# **Climate Dynamics**

# Potential impacts of climate change on European wind energy resource under the CMIP5 future climate projections --Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	This work focused on possible impacts of climate changes on future European wind energy resource, using the latest IPCC future climate projections derived from the CMIP5 project. Although wind energy plays a key role in the goal of replacing fossil fuels by renewable energy sources, and thus minimize future climate changes, it is also sensitive to climate change itself due to hypothetical changes in the future atmospheric flow patterns. This study focuses on Europe, one of the main areas in terms of installed wind-derived electricity generating capacity in the world. This work comprised two stages: first, to assess the CMIP5 GCMs that best reproduce contemporary near surface wind speeds over Europe. The validation of these CMIP5 GCMs wind data for the contemporary period serves as a solid and important background for the upcoming CMIP5 GCMs downscaling initiatives to regional and local scales. Secondly, data from the best GCMs was used to quantify and assess future changes in the wind energetic resource and their geographical distributions over Europe, together with its intra- and inter-annual variability. Research about the GCMs wind climate future projections provides an important preliminary picture of changes in large-scale wind energetic resource over Europe.		
	The results presented show that, although the CMIP5 global models are still not able to represent satisfactorily the contemporary wind speed climatology over Europe, the models HadGEM2-ES, HadGEM2-CC, ACCESS 1.3 and ACCESS 1.0 showed the best ability to represent the contemporary near surface wind speed climatology over Europe. Using data from these models, the future European wind energy resource tends to be lower than the one presently available, due to a decreasing tendency of the large-scale wind speeds over the current century, especially in the end of the current century and under scenarios of stronger radiative forcing. Some exceptions to this decreasing tendency of future wind speeds are detected in Central/Northern Europe, Turkey and in the Iberian Peninsula, where the wind energy resource can slightly increase in future. Changes can be expected in the intra-annual variability due to wind		

	speeds decrease in cold seasons and increase in warmer seasons, particularly at the end of the current century and under scenarios of stronger radiative forcing. Oppositely, no significant changes in the inter-annual variability are expected over Europe during the current century. The validation results of this study showed the poor ability of the CMIP5 global models to represent realistically the past-present European wind speed climatology, and the use of such coarse models can be considered as somewhat over-simplistic and insufficiently detailed for the desired purposes. Notwithstanding, the findings presented herein can serve as an important background for future downscaling initiatives of CMIP5 data to regional and local scales, and should be seen as a preliminary warning that a continuous increase of greenhouse gases emissions can jeopardize our ability to mitigate such emissions, at least in what is related to the role and contribution of wind energy. However, it needs to be borne in mind the significant uncertainty associated to global models future climate projections. Thus, the information provided by these models should be seen as a preliminary picture of the large scale future tendencies of the wind energy resource, and further research focused on these themes should be performed by downscaling CMIP5 GCMs output to regional and local scales in order to better represent the topography and land use and thus better simulate near surface winds.
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# Potential impacts of climate change on European wind energy resource under the CMIP5 future climate projections

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### 22 Abstract

23 This work focused on possible impacts of climate changes on future European wind energy resource, 24 using the latest IPCC future climate projections derived from the CMIP5 project. Although wind energy 25 plays a key role in the goal of replacing fossil fuels by renewable energy sources, and thus minimize 26 future climate changes, it is also sensitive to climate change itself due to hypothetical changes in the 27 future atmospheric flow patterns. This study focuses on Europe, one of the main areas in terms of 28 installed wind-derived electricity generating capacity in the world. This work comprised two stages: 29 first, to assess the CMIP5 GCMs that best reproduce contemporary near surface wind speeds over 30 Europe. The validation of these CMIP5 GCMs wind data for the contemporary period serves as a solid 31 and important background for the upcoming CMIP5 GCMs downscaling initiatives to regional and local 32 scales. Secondly, data from the best GCMs was used to quantify and assess future changes in the 33 wind energetic resource and their geographical distributions over Europe, together with its intra- and 34 inter-annual variability. Research about the GCMs wind climate future projections provides an 35 important preliminary picture of changes in large-scale wind energetic resource over Europe.

36 The results presented show that, although the CMIP5 global models are still not able to represent 37 satisfactorily the contemporary wind speed climatology over Europe, the models HadGEM2-ES, 38 HadGEM2-CC, ACCESS 1.3 and ACCESS 1.0 showed the best ability to represent the contemporary 39 near surface wind speed climatology over Europe. Using data from these models, the future European 40 wind energy resource tends to be lower than the one presently available, due to a decreasing 41 tendency of the large-scale wind speeds over the current century, especially in the end of the current 42 century and under scenarios of stronger radiative forcing. Some exceptions to this decreasing 43 tendency of future wind speeds are detected in Central/Northern Europe, Turkey and in the Iberian 44 Peninsula, where the wind energy resource can slightly increase in future. Changes can be expected 45 in the intra-annual variability due to wind speeds decrease in cold seasons and increase in warmer 46 seasons, particularly at the end of the current century and under scenarios of stronger radiative 47 forcing. Oppositely, no significant changes in the inter-annual variability are expected over Europe 48 during the current century.

The validation results of this study showed the poor ability of the CMIP5 global models to represent realistically the past-present European wind speed climatology, and the use of such coarse models 51 can be considered as somewhat over-simplistic and insufficiently detailed for the desired purposes. 52 Notwithstanding, the findings presented herein can serve as an important background for future 53 downscaling initiatives of CMIP5 data to regional and local scales, and should be seen as a 54 preliminary warning that a continuous increase of greenhouse gases emissions can jeopardize our 55 ability to mitigate such emissions, at least in what is related to the role and contribution of wind energy. 56 However, it needs to be borne in mind the significant uncertainty associated to global models future 57 climate projections. Thus, the information provided by these models should be seen as a preliminary 58 picture of the large scale future tendencies of the wind energy resource, and further research focused 59 on these themes should be performed by downscaling CMIP5 GCMs output to regional and local 60 scales in order to better represent the topography and land use and thus better simulate near surface 61 winds.

62 Keywords: Wind energy, Climate change; CMIP5; IPCC; Global models; Europe

### 64 **1 – Introduction**

The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) Assessment Report 5 (IPCC AR5, 65 2013) includes the latest existent knowledge about the scientific, technical and socio-66 67 economic aspects of climate change. According to this report, the 1983-2012 period was 68 likely the warmest 30-year period of the last 1400 years in the Northern Hemisphere. The Wold Meteorological Organization (WMO) also confirmed this global warming trend: based 69 on measured temperatures since 1850, 13 of the 14 warmest years were observed in the 21<sup>st</sup> 70 71 century. IPCC AR5 projects that global temperatures can rise 1 to 5°C over the next 100 72 years, depending on the amounts of greenhouse gases (GHG) emitted and the sensitivity of the climate system. As for sea-level changes, the same report foresees a rise comprised 73 74 between 28 and 98 cm by the end of the current century, and to more than 3 meters by 2300. 75 If no GHG emission mitigation strategies are employed, the Arctic Ocean will likely become virtually ice-free in summer before the middle of the current century (IPCC AR5, 2013). This 76 report also confirms that it is virtually certain (>95%) that human activity has been the main 77 cause of the observed increasing temperatures since the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century. Other possible 78 factors, such as natural internal variability of the climate system and natural external forcings 79 (variation of solar activity, activity of volcanoes, etc.), are considered to have a marginal 80 contribution to global warming. These human-induced climate changes are mainly forced by 81 82 the continuously increasing emissions of GHG (mainly CO<sub>2</sub>) to the atmosphere, being well 83 established that one of the main emission sources of GHG is the electricity generation from 84 fossil fuels combustion (IPCC AR4, 2007; IPCC AR5, 2013).

