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## **Chapter 2: Mitigation pathways compatible with 1.5°C in the context of sustainable development**

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## 1 **Executive Summary**

2  
3 Limiting warming to 1.5°C above preindustrial levels requires a rapid phase out of global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and  
4 deep reductions in non-CO<sub>2</sub> greenhouse gas emissions. This chapter assesses 1.5°C mitigation pathways to  
5 achieve this. In doing so, it will explore a set of key questions: What is the remaining budget of CO<sub>2</sub>  
6 emissions to stay below 1.5°C and to what extent it is overshoot and returned to in 1.5°C pathways? {2.2, 2.6}  
7 How can this budget be distributed over the coming decades and the remainder of the century? {2.2, 2.3, 2.4,  
8 2.6} What are the underlying transformations in energy and land use in the context of sustainable  
9 development, both in the near term, and until and after 2050? {2.3, 2.4} And how do near term policies  
10 affect the ability to maintain pathways to limiting warming to 1.5°C degrees? {2.3, 2.5}

11  
12 The assessment in this chapter is based on an emerging field of literature on 1.5°C pathways since AR5. To  
13 support the assessment, quantitative descriptions of the energy-land-emissions developments in these  
14 pathways from integrated assessment models were collected in a database and their temperature outcome  
15 evaluated with a reduced-complexity carbon-cycle and climate model.

16  
17 **Climate outcomes and CO<sub>2</sub> budgets of 1.5°C pathways that account for all forcings.** Available pathways  
18 holding warming below or close to 1.5°C in 2100 all exhibit overshoot of that temperature level around mid-  
19 century, with a subsequent peak and return of temperatures below 1.5°C before 2100. {2.2.3.2}

20 To hold warming below 1.5°C by 2100 with at least 66% or 50% likelihood, the carbon budget (i.e., the  
21 cumulative amount of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions emitted from 2016 to 2100) is 280 (150-360) GtCO<sub>2</sub> and 330 (250-  
22 490) GtCO<sub>2</sub>, respectively (interquartile range across scenarios between brackets). Net zero global CO<sub>2</sub>  
23 emissions lead to halting further long-term warming. Until this peak in global mean temperatures, 1.5°C  
24 pathways project to emit 670 (620-750) GtCO<sub>2</sub> and 780 (690-950) GtCO<sub>2</sub>, for the same respective  
25 likelihoods, indicating that CO<sub>2</sub> is actively removed from the atmosphere in the second half of the century to  
26 achieve a long-term temperature decline. For the 50% likelihood levels, the carbon budget until mid-century  
27 carbon neutrality in 1.5°C pathways is about 40% lower than the budget in 2°C pathways. {2.2.3}

28 1.5°C pathways require deep reductions in CO<sub>2</sub>, reaching global net zero CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (i.e., carbon  
29 neutrality) around mid-century, together with stringent reductions in non-CO<sub>2</sub> climate forcings, primarily  
30 methane, nitrous oxide, black carbon and hydrofluorocarbons. Non-CO<sub>2</sub> climate forcings reduce carbon  
31 budgets by 2000 GtCO<sub>2</sub> per degree of warming attributed to them. {2.2.2.3, 2.3.3, 2.4.1}

32  
33 **Near-term policies consistent with 1.5°C pathways.** 1.5°C pathways require highly robust, ambitious,  
34 internationally cooperative, and urgent transformative policy regimes. In contrast, weak near-term policy  
35 efforts and fragmented scenarios quickly exhaust a large share of the compatible carbon budget, decreasing  
36 the probability of limiting warming to 1.5°C or returning it to below 1.5°C by 2100 after a temporary  
37 overshoot. {2.5.1}

38  
39 The Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs) submitted by Parties to the Paris Agreement result in  
40 global greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions on the order of 49-58 GtCO<sub>2</sub>-eq yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2030, whereas 1.5°C  
41 scenarios available to this assessment show an interquartile range of 25 to 41 GtCO<sub>2</sub>-eq yr<sup>-1</sup>. When starting  
42 from 2030 GHG levels in line with the national pledges, most integrated energy-economy-land models  
43 cannot produce scenarios in line with limiting warming below 1.5°C over or at the end of the 21<sup>st</sup> century,  
44 because the modest emissions reductions until 2030 imply subsequent reductions and transformations that  
45 are too steep and too abrupt to be achieved by the mitigation options in the models. {2.3.5}

46  
47 Stringent near-term targets by 2020 or 2030 imply higher near-term mitigation costs, carbon prices and  
48 investments, but lower long-term mitigation costs, carbon prices, and investments. Delayed action, limited  
49 international global cooperation, or weak near-term policies promote carbon lock-in, and lead to higher long-  
50 term mitigation costs. Failure to achieve near-term emissions reductions increases the subsequent required  
51 rates of change as well as the amount of stranded investment in fossil-based capacity. It also leads to  
52 generally higher cumulative CO<sub>2</sub> emissions until carbon neutrality and therewith a higher and longer  
53 exceedance of the 1.5°C temperature limit. {2.3.5, 2.5.1.1, 2.5.2}

54  
55 **Properties of transitions in mitigation pathways before mid-century.** There are multiple, distinctly  
56 different pathways compatible with 1.5°C that depend on underlying societal choices and preferences and

1 that come with different implications for sustainable development. {2.3.1.1, 2.5.3}

2  
3 Scenarios consistent with 1.5°C show large reductions of per capita energy demand, rapid electrification of  
4 energy end use, and rapid decreases in the carbon intensity of electricity and of the residual fuel mix. These  
5 transitions are greater and more rapid than in 2°C mitigation pathways, particularly in the coming decades  
6 and up to mid-century. {2.3.1.2}

7  
8 Already by 2030, all end-use sectors, like the building, transport, and industry sector, show significant  
9 demand reductions in 1.5°C pathways, beyond the reductions projected for 2°C pathways. Demand  
10 reductions from integrated models for 2030 and 2050 are confirmed by detailed assessments of sectorial  
11 bottom-up models which also suggest potential further reductions in demand. {2.3.4.2}

12  
13 Key technical and behavioural options are sector specific, but generally include a portfolio of efficiency  
14 improvements, demand reduction, and switching to lower-carbon fuels. End-use electrification plays a major  
15 role in the buildings, industry and transportation sectors. {2.3.4.2, 2.4.3.1}

16  
17 CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from energy supply decline to zero between 2030 and 2060, with continued large decreases  
18 thereafter in 1.5°C mitigation pathways. The share of primary energy from renewables increases rapidly,  
19 becoming the dominant source of energy by 2050 in most pathways. Coal usage is phased out rapidly in  
20 mitigation pathways consistent with 1.5°C, with annual reductions rates of 4-5% until mid-century. In case  
21 coal use is not yet entirely phased out by 2050, 40-100% of it is combined with carbon capture and storage,  
22 which starts to be implemented soon after 2020 with a mean annual 1.1 EJ yr<sup>-1</sup> increase in capacity from  
23 2020 to 2050. For other fossil fuels, the mid-century picture is more differentiated with scenarios indicating  
24 slowly declining use of oil, and a wide range of futures for natural gas. {2.3.4.1}

25  
26 Most scenarios include substantial deployment of biomass energy, often combined with carbon capture and  
27 storage. On average, it supplies nearly as much energy as wind and solar combined and nearly half as much  
28 as total fossil fuel energy by 2050. Greater implementation of this technology is required when phase out of  
29 fossil fuels proceeds more slowly. {2.3.4.1}.

30  
31 Annual average energy system supply-side investments from 2030 to 2050 tend to be 40% (interquartile  
32 range: 20-140%) higher in 1.5°C pathways than when assuming optimal energy-supply investment without  
33 climate policies. This increase is accompanied by important shifts in sectoral investment patterns, already in  
34 the near term through 2030. Median annual fossil-fuel electricity investments over the 2010-2030 period  
35 decline by ~70 billion USD yr<sup>-1</sup> (~45%) and median annual fossil-fuel extraction investments decline by a  
36 similar magnitude, while median annual renewable electricity investments increase by ~100 billion USD yr<sup>-1</sup>.  
37 {2.3.4.4.2}

38  
39 In some cases, the rates of change projected in 1.5°C pathways for specific transitions fall within the high  
40 end of what has been observed historically, for example, efficiency improvements in transportation.  
41 However, many rates of change are well beyond the historical experience and thus suggest the need for  
42 strong and dedicated policies to achieve them, for example, for switching to lower-carbon fuels in the  
43 transportation sector. In other cases, the projected trends for 1.5°C pathways are of the opposite sign to  
44 recent historical trends, again suggesting the need for a clear policy shift. For example, the rate of forest area  
45 change switches from an average 6 Mha yr<sup>-1</sup> decline in the 1990-2010 period to an average 6 Mha yr<sup>-1</sup>  
46 increase over the 2010-2050 period. Similarly the strong rate of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions decline in the energy supply  
47 and end-use sectors in the period until 2030 shows a clear structural break with trends over the past decades.  
48 {2.3.4.2.1, 2.3.4.2.3, 2.3.4.3}.

49  
50 Underlying scenario assumptions (including those regarding economic and population growth, per capita  
51 food and energy demand, dietary choice and food wastage, and forest management policies) play important  
52 roles in determining the degree of mitigation necessary to achieve a 1.5°C pathway. For example, the  
53 cumulative mitigation over the 21<sup>st</sup> century required to move from a no-climate policy baseline to a 1.5°C  
54 consistent scenario varies by a factor 2 to 3 between a low consumption sustainability-focused society  
55 (SSP1) and an energy intensive and technologically focused society (SSP5). {2.3.3, 2.3.4.3, 2.5.1}

1 **Carbon dioxide removal (CDR) and pathway characteristic after mid-century.** After mid-century,  
2 pathways consistent with 1.5°C maintain net zero or net negative CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, neutralizing residual  
3 emissions of other long-lived greenhouse gases (predominantly nitrous oxide from agriculture) and reduce  
4 emissions of short-lived climate forcers (particularly of methane) as much as possible in order to keep them  
5 at constant low levels. {2.4.1}. CDR is used in all 1.5°C pathways to neutralize residual emissions and return  
6 the cumulative amount of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions after a peak around mid-century to values consistent with the end-  
7 of-century budgets of keeping warming below 1.5°C. The total amount of CDR projected in the pathways is  
8 of the order of 710-900 GtCO<sub>2</sub> over the 21<sup>st</sup> century, with a third to half of this dedicated to draw down the  
9 excess in emitted carbon budget after having reached carbon neutrality. Compared to well below 2°C  
10 pathways, 1.5°C pathways additionally mitigate about 400 GtCO<sub>2</sub> by direct emissions reductions and about  
11 200 GtCO<sub>2</sub> by compensation through CDR. {2.4.2.1}

12  
13 Biomass energy with carbon capture and storage (BECCS) is the single CDR option which all 1.5°C  
14 pathways consider. Aside from afforestation, other options for CDR are currently not typically included in  
15 the scenarios currently available to this assessment. Even with this small portfolio of options, 1.5°C  
16 pathways show very diverse configurations and uses of CDR, which entail fundamentally different concerns  
17 for the simultaneous achievement of sustainability objectives. {2.4.2.2, 2.4.2.3}

18  
19 Both BECCS and afforestation require land, to produce sustainable biomass and to store CO<sub>2</sub> through the  
20 growth of trees, respectively. In general, land-use changes do not differ markedly between 1.5°C and less  
21 stringent 2°C pathways. When BECCS and afforestation are considered together, scenarios project land  
22 demand for afforestation to be several times larger than the land demand for BECCS. Taken together, the  
23 combined land demand for both CDR options in 2100 is of the order of 800-1800 Mha, mainly converted  
24 from pasture land. These dynamics are heavily influenced by assumptions about future population levels,  
25 food crops and livestock demand. {2.4.2.2, 2.4.2.3}

26  
27 Strongly limiting energy demand is a key feature of 1.5°C pathways, in which final energy demand in 2100  
28 is generally increased by 20-60% relative to 2014 levels (interquartile range across available scenarios).  
29 However, scenarios show that through shifts to more sustainable energy, material and food consumption  
30 patterns, energy demand levels lower than today can be achieved together with strong growth in economic  
31 output until the end of the century. In turn, the largest share of this energy demand is met by electricity,  
32 which covers up to about two thirds of final energy by 2100. {2.4.3.1, 2.4.3.2}

33  
34 Achievement of a 1.5°C pathway is overall easier in a sustainability-focused world (e.g., SSP1) and aiming  
35 at following such pathways facilitates synergies with achieving sustainability objectives, including poverty  
36 alleviation, increased energy security and improved public health. In some cases, trade-offs exist, such as  
37 competition of biomass production with food crops for land and water. These trade-offs are significantly  
38 smaller and hence more easily avoidable in sustainability-focused worlds, which adopt sustainable energy,  
39 material, and food consumption patterns. {2.5.3}

40  
41 There has been substantial progress in coordination of scenario production and integrated assessment  
42 modelling in recent years, providing a better characterization of the influence of various factors affecting the  
43 transition to climate stabilisation. Limitations remain in these models, however, as, for example, climate  
44 damages, avoided impacts or societal co-benefits of the fundamental transformations that are modelled  
45 remain largely unaccounted for in the internal decision making process in models. Further efforts to develop  
46 these models and link their insights more closely with sector specific models and with studies of  
47 sociotechnical transitions are needed to improve understanding. {2.6}

## 2.1 Introduction to Mitigation Pathways and the Sustainable Development Context

This chapter assesses the literature on mitigation pathways to limit global mean warming to 1.5°C (relative to the preindustrial base period 1850-1879). Key questions addressed are: What types of mitigation pathways have been developed that could be compatible with 1.5°C? What changes in emissions, energy and land use do they entail? What do they imply for climate policy and implementation, and what impacts do they have on sustainable development?

Furthermore, climate protection can be considered as an aspect of sustainable development. “Climate Action” is one of the 17 internationally agreed Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), and there are many overlaps between policies and actions to address climate change and the other SDGs (see Chapter 5). Mitigation scenarios are typically designed to reach a target defined by climate impacts alone, with economic optimization (least cost) defining the pathways. However, there are co-impacts of mitigation on multiple other sustainable development goals which provide both challenges and opportunities for climate action. Hence there are substantial efforts to evaluate the impact of the various mitigation pathways on sustainable development, focusing in particular on aspects for which IAMs provide useful information (e.g., land use changes and biodiversity, food security, and air quality). More broadly, there are efforts to incorporate climate change mitigation as one of multiple objectives that in general reflect societal concerns more completely and could potentially provide benefits at lower costs than simultaneous single objective policies (Clarke et al. 2014). This chapter thus presents both the pathways and an initial discussion of their context within sustainable development objectives (Section 2.5), with the latter analysed in more detail in Chapter 5.

Scenarios have been described previously as “alternative images of how the future might unfold and are an appropriate tool with which to analyse how driving forces may influence future emission outcomes and to assess the associated uncertainties. They assist in climate change analysis, including climate modelling and the assessment of impacts, adaptation, and mitigation. The possibility that any single emissions path will occur as described in scenarios is highly uncertain” (Nakicenovic et al. 2000). The word pathway is often used interchangeably with the word scenario. However, pathways more often describe the clear temporal evolution of specific scenario aspects over time.

### 2.1.1 Mitigation Pathways compatible with 1.5 °C

Emissions scenarios and the specific pathways included within them are projections of the future development of emissions and their drivers. These need to cover all sectors and regions over the 21<sup>st</sup> century to be associated with a climate change projection out to 2100. The climate change resulting from such scenarios are derived using models that typically incorporate physical understanding of the carbon cycle and climate response derived from complex geophysical models evaluated against observations (see Section 2.2).

Emission pathways such as those based on current legislation or the pledges incorporated into Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs) lead to well above 1.5°C warming, hence we examine mitigation pathways consistent with 1.5°C (a class of pathways aiming for a normative end point specified by a climate target). For this chapter we will use the term “pathways” to refer to those developed with detailed modelling. More conceptual or idealised pathways will be referred to as such. Mitigation pathways are compared with reference cases as a way to measure the potential policy impact in multiple dimensions (e.g., emissions change, climate response, mitigation costs, etc.).

Multiple types of scenarios consistent with 1.5°C were defined in Chapter 1, including stabilisation and overshoot scenarios (see Section 1.2.3). As temperature impact results are probabilistic, a pathway that is consistent with 1.5°C may still miss (in either direction, see Section 1.2.3.4). Additionally, this means consistency with a target must be defined probabilistically, with threshold values selected based on risk avoidance preferences. The mitigation scenarios considered here can be generally characterised as either stabilisation or overshoot scenarios (specific classes are described in Section 2.2.3.1). Stabilisation scenarios limit peak warming below a threshold with a maximum allowed exceedance probability. Overshoot scenarios temporarily exceed the threshold (with more than some low probability  $p$ ) and return below afterwards (with higher than some probability  $1-p$ ). Various lengths of overshoot are possible (e.g., measured in terms of

1 expected degree years, with such a metric of the “overshoot intensity” provided in Chapter 1 and employed  
2 in Chapter 3). Timing of initially reaching a warming likely above 1.5°C and of returning to a level likely  
3 below 1.5°C can be expressed, e.g., as the time when exceedance probability passes 50% or drops below  
4 33%. The date at which these limits are passed can be a way to characterise overshoot scenarios  
5 (incorporating duration). As in Chapter 1, continued warming scenarios that exceed 1.5°C are not considered  
6 consistent with 1.5°C, but can be usefully characterised by the time at which they exceed 1.5°C with more  
7 than 33% probability.

8  
9 The global mean temperature response to the various pathways explored here is assessed via use of simple  
10 geo-physically-based models that do not incorporate internal variability and typically exclude future changes  
11 in the Sun and volcanic activity as these cannot be reliably projected (see Sections 2.2.1 and 2.6).

### 12 13 *2.1.2 Socio-economics underlying 1.5°C scenarios*

14  
15 Assumptions regarding future trends in population, consumption of goods and services (including food),  
16 economic growth, behaviour, technology, and institutions are all required to generate scenarios. These  
17 societal choices must then be linked to the multiple drivers of climate change, including emissions of well-  
18 mixed greenhouse gases and aerosol and ozone precursors, land-use and land-cover changes, and production  
19 of aircraft contrails.

20  
21 Plausible developments need to be anticipated in many facets of the key sectors of energy and land use.  
22 Within energy, these consider energy resources (e.g., biofuels), energy supply and conversion technologies,  
23 energy consumption, and supply and end-use efficiency. Within land-use, agricultural productivity, food  
24 demand, terrestrial carbon management, and biofuel production are all considered. Developments in regard  
25 to climate policies are also considered in scenario generation. These include carbon pricing and technology  
26 policies such as research and development funding and subsidies. The scenarios incorporate regional  
27 differentiation in sectoral and policy development. Discussion of these assumptions within recently  
28 developed 1.5°C scenarios is given in Section 2.1.4.

### 29 30 31 *2.1.3 The Use of Scenarios to Answer Particular Questions*

32  
33 By varying scenario assumptions and scenario design, various types of scenarios can be constructed. This is  
34 important because the underlying narratives, assumptions and design of scenarios define to a large degree  
35 which questions can be addressed, for example, the exploration of implications of delayed climate mitigation  
36 action. In this assessment, we have identified the following classes of scenarios which are of particular  
37 interest to the questions addressed in this chapter: (a) scenarios with the same climate forcing target in 2100  
38 but varying socio-economic assumptions; (b) pairs of otherwise similar scenarios but with targets of 1.5°C  
39 and 2°C; (c) pairs of scenarios with stringent mitigation action after 2020 and with a path that follows the  
40 NDC until 2030.

41  
42 Mitigation pathways generated with IAMs and related models describe an internally consistent and  
43 calibrated (to historical trends) way to get from current developments to meeting long-term climate targets  
44 like the 1.5°C limit (Clarke et al. 2014). Characteristics of these pathways such as emissions reduction rates,  
45 time of peaking, and low-carbon energy deployment rates can be assessed as being consistent with the 1.5°C  
46 limit, if there is at least one or a few 1.5°C pathways that exhibit these characteristics. However, they cannot  
47 be assessed to be required for reaching the 1.5°C limit, as there may be other 1.5°C pathways that do not  
48 exhibit these characteristics. In order to identify required characteristics, a targeted scenario analysis is  
49 needed that specifically asked the question if there could be pathways without the characteristics in question.  
50 This was done in AR5 for the question by when pathways have to obtain a peak in emissions to still limit  
51 warming below 2°C, or which technologies are important to keep the 2°C target within reach. In this  
52 assessment, we will distinguish between consistent and the much stronger concept of required characteristics  
53 of 1.5°C pathways in this sense wherever possible.

54  
55 Ultimately, it is unrealistic that any pathways developed today will be exactly followed until the end of the  
56 century. Society will adjust its response as new information becomes available (O’Neill 2008; Webster et al.



1 2008). These adjustments can go in either direction. Earlier scenario studies have shown, however, that  
2 deeper emissions reductions in the near term hedge against the uncertainty of both climate response and  
3 technology availability (Clarke et al. 2014; Luderer et al. 2013a; Rogelj et al. 2013). Not knowing what  
4 adaptations might be put in place in the future, however, and due to limited studies, in this report we  
5 primarily examine prescribed (fixed) rather than adaptive pathways.  
6  
7

#### 8 **2.1.4 New scenario information since AR5**

9

10 In this Chapter, we focus on an extension of the AR5 mitigation pathway assessment based on new scenario  
11 literature. A discussion of updates in understanding of climate sensitivity, transient climate response,  
12 radiative forcing, and the cumulative carbon budget consistent with 1.5°C are covered in Section 2.2.  
13

14 This report relies on the integrated scenario literature for its pathway assessment, which the AR5 mainly  
15 discussed in Chapter 6 of Working Group III (Clarke et al. 2014). Since then, several new integrated multi-  
16 model studies have appeared in the literature that explore specific characteristics of scenarios markedly more  
17 stringent than the lowest scenario category assessed in AR5 (see Table 2.1). Those scenarios explore 1.5°C  
18 pathways from multiple perspectives, examining sensitivity to assumptions regarding:

- 19 • socio-economic drivers and developments including energy and food demand as, e.g., characterised by  
20 the shared socio-economic pathways (SSPs, see Box 1.1)
- 21 • near term climate policies until 2020 and 2030 describing different levels of strengthening the NDCs
- 22 • the availability of bioenergy and carbon dioxide removal technologies

23 A large number of these scenarios were collected in a scenario database established for the assessment of this  
24 special report. It contains 34 1.5°C scenarios (according to the definitions of Chapter 1 and Section 2.1.1), 27  
25 additional well below 2°C scenarios, and 130 scenarios with less stringent climate policies to allow putting  
26 1.5°C scenarios into context. Currently, these scenarios draw from two main integrated scenarios exercises  
27 with multiple modelling teams – the lowest category of scenarios in the framework of the Shared  
28 Socioeconomic Pathways (Rogelj et al. 2017a) and scenarios developed within the framework of the  
29 ADVANCE project (Luderer et al. 2016a) – combined with individual scenarios from single model studies,  
30 like the IEA Energy Technology Perspectives (IEA 2017).  
31

32 *[In future revisions, the scenario set available to this assessment will be further complemented with*  
33 *scenarios from forthcoming studies (see Table 2.1), and assessment of scenario ranges in line with 1.5°C*  
34 *will be updated accordingly.]*  
35

36 The scenario ensemble collected as part of the IPCC SR1.5 process represents an ensemble of opportunity.  
37 The submitted scenarios cover a wide range of scenario types and thus allow exploration of a wide range of  
38 questions. For this to be possible, however, critical scenario selection based on scenario assumptions and  
39 setup is required.  
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**Table 2.1:** New IAM studies this chapter draws upon and the key focus of the studies indicating which questions can be explored by the scenarios of each study.

<i>Study name</i>	<i>Key focus</i>	<i>Reference papers</i>
<i>SSPx-1.9</i>	<i>Development of new community scenarios based on the full SSP framework limiting end-of-century radiative forcing to 1.9 W m<sup>-2</sup>.</i>	<i>(Rogelj et al. 2017a)</i>
<i>ADVANCE</i>	<i>Aggregate effect of the INDCs, comparison to optimal 2°C/1.5°C scenarios ratcheting up after 2020.</i>	<i>(Luderer et al. 2016a), TBD</i>
	<i>Decarbonisation bottlenecks and the effects of following the INDCs until 2030 as opposed to ratcheting up to optimal ambition levels after 2020 in terms of additional emissions locked in</i>	<i>TBD</i>
<i>CD-LINKS</i>	<i>Exploring interactions between climate and sustainable development policies with the aim to identify robust integral policy packages to achieve all objectives.</i>	<i>TBD</i>
<i>EMF-30</i>	<i>Study of the contribution of short-lived climate forcers in deep mitigation scenarios</i>	<i>TBD</i>
<i>EMF-33</i>	<i>Study of the bioenergy contribution in deep mitigation scenarios</i>	<i>TBD</i>
<i>CEMICS</i>	<i>Study of CDR requirements and portfolios in 1.5°C pathways</i>	<i>TBD</i>

## 2.2 Geophysical relationships and constraints

### 2.2.1 Linking geophysical characteristics to mitigation pathways

Emissions pathways can be characterised by various geophysical relationships and constraints such as carbon budgets (Meinshausen et al. 2009; Friedlingstein et al. 2014; Rogelj et al. 2016), radiative forcing (van Vuuren et al. 2011a; Thomson et al. 2011; Riahi et al. 2011), atmospheric concentrations (Clarke et al. 2014) and associated temperature outcomes (Meinshausen et al. 2009; Rogelj et al. 2011; Luderer et al. 2013b). For mitigation pathways compatible with 1.5°C or 2°C, the temperature change associated with short-lived climate forcers strongly affects the remaining carbon budget (Bowerman et al. 2011; Rogelj et al. 2014a, 2015b, 2016b) and temperature outcomes (Lamarque et al. 2011; Bowerman et al. 2013).

The geophysical scenario characteristics used in this chapter are derived from simulations using a reduced complexity carbon-cycle, atmospheric composition and climate model (MAGICC) (Meinshausen et al. 2011b). For each mitigation pathway, MAGICC simulations provide a probabilistic estimate of atmospheric concentrations, radiative forcing and global temperature outcomes across the century. For the purpose of this assessment, and to facilitate comparison with previous scenarios assessment performed in AR5, the range of the key climate parameters for MAGICC are identical to those used in AR5 Working Group III (WGIII) (Clarke et al. 2014). MAGICC and its sensitivity to key parameters are assessed in Section 2.6.

### 2.2.2 The 1.5°C and 2°C carbon budget

#### 2.2.2.1 Carbon budget computations

Since the AR5, several approaches have been proposed to estimate carbon budgets compatible with 1.5°C or 2°C. Most of those approaches rely on the approximate linear relationship between peak temperature and cumulative emissions of carbon (the so-called transient climate response to cumulative emission, or TCRE, see Chapter 1) (Collins et al. 2013a; Friedlingstein et al. 2014; Rogelj et al. 2016b), whereas others based

1 their estimates on equilibrium climate sensitivity (e.g., Schneider et al. 2017a).

2  
3 Two approaches were employed in AR5 to determine carbon budgets. In both cases the geophysical science  
4 uncertainty (Section 2.2.1) was used to determine probability estimates for the assessed carbon budgets.  
5 Working Group I (WGI) reported Threshold Exceedance Budgets (TEB) that correspond to the amount of  
6 cumulative CO<sub>2</sub> emissions at the time a specific temperature threshold is exceeded with a given probability  
7 in a particular multi-gas and aerosols emission scenario. WGI computed TEBs from 2011 for 2°C relative to  
8 the 1880-1861 period. With a 66% likelihood, the TEB is 2900 GtCO<sub>2</sub> when accounting for non-CO<sub>2</sub> GHG  
9 and aerosols as in RCP2.6 (Stocker et al. 2013). In contrast to WGI, WGIII evaluated Threshold Avoidance  
10 Budgets (TAB) that correspond to the cumulative CO<sub>2</sub> emissions over a given time period of a multi-forcer  
11 emission scenario that limits global-mean temperature increase to below a specific threshold with a given  
12 probability. WGIII computed TABs for the periods 2011–2050 and 2011–2100 for scenario categories based  
13 on the projected radiative forcing in 2100. For mitigation pathways holding warming below 2°C by 2100  
14 with >66% likelihood, the WGIII assessment reports that TAB are 150–1300 GtCO<sub>2</sub> between 2011 and 2050  
15 and 630–1180 GtCO<sub>2</sub> between 2011 and 2100. WGIII estimated that those pathways have a >50%  
16 probability to exceed 1.5°C between 2011 and 2100. Based on a limited number of studies, WGIII also  
17 reported TAB for pathways with >50% probability of returning to 1.5°C in 2100 as 90–310 GtCO<sub>2</sub> between  
18 2011 and 2100 (Clarke et al. 2014).

19  
20 Some published estimates of carbon budgets compatible with 1.5°C or 2°C refer to budgets for CO<sub>2</sub>-induced  
21 warming only, and hence do not take into account the contribution of non-CO<sub>2</sub> climate forcers (Allen et al.  
22 2009; IPCC et al. 2013, MacDougall et al. 2015). Because non-CO<sub>2</sub> climate forcing is projected to be more  
23 positive in the future, CO<sub>2</sub>-only carbon budgets overestimate the total net cumulative anthropogenic carbon  
24 emissions compatible with 1.5°C or 2°C (IPCC 2013; Friedlingstein et al. 2014; Rogelj et al. 2016b). For a  
25 66% likelihood to stay below 2°C relative to the 1861-1880 period, AR5 WGI estimates a CO<sub>2</sub>-only carbon  
26 budget of 3700 GtCO<sub>2</sub>. Over a similar period, the carbon budget compatible with 2°C is reduced by 800  
27 GtCO<sub>2</sub> when accounting for all CO<sub>2</sub>, non-CO<sub>2</sub> GHG and aerosols as in RCP2.6. Both CO<sub>2</sub>-only and multi-  
28 forcer estimates of carbon budgets are informative to understand the amounts of total net cumulative  
29 anthropogenic carbon emissions compatible with a given temperature limit over a given a time period.

30  
31 In order to hold warming below 1.5°C or 2°C between 2016 and 2100 with a 66% likelihood, TEBs are 600  
32 (540-650; 25-75% range) GtCO<sub>2</sub> for 1.5°C or 1300 (1220-1380) GtCO<sub>2</sub> for 2°C (Table 2.2). TABs for 2°C  
33 are 810 (690-1030) GtCO<sub>2</sub>. Note that the 25-75% percentile range for TABs for 2°C is narrower when based  
34 on the ensemble of opportunity available in the scenario database to this report than previous estimates using  
35 the AR5 scenario database, that is 590-1240 GtCO<sub>2</sub> (Rogelj et al. 2016b). Approximated TABs for 1.5°C  
36 result in 370-520 and 120-200 GtCO<sub>2</sub> for 50% and 66% likelihoods, respectively (25%-75% percentile  
37 ranges). These values are larger than the initial estimates in AR5. Other budget calculations that are available  
38 in the literature are also analysed (Table 2.2). These include the threshold peak budget (TPB, carbon budget  
39 until peak warming) or the threshold return budget (TRB, carbon budget after an overshoot, here most often  
40 until 2100). TPBs are close to TEBs, while TRBs display different features, especially for 1.5°C limits, due  
41 to the presence of net carbon dioxide removal, the pathway-dependence of the climate system (Zickfeld et al.  
42 2016) as well as the response of the carbon cycle to declining emissions (Jones et al. 2016) (see Section 2.6).

**Table 2.2:** Median Threshold Exceedance Budget (TEB), Threshold Avoidance Budget (TAB), Threshold Return Budget (TRB) and Threshold Peak Budget (TPB) compatible with different temperature thresholds and probabilities. The 25%-75% range is indicated in brackets for each carbon budget. \*:TABs for 1.5°C are approximated from the TABs of scenarios with slightly higher warming (yet, below 2°C) at 50% or 66% temperature outcomes from MAGICC, respectively. NA: not available.

Budget type	Threshold Exceedance Budgets	Threshold Avoidance Budget	Threshold Return Budgets	Threshold Peak Budgets
Abbreviation	TEB	TAB	TRB	TPB
Units	[GtCO <sub>2</sub> rel. to 2016]	[GtCO <sub>2</sub> rel. to 2016]	[GtCO <sub>2</sub> rel. to 2016]	[GtCO <sub>2</sub> rel. to 2016]
<i>Compatible with 2°C</i>				
50% likelihood	1500 (1470 — 1640)	970 (740 — 1120)	1450 (1420 — 1500)	1510 (1490 — 1550)
66% likelihood	1300 (1220 — 1380)	810 (690 — 1030)	1130 (1070 — 1260)	1300 (1220 — 1380)
<i>Compatible with 1.5°C</i>				
50% likelihood	700 (640 — 760)	460 (370 — 520)*	790 (650 — 810)	NA
66% likelihood	600 (540 — 650)	170 (120 — 200)*	340 (270 — 360)	NA

Precise comparison of the various budgets is complicated due to their varying definitions. For example, TEBs, TABs and TPBs are not determined at the same time period. For a 2°C warming threshold, TEB, TAB and TPB estimates are determined at time points that range between 2026 and 2084 because the various scenarios show different geophysical characteristics and timing of either exceeding 2°C or avoiding 2°C. TRBs, on the contrary, has a fixed definition in time and as such provide a cleaner delineated estimate of carbon budget compatible with 1.5°C or 2°C across the various mitigation pathways. For the 50% likelihood levels, TRB compatible with 1.5°C is 45% lower than TRB compatible with 2°C.

#### 2.2.2.2 Remaining carbon budget and related uncertainties

Defining the remaining carbon budget compatible with 1.5°C or 2°C requires an accurate estimate of cumulative carbon emissions to date (Chapter 1). Several estimates have been proposed in the literature (Houghton 2007; Ciais et al. 2013; Regnier et al. 2013; Le Quéré et al. 2016) which essentially differ in terms of period of reference, and sources of data (observations, models or both). In this assessment, we use estimates of the total net cumulative anthropogenic emissions for 2016 reported by the Global Carbon Project (Le Quéré et al. 2016) which include contributions from land-use/land-cover changes, fossil fuel combustion and cement production. The contributions of fossil fuel emissions plus cement production and land-use/land cover change are estimated as 36 and 5 GtCO<sub>2</sub>, respectively, with a 66% uncertainty range of ±2 GtCO<sub>2</sub>.

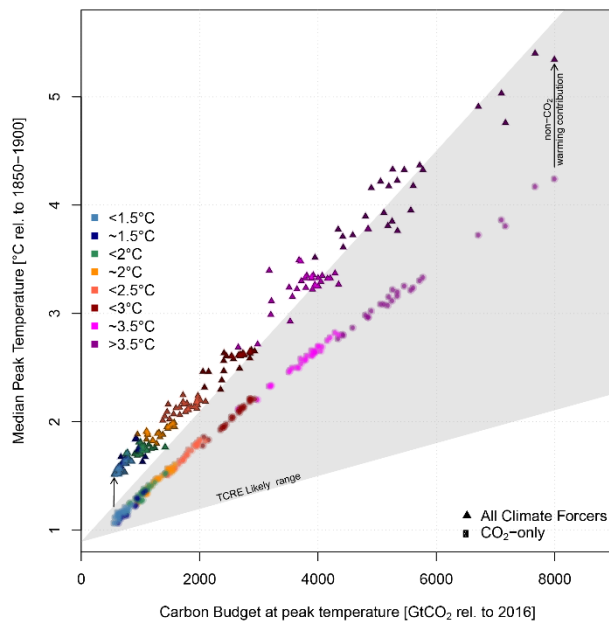
There are several key uncertainties that determine the remaining carbon budget. A first uncertainty lies in the estimates of the TCRE (Figure 2.1). AR5 WGI provides an indicative range of the TCRE of 0.8 to 2.5°C per 1000 GtC (or 3660 GtCO<sub>2</sub>) for 66% likelihood assuming a Gaussian distribution (Collins et al. 2013a). Recent research using different approaches provides further constraints on TCRE. TCRE uncertainties vary depending on the approach followed (model-based, model-data fusion, observation-based), but importantly several independent studies agreed on a Gaussian distribution of the TCRE (IPCC et al. 2013; MacDougall et al. 2017; Tachiiri et al. 2015). The median estimate of TCRE used in our modelling with MAGICC (Figure 2.1), which is based on CMIP5 models, is 1.6°C per 3660 GtCO<sub>2</sub> which lies in the centre of the AR5 WGI assessment's 0.8 to 2.5°C range (Collins et al. 2013a). Clearly a lower or a higher value of the TCRE would increase or reduce allowable budgets, respectively. This uncertainty is reflected in part by the probabilistic model setup of the MAGICC model used here. Several estimates of the TCRE in the literature constrain the

1 range of the TCRE between 1.1 and 1.7°C per 3660 GtCO<sub>2</sub> (Tachiiri et al. 2015).

2  
3 Another source of uncertainty, also related to the TCRE, stems from the concept of the TCRE-based  
4 calculation itself (Collins et al. 2013a; Gillett et al. 2013). While many estimates of the TCRE are derived  
5 from idealised runs with atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations rising at 1% per year (Joshi 2016; Tachiiri et al.  
6 2015; Gillett et al. 2013), several other estimates of TCRE rely on the fact that the linear relationship  
7 approximately holds when using the ratio of total anthropogenic warming to cumulative carbon emissions in  
8 a multi-forcer context, and hence assumes a proportionality between the total anthropogenic warming and  
9 the non-CO<sub>2</sub> warming (IPCC 2013; Friedlingstein et al. 2014). This proportionality can break down in  
10 stringent emissions mitigation pathways, making the TCRE less directly relevant (see Sections 2.2.2.3 and  
11 Section 2.6 for further details). The impacts of inhomogeneously distributed forcers on global mean  
12 temperature may also depend on their spatial distribution and thus may not be fully captured in reduced-form  
13 models (Myhre et al. 2013; Shindell 2014; Rotstayn et al. 2015; Marvel et al. 2016).

14  
15 TCRE is defined until peak warming, i.e., until global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions reach approximately net zero levels. In  
16 a situation where net CDR (see Section 2.4) from the atmosphere is achieved, the linear relationship between  
17 the carbon budget and temperature can be altered. In such cases CDR reduces atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>  
18 concentrations more quickly than would naturally be the case. TCRE is slightly weaker with decreasing CO<sub>2</sub>  
19 than with rising CO<sub>2</sub>, which is referred to as the path-dependence of the TCRE (Zickfeld et al. 2012;  
20 Herrington and Zickfeld 2014; Krasting et al. 2014; Zickfeld et al. 2016). Zickfeld and MacDougall (2016)  
21 estimate that the asymmetry of TCRE to rising versus decreasing CO<sub>2</sub> is about 7%, implying a slightly  
22 higher temperature outcome for a given carbon budget when it is achieved by net CDR after a carbon budget  
23 overshoot. A part of this non-linearity has been attributed to the lagged response of slow components of the  
24 Earth system to past CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. This is the case for the deep ocean which results in continued warming  
25 after the start of CDR, also referred to as the recalcitrant warming (Held et al. 2010). Asymmetry of the  
26 TCRE implies deviation in carbon budgets for a given temperature threshold after the overshoot. Such a  
27 carbon budget can be characterised as the threshold return budget (Figure 2.1). With a 66% likelihood, they  
28 range between 215 and 358 GtCO<sub>2</sub> for 1.5°C and 1060 and 1416 GtCO<sub>2</sub> for 2°C. For the same threshold of  
29 warming and the same probability, the threshold return budgets are smaller than TEBs (which have been  
30 identified as slight overestimates (Rogelj et al. 2016b) due to the small lag in temperature response to CO<sub>2</sub>  
31 emissions (Joos et al. 2013)) but greater than TABs, complicating the analysis of allowable carbon emissions  
32 compatible with 1.5°C or 2°C.

33  
34 Finally, large uncertainties remain in some Earth system feedback processes that can impact remaining  
35 carbon budgets compatible with 1.5°C or 2°C, for example, permafrost feedbacks. Permafrost thawing is  
36 expected to release carbon and methane to the atmosphere. This release reduces the remaining carbon budget  
37 for 1.5°C or 2°C. Using an EMIC, MacDougall et al. (2015) estimate that this feedback reduces the CO<sub>2</sub>-  
38 only carbon budget for 2°C (4650 GtCO<sub>2</sub>) by 440 GtCO<sub>2</sub> under RCP45. Under RCP2.6 and 1.5°C pathways,  
39 this reduction is expected to be smaller due to lower warming-induced permafrost thawing (Schneider von  
40 Deimling et al. 2012). However, the amplitude of this feedback remains highly uncertain because the  
41 response of permafrost to climate change is not well constrained. Several feedbacks between carbon cycle  
42 and non-CO<sub>2</sub> greenhouse gases and aerosols might also impact the future dynamics of the natural carbon  
43 sink. For example, nutrient limitation due to change in reactive nitrogen or phosphorus deposition over land  
44 and ocean (Duce et al. 2008; Mahowald et al. 2017). Finally, multiple geophysical climate targets beyond  
45 global mean temperature rise (like global mean temperature rise, ocean acidification, and net primary  
46 production on land) can be simultaneously taken into account. For any given likelihood of meeting such  
47 combined targets, carbon budgets would be greatly reduced due to counteracting mechanism and processes  
48 in the geophysical system (Steinacher et al. 2013).



**Figure 2.1:** Median peak temperature (relative to 1850-1900) as a function of threshold peak carbon budgets (TPB, relative to 2016). Filled circles and triangles are indicative of the median warming due to CO<sub>2</sub> and all climate forcings, respectively, as computed by the MAGICC setup used in this assessment. The grey shaded area represents the range of values derived from the assessed TCRE range as reported in (Collins et al. 2013). Types of pathways are represented with the same colour code as used in Section 2.2.3.

