



**Local sources of
global climate forcing**

D. S. Ward and
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Local sources of global climate forcing from different categories of land use activities

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Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Abstract

Identifying and quantifying the sources of climate impacts from land use and land cover change (LULCC) is necessary to optimize policies regarding LULCC for climate change mitigation. These climate impacts are typically defined relative to emissions of CO₂, or sometimes emissions of other long-lived greenhouse gases. Here we use previously published estimates of the radiative forcing (RF) of LULCC that include the short-lived forcing agents O₃ and aerosols, in addition to long-lived greenhouse gases and land albedo change, for six projections of LULCC as a metric for quantifying climate impacts. The LULCC RF is attributed to three categories of LULCC activities: direct modifications to land cover, agriculture, and wildfire response, and sources of the forcing are ascribed to individual grid points for each sector. Results for the year 2010 show substantial positive forcings from the direct modifications and agriculture sectors, particularly from India, China, and southeast Asia, and a smaller magnitude negative forcing response from wildfires. The RF from direct modifications, mainly deforestation activities, exhibits a large range in future outcomes for the standard future scenarios implying that these activities, and not agricultural emissions (which lead to more consistent RFs between scenarios), will drive the LULCC RF in the future. We show that future forest area change can be used as a predictor of the future RF from direct modification activities, especially in the tropics, suggesting that deforestation-prevention policies that value land based on its C-content may be particularly effective at mitigating climate forcing originating in the tropics from this sector. Although, the response of wildfire RF to tropical land cover changes is not as easily scalable and yet imposes a non-trivial feedback onto the total LULCC RF.

1 Introduction

Global land use and land cover change (LULCC) is recognized as an important element of past and future anthropogenic climate changes (Feddema et al., 2005; van der Werf

Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

AbstractIntroduction

ConclusionsReferences

TablesFigures

◀▶

◀▶

BackClose

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



and Peterson, 2009; Foley et al., 2011). Decision makers are faced with the major challenge of meeting increasing global demands for food products (Godfray et al., 2010) while simultaneously minimizing the climate costs of expanding or intensifying agriculture. The Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation (REDD) program is a one such effort that seeks to lower anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions from deforestation using financial incentives to maintain or increase forest area (Lubowski and Rose, 2013).

Estimating the costs to climate from LULCC activities is necessary for developing policies like REDD, yet these costs are difficult to define. The total CO₂ emitted is sometimes used for this purpose (e.g., Mendelsohn and Dinar, 2009), or global warming potentials and CO₂ equivalents are used to include the effects of other long-lived greenhouse gases (e.g., van der Werf and Peterson, 2009; Cherubini et al., 2012; Reisinger and Ledgard, 2013). However, changes in forest area also modify the land surface biophysics (such as albedo) and emissions of short-lived species: aerosols and precursors to ozone formation. Several studies have shown that when other forcing agents besides CO₂ are considered, the contribution of LULCC to global climate change can be highly dependent on the location of the LULCC (Claussen et al., 2001; Brovkin et al., 2004; Bala et al., 2007). For example, clear-cutting of extra-tropical forest emits CO₂ but also reveals the land surface underlying the forest canopy that, if seasonally snow-covered, is highly reflective. The cooling impact of the albedo change can compensate for the warming of the emitted CO₂, and has even been shown to dominate at high latitudes (Claussen et al., 2001; Matthews et al., 2004). Patterns of wildfire activity also change as a result of land management (Houghton et al., 1999; Kloster et al., 2012), with feedbacks onto the global carbon cycle, and emissions of carbonaceous aerosols and trace gases. Finally, the impacts of LULCC include the agricultural activities that often follow deforestation (Foley et al., 2005) and lead to emissions of CH₄, N₂O, NH₃, NO_x, and dust (Ward et al., 2014).

The general approach to identifying sources of anthropogenic impacts on climate has been to divide the impacts by forcing agent (e.g., Forster et al., 2007; Myhre et al.,

Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



2013). However, as pointed out by Unger et al. (2010), it is more useful for policy making to break impacts down into contributions by economic sectors. Specific sectors can be regulated more easily than an individual forcing agent, such as CH₄, that has many sources both from industry and from land use. Given the large role of LULCC in present day anthropogenic climate forcing (Ward et al., 2014), there is a need to know what activities are driving this forcing and to address whether the majority of climate forcing from LULCC activities results from deforestation, agricultural emissions, or from wildfire feedbacks. Further questions regarding where contributions from LULCC to climate change originate geographically are important on country-level and smaller scales for assessments of individual country responsibilities for climate change and potential for mitigation (den Elzen et al., 2013; Matthews et al., 2014).

In this study, we use previously compiled estimates of the global LULCC radiative forcing (Ward et al., 2014) for six future scenarios, including the four Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs; Moss et al., 2010; Hurtt et al., 2011; Lawrence et al., 2012), and compute the contributions of three major LULCC sectors to the total RF: agriculture, direct modifications to the land surface, and the wildfire feedback. The global total and sector-specific forcings are ascribed to their source locations on a latitude/longitude grid basis for historical LULCC and for the projected LULCC of the future scenarios. With these methods our objectives are to (1) identify where the RF of specific LULCC activities will likely come from in the future, and, based on this information, (2) to assess the relative importance of land use location and type of activity for future mitigation of global RF.

2 Methods

2.1 Use and calculation of RF

We use the adjusted radiative forcing (RF), as defined by Forster et al. (2007), and relative to a preindustrial state (year 1850), to measure the impacts of LULCC activities.

**Local sources of
global climate forcing**D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



RF has several advantages as a metric for this kind of study in which different forcing agents are assessed together. The RF is defined the same way for short-lived and long-lived forcing agents allowing for their direct comparison. Also, this metric is used in many studies, including the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change assessment reports, to compute the total anthropogenic contribution to climate change, providing substantial context within which to place our results (Forster et al., 2007; Myhre et al., 2013).

It has been demonstrated that the biophysical effects of LULCC have a different climate sensitivity compared to identical forcing from CO₂ (e.g., Davin et al., 2007; Pongratz et al., 2008), and that the biochemical and biophysical RFs of LULCC are not strictly additive when it comes to surface temperature response (Jones et al., 2013). However, estimates of the efficacy of LULCC biophysical effects, which account for varying climate responses among forcing agents, range from 0.3 to 5 depending on model assumptions (Hansen et al., 2005; Davin et al., 2007; Cherubini et al., 2012) and, being defined by the global climate response, may not apply equally to specific source locations. Therefore we adopt RF as an assessment metric and acknowledge the uncertainty regarding the climate response to the different forcing agents, and the limits of the RF concept for predicting the diverse climate impacts of land use (Betts, 2008; Runyan et al., 2012). Pongratz and Caldeira (2012) show that preindustrial LULCC, which we do not consider in our study, accounts for less than 10 % of historical anthropogenic climate change (measured as global surface temperature change), but can alter the proportional contributions of individual countries to climate change in important ways. They find that including preindustrial LULCC emissions enhances the contribution of developing countries, particularly in south Asia, and we are not able to capture this enhancement in our study.

