

1 **Upper Colorado River streamflow dependencies on summertime synoptic**
2 **circulations and hydroclimate variability**

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14 ABSTRACT: The southwestern United States is highly sensitive to drought, prompting efforts to
15 understand and predict its hydroclimate. Oftentimes, the emphasis is on wintertime precipitation
16 variability, yet the southwestern United States exhibits a summertime monsoon where a significant
17 portion of annual precipitation falls through daily convection activities manifested by a mid-
18 tropospheric ridge of high pressure. Here, we examine synoptic patterns of the southwestern
19 ridge through a *k*-means clustering analysis and assess how these synoptic patterns translate into
20 streamflow changes in the upper Colorado River basin. A linear perspective suggests ~ 17% of
21 upper Colorado River discharge at Lee's Ferry, Arizona gauge comes from summertime monsoon
22 rains. The ridge of high pressure exhibits diversity in its intensity, structure, and position, inducing
23 changes in moisture advection and precipitation. A ridge shifted north or east of its climatological
24 center increases moisture and precipitation over the southwestern United States, while a ridge
25 toward the south or northwest inhibits precipitation. A ridge east of its climatological center
26 contributes to increased streamflow, whereas a ridge west or northwest of its climatological center
27 decreases streamflow. Cooling in the central tropical Pacific and the Pacific Meridional Mode
28 region favors an eastward shift of the ridge of high pressure corresponding to wet days. Eastern
29 tropical Pacific warming favors a southward shift of the ridge corresponding to dry days. These
30 results support an intermediate scale between climate forcing and summertime Colorado River
31 discharge through changes in the intensity, structure, and position of the southwestern ridge of high
32 pressure, integral to the Southwest United States hydroclimate.

33 **1. Introduction**

34 In recent years, the semiarid Intermountain West and southwestern United States have undergone
35 long-lasting droughts, threatening vital water resources that support a wide range of industrial
36 sectors, human health, and ecosystems (Cook et al. 2010; Pederson et al. 2012; Cook et al. 2015;
37 Seager et al. 2015; Mankin et al. 2021; Williams et al. 2022). Given most cold season precipitation
38 is stored as snowpack, research efforts have been directed to understand the climate factors leading
39 to changes in wintertime precipitation and how they translate to river discharge (Erb et al. 2020;
40 Chikamoto et al. 2020; McCabe et al. 2020; Stuivenvolt-Allen et al. 2021). Yet, a significant portion
41 of annual precipitation also falls in the summertime due to the North American Monsoon (NAM)
42 (Higgins et al. 1997, 1999; Cerezo-Mota et al. 2011). During spring snow melt, the Colorado
43 River exhibits increased discharge rates from early spring through early summer prior to the onset
44 of the NAM. Once NAM activates, a question remains whether a favorable summertime synoptic
45 pattern accompanying increased precipitation will help offset reducing discharge rates (Carroll
46 et al. 2020). Here, we attempt to fill a knowledge gap between climate variability and Colorado
47 River discharge by emphasizing summer synoptic circulation changes, given monsoon rains can
48 contribute to $\sim 10\%$ of annual Colorado River streamflow.

49 The NAM is a seasonal change of the large-scale atmospheric circulation that promotes increased
50 precipitation in the southwestern United States and northern Mexico during the summer (Douglas
51 et al. 1993; Adams and Comrie 1997; Higgins et al. 1999; Barlow et al. 1998). It is manifested
52 through a mid-tropospheric subtropical ridge of high pressure that establishes itself in late May
53 and June over northern Mexico and the southwestern United States, which corresponds to warming
54 surface air temperatures (Hales Jr 1972; Erfani and Mitchell 2014; Seastrand et al. 2015). As such,
55 the land–ocean temperature gradient increases, inducing moist airflow from the warm Gulf of
56 California and the Gulf of Mexico toward the Desert Southwest region (Douglas 1995; Bieda et al.
57 2009; Hu and Dominguez 2015). Increased humidity leads to an unstable atmosphere, resulting
58 in a pronounced diurnal cycle in atmospheric convection. As a result, daily thunderstorm activity
59 over the Desert Southwest occurs mid-June through August (Fuller and Stensrud 2000; Finch and
60 Johnson 2010). The NAM decays in September as midlatitude jet stream activities subside the
61 ridge of high pressure. Because the NAM involves land-atmosphere and ocean-atmosphere effects,

62 changes in the structure, intensity, and location of the mid-tropospheric ridge of high pressure drive
63 changes in winds, moisture transport, and precipitation.

64 A limited number of research articles indicate that variability of the southwestern mid-
65 tropospheric high pressure system (and hence the NAM) may be linked to low-frequency climate
66 variability (D'Arrigo and Jacoby 1991; Brown and Wu 2005; Sagarika et al. 2016; Kim et al. 2008;
67 Peltier and Ogle 2019; Zhao and Zhang 2022). For instance, the El Niño-Southern Oscillation
68 (ENSO) atmospheric teleconnection stems from a quasi-stationary Rossby wave train emanating
69 from the western tropical Pacific. An El Niño favors a southward shift in the mid-tropospheric high
70 pressure system leading to dry conditions, while the opposite is true for a La Niña (Demaria et al.
71 2019). SST variability in the adjacent Pacific Ocean (Gulf of California) or the Gulf of Mexico
72 may also induce regional wind shifts and changes in humidity necessary for monsoonal moisture
73 to reach the southwestern United States. Alternatively, the Madden-Julien Oscillation (MJO) may
74 impact the NAM by amplifying easterly waves in the eastern North Pacific and promoting tropi-
75 cal cyclone genesis, which fosters moisture surges toward northern Mexico and the southwestern
76 United States (Lorenz and Hartmann 2006).

77 Here, we examine variability in structure, intensity, and location of the mid-tropospheric high
78 pressure system associated with the NAM to assess which synoptic patterns favor increased or
79 decreased precipitation over the upper Colorado River basin, and then link them to changes in
80 upper Colorado River streamflow and climate variability. Our principal research questions are:

- 81 1. How does the location, structure, and intensity of the southwestern ridge of high pressure
82 accompany precipitation changes during the NAM?
- 83 2. How do Pacific Ocean teleconnections and climate patterns affect the location, structure, and
84 intensity of the southwestern ridge of high pressure?
- 85 3. Can the relationship between the location of the southwestern ridge of high pressure and upper
86 Colorado River streamflow be quantified?

87 To answer these questions, we first statistically decompose the July–August 500 hPa ridge of high
88 pressure over the southwestern United States through a k -means clustering method of daily 500
89 hPa geopotential height. Next, we reveal which k -means clusters favor positive and negative
90 precipitation anomalies in the upper Colorado River basin and the Desert Southwest based on the

91 structure, intensity, and location of the 500 hPa ridge of high pressure. We then aggregate the 500
92 hPa patterns that favor positive or negative precipitation in the upper Colorado River basin and
93 assess whether there is a significant change in discharge rates. The aggregated composite *k*-means
94 also favor modes of climate variability. We detail the *k*-means clustering technique in Section
95 2. Then we describe our results of the *k*-means clustering of the 500 hPa ridge of high pressure
96 in Section 3, link it to climate variability in Section 4, and examine its dependencies on upper
97 Colorado River streamflow in Section 5. We end with a discussion with concluding remarks in
98 Section 6.

