Climate change and extreme weather events



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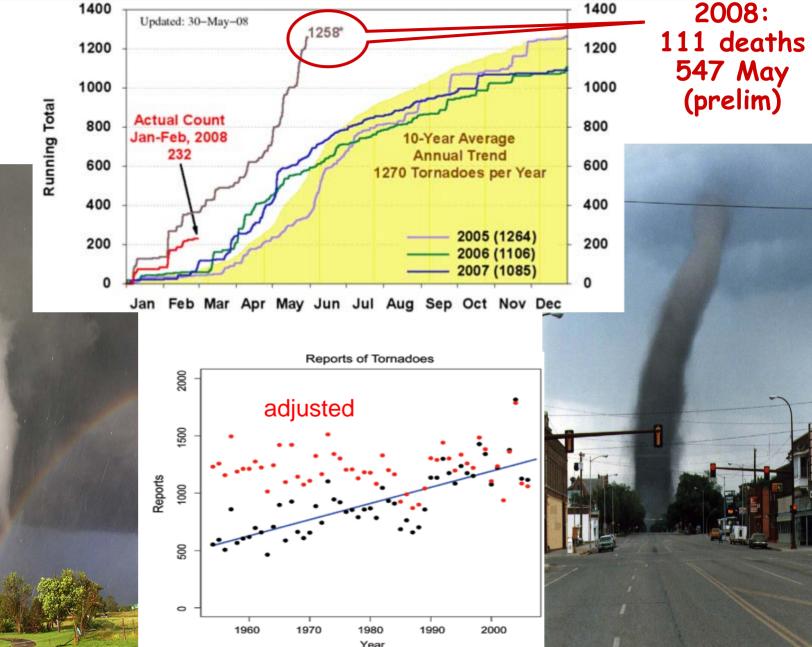




U.S. Annual Tornadoes

*2008: preliminary count, may include duplicates; Corrected through February





Climate change and extreme weather events

Changes in extremes matter most for society and the environment

With a warming climate:

- More high temperatures, heat waves
- Wild fires and other consequences
- ♦ Fewer cold extremes.

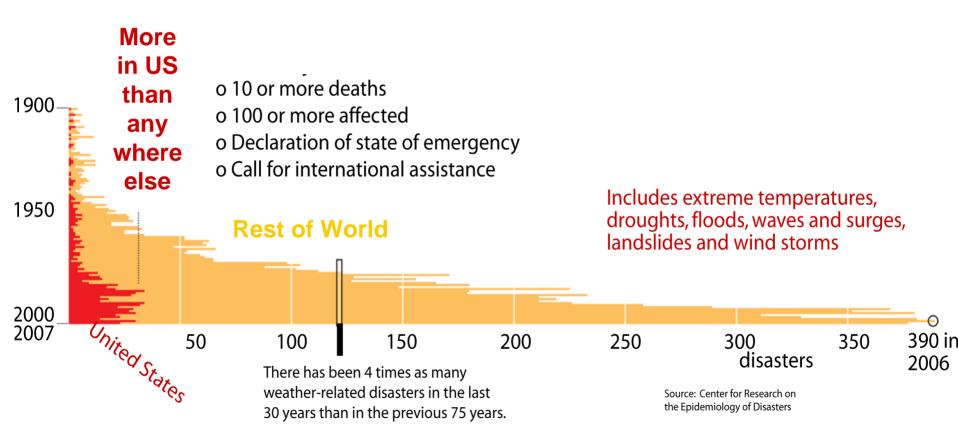
♦ More extremes in hydrological cycle:

- Drought, heavy rains, floods
- ♦ Intense storms





A century of weather-related disasters



Ask the right question!

- Is it global warming?
- Is it natural variability?

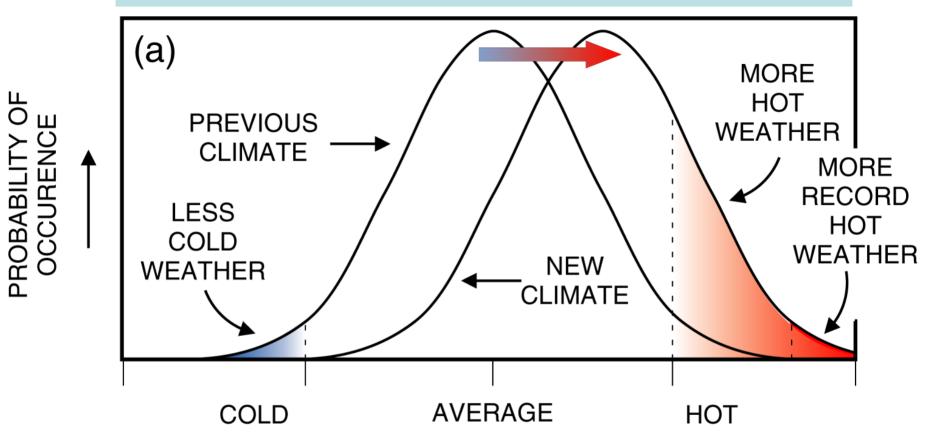
These are **not** the right questions: do not have answers.

We can estimate how rare an event was based solely on observations (requires good long data and assumptions of stationary climate)

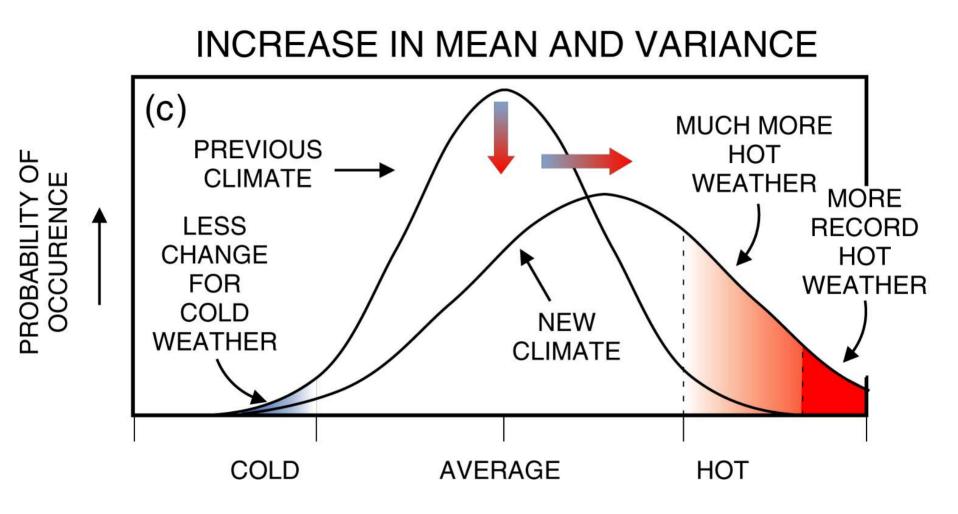
We may be able to state that the odds are remote that the event could have occurred without warming (or without natural variability).

