

Objective Inference for Climate Parameters: Bayesian, Transformation of Variables and Profile Likelihood Approaches

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Abstract

Insight is provided into the use of objective Bayesian methods for estimating climate sensitivity by considering their relationship to transformations of variables in the context of a simple case considered in a previous study, and some misunderstandings about Bayesian inference are discussed. A simple model in which climate sensitivity (S) and effective ocean heat diffusivity (K_v) are the only parameters varied is used, with 20th century warming attributable to greenhouse gases (AW) and effective ocean heat capacity (HC) being the only data-based observables. Probability density functions (PDFs) for AW and HC are readily derived that represent valid, independent, objective Bayesian posterior PDFs, provided the error distribution assumptions involved in their construction are justified. Using them, a standard transformation of variables provides an objective joint posterior PDF for S and K_v ; integrating out K_v gives a marginal PDF for S . Close parametric approximations to the PDFs for AW and HC are obtained, enabling derivation of likelihood functions and related noninformative priors that give rise to the objective posterior PDFs that were computed initially. Bayes' theorem is applied to the derived AW and HC likelihood functions, demonstrating the effect of differing prior distributions on PDFs for S . Use of the noninformative Jeffreys' prior produces an identical PDF to that derived using the transformation of variables approach. It is shown that quite similar inference for S to that based on these two alternative objective Bayesian approaches is obtained using a profile likelihood method on the derived joint likelihood function for AW and HC.

1. Introduction

Estimates of climate sensitivity often use global energy balance or other simple climate models with a limited number of adjustable parameters, and compare modeled and observed values of multidecadal warming and other climate variables. Such estimates play an important role in assessment of climate sensitivity (Hegerl et al., 2007; Bindoff et al., 2013). Most of these studies use a Bayesian framework as a basis for assessing uncertainty and developing a probability density function (PDF) for climate sensitivity. This paper addresses the methodological challenge of selecting the appropriate Bayesian prior distributions for climate sensitivity and other parameters employed in simple climate model analyses.

Deriving valid probabilistic estimates for climate sensitivity and other uncertain parameters such as effective ocean diffusivity has proved challenging. These challenges primarily arise from the strongly nonlinear relationships between observable variables and these climate system parameters, combined with large observational uncertainties. Such factors make selection of appropriate Bayesian prior distributions for the parameters crucial but non-obvious. In suitable cases, the problem of prior selection may be addressed by considering Bayesian parameter inference as consisting of first generating probabilistic estimates for the 'true' values of the observable variables – those corresponding to what would have been observed in the absence of uncertainty – and then performing a transformation of variables from the observables to the parameters.

Frame et al. (2005; hereafter Fr05) was a seminal paper that addressed the role of prior assumptions regarding climate sensitivity, and is particularly well-suited for illustration of a transformation of variables approach. Fr05 used probabilistic

48 observationally-derived estimates of 20th century warming attributable to greenhouse gas
 49 increases and of effective heat capacity to estimate a probability density function (PDF)
 50 for climate sensitivity (and implicitly also for effective ocean diffusivity) on different
 51 sampling strategies, representing different prior assumptions. Such an analysis can only
 52 be viewed in Bayesian terms, since in frequentist statistics there is no role for prior
 53 assumptions, nor is putting a probability distribution on a fixed but unknown parameter
 54 permitted.

55 Bayes' theorem (Bayes, 1763) states that the (posterior) PDF, $p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{y})$, for a
 56 parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ on which observed data \mathbf{y} depend, is proportional to the probability
 57 density of the data $p_y(\mathbf{y} | \boldsymbol{\theta})$ (termed the likelihood function when considered as a
 58 function of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$, with \mathbf{y} fixed) multiplied by the density of a prior distribution (prior) for $\boldsymbol{\theta}$,
 59 $p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$, reflecting relevant existing knowledge:

$$60 \quad p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{y}) \propto p_y(\mathbf{y} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \quad (1)$$

61 where the subscripts indicate which variable a density is for.

62 In subjective Bayesian analysis, the prior purely reflects existing knowledge about
 63 $\boldsymbol{\theta}$. In objective Bayesian analysis, where such knowledge is disregarded or nonexistent,
 64 the prior is designed to be noninformative so that the data dominates inference about $\boldsymbol{\theta}$.
 65 Noninformative priors depend on the characteristics of the data and experiment
 66 concerned and have no probability interpretation (Bernardo and Smith, 1994). The
 67 likelihood function required to apply Bayes' theorem is a probability density for data,
 68 $p_y(\mathbf{y}, \boldsymbol{\theta})|_{\mathbf{y}=\mathbf{y}_0}$, albeit expressed as a function of the parameter vector with the data fixed at
 69 \mathbf{y}_0 , the actually observed \mathbf{y} . Typically, \mathbf{y} will reflect some function of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ and a random error

70 $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}: \mathbf{y} = g(f(\boldsymbol{\theta}), \boldsymbol{\varepsilon})$, reducing to $\mathbf{y} = f(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ where errors are additive and their
 71 distribution is independent of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$.

72 It is implicit in the foregoing formulation that \mathbf{y} is not simply a deterministic
 73 function of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$, $\mathbf{y} = f(\boldsymbol{\theta})$. In such a case, \mathbf{y} has a fixed value for any given $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ and thus no
 74 likelihood function exists. Therefore, Bayes' theorem is not required and instead one
 75 simply uses $f(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ to transform between data and parameter spaces. Where the
 76 dimensionality of \mathbf{y} and $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ are the same, as they are in Fr05, and provided that in the
 77 region where $p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) > 0$, $f(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ is a smooth invertible one-to-one function with both $f(\boldsymbol{\theta})$
 78 and $f^{-1}(\mathbf{y})$ continuously differentiable, the standard transformation-of-variables
 79 formulae for converting a PDF for $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ into a PDF for \mathbf{y} and *vice versa* are:

$$80 \quad p_{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{y}) = p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(f^{-1}(\mathbf{y})) J_{f^{-1}} \quad (2)$$

81 where $J_{f^{-1}}$ is the absolute value of the determinant of the Jacobian of f^{-1} with respect to
 82 \mathbf{y} , and conversely:

$$83 \quad p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = p_{\mathbf{y}}(f(\boldsymbol{\theta})) J_f \quad (3)$$

84 where J_f is the absolute value of the determinant of the Jacobian of f with respect to $\boldsymbol{\theta}$
 85 (Mardia et al., 1979).

86 If the dimensionality of the observables exceeds that of the parameters, a
 87 dimensionally-reducing version of the transformation of variables PDF conversion
 88 formula may be used (Mardia et al, 1979; Lewis, 2013b), provided the observables can
 89 first be whitened (made independent and of equal variance, as in optimal fingerprint
 90 methods: Hegerl et al., 1996).

91 The primary aims of this paper are to provide insight into the use of objective
92 Bayesian methods for estimating climate sensitivity by considering their relationship to
93 transformations of variables in the context of the simple case considered in Fr05,
94 discussing also estimation using profile likelihood methods, and to dispel some
95 misunderstandings about Bayesian inference.

96 Although the Fr05 authors had no intention of using an objective Bayesian
97 approach, they stated 'Unless they are warned otherwise, users will expect an answer to
98 the question "what does this study tell me about X, given no knowledge of X before the
99 study was performed?"', going on to assert that 'This requires sampling nonobservable
100 parameters to simulate a uniform distribution in X, the forecast quantity of interest,
101 before other constraints are applied,...'. By contrast, the objective approach presented
102 here, which is intended not to incorporate any prior knowledge as to the values of the
103 parameters involved, is equivalent to advocating a uniform prior, not in the forecast
104 quantity, but in a transformation of observables that has errors with a Gaussian or other
105 fixed distribution.

106 The data, model and model parameters used in this paper's analysis follow Fr05,
107 although several inconsistencies and misinterpretations in Fr05 are pointed out. Fr05
108 mistakenly derived distributions for its observables that, as will be seen, equated to
109 estimated posterior PDFs for them rather than likelihood functions. Accordingly, Fr05 is
110 not fully consistent with Bayes theorem. Moreover, the Fr05 authors misinterpreted the
111 ocean heat content change estimate they used, which pertains to a 44-year period, as
112 covering only the somewhat shorter period used in Fr05. These errors, which have a
113 relatively modest net effect, are addressed in a corrigendum (Frame et al., 2014).

114 The material is organized as follows. Section 2 summarizes the methods used and
 115 discusses their implications. Section 3 evidences replication of Fr05's original results.
 116 Section 4 deals with inference based on likelihood functions derived for the observables.
 117 Section 5 discusses climate sensitivity estimation and various misconceptions about it.

118 2. The observables, model and model parameters

119 *a. Overview*

120 The analysis uses a global energy balance model (EBM) with a diffusive ocean (Andrews
 121 and Allen, 2008). The EBM uses given values of climate sensitivity, S , and effective
 122 ocean vertical diffusivity, K_v , and a greenhouse gas (GHG) forcing time series estimated
 123 by the Met Office HadCM3 model (Gordon et al. 2000), to simulate global surface
 124 temperature and ocean heat content changes over 1861 to 2000. The EBM is believed to
 125 be equivalent to, and to employ the same forcing series, as that used in Fr05, and is run at
 126 the same S and K_v values.

