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Reduced rainfall over the Amazon basin in an idealized CO₂ removal scenario: Remote dynamic processes

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ABSTRACT

The Amazon basin plays a crucial role in biodiversity and carbon storage, but its local rainfall is anticipated to decrease under global warming. Carbon dioxide removal (CDR) is being considered as a method to mitigate the impact of global warming. However, the specific effects of CDR on Amazon rainfall have not been well understood. Here, an idealized CDR experiment reveals that the reduced rainfall over the Amazon basin does not recover. Significantly weaker rainfall was found during the ramp-down period compared to the ramp-up period at the same CO₂ concentration. This response is associated with the enhanced El Niño-like warming in the tropical Pacific Ocean during the CDR period. This warming pattern has dual effects: weakening the zonal circulation and causing anomalous descent directly over the Amazon basin, while also triggering a stationary Rossby wave train that propagated downstream and generated anomalous ascent over the Sargasso Sea. This anomalous ascent induces anomalous descent and weakens moisture transport over the Amazon basin by the local meridional circulation. Consequently, precipitation is reduced over the Amazon basin in response to the weakened zonal and meridional circulation. Our findings indicate that even if the atmospheric CO_2 concentration is lowered, the Amazon basin will remain susceptible to drought. Effective local climate adaptation strategies are urgently needed to address the vulnerability of this critical ecosystem.

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Introduction

The Amazon basin, Earth's largest river basin spanning 1 around 6 million km², is a vital hydrological system teeming 2 3 with rivers, wetlands, and floodplains (Fassoni-Andrade et al., 4 2021; Towner et al., 2020). Beyond impacting the seven countries it crosses (e.g., Brazil and Peru), the Amazon basin is a key 5 hub of tropical convection, shaping global atmospheric circu-6 lation and influencing the carbon, energy, and hydrological 7 cycles (Fassoni-Andrade et al., 2021; Towner et al., 2020). For 8 instance, the Amazon River's main stem annually discharges 9 10 2.1×10^5 m³/s, contributing 20% of the total global freshwater 11 flow into oceans (Fassoni-Andrade et al., 2021; Towner et al., 2020). This substantial river discharge results from abundant 12 rainfall, averaging 2000-2200 mm per year, mainly sourced 13 from local evapotranspiration and moisture transport from 14 the tropical Atlantic Ocean (Cai et al., 2020; Ciemer et al., 15 2020; Towner et al., 2020). This rainfall is critical for the local 16 rainforest, biodiversity, and acts as a driving force for atmo-17 spheric general circulation (Burleyson et al., 2016; Cai et al., 18 2020; Fassoni-Andrade et al., 2021; Tang et al., 2016; Towner 19 et al., 2020). A precipitation deficit can reduce ecosystem res-20 piration (Doughty et al., 2015; Thakur et al., 2018) and lead to 21 22 tree mortality due to hydraulic failure (Bréda et al., 2006), carbon starvation (McDowell et al., 2008), and an increased inci-23 dence of wildfires. Consequently, this reduction in biodiversity 24 and the weakened forest-rainfall feedback can promote fur-25 ther drought occurrences (Staal et al., 2020a; Zemp et al., 2017). 26 Additionally, diminished vegetation undermines the rainfor-27 est's capacity to absorb carbon, thereby exacerbating global 28 29 warming and affecting the global climate. For instance, due to increased tree mortality, the Amazon temporarily turned into 30 a carbon source during two major droughts in 2005 and 2010 31 (Boulton et al., 2022; Feldpausch et al., 2016). 32

Given the pivotal role of Amazon rainfall, extensive ef-33 forts have focused on investigating the multiscale factors in-34 fluencing it. On the synoptic scale, equatorial Kelvin waves, 35 primarily originating from the Pacific and South America, are 36 37 recognized as the dominant mode of variability (Liebmann et al., 2009; Mayta et al., 2021). The intraseasonal variabil-38 39 ity is modulated by equatorial Rossby wave-like disturbances 40 (Mayta and Adames, 2023; Mayta et al., 2022) and the Madden-41 Julian Oscillation (Liu et al., 2020; Mayta et al., 2020; Reboita et al., 2021). On the interannual timescale, sea surface tem-42 perature (SST) anomalies in the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans 43 play a crucial role in influencing Amazon rainfall. Specifically, 44 the warm phase of the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) is 45 expected to cause rainfall deficits and drought over the Ama-46 zon basin, mainly by modulating the Walker circulation (Cai 47 et al., 2020; Kay et al., 2022; Towner et al., 2020). The tropi-48 cal Atlantic Ocean affects the rainfall over the Amazon by in-49 fluencing the location of the Intertropical Convergence Zone 50 (ITCZ), which generally follows the location of the warm SST 51 (Ciemer et al., 2020; Towner et al., 2020; Yoon and Zeng, 2010). 52 Additionally, longer-term factors such as the Pacific Decadal 53 Oscillation and Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation contribute to 54 Amazon rainfall variability (Cai et al., 2020; Reboita et al., 2021; 55 Towner et al., 2020). Human activities, especially deforestation 56

