Reviewer1

MS No.: gmd-2019-253

This paper examines benefits of increasing resolutions in CMIP5 GCMs and EURO-CORDEX RCMs on extreme temperature, precipitation and wind indices. The paper examines a critical topic in the field of model development. In my opinion the paper serves to what was proposed. However, I have a couple of major comments about the methodology and a few of minor comments about the manuscript. I would strongly encourage the authors to add at least a qualitative discussion on the points mentioned below.

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Thank you for your helpful comments and suggestions. Please find our point by point responses below.

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Major comments:

1) Authors have used empirically computed return periods. This method of computing return periods has a major limitation that it only considers the rank and not the actual magnitude of the data. Therefore, the largest return period computed here from 36 years of data cannot exceed 36 years. The method does not calculate return periods with sufficient accuracy in some cases such as a trend in the data or passage of a single storm of unusually very high intensity. In such cases the return periods will be underestimated. A proper way of estimating return periods is to fit a theoretical generalized extreme value (GEV) distribution to block maxima (annual maxima, here), and then compute return periods from using the parameters of the fitted distribution.

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> I would encourage authors to recognize this aspect of the limitation in their methodology and associated impact on return periods.

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We add this sentence to the methods section. "This is an empirical approach and has the limitation that return periods cannot exceed the number of years of data used (e.g. 36 years). This is still the case even if an extremely unusual event occurs. Using a GEV would allow estimates for higher return periods, but this would still be an extrapolation."

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Also, a GEV would also be affected by non-stationarity in climate.

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2) Authors have bias adjusted the data before computing return periods. This artificially reduces/ enhances the model maxima to appear closer to the observational estimates. In my opinion this hides the "true" model performance. For example, a comparison of Fig. 6 and S9 suggests that models perform poorer when evaluated without bias-correction. In my opinion an objective model estimation should not include bias-correction. Bias correction should only be used after a model has been evaluated.

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Biases of the indices used are shown in the map plots. The focus of the return period plots is instead on the shape of the return curves. For CMIP5 and CORDEX, the large variety of models used gives rise to a large spread of curves due to mean biases in the indices which makes it very difficult to compare the shape of the curves between models, and also with the observations. The adjustment that we apply aims merely to shift the curves up or down so that they have the same mean in order to allow differences in their shape to be seen. We do not aim to perform a formal bias adjustment. This was not such an issue for the UPSCALE simulations, being based on a single model version per resolution which causes curves to be tightly clustered anyway. (This is why we show results without such an adjustment in the main text, and with the adjustment in the supplement). We have re-written the relevant part of the methods in response to reviewer 2 to make all these points clearer.

3) Authors have used "multimodel means". Multimodel means could strongly be affected by one or two outlier model. Instead, multimodel medians are more robust in a sense that they are rather insensitive to any outliers. I would encourage authors to discuss this limitation in their manuscript.

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The multi model means have now been replaced by multi-model medians for CORDEX and CMIP5. For UPSCALE the number of simulations was small (3 or 5 per resolution) and all came from the same model (meaning outliers are unlikely), so we kept the means.

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4) Also, it appears that authors have used all ensemble members from a model to compute "MM all" as in figures such as Fig. 1, 3 etc. This method of computing multimodel means gives more weight to a model with multiple ensemble members than a model with a single or a smaller number of ensemble members. This will also most likely result into model biases that are not representative of "common" model biases across different sets of GCMs.

This is a valid point. We have now replaced "MM all" results using one member per model both for CMIP5 and CORDEX.

Minor comments:

1) At several places (e.g., lines L201, 251, 265, 281 etc.) authors have used the term 'observation/s" for observational datasets (E-OBS, MESCAN etc.). These observational datasets are not "observations".

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"Observations" has now been replaced by "observational dataset" throughout.

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2) L206: What is OSTIA?

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Operational Sea Surface Temperature and Sea Ice Analysis. The longer name has been added to the text.

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3) L80: "Precipitation extremes tend to get heavier and agree better with observations". When? With increasing resolution? If yes, please mention this.

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Yes, this is now said explicitly

84 85 86 4) L77-79: I do not understand this sentence completely. What do you mean by "for grid point models"? I suggest authors to use short and simple sentences instead of a long complex sentence (e.g., L477-480).

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"Grid point model" is a standard term describing GCMs that perform calculations on a grid and is in contrast to "spectral models". The sentence has been adjusted as follows: "In GCMs, global precipitation tends to increase with resolution, and for grid point GCMs (as opposed to spectral GCMs) the fraction of land precipitation and moisture fluxes from land to ocean increases, largely due to better resolved orography.

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The complex sentence you refer to has been split into two.

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5) L318-319: The differences will be bigger when return periods are computed without bias adjustment.

We are really focusing on the difference shapes of the tails in the return period plots rather than differences in the mean values of the indices (which are shown in the map figures). The purpose of the "bias correction" is not really to perform bias correction in itself, we merely wish to shift all the curves together to have the same mean in order to be able to compare their shapes, which would not be possible when their mean values are totally different. The description of the bias correction has been reworded to reflect this.

6) L323:324: This statement does not seem to be completely true. Cold biases in Scandinavian region increase considerably from CMIP5 to CORDEX 0.44. Also, the warm bias in the eastern part of Central Europe has decreased from CMIP5 to CORDEX. The "insensitivity" observed in Fig. 2 may be partly due to bias-adjustment.

You are correct concerning the Scandinavian cold bias. The difference in the warmbias between CMIP5 and CORDEX in the "common subset" of simulations has decreased now that we use ensemble medians instead of means. This sentence has been rephrased as follows:

- In summary, shapes of return period curves for temperature extremes appear to be insensitive to dynamical downscaling based on comparing CMIP5 to CORDEX at 0.11° and 0.44°, but biases are affected, for instance over mountains where hot biases decrease with resolution.
- 115 I do not specifically mention this cold bias in this summary statement, because it is unclear whether it is 116 resolution related, or due to other causes, and it does not get worse in the 0.11° simulations compared to 117 the 0.44° ones. However, it is now mention in the discussion section. See also the answer about biases 118 above.

 7) Fig. 5 has color scales swapped between mean and bias figures. As a general comment, I would highly encourage authors to use different color schemes for representing totals and biases. Using once color scheme for both is very confusing while examining many figures.

Thank you for pointing out that the colour bars were the wrong way round. This has now been corrected. Whilst we appreciate the comment that using a different colour scheme for the biases might be less confusing, this would be very time consuming to implement due to the large number of figures (especially in the supplement- the figures with many panels are extremely slow to plot and adjust).

8) L470-471: Return level plots are not distribution plots. Shape of the annual maximum can only be examined by estimating shape parameters of the fitted GEV distribution. Please correct this sentence.

Apologies, we were referring to the shape of the return period curves rather than a formal shape parameter. Nevertheless, it is still possible to comment on whether or not the tails of the distribution get heavier with resolution or not based on these curves. We have corrected this sentence: "whilst the shapes of the return period curves are insensitive"

9) L589-590: Are you referring to Fig. 6 here? If yes, please mention this for clarity.

141 No, all this can be seen in Figure 9.

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43	10) L590-592: It appears that for Rx1day downscaling is more dominant over 3 out of 5
44	regions examined.
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46	These sentences have been rephrased.
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48	11) Table S1: Replace "donate" with "denote".
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50	Thank you for pointing this out.
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52	12) Table S1: "with those forming part of the "common subset" in bold . I think "bold" should
53	be replaced by "colors".
54	Agreed

Comments to: gmd-2019-253, Iles et al. "The benefits of increasing resolution in global and regional 157 climate simulations for European climate extremes". 158 Overall recommendation: minor revision. 159 This is an interesting paper about the effect of increasing model resolution on extreme events, 160 considering the added value of regional climate models with respect to the driving GCMs and different 161 spatial resolutions for the same GCM. An analysis assigning the differences due to resolution to upscaling 162 or downscaling effects is certainly interesting, although a bit too succinct. The first part of the paper makes use of an impressive set of simulations and the consideration of observational uncertainty in the 163 evaluation of precipitation and wind speed is highly appreciated. The paper reads well and is well-164 structured. It adds valuable insights to the existing literature, which is nicely referenced in the discussion. 165 166 I would recommend the consideration for publication in Geoscientific Model Development after minor 167 revision. Note that although labeled as minor, these issues are relevant and should be well addressed in a revised version of the manuscript. 168 Thank you for your thorough review and your helpful comments and suggestions. Please find our point by 169 170 point responses below. 171 172 My main concerns are: 173 1) Bias correction. Why was the bias correction applied directly to the indices instead to the daily input 174 data before obtaining the indices (L278-279)? I think that a correction based on the indices themselves could be noisier since they are values in the upper tail of the distributions and the objective is to look at 175 176 return values which might be even more sensitive to unstable corrections. Applying a simple correction, 177 such as the mean of the daily distribution, prior to the indices calculation would be more robust and also better for consistency among the indices based on the same variable. As far as I understand, maps show 178 179 biases of the raw data (that should be said explicitly) but bias-corrected values values were only used for 180 the return values (that should be stressed), thus as expected, moving the models towards the 181 observations. It should be clearly motivated why this is the case or done in a more appropriate way. I 182 also do not understand why bias correction was not applied to the UPSCALE simulations because of being only one model (L455-457). I think these simulations should be corrected as well, due to the 183 184 nature of the analyzed metrics and for the sake of comparability with the previous sections. 185 Also, was it also an additive correction for precipitation and wind indices? I would expect to have a 186 multiplicative correction in such cases. 187 Using the word "bias adjustment" as we did was misleading. In actual fact we did not really apply a formal bias adjustment as such- the only thing we wished to do was to shift the return period curves up or 188 189 down to have the same mean value of the index in question so that we could focus on differences in the

shapes curves (since biases are already shown in the map figures). Without being shifted in this way, the

curves for different models are so spread out that differences in the shapes of the curves (for CORDEX and

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CMIP5) are impossible to examine. This was not so critical for the UPSCALE simulations because the same
 model is used for a given resolution, and the curves tend to naturally cluster tightly together, allowing
 both differences in shape and mean biases to be seen adequately in the figures. However, we also show
 the adjusted versions in the supplement for comparison.

We update the text accordingly: "In order to allow the shapes of the return period curves to be compared more easily between different types of models (i.e CMIP5 and CORDEX at both resolutions), we first adjust each model to have the same climatological mean value of the extreme index in question. This effectively shifts the curves up or down, but does not change their shape, which is the focus of these figures. Without such a shift, curves are too spread out to be able to discern differences in shape. Therefore we cannot comment on mean biases of the extremes indices based on the return plots, but these biases are already shown and discussed based on map figures (see section 3.1). We implement this adjustment by subtracting the difference between the model climatology of the index in question and the climatology of the reference observational dataset for each model at a grid cell level. We use E-OBS as the reference for temperature and precipitation, and MESCAN for wind. The additional observational datasets shown in the return period plots are also adjusted in the same way. For the UPSCALE simulations, results can also be examined without the need to shift the curves to a common mean value because the same version of the same model is used for a given resolution, meaning that curves for individual simulations tend to cluster together instead of having large mean differences. In this way, differences in biases with resolution are also seen in the return period plots. Nevertheless, we also present UPSCALE results with the adjustment in Figure S9 for comparison."

2) Inconsistencies in wind extremes (L374-376). I acknowledge the explanations and the sensitivity analysis carried out about the different temporal resolution of the wind speed variables in the models. However, I would recommend not to include the analysis with such caveats. A safer way to go would be to consider for wind extremes only the models which can provide the variable which is consistent with the observations (6-hourly). I think that this consistency is more important than keeping consistency with the temperature and precipitation extremes, or than having a larger ensemble. Also, I do not understand the reasoning that values depend on the timestep; wouldn't the primary time step for a given model the same for the three variables? The differences for CMCC, CNRM and the IPSLs are massive in the sensitivity analysis.