Always a combination of both.

Increase in Mean



Much bigger percentage changes in extremes



Much bigger percentage changes in extremes

Issues for extremes

- ♦ Data are "messy"
- Often data are not available with right sampling
- Spatial scales vary: tornadoes to droughts
- Extremes are inherently rare
- Terminology: High impact but not really extreme?
- Model definitions are often different
- Model grid box value may not be comparable to mean of grid box from observations

Estimating extremes in data and models

P1: probability of event under current conditionsP0: probability of event with external driver removed (requires model)

FAR: Fraction of Attributable Risk = 1-PO/P1

Use coupled models to estimate attributable effect Use statistical methods to estimate FAR (e.g. Stott et al 2004) Use GCMs to estimate FAR (e.g. Pall et al 2007) Extend to other regions and variables (e.g. Hoerling et al 2007)

Assumes model depicts real world.

Heat waves and wild fires

Impacts on human health and mortality, economic impacts, ecosystem and wildlife impacts



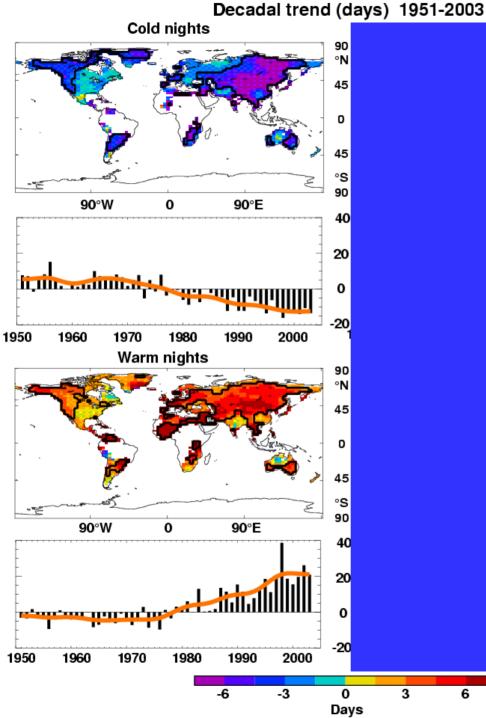




Extremes of temperature are changing!

Observed trends (days) per decade for 1951 to 2003: 5th or 95th percentiles

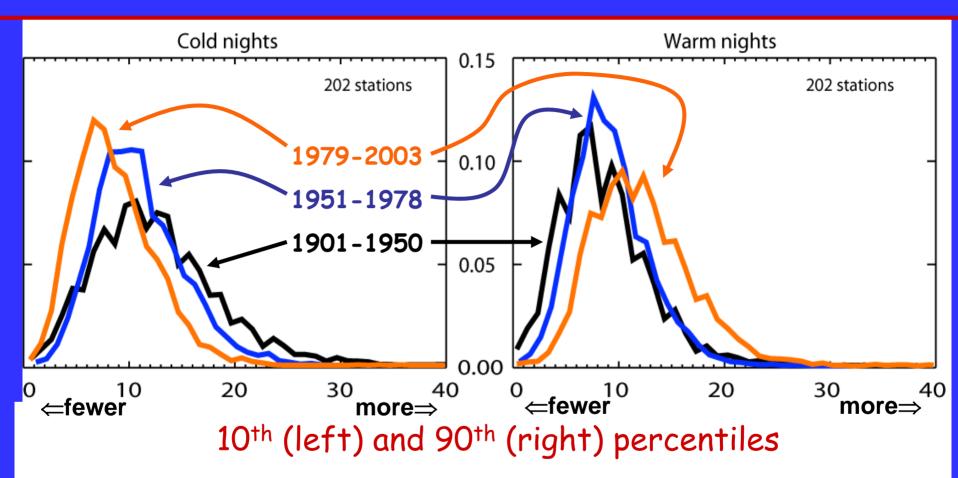
From Alexander et al. (2006) and IPCC



3

6

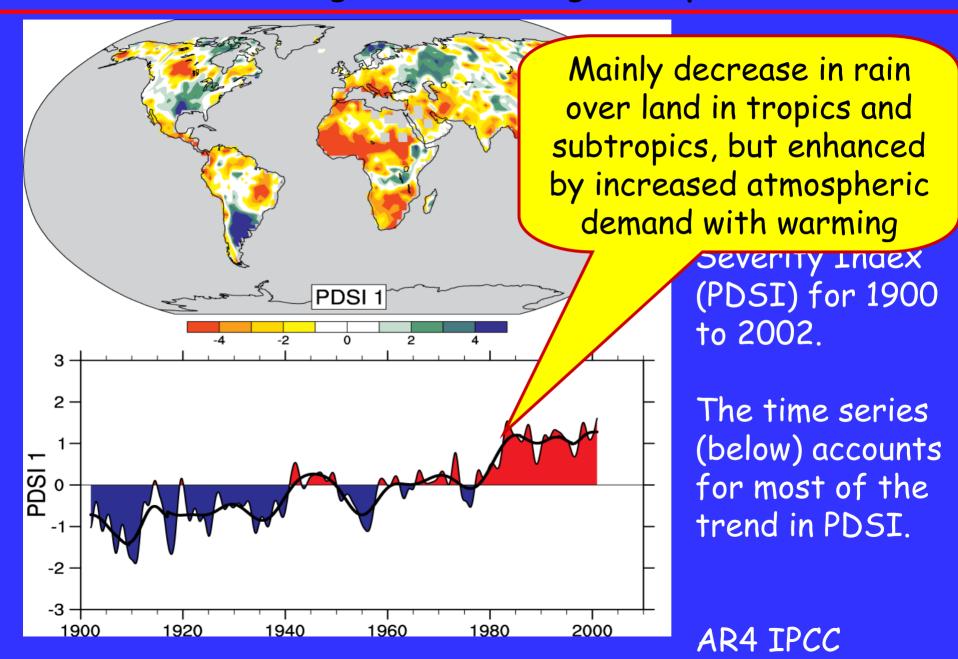
Warm nights are increasing; cold nights decreasing



