

1 **FRONT MATTER**2
3 **Title**

4 Tropical impacts of the Southern Ocean underestimated by mean-state biases.

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6 **Authors**7 Yue Dong,^{1*} Kezhou Lu,¹ Yen-Ting Hwang,² Ruei-Jia Hu,² Paulo Ceppi,³ Philipp
8 Breul,^{3,4} Lettie A. Roach⁵, Clara Deser⁶

9 * To whom correspondence should be addressed. Email: ydong@atmos.ucla.edu

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11 **Affiliations**12 ¹Department of Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences, University of California Los Angeles,
13 USA.14 ²Department of Atmospheric Sciences, National Taiwan University, Taiwan.15 ³Department of Physics, Imperial College London, UK.16 ⁴Department of Geophysics and Meteorology, University of Cologne, Germany17 ⁵Alfred Wegener Institute, Helmholtz Centre for Polar and Marine Research, Germany.18 ⁶Climate and Global Dynamics Division, National Center for Atmospheric Research,
19 USA.20
21 **Abstract**22 Observed sea-surface temperature (SST) trends over recent decades feature cooling in the
23 tropical eastern Pacific and the Southern Ocean (SO). Growing evidence suggests that
24 tropical cooling may partly stem from remote impacts of the SO. Using a hierarchy of
25 multi-model simulations, we demonstrate that these teleconnections are robustly
26 modulated by the mean-state inter-tropical convergence zone (ITCZ): models with a more
27 realistic ITCZ simulate a stronger tropical SST response to SO forcing via stronger wind-
28 evaporation-SST feedback. When realistic Antarctic meltwater forcing is included,
29 correcting a model's tropical mean-state bias yields a stronger tropical cooling response to
30 meltwater-driven SO cooling, improving the agreement between simulated and observed
31 SST trends. Our results suggest that the SO's contribution to tropical warming patterns is
32 systematically underestimated due to model mean-state biases. Improving representations
33 of the mean-state climate is therefore critical for accurately assessing large-scale climate
34 responses associated with historical and future warming patterns.
35
3637 **Teaser**38 The Southern Ocean's role in observed tropical cooling trends is systematically
39 underestimated due to model mean-state biases.
4041 **MAIN TEXT**42
43 **Introduction**44
45 Observations over recent decades have exhibited a distinctive sea-surface temperature
46 (SST) trend pattern, characterized by broad cooling in the tropical eastern Pacific and the

47 Southern Ocean (SO) (1, 2). This observed SST trend pattern has been linked to a wide
48 range of changes in climate and extreme events across regional to global scales (3–6).
49 However, reproducing this pattern remains a challenge for Global Climate Models
50 (GCMs) participating in the Climate Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5) and
51 Phase 6 (CMIP6) (1, 2, 7), calling into question the credibility of GCM-based future
52 climate projections in these regions.

53 A diverse pool of mechanisms has been put forward to explain the observed tropical SST
54 trend pattern and model-observational discrepancies (2, 8); however, consensus has yet to
55 be reached on their relative importance. Tropical eastern Pacific cooling may arise from
56 the transient oceanic response to greenhouse gas (GHG) forcing via the ocean thermostat
57 mechanism (9, 10), which indicates a possible persistence of the recent La Niña-like
58 warming pattern into the near future under continued GHG forcing. On the other hand,
59 contributions of anthropogenic aerosol emissions (11) and natural variability in the Pacific
60 (12, 13) may point to a possible shift toward an opposite El Niño-like warming pattern in
61 the future. Unraveling the causes of the recent historical SST pattern is therefore critical
62 for accurately predicting its future evolution.

63 Among the proposed mechanisms, remote impacts from the SO have received increasing
64 attention. Like the tropical eastern Pacific, the SO has experienced substantial SST
65 cooling over recent decades, particularly in the eastern Pacific sector (1, 14). Various
66 modeling evidence has revealed that SO cooling can drive a tropical La Niña-like SST
67 response through atmospheric and oceanic teleconnections (14–18), suggesting a potential
68 extratropical origin of the observed tropical cooling trends. The teleconnections can be
69 initiated by surface temperature anomalies advected by the climatological mean winds
70 (14) and are subsequently enhanced by positive feedbacks associated with the wind-
71 evaporation-SST (WES) feedback (19), subtropical low-cloud feedback (17), and
72 adjustments in ocean subtropical-tropical cells (20). Building on the proposed theories,
73 recent studies demonstrated that a La Niña-like tropical SST pattern can arise from
74 Antarctic ice-sheet meltwater input (21) and Antarctic ozone depletion (22, 23), both of
75 which are leading hypotheses for the observed SO cooling (24–27). Furthermore, directly
76 nudging the observed SO SST anomalies in a fully-coupled GCM improved the agreement
77 between simulated and observed tropical SST patterns (18), highlighting the SO's role as a
78 pacemaker of tropical and global climate change (28).

79 However, several gaps remain in our understanding of the SO's contribution to the recent
80 and near-future tropical warming patterns. First, although a La Niña-like tropical SST
81 response to SO cooling is consistently simulated, models often use idealized SO forcings
82 that are unrealistically strong (29), or simulate a tropical SST response that is weaker than
83 observed (21). Second, existing modeling work exhibits varying degrees of tropical SST
84 response (17, 18, 30), reflecting a wide spread in the strength of SO teleconnections.
85 Furthermore, while the Southern Hemisphere (SH) subtropical eastern Pacific SST
86 response is relatively robust, large uncertainty exists in the *equatorial* SST response (21,
87 31), which governs remote impacts on the northern hemisphere (NH) hydroclimate (32,
88 33) and global warming rate (34). Ultimately, despite progress from numerical model
89 experiments, we are left with the question: to what extent has the SO contributed to the
90 recent tropical SST trends and global climate change observed in nature?

91 In this study, we aim to better constrain SO teleconnection strength by examining the key
92 physical processes that modulate SO teleconnections in individual GCMs and their inter-

93 model spread. We focus specifically on two factors: subtropical cloud feedback and the
94 tropical mean-state climate. While the importance of subtropical cloud feedback has been
95 widely recognized (17), the influence of the tropical mean-state in shaping the tropical
96 response to SO forcing remains poorly understood. Like cloud feedbacks, tropical mean-
97 state biases are prevalent in GCMs, most notably associated with the Intertropical
98 Convergence Zone (ITCZ) known as the “double-ITCZ” problem (Fig. S1) (35, 36).
99 Although such mean-state biases may directly affect the local SST response to CO₂
100 forcing (9, 37), here we focus on the tropical SST response to *remote* SO forcings.
101 Specifically, we ask: do tropical mean-state biases affect the simulated strength of SO-
102 tropical Pacific teleconnections? If so, what are the implications for understanding the
103 observed tropical warming pattern?

104 To address these questions, we leverage multiple lines of evidence, including a suite of
105 idealized simulations with the Community Earth System Model version 1 (CESM1, a
106 CMIP5-class GCM), two multi-model intercomparison projects that uniquely incorporate
107 SO thermal and freshwater forcings, and ensembles of transient historical simulations with
108 realistic SO corrections using the NASA Goddard Institute for Space Studies version E2.1
109 climate model (GISS-E2-1-G, a CMIP6-class GCM). By comparing model results with
110 observations, we provide new constraints on the remote tropical impact of SO SST
111 changes.

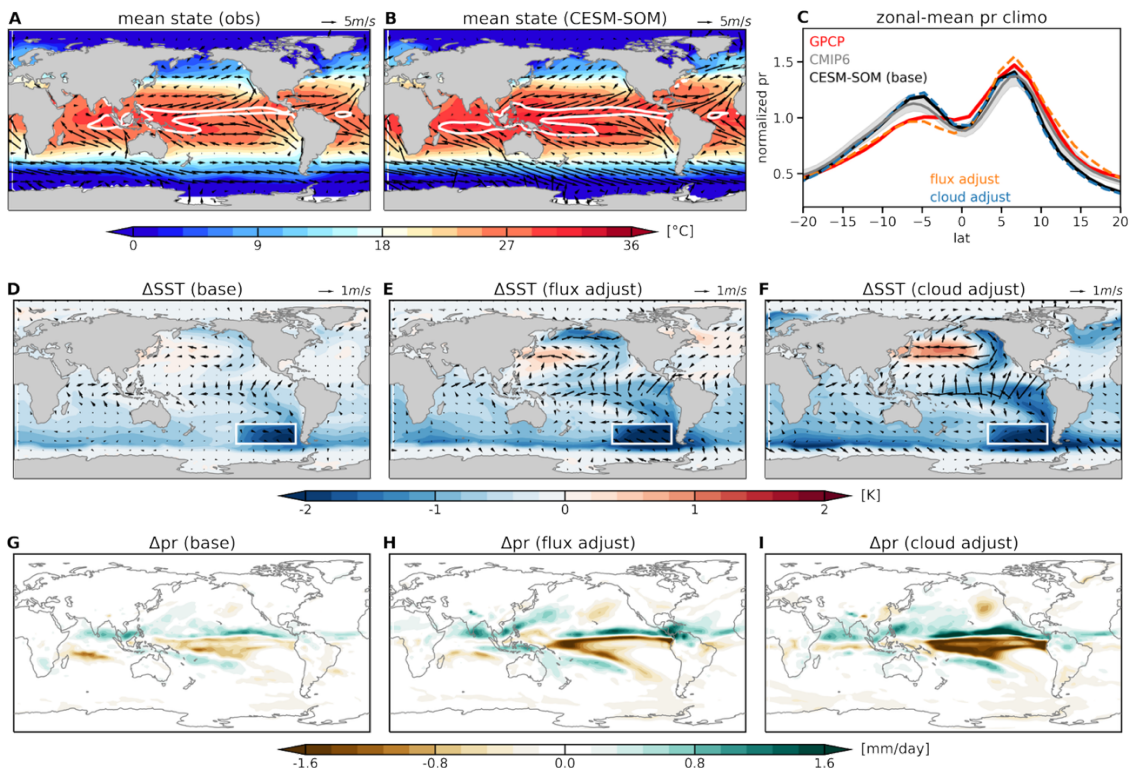
112 **Results**

113 **Sensitivity of the SO-tropical Pacific teleconnection strength**

114
115
116 We begin by presenting results from idealized simulations with the slab-ocean
117 configuration of CESM1 (Methods) that isolate the impacts of subtropical cloud feedbacks
118 and the tropical mean state. Three control simulations are conducted, featuring distinct
119 mean-state climates: (1) a “base” mean state, derived from a long control simulation of the
120 fully-coupled CESM1, which carries all intrinsic model biases; (2) a “flux-adjusted” mean
121 state, in which we modify climatological surface heat fluxes (“qflux”) to better align the
122 simulated SST and precipitation patterns with observations; (3) a “cloud-adjusted” mean
123 state, in which we modify the model’s radiation code to increase low-cloud-SST
124 sensitivity to better match satellite observations. The modification is restricted to the SH
125 subtropical eastern Pacific stratocumulus deck (contoured regions in Fig. S2F), where the
126 model exhibits substantial biases in low cloud-SST sensitivity relative to satellite
127 observations (38), and where local cloud feedback is central for regulating SO-tropics
128 teleconnections (17). For each mean state, we perform a corresponding SO cooling
129 experiment by imposing a constant qflux anomaly in the SO to induce local SST cooling.
130