127 The observables used are 20th century warming attributable to greenhouse gases
 128 (attributable warming), T_A , and effective heat capacity – the ratio of changes in ocean
 129 heat content and global surface temperature – C_H . Thus, \mathbf{y} and $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ are both bivariate, with
 130 observables $\mathbf{y} = (T_A, C_H)$ and parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (S, K_v)$. Although K_v usually denotes
 131 effective ocean vertical diffusivity, for notational convenience here K_v represents the
 132 square root of effective ocean vertical diffusivity, which controls C_H in an approximately
 133 linear manner (Sokolov et al., 2003) and in effect is treated as being the parameter.

134 Model accuracy is assumed, with there being a 'true' setting (S^t, K_v^t) of model
 135 parameters that simulates 'true' (error-free) values (T_A^t, C_H^t) . As the EBM is deterministic,

136 the dispersion of the estimated PDFs for S entirely reflects uncertainties in the
 137 observationally-based estimates of T_A and C_H .

138 EBM simulations are run using all parameter value combinations lying on a grid
 139 that is uniformly spaced in terms of S and K_v . The ranges used are sufficiently wide for
 140 there to be negligible probability of the true values of S or K_v lying outside them. The
 141 annual model-simulation time series are used to compute T_A^m and C_H^m , T_A^m as the 20th
 142 century linear trend in global temperature and C_H^m as the ratio of changes in ocean heat
 143 content and global temperature over 1957-94.

144 Since the EBM is a deterministic rather than a statistical model, and given the
 145 relationships of the T_A^m and C_H^m values to the parameters, there is a smooth invertible
 146 both-ways differentiable one-to-one functional relationship between joint model
 147 parameter settings, (S^m, K_v^m) , and joint values of (T_A^m, C_H^m) : each (S^m, K_v^m) combination
 148 corresponds to a unique value of (T_A^m, C_H^m) and vice versa. Given the assumption of
 149 model-accuracy the same relationship exists between the true joint values (T_A^t, C_H^t) of
 150 (T_A, C_H) , and the true joint values (S^t, K_v^t) of (S, K_v) . It follows from (3) that the
 151 estimated joint posterior PDF for (S^t, K_v^t) is determined by that for (T_A^t, C_H^t) :

$$152 \quad p_{S^t, K_v^t}(S, K_v) = p_{T_A^t, C_H^t}(f(S, K_v)) J_f \quad (4)$$

153 where f is the functional relationship between (S^m, K_v^m) and (T_A^m, C_H^m) and J_f is the
 154 absolute Jacobian determinant, given by:

$$155 \quad J_f = \text{absolute value of} \left\| \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial T_A^m}{\partial S^m} & \frac{\partial T_A^m}{\partial K_v^m} \\ \frac{\partial C_H^m}{\partial S^m} & \frac{\partial C_H^m}{\partial K_v^m} \end{pmatrix} \right\|_{S^m=S, K_v^m=K_v} \quad (5)$$

156 The derivatives can be estimated by numerical differentiation using the EBM output at
 157 grid points. It follows that were an estimated joint posterior PDF for (T_A^t, C_H^t) available, it
 158 would provide through (4) and (5) and the model-accuracy assumption a unique
 159 corresponding joint posterior PDF for (S^t, K_v^t) .

160 *b. Derivation of climate sensitivity PDFs from the observables*

161 The attraction of using C_H rather than ocean heat content is that C_H should be
 162 independent of the change in global surface temperature and hence of T_A . On the basis of
 163 independence between its observables C_H and T_A , which holds for similar variables in the
 164 HadCM3 control run, their joint density can be obtained by multiplying their individual
 165 densities. In order to undertake Bayesian inference for the parameters, that joint density
 166 (*l_hood*) would need to be the likelihood at any selected (T_A, C_H) combination (and hence
 167 at the corresponding (S, K_v) combination) of having obtained the actual observations,
 168 (T_A^o, C_H^o) , reflecting the observed level of model-data discrepancy. That is to say, *l_hood*
 169 must represent the joint density for (T_A^o, C_H^o) on the conjecture that (S^m, K_v^m) equal their
 170 'true' values, (S^t, K_v^t) and hence that (T_A^m, C_H^m) equal (T_A^t, C_H^t) , the 'true' values of T_A and
 171 C_H .

172 The EBM simulation runs and interpolation from (T_A, C_H) space onto the (S, K_v)
 173 grid can be used to derive the value of *l_hood* at all (S, K_v) grid combinations. By
 174 integrating the resulting *l_hood* values over all K_v values, a posterior distribution for S
 175 based on assuming a uniform initial distribution in sensitivity can be derived, provided
 176 *l_hood* is a likelihood. Alternatively, the impact of different prior distributions can be
 177 simulated by weighting in different ways when interpolating between the (S, K_v) and

178 (T_A, C_H) grids. Provided l_hood is a likelihood this procedure is equivalent to using
 179 differing prior distributions in Bayes' theorem and thereby obtaining different marginal
 180 posterior PDFs for S .

181 However, for Bayes theorem to be applied, l_hood must be a likelihood as defined
 182 above, and not a posterior PDF. In the latter case, Bayes' theorem is not applicable and
 183 instead the standard Jacobian determinant rule applicable to transformations of variables
 184 enables computation of a posterior PDF for (S^t, K_v^t) , and hence for S upon integrating
 185 out K_v .

186 *c. Methods used to derive the observables from the data and their resulting status*

187 C_H^o is inferred from the observed change in global ocean heat content (ΔOHC) of
 188 144.7 ZJ (Levitus et al., 2005) divided by the corresponding change in decadal-mean
 189 surface temperature (ΔT_G) of 0.338 K over the 1957-94 period stated in Fr05, allowing
 190 for the uncertainty in both quantities (respectively 45 ZJ and 0.066 K standard errors,
 191 assumed independent and Gaussian). As discussed in Section 1, the ΔOHC estimate
 192 actually related to a longer period, resulting in an overestimate of C_H^o , and hence of S and
 193 K_v , but it is used in order to provide comparability with Fr05. Section 5 gives an estimate
 194 of S with ΔOHC and ΔT_G determined (as respectively 128.3 ZJ and 0.360 K) over
 195 matching 1957–96 periods. Since the ΔOHC estimate used does not represent total heat
 196 uptake, a small allowance for omitted elements should perhaps be added; consideration of
 197 that issue is beyond the scope of this paper.

198 Where, as for ΔOHC and ΔT_G , the observed value z^o of a variable with true value
 199 z^t is subject to an additive error ε having a fixed distribution, a location parameter
 200 model applies:

$$z^o = z^t + \varepsilon \text{ where } \varepsilon \sim e(\mu_\varepsilon, \sigma_\varepsilon) \quad (6)$$

Here, only the difference $(z^o - z^t)$ between the true and observed value affects the probability of the observation. That being so, the likelihood function is a mirror-image of the error distribution centered on the observed value. Where the error distribution is Gaussian, as here, the likelihood function – the density for the observed value at the value actually observed, as a function of the true value – is identical to the error distribution, centered on the observed value:

$$p_{z^o}(z^o, z^t) \Big|_{z^o} = \frac{1}{\sigma_\varepsilon \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp[-(z^t - z^o)^2 / 2\sigma_\varepsilon^2] \quad (7)$$

(This applies for any symmetric zero-mean error distribution.) It is well known (e.g., Datta and Sweeting, 2005) that in such cases a uniform prior in the variable is completely noninformative for Bayesian inference, and gives rise to an objective posterior density for the true variable, identical to the likelihood function, that provides exact probability matching with frequentist confidence intervals:

$$p_{z^t}(z^t | z^o) = \frac{1}{\sigma_\varepsilon \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp[-(z^t - z^o)^2 / 2\sigma_\varepsilon^2] \quad (8)$$

From the Bayesian perspective, the $N(144.7, 45)$ ZJ and $N(0.338, 0.066)$ K distributions involved accordingly not only represent independent likelihood functions for the observed values of ΔOHC and ΔT_G but also independent objective posterior PDFs, derived using uniform priors, for the true values of those variables.

I derive an estimated PDF for the true effective heat capacity, C_H^t , from the PDFs for ΔOHC and ΔT_G by calculating the quotients of many pairs of random samples taken from them and computing their histogram. This is essentially an identical method to that used in Gregory et al (2002) directly to compute a PDF for S from the error distributions

223 for the relevant observables. The sampling-based method provides a correctly calculated,
 224 objective Bayesian, estimated posterior density for C_H^t , that is $p_{C_H^o}(C_H^t | C_H^o)$. This density
 225 for C_H^t cannot be regarded as a likelihood function for C_H^o – the density for the
 226 "observed" value of C_H at varying values of C_H^t , $p_{C_H^o}(C_H^o | C_H^t) \Big|_{C_H^o}$. Unlike for PDFs, one
 227 cannot derive a likelihood function for the ratio of the true values of two independent
 228 variables by sampling from their likelihood functions, calculating quotients and
 229 computing their histogram. However, as shown in Section 4, it is possible to estimate a
 230 likelihood function for C_H^o by other means. Since a location parameter model does not
 231 apply to C_H , its likelihood function differs from the posterior density for C_H^t .