Renewable energies are a cornerstone in the reduction of GHG emissions and consequent mitigation of changes in the global climatic system. Of all the renewable energy sources presently used for electricity generation, wind is one of the leaders in terms of installed generating capacity, fastest growth and technological maturity, being the second leading renewable energy source worldwide only exceeded in terms of installed capacity by hydropower (Santos et al., 2015). Europe has been leading the efforts in expanding the

contribution of renewable energy sources to the overall electricity production and
consumption, setting a binding target of 20% of energy obtained from renewable sources to
achieve by 2020 (Carvalho et al., 2013a; Pryor and Barthelmie, 2010). Wind can provide up
to one third of this target value and, considering the current wind-derived energy growth rate.
It is projected that its electrical generating installed capacity can increase up to fivefold in the
upcoming decade (de Vries, 2008a and 2008b).

97 Although wind energy growth is part of the solution to reduce GHG emissions and consequently mitigate future climate change, this renewable energy source is sensitive to 98 climate change itself, due to hypothetical changes in the future atmospheric flow patterns. 99 100 Since the wind energetic potential varies with the wind speed cubed, even apparently small variations in future wind circulation patterns and characteristics can strongly impact future 101 102 wind energy production (Carvalho et al., 2012b). Variations in the future mean wind speeds and their geographical distribution will change the wind resource of a given region, while 103 104 changes in its future inter- and intra-annual variability can affect the reliability of the produced 105 wind-derived electricity (Pryor and Barthelmie, 2010). The higher the intra-annual variability 106 (this is, the variability within a year-period), the more variable will be the injection of the produced energy into the electrical grid, causing supply-demand balancing problems and 107 108 enhancing the need to perform short-term wind energy production forecasts. Inter-annual 109 variability (the variability between different years) is a key issue for the economic feasibility of 110 a wind farm. The typical lifetime of wind farms currently in operation is typically 20 to 30 years, and the question of whether the wind farm expected energy yield will significantly vary 111 112 during its lifetime can determine the success or failure of the wind farm project as a whole.

IPCC AR5 relies on the World Climate Research Programme (WCRP) Fifth Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP5), a globally coordinated set of global coupled atmosphereocean general circulation models (AOGCMs) simulations (for more details see Taylor et al., 2012). CMIP5 output, the latest available data regarding future climate change projections, allows the evaluation of how the models realistically simulate the recent past and present,

and provides projections of future climate changes from the present date up to 2100 (and 118 beyond, for some models and experiments). CMIP5 is the successor of the CMIP3, which 119 120 served as basis of the IPCC fourth assessment report (IPCC AR4, 2007). When compared to 121 the older generation models used in CMIP3, the new state-of-the-art models used in CMIP5 offer higher spatial resolutions, improved physical process descriptions, improvements in the 122 representation of external forcings and interaction between the atmosphere, land use and 123 vegetation. Moreover, CMIP5 introduced a new breed of AOGCMs: the Earth System Models 124 125 (ESMs). ESMs are currently the state-of-the-art models, expanding on AOGCMs by including additional earth system components such as atmospheric chemistry, biogeochemical cycles, 126 aerosols, ozone, sulphur and carbon cycles (Taylor et al., 2012; Brands et al., 2013). ESMs 127 constitute the most comprehensive tools presently available for simulating the climate system 128 129 future response to external forcings, in which biogeochemical feedbacks play a key role (IPCC AR5). 130

131 CMIP5 future climate projections, called Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs), describe hypothetical future climate scenarios based on the emissions rate of GHG (more 132 details are available in Moss et al., 2010). These RCPs make use of a broad range of 133 134 anthropogenic climate forcings, such as aerosols, GHG, land use and chemically active 135 gases (Bracegirdle et al., 2013; Meinshausen et al., 2011). When compared to their predecessors - the IPCC AR4/CMIP3 Special Reports on Emissions Scenarios (SRES) -136 137 RCPs consider new and larger amounts of data such as socio-economic aspects, emerging technologies, land use and land cover changes (Moss et al., 2010). 138

This work aims to assess and quantify the impacts of the latest CMIP5 future climate projections on the wind energetic resource in Europe, one of the main areas in terms of installed wind-derived electricity generating capacity and one of the main boosters of further growth and penetration of wind-derived energy in the world. To this end, data from CMIP5 project is used to build future projections of near surface wind speed and energy density geographical distributions over Europe, and to quantify how different from the past-present

are the future scenarios for wind energy production. As far as the authors are aware, there is 145 still no published literature that addresses this issue in light of the new CMIP5 future climate 146 147 projections for the European continent as a whole. However, the study of Sterl et al. (2014) 148 focused on possible impacts of climate changes on future large-scale wind climate over the Netherlands by downscaling CMIP5 future climate projections, concluding that climate 149 changes will not likely change Netherlands and the North Sea wind climate beyond the range 150 151 of the typical natural climate variability. As for other areas of the globe, the study of Kulkarni 152 and Huang (2014) considers CMIP5 data on the evaluation of possible changes in surface wind speeds over North American territory. This work concludes that the projected future 153 changes in surface wind speeds are moderate and no significant changes in North American 154 wind power potential are to be expected in the future due to GHG induced climate changes. 155 156 Also the study of Chen et al. (2013) uses CMIP5 data to investigate the impact of climate change on wind speeds, but now for the Chinese territory, concluding that geographical 157 distributions of wind speed over China at the end of the 21<sup>st</sup> century do not show significant 158 159 differences when compared to those of the last 35 years. Considering earlier IPCC 160 assessment reports and future climate projections such as the IPCC AR4/CMIP3, and also downscaling initiatives that followed them such as the PRUDENCE (Christensen and 161 Christensen, 2007) and ENSEMBLES (ENSEMBLES, 2006) projects, there is a good 162 163 background in published studies focusing on climate changes impacts in wind power 164 resource over Europe. Pryor and Barthelmie (2010) reviewed the published literature 165 regarding climate change impacts on wind energy. According to this review, by the end of the current century the mean wind resource in Europe can suffer small magnitude changes, with 166 indications that wind energy density and annual mean wind speeds in winter can increase in 167 168 northern Europe and decrease in the south of the continent (Pryor et al., 2005a; Bloom et al., 2008; Walter et al., 2006). Santos et al. (2015) analyzed changes in future wind energy 169 potential over the Iberian Peninsula considering the A1B IPCC AR4/CMIP3 SRES scenario, 170 downscaled by a regional circulation models (RCM), and concluded that these climate 171 172 change projections show significant decreases in the future wind energy production potential

