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INTERGOVERNMENTAL PANEL ON climate change

CLIMATE CHANGE 2013

The Physical Science Basis

WG I

WORKING GROUP I CONTRIBUTION TO THE FIFTH ASSESSMENT REPORT OF THE INTERGOVERNMENTAL PANEL ON CLIMATE CHANGE

WMO UNEP

Climate Change 2013
The Physical Science Basis

Working Group I Contribution to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change

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Folgefonna glacier on the high plateaus of Sørfjorden, Norway (60°03’ N - 6°20’ E) © Yann Arthus-Bertrand / Altitude.

Foreword, Preface and Dedication

Foreword

"Climate Change 2013: The Physical Science Basis" presents clear and robust conclusions in a global assessment of climate change science—not the least of which is that the science now shows with 95 percent certainty that human activity is the dominant cause of observed warming since the mid-20th century. The report confirms that warming in the climate system is unequivocal, with many of the observed changes unprecedented over decades to millennia: warming of the atmosphere and the ocean, diminishing snow and ice, rising sea levels and increasing concentrations of greenhouse gases. Each of the last three decades has been successively warmer at the Earth's surface than any preceding decade since 1850.

These and other findings confirm and enhance our scientific understanding of the climate system and the role of greenhouse gas emissions; as such, the report demands the urgent attention of both policymakers and the general public.

As an intergovernmental body jointly established in 1988 by the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) and the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) has provided policymakers with the most authoritative and objective scientific and technical assessments. Beginning in 1990, this series of IPCC Assessment Reports, Special Reports, Technical Papers, Methodology Reports and other products have become standard works of reference.

This Working Group I contribution to the IPCC's Fifth Assessment Report contains important new scientific knowledge that can be used to produce climate information and services for assisting society to act to address the challenges of climate change. The timing is particularly significant, as this information provides a new impetus, through clear and indisputable physical science, to those negotiators responsible for concluding a new agreement under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change in 2015.

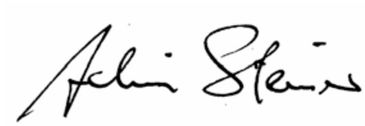
Climate change is a long-term challenge, but one that requires urgent action given the pace and the scale by which greenhouse gases are accumulating in the atmosphere and the risks of a more than 2 degree Celsius temperature rise. Today we need to focus on the fundamentals and on the actions otherwise the risks we run will get higher with every year.

This Working Group I assessment was made possible thanks to the commitment and dedication of many hundreds of experts worldwide, representing a wide range of disciplines. WMO and UNEP are proud that so many of the experts belong to their communities and networks. We express our deep gratitude to all authors, review editors and expert reviewers for devoting their knowledge, expertise and time. We would like to thank the staff of the Working Group I Technical Support Unit and the IPCC Secretariat for their dedication.

We are also grateful to the governments that supported their scientists' participation in developing this report and that contributed to the IPCC Trust Fund to provide for the essential participation of experts from developing countries and countries with economies in transition. We would like to express our appreciation to the government of Italy for hosting the scoping meeting for the IPCC's Fifth Assessment Report, to the governments of China, France, Morocco and Australia for hosting drafting sessions of the Working Group I contribution and to the government of Sweden for hosting the Twelfth Session of Working Group I in Stockholm for approval of the Working Group I Report. The generous financial support by the government of Switzerland, and the logistical support by the University of Bern (Switzerland), enabled the smooth operation of the Working Group I Technical Support Unit. This is gratefully acknowledged.

We would particularly like to thank Dr. Rajendra Pachauri, Chairman of the IPCC, for his direction and guidance of the IPCC and we express our deep gratitude to Professor Qin Dahe and Professor Thomas Stocker, the Co-Chairs of Working Group I for their tireless leadership throughout the development and production of this report.

M. Jarraud
Secretary-General
World Meteorological Organization



A. Steiner
Executive Director
United Nations Environment Programme

Preface

The Working Group I contribution to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) provides a comprehensive assessment of the physical science basis of climate change. It builds upon the Working Group I contribution to the IPCC's Fourth Assessment Report in 2007 and incorporates subsequent new findings from the Special Report on Managing the Risks of Extreme Events and Disasters to Advance Climate Change Adaptation, as well as from research published in the extensive scientific and technical literature. The assessment considers new evidence of past, present and projected future climate change based on many independent scientific analyses from observations of the climate system, paleoclimate archives, theoretical studies of climate processes and simulations using climate models.

Scope of the Report

During the process of scoping and approving the outline of its Fifth Assessment Report, the IPCC focussed on those aspects of the current understanding of the science of climate change that were judged to be most relevant to policymakers.

In this report, Working Group I has extended coverage of future climate change compared to earlier reports by assessing near-term projections and predictability as well as long-term projections and irreversibility in two separate chapters. Following the decisions made by the Panel during the scoping and outline approval, a set of new scenarios, the Representative Concentration Pathways, are used across all three Working Groups for projections of climate change over the 21st century. The coverage of regional information in the Working Group I report is expanded by specifically assessing climate phenomena such as monsoon systems and their relevance to future climate change in the regions.

The Working Group I Report is an assessment, not a review or a text book of climate science, and is based on the published scientific and technical literature available up to 15 March 2013. Underlying all aspects of the report is a strong commitment to assessing the science comprehensively, without bias and in a way that is relevant to policy but not policy prescriptive.

Structure of the Report

This report consists of a short Summary for Policymakers, a longer Technical Summary and fourteen thematic chapters plus annexes. An innovation in this Working Group I assessment is the Atlas of Global and Regional Climate Projections (Annex I) containing time series and maps of temperature and precipitation projections for 35 regions of the world, which enhances accessibility for stakeholders and users.

The Summary for Policymakers and Technical Summary of this report follow a parallel structure and each includes cross-references to the chapter and section where the material being summarised can be found in the underlying report. In this way, these summary components of the report provide a road-map to the contents of the entire report and a traceable account of every major finding.

In order to facilitate the accessibility of the findings of the Working Group I assessment for a wide readership and to enhance their usability for stakeholders, each section of the Summary for Policymakers has a highlighted headline statement. Taken together, these 19 headline statements provide an overarching summary in simple and quotable language that is supported by the scientists and approved by the member governments of the IPCC. Another innovative feature of this report is the presentation of Thematic Focus Elements in the Technical Summary that provide end to end assessments of important cross-cutting issues in the physical science basis of climate change.

Introduction (Chapter 1): This chapter provides information on the progress in climate change science since the First Assessment Report of the IPCC in 1990 and gives an overview of key concepts, indicators of climate change, the treatment of uncertainties and advances in measurement and modelling capabilities. This includes a description of the future scenarios and in particular the Representative Concentration Pathway scenarios used across all Working Groups for the IPCC's Fifth Assessment Report.

Observations and Paleoclimate Information (Chapters 2, 3, 4, 5): These chapters assess information from all climate system components on climate variability and change as obtained from instrumental records and climate archives. They cover all relevant aspects of the atmosphere including the stratosphere, the land surface, the oceans and the cryosphere. Timescales from days to decades (Chapters 2, 3 and 4) and from centuries to many millennia (Chapter 5) are considered.

Process Understanding (Chapters 6 and 7): These chapters cover all relevant aspects from observations and process understanding to projections from global to regional scales for two key topics. Chapter 6 covers the carbon cycle and its interactions with other biogeochemical cycles, in particular the nitrogen cycle, as well as feedbacks on the climate system. For the first time, there is a chapter dedicated to the assessment of the physical science basis of clouds and aerosols, their interactions and chemistry, and the role of water vapour, as well as their role in feedbacks on the climate system (Chapter 7).

From Forcing to Attribution of Climate Change (Chapters 8, 9, 10): All the information on the different drivers (natural and anthropogenic) of climate change is collected, expressed in terms of Radiative Forcing and assessed in Chapter 8. In Chapter 9, the hierarchy of climate models used in simulating past and present climate change is assessed and evaluated against observations and paleoclimate reconstructions.

Information regarding detection of changes on global to regional scales and their attribution to the increase in anthropogenic greenhouse gases is assessed in Chapter 10.

Future Climate Change, Predictability and Irreversibility (Chapters 11 and 12): These chapters assess projections of future climate change derived from climate models on time scales from decades to centuries at both global and regional scales, including mean changes, variability and extremes. Fundamental questions related to the predictability of climate as well as long term climate change, climate change commitments and inertia in the climate system are addressed. Knowledge on irreversible changes and surprises in the climate system is also assessed.

Integration (Chapters 13 and 14): These chapters synthesise all relevant information for two key topics of this assessment: sea level change (Chapter 13) and climate phenomena across the regions (Chapter 14). Chapter 13 presents an end to end assessment of information on sea level change based on paleoclimate reconstructions, observations and process understanding, and provides projections from global to regional scales. Chapter 14 assesses the most important modes of variability in the climate system, such as El Niño-Southern Oscillation, monsoon and many others, as well as extreme events. Furthermore, this chapter deals with interconnections between the climate phenomena, their regional expressions and their relevance for future regional climate change.

Maps assessed in Chapter 14, together with Chapters 11 and 12, form the basis of the Atlas of Global and Regional Climate Projections in Annex I, which is also available in digital format. Radiative forcings and estimates of future atmospheric concentrations from Chapters 7, 8, 11 and 12 form the basis of the Climate System Scenario Tables presented in Annex II. All material including high-resolution versions of the figures, underlying data and Supplementary Material to the chapters is also available online: www.climatechange2013.org.

The scientific community and the climate modelling centres around the world brought together their activities in the Coordinated Modelling Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5), providing the basis for most of the assessment of future climate change in this report. Their efforts enable Working Group I to deliver comprehensive scientific information for the policymakers and the users of this report, as well as for the specific assessments of impacts carried out by IPCC Working Group II, and of costs and mitigation strategies, carried out by IPCC Working Group III.

Following the successful introduction in the previous Working Group I assessment in 2007, all chapters contain Frequently Asked Questions. In these the authors provide scientific answers to a range of general questions in a form that will be accessible to a broad readership and serves as a resource for teaching purposes. Finally, the report is accompanied by extensive Supplementary Material which is made available in the online versions of the report to provide an additional level of detail, such as description of datasets, models, or methodologies used in chapter analyses, as well as material supporting the figures in the Summary for Policymakers.

The Process

This Working Group I Assessment Report represents the combined efforts of hundreds of leading experts in the field of climate science and has been prepared in accordance with rules and procedures established by the IPCC. A scoping meeting for the Fifth Assessment Report was held in July 2009 and the outlines for the contributions of the three Working Groups were approved at the 31st Session of the Panel in November 2009. Governments and IPCC observer organisations nominated experts for the author team. The team of 209 Coordinating Lead Authors and Lead Authors plus 50 Review Editors selected by the Working Group I Bureau was accepted at the 41st Session of the IPCC Bureau in May 2010. In addition, more than 600 Contributing Authors provided draft text and information to the author teams at their request. Drafts prepared by the authors were subject to two rounds of formal review and revision followed by a final round of government comments on the Summary for Policymakers. A total of 54,677 written review comments were submitted by 1089 individual expert reviewers and 38 governments. The Review Editors for each chapter monitored the review process to ensure that all substantive review comments received appropriate consideration. The Summary for Policymakers was approved line-by-line and the underlying chapters were then accepted at the 12th Session of IPCC Working Group I from 23–27 September 2007.

Acknowledgements

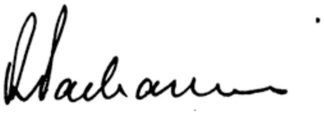
We are very grateful for the expertise, hard work, commitment to excellence and integrity shown throughout by the Coordinating Lead Authors and Lead Authors with important help by the many Contributing Authors. The Review Editors have played a critical role in assisting the author teams and ensuring the integrity of the review process. We express our sincere appreciation to all the expert and government reviewers. We would also like to thank the members of the Bureau of Working Group I: Jean Jouzel, Abdalah Mokssit, Fatemeh Rahimizadeh, Fredolin Tangang, David Wratt and Francis Zwiers, for their thoughtful advice and support throughout the preparation of the report.

We gratefully acknowledge the long-term efforts of the scientific community, organized and facilitated through the World Climate Research Programme, in particular CMIP5. In this effort by climate modelling centres around the world, more than 2 million gigabytes of numerical data have been produced, which were archived and distributed under the stewardship of the Program for Climate Model Diagnosis and Intercomparison. This represents an unprecedented concerted effort by the scientific community and their funding institutions.

Our sincere thanks go to the hosts and organizers of the four Working Group I Lead Author Meetings and the 12th Session of Working Group I. We gratefully acknowledge the support from the host countries: China, France, Morocco, Australia and Sweden. The support for their scientists provided by many governments as well as through the IPCC Trust Fund is much appreciated. The efficient operation of the Working Group I Technical Support Unit was made possible by the generous financial support provided by the government of Switzerland and logistical support from the University of Bern (Switzerland).

We would also like to thank Renate Christ, Secretary of the IPCC, and the staff of the IPCC Secretariat: Gaetano Leone, Jonathan Lynn, Mary Jean Burer, Sophie Schlingemann, Judith Ewa, Jesbin Baidya, Werani Zabula, Joelle Fernandez, Annie Courtin, Laura Biagioni and Amy Smith. Thanks are due to Francis Hayes who served as the conference officer for the Working Group I Approval Session.

Finally our particular appreciation goes to the Working Group I Technical Support Unit: Gian-Kasper Plattner, Melinda Tignor, Simon Allen, Judith Boschung, Alexander Nauels, Yu Xia, Vincent Bex and Pauline Midgley for their professionalism, creativity and dedication. Their tireless efforts to coordinate the Working Group I Report ensured a final product of high quality. They were assisted in this by Adrien Michel and Flavio Lehner with further support from Zhou Botao and Sun Ying. In addition, the following contributions are gratefully acknowledged: David Hansford (editorial assistance with the Frequently Asked Questions), UNEP/GRID-Geneva and University of Geneva (graphics assistance with the Frequently Asked Questions), Theresa Kornak (copyedit), Marilyn Anderson (index) and Michael Shibao (design and layout).

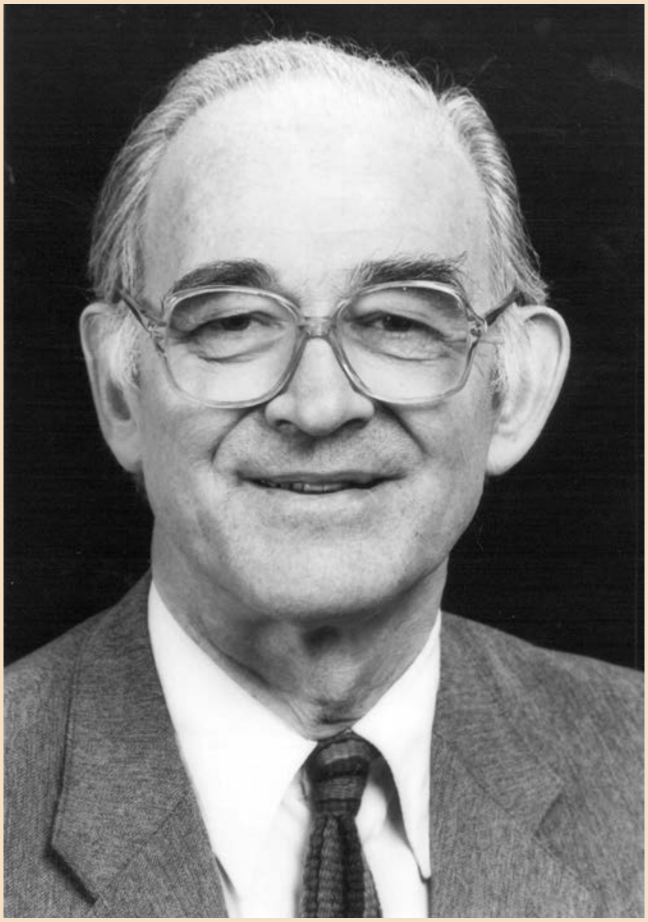


Rajendra K. Pachauri
IPCC Chair

Qin Dahe
IPCC WGI Co-Chair

Thomas F. Stocker
IPCC WGI Co-Chair

Dedication



Bert Bolin
(15 May 1925 – 30 December 2007)

The Working Group I contribution to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) *Climate Change 2013: The Physical Science Basis* is dedicated to the memory of Bert Bolin, the first Chair of the IPCC.

As an accomplished scientist who published on both atmospheric dynamics and the carbon cycle, including processes in the atmosphere, oceans and biosphere, Bert Bolin realised the complexity of the climate system and its sensitivity to anthropogenic perturbation. He made a fundamental contribution to the organisation of international cooperation in climate research, being involved in the establishment of a number of global programmes.

Bert Bolin played a key role in the creation of the IPCC and its assessments, which are carried out in a unique and formalized process in order to provide a robust scientific basis for informed decisions regarding one of the greatest challenges of our time. His vision and leadership of the Panel as the founding Chair from 1988 to 1997 laid the basis for subsequent assessments including this one and are remembered with deep appreciation.

