Asymmetric seasonal temperature trends

Judah L. Cohen¹, Jason C. Furtado¹, Mathew Barlow², Vladimir A. Alexeev³ and Jessica E. Cherry³

¹Atmospheric and Environmental Research, Lexington, Massachusetts 02421, USA.

²Environmental, Earth, and Atmospheric Sciences, University of Massachusetts Lowell, Massachusetts 01854, USA.

³International Arctic Research Center, University of Alaska Fairbanks, Fairbanks, AK 99775, USA.

Current consensus on global climate change predicts warming trends driven by 1 2 anthropogenic forcing, with maximum temperature changes projected in the 3 Northern Hemisphere (NH) high latitudes during winter. Yet, global temperature trends show little warming over the most recent decade or so. 4 5 For longer time periods appropriate to the assessment of trends, however, 6 global temperatures have experienced significant warming for all seasons 7 except winter, when cooling trends exist instead across large stretches of 8 eastern North America and northern Eurasia. Hence, the most recent lapse in 9 global warming is a seasonal phenomenon, prevalent only in boreal winter. Additionally, we show that the largest regional contributor to global 10 temperature trends over the past two decades is land surface temperature in 11 the NH extratropics. Therefore, proposed mechanisms explaining the 12

15

16 **1. Introduction**

17 Global surface temperatures are projected to warm due to rapid increases in 18 greenhouse gases (GHGs) and over the entire length of the instrumental record, 19 temperatures have undergone a warming trend [IPCC, 2007]. However it has been noted 20 that the global warming trend has slowed and even halted since the late 1990s [e.g., 21 Easterling and Wehner, 2009; Kaufmann et al., 2011]. Several studies have offered 22 explanations for the recent cessation in the global temperature trend, including climate 23 variations of the North Atlantic and equatorial Pacific oceans [Keenlyside et al., 2008; 24 Meehl et al., 2011], variations in solar activity [Lean and Rind, 2009], changes in 25 stratospheric water vapor [Solomon et al., 2010], and tropospheric aerosols [Kaufmann et 26 al., 2011]. The sudden absence of a warming trend is not particularly unique or even 27 unexpected. Easterling and Wehner [2009], through running decadal trend analysis, show 28 that even the observed record has decadal spans of little to no warming. Even coupled 29 climate model simulations of a future warmer world due to increased GHGs contain periods 30 of little to no warming [Easterling and Wehner, 2009; Meehl et al., 2011]. Indeed, large-31 scale modes of natural variability in the atmosphere and ocean may work to negate 32 radiative warming on decadal timescales.

The aforementioned studies discuss the absence of a warming trend or even a cooling trend in the context of global annual temperatures. Yet, analysis of temperature trends 35 seasonally is not extensively reported, both in the observational record and in coupled 36 climate model simulations. As we will illustrate, recent trends in global surface 37 temperatures are seasonally-dependent; i.e., only Northern Hemisphere (NH) extratropical 38 land surface temperatures during boreal winter display a systematic waning of the warming 39 trend to a near-neutral trend of late. The implications of this finding are important for 40 testing the relative importance of the proposed mechanisms suggested for the cessation of 41 the warming trend and for evaluating how coupled climate models can handle such 42 seasonal asymmetries.

43

44 **2. Observational Data and Model Output**

45 Observational surface temperature data originate from two sources: (1) The 46 Climate Research Unit land air temperature dataset, version 3 [CRUTEM3; Brohan et al., 47 2006]; and (2) The National Aeronautics and Space Administration Modern Era 48 Retrospective-Analysis for Research and Applications [NASA MERRA; Rienecker et al., 49 2011]. The CRUTEM3 dataset, consisting of monthly land station-based temperature 50 anomalies, are on a regular 5° x 5° longitude/latitude grid globally. The data are provided 51 as anomalies, using the 1961-1990 period as the base period, and extend from 1850 to present. NASA MERRA monthly-mean surface temperatures reside on a 1.25° x 1.25° grid 52 53 globally, covering land and ocean, starting from 1979 to present. Monthly-mean anomalies 54 from MERRA are computed by removing the climatological monthly means (1979-2011) 55 from the raw data.

