

## Response to Critique of NIPCC by Lowe, Barrett and Carter (LBC) - By S. Fred Singer

### GENERAL COMMENTS:

We have divided the LBC critique into **Sections** (labeled with **LETTERS** and printed in Times Roman) and discuss them separately (**with SINGER responses printed in Red; responses from others are shown in Blue**). Some of the discussion is backed up by detailed essays, assembled into an **Appendix**.

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### SUMMARY:

The NIPCC report [Singer et al 2008] constitutes a critique of the latest IPCC report [2007]. NIPCC's key conclusion is "Nature, Not Human Activity, Rules the Climate" We demonstrate that the 'evidence' cited by IPCC does not support its conclusion that recent warming is anthropogenic. On the contrary, we show that the observed pattern of warming disagrees with the characteristic pattern calculated by greenhouse models: The 'fingerprints' don't match. Hence, CO2 has only a minor contribution to any warming. CO2 is not a pollutant. CO2 control is pointless, ineffective, and very costly.

If current climate changes are naturally caused, then they are essentially unstoppable. All the rest is merely commentary.

The LBC review covers Sections 2 to 8 of the NIPCC report but pays most attention to these less important issues to which we here respond. We mostly disagree with LBC, except on some minor points.

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### SECTION A: HOW MUCH OF GLOBAL WARMING IN ANTHROPOGENIC

**LBC:** The introduction to this section claims that IPCC (2007) provides "scant supporting evidence, none of which stands up to closer examination". However the claim is simply asserted and not supported with evidence or logical argument. The IPCC WG1 documents clearly explain at several levels of technicality (Summary for Policymakers, Technical Summary, Full report) current understanding of forcing factors, both natural and human-induced, in climate change (solar radiation, greenhouse gases including water vapour, aerosols and particulates, surface albedo, etc) and openly indicate remaining areas of uncertainty.

**SINGER:** Simply listing the forcings does NOT support the conclusion that GW is anthropogenic. In any case, IPCC totally ignores the overwhelming natural forcing from solar activity – NIPCC Fig 14.

#### **"Evidence of warming is not evidence that the cause is anthropogenic."**

This opening statement is quite correct. It is also important to note that Singer et al. (2008) recognise that warming is taking place. Furthermore such warming is considered by the authors to be "significant" if it is to melt ice. Such melting is well shown by widespread glacial retreats, ice shelf collapse and mass loss from major ice sheets (IPCC, 2007 and reference therein; Rignot et al., 2007 amongst others).

However, the statement that glacial fluctuations "are poor measuring devices for global warming", because they depend on many other factors as well as temperature, is misleading. Certainly ice sheet/shelf and glacial movements are complex being affected by ice dynamics, the nature of the bedrock underlying the ice, degree of precipitation, ocean circulation and other factors. However, temperature is the dominant force as evinced on a grand scale by the glacial-interglacial cycles.

As well as simple melting, temperature has wide ranging effects that influence ice dynamics, the ocean circulation beneath ice shelves and snow precipitation. In other words, temperature is the ultimate driver. This aspect is nicely shown by the Larsen B Ice Shelf, which was subject to:

1. melting of its surface under warmer atmospheric temperatures;
2. melting of its base by a warmer ocean whose circulation was likely to be enhanced by changes in wind regimes under a warmer climate (e.g., Toggweiler et al., 2006);
3. fracturing by melt water that had filled surface cracks and then expanded upon refreezing to form an hydraulic jack (e.g., Andrew et al., 2003);
4. removal of the ice shelf buttress to form a surge of the feeder glaciers that now discharged into the open ocean (Rignot et al., 2004). This surge appears, however, to have slowed down.

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SINGER Response: All this ice dynamics discussion is very interesting but really quite irrelevant for establishing the cause of warming. Any kind of warming will melt ice. So LBC may be correct in pointing out that temperature is the dominant factor for glacial fluctuations but they fail to mention that it is irrelevant for determining the cause of warming. I will therefore skip over their discussion of the breakup of the Larsen B Ice Shelf but stand by the NIPCC statement that glacial fluctuations “are poor measuring devices for global warming,” (i.e., compared to thermometers)

“Evidence of warming is not evidence that the cause is anthropogenic.” Here we are all agreed. However, the question of whether warming is taking place is more subtle. It cannot really be answered unless one specifies the time interval. For example, there clearly has been a global warming from 1920-40, which is seen in both instrumental and proxy climate records. But what about the last 30 years? If one looks at the satellite data, for example in Figure 13 of NIPCC, there is a warming trend in the past 30 years, but only if one simply uses ordinary least squares (OLS). However, one can also argue that there has been essentially no warming between 1979-1997, followed by a temperature jump in 1998, and no warming since then.

Of particular interest is the fact that the climate has been cooling slightly since 1998 and that many, including AGW alarmists, suggest that cooling may continue for another decade or more [Keenlyside et al. *Nature* May 1, 2008].

It is difficult to decide how to treat such a problem, particularly since we know that the climate has undergone such sudden discontinuities (“jumps”) in the past. For example, the climate suddenly warmed around 1976. Such jumps have been identified as caused by changes in ocean circulation. But it is not clear what causes such changes. All we can say is that global temperatures have not increased smoothly, in accordance with the calculations of greenhouse models. One can state rather definitely that the correlation between temperature and CO2 increases is sometimes positive and sometimes negative. In other words, the correlation is not meaningful and cannot be used to support AGW.

In fairness it should be stated that the IPCC has not relied on temperature CO2-correlation to support its case for AGW – although the First Assessment Report of 1990 did state that temperature and CO2 increases were “broadly consistent.” This phrase is not defined and simply propagandistic.

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## **SECTION B: THE DISCREDITED HOCKEY-STICK ANALYSIS**

**“The so-called “hockey stick” diagram of warming has been discredited.”**

Notwithstanding the controversy relating to the original Mann-Jones [??] “hockey stick” curve, the latest version (Mann and Jones, 2003) remains in the IPCC (2007) report and has been joined by a suite of very similar

temperature curves based on different proxies and models. This range of data show that the broad trends of a Medieval Warm Period (MWP) centred on ~1000 AD followed by the Little Ice Age (LIA) centred on ~1600 AD. There is variability in intensity and precise timing of those temperature shifts, but that is to be expected given the heterogeneity of the planet (e.g., Goddard Institute of Space Studies <http://data.giss.nasa.gov/gistemp/graphs/>).

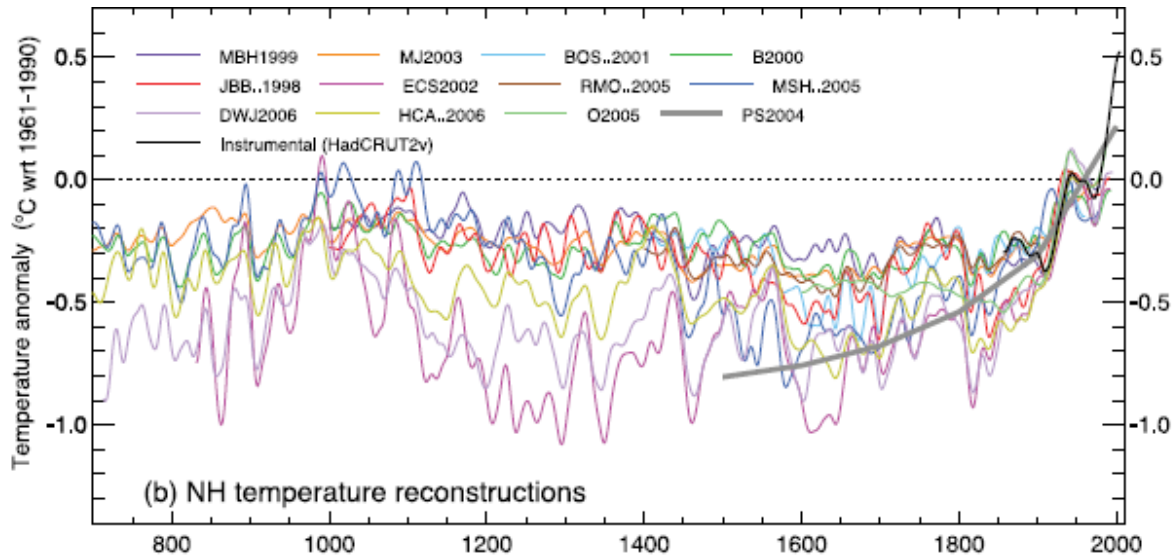


Figure 1. N. Hemisphere reconstructions from various proxies including the curve of Mann and Jones (2003) in orange.

Of the temperature reconstructions for the MWP, none are warmer than the latter 20<sup>th</sup>C. However, Singer et al. (2008) cites Dahl-Jansen et al. (1999) and Loehle (2007) as examples of confirmation of a warmer MWP. Both papers have been discussed before: Dahl-Jansen et al. (1999) in the GM questions of 26<sup>th</sup> May 2008, and Loehle (2007) and subsequent correction (Loehle and McCulloch, 2008) in the response to comments by Prof. R. M. Carter on 7<sup>th</sup> July, 2008. Nevertheless, proxies of past temperature changes require discussion because of the controversy surrounding their application.

**Temperature proxies:**

Scientists involved with past environmental changes, have a range of temperature indicators or *proxies* at their disposal. Some examples:

**Onshore:**

- fossil pollen to show temperature-related changes in vegetation;
- animal fossils of various types including insect remains;
- tree rings;

ice cores containing oxygen and hydrogen isotopes;  
cave stalactites/stalagmites containing oxygen isotopes.

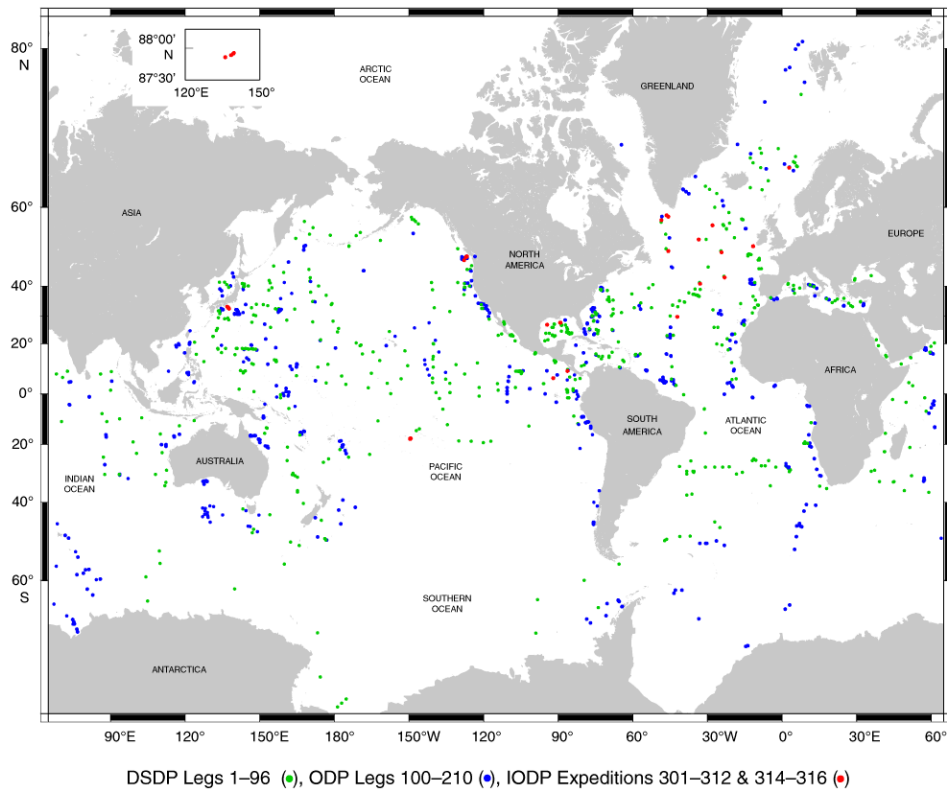


Figure 2. Location of sites for the Deep Sea Drilling Program, Ocean Drilling Program and Integrated Ocean Drilling Program as an example of N. Hemisphere bias of sampling of sediment cores – one of the sources of proxy records of past change.

### **Ocean**

plankton faunas and floras – assemblages of different species are temperature dependent;

oxygen isotopes in carbonate shells of fossil plankton;

chemistry of carbonate shells of fossil plankton including the ratio of magnesium/calcium and concentration of organic compounds such as alkenones.

Each has its strengths and weaknesses, for example, oxygen isotopes in marine plankton depend upon the volume of ice at the poles and the salt content of ocean water, both of which need to be calculated before a temperature signal

can be derived. Accordingly, proxies should be used with appropriate knowledge especially relating to what the proxies actually represent, surface ocean water or water 100 m deeper, and the experimental errors involved.

Proxy variability:

The variable response of Earth's surface to previous warm periods can be expressed in the proxy temperature records. However, the coverage of proxy records is exceptionally sparse, compared to satellite observations,

Furthermore, coverage is biased towards the Northern Hemisphere by virtue of the number of observation sites especially in the ocean (e.g., Fig. 2.2; Steig, 2000). However, efforts are being made to rectify this imbalance, for example, the Integrated Ocean Drilling Program has two legs in the Southern Ocean 2008-09.

The scatter of observations means it is essential to identify the regionality of the signal, i.e. local influences on the temperature signal versus global influences.

As well as spatial variability there is also variability through time and the dating of temperature and other records can be problematical due to differences in the accuracies of the dating methods used, resolution of the actual record, continuity of the record (i.e., is it disrupted by erosional events as in the case of sediment records?) and other factors. Accurately dated records are critical to confidently identify the timing of events at different localities to provide an insight into the geographic extent of a climatic change, especially abrupt, short-lived events.

Thus for proxy temperature records there is variability among the different techniques, spatial variability reflecting regional as well as global signals, a sampling bias with more N. than S. Hemisphere records, and variations among chronologies or *age models*. Clearly, we are not in an ideal situation, so we make do with what is available.

