

Executive Summary

Introduction to Scenarios

A scenario is a description of potential future conditions, which is developed to inform decision-making under uncertainty. Originally developed for study of military and security problems, scenarios are now widely used for strategic planning, analysis, and assessment by businesses and other organizations. Scenarios are also increasingly used in planning, analysis, and policy debate for environmental issues, including global climate change. Major decisions setting mitigation and adaptation strategies have the conditions – e.g., high stakes and deep or poorly characterized uncertainty – that make scenarios potentially useful. Although such decisions are being made in the near term, making them responsibly requires considering their potential consequences over the longer term, including the substantial associated uncertainties.

Scenarios are distinct from assessments, models, decision analyses, and other decision-support activities. Scenarios provide inputs to these activities when they need descriptions of potential future conditions. Scenarios can also be distinguished less sharply from other types of future statements to inform decisions, called projections, predictions, and forecasts. Compared to these, scenarios tend to be more multivariate, to be produced in groups to explore key uncertainties, and to presume lower predictive confidence, because they pertain to processes for which weaker causal understanding or longer time horizons make uncertainties deeper.

Scenarios vary on many dimensions, of which three are particularly prominent. First, scenario exercises vary in their proximity to specific decisions. Some may directly inform an identified decision, while others support decision-making indirectly, by helping to clarify an issue's importance, frame a decision agenda, shake up habitual thinking, provoke insights, clarify points of agreement and disagreement, identify and engage needed participants, or provide a preliminary structure for analysis of potential future decisions. A related dimension of variation is the degree to which a set of scenarios are intended to be predictive, versus exploratory or heuristic. Scenarios can also differ in how much they explicitly incorporate normative elements, i.e., in the degree to which they include descriptions of future conditions included on the basis of their desirability or undesirability, as opposed to on the basis of their perceived plausibility or likelihood.

Table ES-1 Idealized Sequence of Major Choices in Scenario Development.

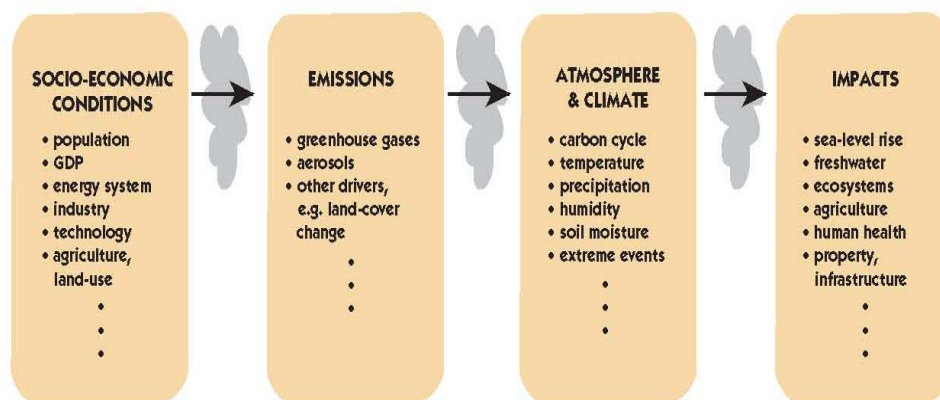
- Main focus, framing, users, question(s) to be addressed
 - Process and participation
 - Key uncertainties to explore: how many, over what range
 - Narrative, quantitative, or both
 - Level of complexity (number of quantitative variables, detail of narrative)
 - Specific variables and factors to specify
 - Time horizon and spatial extent
 - Temporal and spatial resolution
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The main dimensions of choice involved in constructing a scenario exercise are shown in highly simplified form in Table ES-1. Most fundamental is identifying the main focus of the

1 exercise: what issues do the scenarios address, what decisions do they inform, and for whom?
 2 Deciding the process of a scenario exercise includes what range of expert knowledge and
 3 stakeholder perspectives to include, which can be decisive for the usefulness of the exercise.
 4 Deciding what few uncertainties to represent, usually by constructing multiple scenarios that
 5 embody alternative realizations of key uncertainties, is a crucial judgment that shapes much of
 6 what follows in a scenario exercise. The complexity of scenarios can vary greatly, from merely
 7 specifying time-paths of a few quantitative variables, to constructing rich, coherent, multivariate
 8 narratives. Complex scenarios may combine qualitative and quantitative elements.

