10th AIM Workshop, NIES, Japan: Mar 10-12, 2005

Approaches to Development of High Resolution Climate Change Scenarios for Integrated Impact Assessment

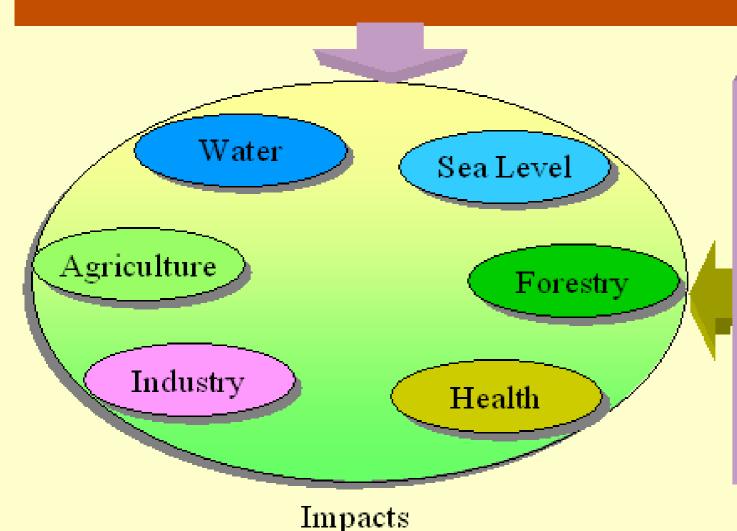
M. Lal

Pacific Centre for Environment & Sustainable Development The University of the South Pacific



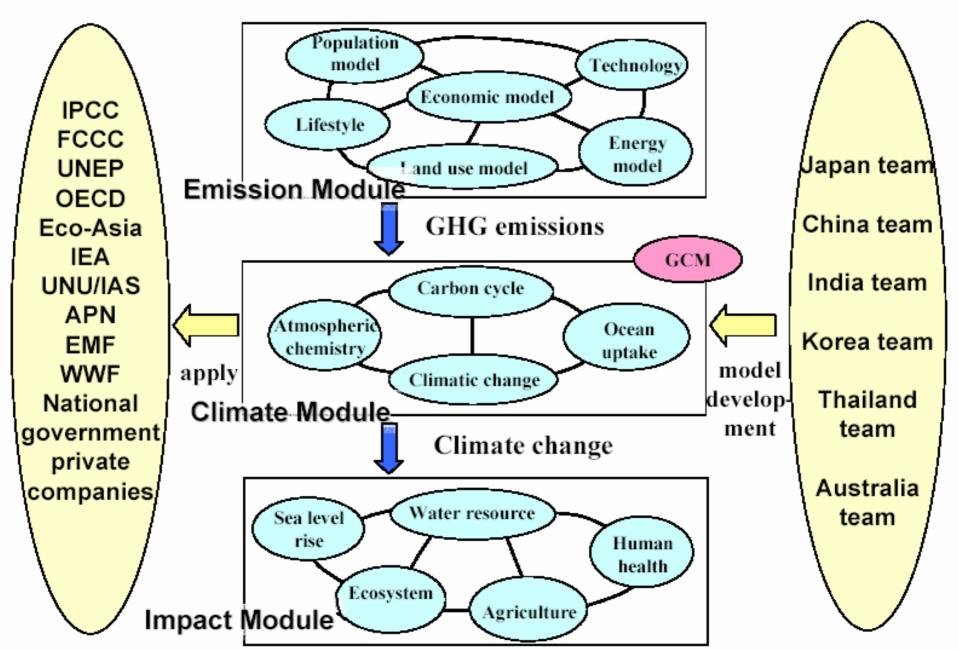


Climate Change Scenarios (Temperature, Precipitation and Extreme Events)

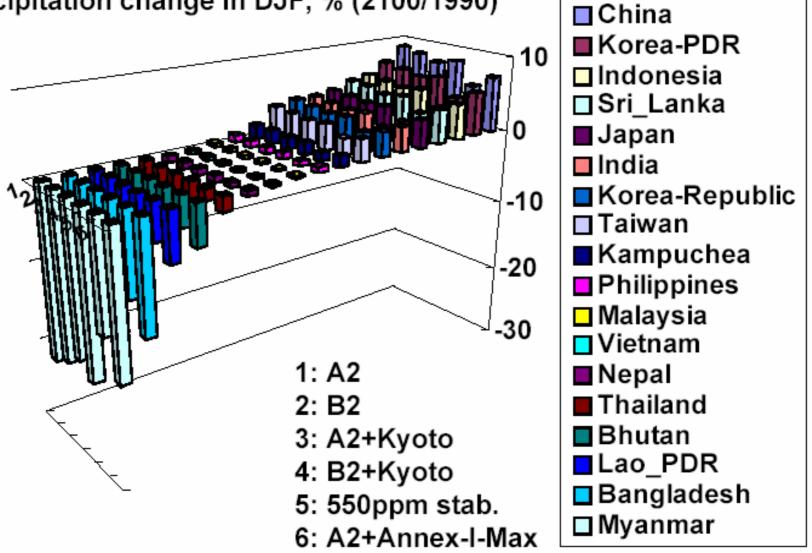


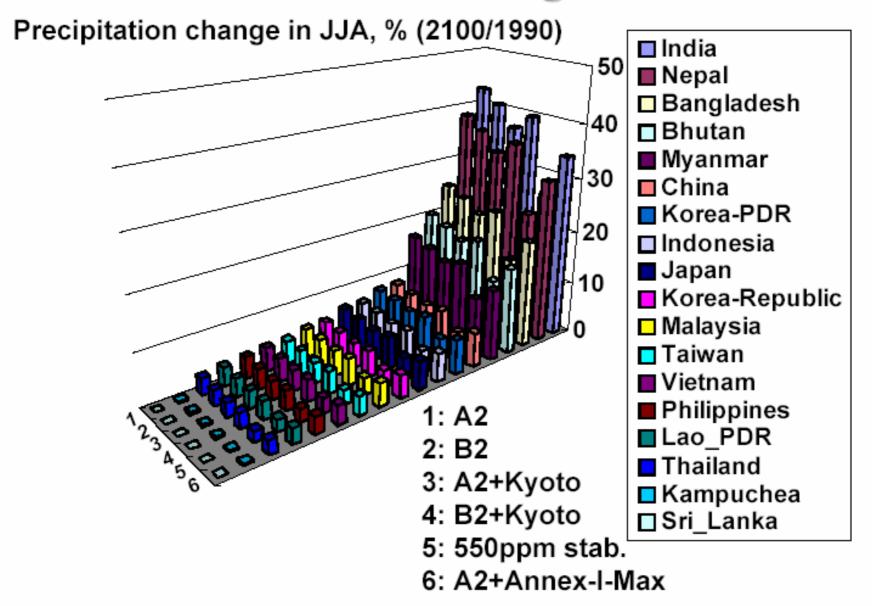
Socio-Economic Scenarios (in terms of future changes in Land use Economy, Population, governance)

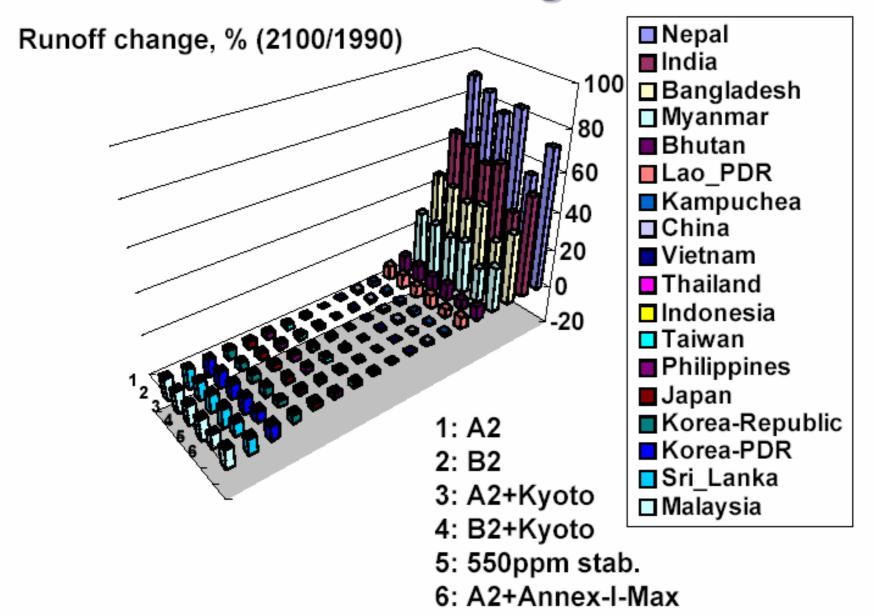
Outline of AIM for climate change analysis

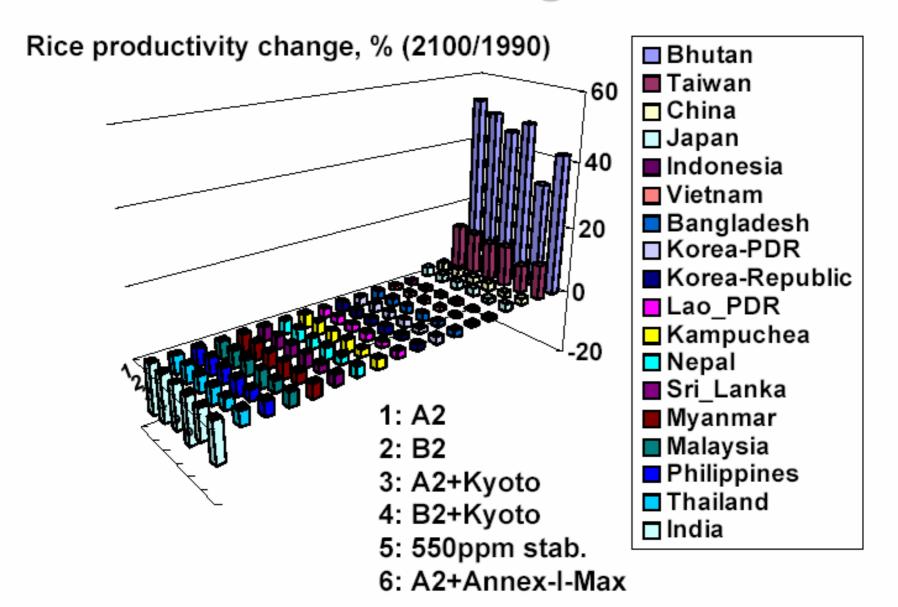


Precipitation change in DJF, % (2100/1990)









Obtaining <u>reliable projections</u> of climatic change at the regional scale is the <u>central issue</u> within the global change debate.