over most of the Iberian Peninsula. Pryor et al. (2005b) performed a statistical downscaling 173 of one global circulation model (GCM) on the Baltic States and projected a decrease of the 174 175 wind speed and energy density by 2071-2100. Cradden et al. (2012) assessed if climate 176 changes could affect wind energy development in the UK, considering three different IPCC AR4/CMIP3 SRES scenarios. The authors concluded that the typical UK wind speed intra-177 annual variability (higher in winter and lower in summer) could be larger in the future due to 178 179 climate changes, but did not find any conclusive evidence of a marked future change in wind 180 energy resource in any area of the UK. To sum up, until the present moment there is in the published research a consensus that no significant changes in future European wind climate 181 182 are to be expected due to climate warming. Instead, natural variability seems to be the main reason for changes in global decadal and centurial wind climatology, and this will likely 183 184 continue to be in the upcoming century. Nevertheless, and although significant uncertainty still remains on how future wind climatologies will change over Europe, several recent 185 studies have reported a decline tendency in observed near-surface wind speeds and in 186 187 indices based on wind power generation during the past decades in Europe (Bakker et al., 188 2013; Brázdil et al., 2009; Pirazzoli and Tomasin, 2003; Smits et al., 2012; Vautard et al., 2010). 189

190 The significant uncertainty of these projected climate changes should be borne in mind. 191 GCMs show strong limitations in realistically represent past and present wind climates 192 (mainly related to their coarse spatial resolution), whilst RCMs downscaling of these GCMs output show high inter-model variability and uncertainty regarding the climate change signal 193 194 (Pryor and Barthelmie, 2010). Nevertheless, the continuous effort devoted to the evolution of GCMs (AOGCMs and ESMs included), RCMs and their input data poses the challenge to 195 continuously investigate their latest future climate projections. Several CMIP5 data 196 downscaling projects are currently under progress, namely the CORDEX project (http://wcrp-197 198 cordex.ipsl.jussieu.fr/) and, more specifically, the EURO-CORDEX branch of the CORDEX project that downscales CMIP5 data for Europe (http://www.euro-cordex.net/). Thus, it 199 becomes relevant to compare and assess the performance of the several GCMs, in order to 200

201 select the one(s) with the best performance(s) as candidate(s) for downscaling applications. This work also aims to assess the performance of CMIP5 GCMs in what is related to their 202 203 ability to realistically represent past and present near surface wind climatology in Europe. 204 This validation is expected to be of great value to downscaling initiatives focused on climate change impact on wind energy, since no information is presently available regarding the 205 individual performance of each CMIP5 GCM in representing contemporary near surface 206 207 winds. Brands et al. (2013) highlighted the importance of GCM validation for downscaling 208 applications, assessing which CMIP5 GCMs show better ability to reproduce present climate 209 conditions in Europe and Africa and, therefore, can be seen as the best candidate(s) for use in downscaling applications. The authors concluded that the CMIP5 ESM models HadGEM2-210 ES and MPI-ESM-LR outperform the other models along the lateral boundaries of the several 211 212 CORDEX regional domains.

213 Thus, the present work comprises two main stages. First, near surface wind speed data from 214 21 CMIP5 GCMs are compared against a reanalysis dataset, in order to identify the GCM(s) that best reproduce contemporary near surface wind speeds over Europe. After, data from 215 these GCMs is used to preliminarily quantify and assess future changes in the large-scale 216 217 wind energetic resource and their geographical distributions over Europe, together with its 218 intra- and inter-annual variability. While the validation of CMIP5 GCMs wind data for the 219 contemporary period will serve as a solid and important background for the upcoming CMIP5 220 GCMs downscaling initiatives to regional and local scales focused on wind energy, research 221 about the GCMs future wind speed projections will provide an important preliminary picture of 222 potential changes in large-scale wind energy resource over Europe.

# 223 **2 – Data and methodology**

#### 224 2.1 – CMIP5 data and experiments

CMIP5 GCMs near surface wind data regarding the past-present period and two RCPs future
 climate projections were considered in this work. This near surface wind data reports to 10 m

227 above ground/mean sea level, while typical wind turbines are placed at 80-120 m above ground/mean sea level. Since the CMIP5 GCMs do not provide output regarding winds at 228 229 these heights, this near surface 10 m wind data was considered as the best estimator of the 230 wind at typical wind turbines height. Although near surface winds are lower than the ones at 80-120 m, both are highly correlated (Kulkarni and Huang, 2014). Since the aim of this work 231 232 is to compare past-present with future winds and not to quantify them, it can be expected that 233 changes between past-present and future near surface winds are of similar magnitude to the 234 ones expected at higher heights.

Past-present near surface wind data was extracted from the historical run, performed to 235 236 characterize the contemporary period (1986-2005). This run was forced by observed atmospheric composition changes, both from anthropogenic and natural sources, and time-237 238 evolving land cover (Taylor et al., 2012). Future wind data was obtained from future climate projections of two RCPs. One somewhat pessimistic, although realistic, which basically 239 240 assumes that no GHG mitigation actions will be employed in the upcoming decades and GHG emission rates will continue to grow at the rates witnessed in the last decades (the 241 242 RCP 8.5); and a more optimistic scenario, which foresees a reduction of GHG emissions, the 243 RCP 4.5.

RCP 8.5 is a "business as usual" emission scenario, characterized by escalating GHG 244 emissions and high concentration levels of these gases in the atmosphere. RCP 8.5 can be 245 seen as the projection of future GHG concentration and radiative forcing if no emissions 246 mitigation strategies are employed until the end of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. The numerical value 247 assigned to a RCP translates its radiative forcing present in 2100. Thus, RCP 8.5 radiative 248 forcing (CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent emissions) peaks at 2100 with a value of 8.5 W.m<sup>-2</sup>, approximately 249 1370 ppm of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent concentration. The RCP 4.5 is a midrange stabilization 250 251 scenario, where GHG emissions are mitigated by policy actions, strategies and technologies, employed to achieve emission targets before 2100 (Taylor et al., 2012). In this scenario, the 252 radiative forcing and GHG emissions peak around 2070-2080 with a value of 8.5 W.m<sup>-2</sup> 253

(approx. 650 ppm of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent concentration) and stabilizes further on, remaining
constant beyond this peak.

For both RCPs, the following time windows were considered: near future, ranging from 2016

to 2035; medium-term future, from 2046 to 2065; and long term future, from 2081 to 2100.

The spatial domain considered in this work was based on the EURO-CORDEX one, but

slightly expanded in order to include the Portuguese Azores and Madeira archipelagos, and

the Spanish Canary islands.

#### 261 **2.2 – Validation of CMIP5 models**

For the assessment of which CMIP5 GCMs best describe the contemporary wind resource over Europe, all CMIP5 models with available daily average near surface wind speed data for the historical and the two RCPs here considered were selected. The models that fulfilled these requisites are listed in Table 1.