Since the last version of this paper a lot more 3 hourly wind data became available on ESGF for CORDEX at 0.11°. Therefore, we have replaced the analysis that was based on sfcWindmax with an analysis based on 3 hourly wind comparing CMIP5 to CORDEX 0.11° (The three hourly data are subsampled to 6 hourly by taking every second value). This is now consistent with the reanalysis datasets and avoids inconsistencies in the way sfcWindmax is computed between models. CORDEX at 0.44° could not be included for the main analysis because there was no overlap between the GCM-RCM combinations used for the two different CORDEX resolutions (and all five 0.44° simulations used RCA as the regional model). In order to allow a comparison of CORDEX at 0.11° and 0.44°, Figure S8 and S9 show a comparison of sfcWindmax for models with data at both resolutions (9 models). sfcWindmax should be computed in a consistent way between the same CORDEX simulations at different resolutions and so is free from some

231 232	of the caveats previously mentioned. All text relating to the wind analysis in CORDEX and CMIP5 has been updated.
233 234 235 236 237 238	Concerning the influence of the timestep on sfcWindmax- wind is an instantaneous value recorded at each model time step. SfcWindmax is the maximum of these values per day. The smaller the timestep, the less chance of peak wind speeds being missed due to the sampling frequency. This affect is illustrated by the comparison of 3 hourly and 6 hourly winds in the former figure S7 in the previous version of this manuscript. Annual maximum wind based on 3 hourly data gives stronger wind speeds than using 6 hourly data.
239 240 241 242 243 244	3) Wind reanalyses. It is good to include three reanalyses as reference to sample observational uncertainty (L371). However the differences among the reanalyses for the considered wind extreme index are massive. Are there any studies comparing them, showing how similar are they to real measurements? Which one should we trust more? Their quality should be brought into question: CMIP5 (also true for the UPSCALE simulations) has small bias with respect to ERA5, but that seems to be very unrealistic.
245 246 247 248 249 250 251 252	There are no studies systematically comparing these three reanalysis. However, Jourdier (2020) compared ERA5 to station data for a number of locations in France and found that ERA5 underestimates mean winds, particularly over the mountains. Niermann et al. (2017) evaluated MESCAN compared to German stations and found that extreme wind speeds were too low, whilst slow wind speeds were too fast. Comparing MESCAN and ERA5 in Figure 4 would therefore suggest that ERA5 has an even larger slow bias for extreme winds, whilst DYNAD is similar to MESCAN over Germany. Tomas Landelius who was involved in the creation of both MESCAN and MESAN suggests that the former should be the most accurate. These points have now been added to the manuscript.
253 254 255 256 257 258	Minor comments L86-69 When referring to the added value of higher resolution RCMs with respect coarser counterparts, the authors could consider to mention that the added value of the high resolution is not so evident when evaluated on the coarse grid, in particular, the improvement in the spatial pattern of precipitation indices is not statistically significant after applying simple bias correction methods (Casanueva et al. 2016, https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s00382-015-2865-x).
259 260	This issue is discussed under the "regridding" subsection. The results found by Casanueva et al. 2016 are also mentioned in the discussion section.
261 262 263 264	L102-113 About wind extremes, the authors might consider to mention the added value of coupled regional climate simulations in terms of surface wind and coastal low-level jet (Soares et al. 2019, https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s00382-018-4565-9), although this work focuses on northern Africa.

Thank you for the reference. However, we feel this is a bit too Africa specific.

L142 Which version of E-OBS was used?

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268	L 148 A good illustration of the E-OBS limitations (including indices such as return values) can be found in
269	Herrera et al. 2019 (https://essd.copernicus.org/articles/11/1947/2019/) for the Iberian Peninsula.
270	Thank you for drawing our attention to this paper. We now cite it here.
271	L169-170 I am not sure if "sub-sample" is correct here, since the process goes from 1 hour to 6 hours,
272	wouldn't it rather be "aggregated"? Was the 6-hourly mean or maximum value obtained? Otherwise,
273	please give some further details of the subsampling. Also in L208.
274	In this case we take every 6 th value in order to go from hourly wind data to 6 hourly wind data. Wind
275	values are instantaneous values. The text has been modified as follows: "We sub-sample ERA5 to 6 hourly
276	data by taking every sixth value in order to be consistent with the other reanalyses."
277	L184 It could be worth to mention here that simulations at the two resolutions are carried out with the
278	same model versions and parameterizations, except for REMO, where rain advection is used for 0.11 but
279	not for 0.44 (Kotlarski et al. 2014, https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-7-1297-2014).
280	Thank you, this point has now been added.
281	L215 That is probably a too strong statement. Smoothing/upscaling the high resolution might lead to
282	partial information loss, but if there is an added value that might be also present at a coarser resolution.
283	We add the word "partial" to this sentence in front of "information loss". We also add another sentence
284	just before: "If processes are captured better at higher resolution, improvements should still be visible
285	when regridded to coarser resolution".
286	L270-282 This paragraph does not really fit here. L270-273 was explained already in Sect.2.1.1 (no need
287	to repeat), where the details about EC-EARTHr3 and the combination of the GCMs of the common subse
288	(L274-276) should be moved to. Bias correction (L277-282) does not fit here either, it could be included
289	in a new little subsection after regridding.
290	All material about the common subset has now been moved to section 2.1.1 and repetition has been
291	removed. The text about bias correction has been altered as described above and so now fits here.
292	L291-293 This paragraph does not fit in the section about return periods. Either this analogue approach
293	is fully described in the Methods in an own section, or this is removed and entirely described in Sect. 4.3
294	I would go for the second option.
295	We have done the second option.
296	L313-314 The last sentence of the paragraph is probably the main conclusion of Fig.S3: the driving GCM
297	seems to be the largest source of variability, which is in agreement with previous studies (e.g.
298	Rummukainen, et al. 2001, https://doi.org/10.1007/s003820000109). But I do not understand what the

authors mean in this sentence with consistent results for a GCM-RCM chain; consistent with what? The

It was version 15. This has now been specified in the text.

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300	message is clear if the authors remove "GCM-RCM chain". Also in Fig. 3, it would be very helpful to draw a box or mark somehow the columns belonging to the common subset (also in Fig. 55).
302	Actually this sentence was referring to different ensemble members of the same model e.g. for CMIP5 this
303	could be EC-Earth r1, r2 and r12. For CORDEX this could be EC-Earth-RCA driven by r1, r3 and r12 of EC-
304	Earth. I have now added a comment on the influence of the driving model on the CORDEX results earlier in the paragraph (new part in bold): "There are also substantial differences between results from
305	different RCMs, including those driven by the same GCM, although the driving GCM does seem to affect
306 307	the overall magnitude of the temperature extremes."
308	A box has been drawn around the models that are part of the common subset as suggested.
309	Fig.2 is too complicated, I am not able to see the mentioned shadings in the caption, corresponding to
310	the full set or to the subset. Such shadings (if present) could be omitted and I would recommend to show
311	only the individual simulations with different colours and the multi-model median of each subset.
312	Observations and their ranges are a bit difficult to distinguish, the authors could try using another colour.
313	By "shade" I was referring to the lightness/darkness of the colour of the multi-model median lines (which
314	is darker for the version based on the common subset and lighter for the version based on all models). I
315	have changed "shades" to "colours" to avoid confusion: "Thin lines are individual ensemble members,
316	thick lines are multi model medians: lighter colours for the full ensembles, and darker colours for the
317	subset of models common to CMIP5 and both CORDEX resolutions." Concerning the observations, I have
318	not managed to think of a colour that shows up better than black.
319	L352 What does "models" refer to here? GCMs? RCMs? I think that there is a difference here to the
320	extreme temperature index, since for RX1day results seem to be more consistent for a given RCM
321	regardless of the GCM than for the RCMs with the same driving GCM (see RCA-011).
322	Both-but here we refer specifically to either ensemble members of the same GCM (e.g. EC-Earth r1
323	compared to EC-Earth r12), or the same GCM-RCM chain driven with different members of the same GCM
324	(e.g. EC-Earth-RCA driven by r1, r3 and r12 of EC-Earth). Also, we have added this sentence to express the
325	point you raise here "The spatial patterns seem to be very RCM dependent, with limited influence of
326	biases in the driving GCM."
327	Fig. 5 Aren't the colorbars in Fig.5 switched?
328	Yes, thank you for pointing this out
329	L464 If Figure 5 is based on bias-corrected data and Fig.6 is not, they cannot be compared.
330	Neither figure involves bias adjusted data.
331	Fig.6 and S9 RX1day: I noticed different values for MESAN, which seems to be closer to E-OBS in Fig.S9,
332	was there a higs correction performed for the reanalysis products towards F-ORS2 I think I miss that

explanation, which should be included in the methods. This comment also applies to wind extremes.

334 Yes, see answer to comment 1. 335 Fig.6 and S9. Why are the Alps not shown for wind (also in Fig.9)? The Alps have now been added. (They were originally excluded because in the CORDEX analysis models 336 337 differed according to whether they simulated fast or slow winds over the Alps relative to everywhere else, 338 suggesting that there were large inconsistencies in how winds were dealt with over mountains. However, 339 since the UPSCALE analysis is based on only one model, wind will be treated in a more consistent way 340 between simulations, and therefore we feel it is ok to add this panel as suggested.) 341 L565-569 The analogues analysis is very interesting. One question about analogues recognition: how do 342 you set that the analogue is a good one? I mean, by looking at the correlation of spatial patterns you can 343 always find analogues which can be more or less similar to the target situation, but did you set a 344 correlation limit below which there is not a good analogue for one day? Or did you always find high 345 correlations? For each day we choose the best analogue (i.e with the highest correlation coefficient). Most of the time 346 347 this coefficient was over 0.7 (mostly above 0.8). The day with the least good best analogue has a correlation coefficient of ~0.5. For the larger domain used for temperature correlation coefficients were 348 349 higher. We did not set a lower limit. L574-577 This approach of smoothing before calculating the analogues does not seem to be right. The 350 analogue day should be obtained with the same criteria for all variables/indices, i.e. a given atmospheric 351 352 circulation is related to a value of temperature, precipitation and wind speed. Calculating it differently 353 brings inconsistent variables. Moreover, this approach seems to be responsible of the overestimation of 354 the return periods of Tx5day, later in lines 601-603, where it is also said that doing it differently results 355 shift downwards. The results for Tx5day have now been replaced by the versions that do the smoothing last thing (i.e. the 356 analogues are calculated and the u-chronic dataset constructed using daily data, and then the u-chronic 357 dataset is smoothed at the end). This shifts the curves downwards underneath the ones using the original 358 359 data. 360 L603 "but otherwise gives the same results", isn't "otherwise" the way it is done in the paper (i.e. first averaging, second analogues)? Then of course it produces the same results as shown. This sentence 361 362 needs some rephrasing. It seems that it was ambiguous what "otherwise" referred to. I meant that apart from being shifted 363 364 downwards, the results doing the averaging last are the same as the results doing it first (i.e. the 365 relationship between the different curves is the same). I have now rephrased the text (which also takes into account the changes done in response to the previous comment): "For the 5-day variables (Rx5day 366 and TXx5day) the u-chronic dataset was smoothed using a 5-day running mean at the end of the process. 367 368 We also tried smoothing the daily geopotential height, precipitation and temperature datasets first and 369 then performing the analogue analysis. The relationship between the different curves was largely

370 371	consistent between the two techniques, but absolute values differed and the shape of the curves changed a little. Results presented here are based on the first technique."
372 373	L606 It would be nice to have a quantitative value of the downscaling and upscaling effect on the indices, such as the relative change with respect to the self-analogue for a given or several return periods.
374 375	I feel that this would become quite complicated to express in the text given the potentially large number of numbers that would need to be written. I think that the graphs show this much more clearly.
376 377	L604 How are model biases treated in Sect. 4.3? In my view, following the above thoughts on bias correction, mean biases should be removed from the analogue series prior to the indices calculation.
378	There is no bias correction involved in section 4.3. See also answer to comment 1 above.
379 380 381 382	L618-625 The obtained results should be discussed in the context of other studies which show that RCMs yield systematic reduction of temperature biases compared with the driving GCM (Soerland et al. 2018, https://iopscience.iop.org/article/10.1088/1748-9326/aacc77, where some reasons for this are also given).
383 384 385 386 387	We add the following to the discussion section: "Hot biases over mountains reduced with increased resolution, although the cold bias over Scandinavia was worse in CORDEX than in CMIP5. This amplified Scandinavian cold bias in CORDEX is consistent with the findings of Sørland et a I (2018) for mean summer temperature, although we did not find the same reduction of the warm bias in Eastern Europe in CORDEX as they did, possibly due to differences in the models used.
388 389 390 391	L692 I would recommend to mention around here or somewhere in the the discussion the potential benefits of current projects such as the EURO-CORDEX flagship pilot studies, about land use change and convection permitting simulations (Jacob et al. 2020, https://doi.org/10.1007/s10113-020-01606-9, for an overview on EURO-CORDEX perspectives).
392 393 394 395 396 397 398 399	A final paragraph has been added: "Finally, ongoing projects such as HighResMIP for CMIP6 (Haarsma et al., 2016), and the CORDEX Flagship Pilot Studies, particularly the FPS on Convective Phenomena at High Resolution over Europe and the Mediterranean (Coppola et al., 2019; Jacob et al 2020), will enable the benefits of high resolution and its effect on European climate projections to be explored more thoroughly. The former will allow a systematic exploration of the effects of increased resolution for multiple GCMs through coordinated experiments simulating the past and future climate. The latter will include a first of its kind large multi-model ensemble at convective permitting resolution for decadal time slices in the present and future for a large domain covering central Europe and part of the Mediterranean."
400	We do not specifically mention the FPS on land use, since land use is not a focus of our paper.
401	Spellings and typos
402	L69 EURO-CORDEX initiative instead of EUROCORDEX project. Use EURO-CORDEX throughout the

manuscript (there are some inconsistencies).

