



1 **The nonlinMIP intercomparison project: physical basis,**  
2 **experimental design and analysis principles**

3

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1

2 **Abstract**

3 nonlinMIP aims to quantify and understand, at regional scales, climate responses that are non-  
4 linear under CO<sub>2</sub> forcing (mechanisms for which doubling the CO<sub>2</sub> forcing does not double  
5 the response). Non-linear responses can be large at regional scales, with important  
6 implications for understanding mechanisms and for GCM emulation techniques (e.g. energy  
7 balance models and pattern-scaling methods). However, these processes are hard to explore  
8 using traditional experiments, explaining why they have had little attention in previous  
9 studies. Some single model studies have established novel analysis principles and some  
10 physical mechanisms. There is now a need to explore robustness and uncertainty in such  
11 mechanisms across a range of models.

12

13 nonlinMIP addresses this using a simple, small set of CO<sub>2</sub>-forced experiments that are able to  
14 separate linear and non-linear mechanisms cleanly, with a good signal/noise ratio – while  
15 being demonstrably traceable to realistic transient scenarios. The design builds on the CMIP5  
16 and CMIP6 DECK protocols, and is centred around a suite of instantaneous atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>  
17 change experiments, with a ramp-up-ramp-down experiment to test traceability to gradual  
18 forcing scenarios. In all cases the models are intended to be used with CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations  
19 rather than CO<sub>2</sub> emissions as the input. The understanding gained will help interpret the  
20 spread in policy-relevant scenario projections.

21

22 Here we outline the basic physical principles behind nonlinMIP, and the method of  
23 establishing traceability from abruptCO<sub>2</sub> to gradual forcing experiments, before detailing the  
24 experimental design and finally some analysis principles. The test of traceability from  
25 abruptCO<sub>2</sub> to transient experiments is recommended as a standard analysis within the CMIP5  
26 and CMIP6 DECK protocols.

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28



## 1 **1 Introduction**

2 Robust climate impacts assessments require, at regional scales, understanding of physical  
3 mechanisms of climate change in GCM projections. A further, pragmatic requirement for  
4 impacts assessments is the ability to emulate (using fast but simplified climate models) GCM  
5 behaviour for a much larger range of policy-relevant scenarios than may be evaluated using  
6 GCMs directly. These two requirements may be combined into a single question: what is the  
7 simplest conceptual framework, for a given well defined model application, that has  
8 quantitative predictive power and captures the key mechanisms behind GCM scenario  
9 projections?

10

11 Often, a choice has been to assume some form of linearity. In studies of the global energy  
12 balance, linearity is often assumed in the form of a constant climate feedback parameter. This  
13 parameter may be used to quantify feedbacks in different models (e.g. Zelinka et al., 2013) or,  
14 in emulation methods, to parameterise global energy balance models (e.g. Huntingford and  
15 Cox, 2000). In understanding or emulating regional patterns of climate change, it is often  
16 assumed that regional climate change is roughly proportional to global mean warming. In  
17 emulation work, this is termed 'pattern scaling' (Mitchell, 2003; Santer et al., 1990; Tebaldi and  
18 Arblaster, 2014), but this assumption may also be applied either explicitly or implicitly in  
19 understanding mechanisms. Sometimes, patterns of change per K of global warming are  
20 quantified; often, physical mechanisms are studied for a single period of a single forcing  
21 scenario (implicitly assuming that the understanding is relevant for other periods or  
22 scenarios). The use of pattern-scaling is prevalent in studies of climate impacts.

23

24 While these approximations appear to work well under many circumstances, significant  
25 limitations are increasingly being revealed in such assumptions. These are of two types:  
26 different timescales of response, and non-linear responses. In discussing this, a complication  
27 arises in that different linearity assumptions exist. Henceforth we define 'linear' as meaning  
28 'consistent with linear systems theory' - i.e. responses that are linear in model forcing (i.e.  
29 where doubling the forcing doubles the response). This is different from assuming that  
30 regional climate change is proportional to global mean warming – as in pattern scaling.

31



1 Even in a linear system (where responses are linear in forcing), the relationship between two  
2 system outputs (e.g. between global-mean temperature and regional sea surface temperature -  
3 SST) will in general not be linear. This is due to different timescales of response in different  
4 locations and/or variables (section 3.1). Examples include lagged surface ocean warming due  
5 to a connection with the deeper ocean (Chadwick et al., 2013;Held et al., 2010;Williams et al.,  
6 2008;Manabe et al., 1990;Andrews and Ringer, 2014) or the direct response of precipitation  
7 to forcings (Andrews et al., 2010;Allen and Ingram, 2002;Mitchell et al., 1987;Bony et al.,  
8 2014). One (generally false, but potentially acceptable) assumption of pattern scaling, then, is  
9 that regional climate responds over the same timescale as global-mean temperature. Different  
10 timescales of response are especially important in understanding and predicting behaviour  
11 under mitigation and geoengineering scenarios (or over very long timescales).

