

Remote drying in the North Atlantic as a common response to precessional changes and CO₂ increase over land

Patrick Kelly,^{1*} Ben Kravitz,¹ Jian Lu,¹ and L. Ruby Leung¹

¹Atmospheric Sciences and Global Change Division, Pacific Northwest National Laboratory, Richland, WA

**To whom correspondence should be addressed: P.O. Box 999, MSIN K9-24, Richland, WA 99352, USA. E-mail: patrick.kelly@pnnl.gov.*

Revised for publication in *Geophys. Res. Lett.*

Key Points

- CMIP5 mid-Holocene and AMIP4XCO₂ simulations exhibit similar energy, circulation, and rainfall changes in the NH summer subtropics
- Local CO₂ and insolation increase near North Africa reproduce the total pattern of the response to global forcing
- Direct forcing from insolation and CO₂ yield a similar response due to the common importance of land heating on stationary wave changes

Abstract

Here we demonstrate that changes of the North Atlantic subtropical high (NASH) and its regional rainfall pattern during mid-Holocene precessional changes and idealized $4\times CO_2$ increase can both be understood as a remote response to increased land heating near North Africa. Despite different sources and patterns of radiative forcing (increase in CO_2 concentration vs. changes in orbital parameters), we find that the pattern of energy, circulation, and rainfall responses in the Northern Hemisphere summer subtropics are remarkably similar in the two forcing scenarios because both are dominated by the same land-sea heating contrast in response to the forcing. An increase in energy input over arid land drives a westward displacement of the coupled NASH-monsoon circulation, consistent with increased precipitation in the Afro-Asia region and decreased precipitation in the America-Atlantic region. This study underscores the importance of land heating in dictating remote drying through zonal shifts of the subtropical circulation.

1 **1. Introduction**

2 Rainfall is a key variable that connects climate to its socio-economic impacts. Near
3 subtropical North America, rainfall is strongly influenced by the position of the
4 subtropical high, whose winds dictate mean moisture pathways in addition to the
5 steering of tropical cyclones (Colbert and Soden, 2012). The North Atlantic subtropical
6 high (NASH) shifts westward in future climate change projections (Shaw and Voigt,
7 2015). Similarly, the NASH was displaced westward during the mid-Holocene period
8 (6kyr), consistent with a drier North American climate (Mantsis et al., 2013; Shin et al.,
9 2006; Grimm, 1993). We seek a unified understanding of what drives these similar
10 changes in the NASH and its rainfall pattern under different climate forcings.

11 Heating from monsoon precipitation plays a fundamental role in the formation
12 and maintenance of the anticyclonic flow of the subtropical high in the present-day
13 climate (e.g. Rodwell and Hoskins, 2001; Chen et al., 2001). Under future climate
14 change scenarios, monsoon precipitation is generally expected to increase due to CO₂
15 increase (IPCC *Climate Change*, 2013). Relatedly, a variety of paleoclimate proxy
16 reconstruction data (Jolly et al., 1998; Overpeck et al., 1996) and modeling evidence
17 (Perez-Sanz et al., 2014; Harrison et al., 2015) also suggest that the monsoons of North
18 Africa and Asia were significantly wetter during the mid-Holocene period due to orbital
19 precessional changes.

20 The primary effect of increased insolation in the Northern Hemisphere (NH)
21 during the mid-Holocene was to enhance land-sea energy asymmetries in summer via
22 direct radiative forcing over land, thereby strengthening the North African and Asian
23 monsoon, with oceanic and vegetative feedbacks playing a secondary role (Harrison et
24 al., 2015). Similarly, CO₂ direct radiative forcing strengthens the Asian summer
25 monsoon via increased land heating in prescribed-SST AGCM studies (Shaw and Voigt,
26 2015, 2016).

27 Given this similar role of increased land heating on monsoon strength in the NH,
28 can we interpret the response of the coupled monsoon-NASH circulation to direct CO₂
29 forcing and direct insolation forcing in an analogous way? Here we demonstrate—using
30 CMIP5 analysis and spatially dependent radiative forcing experiments (Methods)—that
31 the response of the NASH and its regional rainfall pattern are governed by the common

32 mechanism of direct radiative forcing of remote arid land in 4xCO₂ and mid-Holocene
33 experiments.

34

35 **2. Methods**

36 **2.1. CMIP5 output**

37 We used monthly output from the Coupled Model Intercomparision Project phase 5
38 (CMIP5; Taylor et al., 2012) from all available models that participated in the prescribed-
39 SST AMIP and AMIP4xCO₂ experiments, as well as the coupled mid-Holocene and
40 preindustrial control (piControl) experiments (Table S1 in Supporting Information). A
41 detailed description of these experiments is found in Taylor et al (2012). We used a
42 single ensemble member for each model participant and took the climatological June-
43 August (JJA) average calculated over years 1979-2008 in the AMIP simulations. In the
44 coupled simulations, we used the long-term climatological output, calculated over a
45 sample of ≥ 100 years after sufficient model spin-up. Model data are first regridded to a
46 standard $1.9^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$ horizontal grid before calculating a multi-model ensemble average.
47 Data is obtained on 17 standard pressure levels from 1000-10 hPa. Any data points
48 below ground are filled using a Poisson relaxation technique. In Figures 1-3, a “robust”
49 grid point is defined as where $> 80\%$ of models agree on the sign of the response.

50

51 **2.2. Non-uniform 4xCO₂ in CAM4 and insolation increase in CCSM4**

52 To identify the remote response in the western Atlantic to radiative forcing near North
53 Africa, we repeated the AMIP4xCO₂ and mid-Holocene experiment of CMIP5 using the
54 CAM4/CCSM4 (Gent et al., 2011; Neale et al., 2011) model, but with the respective CO₂
55 quadrupling and insolation perturbations applied only over the rectangular domain of
56 15°W-60°E longitude and 15°N-30°N latitude. This arid patch near North Africa was
57 chosen because it represents the maximum in anomalous top-of-the-atmosphere (TOA)
58 forcing and net atmosphere energy input anomalies as identified in the CMIP5 archive
59 (Figs. S1-S2).

