2	High and Low Frequency 11-year Solar Cycle Signatures
3	in the Southern Hemispheric Winter and Spring
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Abstract: We have studied the characterization of the 11-yr SC signals in the Southern Hemisphere 26 27 (SH) during the winter and spring using ECMWF daily and monthly data from 1979 to 2009. By 28 separating the response into high (< 6 months) and low (>36 months) frequency domains, we have 29 found spatially different 11-yr SC signals exist for high and low frequency domains. In the stratosphere, 30 the high and low frequency responses tend to enhance each other near the equator and subtropics while 31 they oppose one another at high latitudes. The high frequency response is marked by a strengthened 32 stratospheric jet during winter and the response is not static but tracks with the centre of the polar 33 vortex. In the lower stratosphere, the positive response of temperature to the 11-yr SC is dominated by 34 its low frequency component, which extends from the North Pole to the South Pole. The low frequency tropospheric response is latitudinally symmetric about the equator and consistent with the modeled 35 responses to temperature perturbation in the lower stratosphere. The signals are found to be sensitive to 36 37 contamination from the 2002 sudden stratospheric warming event and major volcanic eruptions but the general spatial pattern of the responses remain similar. A significant projection of the 11-yr SC onto the 38 39 SAM can only be detected in the stratosphere and in the high frequency component. The signature is 40 marked by a strengthening of the stratospheric SAM during winter and a weakening of the SAM in the 41 uppermost stratosphere during spring.

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1. Introduction 46

Studies have shown that changes associated with the 11-year solar cycle (SC) have detectable 47 48 effects on the stratospheric and tropospheric circulation (e.g. Gleisner and Thejll 2003; Haigh 2003; 49 Coughlin and Tung 2004; Hood 2004; Salby and Callaghan 2006; Lu et al. 2007; van Loon et al. 2007). 50 The 11-yr SC signature in stratospheric temperature is characterized by positive correlation at low 51 latitudes with a vertical double-peaked structure, one in the lower stratosphere and another in the upper 52 stratosphere (Crooks and Gray 2005; Keckhut et al. 2005; Claud et al. 2008; Frame and Gray 2010; 53 Gray et al. 2010). In zonal-mean zonal wind, it is marked by a strengthening of the subtropical jet in the upper stratosphere and a poleward and downward movement of westerly anomalies (Kuroda and Kodera 54 55 2002; Kodera et al. 2003; Gray et al. 2004; Matthes et al. 2004; ; Gray et al. 2010). 56 As the total solar irradiance varies by only ~0.1% over an 11-year solar cycle (11-yr SC), it has 57 been suggested that larger variations of solar ultra violet (UV) radiation (~5-8% over an 11-yr SC) and 58 its absorption by stratospheric ozone could provide a detectable solar link to variation of the global 59 circulation (Haigh 1994; 2003). Thermal structure change caused by the associated heating in the upper 60 stratosphere may lead to a modulation of the stratospheric polar vortex and cause a dynamical feedback 61 in the lower stratosphere (Kodera and Kuroda 2002). The enhanced equatorial heating due to solar UV-62 ozone interaction results in anomalously stronger westeries in the upper stratosphere/lower mesosphere, 63 in thermal wind balance with an enhanced pole-to-equator temperature gradient. The stronger westerlies may deflect planetary waves poleward and cause a further strengthening of the polar vortex (Kodera et 64 al. 2003). The solar UV induced wind anomalies move poleward and downward as the winter 65 progresses (Kodera and Kuroda 2002; Kodera et al. 2003; Matthes et al. 2004). 66 67 Perturbation of the stratosphere by UV radiation variations followed by downward propagation of

the resulting circulation anomalies to the surface has been proposed to explain the observed tropospheric

- solar signals (Haigh et al. 2005; Hameed and Lee 2005; Matthes et al. 2006). Changes to the winter 69
- stratospheric polar vortex may influence the underlying tropospheric circulation. In addition, idealized 70

71 model simulations have suggested that a solar modulation of the equatorial lower stratosphere, which affects the equator-to-pole temperature gradient may also modulate the synoptic scale wave activity 72 73 (Haigh and Blackburn 2006; Simpson et al. 2009). GCMS studies also suggest that solar UV induced 74 change in the Brewer Dobson (BD) circulation in the upper stratosphere can cause a suppression of 75 tropical convection during solar maximum (Kodera 2004; Kodera and Shibata 2006; Matthes et al. 2006). One thing in common with the above proposed mechanisms is that they all involve a 76 77 stratospheric influence on the tropospheric circulation and they are consequently referred to as "topdown' mechanisms (Gray et al. 2010). 78

79 Another mechanism of solar influence over an 11-year cycle is through air-sea-radiative coupling 80 at the ocean surface in the tropics whereby the spatial asymmetries of solar forcing, induced by cloud 81 distributions, result in greater evaporation in the subtropics and consequent moisture transport into the 82 tropical convergence zones (Meehl et al. 2003). Higher solar forcing may cause stronger upward motion 83 in the winter hemispheric subtropics and enhanced downward motion in the summer hemisphere subtropics (van Loon et al. 2004; Meehl et al. 2008). As it involves near surface processes and because 84 85 significant responses have been detected in models without a stratosphere, it is consequently referred to 86 as the "bottom-up" mechanism (Gray et al. 2010). For a recent review of all proposed mechanisms of solar influence on the climate, see Gray et al. (2010). 87

88 It is possible to study each individual mechanism separately using models but it is very difficult to 89 separate the responses associated with different mechanisms using observational data. This presents a 90 substantial challenge to interpret the solar signals of different origin/cause based on the observational 91 signature. Proposed mechanisms involve fast processes such as wave mean flow interaction and/or slow 92 processes such as temperature change induced by redistribution of ozone in the lower stratosphere and 93 differential ocean heating. For instance, the wave driven dynamic response to the 11-yr SC tends to 94 change on sub-monthly time-scales (e.g. Kodera 2004; Matthes et al. 2006; Lu et al. 2009) while the 95 radiative response is more likely to be static over an extended period, especially in the lower stratosphere, and hence can be detected in the annual mean (e.g. Keckhut et al. 2005; Claud et al. 2008; 96

97 Frame and Gray 2010). It is natural to think that the responses associated with fast processes may show
98 signals with a high frequency component within the atmospheric data while processes with slow
99 responses may be detected better in the low frequency domain.