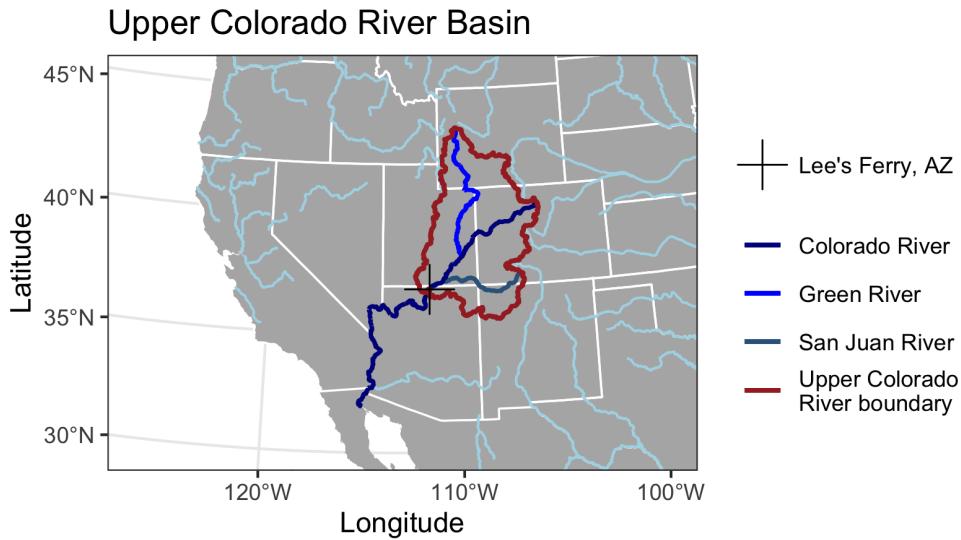
99 **2. Data and methods**

100 *a. Reanalysis data*

101 To link variability in the southwestern ridge of high pressure to precipitation, we obtain ERA5
102 daily 500 hPa geopotential height (Z500), ERA5 daily lower-tropospheric winds (UV850), and
103 ERA5 total column precipitable water (PWAT), which comprises of vertically integrating 37 levels
104 (Hersbach 2016). These ERA5 datasets have $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ resolution. We also obtain daily Climate
105 Prediction Center Merged Analysis of Precipitation (CMAP) Global Unified Gauge-Based Analysis
106 of Daily Precipitation, which has a $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ resolution (Xie et al. 2007; Chen et al. 2008) in
107 the United States and a $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ resolution worldwide (Xie et al. 2010). For daily precipitation
108 anomalies, we quantify area-averaged precipitation constrained only to the upper Colorado River
109 basin by constraining grid points within the upper Colorado River basin boundary (Fig. 1). From
110 these variables, we calculate daily anomalies based on the 1980–2020 mean. For monthly data, we
111 obtain COBE-SST ($1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ resolution) (Ishii et al. 2005) and ERA5 Z500 ($0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ resolution)
112 (Hersbach 2016) products and compute monthly anomalies based on the 1980–2020 mean. The
113 following analysis is constrained to the July–August period for daily and monthly anomalies. The
114 linear trends at each grid point are extracted from the anomalies to remove the long-term trend,
115 such as the global warming component.

120 *b. Modes of Climate Variability*

121 To assess the dependencies of climate variability and the southwestern ridge of high pressure,
122 we calculate the Niño3, Niño4, and Pacific Meridional Mode time series. The Niño3 and Niño4



116 FIG. 1. Upper Colorado River Basin in brown, with the Colorado River in dark blue. The two other major
 117 rivers in the basin are the Green River (north) and the San Juan River (south). The Lee's Ferry, Arizona gauge is
 118 denoted by the cross at the southwestern edge of the upper Colorado River basin. Other major rivers are denoted
 119 in light blue.

123 time series are computed by the area average of SST anomalies in the eastern tropical Pacific (5°S–
 124 5°N, 150°W–90°W) and central tropical Pacific (5°S–5°N, 160°E–150°W). The Pacific Meridional
 125 Mode is the leading mode by applying singular value decomposition between SST anomalies and
 126 10-m UV wind vectors in the northeast tropical Pacific (21°N–32°N, 74°W–15°E) (Chiang and
 127 Vimont 2004).

128 *c. Colorado streamflow data*

129 We obtain monthly and daily Colorado streamflow data at Lee's Ferry, Arizona, USA for the
 130 1980–2019 and 1980–2020 periods from the United States Department of Interior's Bureau of
 131 Reclamation and the United States Geological Survey (USGS) (Topping et al. 2003; U.S. Depart-
 132 ment of Interior 2020). Lee's Ferry is at the drainage region of the upper Colorado River Basin
 133 (outlined in brown in Fig. 1). This Upper Colorado River Basin comprises southwest Wyoming,
 134 eastern Utah, western Colorado, northeastern Arizona, and northwestern New Mexico, and has
 135 two major rivers that feed into the Colorado River: the Green River and the San Juan River. More

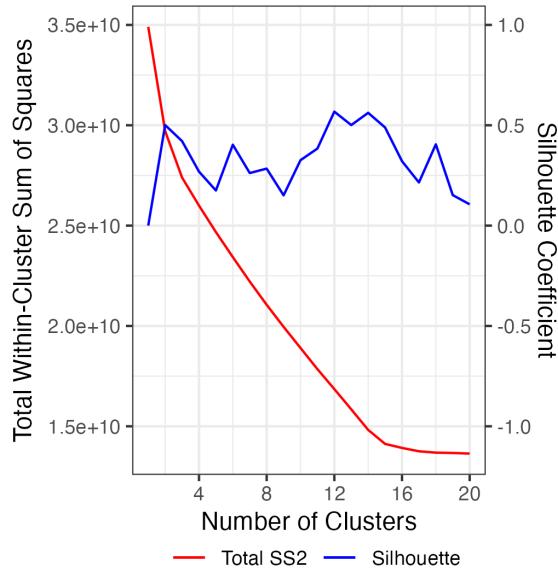
136 than 90% of the natural streamflow in the upper Colorado basin passes through Lee’s Ferry. As
137 such, we chose to perform our analysis at this location.

138 There are many reservoirs and dams upstream of the Lee’s Ferry gauge for water storage and
139 hydroelectric power, so the USGS implements a hydrological model that adjusts raw streamflow
140 to compensate for human activities (U.S. Department of Interior 1983). As a result, naturalized
141 streamflow data are computed by removing these anthropogenic impacts (i.e., reservoir regulation,
142 reservoir evaporation, irrigated agriculture, water consumption) from the raw recorded historical
143 flows (Prairie and Callejo 2005). These data are developed and updated regularly by the Bureau
144 of Reclamation. Naturalized streamflow data is only available in a monthly format; therefore, we
145 also extend our analysis to raw daily streamflow without anthropogenic effects removed, obtained
146 from the USGS.

147 Daily timescale streamflow at the outlet of the upper Colorado River basin lags monsoon rains
148 and runoff upstream of the Lee’s Ferry gauge. Past research indicates that the streamflow response
149 time from precipitation is dependent on many variables, such as season, soil moisture, soil char-
150 acteristics, land cover, geological porosity, precipitation duration, and precipitation location (Orth
151 and Seneviratne 2013; Hrachowitz et al. 2013; Bizuneh et al. 2021). One study assessed this lagged
152 relationship on a sub-basin of the upper Colorado River at the Colorado Headwaters Basin and
153 determined during summer the lagged precipitation relationship was about 1 day (Franzen et al.
154 2020). Another study found that most rivers in the Intermountain West have a 1- to 3-day lag
155 (Moges et al. 2022). To account for the large basin (drainage area), our study applies a 5-day
156 streamflow mean (days 0–4) following daily precipitation (day 0) for raw daily streamflow. As
157 a result, the gauge at Lee’s Ferry will partially represent the integration of the previous 5-days
158 precipitation for the raw daily streamflow analysis.

159 *d. K-means cluster analysis*

160 To statistically decompose the mid-tropospheric southwestern ridge of high pressure into pre-
161 ferred synoptic patterns, we apply *k*-means clustering on the daily 500 hPa geopotential height
162 (Z500) field over the western United States through July–August from 1980–2020 (20°N–45°N,
163 90°W–145°W) using the Hartigan and Wong (1979) AS-136 algorithm. The *k*-means clustering
164 method decomposes data into *k* clusters based on the intracluster variance of the squared Euclidean



181 FIG. 2. Total within-cluster sum of squares (left y-axis) and Silhouette coefficient (right y-axis) for n clusters
 182 1–20.

165 distance between data points (Milligan and Cooper 1985; Gong and Richman 1995; Jolliffe and
 166 Philipp 2010; Jain 2010; Govender and Sivakumar 2020). In other words, the k -means algorithm
 167 groups daily synoptic patterns that are similar to one another.

