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1 Interhemispheric teleconnections from tropical heat
2 sources in intermediate and simple models

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PRELIMINARY ACCEPTED VERSION

Abstract

12
13 The mechanisms that control the interhemispheric teleconnections from tropical heat
14 sources are investigated using an intermediate complexity model (a Quasi-Equilibrium Tropical
15 Circulation Model, QTCM) and a simple linear two-level model with dry dynamics. Illustrating
16 the interhemispheric teleconnection process with an Atlantic Warm Pool principal case, the heat
17 source directly excites a baroclinic response that spreads across the equator. Three processes
18 involving baroclinic-barotropic interactions—shear advection, surface drag, and vertical
19 advection—then force a cross-equatorial barotropic Rossby wave response. An analysis of these
20 processes in QTCM simulations indicates that: (1) shear advection has a pattern that roughly
21 coincides with the baroclinic signal in the tropics and subtropics; (2) surface drag has large
22 amplitude and spatial extent, and can be very effective in forcing barotropic motions around the
23 globe; (3) vertical advection has a significant contribution locally and remotely where large
24 vertical motions and vertical shear occur. The simple model is modified to perform experiments
25 in which each of these three mechanisms may be included or omitted. By adding surface drag
26 and vertical advection, and comparing each to shear advection, the effects of the three
27 mechanisms on the generation and propagation of the barotropic Rossby waves are shown to be
28 qualitatively similar to the results in QTCM. It is also found that the moist processes included in
29 the QTCM can feed back on the teleconnection process and alter the teleconnection pattern by
30 enlarging the prescribed tropical heating in both intensity and geographical extent, and by
31 inducing remote precipitation anomalies by interaction with the basic state.

32

33

34 1. Introduction

35 Tropical heat sources can remotely influence ocean basins and continents through
36 atmospheric teleconnections (e.g., Horel and Wallace 1981; Ropelewski and Halpert 1987;
37 Wallace et al. 1998; Trenberth et al. 1998). In addition to many teleconnection studies in general
38 circulation models (GCMs; e.g., Lau 1985; Mechoso et al. 1987; Kumar and Hoerling 1998;
39 Barnston et al. 1999; Goddard and Graham 1999; Latif et al. 1999; Saravanan and Chang 2000),
40 much has been learned from simpler models. In the tropics, heating anomalies directly force a
41 baroclinic signal that tends to remain trapped in latitude. Thus, highly damped shallow water
42 models (Matsuno 1966; Webster 1972; Gill 1980), which assume a vertical structure of a single
43 deep baroclinic mode, can give a plausible first approximation to the low-level wind field in the
44 vicinity of heating anomalies. In mid-and high-latitudes, teleconnections tend to be dominated by
45 an equivalent barotropic signal for two reasons. Firstly, barotropic stationary or low-frequency
46 Rossby waves in westerly flow tend to be less equatorially trapped than their baroclinic
47 counterparts (Salby and Garcia 1987). Secondly, vertical propagation tends to reduce the
48 contribution of baroclinic modes in the mid-latitude troposphere, leaving the signal far from the
49 source dominated by an equivalent barotropic mode (Held et al. 1985). Thus barotropic models
50 have been widely used to study the teleconnection response at midlatitudes (e.g., Hoskins and
51 Karoly 1981; Simmons 1982; Simmons et al. 1983; Held and Kang 1987). However, since the
52 heating does not directly force a barotropic response, barotropic models used to study
53 teleconnections must prescribe a vorticity source or “Rossby wave source” (Sardeshmukh and
54 Hoskins 1988), which can be based, for instance, on baroclinic divergence at upper levels or on
55 baroclinic transient motions diagnosed from a GCM simulation (Held and Kang 1987). This
56 diagnosed Rossby wave source is one convenient approach that permits the barotropic processes

57 to be examined while deferring investigation of the complex baroclinic to barotropic pathway in
58 the tropics-to-midlatitudes teleconnection process. However, many of the terms that are
59 specified as a fixed source in this approach are dynamical quantities whose scales, spatial form
60 etc. depend on the interaction of the baroclinic mode with the basic state in ways that can be
61 interesting to elucidate. Multi-level linear, steady-state wave models with both baroclinic and
62 barotropic components comprise part of a model hierarchy (Hoskins and Karoly 1981; Ting and
63 Held 1990; DeWeaver and Nigam 2004) that can capture at least some aspects of the tropical-
64 baroclinic to midlatitude-barotropic transition. Interactions with baroclinic transient eddies (Held
65 et al. 1989; Hoerling and Ting 1994) can also alter the teleconnection pattern in a manner that is
66 not easily captured by stationary wave models.

67 The energy exchange between equatorially trapped baroclinic modes and equivalent
68 barotropic modes with a significant projection on midlatitudes needs, therefore, to be addressed
69 in a more sophisticated way. Instead of prescribing a Rossby wave source based on upper level
70 divergent flow in the one level barotropic vorticity equation (e.g., Sardeshmukh and Hoskins
71 1988, Held and Kang 1987), a series of studies have been examining this problem from the point
72 of view of baroclinic-barotropic interaction terms and studying the effect of each mechanism at
73 work in the baroclinic to barotropic transition. Majda and Biello (2003) develop a set of
74 simplified asymptotic equations describing the nonlinear interaction of near-resonant long-
75 wavelength barotropic wave trains and equatorial baroclinic wave trains in the presence of
76 sheared zonal mean winds, and emphasize the central role of baroclinic mean shear for
77 sufficiently rapid nonlinear exchange of energy between the tropics and midlatitudes. Biello and
78 Majda (2004b) further examine this resonant nonlinear interaction in the presence of vertically
79 and meridionally sheared zonal mean winds, i.e., including both meridionally symmetric and

80 antisymmetric (about the equator) vertical mean shear, and find that the effect of moderate
81 antisymmetric winds is to shift the barotropic waves meridionally. Biello and Majda (2004a)
82 incorporate the dissipative mechanisms arising from radiative cooling and atmospheric boundary
83 layer drag, to explain how this mechanism creates barotropic/baroclinic spin up/spin down in the
84 teleconnection process. Their results indicate that although the dissipation slightly weakens the
85 tropics to midlatitude connection, strong localized wave packets are nonetheless able to
86 exchange energy between barotropic and baroclinic waves on intraseasonal timescales in the
87 presence of baroclinic mean shear. Wang et al. (2010) examine how, in the presence of
88 background vertical shear, the transition from equatorial baroclinic mode to equivalent
89 barotropic mode at midlatitudes establishes the interhemispheric influence of the Atlantic Warm
90 Pool (AWP) in the northern hemisphere on the south eastern Pacific.

91 In this work, we aim at directly diagnosing and assessing the relative importance of the
92 interaction terms between the baroclinic and barotropic modes that appear as source terms in the
93 barotropic equation. These interaction terms are similar to a Rossby-wave source approach in
94 that these terms appear as a vorticity source in the barotropic equation, but the “source” can be
95 quantitatively and conceptually quite different than approaches based on upper level divergent
96 flow in a single-level vorticity equation. For instance, if there is no vertical shear and no
97 damping on the baroclinic mode associated with surface stress, then upper level divergence in
98 the baroclinic mode does not produce any linear forcing of the barotropic mode. At the same
99 time, by explicitly modeling the gravest baroclinic mode, the teleconnection pathway can be
100 followed as the two modes interact, for instance with the baroclinic mode producing a
101 teleconnection across the equator, and then interactions yielding a barotropic mode that can
102 propagate to higher latitudes in the opposite hemisphere. Building on previous work with

103 idealized asymptotic equations, here we use realistic background states and more detailed
104 physics including moist processes to analyze teleconnections arising from tropical heat sources.

105 We use two numerical models with different complexity, in both of which the baroclinic-
106 barotropic interactions are explicitly formulated. The more complex one is a Quasi-Equilibrium
107 Tropical Circulation Model (QTCM) (Neelin and Zeng 2000), in which part of the quasi-
108 equilibrium convective closure is used to carry forward analytically the model solution for the
109 baroclinic vertical structure in the convective regions. The full primitive equations are then
110 projected on the resulting baroclinic plus barotropic basis functions for vertical structure. This
111 intermediate complexity model retains some of the simplicity of the analytical solutions, while
112 keeping full nonlinearity from the primitive equations, and a consistent representation of moist
113 processes including a deep convective parameterization. The consistent vertical mode
114 decomposition yields three mechanisms (Neelin and Zeng 2000) for excitation terms in the
115 barotropic equations due to baroclinic terms: interactions of vertical shear in horizontal advection
116 terms, vertical advection of vertically sheared motions, and interactions via surface stress in the
117 boundary layer. The QTCM thus allows for quantifying the effect of each of those mechanisms,
118 and to assess the role of feedbacks associated with moist processes. The simpler model we use is
119 based on that of Lee et al. 2009), which is a two-level steady-state wave model linearized about
120 background flows. In preparation for the present study, the Lee et al. (2009) version was
121 extended to include the three mechanisms for excitation of barotropic modes present in the
122 QTCM. The simple model permits experiments in which mechanisms may be included or
123 omitted. Therefore, an assessment of individual impacts is obtained by retaining the forcing
124 terms one at a time in the barotropic equation, and inspecting the differences in the
125 teleconnection patterns obtained with each mechanism. Our primary focus is on the heat source

126 region above the Atlantic Warm Pool (AWP) because previous studies have shown that it has
127 significant interhemispheric influences (e.g., Wang et al. 2010).

128 The remainder of the text is organized as follows. Section 2 gives a brief introduction of
129 the two models as well as the modifications made for the study. Section 3 presents the QTCM
130 experiments, examines each of the three forcing terms of barotropic Rossby waves, and explores
131 the effect of moist feedback in the teleconnection process. Section 4 presents the simple model
132 experiments, narrowing down on the role of each forcing term. Section 5 consists of a summary
133 and discussion.

