

1 **Estimating Transient Climate Response in a large-ensemble global climate model simulation**

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7 Main points:

8 1. In a large model ensemble, we find that estimates of TCR from the 20th century tends to
9 be low biased compared to the model's true TCR.

10 2. Internal variability can push down or enhance the warming in ensemble members &
11 lead to large errors in TCR inferred from the 20th century.

12 3. We also verify that the details of the construction of the temperature dataset from
13 which TCR is inferred can lead to significant biases in TCR inferred from observed
14 warming.

15

16 **Plain language summary:**

17 The transient climate response (TCR) is defined to be the warming after 70 years of a 1% per
18 year increase in atmospheric CO₂. It is one of the important metrics in climate science because
19 it plays a key role in determining how much warming we will experience in the future. Previous
20 work has found that TCR inferred from observed warming over the 20th century tends to be
21 lower than TCR in climate models. This has been used by suggest that climate models are
22 overpredicting future warming. We use a large number of climate model runs to investigate
23 the methodology of this comparison. We find that TCR estimated from the 20th century
24 simulations may indeed be much lower than the model's true TCR. This arises from biases in
25 the methodology of estimating TCR from 20th century warming, as well as biases in the
26 construction of the observational temperature data sets. We therefore find no evidence that
27 models are overestimating TCR.

28

29 Abstract

30 The transient climate response (TCR), defined to be the warming in near-surface air
31 temperature after 70 years of a 1% per year increase in CO₂, can be estimated from observed
32 warming over the 19th and 20th centuries. Such analyses yield lower values than TCR estimated
33 from global climate models (GCMs). This disagreement has been used to suggest that GCMs'
34 climate may be too sensitive to increases in CO₂. Here we critically evaluate the methodology
35 of the comparison using a large ensemble of a fully coupled GCM simulating the historical
36 period, 1850–2005. We find that TCR estimated from model simulations of the historical period
37 can be much lower than the model's true TCR, replicating the disagreement seen between
38 observations and GCM estimates of TCR. This suggests that the disagreement could be
39 explained entirely by the methodology of the comparison and undercuts the suggestions that
40 GCMs overestimate TCR.

41 Introduction

42 The transient climate response (TCR) is frequently used to quantify the sensitivity of our climate
43 system to increases in greenhouse gases. It is defined to be the warming in near-surface air
44 temperature after 70 years of a 1% per year increase in atmospheric CO₂. As described below,
45 it can be estimated from observed warming over the 19th and 20th centuries, yielding most-
46 likely TCR values of 1.3-1.6 K [Bengtsson and Schwartz, 2013; Otto et al., 2013; Richardson et
47 al., 2016; Lewis and Curry, 2018]. These values lie below the CMIP5 ensemble average TCR of
48 1.8 K [Forster *et al.*, 2013]. Resolving this disagreement may have important consequences for
49 our confidence in the fidelity of climate models and their simulations of future climate change.

50 We will test the methodology of this comparison using a large model ensemble, an increasingly
51 popular tool to study the impact of internal variability on the climate system. The most
52 appropriate ensemble for this type of problem contains many runs of a single model with
53 identical physics and external forcing but different initial conditions, which allows one to infer
54 the impact of internal variability in the absence of inter-model differences. As each ensemble
55 member evolves in time, internal variability of the different members is out of phase, leading to
56 differences in the climate states among the ensemble members. In fact, one can think of our

57 observational record as one member of a theoretical ensemble of Earth's climate trajectories.
58 A model ensemble therefore gives us insight into what alternative climate histories may have
59 looked like.

60 **Data**

61 We analyze output from an ensemble of 100 runs of the fully-coupled Max Planck Institute
62 Earth System Model version 1.1 (MPI-ESM1.1) covering the period 1850-2005. The ensemble
63 was used by Dessler et al. [2018] to characterize the impact of internal variability on estimates
64 of the equilibrium climate sensitivity (ECS); they found that internal variability can lead to
65 significant errors in ECS inferred from historical observations. Hedemann et al. [2017] analyzed
66 this ensemble to determine potential causes of the so-called warming hiatus that occurred in
67 the 2000s.

