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Strong large-scale climate response to North American sulphate aerosols in CESM

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Abstract

The effects of increased North American sulphate aerosol emissions on the climate of Mexico and the United States during 1950-1975 are investigated by using two sets of transient coupled experiments with the Community Earth System Model, one with historically evolving emissions, and a second one where North American SO₂ emissions are kept at their pre-industrial levels. The 1950-1975 increase in North American sulphate aerosols is found to have regional and remote impact. Over central U.S. and northern Mexico, the strengthening and westward expansion of the North Atlantic Subtropical High and subsequent intensification of the low-level easterlies, along with local aerosol interactions with radiation and clouds, cause a cooling trend and enhance precipitation. The interaction between the enhanced moisture transport across the Gulf of Mexico and the elevated topography of central Mexico favours positive rainfall on the Atlantic side while suppressing it on the Pacific side. These continental anomalies are embedded in a hemispheric-wide upper-tropospheric teleconnection pattern over the mid-latitudes, extending from the Pacific to the Atlantic basin. Details of the underlying mechanisms –in particular the prominent role of dynamical adjustments– are provided. With SO₂ emissions considerably reduced in the U.S., and the expectation of a continued global decline throughout the 21st century, this study sheds light upon possible ongoing and future regional climate responses to changes in anthropogenic forcing.

1 Introduction

The climate of Mexico and United States (U.S.) has undergone substantial temperature and precipitation changes in the recent decades. For instance, a rapid warming has been identified (Pachauri et al., 2014; Wuebbles et al., 2017), in line with the current global trend. Annual precipitation has decreased over central and southern Mexico, while a positive trend has been observed in northern Mexico and most of the U.S. (Pachauri et al., 2014; Wuebbles et al., 2017). Besides, the intensity and severity of droughts in some regions of the U.S. and Mexico have increased (Stahle et al., 2009; Wuebbles et al., 2017; Vega-Camarena et al., 2018). This has had profound impacts on society, water resources, and the local economy (Stocker et al., 2013, and references therein). Furthermore, CMIP5 models project strong additional warming and a large precipitation reduction over Mexico throughout the 21st century, particularly during the summer, although with considerable uncertainty (Karmalkar et al., 2011; Taylor et al., 2012; Stocker et al., 2013; Colorado-Ruiz et al., 2018). Over the US, temperature is also projected to rise in the coming decades, while precipitation changes are dependent on the location and the season, with a drying trend in most of the U.S. during summer and more precipitation during winter in the northern states (Wuebbles et al., 2017).

Aside greenhouse gases (GHGs), anthropogenic aerosols currently exert a considerable forcing on the Earth's radiative balance (Stocker et al., 2013). In particular, the global radiative forcing from sulphate aerosols during the 20th century is estimated to be of the same

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2
3 1 order of magnitude, but of opposite sign, to that of GHGs (Pachauri et al., 2014). Sulphate
4 2 aerosol emissions have been declining worldwide since the early 1980s and are projected to
5 3 decrease by up to 80% by the end of the 21st century, leading to an amplification of the
6 4 GHG-related warming of up to 1°C globally and even more at regional scale (Westervelt et
7 5 al., 2015). Yet, aerosols represent the largest uncertainty in current estimates of human-
8 6 driven climate change (Myhre et al., 2014) due to compounding uncertainties associated
9 7 with model representations of poorly-known aerosol processes, and with the estimation of
10 8 aerosol emissions.

11 9 Anthropogenic aerosols can modify the climate by scattering or absorbing solar radi-
12 10 ation, or by changing cloud properties and precipitation processes (e.g., Twomey, 1977;
13 11 Albrecht, 1989; Charlson et al., 1992; Ming & Ramaswamy, 2009; Boucher et al., 2013, and
14 12 references therein). Worldwide, aerosols have been found to play a major role in driving the
15 13 late 20th century weakening of the monsoon over South Asia (Bollasina et al., 2011; Un-
16 14 dorf, Polson, et al., 2018), East Asia (Song et al., 2014), and West Africa (Undorf, Polson,
17 15 et al., 2018), as well as in modulating multidecadal variability in sea surface temperature
18 16 over the North Atlantic (Booth et al., 2012; Undorf, Bollasina, et al., 2018). Even though
19 17 North America was one of the largest contributors (along with Europe) to global aerosol
20 18 emissions, particularly of sulphur dioxide (SO₂, precursor of sulphate aerosols), up to the
21 19 1980s (Hoesly et al., 2018), only a few studies have examined the climate response to an-
22 20 thropogenic aerosol variations over this region. Leibensperger et al. (2012) found a cooling
23 21 of 0.5 to 1°C over the central and eastern U.S. in response to increased U.S. anthropogenic
24 22 aerosols during 1970-1990. Westervelt et al. (2017) reported a considerable rainfall increase
25 23 over the central and eastern U.S. and over the North Atlantic associated with the recent SO₂
26 24 emissions decline. Yet, the physical mechanisms underlying these changes remain unclear.

27
28 25 The case for North America is particularly relevant as while surface temperature in-
29 26 creased worldwide, a cooling trend (the so-called “warming hole”), was observed over the
30 27 southern U.S. from the early 1950s to the mid 1970s (e.g., Robinson et al., 2002; Wang
31 28 et al., 2009; Leibensperger et al., 2012). Yet, there is no consensus on the factors driving
32 29 this muted warming, with some works emphasising the impact of aerosols (Leibensperger
33 30 et al., 2012; Yu et al., 2014; Mascioli et al., 2017), others the role of internal climate vari-
34 31 ability (mainly through teleconnections with Pacific sea surface temperatures; Robinson et
35 32 al., 2002; Wang et al., 2009; Banerjee et al., 2017) or possibly the combined effect of both
36 33 (Kunkel et al., 2006; Portmann et al., 2009).

37
38 34 A better understanding of the regional as well as large-scale climate response to the
39 35 20th century changes in North American aerosol emissions is key to achieve more robust
40 36 near-future projections in this highly vulnerable region (Karmalkar et al., 2011). In this
41 37 study, we assess the summertime climate impact of North American anthropogenic sulphate
42 38 emissions using a state-of-the-art climate model and identify the underpinning mechanisms.