12

13 Non-linear system responses (e.g. Schaller et al., 2013) are more complex to quantify,  
14 understand and predict than those of linear systems (section 3.2). Some examples have been  
15 known for some time, such as changing feedbacks through retreating snow/sea-ice or  
16 increasing water vapour (Colman and McAvaney, 2009;Jonko et al., 2013;Meraner et al.,  
17 2013;Hansen et al., 2005), or the behaviour of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning  
18 Circulation. More recently, substantial non-linear precipitation responses have been  
19 demonstrated in spatial patterns of regional precipitation change in two Hadley Centre climate  
20 models with different atmospheric formulations (Good et al., 2012;Chadwick and Good,  
21 2013). This is largely due to simultaneous changes in pairs of known robust pseudo-linear  
22 mechanisms (Chadwick and Good, 2013). Regional warming has been shown to be different  
23 for a first and second CO<sub>2</sub> doubling, with implications primarily for impact assessment  
24 models or studies combining linear energy balance models with pattern scaling (Good et al.,  
25 2015). Non-linearity has also been demonstrated in the response under idealised  
26 geoengineering scenarios, of ocean heat uptake, sea-level rise, and regional climate patterns,  
27 with different behaviour found when forcings are decreasing than when they are increasing  
28 (Bouttes et al., 2013;Schaller et al., 2014;Bouttes et al., 2015).

29

30 Investigation of these mechanisms at regional scales has been constrained by the type of  
31 GCM experiment typically analysed. Most previous analyses (e.g. Solomon et al., 2007) have  
32 used results from transient forcing experiments, where forcing changes steadily through the



1 experiment. There are three main problems with this approach. First, information about  
2 different timescales of response is masked. This is because the GCM response at any given  
3 time in a transient forcing experiment is a mixture of different timescales of response (Good  
4 et al., 2013;Held et al., 2010;Li and Jarvis, 2009), including short-timescale responses (e.g.  
5 ocean mixed layer response from forcing change over the previous few years) through long-  
6 timescale behaviour (including deeper ocean responses from forcing changes multiple  
7 decades to centuries earlier). Secondly, in transient forcing experiments, non-linear behaviour  
8 is hard to separate from linear mechanisms. For example, in an experiment where CO<sub>2</sub> is  
9 increased by 1% per year for 140 years ('1pctCO<sub>2</sub>'), we might find different spatial patterns at  
10 year 70 (at 2xCO<sub>2</sub>) than at year 140 (at 4xCO<sub>2</sub>). This could be due to nonlinear mechanisms  
11 (due to the different forcing level and associated different climate state). However, it could  
12 also be due to linear mechanisms: year 140 follows 140 years of forcing increase, so includes  
13 responses over longer response timescales than at year 70 (only 70 years of forcing increase).  
14 Thirdly, signal/noise ratios of regional climate change can be relatively poor in such  
15 experiments.

16

17 These three issues may be addressed by the use of idealised abruptCO<sub>2</sub> GCM experiments  
18 (Forster et al., 2012;Zelinka et al., 2013;Jonko et al., 2013;Good et al., 2013;Good et al.,  
19 2012;Chadwick and Good, 2013;Chadwick et al., 2013;Bouttes et al., 2013;Gregory et al.,  
20 2004): an experiment where CO<sub>2</sub> forcing is instantaneously changed, then held constant. In  
21 these abrupt CO<sub>2</sub> experiments, responses over different timescales are separated from each  
22 other. Further, responses at different forcing levels may be directly compared, e.g. by  
23 comparing the response in abrupt2xCO<sub>2</sub> and abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub> experiments over the same  
24 timescale - both have identical forcing time histories, apart from the larger forcing magnitude  
25 in abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub>. Thirdly, high signal/noise is possible: averages may be taken over periods  
26 of 100 years or more (after the initial ocean mixed layer adjustment, change is gradual in such  
27 experiments). Recent work (Good et al., 2015;Good et al., 2012;Good et al., 2013;Zelinka et  
28 al., 2013;Bouttes et al., 2015) has established that these experiments contain global and  
29 regional-scale information quantitatively traceable to more policy-relevant transient  
30 experiments - and equivalently, that they form the basis for fast simple climate model  
31 projections traceable to the GCMs. In other studies (e.g. Frolicher et al., 2014), pulse  
32 experiments have been used to separate different timescales of response (where forcing is



1 abruptly increased, then abruptly returned to the control state). We use abruptCO2  
2 experiments because they offer greater signal/noise in the change signal (important for  
3 regional-scale studies); and also for consistency with the CMIP6 DECK abrupt4xCO2  
4 experiment.

5

6 The CMIP5 abrupt4xCO2 experiments have thus been used widely: including quantifying  
7 GCM forcing and feedback behaviour (Gregory et al., 2004;Zelinka et al., 2013), and for  
8 traceable emulation of GCM projections of global-mean temperature and heat uptake (Good  
9 et al., 2013;Stott et al., 2013). Abrupt4xCO2 is also part of the CMIP6 DECK protocol  
10 (Meehl et al., 2014).

11

12 NonlinMIP builds on the CMIP5 and CMIP6 DECK designs to explore non-linear responses  
13 (via additional abruptCO2 experiments at different forcing levels. It also explores responses  
14 over slightly longer timescales - extending the CMIP5 abrupt4xCO2 experiment by 100  
15 years).