68 As described by Dessler et al. [2018]: "This is the latest coupled climate model from the Max
69 Planck Institute for Meteorology and consists of the ECHAM6.3 atmosphere and land model
70 coupled to the MPI-OM ocean model. The atmospheric resolution is T63 spectral truncation,
71 corresponding to about 200 km, with 47 vertical levels, whereas the ocean has a nominal
72 resolution of about 1.5 degrees and 40 vertical levels. MPI-ESM1.1 is a bug-fixed and improved
73 version of the MPI-ESM used during CMIP5 [Giorgetta *et al.*, 2013] and nearly identical to the
74 MPI-ESM1.2 ... model being used to provide output to CMIP6, except that the historical forcings
75 are from the MPI-ESM. Each of the 100 members simulates the years 1850-2005 (Fig. 1) and
76 use the same evolution of historical natural and anthropogenic forcings. The members differ
77 only in their initial conditions —each starts from a different state sampled from a 2000-year
78 control simulation."

79 Dessler et al. further say: "We calculate effective radiative forcing F for the ensemble by
80 subtracting top-of-atmosphere flux R in a run with climatological sea surface temperatures
81 (SSTs) and a constant pre-industrial atmosphere from average R from an ensemble of three
82 runs using the same SSTs but the time-varying atmospheric composition used in the historical
83 runs [Hansen *et al.*, 2005; Forster *et al.*, 2016]. The three-member ensemble begins with
84 perturbed atmospheric states."

85 We estimate $F_{2\times\text{CO}_2}$ using the same approach in a set of fixed SST runs, one with a pre-industrial
 86 atmosphere and one in which CO_2 increases at 1% per year. $F_{2\times\text{CO}_2}$ is then estimated as the
 87 average difference in top-of-atmosphere flux over years 62-78, which produces a value of 3.7
 88 W/m^2 . This is lower than the value used in Dessler et al. [2018], 3.9 W/m^2 , which was
 89 estimated as one-half of the $4\times\text{CO}_2$ forcing from the same runs. Because of the slight non-
 90 linearity in the relation between forcing and the logarithm of CO_2 , taking one half of the $4\times\text{CO}_2$
 91 forcing is an overestimate of $F_{2\times\text{CO}_2}$.

92 We also analyze a 68-member ensemble of the MPI-ESM1.1 forced with CO_2 increasing at
 93 1%/year (hereafter, “1% runs”). As with the historical ensemble, the 1% ensemble members
 94 differ only in their initial conditions — each starts from a different state sampled from a 2000-
 95 year pre-industrial control simulation.

96 **Analysis of biases in TCR**

97 Time series of global-average near-surface air temperature for all 100 members are plotted in
 98 Fig. 1 of Dessler et al. [2018]; that plot shows that the model ensemble is in good agreement
 99 with observed surface temperatures. TCR can be estimated from the ensemble’s temperature
 100 data with this equation [Gregory and Forster, 2008; Otto *et al.*, 2013; Richardson *et al.*, 2016]:

$$101 \quad \text{TCR}_{hist} = \Delta T \frac{F_{2\times\text{CO}_2}}{\Delta F} \quad (1)$$

102 where ΔT is the change in temperature over the historical period and ΔF is the change in
 103 radiative forcing. In our analysis, Δ represents the change between the 1859-1882 average,
 104 selected because it is not strongly influenced by volcanic eruptions [Mauritsen and Pincus,
 105 2017; Lewis and Curry, 2018], and the average of the last ten years of the runs, 1996-2005. We
 106 refer to TCRs estimated this way as TCR_{hist} .