131 First, we show the mean-state differences across the three control runs. Focusing on the
132 tropical zonal-mean precipitation (Fig. 1C), the “base” control run exhibits a typical
133 “double-ITCZ” bias, similar to other CMIP6 models. The “cloud-adjusted” control run
134 produces a nearly identical precipitation pattern, retaining the same double-ITCZ bias. On
135 the other hand, the “flux-adjusted” control run substantially improves the ITCZ
136 representation, producing a more asymmetric precipitation pattern that closely matches
137 observations (Fig. 1C and Fig. S3). This is because the “flux adjustment” effectively
138 changes the mean-state SST distribution (Fig. S2A) and therefore precipitation patterns
139 (Fig. S2B). By contrast, the “cloud adjustment” is designed to increase the sensitivity of
140 low cloud amount to instantaneous SST *anomalies* relative to the mean state. Although

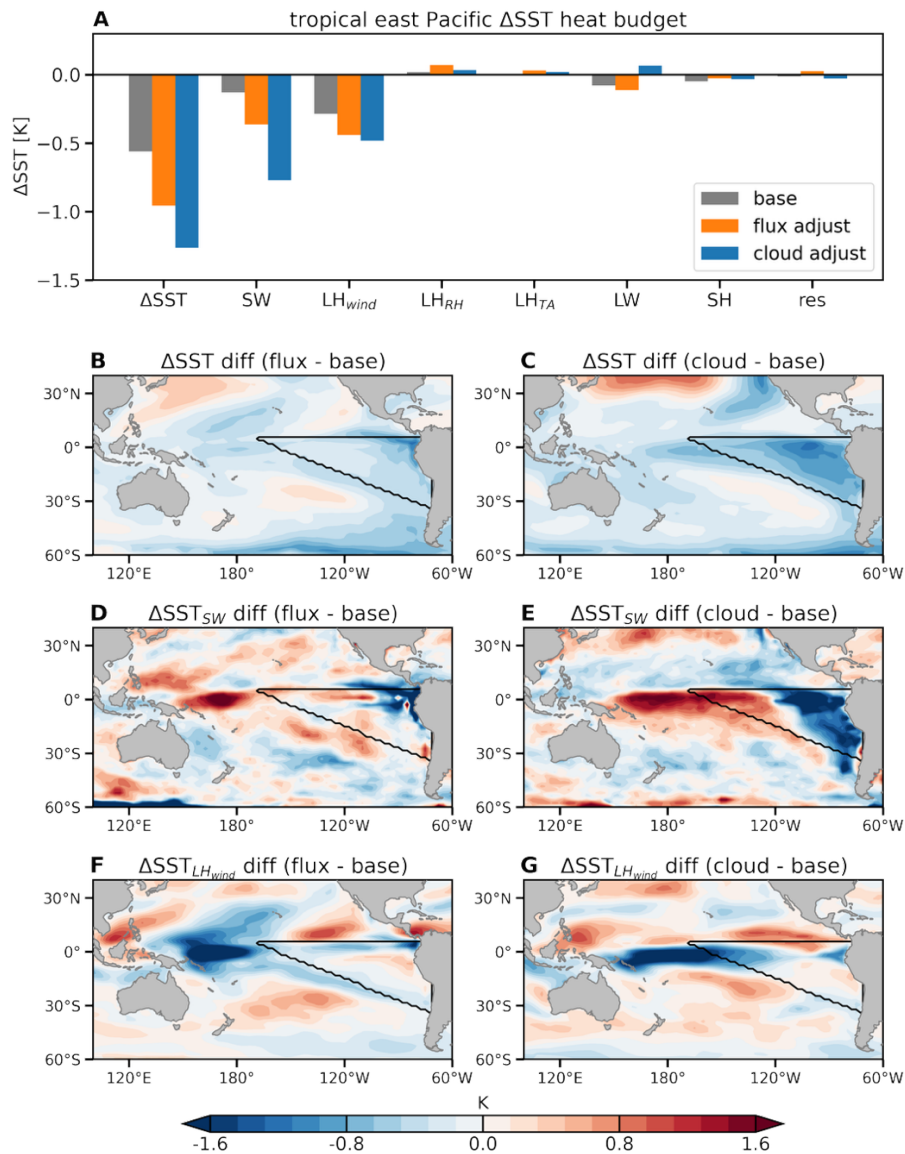
141 this modification results in an increased SST variance locally in the tropical eastern
 142 Pacific (38), it does not affect the SST mean state averaged over a long period (Fig. S2D;
 143 see also ref (38) for similar results using fully-coupled CESM1). Meanwhile, the
 144 shortwave (SW) cloud-SST feedback over the SH subtropical eastern Pacific region
 145 substantially strengthens in the “cloud-adjusted” control run (Fig. S2F), while remaining
 146 largely unchanged in the “flux-adjusted” control run (Fig. S2C). Overall, the “flux-
 147 adjustment” reduces the double-ITCZ bias, and the “cloud adjustment” strengthens
 148 subtropical cloud-SST feedback—both aligning better with observations.



150 **Figure 1: Mean-state climate and simulated response to Southern Ocean qflux perturbation in CESM1.** (A, B)
 151 Annual-mean climatology of SST (shading), surface winds (arrows), and precipitation (white contour denotes 6.5
 152 mm/day level) in (A) observations and (B) CESM1 “base” control run. (C) Zonal-mean annual-mean precipitation
 153 normalized by the tropical mean from GPCP observations (red), CMIP6 multi-model mean (grey), CESM1 “base”
 154 control run (black), “flux-adjusted” control run (orange) and “cloud adjusted” control run (blue). The grey shading
 155 denotes one standard deviation across CMIP6 models. (D–F) Simulated annual-mean SST (shading) and surface wind
 156 (arrows) response to the imposed qflux perturbation in the “base”, “flux-adjusted”, “cloud-adjusted” simulations,
 157 respectively. White box illustrates where the anomalous qflux forcing is imposed (Methods). (G–I) Simulated annual-
 158 mean precipitation response.

159 We next examine the quasi-equilibrium tropical response to the imposed SO qflux forcing
 160 (over the white box in Fig. 1D–F; Methods). With the “base” mean state, the imposed SO
 161 cooling produces a remote tropical response (Fig. 1D), including a La Niña-like cooling,
 162 strengthened SH trade winds, and a northward displacement of the ITCZ. This response
 163 pattern resembles the previously identified SO teleconnection response (14, 15, 29),
 164 driven by a series of coupled processes: SO SST anomalies can be first advected into the
 165 tropics by mean winds in the southeast Pacific, initiating an anomalous zonal SST
 166 gradient; this SST gradient is further amplified by subtropical cloud feedback and the
 167 WES feedback in the tropical eastern Pacific (14, 17). These tropical responses strengthen
 168 further in the flux- and cloud-adjusted mean states, both of which produce stronger
 169

170 tropical eastern Pacific SST cooling (Fig. 1E, F), enhanced tropical zonal SST gradients
 171 (Fig. S4A), and more pronounced precipitation anomalies (Fig. 1H, I, Fig. S4B). These
 172 results suggest that both subtropical cloud-SST feedback and the mean ITCZ structure are
 173 critical for the remote response to SO cooling, and that biases in either may lead to
 174 underestimation of the teleconnection. A key question therefore arises: although the two
 175 biases are corrected separately by design in our experiments, do they influence the tropical
 176 response through independent mechanisms?



177
 178 **Figure 2: Surface energy budget analysis for the simulated tropical SST response in CESM1 simulations.** (A)
 179 Contributions of individual energy flux terms to the SST response averaged over the tropical eastern Pacific (the black
 180 triangular mask illustrated in panels B–G). From left to right are actual simulated SST response (Δ SST), contributions
 181 from shortwave flux (SW), latent heat flux due to wind speed changes (LH_{wind}), latent heat flux due to relative humidity
 182 changes (LH_{RH}), latent heat flux due to stability (LH_{TA}), longwave flux (LW), sensible heat flux (SH), residual (res). (B–
 183 G) Difference in the actual SST response (B, C), the SW-induced SST response (D, E), and the LH_{wind} -induced SST
 184 response (F, G) between “flux-adjusted” and “base” runs (left), and between “cloud-adjusted” and “base” runs
 185 (right).

