The effect of climate–carbon cycle feedbacks on emission metrics

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Abstract

The Climate–Carbon cycle Feedback (CCF) affects emission metric values. In the Fifth Assessment Report (AR5) of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change metric values for Global Warming Potentials (GWP) and Global Temperature Potentials (GTP) are reported both with and without CCF for non-CO₂ climate forcers, while CCF is always included for CO₂. The estimation of CCF for non-CO₂ climate forcers in AR5 is based on a linear feedback analysis. This study compares that approach with an explicit approach that uses a temperature dependent carbon cycle model. The key difference in the CCF results for non-CO₂ climate forcers is that, with the approach used in AR5, a fraction of the CO₂ signal induced by non-CO₂ forcers will persist in the atmosphere basically forever, while, with the approach based on an explicit carbon cycle model, the atmospheric CO₂ signal induced by non-CO₂ forcers eventually vanishes. The differences in metric values between the two model approaches are within ±10% for all well-mixed greenhouse gases when the time horizon is limited to 100 yr or less, for both GWP and GTP. However, for long time horizons, such as 500 yr, metric values are substantially lower with the explicit CCF model than with the linear feedback approach, up to 30% lower for GWP and up to 90% lower for GTP.

1. Introduction

Emission metrics are used to compare climate forcers that have different atmospheric adjustment times, often using carbon dioxide (CO₂) as a reference gas. These comparisons are helpful when trying to assess the impact on the climate of different anthropogenic activities that cause emissions of various climate forcers. For the metrics to be as relevant as possible, they need to be well-defined and consistent in their structure and calculation.

Historically, the treatment of the Climate–Carbon cycle Feedback (CCF), considered to be one of the most important positive biogeochemical feedbacks in the climate system (Arneth et al 2010, Ciais et al 2013), has been inconsistent when calculating metrics (Myhre et al 2013). Since the fourth assessment report (AR4) of the IPCC (Solomon et al 2007), the climate–carbon cycle feedback has been taken into account when estimating the Absolute Global Warming Potential (AGWP) for CO₂ but not when estimating the AGWP for the other gases. However, there have been calls for the inclusion of the CCF for non-CO₂ gases when calculating metric values (Gillett and Matthews 2010, Collins et al 2013). Gillett and Matthews (2010) find approximately a 20% increase in the GWP values for methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O) when including the CCF for non-CO₂ forcers. Recently a task force initiated by the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and the Society of Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry (SETAC) on ‘Global guidance on environmental life cycle impact assessment indicators’ added to the calls. The task force recommended that metrics that include the CCF effect for non-CO₂ greenhouse gases be used when conducting Life Cycle Assessments (LCAs) (Levasseur et al 2016). Hence, it is important to assess how the CCF affects emission metrics in detail since it...
is possible that metric values that include the CCF will be industry standard in the near future.

In the AR5, the inconsistent treatment of the CCF for CO₂ versus non-CO₂ forcers was discussed and dealt with by presenting metric values that included the CCF (Myhre et al. 2013) for all but the Short-Lived Climate Forcers (SLCFs). The approach used for estimating the contribution of CCF to metric values was based on the Linear Feedback Analysis (LFA) presented in Collins et al. (2013). In this approach the temperature perturbation induced by an emission pulse of a non-CO₂ forcer causes a net release of carbon to the atmosphere, without any details about from where this carbon came. Further, the carbon added to the atmosphere is assumed to be removed from the atmosphere in the same way as an emission pulse of fossil carbon.

In this study we compare metric values, for the Global Warming Potential (GWP) and Global Temperature change Potential (GTP), estimated with two different approaches to including the CCF. We contrast the LFA approach with an approach based on a Coupled Climate–Carbon cycle Model (CCCM) that models the interaction between the climate and the carbon cycle explicitly. Our prime interest lies in the difference in CCF relaxation time scales between the two model approaches and what effect this has on absolute and relative metric values.

In section 2, we introduce the CCCM, and in section 3, we present the methods used for the numerical evaluation of the metrics. section 4 contains results and analysis, and we end with conclusions in section 5. In the supplementary material available at stacks.iop.org/ERL/12/034019/mmedia (SM) we present details of the model, elaborate on the results in more detail, and show some additional results.

