

The danger of overvaluing methane's influence on future climate change

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Abstract Minimizing the future impacts of climate change requires reducing the greenhouse gas (GHG) load in the atmosphere. Anthropogenic emissions include many types of GHG's as well as particulates such as black carbon and sulfate aerosols, each of which has a different effect on the atmosphere, and a different atmospheric lifetime. Several recent studies have advocated for the importance of short timescales when comparing the climate impact of different climate pollutants, placing a high relative value on short-lived pollutants, such as methane (CH₄) and black carbon (BC) versus carbon dioxide (CO₂). These studies have generated confusion over how to value changes in temperature that occur over short versus long timescales. We show the temperature changes that result from exchanging CO₂ for CH₄ using a variety of commonly suggested metrics to illustrate the trade-offs involved in potential carbon trading mechanisms that place a high value on CH₄ emissions. Reducing CH₄ emissions today would lead to a climate cooling of approximately ~0.5 °C, but this value will not change greatly if we delay reducing CH₄ emissions by years or decades. This is not true for CO₂, for which the climate is influenced by cumulative emissions. Any delay in reducing CO₂ emissions is likely to lead to higher cumulative emissions, and more warming. The exact warming resulting from this delay depends on the trajectory of future CO₂ emissions but using one business-as usual-projection we estimate an increase of 3/4 °C for every 15-year delay in CO₂ mitigation. Overvaluing the influence of CH₄ emissions on climate could easily result in our “locking” the earth into a warmer temperature trajectory, one that is temporarily masked by the short-term cooling effects of the CH₄ reductions, but then persists for many generations.

1 Introduction

Humans emit a wide variety of climate pollutants, each with different influences on Earth's radiative balance and, often, greatly differing atmospheric lifetimes. Of these, carbon dioxide (CO₂) is responsible for the most warming to date and has become the reference against

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which all other GHG's are measured. However, the long atmospheric lifetime of CO₂, in which 40 % of a given CO₂ injection is removed within 10 to 50 years (Joos et al. 2013) while the remainder persists, some for centuries and some for millennia (Archer and Brovkin 2008), makes its status as the reference particularly problematic (Wigley 1998; Lashof and Ahuja 1990). Comparing the climate impact of emissions of different GHGs is therefore dependent on the timescale over which the analysis is carried out, particularly when considering short-lived gases, such as CH₄ (Forster et al. 2007). The best choice from a climate perspective is the obvious one: reduce all GHG emissions as much as possible, as quickly as possible, eliminating any need to try and equate them. However, the real world is complicated; difficult choices will have to be made with limited political and economic capital, and certain GHGs will be reduced at the expense of others, creating a demand for a comparative metric. Effort must be undertaken to understand the possible impact of these choices over all timescales so that we understand the true costs and benefits.

The most widely used tool for comparing GHGs is the Global Warming Potential (GWP) (Derwent 1990; Fisher et al. 1990; Lashof and Ahuja 1990; Wuebbles 1989; see also Forster et al. 2007), a measure, not of “warming”, but of the integrated radiative forcing (RF) resulting from a pulse emission of a chosen GHG relative to a pulse emissions of CO₂. GWP's have most commonly been evaluated over 100 years, although the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) also publishes 20 and 500-year GWP's. The GWP undervalues both the short- and long-term consequences of GHG emissions. With no discount rate, GWP places equal value on all time within the integration period. All RF effects beyond the integration period are valued at zero. The problem with this metric is that it is often used in ways that directly violate the assumptions on which it is based (O'Neill 2000). Understanding how a change in RF influences global temperature (or “warming”) requires a climate model and all its associated uncertainties, and using integrated RF requires an assumption of what timescales are important.

