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### The role of the subtropical jet in deficient winter precipitation across the mid-Holocene Indus basin

K. M. R. Hunt<sup>1,2</sup>, A. G. Turner<sup>1,2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Meteorology, University of Reading, United Kingdom <sup>2</sup>National Centre for Atmospheric Science, University of Reading, United Kingdom

#### Key Points:

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7	• Greater seasonality during the mid-Holocene reduces temperature gradient and
8	weakens the subtropical jet in northern hemisphere winter. $(135 \text{ chars})$
9	- Weaker and less frequent western disturbances reach South Asia, leading to a $15\%$
10	fall in winter precipitation in the Indus Basin. (129 chars)
11	• The known stronger summer monsoon combined with reduced winter rainfall gives
12	a striking shift in seasonality in the mid-Holocene. (130 chars)

Corresponding author: Kieran M. R. Hunt, k.m.r.hunt@reading.ac.uk

#### 13 Abstract

The mid-Holocene (7-5 ka) was a period with an increased seasonal insolation cycle, resulting from decreased insolation during northern hemisphere winter. Here, a set of six CMIP5 models is used to show that the decreased insolation reduced the upper-tropospheric meridional temperature gradient, producing a weaker subtropical jet with less horizontal shear.

These effects work to reduce the baroclinic and barotropic instability available for perturbations to grow, and in consequence, storm-tracking results show that there are fewer winter storms over India and Pakistan (known as western disturbances). These western disturbances are weaker, resulting in a reduction in winter precipitation of around 15% in the north Indus Basin.

Combined with previous work showing greater northwestward extent of the Indian monsoon during the mid-Holocene, our GCM-derived results are consistent with the Indus Basin changing from a summer-growing season in the mid-Holocene to a winter-growing season in the present day.

#### <sup>28</sup> 1 Introduction

The subtropical westerly jet (STWJ) is a quasi-permanent feature of the Eurasian 29 upper troposphere (Krishnamurti, 1961), a thermal wind brought about by a strong merid-30 ional temperature gradient. It exhibits a distinctive seasonal cycle in latitude: at Indian 31 longitudes during the boreal summer, it is at approximately 25°N, moving north of the 32 Tibetan Plateau during the monsoon to about 45°N (Schiemann, Lüthi, & Schär, 2009). 33 Embedded within the STWJ are numerous eddies, which intensify in the baroclinically 34 unstable environment on approach to India and Pakistan (Hunt, Curio, Turner, & Schie-35 mann, 2018), where they become known as western disturbances (WDs). WDs are re-36 sponsible for a large majority of winter rainfall in Pakistan and north India (Hunt, Turner, 37 & Shaffrey, 2019; Martyn, 2002; Syed, Giorgi, Pal, & King, 2006), a region thoroughly 38 dependent on winter agriculture. 39

The mid-Holocene (~7-5 ka; taken as 6 ka for simulations) is the name given to the warm period that occurred during the middle of the current interglacial; orbital precession, with minor contributions from increased orbital obliquity and eccentricity resulted in a stronger seasonal cycle and a shallower meridional temperature gradient (e.g. Bosmans

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et al., 2012; Harrison et al., 2003). As a result, both proxies and climate models suggest
that the South Asian monsoon had a greater magnitude and deeper northwestward extent during this period (Braconnot et al., 2002, 2007; Bryson & Swain, 1981; Joussaume
et al., 1999; Liu, Harrison, Kutzbach, & Otto-Bliesner, 2004; Rawat, Gupta, Srivastava,
Sangode, & Nainwal, 2015).

