

Responses are in red.

Anonymous Referee #1

Received and published: 5 December 2017

GENERAL COMMENTS:

In this manuscript, Wehner et al. use a novel set of climate model ensembles to compare extreme temperatures under scenarios with 1.5 and 2 degrees of stabilized warming. I think this manuscript presents a useful and relevant assessment of the differences in a metric of extreme temperatures between the two scenarios, but would benefit from additional explanations, particularly of the methods.

We feel that a stationary GEV treatment has become rather standard in this class of analysis. We have added the following text to the paper:

“Originally introduced by Zwiers and Kharin (1998) and Kharin and Zwiers (2000) to provide statistically rigorous projections of future extreme temperature and precipitation, such GEV analyses, both stationary and non-stationary, are now widespread throughout the literature including recent assessment reports of the International Panel on Climate Change (Seneviratne et al., 2012; Collins et al. 2013). The particulars of the details of the GEV analysis used in this study are described in the Supplementary material of (Tebaldi and Wehner 2017).”

SPECIFIC COMMENTS:

- In the abstract, I think it would be worth mentioning the range of increases compared to the All-Hist scenarios as well.

We modified the abstract as follows: “We find that over land this measure of extreme high temperature increases from about 0.5 to 1.5°C over present day values in the 1.5°C stabilization scenario depending on location and model. We further find an additional 0.25 to 1.0°C increase in extreme high temperatures over land in the 2.0°C stabilization scenario.”

- Lines 72-75: Is the prescribed SST field determined from the CMIP5 ensemble mean?

To clarify, we have rewritten and expanded this paragraph as follows:

“Prescribed SSTs for the 1.5°C stabilization scenario are obtained by adding the average climatological change over the periods 2006-2015 to 2091-2100 from the multi-model CMIP5 RCP2.6 ensemble to the observed 2006-2015 SSTs. For the 2°C stabilization scenario, a weighted sum of the RCP2.6 and RCP4.5 ensemble average changes over the same period is constructed to be exactly 0.5°C warmer in the global mean than the 1.5°C experiment. ... While the changes to SST and sea ice concentrations defining the stabilizations scenarios are identical for each HAPPI model, the actual observations used come from a variety of well established sources chosen at the discretion of the modeling groups.”

- Lines 144-146: I’m having trouble seeing the importance of this sentence.

We agree and have deleted this sentence.

- Can the authors expand the explanation of the benefit of using 3-day averages?

We had this statement in the original text (although we had forgotten to include the citation, which is now included): “We have previously found that while long period return values of $TX3x$ are slightly smaller than for the daily quantity, projected changes of the 3 day averages were considerably larger (Tebaldi and Wehner 2017). For this study, where we are interested in the small differences between the 1.5°C and 2.0°C stabilization levels, this point becomes particularly important.”

We also note that from an impacts point of view, longer duration heat waves can be more damaging than isolated hot days. In fact, the following definition of a heat wave comes from Glickman, Todd S. (June 2000). Glossary of Meteorology. Boston: American Meteorological Society. ISBN 1-878220-49-7. "To be a heat wave such a period should last at least one day, but conventionally it lasts from several days to several weeks." However, we feel it outside the scope of this paper to belabor the point and simply note that “three day” is in the title of the paper.

-In line 163, it is mentioned that the 20 year return values of $TX3x$ are estimated “using a block maxima technique”, but as the $TX3x$ values are block maxima, this description provides little information. It would probably be better to say “using the Generalized Extreme Value distribution” instead.

- Agreed. We changed “using a block maxima technique” to “by fitting stationary Generalized Extreme Value distributions”

- It was not clear how the ensembles contributed to the values calculated and plotted in this paper. Were the block maxima pooled across the realizations before fitting the GEV distribution or are the ensemble mean return periods plotted? Additionally, it would be helpful if the number of values used to fit the GEV distributions were stated.

We revised and added the text as follows:

“By pooling the block maxima variable, $TX3x$, across both years and ensemble members, the extreme value time series are equivalent in length to the product of these two dimensions. As both the historical and stabilization periods are a decade, this results in extreme value sample sizes for the HAPPI models that are 10 times longer than the number of realizations in the 3rd column of table 1, ranging from 500 (MIROC5) to 5000 (CAM4). These large sample sizes of the HAPPI models (table 1) ensure that uncertainty due to the fitting of statistical distribution is negligible. The coupled model results (CESM1) are taken directly from Sanderson et al. (2017) which used periods of three decades to compensate for the smaller ensemble size.”

- Line 190: The first paragraph of the Results section can be removed, as much of this seems confusing and distracting and the relevant information is presented again at the beginning of the next paragraph.

Agreed. We have deleted this paragraph and adjusted the grammar of the first sentence of the next paragraph accordingly.

- In all of the six-panel figures, the authors should make a distinction between CESM and

the HAPPI models. I accept an argument for including the CESM model information, but these simulations are not directly comparable to the others.

We added this sentence: “Results shown in figures 1-4 from the coupled ocean-atmosphere model, CESM1, are shown for illustrative purposes only and are not directly comparable to the HAPPI models as the experimental protocols are necessarily different.”

- Line 233: Perhaps mention the later discussion of the changes in mean vs extremes.

We added this sentence: “However, there are significant regional differences between models, as shown below in figure 6.”

- For Figure 6, the caption description does not match what is listed in the text (at line 362), which causes confusion in the understanding of what is being plotted.

Thank you. We modified this sentence slightly to (changes in italics here): “Figure 6 shows the difference between changes in 20 year return values of *TX3x* and *changes in hot season average temperatures* for the 2.0°C stabilization scenario relative to the historical period.”

- Line 419-420: Has this been tested? If not, perhaps rephrase to present this statement with less confidence.

We deleted the sentence as it was speculative.

- The “Conclusions” section is lengthy and presents new ideas/results. I would suggest moving some of this to the “Results” section or renaming this as the “Discussion” and presenting a summary of the main points in the “Conclusions.”

We broke the section into two pieces with the majority of it labeled Discussion.

- It would be interesting to see the difference between the 2C and 1.5C scenarios relative to the difference between the 2C and the present. That is, what fraction of the increase with the 2C scenario occurred after 1.5C?

We have considered this request but elect not to include such a figure for two reasons. First, the actual temperature difference between the two stabilization scenarios is already shown in figure 4 and is easily interpretable. Second, comparison with the historical period is complicated by the differences in sulfate aerosol forcing between models as discussed at length in the paper. This would be reflected in such a fractional increase figure. This modified sentence clarifies this behavior: “As a result, the differences between stabilization scenarios in extreme temperature changes shown in figure 4 are less spatially heterogeneous and more similar between models than changes relative to the present day (figures 1 and 3).”

- What role might model resolution play in the comparisons of extreme temperatures between models?

It is likely that model resolution could play an important role in areas of high topography and may be as important model formulation in such regions. We plan on examining this

issue in a separate paper using a single model (CAM5.1) run at two different resolutions (25km and 100km). HAPPI simulations are nearly completed for that study. Until we have that study completed, it is not possible for us to make an informed comment on this matter for the models included in this paper.

TECHNICAL COMMENTS:

- I recommend changing “apparently contradicts” in line 406 with “would seem to contradict”, given the statement in lines 416-417.

Done.

Anonymous Referee #2

Received and published: 18 December 2017

The paper "Changes in extremely hot days under stabilized 1.5oC and 2.0oC global warming scenarios as simulated by the HAPPI multi-model ensemble" uses the HAPPI large ensemble simulations to examine changes in temperature extremes. Annual maxima of averaged three consecutive days temperature (TX3x) are modelled with a GEV distribution. TX3x 20-year return levels are compared between different warming targets (1.5oC and 2oC) and present climate. This study is very interesting and merits publication after the minor point below has been addressed.

Specific comment:

- I would suggest to make some hypothesis testing in order to check if TX3x 20-year return values are significantly different between different warming levels and present climate. Please, in case these differences are not significant across some region, I would suggest of highlighting the grid points with no-significant differences in each relative figure.

