

Global Climate Change



Key Messages:

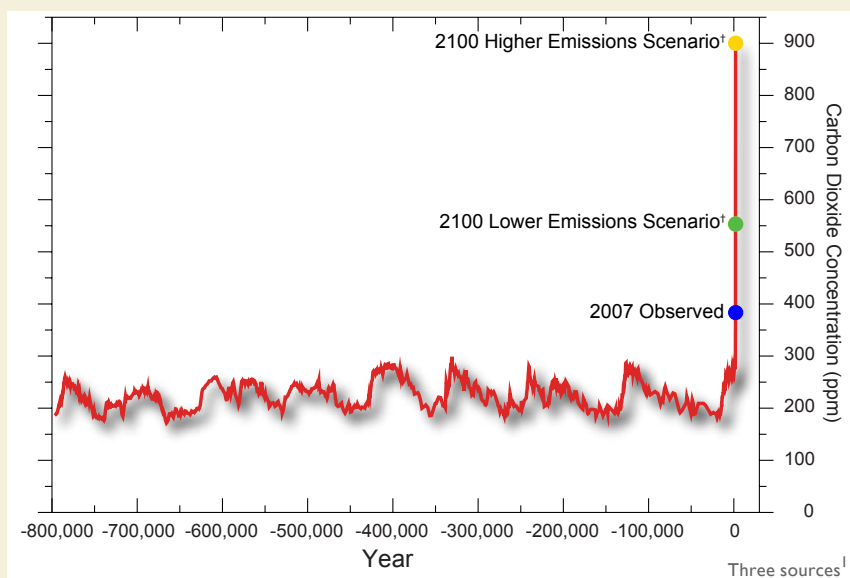
- Human activities have led to large increases in heat-trapping gases over the past century.
- Over the last 100 years, global average temperature and sea level have increased, and precipitation patterns have changed.
- Numerous independent lines of evidence show that many of the climatic changes of the past 50 years are primarily human-induced.
- Global temperatures will continue to rise over this century; by how much and for how long depends on a number of factors, including the amount of heat-trapping emissions and how sensitive the climate is to those emissions.

Key Sources



This introduction to global climate change explains very briefly what has been happening to the world's climate and why, and what is projected to happen in the future. While this Report focuses on climate change impacts in the United States, understanding these changes and their impacts necessarily requires an understanding of the global climate system.

800,000 Years of Carbon Dioxide Concentrations



An Antarctic ice core provides a look at the past 800,000 years of Earth's carbon dioxide concentrations, a central factor in our planet's climate. Over this long period, atmospheric carbon dioxide levels varied within a range of about 170 to 300 parts per million. The carbon dioxide concentration is now far outside of that range, 30 percent higher than the highest point in at least the last 800,000 years, at over 380 parts per million. Civilization is now on a path that is moving us rapidly toward even higher levels.

Many changes have been observed in global climate over the past century. The nature and causes of these changes have been comprehensively chronicled in a variety of recent reports, such as those by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) and the U.S. Climate Change Science Program (CCSP). This Section does not intend to duplicate these comprehensive efforts, but rather to provide a brief synthesis, and to integrate more recent work with the assessments of the IPCC, CCSP, and others.

Human activities have led to large increases in heat-trapping gases over the past century.

The Earth’s climate depends on the functioning of a large natural “greenhouse effect”. The greenhouse effect is the result of gases like water vapor, carbon dioxide, ozone, methane, and nitrous oxide, which absorb heat radiated from the Earth’s surface and lower atmosphere and then radiate much of the energy back towards the surface. Without this natural greenhouse effect, the average surface temperature of the Earth would be about 60°F colder. However, human activities release additional heat-trapping gases into the atmosphere, particularly through the burning of fossil fuels (coal, oil, and natural gas). This intensifies the natural greenhouse effect, thereby changing the climate of our planet.

Earth’s climate is influenced by a variety of factors, both human-induced and natural. The increase in the carbon dioxide concentration has been the principal factor causing warming over the past 50 years. Its concentration has been building up in the Earth’s atmosphere since the beginning of the industrial era, primarily due to the burning of fossil fuels and the clearing of forests. Human activities have also increased the emissions of other greenhouse gases, such as methane, nitrous oxide, and

halocarbons². These emissions are thickening the blanket of heat-trapping gases in Earth’s atmosphere, causing surface temperatures to rise.

Heat-trapping gases

Carbon dioxide concentration has increased due to the use of fossil fuels in electricity generation, transportation, industrial processes, and space and water heating. It is also produced as a by-product during the manufacturing of cement. Deforestation provides a source of carbon dioxide, and reduces its uptake by trees and other plants. Globally, over the past several decades, about 80 percent of human-induced carbon dioxide emissions came from the burning of fossil fuels, while about 20 percent resulted from deforestation. The concentration of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere has increased by roughly 35 percent since the industrial revolution².

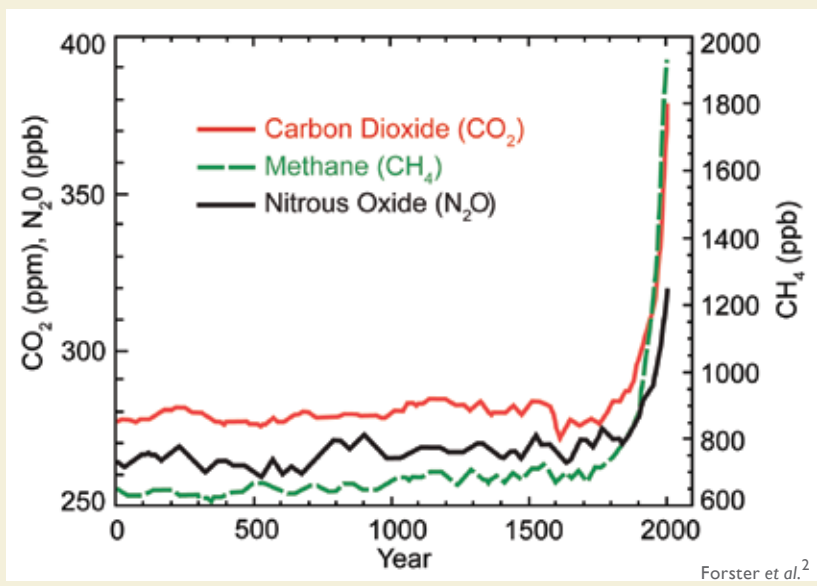
Methane concentration has increased mainly as a result of agriculture, raising livestock (which produce methane in their digestive tracts), mining, transportation, and use of certain fossil fuels, sewage, and decomposing garbage in landfills. About 70 percent of the emissions of atmospheric methane are now related to human activities.

Nitrous oxide concentration is increasing as a result of fertilizer use and fossil fuel burning.

Halocarbon emissions come from the release of manufactured chemicals to the atmosphere. Examples include chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), which were used extensively in refrigeration and other industrial processes before their presence in the atmosphere was found to cause stratospheric ozone depletion. The abundance of these gases in the atmosphere is now decreasing as a result of international regulations designed to protect the ozone layer. Continued decreases in halocarbon emissions are expected to reduce their effect on climate change in the future^{2,3}.

Ozone itself is a greenhouse gas, and is continually produced and destroyed in the atmosphere by chemical reactions. In the troposphere, the lowest 5 to 10 miles of the atmosphere near the surface, hu-

2,000 Years of Greenhouse Gas Concentrations



Increases in concentrations of these gases since 1750 are due to human activities in the industrial era. Concentration units are parts per million (ppm) or parts per billion (ppb), indicating the number of molecules of the greenhouse gas per million or billion molecules of air.