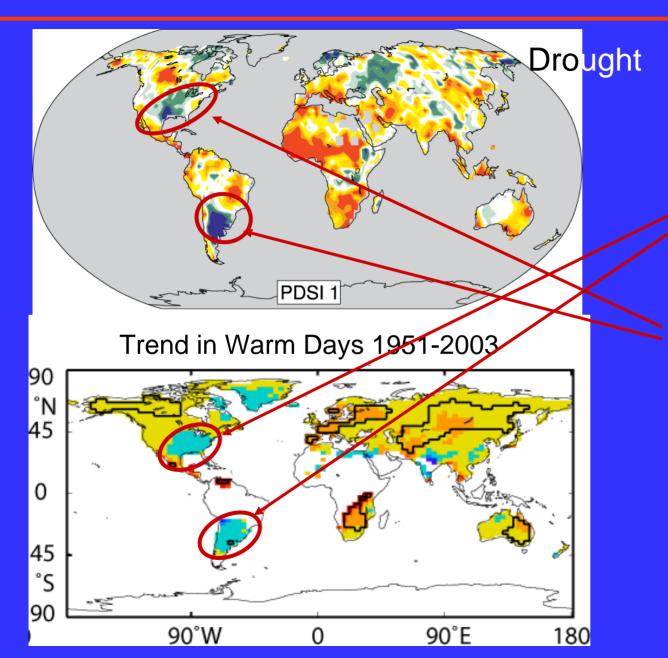
Frequency of occurrence of cold or warm temperatures for 202 global stations with at least 80% complete data between 1901 and 2003 for 3 time periods:

1901 to 1950 (black), 1951 to 1978 (blue) and 1979 to 2003 (orange).

Drought is increasing most places



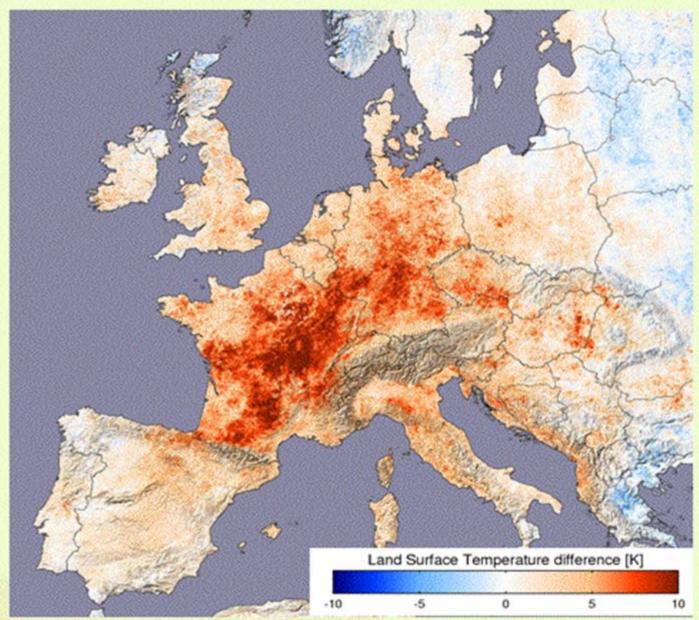
Increases in rainfall and cloud counter warming



Absence of warming by day coincides with wetter and cloudier conditions



The European heat-wave of summer 2003

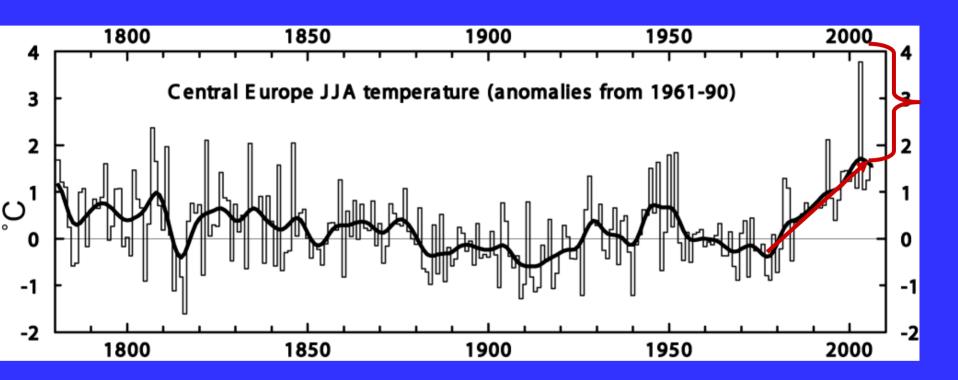


European temperatures in early August 2003, relative to 2001-2004 average

From NASA's MODIS - Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectrometer, courtesy of Reto Stöckli, ETHZ



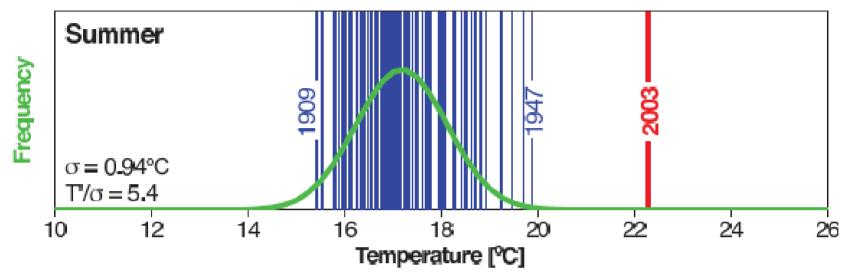
Heat waves are increasing: an example



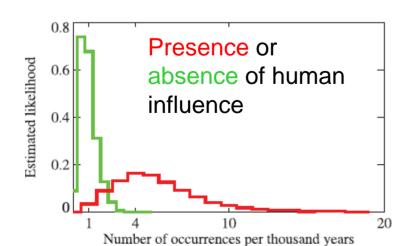
Extreme Heat Wave Summer 2003 Europe 30,000 deaths IPCC AR4

Trend plus variability?