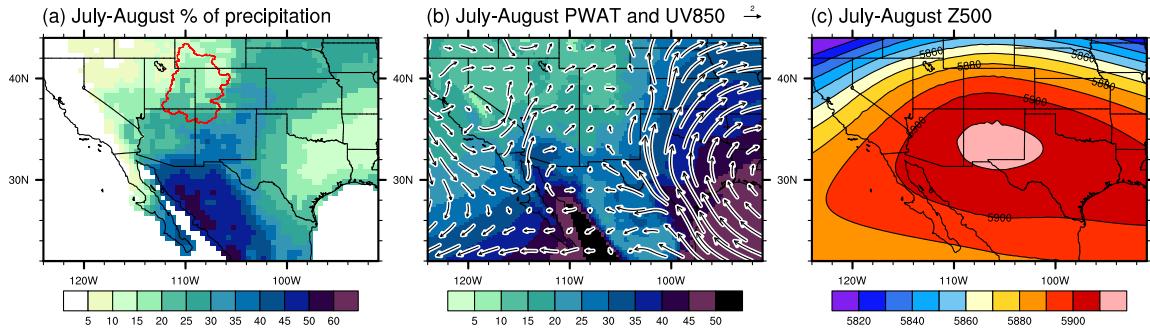
168 One of the challenges in the k -means clustering analysis is obtaining an optimal number of
 169 clusters. When datasets exhibit evident and obvious separate patterns, as observed for midlatitude
 170 circulations associated with low-frequency climate variability, the optimal number of clusters may
 171 be clearly defined in the data. However, summer synoptic circulations in the western United States
 172 are primarily dominated by a subtropical ridge of high pressure that accompanies subtle variations
 173 in location, structure, and strength, inhibiting clearly defined synoptic regimes. To determine
 174 the optimal number of summertime synoptic patterns, we apply the “elbow” and the “silhouette”
 175 methods proposed by Kodinariya et al. (2013). First, we repeat the k -means procedure from clusters
 176 1–20 (k). Next, we plot the total within-cluster sum of squares against the k number of clusters and
 177 visually look for the “elbow” in the curve (red line in Fig. 2). Alternatively, the “silhouette” method
 178 measures the compactness and separation between the k clusters by quantifying how close each
 179 element of one cluster is to the elements of the neighboring clusters (Rousseeuw 1987). Greater
 180 silhouette coefficients indicate better the classification of synoptic patterns (blue line in Fig. 2).

183 The total within-cluster sum of squares curves for the initial 1–3 k clusters, then follows a
184 quasi-linear line from clusters 4 through 14, and finally deviates significantly after cluster 15,
185 thereby indicating the "elbow" is located at cluster 15 (Fig. 2). Arguably, k clusters of 2 suggest
186 an "elbow," but past research on the southwestern ridge of high pressure indicates more than three
187 summertime patterns in the southwestern United States and northern Mexico (Diem and Brown
188 2009; McCann 2010; Mazon et al. 2016). The silhouette coefficient exceeds 0.5 at clusters 2, 12,
189 13, and 14, with the greatest values for clusters 12 and 14 (~ 0.52). Based on the two methods, an
190 optimal number of clusters is between 12–15, and here we apply $k = 15$ clusters. These 15 clusters
191 represent changes in the intensity, structure, and position of the summertime southwestern ridge of
192 high pressure. We organize the clusters in descending order based on the Upper Colorado River
193 Basin anomalous precipitation (e.g., cluster 1 corresponds to the highest anomalous precipitation
194 and cluster 15 the lowest).

195 **3. Summertime southwest synoptic variability**

196 *a. July–August Climatology*

197 The July–August synoptic conditions are dominated by a mid-tropospheric ridge of high pressure
198 centered over New Mexico (Fig. 3c). A significant portion of precipitation occurs over the Desert
199 Southwest as depicted in Figure 3a. Over northwest Mexico, including the states of Sonora,
200 Sinaloa, Chihuahua, and Durango, over 50% of annual precipitation falls in July–August due to the
201 NAM. This percentage decreases to the north, yet still, a significant portion of annual precipitation
202 falls during July–August in far southeastern California and Nevada, Arizona, and New Mexico
203 (20–40%). Additionally, 10–20% of annual precipitation falls in Utah and Colorado during these
204 two months. The percentage decreases over northern Utah, northern Colorado, and Wyoming.
205 However, increased terrain-based precipitation over Utah, Colorado, and Wyoming is evident over
206 the upper Colorado River basin in Figure 3a. We see a significant portion of precipitation over
207 the central and northern Great Plains, but much of that precipitation is in the form of mesoscale
208 convective systems cresting the mid-tropospheric ridge of high pressure, not necessarily directly
209 related to the NAM (Houze Jr 2004; Wang et al. 2011; Houze Jr 2018). In the upper Colorado River
210 basin, an estimated 22% of annual precipitation falls in July–August by quantifying the basinwide



225 FIG. 3. (a) 1980–2020 July–August percent of annual precipitation (%) with the Upper Colorado River boundary
 226 (red), (b) July–August climatological PWAT (kg/m^2) and UV850 (m/s), and (c) July–August climatological Z500
 227 (m).

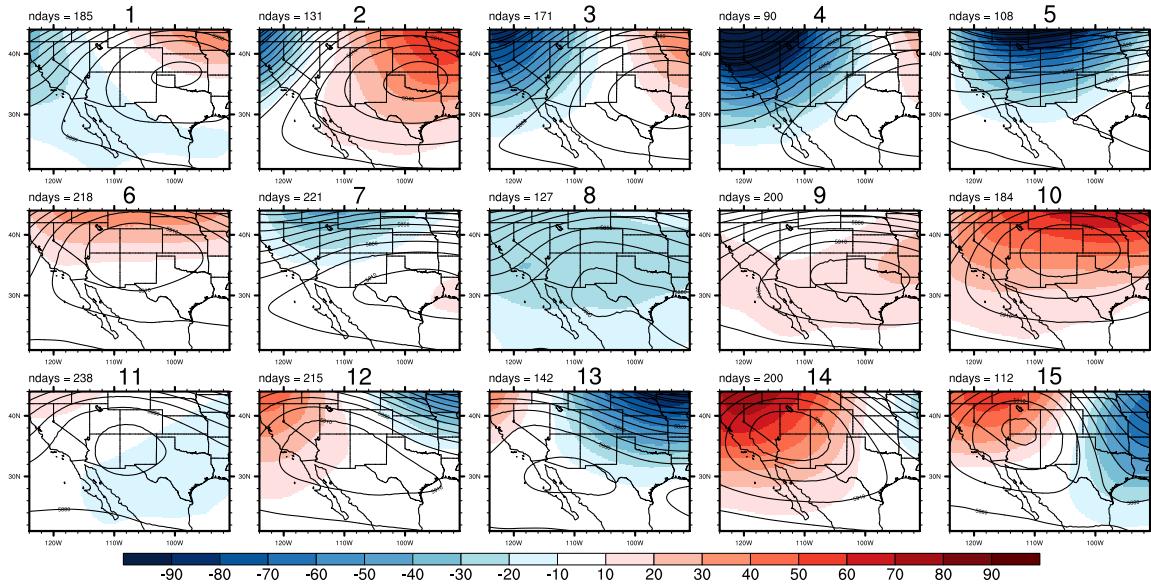
211 area average. As a result, a large portion of annual precipitation falls during July–August over the
 212 southwest USA.

213 Figure 3b depicts climatological PWATs, characterized by a moist atmosphere over the Gulf of
 214 California and the Gulf of Mexico. Lower-tropospheric winds show climatological southerlies
 215 over the southern Great Plains with an easterly component over Texas, advecting moist air toward
 216 the southwestern United States, typically east of the Sierra Madre Mountains and the Continental
 217 Divide. Additionally, a weak climatological southwesterly wind component over the Gulf of
 218 California fosters moisture advection towards the southwestern United States. The NAM is usually
 219 in the form of periodic moisture plumes through low-level jets due to a favorable synoptic
 220 environment, so to assess the NAM, one method is assessing the eddy moisture flux to quantify
 221 these transient perturbations (Arritt et al. 2000; Favors and Abatzoglou 2013). Alternatively,
 222 we can examine daily k -mean clusters that categorize synoptic patterns and then see how those
 223 synoptic patterns characterize changes in lower-tropospheric winds, atmospheric moisture, and
 224 precipitation, illustrating transient perturbations in the large-scale pattern.

228 *b. Cluster analysis of 500 hPa heights*

229 Figure 4 shows the 15 k -means clusters depicted by 500 hPa geopotential height anomalies. Note
 230 that the July–August climatological mean high pressure center is over New Mexico (Fig. 3c). Figure
 231 4 depicts significant variability in the location, intensity, and structure of the southwestern ridge of
 232 high pressure. Clusters 1–3 depict an anomalous dipole consisting of positive Z500 anomalies over

Z500 Anomalies (m) (1980-2020)



245 FIG. 4. *k*-mean cluster analysis of detrended daily (contours) 500 hPa geopotential height and (colors) 500 hPa
 246 geopotential height anomalies from July–August (1980–2020) over the southwestern United States and northern
 247 Mexico (20°N–45°N, 90°W–145°W). The number of days for each *k*-means is on the top left of each subplot.