107 We first calculate TCR_{hist} in each ensemble member using global-average near-surface air
 108 temperature for ΔT . The calculated values range from 1.32 to 1.94 K (5-95% range 1.48-1.90 K)
 109 (Fig. 1a, Table 1). The spread in these TCR estimates is entirely due to internal variability and
 110 the spread is similar to previous estimates [Huber *et al.*, 2014; Hawkins *et al.*, 2016]. The

111 standard deviation of ΔT from the ensemble is 0.07 K, close to that assumed by Lewis and Curry
112 [2015], implying a similar spread in TCR due to internal variability in their analysis.

113 TCR is formally defined as the warming of global-average near-surface air temperature in
114 response to CO_2 increasing at 1% per year, at the time of doubling. This value, which we will
115 call TCR_{true} , can be estimated by averaging the warming (relative to pre-industrial) in years 60-
116 80 of the 68-member ensemble of 1% runs. We find that TCR_{true} for the MPI-ESM1.1 is 1.78 K;
117 this is 0.10 K (5.8%) larger than the average of the ensemble's TCR_{hist} (1.68 K).

118 Thus, TCR_{hist} is a low-biased estimate of TCR_{true} in the ensemble. The magnitude, and even the
119 sign, of this bias varies depending on the portion of the historical record being examined (Table
120 1). Overall, though, we see a clear tendency for the TCR_{hist} to underestimate TCR_{true} . Previous
121 papers have suggested that the biases in TCR_{hist} could be due to aerosol forcing efficacy
122 [Kummer and Dessler, 2014; Shindell, 2014; Marvel *et al.*, 2015], although that explanation
123 remains to be validated in this ensemble.

124 We are now in a position to critically evaluate previous comparisons of TCR from observations
125 and GCMs. TCR estimated from observations, which are TCR_{hist} , have most-likely values in the
126 range 1.3-1.6 K [Bengtsson and Schwartz, 2013; Otto *et al.*, 2013; Richardson *et al.*, 2016; Lewis
127 and Curry, 2018], although the uncertainty in the individual estimates is large. The CMIP5
128 ensemble's TCR, which are TCR_{true} , fall in the range 1.8 ± 0.6 K (average and 5-95% confidence
129 interval) [Forster *et al.*, 2013]. Our analysis of the MPI-ESM1.1 ensemble demonstrates how a
130 model with a TCR_{true} of 1.78 K might nevertheless produce TCR_{hist} in some ensemble members
131 that are much lower (1.3-1.4, Figure 1a) and in agreement with observational estimates.

132 We can also confirm previous suggestions that two issues with the observed ΔT , masking and
133 blending, are further biasing TCR_{hist} to even lower values [Richardson *et al.*, 2016]. Masking
134 refers to the fact that the observations are geographically incomplete, and that the degree of
135 incompleteness has changed over time, leading to biases in global-average ΔT [Cowtan and
136 Way, 2014]. To test the impact of this on TCR_{hist} , we also calculated ΔT in the ensemble using a
137 time-varying mask derived from HadCRUT4 (v4.6.0.0) [Morice *et al.*, 2012]. Using this masked
138 ΔT in Eq. 1, ensemble average TCR_{hist} drops from 1.68 K to 1.59 K (Fig. 1b, Table 2). However,

139 this masking bias is bigger in some observational data sets than others. If we mask the
140 ensemble's temperatures following the Berkeley Earth gridded land-ocean data set [Rohde *et*
141 *al.*, 2013] we find a much smaller bias (Table 2).

142 The second issue is blending, which refers to the fact that observed ΔT data sets are usually a
143 blend of near-surface air temperature over land and sea ice but sea surface temperature (SST)
144 over open ocean. Because near-surface air temperature is warming faster than SSTs, this
145 blending lowers ΔT compared to an estimate derived entirely from near-surface air
146 temperature [Cowtan *et al.*, 2015; Santer *et al.*, 2000]. We test this by calculating a blended ΔT
147 in the ensemble, which we also mask following HadCRUT4. Using this blended and masked ΔT ,
148 ensemble average TCR_{hist} drops to 1.47 K (Fig. 1d, Table 2). Masking with Berkeley Earth again
149 provides a less-biased estimate, with ensemble average TCR_{hist} of 1.55 K (Table 2).

