

1 Climate Impacts Research: Beyond Patchwork

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20 **Abstract**

21 Despite significant progress in climate impacts research, the narratives that science
22 can presently piece together of a 2-, 3-, 4-, or 5-degree warmer world remain
23 fragmentary. Here we briefly review past undertakings to comprehensively
24 characterize and quantify climate impacts based on multi-model approaches. We
25 then report on the Inter-Sectoral Impact Model Intercomparison Project (ISI-MIP), a
26 community-driven effort to systematically compare impacts models across sectors
27 and scales, and to quantify the uncertainties along the chain from greenhouse gas
28 emissions and climate input data to the modelling of climate impacts themselves. We
29 show how ISI-MIP and similar efforts can substantially advance the science relevant
30 to impacts, adaptation and vulnerability, and we outline the steps that need to be
31 taken in order to make the most of available modelling tools. We discuss pertinent
32 limitations of these methods and how they could be tackled. We argue that it is time
33 to consolidate the current patchwork of impacts knowledge through integrated cross-
34 sectoral assessments, and that the climate impacts community is now in a favourable
35 position to do so.

36 **1 Introduction**

37 Climate-change research has come a long way towards determining the magnitude of
38 required emissions reductions given a politically chosen global warming limit (e.g.,
39 Rogelj et al., 2011), as well as the means and costs of achieving those reductions
40 (e.g., Clarke et al., 2009; Edenhofer et al. 2010). However, despite a wealth of
41 knowledge about climate change impacts, the scientific basis for describing the
42 consequences of different global warming levels remains “seriously incomplete”
43 (Rosenzweig and Wilbanks, 2010; Impacts World Conference, 2013).

44

45 The current state of the art would notably benefit from comprehensive quantitative
46 assessments of aggregate global climate change impacts (Schellnhuber et al., 2014).
47 Addressing this knowledge gap would greatly strengthen the scientific underpinning
48 of mitigation decisions, and is all the more urgent in light of a potential review of the
49 internationally agreed target of stabilizing global mean temperature (GMT) rise
50 below two degrees (UNFCCC, 2010). Climate research also is challenged to provide
51 more robust and implementable information on climate change impacts – in
52 particular at local and regional scales – for making science-based adaptation choices
53 in a warmer world (Kerr, 2011).

54

55 Progress is particularly needed in two research areas that have been largely
56 neglected in the past – largely because of the complexity of the challenges involved.

57

58 Firstly, climate impacts research should strive for stronger integration of different
59 sectors (such as agriculture, water resources, forestry, infrastructure, industrial

60 production) and spatial scales (local, regional, global). Assessing the vulnerability of
61 human and natural systems to climate change should account for the *interactive*
62 effects of simultaneous and/or sequential impacts, which due to feedbacks and
63 nonlinearities cannot be deduced from sector-specific studies alone (Smith et al.,
64 2001). So far, cascading impacts across sectors – such as the effects of climate-
65 induced yield loss on malnutrition, the effects of ecosystem change on malaria
66 distribution, or the propagation of local damages along the global supply network –
67 are poorly understood (Warren, 2011). Better understanding these multi-sectoral
68 interactions and involved trade-offs is especially important in the light of adaptation
69 planning, as coping resources (such as land area, public and private funds, and
70 political will) are often limited.