Humans have affected temperatures



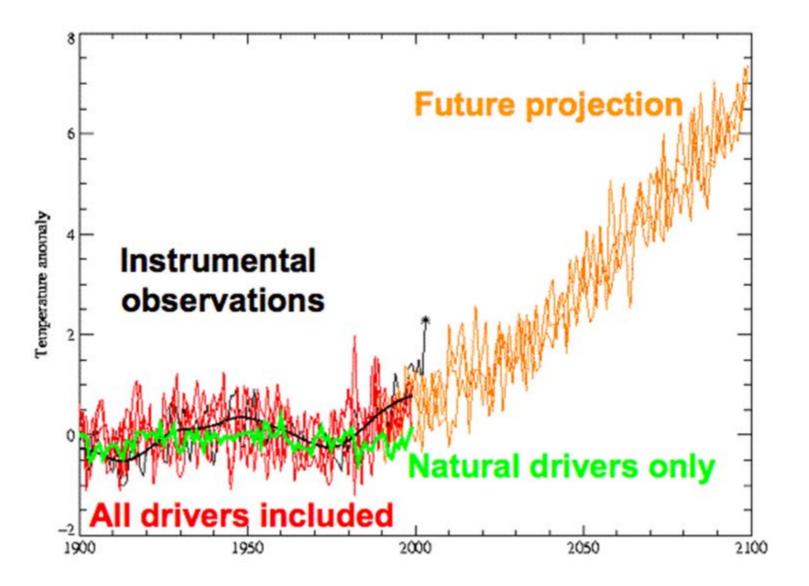
Summer temperatures in Switzerland from 1864 to 2003. During the extremely hot summer of 2003, average temperatures exceeded 22°C, as indicated by the red bar (a vertical line is shown for each year in the 137-year record). **The odds of the 2003 value**, given the rest of the record is about **1 in 10 million**.



Change in risk of mean European summer temperatures exceeding 1.6°C above 1961 to 1990 means. Stott et al. 2004



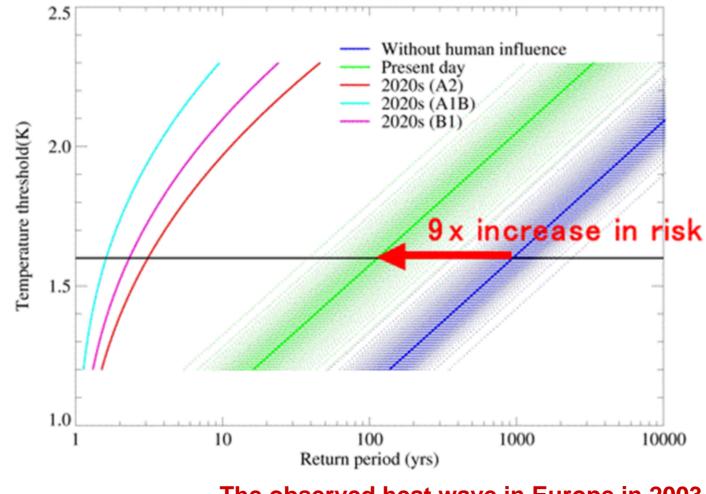
Modeling southern European JJA temperatures



Stott et al 2004

Changing risk of European heat waves

Return periods for European heat-waves



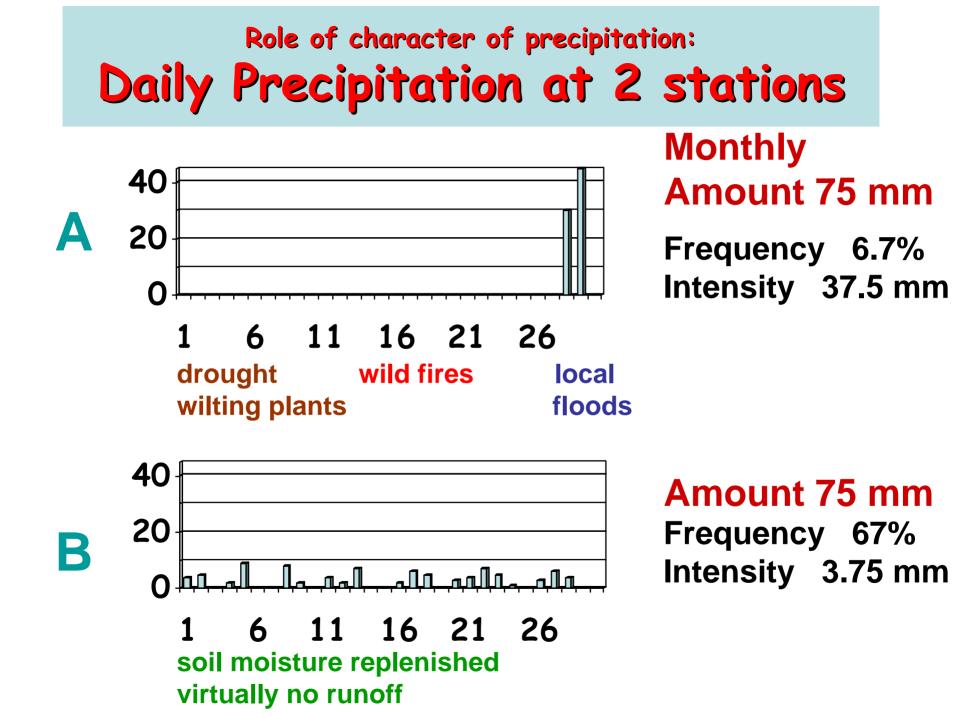
Stott et al 2004

The observed heat wave in Europe in 2003 becomes commonplace by 2020s

Flooding and extremes of precipitation



Photo Dave Mitchell, Courtesy Myles Allen



Moderate or heavy precipitation:

· Can not come from local column.

Can not come from E, unless light precipitation.