2. A coupled climate–carbon cycle model

This study utilizes an Upwelling-Diffusion Energy Balance Model (UDEBM) presented in Sterner et al. (2014) and Johansson et al. (2015) coupled to a carbon cycle model based on Siegenthaler and Oeschger (1987), Jain et al. (1995), and Joos et al. (1996). We first present the UDEBM and then the carbon cycle model (model equations are given in SM 1.1). For the greenhouse gases explicitly studied in this paper (CH₄, N₂O, and sulfur hexafluoride, SF₆), we use simple gas cycle models in line with those used in IPCC AR5 (Myhre et al. 2013), while for Black Carbon (BC) we calculate a radiative forcing pulse using the specific forcing and adjustment time of Fuglestvedt et al. (2010). The LFA approach utilizes the same climate model but with a different setup of the carbon cycle model (see section 3.3) that represents the CCF using a linear relationship between temperature change and the induced carbon release.

2.1. Upwelling diffusion energy balance model

The UDEBM has two surface layers, one layer for land areas and the atmosphere above it and one for the mixed-layer ocean and the atmosphere above it. The ocean below the mixed layer has been discretized into 39 layers of equal size. The structure of the UDEBM and its calibration are based on Shine et al. (2005), Hoffert et al. (1980), Baker and Roe (2009), Olivié and Stuber (2010), Johansson et al. (2015) and MAGICC Meinshausen et al. (2011a). We use a climate sensitivity of 3 °C for a doubling of atmospheric CO₂ concentration. The UDEBM is tuned as in Sterner et al. (2014)³ to give a global annual mean surface temperature over the period 1880–2005 that is roughly in line with observations reported in the NASA GISS series (Hansen et al. 2010) (see SM 1.3). The UDEBM calibration is described in greater detail in the supplementary material of Sterner et al. (2014).

2.2. The carbon cycle model

The reduced-complexity carbon cycle model used in this study consists of two parts: a four-box terrestrial biosphere model (Siegenthaler and Oeschger 1987) and an upwelling-diffusion model (UDM) (Jain et al. 1995, Joos et al. 1996).

The box model representing the biospheric part of the carbon cycle consists of four carbon reservoirs: ‘ground vegetation plus leaves,’ ‘wood,’ ‘detritus,’ and ‘soils’ (denoted G, W, D, and S respectively). The pre-industrial values of the carbon reservoirs and the fluxes between them are based on Siegenthaler and Oeschger (1987). In order to examine the CCF we assume that decomposition and respiration rates for the D and S boxes are temperature dependent with a relationship stating the change in the rates of decomposition and respiration for a ten degree increase in global mean annual land surface temperature (so-called effective Q₁₀-factors) (Harvey 1989, Friedlingstein et al. 2006). The strength of the effective Q₁₀-factors is highly uncertain, and recent studies (Friedlingstein 2015) indicate that the CCF may be lower than found in older literature (Friedlingstein et al. 2006, Ciais et al. 2013). The Net Primary Production (NPP) increases with increasing atmospheric CO₂ concentration due to the CO₂-fertilization effect. The strength of the CO₂ fertilization effect in the model is controlled with a biota growth factor, β (see SM 1.1) (Bacastow and Keeling 1973). We assume that NPP is independent of changes in the global temperature, since the effect of climate change (besides CO₂ fertilization) on NPP varies from positive to negative among various studies.

² IPCC AR5 uses the term near-term climate forcer, but we find this misleading since all climate forcers, including the so-called long-term forcers, cause forcing in the near term.

³ The only change in parameter values is a reduction of the upwelling velocity to 3.5 m per year here.
and models (Friedlingstein et al 2006, Meinshausen et al 2011a).

For the ocean part of the carbon cycle, the model is conceptually identical to the UDEBM, but instead of modeling energy fluxes it models vertical flows of carbon (as in Jain et al 1995). The inorganic carbon-chemistry of the ocean surface controlling the exchange between the ocean and the atmosphere is parameterized based on Joos et al (1996), while the temperature dependence of the partial pressure of sea surface CO$_2$ is from Joos et al (2001) (see SM 1.1 for more information).