100 In an attempt to refine the traditional way of analyzing the atmospheric response to the 11-yr SC, here we separate the atmospheric data into high and low frequency domains, so that we are able to 101 102 examine the characterization of the solar signal in terms of fast versus slow processes, direct versus indirect effects, radiative versus dynamic responses and their possible links to "top-down" and/or 103 "bottom-up" mechanisms. We focus on the Southern Hemispheric (SH) winter and spring where the 104 105 polar vortex is stronger and longer-lived than its NH counterpart due to weaker planetary wave forcing. 106 This implies that radiative interaction is likely to play a relatively larger role in the SH winter than in the 107 Northern Hemispheric (NH) winter, and the solar signals in the SH have been found to be different to 108 those in the NH (Labitzke 2002; Salby and Callaghan 2006). The dynamically "calm" SH winter may in fact present a better environment to differentiate high and low frequency responses as the signals are 109 110 less likely to be affected by transient events such as stratospheric Sudden Warmings (SSWs). For 111 example, the modeling study of Cnossen et al. (2011) showed that the high latitude stratospheric and 112 tropospheric responses differ significantly for the SSW condition and non-SSW conditions. By 113 focusing on the SH winter and spring, we can understand more how the 11-yr SC signal behaves under non-SSW conditions. 114

115 Though our main focus is on detecting high and low frequency solar responses in the Earth's 116 atmospheric temperature and zonal wind and to study how those signals might be linked to previously 117 proposed mechanisms, we also study whether or not the 11-yr SC may project onto the Southern 118 Annular Model (SAM) more clearly if the data are separated into high and low frequency components. 119 Because the stratospheric effects on the troposphere may be realized through the SAM and the coupling 120 depends primarily on wave activity (Thompson et al. 2005; Limpasuvan and Hartmann 2000), it is 121 expected that the high frequency component plays a more important role than the low frequency 122 component. In this study, we shall check if it is also the case for the 11-yr SC signal on the SAM.

Previous studies have shown that the large-scale structure of the late winter and spring SAM is 123 modulated by the 11-yr SC (e.g. Kuroda and Kodera 2004, 2005; Kuroda et al. 2007; Kurada and 124 Yamazaki 2010). These authors have shown that the 11-yr SC modulates the spatial structure of the 125 126 SAM from October through to December. In solar maximum years, the solar influence on the SAM 127 extends vertically from the surface to the upper stratosphere while it is capped within the troposphere during solar minimum years. Using a coupled chemistry-climate model, Kuroda and Shibata (2005) 128 129 found that increases in solar UV radiation led to a stronger signal of the SAM in the Antarctic 130 stratosphere than during low UV runs. Unlike those previous studies, our main focus here is detecting 131 the 11-yr SC signals in the atmospheric variables including the SAM rather than the modulating effect 132 of the 11-yr SC on the SAM signature. More precisely, we do not study how the spatial extent of the 133 SAM signature in wind or temperature changes under high and low solar conditions. Instead, we study 134 how much of the interannual variability of the SAM may be directly linked to the 11-yr SC variation 135 and at what frequency and altitude such a linkage may be statistically significant.

136 The rather sparse observational network before the satellite era (*i.e.* pre-September 1978) in the 137 Southern Hemisphere (SH) limits the accuracy of the ERA-40 reanalysis before 1979. As a result, few observational studies of the atmospheric response to the 11-yr SC have been undertaken for the SH 138 139 winter and spring. With a relatively short record length, it is important to consider the influence of other 140 major physical disturbances. Stratospheric sudden warmings (SSWs) have so far been recorded in the 141 SH on only one occasion, which was in 2002. Consequently in the 2002 winter and spring, the 142 stratospheric wind and temperature are distinctly anomalous to the other years (Charlton et al. 2005; 143 Scaife et al. 2005). In addition to the primary focus of this study, the dynamic features of 2002 will be 144 briefly discussed in the context of the atmospheric response to solar forcing. Also, the possible 145 contamination of results by the temporary warming associated with volcanic aerosols will also been 146 examined by comparing results after excluding and including two years of data following two major 147 eruptions (i.e. El Chichón in March 1982, and Pinatubo in June 1991). Due to the limited sample size, 148 the modulating effect of the equatorial Quasi-biennial Oscillation (QBO) will not be explicitly studied

here as statistical significance cannot be reliably established with any further sub-sampling, though thepossible effect of the QBO on the detected solar signals will be briefly discussed.

151 **2. Data and Methods**

152 Data used by this study are daily mean zonal winds and temperatures blended from the ECMWF 153 ERA-40 Reanalysis (January 1979 to August 2002) and ECMWF Operational analyses (September 154 2002 to December 2009), as employed by Frame and Gray (2010). The ERA-40 dataset was assimilated using direct radiosonde and satellite measurements and has a horizontal resolution of 1.125° in both 155 156 latitude and longitude on 23 pressure levels from 1000 hPa to 1 hPa (Uppala et al. 2005). The ECMWF Operational data were output from the ongoing analyses produced by the most recent ECMWF 157 Integrated Forecasting System (IFS) model. Data from September 2002 to the present day are available 158 on the same 1.125° grid but on 21 pressure levels (before 07/11/2007) and 25 pressure levels (since 159 160 07/11/2007). The ERA-40 and the Operational data sets share 21 of the pressure levels, the exceptions being four levels in the lower troposphere (i.e. 600, 775, 900, and 950 hPa). For simplicity, only the data 161 for those 21 pressure levels are used here. Both ERA-40 and Operational datasets extend to 1 hPa (~50 162 km), thus allowing an examination of the solar signals throughout the stratosphere. While it is not ideal 163 164 to merge two datasets derived from different data assimilation models, we have done this here in order 165 to maximize the length of the data set, as needed for the study of 11-yr SC signals.

166 The daily data have not previously been used for this purpose; therefore this work is 167 complementary to earlier analyses by providing a more detailed temporal resolution on the timing of the solar signals and their propagation pathways. Before the satellite era (*i.e.* before September 1978), the 168 scarcity of SH radiosonde measurements and lack of direct measurement at altitudes above 10 hPa result 169 in unreliable estimations in ERA-40, particularly in the upper stratosphere. To better capture solar 170 perturbation of the stratosphere by UV variations and the downward propagation of the resulting 171 circulation anomalies, only data from January 1979 onwards are used. The entire period of 1979-2009 172 173 covers 31 years and about three 11-yr SCs.

