Cloud-radiative impact on the regional responses of the mid-latitude jet streams and storm tracks to global warming

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Key Points:

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- We investigate global atmosphere model simulations in present-day setup with prescribed SST and the cloud-locking method
- Cloud-radiative impact on jet response is substantial, and largely independent of season and SST pattern, but depends on the ocean basin
 - · Cloud-radiative impact is zonally symmetric, consistent with a zonally symmet
 - ric change in cloud-radiative heating in the mid-latitudes

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15 Abstract

Previous work demonstrated the strong radiative coupling between clouds and the mid-16 latitude circulation. Here, we investigate the impact of cloud-radiative changes on the 17 global warming response of the mid-latitude jet streams and storm tracks in the North 18 Atlantic, North Pacific and Southern Hemisphere. To this end, we use the ICON global 19 atmosphere model in present-day setup and with the cloud-locking method. Sea surface 20 temperatures (SST) are prescribed to isolate the circulation response to atmospheric cloud-21 radiative heating. In the annual mean, cloud-radiative changes contribute one- to twothirds to the poleward jet shift in all three ocean basins, and support the jet strength-23 ening in the North Atlantic and Southern Hemisphere. Cloud-radiative changes also im-24 pact the storm track, but the impact is more diverse across the three ocean basins. The 25 cloud-radiative impact on the North Atlantic and North Pacific jets varies little from sea-26 son to season in absolute terms, whereas its relative importance changes over the course 27 of the year. In the Southern Hemisphere, cloud-radiative changes strengthen the jet in 28 all seasons, whereas their impact on the jet shift is limited to austral summer and fall. 29 The cloud-radiative impact is largely zonally-symmetric and independent of whether global 30 warming is mimicked by a uniform 4 K or spatially-varying SST increase. Our results 31 emphasize the importance of cloud-radiative changes for the response of the mid-latitude 32 circulation to global warming, indicating that clouds can contribute to uncertainty in 33 model projections of future circulations. 34

1 Introduction

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The mid-latitude jet streams and storm tracks dominate the heat, momentum and 36 moisture transport outside of the tropics (Hoskins & Valdes, 1990; Chang et al., 2002; 37 Shaw et al., 2016). They are important components of the large-scale atmospheric cir-38 culation, because of which understanding their responses to global warming is essential 39 for reliable predictions of regional climate change (e.g., Ulbrich et al., 2009). Jet streams 40 and storm tracks, and their responses to global warming, were studied extensively dur-41 ing the last decades (e.g., Kushner et al., 2001; Yin, 2005; Chang et al., 2012; Barnes & 42 Polvani, 2013; Simpson et al., 2014). Nevertheless, climate model projections of future 43 changes in jets and storm tracks exhibit large uncertainties (Shepherd, 2014), and the 44 factors controlling the location, strength and variability of jet streams and storm tracks 45 remain not fully understood (Bony et al., 2015; Vallis et al., 2015; Shaw et al., 2016). 46

Here, we focus on the coupling of clouds with the mid-latitude circulation, and study the
role of cloud-radiative changes for the global warming response of the jet streams and

49 storm tracks.

Global climate models suggest that the jet streams and storm tracks shift poleward 50 in both hemispheres and that the Southern Hemisphere jet streams and storm tracks strengthen 51 in response to global warming (e.g., Yin, 2005; Pinto et al., 2006; Chang et al., 2012; Barnes 52 & Polvani, 2013; Simpson et al., 2014; Vallis et al., 2015). The response of the mid-latitude 53 circulation is related to changes in meridional temperature gradients and baroclinicity. 54 As such, previous work studied the role of increased upper-tropospheric and decreased 55 lower-tropospheric temperature gradients (e.g., Yin, 2005; Lorenz & DeWeaver, 2007; 56 Butler et al., 2010; Harvey et al., 2015). These temperature changes can result from a 57 multitude of factors, including moist convection (Vallis et al., 2015), ozone depletion (Polvani 58 et al., 2011), and sea-ice loss (Vavrus, 2018; Zappa et al., 2018). 59

An additional factor that strongly projects on meridional temperature gradients 60 are clouds and their radiative interactions. Cloud-radiative interactions were found to 61 set the latitude of the Southern Hemisphere jet stream (Ceppi et al., 2012) and strengthen 62 the jet streams in present-day climate (Li et al., 2015). The poleward shifts of the South-63 ern Hemisphere storm track and eddy-driven jet stream in global warming simulations 64 were found to depend on the radiative response of Southern Ocean clouds (Ceppi et al., 65 2014; Grise & Polvani, 2014b; Ceppi & Shepherd, 2017). Li et al. (2019) found that at-66 mospheric cloud-radiative effects enhance the poleward jet shift in response to global warm-67 ing in present-day simulations that apply the COOKIE framework (Clouds On-Off Kli-68 mate Intercomparison Experiment; Stevens et al., 2012). Idealized global warming sim-69 ulations in aquaplanet setups revealed that half or more of the poleward jet stream shift 70 can be attributed to cloud-radiative changes (Voigt & Shaw, 2015; Ceppi & Hartmann, 71 2016). The aquaplanet work of Voigt & Shaw (2015) and Voigt & Shaw (2016) identi-72 fied that cloud-radiative changes are important even when sea surface temperatures (SST) 73 are prescribed, showing that a large part of the cloud-radiative impact results from the 74 direct atmospheric cloud-radiative heating. This is supported by the study of Voigt et 75 al. (2019), which investigated the cloud-radiative impact on the annual-mean zonal-mean 76 jet stream response in a present-day setup. The authors decomposed the cloud-radiative 77 impact into a surface and an atmospheric pathway, depending on whether SST are in-78 teractive or prescribed. They found that the atmospheric pathway of the cloud-radiative 79

impact, i.e. the impact of changes in atmospheric cloud-radiative heating in the absence
 of SST changes, is at least as important as the surface pathway, i.e. the response of the
 surface temperature to surface cloud-radiative heating.

Given the importance of continents for shaping the mid-latitude circulation (Brayshaw et al., 2009), we extend the aquaplanet studies and investigate the impact of cloud-radiative changes on the global warming response of the mid-latitude jet streams and storm tracks in more realistic simulations that include present-day boundary conditions, i.e., continents, sea ice, and a seasonal cycle. These simulations further allow us to study the cloudradiative impact across seasons and ocean basins. This is important as the mid-latitude circulation response varies substantially over the course of the year and across regions (Simpson et al., 2014; Zappa et al., 2015).

We investigate the impact of cloud-radiative changes on the annual-mean and seasonal-91 mean responses of the mid-latitude jet streams and storm tracks to global warming in the North Atlantic, North Pacific and Southern Hemisphere ocean. For this purpose, we 93 perform simulations with the ICOsahedral Nonhydrostatic model (ICON; Zängl et al., 94 2015) and estimate the role of cloud-radiative changes with the cloud-locking method 95 (e.g., Voigt & Shaw, 2015; Ceppi & Hartmann, 2016; Voigt & Shaw, 2016). SST are pre-96 scribed to isolate the impact of cloud-radiative changes when clouds do not affect SST, 97 complementing the work of Ceppi & Shepherd (2017) with interactive SST. We compare 98 two sets of global warming simulations that use different SST changes to mimic global 99 warming. This allows us to study to what extent the cloud-radiative impact depends on 100 the pattern of the surface warming, which Woollings et al. (2012) identified to shape the 101 storm track response in the North Atlantic and over Europe. 102

103 We address the following questions:

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- How important is the cloud-radiative impact for the mid-latitude jet stream and storm track responses to global warming in the North Atlantic, North Pacific, and Southern Hemisphere ocean?
- To what extent does the cloud-radiative impact vary across seasons and ocean basins? Does the cloud-radiative impact depend on the pattern of the SST increase?
- The structure of the paper is as follows: Section 2 presents the model setup, the metrics for the mid-latitude jet streams and storm tracks, and the application of the cloud-

locking method to diagnose the impact of cloud-radiative changes. The annual-mean re sponses are discussed in Section 3; the seasonal-mean responses are covered in Section 4.
 In Section 5 we show correlations between the jet stream and atmospheric temperature
 gradients. The main results are summarized and discussed in Section 6.

