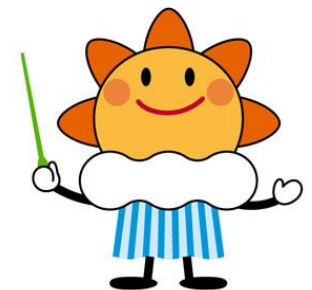


Outline of IPCC AR6

Introduction to IPCC AR6

WAKAMATSU Shunya



Schedule of this seminar

1st Day (9 November 2022)

- Lecture on climate change
- Lecture on IPCC AR6 <- We are here

2nd Day (10 November 2022)

- Lecture on Climate Change Monitoring and Future Projections
- Lecture on assessment of future climate change and introduction to your exercise

3rd Day – 4th Day (11 and 14 November)

- (self-study format) Exercise on Observed Trends and Global Warming Projection for your country

5th Day (15 November)

- Your presentation (6 minutes per person)

PART 1: INTRODUCTION TO IPCC AR6

PART 2: DISCUSSION ABOUT STATEMENTS ABOUT YOUR COUNTRY/REGION

The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)

- IPCC was established by the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) in 1988.
- The IPCC currently has 195 members.
- The objective of the IPCC is to provide governments at all levels with scientific information that they can use to develop climate policies.
 - The IPCC **does not conduct its own research**. Experts volunteer their time as IPCC authors to assess the thousands of scientific papers published to provide a comprehensive summary on assessment reports.
 - The assessment reports are a key input into the international negotiations (e.g., UNFCCC) to tackle climate change. The reports also provide **fundamental information to the member governments**.
- IPCC reports are **neutral, policy-relevant but not policy-prescriptive**.

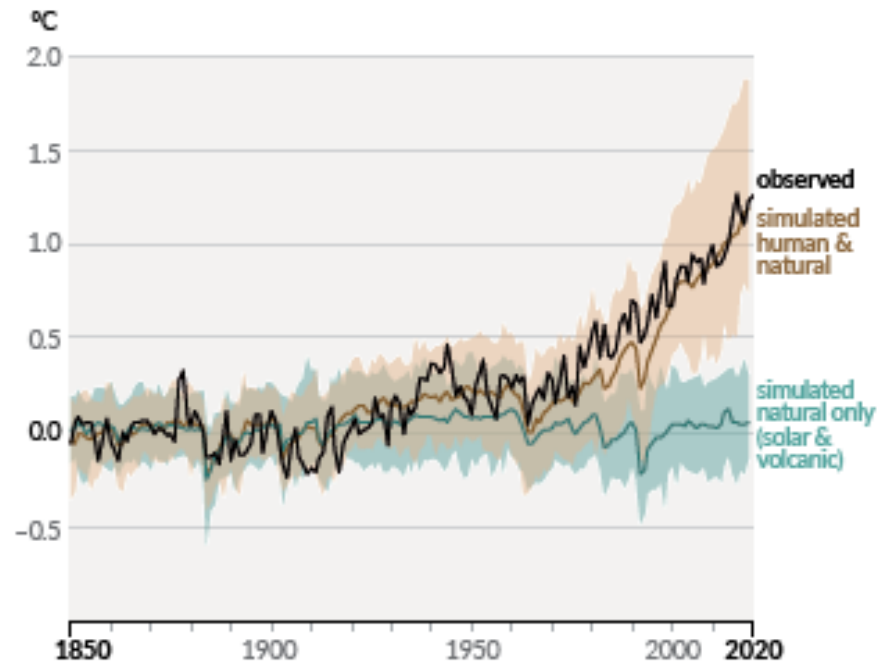


It is unequivocal that human influence has warmed the atmosphere, ocean and land.

- AR5 Climate Change 2013:
 - Warming of the climate system is unequivocal, and since the 1950s, many of the observed changes are unprecedented over decades to millennia.
 - It is extremely likely that human influence has been the dominant cause of the observed warming since the mid-20th century.
- AR4 Climate Change 2007:
 - Warming of the climate system is unequivocal
 - Most of the observed increase in global average temperatures since the mid-20th century is very likely due to the observed increase in anthropogenic greenhouse gas concentrations.
- TAR Climate Change 2001:
 - most of the observed warming over the last 50 years is likely to have been due to the increase in greenhouse gas concentrations
- SAR Climate Change 1995:
 - a discernible human influence on global climate
- FAR Climate Change (1990):
 - There is concern that human activities may be inadvertently changing the climate of the globe through the enhanced greenhouse effect