60 CO₂ concentration in the CAM4 model is prescribed as a constant value, column-
61 by-column over the global grid, allowing the application of a simple horizontal spatial
62 mask to achieve a non-uniform 4xCO₂ distribution (as in Shaw and Voight, 2016;

63 hereafter SV16). CO₂ is prescribed at 1392 ppmv over the domain 15°W-60°E and
64 15°N-30°N. Everywhere else, it is held to a nominal present day value of 348 ppmv. We
65 do not apply any smoothing or tapering at the edges of the forcing domain. The
66 simulation follows the standard AMIP protocol in all other respects. This experiment is
67 called 'CAM4_AMIP4xCO₂_PATCH.'

68 To mimic the precessional-forced insolation change in the CMIP5 mid-Holocene
69 (6kya) experiment, but over a zonally non-uniform domain (15°W-60°E; 15°N-30°N), we
70 modify the radiation calculation of the CAM4 physics module in the coupled CCSM4
71 model to allow for spatio-temporal variations in insolation, rather than being prescribed
72 by a solar constant. These variations are taken directly from the PMIP protocol
73 (https://pmip2.lsce.ipsl.fr/design/tables/insol_tables_6k.shtml) and are prescribed as
74 monthly anomalies on top of the present-day values. This yields an annual cycle of
75 insolation over the forcing domain identical to that found in the standard CMIP5 mid-
76 Holocene simulation, with a mean JJA insolation anomaly in the forcing region of about
77 +20.3Wm⁻². Standard piControl insolation is prescribed everywhere else. Orbital
78 parameters are set to their piControl values. All other boundary conditions and
79 configurations (e.g. atmospheric gas concentrations, vegetation type, initial conditions,
80 spinup, etc.) follow the standard mid-Holocene experimental design (Taylor et al.,
81 2012). This experiment is called 'CCSM4_mid-Holocene_PATCH.'

82

83 **2.3. Net atmosphere energy input**

84 Forcing in this study comes in the form of perturbations to the TOA radiation budget,
85 whether through CO₂ or insolation increase. This forcing can in turn perturb the energy
86 balance of the atmosphere through its relation to net atmosphere energy input (AEI),
87 defined as the difference between the TOA radiation budget and that at the surface:

88

$$89 AEI = TOA - SW - LW + SHF + LHF , \quad (1)$$

90

91 where TOA is defined positive downwelling, surface shortwave (SW) and longwave
92 (LW) fluxes are positive downwelling, and sensible (SHF) and latent (LHF) heat fluxes
93 are positive upwelling into the atmosphere. In regions where the surface energy budget

94 approaches zero (e.g., over land), perturbations to *TOA* forcing can directly perturb *AEI*
95 and act as a moist static energy source.

96

97 **2.4. Moisture budget decomposition**

98 Regional rainfall is the main impact variable of this study. We decompose a simplified
99 column-integrated moisture budget to identify the source of regional rainfall changes
100 under different climate scenarios, with an emphasis on the role of the stationary eddy
101 circulation.

102

103 Beginning with the standard balance equation for water vapor under steady state:

$$104 \quad \overline{P - E} \approx \frac{-1}{g \rho_w} \int_{sfc}^{toa} (\nabla \cdot \overline{vq}) dp \quad , \quad (2)$$

105 the moisture transport term \overline{vq} in can be decomposed into terms relating to transient
106 eddy, stationary eddy, and zonal mean circulation components:

$$107 \quad \overline{vq} = \overline{\overline{v'q'}}_{transient} + \overline{\overline{v^*q}}_{stationary} + \overline{[\overline{v}]\overline{q}}_{zonal} . \quad (3)$$

108 where overbars indicate a JJA climatological average, square brackets indicate a zonal
109 average, an asterisk indicates a zonal deviation, and a prime indicates temporal
110 deviation from the JJA climatology. In the discrete approximation of (2), we vertically
111 integrate from 1000-10hPa utilizing the standard available pressure levels in CMIP5.
112 This level of accuracy is sufficient for our purpose as we are interested in bulk rainfall
113 changes between different climatic states averaged over the western Atlantic basin.

114 All terms of (3) are shown in the accompanying Supporting Information (Fig. S3)
115 for the multi-model ensemble mean difference of AMIP4xCO₂ minus AMIP and mid-
116 Holocene minus piControl. Since necessary fields at daily resolution were not commonly
117 available in CMIP5 data to explicitly compute transient eddy moisture flux, the
118 contribution from transient eddies is implicitly included as part of the budget residual
119 (Figs. S3, S7).

120 Changes in the stationary eddy flux $\overline{v^*q}$ is the key term, so we further
121 decompose it below (Fig. 3) to parse the total change into its 'thermodynamic' (i.e.

122 changes in humidity) and ‘dynamic’ (i.e. changes in the wind field) contributions (Seager
123 et al., 2010):

124

125
$$\underbrace{\langle \delta(\nabla \cdot \bar{\mathbf{v}}^* \bar{q}) \rangle}_{total} = \underbrace{\langle \nabla \cdot (\bar{\mathbf{v}}^* \cdot \delta \bar{q}) \rangle}_{thermodynamic} + \underbrace{\langle \nabla \cdot (\delta \bar{\mathbf{v}}^* \cdot \bar{q}) \rangle}_{dynamic}, \quad (4)$$

126

127 where δ represents the experiment minus control JJA mean change and angled
128 brackets indicate a column mass integration.

129

130 **3. CMIP5 mid-Holocene and AMIP4xCO₂ comparison**

131 The June–August (JJA) net atmosphere energy input in the NH subtropics in response
132 to a 4xCO₂ increase and mid-Holocene precessional changes in CMIP5 models is
133 strikingly similar (Fig. 1, top row), despite significantly different model configurations and
134 forcings: AMIP4xCO₂ simulations were forced by a globally uniform quadrupling of CO₂
135 under a fixed-SST constraint, whereas mid-Holocene simulations used a fully-coupled
136 ocean model with interactive SSTs, forced by orbital changes resulting in a zonally
137 uniform but latitudinally varying pattern of insolation change (Methods). Perturbations to
138 TOA radiative flux (Figs. S1-S2) from these two different forcing scenarios result in a
139 similar pattern and magnitude of net atmosphere energy input, with an increase over
140 most land areas and a decrease over oceans, increasing land-sea heating asymmetry.
141 Over land, the largest increase in net atmosphere energy input is over the arid
142 subtropical region near North Africa, where cloud and water vapor masking have little
143 influence (Merlis, 2015; SV16). Over subtropical ocean, a reduction in latent heat flux
144 acts to compensate the positive TOA anomalies (Figs. S1- S2), leading to small or net
145 negative (i.e., upward) atmosphere energy changes (Allen and Ingram, 2002).

