Blocking variability: Arctic Amplification versus

² Arctic Oscillation

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To predict future changes in blocking and the resulting weather extremes, 3 some studies have proposed the negative phase of Arctic Oscillation (-AO) as an analogue for Arctic Amplification because of similarities between their 5 nean-states: reduced midlatitude-to-pole temperature gradients and weak-6 ened, equatorward-shifted jet-streams. Using well-controlled modeling ex-7 periments, we show that blocking variations associated with mean-state anoma-8 lies are opposite depending on whether these anomalies are driven by the in-9 ternal dynamics as in AO or forced externally as in Arctic Amplification. While 10 blocking increases and its latitudinal-distribution shifts poleward in -AO, we 11 find opposite responses when a mean-state identical to the -AO mean-state 12 is externally forced. Findings suggest that the observed blocking-AO rela-13 tionship is a correlation which does not imply that the -AO mean-state causes 14 increased blocking, and should not be employed as a prototype for Arctic 15 Amplification. Furthermore, results urge for a careful consideration of causal-16 ity before using internal-variability to predict low-frequency response to external-17 forcings. 18

DRAFT

September 28, 2015, 4:16pm

1. Introduction

Arctic Amplification has been one of the most prominent components of climate change 19 in the past two decades and is a consistent feature of projected climates with increased 20 green-house gases [Cohen et al., 2014; Vihma, 2014; Barnes and Polvani, 2015; Walsh, 21 2014]. With Arctic Amplification, the near-surface midlatitude-to-pole temperature dif-22 ference (ΔT_s) decreases, and the midlatitude jet weakens and shifts equatorward [Cohen 23 et al., 2014; Barnes and Screen, 2015; Vihma, 2014; Francis and Vavrus, 2012; Liu et al., 24 2012; Butler et al., 2010; Hassanzadeh et al., 2014; Barnes and Polvani, 2015], although 25 there are uncertainties in the latter [Barnes and Screen, 2015]. The potential influence 26 of Arctic Amplification, and the associated changes in the cryosphere, on the midlatitude 27 weather extremes has been a subject of intensive research in recent years [e.g., Francis 28 and Vavrus, 2012; Liu et al., 2012; Barnes, 2013; Tang et al., 2013; Mori et al., 2014; Kim 29 et al., 2014; Screen et al., 2015; Coumou et al., 2015; Schneider et al., 2015]; however, 30 the results have been largely inconclusive [see the reviews by Cohen et al., 2014; Vihma, 31 2014; Barnes and Screen, 2015; Walsh, 2014; Overland et al., 2015]. A major source of 32 disagreement is uncertainties in how Arctic Amplification modulates the frequency and 33 intensity of atmospheric blocks through changing ΔT_s and the speed and latitude of the 34 midlatitude jet [see, e.g., Cohen et al., 2014; Vihma, 2014; Barnes and Screen, 2015; 35 Overland et al., 2015; Francis and Vavrus, 2012; Liu et al., 2012; Barnes et al., 2014; 36 Woollings et al., 2014a; Hassanzadeh et al., 2014; Hoskins and Woollings, 2015]. 37

Blocking events, usually defined as large-scale persistent quasi-stationary high-pressure systems, can cause weather extremes such as heat waves, cold spells, droughts, and floods

DRAFT

September 28, 2015, 4:16pm

[e.g., Dole et al., 2011; Trigo et al., 2004; Green, 1977; Lau and Kim, 2012], which have 40 dire consequences for the public health, economy, and ecosystem [Barriopedro et al., 2011; 41 Robine et al., 2008; Coumou and Rahmstorf, 2012]. Despite numerous studies since the 42 1950s, how blocks form, persist beyond the synoptic timescale, and decay is still not 43 well-understood [see *Tyrlis and Hoskins*, 2008, and references therein]. As a result of 44 this incomplete theoretical understanding, short datasets [Cohen et al., 2014], and the 45 shortcomings of climate models [Shepherd, 2014; Scaife et al., 2010; Anstey et al., 2013; 46 Trenberth et al., 2015; Ferranti et al., 2015], how blocks respond to changes in ΔT_s and 47 the speed or latitude of the midlatitude jet, and hence the Arctic Amplification, remains unclear. To make progress in understanding and predicting changes in blocking despite 49 these difficulties, some studies have proposed the negative phase of Arctic Oscillation 50 (AO), an internal mode of climate variability, as an analogue for Arctic Amplification 51 because of similarities between their atmospheric mean-states; see, e.g., Box 1 in Cohen 52 *et al.* [2014]. 53

