

1 **Robustness and drivers of the Northern Hemisphere**
2 **extratropical atmospheric circulation response to a**
3 **CO₂-induced warming in CNRM-CM6-1**

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8 **Abstract** Understanding the mid-latitude atmospheric circulation response to
9 CO₂ forcing is challenging and complex due to the strong internal variability and
10 the multiple potential CO₂-induced effects. While a significant poleward shift of
11 the jet is projected in summer, changes remain uncertain in winter. In this study,
12 we investigate the boreal winter extratropical jet response to an abrupt quadru-
13 pling of atmospheric CO₂ in the CMIP6-generation global climate model CNRM-
14 CM6-1. First, we show that the model performs better than the former generation
15 CNRM-CM5 model in representing the atmospheric dynamics in the northern ex-
16 tratropics. Then, when atmospheric CO₂ is quadrupled, CNRM-CM6-1 exhibits a
17 strengthening and upward shift of the jet. A poleward shift is identified and robust
18 in the Pacific in boreal winter. In the Atlantic, the jet response rather exhibits a
19 squeezing, especially at the eastern part of the basin. It is found that changes are
20 more robust across the Northern Hemisphere in early-winter than in late-winter
21 season. Finally, the circulation response is broken down into individual contribu-
22 tions of various drivers. The uniform global mean component of the SST warming

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is found to explain most of the total atmospheric response to a quadrupling of CO₂, with relatively smaller contributions from faster CO₂ effects, the SST pattern change and the Arctic sea ice decline. The cloud radiative effect contribution is also assessed and found to be rather weak in the CNRM-CM6-1 model. This study highlights that long experiments are required to isolate the wintertime circulation response from the internal variability, and that idealized experimental setups are helpful to disentangle the physical drivers.

Keywords Mid-latitude dynamics · Jet position · Eady growth rate · CO₂ increase · CNRM-CM6-1

1 Introduction

Understanding the response of the large-scale mid-latitude atmospheric circulation to global warming is fundamental as it is the main driver of surface weather for many densely populated regions. For instance, a modification in the speed and/or position of the tropospheric jet which traditionally embeds baroclinic instabilities is likely to affect precipitation patterns and storm trajectories (e.g., Vallis et al, 2015).

In response to an increase in atmospheric greenhouse gases (GHG) concentrations, the troposphere is expected to warm with maximum warming in the tropical upper-troposphere (Meehl et al, 2007; Santer et al, 2008) and near-surface polar regions especially the Arctic (referred to as Arctic Amplification, Holland and Bitz, 2003; Screen and Simmonds, 2010). In the mean time, the stratosphere is expected to cool globally (Shine et al, 2003). This non-uniform response pattern modifies both horizontal and vertical atmospheric temperature gradients, with potential impacts on the mid-latitude atmospheric baroclinicity (Graff and LaCasce, 2012; Ceppi and Shepherd, 2017). It has been recently emphasized that the Arctic Amplification — which is partly due to the Arctic sea ice loss — leads to a decrease of the meridional temperature gradient in the low-level troposphere and can potentially shift the eddy-driven jet equatorward (Deser et al, 2015; Oudar et al, 2017;

51 McCusker et al, 2017; Barnes and Simpson, 2017; Screen et al, 2018). This effect
52 opposes to the jet poleward shift induced by the tropical upper-tropospheric warm-
53 ing which enhances the meridional temperature gradient aloft (Oudar et al, 2017;
54 McCusker et al, 2017). The influence of the polar vortex response in the lower
55 stratosphere has also been highlighted as a potential source of uncertainty and
56 non-linearity for the wintertime tropospheric circulation response in the northern
57 extratropics (Zappa and Shepherd, 2017; Manzini et al, 2018).

58 The overall response to a GHG increase simulated by climate models, such as
59 those participating to the fifth Coupled Models Intercomparison Project (CMIP5),
60 is a poleward shift of the eddy-driven jet, at least on the basis of annual and zonal
61 averages (Barnes and Polvani, 2013; Yin, 2005; Vallis et al, 2015; Peings et al,
62 2018). This suggests that the effect of the tropical upper-tropospheric warming
63 dominates, and is in line with the latitudinal expansion of both Hadley cells (Seidel
64 et al, 2008) and dry regions (Scheff and Frierson, 2012). It is also associated with
65 a poleward shift of the extratropical storm-tracks (Chang et al, 2012; Harvey
66 et al, 2014), increased storminess over Western Europe (Ulbrich et al, 2008), and
67 changes in the flow waviness and atmospheric blockings that are responsible for
68 surface weather variability and extremes (Cattiaux et al, 2016; Francis and Vavrus,
69 2012).

70 However this general response hides strong regional and seasonal features.
71 First, it is more robust in the Southern Hemisphere (Kushner et al, 2001) than
72 in the Northern Hemisphere, where it also differs between Atlantic and Pacific
73 basins (Simpson et al, 2014). Second, in the Northern Hemisphere, it is stronger
74 in fall, spring and summer than in winter (Barnes and Polvani, 2015); for instance
75 in the Atlantic, CMIP5 models project no clear latitudinal displacement of the
76 wintertime jet (Cattiaux and Cassou, 2013), but rather a squeezing of its range of
77 possible trajectories (Peings et al, 2018). This suggests that Arctic Amplification,
78 which is the strongest during boreal winter, can cancel out the effect of the tropical
79 upper-tropospheric warming during this particular season.

80 In addition, the importance of cloud radiative effects on the extratropical cir-
81 culation has been pointed out by Ceppi and Hartmann (2015). Cloud feedbacks are
82 thought to be responsible for large uncertainties in many aspects of future climate
83 projections including mid-latitude circulation changes (Bony et al, 2015). Several
84 studies have suggested that the poleward shift of the eddy-driven jet (in annual-
85 zonal mean) could be partly explained by the cloud-radiative effect due to cloud
86 changes (Ceppi and Hartmann, 2016; Ceppi and Shepherd, 2017; Voigt and Shaw,
87 2016; Li et al, 2019; Voigt et al, 2019). In particular, Li et al (2019); Ceppi and
88 Hartmann (2016); Ceppi and Shepherd (2017) showed that about half of the jet
89 shift is due to the atmospheric cloud radiative heating changes. Moreover, Ceppi
90 et al (2014) found that the jet response in the Southern Hemisphere is influenced
91 by the absorbed shortwave radiation that modifies the surface baroclinicity. How-
92 ever, only a few studies rely on realistic modeling experimental setup (Voigt et al,
93 2019; Li et al, 2019), while other studies used aqua-planet modeling experiments
94 in which several factors are absent (sea-surface temperature [SST] gradients, sea
95 ice or stationary waves). Among others, Voigt et al (2019) used three global cli-
96 mate models and found that the atmospheric pathway (changes in atmospheric
97 cloud-radiative heating) is robust across those models although the magnitude is
98 different.

99 In this study, we focus on the response of the wintertime (October to March,
100 ONDJFM) Northern Hemisphere mid-latitude atmospheric circulation to an in-
101 crease of the CO₂ concentration using a set of idealized experiments performed
102 with the CNRM-CM6-1 model for the CMIP6 exercise (Eyring et al, 2016). Our
103 aim is twofold: (i) evaluate how the representation and sensitivity of the atmo-
104 spheric circulation has evolved since the previous version of the model (CNRM-
105 CM5), and (ii) disentangle the role of the direct radiative and physiological CO₂
106 effect from the response and slower effects mediated by the SST increase and Arctic
107 sea ice loss.

108 Similar decomposition has been performed in previous studies (Deser and
109 Phillips, 2009; Grise and Polvani, 2014; Brayshaw et al, 2008; Staten et al, 2012;
110 Ceppi et al, 2018); for instance, Grise and Polvani (2014) used CMIP5 coupled
111 models and showed that the direct radiative effect of CO₂ is responsible for a
112 weak poleward shift of the mid-latitude atmospheric circulation while the indirect
113 effect associated with the surface warming is the dominant factor to explain the
114 poleward shift. Their results are in agreement with Staten et al (2012). Here we
115 use CNRM-CM6-1 atmosphere-only simulations performed within CFMIP (Cloud
116 Feedbacks Model Intercomparison Project, Webb et al (2017)), that allow us to iso-
117 late the contributions of the direct radiative and physiological effects of CO₂, the
118 uniform global mean SST warming, the sea ice loss and the SST pattern anomaly
119 (Chadwick et al, 2017). Besides, additional simulations also included in CFMIP
120 allow to investigate the role of cloud radiative effects; here it is evaluated through
121 switching off the cloud radiative effects in the longwave radiation code (see Webb
122 et al, 2017, for more information).

123 The paper is structured as follows. First, the CNRM-CM6-1 model and the
124 different experiments and metrics are described in Section 2. An evaluation of
125 progress made in the simulation of the mid-latitude atmospheric circulation sim-
126 ulated between CNRM-CM5.1 and CNRM-CM6-1 is done in Section 3. We then
127 assess the response to an abrupt increase of CO₂ in coupled simulations and show
128 that it can be reproduced in atmosphere-only simulations (Section 4). Then, the
129 seasonality and robustness of the response are investigated and we find that ro-
130 bust changes are found in OND rather than in JFM. Thus, Section 5 describes the
131 decomposition of the total response into different effects using atmosphere-only
132 simulations performed under CFMIP for OND season. Among others, contribu-
133 tions of the uniform SST warming, the direct radiative effect of CO₂ and the SST
134 pattern change are investigated. We discuss the results and the role of clouds in the
135 resposne to a uniform SST warming in Section 6. Finally, we conclude in Section 7.

136 2 Methodology

137 2.1 Model description

138 In this study we use the coupled atmosphere-ocean general circulation model
139 (AOGCM) CNRM-CM6-1, recently developed jointly by CNRM (Centre National
140 de Recherches Météorologiques) and CERFACS (Centre Européen de Recherche
141 et de Formation Avancée en Calcul Scientifique) (Voldoire et al, 2019). CNRM-
142 CM6-1 includes the atmospheric model ARPEGE-Climat version 6.3 at a horizon-
143 tal resolution of 1.4° and with 91 vertical levels (31 vertical levels in the previous
144 version CNRM-CM5). It consists of a almost fully revisited physics package com-
145 pared to ARPEGE-Climat version 5.1. The surface component is the SURFEX
146 module, which is coupled to ARPEGE-Climat and includes three surface types for
147 land, lakes and ocean. Land surface is treated by the new ISBA-CTRIP coupled
148 system (Decharme et al, 2018). The ocean component of CNRM-CM6-1 is NEMO
149 version 3.6 (Madec et al, 2017), which is run on the eORCA1 horizontal grid. The
150 oceanic resolution is 1° with 75 vertical levels. The sea ice model GELATO version
151 6 (Voldoire et al, 2013; Chevallier et al, 2013) is embedded in NEMO. The coupler
152 used is OASIS3-MCT (Craig et al, 2017). More details of the models components
153 and an evaluation of the CMIP6 DECK experiments can be found in Voldoire et al
154 (2019).

155 2.2 Experiments

156 The evaluation of the CNRM-CM6-1 model (Section 3) is performed using the 10-
157 member **historical** coupled ocean-atmosphere experiment and the 10-member
158 **amip** atmosphere-only experiment (Table 1). The reference dataset is the ERA-
159 Interim reanalysis (Dee et al, 2011) and the reference period is 1979–2014 (36
160 years). We also use the corresponding experiments from the CNRM-CM5 version,
161 for which we extend the **historical** simulation (originally 1979–2005) with the
162 **rcp85** simulation over 2006–2014.