146 Atmosphere energy input can be related to the divergent circulation and
147 convection through the moist static energy framework (Neelin and Held, 1987), where
148 positive energy anomalies imply low-level convergence and rising motion. In 4xCO₂ and
149 mid-Holocene simulations, precipitation increases over tropical land and decreases over
150 tropical ocean in the Eastern Hemisphere (Fig. 1, 2nd row), indicative of a strengthening
151 of the continental African and Asian monsoons systems and a northwest shift of broad-

152 scale tropical precipitation. The pattern of these regional rainfall changes is consistent
153 with increased energy input over land and decreased energy input over the ocean (Fig.
154 1, top row), noting that the relationship between energy input and precipitation is not
155 strictly local in monsoon systems, with maximum precipitation occurring slightly
156 equatorward from the maximum in energy input (Nie, Boos, and Kuang, 2010). In both
157 sets of simulations, low-level velocity potential is increased near 45°E (Fig. 1, 3rd row),
158 indicating anomalous large scale low-level convergence over the Middle East,
159 consistent with the increase in energy input there. This also corresponds to a westward
160 displacement of the anticyclonic flow of the NASH near the surface into North American
161 longitudes (Fig. 1 bottom row), as the rotational flow in the Atlantic is coupled to the
162 divergent monsoon circulation to its east via Rossby wave dynamics (Rodwell and
163 Hoskins, 2001; Rodwell and Hoskins, 1996).

164 Climatological heating from monsoon precipitation drive dynamical changes in
165 the zonally asymmetric– or stationary wave– circulation, with monsoon heating acting
166 as the primary control of the global stationary wave pattern in summer (Hoskins and
167 Rodwell, 1995; Ting, 1994). At subtropical latitudes, the response to heating
168 perturbations is largely baroclinic, so that the asymmetric circulation responses in the
169 upper and lower troposphere are of opposite signs. In the climatological mean, the
170 summertime anticyclonic flow of the NASH is coupled to an upper-level cyclone
171 (vorticity source) and deep layer subsidence over the relatively cool eastern Atlantic
172 (Miyasaka and Nakamura, 2005). But under the externally forced climate scenarios
173 considered here, continental monsoon rainfall is increased, and a westward
174 displacement of the entire vertically-coupled stationary zonal wave #1 pattern is seen
175 (Fig. 2).

176 In both 4xCO₂ and mid-Holocene cases, the upper-level clockwise flow around
177 the Tibetan anticyclone shifts poleward and extends further west into the Atlantic (Fig. 2
178 top, middle rows), consistent with poleward and westward shifts in precipitation (Fig. 1).
179 In the eastern Atlantic basin, there are positive upper-level vorticity anomalies centered
180 near 50°N corresponding to the northwest corner of the Tibetan anticyclone (Fig. 2, top
181 row). This also results in positive vorticity anomalies extending further westward into the
182 western Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico, given the characteristic southwest-northeast phase

183 tilt of the upper-level stationary wave. The mass convergence implied by this upper-
184 level vorticity anomaly is consistent with deep-layer subsidence around 100-60°W (Fig.
185 2 bottom row), as dictated by mass continuity. Increased CO₂ and insolation thus cause
186 a coherent westward shift of the vertically-coupled baroclinic stationary wave circulation,
187 consistent with subsidence-induced drying in the western Atlantic (Fig. 2, bottom row;
188 Fig. 1, 2nd row).

189 While the pattern of these circulation changes is very similar in the subtropical
190 western Atlantic, mid-Holocene changes are generally of weaker amplitude, despite
191 comparable increases in energy input and monsoon rainfall to the east (Fig. 1). This
192 may be due to SST warming in the coupled mid-Holocene simulations which partially
193 weakens the land-sea heating asymmetry, and possibly model sampling differences
194 (Table S1).

195 We decompose JJA precipitation minus evaporation ($P - E$) using a simple
196 moisture budget (Methods) to directly connect changes in the circulation with regional
197 rainfall changes. Summer drying in the western Atlantic in response to CO₂ and
198 insolation increases can both be understood almost entirely in terms of changes in the
199 stationary wave pattern, as the NASH and its deep-layer subsidence shift westward
200 under increased land heating (Figs. 1, 2), causing low-level moisture flux divergence
201 (Fig. 3). Stationary eddy moisture divergence $\nabla \cdot \bar{\mathbf{v}}^* \bar{q}$ is the primary budget term (See
202 Fig. S3 for full budget). Further partitioning $\nabla \cdot \bar{\mathbf{v}}^* \bar{q}$ into changes due to the asymmetric
203 circulation (i.e. ‘dynamic’ effect) and changes due to humidity (i.e. ‘thermodynamic’
204 effect; see Seager et al., 2010), clarifies the asymmetric circulation as the cause of
205 basin-scale drying in the western Atlantic (Fig. 3). The thermodynamic term does play a
206 more significant role in the local increase of precipitation, however. Increased humidity
207 and increased convergence over land act in concert to drive strongly positive $P - E$
208 changes in monsoon regions. But humidity changes are of minor significance to the
209 negative $P - E$ changes over the ocean. These results are common to both fixed-SST
210 AMIP4xCO₂ simulations and coupled mid-Holocene simulations, and are consistent with
211 recent work emphasizing the role of stationary eddies on the hydrological cycle in a
212 warmer climate (e.g. Wills et al., 2016; Levine and Boos, 2016; Shaw and Voigt, 2015).

