

Terrestrial stilling will continue during the 21st century

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1 Terrestrial stilling will continue during the 21st century

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21
22 **Abstract:** The near-surface wind speed over land has declined in recent decades, a trend
23 known as terrestrial stilling (TS)¹⁻². However, recent studies have indicated a reversal of
24 the TS in the Northern Hemisphere (NH) during the last decade³⁻⁶, triggering renovated
25 interest in the wind speed changes. Here we show that the TS in the NH mid-latitudes will
26 continue in all seasons throughout the 21st century, especially in summer. The recent
27 reversal of TS is most likely a multi-decadal fluctuation related to the Pacific and Atlantic
28 climate variations, rather than a secular trend. A new paradigm of the future TS is further
29 proposed, which is related to an intensified subsidence inversion over the mid-latitudes,

30 caused by enhanced tropical and subtropical convections. This study reveals the important
31 role of global warming in reducing the near-surface wind speed on long time scales. The
32 continuing TS means a long-term strategy for wind energy production needs to be
33 developed, particularly for the NH mid-latitude countries.

34

35 **Main**

36 Both observations and model simulations show that the global near-surface (10-m)
37 wind speed (NWS) over land has declined in the recent decades⁷⁻⁹. This phenomenon is
38 termed terrestrial stilling (TS), and has been widely reported across the world, including in
39 Australia¹⁰⁻¹¹, Europe¹²⁻¹³, East Asia¹⁴⁻¹⁵, and North America¹⁶⁻¹⁷. TS can cause great
40 socio-economic and environmental impacts. For example, the slowdown of NWS may
41 reduce surface evaporation and thus affect the hydrological cycle^{8,18}. The stilling air also
42 hinders air pollution dispersion, promoting the accumulation of harmful pollutants near
43 emission sources¹⁹⁻²⁰. Moreover, as wind power is one of the fastest-growing renewable
44 energy sources and provides an increasing share of electricity²¹⁻²², declining wind speed is
45 likely to exert major impacts on the energy industry. Therefore, it is important to improve
46 our understanding of the past and future NWS changes.

47 After the TS was recognized⁷⁻⁹, new findings with regard to the changes in NWS
48 emerged, raising a few key questions that remain to be answered. For example, an
49 increasing number of studies have indicated that the declined NWS has started to recover
50 since the 2000s in Saudi Arabia³, South Korea⁴, China⁶, and many other regions in the
51 Northern Hemisphere (NH)⁵. However, it is unclear whether the recent TS reversal is
52 merely a multi-decadal fluctuation or a secular trend that will continue in the future. The
53 other issue is associated with the inconsistent changes between the surface and upper-level
54 winds. Contrary to the NWS, the wind speed in the upper troposphere (e.g., at 200 hPa)
55 has strengthened over recent decades²³. Previous studies have mainly attributed the
56 surface TS to increased surface roughness (e.g., Earth's greening and urbanization)²³⁻²⁵
57 and uneven regional warming²⁶⁻²⁸. Nevertheless, if the surface roughness has dominated
58 the NWS changes, the strongest decreasing trend in wind speed would be expected to
59 appear at the surface level. However, the wind speed in the lower troposphere (below

60 500hPa) has declined more rapidly at higher altitudes than at the surface^{11,29}. Moreover, if
61 the uneven warming had caused the wind speed changes in the past decades, then
62 according to the thermal wind equation, the corresponding reduction in the NH
63 equator-to-pole temperature gradient should have led to weakened westerly jets in the
64 upper troposphere; however, this contradicts observed strengthening of upper-tropospheric
65 winds²³. In summary, the existing theories are not sufficient to explain the changes in the
66 upper- and lower-troposphere winds.

67 In this study, we proposed a new mechanism which is able to explain not only the
68 continuing surface TS but also the changes in the upper winds, based on in-situ
69 observations from the Global Surface Summary of the Day database³⁰ and simulations
70 from the Coupled Model Inter-comparison Project - Phase 6 (CMIP6) models³¹. The
71 CMIP6 models used in this study are listed in [Table S1](#). They include 20 climate models
72 that produced historical simulations for the period 1850–2014, and were extended by four
73 different Shared Socioeconomic Pathway (SSP) scenarios (i.e. SSP126, SSP245, SSP370,
74 and SSP585) for the period 2015–2099. Detailed information on the observed and
75 simulated datasets is presented in [Supplementary Information](#).

76

77 **Annual NWS changes during the 21st century**

78 [Figures 1a](#) and [1b](#) show the observed and simulated spatial distribution of the
79 climatology (1981–2010) of annual NWS. The CMIP6 multiple-model mean has fairly
80 reproduced the distributions and magnitudes of the observed NWS, with a correlation
81 coefficient of +0.85 between the two spatial patterns. When comparing NWS between
82 2070–2099 and 1981–2010 in [Figs. 1c-f](#), the NWS in mid-to-high latitudes is found to
83 weaken by the end of the 21st century under all scenarios. In contrast, the NWS in the
84 subtropical regions will intensify in future warming climate. More specifically, as seen
85 from [Fig. 1g](#), decreases in NWS are mainly found at latitudes 20°N–70°N, while the
86 increases occur in latitudes 0°–20°N. In general, both the mid-latitude and subtropical
87 NWS changes are larger under higher SSP scenarios, indicating that enhanced future
88 global warming will likely force stronger trends in the NWS.

89 The time series of annual NWS averaged over the mid-latitude land surface (20°N–

90 70°N/0°–358°E) for 1979–2099 are shown in Fig. 1h. The NWS in the NH mid-latitudes
91 will experience declining trends under all SSP scenarios. In particular, the decreases in
92 NWS become the greatest under the SSP585 scenario forcing. Opposite to the decrease in
93 mid-latitude NWS, the NWS over the subtropical region was projected to strengthen
94 continuously to 2099, with the largest increasing trends in the SSP585 scenario level (Fig.
95 S1). While the CMIP6 models have accurately simulated the TS in the NH mid-latitudes
96 during 1979–2010, we note that they have underestimated the recent reversal of the TS
97 since around 2010.

