

Increases in Future AR Count and Size: Overview of the ARTMIP Tier 2 CMIP5/6 Experiment

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Abstract

The Atmospheric River (AR) Tracking Method Intercomparison Project (ARTMIP) is a community effort to systematically assess how the uncertainties from AR detectors (ARDTs) and climate models impact our scientific understanding of ARs. This study describes the ARTMIP Tier 2 experimental design and initial results using the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP) Phases 5 and 6 multi-model ensembles. We show that AR statistics from a given ARDT in CMIP5/6 historical simulations compare remarkably well with reanalyses. In CMIP5/6 future simulations, most ARDTs project a global increase in AR frequency, counts, and sizes, especially along the western coastlines of the Pacific and Atlantic oceans. We find that the choice of ARDT is the dominant contributor to the uncertainty in projected AR frequency when compared with model choice.

These results imply that new projects investigating future changes in ARs should explicitly consider ARDT uncertainty as a core part of the experimental design.

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Key Points:

- Uncertainty associated with AR definition dominates model uncertainty for projections of Pacific and Atlantic landfalling ARs
- Most AR detection algorithms show an increase in AR frequency in future simulations
- AR statistics in CMIP 5-and-6 models compare remarkably well with reanalysis

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Abstract

The Atmospheric River (AR) Tracking Method Intercomparison Project (ARTMIP) is a community effort to systematically assess how the uncertainties from AR detectors (ARDTs) and climate models impact our scientific understanding of ARs. This study describes the ARTMIP Tier 2 experimental design and initial results using the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP) Phases 5 and 6 multi-model ensembles. We show that AR statistics from a given ARDT in CMIP5/6 historical simulations compare remarkably well with reanalyses. In CMIP5/6 future simulations, most ARDTs project a global increase in AR frequency, counts, and sizes, especially along the western coastlines of the Pacific and Atlantic oceans. We find that the choice of ARDT is the dominant contributor to the uncertainty in projected AR frequency when compared with model choice. These results imply that new projects investigating future changes in ARs should explicitly consider ARDT uncertainty as a core part of the experimental design.

Plain Language Summary

Atmospheric rivers (ARs) are a type of weather pattern known to be important for moving water from the warm, moist tropics to the cool, dry polar regions; when they reach midlatitudes in the winter time, they are commonly associated with heavy rainfall. Recent studies that assess the impacts of global climate change on ARs tend to agree that there will be more ARs in a warmer climate, and that ARs will tend to be more extreme. However, it has been increasingly recognized by the AR research community that these results may depend on the method used to identify ARs and the choice of climate model. This study reports results from a controlled experiment, involving an international research community, designed to show how different AR identification methods and climate models might impact our scientific understanding of ARs in the future. This experiment shows that there will likely be more ARs in the future, and that ARs will generally have a larger spatial footprint. This experiment also shows that uncertainty in these results are large, with the uncertainty from AR identification methods outweighing that of climate models. Future efforts to better understand the physics of ARs may help us reduce this uncertainty.

1 Introduction

Over the past 30 years, research on atmospheric rivers (ARs), filamentary bands of intense water vapor transport, has increasingly demonstrated their importance for the global hydrological cycle (Newell et al., 1992; Zhu & Newell, 1998; Ralph et al., 2017) and regional energy and water cycles (Newell & Zhu, 1994; Neiman, Ralph, Wick, Kuo, et al., 2008; Ralph et al., 2005; Dettinger et al., 2011; Gimeno et al., 2016; Gershunov et al., 2017; Shields, Rosenbloom, et al., 2019). ARs are a main source of precipitation and hydroclimatological impacts in the midlatitude western margins of North America (Neiman et al., 2002; Ralph et al., 2004, 2005; Neiman, Ralph, Wick, Kuo, et al., 2008; Leung & Qian, 2009; Guan et al., 2010; Warner et al., 2012; Neiman et al., 2013; Ralph et al., 2013; Rutz et al., 2014), South America (Viale & Nuñez, 2011; Gimeno et al., 2016), Europe (Stohl et al., 2008; Lavers et al., 2012; Lavers & Villarini, 2013; Ramos et al., 2015; Gimeno et al., 2016), and South Africa (Blamey et al., 2018; Ramos et al., 2019). AR impacts on surface heat and water mass balance in polar regions are increasingly evident (Newell & Zhu, 1994; Gorodetskaya et al., 2014; Wille et al., 2019). Increased understanding of ARs has led to improvements in flood forecasting (Lavers, Waliser, et al., 2016; Lavers, Pappenberger, et al., 2016) and in communication of flood-related risks when intense ARs are imminent (Ralph, Rutz, et al., 2019).

Numerous recent studies have analyzed ARs in future climate scenarios (e.g., Warner et al., 2015; Lavers et al., 2015; Gao et al., 2015a, 2016; Shields & Kiehl, 2016b, 2016a;

85 Polade et al., 2017; Espinoza et al., 2018; Gershunov et al., 2019; Rhoades et al., n.d.)
86 (see Payne et al. (2020) and references therein). Payne et al. (2020) reviews the related
87 studies over the past 10 years and shows that (1) studies generally agree that global in-
88 creases in atmospheric moisture will increase the intensity of ARs, and that (2) there is
89 wide uncertainty in the results conveyed in the literature: especially in areas outside the
90 well-studied U.S. west coast. Existing studies generally agree that the frequency and in-
91 tensity of ARs will increase, and some studies indicate poleward shifts of the AR tracks
92 (Sousa et al., 2020). Gershunov et al. (2019) show that intermodel differences in future
93 projections of precipitation are much lower when considering precipitation due to ARs
94 than those when considering changes in bulk precipitation. Given that precipitation is
95 produced by a variety of meteorological phenomena, and that there is no guarantee that
96 the relative proportions of precipitation from various phenomena are the same in mod-
97 els as they are in observations, Gershunov et al. (2019) highlight the importance in us-
98 ing a phenomenon-focused study of precipitation in future climate simulations.

99 Essentially all of the studies of ARs and future climate (and past climate, e.g., Lora
100 et al., 2017; Skinner et al., 2020) rely on objective, quantitative methods to discriminate
101 ARs from the background: AR detectors (ARDTs). At present, ARs have a qualitative
102 definition (Ralph et al., 2018), which leaves researchers with the task of implementing
103 a quantitative definition of ARs in specific ARDTs. ARDTs typically consist of a set of
104 heuristic rules (e.g., thresholds and filters) that focus on identifying anomalously high
105 moisture or moisture transport that occurs in contiguous, filamentary structures. The
106 design of ARDTs is guided by understanding gained through decades of observational
107 and model studies (Browning & Pardoe, 1973; McGuirk et al., 1987; Newell et al., 1992;
108 Zhu & Newell, 1998; Lackmann & Gyakum, 1999; Neiman et al., 2002; Ralph et al., 2004,
109 2005; Bao et al., 2006; Neiman, Ralph, Wick, Kuo, et al., 2008; Neiman, Ralph, Wick,
110 Lundquist, & Dettinger, 2008; Waliser et al., 2012). The number of ARDT algorithms
111 has grown with the number of ARDT studies over the past decade, with new ARDTs
112 often being developed for specialized purposes: e.g., ARDTs for understanding the global
113 hydrological cycle (Zhu & Newell, 1998; Guan & Waliser, 2015), observed hydromete-
114 orological extremes (Neiman, Ralph, Wick, Lundquist, & Dettinger, 2008; Rutz et al.,
115 2014), the cryosphere (Gorodetskaya et al., 2014), and regional hydroclimate variabil-
116 ity (Gershunov et al., 2017). Even though ARDTs are often initially designed with dif-
117 ferent purposes in mind, Payne et al. (2020) demonstrate that there is overlap in what
118 they are ultimately used to study. The community has recently started to recognize that
119 uncertainty associated with the numerical definition of ARs may have important impli-
120 cations for our understanding of ARs (Newman et al., 2012; Huning et al., 2017; Shields
121 et al., 2018; Guan et al., 2018; Rutz et al., 2019; Ralph, Wilson, et al., 2019; Shields, Rutz,
122 et al., 2019; Shields, Rosenbloom, et al., 2019; O’Brien, Payne, et al., 2020; O’Brien, Risser,
123 et al., 2020, Lora et al., In Review)

124 The Atmospheric River Tracking Method Intercomparison Project (ARTMIP) was
125 launched by members of the AR research community in order to systematically assess
126 the impact of this uncertainty on our scientific understanding (Shields et al., 2018). The
127 First ARTMIP Workshop (Shields, Rutz, et al., 2019) defined a multi-tier experimen-
128 tal design focusing on uncertainty in the observational record (Tier 1; Rutz et al., 2019),
129 and uncertainty in AR variability and change (Tier 2). Two Tier 2 experiments were launched
130 at the Second ARTMIP Workshop (Shields, Rutz, et al., 2019): the Tier 2 C20C+ ex-
131 periment and the Tier 2 CMIP5/6 experiment. Both experiments are designed to elu-
132 cidate the effect of uncertainty associated with ARDTs on our understanding of ARs,
133 with the former focusing on uncertainty in regional impacts in a single high-resolution
134 global model, and the latter focusing on the relative roles of model and ARDT-associated
135 uncertainty. This manuscript overviews the Tier 2 CMIP5/6 experiment.

