

Weakening of western disturbances in response to polar sea ice melt in climate model simulations

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1 Weakening of western disturbances in response to 2 polar sea ice melt in climate model simulations

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7 **Abstract** The response of low-latitude weather and climate to polar sea ice melt
8 is not well understood. In this study, we run a suite of coupled and uncoupled
9 simulations using the Community Earth System Model to investigate the effects
10 of polar sea ice melt on western disturbance (WD) activity over the Indian sub-
11 continent. In the coupled model simulation, the albedo of the sea ice is reduced
12 in such a way that the increased absorption of the solar radiation would melt
13 the sea ice. Further, the monthly climatology of sea surface temperature (SST)
14 and sea ice concentrations (SIC) from the coupled model runs are used to force
15 the Community Atmospheric Model (CAM5) at higher resolution (50 km). WD
16 vortices in the CAM5 simulations are tracked using a Lagrangian tracking algo-
17 rithm. Our analyses reveal that WD activity is reduced in the CAM5 simulations
18 forced with the SST and SIC from the sea ice melt experiment. We show that
19 this is because the subtropical jet becomes more baroclinically stable and shifts
20 equatorward in response to the polar sea ice melt. The weakening and widening of
21 the subtropical jet is consistent with the predicted changes to thermal wind and
22 upper-tropospheric meridional temperature gradient in response to the polar sea
23 ice melt.

24 **Keywords** Polar Sea Ice · Western Disturbance (WDs) · Westerly Jet

25 1 Introduction

26 One of the major concerns of the global warming is its effect on polar sea ice. Sea
27 ice melt can have far reaching and long lasting implications on the climate system.
28 Observations show that the Arctic sea ice extent (SIE) has been declining since
29 1970s, with the summer SIE reduced by half (NSIDC, 2022); however, Antarctic

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30 sea ice has demonstrated complex variability over the same period. The southern
31 hemispheric SIE increased at a rate of 2% per decade during 1979–2015 followed by
32 a rapid decline in the last few years (Comiso et al., 2017; NSIDC, 2022). Climate
33 model projections using high emission scenarios indicate that both the Arctic and
34 Antarctic will start experiencing ice free summers by the middle and late 21st
35 century respectively (Collins et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2013; Overland and Wang,
36 2013; Jahn et al., 2016). Sea ice melt has far reaching effects on the global climate
37 system through surface energy imbalance and the subsequent response of ocean
38 dynamics (Screen and Simmonds, 2010; Serreze and Barry, 2011). Further, the
39 thermal inertia of the oceans cause the effects of sea ice melt to persist for several
40 decades. Experiments using uncoupled general circulation models have shown that
41 depletion of Arctic sea ice explains most of the seasonal pattern of the high-latitude
42 climate response to greenhouse gas-induced warming (Deser et al., 2010).

43 Melting of sea ice results in a reduction of surface albedo and as result, en-
44 hanced absorption of shortwave radiation at the surface. This process leads to a
45 positive feedback loop that amplifies the sea ice melt. Over the Arctic, this feedback
46 has resulted in a rapid warming of the surface temperature, known as Arctic Am-
47 plification (Serreze and Francis, 2006; Holland and Bitz, 2003; Dai, 2021). One of
48 the consequences of the rapid surface warming of the Arctic compared to the rest of
49 the globe is that it weakens the equator to pole temperature gradient. Evidence al-
50 ready indicates that the meridional temperature gradient in the lower troposphere
51 over the northern hemisphere is weakening (Francis and Vavrus, 2012; Haarsma
52 et al., 2013; Francis and Vavrus, 2015). This pattern is reversed in the upper tropo-
53 sphere, where the tropics warm faster than the poles, resulting in a strengthening
54 of the meridional temperature gradient Thompson and Solomon (2005); Allen and
55 Sherwood (2008); Harvey et al. (2014). These contrasting changes have resulted
56 in increased vertical shear in extratropical jets (Lee et al., 2019).

57 The response of subtropical and low latitude circulations to the polar sea ice
58 melt is not well understood. Unlike the extratropical jet that is mostly driven by
59 the thermal wind balance, the subtropical jet (STJ) is a response to both thermal
60 wind balance and angular momentum conservation (Krishnamurti, 1961; Held and
61 Hou, 1980). During boreal summer, the STJ weakens and moves poleward of 35°N,
62 while in winter it intensifies and shifts equatorward, often passing over the Western
63 Himalaya. The observations suggest that the STJ has become more wavy in the
64 recent decades in response to an overall weakening of the meridional temperature
65 gradient (Francis and Vavrus, 2015).

66 Baroclinic instability associated with the STJ creates favourable conditions
67 for the growth of synoptic-scale baroclinic disturbances known as western dis-
68 turbances (WDs; Dimri et al., 2016; Hunt et al., 2018a; Hunt and Zaz, 2022).
69 WDs play an important role in the production of winter and spring precipita-
70 tion over the northwestern part of the Indian subcontinent and the Himalayas
71 (Mooley, 1957; Rangachary and Bandyopadhyay, 1987; Houze et al., 2011; Dimri
72 et al., 2015; Houze et al., 2017; Hunt et al., 2018a). They are therefore crucial
73 for water security over the Himalayan region (Dimri, 2013; Iqbal and Ilyas, 2013).
74 WDs can also cause hazards over South Asia. For example, a large majority of
75 recent landslides over the western Himalayas and Karakoram have been triggered
76 by heavy precipitation brought by WDs (Hunt and Dimri, 2021). WDs have also
77 been linked to catastrophic floods, such as those that occurred over Uttarakhand
78 in 2013 (Chevuturi and Dimri, 2016; Hunt et al., 2021).