98 Previous studies have suggested that the dominant modes in the Pacific and Atlantic
99 oceans could explain the TS reversal^{3,5}. To better understand why the models have
100 underestimated the observed TS reversal, we divide the 20 models into two groups and
101 examine their performances in simulating the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) and the
102 Atlantic Multi-decadal Oscillation (AMO). As seen from Fig. S2, the first group includes
103 9 models that have generally reproduced increasing trends in NWS over 2010–2030, i.e.
104 the TS reversal; the other group comprises the 11 models that simulated persistently
105 decreasing trends during 2010–2030, implying that they cannot capture the recent reversal
106 phenomenon. As seen from the subplot in Fig. S2a, those models that could simulate the
107 TS reversal also projected decreasing trends in mid-latitude NWS over the long term
108 (2010–2099). By comparison, the models without TS reversal simulated more robust
109 decreasing trends of NWS during the 21st century (see subplot in Fig. S2b).

110 We propose that the models' abilities in simulating the PDO and AMO could affect
111 their simulations of the TS reversal. As shown in Fig. S3a, the observed PDO experienced
112 positive-to-negative (negative-to-positive) phase changes during 1979–2010 (2010–the
113 present). The models with TS reversal accurately simulated the phase changes in PDO
114 during 1979–2020 and projected a shift to positive PDO phases during 2020–2030.
115 Moreover, the models with TS reversal produced a stronger spatial variability in the PDO
116 than the models without TS reversal (Fig. S3b). In addition to the PDO, the observed
117 AMO underwent negative-to-positive (positive-to-negative) phase changes during 1979–
118 2010 (2010–the present) (Fig. S4). The models with TS reversal fairly simulated the
119 decreasing trend in the AMO since the 2010s, which were not reproduced by the models

120 without TS reversal. The results suggest that the recent recovery of TS is more likely a
121 multi-decadal fluctuation related to the phase changes in PDO and AMO, rather than a
122 secular trend in the future.

123

124 **Seasonal NWS changes and associated atmospheric circulation**

125 Further analysis reveals that the TS phenomenon appears in all seasons (Fig. 2), but
126 with seasonal differences in its magnitude. For example, the largest decreasing trends of
127 mid-latitude NWS over 2015–2099 appear in boreal summer (Fig. 2b), with the higher
128 SSP scenario levels inducing a stronger slowdown. In contrast, trends during boreal winter
129 are much smaller (Fig. 2d). Along with the slowdown in the mid-latitudes, the subtropical
130 NWS strengthens in most seasons except for the boreal winter (see subplots in Fig. 2).
131 Consistent with the mid-latitude winds, the subtropical winds also show the largest trends
132 in summer, suggesting a possible connection in atmospheric circulations between mid-
133 and lower-latitude regions. In addition, the long-term changes in NWS (both mid-latitudes
134 and subtropics) are closely linked to global warming (Fig. S5): the stronger the
135 greenhouse warming, the larger the NWS trend. The changes in NWS show an almost
136 linear relationship with the global warming intensity especially in summer, suggesting that
137 the persisting global warming could play a crucial role in the future TS.

138 Figure 3 illustrates the future changes in NWS, precipitation, and vertical winds in
139 different seasons between 2070–2099 and 1981–2010. During boreal summer, regions
140 with weakening NWS occur widely across mid-to-high latitudes (Fig. 3d). During winter,
141 however, decreases in NWS are mostly confined south of 40°N (Fig. 3j). Meanwhile, the
142 subtropical NWS intensifies. In particular, during boreal summer, the NWS over South
143 Asia, East Asia, and West Africa will strengthen remarkably. Notice that these areas are
144 the regions affected by the NH summer monsoon: this indicates that the changes in the
145 NH summer monsoon may affect the NWS in the subtropics and the mid-latitudes.

146 When looking at changes in precipitation (see the middle panels in Fig. 3), we
147 observe two main spatial features. First one is the increased precipitation over the
148 inter-tropical convergence zone (ITCZ), which is especially prominent in the tropical
149 Pacific. The other appears in the NH subtropical regions, where the monsoon precipitation

150 is projected to increase considerably in the future. The increase in ITCZ precipitation is
151 projected in all seasons, while the increase in monsoon precipitation mainly occurs during
152 boreal summer. Therefore, during summer, the enhancements of ITCZ and monsoon
153 convection may jointly affect the NWS in the NH mid-latitudes. However, during winter,
154 the ITCZ and monsoon convection are mainly located in the Southern Hemisphere, and
155 would thus affect the NH high-latitude NWS less than they do during the summer. The
156 enhancement of future precipitation would trigger anomalously ascending and descending
157 motions in the troposphere (see the right panels in [Fig. 3](#)). In particular, there are two
158 centers of ascending motion: one over the tropical regions, related to the deep ITCZ
159 convection, and the other located over the subtropics, associated with the relatively
160 shallow monsoon convection. The intensified tropical and subtropical rising motions force
161 sinking air over the mid-latitudes.

162

163 **A new paradigm of the future TS**

164 The anomalous descending motions over the mid-latitudes, due to the enhanced
165 low-latitude convection, could result in an anomalous subsidence inversion in the
166 mid-latitude troposphere, through adiabatic heating. As shown in the left panels of [Fig. S6](#),
167 the mid-latitude air temperatures are projected to increase in the entire troposphere in the
168 future. However, the warming rates are not the same at different levels, which are greatest
169 around the 300-hPa level. The vertical distribution of future air temperature increase
170 reveals the development of a subsidence inversion in the lower troposphere and a
171 strengthened lapse rate above the 300-hPa level. The subsidence inversion during summer
172 is obviously stronger than that during winter, probably due to the enhanced summer
173 monsoon convection.

174 Under the control of the subsidence inversion, the lower-tropospheric atmosphere
175 becomes more stable, which may suppress surface convergence and reduce the frequency
176 of strong winds, in favor of the persisting TS. Nevertheless, in the upper troposphere, the
177 larger lapse rate would increase the instability in the atmosphere, which strengthens upper
178 tropospheric winds. Indeed, further examination reveals that the zonal wind speed below
179 the 300-hPa level would become weakened in the future, especially during summer

180 (middle panels of Fig. S6). By comparison, the zonal wind speed above 300 hPa becomes
181 stronger. The vertical profile of the meridional wind speed change is similar to that of
182 zonal wind speed, with reduced (enhanced) meridional wind speed in the lower (upper)
183 troposphere (right panels of Fig. S6). Therefore, the subsidence inversion hypothesis could
184 not only explain the future TS, but also the inconsistent changes in the lower and
185 upper-tropospheric winds.