43 44 45 39 **2 Data and Methods**

46 40 This study makes use of 8-member ensembles of transient coupled experiments with the
47 41 U.S. National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) Community Earth System Model
48 42 (CESM) version 1.2.2 (Hurrell et al., 2013). Model setup and experiments are thoroughly
49 43 described in Undorf, Bollasina, et al. (2018). The atmospheric component is the Community
50 44 Atmosphere Model (CAM) version 5.3 (Neale et al., 2012), which uses a 3-mode aerosol
51 45 scheme (MAM3, Ghan et al., 2012) and includes a full prognostic representation of aerosol-
52 46 cloud interactions (Ghan et al., 2012; Meehl et al., 2013). We analyse an all-forcing ensemble
53 47 (ALL) driven by time-varying historical emissions from both natural and anthropogenic
54 48 sources, and a perturbed ensemble identical to ALL but with anthropogenic emissions of
55 49 sulphate aerosols and sulphur dioxide from North America (continental United States and
56 50 Canada) fixed at their pre-industrial levels (NoNA). Assuming linearity in the combined
57 51 responses (which has been shown to be a reasonable approach, e.g.; Polson et al., 2014), the

1
2
3 difference ALL minus NoNA indicates, to a first order approximation, the impact of North
4 American aerosols. Note that non-linear interactions between aerosols and other forcings
5 (such as GHGs and remote aerosols) are removed in the NoNA ensemble, as these only
6 arise when North American aerosols are present. Such an assumption is routinely made in
7 studies investigating the impact of global forcing factors (e.g., Gillett et al., 2016), and more
8 specifically, that of regional aerosol emissions (e.g., Bollasina et al., 2014; Persad & Caldeira,
9 2018; Undorf, Polson, et al., 2018; Westervelt et al., 2018; Wilcox et al., 2019). We also
10 use several observational datasets to evaluate the present-day model performance: surface
11 temperature from the Climatic Research Unit (CRU) of the University of East Anglia (CRU
12 TS 4.01, at 0.5° resolution, CRU et al., 2017), the Berkeley Global surface temperatures
13 (BEST, at 1° resolution, Rohde et al., 2013), and the GISS Surface Temperature Analysis
14 (GISTEMP, at 2° resolution, Hansen et al., 2010); precipitation from CRU (CRU TS 3.26,
15 at 0.5° resolution, CRU et al., 2019) and from the Global Precipitation Climatology Centre
16 (GPCP v7, at 1° resolution, Becker et al., 2013); and wind fields from the National Centers
17 for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) - NCAR reanalysis (NCEP-NCAR, at 2.5° resolution,
18 Kalnay et al., 1996). A comparison between relevant present-day observed and simulated
19 summer climatology (Text S1 and figure S1) shows that the model can well reproduce
20 magnitude and location of the prominent regional circulation features.

21
22 The analysis focuses on summer (June-August), when a large percentage of annual
23 precipitation falls over most of the region (over 60% for southern Mexico and up to 40% for
24 southeast U.S.). The emphasis is on the period 1950-1975, when the cooling trend over the
25 southern U.S.-northern Mexico was the largest (see discussion in section 3). This period
26 encompasses the most pronounced near-linear increase in North American aerosol emissions
27 since pre-industrial times to their peak in the 1970s (figure 1(a); Smith et al., 2011; Hoesly
28 et al., 2018), resulting in a corresponding increase in SO₄ burden (figure 1(b)) and aerosol
29 optical depth (not shown). Temporal changes are identified by least-square linear trends.
30 To detect changes externally forced by anthropogenic aerosols, trends are computed for
31 ensemble mean quantities which allows to largely filter out internal variability. A two-
32 tailed Student's t test is used to assess the significance (at the 95% confidence level) of
33 the difference in the ensemble-mean response between the ALL and NoNA experiments.
34 The extent to which the robustness of the results is affected by internal variability of the
35 climate system is qualitatively estimated by the agreement on the sign of the trends across
36 individual ensemble members.

34 **3 Results**

35 At global scale, the climate response to increased sulphate aerosols features, in accor-
36 dance with induced changes in the global energy balance, an overall cooling (-0.02°C per
37 decade), particularly strong in the Northern Hemisphere (where aerosol emissions are lo-
38 cated; -0.03°C per decade), as well as a global-mean precipitation reduction (-0.003 mm
39 day⁻¹ per decade, or about 1% of the model summer climatology) accompanied by a south-
40 ern shift of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) towards the warmer hemisphere (not
41 shown). This is consistent with previous studies (e.g., Ridley et al., 2015; Allen et al., 2015;
42 Westervelt et al., 2018). At regional scale, the climate response patterns display substantial
43 spatial variability and result from the interplay between thermodynamical and dynamical
44 adjustments to aerosol forcing, as well as local feedback mechanisms.

45 To place the analysis into context, Figure 1(c)-(d) compares observed and simulated
46 near-surface temperature trends over the southeastern U.S. (black box in figure 2(a)) as
47 a function of the start and end years during the 20th century. A striking feature is the
48 marked 1950-1975 observed cooling trend (figure 1(c), $\sim -0.4^\circ\text{C}$, statistically significant at
49 the 95% confidence level), and the successive warming to present-day. While the largest
50 temperature anomalies are located over the south-central U.S., they are part of a coherent
51 large-scale pattern: the cooling is spatially extensive and spread over the eastern U.S. and
52 northern Mexico, accompanied by a weak warming over the western U.S. (figure 2(a)). This

