

Global methane pledge versus lower CO₂ emissions

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1 **Abstract**

2 Methane (CH₄) is a potent greenhouse gas whose contribution to anthropogenic radiative forcing of the climate system
3 is second only to carbon dioxide (CO₂). CH₄ emission reduction has become central to global climate mitigation
4 policy, resulting most notably in the Global Methane Pledge (GMP), pledging a 30% reduction of CH₄ emissions by
5 2030. Methane is, however, much shorter-lived in the atmosphere than CO₂, so emissions reductions may have different
6 impacts on global warming over time. We quantify the difference over time in global annual mean surface temperature
7 of the GMP versus the equivalent amount of CO₂ emission reduction. The avoidance of CH₄ emissions in the 2020s due
8 to the GMP initially results in greater relative cooling than the avoidance of the equivalent amount of CO₂ emissions
9 over the same period, but less relative cooling after ~2060, when almost all CH₄ emitted during the 2020s has been
10 removed from the atmosphere but much of the CO₂ emitted during the 2020s remains. However, the GMP placing the
11 world on a lower CH₄ emissions trajectory after 2030 results in a persistently and substantially greater reduction to
12 global warming than the equivalent change in the CO₂ emissions trajectory, with a maximum difference of 0.22±0.06°C
13 in 2055 and relative cooling for well over a century. This equates to a large difference in avoided climate change
14 damages. While the greatest reduction in warming is obtained by reducing both CH₄ and CO₂ emissions, our results
15 underscore the striking global societal benefits of sustained reduction in CH₄ emissions.

16
17 Mitigation of climate change is principally achievable by reducing emissions of greenhouse gases. The two greenhouse
18 gases primarily responsible for anthropogenic radiative forcing of the climate system to date are carbon dioxide (CO₂)
19 and methane (CH₄) [1]. In recent years there has been an increased focus on methane emission reduction. This is
20 because of methane’s large greenhouse effect per molecule, because an appreciable fraction of this emission reduction
21 can be achieved revenue-neutrally e.g. by sealing holes in gas pipelines, and because reduction in methane emissions
22 may help offset anticipated decreases in short-lived cooling aerosol emissions as the world transitions to a zero-carbon
23 economy. The focus on methane emission reduction has most notably resulted in the Global Methane Pledge (GMP),
24 whereby over 100 countries committed at COP26 to reduce global methane emissions 30% by 2030, from 2020 levels.
25 By COP27 the number of countries committed to the GMP increased to over 150.

26 While the GMP is a laudable global climate policy commitment, the relative benefits of CH₄ versus CO₂ emission
27 reduction have not yet been quantified. Given that methane has an atmospheric lifetime of <12 years whereas CO₂ is
28 much longer-lived in the atmosphere [1], the global temperature reduction benefits over time of emissions reductions of
29 these two greenhouse gases may be quite different. It is thus critical to understand the relative impacts of the emissions
30 reductions in each over time.

31 Here we quantify the difference over time in global annual mean surface temperature (T [°C]) resulting from GMP-like
32 CH₄ emission reduction versus the equivalent reduction in CO₂ emissions. Our analysis is based on a widely used
33 simple climate model [2] with parameters calibrated to mimic the response of more complex Earth System Models (see