Returning to Singer et al. (2008) who quote Loehle (2007) or in this report

the corrected version of that paper by Loehle and McCulloch (2008). These authors provide a climatic reconstruction of the last 2000 years based on 18 records derived from different proxies but excluding tree ring data. Given their database, the reconstruction of the Little Ice Age and Medieval Warm Period (MWP) appear valid. However, when examined in detail uncertainties arise.

Only 3 of the records are from the Southern Hemisphere adding a potential bias to the curve in light of the different temperature responses of the hemispheres (e.g., Goddard Institute of Space Studies <http://data.giss.nasa.gov/gistemp/graphs/>);

Data are a mixture of atmospheric temperatures above ground and in caves plus sea surface temperatures from different depths in the surface ocean, apparently with normalisation;

Although claiming that records were chosen with at least 20 dates for the 2000 yr period, a random check on one of the papers used by Loehle and McCulloch (2008), namely deMenocal et al. (2000), show only 5 radiocarbon dates (at this stage it is unrealistic to recheck all the references used unless requested);

Looking at deMenocal et al. (2000) in more detail, they highlight a strong variability that is masked by the mean curve, e.g., the Little Ice Age is punctuated by a warm period when temperatures were almost as warm as the MWP;

While the warmest three decades of the MWP were warmer than the most recent three decades, the authors note the difference is not significant.

These comments are not intended to be disparaging about Loehle and McCulloch (2008), but are intended to draw attention to some of the problems associated with such studies on both sides of the debate.

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LBC try to dispute the NIPCC statement “the so called hockey-stick (HS) diagram of warming has been discredited.” Although they spend much effort on this topic, they do not respond to the serious methodological errors found in the hockey stick analysis of Mann, Bradley and Hughes of 1998 and 1999 [by McIntyre and McKittrick, von Storch, Wegman, and a report of the National Academy of Sciences].

There is really not much point to spending further effort to discuss the HS. [But see essay in Appendix] Even if it were correct and global temperatures were lower around 1000 AD than they are today, this cannot prove the cause of the current warming. It seems more reasonable [cf an analysis by Loehle and Singer, submitted for publication] that cyclical warming and cooling accounts not only for the Medieval Warm Period but the Little Ice Age and Modern Warming of the 20<sup>th</sup> century.

While past temperatures are of no relevance to future temperatures, it is important to understand the processes. NIPCC discussed the hockey-stick episode because it has been used by the IPCC as a major piece of evidence for anthropogenic GW.

**Loehle:** In more detail; But LBC cannot really provide any good reason to question the temperature data of Dahl-Jensen and Loehle. Note that in LBC Fig. 1 several of the curves have data that is truncated after 1960 (the MXD data) on input to their reconstruction because temperature GOES DOWN –i.e. shows divergence after that date. In one case (Briffa, I think) the reconstruction itself trends down and is not shown. If properly shown and without overlaying the black line, it would not look so dramatic, i.e. that is has warmed so much.

It is asserted that Fig. 1 shows “independent” confirmation of temperature histories. These different studies heavily overlap each other in both authors and data used. In particular, they often include certain key data, such as bristle-cone pines that show a hockeystick shape. (The NAS said that strip-bark pines (bristlecone, foxtail) should be avoided.) Fig. 1 also conveniently leaves out the Grudd reconstruction, which shows a MWP. More seriously, Loehle showed (2008. A Mathematical Analysis of the Divergence Problem in Dendroclimatology. Climatic Change DOI 10.1007/s10584-008-9488-8) that tree rings have serious problems for reconstructing climate. In particular, the nonlinear nature of tree growth response (trees can grow worse when it is hotter, not just better and better with increasing warmth) means that past peaks such as the MWP will either be squashed down or actually look like a trough (because the tree is growing worse during past warm periods).

All of the curves in fig. 1 above are heavily biased toward tree rings or use them exclusively. In the case of non-tree ring proxies, Loehle showed (2005. Estimating Climatic Time series from Multi-Site Data Afflicted with Dating Error. Mathematical Geology 37:127-140) that dating error in proxies will cause historic peaks such as the MWP to not line up and thus to average out to a lower value (signal damping). In addition, what is often done is to overlay the instrumental record, which is annual, on top of the proxy reconstructions in the 20<sup>th</sup> Century to show recent warming, but proxy-based reconstructions -- because

of the issues above and error in each proxy -- will average lower than annual data (they are inherently smoothed) and thus post-1980 warming will seem greater than it would from just looking at the proxy (which often only go to 1960 or 1980). Finally, McIntyre and McKittrick (2003, 2005) showed that if you use red noise series (random data with some persistence) as input to Mann's algorithm, one gets a hockey stick shape.

With respect to LBC Fig 2: There were data in Loehle (2007) from equatorial zone and tropical, and it was thus not strictly a northern hemisphere data set (which is usually dominated by extratropical data such as Europe). There was no deception since Loehle provided a map. The deep-sea drilling program is nice but data are not available yet.

Loehle's purpose was to show what one gets without use of tree rings. In the deMenocal paper cited by LBC the 5 radiocarbon dates are used with a sedimentation model to obtain dates for the other samples. It was not intended that the data include only cases with more than 20 radiocarbon dates, but with more than 20 samples. In Loehle (2007) bootstrap and jackknife statistics were used to evaluate whether any particular series was causing a bias, and the curve shape was robust to inclusion or not of all the series.

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### **SECTION C: "THE CORRELATION BETWEEN TEMPERATURE AND CARBON DIOXIDE LEVELS IS WEAK AND INCONCLUSIVE."**

This claim is not supported. In contrast, when viewed on the scale of glacial cycles, ice core records of the last 800,000 years show a close correlation between temperature and carbon dioxide. And the pattern can be readily explained. At the end of each ice age temperature initially rises before CO<sub>2</sub> by a few hundred years but for most of the temperature rise the T and CO<sub>2</sub> plots are indistinguishable within analytical and dating error (decades). The experts attribute this to degassing of the ocean under increasing warmth and current circulation changes (e.g., Toggweiler et al., 2006), and to increased water vapour as a consequence of T rise (e.g., <http://www.realclimate.org/index.php/archives/2007/04/the-lag-between-temp-and-co2/> ) The solar radiation trigger for warming has been recognised since the late 1970's. The amplification through CO<sub>2</sub> and water vapour has been recognised more recently, and there are still aspects that are not understood. But there are few if any climate scientists that now do not acknowledge the central role played by CO<sub>2</sub> as a regulator of the earth's temperature through the ice ages and in our present climate system.

At a shorter time scale, such as annual to decadal changes in temperature and carbon dioxide for the 20<sup>th</sup>C, the two components show general upward trends that are sometimes out of phase with temperature profile showing more variability. Given the known complexities of the land-ocean-atmosphere system, differences between the gas and temperature records are to be expected rather than having a 1 to 1 correlation, for example, the abrupt atmospheric cooling caused by volcanic eruptions (e.g. Hansen et al., 1996). That and other temperature-affecting factors are covered in IPCC (2007).

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**SINGER: LBC agree that in the paleo record the warming precedes the rise in CO<sub>2</sub>. This fact should be sufficient to establish that the rise in CO<sub>2</sub> did not cause the warming. In fairness, the IPCC has not tried to mislead on this point – although Al Gore certainly has.**

**We are more concerned with lack of correlation during the past 100 years. While both temp and CO<sub>2</sub> rose between 1920 and 1940, the IPCC in 2007 no longer maintains (as it did earlier, following Wigley et al 1998) that the warming was anthropogenic. The sudden warming observed around 1976 was caused**



by a change in ocean circulation (PDO) not by CO2. The cooling periods of 1940-1975 and since 1998 are ANTI-correlated with a steadily rising CO2.

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#### **SECTION D: “COMPUTER MODELS DON’T PROVIDE EVIDENCE OF ANTHROPOGENIC GLOBAL WARMING.”**

Page 4, models an exercise in curve fitting.

Models are based on Newton’s laws of motion, conservation of energy, etc. Inputs include the geography of the Earth, solar and orbital parameters (which are not tweaked). The parameters and modules that are open to adjustment are many of the “parameterisations”, descriptions of processes going on at scales smaller than that of the model grid, such as cloud formation, air-sea energy exchange, etc. Parameters in such modules are based on analysis of observations to relate large-scale and small-scale processes. Parameters may be modified somewhat to deal with any gross errors in the average climate of the model. However, in the course of simulating the climate of the 20th Century (say), it is *not* the case that parameters are tweaked “on the fly” to get curves to match up.

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LBC disagree with the NIPCC on “computer models do not provide evidence of anthropogenic global warming.” Indeed, we can reiterate the NIPCC conclusion that the so called ‘agreements’ between the global mean surface temperature of the 20<sup>th</sup> century and climate models (that use both human and natural forcings) rely on curve fitting and are therefore meaningless.

Consider first the ‘human forcings’ from GH gases alone: GCM climate models are not like simple weather prediction models. We can use ‘Climate Sensitivity’ (CS – defined as the equilibrium temp increase from a doubling of forcing from GH gases) as a criterion. [Sometimes CS is defined as the increase of global mean surface temperature produced by a doubling of global CO2 concentration.] IPCC gives the canonical range for CS as 1.5 – 4.5 degC, a range of a factor of three! It has become evident that these large differences result from the different ways in which individual models are parameterized. As Cess showed long ago, this large spread in values arises mainly from different choices of cloud parameters. According to Murphy et al, there are some 100 parameters that individual modelers choose, using their ‘expert judgment’ (in reality, educated guesses). For example, using different values for just six parameters of cloud microphysics, Stainforth et al get CS values from 1.5 to 11.5 degC! So which is the ‘right’ value?

The question then arises about the validity of such model results, which has to be established with a comparison to observations. But observed temperature trends of the past 100 years are sometimes positive (1920-1940) and sometimes negative (1940-1975, and also since 1998), in spite of increasing CO2 trends. Clearly one cannot reproduce observed temperatures simply by using greenhouse (GH) models. As a result, the IPCC has attempted to reproduce the observed temperature history of the 20<sup>th</sup> century by using a combination of GH gas forcing, aerosol and ozone forcing, and natural forcing (which includes volcanoes and Total Solar Irradiance -- TSI). There are at least four problems with this IPCC procedure, which makes it unsuitable for validating climate models:

1. Agreement between observed temperature history and model results can only be achieved by choosing the right adjustable parameters for these major anthropogenic and natural forcings. This clearly becomes an exercise in “curve fitting” and nothing more. While a suitable choice of parameters may fit the global temperature data, the same choice cannot fit the zonal averages or even the northern hemisphere and southern hemisphere separately.
2. The procedure concentrates on GH gases but ignores other possible important human influences, such as changes in surface albedo and evaporation -- from agriculture, from deforestation and reforestation, from major biomass burning, from urban heat islands, and from major pollution, like the Asian ‘brown cloud.’ The IPCC itself shows the huge uncertainties in the forcing from aerosols ( reproduced in Fig 5 of NIPCC); they are as large as the CO2 forcing..



3. An even more serious problem is the inadequate way in which models handle water vapor, the most important GH gas, and especially the properties and distribution of clouds. Most differences in CS between models arise from these microphysics factors and choice of cloud parameters. This can be seen from the poor way in which models handle precipitation (see here NIPCC Fig 16). Even more important, while all models incorporate a positive feedback from WV, observational results suggest that the feedback is actually negative [Lindzen, Spencer, see also NIPCC Fig 15].

4. Finally, the IPCC has ignored what is perhaps the major natural forcing, resulting from changes in solar activity. Investigations of paleo-temperatures, for example in stalagmites, have established without doubt a detailed correlation between temperature and cosmic-ray intensity (which in turn is modulated by changes in solar activity – see here NIPCC Fig 14). Under the category of “solar forcing” the IPCC considers only changes in TSI, which are much too small to be important.

We conclude this section with a quote by atmospheric physicist James Peden: "Climate Modeling is not "science", it is computerized Tinker Toys with which one can construct any outcome he chooses".

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## SECTION E: THE EVIDENCE AGAINST AGW

We have now effectively negated the several arguments used by the IPCC to support their AGW conclusion. We believe that they have not made their case. This is a serious matter since the burden of proof has to be on the IPCC, whose conclusion is used to support far-reaching energy and economic policies.

In fact, the IPCC is in an impossible situation since it is never possible to prove a hypothesis – in this case the hypothesis of AGW. On the other hand, it requires only one piece of evidence, one experiment, one set of observations to disprove or falsify a hypothesis. This is a principle clearly enunciated by science philosopher Karl Popper.

We now turn to the piece of evidence that falsifies the AGW hypothesis. It is called the ‘fingerprint’ method and compares the patterns of warming calculated from GH models against the observed pattern. [By ‘pattern’ we mean the variation of the warming trend with the latitude and altitude.]

Historically, the fingerprint method was first applied in the IPCC-SAR report [Chapter 8, 1995] by Benjamin Santer. He pointed to agreement between a temperature trend increasing with altitude, calculated by all climate models in the tropical zone, with a maximum at around 10 km, and compared it to trends observed in weather balloons. However, it was soon found out that he had selected from the available data a time interval during which the temperature increased and ignored an overall negative temperature trend from the available record. Thus, his claimed agreement was completely spurious. Nevertheless, The IPCC Summary falsely claimed a “discernible human influence.”

The same ‘fingerprint’ method was also applied in the Climate Change Science Program SAP-1.1 [2006]. Again, the calculated temperature pattern showed a trend that increased with altitude in the tropical zone, reaching a maximum at around 10 km, roughly three times that of the surface trend. The same CCSP report also showed the observed pattern of temperature trend versus latitude and altitude, which showed NO increase but a decrease in the temperature trend with altitude in the tropical zone. Both of these graphs are reproduced in the NIPCC report (see Figs 7 and 8) where nothing has been added or deleted. Furthermore, another graph in the CCSP report clearly showed the disparity between model results and observations ( see here NIPCC Figs 9 and 10). However, inexplicably, the Executive Summary of the CCSP report claimed agreement, in contrast to the actual report itself.