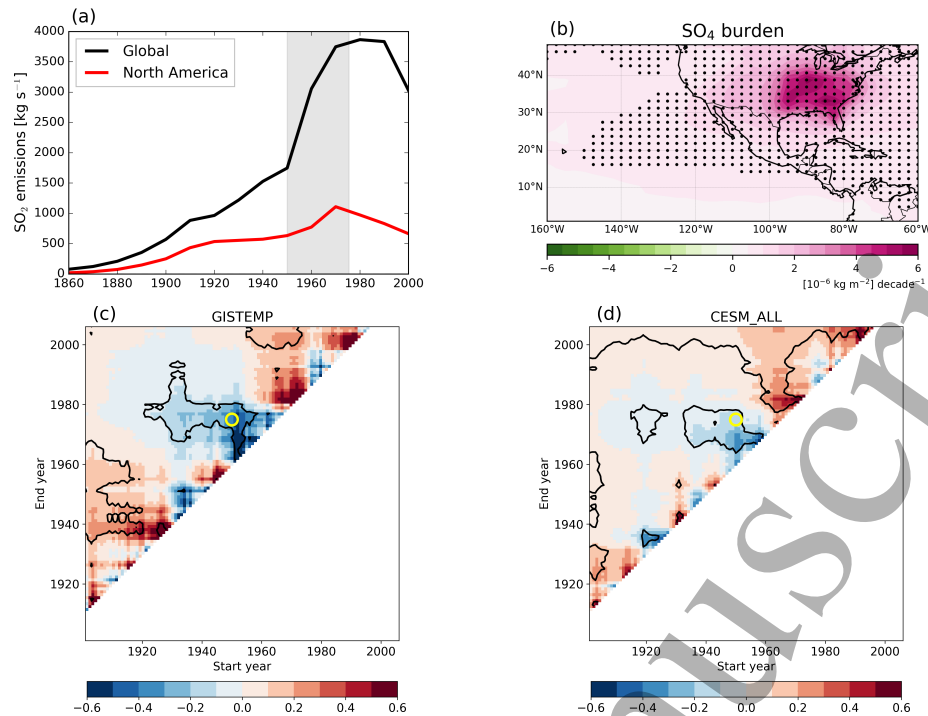


Figure 1. (a) Historical global (black) and North American (red) SO₂ emissions [kg s⁻¹] (data from Lamarque et al., 2010). The period 1950-1975 is shaded in grey. (b) Difference of the 1950-1975 linear trends (ALL minus NoNA) of sulphate burden [(10⁻⁶ kg m⁻²) decade⁻¹]. Black dots indicate significance at the 95% confidence level. (c) Observed and (d) simulated summer surface temperature trends [°C decade⁻¹] for southeast U.S. [80-105°W, 25-35°N, box in figure 2(a)] as a function of the start and end years in the 20th century. Trends over all periods of at least 10 years are plotted. The yellow circle shows the 1950-1975 trend. Significance at the 95% confidence level is denoted by black contours

spatial structure is consistent among various observational datasets (figure 2(b)-(d)) and is in agreement with previous studies (e.g., Leibensperger et al., 2012; Yu et al., 2014; Mascioli et al., 2017). Albeit of weaker magnitude, the CESM_ALL ensemble is able to capture the spatial pattern of the observed 1950-1975 temperature trend reasonably well, in particular the core cooling over the southern U.S. (figures 1(d) and 2(a)-(d)). Notably, the cooling is robust across the 8 ensemble members (figure S3), suggesting it to be primarily due to external forcing. The underestimated magnitude of the cooling in CESM_ALL, however, suggests a potential role of natural variability, or could also be the result of model biases and/or a compensation among different internal coupled processes (e.g., Stevens & Feingold, 2009).

Sulphate aerosols are found to be a key driver of the temperature anomalies described above. The large sulphate burden over the eastern U.S. (Figure 1(b)) results in a significant regional surface cooling (up to -0.5°C per decade, figure 3(a)), enhancing the all-forcing trend and, although weaker, showing a similar spatial pattern to observations (figure 2(a)-(d)). Note that the largest negative temperature trends are located to the west of the region of maximum SO₄ burden and the cooling extends to the Gulf of Mexico and the

