Quantifying the sources of spread in climate change

² experiments

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D R A F T

June 26, 2012, 10:35am

Energy-balance models (EBM) constitute a useful framework for summa-3 rizing the first-order physical properties driving the magnitude of the global 4 mean surface air temperature response to an externally imposed radiative 5 perturbation. Here the contributions of these properties to the spread of the 6 temperature responses of an ensemble of coupled Atmosphere-Ocean Gen-7 eral Circulation Models (AOGCM) of the fifth phase of the Coupled Model 8 Intercomparison Project (CMIP5) are evaluated within the framework of a 9 state-of-the-art EBM. These partial contributions are quantified (in equilib-10 rium and transient conditions) using the analysis of variance method. The 11 radiative properties, particularly the strength of the radiative feedback to 12 the global equilibrium surface warming, appear to constitute the most pri-13 mary source of the spread. 14

1. Introduction

The equilibrium climate sensitivity ECS (the equilibrium mean surface air tempera-15 ture response to a doubling of carbon dioxide concentration) and the transient climate 16 response TCR (the temperature response at the time of $2xCO_2$ in a 1% y^{-1} CO₂ increase 17 experiment) are two metrics commonly used in climate model analysis and climate change 18 study. The spread in their AOGCM estimates remains large from one phase of the CMIP 19 project to another [Meehl and Coauthors, 2007]. The identification of the key mecha-20 nisms responsible for this spread and the quantification of their contributions constitute 21 a necessary step in the improvement of climate change understanding and modeling. 22

For a given externally imposed radiative perturbation, the first-order transient surface 23 temperature response is driven by two main properties of the climate system: the strength 24 of the radiative response and the ocean thermal inertia Dickinson, 1981; Hansen et al., 25 1984; Wigley and Schlesinger, 1985; Knutti and Hegerl, 2008]. Previous studies, based on 26 individual model or multimodel analysis, attempted to estimate the role of these properties 27 in the spread of AOGCMs responses. Multimodel studies have shown that the strength 28 of the radiative feedback due to the cloud component constitutes the primary source 29 of differences in the equilibrium temperature response Soden and Held, 2006; Dufresne 30 and Bony, 2008]. By decomposing the transient temperature response into the sum of 31 contributions due to the Planck response, the forcing magnitude, the radiative feedbacks 32 and the ocean heat uptake, Dufresne and Bony [2008] concluded that the main contributor 33 to the spread in the TCR is the cloud feedback. Such conclusion is supported by individual 34

DRAFT

June 26, 2012, 10:35am

model studies suggesting that the atmosphere component is the major source of differences 35 of transient responses (e.g. Williams et al. [2001]; Meehl et al. [2004]; Collins et al. [2007]). 36 However, by analyzing the inter-model correlation between the transient surface tem-37 perature response, the ECS and the mixing layer depth at high latitudes, Boé et al. [2009] 38 suggested that the role of the deep-ocean heat uptake has been underestimated. The 39 source of the spread of the transient responses is thus a topic of debate. Moreover, these 40 studies are limited in two ways. First, they do not provide a quantitative estimate of 41 the magnitude of the different contributions to the spread. Secondly, some key processes 42 that can contribute significantly to the spread are not taken into account, mainly the 43 tropospheric adjustment of the radiative forcing [Gregory and Webb, 2008; Colman and 44 McAvaney, 2011] and the possible change in the global feedback strength during the tran-45 sition due to the impact of the deep-ocean heat uptake on the spatial structure of the 46 surface temperature pattern [Winton et al., 2010; Geoffroy et al., 2012b, thereafter G12b]. 47 To overcome these two main limitations, the use of a state-of-the-art energy-balance 48 framework and a suitable statistical method are combined in order to investigate the 49 different contributions of each climate system parameter/property to the spread in the 50 responses of a given set of AOGCMs. After a presentation of the EBM framework (Section 51 2), the statistical method is described (Section 3). This method is applied to 14 CMIP5 52 AOGCMs and results are presented and discussed in Section 4. 53

2. Two-box EBM framework

The two-box energy-balance model with an efficacy factor of deep-ocean heat uptake (hereafter EBM- ε) predicts the time-evolution of the mean surface air temperature re-

DRAFT

⁵⁶ sponse T and the deep-ocean temperature response T_0 to an external radiative perturba-⁵⁷ tion according to the following system of equations [Held et al., 2010, G12b]:

$$C\frac{dT}{dt} = \mathcal{F} - \lambda T - \varepsilon \gamma (T - T_0), \qquad (1)$$

$$C_0 \frac{dT_0}{dt} = \gamma (T - T_0). \tag{2}$$

In this framework, the climate system is described by 3 radiative parameters, the forcing reference amplitude (such as \mathcal{F}_{2xCO_2}), the equilibrium feedback parameter λ and the efficacy factor of deep-ocean heat uptake ε , and 3 thermal-inertia parameters, the first-layer (atmosphere/land/upper-ocean) surfacic heat capacity C, the second-layer (deep-ocean) surfacic heat capacity C_0 and the heat exchange coefficient between the two layers γ .