The end of the mid-Holocene (MH) period marked the economic and social collapse 49 of a large civilisation in the Indus basin, the so-called Harappan Civilisation (Misra, 1984; 50 Possehl, 1997a, 1997b). Authors have attributed this to variety of possibly connected 51 causes: the drying up of important Indus tributaries (e.g. Dikshit, 1979), rerouting of 52 tributaries (Raikes & Dales, 1986), changing flood hazards (Flam, 2002), and changing 53 seasonality of the river discharge available for irrigation (Giosan et al., 2012). These are 54 typically attributed to the contemporaneous and permanent withdrawal of the summer 55 monsoon from the region (Berkelhammer et al., 2012; Staubwasser, Sirocko, Grootes, & 56 Segl, 2003), as described above. 57

Even so, reviewing authors have long argued the need to consider the changes in 58 annual precipitation to the region (Bryson & Swain, 1981; Pant & Maliekal, 1987; Raikes 59 & Dyson, 1961) given the significant contribution of WDs to the present-day climate. 60 Bryson (1997) noted, however, that winter rainfall proxies for the region (e.g. Bryson, 61 1992) are not only sparse but, when used to assess the difference between mid-Holocene 62 and present day precipitation, fail to agree in sign let alone magnitude and pointed out 63 the need for further research on the topic, which thus far has not been conclusive (Madella 64 & Fuller, 2006). Recent isotopic modelling work (J. Li et al., 2017) indicated that pre-65 cipitation proxies did not agree in the nearby Tibetan Plateau. 66

Nevertheless, this region is capable of trends of measurable magnitude, as seen in 67 recent observations (You et al., 2017). Palazzi, Hardenberg, and Provenzale (2013); Palazzi, 68 von Hardenberg, Terzago, and Provenzale (2015) showed that in both present-day CMIP5 69 experiments and observations, the seasonal cycle shifts from summer-dominated (mon-70 soonal) precipitation in the central and eastern Himalaya to winter-dominated (western 71 disturbance) precipitation in the western Himalaya and Karakoram. Thus, if the sum-72 mer monsoon had a more westward extent during the mid-Holocene, we would expect 73 important changes to the seasonal cycle in this region. 74

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So, previous studies have established that the summer monsoon extended further 75 into the Indus basin during the mid-Holocene, and that this is a region that contains a 76 transition in the seasonal cycle of precipitation. It is not clear, however, what happened 77 to the boreal winter STWJ during the mid-Holocene – and thus how western disturbances 78 were affected; though some authors (Hou, D'Andrea, Wang, He, & Liang, 2017; Wei & 79 Wang, 2004) have noted that the summer STWJ was climatologically further north in 80 the mid-Holocene. Here, we seek to quantify and understand how the jet behaves in CMIP5 81 simulations of the mid-Holocene, before using a tracking algorithm to identify changes 82 in western disturbance populations between the mid-Holocene and present-day climates 83 for the first time; we will then finish by exploring how these changes play a role in the 84 seasonality of precipitation over the Indus basin and Karakoram. 85

#### 86 **2** Data

In this study, we make use of outputs from six CMIP5 models - that is all those 87 that have six-hourly output for winds in both the mid-Holocene and historical experi-88 ments. These experiments comprise a subset of the Paleoclimate Model Intercompar-89 ison Project (PMIP3; Braconnot et al., 2012). Details of those models are given in Tab. 1. 90 Where data availability permits, the table also gives the value of the winter (DJFM) west-91 ern disturbance frequency bias – indicating whether the historical climatology (1950-2005) 92 of the model produces too many or too few WDs compared to ERA-Interim (which has 93 about 25 per winter, using our tracking algorithm). The models used in this study com-94 prise a fairly representative spread of biases (the multi-model mean bias for all CMIP5 95 historical models is about +13%, see Hunt et al., 2019), which is important given the 96 resolution sensitivity of WD behaviour in climate models. When combined to assess multi-97 model means, data are interpolated onto a common, coarse grid. 98

We use the western disturbance tracking algorithm described in Hunt, Turner, and 103 Shaffrey (2018), tuned for use in CMIP5 GCMs by Hunt et al. (2019). The six-hourly 104 relative vorticity is spectrally truncated at T63 to remove orographic noise and mesoscale 105 eddies, and to provide a common grid between the model outputs. Maxima at 500 hPa 106 are identified and connected using a k-d tree nearest neighbour algorithm (Yianilos, 107 1993) to form tracks, subject to constraints on propagation speed, track smoothness, and 108 track duration (systems shorter than two days are considered transient). Finally, tracks 109 that are shorter than 48 hours in duration or do not pass eastward through the box  $20^{\circ}$ N-110