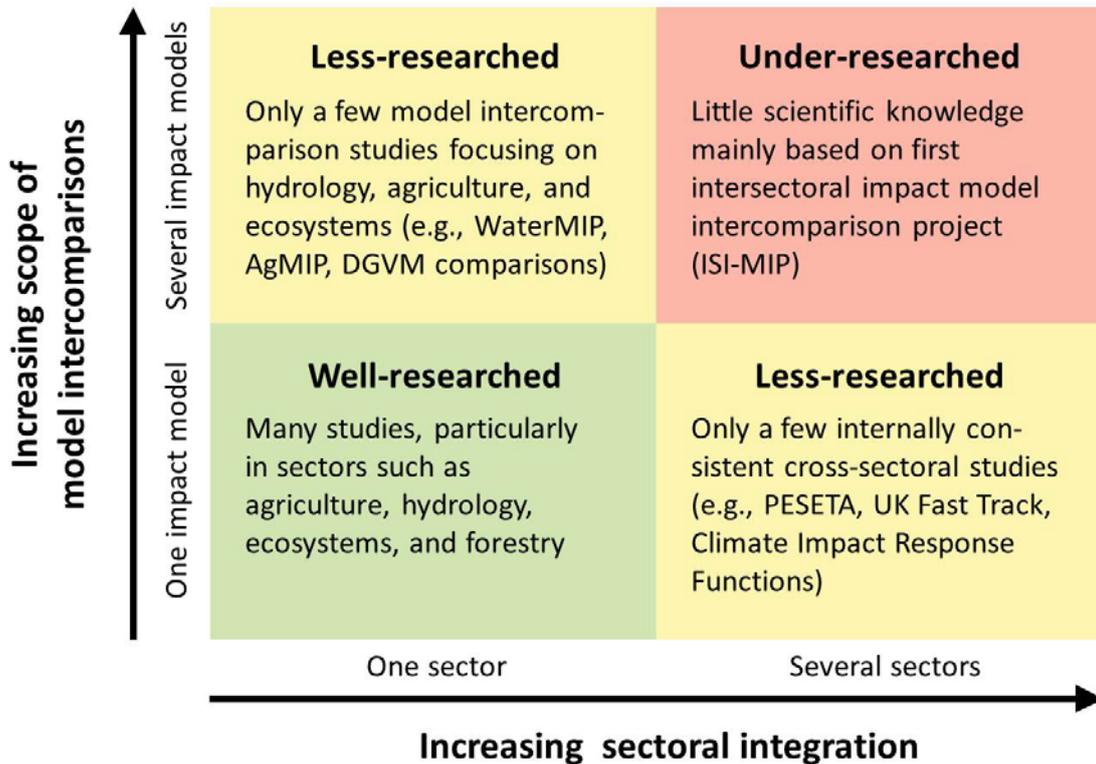
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72 Improved integrative analysis across different spatial scales would help to bridge the
73 gap between global impact assessments, currently not apt for local adaptation
74 planning, and local or regional approaches, which so far leave many parts of the
75 world 'unexplored'. Using data from local and regional models , for example, provides
76 a large potential for the improvement and better parameterization of global models
77 (Challinor et al. 2014a), which could eventually become appropriate tools for devising
78 global as well as local adaptation measures.

79

80 Secondly, more emphasis could be put on the systematic and rigorously quantitative
81 assessment of uncertainties, which is indispensable if scientific findings are to
82 effectively support the climate-policy process as it moves towards quantitative

83 risk assessment (Schneider and Mastrandrea, 2005; Kunreuther et al., 2013). Hence,
 84 error ranges stemming from climatic and socio-economic projections should be
 85 considered alongside uncertainty in the current understanding of impacts *per se*.
 86



87
 88
 89 **Figure 1** State of global climate impact modelling in terms of sectoral integration and existing
 90 model intercomparison projects. Most studies to date were based on one single-sector
 91 impact model, limited to exploring the uncertainty in climate projections by using input from
 92 different climate models (lower left quadrant). Only a few studies have included several
 93 sectors within one common scenario setup, using one impact model per sector (lower right
 94 quadrant). Likewise, only a few studies have compared impact models within one sector
 95 allowing for the analysis of structural uncertainties (upper left quadrant). The recently
 96 initiated Inter-Sectoral Impact Model Intercomparison Project (ISI-MIP) considers impact
 97 model ensembles in several sectors simultaneously (upper right quadrant).
 98

99 Statistical (meta-)analyses and expert judgments (e.g., Challinor et al., 2014b; Smith
 100 et al., 2009), building on a wealth of specific case studies and empirical data, are
 101 important elements of the necessary toolkit for addressing these research gaps. Here
 102 our focus is on modelling approaches, which are particularly well suited to integrate

103 existing knowledge and to quantitatively assess uncertainties. It is worth noting that
104 the discussion about economic modelling frameworks (i.e., integrated assessment
105 models), including the controversial debate on the representation of climate impacts
106 in these models (e.g., Pindyck, 2013; Stern, 2013), is beyond the scope of this study,
107 albeit their significance for the aggregation of climate impacts and important
108 contribution to uncertainty assessments.