In order to assess the <u>social and</u> <u>environmental impacts of climate</u> <u>change</u> and to <u>develop suitable policies</u> <u>to respond to such impacts</u>, information about climate change is needed not only at a national level, but on a regional and local scale as well.

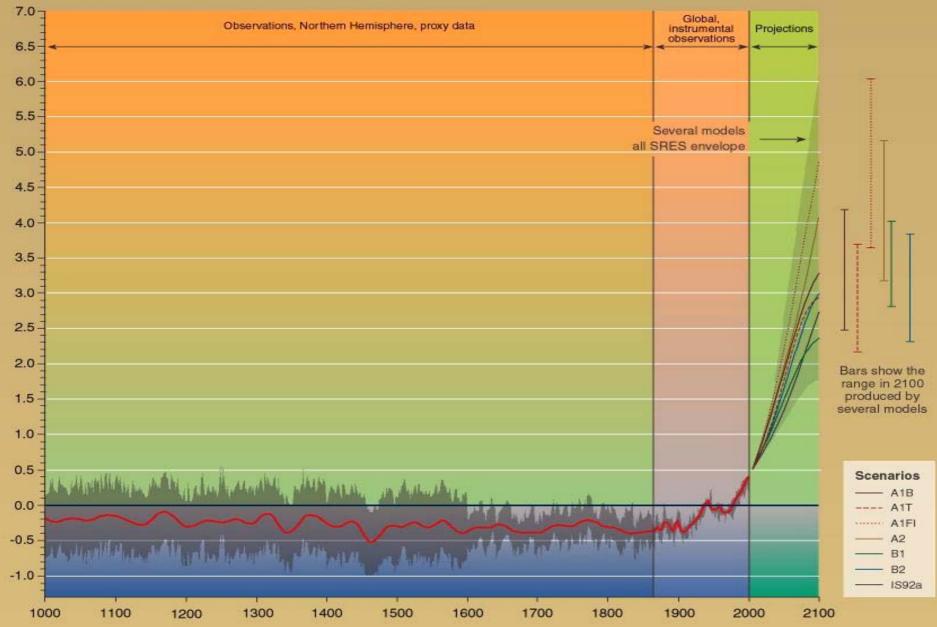
Future Climate Change Scenarios

The estimates of human induced global warming by the IPCC are based on the premise that the growth rate of atmospheric greenhouse gases will accelerate in the future.

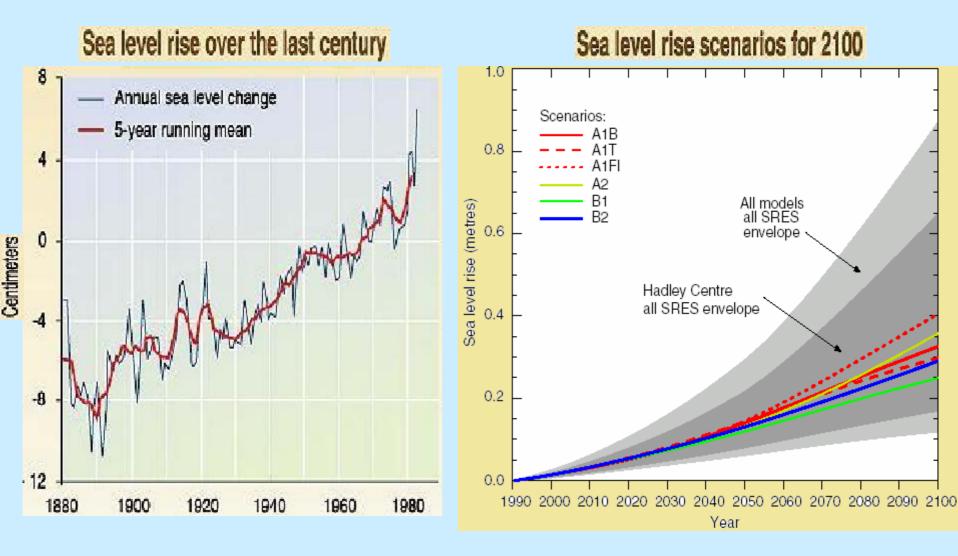
According to most recent estimates by IPCC, the <u>average global surface temperature is</u> <u>projected to **increase**</u> by between <u>1.4</u>° and 3° C above 1990 levels **by 2100** for low emission scenarios and between 2.5° and <u>5.8° C</u> for higher emission scenarios of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere.

Variations of the earth's surface temperature: 1000 to 2100

Departures in temperature in °C (from the 1961-1990 average)



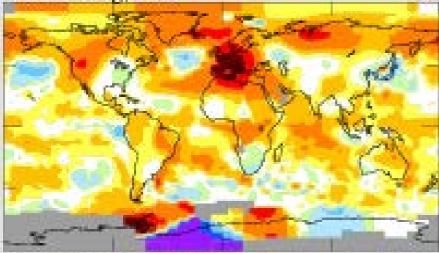
Sea level rise due to global warming

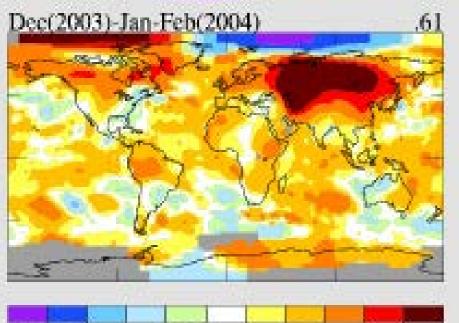


Seasonal Temperature Anomalies (°C) [Base Period 1951-80]

.47

Jun-Jul-Aug, 2003





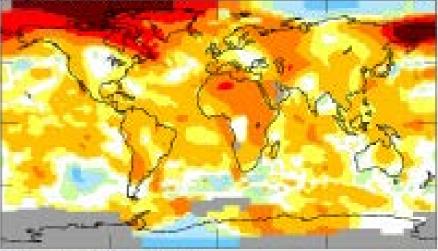
5

2

3

6 - i

Sep-Oct-Nov, 2003



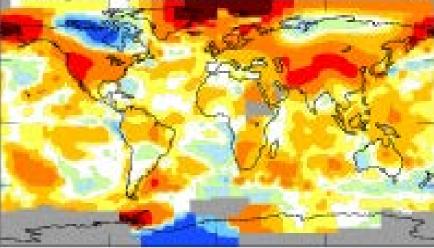
.58

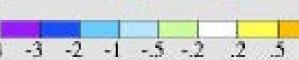
.48

3 4.7

2

Mar-Apr-May, 2004





1970-2003 Seasonal Temperature Trends (°C/decade)

.17

.8

-.8

 $1 \sim 1$

-5 -3

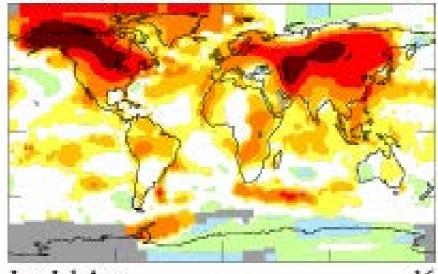
-2

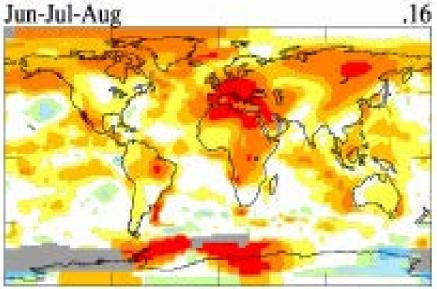
.5

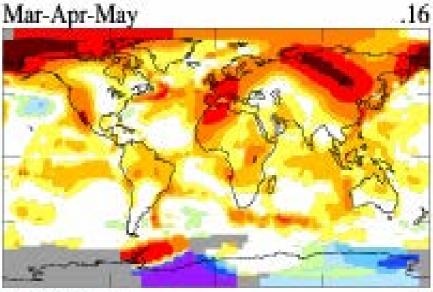
3

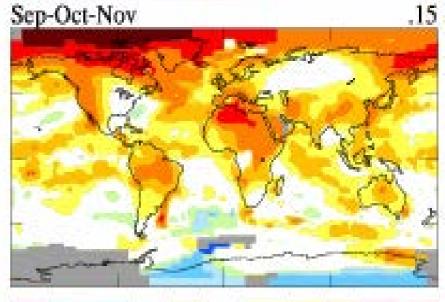
Dec(2002)-Jan-Feb(2003)