2 Data and Methods

We use data from the ARTMIP Tier 1 experiment (Shields et al., 2018; Rutz et al., 2019), which provides atmospheric river detections from multiple ARDT algorithms. All Tier 1 ARDTs run on a common set of atmospheric fields (e.g., integrated vapor transport) derived from the Modern-Era Retrospective analysis for Research and Applications, Version 2 (MERRA-2; Gelaro et al., 2017). A subset of the Tier 1 algorithms have also been run on the Tier 2 input dataset described further on. The subset of algorithms run was determined by the subset of ARTMIP participants who volunteered to run their algorithms on the Tier 2 dataset; these algorithms include ARCONNECT_v2, Guan_Waliser_v2, IDL_re1_future, IDL_re1_hist, Lora_v2, Mundhenk_v3, PNNL_v1, and TECA_BARD_v1.0 (see Table S1).

For the Tier 2 input dataset for ARDTs, we derive integrated water vapor (IWV), and the components of the integrated vapor transport (IVT) vector from outputs from atmosphere-ocean general circulation models associated with the Coupled Model Inter-comparison Project (CMIP) 5 (Taylor et al., 2012) and 6 (Eyring et al., 2016; O’Neill et al., 2016) multi-model ensembles (hereafter referred to as CMIP5/6 when both ensembles are jointly discussed). We utilize model output from the historical simulations in both CMIP5 and CMIP6, and we utilize output from the representative concentration pathway 8.5 (RCP8.5, CMIP5) and shared socioeconomic pathways 5-8.5 experiments (SSP5-8.5, CMIP6). We utilize models that provided specific humidity q (hus) and wind \vec{u} (ua and va) at 6-hourly intervals on native model levels (the 6hrLev table); we further restrict the set of models to those which provide model output from the same ensemble member for both the historical and future (RCP8.5 and SSP5-8.5) simulations. At the time that the Tier 1 input dataset was constructed (in Summer 2019), we were able to access 6 models from CMIP5 (CCSM4, CSIRO-Mk3-6, CanESM2, IPSL-CM5A-LR, IPSL-CM5B-L, and NorESM1-M) and 3 models from CMIP6 (BCC-CSM2-MR, IPSL-CM6A-LR, MRI-ESM2-0; Xin et al., 2019; Yukimoto et al., 2019; Boucher et al., 2019) that satisfied these constraints (see Table S1) We focus on two 30-year time periods for assessing changes in ARs: 1981-2010 and 2070-2099. We calculate trends over the 1950-2099 period (some data are missing due to data availability and corruption issues, and years with these issues are not included in calculations; see Text S3). The models selected represent a range of horizontal resolutions (ranging from approximately 100 km to 300 km), and the RCP8.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios represent aggressive emission trajectories with large amounts of radiative forcing (nominally 8.5 W/m²) by end-of-century.

The mass-weighted vertical integrals of water vapor (ρq) and water vapor transport ($\rho \vec{u} q$) are calculated from the CMIP5/6 output as:

$$\text{IWV} = -\frac{1}{g} \sum_{k=1}^N q_k \Delta p_k \quad (1)$$

$$\overrightarrow{\text{IVT}} = -\frac{1}{g} \left\langle \sum_{k=1}^N u_k q_k \Delta p_k, \sum_{k=1}^N v_k q_k \Delta p_k \right\rangle, \quad (2)$$

where index k corresponds to model levels going from the surface ($k = 1$) to the top of the model atmosphere ($k = N$), and Δp_k is the difference in level pressures, estimated at level k . The total vapor transport is calculated as the vector magnitude: $\text{IVT} = \left| \overrightarrow{\text{IVT}} \right|$.

These ARDTs consist of a mixture of algorithms that detect ARs globally (global algorithms) and algorithms designed for specific regions (regional algorithms); see Table S1. We focus most of the analysis in this manuscript on the location of the AR tracks, changes in these tracks, and uncertainty therein. We therefore focus the bulk of the discussion on the global subset of algorithms; the full set of algorithms is discussed in Section 3.3 when comparing the relative magnitudes of uncertainty related to ARDT design and model choice.

2.1 Tier 2 CMIP5/6 Experiment Overview

All Tier 2 CMIP5/6 ARDT contributions use the common dataset of IWV, IVT, and \overline{IVT} described in Section 2, which come from 9 models in the CMIP5 and CMIP6 multi-model ensembles. ARDT outputs are regridded to a common $4^\circ \times 5^\circ$ analysis grid. We assess the CMIP5/6 models by comparing December-January-February (DJF) spatial patterns of AR frequency between the Tier 1 and Tier 2 experiments, for each detection scheme independently: focusing on spatial pattern correlation and spatial variability. Given the 6-hourly frequency of the dataset, we report frequency as ‘equivalent’ AR days, which we define as 0.25 times the total number of timesteps with AR conditions. We provide details about Tier 2-specific modifications to ARDTs in Text S1 and details about missing data in Text S3.

Grouping algorithms by the type of criteria applied (relative versus absolute thresholds) and degree of restrictiveness (magnitude of thresholds employed, number of criteria involved) can reduce the spread associated with ARDTs (Rutz et al., 2019; Ralph, Wilson, et al., 2019). Here, we group ARDTs into three categories, based on their treatment of thresholds: *absolute* (ARCONNECT_v2, PNNL_v1, and Lora_v2), *fixed relative* (Guan_Waliser_v2, IDL_rel_future, IDL_rel_hist, and Mundhenk_v3), and *relative* (Tempest and TECA_BARD_v1.0). The categorizations are described and justified in Text S2. A key motivation for this categorization is aggregating ARDTs by their sensitivity to thermodynamic changes in IVT, with the assumption that ARDTs employing absolute thresholds to moisture fields will be the most sensitive, and ARDTs employing time-dependent thresholds will be least sensitive.

3 Results

3.1 Evaluation of Historical Simulations

We show maps of DJF average AR frequency from the Tier 1 (MERRA-2) experiments for the 6 global ARDT algorithms in the top row of Figure 1. The ARDTs show broad consistency in the spatial patterns of DJF ARs. All ARDTs identify well-known AR tracks, with distinct maxima in the Pacific and the Atlantic, and with a circumglobal maximum in the Southern Ocean. The ARDTs also identify significant areas with little or no AR activity: the tropics, northeastern Asia, Africa, and the subtropical eastern Pacific (near the cold tongue region). The ARDTs differ significantly in the relative frequency of AR conditions. Some of the ARDTs identify AR conditions occurring upwards of 30 days per season (approximately one third of the time) in the main AR tracks, and other ARDTs identify AR conditions occurring fewer than 10 days per season. These results are consistent with previous ARDT comparisons, indicating a wide range of restrictiveness across ARDTs (Ralph, Wilson, et al., 2019; Rutz et al., 2019). The algorithms also differ in the degree to which the AR tracks penetrate inland, with the Guan_Waliser_v2 algorithm commonly identifying ARs in continental interiors, and TECA_BARD_v1.0 rarely identifying ARs in continental interiors. The average frequency of ARs (the top-right panel in Figure 1) exhibits a similar spatial pattern to the various ARDTs, with ARs occurring approximately 10 days per season in the core AR track.

Simulated ARs in the Tier 2 CMIP5/6 experiment are remarkably consistent with those in the Tier 1 MERRA-2 experiment. Results from an arbitrary model-MRI-ESM-2-0 from the CMIP6 multimodel ensemble—are shown in the second row of Figure 1, and a similar plot showing results from all possible model-ARDT pairs is shown in Figure S1. The placement of the AR tracks (and opposing gaps in ARs) are very similar when comparing spatial maps for a given ARDT. The algorithm-mean AR frequencies (last column) show very little difference between Tier 1 and 2; this is true for all models analyzed (see Figure S1).

Each ARDT has idiosyncratic spatial patterns that are expressed in both Tier 1 and Tier 2. This suggests that the spatial pattern maps are an emergent property of each ARDT, and that these spatial patterns are relatively insensitive to significant changes in the representation of the underlying atmospheric dynamics. For example, the diffuse spatial pattern associated with the `Guan_Waliser_v2` (GW) algorithm is evident in Tier 1 and in all Tier 2 simulations (Figures S1 and S2), and the multi-model mean for the GW algorithm exhibits a similar spatial pattern. This suggests that there is much more variability in AR frequency across ARDT algorithms than there is across simulations; we quantify this in Section 3.3.

Figure 2a quantitatively shows that simulations compare well with observations when compared within a single ARDT. Spatial correlation coefficients between the DJF AR frequency maps in individual Tier 2 simulations and the corresponding Tier 1 map are consistently around $r \approx 0.95$, and the ratio of spatial standard deviations of DJF AR frequency (Tier 2 divided by Tier 1) is close to 1 for many ARDT-model pairs. The Taylor skill scores (Taylor, 2001) are above 0.95 for most ARDT-model pairs. Variability exists, with some ARDT-model pairs reaching as high as $r \approx 0.97$ and only 5 ARDT-model pairs with correlation coefficients between 0.8 and 0.9 (and skill scores below 0.85); likewise, one combination (`ARCONNECT_v2` and CMIP5 IPSL-CM5A-LR) has variability that is too low by approximately 25%, and one combination (`Tempest` and CMIP5 IPSL-CM5B-LR) has variability that is about 50% too high. Overall, this emphasizes the high degree of similarity between simulated ARs and ARs in MERRA-2, when comparing results using a single ARDT.

