

# *LongRunMIP - motivation and design for a large collection of millennial-length AO-GCM simulations*

Article

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2                   **millennial-length AO-GCM simulations**

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## ABSTRACT

We present a model intercomparison project, LongRunMIP, the first collection of millennial-length (1000+ year) simulations of complex coupled climate models with a representation of ocean, atmosphere, sea ice, and land surface, and their interactions. Standard model simulations are generally only a few hundred years long. However, modeling the long-term equilibration in response to radiative forcing perturbation is important for understanding many climate phenomena, such as the evolution of ocean circulation, time- and temperature-dependent feedbacks, and the differentiation of forced signal and internal variability. The aim of LongRunMIP is to facilitate research into these questions by serving as an archive for simulations that capture as much of this equilibration as possible. The only requirement to participate in LongRunMIP is to contribute a simulation with elevated, constant CO<sub>2</sub> forcing that lasts at least 1000 years. LongRunMIP is a MIP of opportunity in that the simulations were mostly performed prior to the conception of the archive without an agreed-upon set of experiments. For most models, the archive contains a preindustrial control simulation and simulations with an idealized (typically abrupt) CO<sub>2</sub> forcing. We collect 2D surface and top-of-atmosphere fields, and 3D ocean temperature and salinity fields. Here, we document the collection of simulations and discuss initial results, including the evolution of surface and deep ocean temperature and cloud radiative effects. As of summer 2019, the collection includes 50 simulations of 15 models by 10 modeling centers. The data of LongRunMIP are publicly available. We encourage submission of more simulations in the future.

85 (Capsule Summary) LongRunMIP is the first collection of millennial-length simulations of com-  
86 plex coupled climate models and enables investigations of how these models equilibrate in re-  
87 sponse to radiative perturbations.

## 88 1. Motivation and objectives

89 Millennial-length climate simulations are necessary to understand the equilibrium states that oc-  
90 cur in response to external forcings, as well as the relationship between transient and equilibrated  
91 behavior. Unforced millennial-length simulations are useful as well, as they allow us to consider  
92 long-term internal variability and to analyze shorter-term variability with increased statistical cer-  
93 tainty. Reasons to study these long time scales include:

- 94 • To better understand long-term climate dynamics. Outstanding issues include the time scales  
95 of ocean circulation response (e.g., Jansen et al. 2018; Rind et al. 2018), continental drying  
96 trends (e.g., Sniderman et al. 2019), or sea level rise (e.g., Bilbao et al. 2015; Rugenstein et al.  
97 2016c).
- 98 • To help predict the impacts of 20th and 21st century emissions on century timescales, such as  
99 ice sheet stability, deep ocean warming, or polar amplification (e.g., Frölicher and Joos 2010;  
100 Clark et al. 2016; Mauritsen and Pincus 2017), which are rarely explicitly simulated using a  
101 fully-coupled climate model.
- 102 • To more accurately estimate Equilibrium Climate Sensitivity (ECS), which is the equilibrium  
103 response of the surface air temperature to a doubling of CO<sub>2</sub> due to the “fast” feedbacks water  
104 vapor, lapse rate, clouds, and sea ice but excluding Earth system feedbacks such as changes  
105 in the carbon cycle, ice sheets, or vegetation. While ECS has long been a focus of scientific

inquiry, substantial uncertainty remains as to its value (e.g., Charney et al. 1979; Knutti et al. 2017).

- To understand the relationship between the transient response of the climate and its equilibration. Since radiative feedbacks can depend on the evolution of the spatial pattern of warming (e.g., Senior and Mitchell 2000; Winton et al. 2010; Armour et al. 2013; Andrews et al. 2015; Andrews and Webb 2018) and on the background temperature (e.g., Colman and McAvaney 2009; Caballero and Huber 2013; Block and Mauritsen 2013; Meraner et al. 2013; Bloch-Johnson et al. 2015), a constant effective sensitivity of the climate is an inadequate assumption. Several methods have been proposed to predict the equilibrium response from transient simulations given a changing global feedback (Held et al. 2010; Winton et al. 2010; Armour et al. 2013; Geoffroy et al. 2013b,a; Frölicher et al. 2014; Proistosescu and Huybers 2017; Saint-Martin et al. 2019), but only fully equilibrated climate model simulations can serve to test how well these methods predict equilibrium conditions.
- To test theories for the relationship between feedbacks at different time-scales (Gregory et al. 2015, 2016; Zhou et al. 2016; Rugenstein et al. 2016a; Armour 2017; Proistosescu and Huybers 2017; Ceppi and Gregory 2017; Andrews and Webb 2018; Andrews et al. 2018), and to quantify the influence of slow, centennial-scale modes on the temperature evolution of the last century (Armour 2017; Proistosescu and Huybers 2017).
- To understand the relevance, time scales, and magnitude of the energy imbalances and drifts exhibited by climate models (e.g., Hobbs et al. 2016), with the potential application of decreasing the spin-up time needed to run these models.
- To understand the relationship between the forced response and internal variability. This relationship is currently studied using the time frame of one or two centuries, which is not

enough to robustly quantify the internal variability under consideration (e.g., Maher et al. 2018; Lutsko and Takahashi 2018; Bloch-Johnson et al. in revision), **millennial time scales with varying forcings** (e.g., Köhler et al. 2017; Khon et al. 2018; Rehfeld et al. 2018) or by using expensive large ensemble simulations **on decadal to centennial time scales** (e.g., Deser et al. 2012; Maher et al. 2019; Rodgers et al. 2015). Millennial long simulations allow us to differentiate the transient response from the equilibrated forced response, even for quantities with large internal variability, such as precipitation, droughts, or the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO), **and also the significance of a change in internal variability in a transient simulation relative to the control simulation** (e.g., Brown et al. 2017).

- To compare climate model responses and paleo proxies, e.g. of surface or deep ocean temperatures or hydrological conditions on land in order to provide an independent way of testing climate models (Gebbie and Huybers 2019; Burls and Fedorov 2017; Scheff et al. 2017).

With LongRunMIP, we aim to advance knowledge in the above mentioned areas, fill a gap in the CMIP protocols (Taylor et al. 2011; Eyring et al. 2016), and collect published data in one location for easy public access.

#### **The goals of LongRunMIP are**

- a) to continuously gather existing millennial-length simulations (both published and unpublished)
- b) to standardize the collected data (e.g., using the same units and sign conventions)
- c) to make the data publicly available and easily accessible
- d) to foster an interdisciplinary community of users working on millennial-length problems, with experts on oceanography, atmospheric dynamics, energy balance modeling, ice sheet modeling, and paleoclimatology

**The objectives of this paper** are to

- a) motivate the data collection strategy (Section 2)
- b) specify the requirements for LongRunMIP contributors (Section 2 and b)
- c) give an overview of currently submitted simulations and models (Section 2a, b, and Table 1)
- d) give a sample of some initial analysis on these simulations (Section 3)
- e) show how LongRunMIP relates to the existing literature on millennial-length simulations (Section 4a)
- f) discuss the limitations and opportunities of LongRunMIP (Section 4b and c).

## **2. Experimental design and data collection strategy**

LongRunMIP is the first and largest compilation of millennial-length simulations of complex climate models to date, where a “complex climate model” is understood to include an atmospheric, sea ice, land, and full depth ocean component, i.e. Atmosphere-Ocean General Circulation Models (AO-GCMs) with a dynamic atmosphere and ocean, as opposed to Models of Intermediate Complexity (EMICs), which are often used to study millennial-length questions in climate science (e.g., Zickfeld et al. 2013; Levermann et al. 2013). These model simulations include the “fast” feedbacks, such as changes in water vapor, lapse rate, sea ice, and clouds (Charney et al. 1979), but no “slow” feedbacks, such as changes in the ice-sheets. **Vegetation is treated differently in the models (see Section 2b).** In Section 4 we discuss the implications and limitations of **our** approach. Our goal is to collect as many simulations from as many independent models as possible, while keeping the archive and data sharing manageable. Consequently, we keep our requirements for contributions low.

