1	Inter-model variations in projected precipitation
2	change over the North Atlantic: Sea surface
3	temperature effect
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#### ABSTRACT

16 Inter-model variations in future precipitation projection in the North Atlantic are 17 studied using 23 state-of-art models from Phase 5 of the Coupled Model Intercomparison 18 Project. Model uncertainty in annual-mean rainfall change is locally enhanced along the 19 Gulf Stream. The moisture budget analysis reveals that much of the model uncertainty in 20 rainfall change can be traced back to the discrepancies in surface evaporation change and 21 transient eddy effect among models. Results of the inter-model Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) analysis show that inter-model variations in local sea surface 22 23 temperature (SST) pattern exert a strong control over the spread of rainfall projection 24 among models through the modulation of evaporation change. The first three SVD modes 25 explain more than 60% of the inter-model variance of rainfall projection and show 26 distinct SST patterns with mode-water-induced banded structures, reduced subpolar 27 warming due to ocean dynamical cooling and the Gulf Stream shift, respectively.

## 28 **1. Introduction**

29 Precipitation change under global warming is of great importance for society. Achieving reliable projection of regional rainfall change remains a great challenge for 30 31 climate science since the sign and amplitude of precipitation change vary spatially [Ma 32 and Xie, 2013]. Uncertainty in future rainfall projection mainly derives from three sources: radiative forcing, model uncertainty and internal variability. Among these three 33 34 sources, model uncertainty is dominant specifically for longer-term projections [Hawkins 35 and Sutton, 2011]. Model uncertainty in rainfall projection remains large in Phase 5 of 36 the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP5) [Taylor et al., 2012], similar to that 37 in CMIP3 [Knutti and Sedlacek, 2013]. It is therefore essential to understand the physical 38 mechanism for the model uncertainty.

In the tropics, precipitation changes mainly follow the sea surface temperature (SST) warming pattern [Xie et al., 2010], as a result of the offset between the wet-get-wetter pattern and tropical circulation slowdown [Seager et al., 2010; Chadwick et al., 2013]. The SST warming pattern effect is apparent in El Niño-induced atmospheric anomalies both in the tropics and extratropics [Zhou et al., 2014]. Furthermore, the inter-model spread of SST warming pattern is important for both the inter-model divergence of tropical precipitation change and circulation change [Ma and Xie, 2013].

Different from the tropical ocean where the mean-circulation-induced convergence accounts for most of the precipitation distribution, rainfall in the midlatitudes is more complicated, involving weather phenomena, strong influence of the SST front and largescale moisture advection. Transient eddies are important for precipitation, especially along storm tracks [Hoskins and Valdes, 1990] in the boreal winter. A reduction in the

Meridional Overturning Circulation is associated with a substantial SST cooling over the 51 52 North Atlantic [Rahmstorf et al., 2015]. This SST pattern increases the meridional SST 53 gradient and baroclinic instability and hence strengthens the local storm track (Woollings 54 et al. 2012). The Gulf Stream transports a large amount of heat to the midlatitudes, 55 forming a long and narrow SST front that anchors a band of heavy rainfall and strong 56 evaporation [Yu, 2007]. The SST front effect is also apparent on synoptic eddies over the 57 North Atlantic [Kwon and Joyce, 2013]. The warm water transported by the Gulf Stream 58 from the tropics supplies much of the water vapor for precipitation via evaporation, 59 resulting in a close relationship between precipitation and evaporation in space. Large-60 scale moisture advection peaks in the winter, dries the subtropical North Atlantic and 61 moistens the midlatitudes across the horizontal humidity gradient [Seager et al., 2010]. 62 Furthermore, ocean heat transport associated with mode water dynamics [Xie et al., 2010; 63 Xie et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2012] is important for the formation of the midlatitudes SST 64 warming pattern over the North Pacific, forming banded structures in the subtropics [Xie 65 et al., 2010; Long et al., 2014]. Exratropical precipitation change is very similar between 66 Atmospheric General Circulation Model (AGCM) simulations forced with spatially 67 uniform and patterned SST warming [He et al., 2014]. The multi-model ensemble-mean 68 SST warming pattern they used under-estimates the spatial variations, especially over the 69 extratropical North Atlantic where the inter-model differences in SST climatology and 70 warming pattern are large (Fig. 1c). We show that the inter-model spread in SST pattern 71 explains much of the inter-model variations in precipitation change.

