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3	Extreme precipitation in 150-year continuous simulations by 20-km and
4	60-km atmospheric general circulation models with dynamical downscaling
5	over Japan by a 20-km regional climate model
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22 Abstract

Continuous simulations from the middle of the 20th century to the end of the 21st 23 century were performed using a 20-km atmospheric general circulation model (AGCM), 24 and a 60-km AGCM with dynamical downscaling via a 20-km regional climate model 25 (RCM), to explore the transitional changes in regional extreme events. The representative 26 scenario simulations by the AGCMs followed the protocol of the High Resolution Model 27 Intercomparison Project experiments. In addition, ensemble simulations using four 28 emission scenarios were conducted using the 60-km AGCM with 20-km RCM 29 30 downscaling.

Regardless of the emission scenario used, the global-mean relative increase in annual 31 maximum daily precipitation (Rx1d) was roughly proportional to the increase in the 32 33 global-mean surface air temperature (SAT), consistent with previous results from coarserresolution climate models. It means that the relationship is also valid for a higher-34 resolution model. A similar correlation between Rx1d and SAT was seen also in the 35 values averaged over the Japanese land area in the 20-km AGCM and the 20-km RCM 36 simulations after applying a 10-year running mean. However, it was not so clear in the 37 60-km AGCM, mainly due to insufficient grid points over land in Japan in the 60-km 38 AGCM due to too large noise. It suggests that transitional changes in Rx1d at regional 39 scales such as the Japanese land area can only be represented by using a model resolution 40 as high as 20 km, unless using ensemble simulations. 41

43 **1. Introduction**

Changes in extreme events, caused by global warming, are having a significant effect 44 on the magnitude and frequency of natural disasters, as well as on agricultural activity 45 and water resource management, and there is a need for more detailed forecasts of such 46 changes at the regional scale. To study extreme phenomena such as heavy rainfall, long-47 term simulations that cover several decades or more are required at a resolution that is 48 high enough to accurately represent heavy rainfall. Therefore, we have used our 49 atmospheric general circulation model (AGCM) with horizontal resolutions of 60 and 20 50 51 km, together with dynamical downscaling via our regional climate model (RCM) at horizontal resolutions of 20, 5, 2, and 1 km. Previous studies have carried out time-slice 52 simulations of future specific years (e.g., 2075–2099; Kitoh et al. 2016), and future years 53 at specific warming levels (e.g., 4°C, 2°C, and 1.5°C warming; Mizuta et al. 2017; Fujita 54 et al. 2019; Nosaka et al. 2020; Ishii and Mori 2020), with prescribed sea surface 55 temperature (SST) warming derived from the models used in the Coupled Model 56 Intercomparison Project (CMIP). 57

It has been shown that some recent heavy rainfall events, as well as extreme 58 temperature events were influenced by global warming (Imada et al. 2020). There is an 59 increasing need for better information regarding the temporal evolution of these extreme 60 events from now to the end of this century, and on the timing of the emergence of the 61 signal associated with any changes above the noise of natural variability (Hawkins et al. 62 2020). Large changes that fall outside the range of past experience could have a 63 significant impact on natural disasters, water resources, agriculture, ecosystems, and 64 human health. We also need information on how such changes depend on the emissions 65 scenarios. This information is becoming increasingly important, especially for the 66 development of adaptation policies for global warming. 67

Therefore, in this study, we performed high-resolution continuous simulations from 1950 to 2099 using the same model as our previous time-slice simulations. Continuous

simulations with a 60-km resolution AGCM have already been shown to be useful for the 70 analysis of the temporal evolution of changes in extreme rainfall events such as tropical 71 cyclones (Sugi and Yoshimura 2012) and precipitation intensity over East Asia (Kusunoki 72 and Mizuta 2013). Here, we used a 20-km AGCM and 20-km RCM, as well as a 60-km 73 AGCM to facilitate comparisons among different resolutions. The representative scenario 74 simulations with the AGCMs are conducted as the High Resolution Model 75 Intercomparison Project (HighResMIP; Haarsma et al. 2016) experiments. HighResMIP 76 is one of the CMIP6 (Eyring et al. 2016) experiments to compare the impact of increasing 77 78 the horizontal resolution of climate models on climate reproduction among climate models from various organizations around the world. In addition, ensemble simulations 79 based on four emissions scenarios were conducted using the 60-km AGCM with 20-km 80 81 RCM downscaling.

