

Can we explain the observed methane variability after the Mount Pinatubo eruption?

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Abstract. The CH₄ growth rate in the atmosphere showed large variations after the Pinatubo eruption in June 1991. A decrease of more than 10 ppb yr⁻¹ in the growth rate over the course of 1992 was reported and a partial recovery in the following year. Although several reasons have been proposed to explain the evolution of CH₄ after the eruption, their contributions to the observed variations are not yet resolved. CH₄ is removed from the atmosphere by the reaction with tropospheric OH, which in turn is produced by O₃ photolysis under UV radiation. The CH₄ removal after the Pinatubo eruption might have been affected by changes in tropospheric UV levels due to the presence of stratospheric SO₂ and sulfate aerosols, and due to enhanced ozone depletion on Pinatubo aerosols. The perturbed climate after the eruption also altered both sources and sinks of atmospheric CH₄. Furthermore, CH₄ concentrations were influenced by other factors of natural variability in that period, such as ENSO and biomass burning events. Emissions of CO, NO_x and NMVOCs also affected CH₄ concentrations indirectly by influencing tropospheric OH levels.

Potential drivers of CH₄ variability are investigated using the TM5 global chemistry model. The contribution that each driver had to the global CH₄ variability during the period 1990 to 1995 is quantified. We find that a decrease of 8-10 ppb yr⁻¹ CH₄ is explained by a combination of the above processes. However, the timing of the minimum growth rate is found 6-9 months later than observed. The long-term decrease in CH₄ growth rate over the period 1990 to 1995 is well captured and can be attributed to an increase in OH concentrations over this time period. Potential uncertainties in our modelled CH₄ growth rate include emissions of CH₄ from wetlands, biomass burning emissions of CH₄ and other compounds, biogenic NMVOC and the sensitivity of OH to NMVOC emission changes. Two inventories are used for CH₄ emissions from wetlands, ORCHIDEE and

LPJ, to investigate the role of uncertainties in these emissions. Although the higher climate sensitivity of ORCHIDEE improves the simulated CH₄ growth rate change after Pinatubo, none of the two inventories properly captures the observed CH₄ variability in this period.

25 1 Introduction

Methane (CH₄) is the second most important anthropogenic greenhouse gas after carbon dioxide (CO₂). Its evolution in the atmosphere since the beginning of the record of continuous atmospheric CH₄ measurements in the 1980s is not fully understood, with large discrepancies between bottom-up and top-down estimates of CH₄ sources and sinks (Kirschke et al., 2013). One of the events that
30 affected CH₄ concentrations was the eruption of Mt. Pinatubo on 15 June 1991, the largest eruption in the last century. The eruption caused perturbations to climate and photochemistry for a few years afterwards. We investigate here the sensitivity of CH₄ concentrations to these perturbations, and our ability to explain the observed CH₄ variations in the atmosphere in the early 1990s.

After a stable CH₄ growth rate of 10 to 13 ppb yr⁻¹ in the late 1980s, the growth rate showed large
35 fluctuations in the early 1990s. An increased CH₄ growth rate of about 17 ppb yr⁻¹ was registered by the NOAA network in 1991, followed by a strong decline in the growth rate during the next year, with values reaching nearly zero (Dlugokencky et al., 1994). The growth rate recovered to 6 ppb yr⁻¹ in 1993. Processes driving these variations could be related to either the CH₄ sources or the CH₄ sinks.

40 CH₄ is emitted to the atmosphere from anthropogenic activities (fossil fuel production, agriculture and waste treatment), biomass burning, and from natural sources (wetlands, geological activity, termites). The main sink of atmospheric CH₄ is the reaction with the hydroxyl radical (OH) in the troposphere, which removes about 80% of the CH₄. Other removal processes are soil uptake, reactions with chlorine (Cl) in both the troposphere and stratosphere, and reactions with OH and excited
45 oxygen (O(¹D)) atoms in the stratosphere. Tropospheric OH is produced by the photolysis of ozone (O₃) at wavelengths of 280-320 nm, followed by the reaction of O(¹D) with water vapour. Therefore the abundance of OH in the troposphere is sensitive both to the amount of incoming UV radiation and to the water vapour abundance. Tropospheric OH also reacts with other atmospheric compounds such as carbon monoxide (CO) and non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOC), and is re-
50 cycled in the presence of nitrogen oxides (NO_x). Thus, changes in the emissions of NO_x, CO and NMVOCs also affect the OH abundance (Lelieveld et al., 2002).

Interannual variations in both the sources and sinks of CH₄ occurred in the early 1990s. In part, these can be related to the Pinatubo eruption, which caused a decrease in tropospheric temperatures of about 0.5°C globally in the two following years (McCormick et al., 1995). The global cooling
55 most likely resulted in a decrease in the CH₄ emission rates from wetlands. Methane emissions

from wetlands might have also been inhibited by the deposition of volcanic sulfur from the eruption (Gauci et al., 2008).

The removal of CH₄ by OH is a temperature-dependent reaction which was also affected by the temperature decrease after the eruption. OH production would have further responded to the decrease in water vapour associated with the temperature reduction (Soden et al., 2002). The climate anomaly after Pinatubo might have affected natural emissions of other species as well, such as NMVOC emissions from vegetation, which may in turn have caused changes in OH and thus the CH₄ sink. Changes in UV radiation due to stratospheric aerosols and stratospheric O₃ anomalies would have also affected the removal of CH₄ by OH in the post-Pinatubo years (Dlugokencky et al., 1996; Bekki et al., 1994; Bândă et al., 2014, from here on referred to as B14). Stratospheric O₃ variations in this period were caused by heterogeneous removal on volcanic aerosol particles, by atmospheric transport changes due to the eruption, and by other factors of natural variability (Telford et al., 2009; Bekki and Pyle, 1994).

Another potential effect of the eruption on the CH₄ budget is altered transport between the troposphere and the stratosphere due to the stratospheric warming by volcanic particles (Schauffler and Daniel, 1994). CH₄ concentrations in the post-Pinatubo period were also affected by natural variability not related to Pinatubo, such as the 11-year solar cycle, the El-Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) cycle and biomass burning events. Significant reductions in the anthropogenic emissions from gas production and distribution in the Former Soviet Union (FSU) might have occurred in this period (Law and Nisbet, 1996). However, gaps in reporting make the magnitude and timing of these reductions quite uncertain.

Previous bottom-up studies quantified the impact of individual processes on the CH₄ abundance, without attempting to solve the whole CH₄ budget. Bekki and Law (1997) found compensating effects of temperature on the CH₄ emissions and the CH₄ removal by OH on a global scale. Dlugokencky et al. (1996) showed that the increase in both CH₄ and CO mixing ratios in late 1991 and early 1992 could be related to a decrease in OH due to UV scattering by stratospheric aerosols and UV absorption by sulfur dioxide (SO₂) from the eruption. A more recent estimate from B14 finds a decrease of 11.2 and 6.6 Tg, respectively, in the CH₄ removal in the first and second years following the eruption due to stratospheric sulfur. The above decreases in CH₄ removal translate into corresponding increases of 4 and 2 ppb yr⁻¹, respectively, in the CH₄ growth rate. Here and in the remainder of the paper, we use the ratio of 2.78 Tg/ppb reported by the IPCC (Denman et al., 2007) to convert from CH₄ burden changes to growth rate variations. Using a two-dimensional model, Bekki et al. (1994) attributed half of the decrease in CH₄ and CO growth rates in 1992 to stratospheric O₃ depletion. Additionally, Dlugokencky et al. (1994) and Law and Nisbet (1996) estimated that a decrease in the gas leak emissions from the FSU could be in the order of 15 Tg yr⁻¹, and would also explain part of the observed decrease in the CH₄ growth rate in 1992. Using a 4-box model,

Schauffler and Daniel (1994) found that an increase in the exchange rate between stratosphere and troposphere due to volcanic aerosol heating can cause lower CH₄ concentrations in the troposphere.

Prior attempts to explain the CH₄ variability in this period include inverse modelling studies and a column model study. The inverse modelling studies of Bousquet et al. (2006) and Wang et al. (2004) (B06 and W04 from here on, respectively) find a positive anomaly in the CH₄ flux to the atmosphere in 1991, and a negative anomaly in 1992, with a difference of about 30 Tg between the two years. Both studies find a significant contribution from wetland emissions to this anomaly and a small contribution from biomass burning. However, the two studies use OH variations of opposite sign. The OH fields in B06 are determined by methyl chloroform inversions, showing a reduced OH sink of CH₄ of about 30 Tg yr⁻¹ over the period 1991 to 1993 compared to 1990. To close the CH₄ budget, their anthropogenic and wetland CH₄ emissions also show pronounced decreases. When using both CH₄ and methyl chloroform to constrain OH, Pison et al. (2013) found a more moderate OH variability. In W04, OH is parameterised based on chemical and meteorological parameters with coefficients determined from 3D model simulations. W04 find an increase of about 5% in OH from 1991 to 1993 due to stratospheric O₃ depletion. Stratospheric aerosols from the eruption are, however, not included as a parameter in their calculation. Our previous column model study (Bândă et al., 2013) supports a decrease in OH in the first year after the eruption due to aerosols, temperature and water vapour changes, and a subsequent decrease due to stratospheric O₃ depletion. In that study we found that the stratospheric O₃ depletion together with changes in anthropogenic emissions could explain a 12 ppb yr⁻¹ decrease in 1993 compared to 1991. However, the one-dimensional model was unable to capture the strong CH₄ decrease in 1992.

In the present study, we quantify the combined impact of the drivers of CH₄ variability described above in the early 1990s using the global chemistry and transport model TM5 and we identify the potential gaps in our understanding of the CH₄ budget. For the first time, all the known processes that could have significantly contributed to the CH₄ variations in the early 1990s are included in a modelling study.

The manuscript is structured as follows. A description of the TM5 model is presented in Section 2.1 and of the simulation setup in Section 2.2. Section 2.3 describes the drivers that have been considered to explain the observed CH₄ variability, and Section 3.1 presents their impact on the simulated CH₄ budget. The unexplained CH₄ variability is shown in Section 3.2, and possible reasons for mismatch between the model and observations are discussed in Section 4. Conclusions are drawn in Section 5.

