

1 **Regional Rainfall Response to the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) across**
2 **Great Britain**

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7

8 **Abstract**

9 The NAO has been long studied as the primary teleconnection affecting British and European
10 climate. However, previous studies have focused on extremes or have been spatially and temporally
11 limited. In recent years our ability to predict the NAO has improved. Also new research is emerging
12 suggesting that the NAO is a key driver of hydrological extremes. These factors mean there is
13 renewed value in enhancing our understanding of how the NAO influences general rainfall patterns.
14 In this study we spatially analyse correlations between NAO indices and monthly rainfall data and
15 the Standardised Precipitation Index. We also map mean monthly rainfall differences under NAO
16 positive and negative conditions. Based on our results we identify three main observations: (I) there
17 is sensitivity in the rainfall patterns to the chosen NAO index; (II) there is a clear winter north/west
18 and south/east divide in rainfall patterns; (III) the NAO does have an effect on summer rainfall
19 patterns, although the spatiality of these patterns is less distinctive than in winter. As far as we are
20 aware this is the first national scale, monthly NAO-rainfall analysis undertaken for a long period.

21

22 **Keywords**

23 North Atlantic Oscillation; Rainfall Patterns; Teleconnections; British Climate; Wet/Dry Continuum

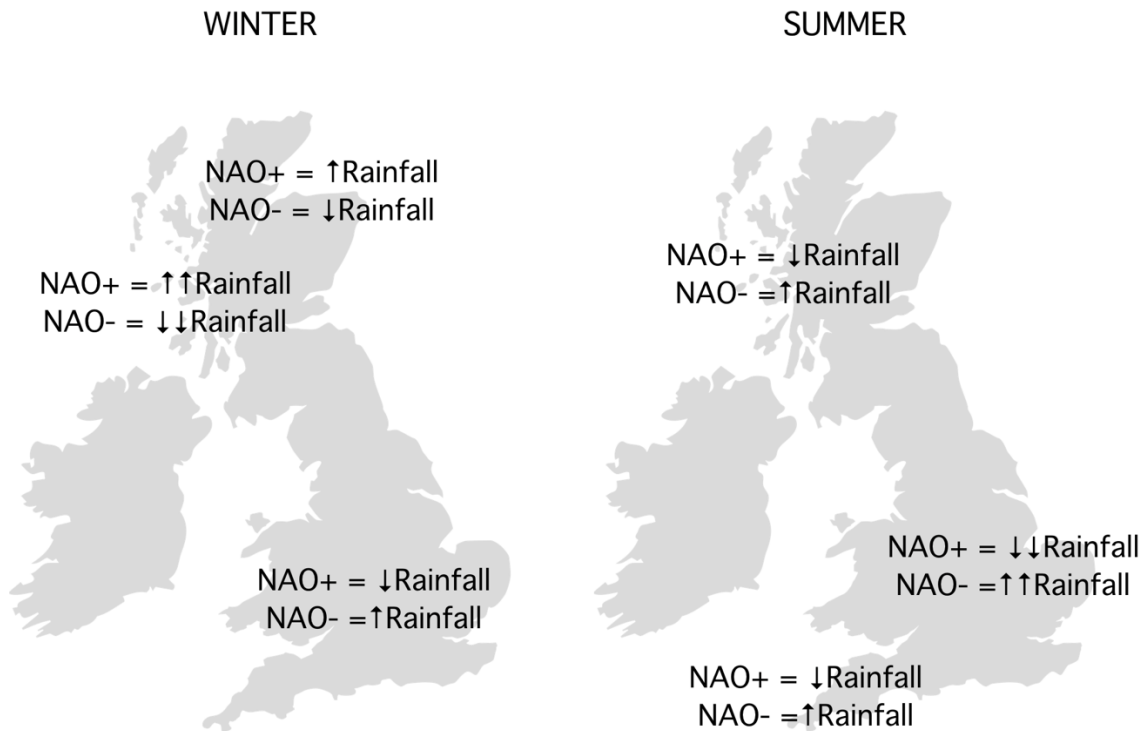
24 **Introduction**

25 Climate change is expected to significantly alter hydro-meteorological and climatological processes
26 and patterns in Great Britain (Garner *et al.*, 2017; Kendon *et al.*, 2018), and understanding the
27 characteristics and impacts of wet and dry extreme events remains a challenge (Jones *et al.*, 2014;
28 Watts *et al.*, 2015; Parry *et al.*, 2016; Van Loon *et al.*, 2016). Oceanic-atmospheric circulation
29 interactions (also referred to as teleconnections) are a key influence on regional climate (Wilby *et*
30 *al.*, 1997; Rust *et al.*, 2018). Given the close interconnectedness of the climate and hydrological
31 system, floods and droughts are inherently driven by larger scale meteorological processes and their
32 interactions with local-scale catchment characteristics (Wilby & Quinn, 2013; Van Loon & Laaha,
33 2015; Barker *et al.*, 2016; Huang *et al.*, 2017; De Luca *et al.*, 2017). Furthering our understanding of
34 the influence of teleconnections on local and regional climate is therefore key in water and climate
35 resilience planning.

36 Weather in Great Britain is highly variable, often fluctuating between wet and dry conditions (e.g.
37 the very wet winter of 2013/14 and dry summer of 2018). The North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO)
38 characterises some of the variability of the North Atlantic jet stream and has been acknowledged as
39 the primary teleconnection affecting British climate (Wilby *et al.*, 1997; Hurrell *et al.*, 2003). For
40 example, Rodwell *et al.* (1999) suggested that the NAO is the single most important teleconnection
41 influencing climate variability in the Northern Hemisphere, and Sweeney & O'Hare (1992) linked
42 variations in precipitation to large scale NAO fluctuations across Europe. More recent studies
43 continue to emphasise the influence of NAO on British and European climatic patterns (Comas-Bru &
44 McDermott, 2014; Tsanus & Tapoglou, 2018; Varouchakis *et al.*, 2018). In a review of studies relating
45 to hydro-meteorological signal control of the NAO, Rust *et al.* (2018) highlight the strong relationship
46 (positive correlations) between the NAO and precipitation during winter months across Northern
47 Europe.

48 The NAO can be defined in various ways but generally represents the sea level pressure (SLP)
49 fluctuation between Iceland and the Azores that has been well defined in meteorology since the 19th
50 Century (Hurrell *et al.*, 2003). Many studies use the North Atlantic Oscillation Index (NAOI) as
51 quantitative measure of the pressure gradient between Iceland and the Azores (e.g. Simpson &
52 Jones, 2014; Bonaccorso *et al.*, 2015; Spencer & Essery, 2016).