Mar-Apr-May









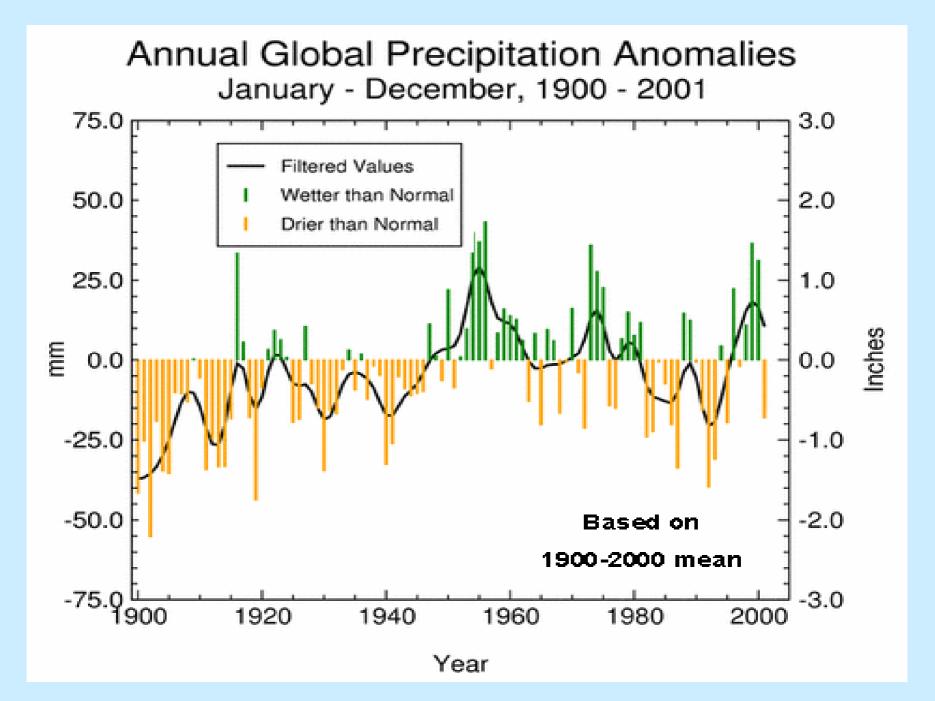
3

5

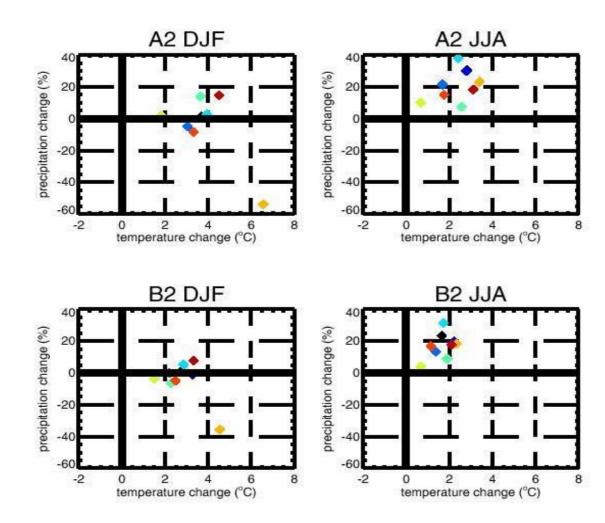
.8

-5 -3

-.2 -.1



INDIAN SUBCONTINENT Climate Change in 21st Century



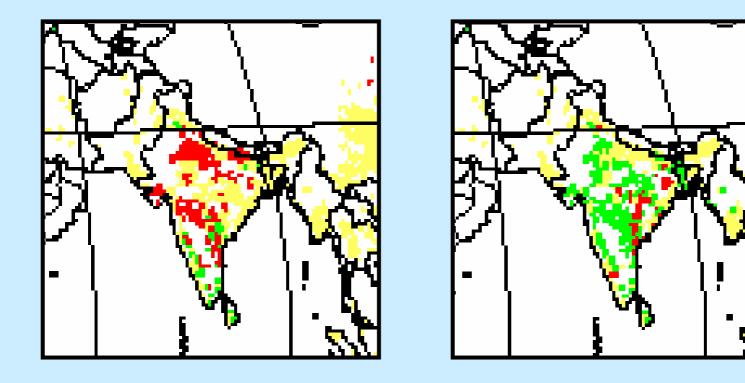
KEY to models



INFORMATION

The values are the changes between the end of the 20th (1961-90) and 21st (2070-99) centuries from 9 climate models reviewed by the IPCC.

Regional Pattern of Changes in Maize Yield by 2080s



Hadley Centre, UK

MPI, Germany

Yield forecasts due to inter-model variance in climate projections



Global climate modeling has undergone a steady development during the last three to four decades.

However, <u>current uncertainties</u> remain <u>very</u> <u>high</u> in the projection of regional climate change.

This is due to the complexity of the processes that determine regional climate change, and the need for more comprehensive modeling tools and research strategies to address this problem. Both topography and the land surface conditions strongly affect the surface climate change signal at scales smaller than the grid interval of A-O GCMs.

This implies that the information obtained from A-O GCMs needs to be <u>used cautiously</u> in studies of the impacts of climate change, particularly in regions that are characterized by pronounced variability in forcings on fine scales.

The <u>potentials and limitations</u> of different regionalisation techniques need to be well understood before they are applied to the construction of specific regional climate change scenarios. The primary tools today available to simulate long-term climate change are known as coupled A-O GCMs.

These are 3-D mathematical representations of the global atmosphere-ocean-sea ice system.

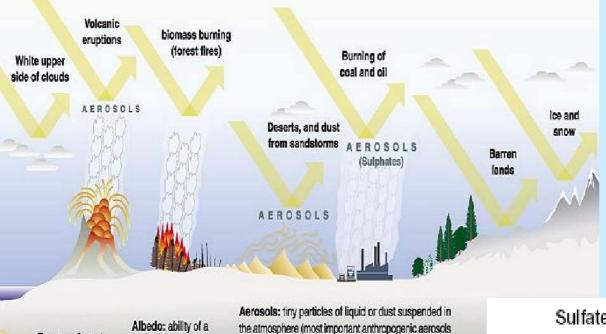
Limitations in computer power force the horizontal grid interval of present day A-O GCMs to be about a few hundred kilometres.

As a result, processes and atmospheric circulations occurring at smaller scales cannot be explicitly described.

None-the-less, current A-O GCMs have performed relatively well in reproducing many basic characteristics of the general circulation, such as major belts of precipitation in the tropics or the seasonal migration of midlatitude storm tracks.

These climate models have also shown some success in describing the El Niño Southern Oscillation and North Atlantic Oscillation phenomena and related teleconnection patterns, although significant improvements are still needed.

The cooling factors



is sulphate produced from SO₂)

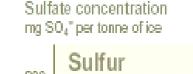
The smoke from biomass burning inhibits cloud formation in the tropics.

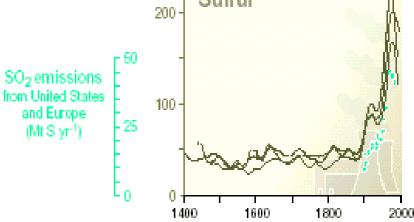
Sulfate aerosols deposited in Greenland ice

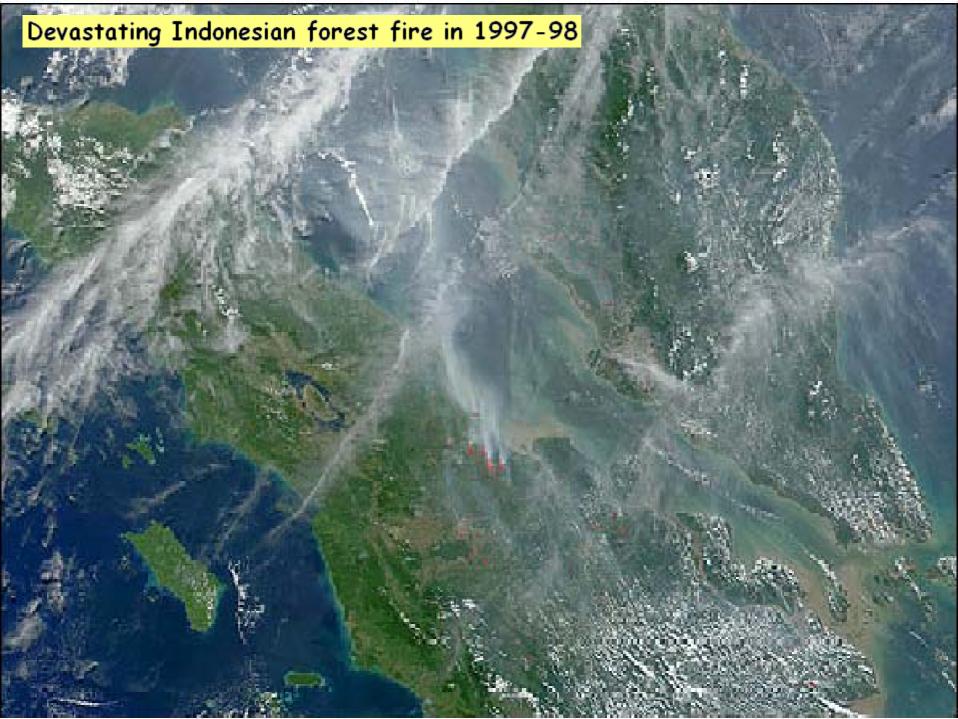
The recent model simulations suggest that the aerosols made up of black carbon lead to a <u>weaker hydrological cycle</u>, which connects directly to water availability and quality.

Energy reflected

surface to reflect light.