it causes, also significantly influence rainfall in the Amazon 57 basin. Deforestation, which involves converting forests into 58 pastures and croplands, can directly modify local rainfall pat-59 terns. This is due to changes in the moisture cycle and energy 60 balance, which are associated with reduced evapotranspira-61 tion and surface roughness, and increased albedo (Li et al., 62 2022). On broader spatial scales, diminished evapotranspira-63 tion could impair the moisture recycling process that trans-64 ports water vapor from oceans to tropical forests (Baidya et al., 65 2002; Leite-Filho et al., 2021). Conversely, on smaller scales, de-66 forestation may lead to a patchy distribution of surface rough-67 ness and atmospheric heating, potentially increasing rainfall 68 in deforested regions and areas downwind of these patches 69 (Khanna et al., 2018; McGuffie et al., 1995). Most models project 70 an increase in Amazon temperature, at least 0.5 °C higher than 71 the global mean (Torres et al., 2021), but a decrease in Amazon 72 rainfall under the global warming scenario (Almazroui et al., 73 2021; Cai et al., 2020; Pascale et al., 2019; Thome Sena and Mag-74 nusdottir, 2020). Global warming tends to reduce forest via-75 bility via increasing dry-season length (Adams et al., 2017; Fu 76 et al., 2013), the frequency of drought and wildfire (Boulton 77 et al., 2022; Brando et al., 2020, Wang and Huang, 2022). For-78 est degradation can reduce evapotranspiration and hence the 79 moisture transported further westward, reducing rainfall in 80 Amazon basin (Boulton et al., 2022; Salati et al., 1979). And 81 these changes can be further amplified by a large-scale mois-82 ture recycling feedback, with increased drought in the Ama-83 zon basin (Boulton et al., 2022). Meanwhile, increased El Niño 84 events in the future may also cause a precipitation deficit in 85 the Amazon basin through atmospheric teleconnection (Kay 86 et al., 2022; McGregor et al., 2022). 87

The previously mentioned studies on Amazon rainfall are 88 mainly focused on modern climatic conditions and global 89 warming scenarios. However, to reduce and prevent danger-90 ous climate change and impacts, a global temperature rise 91 threshold of 1.5 °C/2 °C for the end of 21st century has been 92 set, known as "the Paris Agreement". Achieving this thresh-93 old involves various anthropogenic CO2 removal (CDR) meth-94 ods, leading to lower atmospheric CO₂ concentrations (IPCC, 95 2021; Keller et al., 2018). Typically, an idealized CDR scenario 96 is prescribed by the Carbon Dioxide Removal Model Intercom-97 parison Project (CDRMIP), in which the atmospheric CO₂ con-98 centration rises at a rate of 1% per year until it quadruples, 99 followed by a symmetric decline (Keller et al., 2018). This CDR 100 scenario has been extensively studied, examining tempera-101 ture, precipitation, carbon cycle, ITCZ, sea level, and more (Cao 102 et al., 2023; Kim et al., 2022; Kug et al., 2022; Park and Kug, 103 2022; Wu et al., 2015). Upon the recovery of atmospheric CO₂ 104 concentration to pre-industrial revolution levels, the global 105 mean temperature is abnormally high (Qu and Huang, 2023; 106 Wu et al., 2010), impacting water vapor capacity and global 107 mean rainfall. However, the response to CDR varies markedly 108 from region to region, for example, East Asia (Song et al., 2022), 109 South Asia (Zhang et al., 2023), Pacific ITCZ (Zhou et al., 2022), 110 and ENSO (Liu et al., 2023). The evolutionary characteristics 111 and response mechanisms of rainfall over the Amazon basin 112 under such an idealized CDR scenario forms the focus of our 113 investigation. 114

