

1 Half the world's population already experiences years 2 1.5°C warmer than preindustrial

3 Summary: We develop a gridded temperature exposure dataset that
incorporates both the urban heat island effect and
changes between the early industrial and preindustrial.

Chris Brierley^{1*}, Alexander Koch¹, Maryam Ilyas^{2,3},
Natalie Wennyk¹, and Jarmo Kikstra¹

¹Department of Geography, University College London, London, U.K.

²Department of Statistical Science, University College London, London, U.K.

³College of Statistical and Actuarial Sciences, University of the Punjab, Lahore, Pakistan

*To whom correspondence should be addressed; E-mail: c.brierley@ucl.ac.uk.

4 **The Paris Agreement aims to limit the increase in global average tempera-**
5 **ture to 1.5 °C above preindustrial. A natural question for the public to ask**
6 **is “But how much warmer than preindustrial is where I live?” We develop a**
7 **pattern-scaling technique to present local annually-resolved, gridded temper-**
8 **ature anomalies prior to the industrial burning of fossil fuels. On average the**
9 **past 5 years, 2014-2018, was 1.13 °C above preindustrial (with a likely range**
10 **of 1.00-1.26 °C). When accounting for the distribution of the human popula-**
11 **tion and urban heat island effect, we find that people experienced an aver-**
12 **age warming of 1.61 °C (1.43-1.79 °C) over the same period. When the Paris**
13 **Agreement was signed in 2015, the majority of the global population was ex-**

14 **posed to local, annual temperatures warmer than 1.5 °C above preindustrial.**

15 The world has warmed appreciably over the past two centuries (Fig. 1a). The Paris Agree-
16 ment commits the world to keeping global mean temperature ‘well-below 2 °C’ above prein-
17 dustrial (1). This value is a global average and some regions will experience warming much
18 greater than this, for example the Arctic (2). Such a regional pattern can make it hard for people
19 to associate the global target with their local experiences (3). The long timescales of climate
20 change provide a further challenge: not only does interannual variability obscure the multi-year
21 average, but the preindustrial reference state was multiple generations ago (4).

22 Regional temperature changes are rarely presented with respect to the preindustrial. For
23 example, they were never shown this way in the IPCC’s 5th Assessment Report (5), upon which
24 the Paris Agreement was grounded. The recent IPCC special report “Global Warming of 1.5 °C”
25 was the first to show temperature plots with respect to a preindustrial baseline (6). Choosing not
26 to present changes from preindustrial may be justified given the uncertainty in our knowledge
27 of the preindustrial baseline (for example Fig. 1b implies less confidence in warming trend than
28 Fig. 1a). However, it may mislead causal observers about the magnitude of warming that has
29 occurred. Here we provide and display an ensemble of gridded temperature observations that
30 shows the local warming since preindustrial and its uncertainty.

31 The sparse instrumental coverage prior to the 1950s means that even the state of the El
32 Niño-Southern Oscillation may be ambiguous (7), despite being the dominant mode of climate
33 variability (8). This means that when calculating regional temperature changes from any prein-
34 dustrial baseline one must also formally quantify the uncertainties, especially those associated
35 with the regions without instrumental coverage (9). Here we base our dataset on the HadCRUT4
36 compilation of station observations (10) combined with multi-resolution lattice kriging (9) to
37 retain covariance relationships at global, synoptic and local scales. 10,000 equally-plausible en-
38 semble members represent the observed temperature change, beginning in 1850 CE (7) (Meth-

39 ods).

40 The Paris Agreement does not provide a precise definition of when the preindustrial refer-
41 ence period occurred (1). For practical reasons, the early industrial (1850–1900 CE) is used
42 as a fair approximation (5, 6), because this is earliest that we have sufficient global coverage
43 of instrumental records. An earlier reference period would be desirable from a radiative forc-
44 ing perspective (11), because humans had already noticeably altered the climate system by the
45 early instrumental period (12, 13). An expert assessment states that the earlier reference period
46 was cooler than the 1850–1900 CE instrumental period (6, 11), with a subsequent model-based
47 quantification of 0.079 °C (likely range of -0.025 to 0.184 °C) cooler (14)(Methods). The
48 uncertainty in the preindustrial baseline temperature even propagates into the estimate of well-
49 observed years (11) (Fig. 1b). There is ongoing discussion about the most appropriate definition
50 of the preindustrial baseline (15, 16). Here we apply the stricter definition of a long-term average
51 climate prior to industrialisation (14) (taken as 1400–1800 CE, Methods), rather than assume
52 the early instrumental period (1850–1900 CE) represents “preindustrial” conditions (5, 6).

53 Reconstructing the spatial pattern of the warming prior to reliable instrumental coverage
54 (pre-1850 CE) presents a different challenge. The forced component of global warming of
55 the early instrumental period (1850–1900 CE) with respect to 1400–1800 CE has been esti-
56 mated from a 26-member multi-model ensemble of climate simulations covering the past mil-
57 lennium (14). The global mean warming is often used as an index of climate change, because
58 local temperature changes and some impacts scale approximately linearly with it (17, 18). Un-
59 fortunately conventional pattern-scaling tools are not appropriate to expand the global mean off-
60 sets spatially, because they either cannot represent cold states prior to the future projections (18)
61 or do not allow realistic covariance sampling (17).

62 Here we adopt a novel pattern-scaling approach that not only reconstructs the mean pattern
63 and local uncertainty, but critically also retains the spatial covariances between locations in

64 its reconstructed patterns (Methods). In brief, an ensemble of scalable patterns were created
65 from the regression slopes of the first 10 empirical orthogonal functions of the merged surface
66 temperatures changes seen in CMIP5 under the RCP2.6 scenario (Fig. S1, combined with
67 a residual term. We multiply these scalable patterns by the global mean warming from the
68 preindustrial to the early instrumental (14) to estimate the temperature offset between these
69 two periods (Fig. 2A). The uncertainty in the preindustrial offset (Fig. 2B) is substantially less
70 than the uncertainty in the early industrial observations (predominantly arising from incomplete
71 global coverage), which itself is of a similar magnitude to interannual variability (Methods).
72 Combining the offset estimates with the spatially-complete temperature observations (7), we
73 create an annual-resolution dataset of local temperature anomalies from the preindustrial along
74 with quantified uncertainties (Methods).

75 On average, the past five years (2014-2018) was significantly warmer than preindustrial
76 across the majority of the globe (Fig. 2F). The proportion of the globe with temperature anoma-
77 lies greater than 1.5 °C was 27.3% (likely range 22.5–32.4%); and 14.1% (10.9–17.4%) saw
78 temperatures over 2 °C (Fig. 3A, Tab. S2).

79 As well as temperatures rising since the preindustrial, the global population has increased
80 dramatically (19) (Fig. 3b). People are not evenly spread across the globe (Fig. S2): the vast
81 majority live on the land, which warms faster the ocean (20). Assessing the direct health impacts
82 of the warming requires consideration of only the temperatures to which people are exposed -
83 rather than the global average (21). The majority of the world's population lives in Asia (19),
84 yet very few live in the portion of Asia with the warmest temperature anomalies (Siberia was
85 more than 2.5 °C above preindustrial; Fig. 2F).

86 A further major demographic trend over the past two centuries has been the shift to living
87 in towns and cities instead of the countryside (19). Due to the urban heat island effect (22), this
88 shift itself will lead to people on average being exposed to higher temperatures (Fig. S2. Whilst

89 estimates of the urban heat island effect exist with global coverage (23), information about of
90 their evolution since 1850 CE does not. We therefore incorporate the impact of urbanisation as
91 a time invariant adjustment felt by an increasing proportion of the population (Methods).