Contents

- There has been further strengthening of the evidence for human influence on temperature extremes since the SREX. It is now *very likely* that human influence has contributed to observed global scale changes in the frequency and intensity of daily temperature extremes since the mid-20th century, and *likely* that human influence has more than doubled the probability of occurrence of heat waves in some locations (see Table SPM.1). {10.6}

- Anthropogenic influences have *very likely* contributed to Arctic sea ice loss since 1979. There is *low confidence* in the scientific understanding of the small observed increase in Antarctic sea ice extent due to the incomplete and competing scientific explanations for the causes of change and *low confidence* in estimates of natural internal variability in that region (see Figure SPM.6). {10.5}

- Anthropogenic influences *likely* contributed to the retreat of glaciers since the 1960s and to the increased surface mass loss of the Greenland ice sheet since 1993. Due to a low level of scientific understanding there is *low confidence* in attributing the causes of the observed loss of mass from the Antarctic ice sheet over the past two decades. {4.3, 10.5}

- It is *likely* that there has been an anthropogenic contribution to observed reductions in Northern Hemisphere spring snow cover since 1970. {10.5}

- It is *very likely* that there is a substantial anthropogenic contribution to the global mean sea level rise since the 1970s. This is based on the *high confidence* in an anthropogenic influence on the two largest contributions to sea level rise, that is thermal expansion and glacier mass loss. {10.4, 10.5, 13.3}

- There is *high confidence* that changes in total solar irradiance have not contributed to the increase in global mean surface temperature over the period 1986 to 2008, based on direct satellite measurements of total solar irradiance. There is *medium confidence* that the 11-year cycle of solar variability influences decadal climate fluctuations in some regions. No robust association between changes in cosmic rays and cloudiness has been identified. {7.4, 10.3, Box 10.2}

E. Future Global and Regional Climate Change

Projections of changes in the climate system are made using a hierarchy of climate models ranging from simple climate models, to models of intermediate complexity, to comprehensive climate models, and Earth System Models. These models simulate changes based on a set of scenarios of anthropogenic forcings. A new set of scenarios, the Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs), was used for the new climate model simulations carried out under the framework of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5) of the World Climate Research Programme. In all RCPs, atmospheric CO_2 *concentrations are higher in 2100 relative to present day as a result of a further increase of cumulative emissions of* CO_2 *to the atmosphere during the 21st century (see Box SPM.1). Projections in this Summary for Policymakers are for the end of the 21st century (2081–2100) given relative to 1986–2005, unless otherwise stated. To place such projections in historical context, it is necessary to consider observed changes between different periods. Based on the longest global surface temperature dataset available, the observed change between the average of the period 1850–1900 and of the AR5 reference period is 0.61 [0.55 to 0.67] °C. However, warming has occurred beyond the average of the AR5 reference period. Hence this is not an estimate of historical warming to present (see Chapter 2) .*

Continued emissions of greenhouse gases will cause further warming and changes in all components of the climate system. Limiting climate change will require substantial and sustained reductions of greenhouse gas emissions. {6, 11–14}

- Projections for the next few decades show spatial patterns of climate change similar to those projected for the later 21st century but with smaller magnitude. Natural internal variability will continue to be a major influence on climate, particularly in the near-term and at the regional scale. By the mid-21st century the magnitudes of the projected changes are substantially affected by the choice of emissions scenario (Box SPM.1). {11.3, Box 11.1, Annex I}

- Projected climate change based on RCPs is similar to AR4 in both patterns and magnitude, after accounting for scenario differences. The overall spread of projections for the high RCPs is narrower than for comparable scenarios used in AR4 because in contrast to the SRES emission scenarios used in AR4, the RCPs used in AR5 are defined as concentration pathways and thus carbon cycle uncertainties affecting atmospheric CO_2 concentrations are not considered in the concentration-driven CMIP5 simulations. Projections of sea level rise are larger than in the AR4, primarily because of improved modelling of land-ice contributions.{11.3, 12.3, 12.4, 13.4, 13.5}

E.1 Atmosphere: Temperature

Global surface temperature change for the end of the 21st century is *likely* to exceed 1.5°C relative to 1850 to 1900 for all RCP scenarios except RCP2.6. It is *likely* to exceed 2°C for RCP6.0 and RCP8.5, and *more likely than not* to exceed 2°C for RCP4.5. Warming will continue beyond 2100 under all RCP scenarios except RCP2.6. Warming will continue to exhibit interannual-to-decadal variability and will not be regionally uniform (see Figures SPM.7 and SPM.8). {11.3, 12.3, 12.4, 14.8}

- The global mean surface temperature change for the period 2016–2035 relative to 1986–2005 will *likely* be in the range of 0.3°C to 0.7°C (*medium confidence*). This assessment is based on multiple lines of evidence and assumes there will be no major volcanic eruptions or secular changes in total solar irradiance. Relative to natural internal variability, near-term increases in seasonal mean and annual mean temperatures are expected to be larger in the tropics and subtropics than in mid-latitudes (*high confidence*). {11.3}

- Increase of global mean surface temperatures for 2081–2100 relative to 1986–2005 is projected to *likely* be in the ranges derived from the concentration-driven CMIP5 model simulations, that is, 0.3°C to 1.7°C (RCP2.6), 1.1°C to 2.6°C (RCP4.5), 1.4°C to 3.1°C (RCP6.0), 2.6°C to 4.8°C (RCP8.5). The Arctic region will warm more rapidly than the global mean, and mean warming over land will be larger than over the ocean (*very high confidence*) (see Figures SPM.7 and SPM.8, and Table SPM.2). {12.4, 14.8}

- Relative to the average from year 1850 to 1900, global surface temperature change by the end of the 21st century is projected to *likely* exceed 1.5°C for RCP4.5, RCP6.0 and RCP8.5 (*high confidence*). Warming is *likely* to exceed 2°C for RCP6.0 and RCP8.5 (*high confidence*), *more likely than not* to exceed 2°C for RCP4.5 (*high confidence*), but *unlikely* to exceed 2°C for RCP2.6 (*medium confidence*). Warming is *unlikely* to exceed 4°C for RCP2.6, RCP4.5 and RCP6.0 (*high confidence*) and is *about as likely as not* to exceed 4°C for RCP8.5 (*medium confidence*). {12.4}

- It is *virtually certain* that there will be more frequent hot and fewer cold temperature extremes over most land areas on daily and seasonal timescales as global mean temperatures increase. It is *very likely* that heat waves will occur with a higher frequency and duration. Occasional cold winter extremes will continue to occur (see Table SPM.1). {12.4}

E.2 Atmosphere: Water Cycle

Changes in the global water cycle in response to the warming over the 21st century will not be uniform. The contrast in precipitation between wet and dry regions and between wet and dry seasons will increase, although there may be regional exceptions (see Figure SPM.8). {12.4, 14.3}

- Projected changes in the water cycle over the next few decades show similar large-scale patterns to those towards the end of the century, but with smaller magnitude. Changes in the near-term, and at the regional scale will be strongly influenced by natural internal variability and may be affected by anthropogenic aerosol emissions. {11.3}

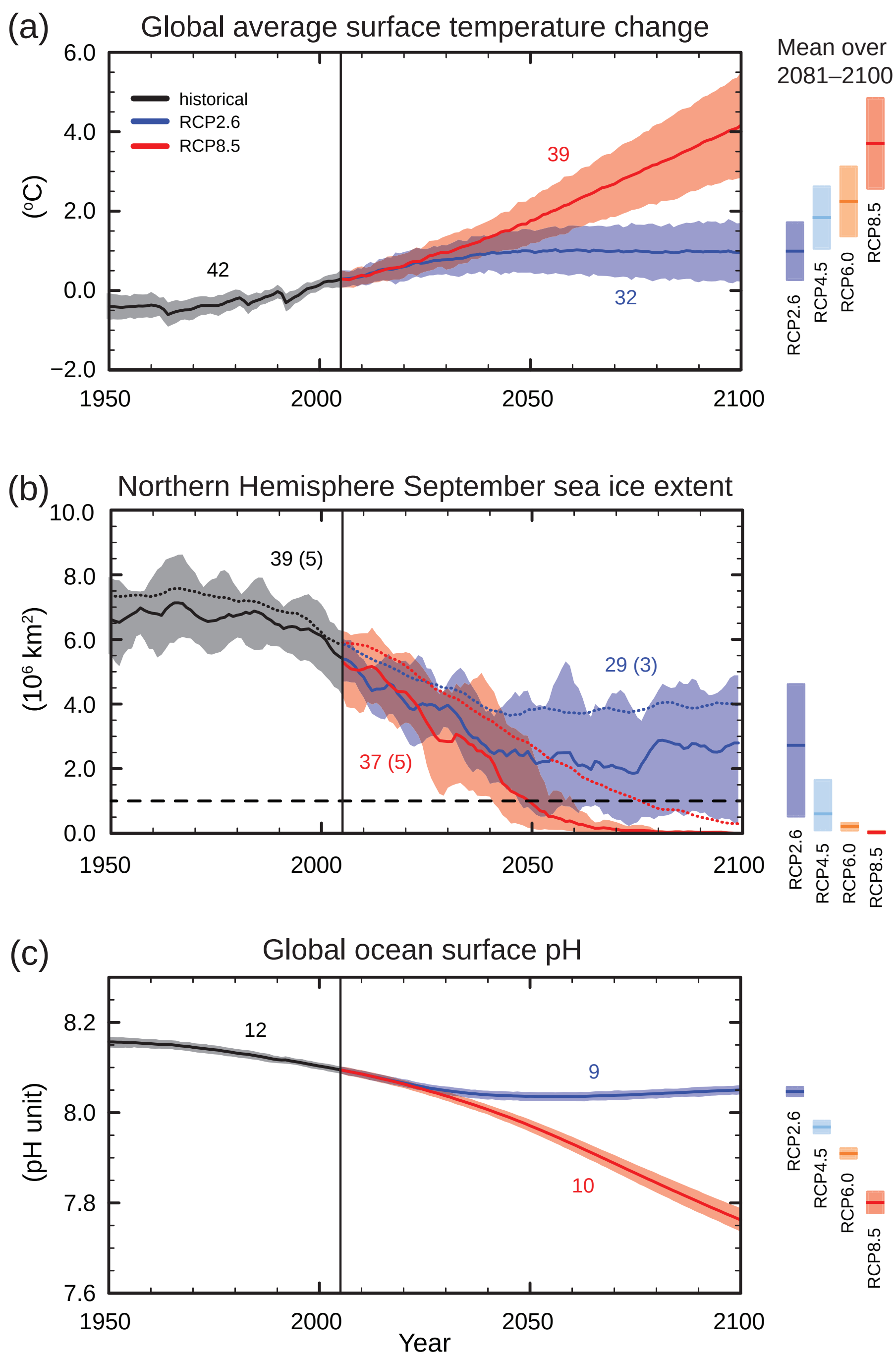


Figure SPM.7 | CMIP5 multi-model simulated time series from 1950 to 2100 for (a) change in global annual mean surface temperature relative to 1986–2005, (b) Northern Hemisphere September sea ice extent (5-year running mean), and (c) global mean ocean surface pH. Time series of projections and a measure of uncertainty (shading) are shown for scenarios RCP2.6 (blue) and RCP8.5 (red). Black (grey shading) is the modelled historical evolution using historical reconstructed forcings. The mean and associated uncertainties averaged over 2081–2100 are given for all RCP scenarios as colored vertical bars. The numbers of CMIP5 models used to calculate the multi-model mean is indicated. For sea ice extent (b), the projected mean and uncertainty (minimum-maximum range) of the subset of models that most closely reproduce the climatological mean state and 1979 to 2012 trend of the Arctic sea ice is given (number of models given in brackets). For completeness, the CMIP5 multi-model mean is also indicated with dotted lines. The dashed line represents nearly ice-free conditions (i.e., when sea ice extent is less than 10^6 km^2 for at least five consecutive years). For further technical details see the Technical Summary Supplementary Material {Figures 6.28, 12.5, and 12.28–12.31; Figures TS.15, TS.17, and TS.20}

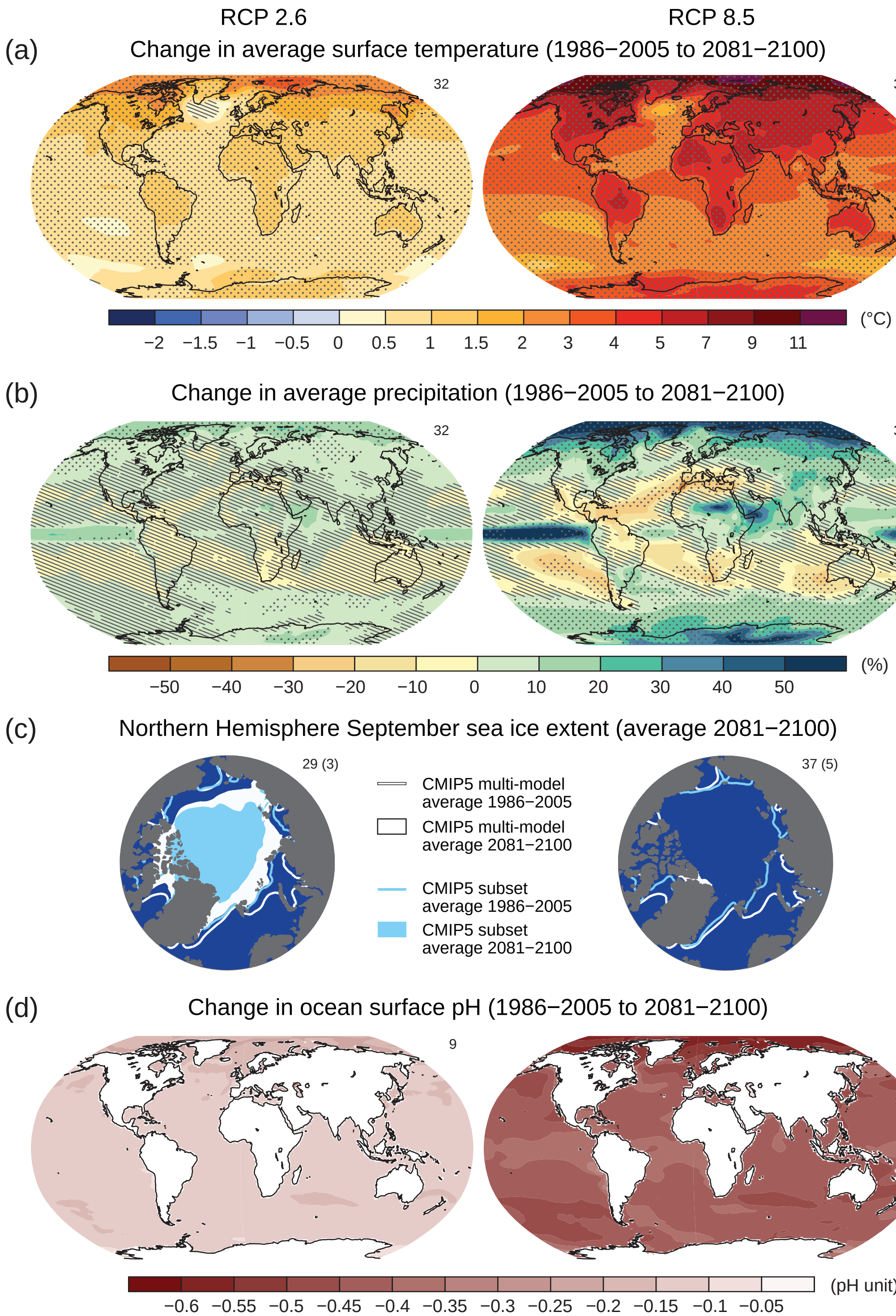


Figure SPM.8 | Maps of CMIP5 multi-model mean results for the scenarios RCP2.6 and RCP8.5 in 2081–2100 of (a) annual mean surface temperature change, (b) average percent change in annual mean precipitation, (c) Northern Hemisphere September sea ice extent, and (d) change in ocean surface pH. Changes in panels (a), (b) and (d) are shown relative to 1986–2005. The number of CMIP5 models used to calculate the multi-model mean is indicated in the upper right corner of each panel. For panels (a) and (b), hatching indicates regions where the multi-model mean is small compared to natural internal variability (i.e., less than one standard deviation of natural internal variability in 20-year means). Stippling indicates regions where the multi-model mean is large compared to natural internal variability (i.e., greater than two standard deviations of natural internal variability in 20-year means) and where at least 90% of models agree on the sign of change (see Box 12.1). In panel (c), the lines are the modelled means for 1986–2005; the filled areas are for the end of the century. The CMIP5 multi-model mean is given in white colour, the projected mean sea ice extent of a subset of models (number of models given in brackets) that most closely reproduce the climatological mean state and 1979 to 2012 trend of the Arctic sea ice extent is given in light blue colour. For further technical details see the Technical Summary Supplementary Material. {Figures 6.28, 12.11, 12.22, and 12.29; Figures TS.15, TS.16, TS.17, and TS.20}