213

214

215 **4. Response to spatially non-uniform radiative forcing**

216 To better understand what drives these similar changes in the NASH and its
217 rainfall pattern under various climate forcings in the CMIP5 archive, we next turn to
218 idealized model experiments with the fully coupled Community Climate System Model
219 version 4 (CCSM4; Gent et al., 2011) and its uncoupled atmosphere component
220 (CAM4; Neale et al., 2011). CCSM4 and CAM4 are generally representative of the
221 robust CMIP5 multi-model mean response to 4xCO₂ increase and mid-Holocene
222 insolation changes shown in Figures 1-2. (see Figs. S4-S5). We used dedicated forcing
223 experiments with spatially dependent CO₂ and insolation increases in CAM4 and
224 CCSM4, respectively (Methods). Denoted 'CAM4_AMIP4xCO₂_PATCH' and
225 'CCSM4_mid-Holocene_PATCH', these experiments were forced by the same
226 respective CO₂ and insolation perturbations as the CMIP5 experiments, but only over a
227 patch of arid land on the northwest margins of the African and Asian monsoons (15°W-
228 60°E and 15°N-30°N; see box in Fig. 4) where TOA and net atmosphere energy input
229 anomalies are maximized (Figs. S1-S2). PATCH experiments are designed to verify
230 that the NASH displacement and rainfall reduction in the western Atlantic (Fig. 1) can be
231 interpreted as a remote response to anomalous energy input over arid land under
232 increased CO₂ and insolation scenarios.

233 Figure 4 shows the energy, circulation and rainfall responses in
234 CAM4_AMIP4xCO₂_PATCH and CCSM4_mid-Holocene_PATCH, plotted on the same
235 color scale as Figures 1-2 to facilitate comparison with the CMIP5 multi-model
236 response. In short, the response in CAM4_AMIP4xCO₂_PATCH and CCSM4_mid-
237 Holocene_PATCH are very similar (Fig. 4), both to each other and to their standard
238 AMIP/mid-Holocene counterparts using global forcing (Figs. S4-S5). The PATCH
239 experiments also reproduce the same pattern as the robust multi-model mean CMIP5
240 response (Figs. 1, 2), albeit with smaller magnitude of changes in most fields. This may
241 reflect secondary contributions of radiative forcing from other regions in amplifying the
242 principal response, in addition to individual model differences.

243 Results from PATCH forcing experiments confirm the role of increased energy
244 input over land near North Africa in driving a broad-scale enhancement of Afro-Asian

245 precipitation and remote energy and circulation changes in the Atlantic via shifts in the
246 global-scale stationary wave pattern. Radiative forcing of land near North Africa causes
247 remote energy flux divergence over the ocean in the western Atlantic basin (Fig. 4, top
248 row) and a westward shift of the large-scale monsoon divergence circulation in the
249 Eastern Hemisphere, shifting the corresponding Rossby wave response further west. At
250 low levels, the NASH is also displaced westward (Fig. 4, 2nd row), accompanied by deep
251 layer subsidence (Fig. 4, 3rd row) in the western Atlantic (~100-60°W) in a manner
252 consistent with related work using similar experiments (SV16).

253 Subtropical rainfall changes in the PATCH experiments (Fig. 4, bottom row)
254 follow these zonal shifts in the stationary wave circulation and closely resemble the
255 multi-model mean CMIP5 response (Fig. 1). Monsoon precipitation in the Eastern
256 Hemisphere is preferentially increased over land and decreased over the ocean, and a
257 westward displaced NASH yields low-level moisture divergence and drying on its
258 western edge (Fig. 4). Drying in the western Atlantic in the PATCH experiments is thus
259 driven by changes in the stationary eddy atmospheric circulation, not moisture field,
260 again consistent with the CMIP5 response to global forcing (Figs. 3 and S7).

261

262

263 **5. Summary and Discussion**

264 A local patch of radiative forcing over land near North Africa reproduced the total
265 pattern of the response to global forcing in CAM4/CCSM4 mid-Holocene and
266 AMIP4xCO₂ experiments. This imposed energy anomaly drives an enhancement of the
267 broad-scale Afro-Asian monsoon, with increased continental rainfall and a distinct
268 westward displacement of the monsoon divergent circulation and subtropical high.
269 Remote heating of land is thus the common driver of a westward displaced NASH and
270 drying in the Atlantic under increased CO₂ and insolation. The similarity across
271 uncoupled CO₂ and coupled insolation PATCH experiments highlights the central role of
272 a TOA perturbation over land in constraining the pattern of circulation and rainfall
273 changes in the Atlantic. However, other mechanisms need to be considered in
274 quantifying the amplitude of changes. For instance, the relatively weaker rainfall
275 response in the coupled mid-Holocene simulations (Fig. 4, bottom row) despite

276 comparable TOA forcing (Fig. 4, top row), may point to the competing role of SST
277 feedbacks and ocean circulation changes on the stationary wave response to radiative
278 forcing (Shaw and Voigt, 2015). Still, we anticipate the principal results found here to be
279 relevant to more realistic climate change scenarios with associated SST warming, since
280 changes in the NASH wind field ultimately govern drying in the Atlantic (Fig. 3) and a
281 westward displaced NASH is a common result of prescribed-SST AMIP4xCO₂ and
282 coupled rcp8.5 experiments (see Figure 1 of Shaw and Voigt, 2015).

283 Unlike regions of projected increased precipitation, where the ‘wet-get-wetter’
284 paradigm is a reasonable approximation of the response to CO₂ forcing (Held and
285 Soden, 2006), subtropical *drying* in future climate change projections have been shown
286 to be inconsistent with thermodynamic scaling arguments and independent of changes
287 in SST and zonal mean subsidence (He and Soden, 2017). This implies the importance
288 of the stationary wave circulation–driven by land-sea heating asymmetries–in governing
289 regional-scale drying under CO₂ increase. And as demonstrated above, drying during
290 the Mid-Holocene was also driven by similar changes in the stationary wave circulation
291 under increased insolation over land. Consistent mechanistic reasoning applies when
292 interpreting summer drying in the western Atlantic in response to direct CO₂ warming
293 and direct insolation warming.

294 Our findings extend recent work by Shaw and Voigt (2015, 2016) and suggest
295 that the principal remote response in the North Atlantic to a climate perturbation is not
296 particularly sensitive to the details of the radiative forcing, so long as the forcing
297 includes robust energy input over land near North Africa. This increased energy input
298 appears to act as a moist amplification process near arid regions on the margin of
299 existing monsoons in CAM4/CCSM4, causing an increase in continental monsoon
300 rainfall and a westward shift of the broad-scale subtropical circulation. In looking at
301 inter-model differences across the CMIP5 ensemble, there is also a correlation between
302 increased monsoon rainfall and the circulation response to 4xCO₂ in the western
303 Atlantic (Fig. S8), consistent with the observed relationship found in inter-annual
304 samples (Kelly and Mapes, 2011). This may also point to the role of moist heating in
305 amplifying the total response to external radiative forcing.

