

## REPLY TO REFEREE REPORT #1 (Dr. Georgiy Stenchikov)

I believe the paper raises a legitimate question about the nature and reality of a Winter warming response to volcanic forcing, but, with all respect to the authors, I do not believe they present convincing arguments to support their results, at least in the way they formulated them.

*We are sorry to have been unable to convince Dr. Stenchikov, but our results are consistent with nearly all previous studies which have analyzed recent state-of-the-art models. Such models show **no surface winter high-latitude warming in the ensemble mean** following volcanic eruptions, just as our three large ensembles. What is different here is the interpretation: earlier studies concluded that the models are flawed, while we conclude that the models are fine and that the volcanic response is swamped by natural variability.*

### General comments

The evidence of the development of a positive NAO/AO (further referred as AO) anomaly or Winter warming, in response to explosive equatorial volcanic eruptions, was first reported in the 1990s, and is based on compositing multiple observed volcanic events (e.g., Robock and Mao, 1992; Fisher et al., 2007). However, the AR4 and AR5 models tend to produce a weaker ensemble mean Winter warming than in observation composites (Stenchikov et al., 2006; Driscoll et al., 2012). Therefore, the dilemma is whether models are deficient, or Winter warming is spurious. The authors claim they solve this puzzle based solely on model output and observations for only one Winter, following the 1991 Pinatubo eruption.

*We do not claim that the post-Pinatubo winter warming was “spurious”: surface warming was observed and it was real. Our claim is that it was not caused by the eruption.*

We know that up-to-date models generate large uncertainties in reproducing circulation changes (e.g., Deser et al., 2012; Shepherd, 2014). The AO response to volcanic forcing, real or not, is an interesting example of dynamic perturbation caused by imposed radiative forcing. According to (Deser et al., 2012; Shepherd, 2014) it is not surprising that the models cannot capture it well.

*Deser et al. (2012) and Shepherd (2014) do not state that the models “cannot capture the AO response well”. Their papers emphasize that any forced dynamical response will be difficult to establish due to the large variability. Our study is an excellent example of this.*

A positive AO anomaly, after a volcanic eruption, can be generated by a number of stratospheric and tropospheric mechanisms (Stenchikov et al., 2002; Stenchikov, 2016). The stratospheric mechanism involves the strengthening of a NH Polar Vortex, which is relatively well-reproduced by the models, in general, and in this study particularly, and the downward propagation of a signal (Baldwin and Dunkerton, 1999), which is not well-captured by the models (Stenchikov et al., 2006; Driscoll et al., 2012).

*We politely disagree. The downward propagation of signals in most models is well captured. The models we have analyzed (and most other recent state-of-the-art models) can well reproduce the surface impact of SSWs and of stratospheric ozone depletion, both of which occur by a similar mechanism to the (alleged) volcanic signal. That mechanism entails (1) a temperature gradient in the stratosphere which (2) causes an anomaly in the tropospheric annular modes resulting in (3) a surface temperature anomaly over Eurasia. The reason the ensemble-mean shows no warming is that the signal-to-noise ratio is tiny, as we have shown. The same conclusion was reached by Bittner et al. (2016). A polar vortex acceleration of few meters/second is too small to significantly affect the annular modes, and this is why the models show no statistically significant forced temperature response at the surface.*

Due to high variability, an individual Winter warming event is difficult to identify empirically (e.g., stand-alone 1991/92 Winter warming is not statistically significant). The conventional approach to reconcile model results and observations is to match a simulated ensemble mean and a statistically significant composited observed anomaly. Robock and Mao (1992) and Fisher et al. (2007) have composited several post-eruption events to obtain a statistically significant AO response; Stenchikov et al. (2006) and Driscoll et al. (2012) have composited model outputs. They all have to composite eruptions of different magnitudes. I do not think it is an unforgivable sin, assuming that the authors in this study compare the responses in the models where the SW flux, reflected by volcanic aerosols, differs by 50%, which is probably more than the difference between the NH radiative forcing of El Chichon and the forcing of Pinatubo.

*The “conventional approach” was, in our opinion, erroneous. Compositing only a few eruptions (typically a dozen) of different magnitudes, and mixing high- and low-latitude eruptions and first and second winters – as done by Robock and Mao (1992) and Shindell et al. (2004) and a few others – yields mostly a noisy signal. A more careful analysis, the one of Fischer et al. (2007), chose only large low-latitude eruptions, and composited first and second winters separately: from this they found that the surface signal is stronger in second winter, a fact that is hard to reconcile with a stratospheric pathway. We have discussed the observational evidence in detail on page 13 of the revised manuscript.*

In the current study, the authors choose to compare the climate-type large model ensembles with only one observed event: the Winter-warming response in the first year after the 1991 Pinatubo eruption. The Winter warming in 1991/92 is not typical because it is not associated with the strong NH polar vortex, as in the most post-volcanic years in observation. The asymmetry between 1991/92 and 1992/93 Winters caused by different phases of QBO is discussed in details by Stenchikov et al. (2004), based on a large 24-member ensemble, and using 40-layer stratosphere-resolving model. In addition, a Central Pacific El Nino of 1991/92 contributed into peculiarity of the chosen case-study (Predybaylo et al., 2017; Dogar et al., 2017). In the current study, none of those factors (QBO, El Nino) are accounted for in the simulations or, alternatively, their effects were not removed from observations, which as discussed in (Kirchner et al., 1999; Santer et al., 2001; Lehner et al., 2016) is nevertheless important.

*First: whether typical or not, the eruption of Mt. Pinatubo is the poster-child for the (alleged) surface winter warming “caused” by low-latitude volcanic eruptions, and was*

*used by Alan Robock in his highly-cited 2002 paper in Science. It is also the best observed large low-latitude eruption, and hence it is very much worth our understanding.*

*Second: the confounding effect of the QBO or ENSO support our interpretation. The very fact that those modes of natural variability were able to swamp the forced response, even for large eruption, such one of Mt. Pinatubo in 1992, shows that the volcanic response at the surface is small compared to the interval variability. In addition, the fact that the polar vortex was actually weaker (not stronger) in the winter after that eruption should suffice to convince anyone that the stratospheric pathway was surely not operative that winter, as it requires a vortex acceleration to cause a surface warming. The observed surface warming could not possibly have been caused by a decelerated polar vortex.*

Obviously, a simulated ensemble average cannot match the one natural realization, which is not statistically significant, as it comprises both the forced response and the natural variability. The authors stated in their response to the reviewer: “Our key finding, after analyzing three large ensembles, is that the observed warming falls well within the distribution of the model members. From this, we conclude that the models capture the observations.” Basically, the authors claim that, if the observed response for one season falls within the spread of model ensemble responses (i.e., there are a few ensemble members that show Winter warming), this fact validates the model. This is an overstatement. If a model is valid, then the observed response has to fall within the spread of model responses, but the opposite is not necessarily correct.

*If the observations fall within the range of an ensemble of model runs, one can conclude that the model captures the observations. This is not an overstatement: it is a reasonable conclusion. For all three models analyzed here, the observations happened to fall well within the model ensembles. Hence the title of our paper: it conveys the message that there is no conflict between models and observations for the most recent Pinatubo eruption.*

In summary, the actual results of the study do not support the authors’ ambitious claim, as stated in the paper. The authors show that the models perturbed by the Pinatubo-like radiative forcing, due to a strong variability in high NH latitudes of the troposphere and the stratosphere, did not produce a statistically significant positive AO anomaly. It remains unclear if this would be right for the real physical system, or if it is the result of the model or experimental setup deficiencies. A comparison with the observed anomaly, for only one Winter following the 1991 Pinatubo eruption, does not sound convincing to me.

The models themselves do not perfectly simulate the Pinatubo impact. They generate volcanic radiative forcing with at least 50% uncertainty and overheat the equatorial lower stratosphere almost twice the amount in comparison with observations. The effects of QBO and ENSO on the Winter warming of 1991/92 are supposed to diminish in the model ensemble mean, but are not removed from observations; the ensemble sizes, at least for WACCAM (the only stratosphere-resolving model used for the analysis) are relatively small. Clearly, the models presented in this study and the method itself have some significant drawbacks. The conclusions are overstated and are at odds with empirical reconstructions (Robock and Mao, 1992; Fisher et al., 2007; Wunderlich and Mitchell, 2017) that are simply verbally dismissed. The results of the study are incorrectly interpreted. The conclusions should be made consistent with the actual results of the study, before submission for publication in ACP.

*The referee is raising a lot of different issues here. We separate them for clarity.*

*First, the models we have analyzed are of the same quality that those employed by most previous studies. They are state-of-the-art CMIP-class coupled climate models. We dispute the referee's claim that "the models presented in this study ... have some significant drawbacks." There are no other models available. If this type of models cannot be used to study volcanic impacts, all previous modeling papers would have to be discarded.*

*Second, our methodology is very simple. We just contrast the observations to an ensemble of model runs. Most previous papers contrasted the observations to the model mean: that was the mistake, as it ignored internal variability, and led to a perceived discrepancy between models and observations. Our paper shows that there is no discrepancy.*

*Third, the overheating in the equatorial lower stratosphere in our models is very similar to the one in the CMIP3 and CMIP5 models previously analyzed by Stenchikov et al. (2006) and Driscoll et al. (2012), and many other papers. That fact is not a reason to disqualify our paper. But, most importantly: that bias greatly strengthens our claim. Even with an unrealistically strong volcanic forcing, models show no statistical significant surface warming. Without bias, the odds of a significant surface warming would be even lower.*

*Fourth, we dispute the referee's claim that "the conclusions are overstated and are at odds with empirical reconstructions".*

- *As for overstatement: our revised manuscript now includes over three pages of discussion, where we carefully consider many aspects of the problem, and set our findings in the context of previous work and other eruptions.*
- *As for being at odds with reconstructions: we have already noted the issues with studies of Robock and Mao (1992) and Fischer et al. (2007). We believe these issue make that observational evidence questionable. Finally, we fear the referee might have misunderstood the findings of Wunderlich and Mitchell (2017): so we will spell them out. After examining Krakatau (August 1883), Santa Maria (October 1902), Agung (March 1963), El Chichon (April 1982) and Pinatubo (June 1991) with 9 reanalysis datasets (ERA-Interim, ERA-40, JRA-25, JRA-55, MERRA, NCEP-R1, NCEP-CFSR, NCEP-R2 and NOAA-20CR), the authors state (and we quote):*

*Therefore we conclude that **we do not find a significant positive NAO response to volcanic eruptions** with taking the strongest five tropical eruption from the end of the 19th century until present (emphasis ours).*

*That study totally corroborates the key claim of our paper: it is not at odds with it.*

*Fifth and last: the conclusions of our paper are completely "consistent" with the results of our study with large ensembles. This is confirmed by the other two referees, who find our results novel and compelling, and support publication of our paper. Moreover, none of the issues raised above by referee argue that we are not being "consistent". So, we do not understand what "consistency" is being alluded in the last sentence.*

## Specific Comments

P1, L5: This is an overstatement; the strengthening of the NH polar vortex is often reproduced in the model simulations.

*The strengthening of the polar vortex was reported in the early studies which used models with very few vertical levels: it was a highly unrealistic feature, resulting from the lack of stratospheric variability in those early low-resolution model (as we discuss in the paper). Most recent models, e.g. the CMIP3 and CMIP5 models, show very little strengthening of the polar vortex. Bittner et al. (2016) and our own results here with WACCM, suggest that 15-20 members are needed to see a small strengthening. We have, nonetheless, qualified this statement in the revised version.*

P1, L8: Which climate model is highly accurate? What does this mean? How did you prove it?

