



**Peer review status:**

This is a non-peer-reviewed preprint submitted to EarthArXiv. The manuscript has been submitted to *Geophysical Research Letters*.

# Persistent Future North Atlantic Tropical Cyclone Risk in Two Contrasting CMIP6 Scenarios

Ratnaksha Lele<sup>1</sup>, Adam H. Sobel<sup>1,2</sup>, Chia-Ying Lee<sup>1</sup>, Suzana J. Camargo<sup>1,3</sup>,  
Patrick Kelly<sup>4</sup>, Ted Amdur<sup>5</sup>, Radovan Drinka<sup>5</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory, Columbia University, Palisades, NY

<sup>2</sup>Department of Applied Physics and Applied Mathematics, Columbia University, New York, NY

<sup>3</sup>Columbia Climate School, Columbia University, New York, NY

<sup>4</sup>Aon Climate Risk Advisory, USA

<sup>5</sup>Aon Impact Forecasting, Chicago, IL

## Key Points:

- A statistical-dynamical downscaling model characterizes future North Atlantic TC activity under CMIP6 low and high forcing scenarios
- Regional North Atlantic TC trends show persistent risk under both scenarios despite different warming levels
- Future regional North Atlantic TC activity is more sensitive to SST warming pattern than to global mean change

---

Corresponding author: Ratnaksha Lele, [rlele@ldeo.columbia.edu](mailto:rlele@ldeo.columbia.edu)

**Abstract**

We analyze North Atlantic Tropical Cyclone (TC) activity using the Columbia HAZard (CHAZ) model to downscale 12 models from CMIP6 under the SSP1-2.6 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios — those with the least and greatest anthropogenic forcing respectively. TC frequency increases along the Southeastern U.S. and declines along the Gulf under both SSPs. Greater TC frequency is not projected in the highest-warming scenario (SSP5-8.5) than in the lowest-warming scenario (SSP1-2.6) in the North Atlantic basin, even though it is in the global mean. These patterns remain broadly consistent over the 21st century, with stronger changes under higher-emission scenarios. The response appears driven primarily by El Niño-like shifts in the tropical Pacific mean state that influence Atlantic potential intensity and vertical wind shear. These results suggest that regional TC activity is more sensitive to the pattern of surface warming than to its global mean, and highlight the importance of the tropical Pacific in particular.

**Plain Language Summary**

Tropical cyclones (TCs) cause major damage along the U.S. coastline, and understanding how TC risk may change in the future is an important consideration for climate adaptation. We used a tropical cyclone risk modeling framework driven by simulations from 12 global climate models to examine how storm landfalls in the North Atlantic might change under both low and high greenhouse gas (GHG) emission scenarios. The results show a clear regional contrast: storms become more frequent along the Southeastern U.S. coast but less frequent along the Gulf Coast, including Texas. This pattern appears in both future climate scenarios and becomes stronger later in the century. The Atlantic TC changes are linked to patterns of change in oceanic and atmospheric conditions that resemble those often seen during El Niño events, and are consistent with trends towards a long-term mean state that in some respects resembles El Niño that are present in the climate model simulations (but not in observations). Our results suggest that changes in regional TC risk depend less on the overall amount of warming than on the pattern, and that the pattern of tropical Pacific climate change is particularly important to North Atlantic TC activity and U.S. TC risk.

**1 Introduction**

Tropical cyclones (TCs) are among the most damaging natural hazards on Earth, producing widespread societal and economic impacts globally, especially in coastal regions. Understanding the present-day TC hazard risk and how it may evolve under anthropogenic climate change remains a key challenge for the scientific community (Broccoli & Manabe, 1990; Bengtsson et al., 1996; Landsea et al., 1999; Knutson et al., 2010; Sobel et al., 2016; Walsh et al., 2016; Knutson et al., 2020; Camargo et al., 2023). Along with analysis of the observational record, process-based understanding is essential to meeting this challenge.

TC activity is controlled by a combination of environmental factors including potential intensity (PI), vertical wind shear, mid-tropospheric humidity, and large-scale vorticity (Gray, 1968, 1984; Emanuel, 1987; Camargo, Sobel, et al., 2007; Sobel et al., 2016), which in turn are themselves shaped by large-scale circulation patterns and sea surface temperature (SST) distributions. Changes in the location of preferred genesis regions can modify track distributions (B. Wang & Chan, 2002; Camargo, Robertson, et al., 2007; Daloz et al., 2015), while alterations in large-scale steering flows can shift storm translation direction and speed (Chan, 2005; Colbert et al., 2013). These dynamical responses can lead to substantial regional changes in TC hazard by redistributing TC activity within basins (Jones & Thorncroft, 1998; Saunders et al., 2000; Murakami & Wang, 2010; Yokoi et al., 2013; Nakamura et al., 2017).

66 Assessments of tropical cyclones' response to climate change have tended to focus  
67 on global-scale aspects. At global scales, for example, there is relatively high confidence  
68 that TC intensifies the strongest storms with warming (e.g. Knutson et al. (2015); Yoshida  
69 et al. (2017); Knutson et al. (2020)), while on the other hand projections of TC frequency  
70 remain highly uncertain (Knutson et al., 2010; Walsh et al., 2016; K. A. Emanuel, 2013;  
71 Zhao et al., 2026; Vecchi et al., 2019; Sobel et al., 2021; Camargo et al., 2023; Chavas  
72 et al., 2025). A focus on global-scale changes could potentially bias regional hazard and  
73 risk assessments, if the global-scale changes are assumed to apply directly at local scales  
74 (e.g. Jewson (2024)). For some climate hazards, such as heat for example, this may be  
75 appropriate, because global and regional changes tend to have at least the same signs,  
76 if not also similar magnitudes. Some other aspects of climate may exhibit changes that  
77 vary spatially in both sign and magnitude, e.g., whose magnitudes at a given location  
78 scale with global mean surface temperature. In this study, we present results which sug-  
79 gest that neither is true of tropical cyclone hazard. For tropical cyclones, changes on basin  
80 and sub-basin scales can be larger than those at global scales, and both may depend much  
81 more on the pattern of surface warming than on its global mean.

82 We use the Columbia HAZard (CHAZ) model (Lee et al., 2018), a statistical–dynamical  
83 framework which has been previously used to downscale simulations from Coupled Model  
84 Intercomparison Project (CMIP) simulations to project changes in global and regional  
85 TC activity (e.g. Lee et al. (2020); Fosu et al. (2024)), as well as to economic losses from  
86 landfalling TCs (Meiler et al., 2022; Baldwin et al., 2023). CHAZ is one of a class of sta-  
87 tistical–dynamical downscaling models (e.g. K. A. Emanuel et al. (2008); Lee et al. (2018);  
88 Bloemendaal et al. (2020); Jing and Lin (2020)), that synthesize large catalogs of phys-  
89 ically consistent synthetic TCs using environmental fields from CMIP-class models or  
90 reanalysis data sets. This approach generates the large event sets needed for probabilis-  
91 tic risk analysis, including rare extreme events (Meiler et al., 2022; Baldwin et al., 2023;  
92 Fosu et al., 2024; Hemmati et al., 2025; Meiler et al., 2026), at lower cost than regional  
93 dynamical downscaling (Knutson et al., 2013; Patricola et al., 2017; Fu et al., 2019) or  
94 variable-resolution GCMs (Zarzycki et al., 2014; Stansfield et al., 2020).

95 We extend the CHAZ-based analysis of North Atlantic TC risk of Fosu et al. (2024),  
96 who downscaled 12 CMIP6 models (Eyring et al., 2016) under the SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0,  
97 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios, by adding the low-emissions SSP1-2.6 scenario. This enables com-  
98 parison between the two extreme ends of the emissions spectrum (SSP1-2.6 and SSP5-  
99 8.5), and allows us to more fully explore the sensitivity of U.S. TC hazard risk to the  
100 degree of warming. For reference, end-of-century (2080-2100) global mean temperature  
101 change relative to the 1995-2014 baseline is expected to be in the range of  $1.23 \pm 0.83^\circ\text{C}$   
102 for SSP1-2.6 and  $3.99 \pm 1.59^\circ\text{C}$  for SSP5-8.5 (Riahi et al., 2017; Tebaldi et al., 2021).  
103 Our specific objectives are to: (1) project changes in North Atlantic TC genesis, tracks,  
104 and intensity; (2) quantify the evolving hazard of landfalling TCs to the U.S. coast; and  
105 (3) identify the factors that drive regional differences in projected North Atlantic TC  
106 risk. By linking projected North Atlantic TC activity to the spatial structure of envi-  
107 ronmental change in CMIP6 models, this study highlights the role of the pattern of warm-  
108 ing, rather than just its magnitude, in shaping future regional TC activity and hazard.

109 The paper is structured as follows. Section 2 describes the CHAZ model, the CMIP6  
110 data and bias correction, and the analysis methodology. In Section 3 we present our main  
111 finding as they relate to changes in landfalling frequency focused on the North Atlantic  
112 basin, followed by a discussion in Section 4 on the role of spatial patterns in the model's  
113 large scale environmental fields shape the emergent TC risks in the basin in both SSP  
114 scenarios.

## 2 Data and Methods

### 2.1 Downscaling CMIP6 Data with Columbia HAZard Model (CHAZ)

The Columbia HAZard model (CHAZ; (Lee et al., 2018)) is a statistical-dynamical downscaling model designed to establish a physical link between large-scale climate drivers of TC activity. Informed by background environmental forcing from climate model or observational reanalysis output, CHAZ is designed to simulate TC tracks, and consists of three distinct components that simulate storm genesis, track, and intensity.

The genesis component generates weak disturbances at a rate determined by environmental conditions, calculated using the Tropical Cyclone Genesis Index (TCGI) of Tippett et al. (2011) as modified by Camargo et al. (2014). The seeding rate,  $\mu_{MV}$ , is given by:

$$\mu_{MV} = \exp(b + b_{\eta}\eta_{850} + b_{MV}MV + b_{PI}PI + b_{Vshear}Vshear) \quad (1)$$

where the moisture variable ( $MV$ ) is either column relative humidity (CRH) or saturation deficit (SD), following (Lee et al., 2020). Note that we only discuss results from TCGI calculated using CRH in this study. The CRH version of CHAZ is the one that leads to increases in global TC frequency, thus greater hazard and risk; more importantly, our focus here is on the patterns of change, which are similar in the SD version, just with overall decreases. The coefficients  $b$  are constants,  $\eta_{850}$  is the 850 hPa absolute vorticity,  $PI$  is the potential intensity (Bister & Emanuel, 2002), and  $Vshear$  is the deep layer vertical wind shear (850–250 hPa), calculated as the magnitude of difference in vector winds between the two pressure levels.

