

# Journal of Climate

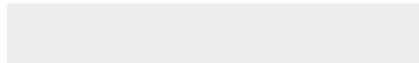
## Enhanced Efficacy Amplifies Tropical Cyclones Intensification in Warmer Climates --Manuscript Draft--

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<b>Abstract:</b>	<p>Tropical cyclones (TCs) are expected to intensify in a warming climate as sea surface temperatures (SSTs) rise. Potential intensity (PI), the thermodynamic upper limit on storm strength, has long been used to assess how environmental conditions constrain TC intensity. However, a storm's realized strength also depends on the efficacy in approaching its PI. Using a high-resolution (25 km) global TC-permitting model, we show that uniform SST warming strengthens TCs through concurrent increases in PI and efficacy, leading to a marked rise in the frequency of Category 3–5 storms. The increased efficacy persists even when changes in wind shear and ventilation effects are accounted for, indicating that changes in TC ventilation is not a primary driver for the increased efficacy. This dual increase in thermodynamic limits and storm efficacy underscores the importance of considering both PI and efficacy when projecting future TC risks, as considering only increased PI may underestimate intensification in a warmer climate. The development of a theory for the environmental controls on efficacy is needed to close our theoretical expectation and extract the greatest predictability for the response of TC intensity to climate change and variations.</p>
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1 **Enhanced Efficacy Amplifies Tropical Cyclones Intensification in Warmer Climates**

2

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13

14 **Abstract**

15 Tropical cyclones (TCs) are expected to intensify in a warming climate as sea surface  
16 temperatures (SSTs) rise. Potential intensity (PI), the thermodynamic upper limit on storm  
17 strength, has long been used to assess how environmental conditions constrain TC intensity.  
18 However, a storm’s realized strength also depends on the efficacy in approaching its PI. Using a  
19 high-resolution (25 km) global TC-permitting model, we show that uniform SST warming  
20 strengthens TCs through concurrent increases in PI and efficacy, leading to a marked rise in the  
21 frequency of Category 3–5 storms. The increased efficacy persists even when changes in wind  
22 shear and ventilation effects are accounted for, indicating that changes in TC ventilation is not a  
23 primary driver for the increased efficacy. This dual increase in thermodynamic limits and storm  
24 efficacy underscores the importance of considering both PI and efficacy when projecting future  
25 TC risks, as considering only increased PI may underestimate intensification in a warmer climate.  
26 The development of a theory for the environmental controls on efficacy is needed to close our  
27 theoretical expectation and extract the greatest predictability for the response of TC intensity to  
28 climate change and variations.

29 **Significance Statement**

30 Tropical cyclones (including hurricanes and typhoons) are expected to get stronger as the  
31 oceans warm (e.g. (Knutson et al. 2020)). A prediction for this expected increase in TC intensity  
32 was based on the theory of potential intensity (PI) (Emanuel 1999). PI can serve as a basis to  
33 estimate and interpret TC intensity change under given environmental conditions. But a storm’s  
34 actual strength also depends on how efficiently it can use this available energy, which is referred  
35 to as relative intensity ( $r$ ), or efficacy—the ratio of actual intensity to PI. Using a high-resolution  
36 climate model, we find that warming oceans not only raise the ceiling for storm strength (higher  
37 PI) but also make storms more efficient at reaching this limit (higher  $r$ ). Importantly, this increase  
38 in efficacy is not explained by changes in wind shear or ventilation, but by the fact that warmer  
39 oceans provide favorable conditions for longer periods of time. Together, in this model, these  
40 effects lead to stronger and more frequent major hurricanes (Category 3–5). This means that  
41 climate projections based only on PI may underestimate the risks posed by tropical cyclones in a  
42 warming world.

43

44 **1. Introduction**

45 Tropical cyclones (TCs) are powerful convective systems characterized by concentrated  
46 water vapor and deep cloudiness, producing severe impacts through intense winds, heavy rainfall,  
47 and storm surges. Understanding the physical mechanisms that govern TC development—and how  
48 these storms respond to rising greenhouse gas concentrations and warming sea surface  
49 temperatures (SSTs)—is essential for improving climate projections and mitigating TC-related  
50 risks.

51 Projections of future TC activity remain uncertain (Camargo et al. 2023; Knutson et al.  
52 2020), partly due to limitations in the spatial resolution of global climate models (Roberts et al.  
53 2020). Environmental indicators from coarse-resolution models have suggested a potential decline  
54 in global TC frequency under a high-emission scenario (Camargo et al. 2025). In contrast, several  
55 studies suggest an increase in the occurrence of rapid intensification events across multiple ocean  
56 basins (Bhatia et al. 2022; Song et al. 2020). Results from downscaled model projections indicate  
57 an increase in both TC frequency and severity (Emanuel 2021). Observational data also indicate a  
58 trend toward more intense TCs, likely linked to rising SSTs that foster favorable conditions for TC  
59 genesis and intensification (Elsner et al. 2008; Knutson et al. 2019; Knutson et al. 2010; Kossin et  
60 al. 2013; Walsh et al. 2016).