Rather than pick a significance level, we have elected to plot the standard error estimates directly. As the ensemble sizes are quite large, uncertainty from the statistical fitting procedure is minimal. However, uncertainty from internal variability remains and can be quantified. This subject will be dealt with a forthcoming paper that is underway. We have added the following text to the main body as well as a third figure to the appendix (reproduced below). “Standard errors obtained from the method of Hoskins and Wallis (1997) are shown to be small in figure A3 of the appendix. Generally, these error estimates are less than 0.15°C with the largest values towards the higher Northern latitudes. Variability in CanAM4 is higher than the other HAPPI models but is generally less than 0.25°C. Standard error estimates in the CESM are of a similar magnitude but are not directly equivalent. Most of the changes in figures 1-4 are interpreted as at least at the *likely* level in the IPCC calibrated language (Mastrandrea et al. 2010).”

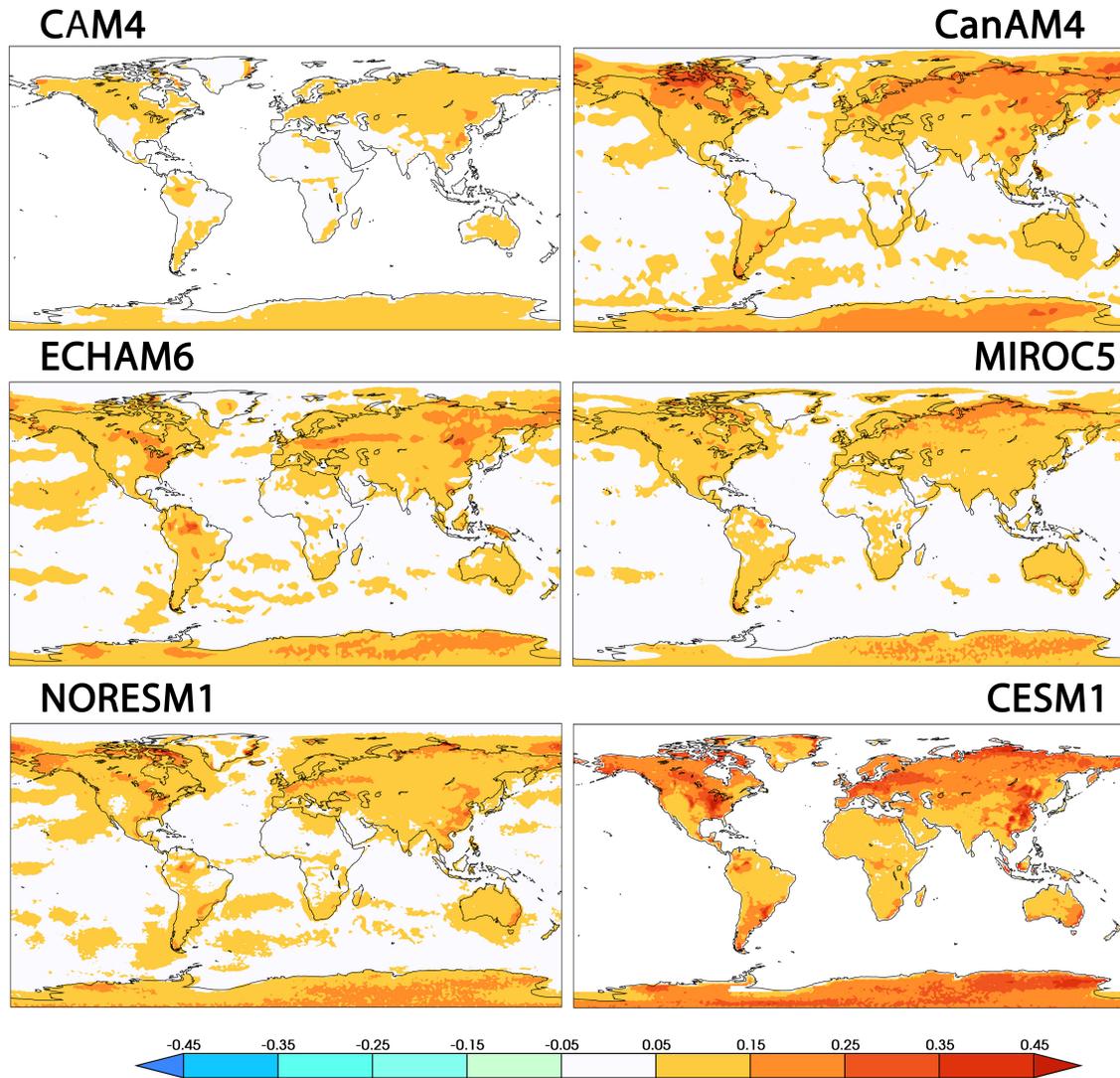


Figure A3: Standard error estimates of 20 year return values of TX_{3x} (°C) in the 1.5°C or 2.0°C HAPPI simulations. Upper left: CAM4. Upper right: CanAM4. Middle left: ECHAM6. Middle right: MIROC5. Lower left: NorESM1. Lower Right. CESM.

1 Changes in extremely hot days under stabilized 1.5°C and 2.0°C global warming
2 scenarios as simulated by the HAPPI multi-model ensemble

3
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18

19 Abstract

20 The Half A degree additional warming, Prognosis and Projected Impacts (HAPPI)
21 experimental protocol provides a multi-model database to compare the effects of
22 stabilizing anthropogenic global warming of 1.5°C over preindustrial levels to 2.0°C
23 over these levels. The HAPPI experiment is based upon large ensembles of global
24 atmospheric models forced by sea surface temperature and sea ice concentrations
25 plausible for these stabilization levels. This paper examines changes in extremes of
26 high temperatures averaged over three consecutive days. Changes in this measure
27 of extreme temperature are also compared to changes in hot season temperatures.

28 **We find that over land this measure of extreme high temperature increases**
29 **from about 0.5 to 1.5°C over present day values in the 1.5°C stabilization**
30 **scenario depending on location and model. We further find an additional 0.25**
31 **to 1.0°C increase in extreme high temperatures over land in the 2.0°C**
32 **stabilization scenario.** Results from the HAPPI models are consistent with similar
33 results from the one available fully coupled climate model. However, a complicating
34 factor in interpreting extreme temperature changes across the HAPPI models is
35 their diversity of aerosol forcing changes.

36

37 Introduction

38 The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC)
39 challenged the scientific community to describe the impacts of stabilizing the global
40 mean temperature at its 21st Conference of Parties held in Paris in 2016. A specific
41 target of 1.5°C above preindustrial levels had not been seriously considered by the
42 climate modeling community prior to the Paris Agreement. Indeed, this level of
43 global warming is reached but then exceeded in most of the projections of the
44 Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP5), the source of much of our detailed
45 information about projected future climate change scenarios (Collins et al. 2013).
46 Analysis of these transient global climate model simulations as they pass through

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51 1.5 and 2.0°C warmer temperatures than preindustrial estimates are not necessarily
52 descriptive of a stabilized climate due to the differential warming rates over land
53 and ocean regions of the planet. While pattern scaling (Tebaldi and Arblaster 2014)
54 of stabilized simulations at warmer levels may permit reasonable estimate of
55 surface air temperature and precipitation at the Paris Agreement targets, such
56 techniques have not been widely applied to other important output quantities from
57 climate models. Hence, custom simulations tailored to these 1.5 and 2.0°C targets
58 outside of the CMIP5 (and CMIP6) protocols are the most straightforward vehicles
59 for the scientific community to inform the UNFCCC.

