

Radiative impacts of Californian marine low clouds on North Pacific climate

Ayumu Miyamoto¹, Hisashi Nakamura^{2,3}, Shang-Ping Xie¹, Takafumi Miyasaka², and Yu Kosaka²

¹Scripps Institution of Oceanography, University of California San Diego

²Research Center for Advanced Science and Technology, The University of Tokyo

³Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology

August 8, 2023

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 assesses climatological impacts of the low-cloud deck and their seasonal differences by regionally turning on and off the low-cloud radiative effect in a fully coupled atmosphere-ocean model. The simulations demonstrate that the cloud radiative effect causes a local SST decrease of up to 3°C on an annual average with the response extending southwestward with intensified trade winds, indicative of the wind-evaporation-SST (WES) feedback. This non-local wind response is strong in summer, when the SST decrease peaks due to increased shortwave cooling, and persists into autumn. In these seasons when the background SST is high, 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 with the intensified trades that promote the WES feedback. Such seasonal enhancement of the atmospheric response does not occur without air-sea couplings. The enhanced trades accompany 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.

This Work has not yet been peer-reviewed and is provided by the contributing Authors as a means to ensure timely dissemination of scholarly and technical Work on a noncommercial basis. Copyright and all rights therein are maintained by the Authors or by other copyright owners. It is understood that all persons copying this information will adhere to the terms and constraints invoked by each Author's copyright. This Work may not be reposted without explicit permission of the copyright owner.

1 **Radiative impacts of Californian marine low clouds on North Pacific climate**

2 Ayumu Miyamoto,^a Hisashi Nakamura,^{b,c} Shang-Ping Xie,^a Takafumi Miyasaka,^b and Yu
3 Kosaka,^b

4 ^a *Scripps Institution of Oceanography, University of California San Diego, La Jolla, California,*
5 *USA* ^b *Research Center for Advanced Science and Technology, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo,*
6 *Japan*

7 ^c *Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology, Yokohama, Japan*

Revised manuscript submitted to Journal of Climate on August 5th, 2023

8 *Corresponding author: Ayumu Miyamoto, aymiyamoto@ucsd.edu*

9 ABSTRACT: The northeastern Pacific climate system is featured by an extensive low-cloud
10 deck off California on the southeastern flank of the subtropical high that accompanies intense
11 northeasterly trades and relatively low sea surface temperatures (SSTs). This study assesses
12 climatological impacts of the low-cloud deck and their seasonal differences by regionally turning on
13 and off the low-cloud radiative effect in a fully coupled atmosphere-ocean model. The simulations
14 demonstrate that the cloud radiative effect causes a local SST decrease of up to 3°C on an annual
15 average with the response extending southwestward with intensified trade winds, indicative of
16 the wind-evaporation-SST (WES) feedback. This non-local wind response is strong in summer,
17 when the SST decrease peaks due to increased shortwave cooling, and persists into autumn. In
18 these seasons when the background SST is high, the lowered SST suppresses deep-convective
19 precipitation that would otherwise occur in the absence of the low-cloud deck. The resultant
20 anomalous diabatic cooling induces a surface anticyclonic response with the intensified trades that
21 promote the WES feedback. Such seasonal enhancement of the atmospheric response does not
22 occur without air-sea couplings. The enhanced trades accompany intensified upper-tropospheric
23 westerlies, strengthening the vertical wind shear that, together with the lowered SST, acts to shield
24 Hawaii from powerful hurricanes. On the basin scale, the anticyclonic surface wind response
25 accelerates the North Pacific subtropical ocean gyre to speed up the Kuroshio by as much as 30%.
26 SST thereby increases along the Kuroshio and its extension, intensifying upward turbulent heat
27 fluxes from the ocean to increase precipitation.

28 **1. Introduction**

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

37 The cooling effect of low clouds is also important in regional climate through air-sea interactions.
38 Reflecting insolation, low clouds act to reinforce the underlying low SST. This results in stronger
39 lower-tropospheric stability, which facilitates low-cloud formation. This local feedback, known as
40 positive low cloud-SST feedback, has been identified as crucial air-sea coupled feedback over the
41 eastern subtropical oceans (e.g., Norris and Leovy 1994; Clement et al. 2009; Myers et al. 2018;
42 Middlemas et al. 2019; Yang et al. 2023).

43 In addition to the local impacts on SST, low clouds have been suggested to have non-local effects.
44 As low SST over the eastern subtropical oceans is important in maintaining the subtropical high
45 (Seager et al. 2003; Miyasaka and Nakamura 2005, 2010), SST cooling by low clouds is suggested
46 to reinforce the subtropical high. They can also reinforce the subtropical high through cloud-top
47 longwave cooling (Miyasaka and Nakamura 2005, 2010). Strengthened trade winds associated
48 with the enhanced subtropical high act to lower SST by promoting evaporation from the ocean. This
49 wind-evaporation-SST (WES) feedback (Xie and Philander 1994) propagates westward, yielding
50 remote influence on the equatorial oceans (Xie et al. 2007; Bellomo et al. 2014; Yang et al. 2023).
51 Nevertheless, it has been controversial to what extent it is actually effective in climatology (Seager
52 et al. 2003; Miyasaka and Nakamura 2005, 2010; Kawai and Koshiro et al. 2020). One reason
53 for this is the difficulty in evaluating the influence of low clouds in the air-sea coupled system.
54 Here, we evaluate the low-cloud feedback using an atmosphere-ocean general circulation model
55 (AOGCM).

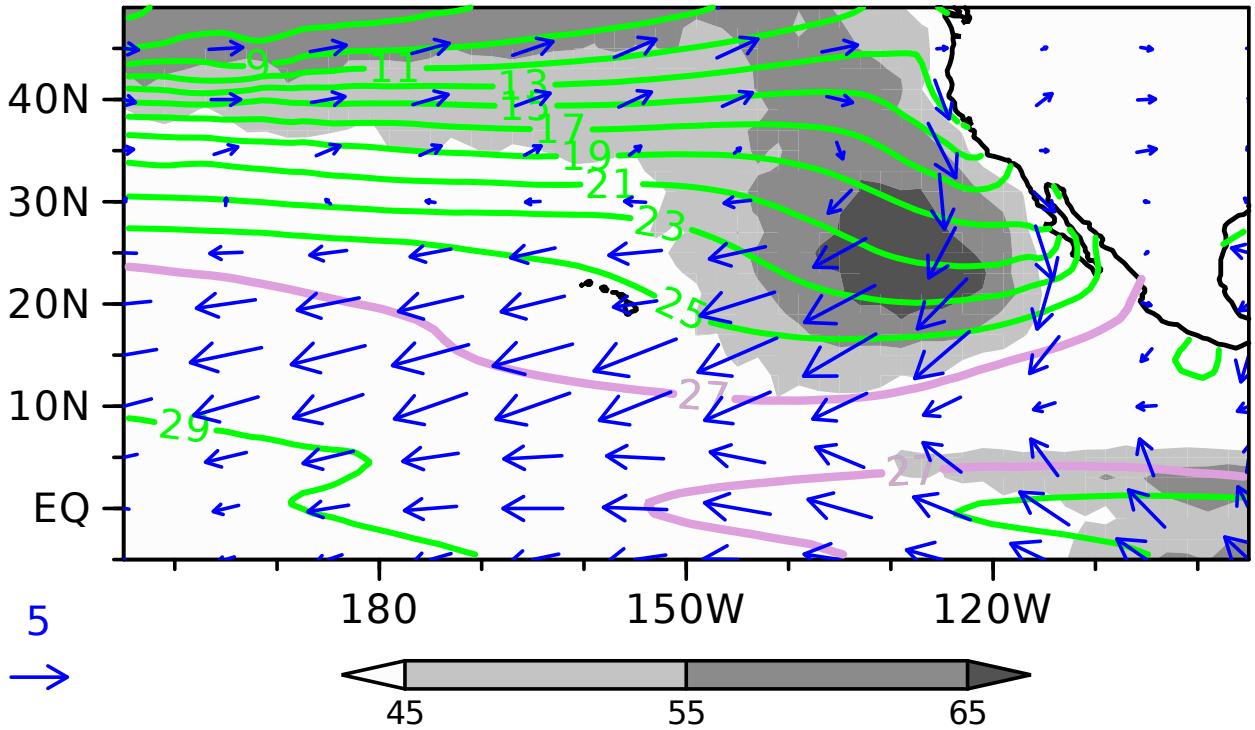
56 Recently, Miyamoto et al. (2021, 2022a) regionally disabled low-cloud radiative effects (CRE)
57 in a fully coupled AOGCM. Specifically, low clouds were made transparent regionally to evaluate

58 specific low-cloud impacts in a fully coupled system. This technique was employed in the Clouds
59 On-Off Climate Model Intercomparison Experiment using atmosphere-only models (COOKIE;
60 Stevens et al. 2012; Voigt et al. 2021), but we applied it to an AOGCM. Such coupled simula-
61 tions conducted for the South Indian Ocean demonstrated that low-cloud feedback is essential in
62 the formation of the summertime subtropical Mascarene high (Miyamoto et al. 2021). Lowered
63 SST by low clouds prevents the intertropical convergence zone (ITCZ) from expanding poleward,
64 suppressing deep-convective precipitation on the poleward flank of the ITCZ. The resultant anoma-
65 lous diabatic cooling reinforces the surface Mascarene high and promotes the WES feedback. By
66 contrast, the low-cloud feedback is modest in winter, when the suppression of deep-convective
67 precipitation by low clouds is less effective due to climatologically low SST (Miyamoto et al.
68 2022a).

69 The northeastern Pacific (NEP) has been recognized as a major low-cloud region (e.g., Klein and
70 Hartmann 1993). Figure 1 shows observational climatologies of annual-mean low-cloud fraction
71 (LCF), SST, and surface winds over the NEP. The subtropical high resides over the eastern portion
72 of the basin, and the northeasterly trade winds blow on its southeastern flank. Over local minima of
73 SST, LCF maximizes off the California coast. Recent modeling studies showed that, on interannual
74 and decadal time scales, fluctuations of these low clouds act to increase SST variance locally
75 through low cloud-SST feedback and non-locally through the WES feedback (Bellomo et al. 2014;
76 Burgman et al. 2017; Middlemas et al. 2019; Yang et al. 2023). Applying the same methodology
77 as in Miyamoto et al. (2021, 2022a) to the North Pacific, this study assesses the climatological
78 impacts of low clouds over the NEP and their seasonal differences, which have not been quantified
79 thus far. This study uses neither a slab-ocean coupled model (Bellomo et al. 2014) nor perturbs
80 cloud radiation globally (Burgman et al. 2017; Middlemas et al. 2019; Kawai and Kosshiro 2020;
81 Yang et al. 2023) so that we can purely extract the low-cloud impacts in a fully coupled system.
82 We examine not only the low-cloud impacts on the subtropical high and SST over the NEP but also
83 their implications on the climate around Hawaii and the Kuroshio region.

84 The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes data and model experiments.
85 Section 3 examines the low-cloud impacts on the subtropical high and SST over the NEP. Section
86 4 discusses implications on the climate in the Hawaii and Kuroshio regions. Section 5 summarizes
87 the present study.

OBS annual LCF, Us & SST



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

92 **2. Data and model experiments**

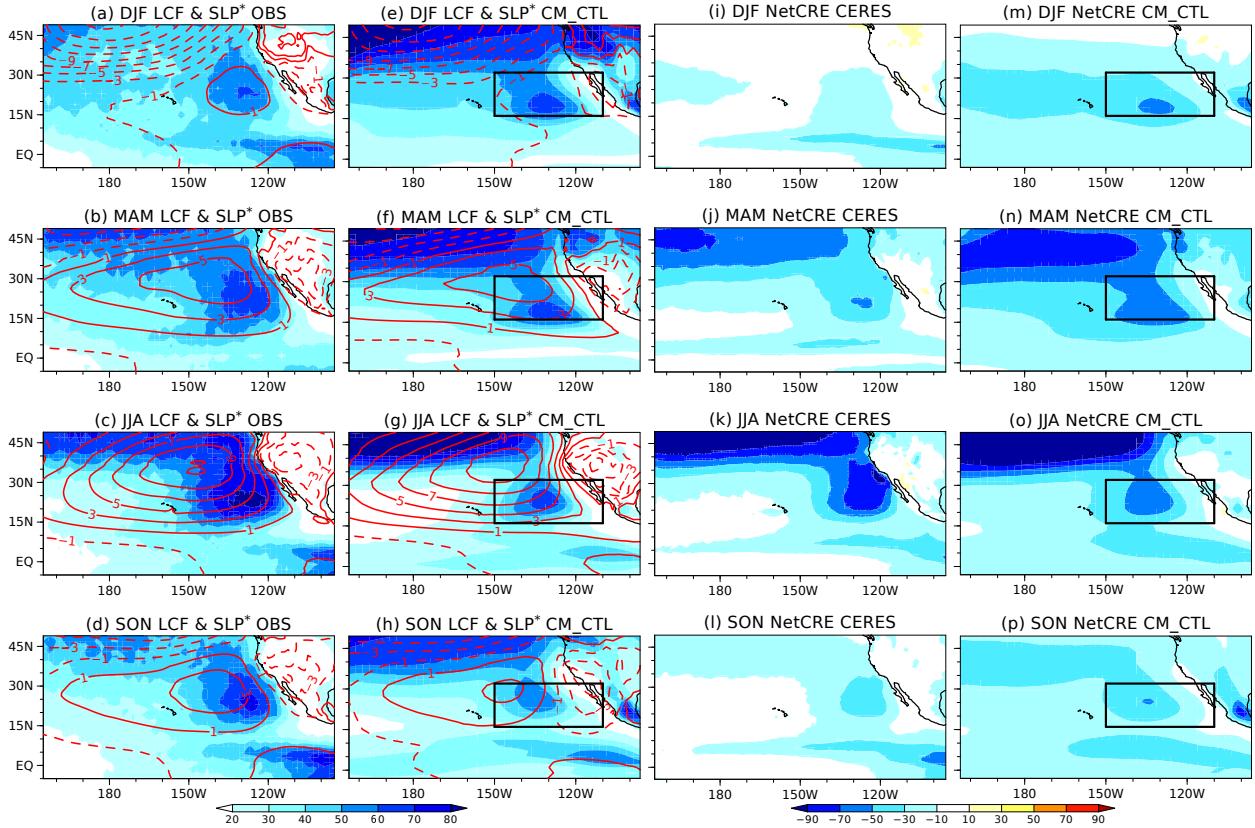
93 *a. Model experiments*

94 We used the Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory (GFDL) Coupled Model version 2.1
95 (CM2.1; Delworth et al. 2006). Its atmospheric component has $2.5^\circ \times 2^\circ$ resolution in longitude-
96 latitude with 24 vertical levels. The resolution of the 50-level ocean model is 1° in both latitude and
97 longitude, with meridional resolution equatorward of 30° progressively finer to $1/3^\circ$ at the equator.
98 Following Miyamoto et al. (2021, 2022a), radiative impacts of low clouds are evaluated by
99 setting maritime cloud fraction to zero over a given geographical domain for radiation calculations
100 in CM2.1. We specify the domain [150°W - 110°W , 16°N - 32°N] in the subtropical NEP (black
101 rectangles in Fig. 2; hereafter referred to as the NEP box), in which cloud fraction is set to
102 zero artificially from the surface up to the 680-hPa level. After branched off from the same initial
103 condition, both the low-cloud-off (CM_NoCRE) and control (CM_CTL) experiments are integrated
104 for 110 years with the 1990-level radiative forcing. We analyze 100 years until November in the
105 final year. A response to the low-cloud radiative effects simulated in CM2.1 is represented as
106 $\text{CM_CTL} - \text{CM_NoCRE}$, which has the same sign as the low-cloud impacts. Within this analysis
107 period, a model drift resulting from the low-cloud removal is found negligible: Radiative imbalance
108 at the top of the atmosphere (TOA) in the last 100 years is 1.02 W m^{-2} in CM_CTL and 1.07 W
109 m^{-2} in CM_NoCRE.

110 To isolate the SST influence simulated in CM2.1, we also conduct experiments with its at-
111 mospheric component (GFDL AM2.1). A control experiment (AM_CTL) is carried out with
112 climatological SST and sea ice concentration in CM_CTL. One sensitivity experiment aimed at
113 evaluating the NEP SST influence is AM_NEPsst, where the prescribed SST is replaced by the
114 CM_NoCRE climatology regionally over the NEP (180° - 110°W , 10°N - 32°N ; note a slight differ-
115 ence from the NEP box). $\text{AM_CTL} - \text{AM_NEPsst}$ extracts the influence of the low-cloud induced
116 SST anomalies over the NEP on the atmosphere (the same sign as the low-cloud impacts). Another
117 sensitivity experiment to isolate low-cloud impacts without SST changes is AM_NoCRE_sstFixed,
118 where radiative effects of Californian low clouds are eliminated as in CM_NoCRE but SST and sea
119 ice are fixed to the CM_CTL climatology. $\text{AM_CTL} - \text{AM_NoCRE_sstFixed}$ reveals the low-cloud
120 impacts without air-sea couplings. Each of the AM2.1 experiments has been integrated for 51

121 years, and 50 years until the last November are analyzed. Table 1 summarizes the differences
 122 among the model experiments. The statistical significance of the model responses is determined
 123 with a Student's t test.