306 One caveat in interpreting our results, however, is that the moist-coupled
307 response of CAM4/CCSM4 exhibits excessive precipitation near North Africa as
308 compared to the CMIP5 multi-model mean (compare Figs. 1 and S4). While such a
309 westward amplification of latent heating in the PATCH region may amplify the westward
310 shift of the NASH, it need not be a necessary condition. Atmosphere energy input over
311 land near North Africa might also directly drive changes in the divergent circulation and
312 coupled Rossby wave via the increase in dry static energy there (as discussed in
313 SV16). It may be fruitful to further disentangle the role of dry vs moist heating processes
314 on the resultant moist-coupled circulation response of such experiments in future work.

315 The role of monsoons in governing the climatological summertime subtropical
316 anticyclones is well known (e.g. Rodwell and Hoskins, 2001), and a monsoon-driven
317 westward shift of the NASH has previously been shown to cause climatological drying
318 on sub-seasonal to seasonal timescales (Kelly and Mapes, 2011, 2013, Shaw and
319 Voigt, 2015). Similar atmosphere dynamics appear relevant to simulated mid-Holocene
320 precessional changes and the 4xCO₂ forcing scenario considered here, lending
321 confidence to the role of remote radiative heating on governing the North Atlantic
322 circulation and rainfall response in summer. Westward shifts of the NASH in warmer
323 climates may also have important implications on tropical cyclone tracks in the Atlantic,
324 perhaps helping to explain secular variations of land-falling events in the paleo record
325 (Elsner et al., 2000).

326 By highlighting common physical linkages of the climate system, this study helps
327 to unify interpretation of regional rainfall changes across a variety of forcing constraints.
328 Remote heating of Afro-Asia is a common cause of drying of the America-Atlantic region
329 in summer, independent of whether the climate system is forced by annual cycle
330 insolation changes, orbital precessional changes, or CO₂ increase. Understanding
331 subtropical circulation and rainfall changes in light of the highly repeatable and
332 observable seasonal cycle may thus be a useful lens through which to interpret climate
333 change projections.

334
335
336

337

338

339 **Acknowledgments**

340 This work was supported by the Office of Science of the U.S. Department of Energy
341 (DOE) Biological and Environmental Research as part of the Regional and Global
342 Climate Modeling Program. The Pacific Northwest National Laboratory is operated for
343 DOE by Battelle Memorial Institute under contract DE-AC05-76RL01830. This work
344 used computing resources provided by the National Energy Research Scientific
345 Computing Center (NERSC), a DOE Office of Science User Facility supported by the
346 Office of Science of the U.S. Department of Energy under Contract No. DE-AC02-
347 05CH11231. The CAM4/CCSM4 simulations are archived at NERSC and are available
348 upon request (*patrick.kelly@pnnl.gov*). The CMIP5 data used in this study is publicly
349 available (<https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/>). P.K. is also grateful for discussions with Brian
350 Mapes and comments from two anonymous reviewers whose efforts significantly
351 improved this manuscript.

352

353 **Author contributions**

354 P.K. designed the research and led the writing. P.K. and B.K. conducted the
355 experiments. All authors analyzed and discussed the results and contributed to the
356 writing.

357

358 **Competing financial interest**

359 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

360

361

362 **References**

363 Allen, M.R., and W. J. Ingram (2002) Constraints on future climate and the
364 hydrological cycle. *Nature*, 419, 224-232.

365

366 Chen, J., & Bordoni S. (2014). Orographic effects of the Tibetan Plateau on the East
367 Asian Summer monsoon: An energetic perspective. *J. Climate*, 27, 3052–3072.

368

369 Chen, P., Hoerling, M. P., & Dole, R. M. (2001). The origin of the subtropical
370 anticyclones. *J. Atmos. Sci.* **58**, 1827–1835.

371 Colbert, A. J. & Soden, B. J. (2012). Climatological variations in North Atlantic tropical
372 cyclone tracks. *J. Clim.* **25**, 657–673.

373

374 Elsner, J. B., Liu, K. B. & Kocher, B. (2000). Spatial variations in major US hurricane
375 activity: Statistics and a physical mechanism. *J. Clim.* **13**, 2293–2305.

376
377 Gent, P. R., & Coauthors (2011). The Community Climate System Model version 4.
378 *J. Climate* **24**, 4973–4991.
379
380 Grimm, E. C. & Coauthors (1993). A 50,000-year record of climate oscillations from
381 Florida and its temporal correlation with the Heinrich events. *Science* **261**, 198–200.
382
383 Harrison, S. P. & Coauthors (2015). Evaluation of CMIP5 palaeo-simulations to improve
384 climate projections. *Nat. Clim. Change* **5**, 735–743.
385 He, J. & Soden, B. J. (2017). A re-examination of the projected subtropical precipitation
386 decline. *Nat. Clim. Change* **7**, 53–57.
387
388 Held, I. M. & Soden, B. J. (2006). Robust responses of the hydrological cycle to global
389 warming. *J. Clim.* **19**, 5686–5699.
390 Hoskins, B. J., & Rodwell, M. J. (1995). A model of the Asian summer monsoon. Part I:
391 The global scale. *J. Atmos. Sci.* **52**, 1329–1340.
392 IPCC *Climate Change 2013: The Physical Science Basis* (eds Stocker, T. F. et al.)
393 (Cambridge Univ. Press, 2013).
394 Jolly, D. & Coauthors (1998). Biome reconstruction from pollen and plant macrofossil
395 data for Africa and the Arabian peninsula at 0 and 6000 years. *J. Biogeogr.* **25**, 1007–
396 1027.
397 Kelly, P., & Mapes, B. (2011). Zonal mean wind, the Indian monsoon, and July drying in
398 the western Atlantic subtropics. *J. Geophys. Res.* **116**.
399 —, & —. Asian monsoon forcing of subtropical easterlies in the Community Atmosphere
400 Model: Summer climate implications for the western Atlantic. (2013). *J. Clim.* **26**, 2741–
401 2755.
402 Levine X. J., and Boos W. R. (2016). A mechanism for the response of the zonally
403 asymmetric subtropical hydrologic cycle to global warming. *Journal of Climate*, 29,
404 7851–7867.
405 Mantua, D. F., Clement, A. C., Kirtman, B. P., Broccoli, A. J., & Erb M. P. (2013).
406 Precessional cycles and their influence on the North Pacific and North Atlantic
407 summer anticyclones. *J. Clim.* **26**, 4596–4611.
408 Merlis, T. M. (2015). Direct weakening of tropical circulations from masked CO₂
409 radiative forcing. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **112**, 13167–13171.
410
411 Miyasaka, T., & Nakamura H. (2005). Structure and formation mechanisms of the
412 Northern Hemisphere summertime subtropical highs. *J. Clim.* **18**, 5046–5065.
413