233 the Great Plains of the United States and negative Z500 anomalies over the western United States
 234 (Fig. 4). It follows that Clusters 1–3 characterize the ridge of high pressure east of its climatological
 235 position. Clusters 4 and 5 are characterized by negative Z500 anomalies over the western United
 236 States, illustrating troughing over the Upper Colorado River. Clusters 6 and 10 show anomalous
 237 positive Z500 anomalies over the northern United States (Fig. 4), characterized by the ridge of
 238 high pressure shifted north of its climatological mean. Clusters 12–15 show the opposite dipole
 239 as clusters 1–3, consisting of negative Z500 anomalies over the eastern half of the United States
 240 and negative Z500 anomalies over the western half. Notably, clusters 14–15 depict negative Z500
 241 anomalies centered over the northwestern United States, thereby characterizing the ridge of high
 242 pressure northwest of its climatological position (Fig. 4). This diversity in the location, intensity,
 243 and structure of the 500 hPa ridge of high pressure triggers a response in lower- to mid-tropospheric
 244 winds, moisture, and precipitation.

248 The different clusters of mid-tropospheric circulations result in a range of precipitation anomaly
 249 patterns in and around the upper Colorado River basin (Fig. 5). Clusters 1–4 favor wetting
 250 across most of the upper Colorado River basin, whereas clusters 5–8 show north-south contrasts

Cluster Precip (mm/day) Anomaly (1980-2020)

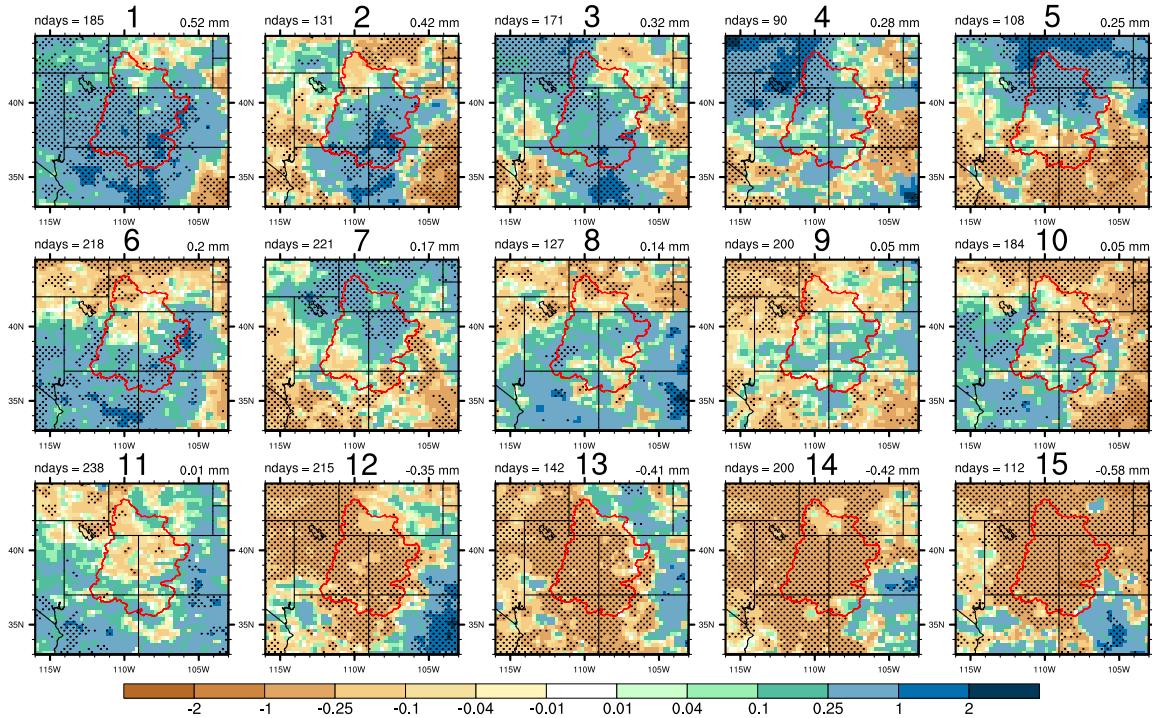


FIG. 5. CPC Precipitation anomalies (mm/day) associated with each cluster in Figure 4. Note the color bar has a logarithmic ramp. The Upper Colorado River is outlined in red and the basin area-averaged precipitation anomaly is on the top right of each subplot. The dotted region shows above the 90% statistical significance level using Student's t-test for precipitation anomalies against corresponding Z500 cluster in Figure 4.

of precipitation anomalies within the upper Colorado River Basin, yet basinwide, they are still anomalously wet. Clusters 9–10 show local variations in precipitation anomalies, favoring slight wetting. Cluster 11 is near normal basin-wide. Clusters 12–15 are anomalously dry basinwide.

Interestingly, the synoptic patterns that favor a wetting pattern in the upper Colorado River basin show similarities in the structure and position of the 500 hPa ridge of high pressure (Fig. 5 and Fig. 4). Cluster 1–3 (19.2% of days) depict the ridge of high pressure shifted east of its climatological center, whereas Cluster 4 and 5 (7.8%) indicate troughing. Clusters 12–15 show the ridge west of its climatological mean (26.3% of days). Notably, the driest clusters (12,14, and 15) depict the ridge of high pressure northwest of its climatological mean (20.7% of days). Cluster 13 depicts the ridge of high pressure south of its climatological mean (5.6% of days). We summarize and categorize these clusters based visual assessment of the ridge of high pressure location obtained

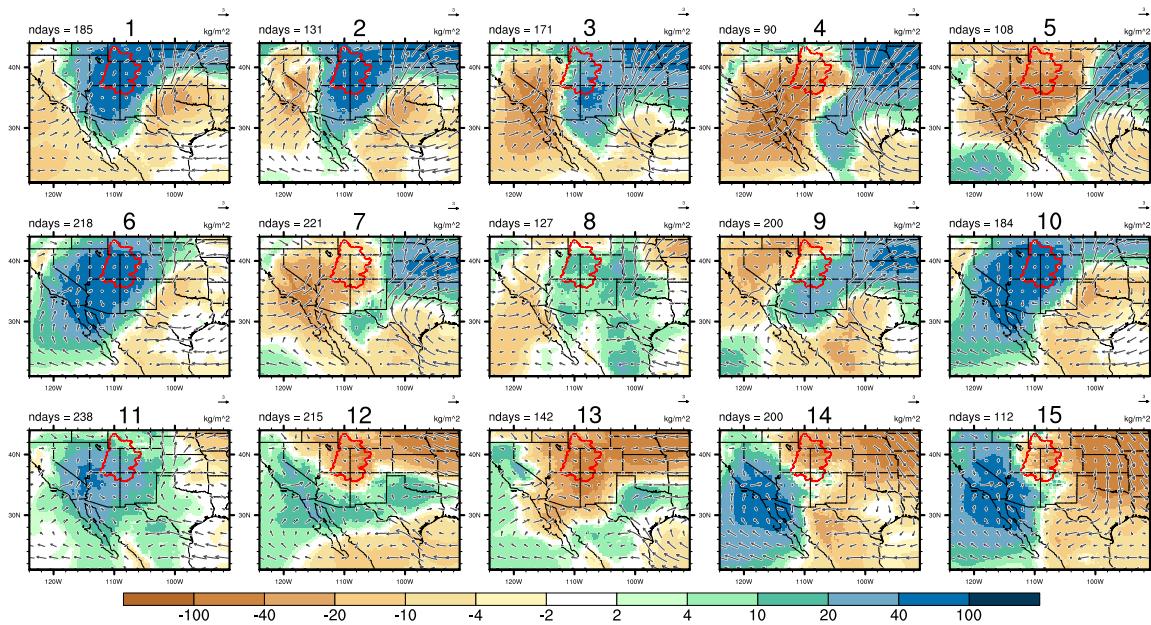
266 by the k -means algorithm in Table 1. These results suggest that a ridge of high pressure favoring
 267 a wetting pattern over the upper Colorado River basin is typically east of the climatological mean,
 268 whereas a ridge of high pressure favoring a drying pattern is toward the west of the climatological
 269 mean, with the northwest position being the driest.

270 TABLE 1. Summary of preferred synoptic patterns of the 500 hPa ridge of high pressure based on position,
 271 classification whether they are wet or dry in the upper Colorado river basin, cluster numbers, the percent of
 272 July–August days in 1980–2020, and area-averaged precipitation anomalies (mm/day) constrained in the upper
 273 Colorado River basin outlined in Figure 1.

