

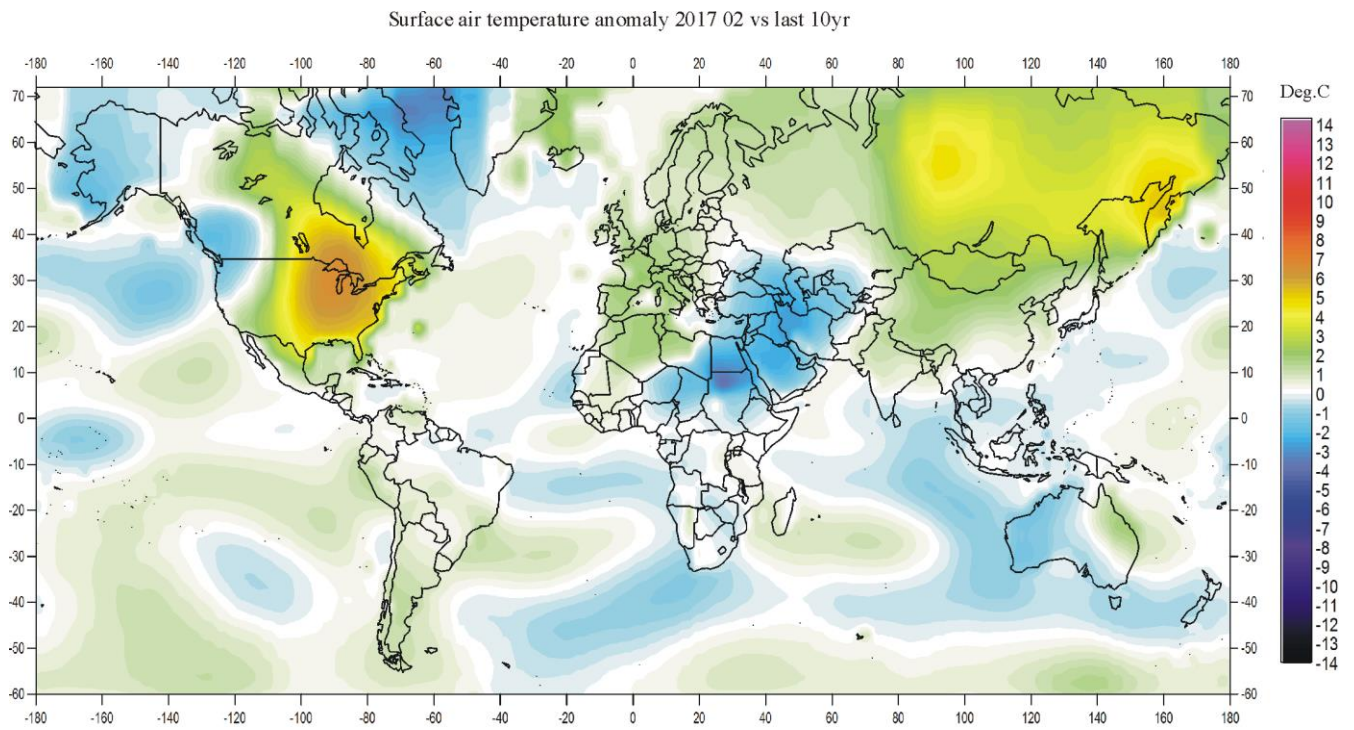
Climate4you update February 2017



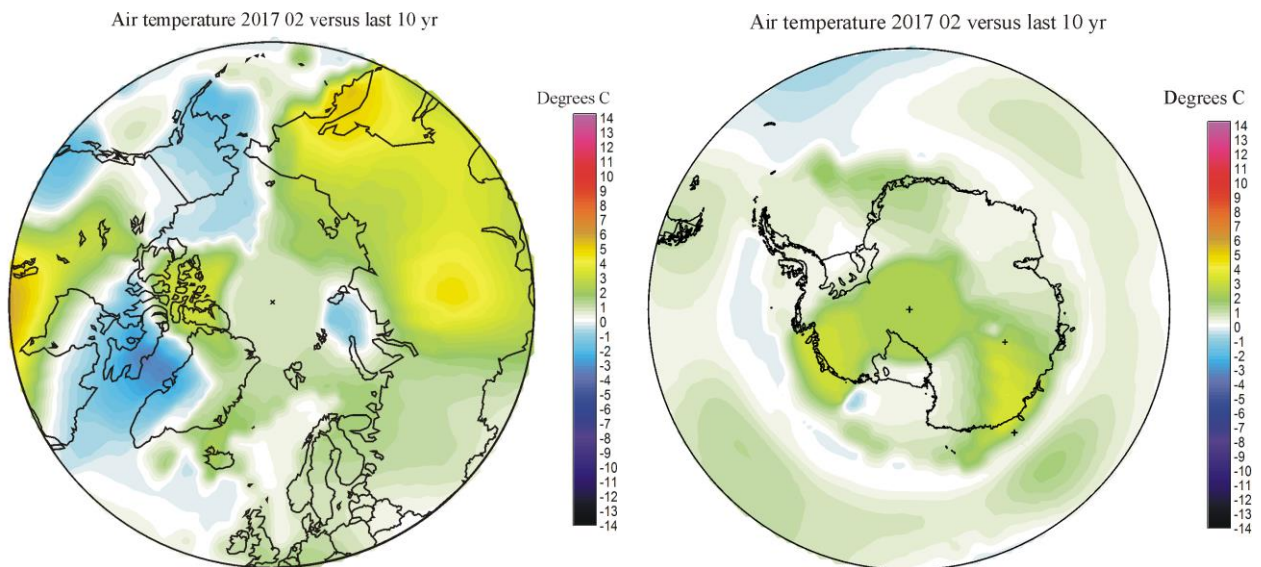
Contents:

- Page 2: February 2017 global surface air temperature overview
- Page 3: Comments to the February 2017 global surface air temperature overview
- Page 4: Temperature quality class 1: Lower troposphere temperature from satellites
- Page 5: Temperature quality class 2: HadCRUT global surface air temperature
- Page 6: Temperature quality class 3: GISS and NCDC global surface air temperature
- Page 9: Comparing global surface air temperature and satellite-based temperatures
- Page 10: Global air temperature linear trends
- Page 11: Global temperatures: All in one, Quality Class 1, 2 and 3
- Page 13: Global sea surface temperature
- Page 16: Ocean temperature in uppermost 100 m
- Page 18: North Atlantic heat content uppermost 700 m
- Page 19: North Atlantic temperatures 0-800 m depth along 59N, 30-0W
- Page 20: Global ocean temperature 0-1900 m depth summary
- Page 21: Troposphere and stratosphere temperatures from satellites
- Page 22: Zonal lower troposphere temperatures from satellites
- Page 23: Arctic and Antarctic lower troposphere temperatures from satellites
- Page 24: Arctic and Antarctic surface air temperatures
- Page 25: Arctic and Antarctic sea ice
- Page 31: Sea level in general
- Page 32: Global sea level from satellite altimetry
- Page 33: Global sea level from tide gauges
- Page 34: Northern Hemisphere weekly snow cover
- Page 36: Atmospheric specific humidity
- Page 37: Atmospheric CO₂
- Page 38: The phase relation between atmospheric CO₂ and global temperature
- Page 39: Global surface air temperature and atmospheric CO₂
- Page 42: Latest 20-year QC1 global monthly air temperature change
- Page 43: Sunspot activity and QC1 average satellite global air temperature
- Page 44: Climate and history: 1879-1881: *USS Jeannette sails for the North Pole*

February 2017 global surface air temperature overview



2



February 2017 surface air temperature compared to the average of the last 10 years. Green-yellow-red colours indicate areas with higher temperature than the 10 year average, while blue colours indicate lower than average temperatures. Data source: [Goddard Institute for Space Studies](#) (GISS) using ERSST_v4 ocean surface temperatures. Please note that both polar regions appear to be affected by an error in the GISS interpolation (see more next page).

Comments to the February 2017 global surface air temperature overview

General: This newsletter contains graphs showing a selection of key meteorological variables for the past month. All temperatures are given in degrees Celsius.

In the above maps showing the geographical pattern of surface air temperatures, the last previous 10 years are used as reference period.

The rationale for comparing with this recent period instead of the official WMO 'normal' period 1961-1990, is that the latter period is affected by the cold period 1945-1980. Most comparisons with this time period will automatically appear as warm, and it will be difficult to decide if modern surface air temperatures are increasing or decreasing. Comparing instead with the last previous 10 years overcomes this problem and displays the modern dynamics of ongoing change.

In addition, the GISS temperature data used for preparing the above diagrams display distinct temporal instability for data before the turn of the century (see p. 7). Any comparison with the WMO 'normal' period 1961-1990 is therefore influenced by ongoing monthly mainly administrative changes, and not suited as reference. Comparing with the last previous 10 years is more useful.

The different air temperature records have been divided into three quality classes, QC1, QC2 and QC3, respectively, as described on page 7.

In many diagrams shown in this newsletter the thin line represents the monthly global average value, and the thick line indicate a simple running average, in most cases a simple moving 37-month average, nearly corresponding to a three-year average. The 37-month average is calculated from values covering a range from 18 month before to 18 months after, with equal weight given to all individual months.

The year 1979 has been chosen as starting point in many diagrams, as this roughly corresponds to

both the beginning of satellite observations and the onset of the late 20th century warming period. However, several of the data series have a much longer record length, which may be inspected in greater detail on www.climate4you.com.

February 2017 global surface air temperatures

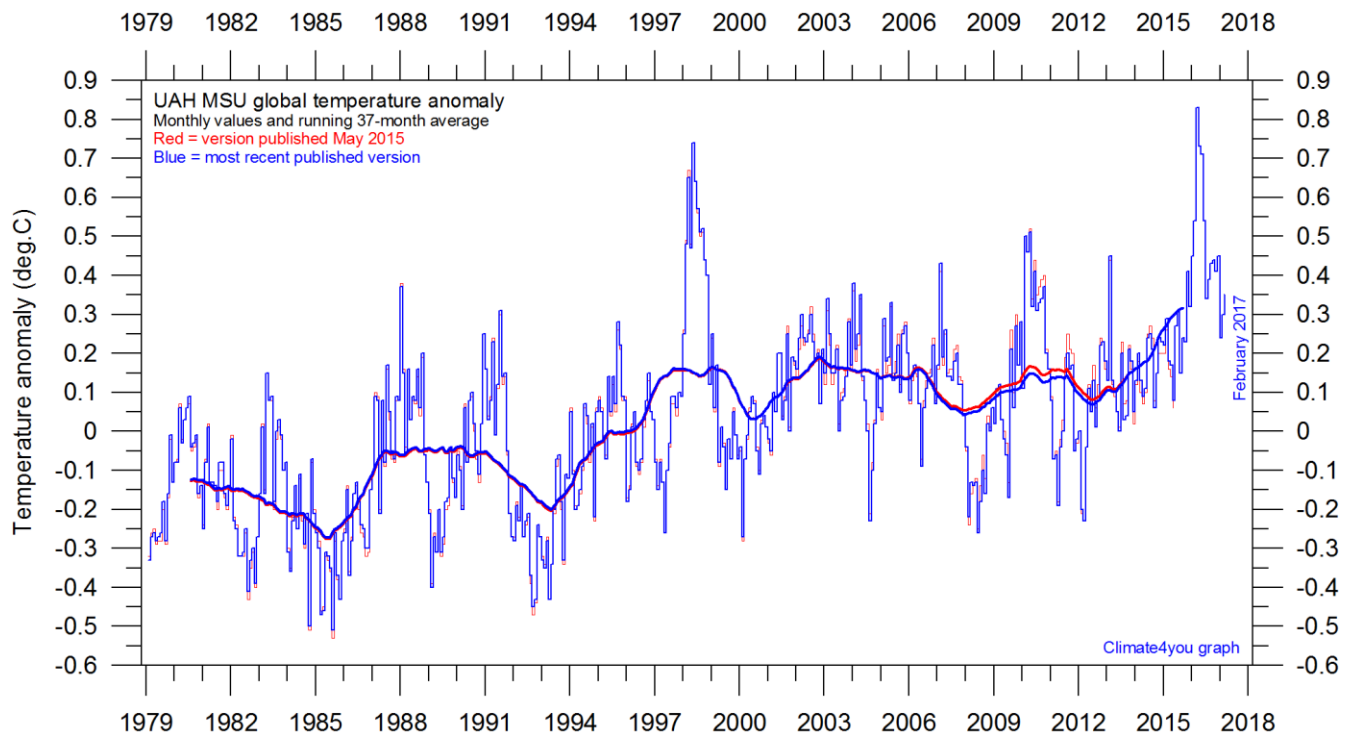
General: For February 2017 GISS supplied 16149 interpolated surface air data points; all are used to produce the diagrams on page 2. For February the average global temperature was somewhat above the average for the last ten years. This is mainly due to above average temperatures in central and eastern North America, and in Siberia.

The Northern Hemisphere was above the average temperature for the previous 10 years, although with distinct regional differences. Siberia and much of North America had above average temperatures. Also most of Europe had temperatures a little above the average. In contrast, West Greenland, NE Canada and Alaska had temperatures below average. The same applies for Alaska and parts of western North America. In the central Arctic region surface air temperatures were somewhat above average, although the interpolated GISS temperature data north of 80° N appears to be affected by an interpolation artefact.

Near the Equator temperatures were, on average, near the 10-year average, but with regional differences.

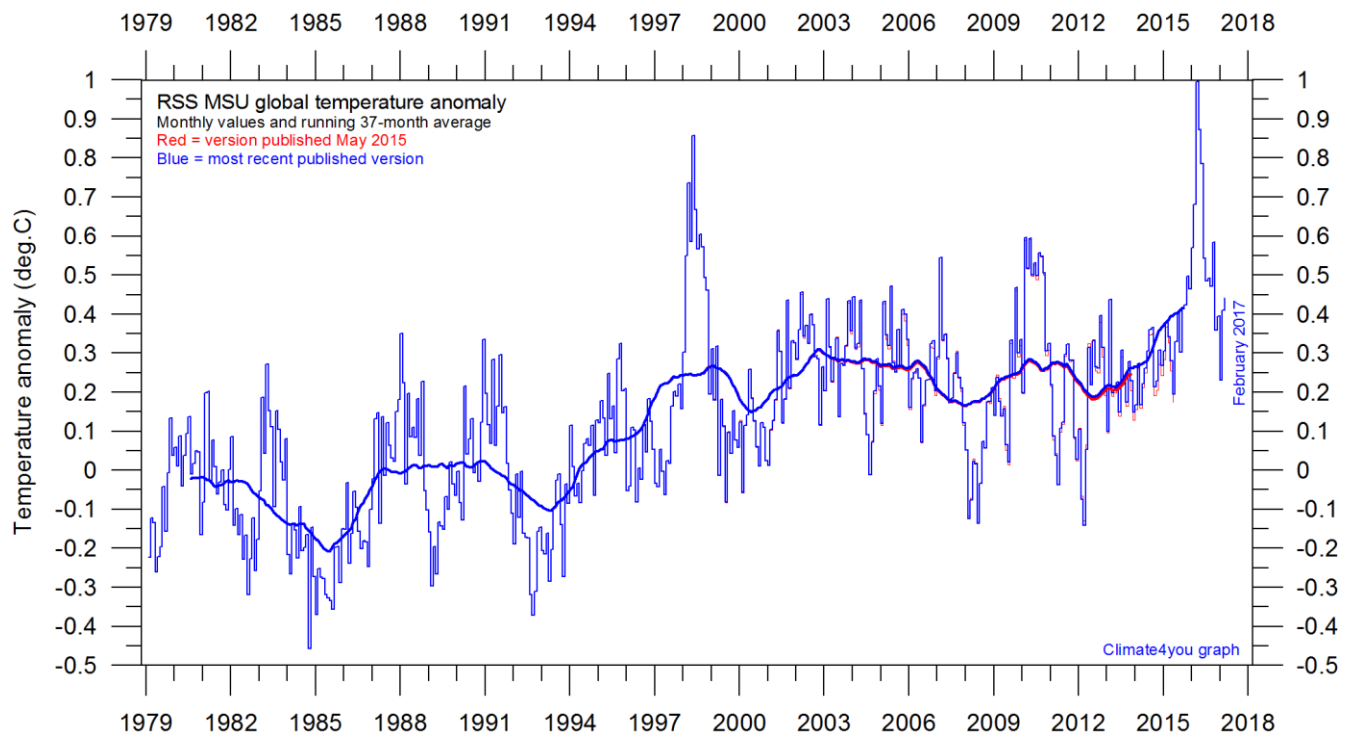
The Southern Hemisphere temperatures were generally near or somewhat below the previous 10-year average. Most of Australia, most of the Indian Ocean and parts of South Atlantic had below average temperatures. In the Antarctic, most regions had temperatures above the average, although the temperature pattern appears to be affected by an interpolation artefact south of 80°S.

Temperature quality class 1: Lower troposphere temperature from satellites, updated to February 2017



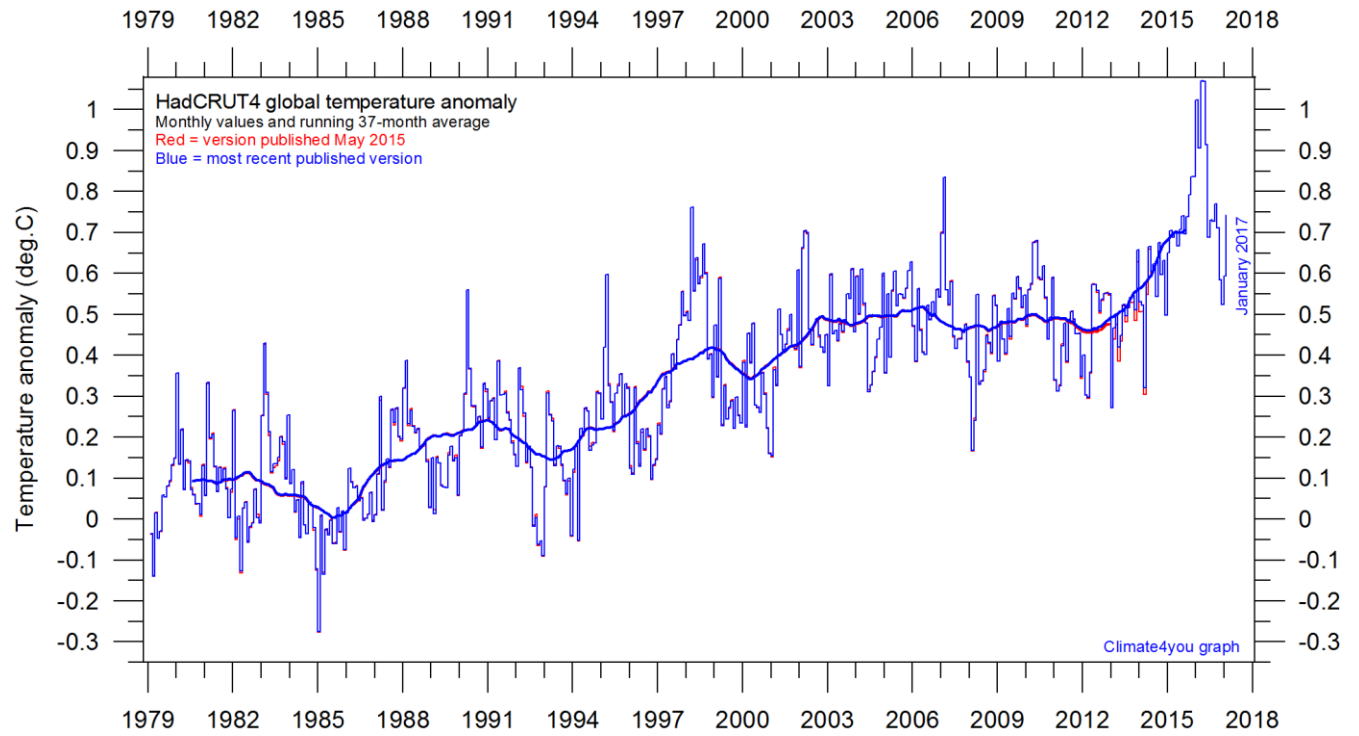
Global monthly average lower troposphere temperature (thin line) since 1979 according to [University of Alabama](#) at Huntsville, USA. The thick line is the simple running 37-month average.

4



Global monthly average lower troposphere temperature (thin line) since 1979 according to according to [Remote Sensing Systems](#) (RSS), USA. The thick line is the simple running 37-month average.

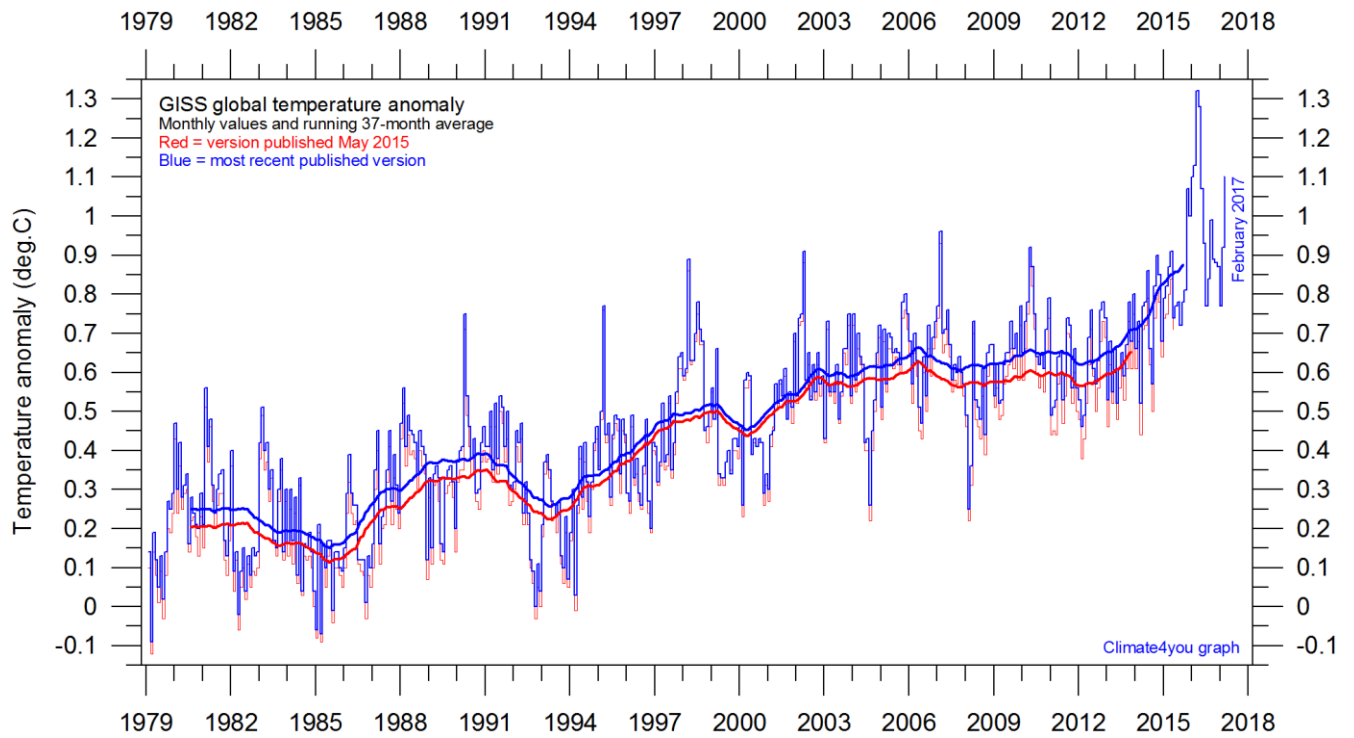
Temperature quality class 2: HadCRUT global surface air temperature, updated to January 2017



5

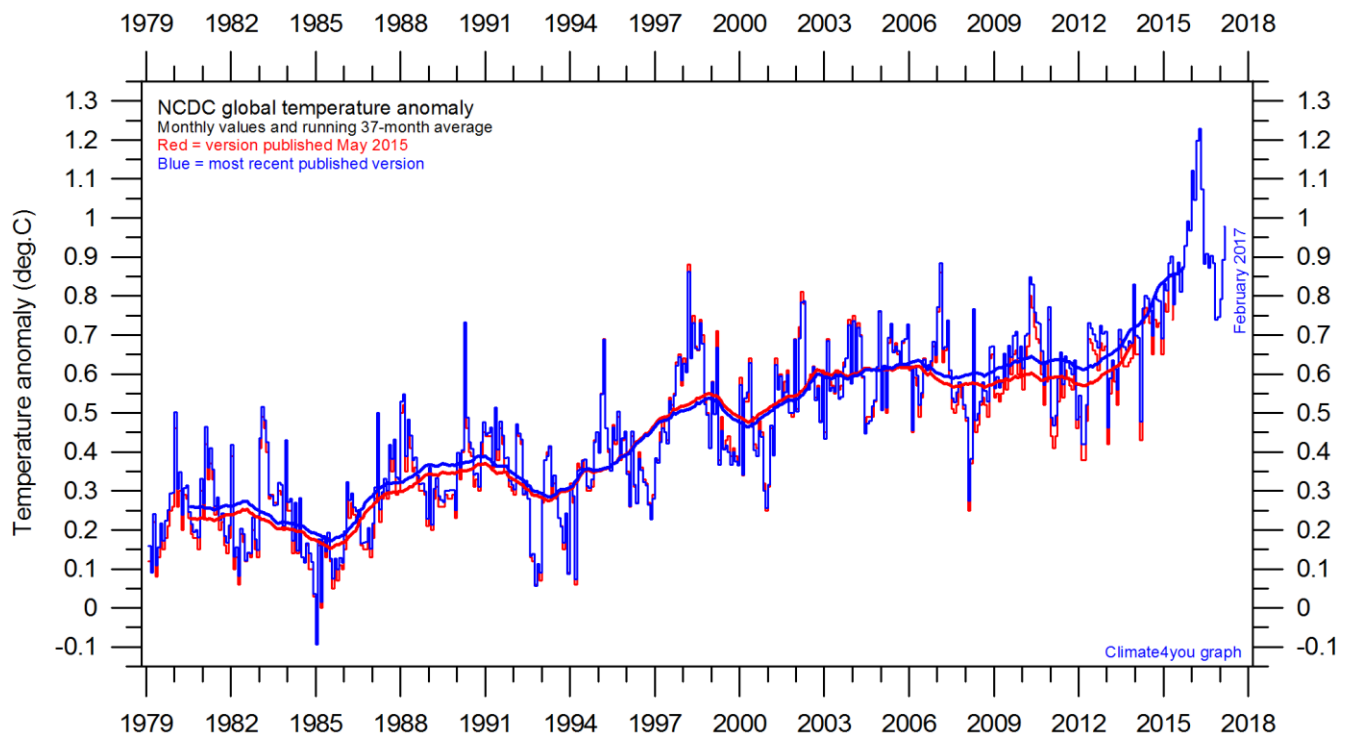
Global monthly average surface air temperature (thin line) since 1979 according to according to the Hadley Centre for Climate Prediction and Research and the University of East Anglia's [Climatic Research Unit \(CRU\)](#), UK. The thick line is the simple running 37-month average.