232 The other observable, T_A^o , represents attributable warming. T_A^o is a modified
 233 version of T_{A_SK} , attributable warming estimated from simulations by the HadCM3
 234 AOGCM, observationally-constrained using a pattern-based attribution analysis (Stott
 235 and Kettleborough, 2002), which gives a distribution of scaling factors for the forced
 236 response (Stott et al., 2004). Data available for T_{A_SK} constitute a cumulative distribution
 237 function (CDF), which is derived from the estimated error distribution for a regression
 238 coefficient and hence is objective. I differentiate the CDF to obtain an objective estimated
 239 posterior PDF for $T_{A_SK}^t$, the true value of T_{A_SK} . The derivative of the CDF is not a
 240 likelihood function, since it does not represent a density for observed data. I then sample
 241 the $T_{A_SK}^t$ values and add a $\pm 10\%$ divisive allowance for forcing uncertainty, matching
 242 what was done in Fr05. Doing so replaces the initial (posterior) probability density for

243 $T_{A_SK}^t$ with a density for T_A^t , the ratio of $T_{A_SK}^t$ to another variable having a uniform [0.9,
 244 1.1) PDF; it does not transform the posterior PDF into a likelihood.

245 It follows that l_hood actually represents a joint posterior density for (T_A^t, C_H^t) , the
 246 true values of the observables C_H and T_A , not a likelihood (the joint density for the
 247 observations, (T_A^o, C_H^o) , at differing candidate true values).

248 *d. Implications of using a joint posterior PDF instead of a likelihood*

249 Since the density l_hood for the observables is a joint posterior PDF for (T_A^t, C_H^t) ,
 250 not a likelihood, no subsequent application of Bayes' theorem is required in order to
 251 obtain an estimated joint posterior PDF for (S^t, K_v^t) . Rather, the joint posterior PDF for
 252 (S^t, K_v^t) is given by the transformation-of-variables method, applying (4) and (5) to
 253 l_hood , and (for the EBM model used) is unique. The PDF $p_{T_A^t, C_H^t}(f(S, K_v))$ in (4) is
 254 given here by $l_hood(T_A(S, K_v), C_H(S, K_v))$. The known values of (T_A^m, C_H^m) at each
 255 setting of (S^m, K_v^m) provide the conversion between (T_A, C_H) space and (S, K_v) space
 256 and enable computation of the Jacobian determinant J_f . The marginal PDF for S^t is
 257 then obtained by integrating out K_v .

258 In geometrical terms, J_f represents the volume of a region $dT_A^m dC_H^m$ in (T_A, C_H)
 259 space relative to that of the region $dS^m dK_v^m$ in (S, K_v) space to which it corresponds.
 260 High value of J_f indicate that the observable variables change rapidly with the
 261 parameter values at those points in parameter space; low values indicates the opposite.

262 The shape of the Jacobian determinant surface is shown in Figure 1. It is highest
263 in the low S , low K_v corner and declines with both S and K_v , declining faster when the
264 other variable is high.

265 The PDF for (S^t, K_v^t) and hence the marginal PDF for S^t obtained as set out
266 above are valid Bayesian posterior densities notwithstanding that l_hood is a posterior
267 density not a likelihood, since its character as such is unaltered by a transformation of
268 variables. Therefore, the uncertainty ranges for S^t are Bayesian credible intervals with
269 estimated probabilities that S^t lies above or below them matching the specified
270 probabilities. By contrast, a confidence interval (CI) is constructed so that the estimated
271 proportions of occasions that S^t would lie above or below it match the specified
272 probabilities on repeated sampling of data from the same distributions. Noninformative
273 priors for objective Bayesian inference often produce credible intervals that
274 approximately match confidence intervals, and may be judged by their ability to do so; in
275 some common cases matching is exact. Confidence intervals for a single parameter may
276 be obtained using profile likelihoods, and although in general likewise not exact they
277 provide both an alternative objective parameter inference method and a simple check on
278 the frequentist validity of credible intervals derived from Bayesian analysis.

279

280 3. Inference for S using a transformation of variables

281 In this section, I use a transformation of variables approach to infer S and demonstrate
282 replication of two Fr05 PDFs for S – those stated to correspond to uniform initial
283 distributions respectively in TCR/attribution warming (jointly with effective heat
284 capacity) and in climate sensitivity (jointly with K_v). Given the linear response to

285 transient forcing, TCR and attributable warming are approximately linearly related, hence
 286 the PDFs for S in Figure 1(c) of Fr05 based on uniform initial distributions in each of
 287 them are indistinguishable. Although Fr05 was not an objective Bayesian study, it
 288 unintentionally used incorrect methods for the calculation of the likelihood functions,
 289 namely the methods set out in Section 2 for the derivation of objective Bayesian posterior
 290 PDFs for the observables. As a result, the correctness of my emulation of Fr05's model-
 291 simulations and other calculations can be tested by comparing its (uncorrected) PDFs for
 292 S based on uniform initial distributions respectively in TCR/attributable warming and in
 293 climate sensitivity with those I compute using a transformation of variables approach to
 294 convert the PDFs for the observables respectively using, and omitting, the applicable
 295 standard Jacobian determinant factor. The uncorrected Fr05 PDFs – which do not
 296 accurately reflect the stated intentions of its authors – are shown only to demonstrate that
 297 the computations in this study match those in Fr05.

298 *a. Replication of PDFs for S*

299 Figure 2 shows marginal posterior PDFs for S after (as in Fr05) integrating out K_v .
 300 The black line, computed by transforming the posterior PDF for (T_A^t, C_H^t) to one for
 301 (S^t, K_v^t) using the Jacobian determinant, is almost identical to the green line, reproduced
 302 from Figure 1(c) of Fr05, evidencing accurate replication of Fr05's calculations. The
 303 green line is stated there to be based on a simulated uniform initial distribution in TCR; it
 304 samples uniformly also in C_H , and presumably overlays the non-visible line based on
 305 uniform sampling in (T_A, C_H) . Uniform sampling in (T_A, C_H) weights *likelihood*, the PDF
 306 for (S^t, K_v^t) , by reference to volumes in (T_A, C_H) space relative to corresponding

307 volumes in (S, K_v) space. It thus equates to multiplication by the Jacobian determinant
 308 required upon the change of variables from (T_A, C_H) to (S, K_v) .

309 The Figure 2 grey line shows a PDF for S computed by restating, in terms of
 310 (S, K_v) , the posterior PDF for (T_A^t, C_H^t) and renormalizing. It differs from the black line
 311 due to omitting the multiplication by the Jacobian determinant required upon the change
 312 of variables from (T_A, C_H) to (S, K_v) , and hence does not correctly reflect the posterior
 313 PDF for (T_A^t, C_H^t) . The red line in Fr05 Figure 1(c), stated there to be based on assuming
 314 a uniform initial distribution in sensitivity and reproduced as the coral line in Figure 2,
 315 was effectively likewise derived just by restating l_hood in terms of (S^t, K_v^t) and is
 316 shown as a dashed coral line in Figure 2. The close matching of the grey and coral lines
 317 provides further evidence of correct replication of Fr05.

318 Percentile points of the posterior PDFs give Bayesian credible intervals for S ,
 319 shown by the box plots in Figure 2 for 10–90% and 5–95% ranges.

320 *b. Discussion of the climate sensitivity PDF obtained by the transformation of variables*
 321 *approach*

322 In a first stage, I derived, using a sampling-based objective Bayesian approach, a joint
 323 posterior PDF for (T_A^t, C_H^t) . In a second stage I carried out a transformation of variables
 324 from (T_A, C_H) to (S, K_v) , using the appropriate Jacobian determinant, thereby obtaining
 325 a posterior PDF for (S^t, K_v^t) . The marginal PDF for S – the black line in Figure 2 –
 326 follows upon applying the standard Bayesian method of integrating out K_v .

327 If one accepts that the posterior PDF derived for (T_A^t, C_H^t) correctly reflects the
 328 uncertainty distributions of the observations, then since the PDFs for (T_A^t, C_H^t) and
 329 (S^t, K_v^t) , are related by the standard transformation-of-variables Jacobian conversion
 330 factor, the posterior PDF for (S^t, K_v^t) derived in the above way correctly reflects the
 331 observational uncertainties.

332 The sampling-derived estimated posterior PDF for C_H^t appears objectively correct
 333 provided that the underlying estimates and Gaussian error assumptions for ΔOHC and
 334 ΔT_G are valid: it corresponds with repeated sampling results. Moreover, it is implicitly
 335 assumed in Fr05 that, after the additional allowance is made for forcing uncertainty, the
 336 objective observationally-constrained estimated PDF for attributable warming derived
 337 from simulations by the HadCM3 AOGCM, $T_{A_SK}^t$, provides a valid estimated PDF for
 338 T_A^t . From a scientific viewpoint, it seems difficult (unless other external information is to
 339 be incorporated) to argue for the use of any prior in a direct Bayesian derivation of a PDF
 340 for (S^t, K_v^t) – one not involving a transformation-of-variables approach – other than that
 341 which produces a posterior that is consistent, upon transformation to (T_A, C_H) space,
 342 with the posteriors derived here for C_H^t and T_A^t . That is because those posteriors correctly
 343 reflect the assumed data error characteristics.