186 To summarize, the TS will continue during the 21st century in all four seasons across
187 the NH mid-latitudes under all SSP scenarios, with the strongest decrease during boreal
188 summer. The recent recovery of TS likely reflects a multi-decadal fluctuation related to
189 the phase changes in the PDO and the AMO, rather than a secular trend in the future.
190 Finally, to explain what drives the TS, we propose a new physical mechanism illustrated
191 in Fig. 4. In a future warmer climate, the tropical sea surface temperature would be higher,
192 which enhances the ITCZ convection and intensifies the Hadley cell. Meanwhile, during
193 summer, the NH monsoon rainfall would increase, which induces above-normal upward
194 motions and strengthened NWS in the subtropics. The intensified upward motions over
195 the tropical and subtropical regions force stronger sinking air over the mid-latitudes,
196 causing an anomalous subsidence inversion in the lower troposphere. As a result, the
197 atmosphere becomes more stable and the TS is reinforced.

198 The continuing TS has important implications for future wind energy development,
199 especially for the NH mid-latitude countries where a large number of wind generators
200 have been installed, such as those in Europe, East Asia, and North America. Moreover, air
201 pollution dispersion over these regions may become more challenging due to the stilling
202 air and the reduced occurrences of windy days. Therefore, a long-term strategy of wind
203 energy development and environmental protection should be considered to reduce the
204 potential economic losses and environmental impacts.

205

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214 **Author contributions:** K.D. and D.C. designed the research and conducted analyses. K.D.
215 wrote the majority of the manuscript content. C.A., S.Y., G.Z. and L.M. contributed to the
216 analysis and writing. All of the authors reviewed the manuscript.

217 **Competing interests:** Authors declare no competing interests.

218 **Data availability statement:** All datasets used in this study are freely accessible. The
219 wind observations are retrieved from the Global Surface Summary of the Day database
220 (<ftp://ftp.ncdc.noaa.gov/pub/data/g sod>; last accessed on 1 February 2021). The CMIP6
221 outputs are downloaded through the portal of the Lawrence Livermore National
222 Laboratory (<https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/>; last accessed 1 February 2021).

223 **Code availability statement:** All codes and climate indices are available upon request
224 from K.D.

225

226 **References**

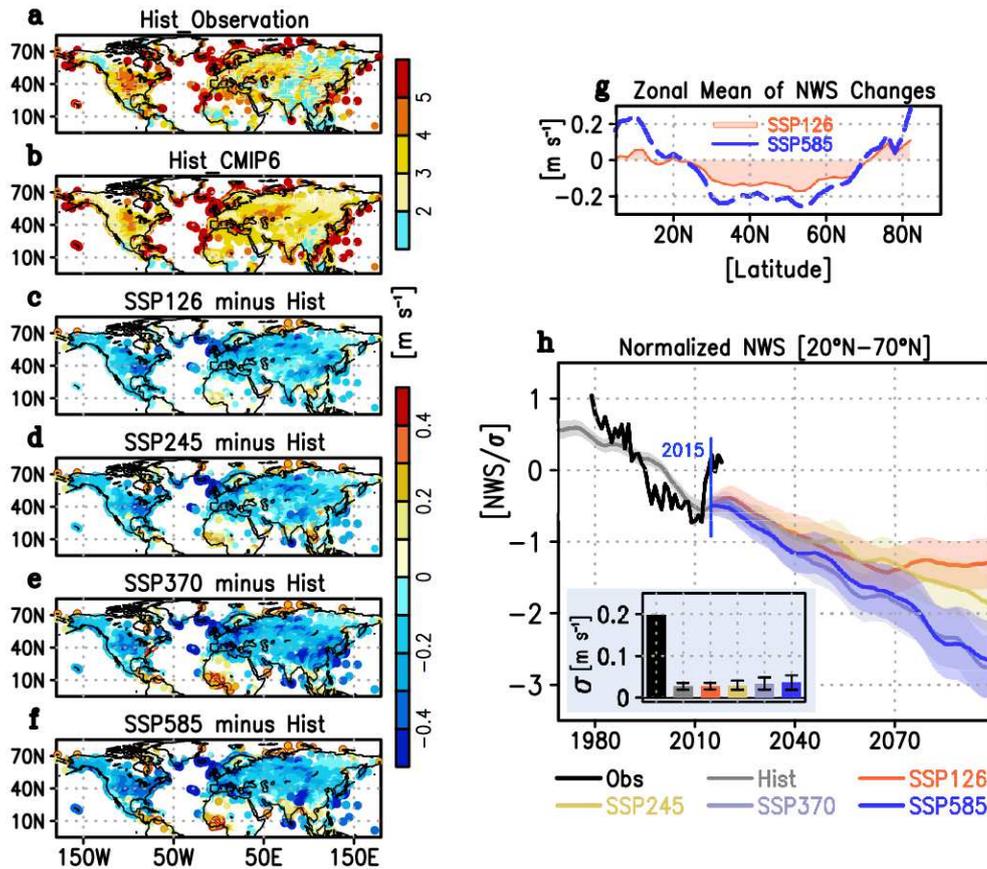
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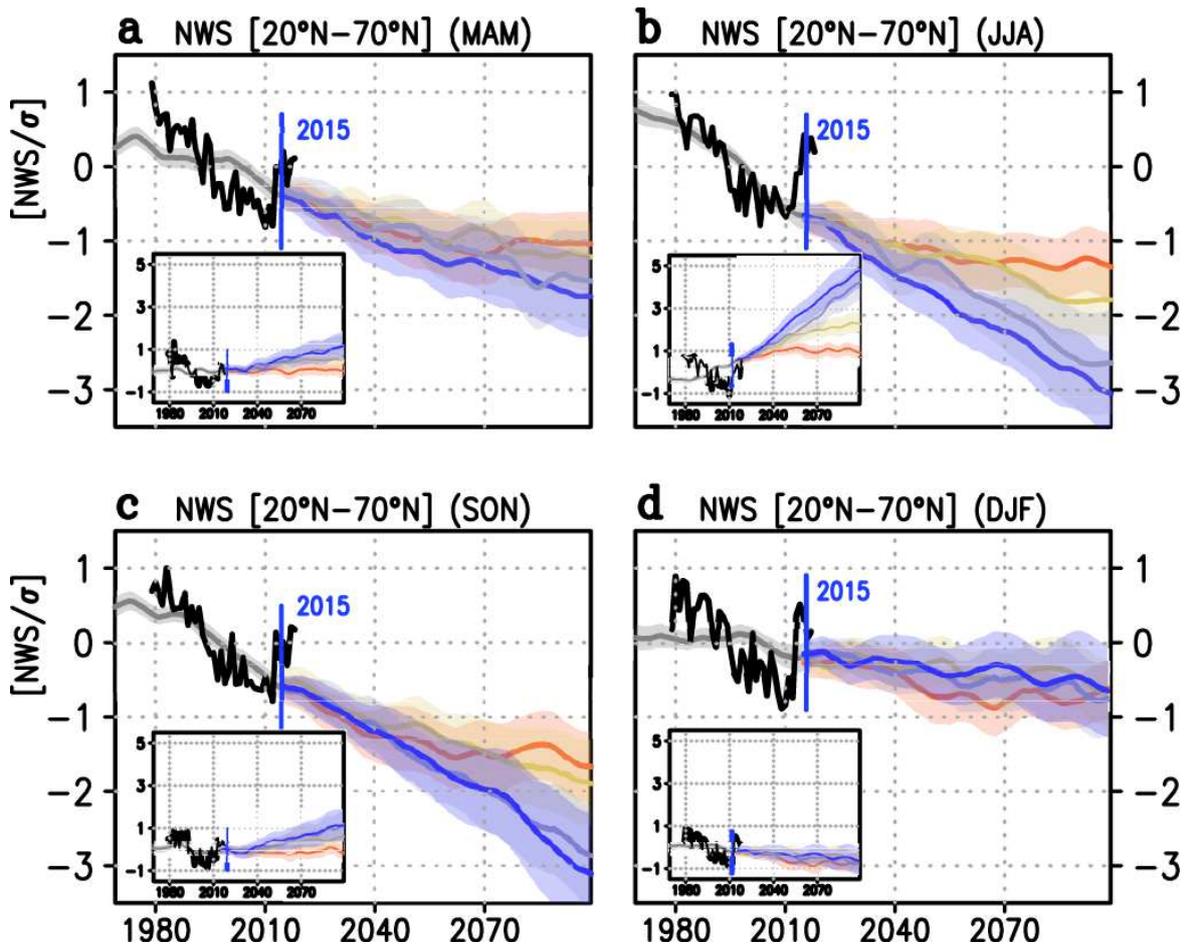
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296



