

Asymmetric response of Northern Hemisphere near-surface wind speed to CO₂ removal

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30 Abstract

31 Understanding changes in near-surface wind speed (NSWS) is crucial for weather
32 extremes prediction and wind energy management. This study examines the response of
33 NSWS to atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) removal using large ensemble simulations of the
34 Community Earth System Model version 1.2 (CESM1.2) and the models participating in the
35 Carbon Dioxide Removal Model Intercomparison Project. Our results reveal that increasing
36 CO₂ concentrations lead to an overall weakening in the Northern Hemisphere (NH)
37 extratropical NSWS over land. During the initial stage of CO₂ removal (early ramp-down
38 period), NH NSWS rapidly recovers. However, this recovery stalls and transitions into a
39 declining trend during the late ramp-down period, mainly driven by pronounced negative
40 NSWS trends in Europe. We find that a concurrent rapid recovery of the Atlantic Meridional
41 Overturning Circulation (AMOC) counteracts the global cooling-induced recovery of the
42 North Atlantic meridional air temperature gradient and associated westerly jet, thus prolonging
43 NSWS weakening in NH mid-latitudes. Our findings underscore the pivotal ~~and phase-~~
44 ~~dependent~~ role of AMOC in regulating NH extratropical NSWS variability under varying CO₂
45 concentrations, offering valuable insights for future climate adaptation strategies.

46

47 1 Introduction

48 The phenomena of terrestrial near-surface wind speed (~10 m above the ground; NSWS)
49 "stilling" and subsequent "reversal" have been recognized for over a decade, yet significant
50 gaps remain in understanding their underlying mechanisms (Wu et al., 2018; Zeng et al., 2019).
51 Accurate future projections of NSWS have garnered significant attention primarily due to their

52 implications for wind energy development (Karnauskas et al., 2018; Zeng et al., 2019; Zhang
53 and Li, 2020; Pryor et al., 2021; Shen et al., 2024). Several studies based on climate model
54 simulations have investigated future spatiotemporal variations of NSWS in response to
55 increasing atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂), revealing complex global and regional
56 responses influenced by polar amplification and altered land-sea thermal gradients (Bichet et
57 al., 2012; Karnauskas et al., 2018; Shen et al., 2021; Zha et al., 2021; Deng et al., 2022). Future
58 projections using these models, mostly from the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project
59 Phases 5 and 6 (CMIP5 and CMIP6) (Taylor et al., 2012; O'Neill et al., 2016), consistently
60 project robust reductions in NSWS over mid-latitude land areas of the Northern Hemisphere
61 (NH) and increases in parts of the Southern Hemisphere by the end of the 21st century
62 (Karnauskas et al., 2018; Zha et al., 2021; Deng et al., 2022; Shen et al., 2022). However, these
63 idealized CO₂ experiments typically focus on scenarios involving continuously rising CO₂
64 concentrations through the 21st century, while the potential impacts of subsequent CO₂
65 removal on NSWS have not been examined. Clarifying this response is crucial, given global
66 decarbonization objectives and the anticipated widespread deployment of wind energy
67 resources (Lei et al., 2023).

68 The irreversibility and asymmetry of various climate phenomena have been investigated
69 through CO₂ ramp-up and ramp-down experiments using the global climate models. Many
70 studies have employed the standard CMIP “1pctCO₂” experiment as the ramp-up experiment,
71 in which CO₂ concentration gradually increases at a rate of 1% per year for 140 years until it
72 quadruples relative to pre-industrial levels (Eyring et al., 2016). On this basis, different ramp-
73 down scenarios have been performed to assess the reversibility of CO₂-induced climate change

(Wu et al., 2010; Cao et al., 2011; Boucher et al., 2012; MacDougall, 2013; Wu et al., 2014; Ma et al., 2016; Field and Mach, 2017; Ehlert and Zickfeld, 2018). To systematically explore such scenarios, the Carbon Dioxide Removal Model Intercomparison Project (CDRMIP) in CMIP6 has been launched to provide 1pctCO₂-carbon dioxide removal experiment as the ramp-down period, in which the climate initiates from the end of the 1pctCO₂ experiment and the evolution of CO₂ concentration mirrors that in the 1pctCO₂ experiment (Keller et al., 2018). These experiments facilitate evaluation of climate responses and the associated uncertainties stemming from model differences (Zhang et al., 2023; Jin et al., 2024; Su et al., 2024).

Following the CDRMIP protocol (Keller et al., 2018), An et al. (2021) conducted large-ensemble simulations of CO₂ ramp-up and ramp-down simulations using the Community Earth System Model version 1.2 (CESM1.2). It is found that major ocean circulation systems, particularly the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC), shows a unique delayed recovery that significantly shapes the responses of other climatic factors (An et al., 2021; Oh et al., 2022). Subsequent studies expanded on these results to examine implications for the hydrological cycle (Yeh et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2022; Kug et al., 2022; Im et al., 2024), El Niño–Southern Oscillation (Liu et al., 2023a, b; Pathirana et al., 2023), Hadley cell (Kim et al., 2023), gross primary productivity (Yang et al., 2024) and mid-latitude storm tracks (Hwang et al., 2024), all demonstrating varying degrees of irreversibility. Regarding wind speed, Hwang et al. (2024) reported enhanced cyclone-related surface wind extremes in southern North America and Europe during the late CO₂ removal period. However, the responses of mean NSWS under these CO₂ scenarios have received little attention.