344 4. Inference based on likelihood functions

345 I have shown that objective posterior PDFs for T_A and C_H can readily be derived from the
 346 data used in Fr05, a joint PDF for (T_A^t, C_H^t) formed and an objective PDF for
 347 (S^t, K_v^t) derived from it by effecting a transformation-of-variables, with a marginal

348 posterior PDF for S^t being obtained by integrating out K_v . By comparison, the usual
 349 Bayesian approach would be to derive PDFs for (S^t, K_v^t) , and hence for S^t , directly
 350 from likelihood functions for T_A and C_H without any transformation-of-variables.

351 In objective Bayesian terms, it is possible to regard the posterior PDFs for T_A^t and
 352 C_H^t as each equating to a likelihood function corresponding to some distribution for T_A^o
 353 or C_H^o and a particular observation, multiplied by a prior that is noninformative for
 354 inference from the distribution concerned (Hartigan, 1965). Estimation of such likelihood
 355 functions may be practicable if a suitable family of parameterized distributions is selected
 356 and a noninformative prior for it derived. The distribution parameters can then be
 357 selected so that the product of the likelihood function and noninformative prior closely
 358 matches the relevant posterior PDF. For C_H a more direct, non-Bayesian method, of
 359 deriving an approximate likelihood function can also be used, but for T_A the data used in
 360 Fr05 do not provide the necessary information.

361 *a. Deriving a joint likelihood function for S and K_v and related noninformative priors*

362 Normally, where – as here – estimated objective posterior PDFs for the observables are
 363 already available, or can be easily and exactly calculated, there would be no reason to
 364 derive corresponding likelihood functions and to carry out Bayesian inference using
 365 them. Rather, one would just carry out a transformation of variables to parameter space.
 366 The reason for doing so here is partly to provide insight into the nature of Bayesian
 367 inference, partly to show that sampling uniformly in the observables at the likelihood
 368 function level may not provide satisfactory results, and partly in order to present
 369 comparative, purely likelihood-based, inference results.

370 When employing the parameterized-distributions approach to deriving likelihood
 371 functions set out above, the matching process can be simplified by restricting the
 372 considered likelihood functions to simple transformations of standard location
 373 distributions. That is because a uniform prior is known to be noninformative for a
 374 location parameter. In such cases the required noninformative prior is simply the
 375 derivative of the transform involved, and is the Jeffreys' prior (the square root of the
 376 Fisher information matrix) (Jeffreys, 1946). The Jeffreys' prior can be thought of as a
 377 uniform sampling of Gaussian-distributed data, subsequently transformed.

378 With suitable choices of parameters, assigning non-central t -distributions to the
 379 logs of upwards-shifted versions of T_A and C_H provides likelihood functions for them that
 380 give rise, using the Jeffreys' prior, to posterior densities that are extremely close fits to the
 381 posterior PDFs for T_A^t and C_H^t . Thus, for C_H the likelihood is chosen as

$$382 \quad p_{C_H^o}(C_H^o, C_H^t) \Big|_{C_H^o} = f(t, \nu) \quad \text{where} \quad t = (\log(C_H^t + a) - b) / c \quad (9)$$

383 $f(t, \nu)$ being the density for a Student's t distribution with ν degrees of freedom. Here,
 384 (a, b, c, ν) are selected to minimize the sum of squared differences between the actual PDF
 385 for C_H^t and the fitted PDF derived by multiplying the parameterized likelihood function
 386 by the corresponding noninformative Jeffreys' prior, $\pi_{C_H}^J$. That prior can be seen, upon
 387 differentiating, to be the reciprocal of the argument of the log, here the sum of the
 388 parameter value and a positive constant (the shift).

$$389 \quad \pi_{C_H}^J \propto \frac{\partial t}{\partial C_H^t} = \frac{1}{C_H^t + a} \quad (10)$$

390 As a check on the objective validity of the calculated noninformative priors, PDFs were
 391 computed from the estimated likelihood functions (in which this reciprocal factor does

392 not appear) both using Bayes' theorem with the Jeffreys' priors and directly, by sampling
393 randomly from the appropriate t -distribution and then exponentiating and shifting the
394 samples. Figure 3 shows that both ways of deriving posterior PDFs for T_A and C_H give
395 such close approximations to the PDF to be matched that the three PDFs are visually
396 indistinguishable. The relevant likelihood functions are also shown (cyan lines). The
397 PDFs are each shifted leftwards relative to, and at the right are slightly better constrained
398 than, the corresponding likelihood functions. That is consistent with each prior being
399 monotonically declining with its parameter value. The variation in each prior reflects the
400 fact that, as the parameter value varies, the likelihood function measures density at the
401 fixed value of the observation, while the posterior measures density at the varying value
402 of the parameter.

403 In the case of C_H only, the underlying data error distributions are available,
404 providing likelihood functions for ΔOHC and ΔT_G , and – since these are assumed
405 independent – upon their multiplication for $(\Delta OHC, \Delta T_G)$. A frequentist profile
406 likelihood can then be obtained for C_H by taking, at each C_H value, the maximum across
407 all ΔOHC and ΔT_G combinations whose quotient equals that C_H value (as is done in the
408 Frame et al, 2014, corrigendum). Profile likelihood is a pragmatic approach that typically
409 provides a reasonable, although not exact, likelihood (Pawitan, 2001). The profile
410 likelihood for C_H closely matches the likelihood obtained from fitting a shifted log- t
411 distribution: the likelihoods have indistinguishable modes and shapes apart from the
412 profile likelihood being fractionally wider. For consistency, the likelihoods derived from
413 the shifted log- t distribution fits are used for both C_H and T_A in carrying out the Bayesian
414 inference discussed next.

415 *b. Bayesian inference for S based on likelihood functions for T_A and C_H*

416 Having derived likelihood functions for T_A and C_H , Bayes' theorem can now be validly
 417 applied to derive marginal posterior PDFs for S based on various joint prior distributions.
 418 In particular, it is of interest to consider the following: a uniform joint prior distribution
 419 in S and K_V ; a joint prior equivalent to a uniform initial distribution in T_A and C_H ; and a
 420 computed noninformative prior. Doing so requires conversion of the joint likelihood
 421 function and of the noninformative prior – formed by multiplication, given the
 422 assumption of conditional independence of T_A and C_H – from (T_A, C_H) to (S, K_V) space.
 423 Since likelihood functions do not change upon reparameterisation, their values are simply
 424 restated in terms of (S, K_V) coordinates, by interpolating between EBM simulation runs.
 425 The joint prior for (T_A, C_H) must additionally be multiplied by the applicable Jacobian
 426 determinant: noninformative Jeffreys' priors convert from one parameterization to
 427 another using the standard method of converting PDFs on a transformation of variables.

428 The resulting shape of the noninformative Jeffreys' prior in (S, K_V) space is
 429 shown in Figure 4. It is very highly peaked in the low S , low K_V corner, and has an
 430 extremely small value (slightly higher at very low K_V values) when S is high. The idea
 431 that a prior having such a shape *a priori* assumes an upper bound on climate sensitivity,
 432 or discriminates against high sensitivity values, is mistaken. A valid noninformative prior
 433 asserts nothing about the value of the parameters concerned. Rather, it primarily
 434 represents how informative the data are expected to be about the parameters in different
 435 regions of parameter space. That depends both on how responsive the data are to
 436 variations in parameter values in different parts of parameter space and on how precise
 437 the data are in the corresponding parts of data space. Here, the responsiveness of the

438 combined data variables (T_A, C_H) to the parameters (S, K_v) is reflected in the Jacobian
439 determinant shown in Figure 1, while the declining precision of the data variables as
440 (S, K_v) – and hence (T_A, C_H) – increase is reflected in the joint noninformative prior for
441 inference in (T_A, C_H) space being the product of reciprocals of the shifted data variables.

442 It may be asked why parameter values falling in a range in which observed
443 quantities are fairly insensitive to parameter changes should be considered improbable
444 relative to the data likelihood value – be down weighted by the noninformative prior
445 having a low value – simply for that reason. The answer is that unless posterior
446 probability is scaled down relative to likelihood in such a parameter-range, more
447 probability will be assigned to parameter values within it than corresponds to the
448 probability of the quantities that have been observed having resulted from such parameter
449 values, given their assumed error distributions. Viewing probabilities in terms of CDFs
450 rather than densities makes this clear. For example, if what is observed varies linearly
451 with the climate feedback parameter λ , the reciprocal of S , and thus is insensitive to S at
452 high S levels, then provided that λ can be estimated sufficiently accurately to put a
453 positive lower bound λ_L on it at an acceptable confidence level, S can be constrained
454 above at $1/\lambda_L$ with the same confidence. However, one should be aware that the
455 magnitude of an objective-Bayesian posterior PDF reflects how responsive the observed
456 quantities are to parameter changes in various parameter-ranges as well as to how likely it
457 was the observed values would be obtained given each possible parameter value
458 combination. In strongly affected cases care should therefore be taken in interpreting
459 objective-Bayesian posterior PDFs, but the uncertainty ranges derived from them are
460 nevertheless valid.