297

298 **Fig. 1 Annual NWS changes in the 21st century.** a-b, Climatological patterns of NWS
 299 for 1981–2010 based on observations (a) and model simulations (b). c-f, Differences in
 300 simulated NWS between periods 2070–2099 and 1981–2010, driven by SSP126 (c),
 301 SSP245 (d), SSP370 (e), and SSP585 (f) scenarios during 2070–2099. g, Zonal mean of
 302 future NWS changes under SSP126 and SSP585 scenarios. The unit for NWS is m s^{-1} . h,
 303 Time series of NWS averaged over the NH mid-latitudes (20°N–70°N), driven by the
 304 historical all forcing during 1979–2014 and the four SSPs during 2015–2099. The NWS
 305 time series were normalized based on the mean and standardized deviation (σ) of the
 306 NWS over 1981–2010. In the subplot, the bars indicate the σ for observations (black) and
 307 historical simulations (grey) during 1981–2010 and for the future projections (colors)
 308 during 2015–2099. Shadings in (h) denote the inter-model spreads, defined as one
 309 standard deviation of the individual models' departures from the 20 model mean. All
 310 time series are 10-year running means. The vertical blue line indicates the year 2015.
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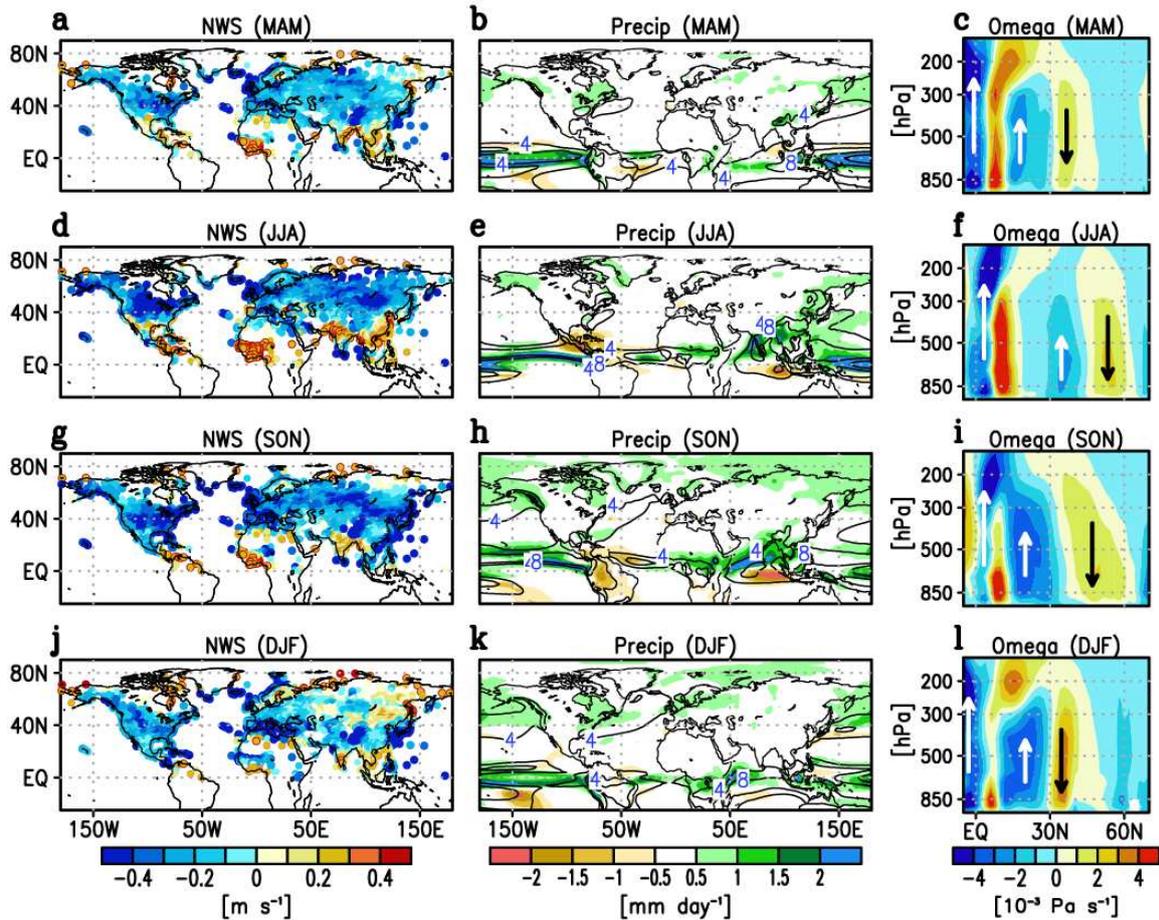