Altogether, the various ARDTs portray a similar assessment of model skill, with essentially all of the models analyzed appearing to be ‘fit for purpose’. This is true even for the lowest resolution simulations (e.g., CMIP5 CanESM2 with a nominal 310 km horizontal resolution in the tropics; see Table S1), which have some of the highest correlation coefficients. A survey of the literature (Gao et al., 2015b; Hagos et al., 2015; Shields & Kiehl, 2016b; Guan & Waliser, 2017; Payne et al., 2020; Rhoades et al., 2020) indicates a mix of possible resolution effects, with some indication that the effect of resolution may depend on the experimental setup (e.g., coupled vs uncoupled; Guan & Waliser, 2017). We hypothesize that resolution effects may depend on the ARDT used; these effects could be studied more systematically by applying multiple ARDTs to the CMIP6 HighResMIP experiment (Haarsma et al., 2016). The ARTMIP community has discussed the possibility of coordinating a Tier 2 Resolution experiment (O’Brien, Payne, et al., 2020) to explore this more systematically.

Results associated with the `Tempest` algorithm are a somewhat notable exception: five of the models evaluated with `Tempest` have high spatial variability relative to MERRA-2, and relatively low spatial correlations. This may be related to some differences in the implementation of `Tempest` between the Tier 1 and Tier 2 experiments (see Text S1).

3.2 Projected Changes in AR Frequency, Count, and Size

When the ARDTs are applied to the various future simulations described in Section 2, they project a variety of trends in AR frequency relative to the historical counterparts evaluated in Section 3.1. Figure 1 (third row) shows that most ARDTs applied to the MRI-ESM2-0 simulation indicate increases in AR frequency in the main AR tracks. Within each algorithm, the trends from the MRI-ESM2-0 simulation are quantitatively and qualitatively similar to trends from other simulations (see Figure S3), as indicated by the similarity between the MRI-ESM2-0 trends and the multi-model trends shown in the bottom row of Figure 1. The average trend across all model-ARDT combinations (lower right panel of Figure 1) likewise indicates an increase in AR frequency in the mid-latitude storm tracks, with increases of ~ 5 AR days per century (an approximate 50%

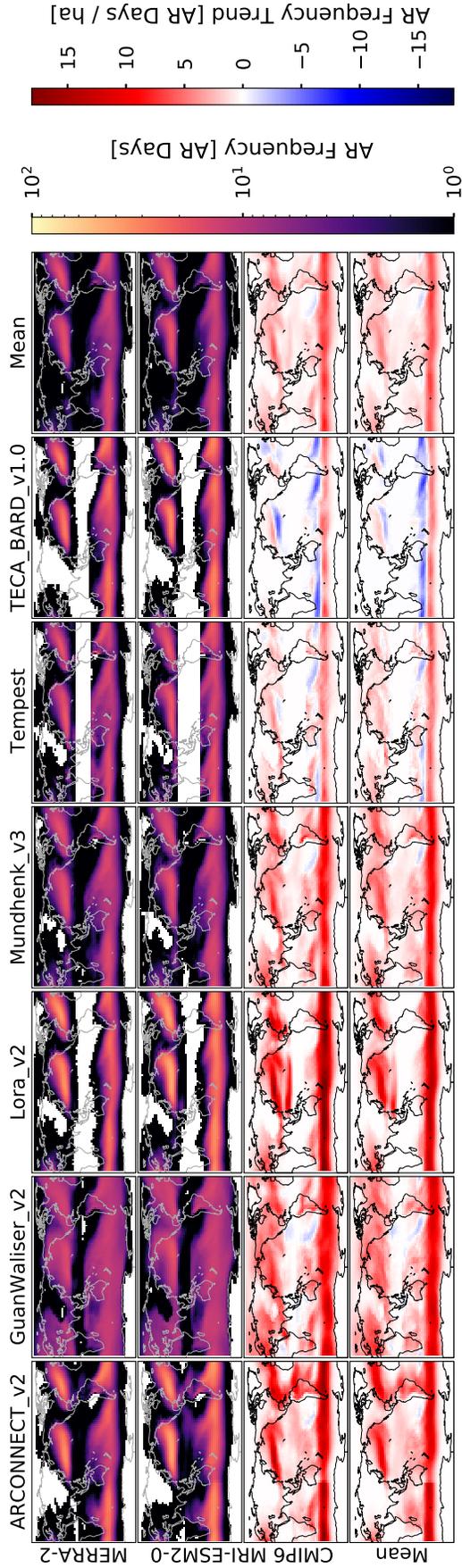


Figure 1. (first and second rows) Maps of AR frequency (shown as average number of days with AR conditions) in DJF for the 1981-2010 period. Each column corresponds to a global AR detection algorithm, and the last column represents the average across all AR detection algorithms. The top row corresponds to AR detections on the MERRA-2 dataset (the Tier 1 ARTMIP experiment) and the second row corresponds to AR detections on the CMIP6 MRI-ESM-2-1 simulation. White indicates areas where average AR occurrence is fewer than 1 day. (third and fourth rows) Maps of trends in DJF AR frequency in the MRI-ESM-2-1 simulation (third row) and all models (fourth row), organized by detection algorithm (columns).

281 increase). There are essentially no areas where the model-ARDT mean indicates a de-
 282 crease in AR frequency.

283 The climatological pattern of AR frequency is primarily controlled by changes in
 284 AR size, AR occurrence (count), and AR location. Two ARDTs (`TECA_BARD_v1.0` and
 285 to a lesser extent `Tempest`) suggest poleward shifts in AR location (Figure 1, bottom row,
 286 and Figure S3), whereas `ARCONNECT_v2`, `GuanWaliser_v2`, `Lora_v2`, and `Mundhenk_v3`
 287 indicate quasi-global increases in AR frequency. We discuss why differences in the quan-
 288 titative definition of ARs may cause different behavior in future climate simulations and
 289 its implications in Section 4.

290 We decompose the changes in AR frequency by changes in AR area A and AR count
 291 N ; Figure 2b shows the median size of AR objects versus the median number of AR ob-
 292 jects counted at any given time. In the historical simulations, the ARDTs appear to clus-
 293 ter along a continuum, with ARDTs typically detecting 5–20 ARs, which is consistent
 294 with manual counts of ARs in synoptic maps (Zhu & Newell, 1998; O’Brien, Risser, et
 295 al., 2020). `Tempest` is a notable exception, with AR counts ranging from 20–50. In or-
 296 der to aid in interpreting the continuum along which the ARDTs lay in Figure 2b, we
 297 add lines of constant global area A_{\oplus} percentage (calculated as $100\% \cdot A \cdot N / A_{\oplus}$). These
 298 show that algorithms typically detect ARs such that approximately 5% of the Earth’s
 299 surface is covered in AR objects in the historical simulations. Therefore, we can inter-
 300 pret the relative location of ARDTs in Figure 2b as an indicator of the relative spatial
 301 coherence of AR objects: ARDTs on the left detect few, large AR objects and ARDTs
 302 on the right detect many small AR objects. This grouping along lines of constant global
 303 area fraction is an emergent collective behavior of the ARDTs, and we speculate that
 304 it is associated with the tuning process for each algorithm. AR coherence might make
 305 a useful measure for objective grouping of AR results in future ARTMIP studies.

306 Figure 2b shows that four of the ARDTs (except `Tempest` and `TECA_BARD_v1.0`)
 307 tend to detect more ARs and larger ARs in the future simulations. These changes re-
 308 sult in increases in the global area coverage of AR objects: changing from $\sim 5\%$ global
 309 area to $\sim 7\%$ global area. The global count of AR objects does not change in the `TECA_BARD_v1.0`
 310 algorithm, though there are slight increases in AR area in some simulations. In contrast,
 311 the `Tempest` algorithm indicates increases in global AR count, with very little change
 312 in AR area.

313 There is an indication that the resolution of the underlying model may affect the
 314 characteristics of detected ARs for some ARDTs. The CMIP6 BCC-CSM2-MR, CMIP6
 315 MRI-ESM2-0, and CMIP5 CCSM4 simulations—which are the three highest resolution
 316 simulations analyzed (Table S1)—tend to occur on the right side of each ARDT cluster:
 317 ARs in these simulations are systematically less coherent. However, the model resolu-
 318 tion does not appear to affect the climate change signal evident in Figure 2b. Further,
 319 the CMIP5/6 simulations analyzed here do not attempt to control for model resolution;
 320 the CMIP6 HighResMIP experiment (Haarsma et al., 2016) could provide a way to ex-
 321 amine resolution effects more systematically.

322 3.3 Sources of Uncertainty in End-of-Century Projections of ARs

323 The results in Figure 1 indicate that there may be substantial uncertainty in fu-
 324 ture AR frequency associated with choice of ARDT. Further, it is not clear from the spa-
 325 tial maps in Figure 1 whether the trends in AR frequency evident over the ocean (e.g.,
 326 the decrease in the southeastern Atlantic) extend to the coastal areas where AR pres-
 327 ence matters for western-coastal water cycles and hydrometeorological impacts. We quan-
 328 tify these changes and their uncertainty in Figure 2c,d, which show the mean trend in
 329 AR frequency for the Pacific (Figure 2c) and Atlantic west coasts (Figure 2d) from 1980-
 330 2099. Figure 2c,d shows trends for all ARDTs listed in Table S1: both regional and global
 331 ARDTs.

