions 364 in influencing the intensity of heavy rainfall. For moderate rainfall, the changes in intensity averaged 365 366 over northern, southern and western China in the ALL forcing experiment are close to those in the observational dataset (Fig. 10b). Changes in anthropogenic aerosols play a key part in causing the 367 changes in the intensity of moderate rainfall over southern, northern and western China. For light 368 rainfall, the simulated changes in intensity averaged over western China in the ALL forcing 369 370 experiment are close to those in the observational dataset, although the simulated changes in intensity over western China are clearly overestimated. The changes in light rainfall over western 371 372 China are significantly influenced by the changes in GHG concentrations, indicating the 373 predominant role of GHG emissions in affecting the intensity of light rainfall (Fig. 10c).

The simulated changes in the frequency of different types of precipitation are more consistent with those in the observational dataset than the simulated changes in intensity. The model simulations also show that changes in the frequency of different types of precipitation affect the contribution of the different types of precipitation to the changes in the total summer precipitation,

in agreement with the observational database.

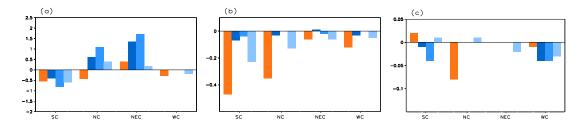
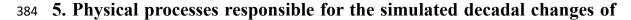
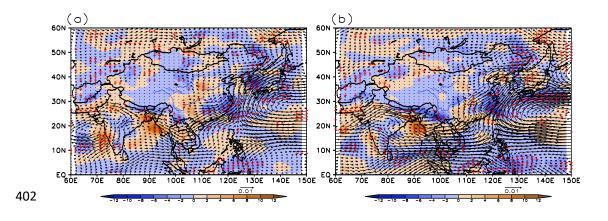


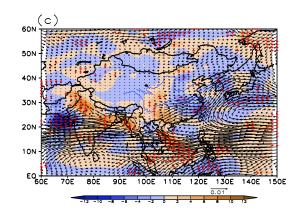
Fig.10. Area-averaged changes in intensity (mm day⁻¹) of (a) heavy rainfall, (b) moderate rainfall and (c) light rainfall
over southern, northern, northeastern and western China in the observational database (orange bars) and simulations
forced by ALL forcing (dark blue bars), GHG forcing (blue bars) and anthropogenic aerosol forcing (light blue bars).



385 precipitation

Firstly, we present the difference of the 850-hPa water vapor flux divergence and water vapor 386 flux between CPD and CEP experiments in summer by the different forcing. During summer, the 387 water vapor flux convergence in response to ALL forcing appears most area to the east of 110°E and 388 389 to the south of the Yangtze River and northeastern China. The warm and southwesterly flow transports moist to the above two regions and it is beneficial to the occurrence of precipitation in the above two 390 391 areas. Over northern and southwestern China, water vapor flux divergence and the implicit water vapor flux transport are not conductive to the occurrence of precipitation (Fig.11a). From the pattern 392 by GHG forcing, we can see that the water vapor flux convergence appear in southern China and 393 northeastern China. The water vapor flux in the above regions is significantly higher than that in ALL 394 395 forcing. This distribution is also conductive to precipitation in southern China and northeastern China (Fig.11b). As far as the result of AA forcing is concerned (Fig.11c), the obvious water vapor flux 396 397 convergence appear the southeastern China only and the southwesterly water vapor transport is also significantly weakened. In addition, the weak water vapor flux divergence is located in southwestern 398 399 China, eastern part of northern China and Yellow-Huai River. Under the control of weaken 400 southwesterly winds and 850-hPa divergence, precipitation decreases over northern and southwestern China (Fig.5c). 401

