

# Radiative impacts of Californian marine low clouds on North Pacific climate

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## Abstract

The northeastern Pacific climate system is featured by an extensive low-cloud deck off California on the southeastern flank of the subtropical high that accompanies intense northeasterly trades and relatively low sea surface temperatures (SSTs). This study investigates climatic impacts of the low-cloud deck by turning low-cloud radiative forcing on and off only within the subtropical northeastern Pacific in a coupled atmosphere-ocean model. The low-cloud radiative forcing causes a local SST decrease of up to 3°C on an annual average, with the response extending southwestward through the wind-evaporation-SST (WES) feedback. The SST decrease peaks in summer under the seasonally enhanced insolation and the seasonally shallow ocean mixed layer. The lowered SST suppresses deep-convective precipitation that would otherwise occur in the absence of the low-cloud deck. The resultant anomalous diabatic cooling induces a surface anticyclonic response in summer and autumn as a baroclinic Matsuno-Gill pattern. On its equatorward flank, the enhanced trade winds further cool SST as the WES feedback, leading to the southwest propagation of the coupled response. The enhanced trades accompany the intensified upper-tropospheric westerlies, strengthening the vertical wind shear that, together with the lowered SST, acts to shield Hawaii from powerful hurricanes. On the basin scale, the anticyclonic surface wind response accelerates the North Pacific subtropical ocean gyre to speed up the Kuroshio by as much as 30%. SST thereby increases along the Kuroshio and its extension, intensifying upward turbulent heat fluxes from the ocean to increase precipitation.

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26 turbulent heat fluxes from the ocean to increase precipitation.

## 27 **1. Introduction**

28 Over each of the subtropical oceans, large-scale surface winds are characterized by subtropical  
29 highs (e.g., Rodwell and Hoskins 2001; Seager et al. 2003; Miyasaka and Nakamura 2005, 2010;  
30 Nakamura et al. 2010; Miyamoto et al. 2022b). To the east of a subtropical high, enhanced  
31 lower-tropospheric stability due to mid-tropospheric subsidence and low sea surface temperature  
32 (SST) promotes abundant low clouds (e.g., Klein and Hartmann 1993; Wood and Bretherton 2006;  
33 Miyamoto et al. 2018). Since low clouds reflect a substantial fraction of incoming shortwave  
34 radiation, they are crucial in Earth energy budget (Hartmann et al. 1992) and its perturbations such  
35 as global warming (Bony et al. 2005; Zelinka et al. 2020).

36 The cooling effect of low clouds is important in regional climate through air-sea interactions.  
37 Reflecting insolation, low clouds act to reinforce the underlying low SST. This results in stronger  
38 lower-tropospheric stability, which facilitates low-cloud formation. This local feedback, known as  
39 positive low cloud-SST feedback, has been identified as crucial air-sea coupled feedback over the  
40 eastern subtropical oceans (e.g., Norris and Leovy 1994; Clement et al. 2009; Myers et al. 2018;  
41 Yang et al. 2022).

42 Although the local radiative impacts of low clouds are widely accepted, their non-local effect  
43 has not been understood well. As low SST over the eastern subtropical oceans is important in  
44 maintaining the subtropical high (Seager et al. 2003; Miyasaka and Nakamura 2005, 2010), SST  
45 cooling by low clouds is suggested to reinforce the subtropical high. They can also reinforce  
46 the subtropical high through cloud-top longwave cooling (Miyasaka and Nakamura 2005, 2010).  
47 Strengthened trade winds associated with the enhanced subtropical high act to cool the SST by  
48 promoting evaporation from the ocean. This wind-evaporation-SST (WES) feedback (Xie and  
49 Philander 1994) propagates westward, yielding remote influence on the equatorial oceans (Xie et  
50 al. 2007; Yang et al. 2022). Nevertheless, it has been controversial to what extent it is actually  
51 effective (Seager et al. 2003; Miyasaka and Nakamura 2005, 2010; Kawai and Koshiro et al 2020).  
52 One reason for this is the difficulty in evaluating the influence of low clouds in the air-sea coupled  
53 system. Here, we evaluate the low-cloud feedback using an atmosphere-ocean general circulation  
54 model (AOGCM).

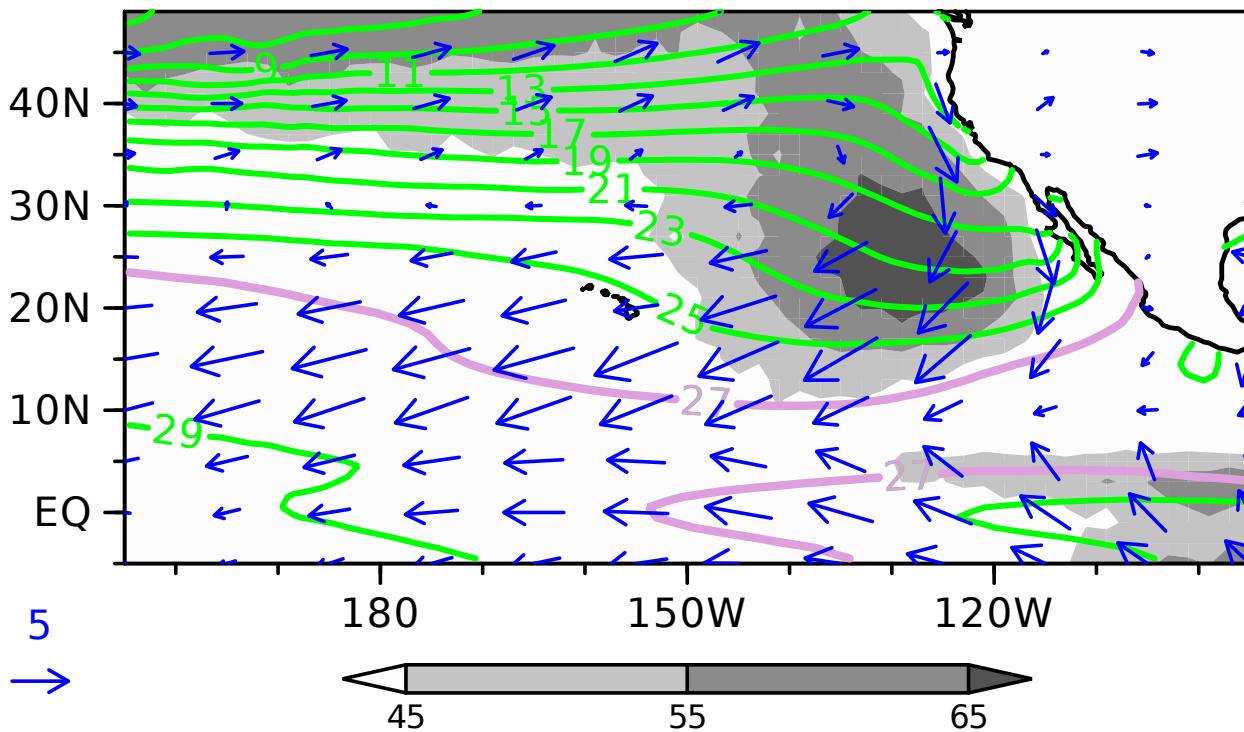
55 Recently, Miyamoto et al. (2021, 2022a) applied techniques of the Clouds On-Off Climate  
56 Model Intercomparison Experiment (COOKIE; Stevens 2012; Voigt et al. 2021) to a fully coupled

57 AOGCM. Specifically, low-cloud radiative effect (CRE) was artificially removed regionally to  
58 evaluate specific low-cloud impacts. The simulations conducted for the South Indian Ocean  
59 demonstrated that low-cloud feedback is essential in the summertime subtropical Mascarene high  
60 (Miyamoto et al. 2021). Lowered SST by low clouds prevents the intertropical convergence zone  
61 (ITCZ) from expanding poleward, suppressing deep-convective precipitation on the poleward flank  
62 of the ITCZ. The resultant anomalous diabatic cooling reinforces the surface Mascarene high and  
63 promotes the WES feedback. By contrast, the low-cloud feedback is modest in winter, when the  
64 suppression of deep-convective precipitation by low clouds is less effective due to climatologically  
65 low SST (Miyamoto et al. 2022a).

66 This study applies the same methodology as in Miyamoto et al. (2021, 2022a) to the North  
67 Pacific. Figure 1 shows climatological annual-mean distributions of low-cloud fraction (LCF),  
68 SST, and surface winds over the northeastern Pacific (NEP). The subtropical high resides over the  
69 eastern portion of the basin, and the northeasterly trade winds blow on its southeastern flank. Over  
70 local minima of SST, LCF maximizes off the California coast. We examine not only the low-cloud  
71 impacts on the subtropical high and SST over the NEP but also their implications on the climate  
72 around Hawaii and the Kuroshio region.

73 The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes data and model experiments.  
74 Section 3 examines the low-cloud impacts on the subtropical high and SST over the NEP. Section  
75 4 discusses implications on the climate in the Hawaii and Kuroshio regions. Section 5 summarizes  
76 the present study.