9 ***Scenarios in Climate-Change Applications***

10 Scenarios to inform climate change mitigation and adaptation decisions, directly or
 11 indirectly, come in five types according to where they fall along a simple linear causal chain
 12 representing the climate-change issue, from the socio-economic determinants of greenhouse-gas
 13 emissions through the impacts of climate change, as in Figure ES-1. (Note: this figure does not
 14 represent the actual causal structure of the climate issue, which has multiple feedbacks. This
 15 simple structure only illustrates the ways scenarios have been used to fit within the simplest and
 16 most prominent causal pathway of the issue.)



17
 18 ***Figure ES-1: Anthropogenic climate change: Simple linear causal chain***

19 The types of scenarios differ in what parts of the issue they specify, and what part of the
 20 issue is the focus of the subsequent analysis or use of the scenario.

21
 22 *Emissions Scenarios for Climate Simulations:* Emissions scenarios stipulate future paths of
 23 greenhouse-gas emissions or other climate perturbations, to provide inputs to climate models.
 24 They can include simple arbitrary specifications of future emissions or concentrations (e.g.,
 25 doubling atmospheric CO₂), or time-paths reflecting specified assumptions for evolution of
 26 socio-economic drivers such as population, economic growth, and technological change.
 27

1 *Emissions Scenarios for Exploring Alternative Energy/Technology Futures:* Emission
2 scenarios can also be used with the causal logic reversed, stipulating an environmental or
3 emissions target and examining what patterns of socio-economic change, energy resource
4 availability, or technology development are consistent with the target or what interventions
5 might be needed to meet it. The target may be set based on normative criteria, political
6 targets, or arbitrarily. While the most frequent use of this type of scenario has been to
7 examine emissions trajectories that stabilize atmospheric CO₂ concentrations at specified
8 levels, recent projects have instead adopted stabilization of radiative forcing as the target, in
9 order to examine the role of non-CO₂ greenhouse gases in stabilization regimes.

10 *Climate-Change Scenarios:* Climate scenarios describe potential future climate conditions, to
11 inform assessments of impacts, vulnerabilities, and adaptation options, and inform decision-
12 making related to either adaptation or mitigation. They can be produced by simple arbitrary
13 perturbations to present climate conditions, by using climatic conditions from the past record
14 or from some other location as an analog for potential future climate in a given location, or
15 by climate-model simulations, which require some specified scenario of future emissions.

16 *Scenarios of Direct Biophysical Impacts: Sea Level Rise:* Scenarios can be constructed of
17 important dimensions of climate impact that influence many other impacts. The primary
18 example is sea level rise, the major pathway of climate impact in many coastal regions.
19 Scenarios of sea level rise can be constructed by combining climate-change scenarios with
20 information about coastal uplift or subsidence and other specific regional characteristics. In
21 addition to its gradual impacts, sea level rise is subject to large uncertainties associated with
22 potential loss of continental glaciers in Greenland and West Antarctica.

23
24 *Multivariate Scenarios for Impact Assessment:* Many potentially important impacts of
25 climate change cannot be adequately assessed by considering only climate change. For
26 these, scenarios are required that include not just climate and its impacts, but also other
27 characteristics likely to influence impacts. These may include other dimensions of
28 environmental change, and multiple socio-economic characteristics likely to influence
29 specific vulnerabilities and capacity for adaptation. The factors that influence specific
30 dimensions of vulnerability are likely to vary among specific types of impact, locations, and
31 cultures, and many include many demographic, economic, technological, institutional, and
32 cultural characteristics. Consequently, scenarios may have to be generated in an exploratory
33 manner in the context of attempting to assess specific local and regional impacts.