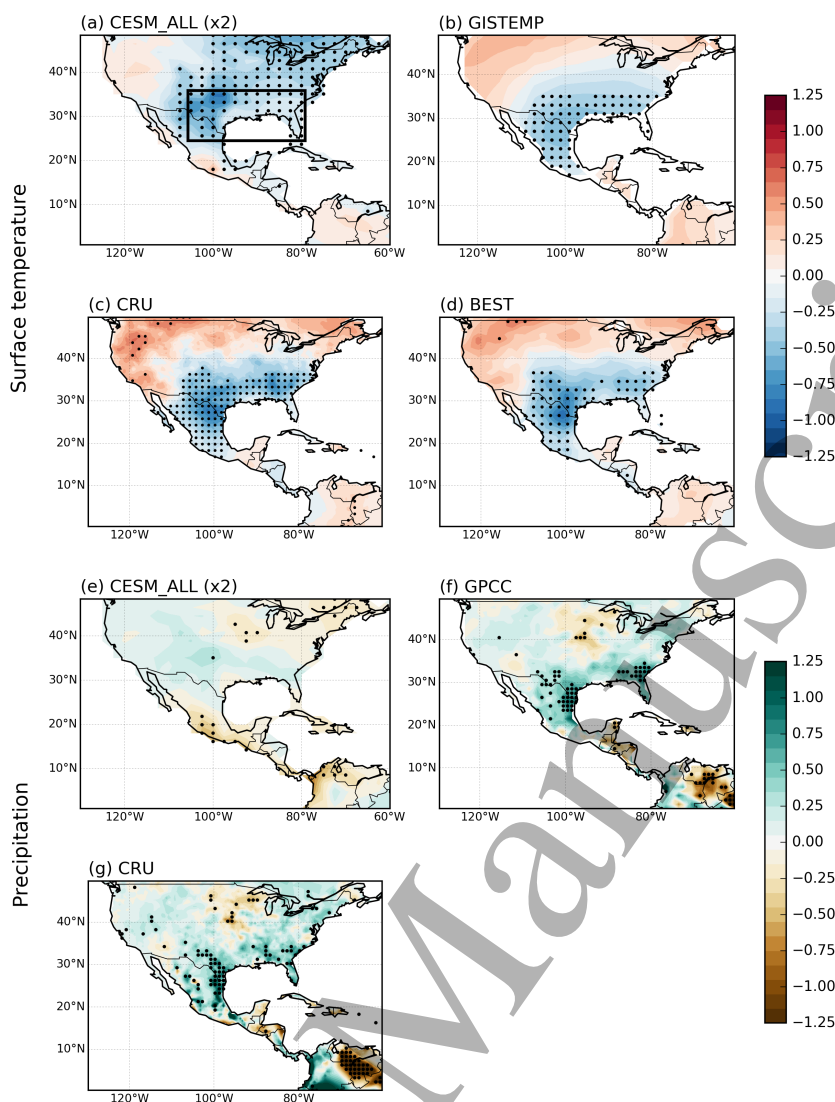


Figure 2. (a)-(d) Simulated and observed 1950-1975 summer surface temperature trends [$^{\circ}\text{C decade}^{-1}$] for: (a) CESHM_ALL, (b) GISTEMP, (c) CRU and (d) BEST. (e)-(f) As (a)-(d) but for precipitation trends [$(\text{mm day}^{-1}) \text{ decade}^{-1}$] using: (e) CESHM_ALL, (f) GPCCC and (g) CRU. The significance of the trends at the 95% confidence level is stippled. The CESHM_ALL trends in (a) and (e) are multiplied by a factor of 2. The stippling in (c), (d) and (g) has been regridded for clarity

1 North Atlantic Ocean (figure 3(a)). Furthermore, aerosols appear responsible for the weak
 2 warming along the western U.S. and southern Mexico.

3 The land precipitation response to increased sulphate aerosols (figure 3(b)), while mod-
 4 est over the emission region, features a large-scale wetting of up to 0.15 mm day^{-1} per
 5 decade over the Great Plains, the southern U.S. and northern Mexico, accompanied by
 6 a significant drying ($-0.25 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$ per decade) over western Mexico. The aerosol im-
 7 print is recognisable in the all-forcing pattern, and the latter is broadly consistent with the
 8 observed precipitation trends, although with some regional differences and of weaker mag-
 9 nitude (figure 2(e)-(g)). Over the ocean, widespread drying is found over the western North

1 Atlantic and the Gulf of Mexico, while a dipole of zonally-elongated anomalies forms over
2 the north-equatorial eastern Pacific (figure 3(b)), suggestive of an aerosol-driven anomalous
3 southwestward shift of the climatological rainfall.

4 The surface temperature and precipitation changes discussed above are associated with
5 pronounced regional atmospheric circulation anomalies. Changes in the lower-tropospheric
6 atmospheric circulation modulate heat and moisture transport and its convergence over land,
7 an important component of the regional atmospheric water balance (Mo et al., 2005; Nigam
8 & Ruiz-Barradas, 2006; Durán-Quesada et al., 2010; Amador et al., 2016). Additionally,
9 possible variations in the relative contribution of moisture convergence and evaporation may
10 have crucial implications for land water resources and storage under climate change (e.g.,
11 Ruiz-Barradas & Nigam, 2006).

12 The 700-hPa streamfunction (figure 3(c)) shows the development of a low-tropospheric
13 high pressure anomaly over the western North Atlantic with a corresponding pressure de-
14 crease towards the subtropical and equatorial Pacific, consistent with a thermodynamical
15 response to the anomalous surface cooling from increased sulphate aerosols and subsequent
16 mass redistribution. However, the centre of the anticyclonic anomaly is not geographically
17 collocated with the largest increase in aerosols over the northeastern U.S. but is displaced
18 northeastward over the Atlantic. This is suggestive of an atmospheric adjustment to aerosol
19 changes, resulting in a large-scale dynamical response pattern extending beyond the source
20 region.

21 As a result, the North Atlantic Subtropical High (NASH), a key dynamical feature
22 modulating moisture transport towards Mexico and the central-eastern U.S., intensifies,
23 especially on its northern flank, and extends southwestward across central Mexico (figure
24 3(c)). Anomalous low-tropospheric easterlies blow over the subtropical western Atlantic
25 (figure 3(c)) obstructing the climatological southerlies over the southern U.S. and deflect-
26 ing the climatological easterlies over the Caribbean southward, which leads to anomalous
27 moisture flux divergence over the eastern seaboard of the U.S. and the northern Gulf of
28 Mexico (figure 3(d)). The interaction between the enhanced easterly moisture transport
29 and the elevated topography of central Mexico favours positive rainfall trends on the At-
30 lantic side, while suppressing rainfall on the Pacific side. A stronger northeastward pressure
31 gradient over the eastern tropical Pacific reinforces the climatological easterlies but also in-
32 duces anomalous divergence, leading to anomalous drying there and the precipitation shift
33 mentioned above.

34 The 850-hPa flow associated with the anomalous Atlantic high displays a secondary
35 branch with cyclonic rotation over the eastern U.S. that later joins the flow over the Gulf
36 of Mexico (figure 3(c)). Correspondingly, the anomalous northerly stationary moisture
37 fluxes across the continental U.S. oppose their climatology (e.g., Ruiz-Barradas & Nigam,
38 2006), and feature divergence over the Great Plains (figure 3(d)). The contribution of
39 this drier northerly flow to the positive precipitation anomaly of the region turns out to
40 be negligible, which suggests a key role of dynamically-induced convergence, rather than
41 transport. Further evidence for this is provided by changes in the 700-hPa circulation
42 (figure 3(c)), the lowest available level above regional topography, which hints to a plausible
43 dynamical link with the moisture convergence pattern via Sverdrup balance and induced
44 vertical motion. We will discuss this link below. The leading role of evaporation anomalies
45 (figure S5) is striking over the southwest U.S. and northern Mexico, a dynamically active
46 region enclosing the northern edge of the North American monsoon, where water recycling
47 is particularly large (evaporation largely exceeds precipitation), and compensates for the
48 regional anomalous vertically-integrated moisture divergence.