Model	Modelling Center	Type of GCM	Horizontal resolution (lat/lon)
ACCESS 1.0	CSIRO-BOM (Australia)	ESM	1.25º / 1.875º
ACCESS 1.3	CSIRO-BOM (Australia)	ESM	1.25º / 1.875º
BNU-ESM	GCESS (China)	ESM	2.8º / 2.8º
CanESM2	CCCma (Canada)	ESM	2.8º / 2.8º
CMCC-CMS	CMCC (Italy)	AOGCM	2º / 2º
CNRM-CM5	CNRM-CERFACS (France)	AOGCM	1.4º / 1.4º
CSIRO-Mk 3.6.0	CSIRO-QCCCE (Australia)	AOGCM	1.9º / 1.9º
GFDL-CM3	NOAA GFDL (USA)	AOGCM	2º / 2.5º
GFDL-ESM2G	NOAA GFDL (USA)	ESM	2º / 2.5º
GFDL-ESM2M	NOAA GFDL (USA)	ESM	2º / 2.5º
HadGEM2-CC	MOHC (UK)	ESM	1.25º / 1.875º
HadGEM2-ES	MOHC (UK)	ESM	1.25º / 1.875º
IPSL-CM5A-LR	IPSL (France)	ESM	1.875º / 3.75º
IPSL-CM5A-MR	IPSL (France)	ESM	1.25º / 2.5º
IPSL-CM5B-LR	IPSL (France)	ESM	1.875º / 3.75º
MIROC-ESM	MIROC (Japan)	ESM	2.8º / 2.8º
MIROC-ESM-CHEM	MIROC (Japan)	ESM	2.8º / 2.8º
MIROC5	MIROC (Japan)	AOGCM	1.4º / 1.4º

266 **Table 1** – Main characteristics of the considered CMIP5 models

MPI-ESM-LR	MPI-M (Germany)	ESM	1.9º / 1.875º
MPI-ESM-MR	MPI-M (Germany)	ESM	1.9º / 1.875º
MRI-CGCM3	MRI (Japan)	AOGCM	1.125º / 1.125º

The validation of these models was performed as follows. First, and due to the fact that these 267 21 models have different native horizontal resolutions (Table 1), all models historical near 268 269 surface wind speed grids were remapped to a regular 1.5° lat/lon grid (an intermediate resolution given the native resolutions of all models). Afterwards, 20-year historical wind 270 speed medians (instead of the mean, in order to avoid normality fitting restrictions and outlier 271 272 contamination) were computed from the daily near surface wind speed time series for all models and grid points, and each model historical wind speed median grid was compared 273 with ERA-Interim wind speed 20-year median grid. ERA-Interim reanalysis were selected as 274 "real wind" data source, not only because they are widely recognized as a superior quality 275 276 reanalysis product (especially for the European territory), but also because it is the official 277 validation dataset used for the CORDEX CMIP5 dynamical downscaling initiatives (Brands et 278 al., 2013). The most important aspect to assess in terms of validation is if the wind speed 279 data from the CMIP5 GCMs and from ERA-Interim come from the same continuous 280 distribution. Since wind speeds are generally not normally distributed, the non-parameteric two-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) test (Gibbons and Chakraborti, 2011) was applied to 281 the CMIP5 GCMs and ERA-Interim wind speed datasets for each grid point, with a 5% 282 significance level. The KS test tests the null hypothesis that two samples belong to the same 283 continuous distributions (with the same shape and location), against the alternative 284 hypothesis that they are from different distributions (different in shape and/or location). The 285 CMIP5 GCMs with the highest number of grid points where the KS test shows that their wind 286 speed data is from the same distribution as ERA-Interim were considered the ones that 287 better represent the contemporary (historical) period wind climatology over Europe and, 288 consequently, those used to assess climate change impacts on wind energy. 289

For the following sections, data from these selected GCMs was organized in a multi-model
ensemble (MME) strategy where, for each time period and RCP, data from the selected

GCMs was concatenated into one multi-model ensemble. This multi-model ensemble strategy is a way to minimize the individual model biases, since it is expected that the multimodel ensemble mean (or median) shows lower uncertainties and better results than each individual model (Pires et al., 2014). This fact is supported by several studies that compared individual models and multi-model ensemble means with observed data (Ra isa nen and Palmer, 2001; Pierce et al., 2009; Annan and Hargreaves, 2010).

#### 298 **2.3 – Impacts of climate change on future wind energy resource**

MME data was used to evaluate climate change impacts on future wind energetic resource over Europe. These impacts were quantified and assessed in three different categories: (i) future changes in the wind speed and energy density medians; (ii) intra- and (iii) inter-annual variability of the wind speed and energy density.

#### 303 **2.3.1 – Climate change impacts in future wind energetic resource**

304 The main and most direct mechanism from which climate change can affect future wind energetic resource is by altering the average wind speed (and consequently the available 305 wind energy density) of a given area. To assess possible changes in future wind speed and 306 307 wind energy density in Europe (and their respective geographical distributions) due to climate 308 changes, MME historical daily wind speed and energy density data was compared to future daily wind speed and energy density data, for the two RCPs and three future time windows 309 considered. The wind energy density (also called wind power flux) is derived from equation 1, 310 where U is the wind speed and  $\rho$  is the air density (the standard value of 1.225 kg.m<sup>-3</sup> was 311 assumed). 312

313 
$$P_{flux} = \frac{1}{2} * \rho * U^3$$
 (1)

Changes in future wind energetic resource were evaluated by comparing, for each grid point, the wind speed and energy density historical and future 20-year MME medians, for all RCPs and time windows. The existence of statistically significant differences between the historical

and future medians is evaluated by applying the Mann-Whitney (or Wilcoxon rank sum) nonparametric test (Gibbons and Chakraborti, 2011), with a 5% significance level. The MannWhitney test tests the null hypothesis of two data samples belonging to continuous
distributions with equal medians, against the alternative that they do not.

321 To further detail future changes in the wind energetic resource, the aforementioned 322 methodology was repeated but now in a seasonal perspective. For this purpose, all data and analysis were divided into seasons: Winter, comprising the months of December, January 323 and February; Spring, with the months of March, April and May; Summer, corresponding the 324 months of June, July and August: and Autumn, between September and November. 325 326 Changes in future wind energetic resource were evaluated by comparing, for each grid point, the wind speed and energy density historical and future MME medians of the four seasons, 327 328 for all RCP's and time windows. The Mann-Whitney test for the difference of medians was again used to assess the statistical significance of differences in the seasonal medians. 329

#### 330 **2.3.2 – Climate change impacts in future wind energy intra-annual variability**

In order to analyze future changes in the wind energetic resource intra-annual variability,
annual median absolute deviations (MAD) were computed for the historical and future wind
speed and energy density MME data. MAD (Sachs, 1984) is a non-parametric measure of
the sample variability around its median, and is given by the following equation:

$$MAD = median\left[|X_i - median(X)|\right]$$
(1)

MAD can be considered as a non-parametric equivalent of the standard deviation or
variance. It is a very robust scale estimator, with the best possible breakdown point (50%,
the double of the interquartile range) and its influence function has the sharpest bound
among all scale estimators (Rousseeuw and Croux, 1993).