2 Method

125 2.1 Model description

The TM5 global chemistry and transport model (Huijnen et al., 2010; Williams et al., 2012; van Noije et al., 2014) was used to simulate the chemical composition of the atmosphere during the period 1990 to 1995. The model was run on 60 hybrid sigma-pressure vertical levels and at a horizontal resolution of $3^\circ \times 2^\circ$ (longitude x latitude) globally, except for the polar region, where a reduced grid was used for advection in the zonal direction. The model was driven by meteorological fields from the
130 ECMWF ERA-Interim reanalysis (Dee et al., 2011). The gas-phase chemistry scheme is based on a modified version of the carbon bond mechanism 4 (Houweling et al., 1998). Photolysis frequencies are calculated by the on-line parameterisation scheme based on Williams et al. (2006). To account for missing O_3 chemistry in the stratosphere, O_3 is nudged to the multi sensor reanalysis data (MSR;
135 van der A et al., 2010) above the 45 hPa level in the tropics ($30^\circ S$ - $30^\circ N$) and above the 90 hPa level in the extra-tropics. CH_4 is also nudged above these pressure levels to climatological values from Groöb and Russell III (2005) to compensate for possible errors in stratospheric chemistry, specifically the loss of CH_4 by OH, Cl and $O(^1D)$. The performance of TM5 in simulating atmospheric chemistry is presented in Huijnen et al. (2010) and van Noije et al. (2014). The conclusions of these studies
140 remain valid with the current setup.

The modal scheme M7 (Vignati et al., 2004; Aan de Brugh et al., 2011) is used to simulate aerosol microphysics. M7 simulates the following aerosol types: sulfate (SO_4), black carbon (BC), organic carbon (OC), sea salt and mineral dust. In addition, TM5 calculates ammonium and nitrate partitioning between gas phase and aerosols using the Equilibrium Simplified Aerosol Model (EQSAM;
145 Metzger et al., 2002), and accounts for methyl sulfonic acid (MSA). The aerosols are coupled to the radiative transfer scheme that is used to calculate photolysis frequencies. Some adjustments to the M7 default setup have been applied in order to realistically simulate stratospheric volcanic aerosols, as described in B14. This setup has been used in the aforementioned paper to model SO_2 and sulfate aerosols from the Pinatubo eruption, and to infer their effect on photolysis frequencies.

150 Here we use the new massively parallel model version TM5-mp. The new MPI parallelisation does not influence the model results, but brings a significant speedup of the model runs by allowing us to use more computing cores more efficiently. A few additional updates have been incorporated in the model compared to the version used in B14. Convective fluxes used for tracer transport are now read from the ERA-Interim input data, instead of calculating them with the Tiedtke scheme (Tiedtke,
155 1989). Heterogeneous removal of N_2O_5 on aerosol and cloud particles was updated according to Huijnen et al. (2014). The CH_4 surface nudging timescale has also been adjusted. We now use a nudging timescale of 10 days instead of 3 days in B14. By comparing the budget terms and concentrations of simulations with the different nudging timescales, we find that both nudging timescales give a similar performance in simulating the CH_4 concentrations and inter-annual variability (IAV).

160 Although similar global nudging values are found for the two simulations, the local nudging amount
is 2 to 3 times larger using a 3-day nudging. Therefore we find that a 10-days nudging timescale is
more appropriate for inferring CH₄ budget mismatches based on monthly observations, allowing for
synoptic-scale variability in CH₄ concentrations (Dentener et al., 2003). Finally, some of the emis-
sion inventories used here differ from the ones used in B14, and are described below. We verified
165 that the model updates did not cause any significant differences in modelled SO₂ and stratospheric
aerosols compared to the results presented in B14.

Table 1 lists the CH₄ source and sink categories, the inventories used, and their yearly global mean
and variability over the period 1990 to 1995. Two inventories for CH₄ emissions from wetlands
are employed to investigate the uncertainty in these emissions. We use the ORCHIDEE emissions
170 from the WETCHIMP intercomparison project (Wania et al., 2013) and LPJ emissions from the
Hydrogen, Methane and Nitrous oxide (HYMN) project (Spahni et al., 2011). Other natural CH₄
monthly emissions from wild animals and termites were also used as compiled in HYMN. CH₄ soil
removal rates from the LPJ inventory were applied. Anthropogenic emissions of CH₄, CO, NO_x,
NMVOC, SO₂ and ammonia (NH₃) were taken from the EDGAR4.2 inventory, except for transport
175 sector, for which EDGAR4.1 was used. Decadal anthropogenic emissions of BC and OC were taken
from the historical AR5 emission inventory (Lamarque et al., 2010). Biomass burning emissions
of CH₄, CO, NMVOC, NO_x, SO₂ and NH₃ are used from the RETRO inventory (Schultz et al.,
2008). Production of NO_x by lightning and emissions of dimethyl sulfide (DMS), sea salt and dust
are calculated online (Huijnen et al., 2010; Vignati et al., 2010; van Noije et al., 2014). Monthly
180 biogenic emissions of CO, NH₃ and NMVOC were taken from the MEGAN inventory (Sindelarova
et al., 2014). Climatological emissions from the MACC inventory are used for continuous volcanic
SO₂ (Andres and Kasgnoc, 1998) and biogenic NO_x emissions.

2.2 Simulation setup

We designed a series of simulations with the aim to quantify the impact of specific processes on the
185 tropospheric CH₄ concentrations. The difference between two simulations, one including, and one
excluding a specific driver, is used to quantify the effect of that driver. For instance, we calculate
the effect of IAV in meteorology on tropospheric CH₄ as the difference of a simulation that includes
varying meteorological fields and a simulation that fixes meteorological fields to 1990 values. Two
sets of simulations were performed for seven drivers of CH₄ variability for the period 1990 to 1995,
190 as outlined in Table 2.

As described in B14, we use a two-step setup to simulate realistic CH₄ concentrations. In a first
simulation of the ‘Base1’ and ‘Base2’ scenarios, in which all drivers of CH₄ variability are included,
we nudge CH₄ mixing ratios in the lowest 2 km of the model towards measured mixing ratios from
background sites. This allows us to account for uncertainties in sources and sinks of CH₄ and to
195 avoid a long-term drift of mixing ratios compared to observations. This setup is particularly impor-

tant for the second simulation set using the lower LPJ wetland emissions, where nearly 100 Tg yr⁻¹ additional source or reduced sink is needed to close the CH₄ budget. The nudging is performed as follows. The North-South gradient in CH₄ mixing ratio is reconstructed by interpolating the measured CH₄ monthly mean mixing ratios at the background stations South Pole, Cape Grim, Mauna
200 Loa, Niwot Ridge, Barrow, and Alert. In this way a realistic zonal mean CH₄ distribution is obtained from the observations, which is then compared to the modelled concentrations at the dateline. The concentrations in the whole zonal band are then adjusted based on this comparison. The amount of CH₄ needed to compensate for the difference between the model and observation-based North-South gradient in CH₄ is stored on a monthly basis for each 10-degree latitude band. In the second
205 step, CH₄ is no longer constrained by observations, but instead the nudging amount calculated in the first step is applied as an emission in all scenarios. In B14 we used this nudging to scale the CH₄ emissions in each 10-degree latitude band. In these simulations, we observed slight time shifts in the derived CH₄ growth rates in the second step compared to the first step. To obtain an almost perfect match between the simulated CH₄ concentrations of the two steps, in the present study we apply
210 the nudging homogeneously over the latitude band and in the lowest 2 km from the surface. This two-step setup enables us to model realistic CH₄ concentrations, and at the same time allowing them to respond to changes in emissions or photochemistry. The nudging term that is needed to force the ‘Base1’ and ‘Base2’ simulations to background atmospheric observations indicates in which latitude bands sources and sinks are unbalanced when all drivers of CH₄ variability are included. These mismatches will be further analysed in Section 3.2. Validation results for this two-step setup are shown
215 in Appendix A.

The first simulation set (Set I in Table 2) uses the ORCHIDEE inventory for natural CH₄ emissions from wetlands, while the second set of simulations uses the LPJ inventory. The ‘Base1’ simulation from the first simulation set accounts for all drivers of CH₄ IAV in the model, including modelled
220 stratospheric sulfur, varying amounts of stratospheric O₃, ERA-Interim fields for temperature and humidity, and emission variations of CH₄ and other species. Emission of SO₂ in the stratosphere by the Pinatubo eruption of 18.5 Tg SO₂ were considered, and the SO₂ subsequently reacts with OH to form aerosols. In the other simulations, we fix different variables in the model to investigate their effect on CH₄ concentrations. In all simulations except for the ‘Base1’ simulation, we removed
225 the effects of Pinatubo SO₂ and sulfate, because using different meteorology or O₃ column might lead to different SO₂ and aerosol fields. By using this setup we minimise the nonlinearities between drivers of CH₄ variability. In ‘FixMeteo1’ and ‘FixOzone1’, we additionally used the meteorology and, respectively, the stratospheric O₃ of the year 1990 for the whole length of the simulation. In the ‘FixWetl1’ simulation we used constant CH₄ emissions from wetlands and CH₄ soil uptake
230 rates from the year 1990. Simulation ‘FixEmis’ used anthropogenic and biomass burning emissions of CH₄ and other species from the year 1990. Biogenic emissions of CO, NMVOC and NO_x are also fixed to 1990 in ‘FixEmis’. Finally, to infer the combined effect of all seven drivers of CH₄

variability, the simulation ‘FixAll1’ is performed, where all drivers of variability are fixed to 1990 values. This allows us to quantify the possible effect of nonlinearities, as discussed in Appendix B.

235 To test the impact of using a different inventory for CH₄ emissions from wetlands, a second set of simulations (Set II in Table 2) is performed using LPJ emissions. The second set of simulations consists of simulations ‘Base2’, ‘NoPinS2’ and ‘FixWet2’, which are equivalent to the ‘Base1’, ‘NoPinS1’ and ‘FixWet1’, respectively, of the first set. The ‘Base2’ simulation is similar to the ‘PinS’ simulation in B14, extended for three more years. The LPJ emissions and soil uptake rates
240 from the year 1990 are used in ‘FixWet2’ throughout the simulation.

2.3 Drivers of CH₄ variability

In this section we present the drivers of CH₄ variability in our model. The factors that affect the CH₄ sinks are stratospheric sulfur, stratospheric O₃, changes in meteorology, and emissions of CO and NMVOC. The CH₄ emissions for different sectors are also presented. We show model results for
245 sulfate aerosol, while for other drivers of CH₄ variability we give a quantitative description of the input data. Their impact on the CH₄ concentration is analysed in Section 3.1.

The main drivers of CH₄ variability in our model for the period 1990 to 1995 are shown in Figure 1. All variables have been averaged with a 12-month running mean to remove the seasonal cycle. The globally averaged stratospheric aerosol optical depth (AOD) is shown in Figure 1a. The simulated AOD values were validated against measurements in B14. A global maximum AOD of 0.16 is
250 simulated in early 1992. The aerosols remained in the stratosphere for a few years, with the AOD returning to pre-eruption levels towards the end of 1994.

