

Universitat Rovira i Virgili

Investidura com a doctor honoris causa  
del Dr. Philip Douglas Jones

Sessió acadèmica extraordinària,  
15 de novembre de 2012





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Universitat Rovira i Virgili  
Tarragona

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Elogi del candidat

pronunciat per la professora Manola Brunet India







Rector Magnífic,

Digníssima presidència,

Benvolguts col·legues, professors i estudiants de Geografia, i assistents a aquesta cerimònia solemne,

És un veritable plaer i un honor poder pronunciar aquest elogi del Dr. Philip Douglas Jones, el qual ha estat proposat pel Departament de Geografia de la URV per ser investit doctor honoris causa per la nostra Universitat, en reconeixement a les seves aportacions a la ciència del canvi climàtic, en general, i al coneixement de l'escalfament global, en particular. El seu paper pioner a l'hora de crear les sèries de temperatura global i hemisfèriques ha permès documentar, detectar i atribuir les causes de l'escalfament recent de l'atmosfera.

Des de les darreres dècades, el planeta es veu abocat a una deriva del clima forçada per l'augment gradual en les concentracions atmosfèriques de gasos amb efecte hivernacle, que es manifesta, d'una banda, en un increment de les temperatures globals i una intensificació del cicle hidrològic i, de l'altra, en un conjunt d'anomalies meteorològiques i climàtiques de molt impacte socioeconòmic, les quals afecten tant els socioecosistemes més vulnerables com els més resistents d'arreu del món.

Tempestes tropicals més importants que afecten latituds més septentrionals del que s'esperaria en condicions climàtiques normals, com la tempesta tropical Sandy d'aquest octubre a la costa nord-est dels Estats Units; sequeres recurrents cada cop més llargues i intenses que afecten àrees més àmplies del planeta se succeeixen any rere any, com les de d'aquesta primavera i estiu a Amèrica del Nord i al sud-est europeu, o onades de calor més intenses com les dels sud-est i sud-oest de Europa d'enguany, la de Rússia del 2010 o la de l'oest i centre d'Europa del 2003; també precipitacions molt intenses que han donat lloc a importants inundacions, com les registrades a Queensland (Austràlia) el 2010-2011 o al Pakistan i a l'est de Europa el 2010. Són, entre altres, exemples d'esdeveniments extrems més greus i intensificats que un món més càlid ja els possibilita.

El Grup Intergovernamental sobre Canvi Climàtic (IPPC), organisme de les Nacions Unides que aplega milers de científics voluntaris de tot el món amb la finalitat d'avaluar i analitzar periòdicament els avenços en el coneixement científic, tècnic i socioeconòmic, i millorar la comprensió dels riscos associats al canvi climàtic antropogènic juntament amb les possibilitats de mitigació i adaptació, conclouïa en el darrer informe publicat el 2007 que l'escalfament global és inequívoc i molt probablement forçat per l'increment de gasos amb efecte hivernacle, que al seu torn es deriven de les emissions humanes lligades a l'ús massiu de carburants fòssils.

Estudis científics més recents ja no tan sols atribueixen els canvis tèrmic i pluviomètric mitjans observats a escala global al forçament antròpic, sinó també als observats a escala continental i regional. Alhora, un grapat dels esdeveniments climàtics més extrems ocorreguts recentment també s'imputen al forçament antròpic, que explica la intensificació de les manifestacions atmosfèriques més extremes.

El que la comunitat científica internacional coneix com el canvi climàtic induït per l'home no és més que la resposta del sistema climàtic global a la pertorbació antròpica del balanç d'energia atmosfèrica materialitzada en l'escalfament global. I és en aquest camp de la recerca científica al qual el professor Phil Jones ha contribuït més a bastament gràcies a la pionera reconstrucció de l'evolució tèrmica global i hemisfèrica al llarg del període instrumental, per la qual és internacionalment reconegut.

El professor Phil Jones va néixer a Surrey, Regne Unit, el 1952. Es va llicenciar amb honors en Ciències Ambientals a la Universitat de Lancaster el 1973. L'any següent va obtenir el màster en Enginyeria Hidrològica a la Universitat de Newcastle-upon-Tyne i es va doctorar en Hidrologia el 1977 per la mateixa universitat amb una dissertació doctoral que ja anunciava els seus interessos científics posteriors: la predicció dels cabals i crescudes dels rius a Anglaterra a partir de la modelització de conques hidrològiques i la reconstrucció instrumental i paleoaproximada dels registres pluviomètrics.

El 1976 el Dr. Jones va entrar a formar part com a investigador sènior associat de la Unitat de Recerca Climàtica (CRU) de la Universitat d'East Anglia, a Norwich, i es va traslladar a viure a Norfolk, on encara resideix. El 1994 va ser promoció a professor lector i el 1998, a catedràtic de la Facultat de Ciències Ambientals. A partir de llavors va dirigir la CRU, responsabilitat que encara ocupa.

Des del 1978 fins avui ha liderat l'àrea i el grup de treball que ha proporcionat a la CRU el més alt impacte i visibilitat internacional i l'ha convertit en centre de referència internacional en els estudis de l'evolució i causes del canvi climàtic: la creació de la base dades de malla de  $5^\circ \times 5^\circ$  de latitud i longitud de la temperatura de l'aire a l'escala global.

La creació d'aquest producte, molt utilitzat per la comunitat científica internacional en els estudis de la variabilitat, detecció i atribució de causes del canvi climàtic, va suposar una ingent tasca de col·lecció, digitalització, tractament i homogeneïtzació de dades que va consumir el treball de moltes persones i anys, i es va poder fer gràcies a la ferma determinació i lideratge del professor Jones. D'aquesta base de dades de malla elaborada inicialment amb altres finalitats, com el candidat exposarà després en el seu discurs, es va derivar la primera i més utilitzada reconstrucció de l'evolució tèrmica global.

El 1986 aquesta anàlisi la va aplicar en cooperació amb el Centre Hadley de l'Oficina Meteorològica Britànica a la superfície marina. Aquesta acció va representar la primera síntesi combinada de l'evolució tèrmica planetària, coneguda mundialment com el registre global de la temperatura de l'aire, el qual ha demostrat inequívocament que el nostre planeta s'ha escalfat des del 1850 entorn dels  $0,8^\circ\text{C}$  amitjanat globalment.

L'estimació del registre global de la temperatura de l'aire, com passa habitualment en ciència, es va basar en dues idees simples, però fermes. Posteriorment aquestes aproximacions seran pràctica habitual per crear altres registres o corbes climàtiques globals generades per altres grups d'investigació: la conversió dels registres climàtics en sèries temporals d'anomalies estimades respecte d'un període de referència climàtic i l'amitjanament espacial ponderat a partir de la interpolació de les sèries d'anomalies en una malla reticular que cobreixi el conjunt de la superfície terrestre.

Les noves sèries d'anomalies o de diferències respecte de les mitjanes del període de referència permeten obviar els efectes de les diferències en altitud, latitud i proximitat al mar, la qual cosa fa comparables les observacions mesurades en llocs tan diferents del planeta com els tròpics i les regions polars, entre l'interior continental i la costa o entre les zones baixes i les elevades. Alhora, la reconversió als valors absoluts afegint-hi les mitjanes climatològiques a les anomalies és fàcil de computar. I, com també és habitual en la recerca científica, la idea de l'amitjanament espacial va sorgir de forma fortuïta, segons recordava el professor Jones, mentre els investigadors

de la CRU a finals dels setanta jugaven a dards en un pub local i observaven el caràcter reticular de la diana.

Amb aquesta aproximació, el Dr. Jones i el seu equip van produir les primeres sèries globals i hemisfèriques sòlides que documenten l'escalfament global, les quals han estat a bastament utilitzades en totes les valoracions científiques de l'IPCC i han servit d'evidència científica sòlida a la Convenció Marc de l'ONU per discutir i adoptar les polítiques de mitigació i adaptació als impactes més adversos del canvi climàtic. A més, han servit de base factual per detectar i atribuir al forçament antròpic la deriva tèrmica observada.