163 The mid-latitude atmospheric circulation response to CO₂ forcing is evaluated
164 and analyzed using coupled and time-slice atmosphere-only simulations performed
165 with the CNRM-CM6-1 model for the DECK (Diagnostic, Evaluation and Charac-
166 terization of Klima, Eyring et al (2016)) and CFMIP (Webb et al, 2017) exercises
167 of CMIP6. The total response to an increase of CO₂ (Section 4) is calculated
168 using the difference between a simulation in which CO₂ is abruptly quadrupled
169 (**abrupt-4xC02**, C4C) and a control simulation with pre-industrial GHG levels
170 (**piControl**, CPI). Those two experiments have been run over 1500 years with
171 CNRM-CM6-1, which allows to properly isolate the forced response from the in-
172 ternal variability. We also use the same experiments performed with CNRM-CM5
173 in order to compare the sensitivity of the two model versions.

174 Two time-slice atmosphere-only experiments forced with SST can be used to
175 evaluate whether or not the total response seen in a coupled model can be repro-
176 duced using the AGCM (Atmospheric General Circulation Model) configuration:
177 **piSST** (API) and **a4SSTice-4xC02** (A4C). In the CFMIP protocol, those simula-
178 tions use prescribed CO₂ concentrations as well as monthly and annually varying
179 SST and sea ice concentration taken from the years 111-140 of the CPI and C4C
180 coupled experiments, respectively; for the CNRM-CM6-1 model they have been
181 extended over 360 additional years using SST taken from years 111–500, which is
182 helpful to quantify internal variability.

183 The total response (A4C minus API) can be broken down (Section 5) into
184 individual contributions of direct CO₂ effect, uniform SST increase, SST pattern
185 anomaly and sea ice decline using four others experiments of 30 years each (Ta-
186 ble 1 and Equation 1): **piSST-4xC02** (ACO2), **piSST-pxK** (AUNI), **a4SST** (ASST),
187 and **a4SSTice** (AICE). **piSST-4xC02** is the same as **piSST** but with CO₂ quadru-
188 pled. **a4SST** is the same as **piSST** but with SSTs taken from years 111-140 of the
189 **abrupt-4xC02** experiment (sea ice is unchanged). **a4SSTice** is the same as **a4SST**
190 but sea ice is also taken from years 111-140 of the **abrupt-4xC02** experiment.
191 **piSST-pxK** is the same as **piSST** but with a SST anomaly applied uniformly and

192 corresponding to the difference in global mean SST between **abrupt-4xCO2** and
 193 **piControl** experiments. Those experiments are part of the Tier 2 of CFMIP and
 194 more information about initial conditions and forcings can be found in Webb et al
 195 (2017). The decomposition can then be written as:

$$\underbrace{A4C - API}_{total} = \underbrace{A4C - AICE}_{direct\ CO2} + \underbrace{AICE - ASST}_{sea\ ice} + \underbrace{ASST - AUNI}_{SST\ pattern} + \underbrace{AUNI - API}_{uniform\ SST} \quad (1)$$

196 Note that the direct CO₂ effect can also be calculated as the difference ACO2
 197 minus API (in which the SSTs are taken from the control experiment). The lin-
 198 earity of the CO₂ effect has thus been briefly investigated, but we have not found
 199 significant differences between the two methods to estimate this effect.

200 As these additional simulations have been performed over 30 years only, we
 201 consider years 111–140 of API and A4C for consistency when computing the de-
 202 composition.

203 Finally, in addition to these simulations, AMIP-type simulations performed
 204 over the period 1979–2014 are used to evaluate the cloud feedback on the at-
 205 mospheric circulation (Table 1). The reference is the **amip** simulation, i.e. the
 206 atmosphere-only experiment prescribed with observed 1979–2014 SST. The per-
 207 turbed climate is the **amip-p4K** simulation in which the SST are uniformly in-
 208 creased by 4 K. Two parallel experiments have been run within CFMIP with the
 209 cloud radiative effect switched off in the long-wave radiation code: **amip-lwoff**
 210 and **amip-p4K-lwoff**. The long-wave cloud feedback is determined as follows: (i)
 211 the response to a 4K-warming is computed with and without cloud radiative ef-
 212 fect (**amip-p4K** minus **amip** noted “ON” and **amip-p4K-lwoff** minus **amip-lwoff**
 213 noted “OFF”), and (ii) the difference ON minus OFF is calculated. Again, more
 214 information on how those experiments were performed can be found in Webb et al
 215 (2017, see their Table 2).

2.3 Metrics

We choose to use a limited number of commonly used metrics to evaluate the representation and sensitivity of the atmospheric circulation in CNRM-CM6-1. We thus only focus on an index of maximum wind position, which characterizes the location of the eddy-driven jet, and the Eady Growth Rate (EGR) parameter (Lindzen and Farrell, 1980), which is a measure of baroclinicity and gives the potential energy available for the growth of extratropical storms. Both metrics are detailed below. Note that a North-Atlantic Oscillation index is used in the CNRM-CM6-1 reference paper (Volz et al, 2019).

2.3.1 Maximum wind position

In the mid-latitudes, the latitudinal position of the jet stream is crucial as it determines the trajectories for synoptic systems that travel across the Pacific and the Atlantic (e.g. wintertime storms). This circulation diagnostic has thus received particular attention in previous studies (Woollings et al, 2010; Barnes and Polvani, 2013). The authors usually localize the latitude of the eddy-driven jet separately between the Pacific and the Atlantic, where it is well established, rather than continuously across the globe. Here we consider three different regions:

- Central Atlantic: 60°W , 15°N – 75°N ;
- East Atlantic: 0°E , 15°N – 75°N ;
- Pacific: 100°E , 15°N – 260°E .

Our Central Atlantic domain corresponds to the single Atlantic domain used in Woollings et al (2010) and Barnes and Polvani (2013), but here we find important to also consider an East Atlantic region, as it exhibits a different behavior (shown later in the paper). However, as the existence of a well established low-level jet is questionable over this region, we will here refer to this diagnostic as “maximum wind position” rather than “eddy-driven jet position”.

242 Similarly to Woollings et al (2010), the maximum wind position is then iden-
 243 tified as follows:

- 244 1. The zonal wind is averaged over the levels 850 and 700 hPa.
- 245 2. A zonal average is applied over the region of interest (Central Atlantic, East
 246 Atlantic and North Pacific).
- 247 3. A first guess of the maximum wind position is identified as the latitude at
 248 which the wind speed is maximum.
- 249 4. Finally, a parabola is fitted on the zonal wind speed taken over a 11-gridpoint
 250 window centered on the first guess, and the maximum wind position corre-
 251 sponds to the maximum of the parabola. This step allows to smooth the zonal
 252 wind speed around its maximum.

253 2.3.2 Eady Growth Rate

254 The EGR is a measure of baroclinicity of the flow and is a function of the vertical
 255 wind shear (linked to the meridional temperature gradient via the thermal wind
 256 balance) and the Brunt-Vaisala frequency (measure of static stability and related
 257 to the vertical gradient of temperature). The EGR is given by the formula:

$$\sigma = 0.31 \frac{f}{N} \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \quad (2)$$

258 where N is the Brunt-Vaisala frequency (in day^{-1}), θ the potential temperature
 259 (in K) and $\frac{\partial u}{\partial z}$ the vertical wind shear. Following the thermal wind relationship,
 260 this formula can be written:

$$\sigma = 0.31g \frac{1}{N} \frac{1}{\theta} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial y} \quad (3)$$

261 The EGR and maximum wind position are determined using monthly outputs,
 262 as daily outputs were not available for all simulations. It is worth mentioning that

263 using monthly outputs generates biases in the calculation of the EGR (Simmonds
264 and Lim, 2009), but we have verified that the pattern of the response is not changed
265 with daily outputs when available (not shown).

266 **3 Model evaluation**

267 In this section, we evaluate the representation of wintertime mid-latitude atmo-
268 spheric circulation by the two versions of the CNRM-CM models. Figure 1 first
269 shows the ONDJFM 850 hPa zonal wind biases for AOGCM and AGCM configu-
270 rations of CNRM-CM5 and CNRM-CM6-1. For both versions of the model, there
271 are notable similarities between AOGCM and AGCM biases, suggesting that cir-
272 culation biases mostly arise from the atmospheric model. For both configurations,
273 the global bias is reduced in the new version (CNRM-CM6-1), as highlighted by
274 root-mean squared errors (indicated on the top right of each panel); this suggests
275 a general improvement in the representation of the mean flow. A common char-
276 acteristic to climate models, including CNRM-CM, is that the mid-latitude flow
277 is too zonal, especially in the North Atlantic region. Both model versions indeed
278 exhibit negative (positive) biases north (south) of the maximum wind climatol-
279 ogy. This regional bias is also slightly reduced in the new version, particularly for
280 the AOGCM (Figure 1b,d). In the Pacific, the bias pattern is more complex, with
281 marked differences between AOGCM and AGCM configurations. The AOGCM has
282 a strong positive bias in CNRM-CM5 which is largely reduced in CNRM-CM6-
283 1 at the exception of the western edge of the basin (Figure 1b,d). The AGCM
284 rather exhibits a tripolar bias pattern (Figure 1a,c). This bias is also weaker in
285 CNRM-CM6-1.

286 To further investigate the representation of the mean atmospheric circulation,
287 Figure 2 shows distributions of the maximum wind position for the different do-
288 mains defined in Section 2. Over the Central Atlantic, the maximum wind position
289 is equatorly biased in CNRM-CM models compared to ERA-Interim, albeit with
290 a weaker bias in CNRM-CM6-1 (Figure 2a). This is consistent with Figure 1 and

291 the too zonal bias. Over the East Atlantic (Figure 2b), the distribution exhibits a
292 tripolar structure of the maximum wind position in ERA-Interim, that was already
293 highlighted by Woollings et al (2010, 2018). This tripolar structure is captured by
294 CNRM-CM models, and the repartition among the three peaks of the distribu-
295 tion is better represented in CNRM-CM6-1. In the North Pacific (Figure 2c), the
296 maximum wind position is well represented by the CNRM models, with again
297 slight improvements in CNRM-CM6-1 compared to CNRM-CM5. The maximum
298 wind position is also indicated for the AGCM versions in dashed lines and we find
299 consistent results with Figure 1.

300 The better representation of jet features in CNRM-CM6-1 is associated with
301 a better representation of the EGR. Figure 3 shows the wintertime climatology
302 of the zonal-mean EGR for ERA-Interim, CNRM-CM6-1 and CNRM-CM5. The
303 EGR exhibits maximum in the mid-to-high troposphere between 30°N and 40°N
304 and near the surface between 30°N and 40°N . The climatology is well represented
305 by the CNRM-CM6-1 model even if the EGR is slightly overestimated near the
306 surface. Nonetheless, improvement are depicted when comparing CNRM-CM6-1
307 with CNRM-CM5: in the latter, the EGR is overestimated in the mid-to-high
308 troposphere, but is better represented in the low-troposphere than the former.
309 This conclusion is consistent with Voltaire et al (2019), who also pointed out an
310 improvement in the representation of the NAO (North Atlantic Oscillation).

311 4 Mid-latitude circulation response

312 4.1 Mean changes in coupled experiments

313 The aim of this section is to assess the atmospheric circulation response to an
314 abrupt increase in CO_2 in coupled experiments (CPI and C4C) and to compare
315 CNRM-CM6-1 with CNRM-CM5. We first look at the zonal-mean temperature
316 response for CNRM-CM5 and CNRM-CM6-1 (Figure 4a,b). The pattern between
317 the two versions is similar and the correlation is of about 0.96. It exhibits a warm-

318 ing in the troposphere, particularly in the polar lower-troposphere and in the
319 tropical upper-troposphere, as well as a cooling in the stratosphere. This pattern
320 of temperature response to a CO₂ increase is theoretically expected (e.g., Vallis
321 et al, 2015) and classically found in numerical studies (Peings et al, 2018; Deser
322 et al, 2015, among many others). We find greater anomalies in CNRM-CM6-1, in-
323 dicating a stronger climate sensitivity in this new version of the model. This is in
324 agreement with Voldoire et al (2019) who report an equilibrium climate sensitivity
325 (ECS) of 4.9 K in CNRM-CM6-1 and 3.3 K in CNRM-CM5.