AO (also known as the Northern Annular Mode) and its Southern Hemisphere coun-54 terpart, Antarctic Oscillation (AAO), are characterized by hemispheric north-south shifts 55 of the extratropical circulation with an e-folding timescale of ~ 10 days [Thompson and 56 Li, 2015; Thompson and Woodworth, 2015], and exist due to the internal atmospheric 57 dynamics, i.e., stochastic eddy-forcing and positive eddy-mean flow feedbacks [Lorenz and 58 Hartmann, 2001; Simpson et al., 2013; Nie et al., 2014]. In Figure 1a we show the blocking 59 statistics for 1950 - 2014 Northern Hemisphere winters and summers in the NCEP-NCAR 60 reanalysis divided based on whether the first day of a blocking event had a positive or 61

DRAFT

September 28, 2015, 4:16pm

negative AO index. In both seasons, blocking activity increases by factors of ~ 3 and
shifts poleward in the negative phase of AO (denoted as -AO hereafter) compared to its
positive phase (+AO), consistent with previous studies of AO [*Thompson and Wallace*,
2001; *Overland et al.*, 2015] and North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) [*Woollings et al.*, 2014b; *Barriopedro et al.*, 2006] using other blocking indices. The same relationship exists between blocking activity and AAO, although the result is noisier due to shorter time-series
(see Appendix B; also see *Oliveira et al.* [2013]).

These results might seem to suggest that the atmospheric mean-state associated with 69 the -AO (and -AAO), i.e., equatorward-shifted midlatitude jets and weakened ΔT and 70 midlatitude westerlies (see figures 2 in Thompson and Li [2015] and Thompson and Wood-71 worth [2015]), is a condition that favors increased blocking activity [Cohen et al., 2014; 72 Thompson and Wallace, 2001. Because of the similarities between the mean-state of 73 the midlatitude atmosphere in the -AO and in response to Arctic Amplification, and in 74 particular the resemblance between the -AO latitude-pressure pattern and the zonally-75 averaged zonal wind (\bar{u}) response to reduced sea-ice in many modeling studies [e.g., Deser 76 et al., 2015; Peings and Magnusdottir, 2011], -AO has been suggested as a prototype to 77 understand how blocking activity might change with Arctic Amplification. The above 78 line of reasoning would predict that Arctic Amplification increases blocking and shifts its 79 latitudinal-distribution poleward. 80

The purpose of this study is to examine -AO as an analogue to understand and predict changes of blocking activity under Arctic Amplification, and to test whether there is a causal link between the -AO mean-state and increased blocking. We use well-controlled

DRAFT

September 28, 2015, 4:16pm

⁸⁴ numerical experiments using an idealized general circulation model (GCM) and its linear
⁸⁵ response function. Results are shown in section 2 followed by discussions in section 3 and
⁸⁶ conclusions in section 4. The blocking index, reanalysis data, idealized model, and its
⁸⁷ linear response function are, respectively, described in Appendices A, B, C, and D at the
⁸⁸ end of the letter.

2. Results

Using -AO as an analogue for Arctic Amplification predicts increased and poleward-89 shifted blocking activity under Arctic Amplification; however, it has been recently shown 90 that blocking activity decreases and shifts equatorward when the high-latitudes are forced 91 to warm in an idealized atmospheric GCM, despite the decrease in ΔT_s and the speed 92 and latitude of the midlatitude jet [Hassanzadeh et al., 2014]. A summary of these results 93 is shown in Figures 2a-2b in the same format that is used in this letter. The latitudinal-94 distributions of blocking frequency for two thresholds of the strength of blocking anomalies 95 1.5 and 2 standard deviation) for the control-run and for simulations with increased 96 ΔT_s (i.e., forced high-latitudes cooling) and decreased ΔT_s (i.e., forced high-latitudes 97 warming) are presented in these figures, which show a decrease in blocking activity as ΔT_s 98 is reduced, i.e., under Arctic Amplification-like conditions. Furthermore, as ΔT_s changes, 99 the latitudinal-distribution of blocking shifts in the same direction as the midlatitude jet, 100 i.e., equatorward as ΔT_s decreases (see Hassanzadeh et al. [2014] for details). 101

