



1 Convection-permitting projections of North American low- 2 level jets and their mechanistic responses to climate change

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7 **Abstract.** This study investigates the response of North American Low-Level Jets (LLJs) to climate warming
8 using a high-resolution (4 km) convection-permitting Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) simulation driven
9 by the Pseudo-Global Warming (PGW) approach. The simulation reveals that the response of LLJs is highly
10 heterogeneous across seasons and regions. Among the various LLJ systems over North America, the most robust
11 and dynamically distinct responses to climate warming are identified in the Great Plains southerly LLJ and the
12 California coastal northerly LLJ. For the Great Plains southerly LLJ, the research identifies a robust intensification
13 in spring but a muted response in summer. Mechanism analysis indicates that the spring strengthening is driven
14 by a steepened zonal thermal gradient and enhanced nocturnal stability, which amplifies the inertial oscillation.
15 In contrast, increased nocturnal instability in summer suppresses this decoupling mechanism, preventing
16 significant strengthening. Regarding the California coastal northerly LLJ, the simulation projects a weakening
17 trend in summer. This is attributed to a reconfiguration of the land-sea thermal contrast, where enhanced local
18 sea-breeze circulations disrupt the coastal baroclinicity that sustains the jet. These results highlight the necessity
19 of convection-permitting scales in capturing the fine-scale thermodynamic and dynamic adjustments governing
20 future LLJ evolution. The projected seasonal shifts in jet intensity and vertical structure have important
21 implications for other interdisciplinary fields.

22 1. Introduction

23 Low-level jets (LLJs) are narrow belts of strong winds embedded in the lower troposphere, typically characterized
24 by a pronounced wind speed maximum within the lowest few kilometres of the atmosphere (Bonner, 1968; Rife
25 et al., 2010). Despite their relatively shallow vertical extent, LLJs can span hundreds of kilometres horizontally
26 and persist for hours. They often exhibit distinct diurnal and seasonal oscillations, which are tightly coupled with
27 boundary layer processes and large-scale circulation patterns (Blackadar, 1957; Stensrud, 1996).

28 By efficiently transporting heat, moisture, and momentum, LLJs play a fundamental role in shaping regional
29 weather and climate. In many continental and coastal regions, they serve as primary conduits for low-level
30 moisture transport, significantly modulating precipitation distributions and providing favourable dynamic
31 environments for convective initiation and extreme precipitation events (Walters and Winkler, 2001; Hodges and
32 Pu, 2019; Tang et al., 2017). This climatological significance is particularly pronounced in regions such as the
33 North American Great Plains and the eastern Pacific coast, where LLJs act as a critical link between synoptic-
34 scale pressure systems and mesoscale weather processes. For instance, Weaver et al. (2012) found that the tornado
35 activity in the southern United States is highly correlated with the intensity and location of the Great Plains LLJ.
36 Beyond their impacts on weather and hydroclimate processes, LLJs hold substantial importance for various



37 environmental and societal sectors. The strong vertical wind shear associated with LLJs affects wind energy
38 generation efficiency and turbine structural loads (Banta et al., 2008). Furthermore, these systems modulate the
39 transport and dispersion of atmospheric pollutants and influence aviation safety and urban climates by altering
40 near-surface thermodynamic and dynamic conditions (Hu et al., 2013; Gadde and Stevens, 2021).

41 Given that the formation and maintenance of LLJs depend heavily on thermal gradients, boundary layer stability,
42 and large-scale circulation structures (Blackadar, 1957; Holton, 1967; Uccellini et al., 1987), this system is
43 expected to exhibit significant responses to anthropogenic climate warming. Consequently, in recent years,
44 numerous researchers have utilized numerical products to investigate the response of LLJs to future climate
45 change. Semedo et al. (2016) used the CMIP5 global climate model (GCM) to analyze worldwide Coastal Low-
46 Level Jets (CLLJs) under the RCP8.5 scenario. Their results reveal that there is no consistent global trend in jet
47 intensity or frequency, thereby future changes are region-dependent and governed by background circulation and
48 local land-sea thermal structures. Tang et al. (2017) utilized the NARCCAP multi-model dynamic downscaling
49 ensemble (~50 km) to investigate Great Plains LLJs (GPLLJs) in future scenarios. They found a significant future
50 increase in nocturnal GPLLJ frequency, and this growth is concentrated over the southern plains in spring and
51 moving to the central plains in summer, while changes during the daytime and cold season remain weak. Moreover,
52 using an ensemble of 46 CMIP5 and CMIP6 models, Zhou et al. (2021) examined the co-variability of the GPLLJ,
53 North Atlantic Subtropical High (NASH). It was concluded that the GPLLJ significantly strengthens and extends
54 northward in spring and autumn, but with limited changes in summer, which is related to the structural adjustments
55 of the NASH, not only the westward expansion of it.

56 Regional Climate Models (RCMs) have also been widely utilized in recent studies. Torres-Alavez et al. (2021)
57 analyzed future changes in various global LLJ systems based on CORDEX-CORE regional climate simulations
58 (~25 km resolution). Results indicate that under warming scenarios, most LLJs exhibit a general trend of
59 strengthening and spatial migration. However, the magnitude of changes varies across different regions and LLJ
60 types, displaying strong spatial heterogeneity. Similarly, Juliano et al. (2025) employed WRF regional climate
61 simulations (~25 km) to examine future changes in the California Coastal Low-Level Jet (CLLJ) using Self-
62 Organizing Maps (SOM). It is found that the frequency of LLJ increases in Northern California but decreases in
63 Southern California. Furthermore, they noted that changes in LLJ intensity are highly sensitive to the driving
64 GCMs. Based on the conclusions of the above studies, it is evident that RCMs capture greater local spatial
65 heterogeneity in predicting future LLJ changes, making them more informative than GCMs.

66 However, most conventional numerical models still rely on convective parameterization schemes to represent
67 convective processes, thereby introducing significant uncertainties in simulating low-level dynamic structures and
68 associated weather systems. The application of convection-permitting models (CPMs) with grid spacing of less
69 than 5 km can largely overcome this limitation, as these models are capable of explicitly resolving deep convection
70 and other critical meso- and small-scale processes (Liu et al., 2017; Li et al., 2019; Ma et al., 2022). Compared to
71 coarse-resolution simulations and reanalysis data, CPMs exhibit distinct advantages in characterizing surface
72 features over complex terrain and their interactions with LLJs (Zhang et al., 2022). Ma et al. (2024) provided the
73 first systematic characterization of typical North American LLJs by 4km WRF simulations, including the Great
74 Plains S-LLJ, California Coastal N-LLJ, and Quebec Winter N-LLJ. This study highlighted the capability of



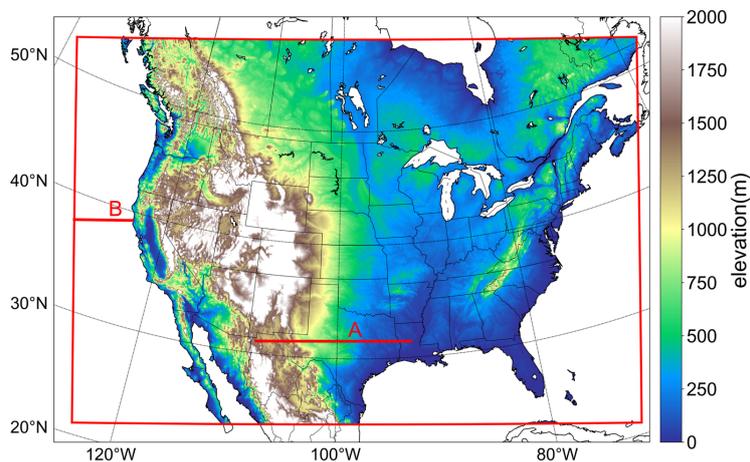
75 CPMs to capture mesoscale wind systems in complex terrain and coastal areas. Mu et al. (2025) further extended
76 the application of 4 km WRF simulations to analyze the Northerly LLJ east of the Andes, revealing its critical
77 role in modulating Mesoscale Convective Systems (MCSs). They found that stronger LLJs facilitate the
78 organization of larger, longer-duration, and heavier-precipitation convective systems at the jet exit. Together,
79 these findings underscore the superiority of CPMs over coarse-resolution models in resolving fine-scale LLJ
80 structures and their associated impacts.

81 Despite the great potential of CPMs in characterizing the fine structure of LLJs, research using these high-
82 resolution models to explore the LLJ's response to future climate change is still limited. Thus, to expand our in-
83 depth understanding of the local variability and physical mechanisms of the LLJ under future climate conditions,
84 this study aims to employ the 4 km convection-permitting WRF simulation to project the future evolution of North
85 American LLJ systems. Section 2 describes the model configuration and the criteria used for LLJ identification.
86 Section 3 examines the seasonal climatology of LLJs and evaluates their responses to future climate. Section 4
87 investigates the specific changes and underlying dynamic mechanisms of several typical regional LLJ systems.
88 Finally, Section 5 provides a discussion and summary of the key findings.

89 2 Model configuration and methods

90 2.1 Model setup

91 The simulations were performed using WRF 3.4.1 at a 4-km convection-permitting resolution (Liu et al., 2017).
92 The domain covers the continental United States (CONUS), southern Canada (up to ~52°N), and northern Mexico
93 (shown in Figure 1). The simulation spans the period from October 2000 to September 2013, providing model
94 outputs of 3D variables at 3-hour intervals and 2D variables at 1-hour intervals. Initial and lateral boundary
95 conditions were provided by the ERA-Interim reanalysis dataset. Notably, the vertical grid is configured with 5
96 layers within the lowest 500 m and 9 layers within the lowest 1 km above ground level (AGL). This fine vertical
97 resolution implies that the WRF model is better equipped to capture LLJs within the boundary layer compared to
98 coarser-resolution models.