The present study examines the sources and mechanism of inter-model spread in precipitation projection in the North Atlantic, based on 23 CMIP5 model projections 74 (Table S1 in the supporting information). We show that model uncertainty in annual-75 mean rainfall change is locally enhanced along the Gulf Stream. Our moisture budget 76 analysis reveals that the uncertainty mainly originates from the inter-model discrepancies 77 in evaporation change and transient eddy effect. This is different from the tropical ocean 78 case where the changes in mean convergence dominate the spread of rainfall change 79 among models. The effect of local SST warming pattern on model uncertainty in rainfall 80 projection is examined with the inter-model Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) 81 analyses.

82 The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the data and 83 methods. Section 3 discusses the sources of model uncertainty in annual-mean 84 precipitation projection. Section 4 investigates the role of local SST change in the 85 discrepancy of annual-mean rainfall change among models and extends the analysis to 86 the boreal winter and boreal summer. Section 5 is a summary.

87

## 2. Data and Methods

88 The monthly outputs of preindustrial control (piControl) runs, historical simulations 89 (1850-2005) and Representative Concentration Pathway 4.5 (RCP4.5, 2006-2100) runs in 23 CMIP5 models are analyzed. Future climate change (denote as  $\delta/\Delta$ ) is calculated by 90 91 subtracting the 50-year mean of 1950-1999 (present climatology) in historical simulation 92 from the 2050-2099 mean (RCP4.5 climatology) in the RCP4.5 run and then normalized 93 by the domain mean (80°W-0°, 20°N-60°N) SST warming in each model to highlight the 94 uncertainty in spatial pattern. Internal variability causes uncertainty in projections of 95 regional climate in the midlatitudes [Deser et al., 2012] and contributes to the total model 96 uncertainty. To evaluate the contribution from internal variability, we first calculate 100-

97 year rainfall trends for every 50 years based on the 50-year running mean time series of 98 piControl run in each model. Then one trend is randomly selected per model and used to 99 calculate the inter-model standard deviation at each grid point. To obtain robust results, 100 we repeat the random selection and standard deviation calculation 100 times and average 101 all the resultant inter-model standard deviations as the model uncertainty induced by 102 internal variability. All model outputs are interpolated onto a common grid of 2.5° 103 latitude  $\times 2.5^{\circ}$  longitude. Only one member run (r1i1p1) per model is analyzed to ensure 104 equal weight for each model. Note that the near-surface specific humidity in 2 models 105 and wind speed in 4 models are not available (see Table S1).

106 The moisture budget derived from the water vapor conservation equation for 107 monthly time average is [Trenberth and Guillemot, 1995; Seager et al., 2010]:

108 
$$\rho_w g(P-E) = -\int_0^{p_s} (\boldsymbol{u} \cdot \nabla q) dp - \int_0^{p_s} (q \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{u}) dp + residual.$$
(1)

Here P is precipitation, E is evaporation,  $\rho_w$  is the density of water, q is specific humidity,  $\boldsymbol{u}$  is the horizontal vector wind, p is pressure and the subscript s denotes the surface value. The first term on the right-hand is moisture advection by the monthly mean circulation and the second term is the wind convergence term and the residual is largely due to transient eddy effect.