49 An examination of the changes in radiation and clouds sheds light on the realisation
50 of the regional aerosol impact. Increased sulphate loading (figure 1(b)) leads to a marked
51 reduction in all-sky and clear-sky downwelling shortwave radiation at the surface (figure
52 4(a)-(b)), with decreases of up to -7 and 1.25 W m^{-2} per decade, respectively, over the

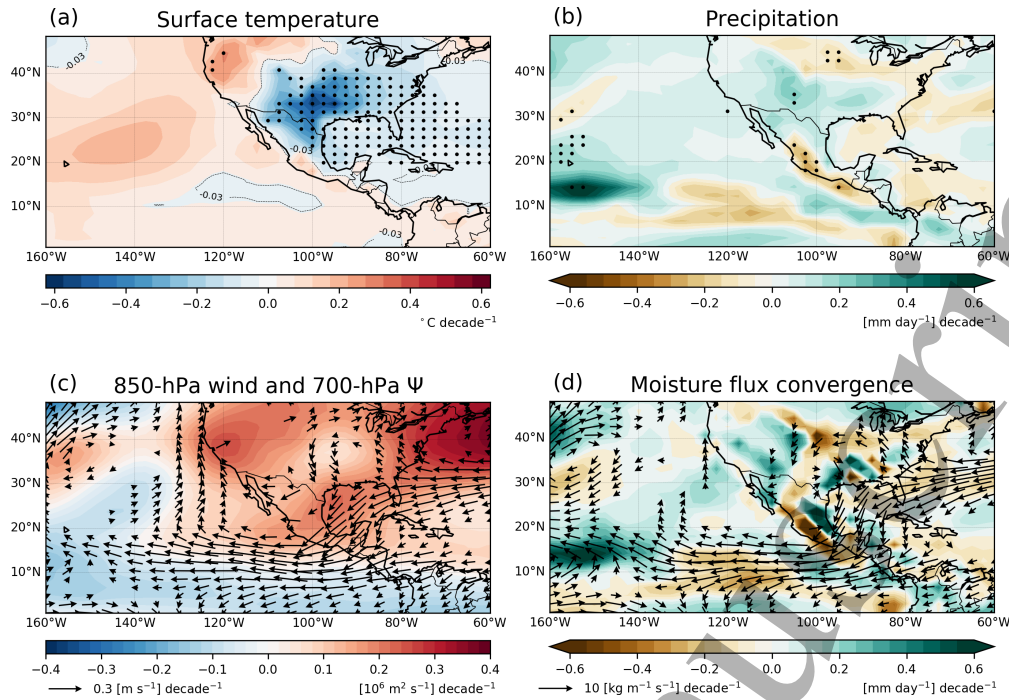


Figure 3. Difference of the 1950-1975 linear trends (ALL minus NoNA) of: (a) surface temperature [$^{\circ}\text{C decade}^{-1}$], (b) precipitation [$(\text{mm day}^{-1}) \text{decade}^{-1}$], (c) 850-hPa wind [vectors, $(\text{m s}^{-1}) \text{decade}^{-1}$] and 700-hPa streamfunction [ψ , shades, $(10^6 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}) \text{decade}^{-1}$], and (d) vertically integrated moisture flux [vectors, $(\text{kg m}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}) \text{decade}^{-1}$] and its convergence [shades, $(\text{mm day}^{-1}) \text{decade}^{-1}$]. Positive streamfunction values indicate anticyclonic circulation. Significance at the 95% confidence level is stippled, (a)-(b) only. The agreement on the sign of the trends for (a) and (b) across individual ensemble members is shown in figure S4

southeastern U.S. There is also a decrease of -4 W m^{-2} per decade at the top of the atmosphere (TOA, not shown). Shortwave cloud forcing (i.e., the difference between all-sky and clear-sky shortwave radiation) changes are predominant over the aerosol emission region (up to 80% of the all-sky changes), suggesting aerosol-cloud interactions to play a critical role there. Clear-sky shortwave radiation anomalies at the surface and TOA display considerable similarity, reflecting the scattering properties of sulphate aerosols. Over the central and western U.S., both surface and TOA all-sky radiation changes display a decrease while the corresponding clear-sky anomalies are negligible, indicative of increased radiation scattering by more abundant clouds and associated precipitation (figure 3(b)). Similarly, the positive all-sky radiation flux anomalies over western Mexico and further west over the subtropical Pacific are related to drier conditions.

Changes in various cloud characteristics (figure 4(c)-(f)) show similar large-scale response patterns consistent with radiation and precipitation anomalies. Low-level cloud cover (figure 4(c)) features a widespread and significant positive trend over central and eastern U.S. These changes are accompanied by a significant increase in cloud droplet concentration (figure 4(e)) and, although more confined to the east, by a decrease in the droplet effective radius (figure 4(f)), a manifestation of the cloud-albedo effect in the presence of more abundant cloud condensation nuclei and assuming negligible changes in liquid water (Twomey, 1977). However, liquid water path shows a pronounced increase over the eastern U.S. (figure

1 4(d)), possibly resulting from more abundant droplets held in clouds rather than precipitat-
2 ing out (the cloud-lifetime aerosol effect; Albrecht, 1989) and from an enhanced moistened
3 flux from the Atlantic Ocean. We note that in a large domain of the eastern U.S. there
4 is an increase in the droplet effective radius (excepting the easternmost region mentioned
5 above). A plausible explanation for this is the circulation-driven increase in liquid water
6 path overcompensating for any microphysical-driven decrease in the droplet size. This high-
7 lights the complexity of the interplay between cloud microphysics and dynamics in addition
8 to the important role of aerosol-cloud interactions found here. Decreased liquid water path
9 and cloud fraction occur over the north-equatorial Pacific, consistent with the diminished
10 rainfall and enhanced net shortwave radiation at the surface. Anomalies of the opposite sign
11 stretch in a nearly zonal fashion, from the western coast of Central America towards the
12 tropical Pacific, contributing, together with enhanced evaporation (figure S5) by stronger
13 easterlies, to cooling SSTs. The negative SST anomaly is then further spread westward by
14 wind-driven advection. Over the northern Gulf of Mexico, dimming by widespread aerosols
15 leads to cooler SSTs, which locally act to strengthen the anticyclone, as well as, region-
16 ally, to enhance the thermal contrast between the Atlantic and Pacific basins and thus the
17 pressure gradient and associated flow.