*We do not understand this comment; the referee perhaps misunderstood what we are saying. The word “accurate” was used as an hypothetical in that sentence.*

P1, L20: I believe most of these effects were previously discussed.

*We are not sure what “effects” the referee is alluding to. The word “effects” does not appear in that sentence, or that paragraph.*

P2, L24: This is an inaccurate statement. Winter warming is associated with a positive phase of AO, and could occur independently of a volcanic impact.

*We do not doubt that winter warming can be “associated with a positive phase of AO, and could occur independently of a volcanic impact.” Our sentence is questioning the claim that volcanic eruptions would be an important driver of the warming. We make no mention of the AO in that sentence.*

P5, L16: English et al. (2013) did not account for the aerosol radiative feedback.

*We do not know what paper is being referred to: English et al. (20013) is not cited in our manuscript, nor is it listed in the referee’s comments.*

P7, L18: with this in mind

*We have corrected this typo.*

P7, L25: Stenchikov et al., 2006

*We are grateful for this correction, and now cite the 2006 paper.*

P7, L25-26: The statement made by the authors is inaccurate. Stenchikov et al. (2006) and Driscoll et al. (2012) compared observed and simulated anomalies composited for a few eruptions since 1850. They found that the simulated composited Winter warming is weaker than in observations.

*We politely disagree with the referee. Driscoll et al. (2012) did not find the warming to be weaker: they found it to be **statistically insignificant**. Specifically, in the conclusion of that paper they state:*

*Disappointingly, we found that again, as with Stenchikov et al. (2006), despite relatively consistent post volcanic radiative changes, **none of the models manage to simulate** a sufficiently strong dynamical response.*

*And again:*

*It is unclear why **models fails to simulate the dynamics** following volcanic eruptions.*

P7, L30-35: Probably most, if not all, AR4 and AR5 models have ensemble members showing 1991/92 Winter warming, and therefore satisfy this suggested weakened criterion.

*We are agreed with the referee. We have no doubt that “most, if not all, AR4 and AR5 models have ensemble members showing 1991/92 Winter warming”. We also don’t doubt that as many ensemble members of those models show 1991/92 winter cooling. This is why the ensemble means shows nothing. We never claimed that the AR4 or AR5 models are flawed; they are similar to the models used in our study. Our claim is that the ensemble mean should not be compared to the observations. It is the entire distribution of the ensemble that needs to be compared to the observations.*

P8, L16: I do not think the authors, in their experiments, can claim that the models are perfectly capable of capturing the post-Pinatubo Winter anomalies in the NH, based on the fact that a few ensemble members do this. E.g., the ensemble members that demonstrate Winter warming might do it for wrong reasons, as the models do not account for some important factors such as the Easterly QBO phase, El Nino in the Winter of 1991/92; models overheat the lower stratosphere and have 50% uncertainty in radiative forcing.

*Since many (not just a few) members show surface warming, we conclude that the models are capturing the observations. We see nothing wrong with our conclusion.*

*We do not understand what the referee means with the expression “members that demonstrate winter warming might do it for wrong reason”. What would be the “right reason” for the warming? Might the referee be implying the warming needs to be caused by the volcanic eruption to be “correct”? If so, is the referee saying that warming due to internal variability is somehow “incorrect”? We are not sure what the referee means.*

*(We have already addressed the issue of model biases in lower stratospheric heating.)*

*As for the QBO and ENSO: they are indeed accounted for in our models, as they are part of the natural variability that is simulated by these models (although only WACCM has a QBO, as the other two models are low-top).*

P9, L6: It would be fair to mention that, for some ensemble members, the zonal wind anomaly exceeds 10 m/s.

*We see no need to mention this fact. We show the wind anomalies for all members of our ensembles, and for many members the zonal wind anomaly is actually negative. In any case, we do not understand why mentioning that fact would be “fair”.*

P9, L10-18: One possible explanation would be that WACCM does not capture the propagation of AO from the stratosphere to the troposphere, as in observations (Baldwin and Durkenton, 1999). Was WACCM tested in this way?

*The WACCM model is stratosphere-resolving model that has been used for years to study stratosphere-troposphere dynamical coupling. It simulates a strong response of the tropospheric annular model to stratospheric ozone depletion, which causes a temperature gradient in the lower stratosphere not unlike the gradient caused by low-latitude volcanic eruptions (see, e.g. Neely et al, 2014). The WACCM model also has excellent stratospheric variability, e.g. the frequency of SSWs shown in Fig.3 of Marsh et al. (2013) compares very well with observations. It also simulated a highly elastic downward propagation of the annual mode signal, as shown in Fig. 4 of Marsh et al. (2013).*

The vertical propagation of planetary waves is a threshold process (Charney and Drazin, 1961), so even small zonal wind changes might matter. The exact value of a threshold velocity obtained in (Charney and Drazin, 1961) might not be perfectly right in the real world, as it was obtained for idealized conditions. But a fundamental conclusion that a planetary wave propagation process is threshold should hold.

*We have already addressed this issue in our previous reply. It is not relevant here.*

P10, L15-19: It is a sampling problem with only one post-Pinatubo season chosen. Multiple cases have to be considered to judge which mechanism works more frequently.

*We are not sure what the referee means by “multiple cases”. We examine 13, 42, and 50 members across three ensemble. Driscoll et al. (2016) examined a dozen models with several members each. Bittner (2015) examined one model with 100 members. **In all these instances the surface warming forced by the volcanic eruptions was not statistically significant.** We do not see why more cases are needed.*

P10, L22: addresss

*The typo has been corrected.*

P11, L20-30: Not all previous studies were conducted using models with a poorly resolved stratosphere. Stenchikov et al. (2002, 2004) used the 40-level GFDL stratosphere resolving model.

*We have qualified that sentence, which now reads “most of those early models simply lacked a good representation of the stratosphere...”*

#### REFERENCES:

R.R. Neely, D.R. Marsh, K.L. Smith, S.M. Davis and L.M. Polvani: Biases in Southern Hemisphere climate trends induced by coarsely specifying the temporal resolution of stratospheric ozone, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 41, 8602-8610 (2014)

D.R. Marsh, M.J. Mills, D.E. Kinnison, J.-F. Lamarque, N. Calvo and L.M. Polvani: Climate change from 1850 to 2005 simulated in CESM1(WACCM), *J. Climate*, 26, 7372-7391 (2013)



## REPLY TO REFEREE REPORT #2

The authors careful consideration of the two first-round reviews is appreciated, and has resulted in a number of minor edits that improve the manuscript. This manuscript as it stands is suitable for publication. Should additional revisions be made, a few comments are given below.

*We thank the referee for the careful reading and constructive comments.*

### Remaining comments

P9 L1517: My disagreement remains regarding the SSW-Pinatubo comparison. First, SSW events are fundamentally different than a (hypothetical) vortex acceleration from Mt. Pinatubo – with regard to mechanism, sign of the wind anomaly, magnitude, and timescale – so information about SSWs cannot be extrapolated to eruptions. Second, even if such extrapolation were appropriate, a single SSW may not reach the surface (as the authors note), but on average they do; and the strength of that effect is what is in question regarding Mt. Pinatubo, or eruptions in general. That said, the sentence is not a big deal either way; I just think the SSW-Pinatubo comparison slightly weakens the overall argument of the manuscript.

*We politely disagree with the reviewer. While the time scales of SSWs may indeed be shorter than any possible vortex acceleration accompanying Mt. Pinatubo, stratospheric ozone depletion over the South Pole has similar time scale (of the order of several months) and it similarly affects the polar vortex and the annular modes. To the best of our knowledge, no one has claimed that the mechanism via which ozone depletion impacts the tropospheric annular modes is any different the mechanism associated with SSWs. Thus we see no reason why volcanic eruptions should be any different: they simply create a temperature gradient in the lower stratosphere, and the tropospheric annular modes respond accordingly. There is nothing special about eruptions. We think the analogy is entirely appropriate.*

F5: The additional analysis for Figure 5 is much appreciated, and adds support to the manuscripts narrative. Inclusion of the low-top results in Figure S6 is appropriate given that they are supporting, if weaker, evidence for the conclusions of Figure 6.

*We are agreed. And thank you for the suggestion: it improved our paper.*

P9 L2435: I previously commented that examining two individual ensemble members does not offer any insight into the mechanism. The paragraph is certainly supported by Figure 6, but it is not surprising (at least to this reviewer) given the variety of processes contributing to interannual variability. Although my preference would be to keep the discussion focused on the effect/mechanism in the ensemble average, readers familiar with the authors approach (as in the papers they cited) may wish to see the information presented in this form.

*Thank you. Showing that a large surface cooling can easily follow a strong eruption should be an eye-opener to many readers who have, until recently, only seen ensemble-means of model output (no paper to date has actually shown individual model runs).*

## REPLY TO REFEREE REPORT #3

The authors of this manuscript argue that the large tropical eruption of Mt. Pinatubo has had little impact on Northern Hemisphere stratospheric polar vortex strength and virtually no impact on European surface temperature. With the help of large ensembles, they show that internal variability is sufficient to explain the observed temperature response after Mt. Pinatubo and possibly as well as for other large tropical eruptions. The proposed stratospheric mechanism of how volcanic eruptions dynamically influence European winter temperatures is hence called in the question by the authors.

I think the manuscript is important and of great scientific interest as it will possibly intensify the discussion about the dynamic impact of large volcanic eruptions which has been taken for granted so far. The impact of internal variability has been too much neglected so far, in this sense the manuscript offers a new, quite drastic, perspective. After addressing the few points I have, the manuscript should be suitable for publication.

*We are grateful to the referee for taking the time to carefully read our manuscript, and for providing a thoughtful and helpful reply. We have addressed in detail the points he raises, and hope the manuscript will now be acceptable for publication.*

### 1. General comments

1. I feel that the authors are a little too overconfident with the conclusion that internal variability alone is sufficient to explain the surface temperature signal in the winter following tropical volcanic eruptions. There is a significant acceleration of the polar vortex of 3,5-5 m/s (see specific comment below) after Pinatubo in one particular climate model as well as in the CMIP5 ensemble (Bittner et al. 2016). I agree that even 5 m/s is small compared to SSW events (or a strong acceleration of the vortex) but even the mean acceleration might have an impact on surface climate (Kidston et al., 2015). Moreover, the change in the mean can very well represent a change of polar vortex variability, i.e. more/less SSW or more episodes of strong vortices, on smaller timescales which have been shown to have an impact on surface climate (Baldwin and Dunkerton, 1999, and many others). One would need to investigate on smaller (probably daily) timescales how the vortex changes after volcanic eruptions in a large ensemble. I am not aware such a study has been done yet and it is clearly not the scope of this manuscript, but I would ask the authors to be more careful in completely dismissing the possibility of a stratospheric influence.