El registre global de la temperatura de l'aire, que actualitza la CRU i esperen ansiosament la comunitat científica i altres parts interessades any rere any, es visualitza mitjançant uns gràfics que mostren amb una simplicitat i claredat colpidores com i quant el món s'escalfa. Probablement, els poderosos grups econòmics i de pressió internacionals contraris a impulsar polítiques per mitigar el canvi climàtic mai van perdonar al professor Jones i al seu equip que elaboresin aquesta informació tan punyent i icònica. Segurament també per aquest motiu van centrar en ells la campanya mediàtica de difamació i intoxicació de l'opinió pública que fa dos anys van engegar a partir del robatori i violació de correspondència i informació del centre que el candidat dirigeix. Paradoxalment per als promotors, aquest atac també avala i ens indica la importància, qualitat i fermesa de la contribució científica del Dr. Jones i alhora mostra els perills que avui en dia pot suposar la pràctica honesta, rigorosa i transparent de la climatologia.

A més del grup de dades de la temperatura global, el professor Jones ha impulsat la creació d'altres bases de dades de precipitació, vapor d'aigua, nuvolositat, vent o evapotranspiració potencial que els investigadors d'arreu del món han utilitzat a bastament. Això ha fet que la CRU esdevingui un dels centres de referència internacional, tan sols per darrere dels tres centres operacionals i de producció de dades climàtiques globals més potents, dos de nord-americans i un d'uropeu, la qual cosa encara confereix més mèrit a la CRU, perquè es tracta d'una petita unitat d'investigació d'una universitat de grandària similar a la URV.

No obstant això, les aportacions científiques del professor Jones no acaben en el camp de la reconstrucció instrumental del canvi climàtic, sinó que s'estenen a altres àmbits de la investigació climàtica. En efecte, també ha fet aportacions substancials a l'anàlisi dels mecanismes de la variabilitat

climàtica: la reconstrucció de l'oscil·lació nord-atlàntica és una de les contribucions més citades en la bibliografia indexada.

Un altre dels seus camps de recerca ha estat el de les reconstruccions paleoclimàtiques o indirectes del clima històric utilitzant l'estratègia metodològica de combinar diferents evidències "aproximades" en reconstruccions *multiproxies* del clima, les quals reuneixen testimonis climàtics indirectes procedents de l'anàlisi del senyal climàtic inclòs als *proxies* biològics (anells dels arbres, coralls marins), glaciològics (testimonis de gel) o de documentació històrica amb el registre instrumental per posar-ho en un context temporal més llarg (els darrers dos mil·lennis) i analitzar el possible caràcter inusual de l'escalfament observat recentment.

La predicció climàtica utilitzant simuladors meteorològics del clima és un altre focus de la seva preocupació intel·lectual i de la del centre que dirigeix. En aquest camp de la modelització climàtica destaca l'aportació en el desenvolupament d'escenaris climàtics per diferents horitzons temporals al Regne Unit.

Les seves aportacions científiques a aquests camps del coneixement han estat molt nombroses, amb més de 500 publicacions de les quals més de 300 han estat contribucions avalades publicades en les revistes científiques més prestigioses. Això li ha proporcionat un alt nivell de citacions (prop de 24.500), recollides a la base de l'ISI del Web of Knowledge, amb un índex-H de 77 (indicatiu que 77 articles seus han estat citats almenys 77 vegades). Recentment el Science Watch, utilitzant la bibliografia indexada per Thomson Reuters de científics altament citats, ha situat el Dr. Jones un cop més entre el 0,5% dels científics més referenciats en el camp de les geociències des de 1990, i el col·loca com el quart científic més citat en món en recerca sobre el canvi climàtic. També el professor Jones ha estat destacat entre els cinquanta científics més importants del món del conjunt de disciplines científiques per la llista Eureka 100 del diari britànic *The Times*, en la qual surten els cent científics contemporanis que més han contribuït a "fer avançar els límits del coneixement científic i mitjançant la innovació científica han transformat les nostres vides i han canviat la nostra actitud envers la ciència".

La seva contribució científica li ha merescut un bon nombre de premis i honors, entre els quals destaquen el premi Nobel de la pau del 2007, atorgat conjuntament als científics de l'IPCC i a l'exvicepresident dels Estats Units Al Gore com a autor coordinador líder de l'IPCC. Altres guardons han

estat els premis NOAA/ERL i el Norbert Gerbier – Mumm el 1998, per la contribució a la recerca de la influència humana en l'estructura vertical de l'atmosfera, o el guardó Hans Oeschger, de la Unió Geofísica Europea el 2002, per la recerca en paleoclimatologia, entre altres.

El professor Phil Jones ha participat intensament i s'ha involucrat en un gran nombre d'activitats, grups i comitès internacionals amb la finalitat d'impulsar la recerca climatològica fronterera arreu del món. També ha estat coordinador, investigador principal o investigador de més de trenta projectes finançats per diferents agències internacionals, europees i nacionals, entre les quals m'agradaria destacar el sorprenent finançament rebut des del 1979 pel Departament d'Energia dels Estats Units per desenvolupar, mantenir i actualitzar les sèries globals i hemisfèriques de la temperatura de l'aire.

Però entre tots aquests mèrits científics que el fan creditor de l'alt honor de ser investit doctor honoris causa per la nostra Universitat, no vull deixar d'esmentar la seva entusiàstica, dedicada i ja llarga tasca docent com a formador d'universitaris i d'investigadors doctorals d'arreu del món. En aquesta faceta, també ha demostrat a bastament la seva qualitat científica i humana, ja que ha estat un científic i formador proper i estimulador, sempre obert a discutir les troballes dels seus alumnes, posar-les en un context científic adequat i a transmetre els valors del treball científic. Mai oblidaré els seus consells i recomanacions d'honestedat i transparència que em feia quan punyentment em deia, en discutir l'exposició de resultats de l'anàlisi sobre el canvi a llarg termini de la temperatura a Espanya, "però Manola si has arribat a aquesta conclusió utilitzant aquesta aproximació, no ho amaguis i digues-ho en l'article".

Rector Magnífic, en la mesura que he pogut he exposat la vida i l'obra científica de l'Excel·lentíssim Sr. Philip Douglas Jones. Crec, doncs, haver explicat prou les raons per què, amb la vostra autoritat, li sigui atorgat el reconeixement dels seus mèrits. Per tant, Rector Magnífic, us demano que us digneu nomenar doctor honoris causa l'Excel·lentíssim Senyor Philip Douglas Jones i incorporar-lo a la nostra Universitat.




Discurs d'investidura

pronunciat pel Dr. Philip Douglas Jones





Honourable Rector,  
Esteemed president  
Good morning everyone




Global Average Temperatures  
(1850-2012)

My work since the early 1980s

Phil Jones  
Climatic Research Unit  
University of East Anglia  
Norwich

The title of my talk is Global Average Temperatures (1850-2012) and I will emphasize my work and involvement in this subject since about 1980.



Summary

- What was known before the early 1980s
- Original aims in developing gridded surface air temperature datasets in the 1980s
- Station homogeneity assessments and Biases
- Urbanization Influences
- How is CRUTEM4 calculated?
- Comparisons with ERA-Interim (latest Reanalysis)
- Combining land (CRUTEM4) and marine (HadSST3) temperatures to get HadCRUT4
- Conclusions

The summary of my talk is as follows:

Who had undertaken work on this subject before 1980 and what were there conclusions?

What were my original aims in developing a gridded surface air temperature dataset in the 1980s?

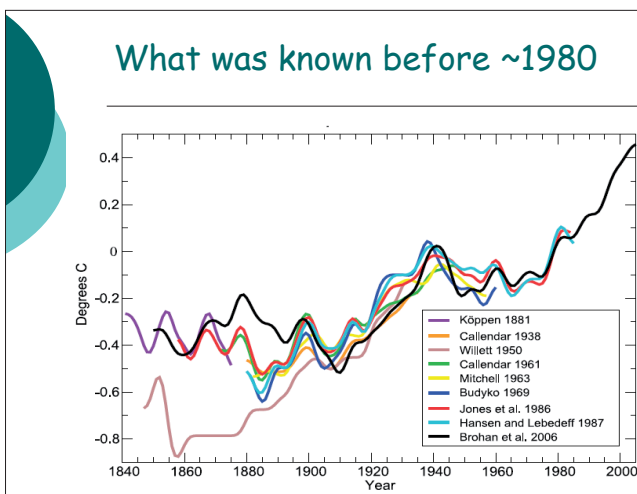
Why do we need to make some modifications to historically recorded temperatures – which we refer to homogeneity adjustments? Homogeneity is the word used by climatologists for the consistency of single station time series, so we can compare all years and months with each other throughout the series. Biases tend to be more important than individual station homogeneity. This is because biases can affect all the data in a similar way. These include the problem of taking sea-surface temperatures measurements and the possible impacts of changes in exposure of land-based temperatures and of urbanization effects around some locations.