34 ***Major Climate-Change Scenario Exercises:***

35 We summarize and seek to draw insights from four major examples of experience
36 generating or using scenarios for climate-change applications, plus eight brief descriptions of
37 smaller-scale experiences that are particularly unusual or illuminating.

38 The IPCC has conducted three exercises to generate scenarios of 21st-century
39 greenhouse-gas emissions, of which the largest, most ambitious, and most important was the
40 Special Report on Emissions Scenarios (SRES), conducted from 1997 to 1999. Established in
41 response to criticisms that the previous scenario exercise relied excessively on one model, treated

1 important areas such as sulfur emissions and land-use change inadequately, and failed to
2 represent income convergence between industrialized and developing countries, the project
3 initially reviewed the prior scenarios literature and ran an open process by which any researcher
4 was invited to submit scenarios. In addition, they developed a set of new scenarios, beginning
5 with four qualitative storylines that were then quantified by six participating energy-economic
6 modeling teams. The exercise published forty scenarios with supporting documentation,
7 although the most prominent outputs of the exercise were six “marker” scenarios – one model
8 quantification of each of the four initial storylines, plus two technological variants on one
9 storyline that stressed fossil-intensive and low-carbon energy supply technologies respectively.

10 The marker scenarios have been the most prominent scenarios in subsequent climate
11 modeling, impact assessment, and decision support. They highlighted several insights, including
12 the ability of alternative paths with similar emissions in 2100 to follow widely differing interim
13 pathways and so yield divergent atmospheric concentrations; the ability of alternative
14 technological assumptions alone to generate as wide a range of emissions futures as substantially
15 divergent socio-economic pathways; and the fact that similar emissions paths can come from
16 widely different combinations of underlying socio-economic factors and so pose distinct
17 mitigation problems. The most prominent controversy over these scenarios concerned
18 alternative measures to compare incomes between industrial and developing countries, an issue
19 of minor importance for emissions trajectories or challenges facing future scenarios exercises.
20 Other challenges associated with these scenarios of greater significance for future scenario
21 exercises included how to balance and integrate qualitative and quantitative scenarios; how to
22 deploy and coordinate multiple models to generate the most useful insights; and whether, when,
23 and how it is appropriate to assign explicit probability judgments to alternative scenarios or
24 quantitative variable ranges.

25 The U.S. National Assessment was a comprehensive assessment of potential impacts of
26 climate change and variability on the United States, conducted between 1997 and 2002 by
27 analytic teams examining major US regions and sectors (agriculture, water, human health,
28 coastal areas and marine resources, and forests) with some central coordination. The Assessment
29 needed scenarios of 21st-century US climate and socio-economic changes. For climate scenarios,
30 it relied principally on runs of the UK Hadley Centre climate model and the Canadian climate
31 model, each driven by a single emissions scenario, with statistical downscaling based on detailed
32 local conditions and present patterns of fine-scale climate variation. Other proposed approaches
33 to constructing climate scenarios, including historical scenarios and inverse methods to probe for
34 key vulnerabilities, were used less. For socio-economic scenarios, a two-level approach was
35 proposed, combining national specification of scenarios for a few key variables such as
36 population and economic growth, and a common process to elaborate and document additional
37 socio-economic assumptions needed for specific regional and sector analyses. The Assessment
38 was criticized for relying on just two climate-model runs and one emissions scenario, although
39 these choices were dictated by time limits and the availability of climate-model runs at the time.
40 Limited use was made of the socio-economic approach, principally due to time limits and
41 communication problems, so the validity of the proposed approach was not effectively tested.