186 To understand the mechanisms, we perform a mixed-layer heat budget analysis of the
 187 tropical SST cooling response in all three simulations (Methods). Focusing on the broad
 188

189 tropical eastern Pacific region (the triangular mask in Fig. 2B–G), we find that the SW
190 radiative effect and the latent heat effect due to changes in wind speed (LH_{wind})
191 consistently dominate the SST response (Fig. 2A), confirming the leading roles of low
192 cloud feedback and the WES feedback (17, 18, 39). However, their relative roles and
193 spatial patterns differ across mean states. In the “cloud-adjusted” run, the tropical eastern
194 Pacific SST cooling is predominately driven by SW flux (Fig. 2A), which accounts for
195 most of the additional cooling relative to the “base” simulation (Fig. 2E). In contrast, the
196 “flux-adjustment” produces stronger tropical cooling through an enhanced LH_{wind} effect
197 over the broader trade wind region (Fig. 2F), with an additional contribution from the
198 cloud SW effect that is mostly confined to the region off the coast of South America (Fig.
199 2D). This enhanced WES feedback is associated with the improved ITCZ mean state (Fig.
200 S2A), characterized by stronger trade winds in the SH subtropical eastern Pacific and
201 cross-equatorial southerlies converging into the band of deep convection north of the
202 equator. These intensified mean-state winds enable stronger advection of SO SST
203 anomalies into the tropical central Pacific and equatorial eastern Pacific, and also enhance
204 the WES feedback, further amplifying the cooling.

205 Overall, the idealized CESM1 simulations suggest that, in addition to the subtropical
206 cloud feedback, ITCZ representation is also critical to the strength of SO-tropical Pacific
207 teleconnections. Importantly, the effect of an improved ITCZ is independent of improved
208 cloud feedback in our model, implying an additional and previously underappreciated role
209 for mean-state ITCZ modulation of SO teleconnections.

210 **Inter-model spread in tropical response to SO SST forcing**

211 Building on the mechanistic understanding of mean-state modulation derived from the
212 single-model simulations, we next investigate if differences in mean-state biases further
213 contribute to the inter-model spread in the simulated tropical SST response to SO cooling.
214 Here, we analyze the Extratropical-Tropical Model Inter-comparison Project (ETIN-MIP)
215 (29) experiments conducted within seven fully-coupled GCMs. In these simulations, solar
216 flux is reduced between 65°S and 45°S to force the SH extratropical surface temperature to
217 cool, which subsequently drives a La Niña-like response in the tropical Pacific (16, 17,
218 29). Although this tropical response is robust in the multi-model mean (Fig. 3D), its
219 pattern and magnitude vary widely across individual models (Fig. S5).

221 Is the inter-model spread in the tropical SST response across ETIN-MIP connected to
222 models’ ITCZ biases? A first look at the precipitation mean state in ETIN-MIP’s control
223 simulations reveals diverse ITCZ structures across the models (Fig. 3A), but nearly all
224 exhibit a consistent double-ITCZ bias. To quantify the bias, we define a precipitation
225 asymmetry metric (pr^*) as the difference between NH and SH zonal-mean precipitation
226 maxima, normalized by the tropical mean precipitation (Methods). Most models simulate
227 a pr^* smaller than observed (Fig. 3B), reflecting the double-ITCZ bias. We then further
228 regress the tropical eastern Pacific SST response (white box in Fig. 3D) to SH radiative
229 cooling onto each model’s mean-state pr^* across all seven models. A significant
230 correlation ($p = 0.01$) is obtained (Fig. 3B), with pr^* explaining $\sim 75\%$ of the inter-model
231 variance in the tropical eastern Pacific SST response. This indicates that models with a
232 larger pr^* (i.e., smaller double-ITCZ bias) tend to simulate a stronger tropical eastern
233 Pacific SST cooling response to SO forcing.

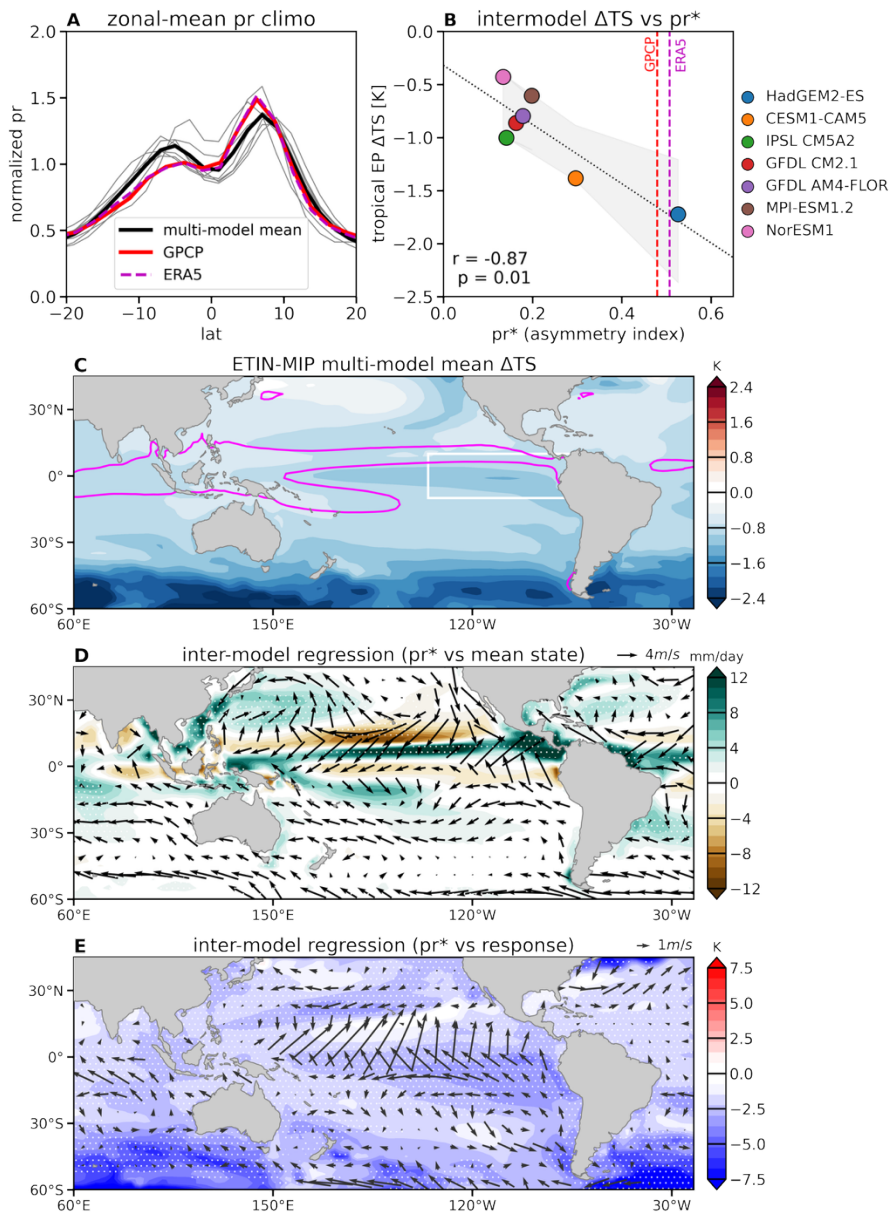


Figure 3: Mean-state climate and response to SO forcing in ETIN-MIP experiments. (A) Annual-mean zonal-mean precipitation normalized by the tropical mean from observations and ETIN-MIP models. Solid red line denotes GPCP observations, dashed magenta line denotes ERA5; thick black line denotes the average of seven ETIN-MIP models, and thin grey lines denote individual models. (B) Inter-model correlation between tropical eastern Pacific SST response (the white box illustrated in panel D, spanning 10°S–10°N and 220°E–290°E.) and mean-state pr^* . The black dotted line denotes the linear regression across models (scatters); the grey shading represents the 95% confidence interval of the regression fit. The correlation coefficient (r) and p -value (p) are shown in the bottom left corner. (C) ETIN-MIP multi-model mean SST and surface wind response to SH extratropical forcing. Magenta contour denotes the 6 mm/day level of the annual-mean climatological precipitation. (D) Inter-model regression between mean-state precipitation and surface winds onto pr^* . (E) Inter-model regression between local SST and surface wind response onto pr^* . Stippling denotes where the inter-model regression is statistically significant at the 95% confidence level.

The robust inter-model correlation between the pr^* index and the tropical eastern Pacific SST response (Fig. 3B) reflects a consistent modulation of the simulated SO teleconnection strength by the tropical mean state. Fig. 3D shows that models with a larger pr^* tend to simulate a mean-state climate with more precipitation to the north of the equator (and less to the south), as well as stronger surface southeasterly winds in the subtropical southeastern Pacific and more pronounced southerlies along the equator. Similar to the CESM1 “flux-adjusted” simulations, stronger mean winds can promote the