124 Finally, we compare the simulated climatological TOA CRE with historical simulations which
 125 participated in the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6 (CMIP6). Only the first
 126 member run (r1i1p1) for each model is used for calculating climatology from 1980 through 2013.



127 FIG. 2. (a)-(d) Climatological-mean distributions of CALIPSO-GOCCP LCF (%; color shaded as indicated at
 128 the bottom) and JRA-55 zonally asymmetric SLP (contoured for ± 1 , ± 3 , ± 5 hPa; positive and negative values for
 129 solid and dashed lines, respectively) in (a) DJF, (b) MAM, (c) JJA, and (d) SON. (e)-(h) As in (a)-(d), respectively,
 130 but for the CM_CTL simulation. (i)-(l) As in (a)-(d), but for CERES-EBAF TOA net CRE (W m^{-2}). (m)-(p)
 131 As in (i)-(l), respectively, but for the CM_CTL simulation. Black box denotes the domain where low clouds are
 132 made transparent in CM_NoCRE.

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_NEPsst	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

133 *b. Observational data*

134 For the purpose of model validation, CM_CTL is compared with monthly observational data.
 135 We use the Japanese 55-year Reanalysis of the global atmosphere (JRA-55; Kobayashi et al.
 136 2015; Harada et al. 2016) from 1979 to 2018 for sea-level pressure (SLP), the Clouds and
 137 the Earth’s Radiant Energy System (CERES) Energy Balanced and Filled (EBAF) edition 4.1
 138 (NASA/LARC/SD/ASDC 2019) from March 2000 to February 2020 for TOA radiative fluxes, the
 139 GCM-Oriented CALIPSO (*Cloud-Aerosol Lidar and Infrared Pathfinder Satellite Observations*)
 140 Cloud Product (GOCCP) version 3 (Chepfer et al. 2010) from June 2006 to May 2020 for LCF, and
 141 the Optimum Interpolation SST V2 (OISST; Reynolds et al. 2002) from 1982 through 2021 for SST.
 142 The horizontal resolution is 1.25° in JRA-55, 2° in CALIPSO-GOCCP, and 1° in CERES-EBAF
 143 and OISST.

144 Over the NEP, maximum negative CRE occurs off California associated with local LCF max-
 145 imum (Fig. 2). These distributions compare well with the satellite observations, although their
 146 seasonal cycle in CM_CTL is weaker than in the observations. In addition, CM2.1 significantly
 147 underestimates low clouds along the California coast. Bias in the NEP SST is largely small but the
 148 coastal region suffers from warm SST bias (Fig. S1). The effect of the model bias will be discussed
 149 in Section 5. The North Pacific subtropical high represented as positive zonally asymmetric SLP
 150 is also well reproduced (Figs. 2a-h). Wittenberg et al. (2006) describe the tropical Pacific climate
 151 simulated by CM2.1.

3. Low-cloud impacts on the northeastern Pacific climate

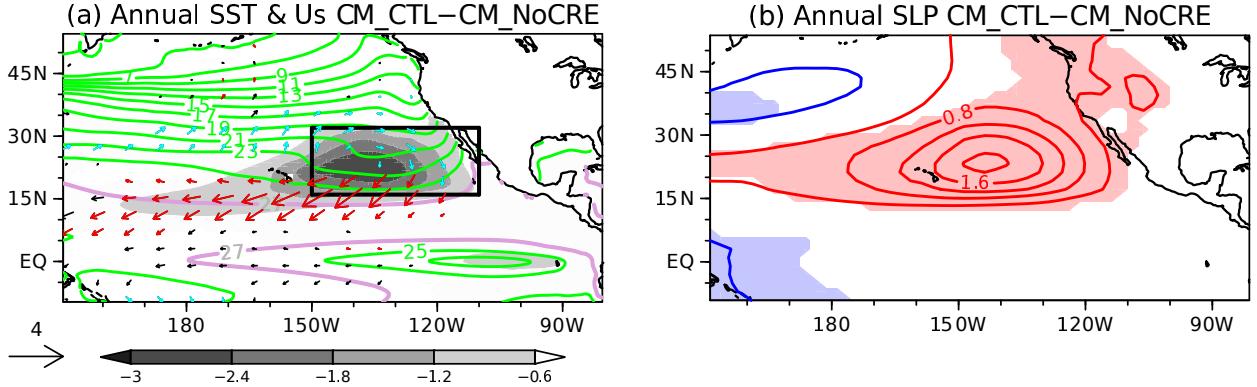
a. Coupled response of SST and surface winds

We begin with the annual-mean coupled response to radiative forcing of low clouds over the NEP. Figure 3 shows annual-mean response of SST, surface winds, and SLP. In the NEP box, negative SST response is up to -3°C (Fig. 3a) due to the negative CRE of low clouds (Figs. 2m-p), explaining local SST minima over the NEP. For example, at 20°N , the SST difference between 180° and 130°W increases from 0.2°C in CM_NoCRE to 2.4°C in CM_CTL. The SST response is not limited to the NEP box but extends well outside in the southwestward direction. The extension of the negative SST response is collocated with the strengthened northeasterly trade winds (Fig. 3a) associated with $+2\text{-hPa}$ SLP response in the equatorward portion of the North Pacific subtropical high (Fig. 3b). The trade winds promote turbulent heat loss from the ocean by augmented wind speed and cold-air advection. The collocation of the negative SST anomalies and strengthened trade winds suggests the WES feedback. This coupled pattern is reminiscent of the North Pacific meridional mode (NPMM; Chiang and Vimont 2004), a coupled interannual variability of the NEP SST and surface winds characterized by negative SST anomalies and strengthened trade winds extending southwestward from the NEP. The NPMM stems from the WES feedback but low-cloud feedback can amplify it as the joint WES-low cloud feedback (Bellomo et al. 2014; Middlemas et al. 2019; Yang et al. 2023; Xie 2023).

Figures 4a-d show seasonal cycle of the coupled response. The horizontal pattern of the coupled response is similar throughout the year but the amplitude varies significantly. Under the enhanced negative CRE in spring and summer (Figs. 2m-p), the negative SST response in the NEP box maximizes in summer (Fig. 4c) as detailed in the next subsection. The trade wind and SST response extending outside the NEP box also maximize in summer, suggestive of the stronger WES feedback (Fig. 4c). Asymmetrically to spring, the strong trade wind response continues in autumn while the SST response starts to decay (Figs. 4d). Mechanisms of the surface wind response are discussed in Section 3c.

It is noteworthy that there are weak negative SST and surface easterly responses in the equatorial Pacific (Figs. 3a and 4a-d; its broader version with color shadings for positive values is shown in Fig. S2), reminiscent of the influence of the NPMM on ENSO. As reviewed by Amaya (2019),

181 the NPM's cool SST anomalies in the NEP can produce a La Niña-like SST pattern by forcing
 182 oceanic equatorial Kelvin waves and discharge of subsurface heat content. Indeed, impacts of the
 183 NEP low clouds on the equatorial Pacific have been identified by Yang et al. (2023) in interannual
 184 variations. Further investigation of the low-cloud impact on the equatorial Pacific is left for future
 185 work.



186 FIG. 3. Annual-mean response to CRE imposed in the black NEP box, represented by the difference defined
 187 as CM_CTL–CM_NoCRE. (a) SST ($^{\circ}\text{C}$; shaded as indicated at the bottom; only points with the 99% confidence
 188 for the difference are shaded) and surface winds (m s^{-1} ; arrows with reference on the left; red and blue arrows
 189 signify increased and decreased scalar wind speed, respectively, with the 99% confidence for the difference).
 190 Superimposed with green contours is climatological-mean SST (every 2°C with 27°C isotherms in purple) in
 191 CM_CTL. Black box denotes the domain where low clouds are made transparent in CM_NoCRE. (b) SLP (every
 192 0.4 hPa ; red and blue lines for positive and negative values, respectively; zero lines are omitted). Color shading
 193 indicates the 99% confidence for the difference.

194 *b. Ocean mixed-layer heat budget analysis*

195 Ocean mixed-layer heat budget analysis supports the importance of shortwave and wind effects
 196 in the SST response. As in Xie et al. (2010), the budget equation for mixed-layer temperature
 197 (MLT) may be cast as

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

198 where primes denote anomalies defined as CM_CTL–CM_NoCRE. In (1), F , ρ , and c_p denote the
 199 net surface heat flux (NSHF; positive values for downward flux), sea-water density (1026 kg m^{-3}),

CM_CTL–CM_NoCRE

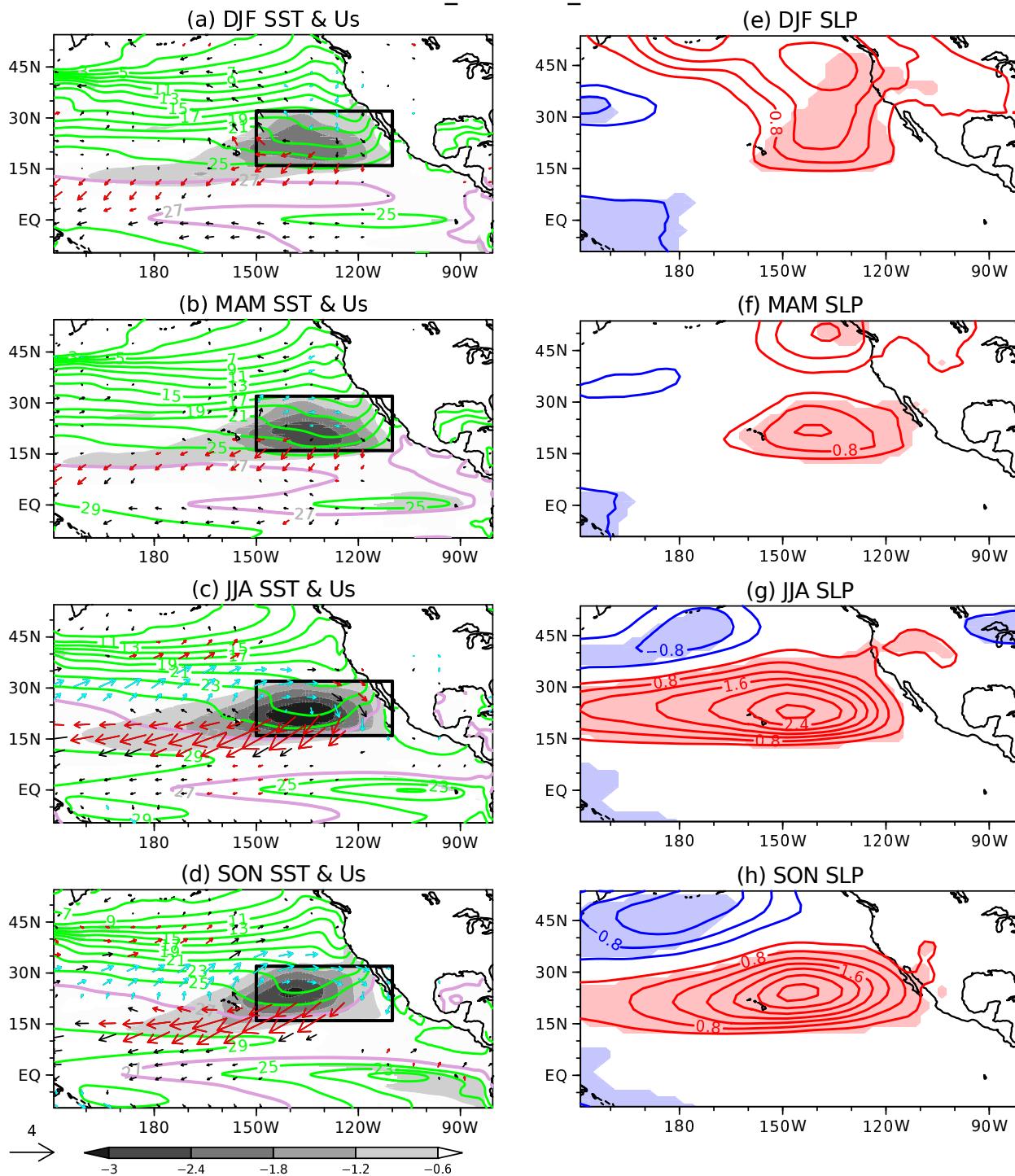


FIG. 4. As in Fig. 3, but for (a,e) DJF, (b,f) MAM, (c,g) JJA, and (d,h) SON.

200 and specific heat ($3990 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{ }^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$), respectively, whereas H represents MLD. MLD is defined as
 201 a depth at which buoyancy difference is 0.0003 m s^{-2} relative to the surface. To this depth, water
 202 is well mixed so that MLT is equivalent to SST. For shortwave heat flux, we subtracted penetrating
 203 flux at the base of the mixed layer. D'_0 is the effect of anomalous ocean heat transport due to
 204 three-dimensional advection and mixing (including entrainment at the base of the mixed layer),
 205 which is evaluated as the residual. The first term on the RHS of (1) can be linearly decomposed as

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

206 where overbars signify monthly climatologies in CM_NoCRE. The first term on the RHS of (2)
 207 represents the effects of anomalous NSHF under the reference climatology of MLD. The second
 208 term represents the effects of anomalous MLD under the reference climatology of F . For example,
 209 anomalously deeper MLD ($H' > 0$), which has larger mixed-layer heat capacity than a reference
 210 state, weakens the effect of climatological heating/cooling (e.g., Morioka et al. 2012; Amaya et al.
 211 2021).

212 NSHF consists of shortwave (SW), longwave (LW), sensible heat (SH), and latent heat (LH)
 213 components ($F = F_{\text{SW}} + F_{\text{LW}} + F_{\text{SH}} + F_{\text{LH}}$). Due to the dependency of latent heat flux on SST, F'_{LH}
 214 is a mixture of atmosphere-driven and SST-driven components (Xie et al. 2010). Following bulk
 215 formula, SST-driven anomalous flux ($F'^{\text{o}}_{\text{LH}}$) may be cast as

$$F'^{\text{o}}_{\text{LH}} = \overline{F_{\text{LH}}} \left(\frac{1}{\bar{q}_s} \frac{dq_s}{dT} \right) \text{SST}' \quad (3)$$

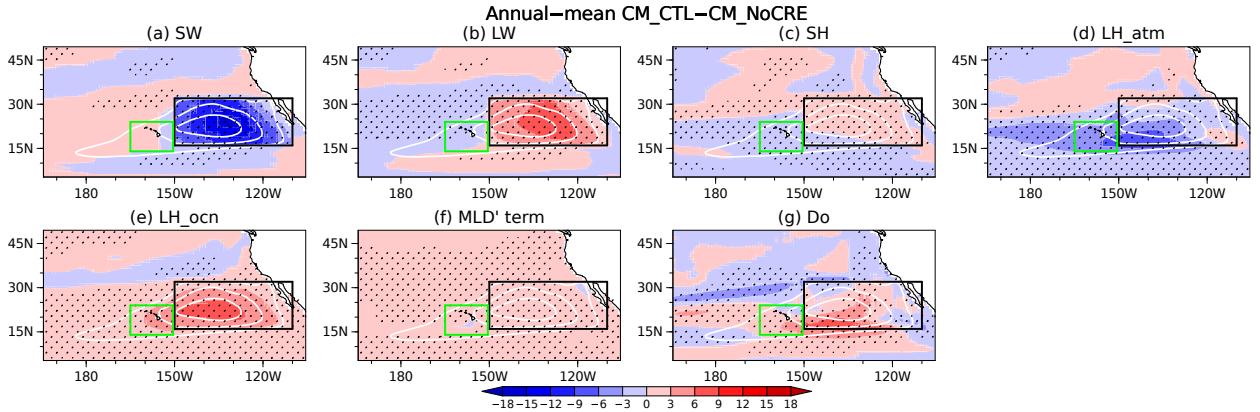
216 where T and q_s are temperature and the saturation specific humidity following the Clausius-
 217 Clapeyron equation, respectively (Du and Xie 2008). This term represents the negative feedback
 218 on SST (e.g., negative SST' yields less upward latent heat flux to warm the SST). The residual
 219 of anomalous LH represents the atmosphere-driven component ($F'^{\text{a}}_{\text{LH}}$) related to anomalous atmo-
 220 spheric conditions (wind speed, relative humidity, and difference between SST and surface air
 221 temperature),

$$F'^{\text{a}}_{\text{LH}} = F'_{\text{LH}} - F'^{\text{o}}_{\text{LH}}. \quad (4)$$

222 Thus, the heat budget equation used in this study may be expressed as

$$\left(\frac{\partial \text{MLT}}{\partial t}\right)' = \frac{F'_{\text{SW}}}{\rho c_p \bar{H}} + \frac{F'_{\text{LW}}}{\rho c_p \bar{H}} + \frac{F'_{\text{SH}}}{\rho c_p \bar{H}} + \frac{F'_{\text{LH}}}{\rho c_p \bar{H}} + \frac{F'_{\text{LH}}}{\rho c_p \bar{H}} - \frac{\bar{F} \cdot H'}{\rho c_p \bar{H}^2} + D'_o. \quad (5)$$

223 Figure 5 shows annual-mean contributions of individual terms in RHS of (5). Note that the
 224 time tendency (LHS of (5)) is negligible in the annual-mean response. The most prominent term
 225 within the NEP box is shortwave cooling by low clouds (F'_{SW} ; Fig. 5a), which is partially offset
 226 by longwave radiation emitted from the low-cloud base (F'_{LW} ; Fig. 5b). The atmosphere-driven
 227 component of latent heat flux (F'_{LH}) indicates its cooling effect in the equatorward portion of the
 228 NEP that extends southwestward outside the NEP box (Fig. 5d). This supports the presence of
 229 the WES feedback discussed in the preceding subsection. In response to the radiation and wind
 230 forcing, SST is lowered to reduce SST-driven latent heat supply (i.e., positive F'_{LH} response in Fig.
 231 5e). Another major damping arises from the anomalous ocean heat transport (D'_o ; Fig. 5g), which
 232 is probably attributable in part to warm poleward Ekman advection due to the enhanced trade winds
 233 (Fig. 3a). The damping effect of the ocean heat transport associated with the low-cloud radiative
 234 effect is consistent with Middlemas et al. (2019).