• Has to come from transport by storm-scale circulation into storm.

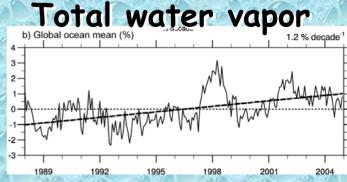
On average, rain producing systems (e.g., extratropical cyclones; thunderstorms) reach out and grab moisture from distance about 3 to 5 times radius of precipitating area.

Air holds more water vapor at higher temperatures

A basic physical law tells us that the water holding capacity of the atmosphere goes up at about 7% per degree Celsius increase in temperature. (4% per °F)

Observations show that this is happening at the surface and in lower atmosphere: 0.55°C since 1970 over global oceans and 4% more water vapor.

This means more moisture available for storms and an enhanced greenhouse effect.



How should precipitation P change as the climate changes?

With increased GHGs: increased surface heating evaporation Efi and Pfi
 With increased aerosols, E↓ and P↓
 Net global effect is small and complex

Warming and Tî means water vapor î as observed
 Because precipitation comes from storms gathering up available moisture, rain and snow intensity î: widely observed
 But this must reduce lifetime and frequency of storms

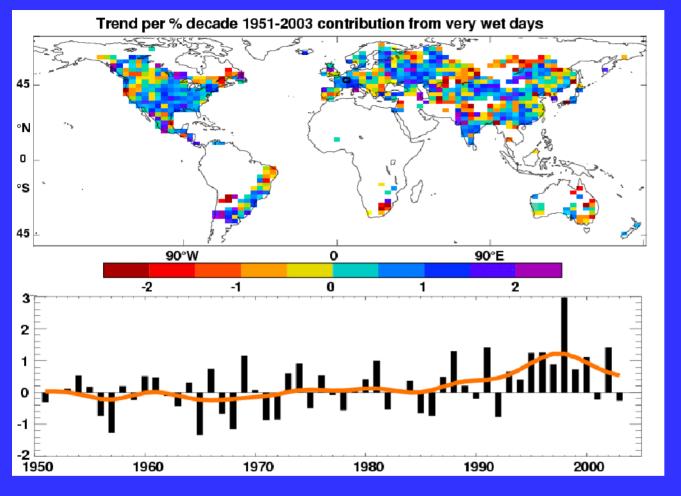
Longer dry spells

Trenberth et al 2003

How should precipitation P change as the climate changes?

• "The rich get richer and the poor get poorer". More water vapor plus moisture transports from divergence regions (subtropics) to convergence zones. Result: wet areas get wetter, dry areas drier (Neelin, Chou) "Upped ante" precip decreases on edges of convergence zones as it takes more instability to trigger convection: more intense rains and upward motion but broader downward motion. (Neelin, Chou) More bang for the buck": The moisture and energy transport is a physical constraint, and with increased moisture, the winds can be less to achieve the same transport. Hence the divergent circulation weakens.

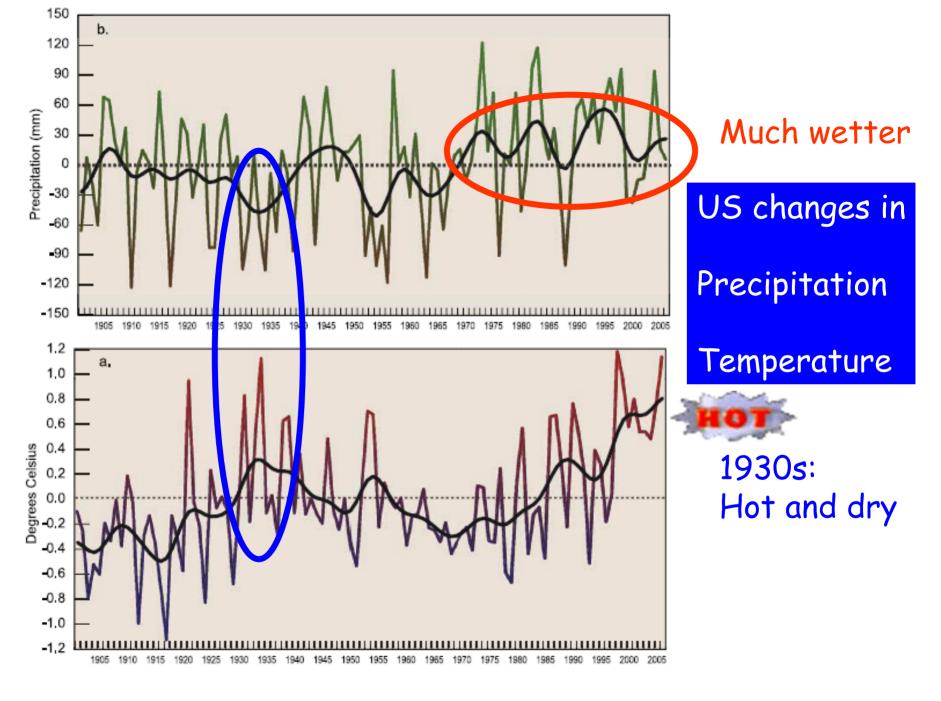
(Soden, Held et al)

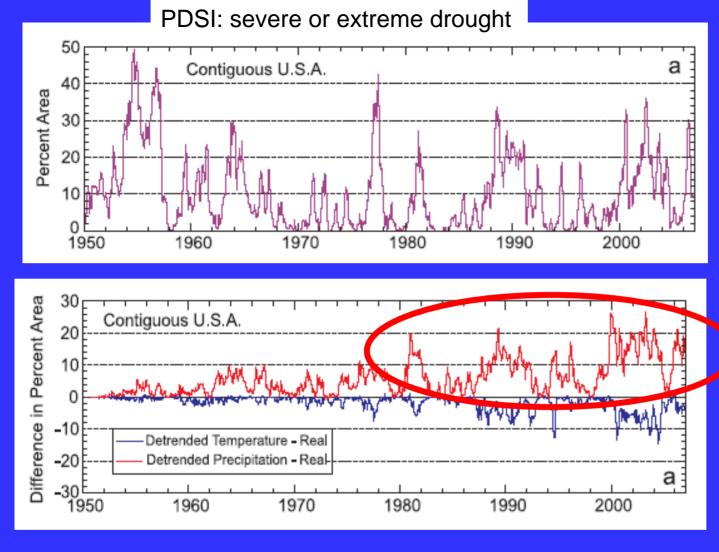


Precipitation Observed trends (%) per decade for 1951-2003 contribution to total annual from very wet days > 95th %ile.