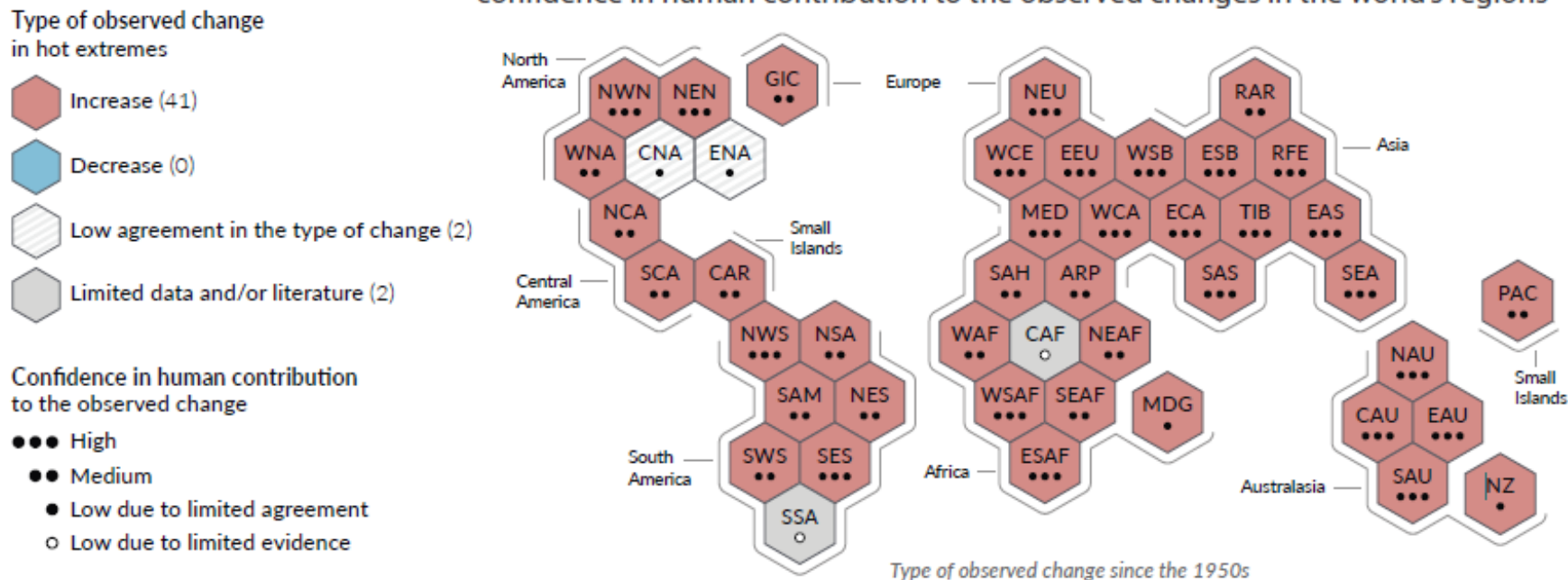
Changes in global surface temperature relative to 1850–1900

Change in global surface temperature (annual average) as **observed** and simulated using **human & natural** and **only natural** factors (both 1850–2020)



Climate change is already affecting every inhabited region across the globe, **with human influence contributing to many observed changes in weather and climate extremes**

(a) Synthesis of assessment of observed change in hot extremes and confidence in human contribution to the observed changes in the world's regions



IPCC AR6 WG1 SPM Figure SPM.3

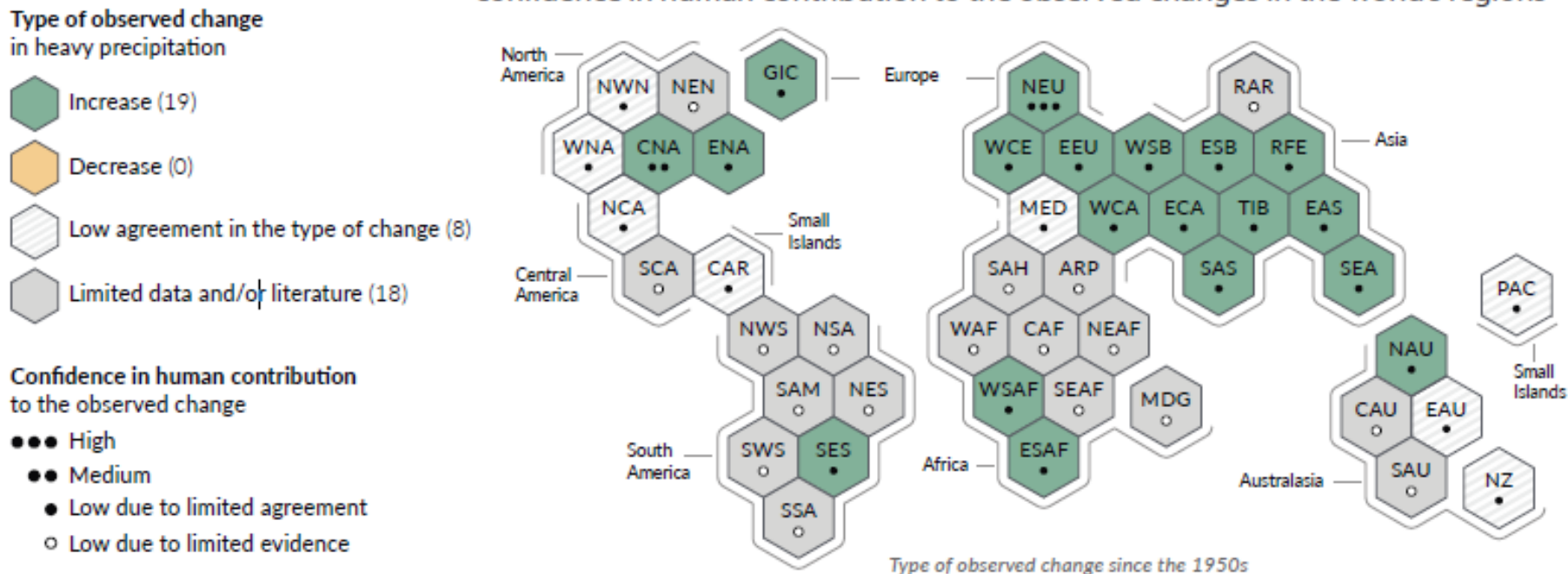
Evidence of observed changes in extremes such as heatwaves, heavy precipitation, droughts, and tropical cyclones, and, in particular, their attribution to human influence, has strengthened since AR5.