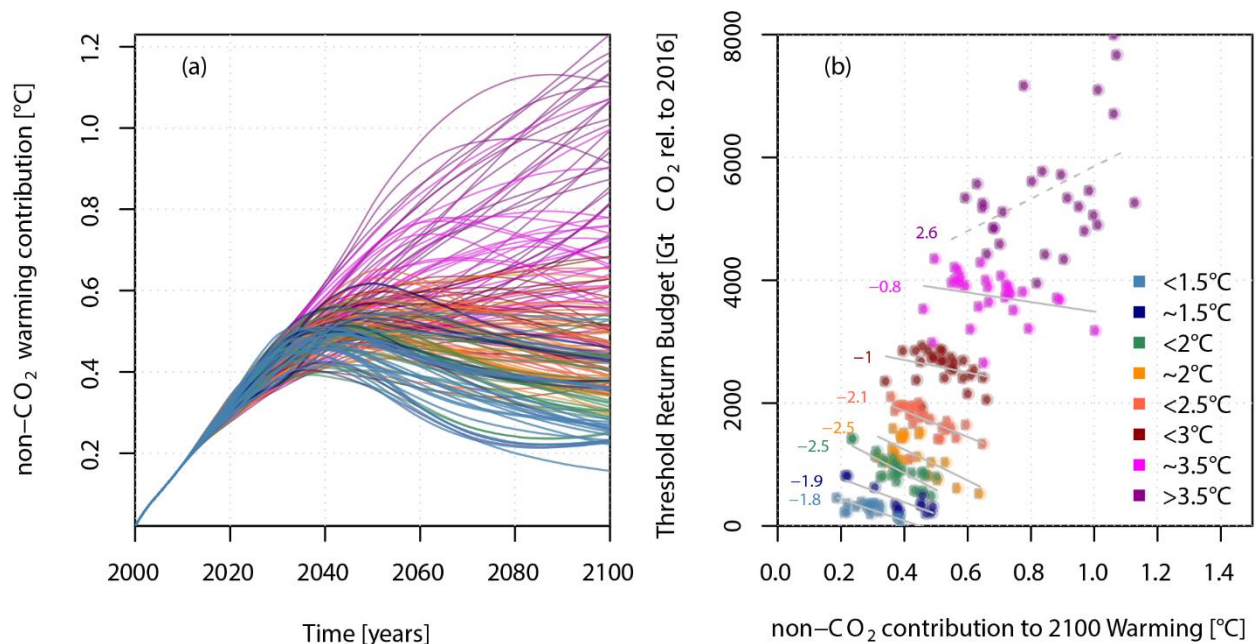
### 2.2.2.3 Role of non-CO<sub>2</sub> GHGs and aerosols

Most studies including non-CO<sub>2</sub> greenhouse gases and aerosols partition climate forcings into two groups by their lifetime: methane, ozone precursors and aerosols are defined as short-lived climate forcings (SLCF) due to their shorter lifetime in the atmosphere, while CO<sub>2</sub> and other non-CO<sub>2</sub> long-lived climate forcings such as nitrous oxide, sulphur hexafluoride and other halogenated carbon gases contribute to forcing over decades. Non-CO<sub>2</sub> greenhouse gases and aerosols are emitted by natural sources (wetland, marshes, inland waters) (Saunio et al. 2016; Tsigaridis et al. 2006; Borges et al. 2015) and anthropogenic sources (industry, agriculture) (Rigby et al. 2010; Bodirsky et al. 2012; Lioussé et al. 2010; Bond et al. 2013). Mitigation pathways assessed in this report rely on near-present estimates of non-CO<sub>2</sub> emissions as their starting point. For example, they use 2010 levels of emissions for methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) ranging between 320-400 MtCH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup> and 7-11 MtN<sub>2</sub>O y<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Compared to CO<sub>2</sub>, emissions of non-CO<sub>2</sub> greenhouse gases and aerosols are still poorly constrained (Ciais et al. 2013; Boucher et al. 2013).

Temperature impacts of non-CO<sub>2</sub> forcings are particularly important when evaluating stringent mitigation pathways (Weyant et al. 2006; Rogelj et al. 2015a, 2011, 2014b). SLCFs are often co-emitted with CO<sub>2</sub> so in mitigation scenarios many CO<sub>2</sub>-targeted mitigation measures also reduce SLCF forcing magnitude (Rogelj et al. 2014a; Shindell et al. 2012). Reduction in SO<sub>2</sub> emissions largely associated with fossil fuel burning are expected to reduce the cooling effects of both aerosol radiative interactions and aerosol cloud interactions, leading to warming (Myhre et al. 2013). In contrast, targeted mitigation measures for methane, nitrous oxide, black carbon and hydrofluorocarbon emission reduction could help to limit warming to 1.5°C or 2°C by 2100 (Bowerman et al. 2011; Rogelj et al. 2014a, 2015b, 2016b; Shindell et al. 2012; Ramanathan and Xu 2010). Emissions and radiative forcing for the SLCFs are typically more uncertain and have greater geographical variation than CO<sub>2</sub> (Myhre et al. 2013). This uncertainty increases the relative uncertainty of the temperature pathways associated with low emission scenarios compared to high emission scenarios (Clarke et al. 2014). It is also important to note that geographical patterns of temperature change and other climate impacts, especially those related to precipitation, depend significantly on forcing mechanism (Samset et al. 2016; Myhre et al. 2013; Shindell et al. 2015) (see Chapter 3).

The assessment of the available mitigation pathways indicates that the influence of non-CO<sub>2</sub> climate forcings reduces the threshold return carbon budgets by about 2000 GtCO<sub>2</sub> per degree of additional warming

1 attributed to non-CO<sub>2</sub> forcers (the 1.5°C compatible pathways on Figure 2.2b). This relationship is robust in  
 2 most of the mitigation pathways limiting warming below 3°C. Above this temperature threshold, this  
 3 relationship between carbon budget and temperature contribution from non-CO<sub>2</sub> forcing does not hold.  
 4  
 5



6  
 7 **Figure 2.2:** Role of non-CO<sub>2</sub> climate forcers in assessed pathways. (a) temporal evolution of the temperature  
 8 contribution from non-CO<sub>2</sub> climate forcers and (b) variation in threshold return budgets (TRBs) as a  
 9 function of the temperature contribution from non-CO<sub>2</sub> forcing. In (b) numbers indicate the slope of the  
 10 TRBs as function of temperature contribution from non-CO<sub>2</sub> forcing in 1000 GtCO<sub>2</sub> per °C of non-CO<sub>2</sub>  
 11 warming. The non-CO<sub>2</sub> temperature contribution has been estimated with equation 8.SM.13 from (Myhre  
 12 et al. 2013).  
 13  
 14

## 15 2.2.3 Geophysical characteristics of mitigation pathways

### 16 2.2.3.1 Pathway classification

17 Mitigation pathways assessed in this chapter contain fundamental structural differences that complicate their  
 18 direct comparison. Those differences can be categorised by three key features. The first one relates to the  
 19 nature of the goal to achieve. Emission pathways assessed here were initially developed to reach a long-term  
 20 temperature goal, such as 1.5°C or 2°C, a specific cumulative carbon budget by 2100, or a long-term  
 21 radiative forcing target. Some pathways also focus on near- or mid-term goals which relate to policy  
 22 formulations such as the Nationally Determined Contributions (UNFCCC 2015) or deep decarbonisation  
 23 transitions (Bataille et al. 2016a). A second difference between pathways is that although most of the  
 24 mitigation pathways used in this assessment allow the long-term climate goal to be temporarily exceeded, the  
 25 timing, the amplitude, and duration of the overshoot (as defined in Chapter 1) differs between them. A last  
 26 difference relates to the complexity of the emissions mix that composes the framing of mitigation pathways.  
 27 Several emissions pathways include all relevant forcing agents such as the non-CO<sub>2</sub> GHG, ozone precursors  
 28 and aerosols, while others only account for a subset of GHG or focus only on CO<sub>2</sub>.  
 29  
 30

31 These differences between mitigation pathways complicate the mapping of pathways. It is however possible  
 32 to classify mitigation pathways into eight groups using their temperature outcomes, i.e., their likelihood to  
 33 exceed a given level of warming over the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Table 2.3). Similar approaches to defining types of  
 34 mitigation pathways have been used earlier (Rogelj et al. 2011; UNEP 2016), and facilitate assessment of  
 35 their associated mitigation measures (see Section 2.3 and Section 2.4).  
 36

37 *[Note to Reviewers: This level of warming is determined using the working definition for a historical*  
 38 *reference period (1850-1900 – to be updated to 1850-1879 in the SOD, this would only result in a minimal*

1 *difference, see Chapter 1).]*

2  
3 **Table 2.3:** Description of classification or typology of emissions pathways available in the scenario database to this  
4 assessment in terms of probability of exceed a given temperature threshold ( $P_T$ ).  
5

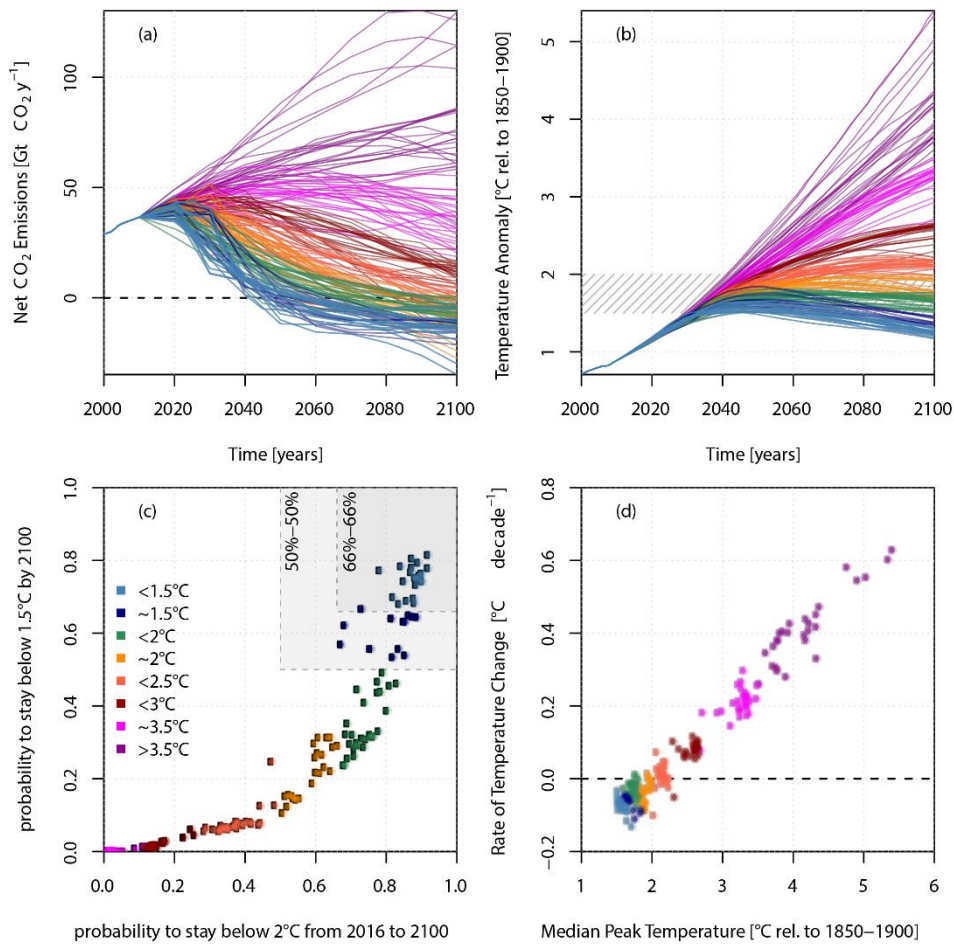
Types of Mitigation pathways	Probability to exceed a given warming threshold	Symbol	Acronym	Count in database
Well below 1.5°C				
Medium 1.5°C				
Well below 2°C				
Medium 2°C				
Well below 2.5°C				
Well below 3°C				
Medium 3.5°C				
Above 3.5°C				

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7  
8 **2.2.3.2 Near-term to 2050**

9 Even within the scenario typology (Table 2.3), there is a large degree of variance between emissions  
10 pathways. Still, mitigation pathways can be examined based on two key geophysical characteristics: the  
11 presence of overshoots and the timing of reaching net-zero CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. Those characteristics have been  
12 highlighted in several studies focusing on stringent mitigation pathways (Wigley et al. 2007; Huntingford  
13 and Lowe 2007; Zickfeld and Herrington 2015; Nohara et al. 2015; Schleussner et al. 2016; Rogelj et al.  
14 2015d). In the ensemble of scenarios collected in the database for this report, pathways holding warming  
15 below or close to 1.5°C in 2100 (<1.5°C and ~1.5°C) are all projected to overshoot median temperature rise  
16 around mid-century before returning below that level in 2100. Also net CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and radiative forcing  
17 are higher at the time of peak warming (at mid-century) than at the end of the century (Table 2.4). Both  
18 1.5°C pathway classes (<1.5°C and ~1.5°C) reach carbon neutrality (or net-zero CO<sub>2</sub> emissions) before 2050  
19 in most of those scenarios (Figure 2.4), and have the strongest rate of temperature decline after their peak  
20 (Figure 2.3). Both classes are also characterised by a strong reduction of the non-CO<sub>2</sub> warming contribution,  
21 which peaks around 2040 and then declines virtually all available scenarios in the two 1.5°C classes (Figure  
22 2.2).

23  
24 In contrast, scenarios in the <2°C through >3.5°C classes (see Table 2.3 for definitions) do not display such  
25 features between 2016 and 2050. Although most of the <2°C pathways have overshoots and reach carbon  
26 neutrality at some point during the 21<sup>st</sup> century, most of those characteristics occur after 2050. The same  
27 goes for the types of mitigation pathways leading to higher warming threshold. In many ways, the first group  
28 of pathways (<1.5°C and about 1.5°C) can thus be understood as early stringent mitigation action pathways,  
29 while the latter types of pathways include delayed mitigation actions pathways (see Section 2.3).  
30





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**Figure 2.3:** Pathways classification (typology) overview. (a) Net CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from 2000 to 2100, (b) 50th percentile global mean temperature increase relative to 1850-1900, (c) probability of holding warming below 2°C during the entire twenty-first century and below 1.5°C by 2100 (allowing for overshoot any time before 2100), and (d) the rate of median temperature change from 2081 to 2100 as a function of median peak temperature. In (c), grey shaded area indicated probabilities at 50%-50% and 66%-66% for the horizontal and vertical axis.

1 **Table 2.4:** Geophysical characteristics of mitigation pathways derived at median peak temperature and at the end of the century (2100). Geophysical characteristics of overshoot  
 2 for mitigation pathways exceeding 1.5°C is given in the last two columns. Overshoot severity is the sum of degree warming years exceeding 1.5°C over the 21<sup>st</sup> century.  
 3 NA indicates that no mitigation pathways exhibits the given geophysical characteristics. Radiative forcing metrics are: total anthropogenic radiative forcing (RFall),  
 4 CO<sub>2</sub> radiative forcing (R<sub>FCO<sub>2</sub></sub>), and non-CO<sub>2</sub> radiative forcing (R<sub>nonCO<sub>2</sub></sub>).  
 5

Classes	Geophysical characteristics at median peak temperature									Geophysical characteristics in 2100							Overshoot Properties						
	Temperature [°C]	year	CO <sub>2</sub> [ppm]	RFall [W/m <sup>2</sup> ]	R <sub>FCO<sub>2</sub></sub> [W/m <sup>2</sup> ]	R <sub>nonCO<sub>2</sub></sub> [W/m <sup>2</sup> ]	TPB [GtCO <sub>2</sub> rel. to 2016]	Probability to Exceed 1.5°C	Probability to Exceed 2.0°C	Probability to Exceed 2.5°C	Temperature [°C]	CO <sub>2</sub> [ppm]	RFall [W/m <sup>2</sup> ]	R <sub>FCO<sub>2</sub></sub> [W/m <sup>2</sup> ]	R <sub>nonCO<sub>2</sub></sub> [W/m <sup>2</sup> ]	Cum. CO <sub>2</sub> until 2100 [GtCO <sub>2</sub> rel. to 2016]	Probability to Exceed 1.5°C	Probability to Exceed 2.0°C	Probability to Exceed 2.5°C	counts	Severity [°C year]	Exceedance year	
<1.5°C																							
~1.5°C																							
<2°C																							
~2°C																							
<2.5°C																							
<3°C																							
~3.5°C																							
>3.5°C																							

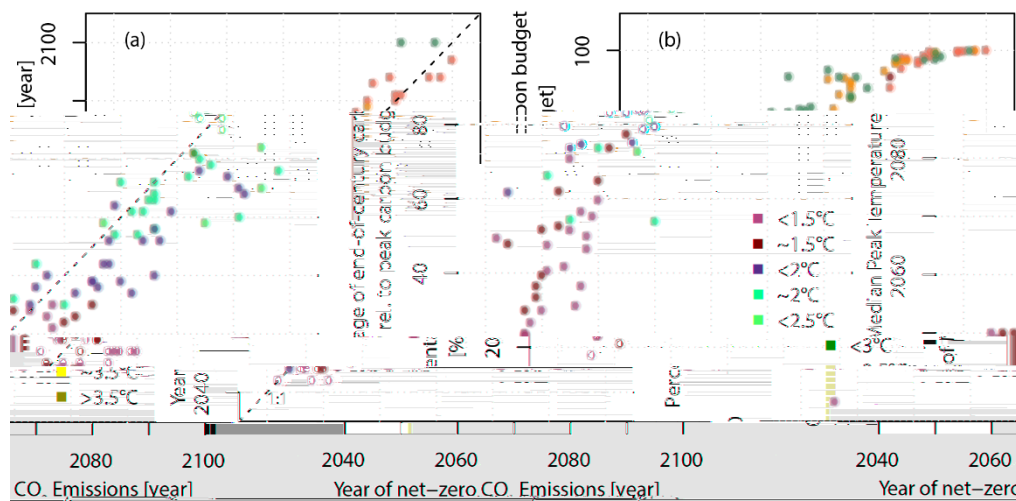
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2.2.3.3 Post-2050

After 2050, mitigation pathways lead to a very large range of geophysical characteristics (Table 2.4). Thirty-four of the available pathways out of 191 limit median temperature below or close to 1.5°C, 49 to below or close to 2°C, while 108 lead to higher temperature outcomes by 2100. This section again uses the pathway classes defined in Table 2.3.

Pathways in line with 1.5°C (<1.5°C and about 1.5°C) all reach net-zero CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in the period 2040-2065, compared to the larger class of 2°C pathways (<2°C and about 2°C), some of which only reach net-zero CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by the end of the century (Figure 2.4). Due to the inertia of the carbon cycle (Joos et al. 2013), most of these mitigation pathways display a peak in median temperature about 10 years before reaching carbon neutrality, due to an interplay of strongly reduced annual CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and declining short-lived forcers (see Section 2.3.3). 1.5°C pathways lead to peak atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations between 430 and 460 ppm; that is about 5 to 15% higher than the 2015 concentration (Le Quéré et al. 2016). 2°C pathways peak CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations at about 10 to 30 ppm CO<sub>2</sub> higher levels. By the end of the century, 1.5°C pathways all have CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations below today's levels, in contrast to 2°C pathways, which continue to see CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations that are about 5-15% higher than today. Within the group of 1.5°C pathways, the ratio of the end-of-century carbon budget to the maximal cumulative carbon emissions (reached at the year of carbon neutrality), is non-linearly related to the year of net-zero CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (Figure 2.4). This already provides an indication of the level of negative CO<sub>2</sub> emissions deployed in the various mitigation pathways (see also Section 2.4). A part of these negative CO<sub>2</sub> emissions is used to compensate for the residual warming due to non-CO<sub>2</sub> GHG and aerosols by the end of the century (Figure 2.2) as suggested in the literature (Fuss et al. 2013, 2014b; Peters et al. 2017; Kriegler et al. 2013; Rogelj et al. 2015a).

The rate of temperature change between 2081 and 2100 offers a complementary approach to map mitigation pathways after 2050. Indeed, all mitigation pathways limiting warming below 1.5°C display a decline in median temperature over the two last decades of the 21st century (Figure 2.3). This is not the case for mitigation pathways limiting warming to 2°C or higher levels. In 2°C pathways (<2°C and about 2°C) temperatures at the end of the century can be stabilised, be declining or still increasing. In higher pathways classes, median warming more often than not continues to increase over this period.



**Figure 2.4:** Characteristics of pathways reaching net-zero CO<sub>2</sub> emissions between 2016 and 2100. (a) Timing of median peak warming as function of the year of net-zero CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and (b) the percentage ratio of end-of-century budget to the carbon budget until year of net-zero CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (i.e., the maximum carbon budget, derived at the year of net zero CO<sub>2</sub> emissions). Both budgets have been computed starting from 2016. In (a), the dashed line represents the first diagonal of the scatterplot.

## 2.3 General characteristics of 1.5°C pathways and transitions in the near-to-medium term

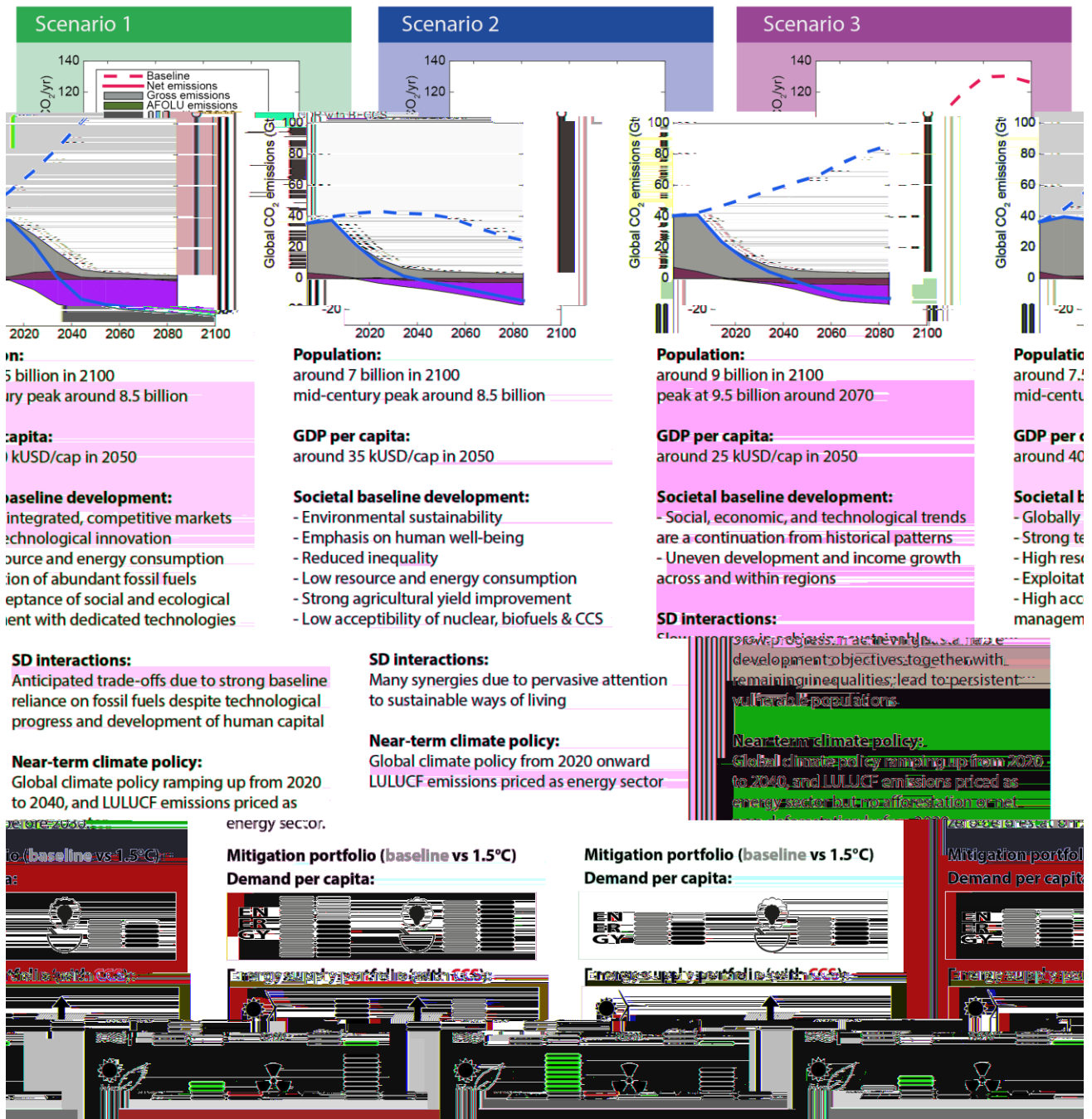
### 2.3.1 Overview of mitigation pathways

Limiting global mean temperature to any level requires global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions to become net zero at some point in the future (Collins et al. 2013a). At the same time, current (year: 2015) global annual CO<sub>2</sub> emissions are of the order of 41 billion metric tons of CO<sub>2</sub> per annum (GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup>) (Le Quéré et al. 2016). Reducing these emissions from their current levels to net zero will require large-scale transformations of the global energy-economy-land system, affecting the way in which energy is produced, agricultural systems are organised, and the extent to which energy and materials are consumed. The question here is how do such transformations look in pathways compatible with limiting global mean temperature to 1.5°C relative to pre-industrial levels? Are there key characteristics that can be robustly identified? Which factors enable or hamper this transition? How do actions and choices in the near term impact the achievability of such pathways in the more distant future? In this section we assess the transformation until mid-century in pathways compatible with limiting global mean temperature rise to 1.5°C.

*[Note to Reviewers: for the SOD this section will be made fully consistent with the pathways classification introduced in Section 2.2, and updated information available in the database supporting this assessment.]*

#### 2.3.1.1 General scenario concepts

Earlier assessments already highlighted two important, related concepts in the framing and understanding of answers provided to the questions posed above (Clarke et al. 2014). First, there is no single pathway to achieve a specific climate objective. A variety of pathways exist that can be compatible with limiting warming to 1.5°C, which depend on underlying societal choices and preferences. These choices and preferences affect the drivers of projected future baseline emissions, for example, population growth, economic development and the evolution of regional and societal inequalities, as well as overall future energy and food demand. Furthermore, societal choices also affect climate change solutions in pathways, like the technologies that are deployed, the scale at which they are deployed, or whether solutions are globally coordinated or regionally fragmented (see Figure 2.5). The second concept related to the framing of transformation pathways is that owing to this diversity in solutions, pathways come with distinct features which vary in their synergies and trade-offs with other societal objectives, such as poverty eradication, food security, or clean air (Figure 2.5 and Sections 2.4 and 2.5). Ultimately, the portfolio of societal choices and mitigation options will to a large degree determine the facility with which synergies with other societal objectives can be achieved. The large variety in 1.5°C pathways suggests that policy decisions and societal choices are essential in shaping pathways.



**Figure 2.5:** Overview of scenario characteristics of three different 1.5°C pathway types which differ in their assumptions about socio-economic trends, societal baseline development on which climate policies are imposed and enabling and hindering factors for near-term climate policy. Illustrative pathway types correspond to 1.9 Wm<sup>-2</sup> scenarios of three marker implementations of the Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (Riahi et al. 2017; Rogelj et al. 2017a) representing a green-growth (Scenarios 1, SSP1, van Vuuren et al. 2017), middle-of-the-road (Scenario 2, SSP2, Fricko et al. 2017), and an energy intensive development with strong focus on fossil fuel exploitation in the baseline (Scenario 3, SSP5, Kriegler et al. 2017). Symbols at the bottom of each pathway type illustrate characteristics averaged over the second half of the century: final energy demand per capita, and agricultural food and livestock demand; primary energy contributions of non-biomass renewables, fossil fuels, bio-energy, and nuclear. Grey bars illustrate baseline demand, black bars demand in a scenario consistent with 1.5°C (1.9 Wm<sup>-2</sup> in 2100). Red outlined bars illustrate contributions combined with CCS.

The diversity of pathways available to achieve stringent climate change mitigation futures calls for a structured approach that allows a differentiation of scenarios along dimensions related to socioeconomic and technological assumptions, for example, economic growth and population preferences, the evolution of per capita energy demand and of per capita food demand, choices related to preferences in technologies for the

1 energy sector, and choices related to agricultural productivity and land use. These dimensions have been  
2 recently explored in the context of the Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSP) (O'Neill et al. 2014) which  
3 provide narratives (O'Neill et al. 2017) and quantifications (Leimbach et al. 2017; Crespo Cuaresma 2017;  
4 Dellink et al. 2017; KC and Lutz 2017; Riahi et al. 2017) of different future worlds in which scenario  
5 dimensions are varied to explore differential challenges to adaptation and mitigation (see Box 1.1 on  
6 scenarios and pathways).

7  
8 Population and economic growth projections can vary strongly across scenarios (Leimbach et al. 2017;  
9 Crespo Cuaresma 2017; Dellink et al. 2017; KC and Lutz 2017). For example, based on alternative future  
10 fertility, mortality, migration and educational assumptions, population projections vary between 8.5 and 10.0  
11 billion people by 2050, and 6.9 to 12.6 billion people by 2100. These ranges to a large extent depend on  
12 future female educational attainment, with higher attainment leading to lower fertility rates and therewith  
13 decreased population growth up to a level of 1 billion people by 2050 (KC and Lutz 2017; Lutz and KC  
14 2011). Consistent with populations development, GDP per capita also varies strongly in future scenarios,  
15 with 2050 GDP in baseline scenarios varying between 18 and more than 40 thousand USD per capita  
16 (2005USD), in part driven by assumptions on development convergence between and within regions  
17 (Leimbach et al. 2017; Crespo Cuaresma 2017; Dellink et al. 2017). SSP-based studies have identified very  
18 high challenges to mitigation (and hence very few to no scenarios compatible with 1.5°C) for worlds in  
19 which global population growth proceeds along the high-end of current emissions projections (around 10 and  
20 12.6 billion people in 2050 and 2100, respectively) combined with low educational achievements and low  
21 per capita income growth (global mean around 10.7 and 11.5 thousand USD per capita in 2050 and 2100,  
22 respectively).

23  
24 Besides assumptions related to the drivers, scenarios are also subject to assumptions about the mitigation  
25 policies that can be put in place. Mitigation policies can either be applied immediately in scenarios, or follow  
26 staged or delayed approaches. Policies can span many sectors (e.g., carbon pricing), or policies can be  
27 applicable to specific sectors only (like the energy sector) with other sectors (e.g., the agricultural or the  
28 land-use sector) treated differently (Kriegler et al. 2014b). These variations can have an important impact on  
29 the ability of models to generate scenarios compatible with stringent climate targets like 1.5°C. In the  
30 scenario ensemble available to this assessment, several variations of near-term mitigation policy  
31 implementation can be found: immediate global cooperation from 2020 onward towards a global climate  
32 objective, including all sectors (Riahi et al. 2017; Luderer et al. 2016a), a phase in of globally coordinated  
33 mitigation policy from 2020 to 2040 (Riahi et al. 2017), and a delay of global mitigation policy, following  
34 NDCs until 2030 (Luderer et al. 2016a). Each of these implementation allows exploration of different  
35 aspects of 1.5°C pathways.

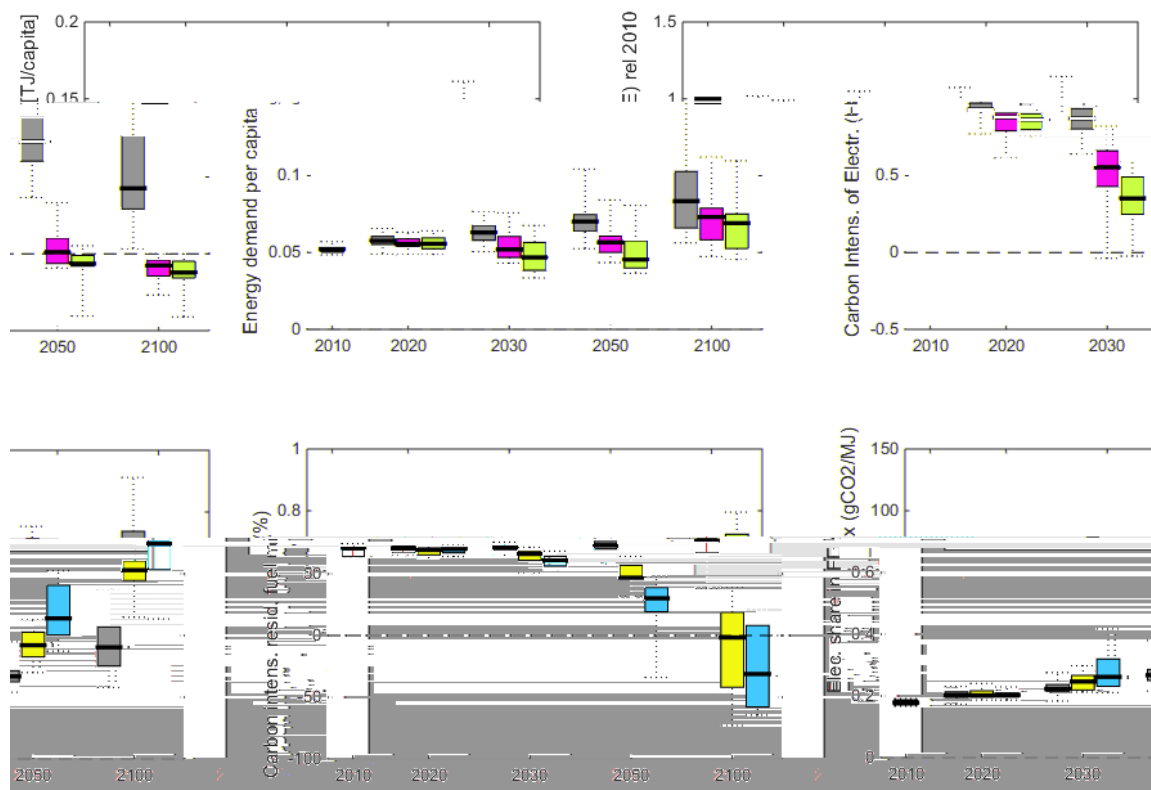
36  
37 The wide range of possibilities in terms of technological and societal assumptions thus leads to a wide  
38 variety of potential pathways in line with 1.5°C. Figure 2.5 illustrates three potential pathway types based on  
39 the green-growth (SSP1), middle-of-the-road (SSP2), and energy intensive fossil-fuelled (SSP5) narratives  
40 of the SSPs (Riahi et al. 2017; O'Neill et al. 2017). Baseline per capita energy and food demand between the  
41 scenarios varies by a factor of two in the second half of the century, a difference which remains in the  
42 accompanying 1.5°C scenarios. The differences in societal drivers also lead to significantly different  
43 evolutions of emissions over time, as well as configurations of the energy supply system. Wherever possible,  
44 this chapter will highlight key pathway types that illustrate the various societal choices and their  
45 consequences.

#### 46 47 48 *2.3.1.2 General characteristics of 1.5°C pathways*

49 1.5°C and well below 2°C transition pathways are characterised by large-scale transformations of the energy,  
50 industry, and land sector (Popp et al. 2017; Bauer et al. 2017; Riahi et al. 2017). Four contributing factors or  
51 macro decarbonisation indicators can help to understand the structure of the energy (including transportation  
52 and buildings) and industry transformations: reductions in per capita energy demand, reductions in the  
53 carbon intensity of electricity, an increasing share of final energy being provided by electricity, and  
54 reductions in the carbon intensity of the residual fuel mix, each of which are affected by scenario  
55 assumptions. Figure 2.6 illustrates how these general trends shift between baseline scenarios and 1.5°C and  
56 2°C scenarios. 1.5°C pathways show a general fast transition until mid-century and a slower, more sustained  
57 evolution thereafter. In this section we focus on the first fast near-term transition phase of 1.5°C pathways,

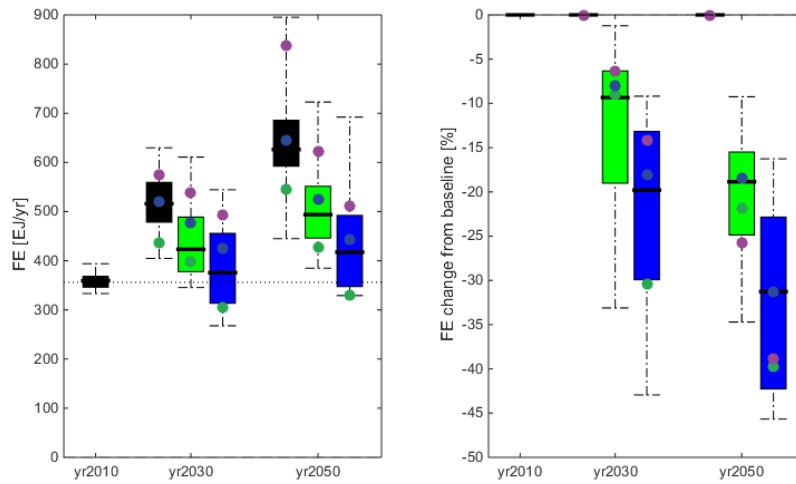
1 while Section 2.4 assesses the implications for the second half of the century.

2  
3 In general, 1.5°C and 2°C pathways are similar in their evolution of macro indicators for decarbonisation,  
4 both having to comply with a stringent carbon budget. However, the largest differences between 1.5°C and  
5 2°C pathways are particularly seen in the first half of the century, where 1.5°C pathways show a stronger  
6 reduction of per capita energy demand, a faster in electrification of energy end use, and a faster  
7 decarbonisation of the carbon intensity of electricity and of the residual fuel mix (that is, the fuel mix which  
8 does not contribute to the production of electricity in the energy system).  
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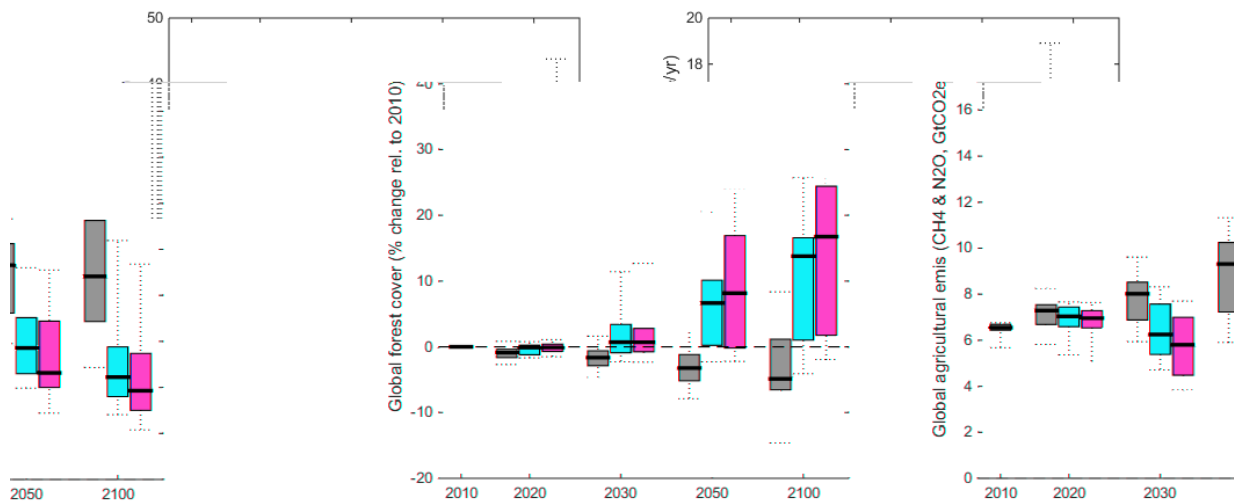
11 **Figure 2.6:** Decomposition of transformation pathways in energy demand per capita reductions (top left: TJ of final  
12 energy per capita), carbon intensity of electricity (top right: Electricity CO<sub>2</sub> over Electricity in Final  
13 Energy), the electricity share in final energy (bottom left), and the carbon intensity of the residual (non-  
14 electricity) fuel mix (bottom right). Scenarios from the SSP scenario ensemble. This figure will be  
15 updated as more studies become available.  
16  
17

18 Energy demand reduction are a key characteristic of 1.5°C pathways. Limiting energy demand results in an  
19 overall smaller energy system and therewith facilitates the transition to a low-carbon society (Clarke et al.  
20 2014). Energy demand reductions are particularly important because end-use efficiency improvements are  
21 able to leverage upstream energy reductions which can be several times to an order of magnitude larger than  
22 the initial end-use demand reduction. This is immediately clear when comparing useful energy output for a  
23 particular service category to the associated primary energy input (see data in De Stercke 2014). The more  
24 demand can be limited, the more flexible supply side mitigation measures can be combined to decarbonise  
25 the overall system. Across the wide range of scenarios available to this assessments, reductions relative to  
26 baseline energy demand are remarkably similar. In general 1.5°C scenarios see a reduction in final energy  
27 demand in the order of 20% (median, interquartile range 13-30%) and 30% (23-42%) relative to a no-climate  
28 policy baseline in 2030 and 2050, respectively, compared to 10% (6-19%) and 20% (15-25%) in 2°C  
29 pathways. This results in absolute final energy demand levels of 376 EJ yr<sup>-1</sup> (314-456 EJ yr<sup>-1</sup>) and 417 EJ yr<sup>-1</sup>  
30 (348-492 EJ yr<sup>-1</sup>) in 2030 and 2050, respectively, compared to 356 EJ yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2010 (see Figure 2.7).  
31



**Figure 2.7:** Overview of final energy (FE) demand evolution in baselines (black), 2°C scenarios (2.6 Wm<sup>-2</sup> scenarios, green), 1.5°C scenarios (1.9 Wm<sup>-2</sup> scenarios, blue). Ranges show the minimum-maximum range. Dots indicate single scenarios. Data from (Riahi et al. 2017; Rogelj et al. 2017a). (Note: these ranges will be updated as more studies and scenarios are submitted and become available for assessment. In further iterations, this figure will use the pathway typologies introduced in Section 2.2.) (left) absolute final energy demand; (right) final energy demand reductions relative to a no-climate policy baseline. Dots represent key pathway types which are chosen to represent varying challenges to mitigation in Figure 2.5. Green: SSP1 (IMAGE model), blue: SSP2 (MESSAGE-GLOBIOM model), purple: SSP5 (REMIND-MAGPIE model).

