

1 **Connections between clouds, radiation, and midlatitude dynamics: a review**

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10 trends; global warming

11 **Abstract**

12 We review the effects of dynamical variability on clouds and radiation in observations and models, and  
13 discuss their implications for cloud feedbacks. Jet shifts produce robust meridional dipoles in upper-level  
14 clouds and longwave cloud-radiative effect (CRE), but low-level clouds, which do not simply shift with the  
15 jet, dominate the shortwave CRE. Because the effect of jet variability on CRE is relatively small, future  
16 poleward jet shifts with global warming are only a second-order contribution to the total CRE changes  
17 around the midlatitudes, suggesting a dominant role for thermodynamic effects. This implies that  
18 constraining the dynamical response is unlikely to reduce the uncertainty in extratropical cloud feedback.  
19 However, we argue that uncertainty in the cloud-radiative response does affect the atmospheric  
20 circulation response to global warming, by modulating patterns of diabatic forcing. How cloud feedbacks  
21 can affect the dynamical response to global warming is an important topic of future research.

22

## 23 **1. Introduction**

24 Clouds are an essential component of the climate system through their effect on shortwave (SW) and  
25 longwave (LW) radiative fluxes. With a globally-averaged cloud radiative effect of  $-20 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ , clouds act to  
26 strongly cool the planet [1]. With global warming, however, clouds and their radiative effects are expected  
27 to change, providing a feedback that is most likely positive, but highly uncertain [1–3]. To better  
28 understand the processes driving the cloud response, it is useful to distinguish between those related to  
29 circulation changes, and those that are not; we refer to these as dynamic and thermodynamic processes,  
30 respectively [e.g., 4]. The focus of this review will be on the interaction between dynamics and clouds in  
31 the midlatitudes, and we will discuss clouds mainly in terms of their radiative effects.

32 Understanding the linkages between clouds, radiation and large-scale circulation is important for several  
33 reasons. First, studying cloud occurrence as a function of the dynamical state in models and observations  
34 is useful to assess the performance of cloud parameterization schemes, and may reveal the causes of  
35 cloud-radiative biases in climate models [5–7]. Furthermore, the cloud-radiative response to dynamical  
36 variability is still poorly understood, but may have significant regional climate implications, affecting  
37 ocean-atmosphere coupling time scales and the persistence of modes of sea surface temperature (SST)  
38 variability [8, 9]. Finally, understanding cloud-radiative responses to atmospheric circulation changes is  
39 important in the context of global warming, since most state-of-the-art climate models predict poleward  
40 shifts of the midlatitude jets, or equivalently positive trends in the annular mode indices in both  
41 hemispheres [10, 11].

42 Our ability to quantify interactions between clouds and dynamics has been hampered by the lack of high-  
43 quality measurements of clouds and radiation with sufficient spatial and temporal coverage. As such  
44 measurements have become increasingly available in recent years, however, a number of studies have  
45 investigated the interactions between clouds and dynamics, allowing our scientific understanding to  
46 expand rapidly. In this review paper, we assess our understanding of the linkages between midlatitude  
47 dynamical variability and cloud radiative effects, focusing on three questions:

48 (1) How do the dominant modes of dynamical variability affect clouds and radiation?

49 (2) Does the dynamical response to global warming affect cloud feedbacks?

50 (3) Do model biases in dynamics cause biases in clouds and radiation?

51 The three questions are addressed in sections 2, 3, and 4, based on a synthesis of recent literature. In  
52 section 5, we discuss some important implications of previous findings and identify open questions for  
53 future research. Section 6 provides a summary and conclusions.

54

## 55 **2. Effects of dynamical modes of variability on clouds and radiation in midlatitudes**

56 We begin by reviewing the effects of the dominant modes of dynamical variability on clouds and radiation  
57 in the midlatitudes, in the context of natural (unforced) variability. In the extratropics, large-scale  
58 dynamical variability is dominated by the annular modes, consisting of meridional shifts of the jets and  
59 storm tracks with associated anomalies in vertical motion and precipitation [12–14]. It is tempting to  
60 believe that the meridional displacement of synoptic systems should result in similar shifts in cloudiness  
61 and cloud-radiative effects (CRE), as suggested by several studies [1, 15–18]. Recent research has  
62 revealed a more complex picture of the interactions between dynamics and clouds, however. Here we  
63 discuss SW and LW CRE anomalies associated with the annular mode in both observations and models.

