

1 **Celebrating the Anniversary of Three Key Events in**  
2 **Climate Change Science**

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17 **In 2019, climate science will celebrate a trifecta of important 40th anniversaries.**  
18 **The first two anniversaries commemorate influential 1979 publications: a National**  
19 **Academy climate science report and a paper outlining a statistical framework for**  
20 **identifying a human-caused warming signal. The third anniversary will mark the**  
21 **availability of 40 years of satellite temperature data. Each event represents a sig-**  
22 **nificant scientific advance. The National Academy report, informed by theory and**  
23 **models, found that human-caused increases in heat-trapping greenhouse gases were**  
24 **likely to yield significant global and regional climate signals. The statistical paper in-**  
25 **troduced a rigorous framework to detect these signals and highlighted the advantages**  
26 **of focusing on global patterns of climate change. Satellite microwave radiometry pro-**  
27 **vided the required global data for pattern studies. This confluence of theory, models,**  
28 **statistical methods, and data eventually led to the identification of a human finger-**  
29 **print in the changing thermal structure of the atmosphere.**

### 30 **Anniversary 1: The Charney report**

31 In 1979, the report of an “Ad Hoc Study Group on Carbon Dioxide and Climate” was pub-  
32 lished by the U.S. National Academy of Sciences<sup>1</sup>. This is frequently referred to as the  
33 “Charney report” after the Chairman of the Ad Hoc Study Group, acclaimed M.I.T. mete-  
34 orologist Jule Charney. The Ad Hoc Study Group did not have many of the scientific ad-  
35 vantages available today. They could not draw upon multiple international climate science  
36 assessments<sup>2-4</sup> and many thousands of relevant peer-reviewed scientific papers. They did

37 not have the benefit of four decades of satellite measurements of global changes in climate<sup>5</sup>,  
38 land and ocean surface temperature datasets spanning more than 120 years<sup>6</sup>, and retrospec-  
39 tive “reanalyses” produced by weather forecast models. There were no large multi-model  
40 ensembles of climate simulations with human-caused changes in well-mixed greenhouse  
41 gases (GHGs), ozone-depleting substances, and particulate pollution<sup>2-4</sup>. They did not have  
42 access to sophisticated three-dimensional numerical models of the coupled atmosphere and  
43 ocean circulation, with detailed representation of sea-ice, atmospheric chemistry, the land  
44 biosphere, and the global carbon cycle. Model and observational estimates of natural cli-  
45 mate variability on multi-decadal timescales<sup>7</sup> – a critical element in efforts to identify an  
46 anthropogenic global warming signal – were not widely available.

47       Despite these limitations, the principal findings of the Charney report have aged re-  
48 markably well. Consider, for example, the report’s conclusions regarding the equilibrium  
49 global-mean temperature change for a doubling of pre-industrial atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> levels:  
50 “*We estimate the most probable global warming for a doubling of CO<sub>2</sub> to be near 3°C with*  
51 *a probable error of ±1.5°C*”. These estimates of equilibrium climate sensitivity (ECS)  
52 are still in accord with current understanding<sup>8</sup>, and are now supported by multiple lines  
53 of evidence that were unavailable in 1979. Examples include observed patterns of surface  
54 warming, greenhouse gas and temperature changes on Ice Age timescales, and results from  
55 multi-model ensembles of externally forced simulations<sup>3,4,8</sup>. There is also better process-  
56 level understanding of the feedbacks contributing to uncertainties in ECS<sup>9-11</sup>.

