

Higher trends but larger uncertainty and geographic variability in 21st century temperature and heat waves

Auroop R. Ganguly^{a,1}, Karsten Steinhaeuser^{a,b}, David J. Erickson III^c, Marcia Branstetter^c, Esther S. Parish^a, Nagendra Singh^a, John B. Drake^c, and Lawrence Buja^d

^aGeographic Information Science and Technology Group, Computational Sciences and Engineering Division, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Oak Ridge, TN 37831; ^bDepartment of Computer Science and Engineering, University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame, IN 46556; ^cComputational Earth Sciences Group, Computer Science and Mathematics Division, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Oak Ridge, TN 37831; and ^dNational Center for Atmospheric Research, Boulder, CO 80305

Edited by Stephen H. Schneider, Stanford University, Stanford, CA, and approved July 31, 2009 (received for review April 23, 2009)

Generating credible climate change and extremes projections remains a high-priority challenge, especially since recent observed emissions are above the worst-case scenario. Bias and uncertainty analyses of ensemble simulations from a global earth systems model show increased warming and more intense heat waves combined with greater uncertainty and large regional variability in the 21st century. Global warming trends are statistically validated across ensembles and investigated at regional scales. Observed heat wave intensities in the current decade are larger than worst-case projections. Model projections are relatively insensitive to initial conditions, while uncertainty bounds obtained by comparison with recent observations are wider than ensemble ranges. Increased trends in temperature and heat waves, concurrent with larger uncertainty and variability, suggest greater urgency and complexity of adaptation or mitigation decisions.

climate change | extremes | regional analysis

Recent observations of global-average emissions (1, 2) show higher trajectories than the worst-case A1FI scenario reported in IPCC AR4 (3). Average A1FI temperatures (1, 4) trend higher than the best-case B1 as well as the relatively worse-case A2 scenario (5). Model simulations, validated with observations, have pointed to more intense, longer lasting, and more frequent heat waves in the 21st century (6). However, a rigorous statistical validation of the increased global warming and heat waves, followed by an investigation of the trends at regional scales, is required for decision-makers and end-users. Larger trends in warming and extremes suggest a greater urgency to develop adaptation and mitigation strategies (7, 8). On the other hand, a comprehensive assessment of the uncertainties and geographical variability provide an understanding of the tradeoff space for risk-informed decisions (9), which refers to different tactical or strategic options that may be available to a decision-maker for climate change adaptation and mitigation. Uncertainty of climate model projections has been quantified (10–14) either by comparing model hindcasts with observations or by comparing an ensemble of simulations. However, hindcasts validate models after the fact and hence risk underestimating predictive ability (15), while ensembles may only capture specific aspects of the variability. Hence the reliable and timely analysis of evolving climate model projections, extremes, and uncertainty remains a challenge (16–21).

Results

Statistically Higher Warming Trends. First, we show that the global-average temperatures from the middle to end of the 21st century are likely to be higher than previously believed (3). This is suggested by the fact that recent observed emissions trend toward or above A1FI assumptions (1, 2). The fact that observed emissions are at or above the level of A1FI, or any given scenario,

in the current decade may not be a compelling reason to support conclusions about temperature in the late 21st century, as the trends could change considerably. However, when recent observations match or exceed the higher end of the emissions scenarios, then the latter cannot be ruled out as an implausible scenario. Moreover, we are not aware of any studies that clearly show that the higher temperature trends based on A1FI are statistically significant compared to other scenarios like A2 or B1. Here, A1FI simulations from CCSM 3.0 (22) are being evaluated. The assumptions inherent in the design of the A1FI and the A2 scenarios cause the A1FI emissions trajectories to be higher than A2 in the latter half of the 21st century; but while A2 continues to increase thereafter, A1FI begins to stabilize. The two scenarios converge toward the end of the century because of competing factors. Specifically, the A1FI envisions a more fossil-fuel intensive situation but also a more convergent world as compared to A2 (see reference 5 for details).