The coefficients for the TCGI used in this study have been updated from (Lee et al., 2018) and are derived from a Poisson regression using environmental fields from the fifth generation of the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) global atmospheric reanalysis (ERA5) (Hersbach et al., 2020) over the period 1981–2010, as described in Camargo et al. (2025). For TCGI-CRH, the coefficients are  $b = -24.132$ ,  $b_{\eta} = 2.512$ ,  $b_{CRH} = 0.077$ ,  $b_{PI} = 0.062$ , and  $b_{Vshear} = -0.120$ . Further, following Camargo et al. (2025); Fosu et al. (2024), environmental predictors downscaled from CMIP6 (Eyring et al., 2016) used in the genesis component of the model, were bias-corrected by adjusting the monthly historical model climatology to match the ERA5 reanalysis climatology for the period 1981–2010, with the assumption of time-invariant biases applied to the CMIP6 future scenarios SSP1-2.6 and SSP5-8.5 (O’Neill et al., 2017) for years 2015 to 2100.

The track component of the model is based on a beta and advection model that moves storms via advection by a monthly mean environmental wind (defined as a weighted mean of a low-level [850 hPa] and an upper-tropospheric level [250 hPa]) along with a beta drift component (Emanuel et al., 2006), and a stochastic component based on eddy statistics to account for sub-monthly wind fluctuations. The intensity component is based on a multiple linear regression on key environmental parameters, with an auto-regressive stochastic error term to account for internal storm dynamics (Lee et al., 2015, 2016, 2018). A separate multiple linear regression model estimates intensity decay during and post-landfall (Lee et al., 2015, 2018). Since environmental predictors in the CHAZ’s intensity module are normalized by the model’s tropical mean, additional bias-correction as applied to TCGI predictors is not applied to the track and intensity predictor variables.

We downscaled CHAZ using output from 12 models that participated in CMIP6 (Eyring et al., 2016), as listed in Table 4. We utilized simulations from the historical scenario (HIST, 1951–2014; [from Fosu et al. (2024)]) and two future scenarios: the low-emissions scenario SSP1-2.6 (SSP126) and the high-emissions scenario SSP5-8.5 (SSP585) [from Fosu et al. (2024)] O’Neill et al. (2017), both covering the period 2015–2100. While the downscaling was performed globally, this analysis focuses exclusively on TC activity in the North Atlantic basin (ATL, 0–55°N, 100–20°W).

165 For each CMIP6 model and scenario (HIST, SSP126, SSP585), we downscaled a  
 166 single ensemble member as indicated in Table 1. For each of these runs, we applied 10  
 167 realizations of the random seeding process, each with 40 realizations of the stochastic  
 168 intensity model, generating 400 unique synthetic TC event sets per model and scenario.  
 169 This resulted in 25,600 synthetic years for the historical period (64 years  $\times$  400 combi-  
 170 nations) and 34,400 synthetic years for the future period (86 years  $\times$  400 combinations)  
 171 for each of the 12 models. For the North Atlantic basin, the historical period (1951-2014)  
 172 dataset consists of a total of 122474 storms, while the future (2015-2100) SSP1-2.6 and  
 173 SSP5-8.5 dataset contains 192048 and 189390 total storms respectively, a sample size nec-  
 174 essary for robust probabilistic risk assessment (Lin & Emanuel, 2016). The synthetic track  
 175 dataset include storm position (longitude, latitude) and maximum sustained wind speed  
 176 (kt) at six-hour intervals.

## 177 2.2 Estimating Changes to TC Landfall Hazard

178 To analyze landfall hazard, we defined seven landfall “gates” along the U.S. At-  
 179 lantic and Gulf coastlines (Supporting Information, Figure S1). The coastline data were  
 180 obtained from the Natural Earth physical vector dataset (Kelso & Patterson, 2010). A  
 181 landfall event was identified when a synthetic TC track intersected a coastline segment  
 182 within a defined gate.

183 To provide a compact representation of the typical tracks associated with landfalling  
 184 storms in each coastal gate, we construct an average composite track from tracks across  
 185 all models and track ensembles intersecting the defined coastal gate during the the his-  
 186 torical (1951-2014) simulation period (Figure 3, tan solid). For each storm that crosses  
 187 a given gate, the time of gate crossing is defined as  $t=0$ , and the corresponding storm  
 188 is retained for analysis. To characterize the typical approach pathway of the landfalling  
 189 storms for the respective gate, all TC trajectories are temporally aligned relative to their  
 190 individual gate-crossing time. The segment of the track extending backwards up to 10  
 191 days (a total of 40, 6-hourly time steps) prior to landfall is extracted for the storm. When  
 192 a storm’s lifetime does not span the full 10-day window, the available portion of the track  
 193 is retained and earlier times are padded, allowing all storms to contribute without im-  
 194 posing equal-length constraints. A 10-day composite average track is then constructed  
 195 by averaging storm positions at each relative time step across all storms. This then yields  
 196 a set of latitude–longitude points (composite track) that trace the most probable path-  
 197 way of storms contributing to landfall in that gate, capturing the central tendency of storm  
 198 motion associated with each gate and provides a useful diagnostic for comparing how en-  
 199 vironmental changes along these preferred pathways influence regional landfall risk (Fig-  
 200 ure 4, black solid). While previous studies have applied unsupervised learning techniques—such  
 201 as K-means clustering (Elsner, 2003), mass moments (Nakamura et al., 2009), or mix-  
 202 ture models (Kossin et al., 2010)—to classify tropical cyclone track pathways, these ap-  
 203 proaches are not required here. In our framework, the predefined coastal gates inherently  
 204 partition the track dataset, effectively delineating pathway groupings a priori. As a re-  
 205 sult, we directly compute composite-average landfall tracks for each gate, yielding an equiv-  
 206 alent classification without the need for additional clustering methods. .

207 Our analysis of the historical period focuses on the 1951–2014 era, while for future  
 208 projections (SSP1-2.6 and SSP5-8.5), we analyze three 20-year epochs: early-century (2030–2050),  
 209 mid-century (2060–2080), and late-century (2080–2100). To evaluate the model’s histor-  
 210 ical performance, we compared CHAZ downscaled data against the observed TC record  
 211 from the International Best Track Archive for Climate Stewardship (IBTrACS; (Knapp  
 212 et al., 2010, 2018)). We used version v04 of the dataset, which for the North Atlantic  
 213 basin uses tracks provided by National Hurricane Center.

214 To quantify the evolving TC hazard, we computed annual landfall frequencies and  
 215 return periods for different intensity thresholds at each gate based on the Saffir-Simpson

216 wind scale. The annual frequency of exceedance for a given landfall wind speed thresh-  
 217 old is the probability of one or more TCs making landfall with an intensity greater than  
 218 that threshold in a given year. The return period (in years) for wind speeds exceeding  
 219 this threshold is then calculated as the inverse of this annual exceedance probability (AEP)  
 220 for the corresponding gate.

221 We assess the change in hazard due to anthropogenic climate change using a “cli-  
 222 mate change delta” (cc-delta) approach (Fosu et al., 2024). The cc-delta for a specific  
 223 TC statistic (e.g., landfall frequency of major hurricanes) is calculated as the difference  
 224 between the future epoch mean and the historical period mean, normalized by the his-  
 225 torical mean to express a percentage change:

$$\text{cc-delta} = \frac{\bar{X}_{\text{future}} - \bar{X}_{\text{historical}}}{\bar{X}_{\text{historical}}} \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

226 The mean values are calculated across the 12-model ensemble, with each model repre-  
 227 sented by the mean of its 400 realizations. To assess statistical significance, we applied  
 228 a two-sided Student’s t-test to the ensemble of model means (n=12) for historical and  
 229 future periods, with a p-value of 0.05 serving as the significance threshold.

### 230 3 Results

#### 231 3.1 Changes to Landfalling TC Risk

232 Figure 1 shows the multi-model mean change in North Atlantic tropical cyclone  
 233 (TC) track density between the future (2015–2100) and historical (1951–2014) periods  
 234 for SSP1-2.6 and SSP5-8.5. While basin-scale changes are spatially heterogeneous, a co-  
 235 herent and persistent regional signal emerges along the U.S. coastline. In particular, TC  
 236 activity (including non-landfalling storms) decreases along much of the Gulf coastline,  
 237 including the Texas region, while increasing along the Southeastern U.S. coast under both  
 238 forcing scenarios. These patterns are evident throughout the 21st century and are am-  
 239 plified under the higher-emissions SSP5-8.5 scenario (Figure 1, Supporting Information  
 240 Figure S2).

241 Changes in landfalling TC frequency at the regional scale are quantified in Figure  
 242 2 using the Texas and Southeast coastal gates. Across all three future periods (near-term,  
 243 mid-century, and late century), the Texas gate exhibits a trend towards a reduction in  
 244 TC frequency relative to the historical baseline under both SSP1-2.6 and SSP5-8.5 (Fig-  
 245 ures 2a,b), with marginal increases in the near-term (2030-2050) to significant decline  
 246 across all storm categories especially in SSP5-8.5. The magnitude of the decrease grows  
 247 with time and is consistently larger under SSP5-8.5. Ensemble-mean return period curves  
 248 shift toward longer return periods for frequent events, indicating a reduced likelihood  
 249 of TC landfalls in the Texas region despite increasing inter-model spread (Figure 2e,f).

250 In contrast, the Southeast gate shows an increase in landfalling TC frequency un-  
 251 der both scenarios (Figure 2 c,d). This increase is detectable as early as the near-term  
 252 period (2030-2050) and strengthens toward the late 21st century (2080-2100), particu-  
 253 larly under SSP5-8.5. Ensemble-mean return periods slightly shorten relative to the his-  
 254 torical climate, implying an increased probability of TC landfalls along the Southeast  
 255 US coastline (Figure 2g,h). The opposing responses between the Texas and Southeast  
 256 gates persist across scenarios.