92 Combining the temperature dataset with both population information and the urbanisation
93 adjustments allows the number of people living at various warming levels to be determined each
94 year (Fig. 3a). The total number of people that experience an annual mean temperature at, or
95 below, the preindustrial level in each year has not increased, despite the substantial population
96 growth (Fig. 3a). As a percentage however, it has dropped throughout the industrial era and is
97 effectively negligible now (Fig. 4). It is as if all the population growth since industrialisation
98 has occurred at elevated temperatures. Resilience to climate change may be better measured
99 with respect to interannual variability (24), with a shift of more than two standard deviations
100 (Fig. 2) termed an unfamiliar climate (25). Few people now live at temperatures ‘familiar’ to
101 the preindustrial (Fig. S4).

102 The Lancet Countdown (21) defines one indicator for the health effects of temperature
103 change as the ‘exposure-weighted’ average temperature (i.e. the temperature change experi-
104 enced by a person on average). The report stressed that this indicator increased at double the rate
105 of global (area-weighted) temperature since 2000 CE (21). The temperature anomaly dataset
106 and urban heat island methodology developed here means it is possible to ‘exposure-weight’
107 the warming since the preindustrial for the first time. This indicator consistently shows larger
108 changes with respect to the preindustrial (Fig. 1c) than the global mean temperature since 1850
109 CE (Fig. 1b). This occurs as the human population is not distributed evenly over the globe (19)
110 and urbanisation exposes people to warmer temperatures (22) (Fig. S2).

111 The impact of considering the relative population sizes when thinking about observed tem-
112 perature changes across the globe are best illustrated through the use of cartograms (25, 26).
113 Fig. 4 presents the national average warming since the preindustrial for 2014–2018: using

114 (A) area weighting and (B) both exposure-weighting and scaling each country's size relative to
115 its national population. The differing impacts of considering the exposure-weighted and area-
116 weighted averages is most noticeable in North America.

117 Natural year-to-year variations can mean there are always regions of the globe that experi-
118 ence temperature at or below the preindustrial, as well as substantially warmer than that (Fig.
119 2) Nonetheless as the global population crossed 2 billions in the 1930s, it also crossed into a
120 world where, for the first time, less people were exposed to a preindustrial climate than a world
121 with warming of 1 °C or higher (Fig. 4). Our analysis shows that 1990 CE was the first year
122 that 50% of the world's population was exposed to 1 °C above preindustrial, albeit temporar-
123 ily. Since the Kyoto Protocol was signed in 1997 CE, a majority of the world's population has
124 lived with annual temperatures 1 °C or more above preindustrial (Fig. 4). We find that in 2015
125 CE over half of the global population was exposed to temperatures greater than 1.5 °C above
126 preindustrial (55%, Tab. S2).

127 The Paris Agreement (1) commits us to "pursuing efforts to limit [global average] temper-
128 ature increase to 1.5 °C". The Paris target should be interpreted as excluding natural varia-
129 tions (27). The ensemble of patterns used to create the preindustrial baseline can also be scaled
130 to represent the regional temperatures associated with various global mean temperatures. This
131 allows estimation of the amount of people that experienced local temperatures equivalent to a
132 global mean temperature rise of 1.5 °C (Fig. S4). Our median estimate for 2015 is that half
133 of world's population experienced annual mean temperatures equivalent to a global warming of
134 1.5 °C above preindustrial - a third of whom only did so because of urban heat island effects
135 (Tab. S2).

136 The Paris Agreement is highly, yet necessarily, ambitious in its desire to limit temperature
137 to 1.5 °C above preindustrial (1). While the reference to a preindustrial baseline is justifiable,
138 it introduces additional uncertainty into the observed temperature increases (11, 15, 16). Hav-

139 ing devised a methodology to account for the local expression of this uncertainty, we explore
140 the spatial pattern of temperature changes from both geographic and demographic perspectives.
141 Most people alive today are unlikely to have ever experienced preindustrial temperatures, es-
142 pecially given an increasing urban population exposed to urban heat island effects. Indeed the
143 majority of the world's population has already experienced annual temperatures above 1.5 °C,
144 and the remainder is likely to experience temperatures equivalent to a 1.5 °C world much earlier
145 than the planet itself (25). Given the global population's current exposure to warmer tempera-
146 tures, and the fact that health impacts are often related to that exposure (21), it is clear that we
147 should stop thinking of climate change primarily in the future tense.

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206 **Acknowledgments**

207 This work has been supported by Studentships and Scholarships to A.K. (Natural Environmental
208 Research Council, NE/L002485/1); M.I. (University of the Punjab Overseas Scholarship and
209 UCL Overseas Research Scholarship). Guidance and encouragement from Serge Guillas, Kees
210 Klein Goldewijk, Mark Maslin, Andrew Schurer and David Thornalley fostered and improved
211 this research. We would also like to thank the Climate Monitoring and Attribution team at the
212 Hadley Centre, the Climate Model Intercomparison Project members, those behind the History
213 Database of the Global Environment collated by the Netherlands Environmental Assessment
214 Agency, and the scientists at the Center for International Earth Science Information Network at
215 Columbia University – without their generous efforts to create, curate and freely-release their
216 databases, this research would not have been possible.

217 **Supplementary materials**

218 Materials and Methods

219 Figs. S1 to S6

220 Tables S1 and S2

221 References (28-38)

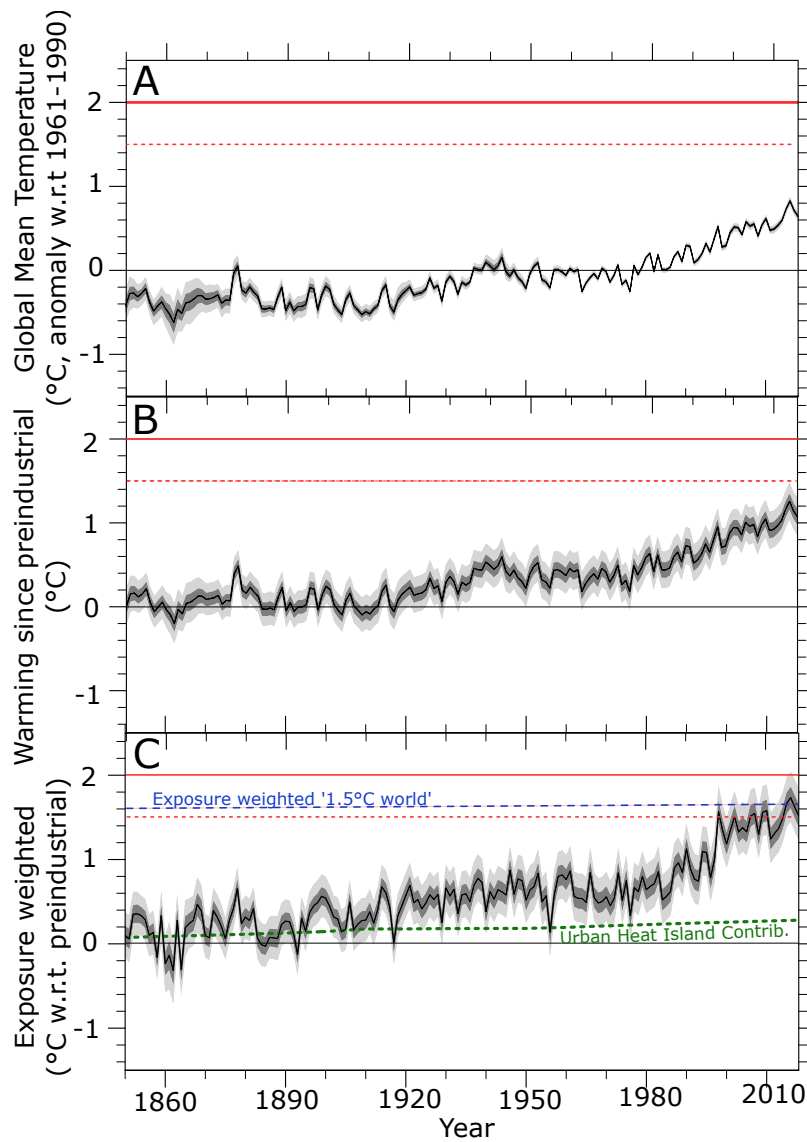


Figure 1: Global mean, annual average temperature change. The median, likely (33–66%) and 5–95% ranges (7) with respect to (A) the 1961–1990 CE climatological period and (B) the preindustrial. (C) The average global temperature weighted by exposure (21) (i.e. population, including an urban heat island adjustment). The dashed blue line shows the (median) equivalent of an exposure-weighted 1.5 °C warmer world derived from pattern-scaling, and the dashed green line shows the (median) contribution from the urban heat island effect (Methods).