326 Consistently, the zonal-mean zonal wind anomalies are greater in CNRM-CM6-
327 1 than in CNRM-CM5 (Figure 4d,e), while the pattern is qualitatively similar
328 (correlation coefficient of 0.88). The zonal wind strengthens and shifts upward at
329 around 30°N, and a weakening is observed in higher latitudes in both versions,
330 although the shape is a bit different. CNRM-CM5 does not exhibit any latitudinal
331 shift of the zonal wind while a small poleward shift is observed in CNRM-CM6-1
332 near the surface between 40°N and 50°N. Regional changes are important in the
333 Northern Hemisphere and Figure 4g,h details the 850 hPa zonal wind response.
334 The two versions of the model agree on the strengthening of the zonal wind over
335 the British Isles, although the magnitude of the change is weaker in CNRM-CM5.
336 Over the Central Atlantic, the two versions differ: CNRM-CM5 shows a weakening
337 while CNRM-CM6-1 exhibit a slight strengthening. The difference might be due
338 to the strong internal variability over this region; this issue will be discussed later
339 in the paper. In the Pacific, both versions agree on the strengthening of the zonal
340 wind, albeit with different spatial patterns. CNRM-CM5 projects a maximum
341 strengthening over the Eastern Pacific while CNRM-CM6-1 projects the highest
342 increase in the Western part, together with a slight poleward shift. These regional
343 discrepancies result in a relatively weak correlation coefficient (0.55) between the
344 two model responses.

4.2 Mean changes in atmosphere-only experiments

Here we explore whether the response seen in the coupled model is reproducible by the AGCM. This is illustrated by comparing panels b and c, e and f, h and i in Figure 4 for the zonal-mean temperature, the zonal-mean zonal wind and the 850 hPa zonal wind, respectively. For these three fields, the responses in CNRM-CM6-1 coupled experiments (CPI and C4C) are well reproduced in the atmosphere-only experiments (API and A4C). The correlations are of about 0.99 for the zonal-mean fields and 0.89 for the 850 hPa zonal wind. Some regional differences are identified, especially over the central Atlantic region in which anomalies are stronger in atmosphere-only than in coupled simulation. As described in Section 2.2, years 111-140 have been used to characterize the response. However, as more years are available for C4C, CPI, A4C and API, it is possible to test the robustness of the pattern observed in Figure 4. In particular, if the response is computed over all years available common between the coupled and AGCM experiments (after removing the first 111 years for the coupled experiments), consistency between the response in coupled and atmosphere-only experiments is found (Figure 5). Thus, it is likely that the response observed in the AGCM experiments (Figure 4i) over the years 111-140 is affected by internal variability. This issue will be discussed in Section 4.4.

4.3 Maximum wind position

Figure 6a,b,c shows the distribution of the maximum wind position in the lower troposphere for the Central Atlantic, East Atlantic and Pacific domains respectively, for both CPI and C4C experiments. The poleward shift in the Pacific (Figure 6c) is robust and consistent with the 850 hPa zonal wind response in Figure 4h. Over the Central Atlantic domain (Figure 6a), no systematic shift of the zonal wind is observed but rather a slight squeezing of the distribution. This squeezing is more pronounced over the East Atlantic (Figure 6b), where the tripolar structure ob-

372 served in the pre-industrial climate is almost lost when CO₂ is quadrupled. Such
373 a squeezing of the range of jet trajectories was already reported in CMIP5 models
374 by Peings et al (2018). It is also related to the strengthening of the zonal wind
375 over Western Europe (Figure 4i) associated to an increase in storminess over this
376 region found in several studies (Ulbrich et al, 2008; Harvey et al, 2014). Interest-
377 ingly, similar results are found for the response in AGCM simulations (not shown).
378 This confirms that the response to an abrupt CO₂ increase simulated in coupled
379 experiments is well reproduced by the AGCM model.

380 4.4 Seasonality of the response

381 We have shown the response to a CO₂ increase for an extended winter season
382 (ONDJFM). However, changes in mid-latitude dynamics can be uncertain for this
383 season, at least for two reasons: (i) the internal variability is stronger which reduces
384 the signal-to-noise ratio and (ii) a subtle balance between competitive effects is at
385 play (upper-tropospheric tropical warming and surface Arctic amplification). As
386 shown in Barnes and Polvani (2015) from CMIP5 models, other seasons exhibit a
387 more significant and robust poleward shift of the jet position (see their Figure 4).
388 Here we therefore comment jet changes in other seasons.

389 Figure 7a shows the maximum zonal wind position response to a quadrupling
390 of CO₂ in the coupled model CNRM-CM6-1 (C4C minus CPI) for different regions
391 and seasons (ONDJFM, OND, JFM, AMJ, JAS). Note that over the full period
392 available for the coupled simulations (1500 years), almost all responses are signif-
393 icant (i.e. green dots are filled). The black dots (red when significant) correspond
394 to the response over years 111-140. The response calculated over this subset of
395 years is always of the same sign as the response calculated over the full period.
396 However, changes over this period are not always significant, which raises the
397 question whether 30 years are sufficient to estimate responses of the mid-latitude
398 atmospheric circulation in the CNRM-CM6-1 model. To test the variability of the
399 response if only 30 years are available, we calculated the response in 1000 30-year

400 periods selected randomly in the 1500 years. The response is represented by the
401 small gray (red if the change is significant) cross. A striking result is the lower
402 variability in the response in the Pacific compared to the Atlantic. In the Pa-
403 cific, the maximum wind position is significantly shifted northward in ONDJFM,
404 OND and JFM (a bit less in JFM), suggesting that the poleward shift is robust
405 in the Pacific in fall and winter. Another important result from this figure is the
406 contrasted responses between OND and JFM seasons: in JFM there is no clear
407 response (especially in the Atlantic) while the maximum wind position response
408 exhibits almost only positive values in OND for each regions. Moreover, in the
409 Atlantic, negative or positive responses can be found when looking at 30 years
410 period in ONDJFM and JFM, meaning that internal variability is strong in the
411 Atlantic region. This issue is discussed in the next section. Although the latitude
412 of the maximum zonal wind is not significantly changed for each region in winter
413 and fall, the zonal wind strengthens significantly for these seasons. Looking at
414 spring and summer seasons, the maximum wind position is shifted northward in
415 the Central Atlantic, whereas no changes are seen in the East Atlantic and in the
416 Pacific (note that the variability of the response is strong in the Pacific for the
417 summer season). In spring and summer, there is a weakening although some un-
418 certainties still remain (Figure 7b). Similar conclusions are drawn for the AGCM
419 experiments (not shown).

420 4.5 Significance and internal variability

421 The previous section shows that 30-year periods can be insufficient to isolate the
422 CO₂ response from internal variability. Figure 8 illustrates this issue showing a
423 time series of robustness for the maximum wind position response, for different
424 regions (Central Atlantic, East Atlantic and North Pacific) and for ONDJFM
425 (black curve), JFM (blue curve) and OND (red curve). For each N from 10 to 1500,
426 we randomly select 1000 samples of N years in the 1500 years available for both CPI
427 and C4C simulations and calculate the C4C minus CPI mean difference over each

428 sample. For each duration, we count the number of times when the response is of
429 the same sign of the response found over the full period and significant at the 95%
430 confidence level. It gives an estimation of the power of the statistical test and we
431 consider that robustness is reached at the 50% level (dashed red line on Figure 8).
432 This figure indicates that significance is reached much faster in the Pacific (i.e. with
433 smaller samples) than in the Atlantic, showing the greater importance of internal
434 variability in the Atlantic. Only a dozen of years is needed to find a significant
435 change in ONDJFM and OND in the Pacific and about 100 years for JFM. In the
436 Atlantic (for both East and Central Atlantic regions), approximately 30 years are
437 needed to find significant change in OND but the interpretation is rather different
438 for ONDJFM and JFM seasons. Over the Central Atlantic region in ONDJFM,
439 the internal variability is strong (about 400 years are needed), while only 100
440 years in JFM are needed to reach robustness. Over the East Atlantic region, more
441 than 300 years are needed to find robust changes in JFM. This result suggests the
442 important role of internal variability in the Atlantic, especially in ONDJFM and
443 JFM season, and that caution is needed when analyzing atmospheric circulation
444 changes in that region, especially from short time-slice experiments.

445 Zappa et al (2015) investigated the time of emergence of the 850 hPa zonal
446 wind projections in CMIP5 models. They found that the time of emergence was
447 reduced when looking at extended seasonal averages (winter or summer) compared
448 to classic meteorological seasons (DJF for example). Their results somehow con-
449 trast with our and reason for that can be that they focus on the detection of a
450 signal over specific regions (Central Europe and North Africa in winter) whereas
451 we are looking if the zonal wind shifts or not. For example, over the East At-
452 lantic region, Figure 8b shows that significance emerges much faster in OND than
453 in ONDJFM, probably because the poleward shift is much more pronounced in
454 OND than in ONDJFM (Figure 7a). However, this analysis does not tell if the
455 signal observed over Western Europe (strengthening of the zonal wind) is signifi-

456 cant or not. It has to be noted that the maximum wind position is an integrated
457 metric.

458 Nevertheless, as robust changes are found for OND, we decide to focus on
459 this season for the rest of the paper and to break down the total circulation
460 response into contributions of various drivers using atmosphere-only simulations
461 performed under the CFMIP protocol. Note that analysis presented hereafter have
462 been performed for the other seasons (not shown).

463 **5 Breakdown of the AGCM response**

464 5.1 Temperature response

465 Figure 9 shows the breakdown of the total AGCM zonal-mean temperature re-
466 sponse for OND season (panel a) into contributions of uniform SST increase, sea
467 ice loss, direct CO₂ effect and SST pattern anomaly, respectively (panels b to e).
468 The two dominants contributions are the uniform SST increase (Figure 9b) and
469 the CO₂ increase (Figure 9d). The former is almost entirely responsible for the
470 tropospheric warming, including the tropical high-tropospheric amplification, and
471 also substantially explains the low-tropospheric Arctic amplification (Figure 9b).
472 The correlation coefficient between the total and the uniform SST warming re-
473 sponses is 0.81. The latter (CO₂ effect) cools the stratosphere and is responsible
474 for only a weak warming of the troposphere (Figure 9b), which corresponds to
475 the theoretical expectation (Vallis et al, 2015; Shine et al, 2003). The temperature
476 response to the Arctic sea ice loss is a warming in the near-surface high latitudes
477 — it dominates the Arctic surface warming — but remains strictly confined to
478 this area (Figure 9c). The SST pattern change is responsible for a weak but signif-
479 icant warming in the tropical troposphere and a cooling of the troposphere north
480 of 30°North (Figure 9e). At the surface it corresponds to a generalized cooling
481 of the Northern extratropics, especially in the North Atlantic (not shown). This
482 regional-seasonal cooling is compensated in others regions and seasons so that the

483 global-annual mean temperature response to the SST pattern anomaly is close to
484 zero, which is expected by construction.

485 5.2 Zonal wind response

486 Zonal-mean zonal wind changes associated with temperature changes described
487 in the previous paragraph are presented in Figure 10. The main effect is again
488 the uniform SST warming which almost entirely explains the strengthening of the
489 zonal wind at around 30°N (Figure 10b). It is also associated with a weakening of
490 the polar vortex which is counter-balanced by both CO_2 and SST pattern effects
491 (Figure 10d,e). These changes are consistent with Figure 9 and the thermal wind
492 balance. A poleward shift of the zonal wind is also identified in the mid-to-low
493 troposphere for this particular season, consistent with Figure 7a. The SST pattern
494 also induces a slight strengthening and southward shift of the tropospheric jet
495 stream (Figure 10e) which moderates the poleward shift near the surface induced
496 by the uniform SST increase (Figure 10b). We find that within the CFMIP pro-
497 tocol and according to CNRM-CM6-1, the Arctic sea ice loss has no significant
498 impact on the zonal wind (Figure 10c). This somewhat conflicts previous studies
499 based on coupled simulations (including the CNRM-CM5 model) which identified
500 a southward shift of the eddy-driven jet in response to Arctic sea ice loss (Deser
501 et al, 2015; Oudar et al, 2017; McCusker et al, 2017; Screen et al, 2018). A reason
502 for that is that here, the Arctic amplification induced by the sole Arctic sea ice
503 loss remains strictly confined to the surface and does not modify the meridional
504 temperature gradient above 700 hPa (Figure 9c).