An important further aspect of global transformation pathways is the role of the agricultural and land system (Popp et al. 2017). This system is responsible both for food and feed production and for the production of biomass for energy or other uses. The demand level for these agricultural products is thus a key driver for the mitigation challenges in this sector, together with technological change in the agricultural sector (Havlík et al. 2014; Weindl et al. 2015), changes in dietary patterns (Smith et al. 2013), trade, and interactions with other sectors (Popp et al. 2017). Assessment of available scenarios shows a large range of potential future evolutions with 1.5°C pathways showing options in which global forest cover is approximately kept constant and options in which it is increased by 20% or more due to afforestation and reforestation measures (Figure 2.8). Depending on societal choices and preferences, a 1.5°C pathway could be achieved while increasing forest cover over the 21<sup>st</sup> century and strongly reducing greenhouse gas emissions from agriculture or, under alternative societal choices, while keeping forest cover approximately constant and higher, yet still decreasing agricultural greenhouse gas emissions until 2100. Furthermore, the agricultural system is also characterised by sizeable amounts of very hard to eliminate residual non-CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (Figure 2.8) (Gernaat et al. 2015). These increase in their relative importance in very stringent mitigation pathways. Limiting demand for greenhouse gas-intensive foods is thus a key through shifts to healthier and more sustainable diets and lifestyles that limit food waste (Popp et al. 2017).



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1 **Figure 2.8:** Overview of land-use related transitions in transformation pathways. Change in global forest cover  
2 relative to 2010 (left panel) and global agricultural GHG emissions of CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O (right panel,  
3 aggregated with the AR4 GWP-100 metric). Scenarios from the SSP scenario ensemble. Highlighted  
4 archetypes are colour-coded in the same way as in Figure 2.17.  
5  
6

### 7 2.3.1.3 *Mitigation options in 1.5°C pathways*

8 Transformation pathways assessed in this section have been developed by global integrated assessment  
9 models that represent key societal systems and their interactions, like the energy system, the land system,  
10 and the economy (see Section 6.2 in Clarke et al. 2014). Very often these models also include interactions  
11 with a representation of the geophysical system, for example, by including spatially explicit land models or  
12 carbon-cycle and climate models. The complex features of these subsystems are approximated and simplified  
13 in these models. IPCC AR5 provided an overview of how differences in model structure can influence the  
14 outcome of transformation pathways (see Section 6.2 in Clarke et al. 2014). These insights also apply here.  
15 Furthermore, in the context of ambitious 1.5°C transformation pathways, the portfolio of mitigation options  
16 available to the model also becomes increasingly important. Integrated assessment models include a wide  
17 variety of supply- and demand-side mitigation options, as well as measures that achieve CDR from the  
18 atmosphere (see also Chapter 4 for a bottom-up discussion of these mitigation technology option). Integrated  
19 assessment models cover most of the supply-side mitigation options and demand-side options are either  
20 integrated in the model or part of the underlying assumptions, which can be varied (Table 2.5). CDR options  
21 are much more speculative and are therefore typically only partially included in integrated assessment model  
22 analyses.

1 **Table 2.5:** Taxonomy of mitigation options for 1.5°C transformation pathways. Options available in the scenarios assessed in this section are colour-coded blue; options available  
 2 in some models, but not necessarily in the scenarios assessed here are colour-coded yellow; potential mitigation options currently not typically included in integrated  
 3 assessment model analyses are colour-coded white.  
 4

<b>SUPPLY SIDE MEASURES</b>	<b>DEMAND SIDE MEASURES</b>	<b>Greenhouse gas removal</b>
<i>Decarbonisation of Electricity</i>	<i>Energy demand reductions</i>	
Bio-electricity, including biomass co-firing	Energy efficiency improvements in energy end uses (appliances in buildings, engines in transport, industrial processes)	Afforestation / Reforestation
CCS at coal and gas-fired power plants	Higher share of useful energy in final energy (e.g., insulation of buildings, lighter weight vehicles, coupled heat and power, ...)	Changing agricultural practices enhancing soil carbon
Nuclear energy	Reduced energy and mobility service demand (via behavioural change, reduced material and floor space demand, infrastructure and buildings configuration, modal shift in individual transportation) Models mostly represent price and income elasticity of energy (service) demand	Biochar and soil carbon enhancement
High-temperature geothermal heat		Restoration of peat- and wetlands
Solar PV	<b>Other demand reductions</b>	Biomass use for energy production with carbon capture and storage (BECCS) (either combustion or fermentation)
Solar CSP	Reduced material demand via higher resource efficiency, structural change, behavioural change and material substitution (e.g., steel and cement)	Direct air capture (DAC) of CO <sub>2</sub> using chemical solvents
Wind (on-shore and off-shore)		Mineralization of atmospheric CO <sub>2</sub> through enhanced weathering of rocks
Hydro power		Ocean iron fertilization
Tidal energy		Ocean alkalisation
<i>Decarbonisation of non-electric fuels</i>	<i>Electrification of Demand</i>	Carbon Capture and Usage – CCU; bioplastics, carbon fibre
Biofuels	Transport: Electric vehicles, electric rail ...	Removing CH <sub>4</sub> , N <sub>2</sub> O and halocarbons via photocatalysis from the atmosphere

Hydrogen	Buildings: Heat pumps, electric stoves ...	
Power-to-gas, methanisation, synthetic hydrocarbons	Buildings: Heat pumps, electric stoves ...	
Artificial photosynthesis to hydrogen and other chemical bonds	Industry: Electric arc furnace ...	
CCS in industrial process applications (cement, pulp and paper, iron steel, oil and gas refining, chemicals)		
solar and geothermal heating		
Substitution of F-gases		
reduced gas flaring and leakage in extractive industries, reduced gas leakage from pipelines		
Replacing fossil fuels by electricity in end-use sectors		
<b><i>Land use supply options</i></b>	<b><i>Land use demand options</i></b>	
Methane reductions in ruminants, rice paddies etc.	Dietary changes, reduction of food waste	
Livestock and grazing management, protein feed, synthetic meat, Increasing agricultural productivity, substitution of nitrogen with mineral fertilizer	Reduced deforestation	
	Fertilizer reduction / increasing nitrogen fertilizer efficiency, reduced land degradation	

1

### 2.3.2 Key characteristics of transitions in 1.5°C pathways from today until mid-century

A wide variety of pathways can be consistent with limiting global mean temperature increase to 1.5°C relative to preindustrial levels. However, despite their diversity, these pathways also share key characteristics. Table 2.6 provides a list of characteristics that are based on the assessment in the remainder of this chapter.

**Table 2.6:** Overview of key characteristics of 1.5°C pathways and differences compared to 2°C pathways. Reported values give the median and the interquartile range between brackets, or the interquartile range only (if only a range is given).

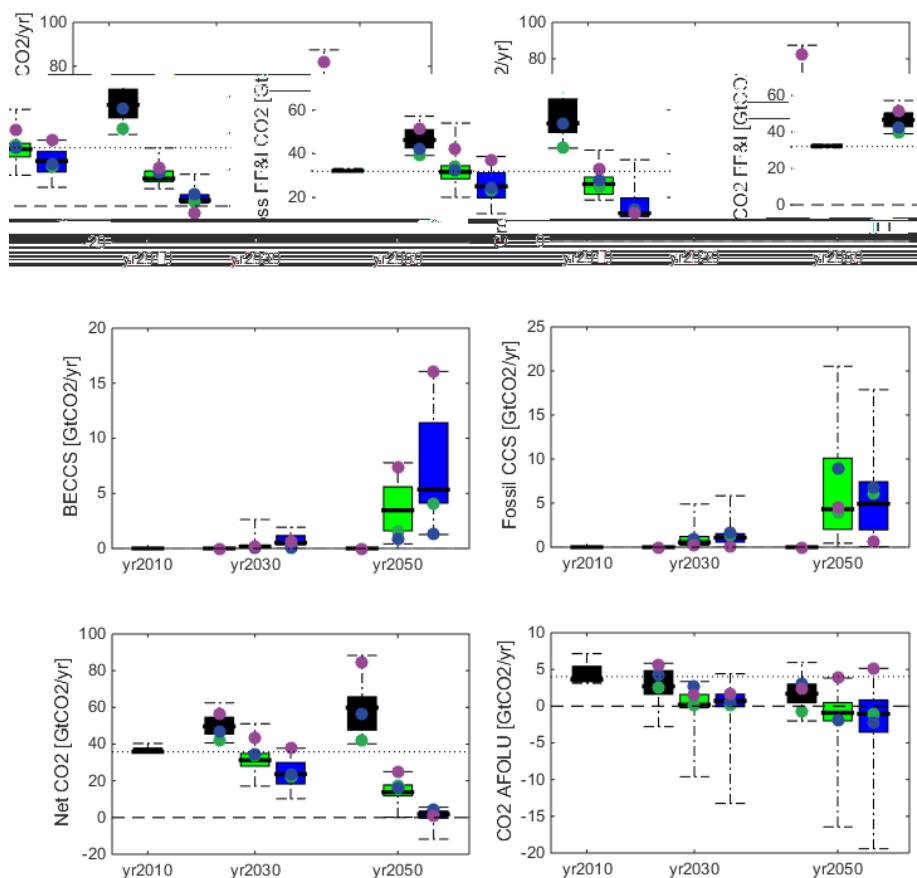
Characteristic in 1.5°C pathways	Supporting information	Reference
Rapid and profound near-term decarbonisation of energy supply	Strong upscaling of renewables and sustainable biomass, a rapid phase-out of unabated (no CCS) fossil fuels combined with rapid deployment of CCS lead to a zero emission energy supply system by mid-century.	Section 2.3.4.1
Greater mitigation efforts on the demand side	All end-use sectors show significant demand reductions beyond the reductions projected for 2°C pathways, already by 2030. Demand reductions from integrated models for 2030 and 2050 lie well within the potential assessed by detailed sectorial bottom-up assessments.	Section 2.3.4.2
Energy efficiency improvements are a crucial enabling factor for 1.5°C	Particularly until 2050 per capita energy demand is strongly tempered in 1.5°C pathways, leading to final energy demand reductions in the order of 20% (13-30%) and 30% (23-42%) relative to a no-climate policy baseline in 2030 and 2050, respectively, compared to 10% (6-19%) and 20% (15-25%) in 2°C pathways.	Section 2.3.1
Switching from fossil fuels to electricity in end-use sectors	Both in the transport and the residential sector, electricity is covering significant larger shares of the total demand by mid-century.	Section 2.3.4
Comprehensive emission reductions are implemented in the coming decade	Net annual CO <sub>2</sub> emissions are reduced to 18-30 GtCO <sub>2</sub> yr <sup>-1</sup> by 2030 and 0-4 GtCO <sub>2</sub> yr <sup>-1</sup> in 2050, reaching carbon neutrality shortly thereafter, from 2015 levels of about 41 GtCO <sub>2</sub> yr <sup>-1</sup> (Le Quéré et al. 2016). GHG emissions are reduced to 25-41 and 5-11 GtCO <sub>2</sub> -eq yr <sup>-1</sup> in 2030 and 2050, respectively. Studies that have attempted to reach 1.5°C scenarios from higher level indicate many failed attempts.	Section 2.3.3
Additional reductions, on top of reductions from both CO <sub>2</sub> and non-CO <sub>2</sub> required for 2°C, are mainly from CO <sub>2</sub>	All climate forcers, including CO <sub>2</sub> , non-CO <sub>2</sub> GHGs and aerosols, are strongly reduced by 2030 and until 2050 in 1.5°C scenarios. The greatest difference to 2°C scenarios, however, lies in additional reductions of CO <sub>2</sub> , as a very large proportion of the non-CO <sub>2</sub> mitigation potential is already fully deployed for reaching a 2°C pathway.	Section 2.3.3
Considerable shifts in investment patterns	1.5°C pathways indicate annual average low-carbon energy investments in wind and solar from 2010 to 2030 of the order of 60-150 and 30-120 billion USD yr <sup>-1</sup> (interquartile range) while investments in fossil fuel electricity and extraction decline steadily until 2050. Energy demand investments are an additional critical factor for which total estimates are difficult to define.	Section 2.3.4.4
SDG interactions	Highlighting major synergies in the area of and risks of trade-offs depending on the chosen mitigation portfolio	Section 2.5
CDR at scale before mid-century	By 2050, 1.5°C pathways project deployment of BECCS at a scale of 4-11 GtCO <sub>2</sub> yr <sup>-1</sup> (interquartile range), depending on the level of energy demand reductions and mitigation in other sectors. Some scenarios are available with lower deployment levels in the order of 1 GtCO <sub>2</sub> yr <sup>-1</sup> in 2050.	Section 2.3.3 Section 2.3.4.1

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2.3.3 Emissions evolution

Anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions are the main driver of global warming (IPCC 2013), and to limit global-mean temperature rise to 1.5°C during this century (see Section 2.2) they are strongly reduced. Scenarios show reductions in both CO<sub>2</sub> and non-CO<sub>2</sub> greenhouse gases until 2050, with CO<sub>2</sub> contributing most to the overall reduction. Global greenhouse gas emissions peak and start declining by 2030 in typical scenarios available in the literature (Sanderson et al. 2016; Su et al. 2017; Walsh et al. 2017; Rogelj et al. 2015a). Here we assess the salient temporal evolutions of the various climate altering emissions in 1.5°C scenarios until mid-century.

Global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions embark on a steady decline reaching net zero by 2050 or shortly thereafter. This overall evolution of net CO<sub>2</sub> emissions is achieved in scenarios through a combination of various both compensating and reinforcing anthropogenic contributions: (a) CO<sub>2</sub> generation by fossil fuel combustion and industrial processes, (b) CO<sub>2</sub> emissions or removals from land-use, land-use change, and forestry, (c) engineering sinks where CO<sub>2</sub> from fossil fuels or industrial activities is captured and permanently stored in geological formations before it can be released to the atmosphere (i.e., fossil CCS), (d) CO<sub>2</sub> removal by capturing CO<sub>2</sub> (absorbed from the atmosphere during the growth of biomass) at the time it is combusted or processed in a centralised plant and storing it permanently (BECCS), amongst others. Despite all reaching net CO<sub>2</sub> emissions levels in 2050 that are close to zero, scenarios apply these four contributions in very different configurations. These configurations depend on societal choices and preferences related to the acceptability and availability of certain technologies, the timing and stringency of near-term climate policy, and the ability to limit the demand that drives baseline emissions (Marangoni et al. 2017; Riahi et al. 2017; Rogelj et al. 2017a). Figure 2.9 shows an overview of the varying evolutions of each of these contributors in 1.5°C scenarios and in comparison to 2°C and no-climate policy baseline scenarios, with key statistics reported in Table 2.7.



**Figure 2.9:** Evolution and break down of global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions until mid-century in no-climate policy baselines (grey), 2°C scenarios (2.6 Wm<sup>-2</sup> scenarios, green), 1.5°C scenarios (1.9 Wm<sup>-2</sup> scenarios, blue). Ranges show the minimum-maximum range. Dots indicate single scenarios. Data

1 from (Riahi et al. 2017; Rogelj et al. 2017a). (Note: these ranges will be updated as more studies  
 2 and scenarios are submitted and become available for assessment). The various panels show: (top-  
 3 left) gross CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from fossil fuel and industrial activities (computed by adding the annual  
 4 amounts of total CCS, i.e., BECCS and FossilCCS, to the total net reported CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and  
 5 subtracting CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from land use, land-use change, and forestry), (top-right) net CO<sub>2</sub>  
 6 emissions from fossil fuel and industrial activities, (middle-left) CO<sub>2</sub> captured and stored from  
 7 fossil fuels and industrial activity by CCS, (middle-right) CO<sub>2</sub> removal by BECCS, (bottom-left)  
 8 CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from land use, land-use change, and forestry, and (bottom-right) net global CO<sub>2</sub>  
 9 emissions. In further iterations, this figure will use the pathway typologies introduced in Section  
 10 2.2. Dots represent key pathway types which are chosen to represent varying challenges to  
 11 mitigation. Green: SSP1 (IMAGE model), blue: SSP2 (MESSAGE-GLOBIOM model), purple:  
 12 SSP5 (REMIND-MAGPIE model).

13  
 14 Studies regularly use emission reduction rates to compare the anticipated emissions reductions of  
 15 mitigation scenarios with abatement achieved in the past (van Vuuren and Stehfest 2013; Riahi et al.  
 16 2015; van Sluisveld et al. 2015). Compound annual growth rates (the annual percentage change  
 17 compared to the previous year) have been used in most of the cases. This functional form, however, is  
 18 not appropriate to describe emissions evolutions in which emissions reach net zero levels or become  
 19 negative, which is the case, for example, for net CO<sub>2</sub> emissions or AFOLU CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. Therefore,  
 20 we here report annual absolute emissions reductions instead, see Table 2.7.

21  
 22 The three pathway types highlighted in Figure 2.9 illustrate different configurations by means of the  
 23 SSP markers. In a scenarios that models an inclusive world developing along a low demand trajectory  
 24 (SSP1, illustrative green dot in Figure 2.9) baseline CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from fossil fuel and industry are  
 25 the lowest, compared to the two other pathways which model a middle-of-the-road (SSP2: blue dot  
 26 Figure 2.9) and an energy intensive and technologically focused society with extensive exploitation of  
 27 fossil fuels in the baseline (cf. SSP5, purple dot in Figure 2.9. Also baseline AFOLU CO<sub>2</sub> emissions  
 28 differ strongly by 2050, being positive in the SSP2 and SSP5 marker but negative in SSP1. These  
 29 variations between emission pathways imply important differences in the challenge of achieving a  
 30 1.5°C mitigation pathway (Rogelj et al. 2017a). For example, the cumulative mitigation over the 21<sup>st</sup>  
 31 century required to move from a no-climate policy baseline to a 1.5°C consistent scenario varies by a  
 32 factor 2 to 3 between SSP1 and SSP5. Moreover, these very diverse baseline emissions are in turn  
 33 mitigated by very diverse strategies: by focusing on demand reductions and sustainable lifestyles  
 34 (SSP1), by supply-side technology driven solutions (SSP5), or by taking a middle-of-the-road  
 35 perspective in line with historical societal dynamics (SSP2). Consequentially, particularly the  
 36 projected deployment of BECCS until mid-century varies drastically across the three pathway types  
 37 highlighted here, with 2050 levels of about 4, 1, and 16 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup> in the SSP1, SSP2, and SSP5  
 38 marker, respectively.

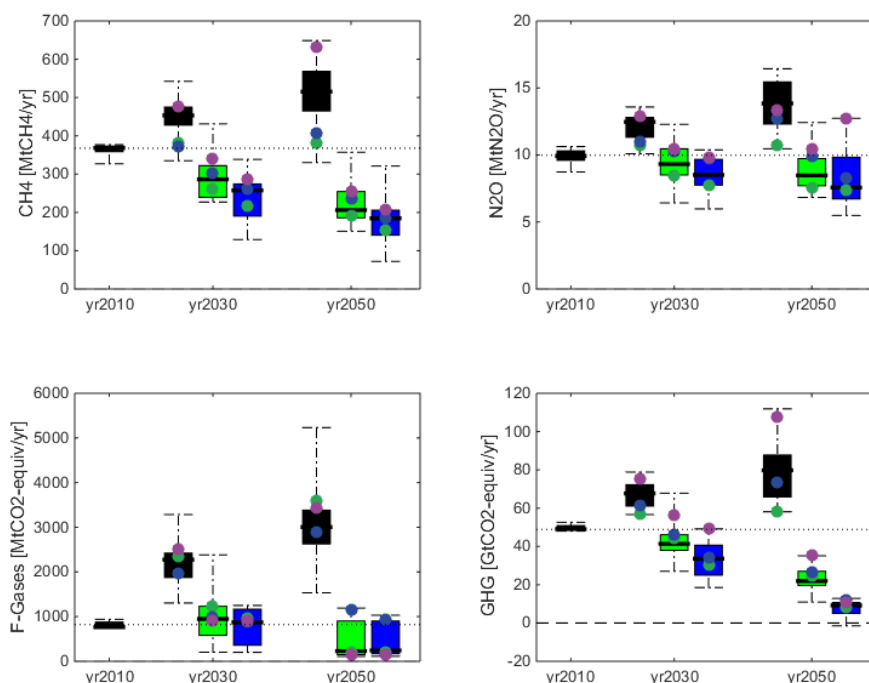
39  
 40 **Table 2.7:** Emissions levels in 2010, 2030, and 2050 for no-climate policy baselines, 2°C scenarios (2.6 Wm<sup>-2</sup>  
 41 scenarios), and 1.5°C scenarios (1.9 Wm<sup>-2</sup> scenarios), and annual rate of change between 2010 and  
 42 2030, and 2030 and 2050, respectively. Data from (Riahi et al. 2017; Rogelj et al. 2017a). [Note:  
 43 these ranges will be updated as more studies and scenarios are submitted and become available for  
 44 assessment].] Values show: 25<sup>th</sup> percentile, median, 75<sup>th</sup> percentile, across all available scenarios.  
 45 This scenario set will be expanded for the Second Order Draft with forthcoming scenarios. Note  
 46 that expressing emissions reductions as compound annual growth rates as in IPCC AR5 WG3  
 47 Chapter 6 cannot be applied here due to the presence of negative emissions values. Net GHG  
 48 emissions are expressed in units of CO<sub>2</sub>-equivalence computed with 100-year Global Warming  
 49 Potentials reported in IPCC AR4.

Emissions	Scenario set	2010	2030	2050	Annual rate of change 2010-2030	Annual rate of change 2030-2050

		[Gt CO <sub>2</sub> yr <sup>-1</sup> ]	[Gt CO <sub>2</sub> yr <sup>-1</sup> ]	[Gt CO <sub>2</sub> yr <sup>-1</sup> ]	[Gt CO <sub>2</sub> yr <sup>-2</sup> ]	[Gt CO <sub>2</sub> yr <sup>-2</sup> ]
Gross CO <sub>2</sub> FF&I	Baseline	32/32.2/32.6	42.7/46.3/51	49.7/53.9/65	0.5/0.7/0.9	0.3/0.5/0.6
	2.6 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	32/32.2/32.6	28.5/31.7/34.6	21.5/26.2/29.3	-0.2/0/0.3	-1.1/-1/-0.7
	1.9 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	32/32.2/32.6	19.9/25.1/31.5	11.3/12.9/19.8	-0.5/-0.3/0	-1.7/-1.5/-1.3
Net CO <sub>2</sub> FF&I	Baseline	32/32.3/32.6	42.8/46.6/50.4	48.3/55.4/64.1	0.5/0.7/0.9	0.3/0.5/0.6
	2.6 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	32/32.2/32.6	27/31.2/34.4	13.4/15.1/19.3	-0.3/-0.1/0.1	-1.8/-1.5/-1.2
	1.9 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	32/32.2/32.6	18.7/24.7/29.9	1.6/3.2/6.3	-0.7/-0.4/-0.1	-2.4/-2/-1.8
CO <sub>2</sub> LULUCF	Baseline	3.3/3.6/5.4	1.6/2.7/4.8	0.5/1.7/3	-0.1/-0.1/-0.1	-0.1/-0.1/0
	2.6 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	3.3/3.6/5	-0.2/0.2/1.6	-2/-0.9/0.5	-0.2/-0.2/-0.2	-0.3/-0.2/-0.1
	1.9 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	3.3/3.6/4.8	-0.1/0.7/1.6	-3.5/-1.1/0.9	-0.2/-0.2/-0.1	-0.4/-0.2/-0.1
Fossil CCS	Baseline	0/0/0	0/0/0	0/0/0	0/0/0	0/0/0
	2.6 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	0/0/0	0.2/0.5/1.2	2/4.3/10.1	0/0/0.1	0.1/0.2/0.4
	1.9 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	0/0/0	0.6/1.1/1.5	2/4.9/7.4	0/0.1/0.1	0.1/0.1/0.3
BECCS	Baseline	0/0/0	0/0/0	0/0/0	0/0/0	0/0/0
	2.6 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	0/0/0	0/0.2/0.3	1.6/3.5/5.6	0/0/0.1	0.1/0.2/0.3
	1.9 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	0/0/0	0.3/0.5/1.2	4.1/5.3/11.4	0/0/0.1	0.2/0.3/0.6
Net CO <sub>2</sub>	Baseline	35.6/35.8/37.8	45.5/49.6/54.6	47.7/59.8/65.8	0.4/0.7/0.9	0.2/0.4/0.6
	2.6 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	35.6/35.8/37.2	28/31.2/35	11.8/13.8/17.8	-0.5/-0.3/-0.1	-1.9/-1.6/-1.4
	1.9 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	35.6/35.8/36.8	18.4/23.7/29.9	-0.4/1.8/3.6	-0.9/-0.8/-0.3	-2.7/-2.2/-2
Net GHG	Baseline	48.4/49.1/50.9	61.1/67.7/72.3	65.9/79.8/87.8	0.6/0.9/1.1	0.3/0.6/0.8
	2.6 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	48.4/49.1/50.5	38/41.4/46.1	19.6/21.9/27	-0.6/-0.4/-0.2	-2.4/-2.1/-1.7
	1.9 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	48.4/49.1/50.4	25/33.6/40.6	5/9.2/10.7	-1.2/-0.9/-0.5	-3.2/-2.7/-2.5

1  
2 Stringent mitigation pathways are characterised by emissions reductions of all GHGs (Clarke et al.  
3 2014). Despite the limited mitigation options for some non-CO<sub>2</sub> GHG emissions (particularly the case  
4 for N<sub>2</sub>O, see Figure 2.10) (Gernaat et al. 2015), global GHG emissions are reduced strongly by about  
5 80% relative to their 2010 levels in 2050. Net CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in 2030 and 2050 are markedly lower in  
6 1.5°C scenarios than in 2°C scenarios. This is much less the case for methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and nitrous-oxide  
7 (N<sub>2</sub>O) emissions. AR5 identified two primary factors that influence the depth and timing of reductions  
8 in emissions of non-CO<sub>2</sub> Kyoto gases: (1) the abatement potential and costs of reducing the emissions  
9 of these gases and (2) the strategies that allow making trade-offs between them (Clarke et al. 2014).  
10 Many studies indicate many low-cost mitigation options for non-CO<sub>2</sub> gases in the near term compared  
11 to supply side measures for CO<sub>2</sub> mitigation (Clarke et al. 2014). A large share of this potential is hence  
12 already exploited in weaker mitigation scenarios in line with 2°C. At the same time, by mid-century  
13 and beyond, the emissions reductions of non-CO<sub>2</sub> Kyoto gases, in particular CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O, are  
14 hampered by the residual emissions of several hard-to-mitigate emissions sources linked to livestock  
15 production and fertilizer use (Clarke et al. 2014; Gernaat et al. 2015). This results in reductions of CO<sub>2</sub>  
16 taking up the largest share of emissions reductions when moving between a 1.5°C and a 2°C pathway.  
17  
18 Besides CO<sub>2</sub> and other well-mixed GHGs, radiatively active particles (aerosols) and their precursors as  
19 well as ozone precursors are strongly mitigated in 1.5°C scenarios. The particles include both types  
20 that cause warming and cooling, whereas ozone (in the troposphere) causes warming (Myhre et al.  
21 2013). Reductions in aerosols can have substantial benefits for decreasing regional climate disruptions  
22 and reductions in both surface aerosols and ozone also provide health co-benefits as air pollution is  
23 reduced (Shindell et al. 2012; Anenberg et al. 2012). In some cases, important sources of these air

1 pollutants such as traditional biomass burning stoves or kerosene lamps would be unaffected by  
 2 climate policies. The overall reduction in emissions of these short-lived climate forcers can have  
 3 effects of either sign on temperature depending on the balance between cooling and warming agents,  
 4 prompting suggestions to target the warming agents (referred to as short-lived climate pollutants or  
 5 SLCPs; e.g., (Shindell et al. 2012). In terms of their global climate effects, however, reductions are  
 6 already so strong in stringent mitigation scenarios in line with 1.5°C that estimated additional climate  
 7 cooling from measures that aim at reducing warming aerosols would be very limited (Rogelj et al.  
 8 2014a). Because the dominant sources of warming aerosol mixtures are emitted during the combustion  
 9 of fossil fuels (Bond et al. 2013), the rapid phase-out of unabated fossil-fuels would also result in  
 10 removal of these short-lived climate forcers. Some caveats apply, e.g., if residential biomass use  
 11 would be encouraged in industrialised countries in stringent mitigation pathways without appropriate  
 12 pollution control measures, aerosol concentrations could also increase. Similarly, many proposed  
 13 measure to target the shorter-lived GHG methane are included in 1.5°C scenarios (Figure 2.10; though  
 14 some, such as intermittent irrigation of rice paddies, not always). Hence as pointed out previously,  
 15 both 2°C and 1.5°C scenarios require large reductions in short-lived climate forcers. In such cases, the  
 16 large reduction in mainly cooling aerosol precursors (sulphur dioxide and nitrogen dioxide) can results  
 17 in additional warming, making reduction of all SLCF components all the more imperative to keep  
 18 near-term global mean temperature rise limited. Action on SLCPs has also been suggested to facilitate  
 19 achievement of the sustainable development goals (Shindell et al. 2017a). Public health benefits of  
 20 stringent mitigation pathways in line with 1.5°C can be sizeable and potentially larger than the initial  
 21 mitigation costs (West et al. 2013).



24  
 25 **Figure 2.10:** Evolution global GHG emissions until mid-century in no-climate policy baselines (grey), 2°C  
 26 scenarios (2.6 Wm<sup>-2</sup> scenarios, green), 1.5°C scenarios (1.9 Wm<sup>-2</sup> scenarios, blue). Ranges show  
 27 the minimum-maximum range. Dots indicate single scenarios. Data from (Riahi et al. 2017; Rogelj  
 28 et al. 2017a). [Note: these ranges will be updated as more studies and scenarios are submitted and  
 29 become available for assessment.] The various panels show: (top-left) CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, (top-right)  
 30 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, (bottom-left) F-gas emissions, (bottom-right) net global total GHG emissions. Net  
 31 GHG emissions are expressed in units of CO<sub>2</sub>-equivalence computed with 100-year Global  
 32 Warming Potentials reported in IPCC AR4. In further iterations, this figure will use the pathway  
 33 typologies introduced in Section 2.2.



## 2.3.4 Disentangling the whole-system transformation

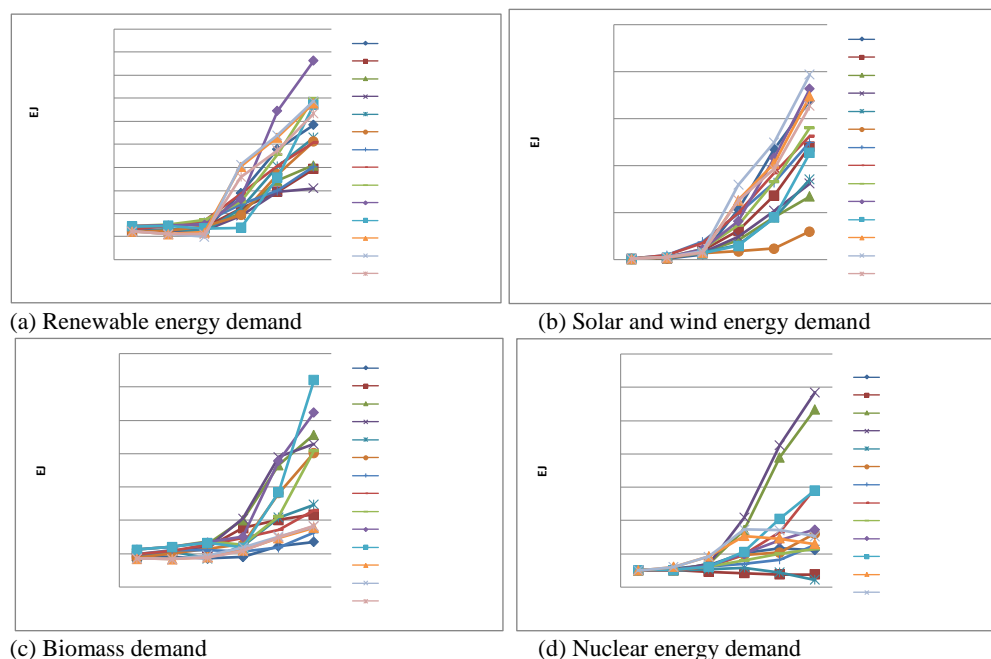
### 2.3.4.1 Energy

Energy transitions play a key role in low CO<sub>2</sub> emission pathways (Clarke et al. 2014; Bruckner et al. 2014). In mitigation pathways consistent with the 1.5°C target, a rapid transition towards a zero or negative CO<sub>2</sub> emission energy system is crucial (Rogelj et al. 2015a). Compared with the 2°C threshold, both the pace and magnitude of the energy transition are more rapid under the 1.5°C target. Two aspects are typically emphasised in 1.5°C pathways: one is rapid growth in the share of energy derived from low carbon sources including renewables, nuclear, and fossil fuel with CCS, the other is BECCS which can provide carbon dioxide removal. For both aspects, the rate of change and the required spending are important potential hurdles.

#### 2.3.4.1.1 Evolution of primary energy contributions over time

Based on the mitigation pathways consistent with the 1.5°C target from the scenario database, CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from energy supply would need to decline to zero sometime between 2030 and 2060, with continued large decreases thereafter. Among the IAMs, the WITCH model reaches negative emissions soonest, by 2030, while the AIM model is latest at 2050 to 2060.

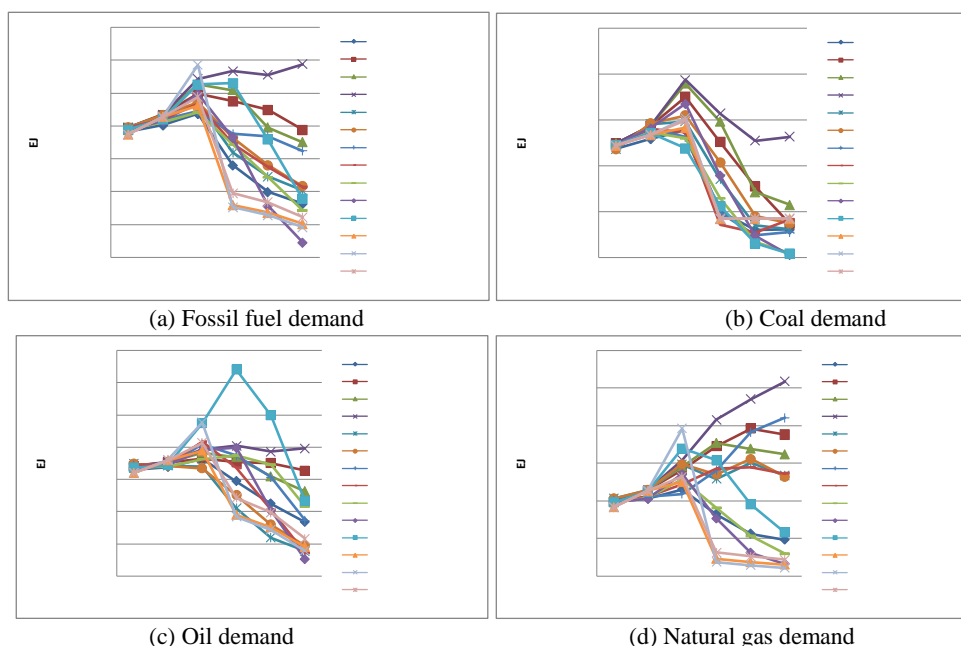
Renewable energy, including biomass, hydro, solar, wind, and geothermal, develops rapidly in all 1.5°C scenarios (Table 2.8). By 2050, renewable energy provides more than half of total primary energy (Figure 2.11), with the largest portion from biomass fuels. Wind and solar together, however, provide nearly as much energy, and have a much faster projected annual growth rate over 2020-2050. Nuclear power exhibits a moderate increase in the future for the average of these scenarios. In some mitigation pathways, however, both the absolute capacity and share of power from nuclear generators declines.



**Figure 2.11:** Low carbon energy penetration in 1.5°C scenarios. Data from (Riahi et al. 2017; Rogelj et al. 2017a). 1.9 W m<sup>-2</sup> scenarios are taken as a proxy for 1.5°C scenarios.

Overall use of fossil fuels to provide energy decreases rapidly after 2020 in nearly all 1.5°C scenarios, although there are variations between specific fossil fuel types. In particular, coal demand reduction is much faster than that for fossil fuel as whole. Combined with the growth of non-fossil energy, coal's share of energy decreases from slightly more than one-quarter of global supply in 2020 to just under 7% in 2050. Before 2050, Natural gas is more complex, with demand through 2050 highly diverse across scenarios. Some show rapid decreases after 2020, whereas in others demand continues

1 increasing through 2050 (see Figure 2.12). Scenarios with higher demand for natural gas adopt CCS  
 2 for natural gas use. Like coal, oil demand decreases in these scenarios and its share of global primary  
 3 energy drops by more than half.  
 4



5  
6  
7  
8  
9 **Figure 2.12:** Fossil fuel energy demand transition in 1.5°C scenarios. Data from (Riahi et al. 2017; Rogelj et al.  
 10 2017a). 1.9 W m-2 scenarios are taken as a proxy for 1.5°C scenarios.

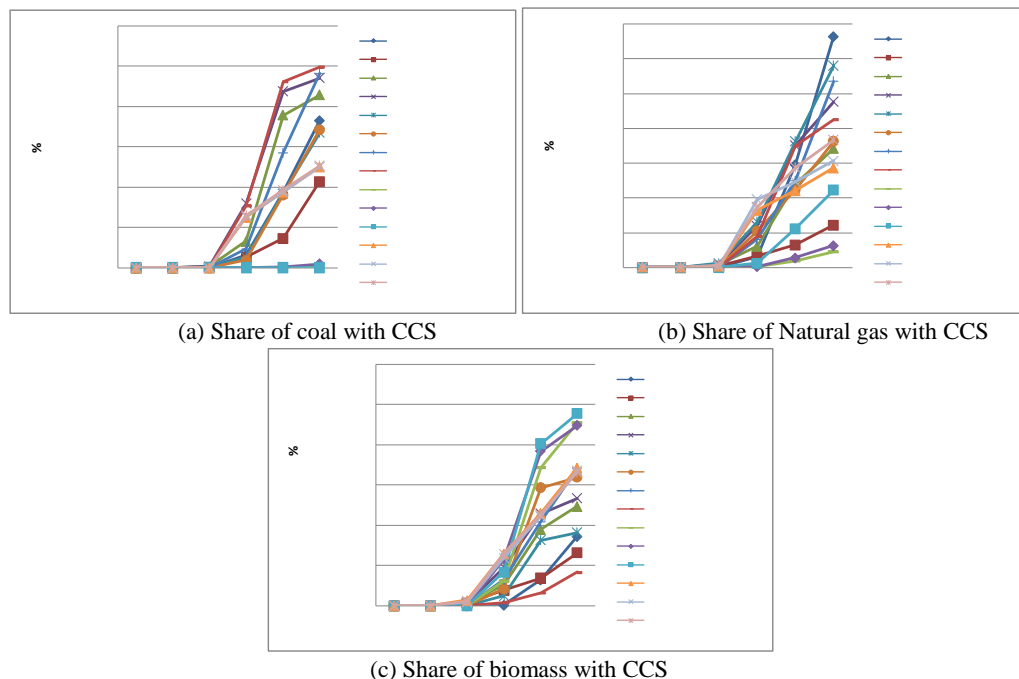
11  
12  
13 **Table 2.8:** Overview of energy supply system transformation characteristic. Data from (Riahi et al. 2017;  
 14 Rogelj et al. 2017a). (Note: these ranges will be updated as more studies and scenarios are  
 15 submitted and become available). Values indicate means, bracketed values the minimum maximum  
 16 range.