Temperature quality class 3: GISS and NCDC global surface air temperature, updated to February 2017



Global monthly average surface air temperature (thin line) since 1979 according to according to the [Goddard Institute for Space Studies \(GISS\)](#), at Columbia University, New York City, USA, using ERSST_v4 ocean surface temperatures. The thick line is the simple running 37-month average.

6



Global monthly average surface air temperature since 1979 according to according to the [National Climatic Data Center \(NCDC\)](#), USA. The thick line is the simple running 37-month average.

A note on data record stability and -quality:

All temperature diagrams shown above have 1979 as starting year. This roughly marks the beginning of the recent period of global warming, after termination of the previous period of global cooling from about 1940. In addition, the year 1979 also represents the starting date for the satellite-based global temperature estimates (UAH and RSS). For the three surface air temperature records (HadCRUT, NCDC and GISS), they begin much earlier (in 1850 and 1880), as can be inspected on www.climate4you.com.

For all three surface air temperature records, but especially NCDC and GISS, administrative changes to anomaly values are quite often introduced, even for observations many years back in time. Some changes may be due to the delayed addition of new station data, while others probably have their origin in a change of technique to calculate average values. It is clearly impossible to evaluate the validity of such administrative changes for the outside user of these records; it is only possible to note that such changes appear very often (see example diagram next page).

In addition, the three surface records represent a blend of sea surface data collected by moving ships or by other means, plus data from land stations of partly unknown quality and unknown degree of representativeness for their region. Many of the land stations have also moved geographically during their existence, and their instrumentation changed, and they are influenced by changes in their surroundings (vegetation, buildings, etc.).

The satellite temperature records also have their problems, but these are generally of a more technical nature and therefore correctable. In addition, the temperature sampling by satellites is more regular and complete on a global basis than

that represented by the surface records. Also important is that the sensors on satellites measure temperature directly by emitted radiation, while most surface temperature measurements are indirect, using electronic resistance.

Everybody interested in climate science should gratefully acknowledge the efforts put into maintaining the different temperature databases referred to in the present newsletter. At the same time, however, it is also important to realise that all temperature records cannot be of equal scientific quality. The simple fact that they to some degree differ shows that they cannot all be correct.

On this background, and for practical reasons, Climate4you operates with three quality classes (1-3) for global temperature records, with 1 representing the highest quality level:

Quality class 1: The satellite records (UAH and RSS).

Quality class 2: The HadCRUT surface record.

Quality class 3: The NCDC and GISS surface records.

The main reason for discriminating between the three surface records is the following:

While both NCDC and GISS often experience quite large administrative changes (see example on p.8), and therefore essentially are unstable temperature records, the changes introduced to HadCRUT are fewer and smaller. For obvious reasons, as the past does not change, any record undergoing continuing changes cannot describe the past correctly all the time.

You can find more on the issue of lack of temporal stability on www.climate4you.com (go to: *Global Temperature*, followed by *Temporal Stability*).

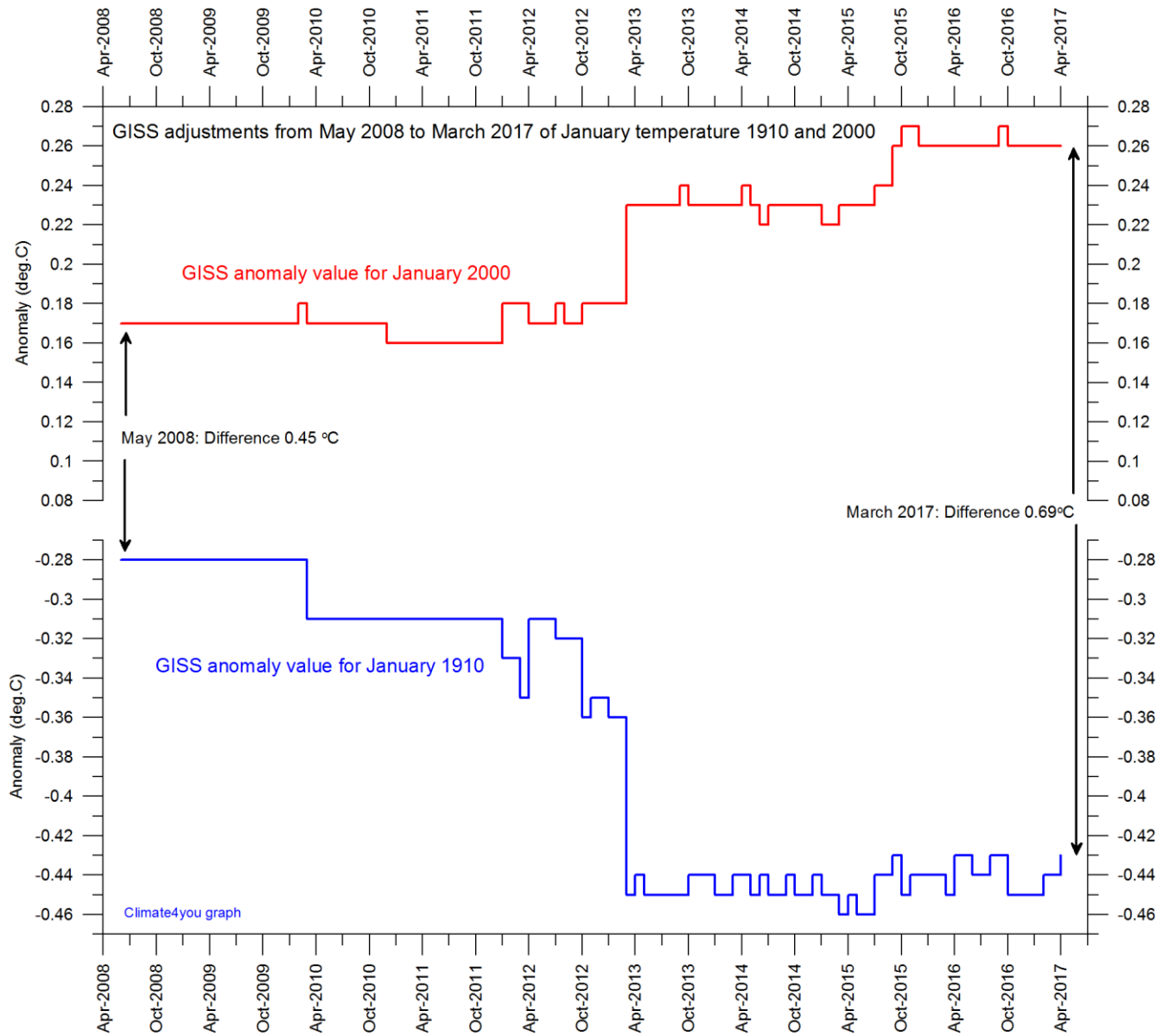
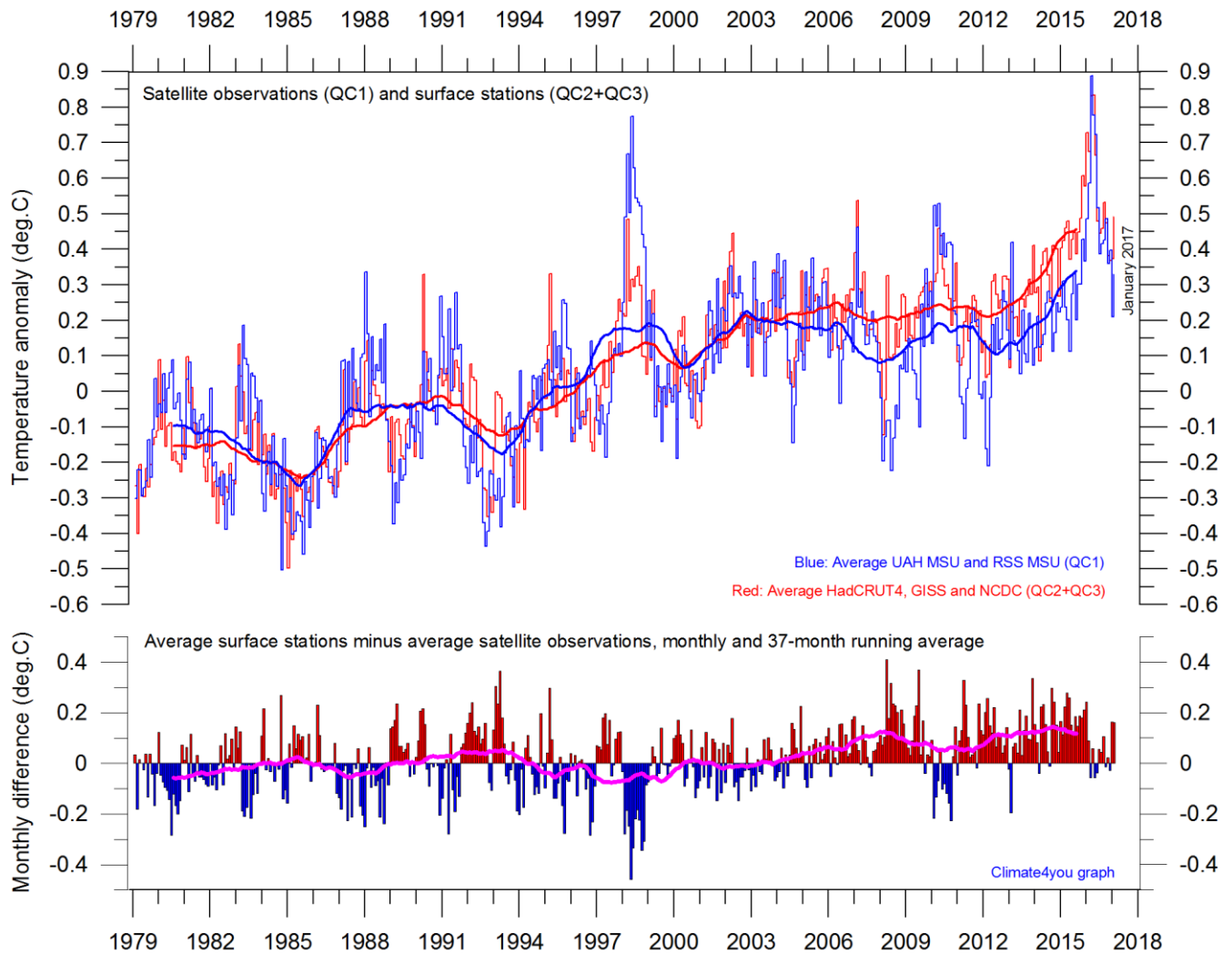


Diagram showing the adjustment made since May 2008 by the [Goddard Institute for Space Studies](#) (GISS), USA, in anomaly values for the months January 1910 and January 2000.

Note: The administrative upsurge of the temperature increase from January 1915 to January 2000 has grown from 0.45 (reported May 2008) to 0.69°C (reported March 2017). This represents an about 53% administrative temperature increase over this period, meaning that more than half of the reported (by GISS) global temperature increase from January 1910 to January 2000 is due to administrative changes of the original data since May 2008.

Comparing global surface air temperature and lower troposphere satellite temperatures; updated to January 2017



9

Plot showing the average of monthly global surface air temperature estimates ([HadCRUT4](#), [GISS](#) and [NCDC](#)) and satellite-based temperature estimates ([RSS MSU](#) and [UAH MSU](#)). The thin lines indicate the monthly value, while the thick lines represent the simple running 37-month average, nearly corresponding to a running 3-yr average. The lower panel shows the monthly difference between average surface air temperature and satellite temperatures. As the base period differs for the different temperature estimates, they have all been normalised by comparing to the average value of 30 years from January 1979 to December 2008.

NOTE: Since about 2003, the average global surface air temperature is steadily drifting away in positive direction from the average satellite temperature, meaning that the surface records show warming in relation to the troposphere records. The reason(s) for this is not entirely clear, but can presumably at least partly be explained by the recurrent administrative adjustments made to the surface records (see p. 7-8).

Global air temperature linear trends updated to January 2017

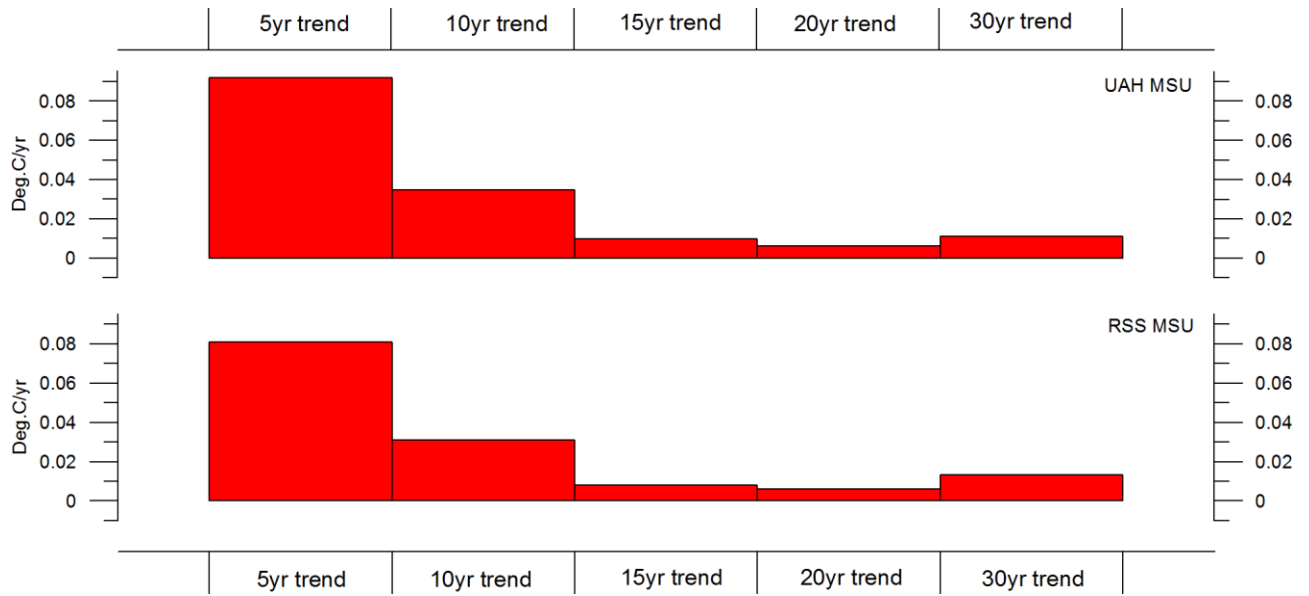


Diagram showing the latest 5, 10, 20 and 30-yr linear annual global temperature trend, calculated as the slope of the linear regression line through the data points, for two satellite-based temperature estimates (UAH MSU and RSS MSU).

10

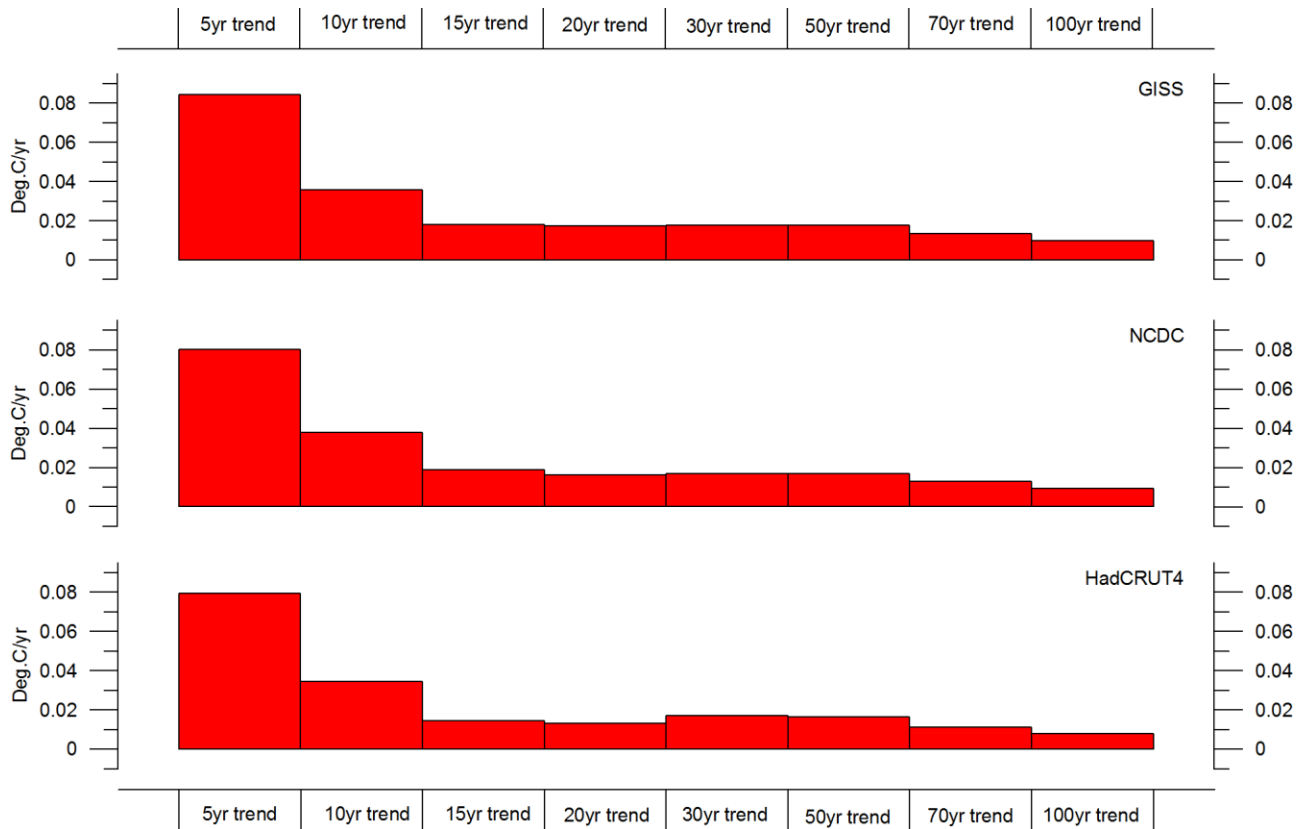
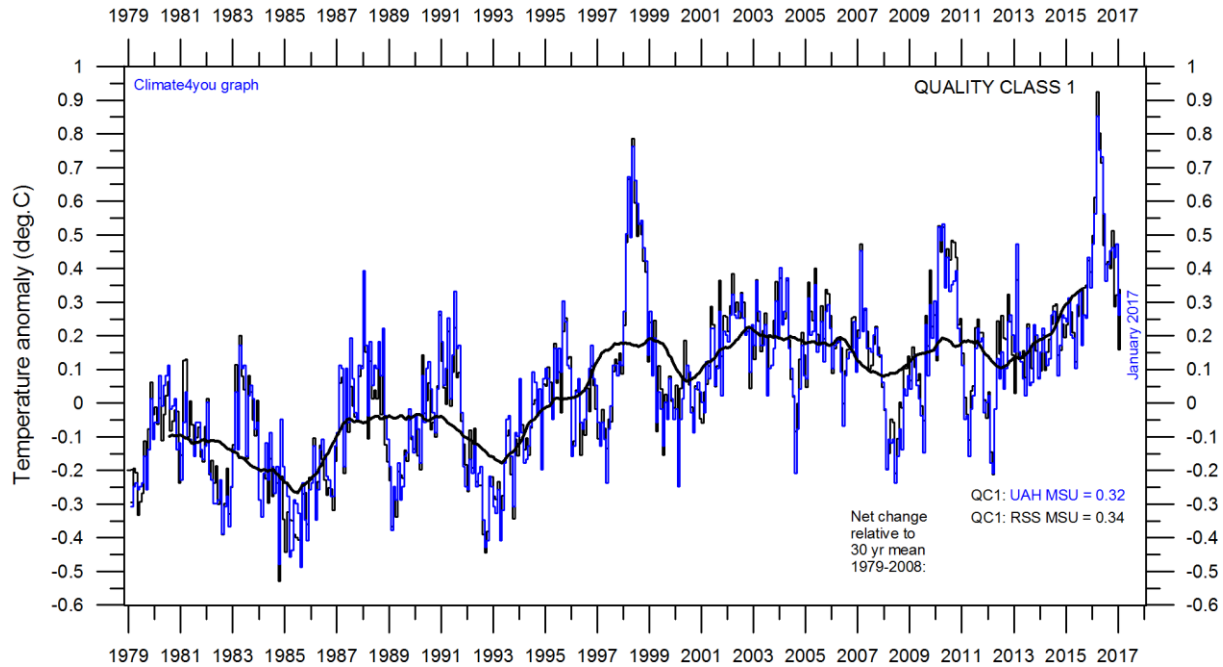


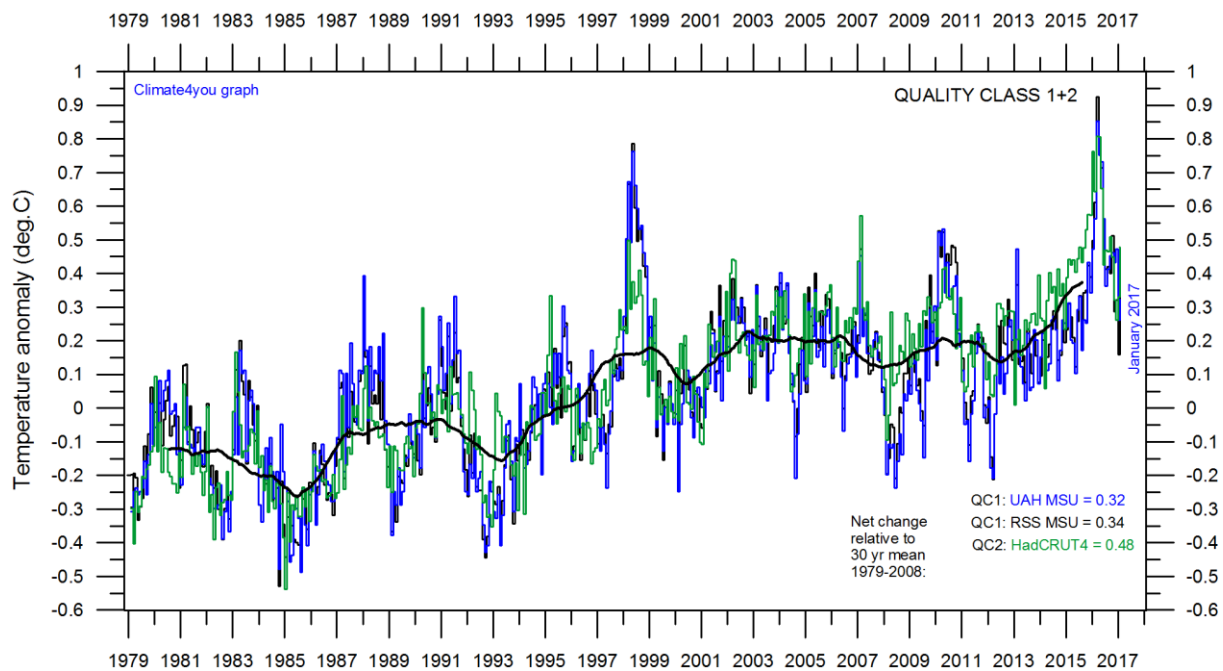
Diagram showing the latest 5, 10, 20, 30, 50, 70 and 100-year linear annual global temperature trend, calculated as the slope of the linear regression line through the data points, for three surface-based temperature estimates (GISS, NCDC and HadCRUT4).

All in one, Quality Class 1, 2 and 3; updated to January 2017

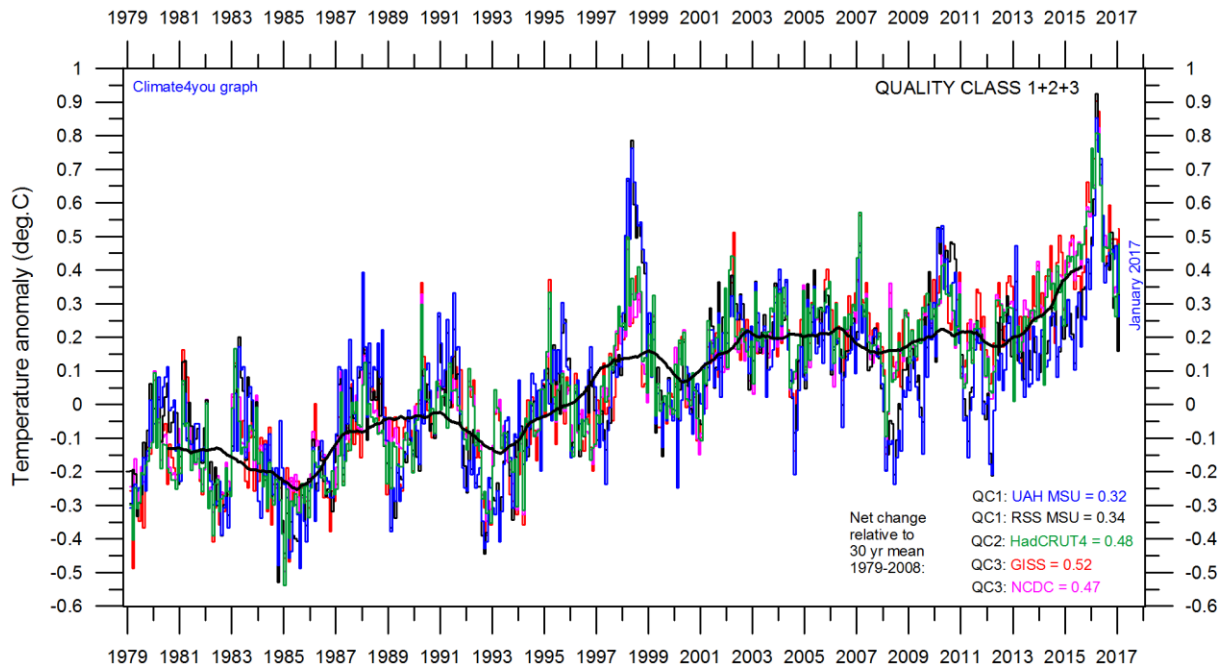


Superimposed plot of Quality Class 1 (UAH and RSS) global monthly temperature estimates. As the base period differs for the individual temperature estimates, they have all been normalised by comparing with the average value of the initial 120 months (30 years) from January 1979 to December 2008. The heavy black line represents the simple running 37 month (c. 3 year) mean of the average of both temperature records. The numbers shown in the lower right corner represent the temperature anomaly relative to the individual 1979-2008 averages.