How is the latest CRUTEM4 dataset for the Earth's land areas calculated?

Comparisons of this new land dataset with the latest Reanalyses developed by the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ERA-Interim)

CRUTEM4 covers just the land, so to get a more complete global picture we need to add in sea-surface temperatures (SSTs). This we do with the Met Office Hadley Centre SST dataset called HadSST3. The combined version is referred to as HadCRUT4.

And finally conclusions, with some thoughts on possible improvements.




The first person to produce a land air temperature record (for the Northern Hemisphere) was Wladimir Koeppen in the 1870s. Later work was un-

dertaken by others, including Guy Stewart Callendar (in the 1930s and the 1960s) also by Murray Mitchell in the 1960s and Mikhail Budyko in 1969. More recently there are 3 main groups: CRU/UEA, GISS/NASA (Jim Hansen) and NCDC/NOAA. The first two of these started in the early 1980s, with NCDC beginning in the late-1980s. Series are also produced in Russia, Japan and China using surface temperature data.

This plot produced by the IPCC Report in 2007 shows that once converted to a modern base period of 1961-90 the early records all generally compare very well, considering that all the analyses before 1980 were effectively done by hand, eventually using adding machines, calculators and the first computers. Much of the basic temperature data comes from World Weather Records (WWR, volumes which began during the 1920s, and which were first digitised in the 1970s). Some European series extend back to the 1700s.

This slide also indicates that when I started (~1980) the temperature of the world had been cooling slightly from the 1940s, but the rise from about 1910-40 was clearly captured by many of the earlier workers. Even Koeppen was quite good, but the apparent 10-11 year cycle he noted meant he erroneously suggested that the variability was due to sunspots. This was based on only 2.5 solar cycles, but it led to numerous papers where scientists kept on looking for solar influences. In the 1970s one scientist (Barrie Pittock) showed that all these papers (and there were hundreds) often used selected periods and those that didn't failed when more data were added. He concluded that you needed 7 solar cycles to be sure you had found reliable relationships! This is not to say that the Sun isn't unimportant, but you need to base relationships on long series. The only paper that Pittock found that stood up, was one relating the area of the US affected by drought.



**Original (1980s) aims in dataset development**

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- Development of a gridded product
- To look at changes spatially across the world's land surface (using techniques such as Principal Components Analysis)
- The hemispheric and global averages were just simple ways of summarizing the data, but they were not the original aim
- Original aim was to compare PC patterns with those from MSLP and Precipitation grids

I will refer to the temperature dataset as a gridded product. The reason for developing this was to interpolate to a regular grid to avoid having to use the irregularly-located station data. Interpolation produces more complete series, as missing data from one location can potentially be interpolated from neighbouring locations.

Our original aims of developing the gridded product was to look at changes spatially across the world. We already had a similar dataset for sea-level pressure and we wanted to relate this to temperature and to consider techniques such as Principal Components Analysis and relate the time-series scores from the pressure and the temperature data. Producing hemispheric and global averages was just a convenient way of summarizing the data. We did some comparisons in the first paper in 1982 (as in the last slide) but this was not the original aim. Also as stated, when we started the world had been in a cooling phase since the 1940s.

### Station Homogeneity Assessment

- In Jones and Moberg (2003) we stated that homogeneity was best performed by National Met Services (NMSs)
- Since then a number of NMSs have done this - references in Brohan et al. (2006) and Jones et al. (2012)
- Countries that have assessed their temperature data are: Canada, USA, much of Europe, Russia, China, Australia and New Zealand
- Important that all US data are adjusted for Time of Observation Bias (the switch from reading in the early evening to the morning) is taken into account
- Adjustments applied for the period before the introduction of Stevenson screens (around 1875-1885) but only for the Greater Alpine region (GAR, Böhm et al., 2010). On seasonal plots later look at NH summer before about 1870. Adjustments only yet applied across the GAR, as it needs metadata to apply and the orientation of the location building

• Böhm, R., Jones, P.D., Hiebl, J., Frank, D., Brunetti, M. and Maugerl, M. 2010: The early instrumental warm-bias: a solution for long Central European temperature series, 1760-2007. *Climatic Change* 101, 41-67.

• Jones, P.D. and Moberg, A., 2003: Hemispheric and large-scale surface air temperature variations: An extensive revision and an update to 2001. *J. Climate* 16, 2068-2233.

• Jones, P.D., Lister, D.H., Osborn, T.J., Harpham, C., Salmon, M., Morice, C.P. 2012: Hemispheric and large-scale land surface air temperature variations: An extensive revision and an update to 2010. *J. Geophys. Res.* 117, D05127, doi:10.1029/2011JD017139

With the first paper in 1982, we didn't take any consideration of the long-term homogeneity of the station temperature series into account. There are lots of reasons why temperature series are likely to be non-homogeneous. These include moves of the station location, changes in measurement procedures (in the times the measurements were taken and how the daily and monthly averages were calculated), changes in instruments and possible effects of recent automation of the measurements (including the switch from mercury-in-glass thermometers to platinum-resistance sensors, particularly the different response times) and changes in the environment around the site (e.g. possible urbanization effects).

We first assessed homogeneity in a series of papers in 1986 and published all the adjustments we made in a series of reports published by the US Dept of Energy (who have funded much of the work over the years). We showed at that time that the overall effect of these station homogeneity adjustments was near zero, as the changes occurred at different sites at different times. We didn't do any more work on this, but in the 2003 update we began using adjusted data developed by some National Met Services (NMSs) and by some fellow scientists. We suggested then that more NMSs work on their national data and many have (much of Europe, Canada, USA, Russia, Australia and NZ). More are doing this but have not completed the work or they don't release the adjusted series. We also suggested that more countries digitize their series and make more of their data available. This is now beginning to happen as well, but some countries are still very reluctant to release any data (India being the largest country that releases very little – even to its own scientists). Some countries still consider that some of their data has some economic value – including my own. Brazil recently released over 300 series of daily temperature data from 1961 to the present.

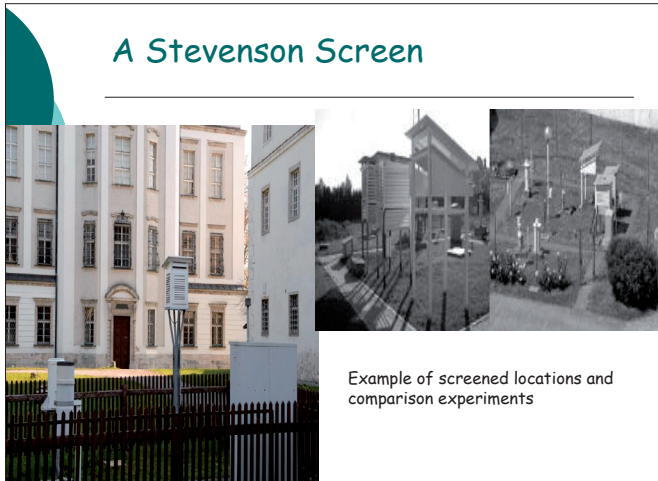
We noted two important aspects that were more pervasive than the other myriad of homogeneity problems. Climatologists refer to these as 'Biases' as similar changes are likely to occur at all locations, so simply getting more data doesn't lead to cancellation of the problems.

The first of these is the Time of Observation Bias (TOB) in the USA which results from observers changing the time of reading from the late afternoon to the early morning. This only affects the USA, but it took place from the 1970s to the 1980s at most locations. This change introduces a cooling bias into the series, which is largest in the interior of the country. This has been extensively adjusted for. The effect of adjustment for this bias is to cool measured temperatures before the change relative to the latter period.

