

Evaluation of Arctic warming in mid-Pliocene climate simulations

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Abstract. Palaeoclimate simulations improve our understanding of the climate, inform us about the performance of climate models in a different climate scenario, and help to identify robust features of the climate system. Here, we analyse Arctic warming in an ensemble of 16 simulations of the mid-Pliocene Warm Period (mPWP), derived from the Pliocene Model Intercomparison Project Phase 2 (PlioMIP2).

The PlioMIP2 ensemble simulates Arctic (60-90° N) annual mean surface air temperature (SAT) increases of 3.7 to 11.6 °C compared to the pre-industrial, with a multi-model mean (MMM) increase of 7.2 °C. The Arctic warming amplification ratio relative to global SAT anomalies in the ensemble ranges from 1.8 to 3.1 (MMM is 2.3). Sea ice extent anomalies range from -3.0 to -10.4 x 10⁶ km² with a MMM anomaly of -5.6 x 10⁶ km², which constitutes a decrease of 53 % compared to the pre-industrial. The majority (11 out of 16) models simulate summer sea ice-free conditions ($\leq 1 \times 10^6$ km²) in their mPWP simulation. The ensemble tends to underestimate SAT in the Arctic when compared to available reconstructions although the degree of underestimation varies strongly

48 between the simulations. The simulations with the highest Arctic SAT anomalies tend to match the proxy dataset
49 in its current form better. The ensemble shows some agreement with reconstructions of sea ice, particularly with
50 regards to seasonal sea ice. Large uncertainties limit the confidence that can be placed in the findings and the
51 compatibility of the different proxy datasets. We show that, while reducing uncertainties in the reconstructions
52 could decrease the SAT data-model discord substantially, further improvements are likely to be found in enhanced
53 boundary conditions or model physics. Lastly, we compare the Arctic warming in the mPWP to projections of
54 future Arctic warming and find that the PlioMIP2 ensemble simulates greater Arctic amplification than CMIP5
55 future climate simulations and an increase instead of a decrease in AMOC strength compared to pre-industrial.
56 The results highlight the importance of slow feedbacks in equilibrium climate simulations, and that caution must
57 be taken when using simulations of the mPWP as an analogue for future climate change.

58 **1 Introduction**

59 The simulation of past climates improves our understanding of the climate system, and it provides an opportunity
60 for the evaluation of the performance of climate models beyond the range of present and recent climate variability
61 (Braconnot et al., 2012; Harrison et al., 2014, 2015; Masson-Delmotte et al., 2013; Schmidt et al., 2014).
62 Comparisons of palaeoclimate simulations and palaeoenvironmental reconstructions have been carried out for
63 several decades (Braconnot et al., 2007; Joussaume and Taylor, 1995) and show that while climate models can
64 reproduce the direction and large-scale patterns of changes in climate, they tend to underestimate the magnitude
65 of specific changes in regional climates (Braconnot et al., 2012; Harrison et al., 2015). The comparison of
66 palaeoclimate simulations with future projections has aided in the identification of robust features of the climate
67 system which can help constrain future projections (Harrison et al., 2015; Schmidt et al., 2014), including in the
68 Arctic (Yoshimori and Suzuki, 2019).

69
70 One such robust feature is the Arctic amplification of global temperature anomalies (Serreze and Barry, 2011).
71 Increased warming in the Arctic region compared to the global average is a common feature of both palaeo- and
72 future climate simulations and is also present in the observational record (Collins et al., 2013; Masson-Delmotte
73 et al., 2013). Arctic warming has a distinct seasonal character, with the largest sea surface temperature (SST) and
74 the smallest surface air temperature (SAT) anomalies occurring in the summer due to enhanced ocean heat uptake
75 following sea ice melt (Serreze et al., 2009; Zheng et al., 2019). It is critical to correctly simulate Arctic
76 amplification as it is shown that projected Arctic warming affects ice sheet stability, global sea-level rise and
77 carbon cycle feedbacks (e.g. through permafrost melting; Masson-Delmotte et al., 2013). Several multi-model
78 analyses that included palaeoclimate simulations and/or future projections found that changes in northern high-
79 latitude temperatures scale (roughly) linearly with changes in global temperatures (Bracegirdle and Stephenson,
80 2013; Harrison et al., 2015; Izumi et al., 2013; Masson-Delmotte et al., 2006; Miller et al., 2010; Schmidt et al.,
81 2014; Winton, 2008).

82
83 Underestimation of Arctic SAT has been reported for several climates in the Palaeoclimate Modelling
84 Intercomparison Project Phase 3 (PMIP3), including the mid-Pliocene Warm Period (Dowsett et al., 2012;
85 Haywood et al., 2013a; Salzmann et al., 2013), Last Interglacial (LIG: Bakker et al., 2012; Lunt et al., 2013; Otto-
86 Bliessner et al., 2013) and Eocene (Lunt et al., 2012a). PMIP4 simulations, however, of the LIG showed good

87 agreement with SAT reconstructions in the Canadian Arctic, Greenland, and Scandinavia, while showing
88 overestimations in other regions (Otto-Bliesner et al., 2020). PMIP4 simulations of the Eocene were also able to
89 capture the polar amplification indicated by SAT proxies (Lunt et al., 2020).

90

91 In the present work, we analyze the simulated Arctic warming in a new ensemble of 16 simulations in the Pliocene
92 Model Intercomparison Project Phase 2 (PlioMIP2) (Haywood et al., 2016). PlioMIP2 is designed to represent a
93 discrete time slice within the mid-Pliocene Warm Period (mPWP; 3.264–3.025 Ma; sometimes referred to as mid-
94 Piacenzian Warm Period): Marine Isotope Stage (MIS) KM5c, 3.204–3.207 Ma (Dowsett et al., 2016, 2013;
95 Haywood et al., 2013b, 2016). The mPWP is the most recent period in geological history with atmospheric CO₂
96 concentrations similar to the present, therefore providing great potential to learn about warm climate states.
97 Additionally, the KM5c time slice is characterised by a similar-to-modern orbital forcing (Haywood et al., 2013;
98 Prescott et al., 2014). These factors give lessons learned from the mPWP, and the KM5c time slice in particular,
99 potential relevance for future climate change (Burke et al., 2018; Tierney et al., 2019), and this is one of the
100 guiding principles of PlioMIP (Haywood et al., 2016).

101

102 Palaeoenvironmental reconstructions show that the elevated CO₂ concentrations in the mPWP coincided with
103 substantial warming, which was particularly prominent in the Arctic (Brigham-Grette et al., 2013; Dowsett et al.,
104 2012; Panitz et al., 2016; Salzmann et al., 2013; Haywood et al., 2020) discuss the large-scale outcomes of
105 PlioMIP2 and observe a global warming that is between the best estimates of predicted end-of-century global
106 temperature change under the RCP6.0 ($+2.2 \pm 0.5$ °C) and RCP8.5 (3.7 ± 0.5 °C; Collins et al., 2013) emission
107 scenarios.

108

109 The dominant mechanism for global warming in mid-Pliocene simulations is through changes in radiative forcing
110 following increases in greenhouse gas concentrations (Chandan and Peltier, 2017; Hill et al., 2014; Hunter et al.,
111 2019; Kamae et al., 2016; Lunt et al., 2012b; Stepanek et al., 2020; Tan et al., 2020). Polar warming is also
112 dominated by changes in greenhouse gas emissivity (Hill et al., 2014; Tindall and Haywood, 2020). Apart from
113 the changes in greenhouse gas concentrations, changes in boundary conditions that led to warming in previous
114 simulations of the mPWP included the specified ice sheets, orography, and vegetation (Hill, 2015; Lunt et al.,
115 2012b).

116

117 In PlioMIP1, the previous phase of this project, model simulations underestimated the strong Arctic warming that
118 is inferred from proxy records was found (Dowsett et al., 2012; Haywood et al., 2013a; Salzmann et al., 2013).
119 This data-model discord may have been caused by uncertainties in model physics, boundary conditions, or
120 reconstructions (Haywood et al., 2013a).

121

122 Uncertainties in model physics include physical processes that are not incorporated in the models and uncertainties
123 in model parameters. It was found that the inclusion of chemistry-climate feedbacks from vegetation and wildfire
124 changes leads to substantial global warming (Unger and Yue, 2014, while excluding industrial pollutants and
125 explicitly simulating aerosol-cloud interactions (Feng et al., 2019), and decreasing atmospheric dust loading
126 (Sagoo and Storelvmo, 2017) leads to increased Arctic warming in mPWP simulations. Similarly, in simulations

127 of the Eocene, two models that implemented modified aerosols had better skill than other models at representing
128 polar amplification (Lunt et al., 2020). Changes in model parameters, such as the sea ice albedo parameter (Howell
129 et al., 2016b), may provide further opportunities for increasing data-model agreement in the Arctic.

