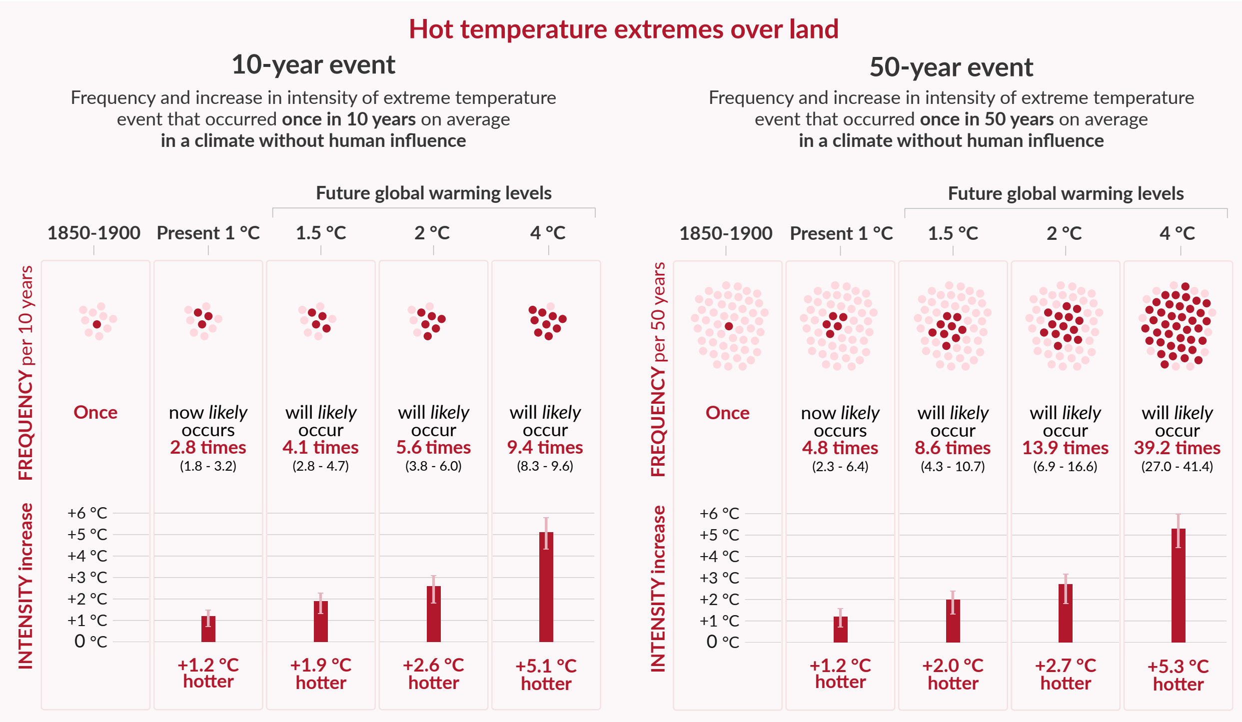
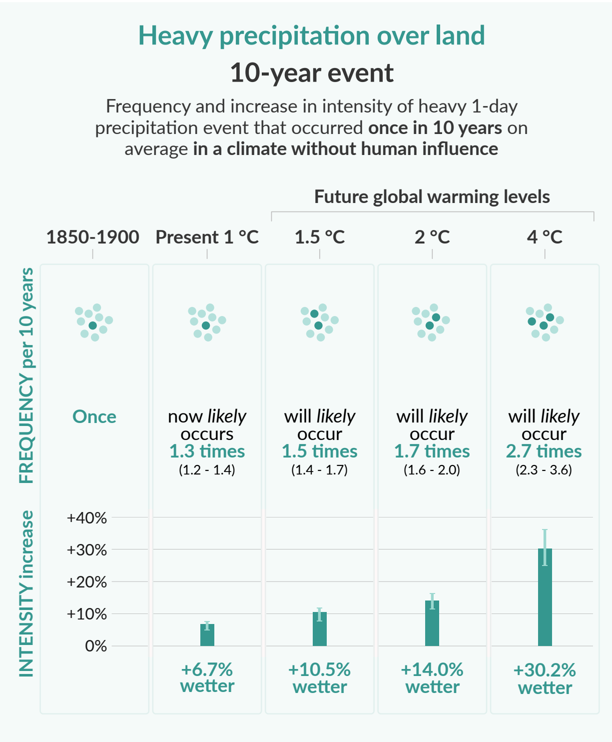
Projected changes in extremes are larger in frequency and intensity with every additional increment of global warming





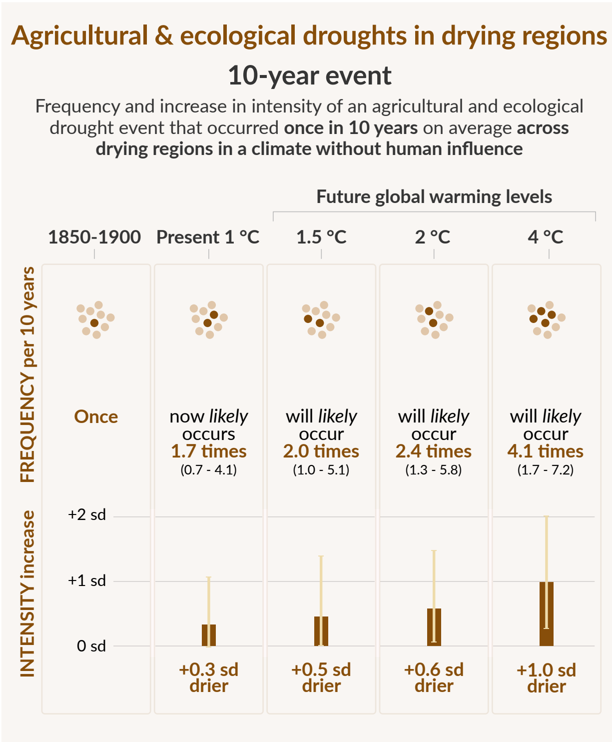


Figure SPM.6: Projected changes in the intensity and frequency of hot temperature extremes over land, extreme precipitation over land, and agricultural and ecological droughts in drying regions.

Projected changes are shown at global warming levels of 1°C, 1.5°C, 2°C, and 4°C and are relative to 1850-1900[9] representing a climate without human influence. The figure depicts frequencies and increases in intensity of 10- or 50-year extreme events from the base period (1850-1900) under different global warming levels.
Hot temperature extremes are defined as the daily maximum temperatures over land that were exceeded on average once in a decade (10-year event) or once in 50 years (50-year event) during the 1850–1900 reference period. **Extreme precipitation events** are defined as the daily precipitation amount over land that was exceeded on average once in a decade during the 1850–1900 reference period. **Agricultural and ecological drought events** are defined as the annual average of total column soil moisture below the 10th percentile of the 1850–1900 base period. These extremes are defined on model grid box scale. For hot temperature extremes and extreme precipitation, results are shown for the global land. For agricultural and ecological drought, results are shown for drying regions only, which correspond to the AR6 regions in which there is at least *medium confidence* in a projected increase in agricultural/ecological drought at the 2°C warming level compared to the 1850–1900 base period in CMIP6. These regions include W. North-America, C. North-America, N. Central-America, S. Central-America, Caribbean, N. South-America, N.E. South-America, South-American-Monsoon, S.W. South-America, S. South-America, West & Central-Europe, Mediterranean, W. Southern-Africa, E. Southern-Africa, Madagascar, E. Australia, S. Australia (Caribbean is not included in the calculation of the figure because of the too small number of full land grid cells). The non-drying regions do not show an overall increase or decrease in drought severity. Projections of changes in agricultural and ecological droughts in the CMIP5 multi-model ensemble differ from those in CMIP6 in some regions, including in part of Africa and Asia. Assessments on projected changes in meteorological and hydrological droughts are provided in Chapter 11. {11.6, 11.9}

In the **'frequency' section,** each year is represented by a dot. The dark dots indicate years in which the extreme threshold is exceeded, while light dots are years when the threshold is not exceeded. Values correspond to the medians (in bold) and their respective 5–95% range based on the multi-model ensemble from simulations of CMIP6 under different SSP scenarios. For consistency, the number of dark dots is based on the rounded-up median. In the **'intensity' section,** medians and their 5–95% range, also based on the multi-model ensemble from simulations of CMIP6, are displayed as dark and light bars, respectively. Changes in the intensity of hot temperature extremes and extreme precipitations are expressed as degree Celsius and percentage. As for agricultural and ecological drought, intensity changes are expressed as fractions of standard deviation of annual soil moisture.

{11.1, 11.3, 11.4, 11.6, Figure 11.12, Figure 11.15, Figure 11.6, Figure 11.7, Figure 11.18}

B.3 Continued global warming is projected to further intensify the global water cycle, including its variability, global monsoon precipitation and the severity of wet and dry events.