1 The UK Climate Impacts Program supports research and analysis of impacts for
2 particular regions, sectors, and activities in the UK, by university researchers and stakeholders.
3 The program provides common datasets and tools, as well as ongoing assessment support to
4 stakeholder groups. As part of this support the program has produced three sets of scenarios:
5 climate scenarios in 1998 and 2002 based on the Hadley Centre climate model, and socio-
6 economic scenarios in 2001. The program has followed a substantially different model from the
7 US National Assessment, based on building a sustained assessment capability rather than a single
8 project. In addition, the central program has less authority over the separate assessments, instead
9 acting more as motivator, resource, and gentle coordinator.

10 The Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (MEA) examined the status, present trends, and
11 longer-term challenges to the world's ecosystems, including climate change and other stresses.
12 One of the assessment's four working groups constructed scenarios of global ecosystems to 2050
13 and beyond, largely independently of the group examining current status and trends. All
14 components of the assessment used a common large-scale conceptual framework, which
15 distinguished indirect drivers of ecosystem change (e.g., population and economic growth,
16 technological change, policies and lifestyles), direct drivers (e.g., climate change, air pollution,
17 and land-use and land-cover change), ecosystem indicators, ecosystem services, measures of
18 human well-being, and response options. The Scenarios working group applied this framework
19 to long-term ecosystem trends through 2050, with more limited projections to 2100. They
20 constructed four scenarios, based on two dimensions of uncertainty, globalization and the degree
21 of proactive vs. reactive response to ecosystem changes. The qualitative storylines comprising
22 these scenarios were more richly developed than in other climate-change scenario exercises.
23 Key issues and challenges with these scenarios concerned integration and consistency between
24 qualitative and quantitative scenarios, concerns about breadth and potential circularity within
25 scenarios, and unexplained similarity of projected effects between scenarios.

26 Other experience with climate-change and related scenarios are examined more briefly,
27 highlighting several additional issues and potential insights. Climate-change scenarios can be
28 used to inform concrete decisions related to impacts and adaptation, and there are increasing
29 attempts to do so. Collaboration with users and decision-makers is important to the success of
30 such exercises, and scenarios need to provide information in form and detail that decision-
31 makers can use. Although interest in such uses is increasing, many applications that could
32 clearly benefit from considering climate-change scenarios have not yet done so or are only
33 starting to. Scenarios can contribute to broad perceptions of the character and seriousness of an
34 issue, particularly when presented as part of large-scale, official assessments. They can then
35 influence diverse decisions that respond to such aggregate perceptions of seriousness, including
36 mitigation decisions by diverse actors. Extreme case scenarios can make useful contributions to
37 risk assessment, but are vulnerable to misunderstanding and misinterpretation in policy debates.

38 *Issues, Challenges, and Controversies in Climate-Change Scenarios*

39 *Scenarios and Decisions*

40 Scenarios can inform climate-change mitigation and adaptation decisions, but most uses
41 so far have had relatively indirect connections to such decisions. Although there is no single

1 global climate-change decision-maker, scenarios can inform the many decision-makers with
2 diverse responsibilities that will affect and be affected by climate change. To consider potential
3 contributions of scenarios more specifically, real climate-change decision-makers can usefully be
4 considered in three groups: national officials, impacts and adaptation managers, and energy
5 resource and technology managers.

6 National officials make both adaptation and mitigation decisions. In their impacts and
7 adaptation responsibilities, they need scenarios of potential future climate change under specified
8 assumptions about global emissions trends, and resultant impacts on particular resources and
9 communities within their nation, with particular focus on the areas of greatest vulnerability. In
10 their mitigation responsibilities, they need information about aggregate climate-change impacts,
11 and also projections of future emissions in the absence of additional mitigation efforts, the
12 consequences of alternative policies, and information about the context in which these decisions
13 are made, mainly mitigation strategies adopted and implemented by other major nations.