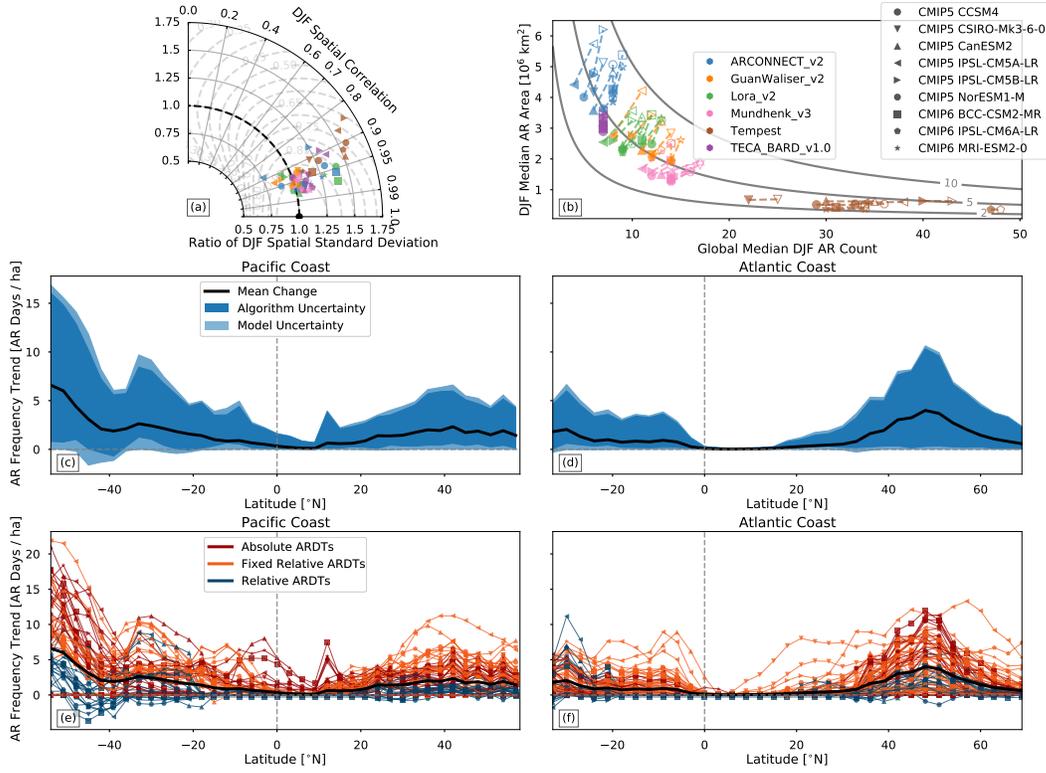


Figure 2. (a) A Taylor diagram comparing the spatial correlation (azimuthal axis) and spatial variability (radial axis) of DJF AR frequency between CMIP5 and 6 simulations (denoted by different symbols) and the MERRA-2 reanalysis. Colors indicate different AR detection algorithms (legend in panel b). Gray dashed lines show lines of constant skill score (Taylor, 2001). (b) Median AR area vs global median AR count for all available combinations of ARDTs (marker colors) and simulations (marker symbols). Filled symbols indicate calculations performed on the 1981-2010 period of each simulation, and open symbols indicate calculations on the 2070-2099 period (two exceptions noted in Text S3). Gray contours show lines of constant fractional areal coverage of ARs (shown as a percentage of Earth’s area), calculated as the product of AR area and AR count, divided by Earth’s area. (c and d) Trends in AR frequency (black curve) and associated total range of uncertainty (blue and light blue shading) for the west-facing (c) Pacific coastline and (d) Atlantic coastline. Dark blue shading indicates the portion of uncertainty associated with AR detection and the light blue shading indicates the portion of the spread associated with models (across both CMIP5 and CMIP6). The area of dark blue shading is proportional to $\sigma_A^2/\sigma_T^2 \cdot (\max - \min)$, where ‘max’ and ‘min’ are the minimum and maximum trend at each latitude. (e and f) as in (c and d), but showing individual ARDT-model combinations. Markers indicate simulations (legend in panel b) and colors indicate the ARDT classification.

Figure 2c,d shows that coastal areas in both the Pacific and Atlantic show increasing trends in AR frequency (+2–5 AR days per century in the midlatitudes), and the full spread of the blue and light blue shading in Figure 2c,d shows the full range of trends from all ARDTs and all models. There are two areas where TECA_BARD_v1.0 indicates weakly decreasing trends (Figure S4 shows the trends by model and by algorithm): southern Chile, near 40°S, and near the entrance of the Mediterranean Sea, at about 35°N. Otherwise all model-ARDT combinations indicate increasing trends in landfalling AR frequency for both Pacific and Atlantic ARs in both hemispheres.

Large uncertainty appears in the magnitude of the trends, which ranges from just below 0 days/ha to over 15 days/ha, depending on location. There are two main components of uncertainty in these trends: uncertainty associated with choice of model simulation, and uncertainty associated with choice of ARDT. We decompose the uncertainty as $\sigma_T^2 \approx \sigma_A^2 + \sigma_M^2$, where σ_T^2 is the total variance, σ_A^2 is the variance across ARDTs of each ARDT’s multi-model mean, and σ_M^2 is the variance across models for each model’s multi-ARDT mean. These variances can equivalently be viewed as the variance down the rightmost column in Figure S3 (σ_M^2) and the variance across the bottommost row in Figure S3 (σ_A^2), (excluding the multi-model/multi-ARDT mean in the bottom right corner of Figure S3 and excluding trends from MERRA-2).

This decomposition shows that uncertainty associated with choice of ARDT accounts for most of the spread in the climate change signal across all latitudes in both the Pacific and Atlantic coasts. In essence, uncertainty associated with the numerical definition of ARs dominates the combined uncertainty associated with choice of model and choice of model epoch (CMIP5 vs CMIP6).

4 Discussion and Conclusions

The ARTMIP Tier 2 experiments show that most ARDTs project an increase in AR frequency, with mean trends of approximately +2-5 AR days per century along the coastlines of North America, South America, Southern Africa, and Europe (Figure 2c,d). However, there is considerable spread in the magnitude, with some ARDT-model combinations indicating negative trends (southern Chile and southern Spain) and other ARDT-model combinations indicating trends of up to ~15 AR days per century. Given that we have no *a priori* reason to prefer one ARDT over another, we therefore cannot rule out the possibility that there will be decreases or no changes in AR frequency in a future climate.

Globally, all ARDTs indicate either an increase in the total number of ARs, an increase in the areal extent of ARs, or both (Figure 2b). In the historical simulations, the AR area vs size relationship for all ARDTs approximately falls along a line of constant global coverage, with ARDTs in the historical simulations detecting ARs that cover approximately 5% of the global area. This number is somewhat smaller than the 10% figure indicated by Zhu and Newell (1998), which is likely because we are considering the total global coverage, including the tropics, rather than the fraction of zonal circumference in the midlatitudes. But it is qualitatively consistent in the sense that areas of anomalously high moisture transport occupy a small fraction of the global area. The global areal coverage increases in the future simulations to some degree in all ARDT algorithms, with most indicating a several percent increase in the areal extent of ARs due to increases in both AR size and count.

These results further show that future changes in AR frequency can qualitatively differ depending on the type of ARDT used. We aggregate trends by AR classification (see Sections 2 and Text S2) in Figures 2e,f. This aggregation shows that use of any absolute thresholds (*absolute ARDTs*) and time-independent relative thresholds (*fixed relative ARDTs*) tend to produce increases in AR frequency, whereas use of time-dependent

382 relative thresholds (*relative ARDTs*) tend to produce patterns more indicative of a pole-
 383 ward shift. *Absolute ARDTs* and *fixed relative ARDTs*, with thresholds that do not change
 384 in time, would be expected to increase the frequency of exceedence of regions above the
 385 historical thresholds: more detected AR days in a warmer climate. Such ARDTs are de-
 386 signed to detected increases in occurrence of regions with high IVT, which are impor-
 387 tant for AR impacts. In contrast, *relative ARDTs* (e.g., `TECA_BARD_v1.0`) are designed
 388 to only account for dynamical changes in ARs.

389 The literature documents two major modes of AR change associated with climate
 390 change: (1) a quasi-global increase in IVT associated with Clausius-Clapeyron scaling
 391 (thermodynamic; Payne et al., 2020), and (2) a poleward shift in ARs (dynamic; Payne
 392 et al., 2020) associated with the poleward shift in the midlatitude storm tracks (Chang
 393 et al., 2012). Poleward shift patterns appear to co-exist to some extent with quasi-global
 394 increases in AR frequency in some simulations (e.g., the CMIP5 CSIRO-MK3-6-0 simu-
 395 lation; see Figure S3) for all ARDTs. We argue that *absolute ARDTs* and *fixed rela-*
 396 *tive ARDTs* are more sensitive to thermodynamic changes than *relative ARDTs*. It is
 397 worth noting here that trend patterns in the MERRA-2 reanalysis are remarkably simi-
 398 lar across ARDTs (Figure S3), with all ARDTs indicating a poleward shift in ARs. This
 399 might suggest that the observed poleward shift in the storm tracks (Fyfe, 2003) dom-
 400 inates over quasi-global increases in IVT in the historical record. This should be inves-
 401 tigated further as part of the Tier 2 Reanalysis experiment.

402 The algorithm-wise validation of simulated ARs (Figure 2a) shows that models repli-
 403 cate AR statistics from reanalysis remarkably well. This is a noteworthy result in the
 404 context of the ARDT uncertainty shown here. If only one algorithm is used in a study,
 405 such validation could give false confidence in the robustness of results. It therefore seems
 406 important to explicitly include ARDT uncertainty as part of evaluation of a model’s abil-
 407 ity to represent ARs, which, relatedly, points to the utility of appropriate ensemble weight-
 408 ing strategies to help reduce such uncertainty (e.g., Massoud et al., 2019). It also high-
 409 lights the value of AR-related, but not ARDT-dependent, evaluations of models (e.g.,
 410 Payne & Magnusdottir, 2015).