64 The relationship between SW CRE and jet latitude in models and observations is summarized in Fig. 1a  
65 for the Southern Hemisphere (SH). In satellite observations, the SW CRE response to a  $1^\circ$  jet shift  
66 appears to be relatively weak and noisy in the SH, with regional anomalies of the order of  $\pm 3 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  or  
67 less in December–February [19, Fig. 4b], and much smaller in the zonal mean (Fig. 1a, red curve). It  
68 does not reflect a simple poleward shift of total cloud fraction. Although jet shifts are associated with clear  
69 annular anomalies in high and low cloud amount [17, Fig. 3a], the relative weakness of the SW CRE  
70 response may be due to canceling contributions from high and low clouds [17, Fig. 3a]. In climate models,  
71 Grise and Polvani [19] showed that considerable disagreement exists among models on the jet—SW  
72 CRE relationships. Even in models with strong jet—SW CRE coupling, however, the effect of a poleward  
73 jet shift on zonal-mean SW CRE appears to be relatively modest, with anomalies generally smaller than  
74  $\pm 2 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  per degree of jet shift in austral summer (Fig. 1a). The hemispheric-mean SW effect of a  
75 poleward jet shift is negligible in the SH in climate models, because contributions from the subtropics and  
76 midlatitudes tend to cancel each other [19, Fig. 3c].

77 In contrast, the LW response appears more robustly associated with jet shifts [19, 20]. The observed LW  
78 CRE response to Northern Annular Mode (NAM) variability can be understood in terms of the response of  
79 upper-level clouds to anomalous vertical motion [20], so that coherent meridional dipoles in cloud  
80 incidence and LW CRE occur over the North Atlantic and Europe, with positive cloud incidence and LW  
81 CRE anomalies poleward of the jet, and negative anomalies equatorward thereof [20, Figs. 3 and 4].  
82 Similar observations can be made in the SH (Fig. 1b), where the zonal symmetry of the dominant mode of  
83 dynamical variability produces fairly annular LW CRE anomalies, with good agreement between  
84 observations and models (Fig. 1b) [19, their Figs. 3a and 4a]. All these results are consistent with the  
85 conventional wisdom that mid- to high-level cloudiness robustly increases with both mean upward motion  
86 [7 (Fig. 5c), 21] and vertical velocity variance, the latter measuring storm track activity [7, Fig. 7a]. Thus,  
87 analyses of both models and observations show that upper-level clouds tend to follow meridional shifts of  
88 the jets and storm tracks, producing robust meridional dipoles in LW CRE about the midlatitudes.

89 The fact that the SW CRE response to jet variability is much less robust than the LW response is  
90 noteworthy, and probably reflects an important role of low-level clouds, whose representation is known to  
91 be problematic in climate models especially over the Southern Ocean [22]. It is possible that boundary-  
92 layer clouds are not related to free-tropospheric vertical motion anomalies in a simple way [23]. Li et al.  
93 [7] found opposite responses of high and low clouds to 500 hPa vertical velocity anomalies in  
94 observations of midlatitude regions (their Fig. 5c), which seems to support the results of Grise et al. [17,  
95 Fig. 3a].

96 Although annular modes and associated jet shifts are the dominant mode of dynamical variability in the  
97 midlatitudes, other types of variability may also affect clouds and radiation. Using a storm tracking  
98 algorithm, Tselioudis and Rossow [24] demonstrated a clear relationship between midlatitude storm  
99 intensity and cloudiness, such that more intense storms produce more cloud and larger SW and LW CRE.  
100 This appears consistent with the findings of Li et al. [7] associating larger vertical velocity variance in  
101 midlatitudes with enhanced cloudiness. Variations in storm track intensity have recently been shown to  
102 occur naturally in association with a mode of hemispheric-scale dynamical variability, the Baroclinic  
103 Annular Mode [BAM; 25, 26], with a dominant period of 20-30 days. The BAM might thus be associated  
104 with large-scale variations in cloud and radiation; the magnitude of this possible effect remains to be

105 quantified, however, and the dominance of the low cloud effect on shortwave radiation may greatly mute  
106 the influence of storminess.