150 In these blending calculations, we calculate anomalies of the individual data sets first, and then
151 combine them. We have also blended absolute temperatures and then calculated anomalies;
152 we find that the order of calculation changes our results by less than 1% [Cowtan *et al.*, 2015].
153 Finally, we have also calculated blended ΔT using the temperature of the model's top ocean
154 layer (representing the top 12 m of the ocean) instead of SST. Using that estimate of ΔT yields
155 TCR_{hist} estimates that are similar to those that blend SST (Fig. 2f, Table 2).

156 **Analysis of internal variability in the ensemble**

157 The wildcard in this analysis is internal variability. Given that we have only one realization of the
158 historical record, there is no way for us to know whether the warming over the historical period
159 is less or greater than the average of all possible trajectories of our climate system over the
160 historical period. Any deviation of the observed record from the "ensemble average" of the
161 Earth's historical climate trajectory would lead directly to errors in TCR_{hist} estimated from
162 observations. Our analysis shows that this variability could, by itself, explain the difference in
163 TCR between observations and CMIP5 models [Lewis and Curry, 2015; Lewis and Curry, 2018;
164 Richardson *et al.*, 2016].

165 The global and ensemble average ΔT is 0.84 K over the historical period. The spatial distribution
166 (Fig. 2a and 2b) shows largest warming in the Arctic and least in the Southern Ocean (55°S).

167 The tropics (30°N-30°S) are responsible for 44% of the ensemble-average warming, the
168 northern hemisphere extratropics (30°N-90°N) is responsible for 39%, and the southern
169 hemisphere extratropics (30°S-90°S) is responsible for the rest, 17%.

170 The Berkeley observational record (Fig. 2c) shows a warming of 0.77 K over the same period,
171 identical to the ensemble average of the model when the model data are blended and masked
172 following the Berkeley data. However, the spatial distribution of the warming is slightly
173 different (Fig. 2d), with more warming in the ensemble average in the northern polar region
174 and west Pacific, and less elsewhere.

175 The pattern of surface warming varies among the members of the ensemble, which is what
176 drives differences in the TCR. We can visualize this by plotting the covariance between the
177 ensemble's 100 TCR values and the ensemble's 100 ΔT values at each grid point (Fig. 3). Most
178 regions show positive covariances, meaning higher TCRs are associated with more warming
179 almost everywhere.

180 But the covariance is not uniform — the spread in TCR arises mainly from ΔT variability in the
181 northern hemisphere: 54% of the global average covariance comes from the northern
182 hemisphere extratropics, 34% from the tropics (30°N-30°S), and 12% from the southern
183 hemisphere extratropics. Previous work has shown that, for equilibrium climate sensitivity, the
184 southern hemisphere plays the dominant role in variability in the ensemble [Dessler *et al.*,
185 2018], suggesting that variability in TCR and equilibrium climate sensitivity arise from different
186 mechanisms.

187 High values of covariance in the northern hemisphere extratropics are found in the Arctic,
188 especially the Barents Sea, as well as Northern Europe and the North Atlantic. The main
189 contribution in the southern hemisphere extratropics is in the Weddell Sea, just to the east of
190 the Antarctic Peninsula. Previous researchers have identified these regions as playing key roles
191 in internal variability [Brown *et al.*, 2016; Martin *et al.*, 2013]. We are presently performing a
192 more detailed analysis of the causes of internal variability in the ensemble that will be
193 published in a future paper.