{4.3, 4.4, 4.5, 4.6, 8.2, 8.3, 8.4, 8.5, Box 8.2, 11.4, 11.6, 11.9, 12.4, Atlas.3} **(Figure SPM.5, Figure SPM.6)**

B.3.1 There is strengthened evidence since AR5 that the global water cycle will continue to intensify as global temperatures rise (*high confidence*), with precipitation and surface water flows projected to become more variable over most land regions within seasons (*high confidence*) and from year to year (*medium confidence*). The average annual global land precipitation is projected to increase by 0–5% under the very low GHG emissions scenario (SSP1-1.9), 1.5-8% for the intermediate GHG emissions scenario (SSP2-4.5) and 1–13% under the very high GHG emissions scenario (SSP5-8.5) by 2081–2100 relative to 1995-2014 (*likely* ranges). Precipitation is projected to increase over high latitudes, the equatorial Pacific and parts of the monsoon regions, but decrease over parts of the subtropics and limited areas in the tropics in SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 (*very likely*). The portion of the global land experiencing detectable increases or decreases in seasonal mean precipitation is projected to increase (*medium confidence*). There is *high confidence* in an earlier onset of spring snowmelt, with higher peak flows at the expense of summer flows in snow-dominated regions globally.
{4.3, 4.5, 4.6, 8.2, 8.4, Atlas.3, TS.2.6, Box TS.6, TS.4.3} **(Figure SPM.5)**

B.3.2 A warmer climate will intensify very wet and very dry weather and climate events and seasons, with implications for flooding or drought (*high confidence*), but the location and frequency of these events depend on projected changes in regional atmospheric circulation, including monsoons and mid-latitude storm tracks. It is *very likely* that rainfall variability related to the El Niño–Southern Oscillation is projected to be amplified by the second half of the 21st century in the SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios.
{4.3, 4.5, 4.6, 8.2, 8.4, 8.5, 11.4, 11.6, 11.9, 12.4, TS.2.6, TS.4.2, Box TS.6} **(Figure SPM.5, Figure SPM.6)**

B.3.3 Monsoon precipitation is projected to increase in the mid- to long term at global scale, particularly over South and Southeast Asia, East Asia and West Africa apart from the far west Sahel (*high confidence*). The monsoon season is projected to have a delayed onset over North and South America and West Africa (*high confidence*) and a delayed retreat over West Africa (*medium confidence*).
{4.4, 4.5, 8.2, 8.3, 8.4, Box 8.2, Box TS.13}

B.3.4 A projected southward shift and intensification of Southern Hemisphere summer mid-latitude storm tracks and associated precipitation is *likely* in the long term under high GHG emissions scenarios (SSP3-7.0, SSP5-8.5), but in the near term the effect of stratospheric ozone recovery counteracts these changes (*high confidence*). There is *medium confidence* in a continued poleward shift of storms and their precipitation in the North Pacific, while there is *low confidence* in projected changes in the North Atlantic storm tracks.
{TS.4.2, 4.4, 4.5, 8.4, TS.2.3}

B.4 Under scenarios with increasing CO_2 emissions, the ocean and land carbon sinks are projected to be less effective at slowing the accumulation of CO_2 in the atmosphere.

{4.3, 5.2, 5.4, 5.5, 5.6} **(Figure SPM.7)**

B.4.1 While natural land and ocean carbon sinks are projected to take up, in absolute terms, a progressively larger amount of CO_2 under higher compared to lower CO_2 emissions scenarios, they become less effective, that is, the proportion of emissions taken up by land and ocean decrease with increasing cumulative CO_2 emissions. This is projected to result in a higher proportion of emitted CO_2 remaining in the atmosphere (*high confidence*).
{5.2, 5.4, Box TS.5} **(Figure SPM.7)**

B.4.2 Based on model projections, under the intermediate scenario that stabilizes atmospheric CO_2 concentrations this century (SSP2-4.5), the rates of CO_2 taken up by the land and oceans are projected to decrease in the second half of the 21st century (*high confidence*). Under the very low and low GHG emissions scenarios (SSP1-1.9, SSP1-2.6), where CO_2 concentrations peak and decline during the 21st century, land and oceans begin to take up less carbon in response to declining atmospheric CO_2 concentrations (*high confidence*) and turn into a weak net source by 2100 under SSP1-1.9 (*medium confidence*). It is *very unlikely* that the combined global land and ocean sink will turn into a source by 2100 under scenarios without net negative emissions[32] (SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0, SSP5-8.5).
{4.3, 5.4, 5.5, 5.6, Box TS.5, TS.3.3}

B.4.3 The magnitude of feedbacks between climate change and the carbon cycle becomes larger but also more uncertain in high CO_2 emissions scenarios (*very high confidence*). However, climate model projections show that the uncertainties in atmospheric CO_2 concentrations by 2100 are dominated by the differences between emissions scenarios (*high confidence*). Additional ecosystem responses to warming not yet fully included in climate models, such as CO_2 and CH_4 fluxes from wetlands, permafrost thaw and wildfires, would further increase concentrations of these gases in the atmosphere (*high confidence*).
{5.4, Box TS.5, TS.3.2}

[32] These projected adjustments of carbon sinks to stabilization or decline of atmospheric CO_2 are accounted for in calculations of remaining carbon budgets.

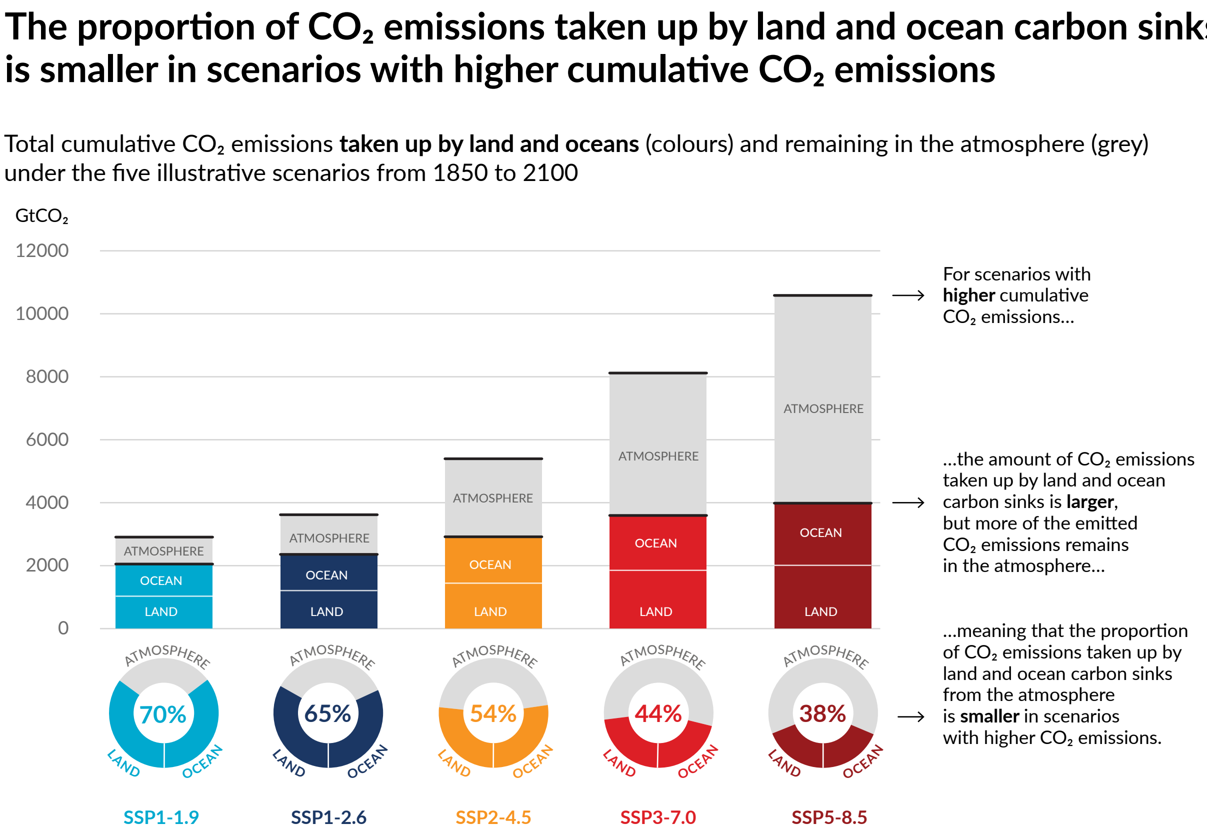


Figure SPM.7: Cumulative anthropogenic CO2 emissions taken up by land and ocean sinks by 2100 under the five illustrative scenarios.

