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**Correlation between climate sensitivity and aerosol forcing
and its implication for the “climate trap”**

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30

31 **Abstract**

32 Climate sensitivity and aerosol forcing are dominant uncertain properties of the global climate system.
33 Their estimates based on the inverse approach are interdependent as historical temperature records
34 constrain possible combinations. Nevertheless, many literature projections of future climate are based on
35 the probability density of climate sensitivity and an independent aerosol forcing without considering the
36 interdependency of such estimates. Here we investigate how large such parameter interdependency affects
37 the range of future warming in two distinct settings: one following the A1B emission scenario till the year
38 2100 and the other assuming a shutdown of all greenhouse gas and aerosol emissions in the year 2020. We
39 demonstrate that the range of projected warming decreases in the former case, but considerably broadens
40 in the latter case, if the correlation between climate sensitivity and aerosol forcing is taken into account.
41 Our conceptual study suggests that, unless the interdependency between the climate sensitivity and aerosol
42 forcing estimates is properly considered, one could underestimate a risk involving the “climate trap”, an
43 unpalatable situation with a high climate sensitivity in which a very drastic mitigation may counter-
44 intuitively accelerate the warming by unmasking the hidden warming due to aerosols.

45

46 **1. Introduction**

47 Humans disturb the climate in two counteracting ways. On the one hand greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions
48 lead to a warming by enhanced absorption of terrestrial radiation. On the other hand anthropogenic
49 aerosols (except for black carbon) induce a cooling by scattering more solar radiation back to space, a
50 process enhanced by interactions of aerosols with clouds. The combined effect of GHGs and aerosols
51 mainly defines the total anthropogenic radiative forcing and hence the impact of human activities on the
52 global climate. The current radiative forcing of anthropogenic GHGs is estimated to be about 2.9 W/m^2
53 with a high level of scientific understanding (IPCC 2007, p.200), whereas the radiative forcing due to
54 anthropogenic aerosols is highly uncertain (-0.5 to -2.2 W/m^2 (only the first indirect effect)) (IPCC 2007,
55 p.200). Accordingly, the total forcing arising from human activities is very uncertain in magnitude (0.6 to
56 2.4 W/m^2) (IPCC 2007, p.200), as it is mainly the result of these two opposing mechanisms.

57

58 This large uncertainty in the current and historical forcing affects the assessment of climate sensitivity
59 (CS), which is commonly defined as the equilibrium global mean temperature response to a doubling of
60 the atmospheric CO₂ concentration from the pre-industrial level (excluding very long-term processes, e.g.
61 ice sheet melting). CS is estimated either by perturbing coupled atmosphere/ocean general circulation
62 models (AOGCMs) or by relating changes in observed and reconstructed global temperature with
63 historical radiative forcing (based mostly on simple climate models, SCMs). Both methods indicate that
64 CS is likely in the range 2°C - 4.5°C per doubling of atmospheric CO₂ concentration (IPCC 2007, pp.798-
65 799; Knutti and Hegerl 2008). However, there is a considerable probability of exceeding the upper bound
66 of this range (e.g. IPCC 2007, pp.798-799; Roe and Baker 2007; Knutti and Hegerl 2008; Tanaka et al.
67 2009b). A high estimate of CS implies a small total forcing and thus a strong anthropogenic aerosol
68 forcing (AF) (e.g. Harvey and Kaufmann 2002; Andreae et al. 2005; Chylek et al. 2007; Knutti 2008;
69 Tanaka et al. 2009b; Armour and Roe 2011; Johansson 2011), as the observed global temperature trend of
70 the last century (in particular, the warming of the second half of the last century, which cannot be
71 explained by natural variability alone (IPCC 2007, pp.702-703 and p.727)) would otherwise be
72 overestimated.