These findings are consistent with observed changes of blocking frequency with the seasonal cycle: in the Northern Hemisphere winters versus summers, ΔT is larger, midlatitude westerlies are faster (e.g., by a factor of ~ 2 in maximum seasonal-mean \bar{u} ,

DRAFT September 28, 2015, 4:16pm DRAFT

¹⁰⁵ see Figure S1), while blocking is more frequent in winters, as shown in Figure 1b and ¹⁰⁶ reported previously with other blocking indices [*Barriopedro et al.*, 2006; *Wiedenmann* ¹⁰⁷ *et al.*, 2002]. Moreover, the midlatitude jets and blocking activity shift in the same di-¹⁰⁸ rection, i.e., equatorward in winters compared to summers (Figures 1b and S1). The ¹⁰⁹ same changes in blocking activity are observed in the Southern Hemisphere winters and ¹¹⁰ summers [*Wiedenmann et al.*, 2002].

Next, we compare the blocking-AO relationship in the control-run of the same simula-111 tions with the blocking-AO relationship in observations. As demonstrated in Figures 2c-112 2d, the blocking-AO relationship in the idealized model is the same as in observations 113 (Figure 1a): blocking is more frequent, particularly at higher latitudes, in -AO compared 114 to +AO. Therefore, reduced ΔT and jet's speed and latitude, when driven internally as in 115 -AO, result in increased and poleward-shifted blocking activity, as schematically summa-116 rized in Figure 3a. However, in the same model, when the decrease in ΔT and jet's speed 117 and latitude is forced externally, as under Arctic Amplification, blocking activity weakens 118 and shifts equatorward (Figures 2a-2b), as summarized in Figure 3b. It should be clar-119 ified that Arctic Amplification can be affected by the internal-variability of the coupled 120 climate-system on decadal (or shorter) timescales [e.g., Wallace et al., 2012]; however, 121 the focus here is on the long-term climate change-induced Arctic Amplification, which is 122 externally forced. 123

These results suggest contrasting changes in blocking activity, both in magnitude and latitudinal-distribution, in response to the mean-states associated with -AO (internalvariability) and Arctic Amplification-like conditions (external-forcing), despite the sim-

DRAFT

September 28, 2015, 4:16pm

ilarities between the two mean-states. Such contrasting behaviors are not due to dif-127 ferences in the spatial patterns of the two mean-states, which, while similar, are not 128 identical, either in the idealized simulations of Figure 2 or in the simulations with more 129 complex GCMs (e.g., with reduced sea-ice) in other studies. This is illustrated by the 130 following simulations whose mean-flow responses to specified external-forcings are almost 131 identical to the -AO pattern. The -AO variability pattern in the idealized model, calcu-132 lated using an Empirical Orthogonal Function (EOF) analysis of daily anomalous \bar{u} and 133 zonally-averaged temperature (\bar{T}) , is shown in Figures 4a-4b. To force a zonally-averaged 134 time-mean response in the mean-state that matches this variability pattern (i.e., to gen-135 erate a permanent -AO pattern), we use the linear response function M of the idealized 136 model to calculate a time-invariant zonally-symmetric forcing (\bar{f}) of \bar{u} and \bar{T} as $\bar{f} = -M\bar{x}$, 137 where \bar{x} consists of the anomalous \bar{u} and \bar{T} shown in Figures 4a-4b (after normalization 138 to have maximum $\bar{u} = 1$ m/s; see Appendix D for details). Five ensembles with different 139 forcing amplitudes are run, which generate permanent -AO patterns that agree well with 140 the variability patterns (see Figures 4c-4d). There are differences at small scales but the 141 accuracy is adequate for the purpose of this experiment. Because the external-forcing \bar{f} 142 is time-invariant and zonally-symmetric, it affects zonally asymmetric phenomena such 143 as blocking only indirectly through changing the mean-state, which is a suitable property 144 for this experiment. Figures 4e-4f compare the blocking frequency of the control-runs 145 with that of the forced-runs, showing that blocking activity decreases and shifts equator-146 ward when reduced ΔT , equiprover equivalent shifted jets, and weakened midlatitude westerlies are 147 forced externally. These results are in agreement with the blocking-jet- ΔT relationship 148

DRAFT

September 28, 2015, 4:16pm

¹⁴⁹ of Figure 3b, but opposite to the relationship when the same mean-state is generated by ¹⁵⁰ the internal atmospheric dynamics (Figure 3a).

