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# California Margin temperatures modulate regional circulation and extreme summer precipitation in the desert Southwest

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**Abstract.** In August 2022, Death Valley, the driest place in North America, experienced record flooding from summertime rainfall associated with the North American Monsoon (NAM). Given the socioeconomic cost of these type of events, there is a dire need to understand their drivers and future statistics. Existing theory predicts that increases in the intensity of precipitation is a robust response to anthropogenic warming. Paleoclimatic evidence suggests that northeast Pacific sea surface temperature (SST) variability could further intensify summertime NAM rainfall over the desert southwest. Drawing on this paleoclimatic evidence, we use historical observations and reanalyses to test the hypothesis that warm SSTs on the southern California margin are linked to more frequent extreme precipitation events in the NAM domain. We find that summers with above-average coastal SSTs are more favorable to moist convection in the northern edge of the NAM domain (southern California, Arizona, New Mexico, and the southern Great Basin). This is because warmer SSTs drive circulation changes that increase moisture flux into the desert southwest, driving more frequent precipitation extremes and increases in seasonal rainfall totals. These results, which are robust across observational products, establish a linkage between marine and terrestrial extremes, since summers with anomalously warm SSTs on the California margin have been linked to seasonal or multi-year northeast Pacific marine heatwaves. However, current generation earth system models (ESMs) struggle to reproduce the observed relationship between coastal SSTs and NAM precipitation. Across models, there is a strong negative relationship between the magnitude of an ESM's warm SST bias on the California margin and its skill at reproducing the correlation with desert southwest rainfall. Given persistent northeast Pacific SST biases in ESMs, our results suggest that efforts to improve representation of climatological SSTs are crucial for accurately predicting future changes in hydroclimate extremes in the desert southwest.

*Keywords:* North American Monsoon, extreme rainfall, southwest hydroclimate

## 39 1. Introduction

40 In August 2022, regions of the desert southwest including Death Valley, the driest place  
41 in North America, experienced once-in-a thousand year flooding. This was a result of  
42 summertime storms that dumped up to 75% of normal annual precipitation amounts in the  
43 span of a few hours (Canon, 2022). These storms occurred at the northern side of the North  
44 American Monsoon (NAM), the primary source of summer rainfall in southwestern North  
45 America (Cook and Seager, 2013; Adams and Comrie, 1997). These types of events are  
46 associated with loss of life and infrastructure damage. In addition, above-average monsoon  
47 rainfall has been linked to increases in invasive plant biomass, increasing fire risk (Moloney  
48 et al., 2019). The profound socioeconomic and ecological impacts of the region's precipitation  
49 extremes highlight the need to understand the mechanisms underlying their variability.

50 An increase in precipitation intensity is expected as a result of global warming, since  
51 saturation specific humidity increases with temperature (O’Gorman, 2015). In the NAM  
52 domain, earth system models (ESMs) and regional models all suggest that warming tends  
53 to intensify individual storms, despite predictions of an overall decrease in summer rainfall  
54 by the end of the 21st century (albeit with considerable structural uncertainty—(Pascale et al.,  
55 2017, 2018; Almazroui et al., 2021; Moon and Ha, 2020; Meyer and Jin, 2017)). Nevertheless,  
56 the entire summer of 2022 featured above-average rainfall, especially on the northern edge  
57 of the NAM domain (Figure S1,a). Not only were rainfall rates above average in Nevada,  
58 Arizona, and New Mexico, but values of daily outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) show  
59 a systematic shift to a longer left tail, suggesting a greater frequency of cooler cloud tops  
60 associated with convective rainfall.

61 We hypothesize that north Pacific SST variability helped drive these higher rainfall rates.  
62 The summer of 2022 featured positive SST anomalies in coastal regions of the northeast  
63 Pacific (NEP), as well as a La Niña event in the eastern equatorial Pacific (EEP). Observational  
64 analyses have shown that La Niña events feature a stronger monsoon ridge, enhancing the  
65 strength of the circulation (Castro et al., 2001). Previous analyses of intraseasonal variability  
66 in the monsoon found that cool conditions in the EEP cold tongue could drive an earlier  
67 monsoon onset (Castro et al., 2001; Bieda et al., 2009). Modeling results, however, are  
68 equivocal about the impact of extratropical Pacific SST anomalies on the monsoon. Some  
69 studies suggest that warm NEP SST anomalies, similar to the configuration observed in  
70 summer 2022, should weaken the monsoon (Castro et al., 2001). In contrast, more recent work  
71 suggests that these types of events should strengthen the monsoon (Fu et al., 2022; Beaudin  
72 et al., 2023). The latter two studies used idealized atmosphere-only simulations forced by  
73 fixed SSTs, and require corroboration by observations. Yet, observations and paleoclimatic  
74 reconstructions are equivocal about the relationship between southwest summer precipitation  
75 and large-scale SST patterns (Carrillo et al., 2016; Demaria et al., 2019; Griffin et al., 2013;  
76 Coats et al., 2015). Given these contradictory findings, more work is needed to contextualize  
77 the role of SST variability in driving extremes similar to summer 2022. Along these lines,  
78 paleoclimatic evidence from past warm intervals has identified a link between warm SSTs off  
79 the southern California margin and an intensification of monsoon rainfall (Bhattacharya et al.,

80 2022; Fu et al., 2022). If this relationship holds in the modern, it suggests that warm NEP  
81 SSTs, especially on the California Margin, would have played a role in August 2022 flooding.

82 In this study, we explore the link between SST on the CA margin and precipitation in  
83 the northern NAM domain. Because of our interest in events similar to the Death Valley  
84 flooding in August 2022, we focus on the northern edge of the NAM domain, or regions of  
85 the desert southwest in Arizona, New Mexico, California and Nevada. Using observational  
86 data, reanalyses, and ESM simulations, we analyze the relationship between large-scale SST  
87 patterns and both extreme precipitation and seasonal precipitation totals. We show that  
88 summers of a greater frequency of days with extreme precipitation in the northern NAM  
89 domain tend to co-occur with intervals of warm SSTs on the CA margin. There is also  
90 a statistically significant relationship between CA margin SSTs and seasonally-averaged  
91 summertime rainfall in the northern NAM domain. Our results therefore provide important  
92 context for the processes underlying recent extreme precipitation in the desert southwest,  
93 and also identify a mechanism of inter-annual variability in extremes that may continue to  
94 influence regional precipitation into the 21st century. However, the ability of Coupled Model  
95 Intercomparison Project (CMIP) phase 5 and 6 ESMs to reproduce this relationship is highly  
96 variable, and depends in part on the magnitude of a model's warm SST bias on the CA margin.  
97 This has implications for our ability to use ESMs to estimate future changes in extreme  
98 precipitation, signal-to-noise ratios, and hydroclimate-related risks in the desert southwest.

## 99 **2. Data and Methods**

### 100 *2.1. Composite Analyses and Conditional Probability*

101 Our work focuses on the northern NAM domain, consisting of land regions of the desert  
102 southwest between 28 to 37 °N and 115 to 108 °W. We used daily Global Precipitation  
103 Climatology Centre's (GPCC) 1.0° data to define the 95th percentile of daily precipitation rates  
104 at each grid point. This threshold, otherwise known as 'p95', is a widely accepted metric of  
105 extreme precipitation (Sillmann et al., 2013). We then calculated the number of days between  
106 June 14th and the end of September in each year that exceed p95 for the interval between  
107 1982 and 2014 (Schneider et al., 2008). While heavy rainfall is relatively rare in this desert  
108 setting, events like August 2022 highlight the profound impact of extremes.

109 To contextualize extreme precipitation, we analyzed composites of daily fields of  
110 outgoing longwave radiation (OLR), as an indicator of cold cloud tops and convective rainfall,  
111 from NOAA (Liebmann and Smith, 1996); zonal and meridional moisture flux; and daily  
112 maximum 3-hourly convectively available potential energy (CAPE, a measure of energetic  
113 favorability of the atmosphere for deep convection and rainfall) from the North American  
114 Regional Reanalysis (NARR–(Mesinger et al., 2006)). We also analyze monthly sea level  
115 pressure and 850 mb geopotential heights from the NCEP-NCAR reanalysis (Kalnay et al.,  
116 1996). In order to link changes in the frequency of daily precipitation extremes to SST, we  
117 analyzed anomalies of monthly SST (Ishii et al., 2005) associated with summers that contain  
118 the greatest frequency of extreme precipitation.

119 We also quantified the probability of seeing a summer with above-average days (e.g.,  
120 greater than 6 days) of extreme precipitation in the northern NAM domain in years with  
121 anomalously warm CA margin temperatures (years where SST anomalies 25 and 32 °N and  
122 125 and 110 °W are  $> 1\sigma$  above average). This is the conditional probability that a summer  
123 will have greater than 6 days of precipitation exceeding p95 given anomalously warm SSTs on  
124 the CA margin. We assessed this probability for warm CA margin SST anomalies at different  
125 lead times (e.g., the preceding April-June SSTs), to see whether preceding CA margin SSTs  
126 can serve as predictors of northern NAM domain precipitation extremes. The statistical  
127 significance of these conditional probabilities was calculated using a 1-sided binomial test  
128 to assess whether it was significantly different from random chance (i.e., that the observed  
129 conditional probability is not significantly larger than expected from a process with a 50%  
130 probability of occurrence (Wilks, 2011)).

## 131 *2.2. Correlation Analysis and Comparison with ESM Simulations*

132 We quantified the relationship between CA margin SSTs and monthly mean precipitation over  
133 the northern NAM domain by correlating the same index of CA margin SSTs anomalies with  
134 monthly mean precipitation from multiple precipitation products to establish the robustness  
135 of the relationship (0.25 °GPCC product between 1960 and 2020, the CPC merged analysis  
136 of precipitation (CPC), the Global Precipitation Climatology Project (GPCP), and the NARR  
137 (Schneider et al., 2008; Xie et al., 2007; Adler et al., 2018; Mesinger et al., 2006)). We  
138 also analyze the correlation of our SST index and fields of sea level pressure (SLP), 850 mb  
139 geopotential height (Kalnay et al., 1996) between 1950 and 2020, and zonal and meridional  
140 moisture flux between 1979 and 2022 (NARR, (Mesinger et al., 2006)). The focus on monthly  
141 mean correlations facilitates comparison to CMIP models, since only monthly mean fields are  
142 available for many models.

143 To determine the extent to which CMIP5 and CMIP6 ESMs reproduce the observed  
144 relationship between CA margin SSTs, precipitation, and circulation, we analyzed historical  
145 model simulations from 23 ESMs, including several from the HighResMIP project (Chang  
146 et al., 2020; Haarsma et al., 2016; Eyring et al., 2016) (Table S1). Because the set of  
147 simulations we analyze differ in their input forcing datasets (e.g., CMIP5 vs. CMIP6 historical  
148 simulations), we focused on analyzing the sensitivity of precipitation to CA margin SSTs  
149 instead of making inferences about how trends in CA margin SSTs may influence the future  
150 behavior of the NAM. We quantified the linear correlation between southern CA Margin SSTs  
151 (e.g., the previously defined SST index, averaged between 25 and 32 °N and 125 and 110 °W)  
152 and northern NAM domain precipitation (e.g., the area between 28 to 37 °N and 115 to 108  
153 °W). Finally, we compared the correlation between the SST index and large-scale fields (e.g.  
154 vertically integrated moisture flux, 850 mb geopotential height, and SLP) between a subset of  
155 models that perform well (e.g. exhibit a realistic SST-precipitation correlation) and a subset of  
156 models that perform poorly. This analysis required regridding historical output to a common  
157 1° by 1° grid before computing cross-correlations between each models' SST index and large-  
158 scale fields (see SI).

### 159 **3. Results and Discussion**

#### 160 *3.1. California Margin temperatures and northern NAM domain precipitation*

161 Between 1979 and 2014, 5 summers featured the greatest number of days with rainfall  
162 exceeding p95 (Sillmann et al., 2013; Cavazos et al., 2008) (Figure 1a). These years also show  
163 a statistically significant shift to larger values of daily maximum 3-hourly CAPE, indicating an  
164 increase in the energetic potential of the atmosphere to generate deep convection (Figure 1d).  
165 This shift in CAPE is accompanied by a shift in daily OLR indicative of colder cloud tops  
166 associated with deep convection (Figure S2). These shifts in the distribution of CAPE and  
167 OLR suggest that summers with greater extreme precipitation days featured an atmospheric  
168 environment that was more conducive to convective activity. This is consistent with station-  
169 based observations associated with the initiation of August 9th-10th storms over Las Vegas  
170 (Figure S11). Atmospheric soundings from Las Vegas indicate a shift to low-level southerly  
171 flow overnight, coincident with the development of a deep, moist layer and stronger instability  
172 despite relatively low early morning surface temperatures. This results in a near-doubling of  
173 CAPE(Figure S11).