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2 Model Setup, Circulation Metrics and Cloud-Locking Method

2.1 Model Setup and Mid-latitude Circulation Metrics

We perform numerical simulations with the atmospheric component of ICON (Zängl et al., 2015). The model is run with the physics package used for numerical weather prediction (version 2.1.00). The simulations are performed in R2B04 horizontal resolution (approximately 160 km) with 47 levels extending up to 75 km. A time step of 720 s is used.

We use a present-day model setup with prescribed SST. SST are prescribed to iso-121 late atmospheric cloud-radiative interactions, which primarily arise from longwave ra-122 diation (Allan, 2011). We use climatological SST and sea ice fields, which are obtained 123 by calculating multi-year monthly-means of the SST and sea ice fields over the AMIP 124 period (1979-2008; Gates, 1992). The multi-year monthly-means are prescribed to the 125 model in the control simulation ("CTL"). The annual-mean SST pattern of the control 126 simulation is shown in Fig. 1 (left panel). In addition, we perform two sets of global warm-127 ing simulations. In the first set, global warming is mimicked by a uniform 4K SST in-128 crease ("UNI"), similar to the Amip4K simulations that are part of the Coupled Model 129 Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5; Taylor et al., 2012). In the second set, global 130 warming is mimicked by increasing the SST by a pattern ("PAT"), similar to the Amip-131 Future simulations in CMIP5. We use the same SST pattern that is used for the Amip-132 Future simulations, and which is provided by CFMIP (Cloud Feedback Model Intercom-133 parison Project) at https://www.earthsystemcog.org/projects/cfmip/cfmip2-cmip5. 134 The SST pattern is derived from the multi-model mean SST response simulated by CMIP3 135 global atmosphere-ocean models at the time of CO_2 quadrupling in the 1% CO_2 increase 136 per year experiment (Taylor et al., 2009, 2012). The SST pattern is scaled to a global 137 mean of 4 K so that both UNI and PAT experience the same global-mean SST increase. 138 In contrast to UNI, however, PAT includes changes in the SST gradients as represented 139 in the CMIP3 multi-model mean. Thus, the SST impact derived from the PAT simu-140 lations implicitly includes the surface pathway of the cloud-radiative heating. Fig. 1 (right 141



Figure 1. Annual-mean SST pattern of the CTL simulation (left) and anomalous SST pattern used for the PAT simulation (right). Regions covered by land or more than 15% of sea ice are masked.

panel) shows the anomalous annual-mean SST pattern used in PAT. Compared to the
uniform 4 K SST increase, the SST increase in PAT is about 1-2 K larger in the Tropics, the northern North Pacific and the Barents Sea. At the same time, SST is hardly
increased south of Greenland (subpolar gyre), in the Southern Ocean and in the eastern South Pacific.

To isolate the effect of increased SST, sea ice is set to control values in all simu-147 lations and atmospheric greenhouse gas concentrations are kept constant ($CO_2 = 390 \text{ ppmv}$, 148 $CH_4 = 1800 \text{ ppbv}, N_2O = 322 \text{ ppbv}, CFC_{11} = 240 \text{ pptv}, CFC_{12} = 532 \text{ pptv}).$ We use 149 the GEMS (Global and Regional Earth-System Monitoring using Satellite and In-Situ 150 Data; Hollingsworth et al., 2008) ozone climatology from the European Centre for Medium-151 Range Weather Forecast (ECMWF) Integrated Forecast System (IFS) model. Aerosols 152 are specified according to Tegen et al. (1997). For every simulation, we run the model 153 for 31 years, with the first year being excluded from the analysis to avoid model initial-154 ization effects. 155

¹⁵⁶ We quantify the mid-latitude circulation and its response to global warming based ¹⁵⁷ on the mid-latitude jet streams and storm tracks. Following Barnes & Polvani (2013) ¹⁵⁸ we define the latitude and strength of the mid-latitude jet streams based on the max-¹⁵⁹ imum zonal wind at 850 hPa, u_{850} . In the Northern (Southern) Hemisphere, we search ¹⁶⁰ for the maximum u_{850} between 25°N and 70°N (25°S and 70°S), and perform a quadratic ¹⁶¹ fit around the maximum and its two neighboring grid points on an interpolated 0.01°

latitude grid. The maximum of the quadratic fit yields the jet strength, u_{jet} , and its po-162 sition the jet latitude, φ_{jet} . For ocean-basin mean values of the jet and its response to 163 global warming, the calculation of the jet latitude and jet strength is based on the zonal-164 mean u_{850} field over the longitudinal boundaries of the respective ocean basin (see be-165 low for definition of boundaries). For maps of the u_{850} response shown in Section 3, φ_{jet} 166 is calculated at each longitude. To make the comparison between the two hemispheres 167 easier, all latitudes for the Northern Hemisphere are shown in "degrees North", and all 168 latitudes for the Southern Hemisphere in "degrees South". Thus, for both hemispheres, 169 a positive change in φ_{jet} indicates a poleward jet shift. 170

We further characterize the storm tracks, which measure the synoptic activity of 171 the mid-latitude atmosphere (e.g., Hoskins & Valdes, 1990; Christoph et al., 1995; Chang 172 et al., 2002; Yin, 2005; Pinto et al., 2007; Ulbrich et al., 2008; Shaw et al., 2016). While 173 their magnitude and variability are dominated by transient low pressure systems, they 174 also contain some variability associated with high pressure systems (which typically have 175 longer time scales). We calculate the storm tracks from the standard deviation of the 176 2.5 to 6 day bandpass filtered 500 hPa geopotential height field (e.g., Blackmon, 1976), 177 using the bandpass filter of the Climate Data Operators (CDO, version 1.9.4., available 178 at https://www.mpimet.mpg.de/cdo). 179

We focus our analysis on the three major ocean basins of the Earth. These are the North Atlantic (60°W-0°), the North Pacific (135°E-125°W), and the Southern Hemisphere Ocean (all longitudes). The longitudinal boundaries of the ocean basins are the same as in Barnes & Polvani (2013).

The left column of Fig. 2 shows the global-warming response of the annual-mean 184 zonal-mean circulation in UNI. The model simulates the changes expected from global 185 coupled atmosphere-ocean models (e.g., Lu et al., 2008; Ma & Xie, 2013; Grise & Polvani, 186 2014a; Harvey et al., 2015). This includes amplified upper-tropospheric warming in the 187 tropics (Fig. 2a) and a vertical expansion of the troposphere, which manifests in upward 188 shifts of the upper-level jet streams (Fig. 2c) and the upper boundary of the Hadley cells 189 (Fig. 2e). ICON also simulates a weakening and horizontal expansion of the tropics, which 190 are indicated by a poleward shift of the mid-latitude jet streams in the lower and mid-191 dle troposphere (Fig. 2c) and a weakening and poleward expansion of the Hadley cells 192 (Fig. 2e). Very similar results are also found in the PAT simulation (Fig. S1). Note, how-193



Figure 2. Response of the annual-mean zonal-mean atmospheric temperature (top), zonal wind (middle), and mass stream function (bottom) to a uniform SST increase with free clouds (left) (UNI-CTL). The right column shows the difference between the response in the locked and free simulations. The green line in each panel shows the tropopause height in the control simulation CTL.

ever, that the Southern Hemisphere Hadley cell strengthens in the PAT simulation. The
zonal-mean zonal wind response in our model is consistent with the annual-mean zonalmean zonal wind response in atmosphere global climate models with fixed SST, in which
global warming is mimicked by the spatially varying SST increase of the CMIP5 AmipFuture setup (e.g., compare Fig. 2c and Fig. S1c to Fig. 5 right in Grise & Polvani, 2014a).