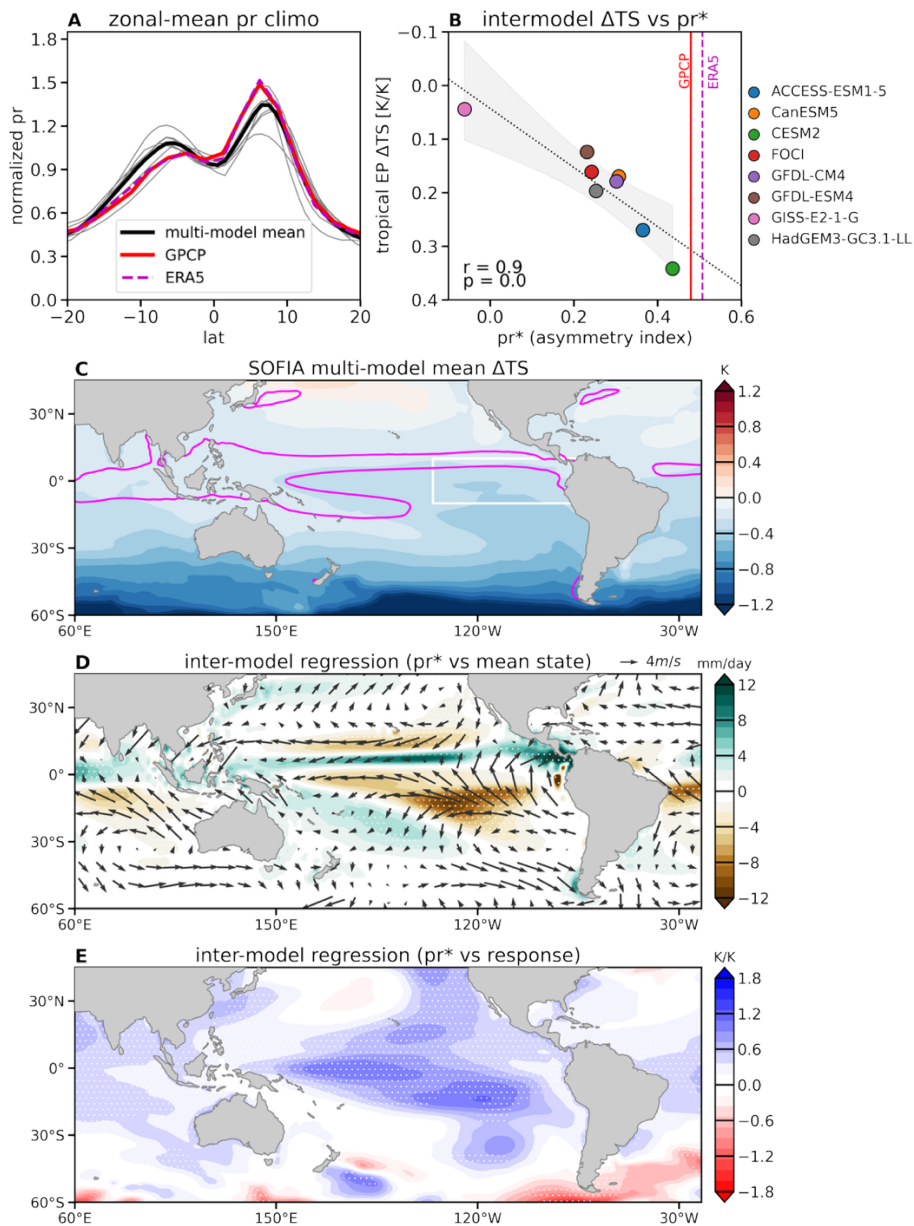
253 advection of SST anomalies from the SO to the tropical Pacific and enhance the WES
254 feedback, thereby amplifying the SST cooling response in the trade wind regions (Fig.
255 3E).

256 While previous studies have found that a substantial portion of the inter-model spread in
257 the tropical SST response to SO SST forcing is associated with differences in subtropical
258 low-cloud feedbacks (17, 18), here we demonstrate that differences in the mean-state
259 ITCZ are another major source of the inter-model spread. There is no significant
260 correlation between the mean-state pr^* index and the subtropical cloud feedback across
261 GCMs (Fig. S6), suggesting that the two effects are largely independent. As all models
262 share systematic double-ITCZ biases (Fig. 3B), accounting for these biases would imply a
263 stronger SO-tropics teleconnection than currently simulated. Based on the ETIN-MIP
264 models, we estimate that the tropical eastern Pacific SST response to SO forcing could be
265 70% stronger than the multi-model mean (with a 95% confidence interval of 20%–120%)
266 if the models reproduced the observed ITCZ structure (Fig. 3B).

267 **Constraining the tropical response to historical Antarctic meltwater**

268
269 Idealized CESM1 simulations and ETIN-MIP experiments both suggest that SO-tropical
270 Pacific teleconnections may be underestimated in current GCMs, reinforcing the
271 possibility that the observed tropical eastern Pacific cooling trends may arise partly from
272 the SO. While it remains unclear what causes the observed SO cooling trends and GCM
273 warm biases, one increasingly recognized mechanism is Antarctic ice-sheet meltwater
274 input—a process lacking in current GCMs. Accounting for Antarctic meltwater input in a
275 variety of GCMs produces SO surface cooling and freshening response resembling
276 observations (24, 25, 40–42). This is primarily because the meltwater-induced freshening
277 increases upper-ocean stratification, reducing the upward heat transport from the relatively
278 warm subsurface (40, 42). A recent study (21) further showed that the meltwater-induced
279 SO cooling can extend into the tropics, driving a tropical SST trend pattern closer to
280 observations. Here we ask: Do model mean-state biases influence our estimates of the
281 tropical response to Antarctic meltwater forcing? And if so, what are the implications for
282 understanding historical warming patterns and model-observation discrepancies?

283 First, we leverage a recent multi-model project—the Southern Ocean Freshwater Input
284 from Antarctica initiative (SOFIA) (43)—to examine the inter-model uncertainty in the
285 tropical SST response to Antarctic meltwater forcing. SOFIA provides near-equilibrium
286 meltwater hosing simulations with an idealized constant freshwater release around
287 Antarctica (Methods). Preliminary results from eight fully-coupled GCMs show that the
288 addition of freshwater yields a robust SO surface cooling response and Antarctic sea-ice
289 expansion (43, 44). We focus on the remote tropical impact and find that the multi-model
290 mean near-surface air temperature (TS) response shows a La Niña-like tropical cooling
291 pattern (Fig. 4C), consistent with the previous single model study (21). The magnitude of
292 the tropical response, however, varies greatly across individual models (Fig. S7), along
293 with a large spread in their precipitation mean state (Fig. 4A and Fig. S7).



294

295 **Figure 4: Mean-state climate and response to Antarctic meltwater in SOFIA meltwater experiments.** (A) Annual-mean
 296 zonal-mean precipitation normalized by the tropical mean from observations and SOFIA models. Similar to Fig. 3A,
 297 except thick black line denotes the average of seven SOFIA models, and the thin grey lines denote individual models. (B)
 298 Inter-model correlation between tropical eastern Pacific TS response and mean-state pr^* . The tropical TS response is
 299 normalized by each model's SO (south of 60°S) TS response and is averaged over 10°S - 10°N and 220°E - 290°E. The
 300 black dotted line denotes the linear regression across models (scatters); the grey shading represents the 95% confidence
 301 interval of the regression fit. The correlation coefficient (r) and p -value (p) are shown in the bottom left corner. (C)
 302 Multi-model mean TS and surface wind response to Antarctic meltwater input. Magenta contour denotes the 6 mm/day
 303 level of the annual-mean climatological precipitation. (D) Inter-model regression between mean-state precipitation and
 304 surface winds onto pr^* . (E) Inter-model regression between normalized TS and surface wind response onto pr^* . Stippling
 305 denotes where the inter-model regression of normalized TS is statistically significant at the 95% confidence level.

306

307 To quantify the spread in tropical TS response related to the mean-state ITCZ, we repeat
 308 the regression analysis with pr^* . As the SO local TS cooling response to meltwater input is
 309 highly model-dependent, which we expect is not directly driven by tropical processes, we
 310 normalize the tropical TS response for each model by its SO TS change before performing

311 the regression analysis. The results show that mean-state pr^* inter-model differences again
312 explain a major portion (~80%) of the inter-model spread in the normalized tropical TS
313 response (Fig. 4B). Models with a greater mean-state pr^* have a reduced precipitation bias
314 in the SH tropics and therefore stronger mean-state trade winds and cross-equatorial
315 meridional winds in the tropical eastern Pacific (Fig. 4D). These intensified mean-state
316 winds in turn drive a stronger tropical TS response to meltwater-driven SO cooling (Fig.
317 4B and 4E). We note that the regression maps of precipitation climatology and TS
318 response from the ETIN-MIP and SOFIA models are broadly similar but exhibit notable
319 spatial differences (c.f. Fig. 3 and Fig. 4). The differences in precipitation climatology
320 (Fig. 3D vs Fig. 4D) likely arise from differences in the model ensembles and the lengths
321 of their control simulations. For the differences in TS response patterns (Fig. 3E vs Fig.
322 4E), in addition to model dependence, an important factor is the distinct forcing applied in
323 each experiment. The ETIN-MIP experiment imposes a constant top-of-atmosphere
324 radiative forcing that cools the SO surface radiatively, whereas the SOFIA experiment
325 imposes a freshwater forcing that induces SO cooling via ocean dynamic feedback while
326 conserving the global energy balance. As a result, the temporal and spatial scales of the
327 SO temperature response and the associated tropical response are expected to differ
328 between the two ensembles.

329 The SOFIA meltwater simulations confirm that the systematic double-ITCZ mean-state
330 biases in current GCMs lead to an underestimation of the tropical TS response to Antarctic
331 meltwater input. This implies that the contribution of historical Antarctic meltwater to
332 observed tropical SST trends may have been larger than currently simulated. To test this
333 hypothesis and better constrain the tropical impact of historical Antarctic meltwater input,
334 we analyze historical transient meltwater simulations developed with the NASA GISS-E2-
335 1-G model (Methods). To our knowledge, this is the first ensemble of CMIP6 simulations
336 that incorporates observationally constrained Antarctic meltwater input from 1990–
337 2021(25, 45). The imposed anomalous meltwater flux induces SO local SST cooling
338 trends (25, 45)(Fig. 5D), improving agreement with observations (45). Outside of the SO,
339 however, the meltwater input exerts only a marginal influence on the tropics (Fig. 5E),
340 producing insignificant differences in the simulated tropical eastern Pacific TS trends (Fig.
341 5B). This result seems to suggest a negligible contribution of Antarctic meltwater to the
342 observed tropical warming pattern.

343
344 However, findings from our CESM1 idealized simulations suggest that model mean-state
345 biases in subtropical cloud feedback and ITCZ may lead to a substantial underestimation
346 of the SO teleconnection strength. In particular, GISS-E2-1-G exhibits a severe double-
347 ITCZ bias (Fig. 5E) among the CMIP6 models (Fig. 4B). By adjusting its SO-tropics
348 teleconnection strength based on inter-model pr^* correlations (Methods), we find that the
349 tropical impacts of Antarctic meltwater input would have been more pronounced had the
350 model reproduced the observed ITCZ mean state (Fig. 5F). Accounting for both the
351 meltwater-induced SO changes and the observationally-constrained SO teleconnection
352 strength brings the simulated tropical TS trends over the broad eastern Pacific trade wind
353 regions into closer agreement with observations (Figs. 5B and 5D). This new constraint
354 thus reveals a previously underestimated role of Antarctic meltwater input in the observed
355 tropical La Niña-like cooling trends. While growing efforts are underway to develop
356 interactive ice-sheet coupling, our results highlight that reducing persistent biases in the
357 tropical mean state (e.g., the double ITCZ bias) remains equally critical for accurately
358 capturing the large-scale impacts of meltwater input.