11



Superimposed plot of Quality Class 1 and 2 (UAH, RSS and HadCRUT4) global monthly temperature estimates. As the base period differs for the individual temperature estimates, they have all been normalised by comparing with the average value of the initial 120 months (30 years) from January 1979 to December 2008. The heavy black line represents the simple running 37 month (c. 3 year) mean of the average of all three temperature records. The numbers shown in the lower right corner represent the temperature anomaly relative to the individual 1979-2008 averages.



Superimposed plot of Quality Class 1, 2 and 3 global monthly temperature estimates (UAH, RSS, HadCRUT4, GISS and NCDC). As the base period differs for the individual temperature estimates, they have all been normalised by comparing with the average value of the initial 120 months (30 years) from January 1979 to December 2008. The heavy black line represents the simple running 37 month (c. 3 year) mean of the average of all five temperature records. The numbers shown in the lower right corner represent the temperature anomaly relative to the individual 1979-2008 averages.

Please see notes on page 7 relating to the above three quality classes.

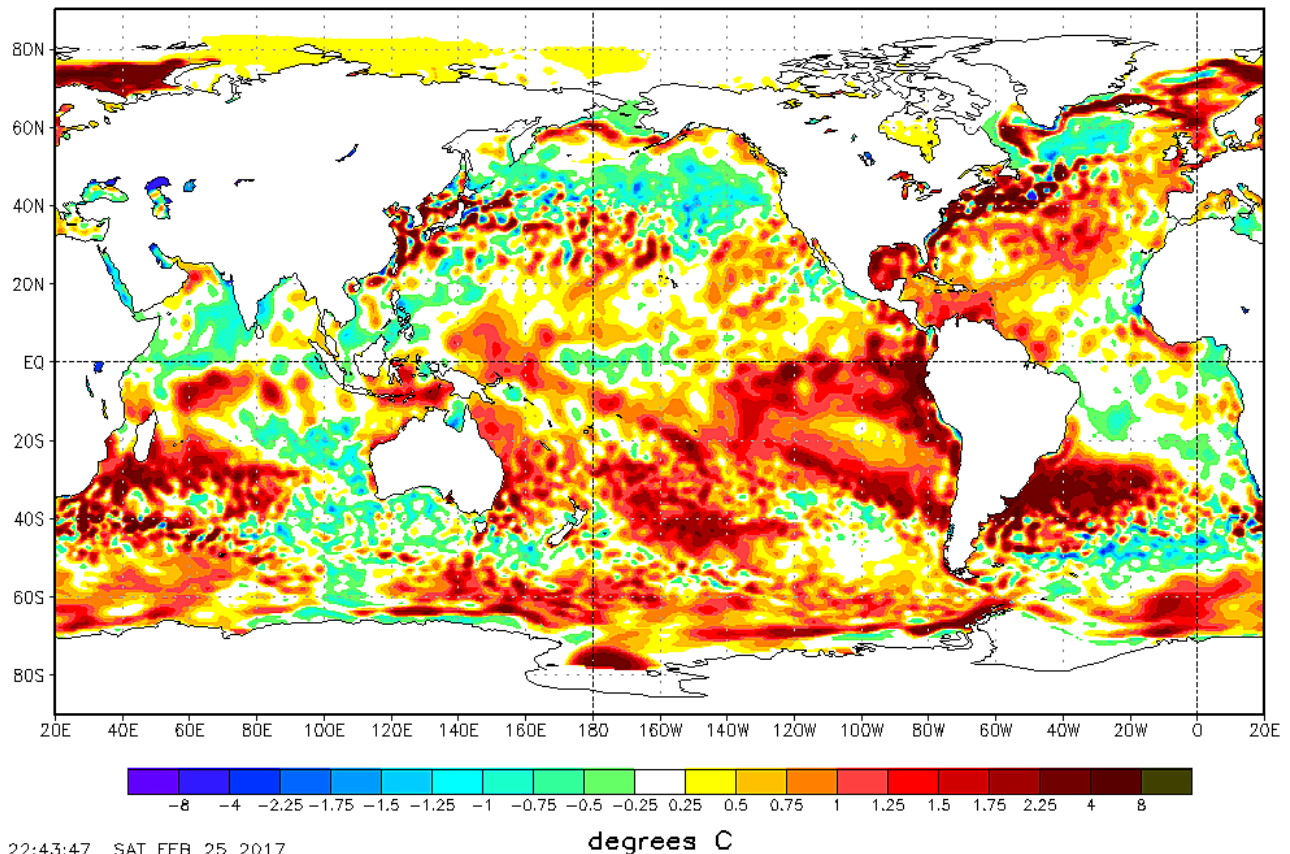
It should be kept in mind that satellite- and surface-based temperature estimates are derived from different types of measurements, and that comparing them directly as done in the diagram above therefore may be somewhat problematical. However, as both types of estimate often are discussed together, the above diagram may nevertheless be of some interest. In fact, the different types of temperature estimates appear to agree as to the overall temperature variations on a 2-3 year scale, although on a shorter time scale there are often considerable differences between the individual records. However, since about 2003 the surface records are consistently drifting towards higher temperatures than the satellite records (see p. 9).

The average of all five global temperature estimates presently shows an overall stagnation, at least since 2002-2003. There has been no real increase in global air temperature since 1998, which however was affected by the oceanographic El Niño event. Also, the recent (2015-16) El Niño event is probably a relatively short-lived spike on a longer development. Neither has there been a temperature decrease since 2002-2003.

The present temperature stagnation does not exclude the possibility that global temperatures will begin to increase again later. On the other hand, it also remains a possibility that Earth just now is passing a temperature peak, and that global temperatures will begin to decrease during the coming years. Time will show which of these two possibilities is correct.

Global sea surface temperature, updated to February 2017

NOAA/NWS/NCEP/EMC Marine Modeling and Analysis Branch
RTG_SST Anomaly (0.5 deg X 0.5 deg) for 25 Feb 2017



13

22:43:47 SAT FEB 25 2017

degrees C

Sea surface temperature anomaly on 25 February 2017. Map source: National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NOAA).

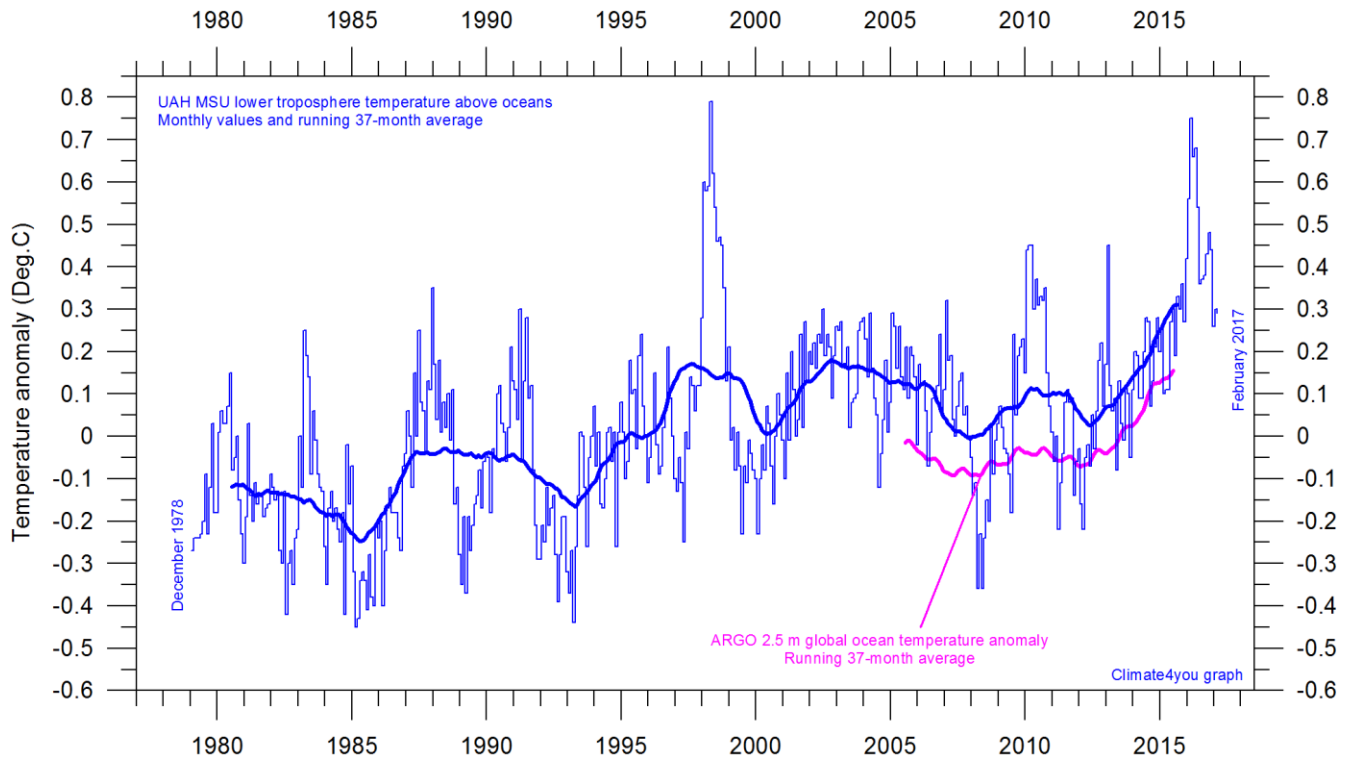
Because of the large surface areas near Equator, the temperature of the surface water in these regions is especially important for the global atmospheric temperature (p.4-6).

Relatively warm water is still dominating much of the oceans near the Equator, and is influencing global air temperatures now and in the months to come.

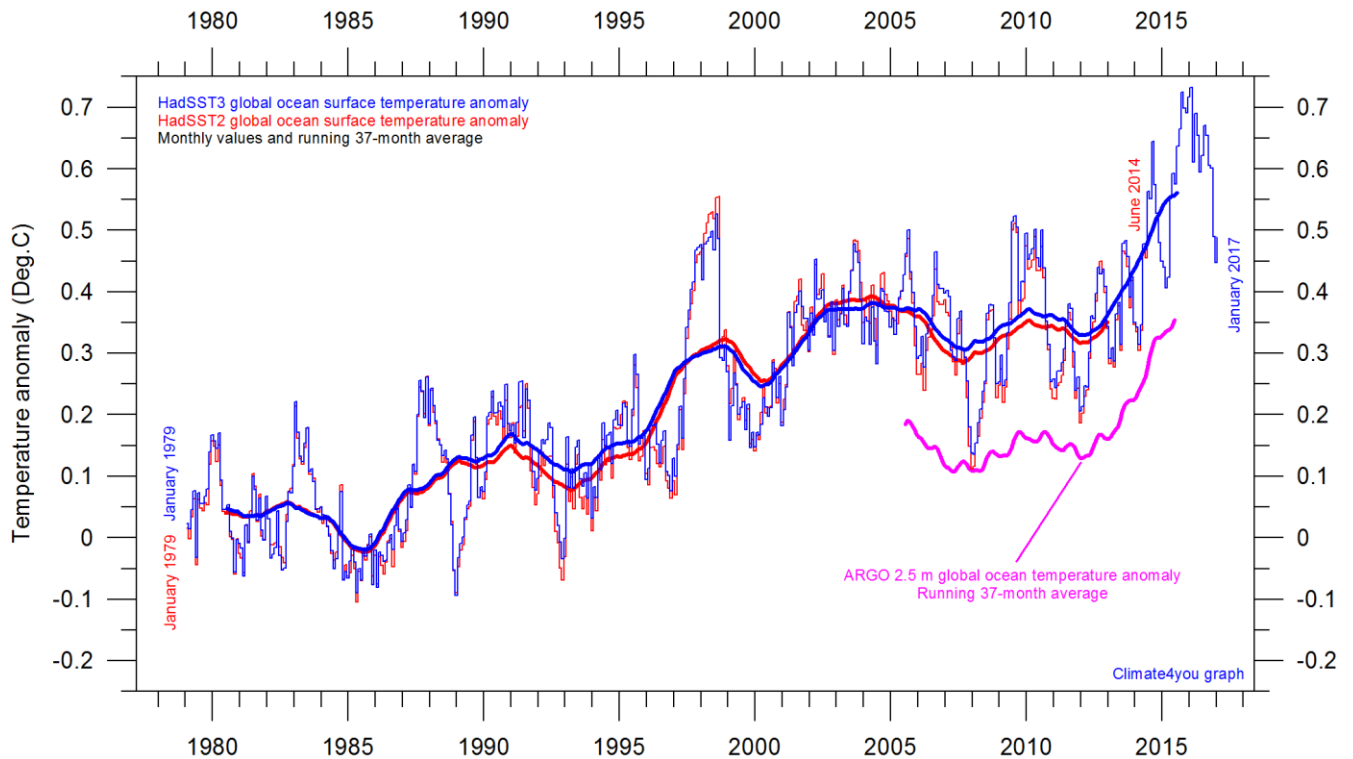
The significance of any short-term cooling or warming reflected in air temperatures should not be overstated. Whenever Earth experiences cold La Niña or warm El Niño episodes (Pacific Ocean)

major heat exchanges takes place between the Pacific Ocean and the atmosphere above, eventually showing up in estimates of the global air temperature.

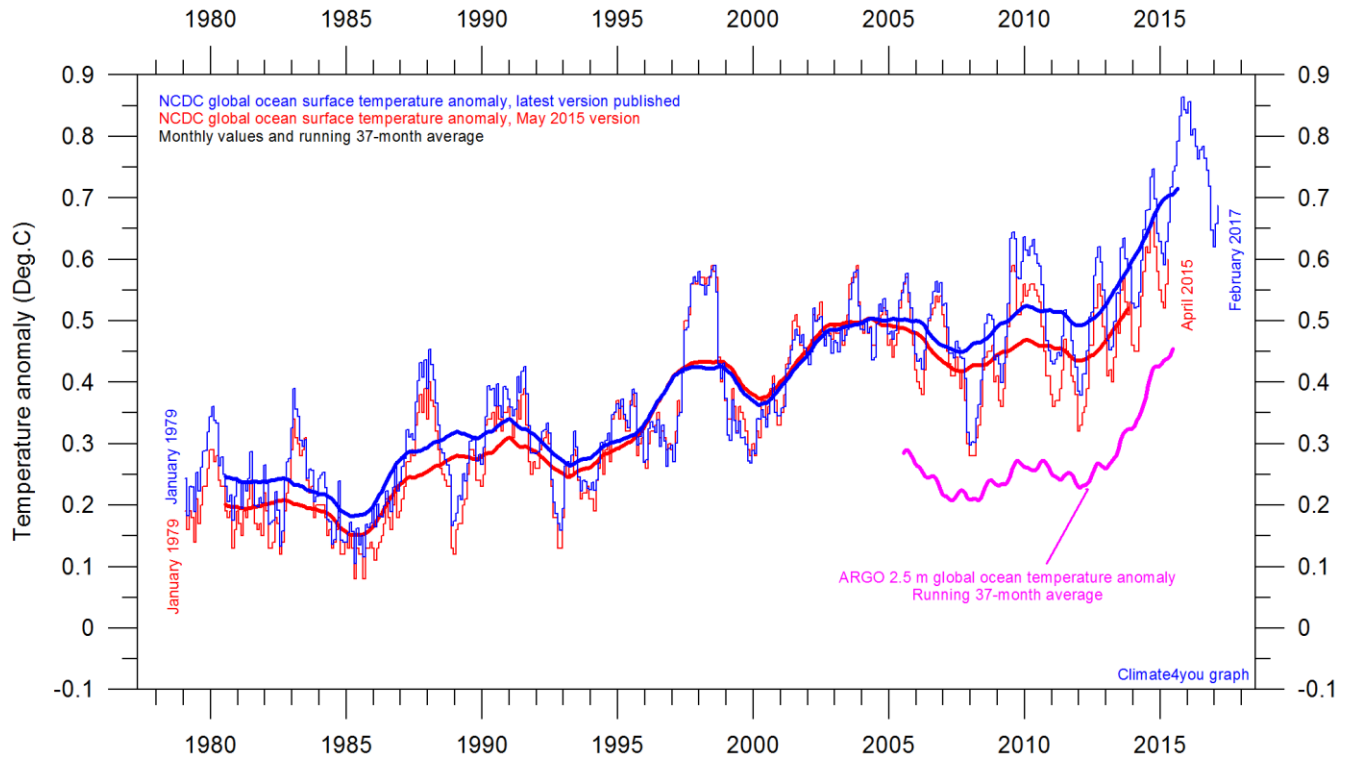
However, this does not reflect similar changes in the total heat content of the atmosphere-ocean system. In fact, global net changes can be small and such heat exchanges may mainly reflect redistribution of energy between ocean and atmosphere. What matters is the overall temperature development when seen over a number of years.



Global monthly average lower troposphere temperature over oceans (thin line) since 1979 according to [University of Alabama](#) at Huntsville, USA. The thick line is the simple running 37-month average. Insert: Argo global ocean temperature anomaly from floats.



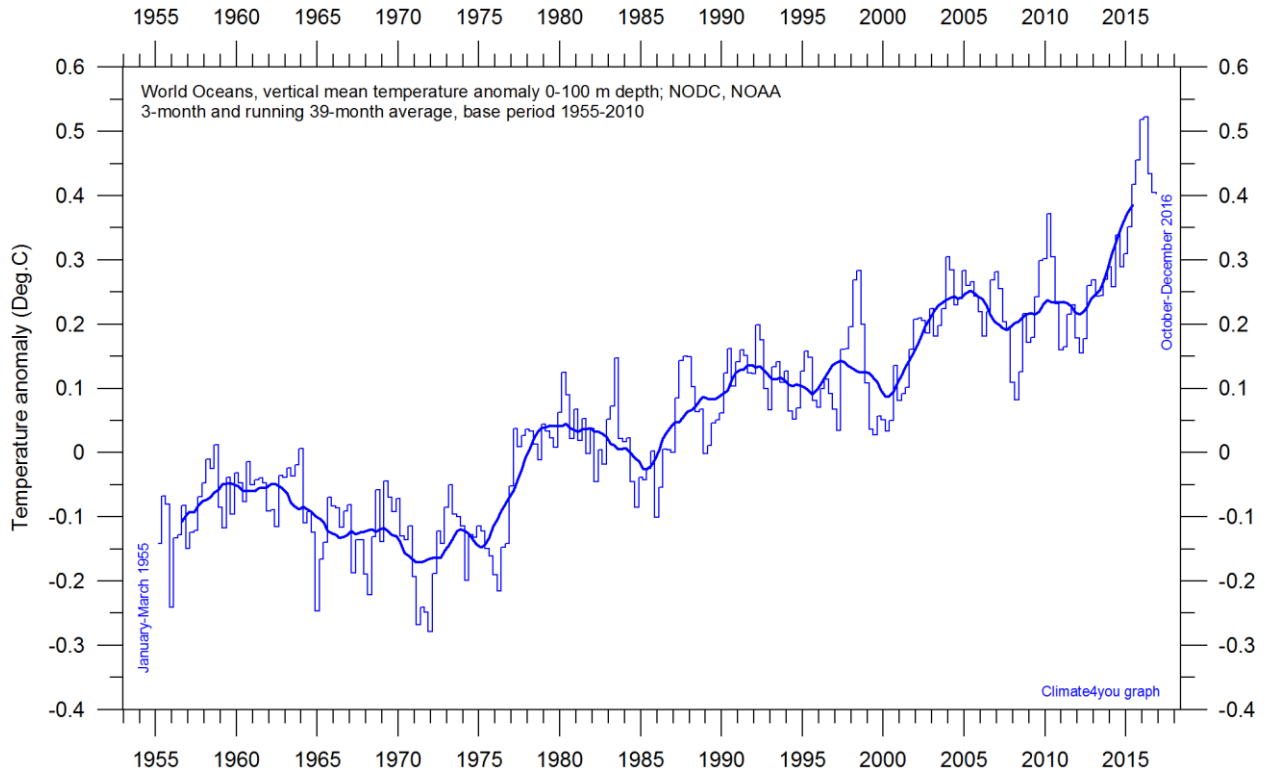
Global monthly average sea surface temperature since 1979 according to University of East Anglia's [Climatic Research Unit \(CRU\)](#), UK. Base period: 1961-1990. The thick line is the simple running 37-month average. Insert: Argo global ocean temperature anomaly from floats. Please note that this diagram has not yet been updated beyond January 2017.



Global monthly average sea surface temperature since 1979 according to the [National Climatic Data Center \(NCDC\)](#), USA. Base period: 1901-2000. The thick line is the simple running 37-month average. Insert: Argo global ocean temperature anomaly from floats.

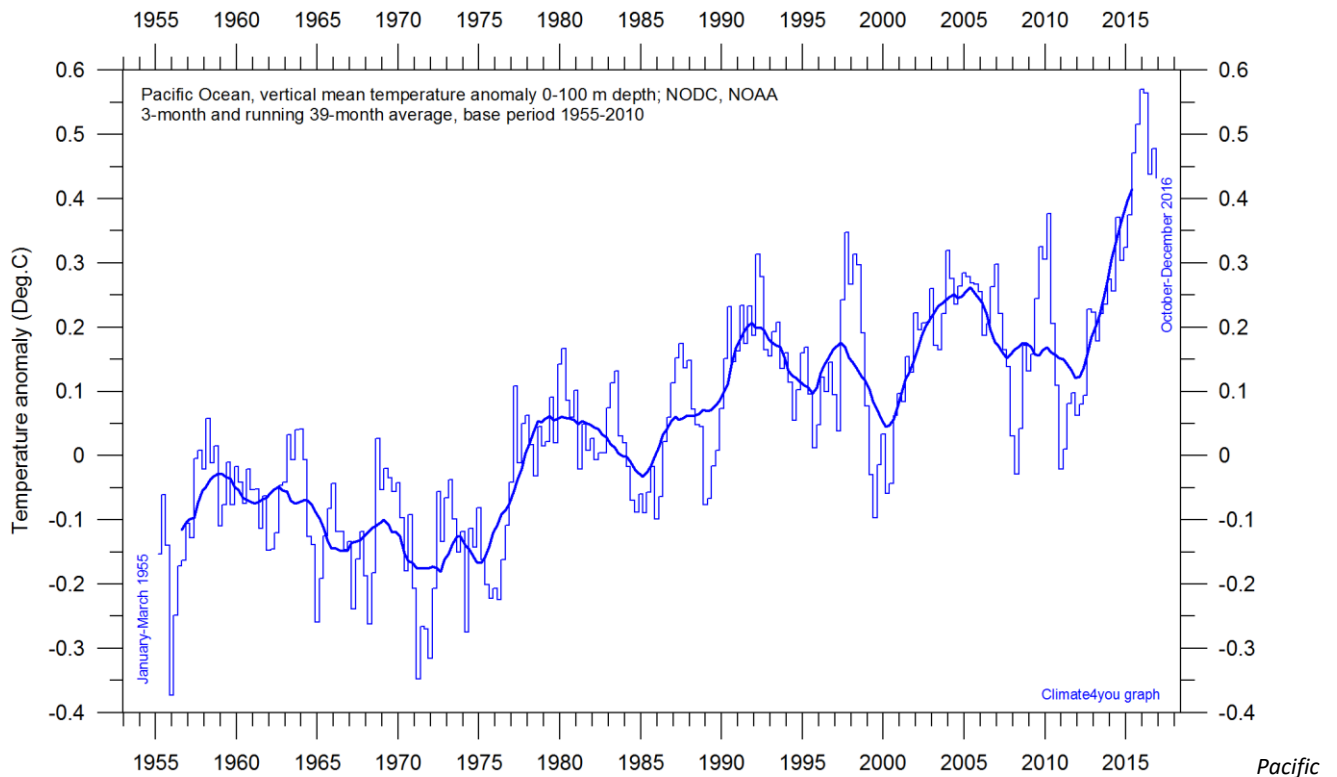
June 18, 2015: NCDC has introduced a number of rather large administrative changes to their sea surface temperature record. The overall result is to produce a record giving the impression of a continuous temperature increase, also in the 21st century. As the oceans cover about 71% of the entire surface of planet Earth, the effect of this administrative change is clearly seen in the NCDC record for global surface air temperature (p. 6).

Ocean temperature in uppermost 100 m, updated to December 2016

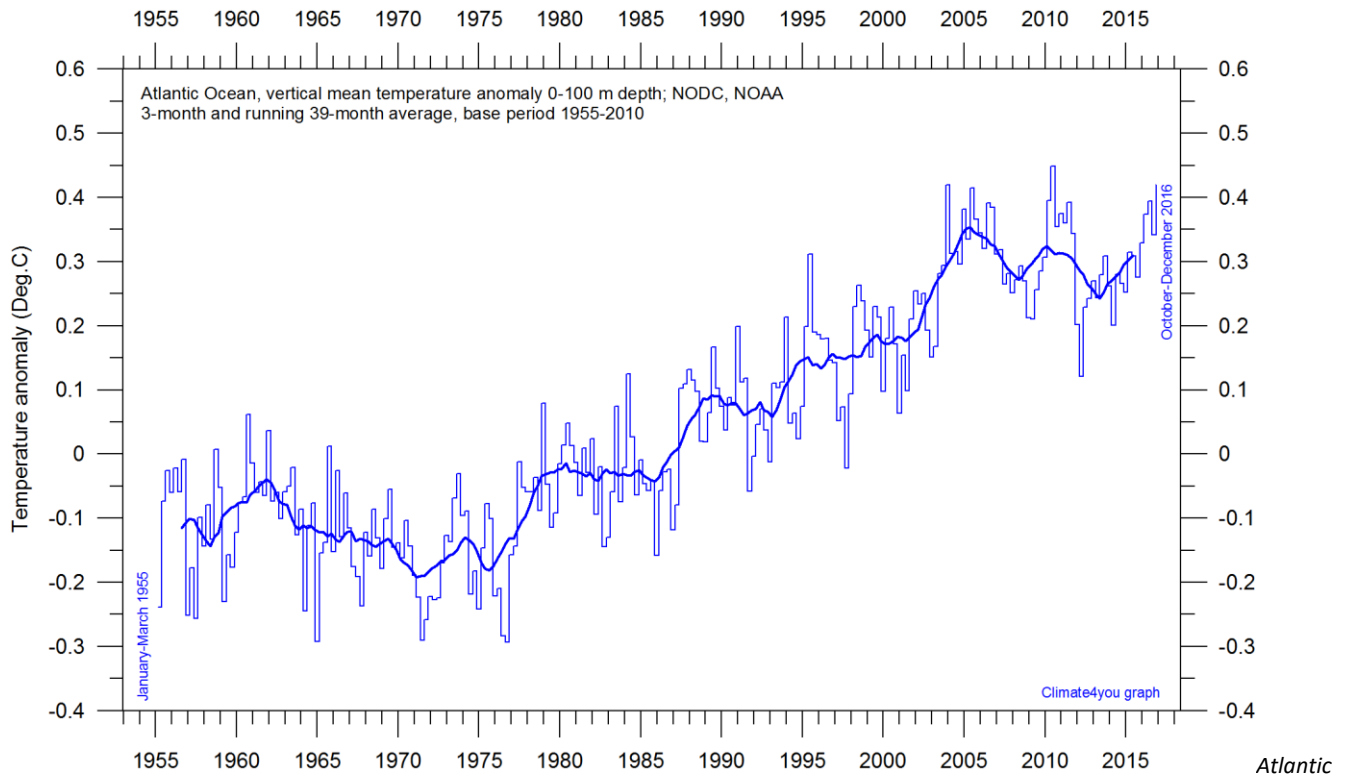


World Oceans vertical average temperature 0-100 m depth since 1955. The thin line indicates 3-month values, and the thick line represents the simple running 39-month (c. 3 year) average. Data source: [NOAA National Oceanographic Data Center \(NODC\)](#). Base period 1955-2010.