- The high latitudes and the equatorial Pacific Ocean are *likely* to experience an increase in annual mean precipitation by the end of this century under the RCP8.5 scenario. In many mid-latitude and subtropical dry regions, mean precipitation will *likely* decrease, while in many mid-latitude wet regions, mean precipitation will *likely* increase by the end of this century under the RCP8.5 scenario (see Figure SPM.8). {7.6, 12.4, 14.3}

- Extreme precipitation events over most of the mid-latitude land masses and over wet tropical regions will *very likely* become more intense and more frequent by the end of this century, as global mean surface temperature increases (see Table SPM.1). {7.6, 12.4}

- Globally, it is *likely* that the area encompassed by monsoon systems will increase over the 21st century. While monsoon winds are *likely* to weaken, monsoon precipitation is *likely* to intensify due to the increase in atmospheric moisture. Monsoon onset dates are *likely* to become earlier or not to change much. Monsoon retreat dates will *likely* be delayed, resulting in lengthening of the monsoon season in many regions. {14.2}

- There is *high confidence* that the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) will remain the dominant mode of interannual variability in the tropical Pacific, with global effects in the 21st century. Due to the increase in moisture availability, ENSO-related precipitation variability on regional scales will *likely* intensify. Natural variations of the amplitude and spatial pattern of ENSO are large and thus *confidence* in any specific projected change in ENSO and related regional phenomena for the 21st century remains *low*. {5.4, 14.4}

Table SPM.2 | Projected change in global mean surface air temperature and global mean sea level rise for the mid- and late 21st century relative to the reference period of 1986–2005. {12.4; Table 12.2, Table 13.5}

		2046–2065		2081–2100	
	Scenario	**Mean**	***Likely* range[c]**	**Mean**	***Likely* range[c]**
Global Mean Surface Temperature Change (°C)[a]	RCP2.6	1.0	0.4 to 1.6	1.0	0.3 to 1.7
	RCP4.5	1.4	0.9 to 2.0	1.8	1.1 to 2.6
	RCP6.0	1.3	0.8 to 1.8	2.2	1.4 to 3.1
	RCP8.5	2.0	1.4 to 2.6	3.7	2.6 to 4.8
	Scenario	**Mean**	***Likely* range[d]**	**Mean**	***Likely* range[d]**
Global Mean Sea Level Rise (m)[b]	RCP2.6	0.24	0.17 to 0.32	0.40	0.26 to 0.55
	RCP4.5	0.26	0.19 to 0.33	0.47	0.32 to 0.63
	RCP6.0	0.25	0.18 to 0.32	0.48	0.33 to 0.63
	RCP8.5	0.30	0.22 to 0.38	0.63	0.45 to 0.82

Notes:

[a] Based on the CMIP5 ensemble; anomalies calculated with respect to 1986–2005. Using HadCRUT4 and its uncertainty estimate (5–95% confidence interval), the observed warming to the reference period 1986–2005 is 0.61 [0.55 to 0.67] °C from 1850–1900, and 0.11 [0.09 to 0.13] °C from 1980–1999, the reference period for projections used in AR4. *Likely* ranges have not been assessed here with respect to earlier reference periods because methods are not generally available in the literature for combining the uncertainties in models and observations. Adding projected and observed changes does not account for potential effects of model biases compared to observations, and for natural internal variability during the observational reference period {2.4; 11.2; Tables 12.2 and 12.3}

[b] Based on 21 CMIP5 models; anomalies calculated with respect to 1986–2005. Where CMIP5 results were not available for a particular AOGCM and scenario, they were estimated as explained in Chapter 13, Table 13.5. The contributions from ice sheet rapid dynamical change and anthropogenic land water storage are treated as having uniform probability distributions, and as largely independent of scenario. This treatment does not imply that the contributions concerned will not depend on the scenario followed, only that the current state of knowledge does not permit a quantitative assessment of the dependence. Based on current understanding, only the collapse of marine-based sectors of the Antarctic ice sheet, if initiated, could cause global mean sea level to rise substantially above the *likely* range during the 21st century. There is *medium confidence* that this additional contribution would not exceed several tenths of a meter of sea level rise during the 21st century.

[c] Calculated from projections as 5–95% model ranges. These ranges are then assessed to be *likely* ranges after accounting for additional uncertainties or different levels of confidence in models. For projections of global mean surface temperature change in 2046–2065 *confidence* is *medium*, because the relative importance of natural internal variability, and uncertainty in non-greenhouse gas forcing and response, are larger than for 2081–2100. The *likely* ranges for 2046–2065 do not take into account the possible influence of factors that lead to the assessed range for near-term (2016–2035) global mean surface temperature change that is lower than the 5–95% model range, because the influence of these factors on longer term projections has not been quantified due to insufficient scientific understanding. {11.3}

[d] Calculated from projections as 5–95% model ranges. These ranges are then assessed to be *likely* ranges after accounting for additional uncertainties or different levels of confidence in models. For projections of global mean sea level rise *confidence* is *medium* for both time horizons.

E.3 Atmosphere: Air Quality

- The range in projections of air quality (ozone and PM2.5[17] in near-surface air) is driven primarily by emissions (including CH_4), rather than by physical climate change (*medium confidence*). There is *high confidence* that globally, warming decreases background surface ozone. High CH_4 levels (as in RCP8.5) can offset this decrease, raising background surface ozone by year 2100 on average by about 8 ppb (25% of current levels) relative to scenarios with small CH_4 changes (as in RCP4.5 and RCP6.0) (*high confidence*). {11.3}

- Observational and modelling evidence indicates that, all else being equal, locally higher surface temperatures in polluted regions will trigger regional feedbacks in chemistry and local emissions that will increase peak levels of ozone and PM2.5 (*medium confidence*). For PM2.5, climate change may alter natural aerosol sources as well as removal by precipitation, but no confidence level is attached to the overall impact of climate change on PM2.5 distributions. {11.3}

E.4 Ocean

The global ocean will continue to warm during the 21st century. Heat will penetrate from the surface to the deep ocean and affect ocean circulation. {11.3, 12.4}

- The strongest ocean warming is projected for the surface in tropical and Northern Hemisphere subtropical regions. At greater depth the warming will be most pronounced in the Southern Ocean (*high confidence*). Best estimates of ocean warming in the top one hundred meters are about 0.6°C (RCP2.6) to 2.0°C (RCP8.5), and about 0.3°C (RCP2.6) to 0.6°C (RCP8.5) at a depth of about 1000 m by the end of the 21st century. {12.4, 14.3}

- It is *very likely* that the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) will weaken over the 21st century. Best estimates and ranges[18] for the reduction are 11% (1 to 24%) in RCP2.6 and 34% (12 to 54%) in RCP8.5. It is *likely* that there will be some decline in the AMOC by about 2050, but there may be some decades when the AMOC increases due to large natural internal variability. {11.3, 12.4}

- It is *very unlikely* that the AMOC will undergo an abrupt transition or collapse in the 21st century for the scenarios considered. There is *low confidence* in assessing the evolution of the AMOC beyond the 21st century because of the limited number of analyses and equivocal results. However, a collapse beyond the 21st century for large sustained warming cannot be excluded. {12.5}

E.5 Cryosphere

It is *very likely* that the Arctic sea ice cover will continue to shrink and thin and that Northern Hemisphere spring snow cover will decrease during the 21st century as global mean surface temperature rises. Global glacier volume will further decrease. {12.4, 13.4}

- Year-round reductions in Arctic sea ice extent are projected by the end of the 21st century from multi-model averages. These reductions range from 43% for RCP2.6 to 94% for RCP8.5 in September and from 8% for RCP2.6 to 34% for RCP8.5 in February (*medium confidence*) (see Figures SPM.7 and SPM.8). {12.4}

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17 PM2.5 refers to particulate matter with a diameter of less than 2.5 micrometres, a measure of atmospheric aerosol concentration.

18 The ranges in this paragraph indicate a CMIP5 model spread.

- Based on an assessment of the subset of models that most closely reproduce the climatological mean state and 1979 to 2012 trend of the Arctic sea ice extent, a nearly ice-free Arctic Ocean[19] in September before mid-century is *likely* for RCP8.5 (*medium confidence*) (see Figures SPM.7 and SPM.8). A projection of when the Arctic might become nearly ice-free in September in the 21st century cannot be made with confidence for the other scenarios. {11.3, 12.4, 12.5}

- In the Antarctic, a decrease in sea ice extent and volume is projected with *low confidence* for the end of the 21st century as global mean surface temperature rises. {12.4}

- By the end of the 21st century, the global glacier volume, excluding glaciers on the periphery of Antarctica, is projected to decrease by 15 to 55% for RCP2.6, and by 35 to 85% for RCP8.5 (*medium confidence*). {13.4, 13.5}

- The area of Northern Hemisphere spring snow cover is projected to decrease by 7% for RCP2.6 and by 25% in RCP8.5 by the end of the 21st century for the model average (*medium confidence*). {12.4}

- It is *virtually certain* that near-surface permafrost extent at high northern latitudes will be reduced as global mean surface temperature increases. By the end of the 21st century, the area of permafrost near the surface (upper 3.5 m) is projected to decrease by between 37% (RCP2.6) to 81% (RCP8.5) for the model average (*medium confidence*). {12.4}

E.6 Sea Level

Global mean sea level will continue to rise during the 21st century (see Figure SPM.9). Under all RCP scenarios, the rate of sea level rise will *very likely* exceed that observed during 1971 to 2010 due to increased ocean warming and increased loss of mass from glaciers and ice sheets. {13.3–13.5}

- Confidence in projections of global mean sea level rise has increased since the AR4 because of the improved physical understanding of the components of sea level, the improved agreement of process-based models with observations, and the inclusion of ice-sheet dynamical changes. {13.3–13.5}

- Global mean sea level rise for 2081–2100 relative to 1986–2005 will *likely* be in the ranges of 0.26 to 0.55 m for RCP2.6, 0.32 to 0.63 m for RCP4.5, 0.33 to 0.63 m for RCP6.0, and 0.45 to 0.82 m for RCP8.5 (*medium confidence*). For RCP8.5, the rise by the year 2100 is 0.52 to 0.98 m, with a rate during 2081 to 2100 of 8 to 16 mm yr^{-1} (*medium confidence*). These ranges are derived from CMIP5 climate projections in combination with process-based models and literature assessment of glacier and ice sheet contributions (see Figure SPM.9, Table SPM.2). {13.5}

- In the RCP projections, thermal expansion accounts for 30 to 55% of 21st century global mean sea level rise, and glaciers for 15 to 35%. The increase in surface melting of the Greenland ice sheet will exceed the increase in snowfall, leading to a positive contribution from changes in surface mass balance to future sea level (*high confidence*). While surface melting will remain small, an increase in snowfall on the Antarctic ice sheet is expected (*medium confidence*), resulting in a negative contribution to future sea level from changes in surface mass balance. Changes in outflow from both ice sheets combined will *likely* make a contribution in the range of 0.03 to 0.20 m by 2081–2100 (*medium confidence*). {13.3–13.5}

- Based on current understanding, only the collapse of marine-based sectors of the Antarctic ice sheet, if initiated, could cause global mean sea level to rise substantially above the *likely* range during the 21st century. However, there is *medium confidence* that this additional contribution would not exceed several tenths of a meter of sea level rise during the 21st century. {13.4, 13.5}

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[19] Conditions in the Arctic Ocean are referred to as nearly ice-free when the sea ice extent is less than 10^6 km^2 for at least five consecutive years.

SPM

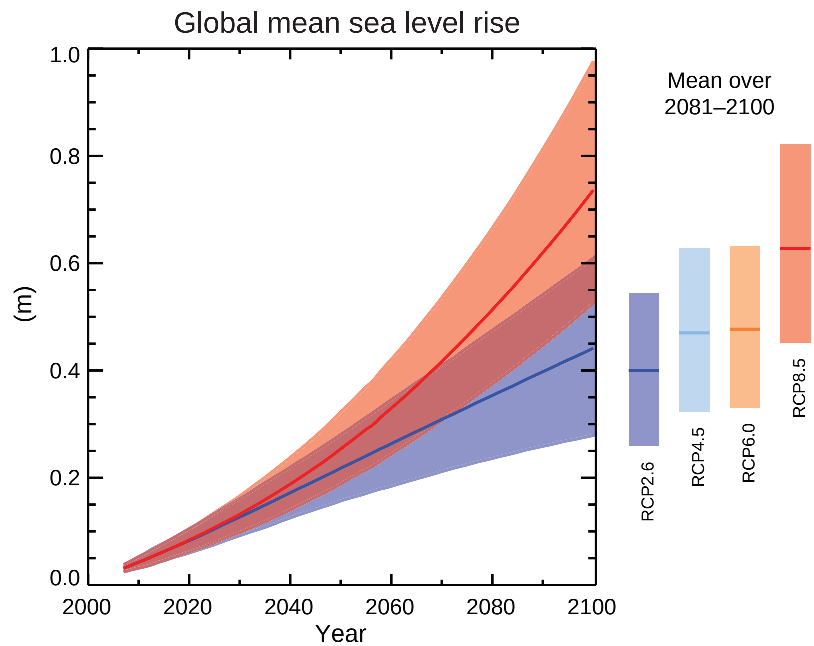

Figure SPM.9 | Projections of global mean sea level rise over the 21st century relative to 1986–2005 from the combination of the CMIP5 ensemble with process-based models, for RCP2.6 and RCP8.5. The assessed *likely* range is shown as a shaded band. The assessed *likely* ranges for the mean over the period 2081–2100 for all RCP scenarios are given as coloured vertical bars, with the corresponding median value given as a horizontal line. For further technical details see the Technical Summary Supplementary Material {Table 13.5, Figures 13.10 and 13.11; Figures TS.21 and TS.22}

- The basis for higher projections of global mean sea level rise in the 21st century has been considered and it has been concluded that there is currently insufficient evidence to evaluate the probability of specific levels above the assessed *likely* range. Many semi-empirical model projections of global mean sea level rise are higher than process-based model projections (up to about twice as large), but there is no consensus in the scientific community about their reliability and there is thus *low confidence* in their projections. {13.5}

- Sea level rise will not be uniform. By the end of the 21st century, it is *very likely* that sea level will rise in more than about 95% of the ocean area. About 70% of the coastlines worldwide are projected to experience sea level change within 20% of the global mean sea level change. {13.1, 13.6}

E.7 Carbon and Other Biogeochemical Cycles

Climate change will affect carbon cycle processes in a way that will exacerbate the increase of CO_2 in the atmosphere (*high confidence*). Further uptake of carbon by the ocean will increase ocean acidification. {6.4}

- Ocean uptake of anthropogenic CO_2 will continue under all four RCPs through to 2100, with higher uptake for higher concentration pathways (*very high confidence*). The future evolution of the land carbon uptake is less certain. A majority of models projects a continued land carbon uptake under all RCPs, but some models simulate a land carbon loss due to the combined effect of climate change and land use change. {6.4}

- Based on Earth System Models, there is *high confidence* that the feedback between climate and the carbon cycle is positive in the 21st century; that is, climate change will partially offset increases in land and ocean carbon sinks caused by rising atmospheric CO_2. As a result more of the emitted anthropogenic CO_2 will remain in the atmosphere. A positive feedback between climate and the carbon cycle on century to millennial time scales is supported by paleoclimate observations and modelling. {6.2, 6.4}

Table SPM.3 | Cumulative CO_2 emissions for the 2012 to 2100 period compatible with the RCP atmospheric concentrations simulated by the CMIP5 Earth System Models. {6.4, Table 6.12, Figure TS.19}

Scenario	Cumulative CO_2 Emissions 2012 to 2100[a]			
	GtC		$GtCO_2$	
	Mean	Range	Mean	Range
RCP2.6	270	140 to 410	990	510 to 1505
RCP4.5	780	595 to 1005	2860	2180 to 3690
RCP6.0	1060	840 to 1250	3885	3080 to 4585
RCP8.5	1685	1415 to 1910	6180	5185 to 7005

Notes:
[a] 1 Gigatonne of carbon = 1 GtC = 10^{15} grams of carbon. This corresponds to 3.667 $GtCO_2$.