Given CESM’s demonstrated capability in reproducing global historical NSWS patterns

(Shen et al., 2022) and considering the importance of wind energy resources in the NH mid-latitudes are expected to be significantly developed (Pryor et al., 2020). We are motivated to investigate how NSWS in the NH mid-latitudes would respond to potential future CO₂ removal. To ensure robustness, we analyze results from CESM1.2 alongside those from three available CMIP6 models participating in the CDRMIP.

101

102 **2 Data and Method**

103 **2.1 CESM1.2 Simulations**

104 CESM1.2 (Hurrell et al., 2013) includes the atmosphere (Community Atmospheric
105 Model version 5), ocean (Parallel Ocean Program version 2), sea ice (Community Ice Code
106 version 4), and land models (Community Land Model version 4). The atmospheric component
107 features a horizontal resolution of approximately 1° and 30 vertical levels (Neale et al., 2012).
108 The ocean component includes 60 vertical levels, with a longitudinal resolution of about 1°
109 and a latitudinal resolution of about 0.3° near the equator, increasing gradually to about 0.5°
110 near the poles (Smith et al., 2010). The land component includes the carbon-nitrogen cycle
111 (Lawrence et al., 2011).

112 The experiment followed idealized CO₂ scenarios in two phases (An et al., 2021). In the
113 first phase, the CO₂ concentration was held constant at 367 ppm, representing present-day
114 levels, and the model is integrated for 900 years to generate an equilibrium ocean–atmosphere
115 state. In the second phase, the CO₂ concentration increased from 367 ppm to 1,478 ppm at a
116 rate of 1% per year over 140 years (2001–2140: ramp-up period), then decreased back to 367

117 ppm at the same rate over the next 140 years (2141–2280: ramp-down period). After the ramp-
118 down period, CO₂ levels were stabilized at 367 ppm for 220 years (2281–2500: stabilization
119 period). This second phase was run with 28 ensemble members, each starting from different
120 initial conditions taken from the present-day period, representing various phases of multi-
121 decadal climate oscillations such as the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation and Pacific Decadal
122 Oscillation. Such large ensemble simulations provide a sufficient tool to separate the forced
123 responses from internal variability, making it effective in assessing forced changes in regional
124 NSWS (Li et al., 2019; Deser et al., 2020; Zha et al., 2021).

125 **2.2 CDRMIP Simulations**

126 We further utilized CMIP6 models in the CDRMIP to verify the results of CESM1.2.
127 Notably, CanESM5, MIROC-ES2L, and NorESM2-LM models are the only three available
128 models with variables of “sfcWind” (near-surface wind speed) and “msftmz” (stream function,
129 for calculating AMOC), and each model contains one realization. We compared terrestrial
130 NSWS (60°S–70°N) climatology in their present-day run (CESM1.2) and piControl
131 experiments (CanESM5, MIROC-ES2L, and NorESM2-LM) with the ERA5 (Hersbach et al.,
132 2020), and found that the pattern correlation coefficients are 0.85, 0.81, 0.72, and 0.89 for
133 CESM1.2, CanESM5, MIROC-ES2L, and NorESM2-LM, respectively. For the 20°N–70°N
134 terrestrial NSWS, the pattern correlation coefficients are 0.71, 0.59, 0.52, and 0.83,
135 respectively (Fig. S1). The magnitudes between four models and the ERA5 are comparable,
136 and the area weighted root mean squared difference between models and ERA5 are 1.03, 1.07,
137 1.37, and 0.71 m s⁻¹, respectively. These indicate an overall reasonable ability of models in

138 reproducing the large-scale characteristics of terrestrial NSWs.

139 **2.3 AMOC Index**

140 The AMOC index was calculated as the maximum stream function value at 26.7°N in the
141 North Atlantic (0°N–70°N, 60°W–30°E), providing a robust measure of AMOC strength and
142 variability across different simulation phases (An et al., 2021).

143 **2.4 Statistical Methods**

144 To facilitate consistent analysis, all data were bi-linearly interpolated to a uniform $1.5^\circ \times$
145 1.5° grid. All calculations related to NSWs are focused on the land regions, except that North
146 Atlantic NSWs focuses on oceanic NSWs. Calculations related to surface temperature include
147 both ocean and land regions. An 11-year running mean was used for all physical variables,
148 unless otherwise stated. To clarify and quantify the contributions of global-mean surface air
149 temperature and AMOC to NSWs changes, we performed a bi-regression analysis. This
150 analysis allowed us to assess the proportion of NSWs variance explained by each factor during
151 different periods.

152

153 **3 NSW Responses to CO₂ Ramp-up and Ramp-down**

154 In the CESM1.2 simulations, the annual global-mean surface air temperature (GMST)
155 increases by about 5°C from 2000 to 2140 (Fig. 1a). This warming trend reverses during the
156 ramp-down period (2141–2280) as CO₂ concentrations decrease, although the cooling trend is
157 less pronounced than the preceding warming. During the stabilization period (2281–2500),
158 GMST remains approximately 1°C above the year 2000 levels for roughly 40 years before

159 gradually declining toward 2500. Spatially, the ramp-up period shows pronounced warming
160 over high-latitude land areas, whereas oceanic warming is moderate (Fig. S2a). The Subpolar
161 North Atlantic (SNA) exhibits minimal warming, known as “warming hole” or “cold blob”
162 (Chemke et al., 2020; Keil et al., 2020; Rahmstorf, 2024), and is likely due to reduced heat
163 transport associated with a weakening AMOC under global warming (Zhang et al., 2019).
164 Conversely, during the ramp-down period (2141–2280), most areas cool, including the SNA
165 (Fig. S2b). The asymmetric surface air temperature (SAT) trends over the SNA are largely
166 driven by the delayed recovery of AMOC during the late ramp-down period (2221–2280),
167 which is influenced by increased salt advection feedback due to changes in the subtropic-to-
168 subpolar salinity gradient and ocean stratification (An et al., 2021; Oh et al., 2022).