The RF attributed to LULCC by Ward et al. (2014) from changes to greenhouse gas concentrations, including CO₂, N₂O, CH₄, and O₃, aerosol direct and indirect effects, including biogeochemical feedbacks, and surface albedo are used in this study. Their analysis includes deforestation, afforestation and other land cover changes, deforesta-

Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



with preindustrial land cover (year 1850). The LULCC flux was adjusted downward to account for the CO₂ fertilization feedback (Strassmann et al., 2008), which leads to double-counting of CO₂ emissions in uncoupled terrestrial model simulations (Pongratz et al., 2014; Arora and Boer, 2010). The airborne fraction of CO₂ emissions, that is the portion of emitted CO₂ remaining in the atmosphere at the year the RF, was derived from a pulse response function characteristic of rising CO₂ concentrations (following the methodology of Randerson et al., 2006 and O'Halloran et al., 2012). From the change in CO₂ concentration, the RF of CO₂ emitted by LULCC activities was calculated with the simple expression from Ramaswamy et al. (2001).

Nitrous oxide is emitted by livestock and by the application of fertilizer onto crops. LULCC also has a minor impact on N₂O concentrations by modifying wildfire emissions. N₂O has a long lifetime in the troposphere (greater than 100 years, Meinshausen et al., 2011) and its chemistry can be treated with a simple box model approach. Ward et al. (2014) used the Kroeze et al. (1999) box model to calculate the change in N₂O concentrations resulting from the emissions associated with LULCC. Rfs were calculated with the simple expression recommended by Ramaswamy et al. (2001).

Methane concentrations are modified directly by emission of CH₄ from LULCC activities, and indirectly by changes to the oxidation capacity of the troposphere that impacts CH₄ lifetime. Emissions of CH₄ from LULCC have been compiled for the historical time period (Lamarque et al., 2010) and for the RCP scenarios (van Vuuren et al., 2007; Wise et al., 2009; Fujino et al., 2006; Riahi et al., 2007). In addition, small changes in CH₄ emissions from wildfires are caused by LULCC and were simulated by CLM for these calculations (Ward et al., 2014). A box model approach from Ward et al. (2012) was used to determine the direct modifications to CH₄ concentrations from LULCC. To determine changes to the CH₄ lifetime, Ward et al. (2014) simulated atmospheric chemistry within the Community Atmosphere Model version 4 (Hurrell et al., 2013; Gent et al., 2011; Emmons et al., 2010) with LULCC emissions of non-methane hydrocarbons (NMHC) and NO_x, and without these emissions. The different emissions lead to changes in global hydroxyl radical, OH, concentrations. The CH₄ lifetime can

be computed from the new OH concentration (Naik et al., 2005; Ward et al., 2012) and the changes to CH₄ concentration from LULCC activities were adjusted according to the new lifetime (Ward et al., 2014). The RF is calculated using the simple expression recommended by Ramaswamy et al. (2001) for CH₄.

LULCC impacts tropospheric O₃ concentrations by emitting NO_x (such as from fertilizer application) and by modifying emissions of NMHCs from vegetation and from fires. The response of O₃ concentrations to the changes in these emissions cannot be represented with a simple model approach but involves a complex set of chemical reactions. Ward et al. (2014) calculated the LULCC contribution to tropospheric O₃ with the same set of CAM4 simulations used to assess the CH₄ lifetime. The radiative impact of the changes in O₃ was determined with the Parallel Offline Radiative Transfer (PORT) tool (Conley et al., 2013) for both shortwave and longwave interactions. The response of O₃ on long time scales to changes in CH₄ concentrations, known as the primary mode response, was included in the LULCC O₃ RF calculation following Prather et al. (2001).

Emissions of several aerosol species are impacted by land use and land cover change. Ward et al. (2014) considered changes in biogenic, secondary organic aerosol from modified leaf area index, changes in dust emissions from cultivation, and changes in fire emissions of black carbon (BC), organic carbon (OC) and sulfate aerosols from LULCC. Changes in aerosol concentrations were computed with a set of CAM version 5 simulations with the modal aerosol model (MAM3) (Liu et al., 2012), with and without the LULCC emissions. Radiative effects of the aerosols, both direct effects and indirect effects on clouds, were diagnosed online, giving values for effective radiative forcings (ERF) for the LULCC aerosol emissions.

Changes to the land surface albedo from land cover change were derived directly from the CLM simulations in Ward et al. (2014). Additional forcing from modified albedo following fires was also included, for the change in fires due to LULCC, following the offline analysis of Ward et al. (2012). Feedbacks of nitrogen deposition by aerosols and feedbacks of climate change onto the carbon cycle have been identified and quantified

Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



by Mahowald (2011). The magnitudes of these feedbacks for LULCC were estimated by Ward et al. (2014) and included in the total CO₂ RF.

2.2 Future scenarios

RFs were estimated by Ward et al. (2014) for the year 2100 (relative to 1850) given historical LULCC (Hurtt et al., 2011) and five projections of future LULCC including four developed as part of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project phase 5 (CMIP5) (Taylor et al., 2012) corresponding to each of the four Representative Concentration Pathways (RCP2.6, RCP 4.5, RCP 6.0, RCP 8.5) (Hurtt et al., 2011; Lawrence et al., 2012). The fifth projection represents a theoretical extreme case (TEC) in which all arable land is converted to crops at a linear rate between years 2010 and 2100, and remaining pasturable land (defined as land for which the climate would support crops but where the soil is too nutrient-poor) is converted to grasses (Ward et al., 2014). The TEC leads to a near complete deforestation of the tropics and more than 2.5 times the present day crop area. Since the land use included in the RCPs is thought to be smaller than is likely in reality based on historical land use change (e.g., Ward et al., 2014), the TEC allows us to have a higher than likely estimate in order to bound the probable impacts of land use on climate.

All projections represent LULCC as changes in plant functional type (PFT) coverage over time, with redistribution of carbon by wood harvesting also included (Lawrence et al., 2012). Recent work has demonstrated that changing agricultural practices, even something as simple as improving livestock feeding, can also reduce greenhouse gas emissions (Bryan et al., 2012). Here we assume changes in agricultural practices are consistent with the LULCC projections created to accompany the Representative Concentration Pathways.

We introduce a sixth projection in which tropical forest area changes for years 2010 to 2100 follow the year 2000 to 2010 rates published by the FAO (2010). In this tropical business-as-usual (Trop-BAU) scenario the forest area change reported for each country is gridded. Only grid points with past forest area loss were allowed to experi-

Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



ence future loss, although in the case of completely deforested grid points the forest loss spilled into adjacent points. Forest PFTs are converted to cropland and pasture (grasses) at proportions of 80 and 20 % respectively, as reported by Houghton (2012) for the tropics. Global wood harvesting rates and extra-tropical land cover changes in the Trop-BAU scenario are from RCP8.5. Some reforestation was reported in South-east Asia between 2000 and 2010 (FAO, 2010) but we assume only tropical forest area loss in Trop-BAU, citing an increase in net forest loss in this region between 2005 and 2010 (FAO, 2010). Recent studies suggest that deforestation rates in some tropical countries are higher than reported in census data (Hansen et al., 2013; Margono et al., 2014). Therefore, the Trop-BAU scenario may underestimate global forest area loss if current rates were to continue during this century.