61 The physical mechanisms underlying TC development can be framed in terms of  
62 interactions among radiation, surface fluxes, wind, and moist static energy (Wing et al. 2016).  
63 Local diabatic heating through reduced longwave cooling and enhanced surface fluxes typically  
64 promotes TC growth (Carstens and Wing 2020; Dai et al. 2025; Hsieh et al. 2023; Hsu and Wu  
65 2025; Rios et al. 2025; Ruppert et al. 2020; Vecchi et al. 2019; Wing 2022; Wing et al. 2016; Wu  
66 and Soden 2024; Wu et al. 2021; Zhang et al. 2023; Zhang et al. 2021). Beyond these local  
67 processes, the geographic distribution of TCs is sensitive to the spatial pattern of SST anomalies  
68 (Eusebi et al. 2025; Hsieh et al. 2024; Kieu et al. 2023; Vecchi and Soden 2007; Zhao and Knutson  
69 2024). For instance, a persistent “La Niña-like” warming pattern may increase near-term TC  
70 hazards in coastal Asia and the Atlantic basin (Lin et al. 2025). However, global climate models  
71 often exhibit biases in SST spatial patterns compared to observations (Wills et al. 2022; Zhuo et  
72 al. 2025), and the origins of these biases remain unclear.

73 While SST spatial patterns shape TC distribution, the response to uniform SST warming  
74 provides an important baseline for understanding thermodynamic and dynamical controls on TCs.  
75 Advances in high-performance computing and modeling have enabled the development of high-  
76 resolution models (with grid spacing  $\sim 25$  km or finer), which have led to overall improvements in  
77 the simulation of TCs (Chen and Lin 2013; Murakami et al. 2015; Roberts et al. 2020; Roberts et  
78 al. 2025a; Vecchi et al. 2019). While global cloud-resolving models explicitly resolve deep  
79 convection, their computational cost limits long-term experiments. As a practical alternative, high-  
80 resolution climate models have been proposed as a bridge between coarse-resolution simulations  
81 and cloud-resolving models (Roberts et al. 2025b). These models offer an opportunity to  
82 investigate TC responses to changes in the background climate state, and further exploration using  
83 state-of-the-art modeling frameworks is ongoing.

84 In this study, we use a 25-km resolution global TC-permitting model (AM2.5-25km) to  
85 investigate TC responses to uniform SST warming, with a focus on changes in TC intensity. We  
86 demonstrate that stronger TCs under warming arise not only from increases in potential intensity  
87 (PI)—the thermodynamic upper bound on storm strength—but also from increases in relative  
88 intensity ( $r$ ), defined as the ratio of realized TC intensity to PI. This highlights the need to account  
89 for both thermodynamic limits and storm efficacy when assessing TC risks in a warming climate.  
90 Section 2 describes the model and methods. Section 3 show the results. We summarize our findings  
91 and add discussion in Section 4.

## 92 **2. Methods**

### 93 **2.1 Model and Experiment**

94 The AM2.5 model, developed at the NOAA’s Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory,  
95 serves as the atmospheric component of the CM2.5 ocean-atmosphere coupled model (Delworth  
96 2012; Putman and Lin 2007). In this study, we use a high-resolution version of AM2.5 with a  
97 horizontal grid spacing of approximately 25 km (referred to as AM2.5-25km), with output  
98 regridded to  $0.3125^\circ$  longitude by  $0.25^\circ$  latitude for analysis. When driven by historical SSTs,  
99 AM2.5-25km realistically captures the annual cycle (Yang et al. 2021), the geographic distribution  
100 (Hsieh et al. 2022), and past multidecadal variations in TCs (Chan et al. 2021; Kortum et al. 2024)  
101 compared to observations.

102 We begin with a Control simulation that uses prescribed monthly climatological SSTs and  
103 sea ice from the Hadley Centre Sea Ice and Sea Surface Temperature (HadISST) dataset (Rayner  
104 et al. 2003), averaged over the 20-year period from 1986 to 2005. To assess TC responses to  
105 warming, we conduct a second simulation (plus2K) in which a uniform 2 K increase is added to  
106 the climatological SSTs. Each simulation is integrated for 50 years. To assess changes in large-  
107 scale environmental conditions, we also analyze simulations from the Atmospheric Model  
108 Intercomparison Project (AMIP), a component of the CMIP6 baseline experiments (Eyring et al.  
109 2016), along with corresponding simulations forced with a uniform 4 K increase in SSTs (amip-  
110 p4K). Additional details of these simulations are provided in Supplementary Table 1.