We performed a *t*-test ($\alpha = 0.05$) to determine if the mean A1FI outputs are higher than the mean A2 and B1 outputs at significant levels. Fig. 1 shows the global-average temperature projections, along with confidence bounds (three standard deviations on either side) at each decade. Our results (details in SI) show that both A1FI and A2 temperature projections are statistically distinguishable from the B1 scenario from 2040–2100 at 95% confidence; A1FI projections are statistically distinguishable from A2 from 2060–2090, but become indistinguishable again in 2100. During 2000–2007, when comparisons with observations are made, and until 2030, the B1, A2, and A1FI scenarios are statistically indistinguishable at 95% confidence. These statistical significance tests rely on important assumptions and uncertainty estimates (SI). The bottom-right panel of Fig. 1 shows monthly global-average temperatures (the “seasonality” in this case is caused by the distribution of land surfaces in the northern versus the southern hemispheres); visually, there is a clear match with reanalysis and observations, as well as an increasing trend in 2050 and 2100.

Significant Geographic Variability. Global averages are important (21), but a complete picture of projected trends and uncertainty emerges only when the results are analyzed geographically. Furthermore, stakeholders and end-users require credible as-

Author contributions: A.R.G. designed research; A.R.G. and K.S. performed research; D.J.E., M.B., J.B.D., and L.B. contributed new reagents/analytic tools; K.S., E.S.P., and N.S. analyzed data; and A.R.G., K.S., and D.J.E. wrote the paper.

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

This article is a PNAS Direct Submission.

Freely available online through the PNAS open access option.

¹To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: gangulyar@ornl.gov.

This article contains supporting information online at www.pnas.org/cgi/content/full/0904495106/DCSupplemental.