2.3 Assigning RF to sectors

We divide RFs attributed to LULCC into three groups of anthropogenic activities and feedbacks (Fig. 1). The first group, direct modifications, includes land cover changes with associated deforestation fires, and wood harvesting. The agricultural emissions group contains N_2O and CH_4 emissions from livestock and fertilizer application, dust emissions from cultivation, and waste burning. It is important to emphasize the distinction we make between fires that are associated with different activities. We include fires associated with the act of deforestation in the direct modifications category, while yearly burning of agricultural waste falls into the agriculture category. Finally, changes in wildfire activity that result from land cover changes comprise the third category.

We take a simple approach to apportioning the global LULCC RF into these three categories. Forcing is assigned to a category in proportion to the fraction of global LULCC emissions of the forcing agent, or agent precursor gases, that are associated with the category. For example, roughly 90 % of LULCC NO_x emissions were from agricultural activities in the year 2010, with the remainder associated with deforestation fires. The same percentage of forcing due to tropospheric O_3 , roughly 90 %, is attributed to the agriculture sector. A global reduction in wildfire emissions from land

Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



cover change leads to a 15 % decrease in total LULCC NO_x emissions and we attribute 15 % of the total LULCC O₃ RF of the opposite sign to the wildfire forcing category. For short-lived species like O₃, forcing efficiency (global mean forcing per unit emission) can depend on the location and timing of the emissions (Shindell and Faluvegi, 2009; Streets et al., 2013). We have defined the three LULCC categories such that, in general, emissions of a particular forcing agent are dominated by one category, which will minimize the errors introduced by this effect on the short-lived forcings.

As above-mentioned, apportioning of the O₃ forcing is based on NO_x emissions. NO_x emissions are also used to apportion the forcing of indirect changes to CH₄, while the forcing from direct changes to CH₄ can be assigned to categories based on CH₄ emissions. To properly divide the direct aerosol effect between categories we need to treat different aerosol species separately. The magnitude and even the sign of the effective RF of aerosols depend on the properties of the different aerosol species. Sulfate and OC aerosols scatter shortwave radiation while BC absorbs shortwave radiation and can be a source of heat in the troposphere. Ward et al. (2014) diagnose the direct effect of all LULCC aerosols, and for five different aerosol species: BC, OC, sulfate, mineral dust and secondary organic aerosol (SOA), from the CAM5 simulations. In these online diagnostics, the radiative transfer scheme is passed through several times, each time with a different aerosol species removed. The resulting direct effect forcing for individual aerosol species is approximate since water uptake onto aerosols is unaffected by the removal of aerosols in the radiative transfer passes.

With these forcings for individual aerosol species estimated, the direct ERF attributed to LULCC is apportioned into sectors by the relative emissions of each of the five species listed above. The indirect ERF attributed to LULCC is apportioned according to the fraction of aerosol number concentration emissions originating from each sector.

N₂O emissions, similar to emissions of NO_x, are dominated by activities associated with the agriculture sector, but deforestation fires and wildfires also change N₂O concentrations. The forcing from LULCC N₂O cannot be divided into sectors based on contemporaneous emissions of N₂O because its long lifetime in the atmosphere re-

quires that emission history be taken into account. Therefore, we apply the box model technique of Kroeze et al. (1999) and used by Ward et al. (2012, 2014) to emissions of N₂O from each individual sector to determine the contribution of each sector to the total LULCC N₂O RF for each year from 1850 to 2100, and for each future scenario.

$$\frac{dC}{dt} = \frac{E}{S} - \frac{C}{\tau} \quad (1)$$

In Eq. (1), S is a conversion factor, $4.8 \text{ Tg N ppbv}^{-1}$, and t is time in years.

different mortality rates and combustion completeness. The combustion completeness of crop PFTs is set to zero.

Deforestation fires occur separately from wildfires in the Kloster et al. (2010) model. In this scheme, after deforestation, vegetation carbon that is normally lost to the atmosphere through decomposition may be converted to atmospheric CO₂ and other trace gas species immediately through fire if a low soil moisture condition is met. In the Kloster et al. (2010) fire model used here, deforestation fires do not impact the amount of carbon removed from the terrestrial biosphere by land cover change, but do impact the timing of the carbon loss. The more relevant impact of deforestation fires in this scheme is in the additional emissions of trace gases and aerosol species when carbon is burned, rather than lost through decomposition.

We perform two historical simulations from 1850 to 2004, one with LULCC and one without LULCC, and both without wildfires, branched from a preindustrial spinup without fires (year 1850 land cover). This is followed by 14 future simulations without wildfires, including two simulations for each future scenario (six LULCC scenarios and the no-LULCC case), one for each of two sets of future atmospheric forcing. The future atmospheric forcing datasets were produced by Kloster et al. (2012) and used by Ward et al. (2012).

2.4 Ascribing RF to the grid

To ascribe the global RF to each point on a 1.9° latitude by 2.5° longitude grid we assume that the contribution to the global RF from a grid point is proportional to its share of the global emissions of the forcing agent in question (or emissions of NO_x for the O₃ and indirect CH₄ forcings). This assumption holds well for globally well-mixed forcing agents such as CO₂. A kg of CO₂ emitted from the extratropics carries similar weight, in RF terms, as a kg of CO₂ emitted from the tropics. However, Bowman and Henze (2012) showed that for the short-lived greenhouse gas, O₃, tropical emissions lead to an enhanced RF relative to extratropical emissions. This is also potentially important for aerosols, including direct effects, due to latitudinal changes in solar insolation, and in-

Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



direct effects, due to regional differences in cloud regimes (Chuang et al., 2002). Ward and Mahowald (2014) show that this method of ascribing RF from short-lived forcing agents to individual locations is reasonable for comparing the climate impacts of developed countries, as a group, to developing countries. Although, on smaller spatial scales there are likely to be differences in the radiative forcing efficiency of short-lived forcing agents, especially aerosols, emitted from different locations (Streets et al., 2013). Here we weight all aerosol emissions equally, regardless of the source location, and note that the aerosol ERFs attributed to LULCC activities are small compared to other forcings (Ward et al., 2014).

3 Results

3.1 Land use RF by sector

In the year 2010, the LULCC RF consists of two large positive contributions from direct modifications to the land cover and from agricultural activities, and a smaller negative contribution from changes to wildfire activity (Table 1; Fig. 2). The major source of positive forcing from direct modifications to the land cover is from CO₂ emissions, with a minor negative forcing from albedo change and small contributions from aerosols and non-CO₂ greenhouse gases. In contrast, forcing from the agriculture sector is comprised mainly of positive forcings from non-CO₂ greenhouse gases. These two sectors combined account for more than 1 W m⁻² of forcing. Global reductions in wildfire activity due to increased land management since the preindustrial time period enhance the terrestrial carbon sink, leading to a negative forcing from this sector (Fig. 2).