The **confidence level** for the human influence on these observed changes is based on assessing trend detection and attribution and event attribution* literature

* the relatively new science of event attribution is able to quantify the role of climate change in altering the probability and magnitude of some types of weather and climate extremes. (FAQ 11.3)

Climate change is already affecting every inhabited region across the globe, **with human influence contributing to many observed changes in weather and climate extremes**

(b) Synthesis of assessment of observed change in heavy precipitation and confidence in human contribution to the observed changes in the world's regions



IPCC AR6 WG1 SPM Figure SPM.3

Evidence of observed changes in extremes such as heatwaves, heavy precipitation, droughts, and tropical cyclones, and, in particular, their attribution to human influence, has strengthened since AR5.

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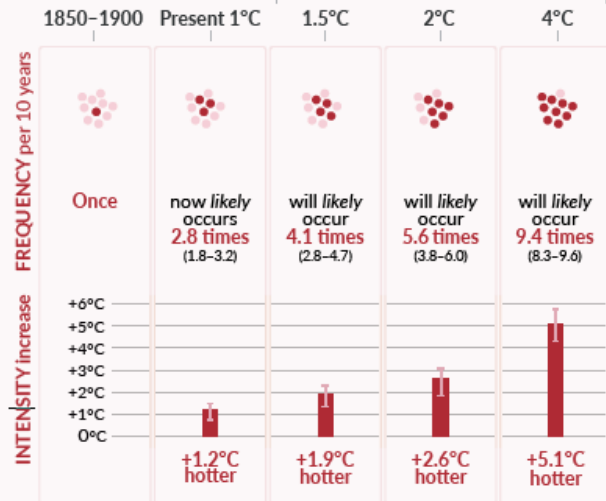
Projected changes in extremes are larger in frequency and intensity with every additional increment of global warming

Hot temperature extremes over land

10-year event

Frequency and increase in intensity of extreme temperature event that occurred once in 10 years on average in a climate without human influence

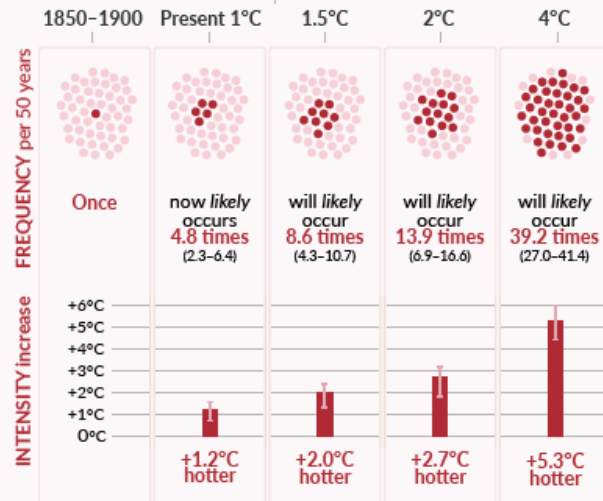
Future global warming levels



50-year event

Frequency and increase in intensity of extreme temperature event that occurred once in 50 years on average in a climate without human influence

Future global warming levels

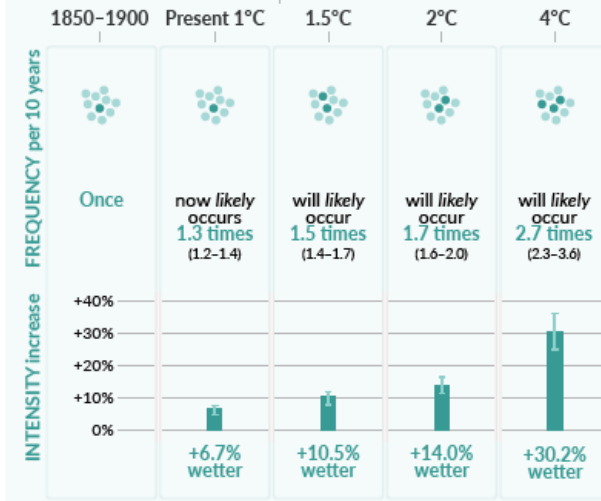


Heavy precipitation over land

10-year event

Frequency and increase in intensity of heavy 1-day precipitation event that occurred once in 10 years on average in a climate without human influence