73
74 Another interesting feature of the two opposing forcing mechanisms is the marked difference in their
75 timescale (IPCC 2007, p.203). Most of the GHGs stay in the atmosphere for many years, whereas aerosols
76 are removed from the troposphere within days. Therefore, a rapid reduction in all emissions, i.e. a large-
77 scale phase-out of fossil fuel combustion, would almost instantly eliminate the AF, leaving the remnant
78 long-lived GHG forcing. In the following decades this could counter-intuitively increase the total forcing
79 in comparison to a scenario with steadily increasing emissions (Wigley 1991; Hare and Meinshausen
80 2006), in particular, if the aerosol cooling effect is strong. An AOGCM study shows that an instant
81 removal of all anthropogenic sulfate aerosols from the atmosphere could even increase the global
82 temperature by about 0.8°C in the years thereafter (Brasseur and Roeckner 2005; IPCC 2007, p.567).

83
84 In sum, a high CS implies a strong anthropogenic AF because of the historical constraints, resulting in a
85 pronounced warming in the future, which will even accelerate after an aerosol emission reduction. The

86 interrelation of CS and AF estimates affects the risk of a dangerously strong global warming. However, it
87 has not been explored much yet how the CS-AF interdependency influences the range of future warming.

88

89 The interdependency between CS and AF estimates constrained by historical observations is treated
90 differently across models as summarized below:

91 • SCMs: While such a correlation between CS and AF is taken into account in several studies for
92 future warming (e.g. Forest et al. 2002; Knutti et al. 2002; Frame et al. 2005; Meinshausen et al.
93 2009; Sokolov et al. 2009; Tanaka et al. 2009b; Urban and Keller 2010; Armour and Roe 2011;
94 Johansson 2011), it is ignored by others (e.g. IPCC 2001; Wigley and Raper 2001; Caldeira et al.
95 2003; Hare and Meinshausen 2006; IPCC 2007; Rive et al. 2007; Ramanathan and Feng 2008;
96 Penner et al. 2010). In IPCC TAR (2001, p.577), the range of future warming has been estimated by
97 using SCMs without considering the interdependency between CS and AF estimates – SCM
98 parameters including CS are tuned to emulate several AOGCMs, but the AF is not adjusted when
99 the SCMs simulate future climate. In IPCC AR4 (2007, p.810 and p.844), SCMs are used only to
100 supplement AOGCM runs, but the same problem persists.

101 • AOGCMs: It has been shown that there is an inverse relationship between the CS and AF estimates
102 in AOGCMs (Kiehl 2007; Knutti 2008) even though CS and AF emerge from physical
103 parameterizations and data independently from each other. The negative correlation between CS and
104 AF values explains why most of the AOGCMs well reproduce the historical observed warming
105 (Kerr 2007; Kiehl 2007; Schwarz et al. 2007; Knutti 2008) although their CS estimates differ by a
106 factor of two (IPCC 2007, p.631) and the total forcing is also different (e.g. some AOGCMs do not
107 have the indirect aerosol effect).

108

109 In spite of the different treatments of the CS-AF interdependency among the studies, only a few studies
110 (Andreae et al. 2005; Knutti 2008) have investigated how such an interrelation influences the range of
111 projected future warming . Andreae et al. (2005) is the first study that specifically addressed this issue.
112 Knutti (2008) took a step further and showed how much the interdependency between CS and AF reduces
113 the uncertainty range of future warming over time, given three different correlation strengths. However,
114 these studies explored this issue only under business-as-usual scenarios without pursuing it further under

115 mitigation scenarios involving a rapid SO₂ emission reduction – the estimate of the short-term warming
116 triggered by a drastic SO₂ abatement can be strongly influenced by the correlation between CS and AF.

117
118 Thus, the conceptual study presented here aims at illustrating the importance of the interdependency
119 between the estimates of uncertain climate parameters for projections of the future climate. To be as
120 illustrative as possible we compare two drastically different emission scenarios for the 21st century: A
121 business-as-usual scenario and a shutdown of all emissions (both GHGs and aerosols) in the year 2020. In
122 terms of socio-economic constraints the latter scenario is not realistic, but it displays a geophysical limit of
123 the effects that a fast emission reduction could have, as termed “geophysical commitment” by Hare and
124 Meinshausen (2006).