99



100 **Figure 1. Model domain of the convection-permitting simulation. Colours indicate terrain elevation. The red lines**
101 **mark the cross-sections of the analyzed LLJs in Section 4.**

102 Given the high horizontal resolution of 4 km, cumulus parameterization was not adopted in this study to allow for
103 explicit convection. The physical parameterization schemes selected for this study include: the Rapid Radiative
104 Transfer Model for GCMs (RRTMG) for both longwave and shortwave radiation processes (Iacono et al., 2008);
105 the Yonsei University (YSU) scheme for planetary boundary layer (PBL) turbulence (Hong et al., 2006); and the
106 modified Noah-MP land surface model for surface processes (Niu et al., 2011).

107 Based on the model configuration described above, two sets of numerical experiments were conducted: a Control
108 Run (CTRL) representing current climate conditions, and a Pseudo-Global Warming (PGW) Run representing
109 future climate change. In the PGW experiment, climate change perturbations derived from the CMIP5 multi-
110 model ensemble mean were superimposed onto the ERA-Interim boundary conditions to drive the regional climate
111 simulation. This perturbation signal was calculated from the ensemble mean change of 19 Global Climate Models
112 (GCMs) (Liu et al., 2017). The future scenario follows the Representative Concentration Pathway 8.5 (RCP8.5),
113 corresponding to an atmospheric CO₂ concentration of approximately 1350 ppm and a radiative forcing of ~8.5
114 W m⁻² by the end of the 21st century (Taylor et al., 2012). The ensemble mean climate difference was obtained
115 by comparing the historical period (1976–2005) with the future period (2071–2100). Thus, the perturbation
116 represents a climate change signal over a timescale of approximately 95 years, expressed as follows:

$$117 \quad \Delta CMIP5_{RCP8.5} = CMIP5_{2071-2100} - CMIP5_{1976-2005} , \quad (1)$$

118 And then, add this perturbation with ERA-Interim data to get the initial condition of PGW simulation:

$$119 \quad WRF_{input} = ERA_{Interim} + \Delta CMIP5_{RCP8.5} . \quad (2)$$

120 Although a 13-year duration is shorter than typical climatological studies, it represents a strategic compromise for
121 high-resolution simulations to ensure computational efficiency. Crucially, the PGW approach obviates the need
122 for extended simulations; it allows for centennial-scale projections to be derived from just 13 years of data through
123 equivalent climate perturbations.

124 2.2 Methods

125 In this study, the classical criteria proposed by Bonner (1968) are applied to identify LLJs from the vertical wind
126 profiles at each grid derived from the model output. An LLJ is defined when all of the following conditions are
127 satisfied: (1) the height of the jet core is located within 3 km above ground level; (2) the maximum wind speed at
128 the jet core is $\geq 12 \text{ m s}^{-1}$; (3) the wind speed decreases by at least 6 m s^{-1} both upward from the level of maximum
129 wind speed to the next wind-speed minimum (or to 3 km AGL, whichever is lower) and downward from the jet
130 core toward the surface. In addition, LLJs are further categorized based on the wind direction at the jet core
131 (Walter et al., 2008; Doubler et al., 2015). LLJs with core wind directions between 113° and 247° are classified
132 as southerly LLJs (S-LLJs), whereas those with core wind directions between 293° and 67° are classified as
133 northerly LLJs (N-LLJs).



134 3. Seasonal Variations and Future Climate Responses of LLJs

135 3.1 Southerly LLJs

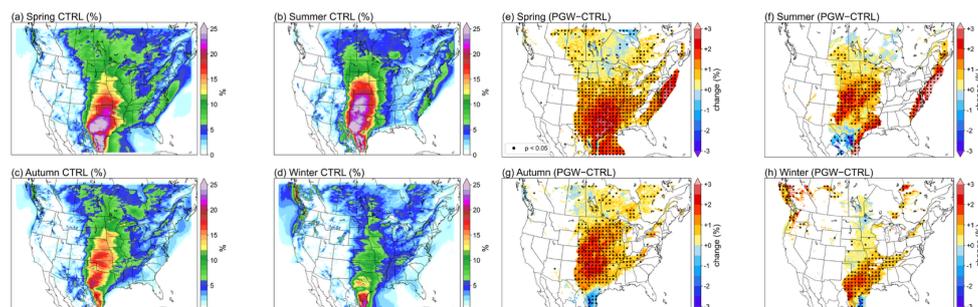
136 3.1.1 Occurrence Frequency

137 Figure 2 summarizes the seasonal occurrence frequency of southerly low-level jets (S-LLJs) in the CTRL
138 simulation (Fig. 2a–d) and their projected changes under the PGW scenario (Fig. 2e–h). In the current climate, S-
139 LLJs exhibit a pronounced seasonal cycle, with the highest occurrence in spring and summer and markedly weaker
140 activity during the cold season. The spring S-LLJ forms a spatially extensive high-frequency corridor (>15–20%)
141 extending from northeastern Mexico through the Great Plains into the Canadian Prairies, while summer activity
142 becomes more confined, with a northward-shifted and zonally narrower core centered over the central Great Plains.
143 In contrast, S-LLJ occurrence decreases rapidly in autumn and reaches its annual minimum in winter, when
144 significant activity is largely restricted to southern Texas and northeastern Mexico. These seasonal characteristics
145 are broadly consistent with previous analyses of S-LLJ climatology (Ma et al., 2024).

146 Under the PGW scenario, S-LLJ occurrence generally increases across North America, although the magnitude
147 and spatial extent of the response exhibit strong seasonal dependence. The most pronounced and spatially coherent
148 enhancement occurs in spring (Fig. 2e), with widespread increases of 1–3% extending from northeastern Mexico
149 through the central Great Plains to South Dakota. The strongest signals are concentrated over the present-day S-
150 LLJ core between Texas and Kansas, where local increases exceed 3% and statistical significance is widespread.
151 Weaker but coherent positive anomalies (~1%) are also evident over the southern Canadian Prairies, northern
152 Ontario, and western Quebec, while an additional enhancement of approximately 3% appears along the
153 downstream side of the Appalachian Mountains, associated with the coastal S-LLJ.

154 In summer (Fig. 2f), the area of increased S-LLJ occurrence contracts substantially relative to spring. Significant
155 positive changes exceeding 2% are largely confined to the central Great Plains (e.g., Kansas and Oklahoma) and
156 the southeastern Texas coast. In contrast, northeastern Mexico exhibits a clear reduction in S-LLJ frequency, with
157 local decreases approaching –3%, indicating a potential eastward displacement of the active summer S-LLJ region
158 under future climate conditions. Over Canada, only a small and spatially limited increase of approximately 1% is
159 found in southern Saskatchewan. Notably, the coastal S-LLJ near the Appalachian Mountains shows a stronger
160 summer response than in spring, with frequency increases exceeding 3%.

161 Autumn represents the second-strongest season of positive S-LLJ frequency changes (Fig. 2g). Although weaker
162 than the spring signal, the enhancement remains spatially coherent and is concentrated over regions with high
163 present-day S-LLJ activity. Core areas in Oklahoma, Kansas, and Missouri experience increases of approximately
164 1–2%, with weaker but still positive anomalies (~1%) extending northward into southern Nebraska and parts of
165 South Dakota. By contrast, winter exhibits the weakest and most spatially restricted response among all seasons
166 (Fig. 2h). Positive changes of 1–2% are confined primarily to a narrow corridor from southern Texas to Louisiana,
167 accompanied by a slight negative trend (~–1%) over the northwestern Gulf of Mexico. Overall, the projected S-
168 LLJ frequency response under PGW is characterized by a strong spring maximum, a muted midsummer signal,
169 and limited wintertime changes.



170

171 **Figure 2. Seasonal occurrence frequency of S-LLJs in the CTRL simulation (a-d) and their projected changes under**
172 **the PGW simulation (e-h). Black dots mark areas where differences are statistically significant at the 95% confidence**
173 **level, and the regions which frequency is lower than 5% are masked in fig. 2e to 2h.**

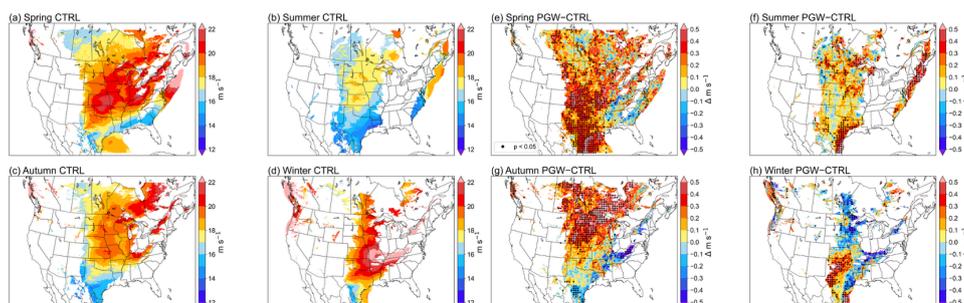
174 3.1.2 Intensity

175 To characterize the strength of southerly low-level jets (S-LLJs), we examine the mean maximum wind speed at
176 the jet core for identified events, with regions of low occurrence (<5%) masked. Figure 3 shows the seasonal
177 distribution of S-LLJ core wind speeds in the CTRL simulation (Fig. 3a–d) and their projected changes under the
178 PGW scenario (Fig. 3e–h).