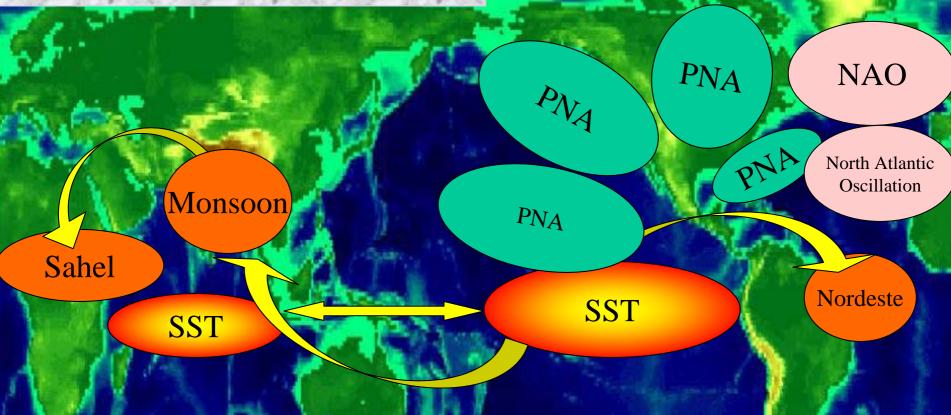




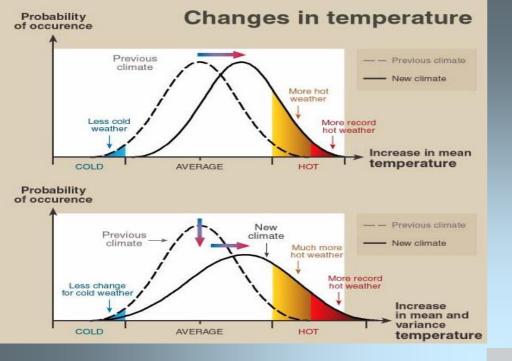


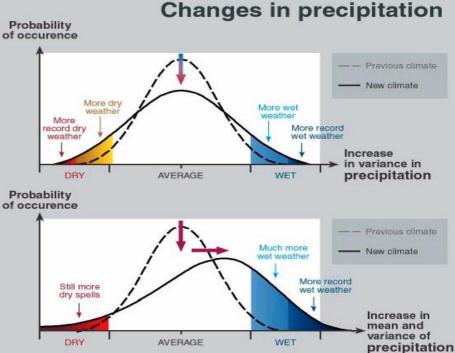
Haze over Indian subcontinent

Climate Variability



The interactions between atmosphere and oceans in the tropics dominate the variability at inter-annual scales. The main player is the variability in the equatorial Pacific. Wave-trains of anomaly stem from the region into the mid-latitudes, as the Pacific North American Pattern (PNA). The tropics are connected through the Pacific SST influence on the Indian Ocean SST and the monsoon, Sahel and Nordeste precipitation. It has been proposed that in certain years the circle is closed and and a full chain of teleconnections goes all around the tropics. Also shown is the North Atlantic Oscillation a major mode of variability in the Euro-Atlantic sector whose coupled nature is still under investigation.





Changes in precipitation

Droughts



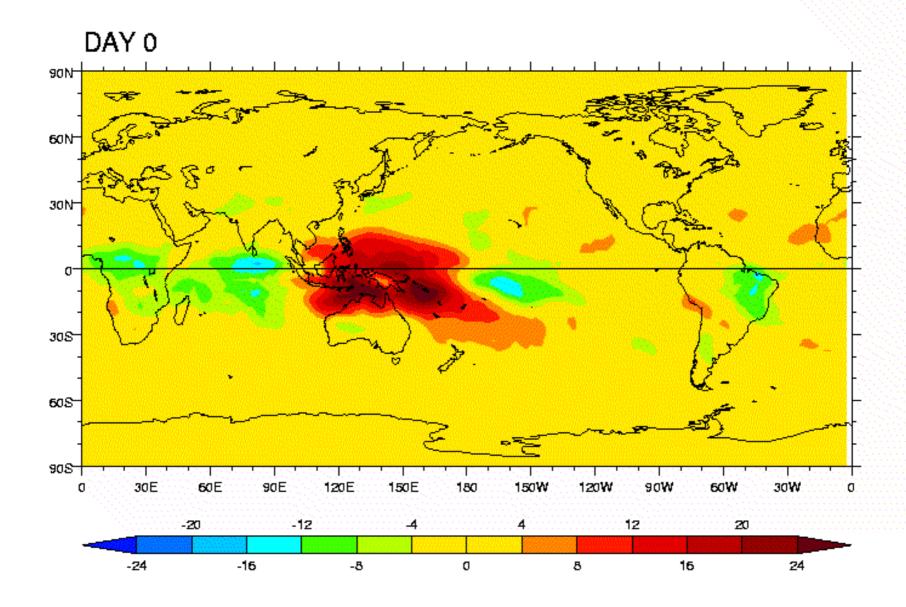


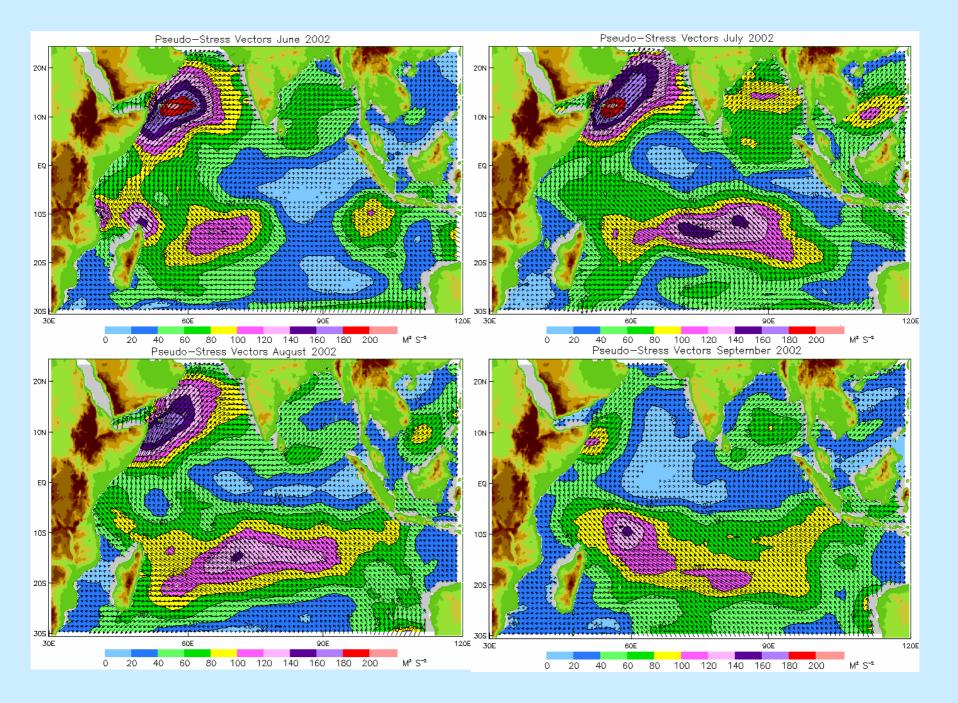




Indian Ocean temperatures affect intensity of the Indian monsoon and rainfall

- A phenomenon "the Madden Julian Oscillation (MJO)" in the atmospheric circulation explains variations of weather in the tropics and regulates the intensity of rainfall and break conditions associated with the south Asian monsoons.
- The fluctuations the MJO involve variations in wind, SST, cloudiness, and rainfall. The MJO can be characterized by a large-scale eastward movement of air in the upper troposphere with a period of about 20-70 days, over the tropical eastern Indian and western Pacific Oceans at approximately 200 hPa in the upper troposphere.





While drought conditions prevailed in Vidarbha (in the state of Maharashtra) during June and July <u>2002</u>, heavy downpours in August amounted to 80 cm of rainfall, compared to 95 cm of normal seasonal rainfall.

On 2-3 September, 25 cm of rainfall was recorded, which lifted the water level of Sardar Sarovar dam along the Narmada River to 12 m above its full capacity of 95 m, inundating hundreds of villages in the region.

The monsoon wreaked havoc in seven districts of Maharashtra from 1 to 3 September 2002, claiming 35 lives and causing massive damage to crops and throwing normal life out of gear. Different 'regionalisation' techniques have therefore been developed over the last decade or so to improve the regional information provided by coupled A-O GCMs, and to provide climate information at a finer scale.

Such techniques can be classified into three categories:

 Statistical downscaling methods;
'Nested' limited area (or regional) climate models;

3. High and variable resolution 'time-slice' AGCM experiments.

Statistical Downscaling

Under this approach, regional or local climate information is derived by first <u>developing a</u> <u>statistical model which links large-scale climate</u> <u>variables (or 'predictors') to regional and local</u> <u>variables (or 'predictands')</u>.

The large-scale output of an A-O GCM simulation is then fed into this statistical model in order to estimate the corresponding local and regional climate characteristics.

A range of such statistical downscaling models have been developed for regions where <u>sufficiently good</u> <u>datasets</u> are available to allow the models to be properly calibrated. These techniques are currently used for a wide range of climate applications. One of the main <u>advantages</u> of statistical downscaling techniques is that they do not require large amounts of <u>computational resources</u>. Another advantage is that they can be used to provide information at <u>specific locations</u>.

However, statistical downscaling methods are based on empirical models and <u>not</u> on models that <u>explicitly describe the physical</u> <u>processes that affect climate</u> and this may limit their applicability.

In addition, the major theoretical weakness of statistical downscaling methods is that the <u>fundamental assumption</u> on which they are based — that the <u>statistical relationships developed for present-day climate</u> <u>also hold under the different forcing conditions of possible future</u> <u>climates</u> — is often not verifiable.

Nested Regional Climate Models

These can be visualized as providing a <u>high-resolution</u> <u>zoom</u> in effect over a selected region.

Up to now, this technique has only been used in <u>one</u> <u>direction</u>, that is with no feedback from the regional climate model to the global climate model.