134

135 2. Models and Methodology

136 *a. QTCM*

137 The QTCM belongs in a class of tropical atmospheric model of intermediate complexity
138 that occupies a niche between GCMs and simple models. In the QTCM, the derivation from the
139 primitive equations is done systematically and the constraints placed on the baroclinic flow by
140 the GCM convective parameterizations with quasi-equilibrium (QE) thermodynamic closures are
141 exploited. Part of the QE convective closure can be used to carry forward analytically the model
142 solution for the vertical structure in convective regions. Using the vertical structures based on
143 these analytical solutions as the leading basis functions in a Galerkin projection of the primitive
144 equations, self-consistent nonlinear terms can be retained in advection, moist convection, and
145 vertical momentum transfer terms, among others. A more detailed model description can be
146 found in Neelin and Zeng (2000). The model performance has been analyzed in Zeng et al.
147 (2000) for climatology, and in Lin et al. (2000) and Lin and Neelin (2000, 2002) for

148 intraseasonal variability. Moist teleconnection mechanisms within the tropics have been
 149 examined using this model in Su and Neelin (2002) and Neelin and Su (2005).

150 The present study uses the QTCM1 version 2.3 which retains a single basis function for
 151 the vertical structure of temperature. This is the simplest configuration, but with considerable
 152 success in capturing tropical phenomena, since the temperature structure matches the
 153 consequences of a quasi-equilibrium convective scheme, and the baroclinic velocity basis
 154 function is analytically compatible. This provides an appealing system for baroclinic-barotropic
 155 decomposition. One might anticipate that an additional degree of freedom in the boundary layer
 156 might alter some surface drag effects quantitatively. The numerical implementation of the
 157 QTCM1 here covers the domain from 78.75°S to 78.75°N and over all longitudes, with a
 158 horizontal resolution of 3.75° latitude and 5.625° longitude.

159 A brief review of the equation for the barotropic wind component in the QTCM is
 160 presented below to aid the analysis of the barotropic teleconnection process in the following
 161 sections. A summary of the QTCM1 equations are given for reference in Appendix. Using V_0 and
 162 V_1 as the basis functions for velocity, the projected barotropic vorticity equation in Neelin and
 163 Zeng (2000) is:

$$164 \quad \partial_t \zeta_0 + \text{curl}_z(\mathcal{D}_{V_0}(\mathbf{v}_0, \mathbf{v}_1)) + \beta v_0 = -\text{curl}_z(\varepsilon_0 \mathbf{v}_0) - \text{curl}_z(\varepsilon_{10} \mathbf{v}_1) \quad (1)$$

165 where subscripts 0 and 1 denote barotropic and baroclinic component, respectively, and
 166 $\mathcal{D}_{V_0}(\mathbf{v}_0, \mathbf{v}_1)$, the operator containing nonlinear advection terms and horizontal diffusion is given
 167 by:

$$168 \quad \mathcal{D}_{V_0}(\mathbf{v}_0, \mathbf{v}_1) = \mathbf{v}_0 \cdot \nabla \mathbf{v}_0 + \langle V_1^2 \rangle \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \nabla \mathbf{v}_1 + \langle V_1^2 \rangle (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}_1) \mathbf{v}_1 - K_H \nabla^2 \mathbf{v}_0 \quad (2)$$

169 where the term in brackets denote vertical averages over the troposphere $\langle X \rangle = p_T^{-1} \int_{p_n}^{p_s} X dp$. For

170 the analysis of Rossby wave sources in the QTCM, we rearrange (1) to obtain:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \partial_t \nabla^2 \psi_0' + \text{curl}_z(\mathbf{v}_0 \cdot \nabla \mathbf{v}_0)' - K_H \nabla^4 \psi_0' + \beta \mathbf{v}_0' \\
 171 \quad & = -\text{curl}_z(\langle V_1^2 \rangle \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \nabla \mathbf{v}_1)' - \text{curl}_z(\langle V_1^2 \rangle (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}_1) \mathbf{v}_1)' - \text{curl}_z(\varepsilon_0 \mathbf{v}_0 + \varepsilon_{10} \mathbf{v}_1)' \quad (3)
 \end{aligned}$$

172 where ψ_0 is the barotropic stream function, and $()'$ denotes anomalies defined as the difference

173 between a climatological run and a run with an imposed heating anomaly. The stationary

174 barotropic Rossby wave response (i.e. of the l.h.s. of (3)) to a localized source is well known

175 (e.g., Hoskins and Karoly 1981, Simmons et al. 1983; Held and Kang 1987) so we focus on the

176 comparison of the forcing terms on the r.h.s. of (3). The three forcing sources of the barotropic

177 motion that involve the interactions with baroclinic motion are defined as follows: 1) the shear

178 advection term $-\text{curl}_z(\langle V_1^2 \rangle \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \nabla \mathbf{v}_1)'$, which represents advective interactions of the baroclinic

179 wind component (with vertical shear); 2) the vertical advection term $-\text{curl}_z(\langle V_1^2 \rangle (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}_1) \mathbf{v}_1)'$,

180 which represents the effect of vertical motion advecting the baroclinic wind component; 3) the

181 surface drag term $-\text{curl}_z(\varepsilon_0 \mathbf{v}_0 + \varepsilon_{10} \mathbf{v}_1)'$, which derives from surface stress $-(g / p_T) \tau_s$ (with

182 zero stress at model top) and a bulk formula parameterization $\tau_s = \tau|_{p_s} = \rho_a C_D V_s \mathbf{v}_s$. These three

183 forcing mechanisms of the barotropic motion involved in the baroclinic-barotropic interactions

184 are further discussed in section 3b in the teleconnection experiments. We further note that

185 linearizing the interaction terms in (3) yields:

$$186 \quad -\text{curl}_z(\langle V_1^2 \rangle \bar{\mathbf{v}}_1 \cdot \nabla \mathbf{v}_1' + \langle V_1^2 \rangle \mathbf{v}_1' \cdot \nabla \bar{\mathbf{v}}_1) - \text{curl}_z(\langle V_1^2 \rangle (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}_1') \bar{\mathbf{v}}_1 + \langle V_1^2 \rangle (\nabla \cdot \bar{\mathbf{v}}_1) \mathbf{v}_1') - \text{curl}_z(\varepsilon_0 \mathbf{v}_0' + \varepsilon_{10} \mathbf{v}_1').$$

187 The linearized interaction terms make it clear that if there is no vertical shear or vertical velocity

188 in the mean state ($\bar{\mathbf{v}}_1 = 0$) and no drag on the baroclinic mode ($\varepsilon_{10} = 0$), then the baroclinic mode
189 can have any vertical velocity ($\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}'_1$), but there will be no forcing of the barotropic mode. This
190 appears quite different from the assumptions used in traditional Rossby wave source approaches
191 based on a vorticity equation at upper levels, but is similar in the sense that it diagnoses a
192 vorticity source that drives the barotropic equation, in this case the equation for the full
193 barotropic mode. We will refer to this as a "barotropic Rossby wave source" for clarity since it is
194 the vorticity source term as it occurs projected on the full barotropic mode. We also note that
195 while we have retained the whole surface stress term on the right-hand side above, arguably it is
196 more consistent to move the barotropic component of this, i.e., $-\text{curl}_z(\varepsilon_0 \mathbf{v}'_0)$, to the l.h.s. in (3)
197 since it acts as a drag on the barotropic mode. In that case the surface drag contribution to the
198 barotropic Rossby wave source due to the baroclinic mode is simply $-\text{curl}_z(\varepsilon_{10} \mathbf{v}'_1)$. We will show
199 examples of both in diagnostics.

200

201 *b. Simple model*

202 The simple model we use in this study is based on that developed by Lee et al. (2009).
203 This is a two-level model, in which equations are recast as baroclinic and barotropic components,
204 and are linearized about prescribed background wind fields. The model is designed to simulate
205 both the local and remote stationary response of the atmosphere when forced with a localized
206 heating. In this model, the baroclinic response to tropical heating anomalies is essentially the
207 same as described by the Matsuno-Gill model (Matsuno 1966; Gill 1980) with damping used in
208 Lee et al (2009). This baroclinic response then excites a barotropic response by advective

209 interactions with vertical background wind shear (i.e., through the shear advection mechanism),
 210 and the barotropic signals are in turn transmitted to high latitudes.

211 Our modification of the Lee et al. (2009) model allows for consideration of surface drag
 212 as another mechanism of baroclinic-barotropic interactions. This was done by eliminating, from
 213 the relative vorticity equations, the linear momentum damping $-r\nabla^2\psi$ both in the upper
 214 (250mb) and lower (750mb) levels, and adding in the lower level a term $-r_s\nabla^2\psi$, where the
 215 surface drag coefficient is $r_s = (g / p_T)\rho_a C_D V_s$. Thus, in the barotropic and baroclinic vorticity
 216 equations, the linear damping coefficients r_0 and r_1 become $r_0 = r_1 = r_s / 2$. We set $r_s = (3.5\text{day})^{-1}$
 217 for $p_T = 500\text{mb}$, $C_D = 10^{-3}$, $V_s = 10\text{m s}^{-1}$. The simple model (as modified relative to Lee et al
 218 2009) is thus given by the following barotropic and baroclinic vorticity equations:

$$219 \quad \frac{1}{a \cos \theta} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} (\bar{u}_0 \nabla^2 \psi'_0 + u'_0 \nabla^2 \bar{\psi}_0) + \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (\cos \theta \bar{v}_0 \nabla^2 \psi'_0 + \cos \theta v'_0 \nabla^2 \bar{\psi}_0) \right] + 2\Omega \frac{v'_0}{a} \quad (4)$$

$$= -r_0 \nabla^2 \psi'_0 + r_0 \nabla^2 \psi'_1 + A_0 \nabla^4 \psi'_0 + F_{\psi_0}$$

$$220 \quad \frac{1}{a \cos \theta} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} (\bar{u}_1 \nabla^2 \psi'_1 + u'_1 \nabla^2 \bar{\psi}_1) + \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (\cos \theta \bar{v}_1 \nabla^2 \psi'_1 + \cos \theta v'_1 \nabla^2 \bar{\psi}_1) \right] + 2\Omega \frac{v'_1}{a} \quad (5)$$

$$= -r_1 \nabla^2 \psi'_1 + r_1 \nabla^2 \psi'_0 + A_1 \nabla^4 \psi'_1 + F_{\psi_1}$$