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| Table 1 – The detailed information of CMIP6 models used in this study. | | | | | | | |
|--|---------------|-----------|-----------|------------------|--------------------------|--|--|
| No. | Model name | Country | Var label | Horizontal gird | References | | |
| 1 | ACCESS-ESM1-5 | Australia | rli1p1f1 | 145×192 | Ziehn et al., 2020 | | |
| 2 | CAS-ESM2-0 | China | rli1p1f1 | 128×256 | Zhang et al., 2020 | | |
| 3 | CanESM5 | Canada | rli1p2f1 | 64×128 | Swart et al., 2019 | | |
| 4 | CESM2 | USA | rli1p1f1 | 192×288 | Danabasoglu et al., 2020 | | |
| 5 | CNRM-ESM2-1 | France | rli1p1f2 | 128×256 | Séférian et al., 2019 | | |
| 6 | GFDL-ESM4 | USA | rli1p1f1 | 180×288 | Dunne et al., 2020 | | |
| 7 | MIROC-ES2L | Japan | rli1p1f2 | 64×128 | Hajima et al., 2020 | | |
| 8 | NorESM2-LM | Norway | r1i1p1f1 | 96 × 144 | Seland et al., 2020 | | |
| 9 | UKESM1-0-LL | UK | r1i1p1f2 | 144 × 192 | Senior et al., 2020 | | |

1. Data and methods

The study leverages several experiments from the Coupled 115 Model Intercomparison Project six (CMIP6), including: (1) 116 117 historical experiment, in which the models are compelled by observed atmospheric CO₂ concentration from the mid-118 nineteenth century to 2014 (Eyring et al., 2016); (2) pre-119 120 industrial control (piControl) experiment, in which the atmo-121 spheric CO₂ concentration and the climate system conditions were held at pre-industrial level (Eyring et al., 2016), serves as a 122 reference for the 1 %CO2 experiment; (3) 1pctCO2 experiment. 123 124 The same as the piControl experiment, except that the atmospheric CO₂ concentration increased by 1% per year until it 125 quadrupled (Eyring et al., 2016); and (4) 1pctCO2-cdr experi-126 ment, starting from the climate states in the 140th year of the 127 1pctCO2 experiment, CO2 concentration drops at a rate of 1% 128 129 per year for 140 years to recover to the pre-industrial level, and 130 then stays constant for 60-year restoring period (Keller et al., 2018). The combined 1pctCO2 and 1pctCO2-cdr experiments 131 form the idealized CDR scenario, spanning 280 years. This 132 scenario, marked by substantial CO₂ concentration changes, 133 aims for a high signal-to-noise ratio. The response of the cli-134 mate system under the idealized CDR scenario is assessed rel-135 ative to the climatology of the last 100 years of piControl ex-136 periments. Monthly outputs from nine models participating 137 138 in these experiments, detailed in Table 1, are employed. Each 139 model contributes a single run for analysis. The Multi-Model Ensemble Mean (MME) approach is employed to reduce inter-140 nal variability and systematic biases. The response is deemed 141 robust when the signs of results from more than six models 142 align with that of the MME. This study primarily concentrates 143 on the austral summer (DJF) mean, a period when the major-144 ity of the annual total rainfall occurs (Cai et al., 2020; Fassoni-145 Andrade et al., 2021). 146

147 To evaluate the simulation performance of CMIP6 models, 148 this study employs the monthly mean reanalysis and observational datasets, which include: (1) Global Precipitation Cli-149 matology Project (GPCP) monthly precipitation dataset with a 150 horizontal resolution of $2.5^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$ (Adler et al., 2018); (2) Na-151 tional Centers for Environmental Prediction-Department of 152 Energy (NCEP-DOE) reanalysis data with a horizontal resolu-153 tion of $2.5^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$ (Kanamitsu et al., 2002); (3) Hadley Centre 154 Global Sea Ice and Sea Surface Temperature (HadISST) data 155 156 with a horizontal resolution of $1.0^{\circ} \times 1.0^{\circ}$ (Rayner et al., 2003). 157 The climatology of DJF mean in 1979-2014 represents the current climate of the Amazon basin, which is compared with 158 that of historical experiments to assess the performance of 159 CMIP6 models. All above CMIP6 and reanalysis datasets are 160 spatially interpolated into a common $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ grid by a bilinear 161 interpolation. 162