14 Impacts and adaptation managers have responsibility for particular assets, resources, or
15 interests that might be sensitive to climate change. To assess the threats and opportunities they
16 face and evaluate responses, they need scenarios of potential future climate change, its impacts in
17 their areas of responsibility, and the factors that influence vulnerabilities. Particular decision-
18 makers' needs will be highly specific in the variables they require, and their time and space scale
19 and resolution.

20 Energy resource and technology managers include developers and operators of fossil or
21 non-fossil energy resources, investors in long-lived energy-dependent capital stock such as
22 electrical utilities, and researchers, innovators, and investors in new energy-related technologies,
23 mostly but not entirely in the private sector. The consequences of their decisions will
24 predominantly be influenced by the mitigation policies in effect, nationally and internationally,
25 over the lifetime of the relevant investments. Consequently, these actors will most benefit from
26 scenarios that explore alternative policy regimes and their consequences for the value of energy
27 and technology assets.

28 For all these decision-makers, a key issue in scenarios is the reflexivity of decisions, i.e.,
29 how to represent decisions within scenarios. The appropriate treatment depends on the intended
30 user of the scenario. Decisions by others outside their control should be represented like any
31 uncertainty, based on estimates of their likely outcomes and importance for the user's decisions
32 and concerns. Decisions by the user, however, must be explicitly examined relative to baseline
33 conditions specified in scenarios. This difference is most pronounced for mitigation decisions:
34 scenarios for impacts and adaptation should presume a likely range of mitigation efforts, while
35 scenarios for mitigation decisions should allow explicit examination of the entire range of
36 decisions being considered. Consequently, scenarios for impacts and adaptation will typically
37 include a narrower range of potential emissions futures than scenarios for mitigation.

38 *Scenarios in Assessments and Policy Debates*

39 In large-scale assessments of climate change, scenarios can provide required inputs to
40 other parts of the analysis, and can serve as devices to organize and coordinate multiple

1 components of the assessment, particularly those that are forward-looking. Because of the
2 prominence that scenarios used in assessments can gain, they may be used in planning or
3 decision-support processes outside the original assessment. Scenarios can also contribute to the
4 broad framing of public and policy debate on the issue, in part by serving as aggregate metrics
5 for the issue's degree of seriousness or concern.

6 In these roles, scenarios become prominent in pluralistic policy debates where many
7 contending views and interests are represented. They consequently become subject to politically
8 motivated attempts to influence their development and content, and political reactions to them
9 once developed, particularly because a scenario may be perceived as implying the desirability or
10 undesirability of particular policy actions. The unavoidable judgments underlying construction
11 of scenarios provide opportunity for partisan distortion and efforts to make scenarios policy-
12 prescriptive, and for claims in policy debates that only certain scenarios are plausible (e.g., high
13 or low-emissions scenarios, depending on the critic's motivation), or that a particular scenario is
14 implausible.

15 *Scenario Development Process: Expert-Stakeholder Interactions*

16 Scenario exercises must decide how and how much scenario users and stakeholders are
17 involved in scenario development. In other areas of scenario use where users are typically
18 clearly identified, relatively small and homogeneous, close, intensive collaboration between
19 scenario developers and users or their representatives is widely advocated. Although similar
20 arguments for intensive user involvement have been widely advanced for climate change
21 scenarios, the decision is more complex since some climate-change scenario exercises serve a
22 large and highly heterogeneous set of potential users and stakeholders, who may not be identified
23 or may have contending material interests in the scenarios' content or use. Under these
24 conditions, the most useful nature and extent of stakeholder participation will vary from case to
25 case. The more clearly identified the potential users and the more consistent their perspectives
26 and needs, the stronger is the case for close collaboration in scenario development, e.g., when
27 users are analysts or modelers producing other components of an assessment. But even in
28 providing climate scenarios to impacts analysts, users' specific needs are likely to have
29 substantial differences in addition to their commonalities. Involving a representative collection
30 of users in scenario production is likely still productive, but potential users' numbers and diverse
31 needs may require including only selected representatives. The larger and more diverse the
32 potential users and stakeholders, the more difficult is the decision who to involve in what
33 capacity in scenario production. With extreme user diversity, scenario exercises may serve only
34 a subset of needs, or be limited to broad, exploratory purposes.