60
61 Recently, the modeling group at the National Center for Atmospheric Research
62 (NCAR) performed simulations of the Community Earth System Model (CESM1)
63 suitably forced to stabilize to the Paris Agreement targets. Described in Sanderson
64 et al. (2017), these ocean-atmosphere coupled global simulations extend a previous
65 large ensemble (Kay et al. 2015) and provide a rather complete description of the
66 climate system at these stabilized levels and a path toward stabilization. However,
67 to more fully understand the model structural uncertainty in such projections,
68 efforts from additional modeling groups are necessary. In lieu of an internationally
69 coordinated extension to CMIP6 and to provide information prior to the publication
70 deadlines to the special report requested of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate
71 Change, a limited number of modeling groups agreed to a simpler set of customized
72 simulations. The HAPPI experiment (Half A degree additional warming, Prognosis
73 and Projected Impacts) is based on the atmospheric components of CMIP5 models
74 forced by prescribed sea surface temperature (SST) and sea ice concentrations
75 (Mitchell et al. 2017). By replacing the ocean and sea ice components models with
76 prescribed values, simulation workflows are considerably simplified and
77 computational resource requirements reduced enabling the integration of larger
78 ensembles. SST and associated sea ice concentrations were specially constructed for
79 the HAPPI experimental protocol. **Prescribed SSTs for the 1.5°C stabilization**
80 **scenario are obtained by adding the average climatological change over the**
81 **periods 2006-2015 to 2091-2100 from the multi-model CMIP5 RCP2.6**
82 **ensemble to the observed 2006-2015 SSTs. For the 2°C stabilization scenario,**
83 **a weighted sum of the RCP2.6 and RCP4.5 ensemble average changes over the**
84 **same period is constructed to be exactly 0.5°C warmer in the global mean than**
85 **the 1.5°C experiment.** Sea ice concentrations are computed using an adapted
86 version of the method described in Massey (2017) by using observations of SST and
87 ice to establish a linear relationship between the two fields for the time period
88 1996-2015 and are consistent with the HAPPI prescribed SST fields. **While the**
89 **changes to SST and sea ice concentrations defining the stabilizations scenarios**
90 **are identical for each HAPPI model, the actual observations used come from a**
91 **variety of well established sources chosen at the discretion of the modeling**
92 **groups.** Details are further described in Mitchell et al. (2017).

93
94 While HAPPI allows for large ensembles of multiple models to be compared, there
95 are tradeoffs to note in this simpler approach to modeling a stabilized climate
96 including the potential for radiative imbalance and inconsistencies between the

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104 atmospheric state and the surface at the sea ice/ocean boundaries (Covey et al.
105 2004). Furthermore, while CMIP5 model differences in equilibrium climate
106 sensitivity are largely due to differences in ocean heat uptake (Collins et al. 2013),
107 important residual differences remain over land and global mean temperatures that
108 are not the same across the participating models. Finally, due to the prescribed SSTs
109 HAPPI does not account for different realizations of or potential changes in ocean
110 internal variability. The present study is confined to changes in extreme
111 temperatures over land simulated for the HAPPI project and defers these issues to
112 later analyses.

113

114 **Data and Methods**

115 Five modeling groups have submitted model output data to the HAPPI project that is
116 freely available to the public. Model #1 is the NCAR-DOE Community Atmosphere
117 Model version 4 (CAM4) coupled to the Community Land Model version 4 (CLM4)
118 with simulations contributed by ETH Zurich (Neale et al. 2011; Oleson et al. 2010).
119 Model #2 is the Canadian Fourth Generation Atmospheric Global Climate Model
120 (CanAM4) contributed by the Canadian Centre for Climate Modelling and Analysis
121 (von Salzen et al. 2013). Model #3 is ECHAM6.3 (Stevens et al. 2013), contributed by
122 the Max Planck Institute for Meteorology, Hamburg, Germany. It includes a modified
123 version of the land component (Reick et al. 2013). The soil hydrology is described by
124 a 5-layer scheme (Hagemann and Stacke 2015) instead of the bucket scheme used in
125 the CMIP5 version. Additionally, a high resolution (global 0.5° grid) hydrological
126 discharge model (Hagemann and Dümenil, 1997) is activated. Model #4 is the
127 MIROC5 model contributed by the National Institute for Environmental Studies,
128 Tsukuba, Japan and denoted as "MIROC5" (Shiogama et al. 2013, 2014). Model #5
129 (NorESM1) is an updated version of the Norwegian Earth System model version 1
130 (Bentsen et al. 2013, Iversen et al. 2013), contributed by the Norwegian Climate
131 Center. The NorESM1 is based on the NCAR Community Climate System Model
132 version 4 (Gent et al., 2011), but with a different ocean model and a modified
133 atmosphere component. The atmosphere model is based on the Community
134 Atmosphere Model version 4, but includes an advanced module for aerosols and
135 aerosol-cloud-radiation interactions (Kirkevåg et al. 2013). The version of the
136 NorESM1 used in the HAPPI project, NorESM1-Happi, additionally includes
137 improvements to wet snow albedo, and the atmospheric burden of soot (Iversen et
138 al, in prep.).

139

140 Aerosol forcings are not prescribed but left to the modeling groups to implement
141 based on their previous experience and simulations. The only constraint specified
142 by the HAPPI protocol is that the 1.5°C and 2°C use the same aerosol forcing.
143 Variations between model treatments in both the absolute magnitudes of the
144 aerosol forcing as well as their differences in the historical and stabilized scenarios
145 will prove to be an important factor in the changes in extreme temperatures.

146

147 An additional model result is also presented for comparison. The Community Earth
148 System Model (CESM1) is a fully coupled model that was not part of the HAPPI
149 project. However, 15 member ensembles of simulations were made under forcing

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150 scenarios tailored to produce 1.5°C and 2°C stabilized climates (Sanderson et al.
151 2017). These simulations, while not directly comparable to the five HAPPI models,
152 provide additional context for extreme temperatures in stabilized low warming
153 scenarios.

154
155 The HAPPI experimental protocol was inspired by the “Climate of the 20th Century
156 Plus (C20C+) Detection and Attribution project” (Stone et al. 2017) and data from
157 both sets of simulations are available at the same website (portal.nersc.gov/c20c).
158 However, only output from the MIROC5 model was submitted to both projects. In
159 the HAPPI experimental protocol, the present day forcings and boundary conditions
160 are representative of the observed 2006-2015 state and is identical to that specified
161 in the C20C+ protocol over that period. HAPPI forcings for stabilized future
162 scenarios preserve the observed 2006-2015 interannual variability (Stone et al.
163 2017; Mitchell et al. 2017) but include appropriate changes derived from the CMIP5
164 RCP2.6 and RCP4.5 scenario simulations. Dates for these simulations are nominally
165 2106-2115 as atmospheric trace gas concentrations are scaled from the RCP’s
166 protocol at 2095. Table 1 summarizes details of the model simulations used in this
167 study. Note that the ensemble sizes are exceptionally large for a publicly available
168 multi-model climate simulation dataset.

169
170 In this study, we examine the differences in changes in extreme temperatures from
171 the HAPPI simulations. In a companion paper, we examined such changes between
172 the actual and counterfactual (non-industrialized) simulations submitted to the
173 C20C+ project and this paper uses the same extreme value statistical methodologies
174 (Wehner et al. 2017). The annual maximum of the daily maximum temperature is
175 one of the 27 indices defined by the Expert Team on Climate Change Detection
176 Indices (ETCCDI) and is a robust indicator of extremely hot weather (Zhang et al.
177 2011). Called “TXx” by the ETCCDI and derived from “tasmax”, the daily maximum
178 near surface air temperature in the CMIP5, this quantity is also known as “hot days”
179 because it is the hottest daytime temperature of the year. As in our previous work
180 on this topic (Tebaldi and Wehner 2016; Sanderson et al. 2017; Wehner et al. 2017),
181 we first calculate the running 3 day average of tasmax and compute its annual
182 maximum, denoted hereafter as TX3x, and then estimate its 20 year return values **by**
183 **fitting stationary Generalized Extreme Value distributions**. We have previously
184 found that while long period return values of TX3x are slightly smaller than for the
185 daily quantity, projected changes of the 3 day averages were considerably larger
186 (Tebaldi and Wehner 2016). For this study, where we are interested in the small
187 differences between the 1.5°C and 2.0°C stabilization levels, this point becomes
188 particularly important.

189
190 In this paper, we do not assess the HAPPI models’ relative skill at reproducing
191 observed estimates of extremes temperatures. However, we note that this set of
192 models form the atmospheric components of several of the CMIP5 fully coupled
193 models. Sillman et al. (2014) did examine the CMIP5 model’s performance in
194 simulating TXx and other ETCCDI measures. The coupled models corresponding to
195 these five HAPPI models spanned a large range of TXx errors when compared to

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203 four different reanalyses. These model errors are presumably reduced when the
204 ocean is specified to its observed state.