174 The composite SST pattern associated with these five summers reveals a ‘horseshoe’  
175 pattern of warmth in the NEP similar to the warm phase of Pacific decadal variability and  
176 the extratropical expression of warm ENSO events (Di Lorenzo et al., 2023) (Figure 1d),  
177 with stronger anomalies near Alaska and off the CA margin. The extratropical portion  
178 of this SST pattern resembles the SST anomaly pattern from summer 2022 (Figure S1d).  
179 However, unlike 2022, the EEP cold tongue shows only weakly positive SST anomalies,  
180 reflecting that these 5 years featured different phases of ENSO. While some years featured La  
181 Niña events (e.g., 1984, 1990, 1996), others had moderate or decaying El Niño events (e.g.,  
182 1983, 2014). The lack of a consistent ENSO phase reflects the relatively weak relationship  
183 between ENSO and NAM precipitation (Castro et al., 2001). It also suggests that NEP SST  
184 patterns, especially on the CA margin, may play a more important role in modulating the  
185 NAM than the EEP, although we note that tropical and extratropical variability are connected  
186 (Di Lorenzo et al., 2023). It is notable that at least two of the five years used in this analysis  
187 coincide with significant seasonally-persistent extratropical marine heat waves (e.g., 1990,  
188 2014) (Capotondi et al., 2022), suggesting a link between marine and atmospheric extremes.

#### 189 *3.2. Implications for Seasonal Prediction*

190 The association between CA margin SSTs and northern NAM precipitation extremes raises  
191 the possibility that coastal SSTs could aid in efforts to predict inter-seasonal precipitation  
192 extremes. This may especially be true given the strong seasonal persistence of temperature  
193 anomalies in this region on seasonal timescales, despite some sub-seasonal variability (Wei  
194 et al., 2021) (Figure S3). To test this possibility, we quantified the conditional probability  
195 of a summer containing an above-average number of days exceeding p95 given anomalously  
196 warm CA margin temperatures (e.g., greater than  $1\sigma$  above average). When CA margin SSTs  
197 are  $1\sigma$  above average in JAS, there is a 85% probability of seeing greater than average days

198 with precipitation exceeding p95 (Figure 2). Warm CA margin SST anomalies during early  
199 summer (JJA, MJJ) and spring (AMJ) are also associated with summers with above-average  
200 extreme precipitation days. Each of these relationships are statistically significant at the 95%  
201 level (1-sided binomial test (Wilks, 2011)). These results highlight the potential utility of  
202 coastal SSTs for predicting summers with greater extreme precipitation days in the desert  
203 southwest.

### 204 *3.3. Mechanism of SST-Monsoon Linkage*

205 Consistent with an energetic environment more conducive to summertime convection, the  
206 summers highlighted in Figure 1a are associated with higher monthly mean rainfall rates over  
207 the northern NAM domain. They are also associated with higher geopotential heights over  
208 the North American continent and the southern CA margin, with a trough to the northwest  
209 (Figure 1e, S11, S14). This is coupled with stronger southwesterly moisture flux, and a  
210 cyclonic circulation anomaly centered over Baja California, similar to the changes observed  
211 during the August 2022 floods (Figure 1g, S11). The anomalous moisture flux results  
212 in a large increase in precipitable water over Baja California, the northern NAM domain,  
213 and California margin, with an almost 50% increase in humidity in some of these regions  
214 (Figure 1g,S4). Changes in evaporation are modest compared to changes in moisture flux  
215 and precipitable water (Figure 1h). The link between total precipitable water off the southern  
216 California coast and extreme NAM precipitation has been noted in studies of individual flood  
217 events (Yang et al., 2017; Mazon et al., 2016), but the link to coastal SSTs and large-scale  
218 circulation has not been explicitly studied.

219 Correlations of NARR precipitation with the CA margin SST index are largely positive,  
220 especially over Baja California and the southern Great Basin, northern margin of the present-  
221 day NAM domain (Figure 2a). This correlation pattern is statistically significant and robust  
222 across multiple observational products (Figure S6,S7). CA margin SSTs are correlated with  
223 stronger southerly moisture flux over Baja and coastal California (Figure 2b), consistent with  
224 composites showing southwesterly moisture transport during extreme precipitation summers  
225 (Figure 1g). Over the Gulf of California, this correlation represents an enhancement of  
226 the climatological southerly moisture transport (Bordoni and Stevens, 2006; Johnson and  
227 Delworth, 2023). Over the California margin, positive correlations with meridional moisture  
228 transport reflect a weakening of northerly and easterly flow that diverges moisture away from  
229 coastal southern California (Figure 2b).

230 We contend that warm CA margin SST anomalies drive stronger southwesterly moisture  
231 transport because they help weaken the southeast edge of the North Pacific subtropical high  
232 pressure system (NPSH). Correlations with 850 mb geopotential heights reveal that warm CA  
233 margin SSTs are associated with a weakening of the geopotential gradient on the southern  
234 edge of the NPSH (Figure 2c)). Further support for this comes from the strong negative  
235 correlation between CA margin SSTs and SLP on the southeast edge of the NPSH (Figure 2d).  
236 Given previous work showing that cool SSTs over eastern ocean margins help maintain the  
237 strength of the subtropical highs, we suggest that anomalously warm temperatures on the CA

margin weaken the NPSH in this region by reducing local static stability (Seager et al., 2003; Bhattacharya, 2022). The strong negative correlation between CA margin SSTs and SLP centered west of Baja California and extending along the edge of the NPSH is not present in the correlation field between ENSO and SLP (Figure S8). This is likely because variability in CA margin SSTs reflects additional processes beyond ENSO-induced variability (Di Lorenzo et al., 2023). There is some similarity between the SLP correlation pattern with CA margin SSTs and the PDO, consistent with recent findings that the PDO modulates SST variability and MHW intensity off Baja California (Figure S8)(Ren et al., 2023).

Our analyses suggest that CA margin SSTs weaken the southeast edge of the NPSH, favoring stronger moisture flux into the desert southwest. Subsequent increases in humidity would promote higher dewpoints and fuel instability over these normally dry desert regions. From this perspective, warm CA margin SSTs help enhance the positive CAPE generated by a warm summertime Gulf of California (Johnson and Delworth, 2023). Given that NPSH strength and underlying SSTs are tightly coupled via air-sea interactions (Seager et al., 2003), observations alone are insufficient to establish the direction of causality between SST and NPSH strength. In fact, outflow from the NAM may help amplify SST anomalies on the California margin (Clemesha et al., 2023). However, our results agree with several atmosphere-only regional and global simulations showing that CA margin SSTs play a causal role in driving a cyclonic circulation anomaly and stronger meridional moisture flux into the southwest (Beaudin et al., 2023; Fu et al., 2022).

### 3.4. Model Representation of SST-Summer Rainfall Relationship

Figures 1 and 2 suggest that summers with warm CA margin SSTs not only feature more extreme precipitation days, but also see an atmospheric shift conducive to higher seasonal rainfall totals. Accurately representing this SST-monsoon linkage is therefore key for quantifying and predicting future risks related to extreme precipitation (e.g., flooding, infrastructure damage). Since most future projections of the NAM system rely on downscaled (or direct) output from ESMs, we next assess whether ESMs reproduce the CA margin SST - monsoon relationship found in observational products (Figure 2).

Only a small subset of ESMs simulate a similar correlation between CA margin SST and northern NAM domain precipitation as compared to observational products. Furthermore, there is a significant negative correlation between a given models' warm SST bias on the CA margin and the strength of the correlation with northern NAM domain precipitation: ESMs that are too warm in the CA margin relative to observations underestimate the correlation between summer precipitation and CA margin SSTs (Figure 3). For two ESMs, increasing resolution improves both the SST bias and the strength of the correlation (Figure 3). This coheres with previous findings that higher resolution ESMs perform better at simulating the NAM because of their ability to resolve topography and produce realistic statistics of transient disturbances (Pascale et al., 2016; Meyer and Jin, 2017; Varuolo-Clarke et al., 2019). However, higher resolution does not always improve the correlation: the higher resolution configuration of the CNRM model produces a weaker CA Margin SST-NAM

278 summer precipitation correlation than its low resolution counterpart (Figure 3). In addition,  
279 higher resolution models do not necessarily have a more realistic climatology of NAM  
280 precipitation (Figure S9). Instead, we suggest that biases in their simulation of the large-scale  
281 climate play an important role in models' ability to capture coupling between SST variability,  
282 atmospheric circulation, and regional hydroclimate, as captured in Figure 3.

283 To further investigate this hypothesis, we quantify the correlation between SLP, 850  
284 mb geopotential heights, and meridional moisture flux for the ESMs that are best able to  
285 (CESM1.3-HR; CanESM5-1; ACCESS-CM2; MPI-ESM1-2-HR) and least able to (MIROC6;  
286 FIO-ESM2; NESM3) reproduce the observed SST-monsoon linkage (Figure 4a). Model  
287 precipitation correlations are shown in Figure S10. SLP fields reveal that the best performing  
288 models produce a NPSH that is extended slightly farther southeast and weaker than the worst  
289 performing models (e.g., 1012 mb contour that extends south of 20°N, similar to observations  
290 (Figure 2c)).

291 The best performing models produce a strong negative correlation between SLP and  
292 the CA margin SST index, especially on the southeast edge of the NPSH (Figure 4a). This  
293 resembles the pattern seen in observational data (Figure 4b). In contrast, the worst performing  
294 models produce the wrong sign of correlation between the CA margin SST index and SLP.  
295 The best performing models also produce positive correlations between CA margin SSTs  
296 and 850-mb geopotential heights over the California Margin and a negative correlation to the  
297 west, similar albeit slightly different in pattern to observations (Figure 4b, Figure 2a). The  
298 worst performing models only produce a localized region of positive correlation, failing to  
299 reproduce the east-west dipole in correlation seen in observations. These differences in large-  
300 scale correlation patterns directly translate into differences in the correlation pattern across  
301 models between CA margin SSTs and moisture flux: the best performing models produce  
302 a much stronger correlation between meridional moisture transport and the CA margin SST  
303 index than the worst performing models (Figure 4c,f), especially in the regions over Baja  
304 California and southern California.

305 These results suggest that the difference in skill between the best and worst performing  
306 models in our analysis relates to the fact that the best performing models exhibit a tighter  
307 coupling (and stronger correlation) between the underlying anomalies of SST, atmospheric  
308 circulation (e.g., the NPSH), and moisture flux than seen in the worst performing models.  
309 This appears to be a direct function of the stronger warm SST bias on the California margin in  
310 the worst performing models. We hypothesize that for models with a strong warm bias on the  
311 CA margin, a given SST anomaly represents a smaller fractional or percent change in SST and  
312 hence a smaller perturbation to the overlying atmosphere. Therefore, in more strongly warm  
313 biased models, a given SST anomaly may be less efficient at altering atmospheric circulation  
314 (e.g., weakening static stability). ESMs with a stronger warm bias may therefore generate less  
315 variability in the southeast edge of the NPSH, as well as a weaker correlation between SST,  
316 moisture flux, and NAM precipitation.

## 317 4. Conclusions

318 In this paper, we used observational data and reanalyses to demonstrate a linkage between  
319 California Margin SSTs and precipitation over the US southwest, Baja California, and western  
320 Mexico, which comprise the northern edge of the NAM domain. Warm SSTs on the CA  
321 margin result in greater southwesterly moisture flux and increases in precipitable water over  
322 the desert, creating a summertime energetic environment that is more favorable for moist  
323 convection. Warmer SSTs drive increases in the number of days with extreme precipitation,  
324 as well as an overall increase in summertime rainfall rates. Because SST anomalies on  
325 the CA margin show strong monthly to inter-seasonal persistence, spring or early summer  
326 SST anomalies could be used to predict years with a greater frequency of daily precipitation  
327 extremes in the northern NAM domain. Our results suggest that the extreme precipitation  
328 observed in August 2022 was at least in part modulated by the large-scale SST pattern, and that  
329 other events with similar underlying dynamics have occurred over the observational record.

330 The link between SSTs and NAM precipitation has been explored in previous  
331 observational and modeling studies, but results have been equivocal (Carrillo et al., 2016;  
332 Demaria et al., 2019; Griffin et al., 2013; Castro et al., 2001; Beaudin et al., 2023). This  
333 may stem from the fact that the SST pattern associated with greater daily precipitation  
334 extremes does not resemble a canonical warm ENSO or positive PDO phase. Moreover,  
335 the strongest SST-rainfall correlations occur in the northern NAM domain and are relatively  
336 weak in the core monsoon domain in western Mexico. Studies that focus on mode-based  
337 indices of the ENSO or the PDO, or analyze precipitation only in the core monsoon domain,  
338 may therefore have missed this association between SST anomalies on the CA margin and  
339 NAM rainfall. Our observational analyses support previous work emphasizing the importance  
340 of extratropical North Pacific SSTs in governing the spatial footprint of NAM precipitation  
341 (Beaudin et al., 2023; Fu et al., 2022; Bhattacharya et al., 2022).

342 Over the recent observational record, interannual SST variability on the CA margin has  
343 been linked to persistent multi-year marine heat waves (Meyer and Jin, 2017; Fewings and  
344 Brown, 2019). While previous work has explored the linkage between marine heat waves  
345 and winter precipitation over western North America (Swain et al., 2014), we provide an  
346 observational link between extreme events in the marine realm and extreme *summertime*  
347 precipitation on land. Given that observational data and paleoclimate records suggest strong  
348 decadal variability of CA margin SSTs, our results also raise the possibility for decadal  
349 modulation of precipitation extremes in the desert southwest (O'Mara et al., 2019). While  
350 there is some evidence for decadal variability in NAM precipitation extremes, more long-  
351 term precipitation datasets, including paleoclimate proxy datasets, are needed to explore this  
352 possibility (Demaria et al., 2019; Griffin et al., 2013).

