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# Cloud Responses to Abrupt Solar and CO<sub>2</sub> Forcing Part I: Temperature Mediated Cloud Feedbacks

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## Key Points:

- The temperature mediated cloud changes and feedbacks incurred by changes in solar and CO<sub>2</sub> forcing are similar.
- Optical depth changes at high latitudes produce substantial differences in cloud feedbacks in cooling and warming experiments.
- Likewise, tropical circulations respond differently in models to cooling and warming, with a stronger change in the Walker circulation in warming experiments.

## 19 **Abstract**

20 The third phase of the Cloud Feedback Model Intercomparison Project requested that modeling  
21 centers perform a pair of simulations where the climate system is subjected to an abrupt change  
22 of the solar constant by +/- 4%. The forcing is designed to loosely match the amount of radiative  
23 forcing incurred by quadrupling atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Using these simulations, we  
24 examine how clouds respond to changes in solar forcing and act as a feedback on global surface  
25 temperature. Specifically, in this paper, we study the temperature mediated cloud changes that  
26 occur following an abrupt increase and decrease of the solar constant and compare with  
27 temperature mediated cloud changes that occur following quadrupling and halving of CO<sub>2</sub>. We  
28 seek to answer two primary questions: 1) How do cloud feedbacks differ in response to abrupt  
29 changes in CO<sub>2</sub> and solar forcing? And 2) Are there symmetrical (equal and opposite) cloud  
30 feedbacks to an increase and a decrease in solar forcing?

31 We find that temperature mediated cloud changes are similar from increasing solar and CO<sub>2</sub>  
32 forcing, with the only robust difference being that there is a larger reduction of low cloud amount  
33 following solar forcing; and we find that cloud responses to warming and cooling are not  
34 symmetric, due primarily to non-linearity introduced by phase changes in mid-to-high latitude  
35 low clouds, and sea ice loss/formation.

36

## 37 **Plain Language Summary**

38 As the global mean temperature changes, there are changes in cloud amount, location, and  
39 thickness, which can all impact the radiative balance of the Earth. Cloud changes driven directly  
40 by global temperature change are called temperature mediated cloud feedbacks. In this paper we  
41 study the temperature mediated cloud feedbacks that occur in model simulations where the  
42 amount of sunlight incident upon the Earth is increased or decreased abruptly, and then held  
43 constant for 150 years. We compare the cloud changes in these experiments with experiments  
44 where the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is similarly increased or decreased abruptly and held constant for  
45 150 years. In doing so we find that the temperature mediated cloud feedbacks following abrupt  
46 changes in solar radiation are characteristically similar to those occurring following CO<sub>2</sub>  
47 increase. There are however substantial differences in the temperature mediated cloud feedbacks  
48 that occur while the climate is warming vs cooling.

49

## 50 **1. Introduction**

51

52 As the climate warms due to the radiative forcing created by increasing CO<sub>2</sub> and other  
53 heat trapping gasses, one anticipates that many aspects of the climate system will experience  
54 change. Some of these changes will further impact the Earth radiation balance, creating feedback  
55 loops. Radiative feedbacks related to changes in cloud properties and cloud amount have been  
56 identified as the largest source of uncertainty (spread) in projections of future climate (e.g.  
57 Sherwood et al., 2020; Zelinka et al., 2020). To better understand cloud responses to forcing, in

58 this paper we examine cloud feedbacks which occur following an abrupt increase and decrease in  
59 solar radiation and contrast these solar-driven changes with those caused by abrupt changes in  
60 CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in several climate models. We do this because (as will be shown) both  
61 differences and similarities in the responses between these two types of forcing provides insight  
62 into the mechanisms that drive the changes, and in doing so we hope to better pinpoint the  
63 expected cloud changes that will occur in response to ongoing changes in actual emissions of  
64 heat trapping gasses.

65 Radiative feedbacks (including cloud feedbacks) are often quantified in climate model  
66 simulations by the relationship between the top-of-atmosphere radiative flux and global-mean  
67 surface temperature change (compared to a simulation of the pre-industrial climate), and this  
68 relationship is often approximated as a linear response (Gregory et al., 2004). The linear model  
69 separates the total change into a temperature mediated change (the cloud change per degree of  
70 global mean temperature anomaly) and an adjustment that occurs directly due to the forcing  
71 agent (in our case from changes in insolation or atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration). In this paper  
72 we focus on the temperature mediated component of the cloud response to solar and CO<sub>2</sub> forcing,  
73 while in a companion paper (Part II, Aeronson et al., 2023), we focus on the cloud adjustments.

74 Often the temperature mediated changes in top-of-atmosphere radiative flux are simply  
75 called radiative feedbacks, or when they are due to clouds, simply cloud feedbacks. Cloud  
76 feedbacks constitute the largest source of uncertainty in projections of future climate. Naturally,  
77 cloud feedbacks that occur from CO<sub>2</sub> increase have become a widely studied topic. (e.g.  
78 Andrews & Ringer, 2014; Dufresne & Bony, 2008; Sherwood et al., 2020; Taylor et al., 2007;  
79 Zelinka et al., 2020). Here, we analyze cloud feedbacks in model simulations produced as a part  
80 of the third phase of the Cloud Feedback Model Intercomparison Project (CFMIP3; Webb et al.,  
81 2017) which is a part of the sixth phase of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP6).  
82 Specifically, in CFMIP3 a pair of model simulations were performed in fully coupled climate  
83 models initialized from the pre-industrial climate, and then perturbed by suddenly increasing or  
84 decreasing the insolation by 4% (hereafter solp4p and solm4p respectively). We compare and  
85 contrast these two abrupt-solar experiments with simulations in which there is an abrupt  
86 quadrupling of the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (hereafter 4xCO<sub>2</sub>) and halving of CO<sub>2</sub> (hereafter  
87 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub>) that were also produced as a part of the CMIP6 experiments (Eyring et al., 2016). An  
88 increase of the solar constant by 4% is designed to (loosely) match the radiative forcing of a  
89 quadrupling of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, and as we will see, the experiments do produce a similar  
90 change in the mean global temperature. In contrast, a reduction of solar constant by 4% does not  
91 match closely with the radiative forcing from 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub>, and again, as we will see, there are  
92 differences in the feedbacks between the solm4p and 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> related to the amplitude of the  
93 forcing.

94 Through this analysis, we seek to answer two primary questions: 1) How do cloud  
95 feedbacks differ in response to abrupt changes in CO<sub>2</sub> and solar forcing? And 2) Are there  
96 symmetrical (equal and opposite) cloud feedbacks to an increase and a decrease of radiative

97 forcing? Additionally, we aim to examine the physical mechanisms responsible for the  
98 temperature mediated cloud changes in the four model experiments.

99 For obvious reasons, cloud feedbacks resulting from CO<sub>2</sub> increase have been more  
100 widely studied than those from solar forcing (e.g. Andrews & Ringer, 2014; Dufresne & Bony,  
101 2008; Sherwood et al., 2020; Taylor et al., 2007; Zelinka et al., 2020). Recently, Kaur et al.  
102 (2023) performed coupled model experiments of an abrupt doubling of CO<sub>2</sub> and a 2% increase of  
103 the solar constant with a single model. They found differences in the temperature mediated  
104 feedbacks caused by the differences in geographic distributions of each forcing. CO<sub>2</sub> increase has  
105 an instantaneous radiative forcing that is homogeneously distributed across the globe and is  
106 equal during all seasons. Solar forcing differs in that it is strongest in regions with more incident  
107 sunlight, so the forcing is greatest in the tropics and during the summer season. This causes a  
108 difference in the warming patterns from solar and CO<sub>2</sub> forcing, where the tropics are warmer,  
109 and the poles are cooler following a 2% increase in solar forcing compared with a doubling of  
110 CO<sub>2</sub>. They also find differences in the cloud feedbacks in their experiments, such as finding  
111 greater decrease of high cloud and lesser decrease in low clouds in the solar forcing experiment  
112 than CO<sub>2</sub>. However, this study was based on the output of a single climate model, and cloud  
113 feedbacks have notoriously large inter-model spread (Sherwood et al., 2020; Soden & Held,  
114 2006; Zelinka et al., 2020), as such, our study expands upon this analysis by focusing more  
115 narrowly on the cloud changes (and their causes) from solar and CO<sub>2</sub> forcing in several models.

116 Comparing solar and CO<sub>2</sub> forcing is also relevant for understanding how we expect the  
117 climate to respond to aerosol forcing, as both changing the solar constant and aerosol forcing  
118 change the downwelling shortwave radiation. Salvi et al. (2022) used model simulations forced  
119 with historical greenhouse gas, and historical aerosol forcing separately to compare the  
120 contributions of longwave (greenhouse gas) and shortwave (aerosol) forcing in model  
121 simulations of the historical climate record. In doing so, they found that historical aerosol forcing  
122 (which is most concentrated in the midlatitudes) has a greater impact on low clouds than CO<sub>2</sub>  
123 forcing (which is globally uniform). They also find that the different geographic distributions of  
124 forcing is the most important determinant of cloud feedbacks from historical aerosol and  
125 greenhouse gas emissions. Hence, the results of Salvi et al. (2022) suggests that in our  
126 comparison of solar and CO<sub>2</sub> forcing, we should expect a greater change in midlatitude low  
127 clouds from CO<sub>2</sub> forcing (which is globally uniform), than solar forcing (which is greatest in the  
128 tropics).

129 A broadly similar result was found by Rose et al. (2014), who used climate model  
130 simulations forced by ocean heat uptake in the tropics and midlatitudes (as well as 4xCO<sub>2</sub>) to  
131 determine how the location of forcing impacts climate feedbacks. They found that forcing  
132 applied in the extratropics yields more positive cloud feedbacks than globally uniform forcing,  
133 and globally uniform forcing yields more positive cloud feedbacks than forcing applied to the  
134 tropics. This emphasizes the result that cloud feedbacks are more positive when the forcing is  
135 concentrated in the extratropics, which suggests that we should expect more positive feedbacks

136 from 4xCO<sub>2</sub> than solp4p. However, as we will see, this is opposite of what we find in Section  
137 3.2.

138 The second question, on the differences between cooling and warming the climate has  
139 received far less attention than characterizing the effects of warming the climate, and  
140 understanding the climate's response to abrupt negative forcing is an essential step to  
141 understanding more realistic forcing that acts to cool the climate, such as volcanic aerosol  
142 forcing, and various methods of geoengineering that aim to reduce the amount of sunlight  
143 absorbed by the Earth through techniques such as stratospheric aerosol injection or marine cloud  
144 brightening (e.g. Hulme, 2012; Keith et al., 2016; Niemeier et al., 2013; Shepard et al., 2009).

145 Chalmers et al., (2022) studied the climate's response to abruptly increasing and  
146 decreasing CO<sub>2</sub> and performed additional cloud-locking experiments to isolate the effects of the  
147 cloud changes from the non-cloud climate changes. They found that patterns in Tropical Pacific  
148 sea-surface temperature changes differ notably between increasing and decreasing CO<sub>2</sub> (warming  
149 and cooling) experiments, and have a large impact on atmospheric circulation, and  
150 teleconnections across the globe. They also found that disabling cloud feedbacks vastly reduces  
151 the pattern difference between warming and cooling (meaning that cloud feedbacks play an  
152 important role in changing the global temperature pattern). Additionally, they found significant  
153 differences in the high latitude oceans, where there is liquification and glaciation of mixed-phase  
154 clouds from warming and cooling respectively occurring at different latitudes, as well as sea-ice  
155 reduction and growth in the warming and cooling occurring at different latitudes which is  
156 likewise amplified by cloud feedbacks.

157 For the temperature mediated response to cooling and warming to be symmetrical (equal  
158 and opposite) then it would be the case that the same linear model is effective for cloud changes  
159 over the range of climate states from a 4% reduction of the solar constant to a 4% increase of the  
160 solar constant. Studies by both Bloch-Johnson et al. (2021) and Zhu & Poulsen (2020) on the  
161 linearity of feedbacks find that cloud feedbacks change depending on the amount of abrupt  
162 forcing due to the mixed-phase cloud feedback and sea-ice-related feedbacks because both of  
163 these feedbacks occur at different latitudes depending on the global mean temperature change  
164 (Bloch-Johnson et al., 2021). Zhu & Poulsen (2020) also identified a nonlinear change in  
165 shortwave cloud feedbacks at low latitudes, due to the nonlinear change in the moisture gradient  
166 between the boundary layer and free troposphere that enhances low cloud thinning through dry  
167 air entrainment from the free troposphere. As such, we anticipate that the temperature mediated  
168 cloud changes may differ from cooling and warming, especially in regions where there are  
169 changes in sea-ice, mixed-phase clouds, and low-latitude low clouds.

170 This paper is organized as follows, the model output and method for calculating the  
171 temperature mediated cloud changes and the associated radiative effect are summarized in  
172 Section 2. Results are presented in Section 3 and are split into six subsections. The first  
173 subsection examines the cloud responses in the solp4p, 4xCO<sub>2</sub>, solm4p, and 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub>  
174 experiments. The second subsection examines the radiative effect of the cloud changes, and the  
175 remaining four subsections are dedicated to exploring the physical mechanisms responsible for

176 the cloud changes. This is followed by additional discussion and conclusions in Sections 4 and 5  
 177 respectively.

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179

## 180 **2. Data and Methods**

181

### 182 2.1 Methods and Theory

183 When an abrupt forcing is imposed on the climate, the cloud changes are often  
 184 decomposed into two components: those driven by changes in global mean surface temperature  
 185 (which are called temperature mediated change) and those that are independent of the global  
 186 mean surface temperature (which are called the adjustments), as described by Equation 1, where  
 187  $C(\theta, \phi, t)$  represents the cloud amount anomaly at a given latitude, longitude, and time in the  
 188 simulation,  $A(\theta, \phi)$  is the adjustment to the forcing change at a certain latitude and longitude,  
 189  $\Delta T(t)$  is the global mean surface temperature anomaly at a given time,  $M(\theta, \phi, T(t))\Delta T(t)$  is  
 190 the temperature mediated component of the cloud anomaly, and  $\varepsilon$  represents internal variability  
 191 which causes cloud changes which are due to neither the global mean temperature change or  
 192 adjustments. In this paper, we are concerned with calculating the adjustment term  $A(\theta, \phi)$ .

193

$$C(\theta, \phi, t) = A(\theta, \phi) + M(\theta, \phi, T(t))\Delta T(t) + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

194

195 Often the temperature mediated changes are approximated by a linear relationship to  
 196 global mean surface temperature, such that  $M$  is a constant in temperature (and time)  
 197  $M(\theta, \phi, T(t)) \approx M(\theta, \phi)$  following the framework of Gregory et al. (2004). The temperature  
 198 mediated component of cloud changes ( $M(\theta, \phi)$ ) is calculated via a least-squares linear  
 199 regression of annual mean changes in cloud amount (often for a specific cloud type or category,  
 200 and at a specific location or globally averaged) onto the annual and global mean surface  
 201 temperature anomaly, using years 10 to 150 following the abrupt forcing. The first 9 years are  
 202 excluded because shortly following the forcing the linear model does not fit well to the simulated  
 203 data due to a combination of the internal variability, and the inherently non-linear nature of the  
 204 climate's response to abrupt forcing (e.g. Andrews & Ringer, 2014; Armour et al., 2013;  
 205 Williams et al., 2008). By using 140-year regressions and excluding the first 9 years of  
 206 simulation we expect that internal variability has little contribution to the temperature mediated  
 207 cloud changes we calculate. As such Equation 1 is simply reduced to a linear model where cloud  
 208 changes depend on the adjustment to forcing ( $A$ ), surface temperature change ( $\Delta T$ ), and the  
 209 temperature mediated term ( $M$ ).

210

$$C(\theta, \phi, t) = A(\theta, \phi) + M(\theta, \phi)\Delta T(t) \quad (2)$$

211

212 In this paper, we focus on the temperature mediated term calculated following abrupt solar and  
 213 CO<sub>2</sub> forcing, as well as the temperature mediated response to warming and cooling. In Part II, we  
 214 focus on the cloud adjustments to solar and CO<sub>2</sub> forcing.