16

## 17 **2 Relating abruptCO2 to gradual forcing scenarios: the step-response model**

18 In using the highly-idealised abruptCO2 experiments, it is essential that their physical  
19 relevance (traceability) to more realistic gradual forcing experiments is determined. We  
20 cannot apriori reject the possibility that some GCMs could respond unrealistically to the  
21 abrupt forcing change. A key tool here is the step-response model (described below). This  
22 response-function method aims to predict the GCM response to any given transient-forcing  
23 experiment, using the GCM response to an abruptCO2 experiment. Such a prediction may be  
24 compared with the GCM transient-forcing simulation, as part of a traceability assessment  
25 (discussed in detail in section 5).

26

27 Once some confidence is established in traceability of the abruptCO2 experiments to  
28 transient-forcing scenarios, the step-response model has other roles: to explore the  
29 implications, for different forcing scenarios, of physical understanding gleaned from  
30 abruptCO2 experiments; to help separate linear and nonlinear mechanisms (section 5); and



1 potentially as a basis for GCM emulation. The method description below also serves to  
2 illustrate the assumptions of linear system theory.

3

4 The step-response model represents the evolution of radiative forcing in a scenario  
5 experiment by a series of step changes in radiative forcing (with one step taken at the  
6 beginning of each year). The method makes two linear assumptions. First, the response to  
7 each annual forcing step is estimated by linearly scaling the response in a CO<sub>2</sub> step  
8 experiment according to the magnitude of radiative forcing change. Second, the response  $y_i$  at  
9 year  $i$  of a scenario experiment is estimated as a sum of responses to all previous annual  
10 forcing changes (see Figure 1 of Good et al., 2013 for an illustration):

11

$$12 \quad y_i = \sum_{j=0}^i w_{i-j} x_j \quad (1a)$$

13

14 where  $x_j$  is the response of the same variable in year  $j$  of the CO<sub>2</sub> step experiment.  $w_{i-j}$  scales  
15 down the response from the step experiment ( $x_j$ ) to match the annual change in radiative  
16 forcing during year  $i-j$  of the scenario (denoted  $\Delta F_{i-j}$ ):

17

$$18 \quad w_{i-j} = \frac{\Delta F_{i-j}}{\Delta F_s} \quad (1b)$$

19

20 where  $\Delta F_s$  is the radiative forcing change in the CO<sub>2</sub> step experiment. All quantities are  
21 expressed as anomalies with respect to a constant-forcing control experiment.

22

23 This approach can in principle be applied at any spatial scale for any variable for which the  
24 assumptions are plausible (e.g. Chadwick et al., 2013).

25

26



1 **3 Linear and non-linear mechanisms, and the relevance of abruptCO2**  
2 **experiments**

3 Here we discuss further, with examples, the distinction between linear and nonlinear  
4 mechanisms, when they are important, and the relevance of abruptCO2 experiments.

5 **3.1 Linear mechanisms: different timescales of response**

6 Even in a linear system, regional climate change per K of global warming will evolve during  
7 a scenario simulation. This happens because different parts of the climate system have  
8 different timescales of response to forcing change.

9  
10 This may be due to different effective heat capacities. For example, the ocean mixed layer  
11 responds much faster than the deeper ocean, simply due to a thinner column of water (Li and  
12 Jarvis, 2009). However, some areas of the ocean surface (e.g. the Southern Ocean and south-  
13 east subtropical Pacific) show lagged warming, due to a greater connection (via upwelling or  
14 mixing) with the deeper ocean (e.g. Manabe et al., 1990; Williams et al., 2008). The dynamics  
15 of the ocean circulation and vegetation may also have their own inherent timescales (e.g.  
16 vegetation change may lag global warming by years to hundreds of years, Jones et al., 2009).  
17 At the other extreme, some responses to CO2 forcing are much faster than global warming:  
18 such as the direct response of global mean precipitation to forcings (Allen and Ingram,  
19 2002; Andrews et al., 2010; Mitchell et al., 1987) and the physiological response of vegetation  
20 to CO2 (Field et al., 1995).

21  
22 In a linear system, patterns of change per K of global warming are sensitive to the forcing  
23 history. For example in Figure 1, a scenario is illustrated where forcing is ramped up, then  
24 stabilized. Three periods are highlighted, which may have different patterns of change per K  
25 of global warming, due to different forcing histories: at the leftmost point, faster responses  
26 will be relatively more important, whereas at the right, the slower responses have had some  
27 time to catch up. This is illustrated in Figure 2 for sea-level rise. The blue curves show that  
28 for RCP2.6, global-mean warming ceases after 2050, while sea-level rise continues at roughly  
29 the same rate throughout the century. This is largely because deep ocean heat uptake is much  
30 slower than ocean mixed-layer warming.



1

2 By design, abruptCO2 experiments separate different timescales of GCM response to forcing  
3 change. This is used, for example, (Gregory et al., 2004) to estimate radiative forcing and  
4 feedback parameters for GCMs: plotting radiative flux anomalies against global mean  
5 warming can separate 'fast' and 'slow' responses (see e.g. Figure 3).