## 111 **2.2 TC Tracker**

112 TCs simulated in AM2.5-25km are tracked by a method developed by Harris et al. (2016).  
113 This method uses instantaneous 6-hourly outputs of sea level pressure, mid-tropospheric  
114 temperature, 850 hPa vorticity, and 10-m zonal and meridional winds to track high cyclonic  
115 vorticity features. Typically, the high cyclonic vorticity is accompanied with a sea-level pressure  
116 minimum, a warm core in the middle troposphere and strong near-surface winds. The threshold  
117 regarding 10-meter maximum wind speed is set as  $17 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ . In addition, we set the minimum warm  
118 core temperature anomaly relative to the surrounding environment at 2K. The parameters settings  
119 are consistent with Vecchi et al. (2019) to capture a global TC frequency consistent with  
120 observations in this model. AM2.5-25km can simulate major TCs (Saffir-Simpson Category 3–5)  
121 with lifetime maximum intensity exceeding  $50 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ . In this study, we focus on the response of  
122 Category 3–5 storms to background warming.

## 123 **2.3 PI and vPI Calculation**

124 PI represents the theoretical maximum wind speed a TC can achieve, conceptualized by  
125 treating the storm as a thermodynamic heat engine. Because of its strong correlation with observed  
126 TC intensities, PI is widely used to diagnose and project TC climatology and variability. In this  
127 study, PI is computed following the algorithm of Gilford (2021), based on the formulation of Bister  
128 and Emanuel (1998). The calculation requires four primary inputs: SST, mean sea level pressure,  
129 and vertical profiles of atmospheric temperature and water vapor. SST is prescribed as the surface  
130 boundary condition, and specific humidity is used in place of mixing ratio. All inputs are taken  
131 from monthly means. Key assumptions and parameter choices include: 1) the ratio of surface

132 exchange coefficients of enthalpy to momentum is set to the default value of 0.9; 2) dissipative  
 133 heating is included; 3) air parcels are assumed to ascend pseudo-adiabatically; 4) the minimum  
 134 outflow pressure level is capped at 50 hPa. If a parcel remains convectively unstable at this level,  
 135 the TC outflow level is assumed to be at 50 hPa, and the calculation is terminated. The algorithm  
 136 outputs PI as a scaled gradient wind speed, using a default surface reduction factor of 0.8. It also  
 137 provides the corresponding minimum central pressure, outflow temperature, and outflow pressure  
 138 level.

139 While PI sets the theoretical upper bound on TC intensity, other environmental and storm-  
 140 scale factors can inhibit intensification. In particular, ventilation, the intrusion of dry air into the  
 141 storm's core, can inhibit TC intensification. This effect is commonly quantified using the  
 142 ventilation index (VI; (Tang and Emanuel 2012)):

$$143 \quad VI = \frac{V_s \chi_m}{PI} \quad (1)$$

144 where  $V_s$  is the magnitude of the vertical wind shear between 850 hPa and 200 hPa, and  $\chi_m$  is the  
 145 entropy deficit at 600 hPa:

$$154 \quad \chi_m = \frac{s_m^* - s_{m,env}}{s_{SST}^* - s_b} \quad (2)$$

146 where  $s_m^* - s_{m,env}$  is the difference between the saturation entropy (with relative humidity = 1)  
 147 and the environmental entropy at 600 hPa,  $s_{SST}^* - s_b$  the difference between the saturation entropy  
 148 at SST and the entropy of the boundary layer air parcel (surface air temperature at 2m; or surface  
 149 air temperature). Details of the entropy calculation can be found in Tang and Emanuel (2012). To  
 150 incorporate the weakening effect of ventilation on PI, Chavas (2017) introduced the concept of  
 151 ventilated potential intensity (vPI). The full derivation is presented in Chavas (2017). An analytic  
 152 solution for vPI as a function of PI and VI was later provided by Komacek et al. (2020) and Garcia  
 153 et al. (2024), and formalized in Chavas et al. (2025):

$$155 \quad vPI = \left(x + \frac{1}{3x}\right) PI \quad (3)$$

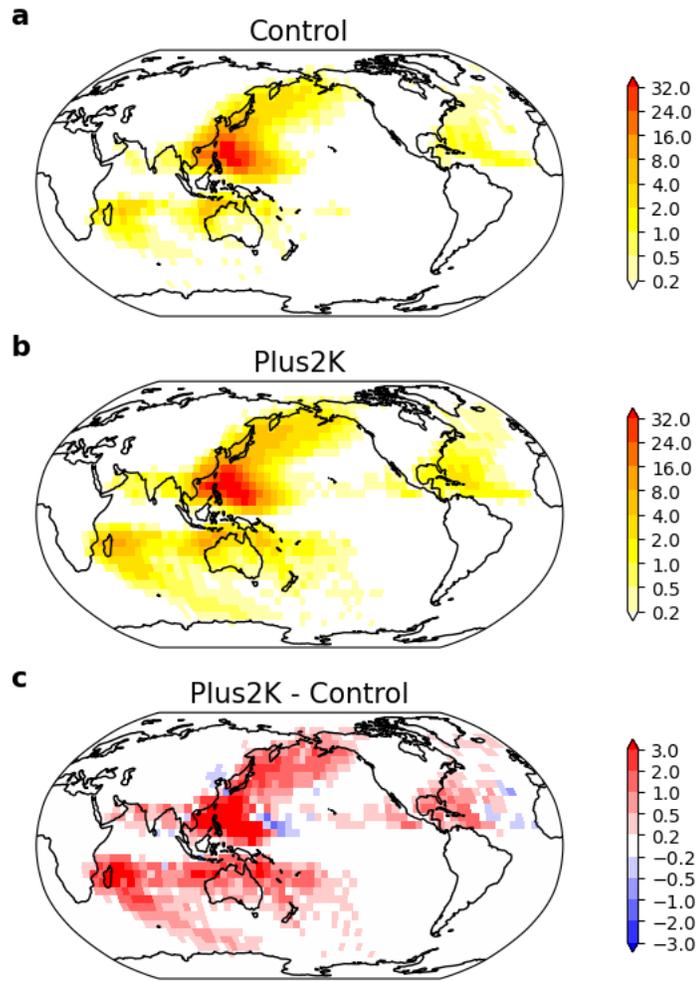
$$156 \quad x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \left\{ \sqrt{\left[\left(\frac{VI}{VI_{max}}\right)^2 - 1\right]} - \left(\frac{VI}{VI_{max}}\right) \right\}^{\frac{1}{3}} \quad (4)$$