Geoffroy et al. [2012a] (thereafter G12a) and G12b propose a calibration method to 66 derive these 6 thermal parameters from an AOGCM step-forcing experiment. They show 67 that this simple model represents fairly the transient response of a given AOGCM to a 68 gradual increase of CO₂. The use of the EBM- ε framework has several advantages. First, 69 all parameters are adjusted consistently within a single framework. Then, the inclusion 70 of the efficacy factor of deep-ocean heat uptake ε allows a refined representation of the 71 radiative imbalance evolution likely resulting in a better estimation of the parameters 72 driving the transient climate change. Thus one can assume that the set of thermal pa-73 rameters derived by this method can be used to quantify the contribution to the spread 74 of the transient temperature responses simulated by a set of AOGCMs. 75

In the following of this section, a "process-oriented" decomposition of the transient surface temperature response is proposed. This decomposition allows to quantify the contributions of each process to the magnitude of the response and provides an insight of

DRAFT

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the different mechanisms responsible for the spread of T(t). As shown in G12b, the 79 surface temperature response can be decomposed as the sum of three contributions: 80 $T(t) = T_{eq}(t) + T_D(t) + T_U(t)$. The first term is the instantaneous equilibrium tem-81 perature $T_{eq}(t) = \mathcal{F}(t)/\lambda$. The remaining contribution $T_U + T_D$ is the temperature per-82 turbation associated with the climate system heat uptake T_H [Winton et al., 2010, G12a, 83 b] where T_U and T_D are the temperature perturbations associated respectively with the 84 upper- and the deep-ocean heat uptake [G12b]. More precisely, T_D can be decomposed 85 as the sum of two contributions, $T_D^{\lambda}(t) = T_D(t)/\varepsilon$ representing the flux to deep ocean 86 and $T_D^d(t) = T_D(t)(1-1/\varepsilon)$ representing the impact of the deep-ocean heat uptake on 87 the radiative imbalance due to the modification of the temperature pattern. The four 88 terms involved in this decomposition allows to distinguish the thermal fluxes at play in 89 the energy balance when associated with the scale factor λ . The sum $T_H^{\lambda} = T_U + T_D^{\lambda}$ 90 represents the instantaneous rate of heat storage of the climate system, $-\lambda T_H^{\lambda}$ being the 91 top-of-the-atmosphere radiation imbalance. The contribution T_D^d is a deviation from T_{eq} 92 due to the effect of the deep-ocean heat uptake on the strength of the radiative feedbacks 93 during the transition. The sum $T_{eq} + T_D^d$ can be viewed as an apparent instantaneous 94 equilibrium surface temperature during the transition. 95

For the 14 CMIP5 AOGCMs listed in Table S1 in the auxiliary material, the multimodel mean of the calibrated analytical surface temperature response in the 1% y^{-1} CO₂ increase experiment and its decomposition in T_{eq} , T_U , T_D^{λ} , and T_D^d are plotted in Fig. 1. For comparison, the multimodel mean of the AOGCMs temperature responses is also represented. The difference with the analytical solution is small (which is also the case for

DRAFT

individual model) supporting that the EBM framework is suitable for the present study. 101 Note that this bias decreases during the second half of the simulations (period 70-140) 102 yr from $2xCO_2$ to $4xCO_2$). The TCR and the ECS are respectively of the order of 2 K 103 and 3.5 K. The inter-model standard deviation of the ECS (about 1 K) is larger than 104 the standard deviation of the TCR (about 0.4 K) because the ocean heat uptake reduces 105 the spread [Raper et al., 2002]. This results from the dependancy between T_{eq} and the 106 negative contribution T_H . In particular, both are scaled by a factor $1/\lambda$. The term T_H 107 is dominated by the deep-ocean heat uptake temperature representing the flux to deep 108 ocean T_D^{λ} , with an ensemble mean amplitude of -1 K. The mean amplitude of T_D^d is as 109 large as the mean amplitude of T_U with a value of about -0.3 K but is associated with 110 a larger spread, suggesting a non negligible role of the efficacy factor of deep-ocean heat 111 uptake to the spread. 112