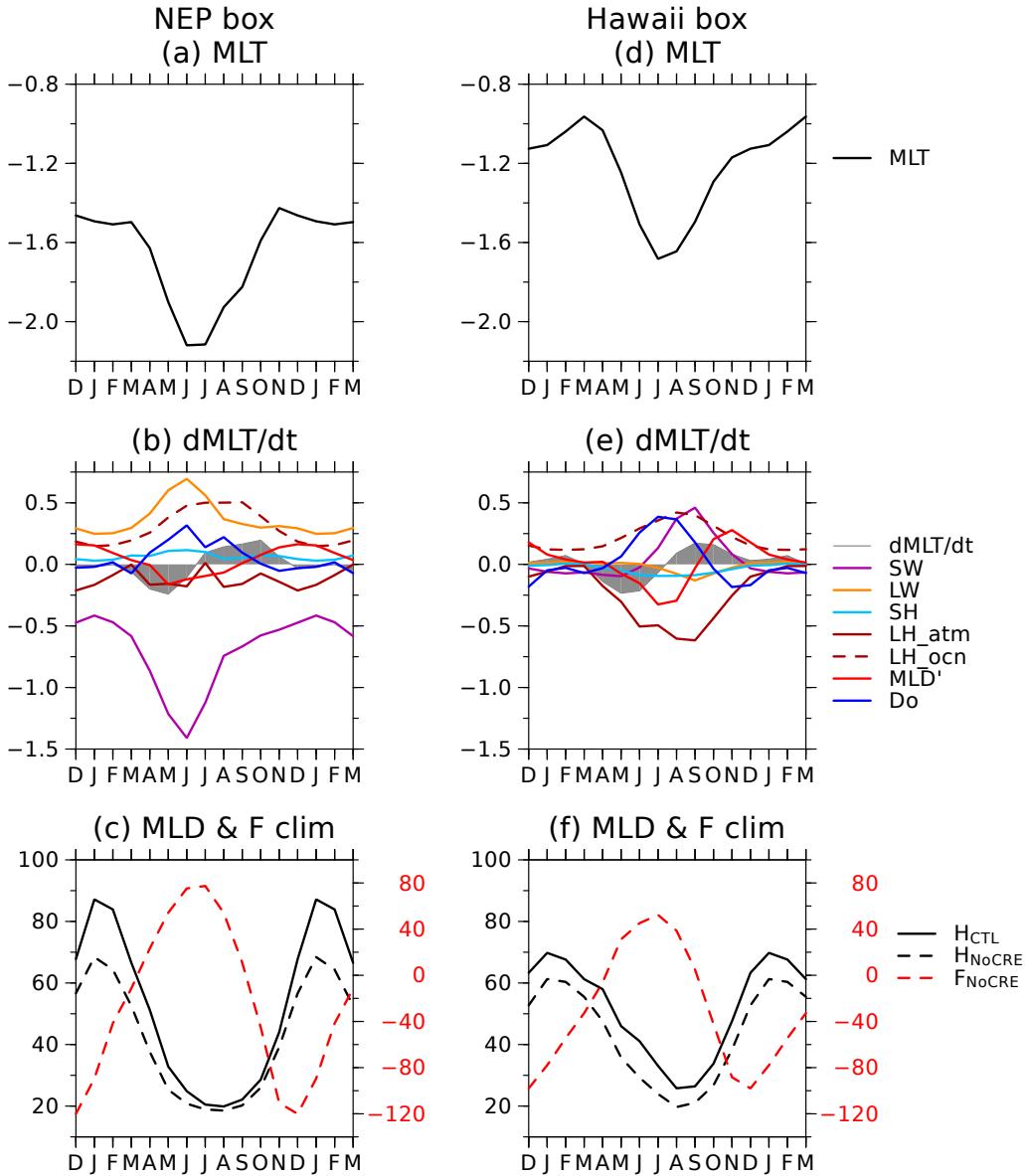


235 FIG. 5. Ocean mixed-layer heat budget (K yr^{-1}) for the annual-mean difference defined as
 236 $\text{CM_CTL} - \text{CM_NoCRE}$. (a) $F'_{\text{SW}}/\rho c_p \bar{H}$, (b) $F'_{\text{LW}}/\rho c_p \bar{H}$, (c) $F'_{\text{SH}}/\rho c_p \bar{H}$, (d) $F'_{\text{LH}}/\rho c_p \bar{H}$, (e) $F'_{\text{LH}}/\rho c_p \bar{H}$, (f)
 237 $-\bar{F} \cdot H'/\rho c_p \bar{H}^2$, and (g) D'_o . Superimposed with white contours is annual-mean SST response (-0.8 , -1.6 , and
 238 -2.4°C). Black and green boxes denotes the domains for the heat budget analysis in Fig. 6. Stippling indicates
 239 the 99% confidence for the difference.

240 Figure 6a shows seasonal cycle of the MLT (SST) response within the NEP box. The negative
241 SST response develops from spring to summer. Despite slight offset by longwave radiation, this
242 development is mostly attributable to shortwave cooling by low clouds (purple line in Fig. 6b)
243 under climatologically shallow MLD in summer (Fig. 6c; comparison with observed MLD in Fig.
244 S3). After the maximum of shortwave forcing in early summer, the SST effect on latent heat flux
245 dominates to damp the SST response (brown dashed line in Fig. 6b).

246 By contrast, the box near Hawaii (165°W-150°W, 14°N-24°N; green rectangles in Fig. 5) is
247 dominated by wind forcing. Here, the negative MLT response maximizes in summer as in the NEP
248 box (Fig. 6d). However, despite small cooling in late spring, anomalous shortwave radiation is
249 even positive in late summer (purple line in Fig. 6e) due to the decrease in deep precipitating clouds
250 (see Section 3c). Rather, the summertime cooling is induced by atmosphere-driven latent heat flux
251 (brown solid line in Fig. 6e), which supports the importance of the WES feedback. Additionally,
252 the cooling effect of anomalous MLD (red line in Fig. 6e) acts to prolong the summertime MLT
253 minimum. Anomalously deeper MLD (Fig. 6f) reduces the SST response to the climatological
254 surface heating (\overline{F}) that is positive in summer following annual cycle of insolation (Fig. 6f). The
255 deepening of MLD is probably due to wind-forced mixing and evaporative cooling by the enhanced
256 trade winds (Niiler and Kraus 1977). As in the NEP box, the ocean heat transport and SST-driven
257 latent heat flux (blue solid and brown dashed lines in Fig. 6e) act to damp the SST cooling.

258 In summary, the mixed-layer heat budget analysis supports the importance of both the radiative
259 and wind effects on the SST cooling. The strong shortwave cooling by low clouds dominates
260 the SST cooling in the low-cloud region whereas the wind forcing explains its southwestward
261 expansion. These processes develop in concert to form the maximum SST response in summer.



262 FIG. 6. Seasonal cycle of mixed-layer quantities averaged over (a)-(c) the NEP box (black rectangles in Fig.
 263 5) and (d)-(f) the Hawaii box (green rectangles in Fig. 5). (a)(d) MLT response ($^{\circ}\text{C}$). (b)(e) Time tendency of
 264 MLT response ($\partial\text{MLT}/\partial t$; grey filled line) and its decomposition into shortwave radiation ($F'_{\text{SW}}/\rho c_p \bar{H}$; purple),
 265 longwave radiation ($F'_{\text{LW}}/\rho c_p \bar{H}$; orange), sensible heat flux ($F'_{\text{SH}}/\rho c_p \bar{H}$; light blue), atmosphere-driven latent
 266 heat flux ($F'_{\text{LH}}/\rho c_p \bar{H}$; brown solid), SST-driven latent heat flux ($F'_{\text{LH}}/\rho c_p \bar{H}$; brown dashed), anomalous MLD
 267 effect ($-\bar{F} \cdot H'/\rho c_p \bar{H}^2$; red), and ocean heat transport effect (D'_o ; blue) in (5). Unit is $^{\circ}\text{C} (30 \text{ day})^{-1}$. (c)(f)
 268 Monthly climatology in CM_NoCRE of net surface heat flux (\bar{F} ; unit is W m^{-2} ; red dashed) and MLD (\bar{H} ; unit
 269 is m; black dashed). Black solid line indicates monthly climatology of MLD (m) in CM_CTL. The panels show
 270 one year starting from December, and four additional months ending in March.

271 *c. Response of the North Pacific subtropical high and its mechanism*

272 In this subsection, the surface anticyclonic response and its seasonal difference are investigated
273 in detail. This type of the response is often regarded simply as part of the WES feedback (Bellomo
274 et al. 2014; Middlemas et al. 2019; Yang et al. 2023), but it has not been clarified whether it stems
275 from cloud-top longwave cooling (Miyasaka and Nakamura 2005, 2010), reduced deep-convective
276 heating (Miyamoto et al. 2021), or reduced sensible heating from the ocean.

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

284 Mechanisms of the SST forcing on the subtropical SLP response can be inferred from in-
285 atmosphere diabatic heating. Figure 7 shows the vertically integrated response of diabatic heating,
286 which is decomposed into condensation (Q_{precip}), vertical diffusion (Q_{vdf}), and radiation (Q_{rad})
287 components. The most prominent feature is seasonality in the Q_{precip} response (Figs. 7a-d). In
288 summer and autumn, strong cooling response extends westward from the equatorward portion of
289 the low-cloud deck, with narrower heating to the south. Since the vertically integrated Q_{precip}
290 response is virtually equivalent to precipitation response, the summer and autumn responses
291 indicate southward shift and shrink of the ITCZ, which is centered at 5°N-10°N (Wittenberg et al.
292 2006). Mid-tropospheric diabatic cooling induces anomalous surface anticyclone to the west of the
293 cooling, which is known as a Matsuno-Gill-type baroclinic Rossby-wave response in the equatorial
294 wave theory (Matsuno 1966; Gill 1980; Kraucunas and Hartmann 2007). Thus, the Q_{precip} cooling
295 reinforces the subtropical high (Figs. 4g-h). An additional contribution comes from the moderate
296 Q_{rad} cooling (Figs. 7k-l). Note that, as illustrated in Voigt et al. (2021), vertically integrated
297 Q_{rad} within the atmosphere does not include ocean surface heating/cooling by clouds, which is
298 dominant in TOA CRE. The Q_{rad} cooling comes from the reduction of high clouds of the ITCZ
299 that induce longwave heating below the cloud base as well as increased low clouds that induce
300 longwave cooling from their tops (Voigt et al. 2021). Reflecting the negative SST response that

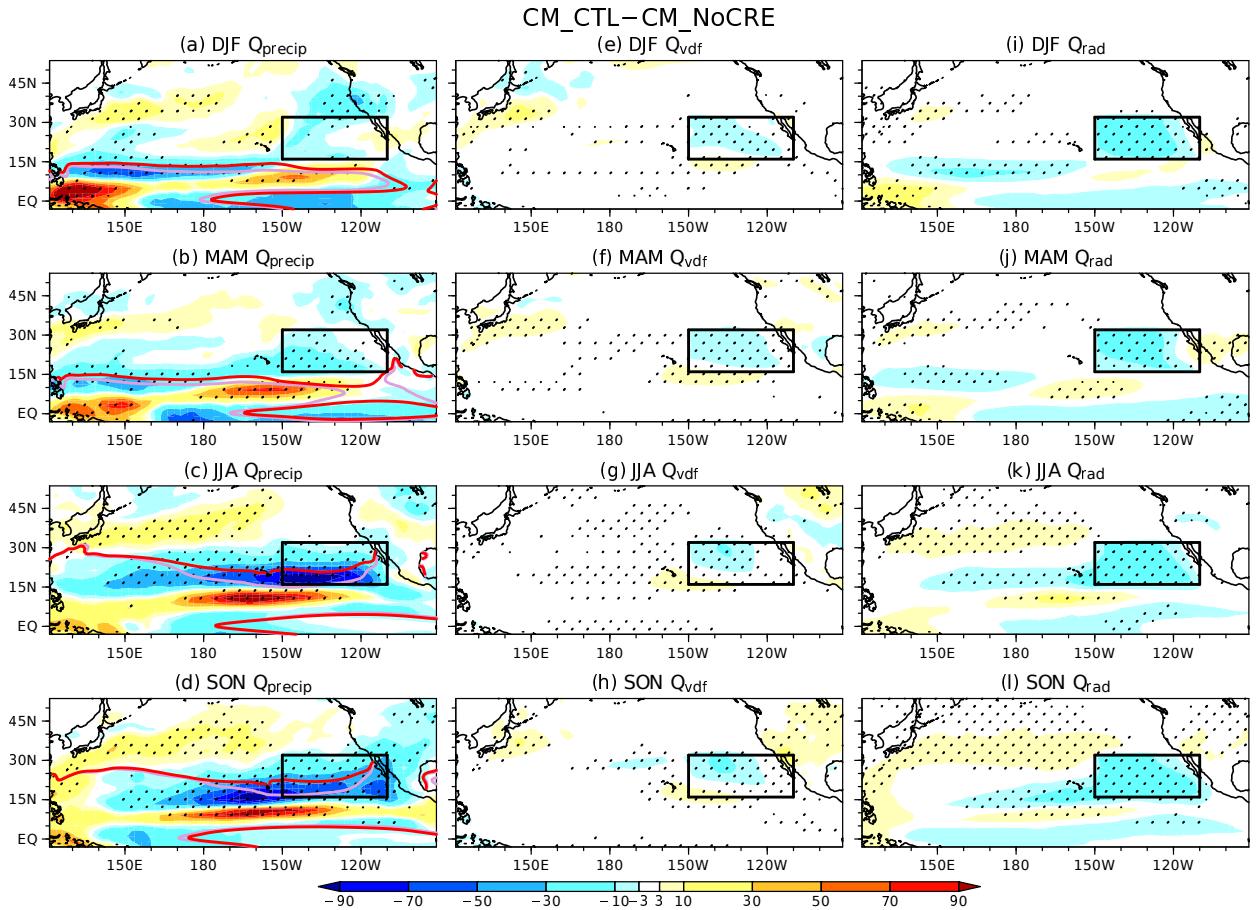
301 acts to decrease sensible heating from the ocean, the Q_{vdf} response is negative throughout the
302 year but very weak (Figs. 7e-h). In winter and spring, the pronounced Q_{precip} cooling diminishes
303 (Figs. 7a-b) despite the comparable Q_{rad} remaining as in summer and autumn within the low-cloud
304 region (Figs. 7i-j). This seasonality in the Q_{precip} cooling is consistent with the stronger positive
305 SLP response in summer and autumn (Figs. 4e-h). Thus, the precipitation response is key to
306 the seasonality in the subtropical anticyclonic response, as found for the Mascarene high over the
307 South Indian Ocean (Miyamoto et al. 2021, 2022a).

308 This precipitation decrease is tied to the negative SST response. In Figs. 7a-d, superimposed with
309 contours are isotherms of convective threshold SST (27°C), which corresponds to the threshold
310 for active deep convection (Graham and Barnett 1987). We note that, although the climatological
311 precipitation is overestimated, precipitation dependency on the underlying SST over the NEP is
312 well reproduced in CM2.1 (Fig. S4). In summer and autumn, the 27°C isotherm advances farther
313 northward into the low-cloud region in CM_NoCRE than in CM_CTL. The low-cloud-induced
314 negative SST response (Figs. 4c-d) markedly reduces precipitation with the pronounced Q_{precip}
315 decrease over the equatorward portion of the negative SST response (Figs. 7c-d). As the SST
316 decrease extends into the deep tropics mainly through the WES feedback, the area of the negative
317 Q_{precip} response also expands southwestward through Hawaii in summer and autumn. By contrast,
318 displacement of the 27°C isotherms between the CM2.1 experiments is relatively small in winter
319 and spring (Figs. 7a-b) due not only to the weaker SST response (Figs. 4a-b) but also to lower
320 climatological SST after the winter solstice. This results in the much weaker Q_{precip} decrease in
321 winter and spring.