Ridge position	Classification	Cluster	% of days	Precip anomaly <i>mm/day</i>
East	Wet	1,2,3	19.2%	+0.42
Trough	Wet	4,5	7.8%	+0.26
North	Wet	6,10	15.8%	+0.13
–	Neutral	7,8,9,11	21.6%	+0.07
South	Dry	13	5.6%	-0.41
West/Northwest	Dry	12,14,15	20.7%	-0.43

274 Generally, the ridge of high pressure structure, location, and intensity can control lower-
 275 tropospheric flow and hence, changes in atmospheric moisture content. Figure 6 shows PWAT
 276 anomalies based on the percentage from its climatological mean and 850 hPa wind vectors for
 277 each cluster’s days. Similar to the precipitation anomaly patterns (Fig. 5), each cluster depicts
 278 different patterns of PWAT anomalies and UV850 winds characterizing the transient nature of
 279 the NAM. Clusters 1–3 show lower-tropospheric southeasterly winds curving southwesterly at the
 280 western periphery of the mid-tropospheric ridge of high pressure that accompany anomalously
 281 positive PWATs over the Upper Colorado River basin and regionally over the southwestern United
 282 States. Additionally, clusters 1–3 depict a lower-tropospheric anticyclonic circulation over the
 283 Arkansas-Louisiana-Texas region, funneling moisture from the Gulf of Mexico toward the Sierra
 284 Madre Mountains and the Continental Divide. This lower-tropospheric anticyclone compliments
 285 an eastward placement of the 500 hPa ridge of high pressure that favors a wet pattern (Fig. 4).
 286 Notably, Cluster 1 shows a weaker horizontal pressure gradient extending to the west coast of the
 287 United States compared to Clusters 2 and 3 (Fig. 4), which minimizes dry air advection from the
 288 colder waters adjacent to the California and Oregon coasts.

Cluster PWAT % of Normal, UV850 (m/s) (1980-2020)



300 FIG. 6. PWAT percent from normal (colors) and UV850 winds (arrows) associated with each cluster in Figure
 301 4. The Upper Colorado River is outlined in red.

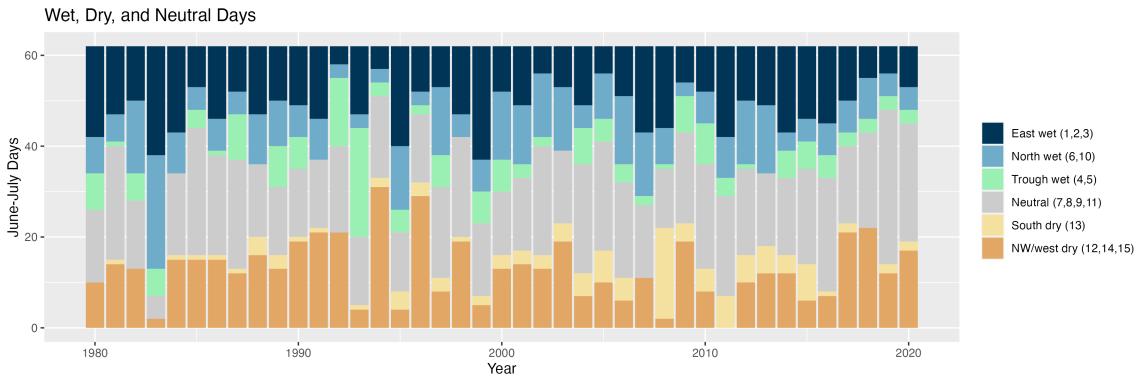
289 Clusters 4 and 5, characterized by troughing over the upper Colorado River basin, show anoma-
 290 lously negative PWATs (Fig. 6). The troughing pattern in Clusters 4 and 5 coincide with lower-
 291 tropospheric northwesterly and westerly winds over California and the adjacent Pacific Ocean,
 292 inhibiting atmospheric moisture over the Upper Colorado River basin. Also, the southeasterly to
 293 southwesterly winds from the Gulf of Mexico inhibit moisture advection to the upper Colorado
 294 River basin. Therefore, the positive precipitation anomalies in Clusters 4 and 5 are primarily
 295 forced by mid-latitude cyclones rather than a favorable ridge of high pressure pattern that advects
 296 moisture toward the basin. Meanwhile, Clusters 6 and 10, characterized by a ridge of high pressure
 297 north of its climatological mean, depict robust positive PWAT anomalies over the Upper Colorado
 298 River basin extending towards the Baja California peninsula. Cluster 6 and 10 also favor positive
 299 precipitation anomalies, but primarily over the southern part of the Upper Colorado River basin.

302 Synoptic patterns that favor a dry pattern over the upper Colorado River basin (clusters 12–15)
 303 are characterized by negative PWAT anomalies over the upper Colorado River basin. Clusters
 304 12, 14, and 15, characterized by a ridge of high pressure west or northwest of its climatological
 305 position, coincide with lower-tropospheric northwesterly winds over the upper Colorado River

306 basin. Accompanying these northwesterly winds, atmospheric moisture is shifted over California,
307 Nevada, and Arizona. Cluster 13, characterized by ridge of high pressure south of its climatological
308 mean, also depicts lower-tropospheric northwesterly winds and negative PWAT anomalies over the
309 basin. Notably, these dry clusters for the Upper Colorado River basin do not necessarily correspond
310 to a dry Arizona, New Mexico, or Mexico (Fig. S1). Yet, the structure of the ridge of high pressure
311 being toward the south or northwest in clusters 12–15 generally supports a synoptic pattern that
312 limits moisture advection to the Upper Colorado River basin (Fig. 4).

313 **4. Southwestern ridge of high pressure dependencies on climate variability**

314 Previous research suggests that La Niña conditions promote an active monsoon due to a northward
315 shift of the monsoon ridge (Castro et al. 2001). We aggregate the five obvious changes in location
316 of the mid-tropospheric ridge of high pressure obtained from the k -means in Figure 4: toward
317 the east promoting wetting, to the north promoting wetting, toward the south promoting drying,
318 toward the west/northwest promoting drying, and troughing promoting wetting (Fig. 7 and Table
319 1). Interestingly, 1982, 1983, and 2003 were the only years with ≥ 20 days where the k -mean
320 favored the ridge of high pressure directly north of its climatological mean. The 1982–1983 years
321 featured a transition to a strong El Niño, followed by a La Niña, characterized by the positive
322 SST anomalies in the eastern tropical Pacific in Figure 8e. Notably, the k -means depicting active
323 monsoon days in its northern extent (upper Colorado River basin) is primarily due to an eastward
324 shift in the southwestern ridge of high pressure (Table 1). During the years 1999, 1983, 1995,
325 1980, and 2011, more than 30% of July–August days favored a ridge of high pressure to the
326 east (Fig. 8a). It is characterized by negative Z500 anomalies over the northeast Pacific, positive
327 anomalies over the Intermountain West, and negative anomalies over the east coast of the United
328 States. This eastward shift of the southwestern ridge of high pressure accompanies robust cooling
329 in the central tropical Pacific to Baja California, corresponding to La Niña-like conditions and an
330 anomalously cool Pacific Meridional Mode (PMM) region (Figs. 8a and 2S). The frequency of days
331 in July–August characterized by an eastward shift in the ridge of high pressure has dependencies on
332 Niño4 and the PMM SST anomalies ($R = -0.43, p = 0.005$ and $-0.45, p = 0.004$). Alternatively,
333 July–August positive precipitation anomalies may be related to an active negative Pacific-North