The cumulative anthropogenic (human-caused) carbon dioxide (CO_2) emissions taken up by the land and ocean sinks under the five illustrative scenarios (SSP1-1.9, SSP1-2.6, SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5) are simulated from 1850 to 2100 by CMIP6 climate models in the concentration-driven simulations. Land and ocean carbon sinks respond to past, current and future emissions, therefore cumulative sinks from 1850 to 2100 are presented here. During the historical period (1850-2019) the observed land and ocean sink took up 1430 $GtCO_2$ (59% of the emissions).

The **bar chart** illustrates the projected amount of cumulative anthropogenic CO_2 emissions ($GtCO_2$) between 1850 and 2100 remaining in the atmosphere (grey part) and taken up by the land and ocean (coloured part) in the year 2100. The **doughnut chart** illustrates the proportion of the cumulative anthropogenic CO_2 emissions taken up by the land and ocean sinks and remaining in the atmosphere in the year 2100. Values in % indicate the proportion of the cumulative anthropogenic CO_2 emissions taken up by the combined land and ocean sinks in the year 2100. The overall anthropogenic carbon emissions are calculated by adding the net global land use emissions from CMIP6 scenario database to the other sectoral emissions calculated from climate model runs with prescribed CO_2 concentrations[33]. Land and ocean CO_2 uptake since 1850 is calculated from the net biome productivity on land, corrected for CO_2 losses due to land-use change by adding the land-use change emissions, and net ocean CO_2 flux.

{Box TS.5, Box TS.5, Figure 1, 5.2.1, Table 5.1, 5.4.5, Figure 5.25}

[33] The other sectoral emissions are calculated as the residual of the net land and ocean CO_2 uptake and the prescribed atmospheric CO_2 concentration changes in the CMIP6 simulations. These calculated emissions are net emissions and do not separate gross anthropogenic emissions from removals, which are included implicitly.

B.5 Many changes due to past and future greenhouse gas emissions are irreversible for centuries to millennia, especially changes in the ocean, ice sheets and global sea level. {Cross-Chapter Box 2.4, 2.3, 4.3, 4.5, 4.7, 5.3, 9.2, 9.4, 9.5, 9.6, Box 9.4} **(Figure SPM.8)**

B.5.1 Past GHG emissions since 1750 have committed the global ocean to future warming (*high confidence*). Over the rest of the 21st century, *likely* ocean warming ranges from 2–4 (SSP1-2.6) to 4–8 times (SSP5-8.5) the 1971–2018 change. Based on multiple lines of evidence, upper ocean stratification (*virtually certain*), ocean acidification (*virtually certain*) and ocean deoxygenation (*high confidence*) will continue to increase in the 21st century, at rates dependent on future emissions. Changes are irreversible on centennial to millennial time scales in global ocean temperature (*very high confidence*), deep ocean acidification (*very high confidence*) and deoxygenation (*medium confidence*).
{4.3, 4.5, 4.7, 5.3, 9.2, TS.2.4} **(Figure SPM.8)**

B.5.2 Mountain and polar glaciers are committed to continue melting for decades or centuries (*very high confidence*). Loss of permafrost carbon following permafrost thaw is irreversible at centennial timescales (*high confidence*). Continued ice loss over the 21st century is *virtually certain* for the Greenland Ice Sheet and *likely* for the Antarctic Ice Sheet. There is *high confidence* that total ice loss from the Greenland Ice Sheet will increase with cumulative emissions. There is *limited evidence* for low-likelihood, high-impact outcomes (resulting from ice sheet instability processes characterized by deep uncertainty and in some cases involving tipping points) that would strongly increase ice loss from the Antarctic Ice Sheet for centuries under high GHG emissions scenarios[34]. {4.3, 4.7, 5.4, 9.4, 9.5, Box 9.4, Box TS.1, TS.2.5}

B.5.3 It is *virtually certain* that global mean sea level will continue to rise over the 21st century. Relative to 1995-2014, the *likely* global mean sea level rise by 2100 is 0.28-0.55 m under the very low GHG emissions scenario (SSP1-1.9), 0.32-0.62 m under the low GHG emissions scenario (SSP1-2.6), 0.44-0.76 m under the intermediate GHG emissions scenario (SSP2-4.5), and 0.63-1.01 m under the very high GHG emissions scenario (SSP5-8.5), and by 2150 is 0.37-0.86 m under the very low scenario (SSP1-1.9), 0.46-0.99 m under the low scenario (SSP1-2.6), 0.66-1.33 m under the intermediate scenario (SSP2-4.5), and 0.98-1.88 m under the very high scenario (SSP5-8.5) (*medium confidence*)[35]. Global mean sea level rise above the *likely* range – approaching 2 m by 2100 and 5 m by 2150 under a very high GHG emissions scenario (SSP5-8.5) (*low confidence*) – cannot be ruled out due to deep uncertainty in ice sheet processes.
{4.3, 9.6, Box 9.4, Box TS.4} **(Figure SPM.8)**

B.5.4 In the longer term, sea level is committed to rise for centuries to millennia due to continuing deep ocean warming and ice sheet melt, and will remain elevated for thousands of years (*high confidence*). Over the next 2000 years, global mean sea level will rise by about 2 to 3 m if warming is limited to 1.5°C, 2 to 6 m if limited to 2°C and 19 to 22 m with 5°C of warming, and it will continue to rise over subsequent millennia (*low confidence*). Projections of multi-millennial global mean sea level rise are consistent with reconstructed levels during past warm climate periods: *likely* 5–10 m higher than today around 125,000 years ago, when global temperatures were *very likely* 0.5°C–1.5°C higher than 1850–1900; and *very likely* 5–25 m higher roughly 3 million years ago, when global temperatures were 2.5°C–4°C higher (*medium confidence*).
{2.3, Cross-Chapter Box 2.4, 9.6, Box TS.2, Box TS.4, Box TS.9}

[34] Low-likelihood, high-impact outcomes are those whose probability of occurrence is low or not well known (as in the context of deep uncertainty) but whose potential impacts on society and ecosystems could be high. A tipping point is a critical threshold beyond which a system reorganizes, often abruptly and/or irreversibly. {Cross-Chapter Box 1.3, 1.4, 4.7}

[35] To compare to the 1986–2005 baseline period used in AR5 and SROCC, add 0.03 m to the global mean sea level rise estimates. To compare to the 1900 baseline period used in Figure SPM.8, add 0.16 m.

Human activities affect all the major climate system components, with some responding over decades and others over centuries