173 *a. Simulations and variables*

174 A step-increase in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (in the following called “step-forcing”) is  
175 one of the simplest experiments for studying a model’s response to forcing and is used as a bench-  
176 mark simulation in CMIP3, CMIP5, and CMIP6 (Meehl et al. 2007; Taylor et al. 2011; Eyring  
177 et al. 2016). More realistic, gradual forcing scenarios have been shown to be representable by the  
178 step-forcing scenarios and exhibit feedbacks that correlate with those computed from step-forcing  
179 simulations (Good et al. 2013, 2015; Geoffroy and Saint-Martin 2014; Colman and Hanson 2016).  
180 The CMIP3 protocol required a step-forcing of *doubling* atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (here referred to as  
181 *abrupt2x*) above pre-industrial levels in a slab (i.e. non-dynamical) ocean, which for decades has  
182 been used to define ECS (e.g., Charney et al. 1979; Boer and Yu 2003c; Danabasoglu and Gent  
183 2009). The integration time scale of these model setups are a couple of decades. However, a  
184 *quadrupling* of CO<sub>2</sub> (here referred to as *abrupt4x*) above pre-industrial levels has a better ratio of  
185 forced signal to internal variability. Because the forced response was assumed to scale linearly  
186 with increased forcing, the CMIP5 protocol requested an abrupt quadrupling of CO<sub>2</sub>, now in a  
187 fully coupled model with a dynamical ocean, requiring longer integration time scales. The CMIP6  
188 protocol again requests abrupt CO<sub>2</sub> quadrupling experiments, but encourages also the submission  
189 of abrupt CO<sub>2</sub> doublings, to study the relation between different forcing levels (Eyring et al. 2016;  
190 Good et al. 2016). CMIP5 and 6 protocols require the submission of 150 years of model output.  
191 A representative response of surface temperature anomalies and top of the atmosphere (TOA) ra-  
192 diative imbalance to an *abrupt4x* scenario is shown in Fig. 1. All anomalies mentioned in this  
193 paper are computed as the difference of the experiment from the average of the control simulation.  
194 After the 150 years of CMIP protocol length (blue shading) and after 1000 years (the minimum  
195 contribution to LongRunMIP, light red shading), the surface temperature response of the exem-



196 plary model shown here has reached 75 % and 88 % of its final value respectively, while the TOA  
197 radiation has equilibrated 85 % and 93 % of the forcing respectively ( $7.6 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  for this model).  
198 Thus, the final equilibration is a CPU-intensive exercise; the model shown here needs 4000 years  
199 to balance the final  $0.5 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  (dark red shading).

200 The set of variables we collect is motivated by the interest of the LongRunMIP contributors and  
201 organizers in ECS, temperature and time dependent feedbacks, and deep ocean warming. Table  
202 1 lists the variable names, units, and temporal and spatial resolution of the requested variables.  
203 The naming and sign conventions follow the CMIP5 protocol<sup>1</sup>. Given the large amount of data  
204 involved, we have kept our requested variable list low to allow as many groups as possible to  
205 participate. For the same reason, we do not request the data to be “CMORized”<sup>2</sup>, i.e. written in  
206 conformance with the CMIP standards. However, we do homogenize signs, variable long names,  
207 and units, and also provide a regridded version of the fields, as well as global means.

#### 208 *b. Minimal, optimal, and current contributions*

209 The *minimal requirement* to contribute to LongRunMIP are annual fields of a single simulation  
210 of any  $\text{CO}_2$  forcing scenario that has at least 1000 years of constant forcing, along with a control  
211 simulation of any length. The complexity of the model should be CMIP5-class and include dy-  
212 namic atmosphere, ocean, and sea ice components. An *optimal contribution* comprises monthly  
213 fields of fully equilibrated *abrupt2x*, *4x*, and *8x* simulations and a control simulation of several  
214 millennia.

215 Table 2 lists the model characteristics of the *current* contributions. Because the archive is assem-  
216 bled from experiments initiated independently for research purposes by multiple modeling groups,  
217 there is no pre-defined protocol like for the CMIP simulations. The models are diverse in origin

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<sup>1</sup>[http://cmip-pcmdi.llnl.gov/cmip5/data\\_description.html](http://cmip-pcmdi.llnl.gov/cmip5/data_description.html)

<sup>2</sup><https://pcmdi.llnl.gov/CMIP6/Guide/dataUsers.html>

218 and sample the CMIP5 range of models well (see discussion on model genealogy in Knutti 2010).  
219 Table 2 lists references for each model and publications using (parts of) the model output. Most  
220 of the current contributions to LongRunMIP are extensions of CMIP5 simulations, sometimes  
221 with updated model versions, while one model is an extension of a CMIP3 and another model an  
222 extension of a CMIP6 contributions (CCSM3 and CNRM-CM6-1 respectively).

223 Many of our current contributions fall short of the optimal expectation for equilibrium, because  
224 even several millennia are insufficient for the deep ocean to equilibrate (see discussion around  
225 Fig. 4). However, a few millennia appear to be enough for the surface temperature and TOA  
226 radiative imbalance to reach a new steady state in most models (see Section 3), and many questions  
227 can be adequately addressed with the current contributions. Our approach is to be inclusive, and  
228 to leave it to the user to determine the degree of equilibration needed for their research and to  
229 develop criteria for model selection.

230 Most contributions are step-forcing simulations, generally to 2x or 4x pre-industrial CO<sub>2</sub> con-  
231 centrations (in Fig. 2 abrupt2x in colored in yellow, abrupt4x in orange, abrupt8x in dark red;  
232 abrupt2.4x and abrupt4.8x in dark and light pink). There are currently three exceptions: 1) some  
233 model simulations have gradual increases in CO<sub>2</sub> at 1% per year until doubled or quadrupled con-  
234 centrations are reached, after which the concentration is kept constant (1pct2x and 1pct4x, light  
235 and medium red in Fig. 2). 2) One model simulates the 1850-2010 period, after which CO<sub>2</sub> in-  
236 creases either piecewise linearly for 90 years until reaching 2.4x pre-industrial values (CCSM3II).  
237 3) Finally, one model simulates the historical period and then the CMIP5 extended representative  
238 concentration pathway 8.5 (including CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O, CFC11, and CFC12 in addition to CO<sub>2</sub>) until  
239 year 2300 after which all forcing agents are kept constant (RCP8.5+, violet in Fig. 2) For the  
240 models that did not contribute a a millennial-long step-forcing simulation, we collect short (typ-  
241 ically 150 year) step-forcing simulations, generally from the CMIP5 archive. These simulations

242 can be used to estimate the effective climate sensitivity and to relate transient and equilibrium  
243 responses. They are not mentioned in Table 2 and Fig. 2.

244 Most contributors were able to submit all requested variables. Some models only stored annual  
245 output, while for a few models the entire model output (including many more variables than listed  
246 in Table 1) is available. In principle, but with considerable effort, additional variables not listed in  
247 Table 1 could be requested from some or all contributors.

248 Some models are outliers in some sense. For example, the simulation *abrupt4x* of FAMOUS  
249 warms anomalously strong (Fig. 2 and 7) due to a shortwave cloud effect which is positive through-  
250 out the simulation and longwave clear-sky effect, which increases anomalously strongly (not  
251 shown, see Rugenstein et al. (2019)). In principle though, such extreme behavior could represent  
252 possible characteristics of the real world (e.g., Bloch-Johnson et al. 2015; Schneider et al. 2019).  
253 Another atypical model is EC-Earth-PISM, which is the only model with an interactive Greenland  
254 ice sheet. This additional component and its historical and RCP8.5+ forcing scenario makes it  
255 harder to compare the simulation to other models and attribute changes to one forcing component.  
256 This model also does not equilibrate but finally produces a negative TOA imbalance, which prob-  
257 ably would increase if the simulation was integrated further. We encourage similar “problematic”  
258 submissions, since our focus is on understanding model behavior and the large range of model  
259 responses (discussed in Section 3).

260 In nine models, the vegetation is fixed to pre-industrial conditions (ECHAM5, CCSM3,  
261 CCSM3II, HadCM3L, FAMOUS, MIROC32, ECEARTH, GISSE2R, CNRMCM61), while the  
262 other seven models have dynamic vegetation schemes (MPIESM11, MPIESM12, CESM104,  
263 HadGEM2, GFDLESM2M, GFDLCM3, IPSLCM5A).