	2020 Share (%)	2050 Share (%)	2020 Demand (EJ)	2050 Demand (EJ)	Annual growth (%)
Renewables	13.6 (9.9 to 16.2)	56.2 (30.9 to 86.3)	79 (63 to 95)	311 (230 to 491)	4.7
Wind+Solar	1.6 (1.0 to 3.5)	24.4 (7.9 to 44.4)	9 (5 to 17)	127 (67 to 197)	9.5
Biomass	9.5 (6.8 to 12.8)	26.8 (15.2 to 45.8)	55(42 to 68)	156 (67 to 310)	3.5
Nuclear	2.3 (1.5 to 3.4)	6.6 (0.7 to 13.8)	13 (9 to 18)	42 (4 to 117)	3.9
Fossil Fuels	84.2	40.3	489 (435 to 585)	223 (44 to 587)	-2.6
Coal	26.2	6.9	152 (130 to 193)	38 (2 to 131)	-4.5
Oil	33.7	15.2	196 (166 to 237)	84 (36 to 197)	-2.8
Gas	24.8	16.5%	141(115 to 195)	101(11 to 258)	-1.1%

17  
18  
19 **2.3.4.1.2 Deployment of CCS**

20 Deployment of CCS plays a very important role in CO<sub>2</sub> emission reductions in mitigation pathways  
 21 consistent with 1.5°C. The carbon budget limitation requires a rapid implementation of CCS, soon  
 22 after 2020. In scenarios with substantial remaining use of coal for energy, the bulk of that usage needs  
 23 to be equipped with CCS (Figure 2.13(a)). Specifically, more than 70% (42.7% to 99.6%) of coal will  
 24 be equipped with CCS, with an annual 1.1EJ yr<sup>-1</sup> increase from 2020 to 2050. Some models consider  
 25 the residual emissions that are not captured when using coal with CCS to be too high for 1.5°C  
 26 scenarios. These scenarios show very small CCS for coal (for example, the 1.5°C REMIND-MAgPIE  
 27 scenarios) and a have very fast phase out of coal use over the next few decades. Similarly to coal,  
 28 when natural gas consumption is substantial in these scenarios much of it will be equipped with CCS  
 29 after 2020 (see Figure 2.13(c)). By 2050, natural gas with CCS would be 39%, though with a larger

1 spread than for coal. As for coal, scenarios with higher natural gas demand require higher penetration  
 2 of CCS, while lower demand scenarios are able to achieve 1.5°C with lower rates of CCS utilisation.  
 3  
 4

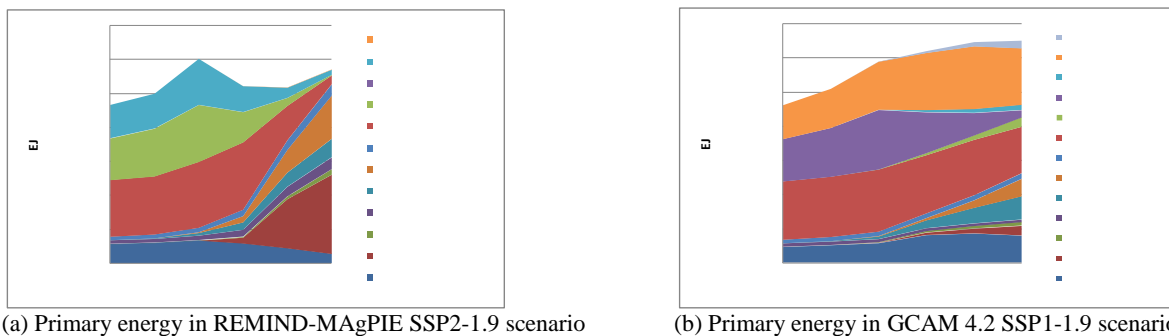


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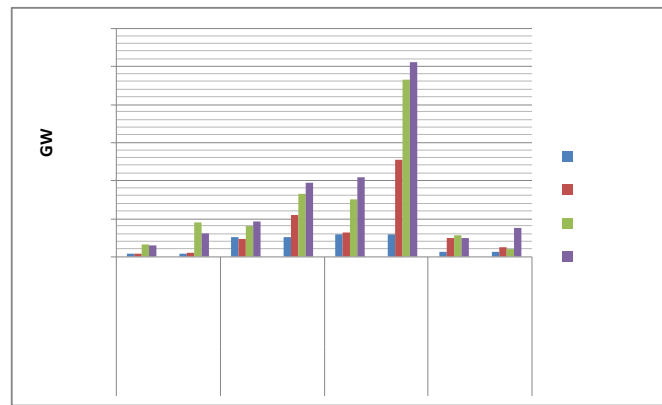
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9 **Figure 2.13:** CCS deployment in 1.5°C scenarios. Data from (Riahi et al. 2017; Rogelj et al. 2017a). 1.9 W m-2  
 10 scenarios are taken as a proxy for 1.5°C scenarios.

11  
 12 In most scenarios, BECCS is a crucial technology in achieving the deep cuts of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions  
 13 required for the 1.5°C target. By 2050 BECCS is projected to take up 59% (17% to 95%) of total  
 14 biomass demand (see Figure 2.13(c)). Demand for BECCS would be 102 EJ yr<sup>-1</sup> (19 EJ yr<sup>-1</sup> to 296 EJ  
 15 yr<sup>-1</sup>) by 2050, on average nearly as much as wind and solar combined and nearly half as much as total  
 16 fossil fuel energy (and more than worldwide use of oil). Higher reliance on BECCS is associated with  
 17 higher fossil fuel demand, which requires much greater CO<sub>2</sub> emissions reductions from BECCS to  
 18 compensate for the fossil fuel-related emission. Higher BECCS scenarios hence have less pressure to  
 19 rapidly phase out fossil fuel use, but must deploy BECCS at very rapid speeds. Conversely, lower  
 20 BECCS scenarios have to phase out fossil fuels more rapidly, and focus on strongly limiting energy  
 21 demand. These trade-offs are illustrated in Figure 2.14, showing scenarios with similar carbon budgets  
 22 but in one case rapidly increasing the penetration of low carbon power generation such as renewables  
 23 and nuclear, and then relying less on BECCS and fossil fuel+CCS, whereas in the other there is a  
 24 slower phasing out of fossil fuels accompanied by much more BECCS and fossil fuel+CCS.  
 25  
 26



27  
28



(c) newly installed capacity per year

**Figure 2.14:** Variation in primary energy mixes between scenarios (a,b) and newly installed capacity per year (c). 1.9 W m<sup>-2</sup> scenarios are taken as a proxy for 1.5°C scenarios. Newly installed capacity per year for selected sources in 1.5°C scenarios. Data from (Riahi et al. 2017; Rogelj et al. 2017a).

### 2.3.4.1.3 Pace of change

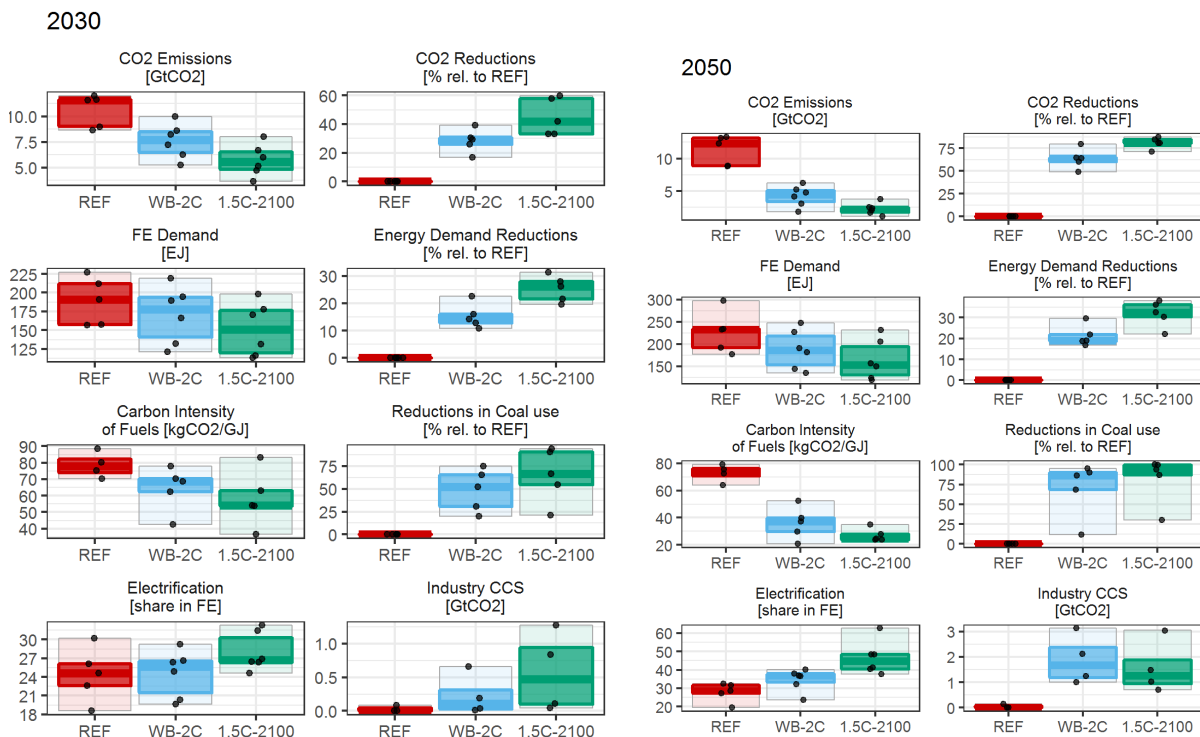
The power generation sector is the most important sector in the transition, and needs to transform at a rapid rate. Figure 2.14 presents the newly installed capacity per year for each decade until mid-century. Scenarios show a pace of newly installed capacity that goes much beyond today's development pace for all low-carbon power generation sources. Scenarios that rely on a full technology portfolio show that there is not a big increase in annual newly installed capacity for wind, solar and biomass between today and the 2020-2030 period. For nuclear power, however, these full portfolio scenarios assume a departure in near future. After 2030, all new capacity for low carbon power is installed a pace well beyond today's.

### 2.3.4.2 End-use sectors

#### 2.3.4.2.1 Industry

The industry sector is the largest end-use sector both in terms of final energy demand and greenhouse gas emissions. Its direct CO<sub>2</sub> emissions currently account for about 25% of total man-caused fossil fuel and process CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, and have increased with an average rate of 3.4% between 2000 and 2014, significantly faster than total CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (Hoesly et al. 2017). In addition to emissions from the combustion of fossil fuels, non-energy uses of fossils in petro-chemical industry and metal smelting, as well as non-fossil process emissions (e.g., from cement production) contribute to the sector's CO<sub>2</sub> emissions inventory. Industry-related emissions come from a large variety of activities. Material industries are particularly energy and emissions intensive: steel, non-ferrous metals, chemicals, non-metallic minerals and chemicals alone account for close to 50% of energy demand (IEA 2014a, 2015a), and 60% of direct industry sector emissions in 2010 (Fischedick et al. 2014). In terms of end uses, the bulk of energy in the manufacturing industries is required for process heating and steam generation, while most electricity (but smaller shares of total final energy) for industry is used for mechanical work (Banerjee et al. 2012; IEA 2017).

Only few studies analysed incremental mitigation efforts in the industry sector for 1.5°C consistent stabilisation compared to those in 2°C pathways (Luderer et al. 2016b; Rogelj et al. 2015a). They suggest that a major share of the additional emission reductions required for 1.5°C stabilisation beyond those in 2°C consistent pathways will have to come from industry. Like other demand sectors, industry contributes a relatively higher share to the additional CO<sub>2</sub> emission reductions for strengthening ambition to 1.5°C, as supply side emissions reductions are almost fully exploited already in 2°C-consistent stabilisation pathways (Rogelj et al. 2017a; Luderer et al. 2016b; Rogelj et al. 2015a).



**Figure 2.15:** Indicators of industry sector mitigation efforts in 2030 (left) and 2050 (right) for reference policy (REF), well below 2°C (WB-2C), and returning to below 1.5°C by the end of the century (1.5C-2100) scenarios assessed in the ADVANCE project (Luderer et al. 2016b).

Broadly speaking, the industry sector's mitigation measures can be categorized in terms of the following five strategies: (i) reductions in the demand of industrial products and materials, (ii) energy efficiency improvements in industrial production and processes, (iii) an increase of electrification of energy demand, (iv) Reducing of the fossil carbon content of non-electric fuels, and (v) application of carbon capture and storage. The potential mitigation contributions of these strategies as well as their limitations will be discussed in the following.

*[For the current draft, the scenario analysis is based on results from the ADVANCE project as well as IEA Energy Technology Perspectives 2017, and will be expanded to a wider scenario set for SOD.]*

#### (i) Reductions in the demand of industrial products and material efficiency

Economic growth, structural change towards a more material or more service intensive economy, as well as the evolution of lifestyles strongly affects industrial energy demand and related mitigation challenges (Riahi et al. 2017; Bauer et al. 2017). Beyond consumer demand reductions, material efficiency, i.e., providing material services with less overall material production, can contribute to moderating the industrial metabolism (Allwood et al. 2013). Material efficiency improvements can be brought about by design of longer-lasting and less material intensive products, as well as increased recycling (Allwood et al. 2011, 2013). Further research is required to quantify the potential contribution of material efficiency and material service demand reduction to climate change mitigation.

#### (ii) Energy efficiency improvements in industrial production

Bottom-up studies estimate an aggregate energy efficiency potentials for industry of about 25% (27% (Saygin et al. 2011) and 24% (Kermeli et al. 2014), respectively). Energy efficiency improvements are particularly important as short-term mitigation measures. IEA ETP estimates that energy efficiency measures account for 47% of the emissions reductions achieved unit 2030 in their beyond 2°C scenario.

1 Reaping energy efficiency potentials hinges critically on advanced management practices in industrial  
2 facilities such as energy management systems, as well as targeted policies to accelerate adoption of  
3 best available technology (IEA 2017).

4  
5 Similarly, energy demand reductions relative to reference policy trends amount to 26% (median, 22-  
6 28% interquartile range) in the ADVANCE 1.5°C scenarios by 2030, accounting for more than half of  
7 the CO<sub>2</sub> abatement achieved. By 2050, final energy demand reductions reach 32 (30-36) % in 1.5°C  
8 scenarios relative to a reference policies scenario, considerably higher than the 20 (20-22) % in the  
9 well-below 2°C scenarios (Figure 2.15). It is important to note that these energy demand reductions  
10 encompass both efficiency improvements in production as well as reductions in material demand as  
11 discussed above, as most models do not discern these two factors.

### 12 13 *(iii) Electrification of industry energy demand*

14 It is well understood that more rapid and deeper emission reductions can be achieved for electricity  
15 supply than for non-electric energy (Clarke et al. 2014; Krey et al. 2014b; Kriegler et al. 2014a). By  
16 mid-century, fossil CO<sub>2</sub> emissions per unit electricity have decreased by 80-90% in well-below 2°C  
17 pathways, and around 95% in 1.5°C-consistent scenarios (Luderer et al. 2016b). An accelerated  
18 electrification of industrial end uses thus becomes an increasingly powerful mitigation option. In the  
19 ADVANCE scenarios (Luderer et al. 2016b), the share of electricity reaches 45 (41-50) % by 2050 in  
20 1.5°C-consistent scenarios, compared to 37 (34-38) % in well-below 2°C scenarios and 29 (28-32) %  
21 under reference policies (Figure 2.15).

### 22 23 *(iv) Reducing the fossil carbon content of non-electric fuels*

24 In 1.5°C consistent scenarios, fossil carbon intensity of non-electric fuels consumed in industry  
25 decreases to ~30 kgCO<sub>2</sub> GJ<sup>-1</sup> by 2050, compared to 75 (66-80) kgCO<sub>2</sub> GJ<sup>-1</sup> under reference policies,  
26 and 40 (32-42) kgCO<sub>2</sub> GJ<sup>-1</sup> in the ADVANCE well-below 2°C scenarios. Considerable carbon  
27 intensity reductions are already achieved by 2030. This are largely reached by a rapid phase out of  
28 coal. In 2030, 1.5°C-scenarios have a 52 (30-63) % reduction in industrial coal consumption relative to  
29 reference policies. On the other hand, biomass becomes an increasingly important energy carrier in the  
30 industry sector in deep-decarbonisation scenarios, in particular in the longer term. In addition, in some  
31 scenarios also hydrogen plays a considerable role as a substitute for fossil-based non-electric energy  
32 demands.

### 33 34 *(v) Application of carbon capture and storage*

35 Many industrial processes, in particular in the steel, cement and chemical subsectors, can be combined  
36 with carbon capture and storage to limit the release of CO<sub>2</sub> to the atmosphere (UNIDO 2010).  
37 Integrated modelling studies that account for CCS in industry project a contribution of 0.9-3 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup>  
38 by 2050.

39  
40 Given project long-lead times and the need for technological innovation, early scale up of industry  
41 CCS is essential. In stark contrast to the potential importance of CCS for abating emissions for  
42 industrial activities, the development and demonstration of such projects has been slow. As of now,  
43 only two large-scale industrial CCS projects outside of oil and gas processing are in operation (Global  
44 CCS Institute 2016). Once mature, the bulk of industrial CCS applications is projected to have CO<sub>2</sub>  
45 avoidance costs of 30 \$ tCO<sub>2</sub><sup>-1</sup> or higher (Kuramochi et al. 2012). Carbon pricing is therefore a key  
46 prerequisite for mobilising its mitigation potential.

47  
48 All mitigation strategies discussed above have limitations. The scope for decreasing material inputs to  
49 the economy, and the willingness of consumers to pursue a less material-intensive lifestyle might be  
50 limited. Similarly, there are economic and thermodynamic limits to efficiency improvements (Saygin  
51 et al. 2011). Electrifying some energy services, most importantly high temperature heating, has a  
52 substantial exergy penalty as it converts a high-quality into a low-quality energy carrier, and thus  
53 reduces the overall efficiency of the system (Banerjee et al. 2012). Similarly, hydrogen is an imperfect  
54 substitute for non-electric fuels, and is also a relative expensive energy carrier if produced from  
55 renewable primary energy sources. The decarbonisation of final energy is also limited by the fact that

1 hydrocarbons often not only serve as energy sources, but also as material feedstocks to chemical  
2 processes. The industry sector competes with other demand sectors for a limited amount of sustainable  
3 biomass (Rose et al. 2013; Creutzig et al. 2015). Finally, there are practical limits to the deployment of  
4 carbon capture and storage in smaller industrial facilities, and even many of those installations  
5 equipped with CCS are likely to have significant residual emissions due to imperfect capture (UNIDO  
6 2010).

7  
8 Furthermore, the industrial sector is also one of the most important sources of HFCs (Velders et al.  
9 2015), which consequentially are also strongly reduced in stringent mitigation scenarios (Gernaat et al.  
10 2015), and recent studies have confirmed significant potentials for their reduction (Velders et al. 2015;  
11 Purohit and Höglund-Isaksson 2017). HFCs are being controlled under the Kigali Amendment to the  
12 Montreal Protocol, which mandates the phase-out of the consumption of these gases over the coming  
13 decades. Recent research estimates that compliance with the measures described in the amendment  
14 would lead to a reduction of HFC emissions of about 60% relative to a global pre-Kigali baseline  
15 (Höglund-Isaksson et al. 2017).

16  
17 As a consequence, integrated modelling studies that feature sectoral detail as well as sectoral studies  
18 suggest that no single mitigation option can serve as a silver bullet for reducing industry's emissions in  
19 line with 1.5-2°C stabilisation, but that rather most or even all of the above listed options will have to  
20 contribute. The available studies show that energy demand savings and the reduction of industrial coal  
21 use are near-term priorities for putting the industry sector on track for 1.5°C consistent  
22 decarbonisation. In the longer term also electrification, bioenergy as well as CCS play an increasingly  
23 important role.

#### 24 25 2.3.4.2.2 *Buildings*

26 In 2010 buildings accounted for 32% of total global final energy use, 19% of energy-related GHG  
27 emissions (including electricity-related), approximately one-third of black carbon emissions, and an  
28 eighth to a third of F-gases (Lucon et al. 2014). Greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions from the building  
29 sector have more than doubled since 1970 to reach 9.18 GtCO<sub>2</sub>eq yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2010, representing 25% of  
30 total emissions without the Agriculture, Forestry, and Land Use (AFOLU) sector; and 19% of all  
31 global 2010 GHG emissions (Lucon et al. 2014). When upstream electricity generation is taken into  
32 account, buildings are responsible for 26% of global energy-related CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in 2014. One-third  
33 of those total buildings-related emissions, or roughly 8% are from direct fossil fuel consumption ( IEA  
34 2017).

35  
36 Past growth of energy consumption is mainly driven by population and economic growth, with  
37 improved access to electricity, and higher use of electrical appliances and space cooling resulting from  
38 increasing living standards, especially in developing countries (Lucon et al. 2014). These trends will  
39 continue in the future and in 2050, energy consumption is projected to increase by 40-125% compared  
40 to 2010 in baseline scenarios in absence of climate policy. In middle-of-the-road baseline scenarios, an  
41 increase of 45-75% is projected. The IEA's 6DS scenario (IEA 2016) falls within this range with an  
42 increase of 60% compared to 2010. Energy consumption slows down, however, in 2°C and 1.5°C  
43 compatible scenarios, with a levels of 5 to 95% and -10 to 90%, respectively, compared to 2010 in  
44 2050. More detailed sectorial studies show similar trends (IEA 2014b, 2015b, 2016, 2017). This  
45 lowering in energy consumption in 1.5°C scenarios represents reductions of 10% (5-30% full range)  
46 compared to a no-climate policy baseline in 2050. Mitigation option are often more fully represented  
47 in sectorial models (Lucon et al. 2014), leading to estimated relative potential energy consumption  
48 reductions of 24% and more in 2050 (see Figure 2.16). This results in bottom-up sectorial studies  
49 estimating energy consumption in the building sector in 2030 and 2050 to be close to 2010 levels,  
50 already in 2°C consistent scenarios.

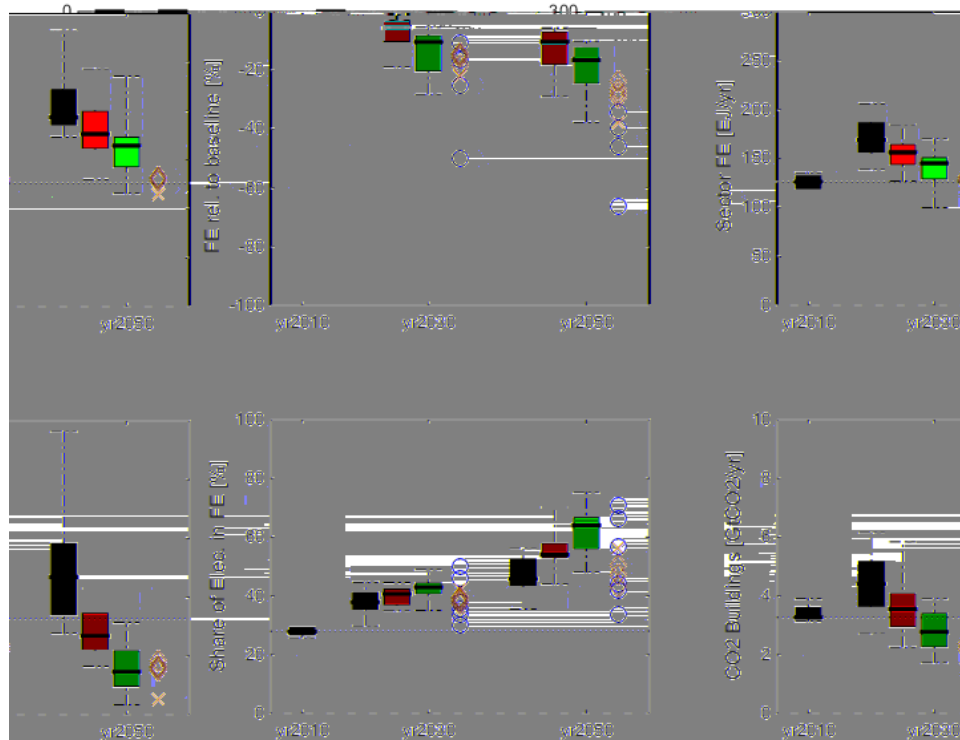
51  
52 In contrast to energy demand, CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from buildings clearly decrease in 1.5°C scenarios from  
53 their current levels due to a shift from fossil fuels to electricity. IAM scenarios see direct emissions in  
54 2030 and 2050 being reduced to roughly 2.8 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup> (median, 1.7-3.9 full range) and 1.5 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup>  
55 (median 0.3-3.1, full range) compared to their estimated 2010 levels of roughly 3.3 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup>.

1 Bottom-up studies from the IEA (IEA 2014b, 2015b, 2016, 2017) are situated at the bottom half of this  
2 range with their projections for 2°C consistent scenarios. These emissions reductions are driven by a  
3 clear tempering of energy demand and a strong electrification of the building sector (Figure 2.16).  
4 Globally integrated scenarios project an increase in the share of electricity in the final energy supply of  
5 the building sector from about 28% today to 43% (median, 35-49% full range) and 64% (median, 48-  
6 75% full range) by 2030 and 2050, respectively. Scenarios consistent with 1.5°C mainly distinguish  
7 themselves from 2°C consistent scenarios by means of a much stronger electrification of the building  
8 sector (Figure 2.16). This electrification contributes to the reduction of direct CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in the  
9 building sector by replacing carbon intensive alternatives, like oil and coal. Furthermore, when  
10 combined with a rapid decarbonisation of the power system (see Section 2.3.4.1) it also enables further  
11 reduction of indirect CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. In contrast to other dimensions, sectorial bottom-up models in  
12 general estimate lower electrification potentials for the building sector in comparison to global IAMs.  
13 Besides CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, air conditioning in buildings also leads to emissions of HFCs. These gases  
14 have high global warming potential yet contribute currently only a small amount to the overall  
15 warming. However, their projected future impact can be significantly mitigated through efficiency  
16 measures and switching of cooling gases (Shah et al. 2015; Purohit and Höglund-Isaksson 2017).  
17

18 The building sector is characterised by very long-living infrastructure and immediate steps are hence  
19 important to avoid lock-in of inefficient carbon and energy-intensive buildings. This applies both to  
20 new buildings in developing countries where the substantial new construction is expected in the near  
21 future and retrofit of existing building stock in developed regions. This represents both a significant  
22 risk and opportunity for mitigation (Lucon et al. 2014). These measures are included in the mitigation  
23 scenarios. A recent study highlights the benefits of deploying the most advanced renovation  
24 technologies. These might only become available on the market five years from now, but would avoid  
25 lock-in into less efficient measures (Güneralp et al. 2017). Aside from the effect of building envelope  
26 measures, adoption of energy-efficient technologies such as condensing boilers, heat pumps and more  
27 recently light-emitting diodes (LED) is also important for the reduction of energy and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (IEA 2017).  
28  
29

30 Behavioural literature indicates that reasonable CO<sub>2</sub> emission savings can be achieved in the near-term  
31 by relatively small changes. By the tenth year of national implementation, 3.39% of US emissions  
32 from residential buildings could be saved as compared to today by insulating buildings, sealing drafts,  
33 and installing efficient buildings in the US, another 1.72% could be saved by replacing inefficient  
34 HVAC (Heating, Ventilation, and Air Conditioning) equipment, 0.81% – improving HVAC  
35 maintenance, and 0.71% by setting back the thermostats (Dietz et al. 2009). Other studies have also  
36 indicated that CO<sub>2</sub> emission savings can be achieved by effective use of air conditioning and  
37 ventilation (Pellegrino et al. 2016; Jaboyedoff et al. 2004), intelligent (automated) thermostats for  
38 heating (Nägele et al. 2017), and potentially smart homes (Wilson et al. 2015).  
39  
40





**Figure 2.16:** Characteristics of the buildings sector in 1.5°C and related scenarios until mid-century. Data is shown for no-climate policy baselines (black), 2°C scenarios (2.6 Wm<sup>-2</sup> scenarios, green), and 1.5°C scenarios (1.9 Wm<sup>-2</sup> scenarios, blue). Whiskers show the minimum-maximum range, boxes the interquartile range, and horizontal black lines the median. Data from (Riahi et al. 2017; Rogelj et al. 2017a). [Note: these ranges will be updated as more studies and scenarios are submitted and become available for assessment.] Red circles are from single model studies as reported in Figures 6.37 and 6.38 of (Clarke et al. 2014). Green diamonds show results for ‘2DS’ scenarios (50% probability of staying below 2°C) from (IEA 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017). Green crosses show results for the ‘WB2DS’ (50% probability of staying below 1.75°C) from (IEA 2017). The various panels show: (top-left) final energy in the building sector compared to a no-climate policy baseline, (top-right) absolute final energy demand in the building sector, (bottom-left) share of electricity in final energy in the building sector (rate of electrification), and (bottom-right) global direct CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the building sector.

#### 2.3.4.2.3 Transport

Numerous transformation pathways have been developed in recent years to explore the question of how economy-wide greenhouse gas emissions could be reduced in line with the internationally agreed 2°C target (see, for example, Clarke et al. 2014; Sims et al. 2014; Lucon et al. 2014; Smith and Bustamante 2014). Yet, few of these studies investigate in a detailed way the transport sector’s role in such an effort. What is more, while these studies may give a perspective on what “well below 2°C” (with at least 66% likelihood) means for the sector, no in-depth transport study has yet been published examining the more stringent target of 1.5°C. This section assesses these studies to draw out robust insights for how global transport could slow the growth of and eventually reduce its emissions in a manner consistent with stringent global climate targets such as 2 or 1.5°C. Developing a better understanding of this sector’s role in meeting these targets is critical, given that over the past half-century the sector has witnessed faster emissions growth than any other (reaching 6.7 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2010 – direct emissions; approximately 23 % of total energy-related CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (Clarke et al. 2014).

Edelenbosch et al. 2016 carried out a multi-model inter-comparison study to understand the transport sector’s role in global mitigation efforts. Results from eleven whole-systems (integrated assessment and energy-economy) models indicate that in a mitigation scenario that aims to be compatible with

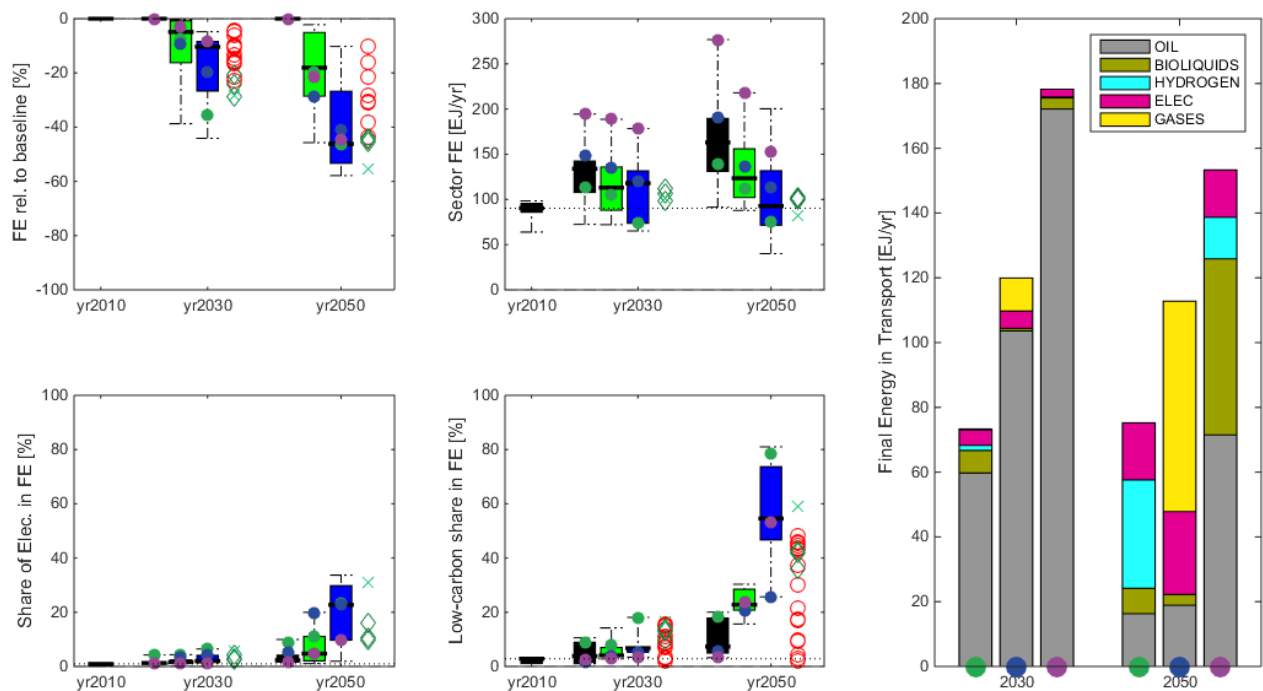
1 ‘well below 2°C’ (there assumed to be stabilisation of atmospheric concentrations of GHGs at 450  
2 ppm CO<sub>2</sub>-eq in 2100), passenger-related CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (thus excluding freight) range from 3.6 to 6.2  
3 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2030 and from 1.6 to 6.7 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2050 (compared to ~3.6 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2010). The  
4 International Energy Agency’s recently developed ‘B2DS’ pathway envisions a similar level of  
5 economy-wide mitigation stringency ( IEA 2017). For the entire transport sector, it estimates total  
6 emissions of 6.1 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2030 and 2.5 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2050, while for passenger transport the  
7 estimate is 1.5 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2050. Earlier, the IEA’s ‘2DS’ scenario estimated 3.8 and 2.8 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup>  
8 in 2030 and 2050, respectively, for passenger transport IEA 2014b). The mid-century projection from  
9 the IEA analysis is on the low end of the range of the IAM literature because the scenario, by design,  
10 looks at how far known clean energy technologies could go if pushed to their practical limits. Thus,  
11 according to these results from multiple models, there exists a fair amount of uncertainty regarding  
12 whether transport sector CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by mid-century need actually be lower than in 2010, even if in  
13 the period beyond 2050 models clearly show that they do (in some cases approaching zero). This  
14 uncertainty results from the systemic nature of the models/scenarios: each puts a different emphasis on  
15 sector-specific mitigation burdens, typically due to considerations of cost-effectiveness.

16  
17 Deep emissions reductions in the transport sector can be achieved by several means. Technology-  
18 focused measures such as energy efficiency and fuel-switching are two of these. Also important are  
19 behavioural measures such as mode-shifting and travel demand management. While the former  
20 solutions (technologies) tend always to figure into deep decarbonisation pathways in a major way, this  
21 is not always the case with the latter. Comparing different types of global transport models, (Yeh et al.  
22 2016) find that transport-only frameworks generally envision greater mitigation potential from  
23 behavioural solutions. Though, even there, it is primarily the switching of passengers and freight from  
24 less- to more-efficient travel modes (e.g., cars, trucks and airplanes to buses and trains) that is the  
25 main strategy; other actions, such as increasing vehicle load factors (occupancy rates) and outright  
26 reductions in travel demand (e.g., as a result of tele-commuting or integrated transport, land-use and  
27 urban planning), figure much less prominently. Whether these dynamics accurately reflect the actual  
28 mitigation potential of behavioural-related mitigation options is a point of debate. (Creutzig 2016), for  
29 instance, notes the diverse perspectives on transport mitigation solutions that are foreseen by different  
30 scientific communities.

31  
32 To give a better sense for how the different drivers of emissions compare in model-derived scenarios,  
33 Edelenbosch et al. 2016 carry out detailed decomposition analyses. The authors reveal that in well  
34 below 2°C scenarios the annual rate of change in CO<sub>2</sub> emissions due to activity growth is likely to be  
35 positive through mid-century (generally between +0.3 and +0.7% yr<sup>-1</sup>). In other words, even in  
36 stringent mitigation scenarios, demand for transport services may very well continue to grow  
37 considerably going forward, particularly in developing countries, albeit at rates slightly lower than  
38 what would otherwise be witnessed in scenarios with much weaker climate policy regimes. To  
39 counteract these CO<sub>2</sub>-increasing drivers, the global IAMs assessed by Edelenbosch et al. 2016 tend to  
40 rely heavily on energy intensity improvements (efficiency; CO<sub>2</sub> rate of change of -0.3 to -1.2% yr<sup>-1</sup>,  
41 thus at the high end of OECD countries’ historical experience) as well as switching to lower-carbon  
42 fuels (-0.2 to -1.2% yr<sup>-1</sup>, thus in sharp contrast to the historical experience). Meanwhile, structural  
43 changes in transport demand (mode-shifting) make a very minor contribution in the models (0 to  
44 +0.1% yr<sup>-1</sup> in most cases).

45  
46 Edelenbosch et al. 2016 show that in well below 2°C scenarios the share of fossil fuels in the total  
47 transport fuel mix could decrease to 84-94% by 2030 and to 46-87% by 2050 (down from about 95%  
48 at present). At the same time, the shares of hydrogen and electricity could rise to 0-6% (1-19%) in  
49 2030 (2050); and for biofuels 2-10% (7-46%). The IEA’s well below 2°C pathway is on the more  
50 ambitious side with respect to alternative fuels: it foresees a combined share of electricity, hydrogen  
51 and biofuels reaching 16% in 2030 and 59% in 2050. Hence, there is wide variation among scenarios  
52 regarding changes in the transport fuel mix over the first half of the century. Post-2050, however,  
53 more drastic changes are commonly seen. A critical uncertainty is how rapidly countries can overhaul  
54 their existing vehicle stocks and establish wholly new refuelling and recharging infrastructures.  
55 One study that has conducted a systematic analysis of the 1.5°C target is Rogelj et al. 2017a. And

1 while a detailed treatment of transport sector outcomes is not presented there, comparison of the  
 2 results is nevertheless insightful, particularly with respect to the different conditions under which the  
 3 1.5°C target can be reached (Figure 2.17). More specifically, as indicated in the figure below, transport  
 4 service, and thus fuel, demands could be considerably lower in an SSP1 world where policies to  
 5 promote efficient mobility are more successful. This stands in stark contrast to an SSP5 future, where  
 6 demands for people and goods movement grow much more quickly. In the latter case, oil-based fuels  
 7 continue to contribute a significant share of the fuel mix by mid-century simply because advanced  
 8 vehicles powered by low-carbon fuels are only able to scale up so quickly. In a world of lower  
 9 demand, deployment of these new technologies can make a relatively larger contribution to the fuel  
 10 mix.  
 11



12  
 13  
 14 **Figure 2.17:** Characteristics of the transport sector in 1.5°C and related scenarios until mid-century. Small  
 15 panels on the left hand side and in the middle show data for no-climate policy baselines (black),  
 16 2°C scenarios (2.6 Wm<sup>-2</sup> scenarios, green), 1.5°C scenarios (1.9 Wm<sup>-2</sup> scenarios, blue). Whiskers  
 17 show the minimum-maximum range, boxes the interquartile range, and horizontal black lines the  
 18 median. Dots indicate single scenarios highlighted in the panel on the right. Data from (Riahi et al.  
 19 2017; Rogelj et al. 2017a). [Note: these ranges will be updated as more studies and scenarios are  
 20 submitted and become available for assessment.] Red circles are from single model studies as  
 21 reported in Figures 6.37 and 6.38 of (Clarke et al. 2014). Green diamonds show results for ‘2DS’  
 22 scenarios (50% probability of staying below 2°C) from (IEA 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017). Green  
 23 crosses show results for the ‘B2DS’ (50% probability of staying below 1.75°C) from (IEA 2017).  
 24 The various panels show: (top-left) final energy in the transport sector compared to a no-climate  
 25 policy baseline, (top-middle) absolute final energy demand in the transport sector, (bottom-left)  
 26 share of electricity in final energy in the transport sector (rate of electrification), (bottom-middle)  
 27 share of low-carbon fuels in final energy in the transport sector (includes electricity, hydrogen and  
 28 biofuels), and (right) portfolios of final energy in 1.5°C consistent scenarios for three pathway  
 29 types (here: IMAGE SSP1-19 – green dot, MESSAGE-GLOBIOM SSP2-19 – blue dot, REMIND-  
 30 MAgPIE SSP5-19 – purple dot). “Gases” also include biogas.

33 In addition to the system perspective (either at a sector or economy-wide level) provided by the  
 34 modelling studies assessed above, the sociotechnical literature provides insights into potential  
 35 measures and reductions. This literature focuses at local scales with only a limited number of insights  
 36 that can be generalised outside of their original context. Nevertheless, sociotechnical studies allow one  
 37 to understand the potential at the local scale of aspects of behavioural change. Measures at the

1 household level, like switching to fuel-efficient vehicles and low resistance tires, changing driving  
2 behaviour, and improving motor vehicle maintenance are reported to have the potential to lead to  
3 6.1%, 1.2%, and 0.7% savings in US household direct emissions (Dietz et al. 2009). Switching from  
4 car and motorcycles to either walking or cycling would lead to 62% and 52% savings in transportation  
5 emissions in London and Delhi respectively (Woodcock et al. 2009). Finally, the sociotechnical  
6 literature found that employer-based commuting and telecommuting to work could save 4-6% and 48-  
7 77% of vehicle kilometres travelled in the US (Salon et al. 2012).

8  
9 Going beyond ‘well below 2°C’ in the direction of 1.5°C will require an acceleration of the mitigation  
10 solutions already featured in the deep decarbonisation pathways discussed above (e.g., more efficient  
11 vehicle technologies operating on lower-carbon fuels), as well as those having received lesser attention  
12 in most global transport decarbonisation pathways up to now (e.g., mode-shifting and travel demand  
13 management) (Kauppila et al.). Low-emitting automated vehicles combined with a high degree of on-  
14 demand ride-sharing could also be critical to bridging the gap between 2 and 1.5°C while still allowing  
15 individuals’ travel needs to be adequately served (Kauppila et al.). Current-generation, global scenario  
16 pathways generally do not include these newer transport sector developments, which in a sense  
17 leverage technological solutions to induce shifts in traveller behaviour. Complementing these  
18 mitigation solutions, Kauppila et al. note that a suite of policies and measures would need to be  
19 applied aggressively throughout the world in order to drive transport emissions down to levels  
20 consistent with a 1.5°C scenario, including, among others, strong and consistent pricing instruments  
21 (making parking and certain roads/zones more expensive, while lowering the cost of public transport);  
22 strict zone- or time-base vehicle restriction schemes in urban areas; integrated transport, land-use and  
23 urban planning; enhanced infrastructure for cycling/walking, electric vehicles, and public transit (e.g.,  
24 bus rapid transit); and information campaigns that promote cycling/walking and public transit.

25  
26 *[Note for SOD: No literature was found that explicitly speaks to mitigation of international bunkers in*  
27 *line with 1.5°C. If available this literature will be assessed here.]*

#### 28 29 2.3.4.3 Land-use transitions and changes in the agricultural sector

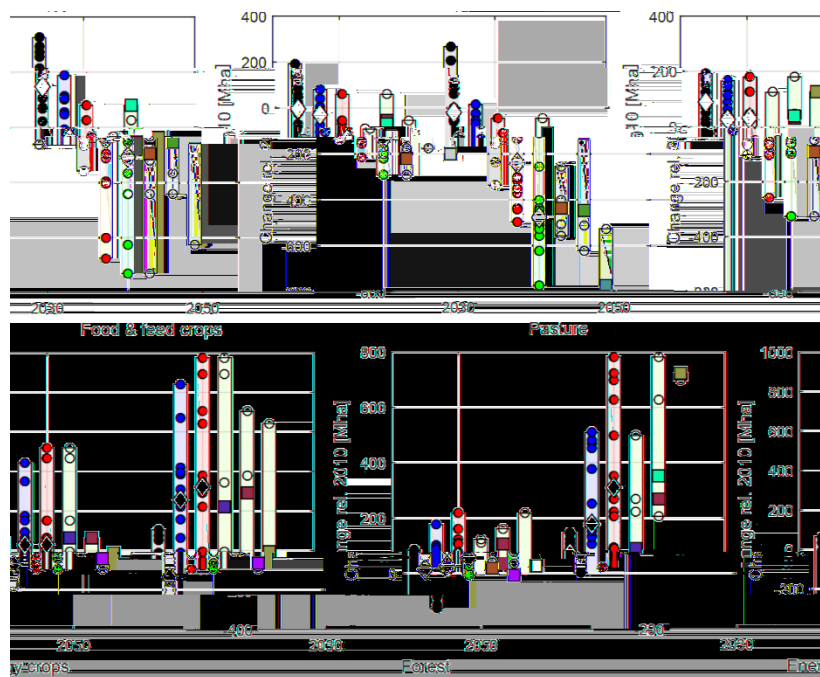
30 The agricultural and other land-use sector (AFOLU) plays an important and possibly essential role in  
31 stringent mitigation futures (Clarke et al. 2014; Smith and Bustamante 2014). On the one hand, its  
32 emissions need to be limited over the course of this century (see Section 2.3.3). On the other hand, the  
33 AFOLU sector has to meet the demands for food and feed of a growing global population, as well as  
34 supply biomass products for energy and other uses in a low-carbon society. Meeting both demands  
35 together - and this in combination with limits to overall emissions - will require changes in land use  
36 and agricultural as well as forestry practices. A multitude of options are available to achieve this  
37 (Smith and Bustamante 2014; Popp et al. 2017) (see also Chapter 4, Section 4.3). Here we make use of  
38 scenarios from integrated assessment models based on the quantifications of the Shared  
39 Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs) that produce distinct land-use evolutions in line with limiting  
40 warming to 1.5°C (Riahi et al. 2017; Popp et al. 2017; Rogelj et al. 2017a; Fujimori 2017; Calvin et al.  
41 2017; van Vuuren et al. 2017; Fricko et al. 2017; Kriegler et al. 2017).