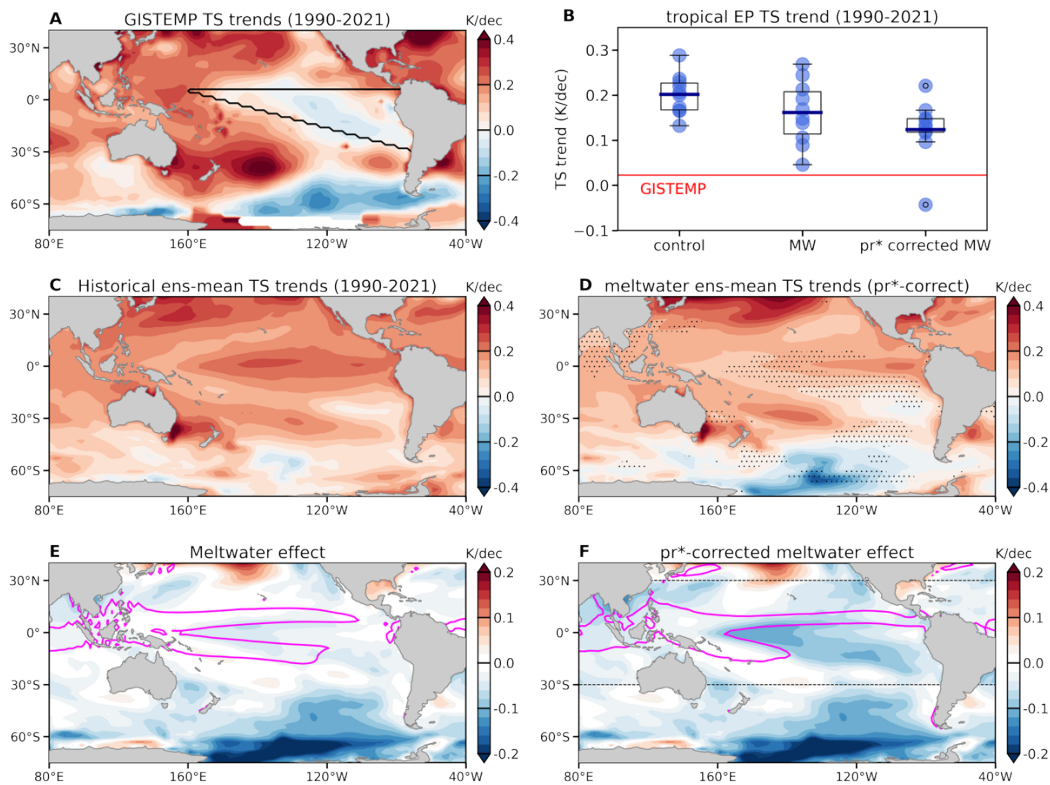


Figure 5: Observed and GISS-E2-1-G simulated TS trends over 1990–2021. (A) TS trends from the GISTEMP v4 observational dataset. (B) Tropical eastern Pacific TS trends (averaged over the triangular region illustrated in panel A) in the historical control ensemble, historical meltwater ensemble, and adjusted values based on the pr^* regression and observed pr^* (Methods). Thick blue lines represent the mean of each ensemble. Note that the results of the control ensemble (left column) and the adjusted ensemble (right column) are statistically different from each other at the 95% confidence level. The triangular area is chosen to capture the most pronounced tropical Pacific cooling over this period. (C) TS trends from the ensemble-mean of GISS-E2-1-G historical control simulations. (D) TS trends from the ensemble-mean of GISS-E2-1-G meltwater simulations after applying the pr^* correlation (panel C + panel F). Stippling represents grid points where the local difference between the control and corrected meltwater simulations is statistically significant at the 95% level. (E) TS trend difference between historical and meltwater simulations, representing the meltwater impact. Magenta contour denotes the 6 mm/day level of the annual-mean climatological precipitation from GISS-E2-1-G historical control simulations (1950–2021). (F) Similar to (E) except the tropical TS response (between 30°S – 30°N , illustrated by grey lines) is adjusted based on the SOFIA inter-model pr^* regression (Fig. 4), assuming that the GISS-E2-1-G model had reproduced the observed ITCZ. Magenta contour denotes the 6 mm/day level of the annual-mean climatological precipitation from ERA5 reanalysis (1950–2021).

Discussion

Observed SST trends over recent decades feature unique cooling in the tropical eastern Pacific and the Southern Ocean. The La Niña-like tropical SST trend pattern has caused a broad range of extratropical changes via the well-established atmospheric teleconnection pathways (46, 47), influencing SH midlatitude circulation (48), precipitation (49), and Antarctic sea ice (50). However, how the SO influences the tropics and to what extent this SO-originated teleconnection contributes to the observed tropical SST pattern remains an area of active research. Using a hierarchy of model simulations with distinct SO thermal and freshwater forcings, we here demonstrate that the tropical mean-state climate, particularly the position and strength of the ITCZ, strongly modulates SO-tropical Pacific teleconnections. Models with a more realistic ITCZ tend to simulate stronger mean-state winds in the tropical eastern Pacific, which enable a stronger tropical SST response to SO forcing via mean-wind advection and the WES feedback. Given that GCMs commonly

391 struggle with the “double-ITCZ” bias, our results imply that the remote tropical impacts of
392 the SO may have been systematically underestimated, and that model deficiencies in the
393 tropics may have biased our understanding of the broader impacts of polar climate change.

394 These results underscore the importance of improving the model mean state for accurately
395 simulating historical climate change. For example, when forced with observed SO SST
396 anomalies, CESM1 and CESM2 produce markedly different tropical SST responses (18,
397 30). The stronger tropical response in CESM2 has been attributed to its more realistic
398 subtropical cloud feedback (18). However, CESM2 also has a reduced double ITCZ bias
399 compared to CESM1 (Fig. S8), which may contribute to its improvement in tropical SST
400 trends. Thus, improving *both* cloud feedbacks and the ITCZ mean state is essential for
401 understanding large-scale teleconnections and developing the next generation of climate
402 models.

403 More broadly, improving model representation of SO teleconnections could provide
404 insights into tropical variability and predictability. Recent work has shown promising
405 advances in tropical decadal prediction from improved simulations of the SO in a high-
406 resolution GCM (51). A more realistic mean state would likely yield a stronger tropical
407 SST response to SO changes, with potential implications for equatorial variability.

408 Despite recent cooling, the SO is projected to experience greater future warming than the
409 global average under increased CO₂ forcing (52–54). Even in recent years (post–2016),
410 rapid sea-ice loss and ocean subsurface warming around Antarctica have been observed,
411 indicating a possible regime shift (55, 56) in contrast to the cooling trends in earlier
412 decades (57). Future SO warming is expected to exert broad remote influences, including
413 effects on tropical warming patterns (31), NH midlatitude precipitation (33) and Arctic
414 warming (58). Our study suggests that the tropical impacts of the observed SO changes,
415 regulated by the tropical mean-state climate, may provide an insightful emergent
416 constraint on future projections. Therefore, accurately assessing global climate responses
417 to SO changes hinges not only on models faithfully representing polar processes under
418 global warming (e.g., Antarctic ice sheet dynamics), but also on their ability to
419 realistically simulate the mean-state climate. Advancing the representation and
420 understanding of the remote climate impacts of the SO is thus critical for accurately
421 constraining future global climate change.

422 **Materials & Methods**

423
424 **CESM1 simulations.** Simulations with mean-state modifications shown in Fig. 1 and Fig.
425 2 are carried out by a slab-ocean configuration of the Community Earth System Model
426 version 1 (CESM1) with the Community Atmospheric Model version 4 (CAM4) at 2-
427 degree horizontal resolution. All simulations are forced by a qflux climatology (e.g.
428 prescribed ocean heat transport) and radiative forcing agents (greenhouse gases, aerosols,
429 solar cycle, etc.) at the present-day climatological levels. The ocean mixed-layer depth is
430 set to a uniform 50 m in all simulations to ensure consistency. We conduct three sets of
431 simulations—“base”, “cloud adjusted”, and “flux adjusted”—each containing a control
432 run and a SO-cooling experiment. For all three groups, the quasi-equilibrium responses
433 are taken from the average of the last 30 years of the corresponding control and SO-
434 cooling simulations.

435 For the “base” case, the control run is carried out for 120 years and uses a qflux
436 climatology derived from a long piControl simulation within the fully-coupled CESM1.
437 The corresponding SO-cooling experiment is branched from the 61st year of the control
438 run and carried out for 60 years. Its qflux climatology is identical to that in the control run,
439 except uniform negative qflux anomalies of 15W/m^2 are added over the southeast Pacific
440 sector of the SO (55°S – 35°S , 220°E – 280°E), following the setup in (14).

441 For the “cloud adjusted” case, both the control and the SO-cooling simulations are
442 branched from the 61st year of the “base” control simulation and carried out for another
443 60 years. In both control and SO-cooling simulations, we apply the cloud modification
444 developed by ref (38) to the SH subtropical eastern Pacific stratocumulus deck (contoured
445 regions in Fig. S2), a region where low cloud amount-SST sensitivity in CAM4 is
446 significantly lower than that in the MODIS observations (38). The method is based on
447 cloud-controlling factor analysis (59), which identifies the cloud sensitivity to a set of
448 known physically important variables. Adjusting the sensitivity to these variables directly,
449 rather than their impact through cloud formation processes, gives more control and better
450 understanding over the adjustment. While the actual physical processes are circumvented,
451 for this study, the relevant radiative impact is captured. Specifically, the cloud amount
452 correction is set to be -3% of the local low-cloud amount anomaly per degree of local SST
453 anomaly. The perturbation is then added to all cloud layers at or below 700 hPa at every
454 radiation time step, proportional to the instantaneous SST anomaly relative to the SST
455 mean state from the “base” control run. The modification is only applied in the CAM4
456 radiative transfer code to account for the radiative effect of enhanced low-cloud
457 sensitivity. The qflux climatology data used in the control and SO-cooling simulations are
458 identical to those used in the two “base” simulations.