312

313 **Fig. 2 Seasonal NWS changes in mid-latitudes and subtropics. a-d,** Similar to **Fig. 1h,**
 314 but for the NWS averaged over the NH mid-latitudes (20°N–70°N) in boreal spring
 315 (MAM: March-April-May) **(a)**, summer (JJA: June-July-August) **(b)**, autumn (SON:
 316 September-October-November) **(c)**, and winter (DJF: December-January-February) **(d)**.
 317 The subplots within each panel are for the NWS averaged over the subtropics (0°–20°N).
 318 Shadings denote the inter-model spreads, defined as one standard deviation of the
 319 individual models' departures from the 20 model mean. All time series are 10-year
 320 running means. The vertical blue line indicates the year 2015.

321

322



323

324 **Fig. 3 Future changes in NWS, precipitation and vertical winds for the four seasons.**

325 **a-c**, Differences (shading) in simulated NWS (**a**), precipitation (**b**), and vertical winds (**c**)

326 between the periods 2070–2099 and 1981–2010 for the NH spring and under the SSP585

327 scenario. The units for NWS, precipitation, and vertical wind are m s^{-1} , mm day^{-1} , and

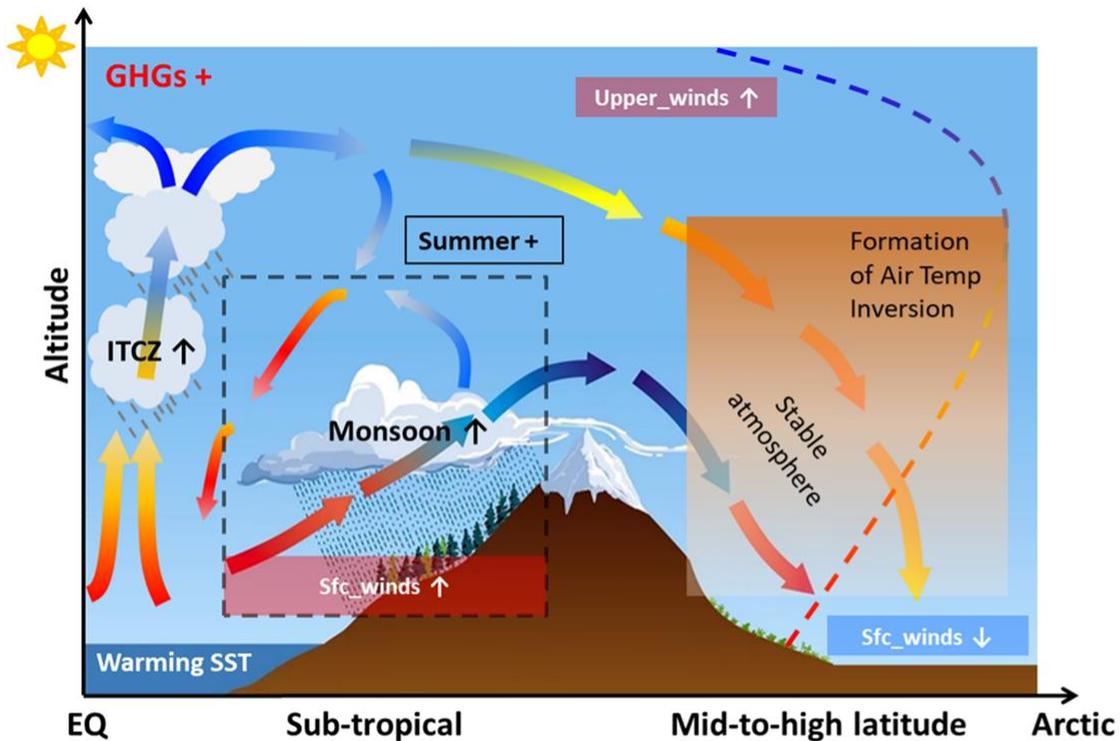
328 $10^{-3} \text{ Pascal s}^{-1}$, respectively. **d-f**, **g-i** and **j-l**, Similar to **a-c**, except for summer, autumn,

329 and winter, respectively. Contours in the precipitation panels (middle) denote the

330 climatology in 1981–2010. Vectors in the omega panels (right) indicate the upward

331 (white) or downward (black) air motions.

332



333

334 **Fig. 4 Schematic diagram illustrating the physical mechanisms for the TS.** Vectors
 335 indicate changes in the atmospheric circulation. Intensified upward motions over the
 336 tropical and subtropical regions, due respectively to the enhanced ITCZ and monsoon
 337 convections, would enhance sinking motions over the NH mid-latitudes. Dashed curve
 338 over the mid-to-high latitudes denote the vertical profile of future air temperature
 339 changes, reflecting an intensified subsidence inversion in the lower troposphere and
 340 strengthened lapse rate in the upper troposphere. As a result, the atmosphere in lower
 341 (upper) troposphere becomes more stable (unstable), which is conducive to the TS (the
 342 strengthening of upper-troposphere winds).