### 6 **3.2 Non-linear responses**

7 Nonlinear mechanisms arise for a variety of reasons. Often, however, it is useful to describe  
8 them as state-dependent feedbacks. For example, the snow-albedo feedback becomes small at  
9 high or low snow depth. Sometimes, nonlinear mechanisms may be better viewed as  
10 simultaneous changes in pairs of properties. For example, convective precipitation is broadly  
11 a product of moisture content and dynamics (Chadwick and Good, 2013; Chadwick et al.,  
12 2012; Oueslati et al., 2016; Bony et al., 2014). Both moisture content and atmospheric  
13 dynamics respond to CO2 forcing, so in general we might expect convective precipitation to  
14 have a nonlinear response to CO2 forcing. Of course, more complex nonlinear responses  
15 exist, such as for the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation.

16

17 In contrast to linear mechanisms, nonlinear mechanisms are sensitive to the magnitude of  
18 forcing. For example, the two points highlighted in Figure 4 may have different patterns of  
19 change per K of global warming, due to nonlinear mechanisms.

20

21 An example is given in Figure 5, which shows the albedo feedback declining with increased  
22 global temperature, due to declining snow and ice cover, and the remaining snow and ice  
23 being in areas of lower solar insolation (Colman and McAvaney, 2009).

24

25 AbruptCO2 experiments may be used to separate nonlinear from linear mechanisms. This can  
26 be done by comparing the responses at the same timescale in different different abruptCO2  
27 experiments. Figure 6 compares abrupt2xCO2 and abrupt4xCO2 experiments over years 50-  
28 149. A 'doubling difference' is defined, measuring the difference in response to the first and  
29 second CO2 doublings. In most current simple climate models (e.g. Meinshausen et al.,  
30 2011), the radiative forcing from each successive CO2 doubling is assumed identical (because



1 forcing is approximately linear in  $\log[\text{CO}_2]$ , Myhre et al., 1998). With this assumption, a  
2 linear system would have zero doubling difference everywhere. Therefore, the doubling  
3 difference is used as a measure of nonlinearity. The question of which abruptCO<sub>2</sub>  
4 experiments to compare, and over which timescale, is discussed in section 5.

5

6 In some GCMs, the forcing per CO<sub>2</sub> doubling has been shown to vary with CO<sub>2</sub> (Colman and  
7 McAvaney, 2009; Jonko et al., 2013). However, this variation depends on the specific  
8 definition of forcing used (Jonko et al., 2013). Currently this is folded into our definition of  
9 nonlinearity. If a robust definition of this forcing variation becomes available in future, it  
10 could be used to scale out any difference in forcing between pairs of abruptCO<sub>2</sub> experiments,  
11 to calculate an 'adjusted doubling difference'.

12

13 As an example, Figure 7 maps the response to abrupt2xCO<sub>2</sub> and abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub>, and the  
14 doubling difference, for precipitation in HadGEM2-ES over the ocean (taken from Chadwick  
15 and Good). The nonlinearities are large - comparable in magnitude to the responses to  
16 abrupt2xCO<sub>2</sub>, albeit with a different spatial pattern.

17

18

#### 19 **4 Experimental design**

20 nonlinMIP is composed of a set of abruptCO<sub>2</sub> experiments (the primary tools), plus a CO<sub>2</sub>-  
21 forced transient experiment. AbruptCO<sub>2</sub> experiments are driven by changes in atmospheric  
22 CO<sub>2</sub> concentration: CO<sub>2</sub> is abruptly changed, then held constant. These build on the CMIP5  
23 and CMIP6 DECK protocols (the required runs from these are detailed in Table 1). The  
24 additional nonlinMIP runs (Table 2) are assigned three priority levels. Three options for  
25 participation are: 1) only the 'essential' simulation; 2) all 'high priority' plus the 'essential'  
26 simulations; or, preferably, 3) all simulations. The experiments in Table 1 are required in all  
27 cases. All experiments must be initialized from the same year of a pre-industrial control  
28 experiment, except for abrupt4xto1x (see Table 2). A typical analysis procedure is outlined in  
29 section 5.

30



1 The nonlinMIP design is presently limited to CO<sub>2</sub> forcing, although the same principles could  
2 be applied to other forcings.

3

## 4 **5 Basic analysis principles**

5 This section outlines the general principles behind analysis of nonlinMIP results. The  
6 primary idea is to find where the step-response model (section 2) breaks: since the step-  
7 response model is based on a linear assumption, this amounts to detecting non-linear  
8 responses.

9

10 The aim is to focus subsequent analysis. If non-linearities in a quantity of interest are found  
11 to be small, then analysis may focus on understanding different timescales of response from a  
12 single abruptCO<sub>2</sub> experiment: linearity means that the physical response (over a useful range  
13 of CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations) is captured by a single abruptCO<sub>2</sub> experiment. This represents a  
14 considerable simplification. If, on the other hand, non-linearities are found to be important,  
15 the focus shifts to understanding the different responses in different abruptCO<sub>2</sub> experiments.  
16 The choice of which abruptCO<sub>2</sub> experiments to focus on, and over which timescales, is  
17 discussed below.