53 The NAO fluctuates between a positive and negative state; each state is known to produce
54 characteristic climatic patterns over Great Britain and mainland Europe (Hall & Hanna, 2018; Rust *et al.*,
55 2018). A positive NAO (which represents stronger than usual difference in SLP between Iceland
56 and the Azores), is generally associated with stormy and wet winter conditions as winds from the
57 west dominate bringing warmer air and storms across the North Atlantic region. A negative NAO
58 represents the reverse with a weaker than usual difference in SLP. Winds from the east and north-
59 east are more frequent, bringing with them cold air, while the adjusted position of the jet stream
60 leads to weaker and less frequent storms. As a result, Europe is more likely to experience cold, calm
61 and dry winters (Hurrell *et al.*, 2003; Baker *et al.*, 2017). Many studies have associated fluctuations
62 of the NAO to precipitation patterns in Great Britain specifically (Figure 1).



63

64 **Figure 1:** Generalised NAO winter and summer rainfall patterns from previous studies (Wilby *et al.*,
65 1997; Folwer & Kilsby, 2002; Burt & Howden, 2013; Kosanic *et al.*, 2014; Simpson & Jones, 2014;
66 Afzal *et al.*, 2015; Hall & Hanna, 2018). A more detailed summary of these findings can be found in
67 Table S1 in the Online Supplemental Material.

68 The impact of NAOI phase during winter and summer is known to differ significantly (Folland *et al.*,
69 2009; del Rio *et al.*, 2011; Sun & Wang, 2012). Whilst the strength of regional correlations with
70 rainfall of the winter (DJF) North Atlantic Oscillation Index (NAOI_w) and summer (JJA) North Atlantic
71 Oscillation Index (NAOI_s) vary across Great Britain, a general relationship is evident, particularly for
72 the north/west of the country. There is a positive correlation between positive NAOI_w values and
73 winter precipitation, and a negative correlation between positive NAOI_s values and summer
74 precipitation. Conversely, negative NAOI_s values are correlated with higher summer precipitation,
75 and negative NAOI_w values are associated with lower winter precipitation (Folland *et al.*, 2009;
76 Simpson & Jones, 2014; Hall & Hanna, 2018).

77 Earlier analyses of relationships between NAOI and precipitation are typically based on precipitation
78 data from relatively few sites (e.g. Wilby *et al.*, 1997; Folwer & Kilsby, 2002) and short record lengths
79 (e.g. Folwer & Kilsby, 2002; Afzal *et al.*, 2015). Studies have also tended to focus on extremes rather
80 than more general wet/dry patterns (e.g. Simpson & Jones, 2014) and have had a clear emphasis on
81 the relationship between NAO and winter climate (e.g. Comas-Bru & McDermott, 2014; Rust *et al.*,
82 2018). This seems an understandable focus as intense and more frequent rainfall is typically
83 associated with low pressure systems coming from the tropics – the movement of these systems
84 being directly associated with NAO phase (Wilby *et al.*, 1997; Fowler & Kilsby, 2002). While
85 relationships between winter rainfall and NAO are now well defined, the influence of the NAO on
86 regional summer climates is less clear (Folland *et al.*, 2009) and is limited to some evidence
87 suggesting negative correlations between NAOI and summer precipitation in all regions apart from
88 north-west Scotland (Hall & Hanna, 2018).

89 The availability of nationally consistent gridded precipitation datasets, such as the Centre for Ecology
90 and Hydrology (CEH) Gridded Estimates of Areal Rainfall (GEAR) dataset (Tanguy *et al.*, 2016), now
91 provide new opportunities for analysis of teleconnection drivers of rainfall. Similarly, recent
92 publication of gridded Standardised Precipitation Index (SPI) time series (Tanguy *et al.* 2017) offers
93 an additional advantage as the data is conveniently scaled in relation to relative wetness and dryness
94 over a specified rainfall accumulation period (Hannaford *et al.*, 2011). As a result, the SPI has been
95 used to assess the spatial signature of teleconnections in rainfall in regions worldwide (Kingston *et*
96 *al.*, 2015; Irannezhad *et al.*, 2015). The availability of these datasets is particularly important in
97 helping develop a deeper understanding of the spatial structure of associations between North
98 Atlantic teleconnections and precipitation, and any time-related/seasonal trends in this structure.
99 Previous studies using similar spatially consistent data have tended to rely on UKCP09 estimates (e.g.
100 Spencer & Essery, 2016), which are known to have limitations/pre-conditions for estimates of
101 summer rainfall (Met Office, 2016). New understanding of the relationships between hydrological
102 extremes and the NAO (Rust *et al.*, 2019), coupled with improvements in long-range NAO prediction

103 ability (Scaife *et al.* 2014; Smith *et al.*, 2016; Baker *et al.*, 2017; Weisheimer *et al.*, 2017) and the
104 potential for the NAOI to be used in hindcasting (Smith *et al.*, 2019), also mean there is now
105 renewed value in developing a more complete understanding of how the NAO influences the spatial
106 distribution of seasonal rainfall across Great Britain. Being able to infer more detailed regional
107 rainfall responses in relation to predicted teleconnection behaviour would be of significant value in
108 helping inform strategic responses to weather extremes (Palin *et al.*, 2016; Bell *et al.*, 2017; Clark *et*
109 *al.*, 2017).

110 In this study we aim to examine the spatial distribution of rainfall (using both GEAR monthly rainfall
111 estimates and the Standardised Precipitation Index) under positive and negative NAOI conditions.
112 This represents the first monthly, nationally consistent spatial analysis undertaken for a long record
113 (1899-2015, 117 water years) addressing the full wet/dry continuum.

114 **Methods**

115 ***Data***

116 To represent NAO condition, the NAOI was used. This study makes use of two commonly used
117 methods: the station-based method (NAOI_{ST}) which calculates the index based on fixed SLP station
118 measured data, and the principal component analysis method (NAOI_{PC}) comprised of a time series of
119 the leading empirical orthogonal function (EOF) of Atlantic SLP (Hurrell *et al.*, 2003). Both datasets
120 were obtained from the US National Centre for Atmospheric Research
121 (<https://climatedataguide.ucar.edu/climate-data>) at a monthly interval for the water years October
122 1899 to September 2015.