411 Recent work involving manual identification of ARs by experts (Prabhat et al., 2020;
 412 O’Brien, Risser, et al., 2020) suggests that the spread in AR algorithm behavior may be
 413 linked to differences in opinion about what does and does not constitute an AR. O’Brien,
 414 Risser, et al. (2020) show that this spread in subjective opinion projects directly on to
 415 quantitative differences in the sign of the correlation coefficient between an El Niño in-
 416 dex and global AR count. Such differences in subjective opinion likely also play a role
 417 in the design of the quantitative choices made by various ARDT designers.

418 Somewhat relatedly, the ARTMIP project has established that different AR detec-
 419 tors are designed with different—and equally legitimate—purposes (Shields et al., 2018;
 420 Rutz et al., 2019; Ralph, Wilson, et al., 2019). Some ARDTs intentionally choose to dis-
 421 criminate ARs from the background based on absolute thresholds in IVT (e.g., Rutz et
 422 al., 2014), since it is well-established that coastal orographic precipitation is directly linked
 423 to IVT magnitude (Neiman et al., 2002; Ralph et al., 2004, 2005; Neiman, Ralph, Wick,
 424 Kuo, et al., 2008; Ralph, Rutz, et al., 2019); such a design choice makes it easy to re-
 425 late ARDT results directly to hydrometeorological impacts. Other algorithms (e.g., Shields
 426 & Kiehl, 2016b; O’Brien, Risser, et al., 2020) intentionally use relative thresholds in or-
 427 der to avoid increases in AR detection due to long-term increases in atmospheric water
 428 vapor. Both are valid for the purposes for which they were designed: absolute methods
 429 detect areas that will likely lead to hydrometeorological impacts—which will increase in
 430 a warmer climate—and relative methods seek to focus on the core of regions associated
 431 with anomalous vapor transport.

432 These results suggest that new projects investigating future changes in the statis-
 433 tics and characteristics of ARs should explicitly consider ARDT uncertainty as a core

part of the experimental design. This study makes it clear that ARDT design choices can have a major impact on the results of climate change studies. The Bayesian, multi-ARDT approach of O'Brien, Risser, et al. (2020) can quantify parametric uncertainty associated with a single ARDT, but it is not yet clear how parametric uncertainty compares to structural uncertainty (i.e., choices in what heuristic rules to employ in the ARDT). There are at least four ARDT codes that are now in the public domain (`Mundhenk_v1`, `Guan_Waliser_v2`, `Tempest`, and `TECA_BARD_v1.0`), and we encourage current and future ARDT designers to likewise enter their codes into the public domain in order to facilitate such uncertainty exploration in future studies.

Ralph et al. (2018) provide a concise, qualitative definition of ARs, and this has been a major benefit to the AR research community. They intentionally chose to “leave specifications of how the boundaries of an AR are to be quantified open for future and specialized developments.” The results in this manuscript demonstrate that the choice of how to define AR boundaries—the fundamental job of an ARDT—have a demonstrably large control on the statistics of ARs detected in future climate simulations. These results suggest that the AR research community would further benefit from studies that aim to quantitatively constrain the definition of ARs; e.g., with first-principles analyses that constrain AR properties like size, count, etc. Such constraints could help reduce uncertainty associated with ARDT design choice (and parameter choice), and by extension they could constrain results concerning ARs and future climate change. That said, given that different experiments motivate different ARDT design choices (e.g., absolute vs relative thresholds), it seems unavoidable that some of this uncertainty is irreducible. It is clear, however, that it is imperative for studies to explore and understand the implications of this uncertainty.

This study focuses on a bulk, global perspective of uncertainty associated with ARDTs and simulations in the Tier 2 CMIP5/6 experiment. There are many other types of more detailed analyses that others could take on, and we encourage others in the research community to utilize this dataset for research on future ARs and climate change (see data availability statement in Acknowledgements). In particular, it seems valuable to revisit past studies of ARs and future climate change in the context of ARDT uncertainty. Payne et al. (2020) review the numerous results concerning the future of ARs that have appeared in the literature in the last decade. There are almost as many ARDTs as there are such results, which makes intercomparison of the results challenging. The Tier 2 CMIP5/6 dataset provides a way to revisit many—if not all—of these previous results within a uniform experimental framework.

In summary, this initial analysis of the Tier 2 CMIP5/6 experiment shows that most ARDTs and simulations indicate an increasing trend in AR frequency, size, and number in future simulations with strong radiative forcing. It also shows the critical importance of understanding the implications of this uncertainty for AR-related research.

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1 **Supporting Information for “Increases in Future AR**
2 **Count and Size: Overview of the ARTMIP Tier 2**
3 **CMIP5/6 Experiment”**

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21 **Contents of this file**

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25 **Introduction**

26 This supplemental information provides additional useful details on ARDTs, their
27 treatment of thresholds, and our grouping of ARDTs into categories. The supplemental
28 figures expand on figures in the main text to show all ARDT-simulation combinations.

29 **Text S1.**

30 **Treatment of Thresholds**

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38 kg/m/s at the poles; the time/latitude dependence of the threshold is a function of the
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- 41 • `Mundhenk_v3`: calculates the mean and seasonal cycle of IVT based on the historical
42 simulation and removes this to determine the IVT anomaly relative to the historical period

- 43 • `PNNL_v1`: only uses absolute threshold; no Tier 2-specific decisions needed
- 44 • `TECA_BARD_v1.0`: uses threshold relative to spatial map of IVT at a given time; no
45 Tier 2-specific decisions needed

46 The `Mundhenk_v3` algorithm differs from prior published versions (i.e., `Mundhenk_v1`,
47 `Mundhenk_v2`) in its more reliable detection of AR objects that cross the boundary of the
48 dataset's spatial domain.

49 The `Tempest` ARDT uses an absolute threshold for the laplacian of IVT. The Tier
50 1 version also utilized an absolute threshold of 250 kg/m/s of IVT, but it was later
51 determined that this threshold had no effect on the ARDT results because regions that
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for ARs was raised to 20°, from 15°, to filter easterly waves. The stencil radius and magnitude used for the Laplacian depends on the model grid, and this is held constant for the historical and future simulations.

Discussions with the `Tempest` contributing scientists indicate that the algorithm may benefit from further tuning of their method when applied to moderately low resolution data, and efforts are underway to provide a second version of their contribution to Tier 2. Such discoveries and improvements are a benefit of intercomparison projects.

Text S2.

Classification of ARDTs

Building on Rutz et al. (2019), we classify the Tier 2 CMIP5/6 ARDTs into three groups, based on their treatment of thresholds: *absolute*, *fixed relative*, and *relative*. These classifications are indicated as *abs.*, *fix. rel.*, and *rel.* in Table S1. A key motivation for this categorization is aggregating ARDTs by their sensitivity to thermodynamic changes in IVT, with the assumption that ARDTs employing absolute thresholds to moisture fields will be the most sensitive, and ARDTs employing time-dependent thresholds will be least sensitive.

Absolute ARDTs: We define *absolute ARDTs* as utilizing any fixed thresholds (e.g., in IVT) for discriminating ARs from the background. `ARCONNECT_v2` and `PNNL_v1` unambiguously fit in this category. `Lora_v2` uses an IVT threshold that varies with latitude and time, and the threshold asymptotes to 250 kg/m/s at mid-to-high latitudes (the threshold increases toward infinity approaching the tropics). This design effectively imposes an

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75 *absolute ARDT*, while recognizing that this is not a perfect categorization.

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81 and `IDL_rel_future` ARDTs use a similar approach and are therefore also categorized
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83 period and identifies ARs that are above the 94th percentile of the historical simulation,
84 so it also fits unambiguously in the *fixed relative* category.

85 **Relative:** We define *relative ARDTs* as those that employ relative thresholds that
86 vary with time. `TECA_BARD_v1.0` unambiguously fits into this category, since ARs are
87 identified where IVT is above a fixed percentile of IVT, where the percentile is calculated
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89 threshold applied to the Laplacian of the IVT field, which might warrant its classification
90 as an absolute ARDT. However, the use of the Laplacian removes the mean of the IVT
91 field; therefore `Tempest` identifies areas of IVT that are high relative to nearby areas of
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93 **Text S3.**

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95 combined historical and future simulations for each CMIP5/6 model. We analyze output

96 from the entire 1950-2099 timeperiod. There are some exceptions to this: output from the
97 CMIP6 IPSL-CM6A-LR SSP5-8.5 simulation are only available through 2049, there are
98 data corruption issues for the year 2006 in the CMIP5 CSIRO-Mk3-6-0 simulation, and
99 there are data corruption issues for the year 2095-2099 for the TECA_BARD_v1.0 output
100 applied to the CMIP5 IPSL-CM5B-LR simulation. Years with data corruption issues
101 are marked as missing, and trends and climatologies are only calculated considering non-
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Tempest	McClenny	rel.	Global	CMIP6	IPSL-CM6A-LR	IPSL	198
TECA_BARD_v1.0	O'Brien	rel.	Global	CMIP6	MRI-ESM2-0	MRI	124