79 The interannual variability of WDs is driven in part by teleconnections with
80 the tropical Pacific and Atlantic, with the El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO)
81 and the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) playing key roles (Yadav et al., 2009;
82 Dimri, 2013; Filippi et al., 2014). The relative strengths of these teleconnections
83 has varied over the last century, with Yadav et al. (2009) noting an increasing
84 influence of ENSO and decreasing influence of the NAO on winter precipitation
85 over northwestern India since 1950. The STJ acts as a medium for these remote
86 climate forcings to influence WD activity (Hunt and Zaz, 2022). In this context, we
87 may anticipate that the response of STJ to the polar sea ice melting can influence
88 the formation and intensification of WDs, subject to the caveat that the strength
89 of this relationship may not be constant in time.

90 Few studies have explored how WDs respond to projected future warming in
91 climate models and those that have disagree on the sign of change depending on the
92 methodology used. Studies that use proxies for WD activity (e.g., filtered 500 hPa
93 geopotential variance) have found a weak positive trend over the coming century
94 (Ridley et al., 2013; Krishnan et al., 2018). However, results from applying a WD-
95 tracking algorithm to the CMIP5 multimodel ensemble showed a robust weakening
96 trend, with a drop of 15% in the frequency and 12% in the intensity of the storms
97 by the end of 21st century (Hunt et al., 2019a). They attributed the decline in the
98 WD activity to the weakening of STJ in a warming climate. The polar sea ice melt
99 can also elicit a climate system response similar to that of global warming (England
100 et al., 2020). Recent studies using coupled models suggest that both Arctic and
101 Antarctic sea ice melt can influence changes in the deep tropics (Liu and Fedorov,
102 2019; England et al., 2020; Chandra et al., 2022). Using climate model simulations,
103 Chandra et al. (2022) showed that the Indian summer monsoon circulation and
104 synoptic activity would weaken in response to the polar sea ice melt. Here, we use
105 the modeling framework from Chandra et al. (2022) to investigate the changes in
106 WD activity in response to the polar sea ice melt.

107 **2 Data and methods**

108 **2.1 Coupled and uncoupled climate model simulations**

109 The presence of multiple modes of spatiotemporal variability, as well as various
110 feedback effects, pose a challenge in extracting the effect of sea ice melt on climate
111 system. A robust way to isolate the effect of sea ice melt on the rest of the climate
112 system is by forcing the sea ice to melt in a coupled climate model by either lower-
113 ing the albedo of the sea ice or adding additional heat to the polar region (Screen
114 et al., 2018). The addition of extra heat would result in a violation of conservation
115 of energy, and hence we choose the albedo reduction method. A contrast between
116 a benchmark simulation and the run in which the sea ice is forced to melt can
117 quantify the effect of the sea ice melt on climate and long-term weather variabil-
118 ity. We used the community earth system model (CESM) version 1.1.2 (Hurrell
119 et al., 2013) to perform idealized experiments. We chose a horizontal resolution of
120 $0.9^\circ \times 1.25^\circ$ for land and atmosphere, while the ocean and sea ice components share
121 a variable resolution displaced pole grid (gx1v6). The atmospheric component of
122 the model has 32 hybrid sigma-pressure vertical levels.

123 Firstly, the CESM model is run in a fully coupled configuration for 350 years
 124 with pre-industrial forcing (B1850). We call this the control experiment (CTRL).
 125 In the second experiment, the model was restarted from the 300th year of CTRL
 126 and run for an additional 50 years. In this latter experiment, the albedo of bare
 127 and ponded sea ice, as well as snow cover on ice, over the Arctic and Antarctic
 128 Oceans in the sea ice component was reduced. Specifically, we changed the values
 129 of two non-dimensional tuning parameters R_{ice} and R_{pnd} , in the solar radiation
 130 parameterization scheme of the sea ice component, from 0 to -2. This change would
 131 result in a reduction of sea ice albedo by about 6.3% (Briegleb and Light, 2007). In
 132 addition, for all spectral bands, we reduced the single scattering albedo of snow by
 133 10%. These changes are made following Liu and Fedorov (2019), who found that
 134 the chosen values closely replicated recent sea ice loss. We refer to this experiment
 135 as the sea ice melt experiment (SIME).

136 Transient weather systems, such as WDs, may not be adequately resolved in
 137 these coarse resolution simulations (Hunt et al., 2019b). Hence, we also designed an
 138 ensemble of high-resolution Community Atmospheric Model (CAM5) simulations
 139 that use the sea surface temperature (SST) and sea ice concentration (SIC) annual
 140 cycles from the coupled model simulations. The last ten years of CTRL and SIME
 141 simulations were used to construct the annual cycles of the monthly climatology of
 142 SST and SIC. To distinguish the CAM5 experiments from the fully coupled CESM
 143 experiments, we call them CTRL-CAM5 and SIME-CAM5, respectively. For both
 144 experiments, the remaining CAM5 forcings are set to year 2000 conditions. For
 145 both CAM5-CTRL and CAM5-SIME, we ran an ensemble of four runs each, by
 146 slightly perturbing the initial surface temperature. Each of these runs span for four
 147 years, giving a total of sixteen years of data. Similar high-resolution atmospheric
 148 model simulations have been performed to investigate the changes in monsoon
 149 low-pressure systems (Sandeep et al., 2018; Chandra et al., 2022).