L1 man activities have increased ozone concentration
 L2 through the release of gases such as carbon mon-
 L3 oxide, hydrocarbons, and nitrogen oxides. These
 L4 gases undergo chemical reactions to produce ozone
 L5 in the presence of sunlight. In addition to trapping
 L6 heat, excess ozone in the troposphere causes respi-
 L7 ratory illnesses and other human health problems.
 L8 In the stratosphere, the layer above the troposphere,
 L9 ozone exists naturally and protects life on Earth
 L10 from exposure to excessive ultraviolet radiation
 L11 from the Sun. As mentioned previously, halocar-
 L12 bons released by human activities destroy ozone
 L13 in the stratosphere and have caused the ozone hole
 L14 over Antarctica. Changes in the stratospheric ozone
 L15 layer have contributed to changes in wind patterns
 L16 and regional climates.

L17
 L18 *Water vapor* is the most important and abundant
 L19 greenhouse gas in the atmosphere. Human activi-
 L20 ties produce only a small increase in water vapor
 L21 through combustion processes and irrigation.

L22 However, the surface warming caused by human-
 L23 produced increases in other greenhouse gases leads
 L24 to a large increase in water vapor, since a warmer
 L25 climate increases evaporation and allows the atmo-
 L26 sphere to hold more moisture. This in turn leads to
 L27 more warming, creating a “feedback loop”.

L28 **Other human influences**

L29 In addition to the global-scale climate effects of
 L30 heat-trapping gases, human activities also produce
 L31 additional local and regional effects. Some of these
 L32 activities partially offset the warming caused by
 L33 greenhouse gases, while others increase the warm-
 L34 ing. One such influence on climate is caused by
 L35 tiny particles called “aerosols” (not to be confused
 L36 with aerosol spray cans). For example, the burning
 L37 of coal produces emissions of sulfur-containing
 L38 compounds. These compounds form “sulfate aero-
 L39 sol” particles, which reflect some of the incoming
 L40 sunlight away from the Earth, thus leading to local
 L41 or regional cooling influence. Sulfate aerosols also
 L42 tend to make clouds more efficient at reflecting
 L43 sunlight, causing an additional indirect cooling
 L44 effect. Another type of aerosol, often referred to
 L45 as soot or black carbon, absorbs incoming sunlight
 L46 and traps heat in the atmosphere. Thus, depending
 L47 on their type, aerosols can either mask or increase
 L48 the warming caused by increased levels of green-
 L49 house gases. At the global scale, the sum of these

aerosol effects offsets some of the warming caused
 by heat-trapping gases and, in some locations with
 large amounts of aerosol particles, can even cause a
 net cooling.

The effects of various greenhouse gases and aero-
 sol particles on Earth’s climate depend in part on
 how long these gases and particles remain in the
 atmosphere. After emission, the atmospheric con-
 centration of carbon dioxide remains elevated for
 many centuries, while the elevated concentrations
 of aerosols and methane would persist for only days
 to decades if emissions were reduced. Reductions
 in some of these shorter-lived gases and particles
 can thus have relatively rapid and potentially
 complex effects on climate^{4,5}. In contrast, while the
 concentrations of carbon dioxide and other long-
 lived gases go up rapidly after their emission, the
 climate effects of reductions in their emissions will
 not become apparent for at least several decades.

Human activities have also changed the land sur-
 face in ways that alter how much heat is reflected
 or absorbed by the surface. Such changes include
 the cutting and burning of forests, the replacement
 of other areas of natural vegetation with agricul-
 ture and cities, and large-scale irrigation. These
 transformations of the land surface can cause local
 (and even regional) warming or cooling. Globally,
 the net effect of these changes has probably been a
 slight cooling of the Earth’s surface over the past
 100 years^{6,7}.

Natural influences

Two important natural factors also influence cli-
 mate: the Sun and volcanic eruptions. Over the past
 three decades, human influences on climate have
 become increasingly obvious, and global tempera-
 tures have risen sharply. During the same period,
 the Sun’s energy output (as measured by satellites
 since 1979) has followed its historic 11-year cycle of
 small ups and downs, but with no net increase⁸. The
 two major volcanic eruptions of the past 30 years
 have had short-term cooling effects on climate,
 lasting 2 to 3 years⁵. Thus, these natural factors
 cannot explain the warming of recent decades; in
 fact, their net effect on climate has probably been
 a slight cooling influence over this period. Slow
 changes in Earth’s orbit around the Sun and its
 tilt toward or away from the Sun are also a purely

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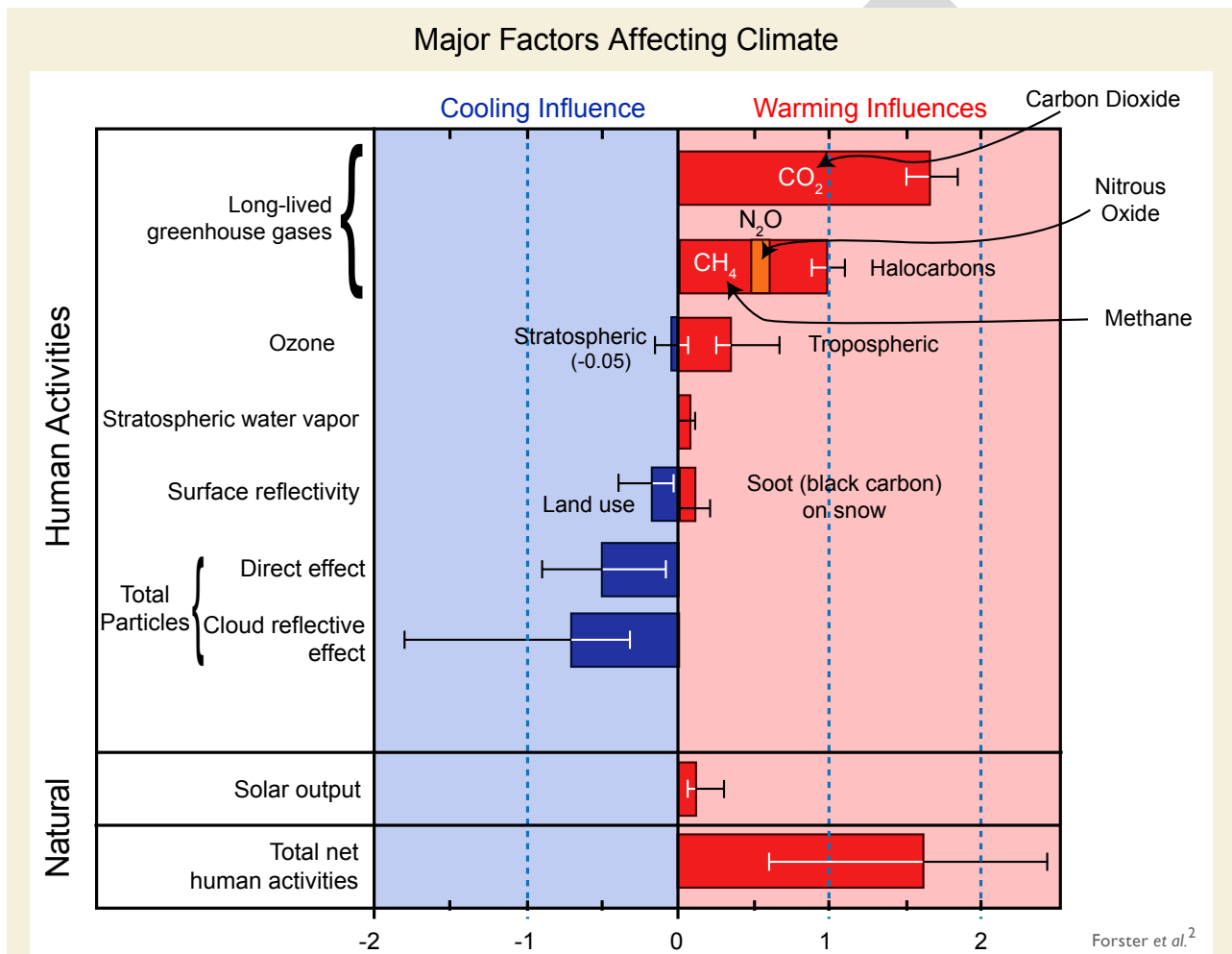
natural influence on climate, but are only important on timescales from thousands to many tens of thousands of years.