123 Monthly total rainfall values (1899-2015) were obtained from the CEH GEAR dataset (Tanguy *et al.*,
124 2016). GEAR provides interpolated monthly estimates of total rainfall on a 1km grid and has
125 relatively complete spatial coverage of Great Britain. The rainfall estimates are derived from the Met
126 Office national database of observed precipitation. The GEAR dataset was selected due to its high

127 spatial resolution and long record period (when compared to similar UK rainfall datasets). The SPI, as
128 defined by Mckee *et al.* (1993), was also sourced from CEH at monthly intervals (1899-2015) with a
129 1-month rainfall accumulation period (Tanguy *et al.*, 2017). This dataset is provided at 5km gridded
130 spatial resolution and is derived based on the monthly GEAR dataset. The SPI is calculated by fitting a
131 gamma distribution (Stagge *et al.*, 2015) to historical precipitation time series. The years 1961-2010
132 are used as the baseline for SPI calculation. The SPI is a standardised index, with positive values
133 representing wetter than normal conditions for a given period, and negative values representing
134 drier than normal conditions. The SPI is normally distributed with a mean of 0 (i.e. near-normal
135 conditions) and standard deviation of 1. Theoretically values can range from -5 (extremely dry) to +5
136 (extremely wet), although approximately 95% of values occur within the range of -2 to +2, and 68%
137 within the range -1 to +1 (Tanguy *et al.*, 2017).

138 ***Regional Rainfall/SPI and NAOI Correlations***

139 The Met Office Climate Districts are a commonly used in similar studies (e.g. Wilby *et al.*, 1997;
140 Simpson & Jones, 2014), and as they represent areas of relatively homogeneous climate, were the
141 chosen spatial unit of analysis for correlation of regional mean monthly total rainfall/SPI and NAOI.
142 Mean monthly rainfall (based on GEAR data) and SPI were calculated by spatially averaging all
143 gridded values within each climate district. Mean monthly rainfall/SPI for the study period are then
144 correlated with NAOI calculated using both the ST and PC method for Great Britain. Exploratory
145 analysis established normality and linear relationships, so a Pearson correlation was deemed
146 appropriate. In our analysis we defined seasons as winter (DJF), spring (MAM), summer (JJA) and
147 autumn (SON).

148 ***Calculation of Deviation of Mean Monthly Rainfall & Mean SPI-1***

149 Monthly NAOI was classified into a state of positive, negative or neutral NAO phase. In light of the
150 known limitations of the NAOI_{ST} method of calculation, especially in the summer months (see
151 Discussion), only the NAOI_{PC} method was used for further analysis. NAO phase was defined as half

152 the standard deviation plus/minus the long-term mean (after Berton *et al.*, 2017). NAO positive
153 phase was calculated to be $NAOI > 0.502$, and negative phase < -0.503 . Months with a $NAOI_{PC}$
154 between these values represent a NAO neutral state. Each month in the GEAR and SPI-1 dataset was
155 categorised using these values into being in either a NAO positive, NAO negative or NAO neutral
156 state (Figure 3). For each month all datasets for a given phase were averaged on a cell-by-cell basis
157 to produce a mean dataset for each month under each NAO condition. For the GEAR data the NAO
158 positive/negative mean monthly datasets were then subtracted from the NAO neutral dataset for
159 that month. This produced a final dataset to show deviation in mean monthly rainfall in the given
160 phase from when NAO is neutral.

161 The deviation in mean monthly rainfall and mean SPI-1 values were then spatially averaged using the
162 Met Office Climate Districts. In order to examine how similar each region's response to the NAO was
163 over the study period, the mean deviation from neutral NAO conditions/mean monthly SPI of each
164 district was then correlated against values from the other districts. Regions which are positively
165 correlated suggest areas where rainfall displays similar NAO response, and vice-versa for negatively
166 correlated regions.