Here, we will document the detailed experimental design and temporal changes in the surface temperature and precipitation, then show the relationships between the warming and the extreme precipitation increase in the global and Japanese regions, and their differences among the experiments.

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87 2. Models and experimental design

We used the MRI-AGCM3.2 model (Mizuta et al. 2012) with horizontal resolutions of 88 20 and 60 km for the global simulations (hereafter AGCM20 and AGCM60, respectively), 89 and the NHRCM model (Sasaki et al. 2008; Murata et al. 2015) with a horizontal 90 resolution of 20 km for the dynamical downscaling around Japan (hereafter RCM20). 91 AGCM60 and RCM20 were the same models and settings as those used in the Database 92 for Policy Decision-Making for Future Climate Change (d4PDF; Mizuta et al. 2017), 93 except that the RCM20 has been modified to produce sea ice depending on the SST, since 94 the sea ice over Okhotsk Sea is not represented in the RCM20 of d4PDF. AGCM20 has 95 the same parameter settings as AGCM60 except for the integration time step (10 minutes 96

for AGCM20 and 20 minutes for AGCM60), which are also the same ones as the model
used in previous studies (e.g., Murakami et al. 2012; Kitoh and Endo 2016).

The future scenarios used in this study were the CMIP5 RCP8.5 scenario for AGCM20 99 and the RCP8.5, RCP6.0, RCP4.5, and RCP2.6 scenarios for AGCM60 with the RCM20 100 downscaling. The RCP8.5 is the highest emission scenario, where greenhouse gas 101 emissions continue to grow unmitigated, and the RCP2.6 is a mitigation scenario aiming 102 to limit the increase of global mean temperature to 2°C. Each simulation was conducted 103 between 1950 and 2099. Simulations of the historical climate up to the present time 104 105 (1950–2014) were performed based on the observational boundary conditions with different initial values and connected to the respective scenario experiments (2015–2099). 106 The multiple historical simulations are used to evaluate the internal variability of the 107 108 atmosphere as the ensemble spread.

For the boundary conditions settings, we followed the HighResMIP (Haarsma et al. 109 110 2016) protocol. The settings are listed in the right column of Table S1. For the historical simulation, we used the 0.25° daily gridded SST and sea ice concentrations from 111 HadISST2.2 dataset (Kennedy et al. 2017), the same SST as in the highresSST-present 112 experiment of the HighResMIP. As specified in the HighResMIP, the same settings as in 113 the CMIP6 historical experiments (O'Neill et al. 2016) are used for ozone, volcanic 114 aerosols, greenhouse gases, and solar activity. For non-volcanic aerosols, we used the 115 monthly mean three-dimensional output from the historical experiments by MRI-ESM2 116 117 (Yukimoto et al. 2019), instead of implementing the recommended HighResMIP protocol into MRI-AGCM. 118

For the future climate simulations, the CMIP5 model-averaged temperature increase is added to the observed SST and sea ice concentrations (see below). For ozone, volcanic aerosols, greenhouse gases, and solar activity, the protocols of the CMIP6 *ssp585*, *ssp460*, *ssp245*, and *ssp126* experiments are used, and the monthly mean outputs from the *ssp585*, *ssp460*, *ssp245*, and *ssp126* experiments by MRI-ESM2 are used for the non-volcanic aerosols.