18 Given the link between continental surface anomalies and those in the regional circula-
19 tion, as well as with anomalies over the adjoining oceanic basins (which are known to
20 modulate North American hydroclimate; Burgman & Jang, 2015; Kushnir et al., 2010), it is
21 important to examine the large-scale dynamical context, aiding to an improved mechanistic
22 understanding of how these interactions occur. The pattern of anomalous 500-hPa vertical
23 velocity (not shown) bears a strong resemblance to that of rainfall: wetter (drier) areas gen-
24 erally correspond to ascent (descent), as expected from the approximate balance between
25 diabatic heating and mid-tropospheric vertical motion in the tropics and subtropics. This is
26 clearly discernible over the Pacific and Atlantic oceans, far from land and orographic effects
27 (e.g., across Mexico and the southwestern U.S.). The precipitation excess over the central
28 U.S. and northeastern Mexico is also accompanied by widespread ascent, while an area of
29 strong subsidence is located over the drier northern central U.S.

30 The 200-hPa geopotential height and meridional wind anomalies (figure 5(a)) further
31 reveal a coherent wave pattern across the Pacific-North American region towards the extra-
32 tropical Atlantic, indicating that the surface anomalies over the eastern U.S. and Mexico are
33 embedded in a hemispheric-wide upper-tropospheric teleconnection pattern. The equivalent-
34 barotropic nature of the anomalies over North America (with a slight westward tilt with
35 height) is suggestive of a remotely-forced stationary wave response (e.g., Qin & Robinson,
36 1993). Interestingly, the anomalous height pattern resembles the stationary wave forced by
37 diabatic heating in the central Pacific (Ting, 1994); also the tri-polar pattern across North
38 America bears striking resemblance to the summertime wave pattern associated with vari-
39 ability of the Great Plains low level jet (Weaver & Nigam, 2011) and is further reminiscent
40 of the summer hemispheric-wide wave train identified by Ding and Wang (2005). Insights
41 into the nature of this remote forcing are provided by figures 3(b) and 5; the precipitation
42 anomaly (dipole) over the central Pacific results in vertically-integrated diabatic heating
43 anomalies (up to $+0.16 \text{ K day}^{-1}$ per decade in the positive core, assuming all the heating
44 is due to condensation) and an upper-tropospheric outflow.

45 Yet, teleconnection patterns are not necessarily generated over the region of the forc-
46 ing but can be displaced far downstream as determined by the Rossby wave source (RWS;
47 Sardeshmukh & Hoskins, 1988). A wave source dipole coincident with convection anomalies
48 in the central north-equatorial Pacific is clearly recognisable (5(b)-(c)); strong meridional di-
49 vergent outflow associated with the rainfall anomalies coexist with large meridional vorticity
50 gradients due to the Asian-Pacific jet (e.g., Sardeshmukh & Hoskins, 1988; Qin & Robinson,
51 1993; Weaver & Nigam, 2008). The RWS distribution features other centres in the extra-
52 tropics, which can be interpreted as secondary sources generated by the quasi-geostrophic
53 adjustment of the circulation to the wave generated in the primary source region.

