Questions for Climate Scientists

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The IPCC's carbon budget is arguably the world's most important climate change metric as climate scientists have recently concluded that a global temperature increase over 1.5°C could be devastating for our civilization and the IPCC carbon budget was designed to calculate the maximum post-2019 cumulative CO2 emissions that humans could emit and still have the global temperature increase remain at or below 1.5°C. There is general agreement that the IPCC's budget calculations do not sufficiently account for natural feedbacks¹. But there appear to be several estimates for the quantity included. For example:

- "The AR6 estimates to appropriately include the effect of all these feedbacks, remaining carbon budgets have to be reduced by 26 \pm 97 GtCO2 per degree Celsius of additional warming"²
- Based on Table 5.29 of the AR6's *Climate Change 2021: The Physical Science Basis*, a good "planning" number for the expected emissions from natural feedbacks appears to be about 225 GTCO2 per degree C of temperature $increase³$
- Based on the data from "AR6 Scenario Explorer and Database hosted by IIASA", the expected emissions from natural feedbacks appears to between 217 and 234 GTCO2 per degree C of temperature increase^{4,5}

But the UNFCC expects emissions from just permafrost to be between 150 and 200 GTCO2 for a warming of between 1.6- 1.8°C and between 220 and 300 GTCO2 for a warming of 1.9°C 6 . In addition, "if tipping points are crossed, the remaining carbon budget for limiting warming to specific targets like 1.5°C or 2°C could effectively shrink to zero"⁷. And if natural emissions exceeded the quantity of CO2 emission-equivalents included in the IPCC's carbon budget calculations by 800 GTCO2, post 2019 anthropogenic CO2 emissions of 400 GTCO2 would result in a temperature increase of 2.0°C instead of 1.5°C. So in order to plan for an appropriate response to global warming it would be very helpful if climate scientists could answer the following two questions:

- 1. What quantity of CO2 emission-equivalents can be expected from natural feedbacks this century?
- 2. What quantity of CO2 emission-equivalents from natural feedbacks are included in the IPCC's carbon budget calculations? (The answer can either be expressed in "natural emissions per degree increase in temperature" or as "natural emissions for a temperature increase target" – e.g., for 1.5° C, 2.0° C, etc.)

Once these questions are answered, the tables below can be used to estimate the post-2024 emissions budget (or deficit) for a specific temperature increase or the expected temperature increase in 2100. All of the tables were created based on the IPCC's AR6 66% probability range (post-2019 budgets of 400 GTCO2 and 1150 GTCO2 for a 1.5°C increase and a 2.0°C increase respectively).

 The values in Tables 1-3 (for the post-2024 emissions budget) are calculated based on natural emissions through 2100 that are dependent on the temperature increase per degree C – either 100, 150, or 200 GTCO2. For example, if (1) the temperature increase in 2100 is 1.5°C, (2) natural emissions through 2100 in the IPCC's budget calculations were100 GTCCO2 per degree C (for a total of 150 GTCO2), and (3) cumulative natural emissions through 2100 are 150 GTCO2, then (4) the remaining budget for a 66% chance of not exceeding 1.5°C is about 200 GTCO2 (which also equals the post-2019 GTCO2 budget of 400 – 5 years of 40 GTCO2 of anthropogenic emissions) (see Table1).

 The values in the Tables 4 and 5 (used to estimate the temperature increase in 2100) are based on the natural emissions that are expected for a specific carbon budget. For example, if the carbon budget for 1.5°C includes 200 GTCO2 of natural emissions but the emissions from natural emissions are expected to be 400 GTCO2, the temperature increase in 2100 will be about 1.64°C (see Table 4).