257 These contrasting regional responses indicate that future TC risk along the U.S.  
 258 coastline is neither spatially uniform, nor monotonically related to greenhouse gas forc-  
 259 ing. Instead, changes in landfall frequency depend strongly on location, with the Gulf  
 260 Coast and Southeast responding in opposite directions under both low- and high-emissions  
 261 pathways.

### 3.2 Basin-Scale Environmental Drivers of Regional TC Risk

To investigate the physical mechanisms underlying the contrasting regional landfall responses, Figures 3 and 4 examine basin-wide TC track behavior together with changes in the large-scale environmental fields that determine that behavior in CHAZ. Figure 3 shows the average TC track density for storms making landfall in the Texas and Southeast gates. Texas-landfalling storms preferentially originate and traverse the western Atlantic and Caribbean, while Southeast-landfalling storms are more strongly associated with genesis and propagation across the central and eastern Main Development Region (MDR) defined between 10°–20°N latitude, and 20°–85°W longitude. These distinct pathway differences suggest that regional landfall changes may be linked to spatially varying environmental conditions along the dominant storm tracks.

Here, we focus on basin-wide changes in late-century changes in potential intensity (PI) normalized by global mean temperature change, vertical wind shear (850–250 hPa), and steering flow for SSP1-2.6 and SSP5-8.5. Changes in PI are scaled by the corresponding change in global-mean surface air temperature ( $\Delta T$ ) to obtain a per-degree warming response. The change in global-mean surface air temperature is computed for each model as the area-weighted global-mean annual-mean surface air temperature, averaged over the future (here, 2080-2100) and historical (1951-2014) periods, and the differences between the two. Changes in PI are then normalized by  $\Delta T$  on a per-model basis to obtain  $dPI/dT$ , which is subsequently averaged across all models for each scenario. This PI pattern change in the Atlantic is very robust and present in multiple versions of CMIP (e.g. Vecchi and Soden (2007a); Camargo (2013); Ting et al. (2015); Sobel et al. (2016); Camargo et al. (2025)).

Across both scenarios, vertical wind shear increases over the western Atlantic, Gulf of Mexico, and Caribbean (western MDR), while weakening across portions of the central and eastern MDR (Figure 4 c,d). This pattern is known to be present across future scenarios in past and current CMIP versions (e.g. Vecchi and Soden (2007a); Camargo (2013); Sobel et al. (2016); Ting et al. (2019); Camargo et al. (2025)). The representative tracks for Texas-landfalling storms intersect regions of enhanced shear, whereas Southeast-landfalling tracks pass through regions of reduced shear. This spatial contrast is more pronounced under SSP5-8.5, consistent with the larger magnitude changes in landfall frequency seen in Figure 2. We find that the reduced deep-layer (850–250 hPa) vertical wind shear in the central MDR and western North Atlantic basin creates a more favorable dynamical environment for storms ultimately tracking towards the Southeast coast, increases landfalling TC risk in the Southeast preferentially towards stronger and more intense storm categories (Figure 2 c,d). Changes in PI exhibit a broadly positive signal across much of the tropical Atlantic, indicating an overall thermodynamic environment more favorable for TC intensification. PI increases are broadly distributed across the basin, with comparatively modest spatial structure, including a local minimum in the MDR in both SSPs (Figure 4a,b). While enhanced PI may support increased TC hazard in both the coastal regions of the Southeast and Texas, the shear signal is more directly consistent with the contrasting responses in landfall risk between the two regions (Figure 2 a,b versus c,d).

TC motion is largely governed by the surrounding deep-layer synoptic-scale flow structure (Chan & Gray, 1982; Holland, 1983; Chan, 2005). Regardless of the emission scenario considered here, we find that shifts in large-scale atmospheric steering winds alter storm tracks and forward speeds, ultimately leading to changes the landfall risk for different coastal regions. The projected changes in steering flow (Figure 4e,f) exhibit a coherent basin-scale pattern characterized by enhanced easterly flow across the tropical Atlantic and Caribbean. While the magnitude of the anomalies is more pronounced under SSP5-8.5, the overall structure in the vector winds is consistent between SSP1-2.6 and SSP5-8.5. The resulting steering anomalies in both direction and magnitude tend to favor storm propagation across the central MDR towards the western North

315 Atlantic basin and the Southeast U.S. coastline, while reducing the likelihood of west-  
 316 ward tracking storms to find favorable steering patterns within the western Caribbean  
 317 and Gulf of Mexico. In combination with the spatial distribution of vertical wind shear  
 318 and PI anomalies, these circulation changes reinforce the divergence in regional TC risk  
 319 between the two coastlines by influencing the movement and tracking of storms in the  
 320 basin (Figure 4c).

321 The combined PI and shear patterns resemble an El Niño-like response in the large-  
 322 scale climate system, characterized by increased vertical wind shear over the western At-  
 323 lantic and reduced shear across the central MDR (Gray, 1984; Goldenberg & Shapiro,  
 324 1996; Aiyer & Thorncroft, 2006; Vecchi & Soden, 2007b). Such a pattern is known to  
 325 suppress Atlantic TC activity in regions influenced by stronger shear while favoring ge-  
 326 nesis and intensification where shear is reduced (Gray, 1984; Patricola et al., 2014; Tang  
 327 & Neelin, 2004; Klotzbach, 2011; Rios-Berrios et al., 2024). In this framework, the El  
 328 Niño-like forced response preferentially enhances TC activity along Southeast-oriented  
 329 pathways while suppressing activity for storms tracking toward the Gulf Coast.

330 Together, these results indicate that forced changes in basin-scale environmental  
 331 fields—particularly vertical wind shear—play a central role in shaping the regional re-  
 332 distribution of landfalling TC risk. The persistence of these patterns across SSP1-2.6 and  
 333 SSP5-8.5 suggests that regional TC risk along the U.S. is more sensitive to large-scale  
 334 circulation changes than to the degree of global warming per se.

#### 335 4 Discussion and Conclusions

336 This study identifies a robust, forced redistribution of North Atlantic tropical cy-  
 337 clone landfall risk along the U.S. coastline under both low- and high-emissions scenar-  
 338 ios. Using simulations with a statistical-dynamical downscaling model driven by 12 Earth  
 339 system models from CMIP6 (Table 4), we find a consistent decrease in landfalling TC  
 340 frequency in the Gulf of Mexico, particularly the Texas coastline, alongside an increase  
 341 along the Southeastern U.S. coast (Figure 2 a-d). These opposing regional responses per-  
 342 sist across SSP1-2.6 and SSP5-8.5, differing primarily in magnitude rather than sign. This  
 343 indicates that mitigation pathway alone does not determine the spatial pattern of future  
 344 TC risk, underscoring the importance of regional-scale assessment for adaptation plan-  
 345 ning.

346 The contrasting landfall responses appear closely linked to basin-wide changes in  
 347 large-scale environmental conditions that influence TC genesis, intensification, and steer-  
 348 ing. In particular, changes in vertical wind shear emerge as a dominant factor shaping  
 349 regional outcomes. Storms that ultimately make landfall along the Southeast preferen-  
 350 tially traverse regions where vertical wind shear weakens in the future climate, enhanc-  
 351 ing TC favorability. In contrast, Texas- and Gulf Coast-bound storms encounter regions  
 352 of increased shear, which likely suppress TC development and survival. While potential  
 353 intensity generally increases across much of the tropical Atlantic, its spatial gradients  
 354 are comparatively weak and do not offset the strongly regional nature of the shear re-  
 355 sponse. While these basin-scale patterns of change in PI and vertical wind shear are con-  
 356 sistent with results from previous CMIP3 (Vecchi & Soden, 2007a, 2007b) and CMIP5  
 357 models (Camargo, 2013; Ting et al., 2015, 2019; Sobel et al., 2016), as well as CMIP6  
 358 models (Camargo et al., 2025), here we demonstrate their linkage to regional differences  
 359 in landfalling TC activity for the North Atlantic basin.

360 The spatial structure of the projected environmental changes over the Atlantic, par-  
 361 ticularly the increase in vertical shear over the western Atlantic, resembles those asso-  
 362 ciated with El Niño events. This suggests that these shear changes are associated with  
 363 the broadly El Niño-like pattern of change in the tropical Pacific SST trends in the mod-  
 364 els, characterized by weakened zonal SST gradients. On interannual timescales, the ver-

365 tical shear anomalies play an important role in modulating North Atlantic TC activity  
366 (Gray, 1984; Goldenberg & Shapiro, 1996; Klotzbach, 2011; Patricola et al., 2014; Smith  
367 et al., 2007; Pielke & Landsea, 1999; Kossin et al., 2010). Our results suggest that anal-  
368 ogous circulation changes arise as part of the forced climate response, effectively imprint-  
369 ing an El Niño-like trend onto the pattern of Atlantic TC activity. This pattern strength-  
370 ens with warming, such that TC hazard along the Gulf coast is more suppressed in SSP5-  
371 8.5 than in SSP1-2.6, even as TC hazard increases more in SSP5-8.5 than in SSP1-2.6  
372 along the Atlantic coast of the southeast US. Southeast-favoring storm tracks increas-  
373 ingly align with regions of reduced shear, while Gulf-oriented tracks encounter increased  
374 shear, producing the divergent landfall trends identified in this study.