The climate changes that have occurred over the last century are not solely caused by the human and natural factors described above. In addition to these influences, there are also purely natural fluctuations in climate (often called “climate noise”) that occur even in the absence of changes in human activities, the Sun, or volcanoes. One example is the El Niño phenomenon, which has important influences on many aspects of regional and global climate. Many other modes of natural internal variability have been identified by climate scientists and their

effects on climate occur at the same time as the effects of human activities, the Sun, and volcanoes.

Carbon release and uptake

Once carbon dioxide is emitted to the atmosphere, some of it is absorbed by the oceans and by vegetation on land; about 45 percent of the carbon dioxide emitted by human activities in the last 50 years has been taken up by these natural “sinks”. The rest has remained in the air, increasing the atmospheric concentration^{1,2,9}. It is thus important to understand not only how much carbon dioxide is emitted, but also how much is taken up, over what time scales, and how these sources and sinks of carbon dioxide might change as climate continues to warm.



The figure above shows the amount of warming influence (red bars) or cooling influence (blue bars) that different factors have had on Earth’s climate over the industrial age (from about 1750 to the present). Results are in watts per square meter. The longer the bar, the greater the influence on climate. The top part of the box includes all the major human-induced factors, while the second part of the box includes the Sun, the only major natural factor with a long-term effect on climate. The cooling effect of individual volcanoes is also natural, but is relatively short-lived (2 to 3 years). The bottom part of the box shows that the total net effect of human activities is a strong warming influence. The thin lines on each bar provide an estimate of the range of uncertainty.

L1 The rate of rise in global emissions of carbon dioxide
 L2 has been accelerating. The growth rate increased
 L3 from 1.3 percent per year in the 1990s to 3.3 percent
 L4 per year between 2000 and 2006¹⁰. The increasing
 L5 emissions of carbon dioxide have clearly contributed
 L6 to the observed increased concentration of carbon di-
 L7 oxide in the atmosphere, but are perhaps not the only
 L8 factor. There is some evidence that a recent decrease
 L9 in the rate of uptake of carbon dioxide by the oceans
 L10 and by land vegetation contributed to the observed
 L11 increased carbon dioxide concentration in the atmo-
 L12 sphere¹⁰.

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 L15 **Over the last 100 years, global average**
 L16 **temperature and sea level have increased,**
 L17 **and precipitation patterns have changed.**

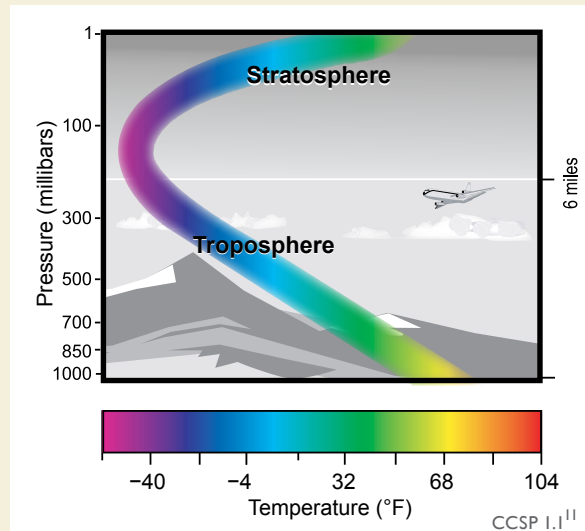
L18 **Temperatures are rising**

L19 Global average surface air temperature has been
 L20 increasing rapidly since 1970¹². The estimated change
 L21 in the average temperature of Earth's surface is based
 L22 on measurements made by satellites and at thousands
 L23 of weather stations, ships, and buoys around the
 L24 world. These measurements are independently com-
 L25 piled, analyzed, and processed by different research
 L26 groups. An important step in the data processing is
 L27 to identify and adjust for the effects of changes in the
 L28 instruments used to measure temperature, the mea-
 L29 surement times and locations, and the local environ-
 L30 ment around the measuring site (such as the growth of
 L31 cities, and the development of so-called "urban heat
 L32 island" effects) or within a satellite's field of view.
 L33 A number of research groups around the world have
 L34 produced estimates of global-scale changes in surface
 L35 temperature.
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L37
 L38 The warming trend that is apparent in all of these
 L39 temperature records is confirmed by other independ-
 L40 ent observations, such as the melting of Arctic sea
 L41 ice, the retreat of mountain glaciers on every conti-
 L42 nent¹³, reductions in the extent of snow cover, earlier
 L43 blooming of plants in spring, and increased melting of
 L44 the Greenland and Antarctic ice sheets¹⁴.

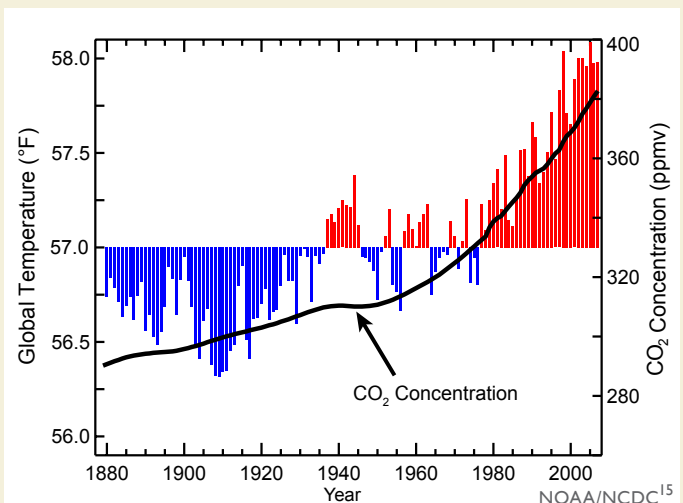
L45
 L46 Additionally, temperature measurements above the
 L47 surface have been made by weather balloons since
 L48 the late 1940s, and from satellites since 1979. These
 L49 measurements show warming of the troposphere,
 L50 consistent with the surface warming^{16,17}. They also

Layers of the Atmosphere Closest to the Earth's Surface



The illustration shows the layers of the atmosphere closest to Earth's surface. The troposphere extends from the surface up to roughly 6 miles above the surface and the stratosphere is above that. The colored band shows the average temperature of the atmosphere at different altitudes. In the troposphere, temperatures generally decrease with height, while in the stratosphere temperatures increase with height.

Global Temperature and CO₂



Global annual average temperature (as measured over both land and oceans). Red bars indicate temperatures above the 1901-2000 average, blue bars are below average temperatures. The black line shows carbon dioxide concentration. While there is a clear long-term global warming trend, each individual year does not show a temperature increase relative to the previous year, and some years show greater changes than others. These year-to-year fluctuations in temperature are due to natural processes, such as the effects of El Niños and La Niñas.

L1 reveal cooling in the stratosphere¹⁶. This pattern of
L2 tropospheric warming and stratospheric cooling
L3 agrees with our understanding of how atmospheric
L4 temperature would be expected to change in re-
L5 sponse to increasing greenhouse gas concentrations
L6 and the observed depletion of stratospheric ozone⁶.