414 Neale, R. B., & Coauthors (2011). Description of the NCAR Community Atmosphere
415 Model (CAM4). NCAR Tech. Note NCAR/TN-485+STR, 120 pp.
416

417 Neelin, J. D., and I. M. Held (1987). Modeling tropical convergence based on the moist
418 static energy budget. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, **115**, 3–12.
419

420 Nie, J., W. Boos, and Z. Kuang, (2010). Observational evaluation of a convective quasi-
421 equilibrium view of monsoons. *J. Climate*, **23**, 4416–4428.
422

423 Overpeck, J., Anderson, D., Trumbore, S. & Prell, W. (1996). The southwest Indian
424 Monsoon over the last 18,000 years. *Clim. Dynam.* **12**, 213–225.
425

426 Perez-Sanz, A., Li, G., Gonzalez-Samperiz, P. & Harrison, S. P. (2014). Evaluation of
427 modern and mid-Holocene seasonal precipitation of the Mediterranean and northern
428 Africa in the CMIP5 simulations. *Clim. Past* **10**, 551–568.
429

430 Rodwell, M. J., & Hoskins, B. J. (1996). Monsoons and the dynamics of deserts. *Quart.
431 J. Roy. Meteor. Soc.* **122**, 1385–1404.
432

433 Rodwell, M. J., & Hoskins, B. J. (2001). Subtropical anticyclones and summer
434 monsoons. *J. Clim.* **14**, 3192–3211.
435

436 Seager, R., Naik, N. & Vecchi, G. A. (2010). Thermodynamic and dynamic mechanisms
437 for large-scale changes in the hydrological cycle in response to global warming. *J.
Clim.* **23**, 4651–4668.
438

439 Shaw, T. A., & Voigt A. (2015). Tug of war on summertime circulation between radiative
440 forcing and sea surface warming. *Nat. Geosci.* **8**, 560–566.
441

442 Shaw, T. A., & Voigt A. (2016). Land dominates the regional response to CO₂ direct
443 radiative forcing. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **43**, 11,383-11,391.
444

445 Shin, S. I., Sardeshmukh, P. D., Webb, R. S., Oglesby, R. J. & Barsugli J.
446 J. Understanding the mid-Holocene climate. (2006). *J. Clim.* **19**, 2801–2817.
447

448 Taylor, K. E., Stou er, R. J. & Meehl, G. A. (2012). An overview of CMIP5 and the
449 experiment design. *Bull. Am. Meteorol. Soc.* **93**, 485–498.
450

451 Ting, M. Maintenance of northern summer stationary waves in a GCM. (1994). *J.
Atmos. Sci.* **51**, 3286–3308.
452

453 Wills, R. C., M. P. Byrne, and T. Schneider. (2016). Thermodynamic and dynamic
454 controls on changes in the zonally anomalous hydrological cycle. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*,
455 **43**, 4640-464.
456