Annual MAD data series were computed for each historical and future 20-year periods,
resulting in three-dimensional grids where the temporal dimension has 20 elements (20

years). Each one of these temporal element is an annual MAD, the median absolute 342 deviation regarding that year. After, the median of these annual MADs was computed for 343 344 each grid point, in order to produce an estimate of the average intra-annual variability of each 345 20-year period (the historical and future 20-year periods). Differences between the historical 346 and future annual MAD medians were quantified and analyzed. For each grid point, differences between historical and future wind speed and energy density annual MAD 347 348 medians can be seen as indicators of changes in wind speed and energy density intra-349 annual variability. The statistical significance of these annual MAD median differences was evaluated with the Mann-Whitney test, with a significance level of 5%. 350

# 2.3.3 – Climate change impacts in future wind speed and wind energy density inter annual variability

To assess hypothetical changes in future inter-annual variability, all daily wind speed and 353 354 energy density MME data was averaged to annual wind speed and energy density records. Although wind speeds are not usually normally distributed, annual mean wind speeds can be 355 356 realistically characterized by a normal distribution (European Wind Energy Association, 357 2009). These annual mean wind speed and energy density data series were computed for each historical and future 20-year periods, resulting in three-dimensional grids where the 358 359 temporal dimension has 20 elements (20 years). Each one of these temporal element is the 360 annual mean wind speed and energy density regarding that year. The standard deviation of each one of these annual means data series will quantify their inter-annual variability. Thus, 361 362 differences between the standard deviations of two annual means data series will quantify changes in the inter-annual variability. 363

For each grid point, the differences between historical and future standard deviations were analyzed and the respective statistical significance of such differences computed. Statistical significance of standard deviation differences was evaluated using the F-test with a significance level of 5% assuming, as previously mentioned, that wind speed and energy density annual means data series can be fitted to a normal distribution. The F-test asses the

null hypothesis that the data in two samples comes from normal distributions with the same
variance, against the alternative hypothesis that they come from normal distributions with
different variances.

# **372 3 – Results and discussion**

#### 373 **3.1 – Validation of CMIP5 models**

The validation results of the 21 CMIP5 models are presented here. Figure 1 shows the differences between ERA-Interim and each model historical wind speed medians, together with the KS test output. For grid cells where the KS test shows statistically significant differences, the grid cell is coloured in grey. For grid cells where the KS test does not show statistically significant differences (this is, the model grid cell is in accordance with ERA-Interim), the grid cell is coloured according to the ERA-Interim and CMIP5 model wind speed median difference for that grid cell.

















Figure 1 - Wind speed median differences (CMIP5 model minus ERA-Interim) with a KS test (5% of significance level)

393 Figure 1 shows that, in general, none of the CMIP5 GCMs is able to satisfactorily represent 394 the wind speed distributions over Europe. In all models, the majority of the grid points show 395 different wind speed distributions from those from ERA-Interim. These results, although not encouraging, are not wholly surprising and it was previously reported that GCMs are not 396 typically able to accurately reproduce contemporary wind climates or historical trends (Pryor 397 and Barthelmie, 2010). The typical GCMs coarse resolution does not allow an accurate 398 399 representation of near surface meteorological variables such as near surface winds, due to a weak representation of the Earth's surface. Near surface winds depend strongly on the 400 surrounding terrain characteristics, mainly topography and land use (which determines the 401 surface roughness). Thus, a limited representation of the terrain characteristics will lead to 402 403 substantial errors in the representation of near surface atmospheric flows (Carvalho et al., 404 2012a; 2013b; 2014a; 2014b; 2014c; 2014d; Alvarez et al., 2013). Chen et al. (2012) investigated possible causes of the differences between nine CMIP5 GCMs near surface 405 wind fields and reanalysis output, by examining the differences between geopotential height 406 407 gradients from the GCMs and the reanalysis, reporting that the upper air pressure gradients 408 characteristics are considerably better captured by the GCMs than the near-surface wind speeds. This finding supports the hypothesis that the GCMs topography and land use weak 409 410 representation may be one of the major error sources in the simulation of near-surface wind 411 speeds, not properly simulating the atmosphere-surface coupling and interaction. Not

surprisingly, the CMIP5 GCMs grid points that are in accordance to ERA-Interim are mostly 412 413 located in ocean areas, where limitations in the representation of surface characteristics are 414 obviously attenuated. McInnes et al. (2011) also reported that a 19 CMIP3 AOGCMs 415 ensemble exhibit lower skills over land areas, by comparing this multi-model ensemble winds with reanalysis winds for the period 1981-2000. The interaction between the surface and 416 adjacent atmosphere will ultimately result in medium- to small-scale atmospheric circulations. 417 Thus, this type of global models has their strength in representing large-scale meteorological 418 419 and climatic trends. Albeit reanalysis products, such as ERA-Interim, usually have similar 420 resolutions and suffer from the same terrain representation limitations, they incorporate and assimilate significant amounts of observed meteorological data. Therefore, unlike pure GCM 421 422 output, reanalysis products may be able, at least to some extent, to depict medium-scale 423 wind circulations and this fact can explain the differences detected between CMIP5 GCMs and ERA-Interim reanalysis. 424

425 Nevertheless, from Figure 1 four GCMs stand out with the highest number of grid points 426 similar to ERA-Interim in terms of wind speed distributions: HadGEM2-ES (180 valid grid points), ACCESS 1.3 (177 valid grid points), ACCESS 1.0 (174 valid grid points) and 427 HadGEM2-CC (137 valid points). Also for these models, the differences between their wind 428 429 speed medians and ERA-Interim ones is relatively small. Oppositely, CanESM2 (with no 430 valid grid points), IPSL-CM5A-LR (5 valid grid points), MRI-CGCM3 and CNRM-CM5 (both 431 with only 8 valid grid points) are the models with worst performance. Therefore, the HadGEM2-ES, HadGEM2-CC, ACCESS 1.0 and ACCESS 1.3 GCMs were chosen as the 432 models that best represent contemporary wind speed climatology and the ones that may 433 434 have the best performance in simulating future wind climate due to climate change. Thus, 435 data from these four models was used to build the MME dataset. The overall superiority of HadGEM2-ES model (as well as its earlier CMIP3 version, the HadGEM2) was previously 436 reported in other studies such as Brands et al. (2013) and Brands et al. (2011). These 437 differences among the several CMIP5 GCMs performances in representing contemporary 438 439 wind climates should be seriously considered in dynamical downscaling applications focused

on wind energy, given the typical equiprobable treatment of the driving models in these
dynamical downscaling studies (Brands et al., 2013). Only the models with the best
performances should be used as source of initial and boundary data in dynamical
downscaling applications, in order to minimize RCM (or RCMs ensemble) simulations errors.