L7 **Precipitation patterns are changing**

L8 Precipitation is not distributed evenly over the
L9 globe. Its average distribution is governed primarily
L10 by atmospheric circulation patterns and the avail-
L11 ability of moisture, which in turn are influenced by
L12 temperature. Because of human-caused changes in
L13 atmospheric temperature, changes are expected in
L14 atmospheric circulation, and therefore in precipita-
L15 tion patterns.
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L18 Observations show that such shifts are occur-
L19 ring. Changes have been observed in the amount,
L20 intensity, frequency, and type of precipitation.
L21 Pronounced increases in precipitation over the past
L22 100 years have been observed in eastern North
L23 America, southern South America, and northern
L24 Europe. Decreases have been seen in the Mediter-
L25 ranean, most of Africa, and southern Asia. The
L26 geographical distribution of droughts and flooding
L27 has been complex. In some regions, there have been
L28 increases in the occurrences of both droughts and
L29 floods¹⁴. As the world warms, northern regions and
L30 mountainous areas are experiencing more precipita-
L31 tion falling as rain rather than snow¹⁸. Widespread
L32 increases in heavy precipitation
L33 events have occurred, even in places
L34 where total amounts have decreased.
L35 These changes are associated with
L36 the fact that warmer air holds more
L37 water vapor evaporating from the
L38 world's oceans and land surface¹⁷.
L39 This increase in atmospheric water
L40 vapor has been observed from satel-
L41 lites, and is primarily due to human
L42 influences^{19,20}.

L43 **Sea level is rising**

L44 After at least 2000 years of little
L45 change, sea level rose by roughly
L46 8 inches over the past 100 years.
L47 Satellite data available over the past
L48 15 years shows sea-level rising at a
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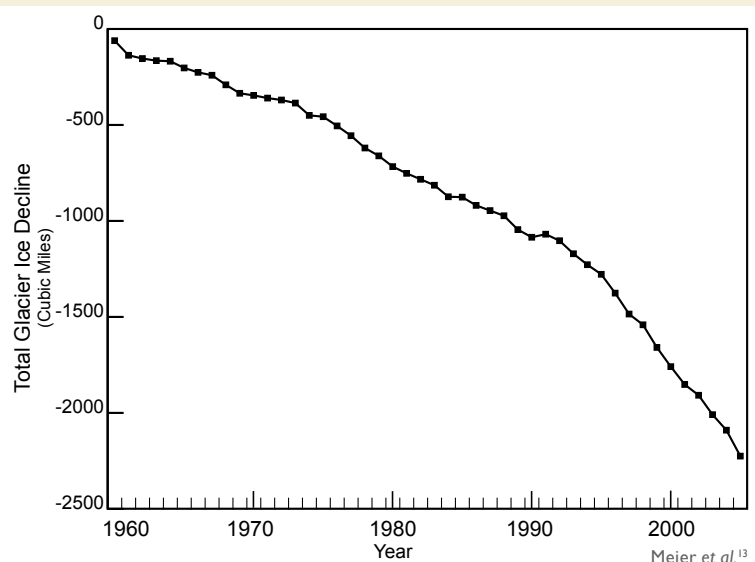
R1 rate roughly double the rate observed over the past
R2 century²¹.
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R4 Global warming causes sea level to rise in two
R5 ways. First, ocean water expands as it warms,
R6 and therefore takes up more space. Warming has
R7 been observed in each of the world's major ocean
R8 basins, and has been directly linked to human
R9 influences^{22,23}.
R10

R11 Second, warming leads to the melting of glaciers
R12 and ice sheets, which raises sea level by adding
R13 water to the oceans. Glaciers have been retreating
R14 worldwide, and the rate of retreat has increased in
R15 the past decade²⁴. Only a few glaciers are actually
R16 advancing (in locations that were well below freez-
R17 ing, and where increased precipitation has outpaced
R18 melting). The total volume of glaciers on Earth is
R19 declining sharply. The progressive disappearance
R20 of glaciers has implications not only for the rise in
R21 global sea level, but also for water supplies in cer-
R22 tain densely-populated regions of Asia and South
R23 America.
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R25 The Earth has two major ice sheets. The Greenland
R26 Ice Sheet contains enough water to raise sea level
R27 by about 20 feet. Melting of the entire Antarctic Ice
R28 Sheet would raise sea levels by over 200 feet. Both
R29 of these ice sheets are currently melting around
R30 parts of their edges. Complete melting of either
R31 of these ice sheets over this century or the next is
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Cumulative Decrease in Global Glacier Ice



As temperatures have risen, glaciers around the world have shrunk. The graph shows the cumulative decline in glacier ice worldwide.

L1 virtually impossible. The Greenland Ice Sheet has
L2 also been experiencing record amounts of surface
L3 melting, and a large increase in the rate of mass loss
L4 in the past decade²⁵.
L5

L6 **Numerous independent lines of evidence**
L7 **show that many of the climatic changes**
L8 **of the past 50 years are primarily**
L9 **human-induced.**
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L11
L12 In 1996, the IPCC Second Assessment Report²⁶
L13 cautiously concluded that “the balance of evi-
L14 dence suggests a discernible human influence on
L15 global climate”. Since then, a number of national
L16 and international assessments have come to much
L17 stronger conclusions about the reality of human
L18 effects on climate. Recent scientific assessments
L19 find that most of the warming of the Earth’s surface
L20 over the past 50 years has been caused by human
L21 activities^{27,28}. What evidence allowed scientists to
L22 identify human influences as the major cause of the
L23 observed warming? How can we be sure that “it’s
L24 mostly us”?
L25

L26 This conclusion rests on multiple lines of evidence.
L27 Like the warming “signal” that has gradually
L28 emerged from the “noise” of natural climate vari-
L29 ability, the scientific evidence for a human influ-
L30 ence on global climate has accumulated slowly over
L31 the past several decades, from many hundreds of
L32 studies. No single study is a “smoking gun”. Nor
L33 has any single study undermined the large body
L34 of evidence supporting the conclusion that human
L35 activity is the primary driver of recent warming.
L36

L37 The first line of evidence is our basic physical un-
L38 derstanding of how greenhouse gases trap heat, how
L39 the climate system responds to increases in green-
L40 house gases, and how other human and natural
L41 factors influence climate. The second line of evi-
L42 dence is from indirect estimates of climate changes
L43 over the last 1,000 to 2,000 years. These so-called
L44 “paleodata” are obtained from living things (like
L45 tree rings and corals) and from physical quantities
L46 (like the ratio between lighter and heavier isotopes
L47 of oxygen in ice cores) which change in measurable
L48 ways as climate changes. The lesson from paleo-
L49 data is that global surface temperatures over the
L50 last several decades are clearly unusual, in that they

were higher than at any time during at least the past
400 years²⁹. For the Northern Hemisphere, recent
temperature rises are clearly unusual in at least the
last 1,000 years^{29,30}.

The third line of evidence is based on the broad,
qualitative consistency between observed changes
in climate and the computer model predictions
of how climate would be expected to change in
response to human activities. For example, when
climate models are run with historical increases
in greenhouse gases, they show gradual warm-
ing of the Earth and ocean surface, increases in
ocean heat content and the temperature of the
lower atmosphere, a rise in global sea level, retreat
of sea-ice and snow cover, cooling of the strato-
sphere, an increase in the amount of atmospheric
water vapor, and changes in large-scale precipita-
tion and pressure patterns. These and other aspects
of modeled climate change are in agreement with
observations^{6,31}.