505 Focusing now on the lower-tropospheric circulation, Figure 11 shows the de-
506 composition of the 850 hPa zonal wind response to an abrupt increase of CO_2 .
507 The total response obtained in the AGCM model is shown on panel a. It exhibits
508 a poleward shift over all the Northern Hemisphere. The dominant contribution
509 is again the uniform SST warming which explains most aspects of the total re-
510 sponse (correlation coefficient of 0.76). It is not surprising since the uniform SST

511 experiment captures the main changes in the meridional temperature gradient,
512 i.e. the amplified warming in both tropical upper-troposphere and Arctic lower-
513 troposphere. The main difference is that the northward shift of the zonal wind in
514 the Atlantic extend more longitudinally in the uniform SST warming than in the
515 total response. Note that the squeezing of the zonal wind is also visible in OND
516 (Figures 10a and 11a), but to a lesser extent compared to JFM, and is mostly
517 explained by the uniform SST warming, consistent with Harvey et al (2015). Po-
518 tential drivers have been identified by Zappa and Shepherd (2017) and correspond
519 to the Arctic amplification, the tropical amplification and the variability of the
520 stratospheric vortex. It appears that the sea ice loss and the CO₂ effects have
521 almost no significant impact (Figure 11c,d), even if the sign of their contribution
522 corresponds to what is theoretically expected: the response to CO₂ projects onto
523 a poleward jet shift whereas the response to Arctic sea ice loss resembles a south-
524 ward shift, especially in the Atlantic. The response to the SST pattern change
525 (Figure 11e) is somewhat anti-correlated to the uniform SST increase effect, since
526 this experiment simulates a generalized cooling of the boreal winter extratropics.
527 Only in the Pacific, the change in SST pattern acts to reinforce the response to
528 the uniform SST warming, suggesting that changes in SST gradients amplify the
529 strengthening of the jet observed over this area.

530 5.3 Origins of the dynamical changes: Eady Growth Rate

531 To better understand the dynamical changes, we analyze the eady growth rate
532 (EGR) response (Lindzen and Farrell (1980), also used in Graff and LaCasce
533 (2012); Yin (2005); Oudar et al (2017)), which is a measure of baroclinicity in
534 the atmosphere (Figure 12).

535 In the total response (Figure 12a), the EGR increases near the surface in
536 the mid and high latitudes, increases in the tropical high-troposphere and de-
537 creases in the mid-latitudes mid-troposphere. This can be directly related to the
538 change in the zonal-mean temperature (Figure 9a): the warming of the tropical

539 high-troposphere enhances the meridional temperature gradient thus the EGR in-
540 creases in the high-troposphere at 30°N. Oppositely, the warming in the Arctic
541 low-troposphere reduces the meridional temperature gradient and thus the EGR
542 decreases. The warming near the surface, especially in the Arctic, is responsible
543 for a decrease of the vertical temperature gradient and of the static stability. This
544 leads to an increase of baroclinicity. The structure observed is consistent with
545 Oudar et al (2017) who showed the changes in EGR at the end of the 21st century
546 in the CNRM-CM5 model following the RCP8.5 scenario.

547 Consistently with previous figures, the total response is mostly explained by
548 the uniform SST warming (Figure 12b). The pattern observed is close to the total
549 response, except in the polar stratosphere where the EGR decreases, in agree-
550 ment with the increase in temperature (Figure 9b) and the decrease in zonal wind
551 (Figure 10b). This polar stratospheric decrease in EGR obtained in the uniform
552 SST experiment is counter-balanced, in the total response, by both CO₂ and SST
553 pattern contributions (Figure 12d,e). Elsewhere, the EGR response to CO₂ is
554 relatively weak and exhibits only few significant changes consistent with a weak
555 poleward shift of the zonal wind while the pattern SST induces a weak southward
556 shift of the mid-tropospheric baroclinicity, in line with previous figures.

557 **6 Discussion**

558 The main purpose of this paper is to investigate the boreal winter (ONDJFM)
559 atmospheric circulation response to an abrupt increase of CO₂ in the new CNRM-
560 CM6-1 model. First of all, care must be taken in generalizing the results found
561 in this study to other models. It has been shown that the atmospheric circulation
562 change exhibits various response to CO₂ in CMIP5 models (Barnes and Polvani,
563 2015; Peings et al, 2018; Zappa and Shepherd, 2017) and while one model displays
564 a northward shift of the zonal wind, another one could display a southward shift.
565 Thus, it is necessary to examine the atmospheric circulation response in other
566 CMIP6 models when more of them will be available.

567 Our results suggest that the uniform SST warming is the major contributor
568 to changes in the mid-latitude dynamics. The changes observed are explained by
569 modification in the meridional temperature gradient as highlighted by the Eady
570 growth rate response. However, we have also highlighted that robust changes in the
571 mid-latitude dynamics are difficult to assess due to the strong internal variability.
572 Signal-to-noise ratio is particularly weak in the Atlantic for ONDJFM and JFM
573 seasons, but not for OND season. In the Pacific, conclusions are rather different
574 and robust responses are found for any seasons. Previous studies (Barnes and
575 Polvani, 2013; Woollings et al, 2010) have defined the eddy-driven jet position
576 as the maximum zonal wind over the domain 60W-0;15N-75N, we here show the
577 importance of defining a maximum zonal wind position in other regions.

578 Another important feature that can influence changes in the jet position is the
579 role of clouds. In Section 5, we have seen that the uniform SST warming is the
580 dominant effect in the response to an abrupt increase of CO₂. Several studies have
581 gone one step further in this decomposition and have suggested that changes in
582 atmospheric cloud radiative effect may explain a substantial part of the poleward
583 shift of the mid-latitude eddy-driven jet seen in uniform SST increase experiments
584 (Ceppi and Hartmann, 2016; Ceppi and Shepherd, 2017; Voigt and Shaw, 2016;
585 Li et al, 2019). Panels f in Figures 9, 10, 11 and 12 shows the cloud radiative
586 feedback for the near-surface temperature, the 850 hPa zonal wind, the zonal-
587 mean temperature, the zonal-mean zonal wind and the EGR respectively (see
588 Section 2 and Table 1 for details). In general, the effect of clouds is weak and
589 not significant for OND season. Concerning the 850 hPa zonal wind, clouds cause
590 a northward shift (Figure 11f) but no significance is found, except a weakening
591 over the south-west of both the Atlantic. The increase detected on the northern
592 side of the maximum climatology is however not significant. For the zonal-mean
593 fields, significance is mostly found in the tropical high-troposphere, which is not
594 the main focus of this paper. Lastly, concerning the EGR response (Figure 12f), we
595 notice a poleward shift of baroclinicity near the surface but again no significance

596 is found. The influence of clouds have also been investigated in other seasons, but
597 no significant response has been found (not shown), except in the annual mean in
598 which a weak but significant poleward shift is observed in the lower troposphere
599 (Figure 13). This results is consistent with previous studies (Voigt et al (2019)
600 among others).

601 **7 Conclusion**

602 In this study, we have analyzed the wintertime Northern Hemisphere mid-latitude
603 atmospheric circulation response to a quadrupling of CO_2 in the CNRM-CM6-1
604 global climate model. We have evaluated the model by comparing it to the previous
605 version CNRM-CM5. In general, the representation of mid-latitude atmospheric
606 circulation has been improved in CNRM-CM6-1 although the zonal bias — which is
607 common to climate models — remains present. The response to an increase of CO_2
608 has been investigated in the coupled model and in atmosphere-only simulations,
609 that allows for breaking the total response into individual contribution of CO_2 ,
610 SST and sea-ice changes. Our main findings can be summarized as follows:

- 611 1. The general response of the mid-latitude dynamics to an increase in CO_2 is
612 a poleward shift of the westerly flow (including the eddy-driven jet), at the
613 exception of the JFM season over the Atlantic region for which a squeezing of
614 the flow is observed. Internal variability is strong in the Atlantic especially for
615 ONDJFM and JFM seasons in which many years of simulations are needed to
616 obtain significance.
- 617 2. The uniform SST warming is the dominant factor to explain atmospheric cir-
618 culation changes and is mainly responsible for the squeezing of the variability
619 found over Northern Europe. It exhibits maximum warming near the surface
620 in polar regions (part of the Arctic amplification) and in the tropical upper-
621 troposphere, implying a decrease of the meridional temperature gradient in the
622 low-troposphere (decrease of baroclinicity) and an increase of the meridional
623 temperature gradient in the upper-troposphere (increase of baroclinicity). This

624 results in an upward shift of the upper-level jet stream and a slight poleward
625 shift of the 850 hPa westerly flow.

626 3. The direct radiative effect of CO₂ exhibits weak and not significant anomalies
627 in the dynamics. However, CO₂ leads to significant cooling of the stratosphere
628 and, to a lesser extent, warming of the troposphere. On the zonal-mean it
629 seems that CO₂ is responsible for a weak poleward shift of the eddy-driven jet,
630 consistent with Grise and Polvani (2014).

631 4. The Arctic sea ice loss effect is also weak and not significant. The induced
632 warming remains strictly confined to the polar atmosphere near the surface,
633 and therefore only weakly contributes to the Arctic amplification. It is asso-
634 ciated with a decrease of the baroclinicity in the low-level mid-latitudes and
635 an increase of baroclinicity over the polar region near the surface. The smaller
636 sea ice loss effect on mid-latitude circulation compared with previous works
637 (Deser et al, 2015, among others) might be due to the protocol which is based
638 on atmosphere-only simulations (rather than coupled). However, this result
639 contrasts with the one found by Harvey et al (2015). Using the HadGAM1 at-
640 mospheric model, they concluded that polar amplification is associated with a
641 significant equatorward shift of the 850 hPa zonal wind and a decrease stormi-
642 ness in winter. Thus, the response to the Arctic sea ice loss in AMIP models
643 can be model-dependent.

644 5. The response to the change in SST pattern is relatively weak and exhibits a
645 southward shift in the Atlantic and a strengthening over the eastern Pacific.
646 Note that the response to the SST pattern is characterized by a cooling of
647 the North Atlantic, similar to the warming hole identified in both observa-
648 tions (Rahmstorf et al, 2015; Drijfhout et al, 2012) and global climate models
649 (Gervais et al, 2018, 2019). In particular, Gervais et al (2019) found that it
650 was responsible for significant changes in the baroclinicity. Thus, it would be
651 interested to investigate the dynamical response to the SST pattern in more
652 details, and it could be the subject of a future dynamical study.

653 6. The effects of clouds is relatively weak in CNRM-CM6-1 and no poleward shift
654 is found in winter. However, the poleward shift of the jet is enhanced in the
655 annual mean in response to the cloud radiative effects. This result is consistent
656 with previous studies who suggested an enhancement of the poleward jet shift
657 due to the cloud radiative feedback.

658 Finally, a result that appears to be robust is the squeezing of the variability
659 over Western Europe. Consequently, an increase of extratropical storms is ex-
660 pected over Europe and could have societal impacts (Woollings et al, 2012). The
661 increase of storminess has been highlighted in previous studies based on CMIP5
662 models (Ulbrich et al, 2008; Zappa et al, 2013). The main drivers of the zonal
663 wind variability over Europe have been identified by Zappa and Shepherd (2017)
664 and are the Arctic amplification, the tropical amplification and the variability of
665 the stratospheric vortex. However, one could think of other drivers, as for example
666 the North Atlantic warming hole or the teleconnection with tropical regions. This
667 result gives the opportunity to investigate more the dynamical response over that
668 specific region, looking at storm-track and others diagnostics.