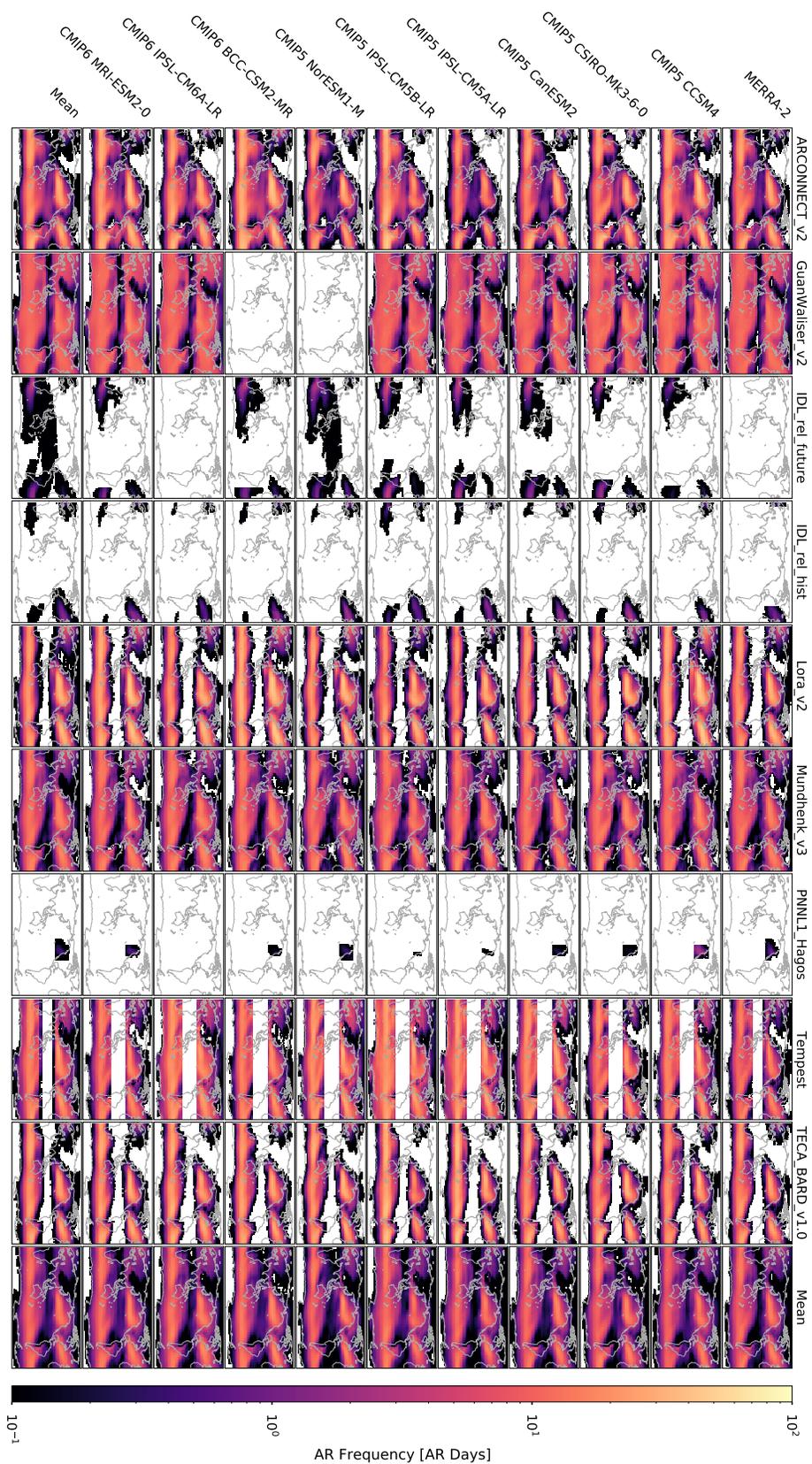


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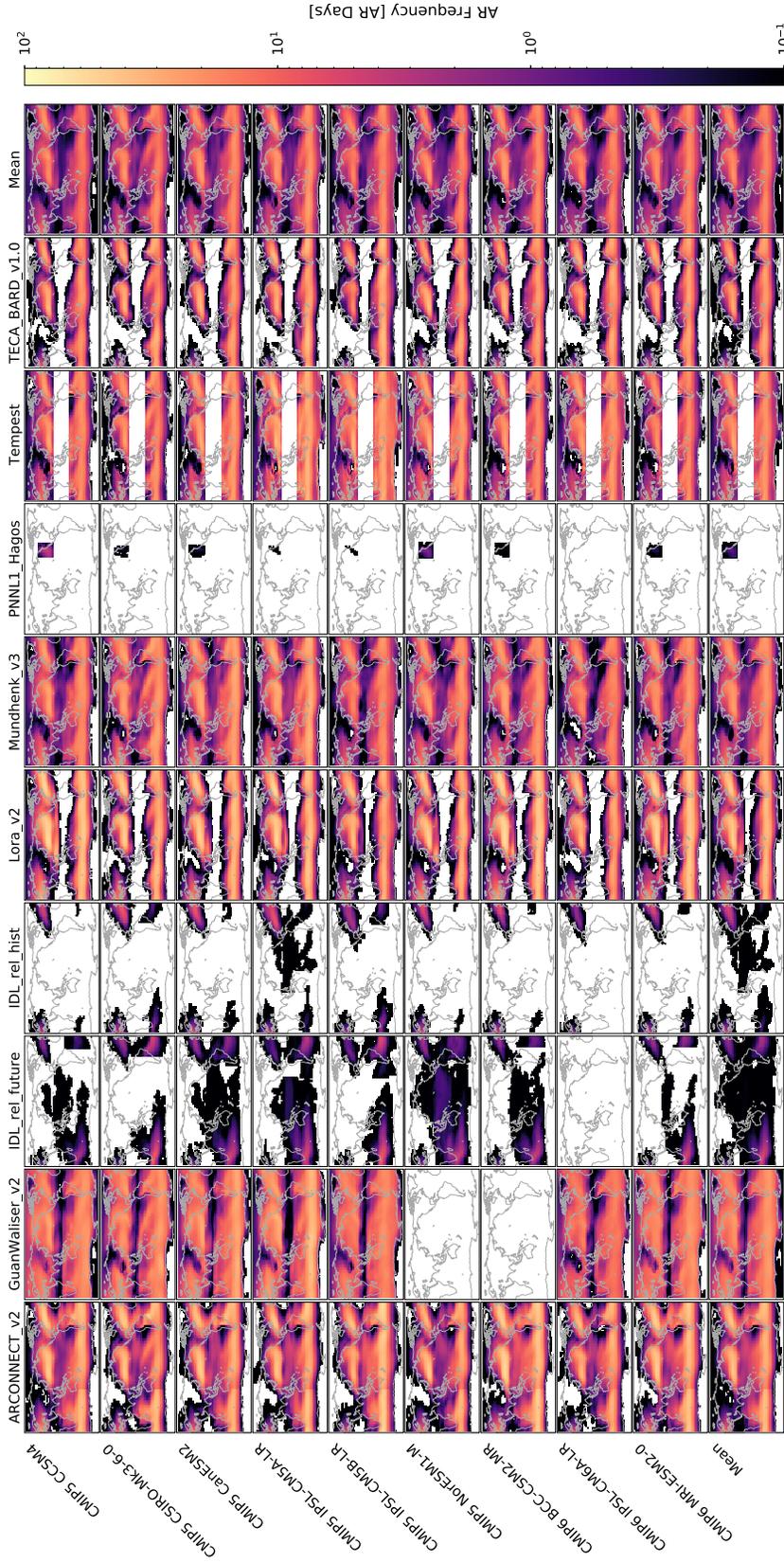


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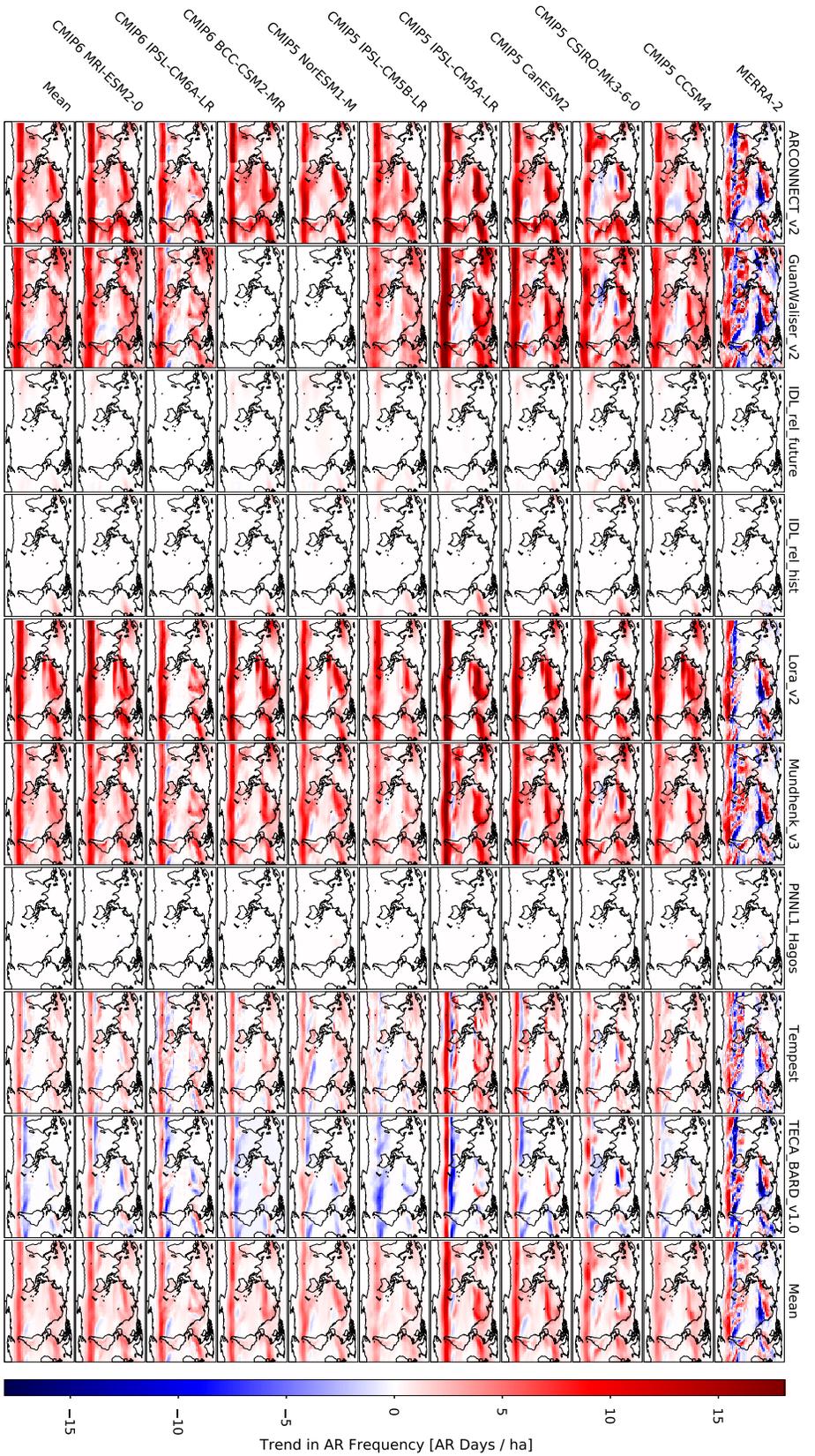