2. Results

2.1. Present-day climate of the Amazon basin and model 163 simulations 164

The Amazon basin, nestled within the South American mon-165 soon zone, experiences robust convection during the austral 166 summer with pronounced upwelling (Fig. 1a and b; Marengo 167 et al., 2012). The precipitation pattern, shaped by the South 168 Atlantic Convergence Zone (SACZ), displays a distinctive 169 northwest-southeast orientation, defining the primary system 170 of the South American monsoon (Llopart et al., 2020). Trade 171 winds facilitate a north-easterly or easterly moisture flow 172 from the tropical Atlantic Ocean to the Amazon basin, gen-173 erating a potent moisture flux convergence (Fig. 1b and c) piv-174 otal for sustaining an active SACZ (Durán-Quesada et al., 2012; 175 Muñoz et al., 2015). The CMIP6 MME simulations reasonably 176 reproduce the above rainfall-related distributional features, 177 but with some slight difference in magnitude. Compared to 178 the observations, the CMIP6 MME simulations are weaker in 179 terms of rainfall, and rainfall-related variables (e.g., vertical 180 velocity). For the underlying driver, sea surface temperature 181 (SST), the CMIP6 models have double ITCZ bias (Fig. 1e and f), 182 accompanied by a positive rainfall bias in the southeast Pa-183 cific (Fig. 1b). This recurring double ITCZ bias, observed from 184 CMIP3 to CMIP6 model simulations, remains a focal point in 185 climate modeling research (Adam et al., 2018; Si et al., 2021). 186

The Taylor diagram systematically evaluates the model 187 performance skill across the domain (45°S-45°N, 180°-30°W) 188 for rainfall and related variables (Fig. 2). Spatial correlation co-189 efficients between the simulation of individual models and 190 observations consistently surpass 0.6, except for the vertical 191 velocity at 500 hPa in CAS-ESM2-0 model. The simulation per-192 formance of CMIP6 MME for all variables outperforming any 193 single model, with the minimum correlation coefficient higher 194 than 0.79. We therefore utilize the CMIP6 MME to scrutinize 195 the response of Amazon basin rainfall under the idealized 196 CDR scenario. 197





Fig. 1 – Climatology (a and b) precipitation (shading; unit: mm/day) and 500 hPa vertical velocity (contour; unit: 10^{-2} Pa/s), (c, d) vertically integrated moisture fluxes from the surface to 100 hPa (vector; unit: 10^{2} kg/(m·s)) and their divergence (shading; unit: 10^{-5} kg/(m²·s)), and (e, f) SST (shading, unit: °C) of DJF mean climate variables in 1979–2014. Left panel: NCEP-DOE reanalysis or HadISST results; Right panel: CMIP6 MME results. The red solid line denotes the Amazon basin (https://github.com/gamamo/AmazonBasinLimits/tree/master).

198 2.2. Irreversible response of austral summer rainfall over 199 the Amazon basin

Fig. 3a shows the evolution of anomalous DJF mean rainfall 200 over the Amazon basin under the idealized CDR scenario. 201 Along with the increase in CO₂ concentration, the Amazon 202 basin experienced a notable decline in rainfall, surpassing 203 204 15%, leading to an abnormally dry situation (red curve). Here, two 40-year periods for the initial and peak levels of CO₂ 205 concentration are chosen, i.e., Years 1-40 (RU) and Years 206 101-140 (Peak). Precipitation decreased significantly in the 207 Amazon basin during the CO₂ peak compared to the RU 208 phase, and the result passes the inter-model sign agreement 209 test and the significance test of 90% difference in mean 210 (Fig. 3b and Appendix A Fig. S1). This feature aligns with 211 the results under the global warming scenario (Almazroui 212 213 et al., 2021; Thome Sena; Magnusdottir 2020). Subsequently, 214 as CO₂ concentration decreases, rainfall begins to increases

(blue curve). However, the recovery is slower than the initial 215 decline, resulting in a significant and robust reduction in 216 precipitation in the Amazon basin during the RD (Years 217 241-280) period compared to the RU (Years 1-40) period with 218 the same averaged CO₂ concentration (Fig. 4c and Appendix 219 A Fig. S1). Among the nine modes analyzed, eight models ex-220 hibit anomalous drought condition in Amazon basin, with the 221 exception for the MIROC-ESM2L model (Appendix A Fig. S2). 222 This suggests that the asymmetric response of Amazon basin 223 rainfall is robust. Eventually, Amazon rainfall has not fully 224 recovered and remains below the initial level after the 60-year 225 CO₂ resotring period (Fig. 3a). Besides, reduced rainfall also 226 appears over the equatorial North Pacific and Atlantic, while 227 enhanced rainfall occurs over the equatorial South Pacific, 228 indicating a southward displacement of the ITCZ reported in 229 previous studies (Kug et al., 2022). Notably, increased rainfall 230 is also noted over the Florida Peninsula and the Sargasso 231 Sea. 232



Fig. 2 – Taylor diagram of climatological variables in 1979–2014. The reference point is the results of NCEP-DOE reanalysis or HadISST data. Numbers 1–9 represent the model serial numbers, and number 10 denotes the result of CMIP6 MME.