179 In the current climate, S-LLJ core wind speeds exhibit clear seasonal contrasts. Spring features the strongest and
180 most spatially extensive intensities, forming a continuous high-speed corridor from northern Texas across the
181 Great Plains to eastern Canada, with typical core speeds of 18–20 m s⁻¹ and local maxima exceeding 22 m s⁻¹. In
182 summer, the high-wind region contracts markedly, with elevated core speeds largely confined to the central Great
183 Plains, while autumn represents a transitional state characterized by a southwest–northeast contrast, with weaker
184 winds over the southern Great Plains and stronger cores extending into eastern Canada. Despite reduced
185 occurrence, winter S-LLJs maintain relatively high core intensities along a narrow north–south corridor, with
186 wind speeds commonly exceeding 18 m s⁻¹.

187 Projected changes in S-LLJ core wind speed under PGW display pronounced seasonality. Spring shows the most
188 spatially coherent intensification (Fig. 3e), with widespread positive anomalies extending from northern Texas
189 through the central Great Plains into Alberta, generally exceeding 0.3 m s⁻¹ and locally surpassing 0.5 m s⁻¹. In
190 contrast, summer responses are weak and spatially limited (Fig. 3f), with most of the Great Plains exhibiting near-
191 zero changes and only localized strengthening (~0.4 m s⁻¹) along the Texas coast and in parts of the central
192 Canadian Prairies. The coastal S-LLJ east of the Appalachian Mountains also shows a clear and statistically
193 significant summer intensification.

194 Autumn exhibits a distinct meridional contrast in the intensity response (Fig. 3g), with robust strengthening over
195 the northern Great Plains and south-central Canada, where anomalies commonly exceed 0.5 m s⁻¹, while changes
196 over the southern Great Plains remain small or slightly negative. Winter displays the weakest overall response
197 (Fig. 3h), with modest positive anomalies confined mainly to Texas and Oklahoma and slight reductions over
198 much of the central and northern Great Plains.



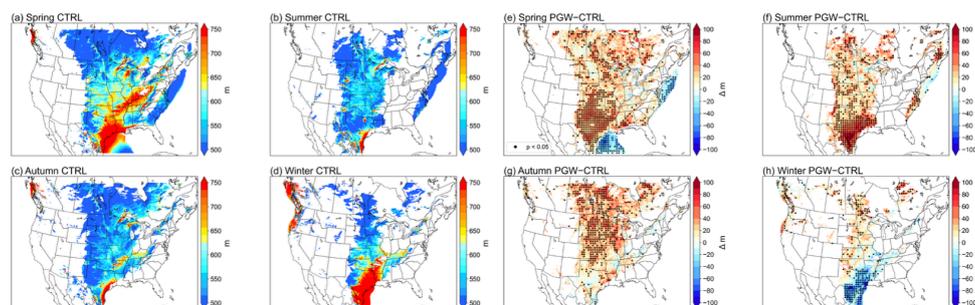
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200 **Figure 3. Seasonal mean wind speed of the S-LLJs core in the CTRL simulation (a-d) and their projected changes**
201 **under the PGW simulation (e-h). Black dots mark areas where differences are statistically significant at the 95%**
202 **confidence level, and the regions which frequency is lower than 5% are masked in all subplots**

203 3.1.3 Jet Height

204 Figure 4 presents the seasonal climatology of S-LLJ core height in the CTRL simulation and its projected changes
205 under the PGW scenario, with regions of low occurrence (<5%) masked. In the current climate, S-LLJ cores are
206 generally confined to the lower boundary layer along the Great Plains axis, with typical heights clustered around
207 500–600 m throughout most of the year. Superimposed on this relatively shallow background, the core height
208 exhibits systematic seasonal and meridional variations. In spring and autumn, higher core elevations occur over
209 the southern Great Plains, where heights locally exceed 750 m, while northern regions remain substantially lower.
210 Summer is characterized by the lowest and most spatially uniform core heights over the Great Plains, whereas
211 winter features the highest core elevations over the reduced active region, particularly from southern Texas to the
212 lower Mississippi River valley.

213 In the future scenario, S-LLJ core height shows a clear and seasonally dependent response. In spring (Fig. 4e),
214 a coherent band of positive anomalies develops along the Great Plains, extending from northern Texas into southern
215 Canada, with height increases typically of 20–40 m and locally exceeding 60–80 m. In summer (Fig. 4f), height
216 increases become more spatially concentrated, with pronounced rises of 60–80 m—and locally above 100 m—
217 over Texas, indicating an upward shift of S-LLJ cores in the southern United States. Autumn exhibits a north–
218 south contrast (Fig. 4g), with moderate height increases (20–40 m) extending from Kansas into the central
219 Canadian Prairies and minimal changes over the southern Great Plains. Winter represents the sole season
220 dominated by negative anomalies (Fig. 4h), with a continuous band of core height reductions from Texas to the
221 lower Mississippi River valley reaching –40 to –80 m and locally exceeding –100 m. Overall, the projected height
222 response indicates a systematic rise of S-LLJ cores during the warm season and a pronounced lowering in winter,
223 pointing to a seasonally reorganized vertical structure of the lower troposphere under future climate conditions.



224

225 **Figure 4. Seasonal mean core height of the S-LLJs in the CTRL simulation (a-d) and their projected changes under**
226 **the PGW simulation (e-h). Black dots mark areas where differences are statistically significant at the 95% confidence**
227 **level, and the regions which frequency is lower than 5% are masked in all subplots**

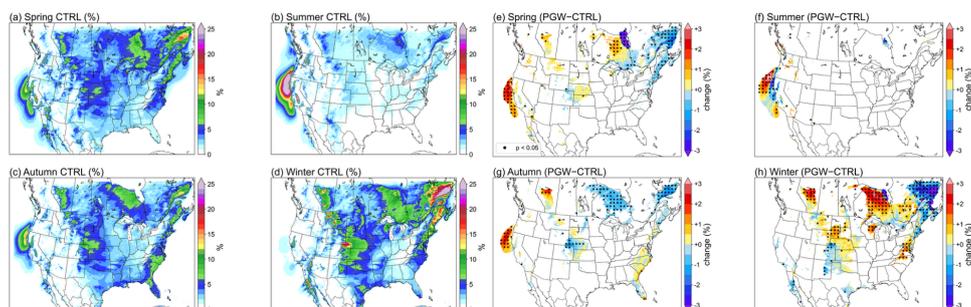
228 3.2 Northerly LLJs

229 3.2.1 Occurrence Frequency

230 Similarly, the seasonal occurrence frequency of N-LLJs in the current climate and the corresponding changes in
231 the PGW are also depicted in Figure 5. In the current climate, N-LLJs exhibit pronounced regional and seasonal
232 contrasts. During spring, N-LLJ activity is limited, with two primary centers along the California coast and over
233 the Quebec Plateau. The California coastal jet begins to establish as a warm-season feature, forming a narrow
234 band with frequencies exceeding 10%, while most of the continental interior shows weak activity. In summer, the
235 California coastal N-LLJ becomes the dominant system across the domain, with core frequencies exceeding 25%
236 and extending from southern Oregon to central California and offshore. As the cold season approaches, N-LLJ
237 activity expands inland. Autumn is characterized by the reemergence of orographic jets from the eastern slopes
238 of the Rocky Mountains into the Canadian Prairies, accompanied by increasing activity over eastern Canada,
239 while winter features the strongest cold-season N-LLJs over the continental interior and the Quebec–Labrador
240 Plateau, where frequencies commonly exceed 20–25%.

241 The future response of N-LLJ occurrence differs markedly among regional systems. Along the California coast,
242 N-LLJ frequency increases in spring, summer, and autumn, with positive anomalies generally exceeding 2%. In
243 summer, however, a narrow band of negative anomalies (approaching –3%) appears immediately along the
244 coastline and transitions offshore into significant positive anomalies, indicating a modest offshore displacement
245 of the coastal N-LLJ in a warmer climate. Because N-LLJ activity over the continental interior is minimal during
246 summer in the CTRL simulation, no coherent summer response is found in these regions.

247 By contrast, the cold-season N-LLJ over the Quebec–Labrador Plateau shows a systematic reduction in occurrence
248 outside of summer. The largest decreases occur in winter, with anomalies exceeding –3%, suggesting a weakened
249 persistence of this terrain-forced jet under future conditions. The orographic N-LLJ system east of the Rocky
250 Mountains exhibits a more nuanced response: changes remain weak and spatially scattered in spring. At the same
251 time, autumn shows a narrow belt of modest negative anomalies (~–1%) extending from Alberta to Wyoming. In
252 winter, a coherent band of positive anomalies develops across the northern Great Plains and southern Canadian
253 Prairies, with increases of 1–2%.