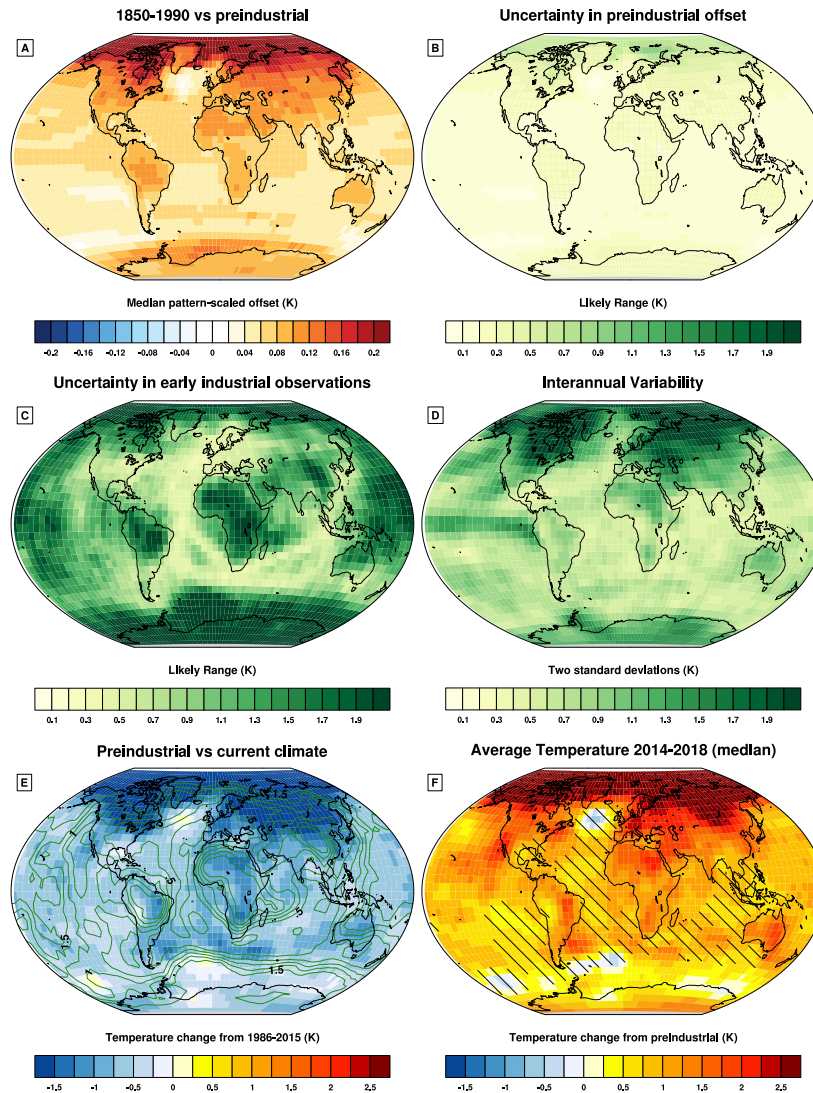


Figure 2: Spatial patterns of temperature change. (a) The median annual average offset of the preindustrial period from the 1961–1990 CE climatology, along with the interquartile range (green contours) in the offset. (b) The annual temperature of 2016 CE above preindustrial. Cross-hatching indicates regions that are not significantly different from the preindustrial at the 5% confidence level. Stippling shows regions that are at 1.5 °C or higher at the 5% confidence level.

222 MATERIALS AND METHODS

223 Observed Temperature Dataset

224 The initial temperature dataset used here is the Ilyas *et al.* (7) variant of HadCRUT4 (10). The
225 HadCRUT4 data are a blend of surface air temperatures over land and sea surface temperature
226 anomalies (10). It consists of an ensemble of 100 realisations that sample the observational
227 uncertainties arising from the non-climatic signals. Unlike other prominent instrumental tem-
228 perature records, these sparse spatial fields are not interpolated. Ilyas *et al.* (7) used a multi-
229 resolution lattice kriging approach to quantify uncertainties arising from the lack of spatial cov-
230 erage in HadCRUT4. The multi-resolution feature of the approach encapsulates variations from
231 regional to global scale. As a result of this, the probabilistic local temperatures are expressed
232 as a 10,000 member ensemble that samples both the observational and spatial uncertainties
233 in the instrumental records. The uncertainty estimates in Fig. 1a are based on this spatially-
234 complete dataset (7), and are slightly larger than previously estimated from the sparse coverage
235 alone (10).

236 Preindustrial global mean offset

237 There is an established procedure to undertake a simulation covering the last millennium (28).
238 This has enabled the creation of a multi-model ensemble, including some perturbed members
239 designed to permit detection and attribution (29). Schurer *et al.* (14) use this 26-member ensem-
240 ble to determine the additional forced component of warming that occurred between 1400–1800
241 CE and 1850–1900 CE. These 26 members are used to create a probability distribution function
242 of the warming using kernel density estimation. This probability distribution function is then
243 randomly sampled 10,000 times to determine the global mean offset for each member of the
244 Ilyas *et al.* (7) observed temperature dataset. The mean difference between the preindustrial
245 baseline (1400–1800 CE) and 1850–1900 CE is 0.076 °C with a 95% confidence interval of

246 -0.13 °C to 0.29 °C.

247 **Pattern Scaling Method**

248 Climate model runs of different scenarios and time horizons show consistent geographical pat-
249 terns of projected warming (30). Pattern scaling methods can be used to infer projected changes
250 to climate variables from existing model run results for alternative scenarios and time horizons.
251 This is advantageous for ascertaining information of interest without requiring (impractical and
252 often unfeasible) additional computationally-demanding climate model simulations (18). It is
253 particularly suitable for approximation of large-scale regional average temperature changes due
254 to the robustness of geographical temperature patterns and their modulation by corresponding
255 global average temperatures changes (30). Pattern scaling applies only to climate variable pat-
256 terns from external forcings while the real world response is a combination of natural variability
257 and the external forcings. As the preindustrial global mean offsets (14) above represent a forced
258 response over a multi-decadal period, this is not a problem in this situation. Here we describe
259 a new pattern scaling approach that is grounded in a previous fingerprinting effort (31) used in
260 detection and attribution of climate signals.

261 The input data used to create the scalable patterns in this work are a subset of the CMIP5
262 simulation output from the Earth System Grid Federation. They are a blend of annual surface air
263 temperature over land and skin temperatures over the ocean from the RCP2.6 model runs (14).
264 The blended temperatures have been regridded from their original resolution onto the 5° by 5°
265 grid of the observations (10) through bilinear interpolation of the anomalies from 1961–1990
266 CE of their historical simulation. Only a single ensemble member is used for each climate
267 model.