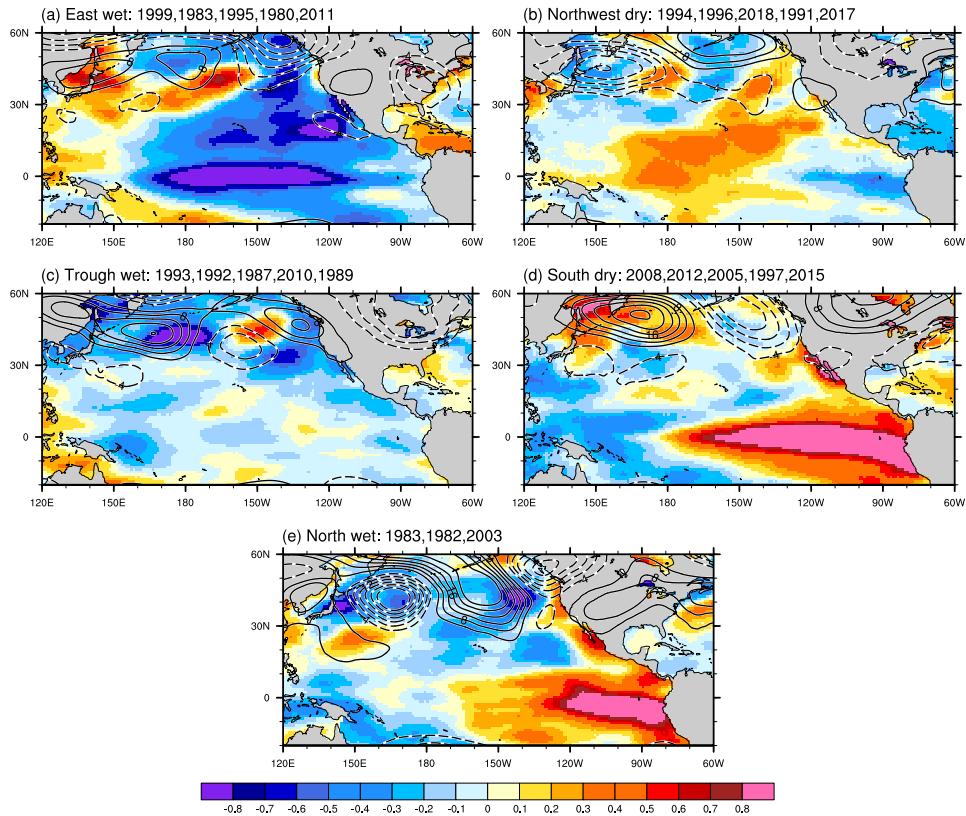


336 FIG. 7. The number of days where the ridge of high pressure is shifted east, north, south, and northwest, and
 337 days where there is a trough of low pressure, obtained by the *k*-means in Figure 4 and 5. The cluster number is
 338 noted on the legend.

334 America pattern that accompanies troughing over the Upper Colorado River Basin, yet there is no
 335 obvious link to Pacific SST anomalies (Fig. 8c).

336 When the ridge of high pressure is northwest of its climatological position for 40% of July–
 337 August days in 1994, 1996, 2018, 1991, and 2017, no robust climate variability is evident (Fig.
 338 8b). The frequency of July–August days with a northwestward shift is weakly correlated with the
 339 PMM: $R = 0.36, p = 0.025$. However, the southward shifted ridge of high pressure based on its
 340 climatological position favors an eastern Pacific El Niño (Fig. 8d), accounting for 24% of July–
 341 August days in 2008, 2015, 2005, and 2011 consistent with past research (Demaria et al. 2019).
 342 The frequency of July–August days with a southward shift of the ridge of high pressure correlates
 343 with Niño3 SST anomalies ($R = 0.44, p = 0.008$). For these years, negative Z500 anomalies emerge
 344 over the southwestern United States, indicative of a southward shift in the ridge of high pressure
 345 (Fig. 8). These results point to the remote ocean effect on preferred daily synoptic patterns of the
 346 500 hPa ridge of high pressure.

347 Previous research suggests an atmospheric teleconnection for the NAM when the MJO is in
 348 its active phase in the Indian Ocean (Lorenz and Hartmann 2006). Clusters 1, 5, 6, 8, 11, 13
 349 show days favoring an active MJO phase two in the Indian Ocean in Figure S3, but that does not
 350 necessarily correspond to a wet upper Colorado River basin (Fig. S1). These same clusters depict
 351 robust positive precipitation anomalies over Mexico, supporting past research linking the MJO
 352 phase 2 to an active NAM over Mexico. They do not depict any consistent ridge of high pressure
 353



339 FIG. 8. SST and Z500 anomalies based on July–August seasons favoring synoptic patterns where the ridge of
 340 high pressure is shifted (a) east, (b) northwest, (d) south, and (e) north, and a (c) troughing pattern obtained by
 341 the *k*-means clusters in Figure 4. Z500 geopotential height (m) are in increments of 4 m with the zero contour
 342 omitted.

360 synoptic pattern. Rather, this study finds changes in the ridge of high pressure synoptic patterns
 361 are associated with remote ocean forcing such as ENSO or internal variability.

362 Note that a correlation coefficient more robust than ± 0.34 is statistically significant at the 95%
 363 level when considering the effect of autocorrelation of climate variability (Bretherton et al. 1999).
 364 As a result, the above correlation coefficients aforementioned are statistically significant.

365 5. Changes in Colorado River streamflow

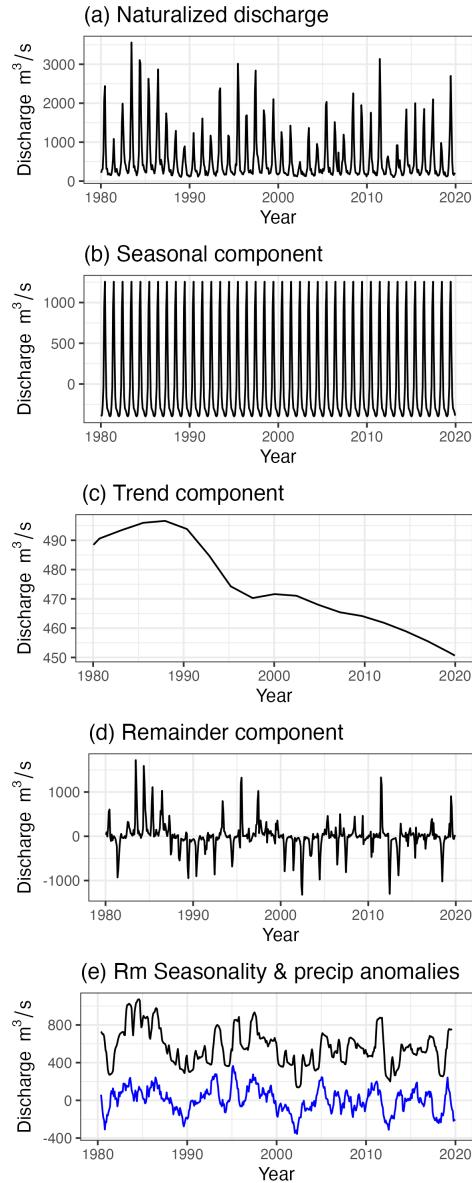
366 Based on the synoptic variability of the southwestern ridge of high pressure, we examine their
 367 dependencies on naturalized monthly and raw daily streamflow for the upper Colorado River at the
 368 Lee’s Ferry, Arizona gauge through precipitation changes.

369 *a. Naturalized monthly streamflow*

370 First, we decompose the monthly naturalized streamflow (1980–2019) at the Lee’s Ferry, Arizona
371 gauge into seasonal and trend components in Figure 9 (Cleveland et al. 1990; Cavadias 1994; Va-
372 heddoost and Aksoy 2019). The naturalized streamflow exhibits strong seasonality, with increased
373 discharge in spring and summer due to snow melt from cold season precipitation (Fig. 9a). Notably,
374 a negative trend in upper Colorado River discharge has emerged in the past 40 years, prompting
375 efforts to understand the upper Colorado River hydroclimate (Fig. 9c). We remove the seasonal
376 component in the monthly naturalized streamflow in Figure 9e, and perform the following analysis
377 with this data. A close relationship exists between upper Colorado River discharge and regional
378 precipitation, where precipitation lags discharge between 3–5 months ($R \sim 0.75$). Given most win-
379 ter snowpack falls in December–March and peak streamflow subsequently occurs in May–June, the
380 3- to 5-month lead in peak correlations is consistent with wintertime snowpack and the subsequent
381 spring melting (Collins et al. 1988; Hunter et al. 2006).