343

344

Figures

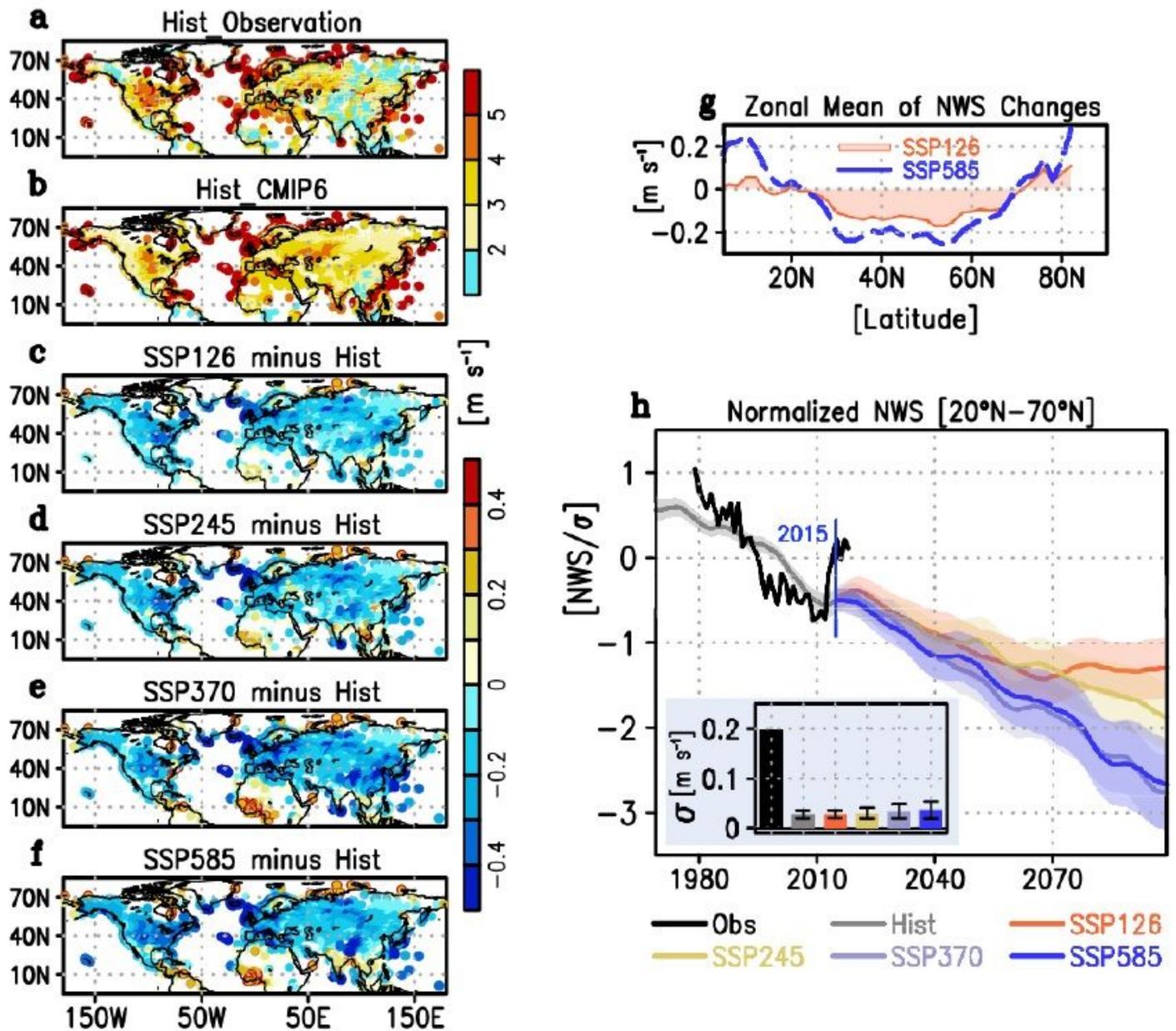


Figure 1

Annual NWS changes in the 21st century. a-b, Climatological patterns of NWS for 1981–2010 based on observations (a) and model simulations (b). c-f, Differences in simulated NWS between periods 2070–2099 and 1981–2010, driven by SSP126 (c), SSP245 (d), SSP370 (e), and SSP585 (f) scenarios during 2070–2099. g, Zonal mean of future NWS changes under SSP126 and SSP585 scenarios. The unit for NWS is m s⁻¹. h, Time series of NWS averaged over the NH mid-latitudes (20°N–70°N), driven by the historical all forcing during 1979–2014 and the four SSPs during 2015–2099. The NWS time series were normalized based on the mean and standardized deviation (σ) of the NWS over 1981–2010. In the subplot, the bars indicate the σ for observations (black) and historical simulations (grey) during 1981–

2010 and for the future projections (colors) during 2015–2099. Shadings in (h) denote the inter-model spreads, defined as one standard deviation of the individual models' departures from the 20 model mean. All time series are 10-year running means. The vertical blue line indicates the year 2015. Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