169 Throughout the CO₂ ramp-up period (2001–2140), the NH-averaged (20°N–70°N)
170 annual-mean NSWS decreased, consistent with projections by CMIP6 models (Zha et al., 2021;
171 Shen et al., 2022). The ramp-down period is divided into early (2141–2220) and late (2221–
172 2280) ramp-down periods (An et al., 2021). During the early ramp-down period (2141–2220),
173 NSWS in the NH extratropics rebounds rapidly to year-2000 levels at about double the rate of
174 the ramp-up period. Correspondingly, SAT pattern features stronger cooling over the SNA (Fig.
175 S2c), similar to the ramp-up period, indicating a strengthened meridional SAT gradient. In
176 contrast, during the late ramp-down period (2221–2280), NH extratropical NSWS changes
177 moderately (Fig. 1b), accompanied by a notable warming trend over the SNA and weaker
178 cooling trends at high NH latitudes compared to the early ramp-down period (2141–2220)
179 (Figs. S2c–d). Throughout the stabilization period (2281–2500), NH NSWS initially continues
180 to decline slowly, then gradually increases towards the end of the simulation.

To further examine the regional reversibility of NSWs under varying CO₂ conditions, Figs. 2a–d show the spatial patterns of NH NSWs trends during the ramp-up, ramp-down, early ramp-down, and late ramp-down periods, respectively. During the ramp-up period (2001–2140) (Fig. 2a), significant negative NSWs trends prevail across mid-latitudes in the NH. During the ramp-down period (2141–2280), this spatial pattern reverses (Fig. 2b), with a pattern correlation coefficient of -0.9 ($P < 0.01$) between the ramp-up and ramp-down periods, highlighting the pronounced effect of CO₂ forcing on NSWs distributions. Spatial discrepancies between two ramp-down periods are primarily observed over the Eurasia continent: during the early ramp-down period (2141–2220), NSWs shows marked positive trends (Fig. 2c); however, these positive trends turn negative in Europe and diminish in North America and Central Asia in the late ramp-down period (2221–2280) (Fig. 2d).

Additionally, we validated NSWs responses using three CMIP6 models from CDRMIP (Figs. S3 and S4). It is found that the time series of NSWs over the NH extratropics are generally similar across the three models (Fig. S3), as are the spatial patterns of NSWs trends (Fig. S4). Nevertheless, noticeable inter-model discrepancies exist between the CDRMIP models and the CESM1.2. A fast recovery of NSWs is observed in the NH extratropics in the CESM1.2 during the early ramp-down period (Fig. 1b), while it shows overall symmetric changes in three CDRMIP models throughout ramp-up and ramp-down periods (Fig. S3). These differences likely stem from differing AMOC evolutions among the models, a point we elaborate further in the following section.

4 Effect of AMOC on Modulating the NH Extratropical NSWs

Previous studies indicate that hemispheric-scale NSWs changes are strongly influenced by large-scale meridional SAT gradient (Zha et al., 2021; Deng et al., 2022; Shen et al., 2022; Li et al., 2024), with NH mid-latitude NSWs closely linked to variations in the westerly jet due to vertical downward momentum transport from upper tropospheric levels (Shen et al., 2023; Shen et al., 2025). Moreover, the strength of the AMOC critically affects these regional patterns by modulating the meridional SAT gradient and the westerly jet through its control of the SNA temperature (Zhang et al., 2019; An et al., 2021; Hwang et al., 2024). The CESM1.2 simulations reveal a clear weakening trend in AMOC (~ 0.5 Sv decade⁻¹) during the ramp-up period extending until about year 2200, followed by a rapid recovery (~ 1.2 Sv decade⁻¹) persisting until around year 2300 (Fig. 3a). By comparison, the three CDRMIP models exhibit symmetric declining and recovering trends in AMOC strength during ramp-up and ramp-down periods, respectively (Fig. S5). The different responses of AMOC across models significantly affect regional SAT gradient, thereby altering regional atmospheric circulation (Hwang et al., 2024).

To elucidate the combined effects of CO₂ levels and AMOC variability on NSWs, we analyzed temporal evolutions of meridional SAT gradients and westerly jets for both NH and North Atlantic (NA) (Figs. 3b–e). The NH meridional SAT gradient was defined as the SAT difference between tropical (0°N–30°N) and high-latitude (60°N–90°N) bands. Mid-latitude westerly jets were defined as the average 500 hPa zonal winds for 30°N–60°N. A significant negative correlation (-0.78 , $P < 0.01$) exists between the NH extratropical NSWs (Fig. 1b) and the NH SAT gradient (Fig. 3b), whereas a strong positive correlation (0.91 , $P < 0.01$) is detected with the NH westerly jet (Fig. 3c). During the ramp-up period (2001–2140), reductions in the

225 NH SAT gradient contribute to a weaker westerly jet and reduced NSWs across extratropics.
226 Conversely, in the early ramp-down period (2141–2220), NSWs quickly rebounds alongside
227 recovery of the SAT gradient and westerly jet. However, during the late ramp-down period
228 (2221–2280), the NH SAT gradient stabilizes (Fig. 3b), resulting in slow changes in both the
229 NH westerly jet (Fig. 3c) and extratropical NSWs (Fig. 1b), despite the CO₂-removal-induced
230 global cooling. These dynamics underscore an effect from the AMOC, which strongly
231 modulates the SAT gradient in the NA, and thus local NSWs trends.