221 where subscripts 0 and 1 denote barotropic and baroclinic mode respectively, variables are
 222 separated into the basic state and anomaly components denoted by bar and prime terms, A_0 and
 223 A_1 are the momentum diffusion coefficient for barotropic and baroclinic motion respectively. The
 224 differences from the model in Lee et al. (2009) are the two terms $r_0 \nabla^2 \psi'_1$ and $r_1 \nabla^2 \psi'_0$ that derive
 225 from the surface drag mechanism. The F_{ψ} terms represent the vorticity tendency terms due to the

226 shear advection and vertical advection mechanisms of baroclinic-barotropic interactions. The
 227 complete form of F_{ψ_0} is:

$$\begin{aligned}
 F_{\psi_0} &= \frac{1}{a \cos \theta} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} (\bar{u}_1 \nabla^2 \psi_1' + u_1' \nabla^2 \bar{\psi}_1) + \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (\cos \theta \bar{v}_1 \nabla^2 \psi_1' + \cos \theta v_1' \nabla^2 \bar{\psi}_1) \right] \\
 228 \quad &= \frac{1}{a \cos \theta} \left\{ \nabla^2 \psi_1' \left[\frac{\partial \bar{u}_1}{\partial \lambda} + \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (\cos \theta \bar{v}_1) \right] + \nabla^2 \bar{\psi}_1 \left[\frac{\partial u_1'}{\partial \lambda} + \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (\cos \theta v_1') \right] \right. \\
 &\quad \left. + \left[\bar{u}_1 \frac{\partial \nabla^2 \psi_1'}{\partial \lambda} + \bar{v}_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (\cos \theta \nabla^2 \psi_1') \right] + \left[u_1' \frac{\partial \nabla^2 \bar{\psi}_1}{\partial \lambda} + v_1' \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (\cos \theta \nabla^2 \bar{\psi}_1) \right] \right\} \quad (6)
 \end{aligned}$$

229 The first term in the r.h.s. of (6) represents the vertical advection of anomalous baroclinic
 230 vorticity via background vertical wind. The second term represents the vertical advection of
 231 background baroclinic vorticity via anomalous vertical wind. The third term represents the zonal
 232 and meridional advection of anomalous baroclinic vorticity via background zonal and meridional
 233 shear. The fourth term represents the zonal and meridional advection of background baroclinic
 234 vorticity via anomalous zonal and meridional shear.

235 The thermodynamic equation is given by:

$$236 \quad \gamma \phi_1 + c_g^2 \nabla^2 \chi_1 = -Q \quad (7)$$

237 where γ is the thermal damping coefficient, ϕ_1 is the baroclinic geopotential, c_g is the internal
 238 gravity wave speed, χ_1 is the baroclinic divergence and Q is the diabatic heating rate. Note that
 239 the simple model is explicitly steady state and linear and omits all moisture effects. The
 240 equations (4)-(7) together with a baroclinic divergence equation (not shown here) are in a closed
 241 form and are the governing equations solved in the simple model.

242 In our simple model experiments, we are able to activate and deactivate each forcing
 243 mechanism—the surface drag, the vertical advection and the shear advection, and compare the
 244 effects of each forcing with those in the QTCM results.

245 The numerical implementation of the three versions of the simple model covers the
 246 domain from 90°S to 90°N over all longitudes, with a horizontal resolution of 4.5° latitude and
 247 4.5° longitude.

248

249 *c. Methodology*

250 We concentrate on the period of June-August (JJA), during which the tropical heating
 251 and precipitation anomalies develop to their maximum strength in the northern hemisphere
 252 summer, including in the AWP region of interest here. In JJA, the subtropical jets are strong in
 253 the southern (winter) hemisphere, which can favor the shear advection mechanism for
 254 interhemispheric teleconnections (Wang et al. 2010). Accordingly, in both the QTCM and simple
 255 model, the zonal mean of the barotropic and baroclinic wind fields are prescribed as the JJA
 256 zonal means. The time advance of the zonal mean fields in the QTCM is, therefore, bypassed.
 257 The prescribed velocities correspond to the streamfunction at the 250 and 750mb levels from the
 258 monthly NCEP-NCAR reanalysis (Kalnay et al. 1996):

259
$$\bar{u}_0 = -\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \bar{\psi}_0^{ncep} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial y} [(\bar{\psi}_{250}^{ncep} + \bar{\psi}_{750}^{ncep}) / 2] \quad (8)$$

260
$$\bar{u}_1 = -\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \bar{\psi}_1^{ncep} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial y} [(\bar{\psi}_{250}^{ncep} - \bar{\psi}_{750}^{ncep}) / 2] \quad (9)$$

261 Further, in the QTCM we replace the zonal velocity that advects the temperature gradient
262 by that corresponding to the zonal mean basic state velocity as in equations (8) and (9). This
263 procedure removes the main source term for baroclinic instability, thus reducing weather
264 variability. There are some trade-offs here. On the one hand, due to reduction in poleward fluxes,
265 more moisture is available for precipitation in the subtropics, and interactions of the
266 teleconnections with storm tracks are suppressed. On the other hand, the procedure has several
267 advantages in view of our goals. These include (i) statistically significant signals are easy to
268 detect in decadal runs, (ii) comparison to the simple model is facilitated, (iii) the basic state on
269 which wave propagation occurs is strongly constrained towards observations, and (iv)
270 interpretation in terms of stationary wave propagation is more straightforward. This should thus
271 be viewed as an intermediate step between simple models and GCMS that would potentially
272 include more complex effects such as interaction with baroclinic transients.

273

274 3. QTCM Experiments and Results

275 *a. Atlantic Warm Pool (AWP) teleconnection experiments set up*

276 In this experiment, we prescribe a Gaussian-shaped baroclinic heating anomaly as in Lee
277 et al. (2009). The anomaly amplitude is 169.2W/m^2 (which is equivalent to 6mm/day of
278 precipitation) at the center at (20°N , 70°W), and the zonal and meridional length scales are 5°
279 latitude and 15° longitude (see Fig. 1a). The model is then run for ten years using monthly
280 climatological SSTs (Reynolds and Smith 1994).

281 Figure 1b shows the precipitation response averaged over the June-August for ten years
282 in response to the prescribed heating anomalies in this experiment. It can be seen that the latent

283 heat associated with the precipitation anomalies enhance the local prescribed heating anomalies
284 to a significant extent, and thus will enhance the teleconnection response in comparison to a
285 model with dry dynamics. The shape of the heating is also slightly modified from the prescribed.
286 We return to this moist feedback effect in section 3c.

287

288 *b. AWP teleconnections analysis*

289 The JJA mean baroclinic and barotropic streamfunctions anomalies are shown in Figs. 2a
290 and 2b. The baroclinic mode resembles the Gill–Matsuno-type response (Matsuno 1966; Gill
291 1980) and is equatorially trapped with most of the signal within equatorial deformation radius.
292 An important aspect is that the off-equatorial heating projects sufficiently on the Kelvin mode (to
293 the east of the heating) and the symmetric Rossby modes (to the west) that a substantial
294 baroclinic signal crosses the equator. The barotropic mode shows an interesting pattern.
295 Typically, a pure barotropic stationary Rossby wave propagating in a westerly region of the mid-
296 latitudes in an approximately barotropic basic state will approach a critical latitude where $\bar{u} = 0$
297 and thus will not propagate directly across the region of easterlies near equator. In our
298 experiments, however, the barotropic signal has a significant component in the southern
299 hemisphere. This is because the QTCM includes a full set of forcing sources of the barotropic
300 motions through baroclinic-barotropic interactions. As mentioned in section 2a, in the model’s
301 barotropic component equation in QTCM, the three baroclinic forcing mechanisms—the shear
302 advection, surface drag, and vertical advection— actively generate barotropic wave trains in the
303 equatorial regions and within the southern hemisphere westerlies.

304 To explore the relative importance of the three mechanisms of interest in the QTCM
305 AWP experiment, we plot in Figs. 3a, 3b, 3c the amplitudes of the three terms in the r.h.s. of (3),

306 and in Figs. 4a, 4b, 4c their inverse Laplacians, i.e., the equivalent barotropic streamfunction
 307 tendency terms. Shaded areas in Figs 3 and 4 represent values that are statistically significant
 308 with a confidence level of 99% from a student's t-test. The shear advection term
 309 $-curl_z(\langle V_1^2 \rangle \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \nabla \mathbf{v}_1)'$ shows a large dipole in the tropics (Fig. 3a and 4a), roughly coincident
 310 with where the baroclinic signal is strong. The southwest to northeast angle reflects the
 311 corresponding tilt seen in Fig. 2 close to the zero contour of ψ_1 where the strong gradient in ψ_1
 312 indicates strong baroclinic wind anomalies. Thus the region of strong shear forcing reflects the
 313 heating-forced baroclinic anomalies which, while equatorially trapped, are able to propagate into
 314 the southern hemisphere where they can excite barotropic waves.

315 The magnitude of the surface drag term $-curl_z(\varepsilon_0 \mathbf{v}_0 + \varepsilon_{10} \mathbf{v}_1)'$ in Fig. 3b is not locally as
 316 large as that of the shear advection term (Fig. 3a) and vertical advection term (Fig. 3c), but its
 317 inverse Laplacian (Fig. 4b) shows large values around the heat source with amplitudes
 318 comparable with the vertical advection term. The geographical spread of the surface drag forcing
 319 is broader in both hemispheres than the two other mechanisms. Note that Figs. 3b and 4b show
 320 the net effect of surface drag mechanism, i.e., the amplitude of the baroclinic forcing
 321 $-curl_z(\varepsilon_{10} \mathbf{v}_1)'$ after compensation by linear damping $-curl_z(\varepsilon_0 \mathbf{v}_0)'$. Also note that the sign of the
 322 coefficient of transfer by surface stress between baroclinic and barotropic wind components ε_{10} is
 323 negative in order that all the turbulence terms have the same form (refer to the appendix for more
 324 detail). For a rough estimate of this compensation, comparing the amplitudes of $-\varepsilon_{10} \psi_1$ (where
 325 $\varepsilon_{10} = (-28 \text{day})^{-1}$ and ψ_1 can be approximated from the values in Fig. 2a) and $-\varepsilon_0 \psi_0$ (where
 326 $\varepsilon_0 = (5.6 \text{day})^{-1}$ and ψ_0 can be approximated from the values in Fig. 2b), indicates that the
 327 compensation effect of the linear damping can be as large as 50% of the baroclinic forcing. This

328 estimate is confirmed by Fig. 3d, showing only the baroclinic forcing component of the surface
 329 drag $-curl_z(\varepsilon_{10}\mathbf{v}'_1)$. As expected, this component is roughly twice as large locally as the total
 330 surface drag term (Fig. 3b). We can also see that the surface drag component has a significant
 331 contribution in the southern hemisphere. Thus the baroclinic forcing from the surface drag term
 332 can potentially exert a substantial impact on the generation and propagation of barotropic Rossby
 333 waves, especially in the southern hemisphere corresponding to the ψ_1 response there.