405 L69 missing bracket after the reference. 406 Fixed. 407 L74 Maybe better "coarser" than "less", since it refers to the resolution. 408 We have replaced "less" with "coarser". 409 L164 Isn't a word missing between "adaptation" and "a downscaled"? Yes, the word "of" was missing 410 411 Table S1, caption "their corresponding CORDEX simulations to the left", shouldn't it be to the right? 412 When describing the crosses, are they really bold? I would say that those in the "common subset" are 413 those with coloured (not bold) crosses. 414 Yes, thank you for pointing this out. And although the crosses for the "common subset" are bold as well 415 as coloured, the colour is easier to see, so we have changed the caption accordingly. 416 L215-217 Is then the 0.5° common grid the E-OBS grid? Is so, say it explicitly. This sentence has been re-phrased as follows: "We use the 0.5° regular longitude-latitude grid of E-OBS 417 since it is in-between the resolution of the CORDEX models and CMIP5, and is computationally feasible." 418 419 L221 I would say "The sensitivity of the results to the regridding technique...", also L223 "sensitive to the 420 regridding technique", L225 "the regridding technique did not make much difference to the results"; but 421 check with a native English speaker. 422 Corrected 423 L305 Wouldn't "CORDEX subset" be "common subset"? Here the differences between the left and right 424 panels are being compared. This sentence has been rephrased: "Biases for CORDEX using the whole ensemble are very similar to those 425 for the common subset. For CMIP5 the hot biases over the south-east, and over mountain ranges are 426 stronger when using all simulations compared to the subset." 427 L309 Capitalize Figure, also in other parts of the manuscript. 428 429 done 430 L318 What do you mean with "are representative of the subregions"?

This was perhaps ambiguous and has now been rephrased as follows: Results are shown for Northern,

Central and Southern Europe, and are representative of results for the smaller PRUDENCE regions that

This has been corrected.

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fall within their boundaries.

- Fig.2 Caption. British Isles are in the top right panel, not in the top left.
- 435 Thank you for pointing out this mistake.
- 436 L350 "E-OBS". Homogenize notation along the manuscript: it is sometimes Eobs or E-OBS or EOBS.
- This has been changed to "E-OBS" throughout the text.
- 438 L475 heavier.
- 439 Corrected
- 440 L511 dot missing at the end of the sentence.
- 441 Fixed
- 442 L566 Should "lows" be "flows"?
- 443 No, we mean the low pressure at the surface associated with hot surface temperatures due to heating,
- 444 expansion and rising of surface air. "Heat low" is a standard term, so we choose to keep it. E.g.
- 445 https://link.springer.com/referenceworkentry/10.1007/1-4020-3266-8 95
- 446 In all figures of return period in which the region of Scandinavia is included, Scandinavia is badly spelled.
- Thank you for pointing this out. This has been corrected.
- 448 L602 "see Methods" should be "see above", since the procedure is explained above in the same section.
- 449 This has been corrected, thank you.
- 450 L655 dot missing at the end of the sentence.
- 451 Thanks, now corrected.
- 452 L660 "can overestimate"
- 453 corrected
- 454 References
- 455 Jourdier, B.: Evaluation of ERA5, MERRA-2, COSMO-REA6, NEWA and AROME to simulate wind power
- 456 production over France, Adv. Sci. Res., 17, 63–77, https://doi.org/10.5194/asr-17-63-2020, 2020.
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- $460 \qquad \text{independent data sets, pp. 138 , available from: http://www.uerra.eu/publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deliverable-publications/deli$
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The benefits of increasing resolution in global and regional climate simulations for European climate extremes

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470 Abstract. Many climate extremes, including heatwaves and heavy precipitation events, are projected to worsen under 471 climate change, with important impacts for society. Future projections, required for adaptation, are often based on 472 climate model simulations. Given finite resources, trade-offs must be made concerning model resolution, ensemble 473 size and level of model complexity. Here we focus on the resolution component. A given resolution can be achieved 474 over a region using either global climate models (GCMs) or at lower cost using regional climate models (RCMs) that 475 dynamically downscale coarser GCMs. Both approaches to increasing resolution may better capture small-scale 476 processes and features (downscaling effect), but increased GCM resolution may also improve the representation of the 477 large-scale atmospheric circulation (upscaling effect). The size of this upscaling effect is therefore important for 478 deciding modelling strategies. Here we evaluate the benefits of increased model resolution for both global and regional 479 climate models for simulating temperature, precipitation and wind extremes over Europe at resolutions that could 480 currently be realistically used for coordinated sets of climate projections at the pan-European scale. First we examine 481 the benefits of regional downscaling by comparing EURO-CORDEX simulations at 12.5 and 50 km resolution to their 482 coarser CMIP5 driving simulations. Secondly, we compare global scale HadGEM3-A simulations at three resolutions 483 (130, 60 and 25 km). Finally, we separate out resolution dependent differences for HadGEM3-A into downscaling and 484 upscaling components using a circulation analogue technique. Results suggest limited benefits of increased resolution for heatwaves, except in reducing hot biases over mountainous regions. Precipitation extremes are sensitive to 485 486 resolution, particularly over complex orography, with larger totals and heavier tails of the distribution at higher resolution, particularly in the CORDEX vs CMIP5 analysis. CMIP5 models underestimate precipitation extremes, 487 whilst CORDEX simulations overestimate compared to E-OBS, particularly at 12.5 km, but results are sensitive to the 488 observational dataset used, with the MESAN reanalysis giving higher totals and heavier tails than E-OBS. Wind 489 extremes are somewhat stronger and heavier tailed at higher resolution, except at coastal regions where large coastal 490 grid boxes spread strong ocean winds further over land. The circulation analogue analysis suggests that differences 491 492 with resolution for the HadGEM3-A GCM are primarily due to downscaling effects.

1 Introduction

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Climate extremes, such as heatwaves and heavy precipitation events are projected to worsen under climate change, with important impacts for society (Seneviratne et al., 2012). Such projections are generally based on numerical climate

model simulations. However, given finite computational resources, trade-offs between model resolution, ensemble size and the level of model complexity are necessary. For extreme events driven by large-scale processes such as stationary anticyclones, the proper simulation of the amplitude of extremes is limited by dynamics but also by land-atmosphere feedbacks and the many physical processes involved in the surface energy budget. Such extremes are typically heat waves, droughts and cold spells. Many other types of extreme event are by nature small scale, i.e. on the order of a few kilometres to a few hundred kilometres. Such is the case of convective precipitation, flash floods, extratropical wind storms, cyclones and medicanes. These are poorly resolved at the resolution of Global Climate Models (GCMs) in CMIP5 (Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5; Taylor et al., 2012). Increased resolution in GCMs may improve the representation of small-scale processes and features, including orography and coastlines (downscaling effect), but potentially may also improve the representation of the interaction between small and large scale dynamical processes and ultimately improve the large-scale atmospheric flow (upscaling effect). For instance, a better representation of baroclinic eddies may help to better simulate large Rossby waves such as those inducing long-lived anomalies, due to the inverse energy cascade. This may improve the simulation of the frequency and duration of heat waves and cold spells, and related anomalies such as summer droughts. For precipitation and wind extremes, an improvement with resolution could be expected due to the small-scale processes and features involved, including convection and the influence of topography. However, upscaling effects may also have benefits by improving stormtrack location, and duration of wet spells. An alternative approach to increasing the resolution of global-scale models is to use regional climate models (RCMs) driven by coarser GCMs to achieve a given high resolution over a limited area at lower cost. However, this technique only captures downscaling effects, since the RCM inherits the large scale circulation from the driving GCM.

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Current generation GCMs commonly used for climate projections (e.g. CMIP5 models) have a horizontal grid spacing ranging from about 70 to 250 km. Resolution has been increasing further in CMIP6 (Eyring et al. 2016), with somealthough 25 km simulations now being runGCMs are starting to be run under projects such as PRIMAVERA and HighResMIP (part of CMIP6; Haarsma et al., 2016). For coordinated RCM experiments, such as CORDEX (Coordinated Regional Downscaling Experiment; Giorgi et al., 2009), grid spacing is generally between 10 to 50 km (e.g. Jacob et al., 2014). In order to simulate convective precipitation a grid spacing of <5 km is needed, which is very computationally expensive, but such ensembles of convection permitting RCMs are currently in development (e.g. Coppola et al., 2019; Risanto et al. 2019). An important question is the extent to which increased resolution benefits the simulation of extreme events for both global and regional models for the kind of resolutions that can realistically be run for coordinated pan-continental climate projections. Particularly, whether using global high resolution adds further benefits over regional high resolution due to an improved large scale circulation. We will address these questions focusing on Europe, for which a large number of coordinated RCM simulations at two standard resolutions are available as part of the EURO-CORDEX initiative project (Jacob et al., 2014), and whose climate is highly variable and affected by a range of both large and small scale processes, which present challenges for adequate simulation. We focus on extreme precipitation, temperature and wind, to cover a range of phenomenaevents that may be affected by resolution in different ways. Throughout the rest of this manuscript we use the term "resolution" to mean model horizontal grid spacing, whilst recognising that a model's effective resolution, in terms of the scales it can capture, is always ½ coarseress than its grid spacing (Skamarock 2004; Klavar et al. 2020).

The benefits of increased resolution for European precipitation extremes are well documented, whilst the effects on heatwaves, cold spells and wind extremes are less well known. In GCMs, global precipitation tends to increase with resolution, and for grid point modelsGCMs (as opposed to spectral GCMs) the fraction of land precipitation and moisture fluxes from land to ocean increases, largely due to better resolved orography (Vannière et al., 2019; Terai et al., 2018; Demory et al., 2014). Precipitation extremes tend to get heavier (Bador et al. 2020) and in some studies agree better with observational estimatess with increased resolution (Wehner et al., 2010, O'Brien et al., 2016; Kopparla et al., 2013; Shields et al., 2016; Vannière et al., 2019; Demory et al. 2020; Strandberg and Lind 2020), unless the parameterisation schemes are not suited to the resolution (e.g. Wehner et al., 2014 and possibly Bador et al. 2020, who found worse performance in higher resolution versions of multiple GCMs whose parameterisations were not retuned at higher resolution, particularly in the tropics). In Europe, Schiemann et al. (2018) find that both mean and extreme precipitation are simulated better with increased resolution in HadGEM3A, mostly originating from better resolved orography. In contrast, Van Haren et al. (2015a) find that improvements in Northern and Central European mean and extreme winter precipitation with resolution are mostly associated with improved storm tracks in EC-Earth. For RCMs, extreme precipitation is improved with resolution when compared to high resolution observations, particularly over orography, including frequency-intensity distributions and spatial patterns, (see e.g. Torma et al., 2015; and Prein et al., 2016; for EURO_CORDEX at 12.5 km vs 50km and vs the driving GCMs, and Ruti et al., (2016; Fantini et al. 2018) for Med CORDEX). However, benefits are smaller for regional and seasonal mean precipitation. Convection permitting models (<4km grid spacing) are particularly beneficial in simulating summer extreme and sub-daily precipitation, including the diurnal cycle of convection, but can overdo extreme precipitation (e.g. Prein et al., 2015; Kendon et al., 2012; 2014).

For heatwaves, increasing horizontal resolution does not lead to obvious benefits in RCM simulations (see e.g. Vautard et al., 2013 for EURO-CORDEX), except improved spatial detail (Gutjahr et al., 2016). However, increased resolution may have more impact in global models since the large scale circulation that contributes to heatwave formation may be affected. This remains a largely unstudied question, with the exception of a few studies such as Cattiaux et al. (2013) who find that increasing resolution in the IPSL GCM leads to a reduction in the cold bias of both cold and warm extremes in Europe, along with improved statistics, such as duration and frequencies and improved weather regimes.

For wind extremes, stronger winds and better spatial detail with resolution have been found for regional models (e.g. Pryor et al., 2012; Kunz et al., 2010). Donat et al. (2010) found that observed storm loss estimates for Germany could be reconstructed more accurately through dynamical downscaling compared to using the coarser resolution driving ERA-40 data directly. Ruti et al., (2016) found improvements in Mediterranean cyclogenesis in coupled Med-CORDEX RCMs relative to the ERA-interim driving data, whilst extreme winds over the Mediterranean generally improve (i.e. are stronger) with higher resolution RCMs (e.g. Ruti et al. 2016; Hermann et al. 2011). However, mMost GCM studies focus on the simulation of extratropical cyclones rather than wind directly. Such studies find an

improvement in the representation of various aspects of Northern Hemisphere extratropical cyclones with increased resolution, including frequency, intensity and the position of the storm tracks (Colle et al., 2013; Jung et al., 2006; 2012), even in the higher resolution CMIP5 models (~<130 km; Zappa et al., 2013). Vries et al., (2019) found that the resolution of Atlantic Gulf-Stream SST fronts affects winter extratropical cyclone strength. Gao et al (2020) found that explosively intensifying "bomb" extratropical cyclones are more frequent and associated with stronger winds in higher resolution GCMs. –Whether the aforementionedse improvements translate into an improvement in wind extremes remains to be assessed.

Persistence of weather regimes, such as blocking or the phase of the North Atlantic Oscillation, can be important drivers for extreme events in Europe. Using the ECMWF IFS model, Dawson et al., (2012; 2015) find that such weather regimes cannot be simulated realistically at typical CMIP5 resolution (~125 km grid spacing), but are improved at 40 km, and well-simulated at 16 km. Cattiaux et al., (2013) find improvements at more modest resolutions in the IPSL model. However, multi model GCM analyses by Strommen et al. (2019) and Fabiano et al. (2020) suggest that only some aspects of weather regimes are systematically improved with resolution, and that these aspects are not consistent between atmosphere only or coupled GCMs. –Blocking frequency tends to be underestimated by CMIP5-resolution climate models (Anstey et al., 2013). This tends to be somewhat improved with resolution, particularly over the North Atlantic (Jung et al., 2012, Anstey et al., 2013; Matsueda et al., 2009, Berckmans et al., 2013, Davini et al., 2017a; 2017b; 2020; Strommen et al. 2019; Schiemann et al. 2020), although results tend to be somewhat sensitive to season and model considered (Schiemann et al., 2017) and compensating errors may be involved (Davini et al., 2017a for EC-EARTH). O'Reilly et al. (2016) find that having a well-resolved Gulf stream SST front is also important for European winter blocking and associated cold spells. An important question is whether these improvements in the large scale circulation translate into an improvement in the simulation of European climate extremes.