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861 List of Tables

862	1	CNRM-CM6-1 experiments used in this study. The Δ used in the	
863		piSST-pxK experiment is applied uniformly and corresponds to the	
864		difference in global mean SST between abrupt-4xC02 and piControl	
865		experiments.	33

Table 1 CNRM-CM6-1 experiments used in this study. The Δ used in the piSST-pxK experiment is applied uniformly and corresponds to the difference in global mean SST between abrupt-4xCO2 and piControl experiments.

Sec.	Abb.	Name	SST forcing	Sea ice forcing	CO ₂ forcing	LW CRE	Length
3	-	historical	<i>(coupled)</i>	<i>(coupled)</i>	obs.	x	10 × 36 yr
	-	amip	obs.	obs.	obs.	x	36 yr
4	CPI	piControl	<i>(coupled)</i>	<i>(coupled)</i>	pre-industrial	x	1500 yr
	C4C	abrupt-4xCO2	<i>(coupled)</i>	<i>(coupled)</i>	quadrupled	x	1500 yr
5	API	piSST	piControl	piControl	pre-industrial	x	390 yr
	ACO2	piSST-4xCO2	piControl	piControl	quadrupled	x	30 yr
	AUNI	piSST-pxK	piControl + Δ	piControl	pre-industrial	x	30 yr
	ASST	a4SST	abrupt-4xCO2	piControl	pre-industrial	x	30 yr
	AICE	a4SSTice	abrupt-4xCO2	abrupt-4xCO2	pre-industrial	x	30 yr
	A4C	a4SSTice-4xCO2	abrupt-4xCO2	abrupt-4xCO2	quadrupled	x	390 yr
5-6	-	amip	obs.	obs.	obs.	x	36 yr
	-	amip-p4k	obs. + 4 K	obs.	obs.	x	36 yr
	-	amip-lwoff	obs.	obs.	obs.		36 yr
	-	amip-p4k-lwoff	obs. + 4 K	obs.	obs.		36 yr

866 List of Figures

- 867 1 Biases of zonal wind at 850 hPa (m/s) in ONDJFM for (a) CNRM-
868 CM5.1 AGCM version, (b) CNRM-CM5.1 AOGCM version, (c)
869 CNRM-CM6-1 AGCM version and (d) CNRM-CM6-1 AOGCM ver-
870 sion. Biases are estimated as the difference between the historical
871 ensemble mean averaged over 1979-2014 and ERAI reanalysis over
872 the same period. Note that the rcp8.5 is used to extend the his-
873 torical experiment of CNRM-CM5.1 (AOGCM mode). The green
874 contours indicate the climatology computed using ERAI (contour
875 interval is 5m.s⁻¹). Stippling indicates differences that are signifi-
876 cant at the 95% confidence level. The root mean square (RMS) is
877 indicated on the top right of each panel. The black lines indicate
878 the three regions defined in Section 2.3. 37

879	2	Frequency of occurrence of the maximum wind position position in	
880		ERA-I (black line), CNRM-CM5 (blue line) and CNRM-CM6 (red	
881		line) for (a) the central Atlantic domain (20-90N/60W-0), (b) the	
882		east Atlantic domain (20-90N/0-30E) and (c) the Pacific domain	
883		(20-90N/120-240E). Historical simulations are used for CNRM-CM5	
884		and CNRM-CM6-1 over the 1979-2014 period. Note that in the	
885		case of CNRM-CM5, the rcp8.5 has been used to extend the his-	
886		torical simulation which ends in 2005. The blue and red shadings	
887		correspond to the standard deviation across the historical ensemble	
888		members.	38
889	3	Climatology of the Eady growth rate for (a) ERA-Interim, (b)	
890		CNRM-CM6-1 historical experiment and (c) CNRM-CM5 histor-	
891		ical experiment (in day^{-1}). The climatologies are computed over the	
892		common period 1979-2014.	39
893	4	(a),(b),(c) Zonal-mean temperature response in ONDJFM for CNRM-	
894		CM5, CNRM-CM6-1 and atmosphere-only CM6-1 respectively. (d),(e),(f)	
895		Zonal-mean zonal wind response. (g),(h),(i) 850 hPa zonal wind re-	
896		sponse. The green contours correspond to the climatological mean	
897		computed in the control simulation of each model (contour intervals	
898		are 10 K, 5 m.s^{-1} and 5 m.s^{-1} for the temperature, zonal wind and	
899		850 hPa zonal wind respectively). Stipplings indicate responses that	
900		are significant at the 95% confidence level. The correlation between	
901		each panel and CNRM-CM6-1 (middle panel) is indicated on the	
902		top right.	40

- 903 5 850 hPa zonal wind response in ONDJFM for (a) CNRM-CM6-1
904 and (b) atmosphere-only CM6-1 when using all years available (390
905 in total for the AGCM experiments). The green contours correspond
906 to the climatological mean computed in the control simulation of
907 each model (contour intervals are 5 m.s^{-1}). Stipplings indicate re-
908 sponses that are significant at the 95% confidence level. The corre-
909 lation between the two panels is indicated on the top right. 41
- 910 6 Probability distribution function (PDF) of the maximum wind po-
911 sition of the piControl simulation (in black) and the abrupt-4xCO2
912 simulation (in red) for (a) the central Atlantic domain (20-90N/60W-
913 0), (b) the east Atlantic domain (20-90N/0-30E) and (c) the Pacific
914 (20-90N/120-240E). The PDF is computed over all years available
915 for both simulations, after removing the first 110 years. The two
916 asterisks correspond to the mean maximum wind position. 42
- 917 7 Scatter plot of (a) the maximum wind position and (b) the speed
918 responses in CNRM-CM6-1 (abrupt-4xCO2 - piControl) for the
919 Central Atlantic, East Atlantic and North Pacific domains and for
920 ONDJFM, OND, JFM, AMJ and JAS seasons. The responses are
921 computed over the full period (1500 years, green circle filled if sig-
922 nificants), the 1960-1989 period (black (red) dots (if significant)),
923 and 1000 samples of 30 years selected randomly in the 1500 years
924 (gray (red) cross (if significant at the 95% confidence level)). . . . 43

925	8	Time series of the robustness of the maximum wind position re-	
926		sponse between the abrupt-4xCO2 and piControl simulations in	
927		function of the duration of the simulation for (a) the central Atlantic	
928		domain (20-90N/60W-0), (b) the east Atlantic domain (20-90N/0-	
929		30E) and (c) the Pacific (20-90N/120-240E), in black for ONDJFM,	
930		in blue for JFM and in red for OND. For each N from 10 to 1500, we	
931		randomly select 1000 samples of N years in the 1500 years available	
932		for both CPI and C4C simulations and calculate the C4C minus	
933		CPI mean difference over each sample. For each duration, we count	
934		the number of times when the response is of the same sign of the	
935		response found over the full period and significant at the 95% con-	
936		fidence level. The dashed red line indicate when robustness is found	
937		(50%).	44
938	9	Zonal-mean temperature response in OND for (a) Atmosphere-only	
939		CM6-1, (b) the uniform SST warming, (c) sea ice concentration, (d)	
940		physiological and radiative CO ₂ , (e) SST pattern and (f) the cloud	
941		radiative feedback. The green contours correspond to the climatol-	
942		ogy computed in the control simulation piSST (contour interval is	
943		10K). Stipplings indicate responses that are significant at the 95%	
944		confidence level. Correlations between panel a (total response) and	
945		each effect is indicated on the top right.	45
946	10	Same as Figure 9 but for the zonal-mean zonal wind (contour in-	
947		terval is 5 m.s ⁻¹ for the climatology).	46
948	11	Same as Figure 9 but for the 850 hPa zonal wind (contour interval	
949		is 5 m.s ⁻¹ for the climatology).	47
950	12	Same as Figure 9 but for the zonal-mean Eady Growth Rate (con-	
951		tour interval is 0.2 day ⁻¹ for the climatology).	48
952	13	Annual mean 850 hPa zonal wind response for the cloud radiative	
953		effect.	49

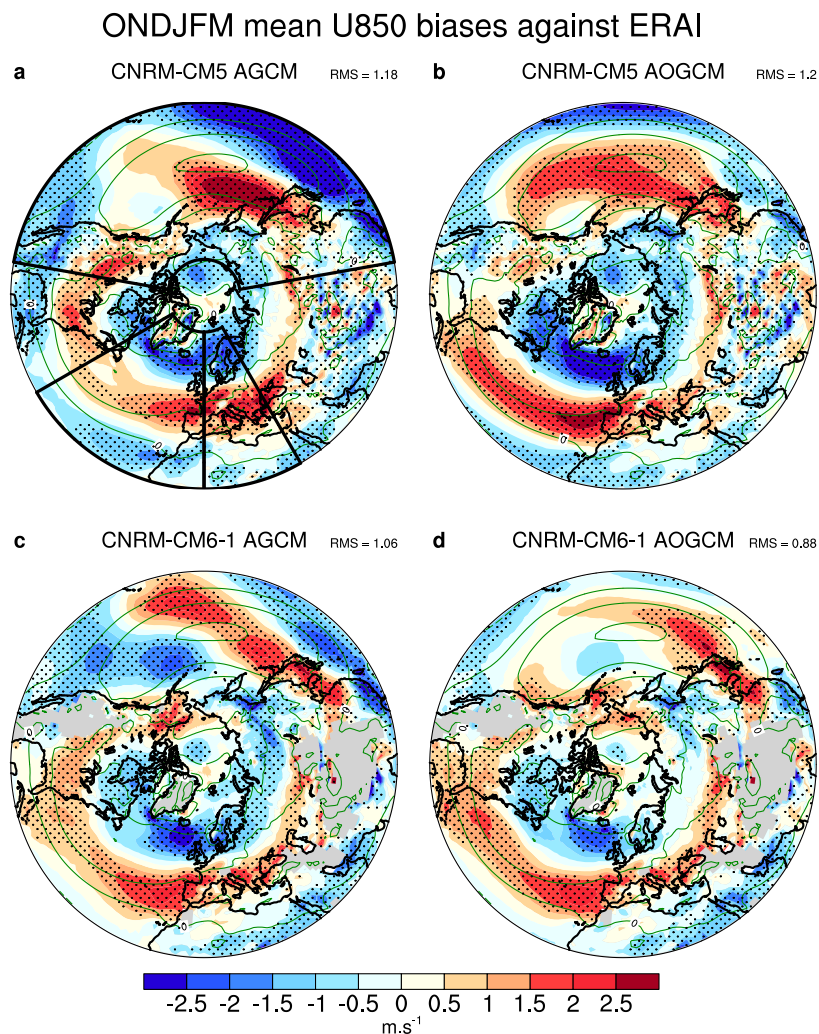


Fig. 1 Biases of zonal wind at 850 hPa (m/s) in ONDJFM for (a) CNRM-CM5.1 AGCM version, (b) CNRM-CM5.1 AOGCM version, (c) CNRM-CM6-1 AGCM version and (d) CNRM-CM6-1 AOGCM version. Biases are estimated as the difference between the historical ensemble mean averaged over 1979-2014 and ERAI reanalysis over the same period. Note that the rcp8.5 is used to extend the historical experiment of CNRM-CM5.1 (AOGCM mode). The green contours indicate the climatology computed using ERAI (contour interval is $5\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$). Stippling indicates differences that are significant at the 95% confidence level. The root mean square (RMS) is indicated on the top right of each panel. The black lines indicate the three regions defined in Section 2.3.