18

### 19 **5.1 First step: check basic traceability of abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub> to the transient-forced** 20 **response near 4xCO<sub>2</sub>**

21 The test described here is recommended as a routine analysis of the CMIP6 DECK  
22 experiments (even if nonlinMIP experiments are not performed). The aim is to confirm  
23 whether the abruptCO<sub>2</sub> experiments contain realistic physical responses in the variables of  
24 interest (as previously done for global-mean temperature and heat uptake for a range of  
25 CMIP5 models (Good et al., 2013), for regional-scale warming and ocean heat uptake (Good  
26 et al., 2015;Bouttes et al., 2015) and for other global-mean quantities for HadCM3 (Good et  
27 al., 2011). This also, rules out the most pathological non-linearities (e.g. if the response to an  
28 abrupt CO<sub>2</sub> change in a given GCM was unrealistic). Although this test has been done for a  
29 range of models and variables, traceability cannot be assumed to hold for all models and  
30 variables.



1

2 The linear step-response model should first be used with the abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub> response, to  
3 predict the response near year 140 of the 1pctCO<sub>2</sub> experiment (i.e. near 4xCO<sub>2</sub>). This  
4 prediction is then compared with the actual GCM 1pctCO<sub>2</sub> result. This should first be done  
5 for global mean temperature: this assessment has been performed for a range of CMIP5  
6 models (Good et al., 2013; see Figure 8), giving an idea of the level of accuracy expected. If  
7 the abruptCO<sub>2</sub> response is fundamentally unrealistic, it is likely to show up in the global  
8 temperature change. This approach may then be repeated for spatial patterns of warming, and  
9 then for the quantities of interest. Abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub> is used here as it has larger signal/noise than  
10 abrupt2xCO<sub>2</sub>, yet is representative of forcing levels in a business-as-usual scenario by 2100.  
11 However, the tests may also be repeated using abrupt2xCO<sub>2</sub> – but compared with year 70 of  
12 the 1pctCO<sub>2</sub> experiment (i.e. at 2xCO<sub>2</sub>).

13

14 The step-response model emulation under these conditions should perform well for most  
15 cases: the state at year 140 of the 1pctCO<sub>2</sub> experiment is very similar to that of abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub>  
16 (same forcing, similar global-mean temperature), so errors from non-linear mechanisms  
17 should be minimal. If large errors are found, this may imply caution about the use of  
18 abruptCO<sub>2</sub> experiments for these variables, or perhaps point to novel non-linear mechanisms  
19 that may be understood by further analysis.

20

## 21 **5.2 Second step: characterising nonlinear responses**

22 Having established some level of confidence in the abruptCO<sub>2</sub> physical response, the second  
23 step is to look for nonlinear responses. This first involves repeating the tests from step 1  
24 above, but for different parts of the 1pctCO<sub>2</sub> and 1pctCO<sub>2</sub> ramp-down experiments, and  
25 using different abruptCO<sub>2</sub> experiments for the step-response model.

26

27 An example is given in Figure 9 (but for different transient-forcing experiments). This shows  
28 results for global-mean precipitation in the HadCM3 GCM (Good et al., 2012). Here, the  
29 step-response model prediction using abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub> (red curves) only works where a  
30 transient-forced experiment is near to 4xCO<sub>2</sub>. Similarly, the prediction using abrupt2xCO<sub>2</sub>



1 (blue curves) works only near 2xCO<sub>2</sub>. Otherwise, quite large errors are seen, and the  
2 predictions with abrupt2xCO<sub>2</sub> and abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub> are quite different from each other. This  
3 implies that there are large non-linearities in the precipitation response in this GCM, and that  
4 they may be studied by comparing the responses in the abrupt2xCO<sub>2</sub> and abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub>  
5 experiments.

6

7 Having identified some non-linear response, and highlighted two or more abruptCO<sub>2</sub>  
8 experiments to compare (in the previous example, abrupt2xCO<sub>2</sub> and abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub>), the non-  
9 linear mechanisms may be studied in detail by comparing the responses in the different  
10 abruptCO<sub>2</sub> experiments over the same timescale (e.g. via the doubling difference, as in  
11 Figures 6,7). This allows (Good et al., 2012; Chadwick and Good, 2013; Good et al., 2015)  
12 non-linear mechanisms to be separated from linear mechanisms (not possible in a transient-  
13 forcing experiment).

14

## 15 **6 Conclusions**

16

17 There is a need to quantify and understand, at regional scales, nonlinear mechanisms of  
18 climate change. This is difficult to do using transient model experiments alone, for two  
19 reasons: contamination due to different timescales of response, and noise from internal  
20 variability. This paper outlines the basic physical principles behind the nonlinMIP design,  
21 and the method of establishing traceability from abruptCO<sub>2</sub> to gradual forcing experiments,  
22 before detailing the experimental design and finally some general analysis principles that  
23 should apply to most studies based on this dataset.

24

## 25 **7 Data availability**

26

27 Results will be made available as part of the CFMIP project, within the sixth model  
28 intercomparison project, CMIP6.