130

131 Several studies found changes in boundary conditions that could help resolve some of the data-model discord in
132 the Arctic for PlioMIP1 simulations. The studied changes in boundary conditions include changes in orbital
133 forcing (Feng et al., 2017; Prescott et al., 2014; Salzmann et al., 2013), atmospheric CO₂ concentrations (Feng et
134 al., 2017; Howell et al., 2016b; Salzmann et al., 2013), and palaeogeography and bathymetry (Brierley and
135 Fedorov, 2016; Feng et al., 2017; Hill, 2015; Otto-Bliesner et al., 2017; Robinson et al., 2011).

136

137 New in the experimental design of PlioMIP2 are a closed Bering Strait and Canadian Archipelago in the mPWP
138 simulation. The closure of these Arctic Ocean gateways has been shown to alter oceanic heat transport into the
139 North Atlantic (Brierley and Fedorov, 2016; Feng et al., 2017; Otto-Bliesner et al., 2017). Additionally, the focus
140 on a specific time slice within the mPWP allows for reduced uncertainties in reconstructions and boundary
141 conditions, in particular with regards to orbital forcing. These changes have led to an improved data-model
142 agreement for reconstructions of SST, particularly in the North Atlantic (Dowsett et al., 2019; McClymont et al.,
143 2020; (Haywood et al., 2020). Multi-model mean (MMM) SST anomalies in the North Atlantic deviate less than
144 3 °C from reconstructed temperatures (Haywood et al., 2020).

145

146 In the following sections, we first evaluate the simulated Arctic (60–90° N) temperatures and sea ice extents (SIE)
147 in the PlioMIP2 ensemble. We then perform a data-model comparison for SAT and an evaluation of how
148 uncertainties in the reconstructions may affect the outcomes of the data-model comparison. We then compare the
149 simulated sea ice to reconstructions. Lastly, we investigate two climatic features of the mPWP, namely Arctic
150 amplification and the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC), and compare these analyses to
151 findings of future climate studies to investigate the extent to which the mPWP can be used as an analogue for
152 future Arctic climate change.

153 **2 Methods**

154 **2.1 Participating models**

155 The simulations of the mPWP by 16 models participating in PlioMIP2 were used in this study. The models
156 included in this study are listed in Table 1. A more detailed description of each model's information and
157 experiment setup can be found in Haywood et al. (2020). All model groups incorporated the standardised set of
158 boundary conditions from the PlioMIP2 experimental design in their simulations (Haywood et al., 2016).

159

160 For each simulation, the last 100 years of data are used for the analysis. Individual model results are calculated
161 on the native grid of each model. MMM results are obtained after regridding each model's output to a 2° x 2° grid
162 using bilinear interpolation. Using a non-weighted ensemble mean theoretically averages out biases in models,
163 assuming models are independent, and errors are random (Knutti et al., 2010). Climate models can, however,
164 generally not be assumed to be independent (Knutti et al., 2010; Tebaldi and Knutti, 2007) and this is especially

165 true for the PlioMIP2 ensemble where many models have common origins (Table 1). The MMM results will
 166 therefore likely be biased towards specific common errors within the models comprising the ensemble.

167 **Table 1: Models participating in PlioMIP2 used in this study.**

Model name	Institution	PlioMIP2 reference
CCSM4-NCAR	National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR)	Feng et al. (2020)
CCSM4-Utrecht	IMAU, Utrecht University	
CCSM4-UofT	University of Toronto, Canada	Chandan and Peltier (2017)
CESM1.2	NCAR	Feng et al. (2020)
CESM2	NCAR	Feng et al. (2020)
COSMOS	Alfred Wegener Institute	Samakinwa et al., (2020); Stepanek et al. (2020)
EC-Earth 3.3	Stockholm University	Zhang et al. (2020)
GISS-E2-1-G	NASA/GISS	Kelley et al. (2020)
HadCM3	Hadley Centre for Climate Prediction and Research/Met Office UK	Hunter et al. (2019)
IPSLCM5A	Laboratoire des Sciences du Climat et de l'Environnement (LSCE)	Tan et al. (2020)
IPSLCM5A-2.1	LSCE	Tan et al. (2020)
IPSL-CM6A-LR	LSCE	Lurton et al. (2020)
MIROC4m	CCSR/NIES/FRCGC, Japan	Chan and Abe-Ouchi (2020)
MRI-CGCM2.3	Meteorological Research Institute	Kamae et al. (2016)
NorESM-L	NORCE Norwegian Research Centre, Bjerknes Centre for Climate Research, Bergen, Norway	Li et al. (2020)
NorESM1-F	NORCE Norwegian Research Centre, Bjerknes Centre for Climate Research, Bergen, Norway	Li et al. (2020)

168

169 **2.2 Data-model comparisons**

170 To evaluate the ability of climate models to simulate mPWP Arctic warming, we first perform a comparison to
 171 SAT estimates from palaeobotanical reconstructions. The data-model comparison is performed using temperature
 172 anomalies, calculated by differencing the mPWP and the pre-industrial simulation, to avoid overestimations of
 173 agreement due to strong latitudinal effects on temperature (Haywood and Valdes, 2004).

174

175 Reconstructed mPWP SATs are taken from Feng et al. (2017), who updated and combined an earlier compilation
 176 made by Salzmann et al. (2013) (Table S1). Qualitative estimates of confidence levels for each reconstruction
 177 were made by Feng et al. (2017) and Salzmann et al. (2013). Only reconstructions that are located at or northward
 178 of 60° N and for which the temporal range covers the KM5c time slice are included in the data-model comparison.
 179 Three reconstructions from Ballantyne et al. (2010) at the same location (78.3° N, -80.2° E) were averaged to

180 avoid oversampling that location. The uncertainties in the reconstructions were derived by Feng et al. (2017) and
181 Salzmann et al. (2013) from relevant literature.

182

183 The data-model comparison will be a point-to-point comparison of modelled and reconstructed temperatures
184 estimated from palaeobotanical proxies, which initially does not take the uncertainties of the reconstructions
185 (Table S1) into account. The potential influence of the uncertainties in reconstructions on the outcomes of the
186 data-model comparison will be investigated in a later section. The temporal range of the reconstructions is broad
187 and certainly not resolved to the resolution of the KM5c time slice, unlike the dataset of SST estimates compiled
188 by Foley and Dowsett (2019) used for PlioMIP2 SST data-model comparisons by Haywood et al. (2020) and
189 McClymont et al. (2020). Prescott et al. (2014) found that peak warmth in the mPWP would be diachronous
190 between different regions based on simulations with different configurations of orbital forcing. Orbital forcing is
191 particularly important in the high latitudes and for proxies that may record seasonal signatures (e.g. due to
192 recording growing season temperatures). As such, there may be significant biases in the dataset, as the temporal
193 ranges of the proxies include periods with substantially different external forcing than during the KM5c time slice
194 for which the simulations are run. Feng et al. (2017) investigated the effects of different orbital configurations, as
195 well as elevated atmospheric CO₂ concentrations (+50ppm) and closed Arctic gateways in PlioMIP1 simulations,
196 and found that they may change the outcomes of data-model comparisons in the northern high latitudes by 1-2
197 °C.

198

199 Further uncertainties arise due to bioclimatic ranges of fossil assemblages, errors in pre-industrial temperatures
200 from the observational record, potential seasonal biases, and additional unquantifiable factors. Ultimately, the
201 uncertainties constrain our ability to evaluate the Arctic warming in the PlioMIP2 simulations substantially. A
202 more detailed description of the uncertainties in the SAT estimates can be found in the work of Salzmann et al.
203 (2013).