For the RCP8.5 scenario experiments, we used the same SST as in the highresSST-125 future experiment of the HighResMIP, in which the SST increase averaged over eight 126 CMIP5 models (ACCESS1-0, ACCESS1-3, GFDL-CM3, IPSL-CM5A-LR, IPSL-127 CM5A-MR, MPI-ESM-MR, CNRM-CM5, and HadGEM2-ES), that were selected based 128 on their representation of Arctic sea ice variability, are used. As this is a continuous 129 simulation, consideration was given to avoid major discontinuities around 2015. The SST 130 for 2015 was based on the observed HadISST data. After 2016, monthly deviations from 131 132 the 2005–2025 average were calculated for each model. Nine-year running means of the monthly deviations were averaged across all models and added to the 2007-2015 average 133 of HadISST. This defines the SST without interannual variability after 2016 (thick black 134 135 dashed line behind red lines in Fig. 1a). Next, as a component of interannual variability, daily deviations from the 9-year running mean of HadISST were calculated for 1980-136 137 2015, and the time series were added to it repeatedly over the periods 2016–2051, 2052– 2087, and 2088–2099 (red lines in Fig. 1a). Note that, for smoother transitions, the values 138 on January of 2016, 2052, and 2088 are linearly interpolated with those at the end of the 139 previous year. For the sea ice concentration, equations expressing sea ice concentration 140 as a function of SST are constructed for HadISST and CMIP5 models, respectively. The 141 sea ice concentration in the future simulations is estimated by inputting the generated 142 future SST into it. Linear interpolation of the two for 2016–2030 is used, and the latter 143 144 equation is used for 2031–2099. More details can be found in the document referenced in https://github.com/PRIMAVERA-H2020/HighResMIP-futureSSTSeaice. 145

For the other RCP scenarios, we used the same setup as for the *highresSST-future* experiment, but with the SST changes from the RCP6.0, RCP4.5, and RCP2.6 scenarios. However, because not all of the eight models used for the RCP8.5 SST provide the other scenario experiment results, the same 28 CMIP5 models (21 models for RCP6.0) as Mizuta et al. (2014) are used for the other scenario SST future changes. Figure 1(a) shows the time series of the SSTs for the four RCP scenarios. As RCP6.0 is radiatively forced below RCP4.5 until around 2070, the SSTs are also below those of RCP4.5. Figure S1 shows the SST warming patterns from the end of the 20th century to the end of the 21th century. Although the large-scale distributions for the RCP8.5 scenario (Fig. S1a) are similar to those from the previous 20-km AGCM time-slice simulations (Kitoh and Endo 2016), the detailed patterns differ because of the different methods and number of CMIP5 models used.

The differences in the boundary conditions compared with our previous time-slice simulations and d4PDF are shown in Table S1. We confirmed that, even with these differences, the simulations covering the historical period generated a similar climate representation performance. Figure S2 shows the climatological seasonal precipitation from 1979 to 2003, and demonstrates that the AGCM20 and AGCM60 results from this study (Fig. S2c, d, g, h) have a similar precipitation distribution to the previous 20-km AGCM time-slice (Fig. S2a, b) and d4PDF (Fig. S2e, f) results.

To evaluate the model representation around Japan, we used observational data of Japan Meteorological Agency. We used data at all stations in Japan that have long-term observation from 1950 to 2020 (134 stations) to calculate the annual maximum daily precipitation (Rx1d), and selected non-urban 15 stations (Abashiri, Nemuro, Suttsu, Yamagata, Ishinomaki, Fushiki, Iida, Choshi, Sakai, Hamada, Hikone, Tadotsu, Miyazaki, Naze, and Ishigakijima), the same as those in Japan Meteorological Agency (2021), for the surface air temperature (SAT) to avoid including the effects of urbanization.