The decomposition of the transient surface temperature response presented here is dif-113 ferent from the one of Dufresne and Bony [2008]. Their decomposition is expressed with 114 respect to the Planck feedback parameter λ_P rather than λ . Considering that λ_P is 115 roughly model independent, the spread of each term is then associated with one parame-116 ter only (within the framework of a one-box EBM) but depends also on T. Because these 117 terms are not a priori independent, their respective variance cannot be simply added, and 118 the resulting decomposition may be misleading. A more accurate quantification of the 119 contribution of each physical parameter to the spread of the temperature responses may 120 be derived based on the statistical method described in the next section. 121

DRAFT

June 26, 2012, 10:35am

3. Statistical method

¹²² The contribution of each thermal property to the spread of the multimodel global surface ¹²³ warming in the 1% y^{-1} CO₂ experiment is investigated via a multifactor analysis of ¹²⁴ variance (e.g. Christensen, 1996, p.331). The parameters driving a transient climate ¹²⁵ change are assumed to be the 6 parameters of the EBM- ε . The transient temperature ¹²⁶ response *T* is a time-dependant function of these 6 parameters:

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$$T = f(\mathcal{F}_{2\mathrm{xCO}_2}, \lambda, \gamma, C, C_0, \varepsilon).$$
(3)

The function f is assumed to be the analytical solution of the EBM- ε described in G12b. For each of the 14 AOGCMs used in this study, the calibrated values of the 6 parameters are summarized in Table S1.

In order to estimate the contribution of each parameter to the spread of T, we need to allow each parameter to vary individually. For this purpose, an ensemble of $N_0 =$ 14^6 values of the temperature response $\{T_{i,j,k,l,m,n}\}$ is computed at each time step by considering all possible combinations of the AOGCM parameters:

$$T_{i,j,k,l,m,n} = f(\mathcal{F}_{2\mathbf{x}CO_2,i}, \lambda_j, \gamma_k, C_l, C_{0,m}, \varepsilon_n).$$
(4)

¹³⁶ where the subscript *i* denotes that the forcing parameter value is the one of the *i*th ¹³⁷ AOGCM and similarly for *j*, *k*, *l*, *m*, *n*. The use of the all-parameter combinations en-¹³⁸ semble { $T_{i,j,k,l,m,n}$ } assumes that the parameters are independent which is roughly the ¹³⁹ case except potentially for *C* and γ [G12b], but *C* does not play an important role, as it ¹⁴⁰ will be shown in the following. Also, a dependency between ε and T_{eq} (i.e. \mathcal{F}/λ) may exist. ¹⁴¹ Following the analysis of variance method, *T* is decomposed in the sum of one-variable

DRAFT June 26, 2012, 10:35am DRAFT

142 functions:

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¹⁴³
$$T = f_0 + f_1(\mathcal{F}_{2xCO_2}) + f_2(\lambda) + f_3(\varepsilon) + f_4(C)$$

$$+f_5(C_0)+f_6(\gamma)+I(\mathcal{F}_{2\mathrm{xCO}_2},\lambda,\varepsilon,C,C_0,\gamma),$$

(5)

where I is an interaction term (including first-order interactions, second-order, etc). This decomposition is exact but I is potentially significant. The best approximation of T over the set of values considered is then obtained by computing, from the $\{T_{i,j,k,l,m,n}\}$, the mean value $\hat{f}_0 = \overline{T}$, the function \hat{f}_1 such that:

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$$\widehat{f}_{1}(\mathcal{F}_{2xCO_{2},i}) = \frac{1}{N_{2} \dots N_{6}} \sum_{j,k,l,m,n} (T_{i,j,k,l,m,n} - \overline{T}), \qquad (6)$$

and similarly, the functions \hat{f}_2 to \hat{f}_6 , where N_1, \ldots, N_6 denotes respectively the number of values taken by the parameters $\mathcal{F}, \ldots, \varepsilon$ (in our case, $N_1 = \cdots = N_6 = 14$). The interaction term I can then be estimated as a residual from Eq. (5).