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2.2 Cloud-locking method

We use the cloud-locking method to quantify the impact of cloud-radiative changes on the response of the mid-latitude circulation to global warming. The method allows us to break the radiative interactions and feedbacks between clouds and the circulation by prescribing the radiative properties of clouds to the model's radiative transfer scheme (e.g., Voigt & Shaw, 2015). While originally devised to study the impact of radiative feed²⁰⁵ backs on global-mean and regional surface warming (e.g., Wetherald & Manabe, 1988;
²⁰⁶ Schneider et al., 1999; Langen et al., 2012; Mauritsen et al., 2013), the locking method
²⁰⁷ has become a helpful tool to investigate the contribution of cloud-radiative changes to
²⁰⁸ circulation changes (Voigt & Shaw, 2015; Ceppi & Hartmann, 2016; Voigt & Shaw, 2016;
²⁰⁹ Voigt et al., 2019).

In a first step, we diagnose the instantaneous cloud-radiative properties (i.e., cloud water, cloud ice and cloud fraction) in the CTL, UNI and PAT simulations. Because cloudradiative effects are non-linear functions of cloud-radiative properties, we store the latter at every call of the radiative transfer scheme (every 36 minutes), as was done in previous studies (e.g., Voigt & Shaw, 2015; Ceppi & Hartmann, 2016). We store ten years of cloud data to adequately sample cloud variability.

In a next step, we simulate 30 years with cloud-radiative properties prescribed to 216 values from CTL, UNI or PAT. We cycle three times through the 10 years of stored cloud 217 fields. We have checked that this does not introduce any spurious periodicity to the mid-218 latitude circulation in the prescribed-clouds simulations. The "cloud locking" only af-219 fects the radiative transfer scheme. All other components of ICON use the internally sim-220 ulated clouds. The prescribed cloud-radiative properties are offset by at least one year 221 relative to the simulated climate of the model to achieve a spatiotemporal decorrelation 222 of the cloud-radiative properties and the atmospheric circulation, temperature and mois-223 ture. This decorrelation might result in situations in which a cloud free subsidence re-224 gion is simulated by the model, but the radiation scheme is run with cloud-radiative prop-225 erties of a deep convective cloud at the same time. The impact of this decorrelation on 226 the climatological circulation is found to be mainly small in our simulations. This is in 227 line with other studies that used the cloud-locking method to investigate the circulation 228 response to global warming (Voigt & Shaw, 2015, 2016; Ceppi & Hartmann, 2016; Ceppi 229 & Shepherd, 2017; Voigt et al., 2019). 230

To quantify the cloud-radiative contribution to the circulation change in the UNI simulation, we perform the four additional simulations T1C1, T1C2, T2C1, and T2C2. The numbers indicate whether SST (T) and cloud-radiative properties (C) are prescribed to values from CTL (simulation 1) or UNI (simulation 2). With this, we decompose the circulation response into a contribution from the SST increase, assuming no changes in the cloud-radiative properties, and a contribution from changes in the cloud-radiative

- properties assuming no SST increase. The total response of any given variable X to the
- combined effect of a uniform SST increase and cloud-radiative changes is given by

$$\Delta X = X_{UNI} - X_{CTL} = X_{T2C2} - X_{T1C1} + Res, \tag{1}$$

where X_{UNI} and X_{CTL} denote the simulations with free clouds, and *Res* is the residual due to the application of the cloud-locking method (see below for more explanations).

The contribution of the SST increase is given by

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$$\Delta X_{SST} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\left(X_{T2C1} - X_{T1C1} \right) + \left(X_{T2C2} - X_{T1C2} \right) \right], \tag{2}$$

and is referred to as "SST impact" hereafter. Analogously, the contribution of cloud-radiative
changes, hereafter referred to as "cloud-radiative impact", is given by

$$\Delta X_{clouds} = \frac{1}{2} \left[(X_{T1C2} - X_{T1C1}) + (X_{T2C2} - X_{T2C1}) \right].$$
(3)

By construction, the SST and cloud-radiative impact sum up to $X_{T2C2} - X_{T1C1}$, so that $\Delta X = \Delta X_{SST} + \Delta X_{clouds} + Res$. The cloud-radiative impact in the PAT simulation is quantified in an analogous manner.

Importantly, the residual *Res* in general is found to be much smaller than ΔX . This can be verified by comparing CTL and UNI with "free" clouds to their "locked" counterparts T1C1 and T2C2, for which the prescribed cloud-radiative properties are decorrelated from the circulation (Fig. 2, right). The fact that the residual *Res* of the locking method is small, implies that the locking method can be used to meaningfully separate SST and cloud-radiative impacts.

While the zonal-mean circulation and jet stream responses to global warming in 253 the North Pacific and Southern Hemisphere are similar in the simulations with free and 254 locked clouds, larger differences occur for the jet response over the North Atlantic in the 255 annual-mean, and during boreal winter (December to February, DJF) and spring (March 256 to May, MAM) (Fig. S2). During these seasons, the North Atlantic jet stream of the con-257 trol simulation is located more equatorward for locked clouds than for free clouds. This 258 is possibly related to decreased convective activity over the Maritime Continent and west-259 ern tropical Pacific when clouds are locked, as indicated by increased outgoing longwave 260 radiation and decreased high level cloud cover (not shown; e.g., Cassou, 2008; Hender-261 son et al., 2016). At the same time, the North Atlantic jet stream of the UNI and PAT 262 simulations is located more poleward when clouds are locked. This is possibly related 263

to enhanced warming of North America in the simulations with locked clouds (not shown; 264 Ceppi et al., 2018). As a result, in these seasons the North Atlantic jet shift in the locked 265 simulations is larger than in the free simulations, and larger than what is commonly sim-266 ulated by coupled climate models. However, we are mainly interested in quantifying the 267 impact of cloud-radiative changes in relation to the total (locked) response. Also, the 268 magnitude of the cloud-radiative impact appears to be less sensitive to the jet position 269 in the control simulation. This can be seen by comparing the cloud-radiative impact for 270 each ocean basin across seasons (see Section 4). Although the seasons differ with respect 271 to the control jet position (Fig. S2), the cloud-radiative impact is similar across seasons, 272 especially in the Northern Hemisphere (see Section 4 for a more detailed discussion of 273 the results). 274

The residual between the jet responses in the simulations with free and locked clouds 275 can either be caused by internal variability or by the decorrelation due to the applica-276 tion of the cloud-locking method. To check that the difference between the simulations 277 is a result of the large internal variability, and to verify that the ocean basin mean jet 278 stream responses with free and locked clouds are statistically similar, we analyze their 279 difference for the annual-mean and each season. To this end, we calculate the bootstrap 280 distributions for the difference between the jet responses in the simulations with free and 281 locked clouds (see Supplementary Text S1 and Fig. S3 for a more detailed description of 282 the methodology). Fig. 3 shows the mean difference between the jet responses in the free 283 and locked simulations for both global warming setups in each ocean basin and season. 284 In the North Pacific and Southern Hemisphere, the jet latitude and jet strength responses 285 are statistically similar on a 95% significance level and close to zero during most sea-286 sons. In the North Atlantic, however, large differences between the jet latitude response 287 in the free and locked simulations occur in the annual-mean, DJF and MAM. The largest 288 differences are present in MAM, pointing to a decorrelation effect due to the application 289 of the cloud-locking method in this season. Thus, the results for the jet latitude response 290 in MAM should be interpreted with caution. 291

We have shown that the residual between the jet responses in the simulations with free and locked clouds is small and that the jet response in the simulations with free and locked clouds are statistically similar during most seasons and ocean basins. In the following Sections, we will show the results for the simulations with locked clouds, so that the SST impact and cloud-radiative impact sum up to the total response.