107 While we describe the SW and LW CRE responses to midlatitude dynamical variability as relatively weak  
108 on zonal-mean scales, the CRE responses are non-negligible regionally and their possible relevance  
109 remains to be studied. Grise and Polvani [19] showed that transient SST anomalies following CO<sub>2</sub>  
110 quadrupling reflect the jet—CRE relationships in coupled models, because the rapid poleward jet shift  
111 affects the transient CRE anomalies. However, it is unclear to what extent this result applies to more  
112 realistic scenarios with gradual CO<sub>2</sub> increase and circulation change. Another possible impact of CRE  
113 responses to dynamical variability is on the persistence of modes of atmospheric and oceanic variability,  
114 since the cloud-radiative anomalies could act to amplify or dampen temperature variations associated  
115 with dynamical variability; we discuss this idea further in section 5. It should be noted here that zonal-  
116 mean jet latitude typically varies by several degrees on monthly time scales, causing monthly CRE  
117 anomalies much larger than those presented in Fig. 1. Finally, dynamics—CRE coupling may be relevant  
118 to cloud feedbacks, since the atmospheric circulation is expected to change with global warming. In the  
119 next section, we investigate the extent to which dynamical changes contribute to cloud feedbacks in  
120 climate models.

### 121 **Section summary**

- 122 • Observed CRE responses to jet shifts are generally weak on zonal-mean scales
- 123 • The SW CRE response to jet shifts is likely determined by the complex behavior of low clouds,  
124 while the LW response largely follows vertical motion anomalies
- 125 • Changes in storm track intensity also affect clouds and radiation, but the magnitude of this effect  
126 is uncertain

127

### 128 **3. Dynamical changes with global warming and cloud feedbacks**

129 Due to the robust poleward shift of midlatitude jets and storm tracks seen in global warming simulations  
130 [11], it has been proposed that midlatitude storm-track clouds might also shift poleward toward regions of

131 reduced insolation [16–18], which could result in a hemispheric-mean net positive cloud feedback from  
132 the shortwave effect [17]. This idea is among the positive cloud feedback mechanisms discussed in the  
133 last Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change [IPCC AR5, chapter 7; 1]. As  
134 discussed in the previous section, however, the SW CRE response to a jet shift is not a simple meridional  
135 dipole, being likely determined by the complex behavior of radiatively-important low clouds, and the multi-  
136 model mean response is negligibly small in the hemispheric mean.

137 Focusing on the effects of SW radiation, Kay et al. [27] noted that the cloud-radiative response to jet  
138 variability is considerably smaller in magnitude than the forced response to RCP8.5 forcing in two  
139 successive versions of a climate model, CCSM4 and CESM-CAM5. Although belonging to the same  
140 family, the two versions feature very different cloud responses to jet variability, with a much larger, dipole-  
141 like response in CCSM4 [Figs. 3c and S2c in 27]. Even in CCSM4, however, the contribution of the  
142 poleward jet shift to the RCP8.5 cloud response appears to be second-order. Performing a similar  
143 analysis on all available RCP8.5 experiments, Ceppi et al. [28] reached a similar conclusion (their Fig. 5).  
144 Kay et al. [27] pointed out that the RCP8.5 cloud-radiative response in CESM-CAM5 reflected large  
145 changes in low-cloud liquid water content, presumably driven by thermodynamic processes related to  
146 warming and boundary-layer stability changes.

147 Kodama et al. [29] studied the effects of warming on clouds and radiation from the perspective of  
148 individual midlatitude storms, by compositing over storms identified by a storm-tracking algorithm in an  
149 aquaplanet model. Upon SST warming, they found a generalized increase in cloud liquid water at low  
150 levels, causing a substantial negative SW cloud feedback and a more modest positive LW feedback. This  
151 negative SW feedback at mid to high latitudes, and the associated cloud water increases, are robust  
152 features of global warming model experiments [27, 30–32]. While some of the cloud water increase was  
153 attributable to an enhancement of storm amplitude with warming, Kodama et al. [29] were unable to  
154 explain the overall cloud water increase in terms of storm intensity, suggesting it is unrelated to dynamical  
155 changes. They also concluded that the poleward shift of the storm track did not appear to significantly  
156 contribute to the SW and LW responses in their model.