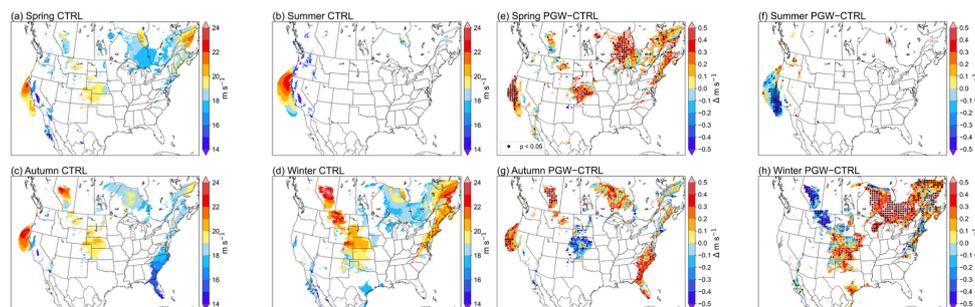
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255 **Figure 5. Seasonal occurrence frequency of N-LLJs in the CTRL simulation (a–d) and their projected changes under**
256 **the PGW simulation (e–h). Black dots denote grid points with statistically significant differences at the 95%**
257 **confidence level; areas with CTRL frequency <5% are masked in panels (e–h).**

258 3.2.2 Intensity

259 The core mean wind speeds of the N-LLJs are offered in Figures 6a-d, and their structures also exhibit distinct
260 regional features. First, in the current climate, N-LLJ intensity exhibits pronounced system-dependent
261 characteristics. The California coastal N-LLJ is the most persistent high-intensity system throughout the year,
262 with core wind speeds commonly reaching 20–22 m s⁻¹ from spring through autumn and peaking in summer,
263 forming a narrow but intense coastal jet. By contrast, the Quebec N-LLJ displays a clear cold-season dominance,
264 with winter core wind speeds also reaching 20–22 m s⁻¹, while its structure weakens substantially during the
265 transitional seasons. The inland N-LLJ east of the Rocky Mountains forms a distinct cold-season high-speed
266 corridor from southern Alberta to Colorado, with winter core wind speeds often near 20 m s⁻¹ and reduced
267 intensities (~18 m s⁻¹) during spring and autumn.

268 The projected response of N-LLJ core wind speed under PGW varies strongly among regional systems. Along the
269 California coast, the N-LLJ intensifies in spring and autumn, with positive anomalies of 0.3–0.5 m s⁻¹ concentrated
270 along the northern-to-central coast and locally exceeding 0.5 m s⁻¹. In contrast, summer exhibits a marked
271 weakening, with negative anomalies approaching –0.4 m s⁻¹ along the south-central coast, indicating an opposite
272 warm-season response relative to the transitional seasons. Over northeastern Canada, the Quebec N-LLJ shows
273 the most spatially extensive and robust intensification in winter, with positive anomalies of approximately 0.5 m
274 s⁻¹ covering much of the region. Changes in the inland N-LLJ east of the Rocky Mountains remain comparatively
275 weak and spatially fragmented across seasons, lacking a coherent large-scale signal. Overall, the intensity
276 response of N-LLJs to future warming is dominated by system-specific dynamics, resulting in strong regional
277 contrasts and pronounced seasonal asymmetry.



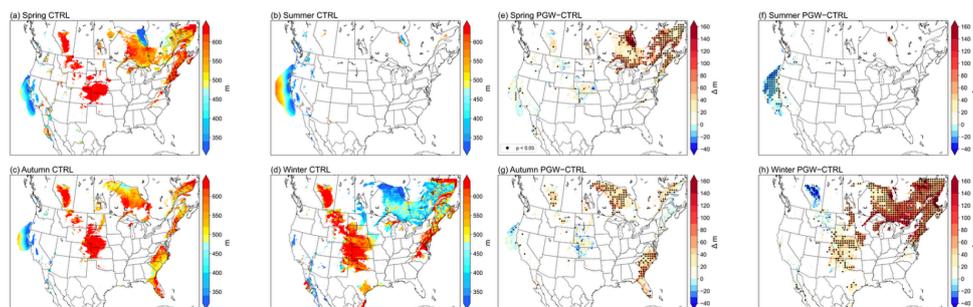
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279 **Figure 6. Seasonal mean wind speed of the N-LLJs core in the CTRL simulation (a-d) and their projected changes**
280 **under the PGW simulation (e-h). Black dots mark areas where differences are statistically significant at the 95%**
281 **confidence level, and the regions which frequency is lower than 5% are masked in all subplots**

282 3.2.3 Jet height

283 The vertical structure of N-LLJs in the CTRL simulation exhibits pronounced regional contrasts, while the degree
284 of seasonal variability differs substantially among individual systems. Along the California coast, N-LLJ core
285 heights show a distinct and persistent summer feature, with a pronounced decrease from the open ocean toward
286 the nearshore region, as evident in Figure 7b. Core heights over the open ocean commonly approach 600 m but
287 rapidly decline to approximately 350 m near the coast, forming a sharp land–sea gradient that is largely absent in
288 other seasons. By contrast, the Quebec N-LLJs are most prominent during spring, autumn, and winter, and their
289 core heights display strong seasonal modulation. During the transitional seasons, core heights are generally
290 elevated, typically approaching 600 m, whereas in winter they decrease markedly to around 400 m (Fig. 7d).
291 Inland N-LLJs downstream of the Rocky Mountains are comparatively limited in spatial extent and exhibit little
292 seasonal dependence, with core heights remaining near 600 m throughout the year. Taken together, the CTRL
293 climatology highlights clear regional contrasts in N-LLJ core height, with a pronounced nearshore-decreasing
294 structure along the California coast in summer and strong seasonal variability over eastern Canada.

295 Future changes in N-LLJ core height are generally modest and spatially confined, with coherent responses
296 emerging only in a few key regions. Over the California coast, a clear height response appears exclusively in
297 summer, when the N-LLJ core shifts downward relative to the CTRL climatology (see Fig. 7f). Reductions of
298 approximately 40 m occur near the coast, with even larger decreases offshore, producing negative anomalies that
299 intensify seaward. Given that the present-day core height already decreases from offshore toward the coast, this
300 pattern points to a weakened cross-shore height gradient under future warming. In eastern Canada, the Quebec N-
301 LLJ exhibits the most pronounced height response in winter, with widespread positive anomalies and core heights
302 increasing by more than 100 m, as illustrated in Figure 7h. Height changes during spring and autumn remain
303 comparatively weak in this region. Meanwhile, inland N-LLJs east of the Rocky Mountains show no coherent
304 height response across seasons, with variations remaining weak and spatially scattered in Figures 7e–h.



305

306 **Figure 7. Seasonal mean core height of the N-LLJs in the CTRL simulation (a-d) and their projected changes under**
307 **the PGW simulation (e-h). Black dots mark areas where differences are statistically significant at the 95% confidence**
308 **level, and the regions which frequency is lower than 5% are masked in all subplots.**

309 3.3 Monthly Characteristics of Representative LLJ Systems

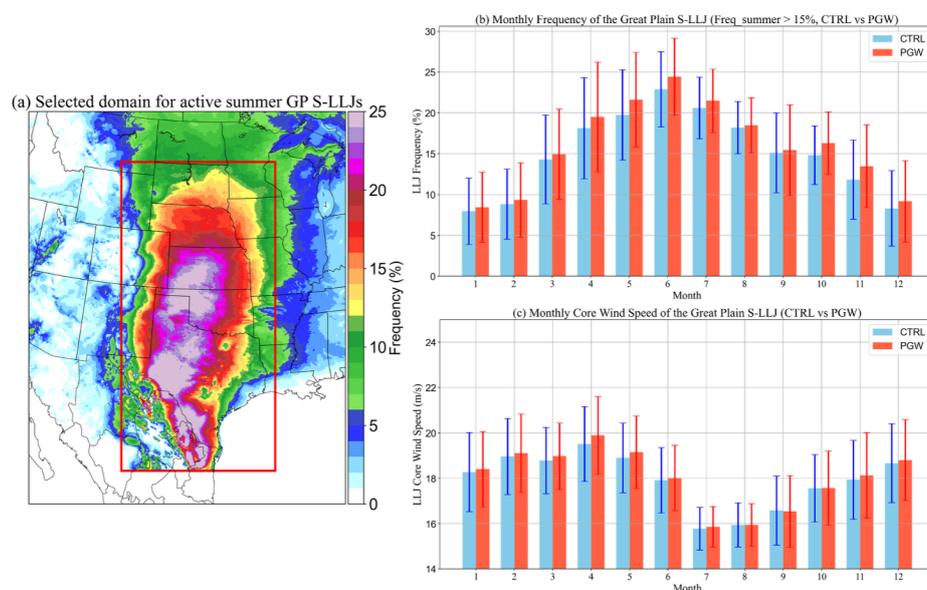
310 The preceding sections have characterized the seasonal behaviour of different LLJ systems and their responses to
311 future warming. However, seasonal-mean diagnostics can obscure important intra-annual variations, particularly
312 when changes are concentrated within specific months. To better resolve the temporal evolution of LLJ activity
313 and to illustrate contrasts between distinct systems, the following analysis focuses on two representative cases:
314 the Great Plains S-LLJ and the California coastal N-LLJ. Owing to their contrasting spatial structures and forcing
315 mechanisms, these systems provide an instructive framework for examining monthly-scale variability.