### 3. Sample of model output

#### *a. Imbalances in the control simulation and drift*

In principle, the TOA radiative imbalance should be zero in a control simulation. Most models contributing to LongRunMIP do not loose or gain energy (Fig. 3). However, some models that are equilibrated in the sense that they show no substantial drift, still have a constant energy leakage. For CMIP5 models, imbalances of the same order of magnitude (and larger) have been shown to be uncorrelated with the forced response (Hobbs et al. 2016). If computing atmospheric anomalies, we suggest **users** to take the difference of each time step to the time-averaged control simulation imbalance, except for CCSM3II and GFDL-CM3 for which the difference to a polynomial fit to the control simulation time series seems appropriate (see Fig. 3).

The deep ocean (defined here as **depth level around 2 km**) has an astonishingly small drift in the global average in most models (Fig. 4, lowest panel). While the surface ocean time scales closely follows the global mean surface air temperature anomaly, the deep ocean takes centuries to equilibrate. Panel a and b of Fig. 4 display the surface and deep ocean temperature anomalies, computed as the difference of the forced and control simulations, while the lowest panel shows the absolute temperatures of the deep ocean in the control simulations to indicate the model spread in the base state. Previous work on long-term trends in deep ocean temperature and salinity shows that these trends **may** reflect ongoing changes in stratification and the strength and depth of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC; e.g., Stouffer and Manabe 2003; Rugenstein et al. 2016a; Marzocchi and Jansen 2017; Jansen et al. 2018). Even if the energy flux imbalance at the TOA or the ocean surface are close to a new steady state this does not necessarily indicate that the deep ocean is equilibrated as well (Zhang et al. 2013; Hobbs et al. 2016; Marzocchi and Jansen 2017). Reaching deep ocean equilibration may not be necessary for studies concerned with

287 surface properties only. However, for interpretation of paleo proxies and comparison with model  
288 simulations, distinguishing between the transient and equilibrium response in the intermediate or  
289 deep ocean is necessary (Zhang et al. 2013; Marzocchi and Jansen 2017; Rind et al. 2018; Jansen  
290 et al. 2018).

291 *b. Evolution of surface temperature and cloud radiative effect*

292 The evolution of large scale surface air temperature patterns on decadal to millennial time scales  
293 (Fig. 5) are robust among models and different forcing levels. The simulations show a strong land-  
294 sea warming contrast on short time scales and little warming over the Southern Ocean on decadal  
295 to centennial time scales (e.g., Manabe et al. 1991; Gregory 2000; Joshi and Gregory 2008; Geoff-  
296 froy and Saint-Martin 2014; Armour et al. 2016). A warming pattern reminiscent of the positive  
297 phase of ENSO and the Interdecadal Pacific Oscillation occurs throughout the Pacific basin (panel  
298 b; Held et al. 2010; Song and Zhang 2014; Andrews et al. 2015; Luo et al. 2017) but decays on  
299 centennial to millennial time scales (panel c and d), with a large model spread in time scales (not  
300 shown). As it approaches equilibrium, the temperature pattern becomes more homogeneous, the  
301 land-sea warming contrast reduces (e.g., Held et al. 2010; Geoffroy and Saint-Martin 2014), and  
302 the Southern Hemisphere high latitudes keep warming beyond year 1000. As in previous studies,  
303 the AMOC first declines (Gregory et al. 2005; Zhu et al. 2014; Kostov et al. 2014; Trossman et al.  
304 2016) and then recovers (Stouffer and Manabe 2003; Li et al. 2013; Zickfeld et al. 2013; Rugen-  
305 stein et al. 2016a; Rind et al. 2018), resulting in a delayed warming in the North Atlantic. Panel  
306 a, b, and e correspond to the blue shading in Fig. 1, and are known from CMIP5 simulations (e.g.,  
307 Andrews et al. 2015), while panel c, d, f, and g highlight that the simulations still warm substan-  
308 tially on centennial to millennial time scales, mainly in areas with more sensitive – i.e. positive  
309 or small negative – feedbacks (Rugenstein et al. 2019). Normalizing the zonal-mean temperature

310 anomaly by the global mean warming reveals the relative **zonal-mean** warming (Fig. 6). Arctic am-  
 311 plification begins very early in the simulations and warming throughout the Southern Hemisphere  
 312 is lower than the global average in almost all models for the first centuries. Between year 100 and  
 313 1000 the Southern Hemisphere warms more than the Northern Hemisphere in all latitudes pole-  
 314 ward from 30°, in some regions by more than 4 K. Antarctic warming slowly increases, but is still  
 315 substantially less than Arctic amplification (e.g., Salzmann 2017). In a couple of models, the am-  
 316 plitude of Antarctic and Arctic amplification is the same after 4000 years of model integration time  
 317 (GISSE2R and ECHAM5; Li et al. 2013), while in other models the Antarctic amplification stays  
 318 substantially smaller and still increasing after a couple of thousand years. LongRunMIP shows  
 319 that there is no reduction in model spread in the polar regions through time and that although all  
 320 models follow a similar large scale pattern evolution (Fig. 5), the local response time scales, e.g.  
 321 in the North Atlantic, Southern Ocean, or equatorial Pacific differ by hundreds to thousands years.

322 While the large scale temperature response is rather robust between models and simulations,  
 323 the cloud radiative effect (CRE) differs strongly in magnitude and time evolution, both between  
 324 models and between forcing levels for the same model (Fig 7). We show the shortwave CRE –  
 325 computed as the difference between “all sky” and “clear sky” shortwave radiative fluxes (e.g.,  
 326 **Ramanathan et al. 1989; Ceppi et al. 2017**) – as a function of surface air temperature anomaly.  
 327 The models disagree in the overall sign, as expected from CMIP5 models on shorter time scales  
 328 (e.g., Vial et al. 2013; Caldwell et al. 2015), but can even change sign within a single simulation  
 329 (e.g., ECEARTH or CESM *abrupt8x*). The strength of variation in time within one simulation  
 330 can depend strongly on the forcing level (e.g. MIROC32 *1pct2x* vs. *1pct4x*) and the time scales  
 331 of change differ between the models (e.g. IPSLCM5R vs. MPIESM12 *abrupt4x*). For some  
 332 simulations, cloud response barely changes with temperature, contributing negligibly to the overall  
 333 feedback (e.g. MPIESM12 *abrupt16x*, CESM104 *abrupt4x*, and MIROC32 *1pct2x*).

## 4. Discussion and Outlook

### *a. Published millennial-length simulations*

Models of intermediate complexity are the most common tools used to study century to millennial time scales in the climate system (e.g., Zickfeld et al. 2013; Eby et al. 2013; Levermann et al. 2013; Rugenstein et al. 2016c; Jansen et al. 2018). However, they usually have a poorly resolved atmosphere and little or no representation of cloud processes. In contrast, the publications in Table 3 feature millennium-length AO-GCM simulations. Asterisks mark contributions to LongRunMIP. These papers provide a solid body of work on millennial-length climate simulations, but rarely use the same forcing levels and simulation length and focus on different aspects of the climate system. Three papers compare model formulation and processes of two AO-GCMs each (Frölicher et al. 2014; Paynter et al. 2018; Krasting et al. 2018), but otherwise models have not been systematically compared against each other. Fig. 4 and 7 show that AO-GCMs can strongly differ in their behavior. Spatial patterns of e.g., precipitation and surface heat fluxes also vary strongly between models and between different forcing scenarios for the same model (not shown), suggesting that some mechanisms and processes discussed in the published literature are not generalizable across models. For example, there is disagreement about which regions are thought to dominate the changing feedback parameter (Senior and Mitchell 2000; Andrews et al. 2015; Meraner et al. 2013; Caballero and Huber 2013) or whether or not, and on which time scales, the AMOC recovers from its initial reduction (Voss and Mikolajewicz 2001; Stouffer and Manabe 2003; Li et al. 2013; Rind et al. 2018; Thomas and Fedorov 2019). Paleo climate simulations are often several thousand years long, however, they usually include boundary conditions such as ice sheets or changing continental configurations, which differ from the ones used here. However, paleo climate studies often discuss equilibration time scales and deep ocean temperature trends relevant to the types

357 of models included in LongRunMIP (e.g., Brandefelt and Otto-Bliesner 2009; Zhang et al. 2013;  
358 Klockmann et al. 2016; Marzocchi and Jansen 2017; Gottschalk et al. 2019).