334 Finally, the vertical advection term $-curl_z(\langle V_1^2 \rangle (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}_1)\mathbf{v}'_1)$ (Figs. 3c and 4c) shows a
 335 localized forcing around the heat source where the vertical velocity is large (also see Fig. 1b for
 336 large local precipitation anomaly there). Note that some degree of compensation can occur with
 337 the surface drag term in regions of upward vertical motion where the vertical velocity term
 338 contribution $-\langle V_1^2 \rangle (\nabla \cdot \bar{\mathbf{v}}_1)curl_z\mathbf{v}'_1$ has opposite sign but similar form to $-curl_z(\varepsilon_{10}\mathbf{v}'_1)$. Far from the
 339 heat source, in certain regions of the Pacific and Indian Ocean, the vertical velocity term can still
 340 have fairly substantial contributions corresponding to the remote precipitation anomalies in those
 341 regions. The strong vertical advection forcing locally around the heat source (Fig. 3c) and the
 342 remote signals in the southern hemisphere imply that this mechanism has a substantial role in the
 343 interhemispheric teleconnections, and should not be neglected.

344

345 *c. Moist feedback*

346 The precipitation response in the QTCM AWP experiments is shown in Fig. 1b. There is
 347 clear evidence that moist processes enhance the teleconnection process. First, moist feedback
 348 enhances the prescribed anomalous heat source locally by approximately 6mm/day in this
 349 experiment, which is as large as the prescribed heat source. Second, the shape of the precipitation
 350 anomaly is stretched southwestward into eastern Pacific region. A similar feature is apparent in

351 the GCM AWP experiments in Wang et al. (2007, 2008). This precipitation anomaly is the result
352 of the Atlantic Warm Pool-induced subtropical Rossby waves propagating westward and
353 interacting with the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) in the eastern Pacific. The impact of
354 this convective heating anomaly in the eastern Pacific is further analyzed in section 3d. Third,
355 this elongated shape, and the compensating subsidence north of the precipitation anomaly are
356 consistent with the mechanism described in Chou and Neelin (2003) as the result of the
357 interaction between baroclinic Rossby wave dynamics and convective heating. The subsidence
358 may modestly impact the teleconnection patterns north of the heating anomaly by reducing the
359 baroclinic signal extent and by contributing to vertical advection. Finally, as the flow anomalies
360 produced by the teleconnections interact with moist processes remotely, e.g., advecting the basic
361 state moisture gradient, they can induce remote precipitation anomalies that can contribute to the
362 baroclinic-barotropic interaction. For instance, Fig. 1b shows precipitation anomalies in the
363 equatorial Western Pacific and in the subtropical Southeastern Pacific. The latter corresponds to
364 a significant contribution to the vertical advection forcing term in Figs. 3c and 4c in the southern
365 hemisphere.

366

367 *d. The impact of the response in the eastern Pacific ITCZ region*

368 As mentioned in section 3c, the moist feedback on the teleconnections leads to an
369 elongation of the anomalous heat source in the AWP region into the eastern Pacific ITCZ region.
370 This elongation is also seen in the AGCM experiments of Wang et al. (2007, 2008). Here, we
371 investigate quantitatively the influence of this additional heating in the ITCZ region on the AWP
372 teleconnections into the southern hemisphere. We prescribe a similar Gaussian-shaped baroclinic
373 heating anomaly with the same amplitude as in the one above the AWP, but with the center at

374 (15°N, 95°W), and scales of 3.0° latitude and 7.5° longitude. The model is then run for ten years
375 using monthly climatological SSTs (Reynolds and Smith 1994).

376 Fig. 5 shows the barotropic streamfunction response to the heating prescribed in the
377 eastern Pacific region. A comparison between this and Fig. 2b, reveals an overlap of the positive
378 and negative phases of the response induced by the two different heating regions, and confirms
379 that the induced eastern Pacific heating provides a positive feedback to the original AWP
380 heating. We have also tested the result's sensitivity to the extension of the elongation, and found
381 that the model response to a further elongation into the eastern Pacific as that in the AGCM
382 experiments of Want et al. (2007, 2008) has an extremely similar pattern (not shown).

383

384 e. *Sensitivity of the teleconnection pattern to longitudinal location of heating anomaly*

385 To explore the dependence of the teleconnection response to the heating location in
386 longitude, we perform a supplementary experiment in which the heating source is placed in the
387 central Pacific at a location 90° in longitude west of the AWP (see Fig. 6a). The precipitation
388 anomalies in this experiment are shown in Fig. 6b, while the baroclinic and barotropic
389 streamfunctions response are shown in Figs. 7a and 7b, respectively. The zonally asymmetric
390 basic state in the model can affect wave propagation, but some of the most obvious differences
391 arise in the moist response to the source. The precipitation anomalies do not show a similar
392 elongation as those in the AWP experiment (Fig. 1b), which leads to smaller zonal wavelengths
393 in the baroclinic and hence in the barotropic response (Fig. 7b). Based on the WKB theory for
394 stationary barotropic Rossby wave propagation in latitudinally varying flow, the local meridional
395 wave number $l(y)$ is given by $l(y) = \pm(\hat{\beta}\bar{u}_m^{-1} - k^2)^{1/2}$, where k is the zonal wave number, $\hat{\beta}$
396 and \bar{u}_m are basic state vorticity and zonal mean flow variables defined in Mercator coordinates

397 equivalent to the form on a beta-plane with spherical effects incorporated (Hoskins and Karoly
398 1981). The smaller zonal wavelengths (larger zonal wave number k) mean a lower turning
399 latitude because the local meridional wave number for stationary barotropic Rossby waves goes
400 to zero at smaller values of $\hat{\beta}\bar{u}_m^{-1}$. Thus the wave arc in the northern hemisphere is more zonal.
401 In the southern hemisphere, the barotropic responses in both the AWP and central Pacific
402 experiments (Figs. 2b and 7b) are qualitatively similar, but the latter one has weaker magnitudes.
403 This is partly due to the small baroclinic response in the southern hemisphere (Fig. 7a), and to
404 the absence of the vertical advection forcing sources in the southern Pacific (Figs. 3c and 4c).

405

406 4. Simple Model experiments

407 In the simple model, an identical Gaussian-shaped heating anomaly is prescribed in the
408 AWP region with a diabatic heating rate of $2.5 \times 10^{-2} \text{ W kg}^{-1}$, which is equivalent to
409 2.15 K day^{-1} at 500mb. For the simple vertical structure of this model (linear within each layer),
410 this would be roughly equivalent to 127.6 W m^{-2} using 500mb layer depth. This heating
411 anomaly is the only heat source since there is no moist feedback in the model. Recall from
412 section 2, that the model is linearized about the basic state from JJA NCEP-NCAR reanalysis
413 streamfunction averaged zonally around the globe. Other model parameters used in the present
414 study are the same as those in Lee et al. (2009) with the following exceptions. The barotropic
415 and baroclinic linear damping coefficient is set to $(3.5 \text{ day})^{-1}$ for compatibility with the QTCM;
416 and the barotropic horizontal mixing coefficient is set to $2.5 \times 10^5 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ following Wang et al
417 (2010). Altering these damping coefficients affects the rate at which the barotropic wave decays.

418 Figures 8a shows the barotropic streamfunctions response in the model with shear
419 advection mechanism, and Fig. 8b shows the corresponding values with both shear advection and
420 surface drag mechanisms included (Note that the latitude coverage is adjusted to 78.75°S to
421 78.75°N in order to compare with the QTCM results). Addition of the surface drag mechanism
422 results in a strong amplification and extension of the barotropic response in the southern
423 hemisphere. This supports the finding in the QTCM experiments that the surface drag
424 mechanism is potentially very effective in forcing the barotropic response globally, especially in
425 spreading the cross-equatorial barotropic signals.

426 Figure 8c shows the barotropic streamfunction response of the model experiment with
427 both the shear advection and the vertical advection mechanisms. Comparing with Fig. 8a, as in
428 the QTCM experiment, the vertical advection amplifies the barotropic response locally around
429 the heating area, and spreads the barotropic signals into the southern hemisphere, although the
430 impact is moderate compared to the surface drag mechanism.

431

432 5. Summary and discussion

433 We have investigated the mechanisms that control the interhemispheric
434 teleconnections from tropical heat sources. Our approach is based on the analysis of the response
435 to idealized distributions of tropical heating sources in experiments in QTCM and in a simple
436 steady-state, damped, linear stationary wave model. We concentrated primarily in the Atlantic
437 Warm Pool region to prescribe the heating because it has been identified as significant in setting
438 up interhemispheric influence in previous studies (e.g., Wang et al. 2010). The direct baroclinic
439 response to this tropical heating is approximately a Gill–Matsuno-type response (Matsuno 1966;

440 Gill 1980), which is equatorially trapped. The teleconnections to mid and high latitudes are
441 dominated by barotropic mode. The baroclinic to barotropic pathway is complex involving the
442 basic state shear with all its spatial dependence, as well as the basic state vertical velocity and
443 surface drag. In absence of basic state shear and vertical velocity and of surface drag, baroclinic
444 and barotropic components are decoupled. This makes the recent literature examining the role of
445 these interaction terms as a driver for barotropic motions from heat forced baroclinic motions
446 (e.g., Neelin and Zeng 2000, Majda and Biello 2003, Lee et al. 2009) appear very different from
447 the earlier literature that assumed upper-level divergence and related terms could be viewed as a
448 driver (e.g., Sardeshmukh and Hoskins 1988, Held and Kang 1987), often summarized as a
449 vorticity source term (the "Rossby wave source") for a single-level barotropic equation. Here we
450 diagnose the interaction terms as a consistent vorticity source for the barotropic mode in a
451 primitive equation model that has an explicit vertical mode decomposition. In addition to explicit
452 computation of the interaction terms as in earlier theoretical studies, the study retains a complex
453 three-dimensional basic state and moist processes for a quantitative examination.