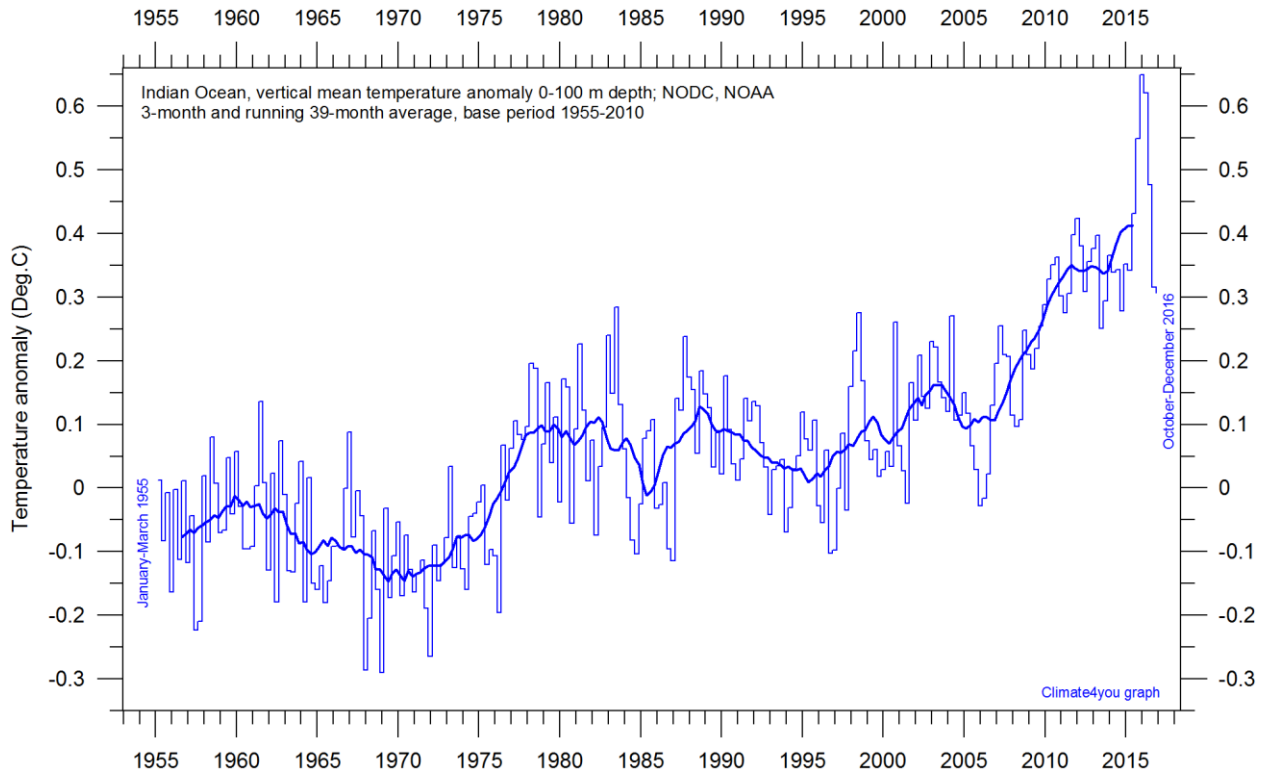
16



Pacific Ocean vertical average temperature 0-100 m depth since 1955. The thin line indicate 3-month values, and the thick line represents the simple running 39-month (c. 3 year) average. Data source: [NOAA National Oceanographic Data Center \(NODC\)](#). Base period 1955-2010.

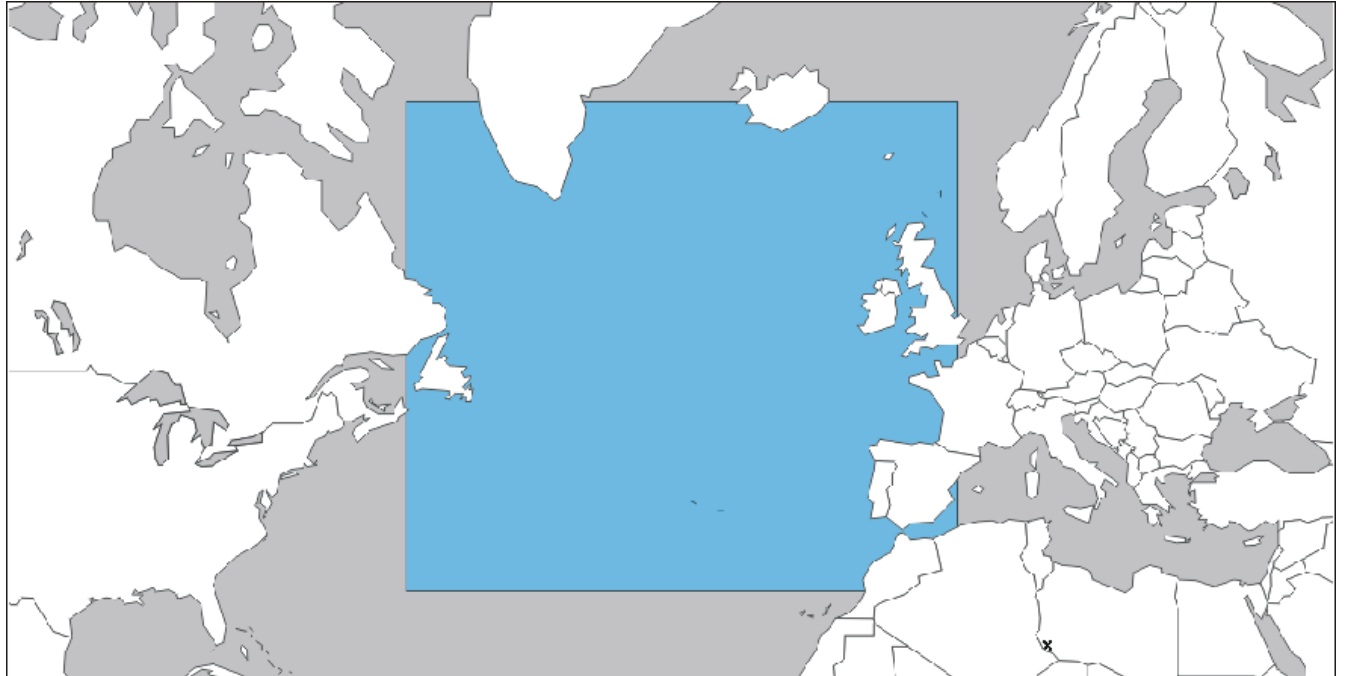


Atlantic Ocean vertical average temperature 0-100 m depth since 1955. The thin line indicate 3-month values, and the thick line represents the simple running 39-month (c. 3 year) average. Data source: [NOAA National Oceanographic Data Center \(NODC\)](#). Base period 1955-2010.

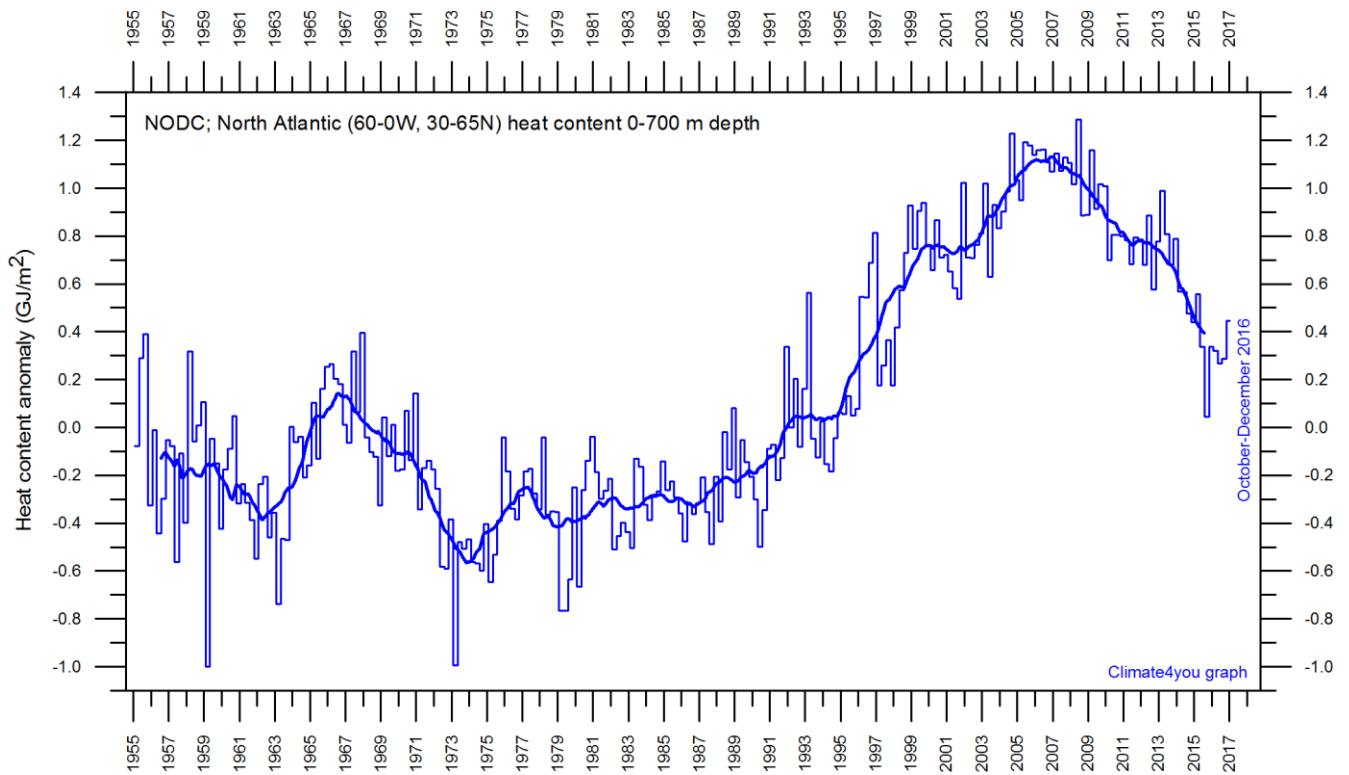


Indian Ocean vertical average temperature 0-100 m depth since 1955. The thin line indicate 3-month values, and the thick line represents the simple running 39-month (c. 3 year) average. Data source: [NOAA National Oceanographic Data Center \(NODC\)](#). Base period 1955-2010.

North Atlantic heat content uppermost 700 m, updated to December 2016

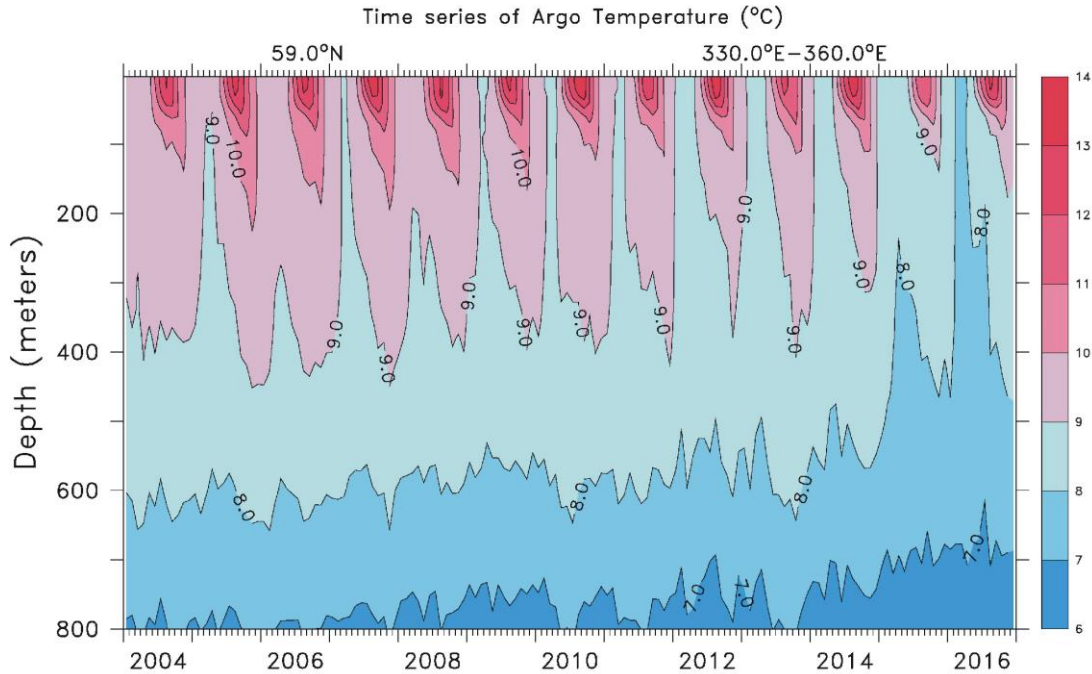


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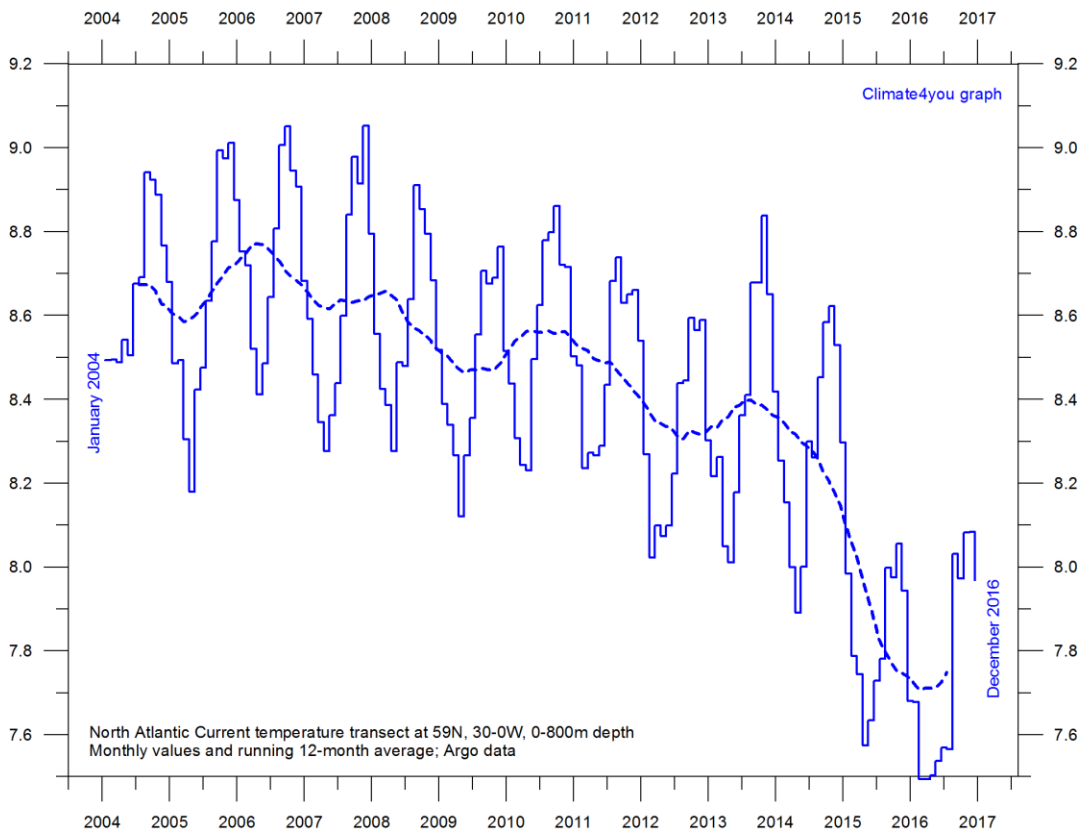
Global monthly heat content anomaly (GJ/m^2) in the uppermost 700 m of the North Atlantic (60-0W, 30-65N; see map above) ocean since January 1955. The thin line indicates monthly values, and the thick line represents the simple running 37 month (c. 3 year) average. Data source: [National Oceanographic Data Center \(NODC\)](#).

North Atlantic temperatures 0-800 m depth along 59°N, 30-0W, updated to December 2016



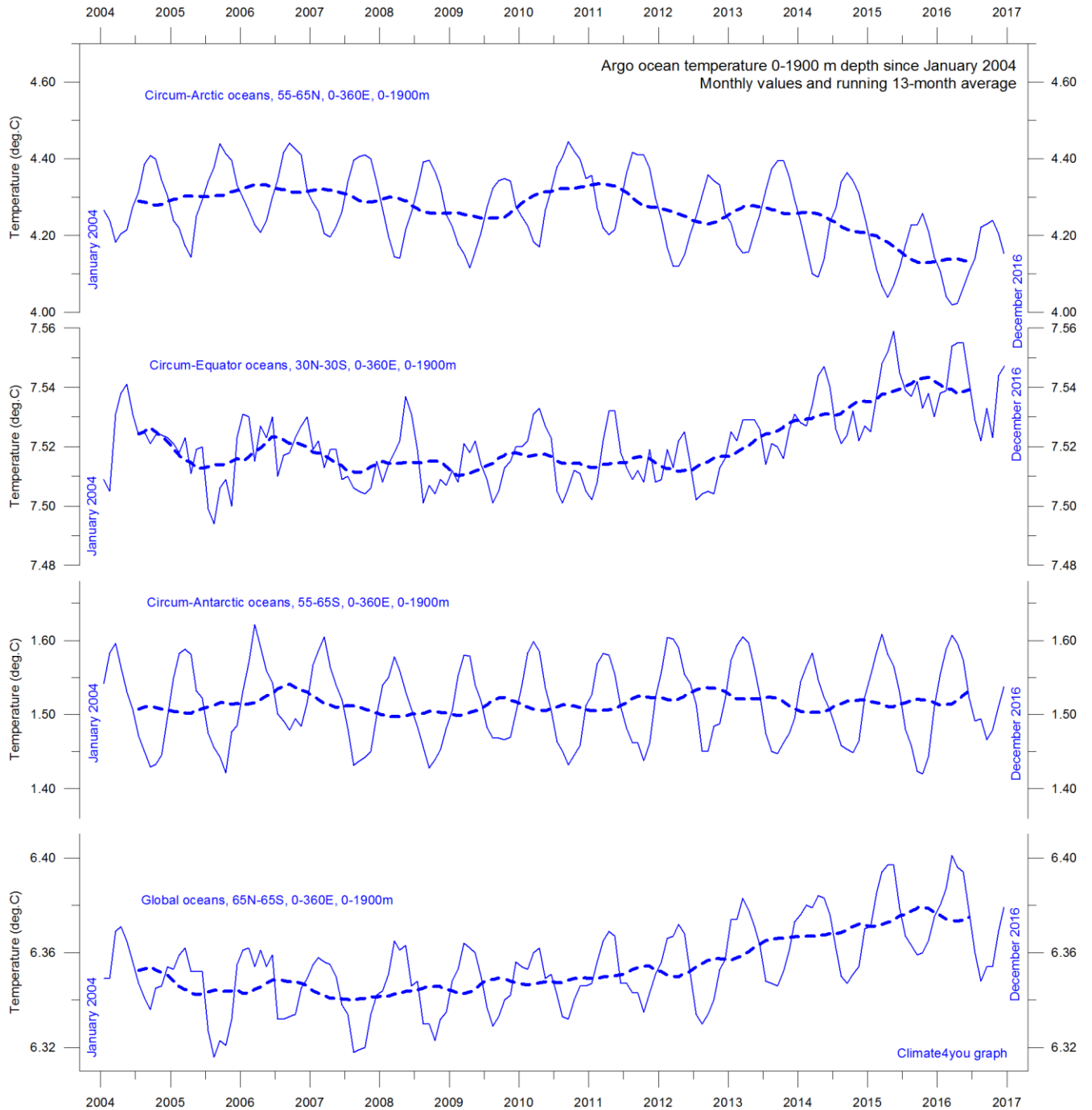
Time series depth-temperature diagram along 59 N across the North Atlantic Current from 30°W to 0°W, from surface to 800 m depth. Source: [Global Marine Argo Atlas](#). See also the diagram below.

19



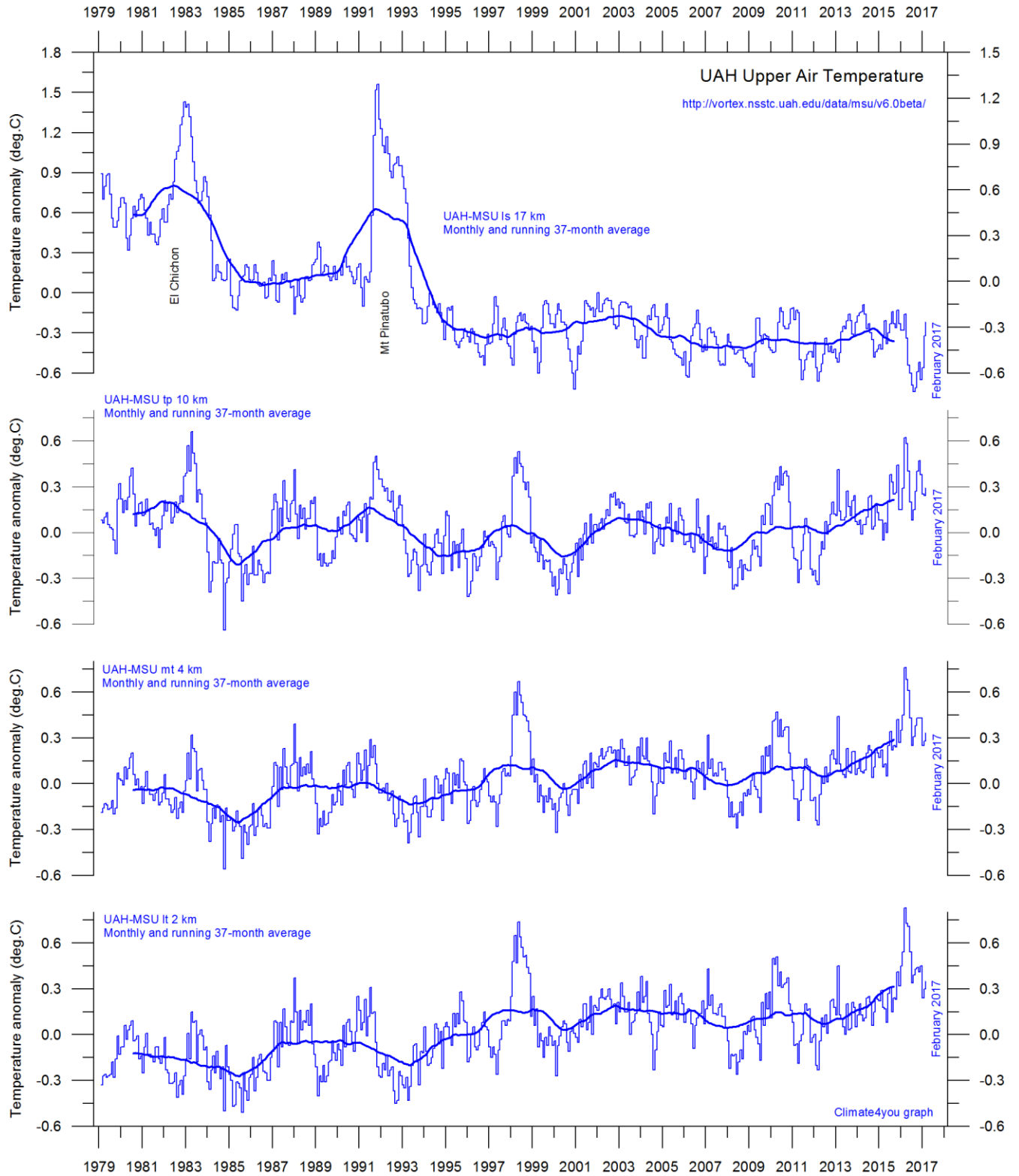
Average temperature along 59 N, 30-0W, 0-800m depth, corresponding to the main part of the North Atlantic Current, using [Argo-data](#). Source: [Global Marine Argo Atlas](#). Additional information can be found in: Roemmich, D. and J. Gilson, 2009. The 2004-2008 mean and annual cycle of temperature, salinity, and steric height in the global ocean from the Argo Program. [Progress in Oceanography](#), 82, 81-100.