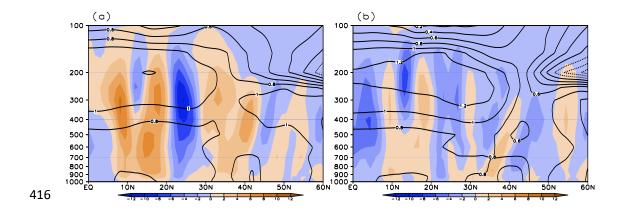


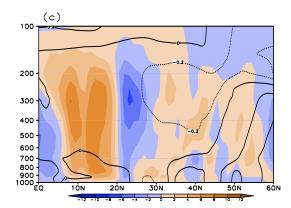




404 Fig.11 The difference of 850-hPa water vapor flux divergence and water vapor flux between PD and EP experiments
405 in JJA in response to ALL forcing (a), GHG forcing (b) and anthropogenic aerosol forcing (C). The grid highlight
406 regions where the differences are statistically significant at the 90% level using a two-tailed Student t-test.
407

408 Fig.12 show the difference of the vertical velocity and air temperature between CPD and CEP 409 experiments in JJA in response to ALL forcing, GHG forcing and AA forcing In response to ALL forcing (Fig.12a), the air temperature warms over troposphere between 0-50°N, corresponding to 410 ascent between 20°N-30°N and descent between 30°N-40°N. In response to GHG forcing (Fig.12b), 411 412 the rise of the air temperature between 0-40°N is especially evident. The ascending movement decreases between 20°N-30°N and increases between 30°N-40°N. In response to AA forcing 413 (Fig.12c), the tropospheric temperature decreases obviously, and the pattern of vertical velocity is 414 415 similar to that by ALL forcing.







418 Fig.12 Vertical velocity and surface air temperature difference between PD and EP experiments in JJA in response to
419 ALL forcing (a), GHG forcing (b) and anthropogenic aerosol forcing (C).
420

421 6. Conclusions

422 We determined the decadal changes in the frequency and intensity of three types of summer precipitation (heavy, moderate and light rainfall) across the mid-1990s based on an observational 423 424 dataset. A set of numerical time-slice experiments was carried out using an atmosphere-ocean 425 mixed-layer coupled model to assess the impact of human activities, includingchanges in GHG concentrations and anthropogenic aerosols emissions, in the decadal changes of heavy rainfall. 426 Our main conclusions are follows. 427 428 The analyses of the observed precipitation show increases over southern China, but decreases over northern and southwestern China from the early period of 1964-1981 to the present day period 429 of 1994–2011. The decadal increase in summer precipitation over southern China is caused by the 430 431 increase in heavy and moderate rainfall, whereas the decadal decrease in precipitation over northern 432 China in the mid-1990s is caused by the decrease in moderate and light rainfall. The main reason 433 for the decrease in summer precipitation over northern China is the decrease in the frequency of moderate and light rainfall. The increases in frequency of heavy and moderate rainfall over southern 434 435 China are the main causes of the increases in total precipitation.

436 Numerical model experiments show that the changes in anthropogenic aerosol emissions have

a dominant role in the frequency of heavy rainfall over northern China and that the response to GHG
forcing is more significant for the frequency of heavy precipitation over southern and northeastern
China. The increase of precipitation frequency forced by greenhouses gases is the main reason of
increasing precipitation over southern and northeastern China, while the decrease of frequency
caused by anthropogenic aerosols induces the decreasing precipitation over northern China.

By the analysis of preliminary physical mechanism, we found that the water vapor flux 442 443 convergence strengthens in southern and northeastern China by GHG forcing, and the water vapor 444 flux in the above regions enhances too. This distribution is also conductive to precipitation in 445 southern and northeastern China. From the atmospheric circulation of AA forcing we can find that 446 the obvious water vapor flux convergence appears over southeastern China only and the 447 southwesterly water vapor transport is also significantly weakened. In addition, the weak water 448 vapor flux divergence is located in southwestern China, eastern part of northern China and Yellow-449 Huai River. Under the control of weaken southwesterly winds and 850-hPa divergence, precipitation decreases over northern and southwestern China. 450

This paper mainly studies the individual roles of GHG concentrations and AA emissions in the decadal changes of the three types of summer precipitation over China. Based on the change of total precipitation, a preliminary physical mechanism analysis is given, and the causes of change of precipitation frequency and intensity need further study in the future.

455

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- 462

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