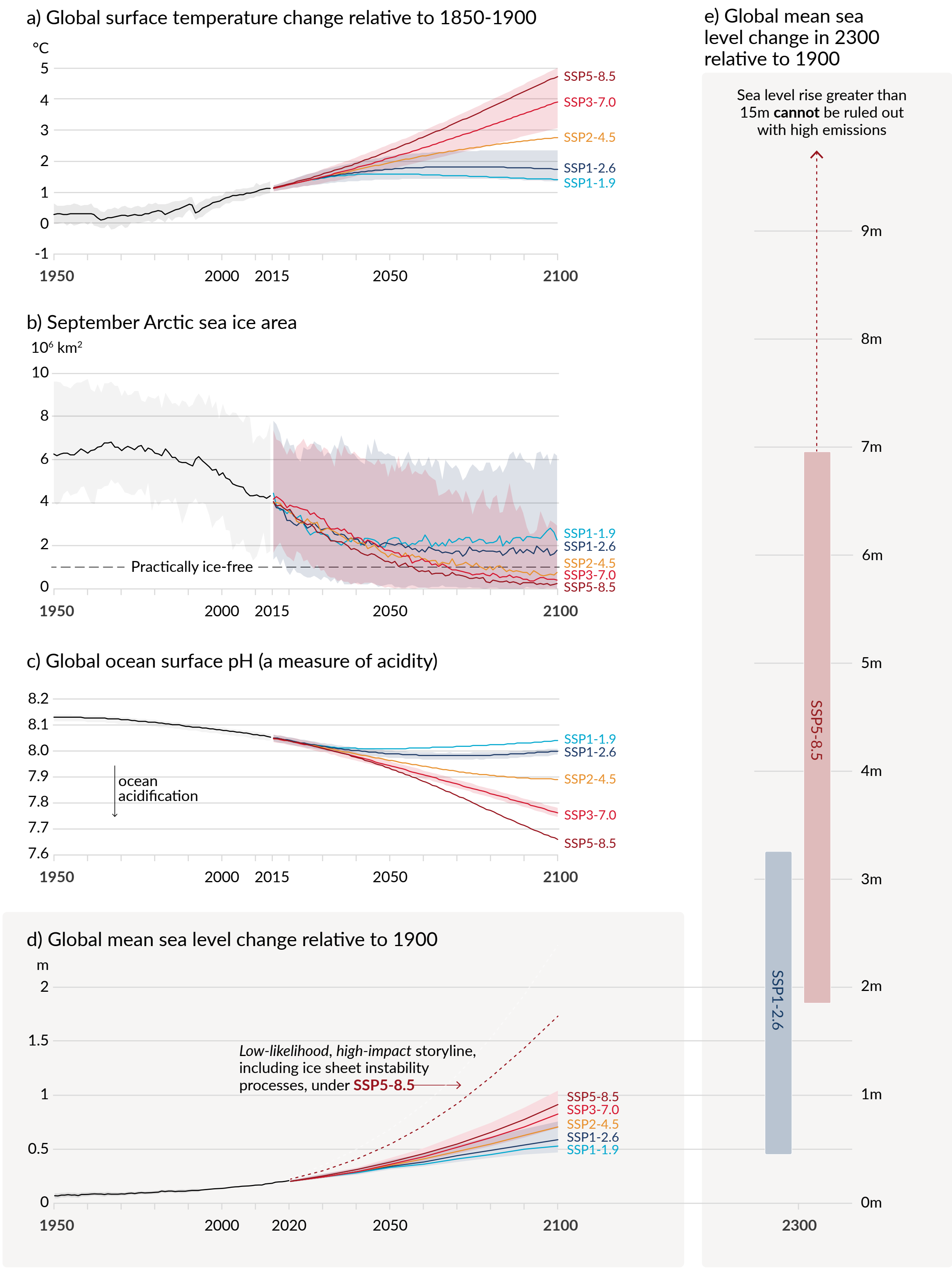


Figure SPM.8: Selected indicators of global climate change under the five illustrative scenarios used in this report.

The projections for each of the five scenarios are shown in colour. Shades represent uncertainty ranges – more detail is provided for each panel below. The black curves represent the historical simulations (panels a, b, c) or the observations (panel d). Historical values are included in all graphs to provide context for the projected future changes.

Panel a) Global surface temperature changes in °C relative to 1850–1900. These changes were obtained by combining CMIP6 model simulations with observational constraints based on past simulated warming, as well as an updated assessment of equilibrium climate sensitivity (see Box SPM.1). Changes relative to 1850–1900 based on 20-year averaging periods are calculated by adding 0.85°C (the observed global surface temperature increase from 1850–1900 to 1995–2014) to simulated changes relative to 1995–2014. *Very likely* ranges are shown for SSP1-2.6 and SSP3-7.0.

Panel b) September Arctic sea ice area in 10^6 km^2 based on CMIP6 model simulations. *Very likely* ranges are shown for SSP1-2.6 and SSP3-7.0. The Arctic is projected to be practically ice-free near mid-century under mid- and high GHG emissions scenarios.

Panel c) Global ocean surface pH (a measure of acidity) based on CMIP6 model simulations. *Very likely* ranges are shown for SSP1-2.6 and SSP3-7.0.

Panel d) Global mean sea level change in meters relative to 1900. The historical changes are observed (from tide gauges before 1992 and altimeters afterwards), and the future changes are assessed consistently with observational constraints based on emulation of CMIP, ice sheet, and glacier models. *Likely* ranges are shown for SSP1-2.6 and SSP3-7.0. Only *likely* ranges are assessed for sea level changes due to difficulties in estimating the distribution of deeply uncertain processes. The dashed curve indicates the potential impact of these deeply uncertain processes. It shows the 83rd percentile of SSP5-8.5 projections that include low-likelihood, high-impact ice sheet processes that cannot be ruled out; because of *low confidence* in projections of these processes, this curve does not constitute part of a *likely* range. Changes relative to 1900 are calculated by adding 0.158 m (observed global mean sea level rise from 1900 to 1995–2014) to simulated and observed changes relative to 1995–2014.

Panel e): Global mean sea level change at 2300 in meters relative to 1900. Only SSP1-2.6 and SSP5-8.5 are projected at 2300, as simulations that extend beyond 2100 for the other scenarios are too few for robust results. The 17th–83rd percentile ranges are shaded. The dashed arrow illustrates the 83rd percentile of SSP5-8.5 projections that include low-likelihood, high-impact ice sheet processes that cannot be ruled out.

Panels b) and c) are based on single simulations from each model, and so include a component of internal variability. Panels a), d) and e) are based on long-term averages, and hence the contributions from internal variability are small.

{Figure TS.8, Figure TS.11, Box TS.4 Figure 1, Box TS.4 Figure 1, 4.3, 9.6, Figure 4.2, Figure 4.8, Figure 4.11, Figure 9.27}

C. Climate Information for Risk Assessment and Regional Adaptation

Physical climate information addresses how the climate system responds to the interplay between human influence, natural drivers and internal variability. Knowledge of the climate response and the range of possible outcomes, including low-likelihood, high impact outcomes, informs climate services – the assessment of climate-related risks and adaptation planning. Physical climate information at global, regional and local scales is developed from multiple lines of evidence, including observational products, climate model outputs and tailored diagnostics.

C.1 Natural drivers and internal variability will modulate human-caused changes, especially at regional scales and in the near term, with little effect on centennial global warming. These modulations are important to consider in planning for the full range of possible changes.

{1.4, 2.2, 3.3, Cross-Chapter Box 3.1, 4.4, 4.6, Cross-Chapter Box 4.1, 4.4, Box 7.2, 8.3, 8.5, 9.2, 10.3, 10.4, 10.6, 11.3, 12.5, Atlas.4, Atlas.5, Atlas.8, Atlas.9, Atlas.10, Cross-Chapter Box Atlas.2, Atlas.11}

C.1.1 The historical global surface temperature record highlights that decadal variability has enhanced and masked underlying human-caused long-term changes, and this variability will continue into the future (*very high confidence*). For example, internal decadal variability and variations in solar and volcanic drivers partially masked human-caused surface global warming during 1998–2012, with pronounced regional and seasonal signatures (*high confidence*). Nonetheless, the heating of the climate system continued during this period, as reflected in both the continued warming of the global ocean (*very high confidence*) and in the continued rise of hot extremes over land (*medium confidence*).
{1.4, 3.3, Cross-Chapter Box 3.1, 4.4, Box 7.2, 9.2, 11.3, Cross-Section Box TS.1} **(Figure SPM.1)**

C.1.2 Projected human caused changes in mean climate and climatic impact-drivers (CIDs)[36], including extremes, will be either amplified or attenuated by internal variability[37] (*high confidence*). Near-term cooling at any particular location with respect to present climate could occur and would be consistent with the global surface temperature increase due to human influence (*high confidence*).
{1.4, 4.4, 4.6, 10.4, 11.3, 12.5, Atlas.5, Atlas.10, Atlas.11, TS.4.2}

C.1.3 Internal variability has largely been responsible for the amplification and attenuation of the observed human-caused decadal-to-multi-decadal mean precipitation changes in many land regions *(high confidence)*. At global and regional scales, near-term changes in monsoons will be dominated by the effects of internal variability (*medium confidence*). In addition to internal variability influence, near-term projected changes in precipitation at global and regional scales are uncertain because of model uncertainty and uncertainty in forcings from natural and anthropogenic aerosols (*medium confidence*).
{1.4, 4.4, 8.3, 8.5, 10.3, 10.4, 10.5, 10.6, Atlas.4, Atlas.8, Atlas.9, Atlas.10, Cross-Chapter Box Atlas.2, Atlas.11, TS.4.2, Box TS.6, Box TS.13}

[36] Climatic impact-drivers (CIDs) are physical climate system conditions (e.g., means, events, extremes) that affect an element of society or ecosystems. Depending on system tolerance, CIDs and their changes can be detrimental, beneficial, neutral, or a mixture of each across interacting system elements and regions. CID types include heat and cold, wet and dry, wind, snow and ice, coastal and open ocean.

[37] The main internal variability phenomena include El Niño–Southern Oscillation, Pacific Decadal variability and Atlantic Multi-decadal variability through their regional influence.