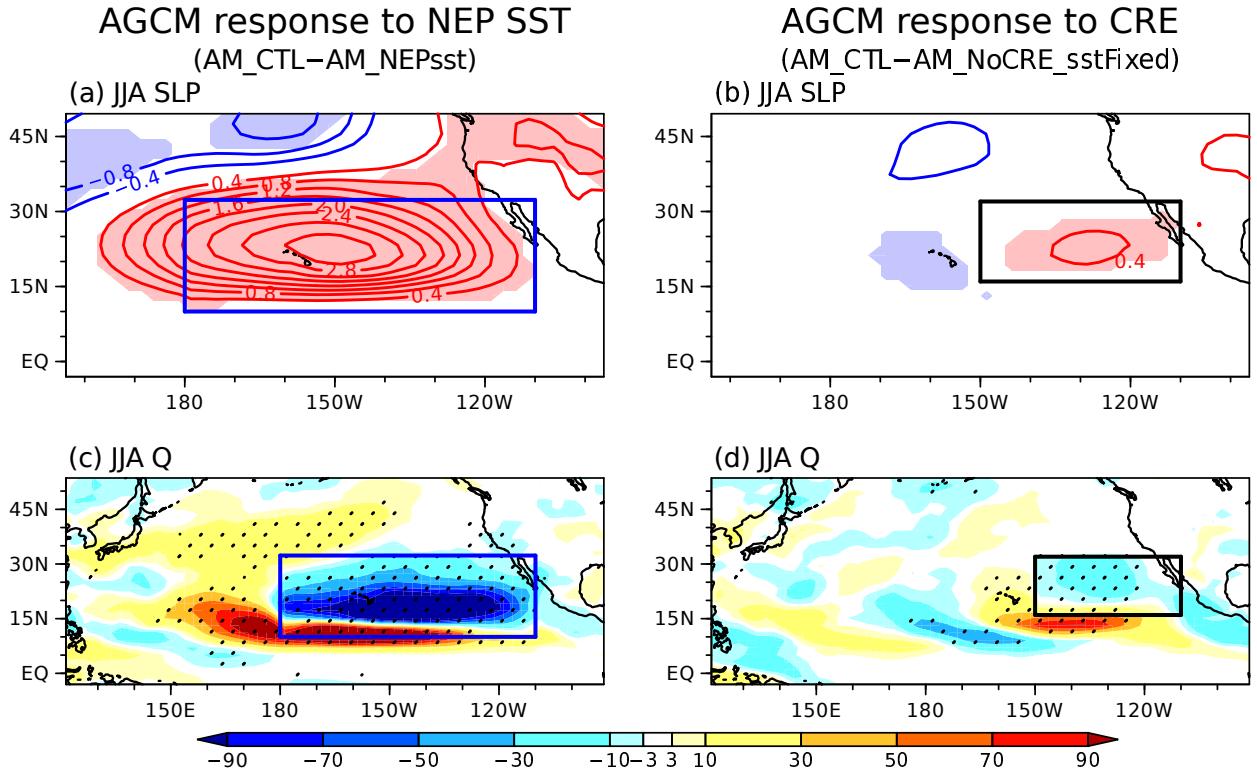
322 The importance of the air-sea coupling over the NEP is substantiated by the atmosphere general
323 circulation model (AGCM) experiments (Fig. 8). As evident from the comparison between the
324 AM_CTL and AM_NoCRE_sstFixed experiments, the CRE impact on summertime SLP without
325 SST changes is quite weak (Fig. 8b) compared with its CM2.1 counterpart (Fig. 4g). This is
326 consistent with the weak Q cooling due to the lack of the precipitation decrease south of the
327 NEP box (Fig. 8d). Forcing an atmospheric dynamical model with zonally asymmetric radiative
328 cooling obtained from an atmospheric reanalysis, Miyasaka and Nakamura (2005) argued that the
329 formation of the summertime North Pacific subtropical high is explained mainly as the response to
330 longwave cooling from low clouds. However, as discussed in Miyamoto et al. (2021), cloud-top

331 longwave cooling of low clouds is mostly compensated by Q_{precip} and Q_{vdf} heating. Thus, low-
332 cloud impacts on the subtropical high without air-sea couplings are rather weak, consistent with
333 the AGCM experiments by Kawai and Koshiro (2020).

334 By contrast, in response to the imposed SST cooling in the NEP, the difference of AM_CTL
335 from AM_NEPsst well reproduces the summertime enhanced subtropical high and decreased Q
336 ($Q_{\text{precip}} + Q_{\text{vdf}} + Q_{\text{rad}}$) simulated in CM2.1 despite their overestimation (Figs. 8a and 8c). We have
337 confirmed that the remote influence of the equatorial Pacific SST anomalies (10°S - 10°N) on the
338 subtropical high is weak, as verified by another AM2.1 experiment forced with them (Fig. S5).
339 Seasonal cycle of the SLP and Q responses in CM2.1 is also mostly explained by those of the NEP
340 SST cooling (Figs. S6-8). Overall, our analysis demonstrates the importance of the subtropical
341 air-sea coupling in the non-local low-cloud feedback.



342 FIG. 7. Response to CRE imposed in the black NEP box, represented by the difference defined as
 343 CM_CTL–CM_NoCRE. (a)–(d) vertically integrated Q_{precip} (W m^{-2} ; color shaded as indicated at the bot-
 344 tom) in (a) DJF, (b) MAM, (c) JJA, and (d) SON. (e)–(h) As in (a)–(d), respectively, but for Q_{vdf} . (i)–(l) As in
 345 (a)–(d), respectively, but for Q_{rad} . Stippling indicates the 99% confidence for the difference. Black box denotes
 346 the domain where low clouds are made transparent in CM.NoCRE. In (a)–(d), superimposed with purple and red
 347 contours are climatological-mean 27°C SST isotherms in CM_CTL and CM.NoCRE, respectively.



348 FIG. 8. AM2.1 response in JJA to (a)(c) anomalous SST over the NEP and (b)(d) CRE without SST changes.
 349 (a)(c) Differences defined as AM_CTL-AM_NEPsst in climatological-mean (a) SLP (every 0.4 hPa; red and blue
 350 lines for positive and negative values, respectively; zero lines are omitted) and (c) $Q_{\text{precip}} + Q_{\text{vdf}} + Q_{\text{rad}}$ (W m^{-2} ;
 351 color shaded as indicated at the bottom). Color shading in (a) and stippling in (c) indicate the 99% confidence
 352 for the difference. Blue box denotes the domain where SST anomalies are prescribed in AM_NEPsst. (b)(d) As
 353 in (a) and (c), respectively, but for AM_CTL-AM_NoCRE_sstFixed. Black box denotes the domain where low
 354 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. 9, 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 baroclinic Matsuno-Gill-type response to the anomalous diabatic cooling (Figs. 7c,k). As shown in Fig. 9, 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, as actually observed climatologically in summer (Miyasaka and Naakmura 2005). This response is also reproduced by AM2.1 experiments forced by anomalous NEP SST (AM_CTL-AM_NEPsst; figure not shown).

This first baroclinic structure corresponds to the enhanced vertical wind shear (VWS) on the southern flank of the subtropical high. Figure 10a 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:

$$\text{VWS} = \sqrt{(u_{200} - u_{850})^2 + (v_{200} - v_{850})^2}. \quad (6)$$

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. 10b. 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

382 decrease hurricane genesis over the NEP. The response of the maximum potential intensity for
 383 tropical cyclones (MPI; Emanuel 1988) shown in Fig. 10c features the negative MPI response that
 384 maximizes over the low-cloud regions and extends southwestward through Hawaii, in accordance
 385 with the negative SST response. The tropical cyclone genesis around Hawaii is further decreased
 386 by negative response of mid-tropospheric relative humidity (Fig. 10d). This drying is associated
 387 with anomalous subsidence owing to the suppression of deep-convective precipitation under the
 388 lowered SST, as discussed in the preceding section.

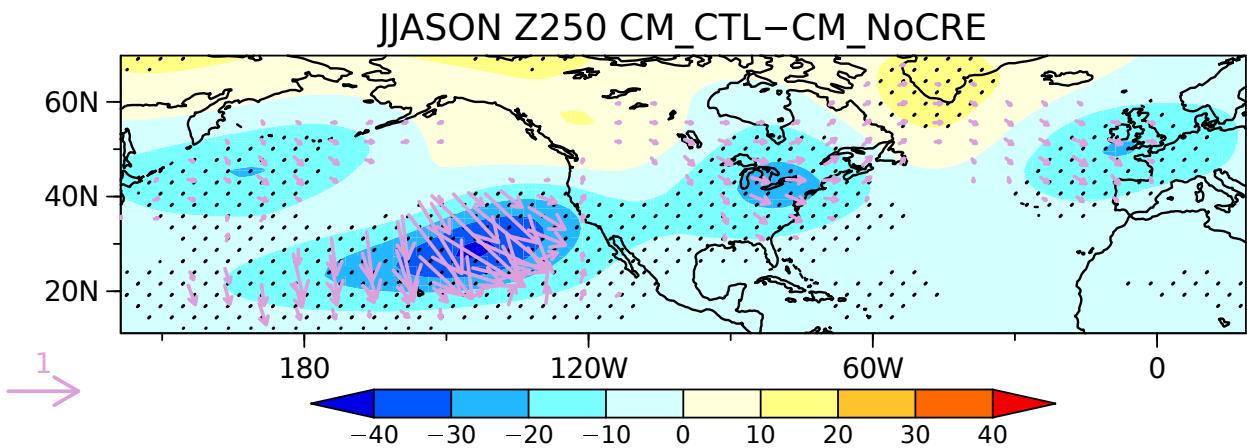
389 Collective influence of the environmental factors is evaluated with the genesis potential index
 390 (GPI; Camargo et al. 2007), which may be cast as

$$\text{GPI} = |10^5 \zeta|^{1.5} \left(\frac{\text{RH}}{50}\right)^3 \left(\frac{\text{MPI}}{70}\right)^3 (1 + 0.1\text{VWS})^{-2} \quad (7)$$

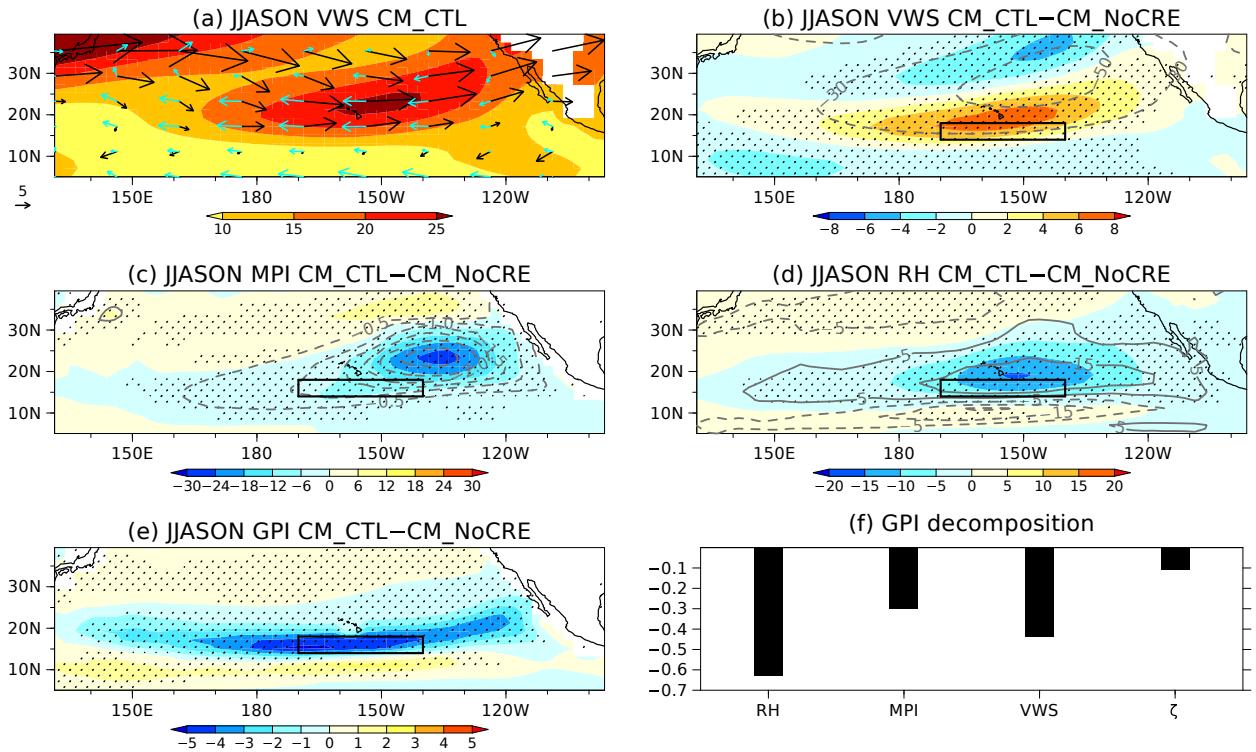
391 where ζ , RH, and MPI are 850-hPa relative vorticity (s^{-1}), 600-hPa relative humidity (%), and the
 392 maximum potential intensity (m s^{-1}). The GPI response shown in Fig. 10e features zonally elon-
 393 gated negative response maximized just south of Hawaii, which corresponds to reduced hurricane
 394 genesis. The relative contribution to this GPI response is derived by taking the natural logarithm
 395 of (7):

$$(\log \text{GPI})' = 1.5(\log |10^5 \zeta|)' + 3 \left[\log \left(\frac{\text{RH}}{50} \right) \right]' + 3 \left[\log \left(\frac{\text{MPI}}{70} \right) \right]' - 2 [\log(1 + 0.1\text{VWS})]' \quad (8)$$

396 Decomposition of the GPI response based on (8) reveals that the RH, VWS, and MPI terms explain
 397 42%, 30%, and 20% of the total response, respectively (Fig. 10f). The vorticity term plays a minor
 398 role. The analysis suggests that Californian low clouds act to protect Hawaii from hurricanes by
 399 lowering SST, drying the mid-troposphere, and increasing VWS.



400 FIG. 9. JJASON 250-hPa geopotential height response (m) to CRE imposed in the black NEP box, represented
 401 by the difference defined as CM_CTL - CM_NoCRE. Here, the global-mean response has been subtracted to
 402 eliminate signal of global cooling. Stippling indicates the 99% confidence for the difference. Superimposed with
 403 arrows is wave activity flux for stationary Rossby waves ($\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$; reference on the left) formulated by Takaya and
 404 Nakamura (2001). Only fluxes above $0.05 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$ in the westerly regions are drawn.



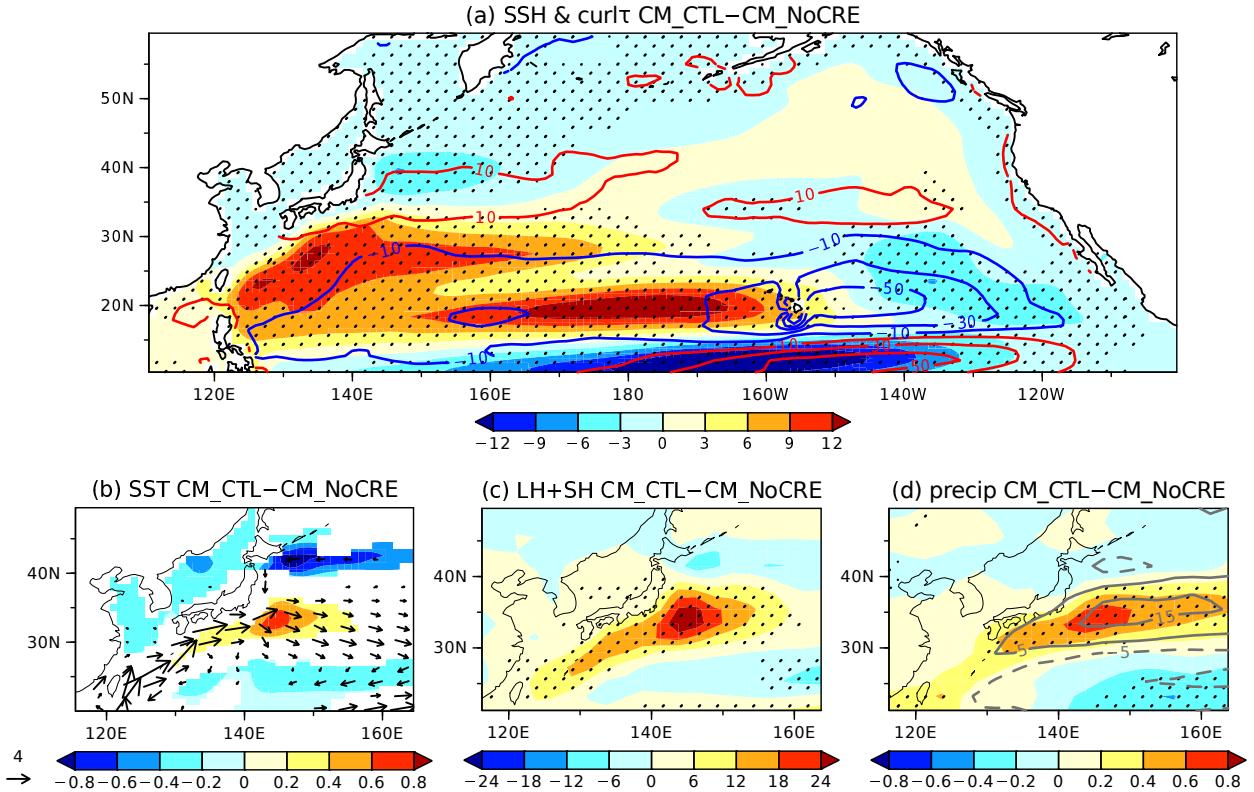
405 FIG. 10. (a) JJASON climatology of VWS (color shaded for every 5 m s⁻¹) in CM_CTL. Superimposed with
 406 black and blue arrows are JJASON climatologies of 200-hPa and 850-hPa winds in CM_CTL, respectively. (b)
 407 JJASON difference (defined as CM_CTL - CM_NoCRE) in VWS (color shaded for every 2 m s⁻¹) and 200-hPa
 408 geopotential height (contoured for ±10, ±30, ±50 ... m; positive and negative values for solid and dashed lines,
 409 respectively). (c) As in (b), but for MPI (color shaded for every 6 m/s) and SST (contoured for ±0.5, ±1, ±1.5 ...
 410 °C). (d) As in (b), but for 600-hPa relative humidity (color shaded for every 5%) and p-velocity (contoured ±5,
 411 ±15, ±25 ... hPa day⁻¹). (e) As in (b), but for GPI. (f) Decomposition of logGPI response to individual terms
 412 (RHS of (8)) averaged within black boxes in (b)-(e). In (b)-(e), stippling indicates the 99% confidence for the
 413 color-shaded difference.