Global ocean temperature 0-1900 m depth summary, updated to December 2016



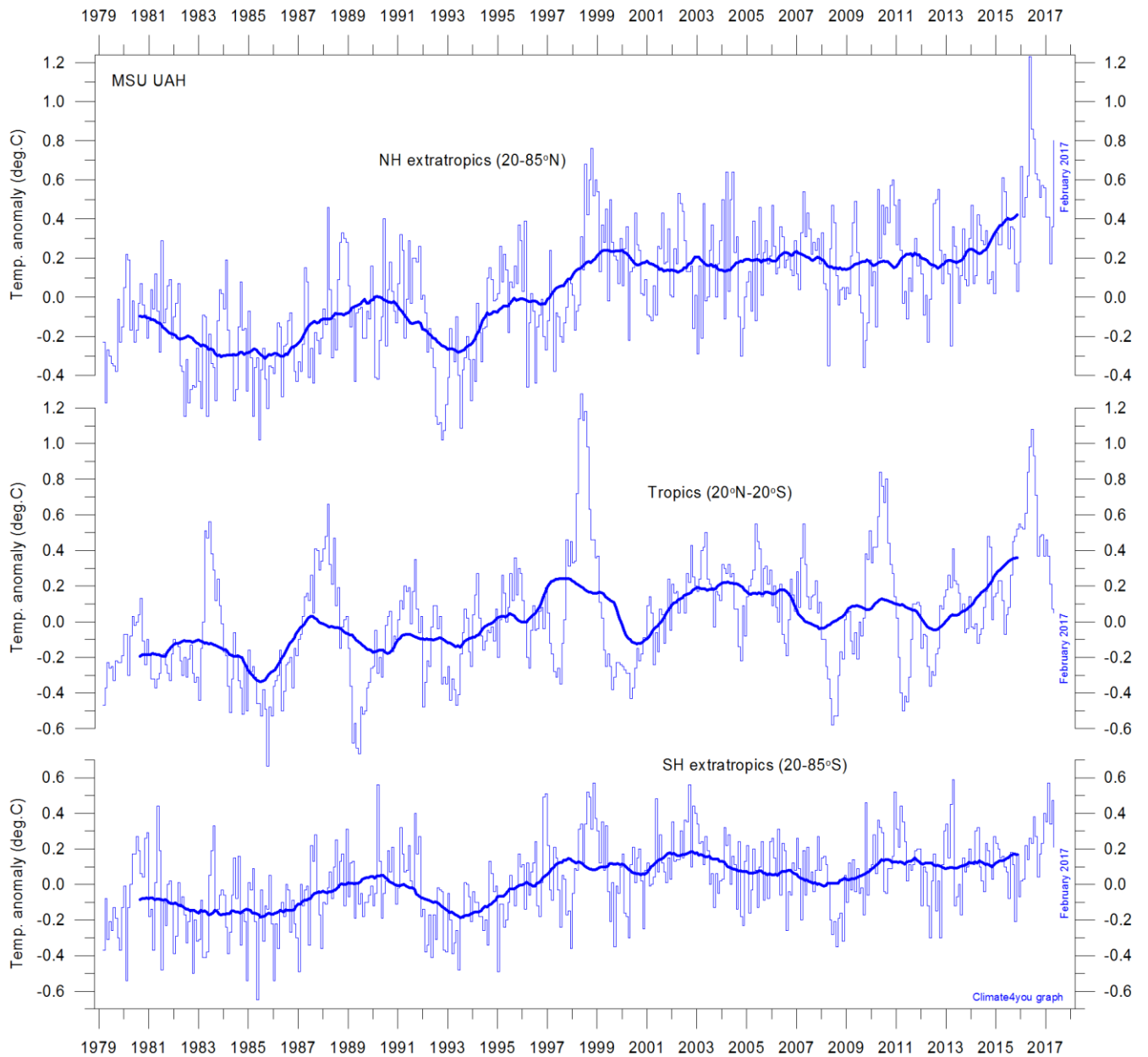
Summary of average temperature in uppermost 2000 m in different parts of the global oceans, using [Argo](#)-data. Source: [Global Marine Argo Atlas](#). Additional information can be found in: Roemmich, D. and J. Gilson, 2009. The 2004-2008 mean and annual cycle of temperature, salinity, and steric height in the global ocean from the Argo Program. [Progress in Oceanography](#), 82, 81-100.

Troposphere and stratosphere temperatures from satellites, updated to February 2017



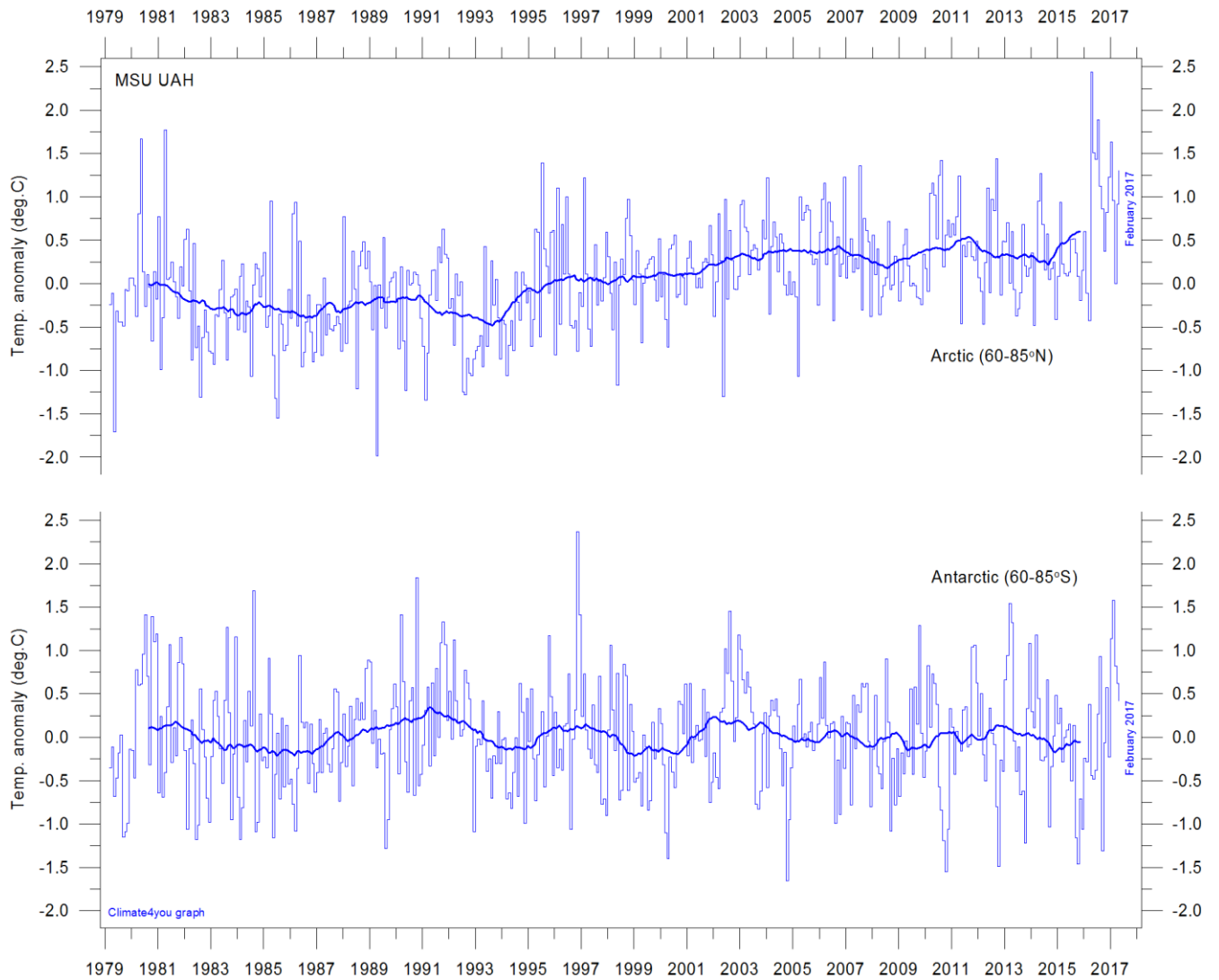
Global monthly average temperature in different according to University of Alabama at Huntsville, USA. The thin lines represent the monthly average, and the thick line the simple running 37 month average, nearly corresponding to a running 3 year average.

Zonal lower troposphere temperatures from satellites, updated to February 2017



Global monthly average lower troposphere temperature since 1979 for the tropics and the northern and southern extratropics, according to University of Alabama at Huntsville, USA. Thin lines show the monthly temperature. Thick lines represent the simple running 37-month average, nearly corresponding to a running 3 year average. Reference period 1981-2010.

Arctic and Antarctic lower troposphere temperature, updated to February 2017



Global monthly average lower troposphere temperature since 1979 for the North Pole and South Pole regions, based on satellite observations ([University of Alabama](#) at Huntsville, USA). Thin lines show the monthly temperature. The thick line is the simple running 37-month average, nearly corresponding to a running 3 year average. Reference period 1981-2010.

Arctic and Antarctic surface air temperature, updated to January 2017

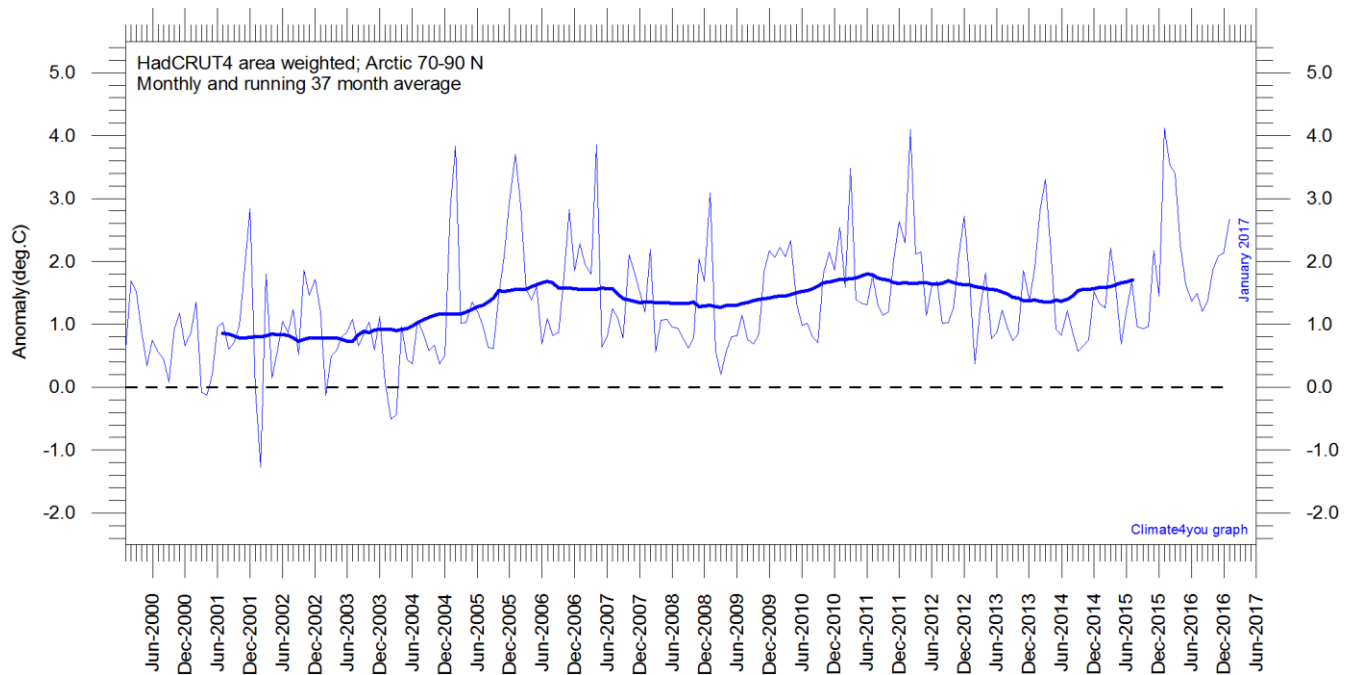


Diagram showing area weighted Arctic (70-90°N) monthly surface air temperature anomalies ([HadCRUT4](#)) since January 2000, in relation to the WMO [normal period](#) 1961-1990. The thin line shows the monthly temperature anomaly, while the thicker line shows the running 37 month (c. 3 year) average.

24

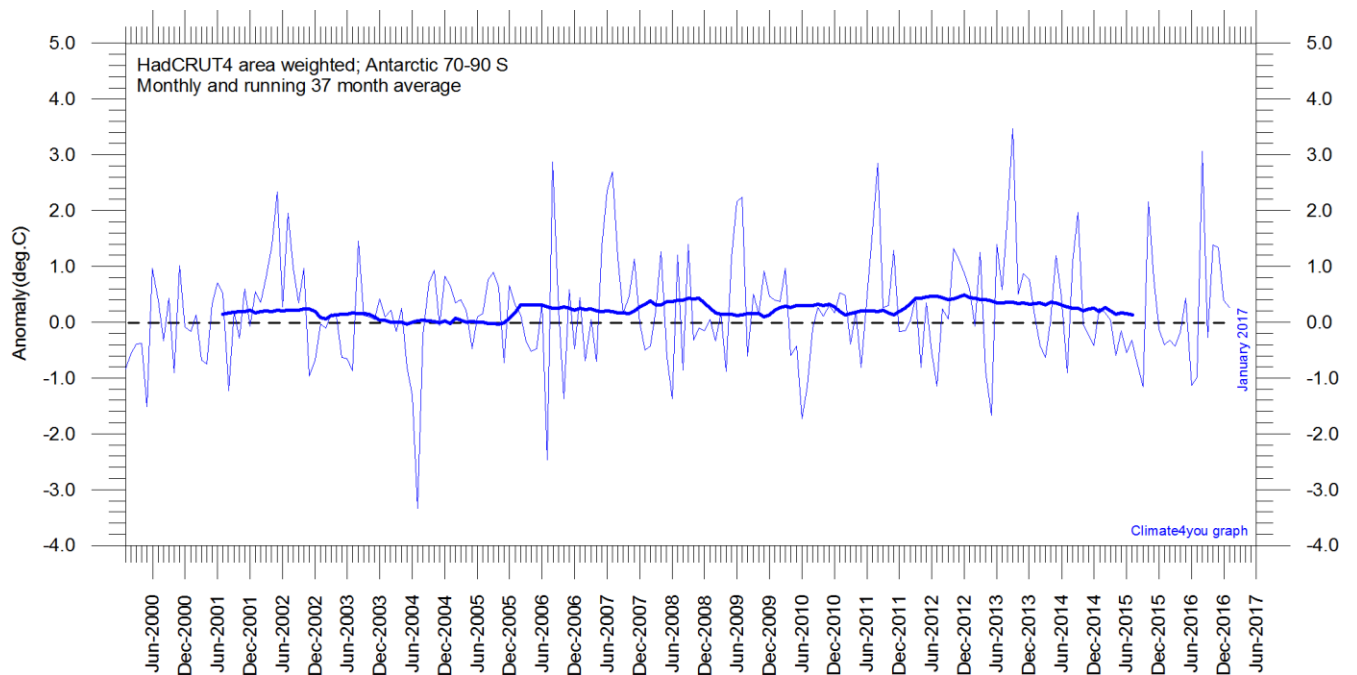


Diagram showing area weighted Antarctic (70-90°S) monthly surface air temperature anomalies ([HadCRUT4](#)) since January 2000, in relation to the WMO [normal period](#) 1961-1990. The thin line shows the monthly temperature anomaly, while the thicker line shows the running 37 month (c. 3 year) average.

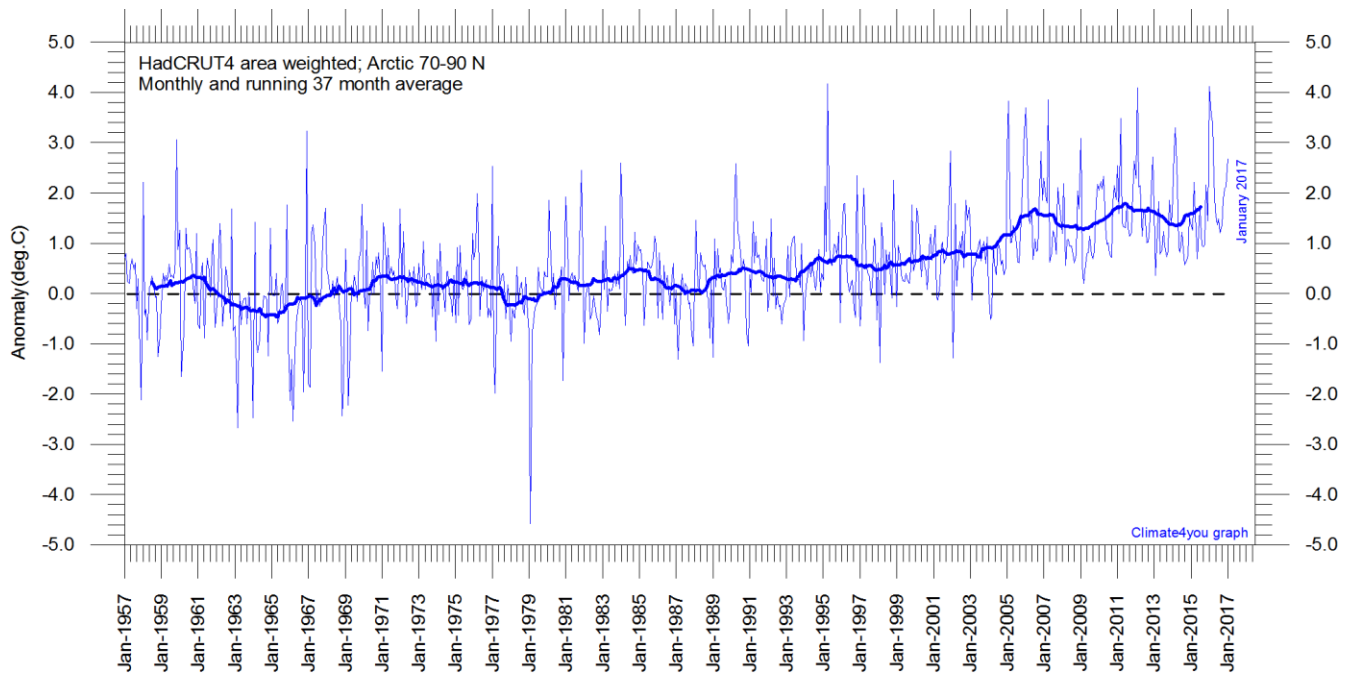


Diagram showing area weighted Arctic (70-90°N) monthly surface air temperature anomalies ([HadCRUT4](#)) since January 1957, in relation to the WMO [normal period](#) 1961-1990. The thin line shows the monthly temperature anomaly, while the thicker line shows the running 37 month (c. 3 year) average.

25

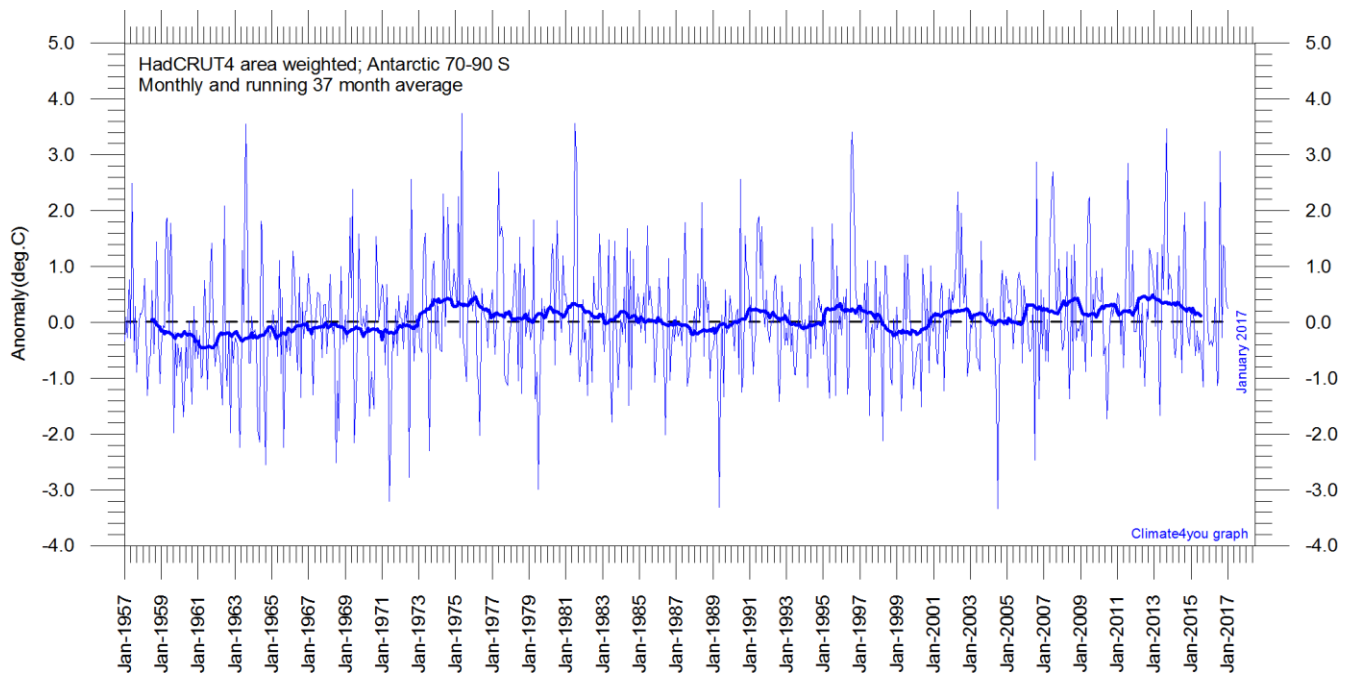


Diagram showing area weighted Antarctic (70-90°S) monthly surface air temperature anomalies ([HadCRUT4](#)) since January 1957, in relation to the WMO [normal period](#) 1961-1990. The thin line shows the monthly temperature anomaly, while the thicker line shows the running 37 month (c. 3 year) average.

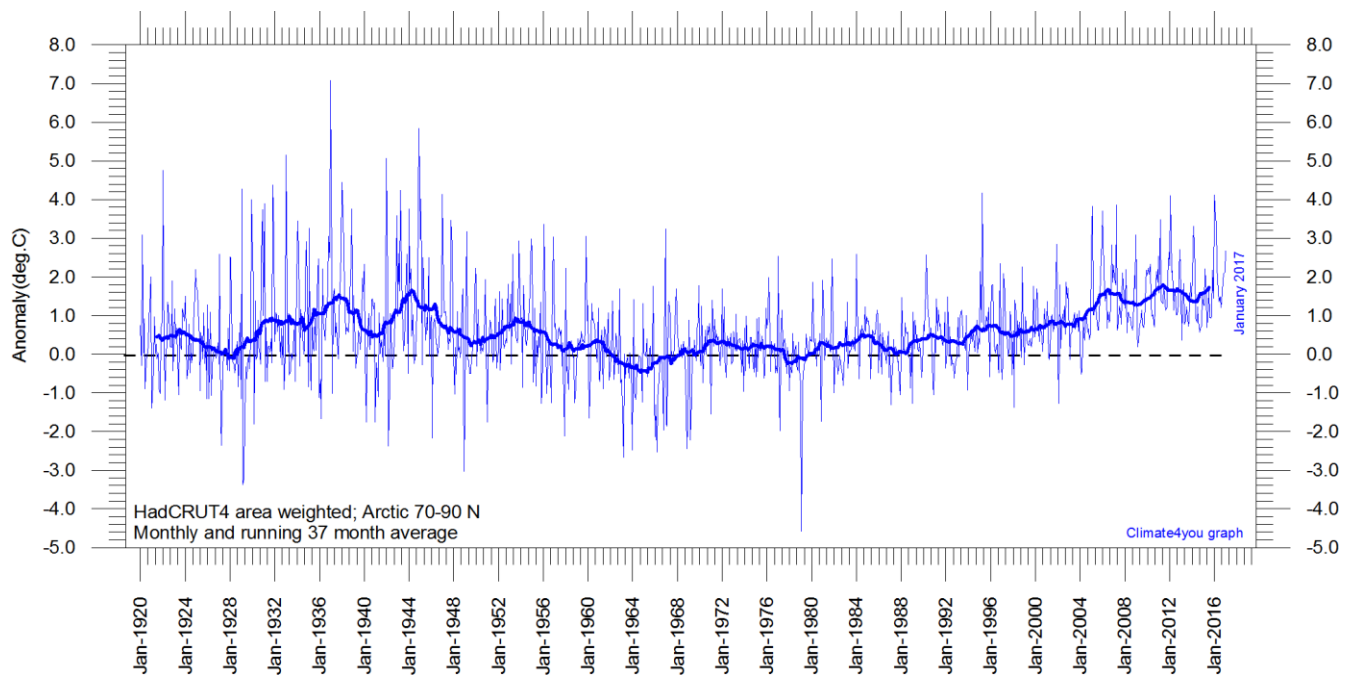


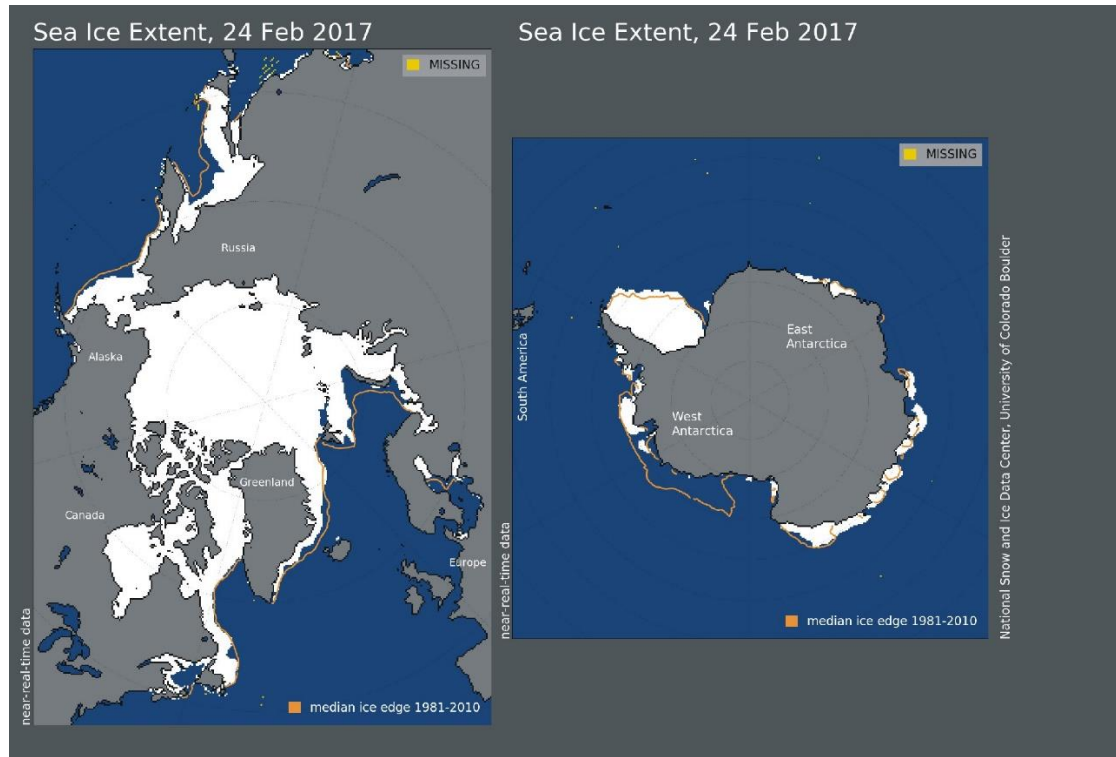
Diagram showing area-weighted Arctic (70-90°N) monthly surface air temperature anomalies ([HadCRUT4](#)) since January 1920, in relation to the WMO [normal period](#) 1961-1990. The thin line shows the monthly temperature anomaly, while the thicker line shows the running 37 month (c. 3 year) average. Because of the relatively small number of Arctic stations before 1930, month-to-month variations in the early part of the temperature record are larger than later. The period from about 1930 saw the establishment of many new Arctic meteorological stations, first in Russia and Siberia, and following the 2nd World War, also in North America. The period since 2000 is warm, about as warm as the period 1930-1940.