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Figure 3. Mean (crosses) and 95% significance level (vertical lines) for the difference in the jet latitude (left) and jet strength (right) responses between simulations with free clouds and simulations with locked clouds. Results are shown for each season, ocean basin and global warming setup. Black symbols indicate that the responses in simulations with locked and free clouds are statistically similar, grey symbols indicate that they are not statistically similar on a 95% level. Note the different ranges for the vertical axes of the panels.

2.3 Change in cloud-radiative heating

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We perform a forward Partial-Radiative Perturbation (PRP) calculation (Wetherald & Manabe, 1988) to diagnose the change in cloud-radiative heating due to cloud-radiative changes between the CTL and UNI simulations, and between the CTL and PAT simulations. The change in cloud-radiative heating is calculated by contrasting the radiative heating rates from CTL with those derived by prescribing UNI or PAT clouds to an atmosphere with otherwise CTL properties. Thus, the change in cloud-radiative heating $\partial T/\partial t$ is given by

$$\frac{\partial T(\varphi, \vartheta, p)}{\partial t}\Big|_{\text{PRP}} = R(T_{CTL}, q_{CTL}, c_{UNI/PAT}) - R(T_{CTL}, q_{CTL}, c_{CTL}), \tag{4}$$

where R is the radiative heating rate, and T, q, and c are atmospheric temperature, specific humidity and cloud-radiative properties at latitude φ , longitude ϑ and pressure p. The subscripts CTL and UNI/PAT indicate whether the variables are taken from the control and global-warming simulations, respectively. The change in cloud-radiative heating is calculated for every grid point at every call of the radiation scheme for a 5 year period.

3 Annual-mean circulation response

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In this section, we study the annual-mean response of the mid-latitude circulation 312 in the UNI and PAT simulations based on the total response in the prescribed-clouds 313 setup and the decomposition of the response into a cloud-radiative impact and an SST 314 impact. The zonal wind at 850 hPa and the storm tracks undergo significant changes in 315 response to both a uniform (Fig. 4a, d) and a patterned SST increase (Fig. 5a, d). For 316 the zonal wind shown in the left panels, the black lines indicate the control jet latitude. 317 In the right panels, the grey contours show the storm track in the control simulation. 318 Statistical significance of the responses is indicated by dots, and is calculated with a two-319 sided t-test for two samples and using a p-value of 0.05 (95% confidence interval). 320

We have verified that the annual-mean total responses in UNI and PAT are in line 321 with the robust responses in the CMIP5 Amip4K and AmipFuture simulations (Figs. S4-322 S_5 , top rows; Grise & Polvani, 2014a). Differences to the robust annual-mean responses 323 in the CMIP5 models occur mainly in the eastern North Pacific where ICON shows a 324 poleward jet shift, whereas the CMIP5 models show a weakening of the jet, and in the 325 Southern Hemisphere east of South America (in UNI) where ICON shows a jet strength-326 ening and the CMIP5 models show a poleward shift. These differences result in a slightly 327 overestimated annual-mean poleward jet shift in the North Pacific and reduced poleward 328 iet shift in the Southern Hemisphere in both global warming setups (Figs. S6-S7). 329

Fig. 4a shows the total response in the UNI simulations. In the North Pacific, changes in u_{850} indicate a poleward jet shift in the western and eastern parts of the ocean basin and a strengthening in the central part. In the North Atlantic, the wind response is more zonal, with a poleward jet shift across the ocean basin and a strengthening in the jet exit region over Europe. In the Southern Hemisphere, the jet exhibits a poleward shift at most longitudes, and a strengthening south of Australia and southeast of South America.

Decomposing the total response into SST and cloud-radiative impacts reveals that in all three ocean basins a substantial part of the mid-latitude zonal wind response, and

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Figure 4. Annual-mean response of the 850 hPa zonal wind, u_{850} , (left) and storm track (right) in the UNI simulations. The total response (top) is decomposed into the SST impact (middle) and the cloud-radiative impact (bottom). The black line in the left column indicates the jet latitude in the control simulation, the grey contours in the right column show the storm track in the control simulation (contour interval of $100 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$). For the storm track, the Tropics are not shown. The dots indicate where the response is significant at 95% level.

hence jet shift, is attributed to the cloud-radiative impact (Fig. 4c). Remarkably, the cloud-radiative impact is almost zonally symmetric in all three ocean basins. In contrast, the
SST impact is much more zonally asymmetric (Fig. 4b). For example, the jet strengthening over Europe results from the SST impact.

The total storm track response is in line with the total u_{850} response (Fig. 4d). The storm track exhibits a poleward shift in the North Pacific, and a poleward shift in the North Atlantic with a strengthening in the exit region over Europe. In the Southern Hemisphere, the storm track strengthens at most longitudes, with decreased storm activity on its equatorward flank. This total storm track response is consistent with Ulbrich et



Figure 5. Same as Fig. 4, but for the PAT simulations.

al. (2009). As for u_{850} , the cloud-radiative impact is nearly zonally symmetric in all three ocean basins (Fig. 4f). The cloud-radiative impact dominates the poleward storm track shift in the North Pacific, and is strong in the North Atlantic and over Europe. As for u_{850} , the SST impact on the storm track response shows a more complicated spatial structure (Fig. 4e).

Fig. 5 shows the analogous responses in the PAT simulations. Using a patterned instead of a uniform SST increase leads to a somewhat larger total response and SST impact in the North Pacific and Southern Hemisphere for both the u_{850} and storm track responses (also see Fig. S8). In the North Atlantic, the total response and SST impact are slightly reduced for u_{850} , and increased in the exit region of the storm track. The cloud-radiative impact on the zonal wind and storm track responses, in contrast, is very similar between the PAT and UNI simulations in all ocean basins.



Figure 6. The left panels show the annual-mean response of ocean basin zonal-mean u_{850} in UNI (straight lines) and PAT (dashed lines). The grey bars indicate the jet latitude in CTL derived from the maximum in u_{850} (small inserted figures). The right panels show the poleward jet shift $\Delta \varphi_{jet}$ versus jet strengthening Δu_{jet} . Results are shown for the North Atlantic (top), North Pacific (middle) and Southern Hemisphere (bottom). The total locked response (black) is decomposed into cloud-radiative impact (orange) and SST impact (blue).