268 Pattern scaling relies on patterns emerging from external forcings rather than noise. There-
269 fore, the blended annual surface temperature data was converted from annual data to 30-year

270 climate means to eliminate some internal variability. Rather than each model being treated
 271 individually, the 30-year mean temperature anomalies from all runs were stitched together con-
 272 secutively to form $\Delta T(c, \phi, \theta)$, where c is the 30-year climate instance, ϕ is the latitude and θ
 273 is the longitude. Principal component analysis was conducted on the stitched dataset to identify
 274 the principal component time series, w , of the empirical orthogonal function (EOF) regional
 275 surface temperature patterns, P (Fig. S1), as well as the variance explained by each EOF (Tab.
 276 S1). The simulated temperature anomalies can be reconstructed using only the first 10 principal
 277 components:

$$\Delta T(c, \phi, \theta) = P_{1...10}(\phi, \theta) w_{1...10}(c) + \varepsilon(c, \phi, \theta) \quad (1)$$

278 where $\varepsilon(c, \phi, \theta)$ represents the error in the reconstruction, which we subsequently treat as
 279 independent, gridpoint noise. The global mean temperature anomaly for each 30-year climate,
 280 $g(c)$, is calculated as the area-weighted average, $\langle \Delta T(\phi, \theta) \rangle$. Each principal component time
 281 series and the grid point noise are linearly regressed against the global mean temperature anoma-
 282 lies to extract the components relevant for pattern scaling:

$$\begin{aligned} w_i(c) &\simeq \hat{r}_i \cdot g(c) \\ \varepsilon(c, \phi, \theta) &\simeq \hat{m}(\phi, \theta) \cdot g(c) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

283 where \hat{x} represents an estimator with quantified uncertainties. The scaling factors for the
 284 leading 10 principal components are given in Tab. S1. The resultant scaled pattern for a forced,
 285 global mean temperature change of g is then:

$$\hat{O}_g = \left[\sum_{i=1...10} \hat{r}_i P_i + \hat{m} \right] \cdot g \quad (3)$$

286 The benefit of this approach is that it generates scalable patterns which persist across dif-
 287 ferent models. The first EOF, explaining around 85% of temperature variance (Fig. S1), is the

EOF	Variance explained (%)	Regression Coefficient (σ per $^{\circ}\text{C}$)
1	85	2.158 (2.154 - 2.162)
2	3.1	0.0086 (-0.0038 - 0.021)
3	2.3	0.0138 (0.0002 - 0.0273)
4	1.5	0.0025 (-0.0094 - 0.0142)
5	0.66	-0.0004 (-0.0076 - 0.0065)
6	0.56	0.0002 (-0.0067 - 0.0072)
7	0.48	-0.0008 (-0.0073 - 0.0052)
8	0.46	-0.0001 (-0.0058 - 0.0058)
9	0.40	0.0002 (-0.0069 - 0.0072)
10	0.36	0.0004 (-0.0052 - 0.0062)

Table S1: Leading EOFs. The percentage variance explained by the 10 EOFs (Fig. S1), and the regression coefficients between their principal component time series and global mean temperature.

288 main regional temperature pattern from external forcings. Not all the EOFs describe the pat-
289 tern from external forcings; some identify model differences, natural variability, or noise. The
290 uncertainties in the regression slopes are randomly sampled 10,000 times to create a scalable
291 pattern for each of the ensemble members of the rebased Ilyas *et al.* dataset (7). This procedure
292 creates and samples the local/global ratio of temperature increases, whilst maintaining the spa-
293 tial covariance structure. After multiplying each scalable pattern by the sampled preindustrial
294 global mean offset (originally from Schurer *et al.* (14)), it is possible to calculate the additional
295 warming that had occurred in the early instrumental period (1850–1900 CE) since the prein-
296 dustrial (1400–1800 CE). The median estimate of the forced temperature changes that occurred
297 between the preindustrial and the early industrial is a slight warming everywhere (Fig. 2A),
298 with a likely range that often encompasses both positive and negative temperature changes (Fig.
299 2B).

300 Each ensemble member of the Ilyas *et al.* dataset (7) is converted from its original 1961-
301 1990 reference period to a preindustrial one by first removing the average value of 1850-1900
302 and then removed realisation of the pattern-scaling response prior to instrumental observations.

303 Alternate versions to Fig. 3 and Fig. 4 that use the early industrial reference period are provided
304 as Fig. S5 and Fig. S6 respectively.

305 **Interannual Variability and Signal Emergence**

306 The impacts and perceptions of climate change are not only determined by changes in the long-
307 term mean (24). It is necessary to also recognise the sensitivity of society and ecosystems to
308 climate variations and extremes (32). One such form of climate variation is the variability of
309 annual mean temperatures. The perception of persistently high climate variability is perhaps
310 one of the biggest barriers to recognise and understand long-term climate change trends (33).
311 The current body of literature fails to conclusively answer whether interannual variability is in-
312 creasing globally, but observation-based studies appear to indicate little change in global annual
313 mean temperature variability (34, 35). After Huntingford *et al.* (35), we compute interannual
314 temperature variability as the long-term average of the 11-yr standard deviations after detrend-
315 ing the annual temperature anomaly data using a local 11-yr running mean. Fig. 2D shows the
316 interannual variability for 1986-2015. S3, mean levels of variability before and after 1986 are
317 shown. We identify no clear overall positive or negative trend in interannual variability from
318 the Ilyas *et al.* dataset (Fig. S3. Contrary to Huntingford *et al.* (35), we find strongly positive
319 changes over the tropics, especially over Amazonia, whilst we see little increases in variability
320 over Europe. Whilst some of this difference probably arises from the longer records in our anal-
321 ysis, the more rigorous treatment of uncertainties during interpolation used in this study may be
322 the underlying cause (36). Nonetheless, for the purposes of population exposures in Fig. S4,
323 the interannual variability taken from Fig. 2D and kept constant with time.

324 **Demography, Urbanisation and the Urban Heat Island**

325 The primary database (19) used for population information is HYDE 3.2. This database pro-
326 vides estimates of total population, rural population and urban population at 5' resolution across
327 the globe since before 1850 CE. The temporal resolution is only annual in the most modern por-
328 tion, so linear interpolation is used over the decadal-resolved portions. This database has been
329 derived from a combination of census information at national scales and sub-national scales,
330 combined with some distributional modelling (19).

331 The temperature consequences of urbanisation is estimated using the Global Urban Heat
332 Island Dataset (23). This consists of two pairs of satellite-based temperature observations from
333 within and outside urban centres averaged over the summer of 2013 CE. The daytime and
334 nighttime differences are averaged and presumed to provide an annual mean offset. This dataset
335 has been similarly used to look at population exposure under future projections (37). Variations
336 of the urban heat island effect (UHIE) over the course of the year do not demonstrate a consistent
337 seasonal cycle across the globe (38). Therefore, we consider this to be a smaller source of
338 error than the assumption that 2013 CE is representative of every year since 1850 CE. This
339 latter assumption is unavoidable as no global dataset yet exists to provide such information. In
340 theory, it may be possible to create such a dataset from the adjustments made during the creation
341 of HadCRUT4 (10). However in practice the homogenisation algorithm has not been designed
342 in a way that allows even the feasibility of such an approach to be tested. The UHIE in this
343 work therefore ends up being a spatially-varying, but temporally constant, adjustment applied
344 only to the urban population in each gridcell.

