

Simulated and observed variability in ocean temperature and heat content

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Observations show both a pronounced increase in ocean heat content (OHC) over the second half of the 20th century and substantial OHC variability on interannual-to-decadal time scales. Although climate models are able to simulate overall changes in OHC, they are generally thought to underestimate the amplitude of OHC variability. Using simulations of 20th century climate performed with 13 numerical models, we demonstrate that the apparent discrepancy between modeled and observed variability is largely explained by accounting for changes in observational coverage and instrumentation and by including the effects of volcanic eruptions. Our work does not support the recent claim that the 0- to 700-m layer of the global ocean experienced a substantial OHC decrease over the 2003 to 2005 time period. We show that the 2003–2005 cooling is largely an artifact of a systematic change in the observing system, with the deployment of Argo floats reducing a warm bias in the original observing system.

climate | models | observations | ocean heat content

Observations suggest that the world's oceans were responsible for most of the heat content increase in the earth's climate system between 1955 and 1998 (1). This increase is embedded in substantial variability on interannual-to-decadal time scales. State-of-the-art climate models have been able to replicate both the overall increase in ocean heat content (OHC) during this period and its horizontal and vertical structure (2–7). Such detection and attribution studies have identified a large anthropogenic component in the observed changes and find that the “noise” of natural climate variability is an inadequate explanation for these changes.

The credibility of these results is strongly dependent on the reliability of natural variability estimates, particularly on the multidecadal time scales against which a slowly evolving anthropogenic signal must be discerned. This low-frequency noise information cannot be obtained from the relatively short (45- to 50-year) observational record and is typically estimated from model “undisturbed earth” experiments (“control runs”), which assume no changes in greenhouse gases or other external forcings (8). Several studies have reported that models may significantly underestimate the observed OHC variability (3, 9, 10), raising concerns about the reliability of detection and attribution findings (11, 12).

Although observational estimates of OHC change given in the 2005 World Ocean Atlas (WOA-2005) (1) are based on millions of individual temperature measurements, these measurements are unevenly distributed in space and time. Until recently, many portions of the global ocean were poorly sampled. To reconstruct the true (but unknown) four-dimensional structure of global ocean temperature and OHC changes, it is necessary to “infill” missing data. This has been done using either statistical approaches (1, 3, 13, 14) or physically based ocean models (15).

Because there is no unique solution to the infilling problem, and in view of concerns that previously applied statistical

infilling approaches may alter ocean temperature variability (7, 16), it is preferable to restrict comparisons of modeled and observed variability to the actually observed portions of the ocean and, hence, to volume-averaged ocean temperature rather than OHC. This type of “model subsampling” strategy has been used in recent detection and attribution work (5, 6).

A previous study (16) employed model results from control runs and an idealized climate change experiment (17) to investigate the impact of incomplete space- and time-varying observational data coverage on simulated estimates of ocean temperature variability. Results were reported from eight different atmosphere/ocean general circulation models. Subsampling spatially complete model data with the observational data coverage mask amplified the temporal variability of ocean temperatures. In the control runs, the variability estimated from subsampled data was below variability levels in the subsampled observations. In the idealized experiment with 1%/year atmospheric CO₂ increases, however, the simulated variability of subsampled data was consistently larger than observed, primarily because of the unrealistically large CO₂ forcing (compared with the estimated observed forcing).

To evaluate the ability of models to simulate the observed amplitude of ocean temperature variability, it is therefore important to analyze model experiments that employ realistic estimates of historical forcings and to account for observational coverage and instrumentation changes. We consider all three issues here and address uncertainties in both model results and in the observations themselves.

Model and Observational Data

We examine a suite of recently completed climate model simulations carried out in support of the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Unlike the idealized experiments used in ref. 16, the simulations of 20th-century climate change [designated “20c3m” runs in the World Climate Research Program's Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 3 (WCRP CMIP3) data archive] include estimated

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Abbreviations: CTD, conductivity–temperature–depth; MBT, mechanical bathythermograph; OHC, ocean heat content; XBT, expendable bathythermograph.

