1	Predictions of 21st century warming constrained by recent
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Forecasts of 21st century climate require physically-based simulation models constrained 37 to be consistent with recent observations, including a systematic estimate of uncertainty. 38 To date, these have relied on scaling approaches^{1,2}, large ensembles of low dimensional 39 climate models^{3,4}, or small ensembles of complex coupled atmosphere-ocean general cir-40 culation models^{5,6} (AOGCMs). Ensembles of opportunity, such as the Coupled Model 41 Inter-comparison Project Phase 3 (CMIP-3)⁵, under-represent known uncertainties in key 42 climate system properties derived from independent sources 7^{-9} . Here we present results 43 from the first multi-thousand member perturbed physics ensemble of transient AOGCM simulations from the climate prediction.net BBC climate change experiment (BBC CCE). 45 Model versions consistent with the observed temperature changes over the past 50 years 46 and current uncertainties in global mean top of atmosphere (TOA) flux imbalances show 47 global-mean warming relative to 1961-1990 ranging from 1.4-3K by 2050 (1.9-4.7K by 2075) 48 under a mid-range forcing scenario. This is consistent with results from simpler models and 49 the expert assessment provided in the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) 50 Fourth Assessment Report (AR4)¹⁰, but extends towards larger warming than the models 51 typically used for impact assessments in the CMIP-3 AOGCM ensemble. We therefore 52 provide the first direct AOGCM evidence for high response worlds consistent with recent 53 observed climate change and a mid-range "no mitigation" forcing scenario, with potentially 54 wide ranging implications for the development of robust adaptation policies. 55

Uncertainties in the global mean temperature response to sustained anthropogenic greenhouse gas forcing 56 are controlled by physical processes responsible for 3 key properties: (1) the equilibrium climate sensi-57 tivity, (2) the rate of ocean heat uptake and (3) the historical aerosol forcing^{3,4}. In the latest generation 58 of AOGCMs contributing to IPCC AR4, the known uncertainties in these quantities may not have been 59 fully sampled, partially due to a correlation between climate sensitivity and aerosol forcing^{7,8}, a tendency 60 to overestimate ocean heat uptake¹¹ and compensation between short-wave and long-wave feedbacks⁹. 61 This complicates the interpretation of the ensemble spread (approximately +/-25%) as a direct uncer-62 tainty estimate, a point reflected in the fact that the "likely" (> 66% probability) uncertainty range 63 on the transient response in IPCC AR4 was explicitly, and subjectively, given as -40% to +60% of the 64 CMIP-3 ensemble mean for global mean temperature in 2100. The IPCC expert range was supported 65 by a range of sources¹⁰, including studies using pattern scaling^{1,2}, ensembles of intermediate-complexity 66 models^{3,4} and estimates of the strength of carbon-cycle feedbacks¹². Thus while the CMIP-3 ensemble is 67 a valuable expression of plausible, physically coherent responses over the coming decades exploring model 68 structural uncertainties, it fails to reflect the full range of uncertainties indicated by expert opinion and 69 other methods. 70

In the absence of uncertainty guidance or indicators at regional scales, studies have relied on the CMIPa ensemble spread as a proxy for response uncertainty¹³, or statistical post-processing to correct and inflate uncertainty estimates¹⁴, though this raises the risk of violating the physical constraints provided by dynamical AOGCM simulations, especially when extrapolating beyond the range of behaviour in the raw ensemble.

Perturbed-physics ensembles offer a systematic approach to quantify uncertainty in the climate system 76 response to external forcing. Previous studies have focussed on the equilibrium response^{15,16}, or have 77 explored uncertainties single components of the climate system such as the atmosphere or ocean⁶ under 78 transient forcing. Here we investigate uncertainties in the 21st transient response in a multi-thousand-79 member ensemble of transient AOGCM simulations from the climate prediction net BBC climate change 80 experiment (BBC CCE). We use HadCM3L, an AOGCM version of the UK Met Office Unified Model, 81 generating ensemble members by perturbing the physics in the atmosphere, ocean and sulphur cycle 82 components (Methods), and applying flux adjustments to correct any imbalances that occur when model 83 atmospheres and oceans are coupled¹⁷. 84

For each model version two sets of 160 year simulations were performed: (1) control simulations with constant forcing (representative of 1880-1920 mean conditions) to check and allow for unforced drifts and (2) transient simulations from 1920-2080 forced with changes in greenhouse gases and sulphate emissions under the SRES A1B emissions scenario¹⁸, and set of solar and volcanic forcing scenarios (Methods and ⁸⁹ Fig. SI 1).