Figure 1b presents the average stratospheric O₃ above 150 hPa between 60°S-60°N from the MSR data set (van der A et al., 2010). High-latitude O₃ anomalies are not taken into account here because
255 the CH₄ is mainly oxidised in the tropics and at mid-latitudes during summer. A number of processes caused variations in stratospheric O₃ in the period 1990 to 1995. The 11-year cycle in solar radiation determined an overall decrease of 2.5% (6 Dobson Units) in the O₃ column over this period. The quasi-biennial oscillation (QBO) in stratospheric winds caused an additional IAV of about 1% (2 DU). In addition to these natural cycles, enhanced O₃ depletion occurred in 1992 to 1994 due to
260 dynamical changes and heterogeneous chemistry associated with the presence of Pinatubo sulfate particles in the stratosphere (Telford et al., 2009; Aquila et al., 2013). This caused a 3.5% (8 DU) decrease in stratospheric O₃ from 1991 to early 1993, with largest perturbations observed at northern mid-latitudes. A smaller decrease of about 4 DU is found in the tropics (Shepherd et al., 2014). The effect of observed O₃ variations on CH₄ concentrations is investigated in Section 3.1. We do not
265 separate in this study the effect of Pinatubo on stratospheric O₃ from other factors of O₃ variability.

A global-scale decrease in surface temperature was registered in 1992 caused by the decrease in surface shortwave radiation due to the volcanic aerosols. The effect of the eruption was partly counteracted by the 1992-1993 El-Niño (McCormick et al., 1995). In our ERA-Interim input data we

find a global mean temperature decrease of 0.5°C in the free troposphere and of 0.3°C at the surface
270 between 1990 and 1992, followed by a temperature recovery in 1994 (Figure 1c). The temperature
decrease was associated with a 3% decrease in tropospheric water vapour. Other meteorological
changes in this period, such as dynamics or cloudiness, might have also affected the stratosphere-
troposphere exchange of CH₄ and the CH₄ removal by OH. Although these other meteorological
275 parameters are not presented in this section, their potential effects on CH₄ are included when com-
paring the ‘NoPinS’ and ‘FixMeteo’ simulations.

Variability in emissions of chemical species might have determined changes in OH concentra-
tions. Global CO and NO_x emissions have a similar evolution over the period 1990 to 1996, mainly
driven by variations in biomass burning (Figure 1d). A large biomass burning event in 1992 leads to
an increase of 100 Tg CO yr⁻¹ in CO emissions and of 1.5 Tg NO_x yr⁻¹ in 1992, and a decrease of
280 similar magnitude one year afterwards. The NO_x emissions remain relatively constant throughout
the rest of the period, while CO emissions decrease by about 50 Tg between 1990 and 1996. Bio-
genic emissions of NMVOC can also influence CH₄ concentrations indirectly through their reaction
with OH. Isoprene, the NMVOC species with the largest emission rate in the atmosphere, is mainly
produced by plants. Biogenic isoprene emissions are sensitive to changes in temperature, precipita-
285 tion and radiation, and were likely affected by the Pinatubo eruption (Telford et al., 2010; Wilton
et al., 2011). Global emissions of isoprene, shown in Figure 1e, given by the MEGAN inventory are
640-660 Tg yr⁻¹ during 1990 and 1991. Over the course of 1992, the isoprene emissions decrease
by about 70 Tg yr⁻¹, remaining at about 580-600 Tg yr⁻¹ throughout the simulations period.

Changes in the main CH₄ emission categories are presented in Figure 1f-h. Inter-annual variability
290 in total CH₄ emissions is dominated by emissions from wetlands and biomass burning. Both the LPJ
and ORCHIDEE inventories show decreased CH₄ emissions from wetlands in 1991-1993. However,
the exact timing and magnitude varies considerably between the two inventories, as well as the global
emission amount and IAV. The ORCHIDEE inventory finds on average 266 Tg yr⁻¹ CH₄ global
emissions from wetlands, with interannual variability of 11.9 Tg yr⁻¹ (see Table 1). The largest
295 anomaly in this period is found after the Pinatubo eruption, with a decrease of 30 Tg yr⁻¹ between
the time of the eruption and one year afterwards. The LPJ inventory shows global wetland emissions
of 166 Tg yr⁻¹ with IAV of 2.6 Tg yr⁻¹. A decrease of 8 Tg yr⁻¹ in CH₄ emissions from wetlands
is found by LPJ during the year of the eruption, and a recovery starting from early 1992. Wetland
extent has been shown to be important for simulating the IAV in wetland emissions, and might
300 be a reason for the large differences between the two models (Ringeval et al., 2010; Spahni et al.,
2011). ORCHIDEE simulates wetland extent interactively through the coupling to the TOPMODEL
hydrology, while LPJ uses fixed wetland extent. The ORCHIDEE global emissions have been shown
to be larger than those of other models from the WETCHIMP intercomparison study, having a high
sensitivity to changes in CO₂, temperature and precipitation (Melton et al., 2013).

305 We used in our simulations the biomass burning emissions of CH₄ reported by the RETRO inven-
tory, which amount to a global mean of 19.7 Tg yr⁻¹ over this period, with an IAV of 2.6 Tg yr⁻¹
and higher emissions in the years 1991, 1992 and 1994. The IAV in RETRO is determined from
national fire reports, and from climate, soil moisture and carbon pool data used in the regional fire
model Reg-FIRM (Schultz et al., 2008). Global anthropogenic emissions were quite stable at 256
310 to 261 Tg yr⁻¹ during 1990 to 1995, according our input data based on EDGAR 4.2 and REAS 1
emission inventories, with an IAV of 1.2 Tg yr⁻¹ and an increase towards the end of the period. More
significant changes occurred at a regional level, with an overall increase in emissions in South-East
Asia, and a decrease in Europe, North America and the FSU in this time period. Note, however, that
inverse modelling studies report significantly higher total anthropogenic CH₄ emissions for this time
315 period than the bottom-up inventories, exceeding 350 Tg yr⁻¹ (Kirschke et al., 2013; Pison et al.,
2013).

3 Results

3.1 Explained CH₄ variability

By taking differences between the budget terms of the simulations in Table 2 we are able to infer
320 the effect of each driver of CH₄ variability described above. Figure 2 shows zonally averaged dif-
ferences in CH₄ sources and sinks between the different simulations, vertically integrated over the
troposphere. These differences are integrated up to a tropopause level defined here as a function of
latitude, as recommended in Lawrence et al. (2001).

Absorption of UV radiation by volcanic SO₂ and UV scattering by sulfate aerosol are both in-
325 cluded in the ‘Base1’ simulation, and lead to a decrease of UV radiation entering the troposphere.
As shown in B14, the effect of stratospheric aerosols on global CH₄ is dominating and longer lived in
comparison to the effect of SO₂ absorption. A decrease in the CH₄ sink is depicted in Figure 2a due
to stratospheric sulfur, calculated as the difference between the ‘Base1’ and ‘NoPinS1’ simulations.
The impact of stratospheric sulfur is strongest in the months after the eruption in the tropical region,
330 with decreases in the zonal mean CH₄ sink of 2 to 5 mg m⁻² month⁻¹. Starting from 1993, the
difference in the CH₄ sink due to stratospheric sulfur decreases below 1 mg m⁻² month⁻¹ globally.

Stratospheric O₃ decreased in the tropical region in 1991 to 1995 compared to 1990. A slight in-
crease in stratospheric O₃ was observed in 1991 in the southern mid-latitudes because of an increase
in the strength of the Brewer-Dobson circulation due to stratospheric heating by Pinatubo aerosols
335 (Aquila et al., 2013). Figure 2b shows that these stratospheric O₃ changes led to variations in the
OH sink of CH₄ between -5 and +10 mg m⁻² month⁻¹ in the period 1991 to 1996. Decreases in the
CH₄ sink of up to 5 mg m⁻² month⁻¹ are modelled in 1991 in the extra-tropics, compensated by
increases of similar magnitude in the equatorial region. From 1992 to 1996, reduced stratospheric
O₃ levels caused increases in the CH₄ sink in the equatorial band, the northern tropics and part of the

340 northern mid-latitudes. An increase in the CH₄ sink of more than 5 mg m⁻² month⁻¹ is modelled in
the northern tropics in the summers of 1993, 1994 and 1995.

The decrease in temperature and water vapour following the eruption led to a decrease in both OH
production and the rate of reaction between OH and CH₄. Our model results show that variations in
meteorology caused decreases in the CH₄ sink of 2 to 10 mg m⁻² month⁻¹ in the northern tropical
345 region during September 1991 to March 1993, and in the northern mid-latitudes during the summers
of 1992 and 1993 (Figure 2c).

Variations in emissions of other species indirectly affect CH₄ concentrations through the CH₄
sink. On the one hand, CO and NMVOC emissions decrease OH concentrations because of their
reaction with OH. Recycling of OH, on the other hand, increases due to NO_x emissions. Anthro-
pogenic activity and biomass burning events lead to emissions of all these compounds. In addition,
350 the difference between 'NoPinS' and 'FixEmis' also includes changes in biogenic emissions of CO
and NMVOC that are sensitive to climate variations (Sindelarova et al., 2014). The overall effect
on OH is determined by the relative increases in total emissions of CO and NMVOC compared to
total NO_x emissions (Dalsøren and Isaksen, 2006). The OH variability due to changes in emissions
355 is shown in Figure 2d. Particularly large decreases in emissions of CO from biomass burning and
in biogenic NMVOC emissions in our input data occurred between 1992 and 1993, leading to an
increase of 3 to 5 mg m⁻² month⁻¹ in the CH₄ sink.

Figure 2e and 2f show differences in wetland emission strength with respect to the year 1990
for the ORCHIDEE and LPJ emission inventories. These emission differences are often larger than
360 those found for the CH₄ sink, but they are of shorter duration and more localised. The most striking
difference between the CH₄ emission variations in the LPJ and in the ORCHIDEE inventories is their
magnitude. While the magnitude of LPJ differences compared to 1990 have values mostly between
-10 and 10 mg m⁻² month⁻¹, the ORCHIDEE differences often exceed 20 mg m⁻² month⁻¹. Both
inventories show a decrease in emissions in the tropics and in the Northern Hemisphere in late 1991
365 and early 1992. The strength and the duration of the decrease differs between the two inventories.
In the equatorial region, ORCHIDEE gives decreases that often surpass 20 mg m⁻² month⁻¹ from
1992 to 1995. LPJ reports decreased emissions in the equatorial region in the second half of 1991
and first half of 1992. This period is followed by alternating short periods of increased and decreased
emissions near the equator until 1995. Both inventories give some increases in emissions in the
370 subtropics throughout the period and a strong increase in emissions throughout the tropics in the
second half of 1995 and beginning of 1996. In the northern mid- and high-latitudes, decreases of 2 to
5 mg m⁻² month⁻¹ are maintained from the second half of 1991 to mid-1993 in LPJ. In ORCHIDEE,
CH₄ emissions decrease by up to 20 mg m⁻² month⁻¹ in the first half of 1992, but are compensated
by increases of similar magnitude in the second half of 1992. Increased emissions are reported by
375 ORCHIDEE in this region every summer from 1993 to 1995.