57 Charney *et al.* understood that their factor of three spread in ECS was primarily related  
58 to uncertainties in feedbacks associated with clouds. They recognized that reliable assess-  
59 ment of the net effect of high and low cloud feedbacks would be challenging<sup>12</sup>, and that  
60 “*trustworthy answers can only be obtained through comprehensive numerical modeling of*  
61 *the general circulations of the atmosphere and the oceans together with validation by com-*  
62 *parison of the observed with the model-produced cloud types and amounts.*” This foreshad-  
63 owed rigorous comparisons of model cloud properties with satellite data<sup>13</sup>. Such compar-  
64 isons ultimately led to the elucidation of robust cloud responses to greenhouse warming<sup>14</sup>,  
65 and to the finding (in the IPCC Fifth Assessment Report in 2013) that “*the sign of the net*  
66 *radiative feedback due to all cloud types is... likely positive*”<sup>9</sup>.

67 The Charney report devoted considerable attention to the critical role of the ocean in  
68 climate change. Charney *et al.* understood that heat uptake by the intermediate and deeper  
69 ocean would delay the eventual emergence of a human-caused warming signal from the  
70 background noise of natural variability. This delay, they wrote, meant that humanity “*...may*  
71 *not be given a warning until the CO<sub>2</sub> loading is such that an appreciable climate change*  
72 *is inevitable*”. The report’s recognition that “*On time scales of decades... the coupling*  
73 *between the mixed layer and the upper thermocline must be considered*” provided impetus  
74 for the development of atmosphere-ocean General Circulation Models (GCMs).

75 The authors of the Charney report also knew that scientific uncertainties did not negate  
76 the reality and seriousness of human-caused climate change: “*We have examined with*

77 *care all known negative feedback mechanisms, such as increase in low or middle cloud*  
78 *amount, and have concluded that the oversimplifications and inaccuracies in the models*  
79 *are not likely to have vitiated the principal conclusion that there will be appreciable warm-*  
80 *ing.” Further, they found that the “associated regional climate changes so important to the*  
81 *assessment of socioeconomic consequences may well be significant”, but that the GCMs*  
82 *available in 1979 were not yet sufficiently reliable for predicting these regional changes.*

83 In retrospect, the Charney report seems like the scientific equivalent of the handwriting  
84 on the wall. Forty years ago, some of the best minds in climate science concluded that  
85 humans were actively influencing the climate system. The members of the Ad Hoc Study  
86 Group issued a clear warning of the potentially significant socioeconomic consequences of  
87 human-caused warming. Their warning was accurate, and remains more relevant than ever.

## 88 **Anniversary 2: Hasselmann’s optimal detection paper**

89 The second scientific anniversary involves a paper written by Klaus Hasselmann. In the late  
90 1970s, Hasselmann was a Director of the Max-Planck Institute for Meteorology in Ham-  
91 burg, working on such diverse topics as measuring wave spectra from space, the behavior  
92 of cosmic rays in random magnetic fields, and the ocean’s role in natural climate variability.

93 In 1978, Hasselmann participated in a conference on “Meteorology over the Tropical  
94 Oceans”. The conference proceedings were published in 1979. Hasselmann’s contribution  
95 to the proceedings had no specific connection to tropical meteorology, and was entitled

96 “*On the signal-to-noise problem in atmospheric response studies*”<sup>15</sup>. This is now widely  
97 regarded as the first serious effort to provide a sound statistical framework for identifying  
98 a human-caused warming signal.

99 Prior to Hasselmann’s 1979 paper, it was already recognized that GCM simulations  
100 yielded both “signal” and “noise” when forced by changes in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> or other  
101 external factors<sup>16</sup>. The signal was the climate response to the altered external factor. In the  
102 1970s, estimates of the noise of natural internal climate variability were obtained by run-  
103 ning an atmospheric GCM, or by performing simulations with a model of the atmosphere  
104 coupled to a simple numerical representation of the upper ocean. In the presence of this  
105 intrinsic noise, statistical methods were required to identify areas of the world where first  
106 detection of a human-caused warming signal might occur.