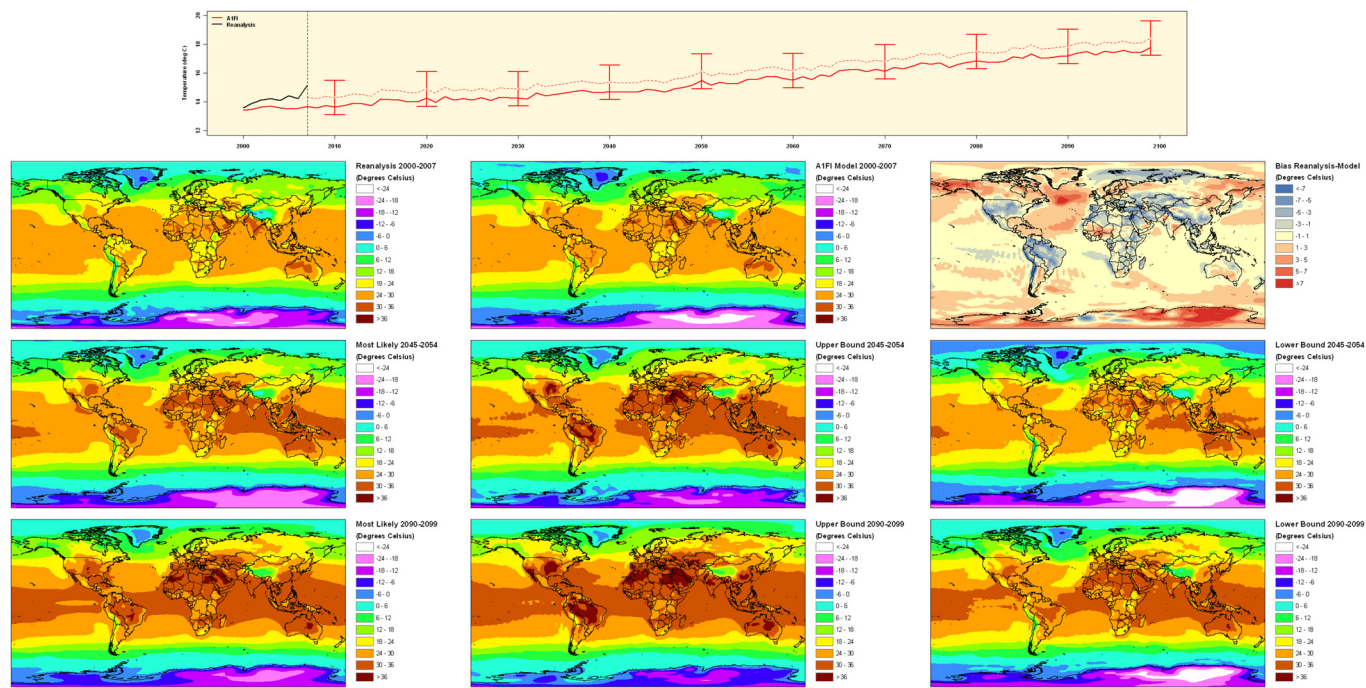


Fig. 4. Intensity of heat waves from A1FI. A heat wave is defined as the mean annual consecutive 3-day warmest nighttime minima event. The top two panels show intensity, graphically and mapped, from reanalysis data and model outputs for 2000–2007 along with the bias. The bottom panels show 2050 and 2100 heat wave projections from A1FI-forced CCSM 3.0 after bias correction (most likely maps, left) as well as upper (center) and lower (right) bounds. The numbers can be used to support local to regional scale analyses of climate change and extreme hydrometeorological stresses or impacts.

projections as well as uncertainty bounds for decadal-averages of temperature and heat waves. The uncertainty bounds are based on the differences between the model-simulations and observations, which are shown to follow a relatively stationary Gaussian distribution. The confidence bounds based on three standard deviations are consistently greater than the maximum ensemble ranges. In addition, these bounds can be larger than the differences between scenarios. Thus, the projected global-average temperatures from the different SRES scenarios cannot be statistically distinguished from each other at 95% confidence levels until about 2030, and the two more extreme scenarios (A2 and A1FI) cannot be distinguished from each other until the middle of the 21st century. This remains true even though the temperature changes are clearly distinguishable when compared across multiple decades for any one given scenario. However, the trends in A1FI-forced global-averaged temperatures are significantly higher from 2050 onwards, until they converge back with A2 toward the end of the century following the emissions trajectories. We note that the IPCC SRES scenarios are a suite of baseline nonpolicy scenarios that are not intended to span the full range of possible future emissions. A worst-case scenario could have higher emissions than A1FI, and a scenario including climate policy could have lower emissions than B1. A strict interpretation would identify A1FI as the “highest” scenario reported in IPCC AR4 and B1 as the “lowest,” which is a relative labeling. Our use of the terms “worst case” and “best case,” which borrowed from labeling (e.g., 24), may need to be interpreted accordingly. An examination of the regional variability based on daily data at 1.4° Gaussian grids reveals that the uncertainty bounds are large enough to make the warming appear insignificant on the lower bounds until 2050, but very significant at regional scales. Larger upper bounds imply that decision-makers need to be prepared for the worst possible consequences even though the most likely and lower bounds provide a way to optimize the allocation of potentially limited resources to manage the adverse effects. An investigation of

decadal-average heat wave intensities at regional scales similarly reveals a large bias and uncertainty bounds. The globally averaged intensity of heat waves at decadal scales shows that the observed intensities are higher than the worst-case model projections in the current decade, which implies further exacerbation of heat waves compared to what has been already suggested by previous researchers. Future research needs to further validate the insights developed here through multimodel ensembles. The insights about trends in temperatures and heat waves, as a function of emissions trajectories, are expected to remain unaltered. However, the use of multiple models will likely increase the uncertainties and variability at both global and regional scales.

Materials and Methods

From the CCSM 3.0 model, we obtained five-member ensembles for IPCC SRES A2 and B1 and three runs for A1FI. We consider the ensemble median for visualization where applicable. The model data were provided at T85 resolution (approximately $1.4^\circ \times 1.4^\circ$ grid) and NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis data at T62 resolution (approximately $2.5^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$ grid). We use a bivariate spline (25) to interpolate the model data onto the reanalysis grid. Bias was computed for the 8-year period from 2000–2007, due to the need for both model and reanalysis data. The remainder of our analyses use three decades at the beginning, middle, and end of the 21st century: 2000–2009, 2045–2054, and 2090–2099; in our figures these are labeled as 2000, 2050, and 2100, respectively. All figures show decadal averages over each of these periods, in plots as global average and in maps computed individually at each grid location. For temperature extremes, we adopt a definition of heat waves that focuses on intensity of the event (6).