Two key parameters that control fluxes of carbon in the carbon cycle model$^4$ are calibrated to capture the CO$_2$ increase in the atmosphere since 1765 (using emissions and concentrations from Meinshausen et al 2011b) and to give a similar uptake in the biosphere and the ocean as reported in AR5 (Ciais et al 2011b) and to give a similar uptake in the biosphere and the ocean as reported in AR5 (Ciais et al 2011b) for CO$_2$ increase in the atmosphere since 1765 (using emissions and concentrations from Meinshausen et al 2011b) and to give a similar uptake in the biosphere and the ocean as reported in AR5 (Ciais et al 2011b) and to give a similar uptake in the biosphere and the ocean as reported in AR5 (Ciais et al 2011b). The inorganic carbon-chemistry of the ocean surface controlling the exchange between the ocean and the atmosphere is parameterized based on Joos et al (1996), while the temperature dependence of the partial pressure of sea surface CO$_2$ is from Joos et al (2001) (see SM 1.1 for more information).

The model does not include the slow sedimentation processes and the reactions with silicate rocks that over time scales of 10,000 to 100,000 yr cause atmospheric CO$_2$ perturbations to relax back to zero. Further, the model does not include the hydrologic cycle, so it does not capture changes in precipitation and soil moisture that could have important effects on CCF. Hence, the climate–carbon cycle model is relatively simple. However, related simple climate models have proven to be useful for various sorts of analyses of climate change (cf. Meinshausen et al 2009), including for analysis of emission metrics (Joos et al 2013, Reisinger et al 2010, Reisinger et al 2011, Tanaka et al 2009). The quantitative results should nevertheless be interpreted with some care.

### 3. The carbon cycle feedback and its impact on metric values

We evaluate the metrics (A)GWP and (A)GTP with a set of climate forcers that cover the whole scale of adjustment times, from the short-lived BC to the long-lived sulfur hexafluoride (SF$_6$) and CO$_2$ (see table SM 1). Metric values are contingent upon the background scenario used (Joos et al 2013, 2011). We use the emissions from the RCP 4.5 scenario with additional pulse emissions of $10^6$ kg = 1 Kilo ton (Kt) on top of the scenario to calculate metric values. The background scenario for the climate forcers not explicitly studied here is given by the RCP 4.5 radiative forcing scenario (Meinshausen et al 2011b).

The model’s time resolution is 0.1 yr. We assume that the emission pulses of the different forcers occur in the first tenth of year 2015. The atmospheric BC stock is assumed to reach its equilibrium level directly, and then it falls back to zero in the subsequent time step.

We run the model both without (described in section 3.2) and with (described in section 3.3) the CCF for non-CO$_2$ forcers. The CCF is in turn included in two different ways: a) by calculating it with the CCCM where the warming induced by an emissions pulse of a non-CO$_2$ forcer explicitly affects the different carbon reservoirs (referred to as the Explicit Carbon–Climate Feedback (ECCF) approach) and b) by calculating the CCF using an LFA approach similar to the method used in IPCC AR5 (Myhre et al 2013) and Collins et al (2013).

#### 3.1. Absolute metric values for CO$_2$

When studying emission pulses of CO$_2$, which is the reference gas for the relative metric values, we consistently use the CCCM with the explicit temperature dependence of the carbon cycle as in the ECCF approach. To calculate AGWP$_{CO_2}$ and AGTP$_{CO_2}$, we run the CCCM with an extra emission pulse of CO$_2$ in addition to the emissions in the background scenario and calculate the impacts on CO$_2$ concentration, radiative forcing, and temperature. This is in principle similar to how the Impulse Response Function (IRF) for CO$_2$ used for emissions metrics in IPCC AR5 was estimated (Joos et al 2013)$^5$.

#### 3.2. Metrics without CCF for non-CO$_2$ forcers

When calculating metric values without the CCF for non-CO$_2$ forcers, we first run the CCCM with emissions from the RCP4.5 scenario to establish the background concentrations for the climate forcers we explicitly consider in the analysis. In the next step, we add emission pulses for different forcers to estimate absolute metric values, i.e. AGTP and AGWP, from which GTP and GWP values can be calculated equations (1) and (2):

\[
\text{GTP}_X^{H} = \frac{\text{AGTP}_X^{H}}{\text{AGTP}_{CO_2}^{H}}
\]

\[
\text{GWP}_X^{H} = \frac{\text{AGWP}_X^{H}}{\text{AGWP}_{CO_2}^{H}}
\]

Here $X$ is the climate forcer studied, $H$ is the time horizon, AGTP$_X$ is the absolute global temperature change potential and AGWP$_X$ is the absolute global warming potential of climate forcer $X$.