As the HadCRUT4 data series has improved high latitude coverage data coverage (compared to the HadCRUT3 series) the individual 5°x5° grid cells has been weighted according to their surface area. This is in contrast to [Gillett et al. 2008](#) which calculated a simple average, with no consideration to the surface area represented by the individual 5°x5° grid cells.

Literature:

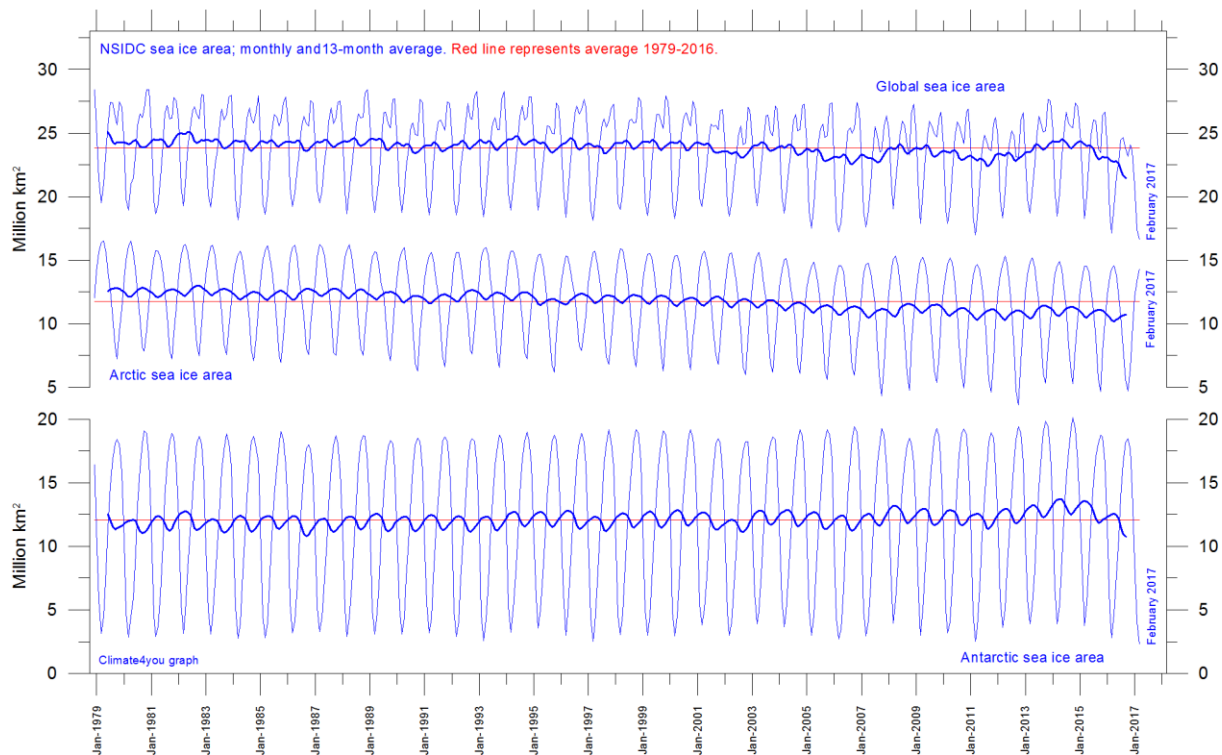
Gillett, N.P., Stone, D.A., Stott, P.A., Nozawa, T., Karpechko, A.Y.U., Hegerl, G.C., Wehner, M.F. and Jones, P.D. 2008. Attribution of polar warming to human influence. *Nature Geoscience* 1, 750-754.

Arctic and Antarctic sea ice, updated to February 2017



Sea ice extent 24 February 2017. The median limit of sea ice (orange line) is defined as 15% sea ice cover, according to the average of satellite observations 1981-2010 (both years inclusive). Sea ice may therefore well be encountered outside and open water areas inside the limit shown in the diagrams above. Map source: National Snow and Ice Data Center (NSIDC).

27



Graphs showing monthly Antarctic, Arctic and global sea ice extent since November 1978, according to the [National Snow and Ice data Center \(NSIDC\)](#).

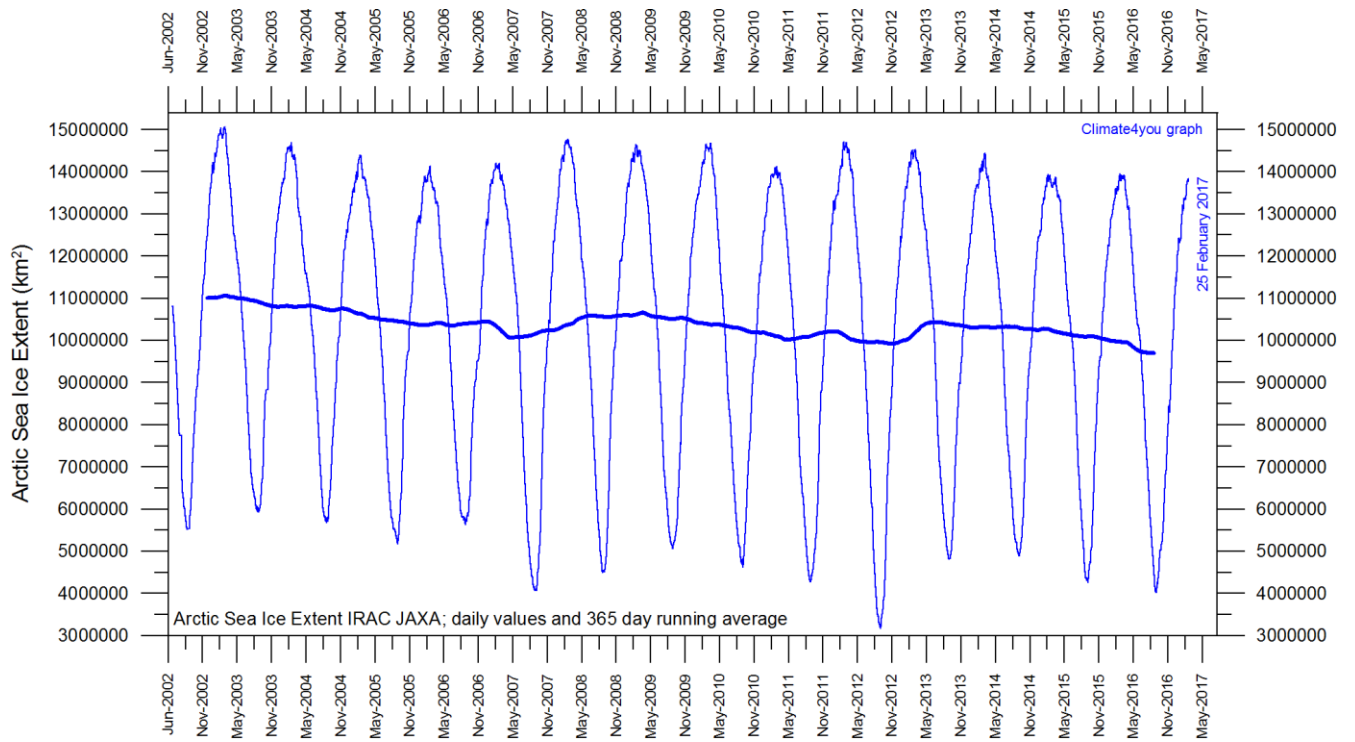
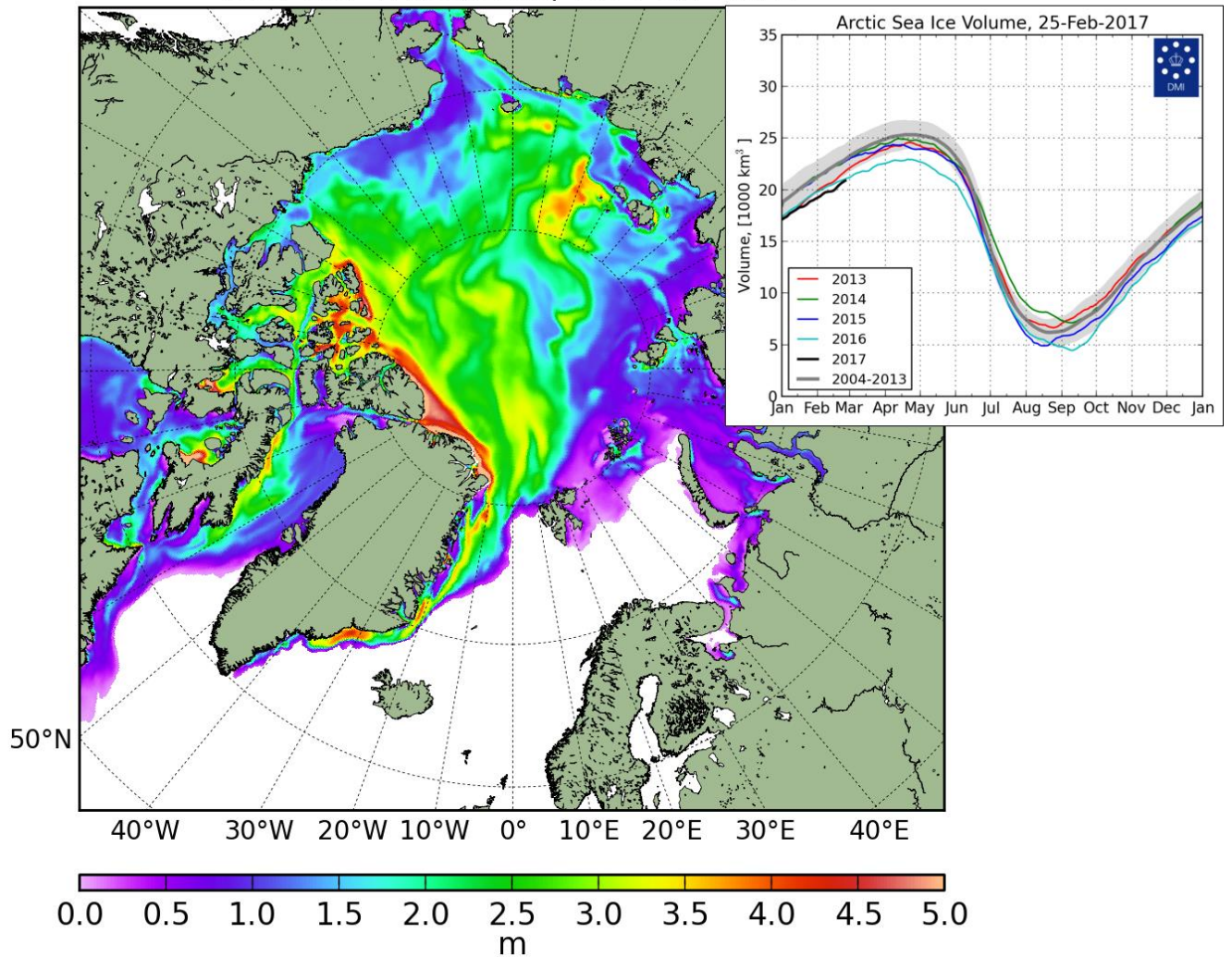
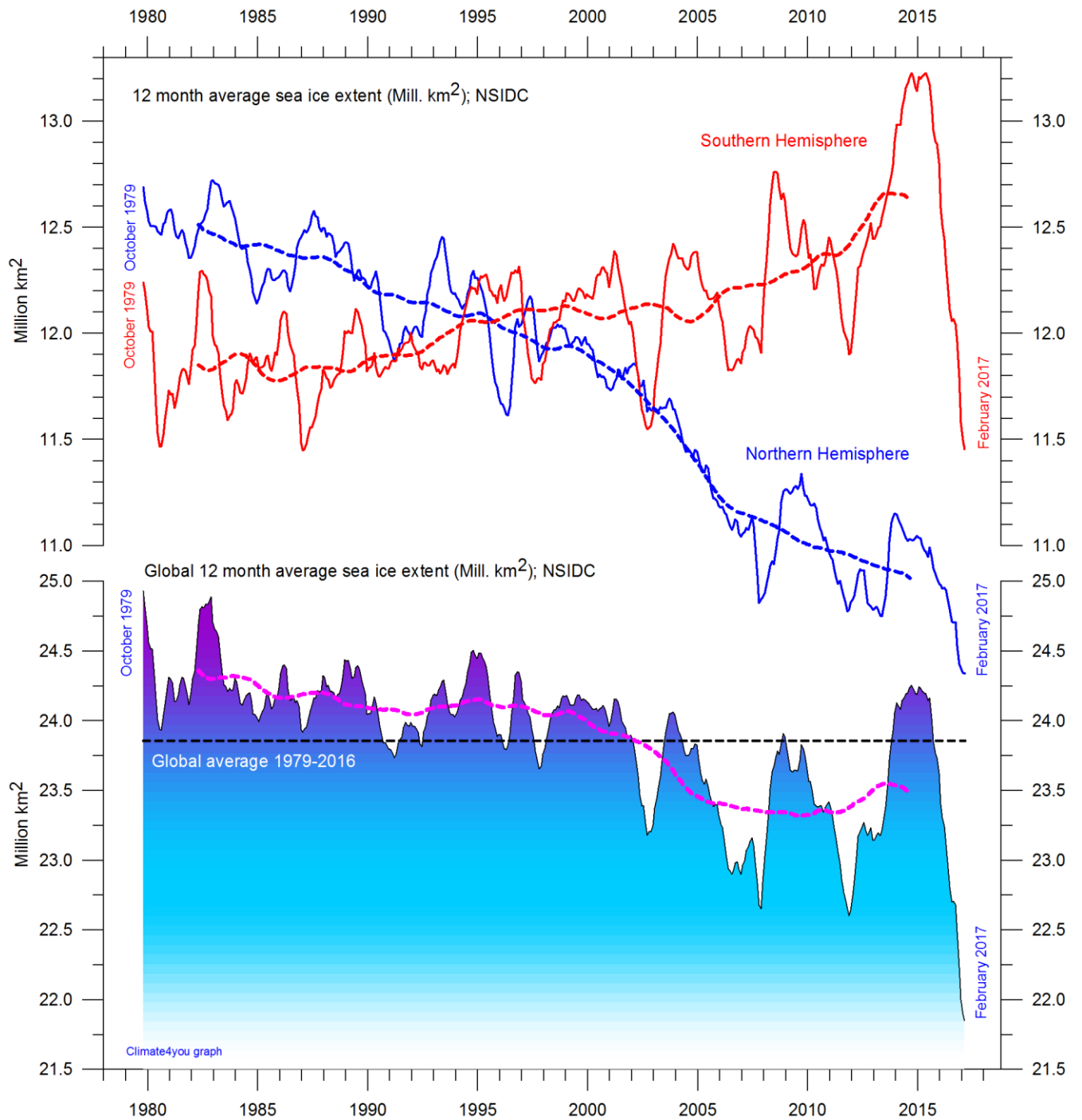


Diagram showing daily Arctic sea ice extent since June 2002, to 25 February 2017, by courtesy of [Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency \(JAXA\)](http://www.jaxa.jp).

Sea Ice Thickness, 25-Feb-2017



Diagrams showing Arctic sea ice extent 25 February 2017 and the seasonal cycles of the calculated total arctic sea ice volume, according to [The Danish Meteorological Institute \(DMI\)](#). The mean sea ice volume and standard deviation for the period 2004-2013 are shown by grey shading.



12 month running average sea ice extension, global and in both hemispheres since 1979, the satellite-era. The October 1979 value represents the monthly 12-month average of November 1978 - October 1979, the November 1979 value represents the average of December 1978 - November 1979, etc. The stippled lines represent a 61-month (ca. 5 years) average. Data source: National Snow and Ice Data Center (NSIDC).

Sea level in general

Global (or eustatic) sea-level change is measured relative to an idealised reference level, the geoid, which is a mathematical model of planet Earth's surface (Carter et al. 2014). Global sea-level is a function of the volume of the ocean basins and the volume of water they contain. Changes in global sea-level are caused by – but not limited to - four main mechanisms:

1. Changes in local and regional air pressure and wind, and tidal changes introduced by the Moon.
2. Changes in ocean basin volume by tectonic (geological) forces.
3. Changes in ocean water density caused by variations in currents, water temperature and salinity.
4. Changes in the volume of water caused by changes in the mass balance of terrestrial glaciers.

In addition to these there are other mechanisms influencing sea-level; such as storage of ground water, storage in lakes and rivers, evaporation, etc.

Mechanism 1 is controlling sea-level at many sites on a time scale from months to several years. As an example, many coastal stations show a pronounced annual variation reflecting seasonal changes in air pressures and wind speed. Longer-term climatic changes playing out over decades or centuries will also affect measurements of sea-level changes. Hansen et al. (2011, 2015) provide excellent analyses of sea-level changes caused by recurrent changes of the orbit of the Moon and other phenomena.

Mechanism 2 – with the important exception of earthquakes and tsunamis - typically operates over long (geological) time scales, and is not significant on human time scales. It may relate to variations in the sea-floor spreading rate, causing volume changes in mid-ocean mountain ridges, and to the slowly changing configuration of land and oceans. Another effect may be the slow rise of basins due to isostatic offloading by deglaciation after an ice age. The floor of the Baltic Sea and the Hudson Bay are presently rising, causing a slow net

transfer of water from these basins into the adjoining oceans. Slow changes of very big glaciers (ice sheets) and movements in the mantle will affect the gravity field and thereby the vertical position of the ocean surface. Any increase of the total water mass as well as sediment deposition into oceans increase the load on their bottom, generating sinking by viscoelastic flow in the mantle below. The mantle flow is directed towards the surrounding land areas, which will rise, thereby partly compensating for the initial sea level increase induced by the increased water mass in the ocean.

Mechanism 3 (temperature-driven expansion) only affects the uppermost part of the oceans on human time scales. Usually, temperature-driven changes in density are more important than salinity-driven changes. Seawater is characterised by a relatively small coefficient of expansion, but the effect should however not be overlooked, especially when interpreting satellite altimetry data. Temperature-driven expansion of a column of seawater will not affect the total mass of water within the column considered, and will therefore not affect the potential at the top of the water column. Temperature-driven ocean water expansion will therefore not in itself lead to lateral displacement of water, but only lift the ocean surface locally. Near the coast, where people are living, the depth of water approaches zero, so no temperature-driven expansion will take place here (Mörner 2015). Mechanism 3 is for that reason not important for coastal regions.

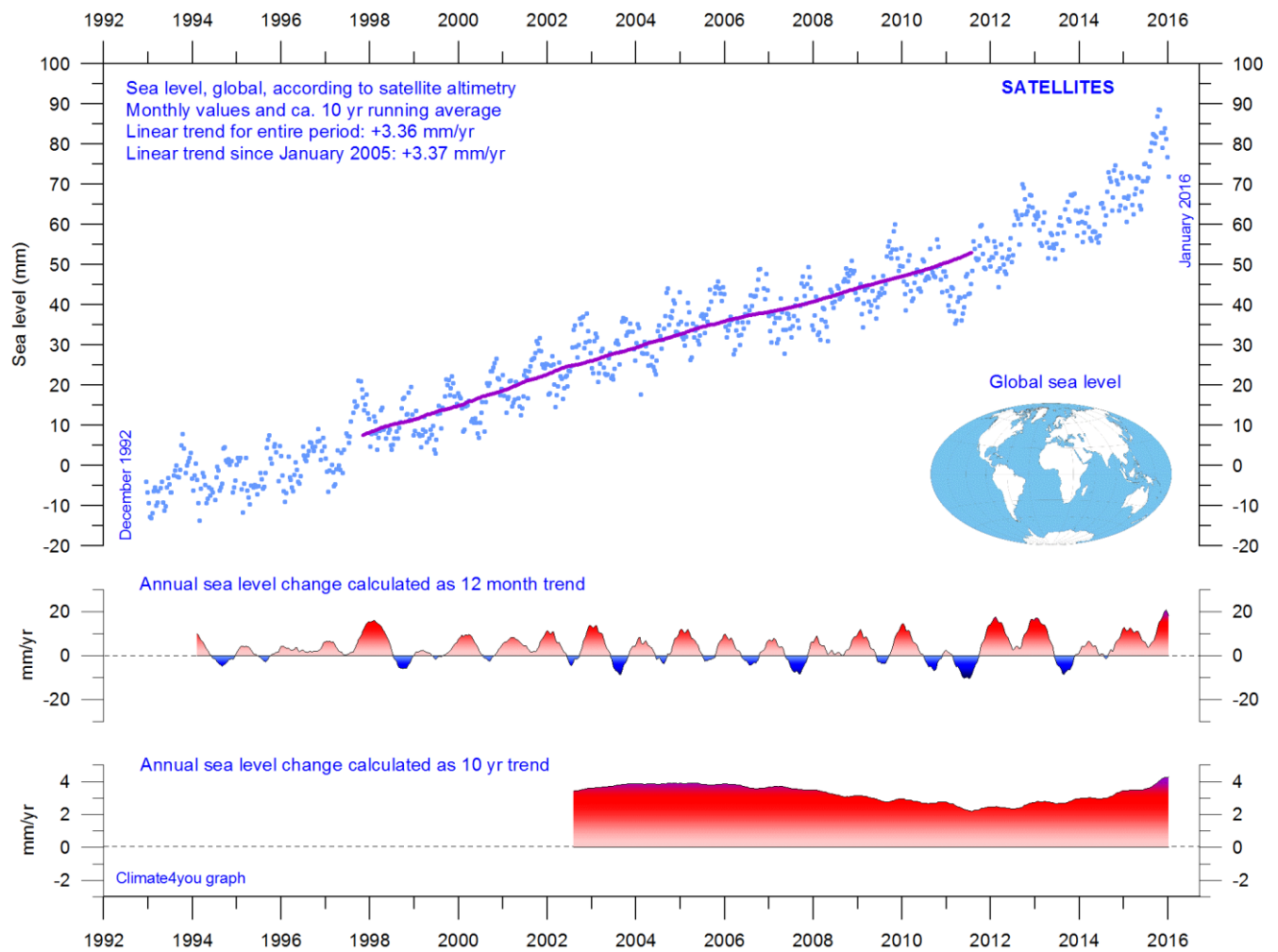
Mechanism 4 (changes in glacier mass balance) is an important driver for global sea-level changes along coasts, for human time scales. Volume changes of floating glaciers – ice shelves – has no influence on the global sea-level, just like volume changes of floating sea ice has no influence. Only the mass-balance of grounded or land-based glaciers is important for the global sea-level along coasts.

Summing up: Mechanism 1 and 4 are the most important for understanding sea-level changes along coasts.

References:

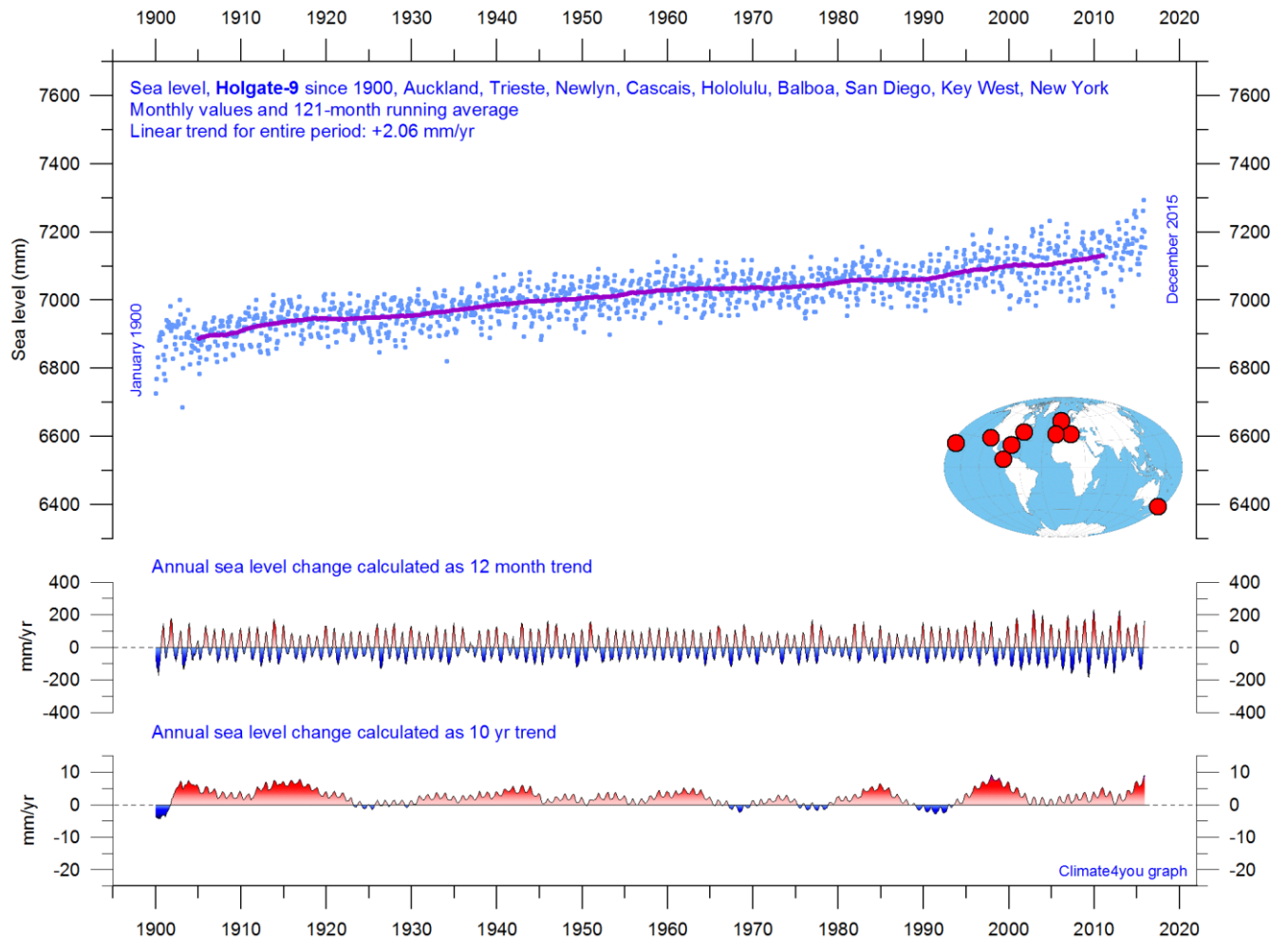
- Carter R.M., de Lange W., Hansen, J.M., Humlum O., Idso C., Kear, D., Legates, D., Mörner, N.A., Ollier C., Singer F. & Soon W. 2014. Commentary and Analysis on the Whitehead& Associates 2014 NSW Sea-Level Report. Policy Brief, NIPCC, 24. September 2014, 44 pp. <http://climatechangereconsidered.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/09/NIPCC-Report-on-NSW-Coastal-SL-9z-corrected.pdf>
- Hansen, J.-M., Aagaard, T. and Binderup, M. 2011. Absolute sea levels and isostatic changes of the eastern North Sea to central Baltic region during the last 900 years. *Boreas*, 10.1111/j.1502-3885.2011.00229.x. ISSN 0300-9483.
- Hansen, J.-M., Aagaard, T. and Huijpers, A. 2015. Sea-Level Forcing by Synchronization of 56- and 74-Year Oscillations with the Moon's Nodal Tide on the Northwest European Shelf (Eastern North Sea to Central Baltic Sea). *Journ. Coastal Research*, 16 pp.
- Mörner, Nils-Axel 2015. Sea Level Changes as recorded in nature itself. *Journal of Engineering Research and Applications*, Vol.5, 1, 124-129.