To allow for a more quantitative analysis, we quantify the response of the jet lat-359 itude and jet strength by calculating the zonal-mean u_{850} response over the three ocean 360 basins, using the longitudinal sectors given in Section 2. Fig. 6 shows the ocean-basin zonal-361 mean u_{850} response, and the associated poleward jet shift and jet strengthening. u_{850} 362 of CTL is shown in small insets for reference. The u_{850} response shows a dipole pattern 363 around the control jet latitude (grey bars in Fig. 6, left), with a less pronounced dipole 364 in the North Pacific than in the other two ocean basins. The dipole pattern is found for 365 the total response, the SST impact, and the cloud-radiative impact, and is consistent with 366 a poleward jet shift in all three ocean basins and a jet strengthening in the North At-367 lantic and Southern Hemisphere (Fig. 6, right). In the North Atlantic and Southern Hemi-368 sphere, an almost linear relationship between the poleward jet shift and the jet strength-369 ening is found. 370

The cloud-radiative impact on the jet response, measured in absolute values, is very 371 similar in UNI and PAT. This shows that in all three ocean basins the cloud-radiative 372 impact is largely independent of the spatial pattern of SST increase. At the same time, 373 the relative importance of the cloud-radiative impact is modulated by the pattern of SST 374 increase in the Southern Hemisphere. In the Southern Hemisphere, the cloud-radiative 375 impact contributes more than one-third to the jet response in UNI, but less than one-376 third in PAT. This results from a stronger total response and stronger SST impact in 377 PAT compared to UNI, consistent with increased SST gradients (see Fig. 1). In the North Pacific, the jet strengthening is slightly enhanced in PAT compared to UNI. At the same 379 time, the pattern of SST increase has little or no impact on the jet strength response in 380 the North Atlantic and on the jet latitude response in both ocean basins. In both ocean 381 basins, about half to two-thirds of the poleward jet shift can be attributed to the cloud-382 radiative impact for UNI and PAT. In addition, the cloud-radiative impact contributes 383 half to the jet strengthening in the North Atlantic for both UNI and PAT. 384

The above analysis shows that cloud-radiative changes contribute substantially to 385 the circulation response independent of the pattern of surface warming, and that the cloud-386 radiative impact is nearly zonally symmetric. To understand this, Fig. 7 shows cloud cover 387 changes and changes in cloud-radiative heating in the UNI and PAT simulations. The 388 cloud cover changes and cloud-radiative heating changes are consistent with the verti-389 cal expansion of the troposphere and poleward expansion of the Tropics shown in Fig. 2, 390 and with the fixed anvil temperature hypothesis, which states that high-level clouds rise 391 in response to increased tropospheric temperatures to maintain their cloud-top temper-392 ature (Hartmann & Larson, 2002; Thompson et al., 2017). With high-level clouds warm-393 ing at their base and cooling at their top (see also Slingo & Slingo, 1988; Li & Thomp-394 son, 2016), the cloud rise leads to positive changes in cloud-radiative heating in the trop-395 ical and mid-latitude upper troposphere. The stronger tropical SST increase in PAT com-396 pared to UNI leads to a slightly larger change in cloud-radiative heating in the tropical 397 upper-troposphere (Fig. S9), but overall the cloud-radiative heating change is very sim-398 ilar between UNI and PAT. A very similar pattern of cloud-radiative heating changes 399 was previously found in aquaplanet simulations in which global warming was mimicked 400 by a uniform 4K SST increase (Fig. 2c, d in Voigt & Shaw, 2016), and in present-day sim-401 ulations in a slab ocean setup under quadrupling of atmospheric CO₂ (Fig. 2b of Voigt 402 et al., 2019). Additionally, the pattern is consistent with the atmospheric cloud-radiative 403

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Figure 7. Annual-mean zonal-mean response of cloud cover in the simulations with free clouds (a, d) and annual-mean zonal-mean change in cloud-radiative heating (b, e). The bottom panels depict the vertical-mean changes in cloud-radiative heating for a 300 hPa thick layer below the tropopause. Results are shown for the UNI (left) and PAT (right) simulations. The black lines in the zonal-mean responses indicate the tropopause height in the control simulation, the black line in the maps shows the jet latitude in the control simulation.

- heating changes derived from present-day COOKIE simulations (Fig. 4b in Li et al., 2019).
 This supports the idea that the changes in cloud-radiative heating and, thus, the cloud-radiative impact do not strongly depend on the details of surface warming.
- Because our simulations include zonal asymmetries from continents, we further investigate the zonal structure of the changes in cloud-radiative heating. The largest changes in cloud-radiative heating are located in the upper troposphere. We therefore analyze the vertical-mean changes in cloud-radiative heating for a 300 hPa thick layer below the tropopause (Fig. 7c, f). In the mid-latitudes of both hemispheres, the changes in cloudradiative heating are zonally symmetric and exhibit a similar magnitude in both global warming setups (Fig. S9). This is consistent with the zonally symmetric cloud-radiative

impact in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5, which also exhibits similar magnitudes in both global warm-414 ing setups. Zonal asymmetries in the cloud-radiative heating changes are found in the 415 Tropics, especially in the regions of deep convection over the western Pacific and the In-416 dian Ocean (Fig. 7c, f). This region also shows the largest change in cloud-radiative heat-417 ing. Because increased convection over this region can affect the jet latitude in the North 418 Atlantic (e.g., Cassou, 2008; Henderson et al., 2016), we expect that the large change 419 in cloud-radiative heating modifies the jet response in the North Atlantic. However, even 420 though UNI and PAT exhibit different patterns of the upper-tropospheric change in cloudradiative heating, the cloud-radiative impact on the North Atlantic jet stream response 422 are similar in both global warming setups. This indicates that the small-scale structure 423 of the change in cloud-radiative heating might be less important than its location in the 424 western tropical Pacific. 425

426

4

Seasonal-mean circulation response

In this section, we investigate the cloud-radiative impact on the seasonal-mean jet 427 stream response and compare it to the annual-mean response. As in Section 3, we base 428 our analysis on the total response in the prescribed-clouds setup and its decomposition 429 into a cloud-radiative impact and an SST impact. To this end, Figs. 8-10 show the seasonal-430 mean wind and jet responses separately for each ocean basin. As for the annual-mean, 431 an almost linear relationship between the poleward jet shift and jet strengthening is found 432 in all three ocean basins during seasons which exhibit both the jet shift and jet strength-433 ening. The linear behavior is most strongly pronounced in the Southern Hemisphere dur-434 ing DJF and MAM. 435

As for the annual-mean, the seasonal-mean total zonal wind responses in UNI and 436 PAT reproduce most of the robust zonal wind responses of the CMIP5 Amip4K and Amip-437 Future simulations (Figs. S4-S5, second to fifth rows). The largest differences compared 438 to the robust response in the CMIP5 models occur in the North Pacific during DJF and 439 MAM. In DJF, ICON does not reproduce the equatorward jet shift in the eastern part 440 of the North Pacific. In MAM, ICON simulates a poleward shift in the North Pacific, 441 whereas the CMIP5 models show a jet strengthening. In the Southern Hemisphere, ICON 442 shows a jet strengthening east of South America in JJA and SON, whereas most of the 443 CMIP5 models show a poleward shift in this region. The ocean basin mean jet responses 111 in ICON are within the range of the CMIP5 models during most of the seasons and for 445

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all three ocean basins (Figs. S6-S7), although ICON shows a comparably small poleward
shift of the Southern Hemisphere jet in DJF and MAM, and little jet responses in JJA
and SON, as well as a comparably large jet shift in the North Pacific during MAM.