Alexander et al 2006 IPCC AR4

Heavy precipitation days are increasing even in places where precipitation is decreasing.



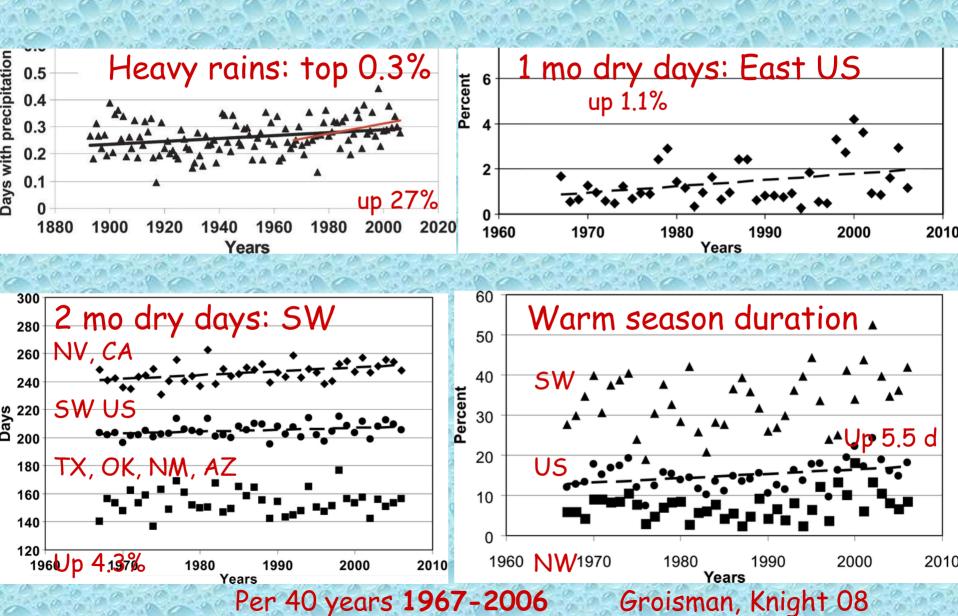


The warmer conditions suggest that drought would have been much worse if it were not for the much wetter conditions.

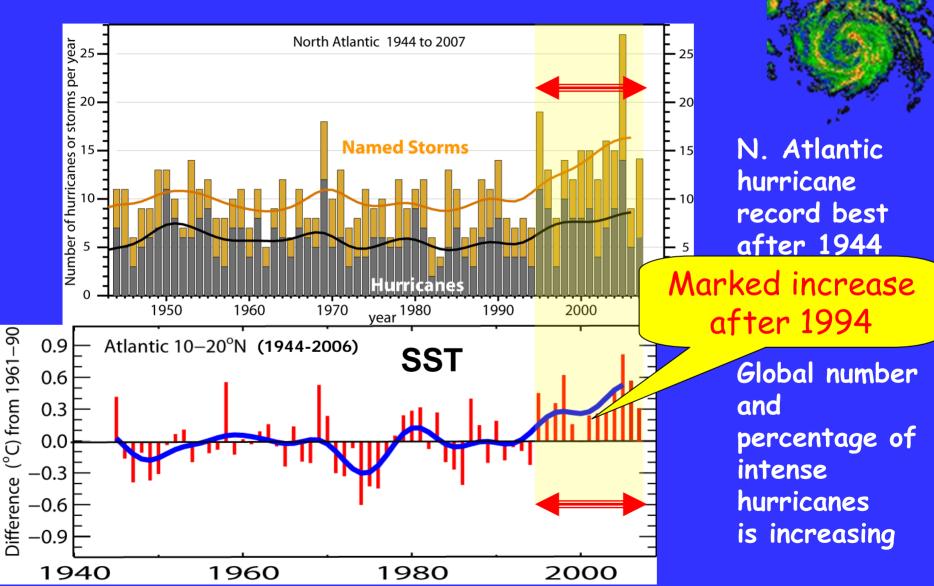
And it would have been much warmer too!

Change in area of PDSI in drought using detrended temperature and precipitation: Red is no trend in precipitation: **Would be much more drought!** Blue is no trend in temperature. **Modest warming** has contributed Easterling et al 2007

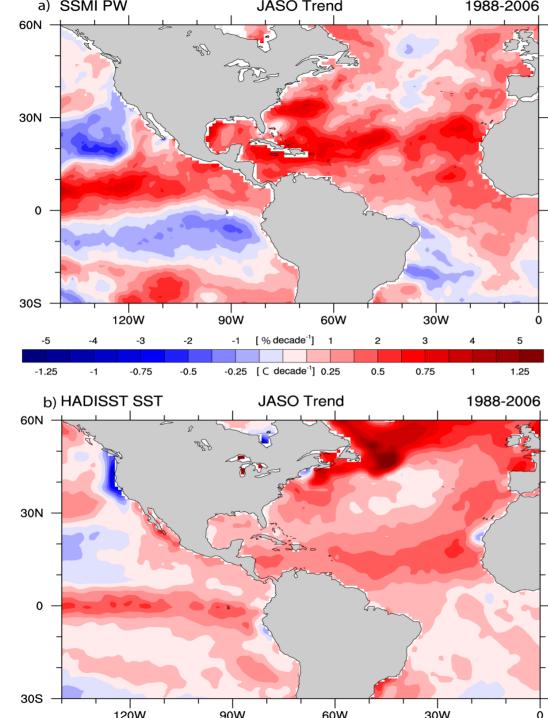
Increases in extremes in U.S.