Variations in emissions other than wetlands also cause significant changes in the CH₄ budget. The CH₄ emissions are affected by variations in biomass burning and anthropogenic activity (Figure 2g). Anthropogenic emissions in the northern mid-latitudes show a gradual decrease of up to 20 mg m⁻² month⁻¹ from 1990 to 1996. This decrease is compensated by an increase in anthropogenic
380 emissions in the tropical region, with values reaching 5 to 10 mg m⁻² month⁻¹ between 15-30°N. Enhanced biomass burning emissions are also found close to the equator in the autumn of the years 1991, 1992, and 1994.

The modelled growth rate variations caused by the changes in CH₄ sources and sinks described above are depicted in Figure 3. A 12-month running mean was applied to all the growth rate vari-
385 ations, to remove seasonal effects. The black line shows the cumulative effect of these processes on the CH₄ growth rate, representing the combined effect of all considered drivers of variability on the global CH₄ growth rate, which we will refer to as the ‘explained’ CH₄ growth rate. We assume here additivity between the changes in CH₄ growth rate caused by the different drivers. The effect of nonlinearities is discussed in Appendix B. Figures 3a and 3b show the two cases in which the OR-
390 CHIDEE and the LPJ inventory, respectively, are used to represent the effect of IAV in wetland CH₄ emissions. In early 1991 the CH₄ growth rate remains within 2 ppb yr⁻¹ of that in 1990. Values of more than 10 ppb yr⁻¹ are found in 1990-1991 (see Figure 7) due to relatively high emissions from all source categories of CH₄. The relatively large ozone column values in these years, together with large emissions of CO and NMVOC, lead to a reduced CH₄ sink in 1990 and 1991. During 1991 the
395 explained CH₄ growth rate remains stable or shows a moderate increase depending on whether the ORCHIDEE or, respectively, the LPJ inventory is used. The explained CH₄ growth rate decreases afterwards by 9-10 ppb yr⁻¹ in both cases, partly due to a decrease in wetland emissions. While CH₄ emissions from wetlands gradually recover, a combination of other processes leads to a continued decrease in CH₄ growth rate until 1993. The processes contributing to the decrease in the explained
400 CH₄ growth rate in the second half of 1992 and early 1993 are stratospheric O₃ depletion, a recovery of stratospheric aerosols towards background levels, and changes in other emissions than CH₄ emissions from wetlands. The former effect includes a decrease in CH₄ emissions from biomass burning of 4-5 Tg yr⁻¹ between 1992 and 1993, and a 2 Tg yr⁻¹ decrease in anthropogenic emissions. This would lead to a combined decrease of 6-7 Tg yr⁻¹, or 2 ppb yr⁻¹. A decrease in isoprene emissions
405 of 60 Tg yr⁻¹ and a decrease of 50 Tg yr⁻¹ in CO emissions also occur over this period. They cause an increase in the CH₄ removal and lead to a decrease of 6 ppb yr⁻¹ in ‘FixEmis1’ compared to ‘NoPinS1’. The overall effect remains stable at -6 to -7 ppb yr⁻¹ from mid 1993 to spring 1994.

Although the evolution of the explained CH₄ growth rate shows similar features when using the two wetland emission inventories, some significant differences occur. First, the more pronounced
410 decrease in CH₄ emissions in ORCHIDEE in 1991 compensates the concurrent decrease in the CH₄ sink due to stratospheric aerosols and meteorological changes, leading to a stable CH₄ growth rate during 1991. The decrease in LPJ emissions in 1991 is much smaller, resulting in a 3.5 ppb yr⁻¹

increase in CH₄ growth rate in the second half of 1991. The decrease in the explained CH₄ growth rate that follows in 1992 starts about half a year later when using LPJ emissions than when using ORCHIDEE. The 8 ppb yr⁻¹ decrease in the growth rate obtained with ORCHIDEE in late 1991 and early 1992 causes an earlier decrease in the overall growth rate. The minimum CH₄ growth rate also occurs in about three months earlier with ORCHIDEE than with LPJ. Finally, an additional 3 ppb yr⁻¹ growth rate decrease occurs during 1994 with ORCHIDEE, while LPJ gives a stable CH₄ growth rate between mid-1993 and mid-1995.

Our explained CH₄ growth rates are compared to observations in Figure 4. Two estimates for the observed global mean growth rate are shown. The first estimate is calculated from the NOAA GLOBALVIEW-CH₄ (2009) marine boundary layer zonal mean CH₄ concentrations. The second estimate, 'Background5', is taken from the CH₄ background data used for nudging the model, based on measurements from five stations (see Section 2.2). The other CH₄ growth rate curves in Figure 4 are the same as the black lines in Figure 3, representing the explained growth rate differences with respect to 1990. In order to obtain the variability with respect to the year 1990 from the observations, the 1990 CH₄ growth rates have been subtracted from both observation timeseries (see absolute growth rate values in Figure 7). A running mean of 12 months was further applied to remove seasonal effects. The explained CH₄ growth rate variability shows differences of -1.0 to 2.5 ppb yr⁻¹ in 1991 with respect to 1990, which falls in between the two observational estimates of 3 ppb yr⁻¹ for GLOBALVIEW-CH₄, and -1.5 ppb yr⁻¹ for 'Background5'. The model gives an increase of 3.5 ppb yr⁻¹ over the course of 1991 when using LPJ, while using ORCHIDEE we find a decrease of 1 ppb yr⁻¹. The observations from GLOBALVIEW show an increase in the CH₄ growth rate in the first half of 1991 and a decrease in the second half, while the 'Background5' growth rate decreases throughout the year 1991. A continued decrease in the CH₄ growth rate is found in observations in 1992, reaching -10 ppb yr⁻¹ in autumn 1992. The explained growth rate also decreases compared to 1990 when using ORCHIDEE emissions, reaching -8 ppb yr⁻¹ about half a year later than the observations. With LPJ emissions, the decrease in the CH₄ growth rate occurs between spring 1992 and summer 1993, reaching -6 ppb yr⁻¹. The observations show a further recovery at the end of 1992 and the first half of 1993 to -5 ppb yr⁻¹, remaining relatively constant for the rest of the period. The recovery is not captured in the model, irrespective of the wetland emissions used. The explained growth rate in the model remains stable in the second half of 1993 and first half of 1994 and, in the case of ORCHIDEE emissions, decreases again in the second half of 1994.

3.2 Unexplained CH₄ variability

As explained in Section 2.2, CH₄ observations are used in a first step to quantify the mismatch between the model and observations. This nudging amount is analysed further to better understand the possible reasons for this mismatch.

The global deseasonalised nudging amounts for ‘Base1’ and ‘Base2’ are shown in Figure 5. Due to the difference of about 100 Tg yr^{-1} in the global emissions from the two wetland inventories, the global nudging amount also shows an offset of similar magnitude. The global nudging over the period 1990 to 1995 is close to 0 with ORCHIDEE, and about 100 Tg yr^{-1} with LPJ. However, there is quite some variability for both simulations within a range of about 50 Tg yr^{-1} . In the first period of the simulation, the nudging term for the ORCHIDEE simulations varies between 0 and -20 Tg yr^{-1} , and between 75 and 105 Tg yr^{-1} for LPJ. The nudging increases by 25 - 30 Tg yr^{-1} during the first half of 1993 for both the ‘Base1’ and ‘Base2’ because the increase in the observed CH_4 growth rate in this period is not reproduced by the explained growth rate. Between the second half of 1993 and the end of 1995, the nudging term for the two simulations shows similar variations, between 5 and 30 Tg yr^{-1} for ORCHIDEE, and between 100 and 125 Tg yr^{-1} for LPJ.

To better quantify the nudging term, the zonal mean nudging amounts for the two simulations as a function of time are given in Figure 6c and 6d. The zonal mean emission and sink strengths for the ‘Base1’ simulation are also shown for comparison in Figure 6a and 6b. In both simulations, nudging is predominantly needed in the Northern Hemisphere, where most CH_4 is emitted. This suggests that the uncertainties related to the CH_4 sources dominate the ones related to the sink or to transport, which occur in both hemispheres. Positive nudging is needed in the tropics in both hemispheres with a maximum during autumn, and following the position of the inter-tropical convergence zone (ITCZ). This suggests either missing emissions from tropical wetlands or biomass burning, or an overestimated strength of the tropical OH sink. In the northern mid-latitudes, the model overestimates CH_4 concentrations in the winter, and underestimates concentrations in the summer. This suggests a missing seasonality in one of the CH_4 budget terms. Positive nudging amounts at northern high-latitudes are needed throughout the two simulations, except for ‘Base1’ during autumn, where negative nudging is required. These might be related to underestimated anthropogenic emissions, as well as to errors in transport or vertical mixing, since both natural emissions and the CH_4 sink are almost negligible at high-latitudes during winter.

In Figure 6e and 6f the nudging for the year 1990 was subtracted from the whole time series, and a 12-month running mean was applied. These plots thus highlight the potential missing IAV in the model compared to observations. For both simulations we find a missing decrease in the CH_4 burden in the northern tropics during 1991 to 1993. This points to either a missing decrease in both wetland emission inventories in this region, or to potential uncertainties in tropical biomass burning. At northern mid-latitudes the CH_4 emissions are dominated by anthropogenic emissions, therefore the missing CH_4 increase revealed in this region suggests that the decrease in anthropogenic emissions over Europe, North America and the FSU in this time period might be overestimated. When using ORCHIDEE emissions we find an additional missing increase in the southern tropics from 1992 onwards, in particular in 1993 and 1995.

4 Discussion

485 We have quantified for the first time all known major drivers of CH₄ variability in the early 1990s
in a global chemistry and transport model. Previous attempts to explain the CH₄ evolution in this
period were the inverse modelling studies of W04 and B06. The sensitivity of the CH₄ growth rate
to most of the drivers presented here was also investigated in our previous study Bândă et al. (2013),
using a column chemistry model. Other bottom-up studies have focused on only one of the potential
490 causes of CH₄ variability during the post-Pinatubo period. In the following sections we compare our
results to previous top-down and bottom-up studies, and discuss potential sources of uncertainty in
our results.

4.1 Comparison to inverse modelling studies

The CH₄ inverse modelling studies of W04 and B06 included the post-Pinatubo period. The OH
495 fields used were derived by different methods. W04 used parameterised OH fields based on chem-
istry model results. Changes in meteorology, O₃ column, concentrations of CO and NMVOC were
included in their parameterisation. However, stratospheric aerosols from the Pinatubo eruption were
not included. The OH fields in B06 were determined from an inversion of methyl-chloroform obser-
vations, and might be affected by uncertainties in emissions of methyl chloroform.