353 It is possible that the strength of the CA margin SST-northern NAM domain rainfall  
354 relationship is modulated by equatorial Pacific SSTs. El Niño events result in a southward  
355 shift of the intertropical convergence zone in the EEP, enhancing atmospheric stability over  
356 the southwest (Pascale et al., 2017). In addition, central Pacific El Niño events may reduce  
357 NAM rainfall by inhibiting the development of disturbances that can serve as precursors to

358 strong surges of NAM convection (e.g., Gulf of California surges) (Kim et al., 2011). We are  
359 unable to disentangle the relative influence of subtropical versus tropical SSTs on northern  
360 NAM precipitation in this study because of the limited observational record that offers few  
361 realizations of extreme precipitation events, especially since tropical and subtropical SST  
362 variability are highly correlated. Long integration of ESM simulations, as well as AMIP-style  
363 simulations, would be a useful next step for disentangling the importance of subtropical versus  
364 tropical SST variability on desert southwest precipitation.

365 Finally, we showed that historical simulations of ESMs show varying skill at reproducing  
366 the correlation between CA Margin SSTs and northern NAM precipitation. ESMs featuring a  
367 strong warm bias on the CA Margin show less skill at reproducing the observed correlation.  
368 Indeed, some ESMs produce significant correlations of the wrong sign. We hypothesize that  
369 ESMs with a strong warm bias underestimate the coupling strength of atmospheric circulation  
370 and SST on the CA margin. Both CMIP5 and CMIP6 ESMs exhibit systematic warm  
371 SST biases in the subtropical northeast Pacific, likely stemming from biases in shortwave  
372 radiation and ocean heat transport (Zhang et al., 2023; Wills et al., 2022). Given the results  
373 presented herein, many ESMs are likely to systematically misrepresent an important source of  
374 interannual variability in desert southwest precipitation. This in turn undermines confidence in  
375 studies that use direct or downscaled ESM outputs to quantify future changes in precipitation  
376 extremes, estimate signal-to-noise ratios for regional hydroclimate, or analyze future changes  
377 in hydroclimate-related risk over the desert southwest (AghaKouchak et al., 2020; Marvel  
378 et al., 2019). CMIP6 models are known to underestimate the severity and duration of  
379 multi-month or multi-year marine heat waves, similar to those that cause warming on the  
380 southern CA margin, and may contain persistent biases that influence their ability to reproduce  
381 observed SST trends (Plecha and Soares, 2020; Seager et al., 2019, 2022). Efforts to improve  
382 ESM representation of climatological SSTs and SST variability will therefore greatly improve  
383 our ability to estimate variability and trends in precipitation extremes, with broad implications  
384 for our understanding of future regional hydroclimate-related risks, especially in arid regions  
385 like the desert southwest.

386 It remains an open question as to whether the relationship between SSTs on the CA  
387 margin and northern NAM precipitation will persist into the 21st century. Modeling studies  
388 predict a weakening of the NAM with anthropogenic warming, in part from a dynamic  
389 response resulting in a warmer, more stable troposphere over the southwest (Pascale et al.,  
390 2017) and thus a higher threshold for convection (Pascale et al., 2018). A given CA margin  
391 SST anomaly may become less effective at generating positive anomalies of CAPE over the  
392 northern NAM domain, decreasing the correlation to summertime precipitation in this region.  
393 We briefly assess this possibility by analyzing the four ESMs that best reproduce the observed  
394 CA margin SST-northern NAM precipitation correlation, and find that all produce a strong,  
395 statistically significant correlation well into the 21st century, with two ESMs even producing  
396 a strengthening of this association (Figure S12,S13). While further analyses, especially using  
397 large ensemble approaches or AMIP-style simulations, are needed to disentangle the relative  
398 influence of interannual SST variability and forced changes on future precipitation in the  
399 northern NAM domain, our results suggest that the CA margin SST-NAM monsoon linkage

400 could aid the effort to predict monsoon extremes well into the 21st century.

## 401 5. Acknowledgments

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405 2103055.

## 406 6. Data Availability Statement

407 No new data were created or analysed in this study.

## 408 7. References

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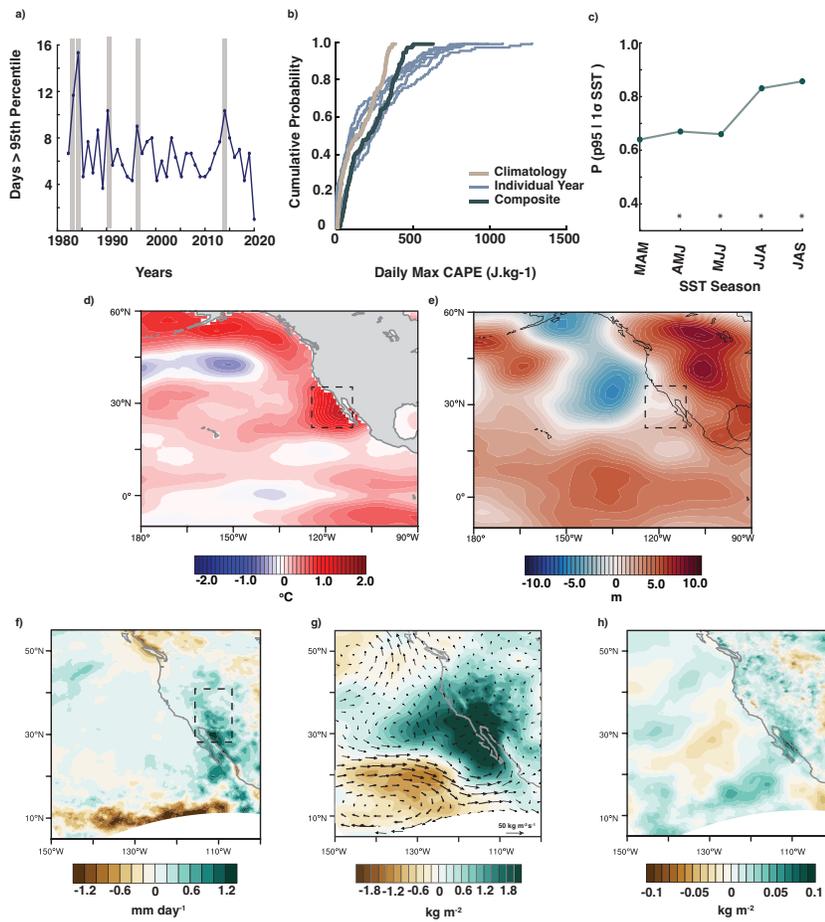
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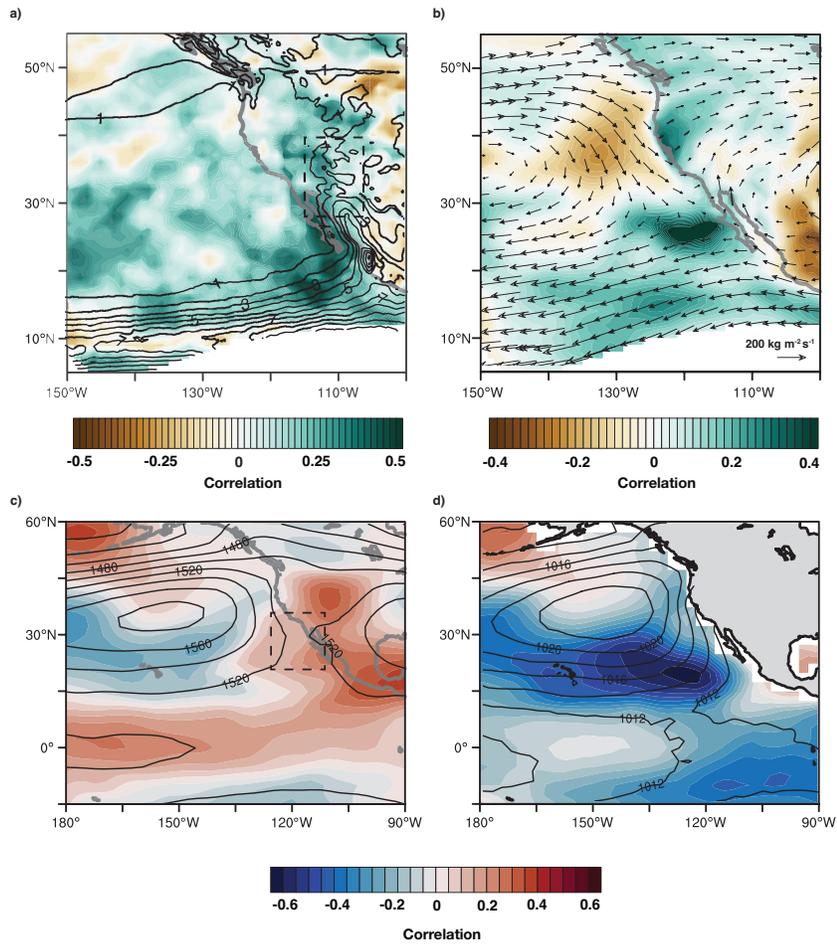
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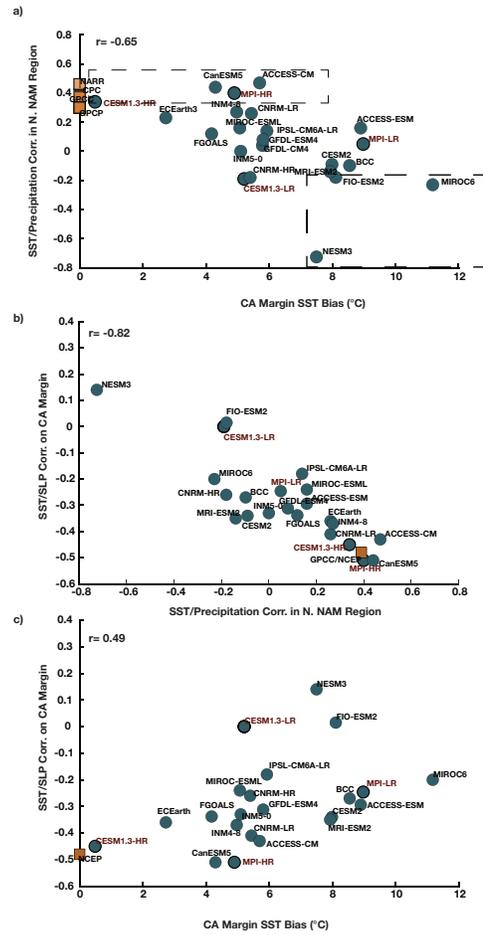
579 **8. Figures and Figure Captions**



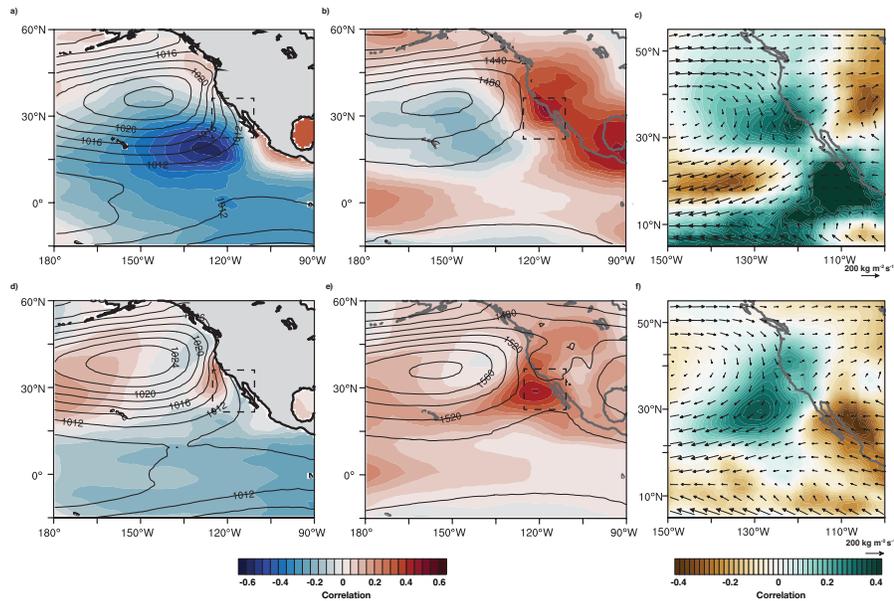
**Figure 1. Composites associated with summers featuring the greatest number of extreme precipitation days.** a) number of summertime days with precipitation exceeding the 95th percentile (p95) between 1981 and 2020 over the region between 28 and 37 °N and 115 and 108 °W (this region is outlined in box in panel f). Gray bars highlight the five years with the greatest number of extreme precipitation days (1983, 1984, 1990, 1996, and 2014). b) daily maximum of 3-hourly CAPE for climatology (tan), each individual summer (light blue) and a composite of all summers (dark blue). c) probability of seeing greater than 6 days of precipitation above p95 between July and September in the presence of a warm SST anomaly on the CA margin at different leading seasons. Seasons with \* are statistically significant at the 95% level. d) and e) SST and 850-mb geopotential height composite anomaly associated with these five summers, with box showing region used for SST index in subsequent figures. f) monthly-mean NARR rainfall composite during these summers; g) Anomalies of vertically integrated moisture flux (vectors) and total precipitable water (shading); h) evaporation composite anomaly (shading).