# OBS annual LCF, Us & SST



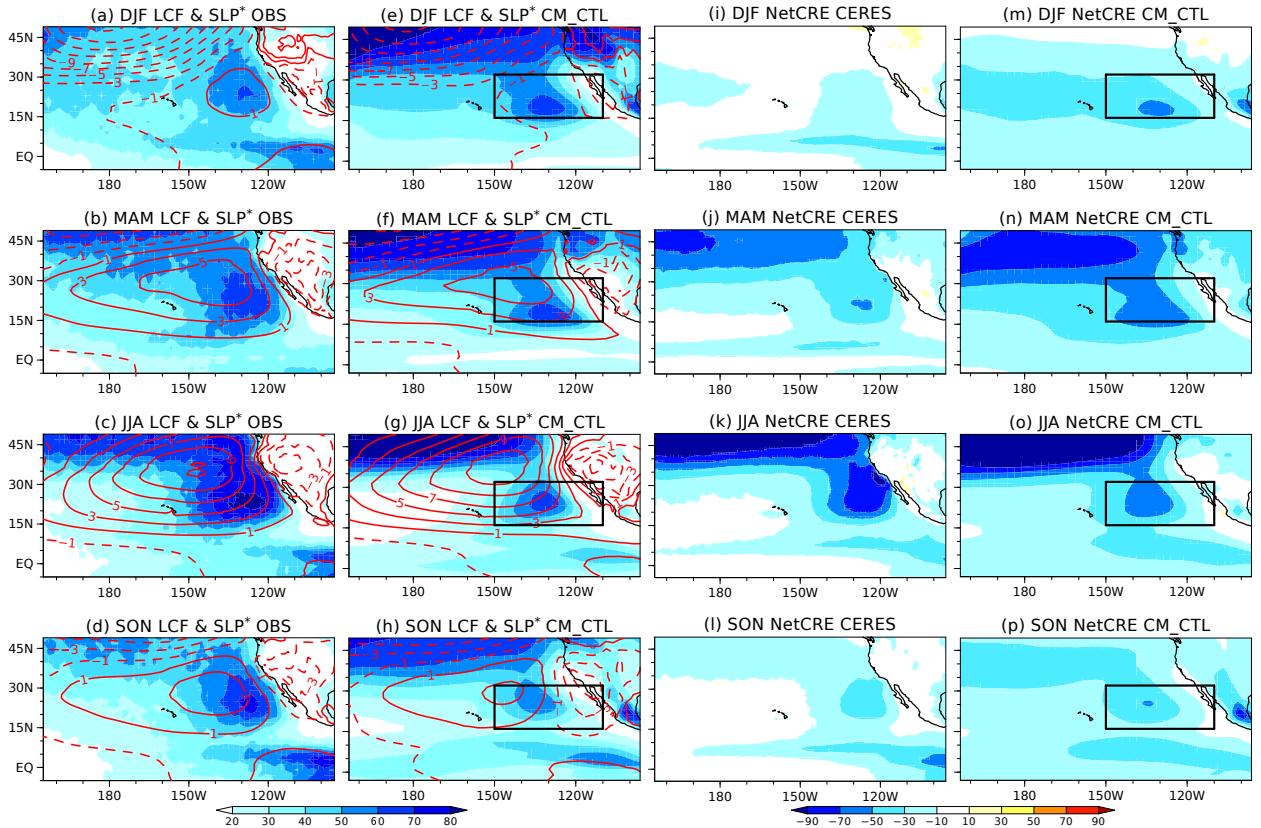
77 FIG. 1. Climatological annual-mean distributions of CALIPSO-GOCCP low-cloud fraction (%) color shaded  
78 as indicated at the bottom), OISST sea surface temperature (contoured for every 2°C in green with 27°C isotherms  
79 in purple), and JRA-55 surface winds ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; arrows with reference on the bottom). See Section 2b for details  
80 of the data.

## 2. Data and model experiments

### *a. Model experiments*

Following Miyamoto et al. (2021, 2022a), radiative impacts of low clouds are evaluated by setting maritime cloud fraction to zero over a given geographical domain for radiation calculations in a fully coupled AOGCM, CM2.1 (Delworth et al. 2006). Its atmospheric component has  $2.5^\circ \times 2^\circ$  resolution in longitude-latitude with 24 vertical levels. The resolution of the 50-level ocean model is  $1^\circ$  in both latitude and longitude, with meridional resolution equatorward of  $30^\circ$  progressively finer to  $1/3^\circ$  at the equator. We specify the domain [ $150^\circ\text{W}$ - $110^\circ\text{W}$ ,  $16^\circ\text{N}$ - $32^\circ\text{N}$ ] in the subtropical NEP (black rectangles in Fig. 2; hereafter referred to as the NEP box), in which cloud fraction is set to zero artificially from the surface up to the 680-hPa level. After branched off from the same initial condition, both the low-cloud-off (CM\_NoCRE) and control (CM\_CTL) experiments are integrated for 110 years with the 1990-level radiative forcing. We analyze 100 years until November in the final year. A response to the low-cloud radiative effects simulated in CM2.1 is represented as CM\_CTL–CM\_NoCRE, which has the same sign as the low-cloud impacts. Within this analysis period, a model drift resulting from the low-cloud removal is found negligible: Radiative imbalance at the top of the atmosphere (TOA) in the last 100 years is  $1.02 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  in CM\_CTL and  $1.07 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  in CM\_NoCRE.

To isolate the SST influence simulated in CM2.1, we also conduct experiments with its atmospheric component, AM2.1. A control experiment (AM\_CTL) is carried out with climatological SST and sea ice concentration in CM\_CTL. One sensitivity experiment aimed at evaluating the local SST influence is AM\_SSTastNEP, where the prescribed SST is replaced by the CM\_NoCRE climatology regionally over the NEP ( $180^\circ$ - $110^\circ\text{W}$ ,  $10^\circ\text{N}$ - $32^\circ\text{N}$ ; note a slight difference from the NEP box). Another sensitivity experiment to isolate low-cloud impacts without SST changes is AM\_NoCRE\_SSTfixed, where radiative effects of Californian low clouds are eliminated as in CM\_NoCRE but SST and sea ice are fixed to the CM\_CTL climatology. Each of the AM2.1 experiments has been integrated for 51 years, and 50 years until the last November are analyzed. Table 1 summarizes the differences among the model experiments. The statistical significance of the model responses is determined with a Student's  $t$  test.



109 FIG. 2. (a)-(d) Climatological-mean distributions of CALIPSO-GOCCP LCF (%; color shaded as indicated at  
 110 the bottom) and JRA-55 zonally asymmetric SLP (contoured for  $\pm 1$ ,  $\pm 3$ ,  $\pm 5$  hPa; positive and negative values for  
 111 solid and dashed lines, respectively) in (a) DJF, (b) MAM, (c) JJA, and (d) SON. (e)-(h) As in (a)-(d), respectively,  
 112 but for the CM\_CTL simulation. (i)-(l) As in (a)-(d), but for CERES-EBAF TOA net CRE ( $\text{W m}^{-2}$ ). (m)-(p)  
 113 As in (i)-(l), respectively, but for the CM\_CTL simulation. Black box denotes the domain where low clouds are  
 114 made transparent in CM.NoCRE.

115 *b. Observational data*

116 For the purpose of model validation, CM\_CTL is compared with monthly observational data.  
 117 We use the Japanese 55-year Reanalysis of the global atmosphere (JRA-55; Kobayashi et al.  
 118 2015; Harada et al. 2016) from 1979 to 2018 for sea-level pressure (SLP), the Clouds and  
 119 the Earth's Radiant Energy System (CERES) Energy Balanced and Filled (EBAF) edition 4.1  
 120 (NASA/LARC/SD/ASDC 2019) from March 2000 to February 2020 for TOA radiative fluxes, the  
 121 GCM-Oriented CALIPSO (*Cloud-Aerosol Lidar and Infrared Pathfinder Satellite Observations*)

TABLE 1. Overview of the CM2.1 (top two) and AM2.1 (bottom three) experiments.

	Radiative effects of Californian low clouds (150°W-110°W, 16°N-32°N)	Prescribed SST
CM_CTL	Active	—
CM_NoCRE	Inactive	—
AM_CTL	Active	Monthly climatology of CM_CTL
AM_SSTAstNEP	Active	Monthly climatology of CM_NoCRE over the northeastern Pacific (180°-110°W, 10°N-32°N) and CM_CTL elsewhere
AM_NoCRE_SSTfixed	Inactive	Monthly climatology of CM_CTL

122 Cloud Product (GOCCP) version 3 (Chepfer et al. 2010) from June 2006 to May 2017 for LCF, and  
 123 the Optimum Interpolation SST V2 (OISST; Reynolds et al. 2002) from December 1981 through  
 124 November 2017 for SST. The horizontal resolution is 1.25° in JRA55, 2° in CALIPSO-GOCCP,  
 125 and 1° in CERES-EBAF and OISST.