215 To perform a comparison of cloud changes across models this study also makes extensive  
 216 use of the International Satellite Cloud Climatology Project (ISCCP) satellite simulator  
 217 embedded into the climate models. Specifically, the ISCCP simulator produces cloud-top-  
 218 pressure (CTP) and optical depth joint histograms of cloud occurrence that are directly  
 219 comparable across models, and consistent with the radiation scheme within each model (Bodas-  
 220 Salcedo et al., 2011).

221 Zelinka et al. (2012a) have created cloud radiative kernels to compute longwave  
 222 (hereafter LW) and shortwave (hereafter SW) fluxes from the ISCCP histograms. Using the  
 223 radiative kernels, Zelinka et al. (2013) have examined cloud adjustments and temperature  
 224 mediated responses to 4xCO<sub>2</sub> simulations from a collection of CMIP5 models. The findings  
 225 from Zelinka et al. (2013) include a temperature mediated increase in cloud-top-height for high-  
 226 altitude clouds at nearly all locations that leads to a strong LW temperature mediated feedback,  
 227 decrease in low-altitude clouds equatorward of 60° latitude causing a positive SW feedback, and  
 228 thickening of high latitude low-altitude cloud optical depth leading to negative SW cloud  
 229 feedback. Here we undertake a similar analysis but applied to the solar forcing experiments in  
 230 addition to the 4xCO<sub>2</sub> and 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> experiments performed by the current generation of climate  
 231 models used in CMIP6. In order to understand the radiative impact that temperature mediated  
 232 changes of cloud cover fraction (CF), cloud-top-pressure (CTP), and cloud optical depth ( $\tau$ ) have  
 233 on top-of-atmosphere radiation balance (feedbacks), we perform a decomposition of the kernel-  
 234 derived radiative effect into the radiative anomalies caused by each type of cloud change (as well  
 235 as a small residual), following the method of Zelinka et al. (2012b & 2013).

236

## 237 2.2 Model Experiments

238 In total five modeling centers performed the solp4p experiment, and four performed the  
 239 solm4p. The models are listed in **Table 1**, along with the experiments we make use of here, and a  
 240 primary citation for each model. CESM2 did perform all the simulations, however there is no  
 241 ISCCP simulator output for the 4xCO<sub>2</sub> simulation, so CESM2 is excluded from the portion of  
 242 the analysis where the ISCCP simulator output is compared between the solar and CO<sub>2</sub> forced  
 243 experiments. All model simulation output is publicly available for download on the Earth System  
 244 Grid Federation CMIP6 database (<https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/>).

245

| Model | Simulations used  | Reference                 |
|-------|---|---------------------------|
| CESM2 | PiControl (no ISCCP simulator)<br>Abrupt-solp4p<br>Abrupt-solm4p<br>Abrupt-4xCO <sub>2</sub> (no ISCCP simulator) | Danabasoglu et al. (2020) |

|                        |   |                        |
|------------------------|---|------------------------|
|                        | Abrupt-0p5xCO2  |                        |
| <b>IPSL-CM6A-LR</b>    | PiControl<br>Abrupt-solp4p<br>Abrupt-solm4p<br>Abrupt-4xCO2<br>Abrupt-0p5xCO2 | Boucher et al. (2020)  |
| <b>CanESM5</b>         | PiControl<br>Abrupt-solp4p<br>Abrupt-solm4p<br>Abrupt-4xCO2<br>Abrupt-0p5xCO2 | Swart et al. (2019)    |
| <b>HadGEM3-GC31-LL</b> | PiControl<br>Abrupt-solp4p<br>Abrupt-4xCO2<br>Abrupt-0p5xCO2                  | Roberts et al. (2019)  |
| <b>MRI-ESM2-0</b>      | PiControl<br>Abrupt-solp4p<br>Abrupt-solm4p<br>Abrupt-4xCO2<br>Abrupt-0p5xCO2 | Yukimoto et al. (2019) |

246 **Table 1** Summary of models and data used in this analysis along with primary citations for each  
 247 model. CESM2 did not produce ISCCP simulator output from the 4xCO2 and piControl  
 248 experiments, so it is generally excluded from the analysis of cloud attributes, but the model is  
 249 used to characterize other physical responses to the forcing.

### 250 **3. Results**

251

252 In this section we present the results showing the temperature mediated cloud changes in  
 253 model simulations with solar and CO<sub>2</sub> forcing and examine the cloud radiative effect the  
 254 temperature mediated cloud changes have on top-of-atmosphere radiation using cloud radiative  
 255 kernels. In Section 4 we discuss the physical mechanisms that likely contribute to the cloud  
 256 changes, and as a prelude to that discussion we include in this section an examination of changes  
 257 in atmospheric circulations and several other atmosphere and surface variables.

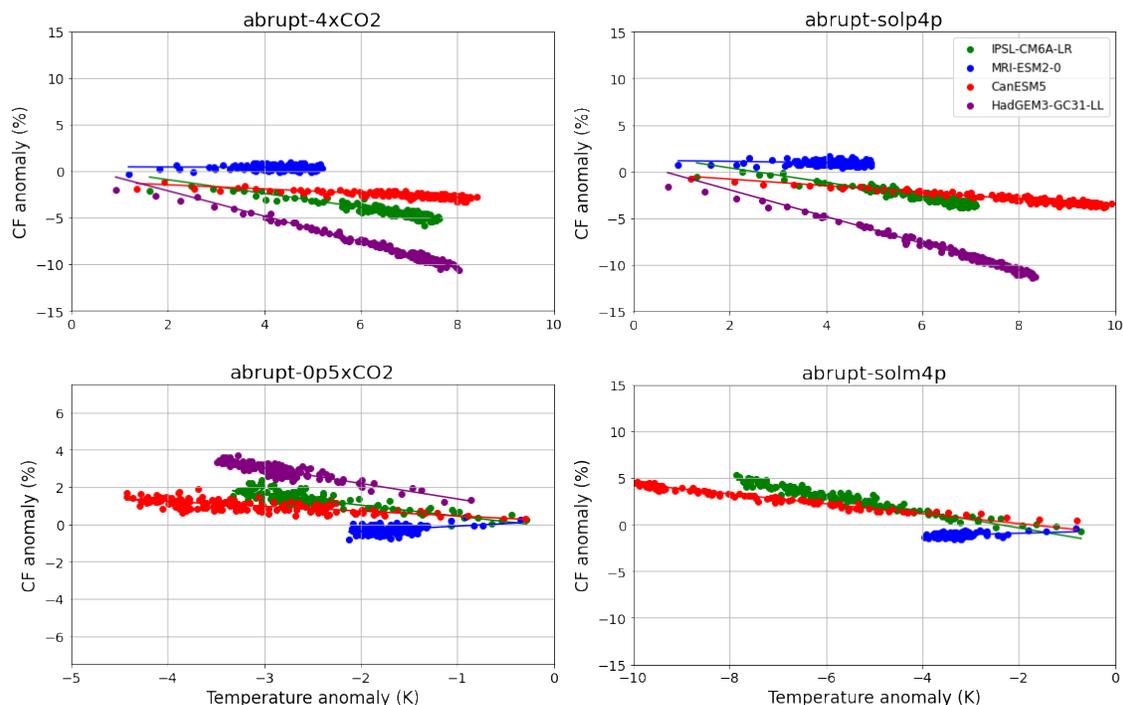
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#### 260 **3.1 Temperature Mediated Response in Cloud Properties to Solar and CO<sub>2</sub> Forcing**

261 The primary focus of this section is to examine how cloud properties respond to global  
 262 temperature change that is forced by increases and decreases of the solar constant and CO<sub>2</sub>  
 263 concentration. **Figure 1** shows the change in global total cloud amount (summed over all optical  
 264 depth and CTP bins of the ISCCP simulator) that occurs in each simulation plotted against the  
 265 global mean temperature anomaly from the simulation of the pre-industrial climate.

266



267  
 268 **Figure 1** Area weighted global mean cloud fraction anomaly (as seen by ISCCP simulator)  
 269 plotted against global mean temperature change. Note that the scale is halved for the 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub>  
 270 simulation because the temperature change is smaller than in the other experiments.

271 Colors denote the individual models. The temperature mediated change in global total  
 272 cloud amount (for each model) is given by the slope of the fitted line. In the 4xCO<sub>2</sub> and solp4p  
 273 simulations there is a reduction of cloudiness as the climate warms in all but the MRI-ESM2-0  
 274 simulations (which shows near-zero temperature mediated change). The slopes and intercepts of  
 275 each model in **Figure 1** (and the multi-model mean) are listed in **Tables 2 and 3**. While there is  
 276 substantial spread in the response of different models, the temperature mediated response for  
 277 each individual model (in the global mean) is quite similar in both the 4xCO<sub>2</sub> and solp4p  
 278 experiments. However, the solp4p temperature mediated change in cloud amount is persistently  
 279 slightly more negative than the 4xCO<sub>2</sub>.

| Model           | Total Cloud Amount Temperature Mediated Change (%/K) |                     |        |        |
|-----------------|--|---------------------|--------|--------|
|                 | 4xCO <sub>2</sub>                                    | 0p5xCO <sub>2</sub> | Solp4p | Solm4p |
| IPSL-CM6A-LR    | -0.74  | -0.59               | -0.78  | -0.88  |
| MRI-ESM2-0      | -0.02  | 0.27                | -0.06  | 0.14   |
| CanESM5         | -0.22  | -0.26               | -0.36  | -0.53  |
| HadGEM3-GC31-LL | -1.36  | -0.83               | -1.43  | N/A    |
| MM Mean         | -0.59  | -0.35               | -0.66  | -0.43  |

280 **Table 2** Temperature mediated changes of total cloud amount for each model simulation.

281

| Model                  | Total Cloud Amount Intercept (%) |         |        |        |
|------------------------|----------------------------------|---------|--------|--------|
|                        | 4xCO2                            | 0p5xCO2 | Solp4p | Solm4p |
| <b>IPSL-CM6A-LR</b>    | 0.55                             | -0.16   | 1.94   | -2.11  |
| <b>MRI-ESM2-0</b>      | 0.47                             | 0.17    | 1.21   | -0.65  |
| <b>CanESM5</b>         | -1.03                            | 0.18    | -0.10  | -0.95  |
| <b>HadGEM3-GC31-LL</b> | 0.62                             | 0.52    | 0.90   | N/A    |
| <b>MM Mean</b>         | 0.16                             | 0.18    | 0.99   | -1.24  |

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*Table 3 Intercept of linear fit to the data shown in Figure 1.*

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In the solm4p there is one fewer model than the other experiments. Yet even on a model-to-model basis, it is apparent that there are greater differences in the magnitude of the global mean temperature mediated response between cooling and warming than between solar or CO<sub>2</sub> forcing. For example, in CanESM5, the global mean temperature mediated cloud change in solm4p is more than double that of either 4xCO<sub>2</sub> or solp4p, and in MRI-ESM2, the temperature mediated cloud change is of opposite sign in solm4p and 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> from the solp4p and 4xCO<sub>2</sub> experiments. The 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> also exhibits differences from the solm4p (which may be due in part to the smaller forcing that halving CO<sub>2</sub> imposes on the climate as compared with a 4% reduction of the solar constant).

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Across all four experiments HadGEM3-GC31-LL produces the most negative temperature mediated cloud response, IPSL-CM6A-LR has the second most negative, followed by CanESM5, and MRI-ESM2-0 either has the least negative temperature mediated cloud change (in the case of solp4p and 4xCO<sub>2</sub>) or a positive temperature mediated change (in the case of solm4p and 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub>).

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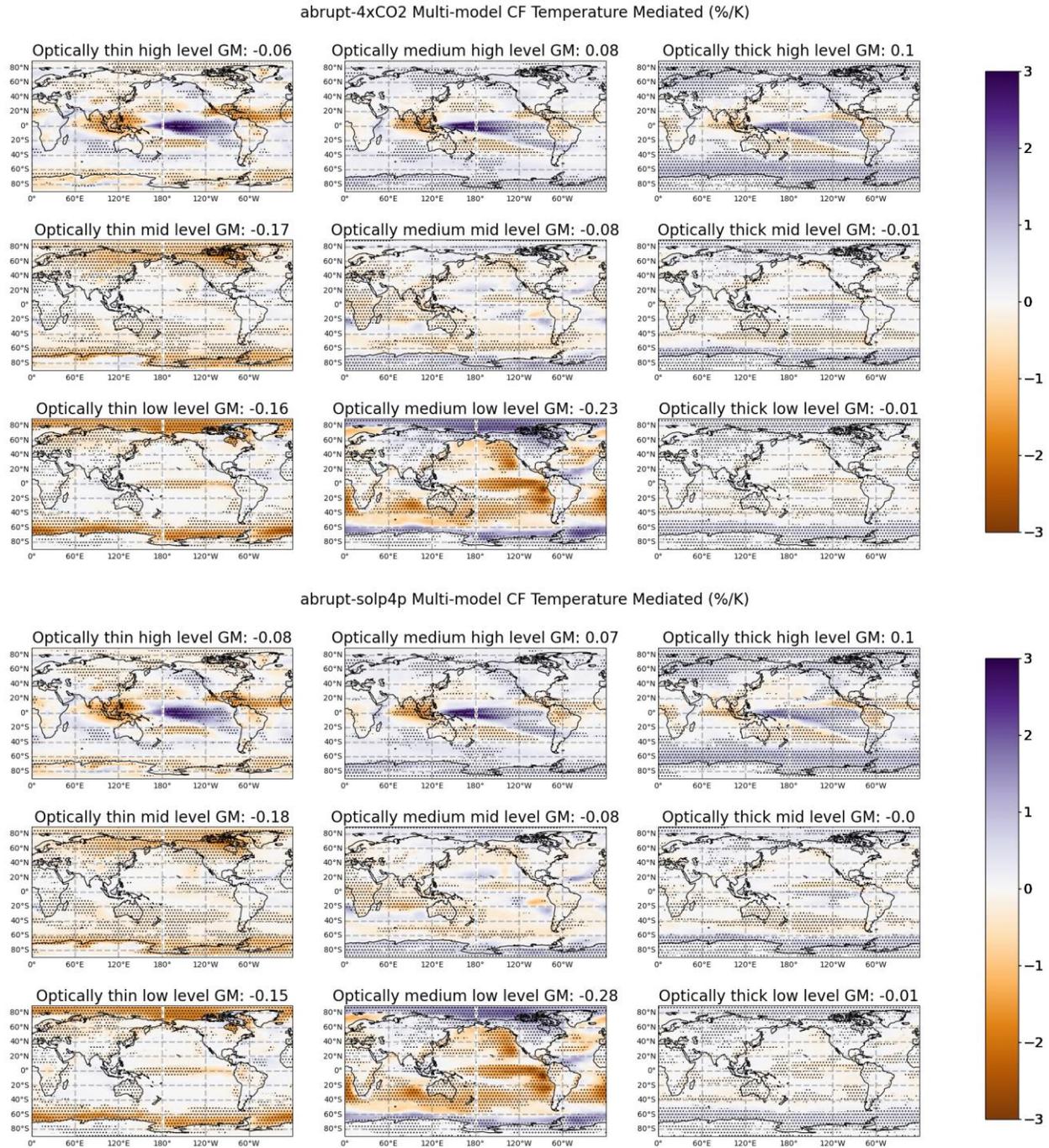
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The geographic distributions of the temperature mediated cloud responses are shown in **Figure 2** for the 4xCO<sub>2</sub> and solp4p experiments. In this figure, the temperature mediated response of cloud fraction is calculated at each grid cell, for nine pressure and optical depth categories using the ISCCP simulator. Specifically the cloud optical depth is broken into three ranges: optically thin ( $\tau \leq 3.6$ ), medium ( $3.6 < \tau \leq 23$ ), and thick ( $\tau > 23$ ) clouds, and the CTP is likewise broken into three CTP ranges: low ( $CTP \geq 680$  hPa), mid-level ( $680 \text{ hPa} > CTP \geq 440$  hPa), and high ( $CTP < 440$  hPa) cloud. The multi-model means for the 4xCO<sub>2</sub> experiment is given in the top 9 panels, and those for the solp4p experiment are given in the lower 9 panels. Stippling indicates grid cells where 3 out of the 4 models agree on the sign of the change. The data are plotted on a 1-degree grid (sampled for each model using a linear interpolation from the models' innate grid).



