

Review: Using a Gaussian Process Emulator to approximate the climate response patterns to greenhouse gas and aerosol forcings (egusphere-2025-6046)

1 Overview

This manuscript presents a statistical model in the form of a Gaussian Process (GP) emulator to approximate the surface temperature response as a function of a collection of climate forcings including global greenhouse gas concentrations and regional aerosol emissions. The GP model is built on strong statistical theory and methodology. It yields substantial computational efficiency gains compared with using a Global Climate Model (GCM) directly. The model is tested and applied to the HadGEM3 GCM (for which a good description of the setup is provided) where it is employed to perform a sensitivity analysis, as well as demonstrating how it may be used for policy-assessments under rapid climate change projections. The results are consistent with those obtained in other studies such as the sixth Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP6), and using reduced complexity models. Furthermore, given the model description and the provided Python code, it would be possible to apply the GP emulator to other GCMs.

This review focuses on the modelling aspect of the manuscript. The research is within the scope of Geoscientific Model Development (GMD) with the application illustrating its use to answer scientific questions of interest to EGU. In addition, the presented methodology constitutes a novel contribution to statistical modelling of climate models by aiming to model spatial patterns rather than the global mean response with respect to time, as well as the capability to incorporate a larger number of climate forcings as input parameters.

The manuscript is logically structured in its presentation of the GCM, input parameters, GP emulator, model training data, and its application and evaluation. Justification is provided throughout for the modelling choices and assumptions explaining potential limitations and how these are addressed. The title clearly describes the content of the manuscript. It is also well written, uses good quality and necessary figures to illustrate the results, contains appropriate references to existing literature, and the abstract provides a good summary.

In summary, this manuscript presents a new form of statistical model as an approximation to output of a GCM which provides an efficient means of performing important uncertainty quantification tasks such as sensitivity analyses and policy assessments. I recommend publication subject to a few minor revisions.

2 Main Points and Suggestions

Below I outline several suggestions to enhance the presentation of the model and clarity of the manuscript.

2.1 Univariate versus Multivariate Emulation

The aim of the GP emulator presented in this manuscript is to predict the entire spatial pattern of the global climate change response. In section 2.2 it is outlined that the Earth is split into N grid cells with independent GP emulators constructed for each grid cell. This is a common approach which has been successfully employed in other climate modelling studies, for example, Johnson et al. (2020) and Lee et al. (2012). However, there is a risk that the emulator mean predictions and their uncertainty for neighbouring grid cells are spatially inconsistent. It is observed in figure 1 and in Supplementary figure S4 that for a variety of input settings that this is not the case in this application, although it is plausible that using a different GCM, training data, or input parameters, that such issues may occur.

Have the authors considered multivariate GP emulators? There exists wide ranging methodology with many having been employed in applications to climate modelling. Some examples include: separable GPs in Conti et al. (2010) and Higdon et al. (2008); outer-product GP emulator in Rougier (2008) and Rougier et al. (2009); dimension reduction of the spatial field, such as in Salter et al. (2022, 2019) and Wilkinson (2010); or parallel partial GP emulators in Gu et al. (2016, 2019). These incorporate extra spatial structure information, thus ensuring spatial consistency, and with the potential for smaller uncertainties through the sharing of information and patterns between grid cells. Moreover, in the spatial statistics literature the Kriging methodology is well established and amounts to GP emulation of spatial fields (see for example Cressie (1993)) with specific covariance functions, such as the C^4 -Wendland class of correlation functions, designed to incorporate spatial inputs on spheres (Gneiting (2013)). It is acknowledged that these methods are generally result in more complex emulators to formulate and can be more computationally expensive to train, although this is often negligible compared with the cost of running the GCM. There is a trade-off to be achieved with the emulator accuracy. For this manuscript, what is the justification for N independent emulators versus a multivariate approach?

In the application to HadGEM3, how many grid cells are there and hence what is N ? This will aid the reader in understanding whether this methodology would be applicable to their model where for larger values of N when using a higher resolution model this adds to the computational expense of fitting, testing, and evaluating the emulator.

2.2 GP Emulator Structure

Section 2.5 describes the GP emulator structure. In line 226 it is stated that “the prior mean function is often assumed to be zero”, for which it is implicit that this is the assumption made throughout this manuscript. An alternative approach is to build

more global structure into the mean function, such as using low order polynomials of the input parameters, thus leaving the covariance kernel to handle the smaller scale local variability, such as in Craig et al. (1996), Edwards et al. (2019), and Vernon et al. (2010). If the underlying mean behaviour is constant with respect to the inputs, then emulators formulated in such a way are still capable of identifying them. Have the authors considered a structured mean function? Would this enable building more accurate emulators? The choice of variables to incorporate in a structured mean function may also be driven by the results shown in the sensitivity analysis where the global CO₂ concentration forcing parameter has a large sensitivity index and thus may be informative as a term in the mean function.

2.3 Covariance Kernel

The construction of the covariance kernel consists of the sum of a linear kernel, a squared exponential kernel, and a white noise process (also known to as a nugget term). However, it is unclear the exact structure this refers to, and the associated hyperparameters. Examples of ambiguities include:

1. Whether it is a homogenous or an inhomogeneous linear kernel,
2. The exponent form in the squared exponential kernel such as using either a single common correlation length (also known as length scale) hyperparameter, separate and potentially distinct correlation lengths, or encompassing normalisation of parameter vector differences via an input variance matrix (the fully anisotropic form of the squared exponential covariance function),
3. Whether a separate variance hyperparameter is used for each additive component, or if a shared variance hyperparameter is employed, potentially with an additional weighting hyperparameter between the two components.