107 One key insight in Hasselmann’s 1979 paper was that analysts should look at the sta-  
108 tistical significance of global geographical patterns of climate change. Previous work had  
109 assessed the significance of the local climate response to a particular external forcing at  
110 thousands of individual model grid-points. Climate information at these individual loca-  
111 tions was correlated in space and in time, hampering assessment of overall significance.  
112 Hasselmann noted that “...*it is necessary to regard the signal and noise fields as multi-*  
113 *dimensional vector quantities... and the significance analysis should accordingly be car-*  
114 *ried out with respect to this multi-variate statistical field, rather than in terms of individual*  
115 *gridpoint statistics*”. Instead of looking for the needle in a tiny corner of a large haystack

116 (and then proceeding to search the next tiny corner), Hasselmann advocated for a more  
117 efficient search strategy, which involved examining the entire haystack simultaneously.

118 A second key insight from the paper was that scientists have considerable information  
119 about signals and noise. Information is available from theory, observations, and models of  
120 varying complexity. For example, changes in solar irradiance, volcanic aerosols, and green-  
121 house gases produce signals with different patterns, amplitudes, and frequencies<sup>2-4, 17, 18</sup>.  
122 These unique signal characteristics (“fingerprints”) can be used to discriminate between  
123 different climatic influences, and to distinguish climate signals from climate noise.

124 Hasselmann’s paper provided a statistical roadmap for many subsequent studies. These  
125 investigations identified anthropogenic fingerprints in a wide range of independently mon-  
126 itored observational datasets<sup>2-4</sup>. Ultimately, this work provided scientific support for the  
127 conclusion reached by the IPCC in 2013: “*it is extremely likely that human influence has*  
128 *been the dominant cause of the observed warming since the mid-20th century*”<sup>4</sup>.

### 129 **Anniversary 3: Forty years of satellite temperature data**

130 In November 1978, Microwave Sounding Units (MSUs) on NOAA polar-orbiting satellites  
131 began monitoring the microwave emissions from oxygen molecules. These emissions are  
132 proportional to the temperature of broad atmospheric layers<sup>5</sup>. A successor to MSU, the  
133 Advanced Microwave Sounding Unit (AMSU), was deployed in 1998. By measuring at  
134 different microwave frequencies, MSU and AMSU allowed scientists to estimate global

135 changes in tropospheric and stratospheric temperature. Forty complete years of MSU and  
136 AMSU temperature data will be available in early 2019.

137 This 40-year history has been characterized by scientific successes and by public and  
138 political controversies. Consider the successes first. MSU and AMSU data were essential  
139 ingredients in many hundreds of research investigations. These datasets allowed scien-  
140 tists to study the size, significance, and causes of global trends and variability in Earth's  
141 atmospheric temperature and circulation, to quantify the tropospheric cooling after major  
142 volcanic eruptions, to evaluate climate model performance, and to assess the consistency  
143 between observed surface and tropospheric temperature changes<sup>2-4, 19</sup>.

144 Satellite atmospheric temperature data were also a useful test-bed for Hasselmann's  
145 signal detection strategy. They had continuous, near-global coverage<sup>5</sup>, and results were  
146 available from multiple research groups. Because each group made different choices in  
147 processing the raw microwave emissions measured by the MSU and AMSU instruments,  
148 uncertainties in the satellite temperature retrievals could be quantified. This allowed ana-  
149 lysts to explore the effect of data uncertainties on anthropogenic signal detection.

150 Signal detection studies with MSU and AMSU revealed that human fingerprints were  
151 identifiable in the warming of the troposphere and cooling of the lower stratosphere<sup>2-4, 18, 19</sup>.  
152 Tropospheric warming arises primarily from fossil fuel burning and the resulting increases  
153 in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. Lower stratospheric cooling over the 40-year satellite record is mainly  
154 attributable to anthropogenic depletion of stratospheric ozone<sup>20</sup>. In the early 21st century,



155 ozone levels in parts of the lower stratosphere began to recover, largely due to the phas-  
156 ing out of ozone-depleting substances under the Montreal Protocol. This “healing” of the  
157 ozone layer contributed to a recovery of lower stratospheric temperature in the early 21st  
158 century<sup>20</sup>. In the middle and upper stratosphere, however, where the direct radiative signa-  
159 ture of increased CO<sub>2</sub> is clearest, stratospheric cooling continues<sup>21</sup>.