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

415 The low-cloud impact extends farther into the northwestern Pacific through an ocean circulation
416 change. Figure 11a shows the annual-mean CM2.1 response of wind stress curl and sea surface
417 height (SSH). Associated with the positive SLP response (Figs. 4e-h), there is a strong anticyclonic
418 wind stress curl response centered at 20°N, which is sandwiched meridionally by cyclonic responses
419 (Fig. 11a). Forcing oceanic Rossby waves that propagate westward, this anticyclonic wind stress
420 curl induces positive SSH response in the subtropical northwestern Pacific (Fig. 11a). This is
421 indicative of acceleration of the subtropical gyre accompanied by the intensified North Equatorial
422 Current and Kuroshio (Fig. 11b). The poleward and eastward current responses along Kuroshio
423 and its extension account for ~30% of the CM_CTL current. Unlike the NEP SST response, this
424 current response seems to be delayed by about five to ten years after the simulations are branched
425 off (Fig. S9) due to the oceanic Rossby-wave propagations. Reflecting the enhanced heat transport,
426 positive SST responses form along the accelerated Kuroshio and maximize its extension (Fig. 11b).

427 Recent studies have indicated that the Kuroshio Current system has significant impacts on the
428 overlying atmosphere through heat and moisture supply (e.g., Seo et al. 2023). As shown in
429 Fig. 11c, upward turbulent heat fluxes are enhanced (up to 20% of CM_NoCRE climatology)
430 over the warm SST responses in the CM2.1 simulations, indicative of the oceanic forcing on the
431 overlying atmosphere. Figure 11d shows the annual-mean response of precipitation and ∇^2 SLP,
432 the latter of which is proportional to surface wind convergence based on a marine boundary layer
433 model (Lindzen and Nigam 1987; Minobe et al. 2008). Through hydrostatic pressure adjustments
434 (Lindzen and Nigam 1987; Minobe et al. 2008), the enhanced sensible heating by the Kuroshio
435 and its extension yields positive ∇^2 SLP response locally (Fig. 11d). The associated enhancement
436 of surface wind convergence as well as the augmented surface latent heat flux from the warmer
437 SST increases precipitation by 10-20% of the CM_NoCRE climatology over the Kuroshio regions
438 (Fig. 11d). This precipitation response is found in both warm and cold seasons (not shown). Such
439 impacts of the warm Kuroshio SST on local precipitation have been identified in observations and
440 reanalysis datasets (e.g., Tokinaga et al. 2009; Minobe et al. 2010; Masunaga et al. 2015, 2020).
441 The Kuroshio warming may further energize atmospheric transient eddy activity (Taguchi et al.
442 2009) that acts to increase precipitation and to feed back onto the North Pacific subtropical high
443 (Joh and Di Lorenzo 2019, and references therein), although it is not evident in our simulations

444 (not shown) potentially due to the low resolution of the model. Thus, Californian low clouds can
 445 affect the climate in the Kuroshio region by accelerating the subtropical ocean gyre.



446 FIG. 11. Annual-mean response to CRE in the black NEP box, represented by the difference defined as
 447 $CM_CTL - CM_NoCRE$. (a) SSH (color shaded for every 3 cm) and wind stress curl (contoured for $\pm 10, \pm 30,$
 448 $\pm 50 \dots \times 10^{-9} \text{ N m}^{-3}$; positive and negative values for red and blue lines, respectively). (b) SST (color shaded
 449 for every $0.2 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) and surface current (cm s^{-1} ; arrows with reference on the left) with the 99% confidence for the
 450 difference. (c) Turbulent heat flux (sensible and latent heat fluxes combined; color shaded for every 6 W m^{-2} ;
 451 positive values for upward flux). (d) Precipitation (color shaded for every mm day^{-1}) and ∇^2 SLP (contoured for
 452 $\pm 5, \pm 15, \pm 25 \dots \times 10^{-13} \text{ hPa m}^{-2}$; positive and negative values for solid and dashed lines, respectively). In (a),
 453 (c), and (d), stippling indicates the 99% confidence for the color-shaded difference.

454 5. Concluding remarks

455 It has been suggested that low clouds not only induce local SST cooling but also induce non-local
 456 effects through cloud-top longwave cooling (Miyasaka and Nakamura 2005) and WES feedback

457 (Bellomo et al. 2014; Middlemas et al. 2019; Yang et al. 2023). By disabling CRE regionally in
458 a fully coupled AOGCM, this study has demonstrated that the radiative effects of low clouds off
459 the California coast have significant climatological impacts over the North Pacific. The negative
460 CRE of low clouds causes a local SST decrease of up to 3°C on an annual average, contributing
461 to the zonal SST minima over the NEP. Notably, the SST response is not limited to the low-cloud
462 region but extends well outside in the southwestward direction. The extension of the negative
463 SST response is collocated with the strengthened northeasterly trades associated with the enhanced
464 subtropical high (+2-hPa response on an annual average), suggestive of the WES feedback.

465 We highlight that the atmospheric responses are much stronger in boreal summer and autumn
466 than in winter and spring under the effect of background climatologies. The shortwave CRE
467 strengthens toward summer due to large insolation. Combined with seasonally shallow MLD, the
468 subtropical negative SST response maximizes in summer. This lowered SST suppresses deep-
469 convective precipitation that would otherwise occur over seasonally high SST in the absence
470 of CRE. Associated anomalous diabatic cooling induces the surface anticyclonic response as a
471 baroclinic Matsuno-Gill pattern. The enhanced trade winds on its equatorward flank further cool
472 SST through the WES feedback. Since climatological SST warming lags the summertime solstice,
473 the precipitation and surface anticyclonic response remains strong in autumn after the SST response
474 starts to decay, introducing spring-autumn asymmetries. No such enhancement of the atmospheric
475 response in the warm seasons is simulated in the AGCM no-low-cloud experiments without SST
476 changes, indicative of the crucial role of the air-sea interactions.

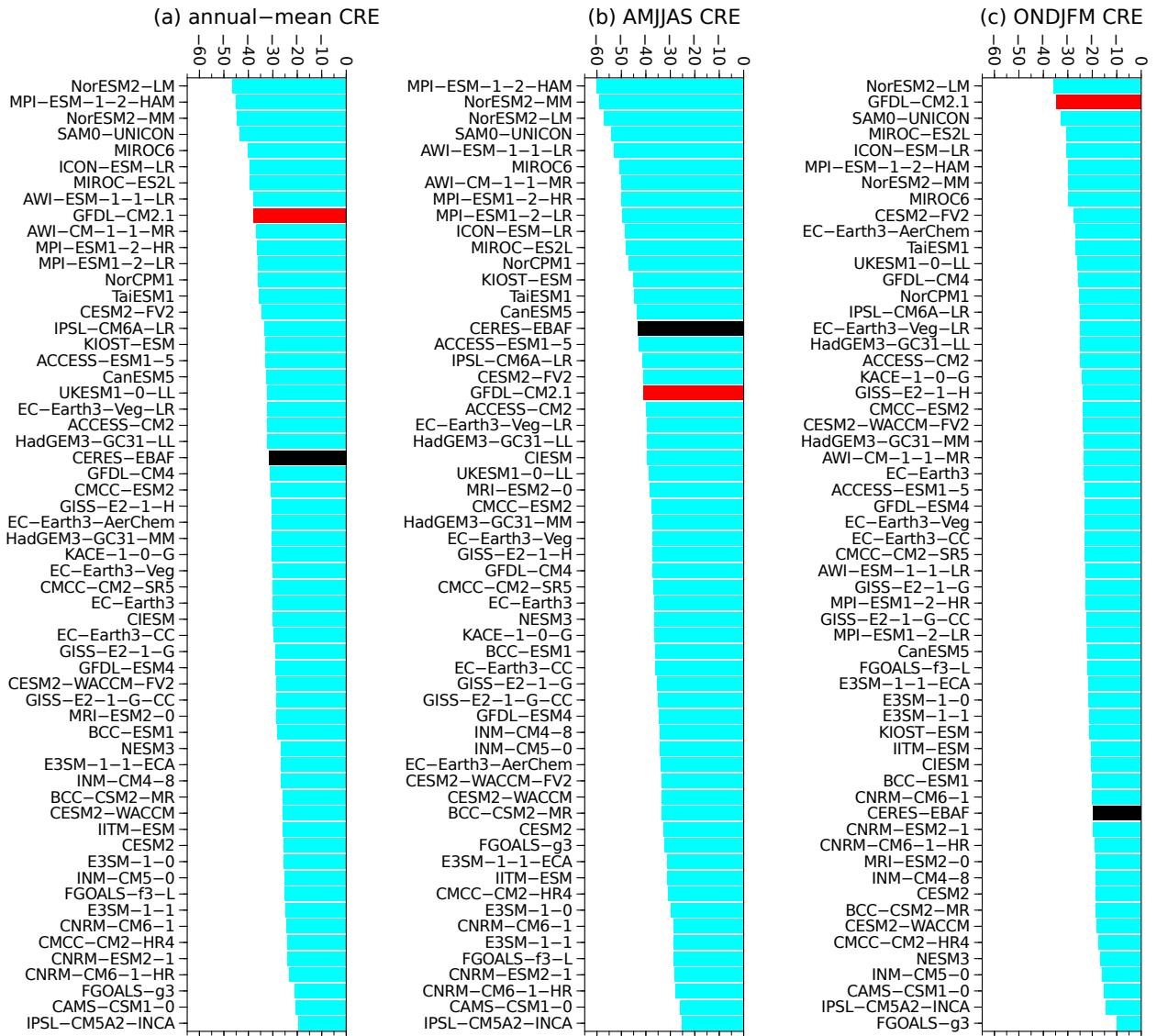
477 The aforementioned influence of Californian low clouds has implications on the climate over
478 the Hawaii and Kuroshio regions. As a Matsuno-Gill-type Rossby-wave response to the diabatic
479 cooling, the surface anticyclonic response accompanies an upper-tropospheric cyclonic response.
480 This first baroclinic structure augments vertical wind shear between the near-surface trades and
481 upper-level westerlies around Hawaii. This result implies that low clouds act to prevent hurricanes
482 from reaching Hawaii by enhancing environmental vertical wind shear and lowering regional SST.
483 Our simulations also suggest a remote influence of low clouds through oceanic teleconnection.
484 Input of anticyclonic wind stress leads to acceleration of the North Pacific subtropical ocean gyre
485 and associated SST increase along the Kuroshio and its extension. Enhanced upward surface heat

486 and moisture fluxes, which manifest forcing from the warmed Kuroshio and its extension, act to
487 increase precipitation locally.

488 As indicated in Section 2a, CM2.1 underestimates the seasonal enhancement of the negative
489 CRE, biasing the simulated response to it. Figure 12 revisits the TOA CRE bias in the NEP
490 box in CM2.1, with comparison to the CMIP6 coupled models. In CM2.1, the negative CRE is
491 strongly overestimated in cold season (Fig. 12c) while slightly underestimated in warm season
492 (Fig. 12b), resulting in the overestimated annual-mean negative CRE (Fig. 12a). This suggests
493 that the response to the CRE in CM2.1 may be underestimated in summer but overestimated in
494 winter. Nevertheless, the fact that the pronounced seasonal enhancement in the low-cloud impact is
495 simulated despite the weaker seasonal cycle of low clouds in CM2.1 is a testament to its robustness.
496 We also note that the summertime intensification of the low-cloud impact by seasonally high SST
497 is similar to the low-cloud impact over the South Indian Ocean (Miyamoto et al. 2021, 2022a). The
498 CMIP6 models tend to underestimate the annual-mean negative CRE but with large intermodel
499 spread (Fig. 12a). Interestingly, the seasonality of the negative CRE also tends to be weak in the
500 CMIP6 coupled models, with significant underestimation in warm season (Fig. 12b). This implies
501 that the low-cloud impacts in warm season in the CMIP6 models might be underestimated, but
502 other biases such as precipitation dependency on SST can complicate the problem. In addition,
503 the low-cloud impacts along the California coast are missing in our simulations (Fig. 2). Thus,
504 it is important to evaluate the low-cloud impacts in other climate models with care on the model
505 biases. The key factors of the mechanisms identified in our study will help understand the low-
506 cloud impacts simulated in other climate models in climatology, and possibly in climate variability
507 and change under intermodel diversity of low cloud-SST feedback (Myers et al. 2018; Kim et al.
508 2022).

509 A suite of our AOGCM experiments indicates the significant non-local impacts of low clouds
510 even under damping by ocean dynamics. This is in line with the recent studies on interannual
511 variations (Burgman et al. 2017; Middlemas et al. 2019; Yang et al. 2023). Furthermore,
512 the low-cloud impacts simulated in our model may be operative in the past and future climate
513 change that accompanies persistent shortwave forcing of low clouds. For example, subtropical
514 low clouds may decrease in response to CO₂ increase (e.g., Qu et al. 2014; Myers et al. 2021).
515 Interestingly, satellite observations over the last two decades revealed a significant positive trend in

516 the net downward radiation at the top of the atmosphere attributable primarily to decreasing low-
517 cloud fraction over the subtropical Northeastern Pacific (Loeb et al. 2021, 2022). Nevertheless,
518 our simulated climate without subtropical low clouds could happen in the past and future, since
519 stratocumulus clouds have vulnerability and hysteresis against CO₂-level rises (Schneider et al.
520 2019). Our results also have implications for geoengineering by marine cloud brightening (e.g.,
521 Latham et al. 2008). Baughman et al. (2012) demonstrated that cloud brightening in the NEP
522 low-cloud region yields non-local impacts with a southwestward extension of the SST cooling.
523 Our analysis has revealed the dynamical mechanisms of this southwestward extension through the
524 joint low cloud-WES feedback. Overall, our series of studies have demonstrated that low clouds
525 play a key role in shaping a regional climate system by modulating subtropical air-sea interactions.



526 FIG. 12. Climatological TOA CRE in the NEP box ($W m^{-2}$) in CERES-EBAF (black), CM_CTL (red), and
 527 the CMIP6 historical simulations (light blue). (a) Annual, (b) AMJJAS (from April through September), and (c)
 528 ONDJFM (from October through March) averages.

529 *Acknowledgments.* We thank Hideaki Kawai and anonymous reviewers for their sound criticism
530 and constructive feedback. We also thank Andrew Williams and Tadahiro Hayasaka for valu-
531 able input. This study is supported by the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science through
532 Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research (JP19H05702, JP19H05703, JP20H01970, JP22H01292, and
533 JP23H01241), by the Japanese Ministry of the Environment through the Environment Research
534 and Technology Development Fund (JPMEERF20222002), by the Japanese Ministry of Education,
535 Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) programs for the ArCS II (JPMXD1420318865)
536 and the advanced studies of climate change projection (JPMXD0722680395), by the Japan Sci-
537 ence and Technology Agency through COI-NEXT (JPMJPF2013), and by the National Science
538 Foundation (AGS-1934392).