150 2.2 Tracking of western disturbances

151 We used the Lagrangian tracking algorithm described in Hunt et al. (2018b, 2019c)
 152 to track WDs in the high-resolution CAM5 simulations. When applied to six-
 153 hourly reanalysis or climate model data, as in Hunt et al. (2018b, 2019c), the
 154 algorithm identifies local maxima in T63 spectrally-truncated instantaneous 450-
 155 300 hPa relative vorticity, subject to an 850 km search radius. These maxima are
 156 linked across timesteps through a biased nearest-neighbour search, with system
 157 propagation speed limited to $1000 \text{ km (6 hr)}^{-1}$. A final round of filtering ensures
 158 that (a) tracks last at least 48 hours; (b) tracks pass through $[20-36.5^\circ\text{N}, 60-$
 159 $80^\circ\text{E}]$; and (c) track endpoints are to the east of their geneses. To account for the
 160 CAM5 simulations having only daily output and lower vertical resolution than the
 161 reanalysis used in Hunt et al. (2019c), we have made three small adjustments to
 162 the algorithm sensitivity. Firstly, we use 500-200 hPa relative vorticity; secondly,
 163 we impose a minimum track duration of three days; thirdly we impose a maximum
 164 propagation speed of 2500 km day^{-1} .

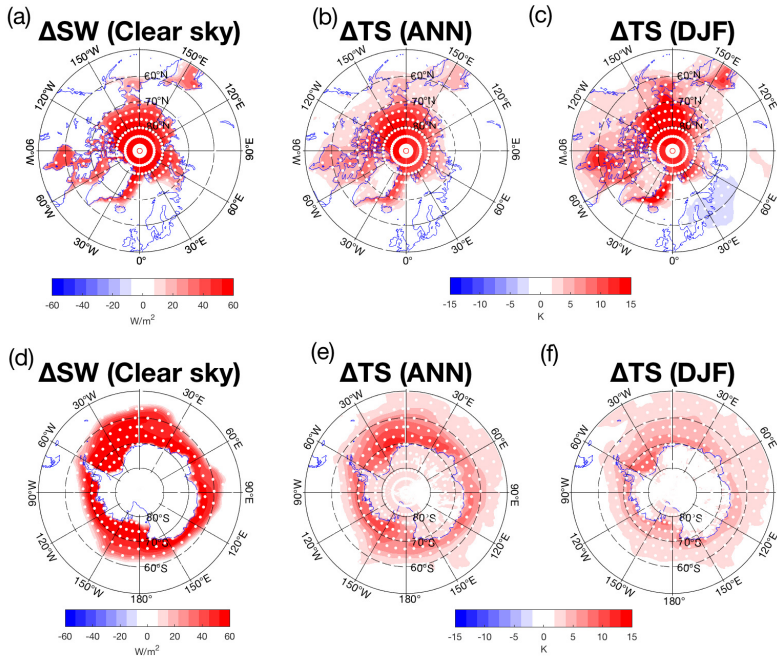


Fig. 1 The difference between SIME and CTRL over the Arctic in (a) the annual mean climatology of clear sky net solar flux at surface, (b) the annual mean climatology of surface temperature, and (c) the DJF mean climatology of surface temperature. (d) - (f) Same as (a) - (c), except for the Antarctic. The climatology is constructed using the last 10 years of CTRL and SIME runs.

165 3 Results and discussion

166 The imposed reduction of snow and ice albedo in the model should result in an
 167 enhanced absorption of the shortwave radiation at the surface. The annual mean
 168 difference in the clear sky shortwave radiation between the SIME and CTRL ex-
 169 periments shows an additional shortwave radiation of about $60 W m^{-2}$ over the
 170 northern hemispheric sea ice regions (Fig. 1a). This additional shortwave radiation
 171 at surface in the SIME simulation resulted in an annual mean surface warming of
 172 about 15 K compared to the CTRL experiment (Fig. 1b). The December–January
 173 (DJF) mean surface temperature difference between the SIME and CTRL shows
 174 a stronger warming of about 20 K (Fig. 1c). The highest warming occurred over
 175 the Arctic circle and the pattern weakened towards the equator. This suggests a
 176 weakening of the lower-tropospheric equator to pole temperature gradient. In the
 177 southern hemisphere, the magnitude of additional surface shortwave radiation in
 178 the SIME simulation is similar to that of northern hemisphere (Fig. 1d). How-
 179 ever, both the annual and DJF mean surface warming are weaker compared to the
 180 corresponding patterns over the northern hemisphere (Figs. 1e, f).

181 The ensemble mean DJF track density of WDs in the CTRL-CAM5 shows a
 182 peak over the northwestern India and Pakistan (Fig. 2a). The spatial distribution

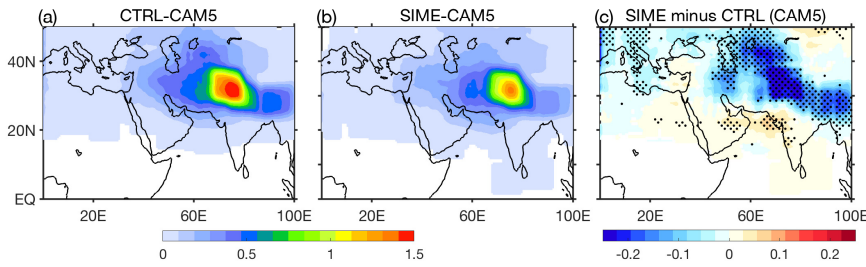


Fig. 2 DJF mean, ensemble mean WD track density (unit: number of LPS per grid per season) for (a) CTRL-CAM5 and (b) SIME-CAM5 simulations, and (c) ensemble mean SIME-CAM5 minus CTRL-CAM5 track density. Stippling in (c) denote the statistically significant (at 95% confidence level) difference between SIME-CAM5 and CTRL-CAM5 track density, as revealed by a bootstrapping method

183 of WD activity in CTRL-CAM5 simulations is consistent with that seen in the
 184 observations and CMIP5 historical simulations (Hunt et al., 2018b, 2019c). The
 185 pattern of WD track density in the SIME-CAM5 ensemble also has a similar
 186 spatial structure, but with a clear and statistically significant weakening of the
 187 magnitude (Fig. 2b). In fact, the ensemble mean difference between SIME-CAM5
 188 and CTRL-CAM5 shows about 19% weakening in WD track density over the core
 189 region of WD activity, in response to the polar sea ice melting. The weakening
 190 of WDs in SIME-CAM5 simulations is similar to that seen in the simulations
 191 under strong warming scenario (Hunt et al., 2019a). This suggests that, in climate
 192 model simulations, the response of WDs to the polar sea ice melting is similar to
 193 its changes due to external radiative forcing. This is in line with the similarities
 194 in the larger climate system responses to the imposed sea ice melt and greenhouse
 195 gas induced warming (England et al., 2020).