Future global warming levels

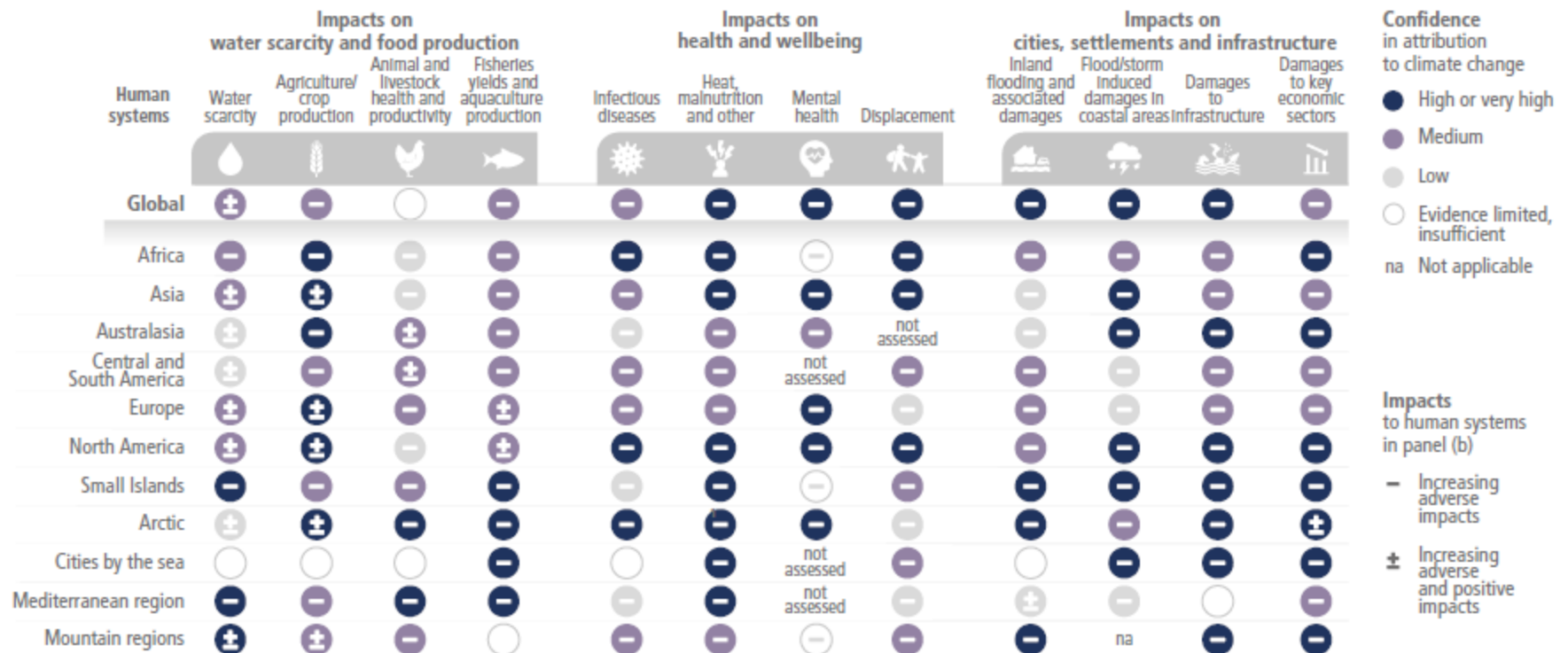


IPCC AR6 WG1 SPM Figure SPM.6

Impacts of extreme events

- Human-induced climate change, including more frequent and intense extreme events, has caused widespread adverse impacts and related losses and damages to nature and people, **beyond natural climate variability**.
- The rise in weather and climate extremes has led to some irreversible impacts as natural and human systems are pushed beyond their ability to adapt.

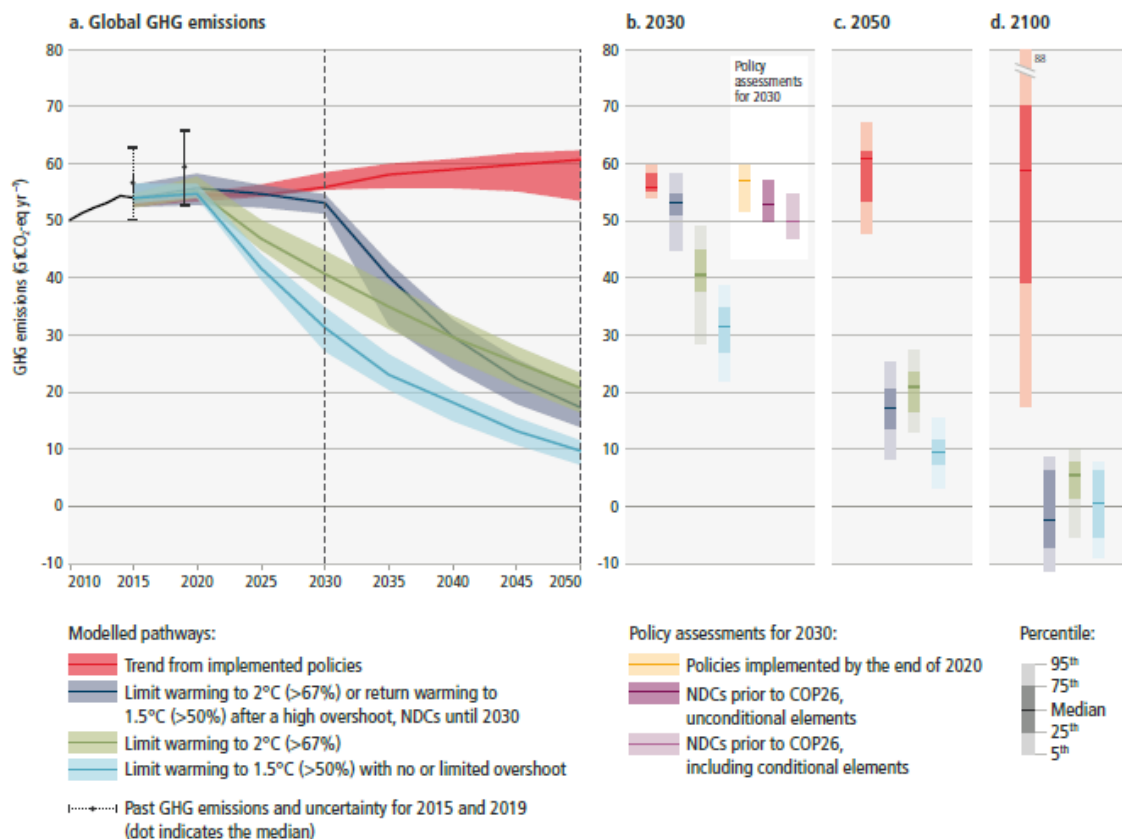
(b) Observed impacts of climate change on human systems