All statistics are performed using the software environment R (www.r-project.org) and the package akima (R package version 0.5–1; <http://cran.r-project.org/web/packages>). Maps were produced using commercial GIS software ArcGIS 9.3 (www.esri.com/software/arcgis).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. We thank Dr. Shih-Chieh Kao of Oak Ridge National Laboratory (ORNL) for his comments. This research was supported by the Laboratory-Directed Research and Development Program of the Oak Ridge National Laboratory, managed by UT Battelle, LLC, for the U.S. Department of Energy under Contract DE-AC05-00OR22725.

1. Raupach MR, et al. (2007) Global and regional drivers of accelerating CO₂ emissions. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 104:10288–10293.
2. Marland G (2008) Uncertainties in accounting for CO₂ from fossil fuels. *J Ind Ecol* 12:136–139.
3. IPCC (2007) *Fourth Assessment Report: Climate Change 2007* (Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK).
4. Hadley Centre (2003) *Climate Change: Observations and Predictions* (Met Office, Exeter, UK).
5. Nakicenovic N, Swart R, Eds (2000) *Special Report on Emissions Scenarios* (Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK).
6. Meehl G, Tebaldi C (2004) More intense, more frequent, and longer lasting heat waves in the 21st century. *Science* 305:994–997.
7. Stainforth DA, Allen MR, Tredger ER, Smith LA (2007) Confidence, uncertainty and decision-support relevance in climate predictions. *Philos Trans R Soc London Ser A* 365:2145–2161.
8. Stainforth DA, Downing TE, Washington R, Lopez A (2007) Issues in the interpretation of climate model ensembles to inform decisions. *Philos Trans R Soc London Ser A* 365:2163–2177.
9. Dessai S, O'Brien K, Hulme M (2007) Editorial: On uncertainty and climate change. *Global Environ Change* 17:1–3.
10. Lopez A, et al. (2006) Two approaches to quantifying uncertainty in global temperature changes. *J Clim* 19:4785–4796.
11. Barnett DN, Brown SJ, Murphy JM, Sexton DMH, Webb MJ (2006) Quantifying uncertainty in changes in extreme event frequency in response to doubled CO₂ using a large ensemble of GCM simulations. *Clim Dyn* 26:489–511.
12. Tebaldi C, Smith RL, Nychka D, Mearns LO (2005) Quantifying uncertainty in projections of regional climate change: A Bayesian approach to the analysis of multimodel ensembles. *J Clim* 18:1524–1540.
13. Stott PA, Forest CE (2007) Ensemble climate predictions using climate models and observational constraints. *Philos Trans R Soc London Ser A* 365:2029–2052.
14. Toth Z, Kalnay E (1997) Ensemble forecasting at NCEP and the breeding method. *Mon Weather Rev* 125:3297–3319.
15. Stainforth D, et al. (2005) Uncertainty in predictions of climate response to rising levels of greenhouse gases. *Nature* 433:403–406.
16. Stott PA, Kettleborough JA (2002) Origins and estimates of uncertainty in predictions of twenty-first century temperature rise. *Nature* 416:723–726.
17. Collins M, et al. (2006) Towards quantifying uncertainty in transient climate change. *Clim Dyn* 27:127–147.
18. Pielke RA (2008) Overheated claims. *Financial Post*, June 17.
19. Rahmstorf S (2007) Recent climate observations compared to projections. *Science* 316:709.
20. Berliner ML, Kim Y (2008) Bayesian design and analysis for superensemble-based climate forecasting. *J Clim* 21:1891–1910.
21. Watson J (2008) Certainty and uncertainty in climate change predictions: What use are climate models? *Environ Resour Econ* 39:37–44.
22. Drake JB, Jones PW, Carr GR (2005) Overview of the software design of the community climate system model. *Int J High Perform C* 19:177–186.
23. Kistler R, et al. (2001) The NCEP-NCAR 50 year reanalysis. *Bull Am Meteorol Soc* 82:247–268.
24. Tollefson J (2008) Climate war games. *Nature* 454:673.
25. Hiroshi A (1978) A method of bivariate interpolation and smooth surface fitting for irregularly distributed data points. *ACM Trans Math Software* 4:148–159.