345 Quantified errors are not available for either the urban heat island effect (23) or demographic
346 trends (19), so the uncertainty presented in the figures relates solely to the temperature estimate.
347 It is unclear how the urban heat island effect should be accounted for when converting from
348 local temperatures to their global-mean equivalents. We use slightly different approaches for

349 Fig. 1 and Fig. S4 given their different meaning. In Fig. 1c, the exposure-weighted ‘1.5
350 °C world’ (blue reference line) is computed without the urban heat island effect, because it is
351 solely intended to provide the reader an indication of the consequences of the population not
352 being spread uniformly across the globe. However in Fig. S4 the UHIE is included in the
353 calculation of global-mean equivalent, as it is rather a measure of peoples exposure to warmer
354 temperatures.

355 **Data and Code Availability**

356 The original Ilyas et al (7) dataset is available at [https://oasishub.co/dataset/
357 global-monthly-temperature-ensemble-1850-to-2016](https://oasishub.co/dataset/global-monthly-temperature-ensemble-1850-to-2016). The code repository
358 used to create all the results and figures shown in the manuscript is [https://bitbucket.
359 org/cbrierley/experience_1pt5/src/master/](https://bitbucket.org/cbrierley/experience_1pt5/src/master/).

360 **Author contributions statement**

361 CB conceived the project, performed the analysis, and wrote the manuscript with AK. AK
362 processed the HYDE population dataset, created the cartograms and devised the urban heat
363 island adjustment with CB. MI developed the various sampling techniques used. NW devised
364 the pattern-scaling approach. JK undertook the comparison with interannual variability.

365 **Additional information**

366 The authors declare no competing interests.

	$\leq 0^{\circ}\text{C}$	$\geq 1^{\circ}\text{C}$	$\geq 1.5^{\circ}\text{C}$	$\geq 1.5^{\circ}\text{C}^*$	$\geq 2^{\circ}\text{C}$
a). 2015					
Local warming (1400-1800)	0.5 (0.1- 2.1)	79.1 (69.8-87.7)	54.8 (45.7-65.2)	40.1 (29.7-51.8)	31.9 (24.9-40.0)
Global warming (1400-1800)	0.5 (0.1- 2.1)	77.4 (68.3-87.3)	50.0 (40.6-60.3)	34.6 (24.3-45.8)	24.5 (18.4-32.1)
Local warming (1850-1900)	0.7 (0.3- 2.5)	75.5 (67.5-83.9)	50.4 (43.7-59.1)	34.8 (27.3-44.1)	28.2 (23.3-34.7)
Global warming (1850-1990)	0.7 (0.3- 2.5)	73.4 (66.1-82.8)	45.3 (38.3-53.4)	29.3 (21.8-38.2)	21.1 (17.0-26.7)
<i>Area of globe (1400-1800)</i>	<i>10.2 (7.9-12.7)</i>	<i>54.6 (48.4-60.5)</i>	<i>31.0 (26.2-36.1)</i>	<i>N/A</i>	<i>17.2 (14.0-20.7)</i>
b). 2014-2018					
Local warming (1400-1800)	$\leq 0^{\circ}\text{C}$	$\geq 1^{\circ}\text{C}$	$\geq 1.5^{\circ}\text{C}$	$\geq 1.5^{\circ}\text{C}^*$	$\geq 2^{\circ}\text{C}$
Local warming (1400-1800)	0.8 (0.2- 2.3)	77.9 (68.1-86.3)	52.8 (43.3-63.7)	38.6 (28.4-50.6)	29.5 (22.4-38.0)
Global warming (1400-1800)	0.8 (0.2- 2.3)	76.8 (66.2-86.2)	46.3 (36.4-58.0)	29.5 (19.1-42.2)	20.5 (15.1-27.6)
Local warming (1850-1900)	1.1 (0.3- 2.7)	74.2 (65.4-82.1)	48.5 (41.0-57.6)	33.7 (25.8-42.8)	25.7 (21.0-32.3)
Global warming (1850-1990)	0.8 (0.2- 2.3)	76.8 (66.2-86.2)	46.3 (36.4-58.0)	29.5 (19.1-42.2)	20.5 (15.1-27.6)
<i>Area of globe (1400-1800)</i>	<i>7.4 (5.3- 9.8)</i>	<i>51.3 (44.8-57.9)</i>	<i>27.3 (22.5-32.4)</i>	<i>N/A</i>	<i>14.1 (10.9-17.4)</i>

Table S2: The percentage of the global population exposed to various temperature classes in (a) 2015 and (b) 2014-2018. Values are given for both the local and global-mean equivalent temperatures, with respect to both the preindustrial (1400-1800 CE) and early industrial (1850-1900 CE). In brackets is the likely range of each value (i.e. containing two-thirds of the ensemble members). The percentage of the global area (rather than the population) are shown *italics*. *This column shows the results of performing the calculation without inclusion of the urban heat island effect.

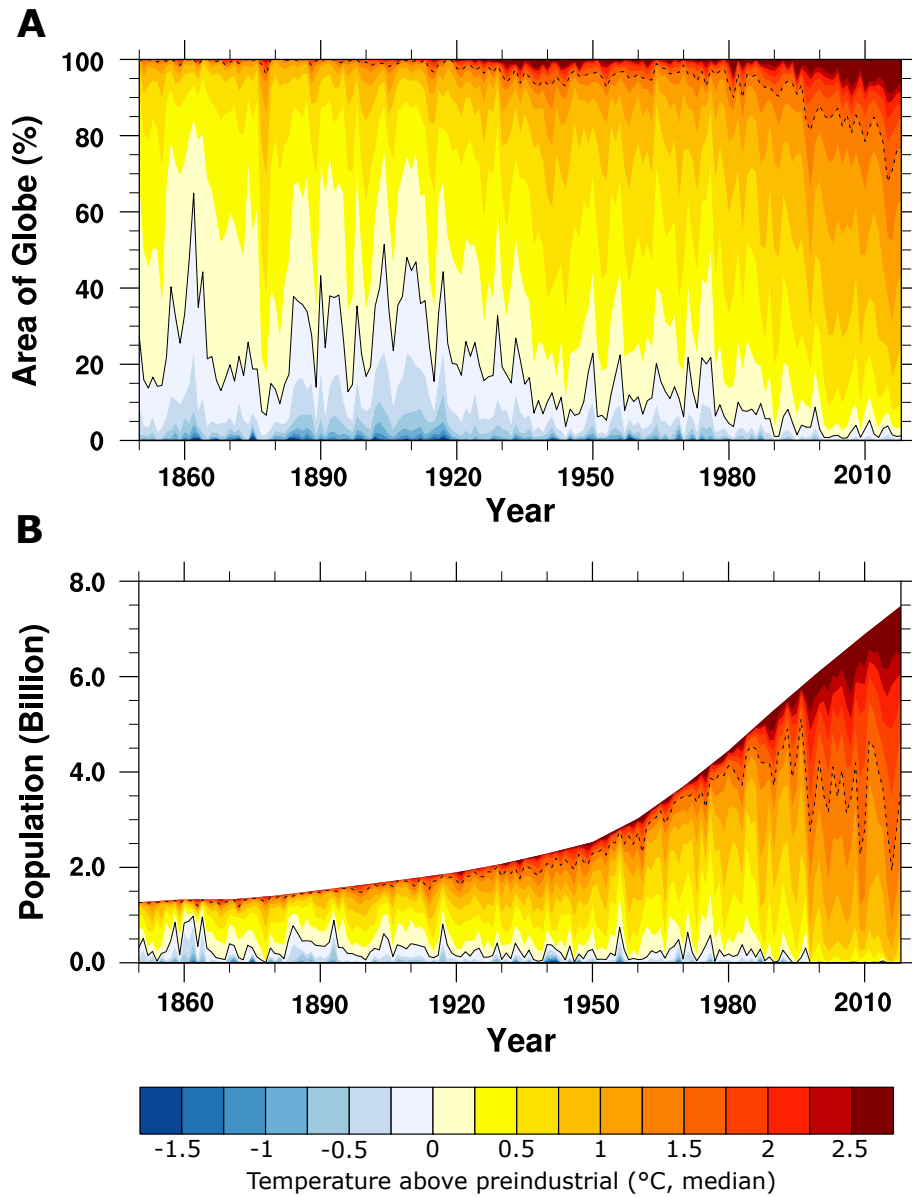


Figure 3: Subdividing global area and population by warming. (a) The proportion of the global area at particular (median) annual temperatures in each year. (b) The population (*19*) exposed to particular (median) annual temperatures in each year since 1850 CE. The preindustrial and +1.5 °C are indicated by black solid and dashed lines respectively.