- Adaptation to water-related risks and impacts make up the majority of all documented adaptation (*high confidence*).
- For inland flooding, combinations of non-structural measures like early warning systems and structural measures like levees have reduced loss of lives (*medium confidence*)
- There are a range of adaptation options, such as disaster risk management, early warning systems, climate services and risk spreading and sharing that have broad applicability across sectors and provide greater benefits to other adaptation options when combined (*high confidence*).

Without a strengthening of policies, it leads to a warming of 3.2

- Without a strengthening of policies beyond those that are implemented by the end of 2020, GHG emissions are projected to rise beyond 2025, leading to a median global warming of 3.2 [2.2 to 3.5] °C by 2100
- Global GHG emissions in 2030 associated with the implementation of Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs) announced prior to COP26 would make it likely that warming will exceed 1.5°C during the 21st century.²⁴ Likely limiting warming to below 2°C would then rely on a rapid acceleration of mitigation efforts after 2030.



Projected changes in extremes are larger in frequency and intensity with every additional increment of global warming (WG1)

The magnitude and rate of climate change and associated risks depend strongly on near-term mitigation and adaptation actions, and projected adverse impacts and related losses and damages escalate with every increment of global warming (WG2)

PART 1: INTRODUCTION TO IPCC AR6

**PART 2: DISCUSSION ON IPCC SENTENCES
ABOUT YOUR COUNTRY/REGION**

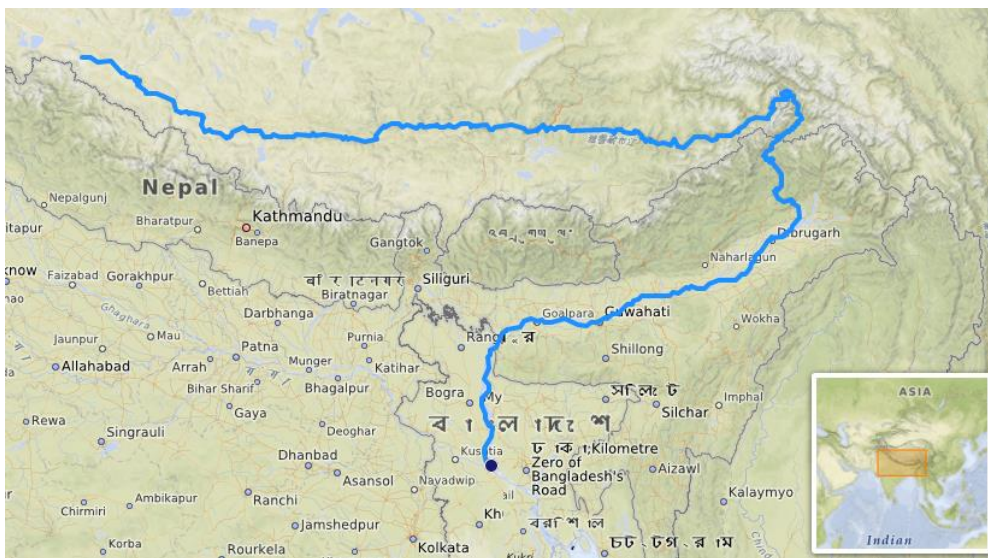
Sentences in Chapter 11

■ Bangladesh

- event attribution focused on **runoff** using hydrological models, and examples include the **Brahmaputra River** in Bangladesh (Philip et al., 2019).
- In Bangladesh, the annual number of propagating **mesoscale convective systems (MCSs)** **decreased** significantly during 1998–2015 based on TRMM precipitation data (Habib et al., 2019).

■ Indonesia

- In **2015** (when Extreme El Niño happened), Indonesia experienced a severe drought and forest fire, causing pronounced impact on economy, ecology and human health due to **haze crisis** (Field et al., 2016; Huijnen et al., 2016; Patra et al., 2017; Hartmann et al., 2018).