196 It is also necessary to examine if the intensity of WDs also undergo a change
 197 as in the case of their frequency, since precipitation scales with WD intensity
 198 and hazardous precipitation is associated with the strongest WDs (Hunt et al.,
 199 2018b,c). Here, we follow convention and use mid-tropospheric (500 hPa) absolute
 200 vorticity as an indicator of WD strength. The storm-centered composite of ensem-
 201 ble mean absolute vorticity for the WDs simulated by CTRL-CAM5 simulations
 202 show a well defined pattern with maximum values lying close to the center of the
 203 storms (Fig. 3a). The same calculations for the WDs in SIME-CAM5 simulations
 204 also show a coherent spatial structure of mid-tropospheric vorticity associated
 205 with the WDs, but with substantial weakening in the values (Fig. 3b). The differ-
 206 ence plot between SIME-CAM5 and CTRL-CAM5 shows that the mean absolute
 207 vorticity associated with the WDs weakened substantially and significantly in re-
 208 sponse to the polar sea ice melt (Fig. 3c). The time average field does not reveal
 209 any shifts in the WD intensity towards stronger or weaker vorticity during the
 210 lifecycle of the storm. For example, a higher number of weaker storm days at the
 211 expense of stronger ones, cannot be revealed by the vorticity averaged over the
 212 lifecycle of WDs. To examine the possibility of any such shifts in the frequency of
 213 storm days towards the weaker or stronger side, we constructed the distribution
 214 of the number of WD days as a function of daily maximum relative vorticity (Fig.
 215 3d). This analysis reveals that the weakening of WDs happen across all intensity

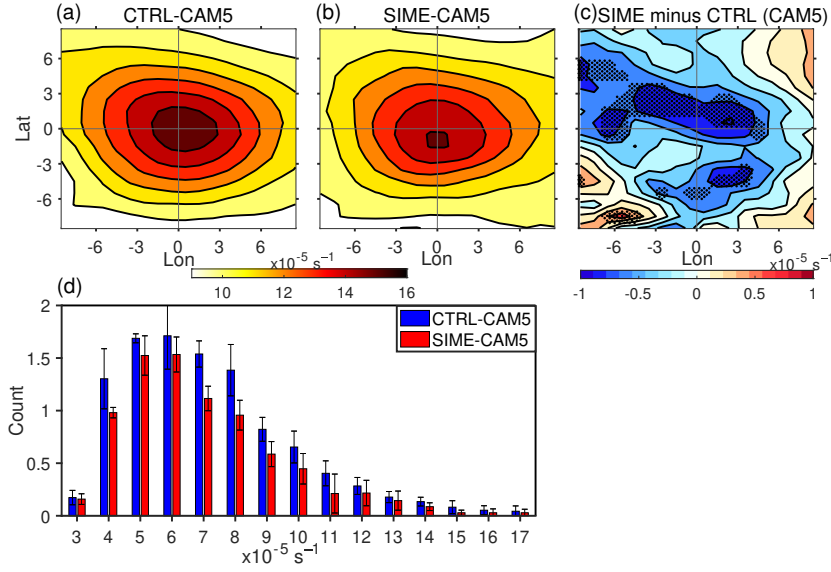


Fig. 3 DJF mean, ensemble mean of system-centered composite structure of 500-hPa absolute vortices for (a) CTRL-CAM5 and (b) SIME-CAM5 simulations, and (c) ensemble mean SIME-CAM5 minus CTRL-CAM5 absolute vortices; (d) distribution of daily maximum relative vorticity during WD life cycle, from CTRL-CAM5 and SIME-CAM5 simulations. Stippling in (c) denote the statistically significant (at 95% confidence level) difference between SIME-CAM5 and CTRL-CAM5 absolute vortices, as revealed by a bootstrapping method. The error bars in (d) show ensemble spread ($\pm 1\sigma$) of CTRL-CAM5 and SIME-CAM5 runs.

bands, and there is no shift towards high or low intensity storm days, in a polar sea ice melt scenario. Thus, both frequency and intensity of WDs decrease in SIME-CAM5 simulations, indicating that the climate system response to the polar sea ice melt might have affected the large-scale processes that control the WD genesis and development. The decline in the intensity of the WDs in SIME-CAM5 ensemble is consistent with the weakening of the WD intensity reported by Hunt et al. (2019a) in their analysis of WD activity by the end of the 21st century under future warming projections.