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historical changes in a variety of natural and anthropogenic forcings** [see ref. 8 and [supporting information \(SI\) Text](#)].

From WOA-2005, we computed the observed volume-averaged temperature changes over two different depth ranges: the top 700 m and top 3,000 m of the ocean. The observed data for these two depth ranges were available as annual and pentadal means, respectively. Volume-averaged temperature anomalies were calculated for both spatially complete ocean data (observed plus infilled) and for the portion of the ocean for which observations were available, yielding $\Delta T_o(\text{Tot})$ and $\Delta T_o(\text{Sub})$, respectively, where “o” is an observational result (see [SI Text](#) for further details). Estimates of $\Delta T_o(\text{Tot})$ and $\Delta T_o(\text{Sub})$ were also obtained from a second observational data set compiled by Ishii *et al.* (13) (henceforth, ISHII6.2), who used a different statistical procedure for infilling purposes. The ISHII6.2 data set is restricted to the top 700 m of the ocean.

After transforming the model ocean temperature data sets to the WOA-2005 grid, we first calculated simulated values of $\Delta T_m(\text{Tot})$, where “m” is a model result, and then applied the WOA-2005 coverage mask (see [SI Text](#) for details of the masking procedure) to produce time series of $\Delta T_m(\text{Sub})$. This was done for a total of 44 realizations of the 20c3m experiment, performed with 13 different climate models.

Model Performance in Simulating Variability

Fig. 1 shows time series of $\Delta T_o(\text{Tot})$, $\Delta T_o(\text{Sub})$, $\Delta T_m(\text{Tot})$, and $\Delta T_m(\text{Sub})$ for the upper 700 and 3,000 m of the global ocean for two selected atmosphere/ocean general circulation models. In the three realizations of the 20c3m experiment performed with the MIROC3.2(medres) model, the variability of $\Delta T_m(\text{Tot})$ is noticeably smaller than the variability in $\Delta T_o(\text{Tot})$ (Fig. 1 A and C). Subsampling the model data at the locations of observations substantially amplifies the simulated temporal variability (Fig. 1 B and D). In contrast, subsampling the five realizations of the CGCM3.1 (T47) 20c3m experiment yields only a small increase in decadal variability but enhances the ocean warming trend for the period 1955–1998 by a factor of ≈ 2 . One important difference between the MIROC3.2(medres) and CGCM3.1(T47) experiments lies in the treatment of volcanic forcing, which is included in the former model but not in the latter.

Similar differences in variability and trends are apparent in the multimodel ensemble-mean ocean temperature changes estimated from models with and without volcanic forcing (V and No-V, respectively).†† For both the 0- to 700-m (Fig. 1 A and B) and 0- to 3,000-m (Fig. 1 C and D) layers, the average of the V model simulations has higher temporal variability than the No-V average but a smaller overall temperature trend. These results imply that (i) cooling caused by the inclusion of volcanic forcing offsets some of the greenhouse gas-induced ocean warming, thus reducing overall ocean temperature trends; and (ii) volcanic forcing is responsible for some of the decadal variability in volume-averaged ocean temperatures. Analyses of changes in sea surface temperature, subsurface temperatures, OHC, and sea level (8, 18–22) support these findings.

In Fig. 2, we illustrate the effect of subsampling on the temporal standard deviations (SDs) of global ocean temperature data. We

**Although all 13 modeling groups used very similar changes in well mixed greenhouse gases, the changes in other forcings were not prescribed as part of the experimental design. In practice, each group employed different combinations of 20th century forcings and often used different data sets for specifying individual forcings. End-dates for the experiments varied between groups and ranged from 1999 to 2003. Some modeling centers performed ensembles of the historical forcing simulation (see [SI Text](#) and [SI Table 1](#)). An ensemble contains multiple realizations of the same experiment, each starting from slightly different initial conditions but with identical changes in external forcings.