Fig. 1 shows the evolution of global-mean surface temperatures in the BBC CCE (relative to 1961-1990). 90 each coloured by the goodness-of-fit to observations of recent surface temperature changes, as detailed 91 below. The raw ensemble range (1.1-4.1K around 2050) is potentially misleading, since many ensemble 92 members have an unrealistic response to the forcing over the past 50 years. We therefore compare 93 model-simulated spatio-temporal patterns of 5 year mean surface (1.5m) temperatures over 1961-2010 with observations¹⁹, all expressed as anomalies from the respective 1961-1990 mean. We test model 95 versions against temperature changes over the past 50 years because they have been shown to correlate 96 well with future warming¹, whilst mean temperatures do not²⁰. We filter the ensemble to retain only 97 model versions requiring a global annual mean flux adjustment in the range $\pm 5W/m^2$, comparable with 98 estimates of observational uncertainty⁶, to include a measure of the quality of the model base climatology. 99

Assessing goodness-of-fit requires a measure of the expected error between model and observations due to sampling uncertainty, primarily from internally-generated climate variability. We estimate this using segments of long pre-industrial control simulations from CMIP-3, filtered to retain spatial scales on which AOGCM-based estimates of variability are reliable (Fig. SI 6).

Weighting model versions explicitly can make results that very sensitive to noise in individual simulations²¹ and to parameter sampling design²². Although parameter ranges used were informed by expert opinion¹⁵, sampling within these ranges is problematic since many parameters do not have direct real world counterparts. We focus instead on the range of projections provided by model versions that satisfy a given goodness-of-fit threshold: this will be insensitive to sampling design provided the ensemble sufficiently large.

Without a goodness-of-fit (or model error) threshold, hindcasts of 2001-2010 global-mean warming relative 110 to 1961-1990 show a wide range from 0-1.5K (Fig. 2a). We define a 'likely' range (66% confidence interval) 111 by considering the range from ensemble members with model error (y-axis) lower than the 66^{th} percentile 112 of the distribution of model error arising from internal variability alone, estimated from CMIP-3 control 113 segments (black crosses), giving a range of 0.3-0.9K. This is the range of warming to date (relative 114 to 1961-1990) that we estimate might have occurred at this confidence level given the evidence of our 115 ensemble and estimates of internal climate variability from CMIP-3. The observed warming (0.5K -116 thick black line and grey vertical bar) is close to our best-fit model version (not identical, since we 117 use more than just global mean trend information in our measure of model error), and 0.1K below the 118 centre of our uncertainty range, consistent with temperatures over 2001-2010 being slightly depressed by 119 a combination of internal variability²³ or recent stratospheric water vapour trends²⁴ and exceptionally 120

low solar minimum²⁵, neither of which is represented in our ensemble. Note that the grey bar represents uncertainty in the warming that actually occurred, while our constrained ensemble range represents the warming that might have occurred over this period given internal variability and response uncertainty.

On the assumption that models that simulate past changes realistically are our best candidates for making estimates of the future, we can use the same approach to estimate uncertainties in the future climate response. Ensemble members consistent with the observations show a range of warming of 1.4-3K around 2050 under the SRES A1B scenario (Fig. 2b), representing a 66% (or 'likely') confidence interval (Methods).