459 The “flux adjusted” control and SO-cooling simulations are similar to the “base”
460 simulations, except the control qflux climatology is derived from a long “flux-corrected”
461 piControl simulation in CESM1-CAM4, where an annual-cycle of surface heat flux
462 anomalies is applied to nudge the model’s SST mean state to observations (14). The qflux
463 anomalies over the SO are further added to this flux-adjusted qflux climatology for its SO-
464 cooling simulation. The control run is conducted for 120 years and the SO-cooling
465 simulation is conducted for 60 years, branched off from the 61st year of the control run.

466 **Observations and CMIP6 models.** We use precipitation observations from the Global
467 Precipitation Climatology Project (GPCP) (60) and ERA5 Reanalysis (61). We also
468 analyze 24 CMIP6 models and obtain the modeled precipitation climatology from their
469 historical (1979–2014) and SSP3-7.0 (2015–2024) simulations, with one ensemble
470 member per model. Both observed and modeled precipitation mean states are computed
471 using annual means over 1979–2024. In Fig. 5, we use TS observations from GISTEMP
472 v4 dataset (62) to compute the equatorial eastern Pacific TS trend over 1990–2021.

473 **Surface energy budget analysis.** We perform a mixed-layer heat budget analysis to
474 decompose the contributions to the tropical SST response in CESM1 SO-cooling
475 simulations. Following previous studies (15, 16, 19, 30), we consider the surface energy
476 budget as:

$$\rho C_p H \frac{\partial T'}{\partial t} = SW' + LW' + LH' + SH' + res \quad (1)$$

478 The left-hand side represents the mixed-layer heat storage, with ρ being the density of
 479 ocean, C_p the specific heat of the ocean, H the ocean mixed-layer depth and T surface
 480 temperature (i.e. SST over the ocean). The right-hand side represents the mixed-layer heat
 481 budget terms, with SW presenting surface shortwave flux, LW surface longwave flux, LH
 482 latent heat flux, SH sensible heat flux, and res residuals (all heat fluxes are defined as
 483 positive downward). The prime symbol $'$ represents the anomalies between the control and
 484 the SO-cooling simulations (the response). Since our CESM1 simulations are quasi-
 485 equilibrium, the left-hand side (the tendency term) is close to zero. Based on the linearized
 486 bulk formula for evaporation, latent heat changes associated with Newtonian cooling can
 487 be simplified as $\alpha \overline{LH} T'$ where $\alpha \equiv \frac{L_v}{R_v T^2} \approx 0.06 \text{ K}^{-1}$, \overline{LH} is the climatological mean LH .
 488 Eq. (1) can thus be rewritten into a diagnostic equation for the SST response:

$$489 \quad T' = \frac{SW' + LW' + LH'_{wind} + LH'_{RH} + LH'_{TA} + SH' + res}{\alpha \overline{LH}} \quad (2)$$

490 where LH'_{wind} , LH'_{RH} , LH'_{TA} represent latent heat trend changes due to changes in wind
 491 speed, changes in relative humidity and changes in stability, respectively.

492 **ITCZ index.** The precipitation asymmetry index (pr^* , unitless) is defined as the difference
 493 between the NH (0–15°N) and SH (15°S–0) zonal-mean precipitation maxima, normalized
 494 by the tropical mean precipitation (15°S–15°N). Averaging precipitation over the Pacific
 495 (e.g., between 120°E–330°E) yields similar results.

496 **SOFIA meltwater simulation.** We use two experiments provided by the SOFIA project
 497 (43), *piControl* and *antwater* (in Tier 1), which are currently available for eight GCMs.
 498 The first is identical to the CMIP6 piControl setup, with no additional ice-sheet meltwater
 499 included. The second is the idealized meltwater hosing experiment, branched from the
 500 piControl simulation. It applies a freshwater flux anomaly of 0.1 Sv at the ocean surface
 501 around Antarctica. The antwater simulations are generally carried out for > 100 years,
 502 and we use the last 30 years to obtain quasi-equilibrium response. As the “*tos*” (sea-
 503 surface temperature) and “*ts*” (surface temperature) variables are not readily available for
 504 most of SOFIA models, we use “*tas*” (near-surface air temperature) instead for the
 505 analysis. For each model, we normalize the tropical TS response by its average over
 506 Antarctica (60°S–90°S, including both ocean and land), before conducting the inter-model
 507 regression analysis.

508 **GISS-E2-1-G meltwater simulation and analysis.** We present results from two
 509 ensembles of transient historical simulations conducted with the NASA Goddard Institute
 510 for Space Studies (GISS) version E2.1 climate model (GISS-E2-1-G). GISS-E2-1-G is a
 511 CMIP6-class fully-coupled global climate model, which exhibits relatively low biases in
 512 Southern Ocean SST trends compared to other models (1).

513 The first ensemble consists of 10 members of standard CMIP6 simulations spanning
 514 1950–2021, denoted as “control” runs. From 1950–2014, the simulations used the CMIP6
 515 “historical” forcing scenario with all time-varying radiative forcing agents; extensions
 516 from 2015–2021 used observed greenhouse gases and solar forcing while keeping other
 517 compositions and land use changes at 2014 levels. The second ensemble (25, 45) also
 518 consists of 10 members and incorporates time-varying anomalous freshwater based on the
 519 observed post–1990 “ice imbalance” from Antarctica and Greenland ice sheets
 520 constrained by satellite observations (63). Note that because satellite altimetry-based

estimates of Antarctic ice imbalance are unavailable before 1990, this ensemble spans 1990–2021. Meltwater is added to the Southern Ocean (500 km wide around the Antarctic continent) uniformly from the surface to 200 m below. The same time-varying radiative forcings as in the control ensemble are used. To our knowledge, this historical meltwater ensemble within GISS-E2-1-G is the first set of CMIP6 simulations that implement observationally constrained Antarctic meltwater (25, 45). The meltwater-induced surface temperature response is obtained by comparing the ensemble means of control and meltwater simulations.

We further correct the meltwater-induced tropical TS anomalies (between 30°S–30°N) based on the model’s mean-state ITCZ. Specifically, we first compute the pr^* values from GISS-E2-1-G historical control simulations and ERA5 reanalysis over 1950–2021, denoted as pr_{ERA5}^* and pr_{GISS}^* , respectively. We then compute the adjusted tropical TS response ($\Delta TS_{tropics}^*$) as:

$$\Delta TS_{tropics}^*(x, y) = (pr_{ERA5}^* - pr_{GISS}^*) \frac{\partial \left(\frac{\Delta TS_{tropics}(x, y)}{\Delta TS_{SO}} \right)}{\partial pr^*} \Delta TS_{SO} + \Delta TS_{tropics}(x, y) \quad (3)$$

where $\frac{\partial \left(\frac{\Delta TS_{tropics}(x, y)}{\Delta TS_{SO}} \right)}{\partial pr^*}$ represents the coefficient from the inter-model regression of normalized TS response onto pr^* across eight SOFIA models (shown in Fig. 4E), ΔTS_{SO} is the TS response averaged over the SO (60°S–90°S), and $\Delta TS_{tropics}(x, y)$ is the originally simulated tropical TS response pattern. In our estimate, we retain ΔTS_{SO} from the meltwater simulations unchanged, and only apply the pr^* adjustment to the tropical TS response pattern. The adjusted tropical response $\Delta TS_{tropics}^*(x, y)$ thus represents the more realistic tropical response to the simulated meltwater-driven SO TS changes, assuming the model had accurately reproduced the observed ITCZ (pr^*).

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Author contributions: YD designed and led the research; KL performed the "cloud-adjusted" CESM1 simulations using the code developed by PB and PC. RJH and YTH performed the CMIP6 mean-state ITCZ and cloud feedback analysis. LR contributed the GISS-E2-1-G meltwater simulations. All co-authors contributed to the original and final drafts.

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Competing interests: The authors declare no competing interests.

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Data and materials availability: Output from the idealized CESM1 simulations will be available on Zenodo upon publication. CMIP6 data were obtained via ESGF at <https://aims2.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/>. All observational data are publicly available. GPCP precipitation, ERSSTv5 SST and COBE SST data were obtained from NOAA PSL at <https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.gpcp.html>, <https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.noaa.ersst.v5.html> and <https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.cobe.html>. ERA5 reanalysis was obtained from the Copernicus Climate Data Store at <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/datasets/reanalysis-era5-single-levels-monthly-means>. GISTEMPv4 SST data were obtained from NASA GISS at <https://data.giss.nasa.gov/gistemp/>. ETIN-MIP simulation output is available at <https://zenodo.org/records/3362615>. SOFIA meltwater simulation output is available at <https://sofiamp.github.io/data-access.html>. GISS-E2-1-G control and meltwater simulation output was obtained from the NCCS portal at https://portal.nccs.nasa.gov/datashare/giss_cmip6/CMIP/NASA-GISS/GISS-E2-1-G/ and is also available through ESGF.