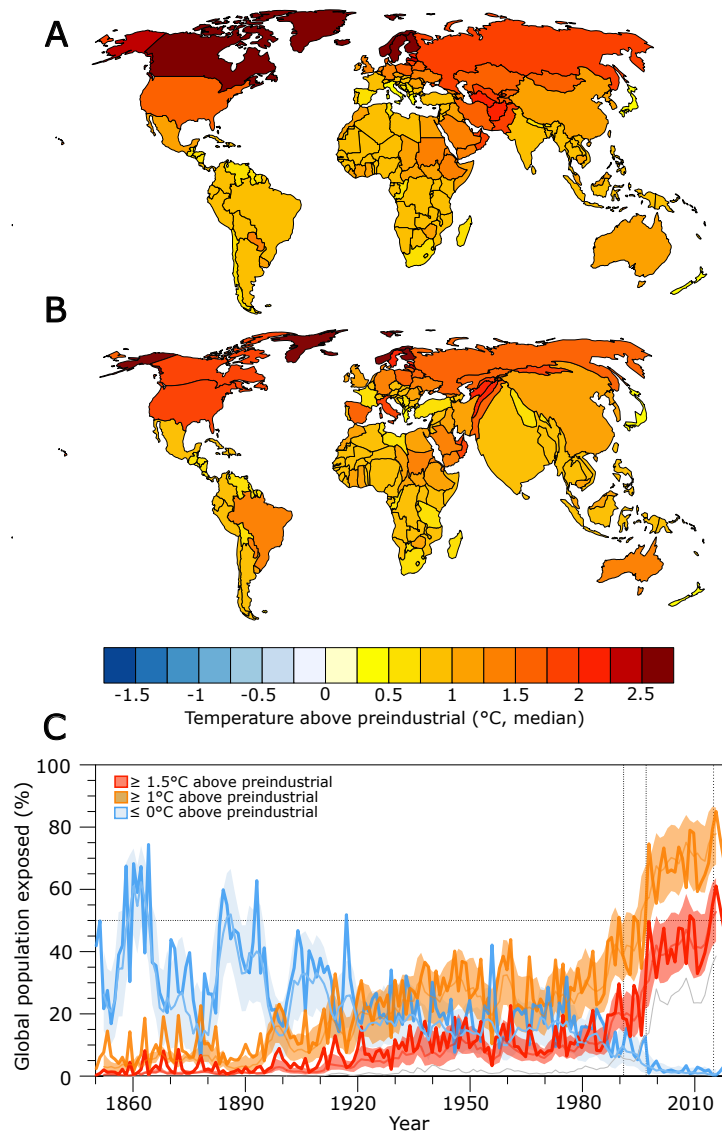


Figure 4: Exposure to annual mean temperatures. (A) Conventional cartogram, where a nation is coloured according to its 2014-2018, median, area-averaged temperature anomalies. (B) An exposure-weighted cartogram, where a country's size is determined by its population (26), and the colour is the exposure-weighted temperature anomaly incorporating the urban heat island (median, 2014-2018). (C) The proportion of the global population exposed to various temperature levels with respect to the preindustrial. The thick line shows the annual median value, whilst the thin lines show the 5-year running median temperature estimates along with its likely range. The grey line shows the $+1.5^\circ\text{C}$ exposure without considering the urban heat island. Dotted vertical lines indicate major international commitments to tackle climate change in 1992 CE (Rio), 1997 CE (Kyoto) and 2015 CE (Paris).

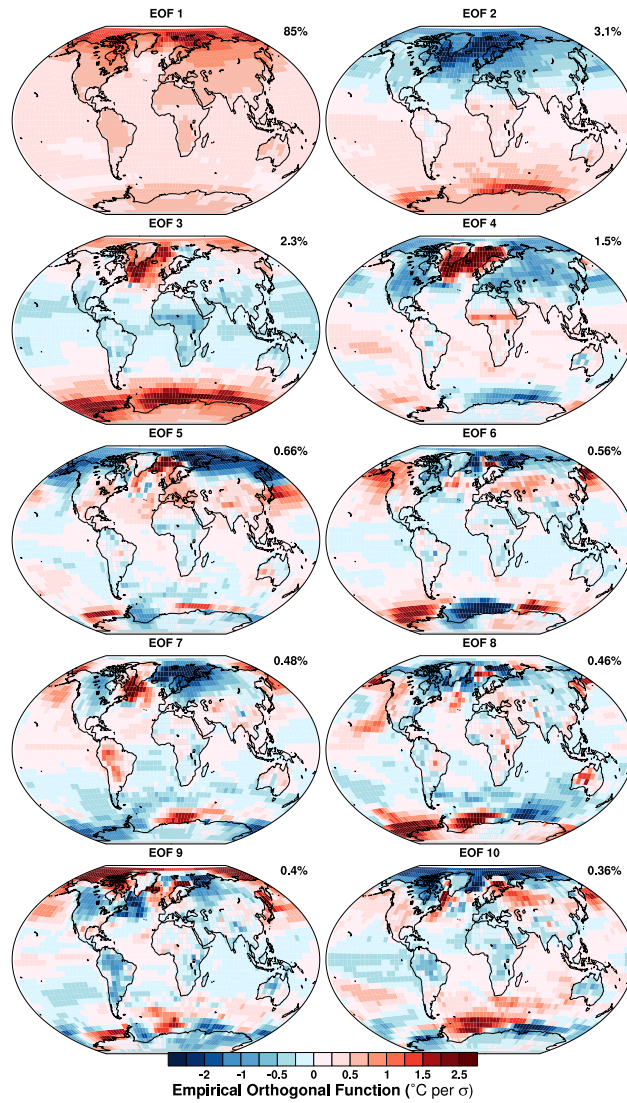


Figure S1: The leading EOFs of changes in 30-year averaged temperature change simulated by models participating in CMIP5 under the historical and RCP2.6 scenarios. The percentage of variance explained by each pattern is also shown.

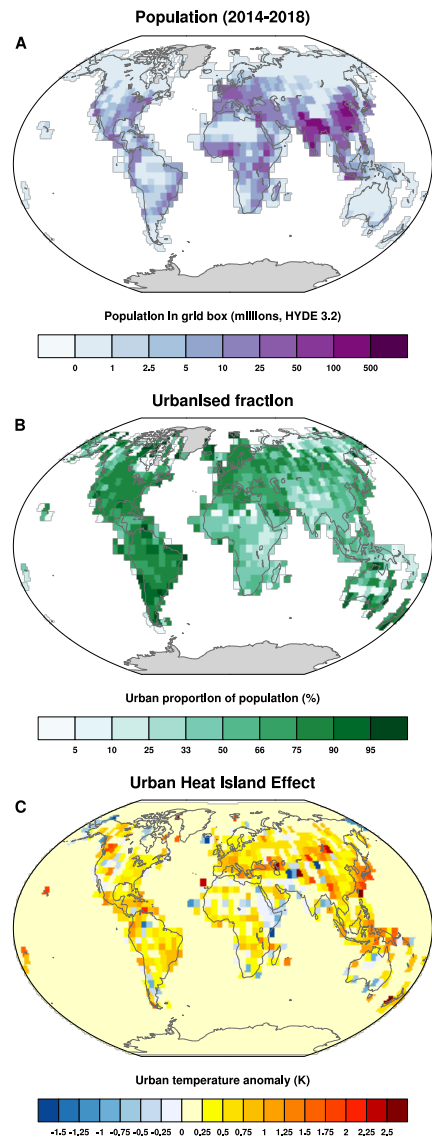


Figure S2: Population and urbanisation. (A) The total population of contained within a grid box (19) averaged between 2014-2018 CE. (B) The percentage of that population that is urban. (C) The difference in temperature between urban and rural locations averaged over each grid box during summer 2013 (23).