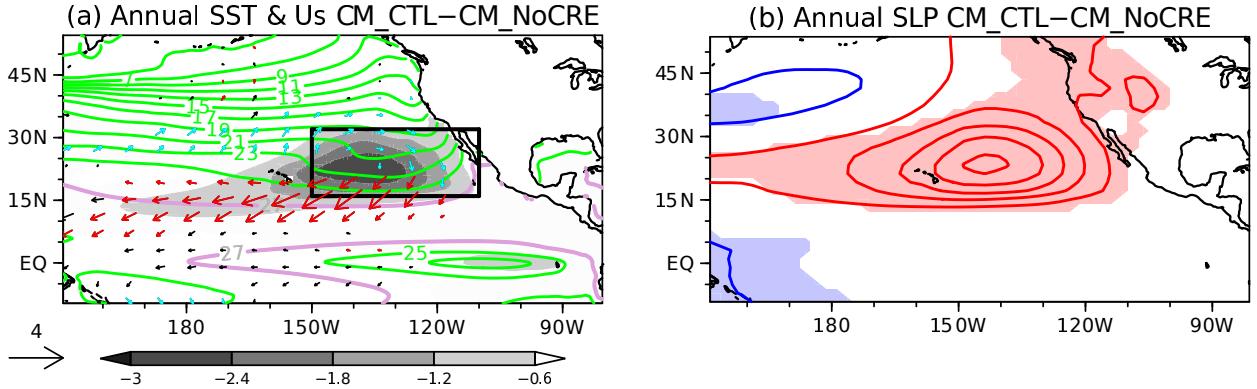
126 Over the subtropical North Pacific, maximum negative CRE occurs off California associated with  
 127 local LCF maximum (Fig. 2). These distributions compare well with the satellite observations,  
 128 although their seasonal cycle in CM\_CTL is weaker than in the observations. The North Pacific  
 129 subtropical high seen as positive zonally asymmetric SLP is also well reproduced (Figs. 2a-h).  
 130 As described in Wittenberg et al. (2006), CM2.1 is also skillful in simulating the tropical Pacific  
 131 climate.

### 132 3. Low-cloud impacts on the northeastern Pacific climate

#### 133 a. Coupled response of SST and surface winds

134 We begin with the annual-mean coupled response to radiative forcing of low clouds over the NEP.  
 135 Figure 3 shows annual-mean response of SST, surface winds, and SLP. In the NEP box, negative  
 136 SST response is up to  $-3^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Fig. 3a) due to the negative CRE of low clouds (Figs. 2m-p). The  
 137 SST response is not limited to the NEP box but extends well outside in the southwestward direction.  
 138 The extension of the negative SST response is collocated with the strengthened northeasterly trade  
 139 winds (Fig. 3a) associated with +2-hPa SLP response (Fig. 3b). This coupled pattern is reminiscent

140 of the Pacific meridional mode (PMM; Chiang and Vimont 2004) and the joint WES-low cloud  
 141 feedback as observed by Yang et al. (2022) in interannual variations (see also Xie 2023).



142 FIG. 3. Annual-mean response to CRE imposed in the black NEP box, represented by the difference defined  
 143 as CM\_CTL–CM\_NoCRE. (a) SST (shaded as indicated at the bottom; only points with the 99% confidence  
 144 as CM\_CTL–CM\_NoCRE. (a) SST (shaded as indicated at the bottom; only points with the 99% confidence  
 145 for the difference are shaded) and surface winds ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; arrows with reference on the left; red and blue arrows  
 146 signify increased and decreased scalar wind speed, respectively, with the 99% confidence for the difference).  
 147 Superimposed with green contours is climatological-mean SST (every  $2^\circ\text{C}$  with  $27^\circ\text{C}$  isotherms in purple) in  
 148 CM\_CTL. Black box denotes the domain where low clouds are made transparent in CM\_NoCRE. (b) SLP (every  
 149 0.4 hPa; red and blue lines for positive and negative values, respectively; zero lines are omitted). Color shading  
 150 indicates the 99% confidence for the difference.

150 Figures 4a-d show seasonal cycle of the coupled response, whereas Figs. 5a-b indicate ocean  
 151 mixed-layer temperature (MLT; virtually equivalent to SST) and depth (MLD) in the NEP box.  
 152 The negative SST response in the NEP box maximizes in summer (Figs. 4c and 5a), under the  
 153 enhanced negative CRE in spring and summer (Figs. 2m-p) in combination with summertime  
 154 shallow MLD (Fig. 5b).

155 A heat budget analysis for the ocean mixed layer substantiates the importance of CRE in the NEP  
 156 box. As in Miyamoto et al. (2021), the budget equation may be cast as

$$\left(\frac{\partial \text{MLT}}{\partial t}\right)' = \left(\frac{F}{\rho c_p H}\right)' + (\text{advection}) \quad (1)$$

157 where primes denote anomalies defined as CM\_CTL–CM\_NoCRE. In (1),  $F$ ,  $\rho$ , and  $c_p$  denote  
 158 the net downward surface heat flux (NSHF), sea-water density ( $1026 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ ), and specific heat

159 (3990 J kg<sup>-1</sup> °C<sup>-1</sup>), respectively, whereas  $H$  represents MLD. A contribution of oceanic horizontal  
 160 and vertical heat advection is evaluated as the residual. The first term on the RHS of (1) can be  
 161 decomposed as

$$\left( \frac{F}{\rho c_p H} \right)' = \frac{F'}{\rho c_p \overline{H}} - \frac{\overline{F} \cdot H'}{\rho c_p \overline{H}^2} - \frac{F' \cdot H'}{\rho c_p \overline{H}^2} \quad (2)$$

162 where overbars signify monthly climatologies in CM\_NoCRE. As shown by solid lines in Fig. 5c,  
 163 the negative SST development into summer is attributable to the NSHF term whereas the oceanic  
 164 advection term acts to stall the development. The early summer cooling is mostly attributable to  
 165 anomalous NSHF (red dashed line in Fig. 5c) due to shortwave cooling by low clouds (purple line  
 166 in Fig. 5d). The rest of the early summer cooling (Fig. 5c) is due to the slightly deeper MLD  
 167 response (Fig. 5b) combined with the net climatological heating (second term on the RHS of (2)).  
 168 The deeper MLD response is also consistent with the negative CRE of low clouds (Figs. 2m-p;  
 169 Niiler and Kraus 1977).

170 While the total latent heat flux response acts to damp the SST cooling in the NEP box (Fig.  
 171 5c) due to its SST dependency (Xie et al. 2010), the trade winds (Figs. 4a-d) associated with  
 172 the intensified subtropical high (Figs. 4e-h) are accelerated on the equatorward flank of the NEP  
 173 box, promoting turbulent heat loss from the ocean by the augmented wind speed and cold-air  
 174 advection. Furthermore, the negative SST response expands southwestward outside the NEP box,  
 175 in accordance with the strengthened trade winds. This WES feedback is stronger in summer and  
 176 autumn (Figs. 4c-d). Mechanisms of the surface wind response are detailed in the next subsection.

177 It is noteworthy that there are weak negative SST and surface easterly responses in the equatorial  
 178 Pacific (Figs. 3 and 4a-d; the color map is shown in Fig. S1), reminiscent of the influence of the  
 179 PMM on ENSO. As reviewed by Amaya (2019), the PMM's cool SST anomalies in the NEP can  
 180 produce a La Niña-like SST pattern by forcing oceanic equatorial Kelvin waves and discharge of  
 181 subsurface heat content. Indeed, impacts of the NEP low clouds on the equatorial Pacific have been  
 182 identified by Yang et al. (2022) in interannual variations. Further investigation of the low-cloud  
 183 impact on the equatorial Pacific is left for future work.