157 We confirm and complement previous analyses by calculating the “jet-related” component of the RCP8.5  
158 cloud-radiative response for SW, LW, and net radiation (red curves and shading in Fig. 2), plotted along  
159 with the total response for comparison (black curves in Fig. 2), similar to Kay et al. [27] and Ceppi et al.  
160 [28]. The jet-related component is calculated by regression analysis of CRE onto monthly-mean jet  
161 latitude [19], using the 1950—1999 period in the historical experiments of 32 CMIP5 models. The  
162 regressions are calculated for each calendar month separately, but only annual-mean results are shown.  
163 All CRE responses are adjusted to account for cloud masking effects of temperature, moisture and  
164 surface albedo anomalies, following the radiative kernel method of Soden et al. [2]. The effect of the  
165 poleward jet shift is simply obtained by multiplying the jet—CRE regression coefficients with the jet  
166 response for each month. Because the North Atlantic and North Pacific jets can vary independently and  
167 feature different global warming responses [11, 33, 34], the analysis is performed for each basin  
168 separately.

169 The SW responses feature large meridional dipoles about the midlatitudes, which are partially opposed  
170 by the LW responses. While such structures could be interpreted as resulting from a poleward expansion  
171 of the circulation, the red curves in Fig. 2 clearly show that this is not the case. It is also evident that the  
172 dynamical component is considerably smaller than the RCP8.5 anomalies for all radiation types and in all  
173 basins. The dynamical component of the CRE response in the Northern Hemisphere (NH) may be  
174 underestimated due to the zonal averaging, since the NH atmospheric circulation response features  
175 substantial zonal asymmetry [34]. While this may explain the smaller dynamical CRE response compared  
176 to the SH, it seems unlikely that accounting for this asymmetry would substantially affect our main  
177 conclusion. Thus, while the dynamical component of the cloud feedback can be a first-order term on a  
178 regional scale, particularly in the tropics [4], in a zonal- and annual-mean sense the thermodynamic  
179 component appears to be dominant around the midlatitudes.

180 It has also been proposed that a cloud feedback could result from changes in storm track *strength* rather  
181 than latitude [24], since observations reveal a positive correlation between storm strength and cloudiness  
182 [7, 24]. Tselioudis and Rossow [24] anticipate an overall negative cloud feedback due to increasing storm  
183 strength, somewhat mitigated by decreasing storm frequency. However, projected storminess changes in  
184 CMIP5 are robustly positive only in the SH [35]. In addition, the results of Kodama et al. [29] suggest that



185 the strengthening of storms explains only a small fraction of the negative cloud feedback in mid to high  
186 latitudes. Hence, while the exact magnitude of this effect remains unclear, it is most likely not a major  
187 contributor to the cloud feedback.

188 In summary, the results in Fig. 2, along with previous research, suggest that the meridional distribution of  
189 the changes in cloud amount, optical depth, and altitude responsible for the SW and LW global warming  
190 responses are not strongly coupled to the atmospheric circulation response, but rather associated with  
191 the thermodynamic effects of greenhouse gas forcing and its associated warming. Some implications of  
192 this result are discussed in section 5.

### 193 **Section summary**

- 194 • The poleward shift of the jet streams and storm tracks is a minor contribution to cloud feedbacks
- 195 • Storminess changes also appear unlikely to significantly affect cloud feedbacks
- 196 • Extratropical cloud feedbacks are mainly driven by thermodynamic processes

197

### 198 **4. Model biases in dynamics and in cloud-radiative effects**

199 We now briefly examine the effect of dynamical biases on the representation of clouds and radiation in  
200 climate models. It is of interest to determine whether model biases in CRE occur due to a wrong  
201 representation of dynamics, or because the models are unable to correctly depict the mean CRE for a  
202 given dynamical state. To address this question, a number of studies have analyzed the dependence of  
203 clouds and radiation on extratropical dynamics, with special focus on midlatitude storms [6, 21, 23, 36,  
204 37]. This question is of particular interest in the Southern midlatitudes, where a majority of CMIP5 models  
205 tend to underestimate the amount of reflected shortwave radiation [6, 22, 36].