Thus, the use of GCM models such as the ones here tested can be considered as somewhat over-simplistic and insufficiently detailed to analyze these issues, due to their inherent limitations and uncertainties. Adding to this fact, these results revealed the inability of the CMIP5 global models here considered to realistically represent the past-present European wind speed climatology. Nevertheless, it is expected that information from GCMs can provide, at least, a preliminary picture of future changes in the large-scale European wind speed climatology.

#### 451 **3.2 – Climate change impacts in future wind energetic resource**

452 Climate change impacts on future wind energy resource and their respective geographical distributions in Europe are analyzed in this section. To this end, MME wind speed and 453 energy density historical and future 20-year medians are compared and the statistical 454 significance of such differences assessed. Figures 2 and 3 show wind speed (left column) 455 456 and energy density (right column) median differences (future vs. historical) for RCP 8.5. Grey 457 colour represents areas with no median differences according to the Mann-Whitney test (5% 458 significance level). The first, second and third lines are for the short-term, medium-term and long-term future, respectively. 459



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Figure 2 – Wind speed (left column) and energy density (right column) median differences (future minus historical) with Mann Whitney test - RCP 8.5. The grey colour represents areas without median differences according to a Mann-Whitney test (5%
 significance level). The first, second and third lines are for the short-term, medium-term and long-term future, respectively.

466 According to Figure 2, if no GHG emissions mitigation strategies are employed (RCP 8.5),

there is a tendency for a cutback in future wind speed and energy density in Europe. The

exceptions are some areas located in Central Europe (reaching up to Northern Europe),
Turkey, offshore areas adjacent to Madeira and Canary archipelagos and in the southern
and northern tips of the Iberian Peninsula, where the wind power resource can slightly
increase in the future. This reduction is clearly stronger in offshore areas than in onshore
ones.

473 These differences, together with increasing number of grid points statistically different from the historical period, are clearly more marked for the medium and long-term future. For the 474 short-term future (2016-2035), the majority of the grid points do not show statistically 475 significant changes from the past-present period and, even when there are statistically 476 477 significant changes, they are relatively small in magnitude (typically lower than 5% for the wind speed and than 10% for the energy density). For the medium-term future (2046-2065), 478 479 the number of grid points statistically different from the past-present winds increase together with the magnitude of changes, although lower than 7-10% for the wind speed and 15-20% 480 481 for the energy density. By the end of the century (2081-2100), practically all the grid points show statistically meaningful differences from the past-present period and the magnitude of 482 changes is clearly higher, reaching up to 10-15% in terms of wind speed and 30-40% for the 483 484 energy density. In this period, the areas that show a modest increase in the average wind 485 speed and energy density are fewer, and the decrease of the wind energetic potential is more pronounced. 486

It should be noted that, since the energy density varies with the wind speed cubed, the percentual differences shown in Figure 2 are similar for the wind speed and energy density grids due to the colour scale chosen, where the energy density scale limits are about three times higher than the wind speed ones. Next, Figure 3 shows the same analysis but considering now the RCP 4.5 medium mitigation scenario.



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Figure 3 – Wind speed (left column) and energy density (right column) median differences (future minus historical) with Mann Whitney test - RCP 4.5. The grey colour represents areas without median differences according to a Mann-Whitney test (5% significance level). The first, second and third lines are for the short-term, medium-term and long-term future, respectively.



499 scenario, which considers GHG emissions mitigation actions, is similar to the one described

500 by the RCP 8.5 scenario (Figure 2). However, under this scenario the differences between 501 past-present and future wind energetic resource are considerably lower (both in terms of 502 increase/decrease of the wind energetic resource) than the ones witnessed under the RCP 503 8.5, particularly for end of the century. To further analyze and detail the future tendencies of 504 wind energetic resource over Europe, Figures 4 and 5 show the same analysis of Figures 2 505 and 3 for the wind energy density, but now divided by seasons.



Figure 4 – Seasonal RCP 8.5 wind energy density median differences (future minus historical) with Mann-Whitney test. The
 grey colour represents areas without median differences according to a Mann-Whitney test (5% significance level). The first,
 second, third and fourth lines are for Autumn, Winter, Spring and Summer periods, respectively.

According to Figure 4 there is some seasonality in the changes of the wind energy density. Although in almost all seasons there is a general tendency for the future wind energy density to be lower than in the contemporary period (specially in Autumn and Spring for the medium and long term future), in Summer periods almost all Europe (with the exception of the Scandinavian Peninsula and Eastern Europe) can see its wind energetic resource increase. All of these tendencies show increasing magnitudes with time.

519 In Autumn, practically all Europe shows a generalized tendency for a cutback in the wind 520 power resource, with a strong decrease of the wind energy densities in the Mediterranean area. The exceptions are seen in some areas located in Northern and Central Europe (short 521 and medium-term futures), in Turkey (medium and long-term futures) and in the offshore 522 areas adjacent to the Canary and Madeira archipelagos. Winter periods show similar trends 523 524 and patterns to the Autumn ones, but here the exceptions for the reduction of the wind energy densities are more localized in Central Europe and in offshore areas around the 525 Madeira and Canary archipelagos (with the exception of the long term future projections). In 526 Spring periods, although the near-term future projections show a generalized increase in the 527 wind energy density across Europe (with the exception of Northern areas), the medium and 528 529 long-term future projections show opposite tendency. For these periods, practically all European territory shows a decrease in the wind energy density, the only exceptions being 530 the southernmost tip of the Iberian Peninsula and the offshore areas adjacent to the Madeira 531 532 and Canary archipelagos. In Summer, while the Scandinavian Peninsula and eastern areas of Europe show lower future wind energy densities, central and southern Europe shows a 533 strong increase of the wind energetic resource. This is particularly visible for the long-term 534 535 future.

536 Figure 5 shows the same information as Figure 4 but now for the RCP 4.5.



Figure 5 – Seasonal RCP 4.5 wind energy density median differences (future minus historical) with Mann-Whitney test. The
 grey colour represents areas without median differences according to a Mann-Whitney test (5% significance level). The first,
 second, third and fourth lines are for Autumn, Winter, Spring and Summer periods, respectively.

- 544 Figure 5 shows that in, similarly to what was seen in Figures 2 and 3, the major difference
- 545 between RCP 8.5 and RCP 4.5 is that the latter shows lower differences between
- 546 contemporary and future wind energy resource. This is also true when this analysis is divided
- 547 into seasons. Nevertheless, these seasonal differences between contemporary and future

wind energy density are still present, albeit somewhat smoothed under this mid-range GHGemission scenario.