CM\_CTL–CM\_NoCRE

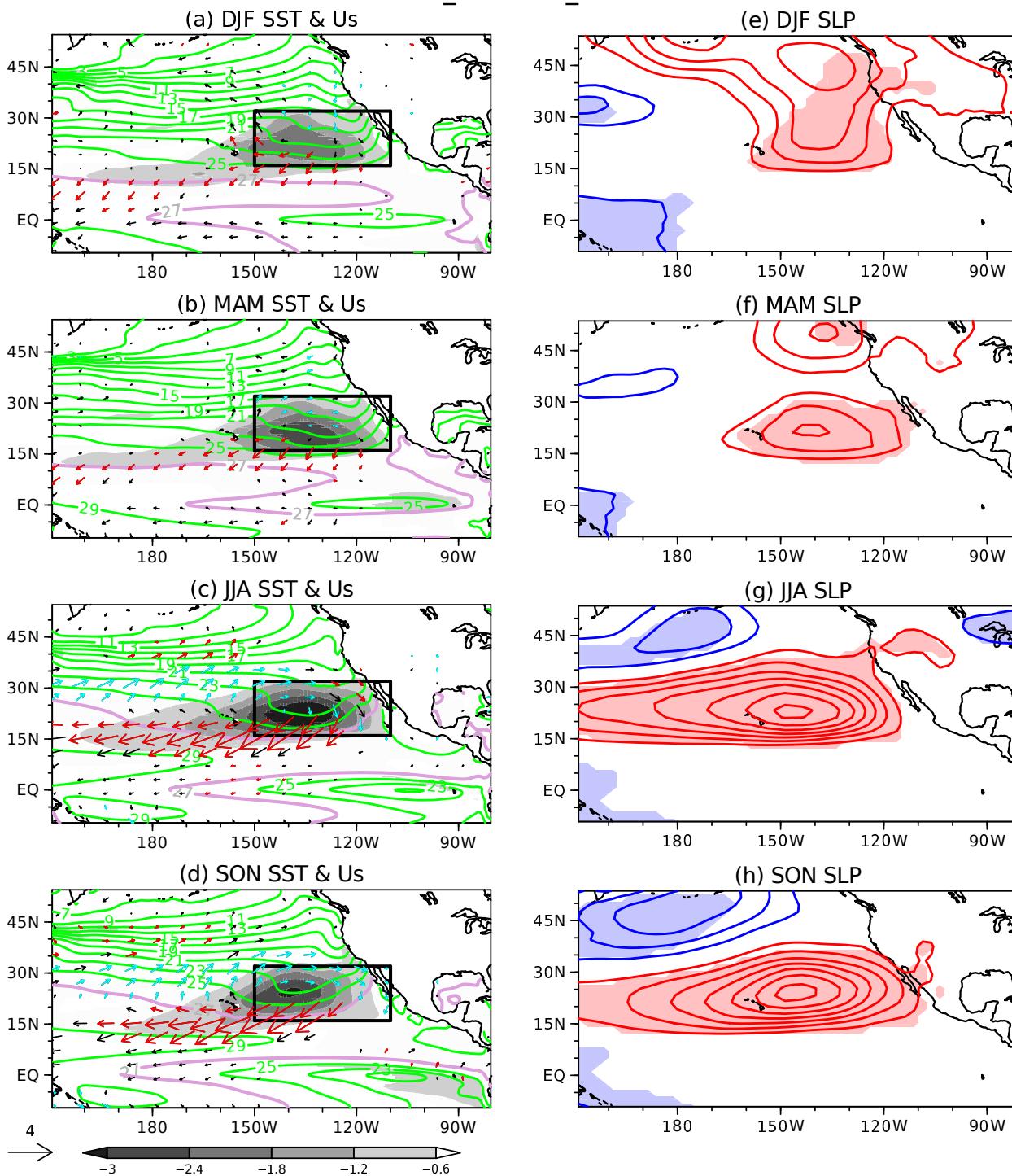
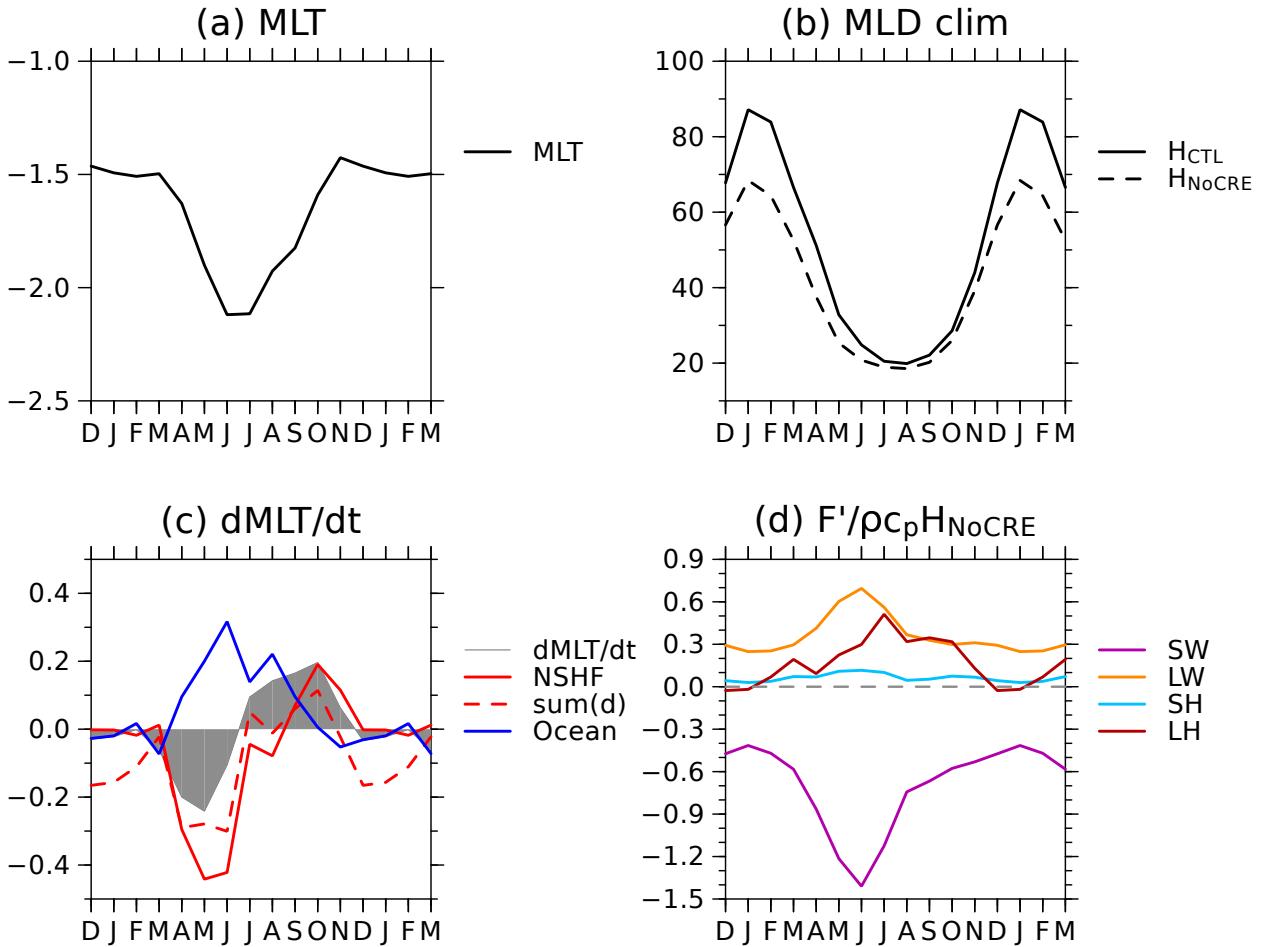


FIG. 4. As in Fig. 3, but for (a,e) DJF, (b,f) MAM, (c,g) JJA, and (d,h) SON.



184 FIG. 5. (a) Area-mean difference of CM\_CTL–CM\_NoCRE in climatological-mean MLT (°C) in the NEP  
 185 box (rectangles in Figs. 2-4). (b) Monthly climatology of MLD (m) in CM\_CTL (solid) and CM\_NoCRE  
 186 (dashed). (c) As in (a), but for its anomalous rate of change (°C [30 day]<sup>-1</sup>; grey filled line). Red and blue  
 187 solid lines are NSHF and oceanic advection terms in (2), whereas red dashed line indicates the NSHF term with  
 188 climatological-mean MLD ( $F'/\rho c_p \bar{H}$ ). (d) As in red dashed line in (c), but for individual contributions from  
 189 shortwave radiation (SW; purple line), longwave radiation (LW; orange line), sensible heat flux (SH; light blue  
 190 line), and latent heat flux (LH; brown line) anomalies. The panels show one year starting from December, and  
 191 additional four months ending in March. Note that MLD is defined as a depth at which buoyancy difference is  
 192  $0.0003 \text{ m s}^{-2}$  relative to the surface.