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“While an agreement of such fingerprints cannot prove an anthropogenic origin for warming, it would be consistent with such a conclusion. A mismatch would argue strongly against any significant contribution from GH forcing and support the conclusion that the observed warming is mostly of natural origin.”

This is a strong over-statement. A mismatch would suggest something that is not understood. Perhaps it would argue against human-induced climate change, but it could also suggest errors in observational data sets (as has been seen in radiosondes, satellite data, and ocean XBTs (devices to measure temperature through the upper ocean...please see our comments on Section 6). Or it could argue in favour of other processes not being handled correctly. To say that it must imply AGW is wrong is favouring a certain result.

[Monckton of B: The IPCC is obliged to (but does not always) review, and hence to follow, the peer-reviewed literature. The series of distinguished papers by David Douglass and his colleagues (2004, 2006, 2007, 2008) on the manifest discrepancy between the predicted tripling of the surface rate of warming in the tropical upper troposphere and the absence of that warming differential in all of the satellite and radiosonde records cannot be easily explained away. Allen and Sherwood (2008) say that if we abandon direct measurement in favor of proxy measurement by taking account of differences in tropospheric wind speeds, it is possible to force the observed record to comply with the models' predictions. However, this result is itself questionable, on the basis that it is even harder reliably to measure upper-troposphere wind-speeds than it is to measure temperatures. Lindzen (2008) concludes that final climate sensitivity should be divided by at least three to allow for the failure of the observed record to confirm the models' predictions of the tropical mid-troposphere “hot-spot”.]

**“Observed and predicted “fingerprints don’t match.”**

Page 6 - “The CCSP result is unequivocal”.

Indeed, but not as stated in the Singer et al. (2008) report. The abstract of the Climate Change Science Program (CCSP) report starts:

“Previously reported discrepancies between the amount of warming near the surface and higher in the atmosphere have been used to challenge the reliability of climate models and the reality of human-induced global warming. Specifically, surface data showed substantial global-average warming, while early versions of satellite and radiosonde data showed little or no warming above the surface. This significant discrepancy no longer exists because errors in the satellite and radiosonde data have been identified and corrected. New data sets have also been developed that do not show such discrepancies.”

Figures 7 and 8 are put up to suggest that models and observations disagree. Fig 7 is the result of one climate model. In the original of Fig 7 (CCSP Fig 1.3), four sets of climate model output are shown, some of which match the observational result much more closely.

**SINGER: Here LBC are doubly wrong: Indeed, the original of NIPCC Fig 6(six), namely CCSP Fig 1.3, shows 4 sets of climate model outputs “that match the observational result more closely.” But none of these correspond to a model that uses increasing GH gases. Thereby LBC, inadvertently, confirm the NIPCC conclusion.**

[M of B: As Professor Singer rightly points out, the abstract of the Climate Change Science Program report (CCSP, 2006) is inconsistent with the body of the text, a problem that is often seen in the *Summaries for Policymakers* in IPCC climate assessments. However, Douglass *et al.* (2007) explicitly considered the question whether the datasets needed correction, and provided a very detailed statistical analysis demonstrating that the discrepancy cannot be explained away by inadequacies in the data. Their conclusion, based on a consideration of most of the available datasets, is that the discrepancy between

what the models predict and the satellites and radiosondes observe is so great that there is no “statistical overlap” at any point between the relevant curves. Given that global temperatures are failing to respond as the models predicted, and failing even to follow the *sign* of the predictions, the discrepancy that Douglass and his colleagues have identified cannot be so readily dismissed. The onus is now on those who disagree with them to produce reasoned, calculated responses: not mere flannel about “uncertainties”. If one were to major on the uncertainties in the climate, then it would not be possible to draw any of the alarmist conclusions now put forward with such confidence by the IPCC.]

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LBC apparently did not read the CCSP report but only the Exec Summary, which claims erroneously: “Previously reported discrepancies between the amount of warming near the surface and higher in the atmosphere have been used to challenge the reliability of climate models and the reality of human-induced global warming. Specifically surface data showed substantial global-average warming, while earlier versions of satellite and radiosonde data showed little or no warming above the surface. This significant discrepancy no longer exists because errors in the satellite and the radiosonde data have been identified and corrected. New data sets have also been developed that do not show such discrepancies.”

This paragraph is completely misleading. LBC do not give any references to support their statement. In particular, there have been no publications in refereed journals, as far as we know, that challenge the NIPCC conclusion -- since the “fingerprints don’t match,” the human contribution from GH gases to warming of the past 30 years is not significant.

The CCSP report considered only the 21 years 1979-1999. Natural variability puts large error bars on both the modelled and observed trends, being strongly affected by El Niño –Southern Oscillation and other variability, especially in the Tropics. Hence, given the uncertainties (largely not shown in the CCSP report), there is a statistical overlap between modelled and observed trends.

In the next paragraph, the LBC critique drops the idea that there is something wrong with the data and now argues that the uncertainties are so large “that there is a statistical overlap between modeled and observed trends.” This new claim by LBC can be contradicted in three ways:

1. Douglass, Christy, Pearson and Singer have done a careful analysis of the errors in both models and observations, as published in the Int’l J of Climatology/Royal Meteorological Society [2007]. The key graph is displayed as NIPCC Fig 10.
2. The CCSP report tries to suggest that there is a statistical overlap by using the concept of “range” for modeled results and observations [see NIPCC Fig 9b]. But the use of range is clearly inappropriate since it gives undue weight to outliers [Douglass et al. 2007]. In fact, in the body of the CCSP report itself, ‘range’ is not used but the statistical distribution of model results is shown instead, which is quasi-Gaussian [see NIPCC Fig 9a, which is CCSP figure 5.4G].
3. But the same CCSP report includes also a tutorial Appendix, which discusses the statistical problems that arise when comparing trends. So the authors were aware THEN of any possible statistical problems.

To sum up: We believe that the IPCC has no credible evidence to support their conclusion of human-caused GW. We also believe that the NIPCC has demonstrated that GH models do not agree with observations and are therefore falsified. This means that the human contribution, while certainly not zero, must be very small and is not as yet detectable.

We conclude, therefore -- contrary to the assertions of the IPCC -- that climate sensitivity must be well below the values quoted by climate models, and that any estimates of future warming based on such models are not reliable.

Another way of putting our result: The evidence clearly shows that the increase in CO2 has not produced a detectable increase in global temperature. We believe that this is the strongest argument against the EPA's attempt to control emissions of carbon dioxide and treat it as a pollutant under the Clean Air Act.  
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Once this major issue has been settled, the rest of the comments of LBC are of little consequence to the conclusion of the NIPCC report.

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**SECTION F. "THE GLOBAL TEMPERATURE RECORD IS UNRELIABLE"**  
**"The global temperature record is unreliable".**

**Page 7-8 - difficulty of getting original data.**

The raw data are freely available from a number of sources, notably the National Climate Data Center in Asheville NC. Data that go into the HadCRU have averages and are available from the CRU web site.

[This is untrue. CRU has refused to provide station data as used even in response to FOI requests – acc to Steve McIntyre.]

**Page 8 - urban heat islands.**

This is not an issue. There may be offsets between urban and rural sites, but this is dealt with by taking off the long-term mean temperature at each site before averaging regionally. Several papers have demonstrated that using or not using urban stations makes no difference to large-scale surface temperature trends. [Whether or not this is an issue, the "several" papers have not demonstrated this – Steve McIntyre] Plus, sea surface temperature trends are consistent with those over land. Urban influences are unlikely to be a problem in the mid-Pacific. Parker (2006) did a nice analysis of rural-urban temperature trends, using only data on windy days vs data only on calm days. The idea is that on the calm days, the urban effect would be obvious, while on windy days, everything is well-mixed so the urban influence would be masked. He found no difference between the two sets of days. [There are many issues with Parker's paper discussed in a number of ClimateAudit.org posts -- McIntyre].

**Page 8, error in GISS data discovered by McIntyre.**

The reference is to McIntyre's personal web site, and shows an exchange of correspondence having nothing to do with errors in GISS data. However, McIntyre did find a jump in the GISS temperature record, which was corrected. This correction made no difference to the global record, but affected the US average by around 0.15<sup>0</sup>C between 2000-2006. This confirms that the science is conducted openly. [GISS initially blocked my downloading their data, then caved in after CA publicity of the blocking. Hansen refused to provide access to his code until forced to by bad publicity – McIntyre]

For example the NIPCC discussion on the reliability of global temperature data has been adequately supported by many investigators.

[Vincent Gray -- The IPCC have chosen papers which were either fraudulent, deliberately misinterpreted, or woefully inadequate to claim there is no urban warming, They ignore the copious evidence that it exists, including the recent work of McKittrick and Michaels.]

## SECTION G. “MOST MODERN WARMING IS DUE TO NATURAL CAUSES”

As better dated records of past climate change are developed (given the precautionary notes in Section 2), it appears that the present phase of global warming is unusual when compared to natural fluctuations of climate for the last 2000 years and longer. Mayewski and Maasch (2006) show that prominent changes in temperature and atmospheric circulation in the Southern Hemisphere precede such changes in the Northern Hemisphere. Barrows et al. (2007) confirm this timing with oceanic and atmospheric temperatures warming in the Southern Hemisphere before the Northern Hemisphere as also indicated by Weaver et al. (2003). This natural world change contrasts with the present change whereby Northern Hemisphere leads the south.

### Unexplained by climate models. The emission of aerosols should make the NH colder than the SH

Section 3 of Singer et al. (2008) makes much of the role of solar variability on the Earth's climate, particularly the influence of galactic cosmic rays (GCRs) as modulated by the changing solar magnetic field. (Please see the report sent to you about GCRs by W. Allan for further details). It has generally been accepted for some time that variations in solar activity have an influence on climate variability (e.g., see the review by Foukal et al., 2006). The questions now are (1) how large is this influence? and (2) what are the mechanisms by which this influence is transmitted?

Recently, a paper in the Proceedings of the Royal Society by Lockwood and Fröhlich (2007) [LF07] analysed the effect of solar variations on the global mean surface air temperature. A Danish National Space Center report by Svensmark and Friis-Christensen (2007) attempted to counteract the LF07 paper. Two further papers in PRS, Lockwood and Fröhlich (2008) [LF08] and Lockwood (2008) [L08] carried their solar variability analysis much further than LF07, and confirmed the results of that paper.

Svensmark and Friis-Christensen (2007) compared the mean tropospheric air temperature with the inverse of the percentage change in neutron count from the Haleacala/Huancayo neutron monitor, used as an indicator of the change in GCR flux and hence of solar activity as the Sun's changing magnetic field modulates the GCR flux. They found a reasonable correlation when various atmospheric effects and a linear trend were removed. This obvious correlation does not exist in the surface temperature record used by LF07. Svensmark and Friis-Christensen (2007) implied that this occurs because the quality of the surface temperature record is low. They also found a linear trend in tropospheric temperature of  $0.14 \pm 0.4$  K/decade, but stated that global surface temperatures have been roughly flat since 1998, and the same for a longer period for tropospheric temperatures. Svensmark and Friis-Christensen (2007) also found a similar, but less obvious effect in the temperature of the top 50 m of the ocean. They considered that these results comprehensively rebut the argument of LF07 that recent trends in solar climate forcing have been in the wrong direction to account for “the observed rapid rise in global mean temperature”.

LF07 considered that the Earth's global mean surface air temperature did not show any obvious response to the solar cycle, and therefore carried out a process of applying a running mean based on the changing length of the solar cycle to various time series. They showed that the sunspot number and the open solar flux maximised around 1985, and the cosmic ray neutron count minimized at the same time, all as expected from solar-terrestrial physics. The total solar irradiance (TSI; the PMOD composite – see later) had a weak maximum in 1985 and then drifted downwards until 2005. The mean temperature anomaly from two temperature anomaly reconstructions (GISS and HadCRUT3) increased over the same period in a nearly linear way. LF07 considered that all solar trends since about 1987 have

been in the opposite direction to those seen or inferred in the majority of the twentieth century. They contrasted this with the upward trend of the two temperature anomaly reconstructions both before and after 1985.

LF08 critically examined three composites of TSI that combine several satellite datasets, namely the so-called PMOD, ACRIM, and IRMB composites. They showed that both the ACRIM and IRMB composites are affected by a neglected calibration “glitch” in Nimbus-7 HF satellite data, which is allowed for in the PMOD composite. Therefore the PMOD composite gives the most accurate TSI over the interval 1978–2007. The PMOD composite was used to derive a smoothed version of TSI that shows the smoothed TSI decreasing almost continuously over the period 1985–2002.

LF08 pointed out that solar cycle variations have been detected in mean global surface air temperatures (although at a low level), as well as in tropospheric temperatures and ocean surface temperatures as discussed by Svensmark and Friis-Christensen (2007). LF08 reconstructed a splined GCR flux variation extending back to 1900 based on neutron monitor measurements since 1953, and then low-pass filtered this time series with a set of time constants between 1 and 10 years. The resulting smoothed variations were then fitted individually using linear least-squares regression to the HadCRUT3 global mean surface temperature anomaly data (Brohan et al. 2006). The results showed that reasonable fits to the trend, and to some extent to the decadal-scale variations, can be obtained for the data before *ca* 1990, but since then, none of the variations explain the observed trend at all. The conclusion of LF07, that the trend in solar forcing has been in the wrong direction since *ca* 1987, is not influenced by the choice of thermal time constant for smoothing the decadal-scale solar variations.

L08 applied a comprehensive multivariate fit to both the HadCRUT3 and GISS time series of global mean surface air temperature anomalies over the past half-century. The fit procedure allows for the effect of response time on the waveform, amplitude and lag of each radiative forcing input, and each is allowed to have its own time constant. The inputs are:

the solar variation quantified by both the GCR Climax neutron monitor counts and the PMOD TSI;

the anomaly of energy exchange between the deep ocean and the surface mixing layer quantified by the N3.4 ENSO index;

the volcanic aerosol effect quantified by the global mean atmospheric optical depth, AOD;

a linear drift term to allow for anthropogenic greenhouse gas and aerosol emissions, and associated feedbacks. The resulting fit has a correlation coefficient  $r=0.89$ , hence  $r^2=0.79$ , or 79%, of the observed variation is explained.