3. Discussions

Results of Figures 2-4 show unequivocally that, on the contrary to a widely-used in-151 terpretation of observed blocking-AO/NAO relationship, a mean-state with reduced ΔT , 152 equtorward-shifted midlatitude jets, and weakened midlatitude westerlies is not necessar-153 ily a condition that favors increased blocking activity. We emphasize that the blocking-154 AO/NAO relationship in observations and models is only a correlation and does not imply 155 a causal relationship between blocking activity and the mean-state of AO (or NAO). For 156 example, it is plausible that changes in synoptic eddies and wave-breaking events cause 157 the changes both in mean-states and in blocking activities; see a recent re-examination of 158 blocking-NAO relationship in *Woollings et al.* [2008]. 159

Forcing by synoptic eddies has been shown to play a critical role in the persistence of 160 blocking events by balancing the mean-flow advection [Green, 1977; Shutts, 1983; Illari 161 and Marshall, 1983; Trenberth, 1986, and should be taken into account in any effort to 162 understand changes in blocking activity. For example, ignoring eddy-forcing, one might 163 expect mean-states with larger ΔT and faster westerlies to have less frequent blocking 164 because it should be harder for the high-pressure anomalies to persist in one region (as 165 required for blocks) when the mean-flow advection is stronger; however, such expectation 166 is in contrast to the observed changes of blocking with the seasonal cycle (Figure 1b) and 167 the results of modeling experiments (Figure 2a-2b and 4c-4d). Indeed larger ΔT not only 168 results in faster westerlies, but also enhances baroclinicity and leads to stronger synoptic 169

DRAFT

September 28, 2015, 4:16pm

eddies and likely a greater forcing exerted on the anomalies against the mean-flow advec-170 tion. Further understanding of the advection-eddy forcing balance requires a deep insight 171 into the eddy-forcing mechanism, which is currently lacking. Additionally, understand-172 ing the contrasting blocking variations in -AO and under forced high-latitudes warming 173 demands a complete assessment of differences between the synoptic-eddy activities in re-174 sponse to external-forcings on one hand [e.g., Barnes and Thompson, 2014; Riviére, 2011], 175 and in the two phases of the annular modes (e.g., -AO) on the other [e.g., Lorenz and 176 Hartmann, 2001; Simpson et al., 2013; Nie et al., 2014]. 177

We emphasize that the goal of this study is to examine -AO as an analogue to predict 178 changes of blocking activity under Arctic Amplification. For this purpose, the idealized 179 model used here provides a dynamical framework to probe the Arctic Amplification-AO 180 analogy and to test whether there is a causal link between the -AO mean-state and in-181 creased blocking. The model retains the physical processes that are known to be essential 182 for the AO and blocking dynamics (i.e., synoptic eddies and eddy-mean flow interaction). 183 Furthermore, the model reproduces the AO pattern fairly well, the blocking-AO relation-184 ship in the model is the same as in observation, and the response of blocking activity to 185 forced high-latitudes warming is consistent with observed changes in blocking in response 186 to another external-forcing, the seasonal cycle. The advantages of employing the ideal-187 ized model are its simplicity and computational efficiency which allow us to isolate the 188 effects of different phenomena (e.g., high-latitude warming), to obtain robust statistics, 189 and to conduct well-controlled simulations particularly using the linear response function, 190 hence circumventing some of difficulties associated with interpreting and understanding 191

DRAFT

September 28, 2015, 4:16pm

the observational data and outputs of full-physics GCMs. Of course as in any modeling 192 study and as in any investigation of blocking statistics, the shortcomings and simplifica-193 tions of the model (e.g., absence of moisture and realistic quasi-stationary planetary-wave 194 patterns) and potential deficiencies of the blocking index should be kept in mind and 195 the results have to be viewed with a degree of caution. In particular, the role of moist 196 processes, which can modulate the AO and blocking dynamics (e.g., through latent heat 197 release [*Pfahl et al.*, 2015]), should be addressed in future studies. A better understand-198 ing of eddy-blocking interaction, obtained through theoretical, hierarchical modeling, and 199 observational efforts, will likely shed more light on the blocking-AO relationship. 200