## 359 *b. Limitations*

360 LongRunMIP analyses are currently limited mainly by the collected *variables* (Table 1). In-  
361 cluding cloud fields and 3D atmospheric temperature and humidity fields, **for example**, would  
362 allow users to study atmospheric dynamics and radiative feedbacks in more detail. The *differ-*  
363 *ent forcing scenarios* of model contributions to LongRunMIP are both a strength and weakness.  
364 Minimal requirements **have** encouraged a large number of contributions so far. However, study-  
365 ing a single forcing scenario requires model selection or scaling between different forcing levels.  
366 *Slab ocean simulations*, which replace a model’s dynamical ocean with a much shallower non-  
367 dynamical mixed-layer, are a computationally cheap tool to compare fast and slow time scales and  
368 the relevance of surface warming patterns (Boer and Yu 2003c; Danabasoglu and Gent 2009; Li  
369 et al. 2013). We hope to receive submissions of these simulations in the future, to allow analysis of  
370 their utility. Century to millennial-time scales in the real world include more processes and *Earth*  
371 *System Feedbacks* than are included in LongRunMIP simulations, such as the carbon cycle, vege-  
372 tation feedbacks, forcing agents other than CO<sub>2</sub> (such as other greenhouse gases or aerosols), ice  
373 sheets, glacial rebound effects, changes to continental configuration, and orbital variation. Further,  
374 the real climate system is never in equilibrium or steady state, because the forcing continuously  
375 changes (e.g., Köhler et al. 2017). These Earth system feedbacks and additional forcings must be  
376 taken into account when comparing the LongRunMIP models with paleo proxies or when project-  
377 ing or predicting changes in future centuries or millennia.



378 *c. Summary and expected impact*

379 LongRunMIP is the first archive of millennial-length simulations of complex climate models,  
380 featuring 50 simulations of 15 models by 10 modeling centers under various forcing scenarios (Ta-  
381 ble 2). The archive provides an unprecedented opportunity to study the equilibrium response of a  
382 large number of models to forcing. The variables included allow study of a range of phenomena  
383 associated with the atmosphere, ocean, land, and sea ice (Table 1), and we expect LongRunMIP to  
384 contribute to current discussions laid out in Section 1. This includes ocean heat uptake, sea level  
385 rise, ocean circulation response to warming, large scale modes of variability, sea ice reduction,  
386 polar amplification, precipitation variability, atmospheric dynamics, **long-term memory in time**  
387 **series**, spatial warming patterns, ocean - atmosphere interactions, model spin-up techniques, the  
388 relation of internal variability and forced response under different forcing levels, committed cli-  
389 mate response, and the relation of time and state dependence of fast feedbacks and Earth System  
390 Feedbacks and processes.

391 LongRunMIP is a MIP of opportunity, without an agreed upon protocol, and is a result of the  
392 willingness of individual research groups to provide model output from simulations often con-  
393 ducted over years of real-world time. As a result, the experiments are not standardized, but most  
394 models provided a millennial-length simulation that begins with an abrupt quadrupling of CO<sub>2</sub>  
395 concentration. In addition to collecting simulations, we provide output with standardized formats  
396 and variable names, and include versions regridded to a common grid, as well as global averages.

397 LongRunMIP builds upon a body of pioneering studies that looked at the behavior of models be-  
398 yond the centennial scale (Table 3), LongRunMIP allows this sort of analysis to be applied across  
399 a diverse group of models that exhibit strikingly different behavior (Fig. 7), and hopefully encour-

age others to look beyond the limitations and assumptions normally imposed by computational constraints, to directly study the equilibration of the fully coupled atmosphere-ocean system.

#### *Data access and sharing*

LongRunMIP currently consists of 15 TB of data and available for download at <https://data.iac.ethz.ch/longrunmip/>. Fields shown in this paper can be accessed on <https://data.iac.ethz.ch/longrunmip/BAMS/>.

See [www.longrunmip.org](http://www.longrunmip.org) for more details on available variables, contact information, sample figures and videos, and links to join a discussion community. We will be collecting more simulations over the next couple of years.

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809	<b>LIST OF TABLES</b>	
810	<b>Table 1.</b>	Description of collected variables. 2D means spatial resolution of latitude and
811		longitude, except for <i>msfmyz</i> where it means latitude and depth. 3D means lat-
812		itude, longitude, and depth. <i>msfmyz</i> is the sum of the eularian, eddybolus, and
813		submeso component. For <i>so</i> and <i>thetao</i> there are also February and September
814		values available for most models. . . . . 39
815	<b>Table 2.</b>	Overview of models and contributed simulations. The resolution of atmosphere
816		and ocean is given in # of grid points per latitude x longitude, and latitude x
817		longitude x depth, respectively. Models are referred to by their shortnames
818		throughout the manuscript. <b>Section 2b</b> describes the forcing levels. References
819		in the last <b>column</b> describe the models and simulations. Some simulations are
820		published in their full length, some simulations contributed to LongRunMIP are
821		the extensions of simulations discussed in the references, and some simulations
822		are unpublished. . . . . 40
823	<b>Table 3.</b>	Published millennial-length simulations . . . . . 41

824 TABLE 1. Description of collected variables. 2D means spatial resolution of latitude and longitude, except for  
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827 available for most models.

Shortname	Longname	Unit	Resolution
hfls	Surface Upward Latent Heat Flux	$\text{W m}^{-2}$	monthly, 2D
hfss	Surface Upward Sensible Heat Flux	$\text{W m}^{-2}$	monthly, 2D
pr	Precipitation on atmospheric grid	$\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$	monthly, 2D
psl	Sea Level Pressure	Pa	monthly, 2D
rlds	Surface Downwelling Longwave Radiation	$\text{W m}^{-2}$	monthly, 2D
rlus	Surface Upwelling Longwave Radiation	$\text{W m}^{-2}$	monthly, 2D
rlut	TOA Outgoing Longwave Radiation	$\text{W m}^{-2}$	monthly, 2D
rlutes	TOA Outgoing Clear-Sky Longwave Radiation	$\text{W m}^{-2}$	monthly, 2D
rsds	Surface Downwelling Shortwave Radiation	$\text{W m}^{-2}$	monthly, 2D
rsdt	TOA Incident Shortwave Radiation	$\text{W m}^{-2}$	monthly, 2D
rsus	Surface Upwelling Shortwave Radiation	$\text{W m}^{-2}$	monthly, 2D
rsut	TOA Outgoing Shortwave Radiation	$\text{W m}^{-2}$	monthly, 2D
rsutes	TOA Outgoing Clear-Sky Shortwave Radiation	$\text{W m}^{-2}$	monthly, 2D
tas	Near-Surface Air Temperature	K	monthly, 2D
ts	Atmospheric surface temperature	K	monthly, 2D
sic	Sea Ice Area Fraction	%	monthly, 2D
msftmyz	Meridional Overturning Circulation	$\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$	annual, 2D
tos	Sea surface temperature	K	annual, 2D
sos	Sea surface salinity	psu	annual, 2D
wfo	Net water flux into sea water	$\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$	annual, 2D
evs	Water evaporation	$\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$	annual, 2D
pr_ocn	Precipitation (rain and snow) on ocean grid	$\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$	annual, 2D
tauuo	Surface downward wind stress in x direction	$\text{N m}^{-2}$	annual, 2D
tauvo	Surface downward wind stress in y direction	$\text{N m}^{-2}$	annual, 2D
so	Sea Water Salinity	psu	annual, 3D
thetao	Sea Water Potential Temperature	K	annual, 3D

TABLE 2. Overview of models and contributed simulations. The resolution of atmosphere and ocean is given in # of grid points per latitude x longitude, and latitude x longitude x depth, respectively. Models are referred to by their shortnames throughout the manuscript. Section 2b describes the forcing levels. References in the last column describe the models and simulations. Some simulations are published in their full length, some simulations contributed to LongRunMIP are the extensions of simulations discussed in the references, and some simulations are unpublished.