Here we examine the benefits of increased resolution for global models compared to and regional models for the simulation of European temperature, precipitation and wind extremes heatwaves, heavy precipitation events and wind storms. We further break down any resolution related differences for a global model into upscaling and downscaling components. This will shed light on whether potential improvements in the large scale circulation suggested in the literature translate into an improved representation of climate extremes. This is an important consideration in choosing how to distribute finite resources between global and regional models. We focus on the kind of models widely used to provide climate projections at a European scale, applying a consistent approach across model types. Firstly, the benefits of regional dynamical downscaling are explored by comparing EURO-CORDEX simulations at 50 and 12.5 km resolutions to their coarser driving CMIP5 GCMs. Secondly, the benefits of increased resolution for a global model are examined using HadGEM3-A at 130, 60 and 25 km resolution. Finally, the roles of upscaling versus downscaling will be examined using a circulation analogue technique applied to HadGEM3-A.

2 Observational and model data

2.1 Observational datas

Model simulations are evaluated using observational and reanalysis datasets. For daily precipitation and daily maximum temperature, we use the gridded station based dataset E-OBS v15 on a 0.5° latitude-longitude grid (Haylock et al. 2008). This covers the European domain from 1950 to present. Gridded datasets tend to reduce the magnitude of extremes compared to station data through smoothing effects, but are more comparable to the grid box averages from GCMs (Haylock et al. 2008). E-OBS has a somewhat non-uniform underlying station density, with relatively high densities in Germany, Sweden and Slovenia, and low densities in other countries (e.g. Spain, France, Austria). It tends to underestimate precipitation extremes relative to higher density regional datasets, especially where it has poor coverage, due to missed extremes which are local in scale (Prein and Gobiet 2017; Herrera et al. 2019). However, such high resolution datasets are not available at a pan-European scale. As a compromise, results are repeated for precipitation extremes using the 5.5 km resolution MESAN reanalysis (Landelius et al. 2016), which adjusts a downscaled first guess from the 22km resolution HIRLAM reanalysis (Dahlgren et al. 2016) with a network of stationbased precipitation observations. For much of Europe these are the same as those used for E-OBS, but with the addition of Swedish Meteorological and Hydrological Institute (SMHI) stations over Sweden, and a high density of Meteo-France stations over France (Landelius et al. 2016). MESAN provides daily precipitation data for the more limited period 1989-2010. Prein and Gobiet (2017) find that it gives heavier extremes than E-OBS in some regions (France, Spain, the Carpathians), but generally not as high as the high resolution regional datasets (except in France). Neither dataset is corrected for gauge undercatch, which tends to be around 3-20% for rain, and up to 40% for snow, or even 80% for non-shielded gauges (Førland and Institutt 1996; Goodison et al. 1997).

Wind extremes tend to happen on sub-daily time scales, necessitating the use of sub-daily data to avoid missing as many events (although events, or their peak magnitude, will still be missed). We use 10 m wind speed from three reanalysis datasets. These are the EURO4M DYNAD (Landelius et al. 2016), UERRA MESCAN-SURFEX (Bazile et al. 2017) and ERA5 (Hersbach et al. 2019) reanalyses. The former is available at 6 hourly intervals on a 5.5km rotated grid over Europe for the period 1979-2013 and is computed through dynamical adaptation of a downscaled version of the 22km resolution HIRLAM reanalysis to 5.5 km resolution orography using DYNAD (a simplified version of HIRLAM). MESCAN is also available at the same spatial and temporal resolution over Europe from 1961 onwards, but is computed through dynamical downscaling of the 11 km UERRA-HARMONIE reanalysis. Both HIRLAM and UERRA-HARMONIE are forced by the ERA interim global reanalysis (ERA40 before 1979 for the latter). Finally, ERA5 is available globally at 0.25° and at hourly resolution from 1979 onwards. We sub-sample ERA5 to 6 hourly data by taking every sixth value in order to be consistent with the other reanalyses.

2.2 Climate model data

2.2.1 EURO-CORDEX and CMIP5

In order to examine the effect of dynamical downscaling for climate extremes, we make use of the EURO-CORDEX (Jacob et al. 2014) RCM simulations for the historical period over the European domain which are driven by lower resolution global scale coupled CMIP5 GCMs. The GCMs are forced by observed records of anthropogenic and natural forcings, such as greenhouse gases, anthropogenic aerosols, land use changes, solar variability and volcanic aerosols to allow comparability to historical records. For the most part the RCMs inherit the effects of these forcing agents from the GCMs, with the exception of greenhouse gases, which are prescribed. A comparison of the RCM simulations with their driving CMIP5 simulations allows us to identify any value added by regional high resolution. The EURO-CORDEX simulations are available at 0.11° and 0.44° (12.5 km and 50 km respectively), allowing an assessment of the difference that increased regional resolution brings. Simulations are performed with the same model versions and parameterisations for both resolutions, except for REMO where rain advection is used at 0.11° but not 0.44° (Kotlarski et al. 2014). By examining the subset of GCM-RCM combinations that are common to both CORDEX resolutions along with their driving GCMs we can isolate the effects of changing resolution. Hereafter, this subset is referred to as the "common subset". We also examine how representative the results for this common subset are by recalculating them using all available CMIP5 and CORDEX simulations, using one member per model.

Daily precipitation (pr), daily maximum temperature (tasmax), and 3 hourly wind (sfcWind) daily maximum surface wind speed (sfcWindmax) were taken from both CORDEX and CMIP5. For wind, every other time step was taken in order to obtain 6 hourly data to be consistent with the reanalysis data. For wind, using 3 or 6 hourly data would have made results more comparable to the reanalysis wind datasets and across models (see above). However, such data were not available for the 0.44° CORDEX simulations, and very limited for CORDEX 0.11°. We therefore use the variable sfcWindmax (daily maximum surface wind speed) which was available for many models. This seems to mostly be based on model timestep wind speed, with a few exceptions (see Figure S7). The implications of this are discussed further in the results section.

The simulations used are shown in Table S1. These consist of 23 and 19 simulations for precipitation for the 0.44° and 0.11° CORDEX simulations respectively, with 15 in the common subset to both categories with data also available from their driving GCMs (from now on referred to as "common to all" or "common subset"); 22 and 18 respectively for temperature, with 14 in the common subsetto all. For wind, data was very limited for CORDEX at 0.44° and there was no overlap of models with those used for the 0.11° simulations. Therefore, the wind analysis in the main manuscript is based only on CORDEX 0.11° and CMIP5. There were 31 simulations for wind for CORDEX 0.11°, with 15 in the common subset. CORDEX 0.11° and 0.44° were compared instead using the variable sfcWindmax (daily maximum wind) which was available for 9 models at both resolutions (see Figure S8). There seemed to be inconsistencies in the way sfcWindmax was calculated between CMIP5 models (mostly yielding stronger annual maximum winds compared to using 3 hourly data to varying extents, but sometimes weaker), which precluded basing the full analysis on this variable, and 15 and 14 for wind with 6 in the that are common subset to all. When calculating

ensemble mediansans for theis common subset of simulations, we repeat GCM members that drive more than one
RCM. EC EARTH ensemble member "r3" was not available for download from ESGF, so r2 was substituted instead.
We also extend the analysis to all other historical CMIP5 GCMs with the relevant variables, with 126 simulations from
41 GCMs for precipitation, 115 from 39 models for temperature and, 61 simulations from 28 models for wind. The
number of CMIP5 simulations used for the extended ensemble was 44 for precipitation, 42 for temperature and 25 for

681 <u>wind.</u>

For wind, using 3 or 6 hourly data would have made results more comparable to the reanalysis wind datasets and across models (see above). However, such data were not available for the 0.44° CORDEX simulations, and very limited for CORDEX 0.11°. We therefore use the variable sfcWindmax (daily maximum surface wind speed) which was available for many models. This seems to mostly be based on model timestep wind speed, with a few exceptions (see figure S7). The implications of this are discussed further in the results section.

2.2.2 UPSCALE simulations

In order to examine the benefits or otherwise of differences in resolution for a global model, we make use of simulations undertaken as part of the UPSCALE project (UK on PRACE: weather-resolving Simulations of Climate for globAL Environmental risk; Mizielinski et al. 2014). This consists of the atmosphere only version of the Hadley Centre Global Environment Model 3 (HadGEM3-A) run at three different resolutions: N96 (130 km), N216 (60 km) and N512 (25 km), all with 85 vertical levels for the period 1985-2011, with 5, 3 and 5 ensemble members respectively (or 3, 3 and 5 for wind data). The simulations are forced by observed records of greenhouse gases, aerosols, ozone, solar variability and volcanic forcings following the AMIP-II procedure (Taylor et al. 2000), but using the higher resolution OSTIA analysis (Operational Sea Surface Temperature and Sea Ice Analysis) for sea surface temperatures (SSTs) and sea ice (Donlon et al. 2012). Very few parameters differ between the resolutions, enhancing the comparability of the three ensembles. We use daily precipitation data, daily maximum temperatures and 3-hourly wind (subsampled to 6-hourly).

2.2.3 Regridding

In order to compare models of different resolutions with each other and with the observational datasetss it was necessary to regrid variables to a common grid. Using a high resolution grid for evaluation would preserve the finer spatial detail and localised extremes for high resolution simulations, but is sometimes considered unfair for coarse resolution models which cannot be expected to simulate the same intensities of extremes even for a perfect simulation due to spatial smoothing effects. (Prein et al. 2016). If processes are captured better at higher resolution, improvements should still be visible when regridded to coarser resolution (Prien et al. 2016; Fantini et al. 2018). However, the finer spatial detail is an inherent advantage of high resolution and smoothing this out will result in partial information loss. We use the a 0.5° regular longitude-latitude grid of E-OBSgrid since it is in-between the resolution of the CORDEX models and CMIP5, and is computationally feasible, and E-OBS is also available at this resolution. Some of the benefits of higher resolution may be lost by doing this, putting our results on the conservative side. Nevertheless, sensitivity tests showed that results for MESAN did not change perceptibly by using a 0.5° grid compared to a 0.1° grid. We regrid the daily data, before the calculation of annual extreme indices.

The Ssensitivity of the results to the regridding technique was investigated for a number of models of different resolutions and compared with to results based on using the original grids (Figure S1). For the coarser resolution models (e.g. HadCM3) results for precipitation extremes were particularly sensitive to the regridding technique, with much weaker extremes for some techniques e.g. distance-weighted average remapping and bilinear interpolation, with unrealistic artefacts in the spatial patterns for many methods. For high resolution models, the regridding technique did not make much difference to the results, although conservative remapping tended to dampen extreme precipitation, particularly for CORDEX 0.11. Overall the nearest neighbour method was chosen for precipitation for everything except CORDEX 0.11 and MESAN since it gave results very close to using the original grid for all model resolutions, preserving the amplitude of extremes, and also having minimal artefacts when plotting spatial patterns of precipitation extremes. For going from high to lower resolution (e.g. 0.11° to 0.5°) nearest neighbour is less appropriate since information from only a subset of grid cells is incorporated. Therefore, bicubic remapping was used for CORDEX 0.11 and MESAN, which also replicated results using the original grid very well (Figure S1). Wind and temperature results were also somewhat sensitive to regridding technique, particularly for the coarser models. The above choices also seemed appropriate for these variables (nearest neighbour in most cases, but bicubic for CORDEX 0.11, MESCAN, ERA5 and DYNAD), both in terms of replicating return period results using the original grid, and retaining the blocky nature of the low resolution simulations in the spatial patterns.

3 Methods

3.1 Extremes Indices

In order to examine extremes, we adopt indices based on the ETCCDI indices (Zhang et al. 2011). For precipitation these are the annual maximum daily precipitation (Rx1day) and the annual maximum consecutive 5-day total (Rx5day). For temperature we use the annual maximum daily maximum temperature (TXx) and the annual maximum consecutive 5-day mean of daily maximum temperature (TXx5day). Rx1day and TXx5day are presented in the figures, whilst the other indices are commented on in the text. For wind we use the annual maximum of daily maximum wind, which we refer to as (WindXx). This is based on sfeWindmax for the CMIP5 and CORDEX models, and on 6-hourly data-for the UPSCALE simulations and the reanalysis wind datasets. These are therefore much rarer extremes than those based e.g. on the 95th or even 99th percentile which would happen on average 1 in 20 days and 1 in 100 days respectively. One drawback is that this makes robust statistics more challenging.

In order to examine how well the climate models simulate extremes and the differences between different resolutions, we first examine the spatial patterns of the climatological mean values of the indices and their biases with respect to observational datasets. We then examine return period plots (see definitions below) for a number of regions for each index, which highlights any differences in the shape of the tails of the distribution of the extremes. The regions used are based on the PRUDENCE regions (Christenson and Christenson 2007) and the IPCC SREX regions (Seneviratne

et al. 2012) and are shown in Figure S2 and Table S2. A subset of representative regions are presented here, with some comments about the others.