194 **Conclusions**

195 We have investigated why observation-based estimates of TCR tend to be lower than those
196 from GCMs using a perfect model experiment. We have quantified a number of biases that can
197 explain most, perhaps even all, of the disagreement: 1) a bias between TCR_{hist} and TCR_{true} , 2) a
198 bias due to incomplete spatial coverage in the observational ΔT record, and 3) a bias due to the
199 observational ΔT values being blends of air temperature and SSTs. These three biases are all
200 acting in the same direction, to push TCR_{hist} to lower values. The impact of internal variability,
201 which can suppress warming in some members of the ensemble, thereby further reducing
202 TCR_{hist} , has a potentially large magnitude and therefore could also be playing a major role in the
203 model-observation difference.

204 The uncertainty in individual estimates of TCR_{hist} from observations are large and the
205 uncertainty range easily covers most of the TCR_{true} values from the CMIP5 ensemble [Lewis and
206 Curry, 2015; Lewis and Curry, 2018; Richardson *et al.*, 2016]. Because of the large uncertainty
207 in other parameters (e.g., aerosol forcing), adding uncertainty due to the issues we discuss in
208 this paper will produce only nominal increases in the total uncertainty of the observational
209 estimates. However, the biases we have investigated are capable of explaining the entire
210 disagreement between the central values of the estimates, which has been the focus of much
211 of the discussion.

212 Our work also informs how future analyses should be done. First, analyses should account for
213 the role of internal variability, most likely by comparing observations to an ensemble of runs. In
214 addition, we should not compare TCR_{hist} derived from observations to TCR_{true} — unless one can
215 quantify and adjust for the bias between these methods. A better approach would be to
216 compare TCR_{hist} from observations to TCR_{hist} derived from an ensemble of runs of the GCMs
217 covering the same period as the observations. Finally, one must account for biases in the
218 observations of ΔT used to estimate the observational TCR_{hist} by using masked and blended ΔT
219 fields from the model to estimate the model-derived TCR_{hist} .

220

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303

304 **Table 1. TCR_{hist} calculated with different base and end periods**

base period	end period	average (K)	Full TCR range (K)	5-95% TCR range (K)	width (K)	% diff from true TCR	ΔF (W/m^2)
1859-1882	1940-1949	1.82	0.63-2.88	1.15-2.50	1.35	2.0	0.54
1859-1882	1951-1960	1.96	1.10-3.13	1.32-2.67	1.34	9.2	0.59
1859-1882	1969-1978	1.71	1.01-2.91	1.24-2.24	0.99	-4.0	0.81
1859-1882	1996-2005	1.68	1.32-1.94	1.48-1.90	0.42	-5.9	1.85
1930-1939	1996-2005	1.65	0.97-2.07	1.35-1.99	0.64	-7.9	1.41
1940-1949	1996-2005	1.62	1.02-2.16	1.28-2.04	0.76	-9.6	1.31
1951-1960	1996-2005	1.55	0.91-2.04	1.20-1.90	0.70	-14.8	1.26
1970-1979	1996-2005	1.67	0.99-2.42	1.20-2.09	0.90	-6.6	0.99

305 The bold line is the case primarily discussed in the text. Width is the difference between the 5th and 95th
306 percentile values; % difference is average TCR_{hist} minus TCR_{true} , 1.78 K, divided by average TCR_{hist} , in
307 percent; ΔF is the change in forcing between the base and end periods.