The baroclinic instability associated with the subtropical jetstream (STJ) creates a favourable condition for the genesis and development of WDs (Dimri, 2013; Hunt et al., 2018b; Hunt and Zaz, 2022). The interannual variability in WD activity and winter precipitation over the western Himalayan and Hindu Kush region have been linked to the variability in the STJ (Yadav et al., 2009; Filippi et al., 2014; Hunt and Zaz, 2022). Therefore, the response of STJ to the polar sea ice melt needs to be carefully examined. Hunt et al. (2018b) identified that both the latitudinal location and intensity of the jet control the WD activity. We compare the distributions of WD counts and the frequency of persistence of STJ as a function of latitude in the CAM5 simulations (Fig. 4a, b). We define the STJ core as the maximum of monthly mean zonal mean (60°E – 85°E) zonal winds at 200 hPa during December, January, and February. A comparison between the two shows that WD latitudes have a similar distribution to that of the background STJ. WDs exhibit slightly greater variance here because the distributions comprise individual WDs

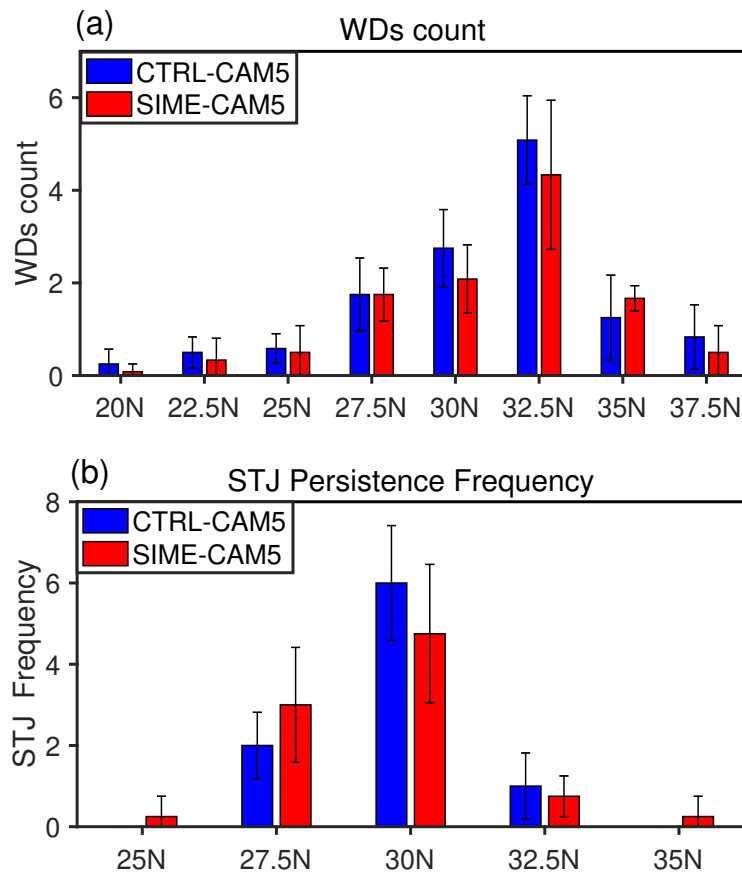


Fig. 4 Latitudinal distribution of (a) DJF mean WD counts in CTRL-CAM5 and SIME-CAM5 simulations, and (b) The monthly frequency of latitudinal persistence of the subtropical jet for the months of December, January, and February in CTRL-CAM5 and SIME-CAM5 simulations; The latitudinal location of subtropical jet is defined as the latitude of the maximum zonal mean (60°E – 85°E) zonal velocity at 200 hPa. The error bars show ensemble spread (± 1 *std*) of CTRL-CAM5 and SIME-CAM5 runs.

238 but monthly means for the STJ location. The location of the STJ is more variable
 239 and equatorward in SIME-CAM5, being found relatively much more often south of
 240 25°N and slightly more relatively often north of 35°N than in CTRL-CAM5. These
 241 regions are unproductive for WD development (Hunt et al., 2018b), contributing
 242 to the lower WD frequency seen in SIME-CAM5. Even so, the equatorward spread
 243 of the WD distribution in SIME-CAM5 may have consequences for the hydrolog-
 244 ical cycle since such WDs are much closer to a moisture source (the Arabian Sea)
 245 and thus tend to precipitate considerably more (Baudouin et al., 2021).

246 Recent observational analyses suggest that in recent decades, the lower tropo-
 247 sphere over the Arctic has been undergoing an accelerated warming while the

248 upper troposphere and lower stratosphere over the region experiencing a cooling
 249 (Serreze and Francis, 2006). This has resulted in a weakening (strengthening) of
 250 the equator to pole temperature gradient at lower (upper) tropospheric levels over
 251 the northern hemisphere which in turn resulted in an enhanced vertical shear in
 252 the extratropical jetstream (Lee et al., 2019). The induced sea ice melt in climate
 253 models elicit a similar response in the meridional temperature gradient (Fig. 5).
 254 The lower tropospheric DJF mean temperature difference between SIME-CAM5
 255 and CTRL-CAM5 ensembles show a substantial warming poleward of 60°N, in
 256 response to the sea ice melt. The pattern of warming in sea ice melt experiments
 257 resemble the Arctic amplification (Serreze and Francis, 2006). Equatorward of
 258 60°N, the lower troposphere shows patches of slight cooling over the land region
 259 and a weak warming over the oceans, in the SIME-CAM5 runs. Taken together,
 260 the stronger warming in the high latitudes and weaker change in the tropics re-
 261 sult in an overall weakening of the meridional temperature gradient in the lower
 262 troposphere in response to sea ice melt (Fig. 5a). The difference in the DJF mean
 263 temperature at 250 hPa between the SIME-CAM5 and CTRL-CAM5 ensembles
 264 show a slight cooling over the Arctic region and a strong warming over the sub-
 265 tropics and tropics in response to the sea ice melt, resulting in a strengthening
 266 of the upper-tropospheric meridional temperature gradient (Fig. 5b). Also of note
 267 is the cooler lower troposphere over Pakistan and North India in SIME-CAM5
 268 compared to CTRL-CAM5. This is very unlikely to be related to the reduced WD
 269 activity in SIME-CAM5, since WDs are known to reduce near-surface tempera-
 270 ture in this region through enhanced cloud cover, snowfall, and by advection of
 271 cool air from higher latitudes (Hunt et al., 2018b; Singh et al., 2019; Sandeep
 272 and Prasad, 2020). Instead, this may be related to a continued strengthening of
 273 the Karakoram anomaly (Farinotti et al., 2020) or increased cloudburst activity
 274 (Kumar et al., 2018).