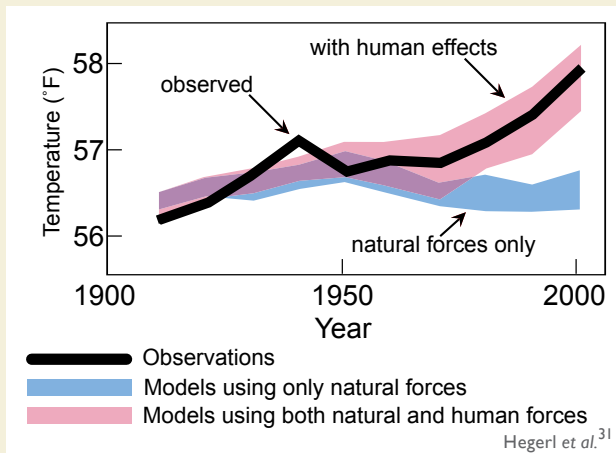
Finally, there is statistical evidence from so-called
“fingerprint” studies. Each factor that affects
climate produces a unique pattern of climate
response, much as each person has a unique fin-
gerprint. Fingerprint studies exploit these unique
signatures, and make detailed comparisons of
modeled and observed climate change patterns³¹.
Scientists rely on such studies to attribute observed
changes in climate to a particular cause or set of
causes. In the real world, the climate changes that
have occurred since the Industrial Revolution are
due to a complex mixture of human and natural
causes. The importance of each individual influ-
ence in this mixture changes over time. Of course,
there are not multiple Earths, which would allow
an experimenter to change one factor at a time on
each Earth, thus helping to isolate different finger-
prints. Climate models can be used to perform the
systematic experiments that are not possible in the
real world: a single factor (like greenhouse gases)
or a set of factors can be varied, and the response of
the climate system to these individual or combined
changes can thus be studied³².

For example, when climate model simulations of
the last century include all of the major influences
on climate, both human-induced and natural, they
can reproduce many important features of observed

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Separating Human and Natural Influences on Climate



The blue band shows how global average temperatures would have changed due to natural forces only, as simulated by climate models. The red band shows model projections of the effects of human and natural forces combined. The black line shows actual observed global average temperatures. As the blue line indicates, without human influences, temperature over the past century would actually have first warmed and then cooled slightly over recent decades.

climate change patterns. When human influences are removed from the model experiments, results suggest that the surface of the Earth would actually have cooled slightly over the last 50 years. The clear message from fingerprint studies is that the observed warming over the last half-century cannot be explained by natural factors alone^{6,33}.

Another fingerprint of human effects on climate has been identified when one looks at a slice through the layers of the atmosphere, and studies the pattern of temperature changes from the surface up through the stratosphere. In all climate models, increases in carbon dioxide cause warming at the surface and in the troposphere, but lead to cooling of the stratosphere. Models also show that the human-caused depletion of stratospheric ozone has a strong cooling effect in the stratosphere. There is a good match between the model fingerprint in response to combined carbon dioxide and ozone changes and the observed pattern of tropospheric warming and stratospheric cooling⁶.

In contrast, if most of the observed temperature change had been due to an increase in solar output rather than an increase in greenhouse gases, Earth's atmosphere would have warmed throughout its full vertical extent, including the stratosphere⁶.

The observed pattern of atmospheric temperature changes, with its pronounced cooling in the stratosphere, is therefore inconsistent with the hypothesis that changes in the Sun can explain the warming of recent decades. Moreover, direct satellite measurements of solar output show slight decreases during the recent period of warming.

The earliest fingerprint work³⁴ focused on changes in surface and atmospheric temperature. Scientists then applied fingerprint methods to a whole range of climate variables^{31,35}, identifying human-caused climate signals in the heat content of the oceans^{22,23}, the height of the tropopause³⁶ (the boundary between the troposphere and stratosphere, which has shifted upward by hundreds of feet in recent decades), the geographical patterns of precipitation³⁷, drought³⁸, surface pressure³⁹, and the runoff from major river basins⁴⁰.

Studies published after the appearance of the IPCC Fourth Assessment Report in 2007 have found human fingerprints in the increased levels of atmospheric moisture^{19,20} (both close to the surface and over the full extent of the atmosphere), in the decline of Arctic sea ice extent⁴¹, and in the patterns of changes in Arctic and Antarctic surface temperatures⁴². The message from this entire body of work is that the climate system is telling a consistent story of increasingly dominant human influence—the changes in temperature, ice extent, moisture, and circulation patterns fit together in a physically consistent way, like pieces in a complex puzzle.

Increasingly, this type of fingerprint work is shifting its emphasis. As noted, clear and compelling scientific evidence supports the case for a pronounced human influence on global climate. Much of the recent attention is now on climate changes at continental and regional scales^{43,44}, and on variables that can have large impacts on societies. For example, scientists have established causal links between human activities and the changes in snowpack, maximum and minimum temperature, and the seasonal timing of runoff over mountainous regions of the western United States¹⁸. A large human component has been identified in the ocean surface temperature changes in hurricane formation regions^{45,46}. Researchers are also looking beyond the physical climate system, and are beginning to

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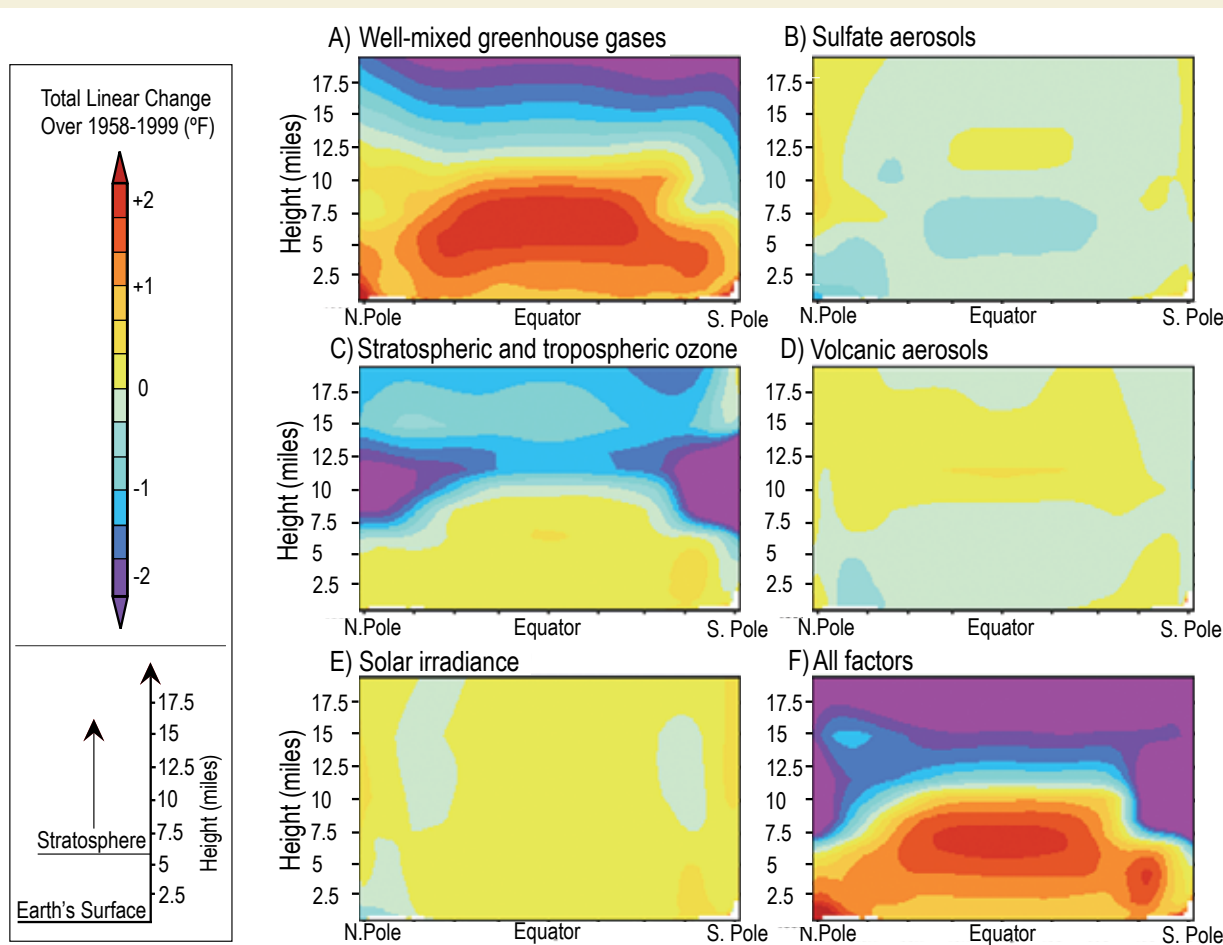
tie changes in the distribution and seasonal behavior of plant and animal species to human-caused changes in temperature and precipitation^{47,48}.