Daily observed 10.7-cm solar radio fluxes were obtained from the National Geophysical Data 174 Center (NGDC) website and are used as a proxy for the 11-yr SC. Their power spectrum shows that the 175 variability in the daily 10.7-cm solar radio fluxes is dominated by two frequency bands, one around 26-176 177 28-days and another around 9.5-11.5 years. In order to focus on the 11-yr SC, a 365-day low-pass filter 178 was applied to the solar radio fluxes. The filtered daily time series is denoted as F_s hereafter and were used in the analysis. Oualitatively similar results can be obtained if a running average window of 1-12 179 180 months is applied to the daily solar data. Noisier but qualitatively similar results can also be obtained by using the raw daily fluxes. Similar to Lu *et al.* (2007; 2009), we use $\overline{F_s} < -0.25$ and $\overline{F_s} > 0.25$ to define 181 low solar (LS) and high solar (HS) activity when deriving composites where \overline{F}_{s} stands for the 182 normalized values of F_s ; transition years where $|\overline{F_s}| \le 0.25$ are excluded. Under this definition, 11 years 183 (i.e. 1979-1982, 1989-1992, and 1999-2001) were HS years and 15 years (i.e. 1984-1987, 1994-1998, 184 and 2004-2009) were LS years for June to October mean. 185

A possible projection of solar signal onto the Southern Annular Mode (SAM) is studied by using the 186 SAM index derived from two different sources. The first is the daily SAM index derived as the leading 187 188 empirical orthogonal function (EOF) of daily zonal-mean zonal wind over 20°-90°S, from the blended ECMWF ERA-40 reanalysis and operational data for the same period. Details about this method can be 189 found in Baldwin and Thompson (2009). The second type of SAM index is the station-based SAM 190 191 index, which is estimated as a monthly mean difference between the mean sea level pressure anomaly at 192 six stations close to 40°S and six stations close to 65°S (Marshall 2003, available at 193 www.nercbas.ac.uk/icd/gjma/sam.html). By only using long-term stations and surface pressure 194 measurements, this index avoids the possible bias problems when combining the ERA-40 and ERA-195 operational datasets. Thus, the principal advantages of the Marshall (2003) index are its simplicity and 196 temporal consistency across its entire time-span and between different seasons. As the station based 197 SAM extends back to 1957, it is used to test the robustness of the signals near the surface. For 198 simplicity, these two SAM indices are referred to hereinafter as daily ECMWF-SAM and monthly 199 Marshall-SAM, respectively.

200 The main diagnostic tools used are composite analysis and linear regression with standard Student *t*-test being used to test their significance. The analyses were carried out for a range of frequency bands 201 202 where Chebyshev filters (Smith 1997) are used to separate one band of frequencies from another. 203 Chebyshev type II is used as high-pass filter while Chebyshev type I is used as low-pass filter. The main 204 criteria in designing the filters are a small (i.e. < 0.5%) peak-to-peak ripple and stability for all 205 geographical locations. Through a large number of computational experiments, we found that a highpass filter with an order of 15-17 and peak-to-peak ripple of 2-5 dB in the normalized passband was 206 207 optimal for monthly data and an order of 3-5 was sufficient for daily data. For the low-pass and 208 bandpass filter, filter orders in the range of 4-9 for the monthly mean and 1-3 for daily data are 209 sufficient. In the sections below, a ripple magnitude of 2-dB is used throughout. Similar results can be 210 obtained if a Butterworth filter is used though higher order filters are required.

3. Solar Signal during SH Winter and Spring

212 **3.1** Winter and spring mean signals

Figure 1 shows composite differences (HS-LS) of June-August averaged zonal-mean temperature 213 $(\Delta T_{HS-LS}, 1^{st} \text{ column})$ and zonal wind $(\Delta U_{HS-LS}, 2^{nd} \text{ column})$, in meridional-height cross section. When 214 the entire record is used ((a;e)), significant responses to the 11-yr SC are detected primarily in 215 temperature and in the stratosphere. In temperature, significant positive ΔT_{HS-LS} are found to extend 216 from 90°N to 40°S latitudinally and from 7hPa to 100 hPa vertically. Near the equator, ΔT_{HS-LS} is 217 statistically significant at a 95% confidence level only at ~70 hPa and not significant at other altitudes. 218 In the polar SH, ΔT_{HS-LS} displays an alternating vertical negative and positive pattern, which is most 219 220 likely to be an artifact of the dataset rather than a real response. Significant ΔU_{HS-LS} is found in the mid-221 latitude stratosphere in the NH. In the SH, though ΔU_{HS-LS} is marked by westerly anomalies at 15-45°S and easterly anomalies at poleward of 55°S, they are not significant at a 95% confidence level. 222 A similar response pattern can be obtained if selected anomalous data are excluded, *i.e.* 2002 major 223

224 SSW (b;f), the major volcanic eruptions (c;g) and both the major SSW and the volcanic eruptions,

although the magnitude and significance of the differences change slightly. Possible contaminations by

226 the major SSW and the volcanic eruptions can be viewed as enhancement or weakening of the solar signals. When data from 2002 are excluded, the low-latitude temperature response is enhanced and the 227 228 westerly anomalies at 15-45°S become significant. When the years affected by the major volcanic 229 eruptions are excluded, the temperature response becomes weaker (< 0.3 K) in the lower stratosphere 230 and stronger (~0.5 K) in the upper stratosphere. Thus, the positive solar signature in lower-stratospheric 231 temperature is amplified by the bias of the eruptions of El Chichón and Mount Pinatubo. Almost no 232 significant signals can be found in the troposphere except for the westerly anomalies near the equator in 233 the SH.

234

[[Insert Figure 1 here]]

235 It has been suggested that the lack of statistically significant solar signals at 5-50 hPa in the tropics is 236 likely due to a contamination effect of the QBO (Smith and Matthes 2008). To examine such a 237 possibility in a simple manner, the same composite analysis is carried out at two distinct frequency 238 domains distinctly away from the typical period of the QBO (~28 months). Figure 2 shows the June-239 August zonal-mean temperature (a;b;c) and zonal wind (d;e;f) responses to the 11-yr SC when a 6-240 month high-pass filter (a;d), 36-month low-pass filter (b;e) and linearly detrend plus 36-month low-pass 241 filter are applied to the atmospheric data, respectively. Where a 6-month high-pass filter is applied to the data, the primary feature of the temperature response to the 11-yr SC is positive ΔT_{HS-LS} in the 242 243 equatorial and subtropical stratosphere and at high latitude in the NH upper stratosphere. In the high 244 latitude SH, there are alternating positive and negative anomalies, but only the negative ones are 245 significant at the 0.05 level (*i.e.* a confidence level of 95% or above), implying a dominated cooling 246 effect in the region under HS condition. A small region near the equator in which a 95% confidence 247 level cannot be achieved is found at \sim 10-20 hPa, though a positive temperature difference remains there. 248 The accompanying solar signals in zonal wind are marked by westerly anomalies up to 12 m/s in the SH subtropical stratosphere extending downward from 1hPa to 70 hPa and 3 m/s in the NH subtropical 249 250 stratosphere extending downward from 1hPa to 20 hPa. Easterly anomalies are found in the high-251 latitude upper stratosphere but are only significant in the NH at 55-75°S, 1-2hPa (see Figure 2(d)). A similar pattern of solar response is obtained if the high-pass cutoff period is in the range of 3 to 12 252