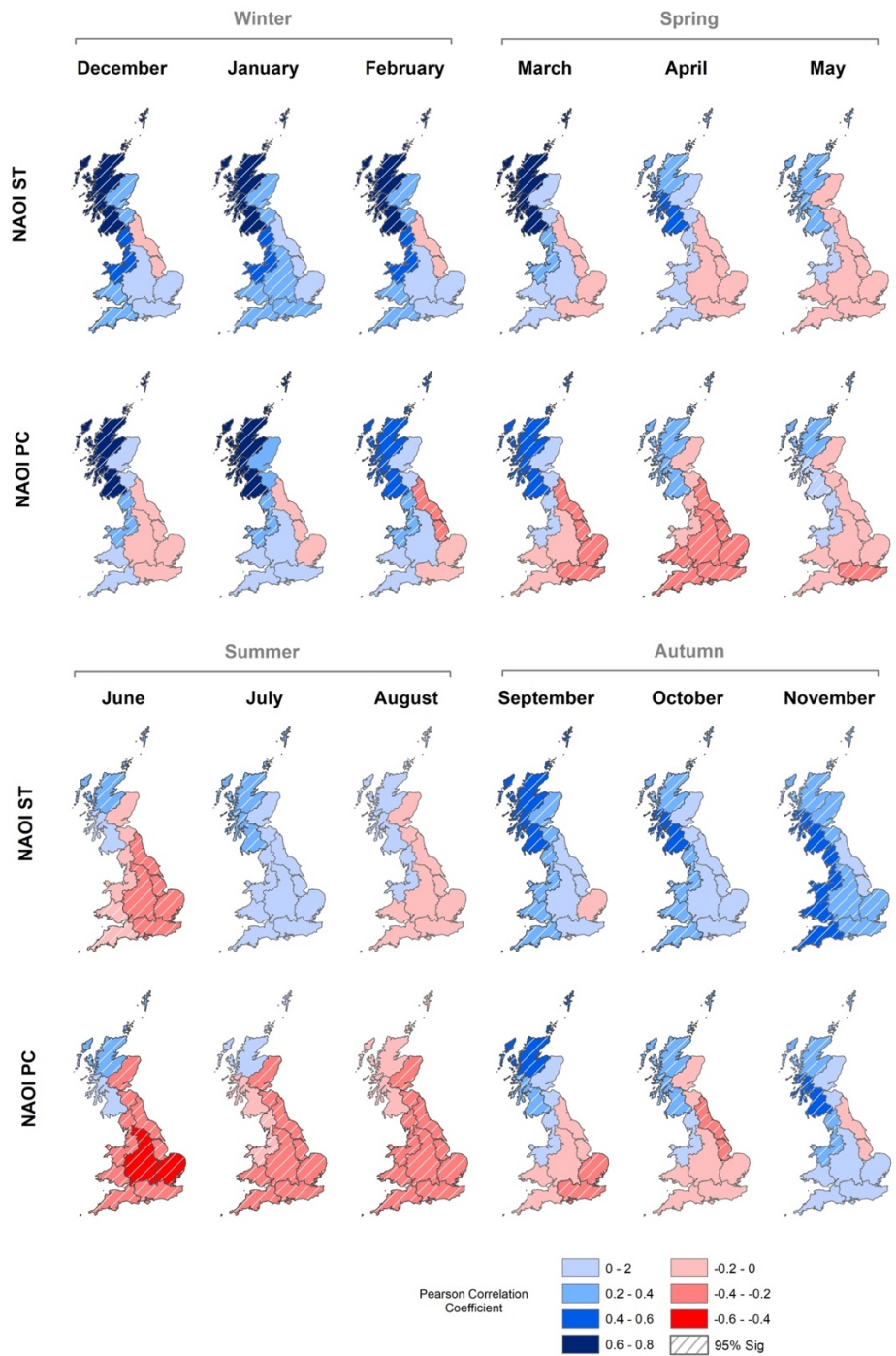
167 **Results**

168 ***Regional Mean Correlations***

169 Figure 2 show the results of the regional mean SPI/GEAR correlation analysis with $NAOI_{ST}$ and $NAOI_{PC}$.
170 Similar seasonal variations were produced using both rainfall measures (SPI and monthly GEAR
171 data). Positive correlations suggest high SPI/GEAR values (i.e. high rainfall) when under NAO positive
172 conditions and vice versa for NAO negative. While negative correlations are indicative of low
173 SPI/GEAR values (i.e. low rainfall) when NAO is positive and vice versa for NAO negative. Significant
174 positive correlations between $NAOI_{ST}$ and monthly rainfall are found in the west of Great Britain, and
175 particularly north, for all months between October and April. While significant correlations persist in
176 'Scotland North' and 'Scotland West' in spring (MAM), they are largely absent in England and Wales.

177 June is characterised by a marked gradient with most of England showing significant negative
178 correlations. July and August are characterised by a notable lack of significant correlations between
179 NAO_{ST} and the rainfall measures; with July largely having weak positive correlations and August a
180 combination of weak positive and negative correlations. September through to November sees a
181 change in the correlation strength; such as that by November, 'England East and North East', is the
182 only region not showing a significant positive correlation.

183 NAO_{PC} produces similar spatial patterns to those described above; significant positive correlations
184 are found for the north and west for the months of September through to May. During this time the
185 central and southern regions fluctuate between positive and negative correlations (of varying
186 significance). NAO_{PC} correlations vary from those gained through using NAO_{ST} in Spring (MAM),
187 where more pronounced negative correlations are present in the central and southern regions. This
188 signal is enhanced moving into the summer months where all of England, Wales and 'Scotland East'
189 see significant negative correlations between SPI and NAO_{PC}.

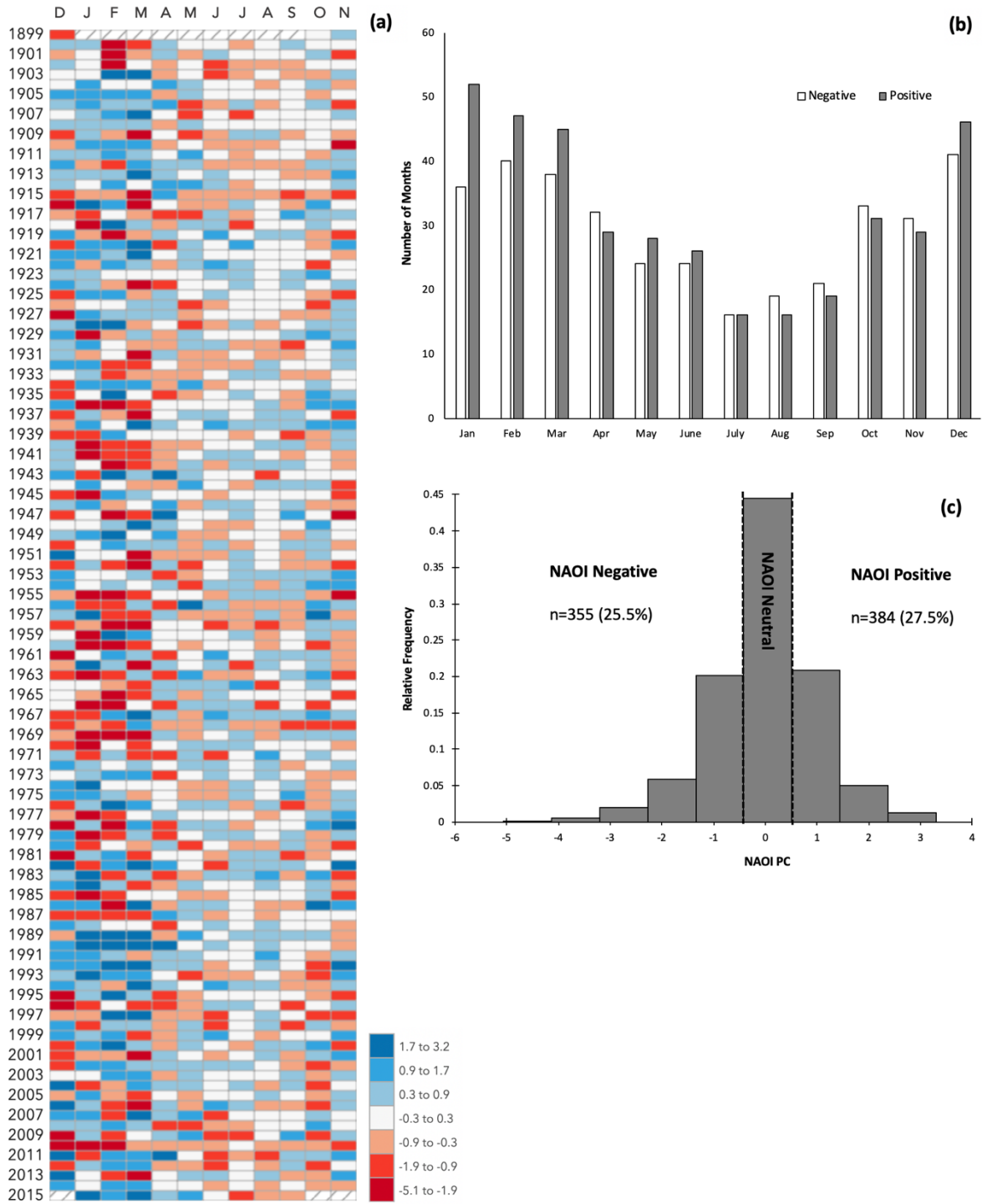


190

191 **Figure 2:** Correlations between NAOI ST/PC with regional mean SPI-1. The two NAOI methods show
 192 similar patterns in the winter months (DJF), with strong positive correlations in the North. However,
 193 note the significant differences observed between the two NAOI's in the summer months where
 194 stronger negative correlations are observed using NAOI_{PC}. Tabular data for this analysis can be found
 195 in the Online Supplemental Material (Tables S2 and S3).

196 **NAO Phase Definition**

197 Figure 3 shows the results of the NAO phase classification process using the method of Berton *et al.*
198 (2017) on the $NAOI_{PC}$ time series. Based on our definition of phases, the NAO was in a positive or
199 negative phase for approximately 53% of the time between October 1899 and September 2015.
200 NAO phase occurrence and intensity was clearly more pronounced during the winter (DJF) rather
201 than summer (JJA) months, especially for NAO positive.