L08 estimated an observed total temperature anomaly trend from 1987–2006 of  $19.57 \times 10^{-3} \text{ K yr}^{-1}$ . He estimated (using the GCR flux to represent the solar input) that: (a) the contribution of solar effects to this trend was  $-1.3\%$ ; (b) the contribution of ENSO was  $-5.6\%$ ; (c) the contribution of volcanic effects was  $23.9\%$ ; and (d) the contribution of the linear trend was  $75.1\%$ . Note that the solar contribution was negative, consistent with the recent decrease of solar effect discussed earlier. Using the PMOD TSI to represent the solar input, the solar contribution was even more negative ( $-3.6\%$ ). From this, L08 concluded that anthropogenic factors contribute 75% of the

temperature rise since 1987, with an uncertainty range of 49–160% (set by the  $2\sigma$  confidence level using an AR(1) noise model). Thus, at least half of the temperature trend comes from the linear (anthropogenic) term and this term could explain the entire rise.

There is no doubt that solar variations in TSI, GCR and in the ultraviolet (UV) and extreme UV parts of the solar spectrum have some influence on climate. However, to imply that the larger correlation of GCR with tropospheric air temperature (TAT) than with surface air temperature (SAT) means that the SAT data are of poor quality [as Svensmark and Friis-Christensen (2007) do] is untenable. The SAT data must now be the most tested and corrected database in climatology because of its important role in the “anthropogenic greenhouse warming” debate. It provides a reasonable measure of temperature variations in the planetary boundary layer (1–2 km height), within which many large time-varying processes occur. Therefore the GCM and other solar variation signals are relatively small in amplitude compared with these processes and are more difficult to isolate. On the other hand, the TAT data, deriving from balloon radiosonde measurements, are patchy and have required large corrections (Parker et al., 1997). Further, the free troposphere (above the planetary boundary layer) is less influenced by near-ground processes, while GCM and UV energy is mainly deposited in the stratosphere and upper troposphere. This means that we might expect a stronger solar-related signal in TAT data, and a greater correlation with TAT as shown by Svensmark and Friis-Christensen (2007).

However, such a correlation does not mean that solar variations need play a major role in global climate change. Indeed, it is generally admitted that the energy content of GCM and solar UV variations is very small compared with the vastly dominant TSI input. It is therefore proposed by some that certain positive feedback mechanisms amplify the effect of the solar variations to the point where they mimic the temperature rise expected from so-called “greenhouse gas” warming. The latter mechanism is very well-established, being a result of basic physics. Mechanisms for solar variation amplification are generally speculative, with little observational support. The most popular is the mechanism proposed by Svensmark and Friis-Christensen (1997), in which cosmic ray spallation products provide nuclei for condensation of water droplets, therefore influencing global cloud cover, global albedo, and hence global climate. In this context, it is worth noting that Kristjánsson et al. (2008) have compared 13 Forbush decrease events (sudden large drops in cosmic ray flux caused by coronal mass ejections) with observations of various cloud microphysical parameters from the space-based MODIS instrument, in remote ocean regions that should be particularly sensitive to cosmic ray effects. They found no systematic correlation between any of the four cloud parameters considered and galactic cosmic radiation, with a seemingly random distribution of positive and negative correlations.

Singer et al. (2008) says “a detailed mechanism whereby cosmic rays can affect cloudiness and therefore climate has been suggested and verified experimentally by Henrik Svensmark [2007a,b]”. Svensmark’s mechanism is plausible, and he has provided experimental results to show that the creation of condensation nuclei by UV-created ions is possible in the laboratory. However, such work requires much development before it can be accepted as a major process in global climate variability, particularly requiring much stronger observational support. It may be that this mechanism has played a role in the correlation shown pre-1987 by LF08. However, the post-1987 lack of correlation in LF08 strongly suggests that this mechanism is not the source of the 1987–2006 temperature increase. The vast amount of work carried out to date on the anthropogenic climate warming mechanism suggests that this is most likely to be the cause of the post-1987 warming.

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In discussing the effect of solar variability on terrestrial climate the IPCC is guilty of obfuscation and misdirection. Their entire discussion deals only with total solar irradiance (TSI) changes which are minute, of the order of 0.1 percent, and therefore of little consequence to climate. At the same time, the IPCC ignores the much larger influence of solar activity via the modulation of galactic cosmic rays and the resultant changes in cloudiness. LBC are guilty of some of the same misapprehension and confusion. For example, the review article by Foukal deals with TSI. The paper by Lockwood and Frohlich can be simply explained (see, e.g., Svensmark).

I myself have great skepticism about the quality of the quoted trend in Global Mean Sfc Temp (GMST). Here are some of my arguments:

1. The reasonably well-controlled US data show 1934 as the warmest year of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (see NIPCC Fig 4b)
2. The Urban Heat Island effect on GMST has not been removed -- nor can it be. See NIPCC Fig 11.
3. Globally, the number of stations has been drastically reduced since 1970. See NIPCC Fig 12. This changes the sampling population. The eliminated stations are mostly rural. Maybe GMST measures mostly airport temperatures.
4. Satellites and balloon data show hardly any warming between 1979 and 1997. See NIPCC Fig 13
5. I have grave doubts about SST analyses, because of the changing mixture of ship and buoy data. See also the problem raised by NIPCC Fig 20. [On the other hand, I am aware of reports of increasing heat content of the oceans but have not been able to get hold of Argo data to study the depth distribution of temperature; Josh Willis informs me privately that they are still correcting them.]

On the other hand, LBC does not discuss the impressive evidence on solar activity changes affecting climate changes, presented in the results of Neff et al. and shown as NIPCC Fig 14. While this figure shows a close correlation between carbon-14 and oxygen-18 over more than 3000 years, it does not explain the exact mechanism. Yet the influence of solar activity variability on the climate through modulation of cosmic rays cannot in doubt.

#### **SECTION H. "CLIMATE MODELS ARE NOT RELIABLE"**

The whole of Section 4 is an effort to discredit climate models as useful representations of the real world, or as useful tools for looking to the future. **Correct.** It is very selective, picking up on and over-representing a few known shortcomings of GCMs (Global Climate Models), while ignoring the bulk of what models get right.

A telling example of the utility, and the reality, of climate models has been the investigation of discrepancies between observed and modelled temperature trends in the atmosphere and in the oceans. In both cases, researchers wondered if the differences between what the models say and what the observations say could be a result of errors in the observations, since models may be considered reliable encapsulations of all of our understanding of the physics of climate. And in both cases, it has been found that the observations were indeed in error.

In the atmosphere, above the surface, we rely on radiosondes (thermometers and other instruments suspended beneath a balloon) and on satellites for observations. Both kinds of observation have issues around changes in instrument type (different satellite hardware, different packaging for the radiosonde), which imply different calibration issues, plus they are biased differently between day and night, and so on. Moreover, satellites do not measure temperature directly, but they sense radiation and require mathematical models to infer temperature values

consistent with the radiation profiles. In the oceans, there are similar issues with XBTs (eXpendable Bathy-Thermographs, essentially the ocean analogue of a radiosonde) in terms of properly dealing with the rate of descent, pressure effects etc. In all cases, careful processing is required to turn the raw data from any of these of instruments into a trustworthy observation of the state of the climate system.

Obviously, we don't share LBC's faith in models. What about the inter-model differences of CS? What about the huge uncertainties in forcing (see NIPCC Fig 5)?

As noted above, models are based on Newton's laws of motion, conservation of energy, laws of heat transfer etc, mostly basic physics and mechanics that have been in textbooks for a century or more. GCMs are essentially told very little: the geography of the Earth, brightness of the sun, details of the Earth's orbit and the tilt of the Earth's axis, plus the rotation rate of the Earth. These inputs are not "tweaked"; they are part of the basic definition of a model simulation. From that information, a typical GCM, run forward in time for a few decades will faithfully reproduce:

The mean state of the global climate (overall temperature structure, winds, pressure, moisture distribution, cloud distribution, sea-ice extent, snow cover, etc),

The seasonal cycle of the above,

Components of the inter-annual variability of the climate: El Niño/La Niña events, The Southern Annular Mode, The North Atlantic Oscillation, the Pacific-North American pattern, Pacific Decadal Oscillation, Atlantic Multi-decadal Oscillation, and so on.

None of the above are "perfect" in terms of exact matches with observations, but they are extremely close to what is observed in most cases, especially allowing for the fact that what we observe comes with uncertainties. In terms of interannual variability (and day-to-day weather for that matter), models do not reproduce a particular observed sequence of observed events, as chaotic influences mean the exact sequence of these events is not predictable in the long term. But, models capture the statistics of these sequences well.

In GCMs, the parameters and modules that are open to adjustment are many of the "parameterisations", descriptions of processes going on at scales smaller than that of the model grid, such as cloud formation, air-sea energy exchange etc. The parameters in such modules are based on analysis of observations to relate large-scale and small-scale processes. Parameters may be modified somewhat to deal with any gross errors in the average climate of the model (overall energy balance, etc). However, in the course of simulating the climate of the 20th Century (say), it is *not* the case that parameters are tweaked "on the fly" to get curves to match up.

[M of B: There is clear evidence that it was not until the models were adjusted *ex post facto* that they were able to reproduce the global *cooling* that occurred between 1940 and 1975. Indeed, this process of adjustment to try to replicate past climate is an essential part of the modeling process: it is often described as "training". Parameters and algorithms are constantly adjusted in order to try to replicate the past climate. However, there are some important limitations on the modeling of climate that the IPCC

authors here gloss over. Not the least of these is the fact that the climate is a “complex, non-linear, chaotic object” whose long-term evolution cannot be accurately predicted by any method (Lorenz, 1963; Lighthill, 1998; IPCC, 2001; Giorgi, 2005). It is characteristic of a mathematically-chaotic object, such as the climate, that even a small perturbation in the initial values of just a few of the millions of parameters that define the initial state of the object at any chosen moment can fundamentally alter the timing, onset, duration, magnitude, and sign of phase transitions – sudden changes in what had appeared to be an ordered and hence predictable state that laymen sometimes call “tipping-points”. As an instance of the effect of altering a single variable on a major part of the climate, the Meteorological Office predicted in April 2007 that that summer in the UK would be the hottest, driest and most drought-prone ever, because of “global warming”. What the Met Office did not know was that a phase-transition in the latitude of the northern-hemisphere jet-stream was about to occur. The result was that, just six weeks after the Met Office forecast, the coolest, wettest, most flood-prone summer since records began. For this and other reasons, there are fundamental limitations on the reliability of models, which ought not, therefore, to be used as the primary foundation for the IPCC’s alarmist conclusions about the climate.

More importantly, there is a further fundamental and irremediable limitation on the capability of the models. The central question in climatology today is this. *How much* warming of the climate will result from a doubling of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration from its inferred pre-industrial concentration of ~278 ppmv to ~550 ppmv, expected to occur later this century on current emissions trends? It is crucial to appreciate that the coupled atmosphere-ocean general-circulation computer models of the climate that are relied upon so heavily by the IPCC cannot answer this question at all. Why? Because climate sensitivity – the magnitude of the temperature response to a given change in CO<sub>2</sub> concentration – is an *input* to the models, and not an *output* from them. The models are told, in advance, what climate sensitivity to assume. They then calculate how the climate might unfold on the basis of that assumption. Unsurprisingly, they find that with high climate sensitivity the effects of warming are considerable. However, the discrepancy between the models’ predictions and observed reality in the global surface temperature record is growing with each year that passes. According to the satellite temperature record for the lower troposphere that is maintained by the University of Alabama at Huntsville, it is possible that the year 2008 will prove to be no warmer than 1980, following fully seven years of global *cooling* that was not predicted by any of the models because they had been told to assume a high climate sensitivity to increased CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. The global *cooling*, to which all of the major global-temperature datasets attest, is not easy for the IPCC to explain, because – relying too heavily upon the work of an ambitious and hence acquiescent junior solar researcher whose opinions were at odds with the majority of the peer-reviewed literature written by her more eminent colleagues – its 2007 report had ascribed a negligible forcing to the Sun, and no forcing at all to any other natural influence upon the climate. However, the activity of the Sun had inexorably increased between the Maunder Minimum of 1645-1715 and the Solar Grand Maximum of 1930-2000. Furthermore, it is easier to explain the fluctuations in 20<sup>th</sup>-century temperatures by reference to phase-transitions in the Atlantic Multidecadal and Pacific Decadal Oscillations, combined with changes in solar activity,

than it is to explain them by anthropogenic effects. Akasofu (2008) has, therefore, insisted that it is important carefully to subtract solar and oceanic forcings from the temperature record before attempting to deduce any anthropogenic signal therein.]

#### Page 12 - opening of Chapter 4

This quote merely says that we can't forecast individual years, 100 years out, as we can't forecast individual days, a month out. But, we can forecast the statistics of long-term changes, once the noise has been averaged out, e.g. taking a 20-year or 30-year average.

#### Page 12 - dimming and brightening.

This relates to aerosol and dust loading in the atmosphere, not to changes in solar output. Given appropriate specifications of aerosol loading, models are perfectly capable of handling these effects. The water "dimer" effect appears to be a minor component of the radiative effects of water vapour in the atmosphere. We have checked the Paynter et al (2007) referred to by Singer et al and these authors do not refer to a significant negative feedback effect with IR absorption caused by water dimers as water vapour increases. We note that Singer et al acknowledge that water vapour is increasing in the lower troposphere.

Absorption of incident solar radiation by WV dimers takes a large chunk out of the infrared energy reaching the Earth's surface. The effect should increase sharply with solar zenith angle and with the square of absolute humidity. I invite LBC in joining me in writing a research paper on this topic.