Path of the Brahmaputra River

(Wikipedia)



2015 Southeast Asian haze

(Wikipedia)

Sentences in Chapter 11

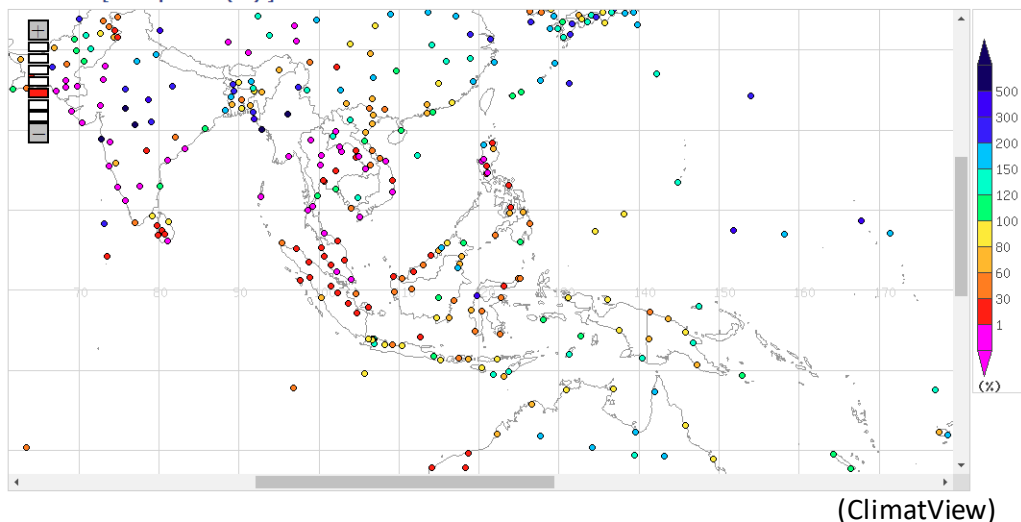
■ Malaysia

- there are studies in regions of almost all continents that generally indicate intensification of sub-daily extreme precipitation, although there remains low confidence in an overall increase at the global scale. Studies include an **increase in extreme sub-daily rainfall in Peninsular Malaysia** (Syafрина et al., 2015),
- In Asia, no climate change signal was found in the record dry spell over Singapore and Malaysia in 2014 (Mcbride et al., 2015) Nevertheless, the South East Asia drought of 2015 has been attributed to anthropogenic warming effects (Shiogama et al., 2020).

■ Mongolia

- Increases in the frequency and duration of **heatwaves** are also observed in Mongolia (Erdenebat and Sato, 2016) and India (Ratnam et al., 2016; Rohini et al., 2016).

2014-02: [Precip. Ratio(%)]



(ClimatView)

dry spell over Singapore and Malaysia in 2014

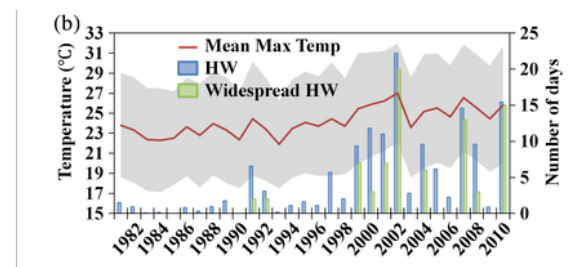


Figure 1

[Open in figure viewer](#) | [PowerPoint](#)

(a) Climatology of HW frequency determined from reanalysis data. White and black circles indicate the 70 surface meteorological stations. Black circles indicate 21 stations used for soil moisture. Red line shows the area used for Figure 4. (b) Interannual variation of JJA-mean maximum air temperature and its standard deviation (gray shading) averaged over the 70 stations in Mongolia. Bars represent the annual number of HW and widespread HW (when more than half of the 70 stations simultaneously observed HW) days, respectively.

(Erdenebat and Sato, 2016)

Sentences in Chapter 11

■ Pakistan

- More intense **heatwaves** of longer durations and occurring at a higher frequency are projected over India (Murari et al., 2015; Mishra et al., 2017) and Pakistan (Nasim et al., 2018).

■ Philippines

- In **Super Typhoon Haiyan**, which struck the Philippines on 8 November 2013, Takayabu et al. (2015) took an event attribution approach with cloud system-resolving (around 1 km) downscaling ensemble experiments to evaluate the anthropogenic effect on typhoons, and showed that the intensity of the simulated worst-case storm in the actual conditions was stronger than that in a hypothetical condition without historical anthropogenic forcing in the model. However, in a similar approach with two coarser parametrized convection models, Wehner et al. (2019) found conflicting human influences on Haiyan's intensity.