Supplementary Materials for
Tropical impacts of the Southern Ocean underestimated by mean-state biases

Yue Dong *et al.*

*Corresponding author. Email: ydong@atmos.ucla.edu

This PDF file includes:

Figs. S1 to S8

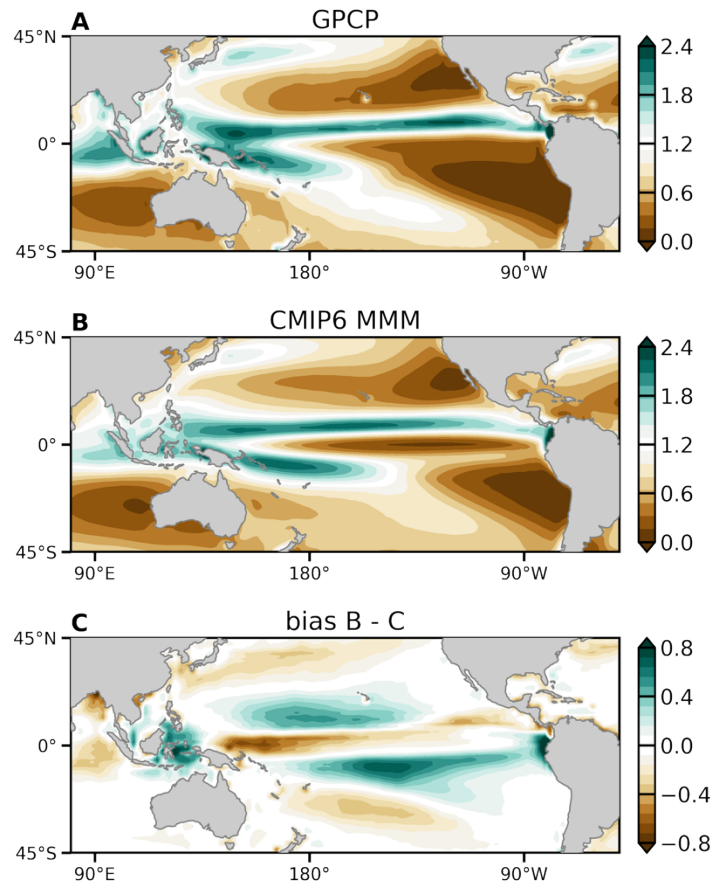


Fig. S1.

Annual-mean precipitation climatology (1979-2024) in observations and CMIP6 models. (A) GPCP observations; (B) CMIP6 historical multi-model mean; (C) differences between observation and CMIP6 multi-model mean. Precipitation patterns have been normalized by the tropical mean (15°S–15°N).

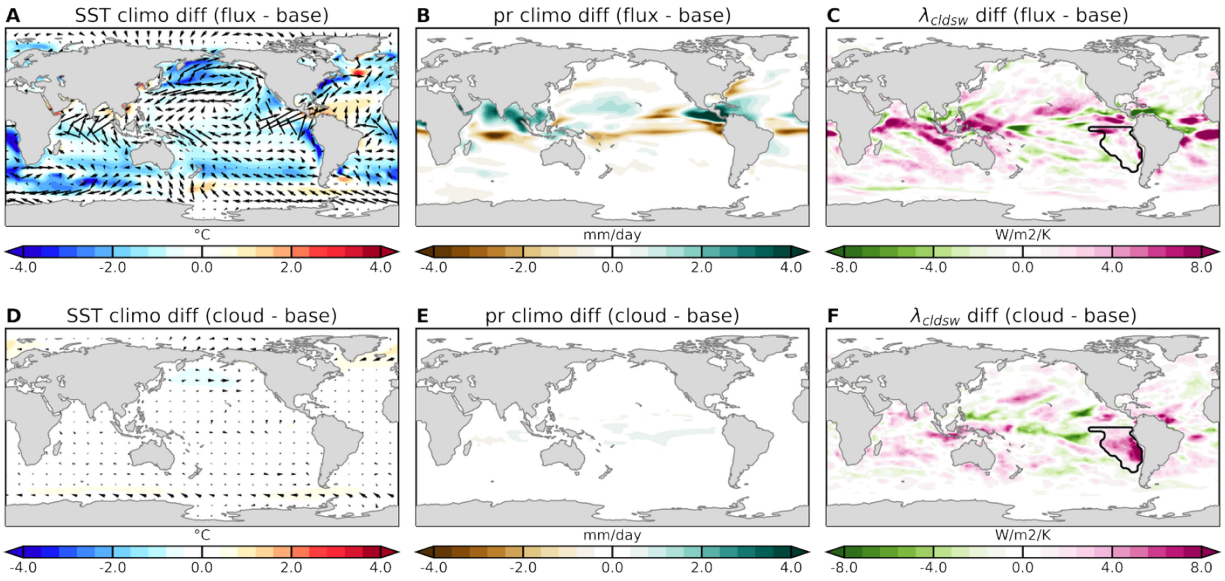


Fig. S2.

Differences in mean states between “adjusted” and “base” simulations within CESM1. Top row: difference between “flux-adjusted” run and the “base” run; bottom row: difference between “cloud-adjusted” and the “base” run. From left to right are SST (K), precipitation (mm/day), and shortwave cloud feedback ($\text{Wm}^{-2}\text{K}^{-1}$). Black contours in (C) and (F) illustrate the subtropical Pacific stratocumulus deck region where cloud adjustment is applied.

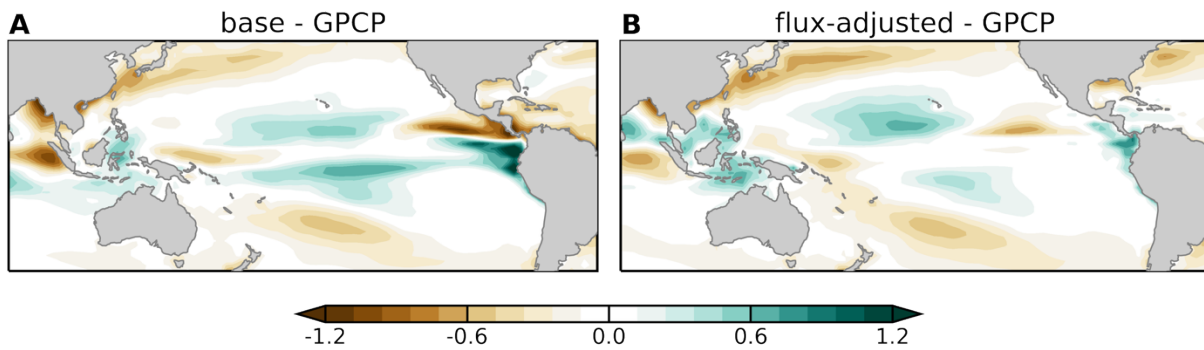


Fig. S3.

Annual-mean precipitation climatology between GPCP observations and CESM1 simulations. (A) CESM1 “base” control run minus GPCP. (B) CESM1 “flux-adjusted” control run minus GPCP. Same with Fig. S1, all precipitation mean states have been normalized by the tropical mean (15°S–15°N).

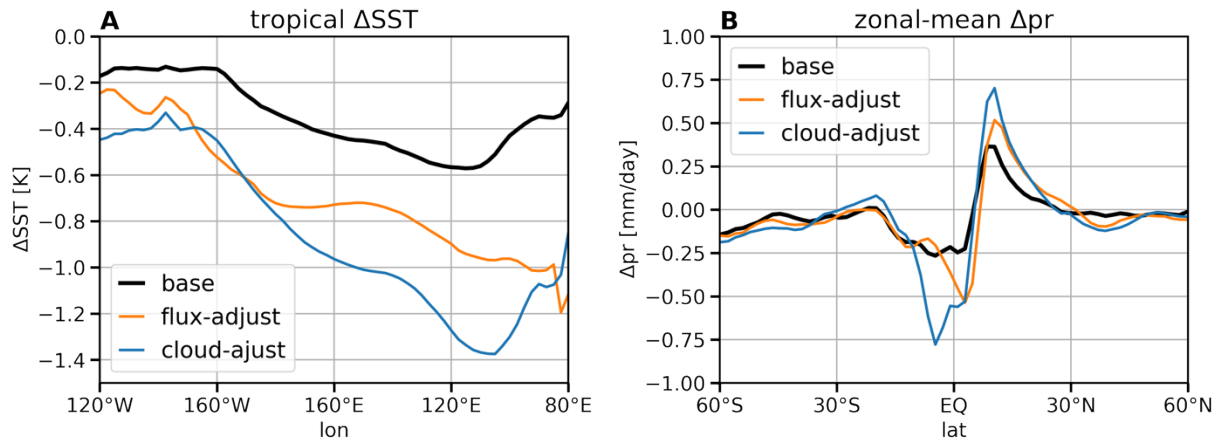


Fig. S4.

Tropical SST and zonal-mean precipitation response to SO qflux forcing simulated in CESM1 simulations. (A) Tropical Pacific SST averaged over 10°S–10°N. (B) Zonal-mean precipitation between 60°S–60°N.

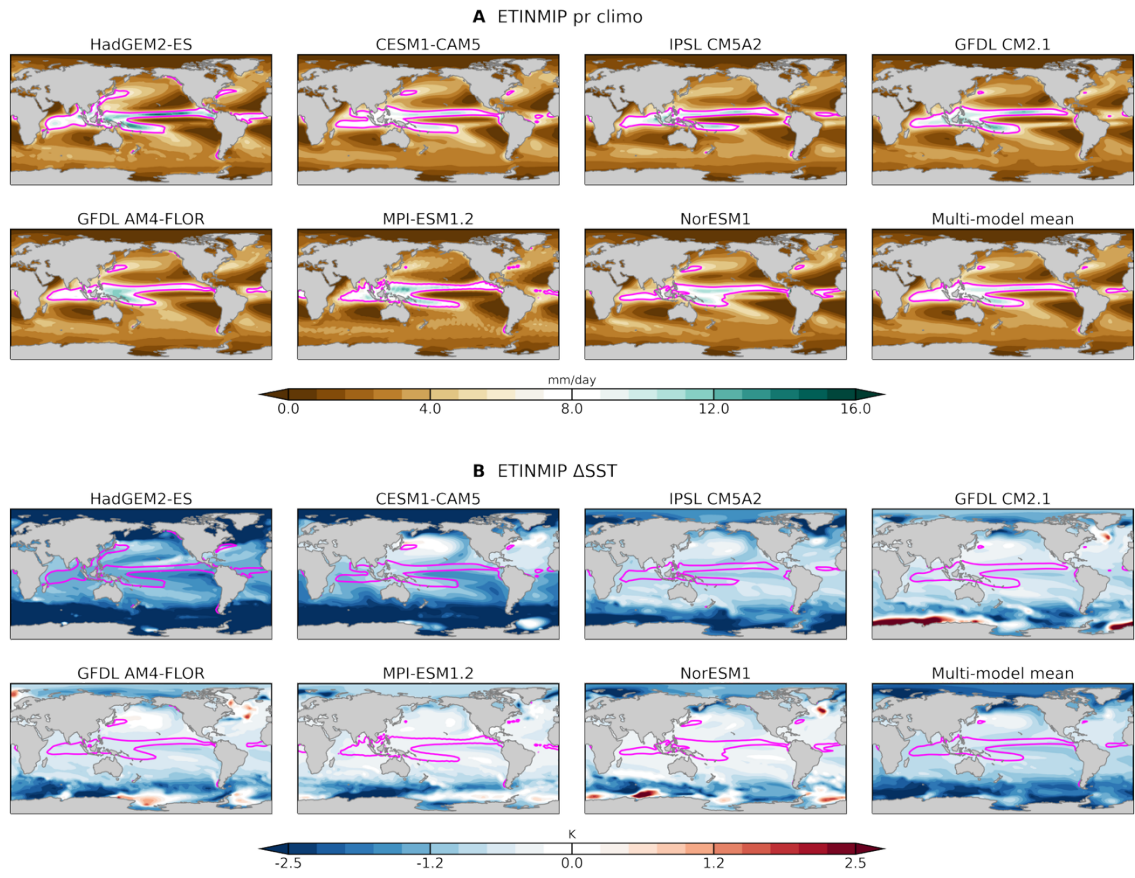


Fig. S5.