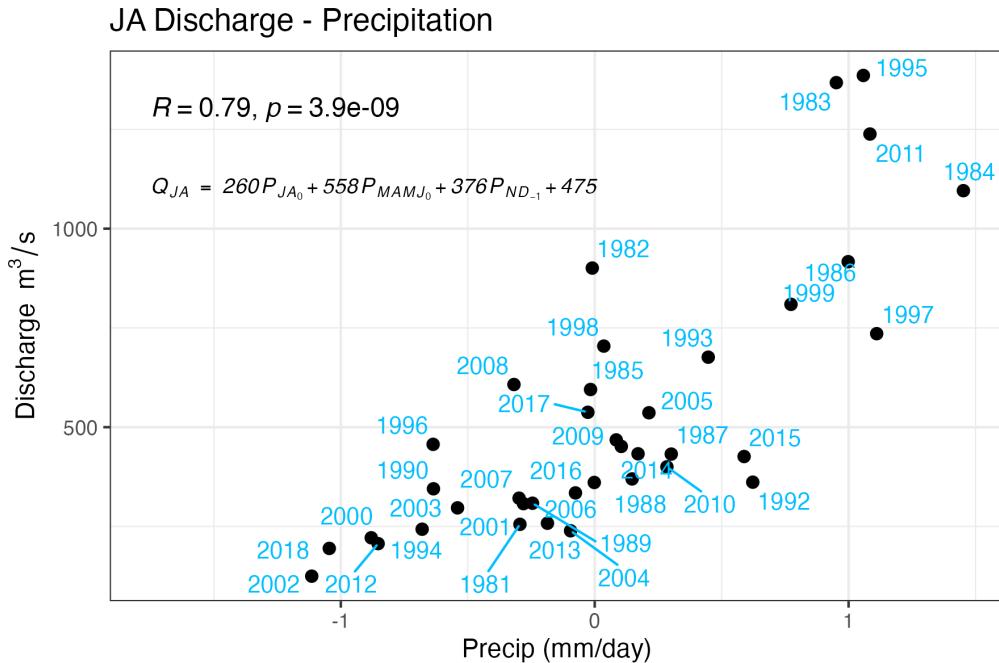
388 Figure 10 shows a scatterplot of the aggregate summer, spring, and the previous year’s late fall
389 precipitation with July–August discharge, depicting a strong relationship ($R = 0.79$). An estimated
390 65% of summer streamflow variability is related to the combined summertime precipitation (JA),
391 spring (MAMJ), and the previous year’s late fall (-ND) precipitation. The remaining 35% may be
392 explained by other variables, such as temperature and antecedent soil moisture prior to precipitation
393 (Woodhouse et al. 2016). We decompose the relative contributions of these seasonal precipitation
394 anomalies on July–August discharge through a simple multiple linear regression model, where
395 the predictand is July–August discharge, and the predictors are July–August, March–June, and
396 November–December of the previous year precipitation anomalies. Based on the linear regression,
397 contemporaneous precipitation anomalies in July–August explains an estimated 17%, which is
398 slightly higher than past research ($\sim 10\%$) (Carroll et al. 2020).

404 The linear regression model also suggests an estimated 12% of July–August streamflow is due
405 to the previous late fall’s precipitation. This long-term memory of the upper Colorado River
406 hydroclimate may be related to a positive relationship of fall soil moisture–spring discharge or
407 building a healthy early snowpack is favorable for summertime discharge (Aziz et al. 2010; Bracken
408 et al. 2010; Werner and Yeager 2013). Meanwhile, $\sim 35\%$ of July–August streamflow is due to
409 March–June precipitation. We do not include January–February precipitation in the regression



382 FIG. 9. (a) Naturalized monthly streamflow from 1980–2019. An additive decomposition is applied to obtain
 383 (b) the seasonal component, (c) long-term trends, (d) and the remainder component. The bottom (e) time
 384 series (black) represents the difference between the (b) seasonality component and (a) naturalized streamflow,
 385 resulting in only the (c) trend and (d) remainder components. The bottom (e) plot also depicts (blue) precipitation
 386 anomalies (mm/day) enhanced 700 times for visual purposes. A 5-month running mean is applied for both time
 387 series in 9e.

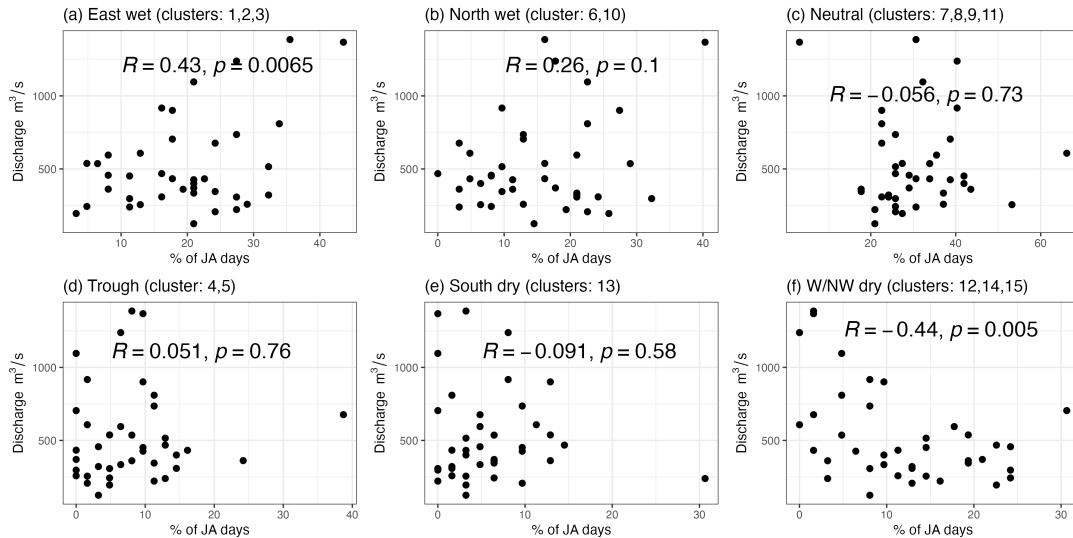
410 model because it was not statistically significant with July–August discharge ($R = 0.13, P = 0.451$).



399 FIG. 10. Scatterplot of the combined July–August, March–June, and November–December of the previous
 400 year precipitation anomalies and July–August streamflow at the Lee’s Ferry gauge. Precipitation is constrained
 401 to the upper Colorado River basin outlined in Figure 1. The relative contributions are shown via a linear
 402 regression of July–August, March–June, and November–December of the previous year’s precipitation anomalies
 403 on July–August streamflow. The P-values for these three predictors are 0.043, < 0.001, and 0.001, respectively.

411 Wintertime precipitation is obviously important for spring streamflow, but simply not statistically
 412 significant for summertime streamflow in the regression model.

413 Based on the contemporaneous precipitation dependencies on streamflow, we look specifically
 414 at the synoptic patterns of the southwestern ridge of high pressure in Figure 11. When the
 415 ridge of high pressure is east of its climatological position favoring wet monsoon days (19.2% of
 416 July–August days), river discharge tends to increase ($R = 0.43$; $p = 0.007$). When the ridge of
 417 high pressure is northwest of its climatological position favoring dry days (20.7% of July–August
 418 days), discharge decreases ($R = -0.44$; $p = 0.005$). For days exhibiting other synoptic patterns, no
 419 statistically significant relationship exists with respect to discharge rates. While the number of days
 420 characterized by wet clusters is significantly related to July–August discharge, a number of notable
 421 outliers exist. For example, the discharge in 2000 and 2002 is notably low even though the relative
 422 number of wet and neutral days was above the norm (Fig. 11a and 7). As summer precipitation is



425 FIG. 11. July–August discharge at Lee’s Ferry and the percentage of July–August days exhibiting a certain
 426 ridge of high pressure position based on Figure 7. The correlations and P-values are displayed for each subplot.

423 not the dominant modulator of summer discharge in a snowpack-dominated hydrological system,
 424 this spread is to be expected.

427 *b. Raw daily streamflow*

428 Lastly, we examine raw daily streamflow data to determine whether it supports the monthly
 429 naturalized streamflow analysis above. When we aggregate raw daily streamflow in July–August
 430 and compare it to July–August naturalized streamflow, we find a correlation of 0.69, significant
 431 above the 99.9% value. Figure S4 shows density plots of the lagged 5-day mean Colorado discharge
 432 (days 0–4) for each cluster’s day (day 0). Clusters 1–6 favoring wetting 500 hPa patterns, have
 433 discharge densities skewing towards higher streamflow compared to clusters 9–15 favoring drying
 434 patterns. This is evident in the 90th percentile lines being further to the right for wet patterns.
 435 Clusters favoring dry patterns typically had reduced skewness to the right, favoring Gaussian
 436 distributions. Clusters 1–5 favoring a wetting pattern, show a mean discharge rate of $495.5 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$
 437 whereas clusters 12–15 favoring a dry pattern show a mean discharge rate of $456.2 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$, with a
 438 July–August 1980–2020 mean of $475.4 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$. These results, combined with results using monthly
 439 naturalized streamflow, provide evidence that discharge rates of the upper Colorado River have
 440 dependencies on daily monsoon rains based on the positive precipitation that feeds into the Colorado

441 River. We recognize that any analysis with raw daily data is highly provisional, but we present the
442 daily raw analysis as it supports the more robust monthly naturalized streamflow analysis.