In the North Atlantic, the cloud-radiative impact supports the poleward jet shift 449 in UNI and PAT during all seasons (Fig. 8). It contributes to the jet strengthening in 450 JJA and SON for the UNI simulations and during all seasons for the PAT simulations. 451 With respect to the jet shift, the cloud-radiative impact exhibits only a small seasonal 452 cycle and is of similar magnitude as in the annual-mean (compare Fig. 8 to top row of 453 Fig. 6), except for MAM in the PAT simulations for reasons that are unknown to us. As 454 in the annual-mean, and with the exception of MAM, the seasonal-mean cloud-radiative 455 impact is largely independent of the SST pattern. In contrast, the total jet shift and the 456 SST impact exhibit distinct seasonal cycles. This leads to strong seasonal variations of 457 the relative importance of the cloud-radiative impact. The relative importance of the cloud-458 radiative impact can range from about a quarter (during DJF in PAT) to almost all of 459 the poleward jet shift (during SON in PAT). With respect to the jet strength, the sea-460 sonal cycles of the total response, the cloud-radiative impact, and the SST impact are 461 of similar magnitude. In the UNI simulations, the relative importance of the cloud-radiative 462 impact on the jet strength varies between seasons. In the PAT simulations, more than 463 three-quarter of the total jet strength response can be attributed to the cloud-radiative 464 impact (except JJA). 465

In the North Pacific, the cloud-radiative impact leads to a poleward jet shift in all 466 seasons, while having essentially no impact on the seasonal jet strength response (Fig. 9). 467 Apart from JJA, the cloud-radiative impact on the jet latitude response is mostly inde-468 pendent of the SST pattern, consistent with the annual-mean response (Fig. 6, middle 469 row). In terms of relative importance, the cloud-radiative impact contributes between 470 about one-third to the jet shift during MAM, and is in fact larger than the total response 471 during JJA. The strong seasonal cycle in the relative importance reflects the strong sea-472 sonal cycle of the SST impact, which contributes to a poleward jet shift in MAM but 473 tends to lead to an equatorward shift in JJA. We note that the equatorward shift and 474 weakening of the jet during JJA likely arises from negative land-sea equivalent poten-475 tial temperature contrasts when SST are warmed but atmospheric CO_2 is kept at the 476 present-day level (Shaw & Voigt, 2015). 477

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In the Southern Hemisphere, the four seasons can be arranged into two groups ac-478 cording to the simulated jet shifts (Fig. 10). The first group consists of DJF and MAM, 479 for which the jet shifts poleward, similar to the annual-mean (compare Fig. 10 to lower 480 row of Fig. 6). The cloud-radiative impact is of similar magnitude during both seasons 481 and for both global warming setups. At the same time, the increased SST gradients in 482 PAT lead to a much stronger SST impact compared to UNI, so that the relative impor-483 tance of the cloud-radiative impact ranges between about one-third (during DJF in PAT) 484 and more than half (during DJF in UNI) of the total jet shift. The second group consists of SON and JJA, for which the total jet shift is small or even slightly equatorward, 486 independent of the pattern of SST increase. The slight equatorward shift during JJA is 487 supported by the cloud-radiative impact, while in SON, the jet latitude hardly responds 488



Figure 8. Seasonal-mean response of the ocean basin zonal-mean u_{850} response to a uniform (straight line) and patterned (dashed line) SST increase (left) in the North Atlantic. The grey bar indicates the jet latitude in the control simulation derived from the maximum in u_{850} (small inserted figures). The right panel shows the poleward jet shift $\Delta \varphi_{jet}$ versus the jet strengthening Δu_{jet} . The total locked response (black) is decomposed into cloud-radiative impact (orange) and SST impact (blue).



Figure 9. Same as Fig. 8, but for the North Pacific.

to global warming and the cloud-radiative impact is negligible. In contrast to seasonallydependent changes in its position, the jet becomes stronger in all four seasons. The cloudradiative impact on the jet strengthening is of similar magnitude during all seasons, and
its relative importance ranges between about one-fifth (during DJF and JJA in PAT)
and half (during SON in UNI) of the total response.

Figs. S10-S12 show maps of the seasonal-mean u_{850} responses in UNI and PAT, as 494 well as the differences between the two global warming setups. As for the annual-mean, 495 the seasonal-mean cloud-radiative impact is largely zonally symmetric in all ocean basins 496 and during most seasons, except for JJA. During this season, exceptions of the zonal cloud-497 radiative impact are found in the North Pacific (in UNI), in the North Atlantic (in PAT) 498 and the Southern Hemisphere (in PAT). Note that during JJA, the cloud-radiative im-499 pact is larger than the total jet shift in the North Pacific and counteracted by an almost 500 ocean basin wide equatorward shift due to the SST impact. 501

To sum up, we have shown that the seasonal-mean cloud-radiative impact is largely zonally symmetric and shows little dependence on the pattern of SST increase during



Figure 10. Same as Fig. 8, but for the Southern Hemisphere.

most seasons in all three ocean basins. In the North Atlantic and North Pacific, the cloud-504 radiative impact varies little over the course of the year and supports the poleward jet 505 shift during all seasons. The relative importance of the cloud-radiative impact depends 506 on the season, because the total response and SST impact exhibit seasonal cycles. A sim-507 ilar result is found for the Southern Hemisphere during DJF and MAM. The cloud-radiative 508 impact supports the jet strengthening in the North Atlantic during JJA and SON for 509 UNI and during all seasons for PAT, and contributes to the jet strengthening in the South-510 ern Hemisphere during all seasons. 511

512 5 Relations between the jet stream and the atmospheric equator-to-513 pole temperature gradient

In this section, we investigate to what extent the jet stream and its response to global warming are correlated with the upper-tropospheric meridional temperature gradients in all three ocean basins and all seasons. Following Harvey et al. (2014), we calculate the upper-tropospheric (250 hPa) equator-to-pole temperature gradient as the difference between ocean basin zonal mean tropical (30°S-30°N) and polar (poleward of 60°N/S)

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atmospheric temperatures. We chose this pressure level because in our simulations the jet stream and the temperature gradient and their responses show higher correlations in the upper troposphere than in the lower troposphere.

In a first step, we investigate to what extent the annual-mean and seasonal-mean 522 jet streams and upper-tropospheric temperature gradients are correlated for different states 523 of the climate system. For this, we use the ocean basin mean jet latitude, jet strength 524 and equator-to-pole temperature gradient of the seven simulations with locked clouds. 525 These simulations are T1C1, T1C2, T2C1, T2C2, T1C3, T3C1 and T3C3. As described 526 in Section 2.2, the numbers indicate whether SST (T) and cloud-radiative properties (C) 527 are prescribed to values from CTL (simulation 1), UNI (simulation 2) or PAT (simula-528 tion 3). Fig. S13 shows the scatter plots from which the correlation coefficients of Tab. 1 529 were derived. The seven simulations are not strongly clustered according to the under-530 lying SST pattern during most seasons and for most of the ocean basins. Thus, the sig-531 nificant correlations between the temperature gradient and jet stream are not driven by 532 the SST increase. In the Southern Hemisphere, the jet latitude and jet strength are sig-533 nificantly correlated with the upper-tropospheric temperature gradient both in the annual-534 mean and in most seasons (except for JJA and SON for the jet latitude) (Tab. 1). In the 535 North Pacific, the jet stream is significantly correlated with the temperature gradient 536 during MAM and SON. Note that in both ocean basins negative correlations between 537 the temperature gradient and jet latitude or jet strength are found, and are significant 538 in the North Pacific during JJA. The negative correlation during JJA is consistent with 539 the findings of Shaw & Voigt (2015), who showed that ocean warming can result in an 540 equatorward shift of the North Pacific jet in summer. The North Atlantic jet stream is 541 not significantly correlated with the temperature gradient during most seasons. In sum-542 mary, our results indicate that the upper-tropospheric temperature gradient bears some 543 information for the position and strength of the Southern Hemisphere jet stream, but 544 little information for the North Pacific and North Atlantic jet streams. 545