461 Marginal posterior PDFs for S derived on the selected bases from the joint
 462 likelihood function for T_A and C_H are shown in Figure 5. The black line uses the Jacobian
 463 determinant to convert the joint posterior PDF for T_A and C_H into a joint posterior PDF
 464 for S and K_v , as in Figure 2. The red line shows the result of applying Bayes' theorem to
 465 the joint likelihood function for T_A and C_H using the Figure 4 noninformative prior,
 466 which gives an objective Bayesian posterior PDF. The green line is the published Fr05
 467 PDF stated to be based on a uniform initial distribution in TCR. These three posterior
 468 PDFs are almost identical. Indeed, the black and red line PDFs would be identical in the
 469 absence of discretization errors. The identity of these two PDFs confirms that the highly
 470 peaked Figure 4 noninformative prior does not convey an initial assumption that S is very
 471 low, but rather has the shape required to achieve objective inference about S .

472 The coral line in Figure 5 assumes a uniform initial distribution in
 473 TCR/attributable warming and effective heat capacity, using the same weighting method
 474 as for the green line, but weighting S values by the joint likelihood function for T_A and
 475 C_H rather than by their joint posterior density. That is, carrying out Bayesian inference
 476 using a uniform joint prior for T_A and C_H , or sampling uniformly in the observables. The
 477 form of the prior used corresponds to that in Figure 1 rather than Figure 4. The resulting
 478 PDF is significantly worse constrained above than are the black, red and green PDFs. The
 479 reason is that, although assuming a uniform joint prior in T_A and C_H effectively
 480 incorporates the Jacobian determinant factor necessary for correctly converting a joint
 481 density in (T_A, C_H) space to one in (S, K_v) space, it does not also provide a
 482 noninformative joint prior for T_A and C_H in their own space.

483 If errors in estimating T_A and C_H were Gaussian, t -distributed or otherwise
 484 independent of the values of those variables, so that T_A and C_H themselves were location

485 parameters, uniform priors in (T_A, C_H) space would be noninformative for those
486 variables and their resulting objective posterior PDFs would have the same shapes as
487 their likelihood functions. In such a case, sampling uniformly in the observables would
488 provide an objective Bayesian posterior PDF for (S, K_v) . However, since the fitted t -
489 distribution applies to log transforms of T_A and C_H , suitably shifted, a uniform prior is not
490 noninformative, the likelihood functions for T_A and C_H are not identical to their objective
491 posterior PDFs and sampling uniformly in the observables does not provide an objective
492 posterior PDF for (S, K_v) . In effect, the log transforms reflect multiplicative elements in
493 the estimation errors for T_A and C_H .

494 The dashed grey line in Figure 5 is the same as the grey line in Figure 2, and is
495 shown for the purposes of comparison. The blue line shows the posterior PDF resulting
496 from applying Bayes' theorem to the joint likelihood function for T_A and C_H using a
497 uniform joint prior in S and K_v . It is substantially worse constrained even than the dashed
498 grey PDF, since the latter effectively employs noninformative priors for inferring
499 posterior PDFs for T_A and C_H from their likelihoods whereas the blue line does not.

500 Although under a subjective Bayesian approach all the prior distributions
501 considered here are in principle acceptable, it would be incorrect to argue – based on
502 deriving a climate sensitivity PDF using a prior that samples uniformly in S and K_v – that
503 we cannot from the data available rule out high sensitivity, high heat uptake cases that are
504 consistent with, but nonlinearly related to, 20th century observations. All high sensitivity,
505 high heat uptake cases would have given rise to an increase in ocean heat content that is
506 inconsistent with observations at a high confidence level, and so can logically be ruled
507 out (with the implication that use of a uniform in S and K_v prior is inappropriate).

508

509 *c. Profile likelihood inference for S*

510 Figure 5 also shows, in cyan, confidence intervals (CIs) for S derived by
511 employing the frequentist signed-root-likelihood-ratio (SRLR) profile likelihood method
512 on the joint likelihood for T_A and C_H , restated in (S, K_v) coordinates. Only a box plot is
513 shown, since profile likelihoods are not comparable with PDFs. The SRLR method,
514 which depends on an asymptotic normal approximation to the probability distribution
515 involved, provides CIs for individual parameters from their joint likelihood function. The
516 method is exact in cases involving a normal distribution or a transformed normal
517 distribution. Unlike objective Bayesian approaches, it does not require computation of a
518 noninformative prior. The SRLR method was employed in Allen et al. (2009). That study
519 used exactly the same approach as set out here, of carrying out many EBM simulations
520 and comparing their results with estimates of T_A and C_H . However, it used parameterized
521 lognormal distributions for those variables rather than estimating actual distributions,
522 correctly calculating therefrom the likelihood functions required for its profile likelihood
523 inference.

524 Credible intervals from the objective Bayesian PDF for S derived from the
525 posterior PDFs for T_A and C_H , using the standard method for converting PDFs on a
526 transformation of variables – shown by the black box plot in Figure 5 – may properly be
527 used to judge profile likelihood SRLR-derived CIs, since the posterior PDFs for T_A and
528 C_H are objectively and exactly derived from the original data used as the basis for
529 inference. Although the SRLR method gives CIs that correspond fairly closely to credible
530 intervals implied by the posterior PDFs for (T_A, C_H) , the correspondence is not exact.
531 The peak of the profile likelihood closely matches the median of the objective Bayesian
532 posterior PDF. However, the distances from there to the 5% and, particularly, 95%

533 bounds are somewhat smaller when using the SRLR method. Part of the difference may
534 be due to the fitted shifted log- t distributions not being exact. But most of it likely relates
535 to the shapes of the posterior PDFs for T_A and C_H being best matched by transforming t -
536 distributions with modest degrees of freedom (10 for T_A , 17 for C_H), which is consistent
537 with neither of those PDFs closely corresponding to a transform of a normal distribution.

538 An illuminating comparison between profile likelihood and Bayesian inference
539 based on various priors, including Jeffreys' prior, in a case corresponding to that in Allen
540 et al. (2009) is given in Rowlands (2011), which also contains other analyses of
541 relevance. It found nearer identity between profile likelihood derived CIs and Bayesian
542 credible intervals derived using Jeffreys' prior than here. Since the SRLR profile
543 likelihood method is based on a normal approximation, it performs very well where the
544 likelihood functions are normal or (as in Rowlands, 2011) transformed normal
545 distributions. Where data–parameter relationships are strongly nonlinear and/or data
546 uncertainties have unsuitable forms, a simple SRLR method may not always provide
547 acceptably accurate CIs. In such cases one of the various modified versions of the SRLR
548 method may be employed in order to improve accuracy (see, e.g., Cox and Reid, 1987).
549 Modified profile likelihood based inference has close links to objective Bayesian
550 inference, and often gives results closely corresponding to those from objective Bayesian
551 marginal posterior PDFs (Bernardo and Smith, 1994, Section 5.5 and Appendix B.4).

552 5. Discussion

553 The various methods for estimating climate sensitivity from the data used in Fr05 and the
554 resulting estimates are summarised in Table 1. Using objective methods and with the
555 Δ OHC error corrected, a median estimate of 2.2 K and 5–95% bounds of 1.2–4.5 K

556 (uncorrected: 2.4 K and 1.2–5.2 K) are obtained using the transformation-of-variables
557 method, based on the initial, objective Bayesian, posterior PDFs for T_A and C_H . Although
558 this estimate is objective given the data, the data it reflects are somewhat dated and may
559 have shortcomings. For instance, Gillett et al. (2012) found that using (as in this case)
560 temperature data spanning just the twentieth century, the first two decades of which were
561 anomalously cool, produced a high estimate for attributable warming, which would bias
562 estimation of S upwards. However, the main object of this paper is to illustrate the
563 relative effects of various methods of inference for climate sensitivity, which are
564 unaffected by such bias.

565 Since the best estimated PDF for a parameter value does not depend on the use to
566 which that estimate is put (Bernardo and Smith, 1994, Section 3.4 and Bernardo, 2009),
567 one should use the same prior assumptions for estimating climate sensitivity irrespective
568 of for what purpose the resulting PDF is used. Differing loss functions associated with
569 differing purposes may lead to the same probabilistic estimate then being used in
570 different ways.

571 Most climate sensitivity studies have embodied a subjective Bayesian perspective,
572 in which probability represents a personal degree of belief as to uncertainty and prior
573 distributions represent subjective assumptions of the investigators. However, for
574 scientific reporting, it is usual to assume no prior information as to the value of unknown
575 parameters being estimated in an experiment. To achieve that using Bayesian methods, a
576 "noninformative" prior distribution must be mathematically derived from the assumed
577 statistical model. That corresponds to an objective Bayesian approach, results from
578 which, like frequentist results, depend only on the assumed model and the data obtained
579 (Bernardo, 2009). A proposal for adapting the objective Bayesian approach to allow for

580 incorporation of probabilistic prior information, represented as if derived from data, is set
581 out in Lewis (2013a).