454 The interaction-term framework results in some very substantial differences in the way
455 one views the teleconnections generated by anomalous heating. First, it should be noted that
456 upper-level divergence in the baroclinic mode does not necessarily drive a response in the
457 barotropic mode, as is commonly assumed, unless appropriate conditions such as basic state
458 shear occur in the regions of descent. Furthermore, for interhemispheric teleconnections or
459 tropical to mid-latitude teleconnections, the first leg of the teleconnection occurs in the baroclinic
460 mode. Equatorially trapped baroclinic waves can be responsible for most of the propagation
461 within regions where low-frequency barotropic modes are evanescent, including across the
462 equator. Diagnosis of interaction terms as a forcing in the barotropic equation in the QTCM

463 results then allows us to identify the relative importance of each mechanism in exciting the
464 barotropic mode: the shear advection mechanism, the surface drag mechanism and the vertical
465 advection mechanism. In these results, the Rossby wave source in the barotropic equation due to
466 shear advection roughly coincides with the baroclinic signal in the tropics and subtropics, and
467 thus can be effective in contributing to the southern hemisphere response to an Atlantic Warm
468 Pool heat source. The barotropic Rossby wave source due to surface drag is more broadly
469 spatially spread, essentially reflecting the contribution of the baroclinic mode to low-level wind,
470 and has large enough magnitude to provide a substantial forcing mechanism for interhemispheric
471 teleconnections. Last, the barotropic Rossby wave source due to vertical advection is significant
472 in locations where the climatological vertical velocity and vertical shear are both large. These
473 mechanisms were further examined by modifying the simple model to include the surface drag
474 and vertical advection one by one, and by comparing their effects with the shear advection
475 mechanism. The results from the simple model provide support to the interpretation of QTCM
476 results.

477 The QTCM results also allowed for an assessment of effects that moist feedbacks can
478 have in such interhemispheric teleconnections. Moist processes strengthen the initial heating
479 locally. In the Atlantic Warm Pool experiment, the region of anomalous heating is extended
480 westward by the induced precipitation anomalies in the Eastern Pacific ITCZ region. This
481 amplifies the original teleconnection response, as shown if these anomalies are applied
482 separately. Such an effect depends on the regional basic state: it does not occur for a similar
483 initial anomaly applied in the central Pacific. Additional moist feedbacks can occur remotely. In
484 the Atlantic warm pool experiment, induced precipitation anomalies are obtained in both the
485 equatorial Western Pacific and the subtropical Eastern Pacific. The latter contribute to the

486 vertical advection forcing of barotropic motions in the southern hemisphere. The total moist
487 feedback on the teleconnection process is thus able to alter significantly the teleconnection
488 response to tropical heating.

489

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494

495 APPENDIX

496 QTCM equations

497 QTCM is a nonlinear tropical circulation model that makes use of constraints from a
498 particular QE convective scheme, the Betts-Miller scheme, but does not assume that convective
499 QE has to hold. To achieve this, temperature, velocity and moisture are expanded in terms of a
500 truncated series of basis functions in the vertical:

$$501 \quad T = T_r(p) + \sum_{k=1}^K a_k(p) T_k(x, y, t) \quad (\text{A1})$$

$$502 \quad \mathbf{v} = \sum_{k=0}^L V_k(p) \mathbf{v}_k(x, y, t) \quad (\text{A2})$$

$$503 \quad q = q_r(p) + \sum_{k=1}^K b_k(p) q_k(x, y, t) \quad (\text{A3})$$

504 The model simply takes analytical solutions that hold approximately under QE conditions and
 505 employs them as leading basis functions to represent the vertical structure of the flow.

506 For the standard version of QTCM1, a single deep convective mode is retained in the
 507 vertical thermodynamic structure (i.e., $T = T_r(p) + a_1(p)T_1(x, y, t)$) with two components (barotropic
 508 $V_0(p)$ and baroclinic $V_1(p)$) in the vertical structure of velocity. Discretization of the moisture
 509 equation is largely independent. The model simply chooses a truncation for the moisture
 510 equation to have a similar level of complexity as for the temperature equation.

511 Using V_0 and V_1 as the basis functions, the momentum equations are projected onto these
 512 (i.e., taking the inner product of the momentum equation with V_0 and V_1 respectively) to obtain
 513 the prognostic equations for barotropic wind component and baroclinic wind component:

$$514 \quad \partial_t \zeta_0 + \text{curl}_z(\mathcal{D}_{V_0}(\mathbf{v}_0, \mathbf{v}_1)) + \beta v_0 = -\text{curl}_z(\varepsilon_0 \mathbf{v}_0) - \text{curl}_z(\varepsilon_{10} \mathbf{v}_1) \quad (\text{A4})$$

$$515 \quad \partial_t \mathbf{v}_1 + \mathcal{D}_{V_1}(\mathbf{v}_0, \mathbf{v}_1) + f \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{v}_1 = -\kappa \nabla T_1 - \varepsilon_1 \mathbf{v}_1 - \varepsilon_{01} \mathbf{v}_0 \quad (\text{A5})$$

516 where the advection-diffusion operators are given by:

$$517 \quad \mathcal{D}_{V_0}(\mathbf{v}_0, \mathbf{v}_1) = \mathbf{v}_0 \cdot \nabla \mathbf{v}_0 + \langle V_1^2 \rangle \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \nabla \mathbf{v}_1 + \langle V_1^2 \rangle (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}_1) \mathbf{v}_1 - K_H \nabla^2 \mathbf{v}_0 \quad (\text{A6})$$

$$518 \quad \mathcal{D}_{V_1}(\mathbf{v}_0, \mathbf{v}_1) = \mathbf{v}_0 \cdot \nabla \mathbf{v}_1 + \frac{\langle V_1^3 \rangle}{\langle V_1^2 \rangle} \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \nabla \mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \nabla \mathbf{v}_0 - \left(\langle V_1 \Omega_1 \partial_p V_1 \rangle / \langle V_1^2 \rangle \right) (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}_1) \mathbf{v}_1 - K_H \nabla^2 \mathbf{v}_1 \quad (\text{A7})$$

519 vertical averages over the troposphere are defined as:

$$520 \quad \hat{X} = \langle X \rangle = p_T^{-1} \int_{p_n}^{p_n} X dp \quad (\text{A8})$$

521 and $\Omega_1(p)$ represents the vertical structure of vertical velocity from the baroclinic wind. Because
 522 vertical velocity is diagnostic in the primitive equations, solving the continuity equation gives:

523
$$\omega_1(x, y, p, t) = -\Omega_1(p) \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}_1(x, y, t) \quad (\text{A9})$$

524
$$\text{and } \Omega_1(p) = -\int_p^{p_s} V_1(p) dp \quad (\text{A10})$$

525 Two of the terms arising from vertical transfer of momentum to surface stress by parameterized
 526 subgrid-scale turbulence in the barotropic equation are defined as:

527
$$\varepsilon_0 = (g / p_T) \rho_a C_D V_s \quad (\text{A11})$$

528
$$\varepsilon_{10} = (g / p_T) \rho_a C_D V_s V_{1s} \quad (\text{A12})$$

529 where V_s is calculated as $\sqrt{u_s^2 + v_s^2 + V_{s\min}^2}$, and V_{1s} is value of the baroclinic basis function V_1 at
 530 surface. The surface drag coefficient C_D changes according to land surface type. The sign of ε_0
 531 and ε_{10} are set as opposite in the model in order that the two surface drag terms has the same
 532 form.

533 Vertically integrating the temperature and moisture equations from the standard nonlinear
 534 primitive equations, with vertical velocity and velocity truncated at V_1 yields:

535
$$\hat{a}_1(\partial_t + \mathcal{D}_{T1})T_1 + M_{s1} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 = \langle Q_c \rangle + (g / p_T) \times (-R_t^\uparrow - R_s^\downarrow + R_s^\uparrow + S_t - S_s + H) \quad (\text{A13})$$

536
$$\hat{b}_1(\partial_t + \mathcal{D}_{q1})q_1 + M_{q1} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 = \langle Q_q \rangle + (g / p_T) E \quad (\text{A14})$$

537 where the advection-diffusion operators are, respectively:

538
$$\mathcal{D}_{T1} = \mathbf{v}_0 \cdot \nabla + \hat{a}_1^{-1} \langle a_1 V_1 \rangle \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \nabla - K_H \nabla^2 \quad (\text{A15})$$

539
$$\mathcal{D}_{q1} = \mathbf{v}_0 \cdot \nabla + \hat{b}_1^{-1} \langle b_1 V_1 \rangle \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \nabla - K_H \nabla^2 \quad (\text{A16})$$

540 and the dry static stability M_{s1} and the gross moisture stratification M_{q1} are given by, respectively:

541
$$M_{s1} = p_T^{-1} \int_{p_n}^{p_{rs}} \Omega_1(-\partial_p s) dp \quad (\text{A17})$$

542
$$M_{q1} = p_T^{-1} \int_{p_n}^{p_{rs}} \Omega_1(-\partial_p q) dp \quad (\text{A18})$$

543 where $s = T + \phi$ is the dry static energy, with ϕ the geopotential. The moist convective
 544 parameterization projects the Betts – Miller scheme onto the basis functions of temperature and
 545 moisture, resulting in:

546
$$\langle Q_c \rangle = -\langle Q_q \rangle = \varepsilon_c^* (q_1 - T_1) \quad (\text{A19})$$

547 where $\varepsilon_c^* \equiv \hat{a}_1 \hat{b}_1 (\hat{a}_1 + \hat{b}_1)^{-1} \varepsilon_c$ and $\varepsilon_c = \tau_c^{-1} \mathcal{H}(C_1)$, with τ_c the convective adjustment time, $\mathcal{H}(C_1)$ a
 548 Heaviside function that represents the dependence of convection on conditional instability in the
 549 column, and C_1 a measure of CAPE for this model. Detailed treatment and parameterization of
 550 other terms on the right hand side of the temperature and moisture equations can be found in
 551 Neelin and Zeng (2000).