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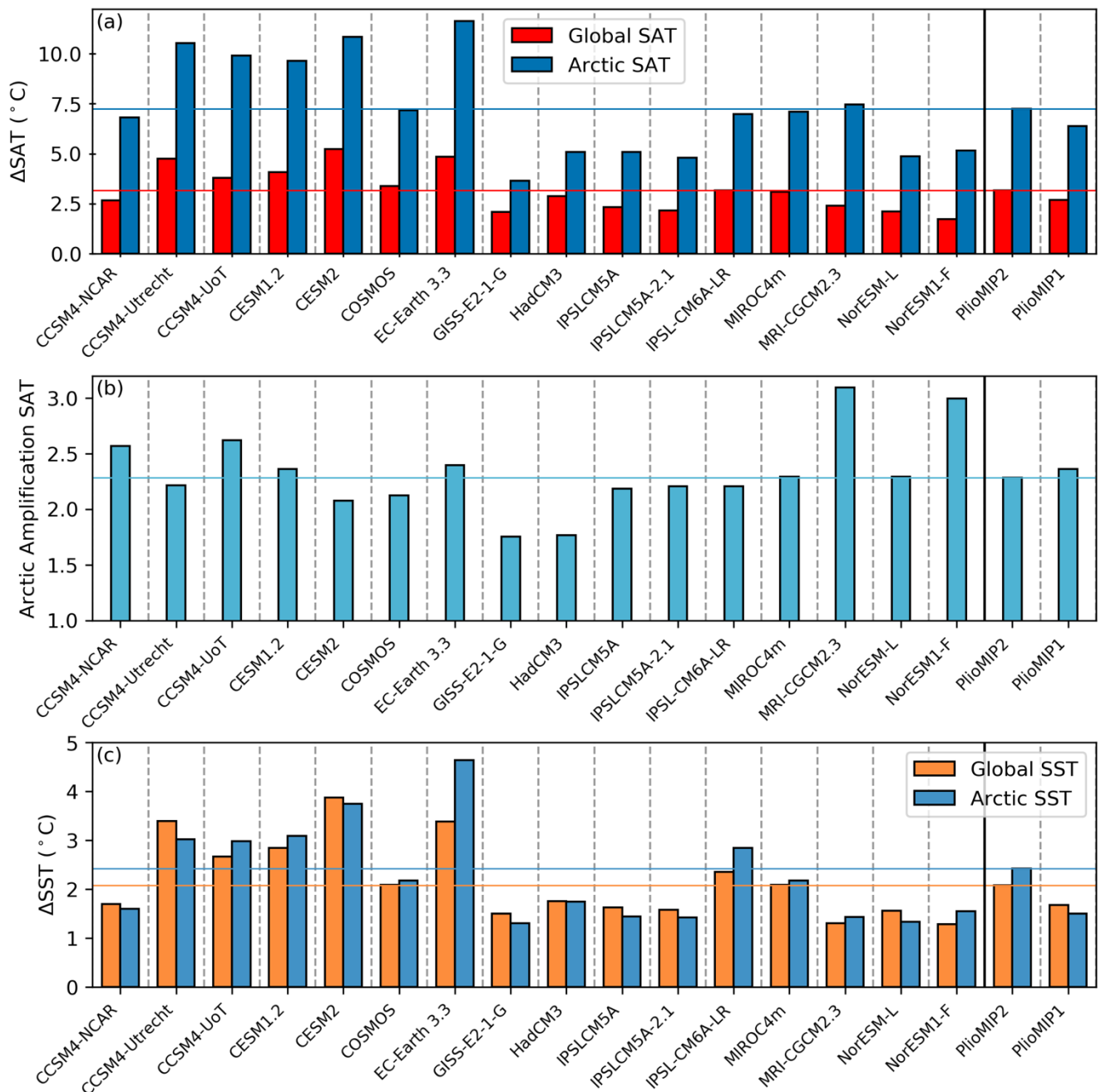
205 The reconstructed temperatures are differenced with temperatures from the observational record to obtain proxy
206 temperature anomalies. Observational record temperatures are obtained from the Berkeley Earth monthly land
207 and ocean dataset (Rohde et al., 2013a, 2013b), and the average temperature in the 1870–1899 period was used.

208

209 Furthermore, the simulation of mPWP SIE will be evaluated using three palaeoenvironmental reconstructions that
210 indicate whether sea ice was perennial or seasonal at a specific location. Darby (2008) infers that perennial sea
211 ice was present at Lomonosov Ridge (87.5° N, 138.3° W) throughout the last 14 Ma based on estimates of drift
212 rates of sea ice combined with inferred circum-Arctic sources of detrital mineral grains in sediments at this
213 location. Knies et al. (2014) infer seasonal sea ice cover based on the abundance of the IP₂₅ biomarker, a lipid that
214 is produced by certain sea ice diatoms, which is similar to the modern summer minimum throughout the mid-
215 Pliocene in sediments at two locations near the Fram Strait, of which one is chosen for this data-model comparison
216 (80.2° N, 6.4° E). Similarly, Clotten et al. (2018) infer seasonal sea ice cover with occasional sea ice-free
217 conditions in the Iceland Sea (69.1° N, -12.4° E) between 3.5 and 3.0 Ma using a multiproxy approach. As the
218 sediment record studied by Clotten et al. (2018) included a peak in the abundance of the IP₂₅ biomarker at 3.2 Ma,
219 we infer seasonal sea ice cover during the KM5c time slice.

220 **3 Arctic warming in the PlioMIP2 ensemble**

221 **3.1 Annual mean warming**



222
 223 **Figure 1: Simulated global and Arctic (a) SAT anomalies (mPWP minus pre-industrial), (b) Arctic amplification ratio**
 224 **of SAT, and (c) SST anomalies for each model and the MMMs. The horizontal lines represent PlioMIP2 MMM values.**

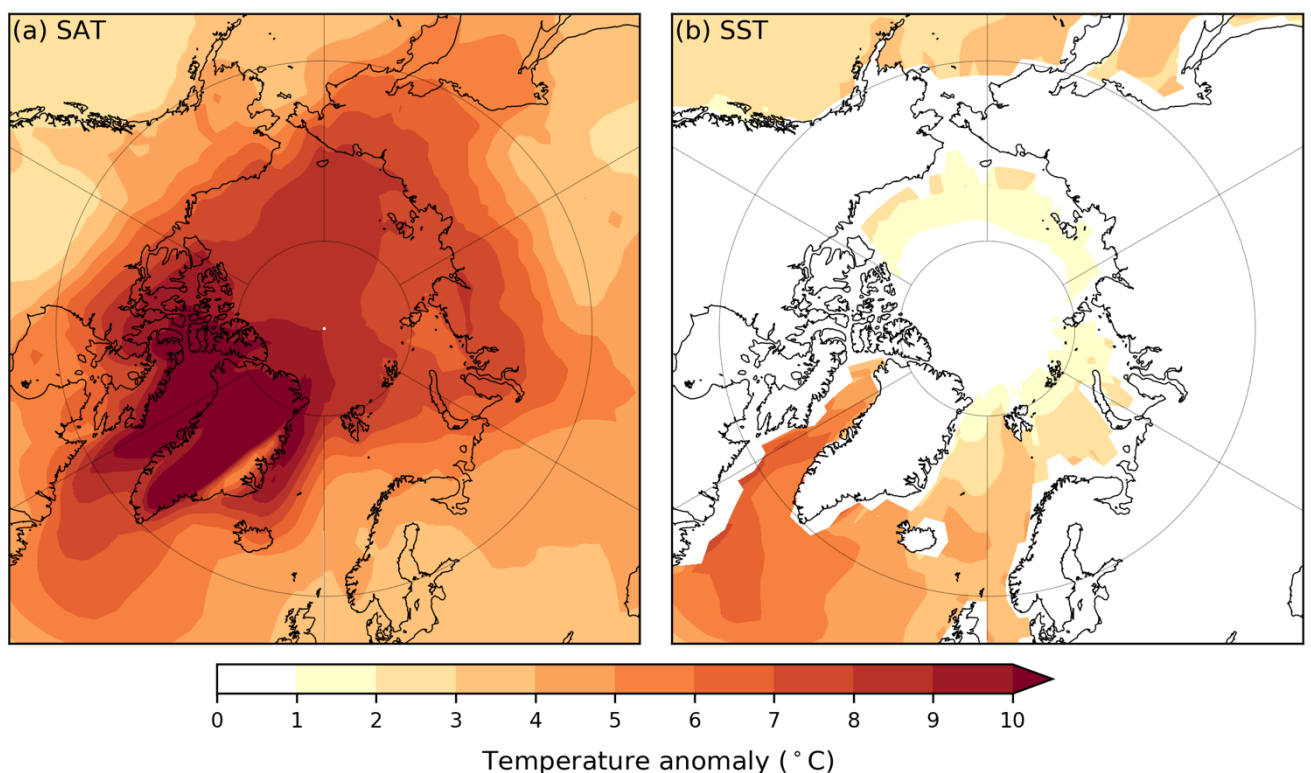
225 The PlioMIP2 experiments show substantial increases in global annual mean SAT (ranging from 1.7 to 5.2 °C,
 226 with a MMM of 3.2 °C; Fig. 1a; Table S2) and SST (ranging from 0.8 to 3.9 °C, with a MMM of 2.0 °C; Fig. 1c;
 227 Table S2) in the mPWP, compared to pre-industrial.

228
 229 All models show a clear Arctic amplification, with annual mean SAT in the Arctic (60–90° N) increasing by 3.7
 230 to 11.6 °C (MMM of 7.2 °C; Fig. 1a). The magnitude of Arctic amplification, defined as the ratio between the

231 Arctic and global SAT anomaly, ranges from 1.8 to 3.1, and the MMM shows an Arctic amplification factor of
232 2.3 (Fig. 1b). There is a large variation in the magnitude of the simulated Arctic SAT anomalies, with five out of
233 sixteen models, namely CCSM4-Utrecht, CCSM4-UoT, CESM1.2, CESM2, and EC-Earth 3.3 all simulating
234 much stronger anomalies than the rest of the ensemble. This subset of the ensemble raises the MMM substantially
235 and this has to be taken into account when interpreting the MMM results. The MMM SAT anomaly for the
236 PlioMIP2 ensemble excluding this subset of five models is 5.8 °C.

237

238 Annual mean SST in the Arctic increased by 1.3 to 4.6 °C (MMM of 2.4 °C; Fig. 1c). Furthermore, the five models
239 that simulated the largest Arctic SAT anomalies also simulate the largest Arctic SST anomalies. Temperature
240 anomalies in the PlioMIP2 ensemble are similar but slightly higher, than in the PlioMIP1 ensemble. A similar
241 magnitude of Arctic amplification is simulated by the two ensemble means.