157 where  $VI_{\max}$  is the threshold ventilation index above which vPI is zero. Following Hoogewind et  
158 al. (2020) and Chavas et al. (2025), we adopt  $VI_{\max} = 0.145$ . In this study, we use equations (3)  
159 and (4) to compute vPI, providing a more physically realistic estimate of the maximum TC  
160 intensity by explicitly incorporating ventilation effects.

### 161 **3. Results**

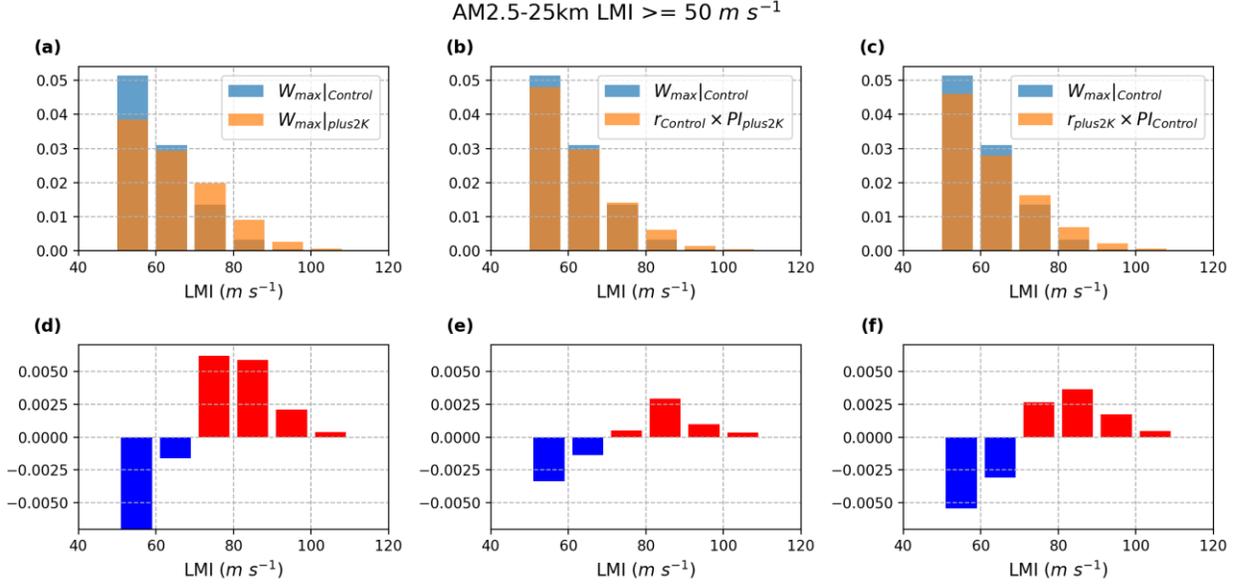
162 Figure 1 shows the track density of major TCs, i.e., Category 3-5 TCs with lifetime  
163 maximum intensity ( $w_{\max}$ ) exceeding  $50 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  from the Control and plus2K simulations. In the  
164 Control simulation (Figure 1a), major TC activity is concentrated primarily over the Indo-Pacific  
165 warm pool, including the western North Pacific and the South Indian Ocean, with comparatively  
166 lower activity in the North Atlantic and other basins. Under uniform 2K SST warming, the spatial  
167 distribution of major TCs remains broadly similar, but the track density increases across most  
168 active regions (Figure 1b). The difference plot highlights a global increase in Category 3–5 TC  
169 occurrence, with particularly notable increases over the western Pacific, South Indian Ocean, and  
170 parts of the North Atlantic (Figure 1c). These results suggest that uniform SST warming enhances  
171 environmental conditions favorable for the development of major TCs.