552

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643 **List of Figures**

644 FIG. 1. (a) The Gaussian-shaped baroclinic heating anomaly prescribed in the Atlantic Warm
645 Pool region in QTCM, the amplitude at the center (20°N, 70°W) is equivalent to 6mm/day of
646 precipitation (i.e., 169.2W/m²). (b) The precipitation anomalies in QTCM AWP experiment,
647 negative contour lines are dashed. The contour intervals in both are 1mm/day (the 0.5mm/day
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649 FIG. 2. The baroclinic streamfunction anomalies (a) and barotropic streamfunction anomalies (b)
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652 FIG. 3. The three forcing sources in the QTCM AWP experiment: (a) shear advection; (b)
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654 explanation). Negative contour lines are dashed. The contour intervals are $2 \times 10^{-12} \text{ s}^{-2}$ within
655 $\pm 4 \times 10^{-12} \text{ s}^{-2}$ and $4 \times 10^{-12} \text{ s}^{-2}$ outside $\pm 4 \times 10^{-12} \text{ s}^{-2}$ in all four panels. Shaded areas represent values
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658 shear advection; (b) surface drag; (c) vertical advection. Negative contour lines are dashed. The
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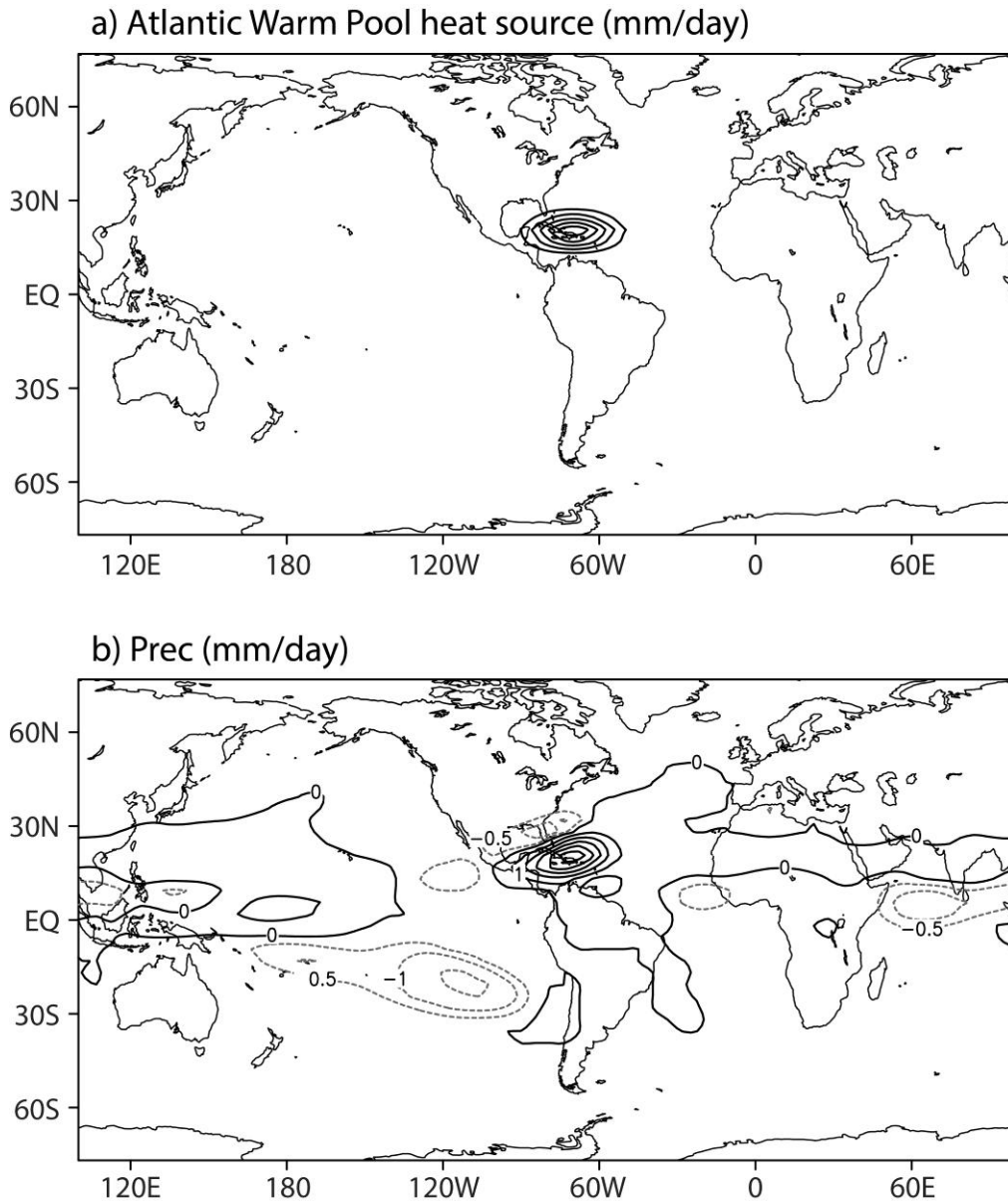
662 FIG. 5. The barotropic streamfunction anomalies in the Eastern Pacific experiment in QTCM.
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664 heating prescribed in the eastern Pacific, with interval 1mm/day.

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666 region. (b) Precipitation anomalies in the central Pacific experiment in the QTCM. Negative
667 contour lines are dashed. The contour intervals are both 1mm/day.

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669 in the central Pacific experiment in QTCM. Negative contour lines are dashed. The contour
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672 shear advection; (b) with shear advection and surface drag mechanisms; (c) with shear advection
673 and vertical advection mechanisms. Negative contour lines are dashed. The contour intervals are
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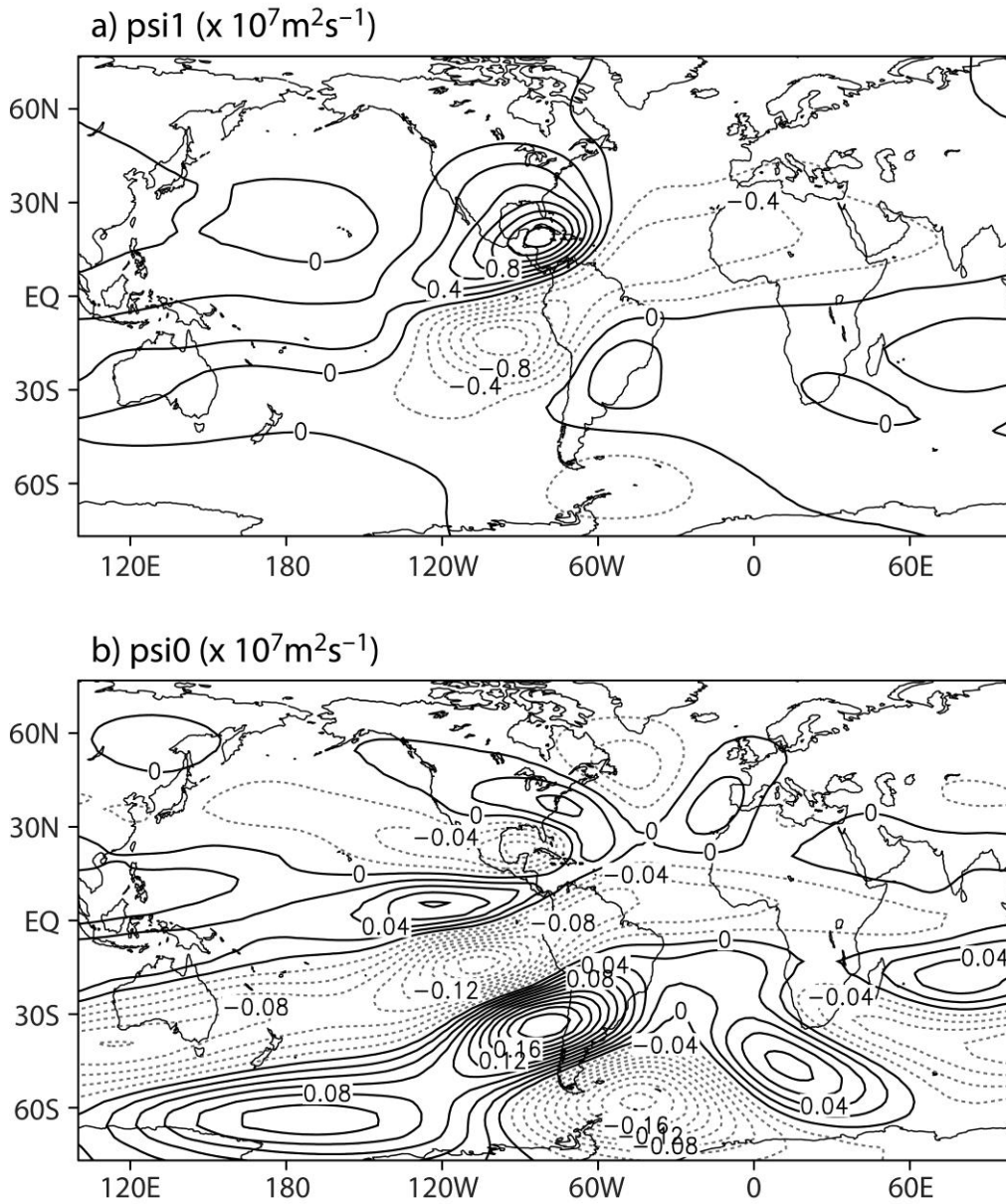
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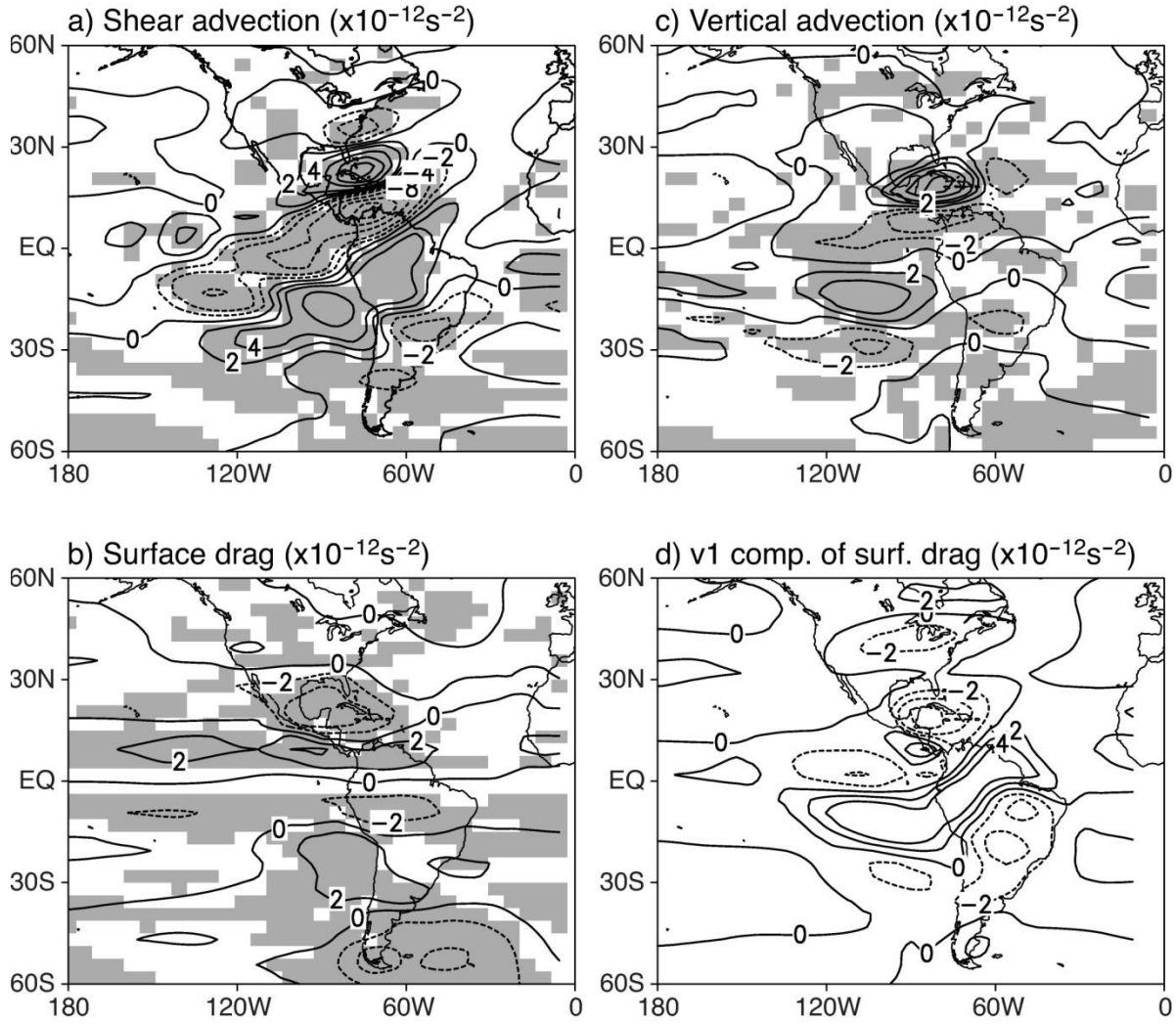