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243 **Figure 2: MMM annual temperature anomalies in the Arctic: (a) SAT, (b) SST. At least 15 out of 16 models agree on**
244 **the sign of change at each location.**

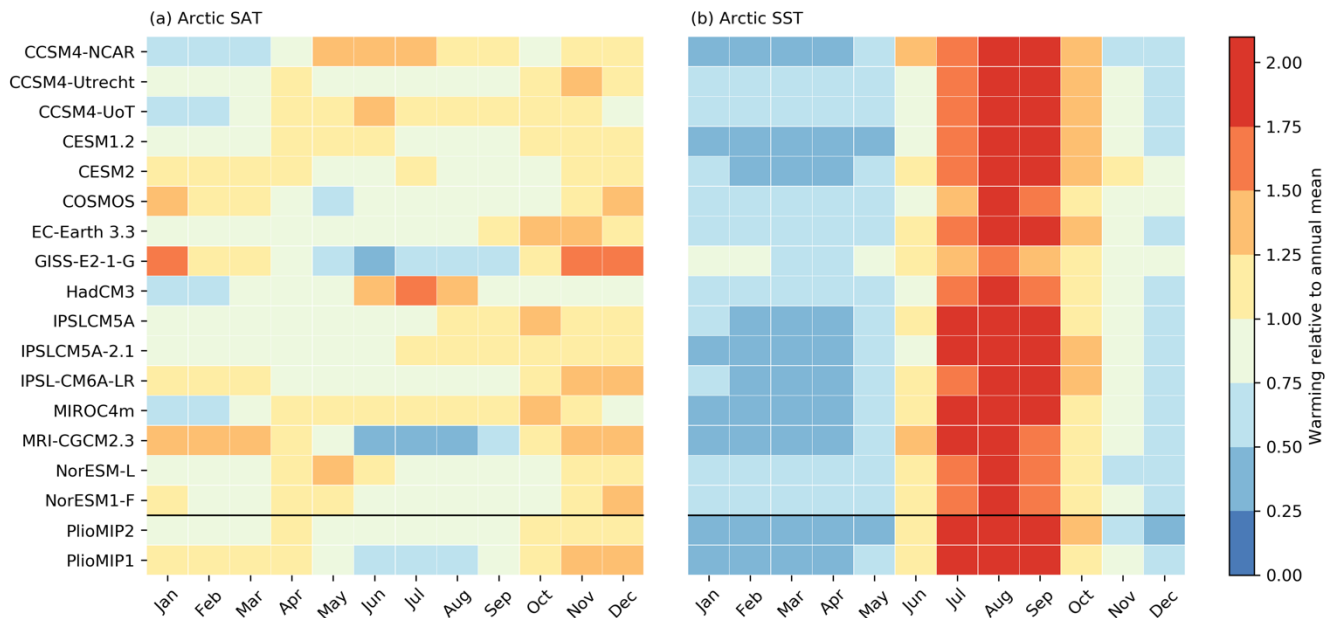
245 The greatest MMM SAT anomalies in the Arctic are found in the regions with reduced ice sheet extent on
246 Greenland (Haywood et al., 2016), which generally show warming of over 10 °C and even up to 20°C.
247 Additionally, temperature anomalies of over 10 °C are simulated around the Baffin Bay. SAT anomalies of around
248 6–9 °C are simulated over most of the Arctic Ocean regions. SST anomalies in the Arctic are strongest in the
249 Baffin Bay and the Labrador Sea, reaching up to 7 °C (Fig. 2b).

250 3.2 Seasonal warming

251 The distinct seasonality of Arctic amplification (Serreze et al., 2009; Zheng et al., 2019) can be used to identify
252 mechanisms causing Arctic amplification. Figure 3 depicts the seasonality of Arctic warming for each model,
253 with monthly SAT and SST anomalies normalized by the annual mean anomaly for that specific model.

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The ensemble simulates a consistent peak in Arctic SST warming between July and September (Fig. 3b). This is consistent with the response that increased seasonal heat storage from incoming heat fluxes would have upon the reduction of SIE (Serreze et al., 2009; Zheng et al., 2019). Minimum SAT warming is expected in the summer because of the increased ocean heat uptake, while maximum SAT warming is expected in the autumn and winter following the release of this heat (Pithan and Mauritsen, 2014; Serreze et al., 2009; Yoshimori and Suzuki, 2019; Zheng et al., 2019). This is not simulated by all models, however (Fig. 3a). COSMOS, GISS-E2-1-G, IPSL-CM6A-LR, and MRI-CGCM2.3 all do show this autumn and winter amplification of annual mean SAT anomalies and decreased warming in the summer. Decreased summer warming is simulated by CCSM4-Utrecht, EC-Earth 3.3 and IPSL-CM5A in combination with autumn amplification, and by CESM2 and NorESM1-F in combination with winter amplification. All other models in the ensemble do not show an autumn or winter amplification in combination with decreased summer warming, suggesting a more limited role of reductions in SIE underlying the seasonal cycle of Arctic SAT anomalies.



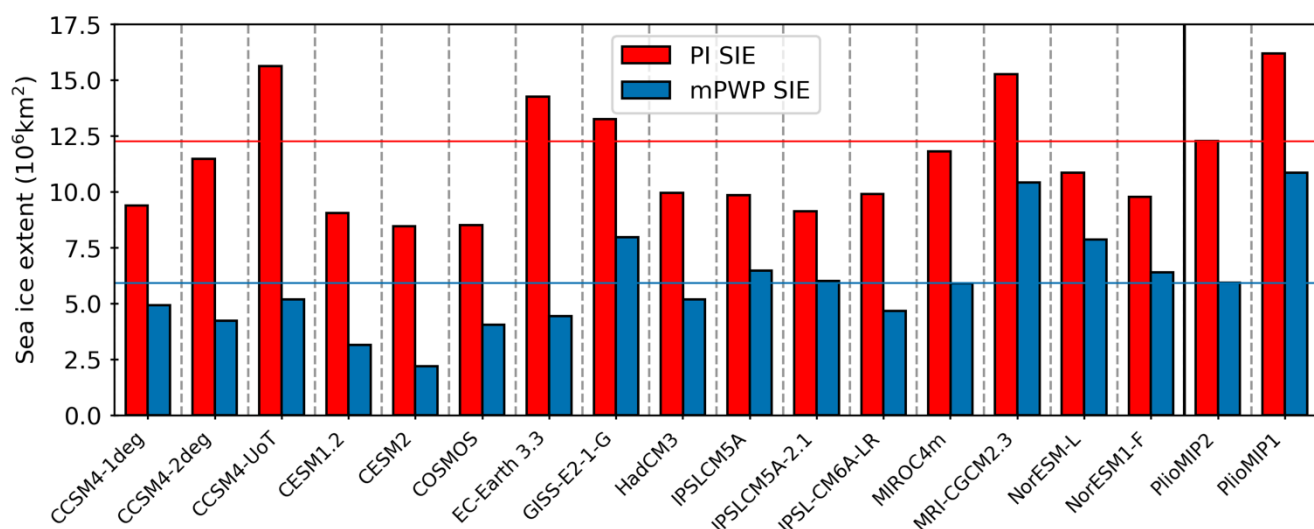
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Figure 3: Ratio between the mean Arctic (a) SAT and (b) SST warming in a given month and the annual mean Arctic warming, for each model (and MMM) individually. Values of zero would imply no warming compared to pre-industrial in a given month.

271 **4 Sea ice analysis**

272 **4.1 Annual mean sea ice extent**

273 The MMM of Arctic annual SIE (sea ice concentration ≥ 0.15) is $11.9 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$ for the pre-industrial simulations,
 274 and $5.6 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$ (a 53 % decrease) for the mPWP simulations. The pre-industrial annual mean SIE ranges from
 275 9.1 to $15.6 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$ in the ensemble, while the mPWP SIE ranges from 2.3 to $10.4 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$. The decrease in
 276 SIE between individual simulations ranges from $-3.0 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$ to $-10.4 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$ (Table S2). Interestingly, the
 277 PlioMIP1 MMM shows larger SIEs in both the pre-industrial and the mPWP than any individual model in the
 278 PlioMIP2 ensemble (Fig. 4). The 53% MMM decrease in SIE simulated by the PlioMIP2 ensemble is substantially
 279 greater than the 33% MMM decrease in SIE simulated by the PlioMIP1 ensemble (Howell et al., 2016a).