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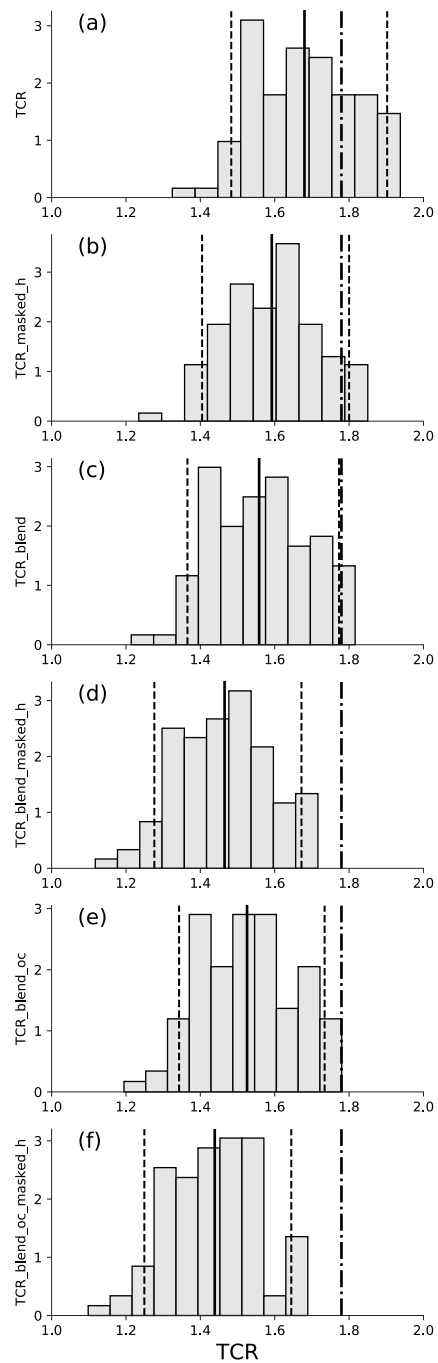
310 **Table 2. TCR_{hist} calculated with different versions of ΔT**

T _s data set	Description	average (K)	% diff from True TCR	Full TCR range (K)	5-95% TCR range (K)
TCR	ΔT is global-average near-surface air temperature	1.68	-5.9	1.32-1.94	1.48-1.90
TCR_masked_h	Same as TCR, but geographic coverage follows HadCRUT4	1.59	-11.8	1.23-1.85	1.40-1.80
TCR_masked_b	Same as TCR, but geographic coverage follows Berkeley Earth	1.67	-6.5	1.30-1.93	1.48-1.89
TCR_blend	ΔT is a blend of near-surface air temperature over land and sea ice and SSTs over open ocean	1.56	-14.2	1.21-1.82	1.37-1.77
TCR_blend_masked_h	Same as TCR_blend, but geographic coverage follows HadCRUT4	1.47	-21.4	1.12-1.72	1.28-1.67
TCR_blend_masked_b	Same as TCR_blend, but geographic coverage follows Berkeley Earth	1.55	-14.7	1.19-1.80	1.36-1.77
TCR_blend_oc	ΔT is a blend of near-surface air temperature over land and sea ice; elsewhere, use temperature of the top 12 m of the ocean	1.53	-16.6	1.19-1.78	1.34-1.73
TCR_blend_oc_masked_h	Same as TCR_blend_oc, but geographic coverage follows HadCRUT4	1.44	-23.7	1.10-1.69	1.25-1.64
TCR_blend_oc_masked_b	Same as TCR_blend_oc, but geographic coverage follows Berkeley Earth	1.51	-17.7	1.17-1.76	1.33-1.73

311 The bold line is the base case primarily discussed in the text; % difference is average TCR_{hist} minus
312 TCR_{true}, 1.78 K, divided by average TCR_{hist}, in percent.