3.2 Return periods

In order to calculate regional return periods and return values we first sort the data into ascending order for each grid cell. The return periods are calculated as N/k where N is the number of years of data, and k is the rank, with k=1 for the largest value. Return periods are therefore the inverse of the probability of an event exceeding a given value (called the "return value"). This is an empirical approach and has the limitation that return periods cannot exceed the number of years of data used (e.g. 36 years). This is still the case even if an extremely unusual event occurs. Fitting Using a GEV would allow estimates for higher return periods, but this would still be an extrapolation. The area weighted regional average is made, for given return periods, over the associated return values. To avoid complications from missing data, grid cells in E-OBS with more than 5 days of missing data in any year during the period examined were masked for the whole period. Having one or more years missing would complicate the calculation of regional mean return periods and values. Models and observational datasets are masked to have the same spatial coverage, which is land only. A common time period, across the models being examined and the observations they are being compared to, isare chosen to allow comparability. For the CMIP5 and CORDEX analysis 1970-2005 is used for temperature and precipitation and 1979-2005 for wind. For the UPSCALE runs we use 1985-2011 for temperature, and 1989-2010 for precipitation to allow comparisons with MESAN (1986-2011 is used for the analogue analysis, see below) and 1986-2011 for wind.

In order to allow the shapes of the return period curves to be compared more easily between different types of models (i.e. CMIP5 and CORDEX at both resolutions), we first adjust each model to have the same climatological mean value of the extreme index in question. This effectively shifts the curves up or down, but does not change their shape, which is the focus of these figures. Without such a shift, curves are too spread out to be able to discern differences in shape. Therefore we cannot comment on mean biases of the extremes indices based on the return plots, but these biases are already shown and discussed based on map figures (see section 3.1) For the CMIP5 vs CORDEX analysis we first bias adjust models before plotting return period curves in order to allow the shapes of the distributions to be compared more easily. We implement this adjustment by do this by subtractinging the difference between the model climatology of the index in question and the climatology of the $\underline{\text{reference}}$ observations $\underline{\text{al dataset}}$ for each model at a grid cell level. We use E-OBS as the reference for temperature and precipitation, and MESCAN for wind. The additional observational datasets shown in the return period plots are also adjusted in the same way. For the UPSCALE simulations, results can also be examined without the need to shift the curves to a common mean value because the same version of the same model is used for a given resolution, meaning that curves for individual simulations tend to cluster together instead of having large mean differences. In this way, differences in biases with resolution are also seen in the return period plots. Nevertheless, we also present UPSCALE results with the adjustment in Figure S109 for comparison. For the UPSCALE simulations, since the same version of the same model is used across each resolution, results can also be examined without bias adjusting the extremes climatology, and this provides some interesting insights.

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Confidence intervals for the observational datasetss are calculated using a bootstrapping method. If, for example, the analysis period was 1970-2005 (i.e. 36 years), 1000 random samples of 36 years from this period are chosen from the same observationsdataset, allowing the same year to be chosen more than once per iteration. For each random sample, the chosen values are sorted for each grid cell and a regional average is calculated as above, effectively yielding 1000 return period curves per region. The 5th and 95th percentile of these values are then calculated to give the confidence intervals.

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- Finally, for the HadGEM3 A GCM simulations, a circulation analogue technique is used to split any differences in results according to resolution into upscaling (i.e. improved large scale circulation) and downscaling effects. This is described in section 4.3.
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4 Results

- 4.1 The benefits of regional high resolution: EURO-CORDEX versus CMIP5
- 4.1.1 Temperature extremes

Figure 1 shows the spatial patterns of the climatological mean of TXx5day for the period 1970-2005 for E-OBS, and the multi-model mediansans (MMM) of CMIP5, and CORDEX at both resolutions, along with their biases with respect to E-OBS. The same general pattern can be seen in both the observations E-OBS and the models, with hotter extremes in the south and cooler extremes in the north and over the mountains. At higher resolution the colder warm extremes over the Alps and Carpathians become more distinct. For the "common subset" the pattern of biases relative to E-OBS is similar for both CMIP5 and CORDEX for each model category with cold biases in the North and West and hot biases in the South-East. However, the hot biases over the mountains reduce with higher resolution since the model topography is higher. The cold bias over Scandinavia is also larger in CORDEX than in CMIP5. Biases for CORDEX using the whole ensemble are very similar toas those for the common CORDEX subset at although ffor CMIP5 the hot biases over the south-east, and over mountain ranges are stronger when using all simulations compared to the subset. Findings for TXx are similar, but hotter (not shown).

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To give an idea of the level of consistency of results between models, results for individual models are shown in #Figure S3. Although the CMIP5 models agree on the general spatial pattern of temperature extremes, their absolute magnitudes vary considerably, although all are too hot over the Alps. There are also substantial differences between results from different RCMs, including those driven by the same GCM, although the driving GCM does seem to affect the overall magnitude of the temperature extremes. Biases of individual RCMs do not appear systematically smaller than that of their driving GCM. Patterns are very similar for the same GCM-RCM chains at the both 12.5 and 50 km resolutions. Results for different ensemble members of the same GCM or GCM-RCM chain are very consistent, suggesting that the differences between models are not due to internal variability.

In order to assess any effect of resolution on the shape of the tails of the statistical distribution of temperature extremes, Ffigure 2 (left column) shows return period against magnitude for TXx5day for CMIP5, CORDEX at both resolutions and E-OBS (see Methods). Results are shown for Northern, Central and Southern Europe, and are representative of results for the smaller PRUDENCE subregions that fall within their boundaries. There is no obvious difference in the shape of the tails between CMIP5 and CORDEX. Agreement with E-OBS is good for the multi model median, although many individual ensemble members lie outside the range of the observational uncertainty, particularly on the heavy tailed side.

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848 849 In summary, <u>shapes of return period curves for temperature extremes appear to be relatively</u>-insensitive to dynamical downscaling based on comparing CMIP5 to CORDEX at 0.11° and 0.44°, <u>but biases are affected except for overinstance over mountains where hot biases decrease with resolution.</u>

4.1.2 Precipitation extremes

Now we consider precipitation extremes for CMIP5 compared to CORDEX. Figure 3 shows the climatological mean of Rx1day for E-OBS and the MMMs of CMIP5 and CORDEX at both resolutions, and their differences with respect to E-OBS. The heaviest annual maximum precipitation totals in E-OBS occur over the Alps and the western side of coastal mountain ranges, including western Norway and north-eastern Spain. A similar spatial pattern of precipitation distribution can be seen in the models, although totals are lower in CMIP5, and higher in CORDEX. CMIP5 is drier than E-OBS over most of Europe, particularly over the areas of maximum observed precipitation (i.e. over or near mountains), whilst CORDEX is generally wetter than observed, particularly in these same locations, and at higher resolution. Results using the entire ensembles are very similar to using the common subset of simulations. Previous studies suggest that E-OBS underestimates precipitation extremes since it is not corrected for gauge undercatch and has a relatively low underlying station density (e.g. Prein and Gobiet 2017). Therefore, we also repeat results relative to the MESAN reanalysis (Figure S4) for the shorter period 1989-2005. MESAN uses a particularly high density of stations in France (see Data section). The climatology of Rx1day is wetter in MESAN than in E-OBS over most of Europe, most noticeably over the Alps and surrounding areas. This leads to the dry bias in CMIP5 appearing bigger, and the wet bias in CORDEX decreasing, although it is still present in the 0.11° simulations. Using regional-scale very high resolution datasets could improve agreement with the 0.11° simulations, since they tend to give heavier precipitation extremes (Prein and Gobiet 2017). Gauge undercatch will also contribute to the difference, particularly for precipitation extremes associated with strong winds and in snow dominated regions

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Figure S5 shows results for individual models. Again, whilst models agree on the general pattern of precipitation extremes – i.e. wettest over mountains, there are considerable inter-model differences concerning the magnitude, particularly over complex orography. A number of CMIP5 models have too light extremes everywhere, but all

underestimate precipitation extremes over mountainous regions to a greater or lesser extent. RCMs systematically simulate heavier precipitation extremes compared to their driving GCMs, particularly over mountains, and these extremes tend to become heavier when moving from 0.44° to 0.11° in most cases. Many of the RCMs have heavier precipitation extremes than seen in E-OBSbs over much of Europe at 0.44°, although this difference may disappear if compared to MESAN. This difference gets bigger at higher resolution and is largest over mountainous regions. The spatial patterns seem to be very RCM dependent, with limited influence of biases in the driving GCM. -Again results are very consistent between ensemble members of the same models.

Figure 2 (middle column) shows return period curves for Rx1day for Northern, Central and Southern Europe. There is a clear separation in the tails of the distribution according to resolution, with CMIP5 having the lightest tails, CORDEX 0.44 in the middle, and CORDEX 0.11 with the heaviest tails across all regions (including the mailer PRUDENCE subregions – not shown). Results using the common subset of models or the full ensembles are similar to each other. E-OBS tends to lie between CMIP5 and CORDEX 0.44 for eentral and-southern Europe, and closer to CORDEX 0.44 in central and northern Europe. Using MESAN gives slightly heavier tails in all three regions, particularly in southern Europe (Figure S6) and France eentral Europe (figure S6) (particularly in France, where station density is highest (not shown) and more so in southern Europe), causing the best agreement to occur with CORDEX 0.44 everywhere. Results for Rx5day are similar, but with marginally less separation between the resolutions, whilst over Northern and Central Europe the best agreement with E-OBS happens at a slightly higher resolution than for Rx1day – i.e. either with CORDEX 0.44 or the lower end of the range of CORDEX 0.11 (not shown).

In summary, precipitation extremes are wetter and heavier tailed with higher resolution, especially over mountainous regions. CMIP5 has a dry bias, particularly over mountains, whilst CORDEX tends to be too wet relative to E-OBSbs , particularly at 0.11° , but results are sensitive to observational dataset used, with wet biases for CORDEX reducing when compared to the higher resolution MESAN dataset.

4.1.3 Wind Extremes

Finally, we examine annual maximum wind (WindXx). Figure 4 shows the multi model medians of climatological mean annual maximum wind for CMIP5 and CORDEX at 0.11° compared to three reanalysis datasets. Data for CORDEX 0.44° were very limited and did not overlap with the models used at 0.11° and so are not shown.

Note however that the model results are based on the annual maximum of the daily maximum surface wind (variable "sfeWindmax"), whilst the reanalysis estimates are based on the annual maximum of 6 hourly data. As a sensitivity test, for CMIP5 models that had both sfeWindmax and 3 hourly data, we compared results using sfeWindmax, 3-hourly and 6 hourly data (Figure S7). 6 hourly data tends to give lower values than using 3 hourly data or sfeWindmax since some events will be missed due to the lower sampling frequency. SfeWindmax appears to be mostly based on the model timestep, and gives higher wind speeds than using 3 or 6 hourly data, with some exceptions, e.g. the IPSL models and CMCC-CM where it gives lower values. This apparent difference in definition between models is a

weakness of this analysis. Furthermore, since different models have different time steps, and the time step generally decreases with increased resolution, we might expect stronger winds with increased resolution purely due to the difference in sampling frequency. Whilst it could be argued that this makes the models not strictly comparable, being able to generate stronger winds due to a shorter time step could nevertheless be considered an inherent feature of higher resolution models. It would have been cleaner to use a metric that is more consistent across models, such as 3 hourly or 6 hourly wind speeds. However, CORDEX at 0.44° does not have this data available, whilst CORDEX at 0.11° only has it for a small number of simulations, all of which are based on RCA, and only 3 of which have data for the driving GCM. Therefore, the reader is invited to interpret results with this caveat in mind. Model sfcWindmax estimates may also differ in terms of the treatment of surface roughness length and the method for calculating wind at 10m from wind at a higher level.

Examining Ffigure 4, the The MESCAN and DYNAD reanalyses show strong extreme winds over the UK, the Norwegian mountains and the NW coastline of France through to Denmark. Relatively strong winds are also seen over the Spanish plateau, and a belt of strong winds running zonally across central Europe between somewhat slower winds to the North and South. The datasets differ in the magnitude of the winds, with DYNADMESAN having more contrast between areas of low and high wind. MESCAN should be the more accurate of the two (Tomas Landelius, personal communication). ERA5 has notably slower winds, particularly over mountainous regions, but a similar overall zonal tripole pattern can be seen. Niermann et al (2017) found that MESCAN underestimates extreme winds compared to station data over Germany. ERA5 must therefore underestimate even more. Concerning mean winds, Jourdier (2020) find that ERA5 underestimates wind speed compared to French stations, particularly over mountains.