Page 12, column 2 - The chaotic nature of the climate means that small changes in initial conditions can lead to vastly different outcomes.

True, in terms of the daily sequence of weather, but not in terms of the statistics of the climate. Winters are always cooler than summers, regardless of chaos!

Page 12, column 2 - As previously observed, current GH models do not match the observed latitude distribution of temperature trends.

Chapter 4 is full of mis-statements. We won't deal with all of them, but this is a good example. Figure 3 is Fig. 9.6 in the AR4 WG1 report (IPCC, 2007) and clearly shows that the above is completely wrong.

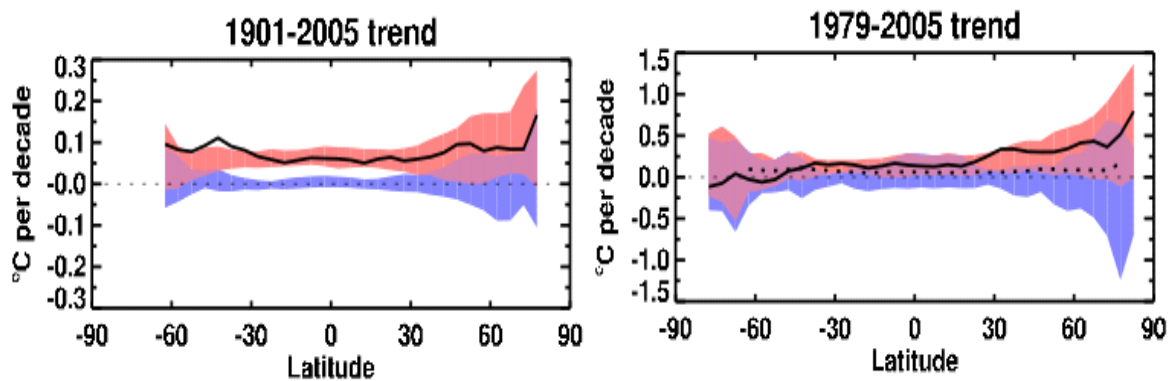


Figure 3. Trends in observed and simulated temperature changes ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) over the 1901 to 2005 (left) and 1979 to 2005 (right) periods. Average trends for each latitude; observed trends are indicated by solid black curves. Red shading indicates the middle 90% range of trend estimates from the 58 simulations including both anthropogenic and natural forcings; blue shading indicates the middle 90% range of trend estimates from the 19 simulations with natural forcings only (estimated as the range between 2nd and 18th of the 19 ranked simulations); for comparison, the dotted black curve in the right-hand plot shows the observed 1901 to 2005 trend.

The IPCC 'agreement' is less than impressive: Fig 3a is not meaningful at all. Fig 3b deals with surface data, even though balloon/satellite data are available. One can see the disagreement by comparing NIPCC Figs 7 and 8. I have earlier discussed the problems with the surface data and with the IPCC's neglect of important natural forcing.

### Page 13, - possible negative water vapour feedback.

This is very unlikely, and much of the cited supporting literature has already been shown to be incorrect. The positive nature of the water vapour feedback is so ubiquitous that discovering it is actually a negative feedback would be a bit like discovering that increasing personal wealth discourages spending.

On the contrary: new results just published by Roy Spencer support negative WV feedback. For a possible explanation see NIPCC Fig 15.

### Page 13 - Computer models do not explain many features...

Yes, solar insolation at the surface of the earth is generally biased in GCMs, because models do not account for enough atmospheric absorption of solar radiation (largely by water vapour). **Why not?** Such a bias is fixed across control and climate change (increased GHG) runs, and hence should largely cancel out when considering changes. **No, because WV content increases with increasing temperature.** Solar radiation and infrared are well separated in the electro-magnetic spectrum, so a small bias in one should not directly affect the handling of the other. There are a number of such "fixed" biases in model simulations, which do not seem to affect the model's

ability to get a lot of the climate “right” (see above). Naturally, there is a big effort to understand the causes of such biases and to eliminate them.

As noted above, models do in fact simulate well many of the features listed, such as ENSO, PDO, etc. Figure 16 illustrates differences in climate *change* simulations (not simulation of the current climate) for small regions of the USA, based on model runs that must be ~10 years out of date, given the source material was published 8 years ago.

### No evidence that current models are any better

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LBC present models as based on simple Newtonian physics and known facts concerning the motion of the earth. They claim that the inputs are not “tweaked.” But models are tweaked to represent the mean state of the global climate and the seasonal cycle. The models also incorporate dozens of arbitrary parameters based on what is called “expert judgment,” mostly related to cloud physics [see for example the publications of Murphy et al. and Stainforth et al.]. The parameterization chosen by individual investigators account for most of the wide variability of the climate sensitivity of models which ranges from about 1 degC for a doubling of CO2 to 5degC or more – and even to 11.5 degC for a particular choice of cloud parameters.

The same models that the IPCC claims are well reproducing the observed global temperatures have great difficulty in accounting for regional temperatures or even for zonal temperatures or even for hemispheric temperatures. As noted in the NIPCC report they do not explicitly take into account dimming and brightening of solar radiation incident at the surface, nor the negative feedback effects from dimers – which must become appreciable as water vapor concentration increases with temperature.

The recent studies of climate sensitivity by Monckton, Spencer and Braswell, Douglass and Christy, have led to values of the order of 0.5 degC, considerably less than would be obtained if there were no feedback whatsoever to offset the GH warming of increasing CO2. Hence there must be a negative feedback in the atmosphere-ocean system, which is likely to be that of water vapor and having to do with a negative feedback from clouds or a drying of the upper troposphere (NIPCC Fig 15). All current climate models implicitly assume a positive feedback from water vapor, which amplifies the warming from CO2 by a factor of about three. In other words, without these positive GH effects of water vapor the CO2 effects would be of little consequence.

It is probably futile to argue further about the reliability of climate models, but one may ask whether the most recent IPCC report [2007] has predicted the fact that the climate has not warmed in the last decade. This fact is proving to be embarrassing to modelers who have had to invoke non GH effects to account for the observations.

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### SECTION I SHUKLA QUOTE

Singer et al. (2008) quotes Jagadish Shukla, a leading climate researcher and proponent of higher-resolution climate modelling. Shukla advocates large investments in research and in computer technology, to allow climate models to be run at ~1km horizontal resolution (which would take about a million times as long to run as present climate models). At such scales, models would directly simulate many cloud processes, which are currently “parameterised” and would likely be able to accurately simulate tropical cyclones and other tropical storms and rainfall processes, and monsoon variability.

Singer et al. (2008) quotes Shukla as stating: “Climate models are woefully inadequate to simulate and predict Asian summer Monsoon precipitation. The Asian summer Monsoon is the largest single abnormality in the global climate system”

In the listed reference, Shukla actually states: “The Asian summer monsoon, manifested in all its glory and fury over the Indian subcontinent, is the largest seasonal abnormality of the global climate system”

Nowhere does Shukla say climate models are “woefully inadequate” (though he certainly discusses model shortcomings, with a view to encouraging funding for higher-resolution models, as discussed above). Further, he does not describe the monsoon as the “largest single abnormality” but the “largest seasonal abnormality”. How these errors of transcription crept in to Singer et al. (2008) is unknown.

[Madhav Khandekar -- Let me now clarify the points RE: Indian/Asian Monsoon: Shukla mentions rightly that " Asian Monsoon is the largest seasonal anomaly". If we used the word "largest single anomaly" then it should be corrected, it is perhaps a typo ( an unfortunate one, I will say).

Re: Our statement that " Climate models are woefully inadequate to simulate many features of the Indian Monsoon" This is a paraphrasing of Shukla's assessment, NOT necessarily in exact words, as these critics (Lowe et al) seem to imply.

What is the BIG Deal about whether Shukla actually used the word "woeful" or not? The word woeful was my choice, based on my long experience with Monsoon models and in particular the assessment of Mrs Sulochana Gadgil, a Prof at Bangalore Inst of Sc in India ( a highly respected atmospheric scientist who obtained her Ph D at MIT under Jules Charney in the mid-1960s). Mrs Gadgil uses much stronger language in assessing the monsoon models performance that "after 50 yrs of R&D the models still cannot simulate , in some cases, even the right sign of the monsoon precip anomaly' (these are the words used by Mrs Gadgil in her paper " Monsoon Prediction: Yet another failure?" from Current Science 2005, published in India. I can provide exact ref to Mrs Gadgil's paper later]

With such strong words, I felt motivated to use the word "woefully inadequate" in my assessment of Shukla's conclusion in his 2-page paper from Science 2007.]

## **SECTION J. REGIONAL CLIMATE CHANGE**

As discussed elsewhere, there is most uncertainty (“noise”) in the climate system at small scales: either short time scales or small spatial scales. Hence, it is well known that regional climate change projections are much more uncertain than those for global change. However, some regional changes are robust (i.e. all models agree on them), such as temperature change in many regions (including over New Zealand), and even the pattern of wintertime rainfall change over New Zealand. The reason the latter looks so predictable is that New Zealand rainfall patterns are strongly controlled by the westerly wind circulation (interacting with the mountains). Changes in the westerlies are very large-scale in nature, and all IPCC AR4 models show the same changes in the Southern Hemisphere westerlies in their future climate projections.



**“Computer models are notoriously inadequate in simulating or projecting regional effects, particularly when it comes to precipitation”.**

This statement ignores much of what can be reliably predicted at the regional scale. The fact the quoted NACC report was withdrawn from circulation suggests it was poorly written and compiled, rather than being an indictment of climate models. **No, the NACC report, designed to alarm the US public, was just ridiculously wrong. NIPCC Fig. 16 demonstrates graphically that GCMs do very poorly in handling precipitation, esp. on a regional scale.**

The Trenberth quote (first paragraph) covers the idea that model projections are not predictions, because we cannot know what future GHG emissions and concentrations will be. The second paragraph says that models are not initialized with today's state of the IPO, AMO, etc, but are started from a state that is representative of the current climate, rather than being a particular observed state. Hence, their projections for the coming few years or decades cannot be taken as forecasts of the state of ENSO, PDO, etc for the coming couple of decades. But that's not the point of climate change modelling anyway (which is what Trenberth is trying to say), the point is to simulate the long-term change resulting from increased GHG concentrations. GCMs *do* include realistic simulation of ENSO and other components of the climate system, just not the observed sequence of events.

**No need to 'spin' Trenberth. Just read what he says.**

It's worth noting here that it is now a research focus to get GCMs to correctly simulate shorter-term variability, by accurately initialising them with the current state of the climate. It's recognised that we need to know the likely evolution of the climate over the coming 20 years, as well as the overall state in 100 years. And, as Trenberth notes, it is a key to accurate regional climate change modelling, since small regions are much more influenced by internal variability in the system such as ENSO and the IPO. By the AR5, we may well have a number of model runs that tackle this problem.

The remarks about “nuclear winter” are very unusual. Far from being ideologically-driven, the work done in the 1980's was a joint effort by (mostly) US and Russian scientists and was not partisan in any way. As far as we know, the results were in no way “false” or misleading, though thankfully we have not obtained any actual observations of the real effects of a massive nuclear war! The research around the idea of “nuclear winter” is generally considered to be of high quality and has not been overturned or discredited in the 25 years since it was published. As noted by Robock (2007), nuclear winter research may well have been a factor in ending the Cold War in the late 1980s. Robock (2007) is an extension of the earlier work, with much improved climate models, focussing on regional nuclear exchanges, rather than the global war envisaged in the 1980s.

**It is worth making additional remarks about the use of models in the “nuclear winter” phenomenon. The calculations were ideologically driven by a desire to scale down nuclear weapons. I have no comment on the desirability of doing so but can testify to the fact that the models were constructed in such a way as to give the desired result, namely an unprecedented global catastrophe that would kill millions of people**

[see Appendix for details]. Paul Ehrlich went so far as to publish a paper to say it would wipe out the human race. Contrary to the claim of LBC the work on nuclear winter was not considered to be of high quality and now has largely been discredited. It is surprising that Roebuck would take up this type of investigation but it is known that he shares some of the same ideological ideas as Carl Sagan and his coauthors.

**Page 15, Conclusion - “The climate models used by the IPCC do not depict the chaotic, open-ended climate system. They cannot make reliable predictions and should not be used in formulating government policy.”**

As demonstrated by a vast array of published literature, climate models do in fact depict the climate system very well indeed. They are reliable enough to point up errors in observational data sets. They are used routinely for accurate weather and short-term (one season) climate forecasts. Their projections of global temperature change since the first IPCC report in 1990 are on target. Government policy should be based on the best available information. In terms of future changes in climate, the current crop of GCMs represents the best available information

[Lindzen -- Lowe et al are simply wrong about ENSO, PDO, AMO etc. Check the literature. Perhaps they mean that models show some signs but get amplitude and time scales and timing wrong. With the QBO, they virtually miss everything.

As I have long pointed out, water vapor feedback cannot be ascertained on the basis of cloud cleared data. Moreover, the feedback is likely to be from a change in the relative areas of moist and dry air [in the upper troposphere].

Although the water vapor feedback is crucial for models, I am not sure that this is the main feedback in nature, and the models certainly do poorly with clouds.

While summer is summer and winter is winter, most models do a fairly poor job with the annual cycle.]  
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## SECTION K. MODELS AND SOLAR RADIATION

Both Chapters 2 and 4 of Singer et al. (2008) cite Soon’s (2005) correlation of a total solar irradiance (TSI) time series with Arctic temperature as being evidence of significant forcing of climate by solar variations. (Please see the report we sent you by W. Allan on TSI for further details. The notes here on TSI are a short summary from that report). Time series of TSI, including years significantly earlier than 1978, are *reconstructions*, i.e., semi-empirical models of what TSI might have been. A semi-empirical model attempts to combine several *proxies* of TSI such as sunspot number or the relationship of the Sun to the variability of nearby Sun-like stars, into an estimate of past TSI. The relationship of TSI to these proxies is usually not physically well defined, so the reconstruction generally relies on some weighted combination of factors that are in themselves more or less uncertain. The critical test of such a reconstruction must be how well it reproduces the well-measured TSI since 1978, a period that includes nearly 3 sunspot cycles.