202

203 **Figure 3:** (a) Heatmap showing the temporal distribution of NAO phase occurrence and intensity, (b)

204 frequency of occurrence of each NAO phase per month and (c) distribution of NAOI_{PC} classification,

205 over the study period (1899-2015).

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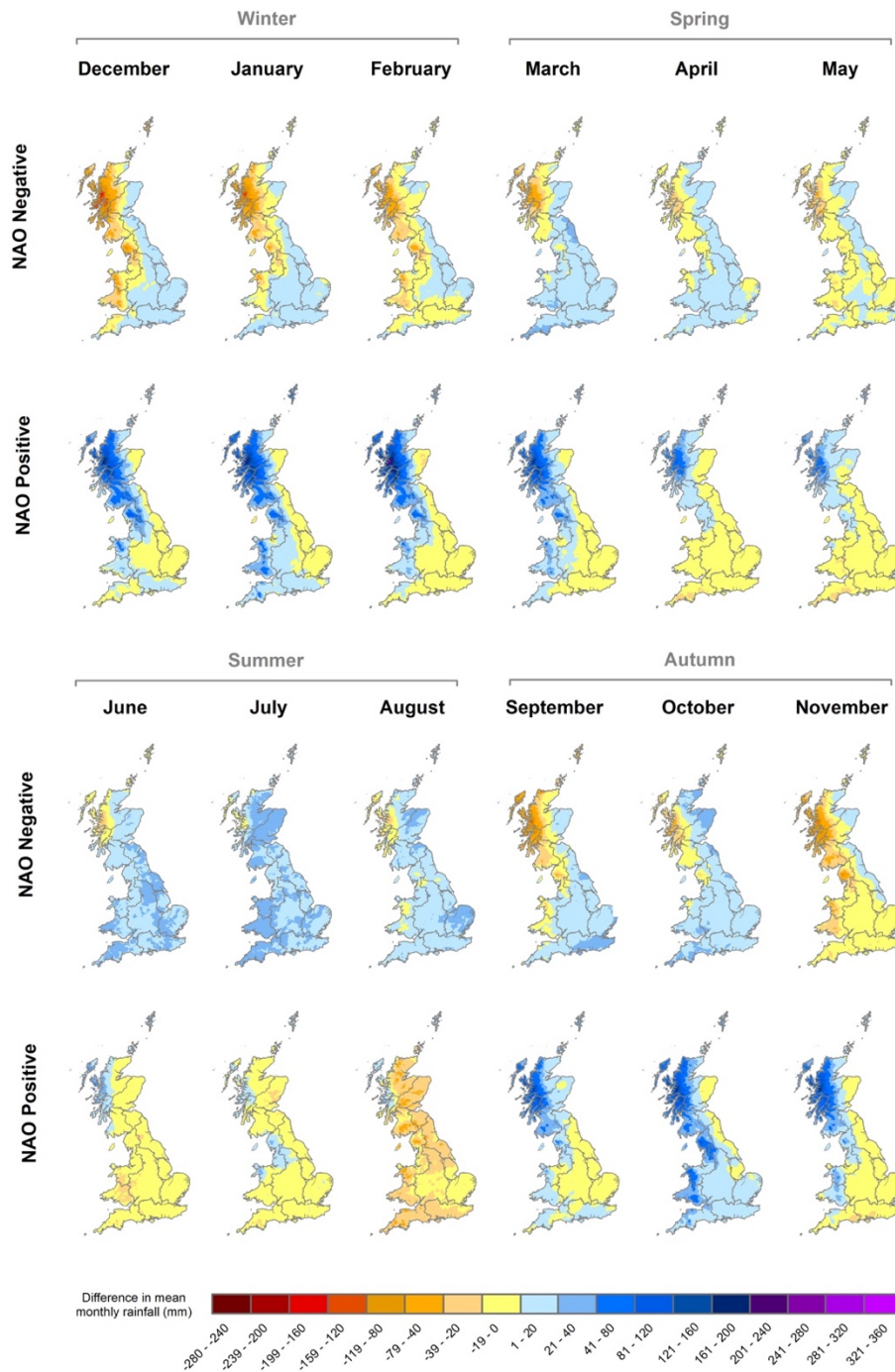
207 ***Spatial Patterns of Deviation in Mean Monthly Rainfall & Mean SPI-1 under NAO phase***

208 Figure 4 show NAO phase dependent deviation in mean monthly rainfall (calculated as the
209 difference from mean monthly rainfall under NAO neutral conditions). Clear regional and seasonal
210 differences are observed in both NAO positive and negative phases. The most notable deviations in
211 rainfall occur in the north of Great Britain during the winter months (DJF) (in particular in Scotland
212 North and Scotland West). These regions receive significantly more or less rainfall under NAO
213 positive or negative conditions respectively. These conditions are inverted in the south/east of Great
214 Britain, with these regions seeing decreases/increases under NAO positive/negative, however to a
215 lesser extent compared to the north. This creates a strong winter spatial signal in rainfall under the
216 two NAO conditions, with the north/west and south/east showing clear regional differences. The
217 magnitude of the deviation is also different in terms of enhanced wetness/dryness; NAO positive
218 tends to produce wetter conditions than NAO negative does dry. This suggests that the enhancing
219 effect on rainfall is more marked than the dampening effect. Only small changes in rainfall under
220 NAO conditions were found in southern Great Britain throughout winter. Moving into Spring (MAM)
221 this spatial pattern is largely retained, although the magnitude of the deviation in rainfall decreases
222 with time.

223 Significant differences in rainfall are observed during the summer months (JJA) also. However, the
224 relative increases/decreases in rainfall under NAO positive/negative are broadly inverted when
225 compared to the winter months (DJF). The NAO spatial signature now seems more apparent in the
226 southern and central regions, with NAO positive resulting in notably drier conditions, and NAO
227 negative producing wetter conditions (up to approximately +/- 30mm), most notably in July and
228 August in South West England and South Wales. The clear north/west and south/east spatial divide
229 in rainfall patterns observed in the winter months becomes less pronounced, with the central and
230 southern regions of Great Britain being more homogeneous in their rainfall response, and much of
231 the country displaying a similar rainfall deviation to these regions. In the autumn months (SON), the