The CMIP5 driving model medianen shows a similar overall pattern of WindXx as the reanalyses, particularly ERA5, with a pattern of weaker winds in the north and south, and a belt of stronger winds in the middle. However, but do CMIP5 does not tend to have stronger winds over mountains like in DYNAD and MESCAN-. Using the whole CMIP5 ensemble gives similar results slightly stronger extreme winds. Absolute magnitudes are not directly comparable to the reanalysis estimates, which would be expected to have slightly slower winds due to differences in sampling frequency. The CORDEX multi model mediansans show generally higher wind speeds than CMIP5, and captures the high wind speeds along western coastlines and over some mountainous terrain. Differences between the 0.11° and 0.44° runs appear small. Results for the common subset of simulations are very similar to those obtained from the complete CORDEX ensembles, except that the latter shows slow wind speeds over the Alps instead of high. This latter feature is very RCM dependent, and indeed the overall pattern and magnitude of the extreme winds almost entirely reflects the choice of RCM with very little influence of GCM (Figure S7). For some RCMs the zonal tripole pattern is the clearest feature (ALADIN, COSMOcrCLIM), whilst for others it is the high winds over mountains and coastlines (RCA, HIRHAM5). The driving GCMs differ considerably in terms of the magnitude of extreme winds, but have a similar overall pattern to each other (Figure S7). Ensemble members of the same model give very similar results for both CORDEX and CMIP5. Multi-model median biases are dependent on the reanalysis used for reference, with CORDEX 0.11 being close to DYNAD, and CMIP5 being closest to ERA5. In order to compare the two resolutions of CORDEX, results based on sfcWindmax instead of 3 hourly wind are presented in Figure S8 (see methods). Winds are either similar between the two resolutions (e.g. RCA and WRF), or stronger at higher resolution (RACMO, HIRHAM5). Again the overall pattern is very RCM dependent.

Biases are not shown due to the difference in temporal resolution with respect to the reanalyses.

Figure S8 shows that there is a large variety between different models, particularly for CMIP5, but also according to RCM. CanESM2 and IPSL CM5A-LR are notable outliers, and this may be related to the timestep of the wind data used to calculate sfcWindmax in these models. The zonal tripole pattern can be seen in a number of GCMs, as can stronger winds along western and Mediterranean coastlines, and lower wind speeds over the Alps. Spatial patterns for the RCMs are very RCM specific and relatively insensitive to driving GCM. All RCMs agree on higher winds over the British Isles and weaker winds over northern Europe, but notably the mountainous regions have either low or high wind speeds depending on the model, which must relate to how wind speed is calculated there—it can be imagined that the wind speed in a valley would be somewhat different to that at the top of a mountain. In terms of differences between the two resolutions of CORDEX, some RCMs show increased wind speeds with higher resolution e.g. RACMO, HIRHAM5, and others less so. Again, ensemble members of the same model give similar results.

Figure 2 (right column) shows the return period plots for WindXx for CMIP5 and both resolutions of CORDEX at 0.11°. All models are shifted to have the same climatology of annual maximum wind for each grid cell, which goes some way to adjusting for differences in sampling frequency, although there is evidence that the shape of the tails is also affected for some models (Figure S7). The results for the common subset of CORDEX runs should at least be more directly comparable to each other, although the sampling frequency should still increase at higher resolution. The British Isles are shown instead of Northern Europe, since they are particularly affected by wind extremes, and for comparison with the results for the UPSCALE simulations, where this region shows distinctive results. The distribution of annual maximum sfcWindmax has somewhat heavier tails in CORDEX 0.11 compared to 0.44 which is in turn heavier than to CMIP5, regardless of the subset of models used in calculating the multi-model median in almost-all regions examined. Exact values are somewhat sensitive to the models included for some sub regions (not shown). CORDEX 0.11 tends to be closest to DYNAD and MESCAN, whilst CMIP5 is closest to ERA5. Figure S9 shows that when using sfcWindmax, CORDEX 0.11 has heavier tails than CORDEX 0.44. Results based on DYNAD and

In summary, winds tend to be <u>somewhat</u> stronger, with <u>somewhat</u> heavier tails at higher resolution, with a large spread between models. Reanalysis datasets give fairly diverse results.

MESCAN tend to lie in between the two CORDEX resolutions, whilst CMIP5 is closest to ERAS.

4.2 Global high resolution: UPSCALE

 We now examine the benefits or otherwise of global high vs. standard resolution simulations for simulating climate extremes. Global high resolution may allow an improved representation of the large scale circulation that cannot be

captured by regional models, which may in turn affect the representation of climate extremes. For this we examine the UPSCALE simulations (Mizielinski et al. 2014), which consist of a small ensemble of HadGEM3-A simulations at three different resolutions: 130km (N96), 60km (N216), and 25km (N512) (see Data section).

4.2.1 Temperature extremes

Figure 5 shows the ensemble mean climatological mean of TXx5day for the UPSCALE simulations over the period 1985-2011 at all three resolutions, and their biases relative to E-OBS. The same general pattern of hotter extremes in the south and colder in the north and over mountainous regions can be seen at all three resolutions, but temperature extremes are hotter at higher resolution in the south and east, and colder over mountains. The same pattern of biases is seen as for CORDEX and CMIP5 with cold biases in the north and hot in the south-east and over mountains. The mountain biases reduce with higher resolution, as the orography becomes better defined, whilst the hot bias in the SE and SW increases and the northern cold bias improves slightly. A coastal cold bias at low resolution disappears at higher resolution as the model land mask becomes more detailed. Note that the SSTs are prescribed and are the same for all simulations. Results for TXx are similar but hotter (not shown).

Figure 6 (left column) shows regional return period plots for TXx5day for the UPSCALE simulations. Results are a little less consistent across regions for UPSCALE compared to the CMIP5 vs CORDEX analysis, so we split Northern Europe into the British Isles and Scandinavia, and add the Alps, to better capture regional variations. Since the ensemble means are only based on one model, results are presented without adjusting according to the climatology of TXx5day, although suchbias adjusted results can be seen in Figure S 109 and allow differences in the shapes of the tails to be seen more clearly. TXx5day seems to be somewhat hotter with higher resolution over many regions, although this is not always clear cut. The Alps are a notable exception, where the higher elevations with higher resolution give rise to colder temperature extremes. There are notable biases relative to the observationsE-OBS, with the models being too cold in the north, especially at low resolution, whilst in the south the colder subset of models (N96, the lowest UPSCALE resolution) agree best with the the observationsE-OBS. Over the Alps, again the low resolution simulations agree best with observationsE-OBS. With the warmest temperatures, but this will depend on the height of the meteorological stations. This apparent contradiction to the reduced orographic hot bias with resolution in Figure 5 comes from the stronger cold bias of the surrounding areas at low resolution. Figure S shows that differences between the shape of the tails with resolution are not systematic across regions and are mostly small, whilst-Aagreement with E-OBS is good everywhere. Results for TXx are similar.

In summary, hot biases of temperature extremes over mountains reduce with increased resolution for HadGEM3-A. Elsewhere extremes tend towards getting hotter with resolution, whilst the shapes of the <u>return period curves</u>statistical distributions are insensitive.

4.2.2 Precipitation extremes

For precipitation, Figure 7 shows the ensemble mean climatological mean of Rx1day for the period 1989-2010 for the three UPSCALE ensembles and their differences relative to E-OBS and MESAN. The overall pattern of Rx1day in the simulations is similar to that in the observational datasets E-OBS, with heavier precipitation extremes and finer spatial detail with increasing resolution over complex orography. All resolutions have bands of heavy precipitation either side of the Alps, but these move closer together as the Alps become better defined. All simulations are generally wetter than E-OBS across most of Europe. whilst The dry bias over orography in the Alps, Southern Norway and Scottish Highlands reduces with resolution. whilst and a wet bias on the southern edge of the Alps and the coastal side of the Dinarie Alps in the Balkans appears—insteadas resolution increases. Comparing to MESAN instead of E-OBS, the general wet bias disappears, and the dry mountain bias over orography at low resolution increases. The differences between resolutions appear smaller than for the CMIP5 versus CORDEX analysis: all the UPSCALE simulations look most similar to CORDEX at 0.44°. However, UPSCALE does not reach as fine a resolution as CORDEX at 0.11° (25 km vs 12.5 km), and CMIP5 is on average slightly coarser than the N96 simulations. In addition, it should be noted that models with the same nominal resolution do not necessarily have the same effective resolution, and that the effective resolution is always less than the nominal resolution (Skamarock 2004; Klavar et al. 2020). Results are similar for Rx5day (not shown).

Figure 6 (middle column) shows the return period plots for Rx1day for the three resolutions of UPSCALE ensembles. Slightly heavier precipitation extremes are found at higher resolution in all the regions shown (exceptions are France and Mid Europe- not shown). Aalthough the differences are small, they are more obvious in southern Europe and especially in the Alps. Figure S109 shows that there is not much difference in the shape of the tails for most regions, although there are very slightly heavier tails at higher resolution for southern Europe (more so in the Mediterranean sub region- not shown) and more obvious differences over the Alps in the same direction, both of which are regions where convective precipitation is important. E-OBS tends to lie just below the model simulations for most regions (Figure 6), although it agrees with the models for the British Isles, and is between the low and medium resolution simulations over the Alps. MESAN gives higher values for observed Rx1day which improves agreement in regions where E-OBS lay below the models, and causes a higher resolution subset to agree better in the other regions (Figure 6). For the bias adjusted curves that are adjusted to have the same climatological mean, E-OBS tends to lie just on the lower end of the ensemble for most regions, whilst MESAN gives slightly heavier tails and tends to improve agreement with models (Figure S109). Results for Rx5day are broadly similar (except that both sets of observational datasets lie above all the models for the British Isles).

 In summary, precipitation extremes are somewhat wetter and heavier tailed with increasing resolution mostly in southern Europe and the Alps for HadGEM3-A. Dry orographic biases decrease with resolution, but wet biases appear in the south next to mountain ranges instead.

4.2.3 Wind extremes

For wind extremes, Figure 8 shows the spatial patterns of climatological mean annual maximum wind based on 6-hourly data-for UPSCALE and the same for three reanalyses. In this case the models and reanalyses are directly comparable since they share the same temporal resolution. The spatial patterns are similar for the three different model resolutions, with the highest winds over the British Isles and coastal regions, lower wind speeds over the Alps, and the zonal tripole pattern described above. The main differences are that the lower resolution model (N96) has stronger winds around the British Isles and western coastlines. This is likely because the larger coastal grid boxes overlap more with the ocean, which tends to have higher wind speeds, or due to differences in the model land mask itself with resolution. The wind speeds at higher resolution are a little stronger overall, most obviously in the central European zonal belt, and over the Alps and Norwegian mountains. All resolutions show stronger winds than ERA5 over most of Europe. Compared to MESCAN winds are too weak in the northern and southern Europe, particularly over mountainous regions, and a little too strong in between. Relative to DYNAD the pattern of differences is similar as for MESCAN, but with stronger negative differences over the Norwegian mountains and positive differences in other parts of Northern Europe. There are positive coastal biases relative to all reanalyses for the N96 simulations that reduce with increased resolution.

Figure 6 (right column) shows the return period plots for some example regions for annual maximum wind for the UPSCALE simulations, without shifting the climatology. Over all regions examined (except the Mediterranean- not shown), the N512 simulations have stronger winds than the N216 simulations. The position of the curve for N96 is strongly related to how much coastline there is relative to land area per region, e.g. with faster winds than the other simulations over the British Isles and southern Europe, but relatively slower winds over central Europe, and particularly over the Alps (not shown). There are fairly large differences between reanalysis estimates, with ERA5 always having the slowest winds, and the model simulations tending to lie between ERA5 and the other two reanalyses for most regions. For the-bias adjusted versions of the return period plots (Figure S109), differences in the shapes of the tails with resolution are generally small, although with marginally heavier tails with increasing resolution over a number of regions, e.g the Alps (not all are shown). MESCAN and DYNAD have slightly heavier tails than ERA5, particularly over the Alps and Southern Europe. The shape of the model curves agree well with all reanalyses over the British Isles, Scandinavia and Central Europe, and lie between ERA5 and the other two reanalyses for the Alps and Southern Europe. The shape of the tails is generally close to the reanalysis estimates.

In summary winds are slightly stronger and heavier tailed at higher resolution in HadGEM3-A, except over coastal areas where large coastal grid boxes at low resolution bring strong ocean winds further over land.

4.3 Circulation Analogues Upscaling versus downscaling

For the global model results, any differences in the representation of extremes according to resolution could come from either upscaling or downscaling effects. Upscaling effects could include a better representation of the large scale

circulation, whilst downscaling allows a better representation of small scale processes, such as convection, and an improved representation of orography and coastlines. In order to investigate which of these effects leads to the differences between the low (N96) and high resolution (N512) HadGEM3-A simulations, we employ a circulation analogue technique (e.g. Vautard et al., 2016), which is frequently used in attribution studies (see e.g. Stott et al., 2016; Cattiaux et al., 2010). The idea is to determine whether the simulation of climate extremes changes between the two resolutions if both were to have the same large scale circulation –i.e. isolating the downscaling effect, or conversely whether circulation differences explain any differences in extreme events whilst circulation-variable (e.g. precipitation) relationships stay the same –i.e. the upscaling effect.