56

Coupled-climate model output are provided from the Coupled Model Intercomparison

57 Project Phase 5 (CMIP5) multi-model ensemble archive, available for download from the 58 Program for Climate Model Diagnosis and Intercomparison (PCMDI) at the Lawrence 59 Livermore National Laboratory (more information on the program is provided online at 60 http://cmip-pcmdi.llnl.gov/cmip5/). We used all available ensemble members of the 61 decadal1980 scenario (i.e., the model runs are initialized with conditions as in 1980 and run 62 for 30 years using mainly observed natural and anthropogenic forcing). Six models were 63 available and analyzed for this study (see Table 1), each with multiple realizations. Surface 64 temperature output from the models is interpolated from their native model grids to a common 2.5° by 2.5° longitude/latitude grid for comparison. 65 Surface temperature 66 anomalies are then computed by removing the climatological monthly mean from 1980-67 2010. Model results are shown as the ensemble-mean of all models and all realizations.

68 When examining seasonal temperature trends, seasons are defined as follows: 69 December – February (DJF) as boreal winter, March – May (MAM) as boreal spring, June 70 - August (JJA) as boreal summer, and September - November (SON) as boreal fall. To test 71 the robustness of any trends, given that the period 1999-2010 spans twelve years, we 72 computed and tested the significance of multiple periods divisible by six. Therefore we 73 also computed the temperature trend for the following periods: 2005-2010, 1999-2010, 74 1993-2010 and 1987-2010. For completeness, we also computed the trend and significance 75 for the longer period 1979-2010, which includes the full period that satellite data is 76 assimilated into the reanalysis datasets [Kalnay et al., 1996]. Trends for all periods are 77 shown in degrees Celsius per five years for comparative purposes.

79 **3. Results and Discussion**

80 Figure 1 presents the linear temperature changes from the CRUTEM3 dataset over 81 five periods (1979-2010, 1987-2010, 1993-2010, 1998-2010, and 2005-2010) and four 82 regions: globally (Fig. 1a), the NH extratropics (20-90°N; Fig. 1b), the tropics (20°N-20°S; 83 Fig. 1c) and the Southern Hemisphere (SH) extratropics (20°-90°S; Fig. 1d). Examining 84 the annual temperature trends, we find that the rate of global temperature increase has 85 diminished when looking at more recent periods, and this phenomenon is seen outside of 86 the tropics. Indeed, only the tropics display a significant warming trend for the 1999-2010 87 interval (Fig. 1c) – elsewhere the trends are not significantly different from zero. The NH 88 extratropics contains large trends (Fig. 1b), as expected from examining land surface 89 records, while the SH extratropical landmasses have much smaller trends (Fig. 1d).

Upon examining temperature trends seasonally, the global temperature record reveals that significant warming occurs in three seasons (boreal spring, summer, and fall) for the four earliest periods (i.e., 1979-2010, 1987-2010, 1993-2010, and 1999-2010). However, boreal winter (DJF) is the glaring exception in the record – only when starting from 1979-2010 is the DJF warming significant. For the following periods, the trend is no longer significant and even turns negative over the last decade. The only sub-region that mirrors this behavior in global temperature trends is the NH extratropics (Fig. 1b).