AM2.5-25km Major TCs Track Density



172

173 Figure 1 Maps of annual mean track density for major TCs (i.e., Category 3-5 TCs with  $w_{max} \geq$   
174  $50 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) in (a) Control, (b) plus2K, and (c) plus2K minus Control. Track density is computed as  
175 the number of Category 3–5 TC tracks within each  $5^\circ \times 5^\circ$  boxes.



176

177 Figure 2 Lifetime maximum intensity probabilities distributions for (a) Control and plus2K, (b)  
 178 Control and the reconstructed  $w_{\max}|_{p2K}$  computed by Eq. 4, and (c) Control and the reconstructed  
 179  $w_{\max}|_{p2K}$  computed by Eq. 5. The corresponding difference are shown in (d), (e) and (f) respectively.

180

We next examine changes in lifetime maximum intensity ( $w_{\max}$ ). With SST warming, the  
 181 distribution of  $w_{\max}$  shifts toward higher values, with instances of  $w_{\max}|_{\text{plus2K}}$  exceeding  
 182  $70 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  occurring more frequently (Figure 2a). To better interpret this shift, we analyze the role  
 183 of relative intensity ( $r$ ), defined as the ratio of a TC's  $w_{\max}$  to its corresponding PI. The amplitude  
 184 of  $r$  quantifies how efficiently a storm approaches its theoretical thermodynamic limit (DeMaria  
 185 and Kaplan 1994). Given values of PI and  $r$ , the maximum wind speed of a TC can be calculated  
 186 as:

187

$$w_{\max} = r \times \text{PI}. \quad (5)$$

188

This relationship provides a framework for separating the contributions of PI and  $r$  to TC  
 189 intensification under warming. For each simulation (Control and plus2K), Eq. 5 becomes  
 190  $w_{\max}|_{\text{Control}} = r_{\text{Control}} \times \text{PI}_{\text{Control}}$  and  $w_{\max}|_{\text{plus2K}} = r_{\text{plus2K}} \times \text{PI}_{\text{plus2K}}$ .

191

To isolate the respective roles of PI and  $r$  in TC intensification, we reconstruct  $w_{\max}|_{\text{plus2K}}$   
 192 under two different assumptions:

193

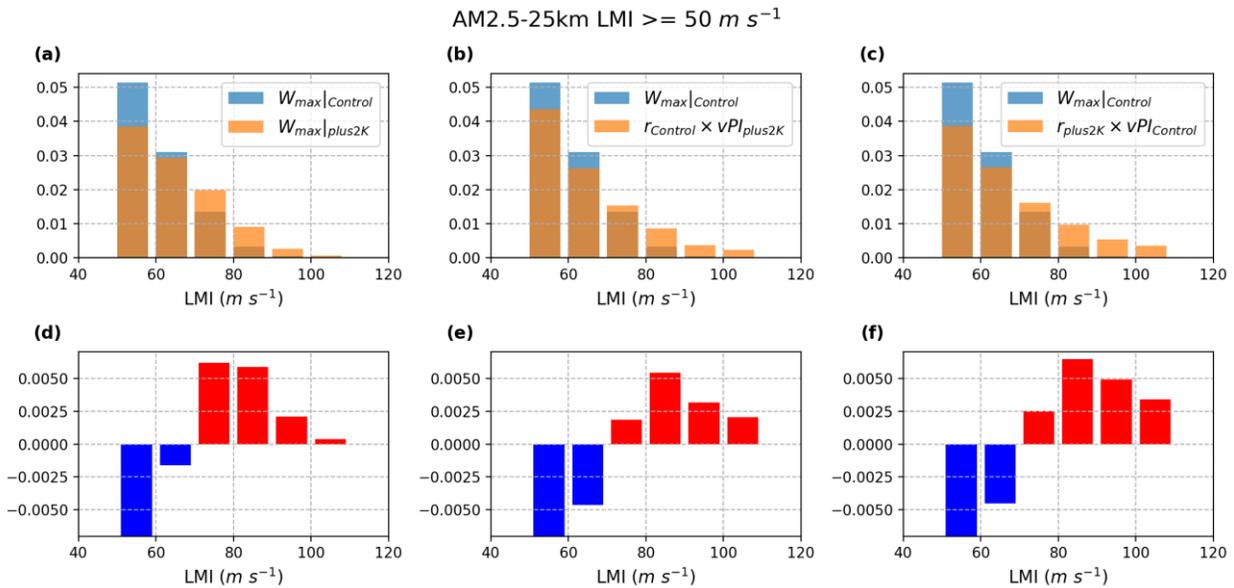
1) Fixed  $r$  (using Control  $r$ ) – isolating the effect of changes in PI,  $w_{\max}|_{\text{plus2K}_{\text{fixed}_r}} =$

194

$r_{\text{Control}} \times \text{PI}_{\text{plus2K}}$ ;

195 2) Fixed PI (using Control PI) – isolating the effect of changes in  $r$ ,  $w_{\max}|_{\text{plus2K\_fixed\_PI}} =$   
 196  $r_{\text{plus2K}} \times \text{PI}_{\text{Control}}$ .