457

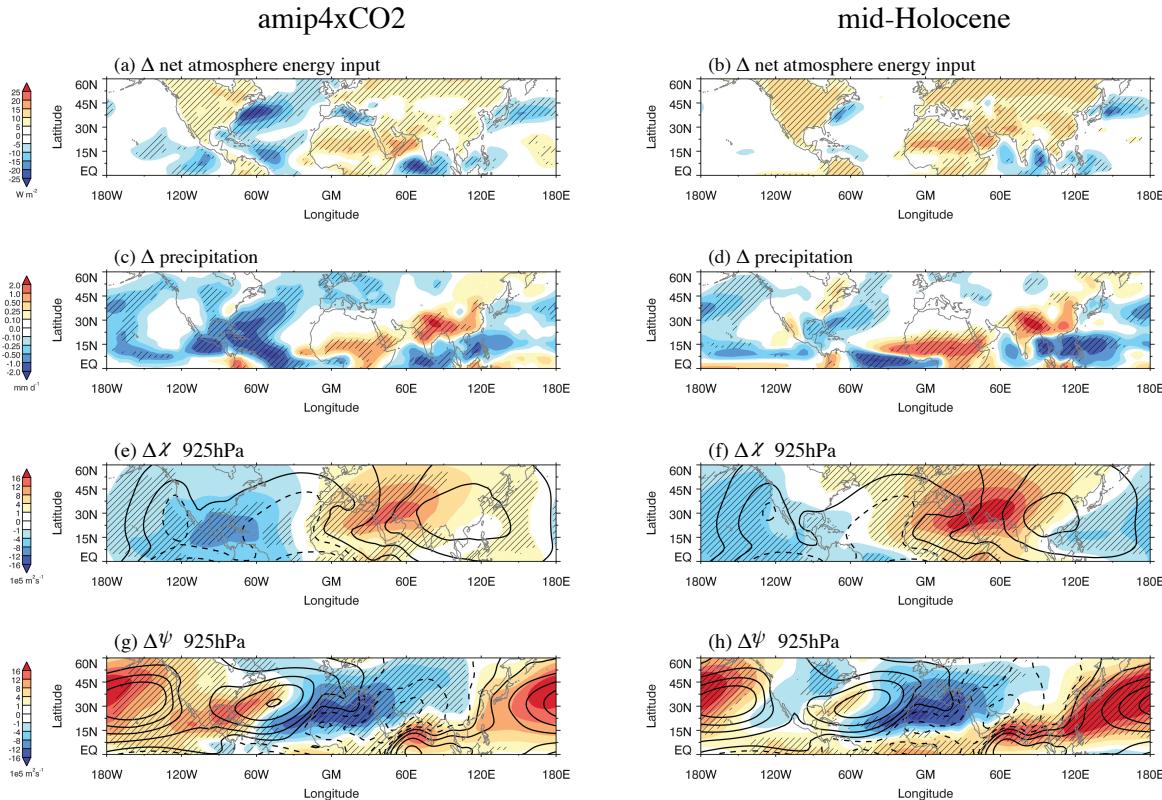
458

459

460

461

462

463 **FIGURE LIST:**

464

465 **Figure 1:** JJA multi-model ensemble mean difference (colors) of net atmosphere energy input
 466 (a,b), precipitation (c,d), and low-level velocity potential (e,f) and zonally asymmetric stream
 467 function (g,h) for AMIP4xCO₂ minus AMIP (left) and mid-Holocene minus piControl (right).
 468 Background control climatology of velocity potential and stream function is indicated by the
 469 thick black contours in (e-h) with solid and dashed contours indicating positive and negative
 470 values, respectively, with the zero contour omitted. Cross-hatching indicates >80% model
 471 agreement on the sign of the change (i.e. robustness). Net atmosphere energy input is defined as
 472 the difference of TOA minus surface fluxes (Methods).

473

474

475

476

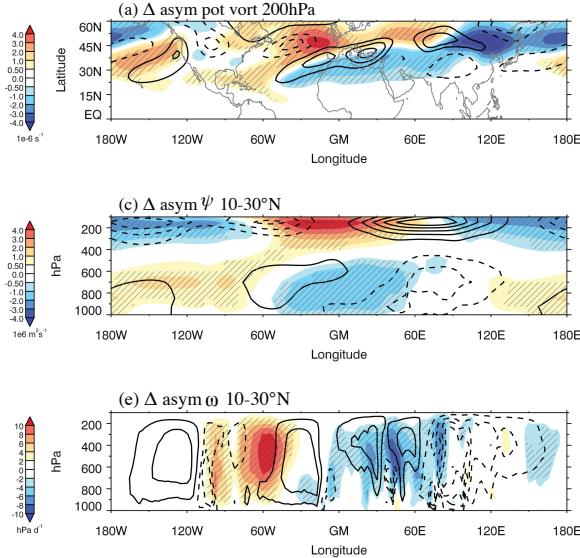
477

478

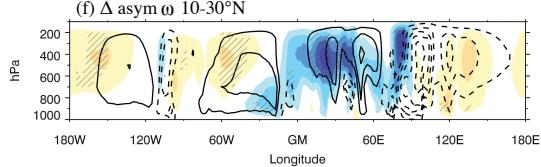
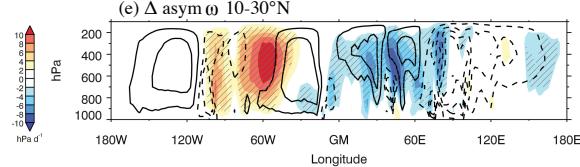
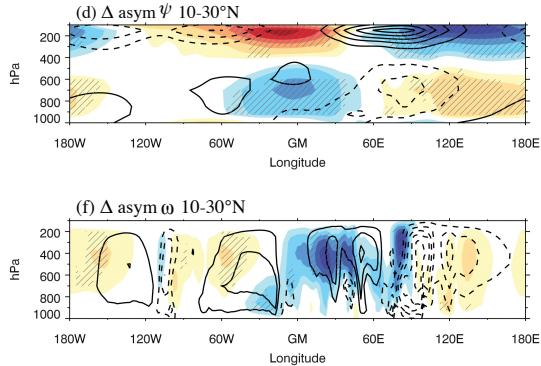
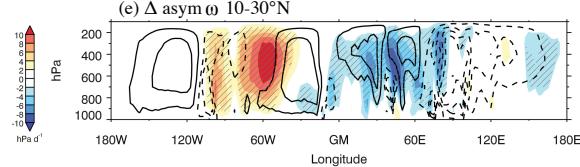
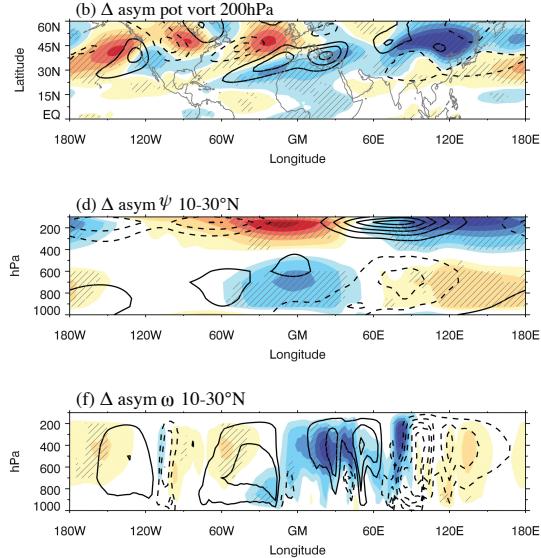
479