Individual ETIN-MIP model result. (A) mean-state precipitation from the ETINMIP control simulations; (B) SST response to imposed SH extratropical radiative forcing from the ETINMIP *stoa* simulations. Magenta contours show the 6 mm/day contour of precipitation climatology. The bottom right panels in both (A) and (B) show the multi-model mean results.

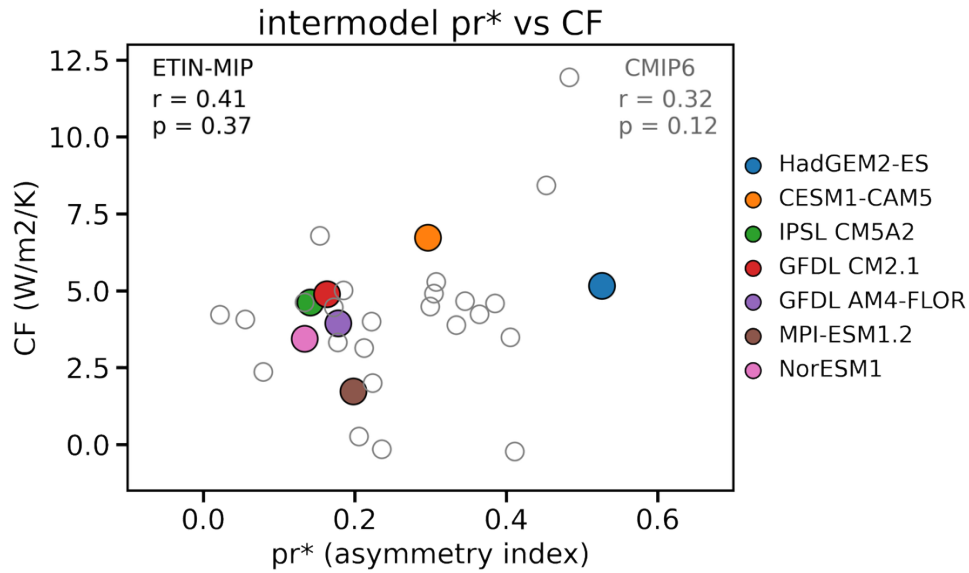


Fig. S6.

Inter-model correlation between mean-state precipitation index (pr^*) and subtropical eastern Pacific cloud-SST feedback (CF). Colored scatters represent 7 ETIN-MIP models; grey unfilled scatters represent 24 CMIP6 GCMs. Correlation coefficient (r) and p-values (p) for ETIN-MIP and CMIP6 inter-model correlations are shown in the top left and top right corners, respectively. Both pr^* and CF values are computed from model piControl simulations.

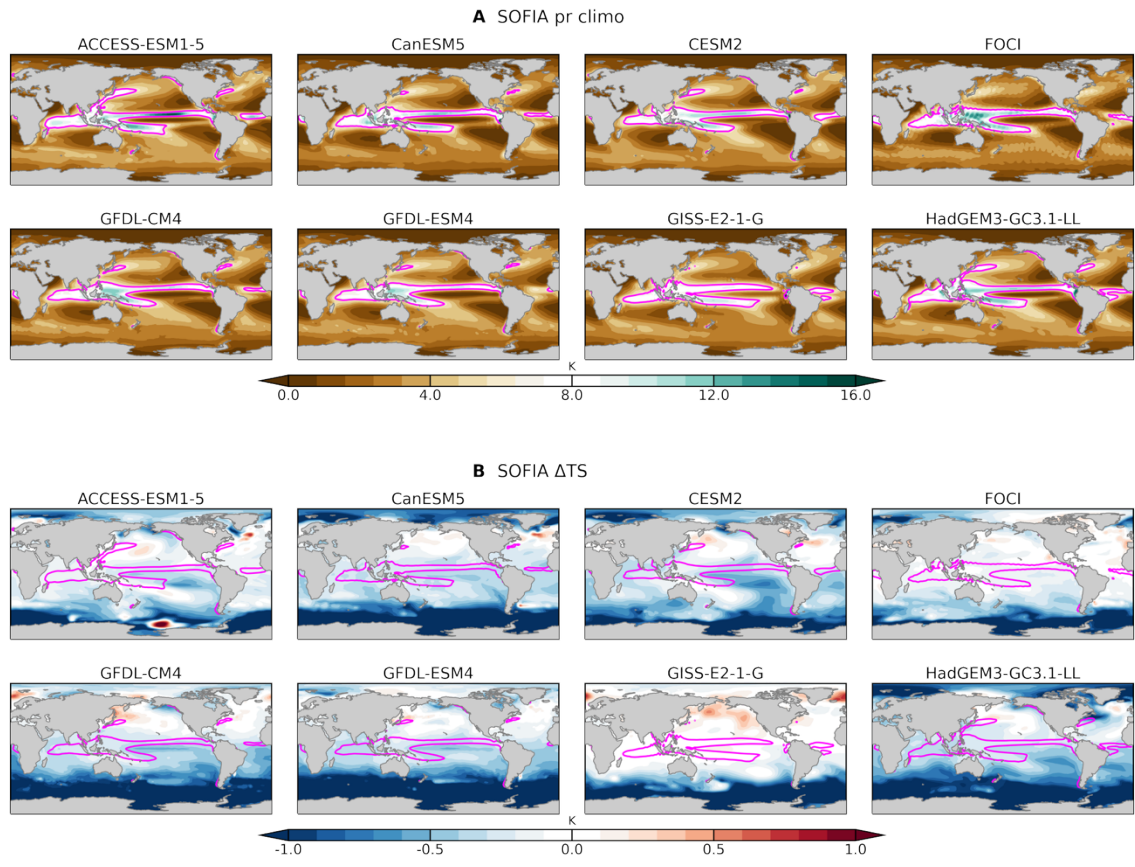


Fig. S7.

Individual SOFIA model results. (A) mean-state precipitation from the SOFIA control simulations; (B) surface air temperature response to imposed Antarctic meltwater from SOFIA hosing simulations. Magenta contours show the 6 mm/day contour of precipitation climatology.

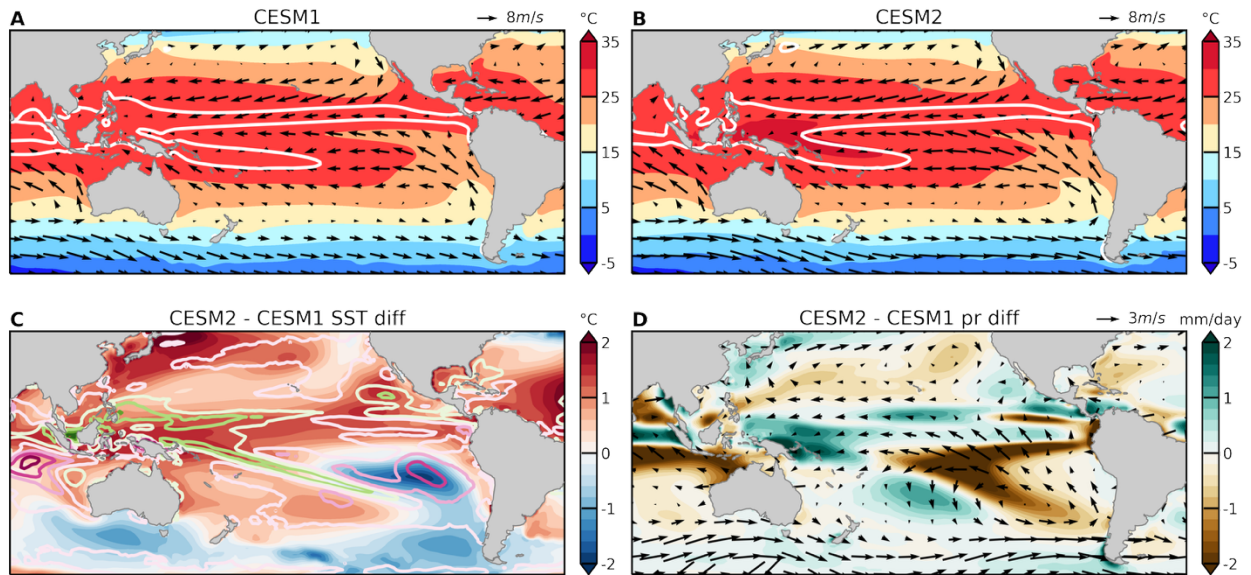


Fig. S8.

CESM1 and CESM2 mean-state climates from piControl simulations. (A-B) mean-state SST (shading), surface winds (arrows) and precipitation (6 mm/day contour) in CESM1 and CESM2. (C) Difference in SST (shading) and cloud-SST feedback (contours) between CESM1 and CESM2. Pink (green) denotes more positive (negative) cloud-SST feedback values. (D) Differences in precipitation (shading) and surface winds (arrows).