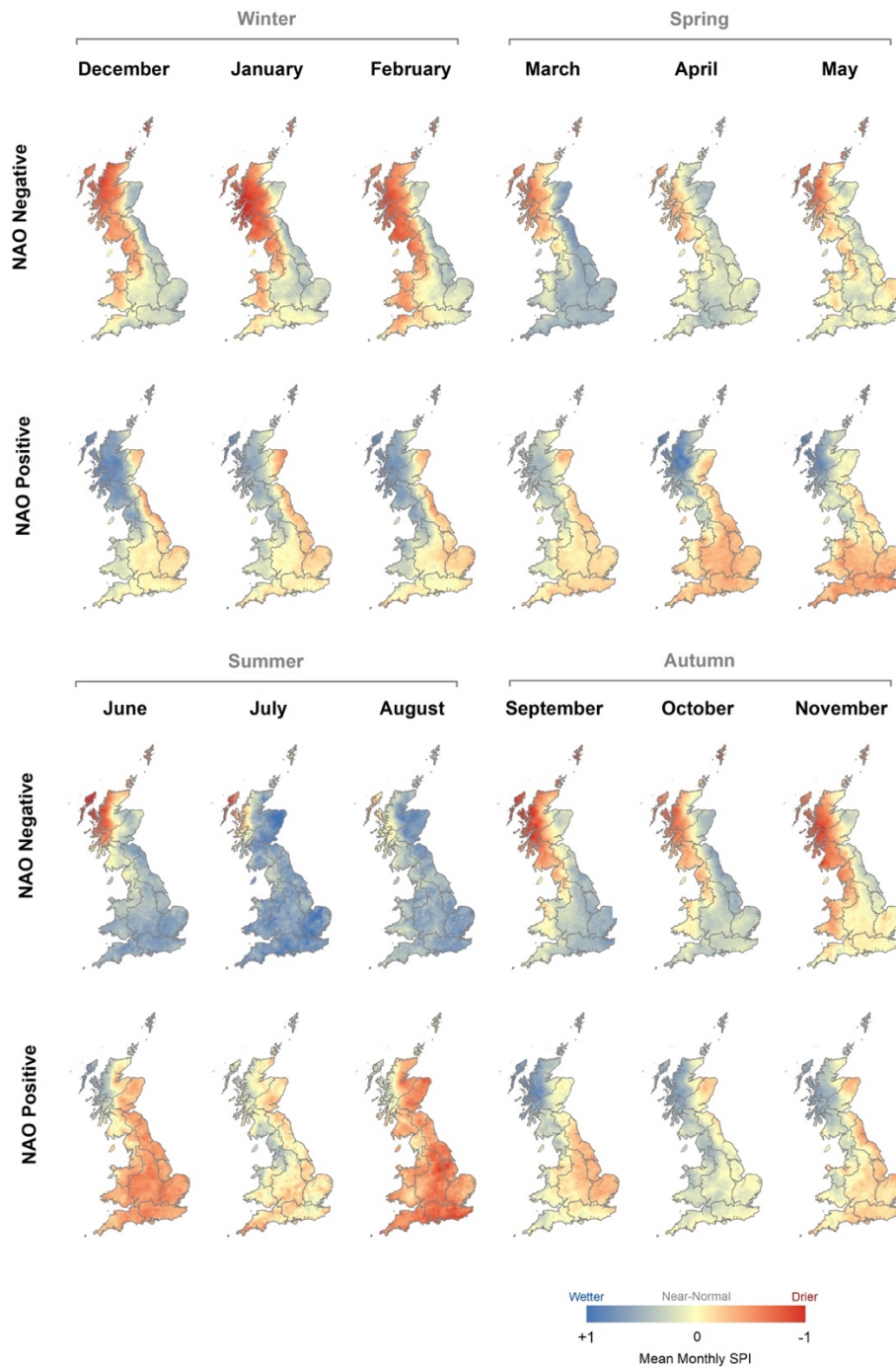
232 patterns in rainfall deviation start to invert again becoming more similar to those described above in
233 winter and the regional differences in NAO rainfall response become more discernible.

234 Figure 5 shows the comparable analysis undertaken using mean monthly SPI-1 data. As with the
235 deviation in monthly rainfall analysis discussed above, notable seasonal and spatial patterns in
236 wet/dry conditions are present when NAO is in either a positive or negative phase. During the winter
237 (DJF) the north has significantly high/low SPI values, representing wetter than normal/drier than
238 normal conditions under positive/negative NAO. Mean SPI-1 values follow a similar winter spatial
239 pattern to the monthly deviation analysis – a clear north/west and south/east difference in NAO
240 response. While during the summer months (JJA) this pattern is broadly inverted and more
241 homogeneous spatially so that the central and southern regions experience the most notable
242 drier/wetter conditions under NAO positive/negative, with the rest of the country experiencing
243 similar conditions.



244

245 **Figure 4:** Difference in mean monthly rainfall values (mm) under NAO phase for the period October
 246 1899-September 2015. Note the significant increase/decrease in rainfall in the North/West during
 247 the winter months, and the wetter/drier conditions observed during the summer months under NAO
 248 positive/negative (GEAR data from Tanguy *et al.*, 2016). Tabular data for this analysis can be found in
 249 the Online Supplemental Material (Table S4).



250

251 **Figure 5:** Mean monthly SPI-1 under NAO conditions for the period October 1899-September 2015.

252 Note the significantly wetter/drier conditions in the North/West during the winter months, and the

253 wetter/ drier conditions observed during the summer months under NAO positive/negative. (SPI