*That internal variability is sufficient to explain the surface temperature signal at the surface is a conclusion that is strongly suggested by our large ensemble results. This is exemplified in Figure 3, which shows how individual ensemble members can show equally large cooling as warming. Figures 3 and 4 show that the models' forced responses at the surface are zero, but that the observations are consistent with the models' simulation of internal variability. The same interpretation can be drawn from existing literature e.g. see the results from the CMIP5 ensemble in Figures 4 and 6 of Driscoll et al. [2012]. We are simply saying that if we believe that CMIP-class models are not fundamentally flawed in their representation of internal variability (and we are aware of no paper claiming and demonstrating that they are), there is no need to invoke a forced response (through the stratospheric pathway, or any other pathway, in fact) in order to explain the observed warming.*

*We question the stratospheric pathway by simply noting that the stratospheric polar vortex in the winter following the Pinatubo eruption was actually weaker, not stronger, than in the climatology (see our Figure 7d).*

*Finally, following the referee's suggestion, we have added a very detailed discussion (on page 13), and mention the possibility of other possible pathways for volcanic signals.*

2. That said, I very much agree with the authors that with the too few observations at hand one can and should be skeptical about the stratospheric mechanism. It might well be that the comparatively small acceleration of the NH polar vortex after volcanic eruptions are completely dwarfed by the internal variability. However, quite some observational studies show an impact of volcanic eruptions on European climate. In addition to the already cited Fischer (2007) and Shindell (2004), Christiansen (J. Clim., 2007) reports a significantly positive NAO and AO signal in the first winter after major eruptions since Krakatau (1883). Graf et al. (Clim. Dyn., 2014) show that the surface temperature signal under strong polar vortices are very different after volcanic eruptions in contrast to volcanically undisturbed winters. They note, however, the strong influence of internal variability (ENSO and QBO) and the limitation of the small sample size which prevent conclusive statements about mechanisms. Even if accounting for all the limitations of observations, especially if one goes back in time, I feel the authors are still too quick to dismiss the observational evidence. Even if Fischer (2007) reports a stronger surface influence of volcanic eruption in the second post-year eruption, it is very well possible that volcanic eruptions are partly responsible. Yes, I agree that averaging different eruptions strength can be problematic (as indicated in the manuscripts' discussion).

However, I'd rather argue that even if one has to average many eruptions (we will never get completely comparable Pinatubo eruptions in nature) and they seem to agree on some form of continental winter warming, there is likely to be a causal, physical connection. Of course, the volcanic influence is at least strongly modified by internal variability (as mentioned in the manuscript P2, LL21-25 as perplexing fact), but it is possible that a still unknown process is at work. Even if the stratospheric mechanism might not be as important as always assumed (or not important at all), there might be a tropospheric mechanism, involving maybe the ocean with a much longer memory, which influence European climate. With so many observational evidences I think it is rather unlikely that everything is internal variability, hence I would ask the authors to acknowledge this conflict (observational studies vs. everything is internal variability) and at least discuss the possibility of a volcanic influence on European winter temperatures which climate models might not capture correctly.

*The reason for our skepticism of the observational evidence is that, leaving aside the issue of whether one ought to average eruptions of different magnitudes, the number of available eruptions is very small. Robock and Mao (1992) analyzed 12, but only 6 where in the tropics (equatorwards of 30°). Similarly Shindell et al (2004) analyzed 18 but, again, only 12 where at low latitudes. We wonder as to the consequences of mixing low and high latitude eruptions. Fisher et al (2007) averaged 15 low-latitude eruptions, but that number is still tiny in the context of the Bittner et al (2016) results: recall they they see no surface warming in winter even with 100 eruptions. In any case, we have now added (on page 13) a much more detailed discussion of the observational evidence, as suggested by the referee.*

## 2. Specific comments

P2, LL21-25: As mentioned in my general comment, I do not find it perplexing at all that smaller eruptions as El Chichon show a larger surface response compared to Krakatau or Tambora. As the authors stress, internal variability plays a crucial role, hence the possibly volcanic forced signal might be strongly modified/superimposed by internal variability.

*We use the word 'perplexing' to alert the reader that a smaller warming following a larger eruption should immediately raise doubts as to whether the warming is caused by the eruption (which is what many papers have tacitly assumed, ignoring internal variability). We hope to have clarified this in the text.*

P3, LL13-16: I frankly do not understand where these numbers come from. Bittner et al. (2016) show in Figure 2a a polar vortex acceleration of close to 4 m/s (ensemble average) not 2 m/s to a Pinatubo forcing. And these 4 m/s is statistically different from the null hypothesis at 15(25) ensemble members at the 95%(99%) confidence level. So, 100 model runs are more than sufficient to establish that fact.

*We are very grateful to the reviewer for flagging our incorrect reading of Bittner et al. (2016). We have corrected this here and in the two other instances. Indeed they state (1) that the polar vortex acceleration is 3-4 m/s following Pinatubo, and (2) that 15-20 model runs are needed to establish that fact at the 95% level.*

*We also note, however, that while 100 members may be plenty to detect a statistically significant (albeit small) acceleration of the polar vortex, in his PhD thesis Bittner (2015, Fig 6.4) shows that even this large number of ensemble members is not sufficient to detect a statistically significant surface winter warming.*

P9, LL12-13: Same issue here. Which makes the agreement to WACCM4 even “more excellent”, but the number of ensemble members are more like 15-25.

*Thank you again. Fixed*

P10, L15: here again.

*Fixed.*

P11, L18: and here.

*Fixed.*

# Northern Hemisphere continental winter warming following the 1991 Mt. Pinatubo eruption: Reconciling models and observations

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**Abstract.** It has been suggested, and is widely believed, that the anomalous surface warming observed over the Northern Hemisphere continents in the winter following the 1991 eruption of Mt. Pinatubo was, in fact, caused by that eruption, via a stratospheric pathway that involves a strengthening of the polar vortex. However, most studies that have examined multiple, state-of-the-art, coupled climate models report that, in the ensemble mean, the models do not show winter warming after the Mt. Pinatubo eruption. This lack of surface warming in the multi-model mean, concomitant with a [frequent](#) lack of strengthening of the polar vortex, is often interpreted as a failure of the models to reproduce the observations. In this paper we show that this interpretation is erroneous, as averaging many simulations from different models, or from the same model, is not expected to yield surface anomalies similar to the observed ones, even if the models were highly accurate, owing to the presence of strong internal variability.

We here analyze three large ensembles of state-of-the-art, coupled climate model simulations and show that, in all three, many individual ensemble members are able to produce post-Pinatubo surface warming in winter that is comparable to the observed one. This establishes that current-generation climate models are perfectly capable of reproducing the observed surface post-eruption warming. We also confirm the bulk of previous studies, and show that the surface anomaly is not statistically different from zero when *averaged* across ensembles of simulations, which we interpret as the simple fact that the volcanic impact on continental winter temperatures is tiny compared to internal variability.

We also carefully examine the stratospheric pathway in our models and, again confirming previous work, show that any strengthening of the polar vortex caused by the Mt. Pinatubo eruption is very small (of the order of a few m/s at best). Such minuscule anomalies of the stratospheric circulation are completely overwhelmed by the tropospheric variability at mid-latitudes, which is known to be very large: this explains the lack of surface winter warming in the ensemble means.

In summary, our analysis and interpretation offer compelling new evidence that the observed warming of the Northern Hemisphere continents in the winter 1991-1992 was very likely unrelated to the 1991 Mt. Pinatubo eruption.

## 1 Introduction

Large, low-latitude volcanic eruptions produce considerable, albeit short lived, natural perturbations to the radiative forcing of the Earth's climate, and thus offer unique opportunities to probe its dynamics. With an estimated peak aerosol loading of 30 Tg (McCormick and Veiga, 1992), the eruption of Mt. Pinatubo in June 1991 was the largest to occur since the advent satellite  
5 observation and, in fact, the second largest over the entire 20th century (after the 1912 Novarupta eruption). Moreover, in terms of dust veil index (Robock, 2000) and stratospheric optical depth (Sato et al., 1993) it stands unrivaled all the way back to the historic eruption of Mt. Krakatau in 1883, and is therefore the premier candidate for understanding how volcanic aerosols affect the climate system.

After the initial cataclysmic eruption of June 14-15 1991, the aerosol cloud from Mt. Pinatubo spread rapidly and encircled  
10 the globe in a mere 22 days (Bluth et al., 1992) filling the entire tropical belt, both north and south of the Equator, in a couple of months (McCormick and Veiga, 1992) and then spreading to higher latitudes in subsequent months (Long and Stowe, 1994). Since volcanic aerosols are strong scatterers of incoming solar radiation, they act to cool the troposphere and the Earth's surface. By September 1992, the global lower troposphere had cooled by  $-0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Dutton and Christy, 1992), with an even larger cooling of  $-0.7^{\circ}\text{C}$  in the Northern Hemisphere (NH). Such large cooling values are comparable to the estimates for the  
15 epochal Tambora eruption of 1815 (McCormick et al., 1995).

In the context of such widespread cooling, the surface temperature over the NH continents happened to be anomalously warm in the winter immediately following the Mt. Pinatubo eruption (Robock, 2002). In a series of papers, Groisman (1992), Robock and Mao (1992), and later Robock and Mao (1995) and Kelly et al. (1996), argued that continental winter warming also occurred following several other eruptions since 1850, and suggested that the winter NH warming was actually *caused* by the  
20 volcanic eruptions. Further observational evidence was offered by Shindell et al. (2004), who expanded the set to a dozen large, low-latitude eruptions, going back to the year 1600. Their additional evidence, however, includes some perplexing facts. For instance, they show that the continental winter warming following both the 1883 Krakatau and the 1815 Mt. Tambora eruptions is, apparently, much smaller than the one following the 1982 El Chichón eruption (see Figure 1 of Shindell et al., 2004): this is difficult to reconcile with the narrative that volcanoes are the major cause of the NH continental winter warming, since those  
25 two earlier eruptions are larger in magnitude than the later one. Finally, after analyzing European climate reconstructions over the last half millennium, Fischer et al. (2007) report the somewhat puzzling result that the wintertime surface temperature anomalies ~~caused by following~~ low-latitude eruptions appear to be stronger the second post-eruption year than in the first : ~~this puzzling result is clearly at odds with the fact~~ (recall that only a small fraction of the volcanic aerosols are left in the stratosphere in the second winter after an eruption).

30 Part of the widespread belief in the existence of a causal link between low-latitude volcanic eruptions and winter warming over the NH continents stems from the fact that a mechanism has been proposed to explain that link. Graf et al. (1993), on the basis of highly<sup>1</sup> idealized numerical experiments, followed by the observational studies of Kodera (1994) and Perlwitz and

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<sup>1</sup>Their model was run in perpetual January configuration, with prescribed sea surface temperatures and sea ice concentrations, forced with an "externally computed" heating rate, but without interactive aerosols or ozone chemistry modules.

Graf (1995), and further numerical studies by Kirchner et al. (1999), Stenchikov et al. (2002) and many others thereafter, have advocated for the existence of what we will refer to as a “stratospheric pathway” causally linking low-latitude eruptions in summer with mid-latitude surface warming the following winter. The starting point for this mechanism is the well known fact that sulfate aerosols of volcanic origin are also strong absorbers of infrared radiation: hence powerful, low-latitude eruptions that are able to penetrate sufficiently high into the atmosphere can cause a strong *warming* of the tropical lower stratosphere, in addition to the tropospheric and surface cooling mentioned above. In the case of Mt. Pinatubo a 2-3°C warming<sup>2</sup> of the tropical lower stratosphere was seen in radiosonde observations (Randel, 2010), in agreement with multiple reanalyses (Fujiwara et al., 2015). Such a perturbation increases the equator-to-pole temperature gradient in the stratosphere, notably in winter, and induces a strengthening of the stratospheric polar vortex. The stronger polar vortex, it is claimed, then causes a positive phase of the North Atlantic Oscillation (or the Northern Annual Mode), which finally results in warmer surface temperatures over the NH continents, notably over Eurasia.