539 *Data availability statement.* The authors can provide the model simulation data upon rea-
540 sonable requests. The observational data used in this study are available online (JRA-
541 55: https://jra.kishou.go.jp/JRA-55/index_en.html; CALIPSO-GOCCP; [https://](https://climserv.ipsl.polytechnique.fr/cfmip-obs/)
542 climserv.ipsl.polytechnique.fr/cfmip-obs/; CERES-EBAF: [https://ceres.larc.](https://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/data/)
543 [nasa.gov/data/](https://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/data/); OISST: <https://psl.noaa.gov>; MILA-GPV: [https://www.jamstec.](https://www.jamstec.go.jp/argo_research/dataset/milagpv/mila_en.html)
544 [go.jp/argo_research/dataset/milagpv/mila_en.html](https://www.jamstec.go.jp/argo_research/dataset/milagpv/mila_en.html); TRMM: [https://disc.gsfc.](https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets/TRMM_3B42_7/summary)
545 [nasa.gov/datasets/TRMM_3B42_7/summary](https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets/TRMM_3B42_7/summary)). The CMIP6 data can be obtained through the
546 Earth System Grid Federation (ESGF) Data Portals. The maximum potential intensity of tropical
547 cyclones is calculated with pyPI (Gilford 2021).

548 **References**

- 549 Amaya, D. J., 2019: The Pacific meridional mode and ENSO: A review. *Curr. Clim. Change Rep.*,
550 **5**, 296–307, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40641-019-00142-x>.
- 551 Amaya, D. J., M. A. Alexander, A. Capotondi, C. Deser, K. B. Karnauskas, A. J. Miller, and N. J.
552 Mantua, 2021: Are long-term changes in mixed layer depth influencing North Pacific marine
553 heatwaves? *Bull. Amer. Meteor. Soc.*, **34**, 59–66, <https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-20-0144.2>.
- 554 Baughman, E., A. Gnanadesikan, A. Degaetano, and A. Adcroft, 2012: Investigation of the
555 surface and circulation impacts of cloud-brightening geoengineering. *J. Climate*, **25**, 7527–
556 7543, <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-11-00282.1>.

- 557 Bellomo, K., A. Clement, T. Mauritsen, and B. Stevens, 2014: Simulating the role of subtrop-
558 ical stratocumulus clouds in driving Pacific climate variability. *J. Climate*, **27**, 5119–5131,
559 <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-13-00548.1>.
- 560 Bony, S., and J.-L. Dufresne, 2005: Marine boundary layer clouds at the heart of tropical cloud
561 feedback uncertainties in climate models. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **32**, L20806, [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1029/2005GL023851)
562 [10.1029/2005GL023851](https://doi.org/10.1029/2005GL023851).
- 563 Burgman, R. J., B. P. Kirtman, A. C. Clement, and H. Vazquez, 2017: Model evidence for low-level
564 cloud feedback driving persistent changes in atmospheric circulation and regional hydroclimate.
565 *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, <https://doi.org/10.1002/2016GL071978>.
- 566 Camargo, S. J., K. A. Emanuel, and A. H. Sobel, 2007: Use of a genesis potential index to
567 diagnose ENSO effects on tropical cyclone genesis. *J. Climate*, **20**, 4819–4834, [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI4282.1)
568 [10.1175/JCLI4282.1](https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI4282.1).
- 569 Chang, J. C. H., and D. J. Vimont, 2004: Analogous Pacific and Atlantic meridional modes
570 of tropical atmosphere-ocean variability. *J. Climate*, **17**, 4143–4158, [https://doi.org/10.1175/](https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI4953.1)
571 [JCLI4953.1](https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI4953.1).
- 572 Chepfer, H., S. Bony, D. M. Winker, G. Cesana, J. Dufresne, P. Minnis, C. J. Stubenrauch, and
573 S. Zeng, 2010: The GCM Oriented CALIPSO Cloud Product (CALIPSO-GOCCP). *J. Geophys.*
574 *Res.*, **115**, D00H16, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2009JD012251>.
- 575 Clement, A. C., R. Burgman, and J. R. Norris, 2009: Observational and model evidence for positive
576 low-level cloud feedback. *Science*, **325**, 460–464, <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1171255>.
- 577 Delworth, T. L., and Coauthors, 2006: GFDL’s CM2 global coupled climate models. Part I:
578 Formulation and simulation characteristics. *J. Climate*, **19**, 643–674, [https://doi.org/10.1175/](https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI3629.1)
579 [JCLI3629.1](https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI3629.1).
- 580 Du, Y., and S.-P. Xie, 2008: Role of atmospheric adjustments in the tropical Indian Ocean warming
581 during the 20th century in climate models. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **35**, L08712, [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1029/2008GL033631)
582 [10.1029/2008GL033631](https://doi.org/10.1029/2008GL033631).
- 583 Emanuel, K. A., 1988: The maximum intensity of hurricanes. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, **45**, 1143–1155,
584 [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0469\(1988\)045<1143:TMIOH>2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0469(1988)045<1143:TMIOH>2.0.CO;2).

- 585 Gilford, D. M., 2021: pyPI (v1.3): Tropical cyclone potential intensity calculations in Python.
586 *Geosci. Model Dev.*, **14**, 2351–2369, <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-14-2351-2021>.
- 587 Gill, A. E., 1980: Some simple solutions for heat-induced tropical circulation. *Quart. J. Roy.*
588 *Meteor. Soc.*, **106**, 447–462, <https://doi.org/10.1002/qj.49710644905>.
- 589 Graham, N. E., and T. P. Barnett, 1987: Sea surface temperature, surface wind divergence,
590 and convection over tropical oceans. *Science*, **30**, 657–659, [https://doi.org/10.1126/science.238.](https://doi.org/10.1126/science.238.4827.657)
591 [4827.657](https://doi.org/10.1126/science.238.4827.657).
- 592 Gray, W. M., 1968: Global view of the origin of tropical disturbances and storms. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*,
593 **96**, 669–700, [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0493\(1968\)096<0669:Gvotoo>2.0.Co;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0493(1968)096<0669:Gvotoo>2.0.Co;2).
- 594 Harada, Y., and Coauthors, 2016: The JRA-55 reanalysis: Representation of atmospheric
595 circulation and climate variability. *J. Meteor. Soc. Japan*, **94**, 269–302, [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.2151/jmsj.2016-015)
596 [10.2151/jmsj.2016-015](https://doi.org/10.2151/jmsj.2016-015).
- 597 Hartmann, D. L., M. E. Ockert-Bell, and M. L. Michelsen, 1992: The effect of cloud type on
598 Earth's energy balance: Global analysis. *J. Climate*, **5**, 1281–1304, [https://doi.org/10.1175/](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442(1992)005<1281:TEOCTO>2.0.CO;2)
599 [1520-0442\(1992\)005<1281:TEOCTO>2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442(1992)005<1281:TEOCTO>2.0.CO;2).
- 600 Joh, Y., and E. Di Lorenzo, 2019: Interactions between Kuroshio extension and central tropical
601 Pacific lead to preferred decadal-timescale oscillations in Pacific climate. *Sci. Rep.*, **9**, 13558,
602 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-49927-y>.
- 603 Kawai, H., and T. Koshiro, 2020: Does radiative cooling of stratocumulus strengthen summertime
604 subtropical highs? *CAS/JSC WGNE Research Activities in Earth System Modelling/WMO*, **50**,
605 11–12.
- 606 Kim, H., S. M. Kang, J. E. Kay, and S.-P. Xie, 2022: Subtropical clouds key to Southern
607 Ocean teleconnections to the tropical Pacific. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. (USA)*, **119**, e2200514119,
608 <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2200514119>.
- 609 Klein, S. A., and D. L. Hartmann, 1993: The seasonal cycle of low stratiform clouds. *J. Climate*,
610 **6**, 1587–1606, [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442\(1993\)006<1587:TSCOLS>2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442(1993)006<1587:TSCOLS>2.0.CO;2).

- 611 Kobayashi, S., and Coauthors, 2015: The JRA-55 reanalysis: General specifications and basic
612 characteristics. *J. Meteor. Soc. Japan*, **93**, 5–48, <https://doi.org/10.2151/jmsj.2015-001>.
- 613 Kraucunas, I., and D. L. Hartmann, 2007: Tropical stationary waves in a nonlinear shallow-
614 water model with realistic basic states. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, **64**, 2540–2557, [https://doi.org/10.1175/
615 JAS3920.1](https://doi.org/10.1175/JAS3920.1).
- 616 Latham, J., and Coauthors, 2008: Global temperature stabilization via controlled albedo en-
617 hancement of low-level maritime clouds. *Philos. Trans. Roy. Soc. London A*, **366**, 3969–3987,
618 <https://doi.org/10.1098/rsta.2008.0137>.
- 619 Lindzen, R. S., and S. Nigam, 1987: On the role of sea surface temperature gradients in forcing
620 low-level winds and convergence in the tropics. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, **44**, 2418–2436, [https://doi.org/
621 10.1175/1520-0469\(1987\)044\(2418:OTROSS\)2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0469(1987)044(2418:OTROSS)2.0.CO;2).
- 622 Loeb, N. G., G. C. Johnson, T. J. Thorsen, J. M. Lyman, F. G. Rose, and S. Kato, 2021: Satel-
623 lite and ocean data reveal marked increase on Earth’s heating rate. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **48**,
624 e2021GL093047, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2021GL093047>.
- 625 Loeb, N. G., M. Mayer, S. Kato, T. J. Fasullo, H. Zuo, and R. Senan, 2022: Evaluating twenty-
626 year trends in Earth’s energy flows from observations and reanalyses. *J. Geophys. Res.*, **127**,
627 e2022JD036686, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2022JD036686>.
- 628 Masunaga, R., H. Nakamura, T. Miyasaka, K. Nishii, and Y. Tanimoto, 2015: Separation of clima-
629 tological imprints of the Kuroshio Extension and Oyashio fronts on the wintertime atmospheric
630 boundary layer: Their sensitivity to SST resolution prescribed for atmospheric reanalysis. *J.*
631 *Climate*, **28**, 1764–1787, <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-14-00314.1>.
- 632 Masunaga, R., H. Nakamura, B. Taguchi, and T. Miyasaka, 2020: Processes shaping the frontal-
633 scale time-mean surface wind convergence patterns around the Gulf Stream and Agulhas Return
634 Current in winter. *J. Climate*, **33**, 9083–9101, <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-19-0948.1>.
- 635 Matsuno, T., 1966: Quasi-geostrophic motions in the equatorial area. *J. Meteor. Soc. Japan*, **44**,
636 25–43, https://doi.org/10.2151/jmsj1965.44.1_25.

- 637 Middlemas, E., A. Clement, and B. Medeiros, 2019: Contributions of atmospheric and oceanic
638 feedbacks to subtropical northeastern sea surface temperature variability. *Climate Dyn.*, **53**,
639 6877–6890, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-019-04964-1>.
- 640 Minobe, S., A. Kuwano-Yoshida, K. Nobumasa, S.-P. Xie, and R. J. Small, 2008: Influence of the
641 Gulf Stream on the troposphere. *Nature*, **452**, 206–209, <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature06690>.
- 642 Minobe, S., M. Miyashita, A. Kuwano-Yoshida, H. Tokinaga, and S.-P. Xie, 2010: Atmospheric
643 response to the Gulf Stream: Seasonal variations. *J. Climate*, **23**, 3699–3719, <https://doi.org/10.1175/2010JCLI3359.1>.
- 644
- 645 Miyamoto, A., H. Nakamura, and T. Miyasaka, 2018: Influence of the subtropical high and storm
646 track on low-cloud fraction and its seasonality over the south Indian Ocean. *J. Climate*, **31**,
647 4017–4039, <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-17-0229.1>.
- 648 Miyamoto, A., H. Nakamura, T. Miyasaka, and Y. Kosaka, 2021: Radiative impacts of low-level
649 clouds on the summertime subtropical high in the south Indian Ocean simulated in a coupled
650 general circulation model. *J. Climate*, **34**, 3991–4007, [https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-20-0709.](https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-20-0709.1)
651 1.
- 652 Miyamoto, A., H. Nakamura, T. Miyasaka, and Y. Kosaka, 2022a: Wintertime weakening of
653 low-cloud impacts on the subtropical high in the south Indian Ocean. *J. Climate*, **35**, 323–334,
654 <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-21-0178.1>.
- 655 Miyamoto, A., H. Nakamura, T. Miyasaka, Y. Kosaka, B. Taguchi, and K. Nishii, 2022b: Mainte-
656 nance mechanisms of the wintertime subtropical high over the south Indian Ocean. *J. Climate*,
657 **35**, 2989–3005, <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-21-0518.1>.
- 658 Miyasaka, T., and H. Nakamura, 2005: Structure and formation mechanisms of the Northern
659 Hemisphere summertime subtropical highs. *J. Climate*, **18**, 5046–5065, [https://doi.org/10.1175/](https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI3599.1)
660 [JCLI3599.1](https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI3599.1).
- 661 Miyasaka, T., and H. Nakamura, 2010: Structure and mechanisms of the Southern Hemi-
662 sphere summertime subtropical anticyclones. *J. Climate*, **23**, 2115–2130, [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1175/2009JCLI3008.1)
663 [10.1175/2009JCLI3008.1](https://doi.org/10.1175/2009JCLI3008.1).

- 664 Morioka, Y., T. Tozuka, and T. Yamagata, 2010: Climate variability in the southern Indian Ocean
665 as revealed by self-organizing maps. *Climate Dyn.*, **35**, 1059–1072, [https://doi.org/10.1007/](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-010-0843-x)
666 [s00382-010-0843-x](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-010-0843-x).
- 667 Myers, T. A., C. R. Mechoso, and M. J. DeFlorio, 2018: Coupling between marine boundary layer
668 clouds and summer-to-summer sea surface temperature variability over the North Atlantic and
669 Pacific. *Climate Dyn.*, **50**, 955–969, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-017-3651-8>.
- 670 Myers, T. A., R. C. Scott, M. D. Zelinka, S. A. Klein, J. R. Norris, and P. M. Caldwell, 2021:
671 Observational constraints on low cloud feedback reduce uncertainty of climate sensitivity. *Nat.*
672 *Climate Change*, **11**, 501–507, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-021-01039-0>.
- 673 Nakamura, H., T. Miyasaka, Y. Kosaka, K. Takaya, and M. Honda, 2010: Northern Hemisphere
674 extratropical tropospheric planetary waves and their low-frequency variability: Their vertical
675 structure and interaction with transient eddies and surface thermal contrasts. *Climate Dynamics: Why Does Climate Vary?*, D. Sun, and F. Bryan, Eds., *Geophys. Monogr.*, Vol. 189, Amer.
676 Geophys. Union, 149–179, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2008GM000789>.
- 678 NASA/LARC/SD/ASDC, 2019: CERES Energy Balanced and Filled (EBAF) TOA and surface
679 monthly means data in netCDF edition 4.1. NASA Langley Atmospheric Science Data Center
680 DAAC, <https://doi.org/10.5067/TERRA-AQUA/CERES/EBAF.L3B.004.1>.
- 681 Niiler, P. P., and E. B. Kraus, 1977: One-dimensional models of the upper ocean. *Modelling and*
682 *prediction of the upper layers of the ocean*, E. B. Kraus, Ed., Pergamon Press, 143–172.
- 683 Norris, J. R., and C. B. Leovy, 1994: Interannual variability in stratiform cloudiness and sea sur-
684 face temperature. *J. Climate*, **7**, 1915–1925, [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442\(1994\)007<1915:](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442(1994)007<1915:IVISCA>2.0.CO;2)
685 [IVISCA>2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442(1994)007<1915:IVISCA>2.0.CO;2).
- 686 Qu, X., A. Hall, S. A. Klein, and P. M. Caldwell, 2014: On the spread of changes in marine low
687 cloud cover in climate model simulations of the 21st century. *Climate Dyn.*, **42**, 2603–2626,
688 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-013-1945-z>.
- 689 Reynolds, R. W., N. A. Rayner, T. M. Smith, D. C. Stokes, and W. Wang, 2002: An improved in
690 situ and satellite SST analysis for climate. *J. Climate*, **15**, 1609–1625, [https://doi.org/10.1175/](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442(2002)015<1609:AIISAS>2.0.CO;2)
691 [1520-0442\(2002\)015<1609:AIISAS>2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442(2002)015<1609:AIISAS>2.0.CO;2).