160 Model projections made over 50 years ago by Manabe and Wetherald<sup>22</sup> are broadly  
161 consistent with this observational pattern of tropospheric warming and stratospheric cool-  
162 ing. The observed vertical structure of atmospheric temperature change is inconsistent with  
163 purely natural changes in the Sun’s energy output, volcanic activity, or internal variability,  
164 acting either individually or in concert<sup>18</sup>.

165 MSU and AMSU temperature data have also been at the center of scientific and polit-  
166 ical imbroglios. Some controversies were related to differences between surface warming  
167 inferred from thermometers and tropospheric warming estimated from satellites. Claims  
168 that these warming rate differences cast doubt on the reliability of the surface data have not  
169 been substantiated<sup>19,23</sup>. Other disputes focused on how to adjust for non-climatic artifacts  
170 arising from orbital decay and drift, instrument calibration drift, and the transition between  
171 MSU and AMSU instruments<sup>5,19</sup>. More recently, claims of no significant warming since  
172 1998 have been based on artfully selected subsets of satellite temperature data. Such claims  
173 are erroneous and do not call into question the reality of long-term tropospheric warming<sup>24</sup>.

174 In light of the third anniversary, it is interesting to ask when a human-caused tropo-

175 spheric warming signal first emerged from the background noise of natural climate variabil-  
176 ity. To answer the question, we apply a fingerprint method closely related to the approach  
177 described in Hasselmann’s 1979 paper<sup>15</sup>. We find that an anthropogenic fingerprint of tro-  
178 pospheric warming is identifiable with high statistical confidence in all currently available  
179 satellite datasets (Figure 1). In two out of three datasets, fingerprint detection at a 5-sigma  
180 threshold occurs no later than 2005, only 27 years after the 1979 start date of the satellite  
181 measurements (see Supplementary Information).

## 182 **Summary**

183 The three anniversaries discussed here are not unrelated. The “zeitgeist” of 1979 was favor-  
184 able for anthropogenic signal detection<sup>25</sup>. From the Charney report, which relied on basic  
185 theory and early climate model simulations, there was clear recognition that fossil fuel  
186 burning would yield a global warming signal. Klaus Hasselmann’s 1979 paper outlined  
187 a rational approach for detecting this signal. With the inception of satellite temperature  
188 measurements, scientists began compiling some of the key data required for anthropogenic  
189 signal identification. Forty years ago, theory, early modeling results, statistical methods,  
190 and climate data started to align. This confluence of scientific understanding and hard data  
191 eventually led to the detection of a human-caused tropospheric warming signal.