††We define \bar{T} as the arithmetic mean of the ensemble means, i.e., $\bar{T} = 1/N \sum_{j=1}^N \bar{T}_j$, where N is the total number of models in the group (V or No-V) under consideration and \bar{T}_j is the ensemble mean signal of the j th model. This weighting avoids placing undue emphasis on results from a single model with a large number of realizations. The intermodel SD is similarly defined based on the ensemble means (if available) from each model.

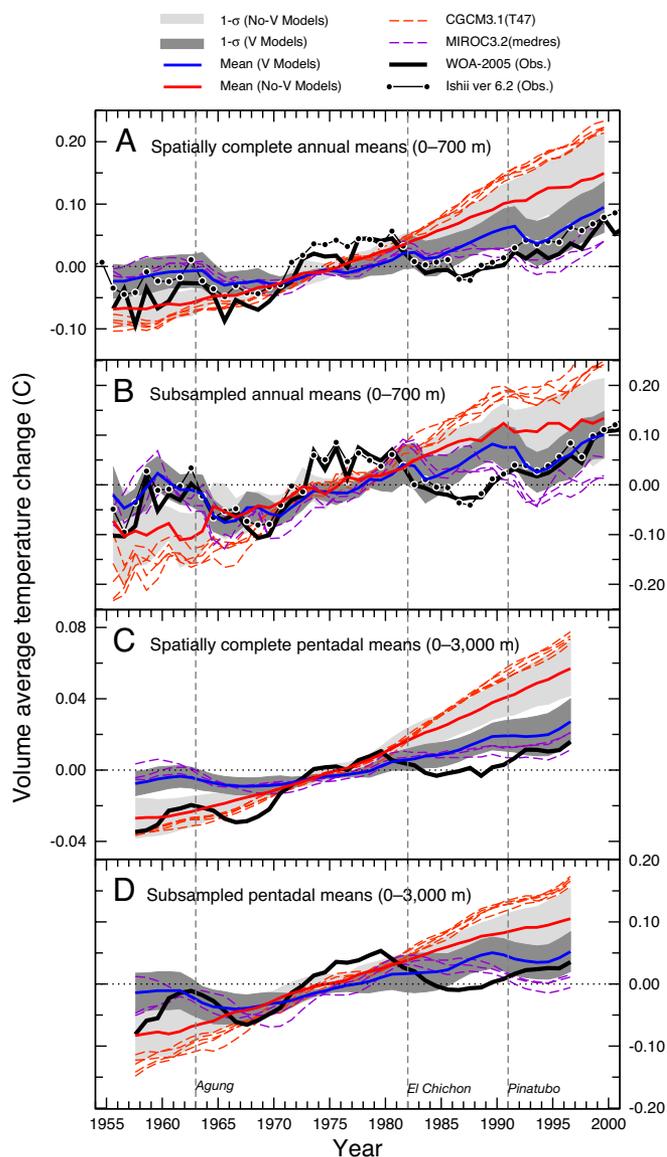


Fig. 1. Simulated and observed changes in volume-averaged temperature of the top 700 m (A and B) and 3,000 m (C and D) of the global ocean. Model results are from simulations of 20th century climate change performed with two atmosphere/ocean general circulation models: MIROC3.2 (medres) and CGCM3.1 (T47). Observations are from the WOA-2005 data set (1) and the ISHII6.2 data set (13). The ISHII6.2 data are available for 0–700 m only. Results are shown for both spatially complete temperatures (A and C) and temperatures subsampled with the WOA-2005 coverage mask (B and D). The multimodel V and No-V ensemble means†† are also plotted. These are based on 28 (16) realizations of the 20c3m experiment that included (excluded) volcanic forcing. Control run drift was removed from the model results (see [SI Text](#)). In both observations and models, the 0- to 700-m (0- to 3,000-m) temperature changes are annual (pentadal) means. The amplitude of the variability in the multimodel averages and observations should not be directly compared because averaging over realizations and models damps the unforced variability.†† Similarly, the SDs of the V and No-V results (represented by shaded envelopes) underestimate the true range of variability of individual model realizations. The observed variability is directly comparable to results from the individual MIROC3.2 (medres) and CGCM3.1(T47) realizations.