480
481
482
483
484

amip4xCO₂

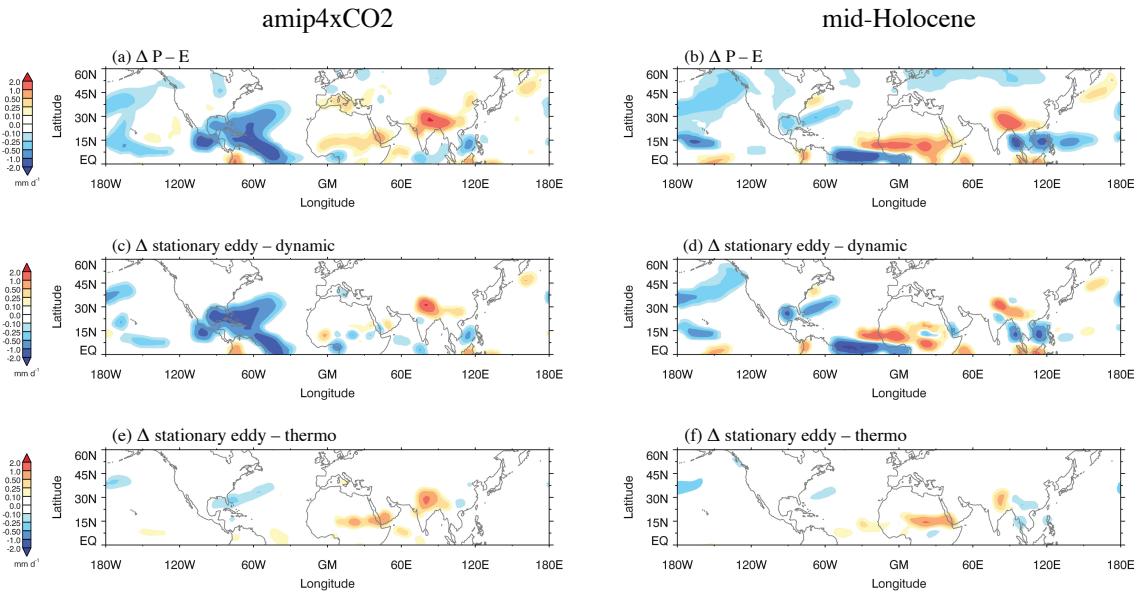


mid-Holocene

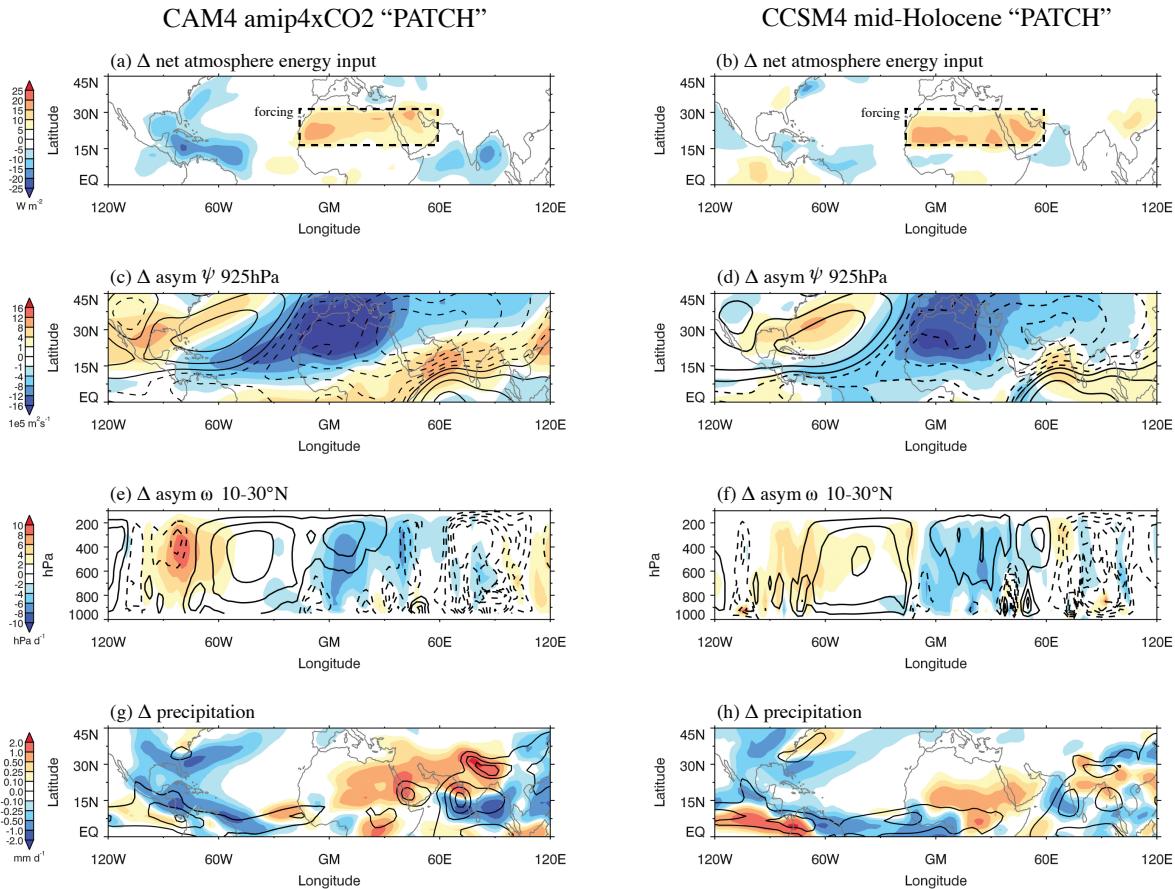


485
486
487
488
489
490
491
492
493
494
495
496
497
498
499
500
501
502
503

Figure 2: JJA multi-model ensemble mean difference (colors) of asymmetric upper level potential vorticity (top), stream function (middle), and pressure velocity (bottom) for AMIP4xCO₂ minus AMIP (left) and mid-Holocene minus piControl (right). Contouring and cross-hatching convention as in Fig.1.



504
 505 **Figure 3:** JJA multi-model ensemble mean moisture budget for AMIP4xCO₂ minus AMIP (left)
 506 and mid-Holocene minus piControl (right). The ‘dynamic’ term (c,d) involves change in the
 507 stationary eddy wind against the background moisture field, i.e. $-\langle \nabla \cdot (\delta \bar{\mathbf{v}}^* \cdot \bar{q}) \rangle$. The
 508 ‘thermodynamic’ term (e,f) involves changes in moisture field against the background stationary
 509 eddy wind, i.e. $-\langle \nabla \cdot (\delta \bar{\mathbf{v}}^* \cdot \bar{q}) \rangle$. See Methods for details. Only grid points where models show
 510 robust agreement (>80%) on the sign change of $P - E$ are plotted.
 511
 512
 513
 514
 515



516
517 **Figure 4:** JJA mean difference of indicated fields (colors) for CAM4_AMIP4xCO₂_PATCH
518 minus CAM4_AMIP (left) and CCSM4_mid-Holocene_patch minus CCSM4_piControl (right),
519 overlaid with contours of background control climatology in (c-h) using same convention as
520 Figs. 1-2. PATCH experiments are forced by the respective CO₂ and insolation increases only
521 over the region indicated by the dashed black rectangle in (a,b).
522
523
524
525
526
527
528
529
530
531
532
533
534
535
536
537