253 months, and the magnitude and significance of the responses reduce when the cutoff period is either 254 smaller than 3 months or greater than 12 months. With a 36-month low-pass filter (see Figure 2b;e), the temperature response is marked by a general positive ΔT_{HS-LS} in the stratosphere where a significant 11-255 yr SC signal appears near the equator, in the subtropics and also in the polar region. The corresponding 256 257 response in the zonal wind is broadly symmetric about the equator. In the upper stratosphere, it is characterized by statistically significant westerly anomalies in the subtropics and partly significant 258 easterly anomalies poleward of 60° . In the middle to lower stratosphere, it is marked by easterly 259 260 anomalies near the equator and in the region poleward of 60° and by westerly anomalies at mid-261 latitudes. In the troposphere, it is marked by westerly anomalies near the equator and by easterly 262 anomalies near 30° and in the region poleward of 60° . The clearest vertical connection of the signals is 263 present in the westerly anomalies originating in the subtropical upper stratosphere. The spatial pattern 264 remains similar when the lower cutoff period is anywhere in the range of 12-36 months. However, the 265 equatorial-symmetric signal becomes noticeably stronger and clearer when the cutoff period is greater 266 than 28 months because the contamination of the QBO is suppressed.

267 It is known that there has been a steady decrease of the temperature in the stratosphere and increase 268 of the temperature in the troposphere over the last three decades and the diagnosis of the solar signal is 269 sensitive to the presence of trends in the data (Lu et al. 2007; Kodera et al. 2008; Frame et al. 2010). To 270 account for the effect of the long-term trends, the atmospheric data is first detrended linearly before 271 applying a 36-month low-pass filter (Figure 2c;f). The results of this show that the effects of removing 272 the linear trend give a generally weaker and less significant response in the stratosphere and an 273 enhanced response in the troposphere. In particular, at 30-50° in both hemispheres, a significant positive 274 temperature response (~ 0.4 K) in the troposphere appears only when the long-term trend is removed. Conversely, only marginal changes in zonal wind response are found to be associated with long-term 275 276 trend. There is an indication that the high and low frequency responses in tropospheric temperature are 277 of the opposite sign though the high frequency responses are hardly significant at a 95% confidence 278 level. More data are needed to confirm such a cancellation effect. Unlike temperature, the signature in 279 zonal wind is not sensitive to the long-term trends.

305

3.2 Seasonal progression of high frequency signals

281 It has been suggested that the temperature responses in the lower stratosphere are likely to be indirect 282 responses either through a modification of the Brewer-Dobson (BD) circulation, changes in ozone 283 transport or both (Kodera and Kuroda 2002; Hood 2004; Gray et al. 2009; Marsh and Garcia 2007; 284 Hood and Soukharev 2006; SPARC CCMVal report 2010). In this section, we focus on the temporal 285 evolution of the high frequency signal which helps the diagnosis of dynamical responses. We also show 286 how the high frequency signals in the upper stratosphere might contribute to those in the lower 287 stratospheric temperature, through a downward propagating mechanism which is likely to be associated 288 with changes in BD circulation. Daily data are used to demonstrate that solar UV forcing in the upper 289 stratosphere may be transferred dynamically through a downward and poleward movement of the 290 signals.

291 3.2.1 Signals in temperature

292 Figure 3 shows the monthly zonal-mean temperature (T_{clim}) for June to October (1st column) and the corresponding 6-month high-pass filtered temperature differences ΔT_{HS-LS} (2nd and 3rd columns), all 293 displayed in meridional-height cross section with latitude extending from 30° N to 90° S. The 294 295 corresponding zonal wind signals are described in the next section. In June, a significant positive ΔT_{HS} . LS signal emerges in the equatorial and sub-tropical upper stratosphere (5-10hPa) and in the lower 296 297 stratosphere (70 hPa). The upper stratospheric signature enhances in July and latitudinally expands and descends towards the lower stratosphere in August. Significant negative values of ΔT_{HS-LS} are found in 298 299 the high latitude SH in July and August. Such a response pattern in temperature suggests an enhanced 300 equator-to-pole temperature gradient in both the upper and lower stratosphere. The high latitude and 301 lower stratospheric tropical responses would be expected from a weakened BD circulation in solar 302 maximum years or from a strengthened BD circulation during solar minimum years. The temperature 303 responses both at low and high latitudes weaken in spring (September and October) and the high-304 latitudinal negative signals are replaced by positive temperature responses.

[[Insert Figure 3 here]]

306 Figure 4 shows the daily running regression (in K per 100 solar unit) of zonal-mean temperature on F_s averaged over 5°S to 5°N (a;c;e), and 55°S to 65°S (b;d;f), where data from 2002, 1982, 1983, 1991 307 308 and 1992 are excluded. In Figure 4(a;b), the regression is performed based on raw zonal-mean 309 temperatures at those two latitude bands and daily F_s . It shows that a downward descent of the positive 310 temperature anomalies with maximum magnitude of 3 K per 100 solar unit is found at ~2 hPa near the equator in late June (Figure 4a). The signal descends to 20 hPa in late August. There is a weaker but 311 significant (i.e. at the confidence level of 95% or above) temperature response at 70 hPa for the same 312 313 period which does not show any direct vertical connection with that originating in the equatorial upper 314 stratosphere. A negative temperature response (~6 K per 100 solar unit) appears at various altitudes at 55-65°S in July and August (Figure 4b). 315

Figure 4(c;d)) shows the same as Figure 4(c;d) but with a Chebyshev type II high-pass filter having a cutoff-period of 183-days applied to the temperature data. An apparent descent from 20-100 hPa in the case of equatorial temperature and from the stratosphere to the troposphere in the case of high latitude temperature can now be observed. Similarly, Figure 4(e;f)) shows the same as Figure 4(c;d) but with a Chebyshev type II band-pass filter having a bandwidth of 31 to 183 days applied to the temperature data. Downward descent of the solar signals becomes clearer though only the high latitude signal manages to cross the tropospause and move into the troposphere.