To comprehend this asymmetric response of rainfall over the Amazon basin, moisture budget analysis is employed (Qu et al., 2015; Zuo et al., 2019) as expressed by Eq. (1):

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{P}' &= \mathbf{E}' - \langle \vec{\mathbf{V}}' \cdot \nabla_{h} \bar{q} \rangle - \langle \vec{\mathbf{V}} \cdot \nabla_{h} q' \rangle - \langle \vec{\mathbf{V}}' \cdot \nabla_{h} q' \rangle \\ &- \langle \omega' \cdot \partial_{p} \bar{q} \rangle - \langle \bar{\omega} \cdot \partial_{p} q' \rangle - \langle \omega' \cdot \partial_{p} q' \rangle + \operatorname{Res} \end{split} \tag{1}$$

where, P (mm/day), V (m/s), ω (Pa/s), and q (g/g) are the precipitation, horizontal winds, vertical velocity, and specific humidity, respectively. The overbar denotes the reference state of the piControl experiments, while a prime denotes the departure of these variables from the reference state. (*) represents a mass integration from surface to 100 hPa. The anomalous 241 precipitation is balanced by anomalous evaporation (the first 242 term on the right-hand of Eq. (1)), anomalous horizontal mois-243 ture transport (the third to four terms on the right-hand of Eq. 244 (1)), and vertical moisture transport (the fifth to seventh terms 245 on the right-hand of Eq. (1)). The last term Res is the residual 246 term. As shown in Fig. 4a, the reduced DJF rainfall over the 247 Amazon basin is primarily attributed to the vertical moisture 248 gradient transported by anomalous vertical motion (i.e., dy-249 namical processes), and is partially offset by the increased hu-250 midity (i.e., thermodynamical processes). Compared to these 251 two terms, other processes (e.g., evaporation) are weak and the 252 residual term is negligible. 253

The dominant processes that contribute to the asymmetric 254 rainfall response are further examined in Fig. 4b and c, which 255 show the differences in the mid-tropospheric vertical veloc-256 ity and lower-tropospheric specific humidity. Due to the irre-257 versible response of surface temperature (Qu and Huang, 2023; 258 Zhang et al., 2023), a warmer atmosphere during the RD pe-259 riod can hold more water vapor (Fig. 4c). In the Amazon basin, 260 where ascent prevails climatologically, more water vapor con-261 tributes to enhance precipitation, which reflects the "wet-get-262 wetter" mechanism (Chou et al., 2009; Held and Soden, 2006). 263 However, the above thermodynamic process is not the whole 264 story, and not all places with increased moisture have seen an 265 increase in rainfall. Particularly, the decreased rainfall over the 266 Amazon basin is mainly due to the dynamical process, with an 267 anomalous strong descending motion (Fig. 4b). This descend-268 ing motion overcomes the contribution of increased moisture 269 and becomes the direct cause of the asymmetric response of 270 the Amazon rainfall. 271

2.3. Dynamical mechanisms responsible for the irreversible response

2.3.1. The role of zonal circulation and equatorial Pacific SST 274 To scrutinize the mechanisms generating anomalous de-275 scending motion over the Amazon basin, Fig. 5a and b il-276



Fig. 3 – (a) Evolution of DJF mean rainfall anomalies (%) over the Amazon basin corresponding to CO₂ concentration during the CO₂ ramp-up (red), ramp-down (blue), and restoring (orange) periods. Spatial pattern of MME difference in DJF mean rainfall (unit: mm/day) between the (b) CO₂ peak (101–140) and RU (1–40) periods, (c) RD (241–280) and RU (1–40) periods. The dotted area passes the model sign consistency test (six out of nine) and 90 % significance test for difference in mean. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

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Fig. 4 – (a) The difference in the terms of the moisture budget equation (unit: mm/day) between RD (241–280) and RU (1–40) periods. Error bars indicate the inter-model uncertainty (1.96 x standard deviation). (b) The difference in the vertical velocity (unit: 10^{-2} Pa/s) at 500 hPa between the RD and RU periods. The dotted area passes the model sign consistency test (six out of nine). (c) The same as (b), but for the specific humidity (unit: g/kg) at the 850 hPa.

lustrate large-scale divergent circulation in the upper and 277 lower troposphere. Following the Helmholtz theorem (Holton 278 and Hakim, 2013), horizontal velocity can be decomposed 279 280 into rotational and divergent parts, where only the latter 281 associates with vertical motion. Fig. 5a and b reveal lowertropospheric convergence and upper-tropospheric divergence 282 over the equatorial eastern Pacific, accompanied by anoma-283 lous upper-tropospheric convergence and low-tropospheric 284

divergence over the Amazon basin. This feature aligns with285the zonal circulation cell depicted in Fig. 5c, featuring anoma-286lous ascending motion over the eastern Pacific and descend-287ing motion over the Amazon basin. Therefore, subsidence over288the Amazon is potentially linked to remote forcing over the289equatorial Pacific Ocean.290