309  
 310 *Figure 2* Temperature mediated response of cloud from the solp4p and 4xCO2 experiments.  
 311 Colors show the % change in cloud amount in each category per unit of global temperature  
 312 change, with the global (area weighted) mean change given in the title of each panel. Stippling  
 313 indicates regions where at least 3 out of 4 models agree on the sign of the temperature mediated  
 314 cloud change.

315 Overall, **Figure 2** shows the pattern of temperature mediated cloud change is quite  
 316 similar in both the solp4p and 4xCO2 experiments. In fact, while there are significant variations

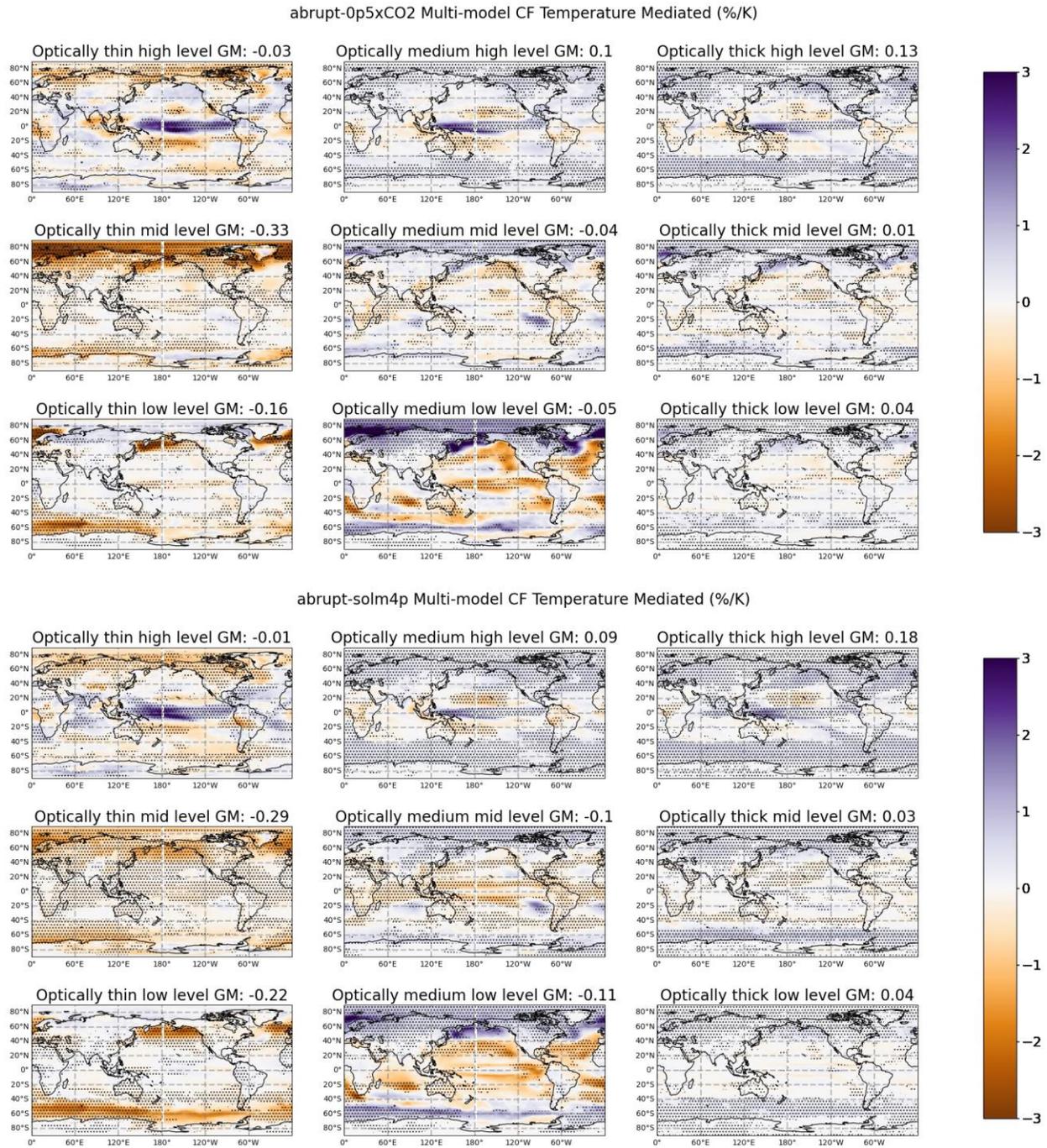
317 in the pattern between individual models, in each model there is a similar temperature mediated  
318 change in both experiments (see **Supplemental Materials** for individual model results). The  
319 global mean change is listed in the title of each panel. In the multi-model mean, there is a net  
320 reduction in global mean cloud amount in seven out of nine categories with only optically-thick  
321 high-level clouds and optically-medium high-level clouds having an increase. Over the next  
322 three paragraphs, we discuss the geographic structure of the low, mid, and high-level cloud  
323 responses, respectively.

324       Low clouds: The greatest decrease in cloud fraction with warming occurs in the optically-  
325 medium low clouds, where there is large reduction in cloud amount over most oceanic regions  
326 equatorward of about 60° latitude. The reduction is especially large in regions that are  
327 characterized by relatively cool sea-surface temperatures and large scale subsidence that supports  
328 the formation of stratocumulus clouds (Wood, 2012; see **Figures 7 and 9** where stratocumulus  
329 regimes are either marked, or can be seen in climatological subsidence rates). In the global mean  
330 there is a greater reduction of optically-medium low clouds in the solp4p than the 4xCO<sub>2</sub>, which  
331 is the largest contributor to the greater temperature mediated cloud loss in total cloud amount  
332 from solp4p compared with 4xCO<sub>2</sub> (as was noted in **Figure 1** and **Table 2**). Poleward of 60°  
333 latitude, on the other hand, there is a general increase in the optically-medium low cloud that is  
334 accompanied by a decrease in optically-thin low clouds and an increase in optically thick low  
335 cloud. This includes the northern half of North America, Siberia, and some interior portions of  
336 Eurasia. Reduction of stratocumulus clouds with warming and increases in the optical depth of  
337 mid-to-high latitude low cloud has been a well-documented response to increasing CO<sub>2</sub> in both  
338 global climate models and process models (Bjorndal et al., 2020; Sherwood et al., 2020; Zelinka  
339 et al., 2013), and we discuss the associated physical mechanisms in more detail in Section 4.

340       Mid-level clouds: There are generally smaller changes in the mid-level cloud category  
341 than in the low-level and high-level cloud categories. There is nonetheless reduction of  
342 midlatitude mid-level clouds that is consistent across models. This reduction is most pronounced  
343 in the thin cloud category at mid to high latitudes, however there is a weak reduction in optically  
344 medium and thick mid-level clouds that is consistent between models in some regions (including  
345 in the Southern Hemisphere midlatitudes), but there is poor model agreement in most regions.  
346 There is also a slight increase in optically medium mid-level cloud in the Peruvian and  
347 Californian stratocumulus regions of some models, albeit with poor model agreement, which  
348 suggests that in some models there is a rising of the stratocumulus layer with increase in global  
349 mean temperature. The role of mid-level clouds in climate feedbacks has received less attention  
350 than that of high or low-level clouds (Sherwood et al., 2020), and we will return to this in  
351 Section 4.

352       High clouds: In the equatorial Pacific, the temperature mediated response of high clouds  
353 in both the solp4p and 4xCO<sub>2</sub> experiments form a clear dipole, with increasing high cloudiness  
354 over the central and eastern portion of the equatorial pacific and a decrease in high cloud over  
355 the western pacific and maritime continent. This pattern is consistent with a weakening Walker  
356 circulation. There is also a northeastward shift of the SPCZ, and a reduction of high cloud over

357 the Amazon and central America, which are responses that have been observed to be correlated  
358 with the phase of the El Nino Southern Oscillation (ENSO) (Adames & Wallace, 2017). Sea-  
359 surface temperature variability of ENSO, and the Atmospheric variability of the Walker  
360 circulation are strongly coupled phenomena (e.g. Battisti et al., 2019; Bjerknes, 1969), as such  
361 we find these high cloud changes in the Tropical Pacific to be linked with the change in SST  
362 pattern with warming (see Section 3.4).



363  
 364 **Figure 3** Temperature mediated response of cloud from the 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> and solm4p experiments  
 365 shown in the same form as **Figure 2**, except that in the solm4p stippling indicates agreement  
 366 from at least 2 out of 3 models (as opposed to 3 out of 4 models for the other experiments). Note  
 367 that these cloud changes are on a per temperature basis, so positive temperature mediated  
 368 values in these experiments corresponds to cloud loss during the simulations.

369 Turning attention to the cooling experiments, **Figure 3** shows the temperature mediated  
 370 cloud change in the solm4p and 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> experiments. The panels in **Figure 3** follows the same

371 format as **Figure 2**, where the ISCCP simulator histograms have been separated into 9 cloud  
372 categories. Note that these cloud changes are on a per temperature basis, so positive temperature  
373 mediated values in these cooling experiments correspond to cloud loss as the global temperature  
374 decreases. Accordingly, locations with a temperature mediated cloud change that is of the same  
375 sign in the warming and cooling experiments means that the actual change in cloud amount is in  
376 the opposite direction. For example, such a response occurs in the optically medium low-level  
377 clouds over much of the midlatitudes, subtropical, and tropical oceans, where all simulations  
378 show a negative temperature mediated response (orange color) indicating that in these areas there  
379 is decrease in this low cloud with warming and an increase with cooling. Likewise, the positive  
380 temperature mediated response (purple color), such as over Siberia, means an increase in this low  
381 cloud with warming and a decrease with cooling. The following two paragraphs discuss  
382 differences between the cloud changes in solm4p and 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub>, and the differences in cloud  
383 changes occurring during warming and cooling, respectively.

384 Solm4p vs 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub>: While the cooling patterns from solar and CO<sub>2</sub> forcing share some  
385 similarity, it is noteworthy that there are larger differences in the low-cloud response between the  
386 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> and solm4p experiments than between the two warming experiments. Specifically, the  
387 global mean response for optically medium mid-level and low-level clouds is about half as  
388 strong in the 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> experiment (-0.04 and -0.05 %/K respectively) as compared with the  
389 solm4p (-0.1 and -0.11 %/K). In the 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> there is a strong increase of low clouds across the  
390 Equatorial Pacific with weak changes in the adjacent subtropics, while in the solm4p, there is a  
391 weak response in the tropics with poorer model agreement (note less stippling in the solm4p  
392 response). There is also an increase in low cloudiness in the Northern Pacific of the solm4p  
393 experiment that does not occur to the same extent in the 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> experiment. As previously  
394 noted, the solm4p and 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> experiments have different amounts of forcing, and thus  
395 different amounts of temperature change. There have been studies on differences in temperature  
396 mediated cloud changes from various amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> forcing, such as Bloch-Johnson et al.  
397 (2021) who found that models with the greatest nonlinearity in their response to different  
398 amounts of forcing, have the greatest differences in the temperature mediated cloud changes with  
399 different amounts of warming (i.e.  $M(\theta, \phi)$  from Equation 2 is different depending on  $\Delta T$ ).  
400 Additionally, sub-polar low clouds contribute to this non-linearity through the saturation of  
401 mixed-phase clouds with warming, or in our case with cooling (Bjordal et al., 2020). Thus, we  
402 cannot easily separate the differences between the two cooling experiments that arise due to the  
403 different forcing mechanism (solar vs CO<sub>2</sub>) and the differences in the amount of cooling.

404 Warming vs. Cooling: While similar in some respects, the pattern of low-cloud response  
405 is not quite the same between the warming and cooling experiments. In the warming experiments  
406 there is a transition between negative (orange) and positive (purple) temperature mediated cloud  
407 response in optically medium and optically thick low-clouds near 60° latitude (in both  
408 hemispheres) while in the cooling experiment the transition occurs near 40° latitude; and  
409 likewise, the increase in low-clouds over the northern portions of North America and Eurasia is  
410 stronger in the cooling experiments. The reduction of optically thin low-level cloud is also about

411 20° closer to the poles in the warming experiments than the cooling experiments. In fact, in the  
412 cooling experiments, the response in optically thin mid-level cloud is the largest of the nine  
413 categories, whereas in the warming experiments it is the optically medium low clouds which  
414 have the largest change. Turning our attention to the high-level clouds, in the Tropical Pacific  
415 there is a very different response in the cooling experiments than occurs in the warming  
416 experiments. In the cooling experiments, there is a decrease in high clouds (a positive  
417 temperature mediated response) throughout the equatorial pacific, and an increase in high clouds  
418 in the subtropics (negative temperature mediated response). This pattern is consistent with a  
419 strengthening of the Hadley circulation and the associated intertropical convergence zone (ITCZ)  
420 and differs from the warming experiments which show a pattern of change more consistent with  
421 a change in the Walker circulation. The circulation changes are further discussed in Section 3.3.

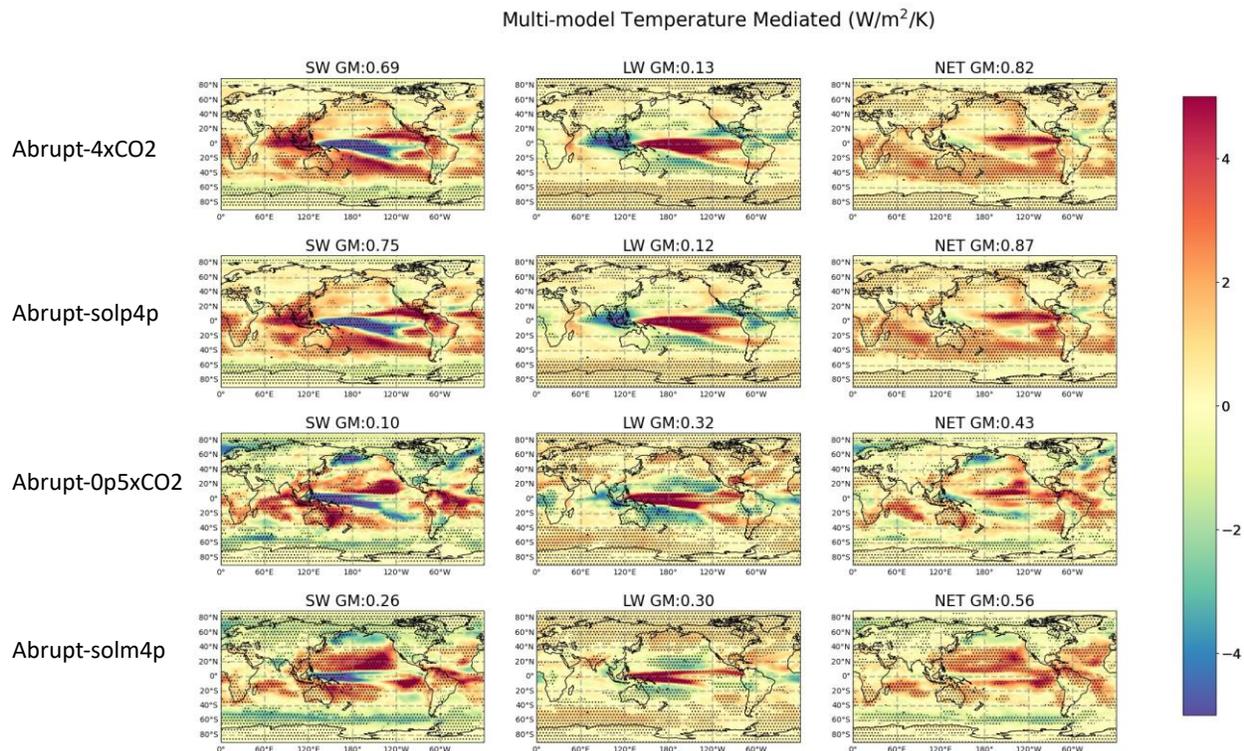
422

### 423 3.2 Top of Atmosphere Cloud Radiative Effect

424 Thus far we have examined changes in clouds that occur in models forced with abrupt  
425 changes of insolation and CO<sub>2</sub> concentration. The cloud changes previously described alter the  
426 Earth radiation budget, and thereby feedback on the climate to enhance or diminish the impact of  
427 the forcing. The Cloud Radiative Effect (CRE) can be calculated in many ways such as directly  
428 from top-of-atmosphere radiation output (Su et al., 2010), Partial Radiative Perturbation (Taylor  
429 et al., 2007), or cloud radiative kernels (Zelinka et al., 2012a). Here we use the latter because it  
430 provides the most direct link between cloud changes and radiation. Note however that CRE from  
431 radiative kernels is calculated directly from changes in the underlying cloud distribution, thus it  
432 is independent of cloud masking (see Zelinka et al., 2013). In the solar forcing model  
433 simulations, the shortwave kernels are multiplied by 1.04 and 0.96 for the solp4p and solm4p  
434 simulations respectively. The effect of this adjustment is small and has no impact on the  
435 conclusions. The multi-model mean CRE change due to temperature mediated cloud changes is  
436 shown in **Figure 4**. In the next several paragraphs we discuss the tropics, subtropics, and mid-to-  
437 high latitudes respectively.