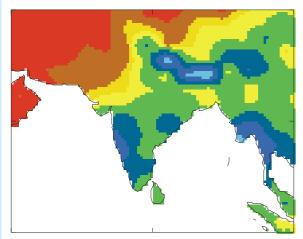
These have proven to be flexible tools, capable of reaching high resolution (down to <u>10-20 km or less</u>) and simulation times of several decades.

They have also been able to <u>describe successfully</u> <u>climate feedback mechanisms</u> acting at the regional scale.

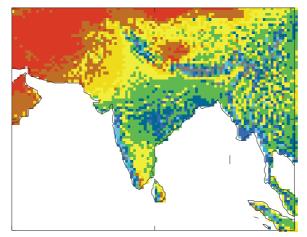
PRECIPITATION PATTERNS

JJAS from GCM and RCM control climates, and observations

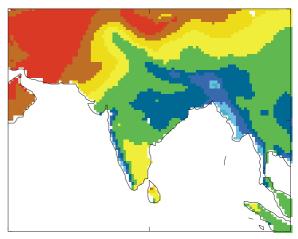
Hadley Centre GCM

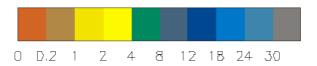


Hadley Centre RCM



CRU Climatology

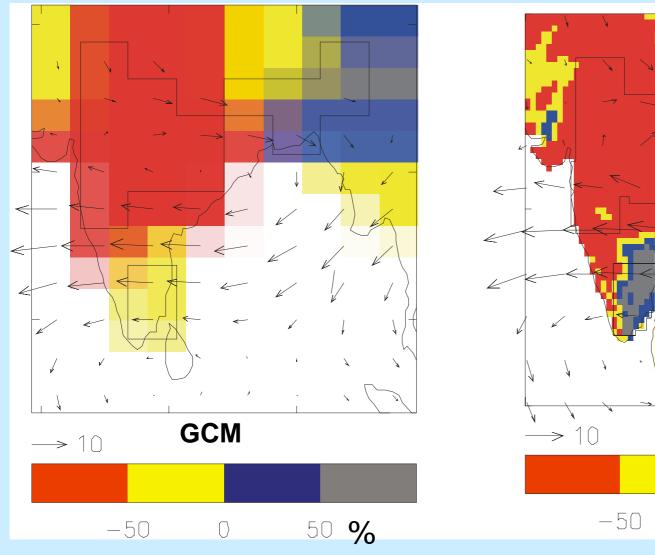




mm/day

BREAK-ACTIVE PRECIPITATION

wind vectors (m/s) are (mean active) - (mean break)



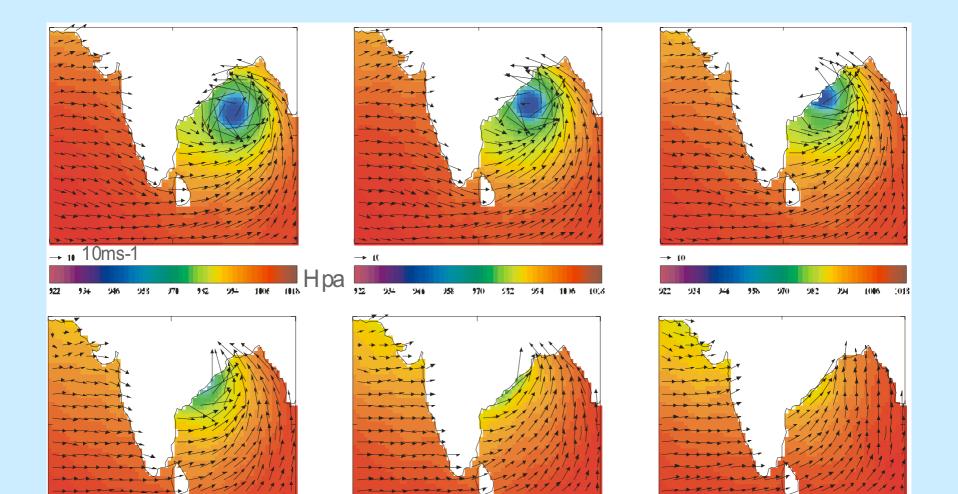
More rainfall in Tamil Nadu during monsoon break event