316 For the Great Plains S-LLJ, the analysis is restricted to its core summer activity region, defined using grid points
317 where the summer occurrence frequency exceeds 15% within the selected domain (Fig. 8a). Monthly S-LLJ
318 occurrence frequency and core wind speed are then computed based on these filtered grid points, with error bars
319 representing the spatial dispersion within the region. The resulting monthly evolution of S-LLJ frequency and
320 intensity under the CTRL and PGW simulations is summarized in Figures 8b and 8c. The monthly evolution of
321 S-LLJ occurrence frequency reveals a pronounced seasonal progression. In the CTRL simulation, S-LLJ
322 frequency increases steadily from winter, reaches its annual maximum during late spring to early summer (May–
323 June; about 22–24%), and subsequently weakens through midsummer and autumn before attaining a minimum in
324 January (Fig. 8b). Under future warming, the overall phase of the annual cycle remains largely unchanged, but S-
325 LLJ occurrence is systematically enhanced during most months. The strongest increases are concentrated in late
326 spring and early summer, when peak-month frequencies rise by roughly 2–3 percentage points relative to CTRL.
327 By contrast, during midsummer (July–August), the PGW–CTRL differences are markedly smaller, indicating a
328 muted response during the summer.

329 The error-bar structure further highlights this contrast. Spatial variability among grid points is lowest in
330 midsummer, whereas substantially larger dispersion is evident in May and June, suggesting that future changes in
331 GP S-LLJ occurrence are both stronger and more spatially heterogeneous during the seasonal transition period.
332 Taken together, these monthly results demonstrate that the largest increases in GP S-LLJ activity occur prior to
333 the midsummer maximum, a feature that is not readily apparent from seasonal-mean diagnostics alone and helps
334 explain the spring-dominated signal identified in Section 3.1.



335 Meanwhile, Figure 8c shows that the monthly evolution of S-LLJ core wind speed provides a useful contrast to
336 the occurrence frequency. The CTRL core wind speed increases from winter into spring, reaching $\sim 19\text{--}20\text{ m s}^{-1}$
337 in mid-to-late spring, before weakening to a midsummer minimum of $\sim 15\text{--}16\text{ m s}^{-1}$ and recovering in autumn.
338 Under future warming, the annual phase of the wind-speed cycle remains largely unchanged, with modest
339 intensification in most months. Increases are typically $0.2\text{--}0.5\text{ m s}^{-1}$ in spring and autumn but are much smaller
340 in midsummer ($\sim 0.1\text{ m s}^{-1}$). Compared with the pronounced monthly variations in occurrence frequency, the
341 variability of core wind speed is limited, with standard deviations generally within $1\text{--}2\text{ m s}^{-1}$, indicating relatively
342 uniform intensity across the core region.



343

344 **Figure 8. (a) Selected domain for the Great Plains S-LLJ analysis (red box). (b) Monthly occurrence frequency of the**
345 **Great Plains S-LLJ under the CTRL and PGW scenarios. (c) Monthly mean core wind speed of the Great Plains S-**
346 **LLJ under the CTRL and PGW scenarios. Error bars denote the spatial standard deviation within the core activity**
347 **region.**

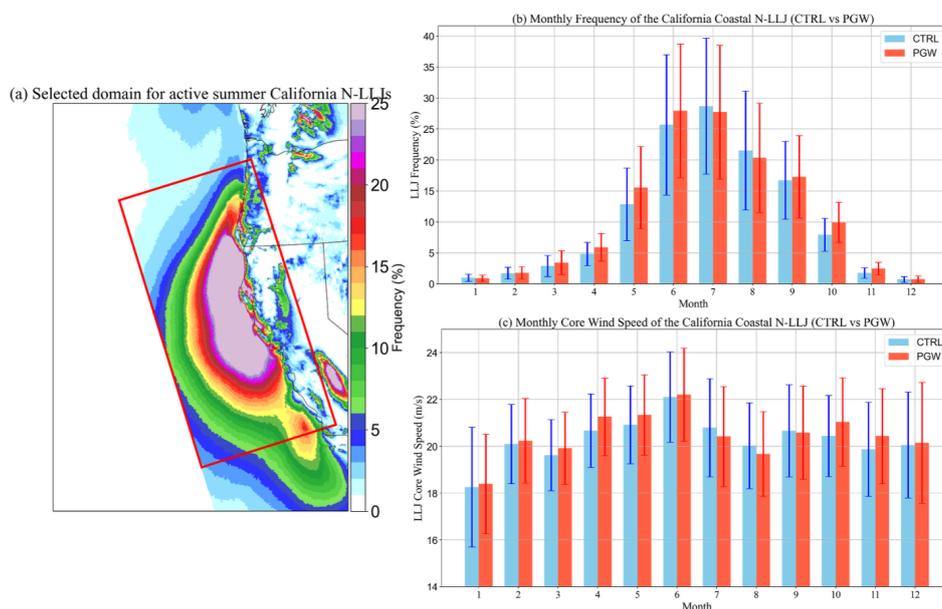
348 As shown in Figure 9, the California coastal N-LLJ exhibits a substantially stronger annual variation on the
349 monthly scale than the Great Plains S-LLJ. In the CTRL simulation, the occurrence frequency of the California
350 coastal N-LLJ decreases to nearly zero during winter, followed by a rapid increase from early spring, with a
351 pronounced rise during March–June. In contrast, the Great Plains S-LLJ maintains a non-negligible occurrence
352 frequency throughout winter, resulting in a much smoother annual cycle. This contrast is consistent with the
353 seasonal characteristics identified in Section 3.2, confirming the stronger warm-season dominance of the
354 California coastal N-LLJ.

355 Under the PGW scenario, the phase of the monthly cycle for the California coastal N-LLJ remains largely
356 unchanged relative to CTRL, but its annual amplitude is noticeably modified. Increases in occurrence frequency
357 are primarily concentrated in spring to early summer, with the most pronounced enhancement occurring during
358 March–June. In contrast, during midsummer (July–August), although the California coastal N-LLJ still represents



359 the annual peak in occurrence frequency, its frequency is clearly reduced relative to CTRL. This behaviour
360 indicates that future warming does not induce a systematic phase shift in the monthly cycle but instead leads to a
361 weakening of the peak-season amplitude.

362 Compared with occurrence frequency, the monthly variability of core wind speed for the California coastal N-
363 LLJ is considerably weaker. In both the CTRL and PGW simulations, core wind speed exhibits only modest
364 annual variation, indicating a relatively stable intensity throughout the year. Nevertheless, a subtle but coherent
365 signal can still be identified; the PGW core wind speeds tend to be slightly enhanced during late spring to early
366 summer (April–May), while a more evident weakening emerges during July–August. Differences in other months
367 remain small. These results suggest that, for the California coastal N-LLJ, future changes are dominated by a
368 redistribution of occurrence on the monthly scale, whereas modifications to individual event intensity are
369 secondary and largely confined to the midsummer period.



370

371 **Figure 9. (a) Selected domain for the California coastal N-LLJ analysis (red box). (b) Monthly occurrence frequency**
372 **of the California coastal N-LLJ under the CTRL and PGW scenarios. (c) Monthly mean core wind speed of the**
373 **California coastal N-LLJ under the CTRL and PGW scenarios. Error bars denote the spatial standard deviation**
374 **within the core activity region.**

375 4. Mechanisms analysis underlying the PGW response of LLJs

376 The results in Section 3 indicate that different types of LLJs exhibit significant differences in their response to
377 warming under the PGW scenario. Notably, over the Great Plains, the S-LLJ shows a marked enhancement in
378 both occurrence frequency and jet core wind speeds during the spring, whereas the magnitude of these changes is
379 significantly weaker in the summer. In contrast, the California coastal N-LLJ displays a response pattern that
380 differs from the inland jets. Since statistical results alone are insufficient to explain these discrepancies, it is
381 necessary to investigate further the underlying causes from the perspective of dynamic structures.



382 In our previous work (Ma et al., 2024), we systematically analyzed the formation mechanisms of major North
383 American LLJs under the current climate. We highlighted that the nocturnal enhancement of the Great Plains S-
384 LLJ is dominated by the inertial oscillation theory, while the California coastal N-LLJ is primarily driven by
385 baroclinicity and sea-land thermal contrast. Building on this theoretical framework, this study further investigates
386 whether these existing dynamic processes are altered under a warming climate, and how such alterations lead to
387 the differential responses of LLJs across different seasons and types.

388 To this end, this study selects two representative jet core locations (refer to Points A and B in Fig. 1) to conduct
389 a targeted diagnosis of the low-level wind structure under the CTRL and PGW scenarios. Point A is located in
390 Texas, a typical active region for the Great Plains S-LLJ. During the PGW scenario, this region exhibits the most
391 significant LLJ enhancement during spring, characterized by a simultaneous increase in both occurrence
392 frequency and core wind speed, with increments of 3 percentage points and 0.3 m s^{-1} , respectively. In contrast,
393 only slight changes are observed in summer. And the Point B is situated along the California coast, serving as a
394 typical core area for the summertime California coastal N-LLJ. According to the preceding statistical analysis, the
395 responses at Point B during spring and summer exhibit distinct positive/negative contrasts. Selecting Point B helps
396 to assess whether the background geostrophic wind structure and the associated low-level dynamic constraints of
397 the coastal LLJ undergo systematic changes under a warming climate.

398 4.1 Great Plains S-LLJ

399 In a mechanism analysis, it should select representative scenarios with the most significant differences in climate
400 response to highlight key physical processes. For the Great Plains S-LLJ, Fig. 8 in subsection 3.3 indicates distinct
401 differences in its response to warming between spring and summer. Specifically, May and August represent the
402 two states with the most typical and divergent signals for these respective seasons.