35 *Communication of Scenarios*

36 Climate change scenarios must be communicated to multiple audiences with diverse
37 interests and information needs. In addition to the scenarios' content, sufficient information
38 must be provided about the process and reasoning by which the scenarios were developed, to
39 allow users to scrutinize the underlying data, models, and reasoning, judge their confidence in
40 the scenarios, and have opportunities to critique the scenarios and suggest alternative approaches.
41 Ideally, effective communication can engage a broad user community in updating and improving

1 scenarios. Providing transparency rather than claiming authoritative status for scenarios is likely
2 both to increase users' confidence that the scenarios have reasonably represented current
3 knowledge and key uncertainties, and help them develop alternatives if they are unconvinced.

4 *Consistency and Integration in Scenarios*

5 Scenarios must strive for internal consistency. At one level, this means avoiding clear
6 contradictions given well established knowledge, and not moving inadvertently far outside
7 bounds of historical experience or presently recognized causal processes – although such sharp
8 departures from experience may be useful if they are pursued intentionally to examine low-
9 probability risks or broaden decision-makers' perceptions. Internal consistency can be
10 interpreted as a claim that the multiple factors stipulated in a scenario are more likely than
11 alternative combinations, but this claim usually rests on scenario developers' subjective
12 judgments. Subjective judgments cannot be avoided, but raise well known risks of error and
13 bias. These difficulties can be compounded when a scenario exercise pursues integration in
14 addition to consistency. This can impose on scenarios the burden of describing most or all
15 relevant components of the issue. Consistency problems grow when scenario exercises involve
16 multiple models and attempts are made to harmonize model outputs. Using multiple models in
17 parallel can aid exploration of causal relations and helps to characterize uncertainty, but when
18 models use different variables as exogenous inputs it is particularly difficult to avoid
19 inconsistency in values that are specified for some models and calculated for others. Attempting
20 to avoid such inconsistency can pose even more serious problems, however, by requiring
21 reverse-engineering of internal model relationships to match specified outputs, thereby obscuring
22 interpretation of results and precluding use of model variation to illuminate uncertainty.

23 Attempts to connect qualitative and quantitative aspects of scenarios have been
24 particularly challenging for pursuit of consistency. Narrative scenarios typically specify deep
25 structural characteristics like social values and the nature of institutions, which are associated
26 with behavioral characteristics represented in model structures, such as the determinants of
27 fertility trends, labor-force participation, savings and investment decisions, and substitutability in
28 the economy. Consequently, different narrative scenarios correspond more closely to different
29 model structures than to variation of parameters, because they reflect different assumptions about
30 how the world works. Better integrating the two approaches will require developing ways to
31 connect narrative scenarios to model structures, rather than merely to target values for a few
32 variables that models are then asked to reproduce.

33 *Treatment of Uncertainty in Scenarios*

34 Representing and communicating uncertainty is perhaps the most fundamental purpose of
35 scenarios. In most scenario exercises, uncertainty is represented by variation between scenarios.
36 The choices to be made in deciding how to represent uncertainty include what characteristics are
37 varied; how much they are varied, how many scenarios are considered, and whether explicit
38 characterizations of probability are assigned.