Model (shortname)	Forcing level shortname	Length (yrs)	Atmosphere resolution	Ocean resolution	Control sim (yrs)	Model and simulation documentation
CCSM3 <b>CCSM3</b>	abrupt2x	3000	48 x 96	100 x 116 x 25	1530	Yeager et al. (2006) Danabasoglu and Gent (2009)
	abrupt4x	2120				
	abrupt8x	1450				
CCSM3 <b>CCSM3II</b>	abrupt2.4	3701	48 x 96	100 x 116 x 25	3805	Yeager et al. (2006) Castruccio et al. (2014)
	abrupt4.8	3132				
	lin2.4	3990				
CESM 1.0.4 <b>CESM104</b>	abrupt2x	2500	96 x 144	384 x 20 x 60	1320	Gent et al. (2011) Danabasoglu et al. (2012) Rugenstein et al. (2016c)
	abrupt4x	5900				
	abrupt8x	5100				
CNRM-CM6-1 <b>CNRMCM61</b>	abrupt2x	750	128 x 256	180 x 360 x 75	2000	Voldoire et al. (2019) Saint-Martin et al. (2019)
	abrupt4x	1850				
EC-Earth-PISM <b>ECEARTH</b>	historical RCP8.5+	1270	160 x 320	292 x 362 x 42	508	Hazeleger et al. (2012) Svendsen et al. (2015)
ECHAM5/MPIOM <b>ECHAM5</b>	abrupt4x	1000	48 x 96	101 x 120 x 40	100	Jungclaus et al. (2006) Li et al. (2013)
	1pct4x	6080				
FAMOUS <b>FAMOUS</b>	abrupt2x	3000	37 x 48	73 x 96 x 20	3000	Smith et al. (2008)
	abrupt4x	3000				
GFDL-CM3 <b>GFDLCM3</b>	1pct2x	5000	90 x 144	200 x 360 x 50	5200	Donner et al. (2011) Paynter et al. (2018)
GFDL-ESM2M <b>GFDLESM2M</b>	1pct2x	4500	90 x 144	200 x 360 x 50	1340	Dunne et al. (2012) Paynter et al. (2018)
GISS-E2-R <b>GISSE2R</b>	abrupt4x	5000	90 x 144	180 x 288 x 32	5225	Schmidt et al. (2014); Miller et al. (2014); Nazarenko et al. (2015) Rind et al. (2018)
	1pct4x	5000				
HadCM3L <b>HadCM3L</b>	abrupt2x	1000	73 x 96	73 x 96 x 20	1000	Cox et al. (2000) Cao et al. (2016)
	abrupt4x	1000				
	abrupt6x	1000				
	abrupt8x	1000				
HadGEM2-ES <b>HadGEM2</b>	abrupt4x	1328	145 x 192	216 x 360 x 40	239	Collins et al. (2011) Andrews et al. (2015)
IPSL-CM5A-LR <b>IPSLCM5ALR</b>	abrupt4x	1000	96 x 96	149 x 182 x 31	1000	Dufresne et al. (2013)
MIROC 3.2 <b>MIROC32</b>	1pct2x	2000	64 x 128	192 x 256 x 44	681	Hasumi and Emori (2004) Yamamoto et al. (2015); Yoshimori et al. (2016)
	1pct4x	2000				
MPIESM-1.2 <b>MPIESM12</b>	abrupt2x	1000	96 x 192	220 x 256 x 40	1237	Mauritsen et al. (2018) Rohrschneider et al. (2019)
	abrupt4x	1000				
	abrupt8x	1000				
	abrupt16x	1000				
MPIESM-1.1 <b>MPIESM11</b>	abrupt4x	4459	96 x 192	220 x 256 x 40	2000	Mauritsen et al. (2018)

TABLE 3. Published millennial-length simulations

Paper	Model	Forcing level	Length (yr)	Content/scientific comment
Senior and Mitchell (2000)	HadCM2	2xCO <sub>2</sub>	≈ 800	Included flux adjustments; effective climate sensitivity increases due to SW CRE due to changes in the inter-hemispheric temperature gradient
Bi et al. (2001)	CSIRO	3xCO <sub>2</sub>	≈ 1000	Cessation and recovery of Antarctic Bottom Water and North Atlantic Deep Water formation
Voss and Mikolajewicz (2001)	ECHAM3	2x and 4xCO <sub>2</sub>	850	Adjustment time scales, committed warming, ocean thermohaline circulation
Stouffer and Manabe (1999, GFDL 2003)	GFDL	0.5x, 2x, 4xCO <sub>2</sub>	and 4000	Thermohaline circulation and paleo-oceanographic implications
Boer and Yu (2003b,a,c)	CCCma	2050 and forcing	2100 1000	Radiative feedbacks and surface warming; effective climate sensitivity decreases with time; slab versus fully coupled models
Gregory et al. (2004)	HadCM3	2xCO <sub>2</sub>	≈ 1000	TOA radiative imbalance and surface temperature are not linearly related; after 1000 yr the model is still 0.7 W m <sup>-2</sup> away from equilibrium
* Danabasoglu and Gent (2009)	CCSM3	2x, 4x, and 8xCO <sub>2</sub>	3000	Comparing slab and fully coupled models; determining ECS; Jonko et al. (2013) analyzed the contributions of different feedbacks to doublings of CO <sub>2</sub>
Gillett et al. (2011)	CanESM1	21st century	≈ 1000	Impact of reduced emissions
* Li et al. (2013)	ECHAM5/MPI-OM	2xCO <sub>2</sub>	≈ 6000	Comparing slab and fully coupled models; determining ECS; adjustment time scales of surface warming patterns, ocean heat uptake, and sea level rise
Frölicher et al. (2014); Frölicher and Paynter (2015)	GFDL-ESM2M, CSM1	4xCO <sub>2</sub> pulse	1000	Climate impact of CO <sub>2</sub> emission stoppage; evolving feedbacks; ECS; transient climate response to cumulative carbon emissions
* Andrews et al. (2015)	HadGEM2-ES	4xCO <sub>2</sub>	≈ 1300	Non-constancy of feedbacks; variations of TOA components cancel each other on the century to millennial time scale
* Yamamoto et al. (2015); Yoshimori et al. (2016)	MIROC3.2	2x and 4xCO <sub>2</sub>	2000	Deep ocean ventilation overall increases oxygenation after a transient decrease; review article on ocean heat uptake in coupled models and energy balance models
* Cao et al. (2016)	HadCM3L	2x, 4x, 6x, 8xCO <sub>2</sub>	1000	Comparing CO <sub>2</sub> to other forcing agents and geo-engineering scenarios
* Rugenstein et al. (2016b,a)	CESM104	2x, 4x, 8xCO <sub>2</sub>	≈ 1300	Dependence of global and regional radiative feedback evolution on surface heat flux patterns; forcing adjustment
* Paynter et al. (2018)	GFDL-ESM2M, CM3	GFDL- 2xCO <sub>2</sub>	≈ 5000	Evolution of global and regional radiative feedbacks and the role of atmospheric vertical velocity fields and inversion strengths
* Rind et al. (2018)	GISS-E2-R	4xCO <sub>2</sub>	≈ 2000	AMOC reduction and recovery on North Atlantic surface flux conditions
Krasting et al. (2018)	GFDL-ESM2Mb, GFDL-ESM2G	4xCO <sub>2</sub>	5000	Ocean heat uptake, model formulation of diapycnal diffusivity and ocean vertical coordinates