Soon (1995) used the Hoyt and Schatten (1993) TSI reconstruction in his correlation. This reconstruction of TSI used five proxies, namely sunspot cycle amplitude, solar equatorial rotation rate, sunspot cycle length, fraction of penumbral spots, and decay rate of the 11-year sunspot cycle (none of which is directly related to TSI). The mean value of the Hoyt and Schatten (1993) reconstructed TSI since 1978 was about  $1371.5 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ . Considering the high precision and accuracy with which TSI measurements are made, this is very much larger than the measured mean value of about  $1366.0 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ , and is a factor of 5 outside the measured range of TSI variability over 3 solar cycles.

Thus the Hoyt and Schatten (1993) reconstruction fails the crucial test of being able to reproduce the measured TSI since 1978.

TSI reconstructions, such as those of Hoyt and Schatten (1993), Lean et al. (1995), and Lean (2000), assumed the existence of a long-term variability component in the solar output in addition to the known 11-year cycle. The time-varying structure of this long-term component, typically associated with the evolution of faculae (bright patches associated with sunspots), was assumed to track either the smoothed amplitude of the solar activity cycle or the cycle length. Recent research has called such assumptions into question, and has inspired a new reconstruction of TSI based on a model of solar magnetic flux variations (Lean et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2005), which does not invoke geomagnetic, cosmogenic or stellar proxies. This reconstruction suggests that the amplitude of the background component of variation is significantly less than previously assumed. The assumed large long-term component in earlier work (e.g., Hoyt and Schatten, 1993) gives a very much larger variability in time than the new Wang et al. (2005) reconstruction. The latter reconstruction seems much more plausible than earlier reconstructions, as it relies on reasonably well-known physical processes in the solar atmosphere rather than speculative proxies such as solar cycle length or the Sun's relationship to other stars.

We emphasize again that proxy reconstructions of Total Solar Irradiance are inherently speculative semi-empirical models, and should not be confused with real measurements. For example, the reconstruction of Hoyt and Schatten (1993) fails the crucial test of reproducing the accurate TSI measurements made since 1978, and in fact grossly overestimates the TSI during this period. The new physically-based TSI reconstruction of Wang et al. (2005) also shows that the Hoyt and Schatten (1993) reconstruction almost certainly greatly overestimates the likely variability of TSI since 1880. Therefore Soon's (2005) correlation of the Hoyt and Schatten (1993) TSI with the annual-mean Arctic air temperature appears at best to be coincidental, as the displayed TSI reconstruction must be considered to be very unreliable. It should be noted that reconstructed proxy models of TSI have inherently much less physical basis than, for example, the climate models used by the Inter-governmental Panel on Climate Change.

**Christopher Monckton** -- The 1 F rise in surface temperatures in the last 30 years of the 20th century is by no means unprecedented or inexplicable. There was a similar 1 F rise in temperatures in the 1920s and 1930s, and that was well before anyone could claim CO2 was to blame. There are numerous papers in the peer-reviewed literature (e.g. Usoskin et al., 2003; Hathaway et al., 2004; Solanki et al., 2005) that demonstrate that the Sun's activity over the 70-year period centered on the early 1960s was greater than at almost any previous similar period throughout the past 11,400 years. Akasofu (2008) points out that global mean surface temperatures have been rising at a rate of approximately 1 F per century for 300 years. The considerable drop in temperatures in the past seven years (equivalent to 0.7 F per decade) has obliterated any imagined anthropogenic signal. Soon (2008) has shown that, if one allows for a lag of a decade or two caused by the uptake and release of heat by the oceans, the temperature trends of the past 30 years can be respectably explained by changes in solar activity. The 300-year warming that stopped in 1998 was the result of the steady increase in solar activity since the end of the 70-year sunspot-free Maunder Minimum in 1700; the cooling since then reflects the decline in solar activity since its peak in the 1960s and 1970s, combined with the unusually-prolonged sunspotless solar minimum of the past two and a half years. Taking the period since 1700 as a whole, it is virtually impossible to detect any anthropogenic signal. Additional atmospheric CO2 can be expected, on balance, to cause some warming: but it is now obvious that the degree of warming to be expected is considerably less than that which is imagined by the IPCC. -

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## SECTION L. THE RATE OF SEA LEVEL RISE IS UNLIKELY TO INCREASE

## **"Estimates of recent sea level rise are unreliable."**

For confirmation see discussion by Wunsch et al [J Climate 2008]

Though the report accepts that sea level is rising, the first paragraph under this heading says in effect only local sea level rise matters, the causes are complex and there is no meaningful global average. In fact, global sea level rise does matter, there is a meaningful global average for this and the causes of local sea level rise are simple and well understood. They are:

local tectonic/ice loading effects, which may enhance or diminish global sea level change, and which average each other out globally;

increase due to ocean warming – thermal expansion (global);

increase due to ice melting (global).

Satellite measurements of ocean surface elevation since ~1993 provide a comprehensive and accurate dataset for the change in global average sea level. Earlier change has been estimated from an amalgamation of tide gauge data from around the world over the last 140 years. A World Climate Research Programme compilation from February, 2008 is shown in figure 4 below. Reliability is reflected in error limits shown in light grey for the tide-gauge data. Simple subtraction of local tide-gauge-generated sea level histories from global satellite data provides the rate of local sea level rise for each location – some will be faster and some slower than the global average, depending on their tectonic setting and ice loading history.

Figure 4. [Missing – but note slight negative rise since 2005] Globally averaged sea level determined from coastal sea level measurements (solid line with one and two standard deviation error estimates, from 1870 to 2006) and from satellite altimeter data (red, from 1993 to November 2007). [Figure provided by CSIRO Marine and Atmospheric Research based on coastal tide-gauge data from the Permanent Service for Mean Sea Level (PSMSL) and altimeter data from NASA and CNES.]. From Church (2008).

## **"Bottoms-up modelling of future sea levels does not uniformly predict rising sea levels"**

The first paragraph describes the IPCC assessments of recent sea level rise (not projections of future rise) and in the second paragraph comments on curves representing geological data for the last 20,000 years (Fig. 17, Singer et al., 2008) and tide gauge measurements for the period from 1900-1980 (Fig. 18, Singer et al., 2008 ). Neither has relevance for the future, nor is there a logical structure to this section.

I disagree: Fig 17 shows a small but STEADY rise in recent millennia (see also independent coral data in The Reef). Fig 18 shows again NO ACCELERATION – even during the warming interval of 1920-1940 (discussed also in Appendix)

**“Each successive IPCC report forecasts a smaller sea level rise”**

Not so. Comparing the median values from 1995 to 2007 (63, 44, 38 cm) (what about IPCC 1990?) we need to add 10-20 cm to the last. This is to include the contribution from ice loss through changes in ice sheet flow. The report states in the text by the table that “if this contribution were to grow linearly with global average temperature change, the upper ranges of sea level rise for SRES scenarios shown in Table SPM.3 would increase by 0.1 to 0.2 m by the end of the century.” It goes on to say “Larger values cannot be excluded, but understanding of these effects is too limited to assess their likelihood or provide a best estimate or an upper bound for sea level rise.” This cautious statement was made because of the wide range of possibilities. Since then glaciologists are recognising increasing melting at ice sheet margins in contact with the oceans, and new reports published on ice loss from Greenland Antarctica indicate higher rates of sea level rise.

**“Forecasts of more rapid sea level rise not credible”**

The Singer et al. (2008) report claims there is no basis for Rahmstorf’s assumption in making his future sea level projections that future rise is proportional to global average warming, but his claim is well justified and follows IPCC practise. Global warming warms the ocean surface waters, which expand in proportion to their temperature according to the coefficient of thermal expansion. The expectation that the drop in global average temperature from 1945 to 1975 would be translated directly into sea level rise indicates a lack of appreciation of the variable lags (years to decades) in climate-ocean interactions, (Hmm – no rise observed for 1920-40)

Source of sea level rise	Rate of sea level rise (mm per year)	
	1961–2003	1993–2003
Thermal expansion	0.42 ± 0.12	1.6 ± 0.5
Glaciers and ice caps	0.50 ± 0.18	0.77 ± 0.22
Greenland Ice Sheet	0.05 ± 0.12	0.21 ± 0.07
Antarctic Ice Sheet	0.14 ± 0.41	0.21 ± 0.35
Sum of individual climate contributions to sea level rise	1.1 ± 0.5	2.8 ± 0.7
Observed total sea level rise	1.8 ± 0.5 <sup>a</sup>	3.1 ± 0.7 <sup>a</sup>
Difference (Observed minus sum of estimated climate contributions)	0.7 ± 0.7	0.3 ± 1.0

Table note:

<sup>a</sup> Data prior to 1993 are from tide gauges and after 1993 are from satellite altimetry.

<sup>10</sup> Tropical cyclones include hurricanes and typhoons.

<sup>11</sup> The assessed regions are those considered in the regional projections chapter of the TAR and in Chapter 11 of this report.

Table 1 Sea level rise since 1991, showing the substantial increase in the last decade. From IPCC (2007), Table SPM.1.

The IPCC (2007) Table SPM 1.1 shows the increase in rate of sea level rise from 1961-2003 (1.8 mm/year to 1993-2003 (3.1 mm/year). Both have significant error limits  $\sim \pm 0.6$ mm/year) but the trend is clear. Reports since the cut-off date for the IPCC review process there have been new reports about accelerated loss of ice in both Greenland and Antarctica by ocean warming the ice margins (a process not previously included in ice sheet modelling). This new factor, along with the continuing rise in global temperature, indicates higher rates of sea level rise that are not only credible, but are to be expected. It is also worth noting that sequestration of water by dams has actually reduced sea level rise by  $\sim 0.5$  mm/year for the last century (Chao et al., 2008).

Most scientists agree that estimates by Hansen of 5 m by 2100 are unrealistically high (though not impossible), but that estimates of 1-2 m are credible. (That translates to 1-2 cm per year – about ten times the current observed value!) At the same time there is a strong case that greenhouse gas emissions trajectories, established this decade, will lead to inevitable disappearance of much if not all of the ice on earth, with sea level rising 10's of metres over thousands of years.

In summary, this section contains no credible case for doubting the IPCC assessment of past sea level rise and its future projection to 2100. Indeed many scientists are arguing that estimates to 2100 will very likely increase in the next few years.

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Here we have substantial differences with LBC.

First of all, I contend that the historic data are very significant in predicting future rise. For instance, they give us some information about the crucial question about whether temperature rise accelerates the rate of sea level rise. From what we can tell from NIPCC figure 17 there has been no response to the substantial temperature changes of the last few thousand years, based on data from corals and peat. Also the tidal gauge data, which became widely available in the 20<sup>th</sup> century showed no rapid rise the temperature rise 1920-40.

Having said this however, we must admit that there are great differences of opinion among the authorities in the literature. Bruce Douglas and Sid Holgate do not accept the satellite data of the past two decades and maintain that there has been no acceleration. Others give great weight to the satellite data and see an acceleration. In view of what I said earlier on temperature of the past 30 years, I don't see why there should be an acceleration, so I would go with Douglas and Holgate. Additionally, I will quote the well known MIT oceanographer Carl Wunsch who states:

"The widely quoted altimetric global average values may well be correct, but the accuracies being inferred in the literature are not testable by existing in situ observations. Useful estimation of the global averages is extremely difficult given the realities of space-time sampling and model approximations. Systematic errors are likely to dominate most estimates of global average change: published values and error bars should be used very cautiously."

The IPCC estimates are all over the place. And I agree that by taking median values one can narrow the range somewhat. I note that LBC do not mention the 1990 report. However, the IPCC is subject to substantial disagreements among its authors, some of whom have a cataclysmic view on sea level rise and imagine contributions from the melting of ice sheets. Their opinions are reflected in the additional sentences added by the IPCC to satisfy their demands. If there were any truth to their statements, then one should see such sea level rises during periods of rapid temperature rise, for example during 1920-40 and also during the Medieval Warm Period. The coral data all give contrary evidence.

LBC ignore the important effects of ice accumulation, principally on the Antarctic continent, which offset the factors that cause a positive rise in sea level. One of my principal objections to Rahmstorf is that he ignores the negative effects of sea level rise that come from ocean warming and increased precipitation.

Finally we have to return to the question of temperature rise and my earlier discussion. I think everyone would agree that if there is no significant temp rise during the 21<sup>st</sup> century, then there is unlikely to be any change to the ongoing rate of sea level rise.

For further information, see Appendix

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## SECTION M. DO ANTHROPOGENIC GREENHOUSE GASES HEAT THE OCEANS?

Section 6 deals with ocean heat content and focuses on a paper published by Hansen et al. (2005) that describes the Earth's current energy imbalance. This widely cited paper (over 100 citations in peer reviewed literature in 3 years) is one of several recent publications demonstrating that the heat content of the oceans is increasing. It is one of the observations of AGW showing a strong signal that is simply explained by the hypothesis of warming due to the rapid increase of long-lived atmospheric greenhouse gases.

The *Science* 2005 paper by Hansen may be widely cited and seems to be accepted by LBC. Hansen claimed that the paper provided the 'smoking gun' for AGW. However, we believe that it is junk and should not have been published and should not have been accepted by referees and not accepted by *Science Magazine*. Instead *Science Magazine* actually promoted the paper and first published it in its *ScienceExpress* section online. It is significant perhaps that IPCC 2007 does not feature the Hansen paper and apparently does not consider it strong evidence for AGW. See Appendix for details.

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### Page 18; paragraph 2.