403 Meanwhile, according to the inertial oscillation theory of Blackadar (1957), the actual low-level wind can be
404 divided into the sum of geostrophic and ageostrophic winds:

$$405 \quad \vec{V} = \vec{V}_g + \vec{V}_a, \quad (3)$$

406 In the evening, after the boundary layer stabilizes and near-surface friction weakens significantly, the evolution
407 of the ageostrophic wind is primarily controlled by the Coriolis force, resulting in an approximately circular
408 periodic rotation trajectory within a diurnal cycle:

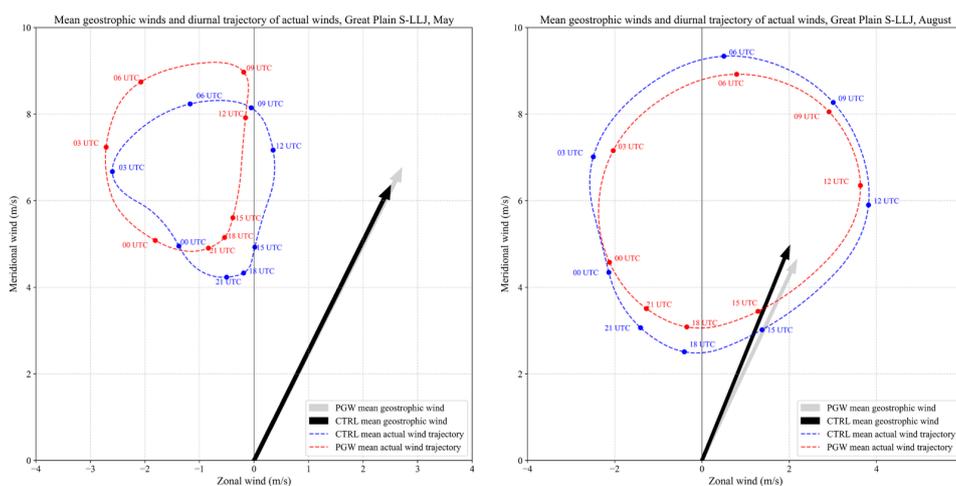
$$409 \quad \frac{d\vec{V}_a}{dt} + \vec{f} \times \vec{V}_a \approx \mathbf{0}, \quad (4)$$

410 This theory provides a classical dynamical framework for explaining the nocturnal formation of LLJs: when the
411 ageostrophic wind rotates from a direction approximately opposite to the geostrophic wind to align with it, their
412 superposition causes the actual wind to transition from a subgeostrophic to a supergeostrophic state, thereby
413 generating significant wind speed enhancement at low levels. Essentially, this process originates from the
414 unbalanced adjustment of the wind field triggered by the decoupling of the boundary layer from surface friction
415 effects.



416 Figure 10 shows the mean geostrophic wind vectors and the mean diurnal hodographs of the actual wind at the jet
417 core height in May and August. The black and gray arrows denote the mean geostrophic winds in the CTRL and
418 PGW scenarios, while the blue and red curves represent the diurnal evolution of the actual winds, respectively. In
419 May (Fig. 10a), the mean geostrophic wind over the Great Plains S-LLJ region is stronger in the PGW scenario,
420 indicating a systematic enhancement of the background pressure gradient. The hodograph of the actual wind also
421 expands outward during the evening to nighttime period (18–03 CST, corresponding to 00–09 UTC in figures),
422 and its shape becomes closer to a circular pattern. This outward expansion reflects a larger rotation radius and
423 stronger amplitude of the ageostrophic wind, suggesting that the inertial oscillation becomes more pronounced
424 under future warming. As a result, the superposition between the ageostrophic and geostrophic components is
425 enhanced at night, which favours stronger supergeostrophic acceleration and the intensification of the nocturnal
426 LLJ.

427 In contrast, the hodograph trajectory of the actual wind in August (Fig. 10b) exhibits a structure that is generally
428 more circular than that in May. This indicates that the inertial oscillation signal is more typical under summer
429 background conditions. However, the mean geostrophic wind is slightly weaker for the PGW simulation, implying
430 a reduced large-scale pressure gradient. Meanwhile, the radius of the hodograph is also obviously smaller than
431 that in CTRL, suggesting a weakening of the ageostrophic wind amplitude and the inertial oscillation effect. The
432 combined weakening of both the background geostrophic wind and the ageostrophic oscillation is consistent with
433 the statistical results, which show only slight enhancement or even a weakening tendency of the Great Plains S-
434 LLJ in summer.



435

436 **Figure 10. Mean geostrophic winds and the diurnal variation of actual winds at the core height of the S-LLJ over the**
437 **Great Plains: (a) May, (b) August.**

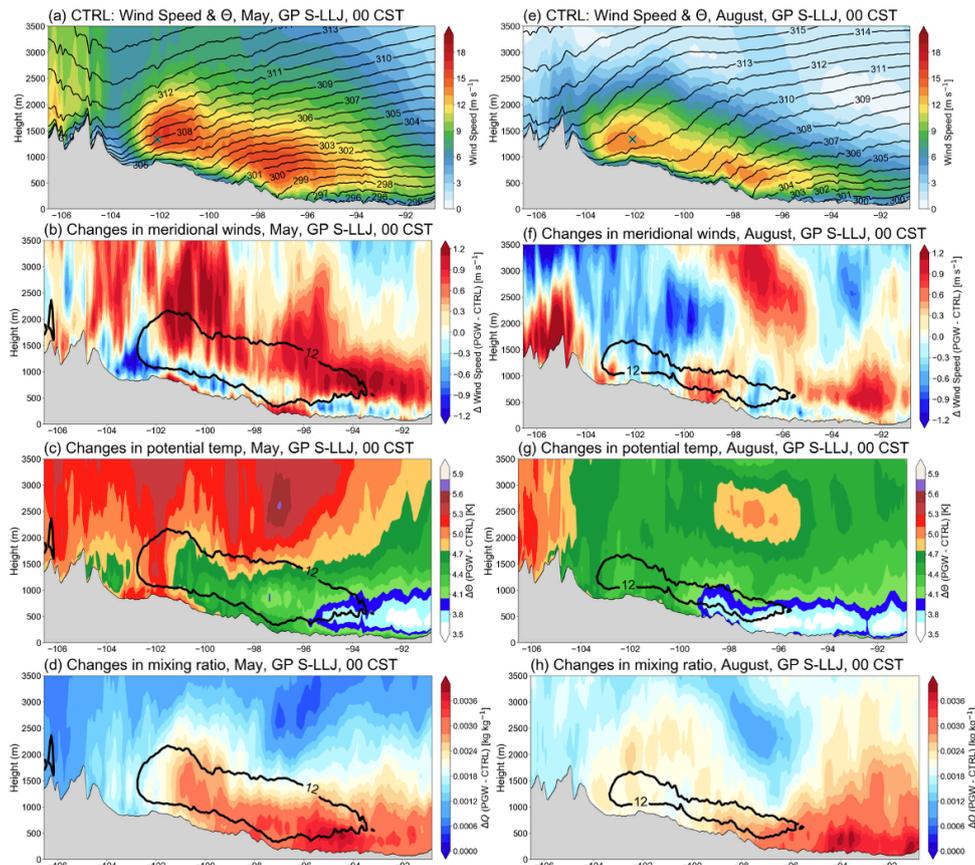
438 To further examine the thermal and stratification backgrounds associated with the different seasonal responses of
439 LLJs to climate warming, Fig. 11 shows a meridional cross-section through Point A, including the mean wind
440 speed and potential temperature in CTRL, as well as the PGW-induced changes in meridional wind, potential



441 temperature, and water vapor mixing ratio. The 00 CST was selected since the inertial oscillation is the strongest
442 at this time (Figure 10).

443 In May, the Great Plains LLJ in CTRL is embedded in strongly sloping isentropes, representing a typical
444 springtime baroclinic environment (Fig. 11a). Under the PGW scenario, a distinct uneven warming pattern appears
445 in the middle-to-upper levels, with stronger warming to the west and weaker warming to the east (Fig. 11c). This
446 structure enhances the horizontal temperature gradient within the jet layer and strengthens the associated pressure
447 gradient force. Consistent with this thermal adjustment, the meridional wind shows a coherent enhancement
448 throughout the jet layer (Fig. 11b), indicating a strengthened background gradient wind that is toward the slope.
449 And under the Coriolis force, the southerly geostrophic component gets enhanced. The moisture field adjusts
450 coherently with the temperature structure. The increase in water vapor during May is not limited to the near-
451 surface valley but also extends westward into the jet core region (Fig. 11d). Regions of stronger moistening
452 generally coincide with weaker warming, reflecting a redistribution of energy between sensible and latent heat.
453 This coupled warm–moist adjustment further enhances the thermal gradient near the Great Plains S-LLJ and
454 modifies the virtual temperature and density fields, thereby providing additional thermodynamic support for the
455 strengthened background geostrophic wind.

456 Figure 11e shows that the baroclinic structure is significantly weaker in August than in spring. Under the PGW
457 scenario, potential temperature changes are mainly shown as the uniform background warming throughout the
458 entire layer. Unlike in May, no significant strong warming band is observed from the central to western parts of
459 the jet (Fig. 11g), so a stronger horizontal temperature gradient is not established within the jet layer. Therefore,
460 the meridional wind changes display alternating positive and negative anomalies within the jet layer, lacking a
461 growing structure (Fig. 11f). Besides, the increase in water vapor in August is confined to the eastern valley and
462 upper levels, showing a weakened coupling with the core jet (Fig. 11h). Since the high moisture growth does not
463 reach the jet, their modulation of the baroclinic structure is significantly weaker than in spring. Thus, climate
464 change cannot effectively amplify the thermal gradient within the jet layer. This means that the background
465 pressure gradient and the associated geostrophic wind do not undergo systematic strengthening. The magnitude
466 of geostrophic wind changes in August is notably weaker than in May as a result.