We further emphasize that the results of this study do not directly address the question 201 of how blocks change with Arctic Amplification, rather, they contribute to the ongoing 202 research on this subject by providing evidence that a widely-used analogy, often em-203 ployed due to the poor understanding of blocking dynamics, is invalid. A reliable conclu-204 sive prediction of blocking activity response to Arctic Amplification requires a hierarchy 205 of modeling experiments to asses the role of the fundamental aspects of dry dynamics 206 (as in Hassanzadeh et al. [2014]), quasi-stationary planetary-waves (e.g., using models 207 with accurate representation of land-sea contrast and orography), ocean-atmosphere and 208 troposphere-stratosphere couplings, and moist processes (which might affect blocking re-209 sponse by modulating changes in the mean-state [e.g., Ceppi et al., 2014] and by warming 210 the blocking air through latent heat release [*Pfahl et al.*, 2015]). It should be highlighted 211 that all (or most) of these processes are present in full-physics GCMs; however, how blocks 212 respond to Arctic Amplification in such models is unsettled [see Barnes and Screen, 2015; 213

DRAFT

September 28, 2015, 4:16pm

Cohen et al., 2014; Hoskins and Woollings, 2015]. For instance, some studies [e.g., Liu 214 et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2014; Mori et al., 2014] have reported regional increases in blocking 215 due to Arctic influence while several other studies [e.g., Woollings et al., 2014a; Barnes 216 and Polvani, 2015] have not found robust evidence for such a link. Furthermore, some 217 studies have found that the mean-state response to reduced sea-ice is sensitive to the 218 perturbation details and model setup [see, e.g., Barnes and Screen, 2015] as well as to 219 the representation of the ocean [Deser et al., 2015] and stratosphere [Sun et al., 2015] in 220 the model. Given that the mean-state influences the blocking response, such sensitivities 221 and complexities hinder a reliable and conclusive prediction and understanding of how 222 blocking changes with Arctic Amplification, and call for a hierarchical approach to this 223 complicated problem [Hassanzadeh et al., 2014; Hoskins and Woollings, 2015]. 224

4. Conclusions

We present compelling evidence that the observed blocking-AO relationship is a cor-225 relation that does not imply that the -AO mean-state causes increased blocking, which 226 suggests that -AO is not a suitable prototype to predict how blocking activity responds 227 to Arctic Amplification. These results also suggest that employing AO to predict the re-228 sponse of other aspects of midlatitude circulation, such as the waviness of the jet-streams 229 Cohen et al., 2014; Francis and Vavrus, 2015], to Arctic Amplification should be carefully 230 examined. Furthermore, responses of the large-scale circulation to other external-forcings 231 (e.g., due to climate change) also project onto AO or AAO [Shepherd, 2014; Butler et al., 232 2010; Ring and Plumb, 2008] (for instance, stratospheric cooling due to ozone depletion 233 projects onto +AAO [Thompson and Solomon, 2002; Butler et al., 2010]). These similar-234

DRAFT

September 28, 2015, 4:16pm

ities might encourage using the observed correlations of some atmospheric patterns with AO (or AAO) to predict future changes in phenomena such as extreme temperature or precipitation events; however, the analyses presented here demonstrate that such correlations might be misleading and lead to incorrect conclusions, particularly for poorly-understood phenomena such as blocking, if causality is not thoroughly considered.

Appendix A: Blocking Index

We use the two-dimensional height-based index that is described in details in Hassan-240 zadeh et al. [2014]. Briefly, the index searches all grid points for positive daily-averaged 241 500 hPa height (Z500) anomalies that are larger than 1.5 (or 2 in Figure 2b) standard 242 deviation for 7 days or longer, and produce easterlies on their equatorward-flank for at 243 least one day. Calculations of anomalies and standard deviations are explained below 244 for the observational and modeling data. To highlight the latitudinal shift of blocking 245 distributions and changes in high-latitude blocks [Overland et al., 2015; Woollings et al., 246 2008, here statistics are reported as blocking frequency rather than blocking area (which 247 was used in *Hassanzadeh et al.* [2014]); however, conclusions do not change if area is 248 considered. 249