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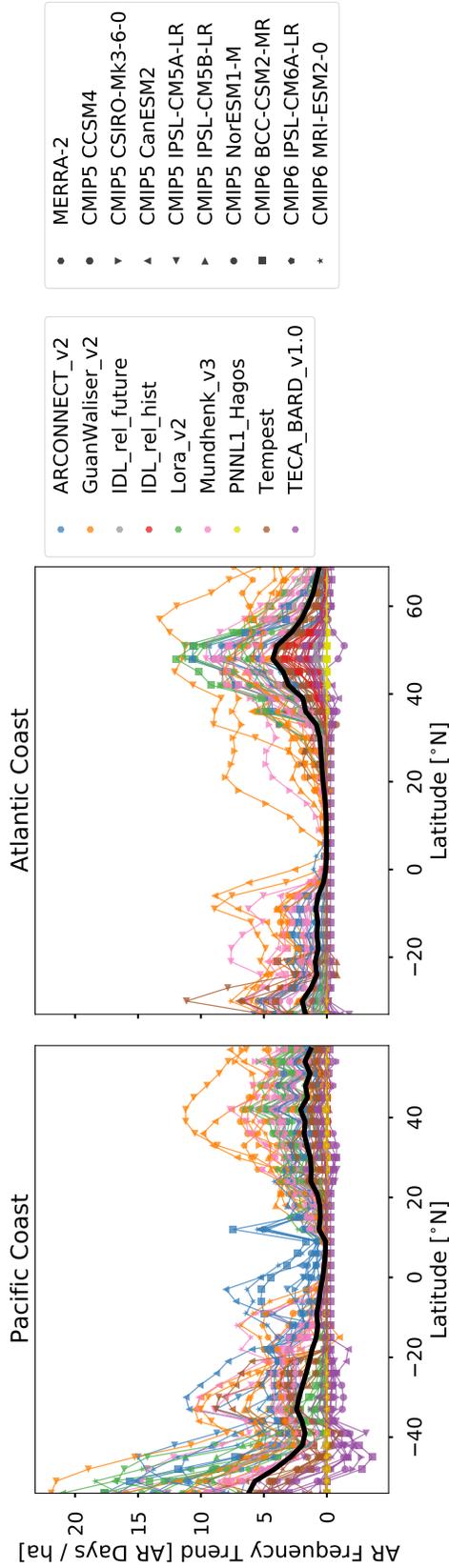


Figure S4. Trends in DJF AR frequency (AR days /ha) from 1981-2100 for western coastlines along the (a) Pacific and

(b) Atlantic oceans. Colors correspond to ARDTs and markers correspond to simulations.

1 **Supporting Information for “Increases in Future AR**
2 **Count and Size: Overview of the ARTMIP Tier 2**
3 **CMIP5/6 Experiment”**

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A. M. Ramos¹⁵ and R. Tomé¹⁵ and C. Sarangi⁷ and E. Shearer¹⁶ and
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20 ¹⁶Center for Hydrometeorology and Remote Sensing, University of California, Irvine, Irvine, CA, USA

21 **Contents of this file**

22 1. Text S1 to S4

23 2. Figures S1 to S3

24 3. Table S1

25 **Introduction**

26 This supplemental information provides additional useful details on ARDTs, their
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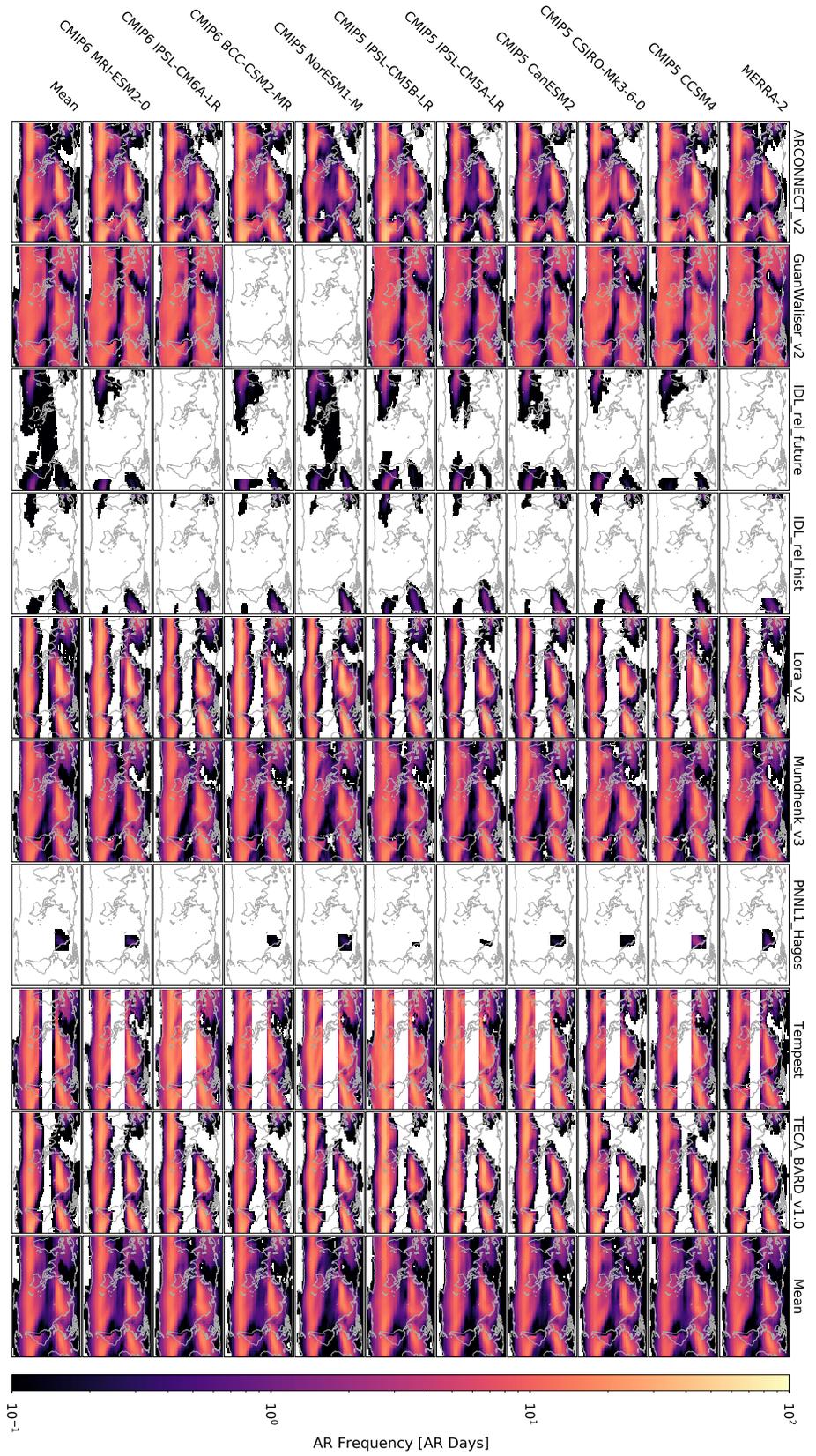