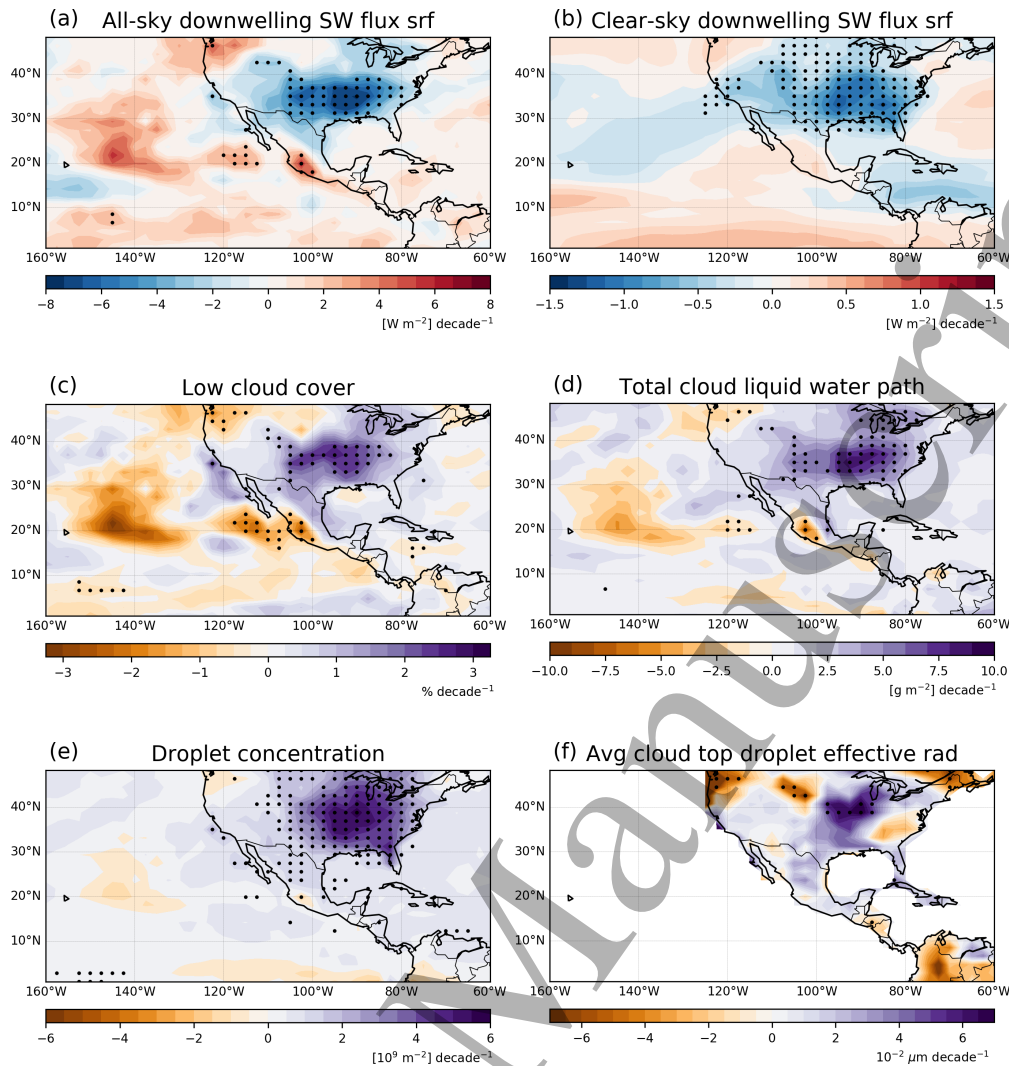


Figure 4. As figure 3 but for: (a) all-sky downwelling shortwave radiation at the surface $[(\text{W m}^{-2}) \text{decade}^{-1}]$, (b) clear-sky downwelling shortwave radiation at the surface $[(\text{W m}^{-2}) \text{decade}^{-1}]$, (c) low cloud cover $[\% \text{decade}^{-1}]$, (d) total cloud liquid water path $[(\text{g m}^{-2}) \text{decade}^{-1}]$, (e) vertically integrated droplet concentration $[10^9 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{decade}^{-1}]$, and (f) Average cloud top droplet effective radius $[10^{-2} \mu\text{m} \text{decade}^{-1}]$. In (a) and (b), negative values are upward fluxes and indicate cooling. Significance at the 95% confidence level is stippled

The anomalous hemispheric-wide wave pattern identified above, initially instigated by circulation anomalies over the eastern U.S. and of remote central Pacific origin, in turn has an important imprint downstream in modulating the continental aerosol-related signal. In agreement with the Sverdrup vorticity balance (e.g., Rodwell & Hoskins, 2001), strong descent and convection suppression occurs to the east of the upper-tropospheric anomalous ridge and southward flow over the northern Great Plains. Conversely, off the coast of the northeastern U.S., ascent is associated with northward flow on the eastern flank of an anomalous trough. Correspondingly, a dry (wet) anomaly is seen in the precipitation distribution (figure 3(b)). A full mechanistic explanation of the dynamics underlying the formation of the continental precipitation pattern shown in figure 3(b) requires, however, to

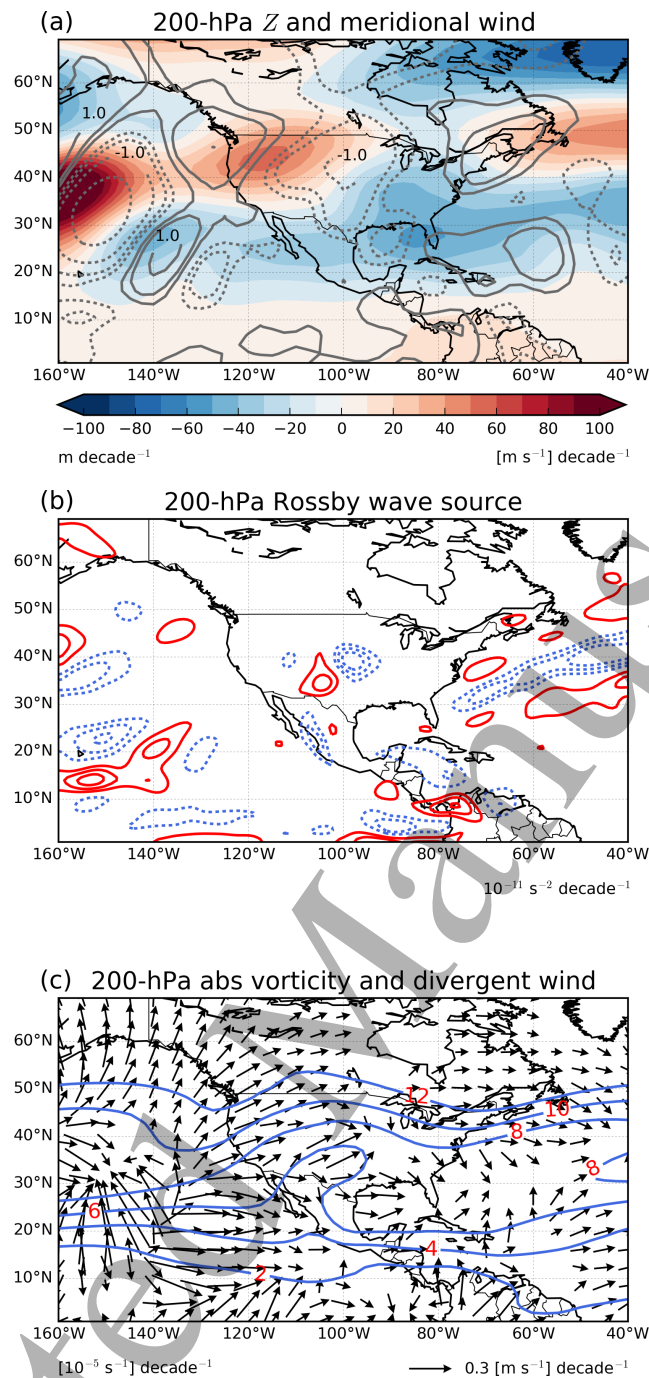


Figure 5. As figure 3 but for the 200-hPa circulation: (a) geopotential height [Z , shades, m decade^{-1}] and meridional wind [grey contours, $(\text{m s}^{-1}) \text{ decade}^{-1}$], (b) Rossby wave source [$10^{-11} \text{ s}^{-2} \text{ decade}^{-1}$], and (c) absolute vorticity [blue contours, $(10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}) \text{ decade}^{-1}$] and divergent wind [vectors, $(\text{m s}^{-1}) \text{ decade}^{-1}$]. Negative contours are dashed in (a) and (b). The contours shown in (a) are ± 0.25 , ± 0.5 , ± 1 , ± 2 , and ± 3 . The contours shown in (b) are ± 1 , ± 2 , and ± 3

1 account also for the interaction between upper-tropospheric wave dynamics and the Rockies:
 2 anomalous northeasterlies, part of the anomalous upstream anticyclonic circulation, impinge
 3 on the western slope of the Rockies (around 30-40°N, 105°W), generating low-tropospheric

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3 convergence and ascent, and thus positive precipitation anomalies. It is also noteworthy
4 that the wave pattern across the eastern U.S., notably the location of the anticyclone over
5 the northern Atlantic, is largely coherent with the near-surface circulation anomalies. Par-
6 ticularly, the low-tropospheric anticyclone over the eastern U.S. is displaced northeastward
7 over the ocean, despite the strong land negative radiative forcing. The surface extension of
8 the upper-level anomalies is thus indicative of an interesting modulation of the aerosol sub-
9 regional imprint by the subsequent large-scale circulation response instigated by induced
10 tropical anomalies.
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13 4 Discussion and Conclusions