114 For climate change, we neglect the small nonlinear terms. Equation (1) can be 115 approximated as:

116 
$$\delta P = \delta E - \frac{1}{\rho_w g} \int_0^{\rho_s} (\boldsymbol{u} \cdot \nabla \delta q) dp - \frac{1}{\rho_w g} \int_0^{\rho_s} (\delta \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \nabla q) dp - \frac{1}{\rho_w g} \int_0^{\rho_s} (\delta q \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{u}) dp - \frac{1}{\rho_w g} \int_0^{\rho_s} (q \nabla \cdot \delta \boldsymbol{u}) dp + residual.$$
(2)

117 Terms involving  $\delta q$  are referred to as themodynamical contribution, and terms involving 118  $\delta u$  as dynamical contribution [Seager et al., 2010]. Thus the thermodynamical and dynamical components each have two subcomponents due to moisture advection and

120 wind convergence. The moisture budget analysis is an effective way to diagnose causes 121 of precipitation change, and will be applied to the analysis of inter-model variations in 122 this study.

123 Change in evaporation involves either change in sea-air humidity gradient (denote as 124 dq), or wind speed, or both [Yu, 2007]. Sea-air humidity gradient is defined as the 125 difference between the saturation specific humidity at the sea surface temperature  $(q_s)$ 126 and the near-surface (at the 2m height in the models) atmospheric specific humidity  $(q_a)$ : 127  $dq = q_s - q_a$ .

## 128 **3. Sources of model uncertainty in precipitation change**

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129 Figure 1 displays model uncertainty, estimated as the inter-model standard 130 deviation, of precipitation change, contribution from internal variability, SST change and 131 the six components of rainfall change in Eq. (2) in the North Atlantic. The tropics are 132 included for comparison. There are two distinct regions with maximum uncertainty in 133 rainfall projection: an extratropical band extending from the subtropics to high latitudes, 134 and the tropical Atlantic (Figure 1a). Model uncertainty is generally larger than the 135 ensemble-mean change, especially over regions where the agreement on the sign of rainfall change among model is low (Fig. S1). In deed, the domain mean (80°W-0°, 136 137 20°N-60°N, ocean only) of the signal-to-noise ratio, defined as the absolute value of the ensemble-mean divided by the inter-model standard deviation  $(\frac{|\Delta P|}{\sigma(\Delta P')})$ , of annual-mean 138 139 rainfall change is only 0.63. Here  $\Delta$  denotes climate change, the prime the deviation from

140 the ensemble-mean change, and  $\sigma$  the standard deviation. For the model uncertainty in

projected rainfall change over 100 years in RCP4.5 run, the contribution from internalvariability is small (Figure 1b).

143 In the extratropical North Atlantic, the discrepancy in evaporation change among 144 models associated with large inter-model difference in SST warming is important 145 (Figures 1c, d). The SST warming pattern can efficiently affect the sea-air humidity 146 gradient and wind speed change, especially along the Gulf Stream where evaporation is 147 large (Yu, 2007). The second major source of uncertainty is the inter-model spread in 148 transient eddy effect (Figure 1i), which is important for midlatitudes rainfall and related 149 to SST gradient [Woollings et al., 2012]. The inter-model variations in the 150 thermodynamical and dynamical contributions in Eq. (2) are relatively small and mainly 151 origin from the differences in simulating the large horizontal humidity gradient and the 152 Gulf Stream-induced wind convergence (Figures 1e-h). In the tropical Atlantic, by 153 contrast, model uncertainty in rainfall projection is dominated by the dynamical 154 contribution due to wind convergence (Figure 1g). Thus mechanisms for inter-model 155 spread in precipitation projection are totally different between the tropical and 156 extratropical North Atlantic. Here we focus on the extratropical North Atlantic and will discuss the model uncertainty in the tropics elsewhere. 157