**Figure 2. Correlation between southern CA margin SSTs over region shown in dashed box (25 to 32 °N and 125 to 110 °W) and hydroclimate.** a) correlation between precipitation in NARR and SST index (shading) superimposed on climatological contours of precipitation (contours). b) Climatological vertically integrated zonal and meridional moisture flux (vectors) with correlation between meridional moisture flux and SST index (shading). c) Climatological 850 mb geopotential height (contours), superimposed on correlation between 850 mb geopotential heights and SST index (shading). d) Climatological SLP (contours) and SLP-SST index correlation (shading).



**Figure 3. Relationship between SST bias and hydroclimate in observational products compared to CMIP5 and CMIP6 ESMs.** a) Scatterplot of SST bias over 25 and 32 °N and 125 and 110 °W on the CA margin (x axis), and the strength of the correlation between SSTs in this region and precipitation in the northern NAM domain (27 and 37 °N and 115 and 107 °W–y axis). Subsets of ESMs used in Figure 4 outlined in dashed rectangles. b) Relationship between the strength of precipitation-SST correlation shown in panel a (x axis) and the correlation between SLP (20 and 30 °N and 125 and 110 °W) and SST over CA margin (y axis); c) Relationship between SST bias on the CA margin (x axis) and the SLP-SST correlation shown in panel b (y axis).



**Figure 4. Contrasting relationship between large-scale climate fields and SST in ESMs that perform well (a-c) and ESMs that perform poorly (d-f) at reproducing the SST-precipitation relationship.** SST index calculated from the dashed box. a) and d) show climatological SLP (contours) and correlation between SLP and the SST index (shading). b) and e) as in panels a) and d) but for 850 mb geopotential height. c) and f) show climatological vertically integrated moisture flux (vectors) and correlation between meridional moisture flux and the SST index (shading).

Supplemental Information for *California Margin temperatures modulate extreme summer precipitation in the desert Southwest*

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September 20, 2023

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1. Text S1
2. Figures S1 to S9
3. Table S1

## Text S1. Additional Methods Description

### Correlation and Running Correlation Analysis

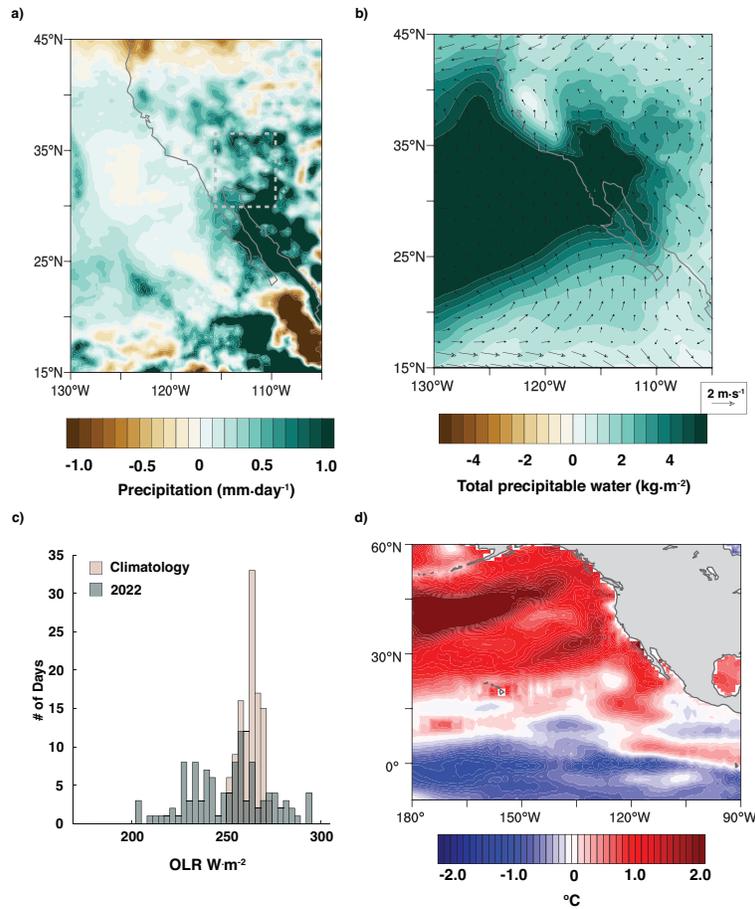
To identify the link between CA margin SSTs and monthly mean precipitation over the northern NAM domain, we calculated an index of SSTs between 25 and 32 °N and 125 and 110 °W. We then calculated the linear correlation of this index and monthly mean precipitation fields from the 0.25 ° Global Precipitation Climatology Centre (GPCC) product between 1960 and 2014, the Climate Prediction Center merged analysis of precipitation (CPC), the Global Precipitation Climatology Project (GPCP), and the NARR ([Schneider et al., 2008](#); [Xie et al., 2007](#); [Adler et al., 2018](#); [Mesinger et al., 2006](#)). Using multiple precipitation products helps establish the robustness of the relationship. We also evaluated the correlation between this SST index and monthly mean fields of SLP, precipitable water, and moisture flux from the NARR.

For our analysis of correlations between CA margin SSTs and precipitation across a range of Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP) phase 5 and 6 ESMs, we use an index of precipitation over land areas between 27 and 37 °N and 115 and 107 °W. For the SST-sea level pressure (SLP) correlation analysis, we use an index of SLP over ocean areas between 20 and 30 °N and 125 and 110 °W. Slight changes to the bounds of these index regions do not alter our results or conclusions.

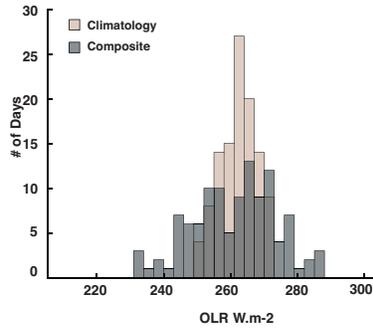
In Figure [S13](#), we plot the running correlation between CA margin SST anomalies and precipitation in future emission scenarios for the 4 ESMs that show the greatest fidelity over the historical period at producing the observed SST-precipitation correlation (high resolution configurations of CESM1.3, MPI-ESM1-2, as well as ACCESS-CM and CanESM5). This running correlation is performed in 40-year averaging windows for historical simulations, Shared Socioeconomic Pathway (SSP) 3-7.0 and 5-8.5 in the case of the MPI, ACCESS and CanESM5 ESMs, and for Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) 8.5 in the case of CESM1.3-HR (see Table S1 for more details). Because the forcing datasets differ across these simulations, the purpose of this analysis is not to analyze the particular trajectory of NAM precipitation and SST in a given ESM versus another, although we show this in Figure [S12](#). Instead, the goal of this analysis is show that the strength of the correlation between CA margin SSTs and northern NAM precipitation remains statistically significant in the future.

## **Contrasting Models with High and Low Skill**

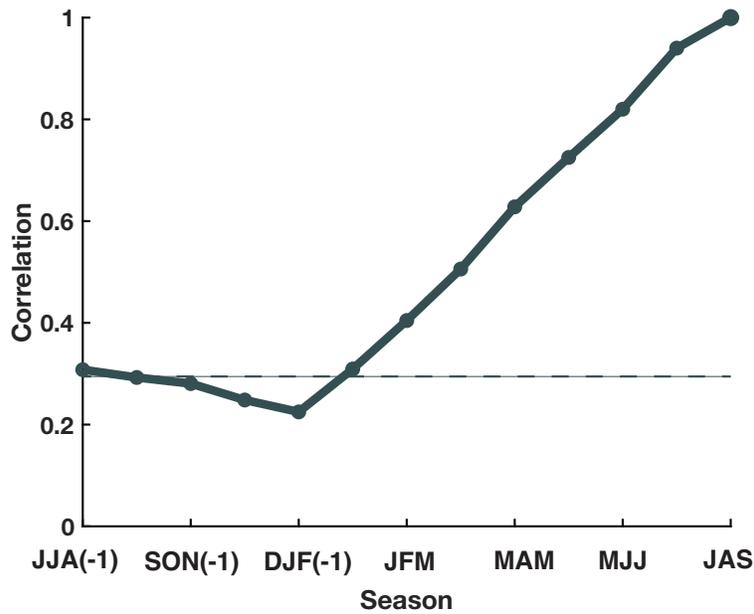
Figure 4 in the main text contrasts models with high and low skill at reproducing the SST-monsoon linkage (e.g. the correlation between CA margin SSTs averaged between 25 and 32 °N and 125 and 110 °W and NAM precipitation). To create composite correlation plots contrasting the best and worst models, each models' fields of 850 mb geopotential height, sea level pressure, zonal and meridional moisture flux (calculated from inputs of u and v winds as well as humidity), and precipitation from historical simulations were regridded to a common 1 °by 1 °latitude and longitude grid. We used these regridded model fields to calculate the correlation between the timeseries of each models' CA margin SST index and that models' timeseries of geopotential height, sea level pressure, moisture flux, and precipitation. Correlation fields from the good models (e.g. CESM1.3; MPI-ESM-1-2-HR; ACCESS-CM2; CanESM5-1) are averaged together to generate a 'composite' correlation field representing the good models. Similarly, climatologies of each variable from each model are computed and then averaged together to create a composite climatology for these 'good models.' These results are presented in Figure 4 in the main text and Figure S7. The same procedure is repeated for the worst performing models (e.g. NESM3; FIO-ESM2; MIROC6) to create a composite of worst-performing models.



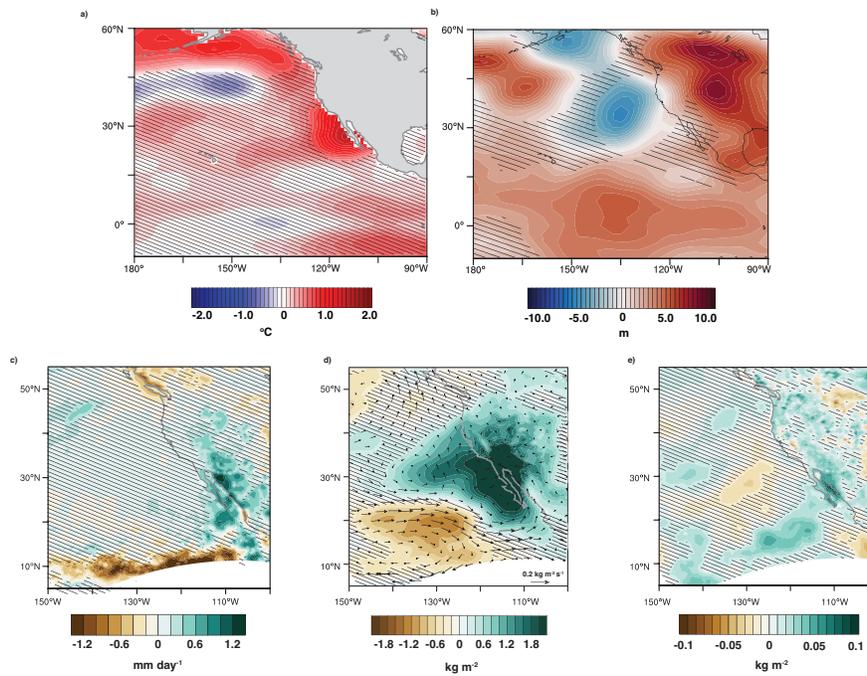
**Figure S1: Shifts in monsoon precipitation rates in summer 2022.** a) shows July-September monthly mean precipitation anomalies in mm/day. Gray box highlights the northern NAM region used for averaging, and includes Death Valley, CA. b) shows anomalies of total precipitable water and 850 mb winds. c) shows differences in daily values of outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) for summer 2022 (mint green) compared to the climatology between 1974 and 2022 (tan). The distribution of OLR for 2022 is significantly different from the climatological distribution at the 95% level according to a 2-sided Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test. d) shows summer 2022 SST anomalies in °C relative to a 1950-2022 climatology.



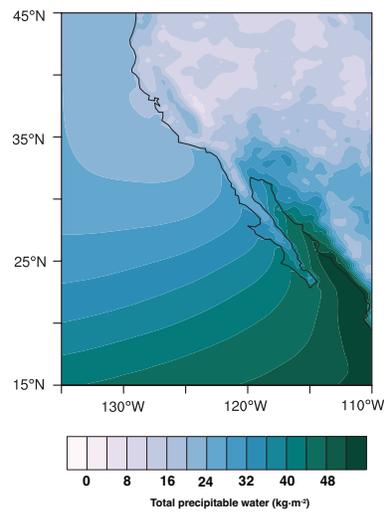
**Figure S2:** Differences in daily values of outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) for five summers with the greatest extreme precipitation days (mint green) compared to the climatology between 1974 and 2022 (tan). The distribution of OLR for extreme precipitation years is significantly different from the climatological distribution at the 95% level according to a 2-sided Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test.