North Atlantic hurricanes have increased with SSTs



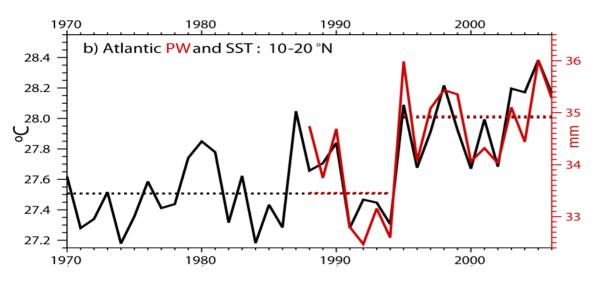
IPCC



Precip Water Atlantic **JASO** Linear trends **SSTs**

Higher SSTs and Higher water vapor

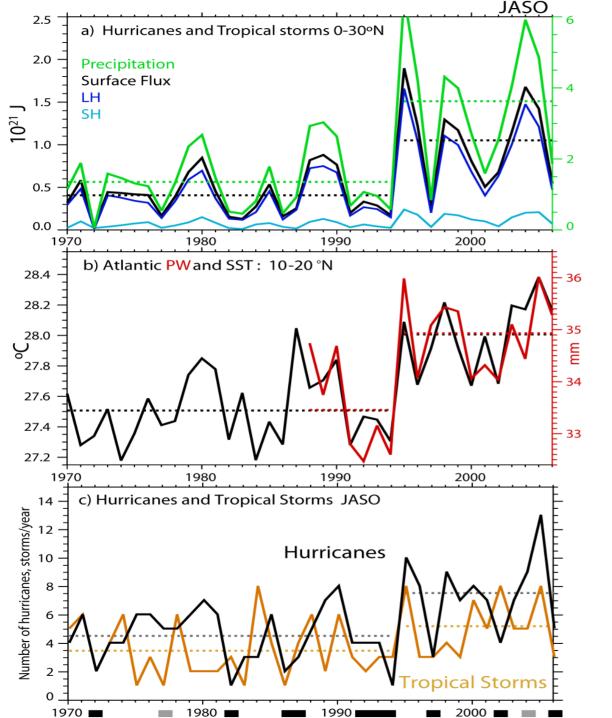
JASO Atlantic



Higher SSTs and Higher water vapor after 1994

Means more:

Ocean evaporation Rainfall, Tropical storms, and Hurricanes



JASO Atlantic

Sfc Fluxes 123%/K (total) 90%/K (precip)

Precip water SST 7%/K

Numbers: TS Hurricanes

Changes across 1994/95 JASO: 1995-2006 vs 1970-1994

| | 1970-1994 | 1995-2006 | Diff <u>%</u> Units |
|----------|--------------|--------------|-----------------------------|
| SSTs | 27.5 | 28.0 | 0.5 °C (10-20N) |
| Wv | 33.5 | 34.9 | 1.4 4.1/K mm |
| TS | 3.4 | 5.2 | 1. 8 45 NO. |
| Hurr | 4.5 | 7.5 | 3.0 55 |
| Total | 7.9 | 12.7 | 4.8 43 |
| Sfc Flux | 0.41 0.04 | 1.05 0.10 | 0.64 105 10 ²¹ J |
| Precip | 1.36 0.13 | 3.63 0.34 | 2.27 109 10 ²¹ J |

Downscaling of hurricanes

- Emanuel 2008 BAMS
- Knutson et al 2008 Nature Geoscience
- Use climate models projections of the environmental state
 - SST
 - Vertical temperature structure (stability)
 - Wind shear

Hoskins says: "*If the large scale is rubbish, then the detail is rubbish, too.*" --New Scientist, 7 May 2008

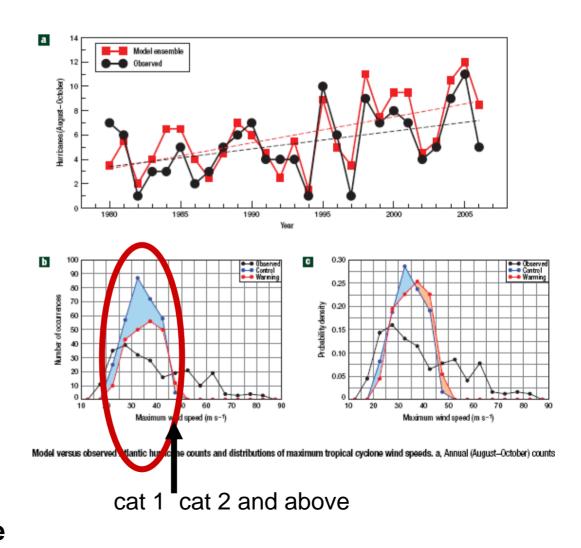
Downscaling of hurricanes

Knutson et al 2008 Nature Geoscience

- Good replication of number of tropical storms
- But no storms cat 2 or higher

Why?

Models fail to replicate tropical disturbances of all sorts: convective parameterization. Main reason for reduction in Atlantic is wind shear: state more "El Nino-like" Does not apply elsewhere



Some model studies of extremes

- Frosts: Meehl et al 2004
- Heat waves: Meehl and Tebaldi 2004
- 2003 European heat wave: Stott et al 2004
- Precipitation, dry days: Tebaldi et al 2007
- Many indices Frich et al. 2002
 defined 10 standard extremes indices derived from observed data, then from 9 CMIP3 models for AR4
- Precip: Meehl et al 2005

Extremes indices for temperature

Total number of **frost days**, defined as the annual total number of days with absolute minimum temperature below 0°C

• Intra-annual **extreme temperature range**, defined as the difference between the highest temperature of the year and the lowest

•Growing season length, defined as the length of the period between the first spell of five consecutive days with mean temperature above 5°C and the last such spell of the year

• Heat wave duration index, defined as the maximum period of at least 5 consecutive days with maximum temperature higher by at least 5°C than the climatological norm for the same calendar day

• Warm nights, defined as the percentage of times in the year when minimum temperature is above the 90th percentile of the climatological distribution for that calendar day

Frich et al 2002 Clim. Res.