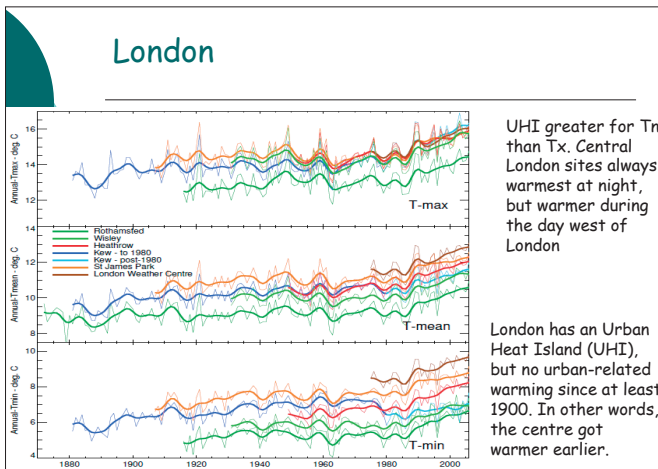
The second major problem affects the measurements before the development of Stevenson-type screens around 1880. Before this instruments were placed on north wall locations in the Northern Hemisphere, but in summer months these instruments can be affected by direct sunlight in the early morning and late evening. This problem has been recognized for some time, but it wasn't until work in Europe (by the Austrian Met Service and by Manola Brunet here at URV) which reconstructed the older locations and took modern parallel measurements that adjustments can be made. Depending on location, temperatures before about 1880 can be up to 0.5 to 1.0C too warm because of this exposure effect.

A third possible bias is urbanization, due to the growth of cities around observing locations. I will return to this towards in a couple of slides with an example from London.

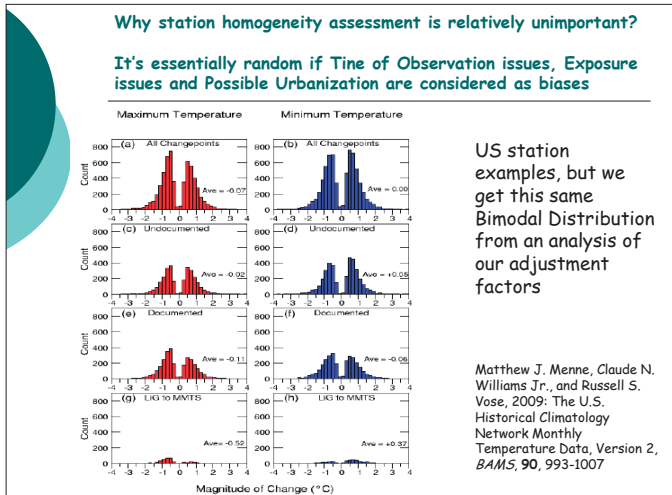
The two main 'biases' must be adjusted for first, before looking at the homogeneity of individual temperature series.



Here are some photographs of early Stevenson-type screens – in a comparison exercise at two locations in Spain and another at a site in Austria. The effects of these problems are mainly evident across Europe, but the changes (around the 1880s) occurred too early for many other parts of the world. This problem is important for some Australian states prior to 1910.



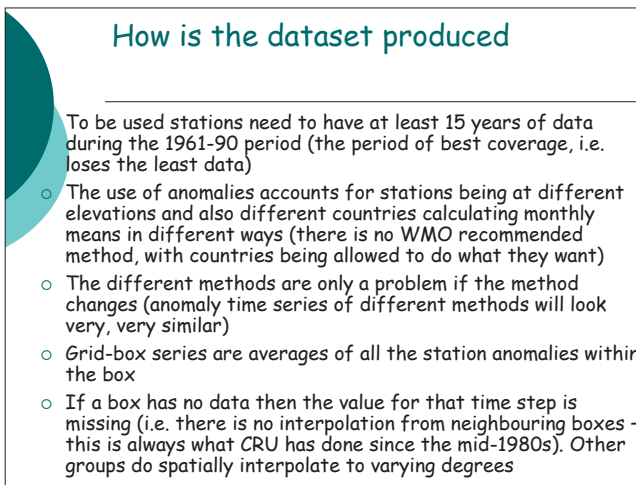
The other important bias is the effect of urbanization on temperature records. Some people think that temperatures measured in the centres of cities are strongly influenced by the growth of the city. This can be easily shown to be true, but NMSs don't locate sites in city centres – instead they were fully aware of these problems and sited instruments in parks and more recently at airports. Here I will show the example of London. There is only one long site in central London in St James's Park – this is quite close to where the beach volleyball was held during the Olympics. The site is just inside the park, near its NW edge – so quite lose to Horse Guard's parade. The different panels show the maximum, mean and minimum temperatures at the site – the orange line. These values should be compared with the two green lines, which are rural sites SW and NW of London (Wisley, a botanical gardens and Rothamsted, an agricultural research station, respectively). Over the course of the whole period from 1900, the St James's Park site has warmed at exactly the same rate as the two rural sites. This central London site is about 1 deg C warmer than it should be, but this extra warmth was attained prior to 1900 and likely over many centuries before. The St James's Park data could be used (we don't though) as in terms of anomalies from 1961-90 the anomalies barely differ from the two rural locations.



I mentioned earlier that homogeneity adjustments (ignoring the TOB and exposure issues) tended to be random. Here I show histograms of adjustment amounts produced by NCDC scientists for stations across the USA. The histograms show the number of adjustments of a certain size.

They show typical bimodal distributions. These come about as adjustments near zero are difficult or impossible to find, so there is a ‘missing middle’ to the Gaussian shape that gives the bimodal distribution. The reason that the adjustments have little effect at the large scale is that the overall average of all adjustments is nearly zero. We produced similar plots for our 1980s adjustments in 2006 and got very similar bimodal distributions.

So while the effect overall is zero, they are important to do as researchers don’t just want the large-scale averages, but also want to use the individual grid-box series as well. So every series has to be assessed for homogeneity. The aim of developing of a gridded product is not just the development of the global average.



### How is the dataset produced


- To be used stations need to have at least 15 years of data during the 1961-90 period (the period of best coverage, i.e. loses the least data)
- The use of anomalies accounts for stations being at different elevations and also different countries calculating monthly means in different ways (there is no WMO recommended method, with countries being allowed to do what they want)
- The different methods are only a problem if the method changes (anomaly time series of different methods will look very, very similar)
- Grid-box series are averages of all the station anomalies within the box
- If a box has no data then the value for that time step is missing (i.e. there is no interpolation from neighbouring boxes - this is always what CRU has done since the mid-1980s). Other groups do spatially interpolate to varying degrees

Everyone knows that temperature decreases with elevation, so in developing a gridded dataset it is not possible to use absolute temperatures. Grid-box series will be affected by the presence or absence of high- or low-elevation stations. The simplest way to overcome this is to remove the average temperature creating what are referred to as anomalies or departures from a common period, which is generally chosen to be 1961-90.

For CRUTEM4 we require that each station has to have at least 15 years for each of the 12 months of the year during the 1961-90 period. Stations that do not achieve this do not get used. Grid-box series are then produced by averaging the stations within each grid box – here we use one of 5 degrees of latitude and longitude. For our dataset we don’t do any extrapola-



tion of data – if a grid box has no station data then the grid box is set to missing. All other groups producing similar datasets (including the two in the USA) undertake some degree of spatial interpolation.