In spite of its simplicity, this proposed mechanism remains unconvincing because it has yet to be properly quantified. For instance, one could ask: *how large* is the polar vortex acceleration caused by an eruption comparable to the one of Mt. Pinatubo in 1991? A recent study (Bittner et al., 2016), using a very large ensemble of runs with a well-tested stratosphere-resolving model, suggests reports a polar vortex acceleration possibly as large as 2 of 3-4 m/s at 10 hPa around 60N, but also reports that even 100 model runs are insufficient an ensemble size of 15-20 members is needed to establish that fact at the 99.95% confidence level and if one lowers the level to 95% more than 60 runs are (and twice that size is needed for a statistically significant 2 m/s acceleration of the polar vortex (99% significance, see their Figure 2a). Moreover, the large But, more importantly, Bittner (2015) shows that such a polar vortex acceleration (of a few m/s) does not result in a statistically significant wintertime continental warming, even with 100 members. This should not be surprising, as the internal variability associated with the North Atlantic Oscillation can easily overwhelm the surface effects of such a small stratospheric perturbation, as it even confounds the forced signal from increasing greenhouse gases over an entire 50-year period (see, for instance, Deser et al., 2017).

In fact, the original stratospheric pathway mechanism has been called into question, even by its original proponents. Stenchikov et al. (2002) suggested that the stratospheric pathway may be part of a more complex mechanism and, on the basis of results from a single model, proposed that an additional tropospheric pathway may be equally important. In addition, Graf et al. (2007) reported that observations actually show *increased* planetary wave activity in the winter following the Mt. Pinatubo eruption, which is at odds with the claim of a stronger polar vortex that winter causing the NH surface warming, and completely invalidates the original mechanism. Thus, they suggest “that the climate effects of volcanic eruptions are *not* being explained by the excitation of inherent zonal mean variability modes such as Strong Polar Vortex or Northern Annular Mode, but rather is another mode that possibly reflects upon the North Atlantic Oscillation” (Graf et al., 2007).

Furthermore, one can find in the literature many modeling studies whose findings are often diametrically opposite to each other. We will not exhaustively cite all previous papers, but simply limit ourselves to highlighting a few key studies to illustrate the contradictory claims that can be found in the peer-reviewed literature. Let us start by summarizing the findings of Driscoll et al. (2012), who analyzed 13 models from the Climate Model Intercomparison Project, Phase 5 (CMIP5). These models were

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<sup>2</sup>At levels close to 20 km, taking the one-year mean after the eruption minus the mean of the preceding three years.

specifically selected so as to have at least two ensemble members available. Comparing the average across all the models, as well as the averages across all the members of the each model, they concluded that “none of the models manage to simulate a sufficiently strong dynamical response,” given the absence of NH continental warming following the Mt. Pinatubo eruption in the model averages. Their study confirms the earlier conclusion reached with the CMIP3 models (Stenchikov et al., 2006), and  
5 many other studies (e.g. Thomas et al., 2009; Marshall et al., 2009; Bittner, 2015; Wunderlich and Mitchell, 2017).

Against this body of evidence, analyzing two version of the NASA/GISS model, Shindell et al. (2004) have claimed that “driven by solar heating induced by the stratospheric aerosols, these models produce enhanced westerlies from the lower stratosphere all the way to the surface” and a significant wintertime warming over the NH continents, in agreement with Graf et al. (1993) and Kirchner et al. (1999), who also claimed that climate models are able to simulate the continental winter  
10 warming following the Mt. Pinatubo eruption via the stratospheric pathway. In fact, Shindell et al. (2004) concluded that their results “provide a further strong indication of the critical role of the stratosphere in the dynamic response to external forcing,” with a suggestion that a well resolved stratosphere is crucial for capturing the NH winter warming that would be caused by volcanic eruptions. That suggestion, however, would seem soundly refuted by the evidence presented in Charlton-Perez et al. (2013), who separately analyzed models with and without a well-resolved stratosphere, and showed no difference between the  
15 two sets in the forced response of the polar vortex in the winter following volcanic eruptions.

And lastly, Zambri and Robock (2016) reanalyzed the CMIP5 models using a different methodology. Averaging only the largest eruptions, and only the first winter after those eruptions, they concluded that “most models do produce a winter warming signal, with warmer temperatures over NH continents and a stronger polar vortex in the lower stratosphere,” directly contradicting Driscoll et al. (2012).

20 It is in the context of such multiple inconsistent claims, that our paper aims to answer two questions:

1. Are current-generation climate models able to simulate the continental winter warming in the NH following the 1991 Mt. Pinatubo eruption?
2. If so, does the stratospheric pathway proposed by Robock and Mao (1992) and Graf et al. (1993) play any role in simulating that warming?

25 Analyzing large ensembles of model integrations from three different state-of-the-art coupled climate models over the historical period, we show below that (1) models *are* perfectly capable of simulating NH continental warming in the winter following the Mt. Pinatubo eruption, but (2) the stratospheric pathway – and, more importantly, the Mt. Pinatubo eruption itself – very likely played *no significant role* in the occurrence of that warming.



## 2 Methods

### 2.1 The models

Three large ensembles of integrations with state-of-the-art, comprehensive climate models are analyzed in here. All our models include atmosphere, land, ocean and sea-ice components, fully coupled<sup>3</sup> to accurately simulate the climate system response to the Mt. Pinatubo eruption. Here are, in brief, the specifications of our three models: WACCM4, CAM5-LE, CanESM2

- WACCM4 is the Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model, Version 4, developed by the Community Earth System Model (CESM) Project. WACCM4 is a high-top model, with a lid at 140 km and 66 vertical levels, and a horizontal resolution of  $\sim 2^\circ$ . Its climate over the 20th century has been thoroughly evaluated by Marsh et al. (2013), where further details about this model may be found. We emphasize that WACCM4 also includes interactive stratosphere ozone chemistry and, therefore, has the most realistic representation of stratospheric dynamics and chemistry of the three models analyzed here.
- CAM5-LE was also developed under the CESM project, with ocean and sea ice components similar to those of WACCM4. However, the atmospheric component of CAM5-LE is very different: it is a low-top model with only 30 vertical levels but with a higher horizontal resolution ( $\sim 1^\circ$ ) and, most importantly, employs very different physical parameterizations than those in WACCM4 (Neale et al., 2010) and, in fact, has a considerably different climate sensitivity (Gettelman et al., 2013). CAM5-LE has been at the heart of the CESM Large Ensemble Project (see Kay et al., 2015, for details) and its performance, therefore, has been thoroughly tested in dozens of studies which have analyzed its output.
- CanESM2 is the second-generation Canadian Earth System Model, developed at the Canadian Centre for Climate Modeling and Analysis (CCCma). The atmospheric component of CanESM2 is a spectral model with an approximate horizontal resolution of  $2.8^\circ$  and with 35 unevenly spaced vertical levels and a model top near 0.1 hPa. For more details the reader may consult von Salzen et al. (2013). Again, this is a well-tested model which has contributed a whole suite of runs to the CMIP5 project, and it has been widely used in many climate studies (e.g. Swart et al., 2015).

We note that all three models were previously used to study the climatic effects of volcanic eruptions (English et al., 2013; Lehner et al., 2016; Gagné et al., 2017). More importantly, for all three models we have available a *large ensemble* of integrations which cover the second half of the 20th century. For these integrations, the models include all known natural and anthropogenic forcings, as per the so-called “historical” specifications of the CMIP5 protocol (Taylor et al., 2012). Specifically, we have analyzed 13 runs with WACCM4, 42 runs with CAM5-LE, and 50 runs with CanESM2. We stress that the model forcings are *identical for all members* of the same ensemble. The differences among members of the same ensemble arise uniquely from minuscule perturbations imposed on the models’ atmospheric initial conditions: the differences allow us to explore the internal variability of the system which, in many cases, can be much larger than the response to an external forcing, be it natural or anthropogenic. The reader is referred to Deser et al. (2012) for the seminal exposition of this methodology.

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<sup>3</sup>Note that was mostly not the case in the earlier studies. Neither Graf et al. (1993), nor Kirchner et al. (1999), nor Stenchikov et al. (2002), nor Shindell et al. (2004) used fully coupled climate models.

## 2.2 The analysis

We here discuss three key methodological choices we made in designing the best strategy to determine whether current-generation climate models are able to capture the wintertime NH continental warming following volcanic eruptions.

1. *Choice of eruption.* Although the model runs available to us cover the 1963 Agung and 1982 El Chichón eruption, we will here focus solely on the 1991 eruption of Mt. Pinatubo, in view of the following. First, as already noted, that eruption is the best observed of all known eruptions, and thus offers the best opportunity to contrasting models and observations. Second, one can easily argue that every eruption is unique: for instance, while the aerosol cloud from Pinatubo spread out in both hemispheres, the one of Mt. Agung spread primarily into the Southern Hemisphere (Viebrock and Flowers, 1968). So, combining these seems inappropriate. Third, and most importantly: since we are seeking to isolate and quantify the forced response to volcanic eruptions, it make no sense to average eruptions of different magnitudes. This would be tantamount to trying to estimate the Earth's climate sensitivity by averaging together  $2\times\text{CO}_2$  and  $4\times\text{CO}_2$  model runs. And we do not know whether the forced response varies linearly with the magnitude of an eruption. Other recent studies have also argued against averaging stronger and weaker eruptions when seeking to isolate their climatic impacts (Bittner et al., 2016; Zambri and Robock, 2016).
2. *Choice of winters.* We will here analyze only the first winter following the June 1991 eruption, i.e. the three month period from December 1991 to February 1992. Many (if not most) of the earlier studies assumed that the effect of volcanic eruptions can be felt for several years, and averaged together the first and second winters after each eruption. We see no cogent reason for doing so: the Mt. Pinatubo volcanic aerosols were removed from the atmosphere with an e-folding timescale of about 12-months (Barnes and Hofmann, 1997), so that the aerosol optical depth in January 1993 is much smaller than in January 1992 (see also Long and Stowe, 1994). Furthermore, if indeed the stratospheric pathway is crucial to carrying the response down to the surface at higher latitudes, it is difficult to imagine what memory the stratosphere would possess to remember in the winter of 1993 an eruption that occurred in June 1991. The recent study of Zambri and Robock (2016) also argues that only the first winter should be used, since “averaging the first two winters after each eruption may have had a damping effect.”
3. *Choice of reference period.* Here we follow the methodology of Stenchikov et al. (2006) and Driscoll et al. (2012), and define the winter-time anomalies after the Mt. Pinatubo eruption as the difference between 1991/1992 winter and the mean of the winters in the 1985-1990 reference period. While this need not be the best way to quantify the post-eruption anomalies, we nonetheless adopt it in order to be consistent with recent studies who analyzed models similar to ours (Bittner et al., 2016; Zambri and Robock, 2016). As we will show below, our conclusions differ significantly from those of previous studies, and we want to make it clear that the choice of reference period is not at the root of those differences.