¹²⁹ No ensemble members warm by less than 1K by 2050 under this scenario, despite the large size of the ¹³⁰ ensemble and allowance for natural forcing uncertainty: we allow explicitly for future volcanic activity ¹³¹ and include a scenario in which solar activity falls back to 1900 levels. This is consistent with energy ¹³² balance considerations²⁶ given the level of greenhouse gas forcing by 2050 and the lower limit of climate ¹³³ sensitivity explored in the ensemble at approximately 2K, consistent with the lower end of the range of ¹³⁴ sensitivities considered likely by the IPCC AR4¹⁰.

The lower end of our 66% confidence interval for 2050 warming at 1.4K is consistent with the lowest 135 responses in the CMIP-3 ensemble (filled circles Fig. 2b), lower than the lowest realistic (on this measure) 136 members of the QUMP HadCM3 perturbed physics ensemble⁶ (open circles Fig. 2b), and higher than 137 IPCC expert lower bound¹⁰ (the CMIP-3 ensemble-mean minus 40%). This is contingent evidence that 138 the real-world response is likely to be at least as large as the lowest responses in the CMIP-3 ensemble, 139 and that the IPCC AR4 estimate of the lower bound was probably over-conservative. This comparison 140 assumes a constant fractional uncertainty in the 21^{st} century response^{1,8}, since the IPCC expert estimate 141 was given only for 2100. 142

At about 3K, the upper end of our uncertainty range for 2050 warming is consistent with both the 143 highest responses in the QUMP ensemble and the IPCC upper estimate of the CMIP-3 ensemble-mean 144 plus $60\%^{10}$, but substantially higher than highest responses of the CMIP-3 ensemble members that are 145 generally used for impact assessment (one model gave a higher response, but was not highlighted in 146 headline uncertainty ranges because of concerns about its stability). Thus uncertainty estimates based 147 solely on ensembles-of-opportunity or small perturbed-physics ensembles are likely to be underestimated 148 compared to independent studies^{1,4}. We are reluctant to quote a more precise upper bound because of 149 the small number of model versions in this region and the fact that goodness-of-fit does not deteriorate 150 as rapidly as it does at the lower bound, possibly because of the inclusion of natural forcing uncertainty: 151 we can, however, conclude that warming substantially greater than 3K by 2050 is unlikely unless forcing 152

is substantially higher than the A1B scenario²⁷. Towards the end of the century, we observe a similar
relationship with the IPCC expert estimate (red bar, Fig. 1), although by that time it is likely that the
uncertainty would be larger if carbon-cycle feedbacks were included in the BBC CCE¹².

To the extent that policy makers require "a range of plausible representations of future climate"²⁸ pro-156 viding uncertainty guidance in this way can have an important role to play. Additional observational 157 constraints may reduce uncertainty further²⁹, although the application of climatological constraints here 158 is complicated by the use of flux adjustments and the pre-selection of atmospheric configurations with 159 reasonable base climatology. We find little sensitivity in our results to varying the flux adjustment thresh-160 old and removing this constraint entirely adds approximately 0.5K to the upper bound in 2050 through 161 admitting a number of high climate sensitivity model versions (Fig. SI 9). Conversely, we are likely to 162 have undersampled uncertainty in ocean heat uptake through perturbing only a single, coarse-resolution, 163 ocean model structure:⁶ more generally, sampling structural uncertainty might compensate for the impact 164 of further observational constraints. 165

Unlike uncertainty estimates based on intermediate-complexity models¹¹, pattern-scaling² or statistical 166 emulation³⁰, every member of the BBC CCE is consistent with the physical constraints of a 3-D AOGCM, 167 ensuring physical coherence of results for investigating joint uncertainties. Fig. 3 shows surface warming 168 in a low response (Model A, global $\Delta T_{2050} = 1.4K$) and high response (Model B, global $\Delta T_{2050} = 3K$) 169 ensemble member. For 2001-2010, both the observations (Fig. 3a) and models show broadly similar 170 features of enhanced warming over land, which is amplified by 2041-2060. There is a large diversity 171 of regional responses within the sub-ensemble consistent with observations. For example, the range of 172 Pacific equatorial warming (specifically the Niño 3.4 region) relative to warming over the Pacific as a 173 whole between Model A and B is larger than the corresponding range observed in either the CMIP-174 3 or QUMP ensembles, providing evidence that perturbed-physics ensembles can sample spatial response 175 uncertainty. 176