Several comprehensive literature reviews (Peters et al. 2011; Shine 2009; Fuglestedt et al. 2003) have been published focusing on the GWP and the many alternative metrics that have been suggested. The Global Temperature Potential (GTP) (Shine et al. 2005, 2007) evaluates the relative impact on global temperature of a pulse emission of a GHG compared to CO₂ at a chosen time in the future. The primary argument against temperature-based metrics has been that they require a climate model for evaluation, the results of which are non-transparent and potentially model-dependent. However, because this is a relative metric, the GTP has been shown to be somewhat independent of the climate sensitivity of the model used for its calculation (Shine et al. 2005), although other studies have shown considerable dependence for particular species (Fuglestedt et al. 2010). Unlike the GWP, the GTP is an endpoint metric evaluating the relative differences between temperature trajectories at a single point in the future. The Mean Global Temperature Potential (MGTP) (Gillett and Matthews 2010) and the integrated GTP (iGTP) (Peters et al. 2011) are more directly comparable to the GWP, defined as the ratio of the temperature trajectories resulting from the emission of a GHG relative to that of CO₂ integrated over the chosen time horizon (TH). Some recent studies have suggested that there may be only small differences between the MGTP/iGTPs and GWPs (Peters et al. 2011; Azar and Johansson 2012). In each case, as with the GWP, all climate impacts beyond the reference timescale are neglected. Although the need for climate models may translate into larger published uncertainties on temperature-based metrics than RF-based metrics, this can be viewed as an improvement. If the goal is to assess the relative impacts of various GHG emissions on climate and temperature, not on the global integrated radiative forcing balance, then these larger uncertainties are the correct ones and it is important that they are addressed overtly.

Some other approaches include the Temperature Proxy Index (TEMP), the Economic Damage Index (EDI), the Forcing Equivalence Index (FEI), and Manne-Richels-type

approaches. TEMP is defined in reverse, characterizing the influence that past GHG emissions have had on the temperature trajectory using paleo-temperature and atmospheric composition records (Tanaka et al. 2009). The Economic Damage Index (EDI) quantifies the reduction in CO₂ emissions required to offset the “economic damage” accompanying an increased emission of a given GHG (Hammit et al. 1996). Manne-Richels-type indices are defined as a function of time in which relative importance of various GHG’s constantly change as the chosen endpoint is approached (Manne and Richels 2001). The FEI is a timescale-independent approach that creates multi-gas emissions scenarios designed to maintain the same RF trajectory as a given reference scenario at all future timepoints (Wigley 1998).

These indices for comparing emissions of various GHG’s differ both in what they are quantifying: relative change in RF, temperature, or economic impact, and in how they account for time. A time-integrated metric is capable of valuing multiple timescales, from the present to the chosen end of the integration (T_f), with all longer timescales beyond T_f valued at zero. An endpoint metric most accurately captures the climate condition at T_f but at the cost of ignoring all other timescales, shorter and longer. Of these, the value of the FEI is the least dependent on the choice of timescale. Any single scaling factor (or normalized metric) used to equate a non-CO₂ GHG with CO₂ must be clearly associated with a timescale and some discussion provided about the tradeoffs inherent in this choice.

Recently, it has been shown that the value of CH₄ relative to CO₂ increases when additional interactions with aerosols are included, an effect that is particularly marked over short timescales, increasing the 20-yr GWP value from 70 to 105 (Shindell et al. 2009; Howarth et al. 2011), and the 100-yr GWP from 25 to 33. This revaluation has been used as a critical part of an analysis suggesting that natural gas consumption is worse for the climate than burning coal (Howarth et al. 2011). Additionally, it has been suggested that mitigation of CH₄ and black carbon (BC) should be emphasized (Shindell et al. 2012). These arguments focus on the climate in the next 20 to 50 years, justified in part by the need to avoid what are referred to as dangerous “tipping points” in the earth’s climate system or a “threshold” 2 °C temperature increase (Howarth et al. 2012; Shindell et al. 2012).

In this manuscript, we show results from a simple climate model, MAGICC/SCENGEN v5.3 (Wigley et al. 1997; Wigley 2008), assessing the climate impact of various choices regarding CH₄ and CO₂ emissions scenarios, over 400 years. First, we examine the hypothetical temperature impact of using a variety of proposed GWP and GTP values in direct carbon trading of CH₄ and CO₂ to illustrate the potential effects over multiple timescales. Second, we reproduce Fig. 1 from Shindell et al. (2012), expanding the time-axis from 50 to 200 years to illustrate the importance of evaluating emissions pathways over both short and long timescales. Third, we run several scenarios in which we assume that political focus on reducing CH₄ emissions results in delayed remediation of CO₂ emissions. Using these scenarios we highlight the complications of using a linear multiplier to compare gases with different lifetimes. The danger of equating CO₂ and CH₄, particularly the need to avoid delaying CO₂ emissions reductions, has been treated in other work (Berntsen et al. 2010; Daniel et al. 2012; Fuglestedt et al. 2000; Humbert 2010; Solomon et al. 2011) many of the conclusions of which are supported and strengthened in our analysis. We demonstrate how overvaluing CH₄ emissions in the context of carbon trading for CO₂ emissions will leave us with a warmer world that persists for thousands of years.