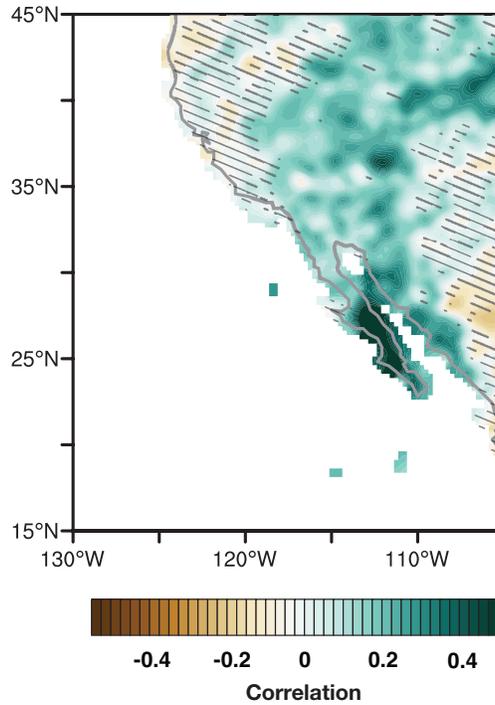
**Figure S3:** Correlation between July-September (JAS) SST anomalies on the CA Margin (25 and 32 °N and 125 and 110 °W) and simultaneous (JAS) and prior seasons' SST anomalies, starting with JJA, then MJJ, AMJ, MAM, etc. until JJA in the prior year. Significance of correlation level is indicated by the dashed line.



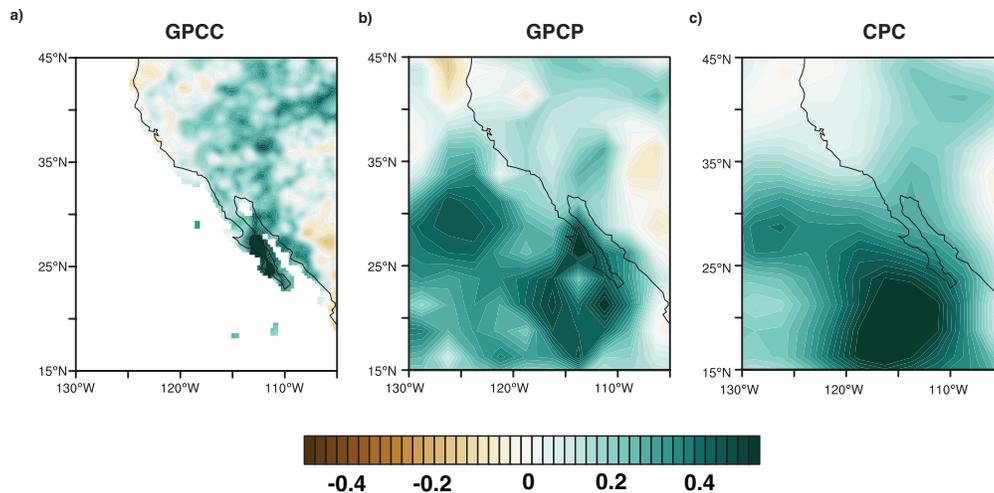
**Figure S4:** Fields shown in Figure 1 in main text, with shading to indicate regions where composite anomalies are not statistically significant. a) SST; b) 850 mb geopotential height; c) NARR monthly mean precipitation rate d) moisture flux and total precipitable water (shading indicates significance of precipitable water composite anomalies). e) evaporation. Significance determined via a two-sided t-test.



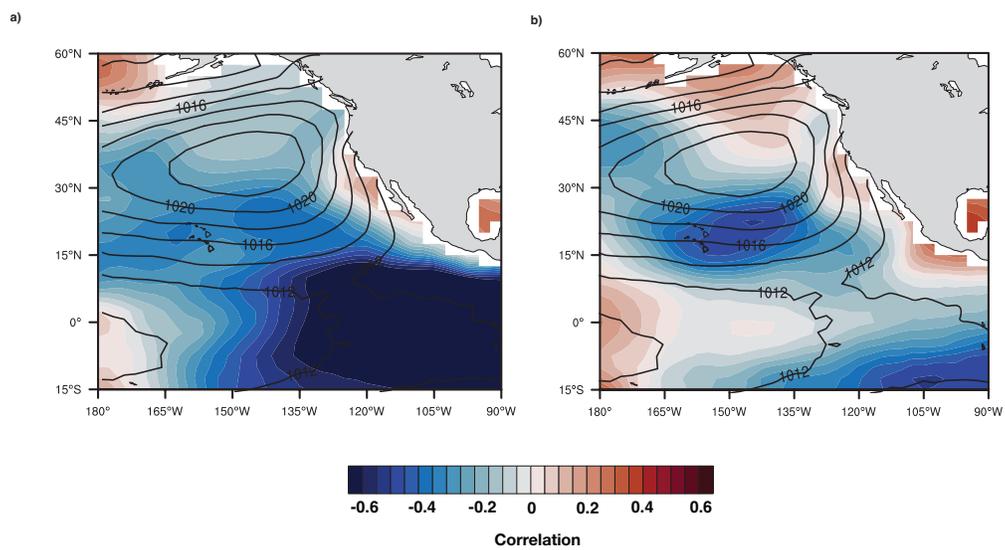
**Figure S5:** July-September climatology of total precipitable water in  $\text{kg/m}^2$  over the southwest US and western Mexico. Data from the North American Regional Reanalysis ([Mesinger et al., 2006](#)). Climatology shows strong gradients from 30-40 °N, where there are very low values of precipitable water over desert regions of the southwest.



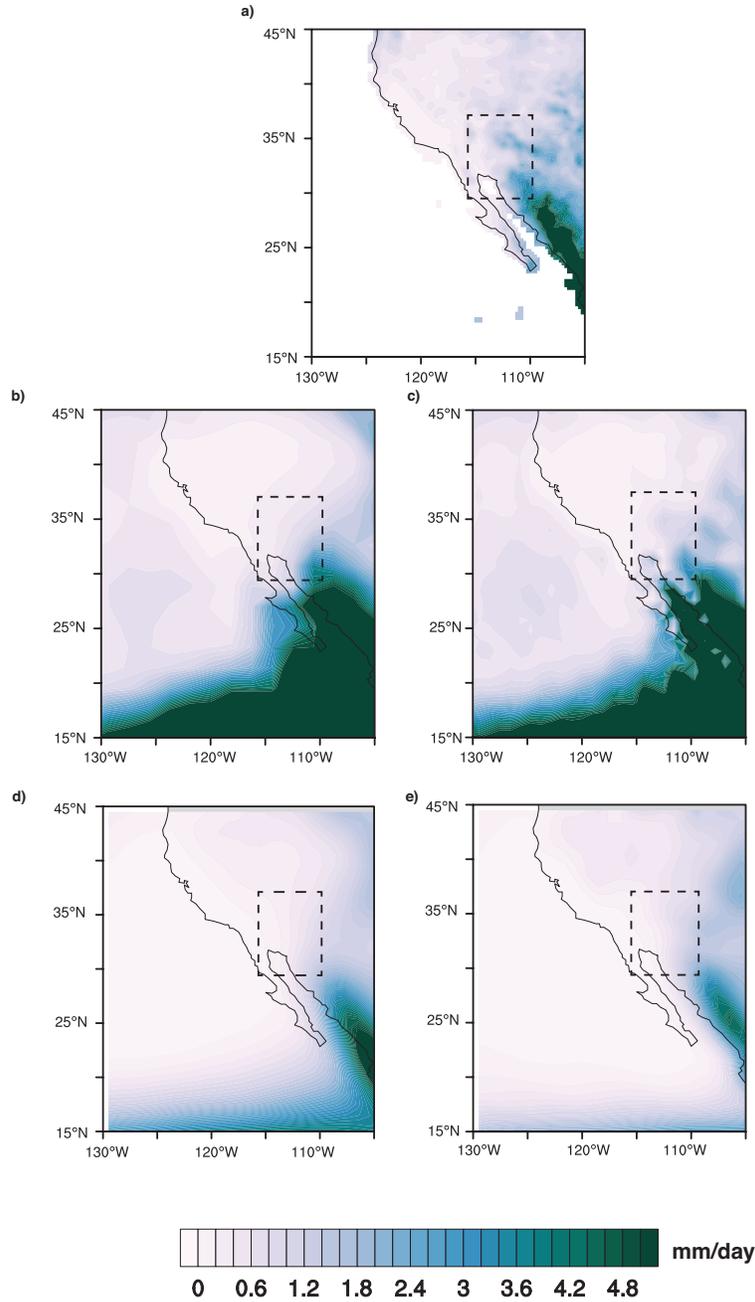
**Figure S6:** Correlation between CA Margin SSTs and GPCP precipitation in GPCP precipitation. SSTs are an index between 25 and 32 °N and 125 and 110 °W, taken from the COBE SST product (Ishii et al., 2005). Shading indicates regions where correlation is not statistically significant. See next figure for correlation with multiple products



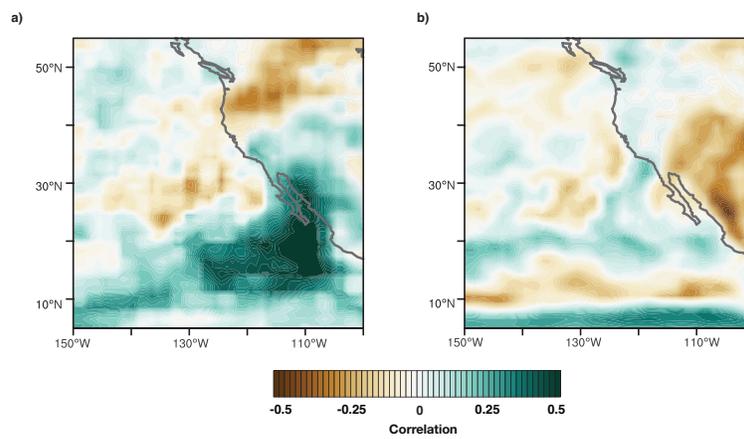
**Figure S7:** Correlation between CA Margin SSTs and precipitation in multiple products. SSTs are an index between 25 and 32 °N and 125 and 110 °W, taken from the COBE SST product (Ishii et al., 2005).



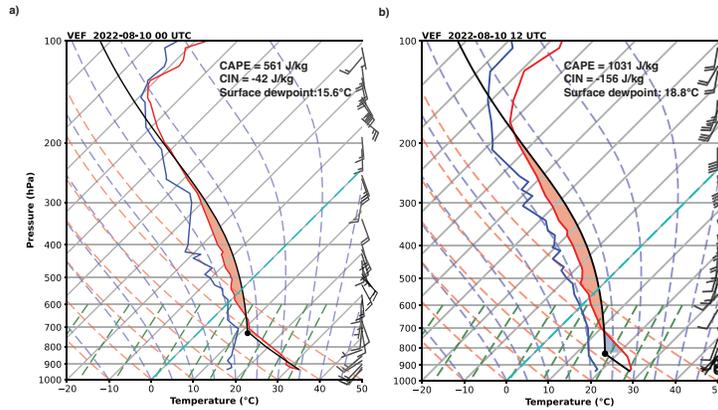
**Figure S8:** Correlation between sea level pressure (SLP) over the northeast Pacific and other modes of variability. a) shows simultaneous correlation between Niño 3.4 index and SLP; b) shows simultaneous correlation between the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) and SLP. Solid contours represent climatological values of SLP



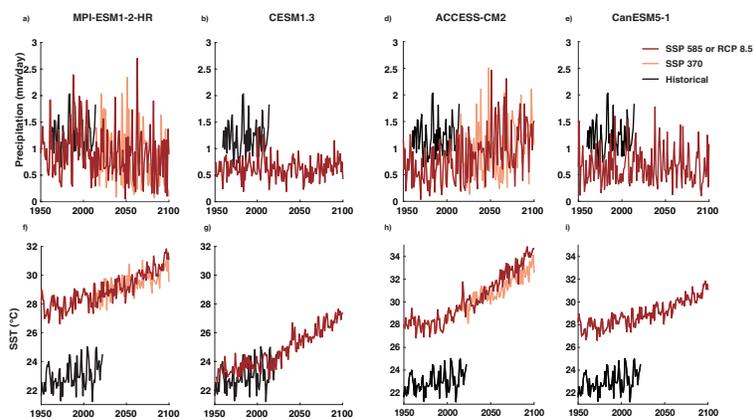
**Figure S9:** July-September climatology of low vs. high resolution ESMs. a) shows observational climatology of summertime precipitation from the GPCCC 0.25° product; b) shows MPI-ESM1-2 low resolution summertime rainfall climatology; c) shows MPI-ESM1-2 high resolution climatology; d) shows CESM1.3 low resolution climatology; e) shows CESM1.3 high resolution climatology. All ESM climatologies are computed from 1950-2014 in historical simulations. Dashed box outlines the region used for precipitation averages shown in Figure 5 in the main text. Climatologies of rainfall rates show only a small improvement over this dashed box in the high resolution version of the ESMs



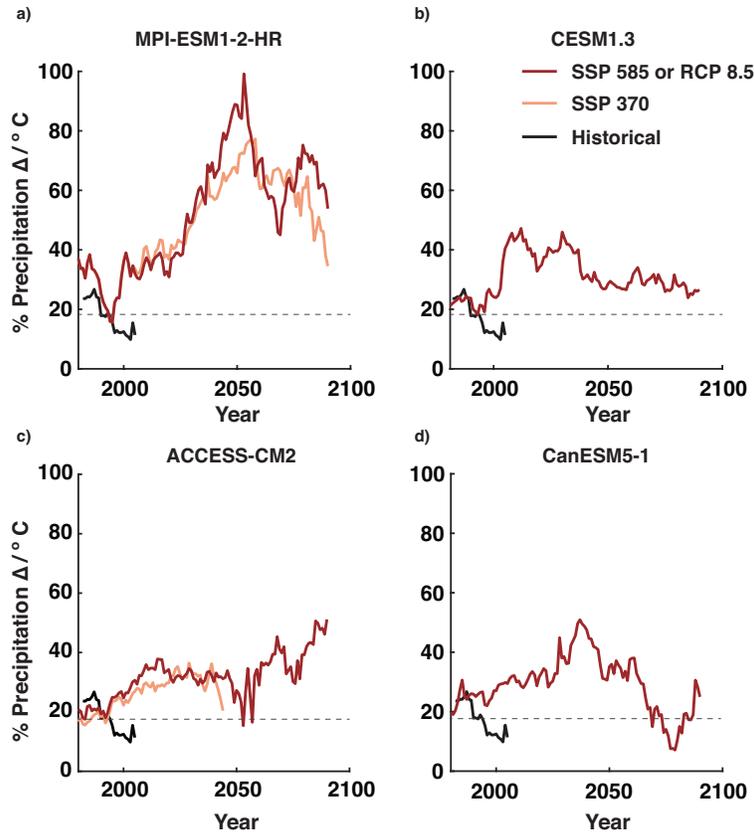
**Figure S10:** July-September correlation of precipitation with CA margin SST anomalies (see text for index definition) contrasting models that perform well and those that perform poorly. a) shows models with good skill at reproducing SST-monsoon linkage (CESM1.3; ACCESS-CM2; CanESM5-1; MPI-ESM-1-2-HR) and b) shows model with poor skill at simulating linkage (FIO-ESM-2; NESM3; MIROC6).