205
206 As in our C20C+ analysis of anthropogenic extreme temperature changes, we
207 estimate 20-year return values by fitting the Generalized Extreme Value (GEV)
208 distribution by the methods of L-moments (Hosking and Wallis 1997). Assumptions
209 that the analyzed data is stationary and independent and identically distributed
210 (i.i.d) are necessary for this approach to be valid and are reasonable for the HAPPI
211 model output. A more detailed discussion of the rationale and limitations of these
212 assumptions for the C20C+ data is provided in Wehner et al. (2017) and the same
213 arguments hold for the HAPPI data. **Originally introduced by Zwiers and Kharin
214 (1998) and Kharin and Zwiers (2000) to provide statistically rigorous
215 projections of future extreme temperature and precipitation, such GEV
216 analyses, both stationary and non-stationary, are now widespread throughout
217 the literature including recent assessment reports of the International Panel
218 on Climate Change (Seneviratne et al., 2012; Collins et al. 2013). The
219 particulars of the details of the GEV analysis used in this study are described
220 in the Supplementary material of Tebaldi and Wehner (2017).**

221
222 **By pooling the block maxima variable, TX3x, across both years and ensemble
223 members, the extreme value time series are equivalent in length to the
224 product of these two dimensions. As both the historical and stabilization
225 periods are a decade, this results in extreme value sample sizes for the HAPPI
226 models that are 10 times longer than the number of realizations in the 3rd
227 column of table 1, ranging from 500 (MIROC5) to 5000 (CAM4). These large
228 sample sizes of the HAPPI models (table 1) ensure that uncertainty due to the
229 fitting of statistical distribution is negligible. **The coupled model results (CESM1)
230 are taken directly from Sanderson et al. (2017), which used periods of three
231 decades to compensate for the smaller ensemble size.****

232 233 Results

234
235 We limit this study to reporting changes in 20 year return values of extreme
236 temperatures with the recognition that changes in longer period return values do
237 not differ greatly. This is principally due to the bounded nature of the fitted GEV
238 distributions and little difference in the width of these distributions over most land
239 areas (Wehner et al. 2017). As changes in return periods for fixed thresholds are not
240 as stable to the choice of threshold values, any results we might report would be of
241 less general utility so we defer such to more targeted impact analyses. Figure 1
242 shows the changes over land in 20 year return values of the annual maximum of the
243 three day average of daily maximum surface air temperatures (TX3x) between the
244 1.5°C stabilized scenario and the present day simulations. Of the HAPPI models,
245 MIROC5 exhibits the largest increases of the five HAPPI models exceeding 0.75°C
246 nearly everywhere and even 1.25°C over large regions. CAM4 and ECHAM6 exhibit
247 the smallest changes but do have hot spots in Asia. CanAM4, ECHAM6 and NorESM1
248 also show decreases or little increase over parts of the Amazon, but MIROC5 does

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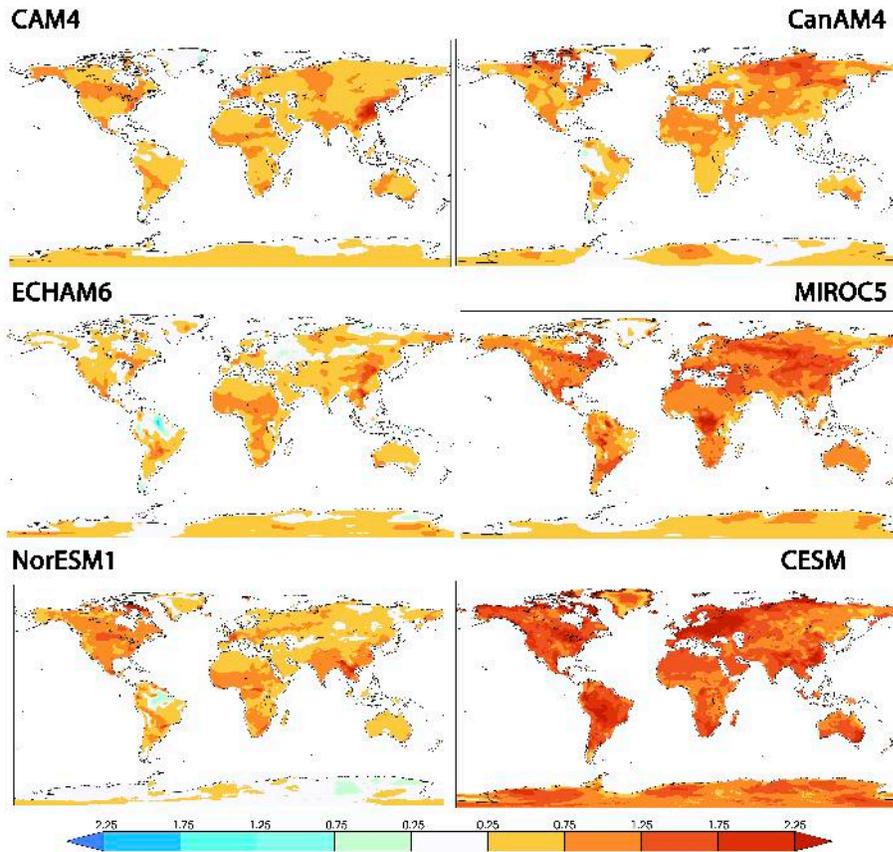
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276 not. The fitted GEV parameters and hence these return value changes are extremely
277 robust to sample size uncertainty due to the large number of realizations in the
278 HAPPI database (Table 1). Standard errors determined by a bootstrap calculation
279 (Hoskins and Wallis 1997) are very small. Results shown in figures 1-4 from the
280 coupled ocean-atmosphere model, CESM1, are shown for illustrative purposes
281 only and are not directly comparable to the HAPPI models as the experimental
282 protocols are necessarily different.
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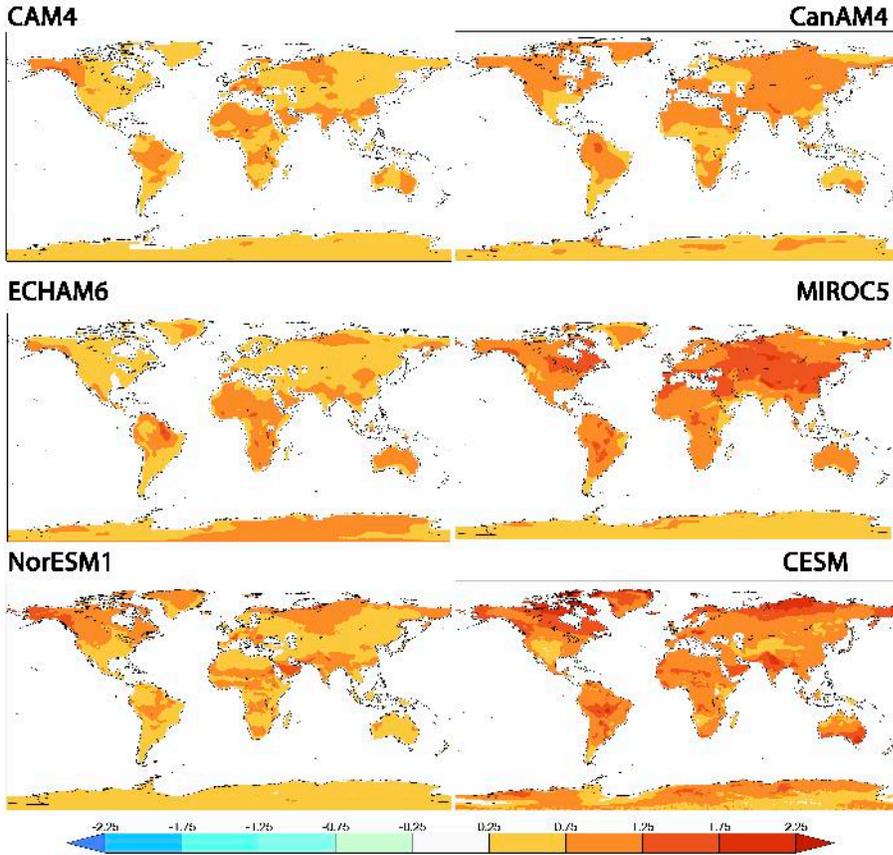