For each day in the lower resolution simulations we pick the nearest circulation analogue from anywhere in the higher resolution simulations, providing it happens at the right time of year (i.e. within a 30-day window centred on the day of the year in question). We then record the associated temperature, precipitation and wind values from the higher resolution simulations to make a "u-chronic" dataset (e.g. Jézéquel, et al. 2018) that contains data from the high resolution simulations but follows the daily sequence of circulation patterns from the low resolution models. We then repeat the analysis of return periods and value as above. We also do the reverse (find analogues for the N512 circulation in the N96 ensemble and record the N96 temperature). Since results using analogues are not directly comparable to the original results, due to the lack of an exact analogue match, we also perform "self-analogues" -i.e. finding circulation analogues for the N96 simulations within the N96 ensemble, (excluding the same year from the same ensemble member) and creating a u-chronic time series, and the same for the N512 ensemble). Comparing the resulting return period curves tells us about the contribution of large-scale circulation and downscaling to differences in extremes between the two resolutions. For example, comparing the N96 self-analogue return curve to the version based on N512 circulation but with N96 precipitation shows us the contribution of any differences in the large scale circulation between the resolutions i.e. the upscaling effect. Comparing the N96 self-analogue to the version based on N96 circulation with N512 precipitation shows us the downscaling effect - i.e. any difference between the relationship between the large scale circulation and precipitation.

Analogues are defined using geopotential height at 500 hPa, since this avoids complications relating to surface heat lows associated with heat waves in anticyclonic conditions that occur in summer, whilst also avoiding incomplete data due to mountain ranges. Geopotential height is regridded to a 2° grid using bilinear interpolation. This choice ensures that we are comparing analogues with the same resolution and do not penalise small-scale differences. Similarity between circulation states is quantified using pattern correlation, which is not affected by trends in geopotential height with global warming. For precipitation and wind the European domain used is -16 to 44° E and 34 to 72° N (roughly the same as the domain plotted in the map-based figures). For temperature, a larger domain is used, since the history and trajectory of air masses are important for temperature extremes. This domain is loosely based on the domain used by Cattiaux et al. (2010) and extends over the N. Atlantic as well as Europe, (-62 to 44°E and 24 to 80° N). However, results are very similar if the smaller domain is used (not shown). For the 5-day variables (Rx5day and TXx5day); the u-chronic dataset was smoothed using a 5-day running mean at the end of the process. We also tried smoothing the daily geopotential height, precipitation and temperature datasets first and then performing the analogue analysis. were

smoothed using a 5-day running mean first, and then analogues were calculated, and the u-chronic datasets constructed. We also tried doing the 5-day means last rather than first, i.e. calculating analogues using daily data and smoothing the u-chronic dataset. The relationship between the different curves was largely consistent between the two techniques, but absolute values differed and the shape of the distributions curves changed a little. Results presented here are based on the first technique, since it replicates better the autocorrelation structure of the original analysis.

Figure 9 shows the results of the analogue analysis. The blue curves show the results for the N512 self-analogues, grey represents the N96 self-analogues, red represents results using the circulation patterns from the N96 runs but with the N512 circulation-variable relationships, and green indicates N512 circulation with N96 circulation-variable relationships. The difference between the blue and red curves (or the grey and green curves) shows the contribution from differences in the large scale circulation with resolution, whilst the difference between the blue and green curves (or the red and grey curves) indicates the downscaling effect.

For TXx5day downscaling effects are dominant over regions that have a clear difference between resolutions, although circulation differences also have a small effect in some regions such as the British Isles (Figure 9). For Rx1day the different curves are very close together for somemost regions, making it difficult to discern the relative contributions from upscaling and downscaling. However, for regions with an obvious difference between resolutions, such as the Alps and Southern Europe, it generally seems to be downscaling effects that are the most important, and this can be seen more clearly for the Alps and Southern Europe where there are larger differences with resolution. Interestingly, these are regions where convective precipitation is particularly important for precipitation extremes. For wind extremes downscaling effects also dominate, particularly over the British Isles, central Europe and the Alps. Results for TXx and Rx5day are very similar to those for TXx5day and Rx1day respectively (not shown).

Also shown, using dashed lines, are the original ensemble mean results without using analogues. By comparing these with the self-analogue results we can see how successful the analogue technique is in recreating the original distributions. The self-analogue results tend to be close to the original results for wind and Rx1day, but belowabove them for Tx5day. This effect seems to be enhanced by the 5 day averaging, but is still present for TXX (not shown). Undertaking the 5-day averaging lfirstast rather than lastfirst (see aboveMethods) shifts analogue results downwardsupwards, aboveunderneath the original curves, but the other aspects of the results are the same otherwise gives the same results (not shown). A similar phenomenon is seen for Rx5day (not shown).

In summary, for all three types of extreme events, downscaling effects appear to dominate the differences seen between the 130km and 25km HadGEM3-A simulations. This suggests that at least for this model, any large scale circulation differences obtained with global high resolution do not affect the statistics of these extreme events much.

5 Discussion and Conclusions

We evaluated climate model simulations of temperature, precipitation and wind extremes over Europe, addressing three questions: 1) The benefits of dynamical downscaling using regional climate models by comparing EURO-CORDEX simulations at two resolutions (12.5 and 50 km) to their driving coarser resolution CMIP5 models; 2) The benefits of increased resolution for global models by comparing HadGEM3-A simulations at three resolutions (130, 60 and 25 km; referred to as the "UPSCALE" simulations); and 3) whether any differences according to resolution in the global model comes from differences in the large scale circulation (upscaling) or the representation of small scale processes, and features (downscaling) using a circulation analogue method.

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For temperature extremes, increased resolution did not make much difference to results for the CORDEX vs CMIP5 analysis _-both in terms of the shapes of the distributions return period curves, which all agreed well with observational datas. Hot biases over mountains reduced with increased resolution, although the cold bias over Scandinavia was worse in CORDEX than in CMIP5, or in terms of biases, apart from reducing hot biases over mountains. This amplified Scandinavian cold bias in CORDEX is consistent with the findings of Sørland et al (2018) for mean summer temperature, although we did not find the same reduction of the warm bias in Eastern Europe in CORDEX as they did, possibly due to differences in the models used. These Our findings agree with Vautard et al. (2013), who find limited benefits in simulating various aspects of heatwaves between the 0.44° and 0.11° versions of the EURO-CORDEX models. Theis reduction in orographic bias with increased resolution was also seen in the HadGEM3-A GCM simulations, along with a general tendency towards hotter extremes elsewhere, which reduces biases in the north, and increases them in the south. Overall the benefits of increasing resolution were limited, or region dependent. However, our results for the global model analysis are based on only one model and the new model simulations and analyses being generated as part of the PRIMAVERA and HighResMIP projects (https://www.primavera-h2020.eu/; Roberts et al. 2018; Haarsma et al. 2016) will be very useful for determining how representative our results for HadGEM3-A are of other GCMs. For instance, improvements in the simulation of summer blocking, which can be involved in heatwave generation is very model dependent (Scheimann et al. 2014). Furthermore, Cattiaux et al. (2013) find that the frequency, intensity and duration of summer heatwaves improve in the IPSL model with resolution, associated with a better representation of the large scale circulation. In addition, here we examine only one aspect of heat waves (intensity), and it could be that results are different for other aspects, such as frequency, duration and timing.

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Precipitation extremes were more sensitive to resolution, particularly in the CMIP5 vs CORDEX analysis, with heavier tails at higher resolution across all regions. Spatially, CMIP5 shows a general dry bias compared to E-OBS, particularly over mountainous regions, whilst CORDEX shows the opposite, with increasing wet differences at 0.11° compared to 0.44°, which appears to be systematic across models. This is consistent with results for mean precipitation in EURO-CORDEX in Kotlarski et al. (2014). The higher resolution MESAN reanalysis gave wetter extremes and heavier tails than E-OBS, agreeing best with the 0.44° resolution CORDEX simulations. Other studies suggest that country-scale higher resolution precipitation datasets give heavier precipitation extremes still, which may agree best with the 0.11° simulations. Similarly, for mean precipitation, Prein and Gobeit (2017) find that RCM biases are a similar size to the

differences between different observational estimates. For extreme precipitation, various studies Prein et al (2016) and Torma et al (2015) find that a number of various aspects (biases, frequency-intensity distributions, spatial patterns) of mean and extreme precipitation improve in EURO-CORDEX at 0.11° compared to 0.44° when compared to such high resolution datasets (e.g. Prein et al. 2016; Torma et al. 2015; Fantini et al. 2020) for Europe and the Alps respectively. Prein et al (2016) ascribe this mostly to the better representation of orography at higher resolution, but also the ability to capture the larger scales of convection. However, aside from improved spatial patterns Casanueva et al (2016) found only limited evidence for improvements in precipitation intensity, frequency and derived indicators over the Alps and Spain with resolution in EURO-CORDEX. Some of the differences with resolution in our results may also be explained by parameterisation schemes that tend to be tuned to one resolution and can behave sub-optimally at others.

For the UPSCALE global simulations, there was less difference in extreme precipitation with resolution, with the biggest differences in southern regions or over or near mountains, with heavier tails and wetter extremes at higher resolution. This reduced dry biases over orography, but wet biases next to some mountain ranges in the south emerged instead. However, these simulations span a narrower range of resolutions, i.e. not reaching the same high resolutions as CORDEX 0.11°, but also not as coarse as some CMIP5 models. Other global model studies also tend to find an increase in precipitation extremes with increased resolution for Europe, which is continent-wide in summer, and concentrated in mountainous regions in winter (Volosciuk et al. 2015; Wehner et al. 2014). This sometimes improves agreement with observational datas (e.g. Kopparla et al. 2013; Wehner et al. 2014 for winter), but can overestimates summer extreme precipitation if parameterisation schemes are not retuned (Wehner et al. 2014).

For wind extremes, higher resolution gave somewhat stronger winds and heavier tails for most regions for both the CORDEX vs CMIP5 analysis and to a lesser extent for HadGEM3-A, except for regions dominated by coasts for the latter, where large coastal grid boxes at lower resolution brought strong ocean winds further over land. Stronger winds with higher resolution are also found in previous studies (e.g. Pryor et al. 2012; Kunz et al. 2010; Gao et al. 2020). The largest differences we found were between CMIP5 and CORDEX at 0.44°, with less difference between the two resolutions of CORDEX. Differences between reanalysis based estimates made model evaluation difficult, whilst inconsistencies in the way daily maximum wind is calculated in different models were also an issue.

The results of the circulation analogue analysis on the HadGEM3-A GCM simulations suggested that downscaling effects were the dominant cause of differences with resolution for all three phenomena, with limited effects of any differences in the representation of the large scale circulation. If this result also applied to other GCMs, it would suggest that dynamical downscaling with more economical limited area models would be a better strategy for simulating European extreme events, whilst GCM efforts could focus on other aspects such as multiple members or multi-physics ensembles. However, we cannot reach this conclusion based solely on this analysis, since we examine only a single model, which may not be representative of other models, and because the range of resolutions considered may be too narrow. Demory et al. (2020) and Strandberg and Lind (2020) found that PRIMAVERA GCM simulations and EURO-CORDEX simulations at comparable resolution simulated fairly similar precipitation PDFs to each other, which would agree with a limited influence of upscaling. However, Furthermore, a number of studies do find improvements in the

large-scale circulation with resolution, including for extra-tropical cyclones and storm tracks (Colle et al. 2013; Jung et al 2006; 2012, Zappa et al. 2013), Euro-Atlantic weather regimes (Dawson et al. 2012; 2015; Cattiaux et al. 2013; Strommen et al. 2019; Fabiano et al. 2020) and blocking (Jung et al. 2012, Anstey et al. 2013; Matsueda et al. 2009, Berckmans et al 2013; Scheimann et al. 20174; 2020; Davini et al 2017a; 2017b; 2020; see also Introduction). Interestingly, Scheimann et al. (2017) find improvements in Euro-Atlantic blocking with resolution in all seasons in the same HadGEM3-A simulations as we analyse here. However, the net effects on extremes, given all uncertainties, was not explicitly investigated. Our study does not seem to be able to discern such effects. Other studies suggest that benefits from upscaling may require convective permitting simulations (Hart et al. 2018).

Overall our results suggest that whether or not increased resolution is beneficial for the simulation of extreme events over Europe depends on the event being considered. Benefits appear limited for heatwaves, whereas wind extremes and particularly precipitation extremes are more sensitive. We do not find any particular advantage in using a global high resolution model compared to regional dynamical downscaling, with the caveats that this investigation needs to be extended to other GCMs, and a wider range of resolutions should be investigated.

In order to fully address the question of the benefits of increased resolution for European climate extremes, a number of aspects remain to be investigated. Firstly, the analysis could be widened to other types of extremes, for example, sea level rise and storm surge, or other aspects of extremes could be considered e.g. timing, frequency and duration of events. The global simulations we investigated were atmosphere-only, and the role of increased ocean resolution and also vertical resolution and model top height should be considered. Finally, we assume that better historical performance translates into more accurate future projections. Lhotka et al. (2018) find low sensitivity of heatwave projections to resolution in EURO-CORDEX RCMs. However, Van Haren et al. (2015b) and van der Linden et al. (2019) find stronger future summer drying and heating in central Europe with increased resolution in the EC-Earth GCM due to differences in atmospheric circulation. Concerning precipitation, future projections for large scale and seasonal mean precipitation are consistent between large scale regional and convective permitting models, whilst there is evidence that summer sub-daily intensities increase more in the future in convection permitting models (Kendon et al. 2014; 2017; Ban et al. 2015). For wind, Willison et al. (2015) find a larger response of the North Atlantic storm track to global warming with higher resolution in the regional WRF model. Furthermore, Baker et al. (2019) find that in winter the polar jet, storm tracks and associated precipitation shift further North over the Euro-Atlantic region in the future with increased resolution in the same HadGEM3-A set up as used here. The sensitivity of projections to resolution nevertheless remains an area that needs further research.