For over a decade, one aspect of the climate change story seemed to show a significant difference between models and observations⁶. In the tropics, all models predicted that with a rise in greenhouse gases, the troposphere would be expected to warm more rapidly than the surface. Observations from weather balloons, satellites, and surface thermometers seemed to show exactly the opposite behavior (more rapid warming of the surface than the troposphere). This issue was a stumbling block in our understanding of the causes of climate change. It is now largely resolved⁴⁹. Research showed that there were large uncertainties in the satellite and weather balloon data. When uncertainties in models and observations are properly accounted for,

newer observational datasets (with better treatment of known problems) are in agreement with climate model results^{17,50-53}.

This does not mean, however, that all remaining differences between models and observations have been resolved. The observed changes in some climate variables, such as Arctic sea ice⁴¹, some aspects of precipitation^{37,55}, and patterns of surface pressure, appear to be proceeding much more rapidly than models have projected. The reasons for these differences are not well understood. Nevertheless, the bottom-line conclusion from climate fingerprinting is that most of the observed changes studied to date are consistent with each other, and are also consistent with our scientific understanding of how the climate system would be expected to respond to the increase in heat-trapping gases resulting from human activities^{6,31}.

Patterns of Temperature Change Produced by Various Atmospheric Factors



Modified from CCSP I.1⁵⁴

Climate simulations of the vertical profile of temperature change due to various factors, and the effect due to all factors taken together.



L1 Scientists are sometimes asked whether extreme
 L2 weather events can be linked to human activities⁵⁶.
 L3 Scientific research has concluded that human influ-
 L4 ences on climate are indeed changing the likelihood
 L5 of certain types of extreme events. For example,
 L6 an analysis of the European summer heat wave of
 L7 2003 found that the risk of such a heat wave is now
 L8 roughly four times as great due to human influ-
 L9 ences on climate^{57,58}.

L10 Like fingerprint work, such analyses of human-
 L11 caused changes in the risks of extreme events rely
 L12 on information from climate models, and on our
 L13 understanding of the physics of the climate system.
 L14 All of the models used in this work have imperfec-
 L15 tions in their representation of the complexities of
 L16 the “real world” climate system^{59,60}. These are due
 L17 to both limits in our understanding of the climate
 L18 system, and in our ability to represent its com-
 L19 plex behavior with available computer resources.
 L20 Despite this, models are extremely useful, for a
 L21 number of reasons.

L22 First, despite the existence of systematic errors, the
 L23 current generation of climate models accurately
 L24 portrays many important aspects of today’s weather
 L25 patterns and climate^{59,60}. Models are constantly
 L26 being improved, and are routinely tested against
 L27 many observations of Earth’s climate system.
 L28 Second, the fingerprint work shows that models
 L29 capture not only our present-day climate, but also
 L30 key features of the observed climate changes over
 L31 the past century²⁹. Third, many of the large-scale
 L32 observed climate changes (such as the warming of
 L33 the surface and troposphere, and the increase in the
 L34 amount of moisture in the atmosphere) are driven
 L35 by very basic physics, which is well-represented
 L36 in models¹⁹. Fourth, climate models can be used to
 L37 predict changes in climate that can be verified in
 L38 the real world. Examples include the global cooling
 L39 subsequent to the eruption of Mount Pinatubo and
 L40 the stratospheric cooling with increasing carbon
 L41 dioxide. Finally, models are the only tools that exist
 L42 for trying to understand the climate changes likely
 L43 to be experienced over the course of this century.
 L44 No period in Earth’s geological history provides an
 L45 exact analogue for the climatic conditions that will
 L46 unfold in the coming decades.
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Global temperatures will continue to rise over this century; by how much and for how long depends on a number of factors, including the amount of heat-trapping emissions and how sensitive the climate is to those emissions.

R8 Some continued warming of the planet is inevitable
 R9 over the next few decades. The amount of future
 R10 warming will be determined largely by choices
 R11 made now and over the next few decades. Lower
 R12 levels of heat-trapping emissions will yield less
 R13 future warming, while higher levels will result in
 R14 more warming, and more severe impacts on society
 R15 and the natural world.

Rising global temperature

R16 All climate models project that human-caused
 R17 emissions of heat-trapping gases will cause fur-
 R18 ther warming in the future. Based on scenarios
 R19 that do not assume explicit climate policies to
 R20 reduce greenhouse gas emissions, global average
 R21 temperature is projected to rise by 2 to 11.5°F by
 R22 the end of this century⁶¹ (relative to the 1980-1999
 R23 time period). Whether the actual warming in 2100
 R24 will be closer to the low or the high end of this
 R25 range depends primarily on two factors: first, the
 R26 future level of emissions of heat-trapping gases,
 R27 and second, how sensitive climate will be, that is,
 R28 how much climate will change in response to those
 R29 emissions. The range of possible outcomes has
 R30 been explored using a range of different emissions
 R31 scenarios, and a variety of climate models that en-
 R32 compass the known range of climate sensitivity.
 R33
 R34
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R36 The IPCC developed a set of scenarios in a Special
 R37 Report on Emissions Scenarios (SRES)⁶². These
 R38 have been extensively used to explore the potential
 R39 for future climate change. None of these scenarios
 R40 assumes explicit policies to limit climate change.
 R41 Rather, emissions in these scenarios vary based on
 R42 different assumptions about changes in population,
 R43 adoption of new technologies, economic growth,
 R44 and other factors. None of them involve stabilizing
 R45 atmospheric concentrations of heat-trapping gases
 R46 at a level that would avoid dangerous human inter-
 R47 ference with the climate system as required by the
 R48 United Nations’ Framework Convention on Climate
 R49 Change, which was signed in 1992 by the United
 R50 States and most other countries.

Changing precipitation patterns

Projections of changes in precipitation largely follow recently observed patterns of change, with overall increases in the global average but substantial shifts in where and how precipitation falls⁶¹. Generally, higher latitudes are projected to receive more precipitation, while the sub-tropics expand further poleward⁶³ and also receive less rain. Increases in tropical precipitation are projected during rainy seasons (such as monsoons), and especially over the tropical Pacific. Certain regions, including the U.S. West (especially the Southwest) and the Mediterranean, are expected to become drier. The trend towards more heavy downpours is expected to continue, with precipitation becoming less frequent but more intense⁶¹. More precipitation is expected to fall as rain rather than snow.