C.1.4 Based on paleoclimate and historical evidence, it is *likely* that at least one large explosive volcanic eruption would occur during the 21st century[38]. Such an eruption would reduce global surface temperature and precipitation, especially over land, for one to three years, alter the global monsoon circulation, modify extreme precipitation and change many CIDs (*medium confidence*). If such an eruption occurs, this would therefore temporarily and partially mask human-caused climate change.
{4.4, Cross-Chapter Box 4.1, 2.2, 8.5, TS.2.1}

C.2 With further global warming, every region is projected to increasingly experience concurrent and multiple changes in climatic impact-drivers. Changes in several climatic impact-drivers would be more widespread at 2°C compared to 1.5°C global warming and even more widespread and/or pronounced for higher warming levels.
{8.2, 9.3, 9.5, 9.6, Box 10.3, Box 11.3, Box 11.4, 11.3, 11.4, 11.5, 11.6, 11.7, 11.9, 12.2, 12.3, 12.4, 12.5, Atlas.4, Atlas.5, Atlas.6, Atlas.7, Atlas.8, Atlas.9, Atlas.10, Atlas.11, Cross-Chapter Box 11.1, Cross-Chapter Box 12.1} **(Table SPM.1, Figure SPM.9)**

C.2.1 All regions[39] are projected to experience further increases in hot climatic impact-drivers (CIDs) and decreases in cold CIDs (*high confidence*). Further decreases are projected in permafrost, snow, glaciers and ice sheets, lake and Arctic sea ice (*medium* to *high confidence*)[40]. These changes would be larger at 2°C global warming or above than at 1.5°C (*high confidence*). For example, extreme heat thresholds relevant to agriculture and health are projected to be exceeded more frequently at higher global warming levels (*high confidence*).
{9.3, 9.5, 11.3, 11.9, 12.3, 12.4, 12.5, Atlas.4, Atlas.5, Atlas.6, Atlas.7, Atlas.8, Atlas.9, Atlas.10, Atlas.11, TS.4.3, Cross-Chapter Box 11.1, Cross-Chapter Box 12.1} **(Table SPM.1, Figure SPM.9)**

C.2.2 At 1.5°C global warming, heavy precipitation and associated flooding are projected to intensify and be more frequent in most regions in Africa and Asia (*high confidence*), North America (*medium* to *high confidence*)[40] and Europe (*medium confidence*). Also, more frequent and/or severe agricultural and ecological droughts are projected in a few regions in all continents except Asia compared to 1850–1900 (*medium confidence*); increases in meteorological droughts are also projected in a few regions (*medium confidence*). A small number of regions are projected to experience increases or decreases in mean precipitation (*medium confidence*).
{11.4, 11.5, 11.6, 11.9, Atlas.4, Atlas.5, Atlas.7, Atlas.8, Atlas.9, Atlas.10, Atlas.11, TS.4.3} **(Table SPM.1)**

[38] Based on 2,500 year reconstructions, eruptions more negative than -1 W m^{-2} occur on average twice per century.

[39] Regions here refer to the AR6 WGI reference regions used in this Report to summarize information in sub-continental and oceanic regions. Changes are compared to averages over the last 20–40 years unless otherwise specified. {1.4, 12.4, Atlas.1, Interactive Atlas}.

[40] The specific level of confidence or likelihood depends on the region considered. Details can be found in the Technical Summary and the underlying Report.

C.2.3 At 2°C global warming and above, the level of confidence in and the magnitude of the change in droughts and heavy and mean precipitation increase compared to those at 1.5°C. Heavy precipitation and associated flooding events are projected to become more intense and frequent in the Pacific Islands and across many regions of North America and Europe (*medium* to *high confidence*)[40]. These changes are also seen in some regions in Australasia and Central and South America (*medium confidence*). Several regions in Africa, South America and Europe are projected to experience an increase in frequency and/or severity of agricultural and ecological droughts with *medium* to *high confidence*[40]; increases are also projected in Australasia, Central and North America, and the Caribbean with *medium confidence*. A small number of regions in Africa, Australasia, Europe and North America are also projected to be affected by increases in hydrological droughts, and several regions are projected to be affected by increases or decreases in meteorological droughts with more regions displaying an increase (*medium confidence*). Mean precipitation is projected to increase in all polar, northern European and northern North American regions, most Asian regions and two regions of South America (*high confidence*).
{11.4, 11.6, 11.9, 12.4, 12.5, Atlas.5, Atlas.7, Atlas.8, Atlas.9, Atlas.11, TS.4.3, Cross-Chapter Box 11.1, Cross-Chapter Box 12.1} **(Table SPM.1, Figure SPM.5, Figure SPM.6, Figure SPM.9)**

C.2.4 More CIDs across more regions are projected to change at 2°C and above compared to 1.5°C global warming (*high confidence*). Region-specific changes include intensification of tropical cyclones and/or extratropical storms (*medium confidence*), increases in river floods (*medium* to *high confidence*)[40], reductions in mean precipitation and increases in aridity (*medium* to *high confidence*)[40], and increases in fire weather (*medium* to *high confidence*)[40]. There is *low confidence* in most regions in potential future changes in other CIDs, such as hail, ice storms, severe storms, dust storms, heavy snowfall, and landslides.
{11.7, 11.9, 12.4, 12.5, Atlas.4, Atlas.6, Atlas.7, Atlas.8, Atlas.10, TS.4.3.1, TS.4.3.2, TS.5, Cross-Chapter Box, 11.1, Cross-Chapter Box 12.1} **(Table SPM.1, Figure SPM.9)**

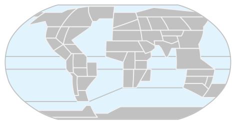
C.2.5 It is *very likely* to *virtually certain*[40] that regional mean relative sea level rise will continue throughout the 21st century, except in a few regions with substantial geologic land uplift rates. Approximately two-thirds of the global coastline has a projected regional relative sea level rise within ±20% of the global mean increase (*medium confidence*). Due to relative sea level rise, extreme sea level events that occurred once per century in the recent past are projected to occur at least annually at more than half of all tide gauge locations by 2100 (*high confidence*). Relative sea level rise contributes to increases in the frequency and severity of coastal flooding in low-lying areas and to coastal erosion along most sandy coasts (*high confidence*).
{9.6, 12.4, 12.5, Box TS.4, TS.4.3, Cross-Chapter Box 12.1} **(Figure SPM.9)**

C.2.6 Cities intensify human-induced warming locally, and further urbanization together with more frequent hot extremes will increase the severity of heatwaves (*very high confidence*). Urbanization also increases mean and heavy precipitation over and/or downwind of cities (*medium confidence*) and resulting runoff intensity (*high confidence*). In coastal cities, the combination of more frequent extreme sea level events (due to sea level rise and storm surge) and extreme rainfall/riverflow events will make flooding more probable (*high confidence*).
{8.2, Box 10.3, 11.3, 12.4, Box TS.14}

C.2.7 Many regions are projected to experience an increase in the probability of compound events with higher global warming (*high confidence*). In particular, concurrent heatwaves and droughts are *likely* to become more frequent. Concurrent extremes at multiple locations become more frequent, including in crop-producing areas, at 2°C and above compared to 1.5°C global warming (*high confidence*).
{11.8, Box 11.3, Box 11.4, 12.3, 12.4, TS.4.3, Cross-Chapter Box 12.1} **(Table SPM.1)**

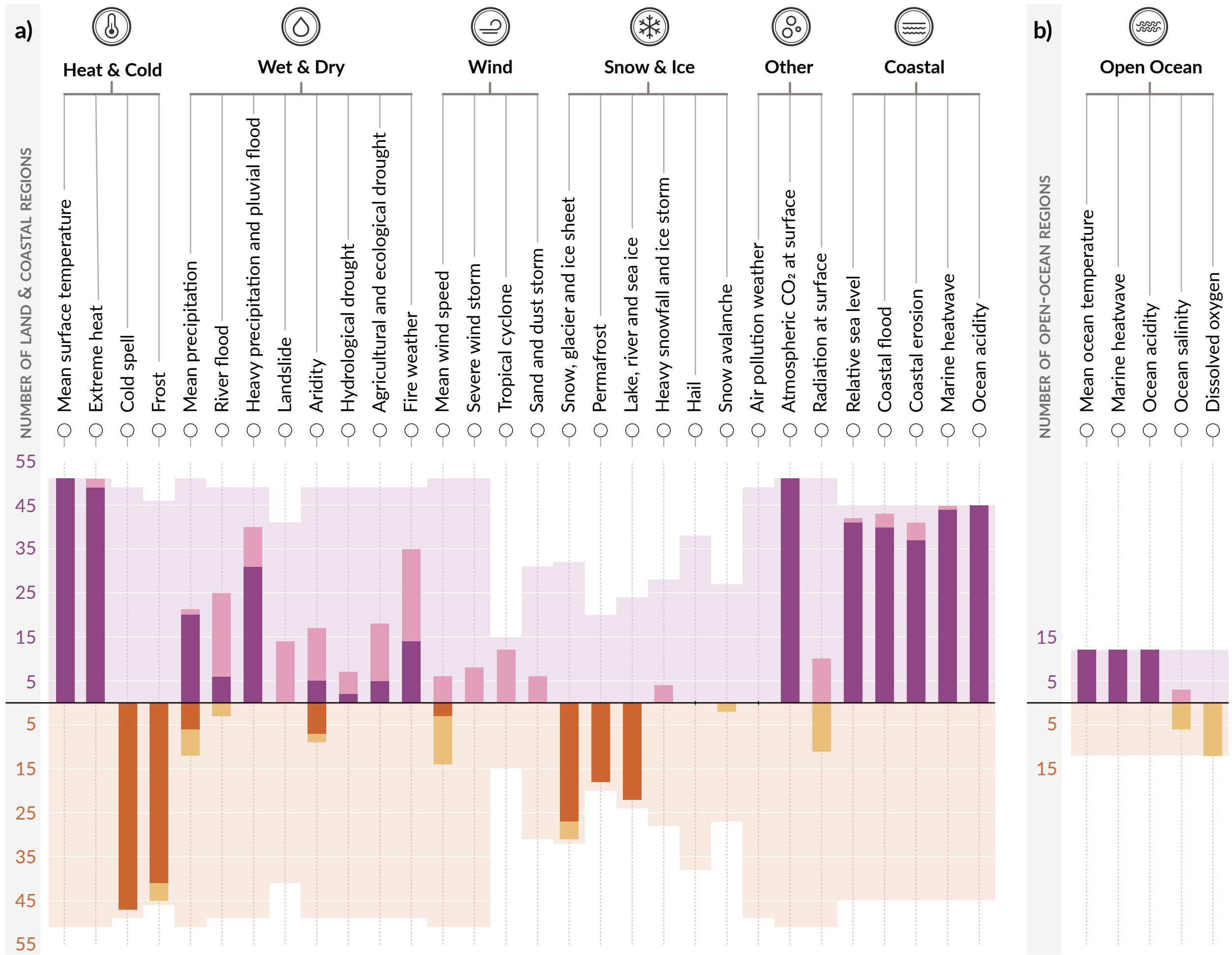
Multiple climatic impact-drivers are projected to change in all regions of the world