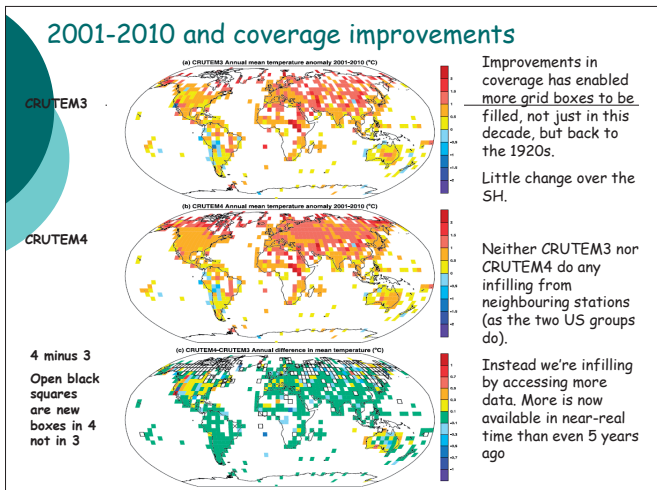
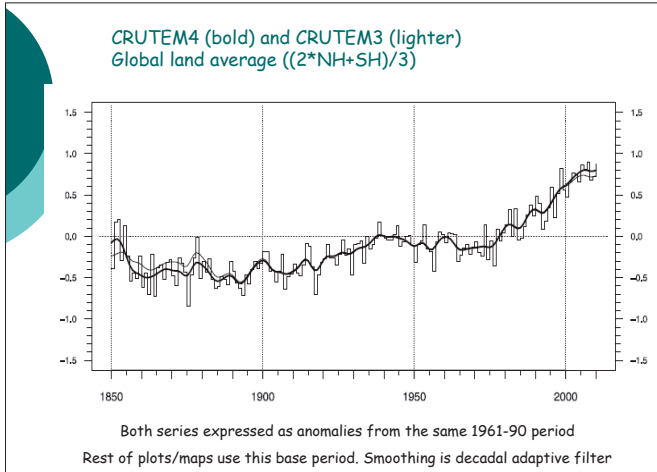


**How does knowledge of the potential errors help?**

- Each grid-box value has an error associated with it
- The form of these errors and biases make them difficult for users to apply consistently - some cancel as station counts increase, while potential biases (these more important for HadSST3) don't
- The 'error' field for both CRUTEM4 and HadSST3 is informative in strategies for improvement. If the aim is to reduce errors then reductions will come from digitizing more data in regions of sparse coverage (this should be obvious, but the numbers here can quantify the potential improvement)
- More land data are needed away from Europe and North America, especially in all of the Southern Hemisphere (with the exception of Australia)
- More marine data are needed in all oceans except the North Atlantic

For every grid box dataset since 2006 we have produced an error estimate – for each box and also for large-scale averages. There are different components to the errors – the homogeneity of the station records, which because much is essentially random will cancel with more stations per box, the more pervasive biases (such as TOB, exposure and urbanization) which will not cancel and the sparseness of coverage in earlier years (which will lead to more missing values) which again increases the errors.

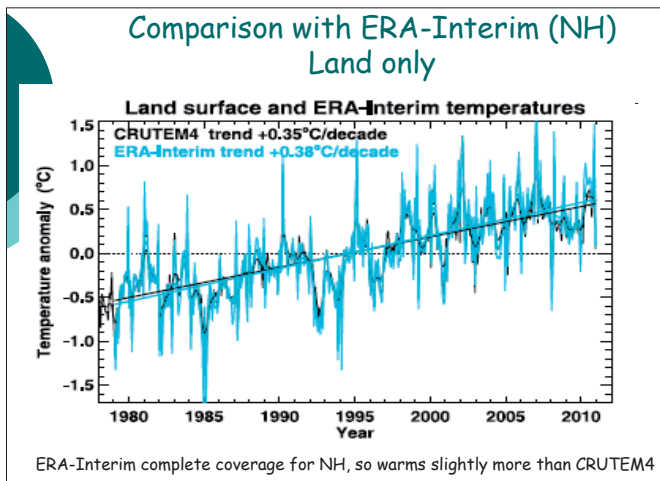
I won't go into detail about the errors, but knowledge of its structure is very useful for determining strategies for reducing the error. The errors are reduced by getting more station series, but additional sites in much of the tropics and the Southern Hemisphere will be much more important than more sites in the USA and parts of Europe. The error is much more affected by the location of the stations and researchers who say they use large numbers of stations (say ten times what we do) don't fully understand the error structure. Using ten times more data over the USA hardly reduces the error at all. This is why I commented upon the recent Brazilian data release. Even though this is only from 1961 and only about 300 series, it is likely to lead to a reduction in SH errors once the data are introduced.



This slide shows the global average calculated for land areas, with the global average being the weighted average of the two hemispheres (with the NH counting twice and the SH once – roughly in proportion to reality). On this plot there is a comparison of the latest version for the land (CRUTEM4) with the older version (CRUTEM3 from 2006). Despite months of work adding in new data from NMSs and other sources and replacing all the US data with new US sources, there are only changes in the most recent decade (the 2000s) and before about 1880. This just illustrates how robust the land temperature record is! The additional data for Russia and Canada is the cause of

the recent increase, as we now have more grid boxes with data and as these higher-latitude areas have been warmer recently, so the global average has increased very slightly by just less than 0.1 deg C.


The next slide shows the spatial coverage of the land data and the differences in coverage between CRUTEM4 and CRUTEM3. As we don't do any infilling, the only way to get more squares 'filled' with data is to find more data. Both Russia and Canada have made more homogenized series available in recent years. The differences between the two versions of the dataset over the US and Australia relate to the replacement of much of the data for these two countries with newer improved and homogenized datasets in the latest version CRUTEM4. The gaps in coverage in Brazil may be infilled, but there are larger 'white' areas in Africa and Indonesia where more work needs to be undertaken. Antarctica only has about 30 permanently manned stations – hence the few boxes across the continent. Automatic Weather Stations (AWSs) will improve this from the 1990s, but it will only lead to a doubling of the number of grid boxes. Satellite estimation here may be possible, but in some regions it is difficult to determine if the radiance temperatures that satellites measure are from the surface or from low-level clouds.



Later I will show comparisons of the dataset combined with marine data (HadCRUT4), but before doing this there is one dataset that is worth comparing with. Reanalyses are weather forecasts run with a consistent computer model and all the input data (satellites, weather balloons and surface data). The latest and best of these is called ERA-Interim developed

by ECMWF at Reading in the UK. ERA-Interim runs from 1979 and in the plot I am showing the ERA-Interim average for the NH land regions compared to CRUTEM4. As you see the agreement is excellent at the monthly timescale. Some of the warm and cooler periods relate to El Nino and La Nina events during the last 30 years. Also the cooling from the Mt Pinatubo eruption in June 1991 is clearly evident. The two datasets agree on the trend. ERA-Interim warms slightly more, possibly as for this dataset the land areas are complete, so have no missing land-box series in the Arctic regions.

We have investigated using equal-area grids, instead of the latitude/longitude boxes, but the resulting gridded product will have less use to climatologists used to working with latitude/longitude grids. Most climate model and regional climate model output is available on latitude/longitude grids or is transformed to this before being released for use.



### Combining land and marine

- $CRUTEM4 + HadSST3 = HadCRUT4$
- At coasts/islands the method of combination has reverted to the method used with HadCRUT2 (i.e. based on area with land getting a % of at least 25 and similarly for the ocean). This ensures long island records don't get ignored when in poorly sampled ocean regions.
- Also in HadCRUT4 the NH and SH average is the average of the 12 months
- Global average is  $(NH + SH) / 2$

This slide introduces the dataset HadCRUT4 which combines the land data (CRUTEM4) with marine data (HadSST3). HadSST3 is a dataset of sea-surface temperatures across the world's oceans. When combining the two, a decision has to be made for grid boxes that contain data from both land and marine regions. In the latest version we average the two with weights of the land/ocean component, but ensure that the weight of land/ocean must be at least 25% and the other cannot exceed 75%. The purpose of this is to ensure that isolated islands in data sparse marine regions are not ignored in the combination. We have experimented with various methods of combination and HadCRUT4 is very robust to the particular method chosen.