For Figure 1a and 2c-2d, percentage is calculated as the number of blocked days that start within a given range of AO index, averaged over all longitudes per latitudinal bins of 2.5° (observation data) or 2.8° (model data), and then divided by the total number of blocked days summed over all latitudes (of each hemisphere) $\times 100$. For Figures 1b, 2a-2b, and 4e-4f, blocking frequency is calculated as the number of blocked days averaged

DRAFT

September 28, 2015, 4:16pm

over all longitudes per latitudinal bins (same as above) divided by the total number of analyzed days $\times 100$.

Appendix B: Reanalysis Data

For Figures 1 and S1, we use data from NCEP-NCAR reanalysis. Daily Z500 for 257 1950 - 2014 on $2.5^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$ grid and seasonal-mean \bar{u} for 1981 - 2014 DJF and JJA 258 are available at www.iridl.ldeo.columbia.edu. Daily Z500 anomalies at every grid point 259 are calculated with respect to the seasonal-mean of each year's DJF or JJA. In each 260 hemisphere, the maximum zonally-averaged Z500 standard deviation of all analyzed DJF 261 months or all JJA months is used to normalize the anomalies. These numbers are \sim 262 142 m (DJF) and \sim 105 m (JJA) in the Northern Hemisphere and \sim 121 m (DJF) 263 and ~ 135 m (JJA) in the Southern Hemisphere. Blocks are included in DJF or JJA 264 statistics if their first day was in these months. Daily AO (AAO) index for 1950 - 2014265 (1979–2014), calculated using an EOF analysis of 1000 hPa (700 hPa) height, is available 266 at www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov. In the Northern (Southern) hemisphere, the first days of 267 blocking events are 3.4 (6.3) and 3 (2.3) times more frequently in -AO (-AAO) compared 268 to +AO (+AAO) in DJF and JJA, respectively. Note that the blocking-AAO data are 269 noisier because they are calculated from shorter time series, which is due to less frequent 270 blocking and shorter observational records in the Southern Hemisphere compared to the 271 Northern Hemisphere. 272

Appendix C: Idealized Model

We use the Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory dry dynamical core, which is a GCM for dry atmosphere, with Held-Suarez forcing [*Held and Suarez*, 1994]. The model

DRAFT September 28, 2015, 4:16pm DRAFT

is forced by Newtonian relaxation of temperature to a prescribed radiative equilibrium 275 state with a specified equator-to-pole temperature difference ΔT_y . The setup is the same 276 as in [Hassanzadeh et al., 2014]. For Figures 2a-2d, spectral resolution T85 ($\sim 2.8^{\circ} \times 2.8^{\circ}$) 277 with 30 equally-spaced vertical levels is used. For each ΔT_y , a three-member ensemble is 278 generated, where the model is run for 40000 days for each member. $\Delta T_y = 40, 50, 60$ (con-279 trol) , 70, 80 K are used, but only results for $\Delta T_y = 40$ (red), 60 (black), and 80 K (blue) in 280 Figures 2a-2b and for $\Delta T_y = 60$ K in Figures 2c-2d are shown for clarity and brevity. The 281 results of Figures 2a-2d are from simulations with zonally-symmetric lower boundary con-282 ditions. Similar distributions and the same blocking-jet- ΔT relationships as Figures 3a-3b 283 are obtained for the same configurations but with a 4 km mountain added to 45° latitude 284 in each hemisphere. Mountains are approximately Gaussian with widths 45° (longitude) 285 $\times 15^{\circ}$ (latitude). 286

²⁸⁷ AO is the leading mode of variability in this model and its spatial pattern (Figures 4a-²⁸⁸ 4b) agrees reasonably well with observations (figures 2 in *Thompson and Li* [2015] and ²⁸⁹ *Thompson and Woodworth* [2015]), particularly in the Southern Hemisphere [*Thompson* ²⁹⁰ and Woodworth, 2015] where the lower boundary-condition is more zonally symmetric. In ²⁹¹ the model, the first EOF of zonally-averaged daily surface pressure explains \sim 70% of the ²⁹² variance, and its principal component time-series, normalized by its standard deviation, ²⁹³ is used to calculate the daily AO index for Figures 2c-2d.