550 From Figures 2 and 3, a general tendency for a decrease of future wind speeds and energy densities over Europe becomes noticeable. Although some areas show an opposite 551 tendency (some areas located in Central Europe reaching up to Northern Europe, Turkey 552 553 and the southern and northern tips of the Iberian Peninsula), with a modest increase in future wind energetic resource, the negative trends are clearly dominant both in magnitude and 554 geographical distribution. These tendencies magnify in time, since the variations of the wind 555 energetic resource are lower for the near-term future and higher in the end of the current 556 557 century. Furthermore, it is clear that these changes and tendencies are higher under scenarios of stronger radiative forcing. When analyzing the future variation of the wind 558 559 energetic resource in a seasonal perspective (Figures 4 and 5), it is detectable a seasonality in the variation of the wind energy density. While in Autumn and Spring there is a tendency 560 561 for the future wind energy density to be lower than in the contemporary period (with some localized exceptions in Central/Northern Europe), in Summer almost all Europe (with the 562 exception of the Scandinavian Peninsula and Eastern Europe) shows an opposite tendency, 563 564 with an increase in its wind energetic resource. All of these tendencies show increasing magnitudes with time and under stronger emission scenarios. 565

566 Although it is not straightforward to find a direct and objective cause for these tendencies due to the non-linear dependence of near-surface winds with a wide range of meteorological and 567 568 terrain features, some studies that investigated CMIP5 data reported findings that can be related to this issue: decreasing trends in cyclone number and frequency in most of the North 569 Atlantic and Europe (Eichler et al., 2013; Zappa et al., 2013); decrease of extreme cyclones 570 571 events and in storm track activity in the Northern Hemisphere (Chang et al., 2012); and an 572 increased frequency of the negative phase of the North-Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) under 573 future warming (Cattiaux et al., 2013). A negative phase of the NAO is related to a 574 weakening of its two pressure centres (Azores high and Iceland low), leading to lower zonal

winds (mainly westerlies), together with fewer and weaker cyclones (Pryor et al., 2005a).
Thus, a future decrease in the storm activity, number and intensity of cyclones in Europe and
a tendency for the NAO to be more negative can explain the tendency for future lower wind
speeds across Europe.

579 It becomes pertinent to discuss the obvious differences between the future tendencies of 580 wind speeds over Europe projected by CMIP5 and its predecessor, CMIP3. The latter projected that by the end of the current century the wind energy density and annual mean 581 wind speeds can increase in northern Europe and decrease in the south of the continent, 582 especially in Winter (Pryor et al., 2005a; Bloom et al., 2008; Walter et al., 2006). Several 583 authors (Pryor and Barthelmie, 2010, and references therein) reported that such findings are 584 consistent with a tendency present in CMIP3 future climate projections toward a positive 585 586 phase of the NAO (Rauthe et al., 2004), a poleward displacement of the storm track (Pryor and Barthelmie, 2003) and an increase of midlatitude cyclones intensity over the North 587 588 Atlantic, particularly in Winter (Nolan et al., 2011). Ergo, it becomes clear that CMIP5 and CMIP3 modelling results show different trends and future wind climatology projections over 589 590 Europe and its driving mechanisms. This fact is not surprising given the aforementioned differences in the GCMs used in CMIP3 and CMIP5. One of the differences between these 591 592 two generations of GCMs that can have a strong impact in realistically simulating future near-593 surface winds is that CMIP5 GCMs are able to incorporate land use and land cover changes 594 that are frequent over time (Moss et al., 2010). CMIP3 GCMs may not realistically update these changes over their simulations in their boundary conditions, as reported by Vautard et 595 596 al. (2010). Aside differences in the GCMs design, Cattiaux and Cassou (2013) studied the differences between CMIP5 and CMIP3 trends in the wintertime Northern Annular Mode 597 (NAM, also known as the Arctic Oscillation). The NAM directly influence European climate 598 through changes in its regional feature, the NAO (Ambaum et al., 2001). Cattiaux and 599 600 Cassou (2013) reported that CMIP3 future projections showed a positive NAM trend, while CMIP5 revealed an opposite (negative) trend, and these differences are mostly related to the 601 CMIP5 faster sea ice depletion in early winter and stronger warming in the western tropical 602

603 Pacific in late winter, which will remotely influence the NAM through teleconnection 604 mechanisms. Also, Cattiaux et al. (2013) found that CMIP5 models, oppositely to CMIP3 605 ones, project a stronger winter North-Atlantic jet stream than observed, suggesting an increased frequency of the NAO negative phase under future warming. Furthermore, Chang 606 607 et al. (2012) reported that CMIP5 models project a larger decrease in the Northern Hemisphere (NH) storm track activity than CMIP3 models. Thus, it appears that CMIP5 and 608 609 CMIP3 projected opposite trends in future NAO phases, and CMIP5 models foresee a larger 610 decrease in NH storm activity when compared to CMIP3 results. These findings can be related to CMIP5 and CMIP3 different projections of future near-surface winds over Europe. 611

#### 612 **3.3 – Climate change impacts in future wind energy intra-annual variability**

To assess climate change impacts on future wind energetic resource intra-annual variability, historical and future MME wind speed and energy density annual MAD medians are compared and the statistical significance of such differences assessed. These results are presented in Figures 6 and 7.





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According to Figure 6, in the short-term future (2016-2035) no significant changes in the wind 623 speed and energy density intra-annual variability are to be expected, since only a small 624 625 number of grid points show statistically significant MAD median differences between the contemporary and short-term future. Although the differences are more significant for the 626 wind energy density than for the wind speed, in European mainland almost all grid points 627 628 show statistically negligible differences. However, for the medium and long-term future the 629 panorama is considerably different. For these periods, the wind speed and energy density intra-annual variability are expected to be significantly lower, especially in the end of the 630 current century. In the medium-term future (2046-2065), the wind speed and energy density 631 intra-annual variability trends are somewhat homogeneous in Europe, decreasing around 2-632

10% in terms of wind speed, corresponding to about 10-30% in terms of wind energy density. 633 This tendency is present practically in all European territory, with the exceptions of some 634 635 localized areas in the Iberian and Scandinavian Peninsula, Turkey and in central Europe. The long-term future shows similar geographical patterns and signal for the wind speed and 636 energy density intra-annual variability changes, but with intensified magnitudes: the wind 637 speed intra-annual variability can decrease up to 8-15%, while the wind energy density intra-638 639 annual variability can be reduced in about 15-40%. This negative trend of the wind speed 640 and energy density intra-annual variability is more pronounced in the Mediterranean area, whereas some areas located in Turkey and Central Europe can see the intra-annual 641 642 variability increase. Figure 7 shows the same information but now considering RCP 4.5 data.





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Figure 7 – Wind speed (left column) and energy density (right column) MAD median differences (future minus historical) with
 Mann-Whitney test - RCP 4.5. The grey colour represents areas without median differences according to a Mann-Whitney test
 (5% significance level). The first, second and third lines are for the short-term, medium-term and long-term future, respectively.

The expected changes in the wind speed and energy density intra-annual variability considering RCP 4.5 data are very similar to the ones expected with RCP 8.5, although with lower magnitudes. Similarly to what was seen for RCP 8.5, RCP 4.5 foresees a generalized decrease in the wind speed and energy density intra-annual variability all over European territory, more marked in the medium and long-term futures. The exceptions are again seen in Turkey and in some localized areas in Central/Northern Europe.