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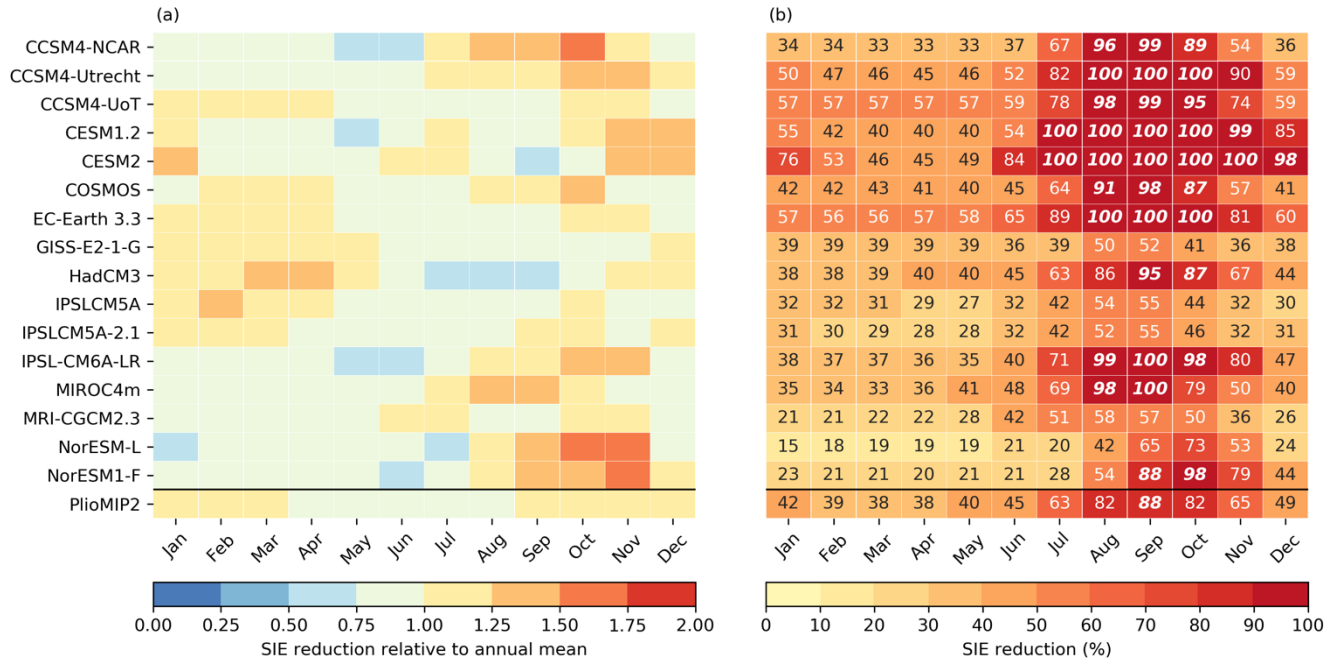
281 **Figure 4: Mean annual SIE (10⁶ km²) for the pre-industrial and mPWP simulations. The horizontal lines represent**
 282 **PlioMIP2 MMM values.**

283 **4.2 Monthly mean sea ice extent**

284 The seasonal cycle of SIE anomalies is depicted in Fig. 5a. Reductions in SIE are slightly greater in the autumn
 285 (September–November) as compared to other seasons for the MMM. There is, however, no consistent response in
 286 the seasonal character of SIE anomalies in the PlioMIP2 ensemble. CCSM4-UoT, CESM2, IPSLCM5A,
 287 IPSLCM5A-2.1 simulate the largest reductions in SIE in winter (December–February), while GISS-E2-1-G and
 288 HadCM3 simulate the largest SIE reductions in spring. The remaining 10 models simulate the greatest SIE
 289 anomalies in autumn.

290

291 A more consistent response is observed when comparing monthly mean mPWP SIEs and pre-industrial SIEs. For
 292 each model, the largest reductions in SIE in terms of percentages occur between August and October (Fig. 5b).
 293 This may be explained by the lesser amount of energy that is needed to melt a given % of the smaller SIE that is
 294 present in the summer compared to winter. 11 out of 16 models simulate sea ice-free conditions (SIE < 1x10⁶
 295 km²) in at least one month, while five models (GISS-E2-1-G, IPSLCM5A, IPSLCM5A-2.1, MRI-CGCM2.3, and
 296 NorESM-L) do not (Fig. 5b). The NorESM1-F simulation simulates the smallest global mean warming (1.7 °C;
 297 Fig. 1a) resulting in Arctic sea ice-free conditions.

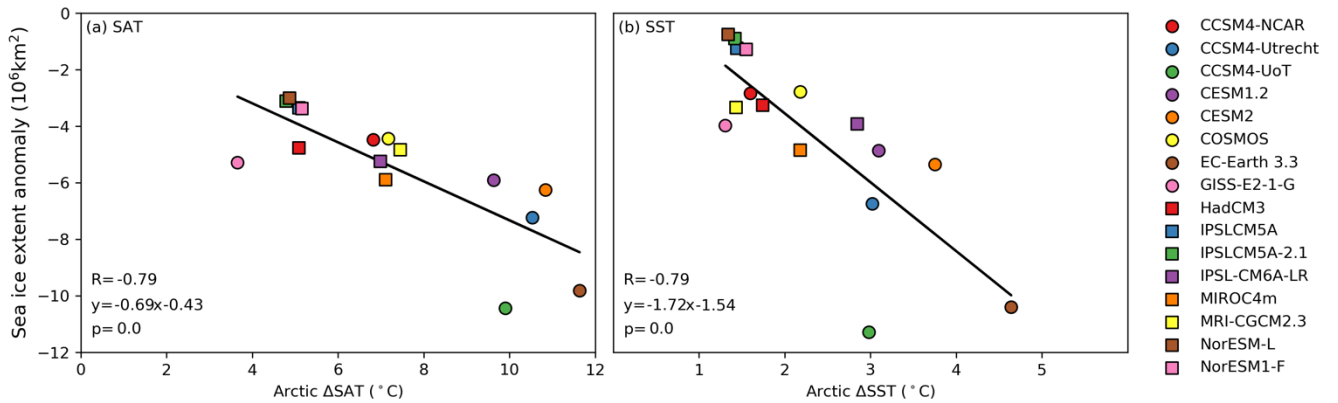


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299 **Figure 5: (a) Monthly SIE anomalies relative to annual mean anomalies, warmer colours highlight in which months**
 300 **reductions in sea ice were largest. (b) Reduction in SIE (%) in the mPWP simulations compared to the pre-industrial**
 301 **monthly mean SIE for each month. Highlighted in bold italics in (b) are months with sea ice-free conditions (SIE <**
 302 **1x10⁶ km²).**

303 4.3 Sea ice and Arctic warming

304 There is a strong anti-correlation between annual mean Arctic SAT and SIE anomalies ($R=-0.79$; Fig. 6a), as well
 305 as between SST and SIE anomalies ($R=-0.79$; Fig. 6b). These anti-correlations are stronger than those found for
 306 the PlioMIP1 ensemble ($R=-0.76$, $R=-0.73$, respectively; Howell et al., 2016).



307

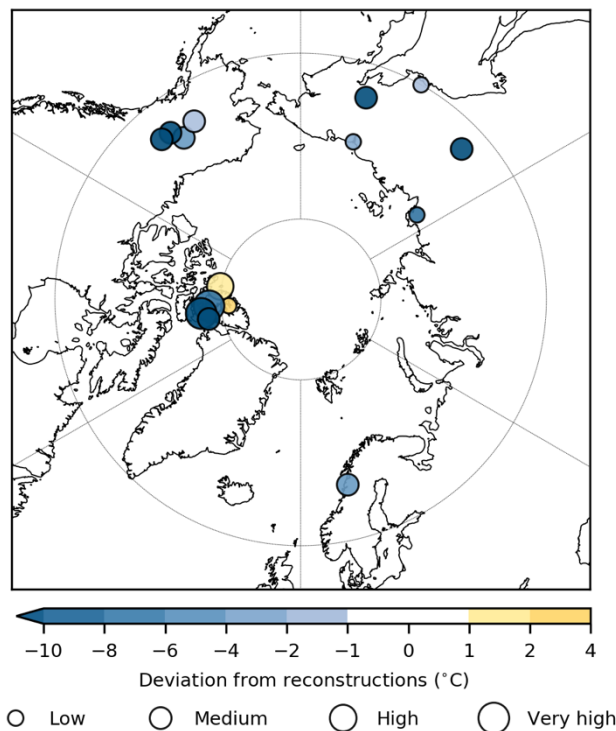
308 **Figure 6: Correlations between annual mean SIE anomalies and (a) Arctic SAT anomalies and (b) Arctic SST**
 309 **anomalies. Depicted for both correlations are the correlation coefficient (R), the slope and the probability value (p)**
 310 **that when the variables are not related, a statistical result equal to or greater than observed would occur.**

311 5 Data-model comparison surface air temperatures

312 5.1 Results

313 To evaluate the ability of the PlioMIP2 ensemble to simulate Arctic warming, we perform a data-model
 314 comparison with the available SAT reconstructions for the mPWP. The data-model comparison hints at a
 315 substantial mismatch between models and temperature reconstructions. Mean absolute deviations (MAD) range