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173 **3.** Changes in surface air temperature and precipitation

The time series of global-mean SAT in the simulations are shown in Fig. 1b. The SAT increases almost in proportion to the increase in the given SST (Fig. 1a). The warming above the level of 1950–1979 at 2070–2099 is 1.3°C, 2.0°C, 2.4°C, and 3.9°C for the RCP2.6, RCP4.5, RCP6.0, and RCP8.5 scenario, respectively. These temperature

increases are close to the changes in the multi-model averages of the CMIP5 experiments 178 (Collins et al. 2013). Figure 1c shows the time series of the 10-year running mean of SAT 179 averaged over the Japanese land grids from both the global and regional models, 180 compared with the average of the observed data. Although the same SST was prescribed 181 for all simulations until 2014 (Fig. 1a), these narrow regional averages show a spread 182 among the members even in the 10-year running mean. Therefore, we can assume that 183 the SAT in the future simulations also contains such uncertainty. This spread is about 184 0.5°C both in the AGCM60 simulations and in the RCM20 simulations. The average SAT 185 186 for the period 2011–2020 in the observations is 0.97°C higher than the average for 1950– 1979. The warming over Japan at 2070–2099 in RCM20 is 1.3°C, 2.6°C, 3.1°C, and 5.1°C 187 for the RCP2.6, RCP4.5, RCP6.0, and RCP8.5 scenario, respectively. It is about 30% 188 189 larger than the global-mean warming, except for the RCP2.6 scenario.

Figure 2 compares the changes in seasonal mean precipitation and Rx1d for the RCP8.5 190 simulations of AGCM20, and for the RCP8.5 and RCP2.6 simulations of AGCM60. In 191 the same RCP8.5 simulations, there are no noticeable differences between AGCM20 and 192 AGCM60 in terms of mean precipitation and annual maximum daily precipitation (Fig. 193 2a-f). The general patterns of change in the AGCMs are consistent with the results from 194 our previous AGCM time-slice simulations (Kitoh and Endo 2016) and d4PDF (Mizuta 195 et al. 2017), although there is a difference near the tropics due to the slight difference in 196 the patterns of SST change (Fig. S3). Comparing the RCP8.5 and RCP2.6 simulations of 197 198 AGCM60 (Fig. 2d–i), while the change is proportional to the amount of temperature increase over a large part of the world, there are some places where signs of this change 199 differ depending on the scenario, especially in the summer western Pacific region 200 including Japan (Fig. 2e, h). Such differences are more significant for changes in annual 201 maximum daily precipitation (Fig. 2f, i). 202

Those changes in the RCP8.5 for the area around Japan are shown in Fig. 3, which compares the results from RCM20 in addition to those from the AGCM simulations. The

differences between the resolutions and the models are small in winter (Fig. 3a, d, g), with 205 a decrease over the southern coast of Japan and an increase over northern Japan. These 206 changes correspond to the northward shift of the storm track (Kawase et al. 2021). There 207 is a difference on the Sea of Japan side of eastern Japan, partly due to the differences in 208 the topography between the model resolutions and in the representation of topographic 209 precipitation between the AGCM and RCM. While the water vapor increases due to the 210 warming contribute to the precipitation increase, weakened northwesterly wind contribute 211 to the precipitation decrease. Such a cancellation makes large uncertainty of the 212 213 precipitation change over this area. In summer, difference between the simulations is large over western Japan. An increasing trend over northern Japan and a decreasing over the 214 southern coast of eastern Japan are common to the three simulations. It is also common 215 216 to the simulations using MRI-AGCM (Fig.S3b,d), but is not consistent with the majority of CMIP models, which show slight increase all over Japan (Ose 2019). There is a 217 218 decrease in the summer mean precipitation and Rx1d only for AGCM20 over the ocean south of Japan (Fig. 3c). As the value of Rx1d in this region is controlled by typhoon 219 activity (Kitoh and Endo 2019), differences in typhoon representation related to model 220 resolution and model physics, as well as uncertainty due to insufficient sample size, could 221 be the cause of the variations seen in the spatial pattens of seasonal and extreme 222 precipitation around Japan. 223

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4. Relationships of changes in extreme precipitation and temperature

Figure 4a shows the time series of the global mean of Rx1d. The percentage increase relative to the 30-year average for the period 1950–1979 is shown. The thin and thick lines show the value for each year and the 10-year running mean, respectively. The pattern of interannual variability is similar among the four simulations. For instance, there are positive peaks in 1998, 2034, and 2070 for all simulations, which correspond to the interannual variability of the prescribed SST. Some decadal variations remain even in the