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273 25. Popularization of the term “zeitgeist” is frequently attributed to the psychologist E. G.  
274 Boring (1886-1968), who noted that: “...ideas do not occur in a vacuum. A new idea,  
275 to be accepted or even considered, must be compatible with existing ideas. In other  
276 words, a new idea will be tolerated only if it arises within an environment that can  
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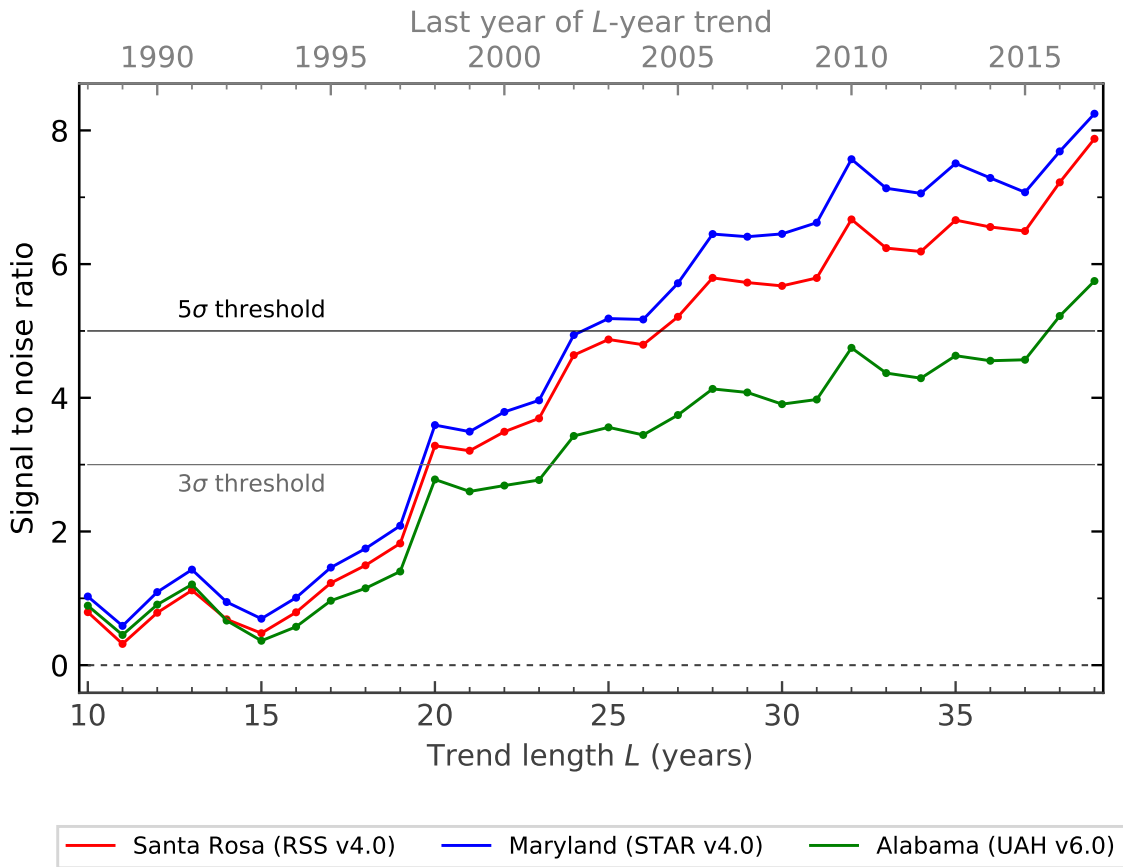


Figure 1: Signal-to-noise ratios (S/N) used for identifying a model-predicted “fingerprint” in satellite measurements of annual-mean tropospheric temperature. The fingerprint is the response to combined anthropogenic and natural external forcing, calculated using simulations of historical climate change performed with 37 different climate models. A pattern similarity metric is applied to estimate the magnitude of the fingerprint in three different time-varying satellite datasets and in long model simulations of natural internal variability. This yields “signal” and “noise” time series, respectively. For each satellite dataset, we fit  $L$ -year trends to the signal time series to obtain the numerator of the S/N ratio. The first signal trend is over the 10-year period from 1979 to 1988, the second is over the 11-year period from 1979 to 1989, and the final 39-year signal trend is over the full satellite record (1979 to 2017). The denominator of the S/N ratio is the standard deviation of the multi-model sampling distribution of non-overlapping  $L$ -year noise trends, calculated using 7200 years of temperature data from simulations of natural internal variability performed with 36 climate models. The time scale of the noise trends matches the time scale of the signal: *i.e.*, signal trends over 1979 to 1988 are compared with the standard deviation of the sampling distribution of 10-year noise trends, *etc.* The grey and black horizontal lines are the  $3\sigma$  and  $5\sigma$  thresholds that we use for estimating the detection time  $T_d$ . Further details of the model and observational data and the fingerprint method are provided in the Supplementary Information.



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