193 *b. Response of the North Pacific subtropical high and its mechanism*

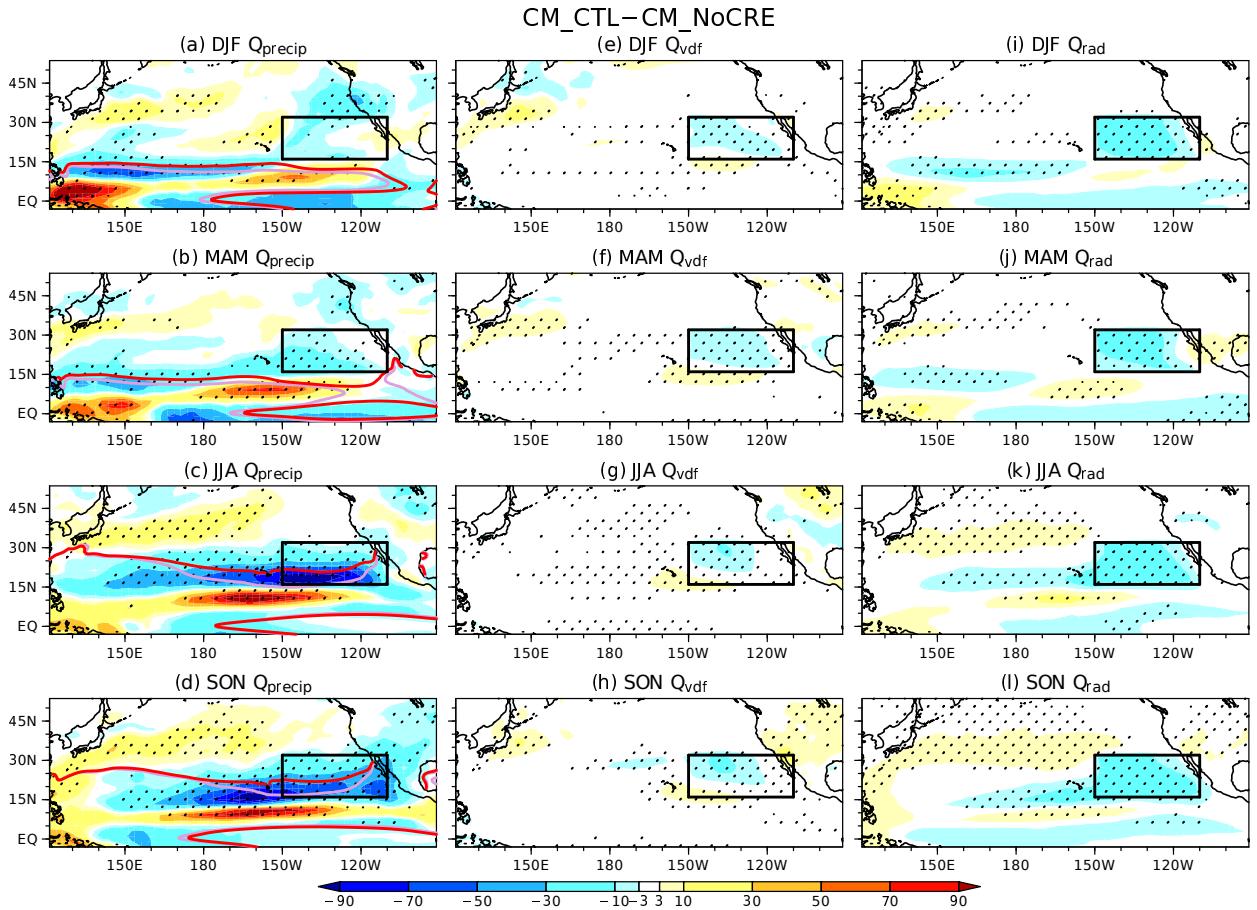
194 Figures 4e-h show the seasonal-mean response of SLP in CM2.1. The subtropical center of the  
195 positive response is located at (150°-160°W, 20°-25°N) with minimum (~1.2 hPa) in spring and its  
196 maximum (~3 hPa) in summer and autumn. It coincides with the equatorward portion of the North  
197 Pacific subtropical high (Figs. 2e-h). We note that the winter response extends poleward, but its  
198 poleward portion exhibits weak statistical significance. The equatorward portion of the wintertime  
199 response is comparable to its springtime counterpart. Thus, the strong SLP response in summer  
200 and autumn is important for the annual-mean response (Fig. 3b).

201 Mechanisms of the SST forcing on the subtropical SLP response can be inferred from in-  
202 atmosphere diabatic heating. Figure 6 shows the vertically integrated response of diabatic heating,  
203 which is decomposed into condensation ( $Q_{\text{precip}}$ ), vertical diffusion ( $Q_{\text{vdf}}$ ), and radiation ( $Q_{\text{rad}}$ )  
204 components. The most prominent feature is seasonality in the  $Q_{\text{precip}}$  response (Figs. 6a-d). In  
205 summer and autumn, strong cooling response extends westward from the equatorward portion of  
206 the low-cloud deck, with narrower heating to the south. Since the vertically integrated  $Q_{\text{precip}}$   
207 response is virtually equivalent to precipitation response, the summer and autumn responses  
208 indicate southward shift and shrink of the ITCZ, which is centered at 5°N-10°N (Wittenberg et al.  
209 2006). Inducing a Matsuno-Gill-type baroclinic response (Matsuno 1966; Gill 1980; Kraucunas  
210 and Hartmann 2007), the diabatic cooling reinforces the subtropical high (Figs. 4g-h). An  
211 additional contribution comes from the moderate  $Q_{\text{rad}}$  cooling due to reduced deep-convective  
212 clouds of the ITCZ as well as increased low clouds (Figs. 6k-l). The  $Q_{\text{vdf}}$  response is weak  
213 throughout the year (Figs. 6e-h). In winter and spring, the pronounced  $Q_{\text{precip}}$  cooling diminishes  
214 (Figs. 6a-b) despite the comparable  $Q_{\text{rad}}$  remaining as in summer and autumn in the low-cloud  
215 region (Figs. 6i-j). This seasonality in the  $Q_{\text{precip}}$  cooling is consistent with the stronger positive  
216 SLP response in summer and autumn (Figs. 4e-h). Thus, the precipitation response is key to  
217 the seasonality in the subtropical anticyclonic response, as found for the Mascarene high over the  
218 South Indian Ocean (Miyamoto et al. 2021, 2022a).

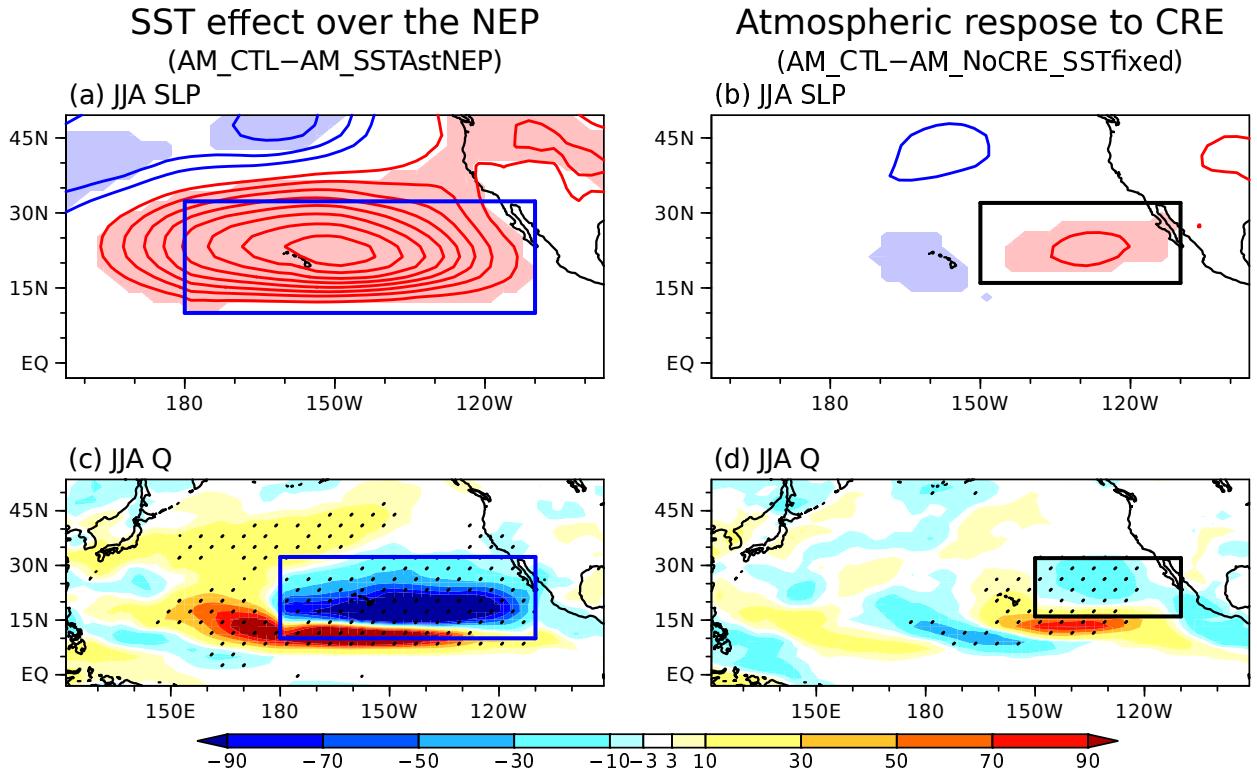
219 This precipitation decrease is tied to the negative SST response. In Figs. 6a-d, superimposed with  
220 contours are isotherms of convective threshold SST (27°C for CM2.1 as revealed in Miyamoto et al.  
221 2021), which corresponds to the threshold for active deep convection (Graham and Barnett 1987).  
222 In summer and autumn, the 27°C isotherm advances northward into the low-cloud region. The

223 low-cloud-induced negative SST response (Figs. 4c-d) reduces precipitation along the ITCZ with  
224 the pronounced  $Q_{\text{precip}}$  decrease over the equatorward portion of the negative SST response (Figs.  
225 6c-d). As the SST decrease extends into the deep tropics, the area of the negative  $Q_{\text{precip}}$  response  
226 also expands southwestward through Hawaii in summer and autumn. By contrast, displacement of  
227 the 27°C isotherms between the CM2.1 experiments is relatively small in winter and spring (Figs.  
228 6a-b) due not only to the weaker SST response (Figs. 4a-b) but also to lower climatological SST  
229 after the winter solstice. This results in the much weaker  $Q_{\text{precip}}$  decrease in winter and spring.