97 To check the robustness of this seasonal asymmetry and also examine potential 98 influences of ocean temperatures on the global temperature trend, we repeat the analysis 99 from Fig. 1 but using NASA MERRA surface temperature data (Fig. 2). Inclusion of sea 100 surface temperatures (SSTs) with land temperatures yields similar trend results as from the 101 land-only CRUTEM3 data – i.e., insignificant winter warming trends since the 1980s 102 despite significant warming in the other seasons (Fig. 2a). Global linear temperature trends 103 are also dominated by the trends in the NH extratropics (Figs. 2b and 2e). When examining 104 changes in the trend in NH land and ocean temperatures, we find that SSTs exhibit robust, 105 significant warming annually and seasonally as late as a start in 1993 (Fig. 2e). Land 106 regions show similar robust warming annually and for all seasons but winter, the only season with no statistically significant warming for any period (Fig. 2b). The tropics have 107 108 no significant trends in land temperatures or SSTs except when going back to 1979 (Figs. 109 2c and 2f), and trends in the SH ocean and land are somewhat more random and even 110 inconsistent between MERRA and the CRUTEM3 datasets (Figs. 2d and 2g; differences 111 are likely a function of different sampling). Staggering start and end dates by 1-2 years 112 yields similar results for both NASA MERRA and CRUTEM3 (not shown). Hence, we 113 confidently conclude that the cessation of global winter warming since 1987 is mostly 114 attributable to neutral or even cooling temperature trends across the NH extratropical 115 landmasses. We further computed the same trends using an observational ocean dataset 116 [Smith et al., 2008 (shown in Supplementary Fig. S1)] and ERA-Interim [Dee et al., 2011] 117 (not shown)] and though trends differ slightly by region, the absence of winter warming is 118 still tied to NH extratropical land cooling.

Focusing on the NH extratropical land surface temperature trends since 1987, Figure 3 shows both the area-averaged temperature anomaly seasonally (Fig. 3a) and spatially (Figs. 3b-3e). Rapid and significant warming is clearly evident in all seasons but winter, with the boreal fall land surface temperatures warming the most rapidly. For DJF, the linear temperature trend is nearly zero. Of importance is the spatial pattern of the linear 124 temperature trends (Figs. 3b-3e). For boreal summer and fall, except for select areas, most 125 of the NH landmasses are experiencing strong warming trends, at or exceeding 1°C per 126 decade in central and northern Eurasia (Figs. 3d and 3e). Except for pronounced cooling in 127 western and northwestern North America, boreal spring temperatures also are warming 128 strongly (Fig. 3c). However, corresponding to the near-neutral wintertime trend are large 129 regions of significantly strong cooling trends across Europe, northern and central Asia, and parts of central and eastern North America (Fig. 3b). This spatial pattern of temperature 130 131 trends is reminiscent of the temperature regression pattern associated with the negative 132 phase of the Arctic Oscillation [AO; e.g., Thompson and Wallace, 2001]. Indeed, the 133 pattern correlation between the winter temperature trend pattern and the temperature 134 anomaly pattern associated with the negative phase of the AO is $0.85 \ (p < 0.01)$.

135 The absence of a warming trend in winter is especially surprising given that coupled 136 climate models project the strongest warming across the NH during boreal winter due to 137 'winter (or Arctic, polar) amplification' [Holland and Bitz, 2003; Alexeev et al., 2005; 138 Langen and Alexeev, 2007; Serreze and Barry, 2011]. We computed the seasonal 139 temperature trends and anomalies from the decadal1980 runs available from the CMIP5 140 model archive for the period 1987-2010. Independent of region or season, the models 141 forecast positive temperature trends throughout all time periods, with insignificant warming 142 only over the 2000s (see Supplementary Fig. S2). The model simulated interannual 143 seasonal temperatures are compared with the NASA MERRA seasonal temperature 144 The annual ensemble-mean NH extratropical land surface anomalies in Figure 4. 145 temperatures (solid black line in Fig. 4a) track well with the observed annual NH extratropical land surface temperatures (red line in Fig. 4a), though the ensemble-mean slightly underestimates the total linear trend for the period ($\Delta T_{ENSMEAN} = 0.32^{\circ}C$ versus $\Delta T_{OBS} = 0.49^{\circ}C$). For a more complete comparison of the observed temperatures with the model simulated temperatures we include a spaghetti plot of all ensemble members in Figure S3.