The future scenarios show considerable variation in the breakdown of forcing between LULCC sectors (Table 1). The RCP2.6 scenario is characterized by widespread proliferation of biofuel crops, largely at the expense of forests (van Vuuren et al., 2007; Hurtt et al., 2011). This storyline is expressed in the RF as high positive forcing from direct modifications to land cover (0.94 W m⁻²), mainly CO₂ emissions from defor-

Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



estation, but only a small contribution from agricultural activities (0.27 W m^{-2}). Due to the expansion of crop land in RCP2.6, fertilizer emissions of nitrogen-containing species increases dramatically by the year 2100. This leads to a forcing from N_2O of 0.26 W m^{-2} , but also a massive drawdown of CO_2 from increased N deposition, a forcing of -0.20 W m^{-2} (included in the CO_2 RF from the agriculture sector in Table 1). Previous studies have also shown that N emissions from agriculture may have a near neutral RF because of these competing effects (Zaehle et al., 2011; Ward et al., 2014). Livestock emissions of CH_4 in RCP2.6 decrease from present day to 2100 present day (van Vuuren et al., 2011), so the contribution from methane RF is small compared to the other scenarios.

While RCP2.6 projects proliferation of biofuels, RCP4.5 includes widespread afforestation in response to a global carbon tax policy. The afforestation is reflected in the RF of direct modifications to land cover for RCP4.5, which is the only scenario that leads to a decrease in the RF from this sector between 2010 and 2100 (Fig. 2). Wild-fire emissions of CO_2 decrease due to LULCC in RCP4.5, despite the afforestation in this scenario. The decrease in fires results mainly from continued increases in tropical wood harvesting (Lawrence et al., 2012). For the remaining realistic future scenarios, the total RF attributed to LULCC is progressively higher going from the RCP6.0, to the RCP8.5, to the Trop-BAU. While both direct modifications and agriculture sector RFs are also increased along this progression, the direct modifications RF dominates the growth in total LULCC RF, ranging from 0.88 W m^{-2} in the RCP6.0 scenario to 1.78 W m^{-2} in the Trop-BAU. The positive contributions to RF from direct modifications and agriculture in the TEC case are similar in magnitude, both above 2 W m^{-2} . While the CO_2 forcing from direct modifications is large in the TEC (2.28 W m^{-2}), the extreme expansion of pasture leads to a contribution from agricultural CH_4 that is nearly three times the same forcing for RCP8.5 LULCC. In addition, increased NO_x emissions from agricultural activity enhance the short-lived O_3 forcing from this sector.

While agricultural emissions and land cover change projections for each RCP were developed jointly by an Integrated Assessment Model (IAM), the land cover change

projections were modified during harmonization for terrestrial model use (Di Vittorio et al., 2014). This means that the sector RFs calculated in this study may be in conflict with the original LULCC storylines of the IAMs, and, therefore, it may be more informative to consider the RF from each sector as a range of possible outcomes, separately from their respective RCPs.

3.2 Fire–LULCC interactions

Non-deforestation fires are often considered carbon-neutral, meaning the carbon sequestered during post-fire regrowth roughly balances the carbon emitted. But this is not the case for periods of trending global fire activity, as during rapid climate change (Prentice et al., 2011) or ecosystem shifts (Runyan et al., 2012), when the fire carbon source and sink are out of balance and atmospheric CO₂ concentrations are affected on a long term basis (Ward et al., 2012). Anthropogenic changes to land cover can also alter wildfire area burned and emissions (Harrison et al., 2010; Marlon et al., 2008). However, it is difficult to isolate the impact of LULCC on global fire activity from the other important drivers such as climate (Pechony and Shindell, 2011). Perhaps for this reason, interactions between LULCC and wildfire have not been explored in detail on a global scale. Previous studies have generally concluded that, globally, fires have been reduced by increases in land management over the 20th century (Houghton et al., 1999; Marlon et al., 2008; Kloster et al., 2012; Yang et al., 2014). However, local and regional scale research show vastly different fire responses to land cover change and land management in different ecosystems (Cochrane and Barber, 2009; Archibald et al., 2009; Runyan et al., 2012). Satellite observations of African savannahs show that a portion of the decrease in fires that occurred over the first decade of the 21st century resulted from conversion of savannah to croplands (Andela and van der Werf, 2014). While in the Amazon region of South America wildfires probably increase in occurrence and area burned following landscape fragmentation, especially from deforestation (Nepstad et al., 1999, 2006; Aragao and Shimabukuro, 2010; Chen et al., 2013).

Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

AbstractIntroduction

ConclusionsReferences

TablesFigures

◀▶

◀▶

BackClose

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Local effects such as those that occur in the Amazon are generally not well represented by global scale fire models that do not capture ecosystem edge effects or simulate small-scale variations in hydrology. Area burned by fires in the Kloster et al. (2010) model responds to changes in biomass availability, meaning a decrease in vegetation, such as that following deforestation, leads to a decrease in area burned. Therefore, global scale conversion of forests to grassland or crops, a carbon source, triggers a decrease in fires, enhancing the terrestrial carbon sink. From 1850 to 2004, fires were responsible for a greater than 50 PgC decrease in total carbon emissions from LULCC (Fig. 3). About half of this decrease can be attributed to a reduction in carbon emissions from land cover conversions (Fig. 3). The other half is attributable to the increase in the terrestrial carbon sink when fire emissions are reduced. For computing the CO₂ RF from the wildfire response to LULCC we only include the change in carbon flux due to changes in the terrestrial carbon sink. An even larger reduction in carbon emissions is projected for RCP8.5 LULCC, whereas global carbon emissions are not affected greatly by the LULCC associated with RCP4.5 (Fig. 4).

3.3 Land use RF by source location

The sources of the LULCC sector RFs are spatially heterogeneous and depend strongly on the LULCC projection (Fig. 5). Major present-day agricultural regions that are projected to remain productive during this century, in particular India, eastern China, and the central United States (Hurtt et al., 2011), contribute 70–80 % of the global LULCC RF in 2010 as well as in the RCP4.5 and RCP6.0 scenarios (Fig. 5). In contrast, the remaining scenarios all exhibit a substantial tropical source of positive RF from LULCC. Direct modifications to land cover dominate the RF from the tropics, although there are subtropical areas where agriculture contributes the most of all sectors, especially for RCP8.5 LULCC (Fig. 6). Similarly, in 2010, direct modification to land cover is the dominant tropical source of RF (Fig. 6). In all cases there are regions of negative forcing from LULCC, particularly in northern China and Mongolia, although these are smaller in magnitude than the positive forcings.

have calculated the RF from different LULCC sectors for six possible future scenarios, providing six data points per grid point in the tropics to test this approach (in the extra-tropics there are only 5 data points since the Trop-BAU and RCP8.5 emissions are the same). Here we regress the RF from the year 2100, referenced against the year 2010, onto forest area change over the same period for the direct modification and wildfire sectors (increases in forest area are given a positive sign), and onto crop area change for the agriculture sector (increases in crop area are given a positive sign) for each country, using a 1.9° latitude by 2.5° longitude grid.