2 Methods

To examine the climate impact of a variety of emissions scenarios, we used the MAGICC model (Model for the Assessment of Greenhouse-gas Induced Climate Change) version 5.3v2. This

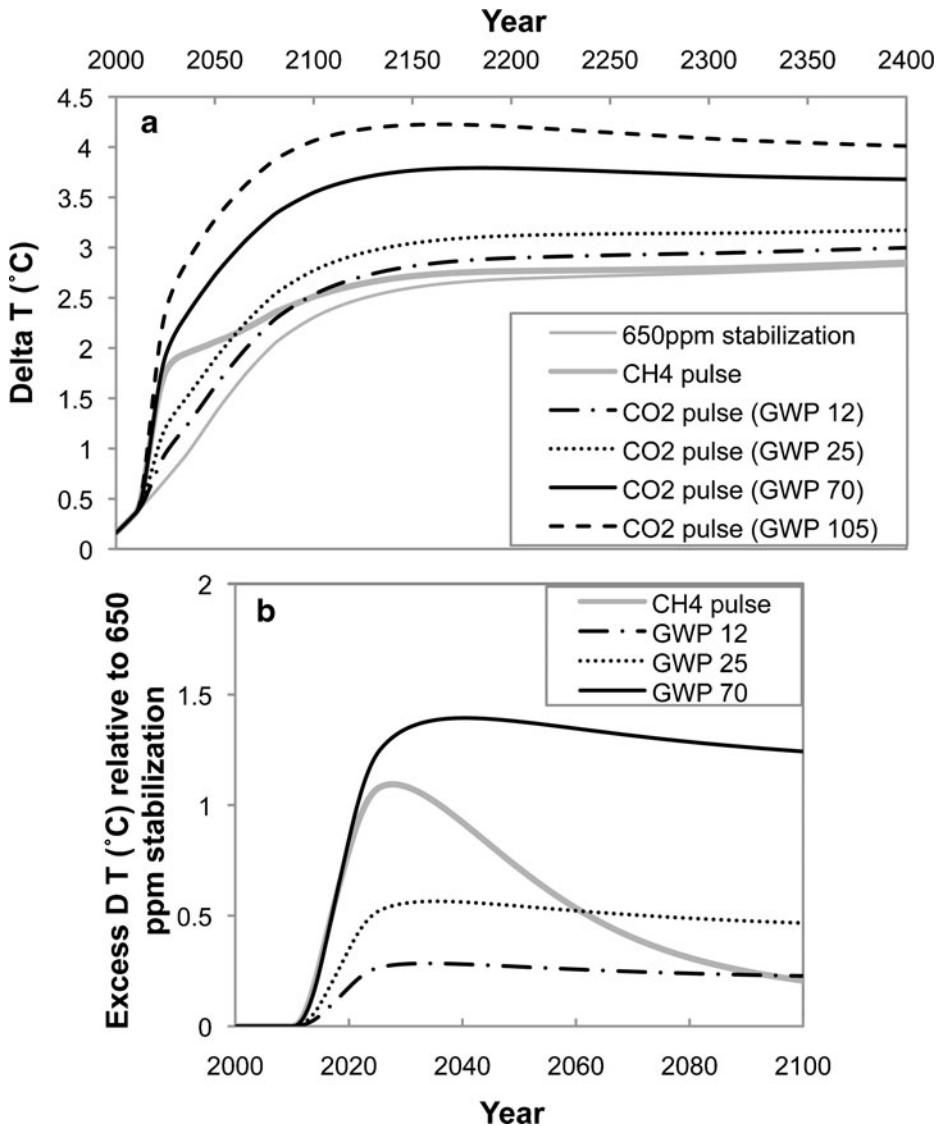


Fig. 1 Panel (a) shows the temperature response (ΔT relative to 1990) over 200 years to a pulse emission of 5000 Tg CH_4/yr for 10 years from 2015 to 2020 (*thick grey line*) compared to pulse emissions of CO_2 of varying magnitudes (*black lines*). The baseline 650 ppm stabilization scenario is represented by a thin grey line. The magnitude of the CO_2 emissions pulse is defined by the CH_4 emission multiplied by a scaling factor equal to 12, 25, 70 or 105. The lower panel (b) highlights the temperature change (in this case relative to the reference 650 ppm stabilization scenario) during the emissions pulse and the following 40 years