232 During the ramp-up period (2001–2140), the NA SAT gradient (60°W–30°E, 0°N–30°N
233 minus 60°W–30°E, 60°N–90°N) weaken by approximately 1°C (Fig. 3d), a relatively small
234 magnitude compared to the 6.5°C reduction in the NH SAT gradient (Fig. 3b). The NA SAT
235 gradient changes are modulated by two combined effects: CO₂-induced global
236 warming/cooling and the AMOC strength (Zhang et al., 2019). This milder NA SAT gradient
237 change is related to a weakened AMOC's role in transporting warm water to the SNA, which
238 partially offsets the hemisphere-scale SAT gradient weakening induced by global warming
239 (Fig. 3d). And the weakened NA SAT gradient favors a weakened NA NSWs (Fig. 1b).
240 However, a slight increase in the NA westerly jet is observed in Fig. 3e. This is due to an
241 AMOC-associated cold blob and a warming center to its south (Fig. S2a), which enhances the
242 regional meridional temperature gradient, and its effect on the NA westerly jet is stronger than
243 that from the CO₂ increase. Hence, the NA westerly jet is slightly strengthened, and NSWs
244 over Europe is slightly strengthened (Fig. 2a). In the early ramp-down period (2141–2220),
245 the synergistic effects of global cooling and a further weakened AMOC promote a stronger
246 enhancement of the NA SAT gradient (Fig. 3d) and westerly jet (Fig. 3e), which induce a

247 rapidly enhancement of NA NSWS (Fig. 1b). Conversely, during the late ramp-down period
248 (2221–2280), the rapid recovery of the AMOC dramatically increases warm water flow to the
249 SNA (Fig. S1d), diminishes the NA SAT gradient (Fig. 3d) despite the prevailing global
250 cooling effect from CO₂-removal, and leads to a weakened NA westerly jet (Fig. 3e) and
251 NSWS (Fig. 1b).

252 Spatial patterns of 500 hPa zonal winds (Fig. S6) reflect similar tendencies to those of
253 NSWS in the NH, particularly across mid-latitudes where enhanced zonal winds correlate with
254 increased NSWS (Fig. 2), and vice versa. Throughout the ramp-up period (2001–2140), there
255 is a general weakening trend of westerly jets over the Asian and North American continents,
256 while regional westerlies intensify over NA and Europe (Fig. S6a). The early ramp-down
257 period (2141–2220) witnesses significant strengthening trend of NH westerly jets (Fig. S6c),
258 propelled by global cooling and a weakened AMOC (Fig. S2c). During the late ramp-down
259 period (2221–2280), recovery of the AMOC causes significant weakening of westerly jets over
260 NA and Europe by reducing the NA SAT gradient (Zhang et al., 2019; An et al., 2021; Hwang
261 et al., 2024) (Figs. 3d–e), which correspondingly weakens NSWS over Europe (Fig. 2d).

262 Internally generated AMOC changes can also support our argument about the potential
263 roles played by CO₂-forced AMOC changes. To quantify how internal AMOC variability
264 contributes to the cross-member spread of key NA climate variables, Fig. 4 shows the yearly
265 Pearson correlation coefficients among the 28 CESM ensemble members between AMOC
266 strength and (i) the NA meridional SAT gradient, (ii) the NA westerly-jet intensity, and (iii)
267 the European (30°–60 °N, 5 °W–60 °E) NSWS. Because all members share identical external
268 forcing, these inter-ensemble correlations isolate internal variability. Significant correlations

269 thus indicate that internal AMOC fluctuations are major drivers of atmospheric variability
270 among ensemble members. During the ramp-up period (2001–2140), the ensemble spread of
271 AMOC remains small, and correlations with the three metrics are weak and statistically
272 insignificant. However, during the late ramp-down period (2221–2280), the spread of AMOC
273 substantially increases, and the correlations become statistically significant. These year-by-
274 year correlations clearly demonstrate that larger (smaller) AMOC anomalies are associated
275 with a weaker (stronger) NA SAT gradient, a reduced (enhanced) westerly jet, and lower
276 (higher) European NSWS.

277 Moreover, we conducted a bi-regression analysis using GMST and AMOC as explanatory
278 variables for NH extratropical NSWS variability across three distinct periods. During the
279 ramp-up period (2001–2140), GMST and AMOC explain the variance of NH extratropical
280 NSWS for 98% and 1.2%, respectively. During the early ramp-down period (2141–2220),
281 GMST and AMOC explain 95.3% and 4.2% of the variance, respectively. However, during
282 the late ramp-down period (2221–2280), the relative influence of AMOC sharply increases,
283 accounting for 73.2% of variance, surpassing GMST (24.5%). Thus, while GMST
284 predominantly governs NH extratropical NSWS changes during periods of weaker AMOC
285 variability, AMOC emerges as the dominant factor only when its anomalies become
286 significantly large, such as during its rapid recovery in the late ramp-down phase. Besides, we
287 also performed similar analysis for the three CDRMIP models. Among three models and two
288 periods, the contributions of GMST always dominate (contributions >90%) the NH
289 extratropical NSWS changes, further supporting that a substantial AMOC anomaly is required
290 for AMOC to notably influence NSWS changes, as observed in CESM.