Table 1

Table2

Table 3

Table 4

Table 5

Figure 5.29 | Estimates of the biogeochemical climate feedback parameter (a). The parameter a (W m^{-2 o}C⁻¹) for a feedback variable x is defined as $a_n = \frac{N\mu}{2}$ where e is the change in top-of-atmosphere energy balance in response to a change in x induced by a change in surface temperature (T), as in Section 7.4.1.1. (a) Synthesis of biogeochemical feedbacks from panels (b) and (c). Orange (blue) bars correspond to positive (negative) feedbacks increasing (decreasing) radiative forcing at the top of the atmosphere. Bars denote the mean and the error bar represents the 5-95% range of the estimates; (b) carbon-cycle feedbacks as estimated by coupled carbon-cycle climate models in the CMIP5 (Arora et al., 2013) and CMIP6 (Arora et al., 2020) ensembles, where dots represent single model estimates, and filled (open) circles are those estimates which do (not) include the representation of a terrestrial nitrogen cycle; (c) Estimates of other biogeochemical feedback mechanisms based on various modelling studies. Dots represent single estimates, and coloured bars denote the mean of these estimates with no weighting being made regarding the likelihood of any single estimate, and error bars the 5-95% range derived from these estimates. Results in panel (c) have been compiled from (a) Section 5.4.3.2 (Eliseev et al., 2014a; Harrison et al., 2018); (b) Section 5.4.3.3 (Schneider von Deimling et al., 2012; Burke et al., 2013, 2017b; Koven et al., 2015a, c; MacDougall and Knutti, 2016b; Gasser et al., 2018; Kleinen and Browkin, 2018), where the estimates from Burke et al., 2013 have been constrained as assessed in their study (c) Section 5.4.7 (Schneider von Deimling et al., 2012, 2015; Koven et al., 2015c; Turetsky et al., 2020); (d) Section 5.4.7 (Arneth et al., 2010; Denisov et al., 2013; Shindell et al., 2013; B.D. Stocker et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2017); (f) Section 5.4.7 (Xu-Ri et al., 2012; B.D. Stocker et al., 2013; Zaehle, 2013; Tian et al., 2019); (g) Section 5.4.7 (Martinez-Rey et al., 2015; Landolfi et al., 2017; Battaglia and Joos, 2018b). (h) Section 6.3, Table 6.9 mean and the 5-95% range the assessed feedback parameter. Further details on data sources and processing are available in the chapter data table (Table 5.SM.6).

The **airborne fraction** is influenced by the ability of natural sinks to absorb both anthropogenic and natural CO₂ emissions. Several factors determine how the airborne fraction evolves over time, especially under future climate change scenarios:

a. Warming-Induced Changes to Natural Emissions

As the planet warms, natural emissions from processes like soil respiration, permafrost thaw, and ocean outgassing are expected to increase. This means that:

- **Increased soil respiration**: Higher temperatures stimulate microbial activity in soils, leading to greater CO₂ emissions. This adds to the overall pool of $CO₂$ in the atmosphere.
- **Permafrost thaw**: Releases significant amounts of methane and CO₂ as frozen organic matter begins to decompose in warming conditions.
- **Ocean outgassing**: Warmer waters hold less CO₂, leading to higher emissions from the ocean back into the atmosphere.

These changes in natural emissions could **increase the airborne fraction**, as natural sinks might not be able to keep up with the rising influx of CO₂ and other GHGs.

b. Sink Saturation and Decreased Carbon Sequestration

As natural emissions increase, the capacity of carbon sinks to absorb CO₂ can weaken. Some of the key processes affecting this include:

- Ocean saturation: The ocean's ability to absorb CO₂ may decrease as it becomes saturated with carbon and as surface waters warm, reducing solubility.
- **Forest dieback**: Forests may lose their capacity to sequester carbon as they face stress from droughts, wildfires, and other climate impacts. In some cases, forests could even become net sources of CO₂.

As sinks weaken, a greater proportion of the emitted $CO₂$ (both from human activities and natural processes) will remain in the atmosphere, raising the airborne fraction.

c. Positive Feedback Loops

The relationship between natural emissions and the airborne fraction can create positive feedback loops. For example:

- **Permafrost-carbon feedback**: Warming causes permafrost to thaw, releasing methane and CO₂, which leads to more warming, further thawing more permafrost, and so on.
- **Soil-carbon feedback**: Warming increases microbial activity, releasing more CO₂ from soils, which enhances warming, leading to more soil carbon release.

These feedbacks accelerate the amount of $CO₂$ staying in the atmosphere, increasing the airborne fraction.

4. Projected Changes in Airborne Fraction Due to Natural Emissions

Over the 21st century, **Earth System Models (ESMs)** predict that the airborne fraction will likely increase due to weakening carbon sinks and increasing natural emissions. The degree of change depends on the emission scenario:

In high-emission scenarios (e.g., SSP5-8.5), large-scale warming is expected to significantly increase natural

7 **Assessment of the impact of natural feedbacks on the IPCC carbon budget?**

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Natural feedbacks in the Earth's climate system, such as those involving carbon sinks, albedo changes, and methane emissions, have a significant impact on the IPCC's carbon budget for limiting global warming. These feedbacks can either amplify or dampen the effects of anthropogenic carbon emissions, and their inclusion is crucial for accurate carbon budget estimations.