The anomalous divergent circulation and zonal circulation 291 cell shown in Fig. 5 resemble the observed mechanism by 292

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Fig. 5 – (a and b) Difference in velocity potential (color line; unit: $10^6 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$) and divergence winds (vector; unit: m/s) at 850 hPa (a) and 200 hPa (b) between the RD (241–280) and RU (1–40) periods. Black dots and vectors shown denote the region that satisfies the model sign consistency. (c) Cross-section of differences in zonal and vertical velocities (vectors), averaged for 15.5°S–0.5°N between the RD and RU periods. (d) Same as (c), but for meridional and vertical velocities, averaged over 75°–50°W. Shaded values are differences in vertical velocities (unit: -10^{-2} Pa/s). Color contour line indicates climatological vertical velocities obtained from the last 100 years of the piControl experiment. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

which ENSO affects Amazon rainfall (Cai et al., 2020; Kay et al., 293 294 2022). Thus, Fig. 6 examines the SST anomalies in the Pacific Ocean for the RU and RD periods as well as their differences. 295 During the RU period, there are anomalous warm SST anoma-296 297 lies over the equatorial central Pacific, consistent with El Niño-298 like SST pattern predicted under the global warming scenario (Cai et al., 2018, 2020). In the RD period, a more pronounced 299 warming in the equatorial Pacific Ocean occurs due to the 300 weakened Walker circulation and the attenuated upwelling 301 (Chadwick et al., 2013; Song et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2023). 302 Therefore, compared to the RU period, an El Niño-like anoma-303 lous SST pattern is seen over the tropical Pacific Ocean dur-304 ing the RD period (Fig. 6c and Appendix A Fig. S3), consistent 305 306 with recent studies under the CDR scenario (Liu et al., 2023; Pathirana et al., 2023; Zhou et al., 2022). This anomalous warm 307 SST in the equatorial Pacific Ocean generate low-tropospheric 308 convergence, ascending motion, and upper-tropospheric di-309 vergence (Fig. 5), which further affects the Amazon rainfall via 310 the anomalous zonal circulation. Thus, the zonal circulation is 311 recognized as the first pathway linking the Pacific Ocean warm 312 SST anomalies to the reduced rainfall over the Amazon basin. 313

The role of meridional circulation and Rossby wave train 2.3.2. 314 Apart from the anomalous zonal circulation, the anomalous 315 meridional circulation also contributes to the anomalous 316 descending motion over the Amazon basin. Fig. 5 reveals 317 low-tropospheric convergence and upper-tropospheric di-318 vergence over the Sargasso Sea, accompanied by increased 319 local rainfall (Fig. 3b). This induces anomalous ascending 320 motion and upper-tropospheric northerly winds, leading to 321 anomalous descending motion over the Amazon basin, form-322 ing an obvious meridional circulation cell (Fig. 5d). In-depth 323 exploration of this meridional circulation is presented in 324 Fig. 7, which shows the anomalous low-tropospheric circula-325 tion and the vertically integrated moisture transport. There 326 appear anomalous southwesterly winds over the Amazon 327 basin and the Caribbean Sea, which implies a slowdown of 328 the climatological northeasterly trade winds and the cross-329 equatorial flow, as well as the moisture transport (Fig. 1c 330 and d). This is consistent with the divergence of vertically 331 integrated moisture fluxes (Fig. 7b) and the reduced rainfall 332 (Fig. 3) over the Amazon basin. Notice that the anomalous 333 southwesterly winds over the Caribbean Sea are part of 334



Fig. 6 – (a and b) SST anomalies (unit: K) with the tropical mean SST removed during the RU (a) and RD (b) periods compared to piControl, respectively. (c) Same as (a), but for the difference between the RD and RU periods. The dotted areas satisfy the model sign consistency.

an anomalous cyclone centered over the Florida Peninsula(Fig. 7a).