The absolute metric values are estimated differently for CO$_2$ and the non-CO$_2$ forcer since the CCF is included for AGWP$_{CO_2}^{H}$ and AGTP$_{CO_2}^{H}$ but not for AGWP$_X^{H}$ and AGTP$_X^{H}$. When estimating AGWP$_X^{H}$ and AGTP$_X^{H}$, we only use the gas cycle model of the studied forcer along with the UDEBM to estimate the impacts on concentration, radiative forcing, and temperature of the extra emission pulse and neglect possible interactions with the carbon cycle.

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$^4$ The CO$_2$-fertilization parameter, $\beta$, and the polar water parameter, $\pi$, the ratio of the change in carbon concentration in sinking polar water to the change in concentration in the global average ocean surface water.

$^5$ However, in Joos et al (2013) an assumption of constant CO$_2$ background concentration was used.
In this paper we present metric values for a time horizon up to 500 yr, while in IPCC AR5 metric values were only presented for time horizons up to 100 years for reasons related to uncertainty and potential limitations of the chosen approach to calculating metrics (Myhre et al 2013).

3.3. Metrics including the CCF for all forcers

3.3.1. The ECCF approach

When including CCF for non-CO2 forcers using the ECCF approach, the full CCCM (i.e. the temperature dependent version of the CCCM) is used. The metric values for a non-CO2 forcer are calculated by using the full CCCM with an extra emission pulse of the non-CO2 forcer in 2015. The impacts on the concentration of both the analyzed non-CO2 forcer and CO2, through the CCF, and subsequent impact on radiative forcing and temperature are assessed. From these values we can estimate the absolute metric values for the non-CO2 forcer with the CCF included. Hence, the direct temperature impact of emissions of a non-CO2 forcer on decomposition and respiration rates in the terrestrial biosphere model and the temperature dependence of the oceanic inorganic carbonate chemistry are explicitly modeled in the same way as they are for an emissions pulse of CO2.

3.3.2. The LFA approach

The LFA approach to including carbon cycle feedbacks for non-CO2 forcers is based on Collins et al (2013), with the CCF parts of AGTP and AGWP for non-CO2 forcer X evaluated according to equations (3) and (4).

\[
\Delta AGTP_{\text{ind} CO2} = \int_{0}^{H} \Gamma \cdot AGTP_X(t) \cdot AGTP_{CO2} (H - t) dt
\]

(3)

\[
\Delta AGWP_{\text{ind} CO2} = \int_{0}^{H} \Gamma \cdot AGTP_X(t) \cdot AGWP_{CO2} (H - t) dt
\]

(4)

Here \( AGTP_X(t) \) is the AGTP with no CCF at time \( t \) after the emission pulse, calculated as described in section 3.1. To emphasize that the CCF part of AGTP and AGWP estimated in this way are caused by the CCF induced CO2, they are denoted \( \Delta AGTP_{\text{ind} CO2} \) and \( \Delta AGWP_{\text{ind} CO2} \) respectively. The method utilizes results on an estimated linear feedback factor, \( \Gamma \), between global mean temperature change and carbon cycle response (Arora et al 2013, Boer and Arora 2012). Collins et al (2013) and Myhre et al (2013) use a climate–carbon cycle feedback \( \Gamma \) of 1 GtC K yr\(^{-1}\), based on Arora et al 2013. In SM 1.2, based on an approach similar to Boer and Arora (2012), we show that a linear feedback factor of 1 GtC K yr\(^{-1}\) is also a decent approximation of the CCF feedback strength in our CCCM. Hence, we use this value when applying the LFA approach (figure 1) in our study. Note that the feedback factor, \( \Gamma \), estimated in Arora et al (2013) and Boer and Arora (2012) is based on Earth System Models (ESMs) that have a far more elaborate description of the global carbon cycle than our CCCM.