The variance Var(T) of the ensemble $\{T_{i,j,k,l,m,n}\}$ can be decomposed as the following:

$$Var(T) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i,j,k,l,m,n} (T_{i,j,k,l,m,n} - \overline{T})^2$$

¹⁵⁶
$$Var(T) = \frac{1}{N_1} \sum_{i} \widehat{f}_1 (\mathcal{F}_{2xCO_2,i})^2 + \dots$$

157

$$+ \frac{1}{N_6} \sum_n \widehat{f_6}(\varepsilon_n)^2 + Var(I), \tag{7}$$

$$Var(T) = (\hat{c}_{\mathcal{F}} + \dots + \hat{c}_{\varepsilon} + \hat{c}_I)Var(T),$$
(8)

where \hat{c}_x denotes the estimated contribution of the parameter x to the variance of $\{T_{i,j,k,l,m,n}\}$:

$$\widehat{c}_x = \frac{1}{Var(T)} \frac{1}{N_x} \sum_i \left[\frac{1}{N_y \dots N_z} \sum_{j \dots n} \left(T_{i,j,k,l,m,n} - \overline{T} \right) \right]^2$$
(9)

¹⁶³ Note that the term \hat{c}_I is somewhat more complicated and not explicitly written here (see ¹⁶⁴ e.g. Christensen, 1996). In the case of two models, the present method is equivalent to

the factorial method [Montgomery, 2005] used by Teller and Levin [2008] to evaluate the
 relative contributions of thermodynamic conditions and microphysical characteristics to
 variations in precipitation.

4. Contributions of the physical parameters.

The frequency distributions of the TCR and the ECS obtained for all-parameter com-168 binations ensemble (14^6 elements for the TCR and 14^2 elements for the ECS) are shown 169 in Fig. 2. Both distributions are highly skewed with a long tail due to the non linear 170 relationship between the climate sensitivity and the feedback factor Knutti and Hegerl, 171 2008]. The time-evolution of the variance of the inter-model and of the all-parameter com-172 binations ensemble for T(t) and $T_{eq}(t)$ is represented in Fig. 3a. The variance of $T_{eq}(t)$ 173 increases as a square function of time and roughly similarly for T(t). In each case, the 174 spread of the all-parameter combinations ensemble is larger than the inter-model spread 175 (see also Fig. 2). Nevertheless, the all-parameter combinations variances Var(T) and 176 $Var(T_{eq})$ (e.g. respectively 1.15 K² and 5.87 K² at 4xCO₂) are well within the 5-95% 177 confidence interval of their respective inter-model spread (respectively 0.42 to 1.6 K² and 178 2.54 to 9.60 K^2 at 4xCO₂). Figure 3b,c show the time-evolution of the contributions 179 associated with the thermal parameters and the interaction term to the spread of T(t). 180 Note that the contributions to $T_{eq}(t)$ do not vary in time. The magnitude of the different 181 contributions to the TCR and the ECS are summarized in Fig. 3d. The interaction term 182 explains about 3 % and 1 % of the spread respectively of the TCR and of the ECS. These 183 low values suggest that the analysis of variance decomposition is accurate to quantify the 184 contributions to the spread in the responses. 185

DRAFT

The equilibrium temperature response is a function of the adjusted radiative forcing 186 and the equilibrium radiative feedback parameter only. Their respective contributions to 187 the spread of the ECS are respectively of 12% and 87%. The inter-model spread of the 188 radiative feedback parameter is by far the main contributor to the spread of the ECS. 189 Many studies suggest that the spread of λ is due to the cloud feedback [Soden and Held, 190 2006; Dufresne and Bony, 2008]. The methodology presented here could be extended 191 to quantify the contribution of each independent radiative feedback (water vapor plus 192 lapse rate, cloud and surface albedo) by using a decomposition of the global radiative 193 feedback parameter. Similarly, a decomposition of the adjusted radiative forcing could be 194 performed in order to evaluate the contribution of fast adjustments to the spread. 195

During the transition, the total contribution of \mathcal{F}_{2xCO_2} and λ is reduced due to the 196 role of the other parameters. After few decades, λ remains the main contributor to the 197 spread, but less strongly than in equilibrium, with a value of 54 % at the time of 2xCO₂. 198 On the contrary, the transient contribution of \mathcal{F}_{2xCO_2} is enhanced in comparison with the 199 equilibrium one. It decreases with time and reach a value of the order of 28 % after 70 200 years of simulations. This emphasizes the importance of the forcing magnitude during a 201 climate transition and the uncertainty associated with the tropospheric adjustment. The 202 efficacy ε is the third factor that contributes most to the TCR spread with a 2xCO₂ value 203 of 10 %. This support Winton et al. [2010]'s finding that ε needs to be taken into account 204 in EBM studies. Finally, the spread of the TCR is mostly due to the radiative parameters 205 λ , \mathcal{F}_{2xCO_2} and ε with a total value of about 92 %. Note that they are also the main 206

DRAFT

June 26, 2012, 10:35am

²⁰⁷ contributors to the spread of T_U , T_D^{λ} and T_U^d (not shown). The efficacy ε is the main ²⁰⁸ contributor for T_D^d whereas the spread of T_U and T_D^{λ} is mainly dominated by λ .