focus on the 0- to 700-m layer because (i) most of the observations are in the upper ocean, and the bulk of the observed increase in OHC since 1955 occurs in the 0- to 700-m layer; (ii) multiple observational estimates of changes in OHC and ocean temperature are available for the 0- to 700-m layer (12–14), whereas observa-

The first factor is incomplete and time-varying observational coverage. Until the advent of Argo data in the early 21st century, our view of the mean state and variability of ocean temperatures was based on incomplete observational coverage that varied geographically, with depth, and over time. Most analysts used statistical procedures to produce global-scale estimates of OHC changes. Different infilling choices yielded different estimates of OHC variability. Because of the uncertainties introduced by infilling, we compared modeled and observed ocean temperature variability at the actual locations of observations. Our analysis used results from 13 different climate models and focused on volume-averaged temperatures in the upper 700 m of the ocean. Subsampling model data at the locations of observations amplifies the ocean temperature variability in all models and ocean basins.

A second relevant factor is whether the model simulations incorporate volcanic forcings. Even in spatially complete model data, simulated variability is enhanced by the inclusion of volcanic forcing. When we subsample 20c3m runs with combined anthropogenic and volcanic forcing, we find no evidence of a fundamental discrepancy between simulated and observed ocean temperature variability.

For all major ocean basins, there was good agreement between the simulated and observed sampling distributions of OHC changes on 2-, 5-, and 10-year time scales (see SI Figs. 6–8). These results enhance our confidence in the reliability of previously published detection and attribution studies. Model-based variability estimates are an integral component of such work (2, 4, 5).

A third factor that influences variability in observational data sets is related to the complex interplay between the documented biases in different types of instruments (24) and systematic space–time changes in their relative contributions to the overall observing system. A recent study by Lyman *et al.* (12) claimed that the 0- to 700-m layer of the global ocean experienced a heat content decrease of $3.2 \pm 1.1 \times 10^{22}$ J over 2003–2005 and that models cannot replicate changes of this magnitude. Our analysis shows that the cooling found by Lyman *et al.* is spurious. At least five lines of evidence support this conclusion.

First, the main contribution to the large global OHC decrease over 2003–2005 is from the Southern Ocean, where Argo coverage increased dramatically after 2003 (Fig. 5F). The massive influx of Argo data reduces preexisting warm biases from XBT measurements. Second, there were no unusually large OHC decreases in the Northern Hemisphere oceans over the same period (see SI Fig. 6). Third, global OHC decreases are substantially smaller in No Argo

versions of two observational data sets and are consistent with the magnitude of changes typically seen in model simulations (Fig. 3). Fourth, none of the individual instrument types show evidence of global- or hemispheric-scale cooling over the period analyzed by Lyman *et al.* (12). Finally, analyses of satellite data that are completely independent of *in situ* observations do not confirm such a decrease (26).

Our study does not directly address the accuracy of the Argo measurements. Within the next decade, Argo will vastly improve our knowledge of the oceans and their variability. However, some caution must be exercised in estimating global-scale OHC trends from an observing system that has undergone large and rapid increases in coverage and whose measurement biases have not been adequately quantified. As in the case of atmospheric reanalyses (27–29), there will be significant challenges in separating true ocean climate change from the effects of changes in the observing system itself. The large and time-varying inter-instrument biases discussed here, coupled with systematic changes in the spatial and temporal deployment of different instrument types, introduce significant uncertainty in estimates of the true variability of global ocean temperatures and heat content.

The authors of the original Lyman *et al.* paper (12) have now publicly acknowledged that their earlier finding of pronounced ocean cooling over 2003–2005 was spurious (30). Their unpublished analyses confirm that this “cooling” arose for reasons similar to those identified here.

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