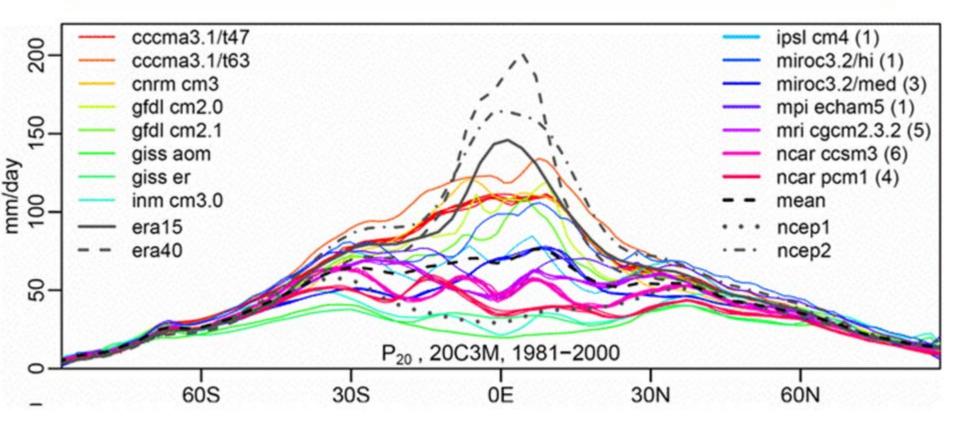
Extremes indices for precipitation

- Number of days with precipitation greater than 10mm
- Maximum number of consecutive dry days
- Maximum 5-day precipitation total
- Simple daily intensity index, defined as the annual total precipitation divided by the number of wet days
- Fraction of total precipitation due to events exceeding the 95th percentile of the climatological distribution for wet day amounts

Frich et al 2002 Clim. Res.

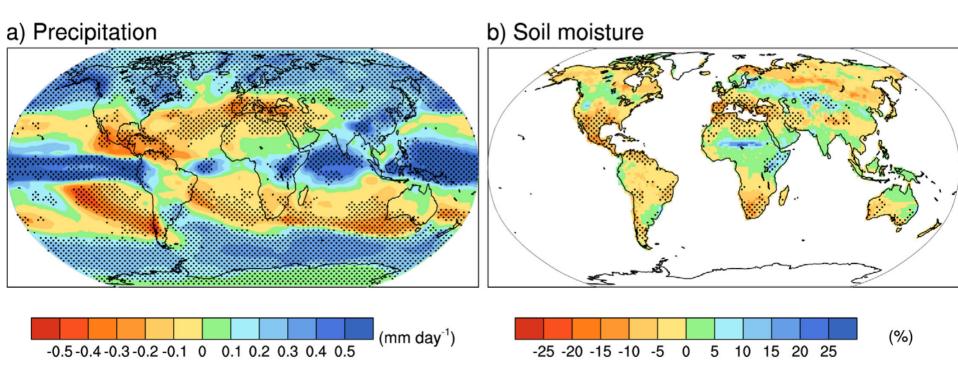


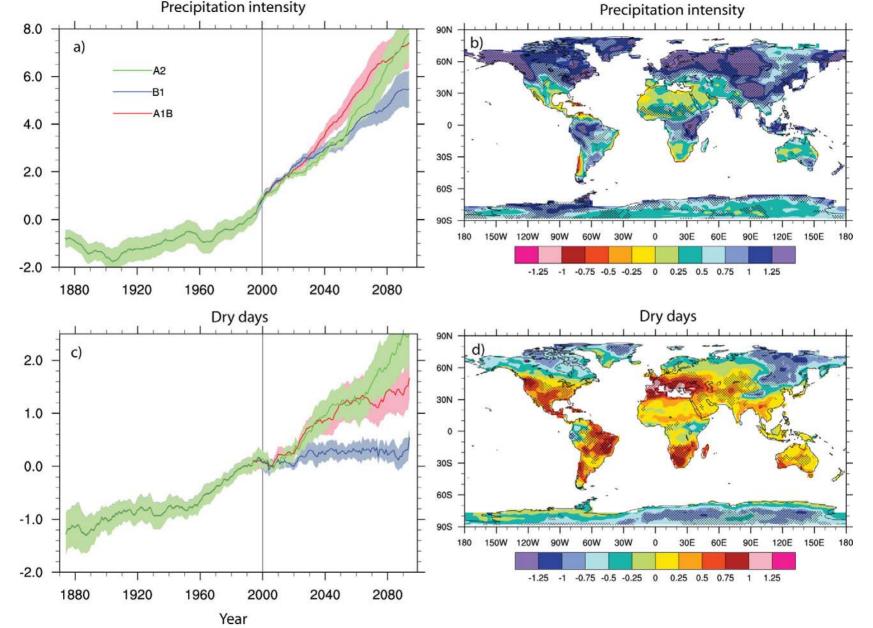
20-yr 24-hr PCP extremes – current climate



Courtesy Francis Zwiers

Combined effects of increased precipitation intensity and more dry days contribute to mean precipitation changes





(Tebaldi, C., J.M. Arblaster, K. Hayhoe, and G.A. Meehl, 2006: Going to the extremes: An intercomparison of model-simulated historical and future changes in extreme events. *Clim. Change.*)

 Table SPM.2. Recent trends, assessment of human influence on the trend and projections for extreme weather events for which there is an observed late-20th century trend. {Tables 3.7, 3.8, 9.4; Sections 3.8, 5.5, 9.7, 11.2–11.9}
 IPCC AR4

| Phenomenon ^a and direction of trend | Likelihood that trend occurred in late 20th century (typically post 1960) | Likelihood of a human contribution to observed trend ^b | Likelihood of future trends based on projections for 21st century using SRES scenarios |
|---|--|---|---|
| Warmer and fewer cold days and nights over most land areas | Very likely¢ | Likely ^d | Virtually certain ^d |
| Warmer and more frequent hot days and nights over most land areas | Very likely® | Likely (nights)ª | Virtually certaind |
| Warm spells/heat waves. Frequency increases over most land areas | Likely | More likely than not! | Very likely |
| Heavy precipitation events. Frequency (or proportion of total rainfall from heavy falls) increases over most areas | Likely | More likely than not ^t | Very likely |
| Area affected by droughts increases | Likely in many regions since 1970s | More likely than not | Likely |
| Intense tropical cyclone activity increases | Likely in some regions since 1970 | More likely than not | Likely |
| Increased incidence of extreme high sea level (excludes tsunamis) ⁹ | Likely | More likely than not ^{f,h} | Likely |