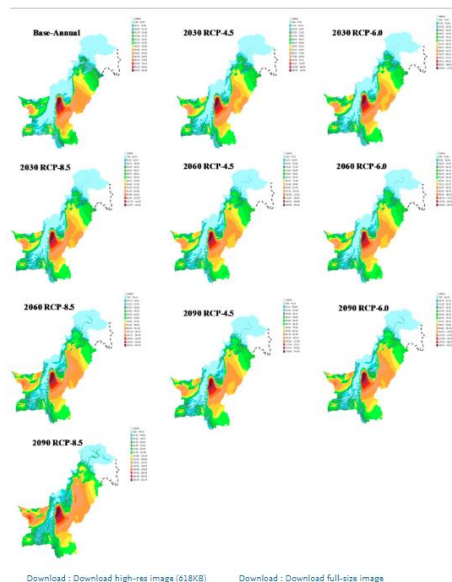
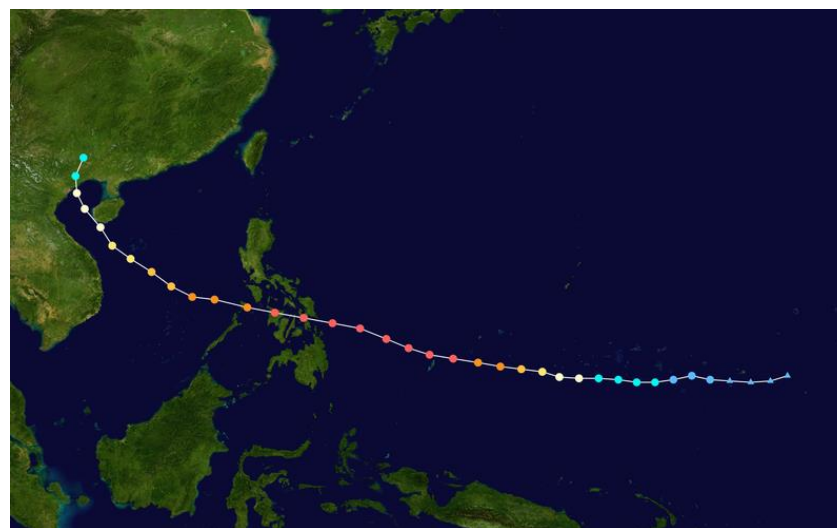


Fig. 8. Projections of Annual heat accumulation by spatial degree day model for 2030, 2060, and 2090 with Representative concentration pathways.

(Nasim et al., 2018)



(Wikipedia)

Map plotting the storm Haiyan's track and intensity, according to the Saffir–Simpson scale

Sentences in Chapter 12

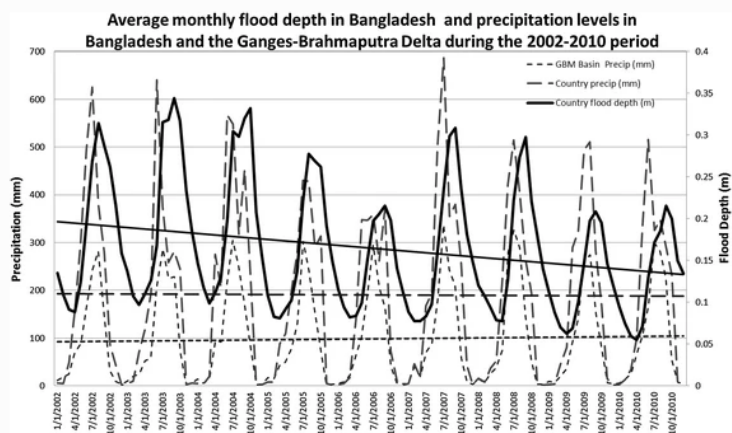
■ Bangladesh

- In South Asia (SAS), the numbers of flood events and human fatalities have increased in India during 1978–2006 (Singh and Kumar, 2013), whereas the average country-wide **inundation depth** has been decreasing during 2002–2010 in Bangladesh, attributed to improved flood management (low confidence) (Science and Nooner, 2018).

■ Indonesia

- High confidence of **decrease (Mean precipitation projected change)** in Indonesia (Atlas.5.4.5).

Fig. 6



Average country flood depth (m) plotted against the average country and basin wide precipitation (mm) between January 1, 2002 and December 27, 2010). Each datasets trend line is also displayed with matching line styles. Flood depth slope was -0.00601 m/year, country level precipitation slope was 0.12 mm/year, and GBM basin level precipitation slope was 0.15 mm/year

(Science and Nooner, 2018)

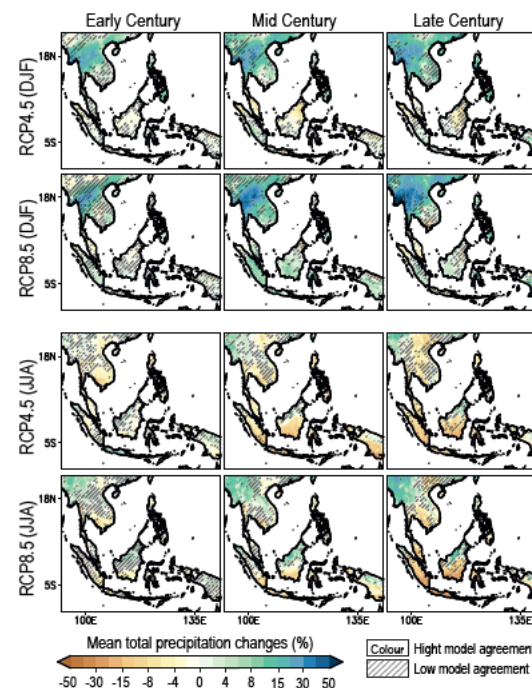


Figure Atlas.19 | The RCM-projected changes in mean precipitation between the early (2011–2040), mid- (2041–2070) and late (2071–2099) 21st century and the historical period 1976–2005. Data are obtained from the CORDEX-SEA downscaling simulations. Diagonal lines indicate areas with low model agreement (less than 80%). Figure adapted from Tangang et al. (2020).