582 In cases where a prior that is noninformative for inference about the observables
583 is easily identified, and the observables are independent (or can be transformed to be
584 independent, as by whitening in optimal fingerprint methods), an objectively-correct joint
585 posterior PDF for the observables may be derived and hence, via a transformation of
586 variables, a joint posterior PDF for the parameters computed. In many cases it may be
587 easier to adopt an objective Bayesian approach by performing Bayesian inference in
588 observation-space and then effecting a transformation of variables, than by deriving a
589 noninformative joint prior for the parameters. The climate model simulations that are
590 generally performed can be used to convert the joint posterior PDF from observation
591 space to parameter space through a transformation of variables. The objectivity of the
592 inference procedure may be more obvious with such a two stage procedure than when the
593 parameters are inferred directly from the observables' likelihoods using Bayes' theorem
594 with a highly non-uniform noninformative prior. And in some cases, as here, the
595 available data more readily provides objective posterior PDFs for the observables than
596 accurate likelihood functions for them, so the use of a transformation of variables
597 approach is particularly advantageous.

598 The transformation of variables approach can be employed even where the model
599 used is not deterministic, provided a location parameter relationship applies between
600 actual and true observables, since the effects of model noise on simulated observables
601 and measurement error plus internal climate variability on actual observables are then
602 equivalent. Where, as in the case considered here, the dimensionality of the observables
603 and the parameters is the same, the PDF conversion factor is the absolute Jacobian

604 determinant. The transformation of variables approach should produce an equivalent
605 result to computing a noninformative joint prior for the parameters (Lewis, 2013b).

606 If there are more observables than parameters, a dimensionally-reducing
607 transformation of variables PDF conversion formula may be used, after whitening the
608 observables. To facilitate doing so, it may be possible to transform individual observable
609 variables having non-Gaussian (e.g., lognormal) uncertainty so that their distributions are
610 at least approximately Gaussian, although transformations estimated from data are
611 themselves uncertain.

612 Whether objective Bayesian inference is undertaken using a transformation of
613 variables approach or not, it should be appreciated that the prior or PDF conversion factor
614 is a function of all parameters (here S and K_v) jointly: it does not vary with the parameter
615 of interest alone.

616 Objective Bayesian methods are not a universal, perfect solution to the issue of
617 quantifying uncertainty or the only objective approach to estimating climate sensitivity.
618 Nor, when there are multiple parameters, is Jeffreys' prior always the best noninformative
619 prior to use for marginal parameter inference (see, e.g., Bernardo and Smith, 1994,
620 Sections 5.4 and 5.6). There is always merit in reporting likelihood functions and prior
621 distributions as well as posterior PDFs, which enables the effect of the prior to be seen,
622 and in appropriate cases exploring the effects of different prior distributions may be
623 helpful. Exploring data error assumptions, which affect the shape of noninformative
624 priors used for objective Bayesian inference as well as the likelihood functions, is also
625 advisable.

626 Profile likelihood methods of varying complexity offer a viable objective
627 alternative to Bayesian methods where likelihood information about sensitivity jointly

628 with other climate system parameters is obtained. The basic SRLR profile likelihood
629 method has the advantage of being simpler to apply than objective Bayesian approaches,
630 but may be less accurate. It is worth undertaking even if Bayesian methods are used, as it
631 provides a cross-check on uncertainty bounds given by Bayesian credible intervals. That
632 profile likelihood only provides CIs is not a real drawback, since – if one accepts the
633 Bayesian paradigm although not its methods – a PDF may be obtained by computing one-
634 sided CIs at all values of S and differentiating. However, for many purposes the
635 combination of a best estimate (50th percentile or likelihood peak) and uncertainty ranges
636 may provide as much useful information as a PDF does, and is less susceptible to
637 misinterpretation.

638 Whatever method of inference is used, there are many other subjective choices to
639 be made, such as the observables, datasets, error distribution assumptions and model
640 which will all affect the results. But the objective Bayesian approach does offer a solution
641 to the issue of the relevant prior to use when estimating climate sensitivity.

642

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FIG. 1. Absolute Jacobian determinant of the transformation from (S^m, K_v^m) to (T_A^m, C_H^m) space. Its value, the scale of which is arbitrary, represents the volume of the region in (T_A^m, C_H^m) space relative to that of the region in (S^m, K_v^m) space to which it corresponds. The large values in the low climate sensitivity, low effective ocean diffusivity corner reflects high joint responsiveness there of attributable 20th century warming T_A and effective heat capacity C_H to changes in the parameters S and K_v . The converse is the case towards the opposite corner of parameter space.

FIG. 2. Estimated marginal PDFs for climate sensitivity, after integrating out K_v . The black line is derived by transforming the posterior PDF for the observables, (T_A^t, C_H^t) , to one for (S^t, K_v^t) , using the Jacobian determinant. The near identical (dashed) green line is reproduced from Figure 1(c) of Fr05, where it is stated to assume a uniform initial distribution in TCR (and implicitly in C_H). The grey line is computed by restating, in terms of (S, K_v) , the posterior PDF for (T_A^t, C_H^t) , without multiplication by the Jacobian determinant, and renormalizing. The (dashed) coral line reproduces the red line in Fr05 Figure 1(c), stated there to be based on assuming a uniform initial distribution in sensitivity, shifted to the right by 0.083 K to correct an apparent plotting error in the Fr05 code. The two uncorrected Fr05 Figure 1(c) PDFs do not accurately reflect the stated intentions of its authors; they are shown to demonstrate that this study's computations match those in Fr05. The box plots indicate boundaries, to the nearest grid value, for the percentiles 5–95 (vertical bar at ends), 10-90 (box-ends), and 50 (vertical bar in box), and allow for off-graph probability lying between $S = 10$ K and $S = 20$ K.

FIG. 3: Posterior PDFs and likelihood functions for attributable 20th century warming T_A and effective heat capacity C_H . The overlying black, red and green lines show PDFs respectively calculated as set out in Section 2, derived by sampling from the shifted log-t distributions and derived by multiplying the estimated likelihood function by the related Jeffreys' prior, applying Bayes' theorem. The cyan lines show the estimated likelihood functions. The Fr05 version of C_H , which does not correctly match the OHC and T_G data, has been used in order to give a like-for-like comparison with Fr05.

FIG. 4: Noninformative (Jeffreys') joint prior for S and K_v for inference from T_A and C_H likelihoods. The much sharper peak in the low climate sensitivity, low effective ocean diffusivity corner and lower values elsewhere than in Figure 1 reflects the fact that the observational data is most precise in the region that corresponds to that corner of parameter space and becomes increasingly less precise away from it, in addition to the responsiveness of the observations to changes in the parameters reducing as they move away from the low climate sensitivity, low effective ocean diffusivity corner. When performing Bayesian inference about the parameters from T_A and C_H likelihoods, rather than using the objective estimated PDFs for their true values and undertaking a transformation of variables to parameter space, a noninformative prior will reflect that declining precision in addition to the Jacobian determinant applicable to the transformation of variables.

FIG. 5. Estimated marginal PDFs for climate sensitivity derived on various bases. The match between the overlying black and red lines shows that the conversion of the joint posterior PDF for the observables into a PDF for the parameters S and K_v by a transformation of variables using the Jacobian determinant, giving the black line, and objective Bayesian inference from the combined likelihood functions for T_A and C_H using

the Figure 4 noninformative prior, giving the red line, are equivalent. The coral line shows that assuming a uniform initial distribution in the observables does not give the same result. The blue line shows how poorly the PDF is constrained when an informative, subjective, uniform prior in the parameters is used. Two other PDFs are given for comparison. The green line is the same as the dashed green line in Figure 2. The (dashed) grey line is the same as the grey line in Figure 2. The box plots indicate boundaries, to the nearest grid value, for the percentiles 5–95 (vertical bar at ends), 10-90 (box-ends), and 50 (vertical bar in box), and allow for off-graph probability lying between $S = 10$ K and $S = 20$ K. The cyan box plot shows confidence intervals derived by a profile likelihood method (the vertical bar in the box showing the likelihood profile peak).