## LIST OF FIGURES

- Fig. 1.** Global **and annual** mean surface air temperature (*tas* in Table 1) anomaly and top of the atmosphere (TOA) radiative imbalance (computed as  $rsdt - rlut - rsut$ , see Table 1) to a step-forcing of quadrupling CO<sub>2</sub> as simulated by the CESM104 model. For the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 and 6, this simulation is part of the standard protocol, but only 150 simulated years are requested (blue shading). We collect simulations that extended this experiment for at least 850 years (light red shading), ideally until they are equilibrated (end of dark red shading). . . . . 43
- Fig. 2.** Global annual mean surface air temperature for all control (black) and forced (color, listed in the top right of each panel) simulations. *abrupt2x, 4x, 6x, 8x* means that the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is doubled, quadrupled, sextupled, octupliated, as a step-forcing branched off the control simulation. *1pct2x* and *1pct4x* means the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is linearly increased 1 % per year until the concentration is doubled or quadrupled, respectively. The simulations of ECEARTH and CCSM3II are described in Section b. Note the different axis ranges for each model. GFDLCM3 and CCSM3II are not branched off directly from the control simulation. . . . . 44
- Fig. 3.** Top of the atmosphere (TOA) annual and global mean radiative imbalance of all control simulations. Note the different lengths of the horizontal axes. The gray line indicates the average, the red line the linear trend, except for CCSM3II and GFDLCM3 for which both colors depict a fourth-order-polynomial fit. . . . . 45
- Fig. 4.** Global **and annual** mean temperature anomalies (experiment minus average of the control simulation) of the surface ocean (a, first layer) and deep ocean (b), as well as absolute values of deep ocean temperature in the control simulations (c), for *abrupt4x* (solid) and *1pct4x* (dashed) simulations. “Deep ocean” means around 2000 m **depth (closest level)**. Note that the time scale in c) is shorter than in a) and b). . . . . 46
- Fig. 5.** Time evolution of the surface air temperature anomaly in the *abrupt4x* simulations. The model mean of CCSM3, CESM104, CNRMCM61, ECHAM5, GISS2R, HadCM3L, HadGEM2, IPSLCM5A, MPIESM11, and MPIESM12 is shown in panel a, b, c, e, and f, while the model mean of only CESM104, GISS2R, and MPIESM11 is shown in panel d and g, due to the length of these contributions. See Table 2 for details of the length of each simulation. . . . . 47
- Fig. 6.** Time evolution of the zonal mean surface air temperature response normalized by the global mean temperature anomaly. Above (below) 1 means that warming is amplified (reduced) relative to the globally mean warming (a-d). Panel e-g show the differences (note the difference scale). Panel a, b, e, and f contain only *abrupt4x* simulations, while panel c, d, and g also contain the *1pct2x* and *RCP8.5+* simulations with integration lengths above 4000 years. Table 2 lists all simulations and model long names. . . . . 48
- Fig. 7.** Simulated shortwave cloud radiative effects **SW CRE** for different levels of global surface air temperature changes. Each point is a ten-year running average. Note the different axes labels, which cover a large range in TOA imbalance and surface temperature. Table 2 lists all simulations and model long names. . . . . 49

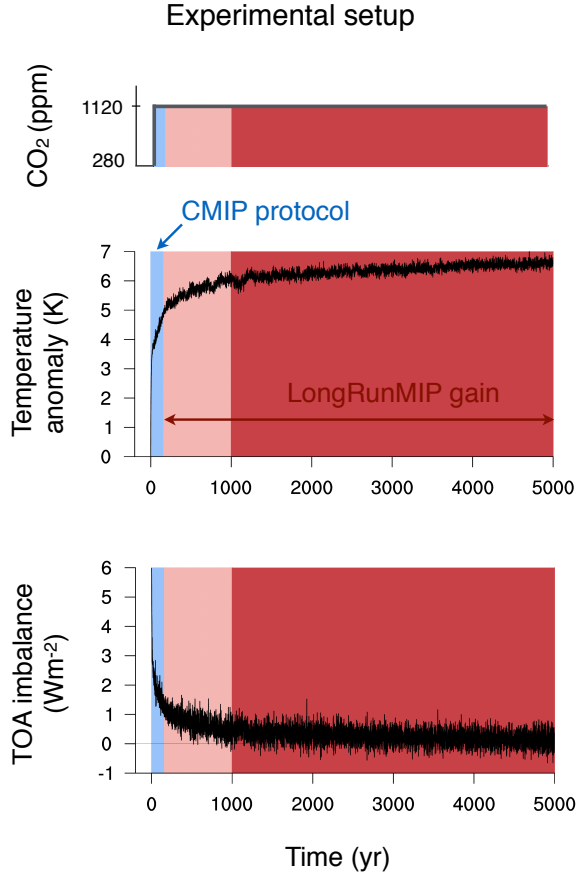
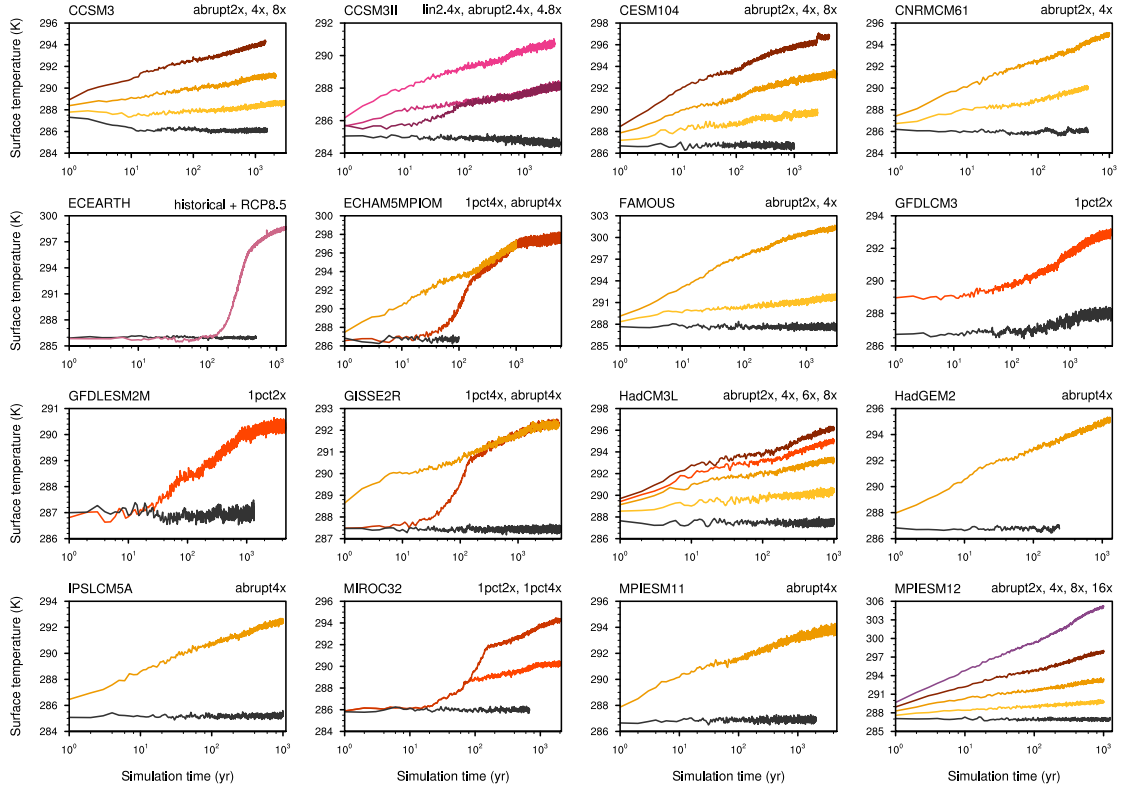
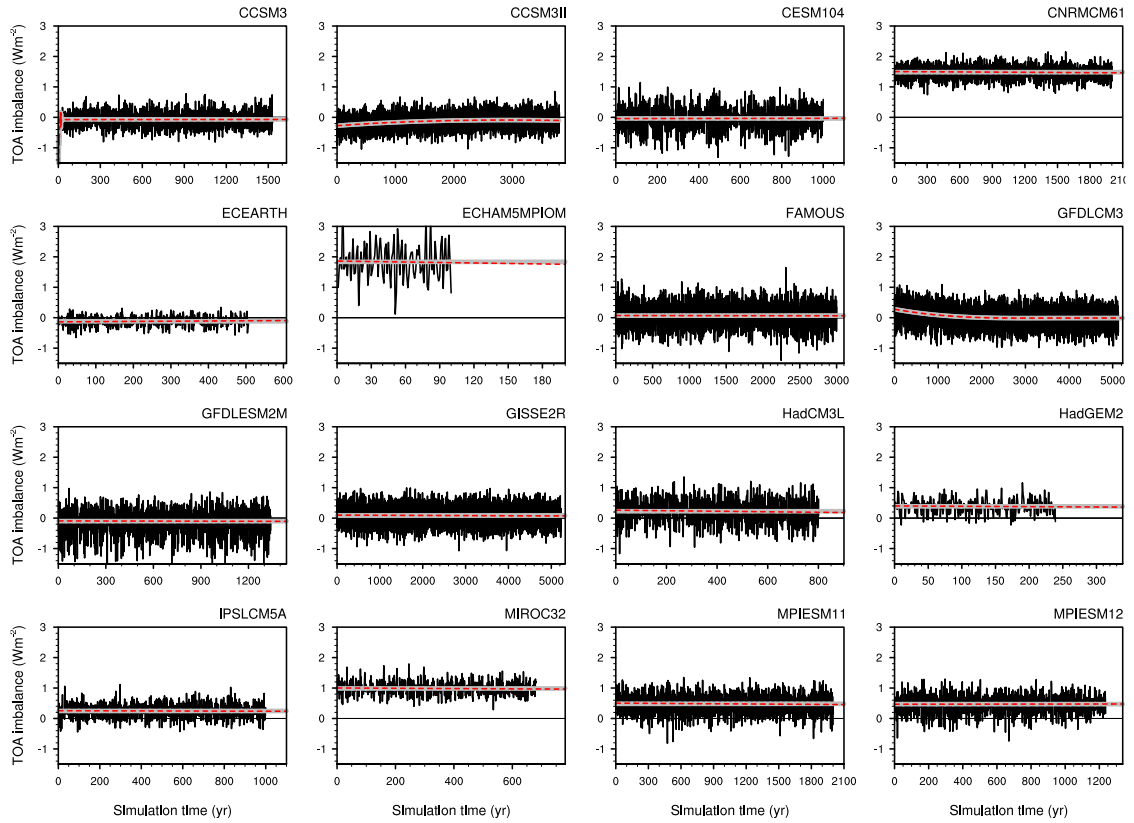