In the LFA approach, absolute metric values for CO2 are still estimated using the full CCCM as described above (see section 3.1). This is analogous to the procedure followed by Collins et al (2013) and Myhre et al (2013) who use an impulse response function for CO2 that includes the CCF (Joos et al 2013). When estimating the absolute metric for the non-CO2 forcers using the LFA approach, we do not use an explicit impulse response function for \( AGTP_{CO2} \) as in Collins et al (2013) and Myhre et al (2013). Instead, utilizing our CCCM, we evaluate the effect on concentration, radiative forcing, and temperature of the induced CO2 release, calculated using the feedback factor approach (figure 1). These values are then added to the corresponding values for the non-CO2 forcer as estimated for the case with no CCF (i.e. the case presented in section 3.2), see equations (5) and (6) and figure 1. The LFA approach and our ECCF approach include the same feedbacks, but in different ways. In section 4 we compare the metric values they produce.

\[
AGTP_{\text{LFA} X} = AGTP_X + AGTP_{\text{ind} CO2}
\]

(5)

\[
AGWP_{\text{LFA} X} = AGWP_X + AGWP_{\text{ind} CO2}
\]

(6)

Here the \( AGTP_{\text{ind} CO2} \) (AGWP_{\text{ind} CO2}) is the AGTP (AGWP) of the induced CO2 emission release due to the emission pulse of climate forcer \( X \) calculated using the LFA approach.

3.3.3. Comparing the ECCF and the LFA approaches

In the ECCF approach, the CCF consists of an increase in the decomposition rate of terrestrial organic carbon and a shift towards a higher partial pressure of dissolved CO2 for a given level of Dissolved Inorganic Carbon (DIC) in ocean surface waters. Given a fixed background level of the atmospheric carbon stock, this implies a small release of carbon from the biosphere and the ocean to the atmosphere, which results in an increased atmospheric CO2 concentration and additional radiative forcing and warming.

In the LFA approach, however, the net CO2 released to the atmosphere due to the CCF is calculated by using the assumption of a linear relationship between the CO2 flux and the direct temperature perturbation caused by the non-CO2 forcer according to equations (3) and (4). The induced atmospheric CO2 caused by the non-CO2 forcer is assumed to have the same characteristics, i.e. atmospheric adjustment times, as regular emissions of fossil CO2 and will hence end up elevating the atmospheric carbon stock basically forever (figure 3).
The differences in the CCCM setups for the LFA and the ECCF approaches are presented in figure 1.

4. Results and metrics evaluation

We first present the AGTP and AGWP values based on different assumptions for the CCF for non-CO$_2$ forcers, followed by an analysis of the physical mechanisms behind the atmospheric CO$_2$ concentration induced by non-CO$_2$ forcers. Finally, we present the GWP and GTP metric values obtained when including CCF for non-CO$_2$ forcers using the full CCCM (i.e. the ECCF) and LFA (i.e. IPCC) approaches.

4.1. Absolute metrics and the climate carbon feedbacks

For all non-CO$_2$ forcers the AGWP and AGTP values are higher when the CCF is included compared to when it is not for both approaches (figure 2). This is expected because an emission pulse of a non-CO$_2$ warming forcer causes a positive temperature perturbation, which, due to the CCF, causes an amount of CO$_2$ to enter the atmosphere (figure 3).

All climate forcers produce different temperature perturbation time profiles as a result of their different radiative efficiencies and adjustment times. This in turn causes the CCF responses to vary among the forcers (figure 3). As a consequence, the CCF effects on AGTP and AGWP differ among forcers (figure 2). Further, the differences between the two CCF approaches vary among the different forcers.

The ECCF approach results in a stronger induced atmospheric CO$_2$ concentration in the short run compared to the LFA approach. The time horizon over which this holds depends on the adjustment time of the non-CO$_2$ forcer (figure 3). This causes the AGWP and AGTP to be slightly higher for the ECCF approach than for the LFA approach over a certain time horizon, the length of which increases with the atmospheric adjustment time of the non-CO$_2$ forcer. The reason that the values are only slightly higher is that the effect of the differences in the induced atmospheric CO$_2$ concentrations are initially dwarfed by the direct RF and warming of the non-CO$_2$ forcers. This causes the AGWP and AGTP, of the LFA and the ECCF approaches, to follow each other rather tightly for about 100 to 200 yr (see figure 2).

Further, with the ECCF approach the feedback-induced atmospheric CO$_2$ perturbation will eventually relax back to its unperturbed state for all forcers, while the LFA approach leads to an irreversible impact on
the atmospheric carbon stock (figure 3). Hence, the LFA approach will for time horizons large enough generate higher values than the ECCF approach for both AGTP and AGWP for all forcers studied (figure 2).