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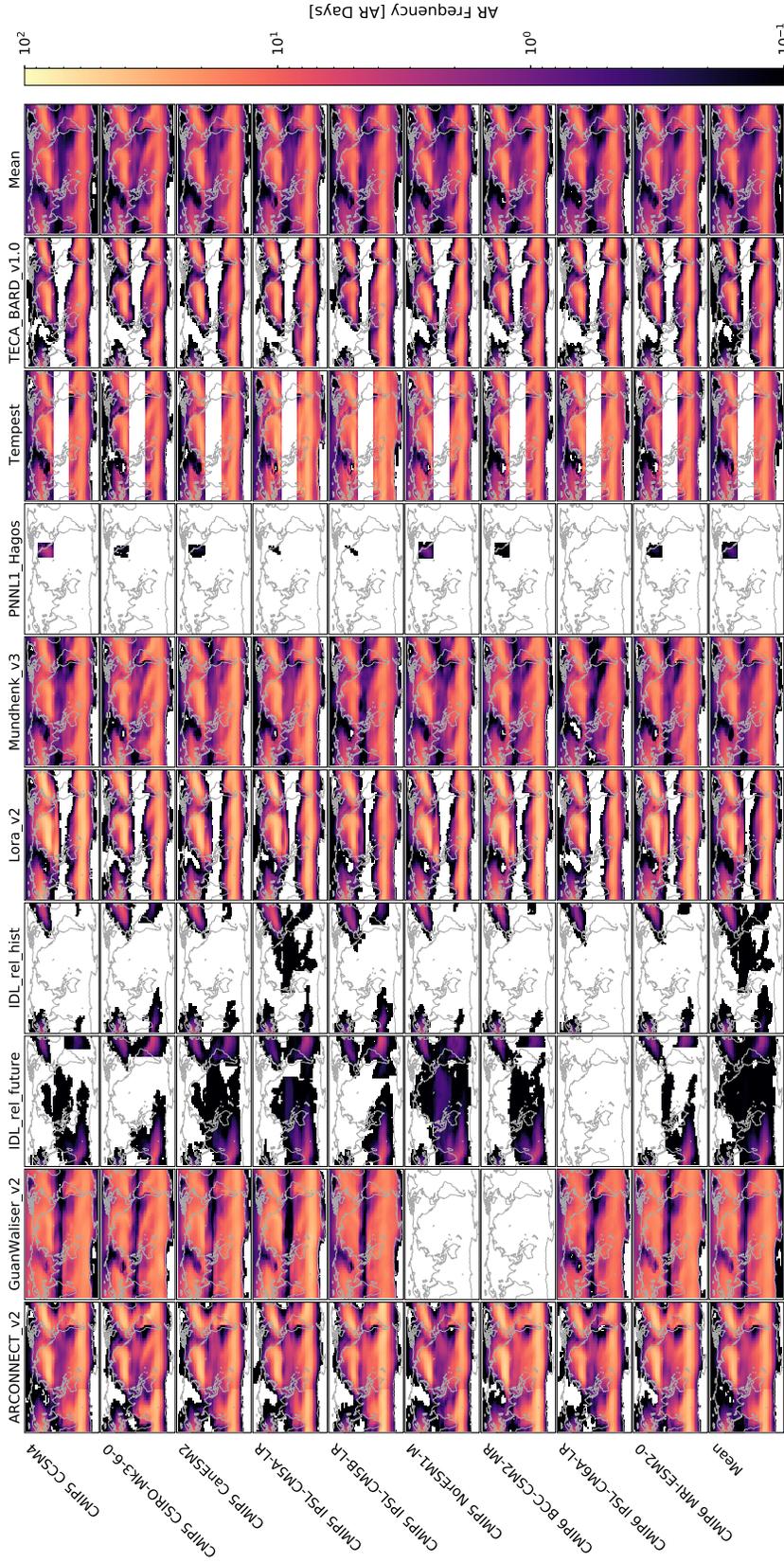


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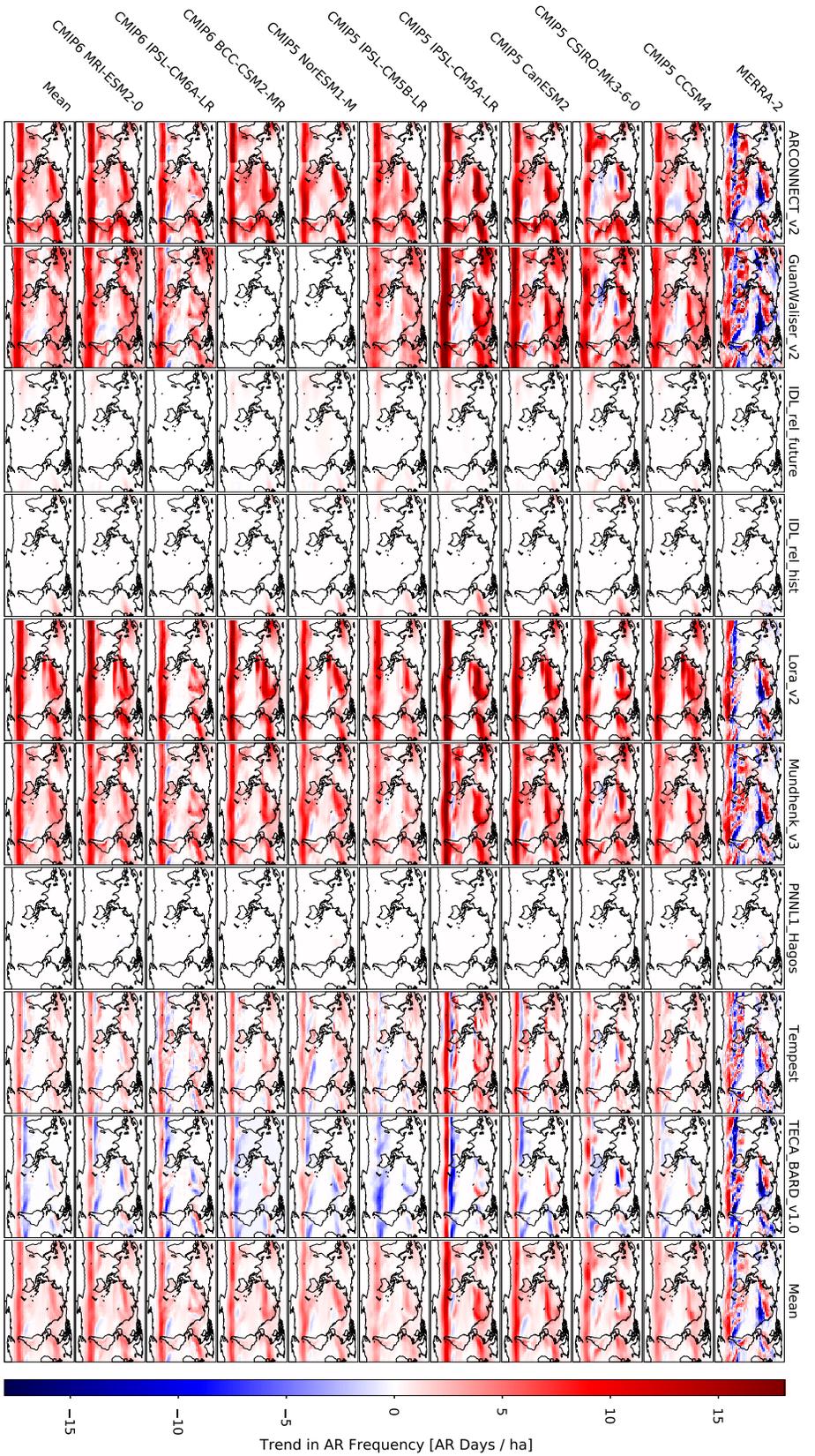


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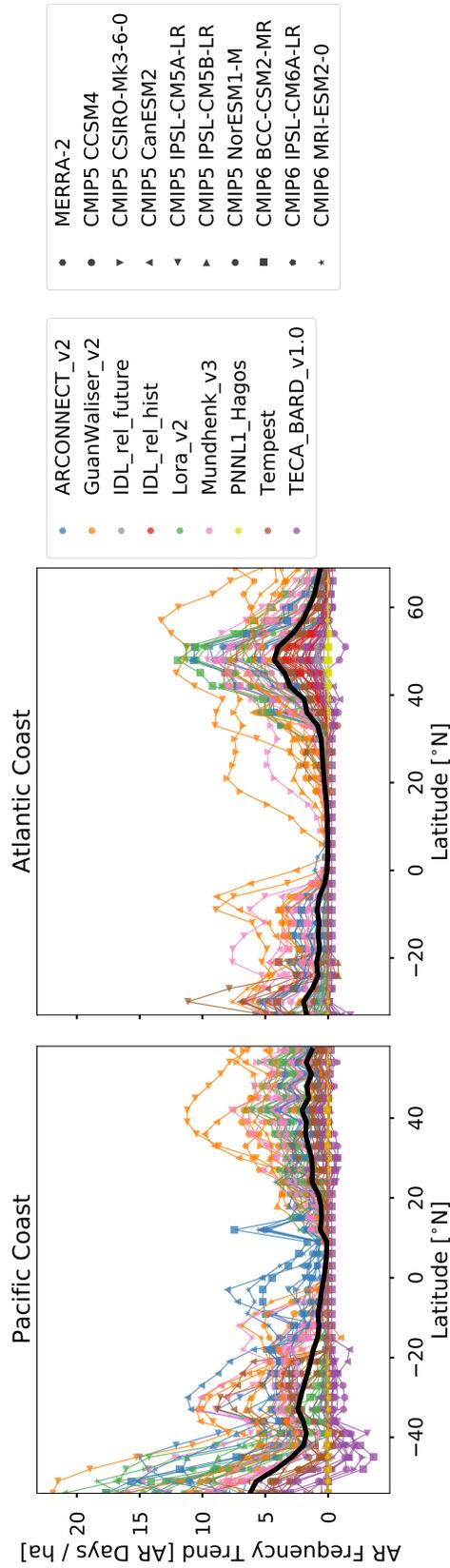


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