206 Govekar et al. [21] compared the representation of midlatitude cyclones in observations with the ACCESS  
207 climate model, and found that part of the CRE bias was caused by an underestimation of the strength of  
208 storms, associated with an underrepresentation of cloud fraction. However, the model was also unable to  
209 accurately reproduce observed relationships between cloud fraction, vertical motion, and relative  
210 humidity, suggesting that part of the model CRE biases are unrelated to dynamical biases.

211 Studies have also linked CRE biases over the Southern midlatitudes to a systematic underestimation of  
212 cloudiness in the cold sector of storms, particularly linked to low- and mid-level clouds [6, 21, 36, 38].  
213 Williams et al. [36] ascribed this bias to insufficient vertical resolution of the boundary layer, which affects  
214 the boundary layer depth. They also noted that models run in hindcast mode (initialized from reanalyses)  
215 develop model-specific CRE biases within a very short time frame, mainly in the first 24 to 48 hours after  
216 initialization, when the dynamics are still very close to the reanalysis. Similarly, Ma et al. [37] found that  
217 CMIP5 models run in hindcast mode rapidly develop forecast errors similar to their climate biases, which  
218 they ascribed to the model physics (including cloud parameterizations). Taken together, these results  
219 strongly suggest that the CRE biases are not caused by dynamical biases, but rather by physical  
220 parameterizations and model resolution.

## 221 **Section summary**

- 222 • Model biases in clouds and radiation are due to model physics, not to biases in dynamics
- 223 • CRE biases have been linked to insufficient low- and mid-level cloudiness in the cold sector of  
224 storms

225

## 226 **5. Discussion**

227 Understanding and constraining cloud feedbacks is one of the most pressing problems in current climate  
228 research. The most recent generation of state-of-the-art climate models still suffers from large uncertainty  
229 in the cloud-radiative response to global warming, which affects climate sensitivity estimates [1, 3, 39].  
230 From this perspective, one important implication of the results above is that constraining the circulation  
231 response to global warming may not significantly reduce the uncertainty in the extratropical cloud  
232 feedback. This underlines the importance of studying the thermodynamic processes relevant to the cloud  
233 response. Around the midlatitudes, changes in optical depth associated with the amount of cloud liquid  
234 water appear to be particularly relevant to the cloud feedback, driven by the SW effect of low clouds [27,  
235 31, 32, 39, 40]. Further research is necessary to understand how the cloud liquid water response to  
236 climate change depends on processes such as changes in boundary layer properties, phase changes in  
237 mixed-phase clouds, increases in moisture availability with warming, and aerosol forcing. Understanding

238 the effects of such processes may also help identify observational constraints on the climate change  
239 response.

240 In this review paper we have mainly discussed how dynamical changes affect clouds and radiation.  
241 However, there is increasing evidence that cloud-radiative effects can also feed back onto the  
242 atmospheric circulation, by regulating spatial patterns of diabatic heating. We believe that the most  
243 pressing open question in the field of clouds—midlatitude dynamics interactions concerns the extent to  
244 which clouds and radiation can affect the atmospheric circulation. It has been shown that cloud-radiative  
245 biases affect the general structure of the circulation [41], and CRE biases appear to explain part of the  
246 circulation biases in climate models [42, 43]. Additional research is needed to address the following two  
247 questions:

248 (1) To what extent can cloud-radiative effects dampen or amplify atmospheric modes of variability?

249 In section 2, we have shown that the dominant mode of extratropical dynamical variability,  
250 consisting of a meridional shift of the midlatitude jet, yields relatively small changes in CRE on  
251 annual- and zonal-mean scales. Nevertheless, the possible importance of such seemingly small  
252 CRE variability remains to be assessed. For example, Li et al. [20] point out that the LW  
253 anomalies associated with the NAM tend to dampen the temperature anomalies during winter,  
254 which could reduce the persistence of the annular mode. In addition, SW anomalies could affect  
255 the magnitude of SST anomalies driven by dynamical variability, affecting ocean—atmosphere  
256 coupling time scales. To our knowledge, the impact of cloud-radiative anomalies on the  
257 persistence of dynamical modes of variability has not been quantified. Such an effect would likely  
258 be seasonally dependent, since the relative magnitude of the SW and LW effects is a strong  
259 function of the season.