The reason for the irreversible impact on the atmospheric carbon stock with the LFA approach is that it models the carbon feedback as a temperature-induced CO₂ emission, where these emissions act as ‘extra emission pulses of CO₂’ (Collins et al 2013). The irreversibility is also a model artifact since it does not include the slow geochemical processes that eventually after 10 000 to 100 000 of years would remove the anthropogenic carbon emissions from the atmosphere, a property the model shares with the IRF used for metric estimates in IPCC AR5.
It is possible to estimate an IRF for the CCF that reflects the CCF found with the ECCF approach. Such a function could represent an accurate physical description of the carbon cycle response to the warming by non-CO2 forcers and could avoid problems with the LFA approach presented here. In section 3 of the supplementary material we elaborate on this approach. Recently, Gasser et al (2016) also published a discussion paper on such an approach.

4.2. Redistribution of carbon due to non-CO2 climate forcers

A key conceptual difference between the LFA and ECCF approaches to the CCF is that, with the LFA, the carbon added to the atmosphere is external to the linked atmosphere-biosphere-ocean system; with the ECCF, it is instead an effect of redistribution within the system. This section explores the dynamics of this redistribution following a non-CO2 emissions pulse.

For emission pulses of all forcers the induced temperature response causes initially a flux of carbon into the atmosphere from the biosphere due to increased rates of decomposition and respiration (figure 4). The exchange between the atmosphere and the ocean is small because of the balancing of two mechanisms working in different directions, i.e. the temperature dependence of the inorganic carbon chemistry of the surface water and the increase in partial pressure of the atmosphere due to the atmospheric CO2 increase caused by the net biosphere release of carbon.

After a number of years, depending on the atmospheric adjustment time of the climate forcer, the temperature perturbation caused by the forcing of the non-CO2 forcer peaks and ceases (figure 2), which in turn leads to that the perturbation in all three carbon reservoirs slowly relaxes back to its unper-
turbed state (see figure 4).

4.3. Effects of climate carbon feedbacks on relative metric values

Our estimates of GWP and GTP give similar, but not identical, values to corresponding ones in AR5 (Myhre et al 2013). There are several reasons why we do not get an exact match to the values presented in AR5. We use a scenario with varying background concentration (based on the emission-driven RCP 4.5), while the AR5 uses a constant background. Further, we use a CCCM to estimate metric values, while AR5 uses an approach based on an impulse response function. Furthermore, we do not include the indirect effects of N2O emissions on its own atmospheric lifetime and on the atmospheric lifetime of CH4 (Prather and Hsu 2010); this contributes to making the N2O metric values higher in this study than in AR5 where these effects are considered (Myhre et al 2013). Finally, the
time scales of our UDEBM differ from those of the impulse response function used for calculating the temperature response in estimating GTP in AR5 (Myhre et al 2013).

From table 1 it is clear that the emission metric values depend on if and how the CCF is included for non-CO2 forcers. As expected, the metric values are lowest when the CCF is excluded for these forcers altogether, since excluding it means leaving out a positive effect on the radiative forcing and temperature change.

On short time scales (such as a 20 yr time horizon), GWP and GTP are slightly higher with the ECCF than with the LFA approach. On long time scales (GWP and GTP with a 500 yr time horizon), the results are the opposite, i.e. the LFA approach generates higher metric values than the ECCF approach because the LFA approach gives a greater AGTP and AGWP than with ECCF after a certain time horizon, see section 4.1. In general, the difference in metric values between the two approaches is greater for GTP than GWP, reaching an order of magnitude
for the short-lived forcers for GTP, for the 500 yr time horizon. This is because GWP is an integrated metric, while GTP assesses the climate effect at a certain point in time (thus disregarding everything before that).

After 500 yr, the temperature signal (AGTP) from a short-lived climate forcer is virtually gone using the ECCF approach, while it has a clear positive temperature signal with LFA, causing a large relative difference between the approaches (see figures 2 and 3). However, for GWP, which integrates all past radiative forcing impacts up to the end year, the ECCF’s larger CCF signal during the initial years balances to a large extent the weaker signal in the long run. Neither GTP500 nor GWP500 is presented in AR5 (Myhre et al 2013), a decision taken, at least in part, due to the uncertainty in long-run climate consequences of emission pulses occurring in the near-term. However, GTP500 can be a relevant metric for assessing long-term, and close to irreversible, climate impacts.