284 Figure 1. Change in 20 year return values (°C) between the 1.5°C and present day
285 HAPPI simulations of TX3x. Upper left: CAM4. Upper right: CanAM4. Middle left:
287 ECHAM6. Middle right: MIROC5. Lower left: NorESM1. Lower right: CESM.
288

289 The annual maximum of the daily high temperature is most likely to occur in the
290 summer over most of the world outside of the tropics. Figure 2 shows the difference
291 between the 1.5°C stabilized scenario and the present day simulations of the

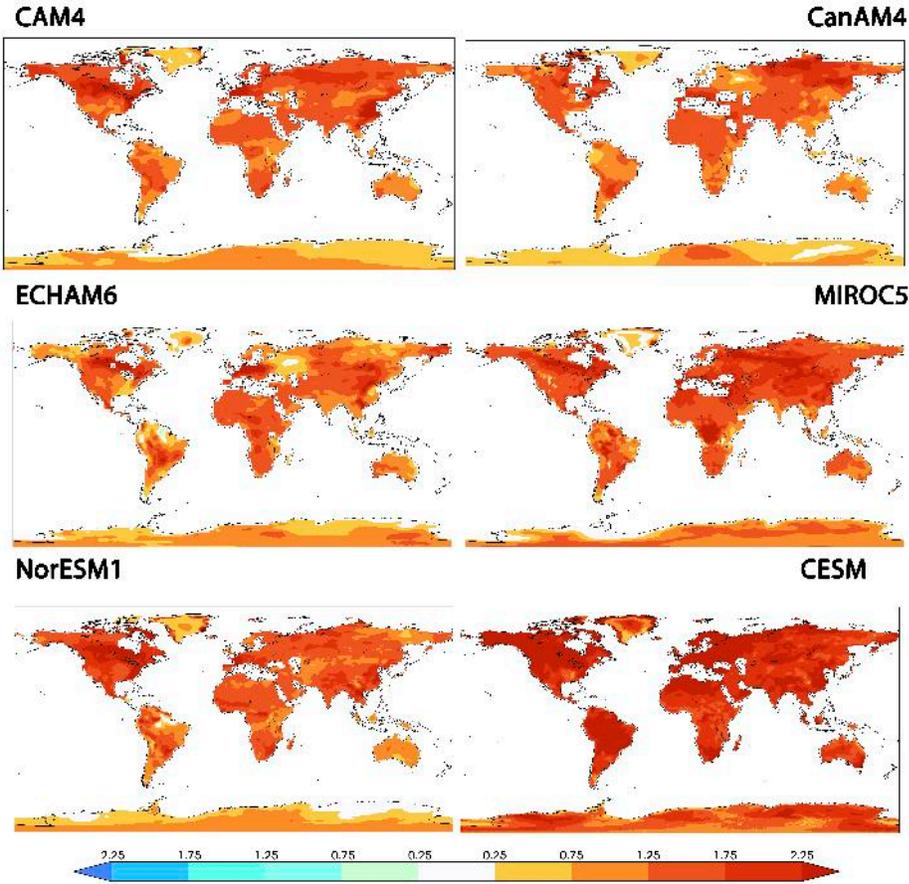
292 average surface air temperature in the hottest season, usually June-July-August in
293 the Northern Hemisphere and December-January-February in the Southern
294 Hemisphere. This much more spatially smooth average temperature change is quite
295 different from the extreme temperature change in other ways as well. Global land
296 average **changes** (shown in table 1) indicate that hot season temperatures generally
297 increase slightly more than extreme temperatures. **However, there are significant**
298 **regional differences between models, as shown below in figure 6.** Furthermore,
299 there are no regions of average temperature decreases. Average temperature
300 increases are always greater than 0.25°C.

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302 Figure 2. Differences in average hot season surface air temperature (°C) between the
303 1.5°C and present day HAPPI simulations. Upper left: CAM4. Upper right: CanAM4.
304 Middle left: ECHAM6. Middle right: MIROC5. Lower left: NorESM1. Lower right:
305 CESM.
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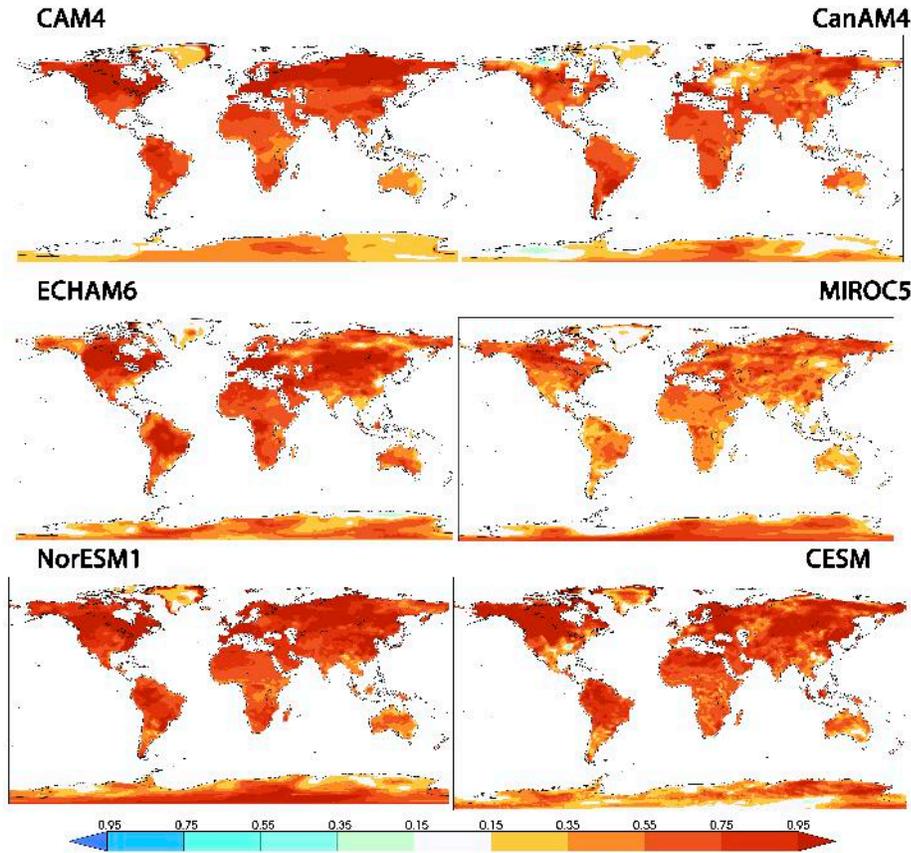
308 Figure 3 shows the changes over land in 20 year return values of the annual
309 maximum of the three day average of daily maximum surface air temperatures
310 between the 2.0°C stabilized scenario and the present day simulations. As might be
311 expected, extreme temperature increases are larger than in the 1.5°C stabilized
312 scenario (figure 1). In this warmer scenario, most models produced no decreases in
313 extreme temperature. Only ECHAM6 has a small decrease in the Amazon. For
314 completeness, differences between the 2.0°C stabilized scenario and the present day
315 simulations of the average surface air temperature in the hottest season are shown
316 in the Appendix. As in the cooler scenario, global averaged land extreme
317 temperature differences are generally smaller than for the average hot season
318 temperature differences (Table 1). MIROC5, discussed in more detail below, is an
319 exception to this conclusion.



320

321 Figure 3. Change in 20 year return values (°C) between the 2.0°C and present day
322 HAPPI simulations of TX3x. Upper left: CAM4. Upper right: CanAM4. Middle left:
323 ECHAM6. Middle right: MIROC5. Lower left: NorESM1. Lower right: CESM.