230 The importance of the air-sea coupling over the NEP is substantiated by the AGCM experiments  
231 (Fig. 7). In response to the imposed SST cooling in the NEP, the difference of AM\_CTL from  
232 AM\_SSTastNEP well reproduces the summertime enhanced subtropical high and decreased  $Q$   
233 ( $Q_{\text{precip}} + Q_{\text{vdf}} + Q_{\text{rad}}$ ) simulated in CM2.1 despite their overestimation (Figs. 7a and c). We  
234 confirmed that the remote influence of the equatorial Pacific SST anomalies (10°S-10°N) on  
235 the subtropical high is weak, as verified by another AM2.1 experiment forced with them (not  
236 shown). By contrast, based on the AM\_CTL and AM\_NoCRE\_SSTfixed experiments, the CRE  
237 impact on summertime SLP without SST changes is quite weak (Fig. 7b) compared with its CM2.1  
238 counterpart (Fig. 4g). This is consistent with the weak  $Q$  cooling due to the lack of the precipitation  
239 decrease south of the NEP box (Fig. 7d). Seasonal cycle of the SLP and  $Q$  responses in CM2.1 is  
240 also mostly explained by the NEP SST cooling (Figs. S2-4). Overall, our analysis demonstrates  
241 the importance of the subtropical air-sea coupling in the non-local low-cloud feedback.



242 FIG. 6. Response to CRE imposed in the black NEP box, represented by the difference defined as  
 243 CM\_CTL–CM\_NoCRE. (a)–(d) vertically integrated  $Q_{\text{precip}}$  ( $\text{W m}^{-2}$ ; color shaded as indicated at the bot-  
 244 tom) in (a) DJF, (b) MAM, (c) JJA, and (d) SON. (e)–(h) As in (a)–(d), respectively, but for  $Q_{\text{vdf}}$ . (i)–(l) As in  
 245 (a)–(d), respectively, but for  $Q_{\text{rad}}$ . Stippling indicates the 99% confidence for the difference. Black box denotes  
 246 the domain where low clouds are made transparent in CM.NoCRE. In (a)–(d), superimposed with red and purple  
 247 contours are climatological-mean  $27^{\circ}\text{C}$  SST isotherms in CM.NoCRE and CM\_CTL, respectively.



248 FIG. 7. AM2.1 response in JJA to (a)(c) anomalous SST over the NEP and (b)(d) CRE without SST changes.  
 249 (a)(c) Differences defined as AM\_CTL-AM\_SSTAstNEP in climatological-mean (a) SLP (every 0.4 hPa; red and  
 250 blue lines for positive and negative values, respectively; zero lines are omitted) and (c)  $Q_{\text{precip}} + Q_{\text{vdf}} + Q_{\text{rad}}$  ( $\text{W}$   
 251  $\text{m}^{-2}$ ; color shaded as indicated at the bottom). Color shading in (a) and stippling in (c) indicate the 99% confidence  
 252 for the difference. Blue box denotes the domain where SST anomalies are prescribed in AM\_SSTAstNEP. (b)(d)  
 253 As in (a) and (c), respectively, but for AM\_CTL-AM\_NoCRE\_SSTfixed. Black box denotes the domain where  
 254 low clouds are transparent in AM\_NoCRE\_SSTfixed.

## 4. Discussions

### *a. Three-dimensional structure of the atmospheric response and its implication on tropical cyclone activity around Hawaii*

The low-cloud impact extends into the upper troposphere. Here, we focus on the response from June through November (JJASON), i.e., the hurricane season over the NEP (Gray 1968). As shown in Fig. 8, CM2.1 simulates upper-tropospheric cyclonic response above the surface anticyclonic response over the summertime NEP. This first baroclinic structure as observed climatologically over the equatorward portion of the subtropical high (Miyasaka and Nakamura 2005; Nakamura et al. 2010), is consistent with the Matsuno-Gill-type response to the anomalous diabatic cooling (Figs. 6c,k). As shown in Fig. 8, the low-cloud impact reaches western Europe as wave trains from the NEP. Wave-activity flux, which is parallel to the group velocity of stationary Rossby waves (Takaya and Nakamura 2001), indicates the eastward wave propagation through subpolar North America and the Atlantic. This response is also reproduced by AM2.1 experiments forced by anomalous NEP SST (AM\_CTL-AM\_SSTastNEP; figure not shown).

This first baroclinic structure corresponds to the enhanced vertical wind shear (VWS) on the southeastern flank of the subtropical high. Fig. 9a shows climatological VWS in JJASON, which is evaluated as a difference in monthly-mean zonal and meridional wind components between the 200-hPa and 850-hPa levels:

$$\text{VWS} = \sqrt{(u_{200} - u_{850})^2 + (v_{200} - v_{850})^2}. \quad (3)$$

It features enhanced VWS between the near-surface easterlies and upper-tropospheric westerlies over Hawaii. Since VWS is destructive to tropical cyclones (Gray 1968; Tang and Emanuel 2012), this VWS prevents powerful hurricanes from hitting Hawaii.

Although the horizontal resolution of CM2.1 is insufficient to simulate tropical cyclones, it is beneficial to discuss the low-cloud impact on tropical cyclone genesis through environmental factors. The VWS response to CRE is shown in Fig. 9b. It exhibits positive VWS response on the southern flank of the upper-tropospheric cyclonic response, which accounts for ~30% of the climatological VWS around Hawaii in CM\_CTL. The negative SST response also acts to decrease hurricane genesis over the NEP. The response of the maximum potential intensity for

282 tropical cyclones (MPI; Emanuel 1988) shown in Fig. 9c features the negative MPI response that  
 283 maximizes over the low-cloud regions and extends southwestward through Hawaii, in accordance  
 284 with the negative SST response. The tropical cyclone genesis around Hawaii is further decreased  
 285 by negative response of mid-tropospheric relative humidity (Fig. 9d). This drying is associated  
 286 with anomalous subsidence owing to the suppression of deep-convective precipitation under the  
 287 lowered SST, as discussed in the preceding section.

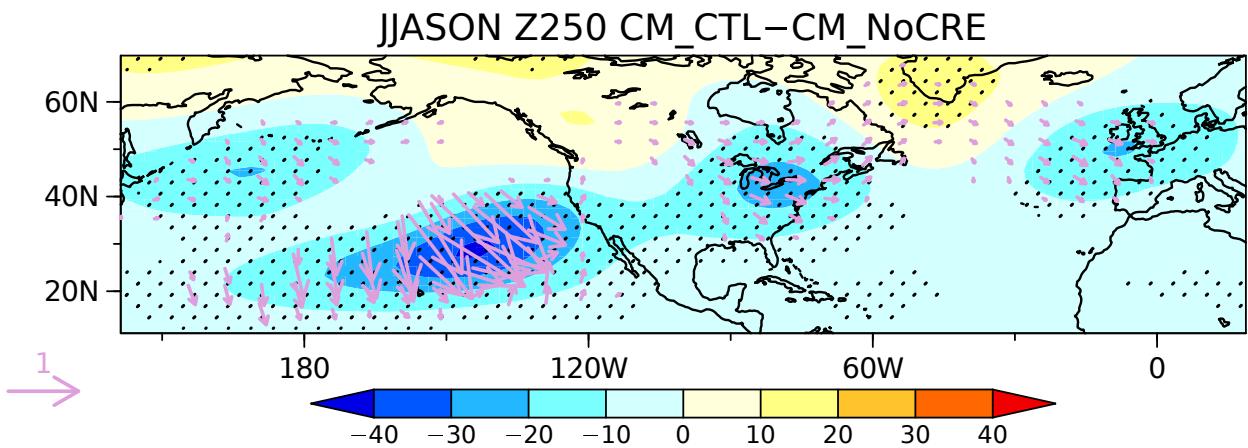
288 Collective influence of the environmental factors is evaluated with the genesis potential index  
 289 (GPI; Camargo et al. 2007), which may be cast as

$$\text{GPI} = |10^5 \zeta|^{1.5} \left( \frac{\text{RH}}{50} \right)^3 \left( \frac{\text{MPI}}{70} \right)^3 (1 + 0.1 \text{VWS})^{-2} \quad (4)$$