375 Several limitations warrant consideration. Our analysis focuses on landfalling TC  
376 frequency rather than intensity, rainfall, or compound hazards, which may respond dif-  
377 ferently to environmental forcing. While the CHAZ framework captures key large-scale  
378 controls on TC activity, the robustness of the El-Niño-like mean-state response in CMIP6  
379 projections remains an active area of inquiry. Recent work highlights observed trends  
380 over the historical period that are more similar in pattern to La Niña than to El Niño,  
381 with cooling in the eastern Equatorial Pacific and strengthened zonal gradients, in strong  
382 contrast to simulations (Seager et al., 2019, 2022; Wills et al., 2022; Zhuo et al., 2025).  
383 Models also disagree in projected ENSO characteristics with no clear consensus on fu-  
384 ture changes in ENSO frequency, amplitude structure (e.g. C. Wang et al. (2017); Cai  
385 et al. (2021); Erickson and Patricola (2023); Zhuo et al. (2025)). Consequently, while the  
386 ENSO-like circulation pattern provides a useful dynamical framework for interpreting  
387 the environmental changes identified here, the degree to which the pattern of TC haz-  
388 ard identified in the simulations here will emerge in the real climate system remains highly  
389 uncertain. On the other hand, the broader conclusion is that the pattern of SST change  
390 is more important than the global mean warming to regional TC hazard and risk. This  
391 might well remain true even if the sign of the pattern change were reversed, and thus is,  
392 in our view, more likely to be a robust conclusion. Furthermore, the inferred *cc-delta* sig-  
393 nal depends on the baseline distribution of TC genesis and track pathways in the model.  
394 If the models exhibit specific regional biases which differ from the observed TC regional  
395 climatology, the resulting deltas could be biased too. While a bias-correction is applied  
396 to match the observed frequency of landfalling storms within each coastal gate, resid-  
397 ual biases in the spatial distribution of genesis and track pathways may still influence  
398 the magnitude of the projected changes.

399 These findings also highlight that future TC risk cannot be inferred solely from basin-  
400 wide metrics such as total TC frequency or mean intensity. Changes in large-scale cir-  
401 culation patterns can reorganize where storms preferentially form, intensify, and move,  
402 leading to persistent regional contrasts in landfall risk even when the overall basin re-  
403 sponse is muted or uncertain (Knutson et al., 2020; Sobel et al., 2021; Camargo et al.,  
404 2023). The persistence of the Gulf-Atlantic TC hazard contrast across emissions scenar-  
405 ios suggests that internal variability and regional circulation responses may exert a stronger  
406 control on future landfall risk than the magnitude of warming or emissions pathways alone.  
407 Future work should examine how internal climate variability, including from combined  
408 effects of ENSO and Atlantic Multi-decadal Oscillation and their modulation under warm-  
409 ing, may interact with the forced response identified here to influence decadal-scale fluc-  
410 tuations in regional TC risk.

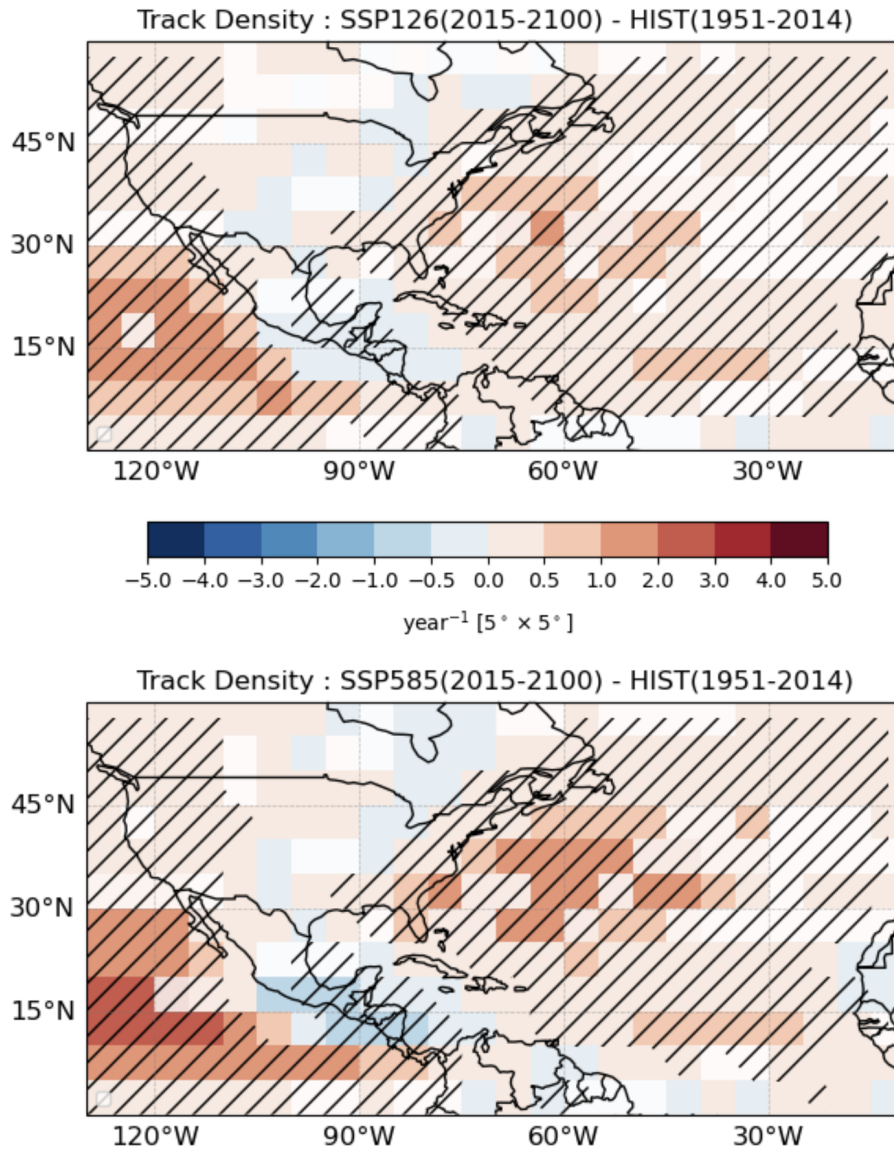
411 In summary, our results demonstrate that regional TC landfall risk along the U.S.  
412 coastline is highly sensitive to large-scale circulation changes under climate change. The  
413 opposing responses between the Gulf Coast and Southeast persist even under strong mit-  
414 igation, emphasizing that adaptation strategies must account for geographically specific  
415 risk trajectories rather than relying on basin-wide projections alone.

416 **Availability Statement**

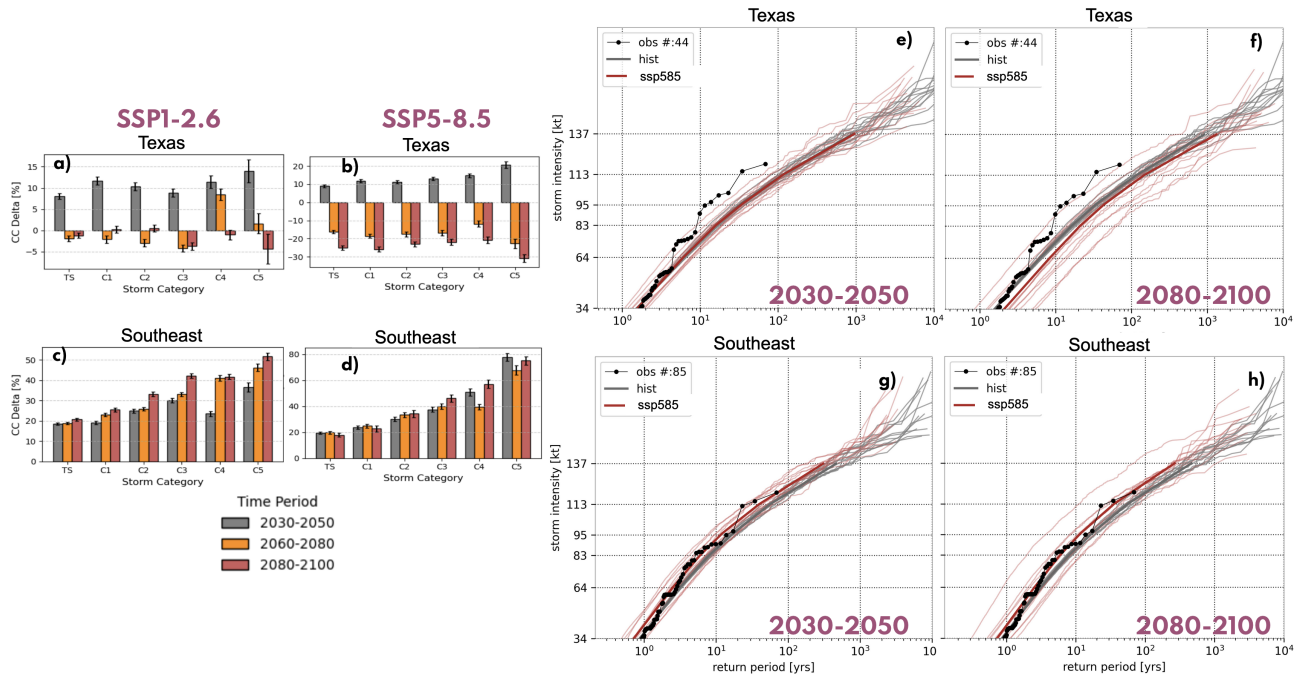
417 The IBTrACS dataset can be downloaded from [https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/products/](https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/products/international-best-track-archive)  
418 **international-best-track-archive**. The publicly available CMIP6 multi-model en-  
419 semble dataset was used in this paper. CMIP6 ensemble model outputs can be down-  
420 loaded from the different Earth System Grid Federation (ESGF) nodes. CHAZ is an open-  
421 source model and can be downloaded from <https://github.com/c13225/CHAZ>.