Currently rare extreme events are becoming more common

In a warmer future climate, models project there will be an increased risk of more intense, more frequent and longer-lasting heat waves⁶¹. The European heat wave of 2003 is an example of the type of extreme heat event that is likely to become more common⁶¹, with the likelihood of such a heat wave projected to increase 100-fold in the next 40 years. If greenhouse gas emissions continue to increase, by the 2040s more than half of European summers will be hotter than the summer of 2003, and by the end of this century, a summer as hot as that of 2003 will be considered unusually cool⁵⁷.

Increased extremes of summer dryness and winter wetness are projected for much of the globe, meaning a generally greater risk of droughts and floods. This has already been observed³⁸, and is projected to continue, because in a warmer world, precipitation tends to be concentrated into more intense events, with longer periods of little precipitation in between⁶¹.

Models project a general tendency for more intense but fewer storms overall outside the tropics, with more extreme wind events and higher ocean waves in a number of regions in association with those storms. Models also project a shift of storm tracks toward the poles in both hemispheres⁶¹.

Changes in hurricanes are difficult to project because there are countervailing forces. Higher ocean temperatures lead to stronger storms with higher wind speeds and more rainfall⁶⁴. But changes in wind speed and direction with height are also projected to increase in some regions, and this tends to work against storm formation and growth⁶⁵. It currently appears that stronger, more rain-producing tropical storms and hurricanes are generally more likely, though more research is required on these issues.

Sea level will continue to rise

Projecting future sea-level rise presents special challenges. Scientists have a well-developed understanding of the contributions of thermal expansion and melting glaciers to sea-level rise, so the models used to project sea-level rise include these processes. However, recent observations of the polar ice sheets show that additional processes are operating that affect the responses of ice sheets to warming. Although these processes are not well understood, they are already producing substantial additional loss of ice mass, but it is difficult to predict their future contributions to sea-level rise.

Thus, most current estimates offer only a likely lower bound for future sea-level rise projections, with a highly uncertain upper bound. The 2007 assessment by the IPCC, for example, which did not attempt to include the highly uncertain contributions to sea-level rise due to changes in ice sheet dynamics, projected a rise of the world's oceans from 8 inches to 2 feet by the end of this century⁶¹.

Recent research has led to more comprehensive estimates of the accelerated flow to the sea of ice sheets in a warmer climate and how this contributes to sea-level rise. This work suggests that the upper and lower limits on sea-level rise over this century are substantially greater than previously projected^{13,66-68}.

The changes in sea level experienced at any particular location along the coast depend not only on the increase in the global average sea level, but also on changes in regional currents and winds and, particularly, on the vertical movements of the land due to geological forces. The consequences of sea-level rise at any particular location depend on

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L1 the amount of sea-level rise relative to the adjoining
 L2 ing land. Although some parts of the U.S. coast
 L3 are undergoing uplift (rising), most shorelines are
 L4 subsiding (sinking) to various degrees—from a few
 L5 inches to over 2 feet per century.
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Emissions scenarios

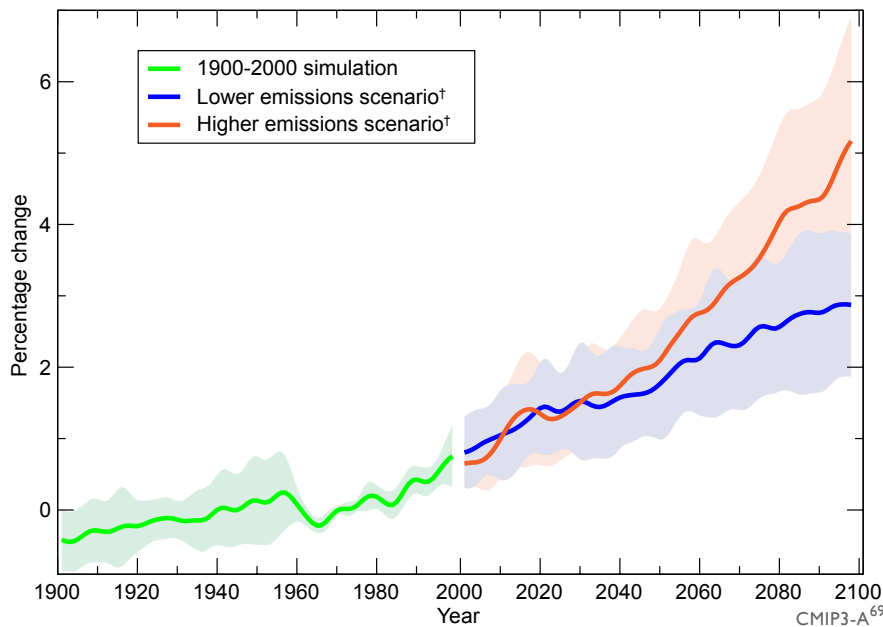
R1 The IPCC emission scenarios do not encompass the
 R2 full range of possible futures: climate can change
 R3 less than those scenarios imply, or it can change
 R4 more. Current carbon dioxide emissions are, in
 R5 fact, above the highest emissions
 R6 scenario[†] developed by the IPCC⁷⁰
 R7 (see figure on page 25). Whether
 R8 this will continue is uncertain.
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R11 There are also lower possible emis-
 R12 sions paths than those put forth by
 R13 the IPCC. The Framework Conven-
 R14 tion on Climate Change, to which
 R15 the United States and most other
 R16 countries are signatories, calls for
 R17 stabilizing concentrations of green-
 R18 house gases in the atmosphere at a
 R19 level that would avoid dangerous
 R20 human interference with the cli-
 R21 mate system. What exactly consti-
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 R23 interpretation.
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R25 A variety of research studies sug-
 R26 gest that a further 2°F increase
 R27 (relative to the 1980-1999 period)
 R28 would lead to severe, widespread,
 R29 and irreversible impacts⁷¹⁻⁷³. To
 R30 have a good chance (but not a
 R31 guarantee) of avoiding tempera-
 R32 tures above those levels, it has been
 R33 estimated that atmospheric concen-
 R34 trations of carbon dioxide would
 R35 need to stabilize in the long term at
 R36 around today's levels⁷⁴⁻⁷⁷.
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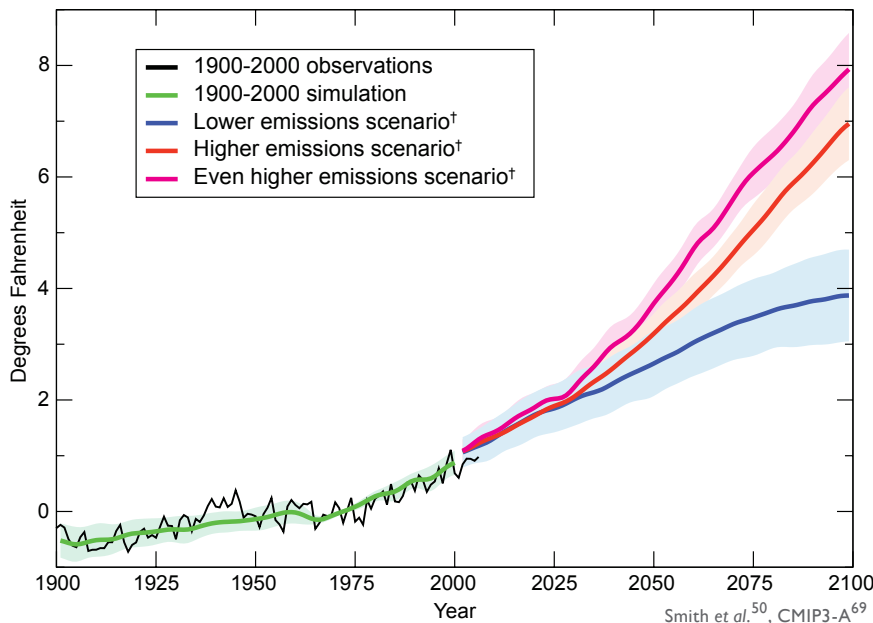
R38 The graphs above show emis-
 R39 sions scenarios and resulting CO₂
 R40 concentrations for three IPCC
 R41 scenarios^{†,61} and two stabilization
 R42 scenarios⁷⁸. The stabilization sce-
 R43 narios are aimed at stabilizing at-
 R44 mospheric CO₂ at roughly 450 and
 R45 550 parts per million (ppm); this
 R46 is 70 to 170 ppm above the current
 R47 concentration of about 380 ppm.
 R48 Resulting temperature changes
 R49 depend on the level of CO₂, how
 R50 sensitive the climate system is, and