Uncertainty estimates for the transient response are conditioned on a given emissions scenario¹⁰. For 177 the SRES A1B scenario, we have shown that a thorough sampling of uncertainty in key climate system 178 properties and forcings produces a wider range of projections for the coming century consistent with 179 recent observations than in the CMIP-3 ensemble used for regional projections in IPCC AR4, and similar 180 to the IPCC authors' expert assessment of uncertainty in the global response. Reliance on the spread of 181 responses in an ensemble of opportunity can underestimate uncertainties, particularly at the upper end 182 of the range for 21st century warming. The BBC CCE provides a set of physically coherent, physically 183 plausible worlds, beyond the range generated by ensembles of opportunity, which can aid the development 184 of robust climate adaptation policies. 185





Figure 1: Evolution of uncertainties in global-mean temperature projections under SRES A1B in the BBC CCE. Blue colouring indicates goodness-of-fit between observations and ensemble members, plotted in order of increasing agreement (light to dark blue). Black line, the evolution of observations, and thick blue lines the 'likely' range (66% confidence interval) from the BBC CCE (See text for details). Red bars show the IPCC-AR4 expert 'likely' range around 2050 and 2080. All temperatures are relative to the corresponding 1961-1990 mean.



Figure 2: Goodness-of-fit to recent temperature changes as a function of globalmean warming. a, 2001-2010 hindcast; b, 2041-2060 forecast under SRES A1B for globalmean temperature both as anomalies from 1961-1990. Coloured points, members of the BBC CCE perturbed physics ensemble, with colours denoting the corresponding slab model estimated equilibrium climate sensitivity. Black crosses, realisations of model error and corresponding temperature changes arising from estimates of internal variability for the same periods, with the horizontal line denoting the 66^{th} percentile of the error distribution. Vertical dotted lines, the range of the BBC CCE ensemble with errors lower than this percentile corresponding to a 'likely' range (66% confidence interval). Grey triangles, simulations with global annual mean flux adjustments outside $\pm 5W/m^2$. Black vertical bar and grey band in **a**, observations and 'likely' range. Horizontal bar in **b**, the expert IPCC AR4 'likely' range. Black filled circles CMIP-3 simulations, black open circles QUMP HadCM3 simulations. Arrows and larger triangles refer to models highlighted in Fig. 3.



Figure 3: Surface temperature anomaly fields relative to 1961-1990 for 2001-2010 hindcast and 2041-2060 forecast for a low response ensemble member, A ($\Delta T_{2050} = 1.4K$) and high response ensemble member, B ($\Delta T_{2050} = 3K$). **a**, Observed 2001-2010 anomaly; **b**, **d** Model A anomaly for 2001-2010 and 2041-2060; **c**, **e** Model B anomaly. Both model versions are consistent with the surface temperature observations and are denoted by large labelled symbols in Fig. 2. White regions in **a** indicate missing data, defined as > 60% missing over 1961-1990 or 2001-2010. The same mask is applied in **b** and **c**.

186 Methods Summary

Model Simulations. HadCM3L consists of a of 3.75° longitude by 2.5° latitude atmosphere with inter-187 active sulphur cycle coupled to a dynamical ocean of the same resolution¹⁷. Model physics parameters are perturbed through expert elicitation, and informed for atmospheric and sulphur cycle physics per-189 turbations by results from the climate *prediction*.net slab model experiment¹⁷ (Table SI 1,SI 2). Flux 190 adjustments are calculated for 10 ocean configurations through a 200 year spin-up coupled to a stan-191 dard atmosphere, and for each of 153 perturbed atmospheres¹⁷, producing 1530 possible model versions. 192 Model atmospheres have climate sensitivities ranging from 2-9K. Uncertainty in historical and future 193 solar, volcanic forcing and anthropogenic sulphate emissions are accounted for in transient simulations 194 (Fig. SI 1). After matching model simulations based on parameters and natural forcing scenarios, and 195 averaging over initial condition ensembles there are 2752 matched transient-control pairs. 196