34 Methods in Supporting Information, SI). We use a large ensemble of simulations to quantify uncertainty related to
35 the climate system’s response to different emissions trajectories. This approach thereby estimates how state-of-the-art
36 climate models would differentiate the effects of CH₄ versus CO₂ emission reduction in the 2020s and beyond. We
37 superimpose a GMP-like reduction in CH₄ emissions on different emissions time-series from Shared Socioeconomic
38 Pathways (SSPs), using SSP2-4.5 as our baseline. We also superimpose the equivalent CO₂ emission reduction, using
39 the conversion factor that the global warming potential (GWP) of CH₄ on a 20-year timescale is 82.5 times that of
40 CO₂ [1]. This corresponds to a 21% reduction in global CO₂ emissions by 2030 from 2020 levels. (We also try different
41 conversion factors (SI).) For each greenhouse gas, we consider a linear decrease in emissions from 2020 levels down to
42 a 30% reduction in CH₄ emissions, or the equivalent CO₂ reduction. We then consider either that emissions return to
43 what they would have otherwise been in 2031 and thereafter, in order to isolate the effect of the emissions avoided in the
44 2020s, or that emissions of either greenhouse gas follow the same relative emissions reductions in 2031 and thereafter
45 as they would otherwise, in order to quantify the effect of an emissions reduction strategy changing the pathway of
46 emissions over time (Figure 1, top). In other words, in the second case, if CH₄ emissions reduce in a given year after
47 2030 by a given percentage in a given SSP, we specify that CH₄ emissions decrease by the same percentage in the same
48 year, just starting from a lower level. Both of these scenarios after 2030 are idealised and somewhat artificial, but allow
49 us to explore the temperature effects of emissions reductions in the 2020s alone, and the longer term benefits of altering
50 the emissions pathway. We also consider simultaneous emission reduction in both greenhouse gases combined, i.e. the
51 above emissions reductions in both CO₂ and CH₄ at once. For a given SSP we thus test seven scenarios: the control and
52 the CH₄, CO₂ and combined emissions reductions in the 2020s alone as well as continuing beyond 2030. We compare
53 the T trajectories resulting from the different emissions trajectories, and also translate these into climate-change-related
54 damages to the global economy avoided by emissions reductions using standard economic formulas (SI) [3, 4].

55 As expected from the short atmospheric lifetime of methane, the benefits of global temperature reductions of methane
56 emissions in the 2020s alone are short-lived (Figure 1, middle and bottom). GMP-like CH₄ emissions reductions result in
57 less warming initially, with a maximum difference of $0.06(\pm 0.01^\circ\text{C}; \pm$ herein refers to half the 66% range, corresponding
58 approximately to ± 1 standard deviation) in 2034 (± 1 year). As methane is rapidly removed from the atmosphere but
59 CO₂ persists, however, the warming in the CH₄ emission reduction scenario equals that of the equivalent CO₂ reduction
60 scenario by 2057 (± 3 years). By the end of the century, the CO₂ emissions reduction scenario results in less warming
61 by $0.016\pm 0.005^\circ\text{C}$. This latter difference is because nearly all CH₄ emitted in the 2020s has been removed from the
62 atmosphere by natural processes by 2100, regardless of the amount of those 2020s emissions; in contrast, much of
63 the CO₂ emitted in the 2020s will persist in the atmosphere in 2100. In essence this illustrates that CH₄ emission
64 reductions have a more powerful short-term effect, but that this effect is not as long-lasting.

65 However, reducing emissions over a given decade benefits long-term climate mitigation not only by avoiding emissions in
66 that particular decade, but also by placing the world on a lower-emissions trajectory thereafter. The long-term benefit
67 of the GMP will be to reduce CH₄ emissions compared to what they otherwise would be beyond 2030, yielding persistent