438 Tropics: In the tropical pacific, the high cloud response shown in **Figure 2** (for both the  
439 solp4p and 4xCO<sub>2</sub> experiments) creates a dipole structure across the central and western pacific  
440 in the SW and LW CRE. Interestingly, that structure cancels in the NET CRE, and what remains  
441 is an overall positive radiative effect (meaning less energy is allowed to escape the atmosphere,  
442 and there is net positive feedback with increased warming). To further connect the cloud changes  
443 to the induced CRE change, we separate the CRE change into three categories: those due to  
444 changes in cloud amount, CTP, and cloud optical depth using the kernel decomposition method  
445 developed by Zelinka et al. (2012b). The temperature mediated changes in CRE due to changes  
446 in CTP, cloud amount, and optical depth are shown in **Figure 5** for the solp4p and solm4p  
447 experiments. A similar figure for the 4xCO<sub>2</sub> and 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> experiments is available in the  
448 **Supplemental Materials**. The decomposition of the CRE into contributions from each  
449 component indicate that in the solp4p the total net positive feedback in the central and eastern  
450 tropical Pacific is primarily due to the LW effect of rising cloud tops with warming (which

451 dominates over the SW effect of increasing cloud fraction). Perhaps the most well understood  
 452 effect of climate warming on clouds is that the height of deep convective cloud tops will rise in  
 453 the atmosphere as the surface warms such that cloud-top-temperature will remain nearly fixed,  
 454 creating a positive LW cloud feedback (Hartmann & Larson, 2002; Zelinka & Hartmann, 2010).  
 455 The slowing of the Walker circulation is also likely creating a greater amount of high-cloud  
 456 formation in the East Pacific, and thus an increase in the average CTP, causing a positive LW  
 457 feedback. In the western Pacific of the solp4p there is little effect from CTP changes, and CF  
 458 changes largely cancel in the SW and LW, leaving a small net negative feedback due to increases  
 459 in optical depth in the multi-model mean. Individual models differ significantly in the strength of  
 460 the optical depth feedback over the tropical western Pacific. In contrast, in the cooling  
 461 experiments the effect of changes in CTP is more narrowly confined around the equator than in  
 462 the warming experiments and has a structure more consistent with a change in the Hadley cycle  
 463 (more on this in Section 3.3).  
 464

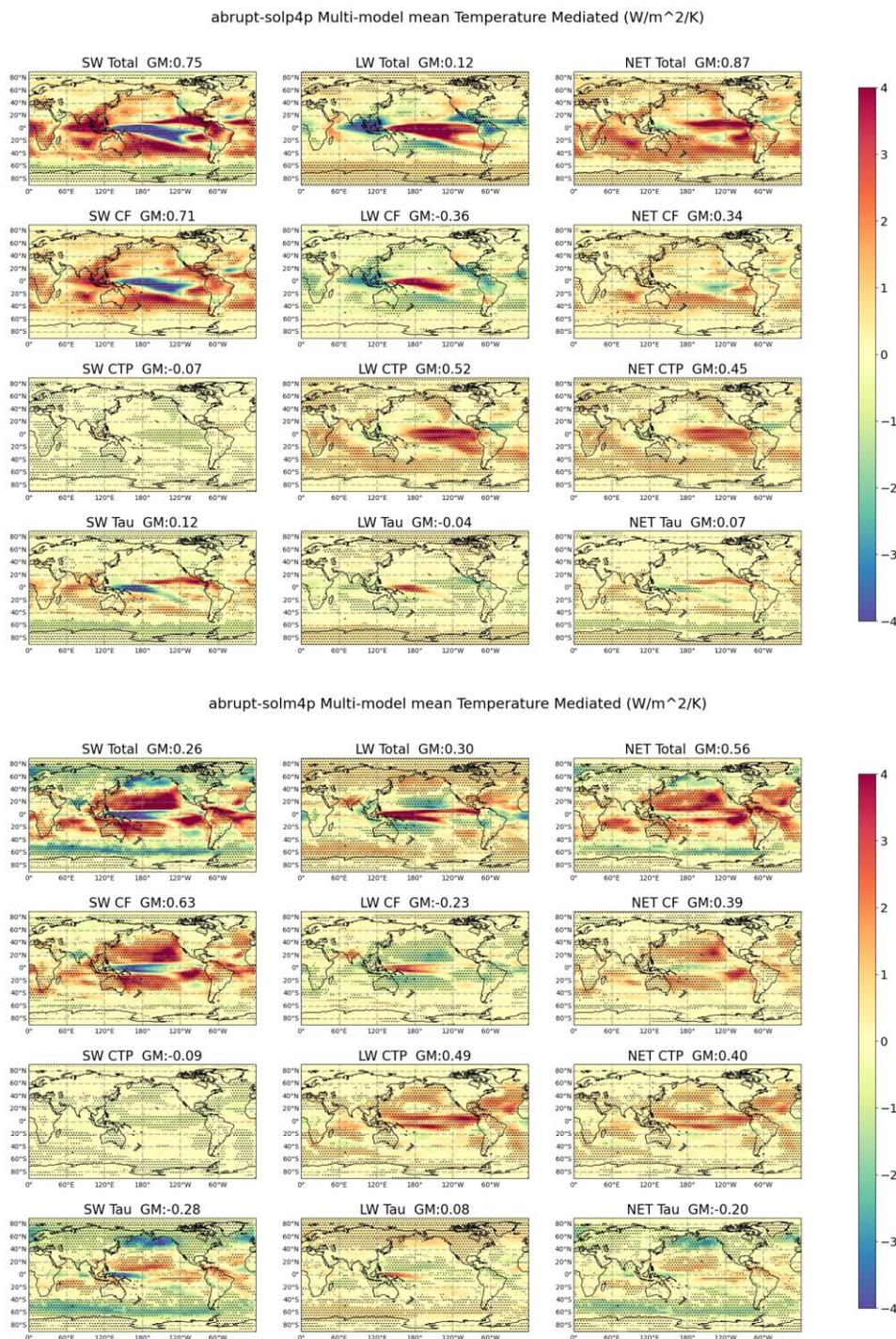


465  
 466 *Figure 4* Multi-model mean temperature mediated cloud radiative effect found using cloud  
 467 radiative kernels, where downward radiative flux is defined as positive. As with previous figures,  
 468 stippling indicates model agreement. For the solm4p and 0p5xCO2 experiments a positive  
 469 temperature mediated feedback corresponds with a decrease in downward radiative flux because  
 470 of the negative temperature change during those experiments.

471 Subtropics: In the subtropical stratocumulus zones (off the west coasts of California,  
 472 Peru, Namibia, and Australia) in the warming experiments there are strong positive SW radiative  
 473 feedbacks (**Figure 4**). This is due to changes in cloud fraction (**Figure 5**), predominantly in the

474 optically medium low-level cloud category (see **Figure 2**). This feedback is present in the  
475 cooling experiments, but to a lesser degree. The cooling experiments yield a compensating  
476 increase in optically medium mid-level cloud in these regions, such that the temperature  
477 mediated change in the combined mid-level and low-level cloud amount is less than in the  
478 warming experiments. Outside of the stratocumulus zones, the warming experiments show a  
479 large net positive feedback in the Southern Hemisphere between about 20 and 40° S in the  
480 Pacific, Indian, and Atlantic basins that is not present (or much weaker) in the Northern  
481 Hemisphere and in the cooling experiments. Indeed, the solm4p shows a larger reduction in  
482 cloud amount (and positive feedback) in the Northern Hemisphere subtropics than in the  
483 Southern Hemisphere subtropics. The strong positive Southern subtropical feedback in the  
484 warming experiments is due primarily to a change in the SW CRE, and results from a reduction  
485 in optically medium low-level cloud fraction, but also with a noteworthy contribution from an  
486 increase in CTP with warming. Zelinka et al. (2020) show that the low-cloud feedback is more  
487 strongly positive in CMIP6 around 40° S than at any other latitude, and that this feature is  
488 stronger in CMIP6 models than the previous generation, CMIP5.

489 **Mid-to-High Latitudes:** In the cooling experiments, there is strong negative SW and a  
490 NET negative radiative feedback in the mid-to-high latitudes, poleward of about 40° in both  
491 hemispheres, over ocean. This is due to an increase in cloud optical depth (**Figure 5**), and  
492 impacts primarily the SW radiation because the change occurs primarily (but not exclusively) in  
493 low-level clouds, and appears in **Figure 3** as an increase (orange colors) in the optically thin mid  
494 and low-level clouds response to decreasing temperatures, and a corresponding decrease in the  
495 optically medium and thick cloud response (purple colors). The same optical depth feedback is  
496 present in the warming experiments but occurs poleward of about 60°. More generally, there is a  
497 negative SW feedback due to changes in cloud optical depth over land in the cooling  
498 experiments, specifically in Northern Canada and Eurasia, as well as in the Arctic and  
499 Antarctica, however the NET response to cooling is weaker over land than over ocean because  
500 changes of high cloud optical depth create an offsetting LW feedback. To some degree, and  
501 again further poleward, the same is true in the warming experiments, but the LW effect  
502 associated with thickening of mid and high-level clouds is larger and makes the NET radiative  
503 change due to optical depth changes slightly positive. At such high latitudes there is less annually  
504 averaged insolation, and there is frequent sea-ice and terrestrial snow cover, such that the SW  
505 radiative effect of the cloud optical depth transition is much smaller in the warming experiments.

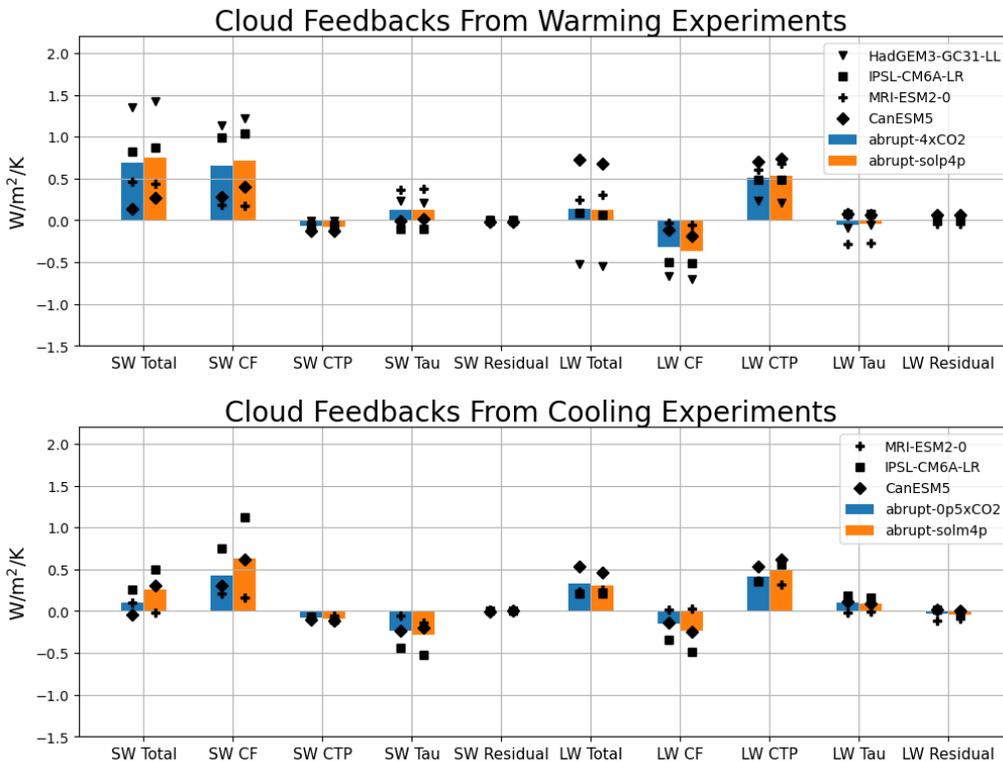


506  
 507 **Figure 5** Multi-model mean cloud radiative effect (CRE) from temperature mediated changes in  
 508 all cloud changes (Total; rows 1 and 5), cloud top pressure (CTP; rows 2 and 6), Cloud  
 509 Fraction (CF; rows 3 and 7), and optical depth (tau; rows 4 and 8) in the solp4p (top 4 rows)  
 510 and solm4p (bottom for rows) model experiments. As in previous figures, stippling indicates  
 511 regions where there is good agreement among models on the sign of the temperature mediated

512 *change. The left column is the shortwave component, middle column is longwave, and right*  
 513 *column is the net feedback.*

514  
 515 The decomposition of the CRE temperature mediated changes for each experiment is  
 516 shown in the global mean in **Figure 6**, where the bar represents the multi-model mean and the  
 517 symbols signify the feedback values for individual models.

518  
 519



520  
 521 **Figure 6** Global mean temperature mediated cloud radiative feedbacks decomposed into the  
 522 feedbacks due to three different types of cloud changes (and a residual term). Bars indicate the  
 523 multi-model mean, black symbols mark the individual models. The top panel shows the solp4p  
 524 and 4xCO2 experiments while the lower panel shows the solm4p and 0p5xCO2 experiments.

525 **Figure 6** shows that the LW temperature mediated changes are similar between the  
 526 4xCO2 and solp4p experiments in the global mean (which is not surprising given the strong  
 527 similarity in the clouds responses shown in **Figure 2**). In the warming experiments all models  
 528 exhibit negative LW feedbacks associated with changes in cloud fraction (which is indicative of  
 529 cloud fraction reduction allowing more LW flux emitted from the surface to reach space in the  
 530 global mean), and stronger positive LW feedbacks associated with changes in CTP (which is  
 531 indicative of clouds forming higher in the atmosphere). In fact, all models performing all 4  
 532 experiments produce a positive LW CTP feedback. The LW feedback associated with cloud  
 533 fraction is consistently more negative across models in the solp4p experiment than the 4xCO2.

534 The differences are relatively small compared to the intermodal spread of the feedbacks, but they  
535 are consistent across all models.

536 The cloud fraction changes are (by a wide margin) the largest contribution to SW  
537 temperature mediated feedbacks in both warming experiments. All models have positive SW  
538 cloud fraction feedbacks, which is consistent with the overall reduction of cloud amount that  
539 occurs in all models in **Figure 1**. Most models have a small optical depth and CTP components  
540 of the SW cloud feedbacks, and all models have positive total SW cloud feedbacks in both  
541 warming experiments. Similar to the LW cloud fraction feedback, in the SW there is consistently  
542 stronger feedback in the solp4p than the 4xCO<sub>2</sub>. Although the feedback patterns are quite similar  
543 in the two experiments, the total temperature mediated low-cloud reduction is slightly larger in  
544 the solp4p experiment this point is discussed further in Section 4.