197 This decomposition quantifies the relative contributions of thermodynamic potential (PI)  
 198 and storm efficacy ( $r$ ) to TC intensification in a warmer climate. Figure 2b compares  $w_{\max}|_{\text{Control}}$   
 199 and  $w_{\max}|_{\text{plus2K\_fixed\_r}}$ , isolating the effect of increased PI while holding  $r$  constant. Under this  
 200 scenario, the increase in TC intensity is attributed entirely to enhanced thermodynamic potential.  
 201 The distribution of  $w_{\max}|_{\text{plus2K\_fixed\_r}}$  shifts clearly toward higher intensities (see Figure 2e for  
 202 the difference), indicating that elevated PI alone can drive stronger storms under uniform SST  
 203 warming. In contrast, Figure 2c compares  $w_{\max}|_{\text{Control}}$  and  $w_{\max}|_{\text{plus2K\_fixed\_PI}}$ , isolating the  
 204 impact of  $r$  by keeping PI fixed. This case represents a scenario where the large-scale environment  
 205 remains unchanged, but TCs become more efficient at converting available energy into wind. The  
 206 resulting distribution of  $w_{\max}|_{\text{plus2K\_fixed\_PI}}$  also shifts toward higher values (see Figure 2f for the  
 207 difference), indicating that increased storm efficacy contributes to stronger TCs with SST  
 208 warming. Together, these results demonstrate that both higher PI and enhanced  $r$  contribute  
 209 substantially and complementarily to the increase in TC intensity under uniform SST warming.



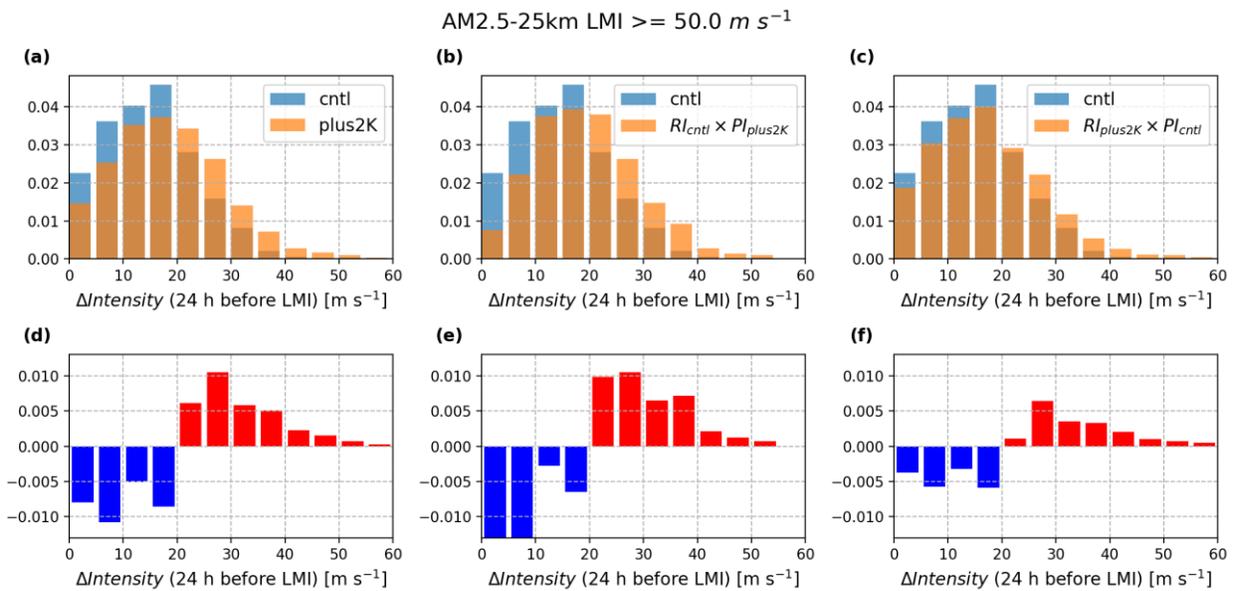
210  
 211 Figure 3 Same as Figure 2 but using vPI instead of PI.

212 To test whether ventilation alters this conclusion, we repeat the decomposition using vPI  
 213 in place of PI (Figure 3). Results are qualitatively similar: both vPI and  $r$  changes contribute  
 214 comparably to the shift of  $w_{\max}$  towards larger values with SST warming (Figure 3e and 3f). This

215 consistency indicates that changes in TC efficacy under SST warming are largely insensitive to  
 216 ventilation effects.

217 The combined contribution of higher PI and enhanced efficacy are also reflected in the  
 218 rapid intensification process. Here, rapid intensification is measured by intensity change 24 hours  
 219 before a TC's lifetime maximum intensity ( $w_{max}$ ). We show that rapid intensification becomes  
 220 stronger with SST warming, with 24-hour intensity change greater than  $20 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  happens more  
 221 frequently in plus2K (Figure 4a). Similarly, to quantify the respective roles of PI and  $r$  in the rapid  
 222 intensification process, we compute the intensity change in plus2K using  $w_{max}|_{plus2K_{fixed\_r}}$  in  
 223 Figure 4b and  $w_{max}|_{plus2K_{fixed\_PI}}$  in Figure 4c. It shows that changes in PI are roughly twice as  
 224 important as changes in efficacy in driving stronger rapid intensification in plus2K (Figure 4e and  
 225 Figure 4f).