422 **Acknowledgments**

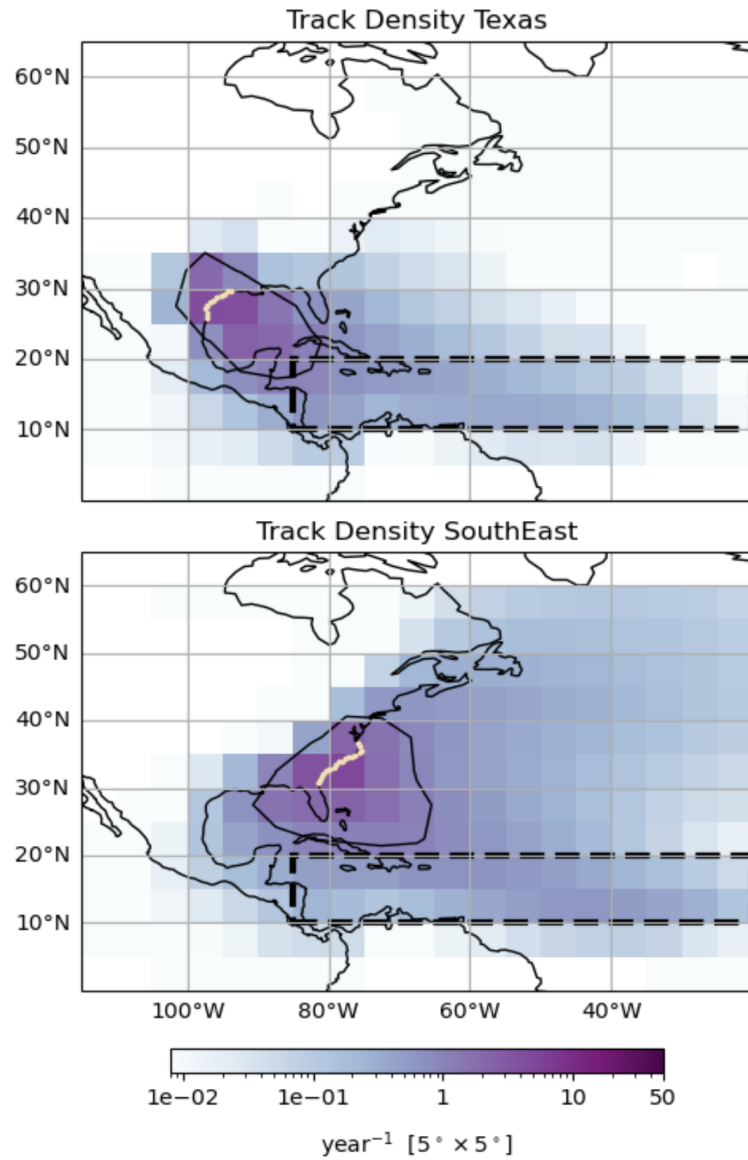
423 RL, AHS, SJC, and CYL acknowledge funding support for this work by Aon plc.



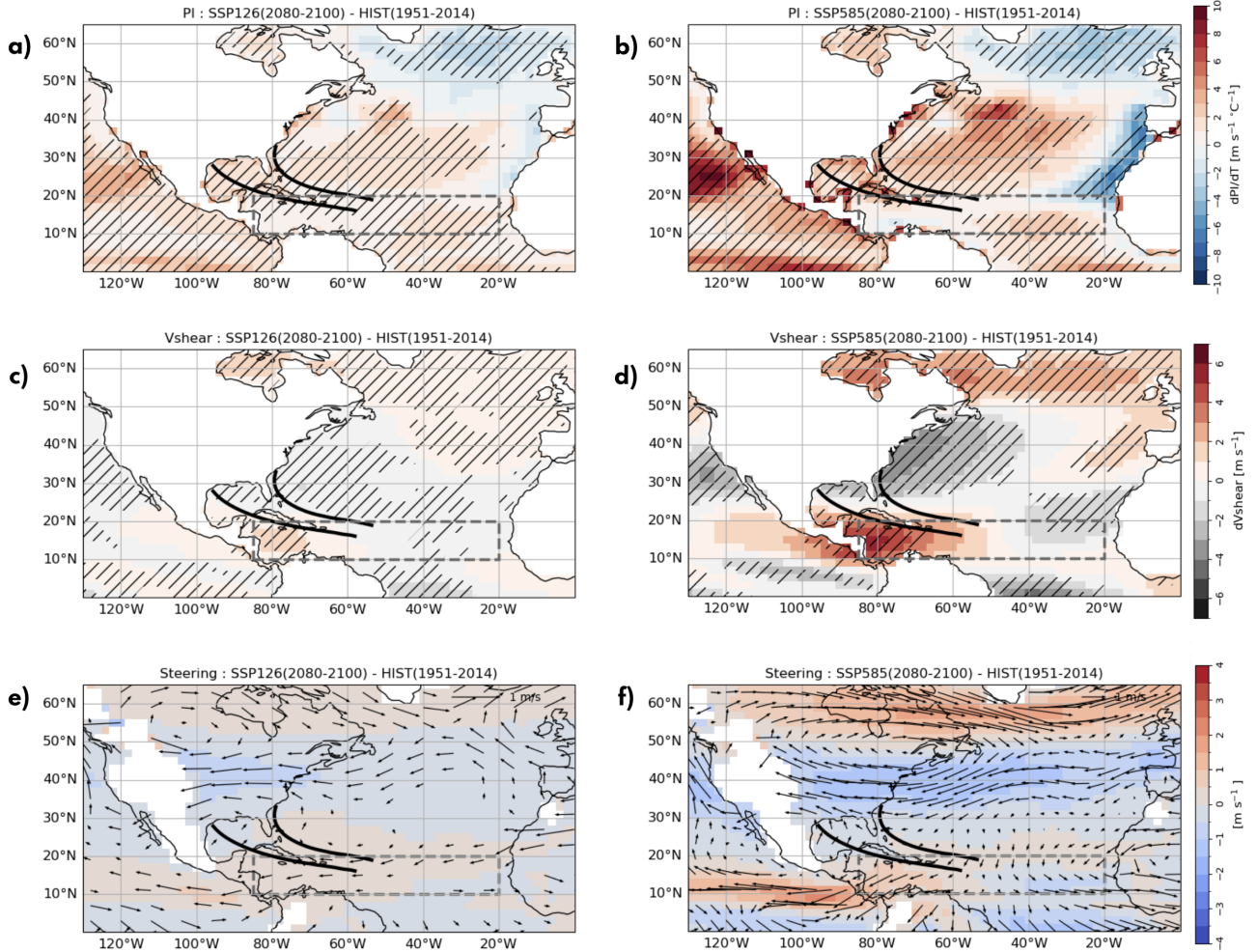
**Figure 1.** Multi-Model Mean of track density change in the North Atlantic, calculated between future (2015-2100) and historical (1951-2014) periods for SSP126 (top) and SSP 585 (bottom). The density changes are calculated from the 12 CMIP6 model outputs each with 10 track ensemble members (see Section 2). Stippling shows regions with statistically significant differences at  $p = 0.05$  based on a two-sided student's t-test from the 12-model, 10-track and 40-member intensity ensemble.



**Figure 2.** Change in TC frequency due to climate change (cc-delta) for SSP126 and SSP585 in the Texas (a,b) and Southeast Gates (c,d) for near-term (2030-2050), mid-century (2060-2080) and late century (2080-2100) time periods. Modeled return periods for the near-term and late century (thin red), historical period (thin gray) for SSP5-8.5 and IBTrACS observations (solid black), along with ensemble means (thick solid) calculated from each of the 12 CMIP6 models are shown for Texas (e,f) and Southeast (g,h) gates.



**Figure 3.** Average track density ( $\text{year}^{-1}$ ) computed on a  $5^\circ \times 5^\circ$  grid for tracks landfalling within the Texas (top) and SouthEast (bottom) gates calculated using the 12 CMIP6 model data simulated by CHAZ's, 10 seed and 40 ensemble-member track set for the historical period (1951-2014). The Atlantic MDR (dashed black), the location of the coastal gate (tan solid), and delineation for 1 storm per year (solid black contour) is shown for reference.



**Figure 4.** The multi-model mean difference between the late-century (2080-2100) and historical (1951-2014) time period for PI change per degree of warming ( $dPI\ dT^{-1}$ ) [a,b], 850-250 hPa vertical wind shear ( $m\ s^{-1}$ ) [c,d], and mean steering flow ( $m\ s^{-1}$ ) [e,f] for SSP1-2.6 and SSP5-8.5 (top and bottom respectively). Differences shown are calculated for August-October in the Northern Hemisphere. The average 10-day composite storm track for TCs landfalling within the Texas and Southeast gates, calculated 10 days prior to landfall using all storm tracks that made landfall within each gate (see Section 2.2) is also indicated (solid black), along with the Atlantic MDR (dashed black). Stippling indicates regions where at least 75% of models agree on the sign of the ensemble mean change.

**Table 1.** The CMIP6 models downscaled for SSP1-2.6 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios in the study.

Institution	Model	Downscaled member	Model Resolution	Reference
CSIRO	ACCESS-ESM1-5	r3i1p1f1	250 km	Ziehn et al. (2020)
NCAR	CESM2	r4i1p1f1	100 km	Danabasoglu et al. (2020)
CNRM & CERFACS	CNRM-CM6-1	r2i1p1f2	250 km	Voltaire et al. (2019)
EC-Earth Consortium	EC-Earth3	r1i1p1f1	100 km	Döscher et al. (2022)
NOAA-GFDL	GFDL-ESM4	r1i1p1f1	100 km	Dunne et al. (2020)
NASA-GISS	GISS-E2-1-G	r1i1p1f2	250 km	Kelley et al. (2020)
MOHC	HadGEM3-GC31-LL	r1i1p1f3	250 km	Williams et al. (2021)
IPSL	IPSL-CM6A-LR	r1i1p1f1	250 km	Boucher et al. (2020)
MIROC Consortium	MIROC6	r1i1p1f1	250 km	Tatebe et al. (2019)
Max Planck Institute	MPI-ESM1-2-HR	r1i1p1f1	100 km	Müller et al. (2018)
MRI	MRI-ESM-2-0	r1i1p1f1	100 km	Yukimoto et al. (2019)
UK Met Office	UKESM1-0-LL	r1i1p1f2	250 km	Sellar et al. (2019)

<sup>a</sup>All models are part of the CMIP6 ensemble.