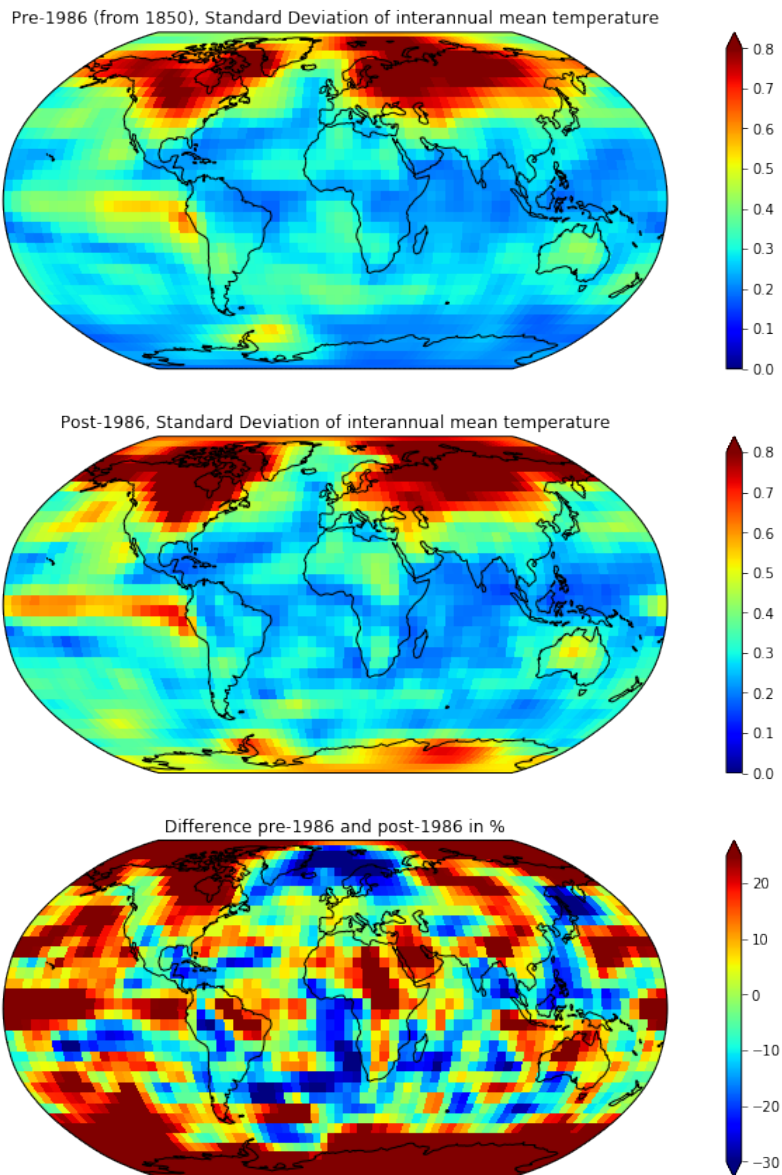


Figure S3: Local interannual mean temperature variability. Annual standard deviations are calculate over 11-yr detrended periods. Local means of this standard deviation are plotted for the period on the record before 1986 and after 1986. The local change between the two time periods is shown in percentages.

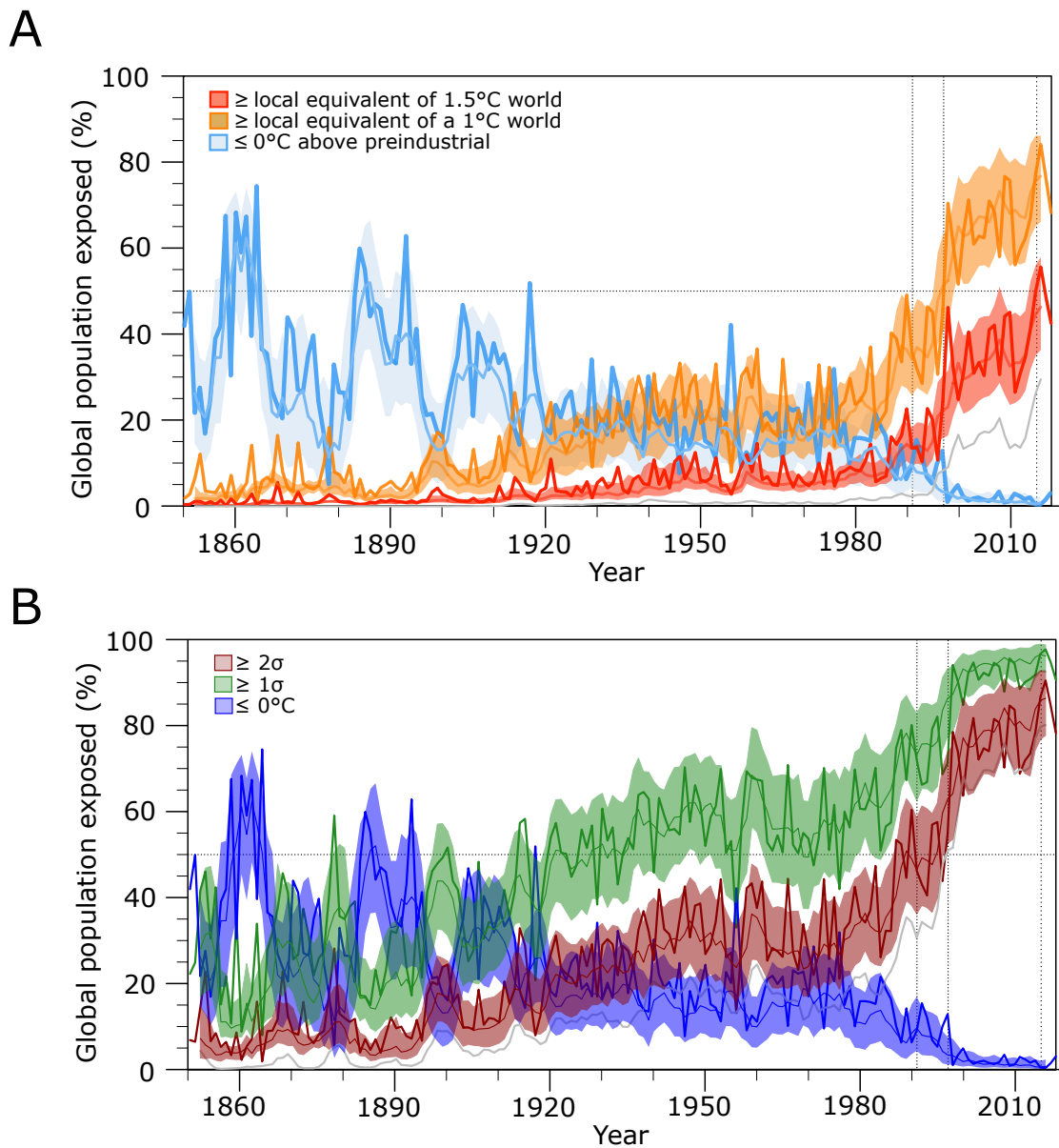


Figure S4: Alternative exposure time series. (A) The proportion of the global population exposed to local equivalents of *global mean* temperatures above preindustrial. (B) Given that interannual variability differs across the globe (Fig. 2D), local exposure may be better measured in units of standard deviations rather than warming directly. The thick line shows the annual median value, whilst the thin lines show the 5-year average median temperature estimates along with its likely range. The grey line shows the +1.5 °C (or 2 σ) exposure, without considering the urban heat island. Dotted vertical lines indicate major international commitments to tackle climate change in 1992 CE (Rio), 1997 CE (Kyoto) and 2015 CE (Paris).