226

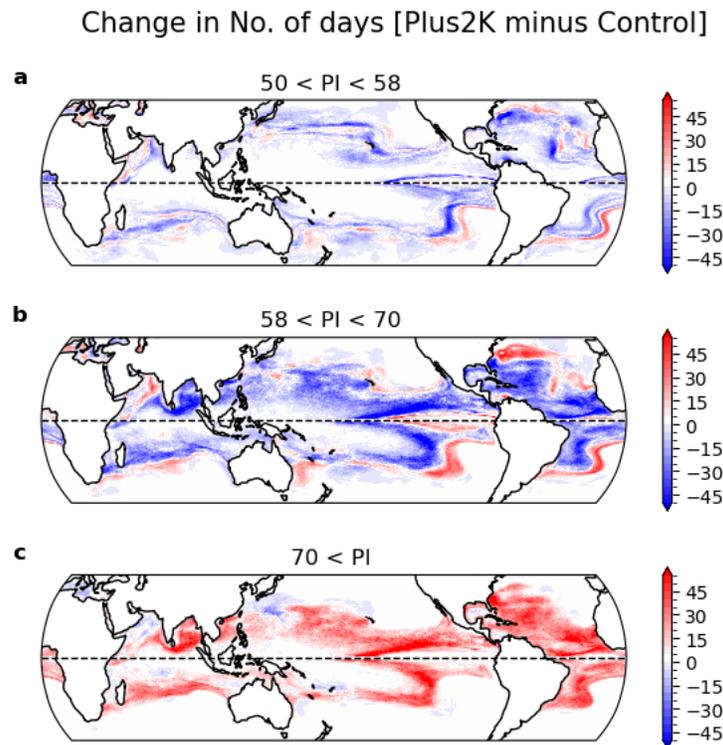


227

228 Figure 4 Intensity change 24 hours before LMI for (a) Control and plus2K, (b) Control and the  
 229 reconstructed  $w_{max}|_{p2K}$  computed by Eq. 4, and (c) Control and the reconstructed  $w_{max}|_{p2K}$   
 230 computed by Eq. 5. The corresponding difference are shown in (d), (e) and (f) respectively.

231 So why does SST warming enhance the efficacy of TCs in gaining energy and drive  
 232 stronger rapid intensification? One hypothesis is that warmer SST increases the probability of any  
 233 given day having a major PI. In other words, the number of days with high PI values increase with  
 234 SST warming. To test this, we calculate daily PI and count the number of days when PI exceeds a  
 235 threshold indicative of conditions supportive of major TCs over a fixed seasonal window. For the

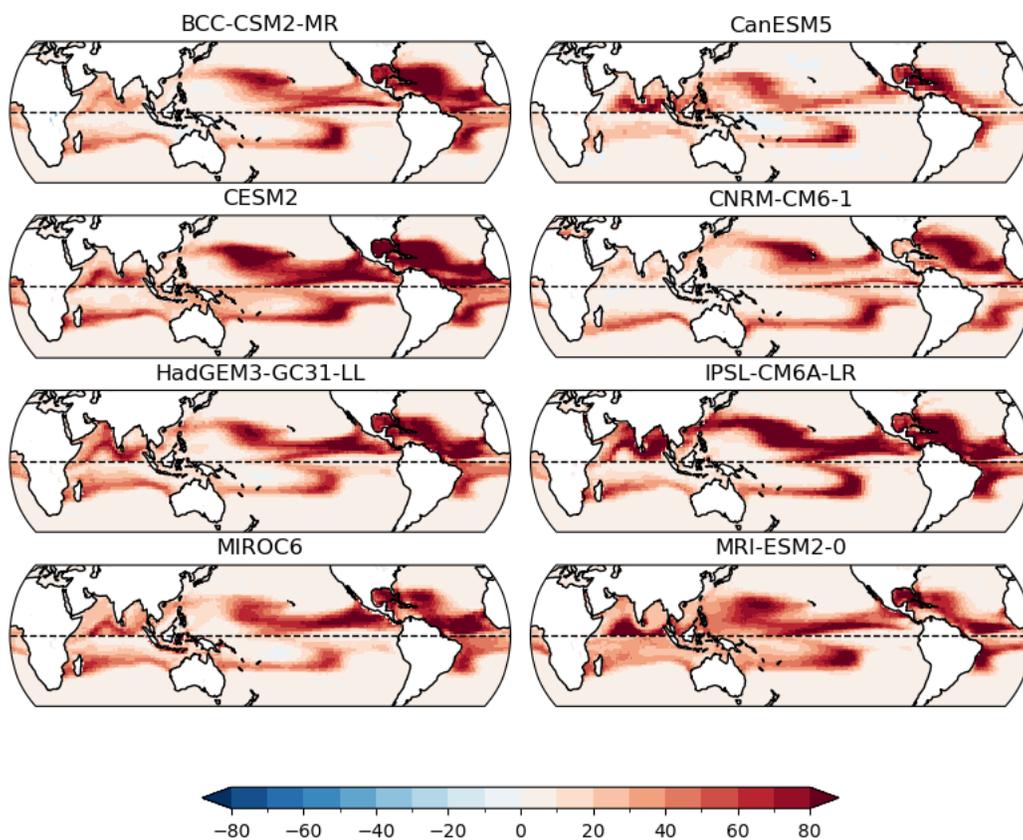
236 Northern Hemisphere, we consider June 1<sup>st</sup> to November 30<sup>th</sup>, and for the Southern Hemisphere it  
 237 is January 1<sup>st</sup> to May 31<sup>st</sup>. Figure 5 shows that plus2K has substantially more high-PI days than  
 238 Control, confirming that the probability of any given day having a major PI increases with SST  
 239 warming. This increase is not unique to AM2.5-25km. To test the robustness of our results, we  
 240 analyze daily PI from CMIP6 amip and amip-p4K experiments, which prescribe observed SSTs  
 241 and uniformly warmed SSTs by +4 K, respectively. Nearly all models simulate an increase in high-  
 242 PI days under +4 K SST warming (Figure 6), indicating that the thermodynamic availability of  
 243 major TC conditions increases consistently across models. Together, the increased probability of  
 244 major TCs can be attributed to increased probability of any given day having a major PI and  
 245 increased probability of higher efficacy.