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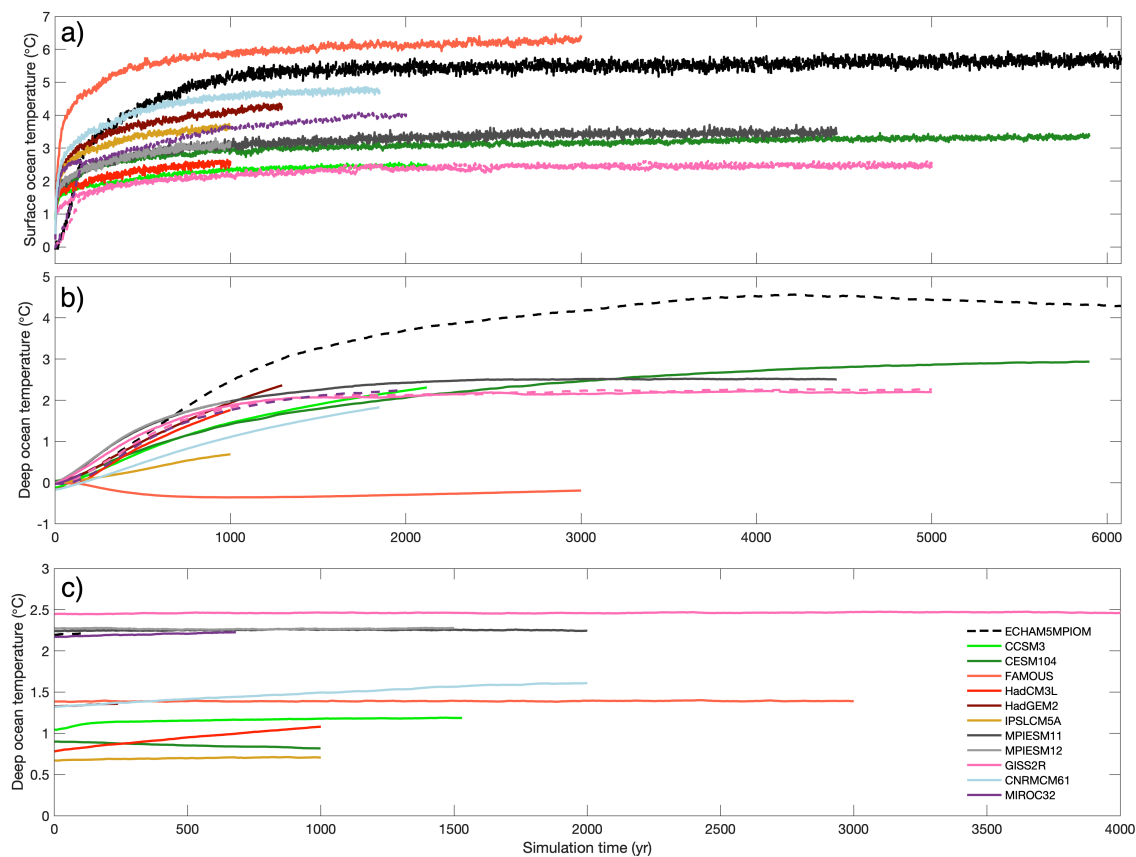
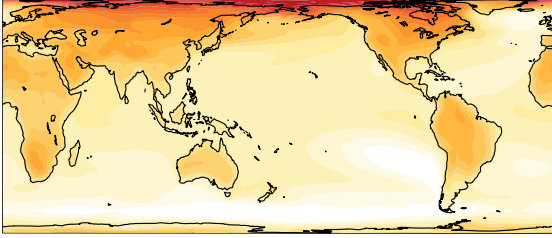
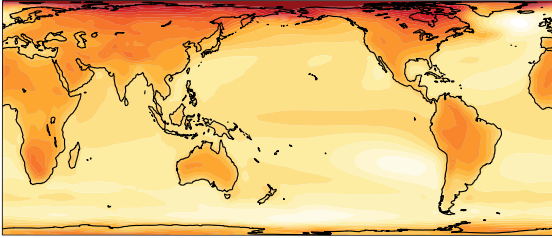


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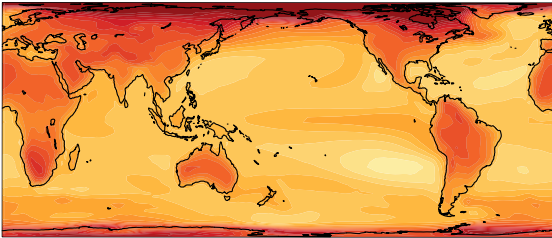
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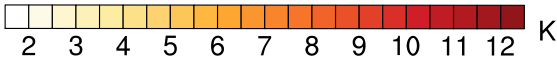
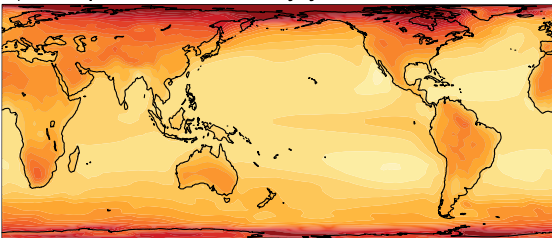
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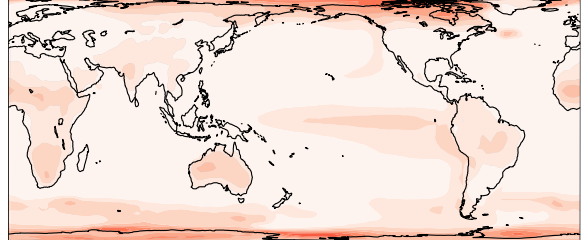
c) Temperature anomaly year 900-1000