14
15 This work sought to characterise the summertime climate response to increased North
16 American sulphate aerosols and to understand the underlying mechanisms, particularly the
17 role of atmospheric circulation adjustments –a key factor modulating the conspicuous mois-
18 ture transport and related hydroclimate over Mexico and the U.S. The focus is on the
19 period 1950-1975, which encompasses the largest increase and subsequent peak in aerosol
20 emissions, and features an anomalous cooling over the eastern U.S. amidst the general con-
21 tinental warming –the “warming hole”–, whose drivers are still the subject of a controversial
22 debate. We used two sets of historical experiments conducted with the CESM model to iso-
23 late the impact of regional aerosol changes: a set of all-forcing experiments and an identical
24 one but with North American aerosol emissions kept at their pre-industrial levels.
25

26 Regionally, increased aerosols result in widespread large cooling over the central and
27 eastern U.S. and northern Mexico and weak warming over the western U.S. and southern
28 Mexico. Precipitation reduces along the eastern coast of the U.S., opposed to the wetter
29 U.S. continental interior. This is accompanied by a strengthening and westward expansion of
30 the NASH and subsequent intensification of the low-level easterlies and associated moisture
31 transport across the Gulf of Mexico and the eastern north-equatorial Pacific. Both aerosol-
32 radiation and aerosol-cloud interactions contribute to generating these anomalies. At larger
33 scale, a zonal precipitation dipole appears over the eastern tropical Pacific, in contrast with
34 the more meridional and weaker response in the Atlantic sector. The induced anomalous
35 diabatic heating generates a coherent upper-tropospheric signal in the mid-latitudes from
36 the Pacific to the Atlantic basin, which in turn modulates the local aerosol imprint over
37 North America. This emphasises the prominent role of adjustments in the atmospheric
38 circulation and the interplay between local and remote influences in realising the impact of
39 North American aerosols.
40

41 One may wonder whether European aerosols, which also increased during the 1950-
42 1975 period by a similar amount, had any influence. Analysis of an additional 8-member
43 all-forcing ensemble with fixed European sulphate aerosol emissions at pre-industrial levels
44 shows that the temperature and precipitation response patterns over Mexico and the U.S. are
45 of smaller magnitude than those driven by North American aerosols (not shown). Aerosols
46 are transported over the subtropical Atlantic basin by the climatological circulation. How-
47 ever, cooling of the underlying SST is minor (-0.03°C per decade), with negligible changes
48 in lower-tropospheric winds. Instead, regional aerosol dimming induces a large anomalous
49 anticyclone over northeastern Europe extending throughout the troposphere, which in turn
50 leads to an upper-tropospheric wave-train propagating across Eurasia (similarly to Undorf,
51 2019). This reaches the maximum amplitude over Eastern Asia when interacting with the
52 Asian Jet, and then progressively weakens while crossing the eastern Pacific and the U.S.

53 It is further reasonable to ask whether an aerosol signature is discernible also after the
54 late 1970s, when stringent regulations aimed at improving air quality led to a rapid aerosol
55 decline over the U.S. (halved in the following 30 years, Smith et al., 2011). To ascertain
56 this, we analyse the period 1976-2006. Observations show a warming trend over the whole
57 domain, particularly large over the western U.S., western Mexico, and the northeastern U.S.
58 and southeastern Canada (figure S2(b)-(d)), while the temperature increase is relatively
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1 modest over the central U.S. Also, an overall wettening, with the largest increase over the
2 southeastern U.S. and the Great Plains, is observed (figure S2(f)-(g)). The ALL experiments
3 reproduce the above features well S2(a) and (e). Analysis of the NoNA experiments indicate
4 that aerosols, although decreasing during this period, produce cooling over the central and
5 western U.S., and enhanced precipitation over the southern U.S. and part of the Great
6 Plains. Despite opposite aerosol variations, these anomalous response patterns bear strong
7 resemblance to those during the earlier period, hinting to a common driving mechanism.
8 Support to their dynamically-rooted origin is found in the anomalous rainfall pattern over
9 the Pacific (figure S4): decreased aerosols result in a nearly-uniform northward precipitation
10 shift, with a core over the north-equatorial basin west of 135°W, which generates a wave-
11 like upper-tropospheric response downstream (not shown) similarly to that of the 1950-1975
12 period. This further emphasises the role of Pacific anomalies as a key factor modulating the
13 aerosol-driven continental anomalies as well as the fundamental contribution of large-scale
14 circulation adjustments.

15 Although our findings are based on ensemble experiments with 8 members each, the
16 potential role of the internal variability in modulating multi-decadal climate variations over
17 North America cannot be conclusively assessed. In this respect, the use of large ensembles,
18 such as the CESM-LENS (Kay et al., 2015), would help to more robustly isolate the external
19 component in the presence of internally-driven fluctuations.

20 Furthermore, the results presented here are based on one model only and so they rely
21 on the model's representation of aerosol, cloud, and circulation interactions, which could
22 differ from those in other climate models and/or the real world given the large uncertainties
23 associated with anthropogenic aerosols and their climate interactions. For instance, the
24 aerosol effective radiative forcing (ERF) in CESM1 is known to be large (Zelinka et al.,
25 2014), which could give a stronger climate response to aerosols than that in other climate
26 models. This will depend on how much of the total contribution to the ERF is coming from
27 the processes that drive the regional climate response identified. Despite these limitations,
28 the important role of regional aerosols and their large-scale footprint found here can translate
29 into implications for near-future projections of climate variability over Mexico and the U.S,
30 which affects not just seasonal mean quantities but also climate extremes (see Text S2 and
31 figure S6). With SO₂ emissions considerably reduced in the U.S., and the expectation of a
32 continued global decline throughout the 21st century, this study sheds light upon possible
33 ongoing and future regional climate responses to changes in anthropogenic forcing.

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41 The data used in this study is available from MAB upon request.

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