260 (2) To what extent can cloud feedbacks modulate the atmospheric circulation response?

261 The current generation of climate models suffers from large uncertainty in the representation of  
262 the extratropical circulation response to climate change [e.g., 11, 44]. While a substantial fraction  
263 of this uncertainty is related to dynamical biases [45], there is increasing evidence that cloud  
264 processes also contribute to the spread in the dynamical response. For example, the meridional

265 structure of SW cloud feedbacks has been related to inter-model differences in the jet response  
266 [28] and in ITCZ shifts [46] through differences in the spatial patterns of warming. The multi-  
267 model mean SW cloud feedback in the RCP8.5 experiment of CMIP5 consists of a meridional  
268 dipole with enhanced subtropical warming and a negative feedback at high latitudes, which tends  
269 to enhance the equator-to-pole temperature gradient; such a response could contribute to the  
270 poleward shift of the midlatitude jet and storm track [28, 47]. Using a cloud-locking procedure in  
271 two climate models, Voigt and Shaw [48] showed that LW cloud feedbacks also tend to enhance  
272 the poleward shift of the midlatitude jets upon an SST increase; they ascribed this result to the  
273 stabilization of the tropical troposphere by the LW cloud feedback, which acts to shift the  
274 baroclinically unstable regions poleward.

275 This implies that constraining cloud feedbacks is important not only in terms of climate sensitivity,  
276 but also because the diabatic forcing patterns associated with clouds likely contribute to the  
277 dynamical sensitivity to global warming [49]. Thus, future research should investigate how SW  
278 and LW cloud feedbacks separately contribute to the dynamical response, and how much of the  
279 inter-model spread in the circulation response can be ascribed to uncertainty in cloud feedbacks.

280

## 281 **6. Conclusions**

282 This study reviews our understanding of interactions between midlatitude dynamics, clouds, and their  
283 associated radiative effects, with a focus on large-scale climate implications. We summarize our review in  
284 terms of the three questions defined in the introduction:

285 (1) How do the dominant modes of dynamical variability affect clouds and radiation?

286 Jet variability has a small but non-negligible effect on SW and LW CRE on zonal-mean scales. The  
287 observed SW radiation response does not reflect a simple poleward shift of the clouds, and models  
288 disagree on the representation of this effect. Results suggest that the SW CRE response may be  
289 governed by the behavior of low-level clouds, whose representation is problematic in models. In contrast,  
290 the LW CRE response to jet shifts reflects a simple meridional shift of the radiatively relevant mid- to high-  
291 level clouds, following vertical motion anomalies. This response is robust and well represented in climate

292 models. In addition to jet shifts, storm intensity changes also impact CRE, but the importance of this effect  
293 for CRE variability remains to be assessed. The possible relevance of clouds—dynamics coupling to the  
294 persistence of modes of dynamical variability is a topic of future research.

295 (2) Does the dynamical response to global warming affect cloud feedbacks?

296 The dynamical response to global warming in midlatitudes is dominated by a poleward jet shift. However,  
297 this effect appears to explain only a modest fraction of the cloud feedback in climate models. While the  
298 impact of storminess changes has not been accurately quantified, this is likely a second-order effect for  
299 clouds and radiation. We conclude that thermodynamic effects on cloud amount, optical depth, and  
300 altitude must control the cloud response to global warming around the midlatitudes.

301 (3) Do model biases in dynamics cause biases in clouds and radiation?

302 Cloud-radiative biases occur in climate model simulations that are nudged to the reanalysis, in which  
303 dynamical biases are minimal. In addition, when compared to observations, models are unable to  
304 correctly simulate cloud properties for particular dynamic and thermodynamic states. This indicates that  
305 cloud-radiative biases are primarily linked to parameterized physics rather than dynamical biases. In  
306 addition to the cloud schemes, vertical resolution in the boundary layer has been shown to be important  
307 for low clouds.

308 We conclude by highlighting the two future research directions that we see as most important with regard  
309 to this review: (a) understanding the impact of cloud feedbacks on the atmospheric circulation response  
310 to climate change, and (b) identifying and understanding the thermodynamic (non-dynamics related)  
311 processes that control extratropical cloud feedbacks. Progress on these issues will be necessary to  
312 reduce uncertainty in climate sensitivity estimates and constrain the atmospheric circulation response to  
313 global warming.