500 With regard to the either applied or inferred OH sink variations, the inversion studies for this time
period are only partly in line with our simulated variations in the OH sink, including the combined
effect of stratospheric aerosols, stratospheric O₃ depletion and tropospheric emissions of CO and
NMVOCs. We will now discuss the comparison between our results with these earlier studies for
the different time periods: (i) the sharp decrease in the CH₄ growth rate in the second half of 1991
505 throughout 1992, (ii) the subsequent increase in the CH₄ growth rate in 1993, (iii) the moderate
growth rates over the years 1994 and 1995, and (iv) the decrease in CH₄ growth rate over the period
1990 to 1995.

1991-1992

W04 inferred a slight decrease in the OH sink of CH₄ in 1991 compared to 1990, and an
510 increase of about 10 Tg yr⁻¹ in 1992. In B06, a decrease of about 25 Tg yr⁻¹ in the OH sink
was found during 1990 to 1992. In our study we find smaller OH variations than both studies,
with a decrease in the OH sink of CH₄ of about 5 Tg yr⁻¹ in 1992 compared to 1990 and
1991. This reduction in OH is due to sulfate aerosols and atmospheric cooling, compensated
by the OH increase caused by ozone depletion (see Table 1, Figure 3).

515 Based on their assumed OH concentrations, W04 obtained a 20-25 Tg decrease in wetland
emissions in 1992 compared to 1991 and 1990. To explain the decrease in the CH₄ growth
rate in 1992, B06 found a 35-40 Tg yr⁻¹ decrease in wetland emissions in the first half of
1992. To compensate for their simultaneous decrease in OH sink, they found 5-10 Tg lower

biomass burning emissions in 1992 than 1991 and 1993, and a 20 Tg decrease in anthropogenic
520 emissions, which is sustained for the rest of the 1990s. With ORCHIDEE we applied a 25
Tg yr⁻¹ emission decrease in 1992. Our nudging suggests that this decrease could reach 29
Tg yr⁻¹, which is similar in magnitude to the other studies.

1993

The observed CH₄ growth rate partially recovers during 1993 from the strong decrease in the
525 year 1992. In our study we capture the decrease in CH₄ growth rate in 1993 rather than 1992
due to a 22 Tg increase in the OH sink of CH₄ because of reduced ozone columns, biomass
burning emissions and a recovery of sulfate aerosols. A partial recovery in wetland emissions
is found in both inventories. This recovery might be underestimated, since an increase in
the nudging term is needed to explain the observed growth rate. Both W04 and B06 found
530 increases in the CH₄ sink of about 10 Tg yr⁻¹ during 1993. Similarly to our study, W06
simulate a continued decrease in CH₄ growth rate rather than a recovery. In B06, increases in
wetland and biomass burning emissions in 1993 are found to overwhelm the increase in the
CH₄ sink, leading to an increase in the CH₄ growth rate.

1994-1995

535 The OH sink of CH₄ showed variations of 3 to 5 Tg yr⁻¹ in W06 in the years 1993 to 1995,
while an increase of about 15 Tg yr⁻¹ in the years 1993 to 1995 was obtained in B06. In agree-
ment to B06, we find a 12 Tg yr⁻¹ increase in the OH sink of CH₄ between 1993 and 1995
due to the recovery of the anomaly in temperature, water vapour and stratospheric aerosols
caused by the eruption.

540 Similar to the study of W06, we find that the decrease in the CH₄ growth rate over the period
1990 to 1995 can be entirely explained by an increase in the OH sink of CH₄, rather than by
changes in emissions. In B06, however, this decrease in CH₄ growth rate is explained by a
decrease in anthropogenic emissions.

The more recent study of Pison et al. (2013) extended the study of B06 by using both methyl chlo-
545 roform and CH₄ observations to constrain OH concentrations in their INVARR inversion. Smaller
OH variability is found in this case compared to B06, and their derived global emission changes are
more in line with W04 and with the emissions applied in our first simulation set.

The 1.6% IAV we find for the CH₄ loss by reaction with OH supports the conclusion of Montzka
et al. (2011) that OH concentrations are buffered against atmospheric perturbations, having an IAV
550 of about 2%. The large OH inter-annual variations, often exceeding 10%, previously found for the
1990s using methyl chloroform observations are not produced in our chemistry-transport simulations
(Prinn et al., 2005; Bousquet et al., 2005).

4.2 Comparison to previous bottom-up studies

In (Bândă et al., 2013), we analysed the CH₄ growth rate variability after the Pinatubo eruption using a column chemistry model. The timing of the minimum CH₄ growth rate reported in that study is similar to the one found in this three-dimensional study, implying that the delay compared to observations is a result of uncertainties in model input rather than model setup. However, some differences between the two studies occur in the magnitude and contribution of the different processes to the CH₄ growth rate decrease in 1991 to 1993. In Bândă et al. (2013), the overall explained growth rate decrease was found to be 12 ppb yr⁻¹, while here we find only 8 to 10 ppb yr⁻¹. A 5 ppb yr⁻¹ decrease was found due to CH₄, NO_x and CO anthropogenic emission changes. This is similar to the decrease of 6 ppb yr⁻¹ due to changes in non-wetland emissions obtained in this study. However, our current estimate also includes variations of emissions from biomass burning, natural emissions of CO and NMVOC. The sulfate aerosol and O₃ column effects also differ by 2 to 3 ppb yr⁻¹ from the estimates presented in Bândă et al. (2013), probably because the regional distribution of these effects could not be taken into account in the simplified column model approach. Furthermore, our previous study showed that CH₄ concentrations are affected for a long time period after a perturbation is applied due to the CH₄ lifetime of about 10 years. This delayed effect can be seen here for stratospheric sulfur, where a small negative difference in the CH₄ growth rate is found towards the end of the simulation period (Figure 3). The delayed effect that a perturbation in a driver of CH₄ variability has on the CH₄ growth rate also occurs in our other simulations. However, it is in general overwhelmed by the instantaneous effect of variability in the CH₄ driver.

Other studies have focused on only one of the drivers of CH₄ variability after the Pinatubo eruption. Bekki and Pyle (1994) found a decrease in CH₄ growth rate of 7 ppb yr⁻¹ globally due to stratospheric O₃ using a two dimensional model between spring 1991 and autumn 1992. Here we obtain a comparable estimate of 5 ppb yr⁻¹ decrease over the period 1991 to autumn 1993 due to the pronounced stratospheric O₃ depletion in the tropics and northern mid-latitudes in 1993.

Using a two-dimensional chemistry and transport model, Bekki and Law (1997) investigated the effect of temperature on both chemistry and wetland emissions in 1991-1992. They found that the temperature decrease after Pinatubo led to a 4 ppb yr⁻¹ increase in the global CH₄ growth rate between mid-1991 and mid-1992, similar to our meteorological effect of 5 ppb yr⁻¹. By applying a $Q_{10} = 2$ temperature sensitivity of CH₄ emissions (Dunfield et al., 1993), they found that CH₄ emissions from wetlands would decrease the CH₄ growth rate by 2 ppb yr⁻¹ in the same period. This is similar to our result using LPJ wetland emissions. The ORCHIDEE inventory gives a much larger decrease in the CH₄ growth rate of 9 ppb yr⁻¹, which overwhelms the meteorological effect on the CH₄ sink. This shows that the climate sensitivity of wetland emissions is larger in ORCHIDEE, where changes in wetland extent are taken into account.

Stratospheric aerosols were found to enhance the Brewer-Dobson circulation after the Pinatubo eruption (Aquila et al., 2013). This change in the dynamics of the atmosphere might also affect

590 CH₄ concentrations. Schauffler and Daniel (1994) hypothesized that increased exchange between the stratosphere and troposphere might be responsible for the decrease in CH₄ growth rate observed in 1992. By performing an additional simulation where only temperature and humidity were fixed to 1990 values, we found that the meteorological effect is dominated by the effect of these two variables (results not shown). The global impact of changes in ERA-Interim wind fields is marginal.
595 The wind fields in ERA-Interim have some uncertainty for the first weeks after the eruption related to the fact that Pinatubo aerosols are not explicitly accounted for. However, the longer-term effect on temperature and the corresponding dynamical effect are included in ERA-Interim through the assimilation of satellite radiances.

Dlugokencky et al. (1994) and Law and Nisbet (1996) hypothesized that the emission decline
600 in the FSU could have had a significant contribution to the decrease in CH₄ concentrations during 1992, because the decrease is primarily found in the Northern Hemisphere. However, our results indicate a missing CH₄ burden decrease in 1992 which originates in the northern tropics (Figure 6). Furthermore, a missing increase in CH₄ concentrations is found in the Northern Hemisphere extratropics, pointing to a potential missing source in this region rather than reduced emissions due
605 to gas leak fixes. Furthermore, the overall decrease in growth rate between 1990 and 1996 is captured by our model, and can be attributed to stratospheric O₃ decrease over this period, and decreases in biomass burning and biogenic emissions of NMVOC and CO. We acknowledge, however, that the nudging procedure used here introduces some uncertainty in providing the location of missing emissions. The procedure attributes the source-sink mismatch at the dateline to sources or sinks in
610 the same 10-degree latitude band. Potential sub-monthly transport of emissions from other latitudes is not taken into account. To further constrain the sources of model-measurement mismatch, an inverse modelling study should be performed to estimate the variability of the CH₄ sources using modelled OH variability.

4.3 Potential sources of uncertainty

615 In this study all known major drivers of CH₄ variability have been included. We estimate that potential missing processes had a minor effect on CH₄ concentrations, and would therefore not significantly affect our results. Such processes are the radiative effects of ash and water vapour injected in the stratosphere by the eruption, and the effect of sulfur deposition on CH₄ emissions from wetlands. Ash particles emitted by the eruption have a short lifetime of a few days (Guo et al., 2004; Niemeier
620 et al., 2009), and were found to have a negligible effect on global radiation. Changes in water vapour are included through ERA-Interim reanalysis, and might contain some uncertainties (Dessler et al., 2014). Sulfur deposition has also been proposed to affect CH₄ emissions from wetlands (Gauci and Chapman, 2006). This effect is not included in our input data. In Bândă et al. (2013) we made a rough estimate of this effect, and found it to be of the order of 1 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ for the Pinatubo
625 eruption.

The zonal mean nudging term in our model points to either underestimated emissions or overestimated sinks in the tropics and during summer at mid-latitudes. An overestimated source is identified at mid-latitude during winter. Uncertainties in the OH sink of CH₄ might relate to uncertainties in the chemistry. CO concentrations in TM5 are underestimated at the northern mid-latitudes (Huijnen et al., 2010; van Noije et al., 2014), which might lead to overestimated OH concentrations in this region. An overestimate in OH concentrations at northern mid-latitudes and an overestimated north-south gradient in global chemistry models is also found from methyl chloroform observations in Patra et al. (2014). In the tropics, OH uncertainties might arise due to NMVOC chemistry, and are discussed in more detail below. Other uncertainties in tropical OH might relate to NO_x and CO emission factors from biomass burning. CO decreases OH concentrations, while NO_x increases OH recycling, therefore the overall effect of biomass burning emissions on OH are strongly dependent on the emission factors of these species, which are uncertain in tropical region in the early 1990s (Schultz et al., 2008).