323 We found that the downward movement from the upper stratosphere to the lower stratosphere is 324 robust and becomes clearer when either a Chebyshev type I, or type II or Butterworth filter is applied to 325 the temperature data. Together, the signals suggest that during these seasons the high frequency 326 response in the stratosphere is characterized by warming in the tropics and cooling at high latitudes, 327 implying a slowing down of the BD-circulation. They also suggest that the effect moves gradually from the upper stratosphere to the lower stratosphere. However, the downward movement of the signal into 328 329 the troposphere loses statistical significance when either a Chebyshev type I or Butterworth filter is applied. When the cut-off period of the filter is increased beyond 6-months, the high latitude signals 330

temperature signal actually descends from the stratosphere into the troposphere in reality. 332 333 [[Insert Figure 4 here]] 334 To examine the variability of the solar signals in stratospheric temperature for HS and LS years 335 more closely, time series of the daily temperatures in the upper and lower stratosphere for each 336 individual year are shown in Figures 5 and 6, respectively. In Figure 5, daily mean temperature at 10 hPa averaged over the latitude ranges of 10-15°S (top row) and 55-65°S (bottom row) are compared for 337 HS (1st column) and LS (2nd column) conditions, where the averages are weighted by the cosines of the 338 339 latitudes. 340 [[Insert Figure 5 here]] [[Insert Figure 6 here]] 341 342 Figure 5 shows that, in the upper stratosphere, considerable temperature variation exists and the variance is larger for HS years than for LS years. The larger temperature variation under HS may be 343 344 partially due to the contaminating effects of the major SSW (year 2002, purple line) and the major volcanic eruptions (years 1982, 1991 and 1992; blue lines). The 3rd- 4th columns of Figure 4, display the 345 mean daily temperatures under HS (red) and LS (grey) conditions for no filtering and 183-day 346 347 Chebyshev type II high-pass filter. The shaded regions represent 95% confidence intervals for the mean. 348 When the shaded regions do not overlap, it indicates that the average temperature differences between 349 the HS and LS groups are significant at the 95% confidence level. In order to focus on the 11-yr SC 350 effect, years affected by the SSW and major volcanic eruptions are excluded from the group mean in HS. For equatorial temperature, statistically significant differences between HS and LS conditions are 351 352 evident for both the raw data and the high frequency component. For high latitude temperature, the difference is only significant for the high frequency component. When the unfiltered data are used, it is 353 354 barely differentiable.

become noticeably weaker (not shown). Thus, it remains to be verified whether or not the high latitude

355 Figure 6 shows the corresponding temperature time series for the lower stratosphere at 50 hPa and for the same latitude ranges as in Figure 5. It shows that higher temperatures existed for the volcanic 356 357 eruption affected years near the equator and subtropics, due to the warming effect of the volcanic 358 aerosols (Robock and Mao, 1992). In the 2002 winter, substantially lower temperatures are found at low 359 latitudes accompanied by higher temperatures at high latitudes. In the subtropics (top row), significant 360 positive temperature differences between HS and LS exist whether or not a filter is applied. The 361 response obtained by using raw unfiltered daily data is found from April to September while the high 362 frequency response occurs briefly only in August and September. The magnitude of the response is 363 larger in the unfiltered data than in the high frequency component. Conversely, the high latitude 364 temperature differences are only significant in the high frequency domain in July to early September. 365 The lack of significance in unfiltered high latitude temperature in the lower stratosphere is due to a 366 cancellation effect between high and low frequency components (not shown).

367 3.2.2 Solar signals in zonal wind

368 Figure 7 is similar to Figure 3 except that the temperature is replaced by the zonal-mean zonal 369 wind. The composite differences are the high frequency zonal-mean zonal wind between HS and LS 370 conditions (ΔU_{HS-LS}). The climatology of the wind field is characterized by a strengthening and 371 poleward movement of the stratospheric westerly jet from June to Mid-August and a gradual weakening 372 and downward movement of the jet thereafter. The high frequency ΔU_{HS-LS} signature is clearly marked 373 by a strengthening of the stratospheric jet as the significant westerly anomaly almost tracks the centre of 374 the jet. The signals originate in the subtropical upper stratosphere and lower mesosphere and then move 375 poleward and downward. There is a symmetric, but weaker, response in the NH subtropics (not shown), 376 which shows little poleward movement. As a whole, the overall structure of high frequency ΔU_{HS-LS} in 377 the stratosphere agrees exceedingly well with that proposed earlier by Kodera and Kuroda (2002) and is 378 consistent with the thermal wind balance in the presence of the anomalous latitudinal temperature 379 differences at 5-10 hPa shown in Figure 3.

380

[[Insert Figure 7 here]]

To examine the high frequency responses and variability of the wind in more detail, Figure 8 shows the daily evolution of the zonal wind at 30-40°S, 5hPa (upper panels), and at 40-50°S, 50hPa (lower panels) for HS (1st column) and LS (2nd column) conditions. Significant positive ΔU_{HS-LS} for the unfiltered data exists only in Austral winter and only in the upper stratosphere winds. The difference is noticeably enhanced both in the upper and lower stratosphere if a high-pass filter is applied. ΔU_{HS-LS} becomes insignificant if data from 2002 are included.

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[[Insert Figure 8 here]]

388

3.3 Solar signal in the Sothern Annular Mode

389 It is known that the changes in zonal-mean zonal wind in the tropospheric westerly jet during the SH winter are affected by changes in wave forcing (Limpasuvan and Hartmann 2000; Lorenz and 390 391 Hartmann 2001) and the effects may be projected onto the large scale atmospheric mode, *i.e.* the 392 Southern Annular Mode (SAM) (Thompson et al. 2005). Figure 9 shows the running linear regression (in SAM index per 100 solar unit) using raw daily SAM (a) and 183-day high-pass filtered SAM (b), 393 where the linear trend is removed and the data from 2002 and two years following the major volcanic 394 eruptions are excluded. An almost identical response pattern can be seen in (a) and (b), suggesting that 395 396 the SAM response to the 11-yr SC is dominated by the high frequency response. In the stratosphere, a positive solar response originates at 1hPa and above in early July and descends towards the lower 397 stratosphere in July and August. A negative response is obtained from October near the stratopause. 398 Noisier but significant responses are also found in the troposphere. They are positive in June-July 399 preceding the stratospheric signal, negative during mid-winter, and positive again form October onward. 400 401 No consistent signals can be found in the low frequency domain (not shown).