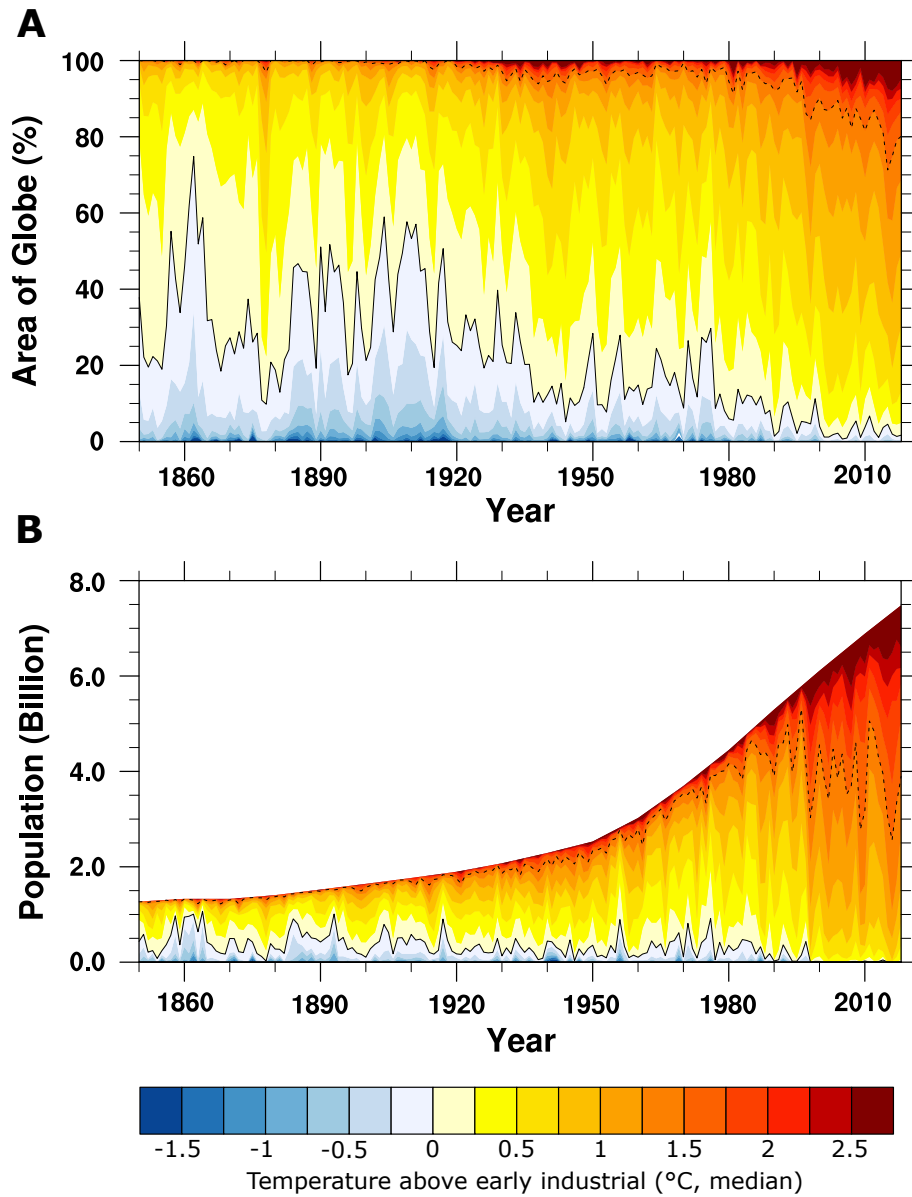


Figure S5: Subdividing global area and population by warming since the early industrial. (a) The proportion of the global area at particular (median) annual temperatures in each year. (b) The population (*19*) exposed to particular (median) annual temperatures in each year since 1850 CE. The preindustrial and $+1.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ are indicated by black solid and dashed lines respectively.

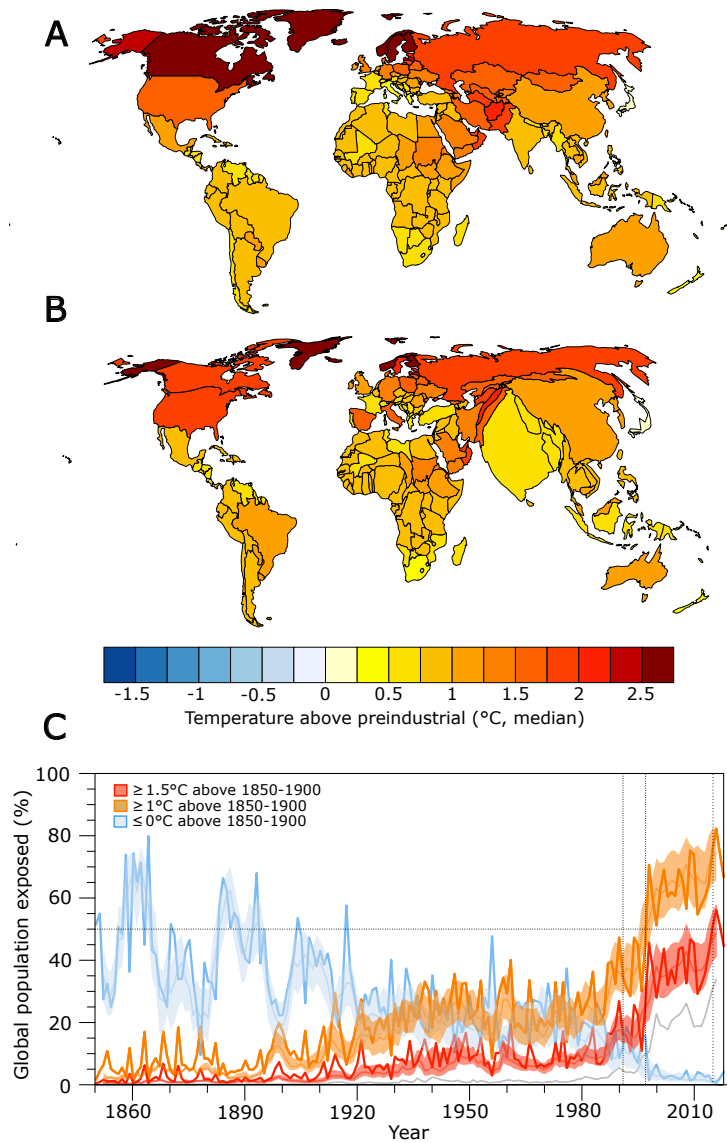


Figure S6: Exposure since the early industrial. This is an alternate version of Fig. 4 using a baseline of 1850-1900, rather than preindustrial. (A) Area-averaged cartogram. (B) Exposure-weighted cartogram. (C) The proportion of the global population exposed to various temperature levels. The grey line shows the $+1.5^\circ\text{C}$ exposure without considering the urban heat island.