29



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1 Table 1. List of CMIP5/CMIP6 DECK experiments required by nonlinMIP.

Experiment	Description	Role
piControl	Pre-industrial control experiment	
Abrupt4xCO2	CO2 abruptly quadrupled, then held constant for 150 years.	Separate different timescales of response.
1pctCO2	CO2 increased at 1% per year for 140 years (i.e. as CMIP5 1pctCO2 experiment), then decreased by 1% per year for 140 years (i.e. returning to pre-industrial conditions).	To test traceability of the abruptCO2 experiments to more realistic transient-forcing conditions. Adding the ramp-down phase explores physics relevant to mitigation and geo-engineering scenarios.

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- 1 Table 2. NonlinMIP experimental design. Three options are: only the ‘essential’ simulation;
- 2 all ‘high priority’ plus the ‘essential’ simulations; or, all simulations. The experiments in
- 3 Table 1 are required in all cases.

Experiment (priority)	Description	Role
Abrupt2xCO2 (essential)	As abrupt4xCO2 (see Table 1), but at double pre-industrial CO2 concentration.	To diagnose non-linear responses (in combination with abrupt4xCO2).  Assess climate response and (if appropriate) make climate projections with the step-response model at forcing levels more relevant to mid- or low-forcing scenarios.
Abrupt0.5xCO2 (essential)	As abrupt4xCO2 (see Table 1), but at half pre-industrial CO2 concentration	To diagnose non-linear responses (in combination with abrupt4xCO2 and abrupt2xCO2). Offers greater signal/noise for regional precipitation change than if just abrupt2xCO2 was used. Also relevant to paleoclimate studies.
Extend both abrupt2xCO2 and abrupt4xCO2 by 100 years (high priority)		Permit improved signal/noise in diagnosing some regional-scale non-linear responses  Explore longer timescale responses than in CMIP5 experiment. Permit step-response model scenario simulations from 1850-2100

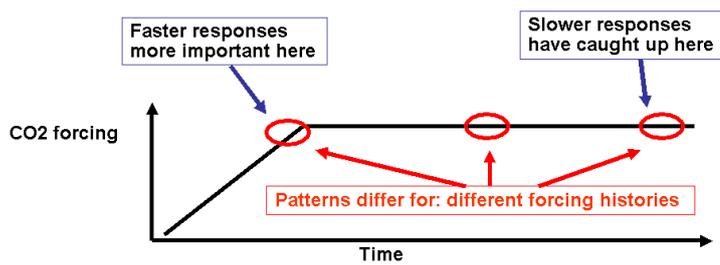


		<p>Allow traceability tests (via the step-response model) against most of the 1pctCO<sub>2</sub> ramp-up-ramp-down experiment.</p> <p>Provide a baseline control for the abrupt4xto1x experiment.</p>
1pctCO <sub>2</sub> ramp-down (medium priority)	<p>Initialised from the end of 1pctCO<sub>2</sub>. CO<sub>2</sub> is decreased by 1% per year for 140 years (i.e. returning to pre-industrial conditions).</p>	<p>To test traceability of the abruptCO<sub>2</sub> experiments to more realistic transient-forcing conditions. Adding the ramp-down phase explores a much wider range of physical responses, providing a sterner test of traceability. Relevant also to mitigation and geo-engineering scenarios, and offers a sterner test of.</p>
Abrupt4xto1x (medium priority)	<p>Initialised from year 100 of abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub> is abruptly returned to pre-industrial levels, then held constant for 150 years.</p>	<p>Quantify non-linearities over a larger range of CO<sub>2</sub> (quantifies responses at 1xCO<sub>2</sub>).</p> <p>Assess non-linearities that may be associated with the direction of forcing change.</p>
Abrupt8xCO <sub>2</sub> (medium priority)	<p>As abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub>, but at 8x pre-industrial CO<sub>2</sub> concentration. Only 150 years required here.</p>	<p>Quantify non-linearities over a larger range of CO<sub>2</sub>.</p>

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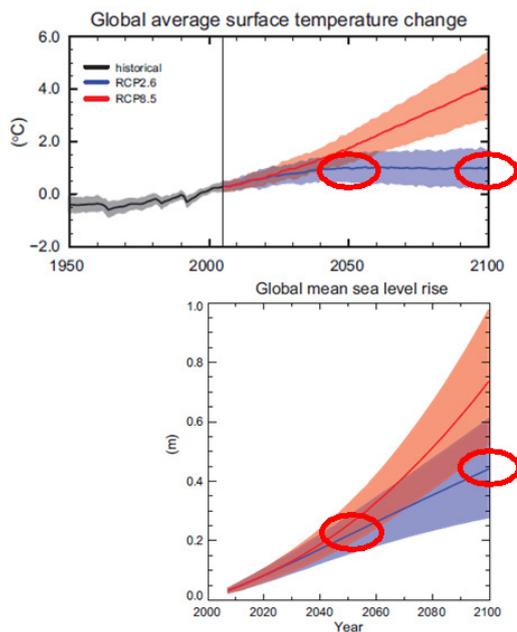
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Figure 1. Schematic illustrating a situation where linear mechanisms can cause climate patterns to evolve. This represents a scenario where forcing (black line) is ramped up, then stabilised.