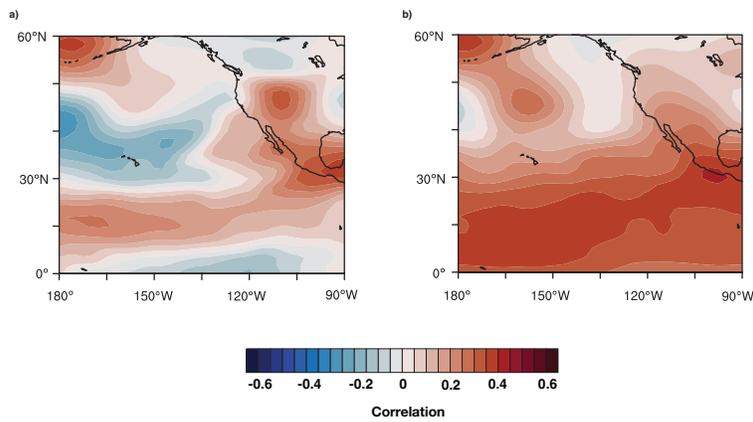
**Figure S11:** Las Vegas (VEF) observed soundings, 10 August 2022 at a) 00Z and b) 12Z. Atmospheric temperature (red), dewpoint temperature (blue) and windspeed with direction (barbs) shown as a function of atmospheric pressure. Profiles (black line) are calculated by dry adiabatic lifting of parcels to the lifted condensation level (LCL, filled black circle). Convective inhibition (CIN; blue shading) and convective available potential energy (CAPE; red shading) are calculated from the surface to the LCL, and from the surface to the equilibrium level (EL), respectively. Both soundings document nearly identical precipitable water amounts, despite a nearly twofold jump in CAPE within 12 hours. The increase in instability is associated with a turning of the low-level winds from southwesterly to southerly. A corresponding moistening from the surface to 700 hPa from this southerly transport, visible when comparing sounding dewpoint temperatures, lowers the LCL, contributing to the strong increase in instability and CAPE.



**Figure S12:** 21st century changes in precipitation and SST for ESMs that exhibit CA margin SST-northern NAM rainfall correlations similar to observations. Top panel shows precipitation (mm/day); bottom panel shows SST ( $^{\circ}$ C). a) and f) are MPI-ESM1-2; b) and g) are CESM1.3; c) and h) are ACCESS-CM2; and d) and i) are CanESM5-1. SSTs and precipitation are in absolute units rather than anomalies in order to highlight SST and precipitation biases.



**Figure S13:** Running correlation between CA margin SST and precipitation for future emissions scenarios across four ESMs that show the highest skill at reproducing the observed SST-precipitation correlation (see Figure 4 in main text). Correlations above the dashed line are statistically significant at the 95% level.



**Figure S14:** Contrasting correlation patterns between geopotential height and CA margin SST index in NCEP-NCAR reanalysis. a) shows 850 mb heights (similar to the pattern in Figure 2 in the main text); b) shows 500 mb height pattern.

**Table S1:** CMIP6 and CMIP5 models used to analyze the relationship between SST bias between 22 and 30 °N and 125 and 110 °W, on the CA margin, and the relationship between SSTs, precipitation, and SLP over northern NAM domain shown in Figure 4 and Figure 5 in the main text. Acronym refers to the acronym used in Figure 4 in the main text.

Institution	Model Name	Acronym	Simulations Analyzed
National Center for Atmospheric Research	CESM2	CESM2	CMIP6 historical
National Center for Atmospheric Research	CESM1.3 low-res	CESM1.3 LR	CMIP5 historical
National Center for Atmospheric Research	CESM1.3 high-res	CESM1.3 HR	CMIP5 historical RCP8.5
EC Earth Consortium	EC-Earth3	ECEarth3	CMIP6 historical
Model for Interdisciplinary Research on Climate	MIROC6	MIROC6	CMIP6 historical
Model for Interdisciplinary Research on Climate	MIROC-ESM2-L	MIROC-ESML	CMIP6 historical
Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory	GFDL-CM4	GFDL-CM4	CMIP6 historical
Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory	GFDL-ESM4	GFDL-ESM4	CMIP6 historical
L'Institut Pierre-Simon Laplace	IPSL-CM6A-LR	IPSL-CM6A-LR	CMIP6 historical
Beijing Climate Center	BCC-CSM2-MR	BCC	CMIP6 historical
State Key Laboratory of Numerical Modeling for Atmospheric Sciences and Geophysical Fluid Dynamics	FGOALS-g3	FGOALS	CMIP6 historical
Max Planck Institute for Meteorology	MPI-ESM1-2-LR	MPI-LR	CMIP6 historical
Max Planck Institute for Meteorology	MPI-ESM1-2-HR	MPI-HR	CMIP6 historical SSP585 SSP370
Canadian Centre for Climate Modelling and Analysis	CanESM5-1	CanESM5	CMIP6 historical SSP585
Centre National de Recherches Météorologiques	CNRM-CM6-1	CNRM-LR	CMIP6 historical
Centre National de Recherches Météorologiques	CNRM-CM6-1	CNRM-HR	CMIP6 historical
Commonwealth Scientific & Industrial Research Organisation Australia	ACCESS-CM2	ACCESS-CM	CMIP6 historical SSP585 SSP370
Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation Australia	ACCESS-ESM2	ACCESS-ESM	CMIP6 historical
Nanjing University of Information Science and Technology China	NESM3	NESM3	CMIP6 historical
First Institute of Oceanography and Pilot National Laboratory for Marine Science and Technology	FIO-ESM2	IO-ESM2	CMIP6 historical
Meteorological Research Institute Japan	MRI-ESM-2.0	MRI-ESM2	CMIP6 historical
Institute for Numerical Mathematics Russian Federation	INM-CM4-8	INM4-8	CMIP6 historical
Institute for Numerical Mathematics Russian Federation	INM-CM5-0	INM5-0	CMIP6 historical

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Supplemental Information for *California Margin temperatures modulate extreme summer precipitation in the desert Southwest*

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## Text S1. Additional Methods Description

### Correlation and Running Correlation Analysis

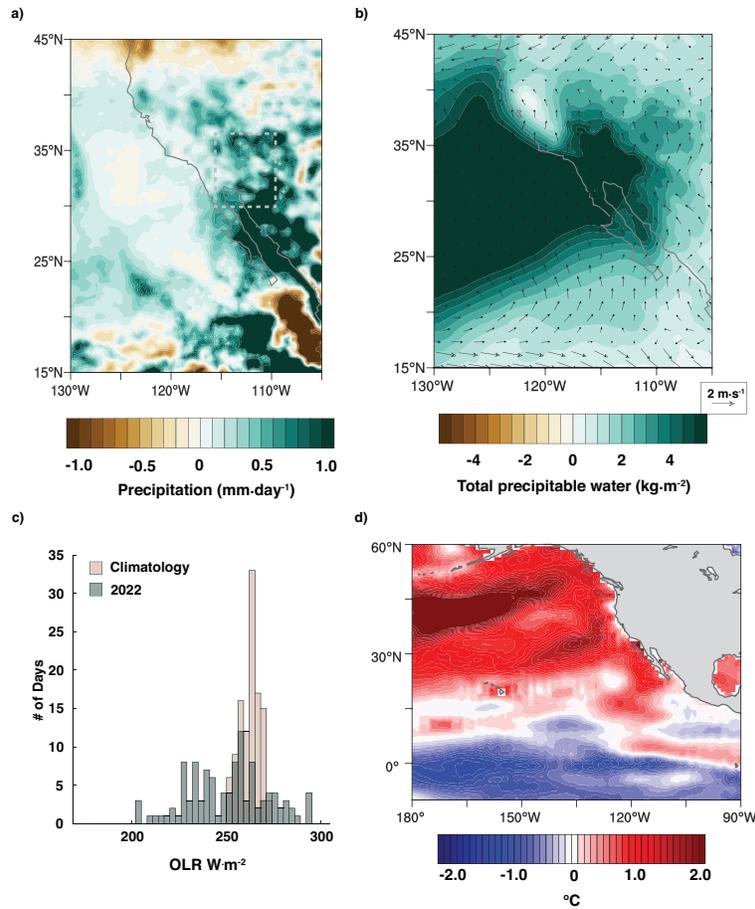
To identify the link between CA margin SSTs and monthly mean precipitation over the northern NAM domain, we calculated an index of SSTs between 25 and 32 °N and 125 and 110 °W. We then calculated the linear correlation of this index and monthly mean precipitation fields from the 0.25 ° Global Precipitation Climatology Centre (GPCC) product between 1960 and 2014, the Climate Prediction Center merged analysis of precipitation (CPC), the Global Precipitation Climatology Project (GPCP), and the NARR ([Schneider et al., 2008](#); [Xie et al., 2007](#); [Adler et al., 2018](#); [Mesinger et al., 2006](#)). Using multiple precipitation products helps establish the robustness of the relationship. We also evaluated the correlation between this SST index and monthly mean fields of SLP, precipitable water, and moisture flux from the NARR.

For our analysis of correlations between CA margin SSTs and precipitation across a range of Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP) phase 5 and 6 ESMs, we use an index of precipitation over land areas between 27 and 37 °N and 115 and 107 °W. For the SST-sea level pressure (SLP) correlation analysis, we use an index of SLP over ocean areas between 20 and 30 °N and 125 and 110 °W. Slight changes to the bounds of these index regions do not alter our results or conclusions.

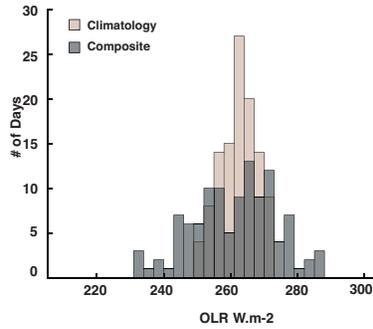
In Figure [S13](#), we plot the running correlation between CA margin SST anomalies and precipitation in future emission scenarios for the 4 ESMs that show the greatest fidelity over the historical period at producing the observed SST-precipitation correlation (high resolution configurations of CESM1.3, MPI-ESM1-2, as well as ACCESS-CM and CanESM5). This running correlation is performed in 40-year averaging windows for historical simulations, Shared Socioeconomic Pathway (SSP) 3-7.0 and 5-8.5 in the case of the MPI, ACCESS and CanESM5 ESMs, and for Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) 8.5 in the case of CESM1.3-HR (see Table S1 for more details). Because the forcing datasets differ across these simulations, the purpose of this analysis is not to analyze the particular trajectory of NAM precipitation and SST in a given ESM versus another, although we show this in Figure [S12](#). Instead, the goal of this analysis is show that the strength of the correlation between CA margin SSTs and northern NAM precipitation remains statistically significant in the future.