The regression coefficients for the agriculture sector are generally positive, indicating that an increase in crop area leads to a positive RF from that sector. The magnitudes of the regression coefficients are high in tropical countries but also in Northern Hemisphere extratropical countries with major agricultural sectors. The relationship is significant at a 95 % confidence level (two-tailed test), using the Spearman rank correlation coefficient, for most countries (Fig. 9a). Most countries also have a statistically significant regression between direct modification RF and the change in forest area, using the same significance test (Fig. 9b). Here deforestation always leads to positive RF, including in the high latitudes where negative forcings from land albedo change play a larger role. The relationship is particularly strong in tropical countries and appears to be linked to the terrestrial carbon storage such that the impact of deforestation on RF is greatest for the high carbon-storage regions of the Amazon and central African rain forests. The regression of the wildfire sector RF onto forest area change does not produce as many statistically significant regression coefficients, but does result in a positive relationship in the deep tropics of South America and Africa and a weak relationship in several subtropical and extra-tropical countries (Fig. 9c). As forest area is reduced, the wildfire emissions simulated by CLM in deforested areas are also reduced. Notably in Brazil and Bolivia the positive relationship between RF and forest area change through the wildfire feedback is almost as strong as the negative relationship through direct modification of the land cover (Fig. 9b and c; note the different scales on these two figure panels). This result warrants further study given the possible

Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page	
Abstract	Introduction
Conclusions	References
Tables	Figures
◀	▶
◀	▶
Back	Close
Full Screen / Esc	
Printer-friendly Version	
Interactive Discussion	



shortcomings of the fire model used in this study for simulating LULCC–fire interactions in the Amazon (Sect. 3.2).

4 Discussion

Discussions of the climate impacts of LULCC activities are often limited to the effects of deforestation (e.g., Brovkin et al., 2013; Boysen et al., 2014; Bala et al., 2007), or, in the case of Ward et al. (2014), LULCC effects as a whole. Here we find a substantial contribution to anthropogenic climate forcing from agricultural activities in 2010 and in most of the future projections. Fertilizer application drives both a positive forcing, as N₂O emissions, and a negative forcing, by fertilizing natural vegetation after transport and deposition of N and drawing down CO₂ from the atmosphere. Therefore, the differences in the agricultural RF between future scenarios are mainly driven by emissions of CH₄ from livestock and rice cultivation.

There is now recognition of the importance of atmospheric chemistry for determining the sum forcing of LULCC (e.g., Heald et al., 2008; Ganzeveld et al., 2010). Unger (2014) found a global RF of $-0.11 \pm 0.17 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ from the modified biogenic volatile organic compound emissions that resulted from historical LULCC. Here we attribute most of the important atmospheric chemistry changes, including O₃ production and loss, and CH₄ lifetime, to modified wildfire activity, although we also simulate biogenic VOC emissions and their impacts on chemistry. While previous studies have assessed the response of fire C emissions to LULCC on a global scale (Houghton et al., 1999; Marlon et al., 2008; Kloster et al., 2012), we quantify this response as a RF, including a range of forcing agents in addition to CO₂. Both in 2010 and in the future scenarios, the wildfire response to LULCC leads to a negative forcing, in most cases a result of reduced CO₂ emissions from fires. However, this response is complex and, as in the wildfire response to RCP4.5 land use and land cover change, can depend on the chemistry of fire emissions that affects non-CO₂ greenhouse gases as much as it depends on changes in terrestrial CO₂ sources and sinks. The RF of the wildfire response is not

Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



generally predictable by a simple linear regression with forest area change. Yet, fire-LULCC interactions could be associated with a considerable global forcing that acts to reduce the total LULCC RF (Fig. 2). This demonstrates the importance of accounting for these interactions in global carbon cycle models and working toward better model representation of fire responses to land cover change.

When interpreting these results it is important to note that while the set of forcing agents considered in this study is nearly comprehensive, feedbacks of LULCC onto the hydrological cycle and clouds were not included in this study. These feedbacks could lead to a net cooling of global surface temperatures from deforestation even when accounting for increased CO₂ from forest removal (Bala et al., 2007). Although, Davin and Noblet-Ducoudre (2010) show that the non-radiative biogeophysical forcings of land cover change, associated with evapotranspiration and surface roughness, could be a net warming. A study using CLM in a fully coupled climate model suggests that the total forcing of biophysical effects, including cloud cover feedbacks, associated with historical land cover change are probably small compared to the forcing from greenhouse gases emitted by the same activities (Lawrence and Chase, 2010). These forcings and feedbacks are not easily quantified with the RF metric (Pielke et al., 2002). A different approach to our stated aim of identifying the sources of climate impacts from LULCC could use global surface temperature change as a metric, instead of radiative forcing. With this approach the various biogeochemical and biogeophysical effects could be combined.

However, by attributing forcing from LULCC activities to specific sectors and locations, given the set of forcing agents included in this study, we gain a better understanding of where efforts to mitigate anthropogenic climate changes could focus. The range in projected RF from direct modifications to land cover is much larger than that of agriculture or the wildfire response, and has the greater potential to increase in the future, following the six scenarios considered in this study. The forcing from direct modifications is also the most effectively scalable to changes in land cover, namely forest area changes (Fig. 9). The potential importance and scalability of RF from the

Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Printer-friendly Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

direct modifications sector lends support to the REDD strategy of valuing land based on the potential C emissions from deforestation (Lubowski and Rose, 2013). This strategy could be particularly effective in the tropics, although related changes in wildfire activity complicate the overall LULCC contribution to global RF.

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Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



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Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

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Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Heald, C. L., Henze, D. K., Horowitz, L. W., Feddema, J., Lamarque, J. F., Guenther, A., Hess, P. G., Vitt, F., Seinfeld, J. H., Goldstein, A. H., and Fung, I.: Predicted change in global secondary organic aerosol concentrations in response to future climate, emissions, and land use change, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 113, D05211, doi:10.1029/2007jd009092, 2008.

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Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



- Lamarque, J.-F., Bond, T. C., Eyring, V., Granier, C., Heil, A., Klimont, Z., Lee, D., Lioussé, C., Mieville, A., Owen, B., Schultz, M. G., Shindell, D., Smith, S. J., Stehfest, E., Van Aardenne, J., Cooper, O. R., Kainuma, M., Mahowald, N., McConnell, J. R., Naik, V., Riahi, K., and van Vuuren, D. P.: Historical (1850–2000) gridded anthropogenic and biomass burning emissions of reactive gases and aerosols: methodology and application, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 10, 7017–7039, doi:10.5194/acp-10-7017-2010, 2010.
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Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



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Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



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Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



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Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



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Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald**Table 1.** RF values (W m^{-2}) for each sector, direct modifications to land cover (D), agriculture (A) and the wildfire response (W) for year 2010, and for the year 2100 given each of the six future scenarios used in this study.