Bearing in mind that, typically, average wind speeds tend to be higher in cold seasons and 655 lower in warmer ones, the results presented in the previous section (Figures 4 and 5) are 656 consistent with the general decrease in the wind speed and energy density intra-annual 657 variability here detected: if in Winter the wind speed and energy density tend to be lower and 658 in Summer they tend to be higher, the difference between Winter-Summer wind energetic 659 resource will be lower and, hence, lower will its intra-annual variability be (the typical 660 661 variation the wind speed and energy density within a year). This reduction of the wind energy density intra-annual variability, particularly if it reaches 30-40% of its current value, is of great 662 interest for the electrical grid operators, since the offer-demand grid balance can be easier to 663 maintain with a less variable wind-derived electricity injection. 664

# 3.4 – Climate change impacts in future wind speed and wind energy density inter-annual variability

In order to assess climate change impacts in future wind speed and wind energy density
inter-annual variability (this is, the variability between different years), differences in the
standard deviation between historical and future wind speed and energy density annual
means data series are computed and their statistical significance assessed with the F-test.
These results are shown in Figures 8 and 9.



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Figure 8 – Wind speed (left column) and energy density (right column) standard deviation differences (future minus historical)
with the F-test - RCP 8.5. The grey colour represents areas without median differences according to a F-test (5% significance
level). The first, second and third lines are for the short-term, medium-term and long-term future, respectively.

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678 According to Figure 8, no significant changes are to be expected in the inter-annual variability for the wind speed and energy density over Europe until the end of the current 679 680 century. For all future periods, the great majority of the grid points show statistically not 681 significant differences when compared to the contemporary period inter-annual variability. Although when such differences are statistically significant they are high in magnitude 682 (reaching up to an increase of 100% a decrease of 60-70%), these statistically significant 683 grid points are scattered and no conclusive trend, geographical or temporal, is detectable. 684 685 Figure 9 shows the same analysis but now considering RCP 4.5 data.





Figure 9 – Wind speed (left column) and energy density (right column) standard deviation differences (future minus historical)
 with the F-test - RCP 4.5. The grey colour represents areas without median differences according to a F-test (5% significance
 level). The first, second and third lines are for the short-term, medium-term and long-term future, respectively.

Figure 9 shows similar geographical and temporal changes of the wind speed and energy density inter-annual variability of Figure 8. Thus, also when considering future climate projections of RCP 4.5 scenario no significant changes are to be expected in the inter-annual variability for the wind speed and energy density. Considering the information presented in Figures 8 and 9, it is advisable to adopt a conservative point of view in this issue and consider that no significant changes are to be expected in the inter-annual variability for the wind speed and energy density over Europe until the end of the current century.

### 699 **4 – Conclusions**

This work aimed to provide a large-scale picture of future changes in European wind resource due to climate changes, using the latest IPCC future climate projections derived from the CMIP5 project. This work comprised two stages: first, to assess the GCMs that best reproduce contemporary near surface wind speeds over Europe. Secondly, data from the best GCMs was used to quantify and assess future changes in the large-scale wind energetic resource and their geographical distributions over Europe, together with its intraand inter-annual variability. The main conclusions of this work can be summarized as follows:

707 The CMIP5 GCMs HadGEM2-ES, HadGEM2-CC, ACCESS 1.3 and ACCESS 1.0 are the models that showed the best ability to represent the European contemporary 708 near surface wind speed climatology over Europe described by the ERA-Interim 709 710 reanalysis. Near surface wind speed data from these models was used to assess future projections of wind speed climatology over Europe. However, it should be 711 highlighted that all tested CMIP5 GCMs showed poor results in accurately 712 713 representing past-present European wind climatology. Additional efforts should be 714 employed to improve the performance of these models.

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The future European wind energetic resource is predicted to be lower than the one 716 available at present, due to a decreasing tendency of the large-scale wind speeds 717 718 over the current century. Although some areas (located in Central Europe reaching up to Northern Europe, Turkey and the southern and northern tips of the Iberian 719 Peninsula) can show a modest increase in future wind energy resource, negative 720 trends are clearly dominant both in magnitude and geographical distribution. These 721 722 tendencies increase in time, since the variations of the wind energy resource are lower for the upcoming decades and higher by the end of the current century. They 723 are also higher under scenarios of stronger radiative forcing. Although in the 724 upcoming decades (2016-2035) no alarming changes in the wind energetic resource 725

are to be expected (lower than 10% for the "business as usual" scenario and below
5% for the midrange GHG emission mitigation RCP), the panorama drastically
changes for the last decades of the current century (2081-2100), where the reduction
in the wind energetic resource over Europe can reach an alarming 30-40% (when
considering RCP 8.5).

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732 Seasonality is also patent in the variation and changes in the future wind energy 733 resource. While in Autumn and Spring there is a tendency for the future wind energetic resource to be lower than in the contemporary period (with some localized 734 exceptions in Central/Northern Europe), in Summer almost all Europe shows an 735 opposite tendency (with the exception of the Scandinavian Peninsula and Eastern 736 Europe), with an increase in its wind energetic resource. Again, these tendencies 737 magnify in time and they are higher under scenarios of stronger radiative forcing that 738 739 consider less GHG emission mitigation actions.

740

No significant changes in the wind speed and energy density intra-annual variability
 are to be expected in the period 2016-2035. However, for the medium (2046-2065)
 and long-term (2081-2100) future the panorama is considerably different. For these
 periods, the wind speed and energy density intra-annual variability are expected to
 be significantly lower (except in Turkey and in some localized areas in
 Central/Northern Europe), especially in the end of the current century (around 15 40%). These tendencies are also higher under scenarios of stronger radiative forcing.

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In terms of inter-annual variability, no significant changes are to be expected over
 Europe during the current century. The statistical analysis revealed that the
 differences between past-present and future inter-annual variability, although
 sometimes high in magnitude, are not statistically significant. Thus, no conclusive
 trends, geographical or temporal, are detectable.

754 Although the validation results of this study showed the inability of the CMIP5 global models to realistically represent the past-present European wind speed climatology, and the use of 755 756 such coarse models can be considered as somewhat over-simplistic and insufficiently 757 detailed for the desired purposes, the findings of this work can serve as an important background for future downscaling initiatives of CMIP5 data to regional and local scales and 758 759 should be seen as a preliminary warning that a continuous increase of greenhouse gases 760 emissions can jeopardize our ability to mitigate such emissions, at least in what concerns the 761 role and contribution of wind energy. By negatively affecting future wind energy resource, climatic changes can weaken wind power active and vital contribute to reduce greenhouse 762 gases emissions. However, it needs to be strongly emphasised that there is significant 763 uncertainty associated to global models future climate projections that, together with the poor 764 ability of the CMIP5 global models to accurately represent the past-present wind climate over 765 Europe due to their intrinsic limitations, provides limited confidence to the future outlook of 766 the European wind energy resource projected by these models. Thus, the information 767 768 provided by these models should be seen as a preliminary picture of the large scale future 769 tendencies of the wind energy resource, and further research focused on these themes 770 should be performed by downscaling CMIP5 GCMs output to regional and local scales in order to better represent the topography and land use and thus better simulate near surface 771 winds. 772

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