Our results show that the decrease in CH₄ growth rate observed in 1992 is reasonably well explained by the processes considered here. However, the exact timing of the minimum growth rate is captured 6 to 9 months later than in the observations. Since missing processes are estimated to have a small impact on CH₄ variability in the early 1990s, the mismatch between modelled and measured CH₄ concentrations can only be related to uncertainties in either input data or modelled CH₄ processes. Measurement uncertainty might also contribute to the mismatch. The differences given by the two measurement-based estimates of the global CH₄ growth rate in Figure 4 show that uncertainties can be of the order of 2-3 ppb yr⁻¹. Our input data and chemical processes related to aerosols, O₃ and meteorological effects are fairly well studied and understood. The uncertainty related to these processes is in the order of 10-20%, and cannot explain the different timing of the decrease in CH₄ growth rate between the model and observations.

Larger uncertainties are related to the CH₄ emissions. The differences between the CH₄ emissions from the ORCHIDEE and LPJ inventories, both in terms of magnitude and IAV (Table 1), show that there are still many unknowns in the processes governing emissions from wetlands. One of the most important differences between the two models is the fact that ORCHIDEE simulates changes in wetland extent, while LPJ uses fixed wetland extent. This might be the cause for the larger IAV in ORCHIDEE, and for the higher climate sensitivity. Large differences in the response of ten wetland emission models to a temperature perturbation were also found in the WETCHIMP model intercomparison project, showing that a better understanding of wetland processes is needed (Melton et al., 2013).

Biomass burning emission uncertainties could also contribute to the mismatch between model and observations. However, given the IAV in biomass burning emissions in both the RETRO and the more recent GFED emission inventory of about 3 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹, it is unlikely that uncertainties in biomass burning CH₄ emissions could be the sole reason for the mismatch. As explained above, it is

also unlikely that anthropogenic emission changes due to gas leak fixes within the FSU contributed to the mismatch.

665 We find a significant impact of CO and NMVOC emission changes on the CH₄ removal by OH. Some uncertainty is associated with NMVOC emission changes and their effect on CH₄ chemistry in the period after Pinatubo. Natural emissions of isoprene respond to both changes in climate and in solar radiation (Telford et al., 2010; Wilton et al., 2011). A decrease in surface temperatures would lead to a reduction in isoprene emissions. Concerning the effects of radiation, the increase in dif-
670 fuse radiation after the eruption, leading to deeper penetration into canopies, has been shown to have overwhelmed the effect of decreased direct radiation in terms of plant growth (Mercado et al., 2009). Therefore the increase in diffuse radiation would have increased isoprene emissions. However, in this study only the effect of climate change and the effect of decrease in total shortwave radiation after the eruption are included through the MEGAN inventory. The isoprene emissions in MEGAN show
675 a decline of 50 Tg yr⁻¹ globally during 1992, likely due to the decrease in surface temperature and global shortwave radiation. The CH₄ growth rate decreases by about 4 ppb yr⁻¹, or 11 Tg yr⁻¹ due to changes in emissions of other species than CH₄ including isoprene. These changes are of similar magnitude as found in Telford et al. (2010), where a 40 Tg decrease in isoprene emissions between 1990 and 1992 resulted in a 5 Tg increase in CH₄ removal by OH. The estimated effect of NMVOC
680 emissions on CH₄ concentrations has several sources of uncertainty. Firstly, including the effect of Pinatubo on diffuse radiation might have led to increased NMVOC emissions in 1991-1992, and an even stronger decrease in 1993, when the aerosols were removed from the atmosphere. Secondly, recent studies have shown that the sensitivity of OH concentrations to NMVOC is smaller than previously thought (Stone et al., 2011; Rohrer et al., 2014). The CBM4 chemistry scheme used here
685 does not include an updated isoprene chemistry mechanism, and might exhibit a too high OH sensitivity to isoprene. Telford et al. (2010) used a chemistry scheme that includes the Mainz isoprene mechanism, a parameterisation based on the Master Chemical Mechanism (MCM), which was also shown to misrepresent OH recycling in VOC-rich environments (Pöschl et al., 2000; Stone et al., 2011). Nevertheless, it is important to take NMVOC emission changes into account for evaluating
690 CH₄ variability. Due to the potentially overestimated OH sensitivity, our calculated effect on CH₄ can be seen as an upper estimate.

The latitudinal nudging term needed to correct the mismatch between modelled and observed CH₄ mixing ratios and presented in Sect 3.2 is calculated from measurements at five remote stations. Some uncertainty exists in these terms due to possible observational uncertainty and shortcomings
695 of the nudging procedure. An indication of the observational uncertainty is given in Figure 4, where two observation-based estimates of the global mean CH₄ growth rate variations are shown. The GLOBALVIEW data uses a more complete set of stations, but might contain measurements affected by nearby emissions. Furthermore, additional processing is done to gap-fill and homogenise the station data. The two estimates are in good agreement except for the year 1991, where they differ

700 by about 4 ppb/yr. Some uncertainty also exists in the timing and location of the missing emission variations given by the nudging term. Our nudging procedure is in general able to capture the global growth rate variations. However, because the nudging corrects the amount of CH₄ in the zonal band where the mismatch occurs, this procedure does not account for sub-monthly transport between zonal bands. An inverse modelling setup would be needed to exploit all available measurements to
705 better resolve the sources of mismatch.

5 Conclusions

The processes responsible for CH₄ variability in the early 1990s have been investigated in the global chemistry and transport model TM5. Known drivers of CH₄ variations include: (i) photochemical effects of stratospheric sulfur from Pinatubo and (ii) of stratospheric O₃ changes, (iii) temperature
710 and humidity perturbations, and their effect on CH₄ chemistry, (iv) variations in CH₄ emissions from wetlands, (v) biomass burning and (vi) anthropogenic sources, and (vii) changes in emissions of other compounds and their effect on OH. We find that all these processes contributed in a significant way to the CH₄ growth rate variations in the early 1990s.

The ‘explained’ growth rate evolution falls within the observational range during 1991. However,
715 the increase in growth rate modelled at the end of 1991 using wetlands CH₄ emissions from LPJ is not found in the observations. The observed decrease of about 10 ppb yr⁻¹ in CH₄ growth rate during the year 1992 is captured by the model with a delay of half a year to one year. We have used two inventories for CH₄ emission from wetlands to explore the potential role of uncertainties in this emission sector. Although they have a significantly different variability, the two inventories
720 give a similar performance in capturing the global CH₄ variations. When using ORCHIDEE, the global CH₄ growth rate is better captured in 1990 to 1993, while using LPJ we are able to reproduce better the CH₄ growth rate at the end of the analysed period. The increase in CH₄ in 1993 is not captured by either of the two scenarios. According to our breakdown in individual causes for CH₄ growth rate changes, the overall decrease in the CH₄ growth rate of 5 ppb yr⁻¹ during 1990 to 1995
725 is explained by the observed decrease in O₃ column due to the 11-year cycle in solar activity, and by the estimated decrease in CO and NMVOC emissions in this period.

By analysing the nudging term, we find that the mismatch most likely originates in the northern tropical region. Since the effects of UV changes and temperature changes on OH are considered to be robust, the most likely source of missing variability is natural CH₄ emissions from wetlands.
730 Uncertainties in tropical biomass burning emissions, and in biogenic NMVOC emissions and their effect on OH might have also contributed to the mismatch between the modelled and observed CH₄ concentrations. Modelling CH₄ emissions from wetlands is a challenging topic, due to the large spatial and temporal variability of these ecosystems. The large differences between the two emission datasets used here in terms of CH₄ emission amount and variability show that further

735 research is needed to understand the factors driving emissions from wetlands and their response to
environmental factors. Furthermore, the effect of changes in diffuse radiation and sulfur deposition
after the eruption are not taken into account in the inventories used in this study. Another source of
uncertainty are changes in NMVOC emissions, as well as the impact of NMVOC changes on OH.
Further study is recommended using an updated isoprene chemistry scheme that considers the OH
740 recycling by NMVOC, and using NMVOC emission models that take into account the effect of both
direct and diffuse radiation. Finally, some uncertainty exists in our nudging procedure. An inverse
modelling approach using OH fields from this study and all available CH₄ station measurement data
could better resolve the sources and timing of model-measurement mismatch. This might, almost 25
years after the Pinatubo eruption, further improve our knowledge on the drivers of CH₄ growth rate
745 variations.

Appendix A: Validation of the two-step nudging setup

We use a two-step method to simulate realistic CH₄ concentrations. In a first step, ‘Base1’ and
‘Base2’ scenarios are run with near-surface CH₄ mixing ratios nudged towards the zonal mean
background mixing ratios inferred from measurements at the five stations of South Pole, Cape Grim,
750 Mauna Loa, Niwot Ridge, Barrow, and Alert. The nudging amount is stored on a monthly basis for
each 10-degree latitude band, and used in the second step. In this second step, CH₄ is no longer
constrained by observations, but instead the nudging amount calculated in the first step is applied as
an emission in all scenarios in the lower 2 km.

Figure 7 presents the global and dateline monthly mean CH₄ concentrations and the deseason-
755 alised growth rates obtained in the two runs of ‘Base1’, and their comparison with ‘Background5’
observations. Please note that we show here absolute CH₄ growth rates, and not variations with
respect to 1990 as shown in Figure 4. Also note that the actual CH₄ growth rates in ‘Base1’ are
plotted, unlike in Figures 3 and 4 and where differences between simulations were presented. CH₄
concentrations at the dateline were nudged in the first step to the concentration values indicated by
760 ‘Background5’. Therefore, the fact that the CH₄ dateline mean concentrations follow reasonably
well the observations is a result of the nudging procedure. The global surface mean concentrations
in the model show similar variations as the dateline mean, but with concentrations of 10 to 15 ppb
higher. This is due to the fact that the dateline crosses the Pacific Ocean, and is remote from CH₄
sources, while in the global mean both remote and polluted areas are included. The observed deseason-
765 alised CH₄ growth rate is well reproduced in the model both by the dateline mean and by the
surface mean. The modelled dateline growth rate is within 1 ppb/yr from the observed one, while the
model global mean is within 2 ppb/yr. Both the surface mean and the dateline mean of the two steps
from the model follow well the observed growth rate variations, with a slightly better performance
of the dateline towards the end of the simulation.