In summary then: for all quantities in all figures below (except Fig. 2) we will be showing and discussing anomalies defined as the difference between the first winter following the June 1991 Mt. Pinatubo eruption and the reference period defined

in Driscoll et al. (2012). We will refer to these as the “post-Pinatubo anomalies,” or just “the anomalies” for short and, for simplicity, denote them with a prime (e.g.  $T'_s$  for the surface temperature anomalies).

### 3 Can climate models simulate the observed NH continental warming following the 1991 Mt. Pinatubo eruption?

It is useful to start by recalling what the observed wintertime, post-Pinatubo, surface temperature anomalies over the NH continents actually look like. They are shown in Fig. 1, from four different datasets: two observational ones, GISSTEMP (Hansen et al., 2010) and HadCRUT4 (Morice et al., 2012), and two reanalyses, NCEP/NCAR (Kalnay et al., 1996) and ERA-Interim (Dee et al., 2011). Note the excellent agreement between these four data products, which all show warming over both North America and the Eurasian continent. The fact that *both* continental masses were anomalously warm, is of relevance for the stratospheric pathway mechanism to be discussed in the next section. These anomalies are also in excellent agreement with the lower tropospheric temperature anomalies from the Microwave Sounding Unit, Channel 2 (MSU2) satellite observations shown by Robock (2002), albeit for a slightly different reference period.

We now turn to analyzing the models. Before showing the simulated surface temperatures, however, we wish to illustrate the models’ response to the Mt. Pinatubo eruption in the stratosphere, as the warming of the tropical stratosphere is an essential component of the stratospheric pathway mechanism. The global top-of-the-atmosphere (TOA) net outgoing shortwave radiation anomalies are shown in the top row of Fig. 2, for WACCM4, CAM5-LE, and CanESM2, from left to right. These panels may be contrasted directly with Fig. 2 of Driscoll et al. (2012), as they demonstrate that our three models are comparable to most CMIP5 models.

The resulting warming of the tropical lower stratosphere (30S-30N) is shown in the bottom row of Fig. 2. The ERA-Interim reanalyses are also shown for comparison (black curves in each panel). While the CanESM2 model appears to be in good agreement with the observations, both WACCM4 and CAM5-LE greatly overestimate the post-eruption warming in the lower stratosphere. Reanalyses show an anomaly of roughly  $2^{\circ}\text{C}$ , but those models show ensemble mean anomalies closer to 6 and  $9^{\circ}\text{C}$ , respectively. This is not exceptional, as Driscoll et al. (2012) reports that most CMIP5 models simulate a much stronger anomaly than was observed (see their Fig. 3). The interesting point, however, is that this model bias can be turned to our advantage: as will become clear below, the fact that models simulate an unrealistically strong warming of the tropical lower stratosphere after the Mt. Pinatubo eruption greatly strengthens our interpretation and conclusion.

With this in mind, we now proceed to examine the surface temperature anomalies simulated by our three models following the Mt. Pinatubo eruption, shown in Fig. 3. It is important to keep in mind that for each ensemble member the post-Pinatubo anomalies arise from two distinct sources: the external forcing and internal variability. The former is computed by averaging together all the members of each ensemble, as that procedure nearly eliminates the internal variability. For WACCM4, CAM5-LE and CanESM2, the left column of Fig. 3 shows that forced response. In the winter following the Mt. Pinatubo eruption, all three models show *no statistically significant response* in NH continental surface temperatures.

We stress that this result is in agreement with most of the literature on this subject, notably the multi-model studies with the CMIP3 and CMIP5 models (Stenchikov et al., 2002; Driscoll et al., 2012; Wunderlich and Mitchell, 2017) (Stenchikov et al., 2006; Driscoll et al., 2012).

, which have shown that the forced post-Pinatubo anomalies in ~~CMP-class~~ those models are not statistically significant. Moreover, it has been validated with an even larger ensemble size: Bittner (2015), employing a fully-coupled stratosphere resolving model, concluded that after Mt. Pinatubo “the continental winter warming over Northern Europe and Siberia is not significantly different from zero even with 100 ensemble members” (as shown in Fig. 6.4 of that doctoral dissertation).

5 However, and this is perhaps the key point of our paper: from the fact that the ensemble mean (i.e. the forced) anomalies are not significant, it is *erroneous* to conclude that the models are unable to simulate the NH continental winter warming following the eruption. Recall that the observed anomalies are not expected to resemble the ensemble mean of any set of simulation, as internal variability is superimposed to any forced response in the observations. The correct question to ask is: do any individual simulations resemble the observations? Or, more precisely: do the observed anomalies fall within the range, over the ensemble,  
10 of the simulated anomalies? The answer to that question is a resounding yes, as we show next.

Since that answer crucially depends on the range of anomalies that any one model is able to simulate, we start by illustrating that range. In the middle column of Fig. 3 we show the extreme members, i.e. the members with the largest warming anomalies, for each of the three models we have analyzed. Noting that the color-bar is identical to the one in Fig. 1, it is clear that the models are able to simulate much stronger warming anomalies than the observed ones. Even more: different ensemble members  
15 of the same models, with *an identical volcanic forcing*, are able to simulate equally strong *cooling* over the northern continents, as shown in the right column of Fig. 3, where the coldest members can be seen. The point of this figure is to illustrate how large the internal variability is (in these models), and how tiny the forced response is in comparison. For completeness, the surface temperature anomalies for each member of each ensemble are shown in supplementary Figs. S1-S5.

We quantify the relative magnitude of the forced response and the internal variability in Fig. 4 with box and whisker plots  
20 for the quantity  $T'_s$ , defined as the surface temperature anomaly averaged over the landmasses in the region (40-70N, 0-150W), roughly corresponding to the Eurasian continent. First note that the mean of each ensemble is very near zero (a few tens of degrees at most, and not statistically significant), confirming the results of many previous studies that the forced response in the NH midlatitudes in the winter following the Mt. Pinatubo eruption is basically non-existent in the models. Second, the models are in reasonably good agreement about the internal variability, showing a warming/cooling range of 2 to 4°C on each side of  
25 zero, which is much larger than the forced response. Third, and most importantly: the reanalysis (red dot) falls well within the simulated range, indicating that the models are perfectly capable of capturing the post-Pinatubo winter anomalies in the NH.

#### **4 Does the stratospheric pathway play a role in simulating the NH winter warming following the Pinatubo eruption?**

Having established that our three models are able to simulate the observed NH continental warming after the Mt. Pinatubo eruption, we now turn to examining the stratospheric pathway mechanism proposed by Robock and Mao (1992), Graf et al. (1993)  
30 and others. In a nutshell, that mechanism involves two steps: (1) a strengthening of the stratospheric polar vortex caused by the enhanced equator-to-pole lower stratospheric temperature gradient following the Mt. Pinatubo eruption which, in turn, causes (2) an anomalous atmospheric circulation resulting in a warming anomaly over the Eurasian continent.

To carefully investigate the existence of a possible stratospheric pathway, we will limit ourselves to the WACCM4 model, as the other two do not have an accurate representation of the stratosphere and, more importantly, of its variability. We recognize that 13 members may perhaps not qualify as a “large” ensemble but, as we will show, the results presented below are in excellent agreement with those of Bittner et al. (2016) who ~~used~~ analyzed a much larger<sup>4</sup> 100-member ensemble.

5 Now, to quantify the strength of the polar vortex we compute the quantity  $U'_{10}$ , defined as the anomaly in the zonal mean, zonal wind at 10 hPa and 60N. This quantity is widely used for the detection of stratospheric sudden warmings (see, e.g., Charlton and Polvani, 2007; Butler and Gerber, 2018). To quantify the meridional lower stratospheric temperature gradient we compute the quantity  $\nabla T'_{50}$ , defined as the difference in zonal mean temperature between the tropics (30S-30N) and the polar cap (60-90N) at 50 hPa: that level is chosen so as to capture the maximum amplitude of the stratospheric warming from Mt. Pinatubo at low-latitudes. The relationship between the  $U'_{10}$  and  $\nabla T'_{50}$  is shown in Fig. 5a: their correlation is exceedingly high (with an  $r^2$  value of 0.89). From the ensemble mean value (black dot) one can see that, indeed, a warming of the tropical lower stratosphere by a potent low-latitude eruption does indeed result in a stronger<sup>5</sup> from wintertime polar vortex in our model.

The key question, however, is: how much stronger? In the case of the Mt. Pinatubo eruption, this is given by the black circles in Fig. 5a, which indicate the ensemble mean value of 3.5 m/s for our WACCM4 simulation. This is in excellent agreement with the findings of Bittner et al. (2016), who also reported ~~1-2~~ 3-4 m/s acceleration of the polar vortex following large low-latitude eruptions, and emphasized that ~~50-100~~ of 15-20 ensemble members are need to establish this result in a statistically significant way (at 95%). One cannot overemphasize how minuscule this forced response is when contrasted with the unforced, internal variability of the wintertime polar vortex, whose strength can vary by many tens of meters per second over a period as short as a week (e.g. during a stratospheric sudden warming event, which occur roughly every other year, see Charlton and Polvani, 2007).

With this in mind, we now proceed to examining the second step of the proposed mechanism, the relationship between the polar vortex anomaly  $U'_{10}$  and the Eurasian surface temperature anomaly  $T'_s$ . We find no meaningful correlation between the two, as evident from Fig. 5b (the  $r^2$  value is 0.06), the ensemble mean temperature anomaly is indistinguishable from zero. It is widely appreciated that the variability of the midlatitude tropospheric circulation is very large, so that it can easily overwhelm polar vortex anomalies of tens of meters per second. In fact, even stratospheric sudden warmings – which correspond to massive perturbations of the stratospheric polar vortex and results in a wind reversal at 10 hPa, from westerlies to easterlies – are not always able to produce a significant surface signal (see the Sudden Warming Compendium, Butler et al., 2017).

Another way of illustrating the weakness of the connection between polar vortex strength and Eurasian surface temperature anomalies is to contrast two WACCM4 ensemble members – specifically #2 and #12 – for which  $T'_s$  is shown in the top row of

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<sup>4</sup>The WACCM4 simulations analyzed here are a lot more computationally expensive those in (Bittner et al., 2016), as they involve interactive ozone chemistry. In fact, we are aware of no other study with a coupled atmosphere-ocean-chemistry model which has analyzed ensembles with more than a handful of members. Just to cite a few recent studies: McLandress et al. (2011) analyze 3 members, Solomon et al. (2015) 6 members, Li et al. (2018) 4 members. So, we submit that a 13-member ensemble with interactive chemistry, and coupled ocean and sea-ice components, represents a substantial step forward.

<sup>5</sup>Although we do not believe that it is appropriate to analyze the CAM5-LE and CanESM models for possible evidence of a stratospheric pathway – as those are low-top models with a poorly resolved stratosphere and thus unrealistic stratospheric variability – we nonetheless include in supplementary Fig. S6 the same scatter plots as in Fig. 5, to satisfy the request of one anonymous referee. The reader can see that those two other models confirm the WACCM results.

Fig. 6. We have chosen these two particular members as they simulate very similar Eurasian surface warming anomalies, not unlike the ones in the observations. In spite of those surface similarities, the corresponding stratospheric temperature gradients are completely different (see the middle row of Fig. 6). The tropical lower stratosphere is anomalously warm in both members, owing to the direct radiative effect of the volcanic aerosols, which is robust. In contrast the polar stratosphere is anomalously warm for one case (#2) but cold for the other (#12). The corresponding temperature gradients  $\nabla T'_{50}$  are thus of opposite sign and, predictably, the polar vortex is anomalously weak for the former and strong for the latter member, as seen in the bottom row of Fig. 6, where we show the zonal mean zonal wind at 10 hPa. Note that these opposite-signed polar vortex anomalies have an amplitude of about 10 m/s, which is three times larger than the forced response documented above. In spite of such large and opposite-signed polar vortex anomalies, both members exhibit very similar surface temperature anomalies over Eurasia, as seen in the top row: this demonstrates that polar vortex anomalies do not *necessarily* determine the surface anomalies.