The contribution of γ is small, with a value of 4 % at 70 yr. The time-evolution of 209 its contribution is similar to the one of ε , both being associated with a common process, 210 the deep-ocean heat uptake. The contribution of C_0 increases in time and decreases back 211 after few centuries (not shown). This contribution is very small with a value of about 1 212 % at 70 yr. As expected, the contribution of C is negligible after few years. Indeed, T_U 213 contributes little to the magnitude of T and is characterized by a very small inter-model 214 spread. During the first years, for which the variance is negligible, the spread is mainly 215 explained by C and \mathcal{F}_{2xCO_2} . This may be due to the fact that initially, the temperature 216 tendency is equal to \mathcal{F}/C . Note that the contribution associated with ε , C_0 and C, even 217 if small for long (unrealistic) time-integration, doesn't tend towards 0 whereas the one 218 associated with γ does. Indeed, the asymptotic temperature response deviation associated 219 with the ocean heat uptake $T - T_{eq}$ is equal to $(C + \varepsilon C_0)/\lambda$ and is independent of γ . 220

5. Conclusion

In this paper, it is shown that the combination of an energy-balance framework and the analysis of variance method allows to quantify the sources of the spread in climate change experiments. Disregarding that radiative processes are not independent of ocean processes, our results strongly support that atmospheric processes constitute the major source of uncertainty in climate model projections. These uncertainties manifest themselves in several ways, primarily in the strength of the radiative feedbacks to the surface warming but also in the tropospheric adjustment and to a lesser extent in the strength

DRAFT

²²⁸ of the local radiative feedbacks in the region where the warming is slowed by deep-ocean ²²⁹ heat uptake relatively to other regions.

The results presented here are consistent with the conclusion of Dufresne and Bony 230 [2008]. They concur that the spread in the transient temperature response is mainly 231 due to the radiative feedbacks and thus clouds, secondly to the forcing and then to the 232 ocean heat uptake. Note that the method used in both studies are similar in the sense 233 that they are based on an energy-balance framework. However, contrary to Dufresne 234 and Bony [2008], the present study supports an increased importance of the role of the 235 adjusted radiative forcing as a contributor and a very low contribution of the ocean heat 236 uptake. The latter may be explained by the addition of the efficacy factor that damps 237 the previous estimates of the contributions associated with the heat exchange coefficient. 238 Finally, this study is consistent with the statement that the cloud field constitutes the most 239 critical component in climate modeling by introducing uncertainties at various spatial and 240 temporal scales. 241

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DRAFT

June 26, 2012, 10:35am

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June 26, 2012, 10:35am

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Figure 1. Time-evolution of the multimodel mean of the surface temperature response (thin black) of the 1% y^{-1} CO₂ increase experiment until the time of 2xCO₂ (70 yr), of the calibrated analytical surface temperature response (thick black) and its decomposition in $T_{eq}(t)$ (red), T_U (green), T_D^{λ} (purple) and T_D^d (blue). The vertical bars at right indicate the ±1 inter-model standard deviation for each variable at the time of 2xCO₂.



Figure 2. Probability density functions of the TCR (black) and the ECS (red) obtained for all combinations of the parameters of the set of AOGCMs. The vertical lines at bottom indicate the individual model analytical values of the TCR (black) and the ECS (red).



Figure 3. (a) Time-evolution of the variances of the multimodel analytical surface temperature response (black, dashed), and of the all-parameter combinations surface temperature response (black, solid) and equilibrium temperature response (red). Time-evolution (over 140 yr) of the contribution (%) to the spread of the transient surface temperature responses associated with (b) the radiative parameters \mathcal{F}_{2xCO_2} , λ , and ε and (c) the thermal inertia parameter C, C_0 and γ . The contribution of the interaction term is also plotted (dashed black line) on (c). (d) Contribution of each parameters and of the interaction term to the ECS and the TCR.

June 26, 2012, 10:35am