## 158 **4. Effect of local SST effect on precipitation change**

We examine the dominant pattern of inter-model co-variability by the SVD method. Figure 2 shows the first three inter-model SVD modes between  $\Delta P'$  and  $\Delta SST'$ and the regressions of  $\Delta E'$ , sea-air humidity gradient change and scalar surface wind speed change onto the PCs of  $\Delta SST'$ . 163 The first SVD mode (SVD1) of  $\Delta P'$  displays banded structures that tilt in the 164 northeast-southwest direction, associated with a banded SST pattern that resembles the 165 SST warming pattern due to mode water change [Xie et al., 2010]. The spatial correlation 166 between  $\Delta P'$  and  $\Delta SST'$  patterns is 0.79 for the SVD1, indicating physical significance of 167 the covariance. Indeed, the regressed evaporation pattern closely resembles the  $\Delta P'$ 168 pattern with a spatial correlation of 0.89, suggestive of a robust relationship between the 169 SST-induced evaporation change and the rainfall projection.

170 To verify the role of mode water in the formation of the banded SST pattern in the 171 SVD1 mode, we select a specific model (ACCESS1-0), in which the banded structures of  $\Delta P'$ ,  $\Delta SST'$  and  $\Delta E'$  are pronounced (Figure 3). The spatial correlations of  $\Delta P$  with  $\Delta SST$ 172 173 and  $\Delta E$  are high in this model (Figures 3a,b) at 0.63 and 0.74, respectively. Changes in 174 sea-air humidity gradient and surface wind speed display similar patterns to the 175 evaporation change, confirming their effect on evaporation. Furthermore, the upper ocean 176 current displays banded structures, with warm (cold) advection from lower (higher) 177 latitudes causing enhanced (reduced) SST warming (Figure 3a).

178 This upper ocean current change is tightly coupled with the mode water change 179 [Xie et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2012]. The mode water is a thick layer of water with vertically 180 uniform properties, whose change affects the upper ocean pycnocline and circulation 181 [Kobashi and Kubokawa, 2012]. In the North Atlantic, the subtropical mode water 182 mainly forms in the deep winter mixed layer south of the Gulf Stream [McCartney and 183 Talley, 1982; Hanawa and Talley, 2001]. Figures 3c,d show the vertical sections along 184 42°W of seawater temperature and zonal current. The mode water of vertical uniform 185 temperature appears in 25°-40°N at depths of 200-400m in the present climatology

186 (Figure 3c, black contours). It forces the upper thermocline (e.g. the 20°C isotherm) to 187 shoal and generates eastward (westward) zonal current band at its north (south) side 188 (Figure 3d) via thermal wind relation. Note that the strong zonal velocity in 40°N-45°N is 189 part of the large-scale gyre unrelated to the mode-water. In the RCP4.5 climatology 190 (Figure 3c, white contours), the mode water shifts northward, as indicated by the bulge of 191 the 18°C isotherm. The northward shift of mode water causes the upper thermocline to 192 deepen (shoal) to the south (north). This results in a cooling around 35°N in the upper 193 ocean, which is quite unusual against the background of thermodynamic warming. The 194 subsurface causes an anomalous eastward (westward) current to the south (north) 195 (Figures 3a,d). Note that the zonal velocity change is negligible below 600m, suggesting 196 that the changes in large-scale gyre circulation are secondary.

197 The SVD2 mode shows negative rainfall change corresponding to the 198 substantially reduced SST warming over the subpolar region and short banded structures 199 south of 45°N (Figure 2b). This negative subpolar SST indicates the importance of the 200 ocean dynamical cooling effect associated with the deep-water formation [Manabe et al., 201 1990; Long et al., 2014]. The SVD3 mode represents a Gulf Stream shift pattern in the 202 inter-model variations of SST (Figure 2c), as revealed by the two neighboring elongated 203 bands extending from the west to the east with opposite signs.