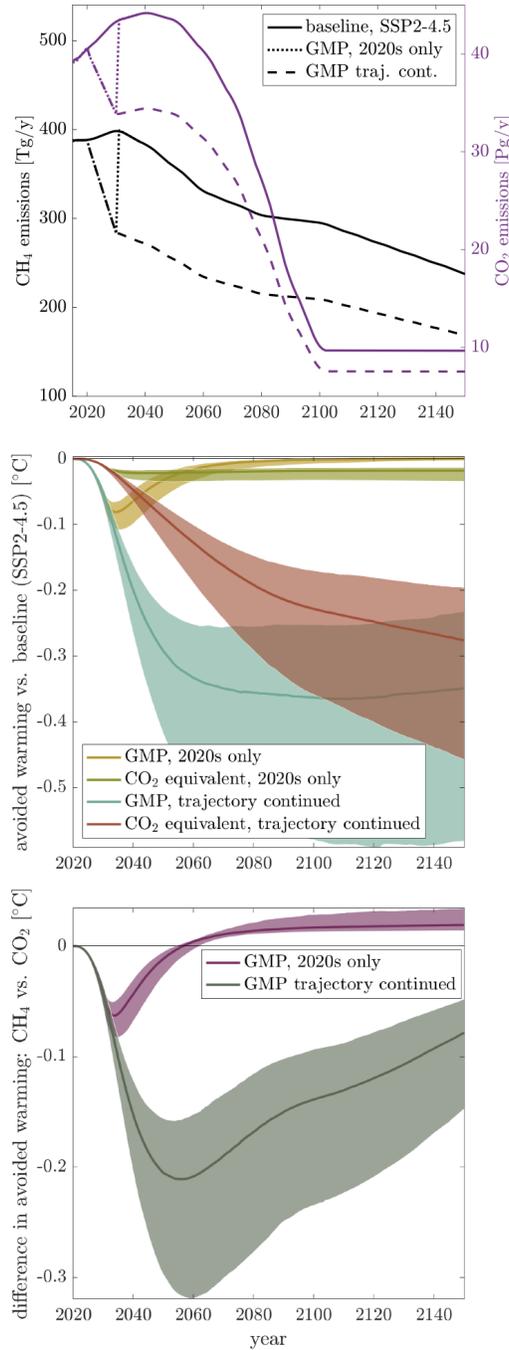


Figure 1: Top: CH_4 (black) and CO_2 (purple) emissions under the baseline case (solid) SSP2-4.5, the global methane pledge or equivalent CO_2 emissions reductions in the 2020's only (dotted), or the continuation of this emissions trajectory after 2030 (dashed). The dotted lines follow the solid lines after 2030. Middle: avoided warming (i.e. temperature minus baseline case) for CO_2 and CH_4 emissions reductions in the 2020s only and continued after 2030. Bottom: the global annual mean surface temperature in the CH_4 -emission-reduction scenario minus that of the equivalent CO_2 -emission-reduction scenario for just the emission reductions in the 2020s (purple) and the continuation of these emissions trajectories after 2030 (green). For middle and bottom, solid lines correspond to the median; shaded area corresponds to the 10th–90th percentile.

68 benefits. In contrast to the short-lived gains from methane emissions avoided in the 2020s, the benefits of altering this
69 CH₄ emission path are strikingly persistent and large (Figure 1 bottom, green line and shading). Following the GMP
70 and then afterwards following the same relative reductions in CH₄ emissions as specified in SSP2-4.5 produces a much
71 greater, persistent reduction in global warming than doing the same for equivalent CO₂ emissions. The maximum
72 difference occurs in 2056 (± 3 years), with $0.21 \pm 0.06^\circ\text{C}$ less global warming in the CH₄ emissions reduction scenario.
73 The greatest reductions to global warming are of course when both CO₂ and CH₄ are reduced simultaneously, however;
74 following both the GMP-like emissions reductions in CH₄ and the equivalent CO₂ emissions reductions (Figure 1, top)
75 results in a further $0.11 \pm 0.08^\circ\text{C}$ reduction in global warming in 2056. Notably, the CH₄ emission reduction results in
76 less global warming for well over a century. This effect is similar but exacerbated when considering GWPs on longer
77 timescales, e.g. the 100-year GWP of CH₄ is 40, roughly half of its 20-year GWP of 82.5. Even a 30% reduction in
78 CO₂ emissions by 2030 from 2020 levels, corresponding to a 117:1 ratio of CO₂ to CH₄ emission reduction (consistent
79 with using a 10-year GWP timescale for CH₄) reduces global warming less than the GMP-like 30% reduction in CH₄
80 emissions until 2129 (± 5 years), with a maximum difference of $0.17 \pm 0.04^\circ\text{C}$ in 2051 (± 2 years). The persistent relative
81 benefits of CH₄ emission reduction are therefore simply due to its greater short-term potency. These differences are
82 robust across SSPs, and correspond to $\$10 \pm 5\text{Trn}$ in additional climate change damages avoided using middle-of-the-
83 road economic assumptions (i.e. a 2% discount rate and the preferred non-catastrophic damage function from the
84 meta-analysis in [3]), varying from $\$3.5 \pm 1.8\text{Trn}$ to $\$15 \pm 8\text{Trn}$ under different economic assumptions (Methods).