Goodness-of-fit calculation. We calculate a goodness-of-fit statistic (model error) for each simulation
 based on the spatio-temporal pattern of surface temperature from 1961-2010 as,

$$r_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^2 = \left(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}\right)^T \mathbf{C}_N^{-1} \left(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}\right)$$

y represents observations, \mathbf{x}_{θ} a transient-control pair of simulations corresponding to parameters θ , and 199 \mathbf{C}_N a covariance matrix describing variability in y and \mathbf{x}_{θ} expected from internal variability, estimated 200 from segments of CMIP₁3 pre-industrial control runs⁵ and a 1000 year HadCM3 control run respectively 201 (Supplementary Information). We project all data onto the leading spatial EOFs of the HadCM3L 202 ensemble of transient-control pairs, retaining over 90% of the ensemble variance. Uncertainty analysis is 203 based on comparing a given r_{θ}^2 to the distribution expected from internal variability, using independent 204 samples for estimating C_N and subsequent uncertainty analysis (Fig. SI 3). In Fig. 2 we display goodness-205 of-fit as a weighted mean squared error by normalising r_{θ}^2 by the number of degrees of freedom in y and 206 207 **x**θ.

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281 Methods

Model Simulations. HadCM3L³¹ is a version of the UK Met Office Unified Model using a horizontal 282 grid of 3.75° longitude by 2.5° latitude with 19 levels in the vertical. The ocean resolution is the same 283 as the atmosphere and consists of 20 vertical levels. The model contains an interactive sulphur cycle, 284 simulating the direct and first indirect effects³². Ocean physics parameters are perturbed through expert 285 elicitation³³, and atmospheric and sulphur cycle physics perturbations informed by results from the 286 climate *prediction*.net slab model experiment 32,34 , choosing between 2 and 4 values for each parameter 287 (Table SI 1, SI 2). Atmospheric configurations are initially chosen to span a wide range of equilibrium 288 climate sensitivities (2-9K) whilst still retaining an acceptable climatology, measured through the TOA 289 flux imbalance relative to the standard physics settings $(\pm 10W/m^2)^{34}$. 290

Typically AOGCMs require long spin-up periods in order to reach a stable equilibrium, and often when 291 atmospheric and oceanic components are coupled together drifts can occur. A technique has been de-292 veloped to allow a large number of drift-free coupled model simulations to be produced, with no need 293 for a new ocean spin-up when the fast components of the model (atmosphere, land-surface scheme) are 294 perturbed¹⁷. 10 versions of the HadCM3L ocean model coupled to the standard atmosphere are spun 295 up for 200 years and necessary flux adjustments corresponding to the climate around 1920 calculated. 296 Secondly, additional flux adjustments arising from atmospheric parameter perturbations are then calcu-297 lated for each of 153 atmospheric versions, and added to the corresponding ocean flux adjustment, thus 298 giving a total of 1530 different combinations of atmosphere and ocean physics. Each of the 1530 possible combinations ("model versions") with the associated total flux adjustment, are then run under a set of 300 transient forcings from 1920-2080 and also under control forcing for the same length of time in initial 301 condition ensembles. 302

³⁰³ Uncertainty in historical natural forcing is represented through 5 solar and 5 volcanic scenarios, and in ³⁰⁴ the future through 3 solar and 10 volcanic scenarios (Fig. SI 1b,d). We use a set of scalings on historical ³⁰⁵ and future (SRES A1B) sulphate emissions generating model sulphur cycle responses consistent with ³⁰⁶ current estimates of uncertainty³⁵ (Fig. SI 1c). SRES A1B¹⁸ represents a mid-range emissions scenario ³⁰⁷ and given the limited impact of emissions scenario by 2050³⁶ is expected to produce qualitatively similar ³⁰⁸ results to the newer RCP 4.5 mid-range scenario³⁷.