## SST issues - HadSST3



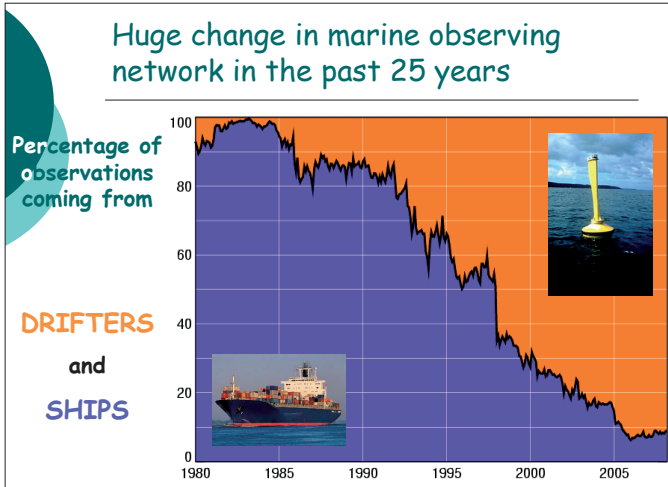
- Lots of problems - the main one is dealing with thermometer measurements of sea water taken by various types of buckets
- Thompson, D.W.J., Kennedy, J.J., Wallace, J.M. and Jones, P.D., 2008: A large discontinuity in the mid-twentieth century in observed global-mean surface temperature. *Abstrure* **453**, 646-649.
- Kennedy J.J., Rayner, N.A., Smith, R.O., Saunby, M. and Parker, D.E., 2011a: Reassessing biases and other uncertainties in sea-surface temperature observations since 1850 part 1: measurement and sampling errors. *J. Geophys. Res.* **116**, D14103, doi:10.1029/2010JD151218.
- Kennedy J.J., Rayner, N.A., Smith, R.O., Saunby, M. and Parker, D.E., 2011b: Reassessing biases and other uncertainties in sea-surface temperature observations since 1850 part 2: biases and homogenisation. *J. Geophys. Res.* **116**, D14104, doi:10.1029/2010JD15220.

HadSST3 is a dataset of sea surface temperature (SST) data, complimentary to the land dataset (CRUTEM4), and developed by my colleagues at the UK Met Office Hadley Centre. As you might expect there are also numerous problems with SST data and also with marine air temperature (MAT) data taken by ships. First, MAT data are much more variable within a month than SST, as SST doesn't vary much within a month nor little between day and night. If MAT data were to be used we would need 2-3 times as much data to derive averages as accurate as SST, so SST anomalies are used as surrogates for MAT for the ocean areas.

SST data have homogeneity problems principally due to way the measurements have been taken since the 19th century. SST measurements were first taken with wooden buckets on sailing ships. These were replaced with canvas buckets when steamships were introduced. Later (around WW2) ships began to use temperature measurements taken using thermistors located in the engine intake pipes of ships – which are used to cool the engines. It turns out that the bucket measurements are between 0.3 and 0.7 deg C cooler than the engine intake sensors. A method of adjustment has been developed to correct the bucket values, which is based on the thermal properties of a canvas bucket. The most important parameter here is the air-sea temperature difference, but an average value for the location and season can be used. If adjustments for this were not undertaken the world would have warmed much more than it has and there would be a large difference between coastal/island SSTs and land air temperatures prior to about 1940 which would be completely non-physical. In anomaly

terms, large-scale averages of land temperatures and SSTs should agree. All homogeneity work on both components (land and marine) is undertaken independently, so the two separate datasets are mutually supporting one another.

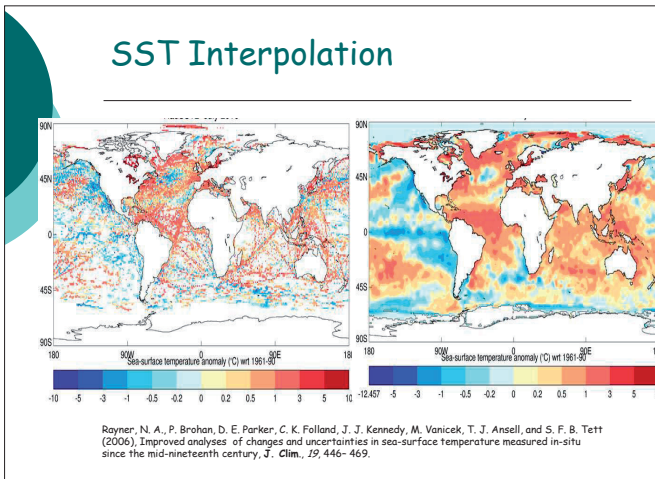
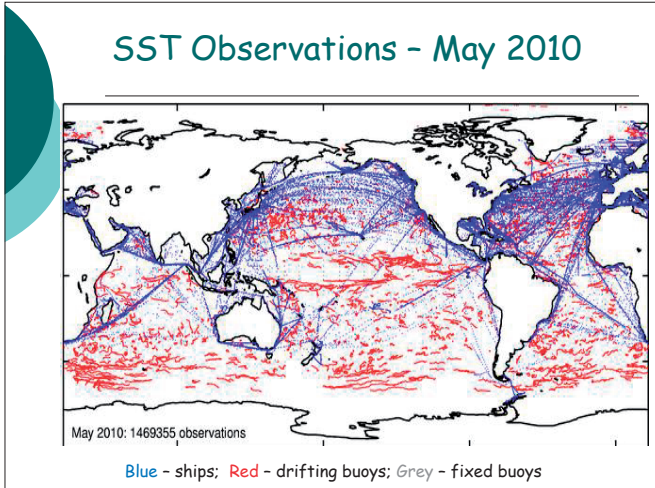
SSTs are vital for many other aspects of climate and weather services. For example, they are necessary for lower boundary conditions for all forms of weather forecasts and Reanalyses.



Despite the major change in SST measurements around 1940, there have been dramatic changes in recent decades also. Satellite estimates have proved very useful to expand coverage, but it has to be remembered that what the satellite sees is a skin temperature (top mm) while a ship measures SST several metres below sea level in the upper mixed layer. Also to improve weather forecasts, drifters have been deployed principally in the Southern Oceans and the tropics. These data are being extensively used for SST datasets, but they appear to measure SST about 0.1 to 0.2 deg C cooler than the ships. It is probable that the ship-based SSTs are slightly too warm because of the ship itself, so the drifters are the more accurate measure in an absolute sense.

Finally, the number of ships taking SST measurements is reducing because some shipping companies no longer want to take these measurements and there are security concerns. Much fishing fleet data (principally from South Korea, Japan and Taiwan) enters the dataset some years in arrears as the fleets don't want their positions to be known in real time.

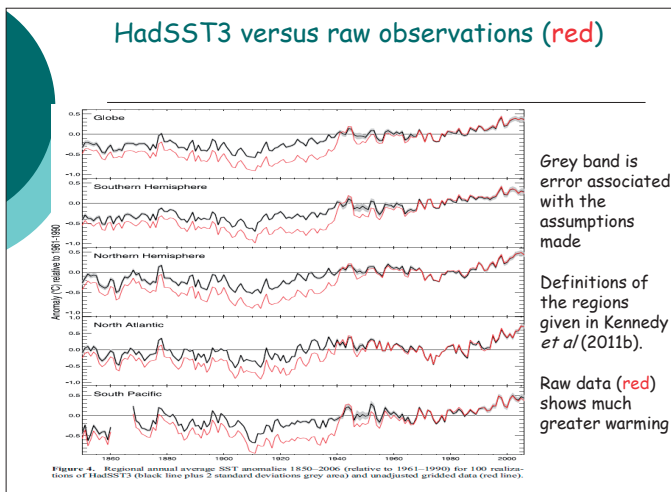
This slide shows the dramatic shift in marine recording over the last 25 years. In the 1980s most SST measurements came from ships, but now most come from the drifters. The drifters need to be continually deployed as they only have a lifetime of about a year. Also as the 1961-90 base period is based on ships, the recent SST anomalies could be biased low if the drifters are measuring 0.1 to 0.2 deg C cooler than the ships.



These two slides show how the HadSST3 dataset is put together for the month of May 2010. The first slide shows measurements coming from ships,

drifters/buoys and also from fixed buoys in the tropical Pacific (set up to help forecasts of El Nino events).