402

[[Insert Figure 9 here]]

Figure 9 suggests that the 11-yr SC may project onto the tropospheric SAM in early winter or late spring. To test whether there is any definite projection of the 11-yr SC on the SAM in the troposphere, scatter plots of F_s versus the station-based monthly Marshall-SAM from 1957-2009 are shown in Figure 10. We found that, in both June and November, the correlations are not significantly separable from

407	zero either using the raw data, or in the high or low frequency domains. Similar results were obtained
408	for other months or seasonal averages. We also found that there is no significant difference in the
409	variance and the histogram of the SAM under HS and LS conditions in the SH winter and spring.

[[Insert Figure 10 here]]

411 **4. Discussion**

412 The most significant solar signature is the positive response of stratospheric temperature, consistent 413 with the theory that the interaction between solar UV and ozone photochemistry increases temperature 414 there (Haigh, 1994). However, the stratospheric signals of the 11-yr SC are sensitive to the 415 contamination of the 2002 SSW event and the major volcanic eruptions and zonal winds are more 416 sensitive than temperature. We have noted that the zonal wind response becomes noticeably clearer and 417 more significant by excluding the data from year 2002 or by separating the analysis into high and low 418 frequency components. The fact that the solar signal in zonal wind is more sensitive to sampling 419 methods than that in temperature implies that temperature is more directly affected by the variation of 420 solar output during the 11-yr SC. This is consistent with the known mechanism of solar UV-421 stratospheric ozone interaction. In the troposphere, however, the solar signature in temperature is more 422 sensitive to the long-term trends than to the SSW or the major volcanic eruptions. Linearly removing the 423 trends enhances the signal in the troposphere and weakens the signals in the stratosphere. Without removing a linear trend, up to 0.3°K of the temperature response in the low-latitude lower stratosphere 424 425 might be the result of aliasing of a long-term trend onto the solar signal and this is in good agreement 426 with Lu et al. (2007) and Frame and Gray (2010).

Here we have found that, during the SH winter, the 11-yr SC signals become stronger and statistically more significant when the analysis is carried out at high and low frequencies than when the raw data are used. The difference is more noticeable at high latitude as the high and low frequency responses tend to cancel each other there. The cancelation partly explains why high latitude responses are hard to detect statistically when raw data are used.

The difference in high and low frequency responses highlights new aspects of the underlying 432 physical processes. The static low frequency responses in the stratosphere may represent the slow 433 434 varying temperature and circulation change due to ozone transport induced by solar UV-stratospheric 435 ozone interaction and changes in BD-circulation (Kodera and Kuroda 2002; Gray et al. 2009; Gray et al. 436 2010). The non-static high frequency responses in temperature, zonal wind and the SAM to the 11-yr 437 SC and the fact that the signals are statistically significant only during SH winter point to a dynamic 438 effect of the 11-yr SC on the stratospheric circulation. These high frequency signals are generally 439 consistent with the dynamic response studied previous (Kodera and Kuroda 2002; Matthes et al. 2004; 440 Kuroda et al. 2007). It may be interpreted as a possible association between the 11-year solar cycle and 441 the temporal or seasonal persistence of the polar vortex and the BD-circulation. Apart from the known 442 mechanism of *in-situ* solar UV and ozone photochemistry interaction, other mechanisms may also be at 443 play to produce those stratospheric signals. For instance, the signature of the solar wind streaming out 444 from the Sun has also been found in various climate records (Lu et al. 2008b; Seppälä et al. 2009; 445 Lockwood et al., 2010a,b; Woollings et al. 2010). Observational studies have shown that the solar wind 446 induced geomagnetic activity may alter stratospheric chemistry indirectly through energetic particle 447 precipitation (EPP) (Solomon et al. 1982; Randall et al., 2005; 2007; Seppälä et al. 2007; Siskind et al. 2007). Chemical-dynamical coupled general circulation models (GCMs) have indicated that odd 448 nitrogen (NO_x) induced by energetic charged particle precipitation during geomagnetic storms may 449 450 cause temperature changes in both the polar and equatorial regions and in the stratosphere and the 451 troposphere (Langematz et al. 2005; Rozanov et al. 2005). Lu et al. (2007) found that the magnitude of 452 temperature response in the low latitude lower stratosphere to geomagnetic activity was slightly larger 453 than that associated with the 11-yr SC and that the temperature response to the 11-yr SC and 454 geomagnetic Ap index tend to enhance each other. Lu et al. (2008b) have shown that there is a robust 455 relationship between solar wind dynamic pressure and the zonal wind and temperature in the northern 456 polar winter. Stratospheric wind and temperature variations are positively projected onto the Northern 457 Annular Mode (NAM) when the 11-yr SC is at its maximum phase, and negatively projected onto the 458 NAM during the 11-yr SC minimum phase. A weakening of the BD-circulation with reduced upwelling

459 into the lower stratosphere at low-latitude under high solar wind forcing is consistent with the behavior 460 of the high frequency response shown here. Our rationale is that, at solar maximum, a warming effect in 461 the low latitude stratosphere due to solar UV-stratospheric ozone interaction together with a cooling 462 effect in the high latitude stratosphere due to solar wind driven geomagnetic activity would enhance the 463 equator to pole temperature gradient. When both mechanisms work together, it would result in a 464 stronger dynamic effect on the stratospheric circulation than that resulting from just one of these two 465 mechanisms. Given that the 11-vr SC signals are found to be opposite at high latitudes, it may therefore 466 be speculated that the high frequency responses represent a combined effect of enhanced solar UV, 467 which causes warming near the equatorial stratosphere, and solar wind driven processes, which cause 468 cooling at high latitude stratosphere. This may also explain the static high frequency temperature 469 response in the lower stratosphere (~70 hPa) which seems to be independent of those originated in the 470 upper stratosphere (see Figures 3 and 4). Nevertheless, it remains to be understood what mechanism has 471 caused the cooling effect in the high latitude stratosphere in relation to solar wind activity. Recent 472 studies have suggested that the EPP-NOx and its downward decent during winter and spring play an 473 insignificant role on stratospheric ozone and circulation (Lu et al. 2008a; Salmi et al. 2011). Lu et al. 474 (2008a) suggested that changes observed in stratospheric winds and temperatures were unlikely caused by photochemistry associated with EPP-NOx and stratospheric ozone but were more likely due to an 475 indirect dynamical link, e.g. changes in wave activity, as they found that the spring temperature and 476 wind variations in relation to changes of geomagnetic Ap index have a sign that is opposite to that 477 478 expected from the NOx-ozone photochemistry mechanism.