For a 100 yr time horizon, the GWP metric values are higher with ECCF than with LFA for all forcers. For GTP, the results are mixed. The GTP metric values are higher with LFA approach than with ECCF for CH4 and BC, while the opposite holds for the long-lived greenhouse gases (N2O and SF6).

The metric values are sensitive to the choice of parameter values in the model. For example, increasing or decreasing the climate sensitivity value used in the model has a large impact on the absolute metric values, but a much smaller effect on relative ones. This has been shown by Karstensen et al (2015) to hold when not considering CCF. There is no reason to think this general conclusion would not also hold when including CCF. In the sensitivity analysis presented in SM 2, we focus on the sensitivity with respect to Q10 (the temperature dependence of the rates of decomposition and respiration) and β (the fertilization factor) using the ECCF approach. These are two of the most critical parameters in the carbon cycle model for its response to emissions and are directly relevant to various CO2- and temperature-induced feedbacks analyzed in this study. Other factors, such as NPP, pre-industrial carbon content of the various carbon reservoirs, and the decomposition or respiration rates in the various reservoirs, are of course important for the general functioning of the carbon cycle model, but less directly involved in the feedback mechanisms (Bodman et al 2013). We vary Q10 and β simultaneously in order to keep a good fit to the observed historical atmospheric CO2 concentration (see SM 2) and estimate the sensitivity of the metric values. We find that the GWP and GTP metric values, using the ECCF approach, are relatively robust to changes in Q10 (1.5, 2, or 2.5) and β (0.47, 0.55, or 0.62). For most relative emission metric values the changes are less than 5%, but they reach 15% in the case of GTP for a 100 yr time horizon, while absolute metric values are more sensitive.

5. Conclusions

The two different approaches to including the CCF for non-CO2 forcers give different emission metric values. The differences between the metric values obtained using the LFA approach and the ECCF approach tend to be larger for GTP than for GWP for most time horizons.

Further, in the short run, somewhat higher metric values for both GWP and GTP are obtained using the ECCF approach compared to the LFA approach because the initial CCF is stronger with the ECCF approach than with the LFA approach. However, with the ECCF approach, the elevated atmospheric CO2 will eventually relax back to zero, while this is not the case for the LFA approach. This causes both GTP and GWP metric values to be higher with the LFA than with the ECCF approach after certain time horizons, which depend on the atmospheric adjustment times of the non-CO2 forcers. For a 100 yr time horizon the results are mixed: for GWP the ECCF approach yields higher metric values than the LFA for all forcers, while for GTP the LFA approach yields higher metric values for BC and CH4, but for N2O and SF6 the ECCF yields higher values.

The LFA approach treats the warming induced by the non-CO2 forcers as if it induces extra CO2 emissions into the combined atmosphere-biosphere-ocean system that with time are distributed among the carbon reservoirs similarly to a pulse emission of fossil CO2. Hence, use of the LFA approach will result in that a fraction of the induced CO2 emission will remain in the atmosphere basically forever. The ECCF, on the other hand, captures the CCF in a physically consistent way as a redistribution of carbon within the atmosphere-biosphere-ocean system.

Although the LFA approach as used in IPCC AR5 has clear shortcomings for long time horizons it works reasonably well for time horizons up to ~100 (~200) years for GTP (GWP). This is perhaps to be expected since the feedback factor used in the LFA approach is estimated from a climate scenario that follows a certain pathway of over a period of about 100 yr (Arora et al 2013).

Uncertainties and possible limitations of the LFA approach for time horizons beyond 100 yr were acknowledged in IPCC AR5 (Myhre et al 2013), and no metric values for time horizons beyond 100 years were presented. Hence, given the large uncertainties in the size and the dynamics of carbon cycle feedbacks, the LFA approach, as used in IPCC AR5, gives decent estimates of the carbon cycle impact of non-CO2 greenhouse gases for time horizons limited to about a century.

However, the use of an approximate method like the LFA approach, as used in IPCC AR5, draws attention to the issue of simplicity and transparency versus accuracy and comprehensiveness when calculating emission metric values. How far simplicity can
be stretched at the expense of comprehensiveness is up to the judgment of the scientists involved and likely depends on the context in which the metric is to be used. If and how carbon cycle feedbacks and other feedbacks within the climate system (Shindell et al. 2009, Collins et al. 2010, Arneth et al. 2010) should be included in emission metrics is likely one of the key research issues for the development of refined emission metrics leading up to the next assessment report of the IPCC.

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