## **Contrasting Models with High and Low Skill**

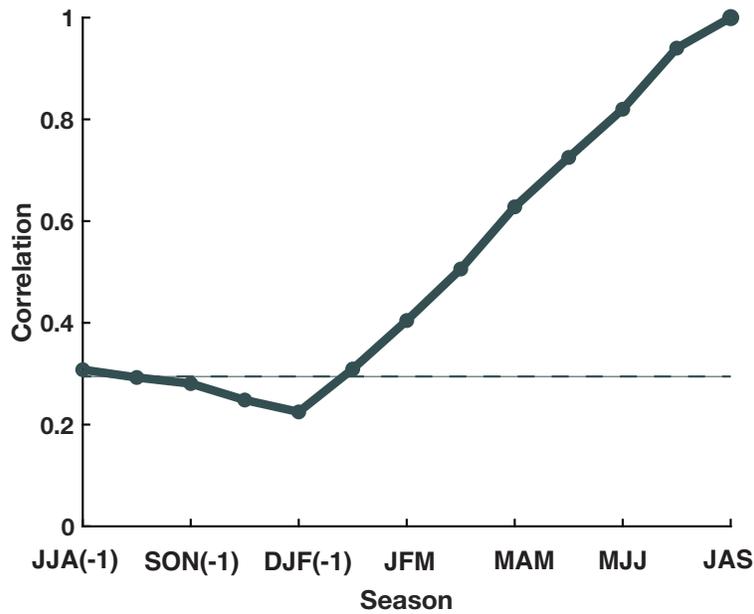
Figure 4 in the main text contrasts models with high and low skill at reproducing the SST-monsoon linkage (e.g. the correlation between CA margin SSTs averaged between 25 and 32 °N and 125 and 110 °W and NAM precipitation). To create composite correlation plots contrasting the best and worst models, each models' fields of 850 mb geopotential height, sea level pressure, zonal and meridional moisture flux (calculated from inputs of u and v winds as well as humidity), and precipitation from historical simulations were regridded to a common 1 °by 1 °latitude and longitude grid. We used these regridded model fields to calculate the correlation between the timeseries of each models' CA margin SST index and that models' timeseries of geopotential height, sea level pressure, moisture flux, and precipitation. Correlation fields from the good models (e.g. CESM1.3; MPI-ESM-1-2-HR; ACCESS-CM2; CanESM5-1) are averaged together to generate a 'composite' correlation field representing the good models. Similarly, climatologies of each variable from each model are computed and then averaged together to create a composite climatology for these 'good models.' These results are presented in Figure 4 in the main text and Figure S7. The same procedure is repeated for the worst performing models (e.g. NESM3; FIO-ESM2; MIROC6) to create a composite of worst-performing models.



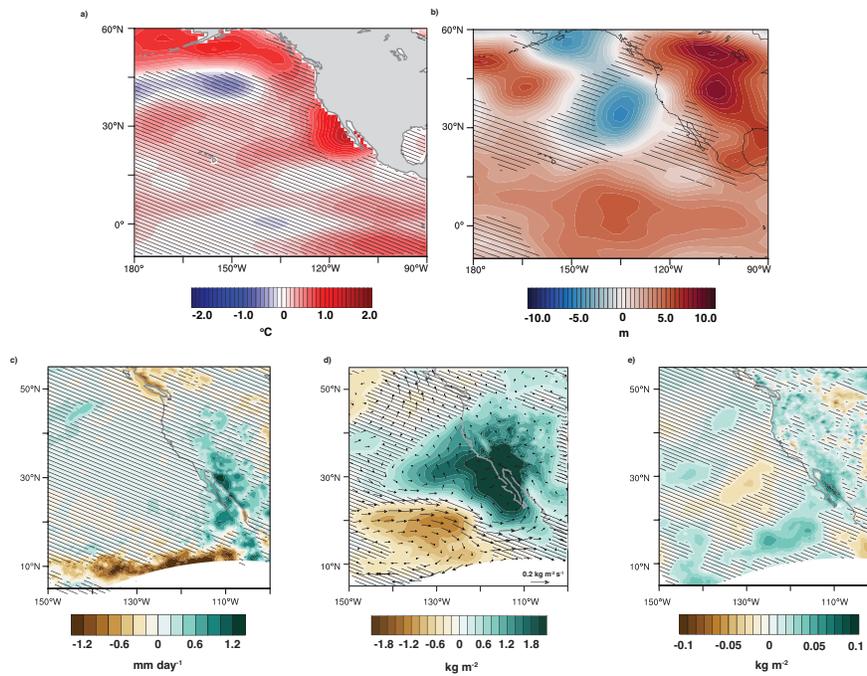
**Figure S1: Shifts in monsoon precipitation rates in summer 2022.** a) shows July-September monthly mean precipitation anomalies in mm/day. Gray box highlights the northern NAM region used for averaging, and includes Death Valley, CA. b) shows anomalies of total precipitable water and 850 mb winds. c) shows differences in daily values of outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) for summer 2022 (mint green) compared to the climatology between 1974 and 2022 (tan). The distribution of OLR for 2022 is significantly different from the climatological distribution at the 95% level according to a 2-sided Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test. d) shows summer 2022 SST anomalies in °C relative to a 1950-2022 climatology.



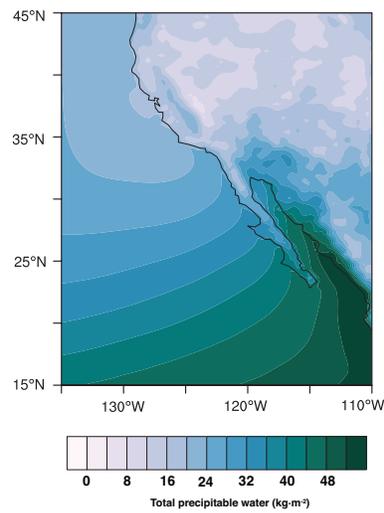
**Figure S2:** Differences in daily values of outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) for five summers with the greatest extreme precipitation days (mint green) compared to the climatology between 1974 and 2022 (tan). The distribution of OLR for extreme precipitation years is significantly different from the climatological distribution at the 95% level according to a 2-sided Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test.



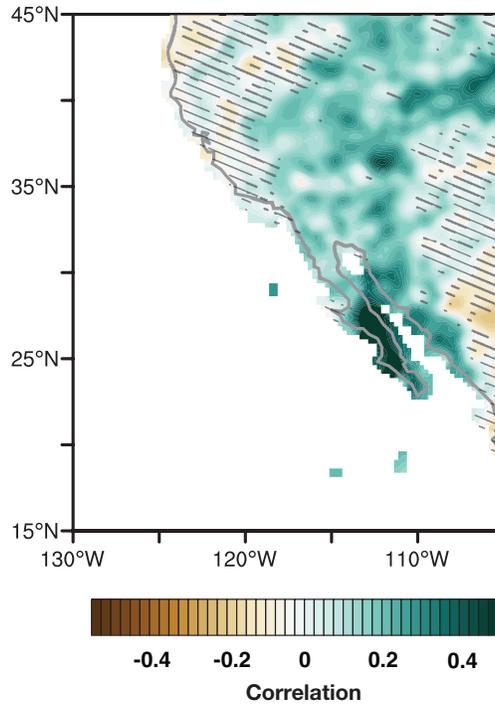
**Figure S3:** Correlation between July-September (JAS) SST anomalies on the CA Margin (25 and 32 °N and 125 and 110 °W) and simultaneous (JAS) and prior seasons' SST anomalies, starting with JJA, then MJJ, AMJ, MAM, etc. until JJA in the prior year. Significance of correlation level is indicated by the dashed line.



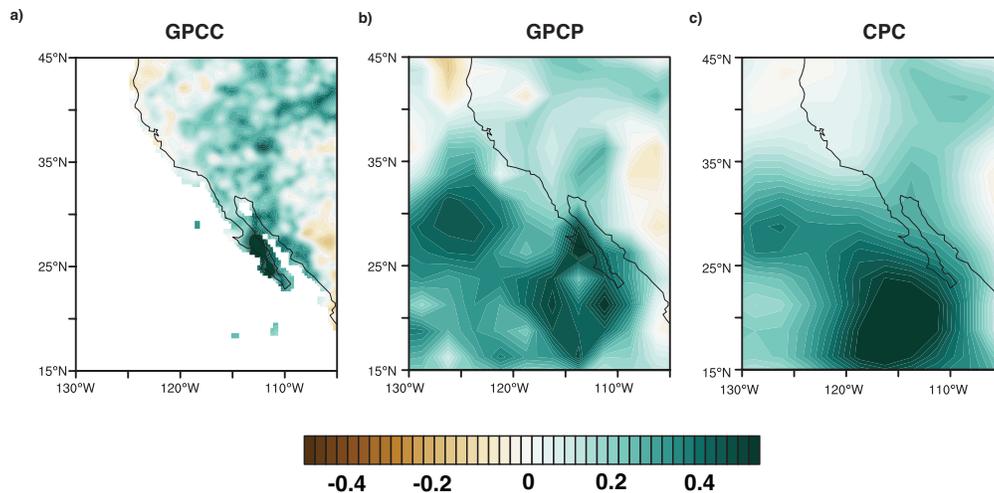
**Figure S4:** Fields shown in Figure 1 in main text, with shading to indicate regions where composite anomalies are not statistically significant. a) SST; b) 850 mb geopotential height; c) NARR monthly mean precipitation rate d) moisture flux and total precipitable water (shading indicates significance of precipitable water composite anomalies). e) evaporation. Significance determined via a two-sided t-test.



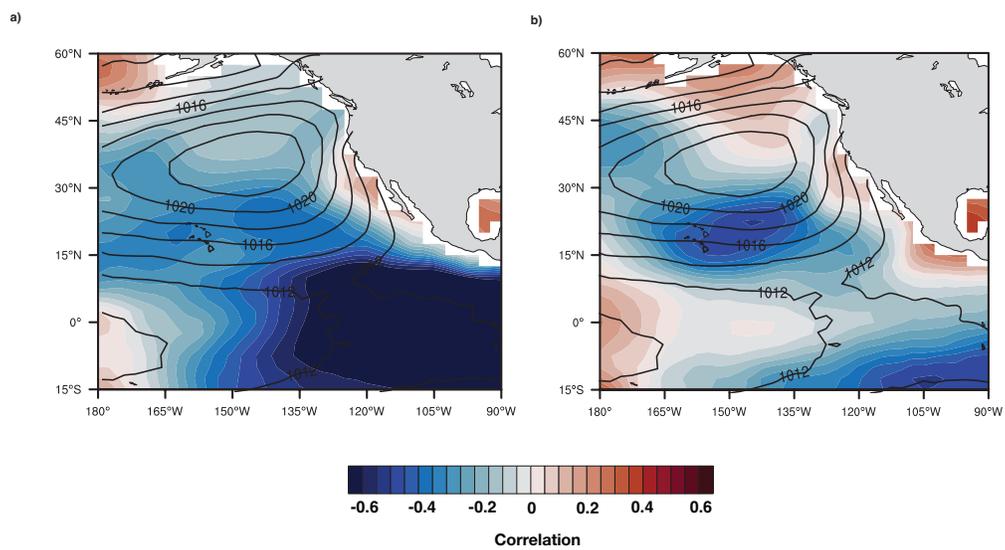
**Figure S5:** July-September climatology of total precipitable water in  $\text{kg/m}^2$  over the southwest US and western Mexico. Data from the North American Regional Reanalysis ([Mesinger et al., 2006](#)). Climatology shows strong gradients from 30-40 °N, where there are very low values of precipitable water over desert regions of the southwest.



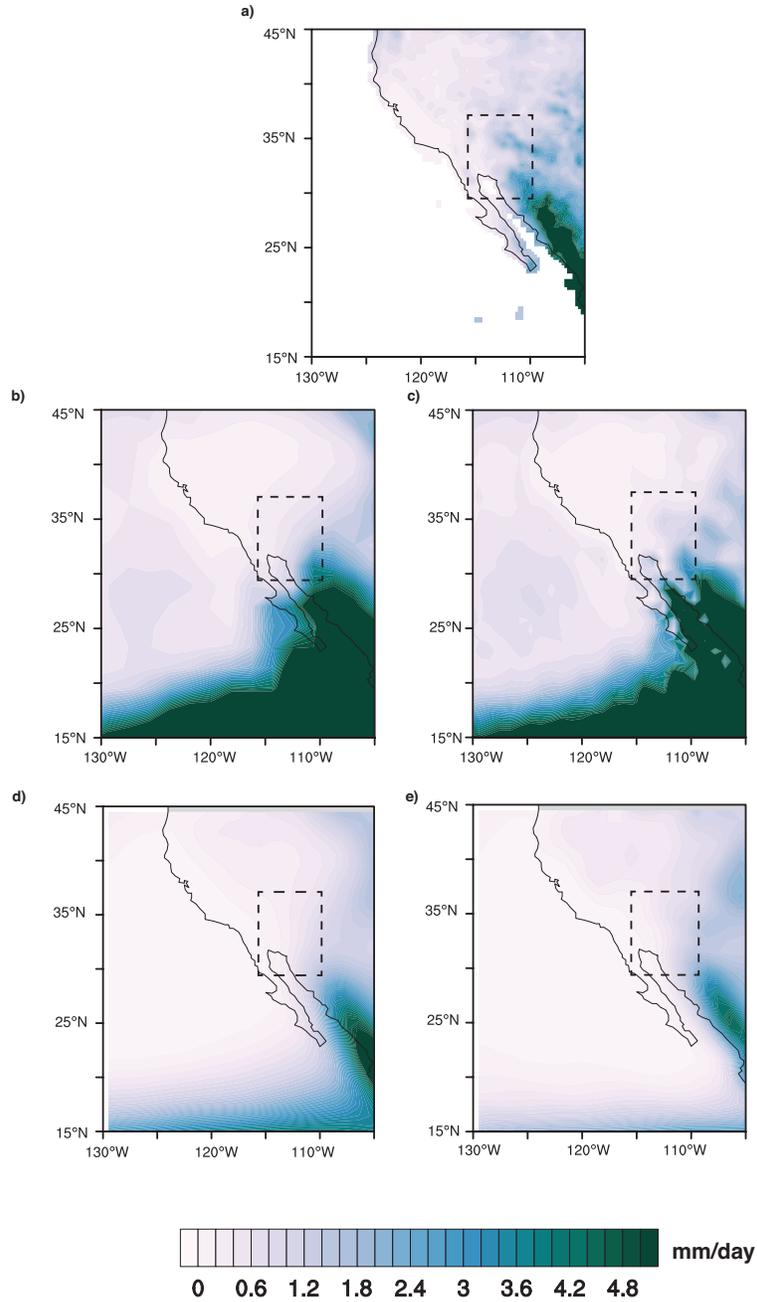
**Figure S6:** Correlation between CA Margin SSTs and GPCP precipitation in GPCP precipitation. SSTs are an index between 25 and 32 °N and 125 and 110 °W, taken from the COBE SST product (Ishii et al., 2005). Shading indicates regions where correlation is not statistically significant. See next figure for correlation with multiple products