313

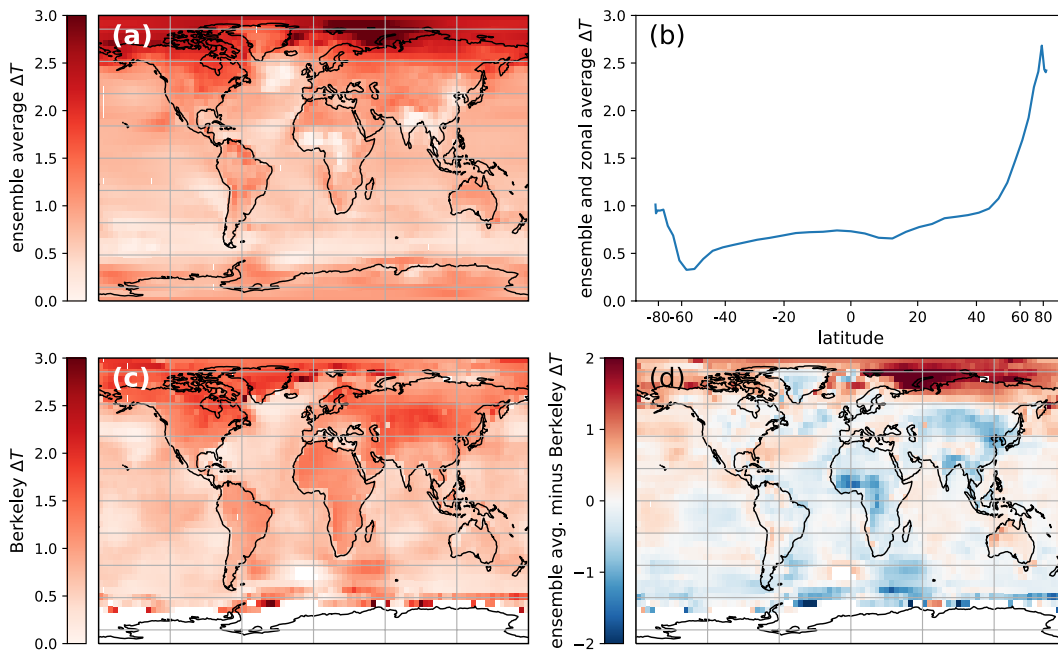
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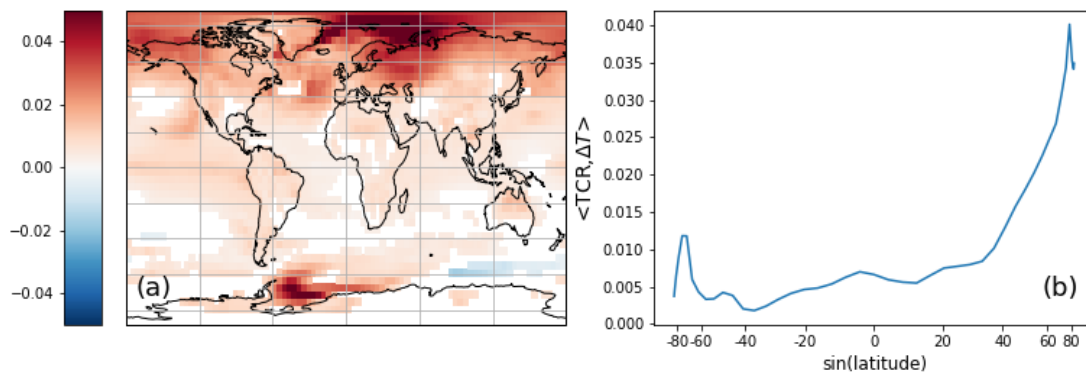
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317 Figure 1. Histograms of TCR_{hist} (K) from the ensemble. Each panel shows the calculation with a
 318 different version of ΔT ; see Table 2 for definitions. The solid black line represents the average,
 319 the dashed lines are the 5th and 95th percentiles. The dot-dashed line is TCR_{true} of the model,
 320 1.78 K.



321
 322 Figure 2. (a) Spatial distribution of ensemble average ΔT (near surface air temperature) (K), the
 323 average change in temperature between 1859-1882 and 1996-2005; (b) zonal average of the
 324 ensemble average ΔT vs. area-weighted latitude; (c) ΔT derived from Berkeley surface
 325 temperature data; (d) ΔT from the model, blended and masked following the Berkeley data set,
 326 minus ΔT derived from Berkeley data.
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328
 329 Figure 3. (a) Covariance of the ensemble's TCR and each grid point's ΔT (K^2); regions where the
 330 covariance is not statistically different from zero (5-95% confidence interval, estimated by a
 331 bootstrap technique) are white. (b) Covariance of TCR and zonal average ΔT (K^2).
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