## References

424

- 425 Aiyer, A., & Thorncroft, C. (2006). Climatology of vertical wind shear  
 426 over the tropical Atlantic. *Journal of Climate*, 19(12), 2969–2983. doi:  
 427 10.1175/JCLI3685.1
- 428 Baldwin, J. W., Lee, C.-Y., Walsh, B. J., Camargo, S. J., & Sobel, A. H. (2023).  
 429 Vulnerability in a tropical cyclone risk model: Philippines case study. *Weather,*  
 430 *Climate, and Society*, 15, 503–523. doi: 10.1175/WCAS-D-22-0049.1
- 431 Bengtsson, L., Botzet, M., & Esch, M. (1996). Will greenhouse gas-induced  
 432 warming over the next 50 years lead to higher frequency and greater inten-  
 433 sity of hurricanes? *Tellus A*, 48(1), 57-73. doi: https://doi.org/10.1034/  
 434 j.1600-0870.1996.00004.x
- 435 Bister, M., & Emanuel, K. A. (2002). Low frequency variability of tropical cyclone  
 436 potential intensity 1. interannual to interdecadal variability. *Journal of Geo-*  
 437 *physical Research: Atmospheres*, 107(D22), 4621. doi: 10.1029/2001JD000780
- 438 Bloemendaal, N., Haigh, I. D., de Moel, H., Muis, S., Haarsma, R. J., & Aerts,  
 439 J. C. J. H. (2020). Generation of a global synthetic tropical cyclone  
 440 hazard dataset using STORM. *Scientific Data*, 7, 40. doi: 10.1038/  
 441 s41597-020-0381-2
- 442 Boucher, O., et al. (2020). Presentation and evaluation of the IPSL-CM6A-  
 443 LR climate model. *Journal of Advances in Modeling Earth Systems*, 12,  
 444 e2019MS002010. doi: 10.1029/2019MS002010
- 445 Broccoli, A. J., & Manabe, S. (1990). Can existing climate models be used to study  
 446 anthropogenic changes in tropical cyclone climate? *Geophysical Research Let-*  
 447 *ters*, 17(11), 1917-1920. doi: https://doi.org/10.1029/GL017i011p01917
- 448 Cai, W., Santoso, A., Collins, M., Dewitte, B., Karamperidou, C., Kug, J.-S., ...  
 449 Zhong, W. (2021, September). Changing El Niño–Southern Oscillation in  
 450 a warming climate. *Nature Reviews Earth and Environment*, 2(9), 628–644.  
 451 (Published online: 17 August 2021) doi: 10.1038/s43017-021-00199-z
- 452 Camargo, S. J. (2013). Global and regional aspects of tropical cyclone activity in the  
 453 CMIP5 models. *Journal of Climate*, 26, 9880–9902. doi: 10.1175/JCLI-D-12-  
 454 -00549.1
- 455 Camargo, S. J., et al. (2023). An update on the influence of natural climate variabil-  
 456 ity and anthropogenic climate change on tropical cyclones. *Tropical Cyclone*  
 457 *Research and Review*, 12, 216–239. doi: 10.1016/j.tcr.2023.10.001

- 458 Camargo, S. J., Robertson, A. W., Gaffney, S. J., Smyth, P., & Ghil, M. (2007,  
459 July 15). Cluster analysis of typhoon tracks. Part I: General properties. *Jour-*  
460 *nal of Climate*, *20*(14), 3635–3653. (Print publication: 15 July 2007) doi:  
461 10.1175/JCLI4188.1
- 462 Camargo, S. J., Sobel, A. H., Barnston, A. G., & Emanuel, K. A. (2007). Tropical  
463 cyclone genesis potential index in climate models. *Tellus A*, *59*, 428–443. doi:  
464 10.1111/j.1600-0870.2007.00238.x
- 465 Camargo, S. J., Tippett, M. K., Sobel, A. H., Lee, C.-Y., Fosu, B., & Hodges, K. I.  
466 (2025). Tropical cyclones and associated environmental fields in CMIP6 mod-  
467 els. *Journal of Climate*, *38*, 3877–3902. doi: 10.1175/JCLI-D-24-0629.1
- 468 Camargo, S. J., Tippett, M. K., Sobel, A. H., Vecchi, G. A., & Zhao, M. (2014).  
469 Testing the performance of tropical cyclone genesis indices in future cli-  
470 mates using the HIRAM model. *Journal of Climate*, *27*, 9171–9196. doi:  
471 10.1175/JCLI-D-13-00505.1
- 472 Chan, J. C. L. (2005). The physics of tropical cyclone motion. *Annual Review of*  
473 *Fluid Mechanics*, *37*, 99–128. doi: 10.1146/annurev.fluid.37.061903.175702
- 474 Chan, J. C. L., & Gray, W. M. (1982, October 1). Tropical cyclone movement and  
475 surrounding flow relationships. *Monthly Weather Review*, *110*(10), 1354–1374.  
476 (Print publication: 1 October 1982) doi: 10.1175/1520-0493(1982)110<1354:  
477 TCMASF>2.0.CO;2
- 478 Chavas, D. R., Camargo, S. J., & Tippett, M. K. (2025). Tropical cyclone genesis  
479 potential using a ventilated potential intensity. *Journal of Climate*, *38*, 1667–  
480 1689. doi: 10.1175/JCLI-D-24-0186.1
- 481 Colbert, A. J., Soden, B. J., Vecchi, G. A., & Kirtman, B. P. (2013). The impact of  
482 anthropogenic climate change on North Atlantic tropical cyclone tracks. *Jour-*  
483 *nal of Climate*, *26*(12), 4088–4104.
- 484 Daloz, A. S., et al. (2015). Cluster analysis of downscaled and explicitly simulated  
485 North Atlantic tropical cyclone tracks. *Journal of Climate*, *28*(4), 1333–1361.  
486 doi: 10.1175/JCLI-D-13-00646.1
- 487 Danabasoglu, G., et al. (2020). The community earth system model ver-  
488 sion 2 (CESM2). *Journal of Advances in Modeling Earth Systems*, *12*,  
489 e2019MS001916.
- 490 Dunne, J. P., et al. (2020). The GFDL earth system model version 4.1 (GFDL-  
491 ESM 4.1): Overall coupled model description and simulation characteristics.  
492 *Journal of Advances in Modeling Earth Systems*, *12*, e2019MS002015. doi:  
493 10.1029/2019MS002015
- 494 Döscher, R., et al. (2022). The EC-Earth3 earth system model for the coupled model  
495 intercomparison project 6. *Geoscientific Model Development*, *15*, 2973–3020.  
496 doi: 10.5194/gmd-15-2973-2022
- 497 Elsner, J. B. (2003). Tracking hurricanes. *Bulletin of the American Meteorological*  
498 *Society*, *84*(3), 353–356. doi: 10.1175/BAMS-84-3-353
- 499 Emanuel. (1987). The dependence of hurricane intensity on climate. *Nature*, *326*,  
500 483–485. doi: 10.1038/326483a0
- 501 Emanuel, Ravela, S., Vivant, E., & Risi, C. (2006). A statistical deterministic ap-  
502 proach to hurricane risk assessment. *Bulletin of the American Meteorological*  
503 *Society*, *87*(3), 299–314. Retrieved from [https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-87-](https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-87-3-299)  
504 [-3-299](https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-87-3-299) doi: 10.1175/BAMS-87-3-299
- 505 Emanuel, K. A. (2013). Downscaling CMIP5 climate models shows increased tropi-  
506 cal cyclone activity over the 21st century. *Proceedings of the National Academy*  
507 *of Sciences*, *110*, 12219–12224. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1301293110
- 508 Emanuel, K. A., Sundararajan, R., & Williams, J. (2008). Hurricanes and global  
509 warming: Results from downscaling IPCC AR4 simulations. *Bulletin of the*  
510 *American Meteorological Society*, *89*, 347–367. doi: 10.1175/BAMS-89-3-347
- 511 Erickson, N. E., & Patricola, C. M. (2023, February 16). Future projections of the  
512 El Niño–Southern Oscillation and Tropical Pacific mean state in CMIP6. *Jour-*

- 513 *nal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 128(3), e2022JD037563. (Article  
514 e2022JD037563) doi: 10.1029/2022JD037563
- 515 Eyring, V., Bony, S., Meehl, G. A., Senior, C. A., Stevens, B., Stouffer, R. J., &  
516 Taylor, K. E. (2016). Overview of the coupled model intercomparison project  
517 phase 6 (CMIP6) experimental design and organization. *Geoscientific Model*  
518 *Development*, 9, 1937–1958. doi: 10.5194/gmd-9-1937-2016
- 519 Fosu, B. O., et al. (2024). Assessing future tropical cyclone risk using downscaled  
520 CMIP6 projections. *Journal of Catastrophe Risk and Resilience*, 2024(2), 1.  
521 doi: 10.63024/dpva-2pa1
- 522 Fu, D., Chang, P., Patricola, C. M., & Saravanan, R. (2019). High-resolution  
523 tropical channel model simulations of tropical cyclone climatology and  
524 intraseasonal-to-interannual variability. *Journal of Climate*, 32, 7871–7895.  
525 doi: 10.1175/JCLI-D-19-0130.1
- 526 Goldenberg, S. B., & Shapiro, L. J. (1996). Physical mechanisms for the as-  
527 sociation of El Niño and west african rainfall with atlantic major hur-  
528 ricane activity. *Journal of Climate*, 9(6), 1169–1187. Retrieved from  
529 [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442\(1996\)009<1169:PMFTAO>2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442(1996)009<1169:PMFTAO>2.0.CO;2)  
530 doi: 10.1175/1520-0442(1996)009(1169:PMFTAO)2.0.CO;2
- 531 Gray, W. M. (1968, October 1). Global view of the origin of tropical disturbances  
532 and storms. *Monthly Weather Review*, 96(10), 669–700. (Print publication: 1  
533 October 1968) doi: 10.1175/1520-0493(1968)096(0669:GVOTOO)2.0.CO;2
- 534 Gray, W. M. (1984). Atlantic seasonal hurricane frequency. Part I: El Niño and  
535 30 mb quasi-biennial oscillation influences. *Monthly Weather Review*, 112(9),  
536 1649–1668. doi: 10.1175/1520-0493(1984)112(1649:ASHFPI)2.0.CO;2
- 537 Hemmati, M., Lee, C.-Y., Mandli, K. T., Sobel, A. H., Camargo, S. J., & Sustiel, J.  
538 (2025, October 6). Assessment of Caribbean coastal hazard posed by tropical  
539 cyclones. *Journal of Applied Meteorology and Climatology*, 64(11), 1681–1694.  
540 doi: 10.1175/JAMC-D-24-0123.1
- 541 Hersbach, H., et al. (2020). The ERA5 global reanalysis. *Quarterly Journal of the*  
542 *Royal Meteorological Society*, 146, 1999–2049. doi: 10.1002/qj.3803
- 543 Holland, G. J. (1983). Tropical cyclone motion: Environmental interaction plus  
544 a beta effect. *Journal of the Atmospheric Sciences*, 40(2), 328–342. doi: 10  
545 .1175/1520-0469(1983)040(0328:TCMEIP)2.0.CO;2
- 546 Jewson, S. (2024). Projecting future tropical cyclone frequencies by combining  
547 uncertain empirical estimates of baseline frequencies with climate model es-  
548 timates of change. *Journal of Catastrophe Risk and Resilience*, 02(3). doi:  
549 10.63024/m9wk-3420
- 550 Jing, R., & Lin, N. (2020). An environment-dependent probabilistic tropical  
551 cyclone model. *Journal of Advances in Modeling Earth Systems*, 12(4),  
552 e2019MS001975. doi: 10.1029/2019MS001975
- 553 Jones, C. G., & Thorncroft, C. D. (1998). The rôle of el niño in atlantic trop-  
554 ical cyclone activity. *Weather*, 53(9), 324–336. Retrieved from [https://](https://rmets.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/j.1477-8696.1998.tb06409.x)  
555 [rmets.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/j.1477-8696.1998](https://rmets.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/j.1477-8696.1998.tb06409.x)  
556 [.tb06409.x](https://rmets.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/j.1477-8696.1998.tb06409.x) doi: <https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1477-8696.1998.tb06409.x>
- 557 Kelley, M., et al. (2020). GISS-E2.1: Configurations and climatology. *Jour-*  
558 *nal of Advances in Modeling Earth Systems*, 12, e2019MS002025. doi:  
559 10.1029/2019MS002025
- 560 Kelso, N. V., & Patterson, T. (2010). Introducing natural earth data-  
561 naturalearthdata.com. *Geographia Technica*, 5, 82–89.
- 562 Klotzbach, P. J. (2011). The influence of El Niño–Southern Oscillation and the  
563 Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation on Caribbean tropical cyclone activity. *Jour-*  
564 *nal of Climate*, 24(3), 721–731. Retrieved from [https://doi.org/10.1175/](https://doi.org/10.1175/2010JCLI3705.1)  
565 [2010JCLI3705.1](https://doi.org/10.1175/2010JCLI3705.1) doi: 10.1175/2010JCLI3705.1
- 566 Knapp, K. R., Diamond, H. J., Kossin, J. P., Kruk, M. C., & Schreck, C. J. I.  
567 (2018). International best track archive for climate stewardship (IBTrACS)