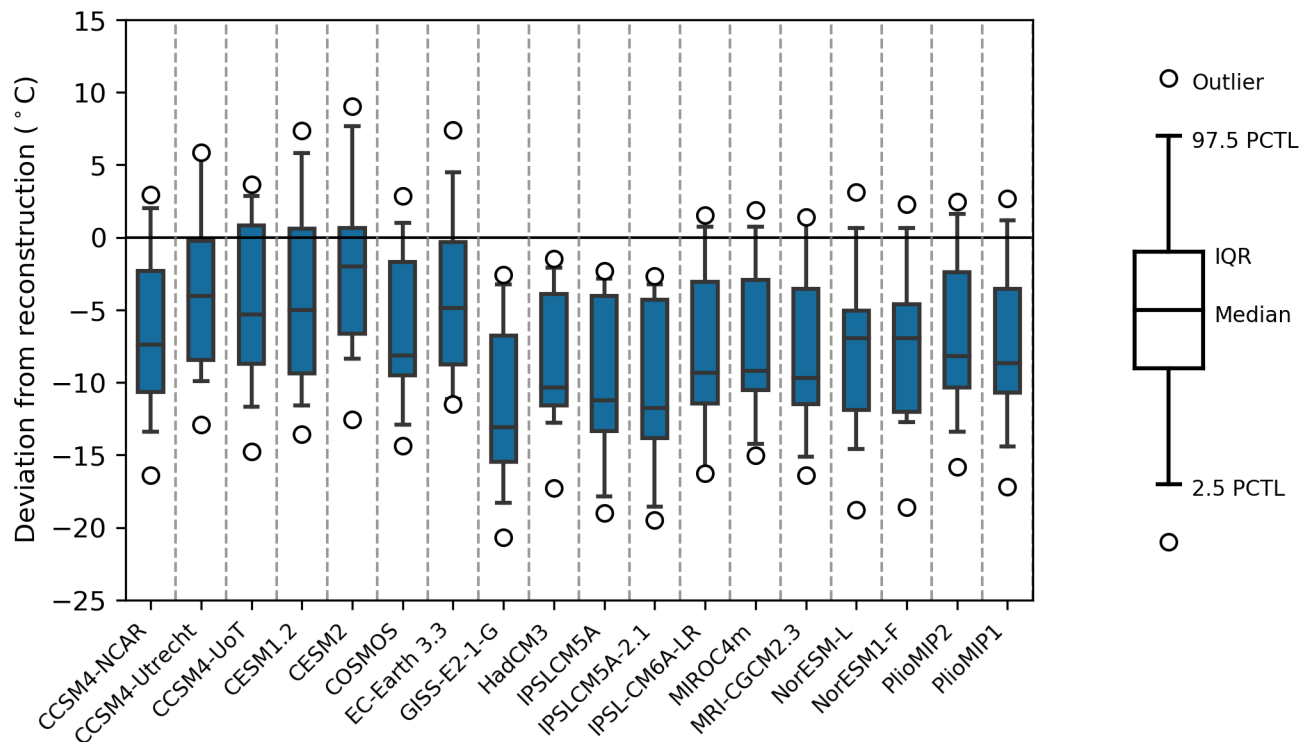
316 from 5.0 to 11.2 °C (Table S3), with a MAD of 7.3 °C for the MMM. The median bias ranges from -2.0 to -13.1
 317 °C, with a median bias of -8.2 °C for the MMM (Table S3). The PlioMIP2 MMM shows slightly improved
 318 agreement with the SAT reconstructions compared to the PlioMIP1 MMM (MAD = 7.8 °C, median bias = -8.7
 319 °C). Figure 7 depicts the deviation from reconstructions for the MMM. Underestimations range from -17 to -2.5
 320 °C, while at two sites in the Canadian Archipelago (80° N, 85° W and 79.85° N, 99.24° W) the MMM
 321 overestimates the reconstructed temperatures (by 2.7 and 1.2 °C, respectively). It has to be noted, however, that
 322 SAT anomalies are underestimated at three other sites within the Canadian Archipelago. Given the resolution of
 323 global climate models and the close proximity of the sites, it may be impossible for simulations to match all five
 324 of these SAT estimates.



325

326 **Figure 7: Point-to-point comparison of MMM and reconstructed SAT. The size of SAT reconstructions is scaled by**
 327 **qualitatively assessed confidence levels (Salzmann et al., 2013). Data markers for reconstructions in close proximity of**
 328 **each other have been slightly shifted for improved visibility.**

329 The deviation from reconstructions for each model and the PlioMIP2 and PlioMIP1 MMMs is represented by the
 330 box-whisker plots in Fig. 8. A consistent underestimation of the temperature estimates from SAT reconstructions
 331 is present in the PlioMIP2 ensemble. CESM2 simulates the smallest deviations from reconstructions in the
 332 ensemble, with a MAD of 5.0 °C and a median bias of -2 °C. The five models that simulated the highest Arctic
 333 SAT anomalies (CCSM4-Utrecht, CCSM4-UoT, CESM1.2, CESM2, and EC-Earth 3.3) simulate the lowest
 334 median biases, indicating that the upper end of the range of simulated Arctic SAT anomalies in the PlioMIP2
 335 ensemble tends to match proxy dataset in its current form better. Future research into the underlying mechanisms
 336 for the increased Arctic warming in these five simulations, compared to the remaining eleven simulations in the
 337 ensemble, may form a way to uncover factors that contribute to improved data-model agreement.



338

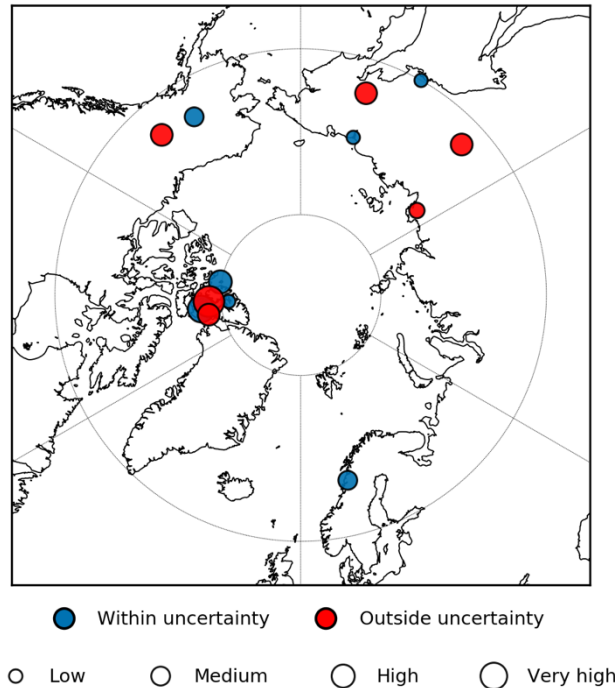
339 **Figure 8: Box-whisker plots depicting the distribution of biases (models minus reconstruction) with biases over (under)**
 340 **0 representing locations where models overestimated (underestimated) reconstructed temperatures. Boxes depict the**
 341 **interquartile ranges (IQR) of the distribution, whiskers extend to the 2.5th and 97.5th percentiles, the median is displayed**
 342 **by a horizontal line in the boxes, and outliers (outside of the 97.5th percentile) by open circles outside of the whiskers.**
 343 **Given the sample size of 15 reconstructions, the two outer values are depicted as outliers using these definitions.**

344 5.2 Uncertainties

345 Some of the data-model discord may be caused by uncertainties in the temperature estimates (Table S1; Salzmann
 346 et al., 2013). To investigate how these uncertainties may have affected the outcomes of the data-model
 347 comparison, we construct a maximum uncertainty range. This range spans from the highest possible temperature
 348 within uncertainty and the lowest possible temperature within uncertainty. The uncertainties for the temperature
 349 estimates were taken from the compilation of mPWP Arctic SAT estimates from Feng et al. (2017) (Table S1).

350

351 Figure 9 depicts the locations for which at least one model in the ensemble simulates a temperature within the
 352 maximum available uncertainty range of a reconstruction. For six out of the twelve reconstructions that included
 353 an uncertainty estimate, the models in the PlioMIP2 ensemble simulate temperatures that are within the
 354 uncertainty range (Fig. 9). Additionally, both over- and underestimations are present for the Magadan District
 355 reconstruction for which no uncertainty estimate is available (60° N, 150.65° E, Table S1), implying that the
 356 reconstruction falls within the range of simulated temperatures in the PlioMIP2 ensemble. For the remaining six
 357 reconstructions, including several which are assessed high or very high confidence (Figure 9), no model simulates
 358 temperatures within the uncertainty range.



359

360 **Figure 9: Blue circles highlight where at least one model in the ensemble simulates a temperature that falls within the**
 361 **uncertainty range of the reconstruction. The size of SAT reconstructions is scaled by qualitatively assessed confidence**
 362 **levels (Salzmann et al., 2013). Data markers for reconstructions in close proximity of each other have been slightly**
 363 **shifted for improved visibility.**

364 Ultimately, when considering the full uncertainty ranges of the reconstructions, it becomes evident that solely
 365 reducing potential errors in SAT estimates would not fully resolve the data-model discord for several locations in
 366 the Arctic. It is thus likely that other sources of error contribute to the data-model discord, such as uncertainties
 367 in model physics (e.g. Feng et al., 2019; Howell et al., 2016b; Lunt et al., 2020; Sagoo and Storelvmo, 2017;
 368 Unger and Yue, 2014) and boundary conditions (e.g. Brierley and Fedorov, 2016; Feng et al., 2017, 2017; Hill,
 369 2015; Howell et al., 2016b; Otto-Bliesner et al., 2017; Prescott et al., 2014; Robinson et al., 2011; Salzmann et
 370 al., 2013). The focus on the KM5c time slice has helped resolve some of the data-model discord that was present
 371 in the North Atlantic for SST (Haywood et al., 2020), and similar work for SAT reconstructions may thus be
 372 beneficial. However, this may not always be possible given the lack of precise dating and chronologies available.
 373 It is at this moment unclear whether the underestimation of Arctic SAT is specific to the mid-Pliocene, through
 374 uncertainties in reconstructions or boundary conditions, or an indicator of common errors in model physics.