ONDJFM maximum wind position distribution

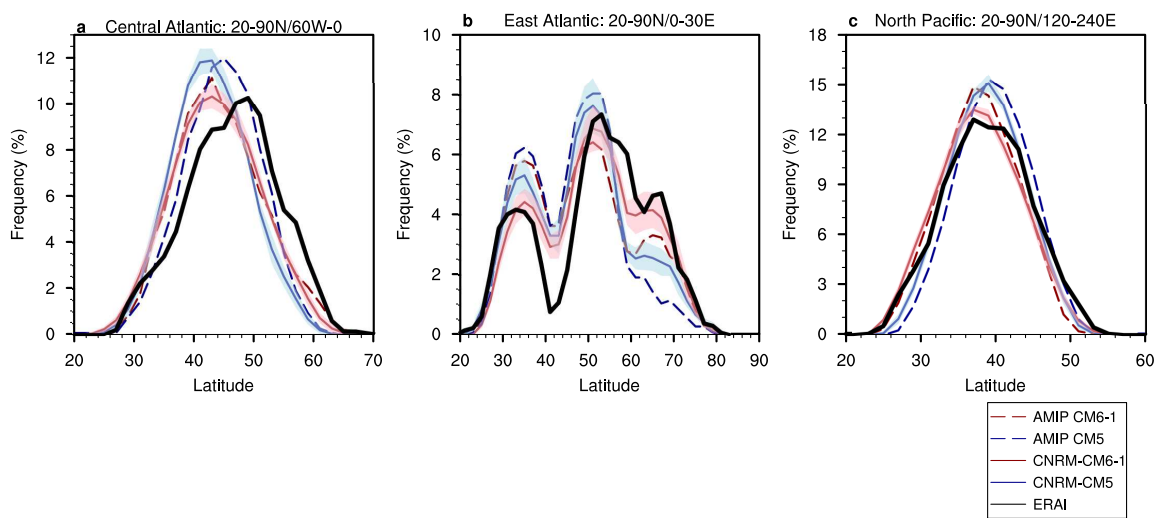


Fig. 2 Frequency of occurrence of the maximum wind position position in ERAI (black line), CNRM-CM5 (blue line) and CNRM-CM6 (red line) for (a) the central Atlantic domain (20-90N/60W-0), (b) the east Atlantic domain (20-90N/0-30E) and (c) the Pacific domain (20-90N/120-240E). Historical simulations are used for CNRM-CM5 and CNRM-CM6-1 over the 1979-2014 period. Note that in the case of CNRM-CM5, the rcp8.5 has been used to extend the historical simulation which ends in 2005. The blue and red shadings correspond to the standard deviation across the historical ensemble members.

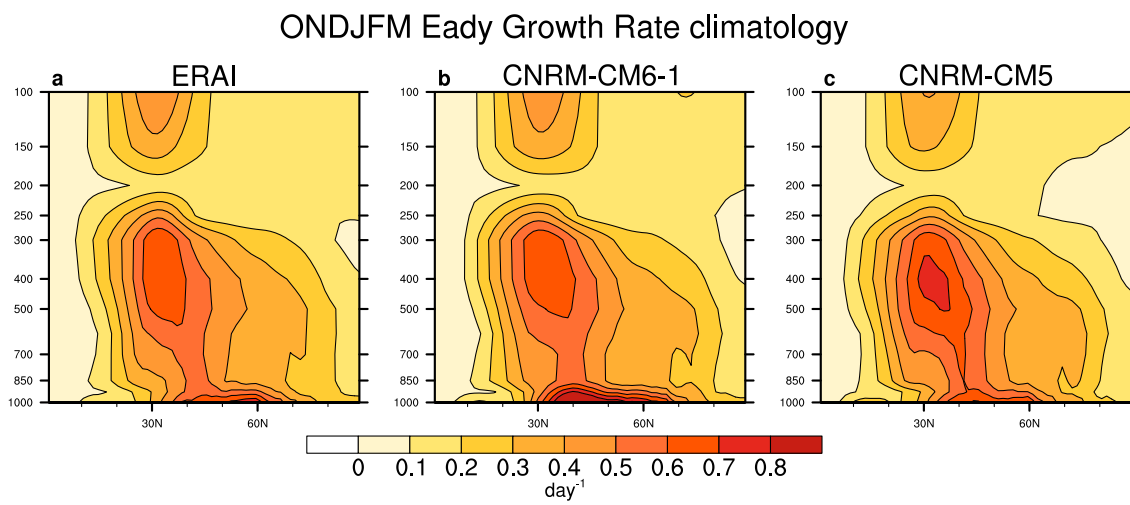


Fig. 3 Climatology of the Eady growth rate for (a) ERA-Interim, (b) CNRM-CM6-1 historical experiment and (c) CNRM-CM5 historical experiment (in day^{-1}). The climatologies are computed over the common period 1979-2014.

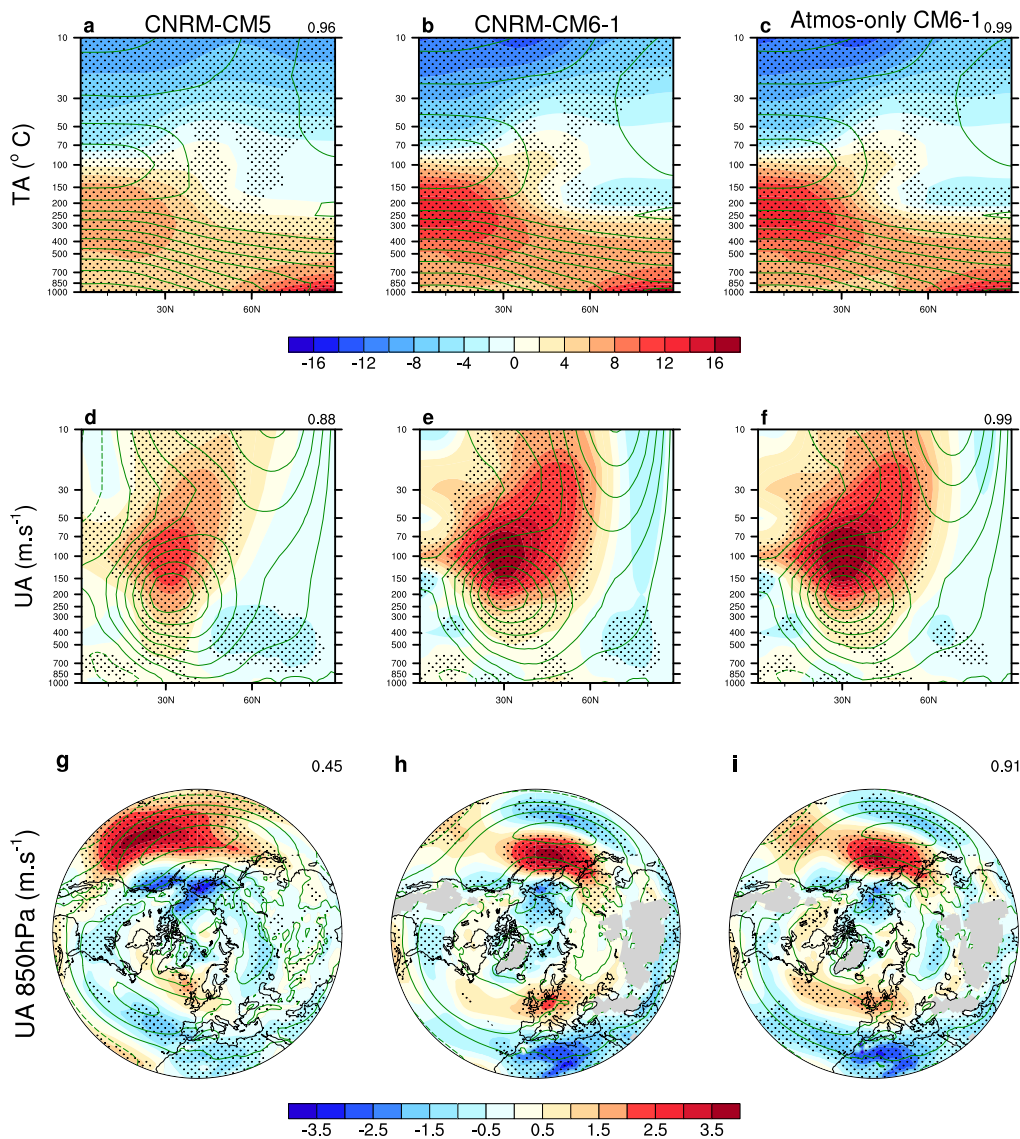


Fig. 4 (a),(b),(c) Zonal-mean temperature response in ONDJFM for CNRM-CM5, CNRM-CM6-1 and atmosphere-only CM6-1 respectively. (d),(e),(f) Zonal-mean zonal wind response. (g),(h),(i) 850 hPa zonal wind response. The green contours correspond to the climatological mean computed in the control simulation of each model (contour intervals are 10 K, 5 $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ and 5 $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ for the temperature, zonal wind and 850 hPa zonal wind respectively). Stipplings indicate responses that are significant at the 95% confidence level. The correlation between each panel and CNRM-CM6-1 (middle panel) is indicated on the top right.

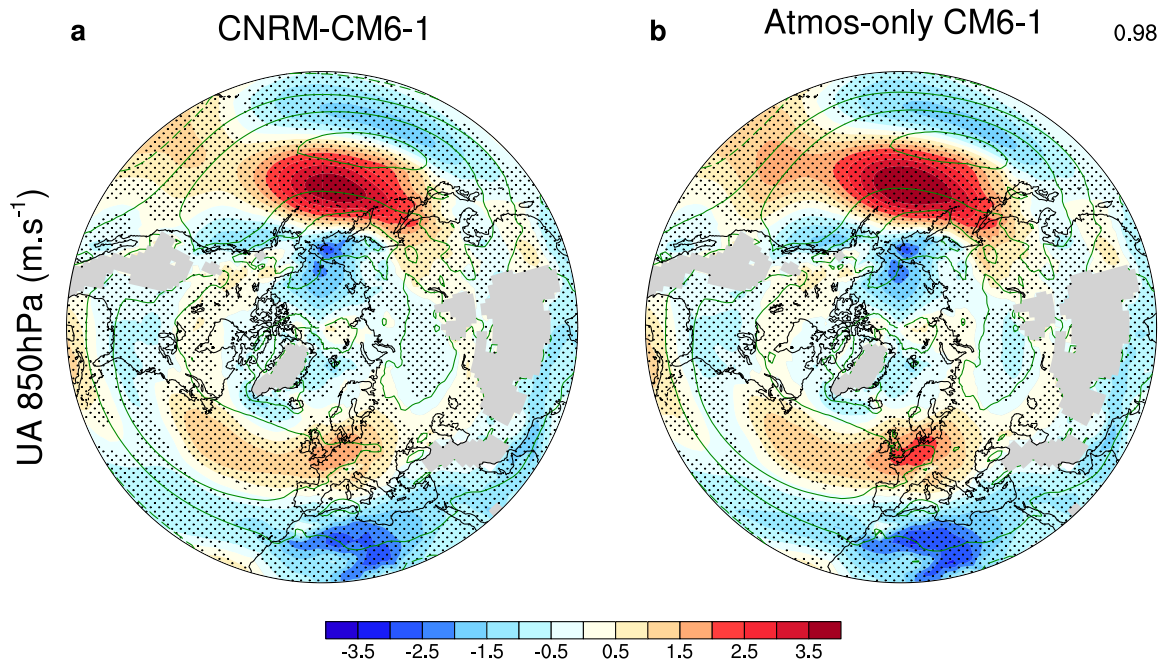


Fig. 5 850 hPa zonal wind response in ONDJFM for (a) CNRM-CM6-1 and (b) atmosphere-only CM6-1 when using all years available (390 in total for the AGCM experiments). The green contours correspond to the climatological mean computed in the control simulation of each model (contour intervals are $5 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$). Stipplings indicate responses that are significant at the 95% confidence level. The correlation between the two panels is indicated on the top right.