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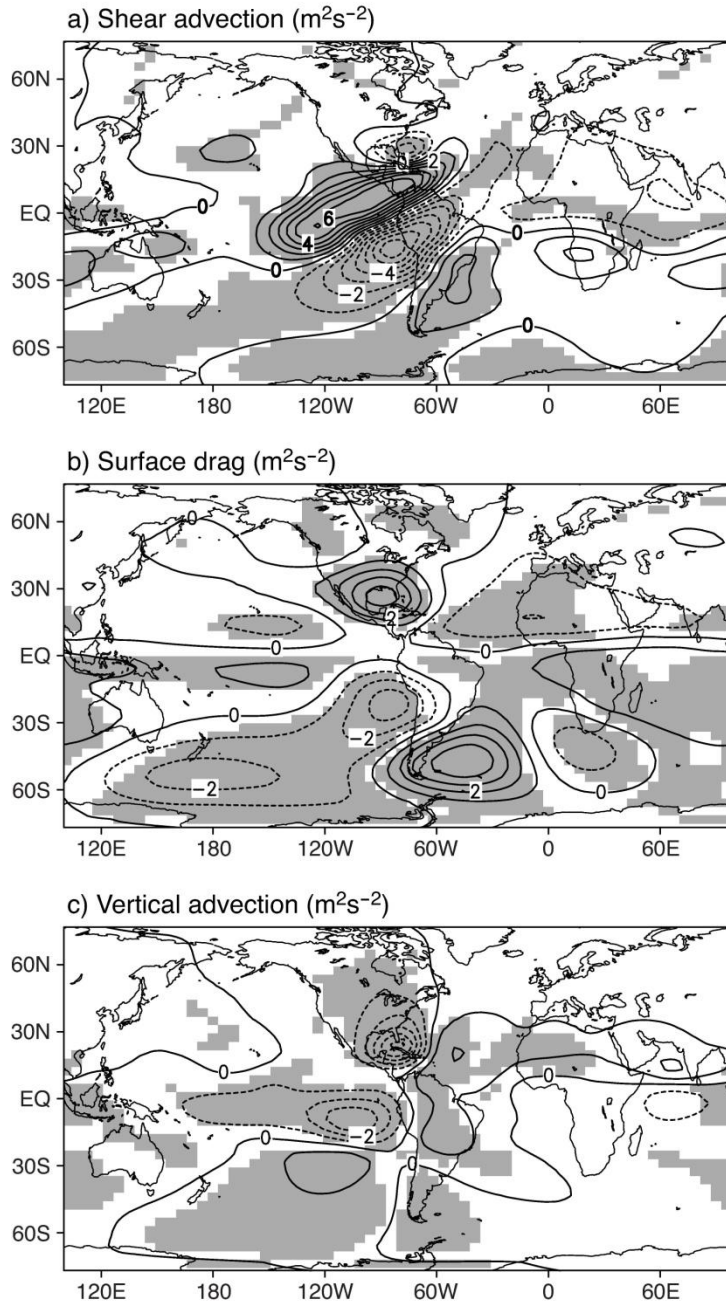
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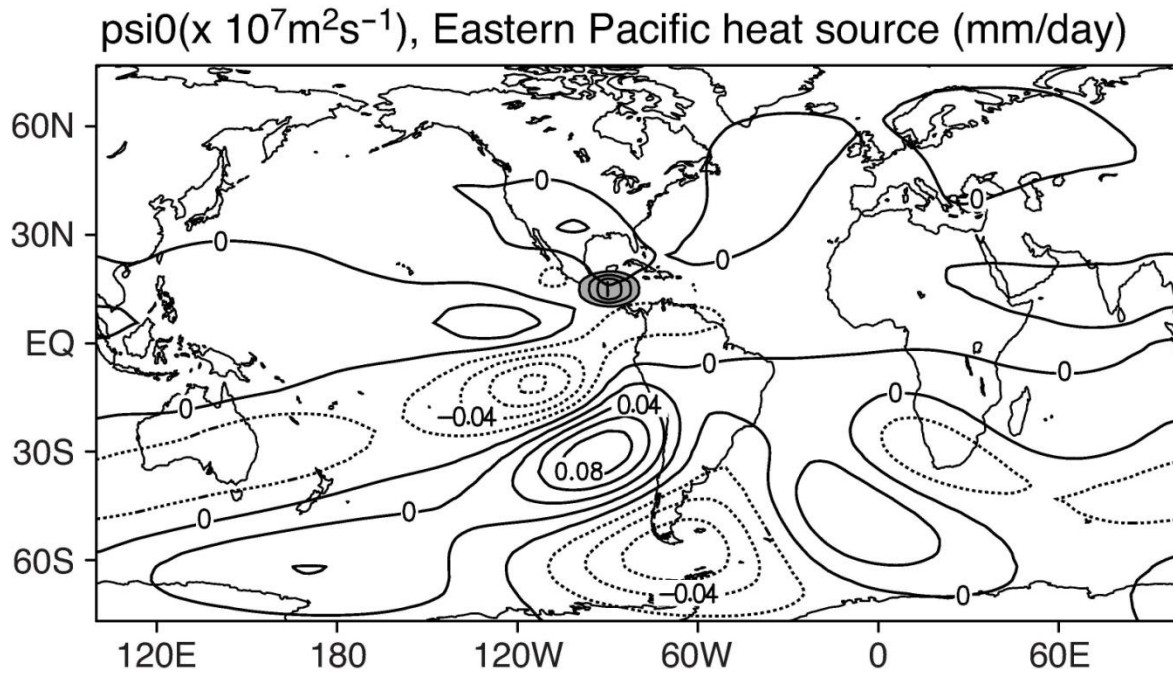
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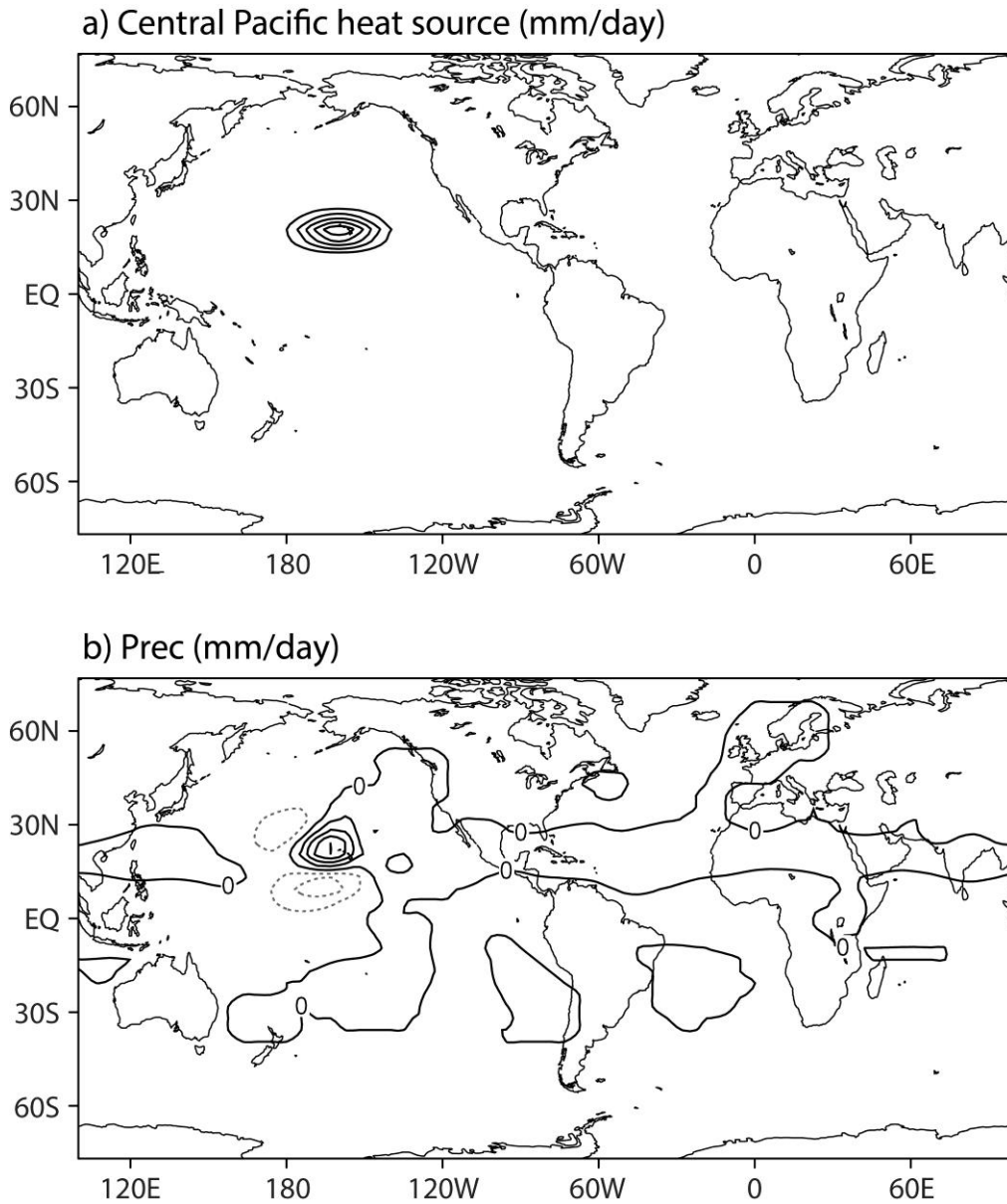
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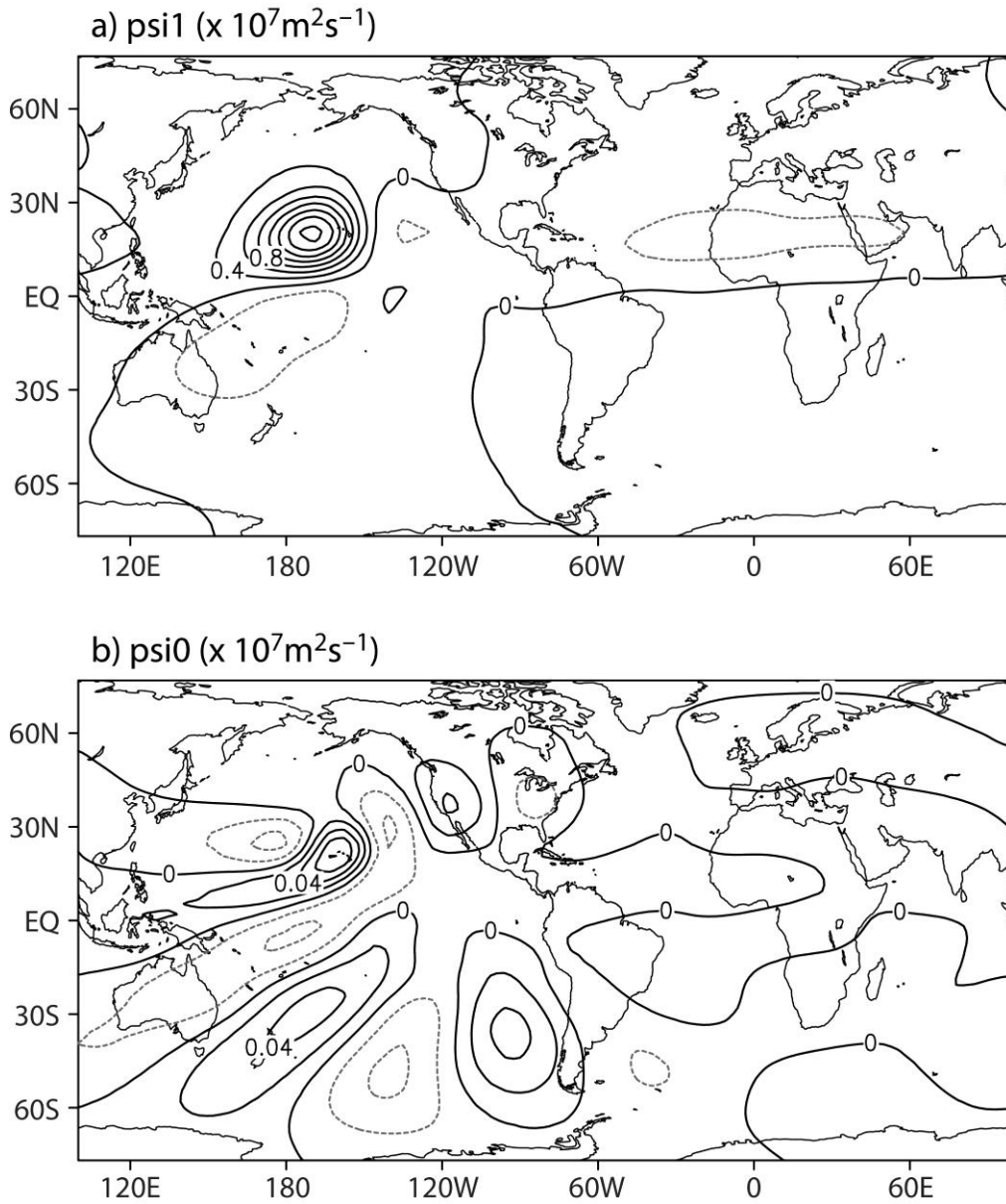