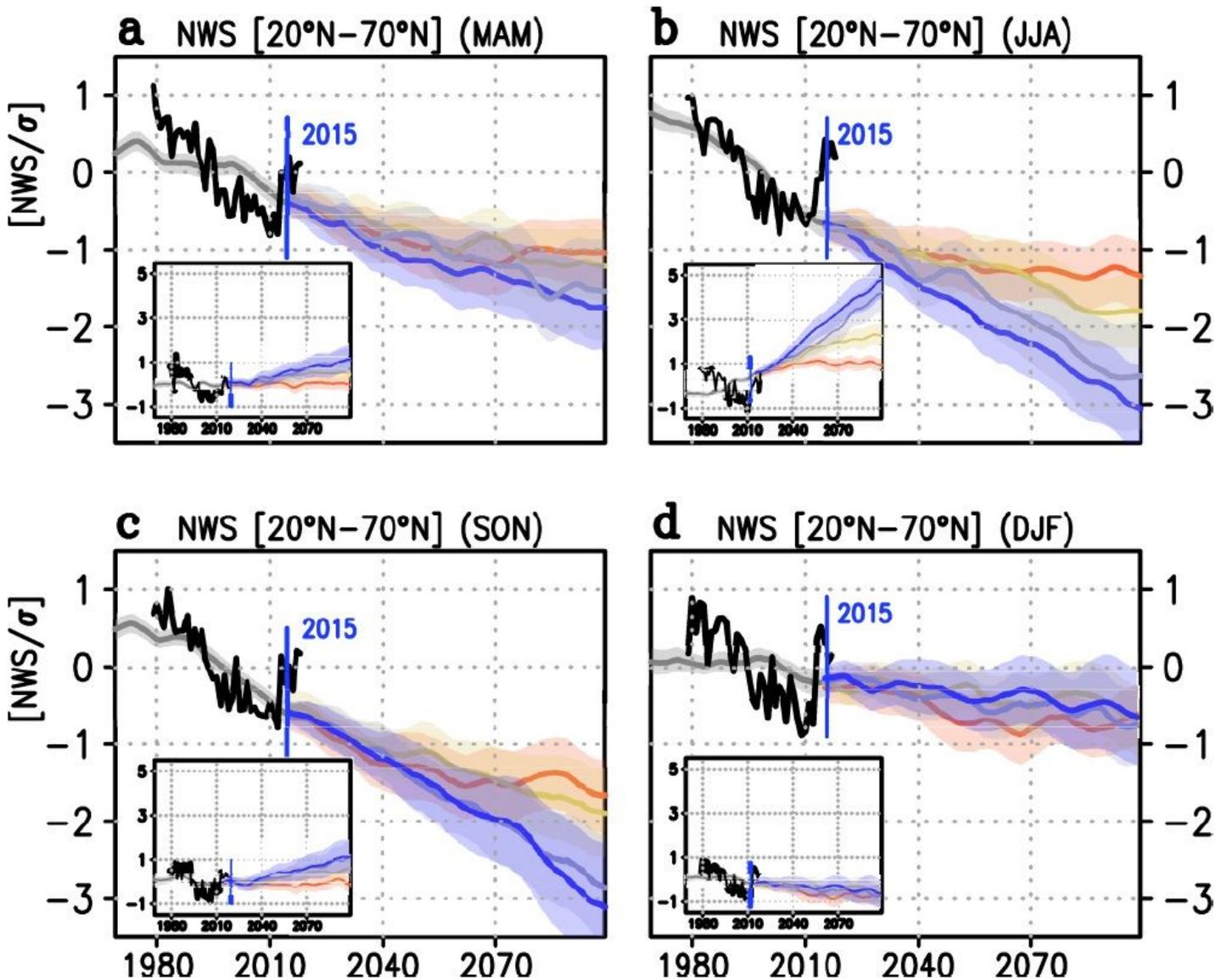


Figure 2

Seasonal NWS changes in mid-latitudes and subtropics. a-d, Similar to Fig. 1h, but for the NWS averaged over the NH mid-latitudes (20°N–70°N) in boreal spring (MAM: March-April-May) (a), summer (JJA: June-July-August) (b), autumn (SON: September-October-November) (c), and winter (DJF: December-January-February) (d). The subplots within each panel are for the NWS averaged over the subtropics (0°–20°N). Shadings denote the inter-model spreads, defined as one standard deviation of the individual models'

departures from the 20 model mean. All time series are 10-year running means. The vertical blue line indicates the year 2015.