model is freely available for download at <http://www.cgd.ucar.edu/cas/wigley/magicc/> and has been used extensively by the IPCC in their reports and analysis. We used reference stabilization scenarios provided (the WRE scenario set is derived from (Wigley et al. 1996)) and modified them according to the specifications listed in Table 1. These scenarios were selected for 2 reasons: (1) the emissions scenarios had 5-yr resolution and extended to 2400 and (2) they reasonably approximated the emissions scenarios used by Shindell and colleagues (2012).

Table 1 Description of the model scenarios used

Scenario	Label	Description
1	650 ppm stabilization	The 650WRE scenario
	CH ₄ pulse	Using the 650WRE scenario as the reference, we increased the CH ₄ emissions by 5000 Tg CH ₄ /yr for 10 years from 2015 to 2020.
	CO ₂ pulse (GWP=105)	Using the 650WRE scenario as the reference, the CO ₂ emissions were increased by 143 Pg CO ₂ -C/yr for 10 years. This increase is equivalent to 105 times the CH ₄ mass added to the atmosphere in the CH ₄ pulse scenario.
	CO ₂ pulse (GWP=70)	Same as above with the increase in CO ₂ -C equal to 70 times that of CH ₄ mass added to the atmosphere in the CH ₄ pulse scenario. (95 Pg CO ₂ -C/yr)
	CO ₂ pulse (GWP=25)	Same as above with the increase in CO ₂ -C equal to 25 times that of CH ₄ mass added to the atmosphere in the CH ₄ pulse scenario. (34 Pg CO ₂ -C/yr)
	CO ₂ pulse (GTP=12)	Same as above with the increase in CO ₂ -C equal to 12 times that of CH ₄ mass added to the atmosphere in the CH ₄ pulse scenario. (16 Pg CO ₂ -C/yr)
2	Reference — 750 ppm stabilization	The 750WRE scenario with any decrease in CH ₄ emissions removed. Instead, CH ₄ emissions were allowed to stabilize at 600 Tg CH ₄ /yr for the duration of the scenario.
	CH ₄ measures	The 750WRE scenario with CH ₄ emissions immediately reduced to 450 Tg CH ₄ /yr and then allowed to continue decreasing when the CH ₄ emissions in the original 750WRE scenario fell below 450 Tg CH ₄ /yr.
	CO ₂ measures	The 450Over (450 ppm stabilization w/overshoot) scenario with all CH ₄ emissions decreases removed. As in the “reference”, CH ₄ emissions were stabilized at 600 Tg CH ₄ /yr.
	CH ₄ +CO ₂ measures	The 450Over scenario with the same CH ₄ emissions trajectory used in the “CH ₄ measures” scenario.
3	Reference — 550 ppm stabilization	The 550WRE scenario was used as the reference scenario — a 550 ppm stabilization scenario with no overshoot.
	15 years delay	Based from the 550WRE scenario, we substituted CO ₂ emissions from the A1 business as usual scenario from 2015 to 2030 after which we decreased CO ₂ emissions using the same percentage decreases used in the reference 550WRE scenario.
	30 years delay	Same as above, but with the CO ₂ emissions from the A1 BAU scenario from 2015 to 2045 after which CO ₂ emissions declined as above.
	50 years delay	Same as above, but with the CO ₂ emissions from the A1 BAU scenario from 2015 to 2065, after which CO ₂ emissions declined as above.

3 Results

We directly substitute CO₂ emissions for CH₄ emissions using a variety of commonly used metrics, and plot the climate response in Fig. 1. The values for defining “CO₂-equivalence”, were derived from the IPCC (Forster et al. 2007) and several recent publications, (Shindell et al. 2009; Shine et al. 2005) based on both proposed Global Warming Potential (GWP) and Global Temperature Potential (GTP) values. This represents an extreme version of the carbon-trading case where CH₄ emissions are exchanged for extra CO₂ emissions at a variety of values, such that for every one Pg of CH₄ emissions avoided, there is an additional X Pg of CO₂ emitted, where X is a GWP- or GTP-based multiplier. These scenarios are meant to be illustrative only,

as a future jump in anthropogenic CH₄ emissions of this magnitude is neither proposed nor likely. Figure 1 shows that, using a multiplier of 70 accurately represents the climate response over the duration of the emission perturbation but, once this terminates, the trajectories quickly diverge. The temperature trajectory associated with replacing the CH₄ pulse with a CO₂ pulse of magnitude either 25 or 12 times the avoided CH₄ pulse both result in cooler temperatures in the first 50 to 100 years respectively, but a warmer world thereafter. Plots of the emissions trajectories are available in the online supplemental material (Figs S1 and S2).