770 The global mean and dateline mean concentrations and growth rates of the second step are nearly identical to those of the first step. This shows that the procedure in which the correction is applied does not significantly influence the results, and that the simulation results of the two steps give a similar performance in capturing the observed CH₄ growth rates.

Appendix B: Additivity between drivers of CH₄ variability

775 In Figure 3 we have shown the combined effect of the drivers for CH₄ variability assuming additivity between the different drivers. We verify this assumption by using results from the ‘FixAll1’ simulation, where all drivers of CH₄ were fixed to 1990 values. Figure 8 shows the combined effect of the 7 drivers for CH₄ variability found from the sum of individual drivers for the first simulation set (also shown in figure 5.4 and labeled ‘All Orchidee’), and the combined effect found from the
780 difference between ‘Base1’ and ‘FixAll1’. The two global CH₄ growth rate curves nearly overlap each other, with differences less than 0.2 ppb/yr. This shows that indeed the assumption of additivity is valid.

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Table 1. Annual mean CH₄ sources and sinks, and their interannual variability (IAV). All values are in Tg yr⁻¹.

Category	Inventory or simulation	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	Mean	IAV
Natural wetlands	ORCHIDEE	273.9	276.6	251.7	262.1	272.1	260.8	266.2	11.9
	LPJ	167.4	163.9	161.9	165.6	167.7	169.3	166.1	2.6
Natural other	HYMN	43.0	43.0	43.0	43.0	43.0	43.0	43.0	-
Anthropogenic	EDGAR	256.7	256.2	257.2	256.4	257.3	260.0	257.3	1.2
Biomass burning	RETRO	19.5	21.2	23.0	17.8	20.4	16.5	19.7	3.0
Trop CH ₄ +OH	Base1	489.8	489.4	483.7	505.4	512.0	517.8	499.7	8.1
	Base2	487.9	487.5	482.8	504.6	511.2	517.1	498.5	7.9
Stratospheric sink	Base1	35.1	39.2	39.8	40.3	42.0	41.6	39.7	1.5
	Base2	33.	37.2	38.8	39.4	41.3	40.8	38.4	1.8
Soil sink	Base1	29.2	30.4	26.3	28.5	26.4	25.5	27.7	2.1
	Base2	27.1	26.8	27.0	27.2	26.9	27.5	27.1	0.3
Nudging	Base1	-11.3	-15.1	-18.9	3.5	23.1	11.9	-1.1	12.4
	Base2	88.8	89.3	68.2	98.5	120.0	100.1	94.1	18.7

Table 2. Setup of the simulations, including CH₄ wetland inventory used and drivers of CH₄ included in each simulation. The crosses indicate that the variability of a certain driver is included in the simulation. Otherwise the driver is not included (in the case of Pinatubo SO₂ and aerosol) or 1990 values are used throughout the simulation.

Simulation name	Inventory for CH ₄ emissions from wetlands	Drivers of CH ₄ variability included						
		Pinatubo SO ₂ and aerosol	Stratospheric O ₃	Meteorology	CH ₄ wetland emissions	Natural emissions of CO, NMVOC and NH ₃	Anthropogenic emissions of CH ₄ and other compounds	Biomass burning emissions of CH ₄ and other compounds
Set I								
Base1	ORCHIDEE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
NoPinS1	ORCHIDEE		X	X	X	X	X	X
FixOzone1	ORCHIDEE			X	X	X	X	X
FixMet1	ORCHIDEE		X		X	X	X	X
FixWet1	ORCHIDEE		X	X		X	X	X
FixEmis1	ORCHIDEE		X	X	X			
FixAll1	ORCHIDEE							
Set II								
Base2	LPJ	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
NoPinS2	LPJ		X	X	X	X	X	X
FixWet2	LPJ		X	X	X		X	X

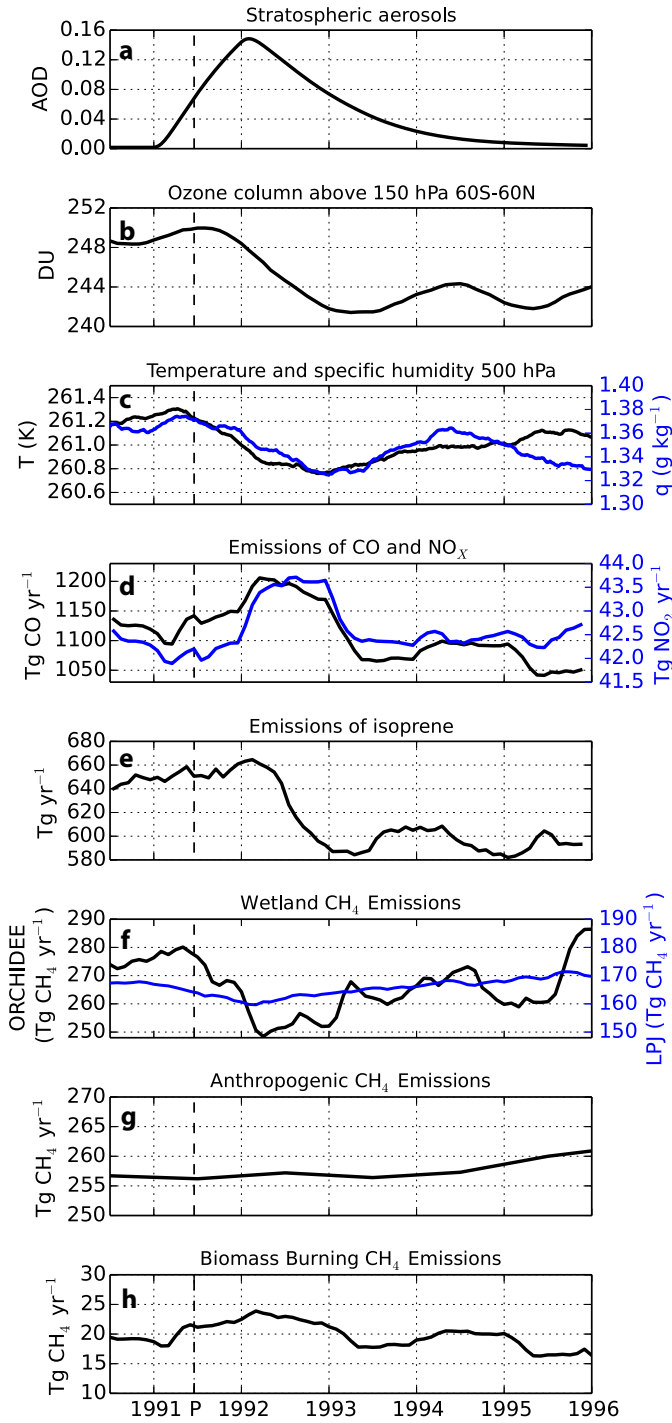


Figure 1. The drivers of CH₄ IAV in the early 1990s considered in this study. The black dashed line denotes the timing of the Pinatubo eruption.

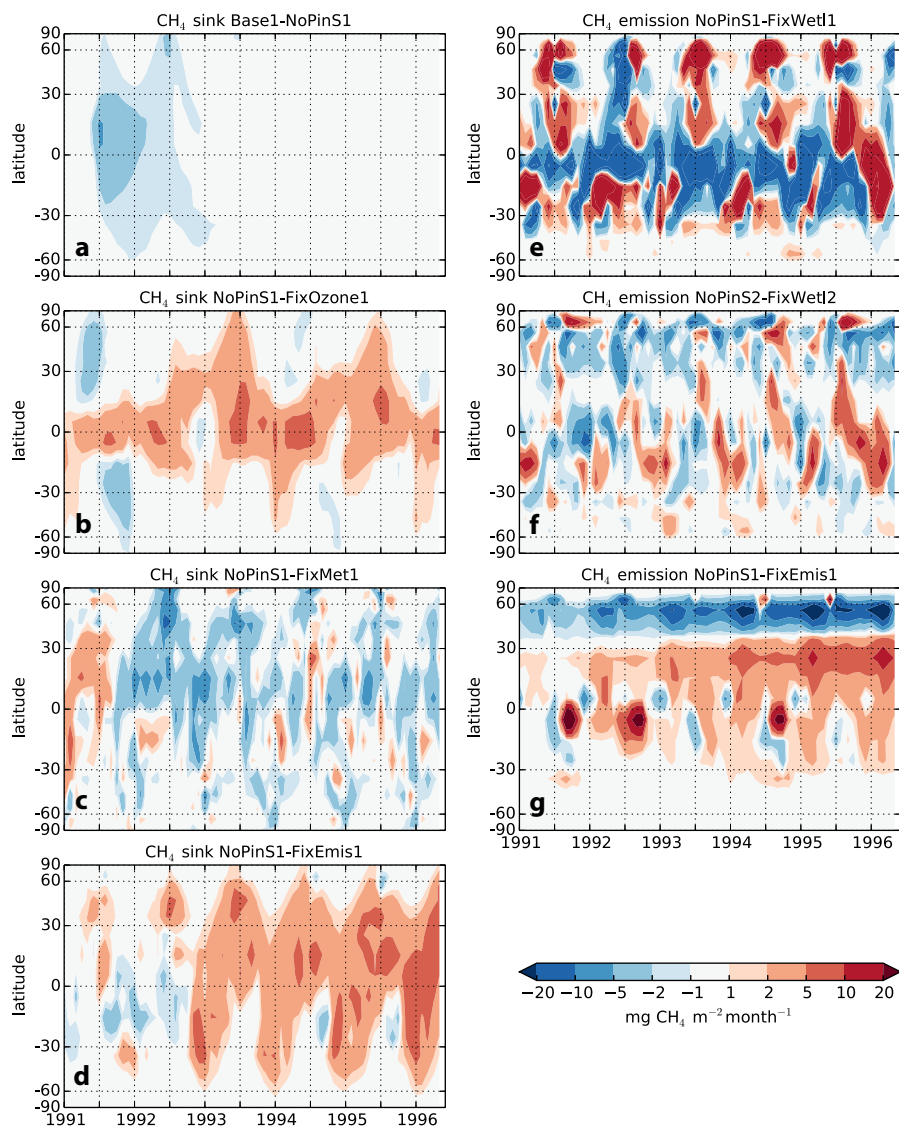


Figure 2. Zonal mean differences in the CH₄ budget terms caused by the different drivers of CH₄ variability, vertically integrated over the troposphere. Changes in the CH₄ sink by the reaction with OH are shown for the effects of a) stratospheric sulfur, b) stratospheric ozone, c) meteorology and d) emissions of CO, NO_x and NMVOC. CH₄ emission changes are shown for wetlands from e) ORCHIDEE and f) LPJ, g) for biomass burning and anthropogenic sectors. The years on the x-axis in this and later figures refer to the start of the year.