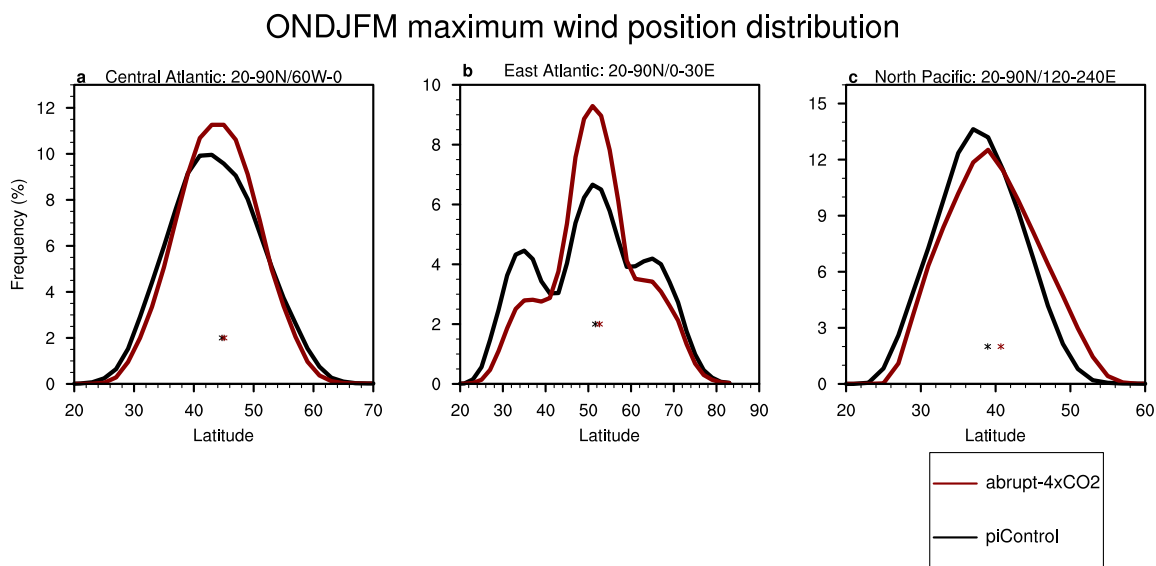


Fig. 6 Probability distribution function (PDF) of the maximum wind position of the piControl simulation (in black) and the abrupt-4xCO₂ simulation (in red) for (a) the central Atlantic domain (20-90N/60W-0), (b) the east Atlantic domain (20-90N/0-30E) and (c) the Pacific (20-90N/120-240E). The PDF is computed over all years available for both simulations, after removing the first 110 years. The two asterisks correspond to the mean maximum wind position.

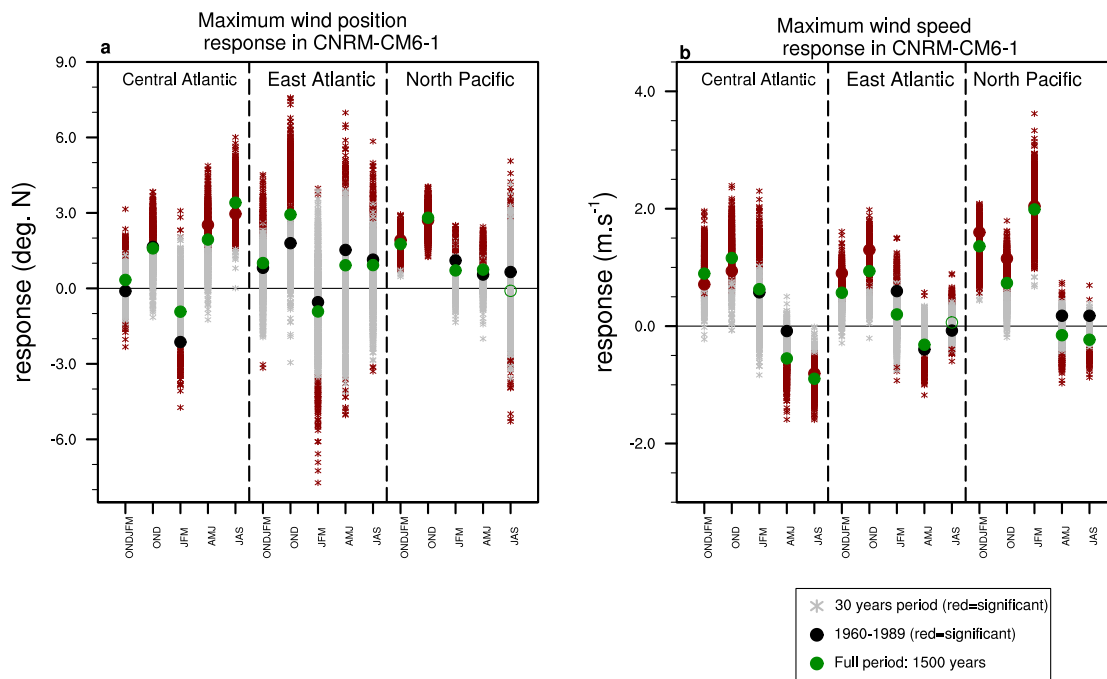


Fig. 7 Scatter plot of (a) the maximum wind position and (b) the speed responses in CNRM-CM6-1 (abrupt-4xCO₂ - piControl) for the Central Atlantic, East Atlantic and North Pacific domains and for ONDJFM, OND, JFM, AMJ and JAS seasons. The responses are computed over the full period (1500 years, green circle filled if significant), the 1960-1989 period (black (red) dots (if significant)), and 1000 samples of 30 years selected randomly in the 1500 years (gray (red) cross (if significant at the 95% confidence level)).

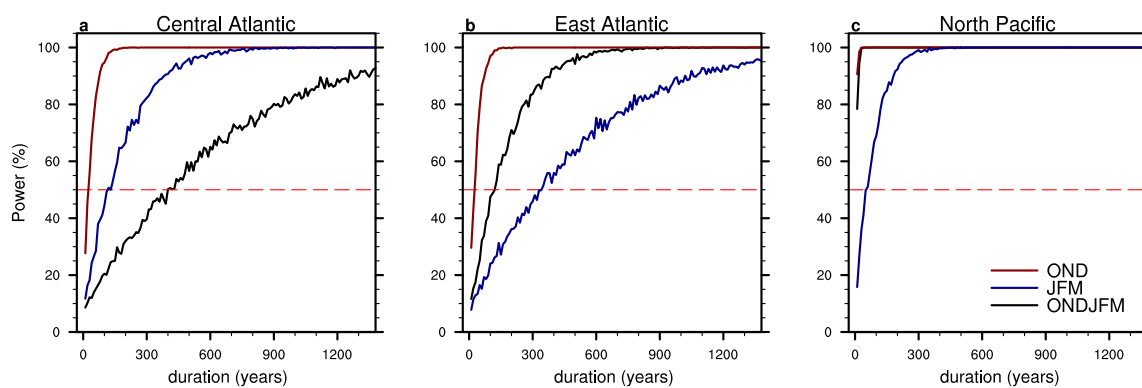


Fig. 8 Time series of the robustness of the maximum wind position response between the abrupt-4xCO₂ and piControl simulations in function of the duration of the simulation for (a) the central Atlantic domain (20-90N/60W-0), (b) the east Atlantic domain (20-90N/0-30E) and (c) the Pacific (20-90N/120-240E), in black for ONDJFM, in blue for JFM and in red for OND. For each N from 10 to 1500, we randomly select 1000 samples of N years in the 1500 years available for both CPI and C4C simulations and calculate the C4C minus CPI mean difference over each sample. For each duration, we count the number of times when the response is of the same sign of the response found over the full period and significant at the 95% confidence level. The dashed red line indicate when robustness is found (50%).

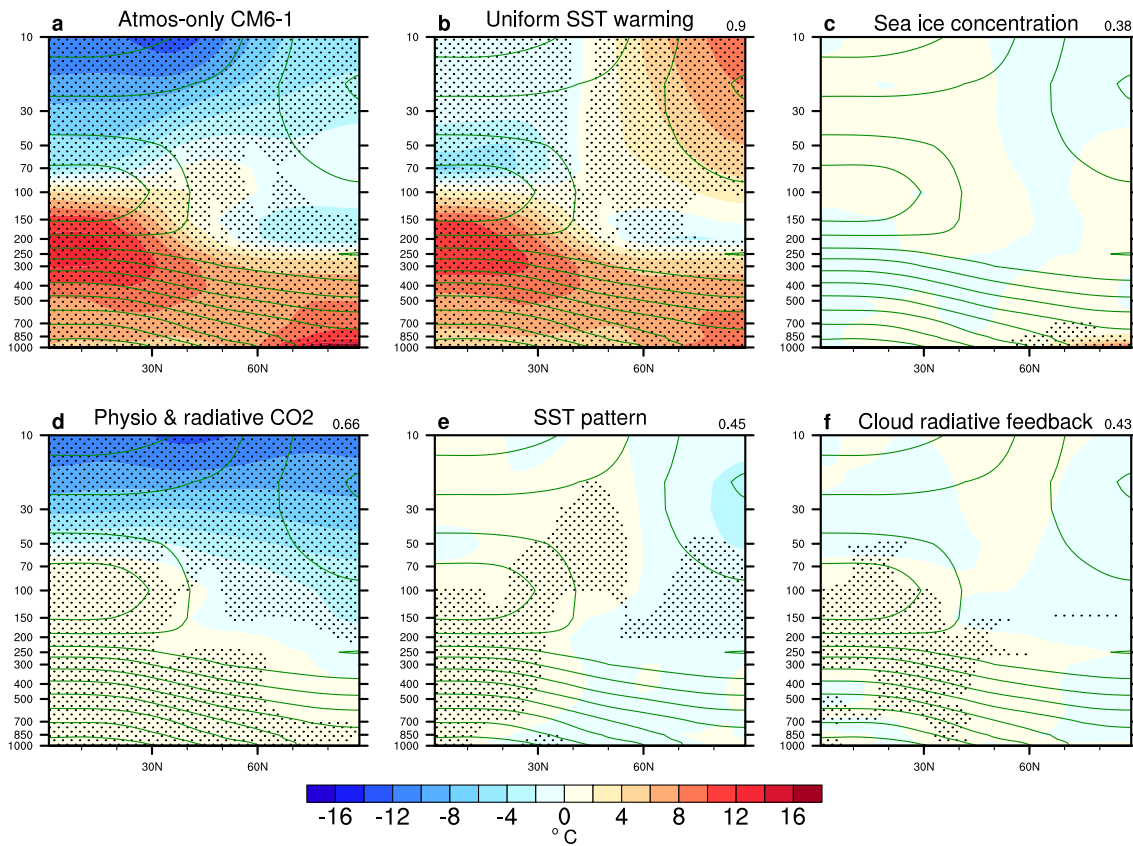


Fig. 9 Zonal-mean temperature response in OND for (a) Atmosphere-only CM6-1, (b) the uniform SST warming, (c) sea ice concentration, (d) physiological and radiative CO_2 , (e) SST pattern and (f) the cloud radiative feedback. The green contours correspond to the climatology computed in the control simulation piSST (contour interval is 10K). Stipplings indicate responses that are significant at the 95% confidence level. Correlations between panel a (total response) and each effect is indicated on the top right.