For Figure 4, ΔT_y is 60 K, resolution is T63 (~ 1.9° × 1.9°) with 40 equally-spaced vertical levels, and each member of the ensemble is run for 45000 days. For Figures 4a-4b, the -AO pattern is calculated as the first EOF of daily \bar{u} and \bar{T} (combined for the

DRAFT September 28, 2015, 4:16pm DRAFT

²⁹⁷ analysis), which explains ~ 49% of the variance (regressing daily \bar{u} and \bar{T} on the AO ²⁹⁸ index calculated above from surface pressure yields a similar pattern). For Figures 4c-4f, ²⁹⁹ zonally-symmetric time-invariant forcings \bar{f} in \bar{u} and \bar{T} are applied to force the mean-flow ³⁰⁰ response to match the first EOF of (\bar{u}, \bar{T}) with specified amplitudes (see Appendix D for ³⁰¹ details).

For the blocking statistics in Figures 2 and 4, 6 h outputs are first interpolated to a 302 T42 grid (~ $2.8^{\circ} \times 2.8^{\circ}$). Daily-averaged Z500 anomalies are calculated with respect to 303 time-mean Z500 and normalized using the maximum zonal-mean Z500 standard deviation 304 of each run. The standard deviation decreases with ΔT_y [Hassanzadeh et al., 2014], e.g., 305 it is ~ 1.7 times larger for the runs with $\Delta T_y = 80$ K compared to the runs with $\Delta T_y =$ 306 40 K. The decrease of standard deviation with reduced meridional temperature gradient is 307 consistent with observation [Screen, 2014] and theory [Schneider et al., 2015]. As discussed 308 in [Hassanzadeh et al., 2014], the trends reported in Figures 2a-2b are not sensitive to 309 using the standard deviation of each run to normalize the anomalies. In fact blocking 310 increases with ΔT_y despite the fact that the anomalies are normalized by increasingly 311 larger standard deviations. This is also true for the seasonal cycle in reanalysis data: 312 more blocks are found in winters compared to summers (Figure 1b) despite normalization 313 with larger standard deviations (see Appendix B). 314

Appendix D: Linear Response Function

The linear response function M relates the zonally-averaged response state-vector \bar{x} to its tendency $\dot{\bar{x}}$ and a zonally-symmetric external-forcing \bar{f} as [*Palmer*, 1999; *Kuang*, 2010;

DRAFT

September 28, 2015, 4:16pm

³¹⁷ Ring and Plumb, 2008]

$$\dot{\bar{x}} = \mathsf{M}\bar{x} + \bar{f}.\tag{D1}$$

In the current study, \bar{x} includes \bar{u} and \bar{T} responses, i.e., deviations from the climatology 318 of the unforced (control) runs. M represents advection, frictional and diabatic processes, 319 and turbulent eddy-feedback. The eddy-feedback, for which no complete theory exists, is 320 vital for an accurate calculation of M [Ring and Plumb, 2008]. To compute M for the dry 321 dynamical core with the eddy-feedback included, we employ the framework described in 322 Kuang [2010] for a cloud-resolving model. Briefly, time-independent zonally-symmetric 323 forcings in \bar{u} or \bar{T} are imposed, one at a time, at 100 latitude-pressure locations: every 10° 324 from 0° to 90°, and every 100 hPa from 1000 hPa to 100 hP. The spatial profile of each 325 forcing, applied simultaneously in both hemispheres, is Gaussian with standard deviations 326 of $\sim 7.1^{\circ}$ and ~ 53 hPa. The amplitude of each forcing is chosen to be large enough to 327 obtain an acceptable signal-to-noise ratio, yet small enough for the response to be a linear 328 function of forcing. 329

For each forced-run, after 500 days of spin-up, a 44500-day integration is used to calcu-330 late the zonally-averaged time-mean response in \bar{u} and \bar{T} with respect to the control-run 331 (a 45000-day unforced-run). Each response is averaged between the two hemispheres. To 332 improve accuracy, for each forcing, positive and negative amplitudes are used (leading to 333 400 total forced-runs) and the responses are combined (200 total forcing-response sets) 334 and then projected onto the 100 Gaussian profiles (described above) using least-square 335 linear regression. The 200 regression coefficients of each response (for \bar{u} and \bar{T} combined) 336 form one column of matrix X and the corresponding forcing amplitude forms the same 337

DRAFT September 28, 2015, 4:16pm DRAFT

column of matrix F (see *Kuang* [2010]). The left-hand side of equation (1) vanishes due to long-time averaging and $M = -FX^{-1}$ is calculated using direct matrix inversion. M has been calculated for $\Delta T_y = 60$ K and resolution T63 with 40 vertical levels.