Although AMOC is expected to lead subpolar NA SST and the regional meridional SAT gradient by 10–20 years (An et al., 2021), our analysis is based on zero-lag cross-member covariation over multi-decadal windows. Such decadal leads are small relative to these windows and do not alter the sign or interpretation of the contemporaneous relationships reported here. We therefore emphasize contemporaneous, forced covariation for attribution, while acknowledging the expected lead–lag behavior.

5 Summary and Outlook

In this study, we utilized a CESM1.2 CO₂ removal experiment to evaluate the response of NH extratropical NSWS to anthropogenic CO₂ emission and subsequent removal. Our analyses reveal an asymmetric response of NSWS during the ramp-up (2001–2140) and ramp-down (2141–2280) periods, driven by ~~phase-dependent~~ interactions between GMST changes and AMOC-related heat transport anomalies. Fig. 5 summarizes the underlying physical mechanisms: During the ramp-up period (Fig. 5a), the gradually weakening AMOC transports less warm water northward, thereby enhancing the meridional SAT gradient and thus strengthen NH and NA NSWS. However, the counteracting effect of CO₂-driven global warming strongly reduces the NH meridional SAT gradient, ultimately dominating the response and resulting in decreased NSWS across NH extratropics. During the early ramp-down period (Fig. 5b), CO₂ removal-induced global cooling combines with further AMOC weakening to substantially enhance the SAT gradient, intensifying the westerly jet and increasing NH NSWS, with GMST remaining the dominant driver due to its stronger anomalies. Conversely, during the late ramp-down period (Fig. 5c), a rapid AMOC recovery

313 substantially increases northward heat transport, significantly weakening the NA SAT gradient
314 and subsequently diminishing the westerly jet and NSWS. This AMOC-driven weakening
315 outweighs concurrent weaker GMST cooling-induced strengthening of the SAT gradient,
316 inducing a weakening NH and NA NSWS.

317 The European NSWS exhibits distinct anticlockwise trajectories in relation to CO₂
318 concentrations (Fig. 6a), signifying stronger NSWS during CO₂ removal than during the ramp-
319 up period at identical CO₂ levels (Kim et al., 2022). Although there are also asymmetries of
320 NSWS over Asia and North America (Figs. 6b–c), their magnitudes are substantially weaker
321 compared to Europe. These phenomena imply the particular importance of AMOC variability
322 for European NSWS. Furthermore, three CDRMIP models generally replicate NH
323 extratropical NSWS trends but fail to capture the pronounced asymmetry found in CESM,
324 likely due to their relatively symmetric AMOC evolutions, which yield almost linear NSWS
325 responses. This highlights that the asymmetric NSWS responses critically depend on nonlinear
326 AMOC dynamics. We acknowledge several uncertainties inherent in our findings, including
327 potential model-dependency arising from CESM’s large ensemble experiment and limited
328 realizations from the CDRMIP simulations. Besides, the effects of AMOC and GMST are not
329 completely independent due to the variation of AMOC also influencing large-scale surface
330 temperature. Essentially, it is the Arctic Amplification and AMOC’s competing. Future studies
331 involving more extensive multi-model ensembles could further validate and enhance the
332 robustness of our conclusions.

333 Before this study, the impact of the AMOC on terrestrial NSWS changes had been less
334 recognized. Our findings advance the understanding within the wind research community by

335 highlighting a crucial role for ocean circulation in modulating long-term NSWS trends. The
336 enhanced NH NSWS during the early CO₂ removal period could significantly increase wind
337 energy production (Pryor et al., 2020) but also heighten the risks of wind-related extremes
338 (Hwang et al., 2024; Yu et al., 2024). Consequently, it is critical for monitoring efforts and
339 climate policy formulations to consider these findings in their long-term climate strategies to
340 optimize benefits and mitigate risks associated with wind energy and climate interventions.

341

342 **Declaration of competing interests**

343 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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357 **Data Availability**

358 All data used in this study are publicly available. The CESM1.2 outputs are available from
359 <https://data.mendeley.com/datasets/f5ry6hgkw/2>. CMIP6 outputs are available from the
360 Earth System Grid Federation (<https://pcmdi.llnl.gov/CMIP6/>). And ERA5 reanalysis data are
361 available from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts
362 ([https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-single-](https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-single-levels?tab=overview)
363 [levels?tab=overview](https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-single-levels?tab=overview)).

364 **Author Contribution**

365 ZL and CL designed the study. ZL and CS analyzed data and performed figures. ZL wrote the
366 original manuscript with the contributions from CL and CS. CA, SA, YZ, YX, JS, and DC
367 contributed to the manuscript and provided feedback.