- Earth System Models project a global increase in ocean acidification for all RCP scenarios. The corresponding decrease in surface ocean pH by the end of 21st century is in the range[18] of 0.06 to 0.07 for RCP2.6, 0.14 to 0.15 for RCP4.5, 0.20 to 0.21 for RCP6.0, and 0.30 to 0.32 for RCP8.5 (see Figures SPM.7 and SPM.8). {6.4}

- Cumulative CO_2 emissions[20] for the 2012 to 2100 period compatible with the RCP atmospheric CO_2 concentrations, as derived from 15 Earth System Models, range[18] from 140 to 410 GtC for RCP2.6, 595 to 1005 GtC for RCP4.5, 840 to 1250 GtC for RCP6.0, and 1415 to 1910 GtC for RCP8.5 (see Table SPM.3). {6.4}

- By 2050, annual CO_2 emissions derived from Earth System Models following RCP2.6 are smaller than 1990 emissions (by 14 to 96%). By the end of the 21st century, about half of the models infer emissions slightly above zero, while the other half infer a net removal of CO_2 from the atmosphere. {6.4, Figure TS.19}

- The release of CO_2 or CH_4 to the atmosphere from thawing permafrost carbon stocks over the 21st century is assessed to be in the range of 50 to 250 GtC for RCP8.5 (*low confidence*). {6.4}

E.8 Climate Stabilization, Climate Change Commitment and Irreversibility

Cumulative emissions of CO_2 largely determine global mean surface warming by the late 21st century and beyond (see Figure SPM.10). Most aspects of climate change will persist for many centuries even if emissions of CO_2 are stopped. This represents a substantial multi-century climate change commitment created by past, present and future emissions of CO_2. {12.5}

- Cumulative total emissions of CO_2 and global mean surface temperature response are approximately linearly related (see Figure SPM.10). Any given level of warming is associated with a range of cumulative CO_2 emissions[21], and therefore, e.g., higher emissions in earlier decades imply lower emissions later. {12.5}

- Limiting the warming caused by anthropogenic CO_2 emissions alone with a probability of >33%, >50%, and >66% to less than 2°C since the period 1861–1880[22], will require cumulative CO_2 emissions from all anthropogenic sources to stay between 0 and about 1570 GtC (5760 $GtCO_2$), 0 and about 1210 GtC (4440 $GtCO_2$), and 0 and about 1000 GtC (3670 $GtCO_2$) since that period, respectively[23]. These upper amounts are reduced to about 900 GtC (3300 $GtCO_2$), 820 GtC (3010 $GtCO_2$), and 790 GtC (2900 $GtCO_2$), respectively, when accounting for non-CO_2 forcings as in RCP2.6. An amount of 515 [445 to 585] GtC (1890 [1630 to 2150] $GtCO_2$), was already emitted by 2011. {12.5}

[20] From fossil fuel, cement, industry, and waste sectors.

[21] Quantification of this range of CO_2 emissions requires taking into account non-CO_2 drivers.

[22] The first 20-year period available from the models.

[23] This is based on the assessment of the transient climate response to cumulative carbon emissions (TCRE, see Section D.2).

- A lower warming target, or a higher likelihood of remaining below a specific warming target, will require lower cumulative CO_2 emissions. Accounting for warming effects of increases in non-CO_2 greenhouse gases, reductions in aerosols, or the release of greenhouse gases from permafrost will also lower the cumulative CO_2 emissions for a specific warming target (see Figure SPM.10). {12.5}

- A large fraction of anthropogenic climate change resulting from CO_2 emissions is irreversible on a multi-century to millennial time scale, except in the case of a large net removal of CO_2 from the atmosphere over a sustained period. Surface temperatures will remain approximately constant at elevated levels for many centuries after a complete cessation of net anthropogenic CO_2 emissions. Due to the long time scales of heat transfer from the ocean surface to depth, ocean warming will continue for centuries. Depending on the scenario, about 15 to 40% of emitted CO_2 will remain in the atmosphere longer than 1,000 years. {Box 6.1, 12.4, 12.5}

- It is *virtually certain* that global mean sea level rise will continue beyond 2100, with sea level rise due to thermal expansion to continue for many centuries. The few available model results that go beyond 2100 indicate global mean sea level rise above the pre-industrial level by 2300 to be less than 1 m for a radiative forcing that corresponds to CO_2 concentrations that peak and decline and remain below 500 ppm, as in the scenario RCP2.6. For a radiative forcing that corresponds to a CO_2 concentration that is above 700 ppm but below 1500 ppm, as in the scenario RCP8.5, the projected rise is 1 m to more than 3 m (*medium confidence*). {13.5}

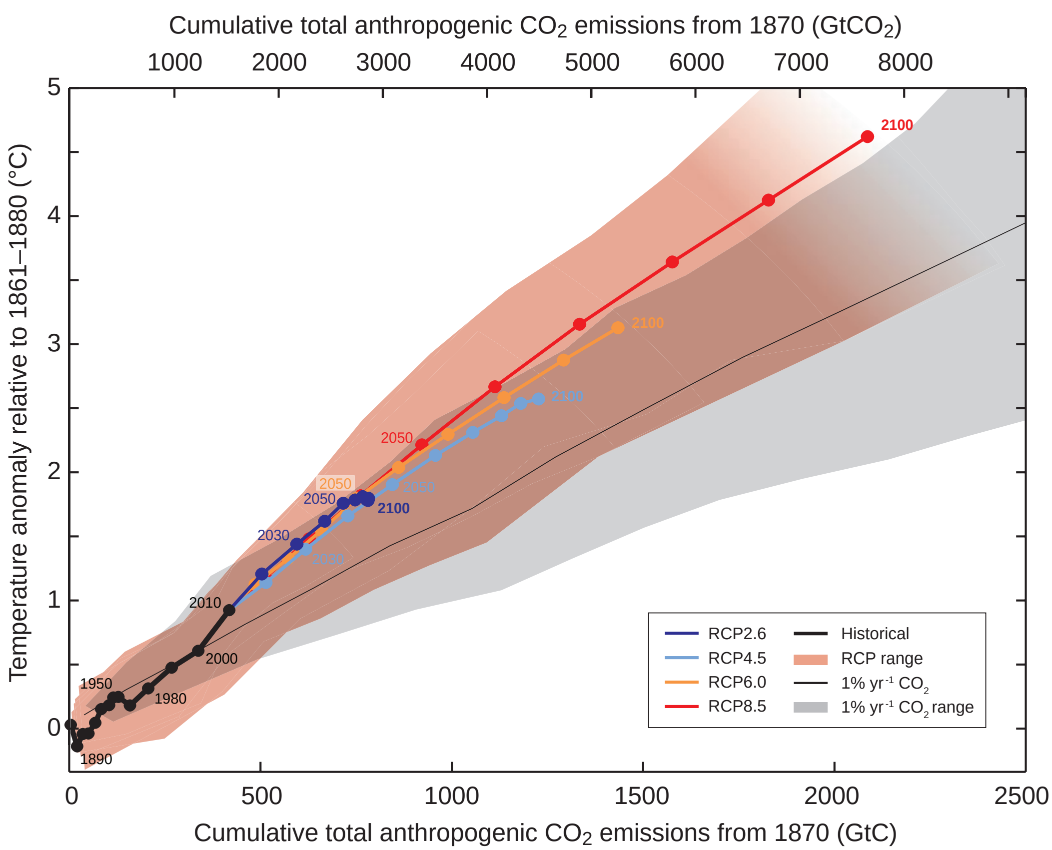

Figure SPM.10 | Global mean surface temperature increase as a function of cumulative total global CO_2 emissions from various lines of evidence. Multi-model results from a hierarchy of climate-carbon cycle models for each RCP until 2100 are shown with coloured lines and decadal means (dots). Some decadal means are labeled for clarity (e.g., 2050 indicating the decade 2040–2049). Model results over the historical period (1860 to 2010) are indicated in black. The coloured plume illustrates the multi-model spread over the four RCP scenarios and fades with the decreasing number of available models in RCP8.5. The multi-model mean and range simulated by CMIP5 models, forced by a CO_2 increase of 1% per year (1% yr^{-1} CO_2 simulations), is given by the thin black line and grey area. For a specific amount of cumulative CO_2 emissions, the 1% per year CO_2 simulations exhibit lower warming than those driven by RCPs, which include additional non-CO_2 forcings. Temperature values are given relative to the 1861–1880 base period, emissions relative to 1870. Decadal averages are connected by straight lines. For further technical details see the Technical Summary Supplementary Material. {Figure 12.45; TS TFE.8, Figure 1}

- Sustained mass loss by ice sheets would cause larger sea level rise, and some part of the mass loss might be irreversible. There is *high confidence* that sustained warming greater than some threshold would lead to the near-complete loss of the Greenland ice sheet over a millennium or more, causing a global mean sea level rise of up to 7 m. Current estimates indicate that the threshold is greater than about 1°C (*low confidence*) but less than about 4°C (*medium confidence*) global mean warming with respect to pre-industrial. Abrupt and irreversible ice loss from a potential instability of marine-based sectors of the Antarctic ice sheet in response to climate forcing is possible, but current evidence and understanding is insufficient to make a quantitative assessment. {5.8, 13.4, 13.5}

- Methods that aim to deliberately alter the climate system to counter climate change, termed geoengineering, have been proposed. Limited evidence precludes a comprehensive quantitative assessment of both Solar Radiation Management (SRM) and Carbon D ioxide Removal (CDR) and their impact on the climate system. CDR methods have biogeochemical and technological limitations to their potential on a global scale. There is insufficient knowledge to quantify how much CO_2 emissions could be partially offset by CDR on a century timescale. Modelling indicates that SRM methods, if realizable, have the potential to substantially offset a global temperature rise, but they would also modify the global water cycle, and would not reduce ocean acidification. If SRM were terminated for any reason, there is *high confidence* that global surface temperatures would rise very rapidly to values consistent with the greenhouse gas forcing. CDR and SRM methods carry side effects and long-term consequences on a global scale. {6.5, 7.7}

Box SPM.1: Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs)

Climate change projections in IPCC Working Group I require information about future emissions or concentrations of greenhouse gases, aerosols and other climate drivers. This information is often expressed as a scenario of human activities, which are not assessed in this report. Scenarios used in Working Group I have focused on anthropogenic emissions and do not include changes in natural drivers such as solar or volcanic forcing or natural emissions, for example, of CH_4 and N_2O.

For the Fifth Assessment Report of IPCC, the scientific community has defined a set of four new scenarios, denoted Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs, see Glossary). They are identified by their approximate total radiative forcing in year 2100 relative to 1750: 2.6 W m^{-2} for RCP2.6, 4.5 W m^{-2} for RCP4.5, 6.0 W m^{-2} for RCP6.0, and 8.5 W m^{-2} for RCP8.5. For the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5) results, these values should be understood as indicative only, as the climate forcing resulting from all drivers varies between models due to specific model characteristics and treatment of short-lived climate forcers. These four RCPs include one mitigation scenario leading to a very low forcing level (RCP2.6), two stabilization scenarios (RCP4.5 and RCP6), and one scenario with very high greenhouse gas emissions (RCP8.5). The RCPs can thus represent a range of 21st century climate policies, as compared with the no-climate policy of the Special Report on Emissions Scenarios (SRES) used in the Third Assessment Report and the Fourth Assessment Report. For RCP6.0 and RCP8.5, radiative forcing does not peak by year 2100; for RCP2.6 it peaks and declines; and for RCP4.5 it stabilizes by 2100. Each RCP provides spatially resolved data sets of land use change and sector-based emissions of air pollutants, and it specifies annual greenhouse gas concentrations and anthropogenic emissions up to 2100. RCPs are based on a combination of integrated assessment models, simple climate models, atmospheric chemistry and global carbon cycle models. While the RCPs span a wide range of total forcing values, they do not cover the full range of emissions in the literature, particularly for aerosols.

Most of the CMIP5 and Earth System Model simulations were performed with prescribed CO_2 concentrations reaching 421 ppm (RCP2.6), 538 ppm (RCP4.5), 670 ppm (RCP6.0), and 936 ppm (RCP 8.5) by the year 2100. Including also the prescribed concentrations of CH_4 and N_2O, the combined CO_2-equivalent concentrations are 475 ppm (RCP2.6), 630 ppm (RCP4.5), 800 ppm (RCP6.0), and 1313 ppm (RCP8.5). For RCP8.5, additional CMIP5 Earth System Model simulations are performed with prescribed CO_2 emissions as provided by the integrated assessment models. For all RCPs, additional calculations were made with updated atmospheric chemistry data and models (including the Atmospheric Chemistry and Climate component of CMIP5) using the RCP prescribed emissions of the chemically reactive gases (CH_4, N_2O, HFCs, NO_x, CO, NMVOC). These simulations enable investigation of uncertainties related to carbon cycle feedbacks and atmospheric chemistry.

Box 6.3 | The Carbon Dioxide Fertilisation Effect

Elevated atmospheric CO_2 concentrations lead to higher leaf photosynthesis and reduced canopy transpiration, which in turn lead to increased plant water use efficiency and reduced fluxes of surface latent heat. The increase in leaf photosynthesis with rising CO_2, the so-called CO_2 fertilisation effect, plays a dominant role in terrestrial biogeochemical models to explain the global land carbon sink (Sitch et al., 2008), yet it is one of most unconstrained process in those models.

Field experiments provide a direct evidence of increased photosynthesis rates and water use efficiency (plant carbon gains per unit of water loss from transpiration) in plants growing under elevated CO_2. These physiological changes translate into a broad range of higher plant carbon accumulation in more than two-thirds of the experiments and with increased net primary productivity (NPP) of about 20 to 25% at double CO_2 from pre-industrial concentrations (Ainsworth and Long, 2004; Luo et al., 2004, 2006; Nowak et al., 2004; Norby et al., 2005;Canadell et al., 2007a; Denman et al., 2007; Ainsworth et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2012a). Since the AR4, new evidence is available from long-term Free-air CO_2 Enrichment (FACE) experiments in temperate ecosystems showing the capacity of ecosystems exposed to elevated CO_2 to sustain higher rates of carbon accumulation over multiple years (Liberloo et al., 2009; McCarthy et al., 2010; Aranjuelo et al., 2011; Dawes et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2011; Zak et al., 2011). However, FACE experiments also show the diminishing or lack of CO_2 fertilisation effect in some ecosystems and for some plant species (Dukes et al., 2005; Adair et al., 2009; Bader et al., 2009; Norby et al., 2010; Newingham et al., 2013). This lack of response occurs despite increased water use efficiency, also confirmed with tree ring evidence (Gedalof and Berg, 2010; Peñuelas et al., 2011).

Nutrient limitation is hypothesized as primary cause for reduced or lack of CO_2 fertilisation effect observed on NPP in some experiments (Luo et al., 2004; Dukes et al., 2005; Finzi et al., 2007; Norby et al., 2010). Nitrogen and phosphorus are *very likely* to play the most important role in this limitation of the CO_2 fertilisation effect on NPP, with nitrogen limitation prevalent in temperate and boreal ecosystems, and phosphorus limitation in the tropics (Luo et al., 2004; Vitousek et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2010a; Goll et al., 2012). Micronutrients interact in diverse ways with other nutrients in constraining NPP such as molybdenum and phosphorus in the tropics (Wurzburger et al., 2012). Thus, with *high confidence*, the CO_2 fertilisation effect will lead to enhanced NPP, but significant uncertainties remain on the magnitude of this effect, given the lack of experiments outside of temperate climates.

Pacala et al., 2001; Houghton, 2010; Bellassen et al., 2011; Williams et al., 2012a), changes in forest management and reduced harvest rates (Nabuurs et al., 2008).

Process attribution of the global land CO_2 sink is difficult due to limited availability of global data sets and biogeochemical models that include all major processes. However, regional studies shed light on key drivers and their interactions. The European and North American carbon sinks are explained by the combination of forest regrowth in abandoned lands and decreased forest harvest along with the fertilisation effects of rising CO_2 and nitrogen deposition (Pacala et al., 2001; Ciais et al., 2008; Sutton et al., 2008; Schulze et al., 2010; Bellassen et al., 2011; Williams et al., 2012a). In the tropics, there is evidence from forest inventories that increasing forest growth rates are not explained by the natural recovery from disturbances, suggesting that increasing atmospheric CO_2 and climate change play a role in the observed sink in established forests (Lewis et al., 2009; Pan et al., 2011). There is also recent evidence of tropical nitrogen deposition becoming more notable although its effects on the net carbon balance have not been assessed (Hietz et al., 2011).

The land carbon cycle is very sensitive to climate changes (e.g., precipitation, temperature, diffuse vs. direct radiation), and thus the changes in the physical climate from increasing GHGs as well as in the diffuse fraction of sunlight are *likely* to be causing significant changes in the carbon cycle (Jones et al., 2001; Friedlingstein et al., 2006; Mercado et al., 2009). Changes in the climate are also associated with disturbances such as fires, insect damage, storms, droughts and heat waves which are already significant processes of interannual variability and possibly trends of regional land carbon fluxes (Page et al., 2002; Ciais et al., 2005; Chambers et al., 2007; Kurz et al., 2008b; Clark et al., 2010; van der Werf et al., 2010; Lewis et al., 2011) (see Section 6.3.2.2).