275 To explore how these changes might modulate the subtropical jet, we now
 276 consider the vertical structure of the meridional temperature gradient. We start
 277 by defining the equator-to-pole temperature gradient computed as the difference
 278 in the area averaged temperature between two boxes (50°—70°N, 60°—85°E and
 279 20°—36.5°N, 60°—85°E). The DJF mean equator-to-pole temperature gradient
 280 at each pressure level in the CTRL-CAM5 simulations show stronger positive
 281 values at lower level, with a maximum of about 43 K at 1000 hPa (Fig. 6a). The
 282 difference between SIME-CAM5 and CTRL-CAM5 ensembles reveal a weakening
 283 of the meridional temperature gradient in the lower to mid-tropospheric levels
 284 in the range of -0.5 to -3 K (Fig. 6b). In the upper tropospheric levels, above
 285 about 350 hPa, a strengthening of the meridional temperature gradient, with mean
 286 values in the range of 0.5 to 3.5 K, can be seen. Lee et al. (2019) attributed a
 287 similar pattern of changes observed in the meridional temperature gradient to the
 288 Arctic amplification. This contrasting meridional temperature gradients at lower
 289 and upper tropospheric levels can result in contrasting thermal wind responses at
 290 these levels as suggested by the thermal wind equation:

$$-\frac{\partial u}{\partial p} = -\frac{R}{f p} \frac{\partial T}{\partial y}. \quad (1)$$

291 Fig. 7a shows the difference in the vertical shear of DJF zonal wind be-
 292 tween SIME-CAM5 and CTRL-CAM5. The shear in SIME-CAM5 is significantly
 293 stronger over the Middle East and northwestern India. The vertical shear of the

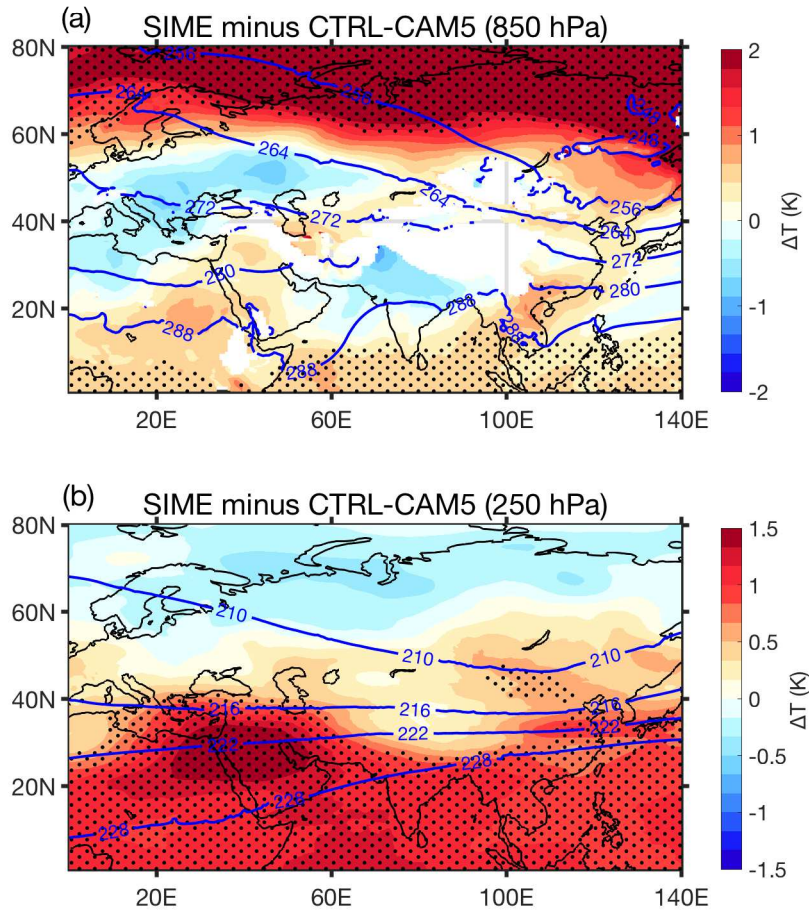


Fig. 5 DJF mean, ensemble mean temperature difference between SIME-CAM5 and CTRL-CAM5 for (a) 850hPa and (b) 250 hPa. The contours show the CTRL-CAM5 DJF mean temperature at 850hPa and 250 hPa in (a) and (b). Stippling denotes the statistically significant (at 95% confidence level) difference between SIME-CAM5 and CTRL-CAM5, as revealed by a bootstrapping method. Regions in (a) where the climatological 850 hPa level is below the surface are masked.

294 zonal winds computed from the thermal wind balance shows a close match with
 295 that computed directly from the zonal winds (Fig. 7b). This indicates that almost
 296 all of the change in the vertical wind shear is caused by the changes in the merid-
 297 ional temperature gradient in the SIME-CAM5 simulations. To show how this
 298 imprints on the structure of the jet, we plot a vertical cross-section of DJF zonal
 299 wind in Fig. 8, averaged over 60°E-85°E. The two cross-sections show the CTRL-
 300 CAM5 ensemble mean (Fig. 8a) and the difference between the SIME-CAM5 and
 301 CTRL-CAM5 ensemble means (Fig. 8b). The core of the jet in CAM5-CTRL can
 302 be found at about 30°N, consistent with the analysis in Fig. 4a. Although the