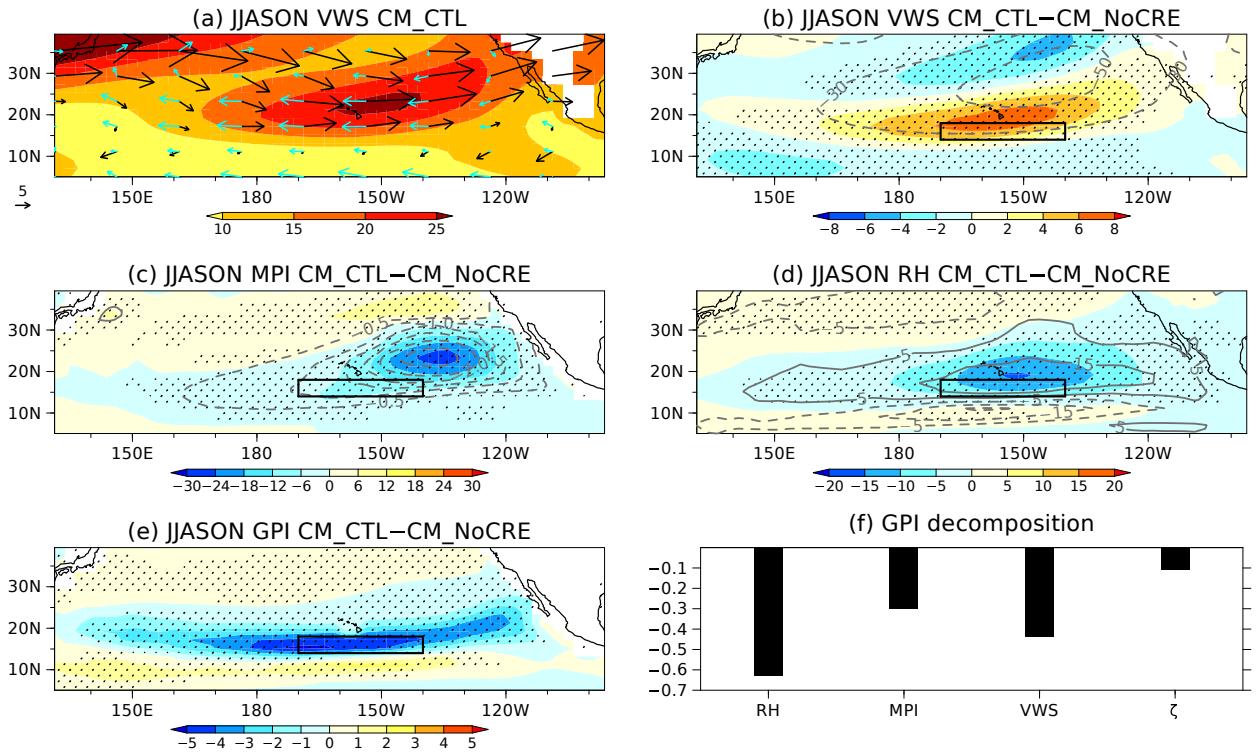
290 where  $\zeta$ , RH, and MPI are 850-hPa relative vorticity ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ), 600-hPa relative humidity (%), and the  
 291 maximum potential intensity ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ). The GPI response shown in Fig. 9e features zonally elongated  
 292 negative response maximized just south of Hawaii, which corresponds to reduced hurricane genesis.  
 293 The relative contribution to this GPI response is derived by taking the natural logarithm of (4):

$$(\log \text{GPI})' = 1.5 \times 10^5 |\zeta|' + \frac{3}{50} \text{RH}' + \frac{3}{70} \text{MPI}' - 0.2 \text{VWS}' \quad (5)$$

294 Decomposition of the GPI response based on (5) reveals that the RH, VWS, and MPI terms explain  
 295 42%, 30%, and 20% of the total response, respectively (Fig. 9f). The vorticity term plays a minor  
 296 role. The analysis suggests that Californian low clouds act to protect Hawaii from hurricanes by  
 297 lowering SST, drying the mid-troposphere, and increasing VWS.



298 FIG. 8. JJASON 250-hPa geopotential height response to CRE imposed in the black NEP box, represented  
 299 by the difference defined as CM\_CTL - CM\_NoCRE. Here, the global-mean response has been subtracted to  
 300 eliminate signal of global cooling. Stippling indicates the 99% confidence for the difference. Superimposed with  
 301 arrows is wave activity flux for stationary Rossby waves ( $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$ ; reference on the left) formulated by Takaya and  
 302 Nakamura (2001). Only fluxes above  $0.05 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$  in the westerly regions are drawn.

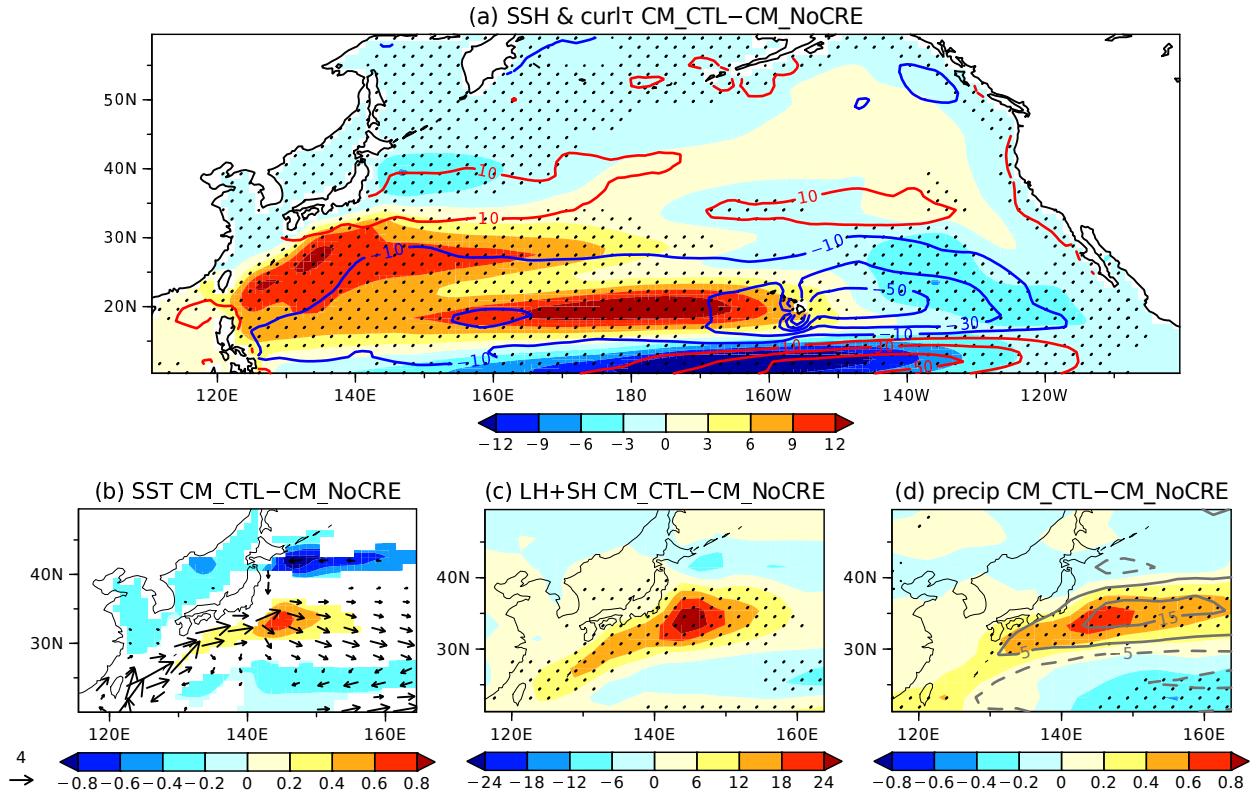


303 FIG. 9. (a) JJASON climatology of VWS (color shaded for every  $5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) in CM\_CTL. Superimposed with  
 304 black and blue arrows are JJASON climatologies of 200-hPa and 850-hPa winds in CM\_CTL, respectively. (b)  
 305 JJASON difference (defined as CM\_CTL–CM\_NoCRE) in VWS (color shaded for every  $2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) and 200-hPa  
 306 geopotential height (contoured for  $\pm 10, \pm 30, \pm 50 \dots \text{ m}$ ; positive and negative values for solid and dashed lines,  
 307 respectively). (c) As in (b), but for MPI (color shaded for every  $6 \text{ m/s}$ ) and SST (contoured for  $\pm 0.5, \pm 1, \pm 1.5 \dots$   
 308  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ). (d) As in (b), but for 600-hPa relative humidity (color shaded for every  $5\%$ ) and p-velocity (contoured  $\pm 5,$   
 309  $\pm 15, \pm 25 \dots \text{ hPa day}^{-1}$ ). (e) As in (b), but for GPI. (f) Decomposition of logGPI response to individual terms  
 310 (RHS of (5)) averaged within black boxes in (b)–(e). In (b)–(e), stippling indicates the 99% confidence for the  
 311 color-shaded difference.