The modulating effect of the QBO has not been explicitly studied here due to the limited data records. Nevertheless, our analysis indicates that the QBO may add noticeable contamination to the signals in the temperature near the equatorial stratosphere at 20-30 hPa if no high and low frequency separation is made for the solar signature. This agrees well with the findings of Smith and Matthes (2008). Here, we also found that separating the response into high and low frequency components not only allows isolation of the fast and slow responses but also partially eliminates the QBO contamination at those pressure levels. However, unlike the Northern Hemisphere where a significant solar signature 486 can only be detected when the data are subgrouped according to the QBO phases (*e.g.* Labitzke and van
487 Loon 1988; Lu *et al.* 2009), it is not essential to separate the data according to the QBO phases in order
488 to obtain significant 11-yr SC signal in the Southern Hemisphere.

489 The low frequency responses (> 36 months) are found in the lower stratosphere temperature 490 extending from the North Pole to the South Pole with the signal becoming weaker at mid-latitudes. 491 These low frequency responses could be related to slowly-varying transported ozone anomalies as 492 suggested by Austin et al. (2008) and Gray et al. (2009). They may also be partially associated with a 493 downward movement of ozone-UV interaction in the upper to middle stratosphere due to a change in the 494 BD-circulation and such a process could account for up to 1 K per solar unit in the observed increase in 495 temperature near the equatorial lower stratosphere (see Figure 4(a;c;e)). Other slow processes such as 496 thermal inertia of the oceans may also play a role (Austin et al. 2008; White et al. 2003; White and Liu 497 2008).

498 In the troposphere, we found the zonally averaged solar signals are generally more fragmented than 499 those in the stratosphere. At high frequency, there are some indications of downward propagation of 500 solar signals from the stratosphere into the troposphere at high latitudes (see Figure 4 and 7). However, 501 the most significant signal in temperature is a positive response at 30-50° and this can only be obtained 502 when the long-term trend is removed (see figure 2) and is consistent with previous studies (van Loon 503 and Labitzke 1998; Haigh et al. 2005; Gleisner and Thejll 2003; Crooks and Gray 2005; Lu et al. 2007; 504 Frame and Gray 2010). A significant signal in tropospheric zonal winds was found only in the low 505 frequency domain. The signal is characterized by a weakening of the sub-tropical jet and the effect is 506 symmetric about the equator, consistent with Haigh et al. (2005). The magnitude and spatial structure of 507 the signal in tropospheric zonal wind (~1-2 m/s) is in general agreement with the model simulations of 508 Haigh et al. (2005; 2006) and Simpson et al. (2009), where a positive equator-to-pole temperature 509 gradient was applied in the lower stratosphere. Nevertheless, we have noted that the positive signal in 510 the tropical lower stratosphere / troposphere is much weaker in ECMWF data than those imposed in the 511 model simulations.

It has also been suggested that higher solar forcing may cause stronger upward motion in the winter 512 hemisphere subtropics and enhanced downward motion in the summer hemisphere subtropics (van Loon 513 et al. 2004; Meehl et al. 2008). This response is associated with the "bottom-up" mechanism that is not 514 515 symmetric about the equator and is longitudinally varying and confined mostly to the Pacific Ocean 516 (Meehl et al. 2003; van Loon et al. 2007). As our analysis here has mainly focused on the zonal pattern 517 of the signals, our results cannot be directly compared to those reported by Meehl et al. (2003; 2008). 518 Using a stratosphere-troposphere coupled GCM, Meehl et al. (2009) show that both "top-down" and 519 "bottom-up" mechanisms may work together to induce positive feedbacks in the ocean-atmosphere 520 system that may amplify the response to solar irradiance variations. Further studies are needed to 521 understand how the stratospherically originating changes may amplify the longitudinal variations 522 associated with air-sea interaction in the tropical troposphere.

523 Linear regression between the 11-yr SC and the SAM shows that the solar signal is marked by a 524 strengthening of the stratospheric SAM during winter and a weakening of the SAM in the uppermost 525 stratosphere during spring. However, an 11-yr solar cycle influence in the stratosphere as a cause of 526 change in the tropospheric SAM cannot be established directly or linearly for the extended period of 527 1957-2009; other modulating factors, e.g. the QBO, must be taken into account to reveal any significant 528 solar effect on the tropospheric SAM. This is consistent with the results of Roscoe and Haigh (2007) 529 based upon multi-regression analysis where they also used station based Marshall SAM and found that 530 the 11-yr SC signal is not significant. However, a QBO modulation of the polar vortex may itself be modified by the 11-year cycle of solar activity (Labitzke 2003; Salby and Callaghan 2006) and this 531 combined solar-QBO effect has been detected in the SAM by using a composite solar-QBO (SQBO) 532 533 index for the period of 1958-2006 (Roscoe and Haigh 2007). They showed that SQBO was able to capture more variance in the SAM than the QBO and the 11-yr SC alone and suggested that the effect of 534 535 the 11-yr SC on the tropospheric SAM is non-linear and is modulated by the QBO. Indeed, the modulation effects of the QBO and the 11-yr SC on the SAM have been studied by Kuroda and Kodera 536 537 (2005), Kuroda and Shibata (2006) and Kuroda and Yamazaki (2010). As our primary goal here is to 538 study whether or not there is a direct projection of the 11-yr SC on the SAM and also as we are limited

by the amount of data available, we have not studied the *modulation* effects either by the 11-yr SC or by
the QBO on the SAM. Therefore, our results are not directly comparable to either the signal of SQBO
shown by Roscoe and Haigh (2007) or the QBO or solar modulated SAM patterns studied by Kuroda
and co-authors. In addition to aliasing effects of the QBO, long-term trend, volcanoes and the 2002SSW, the signals could also be affected by ENSO, which may be also related to non-linear effects (*e.g.*Marsh and Garcia, 2007; Calvo *et al.* 2009). Again, due to the limited data available, those effects were
not studied here.

To check whether or not the signals presented here may have been affected by merging two 546 different data sets together, we have also performed the same analysis by excluding the ECMWF 547 548 Operational data from our analysis and have found that the results remain qualitatively similar. For the high frequency response, both temperature and zonal wind responses in fact become larger in magnitude 549 550 though the significant regions remain similar due to a smaller sample size. For the low frequency 551 response, the spatial pattern of the response remains similar but the regions covered by the 95% 552 confidence levels reduce. We also performed the same analysis by including data back to 1968 as 553 Kuroda and Yamazaki (2010) had done. Again the spatial patterns of the solar signals are generally 554 similar though the magnitude of the high frequency response reduces significantly. Thus, the results 555 presented here should be verified in the future, when longer data sets become available. This applies in particular to the upper stratosphere where the impacts of discontinuities are more marked and in the 556 troposphere where the magnitude of the response is small and comparable to the uncertainty range 557 associated with the ECWMF reanalysis data (Uppala et al. 2005). 558

559 **5.** Conclusions

We have studied the characterization of 11-yr SC signals in the SH atmosphere during the winter and spring using ECMWF daily and monthly data from 1979 to 2009. By separating the response into high (< 6 months) and low (>36 months) frequency domains, we have found:

1) The 11-yr SC signal is generally more robust in temperature than in zonal wind.