Warming (and possibly the CO_2 fertilisation effect) has also been correlated with global trends in satellite greenness observations, which resulted in an estimated 6% increase of global NPP, or the accumulation of 3.4 PgC on land over the period 1982–1999 (Nemani et al., 2003). This enhanced NPP was attributed to the relaxation of climatic constraints to plant growth, particularly in high latitudes. Concomitant to the increased of NPP with warming, global soil respiration also increased between 1989 and 2008 (Bond-Lamberty and Thomson, 2010), reducing the magnitude of the net land sink. A recent study suggests a declining NPP trend over 2000–2009 (Zhao and Running, 2010) although the model used to reconstruct NPP trends from satellite observation has not been widely accepted (Medlyn, 2011; Samanta et al., 2011).

6.3.2.6.6 Model evaluation of global and regional terrestrial carbon balance

Evaluation of global process-based land carbon models was performed against ground and satellite observations including (1) measured CO_2

weakening of the negative total aerosol ERF. Nitrate aerosols are an exception to this reduction, with a substantial increase, which is a robust feature among the few available models for these scenarios. The scenarios emphasized in this assessment do not span the range of future emissions in the literature, however, particularly for near-term climate forcers. {8.2.2, 8.5.3, Figures 8.2, 8.21, 8.22}

Emission metrics such as Global Warming Potential (GWP) and Global Temperature change Potential (GTP) can be used to quantify and communicate the relative and absolute contributions to climate change of emissions of different substances, and of emissions from regions/countries or sources/sectors. The metric that has been used in policies is the GWP, which integrates the RF of a substance over a chosen time horizon, relative to that of CO_2. The GTP is the ratio of change in global mean surface temperature at a chosen point in time from the substance of interest relative to that from CO_2. There are significant uncertainties related to both GWP and GTP, and the relative uncertainties are larger for GTP. There are also limitations and inconsistencies related to their treatment of indirect effects and feedbacks. The values are very dependent on metric type and time horizon. The choice of metric and time horizon depends on the particular application and which aspects of climate change are considered relevant in a given context. Metrics do not define policies or goals but facilitate evaluation and implementation of multi-component policies to meet particular goals. All choices of metric contain implicit value-related judgements such as type of effect considered and weighting of effects over time. This assessment provides updated values of both GWP and GTP for many compounds. {8.7.1, 8.7.2, Table 8.7, Table 8.A.1, Supplementary Material Table 8.SM.16}

Forcing and temperature response can also be attributed to sectors. From this perspective and with the GTP metric, a single year's worth of current global emissions from the energy and industrial sectors have the largest contributions to global mean warming over the next approximately 50 to 100 years. Household fossil fuel and biofuel, biomass burning and on-road transportation are also relatively large contributors to warming over these time scales, while current emissions from sectors that emit large amounts of CH_4 (animal husbandry, waste/landfills and agriculture) are also important over shorter time horizons (up to 20 years). {8.7.2, Figure 8.34}

8

8.7 Emission Metrics

8.7.1 Metric Concepts

8.7.1.1 Introduction

To quantify and compare the climate impacts of various emissions, it is necessary to choose a climate parameter by which to measure the effects; that is, RF, temperature response, and so forth. Thus, various choices are needed for the steps down the cause–effect chain from emissions to climate change and impacts (Figure 8.27 and Box 8.4). Each step in the cause effect chain requires a modelling framework. For assessments and evaluation one may—as an alternative to models that explicitly include physical processes resulting in forcing and responses—apply simpler measures or *metrics* that are based on results from complex models. Metrics are used to quantify the contributions to climate change of emissions of different substances and can thus act as 'exchange rates' in multi-component policies or comparisons of emissions from regions/countries or sources/sectors. Metrics are also used in areas such as Life Cycle Assessments and Integrated Assessment Modelling (e.g., by IPCC WGIII).

Metrics can be given in *absolute* terms (e.g., K kg^{-1}) or in *relative* terms by normalizing to a reference gas — usually CO_2. To transform the effects of different emissions to a common scale — often called 'CO_2 equivalent emissions'—the emission (E_i) of component *i* can be multiplied with the adopted normalized metric (M_i): $M_i \times E_i = CO_2\text{-eq}_i$. Ideally, the climate effects of the calculated CO_2 equivalent emissions should be the same regardless of the mix of components emitted. However, different components have different physical properties, and a metric that establishes equivalence with regard to one effect cannot guarantee equivalence with regard to other effects and over extended time periods, for example, Lauder et al. (2013), O'Neill (2000), Smith and Wigley (2000), Fuglestvedt et al. (2003).

Metrics do not define goals and policy—they are tools that enable evaluation and implementation of multi-component policies (i.e., which emissions to abate). The most appropriate metric will depend on which aspects of climate change are most important to a particular application, and different climate policy goals may lead to different conclusions about what is the most suitable metric with which to implement that policy, for example, Plattner et al. (2009); Tol et al. (2012). Metrics that have been proposed include physical metrics as well as more comprehensive metrics that account for both physical and economic dimensions (see 8.7.1.5 and WGIII, Chapter 3).

This section provides an assessment that focuses on the scientific aspects and utility of emission metrics. Extending such an assessment to include more policy-oriented aspects of their performance and usage such as simplicity, transparency, continuity, economic implications of usage of one metric over another, and so forth, is not given here as this is beyond the scope of WGI. However, consideration of such aspects is vital for user-assessments. In the following, the focus is on the more well-known Global Warming Potential (GWP) and Global Temperature change Potential (GTP), though other concepts are also briefly discussed.

8.7.1.2 The Global Warming Potential Concept

The Global Warming Potential (GWP) is defined as the time-integrated RF due to a pulse emission of a given component, relative to a pulse emission of an equal mass of CO_2 (Figure 8.28a and formula). The GWP was presented in the First IPCC Assessment (Houghton et al., 1990), stating 'It must be stressed that there is no universally accepted methodology for combining all the relevant factors into a single global warming potential for greenhouse gas emissions. A simple approach has been adopted here to illustrate the difficulties inherent in the concept, ...'. Further, the First IPCC Assessment gave no clear physical interpretation of the GWP.

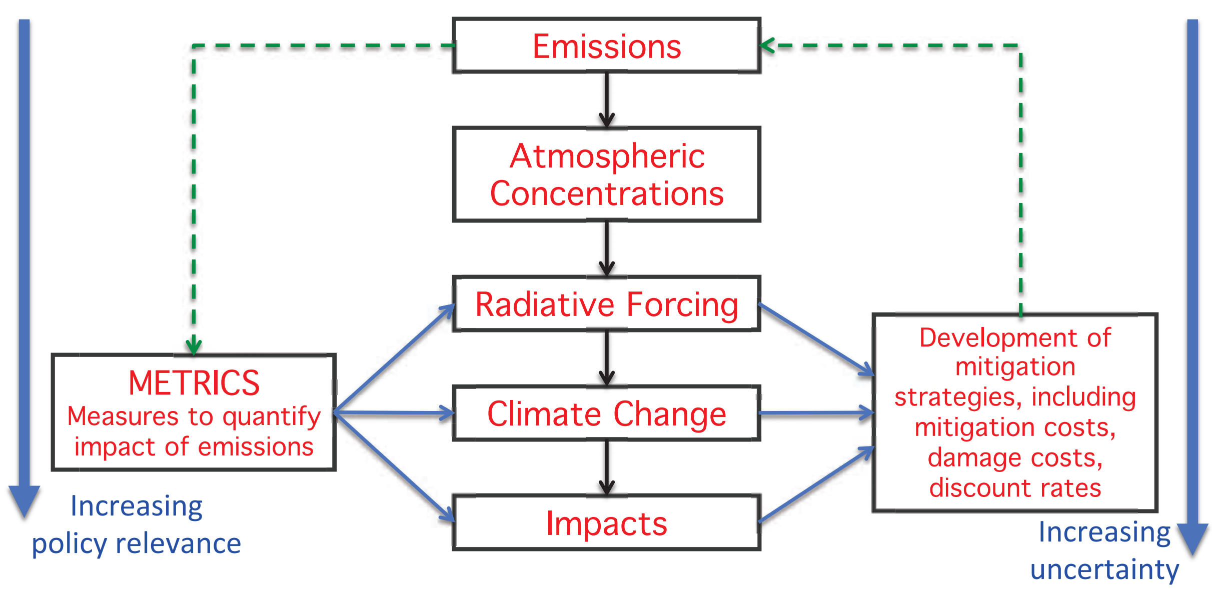

Figure 8.27 | The cause–effect chain from emissions to climate change and impacts showing how metrics can be defined to estimate responses to emissions (left) and for development of multi-component mitigation (right). The relevance of the various effects increases downwards but at the same time the uncertainty also increases. The dotted line on the left indicates that effects and impacts can be estimated directly from emissions, while the arrows on the right side indicate how these estimates can be used in development of strategies for reducing emissions. (Adapted from Fuglestvedt et al., 2003, and Plattner et al., 2009.)

Box 8.4 | Choices Required When Using Emission Metrics

Time frames: One can apply a *backward-looking* (i.e., historical) or a *forward-looking* perspective on the responses to emissions. In the forward-looking case one may use pulses of emissions, sustained emissions or emission scenarios. All choices of emission perturbations are somewhat artificial and idealized, and different choices serve different purposes. One may use the *level* (e.g., degrees Celsius) or *rate* of change (e.g., degrees Celsius per decade). Furthermore, the effects of emissions may be estimated at a particular time or be integrated over time up to a chosen time horizon. Alternatively, discounting of future effects may be introduced (i.e., a weighting of effects over time).

Type of effect or end-point: Radiative forcing, temperature change or sea level change, for example, could be examined (Figure 8.27). Metrics may also include eco/biological or socioeconomic damages. The choice of climate impact parameters is related to which aspects of climate change are considered relevant for interpretation of 'dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system' (UNFCCC Article 2).

Spatial dimension for emission and response: Equal-mass emissions of NTCFs from different regions can induce varying global mean climate responses, and the climate response also has a regional component irrespective of the regional variation in emissions. Thus, metrics may be given for region of *emission* as well as region of *response*.

Some of the choices involved in metrics are scientific (e.g., type of model, and how processes are included or parameterized in the models). Choices of time frames and climate impact are policy-related and cannot be based on science alone, but scientific studies can be used to analyse different approaches and policy choices.

A direct interpretation is that the GWP is an index of the total energy added to the climate system by a component in question relative to that added by CO_2. However, the GWP does not lead to equivalence with temperature or other climate variables (Fuglestvedt et al., 2000, 2003; O'Neill, 2000; Daniel et al., 2012; Smith and Wigley, 2000; Tanaka et al., 2009). Thus, the name 'Global Warming Potential' may be somewhat misleading, and 'relative cumulative forcing index' would be more appropriate. It can be shown that the GWP is approximately equal to the ratio (normalizing by the similar expression for CO_2) of the *equilibrium temperature response due to a sustained emission* of the species or to the *integrated temperature response for a pulse* emission (assuming efficacies are equal for the gases that are compared; O'Neill, 2000; Prather, 2002; Shine et al., 2005a; Peters et al., 2011a; Azar and Johansson, 2012).

The GWP has become the default metric for transferring emissions of different gases to a common scale; often called 'CO_2 equivalent emissions' (e.g., Shine, 2009). It has usually been integrated over 20, 100 or 500 years consistent with Houghton et al. (1990). Note, however that Houghton et al. presented these time horizons as 'candidates for discussion [that] should not be considered as having any special significance'. The GWP for a time horizon of 100 years was later adopted as a metric to implement the multi-gas approach embedded in the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) and made operational in the 1997 Kyoto Protocol. The choice of time horizon has a strong effect on the GWP values — and thus also on the calculated contributions of CO_2 equivalent emissions by component, sector or nation. There is no scientific argument for selecting 100 years compared with other choices (Fuglestvedt et al., 2003; Shine, 2009). The choice of time horizon is a value judgement because it depends

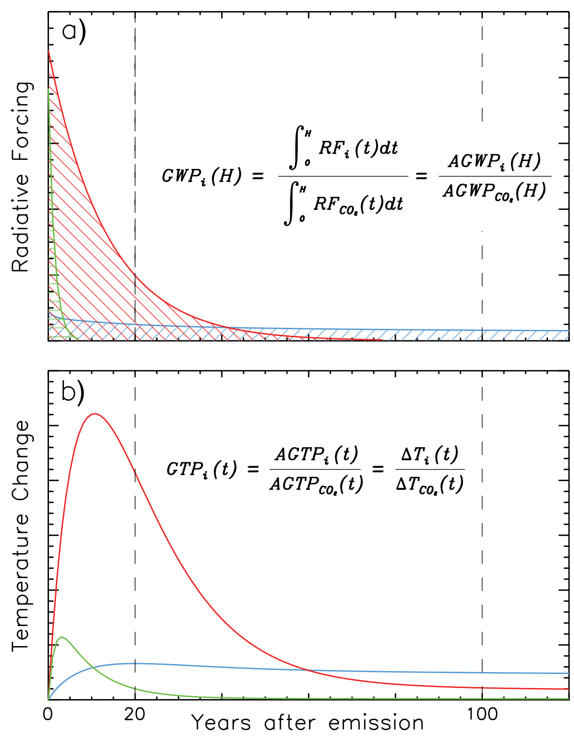

Figure 8.28 | (a) The Absolute Global Warming Potential (AGWP) is calculated by integrating the RF due to emission pulses over a chosen time horizon; for example, 20 and 100 years (vertical lines). The GWP is the ratio of AGWP for component *i* over AGWP for the reference gas CO_2. The blue hatched field represents the integrated RF from a pulse of CO_2, while the green and red fields represent example gases with 1.5 and 13 years lifetimes, respectively. (b) The Global Temperature change Potential (GTP) is based on the temperature response at a selected year after pulse emission of the same gases; e.g., 20 or 100 years (vertical lines). See Supplementary Material Section 8.SM.11 for equations for calculations of GWP and GTP.

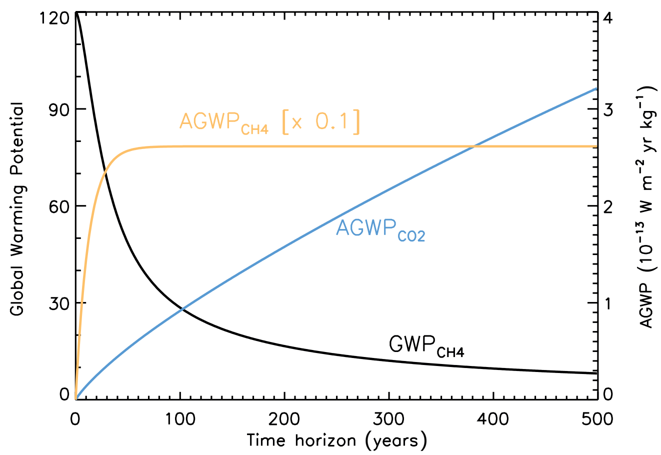

Figure 8.29 | Development of AGWP-CO_2, AGWP-CH_4 and GWP-CH_4 with time horizon. The yellow and blue curves show how the AGWPs changes with increasing time horizon. Because of the integrative nature the AGWP for CH_4 (yellow curve) reaches a constant level after about five decades. The AGWP for CO_2 continues to increase for centuries. Thus the ratio which is the GWP (black curve) falls with increasing time horizon.

on the relative weight assigned to effects at different times. Other important choices include the background atmosphere on which the GWP calculations are superimposed, and the way indirect effects and feedbacks are included (see Section 8.7.1.4).

For some gases the variation in GWP with time horizon mainly reflects properties of the reference gas, not the gas for which the GWP is calculated. The GWP for NTCFs decreases with increasing time horizon, as GWP is defined with the integrated RF of CO_2 in the denominator. As shown in Figure 8.29, after about five decades the development in the GWP for CH_4 is almost entirely determined by CO_2. However, for long-lived gases (e.g., SF_6) the development in GWP is controlled by both the increasing integrals of RF from the long-lived gas and CO_2.

8.7.1.3 The Global Temperature change Potential Concept

Compared to the GWP, the Global Temperature change Potential (GTP; Shine et al., 2005a) goes one step further down the cause–effect chain (Figure 8.27) and is defined as the *change in global mean surface temperature at a chosen point in time* in response to an emission pulse—relative to that of CO_2. Whereas GWP is integrated in time (Figure 8.28a), GTP is an end-point metric that is based on temperature change for a selected year, *t*, (see Figure 8.28b with formula). Like for the GWP, the impact from CO_2 is normally used as reference, hence, for a component *i*, $GTP(t)_i = AGTP(t)_i / AGTP(t)_{CO2} = \Delta T((t)_i / \Delta T(t)_{CO2}$, where AGTP is the absolute GTP giving temperature change per unit emission (see Supplementary Material Section 8.SM.11 for equations and parameter values). Shine et al. (2005a) presented the GTP for both pulse and sustained emission changes based on an energy balance model as well as analytical equations. A modification was later introduced (Shine et al., 2007) in which the time horizon is determined by the proximity to a target year as calculated by using scenarios and climate models (see Section 8.7.1.5).