Here are the key points on how natural feedbacks affect the IPCC's carbon budget:

1. Carbon Sink Saturation:

- **Forests and Oceans as Carbon Sinks**: Forests and oceans absorb roughly half of the carbon dioxide emitted by human activities. However, these natural sinks are expected to weaken over time as they become saturated. Forests may face declining growth rates due to nutrient limitations, heat stress, or increased frequency of wildfires, while the oceans could absorb less CO₂ as they warm, reducing their efficiency as a carbon sink.
- **Impact on Carbon Budget**: This saturation reduces the capacity of these systems to mitigate emissions, thus tightening the remaining carbon budget. Models that do not fully account for this risk may underestimate the reductions in $CO₂$ emissions required to meet climate targets.

2. Permafrost Thawing and Methane Release:

- **Permafrost Carbon Feedback**: Large quantities of carbon are stored in permafrost, which is currently thawing as temperatures rise. When this carbon is released, primarily in the form of methane (CH_4) , it acts as a potent greenhouse gas, accelerating warming.
- **Methane Feedback**: Methane release from permafrost and wetlands, particularly in the Arctic, could create a positive feedback loop, exacerbating global temperature rise. Methane has a much higher global warming potential than $CO₂$, especially over short timescales.
- **Impact on Carbon Budget**: Methane feedbacks add an additional burden on the carbon budget by potentially lowering the amount of CO₂ that can be emitted while still meeting climate targets like limiting warming to 1.5°C or 2°C. The release of additional greenhouse gases from thawing permafrost can significantly reduce the available carbon budget.

3. Albedo Feedback:

- **Loss of Ice and Snow**: As polar ice caps and glaciers melt, less sunlight is reflected (albedo effect) and more is absorbed by the Earth's surface, particularly by darker ocean waters. This leads to further warming, which in turn causes more ice to melt—a classic positive feedback loop.
- **Impact on Carbon Budget**: This feedback accelerates the pace of warming, meaning that the remaining carbon budget must be adjusted to account for faster-than-expected temperature increases. It also puts more pressure on immediate emission reductions, as even slight delays can lead to rapidly accelerating warming.

4. Ocean Acidification and Marine Ecosystems:

- **Ocean Acidification**: As CO₂ is absorbed by oceans, it leads to ocean acidification, which affects marine life, particularly organisms that rely on calcium carbonate for their shells and skeletons. Coral reefs and shellfish populations are vulnerable to these changes.
- **Impact on Carbon Budget**: Disruptions to marine ecosystems can affect biological carbon sequestration

processes. For example, plankton and other marine organisms contribute to carbon drawdown through biological activity. Declines in these populations due to acidification and warming can reduce the ocean's ability to sequester carbon, altering the balance of the carbon cycle.

5. Forest Dieback and Land Use Changes:

- **Forest Ecosystems**: Changes in temperature, precipitation, and extreme weather events can lead to large-scale forest dieback, particularly in tropical rainforests like the Amazon. This not only reduces the capacity of forests to sequester carbon but also releases stored carbon back into the atmosphere through decay and combustion.
- **Impact on Carbon Budget**: Forest dieback effectively reverses the role of forests from carbon sinks to carbon sources, drastically tightening the remaining carbon budget. The IPCC carbon budgets are typically optimistic about future forest regrowth and continued sequestration, but if dieback occurs at large scales, this assumption may be flawed.

6. Tipping Points:

- **Threshold Effects**: Some feedbacks may operate in a non-linear way, with the potential to cross tipping points that lead to abrupt and irreversible changes. Examples include the collapse of the Greenland Ice Sheet, changes in the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC), or the dieback of the Amazon rainforest. Once these tipping points are crossed, the feedbacks become self-reinforcing and difficult to reverse.
- **Impact on Carbon Budget**: Crossing tipping points could lead to rapid and uncontrollable warming, rendering current carbon budget estimates inadequate. If tipping points are crossed, the remaining carbon budget for limiting warming to specific targets like 1.5°C or 2°C could effectively shrink to zero.

7. Uncertainty in Feedback Mechanisms:

 The magnitude and timing of natural feedbacks are subject to significant uncertainty, and the IPCC models often take a conservative approach in estimating their impact. However, as more data becomes available, it is increasingly clear that feedback mechanisms may accelerate climate change more than previously thought.

Overall Impact:

The IPCC's carbon budgets are based on models that account for some natural feedbacks, but uncertainties remain high, particularly with regards to nonlinear feedbacks and tipping points. The effect of feedbacks is generally to reduce the allowable CO₂ emissions while staying within safe climate limits. As a result, more aggressive mitigation measures may be needed to offset these feedbacks.

Conclusion:

Natural feedbacks significantly constrain the carbon budget available for human emissions. While the IPCC carbon budget provides a valuable framework for guiding policy, real-world feedbacks may require even more urgent reductions in greenhouse gas emissions than those currently proposed. A robust response that integrates rapid emission reductions and large-scale carbon removal technologies is essential to account for the impact of these feedback mechanisms.