RCM

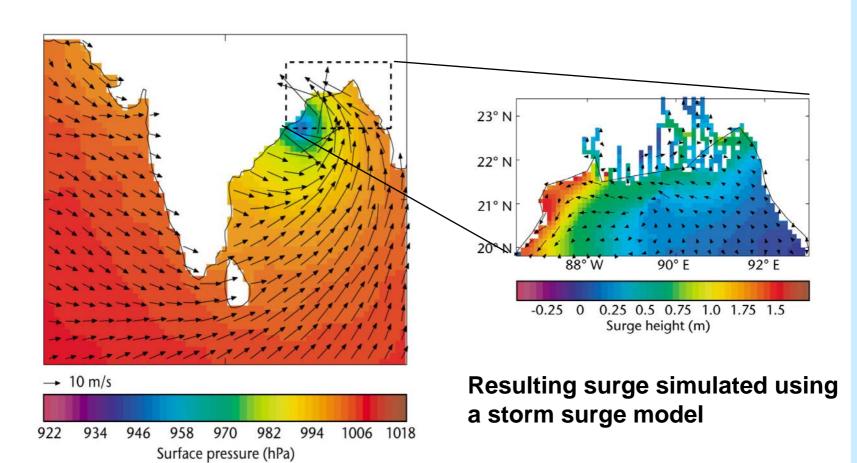
50

CYCLONE SIMULATION

Pressure (hPa) and wind fields (m/s) every 6h from control run

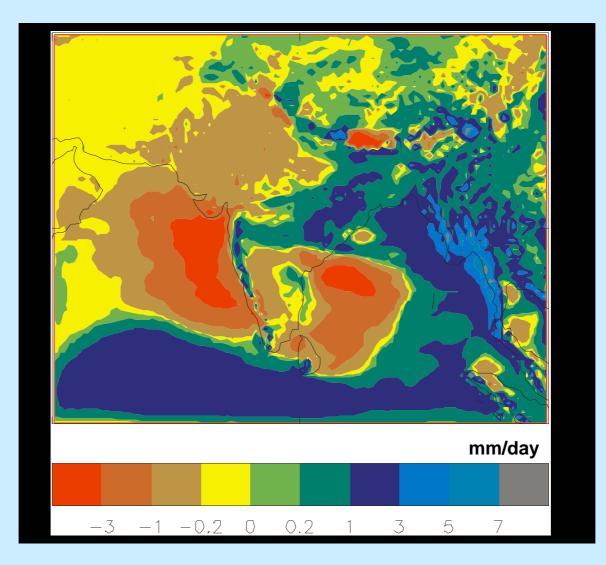


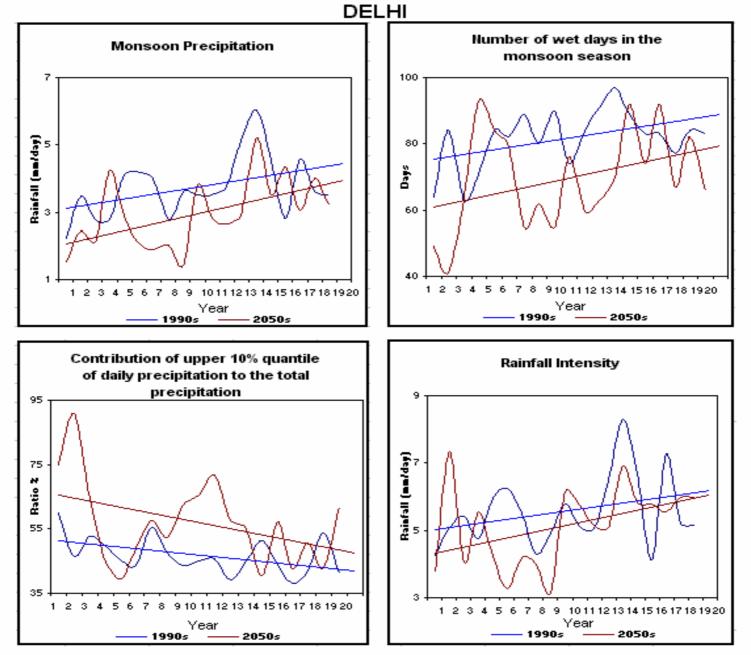
COASTAL SURGES DUE TO TROPICAL STORMS IN BAY OF BENGAL CAN BE PREDICTED



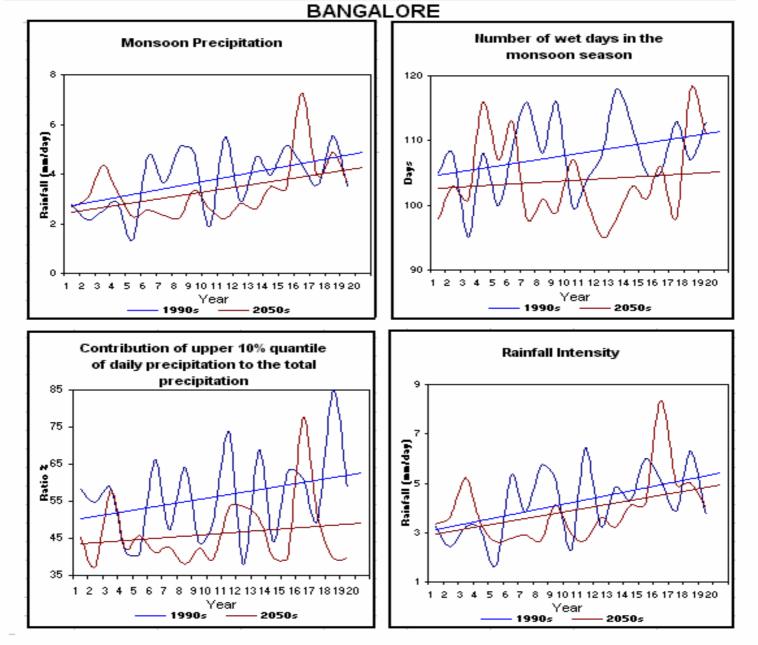
RAINFALL CHANGE OVER SOUTH ASIA

as simulated by Regional Climate Model

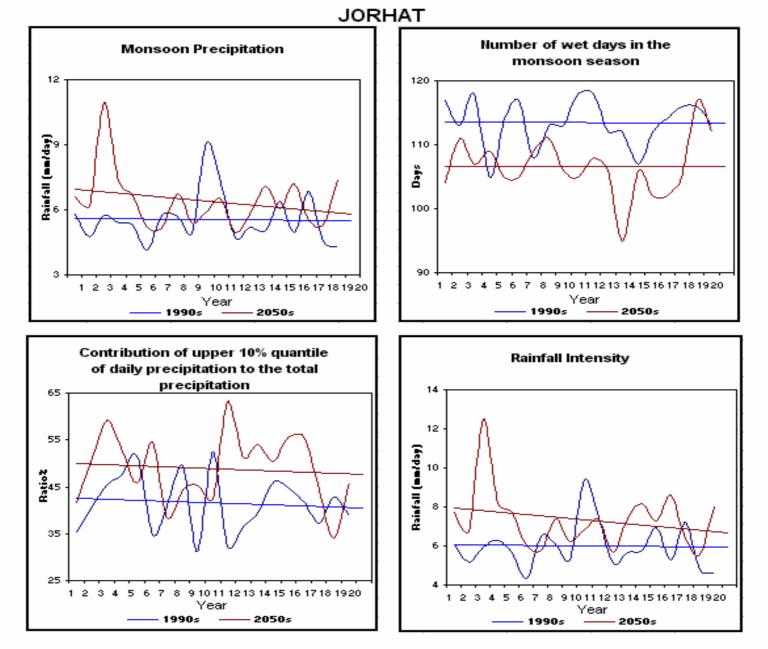




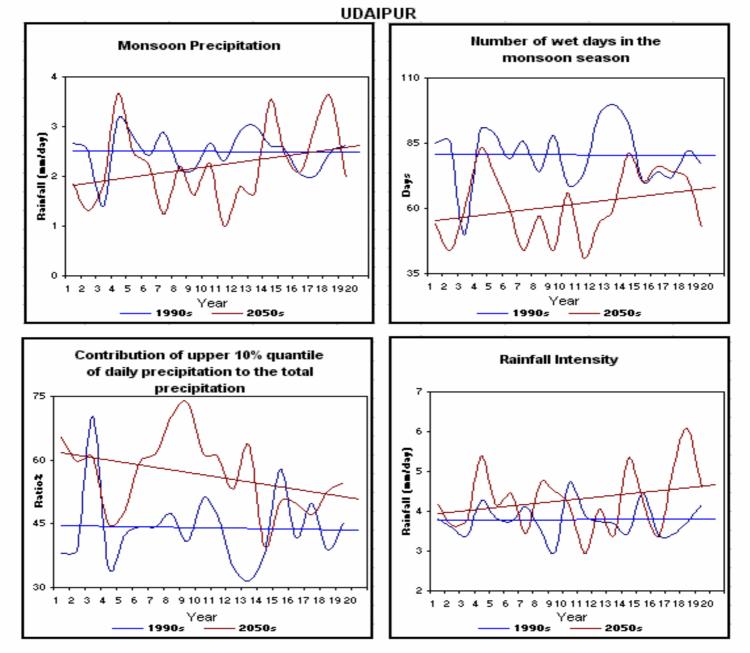
Key characteristics of summer monsoon rainfall over Delhi as simulated by the RCM nested in the GCM for the present day (1990s) and for the mid-Century (2050s) due to anthropogenic radiative forcings



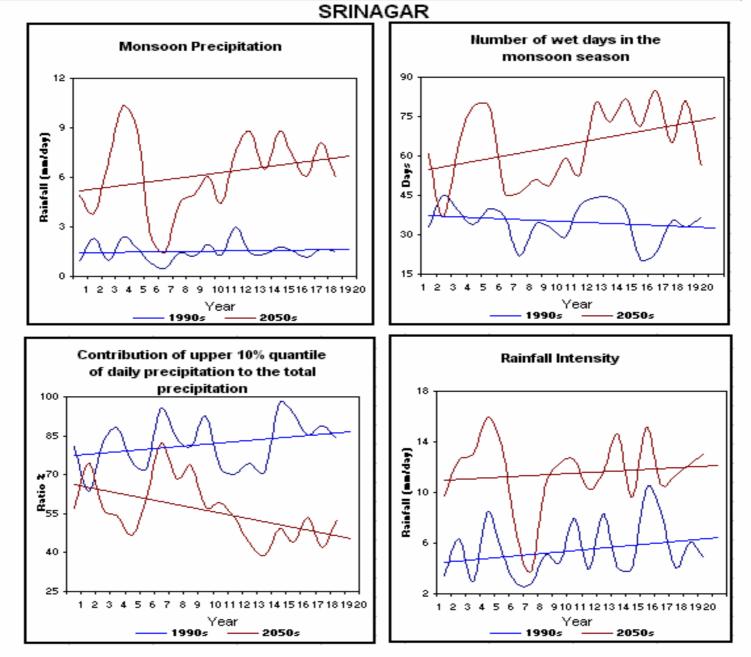
Key characteristics of summer monsoon rainfall over Bangalore as simulated by the RCM nested in the GCM for the present day (1990s) and for the mid-Century (2050s) due to anthropogenic radiative forcings



Key characteristics of summer monsoon rainfall over Jorhat as simulated by the RCM nested in the GCM for the present day (1990s) and for the mid-Century (2050s) due to anthropogenic radiative forcings

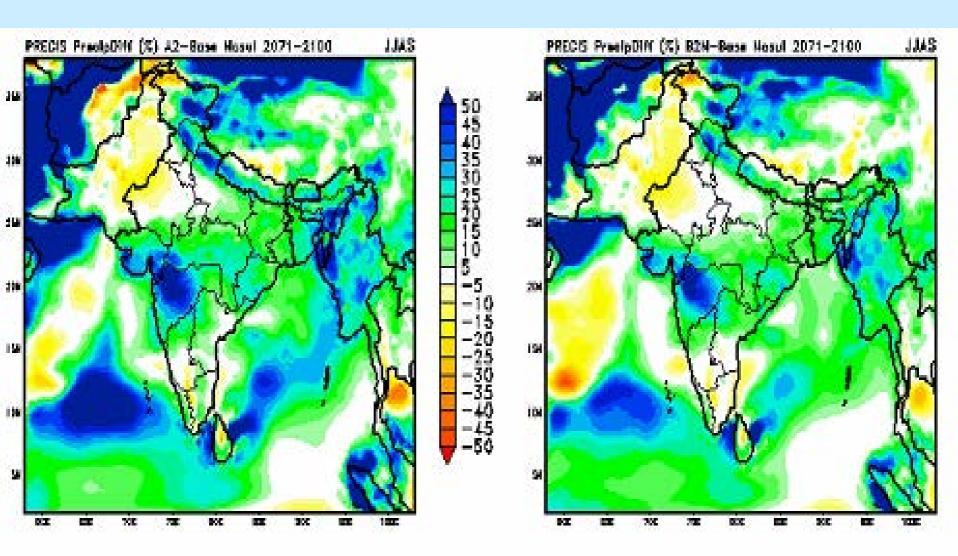


Key characteristics of summer monsoon rainfall over Udaipur as simulated by the RCM nested in the GCM for the present day (1990s) and for the mid-Century (2050s) due to anthropogenic radiative forcings



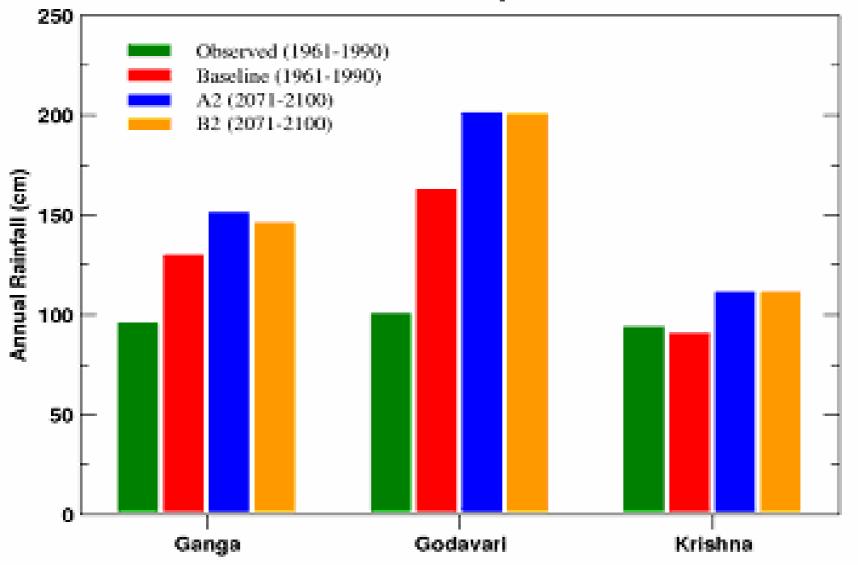
Key characteristics of summer monsoon rainfall over Srinagar as simulated by the RCM nested in the GCM for the present day (1990s) and for the mid-Century (2050s) due to anthropogenic radiative forcings

21st Century Changes in Monsoon Rainfall under A2 and B2 Scenarios



PRECIS Simulations of Present and Future Precipitation

Annual Rainfall over Major River Basins



Nested Regional Climate Modeling approach, however, has some theoretical limitations.