Three, recent peer-reviewed papers (Gouretski 2007, Lyman 2006 and Willis 2007) are cited to show that heat storage in the oceans has stopped increasing over the last few years. However, the last paper cited (Willis et al 2007) is actually a correction of earlier work by Lyman et al. (2006) showing that two different instrumental systematic



biases led to the false conclusion that the upper ocean had cooled over the last few years. Part of this problem related to a new, automated ocean float temperature measurement system, ARGO (see description below)

Because errors can often appear when new measurement techniques are introduced, we think it is worth detailing what happened in this case because it has other parallels in observational systems used in climate science. However note, that despite this correction and the fact that the most recent publications now conclude that ocean heat content is increasing, the Internet continues to be full of reports that the oceans have, contrary to expectation, cooled over the period 2003-2005. Singer et al. (2008) cite Willis et al. (2007) as part of their evidence for recent oceanic cooling. However they seem to have missed the implications of the corrections detailed in this paper; i.e. that the oceans are warming, not cooling.

The results on ocean heat content have been in a state of flux -- partly because of corrections to published data. The most recent letter by Josh Willis says the following (10/10/2008):

"I have my own estimates of interannual temperature variability over depth. However, my estimates are confined to the altimeter period (1993 to the present) ... Unfortunately, I am also still kicking the tires on my estimate of temperature variability, given this recent discovery of the data biases, so it's not quite ready to distribute. You can get a look at some of my earlier estimates, however, in this JGR paper: <http://www.agu.org/pubs/crossref/2004/2003JC002260.shtml> Although this paper also contains some bad XBT data, I do not think there will be order 1 changes to most of the results there once the data are corrected."

Ocean heat content changes are potentially a robust method to evaluate climate model results that suggest the planet is currently well out of thermal equilibrium (i.e. it is absorbing more energy than it is emitting). However, the ocean is extensive and the historical measurement networks are plagued with sampling issues in space and time. Large scale, long-term global compilations (such as by Levitus et al, 2005; Willis et al, 2004) and regionally (i.e. Southern Ocean – Gille, 2003) have indicated that the oceans have warmed in recent decades at pretty much the rate the projected by models.

The most recent analysis of ocean heat content that we know of appeared in Nature this June (Domingues et al., 2008). A plot from this paper (Figure 4) is shown below with the black line comparing their analyses with previous work. The data, taken against a baseline of 1961, exhibit decadal variability, but show a systematic increase in ocean heat content in line with expectations of extra radiative forcing from increases in long-lived greenhouse gases. This is at complete odds with the claims in Chapter 6 (p18) of Singer et al. (2008).

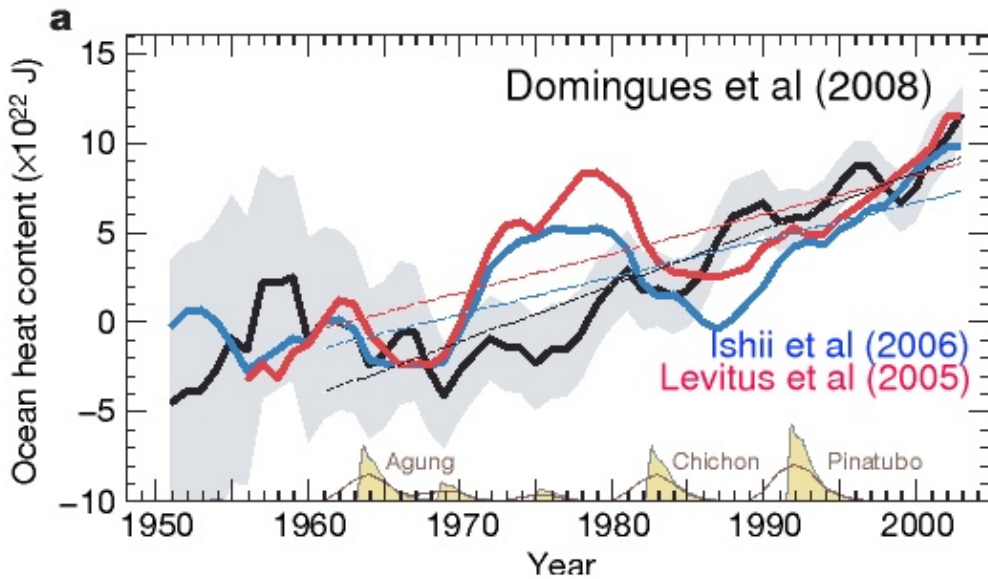


Fig. 4. A recent analysis of ocean heat content (Domingues et al., 2008) (black line) compared to that of earlier research.

The ARGO programme is global array of more than 3200 free-drifting, profiling automated floats that measure the temperature and salt content of the upper 2000 m of the ocean. This programme was initiated in 2000 and allows, for the first time, continuous monitoring of water properties of the upper ocean, with all data being relayed by satellite and made publicly available within hours after collection. NIWA is the NZ contributor to this programme. The programme offers the potential to dramatically increase the sampling density in the oceans and provide continuous, well spaced data from the least visited, but important parts of the world (e.g. Southern Ocean). Data on ocean heat content from these floats has therefore been eagerly anticipated.

Initial ARGO measurements were incorporated into the Willis et al., (2004) analysis, but as the world-wide ARGO data started to achieve prominence in oceanographic databases, Lyman et al. (2006) reported that the ocean seemed to be cooling, as reported in Chapter 6 of Singer et al. (2008). These were only short term changes, and while few would confuse one or two anomalous years with a long-term trend, they were a little surprising, even if they didn't change the long term picture very much.

We think that there are a number of wider lessons here, which show the self correcting nature of scientific research subject to the peer-review process: New papers need to stand the test of time before they are uncritically accepted. [LBC are inconsistent here; peer review enters into the acceptance for publication. Evaluation may come years later]

The ARGO float data are available in near real-time, and while that is very useful, any such data stream is always preliminary. It generally pays to withhold judgment on such data until calibration and other experimental procedures are verified independently and quality control processes are completed. This in our view is one of the difficulties with widespread dissemination.

The actual problem with these data was completely unknowable when Lyman et al. (2006) wrote their paper. This can be a common issue given the number of steps required to create global data sets. Whether it's an adjustment of the orbit of a satellite, a mis-calibration of a sensor, an unrecorded shift in recording station location, a corruption of the data logger or a human error, these problems are often only remedied after significant work. [I agree here]

Anomalous results are often the driver of fundamental shifts in scientific thinking. However, most anomalous results end up being resolved much more straightforwardly (as was the case with the MSU satellite issue a couple of years back).

Much of the remainder of chapter 6 deals with the “unknown way” in which what is referred to as “down welling radiation” is absorbed by the ocean 10 micron skin and even suggests an experimental set up to measure it. Because of its importance to heating in lakes and rivers as well as the oceans with wider implications for climate, this process has in fact been studied for decades and the physics of the processes involved are well known and in text books. Essentially most of the heat transfer occurs in the Ultra Violet [no, visible solar radiation, which is not affected by the level of GH gases] not the Infra Red, and the heating produces a warm layer 2-4 meters in depth. Mixing processes transfer this heat to deeper parts of the ocean. The transfer due to “down welling radiation” in the surface ocean is only a small part of the energy transfer process [but it contains the essence of the GH effect. LBC seem confused on this point] Also it is actually irrelevant to the argument here because recent analyses of ARGO float and other data show that ocean heat content is increasing and that the Earth is showing an increasing energy imbalance with respect to incoming solar radiation (please see the Figure 4).

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On p.19 (not p.18) I point out a puzzle: Since downwelling infrared (GH) radiation from increasing GH gases is absorbed in the ‘skin’ of the sea surface, how much of the energy actually contributes to SST? LBC do not comment on this.

We turn to the question of how downwelling infrared radiation from GHG and clouds is absorbed in the ocean. LBC claim that “most of the heat transfer occurs in the ultraviolet, not in the IR.” Here they may be confusing the situation in two ways. The solar radiation which heats the ocean [lakes and rivers] has most of its energy in the visible not in the ultraviolet. But secondly, this is not the point. When we are talking about the GH effect, we are talking about the downwelling radiation in the infrared, mostly around 15 microns, which is totally absorbed in the ‘skin’. How much of this energy goes into outward radiation? How much is conveyed to the atmosphere in the form of sensible and latent heat (by evaporation)? How much is shared with the bulk water below the skin and contributes to the reported SST? If in fact such a process has been discussed in textbooks, I would appreciate references and more detailed discussion.

On p.18 of Singer et al. (2008) there is a discussion of discrepancies that can arise when different sea surface temperature data sets are combined. We discussed this at a book meeting with you in May [what do LBC think of the discrepancy – further discussed in Appendix?] and passed on to you a recent Nature paper by Thompson et al. (2008). It’s an important paper because it clears up a relatively large anomaly in the sea surface temperature record in 1945. This is another example of the self-correcting nature of scientific research through the peer-review process. This paper and those of Domingues et al. (2008) and Willis et al. (2007) referred to above detail the way in which different ocean temperature data sets are merged.

A subtle issue: IPCC (2007) had claimed that their models could reproduce 20<sup>th</sup> century temperatures. Now along comes Thompson (2008) and corrects the temp record What should IPCC do now?

Contrary to the assertions made at the end of Section 6 of Singer et al. (2008), the IPCC AR4 WG1 contains a thorough treatment of sea surface temperature, humidity and ocean heat content changes in its Chapter 5. Note, however, that some of this material has been superseded by recent peer reviewed publications (e.g. Domingues et al., 2008; and Thompson et al. (2008).

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## SECTION N. HOW MUCH DO WE KNOW ABOUT CARBON DIOXIDE IN THE ATMOSPHERE?

“What fraction of carbon dioxide contributes to the observed increase in carbon dioxide in the atmosphere and how much ends up in poorly understood sinks?”

I must state here that there are differences of opinion among the contributors to the NIPCC report:

- \* about the residence time of CO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere
- \* about pre-1950 levels of CO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere
- \* about the proper interpretation of C-13 isotope data

I can say two things however:

- \* the IPCC discussion of sources and sinks is also incomplete, both for CO<sub>2</sub> and methane
- \* future levels of CO<sub>2</sub> depend on mostly on economic scenarios and less on atmospheric science

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The implication of the question is that this fraction is not well known. However, exactly the opposite is true. This is one of the aspects of carbon cycle science where the quantities are well known. The “airborne fraction” or the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> derived from fossil fuel combustion that remains in the atmosphere is about 58%, averaged over a decade, and this parameter has not changed significantly since direct measurements of CO<sub>2</sub> began at Mauna Loa, Hawaii in 1958. This and its variability are described in Section 2.3.1 in AR4 (IPCC, 2007; Dave Lowe wrote that section) as well as on p516. As described in the “Active carbon cycle” article (distributed at a GM/JMcC meeting a few months back) the remainder of the CO<sub>2</sub> is partitioned between the oceans and the terrestrial biosphere in roughly equal amounts. It is fair to say that the partitioning ratio is subject to errors. However, since the advent of simultaneous <sup>13</sup>C and high precision atmospheric oxygen as tracers, these errors have been greatly reduced. See for example Manning and Keeling 2006.

### “Past trends in atmospheric levels of CO<sub>2</sub> are poorly understood and controversial”

The statement is based on two papers by Jaworowski (1994, 1992) to “repeatedly point to the unreliability of ice-core data to establish pre-1958 CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations thus creating doubt about the magnitude of the human

contribution to the current atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration.” We have covered ice-core records in previous questions and book meetings and refer you to those discussions as well as the article written by Dave Lowe and David Etheridge on the “Ice-air museum”.

Polar ice core gas analysis is another rapidly advancing field of climate science. Gas extracted from the cores has the advantage that it is not a proxy, but an actual air sample representing the past atmosphere. A large variety of cores have been obtained and the most recent deep core from the Antarctic, EPICA, (EPICA Community members 2004) has provided air samples going back almost 750,000 years covering 8 distinct ice ages.

As discussed by David Etheridge much research has gone into checking the integrity of the ice core/air storage process as well as gas extractions, and these studies are published in the international literature. David Etheridge sent you a selection of these covering the Law Dome Antarctic cores (please see his email of 24 April). As pointed out in that literature, one key test of ice core gas records is the consistency with which they track the modern atmospheric record. You requested graphs of the correlation and one of these covering the period 1700 to 2000 is shown below (Figure 5).

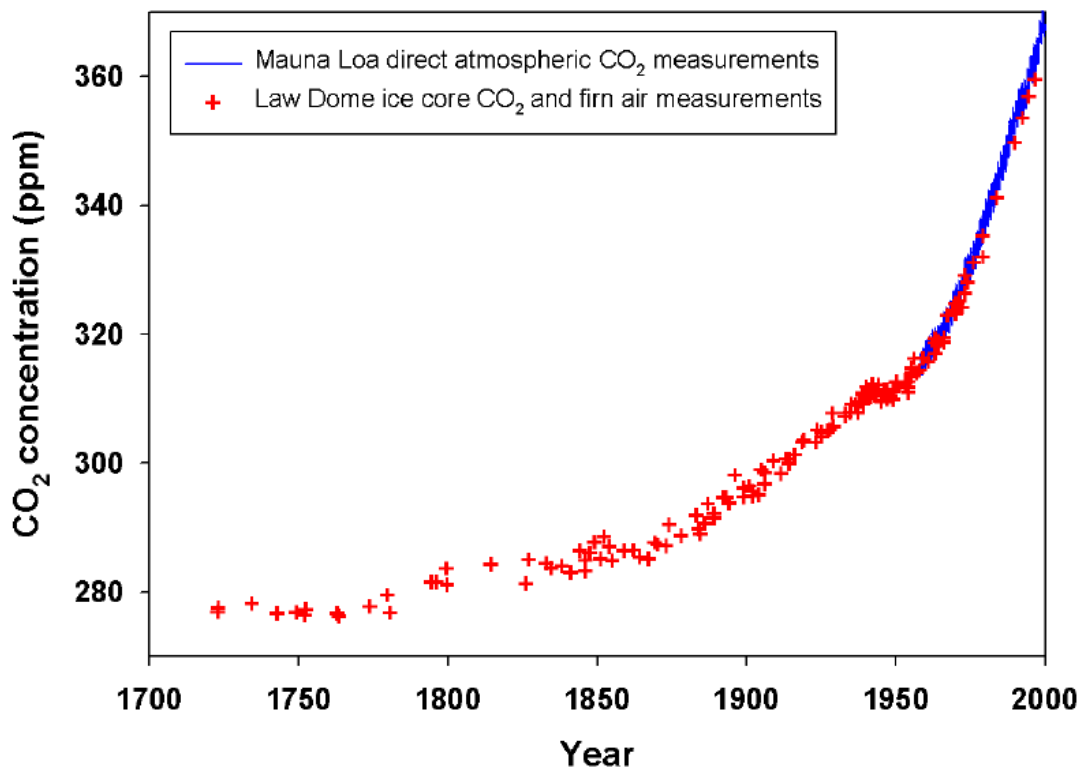


Figure 5. Verification of gas contents within ice cores using Law Dome and Mauna Loa gas measurements (Lowe and Etheridge).