42  
43 *[This assessment may be extended with insights from other modelling exercises, as they are submitted*  
44 *and become available for assessment during the writing of the SOD.]*

45  
46 Transitions and changes in land use until mid-century are a feature of the large majority of SSP  
47 scenarios, both in stringent mitigation scenarios and baseline scenarios in absence of climate action  
48 (Figure 2.18). In the latter case, changes are mainly due to socio-economic drivers like growing  
49 demands for food, feed and wood products. Moreover, transitions in scenarios consistent with a global  
50 mean temperature increase of 1.5°C differ from the baseline scenarios in their land-use change  
51 fingerprint, depending on the underlying socioeconomic factors and the interplay with mitigation in  
52 other sectors (Figure 2.18) (Popp et al. 2017; Riahi et al. 2017; Rogelj et al. 2017a).

53  
54 General transition trends can be identified for many land types in 1.5°C scenarios. Due to schemes that  
55 avoid deforestation, mitigation that demands land (such as biomass production for BECCS and

1 afforestation) is mainly taking place at the cost of agricultural land for food and feed production. Land  
 2 for 2<sup>nd</sup> generation energy crops expands by 2030 and 2050 in all available scenarios that assume a  
 3 cost-effective achievement of a 1.5°C temperature goal (Figure 2.18), but the scale depends strongly  
 4 on underlying socioeconomic assumptions (see later discussion of land pathway types). Avoided  
 5 deforestation restricts agricultural expansion and forest cover can expand strongly in 1.5°C and 2°C  
 6 scenarios alike compared to its extend in no-climate policy baselines due to the use of afforestation  
 7 and reforestation measures. However, the extent to which forest cover expands varies highly across  
 8 models. In some cases, forest cover is projected to stay virtually constant. This is due to whether  
 9 afforestation is included in these scenarios as a mitigation technology. As a consequence, pasture land  
 10 is generally reduced compared to both baselines in which no climate mitigation action is undertaken  
 11 and 2°C consistent scenarios. Furthermore, cropland for food and feed production decreases in most  
 12 1.5°C scenarios, both compared to a no-climate baseline and relative to 2010.  
 13



14  
 15 **Figure 2.18:** Overview of Land-Use Change transitions in 2030 and 2050, relative to 2010. Black: baseline;  
 16 green: 2.6 Wm-2 scenarios; blue: 1.9 Wm-2 scenarios. Pink: 1.9 Wm-2 scenarios grouped per  
 17 underlying socioeconomic assumption (from left to right: SSP1 (sustainability), SSP2 (middle-of-  
 18 the-road), SSP5 (fossil-fuelled development)). Ranges show the minimum-maximum range. Dots  
 19 indicate single scenarios. White diamonds the median across scenarios. Coloured squares in the  
 20 pink ranges indicate the position of the four land pathway types presented in Figure 2.19. Each  
 21 panel shows the changes for a different land type. 1.9 and 2.6 Wm-2 are taken as proxies for 1.5°C  
 22 and 2°C scenarios, respectively. Data from (Riahi et al. 2017; Rogelj et al. 2017a).  
 23

24 An important aspect of these land transitions is the pace at which they are projected to take place over  
 25 the coming decades in 1.5°C scenarios, especially in comparison to baseline scenarios without climate  
 26 change mitigation and historical transitions (Table 2.9). For instance, in 1.5°C scenarios between 2010  
 27 and 2030, pasture land is transformed at a pace of -15 to +3 Mha yr<sup>-1</sup> (full range across scenarios,  
 28 median: -7 Mha yr<sup>-1</sup>), cropland for food and feed production is expanding or contracting at a pace of  
 29 +9 to -16 Mha yr<sup>-1</sup> (median: 1.4 Mha yr<sup>-1</sup>), energy crops at 11 to 0 Mha yr<sup>-1</sup> (median: 3 Mha yr<sup>-1</sup>),  
 30 while forest cover changes at a pace of -5 to +26 Mha yr<sup>-1</sup>. In most cases, rates further increase for the  
 31 2030-2050 period. Decreasing pasture areas in 1.5°C scenarios are amplified prolongations of  
 32 historical (8.7 Mha yr<sup>-1</sup> for 1970-1990 and 0.9 Mha yr<sup>-1</sup> for 1990-2010) and baseline trends (median:  
 33 0.1 Mha yr<sup>-1</sup> for 2010-2030). Median total cropland increases in 1.5°C scenarios of 2.9 Mha yr<sup>-1</sup> (2010-  
 34 2030) and 5.1 Mha yr<sup>-1</sup> (2030-2050) are significantly higher than reported changes of 0.5 Mha yr<sup>-1</sup> for  
 35 the time span of 1990-2010 but similar to 1970-1990 (4.6 Mha yr<sup>-1</sup>). Forest cover increases due to

1 REDD+ measures in stringent mitigation scenarios is a reversed dynamic compared to historical and  
 2 baseline forest losses, and thus suggest that distinct policy and government measures would be needed  
 3 to achieve this.

4  
 5 Changes of the AFOLU sector are driven by three main factors: demand changes, efficiency of  
 6 production, and policy assumptions (Smith et al. 2013). Demand for agricultural products and other  
 7 land-based commodities is influenced by societal consumption patterns (including dietary preferences  
 8 and food waste affecting demand for food and feed), demand for forest products for pulp and  
 9 construction, and demand for biomass for energy production (Smith and Bustamante 2014; Lambin  
 10 and Meyfroidt 2011). Efficiency of agricultural production relates to improvements in agricultural  
 11 practices, agricultural yield increases as well as intensification of livestock production systems leading  
 12 to higher feed efficiency and changes in feed composition. Policy assumptions relate to the level of  
 13 land protection, the treatment of food waste, policy choices about the timing of mitigation action  
 14 (early vs late), the choice and preference of land-based mitigation options (for example, the inclusion  
 15 of afforestation and reforestation as mitigation options), and trade.

16  
 17  
 18 **Table 2.9:** Annual pace of land-use change in 1.5°C scenarios in Mha yr<sup>-1</sup>. Values: median [full range]. Based  
 19 on land use developments projected by integrated assessment models under the assumptions of the  
 20 Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (Popp et al. 2017; Riahi et al. 2017; Rogelj et al. 2017a). 1.9 and  
 21 2.6 Wm<sup>-2</sup> are taken as proxies for 1.5°C and 2°C scenarios, respectively. FAO data are from  
 22 (FAOSTAT 2017).  
 23

<b>Annual pace of land-use change</b>					
<b>[Mha yr<sup>-1</sup>]</b>					
<b>Land type</b>	<b>Scenario</b>	<b>Time window</b>		<b>Historical</b>	
		<b>2010-2030</b>	<b>2030-2050</b>	<b>1970-1990</b>	<b>1990-2010</b>
<b>Pasture</b>	1.9 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	-6.7 [-14.6/3.0]	-15.0 [-28.7/-1.9]	8.7	0.9
	2.6 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	-1.5 [-10.9/4.1]	-7.0 [-21.6/-0.7]	Permanent meadows and pastures (FAO)	Permanent meadows and pastures (FAO)
	Baseline	-0.1 [-6.9/9.7]	-1.5 [-9.9/9.0]		
<b>Cropland for food and feed</b>	1.9 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	1.4 [-16.4/9.0]	-7.8 [-18.2/2.1]		
	2.6 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	1.3 [-12.9/8.3]	-2.2 [-16.8/2.6]		
	Baseline	4.4 [-5.3/9.6]	3.4 [-2.7/6.7]		
<b>Cropland for energy</b>	1.9 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	2.9 [-0.3/10.8]	13.2 [3.5/34.8]		
	2.6 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	1.3 [0.3/8.8]	7.2 [0.9/22.9]		
	Baseline	0.8 [0.2/4.2]	1.5 [-0.2/3.4]		
<b>Total cropland (Sum of cropland for food and feed &amp; energy)</b>	1.9 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	5.4 [-10.2/12.8]	5.1 [-5.1/26.7]	4.6	0.9
	2.6 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	5.2 [-8.4/9.3]	4.4 [-7.1/17.8]	Arable land and Permanent crops (FAO)	Arable land and Permanent crops (FAO)
	Baseline	5.7 [-2.7/9.9]	4.8 [0.6/9.6]		
<b>Forest</b>	1.9 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	1.3 [-4.8/26.0]	10.6 [-1.2/32.9]	N.A.	-5.6
	2.6 Wm <sup>-2</sup>	1.4 [-4.7/22.2]	7.2 [-2.4/31.7]	Forest (FAO)	Forest (FAO)
	Baseline	-3.4 [-9.0/3.3]	-2.7 [-6.5/4.1]		

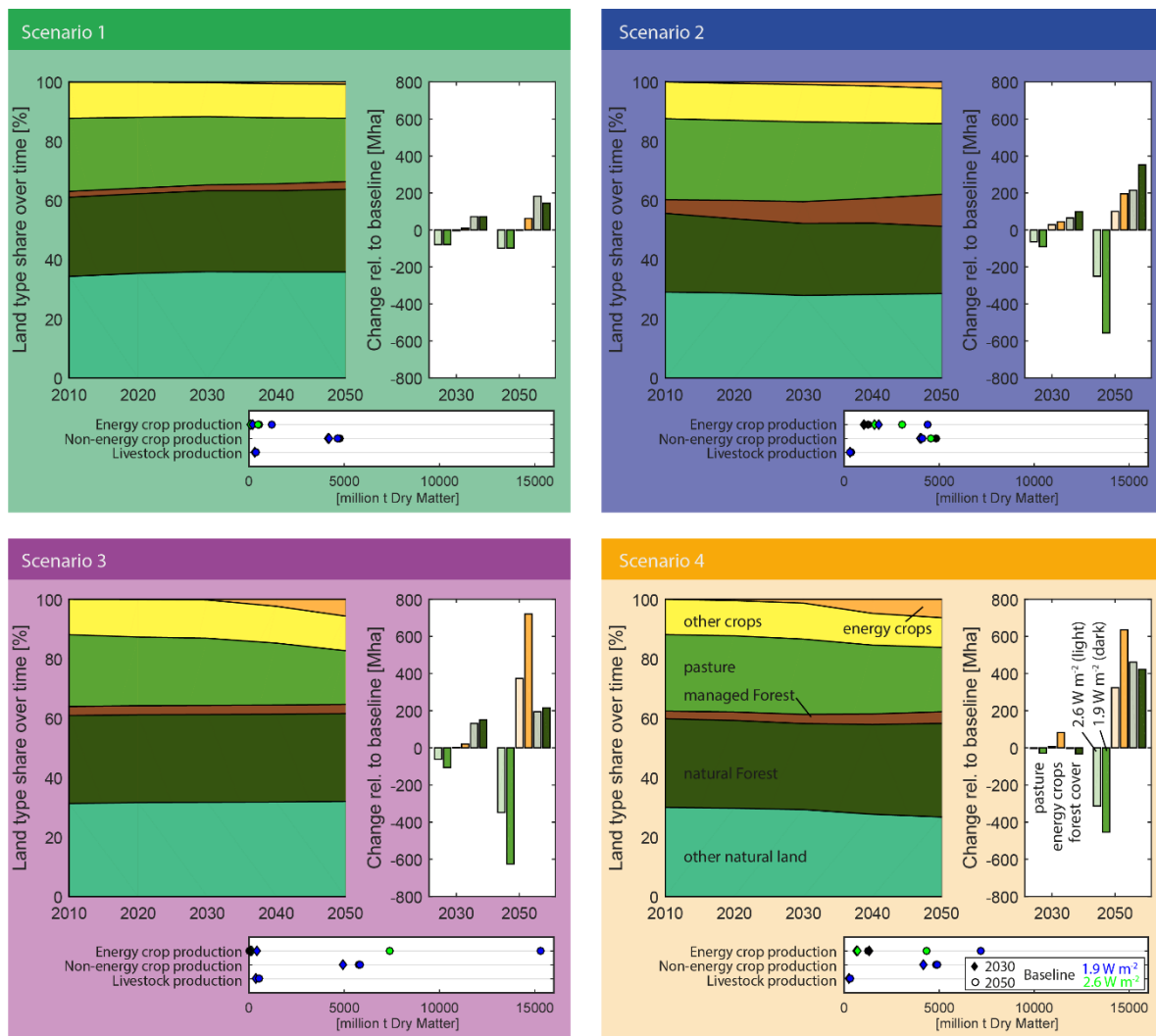
24  
 25 A recent study (Stevanović et al. 2017) finds that production (agricultural production measures in  
 26 combination with avoided deforestation) and consumption side (diet change in combination with lower  
 27 shares of food waste) measures have a similar reduction potential of 43–44% in 2100. For livestock  
 28 production, Weindl et al. demonstrate that lower consumption of livestock products can substantially  
 29 reduce deforestation (47-55%) and cumulative carbon losses (34-57%). On the supply side, already  
 30 minor productivity growth in extensive livestock production systems leads to substantial CO<sub>2</sub> emission  
 31 abatement, but the emission saving potential of productivity gains in intensive systems is limited,  
 32 mainly due to trade-offs with soil carbon stocks. In addition to that, Havlík et al. 2014 show that even

1 within existing livestock production systems, a transition from extensive to more productive systems  
2 bears substantial GHG abatement potential, while improving food availability. Wise et al. 2014 and  
3 Popp et al. 2014a highlight the need and capability of crop yield improvements for reducing land  
4 competition and resulting cropland expansion, resulting in significant decreases in terrestrial carbon  
5 dynamics. Ultimately, there are also interactions between these three factors and the wider society and  
6 economy. For instance, the availability of affordable carbon-dioxide removal technologies that are not  
7 land based (like direct air capture – DAC, see also Chapter 4, Section 4.3.6) or either the ability of  
8 other sectors to achieve their projected mitigation contributions (Clarke et al. 2014). Variations in  
9 these drivers can lead to drastically different land-use implications (Popp et al. 2014b) (Figure 2.19). It  
10 is worth reiterating that the IAMs do not include spatially resolved climate damages to agriculture, nor  
11 damages due to ozone exposure or the effects of varying indirect fertilization due to N deposition from  
12 the atmosphere (e.g., Shindell et al. 2012; Mahowald et al. 2017). These models may thus have  
13 difficulty adequately capturing the differences in crop productivity between scenarios and in particular  
14 may underestimate the benefits of emissions reductions, especially for non-CO<sub>2</sub> warming agents that  
15 do not cause carbon fertilization (Shindell 2016).

16  
17 Scenarios that are consistent with 1.5°C rely on one or more of the three strategies highlighted in the  
18 previous paragraph (demand changes, efficiency gains, and policy assumptions) when limiting  
19 emissions while meeting food, feed, wood products and energy needs.

20 For example, scenario 1 is based on assumptions of generally low resource and energy consumption  
21 (including healthy diets with low animal-calorie shares and low food waste) as well as significant  
22 agricultural intensification in combination with high levels of nature protection. In this land pathway  
23 type, also due to relatively low overall emissions in the baseline, comparably small amounts are  
24 needed for land demanding mitigation activities such as BECCS and afforestation. In scenario 2, by  
25 contrast, higher baseline emissions require more land based CDR, whereas land based biomass supply  
26 is provided by dedicated bioenergy crops and forest biomass supply (by 2050, about 15% of the  
27 required biomass comes from managed forests, which leads to a higher expansion of managed forests  
28 than in the other land pathway types). In contrast to scenario 1 (and also scenario 3) mitigation also  
29 works through the demand side in scenario 2 (not shown in Figure 2.19). By 2050, global food  
30 production is reduced to 10% compared to a no-climate policy baseline – for livestock products this  
31 number is almost doubled (18%). In contrast, scenario 3 is based on a resource- and energy-intensive  
32 future (including unhealthy diets with high animal shares and high shares of food waste) but also on a  
33 technology oriented future with high reliance on fossil fuel resources and associated high levels of  
34 GHG emissions in the baseline. In this land pathway type, climate change mitigation strategies are  
35 strongly based on the highly efficient CDR option BECCS (Humpenöder et al. 2014). As a  
36 consequence, significant amounts of biomass are provided by bioenergy crop expansion in  
37 combination with agricultural intensification. Scenario 4 relies on policy assumptions and options in  
38 its effort to reach 1.5°C. In particular, this scenario strongly relies, besides BECCS, on a policy to  
39 incentivise afforestation for CDR, and thus results in an expansion of natural forest area and a  
40 corresponding increase in terrestrial carbon stock.

41



**Figure 2.19:** Four land pathway types for land transitions consistent with 1.5°C. 1.9 and 2.6 Wm<sup>-2</sup> are taken as a proxy for 1.5°C and 2°C scenarios, respectively. Each square illustrates the characteristics of one particular land pathway type and shows: (a) a temporal evolution until 2050 of the share of various land types in 1.9 Wm<sup>-2</sup> scenarios; (b) change of land surface for three land types (pasture, energy crops, and forest cover) relative to a no-climate mitigation baseline for 2.6 Wm<sup>-2</sup> (lighter bars) and 1.9 Wm<sup>-2</sup> (darker bars) scenarios, respectively, in 2030 and 2050; (c) production indicators in 2030 (diamonds) and 2050 (circles) for the baseline, 2.6 Wm<sup>-2</sup> and, 1.9 Wm<sup>-2</sup> scenarios. Data from (Riahi et al. 2017; Rogelj et al. 2017a).

### 2.3.4.4 Mitigation portfolios and investments

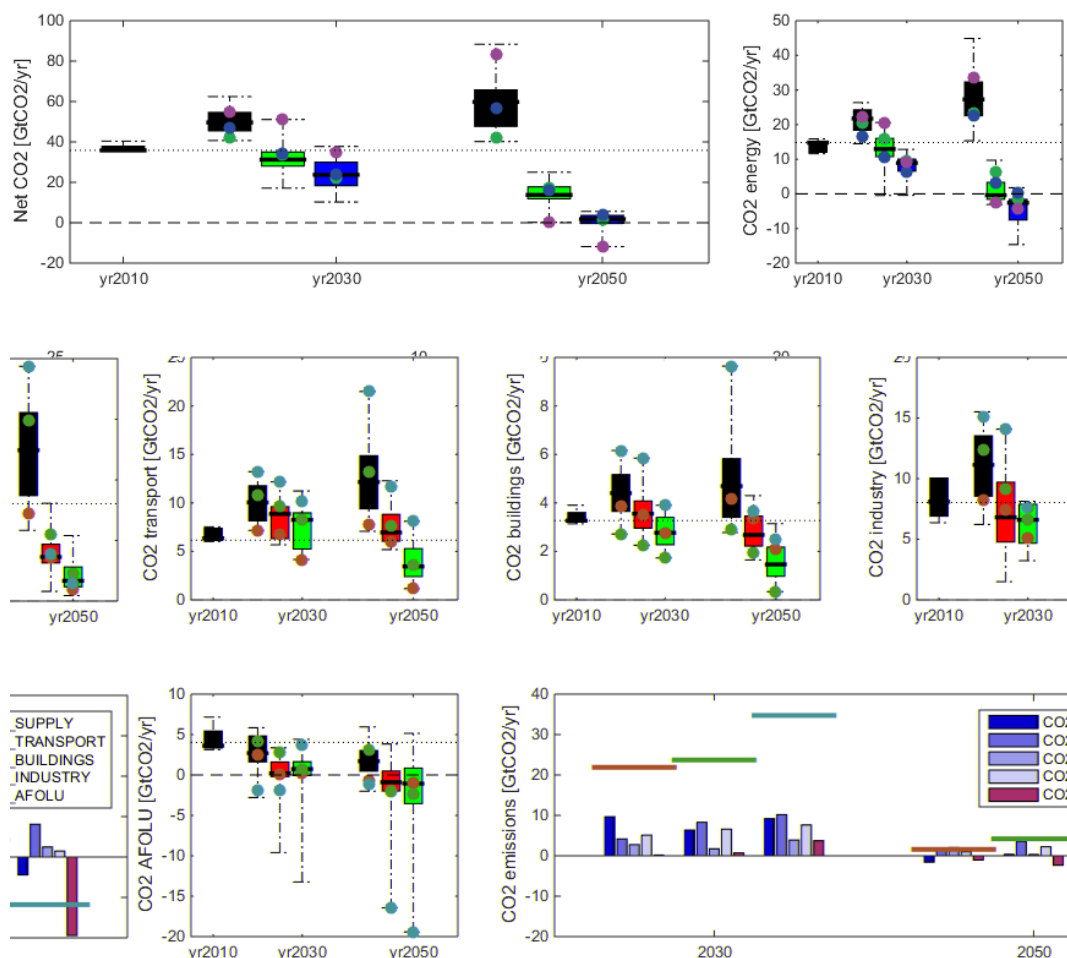
#### 2.3.4.4.1 Mitigation portfolios

Be it for the energy, transport, buildings, industrial, or AFOLU sector, the assessment in this section shows that multiple options and choices are available in each of these sectors to pursue a 1.5°C pathway. Because the overall emissions total under a pathway is limited by a geophysical carbon budget, choices in one sector affect the efforts that are required from others (Clarke et al. 2014). The impact of reduced (or improved) availability of key technologies on costs and achievability of stringent mitigation pathways has been explored with dedicated multi-model model studies for questions related to 2°C (Krey et al. 2014b; Kriegler et al. 2014a; Riahi et al. 2015). Similar studies are not available for questions related to 1.5°C, despite the availability of some single-model studies that explore this question tangentially (Luderer et al. 2013a; Rogelj et al. 2013). However, from the



1 scenarios available to this assessment, a set of possible 1.5°C consistent mitigation portfolios can be  
 2 identified (Figure 2.20), which differ between them in underlying socioeconomic assumptions and  
 3 models by which they are generated.

4  
 5 The choice of mitigation portfolio can have wide-ranging implications for the achievement of other  
 6 societal objectives. Only recently integrated studies have started to explore multiple societal objectives  
 7 (Clarke et al. 2014). This literature already suggest that decarbonisation and energy efficiency provide  
 8 near-term synergies with multiple other societal objectives, like energy security and air quality co-  
 9 benefits. However, it also highlights that these co-benefits are neither automatic nor assured but result  
 10 from conscious and carefully coordinated policies and implementation strategies (Clarke et al. 2014;  
 11 Shukla and Chaturvedi 2012). This highlights the importance of mitigation portfolio choices,  
 12 particular when also considering the achievement of sustainability objectives. Examples of mitigation  
 13 portfolios are illustrated in Figure 2.20 One scenario achieves the near-term transition until mid-  
 14 century through a strong emphasis on demand reductions through measures and policies that  
 15 incentivise behavioural change, sustainable consumption patterns, and healthy diets (green dots). This  
 16 results in emissions reductions in all sectors, limited amounts of residual emissions, and relatively low  
 17 use for carbon dioxide removal. This contrasts with an alternative scenario where energy and food  
 18 demand is high and emphasis is put on policies that attempt to reduce supply-side emissions through  
 19 technological means (purple dots). In this scenario, energy demand and associated emissions from  
 20 some end-use sectors, like the transport and the buildings sectors, are difficult to mitigation, requiring  
 21 large-scale deployment of carbon dioxide removal in the land-use sector. Each of these portfolios has  
 22 very different implications for the achievement of sustainable development objectives, as further  
 23 discussed in Section 2.5.



25  
 26 **Figure 2.20:** Overview of portfolios of contributions to achieve net CO2 emissions reductions in 1.5°C and  
 27 related scenarios until mid-century. Panels with box plots show data for no-climate policy  
 28 baselines (black), 2°C scenarios (2.6 Wm<sup>-2</sup> scenarios, green), 1.5°C scenarios (1.9 Wm<sup>-2</sup>

scenarios, blue). Whiskers show the minimum-maximum range, boxes the interquartile range, and horizontal black lines the median. Dots indicate single scenarios highlighted in the panel on the bottom right. Data from (Riahi et al. 2017; Rogelj et al. 2017a). [Note: these ranges will be updated as more studies and scenarios are submitted and become available for assessment. This figure could also contain a BECCS panel]. The various panels show: (top-left) not global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, (top-right) energy supply CO<sub>2</sub> emission, (middle row) CO<sub>2</sub> emissions of the transport, buildings and industry sector, respectively, (bottom-left) CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from AFOLU, and (bottom-right) portfolios of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in 1.5°C consistent scenarios for three pathway types (here: IMAGE SSP1-19 – green line, MESSAGE-GLOBIOM SSP2-19 – blue line, GCAM SSP5-19 – purple line). Coloured horizontal lines show net global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions for the respective scenarios. Coloured bars show sector contributions per scenario.

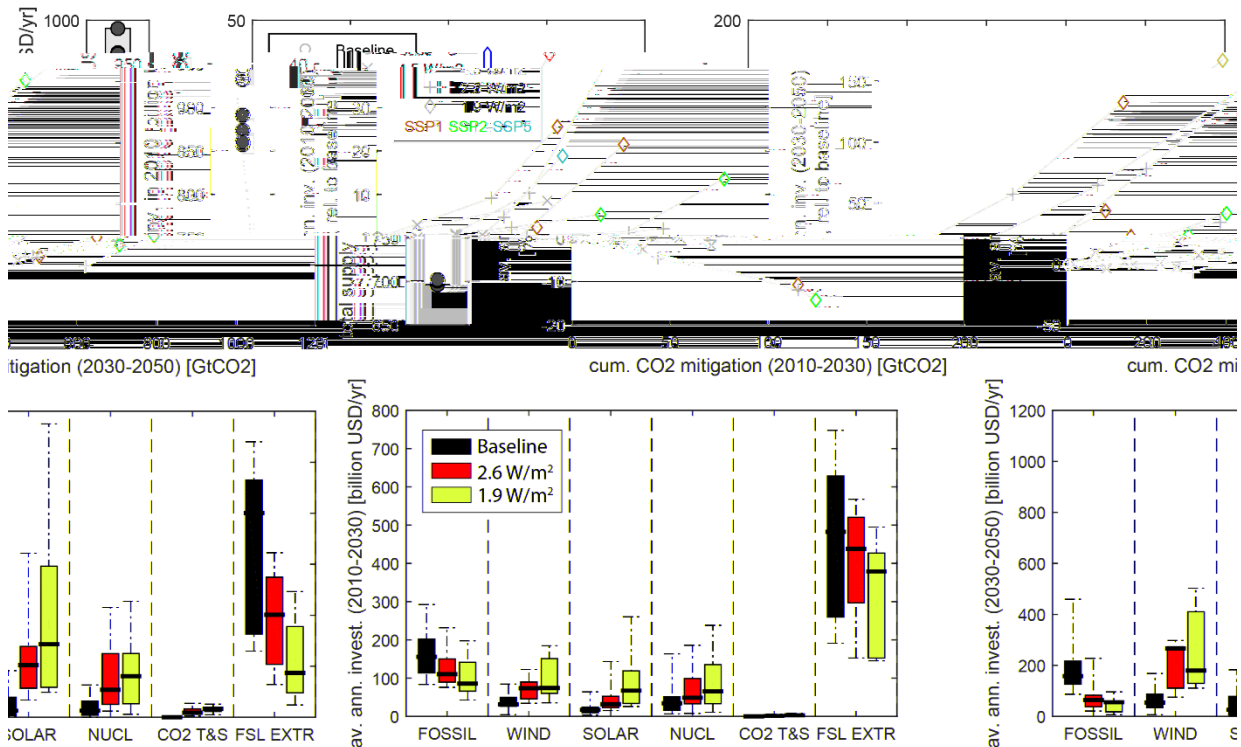
#### 2.3.4.4.2 Investments

Realising the transformations towards a 1.5°C world requires a significant shift in investment patterns. Literature on climate change mitigation investments is sparse, with most detailed literature still focusing on 2°C pathways (Clarke et al. 2014; McCollum et al. 2013; Bowen et al. 2014; Marangoni and Tavoni 2014). Estimates for historical supply-side energy system investment in the year 2010 vary from 0.7 to 1 trillion USD (in 2005 US dollar using market exchange rates, or roughly 1.5-2% of global GDP) in IAMs, with independent estimates from the Global Energy Assessment (Riahi et al. 2012) or approximated from the IEA (see McCollum et al. 2013) being situated at the higher end of this range. Estimates of demand-side investments are more uncertain, mainly due to a lack of reliable statistics and definitional issues about what exactly is counted towards a demand-side investment (McCollum et al. 2013). Grubler and Wilson (2014) use two working definitions, a broad and a narrow one, to provide a first order estimate of historical end-use technology investments. The broad definition defines end-use technologies as the technological systems purchasable by final consumers in order to provide a useful service, for example, heating and air conditioning systems, cars, freezers, or aircraft. The narrow definition sets the boundary at the specific energy-using components or subsystems of the larger end-use technologies, for example, a compressor, a car engine, a fan, or heating element. Based on these two definitions, demand-side energy investments for the year 2005 were estimated to be of the order of 1 to 3.5 trillion USD (central estimate 1.7 trillion USD) for the broad definition and 0.1 to 0.6 trillion USD (central estimate 0.3 trillion USD) for the narrow estimate. Due to these definitional issues, demand-side investment projections are uncertain, often underreported, and difficult to compare in an appropriate way.

Research carried out by six IAM teams in the framework of the LIMITS project found that climate policies in line with limiting warming to 2°C with >70% likelihood would require a significant upscaling of energy system supply-side investments reaching about 1.1 trillion USD annually between 2010 and 2050 (McCollum et al. 2013). The same literature also points towards the uncertainties in the exact size of current energy system investments. These uncertainties reappear in 1.5°C investment portfolios. Yet, some trends are discernible, based on the scenario set available in the database to this assessment. First, depending on the extent of energy demand reductions, average total supply-side investments over the next couple of decades can be either higher or lower than those in no-climate policy baselines (Figure 2.21). By mid-century average investments tend to increase in all available 1.5°C scenarios yet to very varying degrees (median: 40%, interquartile range: 20-140%). Model differences play a larger role in determining this uncertainty range than structured variations of socioeconomic assumptions in the available scenarios. Second, when looking at how investment flows are redirected when moving from a no climate policy baseline to a 1.5°C world, a clear shift away from investments in fossil fuel electricity (which includes fossil fuel electricity with CCS in its total) and fossil fuel extraction can be found. In 1.5°C pathways, median annual fossil fuel electricity investments over the 2010-2030 period are of the order of 85 billion USD yr<sup>-1</sup>, while in absence of climate policy they are projected to amount to 155 billion USD yr<sup>-1</sup>. This decreasing trend continues for the 2030-2050 period, yet the investments in both fossil fuel electricity and fossil fuel extraction remain sizeable until mid-century in 1.5°C scenarios (Figure 2.21). Large increases in supply-side electricity investments are projected for low-carbon energy carriers, like wind, solar and nuclear power, amongst others. While the high end of investments in wind and solar tend to extend beyond the

1 range considered in 2°C scenarios, the average investments in nuclear are estimated to be similar.  
 2 Finally, embarking on a 1.5°C trajectory also implies investments in a new sector that is non-existent  
 3 in baseline scenarios: CO<sub>2</sub> transport and storage. Over the 2010-2030 period, models estimate an  
 4 average annual investment of 1-7 billion USD yr<sup>-1</sup> (full range) in this sector, which increases to 10-52  
 5 billion USD yr<sup>-1</sup> in the 2030-2050 period. Ranges between 1.5°C and 2°C scenarios are very similar in  
 6 this sector.

7  
 8 Overall, the literature on specific investment volumes in line with 1.5°C is still emerging. However,  
 9 important shifts in global investment patterns are projected to achieve the emissions reductions  
 10 required to pursue a 1.5°C pathway.  
 11  
 12



13  
 14  
 15 **Figure 2.21:** Supply-side energy system investments in 1.5°C and related scenarios until mid-century. Top left  
 16 panel shows total energy supply investments in 2010 in 9 available 1.5°C scenarios in year-2005  
 17 USD. Top middle and right panels show the relationship between cumulative CO<sub>2</sub> mitigation and  
 18 average annual investments for the 2010-2030 and 2030-2050 period, respectively. Symbols show  
 19 single scenarios with varying levels of climate policy stringency (see legend: baseline – no climate  
 20 policy, 4.5 Wm<sup>-2</sup> – weak climate policy, 2.6 Wm<sup>-2</sup> – consistent with WB2C, 1.9 Wm<sup>-2</sup> –  
 21 consistent with WB1.5 or Med1.5). Grey lines connect scenarios derived with the same model and  
 22 under the same assumptions. Colours indicate the Shared Socioeconomic Pathway underlying the  
 23 scenarios. Lower panels show average annual supply-side investments for the 2010-2030 (left) and  
 24 2030-2050 period (right) for baseline, 2.6 Wm<sup>-2</sup> and 1.9 Wm<sup>-2</sup> scenarios. Data is shown for  
 25 electricity investments for fossil fuels (FOSSIL), wind (WIND), solar (SOLAR), nuclear (NUCL),  
 26 and investments in CO<sub>2</sub> transport and storage (CO<sub>2</sub> T&S) and fossil fuel extraction (FSL EXTR).  
 27 Whiskers show the minimum-maximum range, boxes the interquartile range, and horizontal black  
 28 lines the median. Data from the AIM/CGE, IMAGE, MESSAGE-GLOBIOM, and REMIND-  
 29 MAgPIE modelling frameworks based on (Riahi et al. 2017; Rogelj et al. 2017a).  
 30  
 31  
 32  
 33  
 34

### 2.3.5 *Delay and carbon lock-in*

Less ambitious CO<sub>2</sub> emissions reductions in the near term implies steeper and deeper reductions afterwards. This is a direct consequence of the quasi-linear relationship between the total cumulative amount of CO<sub>2</sub> emitted into the atmosphere and global mean temperature rise (Collins et al. 2013a). Besides this clear geophysical trade-off over time, delaying greenhouse gas emissions in the near-term (i.e., over the coming years and decade) also leads to lock-in into carbon intensive infrastructure, that is, the continued investment in and use of carbon-intensive technologies that are difficult or costly to phase out once deployed. IPCC AR5 hence reports that delaying mitigation action leads to substantially higher rates of emissions reductions afterwards, a larger reliance on CDR technologies in the long term, and higher transitional and long-term economic impacts (Clarke et al. 2014). Delaying emissions reductions and mitigation actions over the coming decade can lead to the continued deployment of unabated fossil-fuel technologies. Studies show that to still meet stringent climate targets despite near-term delays in emissions reductions, models need to prematurely retire carbon-intensive infrastructure, in particular coal without CCS (Bertram et al. 2015a; Johnson et al. 2015). Studies in the literature generally have focussed on delayed action until 2030 in the context of meeting a 2°C goal (Bertram et al. 2015a; Johnson et al. 2015; Riahi et al. 2015). However, because of the smaller carbon budget consistent with limiting warming to 1.5°C and the absence of a clearly declining long-term trend in global emissions to date, these general insights apply equally or even more so to the more stringent mitigation context of 1.5°C pathways. Scenarios created by the ADVANCE project (Luderer et al. 2016a) allow comparison of the implied emission reduction rates between scenarios that meet a 1.5°C objective starting in 2020 (global mean temperature rise in 2100 is limited with >60% probability) and “well below 2°C” scenarios starting from NDC levels in 2030 (global mean temperature rise limited to below 2°C with >66% probability during the 21<sup>st</sup> century). They show that the implied transitional emissions reduction rates are very similar in the first two decades. Both scenario categories project global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from fossil fuels and industry to decline at an annual rate of about 1.4 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup> after 2020 and 2030, respectively, indicating comparable transitional challenges.

All available 1.5°C pathways see global mitigation action before 2030 leading to global greenhouse gas emissions declining by 2030 (Section 2.3.3). This allows for a comparison with estimated emissions in 2030 implied by the Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs) submitted by Parties to the Paris Agreement. Altogether, these NDCs are assessed to result in global GHG emissions on the order of 49-58 GtCO<sub>2</sub>-eq yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2030 (Rogelj et al. 2016a; UNFCCC Secretariat 2016). More recent NDC studies have not fundamentally changed this range (Fujimori et al. 2016; Vandyck et al. 2016; Sanderson et al. 2016; Rogelj et al. 2016a; Iyer et al. 2015a; Hof et al. 2017; Rose et al. 2017; Fawcett et al. 2015; Rogelj et al. 2017b). In contrast, 1.5°C scenarios available to this assessment show an interquartile range of 25 to 41 GtCO<sub>2</sub>-eq yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2030. Modelling studies that explicitly attempted to design scenarios in line with 1.5°C starting from 2030 GHG levels in line with the NDCs report that the large majority of models failed to produce such a scenario (Luderer et al. 2016a) or only under assumptions of global cooperation and sustainable lifestyles which would require great efforts to materialise in the real world (Rogelj et al. 2017b).

## 2.4 **Properties of 1.5°C pathways after mid-century**

The long-term characteristics of mitigation pathways are particularly uncertain due to the deep uncertainty about the ways humankind will use energy and land in the second half of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. These ways will heavily depend on long-term population levels, secular trends in economic growth and income convergence, behavioural change and technological progress. Despite this deep uncertainty, 1.5°C pathways have to conceptualise the long term future in one way or the other in order to assess their consistency with the goal of limiting warming to 1.5°C. This is because the GHG emissions development after mid-century will critically determine whether warming can remain below 1.5°C or returned to 1.5°C with some likelihood. This section aims to assess robust features of 1.5°C pathways after mid-century as well as to highlight critical assumptions that can lead to very different

1 configurations of 1.5°C societies in the second half of the century. To this end, we will discuss the  
2 properties of five selected 1.5°C pathways from five integrated assessment models with different  
3 dynamics of energy and land use and the deployment of CDR technologies. Three of these pathways  
4 were based on assumptions of SSP1 (low population, high economic growth per capita, high  
5 technological progress rate, environmentally oriented technological and behavioural change, low  
6 energy and food demand per capita), one on SSP2 (medium levels for all these factors, mixed  
7 orientation of technological and behavioural change) and one on SSP5 (low population, very high  
8 economic growth per capita, high technological progress rate, ample fossil fuel resources, resource  
9 intensive lifestyles, high energy and food demand) (Riahi et al. 2017) (see Box 1.1 on scenarios and  
10 pathways). The five selected pathways will be compared to long-term properties of associated well  
11 below 2°C (WB2C) pathways and put into the context of the full range of long-term developments in  
12 1.5°C pathways currently in the literature (Luderer et al. 2016b; Rogelj et al. 2017a, 2015a).