39 When scenarios are complex and multivariate and their use is costly – e.g., running a
40 large costly model or spending much time and energy of busy senior people – only a few can be

1 included in any scenario exercise. Consequently only one or two fundamental uncertainties can
2 typically be considered. One must judge what uncertainties to consider, and how many
3 outcomes of each: just high or low values? Are departures in both directions from the middle
4 important enough to consider? For example, one might judge that scenarios of small climate
5 change do not need explicit consideration in an impact assessment, since associated impacts are
6 likely to be small. Extreme outcomes may need to be considered, if the gravity of their
7 consequences or their effect on preferred decisions is extreme enough to offset their low
8 probability. For example, in a coastal assessment the great difference between a half-meter and
9 five-meter sea level rise, together with the known mechanism for such a rise, may suggest
10 including a scenario with loss of one of the major continental ice masses. Because such
11 scenarios carry the risk that their probability will be exaggerated, developers have special
12 responsibilities to communicate clearly the special status of such scenarios.

13 Complex narrative scenarios pose special problems in representing and communicating
14 uncertainty. In contrast to simple quantitative scenarios, these lie in a higher-dimension space
15 and may lie in no clear ordinal relationship. Even greater selectivity is required to choose a few
16 scenarios, typically by seeking underlying structural uncertainties – e.g., deep societal trends
17 such as globalization or values shifts – that are judged to influence variation in many other
18 factors including outcomes of concern. Although the likelihood of any scenario must decrease as
19 the number of characteristics specified increases, such scenarios may still meet the condition of
20 being likely enough to consider if the chosen structural uncertainties do in fact strongly condition
21 outcomes on many other characteristics, or are regarded as drawn from a set of discrete
22 possibilities.

23 A major debate in climate-change scenarios, engaged most prominently over the SRES
24 scenarios, has concerned whether or not to explicitly assign probabilities to scenarios or
25 associated ranges of quantitative outcome variables. The debate rests in part on different views
26 of the typical contents of scenarios. At the simplest extreme, scenarios that specify time-paths of
27 just one quantitative variable can readily assign subjective probabilities to the intervals so
28 defined. Such explicit assignment would offer various advantages for assessing alternative
29 decisions, and declining to provide them risks users assigning their own, perhaps less informed,
30 probability judgments – as many subsequent users did with the distribution of emissions from the
31 SRES scenarios. Opponents of explicit probability assignment raise practical objections even in
32 simple cases, but focus primarily on the case of rich multivariate scenarios, often including
33 narrative elements. They argue that probabilities cannot be sensibly estimated for such rich,
34 multidimensional descriptions, that there is no clearly defined interval “between” such scenarios
35 and their boundaries are not clearly defined, and that attempting to assign probabilities consumes
36 scarce time and attention at little value to scenario users.

37 ***Conclusions and Recommendations***

38 39 *Use of Scenarios in Climate-Change Decisions*

- 40 • Scenarios can make valuable contributions to climate-change decision-making, but there
41 is a big gap between the use of scenarios in current practice and their potential
42 contributions.

- 1 • Interest in considering and using climate-change scenarios is sharply increasing.
- 2 • Scenarios of global emissions and resultant climate change are required by many diverse
3 climate-related decision-makers, but beyond these variables decision-makers' needs from
4 climate-change scenarios are highly diverse.
- 5 • Impacts and Adaptation Managers are a major group of scenario users with distinct
6 information needs.
- 7 • Meeting information needs for impacts and adaptation may require a cross-scale
8 organizational structure.
- 9 • Scenarios for Impact and Adaptation Managers should be based on emissions
10 assumptions that include a likely range of mitigation interventions.
- 11 • Mitigation Policy-Makers are also a major group of climate-change scenario users with
12 distinct needs.
- 13 • Scenarios for mitigation decisions should include a wide range of baseline emissions
14 assumptions and not pre-judge the likely level of mitigation effort.
- 15 • Mitigation Decision-Makers can use target-driven scenarios for backcasting.
- 16 • Mitigation decisions require scenario development capacity at the national level.
- 17 • Energy Resource and Technology Managers are a third major group of climate-change
18 scenario users with distinct needs.