- 568 project, version 4.  
 569 (Accessed 16 July 2024) doi: 10.25921/82TY-9E16
- 570 Knapp, K. R., Kruk, M. C., Levinson, D. H., Diamond, H. J., & Neumann, C. J.  
 571 (2010). The international best track archive for climate stewardship (IB-  
 572 TrACS): Unifying tropical cyclone data. *Bulletin of the American Meteorologi-  
 573 cal Society*, *91*, 363–376. doi: 10.1175/2009BAMS2755.1
- 574 Knutson, T. R., Camargo, S. J., Chan, J. C. L., Emanuel, K., Ho, C.-H., Kossin, J.,  
 575 ... Wu, L. (2020). Tropical cyclones and climate change assessment: Part  
 576 II: Projected response to anthropogenic warming. *Bulletin of the American  
 577 Meteorological Society*, *101*, E303–E322. doi: 10.1175/BAMS-D-18-0194.1
- 578 Knutson, T. R., McBride, J., & Chan, J. (2010). Tropical cyclones and climate  
 579 change. *Nature Geoscience*, *3*, 157–163. doi: 10.1038/ngeo779
- 580 Knutson, T. R., Sirutis, J. J., Vecchi, G. A., Garner, S., Zhao, M., Kim, H.-S., ...  
 581 Villarini, G. (2013). Dynamical downscaling projections of twenty-first-century  
 582 atlantic hurricane activity: CMIP3 and CMIP5 model-based scenarios. *Journal  
 583 of Climate*, *26*(17), 6591–6617. doi: 10.1175/JCLI-D-12-00539.1
- 584 Knutson, T. R., Sirutis, J. J., Zhao, M., Tuleya, R. E., Bender, M., Vecchi, G. A.,  
 585 ... Chavas, D. (2015, September 11). Global projections of intense tropical cy-  
 586 clone activity for the late twenty-first century from dynamical downscaling of  
 587 CMIP5/RCP4.5 scenarios. *Journal of Climate*, *28*(18), 7203–7224. (Published  
 588 online: 11 September 2015) doi: 10.1175/JCLI-D-15-0129.1
- 589 Kossin, J. P., Camargo, S. J., & Sitkowski, M. (2010). Climate modulation of North  
 590 Atlantic hurricane tracks. *Journal of Climate*, *23*, 3057–3076. doi: 10.1175/  
 591 2010JCLI3497.1
- 592 Landsea, C. W., Pielke, R. A., Mestas-Nuñez, A. M., & Knaff, J. A. (1999, May).  
 593 Atlantic basin hurricanes: Indices of climatic changes. *Climatic Change*, *42*(1),  
 594 89–129. (Published: 25 May 1999) doi: 10.1023/A:1005416332322
- 595 Lee, Camargo, S. J., Sobel, A. H., & Tippett, M. K. (2020). Statistical-dynamical  
 596 downscaling projections of tropical cyclone activity in a warming climate:  
 597 Two diverging genesis scenarios. *Journal of Climate*, *33*, 4815–4834. doi:  
 598 10.1175/JCLI-D-19-0452.1
- 599 Lee, Tippett, M. K., Camargo, S. J., & Sobel, A. H. (2015). Probabilistic multiple  
 600 linear regression modeling for tropical cyclone intensity. *Monthly Weather Re-  
 601 view*, *143*, 933–954. doi: 10.1175/MWR-D-14-00171.1
- 602 Lee, Tippett, M. K., Sobel, A. H., & Camargo, S. J. (2016). Autoregressive mod-  
 603 eling for tropical cyclone intensity climatology. *Journal of Climate*, *29*, 7815–  
 604 7830. doi: 10.1175/JCLI-D-15-0909.1
- 605 Lee, Tippett, M. K., Sobel, A. H., & Camargo, S. J. (2018). An environmentally  
 606 forced tropical cyclone hazard model. *Journal of Advances in Modeling Earth  
 607 Systems*, *10*, 223–241. doi: 10.1002/2017MS001186
- 608 Lin, N., & Emanuel, K. (2016, January). Grey swan tropical cyclones. *Nature  
 609 Climate Change*, *6*, 106–111. Retrieved from [https://doi.org/10.1038/  
 610 nclimate2777](https://doi.org/10.1038/nclimate2777) doi: 10.1038/nclimate2777
- 611 Meiler, S., Lee, C.-Y., Camargo, S. J., et al. (2026). Global coastal wind hazard  
 612 maps from the CHAZ tropical cyclone model. *Scientific Data*, *13*(1), 136. (Ar-  
 613 ticle number 136) doi: 10.1038/s41597-025-06452-0
- 614 Meiler, S., Vogt, T., Bloemendaal, N., Ciullo, A., Lee, C.-Y., Camargo, S. J., ...  
 615 Bresch, D. N. (2022). Intercomparison of regional loss estimates from global  
 616 synthetic tropical cyclone models. *Nature Communications*, *13*, 6156. doi:  
 617 10.1038/s41467-022-33918-1
- 618 Murakami, H., & Wang, B. (2010). Future change of North Atlantic tropical cyclone  
 619 tracks: Projection by a 20-km-mesh global atmospheric model. *Journal of Cli-  
 620 mate*, *23*(10), 2699–2721. doi: 10.1175/2010JCLI3338.1
- 621 Müller, W. A., et al. (2018). A higher-resolution version of the Max Planck Insti-  
 622 tute earth system model (MPI-ESM1.2-HR). *Journal of Advances in Modeling*