- 692 Rodwell, M. J., and B. J. Hoskins, 2001: Subtropical anticyclones and summer monsoons. *J.*
693 *Climate*, **14**, 3192–3211, [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442\(2001\)014<3192:SAASM>2.0.CO;](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442(2001)014<3192:SAASM>2.0.CO;2)
694 2.
- 695 Schneider, T., C. M. Kaul, and K. G. Pressel, 2019: Possible climate transitions from breakup
696 of stratocumulus decks under greenhouse warming. *Nat. Geosci.*, **12**, 163–167, [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41561-019-0310-1)
697 10.1038/s41561-019-0310-1.
- 698 Seager, R., R. Murtugudde, N. Naik, A. Clement, N. Gordon, and J. Miller, 2003: Air-sea
699 interaction and the seasonal cycle of the subtropical anticyclones. *J. Climate*, **16**, 1948–1966,
700 [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442\(2003\)016<1948:AIATSC>2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442(2003)016<1948:AIATSC>2.0.CO;2).
- 701 Seo, H., and Coauthors, 2023: Ocean mesoscale and frontal-scale ocean–atmosphere interactions
702 and influence on large-scale climate: A review. *J. Climate*, **36**, 1981–2013, [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-21-0982.1)
703 10.1175/JCLI-D-21-0982.1.
- 704 Stevens, B., S. Bony, and M. J. Webb, 2012: Clouds On-Off Klimate Intercomparison Experiment
705 (COOKIE). [Available online at <http://hdl.handle.net/11858/00-001M-0000-0024-580A-3>], 12
706 pp.
- 707 Taguchi, B., H. Nakamura, M. Nonaka, and S.-P. Xie, 2009: Influences of the Kuroshio/Oyashio
708 Extensions on air-sea heat exchanges and storm track activity as revealed in regional atmospheric
709 model simulations for the 2003/4 cold season. *J. Climate*, **22**, 6536–6560, [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1175/2009JCLI2910.1)
710 1175/2009JCLI2910.1.
- 711 Takaya, K., and H. Nakamura, 2001: A formulation of a phase-independent wave-activity flux for
712 stationary and migratory quasigeostrophic eddies on a zonally varying basic flow. *J. Atmos. Sci.*,
713 **58**, 608–627, [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0469\(2001\)058<0608:AFOAPI>2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0469(2001)058<0608:AFOAPI>2.0.CO;2).
- 714 Tang, B., and K. Emanuel, 2012: A ventilation index for tropical cyclones. *BAMS*, **93**, 1901–1912,
715 <https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-11-00165.1>.
- 716 Tokinaga, H., Y. Tanimoto, S.-P. Xie, T. Sampe, H. Tomita, and H. Ichikawa, 2009: Ocean frontal
717 effects on the vertical development of clouds over the western North Pacific: In situ and satellite
718 observations. *J. Climate*, **22**, 4241–4260, <https://doi.org/10.1175/2009JCLI2763.1>.

- 719 Voigt, A., N. Albern, P. Ceppi, K. Grise, Y. Li, and B. Medeiros, 2021: Clouds, radiation, and
720 atmospheric circulation in the present-day climate and under climate change. *WIREs Clim.*
721 *Change*, **12**, e694, <https://doi.org/10.1002/wcc.694>.
- 722 Wittenberg, A. T., A. Rosati, N.-C. Lau, and J. J. Ploshay, 2006: GFDL's CM2 global cou-
723 pled climate models. Part III: Tropical Pacific climate and ENSO. *J. Climate*, **19**, 698–721,
724 <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI3631.1>.
- 725 Wood, R., and C. S. Bretherton, 2006: On the relationship between stratiform low cloud cover and
726 lower-tropospheric stability. *J. Climate*, **19**, 6425–6432, <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI3988.1>.
- 727 Xie, S.-P., 2023: Subtropical climate: Trade winds and low clouds. *Coupled Atmosphere-Ocean*
728 *Dynamics: from El Nino to Climate Change*, Elsevier Science.
- 729 Xie, S.-P., and S. G. H. Philander, 1994: A coupled ocean-atmosphere model of relevance to the
730 ITCZ in the eastern pacific. *Tellus*, **46A**, 340–350, <https://doi.org/10.3402/tellusa.v46i4.15484>.
- 731 Xie, S.-P., and Coauthors, 2007: A regional ocean-atmosphere model for eastern Pacific climate:
732 Toward reducing tropical biases. *J. Climate*, **20**, 1504–1522, <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI4080>.
733 1.
- 734 Yang, L., S.-P. Xie, S. S. P. Shen, J.-W. Liu, and Y.-T. Hwang, 2023: Low cloud-SST feedback
735 over the subtropical Northeast Pacific and the remote effect on ENSO variability. *J. Climate*, **36**,
736 441–452, <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-21-0902.1>.
- 737 Zelinka, M. D., T. A. Myers, D. T. McCoy, S. Po-Chedley, P. M. Caldwell, and P. Ceppi, 2020:
738 Causes of higher climate sensitivity in CMIP6 models. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **47**, e2019GL085782,
739 <https://doi.org/10.1002/2015GL067416>.

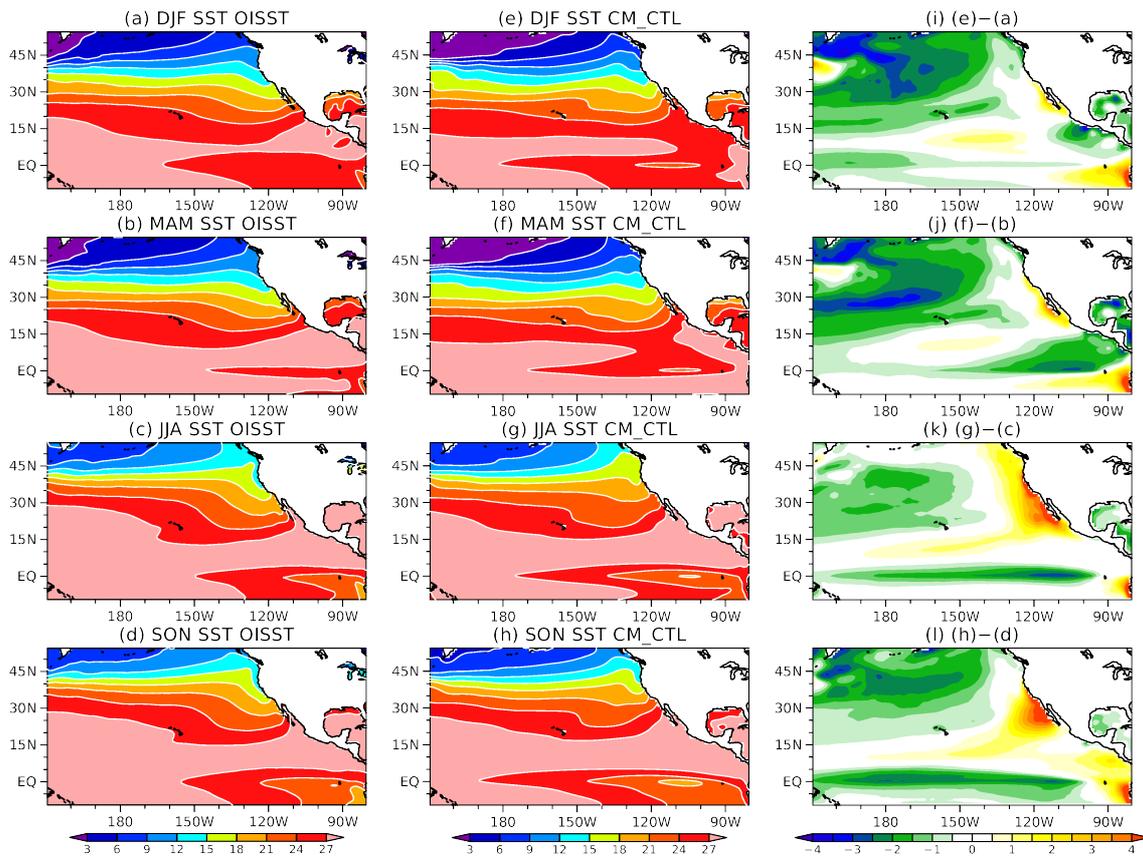


Fig. S1: (a)-(d) Climatological distribution of SST ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) in OISST. The coloring convention is indicated at the bottom of (d). (e)-(h) Same as in (a)-(d), respectively, but for CM_CTL. (i)-(l) Same as in (a)-(d), respectively, but for the model bias defined as $\text{CM_CTL} - \text{OISST}$.

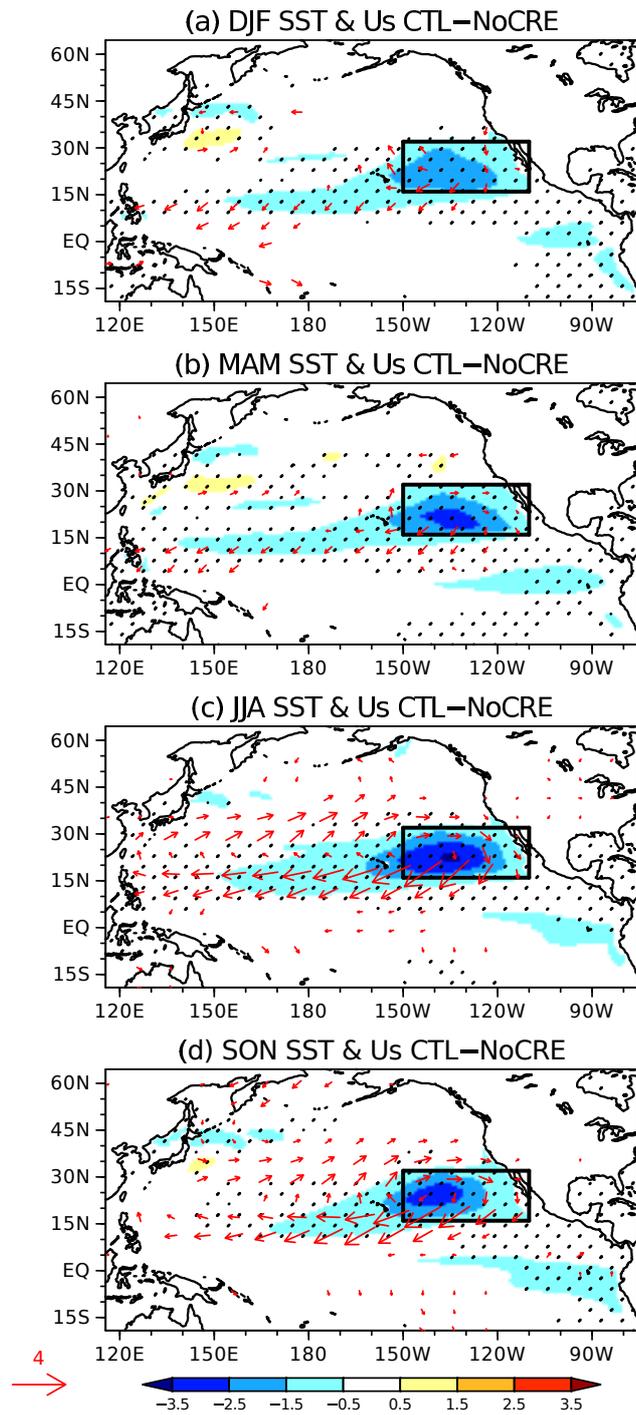


Fig. S2: Response to CRE in the NEP box, represented as the difference defined as $CM_CTL - CM_NoCRE$. SST ($^{\circ}C$; color shaded as indicated at the bottom) and surface winds ($m\ s^{-1}$; red arrows with reference on the left) in (a) DJF, (b) MAM, (c) JJA, and (d) SON. Stippling indicates the 99% confidence for the SST difference. Black box denotes the NEP box, where low clouds are made transparent in CM_NoCRE .

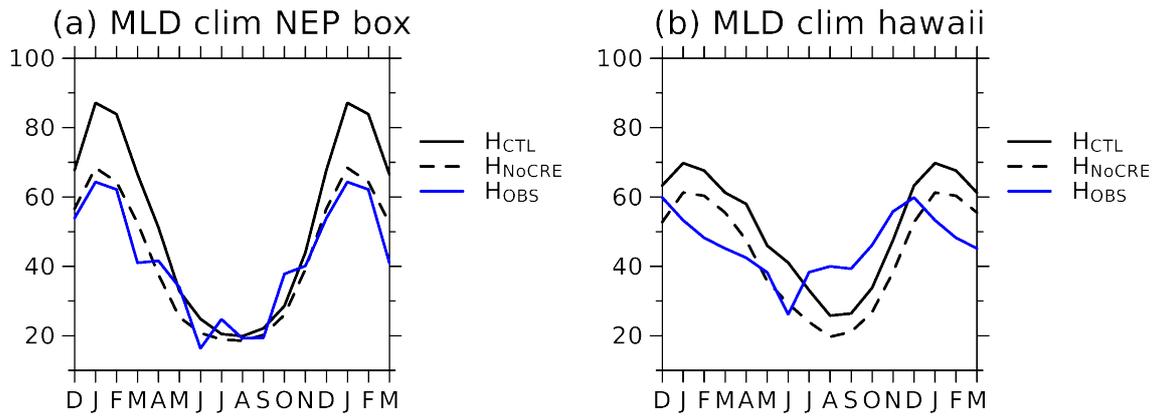


Fig. S3: As in Fig. 6b and 7b, respectively, but with observed MLD (m; blue line) based on the Mixed Layer Dataset of Argo, Grid Point Value (MILA-GPV; Hosoda et al. 2010) for the 2001–18 period. The horizontal resolution of MILA-GPV is 1° in both longitude and latitude. The MLD is defined as a depth at which potential density difference is 0.03 kg m^{-3} relative to the surface. This difference corresponds to buoyancy difference of 0.00029 m s^{-2} with typical seawater density (1026 kg m^{-3}) and the acceleration of gravity (9.8 m s^{-2}), which is close to the definition of MLD employed in our AOGCM (buoyancy difference of 0.0003 m s^{-2}).

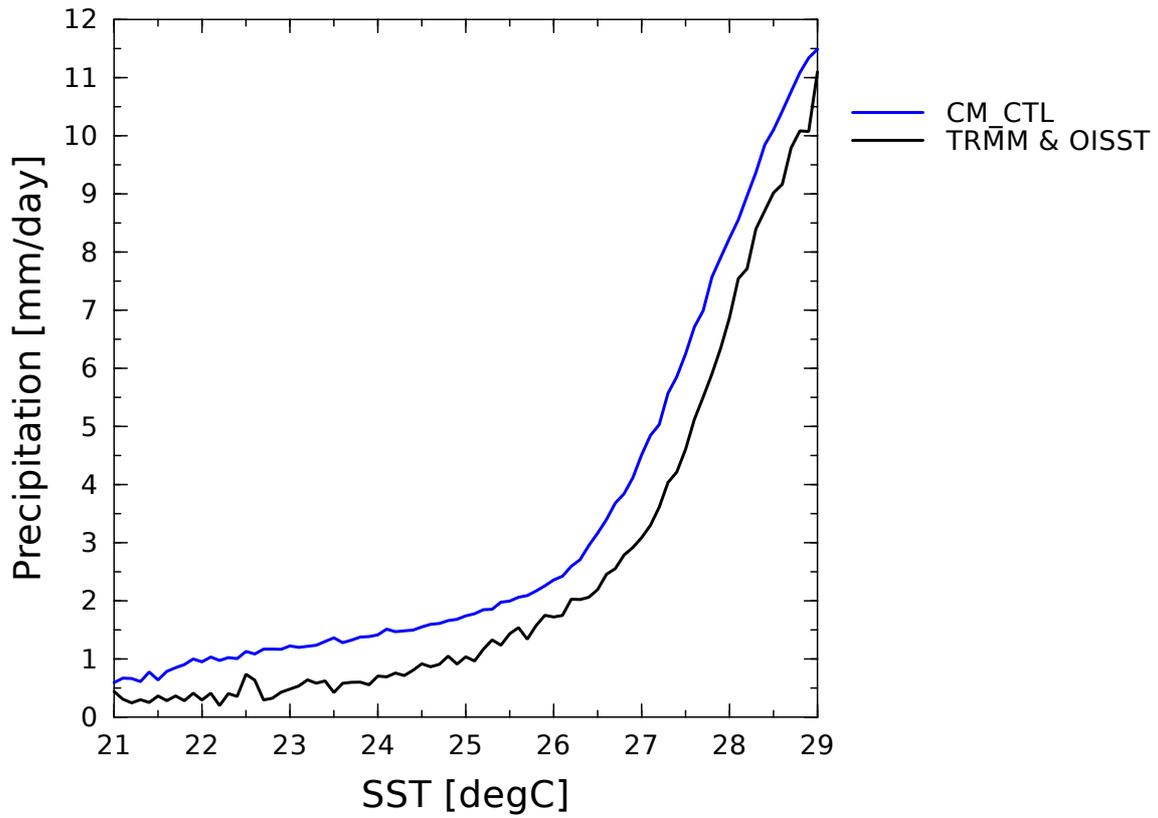


Fig. S4: Dependence of grid-mean monthly precipitation (mm day^{-1} , ordinate) on underlying SST (0.1°C bin interval, abscissa) in the northeastern Pacific (5°N - 20°N , 180° - 110°W). Blue and black lines indicate the dependence derived from CM_CTL and observations based on monthly-mean Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (TRMM) 3B42 precipitation (Huffman et al. 2007) and OISST in the 1998-2014 period, respectively. Here, all the data are regridded onto a 2.5° grid.