	2010			RCP2.6			RCP4.5			RCP6.0		
	A	D	W	A	D	W	A	D	W	A	D	W
CO ₂	-0.01	0.71	-0.26	-0.17	0.87	-0.28	-0.03	0.55	-0.21	-0.08	0.84	-0.28
N ₂ O	0.14	0.00	0.00	0.26	0.00	0.00	0.18	0.00	0.00	0.22	0.00	0.00
CH ₄	0.33	0.01	-0.03	0.07	0.00	0.11	0.41	0.00	-0.10	0.36	0.00	-0.08
O ₃	0.13	0.01	-0.02	0.10	0.00	-0.05	0.19	0.00	-0.08	0.17	0.00	-0.09
Aerosols DRE	0.01	-0.01	0.00	0.01	0.09	-0.10	0.01	0.04	-0.05	0.01	0.07	-0.07
Aerosols IRE	-0.01	0.00	0.01	-0.01	0.05	0.03	-0.01	0.02	0.02	-0.01	0.03	0.02
Land albedo	0.00	-0.06	0.01	0.00	-0.08	0.02	0.00	-0.02	0.00	0.00	-0.06	0.01
Snow albedo	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00
TOTAL	0.60	0.66	-0.29	0.27	0.94	-0.28	0.77	0.59	-0.42	0.68	0.88	-0.51
	RCP8.5			Trop-BAU			TEC					
	A	D	W	A	D	W	A	D	W			
CO ₂	-0.10	1.19	-0.40	-0.17	1.50	-0.50	-0.32	2.28	-0.73			
N ₂ O	0.25	0.00	0.00	0.27	0.00	0.00	0.41	0.00	0.00			
CH ₄	0.57	0.00	0.12	0.63	0.00	0.17	1.65	-0.02	-0.02			
O ₃	0.21	0.00	-0.10	0.23	0.00	-0.12	0.43	-0.05	-0.14			
Aerosols DRE	0.02	0.10	-0.13	0.01	0.19	-0.18	0.03	0.34	-0.14			
Aerosols IRE	-0.02	0.12	0.11	-0.02	0.22	0.12	-0.06	0.38	0.08			
Land albedo	0.00	-0.08	0.04	0.00	-0.12	0.04	0.00	-0.24	0.06			
Snow albedo	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.00			
TOTAL	0.93	1.33	-0.38	0.95	1.78	-0.47	2.15	2.69	-0.90			

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



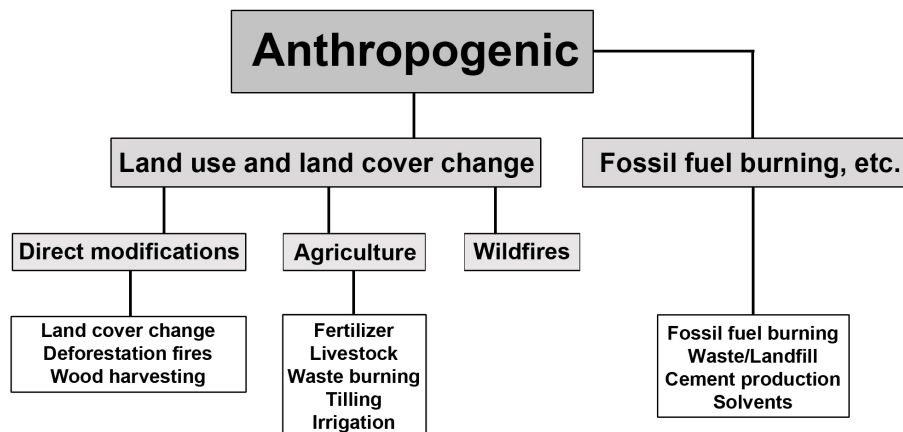
**Local sources of
global climate forcing**D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Figure 1. Breakdown of anthropogenic activities into categories associated with land use and land cover change, and fossil fuel burning. Note that “wildfires” refers only to the change in wildfire activity (non-deforestation and non-agricultural fires) that results from anthropogenic land use and land cover change.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Local sources of global climate forcing

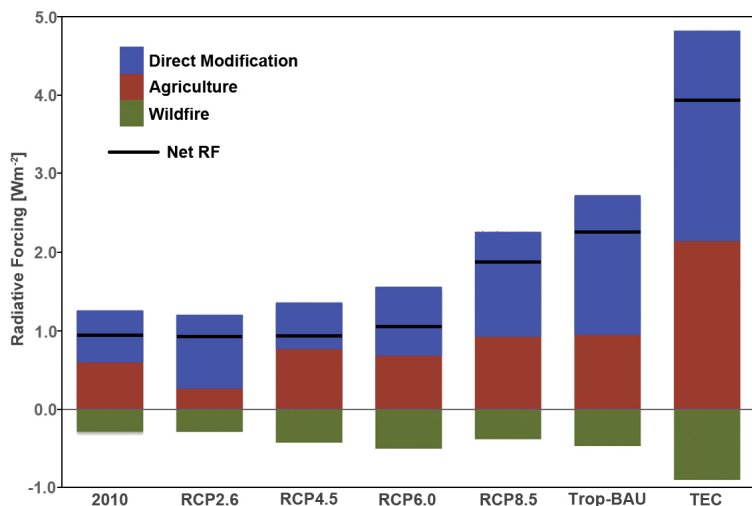
D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Figure 2. The fraction of radiative forcing from each main sector as defined in Fig. 1. The forcings are reported for the year 2010 (“2010”) or in year 2100 (“RCP2.6”, “RCP4.5”, “RCP6.0”, “RCP8.5”, “Trop-BAU”, “TEC”).

Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion

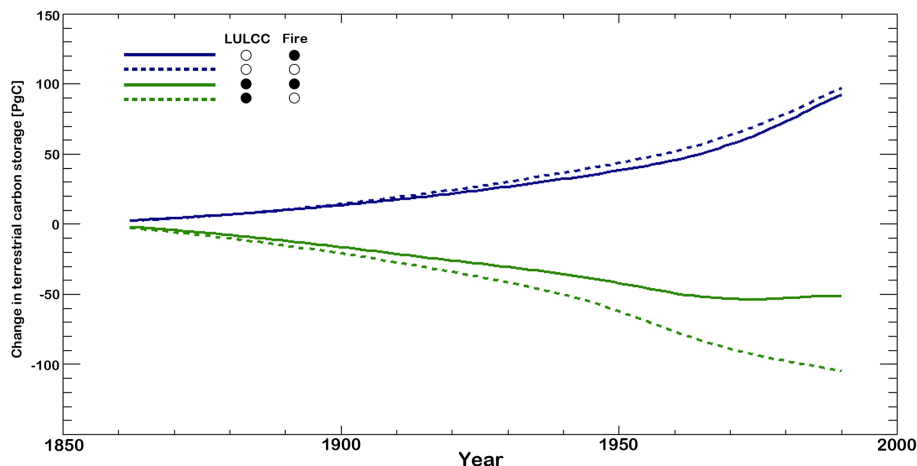


Figure 3. Timeseries of the historical change in global terrestrial carbon storage for CLM simulations with and without LULCC (green and blue, respectively), and with and without fires (solid and dashed, respectively), relative to the year 1850. Changes in carbon storage due to increased land cover conversion carbon emissions when fires are removed are shaded in light green. The timeseries is smoothed with a 25 year running average.

Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion

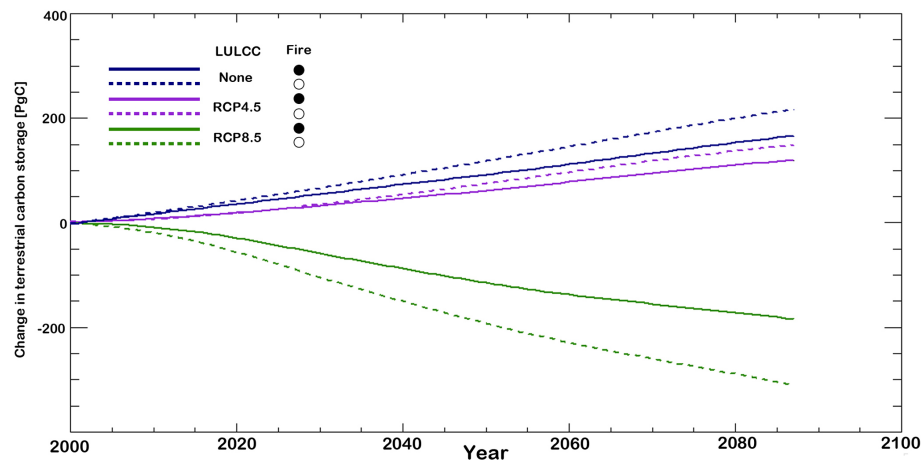


Figure 4. Timeseries of the projected change in global terrestrial carbon storage for CLM simulations with RCP4.5, RCP8.5, and without LULCC (purple, green and blue, respectively), and with and without fires (solid and dashed, respectively), relative to the year 2000. The timeseries is smoothed with a 25 year running average.

Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion

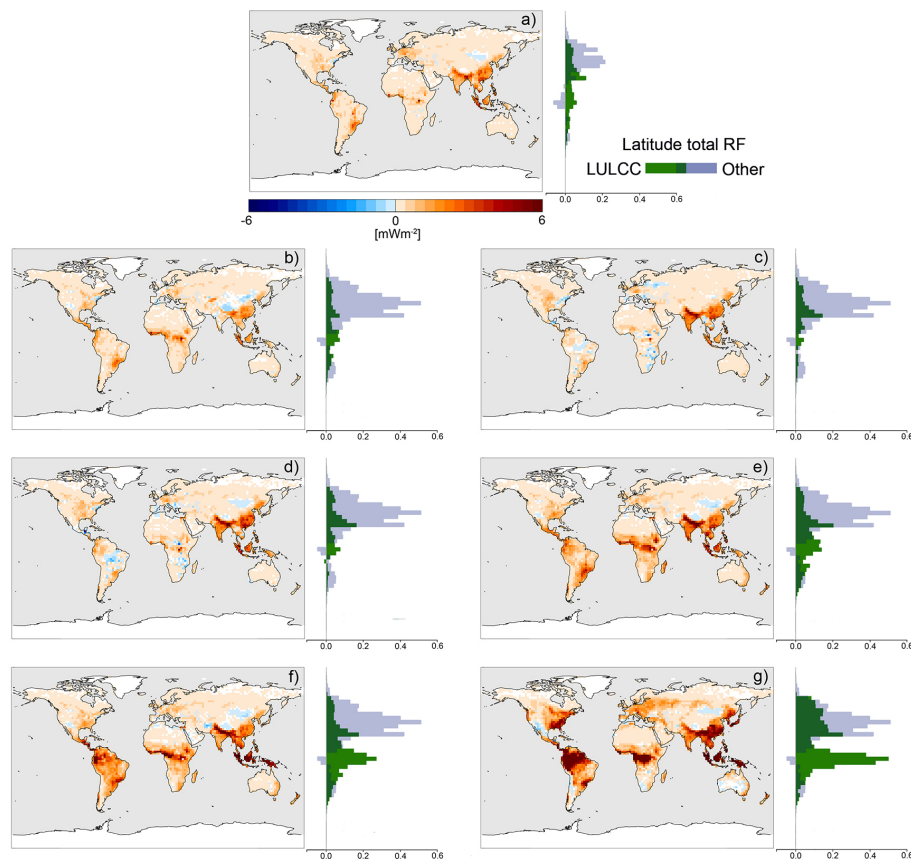


Figure 5. Spatial distribution of the sources of LULCC RF for **(a)** 2010, and the year 2100 given the projections of **(b)** RCP2.6, **(c)** RCP4.5, **(d)** RCP6.0, **(e)** RCP8.5, **(f)** trop-BAU, and **(g)** TEC. Latitude band total RFs are shown to the right of each spatial plot with the LULCC totals in green compared to the totals from other anthropogenic activities from **(a)** the year 2010, and **(b)–(g)** the year 2100 RCP4.5, in light purple.

Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion

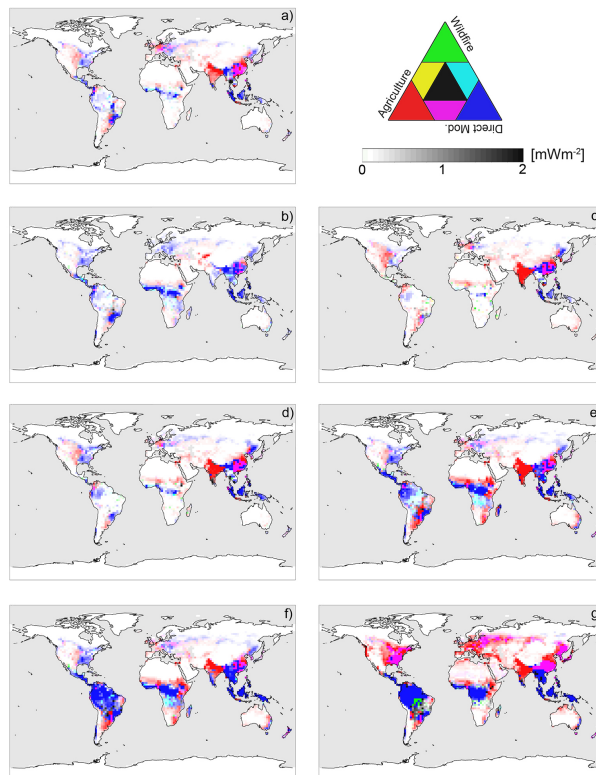


Figure 6. Spatial distribution of the sources of LULCC RF by sector for **(a)** 2010, and the year 2100 given the projections of **(b)** RCP2.6, **(c)** RCP4.5, **(d)** RCP6.0, **(e)** RCP8.5, **(f)** trop-BAU, and **(g)** TEC. The colors indicate the proportion of RF (assessed as absolute magnitudes) from direct modifications (blue), agriculture (red), and changes to wildfires (green). Where more than one sector contributes to the total RF, the colors are blended according to the color triangle in the top right of the figure. The darkness of the coloring indicates the total magnitude of the RF at each point following the scale in the top right of the figure.

Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

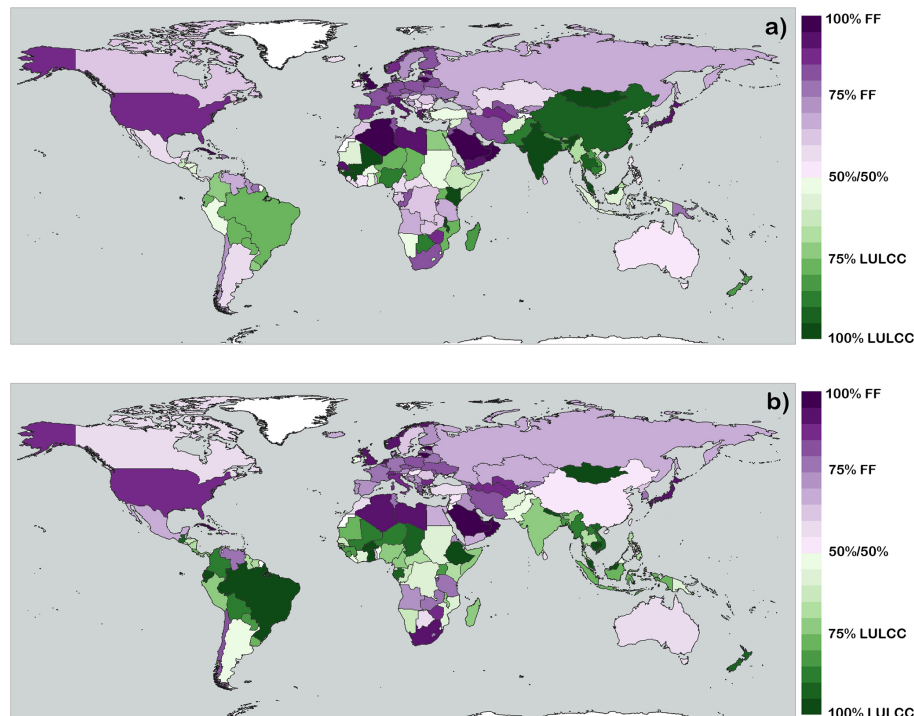


Figure 7. The ratio of the absolute value of LULCC RF to the absolute value of the RF of fossil fuel burning activities computed for each country for the year 2010 including **(a)** all forcing agents, and **(b)** only greenhouse gas forcing agents.

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Printer-friendly Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

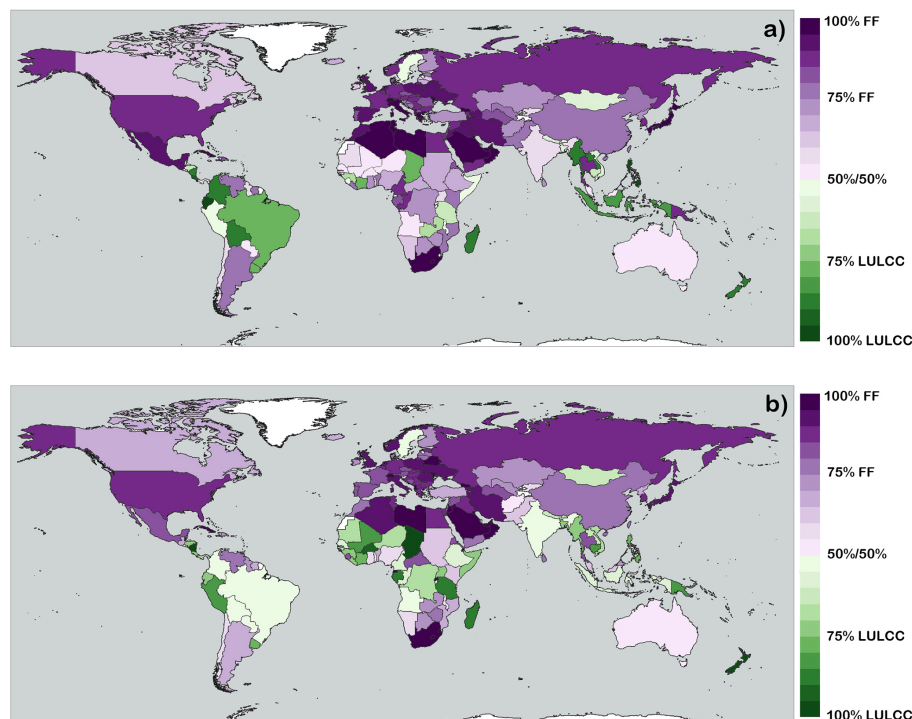


Figure 8. The ratio of the absolute value of LULCC RF to the absolute value of the RF of fossil fuel burning activities computed for each country for the year 2100 and the RCP4.5 scenario anthropogenic emissions and land cover change, including **(a)** all forcing agents, and **(b)** only greenhouse gas forcing agents.

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Printer-friendly Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

Local sources of global climate forcing

D. S. Ward and
N. M. Mahowald

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion

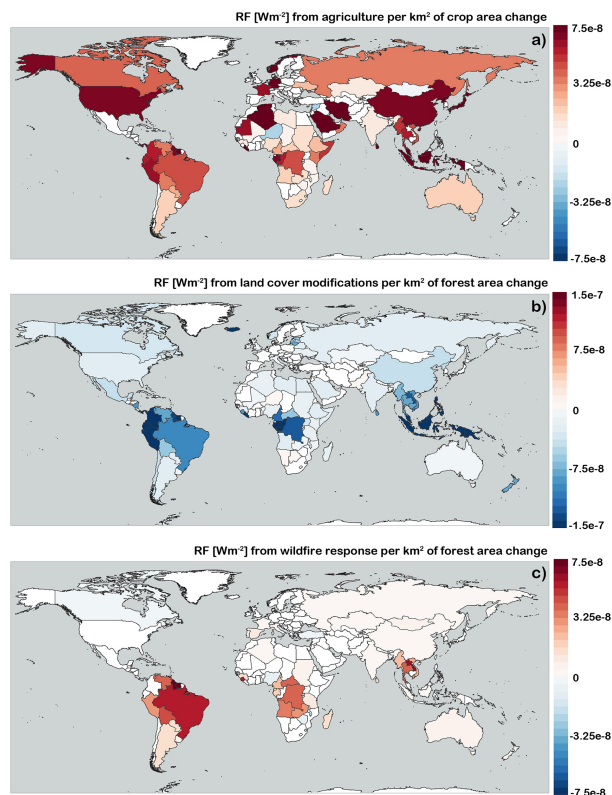


Figure 9. Slope of the regression of year 2100 RF from (a) agricultural activities, (b) direct modifications to land, and (c) associated changes in wildfires between 2010 and 2100 onto the change in (a) global crop area and (b, c) global forest area between 2010 and 2100 for each country. Regression coefficients are plotted when the relationship between RF and changes in land cover is significant at a 95 % confidence level (two-tailed test) using the Spearman rank correlation coefficient.