In checking Jaworowski (1992), we found that it fails to present any coherent explanation of why ice core measurements in general should be considered unreliable. Instead, Jaworowski and colleagues develop an unconnected list of complaints regarding ice core methodology, without presenting any testable theories as to what the effects of those problems should be. In some cases, e.g. their assertion that the “age assumption” regarding firm consolidation is unproven, they ignored successful research already published at that time by Swiss and other groups. Since then David Etheridge and the group at CSIRO in Melbourne and other international groups have looked at this question in detail (e.g., McFarling-Meure et al. 2006).

Jaworowski (1992) makes much of the fact that the typical reported values of CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations for air extracted from ice, have changed over the decades. This should not be too surprising. As the science has evolved and measurement methods improved, researchers have learned how to do a better job. But Jaworowski (1992) argue instead that the earlier measurements should cast doubt on the later ones. They did not appear to realise that they were discussing a vital and rapidly changing area of science and that improvements in techniques were to be expected.

Beck’s (2007) paper is also cited and discussed in this section of the NIPCC report and you have already told us that we need not deal with this any further.

The sub-section continues on p. 19 with a suite of topics that are not connected and the logical flow is not clear to us. If required we will investigate each of these topics, but to save time we select two.

There are published time series showing that ocean pH is decreasing as expected from the increasing concentration of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (about 0.1 pH unit since preindustrial times) and that coral reef calcification is marginal. Singer et al. (2008) cite a paper which reports a laboratory experiment showing that one species of coral could survive ocean acidification. Our understanding from the peer reviewed literature, however, is that coral reef calcification is marginal and if required we will investigate this topic further.

Another topic covered here is the global emissions rate of CO<sub>2</sub> from the use of fossil fuels. The article states that this slowed to 1.2%/year in the period from 1975 to 2000 “reflecting the spread of more energy efficient technologies”. This statement is quite misleading because energy industry data show that CO<sub>2</sub> emissions due to global annual fossil fuel combustion and cement manufacture combined have increased by 70% over the last 30 years (e.g. Marland et al., 2006). In addition, energy industry data covering the first 7 years of this century show that the emissions growth rate is currently at least 3% per annum, much of this due to increases in fossil fuel usage in China and India. (See for example annual statistical reports of energy usage published on line by British Petroleum. The URL for their most recent report follows: <http://www.bp.com/productlanding.do?categoryId=6929&contentId=7044622>)

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**“carbon dioxide sources and sinks are poorly understood”**

This topic has been discussed previously. Carbon dioxide sources are well known and are tracked in the atmosphere using a combination of techniques including <sup>13</sup>C, <sup>14</sup>C and high precision oxygen measurements. These

data are consistent with emissions estimates from the fossil fuel and cement industries and estimates of emissions from land use changes, e.g. forest clearing. Also, as discussed previously, the sinks are not poorly understood but the partitioning ratio of the excess CO<sub>2</sub> between the terrestrial biosphere and the oceans is subject to errors. Carbon cycle science, as with most aspects of climate science, is rapidly developing field and the current status of knowledge about carbon dioxide sources and sinks is well explained in Chapter 7 and Chapter 2 section 2.3.1 of the AR4 WG1 report (IPCC, 2007).

**“role of the oceans as CO<sub>2</sub> sources and sinks is a major source of uncertainty”.**

Contrary to the sentiment expressed above, the fundamental physical, chemical and biological processes that regulate the transfer of CO<sub>2</sub> between the atmosphere and ocean have been established for at least 3 decades (e.g. Broecker and Peng, 1982) although the field continues to advance as evinced by a voluminous literature. Attention has focused on the Southern Ocean, which is regarded as major sink for carbon dioxide because of the following attributes:

it is a cold ocean, which can take up more CO<sub>2</sub> than a warmer ocean;

strong winds create surface waves that favour the physical mixing of the gas-rich ocean surface to depth;

plankton productivity, in particular algal or diatom blooms increase the uptake of CO<sub>2</sub> through photosynthesis and transfer the carbon to depth when the plankton die and sink (Law et al., 2001).

the Southern Ocean circulation captures gas-bearing or “ventilated” waters and moves them to depths via downwelling or subduction (Moy et al., 2006; Rintoul et al., 2001 ). This ventilation process is also a prominent feature of the North Atlantic Conveyor (Charles and Fairbanks, 1992).

Observations and models (e.g., Toggweiler et al., 2006) indicate that changes in the westerly wind regime and associated responses of the ocean circulation are likely to affect gas uptake or emission. The observed southward migration and intensification of the westerly wind belt appears to be strengthening the west to east-flowing Antarctic Circumpolar Current. In turn, more CO<sub>2</sub>-rich deep water is encouraged to rise around the Antarctic margin thereby reducing the uptake of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. That process, coupled with an observed warming of the Southern Ocean (Gille, 2002; Levitus et al., 2005), have the potential to reduce its efficiency as a CO<sub>2</sub> sink. As pointed out by Singer et al. (2008) there is evidence that that the efficiency of the Southern ocean to take up the gas has reduced by ~15% since 1981 (LeQuere et al., 2007). This paper prompted discussion, rather than controversy, with two commentary papers; one discussing Le Quere et al’s (2007) sampling network and the other, suggesting a possible reversal in Southern Ocean gas saturation. Commentaries and responses are published in *Science* and can be made available upon request.

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**SECTION O. THE EFFECTS OF HUMAN CARBON DIOXIDE EMISSIONS ARE BENIGN**

While higher concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub> cannot be directly associated with any individual weather extreme, e.g., storm, hurricane, such elevated concentrations change the background state of the climate system to make the risk of such extremes higher. Warmer air and oceans lead to more moisture in the air, which is a potent source of energy for all storms, especially tropical storms. Hence, it is expected that as the 21st century progresses, storm intensity is likely to increase generally. A moister atmosphere means that total rainfalls will be higher, and extreme rainfalls are expected to become more frequent and intense. The frequency of extreme hot days is also very likely to increase as mean temperatures rise.

Extreme rainfalls and heat waves have already been observed to be on the increase in many parts of the world. There is some evidence for an increase in extreme storminess, notably for tropical cyclones, but there is a lot of variability in the statistics.

[Legates -- With regard to storminess in general, it takes M&M to get rainfall -- moisture AND a mechanism to release that moisture. Just having more moisture in the atmosphere isn't enough and with more instability and enhanced moisture cycling, it may rain more frequently and be less intense (see Spencer's argument recently about a faster turnover of moisture in the atmosphere).

Let me cite two articles, which may be somewhat dated now, but which are still rather useful:

Bijl et al (1999) *Climate Research* 11:161-172.

Hayden (1999) *Journal of the American Water Resources Association* 35(6):1387-1397.

Both argue that there has been no long-term change in storminess as shown in sea level fluctuations (Bijl) or published storm tracks (Hayden). Lindzen and others have long argued that storminess is directly correlated with the pole-to-equator temperature gradient -- warmer conditions will reduce that gradient and thereby diminish the impact of extratropical storms. Data support this contention.

Note also that Sinclair and Watterson (1999) *Journal of Climate* 12:3467-3485 note:

"Decreases of 10%15% in both cyclone and anticyclone activity consistent with these circulation changes are found", "There is also a general reduction in the number and strength of intense storms, despite generally lower central pressures, which arise from global-scale decreases in sea level pressure in the doubled CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere rather than from greater storm vigor", and, my favorite, "doubled CO<sub>2</sub> leads to a marked decrease in the occurrence of intense storms as deduced from central vorticity...reductions in average cyclone central pressure that have been used in other studies to promote the possibility of enhanced storminess under greenhouse warming, are more likely the result of global-scale sea level pressure falls rather than any real increase in cyclone circulation strength." For "global-scale decreases in sea level pressure" read that the models are 'deflating' in total global pressure due to the fact that they often don't really conserve mass.]

**“Higher concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> would be beneficial to plant and animal life”**

I have no personal expertise on this topic and defer to the Appendix written by Craig Idso



It is true that in the geologic past, CO<sub>2</sub> levels have been at times higher than present values and have sustained a large flora and fauna. However, producing food and fibre for a burgeoning human population has never been an issue in the prehistoric past; much of the current research on the effects of increasing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> on plants is driven by the need to know if increasing food and fibre needs can be met in a warmer, CO<sub>2</sub>-enriched world. From the point of view of future food production, the responses of crops, pastures and forests to elevated CO<sub>2</sub> still represent a critical gap in our knowledge. This is particularly so in relation to the changing socio-economic environment (Tubiello et al., 2007).

Singer et al. (2008) claim that “there is clear and compelling evidence that higher levels of CO<sub>2</sub>, even if accompanied by higher temperatures and changes in precipitation, would be more beneficial than harmful”. They support their contention that higher concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub> would be beneficial to plant and animal life using mostly old references (e.g., Kimball 1983; Idso 1989; Idso 1992). No reference used are later than 1998, thereby ignoring the wealth of recent peer-reviewed papers based on field experiments that show there is no clear consensus on whether or not CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization will bring significant benefits.

Certainly there are many published studies showing increases in leaf photosynthesis of 30–50% in C<sub>3</sub> plant species (and 10–25% in C<sub>4</sub> plants) under doubled atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (Tubiello et al., 2007), but these large increases are not matched by large increases in crop yields. For example, in grasslands, measured biomass responses of much less than 10% are observed under CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations projected to be reached later this century. These responses, measured under the most realistic experimental setting, are reported for all the current grassland FACE experiments; e.g., Switzerland (lower N treatment of 140 Kg N) (Hartwig et al., 2000); US (California), (Dukes et al., 2005); New Zealand (Manawatu) (Newton et al., 2006); Germany (Giessen), Kamman et al., 2008), and Australia (Tasmania) (Paul Newton, personal communication). Furthermore, Kamman et al. (2008) have found that nitrous oxide emissions doubled in permanent grassland exposed for eight years to elevated CO<sub>2</sub>, highlighting the need to carefully consider feedbacks when reporting terrestrial responses. Using selected references, Singer et al. (2008) claim very high average growth enhancement of 48% for woody plants; this is not supported by the recent published data, even for young forests, which are known to show stronger growth responses than mature forests to elevated atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. In some forests well supplied with nitrogen (N), the CO<sub>2</sub> response can, however, be significant. For example, Finzi et al. (2007) show for several forest FACE sites that net primary production (NPP) was increased by 23 ± 2% when forests were grown under atmospheric concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub> projected for later this century. This increase was attributed to enhanced N uptake rather than N-use efficiency, and applies to young trees planted since 1997. Similar large responses may not occur in mature forests, and the application of data for young trees to mature forests where nutrient cycles are at steady state, is questionable (Karnosky, 2003).

The recent IPCC AR4 WG II report (IPCC, 2007 p. 220-222) also concludes, from a detailed assessment of other recent publications that, despite improvements in experimental techniques, the magnitude of the terrestrial CO<sub>2</sub>-fertilization effect remains uncertain. The three main constraints that limit the fertilization effect are the nutrient balance, forest tree dynamics and the secondary effects of CO<sub>2</sub> on water relations and biodiversity. Furthermore, greater insect damage to crops (DeLucia et al., 2008) and the enhanced growth and toxicity of some weed species (Mohan et al., 2006) also seem likely. None of these uncertainties are referred to by Singer et al (2008).

Singer et al. (2008) also claim that higher levels of CO<sub>2</sub> enable terrestrial vegetation to reverse desertification through more efficient water use. Again this not supported by some recent studies. For example, increased

production of desert shrub systems under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> only occurred during exceptional wet periods and not in dry periods (Nowak et al., 2004); also a positive response to CO<sub>2</sub> of temperate grassland was only evident during periods of high soil moisture (Morgan et al., 2004). Furthermore, interruption of nutrient supply during dry periods can severely limit water savings by trees under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> (Leuzinger et al., 2005). The current consensus for desert areas is that the effects of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> on vegetation productivity and biogeochemical cycling are uncertain, and that at best, any productivity and carbon sequestration gains may only offset the future effects of climate change and land-use pressures to a very limited extent (IPCC, 2007).

It's significant that Singer et al. (2008) make almost no reference to soil responses, which are critical in influencing plant responses to elevated CO<sub>2</sub>, especially those involving nutrient availability, biodiversity changes and carbon sequestration. This may in part be because the possibility that soils could act as a major sink to mitigate increasing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, is not supported by recent research. Several studies (e.g., Xie et al., 2005, Kool et al., 2007) indicate the potential of soil to sequester C is limited, and that soil may become saturated with C as atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> increases.

Overall, future projections of global change effects on ecosystems are limited by our inability to adequately represent the complex interactive coupling between ecosystems, climate, and the many other drivers of global change. For this reason, modelling the magnitude of the CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization effect in the terrestrial biosphere over time and at multiple scales remains a key area of uncertainty. This extends to the future impacts on herbivores and food production. Consequently, our current state of knowledge does not support either the statement that "higher CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations would be beneficial to plant and animal life", or to negate the probability based on the IPCC AR 4 reports that, overall, global change will be harmful.

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