246

247 Figure 5 Change in number of days with (a)  $50 < PI < 58 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , (b)  $58 < PI < 70 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , and  
 248 (c)  $70 < PI$  between plus2K and Control in AM2.5-25km. Note the period of interest in the  
 249 Northern Hemisphere is from June 1st to November 30th while that in the Southern Hemisphere  
 250 is from January 1st to May 31st.

Change in No. of days with PI > 70  $m s^{-1}$   
 [amip-p4k minus amip]



251

252 Figure 6 Change in the number of days with PI greater than 70  $m s^{-1}$  across the CMIP6 models.

253

#### 254 4. Summary

255 We examine how major TCs, defined as Category 3–5 storms with lifetime maximum  
 256 intensity ( $w_{max}$ ) exceeding 50  $m s^{-1}$ , respond to uniform SST warming using the high-resolution  
 257 (25-km) global climate model AM2.5-25km. Under +2 K uniform SST warming, the frequency of  
 258 major TCs increases notably, particularly over the western Pacific warm pool. In addition, the  
 259 distribution of TC intensity shifts toward stronger storms, reflected by more cases reaching higher  
 260  $w_{max}$  values.

261 To diagnose the drivers of more intense TCs with SST warming, we focus on two metrics:  
 262 potential intensity (PI), the thermodynamic upper bound on storm strength, and relative intensity  
 263 ( $r$ ) or efficacy, the ratio of actual intensity to PI. Decomposing changes in storm intensity reveals

264 that both enhanced PI and increased efficacy contribute substantially to TC strengthening. If PI  
265 rises while  $r$  remains fixed, intensification arises solely from higher thermodynamic potential.  
266 Conversely, if PI is fixed but  $r$  increases, intensification reflects improved efficacy in converting  
267 available energy into storm winds. Our analysis shows that while elevated PI strengthens storms,  
268 increased efficacy is also important. The rise in efficacy does not appear to result from mean  
269 changes in vertical wind shear or ventilation. Using ventilated PI (vPI), which accounts for the  
270 effect of dry-air intrusions, yields result consistent with the PI-based framework, confirming that  
271 the  $r$  increase is robust to large-scale circulation changes. The enhanced efficacy also contributes  
272 to stronger and more frequent rapid intensification events under SST warming.

273 In the plus2K simulation, the number of days when PI exceeds thresholds favorable for  
274 major TC development increases markedly. A similar increase in high-PI days is found across  
275 CMIP6 AMIP and AMIP-p4K simulations, underscoring the robustness of this response.  
276 Consequently, both the increased likelihood of higher efficacy and the increased frequency of  
277 high-PI conditions contribute to the greater probability of major TCs. This dual contribution  
278 suggests that assuming a simple proportionality between storm intensity and PI may underestimate  
279 future TC risks. Accurate projections of TC activity therefore require accounting for both rising  
280 thermodynamic limits and evolving storm–environment interactions, as captured by the efficacy  
281 with which TCs extract energy from their environment.

## 282 **Acknowledgments**

283 GAV and WY are supported in part by the Heising-Simons Foundation.

## 284 **Availability Statement**

285 The simulations were performed and archived on Princeton University’s high-performance  
286 computing system. All data, including the tracked tropical cyclone outputs, are available upon  
287 request. The AM2.5-25km model code is publicly accessible at: [https://www.gfdl.noaa.gov/cm2-  
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