85 The emissions trajectories explored here are of course highly idealised scenarios – the global methane pledge does
86 not commit global methane emissions to decrease linearly over the 2020s; after the global methane pledge, emissions
87 will surely not return in 2031 to what they otherwise would have been; and some fractions of different greenhouse
88 gases’ emissions are more challenging to reduce than others, such that the same relative decreases in 2031 and beyond
89 with or without the global methane pledge or its carbon dioxide equivalent are not equally achievable or plausible.
90 Nonetheless these scenarios do allow us to compare the global temperature effects over time of different emissions
91 reduction strategies. Successfully mitigating climate change to meet the Paris agreement will require a mixture of
92 strategies including the reduction of both methane and carbon dioxide emissions, with emissions reductions providing
93 greater benefits the larger they are and the sooner they occur; carbon dioxide emissions will always play a central role
94 in any suite of climate mitigation policies. These results underscore the complementary role that methane emission
95 reduction can play, and how much of a reduction in global warming can be achieved by altering the methane emissions
96 trajectory along the lines of the global methane pledge. We hope that in future work, the effects of reducing different
97 greenhouse gases’ emissions can be compared via intercomparison of simulations using more complex Earth System
98 Models, including the investigation of spatial differences and interannual variability.

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106 for publication.

107 Extended Methods

108 We rely on the widely-used two-layer model [2] to simulate the climate system response to anthropogenic forcing:

$$c \, dT/dt = F + \lambda T - \gamma(T - T_D), \quad c_D \, dT_D/dt = \gamma(T - T_D)$$

109 where T [K] is the Earth’s global mean surface temperature, F [W/m²] is anthropogenic radiative forcing, c [J/m²K] is
110 the heat capacity of the active surface layer of the climate system whose temperature is represented by T , λ [W/m²K]
111 is the climate feedback, and T_D [K] is the temperature of a deep ocean layer with heat capacity c_D [J/m²K] and
112 with which the surface layer mixes heat diffusively at a rate determined by the mixing coefficient γ [W/m²K]. This
113 physical model is widely used in integrated assessment modelling [7]. To quantify uncertainty in the response of the
114 climate system to different forcing scenarios, we generate an ensemble of 10,000 parameter quadruplets $(c, c_D, \lambda, \gamma)$
115 by taking the parameter estimates of this model tuned to match the response of 30 CMIP6 Earth System Models
116 (<https://github.com/mark-ringer/cmip6>, accessed 14.11.2022), estimating the mean and covariance properties of
117 the parameters from the mean and covariance of these 30 parameter combinations, and sampling 10,000 parameter
118 combinations from a multivariate Gaussian distribution with the same mean and covariance. Using the CMIP5 model
119 parameter estimates in [5] did not change our conclusions.

120 We take our control F and CO₂ and CH₄ emissions and concentration time-series from the Reduced Complexity Model
121 Intercomparison Project [6]. We use SSP2-4.5 as our baseline scenario, but perform the same calculations for SSP1-2.6
122 and SSP3-7.0 to explore the sensitivity of our results to SSP scenario. Results are very similar for different SSPs and
123 results from SSPs other than SSP2-4.5 are therefore not discussed further. We find non-CO₂-non-CH₄ radiative forcing
124 in each case by subtracting the CO₂ and CH₄ forcing from the total F , and add these forcings to all CO₂ and CH₄
125 forcing in all cases without further alteration. We relate CO₂ and CH₄ concentrations to forcing by fitting the forcing
126 ϕ vs. concentration κ values from all scenarios and years with functions of the form $\phi = p_1 \kappa^{p_2} - p_3$, which results for
127 both CO₂ and CH₄ in an $r^2 > 0.9999$ and a root-mean-square-error of < 0.0025 W/m². We then generate CO₂ and CH₄

128 concentration time-series based on different emissions pathways, and translate these into total F . For all CO₂-reduction
 129 scenarios, from these emission and concentration time-series we compute the fraction of cumulative emitted CO₂ that
 130 remains in the atmosphere as a function of time under each SSP, and assume that this does not change with the
 131 adjustments to total CO₂ emissions considered. In other words, if 50% of cumulative emitted CO₂ is in the atmosphere
 132 at a certain year for a certain SSP, reducing the CO₂ emissions in that year by 1PgCO₂ will result in 0.5PgCO₂ less
 133 CO₂ in the atmosphere. This assumption is justified by the fact that we are interested in enough perturbations to total
 134 overall emissions small enough not to appreciably change the air-sea-land-balance of anthropogenic carbon.