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Model name	Organisation	$n_x \times n_y$	$\delta_x  imes \delta_y$	WWD freq. bias	Reference
bcc- $csm1$ -1*	BCC	$128 \times 64$	$2.81^\circ  imes 2.79^\circ$	+38%	Wu et al. (2013)
CCSM4	NCAR	$288 \times 191$	$1.25^\circ \times 0.94^\circ$	n/a	Meehl et al. $(2012)$
CNRM-CM5	CNRM-CERFACS	$256{\times}128$	$1.41^\circ \times 1.40^\circ$	n/a	Voldoire et al. $(2013)$
CSIRO-Mk3-6-0*	CSIRO-QCCCE	$192{\times}96$	$1.88^\circ \times 1.87^\circ$	+44%	Rotstayn et al. $(2010)$
$FGOALS-g2^*$	LASG-CESS	$128 \times 64$	$2.81^\circ \times 2.79^\circ$	+4%	LJ. Li et al. (2013)
FGOALS-s2	LASG-CESS	$128 \times 108$	$2.81^\circ \times 1.66^\circ$	n/a	LJ. Li et al. (2013)
GISS-E2-R	NASA-GISS	$144 \times 90$	$2.5^{\circ} \times 2^{\circ}$	n/a	Schmidt et al. $(2006)$
$HadGEM2-CC^*$	MOHC	$192 \times 144$	$1.88^\circ \times 1.25^\circ$	+22%	Martin et al. $(2011)$
HadGEM2-ES	MOHC	$192 \times 144$	$1.88^\circ \times 1.25^\circ$	n/a	Martin et al. $(2011)$
$IPSL-CM5a-LR^*$	IPSL	$96{\times}95$	$3.75^{\circ} \times 1.89^{\circ}$	-25%	Dufresne et al. $(2013)$
MPI-ESM-P*	MPI-M	$192{\times}96$	$1.88^\circ \times 1.87^\circ$	+35%	Giorgetta et al. $\left(2013\right)$

<sup>99</sup> **Table 1.** Details of the eleven CMIP5 models used in this study, those marked with an aster-

100 isk have six-hourly output and are thus the ones used for tracking. Where available, the bias in

winter (DJFM) western disturbance frequency in the model (computed against ERA-Interim) is

102 given.

36.5°N, 60°E-80°E are discarded. Using this domain ensures tracks pass through Pakistan and/or north India and filters out mid-tropospheric cyclones, which are a tropical phenomenon that would otherwise satisfy the tracking criteria. Output tracks are verified against previous case studies to check completeness, and subsequent structure and cluster analysis shows that no secondary systems contaminate the database. The interested reader is encouraged to visit Sec 2.2 of Hunt, Turner, and Shaffrey (2018) for a detailed description of the algorithm.

#### 118 **3 Results**

We start by exploring how changes to the upper-tropospheric meridional temperature gradient (UTTG) affect the winter STWJ in mid-Holocene experiments. Fig. 1 shows the change in UTTG between the mid-Holocene and present day, as well as the change in 200 hPa winds, and for illustration the mean location of the STWJ in CMIP5 presentday runs. For consistency throughout, we use the convention that 'change' refers exactly to mid-Holocene minus present day (or control). Here, we choose the UTTG to be pos-

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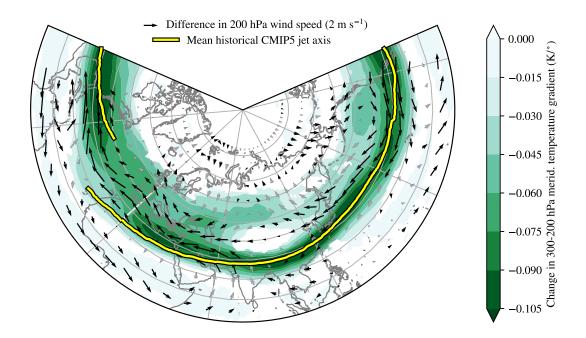