Global sea level from satellite altimetry, updated to January 2016



Global sea level since December 1992 according to the Colorado Center for Astrodynamics Research at University of Colorado at Boulder. The blue dots are the individual observations, and the purple line represents the running 121-month (ca. 10 year) average. The two lower panels show the annual sea level change, calculated for 1 and 10 year time windows, respectively. These values are plotted at the end of the interval considered. Data from the TOPEX/Poseidon mission have been used before 2002, and data from the Jason-1 mission (satellite launched December 2001) after 2002.

Global sea level from tide-gauges, updated to December 2015

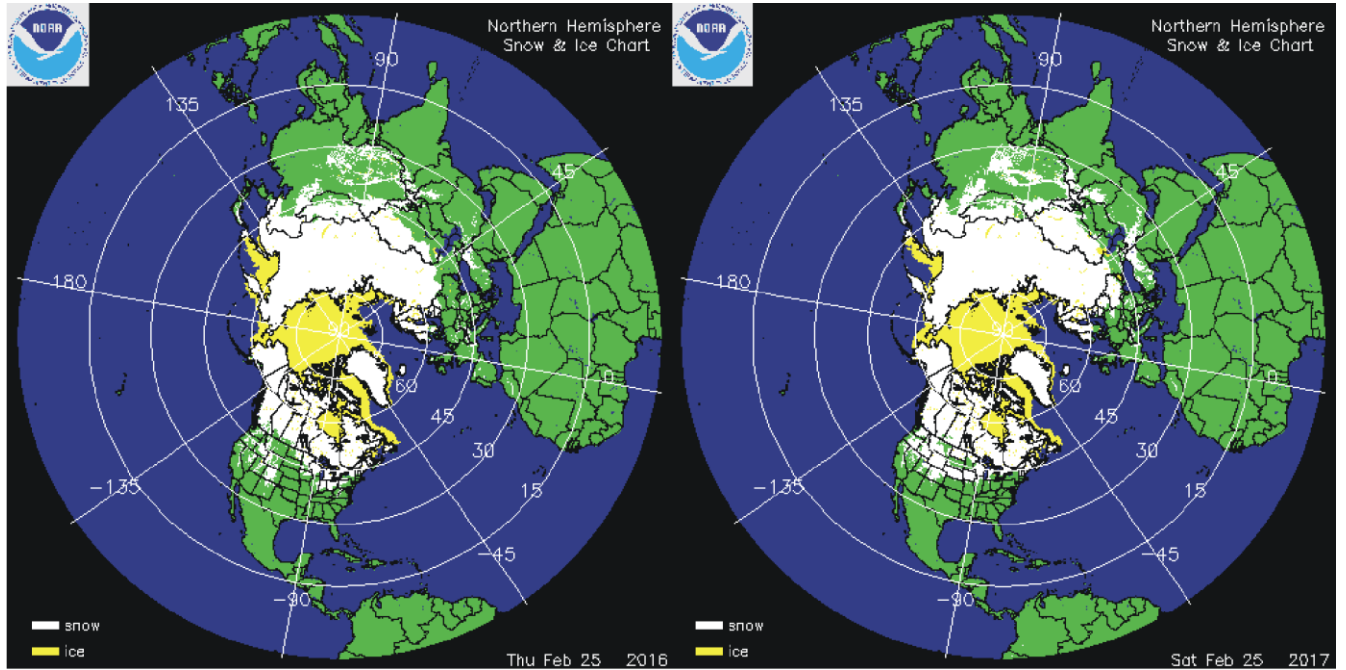


Holgate-9 monthly tide gauge data from PSMSL Data Explorer. *Holgate (2007)* suggested the nine stations listed in the diagram to capture the variability found in a larger number of stations over the last half century studied previously. For that reason average values of the *Holgate-9* group of tide gauge stations are interesting to follow. The blue dots are the individual average monthly observations, and the purple line represents the running 121-month (ca. 10 yr) average. The two lower panels show the annual sea level change, calculated for 1 and 10 yr time windows, respectively. These values are plotted at the end of the interval considered.

Reference:

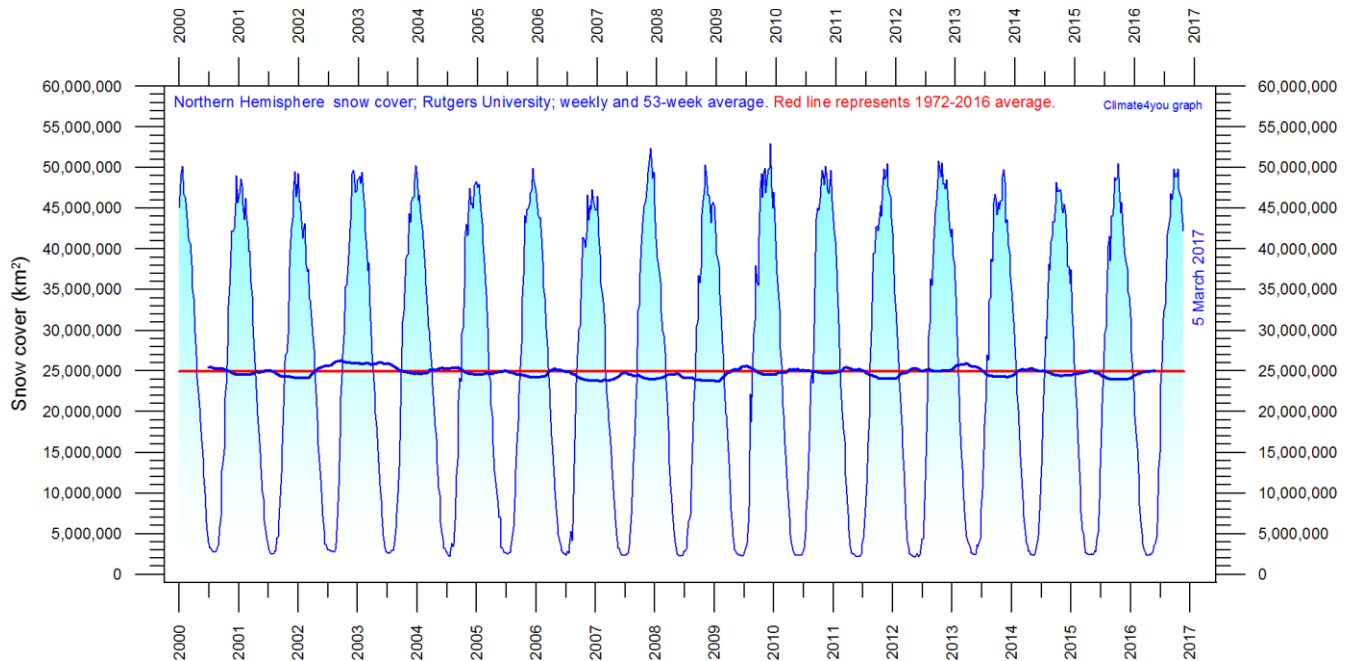
Holgate, S.J. 2007. On the decadal rates of sea level change during the twentieth century. *Geophys. Res. Letters*, 34, L01602, doi:10.1029/2006GL028492

Northern Hemisphere weekly snow cover, updated to February 2017

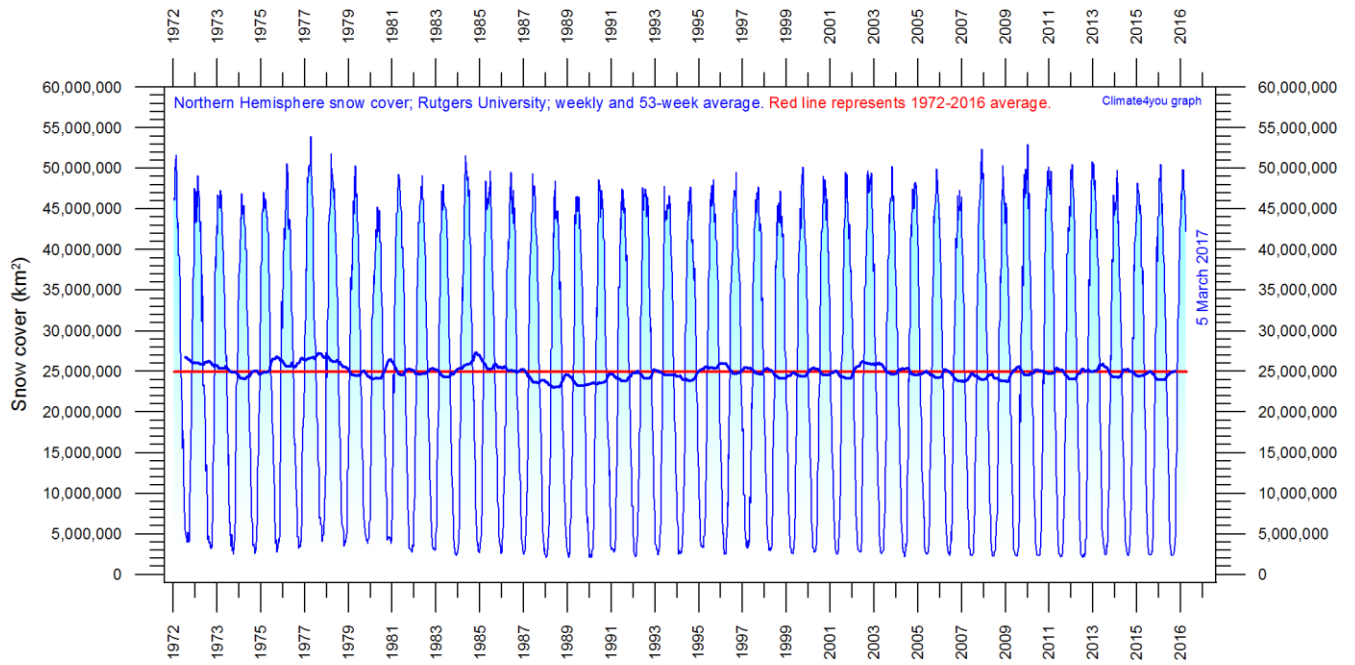


Northern hemisphere snow cover (white) and sea ice (yellow) 25 February 2016 (left) and 2017 (right). Map source: [National Ice Center](#) (NIC).

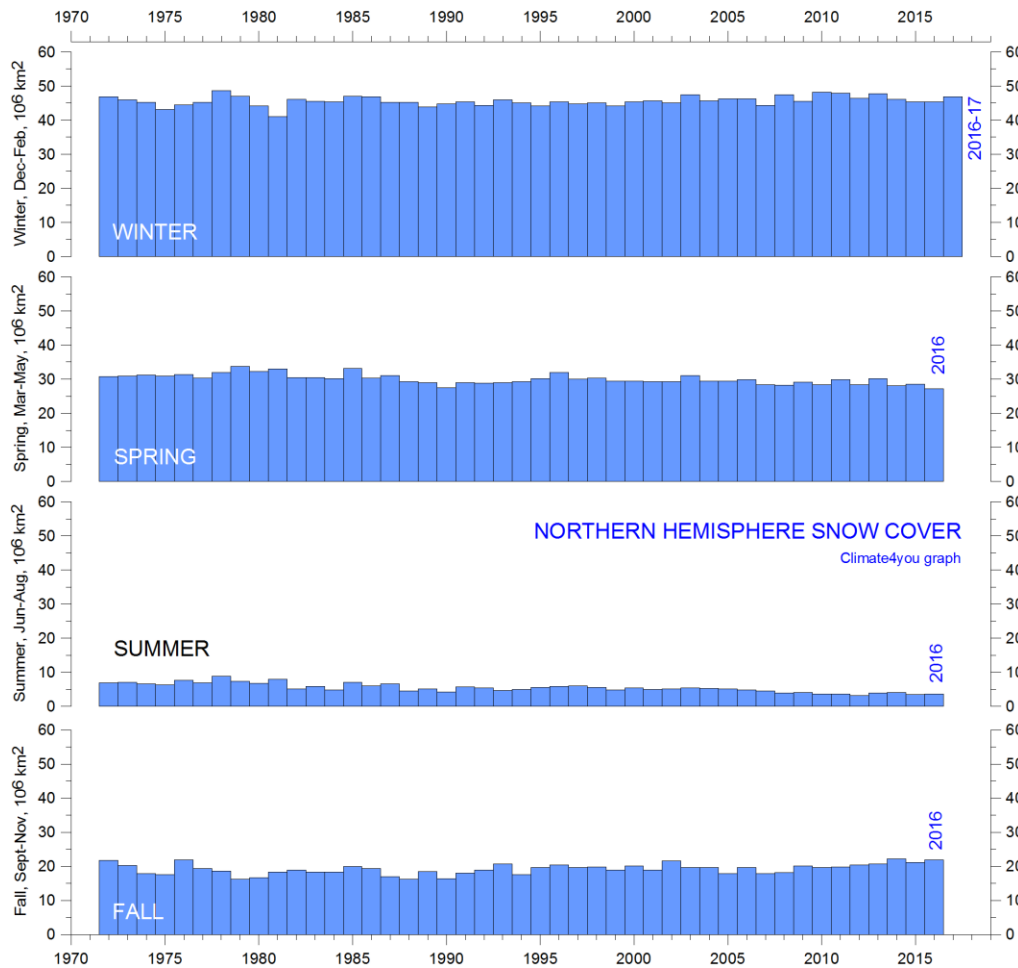
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Northern hemisphere weekly snow cover since January 2000 according to Rutgers University Global Snow Laboratory. The thin blue line is the weekly data, and the thick blue line is the running 53-week average (approximately 1 year). The horizontal red line is the 1972-2016 average.

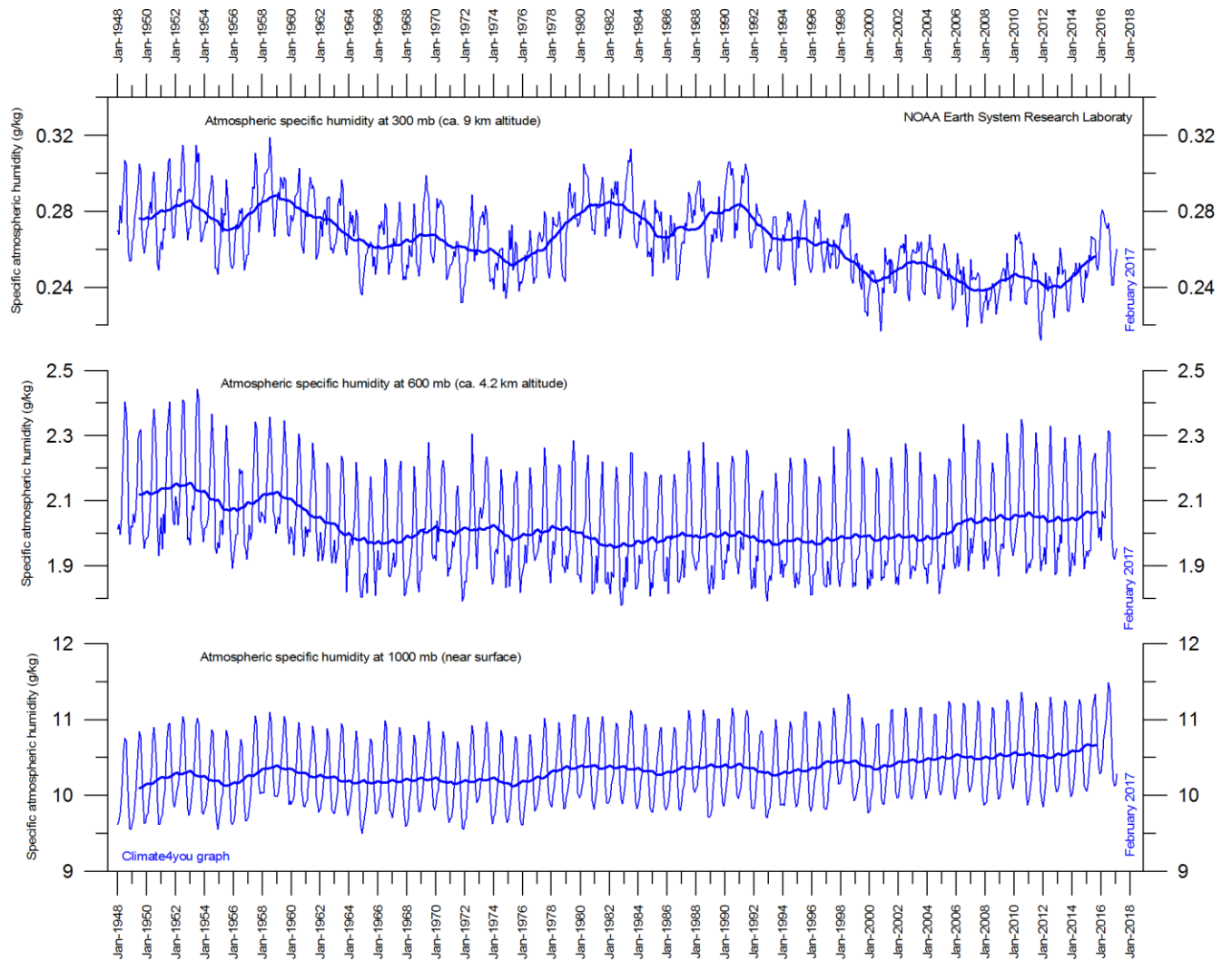


Northern hemisphere weekly snow cover since January 1972 according to Rutgers University Global Snow Laboratory. The thin blue line is the weekly data, and the thick blue line is the running 53-week average (approximately 1 year). The horizontal red line is the 1972-2016 average.



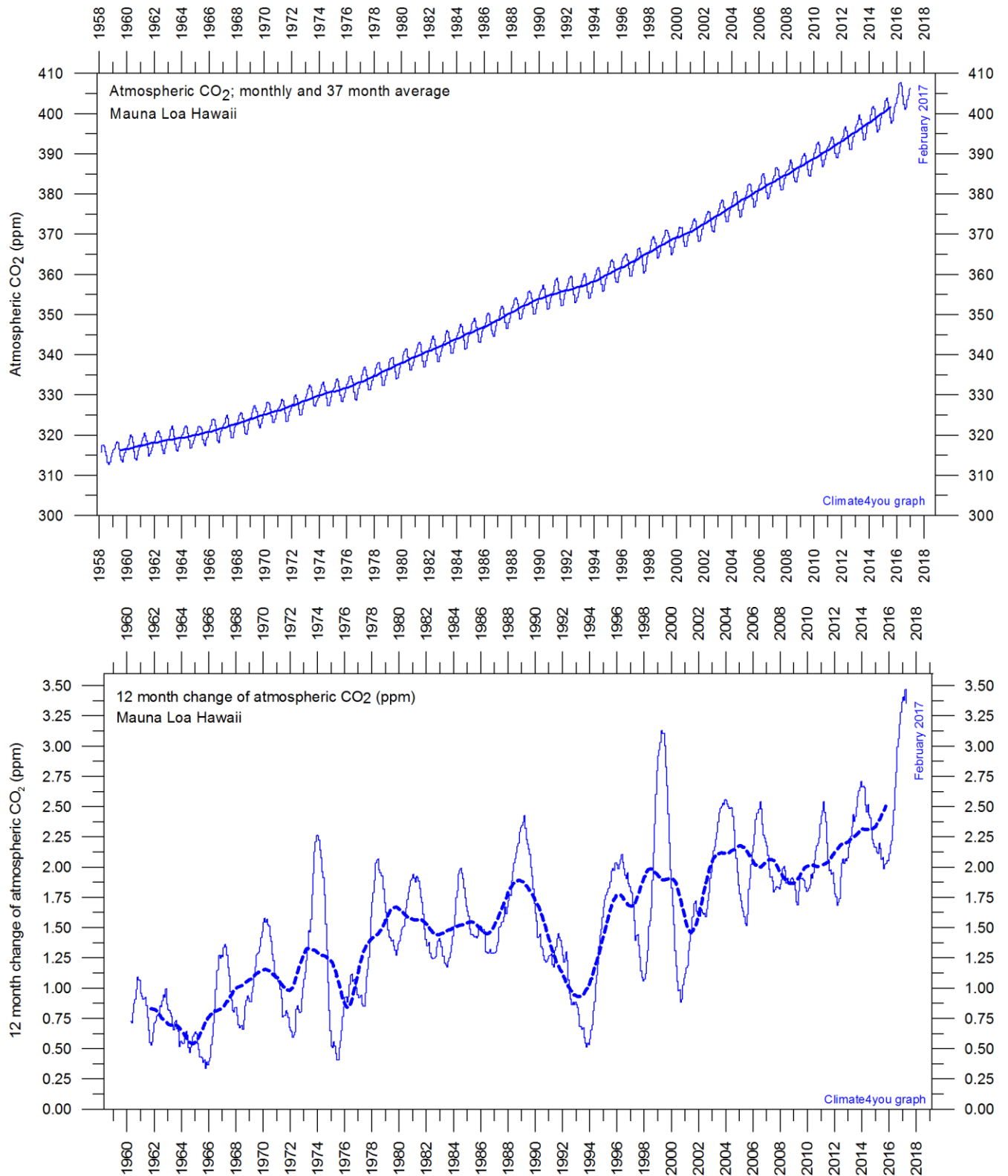
Northern hemisphere seasonal snow cover since January 1972 according to Rutgers University Global Snow Laboratory.

Atmospheric specific humidity, updated to February 2017



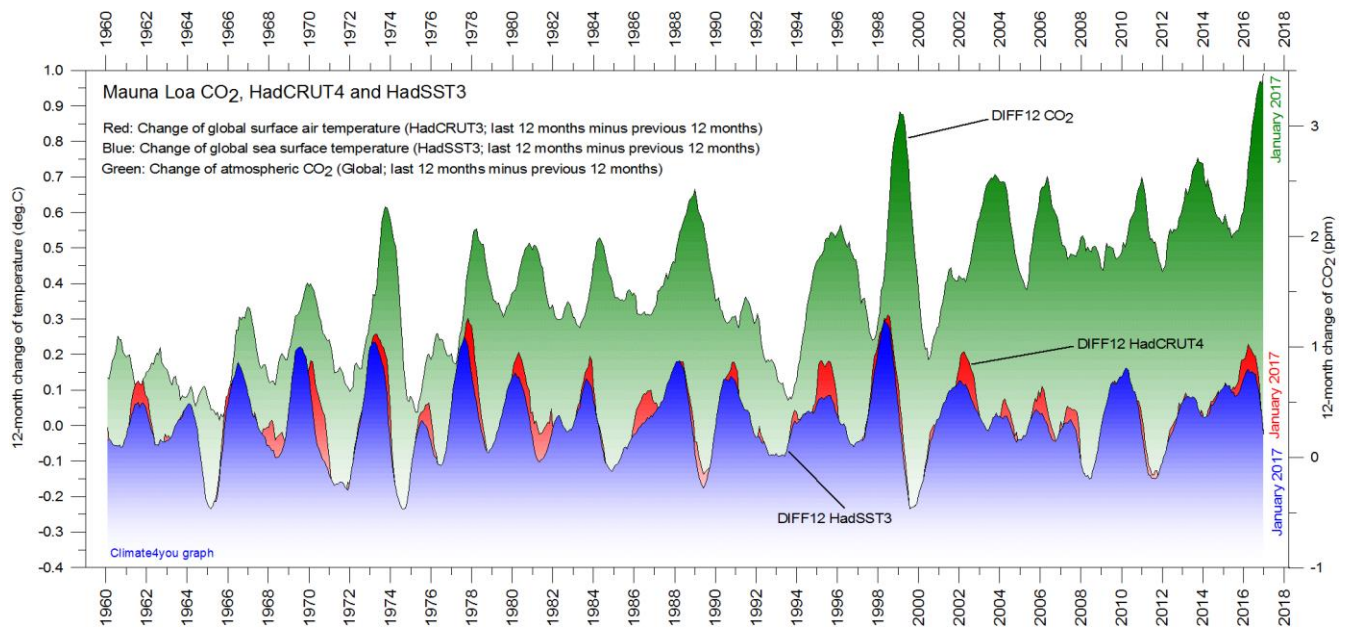
Specific atmospheric humidity (g/kg) at three different altitudes in the lower part of the atmosphere (the Troposphere) since January 1948 (Kalnay et al. 1996). The thin blue lines shows monthly values, while the thick blue lines show the running 37-month average (about 3 years). Data source: [Earth System Research Laboratory \(NOAA\)](#).

Atmospheric CO₂, updated to February 2017



Monthly amount of atmospheric CO₂ (upper diagram) and annual growth rate (lower diagram); average last 12 months minus average preceding 12 months, thin line) of atmospheric CO₂ since 1959, according to data provided by the [Mauna Loa Observatory](#), Hawaii, USA. The thick, stippled line is the simple running 37-observation average, nearly corresponding to a running 3-year average.