This could be resolved by including the mathematical formula for $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$, highlighting each of the hyperparameters which are estimated via Maximum Likelihood Estimation. In this formulation, does σ_{GCM} correspond to the white noise variance hyperparameter? How does σ_{GP} relate to the variance hyperparameter of the non-white noise part of the kernel? Also, is there some intuition for why this additive combination works for the surface temperature response being modelled, for example, due to the different properties of the kernels? Please clarify these details. Furthermore, it is initially unclear that σ_{GP} and σ_{total} are mean uncertainties over the 18 test scenarios. It would be helpful to clarify this and remind the reader that the GP emulator's uncertainty depends on the new input settings at which it is evaluated, and that σ_{GP} and σ_{total} are summary statistics for these.

Investigations shown in Supplementary figure S3 illustrate similar results irrespective of which of a variety of covariance kernels are used in the emulator formulation. Why did the authors opt for the more complex kernel described, rather than for one with fewer hyperparameters, such as Matérn-5/2, which is commonly employed across climate modelling? Also, what is the intuition for why this form of covariance kernel works? Can certain modes of variability be associated to each component of the covariance function?

In section 3.3 and in Supplementary figure 5 it is discussed how similar uncertainty estimates for σ_{total} and σ_{GPlearn} are obtained where the latter does not use the fixed estimate of σ_{GCM} . Please add information on whether the two emulator structures are otherwise identical. In particular, does the second emulator possess a white noise process for which the variance hyperparameter is estimated simultaneously with all other emulator hyperparameters? This is important for a fair comparison and interpretation of the results. In addition, reporting and contrasting the hyperparameter estimates may divulge why σ_{total} and σ_{GPlearn} are similar, as well as provide an explanation for the main sources of the GP emulators predictive uncertainty.

A related minor point is in the learning of σ_{GCM} . In lines 242 – 250 this is estimated based on 14 control runs, 8 of which are obtained by splitting a 40-year control run into 8 non-overlapping segments. It is rightly acknowledged that the sample size is small and that the autocorrelation is likely to have an effect. A potential consideration would be to adjust the estimate of σ_{GCM} to account for the autocorrelation in the variance estimate calculation.

2.4 Training Design

In section 2.3, lines 184 – 193, the design construction mechanism is described. An interesting feature is the split where 75% (60 simulations) are sampled within the parameter ranges given in table 1, whilst the remaining 25% (20 simulations) are sampled from extended parameter ranges with the 7 regional aerosol forcing parameters upper range doubled. The justification seems reasonable based on improving signal-to-noise ratio for enhanced emulator predictive fit. Linking to section 2.4, where it is stated that a maximin Latin hypercube sampler is implemented, it is unclear how this weighted sampling from a nested parameter space is achieved. Please provide more details as to the sampling algorithm. For example:

- Are two separate maximin Latin hypercube designs over each space constructed (potentially with rejection of points from the larger space)?
- Is there a joint optimisation (maximisation of inter-design point distance) across the two components of the design to ensure that points outside of the standard parameter range are not too close to a design point within the range?

Further questions raised by the design approach are:

1. What is the reason for using a 75-25 split? The extended parameter space possesses a volume $2^7 = 128$ times that of the standard parameter space, yet only a quarter of the design points are sampled from this reason.
2. Why is the range doubled? This is particularly important if the aim is to have an accurate emulator over the standard parameter space, and given how much larger this extended parameter space is. Moreover, if it is reasonable to believe that aerosol forcings may be large, why is the input parameter range not extended to account for this?

3. How is fitting emulators using the wider parameter range reflected in estimates of correlation length parameters? If design points in the extended parameter space are a long distance with respect to the correlation lengths from the nearest point at which the emulator is evaluated then they will provide little extra information.
4. What is the additional cost of running the 20 simulations outside the standard parameter ranges, and is this justified by the improvements in emulator predictive uncertainty? In an ideal scenario, although not practical here due to the cost of obtaining further simulations from HadGEM3, a fair comparison would be the emulators obtained using the presented design with an emulator fitted to an 80-point maximin Latin hypercube design over the standard parameter space only.

3 Technical Corrections and Suggestions

- Lines 97-114 – This paragraph describes how the surface temperature ‘response’ is defined. It would be clearer to have this as a mathematical formula as the key quantity of interest to be emulated.
- Line 112 – It is written that $\mathbf{y}_{GP} \approx \mathbf{y}$. This may be ambiguous and require a more mathematically precise definition. For example, is it that the GP mean is a close approximation of \mathbf{y} , or does this also encapsulate that the uncertainty is “small”?
- Lines 211-212 – This is more commonly referred to as a maximin Latin hypercube design.
- Line 228 – The kernel $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \text{Cov}[f(\mathbf{x}), f(\mathbf{x}')]$, thus $\mathcal{G}(\mathbf{x})$ and $\mathcal{G}(\mathbf{x}')$ should be replaced $f(\mathbf{x})$ and $f(\mathbf{x}')$ respectively.
- Line 243 – This is the first reference to a 40-year control run. Should this be introduced in section 2.1 where the six 5-year control runs are first described?
- Line 360 – Point 1 – For the purpose of reproducibility, please provide more information on how the inputs are sampled including their variance (or standard deviation), and whether they are jointly or independently sampled.
- Line 360 – Point 2 – Ranges are defined for each of the input parameters. Are these limits enforced here?
- Line 511 – Add a citation to the heteroscedastic GP emulation paper Binois et al. (2018), and variance emulation, such as in Andrianakis et al. (2017).

References

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