Table 1. Summary of different methods of estimating climate sensitivity from the data Fr05 used (with the ΔOHC error uncorrected unless otherwise stated) and their results

Method of estimating climate sensitivity (S) and color of corresponding PDF line and box plot in Figure 5 where relevant	Median (K)	5–95% range (K)
<i>Bayesian estimation based on sampling uniformly in terms of (S, K_v): blue</i> Sample joint (T_A, C_H) likelihood uniformly in terms of corresponding (S, K_v) values (equating to Bayesian inference using uniform priors in S and K_v).	3.5	1.6–15.1
<i>What Fr05 actually did when sampling uniformly in terms of (S, K_v): grey</i> Derive (posterior) PDFs for T_A and C_H , express their joint PDF in terms of the corresponding (S, K_v) values, sample it uniformly in terms of (S, K_v).	2.9	1.4–12.6*
<i>Transformation of variables from joint posterior PDF for T_A and C_H: black</i> Transform joint posterior PDF for (T_A, C_H) into one for (S, K_v), using the Jacobian. [Fr05 effectively did this when sampling uniformly in (T_A, C_H)]	2.4	1.2–5.2
<i>Bayesian estimation based on sampling uniformly in terms of (T_A, C_H): coral</i> Derive likelihoods for T_A and C_H , sample their joint likelihood uniformly and transform to (S, K_v) space using the Jacobian	2.6	1.4–6.5
<i>Objective estimation of S from likelihoods for T_A and C_H</i> <i>a) Bayesian: red.</i> Express joint likelihood for (T_A, C_H) in terms of corresponding (S, K_v) values, multiply it by derived noninformative prior and sample uniformly in terms of (S, K_v) to obtain their joint posterior PDF. <i>b) Frequentist: cyan.</i> Express joint likelihood for (T_A, C_H) in terms of the corresponding (S, K_v) values, compute a profile likelihood for S and obtain confidence intervals from the signed log-likelihood ratio.	2.4	1.2–5.2
<i>What an objective Bayesian estimate for S using the correctly matched ΔOHC and ΔT_G data would have been</i>	2.2	1.2–4.5
<i>The Frame et al (2014) corrigendum's estimate for S when using uniform priors in S and K_v and correctly matched ΔOHC and ΔT_G data</i>	n/a	1.2–14.5

For consistency, all computations using the uncorrected ΔOHC data are based on the fitted parameterized distributions. Integration out of K_v from the joint (S, K_v) posterior to obtain a marginal posterior for S is taken as read.

* As is evident from Figure 2, this range differs somewhat from the range given in Fr05; the 95% bound is extremely sensitive to the total probability included in the calculation.

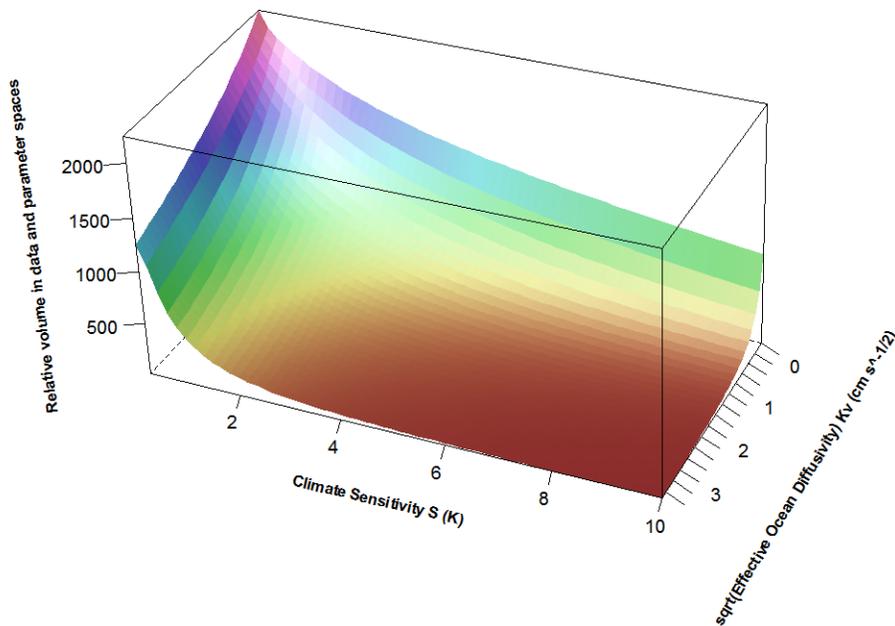


FIG. 1. Absolute Jacobian determinant of the transformation from (S^m, K_v^m) to (T_A^m, C_H^m) space. Its value, the scale of which is arbitrary, represents the volume of the region in (T_A^m, C_H^m) space relative to that of the region in (S^m, K_v^m) space to which it corresponds. The large values in the low climate sensitivity, low effective ocean diffusivity corner reflects high joint responsiveness there of attributable 20th century warming T_A and effective heat capacity C_H to changes in the parameters S and K_v . The converse is the case towards the opposite corner of parameter space.

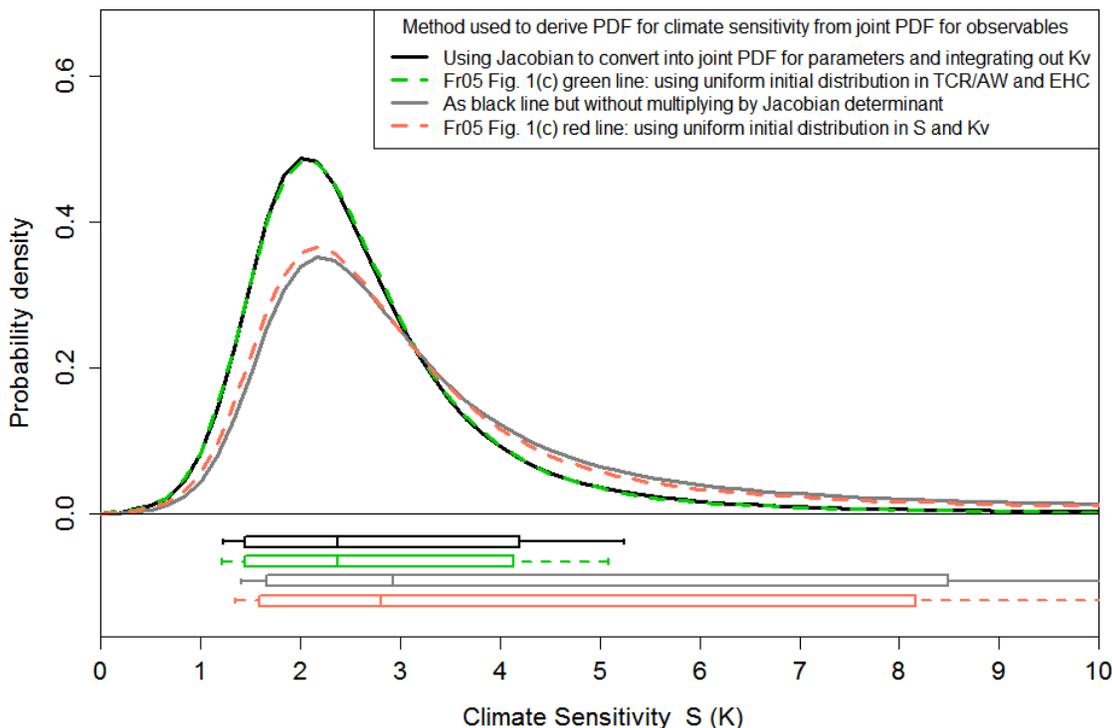


FIG. 2. Estimated marginal PDFs for climate sensitivity, after integrating out K_v . The black line is derived by transforming the posterior PDF for the observables, (T_A^t, C_H^t) , to one for (S^t, K_v^t) , using the Jacobian determinant. The near identical (dashed) green line is reproduced from Figure 1(c) of Fr05, where it is stated to assume a uniform initial distribution in TCR (and implicitly in C_H). The grey line is computed by restating, in terms of (S, K_v) , the posterior PDF for (T_A^t, C_H^t) , without multiplication by the Jacobian determinant, and renormalizing. The (dashed) coral line reproduces the red line in Fr05 Figure 1(c), stated there to be based on assuming a uniform initial distribution in sensitivity, shifted to the right by 0.083 K to correct an apparent plotting error in the Fr05 code. The two uncorrected Fr05 Figure 1(c) PDFs do not accurately reflect the stated intentions of its authors; they are shown to demonstrate that this study's computations

match those in Fr05. The box plots indicate boundaries, to the nearest grid value, for the percentiles 5–95 (vertical bar at ends), 10-90 (box-ends), and 50 (vertical bar in box), and allow for off-graph probability lying between $S = 10$ K and $S = 20$ K.