10-year running mean. For example, there is a large increase from 1980 to 2000, but a 232 small increase from 2000 to 2020. Such variations can be seen even in the latter half of 233 the 21st century, except for RCP8.5, while the large increasing trend in the RCP8.5 234 simulation dominates the variation. In the RCP8.5 simulations, the increase is slightly 235 smaller in AGCM60 than in AGCM20. This is consistent with the resolution dependence 236 shown in Mizuta and Endo (2020), in which, using the same 60km model, the relative 237 change becomes slightly smaller when Rx1d is calculated after daily precipitation is 238 regridded to 1.25° or 2.5° grid. 239

Figure 4b-c shows the time series of the 10-year running means of Rx1d averaged over 240 land in Japan. The four AGCM60 (Fig. 4b) and four RCM20 (Fig. 4c) results are 241 compared with the AGCM20 result and the average of the observed data. The 242 observations show no obvious trend until around 1980, but there is an obvious increase 243 after 1995. The increase in Rx1d averaged over 1991–2020 from 1950–1979 is 7.2%. 244 While every single member of AGCM20 and RCM20 simulates the increasing trend in 245 the historical simulation, AGCM60 does not show the increasing trend. Even for the 10-246 year running means, the time series are noisy, especially for AGCM60 (Fig. 4b), showing 247 large variability on a decadal scale. The difference between the scenarios is not clear even 248 around 2050. The change in the RCP8.5 scenario does not exceed that of all other 249 scenarios until after 2070. 250

Next, we plotted the relationship between the relative increase in Rx1d and the SAT 251 increase (Fig. 5). For the global average, there is a good correlation between the two 252 values for each year (Fig. 5a), and a much stronger linear correlation for the 10-year 253 running mean (Fig. 5b). The scenario dependence is very small, consistent with the results 254 from CMIP multi-model ensemble mean (Li et al. 2021), with a slope of ~7.5% per degree, 255 which is close to the Clausius-Clapeyron rate of change. It means that the relationship 256 found in the CMIP climate models is valid also for a higher resolution model. Note that, 257 however, this rate of increase varies greatly depending on the timescale of the 258

precipitation and the return period (Mizuta and Endo 2020).

Figure 5c-d shows the same relationship over land in Japan. The results for the 10-year 260 running mean are shown here. AGCM20 and RCM20 (Fig. 5d) show a correlation similar 261 to Fig. 5a. The scenario dependence is small, with a slope of 6% per degree. For AGCM60, 262 on the other hand, the correlation is lower and the slope is smaller, $\sim 4\%$ per degree. It is 263 associated with the smaller increase over northern Japan (Fig. 3f) than those in AGCM20 264 (Fig. 3c) and RCM20 (Fig. 3i). The smaller slope is partly due to the slight resolution 265 dependence as seen in the global mean (Fig. 4a). The low correlation is mainly due to the 266 result of insufficient grid points over land in Japan in AGCM60 (123 points). Figure S4 267 shows the relationship over the region of 128–147°E, 30–47°N, which includes 10× larger 268 area than the land in Japan. The relationship in AGCM60 becomes similar to AGCM20 269 270 and RCM20, suggesting that it is difficult to evaluate the Rx1d change over land in Japan by a single member of 60km resolution simulation due to too large noise. 271

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273 5. Summary and concluding remarks

We performed 150-year continuous simulations using AGCM20, and AGCM60 with 274 RCM20 downscaling. The global-mean relative increase in Rx1d was roughly 275 proportional to the increase in the global-mean SAT, especially when viewed as a 10-year 276 running mean, regardless of the emission scenario used. Such a proportional relationship 277 is consistent with previous CMIP multi-model results (Li et al. 2021). Our study shows 278 279 that the scaling law is valid also for models with a higher resolution than the CMIP climate models. A similar correlation between Rx1d and SAT was seen also in the values averaged 280 over the Japanese land area in AGCM20 and RCM20 after applying a 10-year running 281 mean. Although such a proportional relationship at the regional scale has been suggested 282 by a comparison of +2K and +4K time-slice simulations (Fujita et al. 2019), it becomes 283 clearer by our high-resolution continuous experiment in this study. 284