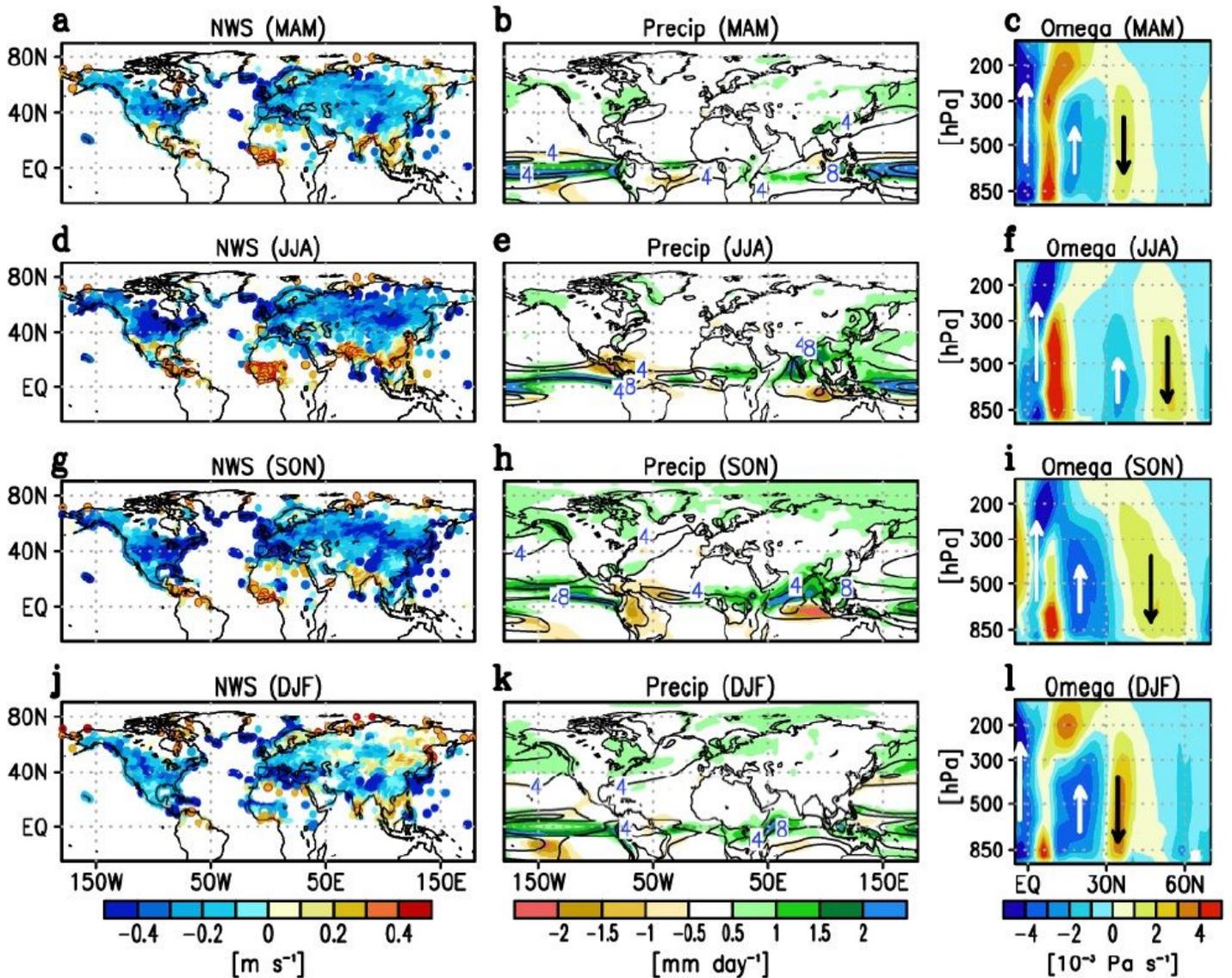


Figure 3

Future changes in NWS, precipitation and vertical winds for the four seasons. a-c, Differences (shading) in simulated NWS (a), precipitation (b), and vertical winds (c) between the periods 2070–2099 and 1981–2010 for the NH spring and under the SSP585 scenario. The units for NWS, precipitation, and vertical wind are m s^{-1} , mm day^{-1} , and $10^{-3} \text{ Pascal s}^{-1}$, respectively. d-f, g-i and j-l, Similar to a-c, except for summer, autumn, and winter, respectively. Contours in the precipitation panels (middle) denote the climatology in 1981–2010. Vectors in the omega panels (right) indicate the upward (white) or downward (black) air motions. Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

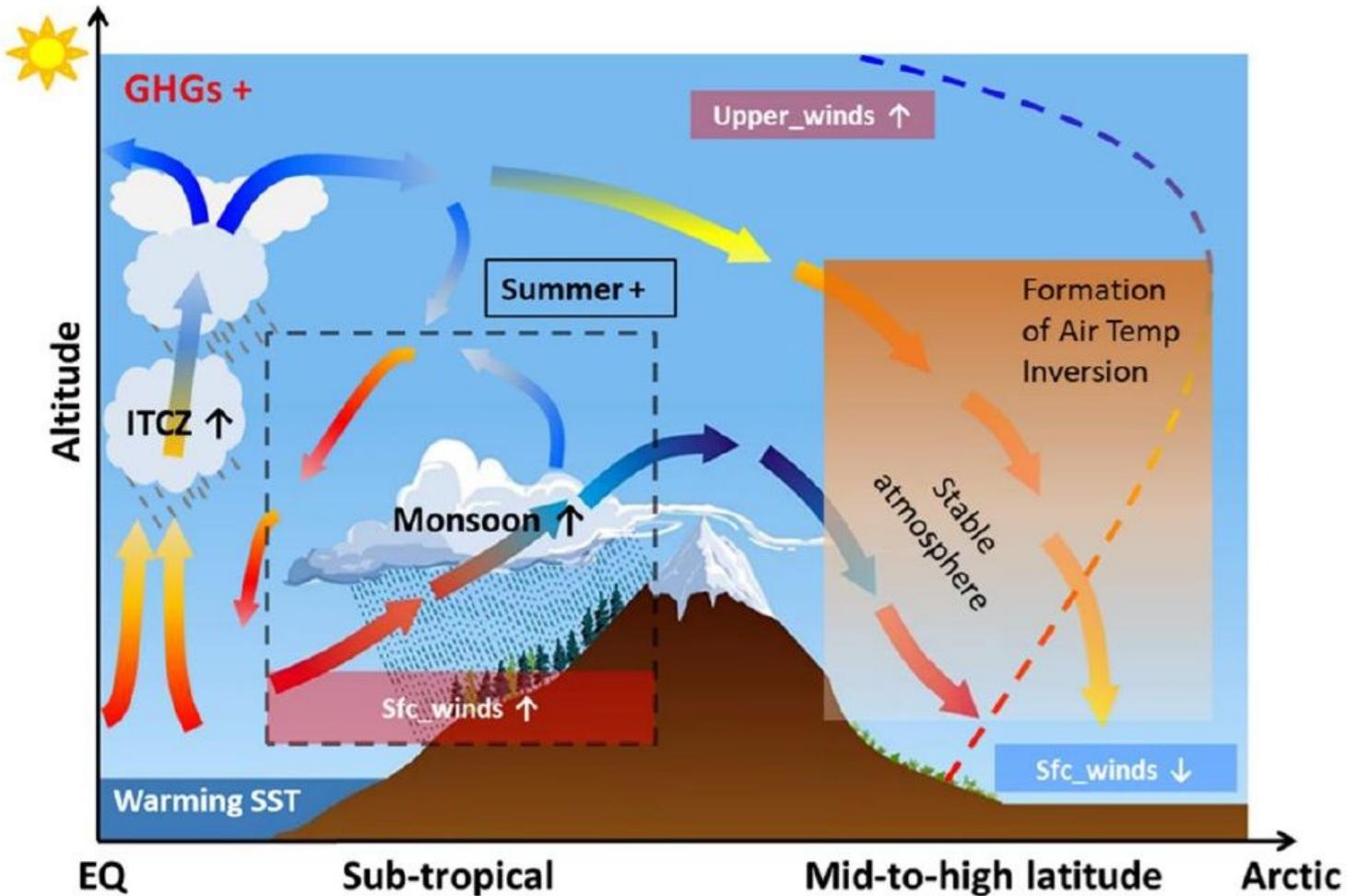


Figure 4

Schematic diagram illustrating the physical mechanisms for the TS. Vectors indicate changes in the atmospheric circulation. Intensified upward motions over the tropical and subtropical regions, due respectively to the enhanced ITCZ and monsoon convections, would enhance sinking motions over the NH mid-latitudes. Dashed curve over the mid-to-high latitudes denote the vertical profile of future air temperature changes, reflecting an intensified subsidence inversion in the lower troposphere and strengthened lapse rate in the upper troposphere. As a result, the atmosphere in lower (upper) troposphere becomes more stable (unstable), which is conducive to the TS (the strengthening of upper-troposphere winds).

Supplementary Files

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