314

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319

## 320 **Conflict of interest statement**

321 On behalf of all authors, the corresponding author states that there is no conflict of interest.

322

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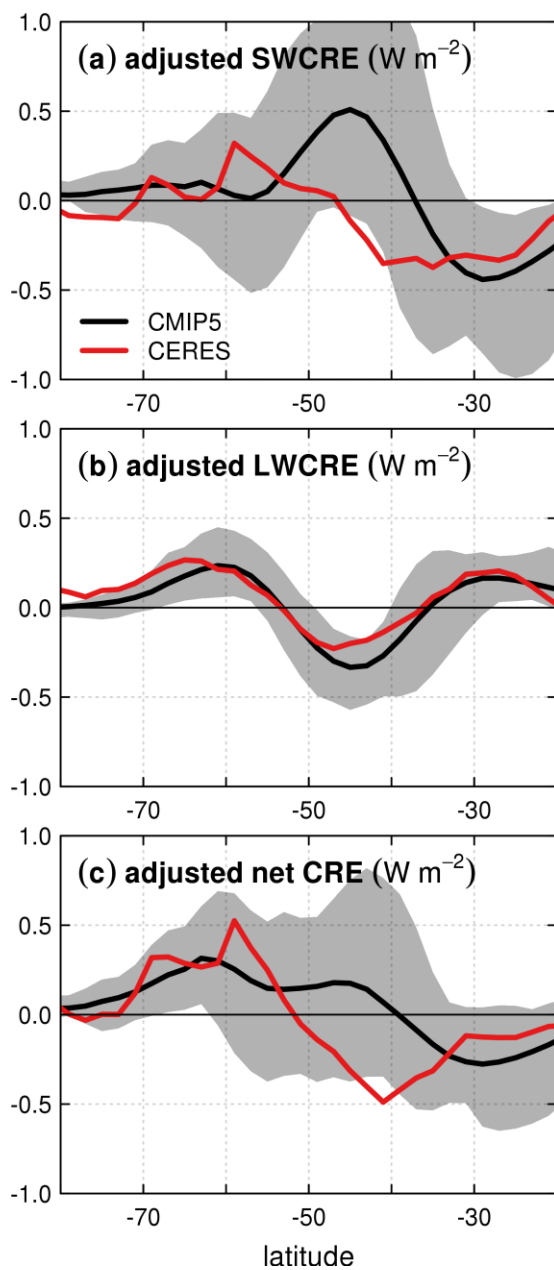
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456 **Figure 1**

457 Annual-mean cloud radiative effect (CRE) response to a 1° poleward jet shift in the Southern Hemisphere. The black  
458 curve is the CMIP5 historical multi-model mean (with 90% intervals in grey shading), while the red and blue curves  
459 are observational estimates based on CERES-EBAF data (March 2000 – February 2014), combined with ERA-  
460 Interim 850 hPa zonal wind. The jet—CRE relationships are obtained by regressing CRE onto monthly-mean jet  
461 latitude [see also 19, 28]. The CRE responses are adjusted to account for cloud masking effects, as in Soden et al.  
462 [2].



464 **Figure 2**

465 CRE response to RCP8.5 forcing (thick black) and effect of poleward jet shifts (thin red, 90% intervals for the models  
466 in light red shading, observations dashed). The jet-related component of the CRE response is obtained by regressing  
467 CRE onto monthly-mean jet latitude (as in Fig. 1), then multiplying the regression coefficients with the RCP8.5 jet shift  
468 for each model. The annual-mean, multi-model mean poleward jet shift is 1.7° (SH), 1.3° (N Atlantic), and 1.1° (N  
469 Pacific), but we calculate the jet-related response for each month separately before taking annual averages. The  
470 RCP8.5 response is defined as 2050—2099 minus 1950—1999. The observations are based on CERES-EBAF CRE  
471 data [50] (March 2000 – February 2014) combined with ERA-Interim zonal wind [51]. The N Atlantic basin is defined  
472 as 60 W° – 60° E, and the N Pacific as 140° E – 120° W.