The spatial correlations of  $\Delta P'$  pattern with  $\Delta SST'$  pattern and the regressed  $\Delta E'$ pattern are prominent in all the first three SVD modes (see Table S2). This happens because variables important to the evaporation, like sea-air humidity difference [Cayan, 1992; Zhang and Mcphaden, 1995; Yu, 2007] and surface wind speed [Chelton and Xie, 2010], are all influenced by the SST. The effect of the SST pattern on changes in sea-air humidity gradient and surface wind speed are clear in the North Atlantic (Figures 2d-f), positively correlated with the SST pattern. This positive correlation between SST and surface wind speed patterns indicates the ocean warming drives the wind response [Chelton and Xie, 2010]. Besides, the effects of sea-air humidity gradient and surface wind speed reinforce each other on evaporation. Consequently, inter-model variations in SST warming pattern exert a strong control on the inter-model divergence of precipitation change over the extratropical North Atlantic.

The first three modes account for 61% and 71% of the inter-model variance of  $\Delta P'$  and  $\Delta SST'$ , respectively. We also examined the next 7 SVD modes of  $\Delta P'$  and  $\Delta SST'$ and found that positive relationship between them is robust in almost all modes (Table S2). This further confirms the role of the inter-model spread of local SST in explaining the model uncertainty in precipitation change.

221 Precipitation in the North Atlantic has a robust seasonal cycle with the peak in the 222 boreal winter (DJF, December-January-February), associated with similar seasonal variability in evaporation [Yu, 2007]. The inter-model standard deviations of  $\Delta P'$ ,  $\Delta E'$ 223 and  $\triangle$ SST' are much larger in DJF than JJA (June-July-August) (Figure 4). This indicates 224 225 that much of the inter-model discrepancy of precipitation change develops in the boreal winter. The spatial distributions of inter-model standard deviations in these three 226 227 variables are very similar in DJF but substantially different in JJA. In JJA, for example, the inter-model standard deviation of  $\Delta P'$  is largest off the U.S. east coast but the 228 maximum of the inter-model standard deviations of  $\Delta E'$  and  $\Delta SST'$  are found far apart to 229 230 the northeast in the subpolar region (Figures 4d-f). Furthermore, spatial correlation between patterns of  $\Delta P'$  and  $\Delta SST'$  in the inter-model SVD analysis is high in DJF but 231

low in JJA (Table S2), illustrating that the local SST effect on rainfall change reaches the maximum in the boreal winter. All the above analyses highlight the importance of improving simulations of SST warming pattern, especially in the boreal winter, for reliable precipitation projection.

## **5. Summary**

237 We have investigated the model uncertainty in precipitation projection under global 238 warming and the local SST effect in the North Atlantic in CMIP5 models. For both 239 annual- and seasonal-mean precipitation changes, inter-model spread is generally larger 240 than the ensemble-mean change (Fig. S1), lowering the confidence in both the sign and 241 magnitude of the future projections. Model uncertainty in rainfall projection is large 242 along the Gulf Stream. Similar enhanced inter-model variability in precipitation change is 243 also found in other west boundary current regions, such as the Kuroshio and its extension 244 and the Agulhas Current (not shown), where local evaporation supplies much of the water 245 vapor for precipitation and latent heating for transient eddy activity. This occurs because 246 local SST effects of sea-air humidity gradient and surface wind speed reinforce each 247 other on evaporation changes in west boundary current regions [Yu, 2007; Chelton and 248 Xie, 2010]. As a result, inter-model variations in local SST change account for much of 249 the inter-model difference of precipitation change. The inter-model SVD analysis 250 between changes in precipitation and SST confirms this result. The local SST change 251 effect on the inter-model diversity of precipitation change spreads in a large number of 252 inter-model SVD modes, indicating the difficulty for extracting the local SST influence 253 with a few leading modes.

We performed moisture budget analysis for model uncertainty in rainfall projection. The inter-model discrepancies in evaporation change and transient eddy effect are two dominant sources in the extratropical North Atlantic. Further analyses show that model uncertainty in precipitation and evaporation changes reach the maximum in DJF when the effect of the inter-model variations in SST change is the strongest. The effect of the mean atmospheric circulation change is dominant for the model uncertainty in rainfall change in the tropical ocean, but is secondary in the extratropical North Atlantic.