To calculate the forcings \bar{f} used in Figures 4c-4f, the first EOF of (\bar{u}, \bar{T}) , shown in Figures 4a-4b, is normalized to have maximum $\bar{u} = 1$ m/s, and then projected onto the same 100 Gaussian profiles described above. The 200 regression coefficients form vector \bar{x} , and $\bar{f} = -M\bar{x}$ is calculated. Five ensembles forced with $a \times \bar{f}$ (with a = 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6) are run, but only results for a = 3 and 6 are shown for clarity.

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September 28, 2015, 4:16pm

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Figure 1. Blocking in the Northern Hemisphere for 1950 - 2014 winters (December-January-February, DJF) and summers (June-July-August, JJA) in the NCEP-NCAR reanalysis. a) percentage (%) of blocks that start on days when the AO index is positive (+DJF and +JJA) or negative (-DJF and -JJA). Summed over all latitudes, ratios of blocks in -AO relative to +AO are ~ 3.4 (DJF) and ~ 3 (JJA). Similar distributions and the same conclusions are reached if the statistics are calculated using the AO index of every blocked day rather than only the index of the first day of blocking events, and/or if only blocks that start on days with AO index ≤ -1 and $\geq +1$ were considered. b) seasonal distribution of blocking frequency (%). All latitudes considered, blocking is ~ 1.7 times more frequent in winter compared to summer. See Appendices A and B for details.

September 28, 2015, 4:16pm



Figure 2. Blocking in idealized modeling experiments. a) blocking frequency (%) for 500 hPa height (Z500) anomalies ≥ 1.5 standard deviation in three-member ensemble runs with decreased ΔT_s (red) and increased ΔT_s (blue) compared to the control-runs (black). b) same as (a) but for stronger blocks (≥ 2 standard deviation). Percentage (%) of blocks in the control-runs that start on days when the AO index is positive (red) or negative (blue) (c), and when the index is ≤ -1 (red) or $\geq +1$ (blue) (d). Parentheses show the ensemble-mean percentages summed over all latitudes. Similar distributions and the same conclusions are reached if the statistics are calculated using the AO index of every blocked day, and also for cases with increased or decreased ΔT_s . See Appendices A and C for details.

September 28, 2015, 4:16pm



Figure 3. Schematic relationship between the midlatitude-to-pole temperature difference (ΔT) , magnitude (speed) and latitude of the midlatitude jet, and the magnitude and latitudinaldistribution of blocking activity in -AO (a), and under Arctic Amplification-like conditions (b). Note that only the first-order changes in ΔT and jet's speed/latitude are shown to facilitate side-by-side comparisons; the spatial patterns of these changes are indeed more complex, see Figures 4a-4d and *Hassanzadeh et al.* [2014] (Figure S3).

September 28, 2015, 4:16pm



Figure 4. The -AO variability and permanent patterns in the idealized experiments. The first EOF of \bar{u} (a) and \bar{T} (b) in the control-run is the -AO variability pattern (scaled to have maximum $\bar{u} = 3 \text{ m/s}$). Time-mean response of \bar{u} (c) and \bar{T} (d) in the run forced with $3\bar{f}$ is the permanent -AO pattern. As discussed in the text and in Appendix D, \bar{f} is calculated using the linear response function so that the permanent pattern matches the variability pattern. Blocking frequency (%) in the control-runs (black) and runs forced with $3\bar{f}$ (blue) and $6\bar{f}$ (red) for Z500 anomalies that are ≥ 1.5 standard deviation (e) and ≥ 2 standard deviation (f). The ensemblemean frequency, summed over all latitudes, decreases by factors of ~ 0.7 (e) and 0.6 (f) for the runs with $6\bar{f}$ compared to the control-runs. See Appendices A, C, and D for details.

September 28, 2015, 4:16pm