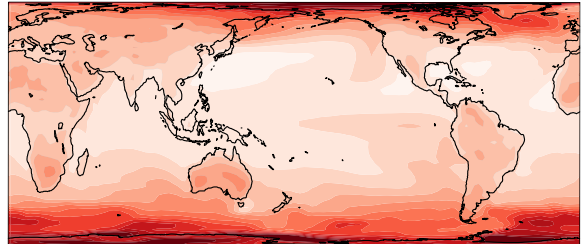
d) Temperature anomaly year 4000-4200



e) Change in temperature anomalies (b)-(a)



f) Change in temperature anomalies (c)-(b)



g) Change in temperature anomalies (d)-(c)

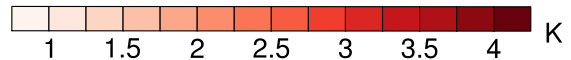
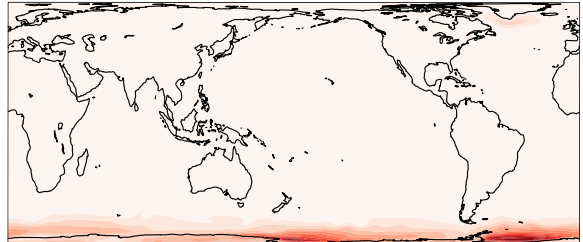


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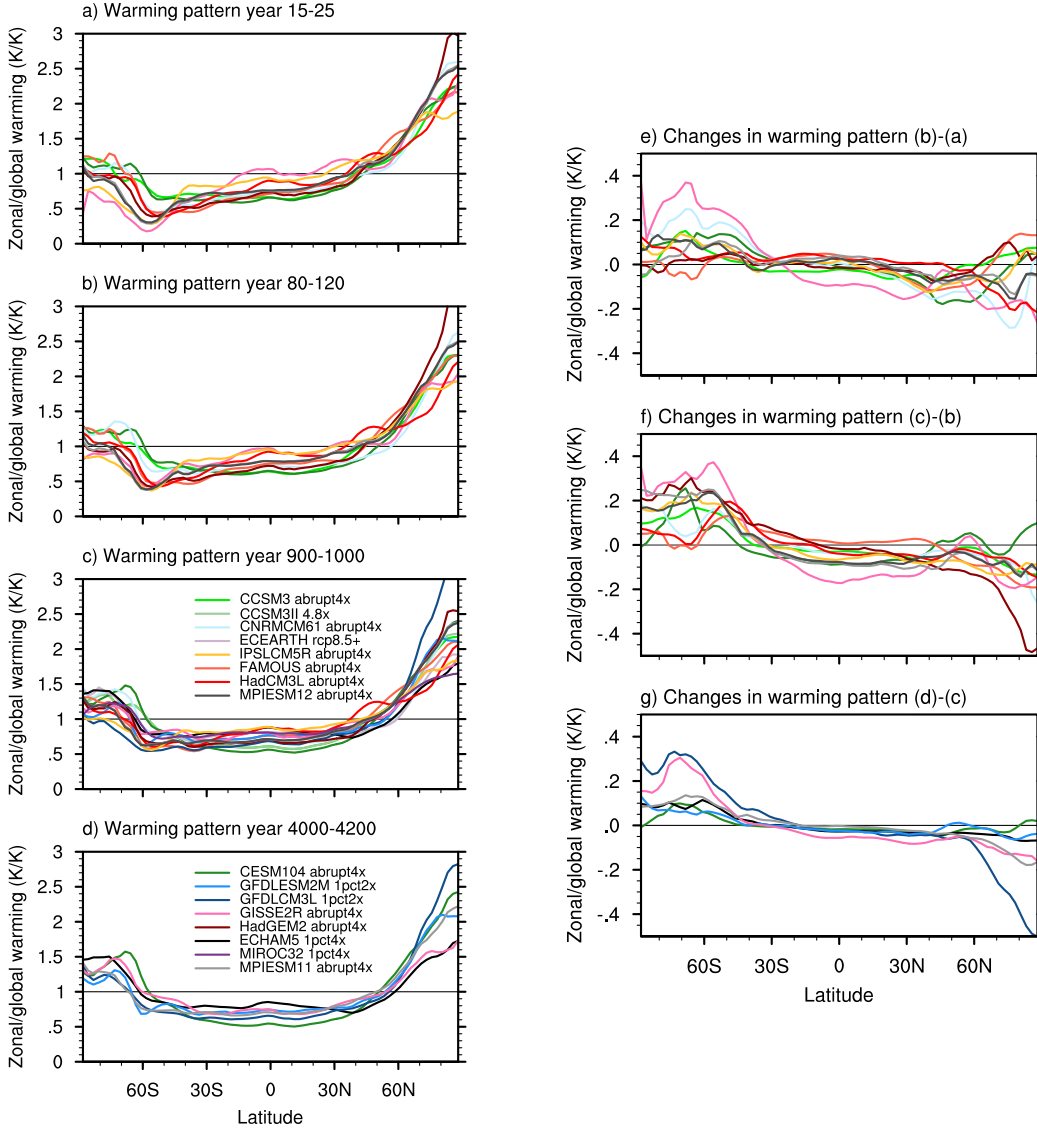


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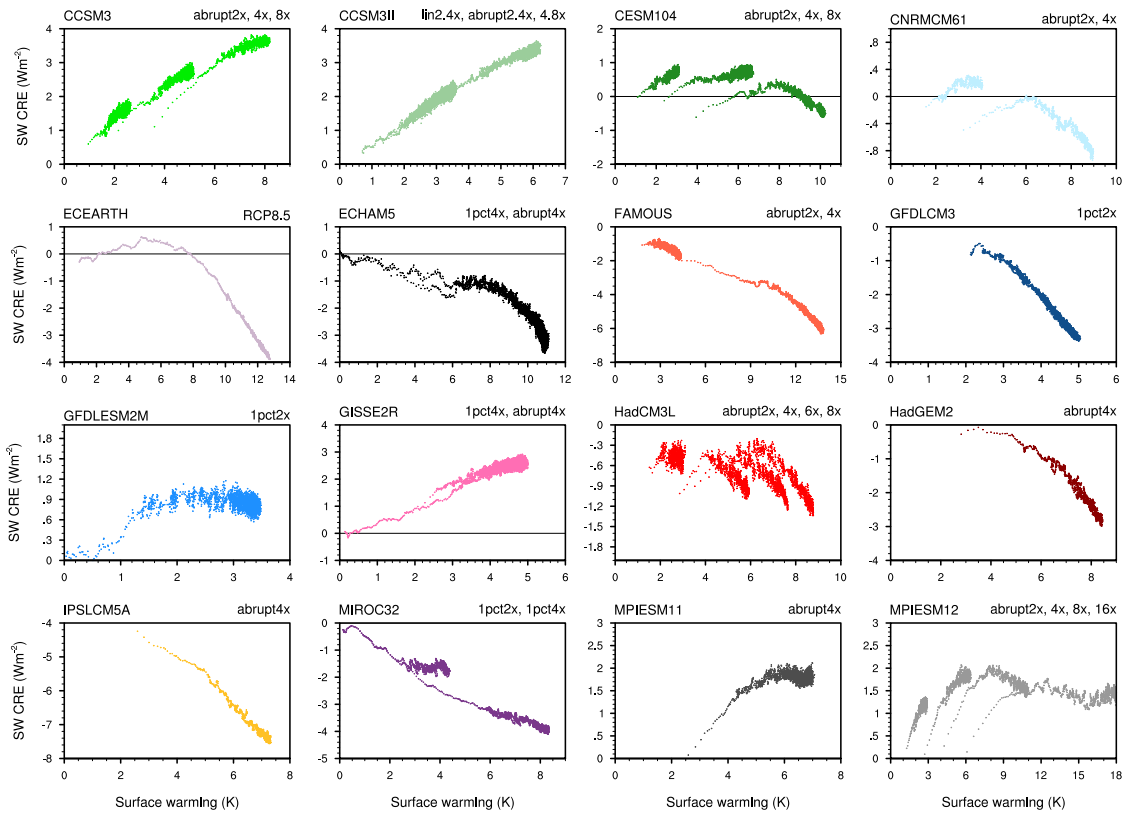


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