Climatic impact-drivers (CIDs) are physical climate system conditions (e.g., means, events, extremes) that affect an element of society or ecosystems. Depending on system tolerance, CIDs and their changes can be detrimental, beneficial, neutral, or a mixture of each across interacting system elements and regions. The CIDs are grouped into seven types, which are summarized under the icons in the figure. All regions are projected to experience changes in at least 5 CIDs. Almost all (96%) are projected to experience changes in at least 10 CIDs and half in at least 15 CIDs. For many CIDs there is wide geographical variation in where they change and so each region are projected to experience a specific set of CID changes. Each bar in the chart represents a specific geographical set of changes that can be explored in the WGI Interactive Atlas.



interactive-atlas.ipcc.ch

Number of land & coastal regions (a) and **open-ocean regions** (b) where each **climatic impact-driver** (CID) is projected to **increase** or **decrease** with ***high** confidence* (dark shade) or ***medium** confidence* (light shade)



BAR CHART LEGEND

- Regions with ***high** confidence* **increase**
- Regions with ***medium** confidence* **increase**
- Regions with ***high** confidence* **decrease**
- Regions with ***medium** confidence* **decrease**

LIGHTER-SHADED 'ENVELOPE' LEGEND

The height of the lighter shaded 'envelope' behind each bar represents the maximum number of regions for which each CID is relevant. The envelope is symmetrical about the x-axis showing the maximum possible number of relevant regions for CID increase (upper part) or decrease (lower part).

ASSESSED FUTURE CHANGES

Changes refer to a 20–30 year period centred around 2050 and/or consistent with 2°C global warming compared to a similar period within 1960-2014 or 1850-1900.

Figure SPM.9: Synthesis of the number of AR6 WGI reference regions where climatic impact-drivers are projected to change.

A total of 35 climatic impact-drivers (CIDs) grouped into seven types are shown: heat and cold, wet and dry, wind, snow and ice, coastal, open ocean and other. For each CID, the bar in the graph below displays the number of AR6 WGI reference regions where it is projected to change. The **colours** represent the direction of change and the level of confidence in the change: purple indicates an increase while brown indicates a decrease; darker and lighter shades refer to *high* and *medium confidence*, respectively. Lighter background colours represent the maximum number of regions for which each CID is broadly relevant.

Panel a) shows the 30 CIDs relevant to the **land and coastal regions** while **panel b)** shows the 5 CIDs relevant to the **open ocean regions.** Marine heatwaves and ocean acidity are assessed for coastal ocean regions in panel a) and for open ocean regions in panel b). Changes refer to a 20–30 year period centred around 2050 and/or consistent with 2°C global warming compared to a similar period within 1960-2014, except for hydrological drought and agricultural and ecological drought which is compared to 1850-1900. Definitions of the regions are provided in Atlas.1 and the Interactive Atlas (see *interactive-atlas.ipcc.ch*).

{Table TS.5, Figure TS.22, Figure TS.25, 11.9, 12.2, 12.4, Atlas.1} **(Table SPM.1)**

C.3 Low-likelihood outcomes, such as ice sheet collapse, abrupt ocean circulation changes, some compound extreme events and warming substantially larger than the assessed *very likely* range of future warming cannot be ruled out and are part of risk assessment.

{1.4, Cross-Chapter Box 1.3, Cross-Chapter Box 4.1, 4.3, 4.4, 4.8, 8.6, 9.2, Box 9.4, Box 11.2, 11.8, Cross-Chapter Box 12.1} **(Table SPM.1)**

C.3.1 If global warming exceeds the assessed *very likely* range for a given GHG emissions scenario, including low GHG emissions scenarios, global and regional changes in many aspects of the climate system, such as regional precipitation and other CIDs, would also exceed their assessed *very likely* ranges (*high confidence*). Such low-likelihood high-warming outcomes are associated with potentially very large impacts, such as through more intense and more frequent heatwaves and heavy precipitation, and high risks for human and ecological systems particularly for high GHG emissions scenarios.
{Cross-Chapter Box 1.3, 4.3, 4.4, 4.8, Box 9.4, Box 11.2, Cross-Chapter Box 12.1, TS.1.4, Box TS.3, Box TS.4} **(Table SPM.1)**

C.3.2 Low-likelihood, high-impact outcomes[34] could occur at global and regional scales even for global warming within the *very likely* range for a given GHG emissions scenario. The probability of low-likelihood, high impact outcomes increases with higher global warming levels (*high confidence*). Abrupt responses and tipping points of the climate system, such as strongly increased Antarctic ice sheet melt and forest dieback, cannot be ruled out (*high confidence*).
{1.4, 4.3, 4.4, 4.8, 5.4, 8.6, Box 9.4, Cross-Chapter Box 12.1, TS.1.4, TS.2.5, Box TS.3, Box TS.4, Box TS.9} **(Table SPM.1)**

C.3.3 If global warming increases, some compound extreme events[18] with low likelihood in past and current climate will become more frequent, and there will be a higher likelihood that events with increased intensities, durations and/or spatial extents unprecedented in the observational record will occur (*high confidence*).
{11.8, Box 11.2, Cross-Chapter Box 12.1, Box TS.3, Box TS.9}

C.3.4 The Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation is *very likely* to weaken over the 21st century for all emission scenarios. While there is *high confidence* in the 21st century decline, there is only *low confidence* in the magnitude of the trend. There is *medium confidence* that there will not be an abrupt collapse before 2100. If such a collapse were to occur, it would *very likely* cause abrupt shifts in regional weather patterns and water cycle, such as a southward shift in the tropical rain belt, weakening of the African and Asian monsoons and strengthening of Southern Hemisphere monsoons, and drying in Europe. {4.3, 8.6, 9.2, TS2.4, Box TS.3}

C.3.5 Unpredictable and rare natural events not related to human influence on climate may lead to low-likelihood, high impact outcomes. For example, a sequence of large explosive volcanic eruptions within decades has occurred in the past, causing substantial global and regional climate perturbations over several decades. Such events cannot be ruled out in the future, but due to their inherent unpredictability they are not included in the illustrative set of scenarios referred to in this Report. {2.2, Cross-Chapter Box 4.1, Box TS.3} **(Box SPM.1)**

D. Limiting Future Climate Change

Since AR5, estimates of remaining carbon budgets have been improved by a new methodology first presented in SR1.5, updated evidence, and the integration of results from multiple lines of evidence. A comprehensive range of possible future air pollution controls in scenarios is used to consistently assess the effects of various assumptions on projections of climate and air pollution. A novel development is the ability to ascertain when climate responses to emissions reductions would become discernible above natural climate variability, including internal variability and responses to natural drivers.

D.1 From a physical science perspective, limiting human-induced global warming to a specific level requires limiting cumulative CO_2 emissions, reaching at least net zero CO_2 emissions, along with strong reductions in other greenhouse gas emissions. Strong, rapid and sustained reductions in CH_4 emissions would also limit the warming effect resulting from declining aerosol pollution and would improve air quality.