368 **Supplementary Information**

369 The manuscript contains supplementary materials.

370

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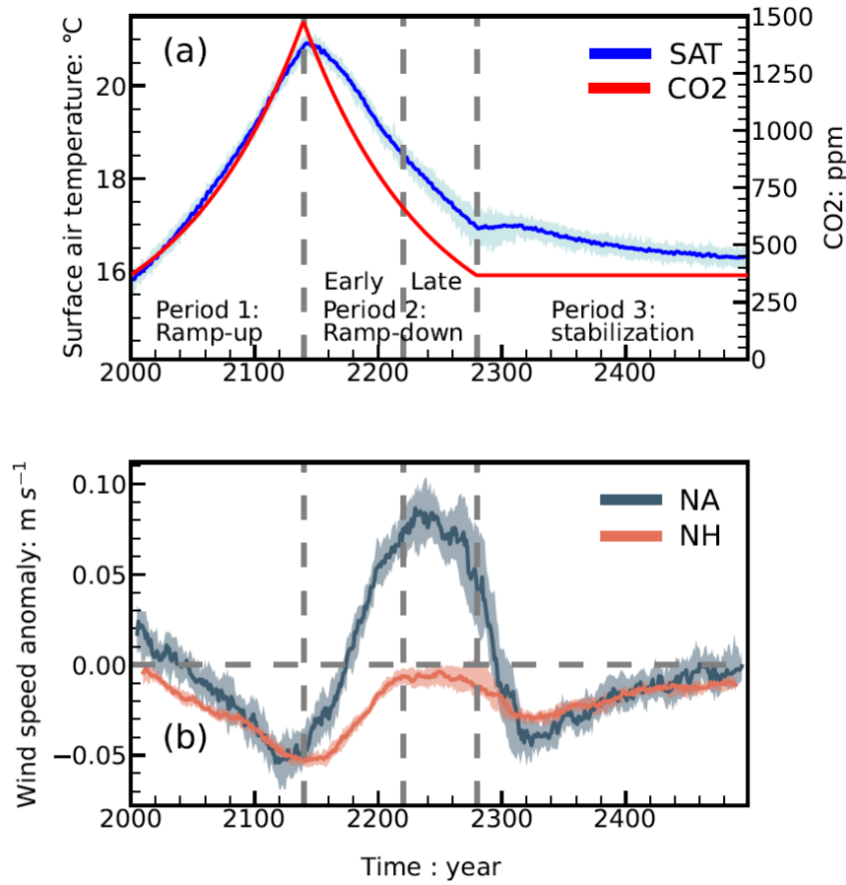
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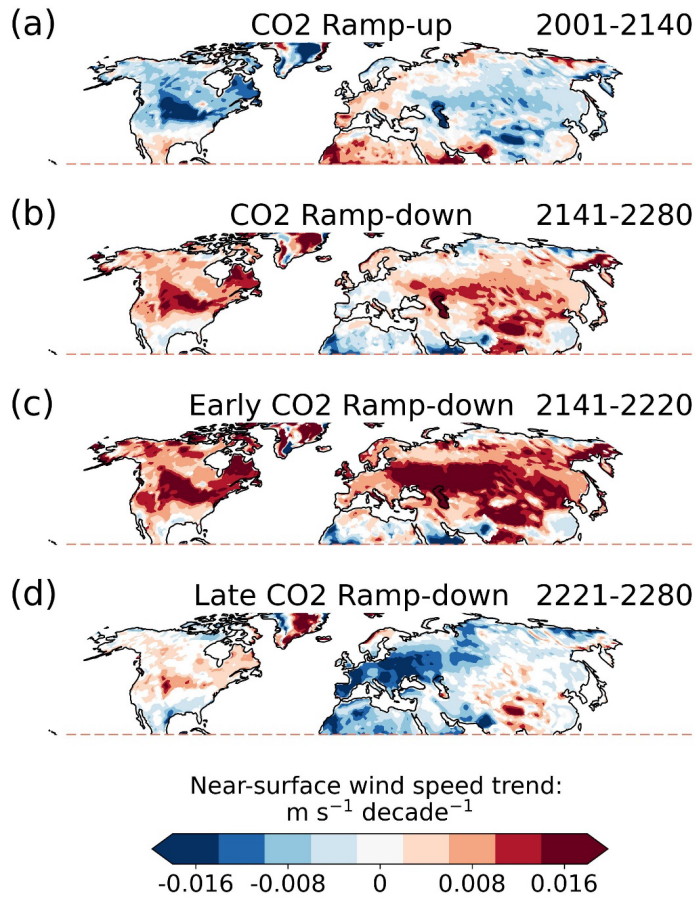
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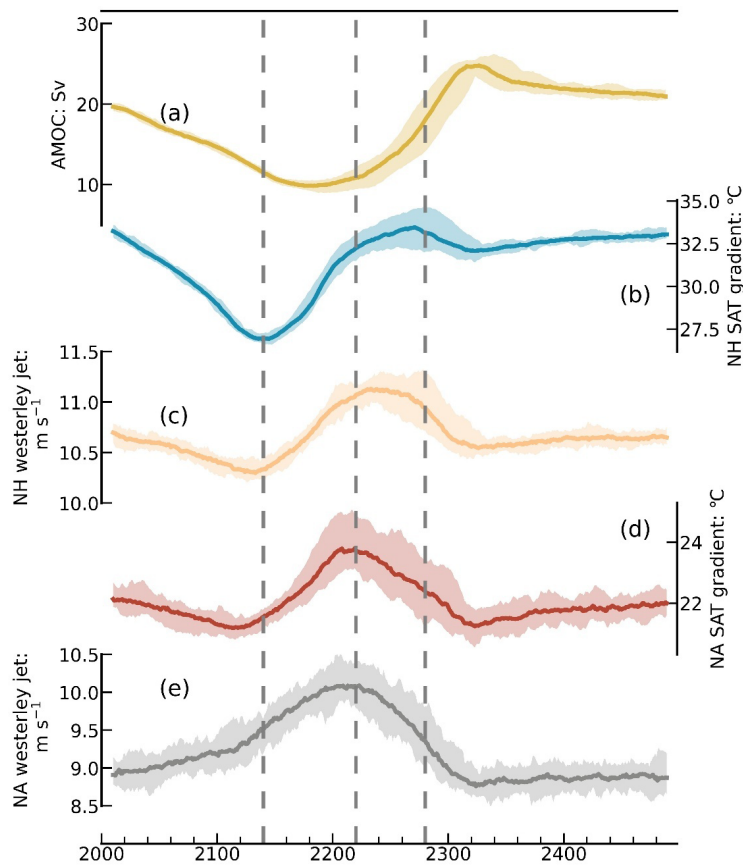
560 **Fig. 1.** (a) Temporal changes of the annual global mean surface air temperature (SAT; unit: °C)
 561 (blue) and CO₂ concentration (unit: ppm) (red). The solid lines represent the ensemble means,
 562 while the shaded areas indicate the 25th to 75th percentile range across 28 members. Three
 563 dashed gray lines mark the years 2140, 2220, and 2280, highlighting important temporal
 564 milestones in the experiment. (b) Temporal changes of annual-mean terrestrial near-surface
 565 wind speed (NSWS; unit: m s⁻¹) over Northern Hemisphere (20°N–70°N) (orange) and North
 566 Atlantic (0°N–70°N, 60°W–30°E) (dark blue). Anomalies are calculated relative to the
 567 average NSWS of the constant CO₂ scenario. An 11-year running mean has been applied to
 568 smooth out inter-annual variability.