Previous studies related the global warming response of the mid-latitude circulation to changes in upper- and/or lower-tropospheric meridional temperature gradients (e.g., Yin, 2005; Lorenz & DeWeaver, 2007; Harvey et al., 2014, 2015). Thus, in a second step, we investigate whether the cloud-radiative impact on the temperature gradient response in the three ocean basins can be used to infer the cloud-radiative impact on the jet stream response in the respective ocean basin. The idea for this originated from **Table 1.** Correlation coefficients for linear correlation between ocean basin mean jet latitudeand upper-tropospheric temperature gradient (a). Panel b shows the same for the jet strength.Correlation coefficients which are significant at a 95% level are shown in bold letters for bet-ter visualization of large linear correlations. Positive correlations indicate that increased (de-creased) temperature gradients correspond to (a) a more poleward (equatorward) located and (b)a stronger (weaker) jet stream.

a)	Jet latitude		
	North Atlantic	North Pacific	Southern Hemisphere
Annual-mean	0.87	0.74	0.95
DJF	0.71	0.19	0.96
MAM	0.66	0.97	0.87
JJA	0.75	-0.09	-0.37
SON	0.58	0.92	0.18

b)	Jet strength		
	North Atlantic	North Pacific	Southern Hemisphere
Annual-mean	0.76	0.76	0.96
DJF	0.63	-0.04	0.90
MAM	0.45	0.81	0.93
JJA	0.89	-0.89	0.96
SON	0.58	0.90	0.97

the work of Gerber & Son (2014) who related, and thereby attributed, the jet shift to 552 changes in polar stratospheric temperatures (due to ozone) and changes in tropical upper-553 tropospheric temperatures (due to greenhouse gases). A similar approach was taken by 554 Ceppi & Shepherd (2017). Here, we investigate the relation between the jet response and 555 the temperature gradient response for the SST impact and the cloud-radiative impact. 556 The correlation between the jet stream response and the equator-to-pole temperature 557 gradient response at 250 hPa is shown in Fig. 11. In all three ocean basins, the temper-558 ature gradient increases in response to global warming in all seasons (Fig. 11). At the same time, the jet strengthens and shifts poleward in the North Atlantic, and strength-560 ens in the Southern Hemisphere during all seasons. However, as discussed in Section 4, 561 during some seasons, the North Pacific jet stream weakens and shifts equatorward and 562 the Southern Hemisphere jet stream shifts equatorward. 563

To assess to what extent the temperature gradient response and the jet stream re-564 sponse are correlated, we calculate correlation coefficients individually for the total re-565 sponse, SST impact and cloud-radiative impact based on the annual-mean and seasonal-566 mean responses in both UNI and PAT. The cloud-radiative impact shows rather small 567 correlations, except for the jet shift in the Southern Hemisphere (Fig. 11). This is due 568 to the fact that the cloud-radiative impact is of similar magnitude over the course of the 569 year and for both global warming simulations. In contrast, the total response and SST 570 impact exhibit distinct seasonal cycles, resulting in significant correlations between the 571 jet response and the temperature gradient response, especially in the Southern Hemi-572 sphere and North Pacific. This suggests that in a large model ensemble for which only 573 the total response is available, such as CMIP5/6, the SST impact could be inferred in-574 directly from the upper-tropospheric temperature response, but the cloud-radiative im-575 pact could not. Thus, a proper diagnostic of the cloud-radiative impact requires dedi-576 cated cloud-locking simulations. 577

The fact that we generally could not find a linear correlation for the cloud-radiative impact is in agreement with McGraw & Barnes (2016), who used a dry dynamical model to investigate the jet stream response to a time-constant tropical upper-tropospheric thermal forcing. They found that the temperature response to the thermal forcing does not exhibit a seasonal cycle, whereas, the jet latitude and jet strength responses do exhibit distinct seasonal cycles. As a result, McGraw & Barnes (2016) found no correlation be-



Figure 11. Correlation between temperature gradient response at 250 hPa, ΔT_{250} , and jet strength response, Δu_{jet} , (top) and jet latitude response, $\Delta \varphi_{jet}$, (bottom) for the North Atlantic, North Pacific and Southern Hemisphere. Filled markers are for the response in UNI, open markers for the response in PAT. The total response (black markers) is decomposed into the cloud-radiative impact (orange markers) and the SST impact (blue markers). Correlation coefficients r are marked with a star if they are significant on a 95% level.

tween the jet stream response and the temperature gradient response. This is in line with

⁵⁸⁵ our results.

6 Discussion and Conclusions

We study the impact of cloud-radiative changes on the global warming responses 587 of the mid-latitude jet streams and storm tracks in the North Atlantic, North Pacific and 588 Southern Hemisphere, and determine whether the cloud-radiative impact depends on the 589 ocean basin, season and pattern of SST increase. For this purpose, we use the atmospheric 590 component of the ICON model and prescribe SST to isolate the impact of cloud-radiative 591 changes via the atmospheric pathway, i.e., the impact of changes in atmospheric cloud-592 radiative heating in the absence of a cloud-radiative impact on ocean surface temper-593 atures (Voigt et al., 2019). 594

Changes in atmospheric cloud-radiative heating have a substantial impact on the 595 annual-mean jet stream and storm track responses to global warming, with little depen-596 dence on the pattern of SST increase. Note that the impact of surface cloud-radiative 597 heating, which is disabled in our simulations, may depend on the pattern of SST increase, 598 because they lead to changes in surface temperatures (Ceppi & Hartmann, 2016; Voigt 599 et al., 2019). The cloud-radiative impact is largely zonally symmetric, consistent with 600 a zonally symmetric change in cloud-radiative heating in the mid-latitude upper tropo-601 sphere. The magnitude of the cloud-radiative impact depends on the ocean basin. In a 602 relative sense, cloud-radiative changes contribute one- to two-thirds to the annual-mean 603 poleward jet shift in all three ocean basins, and support the jet strengthening in the North 604 Atlantic and Southern Hemisphere. Regarding the seasonal jet response, the cloud-radiative 605 impact varies little with seasons in the North Atlantic and North Pacific. Yet, because 606 the total jet stream response and the SST impact exhibit distinct seasonal cycles, the 607 relative importance of the cloud-radiative impact changes over the course of the year. 608 In the Southern Hemisphere, the cloud-radiative impact supports the jet strengthening 609 in all seasons and contributes to the poleward jet shift in austral summer and fall. As 610 for the annual-mean, the cloud-radiative impact on the seasonal jet stream response is 611 largely zonally symmetric and depends little on the pattern of SST increase. 612

Similar to the zonal cloud-radiative impact, the direct radiative impact of CO_2 on the zonal wind response is also largely zonally uniform in present-day simulations of at-

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mospheric general circulation models (Grise & Polvani, 2014a). Grise & Polvani (2014a) also attributed the asymmetries in the total response to changes in the SST, as in our study with the cloud-locking method.