For example, the regional model simulations are affected by <u>systematic errors</u> in the driving meteorological fields provided by global models, and two-way interaction between regional and global climate is not described.

In addition, for each application, careful consideration needs to be given to the ways that the models are <u>configured</u>.

From the practical viewpoint, regional model simulations can be <u>demanding on computational</u> <u>resources</u>, both in terms of computation power and data storage.

Variable Resolution Models

The main advantage of this tool is that the resulting simulations are <u>globally consistent</u> and <u>capture the feedback</u> from the regional high resolution atmospheric circulations on the global climate.

The use of this technique is based on the assumption that the large-scale circulation patterns in both the coarse and high resolution GCMs are not very different from each other.

Conformal-cubic model features

·2-time-level semi-implicit hydrostatic (recently, has non-hydrostatic option)

- \cdot semi-Lagrangian horizontal advection with bi-cubic spatial interpolation
- \cdot total variation diminishing (TVD) or semi-Lagrangian vertical advection
- unstaggered grid, with winds transformed to/from

 $\cdot C\text{-staggered}$ positions before/after gravity wave calculations using reversible interpolation

- minimal horizontal diffusion needed:
 - ·Smagorinsky style; zero is fine

 \cdot weak off-centering (in time) used to avoid semi-Lagrangian "mountain resonances"

 \cdot careful treatment of surface pressure and pressure-gradient terms near terrain

- a posteriori conservation of mass and moisture
- · grid is isotropic

Physical Parameterizations

· cumulus convection:

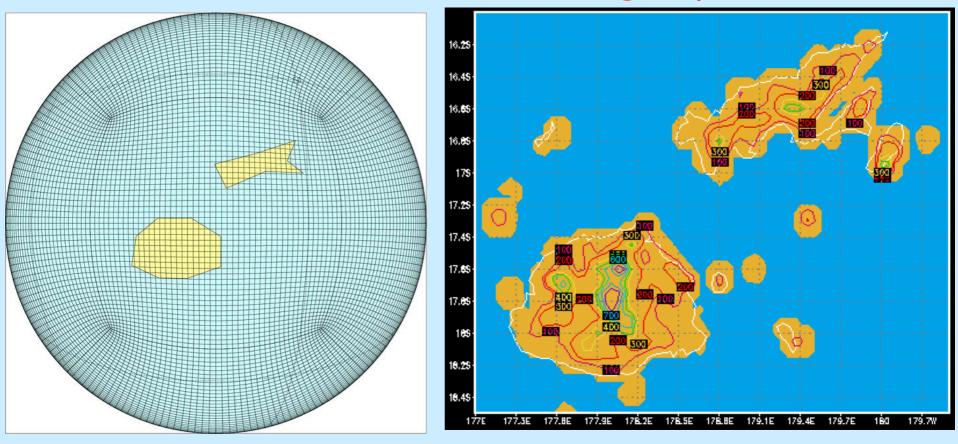
-new CSIRO mass-flux scheme, including downdrafts

- \cdot includes advection of liquid and ice cloud-water
- \cdot interactive cloud distributions
 - \cdot derived prognostically from liquid water
- \cdot GFDL parameterization for long and short wave radiation
- · gravity-wave drag scheme

 \cdot stability-dependent boundary layer and vertical mixing with nonlocal option

- vegetation/canopy scheme
 - \cdot 6 layers for soil temperatures
 - · 6 layers for soil moisture (Richard's equation)
- \cdot option for cumulus mixing of trace gases
- \cdot diurnally varying skin temperatures for SSTs

8 km trial simulation over Fiji Model uses NCEP fields at all grid points.



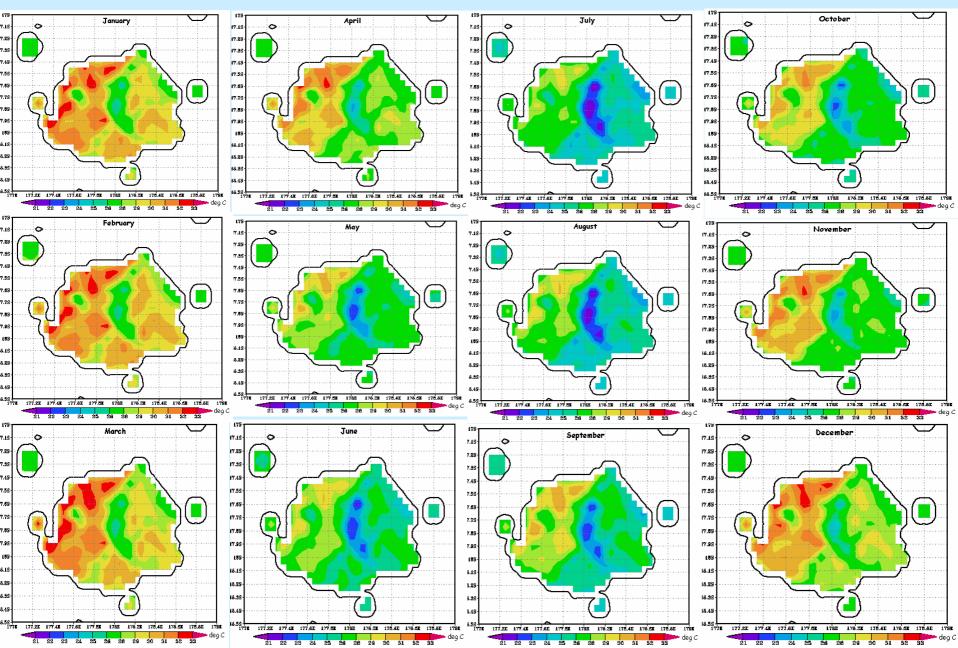
C48 grid

Model orography

For these fine-resolution simulations, "global nudging" from the broad-scale fields is the preferred strategy. All the Fiji land points have soil type 3 (fine clay) and vegetation type 32 - broadleaf evergreen trees (tropical forest).

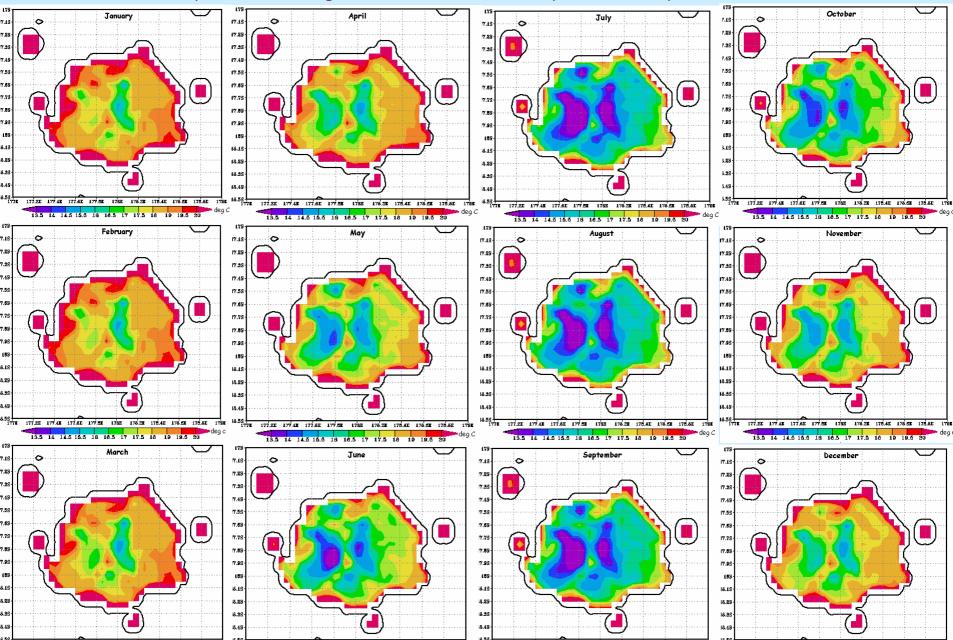
Monthly Simulated Maximum Surface Air Temperature Climatology – Fiji

(The observed temperature gradients between western and central divisions during the year and low temperatures at high altitude are realistically simulated by the model)