545 The lower panel of **Figure 6** shows the cloud feedback decomposition for the solm4p and  
546 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> experiments. There are relatively large differences between the two cooling  
547 experiments, as compared to the warming experiments. The 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> experiment produces less  
548 feedback associated with change in cloud fraction in the global multi-model mean when  
549 compared with either the warming experiments or the solm4p. In the solm4p experiment the SW  
550 cloud fraction component is of similar amplitude to the SW cloud fraction component of the  
551 4xCO<sub>2</sub> and solp4p experiments. In both cooling experiments there is a relatively strong negative  
552 SW feedback from cloud optical depth change (meaning clouds become thinner with cooling in  
553 the global mean), which contrasts the warming experiments which have positive SW cloud  
554 optical depth feedback (meaning clouds also become thinner with warming in the global mean).  
555 Such a difference results in less positive total SW cloud feedbacks in the cooling experiments  
556 than the warming experiments.

557

### 558 3.3 Circulation Changes

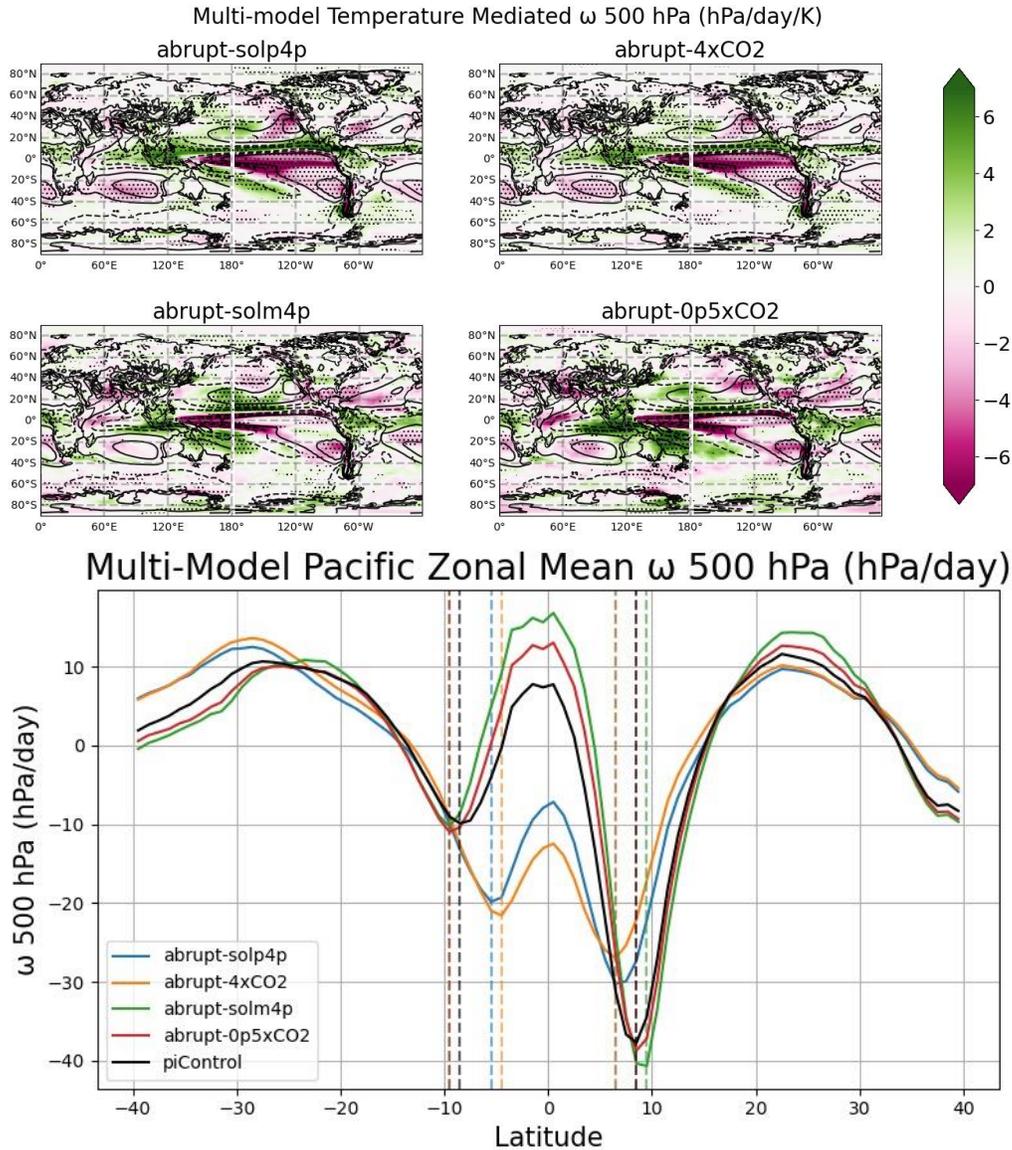
559 In this section we examine metrics related to the Hadley and Walker circulations to  
560 contextualize the cloud changes described in Section 3.1. In Section 3.1 we found that the  
561 temperature mediated changes of high clouds in the tropics are dominated by patterns which are  
562 consistent with changes in the Walker and Hadley circulations. In **Figure 7** we show maps of the  
563 temperature mediated change in 500 hPa vertical velocity (units are pressure change per day per  
564 kelvin), as well as a line plot showing the zonal mean 500 hPa vertical velocity averaged over  
565 years 10 to 150 of the simulations. Due to the per-temperature basis of the temperature mediated  
566 changes the sign convention of the map plots is such that regions with upward (negative pressure  
567 velocity) temperature mediated velocity anomalies (purple color) have more upward motion  
568 (more convection or less subsidence) in the mid-troposphere in a warmed climate (solp4p and  
569 4xCO<sub>2</sub> experiments) and less upward motion in a cooled climate (solm4p and 4xCO<sub>2</sub>  
570 experiments). Not surprisingly, the temperature mediated changes in 500 hPa vertical velocity  
571 correlates well with the high cloud changes shown in **Figures 2 and 3** in the tropics and  
572 subtropics. In all experiments there is negative pressure velocity (increase in upward motion or  
573 decreased subsidence) per degree of warming (purple colors) in the central equatorial pacific (at

574 least between 150 E to 150 W) and positive pressure velocities (decrease in upward motion) per  
575 degree of warming (green colors) over Indonesia and the Maritime continent, along the northern  
576 edge of the ITCZ (and to a lesser degree the adjacent subtropics), and along the southwestern  
577 edge of the SPCZ. In at least three models the positive pressure velocity changes over the  
578 Maritime region extend well into the Indian Ocean. The cooling experiments differ notably from  
579 the warming experiments, and have relatively little change (less purple, less stippling) in the East  
580 Pacific and along the Pacific Cold Tongue, as well as over the Peruvian stratocumulus zone.

581 The positive pressure velocity changes along the northern edge of the ITCZ and  
582 southwestern edge of the SPCZ are indicative of the ITCZ and SPCZ shifting equatorward and to  
583 the east with warming (and opposite direction with cooling). The shift of the ITCZ and SPCZ is  
584 perhaps more easily seen in the zonally averaged 500 hPa vertical velocity (bottom panel of  
585 **Figure 7**. The latitude where zonal mean upward motion is maximized (there is a minimum in  
586 pressure velocity) in each hemisphere is noted by vertical dashed lines for each model  
587 experiment. In the warming experiments there is an equatorward shift of the latitude of  
588 maximum updraft (minimum in pressure velocity) in the Pacific in both the northern and  
589 southern hemisphere. However, the distance shifted is far greater in the southern hemisphere.  
590 There is also a significant increase in convection (a much more negative pressure velocity) in the  
591 southern hemisphere tropics and an associated increase in subsidence in the southern subtropics  
592 ( $20^{\circ}$  to  $40^{\circ}$  S) relative to the control simulation, whereas in the northern hemisphere there is a  
593 decrease in tropical convection and a decrease in subsidence in the adjacent subtropics.

594 In the solm4p and 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> experiments the opposite shift in convection does occur  
595 compared to the warming experiments, however it is not of equal magnitude. In the southern  
596 hemisphere the latitude of maximum convection (minimum in pressure velocity) shifts poleward  
597 with cooling by the same amount in the solm4p and 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub>, however the shift is of much  
598 shorter distance than the equatorward shift in the two warming experiments. Additionally, there  
599 is little change in the amount of convection and subsidence in the tropics and subtropics of the  
600 southern hemisphere due to cooling. In the northern hemisphere the tropical convection shifts  
601 poleward in the solm4p, but there is no change in the location of maximum convection in the  
602 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> experiment. Both cooling experiments produce an increase in the strength of the  
603 northern hemisphere tropical convection, and an increase in subsidence in the adjacent  
604 subtropics.

605

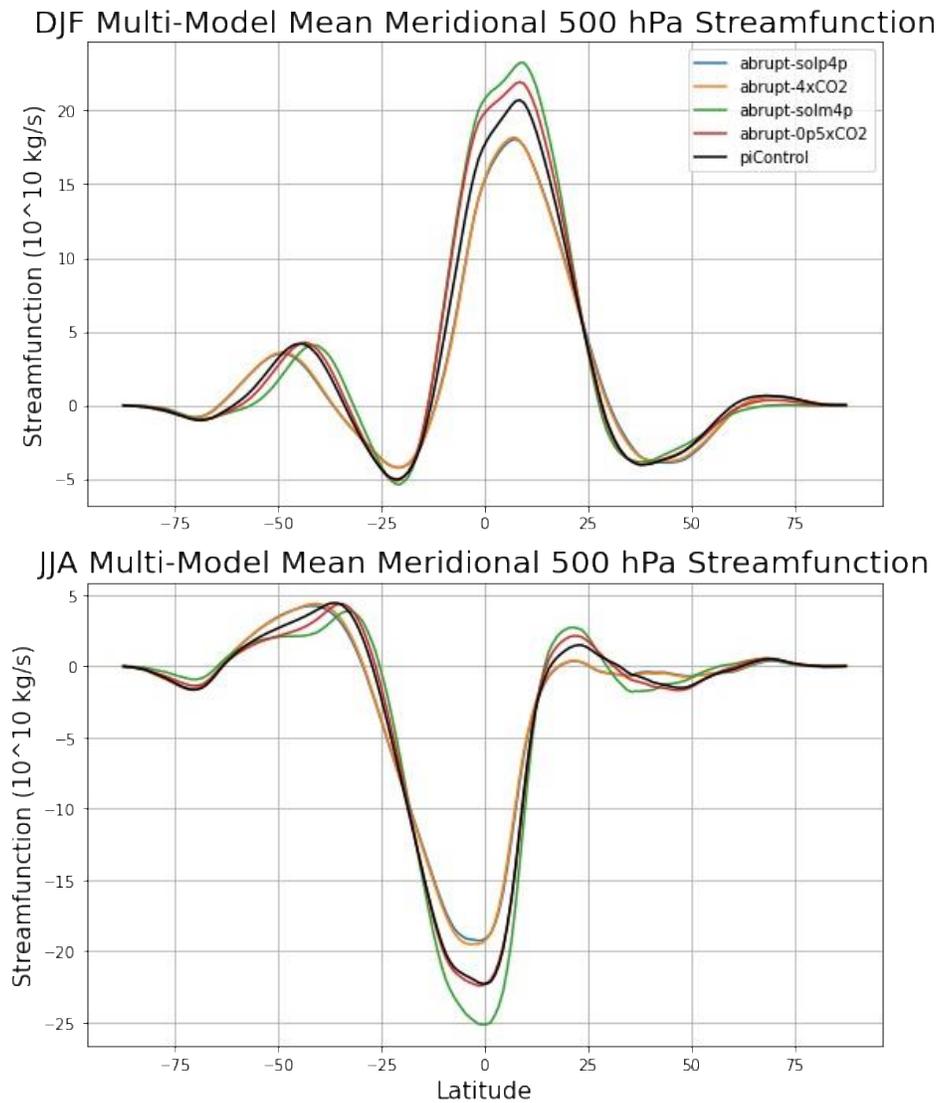


606  
 607 **Figure 7** Top 2 rows: multi-model means of 500 hPa vertical velocity. Contours are the pre-  
 608 industrial climatology with contour intervals of 20 hPa/day. The coloration of these maps are the  
 609 temperature mediated change in 500 hPa vertical velocity. Bottom: Pacific zonal mean  
 610 climatologies of 500 hPa vertical velocity, averaged over ocean area from 120° W to -60° E .  
 611 Vertical dashed lines indicate the latitude of maximum mean upward velocity in each  
 612 hemisphere. Note that in the Northern Hemisphere this occurs at the same latitude for the  
 613 piControl and 0p5xCO2, and in the Southern Hemisphere this occurs at the same latitude for the  
 614 solm4p and 0p5xCO2.

615 Much of the upward motion in the tropics is related to the large-scale dynamical  
 616 circulations that occur in both the zonal and meridional directions. **Figure 8** shows the zonal  
 617 mean 500 hPa meridional stream function, which has been widely used to diagnose the strength  
 618 and width of the zonally overturning Hadley circulation (e.g. Chemke, 2022; Frierson et al.,

619 2007; Oort & Yienger, 1996; Staten & Reichler, 2014). We have separated the stream function  
620 into the DJF and JJA seasons because the Hadley circulation, in fact, only occurs in the Winter  
621 Hemisphere, so annual mean plots can misleadingly depict the Northern and Southern node of  
622 the Hadley circulation simultaneously. The strength of the Hadley circulation is often quantified  
623 as the maximum absolute value meridional stream function at 500 hPa (e.g. Oort & Yienger,  
624 1996). **Figure 8** shows that the Hadley circulation weakens in both the solp4p and 4xCO<sub>2</sub> and  
625 strengthens in the solm4p in both DJF and JJA. In the 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> experiment there is a small  
626 increase in the Hadley circulation strength in DJF, however there is little change in JJA. As such,  
627 the high cloud changes in the Southern Hemisphere of the 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> experiment are apparently  
628 unrelated to changes in the strength of the Hadley circulation.

629 The Hadley circulation width can be characterized using the latitude where the 500 hPa  
630 stream function crosses the zero line. By this metric, the Hadley cell widens in the warming  
631 experiments and shrinks equatorward in the cooling experiments. Because the width changes can  
632 be small and difficult to see in **Figure 8**, the Hadley cell width in each season (and associated  
633 hemisphere) calculated from the last 30 years of each simulation is shown in **Tables 4 and 5**. In  
634 all models there is a widening of the Hadley circulation in both hemispheres and in both the  
635 4xCO<sub>2</sub> and solp4p. Neither of the warming simulations has a Hadley circulation that is  
636 persistently wider than the other across all models.



637  
 638 **Figure 8** Zonal mean 500 hPa meridional streamfunction shown as averages over the final 30  
 639 years of each model experiment.

640 In the 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> and solm4p experiments there is some cooling in the East Pacific relative  
 641 to the West Pacific, however the change in the temperature gradient across the equatorial Pacific  
 642 is weaker than in the 4xCO<sub>2</sub> and solp4p experiments. In southern subtropical Pacific there is  
 643 generally a smaller temperature change than in the global mean. The relatively warm subtropical  
 644 surface air temperatures are collocated with an increase in high cloud amount and contributes to  
 645 the South-Western shift of the SPCZ. Narsey et al. (2022) found that in CMIP5 and CMIP6  
 646 models the SPCZ shifts towards the region with relatively high surface temperatures under  
 647 warming due to the associated shift of the midlatitude jet. Thus, we expect that when cooling  
 648 occurs the same mechanisms apply, and the SPCZ shifts towards regions with relatively less  
 649 cooling. In the following subsection, we continue to investigate the physical mechanisms that

650 contribute to cloud feedbacks in the solar and CO<sub>2</sub> forced experiments by examining surface  
 651 temperature patterns.

652

| Hadley Cell Width (° Latitude) |           |              |               |                |               |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|
| Experiment                     | piControl | Abrupt-4xCO2 | Abrupt-solp4p | Abrupt-0p5xCO2 | Abrupt-solm4p |
| MRI-ESM2-0                     | 28.1      | 28.8         | 29.1          | 27.8           | 27.3          |
| IPSL-CM6A-LR                   | 28        | 30           | 29.2          | 28.1           | 27.8          |
| CanESM5                        | 29.5      | 31.8         | 32.7          | 29.2           | 29            |
| HadGEM3-GC31-LL                | 28.3      | 30.4         | 30.8          | 27.8           | NA            |
| CESM2                          | 28.7      | 30.9         | 30            | 28.7           | 27.7          |
| MM mean                        | 28.5      | 30.4         | 30.4          | 28.3           | 28.0          |

653 *Table 4* Hadley circulation width metric in the Northern Hemisphere during DJF, quantified as  
 654 the latitude where the 500 hPa meridional stream function crosses zero for the first time in the  
 655 associated hemisphere. These values are calculated by linearly interpolating the models' latitude  
 656 grid to the point at which 500 hPa stream function of zero is crossed.