19 *Use of Scenarios in Climate-Change Assessments*

- 20 • Large-scale, official assessments are the major use for scenarios at present, and are likely
21 to remain an important use.
- 22 • Within assessments, scenarios are principally used to support further analysis, modeling,
23 and assessment.
- 24 • Presentation of scenarios in assessments leads to additional unforeseen uses.
- 25 • In assessments, scenarios can be an effective issue-framing device.
- 26 • Scenarios contain unavoidable elements of judgment in their production and use.
27

28 *A Sustained Capacity for Scenarios*

- 29 • CCSP should provide resources to support a new capacity for to produce, analyze,
30 support, and update scenarios of global emissions and resultant climate change.
- 31 • Several institutional models would be feasible for this capacity – US-based or
32 international; governmental, non-governmental, or a multi-party network; producing
33 scenarios, convening activities to produce scenarios, or receiving and reviewing scenarios
34 produced by others.
- 35 • Several criteria would have to be met, however, for this capacity to be effective:

- 1 • Adequate sustained resources.
- 2 • Connections with outside expertise, analysis, models.
- 3 • Insulation from political control.
- 4 • Maximum transparency.
- 5 • A mandate to support development of methods and models.
- 6 • Authority for effective coordination and quality control.

7

8 *What should centrally provided emissions and climate scenarios look like?*

- 9 • Scenarios should be global in scope and century-scale in time horizon.
- 10 • Several distinct logical types of emissions scenarios should be developed, e.g., alternative
- 11 baselines, alternative degrees of explicitly represented mitigation effort, and alternative
- 12 environmental targets.
- 13 • Emissions scenarios should be based on diverse socio-economic futures.
- 14 • Scenarios should reflect various explicit degrees of coordination.
- 15 • Global socio-economic and emissions scenarios should include and link qualitative and
- 16 quantitative components.
- 17 • Emission scenarios should connect narratives to model structures, not parameters
- 18 • Centrally provided scenarios of global emissions and climate change cannot provide all
- 19 information needed for either mitigation or adaptation decisions at national or smaller
- 20 scale.

21

22 *Scenario Process: Developer-User Interactions*

- 23 • In general, there are benefits in collaboration between scenario developers and users,
- 24 particularly at the beginning and ending stages of a scenario exercise.
- 25 • The value of such interactions, and the ease of achieving them, are likely to be greater
- 26 when scenario users are few in number, clearly identified, and similar in their interests
- 27 and perspectives.

28

29 *Communication of Scenarios*

- 30 • Effective communication of scenarios is essential, including the means to reach audiences
- 31 of diverse interests and technical skills.
- 32 • Transparency of underlying reasoning and assumptions is crucial.

33

34 *Consistency and Integration in Scenarios*

- 35 • Each scenario needs internal consistency.

- 1 • In scenario exercises using multiple models to explore potential future conditions, model
2 inputs should be controlled for consistency, rather than model outputs.
- 3 • An important exception to the advice not to control for consistency in model outputs is
4 that such control can be valuable in exercises that specify common output targets for
5 policy evaluation.
- 6 • Transparency in reporting model differences, assumptions, and reasoning can help to
7 overcome the presence of some inconsistencies in scenario generation.

8

9 *Treatment of Uncertainty in Scenarios*

- 10 • More explicit characterization of probability judgments should be included in some
11 future scenario exercises than has been practiced so far.
- 12 • Including explicit probability judgments is likely to be more useful when key variables
13 are few, quantitative outcomes are needed, and potential users are numerous and diverse.
- 14 • Including explicit probability judgments is likely to be less useful when scenarios specify
15 multiple characteristics, including prominent narrative or qualitative components; when
16 the purpose of a scenario exercise is sensitivity analysis or heuristic exploration; and
17 when potential users are few, similar, and known.
- 18 • The centralized capacity we propose should endeavor to provide probability estimates for
19 global emissions and climate-change scenarios.
- 20 • Providing explicit probability and likelihood statements allows users to choose whether
21 to use them or not.
- 22 • Scenario exercises should give more attention to extreme cases.

23