Simulations are run on computers volunteered by the general public: in total 9745 simulations returned complete data. Given bandwidth and storage constraints in the distributed computing environment, each simulation returns "trickle" files on a yearly basis, consisting of monthly time-series averaged over 61 regions over the globe, and upload files every 10 years containing seasonally averaged full field output. We restrict our analysis to the surface temperature data focussing on 22 Giorgi land regions³⁸ and 6 major ocean basis for our comparison with observations (Table SI 3). Matched "transient minus control" pairs are used to remove any unforced drifts due to residual energy imbalances in the coupling process¹⁷.

Data Preparation. Of the 9745 complete simulations there are 1656 controls and 8089 transients. 316 Basic quality control on the model simulations is applied. Model versions with absolute global mean 317 drifts in the control climate larger than 0.4K/century are flagged, indicating the flux adjustment has not 318 eliminated unforced drifts. Transient simulations are matched based on their parameters and natural 319 forcing scenario. Initial condition ensemble averages are taken where possible to reduce noise in the 320 model simulations. Controls are prepared identically, and matched to corresponding transients through 321 the model parameters, giving a total of 2752 distinct transient-control pairs. A control simulation can be 322 matched to many transients given the separation by natural forcing or anthropogenic sulphate scaling. 323

The 2752 transient-control pairs contain 809 of the original 1530 possible model versions. Each transient-324 control pair is expressed as an anomaly from the 1961-1990 mean in each region. Observations, Had-325 $CRUT3^{19}$ for land and HadSST2³⁹ for ocean, CMIP-3⁵ and QUMP⁶ simulations under the A1B scenario 326 and CMIP-3 pre-industrial control simulations are prepared identically (Table SI 4). Finally, all data is 327 temporally averaged to 5 year mean resolution to reduce the impact of internal variability. For simplicity, 328 coverage is assumed complete within Giorgi regions in this analysis of the model output: this introduces 329 only small errors since the regions used have a high observational coverage (>90%) over the 1961-2010 330 period considered (Fig. 3a). 331

Goodness-of-fit calculation. We calculate a goodness-of-fit statistic (model error) based on the spatio temporal pattern of surface temperature from 1961-2010 as,

$$r_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^2 = \left(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}\right)^T \mathbf{C}_N^{-1} \left(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}\right),$$

where y represents observations, \mathbf{x}_{θ} a transient-control pair of simulations corresponding to parameters θ , 334 and \mathbf{C}_N a covariance matrix which weights errors corresponding to the expected variability in components 335 of \mathbf{y} and \mathbf{x}_{θ} arising from internal climate variability. Observations cannot easily be used to estimate \mathbf{C}_N 336 without simplifying assumptions, and so segments of pre-industrial control simulations are used as is 337 standard practice⁴⁰. We use pre-industrial control simulations from all available CMIP-3 models to 338 account for variability in \mathbf{y} thus allowing for model uncertainty in the covariance estimation⁴¹, and a 339 1000 year HadCM3 control run⁴² to characterise variability in \mathbf{x}_{θ} . We find little sensitivity in the results 340 to scaling the variability associated with \mathbf{y} over a wide range (Fig. SI 10). 341

³⁴² Estimates of variability from AOGCMs are most reliable on large spatial scales, so we focus on the leading

Empirical Orthogonal Functions (EOFs) of the BBC CCE over 1961-1990, the first 3 of which explain over 90% of the spatial variance across the ensemble. The exact choice of truncation does not significantly impact results when using a regularized covariance estimate⁴³, and using a separate physically-based dimension reduction technique does not change our conclusions (Fig. SI 8).

For a given confidence level, we compare r_{θ}^2 to the corresponding percentile of the distribution of r^2 arising from estimates of internal variability alone using the pre-industrial control segments. A schematic of the analysis is shown in Fig. SI 3. We use an independent set of control segments to \mathbf{C}_N to remove the small sample size bias⁴⁰. This tests the null hypothesis that the model and observations come from the same distribution and rejects the model simulation if r_{θ}^2 is too large. In Fig. 2 we display goodness-of-fit as a weighted mean squared error by normalising r_{θ}^2 by the number of degrees of freedom in \mathbf{y} and \mathbf{x}_{θ} .

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