It is evident that the anomalous low-tropospheric cyclone 337 over the Florida Peninsula and the increased rainfall over the 338 Sargasso Sea are associated with the ascending branching of 339 the local meridional circulation. Thus, the next question is, 340 341 how they are generated? Fig. 8 shows the difference in the 342 upper-troposphere stream function between the RD and RU periods. Two anomalous anticyclones appear over the tropical 343 eastern Pacific Ocean, understood as the equatorial Rossby 344 wave response to warm SST anomalies underneath (Gill, 345 1980; Matsuno, 1966). More importantly, there are alternative 346 347 cyclones and anticyclones in the northern hemisphere, forming a stationary Rossby wave train. This argument is verified 348 by the wave activity flux (Takaya and Nakamura, 2001), which 349 can reflect the propagation of Rossby wave energy. However, 350 the wave activity flux is derived under the assumption of 351 quasi-geostrophic balance, which may not be fully applicable 352 in the Tropics. Therefore, the Rossby ray tracings (Karoly, 353 1983; Shaman and Tziperman, 2005) are employed to fur-354 ther detect the stationary Rossby wave train. As shown in 355 Fig. 8, both the wave activity flux and the Rossby ray tracings 356 reflect a northeastward wave energy propagation from the 357 tropical northeastern Pacific to the southern United States of 358 America (USA), and then turn southeast to reach the tropical 359 North Atlantic. 360





Fig. 7 – (a) Spatial difference in the 850 hPa winds (unit: m/s) between the RD (241–280) and RU (1–40) periods. (b) Same as (a), but for the vertically integrated moisture fluxes from the surface to 100 hPa (vector; unit: $10^2 \text{ kg/(m \cdot s)}$) and their divergence (shading; unit: $10^{-5} \text{ kg/(m^2 \cdot s)}$. The vectors shown and the dotted area satisfy the model sign consistency test.



Fig. 8 – Response of the stream function (shading; unit: 10^6 m²/s), wave activity flux (vector; unit: m²/s²), and wave ray trajectory (colored lines) at 200 hPa during RD compared to the RU period. DJF climatology during the RU period is the baseline. Stream function with zonal mean removed. Wave activity flux values within 10° of the equators are omitted. Path of a Rossby ray, starting with an initial zonal wavenumber 5 (pink, orange) and 6 (blue, green) at 7.5°N, 145° W (pink), and 12.5° N, 145° W (orange), and 0° , 150° W (blue), and 2.5° N, 145° W (green). The vectors shown and the dotted area satisfy the model sign consistency. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

361 Noteworthy is the anomalous upper-tropospheric cyclone

362 over the southern USA (Fig. 8), slightly westward relative to

363 the low-tropospheric cyclone (Fig. 7a). Such a slightly west-

ward phase tilt is a common feature of the Rossby wave train, 364 which may be linked to the energy conversion from the ba-365 sic flow (Chen et al., 2020; Hu et al., 2023). The increased 366 rainfall and ascending motion over the Sargasso Sea are lo-367 cated east of the upper-tropospheric cyclone, explained by the 368 quasi-geostrophic omega equation (Gu et al., 2018; Holton and 369 Hakim, 2013). Because the basic flow is westerly, positive vor-370 ticity advection and warm advection tend to occur east of the 371 upper-tropospheric cyclone anomaly, favoring ascending mo-372 tion over the Sargasso Sea. Once ascending motion appears, 373 it can be further enhanced by the diabatic heating related to 374 the increased rainfall, leading to positive feedback (e.g., Gu 375 et al., 2018). Consequently, ascending motion over the Sar-376 gasso Sea and sinking over the Amazon basin form a local 377 meridional circulation (Fig. 5). As the climatological rainfall 378 over the Amazon basin is large, giving rise to robust rainfall-379 circulation feedback. Anomalous descendance can reduce the 380 rainfall, leading to a cooling anomaly that, in turn, amplifies 381 the anomalous descendance. Similar mechanisms were elu-382 cidated in Wu et al. (2010). This feedback loop results in an 383 easier occurrence of a sink anomaly over the Amazon basin. 384 Therefore, beyond the anomalous zonal circulation, another 385 pathway linking warm Pacific SST anomalies and decreased 386 Amazon rainfall is the Rossby wave train and meridional cir-387 culation. 388

3. Summary and discussion

The Amazon basin, encompassing approximately 40% of
global tropical forests, stands as the world's largest river basin.389Essential to these tropical ecosystems is the region's copious
rainfall, typically exceeding 2000 mm/year. Numerous studies
have delved into the factors influencing Amazon rainfall un-
393391



Fig. 9 – Schematic diagram shows key processes considered in this study, by which the DJF mean rainfall over the Amazon exhibits an irreversible response, with anomalous drought. Red shading, orange shading, and green shading indicate the enhanced El Niño-like SST anomalies, the anomalous drought over the Amazon, and the anomalous wetting over the Caribbean during the RD period compared to the RU period, respectively. Blue arrows represent the zonal circulation. Double-dashed arrows denote the stationary Rossby wave train. Purple arrows indicate the local meridional circulation.

der current climatic conditions and its alterations in the face of global warming. This manuscript investigates the evolution of Amazon rainfall under an idealized CDR scenario, with particular attention to its asymmetric response. CMIP6 simulations highlight that, when the atmospheric CO_2 is removed to pre-industrial level, the Amazon basin could experience anomalous drought during the following 60 years.