125
126 The latter case involving an emission shutdown also contributes to the discussion related to the zero
127 emissions commitment (Hare and Meinshausen 2006; IPCC 2007 p.567; Plattner et al. 2008; Solomon et al.
128 2009; Frölicher and Joos 2010; Matthews and Weaver 2010; Armour and Roe 2011). The initial abrupt
129 warming induced by a cessation of the aerosol forcing, which can be considered as “hidden commitment”
130 as a measure for the committed warming masked by aerosols, has received little attention in the climate
131 commitment studies with Armour and Roe (2011) being an exception. No climate commitment study has
132 explicitly shown how the aerosol-led rapid warming is affected by the CS and AF interdependency, which
133 we explore here.

134

135 **2. Methodology**

136 The Aggregated Carbon Cycle, Atmospheric Chemistry, and Climate model (ACC2) (Tanaka et al. 2007;
137 Tanaka 2008; Tanaka et al. 2009a,b) describes major physical and biogeochemical processes within the
138 Earth system on a global-annual-mean level. The most relevant part of ACC2 is the climate component:
139 Diffusion Ocean Energy Balance Climate model (DOECLIM) (Kriegler 2005; Tanaka et al. 2007, Section
140 2.3), which is a land-ocean energy balance model coupled with a heat diffusion model to describe heat
141 transfer to the interior ocean. The limitation in spatial and temporal resolution allows an inversion of
142 ACC2, i.e. the concurrent optimization of model parameters and the simulated time evolution of the
143 coupled climate - carbon cycle system. In this optimization, the value of a cost function is minimized; that

144 is, the sum of the squared deviations of parameter values and data from their apriori values weighted by
145 their uncertainty (equation (1) of Tanaka et al. (2009b)). Data are time series of atmospheric CO₂, CH₄,
146 and N₂O concentration, ocean and land CO₂ uptake, and global temperature change (Tanaka 2008, Table
147 3.1). Parameters include the β-factor (CO₂ fertilization) and the CS (Tanaka 2008, Table 3.2). Parameters
148 with annual values are the CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O emissions and the “missing forcing” (Tanaka et al. 2009b;
149 discussed later). For the sake of analysis, no climate-carbon cycle feedbacks are provided – i.e. carbon
150 cycle processes are assumed to be insensitive to temperature changes. We also assume a fixed estimate of
151 ocean diffusivity (0.55 cm²/s based on Kriegler (2005)). The sensitivity of our results to this assumption is
152 discussed later.

153

154 In our model setup, the total forcing is given as the sum of three types of forcing (Tanaka 2008, Fig. A.6;
155 Tanaka et al. 2009b, Fig. 2): i) calculated radiative forcing subject to uncertainties (CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O
156 forcing), ii) prescribed/parameterized radiative forcing without uncertainties (other GHGs (e.g. ozone),
157 aerosol, volcanic, solar forcing), and iii) missing forcing (Tanaka et al. 2009b). The third term represents
158 the noise in the temperature record induced by internal climate variability and the uncertainty in prescribed
159 or parameterized radiative forcing, which is mostly the uncertainty in AF. Types of forcing that are not
160 included in the model (e.g. albedo forcing due to land use (-0.20 ± 0.20 W/m² (IPCC 2007, p.204)) and
161 mineral dust forcing (-0.10 ± 0.20 W/m², (IPCC 2007, p.204)) are also accounted for in the missing forcing.
162 Note that the efficacy of forcing (Hansen et al. 2005) is not considered in the analysis here – i.e. it is
163 assumed that CS is the same for all the forcing terms.

164

165 The simulations performed for this study are done in two steps: First, inversions of ACC2 are performed
166 for the period 1750-2000 with fixed values of CS (2°C, 3°C, 5°C, and 10°C). 3°C is the most likely
167 estimate for the climate sensitivity among others (IPCC 2007, pp.798-799) while the estimate of 10°C is
168 the least likely. Second, forward runs of ACC2 are done for the 21st century with parameters as derived by
169 the inversions of the historical period and emissions specified by the SRES A1B scenario (IPCC 2000).
170 This is a business-as-usual scenario with maximum GHG emissions in the middle of the 21st century. All
171 these future runs are repeated with a modification in the emission scenario. From the year 2020 on they are

172 performed with the theoretically most drastic emission reduction – a shutdown of all emissions (both
173 GHGs and aerosols).