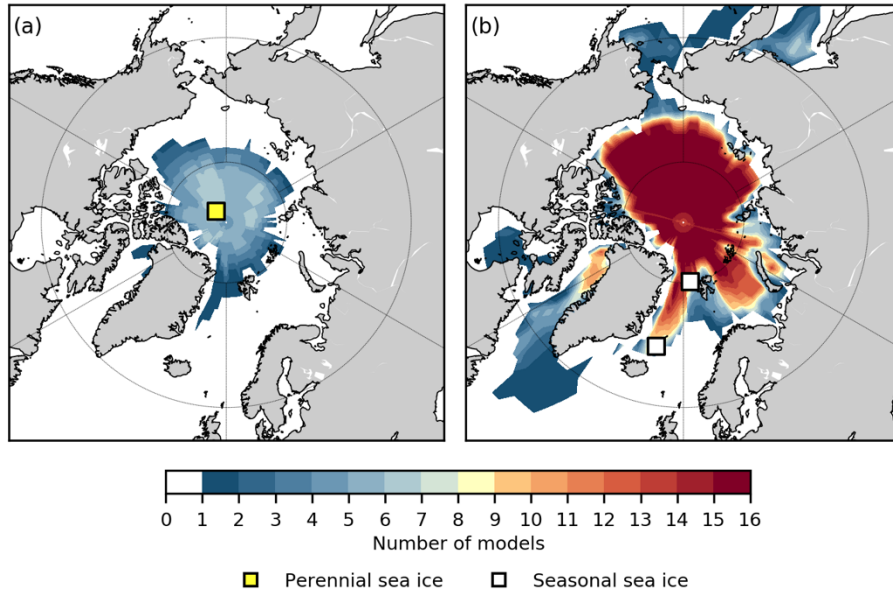
375 **6 Evaluation of sea ice**

376 The limited availability of proxy evidence (three reconstructions) severely limits our ability to evaluate the
 377 simulation of mPWP sea ice in PlioMIP2 simulations. Nevertheless, a data-model comparison is still worthwhile,
 378 as the few reconstructions that are available may form an interesting out-of-sample test for the simulation of sea
 379 ice in the PlioMIP2 models.

380

381 Figure 10a depicts the number of models per grid box that simulate perennial sea ice. Six models simulate the
 382 inferred perennial sea ice (mean sea ice concentration ≥ 0.15 in each month) at Lomonosov Ridge (87.5° N, 138.3°

383 W; Darby, 2008), while the remaining ten simulate sea ice-free conditions in at least one month per year at this
 384 site. The majority of the models simulate a maximum SIE that extends, or nearly extends, into the Fram Strait and
 385 Iceland Sea (Figure 10b) in at least one month (in winter) per year (Fig. 10b), consistent with proxy evidence
 386 (Clotten et al., 2018; Knies et al., 2014).
 387



388
 389 **Figure 10: Number of models simulating (a) annual mean perennial sea ice (sea ice concentration of ≥ 0.15) at any given**
 390 **location in the Arctic in the mPWP simulations and (b) monthly mean sea ice in any month of the year. Depicted**
 391 **squares represent the locations of the reconstructions and their respective colour the inferred mPWP sea ice conditions**
 392 **at that location.**

393 The uncertainties in both the SAT and SIE reconstructions are large, and it may not be possible to match both
 394 datasets in their current forms. This would require increased Arctic annual terrestrial warming compared to the
 395 mean model (Sect. 5.1) as well as perennial sea in the summer and a large SIE in winter (extending at least into
 396 the Iceland Sea). Moreover, McClymont et al. (2020) found that the warmest model values in the PlioMIP2
 397 ensemble tend to align best with North Atlantic SST reconstructions, further indicating that strong Arctic warming
 398 is required for data-model agreement. If there was no perennial sea ice in the mPWP like most models in the
 399 PlioMIP2 ensemble, the different proxy records may be more compatible, but this would be in disagreement with
 400 findings from (Darby, 2008). The CCSM4-Utrecht model, which simulated a relatively high Arctic SAT anomaly
 401 ($10.5\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$; Figure 1a) and low median bias ($-4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) in the point-to-point SAT data-model comparison compared to
 402 the rest of the ensemble, simulates a maximum winter SIE that extends both into the Fram Strait and Iceland Sea.
 403 This highlights that models with higher Arctic SAT anomalies and better SAT data-model agreement can still
 404 match both seasonal sea ice proxies. Ultimately, more reconstructions of sea ice are needed for a more robust
 405 evaluation of mPWP sea ice and Arctic warming in general.

406 7 Comparison to future climates

407 Research into the mPWP is often motivated by a desire to understand future climate change (Burke et al., 2018;
 408 Haywood et al., 2016; Tierney et al., 2019). Here, we analyze how the mPWP may teach us about future Arctic

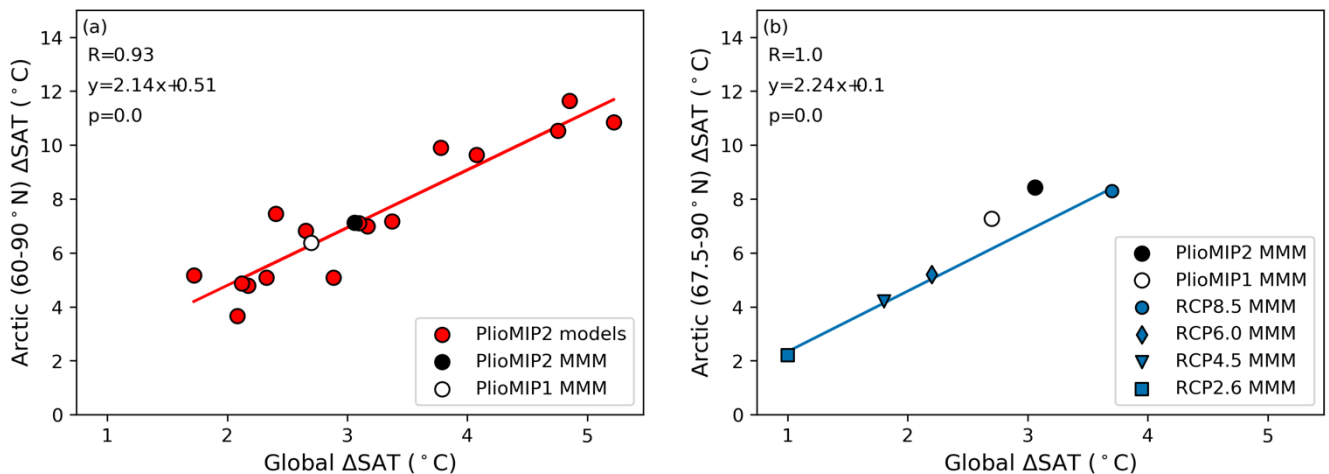
409 warming by comparing two climatic features of the mPWP simulations to simulations of future climate. The
 410 climatic features include Arctic amplification, and a feature for which there is some proxy evidence available that
 411 may also aid in model evaluation: the AMOC.

412 7.1 Arctic amplification

413 A linear relationship between global and Arctic temperature anomalies is present in the PlioMIP2 ensemble
 414 ($R=0.93$, Fig. 11a). This is consistent with findings from multi-model analyses of other climates (Bracegirdle and
 415 Stephenson, 2013; Harrison et al., 2015; Izumi et al., 2013; Masson-Delmotte et al., 2006; Miller et al., 2010;
 416 Schmidt et al., 2014; Winton, 2008) and indicates that global temperature anomalies are a good index for Arctic
 417 SAT anomalies in mPWP simulations.

418

419 For four ensembles of future climate simulations, from the previous phase of the Coupled Model Intercomparison
 420 Project (CMIP), CMIP5, data for MMM Arctic (defined there as $67.5-90^\circ\text{N}$) temperature anomalies are available
 421 (Masson-Delmotte et al., 2013; Table S4). The PlioMIP2 MMM shows global warming that falls between the
 422 RCP6.0 and RCP8.5 MMMs in terms of magnitude (Fig. 11b). Even though PlioMIP underestimates mPWP SAT
 423 reconstructions (Sect. 5.1), the simulations do simulate stronger Arctic temperature anomalies per degree of global
 424 warming compared to future climate ensembles (Fig. 11b). The future climate ensemble MMMs simulate end-of-
 425 century (2081-2100) average Arctic ($67.5-90^\circ\text{N}$) amplification ratios that range from 2.2 to 2.4, while PlioMIP2
 426 and PlioMIP1 simulate mean ratios of 2.8 and 2.7, respectively (Table S4).