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5 Figure 2. Adapted (red ovals overlaid) from the IPCC Fifth Assessment Report (IPCC, 2013),  
6 Figures SPM.7 and SPM.9. Global mean warming (top) and global mean sea level rise  
7 (bottom), relative to 1986-2005, for rcp8.5 (red) and rcp2.6 (blue).

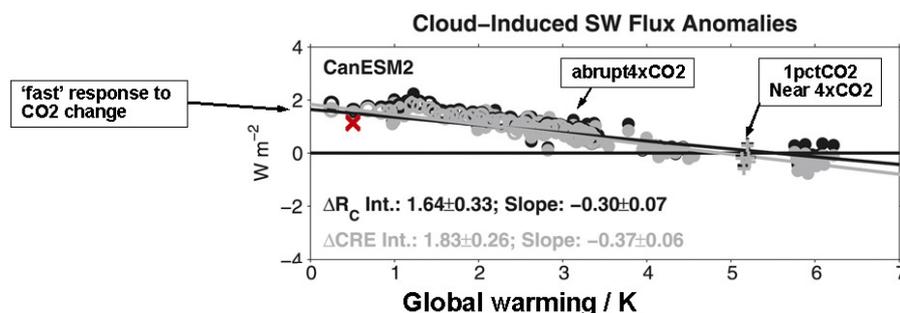
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4 Figure 3. Illustrating a method (Gregory et al., 2004) for separating ‘fast’ and ‘slow’  
5 responses to radiative forcing change. Figure adapted (labels in rectangles overlaid) from  
6 Zelinka et al. (2013). Global-mean cloud-induced SW flux anomalies against global  
7 warming, for the CanESM2 model (black & grey represent two methods of calculating cloud-  
8 induced fluxes). This also illustrates one test of traceability of abrupt4xCO2 to 1pctCO2  
9 responses: the linear fit to the abrupt4xCO2 response (straight lines) passes through the  
10 1pctCO2 response near 4xCO2 (i.e. near year 140 of that experiment).

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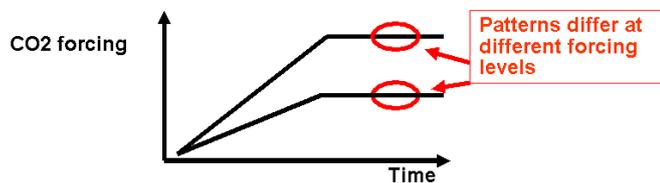


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7 Figure 4. Schematic illustrating the point that nonlinear mechanisms can cause climate

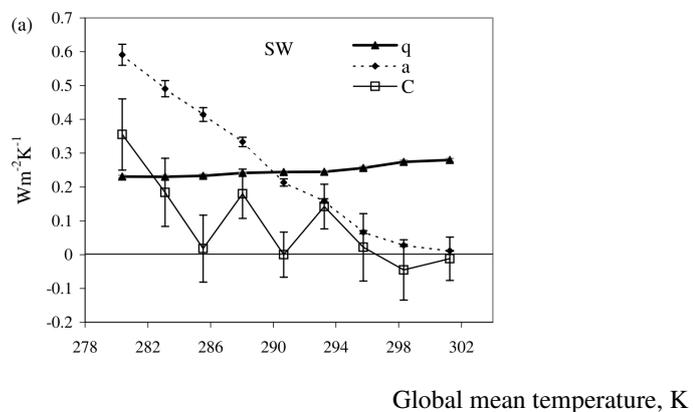
8 patterns to differ at different forcing (and hence global temperature) levels.

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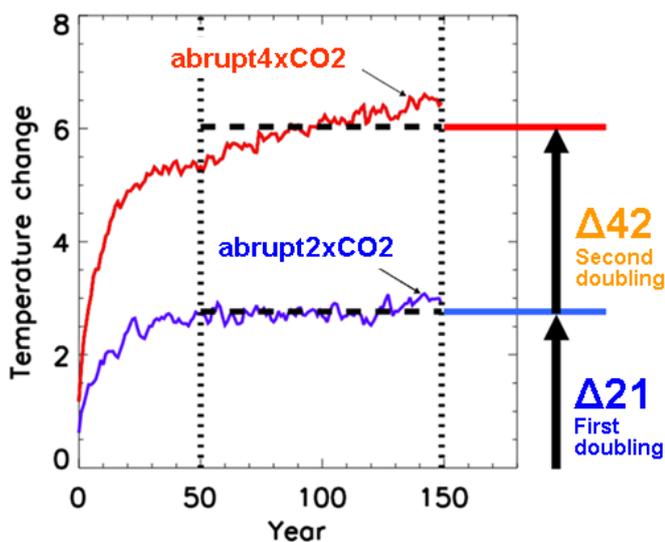


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Figure 5. Albedo feedback (dotted line) strength (y-axis) decreasing with global mean temperature (x-axis, K) in a climate model (figure from Colman and McAvaney, 2009).