174
175 In all the future simulations, the base AF is scaled to the common estimate of -1.3 W/m^2 in the year 2000
176 by parameterizing with the emissions of SO_2 as well as carbon monoxide (a surrogate for carbonaceous
177 aerosols) (Joos et al. 2001; Tanaka 2008, Table 2.1). The average missing forcing determined by each
178 ACC2 inversion for the historical period provides a correction for this base AF magnitude so that it is
179 consistent with the predefined CS. Under the assumption that the missing forcing averaged over the latter
180 half of the 20th century mostly reflects the uncertainty in AF, the base AF throughout the 21st century is
181 scaled with the factor $1 + \text{missing forcing (averaged 1950-2000)} / \text{AF (averaged 1950-2000)}$. Thus, after
182 the year 2000 the corrected AF is reduced in magnitude for a small CS and increased for a high CS (Fig.
183 1a). Scaling the AF also in the historical period (rather than using the missing forcing) would be more
184 straightforward, but such an approach could lead to a bias in the estimates of CS and AF (Tanaka et al.
185 2009b).

186
187 Additionally, simulations are conducted to show how much the projections of future climate are distorted,
188 if the interdependency in the estimates of CS and AF is neglected. The runs with a CS of 2°C , 5°C , and
189 10°C per doubling of atmospheric CO_2 concentration are repeated for the period 2000-2100, but with the
190 AF, parameter values (β -factor, etc.), and initial state (in the year 2000) set as in the future run with the CS
191 of 3°C . These climate projections disregard any relation in the estimates of CS and other climate
192 parameters and are therefore called “separate” hereafter (in contrast to the “interdependent” runs).

193

194 **3. Results**

195 For the period 1750-2000 the ACC2 inversions result in a good fit of the data for all the prescribed CS
196 varied in the range of $2 - 10^\circ\text{C}$ (see the radiative forcing and temperature projections in Tanaka et al.
197 (2009b, Fig. 2 (missing forcing approach)). The warming till the year 2000 differs slightly by 0.10°C with
198 CS (0.68°C warming since pre-industrial in the case of $\text{CS}=2^\circ\text{C}$; 0.78°C warming in the case of $\text{CS}=10^\circ\text{C}$).
199 The magnitude of total AF in year 2000 (to be used for future runs) is estimated to be -1.04 , -1.32 , -1.57 ,
200 and -1.78 W/m^2 for $\text{CS}=2$, 3 , 5 , and 10°C , respectively, the range of which is narrower than the AF

201 uncertainty shown in IPCC (2007, p.200). These values are compatible with the relationship between CS
202 and AF reported by Andreae et al. (2005, Fig. 1).

203

204 On this basis, the global temperature evolution of the 21st century is simulated in the interdependent runs
205 with different prescribed values of CS (Fig. 1b). In the case of an emission shutdown in 2020, the warming
206 is accelerated in the years thereafter for all prescribed CS values. However, the rate of this warming is
207 strongly dependent on the CS and is as high as 0.32°C/decade for CS=2°C and 1.17°C/decade for
208 CS=10°C (Fig. 1c).

209

210 A maximum in global temperature is reached 5 to 30 years after the emission shutdown and is 1.17 -
211 2.81°C above the pre-industrial level. Most of this large spread in the estimated global warming emerges
212 after the emission shutdown. The temperature increases only by 0.24°C for CS=2°C, but jumps up by
213 1.36°C for CS=10°C (Fig. 1b). This dependence of the post-shutdown warming on the CS is much weaker
214 in the separate simulations. The warming after 2020 amounts to 0.34°C for CS=2°C and 1.00°C for
215 CS=10°C (Fig. 2a).

216

217 Forcing ACC2 with the continuous evolving emissions results in a more gradual increase of the global
218 temperature (Fig. 1b). Nevertheless, the simulated warming is very different with respect to the presumed
219 value of CS and amounts to 2.40 - 6.90°C in the year 2100. This range is larger for the separate runs (2.33
220 - 7.38°C) (Fig. 2b). The rate of warming is highest in the middle of the 21st century coincident with the
221 largest GHG emissions. For the interdependent runs it ranges from 0.26°C/decade for CS=2°C to
222 0.84°C/decade for CS=10°C.