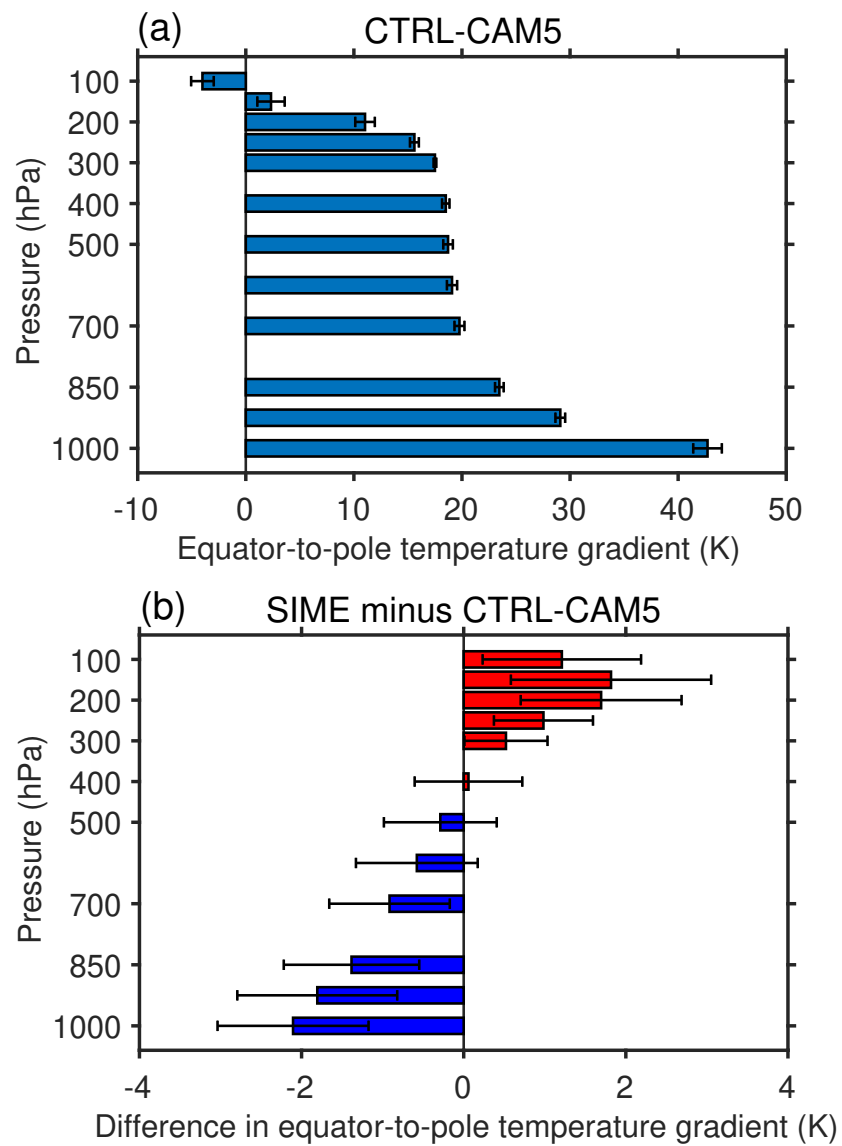


Fig. 6 DJF mean, ensemble mean of meridional temperature gradient for (a) CTRL-CAM5 and (b) ensemble mean SIME-CAM5 minus CTRL-CAM5 meridional temperature gradient

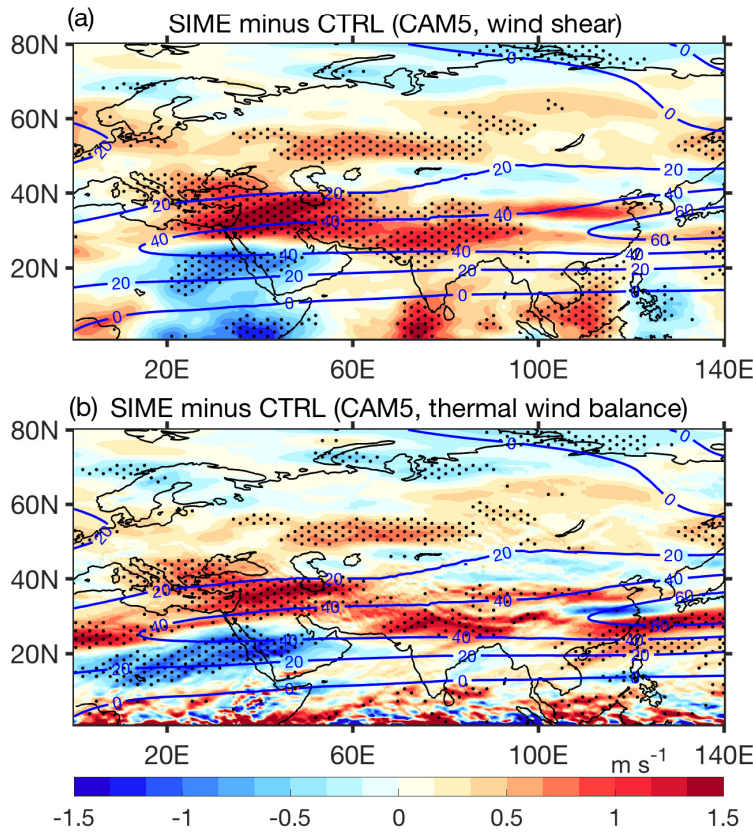


Fig. 7 DJF mean, ensemble mean difference between SIME-CAM5 and CTRL-CAM5 of vertical shear in zonal wind ($U_{250} - U_{850}$), (a) based on actual vertical wind shear calculated from the zonal wind field and (b) the expected vertical wind shear calculated from the temperature field using thermal wind balance. Stippling in (a) and (b) denotes the statistically significant change (at 95% confidence level), as revealed by a bootstrapping method. Blue contours show the ensemble mean, DJF mean zonal wind at 250 hPa, from CTRL-CAM5.