312 *b. Kuroshio acceleration and its influence on precipitation*

313 The low-cloud impact extends farther into the northwestern Pacific through an ocean circulation  
314 change. Figure 10a shows the annual-mean CM2.1 response of wind stress curl and sea surface  
315 height (SSH). Associated with the positive SLP response (Figs. 4e-h), there is a strong anticyclonic  
316 wind stress curl response centered at 20°N, which is sandwiched meridionally by cyclonic responses  
317 (Fig. 10a). Forcing oceanic Rossby waves that propagate westward, this anticyclonic wind stress  
318 curl induces positive SSH response in the subtropical northwestern Pacific (Fig. 10a). This is  
319 indicative of acceleration of the subtropical gyre accompanied by the intensified North Equatorial  
320 Current and Kuroshio (Fig. 10b). The poleward and eastward current responses along Kuroshio  
321 and its extension account for ~30% of the CM\_CTL current. Reflecting the enhanced heat transport,  
322 positive SST responses form along the accelerated Kuroshio and maximize its extension (Fig. 10b).

323 Recent studies have indicated that the Kuroshio Current system has significant impacts on the  
324 overlying atmosphere through heat and moisture supply (e.g., Kwon et al. 2010). As shown in  
325 Fig. 10c, upward turbulent heat fluxes are enhanced over the warm SST responses in the CM2.1  
326 simulations, indicative of the oceanic forcing on the overlying atmosphere. Figure 10d shows the  
327 annual-mean response of precipitation and  $\nabla^2\text{SLP}$ , the latter of which is proportional to surface  
328 wind convergence based on a marine boundary layer model (Lindzen and Nigam 1987; Minobe  
329 et al. 2008). Through hydrostatic pressure adjustments (Lindzen and Nigam 1987; Minobe et  
330 al. 2008), the enhanced sensible heating by the Kuroshio and its extension yields positive  $\nabla^2\text{SLP}$   
331 response locally (Fig. 10d). The associated enhancement of surface wind convergence as well as  
332 the augmented surface latent heat flux from the warmer SST increases precipitation by 10-20% of  
333 the CM\_NoCRE climatology over the Kuroshio regions (Fig. 10d). This precipitation response  
334 is found in both warm and cold seasons (not shown). Such impacts of the warm Kuroshio SST  
335 on local precipitation have been identified in observations and reanalysis datasets (e.g., Tokinaga  
336 et al. 2009; Minobe et al. 2010; Masunaga et al. 2015, 2020). The Kuroshio warming may  
337 further energize atmospheric transient eddy activity (Taguchi et al. 2009) that acts to increase  
338 precipitation and to feed back onto the North Pacific subtropical high (Joh and Di Lorenzo 2019,  
339 and references therein), although it is not evident in our simulations (not shown) potentially due  
340 to the low resolution of the model. Thus, Californian low clouds can affect the climate in the  
341 Kuroshio region by accelerating the subtropical ocean gyre.



342 FIG. 10. Annual-mean response to CRE in the black NEP box, represented by the difference defined as  
 343  $CM\_CTL - CM\_NoCRE$ . (a) SSH (color shaded for every 3 cm) and wind stress curl (contoured for  $\pm 10, \pm 30,$   
 344  $\pm 50 \dots \times 10^{-9} \text{ N m}^{-3}$ ; positive and negative values for red and blue lines, respectively). (b) SST (color shaded  
 345 for every  $0.2 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ) and surface current ( $\text{cm s}^{-1}$ ; arrows with reference on the left) with the 99% confidence for the  
 346 difference. (c) Turbulent heat flux (sensible and latent heat fluxes combined; color shaded for every  $6 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ ;  
 347 positive values for upward flux). (d) Precipitation (color shaded for every  $\text{mm day}^{-1}$ ) and  $\nabla^2 SLP$  (contoured for  
 348  $\pm 5, \pm 15, \pm 25 \dots \times 10^{-13} \text{ hPa m}^{-2}$ ; positive and negative values for positive and dashed lines, respectively). In  
 349 (a), (c), and (d), stippling indicates the 99% confidence for the color-shaded difference.

## 350 5. Concluding remarks

351 This study demonstrates the radiative impacts of low clouds off the California coast on the North  
 352 Pacific climate system. A comparison of low-cloud-on-off AOGCM simulations reveals that the  
 353 negative CRE of low clouds induces a negative SST response. Notably, the SST response is not  
 354 limited to the low-cloud region but extends well outside in the southwestward direction. The

355 extension of the negative SST response is collocated with the strengthened northeasterly trades  
356 associated with the enhanced subtropical high, indicative of the WES feedback.

357 The atmospheric responses are much stronger in boreal summer and autumn than in winter  
358 and spring as a result of air-sea interactions. The shortwave CRE strengthens toward summer  
359 due to large insolation. Combined with seasonally shallow MLD, the subtropical negative SST  
360 response maximizes in summer. This lowered SST suppresses deep-convective precipitation that  
361 would otherwise occur over seasonally high SST in the absence of CRE. Associated anomalous  
362 diabatic cooling induces the surface anticyclonic response as a baroclinic Matsuno-Gill pattern.  
363 The enhanced trade winds on its equatorward flank further cool SST through the WES feedback.  
364 Since climatological SST warming lags the summertime solstice, the precipitation and surface  
365 anticyclonic response remains strong in autumn as well, introducing spring-autumn asymmetries.  
366 No such enhancement of the atmospheric response in the warm seasons is simulated in the AGCM  
367 no-low-cloud experiments without SST changes, indicative of the crucial role of the air-sea inter-  
368 actions.

369 The aforementioned influence of Californian low clouds has implications on the climate over the  
370 Hawaii and Kuroshio regions. As a Matsuno-Gill-type response to the diabatic cooling, the surface  
371 anticyclonic response accompanies an upper-tropospheric cyclonic response. This first baroclinic  
372 structure augments vertical wind shear between the near-surface trades and upper-level westerlies  
373 around Hawaii. This result implies that low clouds act to prevent hurricanes from reaching Hawaii  
374 by enhancing environmental vertical wind shear and lowering regional SST. Our simulations also  
375 suggest a remote influence of low clouds through oceanic teleconnection. Input of anticyclonic  
376 wind stress leads to acceleration of the North Pacific subtropical ocean gyre and associated SST  
377 increase along the Kuroshio and its extension. Enhanced upward surface heat fluxes, which  
378 manifest forcing from the warmed Kuroshio and its extension, act to increase precipitation locally.

379 The summertime intensification of the low-cloud impact by seasonally high SST is similar to  
380 the low-cloud impact over the South Indian Ocean (Miyamoto et al. 2021, 2022a). This supports  
381 the notion suggested by Miyamoto et al. (2022a) that background climatologies are important for  
382 low-cloud impacts in climatology, and perhaps in climate variability and change. Although CM2.1  
383 exhibits non-negligible low-cloud biases, the fact that the pronounced seasonality in the low-cloud

384 impact is simulated despite the weaker seasonal cycle of low clouds in CM2.1 is a testament to its  
385 robustness. Nevertheless, it is important to evaluate the low-cloud impact in other climate models.

386 The low-cloud impacts simulated in our model may be operative in past and future climate change  
387 that accompanies persistent shortwave forcing of low clouds. For example, subtropical low clouds  
388 may decrease in response to CO<sub>2</sub> increase (e.g., Qu et al. 2014; Myers et al. 2021). Interestingly,  
389 our simulated climate without subtropical low clouds could happen in the past and future, since  
390 stratocumulus clouds have vulnerability and hysteresis against CO<sub>2</sub>-level rises (Schneider et al.  
391 2019). Our results have also implications for geoengineering by marine cloud brightening (e.g.,  
392 Latham et al. 2008). Baughman et al. (2012) demonstrated that cloud brightening in the NEP  
393 low-cloud region yields non-local impacts with a southwestward extension of the SST cooling.  
394 Our analysis has revealed the dynamical mechanisms of this southwestward extension through the  
395 joint low cloud-WES feedback. Overall, our series of studies have demonstrated that low clouds  
396 play a key role in shaping a regional climate system by modulating subtropical air-sea interactions.

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405 *Data availability statement.* The authors can provide the model simulation data upon rea-  
406 sonable requests. The observational data used in this study are available online (JRA-  
407 55: [https://jra.kishou.go.jp/JRA-55/index\\_en.html](https://jra.kishou.go.jp/JRA-55/index_en.html); CALIPSO-GOCCP; [https://](https://climserv.ipsl.polytechnique.fr/cfmip-obs/)  
408 [climserv.ipsl.polytechnique.fr/cfmip-obs/](https://climserv.ipsl.polytechnique.fr/cfmip-obs/); CERES-EBAF: [https://ceres.larc.](https://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/data/)  
409 [nasa.gov/data/](https://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/data/); OISST: <https://psl.noaa.gov>). The maximum potential intensity of trop-  
410 ical cyclones is calculated with pyPI (Gilford 2021).

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