Our results imply that reducing the inter-model spread in SST change, especially in the boreal winter, can greatly improve the consistency of precipitation projection among models. Ocean dynamics is essential in the formation of the SST warming pattern in the midlatitudes, including mode-water-induced banded structures and the reduced subpolar warming over the deep-water formation region. Work is needed to improve the understanding of key physical processes towards greater inter-model consistency in SST warming pattern.

## 268 Acknowledgements

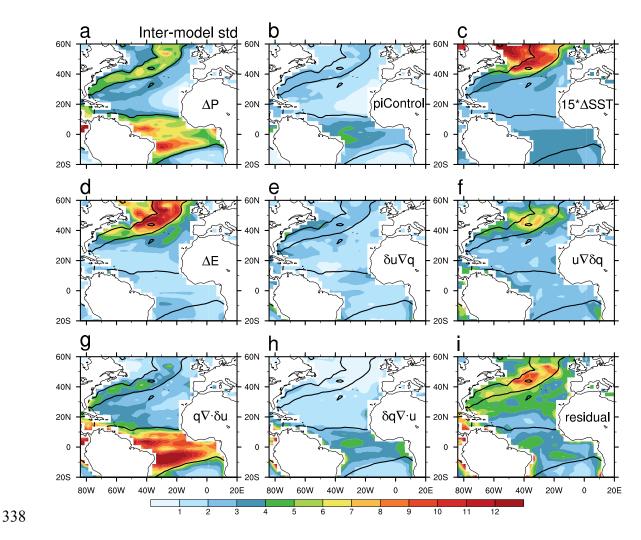
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339 **Fig. 1.** Inter-model standard deviation of (a) precipitation change ( $\Delta P$ , mm/month), (b) contribution from internal variability, (c) SST change ( $\Delta$ SST, °C), (d) evaporation change 340 341  $(\Delta E)$ , (e) dynamical contribution (with change in mean circulation) due to moisture 342 advection, (f) thermodynamical contribution (with change in specific humidity) due to 343 moisture advection, (g) dynamical contribution due to wind convergence, (h) 344 thermodynamical contribution due to wind convergence, and (i) residual. Black contours 345 indicate value at 4 mm/month in panel (a). All results are normalized by the domain mean (80°W-0°, 20°N-60°N) SST warming. Note that  $\Delta$ SST is multiplied by a factor of 15 for 346 347 display.