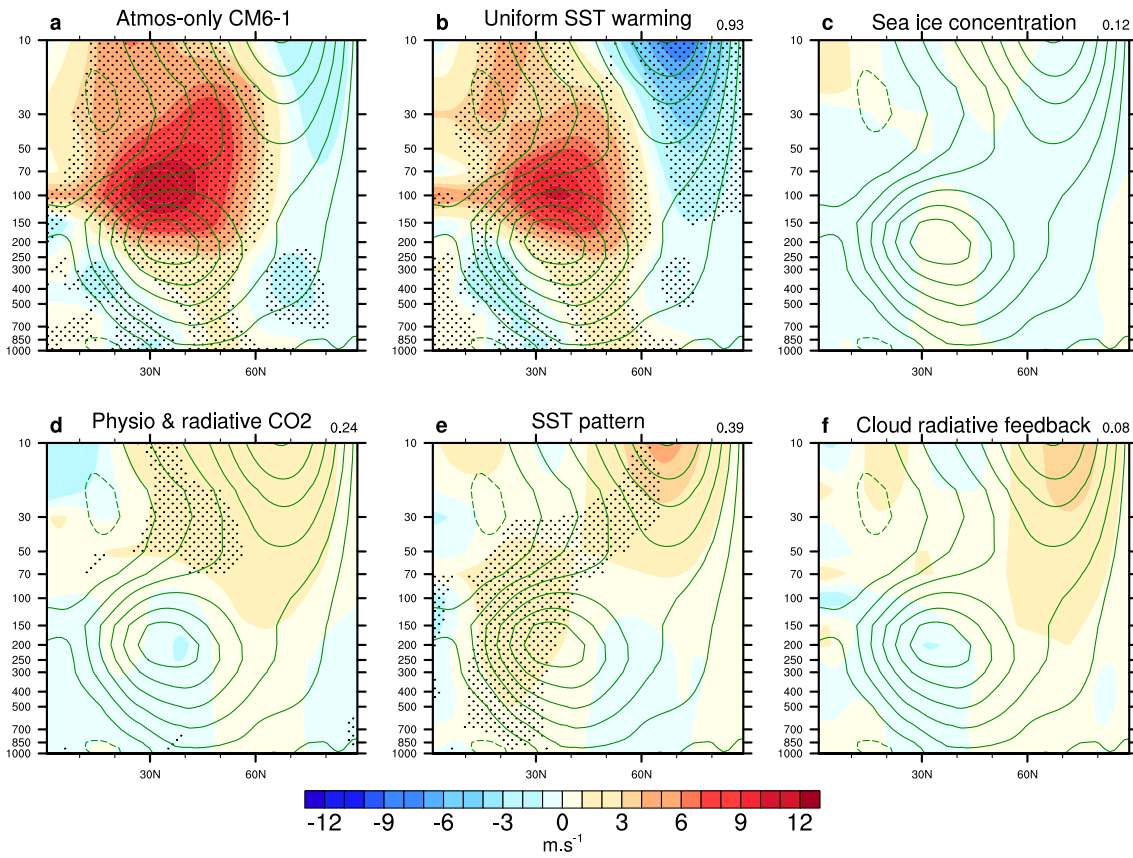


Fig. 10 Same as Figure 9 but for the zonal-mean zonal wind (contour interval is 5 m.s^{-1} for the climatology).

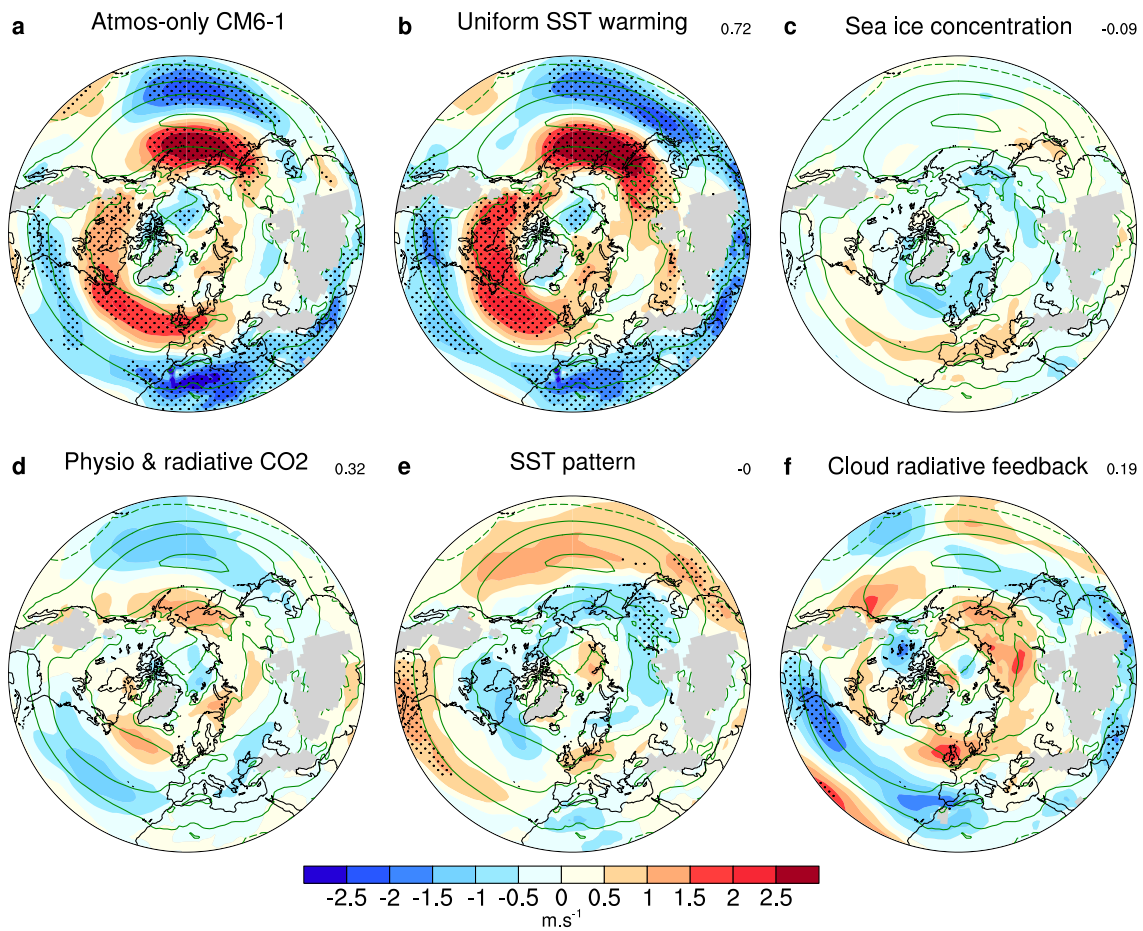


Fig. 11 Same as Figure 9 but for the 850 hPa zonal wind (contour interval is 5 m.s⁻¹ for the climatology).

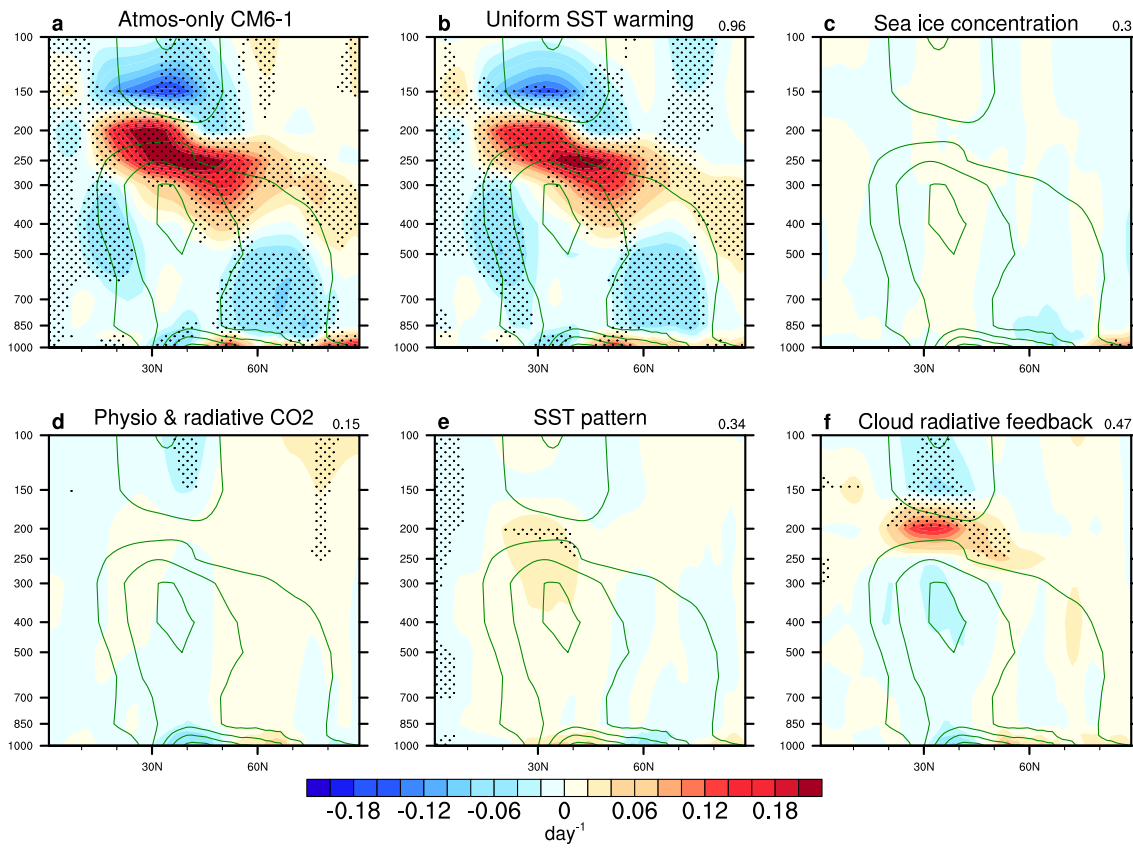


Fig. 12 Same as Figure 9 but for the zonal-mean Eady Growth Rate (contour interval is 0.2 day^{-1} for the climatology).

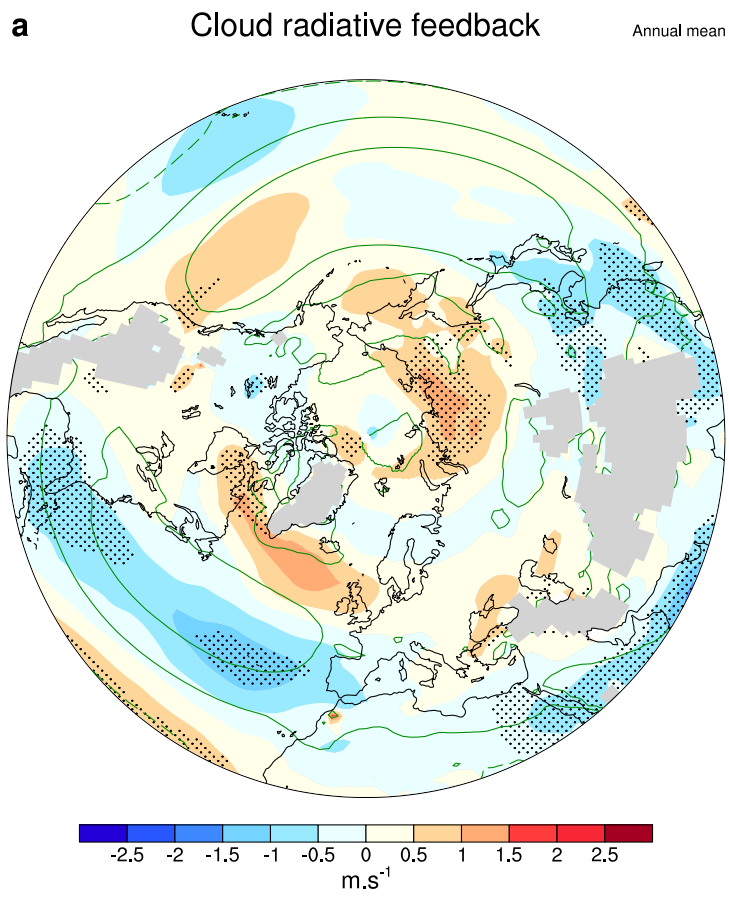


Fig. 13 Annual mean 850 hPa zonal wind response for the cloud radiative effect.