324
325 Differences between the extreme temperatures of the 2.0°C and 1.5°C stabilized
326 scenarios are shown in figure 4. Global land average differences in extreme 3 day
327 hot temperatures range from about 0.5°C to 0.75°C (Table 1).
328
329

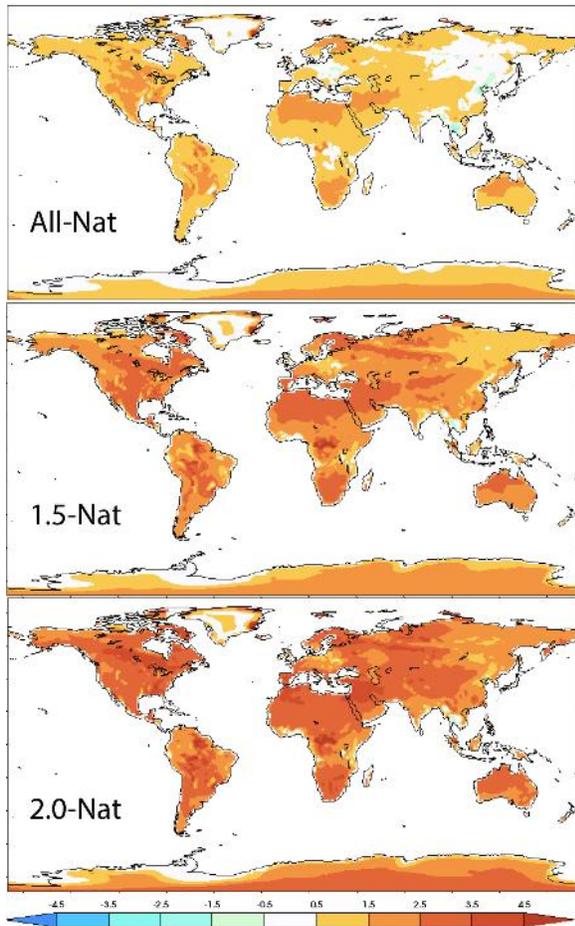


330
331 Figure 4: Differences in 20 year return values (°C) between the 2.0°C and 1.5°C
332 HAPPI simulations of TX3x. Upper left: CAM4. Upper right: CanAM4. Middle left:
333 ECHAM6. Middle right: MIROC5. Lower left: NorESM1. Lower right: CESM. Note that
334 the color scale covers a smaller range of temperature differences than for the
335 previous figures.

336
337 **Standard errors obtained from the method of Hoskins and Wallis (1997) are shown**
338 **to be small in figure A3 of the appendix. Generally, these error estimates are less**
339 **than 0.15°C with the largest values towards the higher Northern latitudes.**
340 **Variability in CanAM4 is higher than the other HAPPI models but is generally less**
341 **than 0.25°C. Standard error estimates in the CESM are of a similar magnitude but**
342 **are not directly equivalent. Most of the changes in figures 1-4 are interpreted as at**
343 **least at the *likely* level in the IPCC calibrated language (Mastrandrea et al. 2010).**
344

345 At this time, only a single coupled model, the CESM, has been run under 1.5°C and
346 2°C stabilization conditions. Fortunately, a moderately sized ensemble of those
347 CESM simulations is available and analyzed in Sanderson et al. (2017) and shown in
348 the lower right panel of figures 1-4. The reference period from the “historical” run in
349 Sanderson et al. (2017) was earlier than for the HAPPI All-Hist and partly explains
350 the larger changes in the comparison between stabilization and current simulations
351 shown in figures 1-3. Although the method to simulate stabilized climates is quite
352 dissimilar between the HAPPI and the coupled model, differences between the 1.5°C
353 and 2.0°C stabilized CESM simulations of *TX3x* return values are quite similar to
354 CAM4, ECHAM6 and NorESM1 with global averages over land of 0.7°C or larger.
355

356 The MIROC5 is the only model for which results were submitted to both the C20C+
357 Detection and Attribution Project. In Wehner et al. (2017), we find that
358 anthropogenic aerosol forcing can play a critical role in heat wave attribution
359 statements. The MIROC5 experiments were run with a fully prognostic sulfate, black
360 carbon and organic carbon aerosol package forced by prescribed aerosol emissions.
361 In such experiments, aerosol concentrations can interact with the immediate
362 meteorology, leading in some regions to cooling, especially in events characterized
363 by persistent and stagnant air masses. This is indeed the case for the MIROC5 All-
364 Hist simulations compared to the C20C+ counterfactual simulations (Nat-Hist) of a
365 world without anthropogenic changes to the composition of the atmosphere. All-
366 Hist minus Nat-Hist extreme temperature from MIROC5 are replotted from Wehner
367 et al. (2017) in the top panel of figure 5 with a wider color scale to permit additional
368 comparison to the warmer stabilization scenarios. Decreases in extreme
369 temperatures are found in East Asia, the Congo and Eastern Europe that are
370 attributable to sulfate and organic carbon aerosol concentration differences for this
371 model. In the MIROC5 stabilization runs, sulfate and organic carbon aerosol
372 emissions are reduced according to the protocols of the RCP2.6 scenario. These
373 reductions allow the greenhouse gas contribution to temperature changes to
374 dominate leading to increases in these regions when comparing the stabilization
375 experiments to either the All-Hist and Nat-Hist MIROC5 experiments (figures 1,3
376 and 5). In fact, the cooling in these regions in the MIROC5 All-Hist experiment
377 results in localized hot spots when compared to the stabilization experiments
378 (figures 1 and 3). This is especially evident over the Congo in these figures.



379
 380 Figure 5: Change in 20 year return values (°C) of *TX3x* between the C20C+ D&A
 381 counterfactual simulation of a non-industrial world and the present day, 1.5°C, 2.0°C
 382 HAPPI simulations for the MIROC5 model. Note that the color scale covers a larger
 383 range of temperature differences than for the previous figures.
 384

385 | **Discussion.**

386 The Half A degree additional warming, Prognosis and Projected Impacts (HAPPI)
 387 coordinated climate modeling experiments demonstrates that there are indeed
 388 benefits in the form of reduced heat wave intensities associated with lower
 389 stabilization targets. The large number of realizations permits estimation of these
 390 reductions in heat wave magnitude to a high precision for each of the four
 391 participating models. For two of the models (CanAM4, MIROC5), heat wave
 392 differences between the 1.5°C and 2°C stabilization targets called for in the Paris
 393 Agreement are close to 0.5°C over large portions of the land mass. The other 3

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395 models showed reductions of approximately 0.75°C over large regions of the land
396 mass.