To examine the climate response to CO₂ emissions reductions, CH₄ emissions reductions, or both, we based our scenarios on those used by Shindell and colleagues (2012). Here we modified only CH₄ and CO₂ emissions (omitting any BC reductions). In Fig. 2, we show the resulting temperature profiles over 200 years and compare this to the shorter subset of time displayed in Fig. 1 of Shindell et al. (2012). We show that the temperature profiles diverge quickly, with the CH₄-measures scenario resulting in much greater warming than either scenario that includes CO₂ reductions. The 50-yr and 200-year timelines give very different pictures of the climate outcomes of the various emissions reductions scenarios. For this figure, the temperature axis ΔT refers to the temperature change relative to pre-industrial levels, consistent with Shindell et al. (2012). There are slight differences between the emissions scenarios used in this study and the Shindell analysis, such that Fig. 2 is not intended to be an exact replica, rather to reproduce the general patterns and trends between the various scenarios, extended over 200 years.

Consistent with limited capital and political will, efforts to drastically curb CH₄ emissions reductions may result in delayed CO₂ emissions reductions. We evaluate the extra CO₂ emissions, future atmospheric [CO₂], and temperature trajectories that could occur if reducing

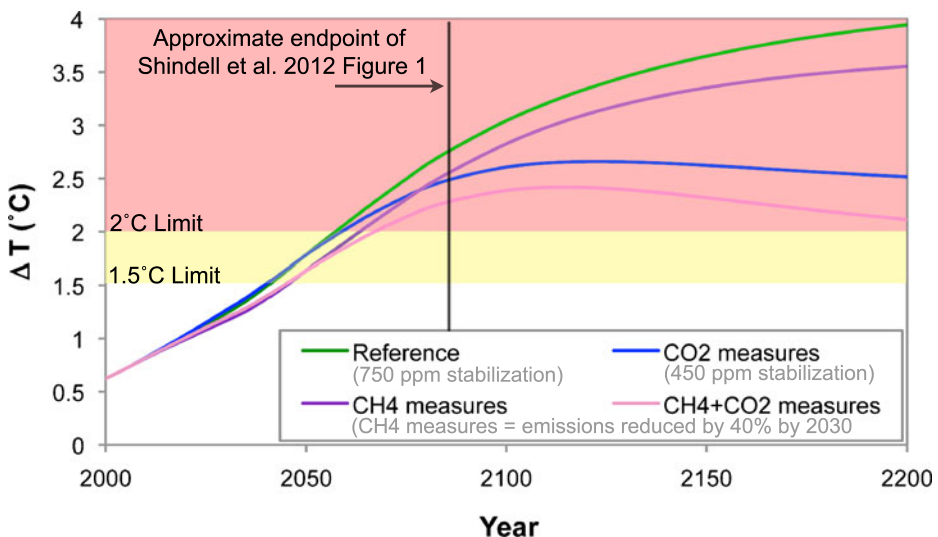


Fig. 2 The global temperature response to emissions reductions of CO₂ and CH₄ over 200 years, based on author's calculations to reproduce Shindell et al. (2012) Fig. 1. After the Shindell et al. endpoint in 2070, the trajectories diverge strongly, emphasizing the importance of CO₂ reductions to long term temperature. A choice now to focus on the CH₄ measures scenario that delays CO₂ mitigation efforts until the trajectories cross at 2070 (assuming we remain on the "Reference" trajectory during those years) would be indistinguishable from the CH₄ measures scenario. If we reach 2070 on the CH₄ measures scenario we are committed to the purple trajectory shown above even with massive CO₂ reductions on the scale of achieving the 450 ppm "CO₂-measures" scenario today. The reference scenario used here is fairly conservative; a CH₄-reduction approach paired with a "business-as-usual" CO₂ emissions scenario results in even higher temperatures