Like GWP, the GTP values can be used for weighting the emissions to obtain 'CO_2 equivalents' (see Section 8.7.1.1). This gives the temperature effects of emissions relative to that of CO_2 for the chosen time horizon. As for GWP, the choice of time horizon has a strong effect on the metric values and the calculated contributions to warming.

In addition, the AGTP can be used to calculate the global mean temperature change due to any given emission scenario (assuming linearity) using a convolution of the emission scenarios and $AGTP_i$:

$$\Delta T(t) = \sum_i \int_0^t E_i(s) AGTP_i(t-s) ds \qquad (8.1)$$

where *i* is component, *t* is time, and *s* is time of emission (Berntsen and Fuglestvedt, 2008; Peters et al., 2011b; Shindell et al., 2011).

By accounting for the climate sensitivity and the exchange of heat between the atmosphere and the ocean, the GTP includes physical processes that the GWP does not. The GTP accounts for the slow response of the (deep) ocean, thereby prolonging the response to emissions beyond what is controlled by the decay time of the atmospheric concentration. Thus the GTP includes both the atmospheric adjustment time scale of the component considered and the response time scale of the climate system.

The GWP and GTP are fundamentally different by construction and different numerical values can be expected. In particular, the GWPs for NTCFs, over the same time frames, are higher than GTPs due to the integrative nature of the metric. The GTP values can be significantly affected by assumptions about the climate sensitivity and heat uptake by the ocean. Thus, the relative uncertainty ranges are wider for the GTP compared to GWP (see Section 8.7.1.4). The additional uncertainty is a typical trade-off when moving along the cause–effect chain to an effect of greater societal relevance (Figure 8.27). The formulation of the ocean response in the GTP has a substantial effect on the values; thus its characterization also represents a trade-off between simplicity and accuracy. As for GWP, the GTP is also influenced by the background atmosphere, and the way indirect effects and feedbacks are included (see Section 8.7.1.4).

8.7.1.4 Uncertainties and Limitations related to Global Warming Potential and Global Temperature change Potential

The uncertainty in the numerator of GWP; that is, the $AGWP_i$ (see formula in Figure 8.28a) is determined by uncertainties in lifetimes (or perturbation lifetimes) and radiative efficiency. Inclusion of indirect effects increases uncertainties (see below). For the reference gas CO_2, the uncertainty is dominated by uncertainties in the *impulse response function* (IRF) that describes the development in atmospheric concentration that follows from an emission pulse (Joos et al., 2013); see Box 6.2 and Supplementary Material Section 8.SM.12. The IRF is sensitive to model representation of the carbon cycle, pulse size and background CO_2 concentrations and climate.

Based on a multi-model study, Joos et al. (2013) estimate uncertainty ranges for the time-integrated IRF for CO_2 to be ±15% and ±25% (5 to 95% uncertainty range) for 20- and 100-year time horizons, respectively. Assuming quadratic error propagation, and ±10% uncertainty in radiative efficiency, the uncertainty ranges in AGWP for CO_2 were estimated to be ±18% and ±26% for 20 and 100 years. These uncertainties affect all metrics that use CO_2 as reference. Reisinger et al. (2010) and Joos et al. (2013) show that these uncertainties increase with time horizon.

The same factors contribute to uncertainties in the GTP, with an additional contribution from the parameters describing the ocean heat uptake and climate sensitivity. In the first presentation of the GTP, Shine et al. (2005a) used one time constant for the climate response in their analytical expression. Improved approaches were used by Boucher and Reddy (2008), Collins et al. (2010) and Berntsen and Fuglestvedt (2008) that include more explicit representations of the deep ocean that increased the long-term response to a pulse forcing. Over the range of climate sensitivities from AR4, GTP_{50} for BC was found to vary by a factor of 2, the CH_4 GTP_{50} varied by about 50%, while for N_2O essentially no dependence was found (Fuglestvedt et al., 2010). AGTPs for CO_2 were also calculated in the multi-model study by Joos et al. (2013). They found uncertainty ranges in AGTP that are much larger than for AGWP; ±45% and ±90% for 20 and 100 years (5 to 95% uncertainty range). These uncertainty ranges also reflect the signal-to-noise ratio, and not only uncertainty in the physical mechanisms.

There are studies combining uncertainties in various input parameters. Reisinger et al. (2011) estimated the uncertainty in the GWP for CH_4 and found an uncertainty of –30 to +40% for the GWP_{100} and –50 to +75% for GTP_{100} of CH_4 (for 5 to 95% of the range). Boucher (2012) performed a Monte Carlo analysis with uncertainties in perturbation lifetime and radiative efficiency, and for GWP_{100} for CH_4 (assuming a constant background atmosphere) he found ±20%, and –40 to +65 for GTP_{100} (for 5 to 95% uncertainty range).

Here we estimate uncertainties in GWP values based on the uncertainties given for radiative efficiencies (Section 8.3.1), perturbation lifetimes, indirect effects and in the AGWP for the reference gas CO_2 (see Supplementary Material Section 8.SM.12). For CH_4 GWP we estimate an uncertainty of ±30% and ±40% for 20- and 100-year time horizons, respectively (for 5 to 95% uncertainty range). The uncertainty is dominated by AGWP for CO_2 and indirect effects. For gases with lifetimes of a century or more the uncertainties are of the order of ±20% and ±30% for 20- and 100-year horizons. The uncertainty in GWPs for gases with lifetimes of a few decades is estimated to be of the order of ±25% and ±35% for 20 and 100 years. For shorter-lived gases, the uncertainties in GWPs will be larger (see Supplementary Material Section 8.SM.12 for a discussion of contributions to the total uncertainty.) For GTP, few uncertainty estimates are available in the literature. Based on the results from Joos et al. (2013), Reisinger et al. (2010) and Boucher (2012) we assess the uncertainty to be of the order of ±75% for the CH_4 GTP_{100}.

The metric values are also strongly dependent on which processes are included in the definition of a metric. Ideally all indirect effects (Sections 8.2 and 8.3) should be taken into account in the calculation of metrics. The indirect effects of CH_4 on its own lifetime, tropospheric ozone and stratospheric water have been traditionally included in its GWP. Boucher et al. (2009) have quantified an indirect effect on CO_2 when fossil fuel CH_4 is oxidized in the atmosphere. Shindell et al. (2009) estimated the impact of reactive species emissions on both gaseous and aerosol forcing species and found that ozone precursors, including CH_4, had an additional substantial climate effect because they increased or decreased the rate of oxidation of SO_2 to sulphate aerosol. Studies with different sulphur cycle formulations have found lower sensitivity (Collins et al., 2010; Fry et al., 2012). Collins et al. (2010) postulated an additional component to their GWPs and GTPs for ozone precursors due to the decreased productivity of plants under higher levels of surface ozone. This was estimated to have the same magnitude as the ozone and CH_4 effects. This effect, however, has so far only been examined with one model. In a complex and interconnected system, feedbacks can become increasingly complex, and uncertainty of the magnitude and even direction of feedback increases the further one departs from the primary perturbation, resulting in a trade-off between completeness and robustness, and hence utility for decision-making.

Gillett and Matthews (2010) included climate–carbon feedbacks in calculations of GWP for CH_4 and N_2O and found that this increased the values by about 20% for 100 years. For GTP of CH_4 they found an increase of ~80%. They used numerical models for their studies and suggest that climate–carbon feedbacks should be considered and parameterized when used in simple models to derive metrics. Collins et al. (2013) parameterize the climate-carbon feedback based on Friedlingstein et al. (2006) and Arora et al. (2013) and find that this more than doubles the GTP_{100} for CH_4. Enhancement of the GTP for CH_4 due to carbon–climate feedbacks may also explain the higher GTP values found by Reisinger et al. (2010).

The inclusion of indirect effects and feedbacks in metric values has been inconsistent in the IPCC reports. In SAR and TAR, a carbon model without a coupling to a climate model was used for calculation of IRF for CO_2 (Joos et al., 1996), while in AR4 climate-carbon feedbacks were included for the CO_2 IRF (Plattner et al., 2008). For the time horizons 20 and 100 years, the $AGWP_{CO2}$ calculated with the Bern3D-LPJ model is, depending on the pulse size, 4 to 5% and 13 to 15% lower, respectively, when carbon cycle–climate feedbacks are not included (Joos et al., 2013). While the AGWP for the reference gas CO_2 included climate–carbon feedbacks, this is not the case for the non-CO_2 gas in the numerator of GWP, as recognized by Gillett and Matthews (2010), Joos et al. (2013), Collins et al. (2013) and Sarofim (2012). This means that the GWPs presented in AR4 may underestimate the relative impacts of non-CO_2 gases. The different inclusions of feedbacks partially represent the current state of knowledge, but also reflect inconsistent and ambiguous definitions. In calculations of AGWP for CO_2 in AR5 we use the IRF for CO_2 from Joos et al. (2013) which includes climate–carbon feedbacks. Metric values in AR5 are presented both with and without including climate–carbon feedbacks for non-CO_2 gases. This feedback is based on the carbon-cycle response in a similar set of models (Arora et al., 2013) as used for the reference gas (Collins et al., 2013).

The effect of including this feedback for the non-reference gas increases with time horizon due to the long-lived nature of the initiated CO_2 perturbation (Table 8.7). The relative importance also increases with decreasing lifetime of the component, and is larger for GTP than GWP due to the integrative nature of GWP. We calculate an increase in the CH_4 GWP_{100} of 20%. For GTP_{100}, however, the changes are much larger; of the order of 160%. For the shorter time horizons (e.g., 20 years) the effect of including this feedback is small (<5%) for both GWP

8

Table 8.7 | GWP and GTP with and without inclusion of climate–carbon feedbacks (cc fb) in response to emissions of the indicated non-CO_2 gases (climate-carbon feedbacks in response to the reference gas CO_2 are always included).

	Lifetime (years)		GWP_{20}	GWP_{100}	GTP_{20}	GTP_{100}
CH_4[b]	12.4[a]	No cc fb	84	28	67	4
		With cc fb	86	34	70	11
HFC-134a	13.4	No cc fb	3710	1300	3050	201
		With cc fb	3790	1550	3170	530
CFC-11	45.0	No cc fb	6900	4660	6890	2340
		With cc fb	7020	5350	7080	3490
N_2O	121.0[a]	No cc fb	264	265	277	234
		With cc fb	268	298	284	297
CF_4	50,000.0	No cc fb	4880	6630	5270	8040
		With cc fb	4950	7350	5400	9560

Notes:

Uncertainties related to the climate–carbon feedback are large, comparable in magnitude to the strength of the feedback for a single gas.

[a] Perturbation lifetime is used in the calculation of metrics.

[b] These values do not include CO_2 from methane oxidation. Values for fossil methane are higher by 1 and 2 for the 20 and 100 year metrics, respectively (Table 8.A.1).

and GTP. For the more long-lived gases the GWP_{100} values increase by 10 to 12%, while for GTP_{100} the increase is 20 to 30%. Table 8.A.1 gives metric values including the climate–carbon feedback for CO_2 only, while Supplementary Material Table 8.SM.16 gives values for all halocarbons that include the climate–carbon feedback. Though uncertainties in the carbon cycle are substantial, it is *likely* that including the climate–carbon feedback for non-CO_2 gases as well as for CO_2 provides a better estimate of the metric value than including it only for CO_2.

Emission metrics can be estimated based on a constant or variable background climate and this influences both the adjustment times and the concentration–forcing–temperature relationships. Thus, all metric values will need updating due to changing atmospheric conditions as well as improved input data. In AR5 we define the metric values with respect to a constant present-day condition of concentrations and climate. However, under non-constant background, Joos et al. (2013) found decreasing CO_2 $AGWP_{100}$ for increasing background levels (up to 23% for RCP8.5). This means that GWP for all non-CO_2 gases (except CH_4 and N_2O) would increase by roughly the same magnitude. Reisinger et al. (2011) found a reduction in AGWP for CO_2 of 36% for RCP8.5 from 2000 to 2100 and that the CH_4 radiative efficiency and AGWP also decrease with increasing CH_4 concentration. Accounting for both effects, the GWP_{100} for CH_4 would increase by 10 to 20% under low and mid-range RCPs by 2100, but would decrease by up to 10% by mid-century under the highest RCP. While these studies have focused on the background levels of GHGs, the same issues apply for temperature. Olivié et al. (2012) find different temperature IRFs depending on the background climate (and experimental set up).

User related choices (see Box 8.4) such as the time horizon can greatly affect the numerical values obtained for CO_2 equivalents. For a change in time horizon from 20 to 100 years, the GWP for CH_4 decreases by a factor of approximately 3 and its GTP by more than a factor of 10. Short-lived species are most sensitive to this choice. Some approaches have removed the time horizon from the metrics (e.g., Boucher, 2012), but discounting is usually introduced which means that a discount rate r (for the weighting function e^{-rt}) must be chosen instead. The choice of discount rate is also value based (see WGIII, Chapter 3).

For NTCFs the metric values also depend on the location and timing of emission and whether regional or global metrics are used for these gases is also a choice for the users. Metrics are usually calculated for pulses, but some studies also give metric values that assume constant emissions over the full time horizon (e.g., Shine et al., 2005a; Jacobson, 2010). It is important to be aware of the idealized assumption about constant future emissions (or change in emissions) of the compound being considered if metrics for sustained emissions are used.

8.7.1.5 New Metric Concepts

New metric concepts have been developed both to modify physical metrics to address shortcomings as well as to replace them with metrics that account for economic dimensions of problems to which metrics are applied. Modifications to physical metrics have been proposed to better represent CO_2 emissions from bioenergy, regional patterns of response, and for peak temperature limits.

Emissions of CO_2 from the combustion of biomass for energy in national emission inventories are currently assumed to have no net RF, based on the assumption that these emissions are compensated by biomass regrowth (IPCC, 1996). However, there is a time lag between combustion and regrowth, and while the CO_2 is resident in the atmosphere it leads to an additional RF. Modifications of the GWP and GTP for bioenergy (GWP_{bio}, GTP_{bio}) have been developed (Cherubini et al., 2011; Cherubini et al., 2012). The GWP_{bio} give values generally between zero (current default for bioenergy) and one (current for fossil fuel emissions) (Cherubini et al., 2011), and negative values are possible for GTP_{bio} due to the fast time scale of atmospheric–ocean CO_2 exchange relative to the growth cycle of biomass (Cherubini et al., 2012). GWP_{bio} and GTP_{bio} have been used in only a few applications, and more research is needed to assess their robustness and applicability. Metrics for biogeophysical effects, such as albedo changes, have been proposed (Betts, 2000; Rotenberg and Yakir, 2010) , but as for NTCFs regional variations are important (Claussen et al., 2001) and the RF concept may not be adequate (Davin et al., 2007).

New concepts have also been developed to capture information about regional patterns of responses and cancelling effects that are lost when global mean metrics are used. The use of nonlinear damage functions to capture information on the spatial pattern of responses has been explored (Shine et al., 2005b; Lund et al., 2012). In addition, the Absolute Regional Temperature Potential (ARTP) (Shindell, 2012; Collins et al., 2013) has been developed to provide estimates of impacts at a sub-global scale. ARTP gives the time-dependent temperature response in four latitude bands as a function of the regional forcing imposed in all bands. These metrics, as well as new regional precipitation metrics (Shindell et al., 2012b), require additional studies to determine their robustness.

Alternatives to the single basket approach adopted by the Kyoto Protocol are a component-by-component approach or a multi-basket approach (Rypdal et al., 2005; Daniel et al., 2012; Sarofim, 2012; Jackson, 2009). Smith et al. (2012) show how peak temperature change is constrained by *cumulative emissions* (see 12.5.4) for gases with long lifetimes and *emissions rates* for shorter-lived gases (including CH_4). Thus, they divide gases into two baskets and present two metrics that can be used for estimating peak temperature for various emission scenarios. This division of gases into the two baskets is sensitive to the time of peak temperature in the different scenarios. The approach uses time invariant metrics that do not account for the timing of emissions relative to the target year. The choice of time horizon is implicit in the scenario assumed and this approach works only for a peak scenario.

A number of new metrics have been developed to add economic dimensions to purely physically based metrics such as the GWP and GTP. The use of physical metrics in policy contexts has been criticized by economists (Reilly and Richards, 1993; Schmalensee, 1993; Hammitt et al., 1996; Reilly et al., 1999; Bradford, 2001; De Cara et al., 2008). A prominent use of metrics is to set relative prices of gases when implementing a multi-gas policy. Once a particular policy has been agreed on, economic metrics can address policy goals more directly than physical metrics by accounting not only for physical dimensions but also for economic dimensions such as mitigation costs, damage costs and discount rates (see WGIII, Chapter 3; Deuber et al., 2013).