151 The models also simulate closely the seasonal trends for spring, summer and fall. For 152 winter, while there is much more interannual variability in the observed versus simulated 153 temperatures (the observed temperature falls outside the 1σ envelope two thirds of the time, 154 double what is expected), the correspondence between DJF observed and simulated 155 temperature trends remains the weakest of the four. Clearly, the difference in the boreal 156 winter temperature trends represents some poorly resolved or missing forcing that is less 157 influential in the other three seasons. We also note that the models predict robust cooling 158 in all seasons due to the radiative forcing from the volcanic eruption of Mount Pinatubo. 159 The simulated cooling is similar to the observations in all seasons except winter. This 160 suggests that radiative forcing important in spring, summer and fall is likely masked by 161 dynamic forcing associated with wave driving in winter. Ongoing research suggests that the 162 models are deficient in simulating fall snow cover variability and wave forced stratosphere-163 troposphere coupling, which is contributing to poor model simulations of the AO and NH 164 winter climate trends [e.g. Hardiman et al., 2008; Cohen et al., 2012]. As the leading mode of NH wintertime climate variability, differences in the observed versus simulated AO are 165 166 likely an important factor. Indeed, when examining the evolution of the AO and associated 167 sea level pressure trends across the NH, we find a divergence in the observed trends – the

observations illustrate a trend toward *negative* AO conditions during DJF, while the models actually suggest a slight *positive* trend in the index (Supplementary Fig. S4a). Spatially, observations indicate statistically significant positive trends in sea level pressure (SLP) at high latitudes with statistically significant negative trends in SLP at lower latitudes (i.e., a negative AO pattern), while the models predict no significant SLP trends over the period.

173

174 **4. Summary and Conclusions**

175 Analysis of monthly and annual temperatures over the past decade shows that the 176 positive global temperature trend has become insignificant and small. Based on previously 177 reported analysis of the observations and modelling studies this is neither inconsistent with 178 a warming planet nor unexpected; and computation of global temperature trends over 179 longer periods does exhibit statistically significant warming. However, upon examining the 180 trends seasonally, more interesting and significant findings are discovered. In examining 181 the NH extratropical landmasses, the biggest contributor to global temperature trends, we 182 find substantial divergence in trends between boreal winter and the other three seasons. A 183 statistically significant warming trend is *absent* across NH landmasses during DJF going 184 back to at least 1987, with either wintertime near-neutral or cooling trends. In contrast, 185 significant warming is found for the other three seasons over the same time period.

Based on current literature and our own examination of the latest coupled climate models, the lack of a significant warming trend in winter spanning nearly three decades is not likely or expected (less than 10% of the ensemble members analyzed in this study predicted no warming in winter). Therefore, we argue that any attribution study on the recent cessation of global warming should explicitly explain the seasonally asymmetric 191 nature of the temperature trend. For example, studies that attribute the recent cooling to 192 diminished shortwave radiation at the surface are at a great disadvantage since their 193 influence is maximized during boreal summer and minimized during boreal winter, 194 opposite to what has been observed.

195 There are theories that argue for recent cooling that is limited to the winter season. 196 One theory is known as 'warm Arctic cold continents,' where a warmer Arctic and 197 declining Arctic sea ice are contributing to colder winters across the NH continents [Honda 198 et al. 2009; Budikova, 2009; Francis et al., 2009; Overland and Wang, 2010; Petoukhov 199 and Semenov, 2010; Serreze et al., 2011]. A second theory is that increasing fall Eurasian 200 snow cover that may also be related to a warming Arctic is forcing a negative trend in the 201 winter AO [Cohen and Barlow, 2005; Cohen et al., 2009; Cohen et al., 2012]. As Figure 3b 202 illustrates, the observed winter temperature trend spatially resembles the pattern of 203 temperatures associated with the negative phase of the AO. Therefore, the inability of the 204 models to simulate the observed trend in the AO (Fig. S4), may partly explain the poorly 205 simulated DJF temperature trends.