223

224 All these results are based on an ocean diffusivity of 0.55 cm²/s. Simulation results with higher estimates
225 of 1.0 and 2.0 cm²/s (error bars of Fig. 2) do not influence the findings discussed in this article.

226

227 **4. Discussion**

228 Accounting for the interdependency between CS and AF estimates changes the expectations about future
229 warming considerably. This is most prominent for a drastic reduction of emissions in the near future (Fig.

230 2a). In this case the uncertainty in the projections of future climate is enhanced by the CS-AF
231 interdependency – the spread in the anticipated warming after a shutdown of all emissions in the year 2020
232 nearly doubles by including the CS-AF interrelation in our simulations. An explanation for this difference
233 between the interdependent and separate simulations can be directly inferred from the cause of the sudden
234 warming after the emission shutdown – the instant cessation of AF. The abrupt increase in the total forcing
235 varies in the interdependent runs from 1.01 W/m² for CS=2°C to 1.97 W/m² for CS=10°C, whereas it is the
236 same for all separate simulations (1.37 W/m²). The total forcing change is predominantly ascribed to the
237 cessation of AF, the strength of which is -1.37 W/m² for CS=2°C and -2.33 W/m² for CS=10°C in the
238 interdependent cases and -1.72 W/m² in all the separate cases. The rest of the change in the total forcing is
239 mostly explained by the concurrent drop of the tropospheric ozone forcing. Neglecting the CS-AF
240 correlation diminishes the difference in radiative forcing before zero emissions and narrows the range of
241 warming immediately following zero emissions.

242

243 A SCM-based study of Armour and Roe (2011) shows a maximum warming of 0.9°C immediately after an
244 emission shutdown at the present-day condition (GHGs and aerosols), which is smaller than the upper
245 range of the peak warming (1.36°C) after the 2020 emission shutdown that we obtained for the
246 interdependent case. This is mainly because there is a greater aerosol forcing in 2020 than at present,
247 resulting in a larger jump in forcing under zero emissions. The post-emission shutdown warming can be
248 even more striking if an emission shutdown is assumed at the time of higher SO₂ emissions. AOGCM-
249 based studies show a variety of responses upon emission shutdowns. The 0.8°C warming shown by an
250 AOGCM study of Brasseur and Roeckner (2005) (also in IPCC (2007 p.567)) after a hypothetical removal
251 of the entire burden of anthropogenic sulphate aerosols in 2000 is larger than what would be expected from
252 our results for the model’s CS of 3.4°C (IPCC 2007, p.631). On the other hand, the warming generated by
253 another AOGCM study (CS of 2.0°C) (Frölicher and Joos 2010) after an emission shutdown (both GHGs
254 and aerosols) is too small to be distinguished from the background natural variability.

255

256 Note that, after the emission shutdown, the warming persists for a long time owing to the slow decays of
257 the atmospheric burden of long-lived GHGs (e.g. CO₂ and SF₆) (Mackenzie and Lerman 2006; Archer et al.
258 2009) and heat storage in the deep ocean (Plattner et al. 2008; Solomon et al. 2009; Frölicher and Joos

259 2010; Matthews and Weaver 2010; Solomon et al. 2010; Armour and Roe 2011). The slow drawdown of
260 CO₂ following zero emissions results in an even slower reduction in forcing due to the logarithmic
261 relationship between forcing and concentration. The difference in the warming levels in the separate and
262 interdependent cases for the same CS eventually diminishes because the total radiative forcing is the same
263 after the emission shutdown (Fig. 1a).

264
265 By contrast, in the case that follows the A1B scenario until 2100, the spread in global temperature is
266 slightly smaller for the interdependent runs than for the separate ones (Fig. 2b). This result can be
267 explained by the ongoing SO₂ emissions throughout the 21st century, which in the interdependent
268 simulations are translated into different AFs depending on the presumed value of CS. This results in a
269 larger aerosol cooling for a high CS than for a low CS, keeping the temperature curves closer together,
270 whereas the AF is the same in all separate simulations. This finding is in line with Andreae et al. (2005),
271 which however cannot be compared directly with our results due to several differences in the experimental
272 setups. Our finding is also consistent with Knutti (2008), which shows that the range of future warming is
273 smaller with a stronger negative correlation between CS and the total forcing.