The mechanisms behind this reduced Amazon rainfall 401 402 are synthesized in Fig. 9. The moisture budget analysis un-403 derscores that the reduced rainfall mainly resulted from a dynamical process involving anomalous descending, which 404 overrides the thermodynamical effect of increased moisture. 405 The fundamental cause of this anomalous descending motion 406 lies in an El Niño-like SST pattern in the Pacific Ocean. On the 407 one hand, this anomalous SST pattern directly affect the Ama-408 zon rainfall through the anomalous zonal circulation-air as-409 cends over the equatorial eastern Pacific and descends over 410 the Amazon basin. On the other hand, it indirectly modulates 411 Amazon rainfall via the Rossby wave train and meridional cir-412 culation. Corresponding to the warm equatorial eastern Pa-413 cific, a northeast-southeast propagating Rossby wave train is 414 excited, leading to an upper-level anomalous cyclone over the 415 southern USA. Consequently, an anomalous meridional circu-416 417 lation emerges, with an ascending branch in the Sargasso Sea 418 and a descending branch over the Amazon basin.

If the idealized CDR pathway is implemented, the Amazon 419 basin may experience anomalous drought. Reduced rainfall 420 can greatly affect nutrient input into Amazon basin rivers and 421 other freshwater systems, impacting both the environment 422 and the people who rely on these resources (Parmesan et al., 423 2022; CLS, 2024). For instance, droughts can isolate fish popu-424 lations, making migration and genetic diversity maintenance 425 426 challenging. Additionally, reduced rainfall can exacerbate pos-427 itive feedback among drought, deforestation, and wildfires, leading to reduced biodiversity and weaker carbon seques-428 tration, which, in turn, contributes to global warming (Wang 429 430 and Huang, 2022; Zemp et al., 2017). Staal et al. (2020a) indicates that the deforestation tends to increase 0.13% per year 431

with every mm of water deficit. Deforestation, in turn, has432caused an estimated 4% of the recent observed drying. There-433fore, when assessing the climate effects of CDR, it's crucial to434consider the impact of secondary hazards.435

Since most of the models participating in the CDR exper-436 iment only conducted 60 years of restoring period, we can-437 not analyze how long it will take for precipitation in Amazon 438 basin to fully recover. Such temporary reduction in Amazon 439 basin rainfall have been attributed to an enhanced El Niño-440 like SST pattern in the Pacific Ocean, which is the result of the 441 asymmetric response of the ocean heat uptake. The oceans 442 absorb heat until the middle of the CO₂ ramp-down period; 443 after that, the oceans continue to release heat (Yeh et al., 444 2021). Correspondingly, slow SST-driven response lags the evo-445 lution of CO₂ concentration remarkably, and dominates the to-446 tal climate response during the CO₂ ramp-down period (Zhang 447 et al., 2024; Zhou et al., 2022). The contribution of slow re-448 sponse ocean, as well as ocean heat uptake continue to di-449 minish during the CO₂ restoring period. If a restoring period 450 is maintained long enough, the reduced rainfall in the Ama-451 zon basin will gradually recover as the contribution of the slow 452 response diminishes. 453

Situated in the South American monsoon region, the Ama-454 zon basin's rainfall is intricately linked to the onset and re-455 treat of the monsoon. Whether the weakened rainfall over 456 the Amazon basin means a shorter rainy season is an im-457 portant question that needs to be investigated. Moon and Ha 458 (2020) projected a shorter rainy season over the South Amer-459 ican monsoon region under the global warming scenario due 460 to advanced retreat and delayed onset. Investigating the re-461 sponse of the Amazon's rainy season length under the CDR 462 scenario is a focal point for future research. 463

Uncited references

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Liu et al., 2022, Baidya and Avissar, 2002, Staal et al., 2020b, 464 Brando et al., 2014. 465

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing fi-

nancial interests or personal relationships that could have ap-

peared to influence the work reported in this paper.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Suqin Zhang: Writing - review & editing, Writing - orig-inal draft, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. Xia Qu: Writing-review & editing, Supervision, Project admin-istration, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis. Gang Huang: Writing - review & editing, Supervision, Project administra-tion, Funding acquisition. Peng Hu: Writing - review & editing, Writing - original draft, Supervision, Formal analysis, Concep-tualization.

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Supplementary materials

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