427

428 **Figure 11: (a) The relationship between global and Arctic ($60-90^\circ\text{N}$) temperature anomalies in the PlioMIP2 ensemble.**
 429 **The red trendline is constructed based on this relationship for the individual models. (b) The relationship between**
 430 **global and Arctic (here $67.5-90^\circ\text{N}$, the definition used by Masson-Delmotte et al. (2013) and the area for which they**
 431 **listed data) for the MMMs of the two PlioMIP and the four CMIP5 future climate ensembles (2081-2100 average). The**
 432 **blue trendline highlights this relationship for the RCP MMMs.**

433 The increased Arctic warming per degree of global warming indicates that apart from warming through changes
 434 in atmospheric CO_2 concentrations, which is the dominant mechanism for warming in both ensembles, different
 435 or additional mechanisms underly the simulated mPWP Arctic warming compared to the future climate
 436 simulations. The difference between the PlioMIP2 and future climate ensembles may be explained by slow
 437 responses to changes in forcings that fully manifest in equilibrium climate simulations, such as the response to
 438 reduced ice sheets, but not in transient, near-future, climate simulations. Additional Arctic warming in the mPWP
 439 simulations may arise due to the changes in orography (Brierley and Fedorov, 2016; Feng et al., 2017; Haywood

440 et al., 2016; Otto-Bliesner et al., 2017), ice sheets, and vegetation in the boundary conditions (Hill, 2015; Lunt et
441 al., 2012b).

442

443 Using PlioMIP2 simulations for potential lessons about future warming may be improved by isolating the effects
444 of the changes in orography. Similar changes in ice sheets and vegetation may occur in future equilibrium warm
445 climates, but the changes in orography are definitively non-analogous to future warming. Several groups isolated
446 the effects of the changed orography on global warming in PlioMIP2 simulations and found that it contributes,
447 respectively, around 23% (IPSL6-CM6A-LR; Tan et al., 2020), 27% (COSMOS; Stepanek et al., 2020), and 41%
448 (CCSM4-UoT; Chendan and Peltier, 2018) to the annual mean global warming in the mPWP simulations.
449 Furthermore, this warming was strongest in the high latitudes (Chendan and Peltier, 2018; Tan et al., 2020)
450 indicating that the additional Arctic warming in PlioMIP2 simulations, as compared to future climate simulations,
451 are likely partially caused by changes in orography that are non-analogous with the modern-day orography. These
452 findings highlight the caution that has to be taken when using palaeoclimate simulations as analogues for future
453 climate change.

454

455 **7.2 Atlantic meridional overturning circulation**

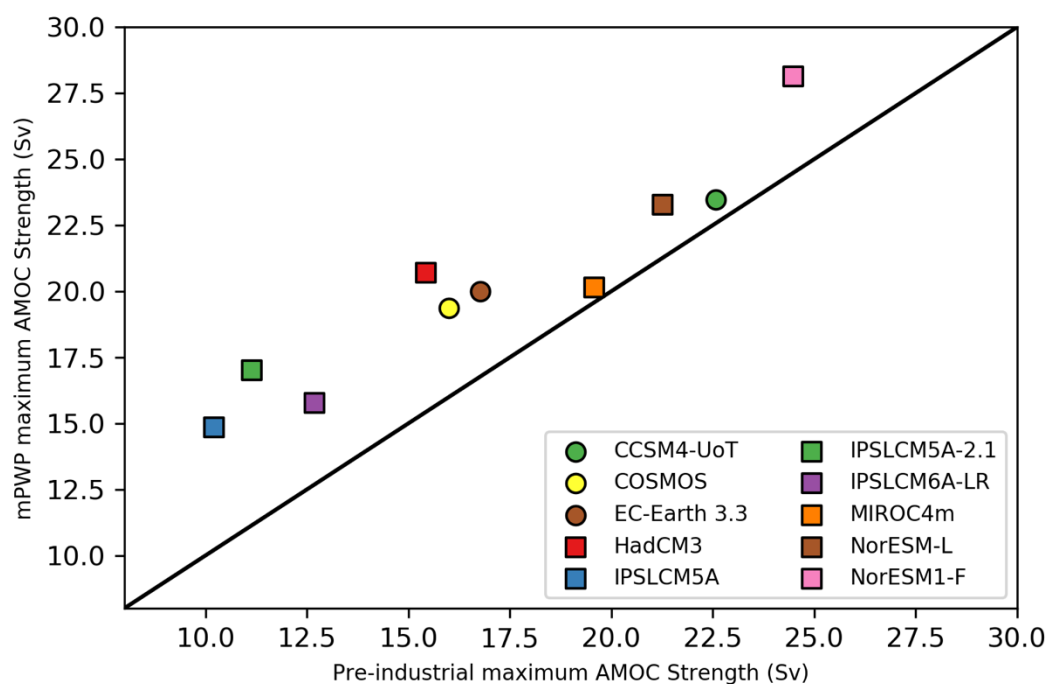
456 The AMOC, a major oceanic current transporting heat into the Arctic (Mahajan et al., 2011), is inferred to have
457 been significantly stronger in the mPWP compared to pre-industrial based on proxy evidence (Dowsett et al.,
458 2009; Frank et al., 2002; Frenz et al., 2006; McKay et al., 2012; Ravelo and Andreasen, 2000; Raymo et al., 1996).
459 An analysis of AMOC changes in PlioMIP2 simulations shows that, indeed, the maximum AMOC strength
460 increases: by 4 to 53% (Fig. 12; Table S2: Zhang et al., 2020). The closure of the Arctic Ocean gateways, in
461 particular the Bering Strait, likely contributed to the increase in AMOC strength (Brierley and Fedorov, 2016;
462 Feng et al., 2017; Haywood et al., 2016; Otto-Bliesner et al., 2017).

463

464 Strengthening of the AMOC contrasts projections of future changes by CMIP5 models which predict a weakening
465 of the AMOC over the 21st century, with best estimates ranging from 11 to 34% depending on the chosen future
466 emission scenario (Collins et al., 2013). These opposing responses may help explain some of the additional Arctic
467 warming that is observed in the PlioMIP2 ensemble compared to the future climate ensembles (Fig. 11b).

468

469 The strengthening of the AMOC in the PlioMIP2 ensemble is consistent with the additional 0.4 °C increase in
470 SST warming in the Arctic (Figure 1c) and the better data-model agreement in the North Atlantic that is observed
471 for the PlioMIP2 MMM (Dowsett et al., 2019; Haywood et al., 2020; McClymont et al., 2020) compared to the
472 PlioMIP1 MMM (Fig. 1c), which did not show any substantial changes in AMOC strength compared to pre-
473 industrial (Zhang et al., 2013).



474

475 **Figure 12: Maximum pre-industrial and mPWP AMOC strength (Sv). The black line indicates equal pre-industrial**
 476 **and mPWP maximum AMOC strength.**

477 **8 Conclusions**

478 The PlioMIP2 ensemble simulates substantial Arctic warming and 11 out of 16 models simulate summer sea ice-
 479 free conditions. Comparisons to reconstructions show, however, that the ensemble tends to underestimate the
 480 available reconstructions of SAT in the Arctic, although large differences in the degree of underestimation exist
 481 between the simulations. The models that simulate the largest Arctic SAT anomalies tend to match the
 482 reconstructions better, and investigation into the mechanisms underlying the increased Arctic warming in these
 483 simulations may help uncover factors that could contribute to improved data-model agreement. We find that,
 484 while some of the SAT data-model discord may be resolved by reducing uncertainties in proxies, additional
 485 improvements are likely to be found in reducing uncertainties in boundary conditions or model physics.
 486 Furthermore, there is some agreement with reconstructions of sea ice in the ensemble, especially for seasonal sea
 487 ice. The limited availability of proxy evidence and the uncertainties associated with them severely constrain the
 488 compatibility of the different proxy datasets and our ability to evaluate the Arctic warming in PlioMIP2. Increased
 489 proxy evidence of different climatic variables, and additional sensitivity experiments, among others, are needed
 490 for a more robust evaluation of Arctic warming in the mPWP. Lastly, we find differences in Arctic climate features
 491 between the PlioMIP2 ensemble and future climate ensembles, that include the magnitude of Arctic amplification
 492 and changes in AMOC strength. These differences highlight that caution has to be taken when attempting to use
 493 simulations of the mPWP to learn about future climate change.

494

495 *Supplement.*

496 *Author contributions.* Qiong Z. and Wesley de Nooijer designed the work, Wesley de Nooijer did the analyses
 497 and wrote the manuscript under supervision from Qiong Z., Q. L. and Qiang Z. performed the simulations with
 498 EC-Earth3. X. L. and Z.Z. provided input on AMOC analysis. H. D. provided the input on reconstructions. All
 499 the other co-authors provided the PlioMIP2 model data and commented on the manuscript.

500

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