For completeness, the full vertical structure of the ensemble mean temperature anomalies for the WACCM4 model is shown in Fig. 7a. The only statistically significant signal is found in the tropics, where WACCM4 greatly overestimates the post-Pinatubo warming, yielding a temperature gradient in the lower stratosphere that is considerably larger than the observed one: as seen in Fig. 5a, the ensemble-mean simulated value of  $\nabla T'_{50}$  is  $5.3^{\circ}\text{C}$ , whereas the observed value is  $0.4^{\circ}\text{C}$ . In spite of a much larger temperature gradient anomaly than the observed one, we find little statistically significant response in the polar stratospheric winds, as seen in Fig. 7b. There is an overall acceleration of the polar vortex, as one might expect, but the area of significance is quite small, and the grid point at 10 hPa and 60N (the canonical metric for the polar vortex strength) is not statistically significant.

This conclusion does not contradict the findings of Bittner et al. (2016), who reported a statistically significant response of the stratospheric polar vortex after the Mt. Pinatubo eruption in their model. We have only 13 members at our disposal here, and this is why we are unable to establish clear significance with WACCM4. To appreciate how difficult it is to obtain a statistically significant response in the polar vortex, we show the  $U'_{10}$  anomalies for each of the 13 members in Fig. 8: there is a wide scatter across the 13 members, yielding an ensemble mean which is much smaller than most individual members. Nonetheless, the fact that only 4 members show a vortex weakening and the remaining 9 show a vortex strengthening is suggestive of polar vortex acceleration. ~~But, as reported in Bittner et al. (2016), as many as 50 to 100 members may be~~ Using a different high-top model, Bittner et al. (2016) found that 15-20 ensemble members were needed to obtain a statistically significant strengthening of the polar vortex, and our ensemble size is not too far below that threshold.

More important, however, is the red line in Fig. 8, showing the ERA-Interim anomalies: it indicates that the polar vortex was, actually, anomalously weak in the winter following the Mt. Pinatubo eruption. For clarity, we show the entire latitude/pressure profiles of the ERA-Interim temperature and wind anomalies in the bottom row of Fig. 7. Amazingly<sup>6</sup> enough, the polar stratosphere was anomalously warm (not cold) after the eruption (panel c), and the polar vortex was anomalous weak (not

<sup>6</sup>This crucial fact seems to have gone largely unnoticed in the literature. It is reported in the doctoral dissertation of Thomas (2008, see her Figures 4.16 and 4.17), and tangentially noted by Mitchell et al. (2011, see their Figure 8, and the accompanying text), who employed so-called “elliptical” diagnostics for the polar vortex. It is also briefly discussed in Toohey et al. (2014, see their Figure 1), who argue that wintertime stratospheric state in the first winter after Mt. Pinatubo may not be representative of the “pure response” to the volcanic aerosols owing to confounding factors (e.g. the Quasi-Biennial Oscillation).

strong): note, in panel d, the negative zonal wind between 10 and 1 hPa, and between 50N and 60N, where the climatological polar vortex is located. So we conclude by asking: How can the stratospheric pathway mechanism be invoked as an explanation for the observed warming over the NH continents, if the polar stratosphere was actually *warmer* and the polar vortex was actually *weaker* in the winter that followed the 1991 eruption of Mt. Pinatubo?

## 5 5 Summary and Discussion

The aim of this paper has been to understand the cause of the warm anomalies that were observed over the NH continents following the Mt. Pinatubo eruption in June 1991. More specifically, referring back to the introduction, we have [address](#) [address](#) two related but distinct questions: the ability of the models to simulate the observations and the importance of the stratospheric pathway.

10 First, we have demonstrated that the current generation of coupled climate models is eminently capable of simulating such anomalies. Unlike previous studies, our conclusion follows from comparing the observed anomalies to *individual* model simulations, not to the *average* of multiple simulations. We have shown that climate models, when forced with an identical volcanic perturbation, can actually simulate a much larger surface warming than observed and, in fact, an equally large cooling. Furthermore, confirming many previous studies, we have shown that averaging across model simulations results in statistically  
15 insignificant surface temperature anomalies in the NH following the eruption. Taken together, and assuming climate models are not fundamentally flawed, these facts are here interpreted as follows: the internal variability of the climate system in the NH in wintertime is much larger than any impact from the Mt. Pinatubo eruption. As a consequence, it is hard to imagine that any substantial fraction of the observed warming anomalies in the NH during the 1991-1992 winter were caused by that volcanic eruption.

20 Second, we have examined in detail the potential role of an often invoked stratospheric pathway mechanism, which would allegedly mediate the signal from a low-latitude eruption to the higher-latitude continents by accelerating the polar vortex, and subsequently causing a positive phase of North Atlantic Oscillation (or the annular mode). Analyzing the WACCM4 model, which is a stratosphere-resolving model with interactive stratospheric ozone chemistry, we find the polar vortex acceleration accompanying the increased lower stratospheric temperature gradient after the Mt. Pinatubo eruption to be no larger than a few  
25 meters per second at best. And, we wish to emphasize, the WACCM4 model (like most others) produces an unrealistically large warming of the tropical lower stratosphere (see Figs.2d and 7a,b), which implies an unrealistically strong acceleration of the polar vortex. Even so, that acceleration is actually *not* statistically significant in our 13-member WACCM4 ensemble. This is in total agreement with the recent study of Bittner et al. (2016), who [show that 50-100 reported that 15-20](#) members are needed to detect a significant acceleration of the polar vortex [of 3-4 m/s](#) in the winter following a large-magnitude low-latitude eruption.

30 This, in and of itself, is clear evidence that the forced polar vortex response is very small compared to the internal stratospheric variability in wintertime, where wind perturbations of many tens of meters per second are not unusual. And ultimately, in terms of affecting the tropospheric circulation and surface temperature, such small polar vortex anomalies are completely dwarfed

by the internal tropospheric variability; this is why no statistically significant anomalies are found when averaging over many model simulations.

One might now ask how such evidence can be reconciled with several influential early modeling studies, which have argued for the key role of the stratospheric pathway in causing the NH continental surface warming in the winter following the Mt. Pinatubo eruption. We suggest the following: most of those early models simply lacked a good representation of the stratosphere and, more crucially, of its variability, and this resulted in an overestimate of the forced response to the volcanic eruption. For instance, the model employed in Graf et al. (1993) had a mere 19 vertical levels in the vertical direction, with the model top at only 10 hPa. The same applies to the study of Kirchner et al. (1999), who improved the horizontal resolution but retained the same deficient vertical structure of their model. A severe lack of vertical resolution is also evident in the AMIP models analyzed in Mao and Robock (1998), all of which (with only one exception) have between 10 and 20 vertical levels (see Table 2 of Gates, 1992). Ditto for the study of Collins (2003): 19 vertical levels. As for Shindell et al. (2004), the two models used in that study have only 20 and 23 vertical levels, and the latter has a very coarse horizontal resolution as well ( $8^\circ$ latitude  $\times$   $10^\circ$ longitude): that model was, in fact, evaluated for its ability to simulate stratospheric sudden warmings, and found to greatly underestimate their frequency (see Fig. 3c of Charlton et al., 2007, under the item GISS23). The reader may want to contrast that model with the WACCM4 model used here, with 66 vertical levels, a model top at  $\sim 140$ km, and an excellent simulation of the frequency of stratospheric sudden warmings (see Fig. 3a of Marsh et al., 2013).

A note is also in order regarding the recent study Zambri and Robock (2016). They reanalyzed a larger set of CMIP5 models than those in Driscoll et al. (2012), and considered only the anomalies in the first winter after the eruptions. From the multi-model average anomalies following the two largest eruptions since the pre-industrial era they ~~conclude~~ concluded that “the observed surface temperature anomalies are related to changes in the winter circulation *caused* by the volcanic eruptions” (emphasis added), a claim obviously at odds with much of the previous literature, and with the results presented here. However, as their conclusion was drawn by averaging anomalies from the 1883 Krakatau eruption with those from the 1991 Mt. Pinatubo eruption, it is not immediately obvious how to disentangle the forced response to Mt. Pinatubo alone, which is the ~~sole subject~~ primary goal of the present study. We plan to carefully examine other volcanic eruptions in ~~an upcoming~~ paper/upcoming papers.

Nonetheless, we have briefly analyzed other recent<sup>7</sup> eruptions simulated by the three models described in Section 2.1. Of particular interest is the 1982 eruption of El Chichón (Robock, 1983), which was also followed by anomalous wintertime warming over the Northern Hemisphere continent (as shown in supplementary Fig. S7). As for the 1991 Mt. Pinatubo eruption, all three models produce (1) a statistically insignificant forced response and (2) both warm and cold anomalies with identical volcanic forcing (see supplementary Fig. S8), indicating that the observed continental winter warming following the 1982 El Chichón eruption was also, very likely, a simple manifestation of internal variability. Of course, the validity of our interpretation is dependent on the models’ ability to accurately simulate the internal variability of the climate system.

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<sup>7</sup>After the 1963 eruption of Mt. Agung, the volcanic aerosol cloud spread primarily into the Southern Hemisphere (Viebrock and Flowers, 1968): that eruption is thus not the best candidate for exploring the causal link between low-latitude eruptions and anomalies over the Northern Hemisphere continents.



Still, leaving models – and their possible biases – aside, one could nonetheless argue that several studies have “demonstrated”, on the basis of various temperature reconstructions, that many low-latitude volcanic eruptions have been followed by NH continental warming in wintertime. Whether those demonstrations are truly convincing depends, crucially, on the quality of the surface temperature reconstructions and on the soundness of the methodology employed. ~~Just to give an example:~~

5 ~~the~~ The early claim of Robock and Mao (1992) was based on the analysis of a single temperature dataset for ~~one dozen~~ 12 eruptions, half of which occurred at latitudes outside 30S-30N, averaging together larger and smaller events, ~~including a mixture of first and second winter anomalies and commingling anomalies from the first or second winters~~ (depending on the ~~eruptions~~). ~~For the reasons stated in Section 2.2 above, we very much agree with~~ eruption). Similar commingling is found in Shindell et al. (2004), who analyzed 18 eruptions, of which only 12 at low latitudes. Ignoring the possible errors introduced by commingling of first and second winters, and of high-latitude with low-latitude eruptions, our work shows that a dozen eruptions may be far from sufficient to demonstrate the existence of a significant volcanic signal at the surface. And our findings simply corroborate those of (Bittner, 2015, see his Fig. 6.4, specifically) who showed that even 100 identically forced, large, low-latitude eruptions are insufficient to yield a statistically significant surface winter warming at high northern latitudes.