CH₄ emissions took precedence over all actions to address rising CO₂ for 15, 30, or 50 years. Results are displayed in Table 2, showing that remaining on a “business as usual” CO₂ emissions trajectory for 15 years, rather than taking immediate actions towards a 550 ppm stabilization scenario (used here as the reference), results in the emission of more than 500 Pg C as CO₂. This amounts to an additional 115 ppm CO₂ at 2100 and 100 ppm at 2400, with an almost imperceptible decline trajectory at that point. A 30-year delay in addressing rising CO₂ emissions resulted in 1800 additional Pg CO₂-C and >300 ppm additional CO₂ load in the atmosphere. Each 15-yr delay results in approximately 3/4 °C of long-term additional warming, ignoring any short-term cooling resulting from reduced atm [CH₄]. Gas emission and temperature trajectories available in the supplemental material, figures S3 and S4. Further analysis in which we use various metrics to directly replace the CH₄ emissions reductions from the “CH₄ measures” scenario in Fig. 2 with CO₂ emissions and examine the resulting temperature responses is available in the supplemental material (Figs S8–S10).

4 Discussion

The climatic influence of CO₂ is dominated by the “long tail” — the 25 to 40 % of cumulative CO₂ emissions that remain in the atmosphere for thousands of years and the 10–20 % that will persist for tens of thousands of years (Archer and Brovkin 2008). Because almost 40 % of the emitted CO₂ is removed in the first decades (Joos et al. 2013), the immediate impact of CO₂ emissions is dampened. The atmospheric concentration of CH₄ resulting from an emitted pulse follows an approximately standard exponential decay curve (Prather et al. 1994). Because of the different shapes and disparate lifetimes “there is no single scaling factor that can convert between CH₄ and CO₂ emissions” (Wigley 1998) and the same applies to all short-lived GHG’s — the value of the scaling factor is time-dependent. Unfortunately, the correct timescale over which to evaluate the relative impacts of different GHG emissions scenarios is not at all clear, and is likely to depend on the scientific or policy question being asked. What is certain is that in much of the recent debate, short timescales (≤50 years) have become increasingly emphasized, while the long timescale (>100 year) influences are often ignored (for example the 100-year GWP, by far the most commonly used metric, places a value of *zero* on all timescales longer than 100 years).

In Fig. 1, we show a direct comparison between increased CH₄-emissions, and a case in which the CH₄ pulse is “traded” for increased CO₂ emissions using various equivalence factors. The purpose of Fig. 1 is to elucidate the trade-offs with time of allowing carbon exchanges between short- and long-lived GHGs such as CH₄ and CO₂. Each potential trading metric has embedded within it a value judgment over the relative importance of temperature changes over different timescales. We show how using a 20-yr GWP of 70 results in a temperature response that overlaps the response to the CH₄ pulse scenario only for the duration of the prescribed pulse — after which the two temperature curves diverge with the CO₂ emission resulting in much higher temperatures. Trading CH₄ for CO₂ using the 100-year

Table 2 CO₂ emissions and atmospheric concentrations resulting from delayed emissions reductions

Delay	Additional CO ₂ emitted (Pg C)	Δ [CO ₂] (ppm) at 2100	Δ [CO ₂] (ppm) at 2400
15 years	530	115	100
30 years	1300	265	230
50 years	1800	360	325

GWP (25) leads to less warming for the first 50 years, but higher temperatures for the centuries and millennia that follow. Minimizing both short and long-term warming is critical, GHG mitigation policies that allow us to trade near-term (impermanent) warming for delayed but permanent warming is dangerous in a political arena where short-timescales dominate decision making; for this reason every attempt should be made to restrict carbon trading of CH₄ (or any short-lived climate pollutant) with CO₂ (Daniel et al. 2012; Humbert 2010).