For example, if mitigation policy is set within a *cost-effectiveness* framework with the aim of making the least cost mix of emissions reductions across components to meet a global temperature target, the 'price ratio' (Manne and Richels, 2001), also called the Global Cost Potential (GCP) (Tol et al., 2012), most directly addresses the goal. The choice of target is a policy decision; metric values can then be calculated based on an agreed upon target. Similarly, if policy is set within a *cost–benefit* framework, the metric that directly addresses the policy goal is the ratio of the marginal damages from the emission of a gas (i.e., the damage costs to society resulting from an incremental increase in emissions) relative to the marginal damages of an emission of CO_2, known as the Global Damage Potential (GDP) (Kandlikar, 1995). Both types of metrics are typically determined within an integrated climate–economy model, since they are affected both by the response of the climate system as well as by economic factors.

If other indexes, such as the GWP, are used instead of an economic cost-minimizing index, costs to society will increase. Cost implications at the project or country level could be substantial under some circumstances (Godal and Fuglestvedt, 2002; Shine, 2009; Reisinger et al., 2013). However, under idealized conditions of full participation in mitigation policy, the increase is relatively small at the global level, particularly when compared to the cost savings resulting from a multi- (as opposed to single-) gas mitigation strategy even when based on an imperfect metric (O'Neill, 2003; Aaheim et al., 2006; Johansson et al., 2006; Johansson, 2012; Reisinger et al., 2013; Smith et al., 2013).

Purely physical metrics continue to be used in many contexts due at least in part to the added uncertainties in mitigation and damage costs, and therefore in the values of economic metrics (Boucher, 2012). Efforts have been made to view purely physical metrics such as GWPs and GTPs as approximations of economic indexes. GTPs, for example, can be interpreted as an approximation of a Global Cost Potential designed for use in a cost-effectiveness setting (Shine et al., 2007; Tol et al., 2012). Quantitative values for time-dependent GTPs reproduce in broad terms several features of the Global Cost Potential such as the rising value of metrics for short-lived gases as a climate policy target is approached (Tanaka et al., 2013). Figure 8.30 shows how contributions of N_2O, CH_4 and BC to warming in the target year changes over time. The contributions are given relative to CO_2 and show the effects of emission occurring at various times. Similarly, GWPs can be interpreted as approximations of the Global Damage Potential designed for a cost–benefit framework (Tol et al., 2012). These interpretations of the GTP and GWP imply that using even a purely physical metric in an economic policy context involves an implicit economic valuation.

In both cases, a number of simplifying assumptions must be made for these approximations to hold (Tol et al., 2012). For example, in the case of the GWP, the influence of emissions on RF, and therefore implicitly on costs to society, beyond the time horizon is not taken into account, and there are substantial numerical differences between GWP and GDP values (Marten and Newbold, 2012). In the case of the GTP, the influence of emissions on temperature change (and costs) is

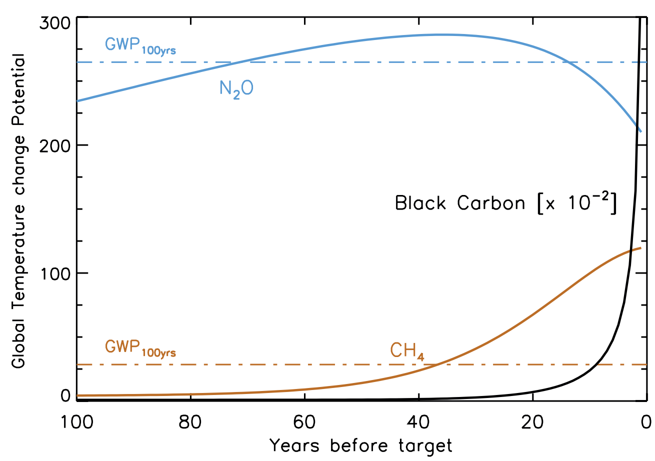

Figure 8.30 | Global Temperature change Potential (GTP(*t*)) for CH_4, nitrous oxide and BC for each year from year of emission to the time at which the temperature change target is reached. The (time-invariant) GWP_{100} is also shown for N_2O and CH_4 for comparison.

included only at the time the target is reached, but not before nor after. Other metrics have been developed to more closely approximate GCPs or GDPs. The Cost-Effective Temperature Potential (CETP) reproduces values of the GCP more closely than does the GTP (Johansson, 2012). It is similar to the GTP but accounts for post-target temperature effects based on an assumption about how to value costs beyond the time the target is reached. Metrics have also been proposed that take into account forcing or temperature effects that result from emissions trajectories over broad time spans, and that behave similarly to GCP and GTP (Tanaka et al., 2009; Manning and Reisinger, 2011) or to GWP (e.g., O'Neill, 2000; Peters et al., 2011a; Gillett and Matthews, 2010; Azar and Johansson, 2012).

8.7.1.6 Synthesis

In the application and evaluation of metrics, it is important to distinguish between two main sources of variation in metric values. While scientific choices of input data have to be made, there are also choices involving value judgements. For some metrics such choices are not always explicit and transparent. The choice of metric type and time horizon will for many components have a much larger effect than improved estimates of input parameters and can have strong effects on perceived impacts of emissions and abatement strategies.

In addition to progress in understanding of GWP, new concepts have been introduced or further explored since AR4. Time variant metrics introduce more dynamical views of the temporal contributions that accounts for the proximity to a prescribed target (in contrast to the traditional static GWP). Time variant metrics can be presented in a format that makes changing metric values over time predictable.

As metrics use parameters further down the cause effect chain the metrics become in general more policy relevant, but at the same time the uncertainties increase. Furthermore, metrics that account for regional variations in sensitivity to emissions or regional variation in response could give a very different emphasis to various emissions. Many species, especially NTCFs, produce distinctly regionally heterogeneous RF and climate response patterns. These aspects are not accounted for in the commonly used global scale metrics.

The GWPs and GTPs have had inconsistent treatment of indirect effects and feedbacks. The GWPs reported in AR4 include climate–carbon feedbacks for the reference gas CO_2 but not for the non-CO_2 gases. Such feedbacks may have significant impacts on metrics and should be treated consistently. More studies are needed to assess the importance of consistent treatment of indirect effects/feedbacks in metrics.

The weighting of effects over time—choice of time horizon in the case of GWP and GTP—is value based. Discounting is an alternative, which also includes value judgements and is equally controversial. The weighting used in the GWP is a weight equal to one up to the time horizon and zero thereafter, which is not in line with common approaches for evaluation of future effects in economics (e.g., as in WGIII, Chapter 3). Adoption of a fixed horizon of e.g., 20, 100 or 500 years will inevitably put no weight on the long-term effect of CO_2 beyond the time horizon (Figure 8.28 and Box 6.1). While GWP integrates the effects up to a chosen time horizon the GTP gives the temperature just for one chosen year with no weight on years before or after. The most appropriate metric depends on the particular application and which aspect of climate change is considered relevant in a given context. The GWP is not directly related to a temperature limit such as the 2°C target (Manne and Richels, 2001; Shine et al., 2007; Manning and Reisinger, 2011; Smith et al., 2012; Tol et al., 2012; Tanaka et al., 2013), whereas some economic metrics and physical end-point metrics like the GTP may be more suitable for this purpose.

To provide metrics that can be useful to the users and policymakers a more effective dialog and discussion on three topics is needed: (1) which applications particular metrics are meant to serve; (2) how comprehensive metrics need to be in terms of indirect effects and feedbacks, and economic dimensions; and—related to this (3) how important it is to have simple and transparent metrics (given by analytical formulations) versus more complex model-based and thus model-dependent metrics. These issues are also important to consider in a wider disciplinary context (e.g., across the IPCC Working Groups). Finally, it is important to be aware that all metric choices, even 'traditional' or 'widely used' metrics, contain implicit value judgements as well as large uncertainties.

8.7.2 Application of Metrics

8.7.2.1 Metrics for Carbon Dioxide, Methane, Nitrous Oxide, Halocarbons and Related Compounds

Updated (A)GWP and (A)GTP values for CO_2, CH_4, N_2O, CFCs, HCFCs, bromofluorocarbons, halons, HFCs, PFCs, SF_6, NF_3, and related halogen-containing compounds are given for some illustrative and tentative time horizons in Tables 8.7, 8.A.1 and Supplementary Material Table 8.SM.16. The input data and methods for calculations of GWPs and GTPs are documented in the Supplementary Material Section 8.SM.13. Indirect GWPs that account for the RF caused by depletion of stratospheric ozone (consistent with Section 8.3.3) are given for selected gases in Table 8.A.2.

The *confidence* in the ability to provide useful metrics at time scales of several centuries is *very low* due to nonlinear effects, large uncertainties for multi-century processes and strong assumptions of constant background conditions. Thus, we do not give metric values for longer time scales than 100 years (see discussion in Supplementary Material Section 8.SM.11). However, these time scales are important to consider for gases such as CO_2, SF_6 and PFCs. For CO_2, as much as 20 to 40% of the initial increase in concentration remains after 500 years. For PFC-14, 99% of an emission is still in the atmosphere after 500 years. The effects of emissions on these time scales are discussed in Chapter 12.

The GWP values have changed from previous assessments due to new estimates of lifetimes, impulse response functions and radiative efficiencies. These are updated due to improved knowledge and/or changed background levels. Because CO_2 is used as reference, any changes for this gas will affect all metric values via AGWP changes. Figure 8.31 shows how the values of radiative efficiency (RE), integrated impulse response function (IRF) and consequentially AGWP for CO_2 have changed from earlier assessments relative to AR5 values. The net effect of change in RE and IRF is an increase of approximately 1% and

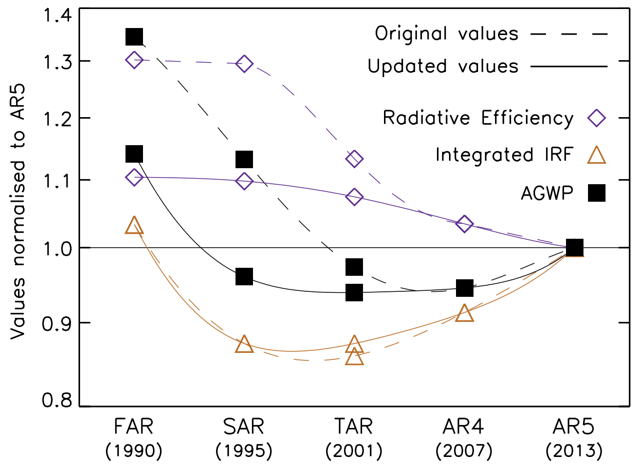

Figure 8.31 | Changes in the radiative efficiency (RE), integrated impulse response function (IRF) and Absolute Global Warming Potential (AGWP) for CO_2 for 100 years from earlier IPCC Assessment Reports normalized relative to the values given in AR5. The 'original' values are calculated based on the methods explained or value reported in each IPCC Assessment Report. The 'updated' values are calculated based on the methods used in AR5, but the input values from each Assessment Report. The difference is primarily in the formula for the RE, which was updated in TAR. The different integrated IRF in TAR relates to a different parameterisation of the same IRF (WMO, 1999). Changes represent both changes in scientific understanding and a changing background atmospheric CO_2 concentration (note that *y*-axis starts from 0.8). The lines connecting individual points are meant as a visual guide and not to represent the values between different Assessment Reports.

6% from AR4 to AR5 in AGWP for CO_2 for 20 and 100 years, respectively (see Supplementary Material Section 8.SM.12). These increases in the AGWP of the reference gas lead to corresponding decreases in the GWPs for all non-CO_2 gases. Continued increases in the atmospheric levels of CO_2 will lead to further changes in GWPs (and GTPs) in the future.

To understand the factors contributing to changes relative to AR4, comparisons are made here using the AR5 values that include climate–carbon feedbacks for CO_2 only. Relative to AR4 the CH_4 AGWP has changed due to changes in perturbation lifetime, a minor change in RE due to an increase in background concentration, and changes in the estimates of indirect effects. The indirect effects on O_3 and stratospheric H_2O are accounted for by increasing the effect of CH_4 by 50% and 15%, respectively (see Supplementary Material Table 8.SM.12). The ozone effect has doubled since AR4 taking into account more recent studies as detailed in Sections 8.3.3 and 8.5.1. Together with the changes in AGWP for CO_2 the net effect is increased GWP values of CH_4.

The GWPs for N_2O are lower here compared to AR4. A longer perturbation lifetime is used in AR5, while the radiative efficiency is lower due to increased abundances of CH_4 and N_2O. In addition, the reduction in CH_4 via stratospheric O_3, UV fluxes and OH levels due to increased N_2O abundance is included in GWPs and GTP. Owing to large uncertainties related to altitude of changes, we do not include the RF from stratospheric ozone changes as an indirect effect of N_2O.

Lifetimes for most of the halocarbons are taken from WMO (2011) and many of these have changed from AR4. The lifetimes of CFC-114, CFC-115 and HCF-161 are reduced by approximately 40%, while HFC-152 is reduced by one third. Among the hydrofluoroethers (HFEs) there are also several large changes in lifetimes. In addition, substantial updates of radiative efficiencies are made for several important gases; CFC-11, CFC-115, HCFC-124, HCFC-225cb, HFC-143a, HFC-245fa, CCl_4, $CHCl_3$, and SF_6. The radiative efficiency for carbon tetrachloride (CCl_4) is higher now and the GWP_{100} has increased by almost 25% from AR4. Uncertainties in metric values are given in Section 8.7.1.4. See also Supplementary Material Section 8.SM.12 and footnote to Table 8.A.1. As can be seen from Table 8.A.2, some ODS have strong indirect effects through stratospheric ozone forcing, which for some of the gases reduce their net GWP_{100} values substantially (and for the halons, to large negative values). Note that, consistent with Section 8.3.3, the uncertainties are large; ±100% for this indirect effect.

When climate-carbon feedbacks are included for both the non-CO_2 and reference gases, all metric values increase relative to the methodology used in AR4, sometimes greatly (Table 8.7, Supplementary Material Table 8.SM.16). Though the uncertainties range for these metric values is greater, as uncertainties in climate-carbon feedbacks are substantial, these calculations provide a more consistent methodology.

8.7.2.2 Metrics for Near-Term Climate Forcers

The GWP concept was initially used for the WMGHGs, but later for NTCFs as well. There are, however, substantial challenges related to calculations of GWP (and GTP) values for these components, which is reflected in the large ranges of values in the literature. Below we present and assess the current status of knowledge and quantification of metrics for various NTCFs.

8.7.2.2.1 Nitrogen oxides

Metric values for NO_X usually include the short-lived ozone effect, CH_4 changes and the CH_4-controlled O_3 response. NO_X also causes RF through nitrate formation, and via CH_4 it affects stratospheric H_2O and through ozone it influences CO_2. In addition, NO_x affects CO_2 through nitrogen deposition (fertilization effect). Due to high reactivity and the many nonlinear chemical interactions operating on different time scales, as well as heterogeneous emission patterns, calculation of *net* climate effects of NO_X is difficult. The net effect is a balance of large opposing effects with very different temporal behaviours. There is also a large spread in values among the regions due to variations in chemical and physical characteristics of the atmosphere.

As shown in Table 8.A.3 the GTP and GWP values are very different. This is due to the fundamentally different nature of these two metrics (see Figure 8.28) and the way they capture the temporal behaviour of responses to NO_x emissions. Time variation of GTP for NO_X is complex, which is not directly seen by the somewhat arbitrary choices of time horizon, and the net GTP is a fine balance between the contributing terms. The general pattern for NO_X is that the short-lived ozone forcing is always positive, while the CH_4-induced ozone forcing and CH_4 forcing are always negative (see Section 8.5.1). Nitrate aerosols from NO_x emission are not included in Table 8.A.3. For the GTP, all estimates for NO_X from surface sources give a negative net effect. As discussed in Section 8.7.1.4 Collins et al. (2010) and Shindell et al. (2009) implemented further indirect effects, but these are not included in Table

8.A.3 due to large uncertainties. The metric estimates for NO_X reflect the level of knowledge, but they also depend on experimental design, treatment of transport processes, and modelling of background levels. The multi-model study by Fry et al. (2012) shows the gaseous chemistry response to NO_X is relatively robust for European emissions, but that the uncertainty is so large that for some regions of emissions it is not possible to conclude whether NO_X causes cooling or warming.

8.7.2.2.2 Carbon monoxide and volatile organic compounds

Emissions of carbon monoxide (CO) and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) lead to production of ozone on short time scales. By affecting OH and thereby the levels of CH_4 they also initiate a positive long-term ozone effect. With its lifetime of 2 to 3 months, the effect of CO emissions is less dependent on location than is the case for NO_X (see Table 8.A.4). There is also less variation across models. However, Collins et al. (2010) found that inclusion of vegetation effects of O_3 increased the GTP values for CO by 20 to 50%. By including aerosol responses Shindell et al. (2009) found an increase in GWP_{100} by a factor of ~2.5. CO of fossil origin will also have a forcing effect by contributing to CO_2 levels. This effect adds 1.4 to 1.6 to the GWP_{100} for CO (Daniel and Solomon, 1998; Derwent et al., 2001). (The vegetation and aerosol effects are not included in the numbers in Table 8.A.4.)