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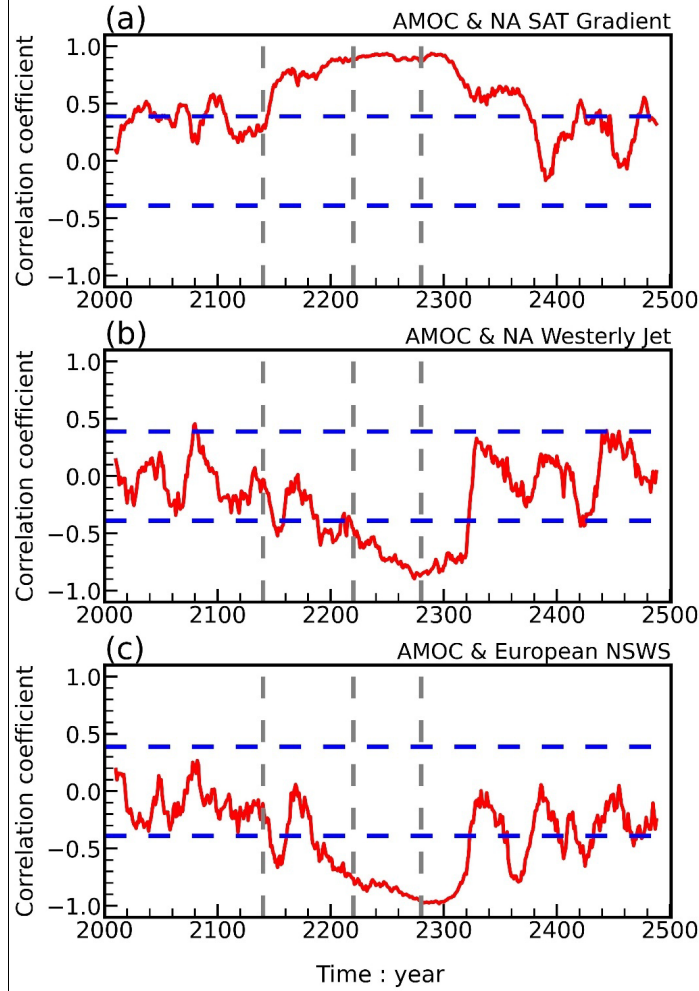
570 **Fig. 2.** (a) Decadal trend in annual-mean near-surface wind speed (unit: m s⁻¹ decade⁻¹) during
 571 the CO₂ ramp-up period (2001–2140). Grid points with shadings denote the tendencies are
 572 significant at the 0.05 level. (b–d) Same as (a), but for tendencies during the CO₂ ramp-down
 573 period (2141–2280), early CO₂ ramp-down period (2141–2220), and late CO₂ ramp-down
 574 period (2221–2280), respectively.

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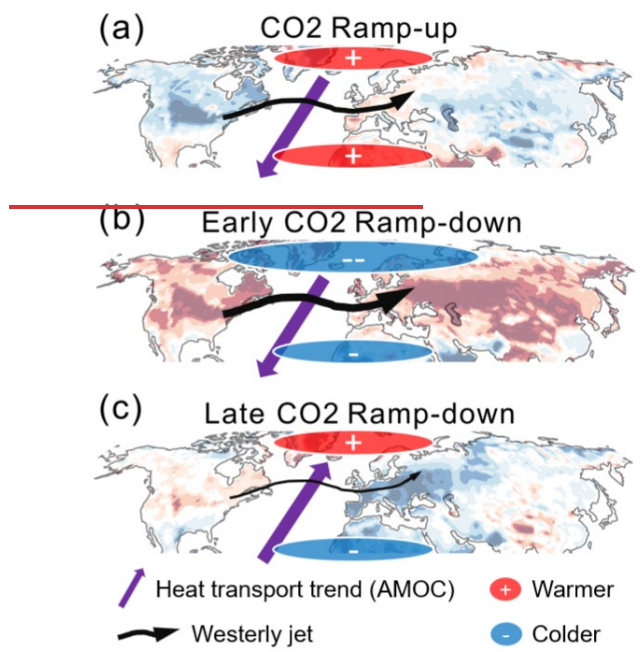
577 **Fig. 3.** (a) Temporal changes of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation index (unit:
 578 Sv). The solid line represents the ensemble mean, and the shaded area shows the 25th to 75th
 579 percentile range of 28 ensemble members. Dashed gray lines at 2140, 2220, and 2280 denote
 580 significant temporal markers. (b–e) Same as (a), but for Northern Hemisphere (NH) surface
 581 air temperature gradient (0°N–30°N minus 60°N–90°N; in °C), NH westerly jet strength (the
 582 average for 30°N–60°N; in m s⁻¹) at 500 hPa, North Atlantic (NA, 60°W–30°E) surface air
 583 temperature gradient (0°N–30°N minus 60°N–90°N; in °C), and NA westerly jet strength (the
 584 average for 30°N–60°N, 60°W–30°E; in m s⁻¹) at 500 hPa, respectively. An 11-year running
 585 mean has been applied to smooth out inter-annual variability.
 586