15 It is not impossible, we concede, that an extraordinarily large eruption (e.g. Tambora) may be capable of causing significant winter warming over the NH continents. But a question then arises: how many such eruptions are actually available in the record for which reliable observations of winter surface temperatures at high latitude also exist? As of this writing, the most compelling observational evidence for a volcanically forced surface winter warming at high-latitudes is found in the study of Fischer et al. (2007). They averaged 15, large, low-latitude eruptions extending back to the middle of the last millennium, and carefully separated the first and second winter anomalies in temperature (and precipitation) over Europe. Notably, they found that the warmer (and wetter) winter anomalies are found in the *second* winter following the eruption, not the first winter. This result was obtained from a single proxy-reconstruction, and warrants independent validation with one or more different reconstructions. In addition, if the largest European surface anomalies are indeed found in the second winter, the

20 ~~recent suggestion of Zambri and Robock (2016) that (1) only the first winter after each eruption should be considered, (2) eruptions of different magnitudes should not be averaged together : if these two procedural choices are important, many studies in the literature would need to be reconsidered~~ stratospheric-pathway mechanism proposed by Robock and Mao (1992). Graf et al. (1993), Kodera (1994) and others appears implausible. Little volcanic aerosol is left in the stratosphere 12-15 months after an eruption, and we can think of no physical mechanism in the stratosphere that would allow an anomaly to survive into a second year. Nonetheless, in climate models, volcanic signals have been shown to propagate through the ocean on decadal

25 timescales (Gleckler et al., 2006). This suggests the possibility, at least in theory, of an oceanic pathway. It remains to be demonstrated, however, whether oceanic anomalies are indeed capable of affecting the Northern Annular Mode and, ultimately, Eurasian surface temperatures.

30 In any case, ~~going back to~~ coming back to the most recent large eruption of Mt. Pinatubo, the fact remains that from December 1991 to February 1992, the observed surface temperatures were anomalously warm over North America and Eurasia, and that fact may deserve an explanation. Our analysis indicates that the continental warming that occurred in the first winter

following the 1991 eruption was most likely a simple manifestation of internal atmospheric variability, and was completely unrelated to the eruption itself. So, the next question is: what might be the source of variability that resulted in the NH continental warming? An obvious candidate would be the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) phenomenon, since it is well known that the eruption of Mt. Pinatubo corresponded with an El Niño event (see, e.g., Lehner et al., 2016), which is believed to influence the North Atlantic and Eurasia in winter (Brönnimann, 2007; Rodríguez-Fonseca et al., 2016). Unfortunately, El Niño conditions are typically associated with a contraction of the tropical belt (Lu et al., 2008) and a negative phase of the North Atlantic Oscillation (Li and Lau, 2012), which is typically accompanied by cold anomalies over Eurasia. It is, therefore, difficult to argue that the observed post-Pinatubo continental warming was caused by El Niño. In fact, there is some good modeling evidence confirming this. First, Thomas et al. (2009) reported a “very strong” response to El Niño in their model, that “can mask the effects due to volcanic warming”. Second, analyzing so-called pacemaker<sup>8</sup> simulations with the CAM5-LE model, McGraw et al. (2016) show a large forced signal in the tropospheric circulation from El Niño in the Northern Hemisphere, which greatly resembles a negative annular mode (see their Fig. 11f); they don’t show surface temperatures, but one would easily expect cold anomalies over the NH continents in those simulations. If, then, El Niño needs to be ruled out, we may just have to admit that the intrinsic variability of the high latitude tropospheric circulation, which is known to be very large (Shepherd, 2014), might have to suffice as an explanation.

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<sup>8</sup>In these simulations a fully coupled atmosphere-ocean is employed, but SST anomalies in the eastern tropical Pacific are nudged to observations, so as to faithfully simulate El Niño events.

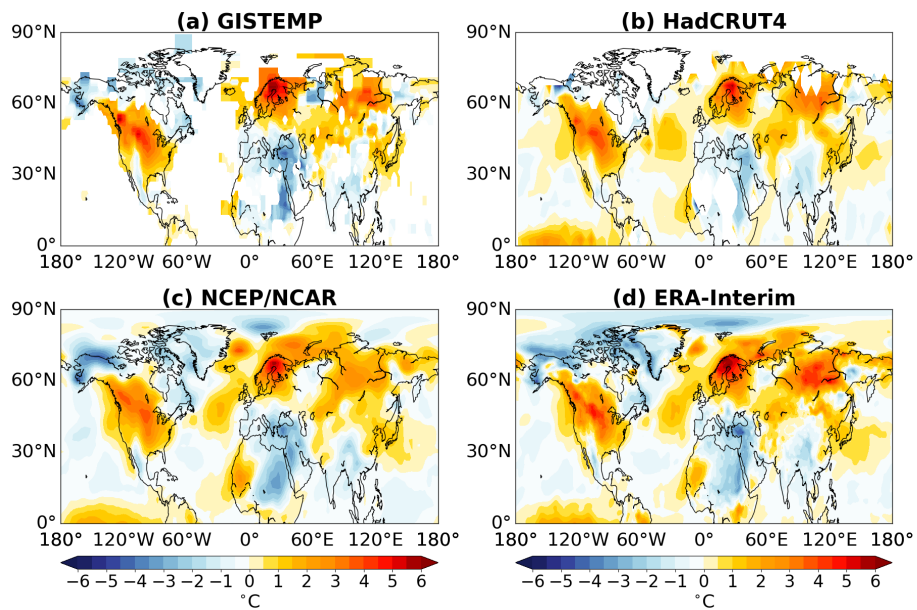
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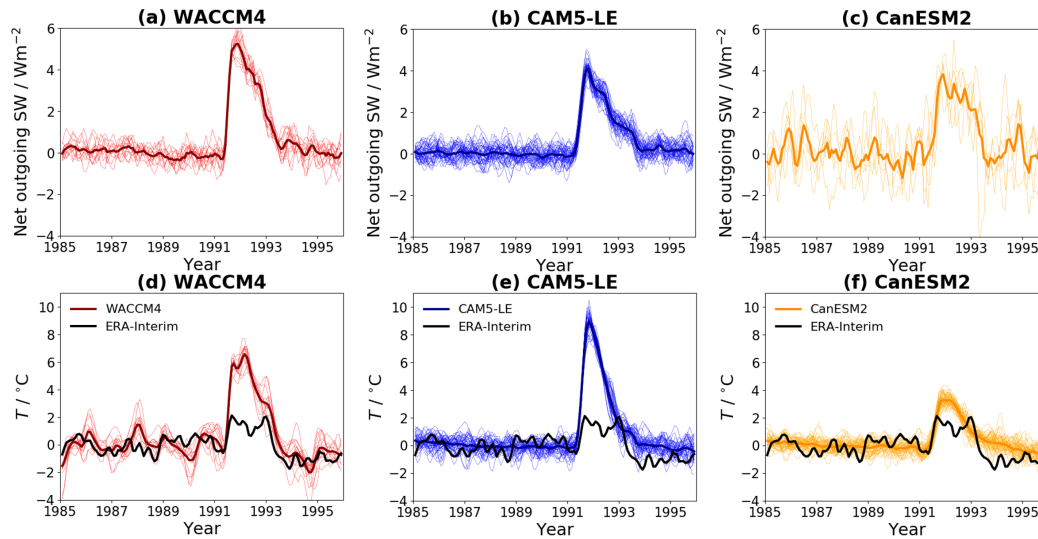
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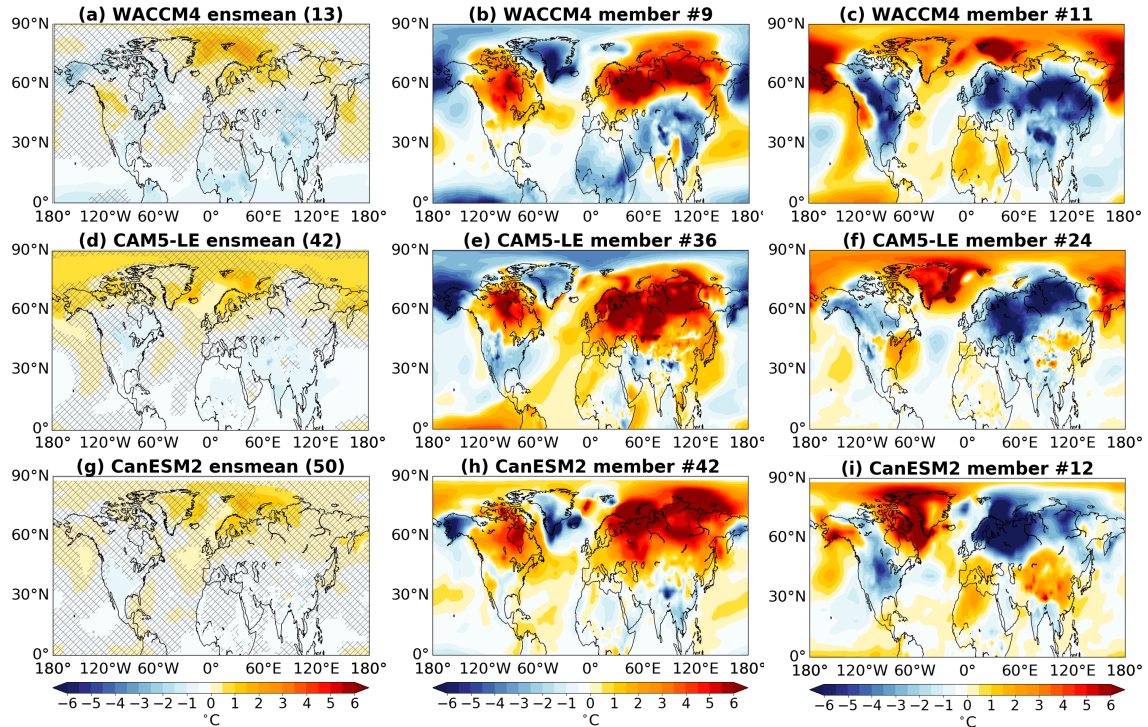


**Figure 1.** Surface air temperature anomalies (in °C) for the post-Pinatubo winter of 1991-92 relative to the reference period (1985-1990) in observations (a) GISTEMP and (b) HadCRUT4, and in reanalyses (c) NCEP/NCAR and (d) ERA-Interim.

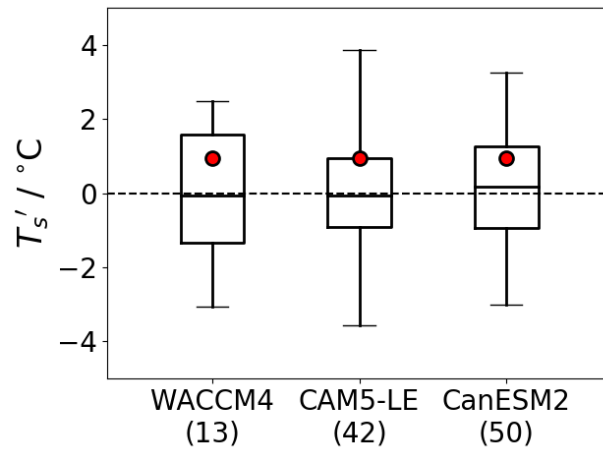


**Figure 2.** Top row: globally averaged, de-seasonalized, net, outgoing SW radiation at the top of the atmosphere (in  $\text{W/m}^2$ ). Bottom row: tropically averaged (30S-30N), deseasonalized temperature (in  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) at 50 hPa. Left column: WACCM4 (red lines). Middle column: CAM5-LE-LE (blue lines). Right column: CanESM2 (yellow lines). In each panel, the time series for each ensemble member (thin lines) and for the ensemble mean (bold line) are shown. In the bottom row, ERA-Interim values are also shown for comparison (black). All time series are anomalies from the 1985-1990 mean, and are smoothed with a 3-month running average, for direct comparison with Figs. 2 and 3 of Driscoll et al. (2012).