206

207 Acknowledgements. JLC is supported by the National Science Foundation grants ARC-208 0909459 and ARC-0909457 and NOAA grant NA10OAR4310163. VA and JEC were 209 supported by the National Science Foundation grants ARC 0909525 and Japan Agency for 210 Marine-Earth Science and Technology. The authors acknowledge the climate modelling groups (listed in table S1 of this paper), the World Climate Research Programme's (WCRP) 211 Working Group on Coupled Modelling (WGCM), and the Global Organization for Earth 212 213 System Science Portals (GO-ESSP) for producing and making the CMIP5 model 214 simulations available for analysis.

215

216 **References**

- Alexeev, V. A., P. L. Langen, and J. R. Bates (2005), Polar amplification of surface
 warming on an aquaplanet in "ghost forcing" experiments without sea ice
 feedbacks, *Climate Dynamics*, 24 (7-8), 655-666, doi: 10.1007/s00382-005-0018-3.
- Brohan, P., J. J. Kennedy, I. Harris, S. F. B. Tett, and P. D. Jones (2006), Uncertainty
 estimates in regional and global observed temperature changes: A new dataset from
 1850, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *111*, D12106, doi:10.1029/2005JD006548.
- Budikova, D. (2009), Role of Arctic sea ice in global atmospheric circulation: A review. *Global Planet. Change, 68(3),* 149–163.
- Cohen, J., and M. Barlow (2005), The NAO, the AO, and global warming: How closely
 related? *J. Climate*, *18*, 4498–4513, doi: 10.1175/JCLI3530.1.
- Cohen, J., M. Barlow, and K. Saito (2009), Decadal fluctuations in planetary wave forcing
 modulate global warming in late boreal winter, *J. Climate, 22*, 4418–4426, doi:
 10.1175/2009JCLI2931.1.
- Cohen, J., J. C. Furtado, M. A. Barlow, V. A. Alexeev and J. E. Cherry (2012) Arctic
 warming, increasing fall snow cover and widespread boreal winter cooling, *Environ. Res. Lett.*, 7, 014007 doi:10.1088/1748-9326/7/1/014007.
- Dee, D. P., and Co-Authors (2011), The ERA-Interim reanalysis: configuration and
 performance of the data assimilation system, *Quart. J. R. Meteorol. Soc.*, *137*, 553597.
- Easterling, D. R., and M. F. Wehner (2009), Is the climate warming or cooling?, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 36, L08706, doi:10.1029/2009GL037810.

- Francis, J. A., W. Chan, D. J. Leathers, J. R. Miller, and D. E. Veron (2009), Winter
 Northern Hemisphere weather patterns remember summer Arctic sea-ice extent, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, *36*, L07503, doi:10.1029/2009GL037274.
- Hardiman, S. C., P. J. Kushner, and J. Cohen (2008) Investigating the ability of general
 circulation models to capture the effects of Eurasian snow cover on winter climate,

243 J. Geophys. Res., 113, D21123, doi:10.1029/2008JD010623.

- Holland, M. M. and C. M. Bitz (2003), Polar amplification of climate change in coupled
 models, *Climate Dynamics*, *21*, 221–232.
- Honda, M., J. Inoue, and S. Yamane (2009), Influence of low Arctic sea-ice minima on
 anomalously cold Eurasian winters, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, *36*, L08707,
 doi:10.1029/2008GL037079.
- IPCC (2007), Climate Change 2007: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working
 Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on
 Climate Change [Solomon, S., D. Qin, M. Manning, Z. Chen, M. Marquis, K. B.
 Averyt, M. Tignor and H. L. Miller (eds.)]. Cambridge University Press,
- 253 Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, 996 pp.
- 254 Kalnay, E., M. Kanamitsu, R. Kistler, W. Collins, D. Deaven, L. Gandin, M. Iredell, S. 255 Saha, G. White, J. Woollen, Y. Zhu, M. Chelliah, W. Ebisuzaki, W. Higgins, J. 256 Janowiak, K. C. Mo, C. Ropelewski, J. Wang, A. Leetmaa, R. Reynolds, R. Jenne, and D. Joseph (1996), The NCEP/NCAR 40-Year reanalysis project, Bull. Amer. 257 258 Meteor. Soc., 77, 437-471, doi: 10.1175/1520-259 0477(1996)077<0437:TNYRP>2.0.CO;2.
- 260 Kaufmann, R. K., H. Kauppi, M. L. Mann, and J. H. Stock, (2011), Reconciling