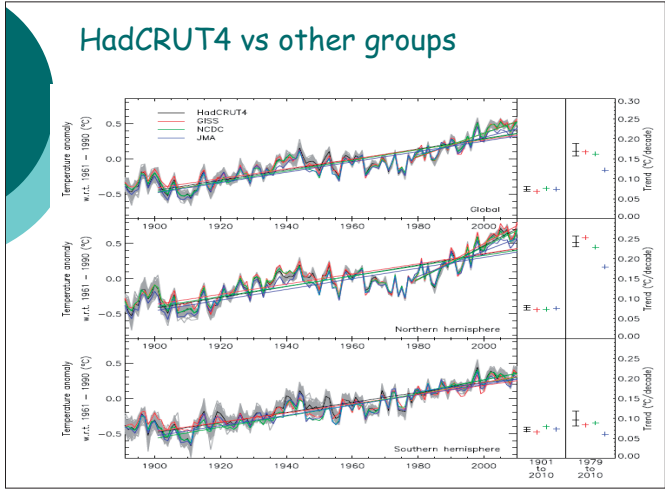
The second slide shows how the raw measurements are converted to anomalies (from 1961-90) then combined to produce anomaly maps for most areas of the world's oceans. There are still gaps though mainly in the Polar oceans, especially near areas of sea ice. As sea ice disappears in Arctic summers, SST data are appearing from ships travelling there, but these are difficult to use as there aren't data for the base period of 1961-90.



This slide shows SST averages from HadSST3 for regions of the world's oceans. The black lines are after adjustments for bucket/intake issues. The red are the raw values, if no adjustments for the homogeneity problems (principally the buckets before 1940) are made. If these adjustments were not made the warming of the world would be much greater. The adjustments to SSTs are by far the largest adjustment to any component of the global temperature averages. The sign of this adjustment is negative. Most people who work with surface temperature data only consider the land, but the SST data have larger adjustments and they affect a much greater percentage of the Earth's surface. The grey areas in the 1940s and 1950s represent revised SST averages after determination that British ships continued to use bucket measurements after WW2 up to about 1960 –because that is always what they had done, and no-one told them to use the engine intakes!

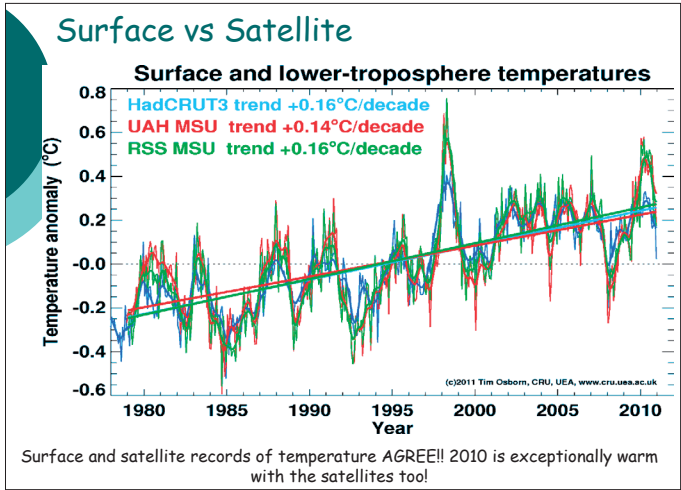


## HadCRUT4 vs other groups

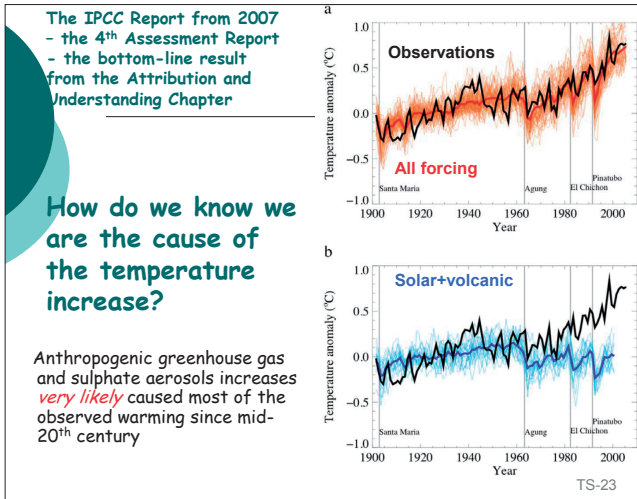


This slide shows comparisons of HadCRUT4 with two similar datasets developed in the USA by GISS/NASA and NCDC/NOAA and one from Japan (Kobe). Although all data groups make similar assumptions and use similar datasets, the agreement between them is excellent. The two right-hand panels show the trends (with error ranges for HadCRUT4) for the periods 1901-2010 and 1951-2010. Warming has increased over the last 80 years compared to the last 110 years. For the SH the linear trend is a good approximation for the last 110.

## Surface vs Satellite



This panel shows comparisons of HadCRUT3 with two estimates of lower tropospheric (centres at about 5km above the surface) temperature estimates from NOAA polar-orbiting satellites. These satellite data are totally independent from any surface measurements used in HadCRUT4, and the comparison is of surface temperatures with those 5km aloft. Again the agreement is staggeringly good. The satellite measurements show slightly greater variability on monthly and seasonal timescales than surface temperatures as would be expected.



Finally before my conclusions, I will discuss the most important aspect from the last IPCC Report in 2007. This is the issue of how we know the rise in temperatures is as a result of the build-up of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere. Here, we use many computer model simulations of the last 100 years from different modelling centres around the world. The thinner orange lines are all the models run with all known factors that we think affect the climate. The thicker red line is the average. In the top panel this is compared with the instrumental temperature record in black. In the bottom the panel (in blues) the same models are run with just natural forcings which is just the result of changes in the output of the sun and in the effects of major explosive tropical volcanic eruptions. The global average temperature is the same black in both. As a result of natural forcings the world should have cooled very slightly over the last 50 years. Including greenhouse gases simulates the warming that has occurred.

## Conclusions

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- Adding more station data in the Arctic warms recent years
- Understanding the error structure enables strategies for reducing uncertainties to be determined. Finding and digitizing more stations in unobserved parts of the world is the key
- Biases resulting from changes in observation screens and the time observations are made are much more important than station homogeneity
- Urbanization is a factor in many cities, but NMSs are aware of the problems and sites are generally located in parks or at airports
- Marine data also have numerous homogeneity problems, but they are assessed independently so are mutually supportive of the land data
- There is excellent agreement between the different groups undertaking similar analyses around the world - not just in the USA, but in Japan, China and Russia
- Totally-independent estimates of temperatures in the lower-part of the atmosphere from satellites are also in near-perfect agreement with the surface temperature series
- The only way to explain the warming is to include human influences on the composition of the atmosphere within our climate model simulations.

## Thanks!

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- URV
- Geography Department
  
- For the nomination for the Doctor Honoris Causa

Thank you all for the nomination for the award of the Doctor Honoris Causa





Paraules de benvinguda

pronunciades pel Dr. Francesc Xavier Grau Vidal

Rector Magfc. de la Universitat



Benvolgut Prof. Jones,  
Sr. President del Consell Social,  
Sr. Secretari general de la URV,  
Prof. Manola Brunet,  
Senyores i senyors claustrals,  
Distingides autoritats,  
Senyores i senyors,

L'acte d'investidura d'un doctorat honoris causa és el de màxima solemnitat per a la comunitat universitària. Amb aquest acte integrem al nostre Claustre persones que s'han distingit per la seva activitat en benefici de les arts, la cultura, les ciències o la humanitat, i per a aquest acte reservem també la litúrgia que ens evoca el paper cabdal que, des de fa segles, té la institució universitària en la societat, per al desenvolupament de la qual preserva i fa avançar el coneixement.

Mitjançant aquest reconeixement, selectiu i judiciós, la Universitat també es defineix. Les persones que s'han integrat a la URV en un acte solemne com el d'avui expressen al món quins són els nostres referents d'acompliment acadèmic, artístic, cultural o en el servei a la societat i en incorporar-se al Claustre de la URV ens aporten, de la seva banda, honor i també reconeixement. És per això que, per orgull nostre, presideixen l'entrada a la Universitat.

A mi em correspon l'honor i el privilegi de donar la benvinguda al nostre Claustre al Prof. Jones, i ho faig amb molt de gust, tant a títol personal com en nom del tots els membres de la Universitat, i en especial del Departament de Geografia, del qual va néixer la proposta de conferir-li la màxima distinció acadèmica que atorga la Universitat, i també d'orgull per al Centre de Canvi Climàtic de la URV.

La padrina, la professora Manola Brunet, en la seva *laudatio*, ha posat de manifest tots els mèrits acadèmics i científics que el fan mereixedor de tan alta distinció i que hem pogut apreciar en la *magistralis lectio* amb la qual el doctor Jones ens ha obsequiat.