Finally, ongoing projects such as HighResMIP for CMIP6 (Haarsma et al., 2016), and the CORDEX Flagship Pilot Studies, particularly the FPS on Convective Phenomena at High Resolution over Europe and the Mediterranean (Coppola et al., 2019; Jacob et al 2020), will enable the benefits of high resolution and its effect on European climate projections to be explored more thoroughly. The former will allow a systematic exploration of the effects of increased resolution for multiple GCMs through coordinated experiments simulating the past and future climate. The latter will

include a first of its kind large multi-model ensemble at convective permitting resolution for decadal time slices in the present and future for a large domain covering central Europe and part of the Mediterranean. Data and code availability

1252 The CMIP5 and CORDEX data used for this analysis are available from the Earth System Grid Federation portals, and 1253 are detailed in Table S1. The HadGEM3-A UPSCALE simulations are available from the CEDA-JASMIN platform. 1254 E-OBS can be downloaded here https://www.ecad.eu/download/ensembles/download.php, MESAN is available here http://exporter.nsc.liu.se/620eed0cb2c74c859f7d6db81742e114/, ERA5 and MESCAN are available from the 1255 1256 Copernicus Climate Data Store https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu, whilst DYNAD winds are available from Tomas

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Author contributions

CI, RV and SJ conceptualised the study, CI carried out the analysis and wrote the manuscript, JS managed the CRECP project together with CH and BE, and all co-authors were involved in discussions to prepare the study and helped improve the manuscript.

Competing interests

1263 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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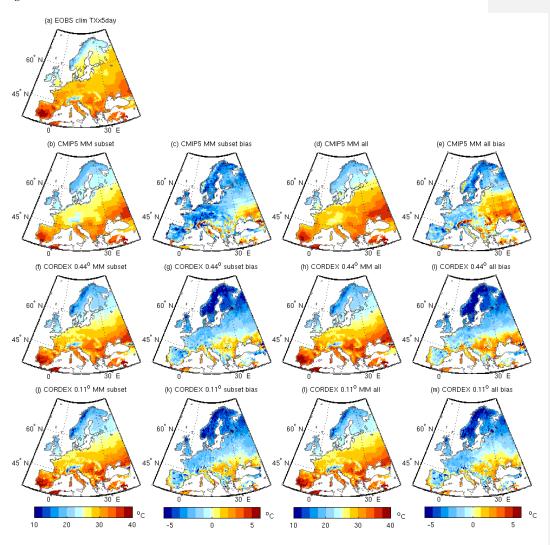


Figure 1: Climatological mean of TXx5day for the period 1970-2005 for (a) E_OBS, the multi model meadian of the common subset of models (see Methods) for (b) CMIP5, (f) CORDEX 0.44° and (j) CORDEX 0.11°, (c, g, k) their biases with respect to E_OBS, and (d,e,h,i,j,k) the same for the full ensembles of CMIP5 and CORDEX. Units °C.

Commented [c1]: Means now replaced by medians and for the "all" ensembles there is now only one member per model.

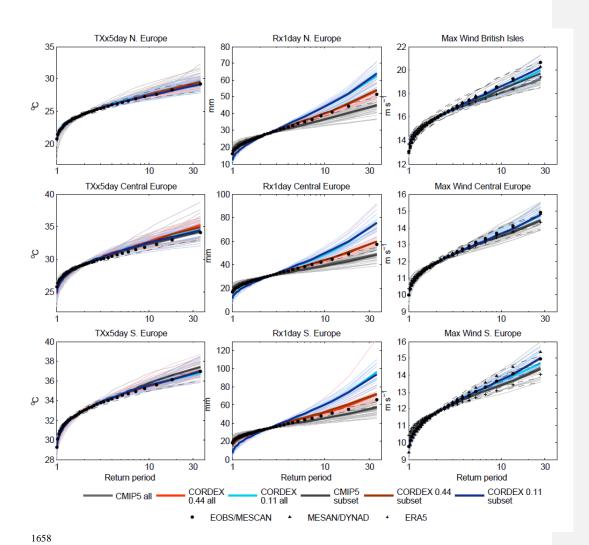


Figure 2: Return period plots for (left) TXx5day, (middle column) Rx1day and (right) annual maximum wind, for CMIP5 and CORDEX for Northern Europe (top row (except top rightleft = British Isles)), Central Europe (middle row) and Southern Europe (bottom row). CMIP5 is shown in grey, CORDEX 0.44° in red and CORDEX 0.11° in blue. Thin lines are individual ensemble members, thick lines are multi model medians: lighter colours shades for the full ensembles, and darker colours shades for the subset of models common to CMIP5, and both CORDEX resolutions. Observational datasets are shown in black, circles for E-OBS temperature and precipitation and MESCAN wind, triangles for MESAN precipitation and DYNAD wind and crosses for ERA5 wind. Confidence intervals based on bootstrapping are shown with dashed lines for the observational datasets. The time periods considered are 1970-2005 for TXx5day and Rx1day, and 1979-2005 for wind.

 Commented [c2]: Annual maximum wind now uses 6 hourly wind instead of sfcWindmax. The "full ensemble" now only includes one member per model

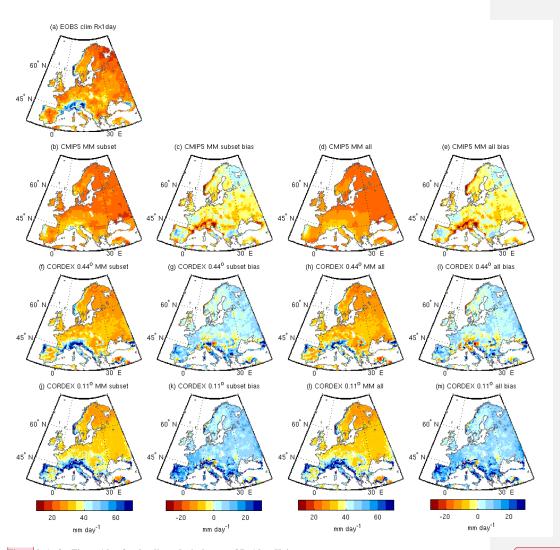


Figure 3: As for Figure 1 but for the climatological mean of Rx1day. Units mm.

Commented [c3]: Means replaced by medians. "all" ensembles now only have one member per model

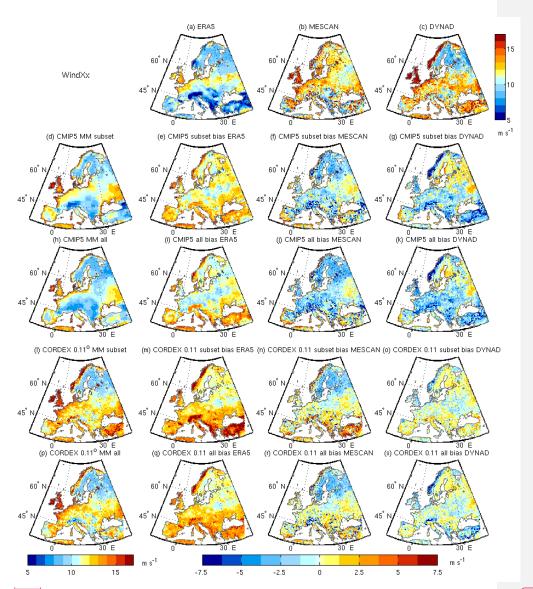


Figure 4: Climatological mean of annual maximum wind for the period 1979-2005 for (a) ERA5, (b) MESCAN (c) DYNAD, and for the multi model medianan of the common subset of models for (d) CMIP5 and (l) CORDEX 0.11° and their biases with respect to the reanalyses datasets (e-g and m-o). (h-k and p-s) are the same but for the full ensembles of CMIP5 and CORDEX. Units meters per second.

 Commented [c4]: WindXx now uses 6 hourly data instead of sfcWindmax. Also, "all" ensembles now use only 1 member per model. We replace multi model means by medians. Biases are now shown

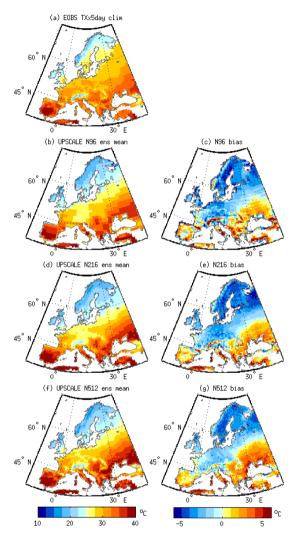


Figure 5: Climatological mean of TXx5day for the ensemble means of three resolutions of HadGEM3-A (UPSCALE) GCM simulations (left) for the period 1985-2011 and their biases with respect to E-OBS (right). (a) E_OBS, (b, c) N96 (130 km), (d, e) N216 (60 km), (f, g) N512 (25 km). Units °C.

Commented [c5]: Colour bars are now switched the correct way round

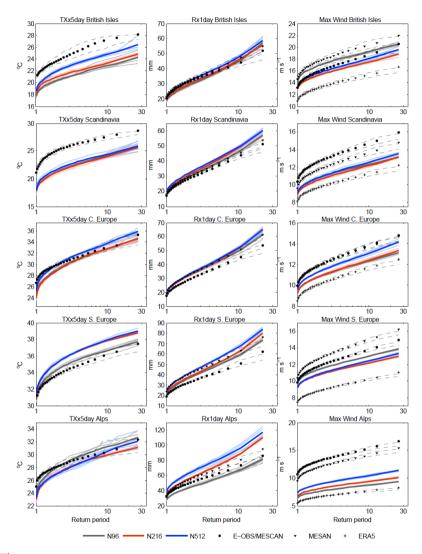
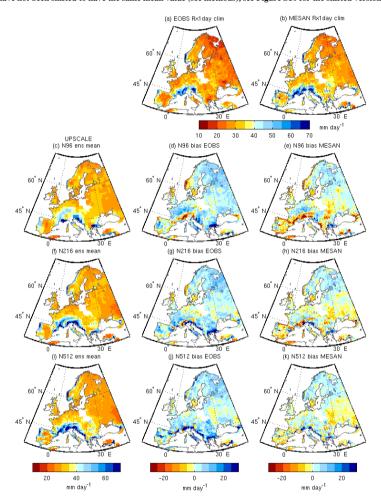
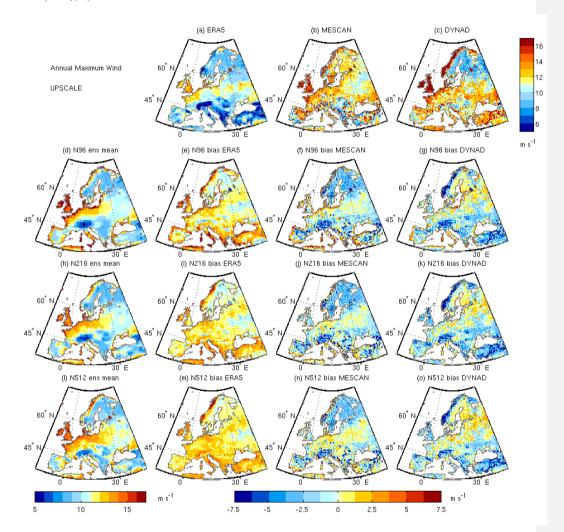


Figure 6: Return period plots for (left) TXx5day, middle column Rx1day and (right) annual maximum wind, for the UPSCALE simulations for (top row) the British Isles, (2^{nd} row) Scandinavia, (3^{rd} row) Central Europe, (4^{th} row) Southern Europe, and (last

Commented [c6]: Scandinavia is now spelt correctly, and the Alps have been added for wind.





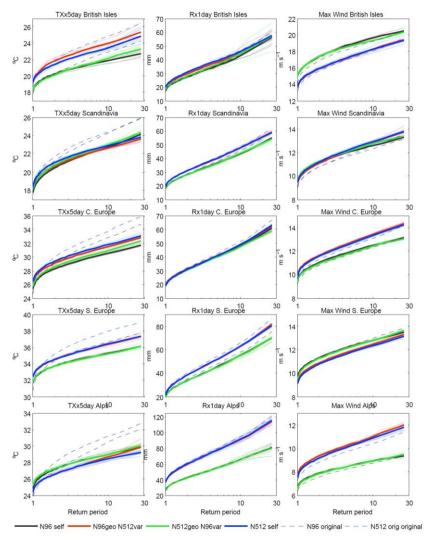


Figure 9: Circulation analogue results. Return period plots for (left) TXx5day, (middle) Rx1day and (right) annual maximum wind for (top) the British Isles, (2nd row) Scandinavia, (3rd row) Central Europe, (4th row) Southern Europe and (5th row) the Alps. Grey represents the N96 self-analogues, blue the N512 self-analogues, red is for N96 circulation with N512 variables (e.g. precipitation) and green is for N512 circulation with N96 variables. Thin lines represent individual ensemble members, thick lines represent the mean across individual ensemble members. Blue dashed line represents the original N512 ensemble mean results like those shown in Figure 6 (although sometimes based on a different time period), and the grey dashed lines represent the equivalent for the N96 simulations. Results for TXx5day are based on the period 1985-2011, Rx1day 1986-2011, and wind 1986-2011.

1705

Commented [c7]: TXx5day replaced with version with smoothing last. Alps added.