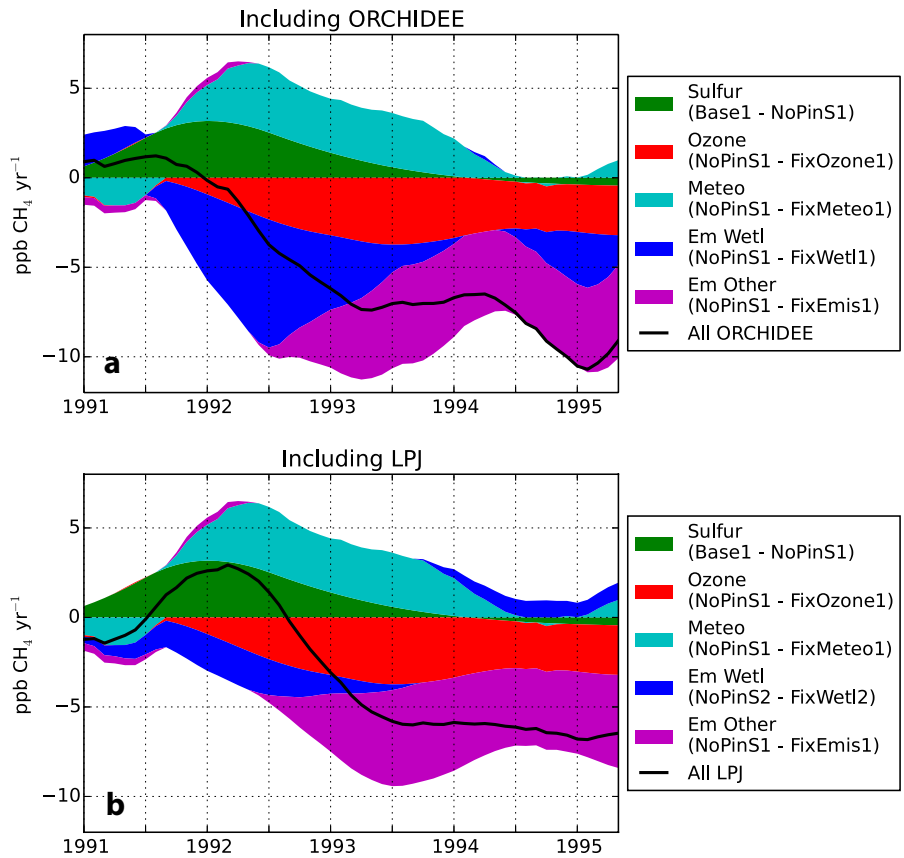


Figure 3. Global CH₄ growth rate variations with respect to the year 1990 induced by the different drivers, using a) ORCHIDEE and b) LPJ to represent variability in CH₄ emissions from wetlands. Simulations from Set I are used in both plots to infer the effect of stratospheric sulfur, stratospheric ozone, meteorology and emissions other than wetlands. Simulations from Set II are used only to infer the effect of LPJ emission variability. The overall variability ('All') is calculated as the sum of the individual variations.

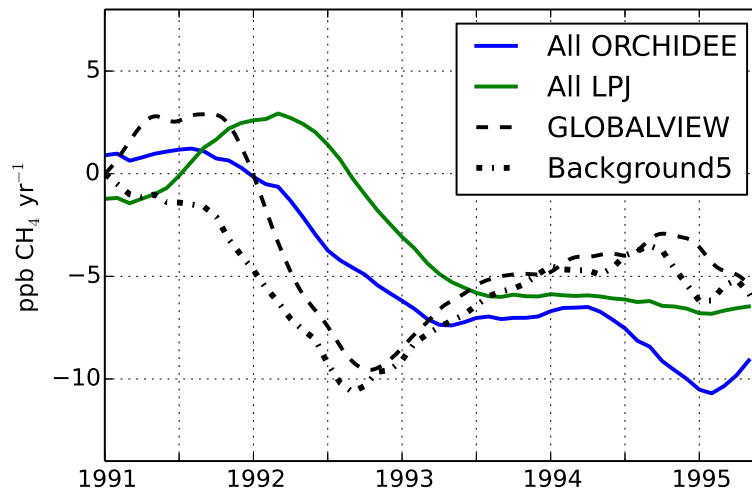


Figure 4. The explained CH₄ growth rate variability in the model using two wetland CH₄ emission inventories, and global deseasonalised CH₄ growth rate differences with respect to 1990 from the GLOBALVIEW observations, and from observations at 5 background stations.

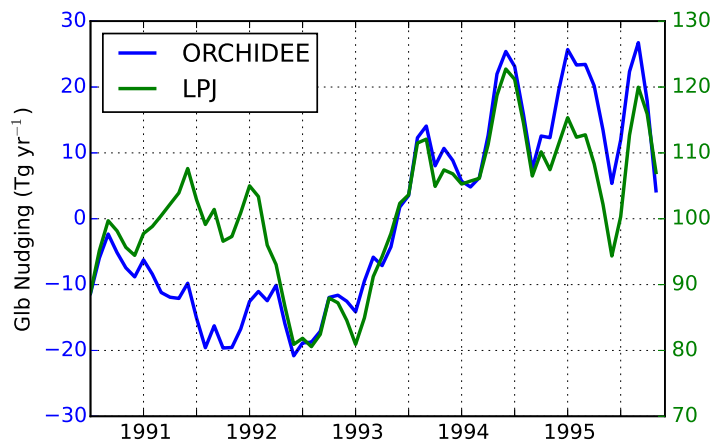


Figure 5. Global deseasonalised CH₄ nudging term for the 'Base1' (left y-axis) and 'Base2' (right y-axis) simulations, using CH₄ wetland emissions from ORCHIDEE and LPJ, respectively.

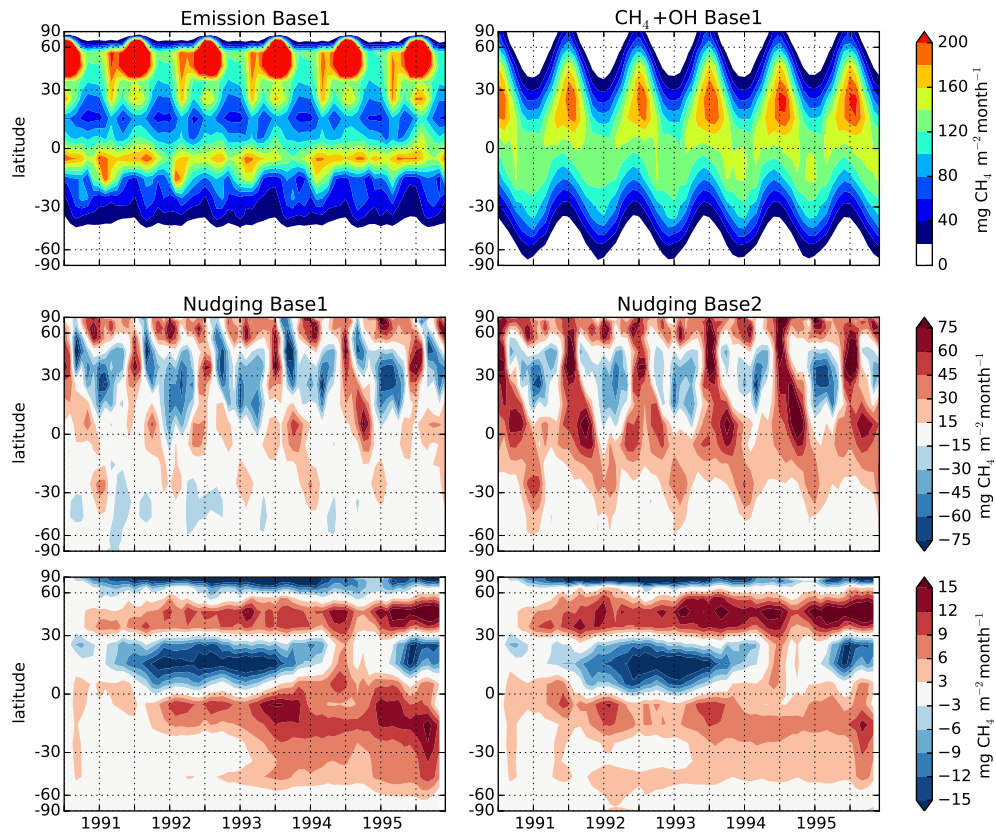


Figure 6. Zonal mean CH₄ a) emission and b) sink by reaction with OH in the 'Base1' simulation, zonal mean CH₄ nudging term when using CH₄ wetland emissions from c) ORCHIDEE ('Base1' simulation) and d) LPJ ('Base2' simulation), e and f) the deseasonalised nudging anomaly compared to 1990.

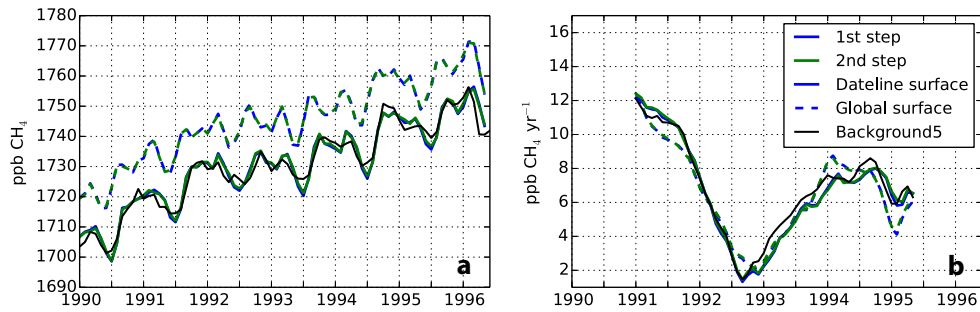


Figure 7. Surface mean CH₄ a) concentrations and b) growth rate for the two runs of ‘Base1’ simulation at the dateline (solid lines) and global mean (dashed lines). The black line shows the background mean concentrations based on 5 background stations.

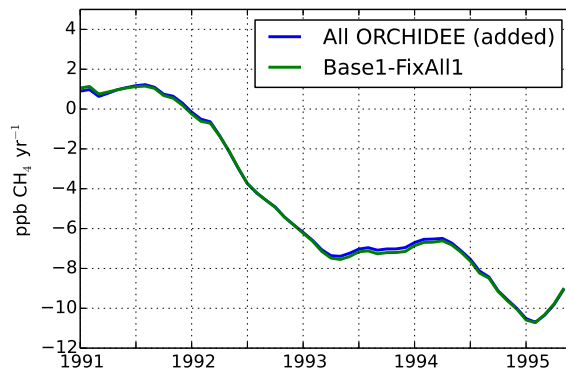


Figure 8. The combined effect of the 7 drivers of CH₄ variability on the global growth rate using ORCHIDEE emissions, assuming additivity (blue) and from the difference between ‘Base1’ and ‘FixAll1’.