A recent report by Shindell and colleagues (2012) highlighted the climate benefits of immediate reduction of short-lived climate pollutants. They showed that reductions in black carbon (BC) and CH₄ would more effectively reduce climate warming in the near future than CO₂ reductions, with concomitant human-health benefits that make such actions easier to implement, and even economically profitable for society. While many aspects of their argument are correct, some of which have been argued before (Hansen et al. 2000), there are also real climate concerns related to over-emphasizing reductions of short-lived gases. As Shindell and colleagues acknowledge, long-term (in this case decades to centuries) climate stabilization is only possible through CO₂ reductions. Our concern is that by showing the reader only a timeline to 2070 (near the point at which the highlighted “CH₄+BC tech” and “CO₂ measures” trajectories cross), they avoided discussing the huge timescale tradeoffs inherent in the proposed emission reduction scenarios. In Fig. 2, we plot a similar array of scenarios as those published in Shindell et al.’s Fig. 1, but expand the timescale out to 2200. In doing so, we highlight the potential future impacts of today’s decisions should (a) we choose to devalue all longer timescales in comparing GHG reduction strategies or (b) we allow actions on short-lived gases such as CH₄ to delay meaningful CO₂ reductions.

Over all timescales the best scenario for the climate considered here is the “CH₄+CO₂ measures” scenario in which the CO₂ emissions adhere to a 450 ppm stabilization scenario, and the CH₄ emissions are greatly reduced (see SI for plots of emissions trajectories). Timeline only becomes important when discriminating between scenarios that reduce only short-lived gases (only CH₄ in our study) or only CO₂. If we restrict the picture to the short-term, it could be interpreted that the “CH₄ measures” is preferable to, or at least approximately equal to, the “CO₂ measures” scenario. However, for all times beyond approximately 50 years, the “CH₄ measures” scenario falls only just below the “reference” scenario, in this case a 750 ppm stabilization scenario. We note that the reference scenario is roughly equivalent to the same emissions reductions required for the 450 ppm scenario, but with the start of emissions reductions delayed by ~50 years (see supplement Fig S7). This is extremely important because it means that at the point the trajectories cross, if we have chosen the “CH₄ measures” instead of the “CO₂ measures”, it is not possible to reverse course — we are now locked into the higher temperature trajectory.

Another important point is that the methodology employed by the Shindell analysis, and replicated here, exaggerates the benefits of reducing CH₄ emissions in two ways: first, by underestimating the benefits of CO₂ reductions; and second, by the timings of the reductions in the scenarios. First, consistent with the Shindell analysis, we removed any CH₄ reductions in the 450 stabilization scenarios to approximate their “CO₂ measures” scenario. However, CO₂ and CH₄ emissions are linked through fossil fuel extraction and transport; more than 60 % of the proposed reductions in the “CH₄ measures” scenario are derived from the fossil fuel sector, and yet this is treated as independent of CO₂ reductions. Accounting for these linkages would result in the “CO₂ measures” temperature trajectory moving ~50 % closer to the “CO₂+CH₄ measures” trajectory (as they correctly point out in the SI) such that this methodological decision results in their undervaluing the influence of aggressive CO₂ reductions on climate. In an analysis that was merely comparing the theoretical influence of reduced emissions of CH₄ versus CO₂ (such as our Fig. 1), enforcing independence might be fair, but in presenting

potential real-world mitigation scenarios, exclusion of co-reductions from drastic alteration to the fossil fuel sector ignores an important aspect of such actions that has significant impact on the resulting temperature trajectories. Second, the SLCP reduction scenario implements the 40 % reduction in CH₄ emissions and the 80 % reduction in BC emissions linearly between 2010 and 2030 while the “CO₂ measures” (IEA’s 450 CO₂-equivalent) scenario does not begin reducing CO₂ emissions until 2020, reaching a 40 % reduction by ~2040. The delay in the CO₂ reductions relative to the SLCP reductions further underestimates the climate benefits of immediate CO₂ mitigation. Arguments about the feasibility of implementing these dramatic emissions reductions could be made for both the SLCP and CO₂ measures.

Reducing emissions of CH₄ and other short-lived climate pollutants such as BC, has real climate benefits, as well as co-benefits for human health and ozone (Ramanathan and Xu 2010). At the same time, there are legitimate concerns that taking strong actions to reduce these emissions could delay efforts to mitigate CO₂, particularly if we overvalue the climate influence of CH₄ and BC (or undervalue the influence of CO₂ reductions as above). While the climate impacts of CH₄ emissions are essentially reversible (over a decade or two), the climate impacts of CO₂ emissions are not; CO₂ persists and accumulates. If CO₂ reductions are delayed and/or dis-incentivized by putting too high a focus (or price) on CH₄, this will exacerbate the climate crisis. Current international policy that allows methane to be traded for CO₂ at the 100-yr-GWP-based price (25) could result in significantly more long-term warming (Fig. 1) depending on the volume of trading.