Per a la URV, és tot un privilegi comptar entre el seus claustrals amb un dels referents mundials en el coneixement de l'escalfament global i en els estudis de detecció i atribució de causes del canvi climàtic a escala global. Però, a més, el Dr. Jones ha complementat aquests treballs amb altres recerques que abasten des de l'anàlisi del passat fins a la projecció del futur, com, respectivament, les reconstruccions paleoclimàtiques i les prediccions climàtiques.

Com ha destacat la professora Brunet, la seva rellevant aportació científica en una qüestió de la màxima transcendència a escala mundial ja el fa mereixedor d'aquest reconeixement. Però també cal sumar-hi, com ella ha explicat, no només la recerca sinó el fet que l'ha compaginat amb la tasca docent i de formació per a la recerca, de manera que ha transferit a noves generacions l'alt coneixement científic adquirit.

Com assenyalava, la distinció d'honoris causa sempre vol posar de manifest valors de la nostra universitat, que en aquesta ocasió són, com a mínim, tres. El primer, com ja he comentat, és el de la recerca científica d'excel·lència com a fonament d'una universitat investigadora, acompanyada de la tasca docent al més alt nivell. El segon valor sorgeix del mateix substrat de la recerca del Dr. Jones, que ha aportat coneixement a un dels temes més rellevants avui en dia per a la humanitat, el canvi climàtic antropogènic.

Es tracta d'una qüestió a la qual la nostra Universitat també ha volgut contribuir, tal com fa en àmbits relacionats amb el medi ambient i la sostenibilitat. Així, l'any 2008 es creà el Centre en Canvi Climàtic, dirigit per la professora Brunet, que fa recerca i transferència de coneixement en la reconstrucció i anàlisi del clima. El conegut C3 té la seu al Campus de les Terres de l'Ebre, des d'on pot establir sinergies amb dos centres de recerca de fort component mediambiental, com la Unitat d'Ecosistemes Aquàtics de l'IRTA, a Sant Carles de la Ràpita, i l'Observatori de l'Ebre, a Roquetes. Junt amb aquest centre d'investigació, que comparteix objectius amb els de la recerca del Prof. Jones, vull esmentar també l'esforç d'investigació específica, anàlisi i divulgació per a la presa de consciència col·lectiva en aspectes mediambientals que duen a terme el Centre d'Estudis en Dret Ambiental i la Càtedra DOW de Desenvolupament Sostenible. Cal afegir-hi l'activitat de manta grups de recerca que, des de pràcticament tots els àmbits científics, contribueixen al coneixement del medi ambient. Com ha demostrat un recent estudi de la Càtedra Dow, la URV és una universitat molt mediambientalitzada en docència i en recerca.

Finalment, també voldria destacar un tercer valor que el Dr. Jones ens aporta i el considero fonamental, sobretot en les circumstàncies actuals, en



què es qüestiona la governança universitària i, d'alguna manera, se n'ame-  
naça l'autonomia. Es tracta del rigor científic i la fermesa intel·lectual en una  
investigació, no còmodes per a tothom i subjectes a la pressió de forts inter-  
essos externs. Efectivament, aquest és un valor que entenc intrínsec al mateix  
concepte d'universitat, però que cal anar recordant, ja que és l'expressió del  
veritable compromís de la universitat envers la societat. En aquest cas, com-  
promís exercitat exemplarment per part del Dr. Jones des del Centre del Canvi  
Climàtic de la Universitat d'East Anglia a Norwich, on ha desenvolupat la seva  
recerca en els darrers anys, amb plena llibertat de càtedra, com correspon.

Les seves investigacions van comportar que l'any 2007 el Grup Inter-  
governamental d'Experts sobre Canvi Climàtic (IPCC) fos reconegut amb el  
premi Nobel de la pau conjuntament amb el vicepresident dels Estats Units,  
Al Gore. La motivació del premi, segons l'acadèmia sueca, per a l'IPCC  
fou la següent, cito: "for their efforts to build up and disseminate greater  
knowledge about man-made climate change, and to lay the foundations  
for the measures that are needed to counteract such change." L'Organitza-  
ció Meteorològica Mundial i el Programa de Nacions Unides per al Medi  
Ambient van crear el 1988 el Grup Intergovernamental d'Experts sobre el  
Canvi Climàtic, per proporcionar al món una clara visió científica pel que  
fa a l'estat actual dels coneixements sobre el canvi climàtic i els possibles  
impactes ambientals i socioeconòmics. I, com també assenyalen, "a causa  
del seu caràcter científic i intergovernamental, l'IPCC representa una oportu-  
nitat única per proporcionar informació científica rigorosa i equilibrada  
als qui prenen decisions. En donar suport als informes de l'IPCC, els governs  
reconeixen l'autoritat del seu contingut científic".

L'esperit crític i el rigor científic, la recerca d'excel·lència, l'aportació  
al saber i la transmissió de coneixement són els valors, doncs, que avui ens  
apleguen.

Dr. Philip Douglas Jones, thank you for accepting this award. More than  
an honor for you, it is an honor for us. Your membership in the University  
Court confers prestige on the Universitat Rovira i Virgili and encourages us to  
work even harder to be worthy of the privilege of our association with you.

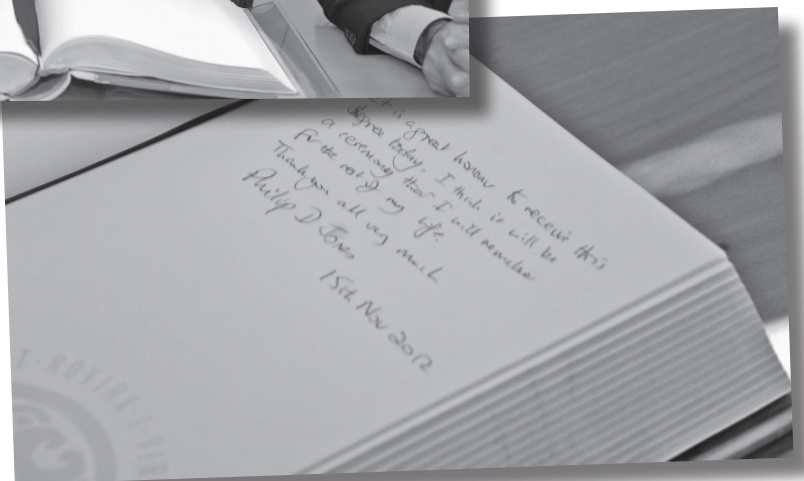
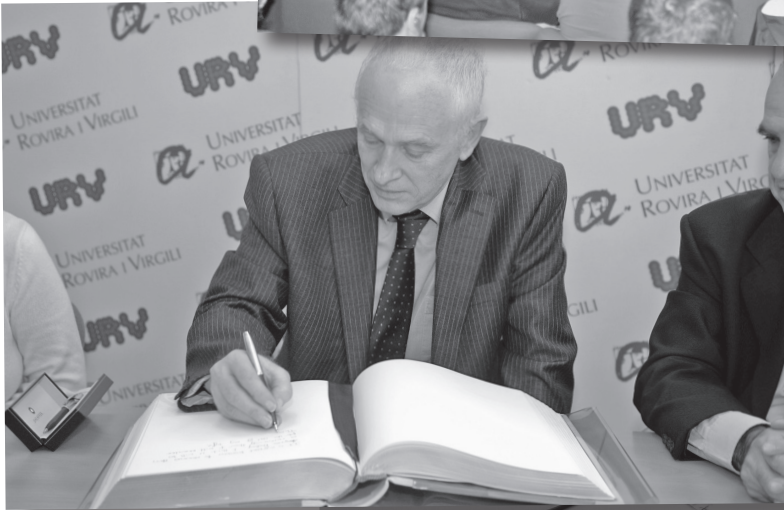
Today, with the recognition of your merits, you are acquiring a commit-  
ment to represent the Universitat Rovira i Virgili, which I am sure you will  
undertake with distinction. Please accept my warmest congratulations and  
those of the university community, which from today will also be your own.

Moltes gràcies.













UNIVERSITAT



ROVIRA I VIRGILI