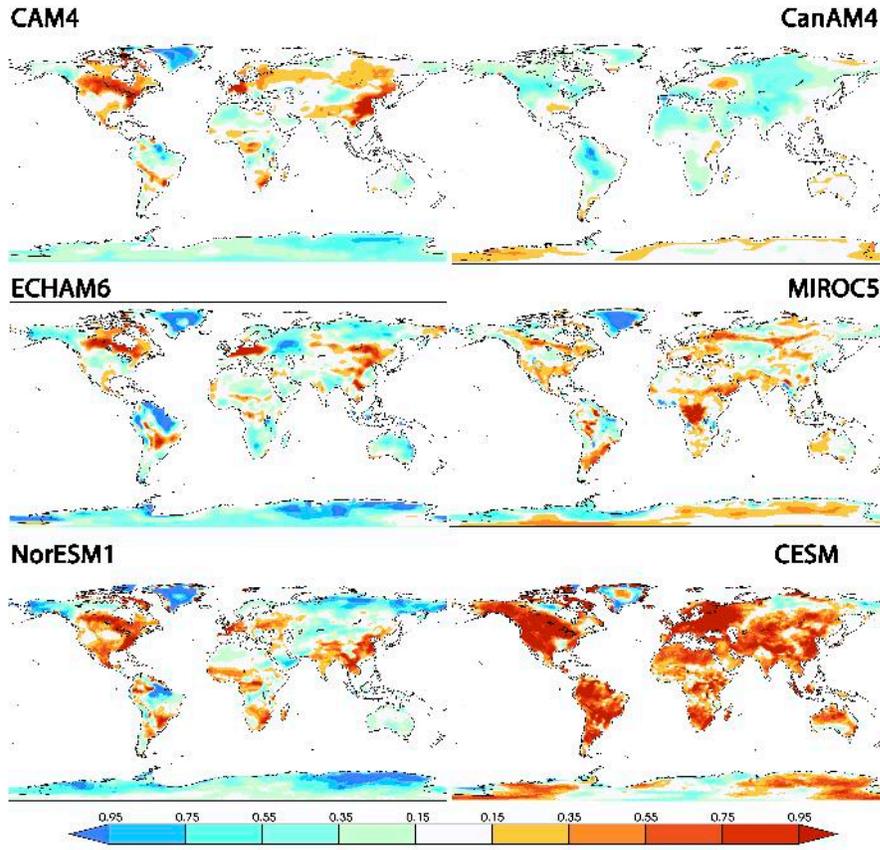
397
398 The HAPPI experimental protocol was designed to explore roughly equal
399 increments of global warming with experiments of the present day, approximately
400 1°C above preindustrial temperatures, compared to 1.5°C and 2°C above that
401 reference value. However, comparing the changes between the 1.5°C stabilization
402 and present day to the changes between the 2.0°C and 1.5°C stabilizations reveals
403 profound differences across models in the pattern of warming, both in mean and
404 extreme temperatures. This is traceable in part to the unconstrained nature of the
405 aerosol forcings. Models vary in their response to aerosol forcing, especially in the
406 so-called “indirect” effect involving feedbacks with cloud nucleation processes.
407 However, more relevant to temperature extremes are that some models prescribed
408 atmospheric aerosol concentrations while others prescribed aerosols emissions. In
409 the former case, aerosol concentrations are slowly varying and independent of the
410 local meteorology. In the latter case, aerosol concentrations interact with the
411 meteorology and can be considerably larger than their climatological averages
412 during the stagnant conditions often associated with certain types of heat waves.
413 Higher aerosol concentrations lead to greater atmospheric reflectivity reducing
414 temperatures during such heat waves. In the RCP2.6, emissions of sulfate aerosols
415 are significantly reduced compared to the present day. Hence, the type of aerosol
416 treatment can affect magnitudes of the changes in simulated *TX3x* return values.
417 Relative to the non-industrial MIROC5 simulations, present day heat waves are
418 suppressed in eastern Asia and other areas where sulfate aerosol emissions are
419 currently high. As aerosol emissions in the stabilization scenarios are reduced from
420 present day levels, changes in heat waves are larger in these regions because of this
421 suppression. This is a possible explanation of some of the differences between
422 simulated *TX3x* return values in the stabilized scenario compared to the present
423 day. On the other hand, aerosol forcing in the two stabilizations scenarios are the
424 same leading to a more controlled comparison of the effects of increased
425 greenhouse gases. As a result, the **differences** between stabilization scenarios **in**
426 **extreme temperature changes shown** in figure 4 are less spatially heterogeneous
427 and more similar between models than changes relative to the present day (figures
428 1 and 3).

429
430 This relative uniformity in figure 4 suggests that pattern scaling of extreme
431 temperature changes in models in the CMIP5 (Coupled Model Intercomparison
432 Project) forced by the RCP2.6 forcings to the 1.5°C stabilization target may be an
433 appropriate method to accurately estimate changes in extreme temperatures.
434 However, relating changes in average hot season temperatures to changes in long
435 period return values of *TX3x* is difficult in the low warming stabilization scenarios
436 considered here. Figure 6 shows the difference between changes in 20 year return
437 values of *TX3x* and **changes in** hot season average temperatures for the 2.0°C
438 stabilization scenario relative to the historical period. There is no clear relationship
439 across models between changes in the middle of the temperature distribution to
440 changes in the tail. For instance, CanAM4 exhibits smaller changes in the *TX3x*

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442 return values than in the hot season average. The couple model, CESM, exhibits the
443 opposite behavior. The other four HAPPI models are mixed with some regions
444 exhibiting greater changes in extreme temperatures but other regions exhibiting
445 lesser changes. The exaggerated effects on extreme temperatures of aerosol forcing
446 changes would tend to lead to larger changes in extreme temperature than for hot
447 season temperatures in the prescribed aerosol emission models since RCP2.6
448 reduces aerosol forcing. Hence, this mechanism may be partly responsible for the
449 heterogeneities in East Asia and the Congo of figure 6 but is not likely a factor for the
450 heterogeneities in North America and Europe.
451



452
453 Figure 6: Differences between changes in 20 year return values of TX_{3x} and changes
454 in hot season average temperatures ($^{\circ}C$) in the 2.0 $^{\circ}C$ HAPPI simulations. Upper left:
455 CAM4. Upper right: CanAM4. Middle left: ECHAM6. Middle right: MIROC5. Lower
456 left: NorESM1. Lower right: CESM
457

458 Land surface feedbacks offer another mechanism for different patterns of hot
459 season and extreme temperature changes. Evaporative cooling fueled by surface soil
460 moisture can locally reduce surface air temperatures (Seneviratne et al. 2010).
461 However, as the supply of surface soil moisture is limited, such temperature
462 reductions by evaporative cooling are also limited (Vogel et al 2017). Hence during
463 extended periods without rain, dry conditions can enhance extreme high
464 temperatures. If this mechanism were important, one would expect changes in
465 extreme temperatures to be larger than average hot season temperature in regions
466 with moderate amounts of hot season rainfall.

467
468 Both the aerosol forcing and land surface feedback mechanisms would lead to
469 locally larger changes in extreme temperature compared to hot season
470 temperatures. We note that both mechanisms are diminished as greenhouse gas
471 forcing increases past those imposed by the HAPPI protocols. A physical mechanism
472 for the smaller extreme temperature changes in figure 6 is not readily apparent
473 although changes in large scale circulation are certainly a possibility (Koster et al
474 2014). Also, Fischer and Schär (2009) found a lengthening of the summer season in
475 parts of Europe that could also raise the average seasonal temperature more than
476 short duration extremes. In any event, we discount the possibility that these regions
477 of smaller extreme temperature changes are a result of statistical uncertainties due
478 to the large number of HAPPI realization in each ensemble.

479
480 The lack of a clear relationship in these models between hot season and extreme
481 temperature changes **would seem to contradict** that found by Seneviratne et al.
482 (2016) who found an approximately linear relationship between average regional
483 changes in TXx and changes in annual global mean temperature with slopes greater
484 than unity (i.e. extremes change more than the global mean). In general, we feel that
485 comparison of changes in very hot days to hot season average temperature changes
486 is more instructive than comparison to annual mean temperature changes in order
487 to more isolate relevant physical mechanisms of changes. For instance, changes in
488 albedo due to snowmelt may cause larger winter temperature changes than
489 temperature changes in other seasons. However, the methods used to draw
490 conclusions from our study and Seneviratne et al. (2016) are too dissimilar to reveal
491 contradiction. Figure 6 shows a relationship between local temperatures for
492 individual models, while the results in Seneviratne et al. (2016) are a multi-model
493 re-expression of transient extreme temperature changes in terms of global mean
494 temperature instead of either time or greenhouse gas forcing.

495 496 **Conclusions**

497 Climate model experiments with identically prescribed sea surface temperature
498 (SST) and sea ice concentration such as presented here have a computational
499 advantage that permits large number of realizations enabling precise statistical
500 description of extreme temperatures. However, the limited number of models
501 participating in the HAPPI experiment does not sample the model structural
502 uncertainty as fully as the CMIP5 database of coupled models and the spread in
503 results presented here should not be interpreted as a complete representation of

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508 the uncertainty in extreme temperature changes stabilized scenarios. Nonetheless,
509 although there is some amplification of extreme temperature differences relative to
510 average hot season temperature differences between the 1.5°C and 2.0°C
511 stabilization targets, this amplification does not appear to be dramatic.