Sentences in Chapter 12

■ Mongolia

- A rate of decrease of 0.214 **hail days** per decade has also been reported for Mongolia between 1984–2013, where the annual number of hail days averaged is 0.74 (Lkhamjav et al., 2017).

■ Nepal

- Intense monsoon rainfall in northern India and western Nepal in **2013**, which led to landslides and one of the worst **floods** in history, has been linked to increased loading of GHG and aerosols (Cho et al., 2016).

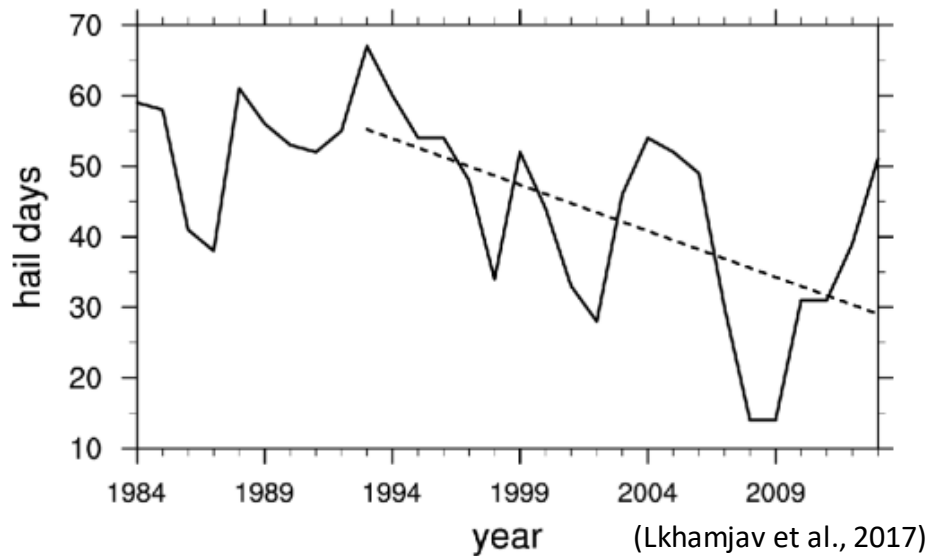


Fig. 2. Annual variation of the number of hail days. The dashed line indicates the linear trend since 1993.



(Wikipedia)

Effect of flood in Darchula district of Nepal.

Sentences in Chapter 12

■ Pakistan

- **Aridity** in West Central Asia and parts of South Asia increased in recent decades (medium confidence), as documented in Afghanistan (Qutbudin et al., 2019), Iran (Zarei et al., 2016; Zolfaghari et al., 2016; Pour et al., 2020), most parts of Pakistan (K. Ahmed et al., 2018, 2019), and many parts of India (Roxy et al., 2015; Mallya et al., 2016; Matin and Behera, 2017; Ramarao et al., 2019).

■ Papua New Guinea

- a swell event due to distant extratropical cyclones in **December 2008** raised extreme water levels leading to **flooding** affecting five Pacific island nations: Marshall Islands, Micronesia, Papua New Guinea, Kiribati and Solomon Islands (Hoeke et al., 2013; Merrifield et al., 2014).



Up to 1,408 houses were damaged or destroyed as a direct result of the sea swells and subsequent floods in New Ireland province. PNGRCS.

(The International Federation's Disaster Relief
Emergency Fund (DREF) operation final report)

Sentences in Chapter 12

■ Philippines and Vietnam

- There was a drying tendency in the dry season and significant wetting in the wet season in the Philippines during 1951–2010 (Villafuerte et al., 2014), and slight wetting in Vietnam during 1980–2017 (Stojanovic et al., 2020) (low confidence).
- the **frequency of TCs** affecting the Philippine region and Vietnam is projected to **decrease** (Kieu-Thi et al., 2016; C. Wang et al., 2017; Gallo et al., 2019) (medium confidence).

■ Philippines

- decreasing exposure in the region of South Asia (SAS) and southern China (Cinco et al., 2016; Kossin et al., 2016; see Chapter 11). However, while the analysis shows fewer typhoons, more extreme TCs have affected the Philippines (low confidence) (Takagi and Esteban, 2016).

e.g., 2013 Typhoon Haiyan

■ Vietnam

- **Relative sea level (RSL) change** in many coastal areas in Asia, especially in EAS, is affected by land subsidence due to sediment compaction under building mass and groundwater extraction (high confidence) (Erban et al., 2014; Nicholls, 2015; Minderhoud et al., 2019; Qu et al., 2019). During 1991–2016, the **Mekong Delta** in Vietnam sank on average about 18 cm as a consequence of groundwater withdrawal, and the subsidence related to groundwater extraction has gradually increased with highest sinking rates estimated to be 11 mm yr⁻¹ in 2015 (Minderhoud et al., 2017).
- Compound impacts of precipitation change, land subsidence, sea level rise, upstream hydropower development, and local water infrastructure development may lead to larger **flood** extent and prolonged **inundation** in the Vietnamese **Mekong Delta** (Triet et al., 2020).



Mekong Delta (Wikipedia)

Thank you for your attention!