657

658

659

| Hadley Cell Width (° Latitude) |           |              |               |                |               |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|
| Experiment                     | piControl | Abrupt-4xCO2 | Abrupt-solp4p | Abrupt-0p5xCO2 | Abrupt-solm4p |
| <b>MRI-ESM2-0</b>              | 27.3      | 28.7         | 28.7          | 26.8           | 26.5          |
| <b>IPSL-CM6A-LR</b>            | 25.8      | 28.7         | 28.3          | 25.3           | 24.9          |
| <b>CanESM5</b>                 | 28.2      | 30.2         | 31.3          | 27.6           | 25.9          |
| <b>HadGEM3-GC31-LL</b>         | 27.7      | 30.5         | 30.7          | 26.9           | NA            |
| <b>CESM2</b>                   | 28.6      | 32.4         | 30.4          | 28             | 27.3          |
| <b>MM mean</b>                 | 27.5      | 30.1         | 29.9          | 26.9           | 26.2          |

660 *Table 5* Same as Table 4, but for the Southern Hemisphere and JJA season.

661

662

### 663 3.4 Surface Temperature

664 The left side of **Figure 9** contains plots of the temperature mediated change in surface  
665 temperature. The zonal temperature gradient across the equatorial Pacific is a strong predictor of  
666 the strength of the Walker circulation, because a strong temperature gradient supports easterlies  
667 due to the associated pressure gradient. This circulation is fundamentally coupled to the ocean  
668 circulation, where the wind stress forces a thermocline gradient, which further supports a sea-  
669 surface temperature gradient through upwelling in the East Pacific (Battisti et al., 2019;  
670 Bjerknes, 1969). Therefore, we expect that changes in the surface temperature pattern may help  
671 explain the zonal structure of the high cloud changes shown in **Figures 2 and 3**. Additionally,  
672 Qu et al., (2014) found that sea-surface temperature and Estimated Inversion Strength (hereafter  
673 EIS) are two cloud-controlling-factors which are both a strong predictor of low-cloud fraction on  
674 monthly-to-interannual timescales, so the surface temperature changes also yield important  
675 insight into the causes of low cloud changes.

676 In the equatorial Pacific of the 4xCO<sub>2</sub> and solp4p experiments there is enhanced warming  
677 (greater warming than the global mean) in the East, and less warming in the West Pacific. In the  
678 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> and solm4p experiments there is some cooling in the East Pacific relative to the West  
679 Pacific, however the change in the temperature gradient across the equatorial Pacific is weaker  
680 than in the 4xCO<sub>2</sub> and solp4p experiments (and has poor model agreement in the cooling  
681 experiments). This difference in sea-surface temperature patterns likely explain much of the  
682 differences in the high cloud response to warming and cooling seen in **Figures 3 and 4**.

683 On land there is generally greater warming than in the adjacent oceans in the 4xCO<sub>2</sub> and  
684 solp4p experiments. Enhanced warming over land is a well-documented response in models and  
685 is constrained by the differences in lapse rate over land and ocean, owing to the greater moisture  
686 availability over ocean. Further details on such mechanisms are described by Byrne &  
687 O’Gorman (2013) and Joshi et al. (2008). Interestingly, in the 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> and solm4p there is little  
688 difference between the ocean and land cooling, especially in the Southern Hemisphere. This  
689 suggests that the oceanic and continental lapse rate adjustments to cooling exhibit lesser  
690 differences than their adjustments to warming.

691 Over the subtropics, there is smaller surface temperature change than the global mean  
692 (blue colors) in all four model experiments. In the warming experiments there is less warming in  
693 the Northern Hemisphere subtropics relative to the Southern Hemisphere subtropics, and the  
694 opposite in the cooling experiments. We note that local surface temperature is an important cloud  
695 controlling factor in the midlatitudes and subtropics.

696 We find that over the ocean in the Southern Midlatitudes and much of the Southern  
697 Subtropics there is greater warming than the global mean in the 4xCO<sub>2</sub> and solp4p, as well. This  
698 region has been the subject of research by Zelinka et al. (2020) who show that such enhanced  
699 warming is associated with low cloud reduction.

700

### 701 3.5 Estimated Inversion Strength

702 To better understand low cloud changes, we show in the right panels of **Figure 9** maps of  
703 temperature mediated changes in estimated inversion strength (hereafter EIS). Stratocumulus  
704 cloud occurrence in particular is typically very well correlated with EIS on monthly or longer  
705 time-scales, especially in the Tropics and Subtropics (Wood & Bretherton, 2006). In the right  
706 panels of **Figure 9** we have highlighted a few subtropical regions with red boxes where there are  
707 persistent stratocumulus cloud in the modeled piControl climatology, and observations (Klein &  
708 Hartmann, 1993; Qu et al., 2014, 2015). But stratocumulus are also common over colder waters  
709 at mid and high latitudes, especially in the winter (Wood, 2012).

710 In the warming experiments there is increasing EIS in the northern hemisphere tropics  
711 and parts of the subtropics. Especially from  $0^{\circ}$  to  $20^{\circ}$  in the Central and Eastern Pacific, and  
712 Atlantic oceans. Additionally, there is an increase of EIS in the Eastern Atlantic, off the west  
713 coast of Northern Africa and Europe. In the southern hemisphere increases in EIS are less  
714 widespread. There is narrow region of EIS increase primarily along a line connecting Indonesia  
715 to the Peruvian stratocumulus deck (denoted as the red box off the west coast of South America).  
716 In the midlatitudes of both hemispheres (poleward of  $40^{\circ}$ ) and along the equator in the Eastern  
717 and Central Pacific, there is also notable decrease of EIS. In the stratocumulus regimes (marked  
718 with red boxes) there are inconsistent changes in EIS, where some stratocumulus regimes  
719 experience strengthening inversions, while others experience weakening with increasing  
720 temperature. For example, there is decreasing EIS over most of the Californian, Peruvian, and  
721 Australian stratocumulus regions, and increasing EIS in the African and North Atlantic  
722 Stratocumulus. We note that in all these regions there is a decrease in low cloud amount (see  
723 **Figure 2**), the role of EIS in contributing to such changes are further discussed in **Section 4**. The  
724 temperature mediated EIS changes shown here broadly agree with the late stage temperature  
725 mediated changes of EIS in CMIP5 model simulations of  $4xCO_2$  found by Qu et al. (2015), and  
726 the differences that occur are attributable to the different set of models used in each study.

727 In the cooling experiments there are broadly similar patterns of temperature mediated EIS  
728 change to the warming experiments, however there are some key differences. In the tropical  
729 Atlantic in contrast to the response to warming, there is little EIS change in the solm4p and  
730 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub>. In the Southern hemisphere there is decrease of EIS in the subtropical Pacific,  
731 Atlantic and Indian Oceans with decreasing temperature (green color), which is more widespread  
732 than the EIS changes in the southern hemisphere caused by warming. Like the warming  
733 experiments, in the stratocumulus regimes the EIS is not consistently increasing or decreasing.  
734 There is decreasing EIS with cooling (green color) in most of the Peruvian and Australian  
735 stratocumulus regions and increasing EIS with cooling (pink color) in most of the North  
736 American, North Atlantic, and African stratocumulus regions.

737

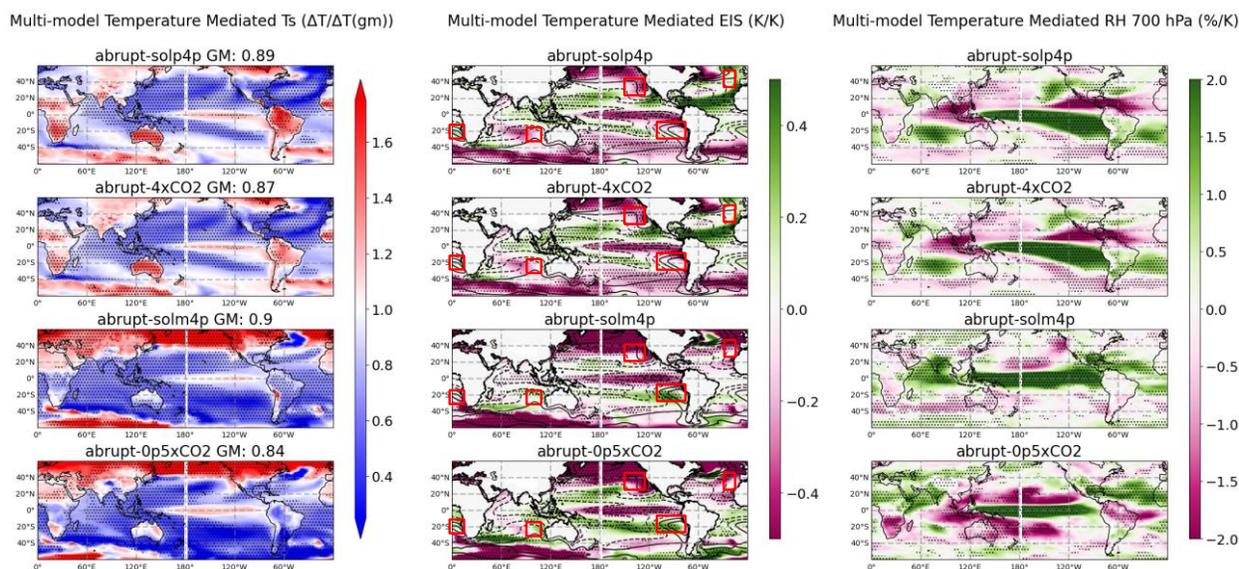
### 738 3.6 Relative Humidity

739 Recent research has shown that in climate models, trade cumulus occurrence is mediated  
740 by the moisture fluxes into and out of the boundary layer. As such, drying of the free-troposphere  
741 can increase the rate of boundary-layer drying through convective mixing, which desiccates the

742 cloud layer (Vogel et al., 2022). In the right column of **Figure 9** we show the temperature  
 743 mediated changes in relative humidity at 700 hPa ( $RH_{700}$ ), which indicates the dryness of the  
 744 lower portion of the free troposphere.

745 In the tropics and subtropics of all four experiments there is a strong correspondence  
 746 between the 700 hPa relative humidity and 500 hPa vertical velocity, such that  $RH_{700}$  increases in  
 747 regions where there are negative anomalies in the mean 500 hPa vertical velocity (upward  
 748 motion) – and as described in Section 3.3 an increase in high cloud in these regions – and  
 749 decreases where there are positive anomalies in the mean 500 hPa vertical velocity. And just as  
 750 the pattern of 500 hPa vertical velocity changes are not the same in warming as cooling  
 751 experiments, the pattern of  $RH_{700}$  differs as well. In the warming experiments there is increased  
 752  $RH_{700}$  in the Tropical East Pacific and decreased in the Tropical West Pacific, while in the  
 753 cooling experiments there is an increase in relative humidity (negative temperature mediated  
 754 change) around  $20^\circ$  north and south of the equator, and a decrease in relative humidity along the  
 755 equatorial Pacific, Atlantic, and Indian oceans. In the subtropical stratocumulus regions, there is  
 756 an increase in  $RH_{700}$  with warming (green colors), and a more mixed response to cooling. For  
 757 example, in the solm4p there is increased  $RH_{700}$  in the Californian, Peruvian and Australian  
 758 stratocumulus (purple colors), and in the 0p5xCO2 experiment there are relatively weak  
 759 decreases with poor model agreement. In the midlatitudes of the warming experiments, there is  
 760 relatively little change in the Northern Hemisphere between  $40^\circ$  and  $60^\circ$  N and a general drying  
 761 pattern (purple colors) in the Southern Hemisphere between  $40^\circ$  and  $60^\circ$  S. In the cooling  
 762 experiments there is also drying (green colors) in various regions of the Southern Ocean.

763



764 **Figure 9** Left Panels: Temperature mediated change in surface temperature. Stippling indicates  
 765 good model agreement on whether the change is above or below 1 K/K(global). Middle Panels:  
 766 Temperature mediated changes in Estimated Inversion Strength (EIS), contours are the pre-  
 767 industrial average EIS, red boxes denote known stratocumulus regimes. Right Panels:  
 768 Temperature mediated changes in relative humidity at 700 hPa. As with previous figures  
 769

770 *stippling indicates regions with good model agreement on the sign of the change of both EIS and*  
771 *RH 700 hPa.*

772

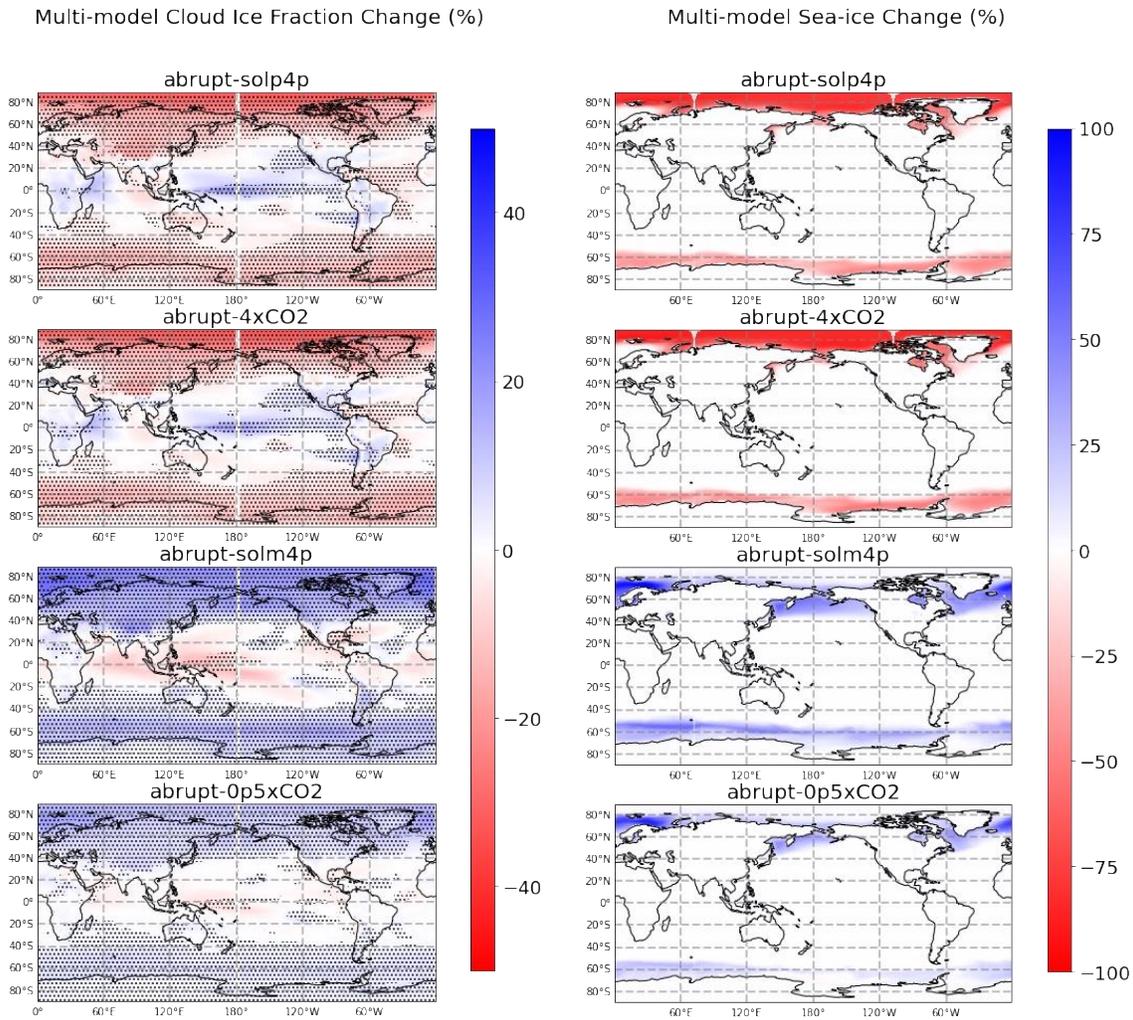
773

### 774 3.7 Cloud Phase Feedbacks and Sea Ice-Cloud Interaction

775

776 On the left-hand side of **Figure 10** we show the changes in whole-column cloud ice mass  
777 fraction, which is the vertically integrated atmospheric ice-mass content divided by the combined  
778 mass of ice and liquid water. There is an increase in cloud ice mass fraction in the solm4p and  
779 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> that extends through the midlatitudes down to 30° in the solm4p and to 40° in the  
780 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub>. In the solp4p and 4xCO<sub>2</sub> there is a reduction in cloud ice mass fraction poleward of  
781 50° latitude. The change in cloud ice fraction in each of the four experiments is well collocated  
782 with the change in low-cloud optical depth shown in **Figures 2 and 3**.