- anthropogenic climate change with observed temperature 1998–2008, *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci.*, doi: 10.1073/pnas.1102467108.
- Langen, P. L., and V. A. Alexeev (2007), Polar amplification as a preferred response in an
 aquaplanet GCM, *Climate Dynamics*, 29(2-3), 305-317, doi:10.1007/s00382-0060221-x.
- Lean, J. L., and D. H. Rind (2009), How will Earth's surface temperature change in future
 decades? *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, *36*, L15708, doi:10.1029/2009GL038932.
- Keenlyside, N. S., M. Latif, J. Jungclaus, L. Kornblueh, and E. Roeckner (2008),
 Advancing decadal-scale climate prediction in the North Atlantic sector, *Nature*,
 453(84-88), doi:10.1038/nature06921.
- Meehl, G. A., J. M. Arblaster, J. T. Fasullo, A. Hu, and K. E. Trenberth (2011), Modelbased evidence of deep-ocean heat uptake during surface-temperature hiatus
 periods, *Nature Climate Change*, doi:10.1038/nclimate1229.
- Overland, J. E., and M. Wang (2010), Large-scale atmospheric circulation changes are
 associated with the recent loss of Arctic sea ice, *Tellus*, 62A, 1-9.
- Petoukhov, V., and V. A. Semenov (2010), A link between reduced Barents-Kara sea ice
 and cold winter extremes over northern continents, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *115*, D21111,
 doi:10.1029/2009JD013568.
- Rienecker, M. M. *et al.* (2011), MERRA NASA's Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for
 Research and Applications, *J. Climate, 24*, 3624-3648, doi: 10.1175/JCLI-D-1100015.1.
- Serreze, M. C. and R. G. Barry (2011), Processes and impacts of Arctic amplification: A
 research synthesis, *Global and Planetary Change*, 77, 85–96.

- Serreze, M. C., A. P. Barrett, and J. J. Cassano (2011), Circulation and surface controls on
 the lower tropospheric air temperature field of the Arctic, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *116*,
 D07104, doi:10.1029/2010JD015127.
- 287 Smith, T. M, R. W. Reynolds, T. C. Peterson, and J. Lawrimore (2008), Improvements to
- 288 NOAA's historical Merged Land-Ocean Surface Temperature Analysis (1880289 2006), J. Climate, 21, 2283-2296.
- 290 Solomon, S., K. H. Rosenlof, R. W. Portmann, J. S. Daniel, S. M. Davis, T. J. Sanford, and
- G.-K. Plattner (2010), Contributions of Stratospheric Water Vapor to Decadal
 Changes in the Rate of Global Warming, *Science*, 327, 1219-1223,
 doi:10.1126/science.1182488.
- Thompson, D. W. J., and J. M. Wallace (2001), Regional climate impacts of the Northern
 Hemisphere Annular Mode, *Science*, *293*, 85–89.

296 Figure Legends

FIG. 1. (a) The linear trend in area-averaged global land surface temperature (°C per 5 years) determined from CRUTEM3 for five different periods: 1979-2010 (dark red), 1987-2010 (light blue), 1993-2010 (green), 1999-2010 (orange), and 2005-2010 (pink). Filled bars represent trends that are significant at the 95% significance level. (b) As in (a) but only for the NH (20°N-90°N). (c) As in (a) but for the tropics (20°N-20°S). (d) As in (a) but for the Southern Hemisphere (SH; 20°S-90°S).

303

305

FIG. 2. (a) The linear trend in area-averaged global surface temperature (°C per 5 years)

306 significant at the 95% significance level. (b)-(d) The linear trend in averaged *land* surface

over land and ocean from the NASA MERRA dataset. Filled bars represent trends that are

temperature only (°C per 5 years) in the (b) NH (20°N-90°N), (c) tropics (20°N-20°S), and
(d) SH (20°S-90°S). Filled bars as in (a). (e)-(g) As in (b)-(d) but for *ocean* surface
temperatures.

