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## Report

### A Combined Mitigation/Geoengineering Approach to Climate Stabilization

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Projected anthropogenic warming and  $CO_2$  concentration increases present a two-fold threat: both from the climate changes, and from  $CO_2$  directly through increasing acidity of the oceans. Future climate change may be reduced through mitigation (greenhouse-gas emissions reductions) or through geoengineering. Most geoengineering approaches, however, do not address the problem of increasing ocean acidity. A combined mitigation/geoengineering strategy could remove this deficiency. We consider here the deliberate injection of sulfate aerosol precursors into the stratosphere. This can significantly offset future warming and provide additional time to reduce dependence on fossil fuels and so stabilize  $CO_2$  concentrations cost-effectively at an acceptable level.

In the absence of policies to reduce the magnitude of future climate change, the globe is expected to warm by approximately 1–6°C over the 21st century (1, 2). Estimated CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in 2100 lie in the range from 540 ppm to 970 ppm, sufficient to cause substantial increases in ocean acidity (3–6). Mitigation directed towards stabilizing CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (7) addresses both problems; but presents considerable economic and technological challenges (8, 9). Geoengineering (10–17) could help reduce future climate change, but does not address the ocean acidity problem. Mitigation is therefore necessary, but geoengineering could provide additional time to address the economic and technological challenges faced by a mitigation-only approach.

The geoengineering strategy examined here is the injection of aerosol or aerosol precursors (such as sulfur dioxide, SO<sub>2</sub>) into the stratosphere to provide a negative forcing of the climate system and so offset part of the positive forcing due to increasing greenhouse-gas concentrations (18). Volcanic eruptions provide ideal experiments that can be used to assess the effects of large anthropogenic emissions of SO<sub>2</sub> on stratospheric aerosols and climate. We know, for example, that an eruption like that of Mt. Pinatubo [June 1991 (19, 20)] caused detectible short-term cooling (19–21), but did not seriously disrupt the climate system. Deliberately adding aerosols or aerosol precursors to the stratosphere so that the loading is similar to the maximum loading from Pinatubo should therefore present minimal climate risks. Increased sulfate aerosol loading of the stratosphere may present other risks, such as through the influence on stratospheric ozone. This particular risk, however, is likely to be small. The effect of sulfate aerosols depends on the chlorine loading (22–24). With current elevated loadings there would be enhanced ozone loss. This would delay the recovery of stratospheric ozone slightly, but only until anthropogenic chlorine loadings returned to 1980 levels (expected by the late 2040s).

Figure 1 shows the effect of multiple sequential eruptions of Pinatubo, every year, every two years and every four years. The Pinatubo forcing used here has a peak annual-mean value of  $-2.97 \text{ W/m}^2$  (20, 21). The climate simulations were carried out using an upwelling-diffusion, energy balance model [MAGICC (2, 25, 26)] with a chosen climate sensitivity of 3°C equilibrium warming for a CO<sub>2</sub> doubling. Figure 1 suggests that a sustained stratospheric forcing of around -3W/m<sup>2</sup> (the average asymptotic forcing for the biennial eruption case) would be sufficient to offset much of the anthropogenic warming expected over the next century. Figure 1 also shows how rapidly the aerosol-induced cooling disappears once the injection of material into the stratosphere stops, as might become necessary should unexpected environmental damages arise.

To illustrate possible options for the timing and duration of aerosol injections, three scenarios are considered. In each case, the loading of the stratosphere begins in 2010 and ramps up linearly to  $-3 \text{ W/m}^2$  over 30 years. The scenarios depart from each other after this date (Fig. 2). These geoengineering cases are complemented by three future CO<sub>2</sub> emissions scenarios: a central "no-climate-policy" scenario from the SRES (27) set, viz. the A1B scenario; an ambitious CO<sub>2</sub> stabilization scenario stabilizing at 450 ppm (the present level is about 380 ppm), WRE450 (7); and an overshoot CO<sub>2</sub> concentration case rising to 530 ppm in 2080 before declining to 450 ppm. (Note that even 450 ppm "produces both calcite and aragonite undersaturation in most of the deep ocean" (4), so a level even less than this may ultimately be desirable.)

 $CO_2$  concentrations and corresponding fossil-fuel emissions for these three  $CO_2$  cases are shown in Fig. 3. Emissions for the stabilization cases were calculated using an inverse version of MAGICC, accounting for climate feedbacks on the carbon cycle. The WRE450 case is an archetypal mitigation-only case, stabilizing at a level that many believe would avoid "dangerous anthropogenic interference" with the climate system (28). The overshoot case is introduced here to be considered in conjunction with the three geoengineering options. The overshoot case allows much larger CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, and a much slower departure from the A1B no-policy baseline. Although the rate of decline of emissions in the mid to late 21st century is more rapid than in WRE450, these reductions begin 15–20 years later allowing additional time both to phase out existing CO<sub>2</sub>emitting fossil-fuel energy technologies and to develop and deploy energy sources that have net-zero CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (7– 9).