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4 Figure 6. Defining the ‘doubling difference’. Doubling difference =  $\Delta 42 - \Delta 21$  (the  
5 difference in response between the first and second CO<sub>2</sub> doublings. This is defined for a  
6 specific timescale after the abrupt CO<sub>2</sub> change – in this example, it is the mean over years 50-  
7 149.

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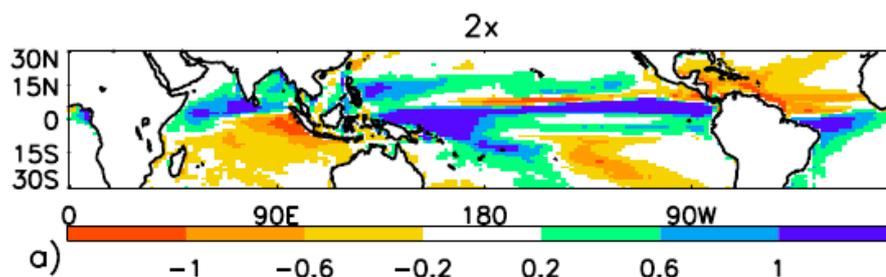
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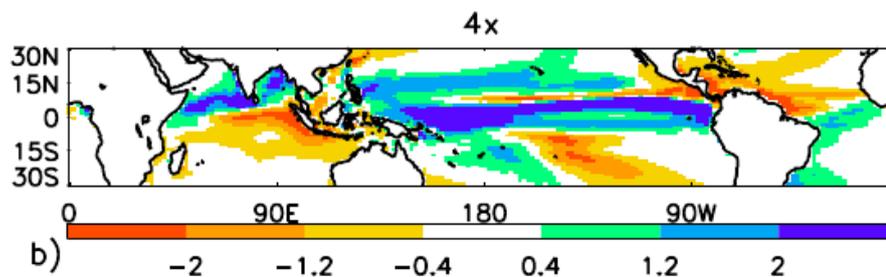
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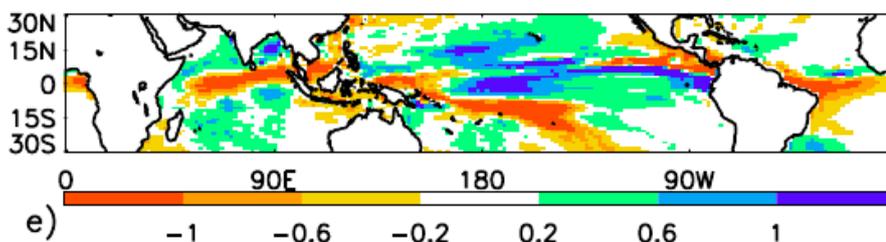


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Doubling difference



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6 Figure 7. Non-linear regional precipitation responses over the ocean in HadGEM2-ES (figure  
7 from Chadwick and Good, 2013). Precipitation change (mm/day) averaged over years 50-149  
8 for (top) abrupt2xCO<sub>2</sub> and (middle) abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub>, and the doubling difference (bottom).  
9 Note that the top and bottom panels have the same scale.

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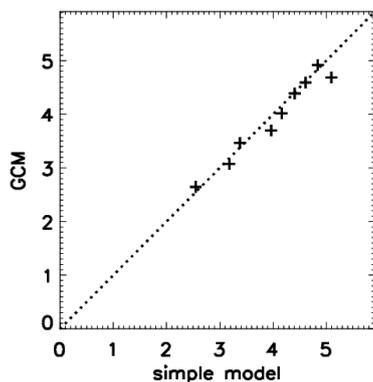
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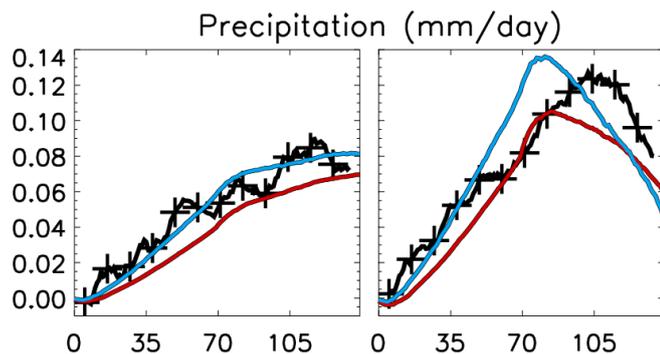
3 Figure 8. Checking basic traceability of abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub> to a transient forcing experiment  
4 (1pctCO<sub>2</sub>) (figure from Good et al., 2013). Global-mean warming (K) averaged over years  
5 120-139 of 1pctCO<sub>2</sub> for (y-axis) the GCM simulation and (x-axis) the reconstruction from  
6 abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub> using the step-response method.

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Figure 9. Finding nonlinear responses in transient forcing experiments. (figure from Good et al., 2012). Left: where CO<sub>2</sub> is increased by 1% per year, then stabilised at 2x pre-industrial levels. Right: where CO<sub>2</sub> is increased by 2% per year for 70 years, then decreased by 2% per year for 70 years. Black: GCM. Red: step-response model using the abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub> response. Blue: the abrupt2xCO<sub>2</sub> response.