443 **6. Discussion and conclusion**

444 This study examined synoptic patterns of the southwestern United States mid-tropospheric ridge
445 of high pressure that contributes to a wet or dry North American Monsoon (NAM) by applying a *k*-
446 means clustering analysis to 500 hPa geopotential height field. We assessed these synoptic patterns
447 to changes in naturalized Colorado River streamflow and to climate variability. The primary results
448 are:

- 449 1. The southwestern ridge of high pressure exhibits significant variability in its structure, strength,
450 and location during summer.
- 451 2. An eastward or northward shift of the mid-tropospheric ridge of high pressure promotes
452 increased precipitation during July–August over the Desert Southwest and the upper Colorado
453 River basin accounting for 35% of days.
- 454 3. A southward or northwestward shift in the mid-tropospheric ridge of high pressure inhibits
455 precipitation during July–August in the upper Colorado River basin accounting for 26% days.
- 456 4. Tropical Pacific and Pacific Meridional Mode cooling favor synoptic patterns consisting of an
457 eastward shift in the ridge of high pressure that promotes wet days.
- 458 5. Eastern Tropical Pacific warming favors synoptic patterns consisting of a southward shift in
459 the ridge of high pressure that promotes dry days.
- 460 6. Summertime monsoon rains contribute 17% of July–August streamflow variability in the
461 upper Colorado River.
- 462 7. An eastward shift in the ridge of high pressure favors increased upper Colorado River discharge,
463 whereas a west or northwest shift in the ridge of high pressure favors decreased discharge.

464 This study found 15 *k*-means characterizing changes in the structure, location, and intensity of the
465 500 hPa ridge of high pressure over the southwestern United States. Past research shows this ridge
466 of high pressure is linked to NAM efficiency (Wang et al. 2011; Cerezo-Mota et al. 2011; Favors
467 and Abatzoglou 2013; Seastrand et al. 2015). A synoptic pattern favoring wet days in the upper

468 Colorado River basin accompanies an eastward or northward shift in the 500 hPa ridge of high
469 pressure or troughing, accounting for 42.7% of all July–August days in 1980–2020. A significant
470 increase in atmospheric moisture accompanies these 500 hPa patterns for wet days. When lower-
471 tropospheric winds curve from southeasterly to southwesterly around the western periphery of the
472 ridge of high pressure over Baja California, integrated atmospheric moisture markedly increased
473 over the upper Colorado River basin and the southwestern United States, suggesting a moisture
474 source from the warm waters in Baja California. When lower-tropospheric winds are easterly from
475 the Gulf of Mexico turning southeasterly over west Texas and New Mexico, integrated atmospheric
476 moisture also increases over the eastern portion of the Desert Southwest, suggesting a potential
477 moisture source from the Gulf of Mexico.

478 A synoptic pattern favoring dry days over the upper Colorado River basin accompanies a south-
479 ward or northwestward shift of the 500 hPa ridge of high pressure, accounting for 26.3% of
480 July–August days. This pattern deviates atmospheric moisture toward the west over California and
481 the adjacent Pacific Ocean or keeps it to the south. Typically, over the upper Colorado River basin,
482 the southward, west, or northwestward shift in the ridge of high pressure accompanies northwester-
483 lies over the upper Colorado River basin promoting regional dry air and an inhibiting wind pattern
484 from the Gulf of California and the Gulf of Mexico moisture sources.

485 For summers where we had synoptic patterns favoring more wet days, tropical Pacific and Pacific
486 Meridional mode cooling accompanied an eastward shift in the ridge of high pressure. In contrast,
487 eastern tropical Pacific El Niño-like warming accompanies a southward shift of the ridge of high
488 pressure. Related to these variations in the ridge of high pressure, a Rossby wave train pattern
489 emerges over the North Pacific, suggesting a tropical Pacific teleconnection. When the ridge of
490 high pressure is north or northwest of its climatological position, no apparent climate variability is
491 seen in composite analyses. Alternatively, when the MJO is in its active phase in the Indian Ocean,
492 it contributes to increased monsoon rains in Mexico. Toward the north, our analysis indicates
493 precipitation in the upper Colorado River basin does not have dependencies on any MJO phase.
494 Because this is an analysis based on historical data, we would require a climate model experiment
495 to assess the remote effect of ocean-atmosphere interactions on the southwestern ridge of high
496 pressure in future studies. Our analysis linking these synoptic patterns to climate variability finds

497 statistically significant correlations, but it must be noted that there is significant autocorrelation in
498 climate variability, resulting in reduced effective degrees of freedom (Bretherton et al. 1999).

499 Past research has found a small effect of the NAM on streamflow variability ($\sim 10\%$), with
500 our study finding that July–August precipitation contributes to an estimated 17% of July–August
501 streamflow variability through a linear perspective (Carroll et al. 2020). Interestingly, our study
502 found that discharge at Lee’s Ferry, Arizona also has dependencies on springtime and the previous
503 late fall’s precipitation. Our analysis shows that seasons favoring days when the ridge of high
504 pressure is east of its climatological position may promote increased discharge rates. In contrast,
505 when the ridge of high pressure is northwest of its climatological position, our results suggest
506 decreased discharge rates.

507 Our analysis does not consider tropical cyclone (TC) activity in the eastern North Pacific basin,
508 but past research suggests a significant portion of NAM moisture plumes may stem from TC
509 activity (Wayne Higgins et al. 2003), possibly connected to an active MJO phase (Lorenz and
510 Hartmann 2006). Given ridge of high pressure structure, strength, and location may modulate the
511 large-scale steering flow, and the TC tracks embedded within that flow, our k -means clustering
512 method may capture changes in TC tracks and its associated moisture (George and Gray 1977; Zhao
513 and Wu 2014; Johnson et al. 2022). For instance, when the ridge of high pressure placement is east
514 of its climatological position, TCs and their associated moisture may recurve around the western
515 periphery of the mid-tropospheric high, leading to increased moisture over the southwestern United
516 States. Future studies should quantify TC track dependencies on ridge of high pressure placement,
517 emphasizing moisture advection.

518 While the ”elbow” and silhouette methods indicate the optimal k number of clusters is 12–15
519 (see methods), several of the clusters look similar to each other with only slight variations in spatial
520 structure in the mid-tropospheric ridge of high pressure. These cluster do not suggest distinct
521 modes of variability but rather classify days where the ridge of high pressure structure, intensity,
522 and position are similar to one another. When we apply the k -means only to July Z500, the ”elbow”
523 and silhouette methods suggest the optimal k clusters is 8. When we apply the k -means to the
524 first half of the data (i.e., 1980–2000 instead of 1980–2020), the ”elbow” and silhouette methods
525 indicate the optimal number of k clusters is 14. While the classification of the ridge of high pressure
526 shows some differences when changing the data time period, similar results are found regarding

527 the ridge of high pressure location on precipitation. The *k*-means method can erroneously find
528 clusters even in smooth data, possibly in synoptic patterns that show gradual transitions rather than
529 distinct, separable patterns (Singh et al. 2011). Alternative methods to classify and quantify the
530 summertime synoptic patterns may be more suitable, such as self-organizing maps, eigenvector
531 techniques such as empirical orthogonal functions or singular value decomposition, or simply,
532 indices quantifying the ridge location.

533 About 10–40% of annual precipitation falls during July–August over the southwestern United
534 States. While snowpack melt is the primary contributor to increased streamflow rates in spring
535 and early summer, precipitation from the NAM also appears to be important for Colorado River
536 discharge based on historical analysis, contributing an estimated 17% change in summertime
537 streamflow variability. A tight connection between soil moisture and monsoon strength has been
538 observed through a positive soil moisture – monsoon precipitation feedback mechanism and our
539 study also supports this past research (Vivoni et al. 2008; Méndez-Barroso et al. 2009; Zhu
540 et al. 2009). Monsoon rains can also contribute to healthy, moist soil for the subsequent winter
541 snow-pack, which has an effect on following spring runoff efficiency, with our analysis capturing
542 similar results. As a result, a tight, multi-seasonal hydroclimate interconnection between ocean-
543 atmosphere effects, land-atmosphere interactions, monsoon strength, snowpack, spring runoff,
544 and Colorado River discharge challenges scientists to better understand the Western United States
545 hydroclimate (Gochis et al. 2010; Notaro and Zarrin 2011). Future studies should assess NAM
546 dependencies on climate variability through physical modeling perspectives and further quantify its
547 effect on streamflow, given the massive water resource issues plaguing the western United States.

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550 comments and suggestions significantly improved the quality of this manuscript.

551 *Data availability statement.* All data used in this study can be obtained free of charge to any mem-
552 ber of the public. COBE-SST, CMAP, and NCEP data can be obtained from NOAA/OAR/ESRL
553 PSD, Boulder, Colorado, USA. ERA5 can be obtained from ECMWF Copernicus. All analyses
554 and plotting were performed using the NCAR command language (NCL) and R. The code in this
555 study can be requested from the corresponding author.

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