564	2)	Spatially different 11-yr SC signals exist at high (< 6 months) and low (> 36 months) frequency
565		domains. In the stratosphere, the high and low frequency responses tend to enhance each other
566		near the equator and subtropics, while they oppose one another at high latitudes.

- 3) The high frequency response in the stratosphere is marked by an enhanced latitudinal
 temperature gradient in HS years from the equator to pole and a strengthened stratospheric jet
 during winter. The response moves poleward and downward from the upper stratosphere to the
 lower stratosphere by tracking the movement of the stratospheric jet, as noted by Kodera and
 Kuroda (2002).
- 572 4) In the lower stratosphere, the positive response of temperature to the 11-yr SC is dominated by573 its low frequency component.
- 5) In the stratosphere, the magnitude and the statistical significance of temperature and zonal wind responses to the 11-yr SC are sensitive to the contamination of the 2002 SSW event and major volcanic eruptions but the general spatial pattern of the responses remains similar with or without these data.
- 578 6) In the troposphere, the responses in the high and low frequency domains are of opposite signs
 579 but only the low frequency response with warmer temperatures in HS years is significant
 580 (figure 2). The low frequency latitudinal temperature gradients and the resulting zonal wind
 581 anomalies are consistent with the results of Haigh et al (2005).
- 582 7) In the troposphere, the solar signature in temperature is more sensitive to the long-term trend
 583 than to the SSW or the major volcanic eruptions. Linearly removing the trend enhances the
 584 signal in the troposphere and weakens the signature in the stratosphere.
- 8) A significant projection of the 11-yr SC onto the SAM can only be detected in the stratosphere
 and in the high frequency component. The signal is marked by a strengthening of the
 stratospheric SAM during winter and a weakening of the SAM in the uppermost stratosphere
 during spring.

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752 Figure captions

Figure 1. Composite differences (high solar –low solar (HS-LS)) of zonal-mean temperature (a;b;c;d) and zonal wind (e;f;g;h) for June-August averages. In cases (a;e), all data from 1979-2009 are included. In cases (b;f), data from year 2002 are excluded. In cases (c;g), years affected by the major volcanic eruptions (*i.e.* 1982, 1983, 1992, and 1993) are excluded. In cases (d;h), data from 2002 and years affected by the major volcanic eruptions are excluded. Statistical confidence levels above 95% are shown as dashed grey contours.

Figure 2. Composite differences (high solar –low solar (HS-LS)) of zonal-mean temperature (a;b;c) and zonal wind (d;e;f) for June-August averages. In cases (a;d), a Chebyshev type II high-pass filter with a cutoff-period of 6-month is applied. In cases (b;e), a Chebyshev type I low-pass filter with a 36-month cutoff period is used. In cases (c;f), temperature and zonal wind are linearly detrended first and then a Chebyshev type I low pass filter with 36-month cutoff period is applied. Statistical confidence levels above 95% are shown as dashed grey contours.

765 Figure 3. Left: monthly climatology zonal-mean zonal temperature (in units of K) for June to October 766 (top to bottom), displayed as lined contour plots in meridional-height cross section from 30°N to 90°N 767 and from 1000 hPa to 1 hPa. Right: same as the left panels but displayed as coloured contour plots for 768 the composite differences of the temperature between high solar and low solar conditions (HS-LS). The areas enclosed within the grey lines indicate that the differences are statistically significant from zero 769 770 with a confidence level of 95% or above, calculated using a Monte-Carlo trial based non-parametric 771 test. Data which might be affected by the major volcanic eruptions and 2002 stratospheric major 772 warming are excluded.

Figure 4. Time vs pressure level plot of linear running regression (in K per 100 F10.7-cm solar flux unit) between F_s and equatorial temperature averaged over 5°N to 5°S (a;c;e, where the contour interval is ±0.5 K) and temperature averaged over 55-65°S (b;d;f, where the contour interval is ±2 K). In (a;b), raw daily temperature is used. In (c;d), a high-pass filter with a cutoff-period of 183-days is applied to the daily temperature. In (e;f), a bandpass filter with a bandwidth of 31 to 183 days is applied to the daily temperature. An order 6 Chebyshev type II with passband ripple of 2 decibels is used for (c;d;e;f).
For all cases, the temperatures are linearly detrended first and the data from 2002, 1982, 1983, 1991 and
1992 are excluded from the regression. Statistical confidence levels above 90% and 95% are shown as
light and dark shadings.

Figure 5. Daily averaged zonal-mean temperatures (K) at 10 hPa, averaged over 0-5°S (1st row) and 782 over 55-65°S (2nd row), for HS (1st column), LS (2nd column) together with daily mean values for HS 783 (the line with red shading) and LS (the line with grey shading) conditions (3rd column). The daily mean 784 values for HS and LS at high frequency (< 183-days) estimated using a Chebyshev type II filter (4th 785 786 column) are also shown. The shaded regions represent the 95% confidence intervals of the mean. In the 787 HS group, the years in which data might be affected by the major volcanic eruptions are shown as blue 788 lines and the 2002 data are shown as the purple line. The daily mean values are calculated by excluding 789 major volcanic eruptions affected year and 2002 data.

Figure 6. As in Figure 5 but for temperatures at 50 hPa, averaged over latitude ranges of 10-15°S (1st
row) and 55-65°S (2nd row).

Figure 7. As in Figure 3 but the zonal-mean temperature is replaced by the zonal-mean zonal wind in
units of m s⁻¹.

Figure 8. As in Figure 5 but for zonal-mean zonal wind (m s⁻¹) at 30-40°S, 5hPa (1st row), and at 4050°S, 50hPa (2nd row).

Figure 9. As in Figure 4 but for the SAM derived from ECMWF daily data. (a) uses the raw daily
SAM; (b) a 183-day high-pass filter is applied to the SAM. The treatment of data and use of filter, lines
and shadings are the same as for Figure 4 and the contour interval is 0.25 SAM index per 100 solar unit.

Figure 10. (a;b) Scatter plot of F_s and July Marshall-SAM index. (c;d) Scatter plot of F_s and November Marshall-SAM index. For (a;c) no filtering is applied to the data; for (b;d) a high-pass filter of 6-month is applied to the data.



16m/s 12

8

4

0 -4

-8

-12 -16

