The phase relation between atmospheric CO₂ and global temperature, updated to January 2017



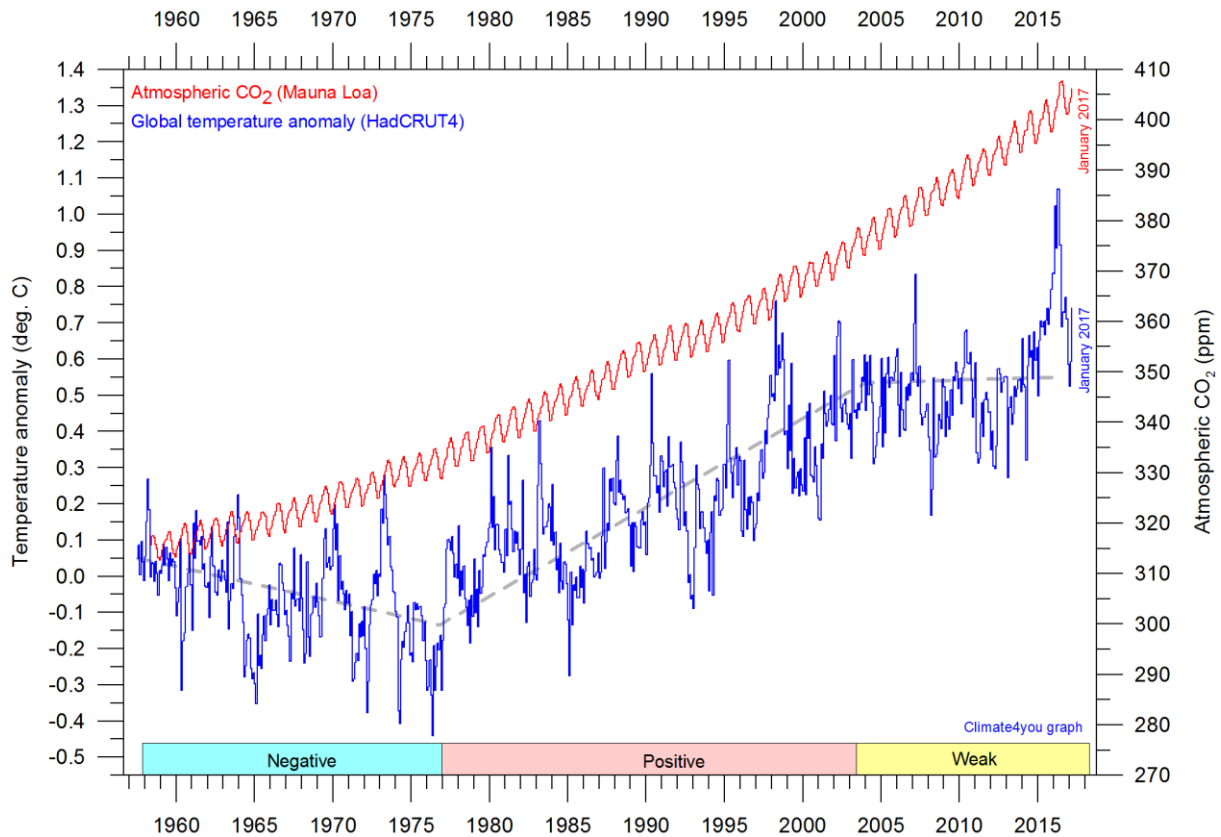
12-month change of global atmospheric CO₂ concentration ([Mauna Loa](#); green), global sea surface temperature ([HadSST3](#); blue) and global surface air temperature ([HadCRUT4](#); red dotted). All graphs are showing monthly values of DIFF12, the difference between the average of the last 12 months and the average for the previous 12 months for each data series.

References:

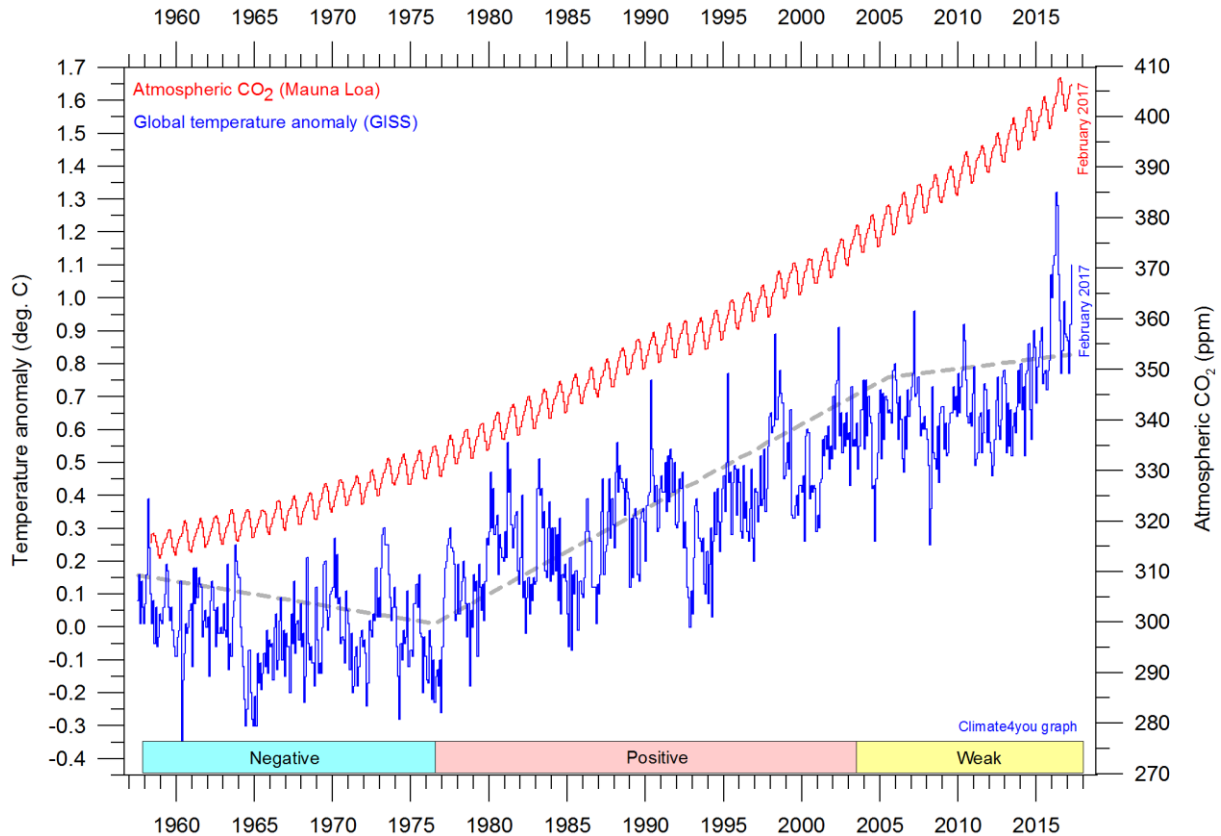
Humlum, O., Stordahl, K. and Solheim, J-E. 2012. The phase relation between atmospheric carbon dioxide and global temperature. *Global and Planetary Change*, August 30, 2012.

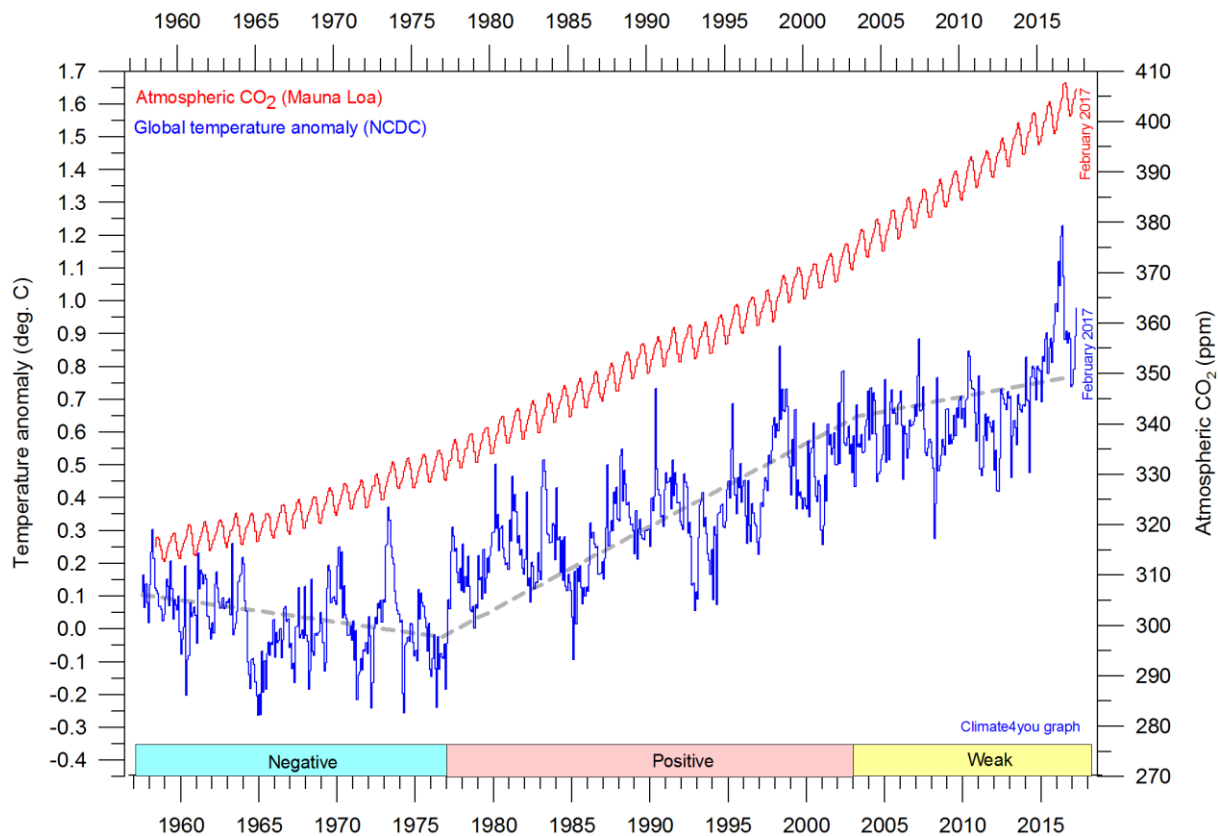
<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0921818112001658?v=s5>

Global surface air temperature and atmospheric CO₂, updated to February 2017



39





Diagrams showing HadCRUT4, GISS, and NCDC monthly global surface air temperature estimates (blue) and the monthly atmospheric CO₂ content (red) according to the [Mauna Loa Observatory](#), Hawaii. The Mauna Loa data series begins in March 1958, and 1958 was therefore chosen as starting year for the diagrams. Reconstructions of past atmospheric CO₂ concentrations (before 1958) are not incorporated in this diagram, as such past CO₂ values are derived by other means (ice cores, stomata, or older measurements using different methodology), and therefore are not directly comparable with direct atmospheric measurements. The dotted grey line indicates the approximate linear temperature trend, and the boxes in the lower part of the diagram indicate the relation between atmospheric CO₂ and global surface air temperature, negative or positive. Please note that the HadCRUT4 diagram is not yet updated beyond January 2017.

Most climate models are programmed to give the greenhouse gas carbon dioxide CO₂ significant influence on global temperature. It is therefore relevant to compare different temperature records with measurements of atmospheric CO₂, as shown in the diagrams above.

Any comparison, however, should not be made on a monthly or annual basis, but for a longer time period, as other effects (oceanographic, etc.) may well override the potential influence of CO₂ on short time scales such as just a few years. It is of course equally inappropriate to present new meteorological record values, whether daily, monthly or annual, as support for the hypothesis ascribing high importance of atmospheric CO₂ for global temperatures. Any such meteorological

record value may well be the result of other phenomena.

What exactly defines the critical length of a relevant time period to consider for evaluating the alleged importance of CO₂ remains elusive and represents a theme for discussion. However, the length of the critical period must be inversely proportional to the temperature sensitivity of CO₂, including feedback effects. If the net temperature effect of atmospheric CO₂ is strong, the critical time period will be short, and vice versa.

However, past climate research history provides some clues as to what has traditionally been considered the relevant length of period over which to compare temperature and atmospheric

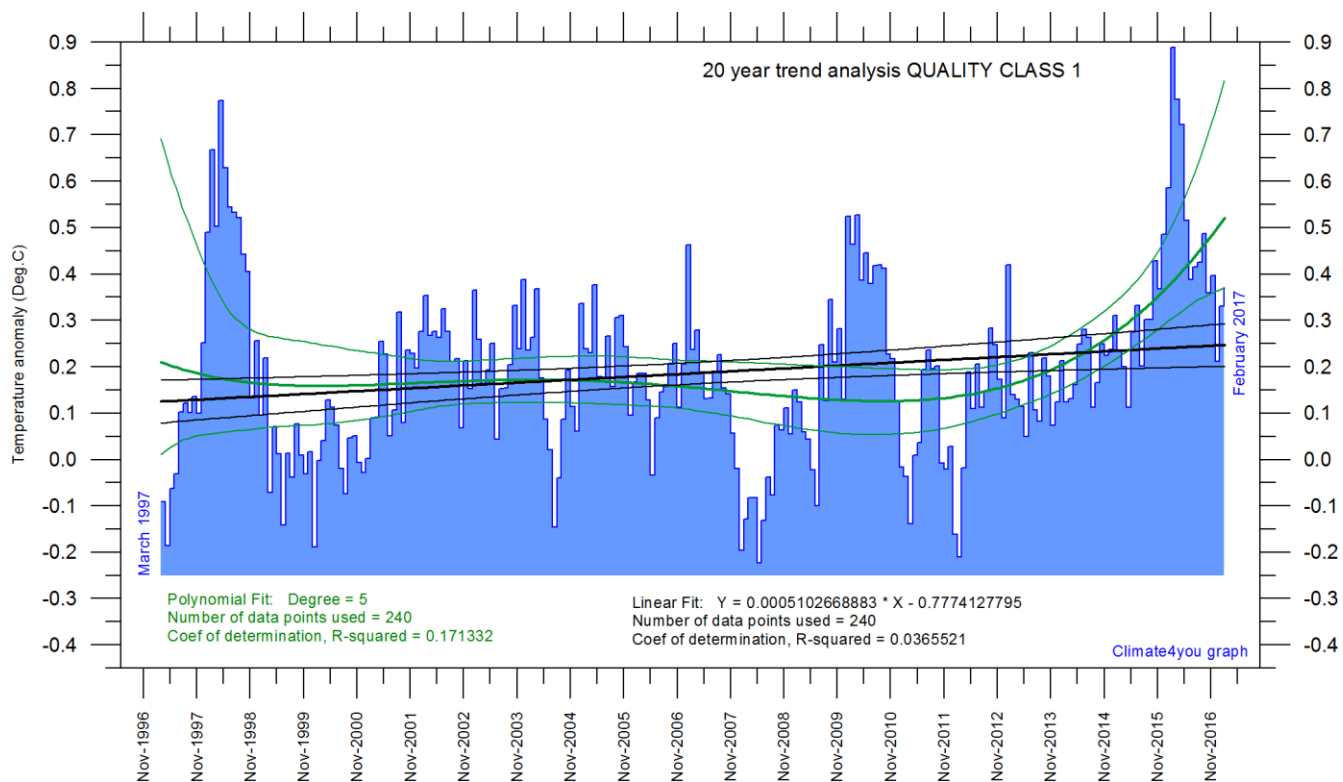
CO₂. After about 10 years of concurrent global temperature- and CO₂-increase, IPCC was established in 1988. For obtaining public and political support for the CO₂-hypothesis the 10-year warming period leading up to 1988 likely was important. Had the global temperature instead been decreasing, political support for the hypothesis would have been difficult to obtain.

Based on the previous 10 years of concurrent temperature- and CO₂-increase, many climate scientists in 1988 presumably felt that their understanding of climate dynamics was sufficient

to conclude about the importance of CO₂ for global temperature changes. From this it may safely be concluded that 10 years was considered a period long enough to demonstrate the effect of increasing atmospheric CO₂ on global temperatures.

Adopting this approach as to critical time length (at least 10 years), the varying relation (positive or negative) between global temperature and atmospheric CO₂ has been indicated in the lower panels of the diagrams above.

Latest 20-year QC1 global monthly air temperature changes, updated to February 2017



42

Last 20 years' global monthly average air temperature according to Quality Class 1 (UAH and RSS; see p.10) global monthly temperature estimates. The thin blue line represents the monthly values. The thick black line is the linear fit, with 95% confidence intervals indicated by the two thin black lines. The thick green line represents a 5-degree polynomial fit, with 95% confidence intervals indicated by the two thin green lines. A few key statistics are given in the lower part of the diagram (please note that the linear trend is the monthly trend).

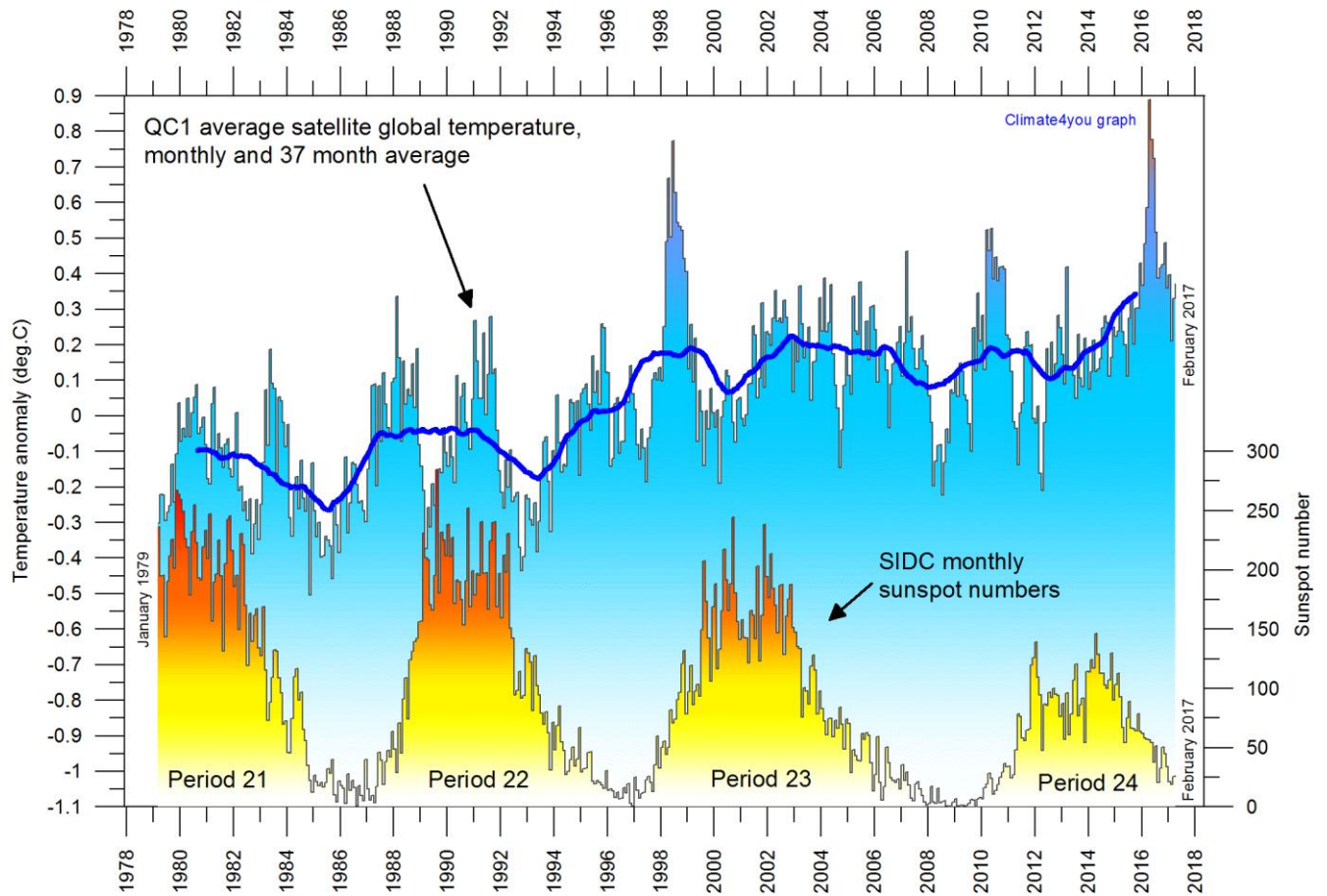
In the ongoing climate debate the question if the global surface air temperature still increases, or if the temperature has levelled out during the last 15-18 years, is often put forward.

The diagram above may be useful in this context, and demonstrates the differences between two often used statistical approaches to determine recent temperature trends. Please also note that such fits only attempt to describe the past, and usually have limited predictive power. In addition, before using any linear trend (or other) analysis of time series a proper statistical model should be chosen, based on statistical justification.

For temperature time series, there is no *a priori* physical reason why the long-term trend should be linear in time. In fact, climatic time series often have trends for which a straight line is not a good approximation, as can clearly be seen from several of the diagrams in the present report.

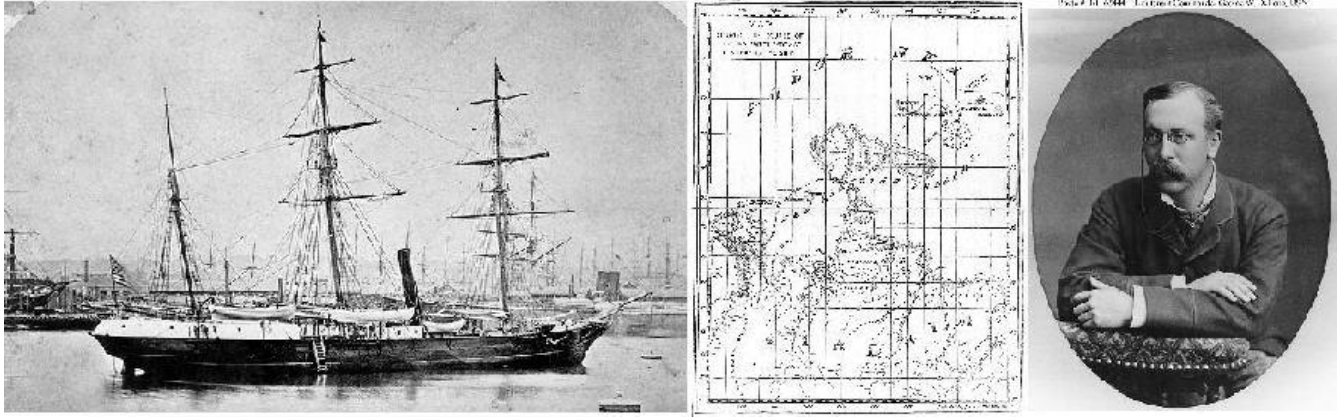
For an excellent description of problems often encountered by analyses of temperature time series analyses please see [Keenan, D.J. 2014: Statistical Analyses of Surface Temperatures in the IPCC Fifth Assessment Report.](#)

Sunspot activity and QC1 average satellite global air temperature, updated to February 2017



Variation of global monthly air temperature according to Quality Class 1 (UAH and RSS; see p.4) and observed sunspot number as provided by the Solar Influences Data Analysis Center (SIDC), since 1979. The thin lines represent the monthly values, while the thick line is the simple running 37-month average, nearly corresponding to a running 3 yr average. The asymmetrical temperature 'bump' around 1998 is influenced by the oceanographic El Niño phenomenon in 1998, as is the case also for 2015-16.

1879-1881: USS Jeannette sails for the North Pole



USS Jeannette (left). Map showing the trek to the Siberian coast from the point where USS Jeannette was crushed by ice (centre). Lieutenant Commander George W. DeLong, USN (right).

The 43 m long USS Jeannette was originally a gunboat (HMS Pandora) in the British Royal Navy. In 1878 it was purchased by the owner of the New York Herald (James Gordon Bennett, Jr.), and renamed *Jeannette*. Bennett was interested in the Arctic and the still existing hypothesis describing the central, but still unknown, part Arctic Ocean as being ice-free, mainly due to assumed very high summer insolation. He obtained the cooperation and assistance of the US government for an expedition to the North Pole through the Bering Strait, using Jeannette.

The Jeannette was modified and massively reinforced to allow her to navigate in the Arctic pack ice. Lieutenant Commander George W. DeLong, USN, who had considerable Arctic experience, was given the command. The crew consisted of 30 officers and men and 3 civilians. The ship contained the latest in scientific equipment; and, in addition to reaching the Pole through Bering Strait, scientific observation ranked high among the expedition's list of goals.

Bound for the North Pole, Jeannette departed San Francisco July 8, 1879. Early September she was caught

in the pack ice near Wrangel Island, north of Siberia. For the next 21 months she drifted with the ice in north-westerly direction, slowly approaching the North Pole, but without encountering any ice-free ocean.

On 12 June 1881 the sea ice began crushing the ship, forcing DeLong and his men to unload provisions and equipment onto the ice pack. USS Jeannette sank the following morning. The expedition then started off for the Lena Delta on the Siberian mainland, hauling three boats and supplies. Mid-September they reached open water and sailed toward the mainland. A storm blew up and one of the boats capsized and sank. The other two, commanded by DeLong and his Chief Engineer G.W. Melville survived the storm and landed at different points on the coast of the Lena Delta.

The two separated boat parties began the long march inland over the swampy and half-frozen delta, hoping to find settlements. One by one, however, members of DeLong's group died from starvation and exposure. Finally, DeLong sent his two strongest men ahead alone for help. They eventually managed to find a settlement, but DeLong and the remaining men died before rescue

arrived. The other group under Melville was more lucky and relatively rapid found a native village on the eastern side of the delta and were all rescued.

As a big surprise, wreckage from the Jeannette was in the summer of 1884 found on sea ice floes near the southern end of Greenland. Presumably, this was one of the most important scientific outcomes of the Jeannette expedition. The discovery of the wreckage overnight made the notion of the ice-free central part of the Arctic

Ocean impossible. Had the ocean not been entirely covered by ice, the wreckage would have sunk long time before reaching southern Greenland.

This new insight prompted the Norwegian scientist Fridtjof Nansen to hypothesize that the ice of the Arctic Ocean was in constant motion from the Siberian coast towards East Greenland. To test this hypothesis, Nansen planned the famous Fram expedition 1893-96, with drift across the Arctic Ocean.

Yours sincerely,

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March 20, 2017.