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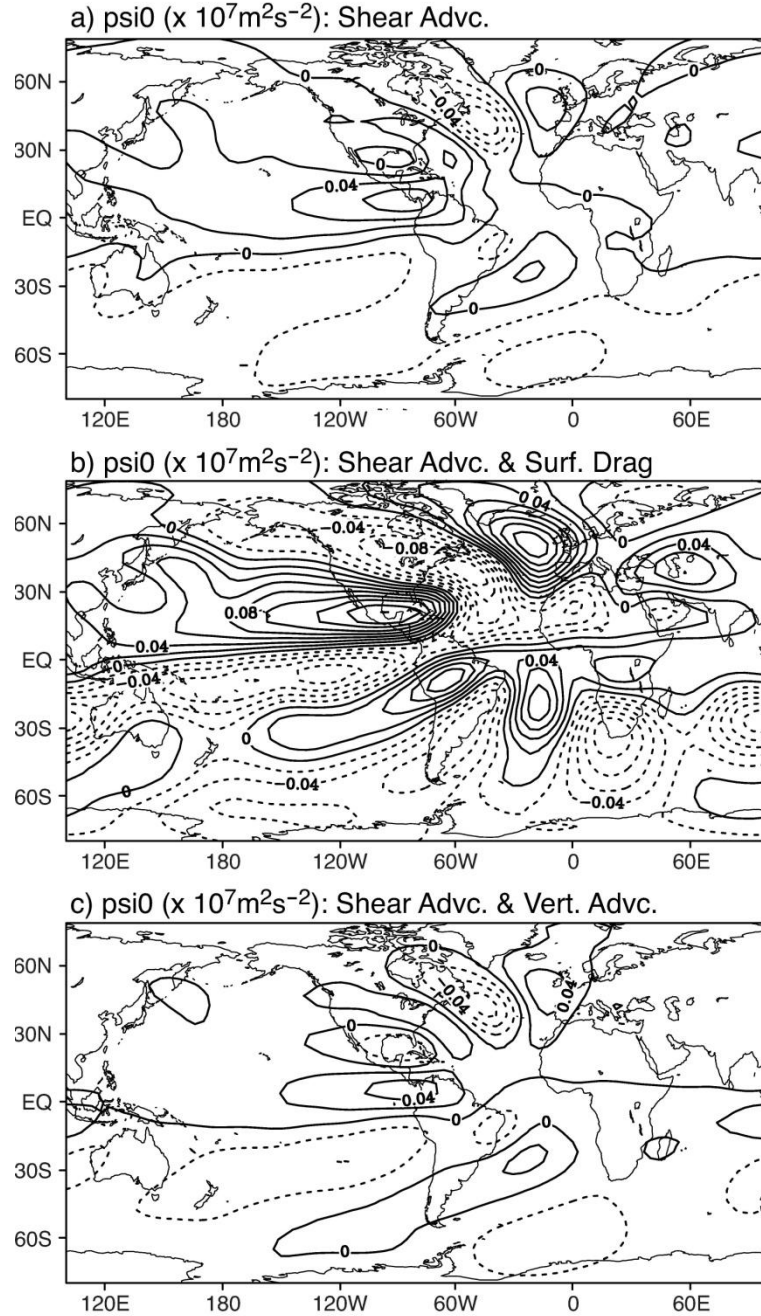
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