512

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531

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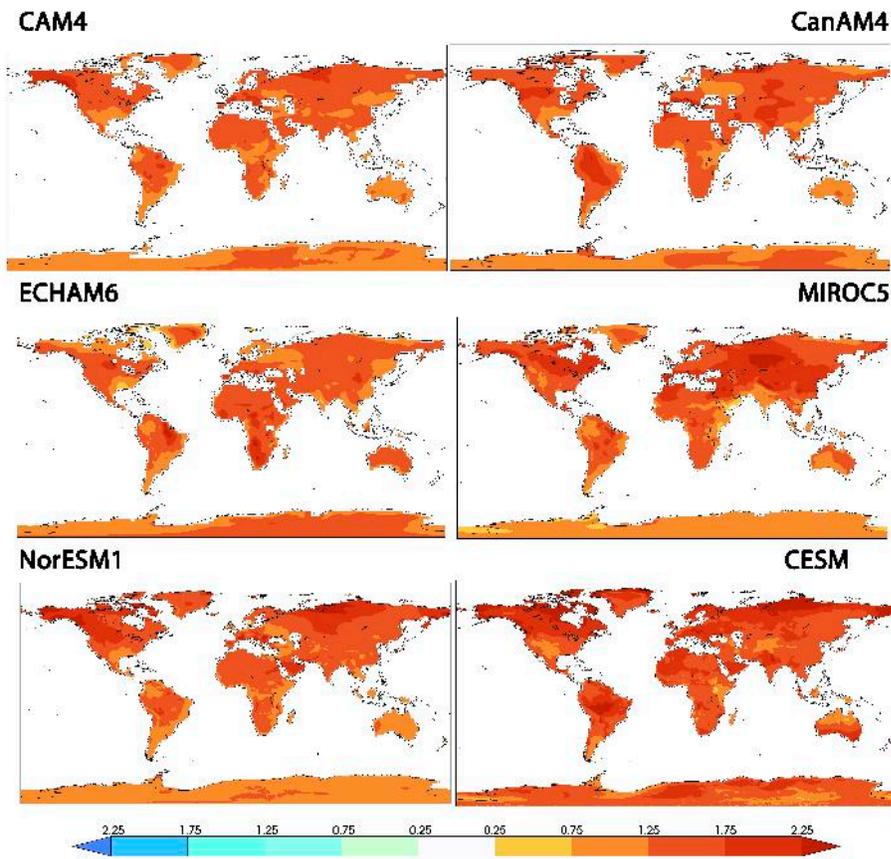
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707 | Appendix

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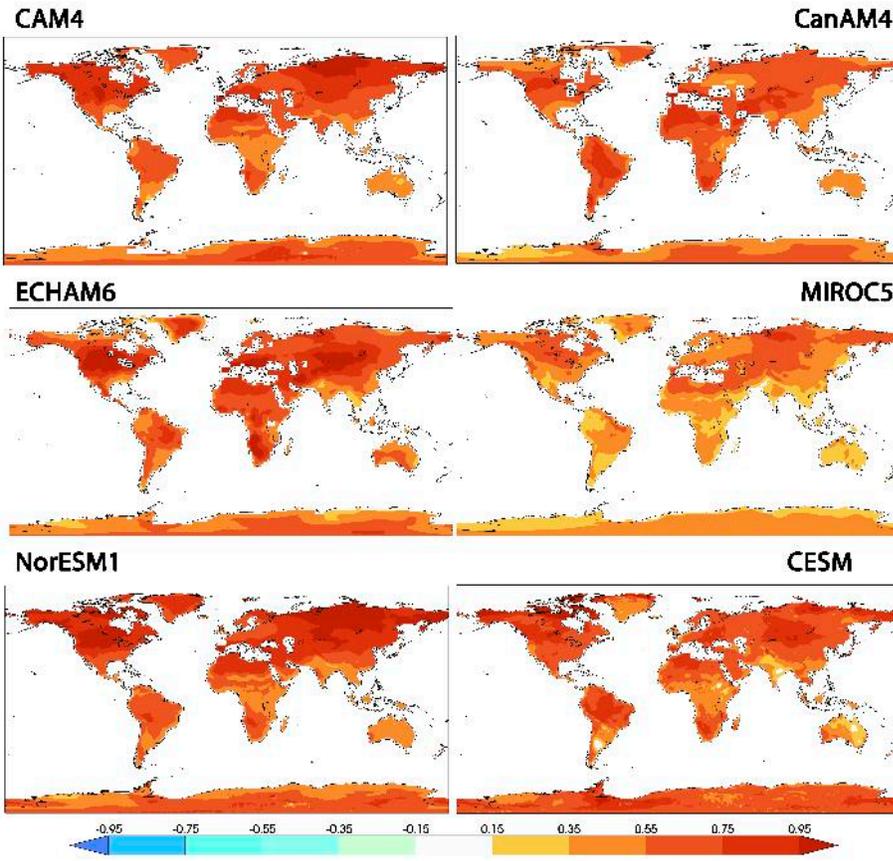


709

710 | Figure A1. Differences in average hot season surface air temperature (°C) between
711 | the 2.0°C and present day HAPPI simulations. Upper left: CAM4. Upper right:
712 | CanAM4. Middle left: ECHAM6. Middle right: MIROC5. Lower left: NorESM1. Lower
713 | Right: CESM.

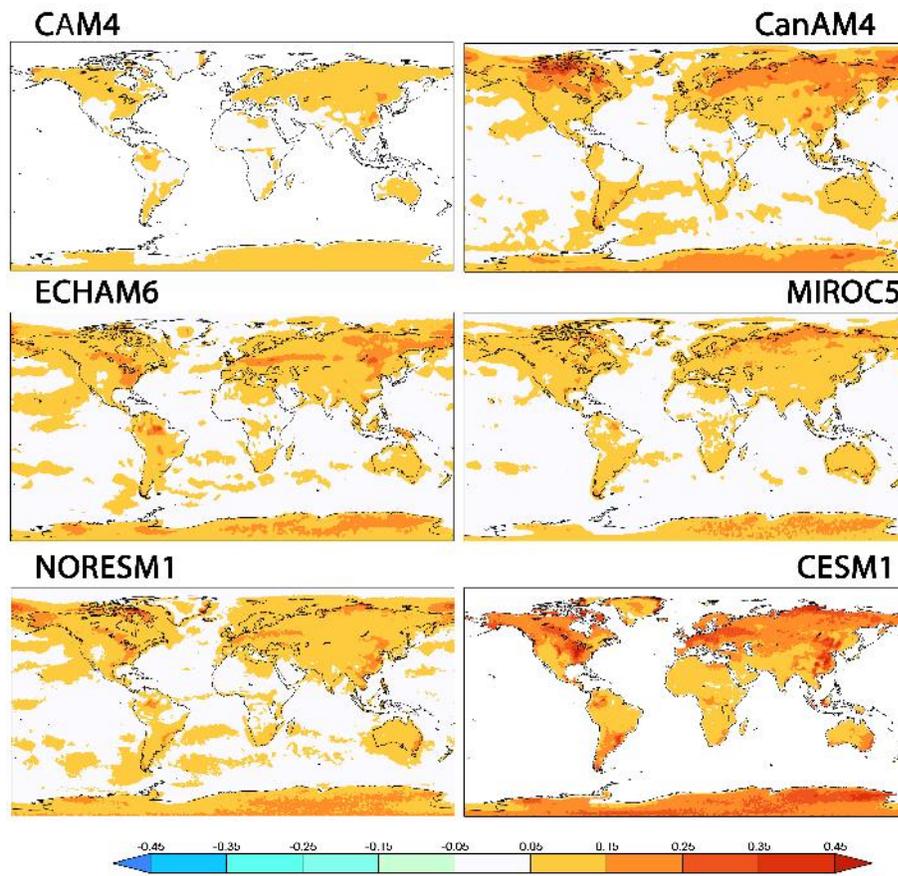
714

715



716
 717 Figure A2: Differences in average hot season surface air temperature (°C) between
 718 the 2.0°C and 1.5°C HAPPI simulations. Upper left: CAM4. Upper right: CanAM4.
 719 Middle left: ECHAM6. Middle right: MIROC5. Lower left: NorESM1. Lower Right:
 720 CESM.
 721
 722

Michael Wehner 1/29/2018 2:32 PM
 Deleted: 2.0°C



724
 725 **Figure A3: Standard error estimates of 20 year return values of TX_{3x} (°C) in**
 726 **the 1.5°C or 2.0°C HAPPI simulations. Upper left: CAM4. Upper right: CanAM4.**
 727 **Middle left: ECHAM6. Middle right: MIROC5. Lower left: NorESM1. Lower Right.**
 728 **CESM.**