- 623 *Earth Systems*, 10, 1383–1413. doi: 10.1029/2017MS001217
- 624 Nakamura, J., Camargo, S. J., Sobel, A. H., Emanuel, K. A., Kumar, A., LaRow,  
625 T. E., et al. (2017). Western North Pacific tropical cyclone model tracks in  
626 present and future climates. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*,  
627 122, 9721–9744. doi: 10.1002/2017JD027007
- 628 Nakamura, J., Lall, U., Kushnir, Y., & Camargo, S. J. (2009). Classifying North  
629 Atlantic tropical cyclone tracks by their mass moments. *Journal of Climate*,  
630 22(20), 5481–5494. doi: 10.1175/2009JCLI2839.1
- 631 O’Neill, B. C., Kriegler, E., Ebi, K. L., Kemp-Benedict, E., Riahi, K., Roth-  
632 man, D. S., ... Solecki, W. (2017). The roads ahead: Narratives for  
633 shared socioeconomic pathways describing world futures in the 21st cen-  
634 tury. *Global Environmental Change*, 42, 169–180. Retrieved from [https://](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0959378015000060)  
635 [www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0959378015000060](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0959378015000060) doi:  
636 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2015.01.004>
- 637 Patricola, C. M., Saravanan, R., & Chang, P. (2014). The impact of the El  
638 Niño–Southern Oscillation and Atlantic Meridional Mode on seasonal at-  
639 lantic tropical cyclone activity. *Journal of Climate*, 27, 5311–5328. doi:  
640 10.1175/JCLI-D-13-00687.1
- 641 Patricola, C. M., Saravanan, R., & Chang, P. (2017). A teleconnection be-  
642 tween atlantic sea surface temperature and eastern and central North Pa-  
643 cific tropical cyclones. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 44, 1167–1174. doi:  
644 10.1002/2016GL071965
- 645 Pielke, R. A., & Landsea, C. N. (1999). La Niña, El Niño, and Atlantic Hur-  
646 ricane Damages in the United States. *Bulletin of the American Meteoro-*  
647 *logical Society*, 80(10), 2027–2034. Retrieved from [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0477(1999)080<2027:LNAENO>2.0.CO;2)  
648 [10.1175/1520-0477\(1999\)080<2027:LNAENO>2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0477(1999)080<2027:LNAENO>2.0.CO;2) (Corrected  
649 journal title from "Bulletin America Meteorology Social") doi: 10.1175/  
650 1520-0477(1999)080<2027:LNAENO>2.0.CO;2
- 651 Riahi, K., van Vuuren, D. P., Kriegler, E., Edmonds, J., O’Neill, B. C., Fujimori,  
652 S., ... Tavoni, M. (2017). The shared socioeconomic pathways and their  
653 energy, land use, and greenhouse gas emissions implications: An overview.  
654 *Global Environmental Change*, 42, 153–168. Retrieved from [https://](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0959378016300681)  
655 [www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0959378016300681](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0959378016300681) doi:  
656 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2016.05.009>
- 657 Rios-Berrios, R., Finocchio, P. M., Alland, J. J., Chen, X., Fischer, M. S., Steven-  
658 son, S. N., & Tao, D. (2024). A review of the interactions between tropical  
659 cyclones and environmental vertical wind shear. *Journal of the Atmospheric*  
660 *Sciences*, 81(4), 713–741. doi: 10.1175/JAS-D-23-0022.1
- 661 Saunders, M. A., Chandler, R. E., Merchant, C. J., & Roberts, F. P. (2000). At-  
662 lantic hurricanes and NW pacific typhoons: ENSO spatial impacts on occur-  
663 rence and landfall. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 27(8), 1147–1150. doi:  
664 10.1029/1999GL010948
- 665 Seager, R., Cane, M., Henderson, N., Lee, D.-E., Abernathey, R., & Zhang, H.  
666 (2019). Strengthening Tropical Pacific zonal sea surface temperature gradient  
667 consistent with rising greenhouse gases. *Nature Climate Change*, 9, 517–522.  
668 doi: 10.1038/s41558-019-0505-x
- 669 Seager, R., Henderson, N., & Cane, M. (2022). Persistent discrepancies between ob-  
670 served and modeled trends in the Tropical Pacific ocean. *Journal of Climate*,  
671 35, 4571–4584. doi: 10.1175/JCLI-D-21-0648.1
- 672 Sellar, A. A., et al. (2019). UKESM1: Description and evaluation of the u.k. earth  
673 system model. *Journal of Advances in Modeling Earth Systems*, 11, 4513–  
674 4558. doi: 10.1029/2019MS001739
- 675 Smith, S. R., Brolley, J., O’Brien, J. J., & Tartaglione, C. A. (2007). ENSO’s impact  
676 on regional U.S. hurricane activity. *Journal of Climate*, 20(7), 1404–1414. doi:  
677 10.1175/JCLI4063.1

- 678 Sobel, A. H., Camargo, S. J., Hall, T. M., Lee, C.-Y., Tippett, M. K., & Wing,  
679 A. A. (2016). Human influence on tropical cyclone intensity. *Science*, *353*,  
680 242–246. doi: 10.1126/science.aaf6574
- 681 Sobel, A. H., Wing, A. A., Camargo, S. J., Patricola, C. M., Vecchi, G. A., Lee,  
682 C.-Y., & Tippett, M. K. (2021). Tropical cyclone frequency. *Earth's Future*,  
683 *9*(12), e2021EF002275. doi: 10.1029/2021EF002275
- 684 Stansfield, A. M., Reed, K. A., & Zarzycki, C. M. (2020). Changes in precipitation  
685 from North Atlantic tropical cyclones under RCP scenarios in the variable-  
686 resolution Community Atmosphere Model. *Geophysical Research Letters*,  
687 *47*(4), e2019GL086930. doi: 10.1029/2019GL086930
- 688 Tang, B. H., & Neelin, J. D. (2004). ENSO influence on atlantic hurricanes via tropo-  
689 spheric warming. *Geophysical Research Letters*, *31*(24), L24204. doi: 10  
690 .1029/2004GL021072
- 691 Tatebe, H., et al. (2019). Description and basic evaluation of simulated mean state,  
692 internal variability, and climate sensitivity in MIROC6. *Geoscientific Model*  
693 *Development*, *12*, 2727–2765. doi: 10.5194/gmd-12-2727-2019
- 694 Tebaldi, C., et al. (2021). Climate model projections from the scenario model inter-  
695 comparison project (ScenarioMIP) of CMIP6. *Earth System Dynamics*, *12*,  
696 253–293. doi: 10.5194/esd-12-253-2021
- 697 Ting, M., Camargo, S. J., Li, C., & Kushnir, Y. (2015, May 15). Natural and forced  
698 North Atlantic hurricane potential intensity change in CMIP5 models. *Journal*  
699 *of Climate*, *28*(10), 3926–3942. doi: 10.1175/JCLI-D-14-00520.1
- 700 Ting, M., Kossin, J. P., Camargo, S. J., & Li, C. (2019). Past and future hurricane  
701 intensity change along the U.S. East Coast. *Scientific Reports*, *9*, 7795. doi: 10  
702 .1038/s41598-019-44252-w
- 703 Tippett, M. K., Camargo, S. J., & Sobel, A. H. (2011). A poisson regression in-  
704 dex for tropical cyclone genesis and the role of large-scale vorticity in genesis.  
705 *Journal of Climate*, *24*, 2335–2357. doi: 10.1175/2010JCLI3811.1
- 706 Vecchi, G. A., Delworth, T. L., Murakami, H., Underwood, S. D., Wittenberg, A. T.,  
707 Zeng, F., . . . Yang, X. (2019, November). Tropical cyclone sensitivities to CO2  
708 doubling: Roles of atmospheric resolution, synoptic variability and background  
709 climate changes. *Climate Dynamics*, *53*(9), 5999–6033. (Published: 12 August  
710 2019) doi: 10.1007/s00382-019-04913-y
- 711 Vecchi, G. A., & Soden, B. J. (2007a). Effect of remote sea surface temperature  
712 change on tropical cyclone potential intensity. *Nature*, *450*, 1066–1070. doi: 10  
713 .1038/nature06423
- 714 Vecchi, G. A., & Soden, B. J. (2007b). Increased Tropical Atlantic wind shear in  
715 model projections of global warming. *Geophysical Research Letters*, *34*(8),  
716 L08702. doi: 10.1029/2006GL028905
- 717 Voldoire, A., et al. (2019). Evaluation of CMIP6 DECK experiments with CNRM-  
718 CM6-1. *Journal of Advances in Modeling Earth Systems*, *11*, 2177–2213. doi:  
719 10.1029/2019MS001683
- 720 Walsh, K. J. E., et al. (2016). Tropical cyclones and climate change. *Wiley Interdis-*  
721 *ciplinary Reviews: Climate Change*, *7*, 65–89. doi: 10.1002/wcc.371
- 722 Wang, B., & Chan, J. C. L. (2002). How strong ENSO events affect tropical storm  
723 activity over the Western North Pacific. *Journal of Climate*, *15*, 1643–1658.  
724 doi: 10.1175/1520-0442(2002)015(1643:HSEEAT)2.0.CO;2
- 725 Wang, C., Deser, C., Yu, J.-Y., DiNezio, P., & Clement, A. (2017). El Niño and  
726 southern oscillation (ENSO): A review. In P. W. Glynn, D. P. Manzello,  
727 & I. C. Enochs (Eds.), *Coral reefs of the eastern tropical pacific* (Vol. 8, pp.  
728 85–106). Springer. doi: 10.1007/978-94-017-7499-4\_4
- 729 Williams, C. J. R., et al. (2021). Simulation of the mid-pliocene warm pe-  
730 riod using HadGEM3: Experimental design and results from model–model  
731 and model–data comparison. *Climate of the Past*, *17*, 2139–2163. doi:  
732 10.5194/cp-17-2139-2021

- 733 Wills, R. C. J., Dong, Y., Proistosescu, C., Armour, K. C., & Battisti, D. S.  
734 (2022). Systematic climate model biases in the large-scale patterns of re-  
735 cent sea-surface temperature and sea-level pressure change. *Geophysical*  
736 *Research Letters*, *49*(17), e2022GL100011. (Article e2022GL100011) doi:  
737 10.1029/2022GL100011
- 738 Yokoi, S., Takayabu, Y. N., & Murakami, H. (2013, June 15). Attribution of pro-  
739 jected future changes in tropical cyclone passage frequency over the Western  
740 North Pacific. *Journal of Climate*, *26*(12), 4096–4111. (Published: 15 June  
741 2013) doi: 10.1175/JCLI-D-12-00218.1
- 742 Yoshida, K., Sugi, M., Mizuta, R., Murakami, H., & Ishii, M. (2017). Future changes  
743 in tropical cyclone activity in high-resolution large-ensemble simulations. *Geo-*  
744 *physical Research Letters*, *44*(19), 9910–9917. doi: 10.1002/2017GL075058
- 745 Yukimoto, S., et al. (2019). The meteorological research institute earth system  
746 model version 2.0, MRI-ESM2.0: Description and basic evaluation of the phys-  
747 ical component. *Journal of the Meteorological Society of Japan*, *97*, 931–965.  
748 doi: 10.2151/jmsj.2019-051
- 749 Zarzycki, C. M., Jablonowski, C., & Taylor, M. A. (2014). Using variable-resolution  
750 meshes to model tropical cyclones in the Community Atmosphere Model.  
751 *Monthly Weather Review*, *142*, 1221–1239. doi: 10.1175/MWR-D-13-00179.1
- 752 Zhao, K., Zhao, H., Klotzbach, P. J., et al. (2026). Anthropogenic warming pro-  
753 jected to drive a decline in global tropical cyclone frequency in CMIP6 simula-  
754 tions. *npj Climate and Atmospheric Science*, *9*, 58. (Article number 58) doi:  
755 10.1038/s41612-026-01330-x
- 756 Zhuo, J. Y., Lee, C. Y., Sobel, A., Seager, R., Camargo, S. J., Lin, Y. H., ...  
757 Reed, K. A. (2025). A more La Niña-like response to radiative forcing af-  
758 ter flux adjustment in CESM2. *Journal of Climate*, *38*(4), 1037–1050. doi:  
759 10.1175/JCLI-D-24-0331.1
- 760 Ziehn, T., et al. (2020). The Australian earth system model: ACCESS-ESM1.5.  
761 *Journal of Southern Hemisphere Earth Systems Science*, *70*, 193–214. doi: 10  
762 .1071/ES19035