VOC is not a well-defined group of hydrocarbons. This group of gases with different lifetimes is treated differently across models by lumping or using representative key species. However, the spread in metric values in Table 8.A.5 is moderate across regions, with highest values for emissions in South Asia (of the four regions studied). The effects via ozone and CH_4 cause warming, and the additional effects via interactions with aerosols and via the O_3–CO_2 link increase the warming effect further. Thus, the net effects of CO and VOC are less uncertain than for NO_X for which the net is a residual between larger terms of opposite sign. However, the formation of SOAs is usually not included in metric calculations for VOC, which introduces a cooling effect and increased uncertainty.

8.7.2.2.3 Black carbon and organic carbon

Most of the metric values for BC in the literature include the aerosol–radiation interaction and the snow/ice albedo effect of BC, though whether external or internal mixing is used varies between the studies. Bond et al. (2011) calculate GWPs and find that when the albedo effect is included the values increase by 5 to 15%. Studies have shown, however, that the climate response per unit forcing to this mechanism is stronger than for WMGHG (see Section 7.5).

Bond et al. (2013) assessed the current understanding of BC effects and calculated GWP and GTP for BC that includes aerosol–radiation interaction, aerosol–cloud interactions and albedo. As shown in Table 8.A.6 the uncertainties are wide for both metrics (for 90% uncertainty range) reflecting the current challenges related to understanding and quantifying the various effects (see Sections 7.5, 8.3.4 and 8.5.1). Their aerosol–radiation interaction effect is about 65% of the total effect while the albedo effect is approximately 20% of the aerosol–radiation interaction effect. Based on two studies (Rypdal et al., 2009; Bond et al., 2011), the GWP and GTP metrics were found to vary with the region where BC is emitted by about ±30% . For larger regions of emissions, Collins et al. (2013) calculated GWPs and GTPs for the direct effect of BC and found somewhat lower variations among the regions.

Several studies have focused on the effects of emissions of BC and OC from different regions (Bauer et al., 2007; Koch et al., 2007; Naik et al., 2007; Reddy and Boucher, 2007; Rypdal et al., 2009). However, examination of results from these models (Fuglestvedt et al., 2010) reveals that there is not a robust relationship between the region of emission and the metric value — hence, regions that yield the highest metric value in one study, do not, in general, do so in the other studies.

The metric values for OC are quite consistent across studies, but fewer studies are available (see Table 8.A.6). A brief overview of metric values for other components is given in the Supplementary Material Section 8.SM.14.

8.7.2.2.4 Summary of status of metrics for near-term climate forcers

The metrics provide a format for comparing the magnitudes of the various emissions as well as for comparing effects of emissions from different regions. They can also be used for comparing results from different studies. Much of the spread in results is due to differences in experimental design and how the models treat physical and chemical processes. Unlike most of the WMGHGs, many of the NTCFs are tightly coupled to the hydrologic cycle and atmospheric chemistry, leading to a much larger spread in results as these are highly complex processes that are difficult to validate on the requisite small spatial and short temporal scales. The confidence level is lower for many of the NTCF compared to WMGHG and much lower where aerosol–cloud interactions are important (see Section 8.5.1). There are particular difficulties for NO_X, because the net impact is a small residual of opposing effects with quite different spatial distributions and temporal behaviour. Although climate–carbon feedbacks for non-CO_2 emissions have not been included in the NTCF metrics (other than CH_4) presented here, they can greatly increase those values (Collins et al., 2013) and likely provide more realistic results.

8.7.2.3 Impact by Emitted Component

We now use the metrics evaluated here to estimate climate impacts of various components (in a forward looking perspective). Figure 8.32 shows global anthropogenic emissions of some selected components weighted by the GWP and GTP. The time horizons are chosen as examples and illustrate how the perceived impacts of components—relative to the impact of the reference gas—vary strongly as function of impact parameter (integrated RF in GWP or end-point temperature in GTP) and with time horizon.

We may also calculate the temporal development of the temperature responses to pulse or sustained emissions using the AGTP metric. Figure 8.33 shows that for a one-year pulse the impacts of NTCF decay quickly owing to their atmospheric adjustment times even if effects are prolonged due to climate response time (in the case of constant emissions the effects reach approximately constant levels since the emissions are replenished each year, except for CO_2, which has a fraction

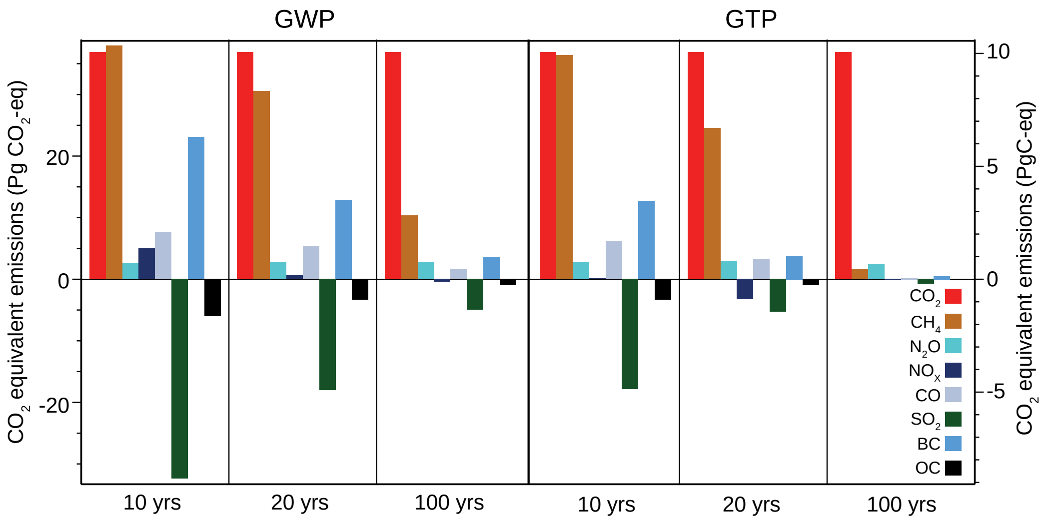

Figure 8.32 | Global anthropogenic emissions weighted by GWP and GTP for chosen time horizons (aerosol–cloud interactions are not included). Emission data for 2008 are taken from the EDGAR database. For BC and OC emissions for 2005 are from Shindell et al. (2012a). The units are 'CO$_2$ equivalents' which reflects equivalence only in the impact parameter of the chosen metric (integrated RF over the chosen time horizon for GWP; temperature change at the chosen point in time for GTP), given as Pg(CO$_2$)$_{eq}$ (left axis) and given as PgC$_{eq}$ (right axis). There are large uncertainties related to the metric values and consequentially also to the calculated CO$_2$ equivalents (see text).

remaining in the atmosphere on time scales of centuries). Figure 8.33 also shows how some components have strong short-lived effects of both signs while CO$_2$ has a weaker initial effect but one that persists to create a long-lived warming effect. Note that there are large uncertainties related to the metric values (as discussed in Section 8.7.1.4); especially for the NTCFs.

These examples show that the outcome of comparisons of effects of emissions depends strongly on choice of time horizon and metric type. Such end-user choices will have a strong influence on the calculated contributions from NTCFs versus WMGHGs or non-CO$_2$ versus CO$_2$ emissions. Thus, each specific analysis should use a design chosen in light of the context and questions being asked.

8.7.2.4 Metrics and Impacts by Sector

While the emissions of WMGHGs vary strongly between sectors, the climate impacts of these gases are independent of sector. The latter is not the case for chemically active and short-lived components, due to the dependence of their impact on the emission location. Since most sectors have multiple co-emissions, and for NTCFs some of these are warming while others are cooling, the net impact of a given sector requires explicit calculations. Since AR4, there has been significant progress in the understanding and quantification of climate impacts of NTCFs from sectors such as transportation, power production and biomass burning (Berntsen and Fuglestvedt, 2008; Skeie et al., 2009; Stevenson and Derwent, 2009; Lee et al., 2010; Unger et al., 2010; Dahlmann et al., 2011). Supplementary Material Table 8.SM.18 gives an overview of recent published metric values for various components by sector.

The impact from sectors depends on choice of metric, time horizon, pulse versus sustained emissions and forward versus backward looking perspective (see Section 8.7.1 and Box 8.4). Unger et al. (2010) calculated RF for a set of components emitted from each sector. RF at chosen points in time (20 and 100 years) for *sustained* emissions was used by Unger et al. (2010) as the metric for comparison. This is comparable

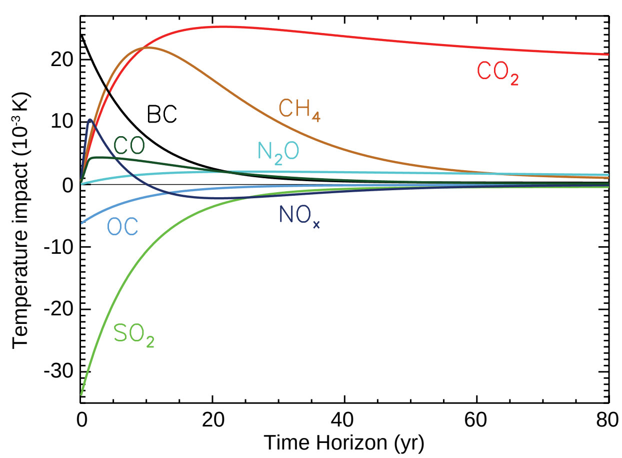

Figure 8.33 | Temperature response by component for total anthropogenic emissions for a 1-year pulse. Emission data for 2008 are taken from the EDGAR database and for BC and OC for 2005 from Shindell et al. (2012a). There are large uncertainties related to the AGTP values and consequentially also to the calculated temperature responses (see text).

to using integrated RF up to the chosen times for *pulse* emissions (as in GWPs). Such studies are relevant for policymaking that focuses on regulating the *total activity* of a sector or for understanding the contribution from a sector to climate change. On the other hand, the fixed mix of emissions makes it less general and relevant for emission scenarios. Alternatively, one may adopt a component-by-component view which is relevant for policies directed towards specific components (or sets of components, as controlling an individual pollutant in isolation is usually not practical). But this view will not capture interactions and non-linearities within the suite of components emitted by most sectors. The effects of specific emission control technologies or policies or projected societal changes on the mix of emissions is probably the most relevant type of analysis, but there are an enormous number of possible actions and regional details that could be investigated. Henze et al. (2012) demonstrate a method for providing highly spatially resolved estimates of forcing per component, and caution that RF aggregated over regions or sectors may not represent the impacts of emissions changes on finer scales.

Metrics for individual land-based sectors are often similar to the global mean metric values (Shindell et al., 2008). In contrast, metrics for emissions from aviation and shipping usually show large differences from global mean metric values (Table 8.A.3 versus Table 8.SM.18). Though there can sometimes be substantial variation in the impact of land-based sectors across regions, and for a particular region even from one sector to another, variability between different land-based sources is generally smaller than between land, sea and air emissions.

NO_x from aviation is one example where the metric type is especially important. GWP_{20} values are positive due to the strong response of short-lived ozone. Reported GWP_{100} and GTP_{100} values are of either sign, however, due to the differences in balance between the individual effects modelled. Even if the models agree on the net effect of NO_X, the individual contributions can differ significantly, with large uncertainties stemming from the relative magnitudes of the CH_4 and O_3 responses (Myhre et al., 2011) and the background tropospheric concentrations of NO_X (Holmes et al., 2011; Stevenson and Derwent, 2009). Köhler et al. (2013), find strong regional sensitivity of ozone and CH_4 to NO_X particularly at cruise altitude. Generally, they find the strongest effects at low latitudes. For the aviation sector contrails and contrail induced cirrus are also important. Based on detailed studies in the literature, Fuglestvedt et al. (2010) produced GWP and GTP for contrails, water vapor and contrail-induced cirrus.

The GWP and GTPs for NO_X from shipping are strongly negative for all time horizons. The strong positive effect via O_3 due to the low-NO_X environment into which ships generally emit NO_X is outweighed by the stronger effect on CH_4 destruction due to the relatively lower latitudes of these emissions compared to land-based sources.

In addition to having large emissions of NO_X the shipping sector has large emission of SO_2. The direct GWP_{100} for shipping ranges from –11 to –43 (see Supplementary Material Table 8.SM.18). Lauer et al. (2007) reported detailed calculations of the indirect forcing specifically for this sector and found a wide spread of values depending on the emission inventory. Righi et al. (2011) and Peters et al. (2012) calculate indirect effects that are 30 to 50% lower than the indirect forcing reported by Lauer et al. (2007). The values from Shindell and Faluvegi (2010) for SO_2 from power generation are similar to those for shipping.

Although the various land transport sectors often are treated as one aggregate (e.g., road transport) there are important subdivisions. For instance, Bond et al. (2013) points out that among the BC-rich sectors they examined, diesel vehicles have the most clearly positive net impact on forcing. Studies delving even further have shown substantial differences between trucks and cars, gasoline and diesel vehicles, and low-sulphur versus high-sulphur fuels. Similarly, for power production there are important differences depending on fuel type (coal, oil, gas; e.g., Shindell and Faluvegi, 2010).

In the assessment of climate impacts of current emissions by sectors we give examples and apply a forward-looking perspective on effects in terms of temperature change. The AGTP concept can be used to study the effects of the various components for chosen time horizons. A single year's worth of current global emissions from the energy and industrial sectors have the largest contributions to warming after 100 years (see Figure 8.34a). Household fossil fuel and biofuel, biomass burning and on-road transportation are also relatively large contributors to warming over 100-year time scales. Those same sectors, along with sectors that emit large amounts of CH_4 (animal husbandry, waste/landfills and agriculture), are most important over shorter time horizons (about 20 years; see Figure 8.34b).

Analysing climate change impacts by using the net effect of particular activities or sectors may—compared to other perspectives—provide more insight into how societal actions influence climate. Owing to large variations in mix of short- and long-lived components, as well as cooling and warming effects, the results will also in these cases depend strongly on choice of time horizon and climate impact parameter. Improved understanding of aerosol–cloud interactions, and how those are attributed to individual components is clearly necessary to refine estimates of sectoral or emitted component impacts.

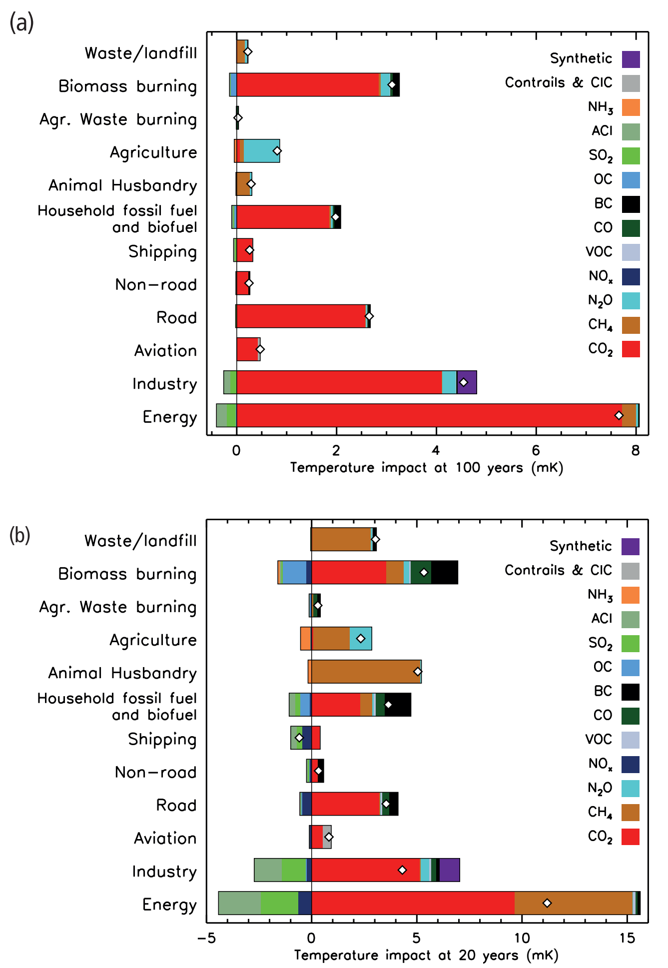

Figure 8.34 | Net global mean temperature change by source sector after (a) 100 and (b) 20 years (for 1-year pulse emissions). Emission data for 2008 are taken from the EDGAR database. For BC and OC anthropogenic emissions are from Shindell et al. (2012a) and biomass burning emissions are from Lamarque et al. (2010), see Supplementary Material Section 8.SM.17. There are large uncertainties related to the AGTP values and consequentially also to the calculated temperature responses (see text).