783 The right panels in **Figure 10** show the change in sea-ice extent as a thirty-year average  
784 deviation from the pre-industrial climatology. In the cooling experiments the sea-ice reaches  
785 much lower latitudes than in the pre-industrial climate, where there is sea-ice growth past 50° in  
786 both hemispheres of the solm4p and growth past 55° in the 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub>. In the warming  
787 experiments there is a large reduction of sea-ice that reaches Antarctica and the North Pole such  
788 that the arctic is nearly ice-free. The effects of both the cloud phase and sea-ice on cloud  
789 attributes and radiative effect are discussed in the following section.



790  
 791 *Figure 10 Left: Multi-model mean change in cloud ice mass fraction shown as the average of the*  
 792 *final 30 years of simulation subtracting the pre-industrial average. As in previous figures,*  
 793 *stippling indicates regions where there is model agreement on the sign of the change. Right:*  
 794 *Multi-model mean change in sea-ice fraction shown as the average of the final 30 years of*  
 795 *simulation subtracting the pre-industrial average.*

#### 796 **4 Discussion of Physical Mechanisms**

797

798 In this section we discuss further the simulated cloud changes and likely mechanisms in  
 799 the context of previous studies. In turn, we focus on high clouds, low and mid-level clouds, and  
 800 lastly high latitude clouds. We also briefly discuss some limitations of the radiative kernel  
 801 approach at the end of this section.

802

##### 803 4.1 High Clouds

804 In the solp4p and 4xCO<sub>2</sub> experiments, there is a high cloud change that is indicative of a  
 805 weakening walker circulation, as well as a shift of the ITCZ towards the equator and a

806 Northeastward shift of the SPCZ. The cloud changes occur in the same locations as changes in  
 807 the vertical velocity, indicating that the tropical high cloud changes are in fact circulation driven.  
 808 A similar circulation pattern occurs during the El Nino phase of ENSO (Adames & Wallace,  
 809 2017). In the warming experiments, the increase in tropical surface temperature is largest in the  
 810 Tropical Central Pacific (see **Figure 9**), similar to the pattern associated with El Nino. Hence, the  
 811 models trend towards a tropical mean-state that is similar to the El Nino phase of the current  
 812 climate.

813 There are a handful of mechanisms which have been proposed to mediate the zonal  
 814 temperature gradient and associated Walker circulation (Held & Soden, 2006; Knutson &  
 815 Manabe, 1995; Williams et al., 2023). Each of which predict walker circulation changes  
 816 consistent with those seen in the warming and cooling experiments analyzed here. Knutson &  
 817 Manabe (1995) proposed a pair of contributing mechanisms, the first of which is that higher  
 818 static stability occurs in the warming experiments, which slows the convection in the West  
 819 Pacific and decreases subsidence in the East Pacific, causing less wind stress along the equatorial  
 820 Pacific, bringing less cool water from the Eastern Pacific into the Central Pacific, and creating a  
 821 weaker surface temperature gradient between the Central and Western Pacific. We do find higher  
 822 static stability in the West Pacific (more below on this) and decreased subsidence in the East  
 823 Pacific (see **Figure 7**) in the warming experiments.

824 The opposite does not occur (at least not to the same extent) following the abrupt  
 825 reduction of the solar constant or CO<sub>2</sub>, where there is not a clear shift towards a La Nina-like  
 826 mean state in the solm4p or 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> experiments. In the solm4p experiments the static stability  
 827 decreases in the West Pacific, but the change is weaker than the increase in the solp4p and  
 828 4xCO<sub>2</sub> experiments. The multi-model mean static stability anomaly averaged over the final 30  
 829 years of simulation in the Tropical West Pacific from 600 to 200 hPa is 0.020 and 0.022 K/hPa in  
 830 the 4xCO<sub>2</sub> and solp4p experiments respectively, and the stability anomaly over the same region  
 831 is -0.014 K/hPa in the solm4p experiment. The static stability anomaly over this region has a  
 832 smaller amplitude in the solm4p than the 2 warming experiments in all models (shown in **Table**  
 833 **6**).

834 This can be understood as a consequence of the moist adiabatic lapse rate, which  
 835 effectively sets the lapse rate in convective regimes near quasi-equilibrium. The moist adiabatic  
 836 lapse rate has a nonlinear relationship with surface temperature (due in part to the dependence of  
 837 the saturation vapor pressure on temperature, and the Clausius-Clapeyron relationship), such that  
 838 the lapse rate increases more rapidly with increasing temperature. This creates the asymmetric  
 839 static stability changes in the warming and cooling experiments, and following Knutson &  
 840 Manabe (1995) causes a greater slowing of the Walker circulation in the warming experiments  
 841 than there is hastening of the Walker circulation in the cooling experiments.

842

**Static Stability Anomaly (K/hPa)**

| Experiment             | <b>Abrupt-4xCO2</b> | <b>Abrupt-solp4p</b> | <b>Abrupt-0p5xCO2</b> | <b>Abrupt-solm4p</b> |
|------------------------|---------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|
| <b>IPSL-CM6A-LR</b>    | 0.023               | 0.024                | -0.008                | -0.016               |
| <b>MRI-ESM2-0</b>      | 0.014               | 0.015                | -0.007                | -0.012               |
| <b>CanESM5</b>         | 0.024               | 0.032                | -0.007                | -0.017               |
| <b>CESM2</b>           | 0.018               | 0.014                | -0.005                | -0.01                |
| <b>HadGEM3-GC31-LL</b> | 0.019               | 0.023                | 0.02                  | NA                   |
| <b>MM mean</b>         | 0.020               | 0.022                | -0.0014               | -0.014               |

843 **Table 6** Static Stability averaged over the final 30 years of each simulation in the Tropical West  
844 Pacific (120-140° Longitude, -15-15° Latitude) from 600 to 200 hPa.

845

846 The other contribution to Walker circulation changes identified by Knutson & Manabe  
847 (1995) is the role of the longwave cooling profile, due to changes in specific humidity of the  
848 upper troposphere. In a warmer climate the upper tropospheric cooling rate over the West Pacific  
849 increases more than is balanced by convective heating. The net radiative cooling over the West  
850 Pacific weakens the pressure gradient aloft that circulates air from the convective West to  
851 subsiding East Pacific, weakening the Walker circulation. Only 2 of the models we have  
852 examined here saved output of vertically resolved radiative flux, however both models with  
853 radiative flux outputs do show a larger increase in LW cooling from the 4xCO2 and solp4p than  
854 the reduction in LW cooling in the solm4p experiment (see **Supplemental Materials**). This  
855 suggests that the asymmetrical response in the tropical pacific to warming and cooling is  
856 consistent with both mechanisms presented by Knutson & Manabe (1995).

857 In the framework of Held & Soden (2006), a change in convective moisture flux is  
858 viewed through the lens of the hydrological budget. Moisture flux ( $M$ ) is equal to the product of  
859 boundary layer specific humidity ( $q_{BL}$ ; in our case averaged from the surface to 850 hPa), and  
860 precipitation ( $P$ ) such that a change in convective moisture flux is the difference between a  
861 change in boundary layer specific humidity, and precipitation.

862

$$\frac{1}{M} \frac{dM}{dT} = \frac{1}{P} \frac{dP}{dT} - \frac{1}{q_{BL}} \frac{dq_{BL}}{dT} \quad (3)$$

863

864 Over the Tropical West Pacific (120-140° longitude, -15-15° latitude), the difference in specific  
865 humidity and precipitation changes predicts a multi-model mean temperature mediated change in  
866 the convective moisture flux of -6.0 %/K for solp4p, -6.9 %/K for 4xCO2, -1.6 %/K for solm4p,

867 and -3.6 %/K for 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub>. This is again consistent with a stronger dampening of the Walker  
868 circulation and reduced high cloud in the Tropical West Pacific in the warming experiments. We  
869 note that the difference in mass flux change calculated using the Held & Soden (2006)  
870 framework is mostly due to the boundary layer specific humidity term of Equation 2. In the  
871 Tropical West Pacific, the temperature mediated boundary layer specific humidity changes are  
872 an increase of 5.9 %/K for solp4p, and 5.6 %/K for 4xCO<sub>2</sub>, and decrease of 3.4 %/K for solm4p,  
873 and 3.6 %/K.

874 Our findings of a different response in the Walker circulation to warming and cooling is  
875 also consistent with the results of Williams et al. (2023), who performed model experiments with  
876 warming and cooling patches in the Tropical West Pacific. They use the tropical moist static  
877 energy budget to find that nonlinear response to tropical warming and cooling is a direct result of  
878 quasi-equilibrium in the ascending portion of the tropical atmosphere, and relatively weak  
879 temperature gradients in the tropical free troposphere. They find that cooling reduces the amount  
880 of deep convection in the West Pacific, which causes weaker coupling between the Western  
881 Pacific boundary layer, and free tropospheric temperature. Such decoupling means that cooling  
882 the west Pacific has less impact on the east Pacific than warming, hence there is a weaker Walker  
883 circulation change from cooling than warming.

884 In addition to the zonal (Walker) circulation in the equatorial Pacific, there are also  
885 changes in the meridional (Hadley) circulation in the tropics and subtropics. In the solp4p and  
886 4xCO<sub>2</sub> there is a weakening and widening of the Hadley circulation (shown in **Figure 8**), that is  
887 similar across the two warming experiments. In the solm4p there is a characteristically similar  
888 effect in the opposite direction, where in both the Northern and Southern Hadley Cells the  
889 circulation strengthens, and narrows. Interestingly, however, in the 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> there is only a  
890 change in the Hadley cell strength in the Northern Hemisphere. In the Southern Hemisphere, the  
891 Hadley circulation strength and width remains nearly the same as during the pre-industrial  
892 climate simulations. This suggests that greater forcing may be necessary to change the Southern  
893 Hemisphere Hadley circulation than the Northern Hemisphere circulation. In the 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> there  
894 is a narrowing of the Hadley circulation, indicating that even though the strength does not  
895 change, the static stability decrease in the subtropics still moves the threshold of baroclinic  
896 instability closer to the equator, which drives the Hadley cell boundary (Lu et al., 2007).

897 There is also a high cloud shift associated with changing locations and strength of the  
898 ITCZ and SPCZ. In the subtropical Southern Pacific, the temperature change is smaller than the  
899 global mean change. The relatively warm subtropical surface temperatures are collocated with an  
900 increase in high cloud amount and contributes to the South-Western shift of the SPCZ. Narsey et  
901 al. (2022) found that in CMIP5 and CMIP6 models, the SPCZ shifts towards the region with  
902 relatively high surface temperatures under warming. In our case the SPCZ shifts towards the  
903 regions with greater warming in the solp4p and 4xCO<sub>2</sub>, and towards regions less cooling in the  
904 solm4p and 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub>.

905 There is positive feedback in the tropics of all experiments associated with the change in  
906 CTP with warming and cooling, consistent with the Fixed Anvil Temperature (FAT) hypothesis

907 (Hartmann & Larson, 2002; Zelinka & Hartmann, 2010). Under FAT, the maximum height of  
908 deep convection is set by the height at which longwave cooling of the clear-sky atmosphere is no  
909 longer efficient. The longwave cooling of the upper atmosphere is predominately due to water  
910 vapor, and the spectral properties of the water vapor molecule cause strong radiative cooling to  
911 space throughout the troposphere with temperatures above 220 K, and little cooling to space at  
912 temperatures below 220 K (Jeevanjee & Fueglistaler, 2020). Thus, when the climate warms deep  
913 convective clouds rise in altitude (and vice-versa for cooling climates) keeping convective cloud  
914 tops near 220 K. This creates a positive LW cloud feedback because the relative cooling of the  
915 cloud top emission temperature remains nearly constant as the surface temperature increases  
916 (Hartmann & Larson, 2002; Zelinka & Hartmann, 2010). There is observational support for this  
917 feedback, including a recent study we have published on rising cloud tops of high clouds based  
918 on stereo-imaging observations from the NASA Multiangle Imaging Spectro-Radiometer  
919 (MISR) (Aerenson et al., 2022; Norris et al., 2016). We also find in Section 3.2 that the feedback  
920 associated with decreasing CTP is slightly stronger in solp4p than 4xCO<sub>2</sub>. The difference is  
921 small but is consistent with solp4p causing more concentrated warming in the tropics, where  
922 deep convection is more common.

923

#### 924 4.2 Low and Mid-level Clouds

925

926 All of the abrupt forcing experiments produce significant temperature mediated changes  
927 in low and midlevel clouds. In the solp4p and 4xCO<sub>2</sub> there is a reduction of optically medium  
928 low cloud between 40° S and 40° N, especially along the Eastern Pacific cold tongue, and in  
929 regions with persistent stratocumulus decks (denoted in **Figure 9**). Stratocumulus clouds form  
930 when there is supply of moisture at the surface, the boundary layer is well mixed and has  
931 sufficient instability to lift surface air to the condensation level, and the free troposphere is stable  
932 enough to cap the instability at a relatively low altitude. Bretherton (2015) identified four  
933 feedback mechanisms that cause stratocumulus clouds to change with increased CO<sub>2</sub>: 1) *the*  
934 *radiative effect* where an increase in water vapor or CO<sub>2</sub> in the free troposphere inhibits cloud  
935 top cooling (which stabilizes the boundary layer causing stratocumulus to lower and thin with an  
936 increasingly emissive free troposphere), 2) *the dynamic effect* where decreases in subsidence  
937 with warming (for a fixed inversion strength) results in an increase in the boundary layer  
938 thickness and thicker stratocumulus (assuming there is sufficient mixing within the boundary  
939 layer to maintain coupling between the cloud and surface), 3) *the thermodynamic effect* where a  
940 warmer sea-surface temperature or drier free troposphere results in a larger gradient in the  
941 specific humidity (across the inversion) that promotes more efficient turbulent entrainment-  
942 driven drying of the boundary layer and thins stratocumulus, and finally 4) *the stability effect*  
943 where a stronger inversion (larger EIS) results in less entrainment that lowers and thickens  
944 stratocumulus.

945 *The radiative effect* (which differ substantially between the solp4p and 4xCO<sub>2</sub>) is part of  
946 the adjustment to the solar and CO<sub>2</sub> forcing rather than the temperature mediated response, and

947 so is discussed in detail in Part II which specifically addresses cloud adjustments (Aerenson et  
948 al., 2023). The other three mechanisms are nominally all present in the temperature mediated  
949 response. Mechanism 2 suggests that slowing circulations might result in an increase in  
950 stratocumulus with warming, while mechanisms 3 and 4 would decrease stratocumulus. As  
951 shown in **Figure 7** there is a reduction of subsidence with warming in stratocumulus regimes.  
952 However, no regions experience a net increase in low clouds, and so mechanism 2 is clearly not  
953 dominating the other response mechanisms. We note however, that a careful examination of  
954 **Figure 2** shows that there is an increase (purple colors) in optically medium mid-level, and to a  
955 lesser degree optically thick mid-level clouds (though we note there is poor model agreement).  
956 This is consistent with rising cloud tops in some models and mechanism 2 – *the dynamic effect* –  
957 is the only mechanism that causes rising stratocumulus cloud tops with warming. The remaining  
958 two mechanisms predict a decrease in cloudiness with increasing sea-surface temperature and  
959 EIS. There is low-cloud loss even in locations with decreasing EIS, which suggests that sea-  
960 surface temperature changes (*the thermodynamic effect*) likely play a dominant role in the  
961 changes of marine low-clouds. This result is consistent with the review paper by Klein et al.  
962 (2017) who find that sea-surface temperature is the leading cloud controlling factor for  
963 subtropical stratocumulus followed by EIS, and with lesser contributions from subsidence,  
964 advection, and free tropospheric relative humidity.