13  
14 *[Note on the FOD: The literature on 1.5°C pathways is still evolving. Depending on the state of the*  
15 *literature at the time of the SOD, the selection of the five pathways and the ranges deduced from 1.5°C*  
16 *pathways in the scenario database for this Report will be updated for the SOD.]*  
17

## 18

### 19 **2.4.1 Emissions development of 1.5°C pathways after mid-century**

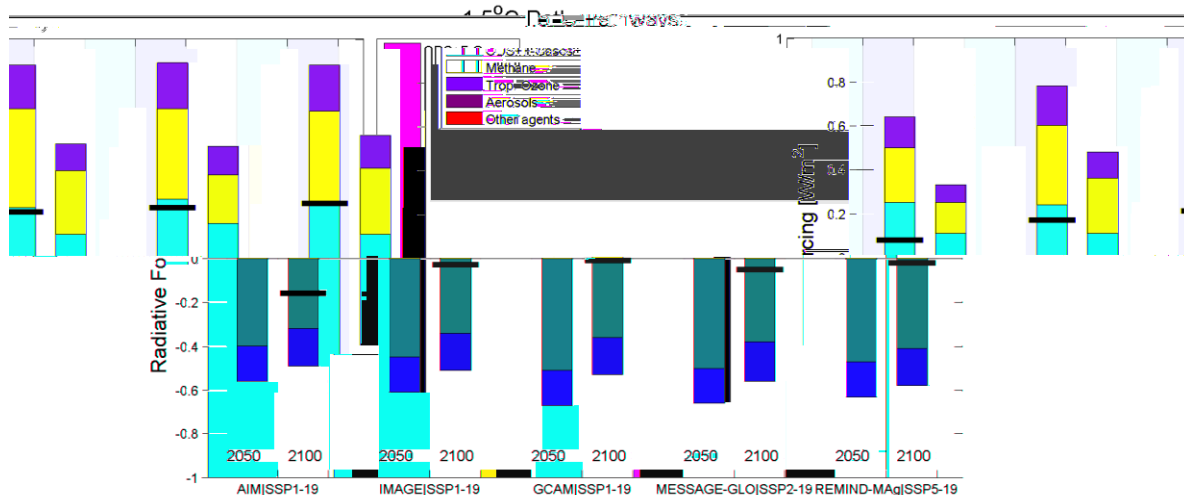
#### 20

21 As assessed in Section 2.2 of this chapter, net CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in 1.5°C pathways are brought to zero  
22 between 2040 and 2060. Since warming levels are determined by the cumulative amount of CO<sub>2</sub>  
23 emissions, reaching the point of carbon neutrality is required for limiting warming (Rogelj et al.  
24 2015d; Matthews et al. 2009; IPCC 2013). If the 1.5°C carbon budget was overshoot by the time of  
25 carbon neutrality, it would need to be returned to lower values by establishing net negative CO<sub>2</sub>  
26 emissions (Figure 2.22). Such net negative emissions can be obtained by deployment of CDR  
27 technologies (Section 2.4.2). For the non-CO<sub>2</sub> climate forcers, it is important to distinguish between  
28 long-lived greenhouse gases (LLGHG) like nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) and short-lived climate forcers  
29 (SLCFs) like methane (see Chapter 1). (Smith et al. 2012; Allen et al. 2016). LLGHGs such as CO<sub>2</sub>  
30 are cumulative climate pollutants and therefore need to be either phased out in the second half of the  
31 century or compensated by net negative CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. In contrast, the warming impact of SLCFs  
32 is determined by their rate of emissions, i.e., they do not need to be phased out to halt warming. A  
33 reduction of the emissions rate of the warming SLCFs is still beneficial as it will reduce their impact  
34 and thus allow a larger budget of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions under the temperature limit.  
35

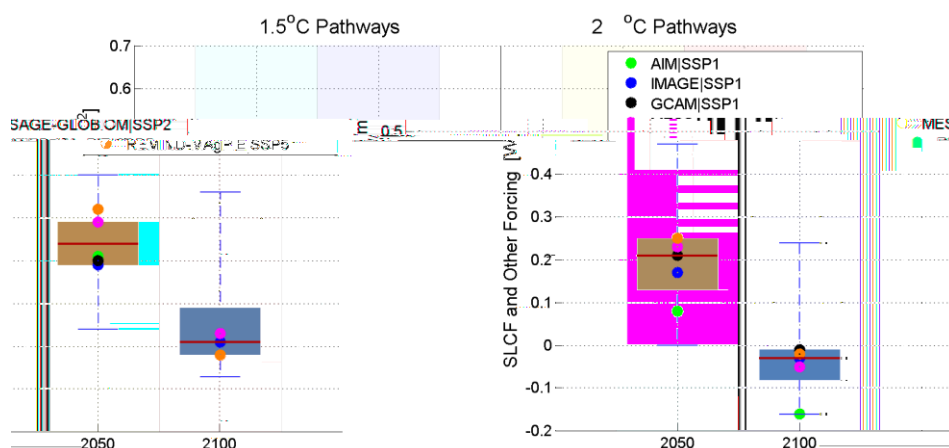
#### 36

##### 37 **2.4.1.1 Short lived climate forcers and fluorinated-gases**

38 Figure 2.22 investigates the post-2050 development of radiative forcing from SLCFs, fluorinated gases  
39 (F-gases) and ozone depleting substances (ODS) and a few other forcing agents in the 1.5°C pathways.  
40 There is broad agreement across scenarios that positive forcing from methane, tropospheric ozone, F-  
41 gases and ODS is more strongly reduced during the second half of the century than net negative  
42 forcing from aerosol effects. As a result, the net forcing contribution from these substances vanishes  
43 by the end of the century. This is similar to developments in WB2C pathways (Rose et al. 2014b;  
44 Riahi et al. 2017) which show only a slightly higher median forcing contributions (by ca. 0.05 W m<sup>2</sup>)  
45 from these forcing agents. Nevertheless, there can be substantial additional gains from deeper  
46 reductions of SLCF emissions with positive forcing contribution (also called short-lived climate  
47 pollutants or SLCPs). One scenario (AIM) projects particularly deep reductions in methane and ozone  
48 forcing leading to a net cooling of almost -0.2 W m<sup>-2</sup> by 2100, which allows a larger CO<sub>2</sub> budget to  
49 remain within the 1.5°C temperature limit (Section 2.4.2, see also Section 2.2). ODS and F-gas forcing  
50 is controlled by the Montreal protocol and its Kigali Amendment on phasing out hydrofluorocarbons,  
51 the largest and fastest growing group of F-gases (Velders et al. 2015). The 1.5°C pathways project  
52 around 0.1 W m<sup>-2</sup> residual forcing in 2100, which will need to be compared with updated estimates of  
53 the effect of the Kigali Amendment on total ODS and F-gas forcing by 2100.  
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**Figure 2.22:** Radiative forcing from fluorinated (F) gases, ozone depleting substances (ODS), short-lived climate forcers (incl. methane, tropospheric ozone, sulphate and nitrate aerosols, organic and black carbon, indirect aerosol effects) and other forcing agents (incl. mineral dust, stratospheric ozone and water vapour, land albedo changes) for selected 1.5°C pathways (upper panel) and the range of estimates for net forcing from all substances for 1.5°C and WB2C pathways based on the current version of the SR1.5 scenario database.

11 **2.4.1.2 Long-lived greenhouse gases**

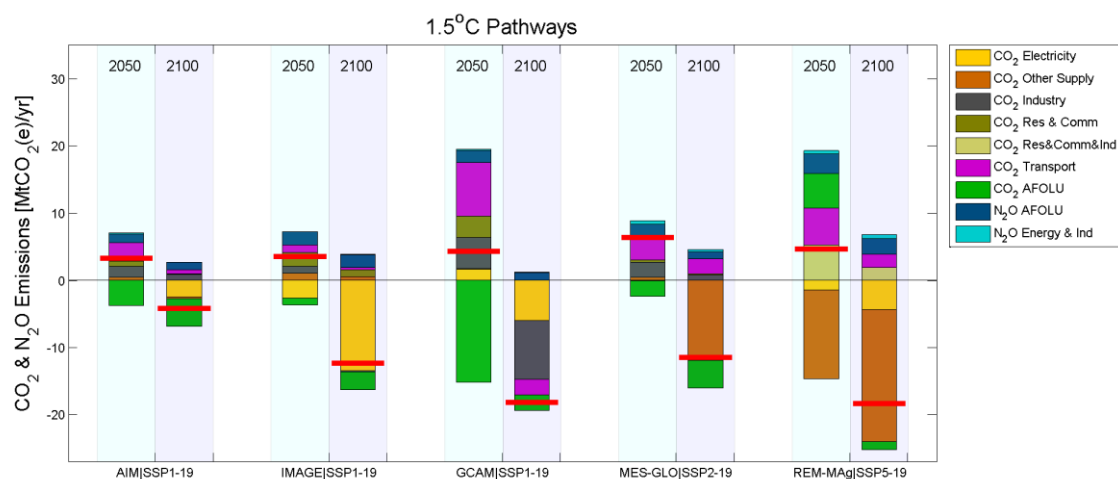
12 The long-term development of LLGHG emissions in 1.5°C pathways is characterised by the need to  
13 stay within a very tight carbon budget that at current emissions rates would be exhausted in roughly a  
14 decade (Section 2.2). Figure 2.23 shows the net CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from various sources in 2050  
15 and 2100 in 1.5°C pathways in the literature (Luderer et al. 2016b; Rogelj et al. 2017a, 2015a). All  
16 pathways obtain substantial net negative CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by the end of the century (Median: -13 GtCO<sub>2</sub>  
17 yr<sup>-1</sup>). This net withdrawal of CO<sub>2</sub> from the atmosphere compensates for an overshoot of the 1.5°C  
18 carbon budget before carbon neutrality is reached around mid-century. The majority of net negative  
19 CO<sub>2</sub> emissions comes from the energy supply sector augmented by a smaller contribution from the  
20 AFOLU sector. Net direct emissions from the energy demand sectors (industry, transportation,  
21 residential & commercial sectors) are very low by the end of century (median ~1 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup>) and  
22 potentially negative.

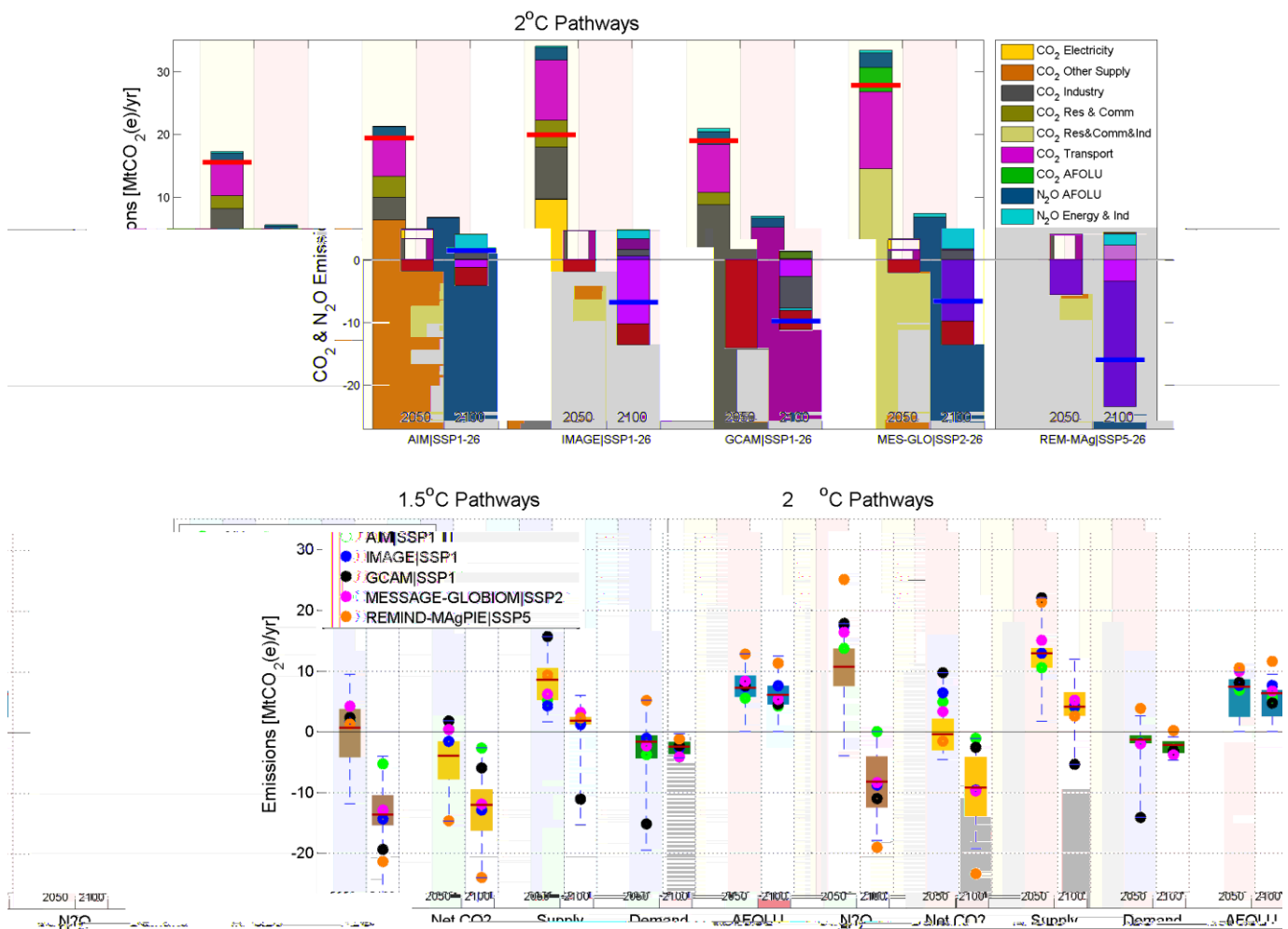
24 1.5°C pathways maintain substantial levels of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in the 2<sup>nd</sup> half of the century, which also  
25 have to be compensated for by net negative CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. N<sub>2</sub>O emissions show little reduction  
26 between 2050 and 2100 and stay at similar levels as in WB2C pathways. This highlights the difficulty  
27 of eliminating N<sub>2</sub>O emission from agriculture (Bodirsky et al. 2014), and in particular the reliance of  
28 many pathways on significant amounts of bioenergy after mid-century (Section 2.4.3) coupled to a

1 substantial use of nitrogen fertilizer (Popp et al. 2017). As a result, N<sub>2</sub>O emissions can be a major  
 2 contributor to end of century LLGHG emissions, and measures to effectively mitigate them will be of  
 3 continued relevance for 1.5°C societies in the second half of the century. The reduction of nitrogen use  
 4 and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from agriculture is already a present-day concern due to unsustainable levels of  
 5 nitrogen pollution (Bodirsky et al. 2012).

6  
 7 1.5°C pathways differ considerably in the level of net negative emissions obtained by the end of the  
 8 century ranging from -5 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup> (AIM) (Fujimori 2017) to -21 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup> (REMIND-MAgPIE)  
 9 (Kriegler et al. 2017) in the selected scenarios. This is due to differences in the extent to which they  
 10 overshoot the 1.5°C budget and reduce temperature after the warming peak. Part of this variation  
 11 stems from differences between underlying assumptions about socio-economic drivers (SSP1 vs.  
 12 SSP5) (Riahi et al. 2017), while another part is due to different assumptions about the availability of  
 13 carbon dioxide removal technologies and bioenergy (Krey et al. 2014b). A key finding is that 1.5°C  
 14 pathways could be identified under a considerable range of assumptions in model studies despite the  
 15 tightness of the 1.5°C emissions budget (Rogelj et al. 2017a).

16  
 17 Compared to WB2C pathways, the largest differences in CO<sub>2</sub> emissions can be seen around mid-  
 18 century. While 1.5°C pathways reach zero CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, WB2C pathways still have median  
 19 emissions levels around 10 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2050 and up to 20 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup> in the selected scenarios.  
 20 These emissions mostly come from the energy end-use sectors (industry, transportation, residential  
 21 and commercial/buildings), which are more strongly reduced in the first half of the century in 1.5°C  
 22 pathways (Rogelj et al. 2015a). The differences in end-of-century emissions levels between 1.5°C and  
 23 WB2C pathways are comparatively small. Net negative CO<sub>2</sub> emissions are around 4 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup> lower  
 24 in the median, with roughly half of this coming from increased CDR in the energy supply sector and  
 25 another half from further reductions in energy demand sectors. Thus, the emissions configuration of  
 26 1.5°C and WB2C societies at the end of the century look similar. But the 1.5°C society is already  
 27 closer to this configuration by mid-century, hence less additional emissions reductions and less ramp-  
 28 up of CDR needs to occur in the 2<sup>nd</sup> half of the century. This underpins the finding from Section 2.3  
 29 that mitigation is accelerated in 1.5°C compared to WB2C pathways.  
 30





3 **Figure 2.23:** Emissions of CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O for selected 1.5°C (upper panel) (Rogelj et al. 2017a) and associated  
 4 2°C pathways (middle panel; AIM|SSP1, IMAGE|SSP1 and GCAM|SSP1 are WB2C pathways, MESSAGE-GLOBIOM|SSP2 a medium 2°C pathway, and REMIND-MAgPIE SSP5 slightly  
 5 overshoots 2°C in median temperature projections) (Riahi et al. 2017; van Vuuren et al. 2017;  
 6 Fricko et al. 2017; Kriegler et al. 2017). The lower panel shows the range of emissions by source  
 7 for 1.5°C and WB2C pathways based on the current version of the SR1.5 scenario database.  
 8  
 9

10 **2.4.2 Carbon dioxide removal in 1.5°C pathways**

11  
 12 As almost all 1.5°C pathways in the literature overshoot the 1.5°C emissions budget around mid-  
 13 century, it is important to carefully assess the use of CDR technologies for realising such overshoot  
 14 behaviour. Three key questions emerge: How strongly does reliance on CDR vary between 1.5°C  
 15 pathways in the literature? What is implied for the extent to which limiting warming to 1.5°C by the  
 16 end of the century depend on the deployment of large-scale CDR? And what are the implications of  
 17 techno-economic and sustainable development considerations for the potential for implementation of  
 18 CDR deployment levels in the 1.5°C pathways?  
 19

20  
 21 **2.4.2.1 Apportion of CDR to different uses in 1.5°C pathways**

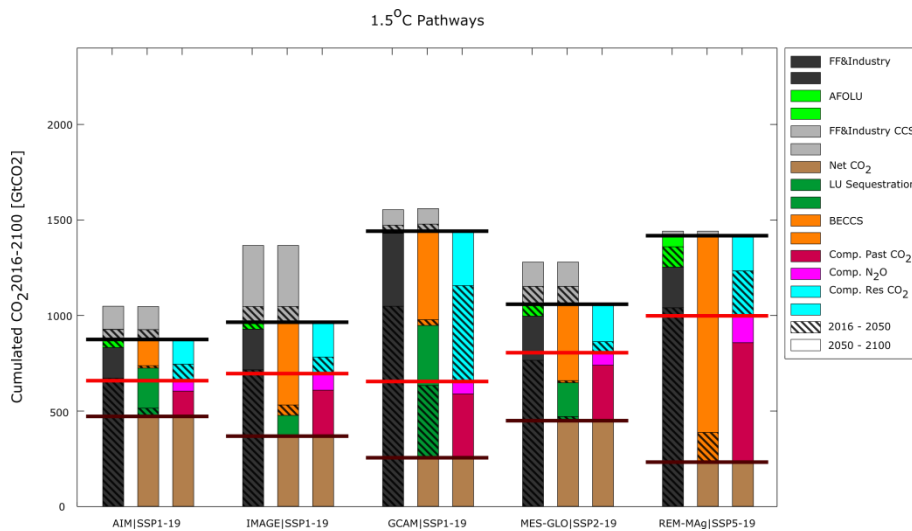
22 For a proper accounting of the use and relevance of CDR in 1.5°C and WB2C pathways, it is  
 23 important to keep track of the total amount of fossil/geological and terrestrial carbon that is oxidized  
 24 by human activity over the 21<sup>st</sup> century (leftmost bar of grouped bars in Figure 2.24). Subtracting the  
 25 geological CO<sub>2</sub> captured at energy and industrial installations (Fossil & Industry CCS in Figure 2.24)  
 26 gives the total amount of oxidized anthropogenic carbon entering the atmosphere at some point in time



1 (horizontal black line in Figure 2.24)<sup>1</sup>. Anthropogenic CDR from the atmosphere reduces the net flux  
 2 of anthropogenic carbon into atmosphere at a given time. As long as this CDR does not exceed the  
 3 positive flux of oxidized anthropogenic carbon, net CO<sub>2</sub> emissions remain positive and the cumulated  
 4 anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions continue to grow until peaking when carbon neutrality is reached  
 5 (horizontal red line in Figure 2.24). The difference between the peak in cumulated CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and  
 6 the total amount of oxidized carbon entering the atmosphere can be apportioned to CDR compensating  
 7 for residual CO<sub>2</sub> emissions at the same point in time (CO<sub>2</sub> in rightmost bars in Figure 2.24). Some of  
 8 this compensation occurs before carbon neutrality is reached (dark blue in Figure 2.24) and thus  
 9 accelerates the drawdown of net CO<sub>2</sub> emissions towards zero. The other part compensates residual  
 10 gross CO<sub>2</sub> emissions after carbon neutrality has been established (light blue in Figure 2.24). If the  
 11 amount of CDR exceeds the amount of anthropogenic carbon entering the atmosphere, net negative  
 12 CO<sub>2</sub> emissions emerge that in effect draw down the cumulative amount of anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> in the  
 13 atmosphere. The difference between net cumulative emissions at their peak and by the end of the  
 14 century (horizontal brown line in Figure 2.24) indicates the amount of CDR that is used to compensate  
 15 for residual emissions of other LLGHG, predominantly N<sub>2</sub>O, after the point of carbon neutrality  
 16 (Comp. N<sub>2</sub>O in Figure 2.24) as well as excess CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in the past that led to an overshoot of the  
 17 1.5°C budget (Comp. Past CO<sub>2</sub>). Table 2.10 summarizes the different uses of CDR.

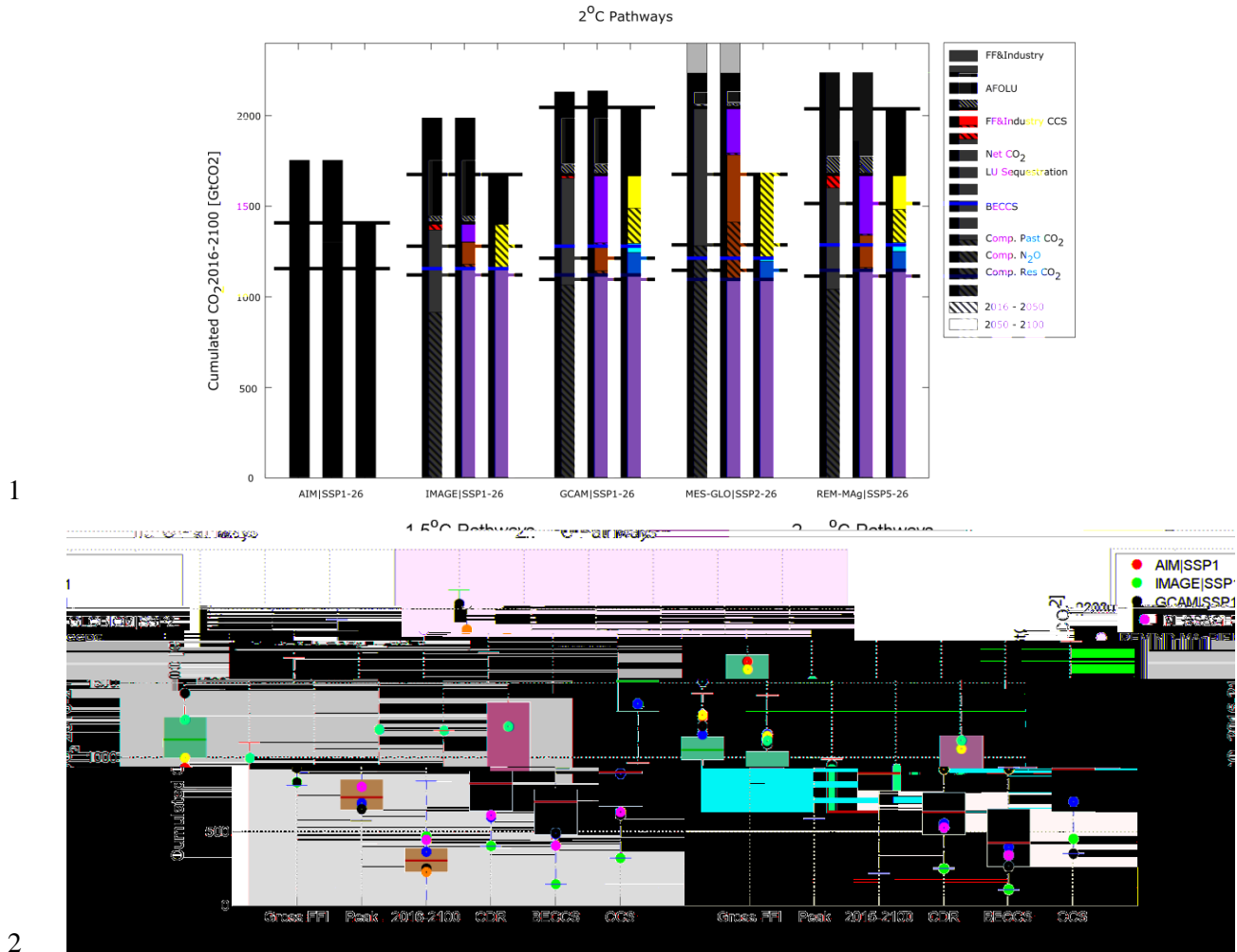
18  
 19 Figure 2.24 and Table 2.10 show that the amount and use of CDR can vary considerably across 1.5°C  
 20 pathways, even among those that are derived under identical shared socio-economic assumptions  
 21 (SSP1). In the selected scenarios, cumulated CDR deployment ranges from ca. 400 GtCO<sub>2</sub> (AIM) to  
 22 1200 GtCO<sub>2</sub> (GCAM, REMIND-MAGPIE) and is apportioned differently to the various CDR uses.  
 23 Some scenarios dedicate half or more of the CDR to the compensation of residual CO<sub>2</sub> emissions  
 24 (AIM, GCAM), while other scenarios use half or more of the CDR to compensate for excess emissions  
 25 in the past (IMAGE, MESSAGE-GLOBIOM, REMIND-MAGPIE).

26  
 27 *[Note on the FOD: Depending on the availability of studies exploring 1.5°C pathways with very*  
 28 *limited CDR availability, the assessment of these ranges and the selection of pathway examples will be*  
 29 *updated for the SOD.]*  
 30



31

<sup>1</sup> Oxidized carbon from bioenergy use is not counted if it does not change the terrestrial carbon pool. In this case it implies a recycling of atmospheric carbon dioxide on annual to decadal timescales. If bioenergy use affects the terrestrial carbon pool (Heck et al. 2016), this side-effect would be accounted for in the AFOLU sector.



**Figure 2.24:** Cumulative CO<sub>2</sub> emissions accounting for selected 1.5°C pathways (upper panel) and 2°C pathways (middle panel, see Figure 2.23 for references to these pathways). Each group of three bars presents the accounting for one pathway. Leftmost bars show oxidised anthropogenic carbon separated in fossil combustion and industrial processes without and with CCS and AFOLU. Centre bars show deployment of CDR technologies (land based sequestration and BECCS) and CCS. Rightmost bars apportion CDR to its different uses (see Table 2.10). The lower panel shows the range of cumulative CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (oxidised carbon from fossil fuel combustion and industrial processes entering the atmosphere = Gross FFI; peak net cumulative emissions = Peak, 2016-2100 net cumulative emissions = 2016-2100), CDR (total amount and BECCS) and CCS (including BECCS and CCS at fossil fuel installations) for 1.5°C and WB2C pathways based on the current version of the SR1.5 scenario database.

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1 **Table 2.10:** Uses of CDR for limiting warming in the long term and cumulative amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and  
 2 CDR in 1.5°C pathways.

Residual emissions	CDR use	
<b>Keeping temperatures stable (at 1.5°C, but also any other low level)</b>		
<b>Declining temperatures after an earlier higher peak</b>		
<b>Cumulative emissions and CDR levels in 1.5°C pathways</b>		

3  
 4 The use of CDR to compensate for excess emissions in the past has received most attention in the  
 5 literature since the Fifth Assessment Report (Fuss et al. 2014a) and was often connected to a concern  
 6 that the expectation of CDR becoming available at large scale would postpone early mitigation efforts  
 7 (Anderson and Peters 2016). Its importance is significantly increased in 1.5°C pathways compared to  
 8 WB2C pathways, with CO<sub>2</sub> budget drawdowns of 300-510 GtCO<sub>2</sub> in the former compared to 80-290  
 9 GtCO<sub>2</sub> in the latter (interquartile range from the scenarios available in the database to this assessment).  
 10 This does not imply, though, that near-term mitigation efforts in 1.5°C pathways are relaxed. In  
 11 contrast, they are considerably tightened compared to WB2C pathways as discussed in Section 2.3. In  
 12 essence, the 1.5°C budget is so tight that associated pathways imply both very stringent near-term  
 13 mitigation and a significant amount of net negative emissions in the second half of the century. To a  
 14 lesser extent, this result already held true for WB2C pathways (Clarke et al. 2014). Figure 2.24 (lower  
 15 panel) shows that end-of-century budgets are roughly 600 GtCO<sub>2</sub> smaller in 1.5°C than in 2°C  
 16 pathways, with approximately two thirds (about 400 GtCO<sub>2</sub>) coming from further reductions of gross  
 17 anthropogenic emissions of oxidised geological carbon (fossil fuel combustion and industrial  
 18 processes; FFI) and the other third (about 200 GtCO<sub>2</sub>) from increased net negative emissions via CDR  
 19 (comparison of median levels). As a consequence, the total amount of CDR over the 21<sup>st</sup> century is  
 20 approx. 200 GtCO<sub>2</sub> higher in 1.5°C pathway vs. WB2C pathways (comparison of median levels: 820  
 21 vs 630 GtCO<sub>2</sub>).

22  
 23 The REMIND-MAGPIE SSP5 scenarios show consistently larger CO<sub>2</sub> budget drawdowns in both the  
 24 1.5°C and 2°C cases. This is due to the underlying socio-economic storyline of resource and energy

1 intensive consumption as well as ample fossil fuel availability (SSP5) with only a gradual phase in of  
2 climate policy until 2040 (Kriegler et al. 2017). They therefore exhibit the largest temperature  
3 overshoot relative to 2100, barely remaining well below 2°C in their 1.5°C pathway and temporarily  
4 exceeding 2°C in the 2°C pathway (which therefore does not fall into the WB2C class). These  
5 scenarios were not developed as an example of prudent mitigation strategies towards achieving the  
6 1.5°C and 2°C temperature goals, but as a point of comparison with high challenges to mitigation.  
7 They are used here in this spirit as well. While the SSP5 assumption still allows reaching the 1.5°C  
8 limit by 2100 in this particular model application, it does so at the cost of massive CDR deployment  
9 (1200 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup>) predominantly used for an extensive drawdown of the CO<sub>2</sub> budget until 2100 (770  
10 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup>).

#### 11 2.4.2.2 CDR technologies and deployment levels in 1.5°C pathways

12 There are a number of approaches to actively remove carbon dioxide from the atmosphere. They  
13 include approaches to enhance terrestrial carbon storage in plants and soils (Lal 2004) such as  
14 afforestation and reforestation (Nilsson and Schopfhauser 1995), changing agricultural practices (Lal  
15 2004), biochar sequestration (Smith 2016), and restoration of peatlands and wetlands. Other  
16 approaches aim to store atmospheric carbon dioxide in geological formations and include the  
17 combination of biomass combustion for energy production with carbon capture and storage (BECCS)  
18 (Obersteiner et al. 2001; Keith and Rhodes 2002) as well as direct air capture (DAC) of CO<sub>2</sub> using  
19 chemical solvents (Zeman and Lackner 2004; Keith et al. 2006). A third group focuses on the  
20 mineralisation of atmospheric carbon dioxide (Mazzotti et al. 2005) including enhanced weathering of  
21 rocks (Hartmann et al. 2013). A fourth group is concerned with the sequestration of carbon dioxide in  
22 the oceans including ocean iron fertilization (Denman 2008) and ocean (Kheshgi 1995; Rau 2011;  
23 Ilyina et al. 2013). A fifth group includes approaches to use atmospheric carbon in industrial products  
24 so that it is locked away on timescales of centuries (Carbon Capture and Usage – CCU). There are also  
25 proposals to remove methane, nitrous oxide and halocarbons via photocatalysis from the atmosphere  
26 (De\_Richter et al. 2017). Only some of these approaches have so far been considered in integrated  
27 assessment and other pathway models. The mitigation scenario literature up to AR5 mostly included  
28 BECCS and to a more limited extent afforestation and reforestation (Clarke et al. 2014).  
29 Since then, some well below 2°C and 1.5°C pathways including additional CDR options such as  
30 Direct Air Capture are becoming available (Chen and Tavoni 2013; Marcucci et al.). Other more  
31 speculative approaches, in particular ocean-based CDR and removal of Non-CO<sub>2</sub> gases, have not yet  
32 been taken up by the literature on mitigation pathways.  
33

34  
35 Figure 2.24 shows the deployment of individual CDR measures in 1.5°C pathways. For the time being,  
36 this assessment will focus on BECCS and afforestation. Overall the largest contribution comes from  
37 BECCS (interquartile range of 480-760 GtCO<sub>2</sub>), but afforestation plays a major role in some of the  
38 selected pathways (AIM, GCAM). There is correlation between the choice of afforestation vs. BECCS  
39 and the extent to which CDR is used for compensating residual CO<sub>2</sub> emissions at a given point in time  
40 versus excess emissions in the past. This is due to the timing of the two options in the mitigation  
41 pathways. Although the AFOLU sector is a net sink by 2100 in almost all 1.5°C pathways, the amount  
42 of end-of-century CO<sub>2</sub> uptake by this sector is much smaller compared to BECCS deployment in the  
43 energy sector (Figure 2.23). This can be different around mid-century where for example GCAM  
44 projects large terrestrial CDR uptake from large-scale afforestation activities. The temporal profile of  
45 CDR via afforestation reflects the fact that CO<sub>2</sub> uptake from afforestation ceases once forests are  
46 grown. In 1.5°C pathways afforestation is mostly deployed before and around carbon neutrality, while  
47 BECCS is projected to be used predominantly in the 2<sup>nd</sup> half of the century (Figure 2.25). There are  
48 trade-offs between the two technologies when deployed simultaneously due to their shared demand for  
49 land. In this case overall CDR increases, while the deployment of each individual measure is reduced  
50 (Humpenöder et al. 2014).

51  
52 A closer look into the sectorial breakdown of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in the 1.5°C pathways (Figure 2.23)  
53 reveals that late century CDR predominantly comes from BECCS in the energy supply sector. Models  
54 differ whether BECCS is primarily applied in electricity generation (e.g., IMAGE, van Vuuren et al.  
55 2017) or biofuel production (e.g., MESSAGE-GLOBIOM, Fricko et al. 2017, REMIND-MAGPIE

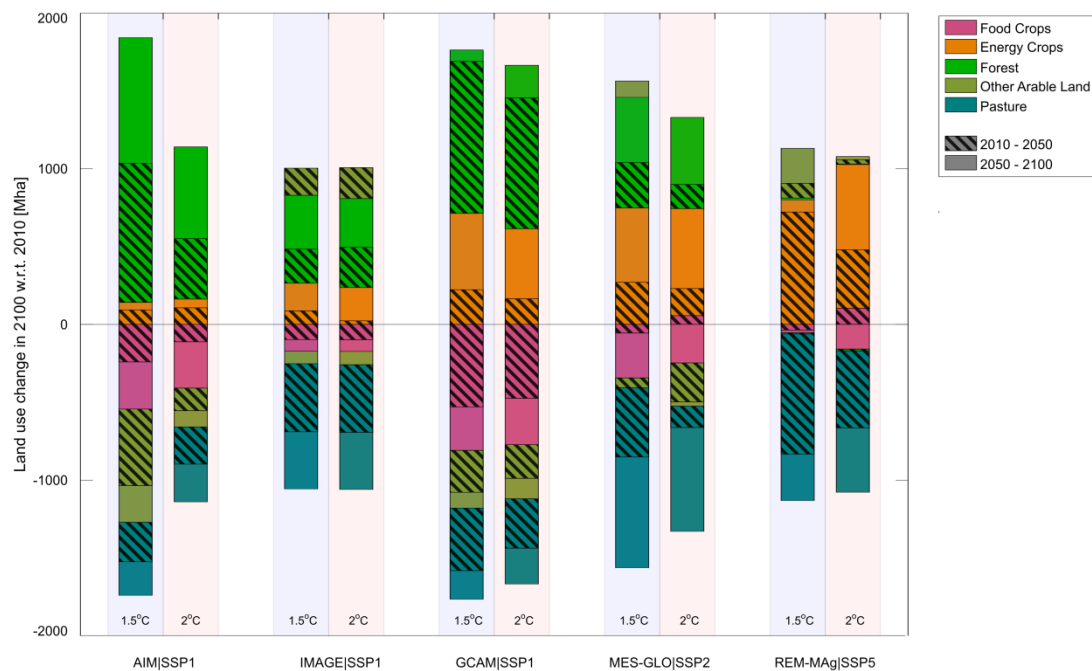
1 Kriegler et al. 2017). There is also considerable variation in projections of long-term CDR deployment  
2 in the industry sector, e.g., bioenergy use coupled with CCS for generating industrial process heat and  
3 bioplastics. One model (GCAM) projects the largest CDR contribution in the industry sector,  
4 substituting for BECCS deployment in the energy supply sector (Calvin et al. 2017).

5 *[Note on the FOD: This discussion will be updated for the SOD to capture an emerging literature on*  
6 *mitigation pathways with extended portfolios of CDR technologies]*

#### 8 2.4.2.3 Sustainability implications of CDR deployment in 1.5°C pathways

9 Individual CDR options have different characteristics and therefore carry different risks for their  
10 sustainable deployment at scale (Smith et al. 2016). Terrestrial CDR options, BECCS and enhanced  
11 weathering of rock powder distributed on agricultural lands require land. Those options – like  
12 afforestation and BECCS that directly compete with other land uses – can have significant impacts on  
13 agricultural and food systems (Creutzig et al. 2012; Popp et al. 2017; Kreidenweis et al. 2016; Smith et  
14 al. 2016) as well as ecosystems (Heck et al. 2016; Boysen et al. 2016). BECCS using dedicated  
15 bioenergy crops can substantially increase agricultural water demand (Bonsch et al. 2014) and  
16 nitrogen fertilizer use. DAC and BECCS rely on CCS and require safe storage space in geological  
17 formations. Some approaches like DAC have high energy and water demand. There are also a few  
18 potential synergies between CDR options. Enhanced weathering of rock powder and biochar may  
19 substitute for parts of nitrogen fertilizer use and enhance terrestrial carbon storage. An important  
20 consideration for CDR which basically shifts carbon from the atmosphere to the geological, oceanic or  
21 terrestrial carbon pools is the permanence of carbon stored in these different pool (Matthews and  
22 Caldeira 2008; Jones et al. 2016). Terrestrial carbon storage is subject to particular concerns about  
23 permanence as terrestrial carbon can be returned to the atmosphere on decadal timescales by a variety  
24 of mechanisms such as soil degradation and forest fires. There are similar concerns about outgassing  
25 of CO<sub>2</sub> from the oceans. In contrast, the risk of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage from deep geological storage has been  
26 suggested to decline over time after CCS operations have ceased (Torvanger et al. 2012).

27  
28 The sustainability implications of CDR options are discussed in greater detail in Chapter 4. Here we  
29 focus on the land and CCS requirements of afforestation and BECCS in 1.5°C pathways that are key  
30 drivers of many of the sustainability issues raised above (Smith et al. 2016). Figure 2.25 shows the  
31 land requirements for BECCS and afforestation in the selected 1.5°C pathways and compares it with  
32 related land requirements in WB2C pathways. In pathways that allow for large-scale afforestation in  
33 addition to BECCS, land demand for afforestation is larger (600-1600 Mha) than for BECCS (100-800  
34 Mha). This is because the amount of carbon to be stored in soils and trees on a unit of land is limited,  
35 while BECCS allows continuous sequestration of CO<sub>2</sub> from biomass year by year. The combined land  
36 demand of the two CDR options (800-1800 Mha) is realised by a conversion of pasture (400-1200  
37 Mha) and cropland for food production (50-800 Mha) as well as expansion into natural land (0-700  
38 Mha). These dynamics are heavily influenced by assumptions about future population levels, food  
39 crops and livestock demand. An SSP1 world with declining population in the second half the century  
40 (from a peak of slightly above 8 billion to 7 billion by 2100), limited meat consumption and food  
41 waste, and high agricultural productivity has lower trade-offs for pasture and cropland conversion than  
42 worlds with population levels around 9 billion by the end of the century (SSP2) or high calorie and  
43 meat consumption levels (SSP5) (Popp et al. 2017). Land use changes do not differ significantly  
44 between 1.5°C and WB2C pathways in the majority of selected pathways. The exceptions are AIM  
45 SSP1 which projects more than a doubling of land-use changes before mid-century at unchanged land-  
46 use change levels thereafter, and REMIND-MAGPIE SSP5 which moves forward a substantial part of  
47 land-use changes between 1.5°C and 2°C cases.



**Figure 2.25:** Land requirements (in 2100 compared to 2010) for afforestation and BECCS in the selected 1.5°C pathways and compared with associated 2°C pathways from the same models under the same SSPs (see Figure 2.23 for references to these pathways).

The quantity of CO<sub>2</sub> stored over this century in 1.5°C pathways ranges from 750-1360 GtCO<sub>2</sub>, which is similar to what is found in WB2C pathways (700-1320 GtCO<sub>2</sub>; interquartile ranges from scenario database to this report). The IPCC (2005) found that available evidence suggests that, worldwide, it is *likely* that there is a technical potential of at least about 2000 GtCO<sub>2</sub> of storage capacity in geological formations, which is larger than the global demand for storage across all of the 1.5°C pathways in the database collected for this chapter. Furthermore the IPCC (2005) recognised that there could be a much larger potential for geological storage in saline formations, but the upper limit estimates are uncertain due to lack of information and an agreed methodology. Since IPCC (2005) there have been detailed regional surveys of storage capacity (e.g., Vangkilde-Pedersen et al. 2009; Wei et al. 2013; Bentham et al. 2014; Riis and Halland 2014; Ogawa et al. 2011; DOE et al. 2012; Warwick et al. 2014) and improvement and standardisation of methodologies (e.g., Bachu et al. 2007a,b). Dooley (2013) synthesised published literature at that time on both the global geologic storage resource as well as the potential demand for geologic storage of mitigation pathways, and found that the cumulative demand for CO<sub>2</sub> storage was small compared to their practical capacity (as defined by Bachu et al. 2007a) of 3900 GtCO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity worldwide. Differences, however, remain in estimates of storage capacity due to, e.g., the potential storage limitations of subsurface pressure build-up (Szulczewski et al. 2014) and assumptions on practices that could manage such issues (Bachu 2015). Kearns et al. (2017) constructed estimates of global storage capacity of 8000 to 55000 GtCO<sub>2</sub> (accounting for differences in detailed regional and local estimates), again sufficient at a global level for this century, but found that at a regional level, robust demand for CO<sub>2</sub> storage exceeds their lower estimate of regional storage available for some regions. However, storage capacity is not solely determined by the geological setting, and Bachu (2015) describes storage engineering practices that could further extend storage capacity estimates.

An important question is to what extent bioenergy and CCS deployment is driven by BECCS. If BECCS is available, most of the bioenergy use in mitigation pathways is combined with CCS (Rose et al. 2014a). However, if BECCS is not available, large amounts of bioenergy can still be used to substitute fossil-fuel based liquids, gases and solids (Klein et al. 2014). In contrast, CCS deployment is mostly driven by BECCS and, if available, DAC in 1.5°C and WB2C pathways (Marcucci et al.; Rogelj et al. 2017a).