Figure 1. The change (i.e. mid-Holocene minus present day) in DJFM upper level meridional T gradient  $[K/^{\circ}]$ , defined as positive when temperature increases in the equatorward direction. Overlaid in quivers are the associated 200 hPa circulation differences, showing retardation and reduced shear of the jet in the MH. Both are computed for the six models in which WD tracking was performed; quivers are grey and contours masked where any model disagrees on the sign of change in zonal wind or temperature gradient change respectively. For reference, the mean present-day CMIP5 jet axis is also shown.

itive (i.e. pole-to-equator gradient, rather than equator to pole), thus the more negative
the value is in Fig. 1, the weaker the gradient in the mid-Holocene when compared to
present-day.

We see that the expected decline of the UTTG correlates strongly with a weakening of the winter STWJ, particularly along its northern flank. There are two important corollaries: firstly, the smaller temperature gradient, particularly upstream of India, implies that there is less baroclinic instability from which perturbations in the jet can feed off; secondly, the reduction in STWJ strength implies the same for barotropic growth (the relationship between the STWJ and instabilities is discussed in greater detail in Hunt, Curio, et al., 2018).

<sup>147</sup> We hypothesise, therefore, that WDs incident on India during mid-Holocene win-<sup>148</sup> ters would be weaker and - perhaps - less frequent than the present day. To test this,

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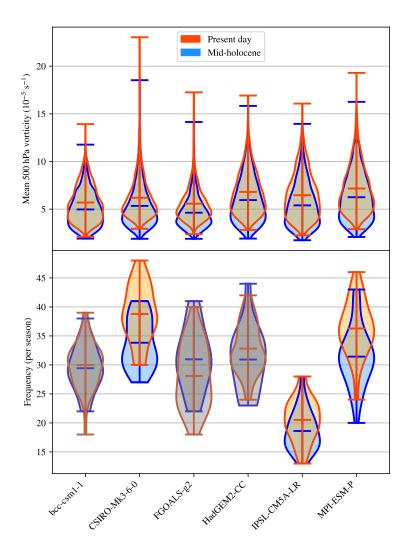
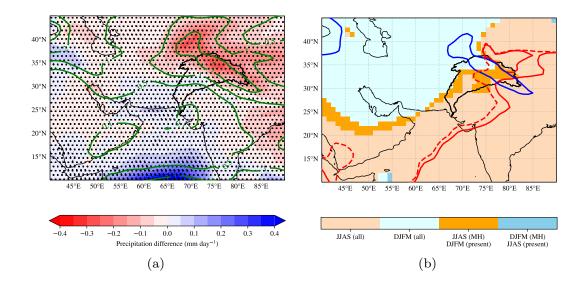


Figure 2. Violin plots indicating the distributions in (top) the seasonal mean western disturbance 500 hPa vorticity and (bottom) the seasonal frequency of DJFM western disturbances for (blue) the mid-Holocene and (orange) the present day, by model. Horizontal lines demarcate minima, means, and maxima respectively. Where the two distributions for a given model are not significantly different from each other, they are greyed out.

an objective tracking algorithm was applied to the six CMIP5/PMIP3 models that had mid-Holocene experiments with six-hourly output (see Table 1), and their present-day counterparts. Statistics for WD frequency and intensity are given for each experiment in Fig. 2, with mid-Holocene in blue and present-day in orange. All experiments record a statistically significant reduction in intensity (defined as the maximum 500 hPa relative vorticity attained between  $60^{\circ}E$  and  $80^{\circ}E$ ), with the multi-model mean difference amounting to ~17%; three also record a statistically significant decline in seasonal fre-

- quency, with a multi-model mean difference of  $\sim 7\%$  across all six models. Three mod-
- els do not exhibit a significant change in frequency: bcc-csm1-1, FGOALS-g2, and HadGEM2-
- <sup>158</sup> CC. Note that the 500 hPa level is chosen as it is the CMIP5 output level closest to the
- $_{159}$  observed centre of WDs ( $\sim 400$  hPa), and that all frequency and intensity analysis is
- done within the described domain  $(20-36.5^{\circ}N, 60-80^{\circ}E)$ .