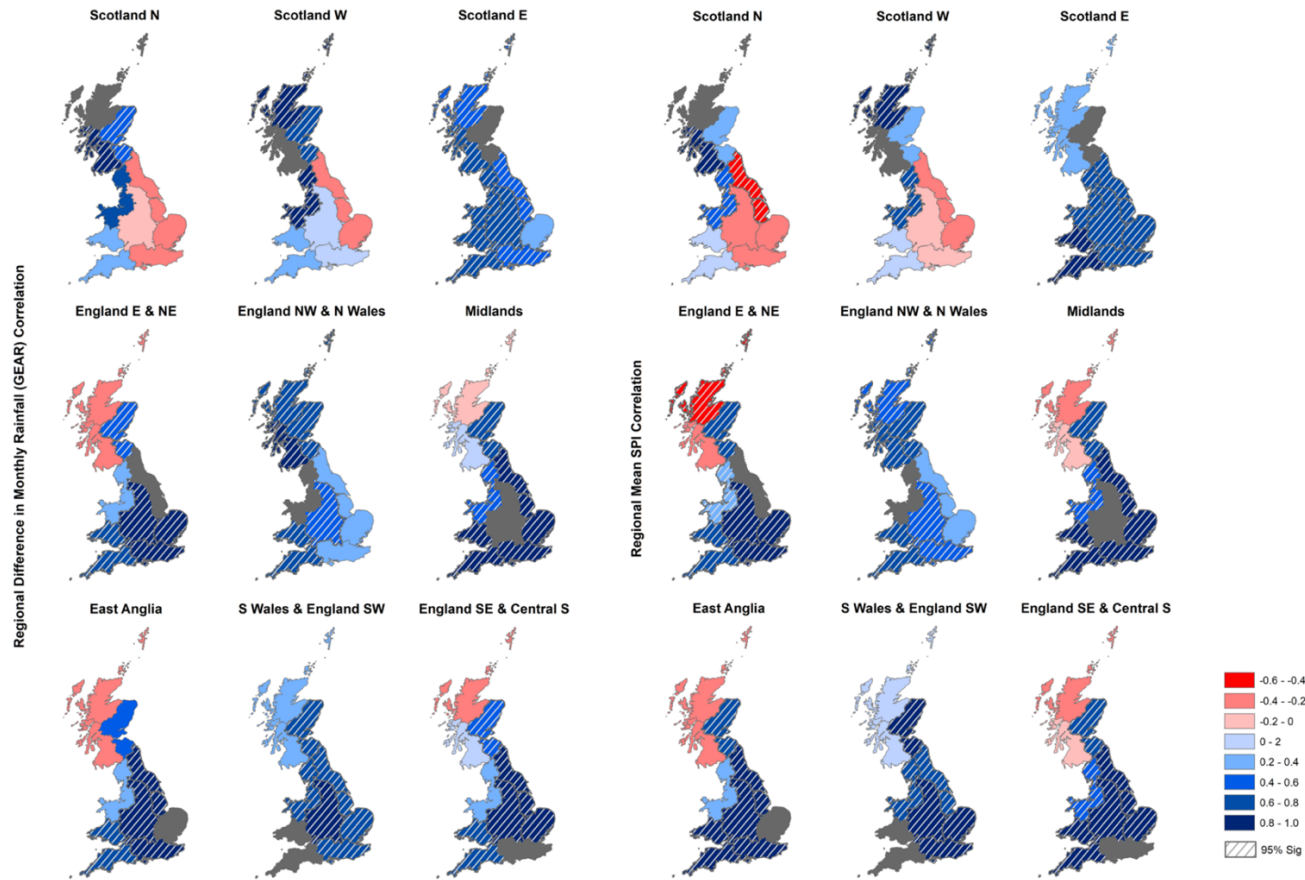
254 data from Tanguy *et al.*, 2017). Tabular data for this analysis can be found in the Online

255 Supplemental Material (Table S5).

256 Figure 6 shows the results of the correlation analysis to assess the similarity of each regions
257 response to NAO positive/negative conditions (derived using both the mean monthly rainfall
258 deviation data and mean SPI-1 data). Regions which show positive correlations in their spatial mean
259 rainfall deviation or SPI-1 respond to the NAO in a similar way (i.e. they are wetter or drier by a
260 similar magnitude), while regions which are negatively correlated show where differences occur in
261 regional response to NAO fluctuation. Similar spatial patterns in correlation are present using both
262 mean monthly rainfall deviation (from the GEAR dataset) and mean monthly SPI-1.

263 'Scotland North' and 'Scotland West' are strongly positively correlated at the 95% confidence level,
264 these regions are also positively correlated with 'England North West and North Wales'. This
265 suggests that these regions respond to the NAO in a similar manner. A clear grouping is also evident
266 in the positive correlations around the South East of Great Britain, with 'East Anglia' and 'England
267 South East and Central South' showing similar responses. Based on these regional groupings of
268 positive correlations, the north/west and south/east divide present in the previous analysis is clearly
269 shown in the correlation maps, most notably in the southern regions negative correlation with
270 'Scotland North' and 'Scotland West'.

271 However, the clear spatial signature is only evident in the correlations between certain regions.
272 Some regions, such as 'Scotland East', 'South Wales and England South West', and the 'Midlands'
273 show consistent significant positive correlations with almost all other regions. This suggests that
274 these regions respond in a similar way to the NAO and tend to follow the general pattern in
275 deviation/mean SPI-1 as the rest of country.



276

277 **Figure 6:** Spatial representation of Pearson Correlation Coefficient values for assessing the similarity of rainfall response across the 9 Met Office Climate
 278 Districts. Note the positive correlations of the north-western/south-eastern regions, and the negative correlations between Scotland and the
 279 Southern/Central regions. Block grey areas indicate the region used as the independent variable in the correlation analysis. Tabular data for this analysis can
 280 be found in the Online Supplemental Material (Tables S6 and S7).

281 **Discussion**

282 This research set out to examine the spatiality of rainfall patterns under NAO positive and negative
283 conditions using nationally consistent, high resolution datasets (Tanguy *et al.*, 2016; Tanguy *et al.*,
284 2017). This extends previous NAO rainfall studies based in Great Britain as it considers the full
285 wet/dry continuum, rather than just weather extremes, across a full year, rather than just the winter
286 months, and is not restricted in terms of available data as we use spatially consistent gridded
287 datasets rather than analysis based on selected stations/regions. A range of methods were
288 implemented to achieve this, and based on the convergence of evidence in the results, we identify
289 three main observations: (I) the sensitivity of spatial rainfall analysis to the chosen NAOI calculation
290 method; (II) the clear north/west and south/east divide in rainfall signatures under NAO positive and
291 negative conditions during the winter months; (III) the NAO does appear to have some influence
292 over summer (JJA) rainfall, although the spatiality of these patterns is less distinctive when
293 compared to winter. These will now be discussed in turn.

294 The first observation relates to the use of different NAOI measures; in our study namely the decision
295 to use NAOI_{ST} or NAOI_{PC}. Pearson correlation analysis was undertaken using both SPI-1 and monthly
296 GEAR data against both NAOI measures (Figure 2). While the two measures generally produced
297 similar spatial patterns in correlation strength during the winter months, notable differences were
298 observed during spring (MAM) and summer (JJA). NAOI_{PC} produced significant strong negative
299 correlations in the southern and central regions during this period; while the NAOI_{ST} method
300 produced much weaker correlations which were not significant. This implies that if NAOI_{ST} is used
301 then under positive NAO much of the country is wetter than average, and drier under NAO negative.
302 However, if NAOI_{PC} is used then this pattern is the opposite. Therefore, had the later analysis to
303 examine rainfall spatiality been undertaken using the NAOI_{ST} method, it is likely that the results
304 would have been far less conclusive as those gained from the NAOI_{PC} method (Kosanac *et al.*, 2014).

305 The poor representation of summer NAO has been noted as a key limitation of the station-based
306 method of NAOI calculation (Pokorná & Huth, 2015). The main limitation being the mobility of the
307 dipoles of the NAO across any given year (Jung *et al.*, 2003; Bernanová & Huth, 2008). During the
308 summer months the main pressure ‘action points’ of the NAO (the Azores high and Icelandic low)
309 move away from the position of the in-situ monitoring stations, measurements from which are used
310 to calculate NAOI_{ST}, due to a combination of factors including the East Atlantic and Scandinavian
311 teleconnections (Hurrell & Van Loon, 1997; Moore *et al.*, 2013), which have also been attributed to
312 UK meteorological patterns (Comas-Bru & McDermott, 2014; Zubiate *et al.*, 2017). Based on our
313 correlation analysis, and the potential mis-representation of summer rainfall patterns under NAO
314 conditions, we support the conclusions of Hurrell & Deser (2009) who suggest there is no unique or
315 universally accepted way to define the NAO, and those of Pokorná & Huth (2015) who advise caution
316 in the selection of NAO representative indices and recommend non-station-based methods of
317 calculation for summer NAO representation due to circulation spatial variability.