{3.3, 4.6, 5.1, 5.2, 5.4, 5.5, 5.6, Box 5.2, Cross-Chapter Box 5.1, 6.7, 7.6, 9.6} **(Figure SPM.10, Table SPM.2)**

D.1.1 This Report reaffirms with *high confidence* the AR5 finding that there is a near-linear relationship between cumulative anthropogenic CO_2 emissions and the global warming they cause. Each 1000 $GtCO_2$ of cumulative CO_2 emissions is assessed to *likely* cause a 0.27°C to 0.63°C increase in global surface temperature with a best estimate of 0.45°C[41]. This is a narrower range compared to AR5 and SR1.5. This quantity is referred to as the transient climate response to cumulative CO_2 emissions (TCRE). This relationship implies that reaching net zero[42] anthropogenic CO_2 emissions is a requirement to stabilize human-induced global temperature increase at any level, but that limiting global temperature increase to a specific level would imply limiting cumulative CO_2 emissions to within a carbon budget[43]. {5.4, 5.5, TS.1.3, TS.3.3, Box TS.5} **(Figure SPM.10)**

[41] In the literature, units of °C per 1000 PgC are used, and the AR6 reports the TCRE *likely* range as 1.0°C to 2.3°C per 1000 PgC in the underlying report, with a best estimate of 1.65°C.

[42] condition in which anthropogenic carbon dioxide (CO_2) emissions are balanced by anthropogenic CO_2 removals over a specified period.

[43] The term carbon budget refers to the maximum amount of cumulative net global anthropogenic CO_2 emissions that would result in limiting global warming to a given level with a given probability, taking into account the effect of other anthropogenic climate forcers. This is referred to as the total carbon budget when expressed starting from the pre-industrial period, and as the remaining carbon budget when expressed from a recent specified date (see Glossary). Historical cumulative CO_2 emissions determine to a large degree warming to date, while future emissions cause future additional warming. The remaining carbon budget indicates how much CO_2 could still be emitted while keeping warming below a specific temperature level.

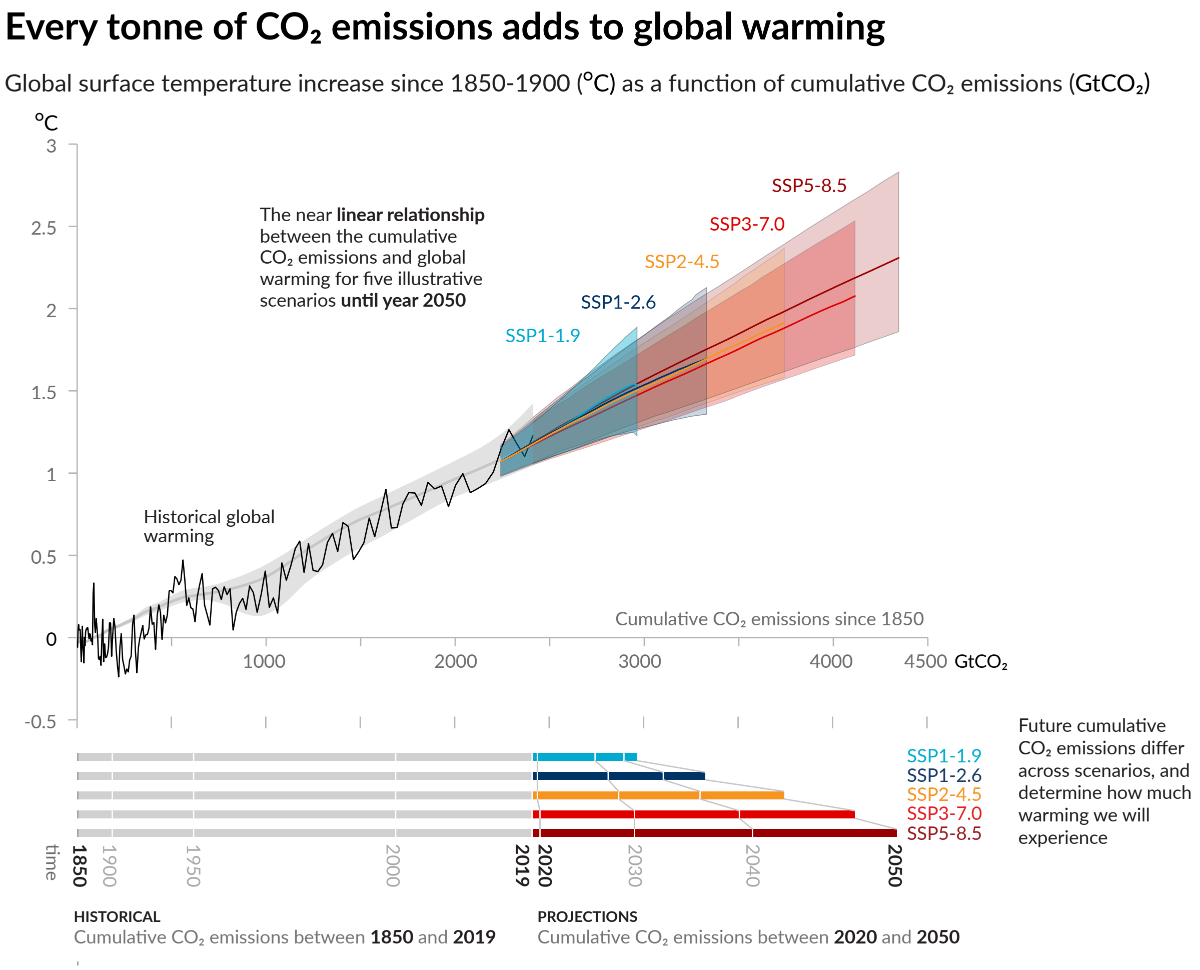


Figure SPM.10: Near-linear relationship between cumulative CO2 emissions and the increase in global surface temperature.

Top panel: Historical data (thin black line) shows observed global surface temperature increase in °C since 1850–1900 as a function of historical cumulative carbon dioxide (CO_2) emissions in $GtCO_2$ from 1850 to 2019. The grey range with its central line shows a corresponding estimate of the historical human-caused surface warming (see Figure SPM.2). Coloured areas show the assessed *very likely* range of global surface temperature projections, and thick coloured central lines show the median estimate as a function of cumulative CO_2 emissions from 2020 until year 2050 for the set of illustrative scenarios (SSP1-1.9, SSP1-2.6, SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0, and SSP5-8.5, see Figure SPM.4). Projections use the cumulative CO_2 emissions of each respective scenario, and the projected global warming includes the contribution from all anthropogenic forcers. The relationship is illustrated over the domain of cumulative CO_2 emissions for which there is *high confidence* that the transient climate response to cumulative CO_2 emissions (TCRE) remains constant, and for the time period from 1850 to 2050 over which global CO_2 emissions remain net positive under all illustrative scenarios as there is *limited evidence* supporting the quantitative application of TCRE to estimate temperature evolution under net negative CO_2 emissions.

Bottom panel: Historical and projected cumulative CO_2 emissions in $GtCO_2$ for the respective scenarios.

{Figure TS.18, Figure 5.31, Section 5.5}

D.1.2 Over the period 1850–2019, a total of 2390 ± 240 (*likely* range) $GtCO_2$ of anthropogenic CO_2 was emitted. Remaining carbon budgets have been estimated for several global temperature limits and various levels of probability, based on the estimated value of TCRE and its uncertainty, estimates of historical warming, variations in projected warming from non-CO_2 emissions, climate system feedbacks such as emissions from thawing permafrost, and the global surface temperature change after global anthropogenic CO_2 emissions reach net zero.
{5.1, 5.5, Box 5.2, TS.3.3} **(Table SPM.2)**

Table SPM.2: **Estimates of historical CO_2 emissions and remaining carbon budgets.** Estimated remaining carbon budgets are calculated from the beginning of 2020 and extend until global net zero CO_2 emissions are reached. They refer to CO_2 emissions, while accounting for the global warming effect of non-CO_2 emissions. Global warming in this table refers to human-induced global surface temperature increase, which excludes the impact of natural variability on global temperatures in individual years. {Table TS.3, Table 3.1, Table 5.1, Table 5.7, Table 5.8, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, Box 5.2}

Global warming between 1850–1900 and 2010–2019 *(°C)*	Historical cumulative CO_2 emissions from 1850 to 2019 *($GtCO_2$)*
1.07 (0.8–1.3; *likely* range)	2390 (± 240; *likely* range)

Approximate global warming relative to 1850–1900 until temperature limit *(°C)**(1)	Additional global warming relative to 2010–2019 until temperature limit *(°C)*	Estimated remaining carbon budgets from the beginning of 2020 *($GtCO_2$)* *Likelihood of limiting global warming to temperature limit*(2)*					Variations in reductions in non-CO_2 emissions*(3)
		17%	*33%*	*50%*	*67%*	*83%*	
1.5	0.43	900	650	500	400	300	Higher or lower reductions in accompanying non-CO_2 emissions can increase or decrease the values on the left by 220 $GtCO_2$ or more
1.7	0.63	1450	1050	850	700	550	
2.0	0.93	2300	1700	1350	1150	900	

*(1) Values at each 0.1°C increment of warming are available in Tables TS.3 and 5.8.
*(2) This likelihood is based on the uncertainty in transient climate response to cumulative CO_2 emissions (TCRE) and additional Earth system feedbacks, and provides the probability that global warming will not exceed the temperature levels provided in the two left columns. Uncertainties related to historical warming (±550 $GtCO_2$) and non-CO_2 forcing and response (±220 $GtCO_2$) are partially addressed by the assessed uncertainty in TCRE, but uncertainties in recent emissions since 2015 (±20 $GtCO_2$) and the climate response after net zero CO_2 emissions are reached (±420 $GtCO_2$) are separate.
*(3) Remaining carbon budget estimates consider the warming from non-CO_2 drivers as implied by the scenarios assessed in SR1.5. The Working Group III Contribution to AR6 will assess mitigation of non-CO_2 emissions.