Figure 4 shows global-mean temperature and sea level projections for (i) the no-policy (A1B) case, (ii) the mitigation-only (WRE450) case, and (iii) the overshoot CO<sub>2</sub> case combined with the three alternative geoengineering options (labeled "HIGH GEO", "MID GEO" and "LOW GEO"). For the early decades after 2010, changes in aerosol forcing in all three "GEO" scenarios occur more rapidly than forcing changes for the CO<sub>2</sub> scenarios, so the net effect is cooling. After 2040, the HIGH GEO cooling tends to balance the warming from the overshoot CO<sub>2</sub> stabilization scenario, eventually leading to a slight cooling that would bring globalmean temperatures back to near their pre-industrial level. The MID and LOW GEO cases lead to temperatures roughly stabilizing at 1°C and 2°C relative to 2000 (29). After 2100, LOW GEO (where injection into the stratosphere is ramped down to zero by 2090) closely matches the WRE450 mitigation-only case, but requires less stringent emissions reductions.

The sea level results, using models employed in the IPCC Third Assessment Report (30, 31), show the much larger inertia of this part of the climate system. LOW GEO and WRE450 again are similar, with neither tending towards stabilization. Even the HIGH GEO case shows a continuing (but slow) sea level rise at the end of the study period, but the rate of rise is small even relative to observed changes over the 20th century (30, 32).

A combined mitigation/geoengineering approach to climate stabilization has a number of advantages over either employed separately. A relatively modest geoengineering investment (33, 34) corresponding to the present LOW GEO case could reduce the economic and technological burden on mitigation substantially by deferring the need for immediate or near-future cuts in  $CO_2$  emissions. More ambitious geoengineering, when combined with mitigation, could even lead to stabilization of global-mean temperature at nearpresent levels and reduce future sea level rise to a rate much less than observed over the 20th century – aspects of future change that are virtually impossible to achieve through mitigation alone. As a guide to the amount of SO<sub>2</sub> required, the eruption of Pinatubo injected about 10 TgS into the stratosphere (*35*, *36*), and the analysis here suggests that an annual flux of half that amount would have a significant influence. Smaller aerosols would have longer lifetimes and require still smaller injection rates (*15*). 5 TgS/yr is only about 7% of current SO<sub>2</sub> emissions from fossil-fuel combustion (*37*, *38*). Further analysis is required to assess the technological feasibility of the suggested injections of SO<sub>2</sub> [or of more radiatively efficient material (*34*)] into the stratosphere, the economic costs of this option relative to the reduced costs of mitigation that an overshoot CO<sub>2</sub> stabilization pathway would allow, and the detailed effects of the proposed SO<sub>2</sub> injections and CO<sub>2</sub> concentration changes on climate [cf. (*39*)] and stratospheric chemistry.

#### **References and Notes**

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- 28. Avoiding dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system is one of the primary guidelines for climate policy espoused in Article 2 of the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change.
- 29. In all cases there is a residual warming tendency arising from the emissions of non- CO<sub>2</sub> gases (CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O, halocarbons, tropospheric aerosols). Emissions from these sources are assumed simply to follow A1B to 2100 and then remain constant, leading to a slow but long-term increase in radiative forcing.
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- 33. Teller *et al.* (*34*) point out that sulfate aerosols are "grossly non-optimized" as scatterers of short-wave radiation, and that metallic or resonant scatterers offer large mass savings. Although emplacement costs for such scatterers would be higher, they estimate net costs (for metals) to be "as much as five times less" than for sulfate aerosols.
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- 40. NCAR is supported by the U.S. National Science Foundation.

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**Fig. 1.** Global-mean temperature response to multiple volcanic eruptions. The "standard" eruption used is Mt. Pinatubo [forcing data from Ammann *et al.* (20, 21)], and eruptions are assumed to occur every four years (top curve), every two years, or every year. The results shown are annualmean values plotted year by year. In the two- and (especially) four-year cases the forcing varies considerably from year to year, leading to noticeable interannual temperature variations. These appear as bands of values because the abscissa scale in the graph is insufficient to resolve these rapid variations. A climate sensitivity of 3°C equilibrium warming for  $2xCO_2$  is assumed.

**Fig. 2.** Radiative forcing scenarios for the three geoengineering cases considered. The HIGH GEO case corresponds approximately to the steady-state forcing that would result from eruptions of Pinatubo every two years.

**Fig. 3.** (A) CO<sub>2</sub> concentration projections used in the analysis together with (**B**) corresponding fossil-fuel emissions. "A1B" is a central scenario from the SRES "no-climate-policy" set (27). "WRE450" is a concentration stabilization case from ref. (7), used as a mitigation-only example. "Overshoot" is a case with CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations stabilizing at 450 ppm but with less mitigation (higher emissions) than in WRE450. This is the case that is used in conjunction the three geoengineering cases shown in Fig. 2. A climate sensitivity of 3°C equilibrium warming for  $2xCO_2$  is assumed. CO<sub>2</sub> emissions

results depend on the climate sensitivity because of climate feedbacks on the carbon cycle.

**Fig. 4.** Global-mean temperature (**A**) and sea level changes (**B**) for the baseline "no-climate-policy" scenario (A1B), a mitigation-only scenario stabilizing at 450 ppm (WRE450), and three scenarios combining both mitigation and geoengineering. The latter employ the overshoot (reduced mitigation) scenario ("Overshoot" in Fig. 3) and increasingly strong geoengineering cases from Fig. 2 (LOW GEO, MID GEO and HIGH GEO). A climate sensitivity of 3°C equilibrium warming for  $2xCO_2$  is assumed.





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