965 In the midlatitudes and subtropics outside of the stratocumulus regimes, low level clouds  
966 are commonly cumulus clouds, often called trade wind cumulus. Such trade cumulus also  
967 experiences substantial temperature mediated change; however they are often overlooked in  
968 favor of stratocumulus clouds, due stratocumulus clouds' tendency to dominate the low-cloud  
969 radiative effect and feedbacks. They can be understood through a similar framework of boundary  
970 layer moisture availability and free tropospheric drying as stratocumulus, and feedbacks from  
971 open-cell cumulus clouds have been found to be tightly linked with boundary layer convective  
972 mixing. (Sherwood et al., 2014; Vogel et al., 2022). We find a substantial decrease in low  
973 cloudiness in the warming experiments over Southern Hemisphere Ocean centered around 40° S  
974 that is larger (and more consistent between models) than that occurring in the Northern  
975 Hemisphere. Near this latitude in the Southern Hemisphere, there is relatively large sea-surface  
976 temperature increase (as compared with the global mean, or the Northern Hemisphere), a  
977 stronger temperature mediated decrease in EIS, and greater drying at 700 hPa, all of which may  
978 contribute to the decrease in low cloudiness. Zelinka et al. (2020) examined the cause of high  
979 cloud feedbacks in 4xCO<sub>2</sub> between 60° and 30° S in CMIP5 and CMIP6 models. Through a  
980 multi-linear regression, they show that the decrease in low cloud amount in CMIP6 models is  
981 largely due to a combination of increasing EIS, and a drying of the free troposphere (reduction in  
982 700 hPa relative humidity). The ensemble of models used by Zelinka et al. (2020) does include  
983 the models examined here, as such we expect the same mechanisms to be responsible.

984 Through the use of data produced in the EUREC<sup>4</sup>A field campaign Vogel et al. (2022)  
985 find a near-zero trade-cumulus feedback (which disagrees with the feedback found here), they  
986 note that many models exaggerate the relationship between cloudiness and relative humidity.

987 Additionally, Vogel et al. (2022) show that models underestimate the coupling between clouds  
988 and mesoscale convection in trade cumulus regimes. Thus, the mechanisms controlling trade  
989 cumulus in our model simulations may not be the same as those which control trade cumulus on  
990 Earth.

991 Turning attention to the difference between the cloud response to 4xCO<sub>2</sub> and solp4p, the  
992 largest difference occurs in the optically medium low cloud category, where there is about a  
993 0.07% greater reduction of cloud with warming due to solar forcing than CO<sub>2</sub> forcing. This  
994 difference in low and mid-level cloud amount is consistent with a stronger *thermodynamic effect*  
995 in solp4p, as there is slightly greater warming in the tropics and subtropics in solp4p than occurs  
996 in the 4xCO<sub>2</sub> (for an equivalent change in global mean temperature). The difference in warming  
997 pattern following solar and CO<sub>2</sub> forcing is further explored in Part II, which examines the cloud  
998 changes which are not mediated by global mean temperature change (including changing SST  
999 pattern effects). Zhou et al. (2023) find that warming patterns are a strong predictor of cloud  
1000 feedbacks to a variety of forcing mechanisms such that a green's function approach can be used  
1001 to reconstruct the feedback to a specific forcing agent if the warming pattern is known. In the  
1002 solp4p experiment there is more warming in the tropics and subtropics than the 4xCO<sub>2</sub> (shown  
1003 in Part II), hence we speculate that the enhanced warming in the tropics of subtropics of solp4p  
1004 (when compared with 4xCO<sub>2</sub>) causes a stronger cloud feedback via *the thermodynamic effect*.

1005 In the cooling experiments, the positive feedback associated with oceanic low cloud  
1006 increases (orange colors in **Figure 3**) is broadly similar, but somewhat weaker than in the  
1007 warming experiments, and does not extend as far poleward. There is, however, a stronger (and  
1008 more consistent) change in mid-level cloud over the Namibian, Australian, and Peruvian  
1009 stratocumulus decks, associated with increases in subsident rates and consistent with a relatively  
1010 strong *dynamic effect*.

1011

### 1012 4.3 High Latitude Clouds

1013

1014 In both warming experiments there is an increase in low and mid-level cloud optical  
1015 depth poleward of about 60°, and the opposite response: a decrease in optical depth (poleward of  
1016 about 40°) in both cooling experiments. This is evidenced in **Figures 2 and 3** as a reduction in  
1017 optically thin clouds and an increase in optically medium and thick cloud in the warming  
1018 experiments, and vice-versa in the cooling experiments.

1019 As demonstrated by **Figure 10**, this change in optical depth (and its latitude) is collocated  
1020 with a reduction in the relative fraction of condensate mass that is ice in the warming  
1021 experiments (and increase in the cooling experiments). Cloud ice crystals tend to be larger than  
1022 liquid droplets, and as such for an equivalent amount of condensate mass, there are more  
1023 particles in a liquid cloud than an ice cloud and this causes ice clouds to be less reflective of  
1024 sunlight than liquid clouds (e.g. Cesana & Storelvmo, 2017; Rogers & Yau, 1989). Additionally,  
1025 for an equivalent liquid/ice water path liquid clouds are less efficient at precipitating, so liquid  
1026 clouds tend to contain more water than ice clouds, which may cause them to be optically thicker

1027 and have longer lifetime (McCoy et al., 2015; Mitchell et al., 1989; Mülmenstädt et al., 2021;  
1028 Senior & Mitchell, 1993; Tsushima et al., 2006). These theoretical expectations are supported by  
1029 observations, including ground based measurements by Terai et al. (2019), who found that at  
1030 high latitudes clouds with a mean temperature less than 0°C are observed to have an increased  
1031 optical depth with warming.

1032 The cloud changes shown in **Figures 2 and 3** are consistent with this expected cloud  
1033 optical depth-phase feedback. Zhu & Poulsen (2020) likewise identified the latitude at which this  
1034 cloud phase feedback occurs to shift and create a non-linearity in the amount of temperature  
1035 change that occurs from different amounts of forcing. However, we note that the cloud optical  
1036 depth changes seen in **Figures 2 and 3** might also be related to sea-ice changes (at least at very  
1037 high latitudes), because shrinking sea-ice allows for greater heat absorption in the Summer and  
1038 release in the Autumn, which deepens the boundary layer and thickens low clouds following  
1039 Morrison et al. (2019).

1040

#### 1041 4.4 Limitations of the Cloud Radiative Effect from Kernels

1042

1043 Using the cloud radiative kernels, we find that the previously mentioned cloud optical  
1044 depth change associated with phase partitioning changes constitutes a positive feedback in the  
1045 solm4p and 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub>, due to the increased reflectivity of the low-cloud layer, and relatively  
1046 little feedback in the 4xCO<sub>2</sub> and solp4p. This kernel-derived cloud feedback illustrates a  
1047 limitation with the cloud radiative kernel method. The radiative kernels isolate the radiative  
1048 effect of cloud changes from the effect of changes below the cloud layer which are often referred  
1049 to as cloud masking effects (Zelinka et al., 2013). In the forced experiments we use cloud  
1050 radiative kernels which correspond to the local surface albedo in the models' base-state. So, in  
1051 the solp4p and 4xCO<sub>2</sub> experiments, the cloud thickening does not cause a strong cloud feedback  
1052 using the cloud radiative kernels because in the initial state, there is high-albedo sea-ice beneath  
1053 the clouds, which diminishes the SW radiative effect of the clouds, and the kernel method does  
1054 not account for the sea-ice reduction when calculating the radiative anomaly in the warmed  
1055 climate, or the sea-ice growth in the cooled climate of solm4p and 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub>. In the  
1056 **Supplemental Materials** the cloud radiative effect is calculated using a different method of  
1057 taking the difference in the model top-of-atmosphere radiative flux changes calculated both with  
1058 and without clouds included in the model's radiation calculation. While this method does not  
1059 allow one to parse the change into those due to various cloud types, and only provides the total  
1060 change due to clouds, it does include cloud masking effects. Using this method we find there is a  
1061 positive cloud feedback over regions of sea-ice loss in the solp4p and 4xCO<sub>2</sub>, and a weaker  
1062 cloud feedback over areas of sea-ice growth in solm4p and 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> than is found using the  
1063 radiative kernel method, though this does not rise to a level that changes any of our discussion or  
1064 conclusions.

1065

## 1066 **5 Conclusions**

1067

1068 We began this paper by posing the following two questions: 1) How do cloud feedbacks  
1069 differ in response to abrupt changes in CO<sub>2</sub> and solar forcing? And 2) Are there symmetrical  
1070 (equal and opposite) cloud feedbacks to an increase and a decrease of radiative forcing? Overall,  
1071 this paper has allowed us to parse through the effects of solar and CO<sub>2</sub> forcing to determine what  
1072 types of temperature mediated cloud changes occur from each forcing agent, and how  
1073 temperature mediated cloud changes are different in warming and cooling model experiments of  
1074 both CO<sub>2</sub> and solar forcing. In short, the answer to the first question is that the temperature  
1075 mediated cloud feedbacks are quite similar between solp4p and 4xCO<sub>2</sub>, however there are small  
1076 differences in the feedbacks (which we discuss further below). And concerning the second  
1077 question we find numerous differences between the response to increase and decrease of  
1078 radiative forcing, most notably are those related to cloud phase feedbacks and changes in tropical  
1079 circulation.

1080 Consistent with Kaur et al. (2023), we do see some differences in the surface warming  
1081 pattern that results from differences in the pattern of radiative forcing between the solp4p and  
1082 4xCO<sub>2</sub> forcing experiments. In particular, there is slightly greater warming in the tropics, and  
1083 less warming near the poles in the solp4p experiment than in the 4xCO<sub>2</sub> that we speculate is due  
1084 to the radiative forcing in the solar experiment being larger in the tropics. This greater  
1085 temperature increase in the tropics drives a greater loss in low-cloud amount in solp4p as  
1086 compared with 4xCO<sub>2</sub>. This does not have a great impact on high cloud changes, because in both  
1087 the solp4p and 4xCO<sub>2</sub> the tropical high cloud changes are dominated by a weakening of the  
1088 walker circulation, which causes cloud changes of similar magnitude in both the solp4p and  
1089 4xCO<sub>2</sub>.

1090 Both Rose et al. (2014) and Salvi et al. (2022) found that forcing the midlatitudes causes  
1091 more positive cloud feedbacks (yielding a less negative total feedback parameter) than CO<sub>2</sub>  
1092 forcing, or forcing concentrated in the tropics. This relates to our study because CO<sub>2</sub> forcing is  
1093 spatially uniform across the globe (due to the long lifetime of CO<sub>2</sub> making it evenly mixed  
1094 through the atmosphere), and solar forcing is strongest in the tropics. In our comparison of cloud  
1095 feedbacks from solar and CO<sub>2</sub> forcing, we find more positive feedbacks from solar than CO<sub>2</sub>  
1096 forcing (**Figure 6**), which is opposite that suggested by Rose et al. (2014) and Salvi et al. (2022).  
1097 The discrepancy of our findings may be due to numerous differences in our simulations, most  
1098 notably that Rose et al. (2014) and Salvi et al. (2022) both forced the midlatitudes without also  
1099 forcing the tropics. So their comparisons of midlatitude and tropical forcing with CO<sub>2</sub> forcing  
1100 contained much larger differences in the geographical distribution of the forcing than our  
1101 comparison of solar and CO<sub>2</sub> forcing. Such localized forcing may also create circulations and  
1102 teleconnections that do not occur in our experiments. Hence, our results do not negate their  
1103 conclusions, they do however show that the geographical differences between solar and CO<sub>2</sub>  
1104 forcing are not sufficient to yield the feedback patterns found by Rose et al. (2014) and Salvi et  
1105 al. (2022).

1106           Regarding the question of how climate warming compares to climate cooling, our results  
1107 are largely consistent with Chalmers et al., (2022), in that we find key differences between  
1108 warming and cooling to occur at high latitudes, where the latitude at which ice processes are  
1109 active in the pervasive low-level clouds and sea-ice extend farther equatorward from cooling.  
1110 The greater spatial coverage of the cloud phase and sea-ice transition, as well as the increase in  
1111 insolation with decreasing latitude causes the associated SW feedback to be stronger in the  
1112 cooling experiments than warming experiments. This result is also consistent with work that has  
1113 been done on non-linear feedbacks to different amounts of warming by Bloch-Johnson et al.  
1114 (2021) and Zhu & Poulsen (2020), who also identified the sea-ice and cloud phase transitions as  
1115 locations where of non-linear feedbacks are prominent.

1116           The results of the solm4p and 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> experiments also indicate the importance of the  
1117 temperature pattern in the tropics for dictating cloud feedbacks. We find that the zonal  
1118 temperature gradient across the equatorial Pacific weakens from global warming far more than it  
1119 strengthens due to global cooling, such that there is a stronger Walker circulation change as a  
1120 response to warming than cooling. Chalmers et al., (2022) found a similar result by comparing  
1121 simulations of 2xCO<sub>2</sub> and 0p5xCO<sub>2</sub> in CESM1. Our results with a multi-model ensemble (albeit  
1122 a small one) solidify the robustness of the differences between warming and cooling found by  
1123 Chalmers et al., (2022).

1124           As a caution, we note this analysis was performed with a relatively small subset of the  
1125 CMIP6 models, and although the results discussed are consistent across our set of models, they  
1126 may not be representative of a larger ensemble. Additionally, we use single realizations from  
1127 each model for each experiment, which limits our ability to assess whether differences between  
1128 experiments surpass internal variability. We try to overcome such limitations by using model  
1129 experiments with relatively large abrupt forcing, such that the signal to noise ratio is large, and  
1130 derive temperature mediated cloud changes from relatively long model simulations (150 years),  
1131 to dampen the importance of internal variability.

1132           In closing, we have focused in this study on the temperature mediated component of  
1133 cloud changes. We have found that differences between the temperature mediated response to  
1134 solar and CO<sub>2</sub> radiative forcing are subtle, meaning the temperature mediated cloud changes are  
1135 fairly insensitive to the forcing mechanism. This supports the underlying premise of the feedback  
1136 model, that cloud feedbacks can be understood as a combination of the response to global  
1137 temperature and an adjustment that occurs directly due to the forcing agent. If the abrupt changes  
1138 in solar and CO<sub>2</sub> radiative forcing had resulted in a substantially differing temperature mediated  
1139 cloud response, this would indicate that the temperature mediated component were not  
1140 necessarily driven by global temperature, and instead were specific to the forcing agent. This is  
1141 not to suggest that there are not differences in the responses, and we do find some driven by  
1142 differences in the pattern of sea-surface temperature; only that these differences are modest on  
1143 the 150 year time-scale examined here and given a similar total change in surface temperature.  
1144 The magnitude of the forcing does matter, and indeed we found numerous differences between  
1145 the cloud response to warming and cooling. Also, to be clear, there are larger differences in the

1146 cloud adjustment component of the response to solar and CO<sub>2</sub> forcing (meaning the cloud  
1147 changes which are not mediated by global mean temperature), which is examined in detail in the  
1148 companion paper to this (Part II Aeronson et al., 2023).

1149

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1154 study.

## 1155 **Open Research**

1156 All data used in this study are available for download from the World Climate Research  
1157 Program (WCRP) CMIP6 data archive (<https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/>). Additionally  
1158 the cloud radiative kernels were downloaded from <https://github.com/mzelinka>.

1159

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