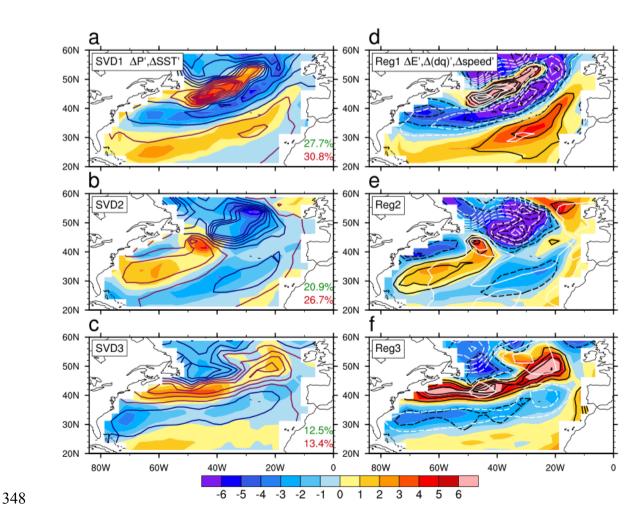
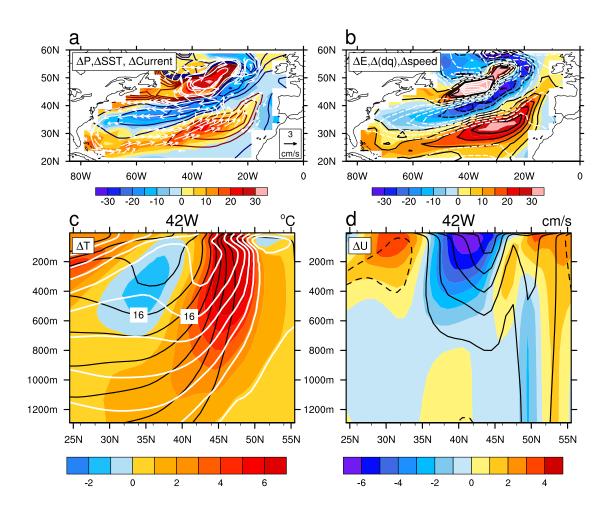
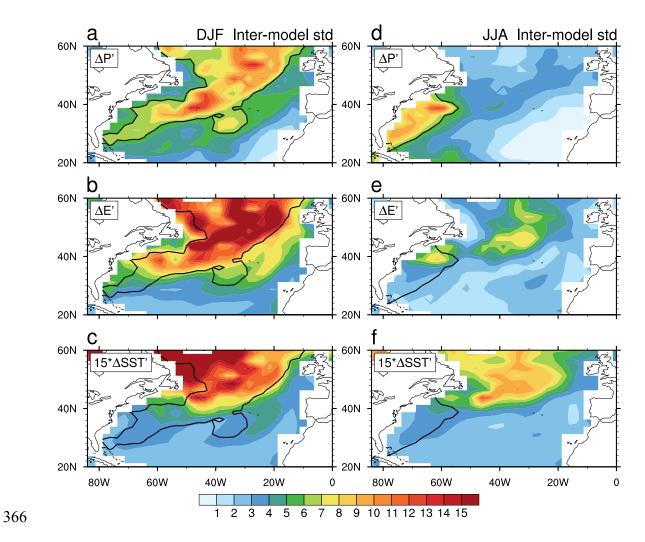


Fig. 2. (Left panels) First three modes of inter-model SVD between  $\Delta P'$  (color shaded) and  $\Delta SST'$  (contours,  $CI = 0.05^{\circ}C$ ) in RCP4.5 run. The explained variances for  $\Delta P'$ (green letters) and  $\Delta SST'$  (red) are marked at the bottom right of each panel. (Right panels) Corresponding regressions of  $\Delta E'$  (color shaded), sea-air humidity gradient change [ $\Delta$ (dq)', black contours, CI = 0.03g/kg] and surface wind speed change ( $\Delta$ speed', white contours, CI = 0.02m/s). Zero contours omitted for clarity. The prime indicates deviation from the ensemble-mean change.



357 Fig. 3. (a)  $\Delta P$  (color shaded, mm/month),  $\Delta SST$  (contours, °C) and upper 50m ocean current change (vectors, cm/s); (b)  $\Delta E$  (color shaded, mm/month), sea-air humidity 358 359 gradient change [black contours, CI = 0.2g/kg] and surface wind speed change (white 360 contours, CI = 0.1 m/s)) in ACCESS1-0 RCP4.5 run. Vectors smaller than 1.5 cm/s are 361 omitted for clarity. Vertical transection along 42°W of present (black contours) and 362 future (white contours) climatologies, and future-present difference (color shaded): (c) 363 seawater temperature (°C) and (d) zonal velocity (cm/s).  $CI = 2^{\circ}C$  for temperature and 364 2cm/s for zonal velocity.

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**Fig. 4.** Inter-model standard deviations of future projections in DJF and JJA, colors shaded are  $\Delta P'$  (mm/month) in (a and d),  $\Delta E'$  (mm/month) in (b and e) and  $\Delta SST'$  (°C) in (c and f). Black contours indicate value at 6 mm/month in panel (a).