1 *[Note on the FOD: The discussion of the relationship between bioenergy and BECCS will be updated*  
2 *for the SOD, depending on the availability of new studies exploring this link.]*  
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### 5 **2.4.3 Energy use in 1.5°C pathways after mid-century**

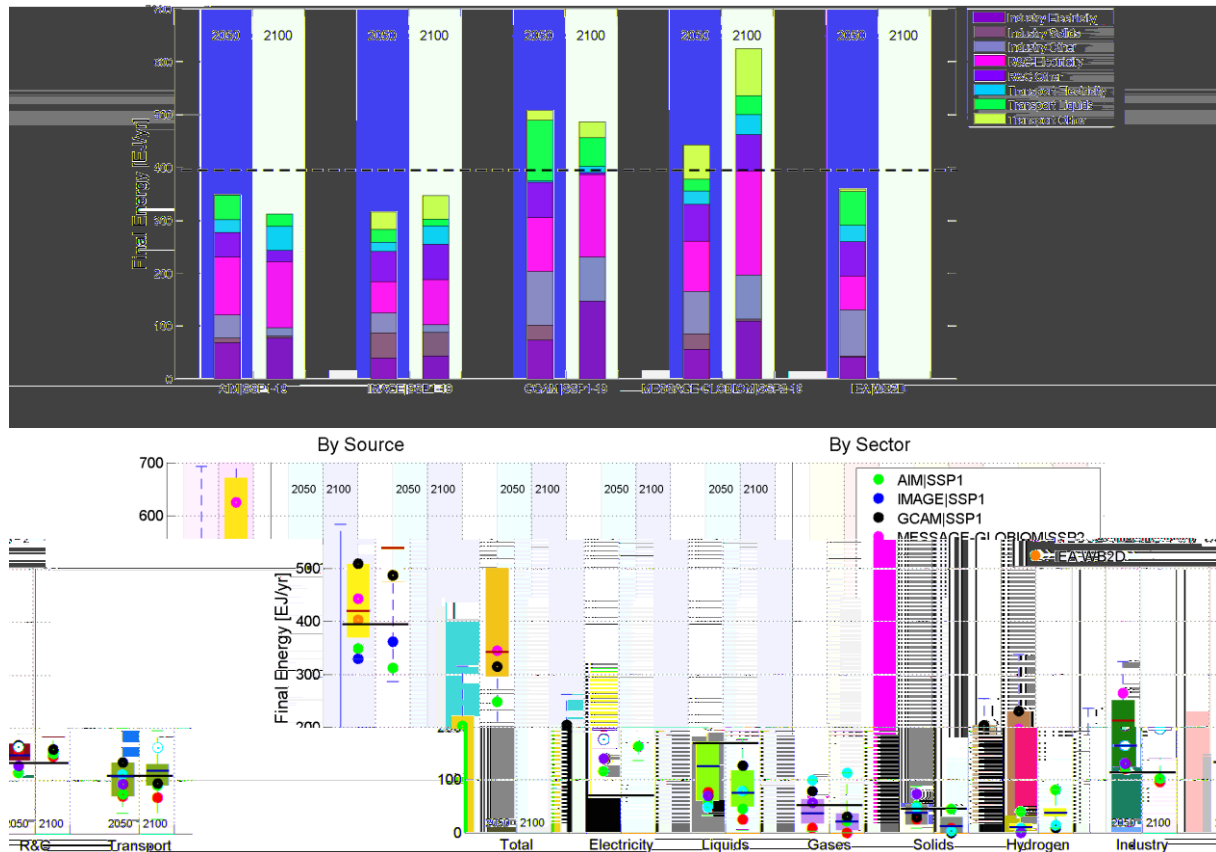
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7 As discussed in Section 2.3, 1.5°C pathways require a fundamental transformation of the energy  
8 system by mid-century. It is an important question what end points of the energy transformation are  
9 projected for the 2<sup>nd</sup> half of the century. The way humankind produces and uses energy after mid-  
10 century will be closely connected to future land use, markets, and societal institutions in a 1.5°C world  
11 as it is a key determinant how carbon neutrality can be achieved and maintained. Clear visions of  
12 possible end points of the 1.5°C energy transformation are important to set expectations and inform  
13 key choices on re-configuring global energy systems today. At the same time it is deeply uncertain  
14 which key technologies, preferences and institutions will shape the energy system 50 to 80 years out.  
15 It is therefore necessary to explore different visions of the global energy system of the future with a  
16 scenario approach (Riahi et al. 2012). Here we will discuss the range of long-term visions presented by  
17 model-based 1.5°C pathways in the literature and ask the question to what extent they are similar to  
18 energy futures in WB2C pathways. We also ask to what extent they cover the full range of  
19 technological and behavioural visions for the global energy transformation. An extended discussion of  
20 visions of carbon neutral energy systems will be presented in Chapter 4.  
21  
22

#### 23 **2.4.3.1 Energy demand**

24 A good starting point to explore long-term energy futures is future demand for energy services. The  
25 narratives of the SSPs provide a broad range of visions of energy service demand from resource  
26 efficient and environmentally friendly (SSP1) to resource intensive energy consumption patterns  
27 (SSP5) (O'Neill et al. 2017). Integrated assessment models adopt these visions as exogenous  
28 assumptions under which mitigation pathways are developed (Bauer et al. 2017). The introduction of  
29 climate policy further influences the composition of final energy demand for providing these services,  
30 both by lowering it due to the carbon penalty on fossil fuels and by re-structuring it towards energy  
31 carriers that can be provided in a carbon neutral way more easily than others (i.e., electricity and  
32 hydrogen vs. liquids, gases and solids).

33 Figure 2.26 shows the structure of global final energy demand in 2050 and 2100 as projected in 1.5°C  
34 pathways. Final energy demand is increased by 20% to 60% relative to 2014 levels (interquartile  
35 range, 35% in the median), but several pathways based on SSP1 project lower energy demand than  
36 today despite strong growth in economic output until the end of the century. Electrification continues  
37 throughout the second half of the century (up to 60-70% of final energy) leading to a four to six fold  
38 increase in electricity demand by the end of the century relative to today (Rogelj et al. 2017a). Since  
39 the electricity sector is completely decarbonised by mid-century in 1.5°C pathways, electrification is  
40 the primary means to decarbonise energy end use. Electrification is strongest in the residential and  
41 commercial sector, but many pathways also project the electrification rate of industry to reach 50% or  
42 higher levels by the end of the century. Transport electrification rates are projected to be lower due to  
43 assumed limits to electrifying aviation, shipping and road freight transport even in the long run. Even  
44 though some pathways include an increased use of hydrogen in the transport sector, most continue to  
45 rely on liquids and in some cases gases to cover the majority of transport energy demand. This  
46 constitutes a decarbonisation bottleneck which keeps the transport sector energy-constrained in the  
47 second half of the century in 1.5°C pathways.  
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**Figure 2.26:** Final energy consumption for four selected 1.5°C pathways and the IEA’s WB2D scenario (IEA / IRENA 2017) (top panel) and across the range of 1.5°C pathways collected in the SR1.5 database for the assessment in this chapter. Black lines indicate values of final energy consumption in 2014 (IEA 2016).

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**2.4.3.2 Energy Supply**

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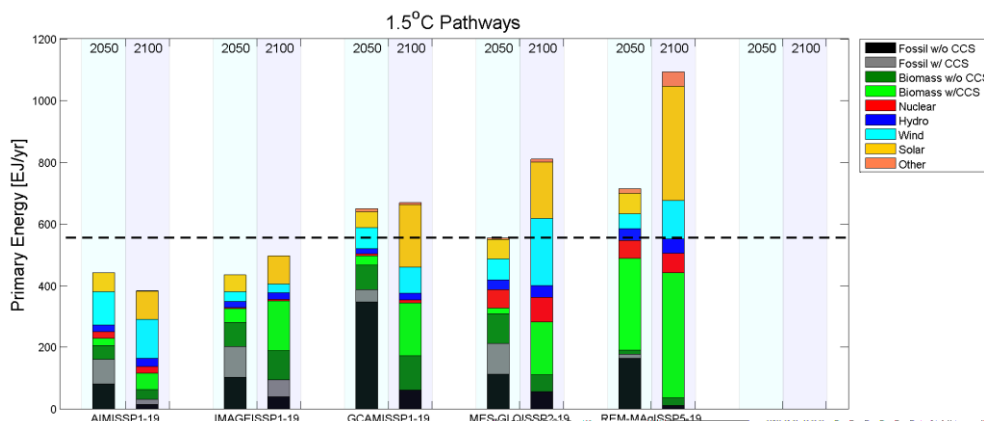
30

The energy supply mix in 1.5°C pathways is tailored to meet the projected demand of final energy carriers at very low emissions levels. Residual oil and gas use without CCS is limited to 10-70 EJ yr<sup>-1</sup> (interquartile range, median 45 EJ yr<sup>-1</sup>) by the end of the century, reflecting the decarbonisation bottlenecks in the transport sector (Figure 2.17). These residual emissions are neutralised by CDR deployment (Section 2.4.2). Additional fossil fuel combustion combined with CCS occurs at even lower levels at point sources in the industry sector (0-50 EJ yr<sup>-1</sup>, median 20 EJ yr<sup>-1</sup>). The remainder of primary energy supply is carbon free. Electricity is predominantly provided by solar and wind power

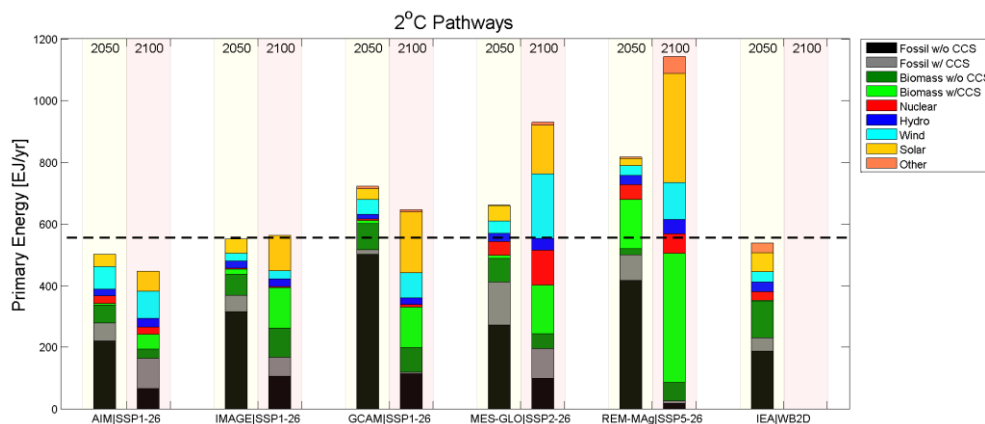


1 in most 1.5°C pathways. As electricity is the dominant final energy carrier in the second half of the  
 2 century, non-biomass renewables (including hydro, solar and wind power) make up the largest portion  
 3 of primary energy supply by 2100 ranging between 240 and 420 EJ yr<sup>-1</sup> (interquartile range, median  
 4 320 EJ yr<sup>-1</sup>) (Luderer et al. 2014; Pietzcker et al. 2016). Nuclear power plays a much smaller role in  
 5 the electricity sector with large disagreement between models (Kim et al.). Some 1.5°C pathways no  
 6 longer see a role for nuclear fission by the end of the century, while others still project 80 EJ yr<sup>-1</sup> of  
 7 nuclear power in 2100. Bioenergy is a major supplier of primary energy for reasons discussed above  
 8 (220-400 EJ yr<sup>-1</sup> interquartile range, median 250 EJ yr<sup>-1</sup>). The largest part of bioenergy is used in  
 9 combination with CCS (Rose et al. 2014a).

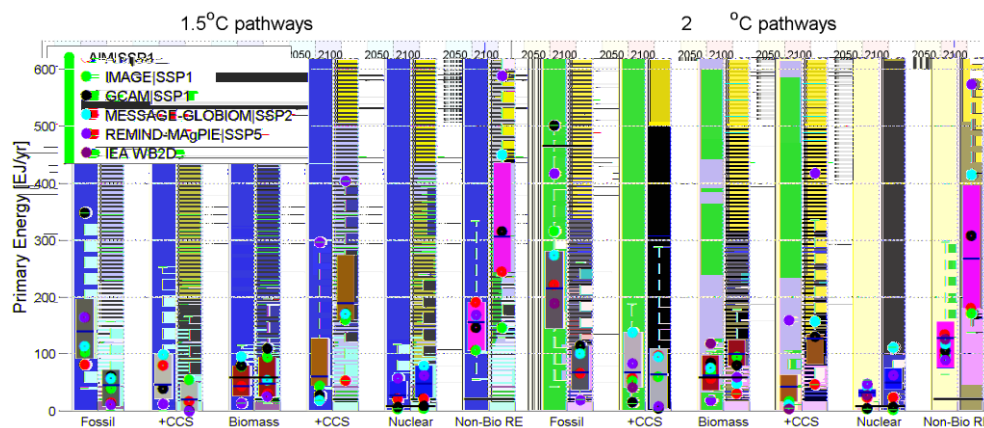
11 While the amount and structure of final energy demand is very similar in 1.5°C and WB2C pathways,  
 12 there are some significant differences in the underlying primary energy mix. As the energy transition  
 13 is accelerated by several decades in 1.5°C pathways, residual fossil-fuel use without CCS is lower in  
 14 2050, while combined hydro, solar, wind power deployment is higher. By the end of century, both is  
 15 still the case indicating that unabated residual fossil fuel use is further replaced with carbon-free  
 16 alternatives rather than neutralised via CDR. Nevertheless, CDR deployment levels are higher in 1.5°C  
 17 pathways due to the larger overshoot of the carbon budget (Section 2.4.2). This leads to a substantial  
 18 increase of bioenergy for BECCS by around 50 EJ yr<sup>-1</sup> (median levels) compared to WB2C pathways.  
 19 Fossil fuel use with CCS is strongly reduced in 1.5°C pathways since significantly higher carbon  
 20 prices make CCS installation with capture rates below 99% increasingly uneconomic (Rogelj et al.  
 21 2017a).



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3 **Figure 2.27:** Primary energy supply for five selected 1.5°C pathways (top panel) and associated 2°C pathways  
 4 plus the IEA’s recently published WB2D scenario (IEA / IRENA 2017) (middle panel) and across  
 5 the range of 1.5°C pathways collected in the SR1.5 database for the assessment in this chapter  
 6 (lower panel. Black horizontal lines indicate values of primary energy supply in 2014 (IEA 2016).  
 7  
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9 **2.4.3.3 Alternative visions of carbon neutral energy systems**

10 There are a number of alternative visions of carbon neutral energy systems with less reliance on  
 11 bioenergy that are currently not yet covered by global mitigation pathway modelling. One option is to  
 12 further reduce energy demand for mobility and manufacturing to levels that make residual liquids and  
 13 gases use negligible. Associated measures and radical demand reduction scenarios are assessed in  
 14 Chapter 4 of this report. To present a qualitative difference from the range of 1.5°C and WB2C  
 15 pathways in the literature, those scenarios would need to suggest a combined global energy demand  
 16 for industry and transport of less than 100 EJ yr<sup>-1</sup> at the end of the century (Figure 2.26).  
 17 Other visions rely on a complete substitution of liquids and gases use by electricity, hydrogen or some  
 18 other carbon-free energy carrier or on the production of carbon-neutral hydrocarbons, e.g., via  
 19 combination of hydrogen generated from renewable electricity and carbon dioxide captured from the  
 20 atmosphere (Zeman and Keith 2008). Alternatively, algae are considered as a bioenergy source with  
 21 much more limited implications for land use and agricultural systems (Walsh et al. 2016). As a further  
 22 alternative, CDR measures with permanent storage (mineralisation and enhanced weathering) are  
 23 investigated as a substitute for terrestrial CDR measures and BECCS (Mazzotti et al. 2005; Hartmann  
 24 et al. 2013). Progress in the understanding of the potential, economics and viability of these alternative  
 25 ways to achieve and maintain carbon neutral energy systems in the second half of the century can  
 26 affect the characteristics of 1.5°C mitigation pathways assessed here.

## 2.5 Challenges, opportunities and co-impacts of transformative mitigation pathways

This section aims to draw attention to aspects other than climate outcomes of 1.5°C mitigation pathways. Focus is given to challenges and opportunities related to policy regimes, mitigation costs and co-impacts that can be derived from the existing literature and scenario comparison exercises. Attention is also given to uncertainties and critical assumptions underpinning mitigation pathways and associated outcomes. The aspects discussed hereafter indicate unprecedented intra- and intergenerational policy and geopolitical challenges. The challenges and opportunities identified in this section are also further elaborated in Chapters 3, 4 and 5.

### 2.5.1 Policy narratives and potential implications

More than a decade ago, experiments with integrated assessment models most often created scenarios under idealised policy conditions which assumed that climate change mitigation measures are only undertaken where and when they are the most effective (Clarke et al. 2014). Such ‘idealised implementation’ scenarios assume that a global price on carbon emissions is implemented across all countries, all economic sectors, and rises over time through 2100 in a way that will minimise discounted economic costs (Clarke et al. 2014). As highlighted in AR5, scenarios developed under these assumptions are often referred to as ‘least-cost’ or ‘cost-effective’ scenarios because they result in the lowest aggregate global mitigation costs when assuming that global markets and economies operate in a frictionless, idealised way (Clarke et al. 2014).

In the last decade, model experiments have been developed that diverge from these idealised policy assumptions with an aim to explore the influence of policy barriers to implementation of globally cost-effective climate change mitigation, particularly in the near term. Such scenarios are often referred to as ‘second-best’ scenarios. Examples of some of the barriers that have been modelled and explored in multi-model comparisons are (i) fragmented policy regimes in which some regions champion immediate climate mitigation action (for example, starting from 2010 or 2020) while other regions join this effort with a delay of one or more decades (Clarke et al. 2009; Blanford et al. 2014; Kriegler et al. 2015a), (ii) prescribed near-term mitigation efforts (until 2020 or 2030) after which a global mitigation targets is attempted to be achieved (Tavoni et al. 2012; Kriegler et al. 2015a; Riahi et al. 2015; Luderer et al. 2013a, 2016c; Rogelj et al. 2013), or (iii) variations in technology preferences in mitigation portfolios (Edenhofer et al. 2010; Tavoni et al. 2012; Luderer et al. 2012; Krey et al. 2014b; Kriegler et al. 2014a; Riahi et al. 2015). In addition to large model intercomparison studies, dedicated single model studies have also explored other policy variations, for example, how the reliability of national institutions influences investment risk and hence climate mitigation investment decisions (Iyer et al. 2015b), and find that stringent mitigation is impaired by these more sophisticated investment assumptions.

Recent integrated modelling activities that use the framework of the Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (O’Neill et al. 2014), and for which also 1.5°C scenarios are available (Rogelj et al. 2017a), apply a structured set of second-best policy assumptions that are consistent with the overall storylines of the respective SSPs. These are called ‘Shared Policy Assumptions’ (SPAs), and play a key role in linking socioeconomic pathways to forcing and climate related outcomes (Kriegler et al. 2014b). These assumptions specify the level of global cooperation in efforts to reduce emissions (particularly in the near term), the level of stringency over time, the sectoral coverage and the level of effectiveness of land-use mitigation (Riahi et al. 2017; Kriegler et al. 2014b). Through a combination of a set of policy assumptions for fossil fuels and industry and for the land-use sector, five distinct policy contexts have been defined in line with each respective SSPs (Table 2.11). All quantified SSP scenarios assume fragmented mitigation policies until 2020, and vary in global convergence thereafter (Riahi et al. 2017). Policy assumptions which imply that climate change mitigation action is delayed from what would be possible in a fully cooperative world strongly influence the achievability of stringent mitigation targets, including limiting warming to 1.5°C (Rogelj et al. 2013; Luderer et al. 2013a).

1 Studies using the structured set of socioeconomic and policy assumptions of the SSPs indicate that the  
2 mitigation effort required to achieve a specific climate forcing target greatly depends on the SSP  
3 baseline scenario (Riahi et al. 2017; Bauer et al. 2017; Rogelj et al. 2017a), and hence on the path  
4 followed in terms of technological and societal development. Policy-driven scenarios that encompass  
5 lower energy intensity and limit energy demand reduce the risks of stabilisation targets becoming  
6 unreachable (Clarke et al. 2014; Riahi et al. 2015). SSP1 hence translates (by design) into relatively  
7 low mitigation challenges, whereas SSP3 and SSP5 describe futures that pose the highest mitigation  
8 challenges. This is reflected in the stringent mitigation scenarios in line with 1.5°C that have recently  
9 been modelled with the SSPs (Rogelj et al. 2017a). An overview of participating models, successful  
10 (feasible) scenarios and related combinations of SSPs and SPAs is provided in Table 2.12. None of the  
11 IAMs could produce a 1.5°C scenario under SSP3/SPA3 assumptions, due to the impossibility under  
12 its policy assumptions to achieve globally coordinated mitigation action before mid-century. By then,  
13 a carbon budget much larger than what is admissible for limiting warming to 1.5°C is already locked  
14 in and emitted. Combined with the small technological capacity to reduce or offset CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and  
15 the high GHG emissions from the land-use sector, reaching the low forcing levels required to be in  
16 line with a warming of 1.5°C is not possible under these policy and socioeconomic assumptions. Also  
17 under other socioeconomic and policy assumptions achieving the stringent forcing targets in line with  
18 1.5°C becomes very challenging. For example, in the very unequal yet environmentally conscious  
19 world of SSP4, some models cannot limit radiative forcing to low levels because of the inability to  
20 control emissions from land-use under the assumptions of this SSP. Policy assumptions can also be  
21 varied further within one socioeconomic world. For example, one multimodel intercomparison study  
22 (Luderer et al. 2016a) explored the effect of assuming implementation of the current NDCs until 2030  
23 on 1.5°C pathways and stringent reductions thereafter, and finds that this delay in globally coordinated  
24 actions leads to many models finding no options anymore to stay within the carbon budget during the  
25 21st century.  
26  
27

1 **Table 2.11:** Summary of Shared Policy Assumptions assumed for climate change mitigation pathways according to the overall storylines of the respective SSPs and their  
 2 associated mitigation challenges. Source: (Riahi et al. 2017)  
 3

SSP-SPA combination	Policy stringency in the near term and timing of regional participation	Policy Coverage of land use emissions	Energy Systems (Supply & Demand in baseline scenarios)	Mitigation challenge
SSP1-SPA1	Early accession with full regional cooperation on climate policies targeting emissions from fossil-fuel use and industry after 2020 ( <b>F1</b> )	Effective coverage (at the level of emissions control in the energy and industrial sectors) Price all land use emissions at the level of carbon prices in the energy sector ( <b>LP</b> )	Increasing shares of renewables and other low-carbon energy carriers. Decoupling of energy demand from economic growth due to energy efficiency measures and behavioural changes. Effective energy access policies, reducing the use of coal and traditional biomass in households.	Low mitigation challenge due to the combination of low baseline fossil fuel emissions, low energy demand, no delays beyond 2020, favourable conditions of technology development and full participation of land mitigation.
SSP2-SPA2	Some delays in climate policies targeting emissions from fossil-fuel use and industry and fragmentation until 2020 with regions transitioning to global cooperation between 2020–2040 and linear transition to a globally uniform carbon price by 2040 ( <b>F2</b> )	Intermediately effective coverage (limited REDD, but effective coverage of agricultural emission) Price all land use emissions at the level of carbon prices in the energy sector, without leading to afforestation or stopping deforestation before 2030 ( <b>LD</b> )	Continuation of the current fossil-fuel dominated energy mix. Energy demand roughly doubles in 2100. Effective energy access policies, reducing use of coal and traditional biomass in households	Intermediate mitigation challenge due to intermediate assumptions for i) baseline emissions, ii) energy demand, iii) delays, and iv) land participation
SSP3-SPA3	Late accession and fragmentation in climate policies targeting emissions from fossil-fuel use and industry – higher income regions (with an average per capita income of \$12600 \$ yr <sup>-1</sup> or higher in 2020) join global regime between 2020–2040, while lower income regions start the transition during the period 2030–2050 ( <b>F3</b> )	Very limited coverage and limited pricing of land use emissions, due to implementation barriers and high transaction costs. ( <b>LN</b> )	Heavy reliance on fossil fuels with an increasing contribution of coal to the energy mix. Energy demand roughly doubles in 2100.	High mitigation challenge due to high baseline emissions, major delays, limited technological progress and very limited participation of land in mitigation
SSP4-SPA4	Early accession with full regional cooperation on climate policies targeting emissions from fossil-fuel use and industry after 2020 ( <b>F1</b> )	Intermediately effective coverage and pricing of land use emissions (limited REDD, but effective coverage of agricultural emissions) ( <b>LD</b> )	Increasing shares of renewables and other low-carbon energy carriers. Decoupling of energy demand from economic growth due to energy efficiency measures and behavioural changes.	Low mitigation challenge due to no delays beyond 2020, relatively low energy demand combined with intermediate assumptions for land mitigation and intermediate assumptions for baseline emissions. Challenges in SSP4 will most likely be between SSP1 and SSP2.

SSP5-SPA5	Some delays in global action and fragmentation in climate policies targeting emissions from fossil-fuel use and industry until 2020 with regions transitioning to global cooperation between 2020–2040 and linear transition to a globally uniform carbon price by 2040 ( <b>F2</b> )	Effective coverage (at the level of emissions control in the energy and industrial sectors) Price all land use emissions at the level of carbon prices in the energy sector ( <b>LP</b> )	Heavy reliance on fossil fuels with an increasing contribution of coal to the energy mix. More than tripling of energy demand over the century. Effective energy access policies, reducing use of coal and traditional biomass in households.	High mitigation challenge due to the combination of high fossil fuel baseline emissions, very high energy demand, and delays in mitigation.
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**Table 2.12:** Summary of models attempting to create scenarios with an end-of-century forcing of  $1.9 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ , consistent with limiting warming to below  $1.5^\circ\text{C}$  in 2100, and related SPAs. Notes: 1= successful scenario consistent with modelling protocol; 0= unsuccessful scenario; x= not modelled; 0\*= not attempted because scenarios for a  $2.6 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  target were already found to be unachievable in an earlier study. SSP3 - SPA3 for a more stringent  $1.9 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  radiative forcing target have thus not been attempted anew by many modelling teams. Marker implementations of each SSP1 are indicated in blue. Source: (Rogelj et al. 2017a)

Model	Methodology	Reported scenario				
		SSP1-SPA1	SSP2-SPA2	SSP3-SPA3	SSP4-SPA4	SSP5-SPA5
AIM	General equilibrium (GE)	1	1	0*	0	0
GCAM4	Partial equilibrium (OE)	1	1	X	0	1
IMAGE	Hybrid (system dynamic models and GE for agriculture)	1	1	0*	X	X
MESSAGE-GLOBIOM	Hybrid (systems engineering PE model)	1	1	0*	X	X
REMIND-MAgPIE	General equilibrium (GE)	1	1	X	X	1
WITCH-GLOBIOM	General equilibrium (GE)	1	1	0	1	0

### 2.5.1.1 Policy regimes in line with $1.5^\circ\text{C}$ scenarios

The available literature indicates that policy-driven mitigation pathways in line with a  $1.5^\circ\text{C}$  (or  $2^\circ\text{C}$ ) temperature goal require highly robust, ambitious and urgent transformative policy regimes. Scenarios that encompass weak and fragmented policy regimes are unable to limit global warming below a  $1.5^\circ\text{C}$  or  $2^\circ\text{C}$  limit with high likelihood (Clarke et al. 2014; Luderer et al. 2016c; Blanford et al. 2014), such regimes also include the current NDCs (Fawcett et al. 2015; Rogelj et al. 2017b; Hof et al. 2017). In other words, weak short-term policy mitigation efforts and fragmented scenarios use up a large share of the long-term cumulative carbon budget before 2030-2050, increasing the probability of exceeding the carbon budget in line with limiting warming to below  $1.5^\circ\text{C}$  or  $2^\circ\text{C}$  (van Vuuren et al. 2016; Bertram et al. 2015a).

Moving from a  $2^\circ\text{C}$  to a  $1.5^\circ\text{C}$  target requires higher levels of transformative policy regimes in the short run, which allow deep decarbonisation pathways to emerge and a net zero energy-economy system to be achieved by 2040-2060 (Bataille et al. 2016b; Rogelj et al. 2015a). This requires higher levels of technological deployment (Sections 2.3 and 2.4) and assumes more profound social, economic and political transformation. Aggressive policies addressing energy demand appear to be central in keeping  $1.5^\circ\text{C}$  within reach during this century and lowering mitigation costs (Rogelj et al. 2013; Luderer et al. 2013a; Rogelj et al. 2015a). Model assumptions indicate that effective behavioural and societal change are critically needed for achieving a  $1.5^\circ\text{C}$  pathway (details in Chapter 4). Modelled policy options allow global emission to peak by 2020 and can drive the complete decarbonisation of the energy-economy system by approximately mid-century. Despite inherent levels of uncertainty attached to modelling studies (for example, related to climate sensitivity, carbon-cycle response), all policy-driven pathways stress the urgency for transformative policy efforts to reduce GHG emissions in the short term (Riahi et al. 2015). Highly ambitious policies targeting both the decarbonisation of the supply side and the reduction of energy use on the demand side play a major role across mitigation pathways (Clarke et al. 2014; Riahi et al. 2015; Kriegler et al. 2014a). Important mitigation options outside the energy supply and end-use sectors include reduced deforestation, the expansion of forest land cover (afforestation and/or reforestation) and the reduction of the greenhouse gas intensity of agriculture (Riahi et al. 2017; Bauer et al. 2017; Popp et al. 2017; Rogelj et al. 2017a). Studies also show that technology policies could have an important role with regards to development and uptake of zero-carbon technologies in the shorter term but that in the longer term, strong carbon pricing mechanisms seem to be necessary to ensure efficient reductions in GHG emissions (Kriegler et al. 2015a). Model results underscore the need for an integrated and ambitious global response to

1 climate change mitigation (for feasibility aspects of global multilateral policy regimes, see Chapter 4).  
2 Even if values of lower probability of equilibrium climate sensitivity (ECS) and transient climate  
3 response (TCR) are considered, the urgency for robust mitigation policies for temperature goals more  
4 stringent than 2°C remains (Rogelj et al. 2014b).

5  
6 The near-term stringency of the policies also has implications for the use and deployment of CDR  
7 options (e.g. to compensate for residual emissions in the long-term). Delayed mitigation policies  
8 increase the need for the full portfolio of mitigation measures, including CDR (Riahi et al. 2015;  
9 Clarke et al. 2014). At the same time, CDR deployment is already substantial in immediate policy  
10 scenarios (see Sections 2.3 and 2.4). Policies driving bioenergy use show a similar or higher share of  
11 bioenergy when BECCS is excluded than when it is allowed (Klein et al. 2014).

12 Multiple factors can affect the efficiency and effectiveness of stringent policy options. Stringent  
13 mitigation policies can interact with a wider portfolio of pre-existing policy instruments that address  
14 multiple areas (e.g., technology markets, economic growth, poverty alleviation, climate adaptation)  
15 and deal with various market failures and behavioural anomalies (e.g., information asymmetries,  
16 heuristics) that prevent mitigation actions. Furthermore, policies may also not exclusively address  
17 mitigation but also target other objectives (e.g., public health, energy security) (Shindell et al. 2012;  
18 Jewell et al. 2016). Climate impacts can also affect the effectiveness of mitigation policies, but are  
19 generally not taken into account in integrated assessment models. These aspects generate interactions  
20 and frictions over time so overlaps and synergies exist. In addition to stringent policy options which  
21 are tightened over time, critical issues driving results in mitigation pathways relate to compliance  
22 levels, international cooperation and political acceptability (Blanford et al. 2014; Riahi et al. 2017;  
23 Kriegler et al. 2013; Peters 2016).

24  
25 Implementation limits and hurdles that mitigation pathways entail from a practical policy point of  
26 view have to be addressed explicitly (Kriegler et al. 2014b). Whereas the policy issues identified in  
27 this section pertain to the theoretical dimension of mitigation pathways, aspects related to 1.5°C  
28 mitigation policies in practice are of prime importance. For instance, questions and solutions  
29 to institutional capacity, distributional equity, consumption preferences, economic conditions, market  
30 development, societal change and energy demand, and intra- and inter-generational issues need to be  
31 confronted with a real world perspective; including historical precedents. These issues are discussed in  
32 detail in Chapters 3, 4 and 5.

### 33 34 35 *2.5.1.2 Limitations of IAMs in examining all policy options*

36 Although model-based assessments project drastic near, medium and long-term transformations in  
37 1.5°C, projections also often struggle to capture today's transformative change and the dynamics  
38 associated with it: including disruption, innovation, and nonlinear change in human behaviour  
39 (Rockström et al. 2017). Regular revisions and adjustments are standard for expert and mode  
40 projections, for example, to account for new information like the adoption of the Paris Agreement.  
41 However, it is informative to note that the deployment pace of key mitigation technologies, like solar  
42 photovoltaic installations and renewables, has been consistently underestimated by key experts over  
43 the past decade, showing the difficulty of adequately estimating social and technological transitions  
44 (Haegel et al. 2017; Figueres et al. 2017), and illustrating the challenges of producing scenarios  
45 consistent with a quickly evolving market (Sussams and Leaton 2017).

46  
47 Some studies describe the transitions that are deemed necessary in the short term at the sector level to  
48 keep the door open for a 1.5°C pathway (Climate Action Tracker 2016; Rockström et al. 2017),  
49 indicating their pace should be governed by novel schemes rather than by inertia imposed by  
50 incumbent technologies (Rockström et al. 2017). These studies also aim at providing signs that a  
51 transition of the magnitude required for a 1.5°C transition is in principle possible, and in some cases is  
52 already happening (see Table 2.13).



**Table 2.13:** Transitions that need to happen in key sectors in the short term for a 1.5°C pathway, based on available studies.

	Energy	Cities & Infrastructure	Transport	Industry	Food Systems	Afforestation
A roadmap for rapid decarbonisation (Rockström et al. 2017)	Coal will be about to exit the global energy mix by the end of 2020. By 2040, oil will be about to exit the global energy mix. Polycentric power grids using supraconductive cables will start supplying energy in developing countries, and radical new energy generation solutions will enter the market. Natural gas still provides some backup energy, but CCS ensures its carbon footprint is limited. By 2050 global economy powered by carbon-free energy.	By 2020, all cities in the industrialised world should have decarbonisation strategies in place. All building construction must be carbon-neutral or carbon-negative after 2030. Improving energy efficiency alone would reduce emissions 40 to 50% by around 2030 in many residential cases.	Phase-out of internal combustion engines in new cars by 2030. By 2040 internal combustion engines for personal transport will have become rare on roads worldwide and aircraft fuel should be entirely carbon neutral.	By 2020, all major corporations in the industrialised world should have decarbonisation strategies in place. Emissions-free concrete and steel after 2030 (or replaced by zero- or negative-emissions materials). Improving energy efficiency would reduce emissions 40 to 50% by around 2030 in many industrial cases.	Agro-industries, farms, and civil society should develop a worldwide strategy for sustainable food systems to drive healthier, low-meat diets and reduce food waste. By 2050 global economy fed from carbon-sequestering sustainable agriculture.	
Carbon Action Tracker <sup>2</sup>		To transform the entire standing building stock before 2050 and complete phase-out of direct emissions from buildings by 2050.	Zero-emissions vehicles would have to constitute 100% of newly-sold vehicles worldwide before 2035.	New installations in emissions-intensive sectors (steel, cement, ammonia, petrochemicals) are low-carbon after 2020, and start development and deployment of new near-zero emission technology.	Up to 20% emissions reduction from adopting best practices. E.g., healthy diets, food waste reduction.	Stop net deforestation by 2020s. Afforestation of degraded land before 2030. Reduce forestry emissions and other land use to 95% below 2010 levels by 2030.

<sup>2</sup> The analyses conducted for energy supply and end-use sectors in this report refer to the sector-specific results of (Rogelj et al. 2015a) as the point of departure. Technology-specific assessments are based on various technical studies including the IPCC AR5 (IPCC 2014), IEA Energy Perspectives 2016 (IEA 2016), and the Climate Action Tracker's own calculations.

Low Carbon Technology Partnership Initiative (LCTPI) <sup>3</sup>	1.5 TW of additional renewable energy capacity by 2025.	Reduce projected energy use in buildings by 50% by 2030 through energy efficiency in buildings.	Use sustainably produced biofuels for 27% of total transport fuel by 2050. Achieve CO <sub>2</sub> neutral freight transport within the 21 <sup>st</sup> century;	Cement industry emission reductions in the range of 20-25% in 2030 compared to BAU. 0.4 GtCO <sub>2</sub> e reduction per year in the chemical industry's emissions by 2030 through new breakthrough technologies	Reduce agricultural and land-use change emissions from commercial agriculture by 50% by 2030. Achieve a 65% emissions reduction by 2050.	Increase forest carbon stocks by 3 GtCO <sub>2</sub> yr <sup>-1</sup> .
Mission 2020 (Figueres et al. 2017)	By 2020 Renewable make up at least 30% of the world's electricity supply. No coal-fired power plants are approved beyond 2020, and existing ones are retired.	By 2020 Cities are upgrading at least 3% of their building stock to zero- or near-zero emissions structures each year, to fully decarbonise buildings and infrastructures by 2050.	EV make up >15% of new car sales globally by 2020. Doubling of city mass-transit utilisation, 20% increase in fuel efficiencies for heavy-duty vehicles and 20% decrease in GHG emissions from aviation per km travelled	Heavy industry goal of halving emissions well before 2050	Sustainable agricultural practices can reduce emissions and increase CO <sub>2</sub> sequestration in healthy, well-managed soils.	Emissions from deforestation and land-use changes to be cut to zero by 2020 decade. Afforestation and reforestation create a carbon sink by 2030
Expect the Unexpected. (Sussams and Leaton 2017)	Solar PV could supply 23% of global power generation by 2040 and 29% by 2050. Coal is phased out of the power mix by 2040.		EVs account for 35% of the road transport market by 2035 and over two-thirds by 2050			
Drawdown <a href="http://www.drawdown.org/">http://www.drawdown.org/</a>	246.14 Gt reduced CO <sub>2</sub> by 2050. Wind 25.6 % of world electricity use. Utility-scale solar PV grows to 10 % and Rooftop solar PV grow to 7 % of electricity generation by 2050. Fossil fuels represent 30 % of electricity generation by 2050	54.5 Gt reduced CO <sub>2</sub> by 2050. 9.7 % of new buildings will be net zero by 2050.	51 Gt reduced CO <sub>2</sub> by 2050. EV rises to 16% of total passenger miles and Hybrid vehicles to reach 6 % of the market in 2050. Mass transit represents 40 % of urban travel.	15.6 Gt reduced CO <sub>2</sub> by 2050	321.7 Gt reduced CO <sub>2</sub> by 2050. Combined plant-rich diet and reduced food waste solutions mitigate 5.0 (6.5) Gt per year by 2050. 7.3 Gt per year for agricultural bio-sequestration	84 Gt reduced CO <sub>2</sub> by 2050 through temperate and tropical forest restoration. 18.1 Gt reduced CO <sub>2</sub> by 2050 (afforestation on 204 million acres of marginal lands)

1

<sup>3</sup> Available at [lctpi.wbcsd.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/11/LCTPI-PWC-Impact-Analysis.pdf](http://lctpi.wbcsd.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/11/LCTPI-PWC-Impact-Analysis.pdf)

1 At the same time, modelling in traditional silos, instead of allowing systemic approaches, fails to capture  
2 cross-sectoral efficiencies and synergies. This is particularly relevant for urban systems and food systems  
3 (Lucon et al. 2014; Smith and Bustamante 2014). Urban areas could achieve lower emissions if the role of  
4 urban planning and density were captured (e.g., see Güneralp et al. 2017). Urban planning could also reduce  
5 GHG emissions from urban transport between 20% and 50% (Creutzig 2016). Regarding food systems,  
6 technical GHG reduction potentials related to behavioural changes, such as dietary shifts toward more  
7 healthy nutrition, improved livestock managements, and food waste reduction, strongly exceed the potentials  
8 of supply-side mitigation options in this sector (Smith and Bustamante 2014; Gerber et al. 2013).  
9 Although demand-side solutions are promising, they are not given the same level of attention as  
10 technological supply-side solutions in assessments, modelling efforts, and research and development in  
11 general (Wilson et al. 2012). This is partly because demand-side solutions are often embedded in a complex  
12 network of social institutions and practices, and thus less prone to quantitative analysis and clear-cut  
13 implementation. Comparability between economic potentials at the supply side and technical potentials at the  
14 demand side is limited because demand-side options are difficult to judge in terms of cost-benefit analyses  
15 (Creutzig 2016) partly due to complications of how to define their scope when determining required  
16 investments (Grubler and Wilson 2014).