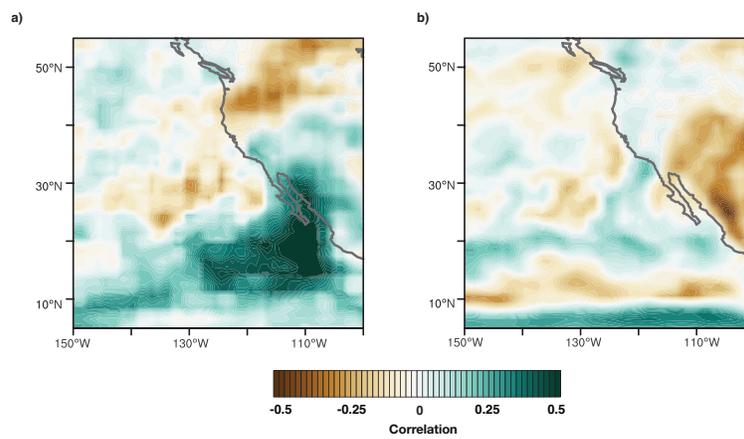
**Figure S7:** Correlation between CA Margin SSTs and precipitation in multiple products. SSTs are an index between 25 and 32 °N and 125 and 110 °W, taken from the COBE SST product (Ishii et al., 2005).



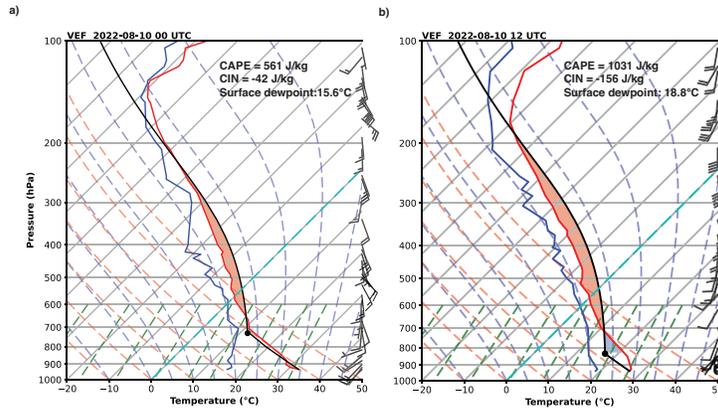
**Figure S8:** Correlation between sea level pressure (SLP) over the northeast Pacific and other modes of variability. a) shows simultaneous correlation between Niño 3.4 index and SLP; b) shows simultaneous correlation between the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) and SLP. Solid contours represent climatological values of SLP



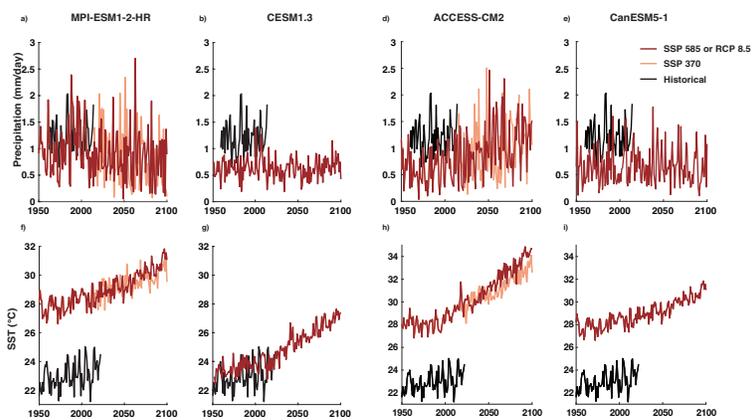
**Figure S9:** July-September climatology of low vs. high resolution ESMs. a) shows observational climatology of summertime precipitation from the GPCCC 0.25 ° product; b) shows MPI-ESM1-2 low resolution summertime rainfall climatology; c) shows MPI-ESM1-2 high resolution climatology; d) shows CESM1.3 low resolution climatology; e) shows CESM1.3 high resolution climatology. All ESM climatologies are computed from 1950-2014 in historical simulations. Dashed box outlines the region used for precipitation averages shown in Figure 5 in the main text. Climatologies of rainfall rates show only a small improvement over this dashed box in the high resolution version of the ESMs



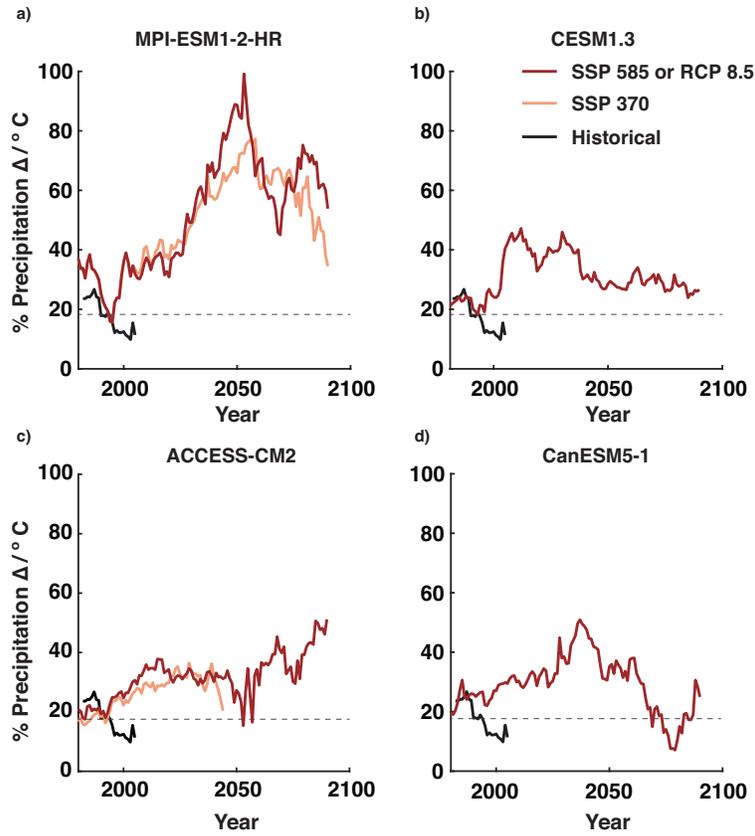
**Figure S10:** July-September correlation of precipitation with CA margin SST anomalies (see text for index definition) contrasting models that perform well and those that perform poorly. a) shows models with good skill at reproducing SST-monsoon linkage (CESM1.3; ACCESS-CM2; CanESM5-1; MPI-ESM-1-2-HR) and b) shows model with poor skill at simulating linkage (FIO-ESM-2; NESM3; MIROC6).



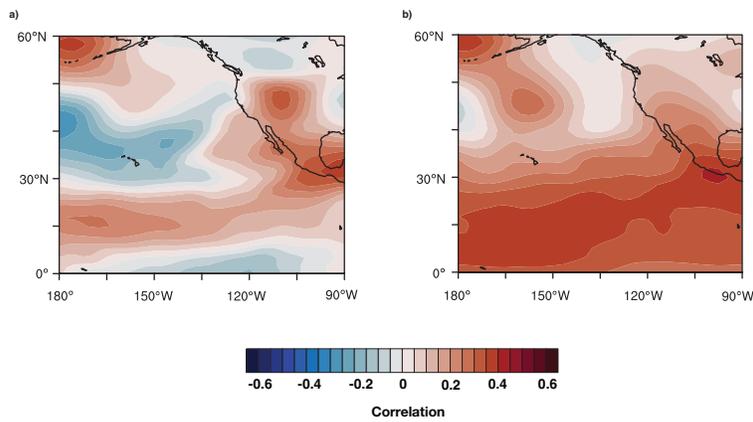
**Figure S11:** Las Vegas (VEF) observed soundings, 10 August 2022 at a) 00Z and b) 12Z. Atmospheric temperature (red), dewpoint temperature (blue) and windspeed with direction (barbs) shown as a function of atmospheric pressure. Profiles (black line) are calculated by dry adiabatic lifting of parcels to the lifted condensation level (LCL, filled black circle). Convective inhibition (CIN; blue shading) and convective available potential energy (CAPE; red shading) are calculated from the surface to the LCL, and from the surface to the equilibrium level (EL), respectively. Both soundings document nearly identical precipitable water amounts, despite a nearly twofold jump in CAPE within 12 hours. The increase in instability is associated with a turning of the low-level winds from southwesterly to southerly. A corresponding moistening from the surface to 700 hPa from this southerly transport, visible when comparing sounding dewpoint temperatures, lowers the LCL, contributing to the strong increase in instability and CAPE.



**Figure S12:** 21st century changes in precipitation and SST for ESMs that exhibit CA margin SST-northern NAM rainfall correlations similar to observations. Top panel shows precipitation (mm/day); bottom panel shows SST ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ). a) and f) are MPI-ESM1-2; b) and g) are CESM1.3; c) and h) are ACCESS-CM2; and d) and i) are CanESM5-1. SSTs and precipitation are in absolute units rather than anomalies in order to highlight SST and precipitation biases.



**Figure S13:** Running correlation between CA margin SST and precipitation for future emissions scenarios across four ESMs that show the highest skill at reproducing the observed SST-precipitation correlation (see Figure 4 in main text). Correlations above the dashed line are statistically significant at the 95% level.



**Figure S14:** Contrasting correlation patterns between geopotential height and CA margin SST index in NCEP-NCAR reanalysis. a) shows 850 mb heights (similar to the pattern in Figure 2 in the main text); b) shows 500 mb height pattern.

**Table S1:** CMIP6 and CMIP5 models used to analyze the relationship between SST bias between 22 and 30 °N and 125 and 110 °W, on the CA margin, and the relationship between SSTs, precipitation, and SLP over northern NAM domain shown in Figure 4 and Figure 5 in the main text. Acronym refers to the acronym used in Figure 4 in the main text.

Institution	Model Name	Acronym	Simulations Analyzed
National Center for Atmospheric Research	CESM2	CESM2	CMIP6 historical
National Center for Atmospheric Research	CESM1.3 low-res	CESM1.3 LR	CMIP5 historical
National Center for Atmospheric Research	CESM1.3 high-res	CESM1.3 HR	CMIP5 historical RCP8.5
EC Earth Consortium	EC-Earth3	ECEarth3	CMIP6 historical
Model for Interdisciplinary Research on Climate	MIROC6	MIROC6	CMIP6 historical
Model for Interdisciplinary Research on Climate	MIROC-ESM2-L	MIROC-ESML	CMIP6 historical
Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory	GFDL-CM4	GFDL-CM4	CMIP6 historical
Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory	GFDL-ESM4	GFDL-ESM4	CMIP6 historical
L'Institut Pierre-Simon Laplace	IPSL-CM6A-LR	IPSL-CM6A-LR	CMIP6 historical
Beijing Climate Center	BCC-CSM2-MR	BCC	CMIP6 historical
State Key Laboratory of Numerical Modeling for Atmospheric Sciences and Geophysical Fluid Dynamics	FGOALS-g3	FGOALS	CMIP6 historical
Max Planck Institute for Meteorology	MPI-ESM1-2-LR	MPI-LR	CMIP6 historical
Max Planck Institute for Meteorology	MPI-ESM1-2-HR	MPI-HR	CMIP6 historical SSP585 SSP370
Canadian Centre for Climate Modelling and Analysis	CanESM5-1	CanESM5	CMIP6 historical SSP585
Centre National de Recherches Météorologiques	CNRM-CM6-1	CNRM-LR	CMIP6 historical
Centre National de Recherches Météorologiques	CNRM-CM6-1	CNRM-HR	CMIP6 historical
Commonwealth Scientific & Industrial Research Organisation Australia	ACCESS-CM2	ACCESS-CM	CMIP6 historical SSP585 SSP370
Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation Australia	ACCESS-ESM2	ACCESS-ESM	CMIP6 historical
Nanjing University of Information Science and Technology China	NESM3	NESM3	CMIP6 historical
First Institute of Oceanography and Pilot National Laboratory for Marine Science and Technology	FIO-ESM2	IO-ESM2	CMIP6 historical
Meteorological Research Institute Japan	MRI-ESM-2.0	MRI-ESM2	CMIP6 historical
Institute for Numerical Mathematics Russian Federation	INM-CM4-8	INM4-8	CMIP6 historical
Institute for Numerical Mathematics Russian Federation	INM-CM5-0	INM5-0	CMIP6 historical

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