In Table 2 we show the “extra” CO₂ emissions that could occur if focus on CH₄ reductions results in remaining on a business-as-usual scenario for CO₂ emissions for 15, 30, or 50 years, using a 550 ppm stabilization scenario as the comparison low CO₂-emissions scenario and an A1 business as usual trajectory as the high-CO₂ scenario. Here we find that, if reducing CH₄ emissions were to result in a delay of just 15 years in addressing the growth of global CO₂ emissions, this leads to an additional 100 ppm atmospheric CO₂ that persists for thousands of years. If CO₂ emissions continue on the business-as-usual scenario for 30 years, until 2045, this leads to atm [CO₂] 230 ppm higher than the target 550 ppm of the base scenario.

The persistence of the climate system response to CO₂ emissions, compared with the near-immediate benefits from reductions of short-lived GHG’s make prioritizing CH₄ and BC reductions particularly attractive from a political perspective where election timescales are short. Combining the results from Fig. 2 and Table 2 we observe that, if we take actions to reduce short-lived GHG’s while remaining on either a 750 ppm trajectory, or a high-growth business-as-usual CO₂ emission trajectory, by the time the warming begins to accelerate (15–30 years), we have already committed the earth to a much greater degree of warming regardless of the actions we take from that point forward. If we wait to reduce CO₂ emissions until the warming from the CO₂ begins to exceed the cooling from the CH₄ reductions (2070 or approximately 50 years), we would already be “locked in” to more than 1.5 °C extra warming with no way to take those CO₂ emissions back except through the very expensive and inefficient technological fix of capturing of CO₂ out of the air (Socolow et al. 2011). However, if we ignore short-lived gases and focus only on reducing CO₂ emissions, we can decide in 10 or 100 years that further reductions in CH₄ (and BC) emissions are necessary and the coolest climate trajectory would still be nearly attainable. Because CH₄ emissions have little cumulative impact on climate, reducing CH₄ emissions now or in the future has essentially the same effect.

Beyond the timescales associated with GHG emissions and the climate response to them, there are also timescales associated with energy infrastructure. Implementing significant reductions in CO₂ emissions requires huge changes to the fundamental structure of the global energy system. Even assuming great political will across all the world’s major economies, and future technological advances in CO₂-free energy sources, these changes are likely to take decades to centuries to complete. This infrastructure timescale would

further exacerbate the climate impact of turning attention away from reducing CO₂ emissions, and must be considered when we search for the best path to a carbon-free energy future (Schrage 2012; Davis et al. 2010).

Another argument used to support immediate emissions reduction of short-lived GHG's such as CH₄ and BC is the necessity of avoiding a global temperature increase of >2 °C, which could trigger certain “tipping points” in the climate system (Shindell et al. 2012; Ramanathan and Xu 2010). This argument has 2 flaws: First, it misses the crucial point that it is only possible to use short-lived GHG emissions reductions to avoid a future “peak” in climate warming if we are already on the down-slope of the CO₂ emissions trajectory (acknowledged in Ramanathan and Xu 2010). Otherwise, the only effect is to delay reaching this “tipping point” by a few years or decades, depending on the CO₂ emissions trajectory. Second, there simply is not enough known about the exact nature of climate feedbacks to make a compelling scientific argument either that a line must be drawn at 2 °C or that any particular temperature threshold is going to tip us over the edge of a given binary feedback (Kriegler et al. 2009). The warmer the world, the greater the probability of catastrophic consequences and the only way to take the heater off is to reduce CO₂ emissions.

5 Conclusion

As Allen et al. (2009) showed concisely in their “trillionth ton” analysis, climate responds to cumulative CO₂ emissions over approximately 100 years. Short-lived gases also play an important role in contributing to climate change, and reducing these emissions could have a substantial cooling effect over the short-term. But if we overvalue the influence of CH₄ on climate, this is likely to delay the imperative for CO₂ reduction and lead to higher cumulative emissions and more long-term warming. Of course, methane emissions (and BC emissions) should be reduced, do not weaken efforts to reduce CO₂ emissions. Otherwise, too much focus on reducing CH₄ emissions will only delay for a short time the temperature peak we had hoped to avoid, while the extra CO₂ emitted ensures that we remain above that temperature for a very, very long time.

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