274
275 Therefore, without the interdependency between CS and AF estimates taken into account, the range of
276 future warming is overestimated when SO₂ emissions persist, whereas it is underestimated when SO₂
277 emissions cease. One may argue that the CS-AF interrelation is not very important because the SO₂
278 emissions in SRES are low toward the end of the 21st century (e.g. Wigley and Raper 2001) or that it is
279 less relevant for studies using the newest RCP scenarios (Moss et al. 2010), in which SO₂ emissions are
280 reduced faster than in SRES. Irrespective of the scenario, we believe that the CS-AF interdependency
281 deserves more attention because it potentially influences the range of future warming substantially in a
282 distinct way.

283

284 Our results provide the following implications for SCM and AOGCM studies:

- 285 • SCMs: As have been done in recent studies cited earlier, it is necessary to include the CS-AF
286 interdependency in the projections of future climate to remove the bias that could otherwise be
287 added. The ignorance of the CS-AF interdependency has led to an overestimation in the range of

288 future warming under business-as-usual scenarios in many SCM-based studies including IPCC
289 (2001, p.577; 2007, p.810 and p.844). However, it should be noted that in the case of IPCC such a
290 bias is overshadowed by an opposite bias introduced by the limited range of climate sensitivity
291 considered (Knutti et al. 2008; Armour and Roe 2011).

292 • AOGCMs: Many more parameters are involved and not all of them are tuneable against
293 observations (Bender 2008), but it would be instructive to attempt a more systematic parameter
294 tuning (rather than the uncoordinated approach typically taken) – it should ideally be not separately
295 for CS and AF (e.g. Murphy et al. 2004; Haerter et al. 2009) but simultaneously for CS and AF.

296

297 Furthermore, our illustration shows that, with the large spread in the interdependent simulations after the
298 emission shutdown, the global temperature overshoots the common climate policy target of 2°C warming
299 in the case of CS>5°C. Furthermore, the rate of warming after an emission shutdown exceeds another
300 common target of 0.2°C/decade even with a small CS.

301

302 **5. Concluding remarks: “climate trap”**

303 Overall, our analysis shows that in the case of a high CS ($\approx 5^\circ\text{C}$) an unpalatable situation may already
304 emerge in the next two decades. In the face of an accelerating warming, a rapid emission reduction would
305 result in a large abrupt warming. Once being in this “climate trap”, it would be impossible to keep the two
306 most common climate policy targets by solely reducing emissions. Either the global temperature would
307 exceed the limit of 2°C above the pre-industrial level driven by continued emissions, or the rate of
308 warming would be much higher than 0.2°C/decade during the time of rapid emission reduction (Fig. 1).

309 Under the emissions scenario we assume, such a dilemma situation could be reached at a warming level of
310 about 1.2°C above the pre-industrial level. Our study is illustrative in nature, calling for more detailed
311 studies to explore further this problem by using spatially-explicit models under socio-economically more
312 elaborated emissions scenarios. Ways in which undesirable consequences can be avoided in such a
313 situation should also be investigated.

314

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440

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444

445 **Figure Captions**

446 **Figure 1.** Total forcing (a), warming since pre-industrial (b), and rate of warming (c) for the period 2000-
447 2100 and CS ranging from 2 to 10°C in the “interdependent” simulations (see text). Emissions correspond
448 to SRES A1B (dashed lines) or an emission shutdown in 2020 (solid lines). Common climate policy targets
449 are indicated by dotted grey lines. The ocean diffusivity is assumed to be 0.55 cm²/s.

450

451 **Figure 2.** Warming after a shutdown of all emissions in 2020 (a) and following the A1B scenario in 2100
452 (b) depending on the CS ranging from 2 to 10°C and the AF calculated in either the “interdependent”
453 approach or the “separate” approach by setting to the one for the simulation with a CS of 3°C (see text).
454 The ocean diffusivity is assumed to be 0.55 cm²/s. The error bars show the ranges of warming with the
455 ocean diffusivity varied from 0.55 cm²/s to 1.0 cm²/s (middle bars) and 2.0 cm²/s (lower bars).