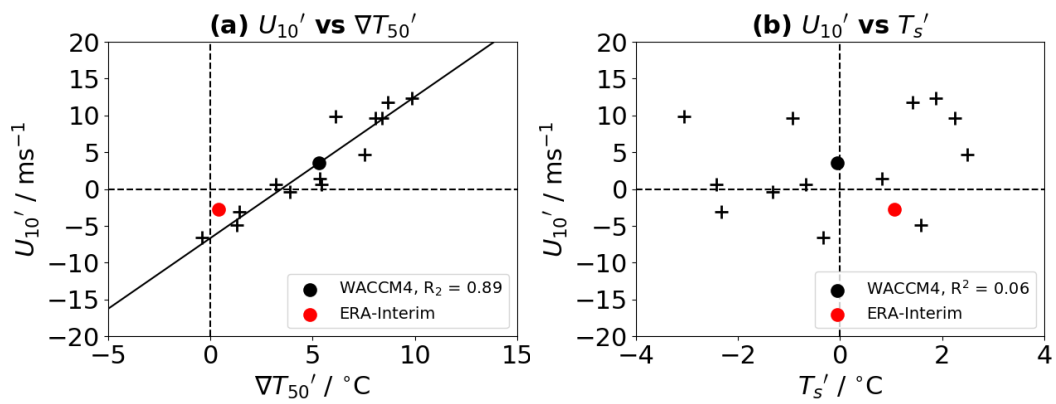




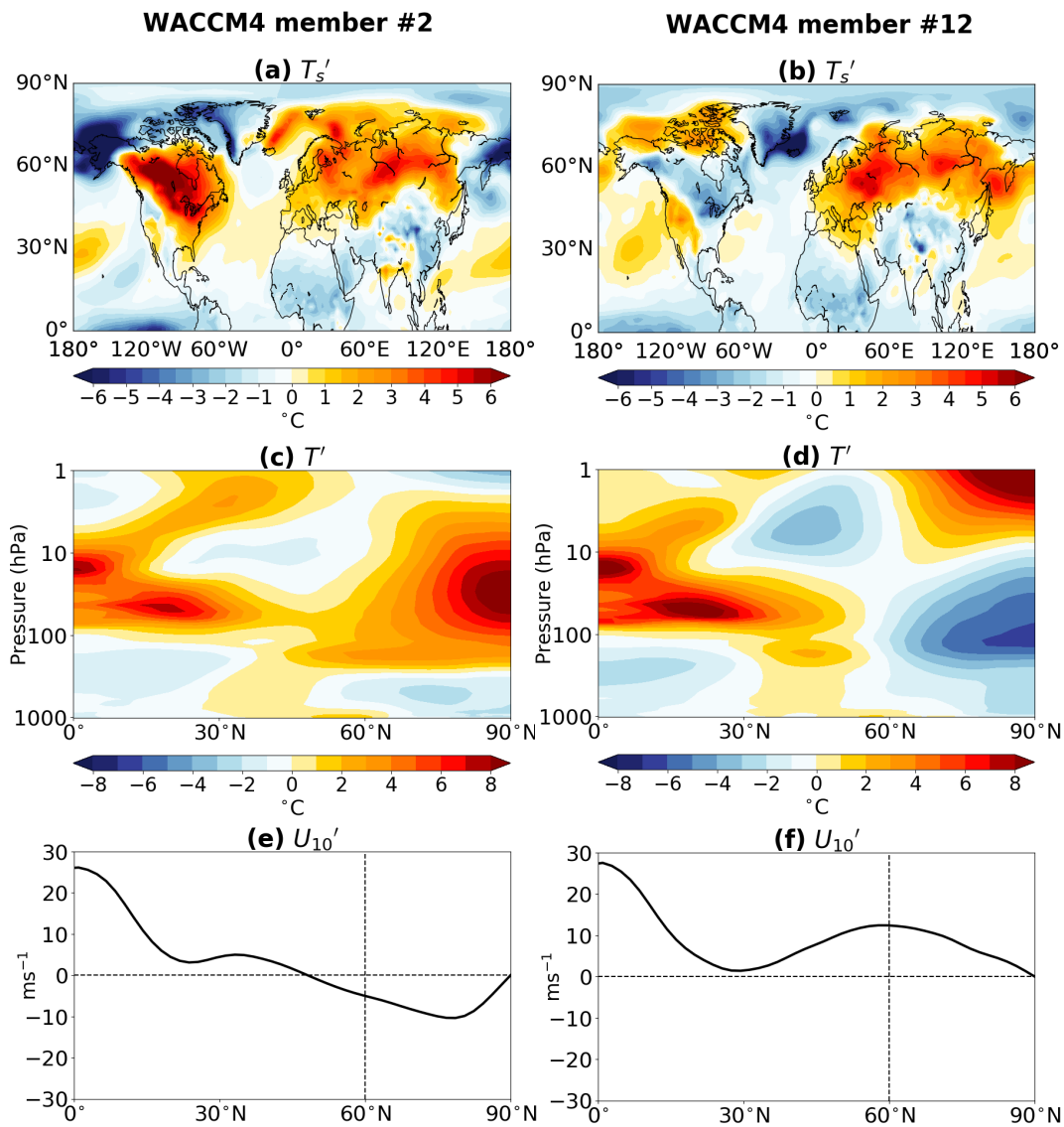
**Figure 3.** Wintertime surface air temperature anomalies (in  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) as simulated by WACCM4 (top row), CAM5-LE (middle row) and CanESM2 (bottom row) following the 1991 Mt. Pinatubo eruption. Left column: the ensemble mean for each model (with the number of ensemble members in parentheses), and hatching over areas where the anomalies not significant at the 95% confidence level. Middle column: individual members exhibiting extreme warming over the NH continents for each model. Right column: individual members exhibiting extreme cooling.



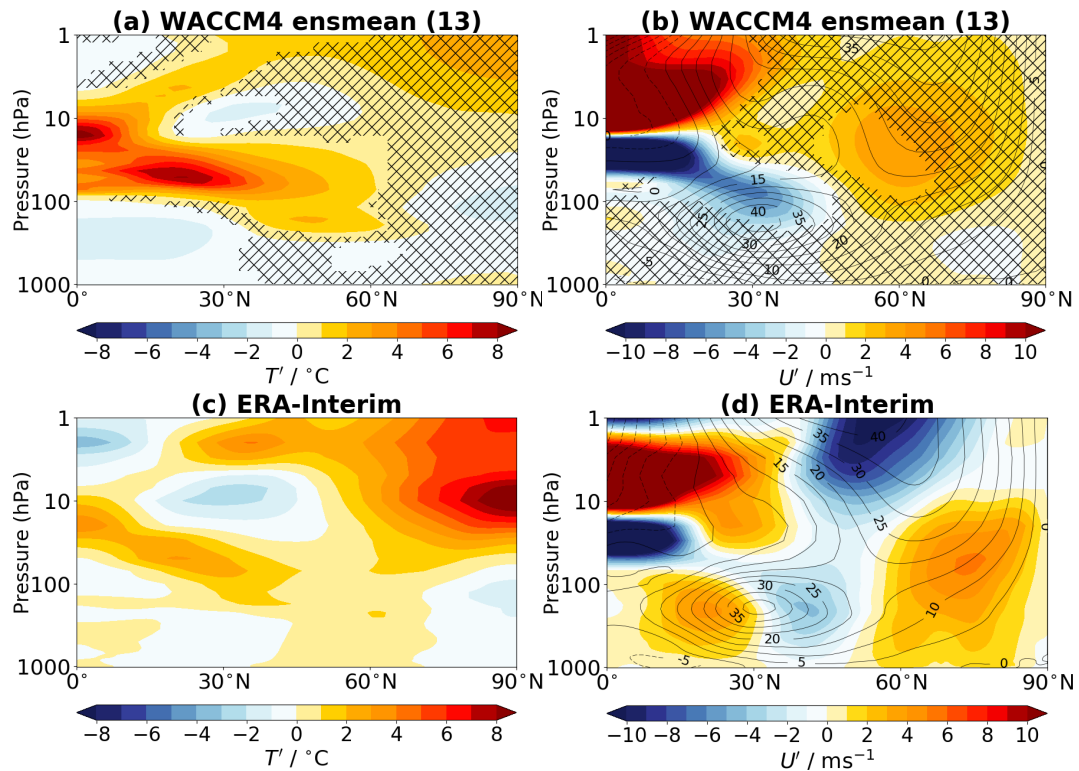
**Figure 4.** Box and whisker plots of simulated surface temperature anomaly (in  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) over Eurasia (40-70N, 0-150W) in the first post-Pinatubo winter (1991-92) relative to the reference period (1985-1990). The horizontal line inside each box denotes the ensemble mean; the lower and upper limits of each box denote the 25th and 75th percentile values, respectively; the whiskers span the full range of the ensemble members. For comparison, the red circles denote the value calculated from the ERA-Interim reanalyses.



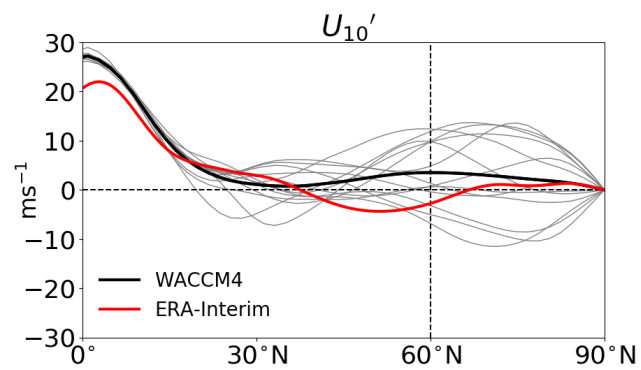
**Figure 5.** Scatter plots showing the relationship between  $U'_{10}$ , the anomalies in the zonal mean zonal wind at 10hPa and 60N (in m/s) and the anomalies in (a) the NH meridional temperature gradient  $\nabla T'_{50}$  between the tropics (30S-30N) and the pole (60-90N) (in  $^\circ\text{C}$ ), and (b) the Eurasian surface air temperature  $T'_s$  (also in  $^\circ\text{C}$ ). Crosses show individual ensemble members, and the black dot shows the ensemble mean value. The red dot shows the ERA-Interim reanalysis.



**Figure 6.** The surface temperature  $T_s'$  (top), the zonal mean temperature  $T'$  (middle) and 10h hPa zonal mean zonal wind  $U'_{10}$  anomalies for WACCM4 member #2 (left) and member #12 (right)



**Figure 7.** Latitude/pressure anomalies for the winter following the 1991 Mt. Pinatubo eruption. Left: zonal mean temperature ( $T'$ ). Right: zonal mean zonal wind  $U'$ , with the climatology in black contours. Top: the ensemble mean of the WACCM simulations, with hatching for values that are not significant at the 95% confidence level. Bottom: corresponding anomalies in the ERA-Interim reanalysis.



**Figure 8.** Zonal mean zonal wind anomalies at 10 hPa ( $U'_{10}$ ) vs. latitude, for the individual WACCM4 simulations (gray), for the ensemble mean (black), and for the ERA-Interim reanalysis (red).