(a) CMIP5 MMM DJFM precipitation [lines, mm day $^{-1}$ ] for the historical exper-Figure 3. 161 iments (in those six models with a mid-Holocene counterpart with six-hourly output) and the 162 difference between mid-Holocene and historical MMM DJFM precipitation [solid, mm day<sup>-1</sup>]. 163 Stippling indicates where all six models agree on the sign of the change. (b) Season of greatest 164 precipitation: light yellow and light teal indicate regions where the season is the same for both 165 MH and historical MMMs (JJAS and DJFM respectively), whereas the dark colours indicate that 166 the seasonality changes (i.e. dark yellow indicates an area where MH precipitation is greatest in 167 JJAS, but historical precipitation peaks in DJFM, and vice versa for dark teal); historical MMM 168 2 mm day<sup>-1</sup> isohyets are given for DJFM and JJAS by the dark blue and red lines respectively 169 with mid-Holocene JJAS in dashed red. In both figures, the Indus river basin is marked in solid 170 black. 171

We have seen that the reduced magnitude of the UTTG in the mid-Holocene both directly (through baroclinic instability of the gradient) and indirectly (through weakening of the STWJ) reduces the frequency and intensity of winter WDs over Pakistan and north India. As previous studies (e.g. Hunt et al., 2019) have indicated, WDs are responsible for almost all winter precipitation in Pakistan, north India, and along much

### of the Himalayan foothills; so how is mid-Holocene winter precipitation in this region affected by their weakening?

Fig. 3(a) shows the CMIP5 MMM DJFM precipitation climatology (for those mod-179 els with a MH counterpart experiment), and the change between the MH and the present 180 day. At the head of the Indus basin, where the precipitation is typically the greatest, the 181 mid-Holocene climatology is between 15 and 20% lower than it is in the present day. Tran-182 sient simulations have shown that the South Asian summer monsoon was both stronger 183 and had greater extent during the mid-Holocene period (Liu et al., 2004), which agrees 184 with pollen records where available (Lézine, Ivory, Braconnot, & Marti, 2017). Fig. 3(b) 185 compares the winter (DJFM) and summer (JJAS) climatologies for both the historical 186 and mid-Holocene period, indicating the regions in which both or neither dominate the 187 seasonal cycle. The dividing line between winter-dominant (i.e., DJFM) and summer-188 dominant (i.e., JJAS) precipitation regions retreats southeastward as the mid-Holocene 189 finishes and the extent of the summer monsoon starts to decline. This effect is exagger-190 ated considerably along the Karakoram (the mountain range spanning north Pakistan 191 and north India) as the winter precipitation also increases as a result of the previous de-192 scribed changes in WD activity. Fig. S1 shows how the seasonal cycle of precipitation 193 changes in the basin between the two epochs. Supporting Fig. 3(b), it shows a well de-194 fined boreal summer peak in the mid-Holocene, which moves to a winter-spring peak in 195 the present day. Fourier decomposition (e.g. Dwyer, Biasutti, & Sobel, 2012) reveals that 196 the two cycles have significantly different phase and amplitude. The result from the point 197 of view of the Indus basin is thus twofold: a shift of primary growing season from sum-198 mer (in the mid-Holocene, e.g. Dave, Courty, Fitzsimmons, & Singhvi, 2018; Giosan et 199 al., 2012) to winter (in the present day, Kalra et al., 2008; Sarker & Quaddus, 2002); and 200 a shift in the location of the area of peak precipitation, from the east and northeast of 201 the basin to the orographic band in the north. Each feature of Fig. 3(a) and Fig. 3(b)202 discussed in this section persist when the analysis is done with all eleven mid-Holocene 203 models. As discussed in the introduction, there is a dearth of winter/seasonal paleocli-204 mate reconstructions in the Indus basin; however, a number have looked at proxies in 205 the northwest Himalaya, a region bordering the north/northeast of our domain. Both 206 pollen (Demske, Tarasov, Wünnemann, & Riedel, 2009) and sediment (Prasad & Enzel, 207 2006) records indicate a period of reduced winter precipitation 6 ka before present. 208