135 For each SSP we consider two forms each of CO₂ and two forms of CH₄ emission reduction. CH₄ emissions are reduced
 136 linearly from 2020-2030 by a final total of 30%, and CO₂ emissions are reduced by the same amount multiplied by the
 137 20-year global warming potential (GWP) value of CH₄ of 82.5 [1]. Using other GWP timescales, e.g. 100-years, changed
 138 the results quantitatively as expected; GWPs over different timescales are calculated using the standard definition [1].
 139 CH₄ emissions are either then returned to the same emissions after 2030 in order to isolate the effect of the avoided
 140 emissions in the 2020s, or continue on the same relative trajectory thereafter to quantify the effect of changing the
 141 emissions trajectory. In other words, in the latter case, an $X\%$ emission reduction in 2040 in the baseline SSP would
 142 correspond to the same $X\%$ emission reduction in 2040 in the GMP-continued-trajectory scenario, where 2040 CH₄
 143 emissions are reduced by 30% relative to the baseline due to emissions reductions in the 2020s. In the corresponding
 144 CO₂ emissions reduction scenario, CO₂ emissions are reduced in the same relative amount each year to the baseline
 145 SSP CO₂ emissions in the same way. If emissions reach zero at any year under any scenario, the emissions trajectories
 146 with and without emissions reductions in the 2020s are the same thereafter.

147 For each CO₂ emission reduction scenario and SSP, we i) release the emissions of CO₂ each year to the climate system, ii)
 148 partition $f(t)$ of this previously stored CO₂ into the atmosphere, iii) determine the difference in CO₂ in the atmosphere
 149 each year in this case versus the baseline SSP scenario, and iv) subtract this difference from the baseline SSP scenario's
 150 atmospheric CO₂ concentration. For each CH₄ emission reduction scenario and SSP, we i) release the emissions of
 151 CH₄ each year to the atmosphere, ii) remove CH₄ from the atmosphere according to simple exponential decay with
 152 an atmospheric lifetime of 11.8 years [1], iii) determine the difference in CH₄ in the atmosphere each year in this case
 153 versus the baseline SSP scenario, and iv) subtract this difference from the baseline SSP scenario's atmospheric CH₄
 154 concentration. These concentrations are then converted into F time-series, and Eq. 1 is then forced with these F
 155 time-series to determine $T(t)$. F time-series start at 1750 and we initialize Eq. 1 with $T(1750) = T_D(1750) = 0$.

156 For the economic calculations, we use a 2020 global purchasing-power-parity-adjusted global domestic product of 85
 157 trillion USD as reported by the World Bank (<https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.MKTP.CD>, accessed
 158 14.11.2022). We use a baseline discount rate $r = 2\%$ as in [4], which reflects a combination of the pure rate of time
 159 preference ρ , the elasticity of the marginal utility of consumption η , and an underlying rate of consumption growth g
 160 according to $r = \rho + \eta g$; we also assess sensitivity to discount rate by performing the same calculations with $r = 1\%$ and
 161 $r = 3\%$. We use the damage function that the percentage of global gross domestic product lost as damages to climate

162 change D [%] is equal to $D = 0.7438T^2$. This was identified as the preferred model for non-catastrophic damages in a
163 meta-analysis [3]; it is also the median damage function, over 0-6°C, of the damage functions considered therein. We
164 also assess sensitivity to discount rate by performing the same calculations with higher and lower damage functions of
165 $D = 1.145T^2$ and $D = 0.267T^2$ from the same meta-analysis, which correspond respectively to including catastrophic
166 damages and productivity loss or to more optimistic assumptions about the nature of climate change impacts on the
167 global economy.

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