17  
18 Furthermore, there are also substantial uncertainties in mitigation options which depend, on the one hand, on  
19 model development and the inclusion of options (see Section 2.3.1) and, on the other hand, on modellers'  
20 beliefs and preferences. For example, in addition to the aforementioned behavioural changes and their  
21 effects on methane from agriculture, there are substantial uncertainties in the mitigation potential of HFCs  
22 (Purohit and Höglund-Isaksson 2017) and several air quality-related pollutants because of uncertainties about  
23 which reference emissions in absence of mitigation measure to assume. In the case of HFCs, current  
24 emissions are very low, so the mitigation potential depends almost entirely on hypothetical reference  
25 emissions against which low emission scenarios are compared. The same applies for several air quality  
26 related pollutants. IAMs often assume in line with historical experience that economic growth leads to a  
27 reduction in local air pollution as populations become richer (i.e., an environmental Kuznets curve) (Rao et  
28 al. 2017). In such cases, the mitigation potential is small because reference emissions that take into account  
29 this economic development effect are already low in scenarios which see continued economic development  
30 over their modelling time horizon. Other studies do not apply this historically observed relationship arguing  
31 that it would not necessarily hold in the future, and assume keep air pollution emissions or control standards  
32 constant at some historical level, absent of technological or societal economic development (Amann et al.  
33 2013). Assumption about reference emissions are important because high reference emissions lead to high  
34 perceived mitigation potentials and potential overestimates of the actual benefit, particularly in the context of  
35 mitigation for HFCs and BC-rich sectors, while low reference emissions lead to low perceived benefits of  
36 mitigation measures and thus less incentives to address these important climate and air pollutants (Shindell et  
37 al. 2012; Rogelj et al. 2014a; Velders et al. 2015; Gschrey et al. 2011; Amann et al. 2013; Shah et al. 2015).  
38  
39

#### 40 **Box 2.1:** Economics of 1.5°C Pathways and the Social Cost of Carbon

41  
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43 Markandya, Luis Mundaca, Joyashree Roy, Drew Shindell

44  
45 Two approaches have been commonly used to assess alternative emissions pathways: **cost-effectiveness**  
46 **analysis (CEA)** and **cost-benefit analysis (CBA)**. CEA aims at identifying emissions pathways minimising  
47 the total mitigation costs of achieving a given warming or greenhouse gas (GHG) limit (Clarke et al. 2014).  
48 CBA has the goal to identify the optimal emissions trajectory minimising the discounted flows of abatement  
49 expenditures and monetised climate change damages (Boardman 2006; Stern 2007). A third concept, the  
50 **Social Cost of Carbon (SCC)** measures the total net damages of an extra metric ton of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions due  
51 to the associated climate change (Nordhaus 2014; Pizer et al. 2014). Negative and positive impacts are  
52 monetised, discounted and the net value is expressed as an equivalent loss of consumption today. The SCC  
53 can be evaluated for any emissions pathway under policy consideration (Rose 2012; National Academies of  
54 Sciences and Medicine 2016).

55  
56 Along the optimal trajectory determined by CBA, the SCC equals the discounted value of the marginal  
57 abatement cost of a metric ton of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. Equating the present value of future damages and marginal

1 abatement costs includes a number of critical value judgments in the formulation of the social welfare  
2 function (SWF), particularly in how non-market damages and the distribution of damages across countries  
3 and individuals and between current and future generations are valued. For example, since climate damages  
4 accrue to a larger extent in the farther future and can persist for many years, assumptions about the social  
5 discount rate and social welfare function (discounted utilitarian SWF vs. undiscounted prioritarian SWF) can  
6 heavily influence CBA outcomes and associated estimates of SCC (Nordhaus 2007; Pizer et al. 2014; Adler  
7 and Treich 2015; Adler et al. 2017; National Academies of Sciences and Medicine 2016).

8  
9 In CEA, the marginal abatement cost of carbon is determined by the climate goal under consideration. Policy  
10 goals like the goals of limiting warming to 1.5°C or well below 2°C do not result from a money metric trade-  
11 off between mitigation and damages. In this context, the SCC can be interpreted as the social cost of an  
12 additional ton of emissions reduction under the climate goal. It is the **shadow price of carbon** associated  
13 with a climate objective treated as a political constraint and can be interpreted as the willingness to  
14 pay for this constraint. Value judgments that are explicit in CBA are to a large extent concentrated in the  
15 choice of climate goal. For example, assumptions about the social discount rate no longer affect the overall  
16 abatement levels now set by the climate goal, but only the choice and timing of investments in individual  
17 measures to reach these levels.

18  
19 Although both CBA-based and CEA-based assessment of SCC are subject to large uncertainty about socio-  
20 techno-economic trends, policy developments and climate response, the range of uncertainty in SCC  
21 estimates along an optimal trajectory determined by CBA is far higher than for estimates of the shadow price  
22 of carbon in CEA-based approaches. In CBA, the controversies on the value judgments about inter- and  
23 intra-generational equity combine with criticisms of the type of climate damage functions assumed,  
24 including their empirical basis (Pindyck 2013; Stern 2013; Revesz et al. 2014b). In a CEA-based approach,  
25 the value judgments about the aggregate welfare function matter less and uncertainty about climate response  
26 and impacts can be tied into various climate targets and related emissions budgets (Clarke et al. 2014).

27  
28 The CEA- and CBA-based SCC estimates are derived with a different set of tools. They are all summarised  
29 as integrated assessment models (IAMs) but in fact are of very different nature (Weyant 2017). Detailed  
30 process IAMs such as AIM (Fujimori 2017), GCAM (Thomson et al. 2011; Calvin et al. 2017), IMAGE (van  
31 Vuuren et al. 2017, 2011a), MESSAGE-GLOBIOM (Riahi et al. 2011; Havlík et al. 2014; Fricko et al.  
32 2017), REMIND-MAGPIE (Popp et al. 2010; Kriegler et al. 2017; Luderer et al. 2013b) and WITCH (Bosetti  
33 et al. 2006, 2008, 2009) include a process-based representation of energy and land systems, but in most cases  
34 lack a comprehensive representation of climate damages, and are typically used for CEA. CBA IAMs such  
35 as DICE (Nordhaus and Boyer 2000; Nordhaus 2013, 2017), PAGE (Hope 2006) and FUND (Tol 1999;  
36 Anthoff and Tol 2009) capture the full feedback from climate response to socio-economic damages in an  
37 aggregated manner, but are usually much more stylised than detailed process IAMs. There is currently a  
38 discussion in the literature to what extent they underestimate the SCC due to, for example, a limited  
39 treatment or difficulties in addressing damages to human wellbeing, labour productivity, value of capital  
40 stock, ecosystem services and the risks of catastrophic climate change for future generations (Ackerman and  
41 Stanton 2012; Moore and Diaz 2015; Revesz et al. 2014a; Stern 2016). However, there has been progress in  
42 ‘bottom-up’ empirical analyses of climate damages (Hsiang et al. 2017), the insights of which could be  
43 integrated into these models (Dell et al. 2014). Most of the models used in Chapter 2 on 1.5°C mitigation  
44 pathways are detailed process IAMs. The CBA literature on SCC estimates is briefly assessed in Chapter 3 to  
45 the extent it pertains to the subject of 1.5°C warming.

46  
47 An important question is how results from CEA- and CBA-type approaches can be compared and  
48 synthesised. Such synthesis needs to be done with care, since estimates of the shadow price of carbon under  
49 the climate goal and SCC estimates from CBA might not be directly comparable due to different tools,  
50 approaches and assumptions used to derive them. Acknowledging this caveat, the SCC literature has  
51 identified a range of factors, assumptions and value judgements that support SCC values above \$100 tCO<sub>2</sub><sup>-1</sup>  
52 that are also found as net present values of the shadow price of carbon in 1.5°C pathways. These factors  
53 include the accounting for tipping points in the climate system (Lemoine and Traeger 2014; Lontzek et al.  
54 2015; Cai et al. 2015), a low social discount rate (Stern 2007; Nordhaus 2005) and inequality aversion  
55 (Schmidt et al. 2013; Dennig et al. 2015; Adler et al. 2017).

56  
57 The SCC is not merely a theoretical concept (Pizer et al. 2014; Revesz et al. 2014a; Stiglitz and Stern 2017).

In a frictionless world with no uncertainty, no financial constraints and compensation schemes to guarantee that emissions pathways do not exacerbate existing inequalities in income distribution, the SCC could be translated into a carbon price. As stated by the report of the High-Level Commission on Carbon Pricing (Stiglitz and Stern 2017), in the real world there is a distinction to be made between the implementable and efficient explicit carbon prices and the implicit (notional) carbon prices to be retained for policy appraisal and the evaluation of public investments as is already done in some jurisdictions such as the USA, United Kingdom and France.

The use of the SCC for policy appraisals is however not straightforward in an SDG context. There are suggestions that a broader range of impacts from greenhouse gases and air pollutants including air quality should be included in social costs (Shindell et al. 2017b; Sarofim et al. 2017) and that the overall macroeconomic and development implications of the 1.5°C and well below 2°C climate goals have to be considered. This is why the Paris Agreement (Article 108) refers to the Social Value of Mitigation activities (SVMA).

### 2.5.2 Economic implications of 1.5°C Scenarios

The economic implications of a particular 1.5°C scenario can be approached in a variety of ways. These include the macro-economic costs expressed as the reduction in consumption or economic output between scenarios with and without climate policy, required investments in specific sectors, or equivalent carbon prices in line with an efficient implementation of the emission reduction objective. A discussion of macro-economic impacts of mitigation is provided in Box 2.1, and investments in the energy supply system are discussed in Section 2.3.4.4. We hence focus here on the carbon price characteristics of 1.5°C pathways as a metric to investigate the economic implications of stringent mitigation pathways. Under a cost-effective analysis (CEA) framework, carbon prices reflect the stringency of mitigation requirements at the margin (i.e., cost of mitigating one extra unit of emission) (see Cross-Chapter Box Economics of 1.5°C Pathways and the Social Cost of Carbon). Emissions prices are usually expressed in carbon (equivalent) prices using the GWP-100 metric as exchange rate for pricing emissions of non-CO<sub>2</sub> greenhouse gases controlled under internationally climate agreements (like CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O and fluorinated gases, see Cross-Chapter Box on Balance and Metrics in Chapter 1).<sup>4</sup> The carbon prices assessed here are fundamentally different from the concepts of optimal carbon price in a cost-benefit analysis, or the social cost of carbon, but can be used as a point of comparison (see Box 2.2 on Economics of 1.5°C Pathways and the Social Cost of Carbon).

Reported equivalent carbon prices vary substantially across models and scenarios, and their value increase with mitigation efforts (Clarke et al. 2014; Guivarch and Rogelj 2017). Various CEA-based studies have already shown that estimates of carbon prices in stringent mitigation pathways depend on projected energy demand, resulting emissions, mitigation potentials, technology availability, abatement costs and interactions with other policy instruments, amongst other aspects (Clarke et al. 2014; Riahi et al. 2017; Rogelj et al. 2015c; Kriegler et al. 2015a). CEA studies also reveal no unique carbon pricing path (Bertram et al. 2015a; Riahi et al. 2017; Kriegler et al. 2015a).

*[More quantitative estimates and discussion of macro-economic mitigation costs may be included in the SOD as data becomes available.]*

#### Box 2.2: Macro-economic impacts of mitigation

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Studies using cost-effectiveness analysis (CEA, see Box on the Economics of 1.5°C pathways) estimate macro-economic impacts of mitigation pathways in terms of variation in economic output or consumption levels over the long term (Krey et al. 2014, Annex II.3.2, pg. 1292), without considering the benefits of limiting climate change as well as co-impacts on other sustainable development goals (von Stechow et al. 2015). Some global integrate assessment models and many country models also report on variations of

<sup>4</sup> Also other metrics to compare emissions have been suggested and adopted by governments nationally (Kandlikar 1995; Marten et al. 2015; Shindell 2015; Interagency Working Group on Social Cost of Greenhouse Gases 2016).

1 employment levels and trade balances. Those variations are measured against a hypothetical baseline without  
2 mitigation policy or a policy reference scenario (Section 2.5.2) at various points in time or discounted over a  
3 given time period.

4  
5 If GDP and consumption variations fall below the baseline, they are reported as losses or macro-economic  
6 costs<sup>5</sup>. This is a frequent source of misunderstanding. Such cost estimates give an indication how economic  
7 activity slows in the long-term relative to the baseline, they do not describe a reduction of output and  
8 consumption levels relative to previous years. Macro-economic costs of mitigation need to be clearly  
9 distinguished from the marginal abatement costs that describe the cost of reducing the last unit of emissions  
10 (Paltsev and Capros 2013). Macro-economic mitigation costs aggregate the cost of all emissions abatement  
11 that took place up to the level of marginal abatement costs. A country with a large abatement potential at low  
12 marginal abatement cost levels may spend more on overall abatement than a country with high marginal  
13 abatement costs and low abatement potential. If the marginal abatement cost is equated throughout the  
14 world, a country with a high dependence to carbon intensive industry (developing countries in a catch-up  
15 phase) can be more impacted than a country relying on services and low carbon intensive activities (Tavoni et  
16 al. 2013, 2014).

17  
18 Aggregate mitigation costs depend strongly on assumptions about the baseline providing the yardstick  
19 against which policy costs are measured. The baseline is therefore a critical concept in CEA. When assuming  
20 well-functioning, forward-looking and globally integrated markets in the baseline – a situation Working  
21 Group 3 called “idealised implementation environment” in the IPCC Fifth Assessment Report (Clarke et al.  
22 2014; Krey et al. 2014a) – the least cost strategy to internalise a climate goal constitutes a globally uniform  
23 emissions price minimising the discounted sum of mitigation costs over time. In the real world, perfect  
24 expectations and perfect markets do not exist; rather climate policies will interact with existing policies and  
25 other distortions in labour, energy, capital, and land markets. In this case the optimal policies in a so called  
26 first best world might no longer apply (Lipsey and Lancaster 1957).

27  
28 Starting from a non-optimal baseline might lead either to more pessimistic conclusions about the macro-  
29 economic costs of climate policies (in case of absence of compensating transfers or of market imperfections  
30 slowing down the adaptation of economic actors) or to more optimistic conclusions if policy reforms are  
31 conducted synergistically with the climate objective. A strand of literature has explored ways of using the  
32 revenues of carbon prices (principally carbon taxes) to conduct fiscal reforms that reduce more distortionary  
33 taxes and offer, under certain conditions, a “double dividend” by providing both environmental benefits and  
34 an aggregate economic gain especially in the form of higher employment (Goulder 1995, 2013; Bovenberg  
35 and De Mooij 1994; Bovenberg and Goulder 1996; Bovenberg and van der Ploeg 1994; Bovenberg 1999).  
36 Yet, the magnitude of these effects depends on country specific circumstances, notably implementation and  
37 revenue recycling schemes (Fullerton and Metcalf 1997), behaviour of labour markets (Guivarch et al.  
38 2011), the price elasticity of imports, and exports and the capacity to reduce tax evasion (Liu 2013).

39  
40 In the aftermath of the 2008 financial crisis, a strand of literature developed, sometimes referring to the  
41 notion of green growth (New Climate Economy 2014), to examine how the low carbon transition could open  
42 a new long-term growth cycle (Stern and Rydge 2012) and new development opportunities (Jakob et al.  
43 2016). Whether new economic opportunities might be unlocked (OECD 2017) will depend upon the capacity  
44 to avoid a crowding out effect between carbon saving investments and other investments (Pollitt and  
45 Mercure 2017) and to maximise spill-over effects (Popp and Newell 2012). This capacity will also depend  
46 upon the possibility of using the low carbon transition to reduce the ‘savings glut’ (Hourcade and Shukla  
47 2013) that has been associated with the risk of ‘secular stagnation’ (Krugman 2009; Summers 2016).

48  
49 Ultimately, the macro-economy of climate policies concerns primarily their short and medium term impacts  
50 in a world far from an equilibrium, whereas the mitigation pathways literature assessed in Chapter 2 of this  
51 report conveys important information about the long-term economic equilibrium of low carbon development  
52 paths.

53 Carbon prices in 1.5°C pathways are markedly higher than in 2°C pathways, as it demands a much faster

---

<sup>5</sup> An in-depth discussion about macro-economic mitigation cost metrics is provided in Annex II, Section A.II.3.2 of the IPCC Fifth Assessment Report of Working Group III (Krey et al. 2014a). Here we only summarise a few key concepts relevant for the assessment of the economics of 1.5°C pathways in Chapter 2.

1 near-term decarbonisation of the energy-economy system (Section 2.3). Under ‘well-below 1.5°C’ pathways  
2 (WB1.5C, see Table 2.3 for definitions of the scenario classes used here), carbon prices range from  
3 approximately 1–160 US\$ tCO<sub>2</sub><sup>-1</sup> in 2020 to 240–32000 US\$ tCO<sub>2</sub><sup>-1</sup> in 2100 (Figure 2.28; Note: this is  
4 excluding scenarios that attempt to reach a 1.5°C pathway from NDC levels in 2030). Under ‘well below  
5 2°C’ (WB2C) scenarios, carbon prices range from approximately 1–30 US\$ tCO<sub>2</sub><sup>-1</sup> in 2020 to 140–8300 US\$  
6 tCO<sub>2</sub><sup>-1</sup> by the end of the century. Due to the variety of modelling approaches underlying the available  
7 scenario set, the relative increase in carbon prices of WB1.5C scenarios is particularly pronounced in the  
8 near term. For instance, carbon prices in 2040 under WB1.5C scenarios are higher by a factor of 10 (21–3)  
9 compared to WB2C scenarios. The scenario providing the high estimate in these ranges has limited  
10 flexibility of substituting fossil fuels with low carbon technologies and the associated need to compensate  
11 fossil-fuel emissions with CDR options (e.g., BECCS) in the model which produced (WITCH-GLOBIOM,  
12 SSP1), as described in a different context in (Kriegler et al. 2015b). This distribution of carbon prices  
13 highlights the importance of being aware of potential sampling bias in scenario ensembles towards outcomes  
14 derived from models which are more flexible, have more mitigation options, and have cheaper cost  
15 assumptions and thus can provide feasible scenarios in contrast to other who are unable to do so (Tavoni and  
16 Tol 2010; Kriegler et al. 2015b). However, in a like-with-like comparison of WB2C and WB1.5C scenario  
17 pairs, average discounted carbon prices between WB1.5C and WB2C scenarios differ by about a factor of  
18 two to eight across models and socioeconomic assumptions (here approximated by three SSP marker  
19 scenarios for which both WB1.5C and WB2C scenarios are available, Figure 2.28). Consistent with the  
20 literature (Luderer et al. 2013a; Hof et al. 2017; Rogelj et al. 2013), the estimates suggest that mitigation  
21 costs increase significantly when a higher level of stringency is pursued. Despite marked differences in  
22 absolute terms between carbon prices in WB1.5C pathways, the correlation between carbon prices and GH  
23 reductions when moving from WB2C to WB1.5C pathways suggests agreement among models regarding the  
24 relative increase in carbon prices between the two scenario classes.  
25

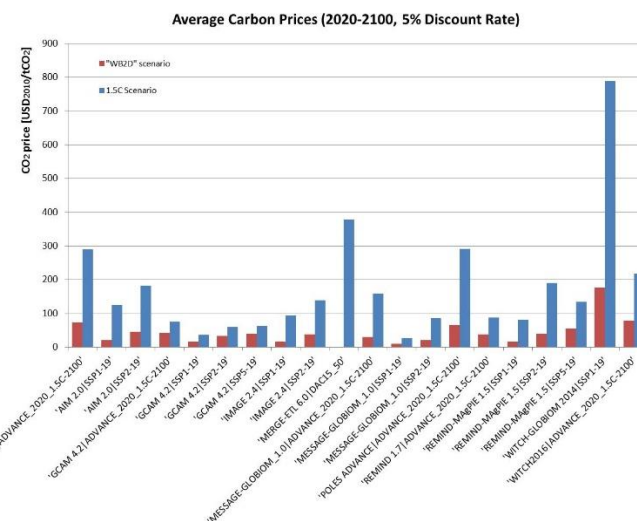
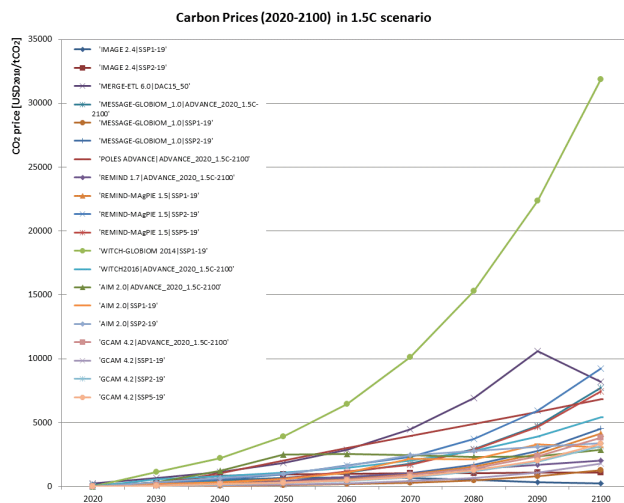
26 Irrespective of the stringency of the climate objective, socioeconomic conditions also strongly influence  
27 carbon price levels. The characteristics of the technology portfolio, particularly in terms of costs, availability  
28 and performance been shown to play a key role (Clarke et al. 2014; Luderer et al. 2013a, 2016c; Rogelj et al.  
29 2015c; Riahi et al. 2015). Models that encompass a higher degree of technology granularity and that entail  
30 more flexibility regarding mitigation response, often produce relatively lower mitigation costs than those that  
31 show less mitigation flexibility (Kriegler et al. 2015b). Technology limitations increase mitigation costs and  
32 technology improvements or breakthroughs reduces costs (Rogelj et al. 2015c; Riahi et al. 2015). The SSPs  
33 allow here for a structured comparison. Models that provide scenarios for both SSP1 (‘sustainability’) and  
34 SSP5 (‘fossil-fuelled development’) narratives (i.e., REMIND and GCAM, see Section 2.5.1) consistently  
35 show lower values under SSP1 than SSP5. For example, discounted average WB15C carbon prices (2020-  
36 2100) differ by about a factor of two in these two modelling frameworks, from 35–80 US\$ tCO<sub>2</sub><sup>-1</sup> under  
37 SSP1 to 65–135 US\$ tCO<sub>2</sub><sup>-1</sup> in SSP5. A factor of three is found in WB2C scenario pairs. This illustrates  
38 quantitatively the lower economic mitigation challenges under SSP1 assumptions compared to SSP5. Also  
39 earlier, demand-side measures that increase energy efficiency or limit energy demand have been identified as  
40 a critical enabling factor reducing mitigation costs for stringent mitigation scenarios across the board (Riahi  
41 et al. 2012; Clarke et al. 2014; Bertram et al. 2015a).  
42

43 Finally, delayed near-term mitigation policies and measures, including limited extent of international global  
44 cooperation, increases total economic mitigation costs, corresponding carbon prices and transitional  
45 challenges (Clarke et al. 2014; Luderer et al. 2013a), because stronger efforts are required in the period after  
46 the delay to counterbalance the higher emissions in the near-term. Mitigation challenges are further increased  
47 by failures to adopt strong and effective policies in the near term (2020-2030), as more fossil-based capacity  
48 investments are stranded (Luderer et al. 2016c; Johnson et al. 2015; Bertram et al. 2015a) and mitigation  
49 pathway in line with 1.5°C become more dependent on costlier CDR options (Smith et al. 2015). Staged  
50 accession scenarios produce higher costs than immediate action mitigation scenarios under the same  
51 stringency level of emissions (Kriegler et al. 2015a).  
52

53 Carbon pricing is becoming an increasingly important and expanding instrument of climate and energy  
54 policy around the world. Over 40 national and 24 subnational initiatives have explicitly created a price for  
55 carbon emissions (World Bank et al. 2016). Approximately 13% of global GHG emissions were priced  
56 directly via a tax or emissions trading system (ETS) in 2016 (World Bank et al. 2016). As of April 2017,  
57 observed carbon prices in practice ranged from 1 US\$ tCO<sub>2</sub><sup>-1</sup> (e.g., Chongqing pilot ETS) to about 130 US\$

1 tCO<sub>2</sub><sup>-1</sup> (Sweden carbon tax), with approximately three quarters of emissions being priced below 10 US\$  
 2 tCO<sub>2</sub><sup>-1</sup> (World Bank et al. 2016). The value of carbon markets worldwide was about US\$ 50 billion US\$ in  
 3 2016 (World Bank et al. 2016). In most cases, emissions taxes and emission market price levels,  
 4 respectively, are considerably lower than carbon prices (marginal abatement cost) estimates in least-cost  
 5 1.5°C pathways. The gap may reflect political economy considerations, a low prioritisation for climate  
 6 mitigation, or an emphasis on trade-offs with other societal objectives (see Chapter 4).

7  
 8 Emissions tax levels or emissions targets are usually chosen based on a multitude of considerations beyond a  
 9 long-term climate goal or an estimated social welfare impact of climate change (Newell et al. 2014; Stern  
 10 2007; Baranzini et al. 2017). Carbon markets also operate simultaneously with pre-existing taxes and other  
 11 policy options such as renewable portfolio standards, energy efficiency obligations, emissions standards and  
 12 early retirement of fossil-fuel installations (Goulder and Parry 2008; Koch et al. 2014; Goulder and Schein  
 13 2013; Sorrell and Sijm 2003; Mundaca 2008). If emissions abatement is partly achieved by those measures,  
 14 emissions prices will only reflect the marginal abatement costs of remaining emissions reductions under the  
 15 target, which are lower than the marginal costs of the full emissions abatement (Bertram et al. 2015b).  
 16 Carbon market prices can also be affected by a variety of factors, such as information asymmetries across  
 17 markets actors, market risks, credibility, emission uncertainties, market power and regulatory uncertainty  
 18 (Rannou and Barneto 2016; Jiang et al. 2014; Fan et al. 2010; Goulder and Schein 2013; Zachmann and  
 19 Hirschhausen 2008; Cramton and Kerr 2002; Mundaca and Richter 2013; Newell et al. 2014). Considering  
 20 incomplete and uncertain information, an optimal carbon tax of the magnitude estimated by modelled 1.5°C  
 21 and 2°C pathways needs to be compared with what is politically feasible at the global, national, regional and  
 22 sectoral level (see Chapter 4).



24 **Figure 2.28:** Global average carbon prices. (top panel) global annual carbon prices in selected WB1.5C scenarios;  
 25 (bottom panel) global carbon prices averaged and discounted with 5% over the 2020-2100 period in  
 26 WB1.5C and WB2C for selected scenario pairs.  
 27



### 2.5.3 Sustainable development features of 1.5°C pathways

Since AR5, an increasing number of modelling studies show that sustainable development objectives and climate policy targets are interrelated, and that synergies and trade-offs can be identified (Jakob and Steckel 2016; von Stechow et al. 2016). Synergies include aspects related, for example, to air quality, ocean acidification, water use, biodiversity, fuel poverty and job creation. Identified co-impacts also include poverty alleviation, improved energy security and public health. Trade-offs often arise from the large-scale deployment or restrictions of certain mitigation technologies and their related risks (e.g., nuclear or CCS), the impact of policy instruments (e.g., on fuel poverty Moss et al. 2014; Cameron et al. 2016), and risks associated with direct climate impacts or resource use by mitigation measures (e.g., water scarcity and cooling water (Fricko et al. 2016), or food production and land-based mitigation measures or bioenergy production (Popp et al. 2017; Jakob and Steckel 2016; von Stechow et al. 2016). Mitigation costs can vary significantly when climate and sustainability scenarios are simultaneously assessed (Jakob and Steckel 2016). Studies call for an integrated assessment framework to simultaneously evaluate climate and sustainable development policies (Griggs et al. 2014; von Stechow et al. 2016) (see details in Chapter 5).

In the past, model-analysis of 1.5°C and 2°C pathways focused almost exclusively on climate policy. However, it is increasingly suggested in international climate policy that many countries will only accept costly climate policies if these align with achieving other societal goals, such as the Sustainable Development Goals or other local or national priorities like energy security or public health (e.g., see Kennel, F. et al. 2012; Jewell et al. 2016). Potential synergies between climate and development policies are an emerging and active field of research. The SSP framework allows for first steps in the exploration of these interactions. The SSP1 ‘sustainability’ scenario is an example of a scenario in which climate policy is implemented alongside other goals such as a focus on providing sufficient food, providing modern energy, avoiding deforestation and reducing local air pollution. For its quantification, achievement by 2030 of full access to modern energy (consistent with SDG7), significant reductions of global air pollution for health reasons (SDG3), and significant gains in access to food (SDG2) have been assumed (van Vuuren et al. 2017). While the SDGs have not been targeted in SSP1, the scenario leads to significant improvement in access to modern energy and food, reductions in air pollutants (Rao et al. 2017), and overall low food and energy demand facilitating climate change mitigation (Riahi et al. 2017; Popp et al. 2017).

A qualitative assessment of the synergies and trade-offs of individual mitigation measures and sustainable development goals across relevant SDGs’ outcomes has been carried out in Chapter 5. These insights can be synthesised and linked to the portfolios of mitigation measures found in 1.5°C pathways in this chapter, thus allowing a first order mapping of 1.5°C mitigation pathways and SDG interactions. This assessment is based on a set of possible individual mitigation measures (i.e., technologies, processes or practices) and a set of portfolios (i.e., different combinations of mitigations measures) compatible with 1.5°C (Section 2.3.4), and their interactions with sustainable development dimensions (Chapter 5). It allows to better understand the impact of alternative mitigation pathways towards the same 1.5°C objective, with particular attention to socioeconomic, institutional, political, behavioural and technological aspects. Based on the forthcoming assessment of Chapter 5 (which will be finalised for the SOD), a table will graphically rank alternative scenarios based on their sustainability profile for thematic clusters of sustainable development dimensions.

## 2.6 Assessment tools and knowledge gaps

The literature on mitigation pathways assessed in this chapter is based on a broad range of tools. Many of these tools are similar to those underlying the IPCC Fifth Assessment Report. However, to provide readers with relevant context for the assessment in this chapter, key tools and their applicability, strength and limitations will be briefly assessed in this section.

The chapter draws on global mitigation pathway studies with full coverage of sectorial emissions over the 21<sup>st</sup> century, and also upon the wider mitigation literature which looks at specific mitigation options in more isolated settings. While the former type of studies is typically based on global integrated assessment models (IAMs), the latter type often uses more detailed sector- or region-specific models with a time horizon until mid-century. This chapter also describes the geophysical tools of the assessment that are needed to relate

1 emissions pathways to climate response. Finally, the chapter also aims to place the quantitative literature on  
2 mitigation pathways into the context of the transition and development literature where possible and  
3 relevant. This section gives a short overview on how this literature relates to 1.5°C mitigation pathways.  
4  
5

### 6 **2.6.1 Integrated and sector-specific assessment models**

7

8 Integrated assessment models (IAMs) lie at the basis of the assessment of mitigation pathways in this chapter  
9 as much of the quantitative global scenario literature is derived with such models. IAMs combine insights  
10 from various disciplines in a single framework resulting in a dynamic description of the coupled energy-  
11 economy-land-climate system that cover the largest sources of anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions from  
12 different sectors. Over time, the system coverage of integrated assessment models has also increased. Many  
13 of the IAMs that contributed mitigation scenarios to this assessment now include a process-based description  
14 of the land system in addition to the energy system (for example, Wise et al. 2014; Kriegler et al. 2017;  
15 Fricko et al. 2017), and some have been extended to cover air pollutants, water, and material use. These  
16 features makes them increasingly apt to explore questions beyond those that touch upon climate mitigation  
17 only. In addition to the process-based IAMs that provide integrated scenarios, this chapter also draws from  
18 insights from sector specific assessment models. Such models typically focus on a specific sector, like the  
19 building (Lucon et al. 2014) or transport (Sims et al. 2014) sector.  
20

21 The IAMs used in the mitigation pathway assessment in this chapter are detailed process-based models, with  
22 limited to no coverage of climate impacts in their model structure. This is fundamentally different from  
23 much more aggregated cost-benefit IAMs (see Box 6.1 in Clarke et al. 2014) which balance monetised costs  
24 of mitigation and climate damages to identify emissions pathways that optimise global welfare. A detailed  
25 discussion of the strengths and weaknesses of cost-benefit IAMs is provided in AR5 (Kunreuther et al. 2014;  
26 Kolstad et al. 2014; Clarke et al. 2014), and an overview discussion comparing contributions of both  
27 process-based and cost-benefit IAMs is provided in (Weyant 2017).  
28

29 Ultimately, the IAMs that provided input to this assessment are fundamentally not different from those  
30 underlying the IPCC AR5 assessment of transformation pathways (Clarke et al. 2014) and an overview of  
31 these integrated modelling tools can be found there. Furthermore, since AR5, a harmonised model  
32 documentation of IAMs and underlying assumptions has been established within the framework of the EU  
33 ADVANCE project: <http://www.fp7-advance.eu/content/model-documentation>.  
34  
35

### 36 **2.6.2 Geophysical assessment tools**

37 The geophysical assessment in this chapter draws upon results from both complex climate models and  
38 reduced complexity climate models. Complex general circulation models (GCMs) and Earth system models  
39 (ESMs) simulate the fully coupled Earth system, including its atmospheric and ocean circulation, ESMs  
40 additionally include vegetation feedbacks and multiple biogeochemical cycles, including the carbon or the  
41 nitrogen cycle. The report also employs results from reduced complexity climate models such as MAGICC  
42 (Meinshausen et al. 2011a). These two classes of geophysical assessment tools come with their own  
43 strengths and limitations but take up complementary roles. GCMs and ESMs reflect our most detailed up-to-  
44 date understanding of the Earth system, but the computational cost of such tools is excessively high to  
45 simulate a large ensemble of scenarios. Reduced complexity climate models are developed to closely  
46 emulate GCMs based on physical principles, they can be run multiple thousands of times, but make simple  
47 approximations and typically do not simulate regional responses.  
48

49 The IAM pathways considered in this chapter and throughout the report have used estimates of radiative  
50 forcing and global mean surface temperature derived from the MAGICC model, calibrated to previous CMIP  
51 phases of coupled model results (Meinshausen et al. 2011a). The same model was extensively employed to  
52 assess scenarios within IPCC AR5 WG3 (Clarke et al. 2014). The spread of equilibrium climate sensitivity  
53 (ECS) simulated by MAGICC is similar to that exhibited by CMIP5 models, but the AR5 assessment of ECS

1 had a smaller likely lower bound (1.5 K) than seen in the models (Collins et al. 2013a). Tuning to C4MIP  
2 would also suggest a larger sensitivity to rising CO<sub>2</sub> compared to CMIP5 models, although a multi-model  
3 intercomparison indicated that the default MAGICC calibration is close to the median of other model  
4 approaches (Joos et al. 2013). Complex ESMs can exhibit non-linearity in their carbon cycle response,  
5 especially in high emission scenarios that simple models do not capture (Frölicher 2016; Tokarska et al.  
6 2016). These are less relevant for the low emission pathways discussed here, more important is the hysteresis  
7 found in the carbon cycle response when transitioning between periods of positive and negative CO<sub>2</sub>  
8 emissions (Zickfeld et al. 2016). Such a hysteresis in the carbon cycle response may not be correctly  
9 captured by simple models such as MAGICC and could be important for overshooting scenarios assessed in  
10 this report (see Section 2.2.2). Nevertheless, the MAGICC model was able to represent the range of  
11 temperature projections exhibited by the CMIP5 models, across most RCP scenarios (see Collins et al. 2013a  
12 Figure 12.8 and Clarke et al. 2014 Figure 6.12), both in terms of its median temperature response and 5-95%  
13 uncertainty range. This good fit was not true of RCP2.6, where MAGICC underestimated the spread in  
14 climate response compared to CMIP5 models. This can be traced to: 1) a single treatment of short-lived  
15 climate forcers within MAGICC compared to a diversity within CMIP5 models, and 2) a lack of internal  
16 variability in MAGICC (Collins et al. 2013a).

17  
18 For this report, we adopt the MAGICC setup as employed in WG3 IPCC AR5 to assess carbon budgets and  
19 determine the evolution of atmospheric composition and global mean temperature from the scenario  
20 literature. Improvements in the geophysical knowledge of climate sensitivity, carbon cycle responses and in  
21 radiative forcing are expected for IPCC AR6 which could alter this report's findings (see Sections 2.2.2 and  
22 2.6.4).

### 23 24 25 **2.6.3 Sociotechnical transitions literature**

26  
27 Sociotechnical transitions literature puts significant attention to the role of actors, such as citizens,  
28 businesses, stakeholder groups or governments, as well as the interplay of technical, behavioural,  
29 institutional and socio-political dimensions in shaping mitigation pathways. The transitions literature thus  
30 complements insights from integrated and sector-specific assessment models that primarily point to the  
31 mitigation solutions involving technology, fuel switching, efficiency improvements, infrastructure, and to  
32 some extent behaviour change. Transitions literature is very diverse body of research. One stream revolves  
33 around historical case studies, such as the conceptual analysis of German and UK energy transitions in 1990-  
34 2014 (Geels et al. 2016). Similar historical case studies inform development of a theoretical framework  
35 (Geels and Schot 2007) and this framework is applied in elaborating future transitions (Verbong and Geels  
36 2010). Such historical analyses thus identify ideal patterns of change from the past and apply these patterns  
37 qualitatively to the future, without specifying how future transition could actually unfold (Turnheim et al.  
38 2015). As historically-informed sociotechnical transitions literature does not provide quantitative or global-  
39 level insights on future mitigation pathways, some efforts have been undertaken for developing  
40 sociotechnical transition models (Li et al. 2015). These models, however, are still at very early stages of  
41 development and validation.

42  
43 Another stream of sociotechnical literature relies on initiative-based learning in local studies (Turnheim et al.  
44 2015), including local experiments (Raven et al. 2008) and so-called living labs (Liedtke et al. 2015).  
45 Initiative-based learning assumes that to achieve a wanted transition, the relevant actors need to be involved  
46 in defining and legitimising this transition and hence the actors' motives and strategies must be studied  
47 (Turnheim et al. 2015). These initiative-based learning case studies often prioritise the end-use and localised  
48 solutions for mitigation which often are less fleshed out in integrated or sector-based models (Wilson et al.  
49 2012). However, insights from these initiative-based learning case studies cannot be easily scaled up to  
50 provide quantitative global-level insights on future mitigation pathways.

51  
52 As integrated and sector-specific assessment models and methods from sociotechnical transitions literature  
53 appear complementary, there have been efforts to combine these approaches for deriving joint transition  
54 insights and mitigation solutions. Conceptual strategies for aligning and bridging modelling-based studies,  
55 historical sociotechnical analyses and initiative-based learning have been suggested (Turnheim et al. 2015).  
56 Qualitative storylines of, for example, historically-informed energy transition governance have been  
57 quantified for the decades ahead using multiple energy system models (Trutnevyte et al. 2014). Systematic

1 qualitative scenario methods, such as Cross Impact Balance, have been also used to elaborate sociotechnical  
2 transition pathways as an interplay of global, national and sector-specific drivers and then quantified with a  
3 model (Vögele et al. 2017). However, there are only few experiments of bridging sociotechnical transitions  
4 literature and integrated or sector-specific assessment models.

#### 7 **2.6.4 Knowledge gaps**

9 IAMs attempting to be as comprehensive as possible in order to explore interactions between various societal  
10 subsystems, like the economy, land, and energy system. They hence include stylised and simplified  
11 representations of these subsystems. In several cases, sectorial assessment models have identified different  
12 (and often larger) mitigation potentials for single sectors than what is available in global IAMs (for example,  
13 see Lucon et al. 2014). A certain lag in the integration of the latest knowledge in global IAMs is to be  
14 expected and highlights the importance of continuously updating models with the latest sectorial insights.  
15 Moreover, a general underrepresentation of studies and research exploring end-use measures to climate  
16 mitigation has been identified in the literature (Wilson et al. 2012). In recent years, IAMs have shifted from  
17 modelling scenarios for ideal worlds (so-called first-best worlds) to also exploring scenarios in which  
18 important barriers are explicitly assumed. These barriers can come under the form of unavailable or limited  
19 mitigation technology options (for example, Krey et al. 2014b; Kriegler et al. 2014a), delayed or fragmented  
20 mitigation policies (for example, Riahi et al. 2015; Kriegler et al. 2015a), or variations in the regional risk to  
21 investments (Iyer et al. 2015b), amongst other aspects. Also the various socioeconomic developments as  
22 explored with the Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (O'Neill et al. 2017; Riahi et al. 2017) follow this  
23 general evolution, and include narratives with relatively low barriers to mitigation as well as narratives with  
24 high mitigation challenges. Finally, IAMs typically do not include climate impacts on societal subsystems  
25 (van Vuuren et al. 2012). This affects both baselines (in which climate impacts can, for example, affect the  
26 efficiency of power generation and agricultural productivity), and mitigation scenarios (which, for example,  
27 can rely on larger bioenergy shares that can be affected by climate impacts). A full coupling of IAMs and  
28 ESMs can lead to shifts in optimal mitigation pathways (Thornton et al. 2017).

30 In terms of sociotechnical transitions literature, there are clear complementarities between integrated and  
31 sector-specific assessment models that provide quantitative aggregated representation of future mitigation  
32 pathways and the insights on the role and interplay of the key actors, behavioural, institutional and socio-  
33 political dimensions. Sociotechnical literature today, however, remains diverse and at times scattered due to  
34 its focus on local or specialised case studies. The link between insights from historical transitions analyses or  
35 initiative-based learning case studies and the integrated and sector-specific assessment models are also not  
36 straightforward to establish. Although strategies to combine the strengths of these different approaches are  
37 emerging, they are still relatively scarce.

39 The climate sensitivity and carbon cycle responses remain uncertain and radiative forcing estimates of  
40 greenhouse gases and aerosols are continuously being improved. AR5 assessed ECS to be with a likely  
41 (>66%) range of 1.5-4.5K. This is a lower low-estimate compared to the range of CMIP5 models (Collins et  
42 al. 2013a), and also the MAGICC ECS distribution has not explicitly been selected to reflect this. This  
43 caveat could skew the range of MAGICC results quoted here towards smaller remaining carbon budgets and  
44 higher temperature change. However, work since AR5 is suggesting that the lower bound of ECS will likely  
45 be revised upwards (Gregory and Andrews 2016; Armour 2017; Marvel et al. 2016; Shindell 2014; Zhai et  
46 al. 2015; Tan et al. 2016; Sherwood et al. 2014; Proistosescu and Huybers 2017), helping to justify the  
47 MAGICC ECS range. Estimates of greenhouse gas (notably methane) and other forcings such the aerosol  
48 forcing are also undergoing revisions (Etminan et al. 2016; Carslaw et al. 2013). At present it is too early to  
49 determine potential biases in MAGICC's physical response. In the version used here, MAGICC is run in the  
50 same setup as for AR5, which did not include MAGICC's permafrost module (Schneider von Deimling et al.  
51 2012). The setup used here does hence not account for possible increased methane emissions from  
52 permafrost melting or wetlands possibly leading to an overestimate of the remaining carbon budget and an  
53 underestimate of future temperature projections, although permafrost contributions for the levels of warming  
54 assessed here are estimated to be small (Schneider von Deimling et al. 2012).

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