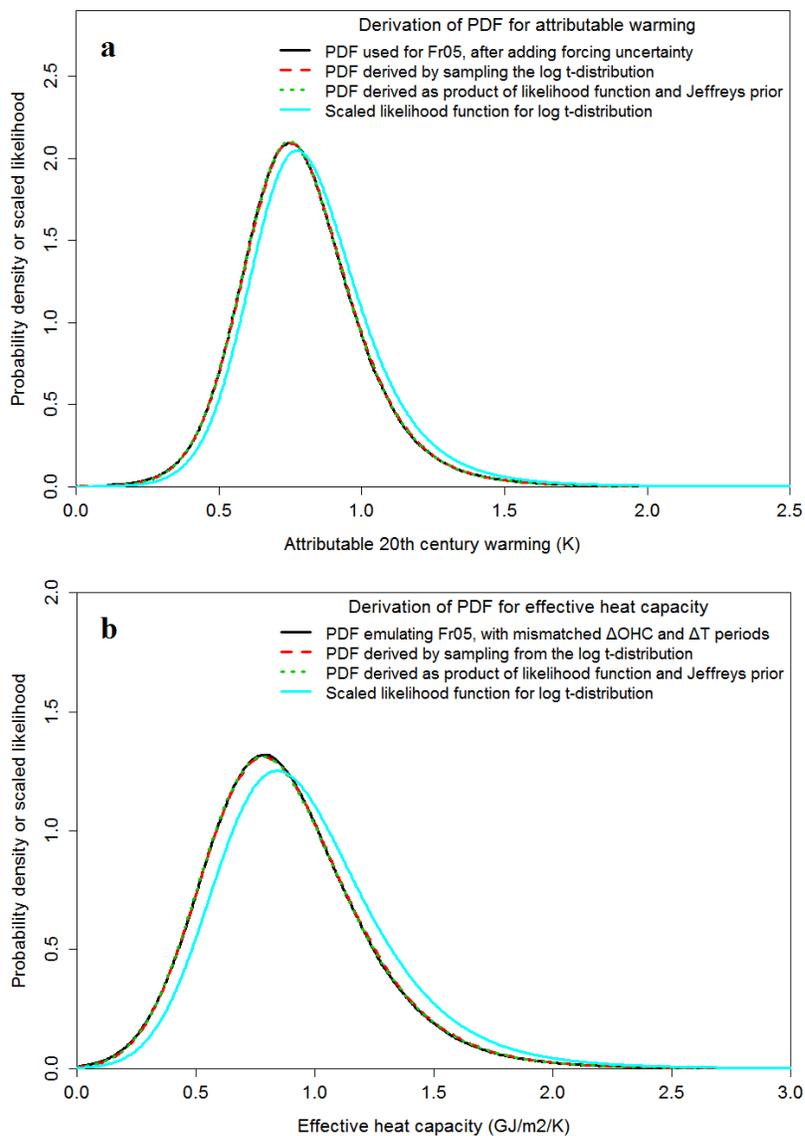


FIG. 3: Posterior PDFs and likelihood functions for attributable 20th century warming T_A and effective heat capacity C_H . The overlying black, red and green lines show PDFs respectively calculated as set out in Section 2, derived by sampling from the shifted log-t

distributions and derived by multiplying the estimated likelihood function by the related Jeffreys' prior, applying Bayes' theorem. The cyan lines show the estimated likelihood functions. The Fr05 version of C_H , which does not correctly match the OHC and T_G data, has been used in order to give a like-for-like comparison with Fr05.

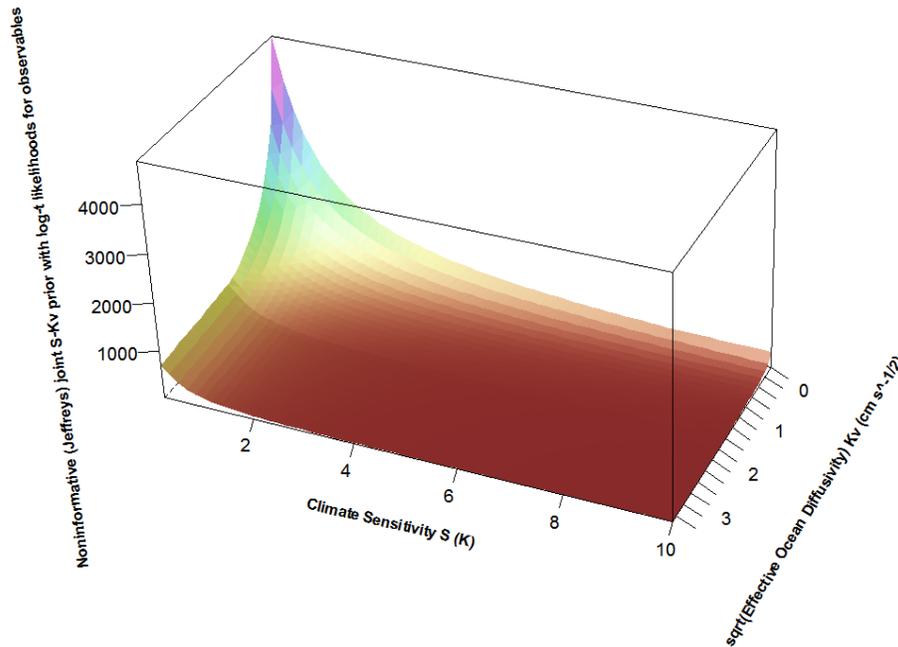


FIG. 4: Noninformative (Jeffreys') joint prior for S and K_v for inference from T_A and C_H likelihoods. The much sharper peak in the low climate sensitivity, low effective ocean diffusivity corner and lower values elsewhere than in Figure 1 reflects the fact that the observational data is most precise in the region that corresponds to that corner of parameter space and becomes increasingly less precise away from it, in addition to the responsiveness of the observations to changes in the parameters reducing as they move away from the low climate sensitivity, low effective ocean diffusivity corner. When performing Bayesian inference about the parameters from T_A and C_H likelihoods, rather than using the objective estimated PDFs for their true values and undertaking a

transformation of variables to parameter space, a noninformative prior will reflect that declining precision in addition to the Jacobian determinant applicable to the transformation of variables.

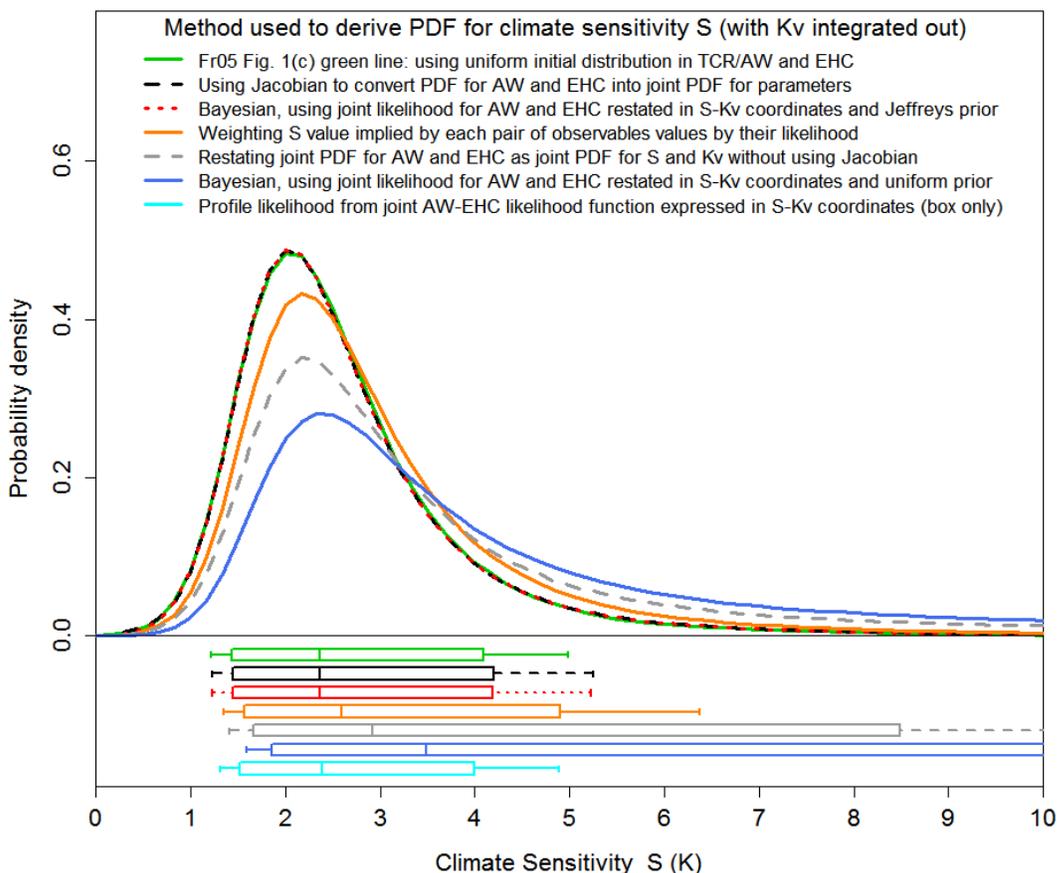


FIG. 5. Estimated marginal PDFs for climate sensitivity derived on various bases. The match between the overlying black and red lines shows that the conversion of the joint posterior PDF for the observables into a PDF for the parameters S and K_v by a transformation of variables using the Jacobian determinant, giving the black line, and objective Bayesian inference from the combined likelihood functions for T_A and C_H using the Figure 4 noninformative prior, giving the red line, are equivalent. The coral line

shows that assuming a uniform initial distribution in the observables does not give the same result. The blue line shows how poorly the PDF is constrained when an informative, subjective, uniform prior in the parameters is used. Two other PDFs are given for comparison. The green line is the same as the dashed green line in Figure 2. The (dashed) grey line is the same as the grey line in Figure 2. The box plots indicate boundaries, to the nearest grid value, for the percentiles 5–95 (vertical bar at ends), 10-90 (box-ends), and 50 (vertical bar in box), and allow for off-graph probability lying between $S = 10$ K and $S = 20$ K. The cyan box plot shows confidence intervals derived by a profile likelihood method (the vertical bar in the box showing the likelihood profile peak).