467

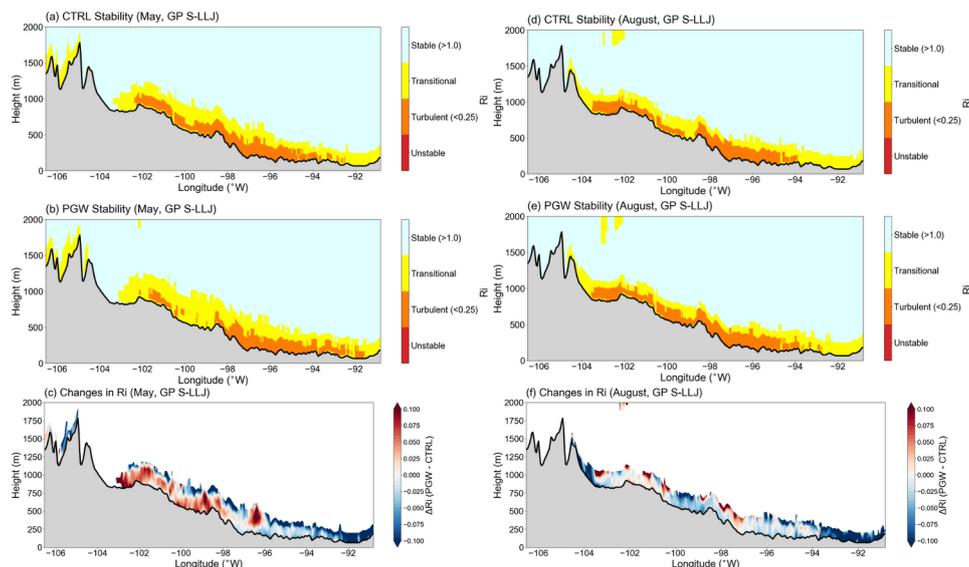
468 **Figure 11. Meridional cross-section through Point A for (a–d) May and (e–h) August at 00 CST: (a, e) Mean wind**
469 **speed (shading) and potential temperature (black contours) in the CTRL scenario; (b, f) changes in meridional wind;**
470 **(c, g) changes in potential temperature; and (d, h) changes in water vapor mixing ratio. The black contours indicate**
471 **the low-level jet core region (12 m/s).**

472 Figure 12 further supports the seasonal differences in inertial oscillation response from the perspective of stability
473 structure. The Richardson number (Ri) was used here to characterize boundary-layer stability quantitatively ($Ri >$
474 1 for stable conditions and $Ri < 0.25$ for turbulent conditions). Comparing figures 12a and b, the spring nocturnal
475 near-surface unstable structure significantly weakens and even disappears from the valley to the highlands in the
476 PGW simulation. Below the jet layer (-104 to -98), the Ri shows overall positive anomalies, implying that
477 turbulent mixing is more easily suppressed at night (fig. 12c). The decoupling between the upper air of the
478 boundary layer and surface is therefore enhanced in the future spring. This benefits the development of stronger
479 inertial oscillations and amplifies the diurnal variation amplitude of LLJs.

480 However, the midnight unstable structure in August is enhanced in the PGW simulation. The Ri below the jet is
481 dominated by negative anomalies (fig. 12f), which reveal more active turbulent mixing, and the air flow in the jet
482 layer gets more influence from surface friction. As a result, under the mid-summer background, the conditions for



483 inertial oscillation are not reinforced but instead tend to weaken. This behaviour is consistent with the August LLJ
484 features shown in Fig. 10.



485

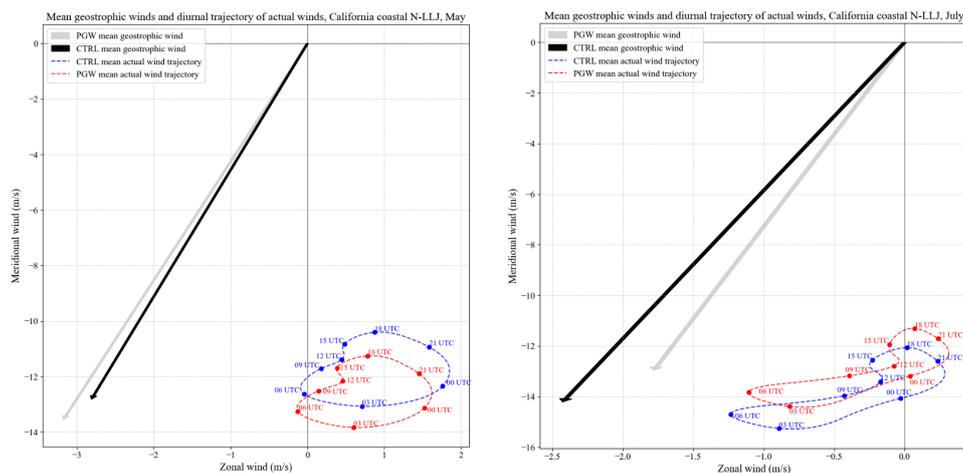
486 **Figure 12. Cross-sections of stability structure and its changes associated with the Great Plains S-LLJ. (a, b) Stability**
487 **classification based on the Richardson number (Ri) in May under the CTRL and PGW scenarios, respectively. (c)**
488 **Changes in Ri (PGW – CTRL) in May. (d, e) As in (a, b), but for August. (f) Changes in Ri (PGW – CTRL) in**
489 **August.**

490

491 4.2 California coastal N-LLJ

492 Based on Section 3.3, May and July are selected to represent spring and summer for the California coastal N-LLJ.
493 Point B is chosen for analysis because it is near the coast, where more frequent LLJs occur, and shows clearly
494 contrasting responses to climate change between the two seasons. As noted in Ma et al. (2024), this jet is primarily
495 controlled by the background geostrophic wind rather than inertial oscillation.

496 Figure 13 displays the mean geostrophic wind vectors and diurnal hodographs at the jet core height. In both May
497 and July, the geostrophic winds are strong, while the actual wind hodographs show a weak diurnal cycle without
498 a standard circular shape. Notably, the mean geostrophic wind becomes stronger in the PGW simulation in May,
499 but slightly weaker in July. Since this LLJ is geostrophically driven, these changes in background flow directly
500 explain the different seasonal responses at Point B. Moreover, at almost all time steps, the ageostrophic deviation
501 is oriented opposite to the geostrophic wind. This indicates that a supergeostrophic state does not develop and that
502 the actual wind remains subgeostrophic throughout the diurnal cycle. Therefore, the California coastal N-LLJ is
503 mainly maintained by the background geostrophic flow and is continuously damped by surface friction, rather
504 than being enhanced by nocturnal inertial oscillation



505

506 **Figure 13. Mean geostrophic winds and the diurnal variation of actual winds at the core height of the N-LLJ over the**
507 **California coast: (a) May, (b) July.**

508 Thus, the mechanisms underlying the seasonal changes in the California coastal N-LLJ can be further interpreted
509 from the perspective of background thermodynamic circulation. The time of 19:00 PST (03:00 UTC) is selected
510 as a representative stage, because the coastal N-LLJ typically reaches its maximum intensity at this time (Fig. 13).

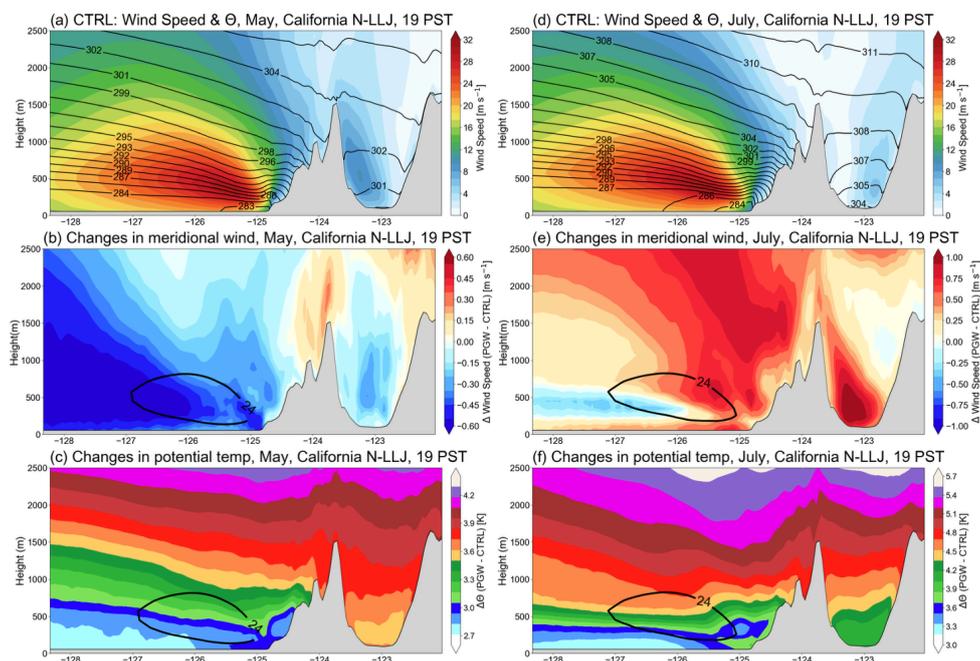
511 Under the present climate (Figs. 14a and 14d), the intensity and vertical structure of the California coastal N-LLJ
512 are generally similar in spring and summer. In both seasons, the jet is embedded in a typical coastal baroclinic
513 environment associated with the cool ocean and warm land contrast. However, the PGW-induced changes in the
514 meridional wind show clear seasonal differences (Figs. 14b and 14e). The coastal jet layer is mainly featured by
515 enhanced northerly flow in May, reflected by negative meridional wind anomalies, indicating a strengthening of
516 the coastal N-LLJ. Whereas the positive meridional wind anomalies dominate in summer, from the middle
517 troposphere down to the near-coastal boundary layer (approximately -126° to -125°), implying a widespread
518 weakening of the northerly jet. But for the west of 126° W, weak northerly increase is still maintained near 400–
519 500 m, but it is much more limited in both magnitude and spatial extent.