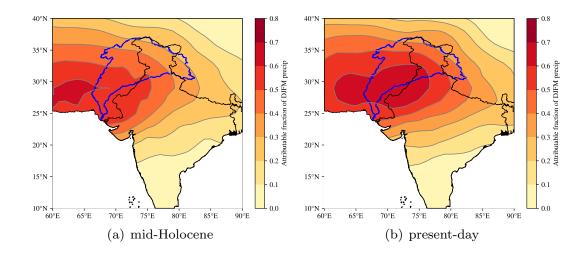


Figure 4. Fraction of the climatological winter precipitation attributed to western disturbance activity in (a) mid-Holocene and (b) historical CMIP5 experiments, computed in each case using the six models for which six-hourly mid-Holocene output is available. Precipitation is attributed if it occurs within 800 km and 24 hours of a passing WD. The catchment boundary of the Indus basin is marked in blue.

To complete our argument, we must determine whether the change in WDs is re-214 sponsible for the change in precipitation. To do that, we can compare the fraction of win-215 ter precipitation caused by western disturbances in the mid-Holocene to the present day. 216 Fig 4 shows that there is a roughly uniform increase of about 0.1 in the fraction of at-217 tributed precipitation across the Indus basin from the mid-Holocene to the present-day. 218 This follows the fractional change seen in Fig. 3(a), and provides strong evidence that 219 increasing winter rainfall in the region after the mid-Holocene was caused by increased 220 WD activity. 221

#### 222 4 Discussion

In this study, we have explored how changes in orbital parameters between the mid-Holocene period (MH; 7-5 ka) and the present day affect the boreal winter subtropical westerly jet and its impacts on storms known as western disturbances (WDs) which affect northern India and Pakistan. Orbital precession resulted in a more pronounced global seasonal cycle and acted to reduce the upper-tropospheric meridional temperature gradient in boreal winter. We have shown that this reduction in gradient weakens the northern flank of the subtropical westerly jet, which previous studies (Hunt, Curio, et al., 2018)

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have shown result in less baroclinic and barotropic instability for WDs when they reach
India - to feed off. This resulted in mid-Holocene South Asia being impacted by weaker
and less frequent WDs. All six models used in this study agreed that WD intensity was
significantly lower during the mid-Holocene, though a significant decline in WD frequency
was found in only three.

Since WDs are very strongly tied to winter rainfall over Pakistan and northern In-235 dia (where they are typically responsible for about 70% of present day winter precipi-236 tation), the reduced activity during the mid-Holocene resulted in a decline of about 15%237 in winter precipitation at the head of the Indus basin. Previous studies have shown that 238 the South Asian summer monsoon was stronger and had a greater northwestward ex-239 tent during the mid-Holocene; combined with the previous result, this has a profound 240 impact on the Indus river basin. There, in the mid-Holocene, most precipitation fell dur-241 ing the summer monsoon, focused in the east; instead in the present day, most precip-242 itation falls during the winter, and tends to be focused in the north, along the orogra-243 phy. 244

This change in growing season is complementary to previous explanations for the collapse of the Harappan Civilisation, which underwent agricultural failure and eastward migration towards the end of the mid-Holocene period. We hope that further work, in particular the discovery of robust proxies for winter precipitation in the region, will continue to explore this problem in more detail.

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- <sup>257</sup> parison provides coordinating support and led development of software infrastructure
- in partnership with the Global Organization for Earth System Science Portals. ERA-
- <sup>259</sup> Interim reanalysis data are available from ECMWF at https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/
- datasets/reanalysis-datasets/era-interim. The tracking algorithm used is avail-

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261	able from the first author. Track datasets for ERA-Interim and CMIP5 experiments are
262	available from the BADC at https://catalogue.ceda.ac.uk/uuid/b1f266c25cf2445f8b87d874f6ac830a.
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