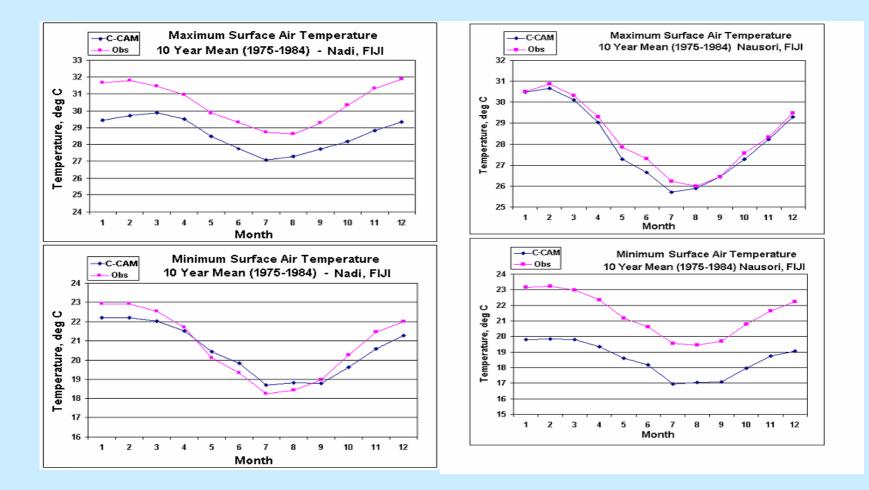


Monthly Simulated Minimum Surface Air Temperature Climatology – Fiji

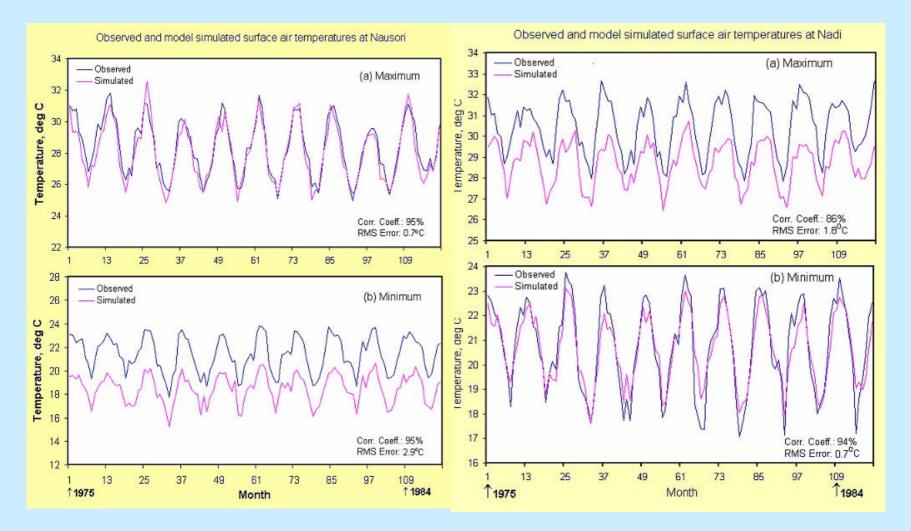
(The observed temperature gradients between western and central divisions during the year and low temperatures at high altitude are realistically simulated by the model)



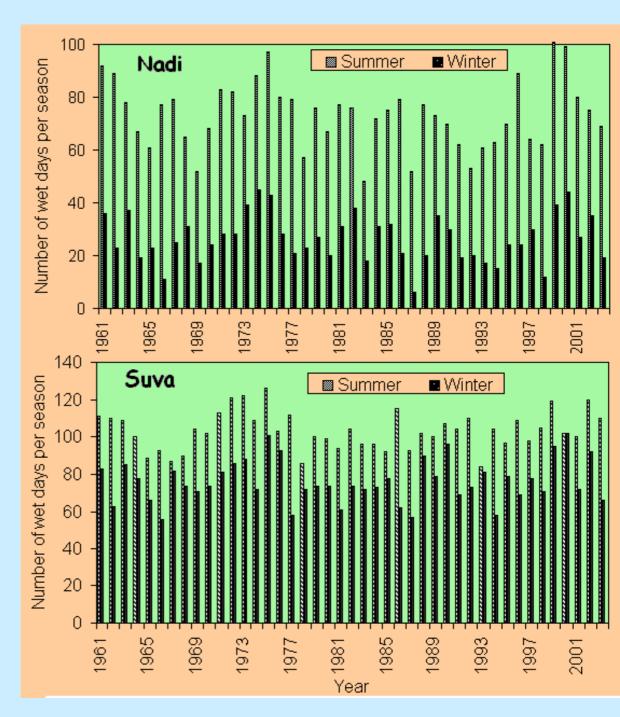
Comparison of observed and simulated average monthly surface air temperatures



Comparison of intraseasonal and interannual variability in monthly mean simulation of surface air temperatures at Nadi and Nausori

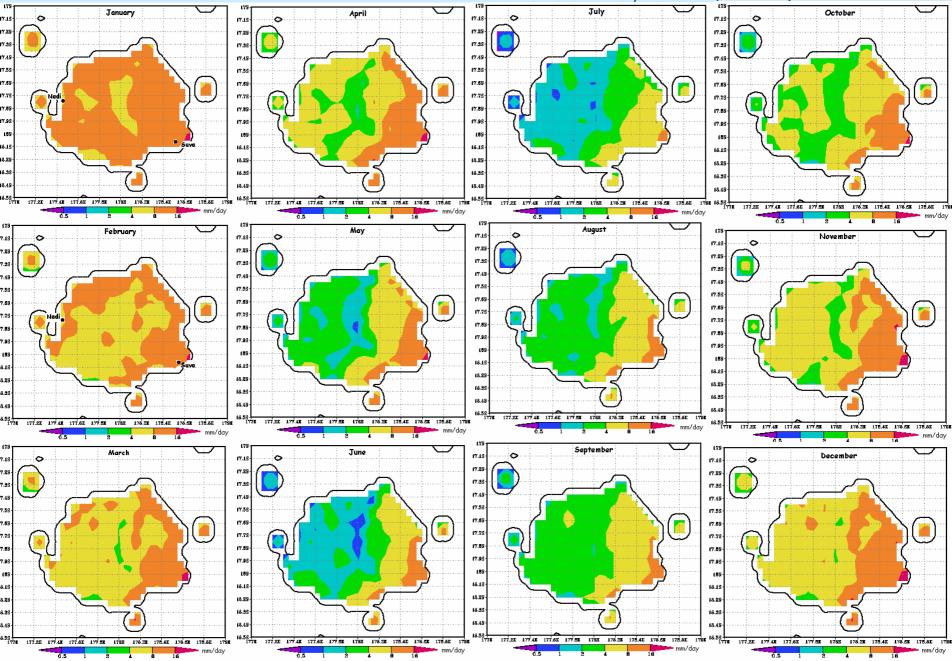


In Fiji, Nadi (western division) has a marked seasonality in rainfall as compared to Suva (central division) which has year round rainfall under the influence of trade winds (resulting in more number of wet days). The marked differences in rainfall seasonality at these two locations in Fiji has been reproduced in the model simulations.



Monthly Simulated Rainfall Climatology - Fiji

(The observed rainfall gradients between western and central divisions during the year, marked seasonality in rainfall in the western division and less rainfall at the leeward side of mountains are realistically simulated by the model)

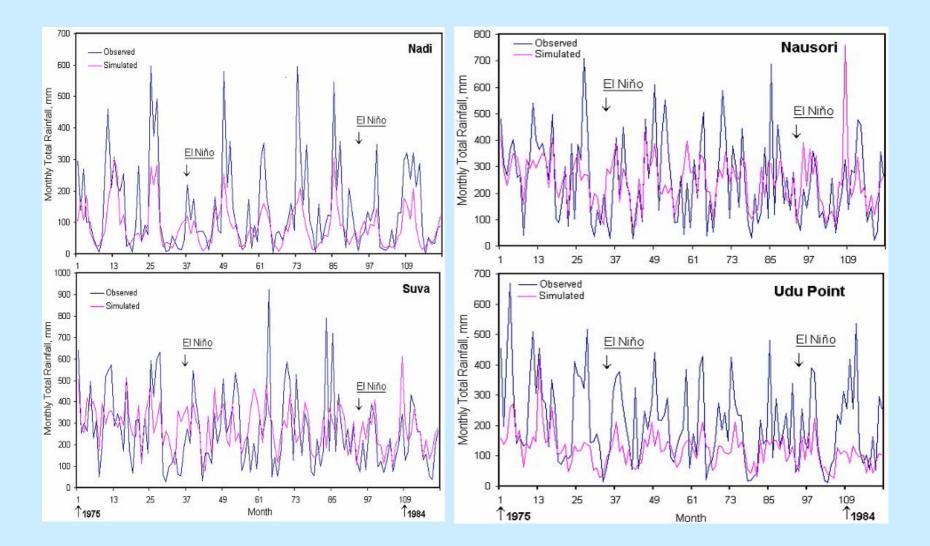


Comparison of observed and model-simulated annual and seasonal mean rainfall (mm) at selected stations in Fiji

| | | Observed | Simulated (Expt. 1) | Simulated (Expt. 2) |
|-----------|--------|-------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| Nadi | Annual | 1701±344.7# | 1066±164.1 (0.74)* | 1262±224.1 (0.73) |
| | Summer | 1242±338.8 | 808±147.0 | 954±171.6 |
| | Winter | 459±167.0 | 258±56.1 | 308±76.2 |
| Suva | Annual | 3175±599.9 | 3395±387.3 (0.45) | 2814±403.8 (0.52) |
| | Summer | 2011±401.6 | 1971±178.7 | 1789±272.9 |
| | Winter | 1164±401.3 | 1424±282.8 | 1024±237.3 |
| Nausori | Annual | 2971±456.8 | 2950±289.9 (0.55) | 2416±355.9 |
| | Summer | 1916±225.4 | 1761±161.0 | 1582±265.8 |
| | Winter | 1056±294.1 | 1190±258.4 | 834±188.8 |
| Udu Point | Annual | 2545±533.3 | 1450±304.7 (0.56) | 1804±311.4 (0.59) |
| | Summer | 1737±366.8 | 861±142.9 | 1152±178.5 |
| | Winter | 808±264.8 | 589±184.2 | 653±168.4 |

Standard deviation for 10 year rainfall data; * Correlation Coefficient with observed monthly rainfall data

Observed and Simulated interannual variability of monthly total Rainfall at selected locations in Fiji



- Variable-resolution global models are well-suited to perform the simulations "traditionally" performed by limited-area RCMs, whilst avoiding the usual lateral boundary problems.
- The variable-resolution global model C-CAM has demonstrated substantial skill in reproducing many observed features of the Fiji's climatology (precise reasons for biases in temperature/rainfall are being investigated).
- Recent modelling advances and greater computing power can now allow regional climate simulations down to around 8 km resolution (very relevant for Pacific Island Countries).

To Conclude:

A coherent picture of <u>regional climate</u> change for its application to impact assessments, achieved through available regionalisation techniques, will require more coordinated efforts to evaluate the different methodologies, compare methods and models to each other and apply these methods to climate change research in a comprehensive strategy that involves a range of A-O GCM and regionalisation experiments.