318 The spatial analysis of rainfall patterns under NAO positive and negative phase inform our second
319 and third main observations. The accepted general understanding of NAO impact on rainfall across
320 Great Britain during the winter months is to associate winter storms with NAO positive, and
321 colder/drier winters with NAO negative indices (Visbeck *et al.*, 2001). Our analysis of both deviation
322 in mean monthly rainfall and mean SPI-1 values show a clear north/west and south/east spatial
323 divide in response to NAO during the winter months; implying a less spatially generalisable response
324 than suggested above. The north/west of Great Britain in particular sees rainfall patterns
325 significantly alter under different NAO phases. Under NAO positive these regions see notable
326 increases in monthly rainfall, while under NAO negative there is a notable decrease. Although to a
327 smaller magnitude, the opposite response is observed in the southern and eastern region. This clear
328 winter spatial pattern in rainfall under NAO positive/negative conditions is also evident in the
329 regional correlation analysis; where the northern and western regions are positively correlated with
330 each other, but negatively correlated with the southern and eastern regions. This winter spatial

331 pattern has been observed in other studies over shorter timescales using station-based
332 measurements of rainfall, thus indicating some long-term consistency in this pattern (Wilby *et al.*,
333 1997; Folwer & Kilsby, 2002; Burt & Howden, 2013; Simpson & Jones, 2014). Although this winter
334 pattern coincides with upland/lowland topographic patterns, which may enhance rainfall under NAO
335 positive conditions (Burt & Howden, 2013), the notable dry conditions under NAO negative suggests
336 that the interaction between NAO and local characteristics is far more complex. Having an
337 understanding of the generalisable winter NAO rainfall pattern is significant given that in recent
338 years notable advances have been made in our ability to predict winter NAO phase months in
339 advance (Baker *et al.*, 2017; Weisheimer *et al.*, 2017 Hall *et al.*, 2017). For example, being able to say
340 with some degree confidence that the NAO will remain in a negative condition over the winter
341 months, will allow for early warning water shortage systems in Scotland to be triggered to ensure
342 consistent supply in the upcoming dry period.

343 The clear spatial pattern during winter which reverses under the two different NAO conditions is
344 likely associated with the location of storm tracks due to altered jet stream location (Visbeck *et al.*,
345 2001). Long term storm track analysis (mid-Holocene) suggest that a NAO positive phase is
346 characterised by a stronger and more northerly/easterly storm track across the Atlantic (Trigo, 2006;
347 Brayshaw *et al.*, 2010). This NAO driven pattern is evident in both precipitation and wind speed
348 records (Burningham & French, 2013).

349 Our analysis shows that the NAO winter spatial pattern continues into Spring (MAM), gradually
350 decreasing in discernibility over time; this is explainable by the SLP anomalies associated with winter
351 NAO tending to persist into Spring across the Atlantic region (Herceg-Bulić & Kucharski, 2014). This
352 change in NAO rainfall signature over time brings into focus our final main observation. Moving into
353 summer (JJA) the spatial pattern of rainfall under both positive and negative NAO is far less
354 distinctive and more homogenous (Figures 4 and 5). Some regional differences are observable, with
355 the central and southern regions showing the most notable deviation from normal conditions.

356 However, the general direction of this deviation under NAO positive and negative conditions is
357 broadly inverted during summer when compared to winter. NAO positive now produces relatively
358 homogenous dry conditions, and NAO negative produces wetter conditions. Alongside the NAO, it is
359 likely that high SPI values (high rainfall) are associated with convective storms during the summer
360 months (Kendon *et al.*, 2014). As these systems are small in their spatial influence this may partly
361 explain the dispersed summer rainfall patterns in Figure 4 and Figure 5.

362 **Conclusion**

363 As the primary teleconnection affecting British climate, the NAO has been well researched (Wilby *et*
364 *al.*, 1997; Folwer & Kilsby, 2002; Burt & Howden, 2013). However, many studies have focused on
365 winter climate and weather extremes and have been based on a limited number of in-situ
366 measurements/regions. This study set out to examine the spatial signatures of NAO phase
367 dependent precipitation, using nationally consistent datasets. Through correlation and spatial
368 analysis we draw attention to three observations regarding regional response in rainfall patterns to
369 the NAO: (I) the sensitivity of any analysis to the chosen NAOI. (II) The clear north/west and
370 south/east divide in rainfall signatures during the winter months. (III) The NAO does appear to have
371 some influence over summer rainfall, although the spatiality of these patterns is less distinctive
372 when compared to winter patterns.

373 Our results extend the understanding of the NAO's influence on rainfall patterns in Great Britain and
374 suggest that, now more than ever, there is potential to improve our predictive ability of
375 teleconnections and precipitation, allowing for better informed water management decisions. This is
376 important given the potential future impacts of climate change on hydro-meteorological conditions
377 in Great Britain (Watts *et al.*, 2015). In relation to seasonal forecasting and climate projections, this
378 work shows some potential and adds to the growing evidence finding value of including the NAOI in
379 model simulations (Baker *et al.*, 2017; Smith *et al.*, 2019).

380 It is important to note that our work uses gridded rainfall from the CEH-GEAR dataset, which over
381 the period shows variability in the number of rainfall stations used for interpolation. Therefore, an
382 avenue for future research would be to repeat similar analysis using more temporally consistent Met
383 Office MIDAS (Met Office Integrated Data Archive System) rainfall. The use of the new CEH SPI data
384 (Tanguy *et al.*, 2017) also has potential for future research in this area; due to the calculation of
385 multiple accumulation periods ranging from 3-24 months. Future research could utilise these longer
386 periods to establish whether there is any lagged effect of the NAO on rainfall patterns. It is also
387 important to note that the NAO cannot explain all of the rainfall spatio-temporal patterns in the UK.
388 NAO rainfall spatial signatures have been found to show variable levels of consistency over long
389 records (West *et al.*, 2019), and extreme events have been found to occur due to the interaction of
390 multiple teleconnections (Rust *et al.*, 2019). There is therefore still a future need to consider the
391 NAO's interaction with and the general influence of other teleconnections on weather and climate in
392 Great Britain to further improve our predictive capability of seasonal rainfall patterns (Comas-Bru &
393 McDermott, 2014; Hall & Hanna, 2018).

394

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398

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