These simulations allow us to analyze transitional changes caused by global warming

in phenomena that require high-resolution simulations, such as extreme precipitation events. More detailed studies using these simulations are now underway that consider: 1) phenomena that we do not know whether the scaling law with respect to temperature is valid or not (e.g., snow cover, droughts and coastal conservation); 2) areas where the multi-year history of temperature and precipitation is important (e.g., water resources and agriculture); 3) analysis of the timing of the emergence of the change signal from the natural variability; and 4) the scheduling of adaptation policy making.

The proportional relationship between the rate of increase in Rx1d and the SAT 293 increase over the Japanese land area can be seen in AGCM20 and RCM20, but it was not 294 so clear in AGCM60. This is mainly due to the small number of sample grids. When the 295 target spatial and temporal scales become smaller, the effect of internal variability 296 becomes critically larger, which is consistent with previous studies (Hawkins and Sutton 297 2009). An initial ensemble experiment will be required if we wish to investigate regional-298 scale extreme precipitation changes at the decadal timescale over the Japan region. In 299 addition, the results presented here are from a single model. Intercomparisons with other 300 301 HighResMIP simulations, already analyzed for tropical cyclones (Roberts et al. 2020; Yamada et al. 2021), would assist our evaluation of the uncertainty associated with the 302 climate models. 303

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314	Data Availability Statement
315	Data of the RCP8.5 experiments with AGCM20 and AGCM60 are publicly available
316	as the CMIP6 HighResMIP through the Earth System Grid Federation (https://esgf-
317	node.llnl.gov/projects/cmip6/). AGCM60 and RCM20 data will be available from the
318	Data Integration and Analysis System (DIAS) website (<u>https://diasjp.net/</u>).
319	
320	Supplements
321	Supplement 1: One table and four supplemental figures are included.
322	
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Fig. 1. (a) Time series of SSTs prescribed for the AGCM simulations averaged over 60°S– 60°N. Thin lines are monthly-mean values and thick lines are annual-mean values. Thick black dashed lines after 2015 show the warming trends without interannual variability calculated from the CMIP5 model experiments. (b) Time series of the global-mean annual-mean SAT change from the 30-year average of 1950–1979. (c) As (b), but 10-year running-mean values averaged over the Japanese land grids, including the average of observed data.



Fig. 2. Horizontal distribution of the changes from 1979–2003 to 2075–2099 for (a, d, g)
mean precipitation from December to February (mm/day), (b, e, h) mean precipitation
from June to August (mm/day), and (c, f, i) relative changes in Rx1d (%), using (a–c)
RCP8.5 with AGCM20, (d–f) RCP8.5 with AGCM60, and (g–i) RCP2.6 with AGCM60.
The hatches in (d-i) indicate that the change is not statistically significant at the 95 %
level against the ensemble spread, calculated from the four-member historical simulations.



449 Fig. 3. As Fig. 2, but around Japan, using RCP8.5 with (a–c) AGCM20, (d–f) AGCM60,

⁴⁵⁰ and (g-i) RCM20.



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Fig. 4. (a) Time series of the global mean of Rx1d change relative to the 30-year average over the period 1950–1979. Thin lines are the value for each year, and the thick lines are the 10-year running mean. (b, c) As (a), but showing the 10-year running-mean values averaged over the Japanese land grids, from (b) AGCM60 and (c) RCM20, compared with AGCM20 and the average of the observed data.



Fig. 5. Scatter plots of relative change in Rx1d (%) and SAT change (K), for (a) globalmean values for each year, (b) global-mean values for 10-year running mean, (c, d) 10year running mean values averaged over the Japanese land grids, from (b) AGCM60 and (c) RCM20, compared with AGCM20. The changes are relative to the 30-year average over the period 1950–1979. The dashed line indicates a slope of 7% per degree. The correlation coefficients are calculated using 10-year means of every 10 years. Asterisks denote that the correlation is not statistically significant at the 99% significance level.