Previous studies investigated the zonal-mean jet stream and storm track responses 618 to global warming in idealized aquaplanet simulations without a seasonal cycle. They 619 found that cloud-radiative changes cause more than half of the zonal-mean near-surface 620 zonal wind (Voigt & Shaw, 2015) and jet latitude responses (Ceppi & Hartmann, 2016) 621 and dominate the storm track response (Ceppi & Hartmann, 2016). Voigt et al. (2019) 622 showed that more than half of the annual-mean zonal-mean jet shift in a present-day setup 623 can be attributed to the atmospheric pathway of the cloud-radiative impact. We extend 624 this prior work and show that the absolute value of the cloud-radiative impact strongly 625 depends on the ocean basin, and has only a small seasonal cycle in the Northern Hemi-626 sphere. In addition, we show that the relative role of the cloud-radiative impact on the 627 jet stream response varies across ocean basins and seasons. This highlights the impor-628 tance of the present-day setup, and the investigation of individual ocean basins, for un-629 derstanding the role of cloud-radiative changes on the mid-latitude circulation response 630 to global warming. 631

While continents are important for the jet stream response in the three ocean basins, 632 the pattern of SST increase plays a minor role for the cloud-radiative impact on the jet 633 stream and storm track responses. In our simulations, the pattern of the SST increase 634 has only a small impact on the absolute value of the cloud-radiative impact in all three 635 ocean basins and across seasons. Thus, the uniform 4K SST increase provides meaning-636 ful estimates of the absolute value of the cloud-radiative impact, although is not able to 637 reproduce the total jet stream response of coupled climate models, especially in the South-638 ern Hemisphere, where the jet strongly responds to changes in SST gradients. 639

Even though the cloud-radiative impact does not strongly depend on the pattern of SST increase and season in the model used here, previous work indicates that the cloudradiative impact strongly differs between models. Voigt et al. (2019) showed that the annualmean zonal-mean change in atmospheric cloud-radiative heating and, thus, the magnitude of the cloud-radiative impact strongly depend on the model. These model differences arise both from differences in the cloud response as well as differences in the radiation schemes and assumptions regarding the radiative characteristics of ice clouds.

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Additionally, in coupled climate models the cloud-radiative impact is a sum of the atmospheric and surface pathways of the change in cloud-radiative heating. The latter might
depend on the pattern of SST increase and season.

Finally, we investigated the correlation between the upper-tropospheric temper-650 ature gradient response and the jet stream response. For the cloud-radiative impact, in-651 creased temperature gradients coincide with a strengthening of the Southern Hemisphere 652 jet stream, while correlations between cloud-induced changes in the temperature gradi-653 ent and the jet are weak in the Northern Hemisphere. This lack of correlation is a re-654 sult of the fact that the cloud-radiative impact does not strongly depend on season in 655 the Northern Hemisphere. In contrast, the total response and SST impact exhibit dis-656 tinct seasonal cycles, resulting in significant linear correlations between the jet stream 657 response and upper-tropospheric temperature gradient response, with statistically sig-658 nificant correlations in the Southern Hemisphere and North Pacific. This also indicates 659 that the cloud-radiative impact on the jet cannot be inferred indirectly from the tem-660 perature response, but requires cloud-locking simulations. 661

Our results emphasize the importance of cloud-radiative changes for the global warm-662 ing response of the mid-latitude atmospheric circulation. Previous studies, which focused 663 on the annual-mean zonal-mean cloud-radiative impact, showed that its magnitude dif-664 fers across models and remains uncertain in both aquaplanet (Voigt & Shaw, 2016) and 665 present-day simulations (Voigt et al., 2019). Thus, future studies should investigate the 666 ocean basin mean circulation response across seasons in a larger model ensemble. This 667 would enable to quantify model differences in representing the change in cloud-radiative 668 heating and its effect on the circulation's response. Finally, we found a particularly large 669 change in cloud-radiative heating over the tropical western Pacific and Indian Ocean, which 670 could be important for the mid-latitude circulation response to global warming. We hope 671 to quantify the role of this heating in a future study using regionally prescribed cloud-672 radiative changes. 673

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• Table 1. Correlation coefficients for linear correlation between ocean basin mean jet latitude and upper-tropospheric temperature gradient (a). Panel b shows the same for the jet strength. Correlation coefficients which are significant at a 95 % level are shown in bold letters for better visualization of large linear correlations. Positive correlations indicate that increased (decreased) temperature gradients correspond to (a) a more poleward (equatorward) located and (b) a stronger (weaker) jet stream.

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Figure 1. Annual-mean SST pattern of the CTL simulation (left) and anomalous
SST pattern used for the PAT simulation (right). Regions covered by land or more than 15% of sea ice are masked.

Figure 2. Response of the annual-mean zonal-mean atmospheric temperature (top), zonal wind (middle), and mass stream function (bottom) to a uniform SST increase with free clouds (left) (UNI-CTL). The right column shows the difference between the response in the locked and free simulations. The green line in each panel shows the tropopause height in the control simulation CTL.

Figure 3. Mean (crosses) and 95% significance level (vertical lines) for the difference in the jet latitude (left) and jet strength (right) responses between simulations with free clouds and simulations with locked clouds. Results are shown for each season, ocean basin and global warming setup. Black symbols indicate that the responses in simulations with locked and free clouds are statistically similar, grey symbols indicate that they are not statistically similar on a 95% level. Note the different ranges for the vertical axes of the panels.

Figure 4. Annual-mean response of the 850 hPa zonal wind, u_{850} , (left) and storm track (right) in the UNI simulations. The total response (top) is decomposed into the SST impact (middle) and the cloud-radiative impact (bottom). The black line in the left column indicates the jet latitude in the control simulation, the grey contours in the right column show the storm track in the control simulation (contour interval of $100 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$). For the storm track, the Tropics are not shown. The dots indicate where the response is significant at 95% level.

• Figure 5. Same as Fig. 4, but for the PAT simulations.

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Figure 6. The left panels show the annual-mean response of ocean basin zonalmean u₈₅₀ in UNI (straight lines) and PAT (dashed lines). The grey bars indicate the jet latitude in CTL derived from the maximum in u₈₅₀ (small inserted figures). The right panels show the poleward jet shift Δφ_{jet} versus jet strengthening Δu_{jet}. Results are shown for the North Atlantic (top), North Pacific (middle) and Southern Hemisphere (bottom). The total locked response (black) is decomposed into cloud-radiative impact (orange) and SST impact (blue).

Figure 7. Annual-mean zonal-mean response of cloud cover in the simulations with free clouds (a, d) and annual-mean zonal-mean change in cloud-radiative heating (b, e). The bottom panels depict the vertical-mean changes in cloud-radiative heating for a 300 hPa thick layer below the tropopause. Results are shown for the UNI (left) and PAT (right) simulations. The black lines in the zonal-mean responses indicate the tropopause height in the control simulation, the black line in the maps shows the jet latitude in the control simulation.

Figure 8. Seasonal-mean response of the ocean basin zonal-mean u_{850} response to a uniform (straight line) and patterned (dashed line) SST increase (left) in the North Atlantic. The grey bar indicates the jet latitude in the control simulation derived from the maximum in u_{850} (small inserted figures). The right panel shows the poleward jet shift $\Delta \varphi_{jet}$ versus the jet strengthening Δu_{jet} . The total locked response (black) is decomposed into cloud-radiative impact (orange) and SST impact (blue).

• Figure 9. Same as Fig. 8, but for the North Pacific.

Figure 10. Same as Fig. 8, but for the Southern Hemisphere.

• Figure 11. Correlation between temperature gradient response at 250 hPa, ΔT_{250} , and jet strength response, Δu_{jet} , (top) and jet latitude response, $\Delta \varphi_{jet}$, (bottom) for the North Atlantic, North Pacific and Southern Hemisphere. Filled markers are for the response in UNI, open markers for the response in PAT. The total response (black markers) is decomposed into the cloud-radiative impact (orange markers) and the SST impact (blue markers). Correlation coefficients r are marked with a star if they are significant on a 95% level.