Global Increase in Heavy Precipitation



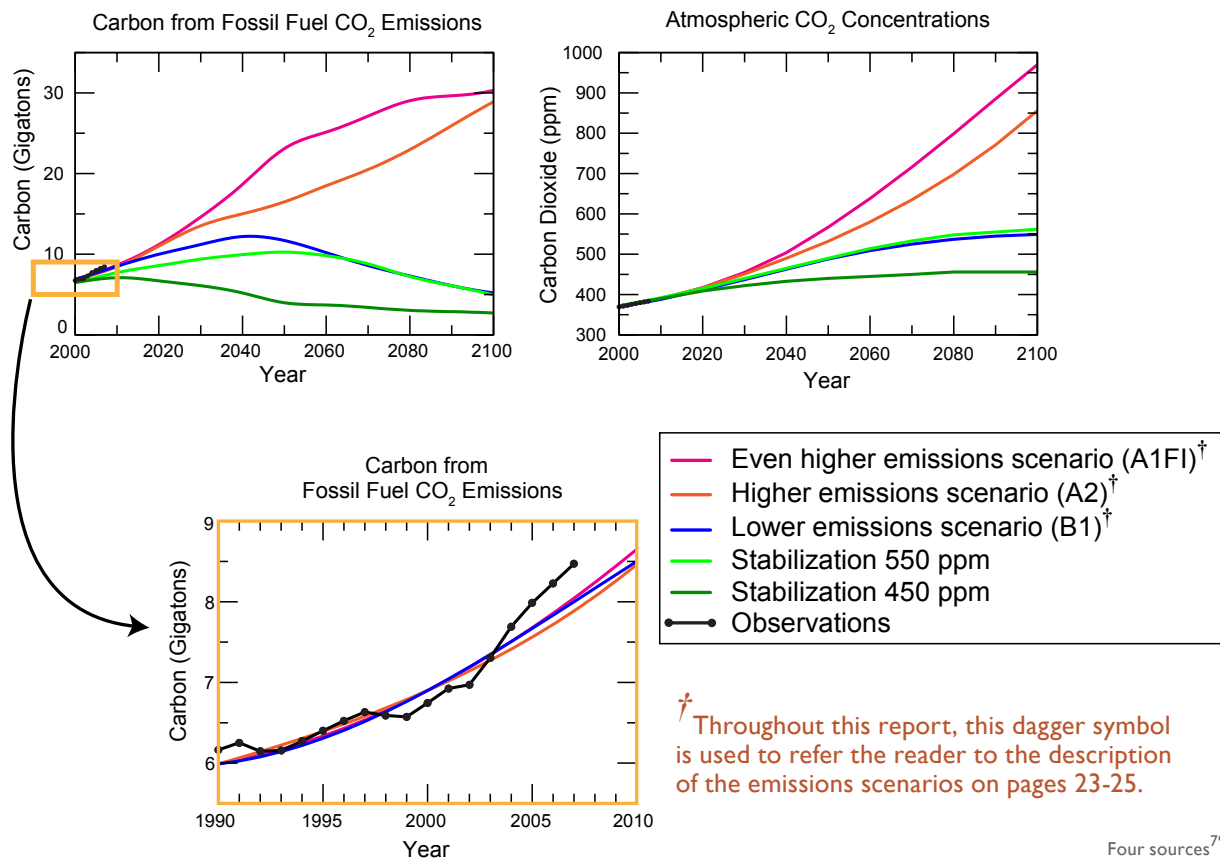
Observed and projected changes in the heaviest 5 percent of precipitation events. The shaded areas show the possible ranges while the lines show the central projections from a set of climate models.

Observed and Projected Global Average Temperature



Observed and projected changes in the global average temperature under three IPCC no-policy emissions scenarios. The shaded areas show the possible ranges while the lines show the central projections from a set of climate models.

Scenarios of Future Carbon Dioxide Emissions and Concentrations



The graphs show recent and projected global emissions of carbon dioxide in gigatons of carbon, on the left, and atmospheric concentrations on the right under five emissions scenarios. The top three in the key are IPCC scenarios that assume no explicit climate policies (these are used in model projections that appear throughout this report). The bottom two are “stabilization scenarios,” designed to stabilize atmospheric carbon dioxide concentrations at 450 or 550 parts per million. The inset expanded below these charts shows emissions for the current two decades under these five scenarios along with actual emissions (in black).

Four sources⁷⁹

the amount of particles in the atmosphere⁷⁵. Only the 450 ppm stabilization target has the potential to keep the global temperature rise at or below about 3.5°F from pre-industrial and 2°F above current, a level beyond which many concerns have been raised about dangerous human interference with the climate system^{76,77}.

A further complication is that carbon dioxide is not the only greenhouse gas of concern. Concentrations of other heat-trapping gases like methane and nitrous oxide and particles like soot will also have to be stabilized at low enough levels to prevent global temperatures from rising higher than the level mentioned above. When these other gases are added, including the offsetting cooling effects of sulfate aerosol particles, analyses suggest that stabilizing concentrations around 400 parts per

million of equivalent CO₂ would yield about an 80 percent chance of avoiding exceeding the 2°F above present temperature threshold. This would be true even if concentrations temporarily peaked as high as 475 parts per million and then stabilized at 400 parts per million roughly a century later^{50,69,76,77,80,81}.

Rapid climate change

There is also the possibility of even larger climate change than current scenarios and models project. Not all changes in the climate are gradual. The long record of climate found in ice cores, tree rings, and other natural records show that Earth’s climate patterns have undergone rapid shifts from one stable state to another within as short a period as a decade. The occurrence of rapid climate changes becomes increasingly more likely as the human disturbance of the climate system grows⁶¹. Such



L1 changes can occur so rapidly that they would chal- R1
 L2 lenge the ability of human and natural systems to R2
 L3 adapt⁸². Examples of such changes are rapid shifts R3
 L4 in drought frequency and duration. Ancient climate R4
 L5 records suggest that in the United States, the South- R5
 L6 west may be at greatest risk for this kind of change, R6
 L7 but that other regions including the Midwest and R7
 L8 Great Plains have also had these kinds of rapid R8
 L9 shifts in the past and could experience them again R9
 L10 in the future. R10
 L11

L12 Rapid ice sheet collapse with related sea-level rise R12
 L13 is another type of rapid change that is not well R13
 L14 understood or modeled that poses a risk for the fu- R14
 L15 ture. Recent observations show that melting on the R15
 L16 surface of an ice sheet produces water that flows R16
 L17 down through large cracks that create conduits R17
 L18 through the ice to the base of the ice sheet where it R18
 L19 lubricates ice previously frozen to the rock below⁸². R19
 L20 Further, the interaction with warm ocean water, R20
 L21 where ice meets the sea, can lead to sudden losses R21
 L22 in ice mass and accompanying rapid global sea- R22
 L23 level rise. Observations indicate that ice loss has R23
 L24 increased dramatically over the last decade, though R24
 L25 scientists are not yet confident that they can project R25
 L26 how the ice sheets will respond in the future. R26
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