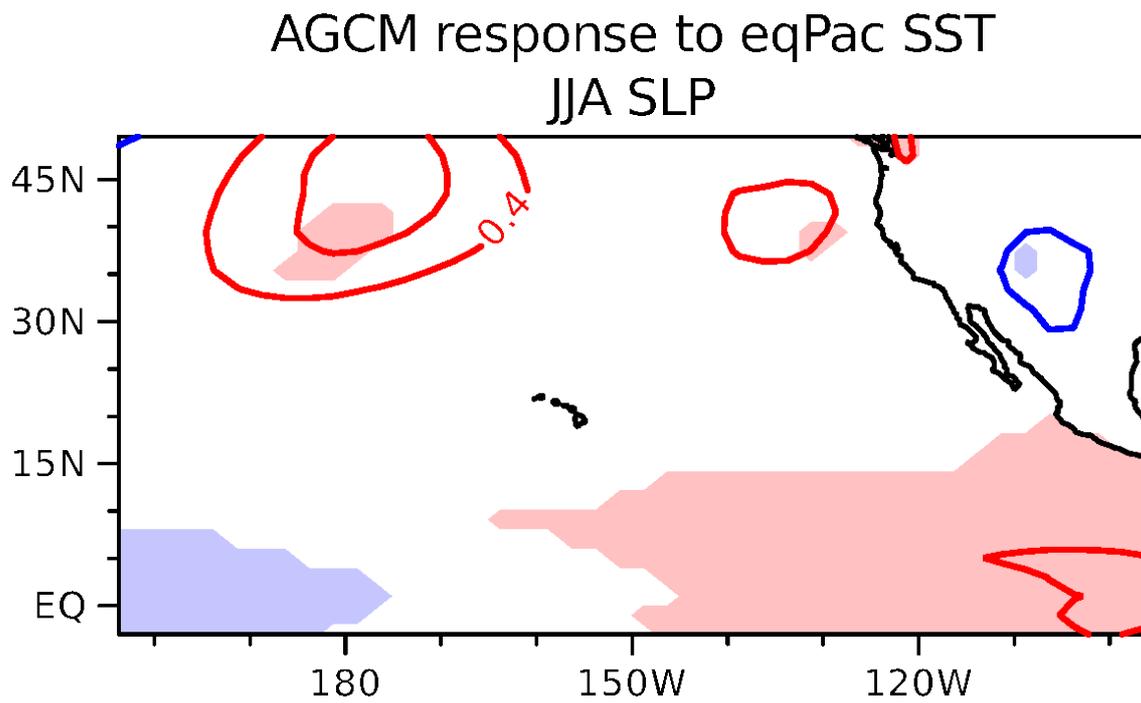


Fig. S5: As in Fig. 9a, but for SST effect in the equatorial Pacific. Like Fig. 9a (AM_CTL-AM_NEPsst), this figure is based on AM_CTL and an AM2.1 experiment, in which SST anomalies are prescribed only in the equatorial Pacific (10°S-10°N).

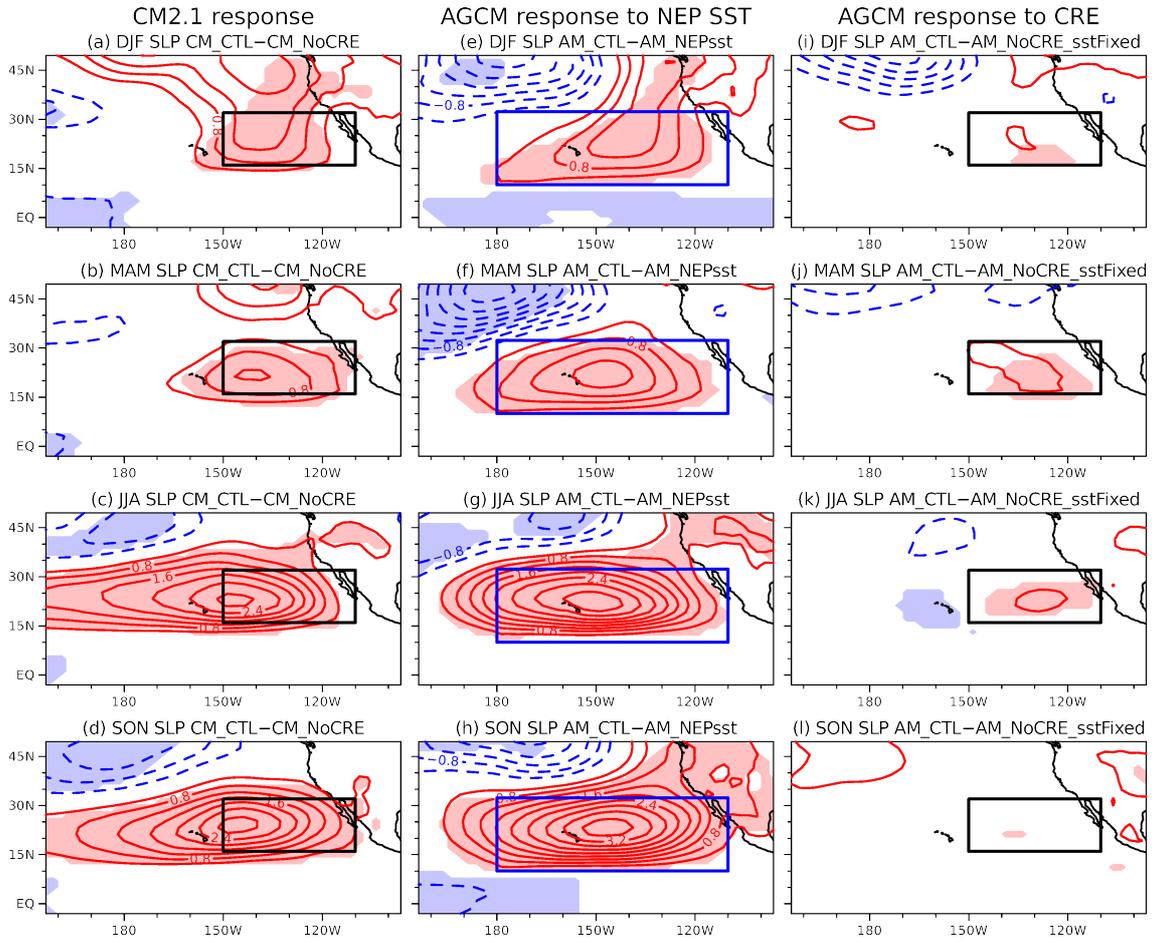


Fig. S6: (a)-(d) SLP response (hPa; color shaded as indicated at the bottom) to CRE in the NEP box, represented by the difference defined as CM_CTL-CM_NoCRE, in (a) DJF, (b) MAM, (c) JJA, and (d) SON. (e)-(h) As in (a)-(d), respectively, but for atmospheric response to anomalous SST over the NEP (AM_CTL-AM_NEPsst). (i)-(l) As in (a)-(d), but for atmospheric response to CRE without SST change (AM_CTL-AM_NoCRE_sstFixed). Color shading indicates the 99% confidence for the difference. Black box in (a)-(d) and (i)-(l) denotes the NEP box, where low clouds are made transparent in CM_NoCRE and AM_NoCRE_sstFixed, whereas blue box in (e)-(h) denotes the domain where SST anomalies are prescribed in AM_NEPsst.

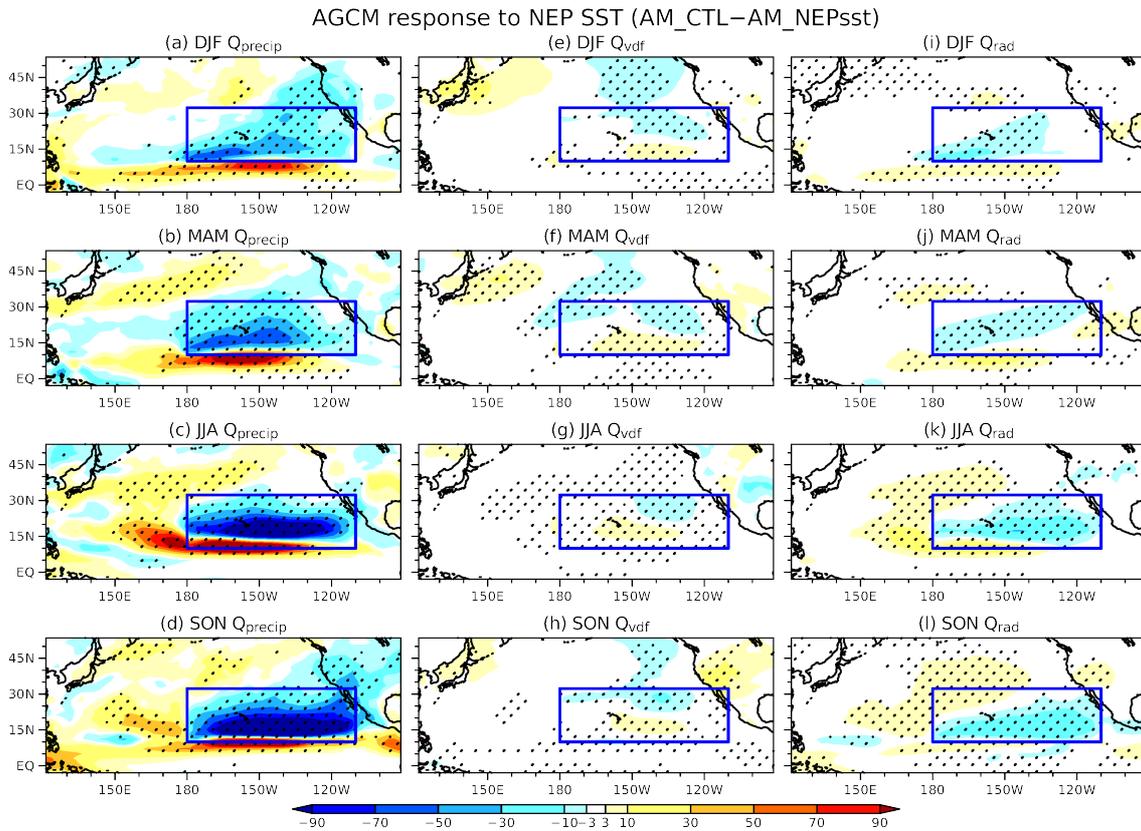


Fig. S7: Atmospheric response to anomalous SST over the NEP, represented by the difference defined as AM_CTL–AM_NEPsst. Vertically integrated Q_{precip} ($W m^{-2}$; color shaded as indicated at the bottom) in (a) DJF, (b) MAM, (c) JJA, and (d) SON. (e)-(h) As in (a)-(d), respectively, but for Q_{vdf} . (i)-(l) As in (a)-(d), respectively, but for Q_{rad} . Stippling indicates the 99% confidence for the difference. Blue box denotes the domain where SST anomalies are prescribed in AM_NEPsst.

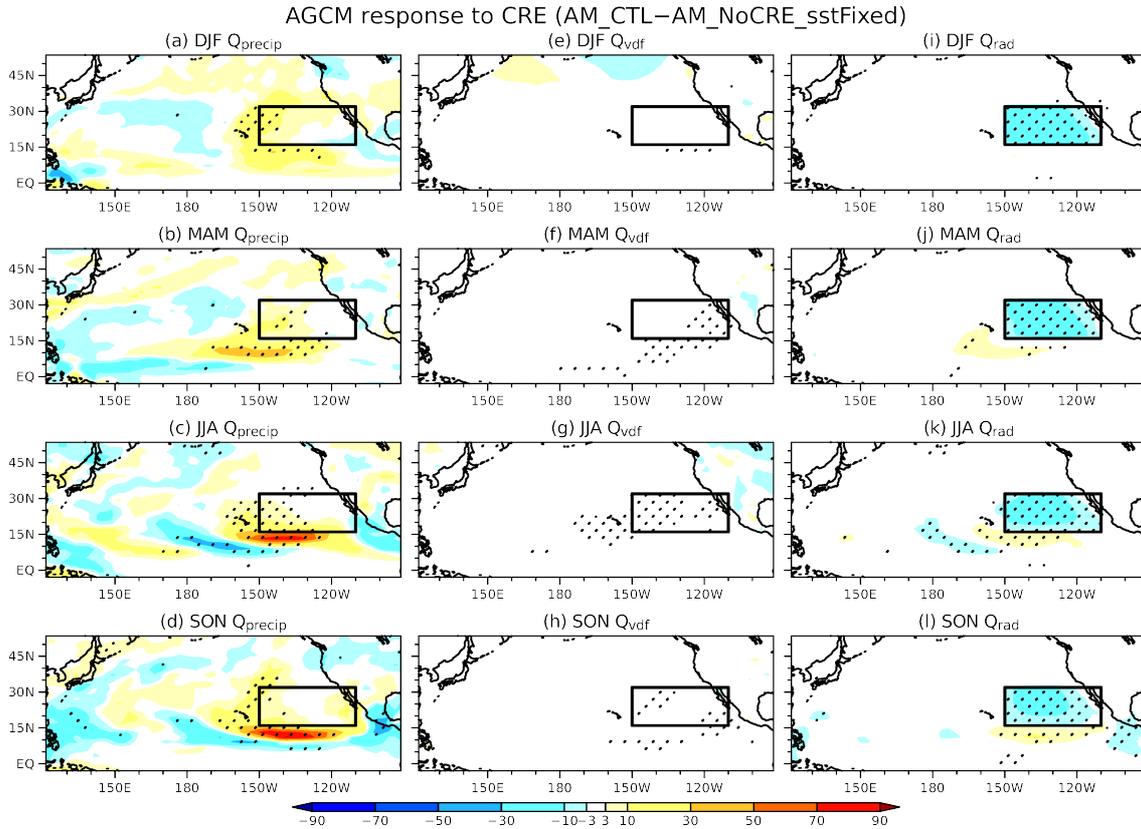


Fig. S8: Atmospheric response to CRE in the NEP box, represented by the difference defined as AM_CTL–AM_NoCRE_sstFixed. Vertically integrated Q_{precip} ($W m^{-2}$; color shaded as indicated at the bottom) in (a) DJF, (b) MAM, (c) JJA, and (d) SON. (e)-(h) As in (a)-(d), respectively, but for Q_{vdf} . (i)-(l) As in (a)-(d), respectively, but for Q_{rad} . Stippling indicates the 99% confidence for the difference. Black box denotes the NEP box, where we made low clouds transparent in AM_NoCRE_sstFixed.

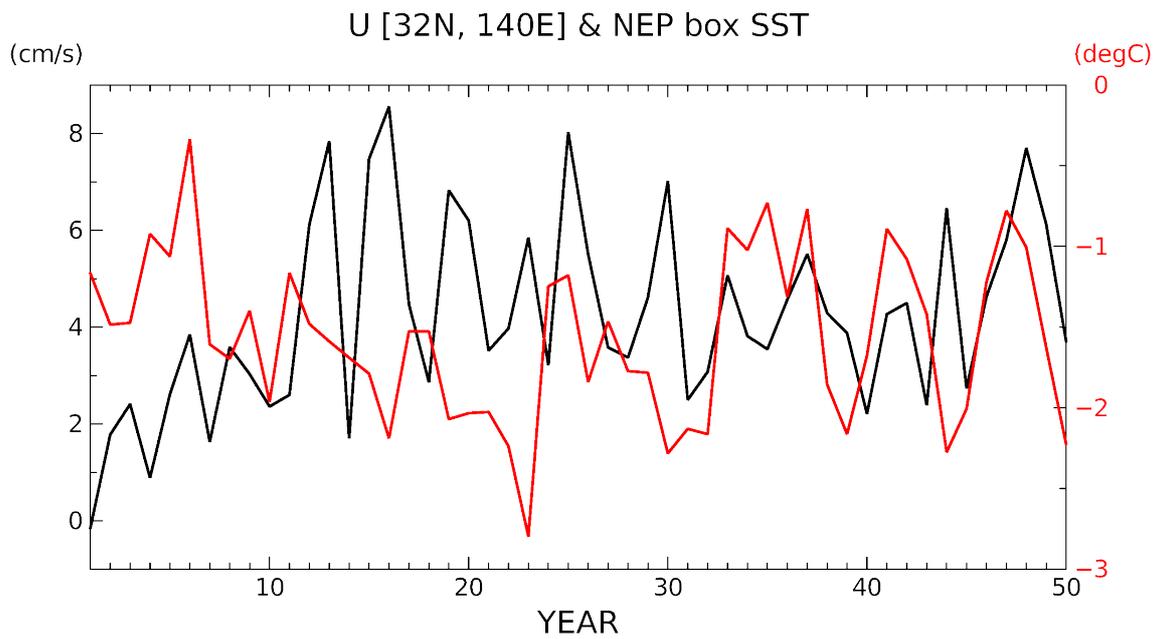


Fig. S9: Time series of annual-mean response to CRE over the NEP box after the simulations are branched off. Eastward surface current along Kuroshio [32°N, 140°E] (cm/s; black line) and SST over the NEP box (°C; red line).

References

- Hosoda, S., T. Ohira, K. Sato, and T. Suga, 2010: Improved description of global mixed-layer depth using Argo profiling floats. *J. Oceanography*. **66**, 773-787, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10872-010-0063-3>.
- Huffman, G. J., and Coauthors, 2007: The TRMM Multisatellite Precipitation Analysis (TMPA): Quasi-global, multiyear, combined-sensor precipitation estimates at fine scales. *J. Hydrometeor.*, **8**, 38–55, <https://doi.org/10.1175/JHM560.1>.