587

588 **Fig. 4.** (a) Inter-ensemble correlation coefficients between the 28 ensemble members: the
 589 AMOC versus North Atlantic (NA, 60°W–30°E) surface air temperature (SAT) gradient
 590 (60°N–90°N minus 0°N–30°N) from 2000 to 2300. Three dashed gray lines denote 2140, 2220
 591 and 2280, respectively. Two dashed blue lines denote the 0.05 significance level. (b) Same as
 592 (a), but for correlation coefficients between the AMOC and NA westerly jet strength (30°N–
 593 60°N, 60°W–30°E) at 500 hPa. (c) Same as (a), but for correlation coefficients between the
 594 AMOC and terrestrial near-surface wind speed (NSWS) over Europe (30°N–60°N, 5°W–
 595 60°E). An 11-year running mean has been applied to smooth out inter-annual variability.

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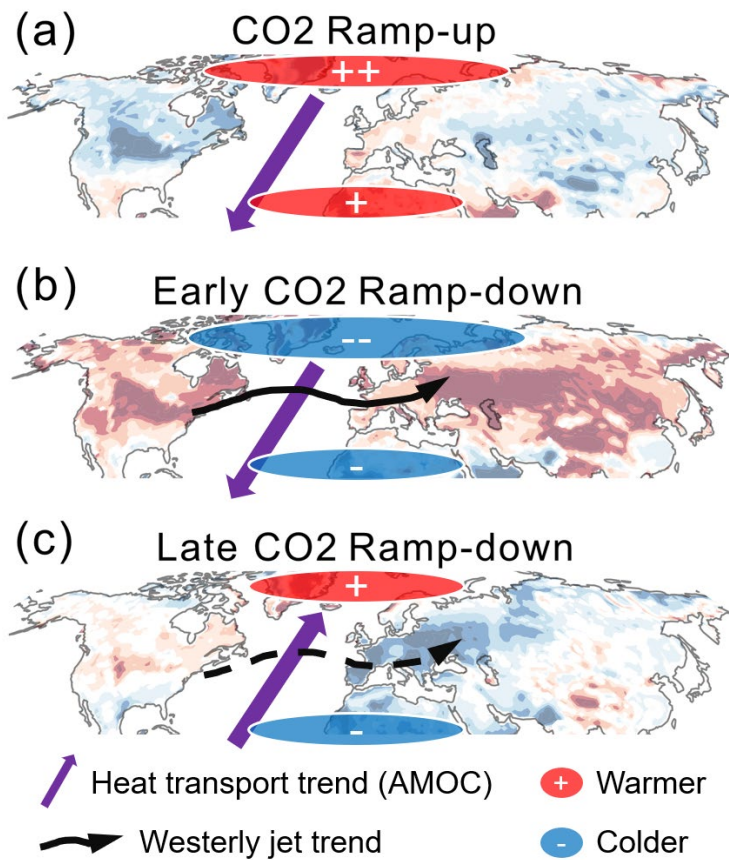


Fig. 5. The physical mechanisms by which CO₂ and Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation modulate extratropical near-surface wind speed during three periods. The warmer and colder centers denote the combination effects of GMST and AMOC. The strengthened NA westerly jet is in solid line, while the weakened jet is in dashed line.

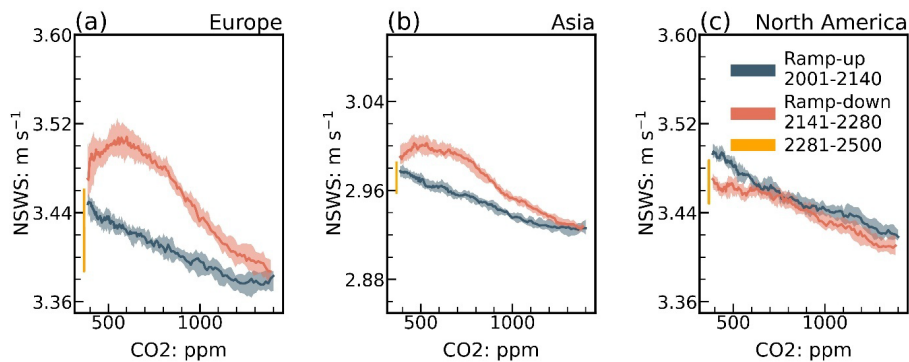


Fig. 6. (a) Changes of terrestrial annual-mean near-surface wind speed over Europe (30°N–70°N, 5°W–50°E) as a function of CO₂ concentrations after 11-year running mean. The ramp-up (dark blue), ramp-down (orange), and stabilization (yellow) are denoted with different colors. The solid line represents the ensemble mean, and the shaded area shows the 25th to 75th percentile range of 28 ensemble members. (b-c) Same as (a), but for Asia (20°N–70°N, 60°E–180°E) and North America (30°N–70°N, 170°W–50°W). The range of Y-axis is 0.25 m s⁻¹ in each subplot.