D.1.3 Several factors that determine estimates of the remaining carbon budget have been re-assessed, and updates to these factors since SR1.5 are small. When adjusted for emissions since previous reports, estimates of remaining carbon budgets are therefore of similar magnitude compared to SR1.5 but larger compared to AR5 due to methodological improvements[44].
{5.5, Box 5.2, TS.3.3} **(Table SPM.2)**

D.1.4 Anthropogenic CO_2 removal (CDR) has the potential to remove CO_2 from the atmosphere and durably store it in reservoirs (*high confidence*). CDR aims to compensate for residual emissions to reach net zero CO_2 or net zero GHG emissions or, if implemented at a scale where anthropogenic removals exceed anthropogenic emissions, to lower surface temperature. CDR methods can have potentially wide-ranging effects on biogeochemical cycles and climate, which can either weaken or strengthen the potential of these methods to remove CO_2 and reduce warming, and can also influence water availability and quality, food production and biodiversity[45] (*high confidence*).
{5.6, Cross-Chapter Box 5.1, TS.3.3}

D.1.5 Anthropogenic CO_2 removal (CDR) leading to global net negative emissions would lower the atmospheric CO_2 concentration and reverse surface ocean acidification (*high confidence*). Anthropogenic CO_2 removals and emissions are partially compensated by CO_2 release and uptake respectively, from or to land and ocean carbon pools (*very high confidence*). CDR would lower atmospheric CO_2 by an amount approximately equal to the increase from an anthropogenic emission of the same magnitude (*high confidence*). The atmospheric CO_2 decrease from anthropogenic CO_2 removals could be up to 10% less than the atmospheric CO_2 increase from an equal amount of CO_2 emissions, depending on the total amount of CDR (*medium confidence*). {5.3, 5.6, TS.3.3}

D.1.6 If global net negative CO_2 emissions were to be achieved and be sustained, the global CO_2-induced surface temperature increase would be gradually reversed but other climate changes would continue in their current direction for decades to millennia (*high confidence*). For instance, it would take several centuries to millennia for global mean sea level to reverse course even under large net negative CO_2 emissions (*high confidence*).
{4.6, 9.6, TS.3.3}

D.1.7 In the five illustrative scenarios, simultaneous changes in CH_4, aerosol and ozone precursor emissions, that also contribute to air pollution, lead to a net global surface warming in the near and long-term (*high confidence*). In the long term, this net warming is lower in scenarios assuming air pollution controls combined with strong and sustained CH_4 emission reductions (*high confidence*). In the low and very low GHG emissions scenarios, assumed reductions in anthropogenic aerosol emissions lead to a net warming, while reductions in CH_4 and other ozone precursor emissions lead to a net cooling. Because of the short lifetime of both CH_4 and aerosols, these climate effects partially counterbalance each other and reductions in CH_4 emissions also contribute to improved air quality by reducing global surface ozone (*high confidence*).
{6.7, Box TS.7} **(Figure SPM.2, Box SPM.1)**

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[44] Compared to AR5, and when taking into account emissions since AR5, estimates in AR6 are about 300–350 $GtCO_2$ larger for the remaining carbon budget consistent with limiting warming to 1.5°C; for 2°C, the difference is about 400–500 $GtCO_2$.

[45] Potential negative and positive effects of CDR for biodiversity, water and food production are methods-specific, and are often highly dependent on local context, management, prior land use, and scale. IPCC Working Groups II and III assess the CDR potential, and ecological and socio-economic effects of CDR methods in their AR6 contributions.

D.1.8 Achieving global net zero CO_2 emissions is a requirement for stabilizing CO_2-induced global surface temperature increase, with anthropogenic CO_2 emissions balanced by anthropogenic removals of CO_2. This is different from achieving net zero GHG emissions, where metric-weighted anthropogenic GHG emissions equal metric-weighted anthropogenic GHG removals. For a given GHG emission pathway, the pathways of individual greenhouse gases determine the resulting climate response[46], whereas the choice of emissions metric[47] used to calculate aggregated emissions and removals of different GHGs affects what point in time the aggregated greenhouse gases are calculated to be net zero. Emissions pathways that reach and sustain net zero GHG emissions defined by the 100-year global warming potential are projected to result in a decline in surface temperature after an earlier peak (*high confidence*).
{4.6, 7.6, Box 7.3, TS.3.3}

D.2 Scenarios with very low or low GHG emissions (SSP1-1.9 and SSP1-2.6) lead within years to discernible effects on greenhouse gas and aerosol concentrations, and air quality, relative to high and very high GHG emissions scenarios (SSP3-7.0 or SSP5-8.5). Under these contrasting scenarios, discernible differences in trends of global surface temperature would begin to emerge from natural variability within around 20 years, and over longer time periods for many other climatic impact-drivers (*high confidence*). {4.6, Cross-Chapter Box 6.1, 6.6, 6.7, 9.6, Cross-Chapter Box 11.1, 11.2, 11.4, 11.5, 11.6, 12.4, 12.5} **(Figure SPM.8, Figure SPM.10)**

D.2.1 Emissions reductions in 2020 associated with measures to reduce the spread of COVID-19 led to temporary but detectible effects on air pollution (*high confidence*), and an associated small, temporary increase in total radiative forcing, primarily due to reductions in cooling caused by aerosols arising from human activities (*medium confidence*). Global and regional climate responses to this temporary forcing are, however, undetectable above natural variability (*high confidence*). Atmospheric CO_2 concentrations continued to rise in 2020, with no detectable decrease in the observed CO_2 growth rate (*medium confidence*)[48].
{Cross-Chapter Box 6.1, TS.3.3}

D.2.2 Reductions in GHG emissions also lead to air quality improvements. However, in the near term[49], even in scenarios with strong reduction of GHGs, as in the low and very low GHG emission scenarios (SSP1-2.6 and SSP1-1.9), these improvements are not sufficient in many polluted regions to achieve air quality guidelines specified by the World Health Organization (*high confidence*). Scenarios with targeted reductions of air pollutant emissions lead to more rapid improvements in air quality within years compared to reductions in GHG emissions only, but from 2040, further improvements are projected in scenarios that combine efforts to reduce air pollutants as well as GHG emissions with the magnitude of the benefit varying between regions (*high confidence*). {6.6, 6.7, Box TS.7}.

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[46] A general term for how the climate system responds to a radiative forcing (see Glossary).

[47] The choice of emissions metric depends on the purposes for which gases or forcing agents are being compared. This report contains updated emission metric values and assesses new approaches to aggregating gases.

[48] For other GHGs, there was insufficient literature available at the time of the assessment to assess detectable changes in their atmospheric growth rate during 2020.

[49] Near term: (2021–2040)

D.2.3 Scenarios with very low or low GHG emissions (SSP1-1.9 and SSP1-2.6) would have rapid and sustained effects to limit human-caused climate change, compared with scenarios with high or very high GHG emissions (SSP3-7.0 or SSP5-8.5), but early responses of the climate system can be masked by natural variability. For global surface temperature, differences in 20-year trends would *likely* emerge during the near term under a very low GHG emission scenario (SSP1-1.9), relative to a high or very high GHG emission scenario (SSP3-7.0 or SSP5-8.5). The response of many other climate variables would emerge from natural variability at different times later in the 21st century (*high confidence*).
{4.6, Cross-Section Box TS.1} **(Figure SPM.8, Figure SPM.10)**

D.2.4 Scenarios with very low and low GHG emissions (SSP1-1.9 and SSP1-2.6) would lead to substantially smaller changes in a range of CIDs[36] beyond 2040 than under high and very high GHG emissions scenarios (SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5). By the end of the century, scenarios with very low and low GHG emissions would strongly limit the change of several CIDs, such as the increase in the frequency of extreme sea level events, heavy precipitation and pluvial flooding, and exceedance of dangerous heat thresholds, while limiting the number of regions where such exceedances occur, relative to higher GHG emissions scenarios (*high confidence*). Changes would also be smaller in very low compared to low emissions scenarios, as well as for intermediate (SSP2-4.5) compared to high or very high emissions scenarios (*high confidence*). {9.6, Cross-Chapter Box 11.1, 11.2, 11.3, 11.4, 11.5, 11.6, 11.9, 12.4, 12.5, TS.4.3}