520 The changes in the temperature field further explain the seasonal contrast in the California coastal N-LLJ response.
521 The potential temperature changes are closely aligned with the slope of the isentropes in May, extending from
522 approximately 500 m to 2000 m (Fig. 14c). This structure is consistent with the typical feature of future warming,
523 in which ocean warming is weaker than land warming. As a result, the land–sea thermal contrast and the associated
524 baroclinicity near the jet layer are enhanced, which exerts a positive effect on strengthening the background
525 geostrophic wind and the coastal N-LLJ.

526 The situation in July is notably different (Fig. 14f). Although the $\Delta\theta$ isolines in the lower boundary layer remain
527 tilted, the main descending branch shifts westward from the coastal zone to offshore regions west of 125° W. This
528 indicates that the strongest land–sea thermal contrast is displaced offshore. Consistent with this feature, a
529 pronounced surface warming signal appears near 125° W in July. More importantly, a relative minimum centre



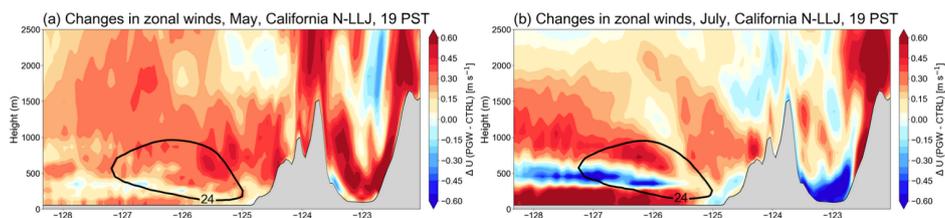
530 of potential temperature warming is evident at about 300–500 m above -125° W, which directly weakens the
531 baroclinic structure at the jet-core height. This thermal configuration disrupts the coastal baroclinicity and exerts
532 a negative effect on the strength of the California coastal N-LLJ.



533

534 **Figure 14. Meridional cross-section through Point B for (a–c) May and (d–f) July at 19 PST: (a, d) Mean wind speed**
535 **(shading) and potential temperature (black contours) in the CTRL scenario; (b, e) changes in meridional wind; (c, f)**
536 **changes in potential temperature. The black contours indicate the strong low-level jet core region (24 m/s).**

537 The changes in the zonal wind further help interpret the near-coastal thermal adjustment (Fig. 15). Under the
538 present-day climate, the coastal thermal configuration of this area (Fig. 14b) can be featured by a cold ocean -
539 warm coastline - hot mountain, which supports a coupled sea-breeze and upslope-flow system. Under future
540 warming, surface temperature increases near the coastline and offshore region are more pronounced in summer
541 (Fig. 14f). Thermodynamically, this configuration tends to strengthen the onshore sea breeze, while the upslope
542 flow becomes relatively weaker. This contrast is clearly proved in the zonal wind response (Fig. 15b). As a result,
543 a low-level convergence zone is likely to form near the coast around 125° W in summer. The stronger sea breeze
544 benefits cooler updraft in this region, which provides a dynamical explanation for the relative minimum centre in
545 potential temperature warming above the coast. Although a slightly stronger offshore warming signal can also be
546 identified in spring, it is much weaker than in summer. Consequently, the zonal wind changes in May do not
547 exhibit a similarly strong contrast (Fig. 15a).



548

549 **Figure 15. Meridional cross-section through Point B for the changes in zonal wind components. (a) May; (b) July at**
550 **19 PST.**

551 5. Conclusion

552 This study used a convection-permitting WRF model to investigate how LLJs respond to climate change over
553 North America. Previous projections of LLJ changes have primarily relied on global or coarse-resolution regional
554 climate models, which have been widely used to analyze the large-scale circulation adjustments associated with
555 future LLJ changes (Zhou et al., 2021). While these studies have established that LLJs are likely to change under
556 climate warming, their coarse resolution limits the representation of jet-core structure and boundary-layer
557 processes, particularly over complex terrain and coastal environments. In contrast, the convection-permitting
558 simulations used here explicitly resolve jet heights, thermodynamic stratification, providing a physical basis for
559 interpreting future LLJ responses.

560 The results reveal that the response of North American LLJs to climate warming is highly heterogeneous across
561 seasons and regions, rather than a uniform intensification. The most pronounced strengthening of the Great Plains
562 S-LLJ occurs in spring, with occurrence frequency increasing by approximately 3% and core wind speeds rising
563 by more than 0.5 m s^{-1} . However, the summer response is strongly muted, characterized by limited intensity
564 changes and a reduced amplitude of the diurnal cycle. This change differs from the study by Tang et al. (2017),
565 which emphasized that enhancement predominantly occurs at night during summer and varies in frequency. The
566 discrepancy arises because convection-permitting simulations explicitly resolve the warming-induced increase in
567 nocturnal boundary-layer instability, which suppresses decoupling and damps the inertial oscillation, thereby
568 limiting summer LLJ strengthening.

569 This study also projects that the California coastal N-LLJ exhibits enhanced jet activity in spring and autumn, but
570 a pronounced summer weakening accompanied by an offshore shift of the jet core. This behaviour contrasts with
571 large-scale or coarse-resolution projections that primarily emphasize monotonic changes in coastal wind strength
572 and indicates that future coastal LLJ responses are governed not simply by background circulation changes, but
573 by a reorganization of coastal boundary-layer structure and sea-breeze–baroclinicity interactions that can only be
574 captured at convection-permitting scales.

575 Following the conceptual framework of Ma et al. (2024), we attribute these differential responses to distinct
576 alterations in thermodynamic forcing and boundary layer stability under the PGW simulation. As to the Great
577 Plains S-LLJ, the spring intensification is driven by a coupled thermal-dynamic adjustment. A steepened east-
578 west temperature gradient enhances the background geostrophic southerlies, while increased nocturnal stability



579 suppresses turbulent mixing, thereby amplifying the inertial oscillation. Conversely, in summer, the warming
580 pattern is spatially uniform, preventing the enhancement of the baroclinic zone. Furthermore, increased nocturnal
581 instability in summer weakens the decoupling of the boundary layer, dampening the inertial oscillation mechanism.

582 Whereas, for the California coastal N-LLJ, the summer weakening is dynamically linked to the reconfiguration
583 of the land-sea thermal contrast. Although the land warms faster than the ocean, the maximum warming centres
584 shift, and enhanced sea-breeze circulation disrupts the coastal baroclinicity at the jet core height (~300–500 m).
585 This highlights that future LLJ evolution is not solely determined by large-scale thermal gradients but is critically
586 modulated by local coastal circulations, that are poorly represented in coarse-resolution projections.

587 These results provide a dynamic reference for understanding the future evolution of low-level wind systems in
588 North America and also offer a more physically constrained explanatory framework for interdisciplinary fields
589 such as regional hydroclimate, extreme weather environments, and offshore wind energy assessment. The
590 strengthening of the Great Plains S-LLJ in spring suggests a potential increase in moisture transport toward the
591 central US, which could push the initiation of mesoscale convective systems (MCSs) and heavier spring
592 precipitation or even tornadoes. Additionally, the projected vertical and zonal shift of jet core areas over the
593 California coast, this also poses new considerations for wind energy assessment. The vertical wind shear and
594 resource availability at current offshore wind farms may deviate from historical norms.

595 Overall, this study demonstrates that climate change reshapes not only the frequency and intensity of LLJs but
596 also their vertical structure and governing mechanisms, giving a dimension of LLJ response largely unresolved in
597 previous coarse-resolution projections. By explicitly simulating boundary-layer stability and coastal circulation
598 adjustments, convection-permitting simulations provide a physically grounded framework for interpreting future
599 low-level wind system changes. Nevertheless, several limitations remain. The 13-year simulation period is
600 insufficient to fully characterize long-term climate variability and low-frequency internal variability. However,
601 for convection-permitting climate simulations covering the entire North American continent, this configuration
602 represents a practical balance between computational cost and physical realism. Future research should further
603 examine interactions between LLJs and extreme weather systems to deepen the understanding of low-level wind
604 responses under climate change.

605



606 **Acknowledgments**

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608 **Data Availability Statement**

609 The WRF simulation over CONUS I can be accessed at Research Data Archive of NCAR

610 <https://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds612.0/>.

611 **Author contribution**

612 Xiao Ma: Conceptualization; data curation; formal analysis; investigation; methodology; visualization; writing-
613 original draft.

614 Yanping Li: Conceptualization; funding acquisition; investigation; methodology; project administration;
615 supervision; validation; writing-review and editing.

616 Fei Huo: Data curation; methodology; validation; visualization; writing-review and editing.

617 Zhenhua Li: Data curation; methodology; validation; writing-review and editing.

618 **Competing interests**

619 All authors disclosed no relevant relationships.

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