310

FIG. 3. (a) Surface temperature anomalies (solid lines; °C) from CRUTEM3 averaged poleward of 20°N from 1988 – 2010 for the four seasons: winter (DJF), spring (MAM), summer (JJA), and fall (SON). Linear trend lines (dashed lines) superimposed for each season, with the magnitude of the trend (°C per 10 years) and statistical significance shown. The spatial pattern of linear trends in surface temperature (°C per 10 years) are shown for: b) winter, c) spring, d) summer and e) fall.

318	FIG. 4. (a) (red line) Annual land surface temperature anomaly (°C), area-averaged		
319	poleward of 20°N, from NASA MERRA from 1987-2010. (black line) The CMIP5		
320	ensemble-mean annual land surface anomaly, area-averaged poleward of 20°N. Gray		
321	shading represents $\pm 1\sigma$ from the ensemble-mean. (b)-(e) As in (a) but for (b) DJF, (c)		
322	MAM, (d) JJA, and (e) SON-averaged NH land surface temperature anomaly.		
323			
324			
325			
326			
327			
328			
329			
330			
331			
332			
333			
334			

Table 1. The six coupled climate models from the CMIP5 model archive analyzed for this study. Number of

ensemble members for the decadal1980 scenario is also indicated.

Modelling Agency, Country	Model Name	Ensemble Members
Canadian Climate Centre for Modelling and Analysis, Canada	CanCM4	10
Météo-France/Centre National de Recherches Météorologiques, France	CNRM-CM5	10
Hadley Centre for Climate Prediction and Research/Met Office, United Kingdom	HadCM3	10
Center for Climate System Research, Japan	MIROC4h	3
Center for Climate System Research, Japan	MIROC5	6
Meteorological Research Institute, Japan	MRI- CGCM3	3

336



Figure 1











Fig. S1. (a) The linear trend in °C per 5 years area-averaged global ocean surface temperature (°C), determined from NOAA ERSSTv3b for five different periods: 1979-2010 (dark red), 1987-2010 (light blue), 1993-2010 (green), 1999-2010 (orange), and 2005-2010 (pink). Filled bars represent trends that are significant at the 95% significance level. (b) As in (a) but only for the NH (20°N-90°N). (c) As in (a) but for the tropics (20°N-20°S). (d) As in (a) but for the Southern Hemisphere (SH; 20°S-90°S).



Fig. S2. The linear trend in area-averaged global surface temperature (°C per 5 years) over *land and ocean* from the CMIP5 decadal1980 simulations. Filled bars represent trends that are significant at the 95% significance level. (b)-(d) The linear trend in averaged *land* surface temperature only (°C per 5 years) in the (b) NH (20°N-90°N), (c) the tropics (20°N-20°S), and (d) the SH (20°S-90°S). Filled bars as in (a). (e)-(g) As in (b)-(d) but for *ocean* surface temperatures.



Fig. S3 (a) Annual land surface temperature anomaly (°C), area-averaged poleward of 20°N, from 1987-2010 from NASA MERRA (red), the 42 individual model runs (gray), and the ensemble-mean (black). (b)-(e) As in (a) but for (b) DJF, (c) MAM, (d) JJA, and (e) SON.





Fig. S4. (a) The standardized DJF average AO index (defined as the difference in sea level pressure between regions between 35-55°N and regions poleward of 65°N) from MERRA (red), the six CMIP5 models (gray), and the ensemble-mean of all models (black) from 1986/87-2009/10. (b) The decadal SLP trend (hPa per 10 years) from MERRA for 1986/87-2009/10. (c) As in (b) but the CMIP5 ensemble-mean decadal trend in SLP. Values that exceed the 95% confidence interval are delineated by gray contour (i.e., none of the values in (c) are significant).