303 structure of the subtropical jet in SIME-CAM5 is similar to that in CTRL-CAM5
 304 (Fig. 8b), two significant differences emerge – both driven by the stronger merid-
 305 ional temperature gradient in the upper troposphere. Firstly, the difference pattern
 306 shows a significant weakening of the zonal winds poleward of 40°N throughout the
 307 tropospheric column. This implies fewer poleward excursions of the subtropical
 308 jet during the winter months as it is more firmly locked in place by thermal wind
 309 balance (Fig. 7, see also Schiemann et al., 2009). Secondly, there is a significant
 310 widening of the jet – evidenced by stronger westerlies on both its northern (40°N)
 311 and southern (15°N) flanks. This persists from the upper-troposphere (200 hPa)
 312 into the mid-troposphere (500 hPa), and thus affects WDs, whose vorticity max-
 313 ima are typically found at around 350 hPa (Hunt et al., 2018b). This widening of
 314 the jet makes it more baroclinically stable, and therefore, as we saw in Figs. 2 and
 315 3, it produces less frequent and less intense WDs. This relationship is supported

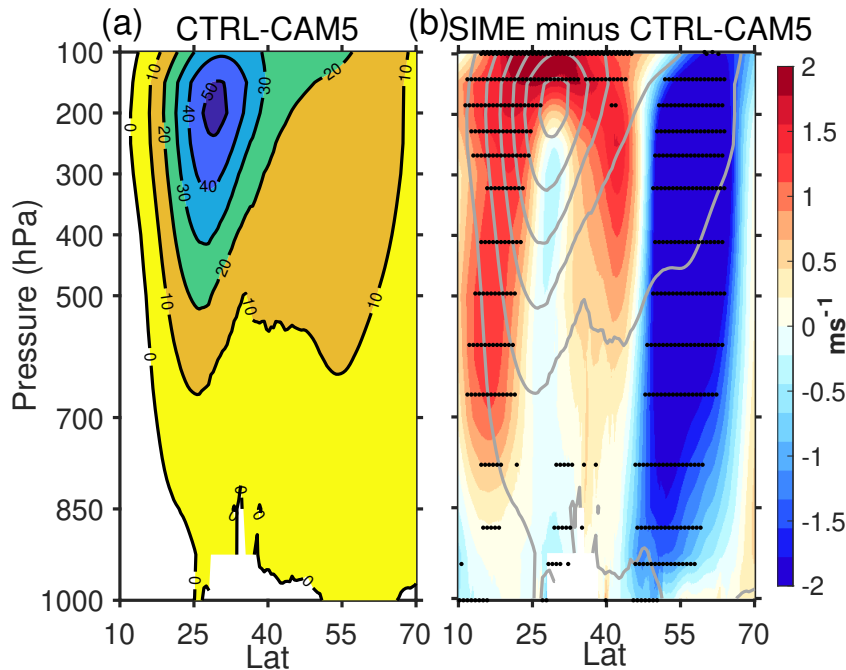


Fig. 8 DJF mean, ensemble mean zonal wind for (a) CTRL-CAM5 and (b) ensemble mean difference between SIME-CAM5 and CTRL-CAM5. Stippling in (b) denotes the statistically significant change (at 95% confidence level), as revealed by a bootstrapping method. The contours in (b) show the ensemble mean, DJF mean zonal wind from SIME-CAM5. The cross-section is taken as a zonal average between 60°E and 85°E.

316 by previous observational studies (Hunt et al., 2018a). Furthermore, the strengthening of each flank of the jet seen in the SIME-CAM5 experiment is asymmetric, with a stronger and more significant increase in zonal winds along the southern flank. This indicates an equatorward shift in the jet in the CAM5-SIME runs, again consistent with the analysis shown in Fig. 4a. Previous observational and modeling studies have also shown that sea ice loss could lead to a weakening, widening, and equatorward shift of the jet (Screen et al., 2013; Peings and Magnusdottir, 2014; England et al., 2018; Screen and Blackport, 2019). The changes in the STJ seen in the SIME-CAM5 ensemble are therefore in line with previous research.

325 4 Conclusions

326 Although the effect of the Arctic sea ice melt on high and mid-latitude climate was known, the response of low latitude climate has largely been overlooked. Recent investigations, however, suggest that the climate system response to the polar sea ice melt can be detected even in the deep tropics (e.g. Kennel and Yulaeva, 2020). An increasing body of evidence indicates that the large-scale circulation adjustment to the polar sea ice melt includes a weakening, widening, and equatorward shift in mid- and low-latitude jets. This, in turn, raises questions on how the transient weather systems associated with the baroclinicity of these jets might

334 be affected by sea ice melt. However, it is challenging to understand the influence
335 of sea ice melt on such transient weather systems as the coarse resolution of cli-
336 mate models may not resolve important underlying processes. Using a framework
337 of coarse-resolution coupled and high-resolution uncoupled climate model simula-
338 tions, we examined the response of transient weather systems, known as western
339 disturbances (WDs), which bring substantial winter precipitation to northern In-
340 dia and Pakistan. Our results show that WDs would weaken in both frequency
341 and intensity in response to the polar sea ice melt. We show that this arises as a
342 result of both the widening and an equatorward shift in the subtropical jet, which
343 occurs in response to changes in upper-level meridional temperature gradients.
344 As WDs are important for water security over the western Himalayas and Hindu
345 Kush mountain regions, these results point to serious societal impacts of sea ice
346 melt over places very distant from the high latitudes. The patterns of changes in
347 the jet and the WDs resemble those driven by the greenhouse gas induced warm-
348 ing, suggesting that the feedback of sea ice melt can reinforce the effects of global
349 warming. We argue that further research is needed in understanding the fine scale
350 patterns of low latitude climate response to sea ice melt. A longer (100 y) simula-
351 tion of coupled model with high-resolution (50 km or less) atmospheric component
352 would be a better framework to study the response of transients to polar sea ice
353 melt, although it would require more computing resources.

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