109

110 To begin with we describe efforts to extend first-generation impact modelling
111 schemes, based on just one (biophysical) impact model for one sector, to include (i)
112 several sectors, and (ii) an ensemble of impact models (Fig. 1). We then turn to
113 recent studies that combine a coherent analysis of climate impacts across sectors
114 with a comprehensive, multi-model assessment of uncertainties. Many of these
115 studies have come out of the recently initiated Inter-Sectoral Impact Model
116 Intercomparison Project (ISI-MIP). In the main part of the paper, we discuss some of
117 the most important results from ISI-MIP and similar projects in light of the two major
118 knowledge gaps related to sectoral integration and characterization of uncertainties.
119 Despite well-acknowledged shortcomings of existing model intercomparison efforts,
120 we argue that the climate impacts, adaptation and vulnerability (IAV) community
121 should continue along the multi-sector, multi-model road it has now taken.

122

123 **2 Integrative, model-based assessments of climate impacts – established** 124 **approaches**

125 *2.1 Several sectors, one model*

126 Significant progress has been made recently in the cross-sectoral synthesis of climate
127 impacts knowledge based on either single, internally-consistent multisectoral models
128 or suites of independent sectoral models. These two approaches complement each
129 other. The former class of integrated models obviously allows for the direct
130 simulation of cross-sectoral feedbacks and interactions, but often suffers from a less-
131 detailed representation of processes due to computational limitations. Also, despite
132 some progress in constructing more comprehensive integrated modelling platforms
133 (Howells et al. 2013) so far such studies have focused on closely related sectors only,
134 such as water and ecosystems (e.g., Gerten et al., 2013), or ecosystems and
135 agriculture (e.g., Gervois et al., 2008). By contrast, the latter approach of combining
136 offline simulations of different uncoupled impact models currently allows for more
137 comprehensive impact assessments, covering a higher sectoral diversity.

138

139 Here, we mention as examples a number of projects (forming an incomplete list) that
140 fall into the latter category. It is worthwhile noting that some of these projects
141 comprise some element of model intercomparison (albeit not to the extent ISI-MIP
142 does) and thus fulfil some criteria of the subsequently discussed integration
143 approaches.

144

145 Within the European project PESETA, which has just completed its second
146 phase, consequences of climate change across the continent have been quantified in
147 eight sectors (agriculture, energy, river floods, forest fires, transport infrastructure,
148 coastal areas, tourism, and human health) by integrating a set of separate high-
149 resolution climate-change projections into a single economic modeling framework

150 (Ciscar et al., 2011; Ciscar et al., 2014). Similar integrated assessments of climate
151 impacts in the United States are underway, as part of the Climate Impact and Risk
152 Analysis (CIRA) project (Waldhoff et al., 2014). The CIRA project employed over
153 twenty detailed impacts models with the primary goal to assess the regional benefits
154 of global mitigation efforts across six broad impacts sectors. Early examples of multi-
155 sectoral, model-based climate change risk assessments at the global scale are the UK
156 Fast Track project (Parry et al., 1999) and the Climate Impact Response Functions
157 (Füssel et al. 2003) initiative, but there are very few other comparable studies. More
158 recently, the study by Arnell et al. (2013) provides projections of climate impacts in
159 six sectors (water availability, river flooding, coastal flooding, agriculture, ecosystems,
160 and energy demands) at the global scale, using a coherent set of climatic and socio-
161 economic scenarios. However, the majority of these studies used only one impact
162 model per sector, and were thus unable to address uncertainties beyond those
163 arising from climatic and socio-economic input data.

164

165 *2.2 Several models, one sector*

166 On the other hand, impact model intercomparison efforts, which provide a basis for
167 quantifying and classifying these uncertainties, have so far typically focused on one
168 specific sector or region. Examples of global studies include the assessment of
169 uncertainty in the response of the global terrestrial biosphere to increasing CO₂
170 concentrations and rising temperatures, by comparing simulations of a suite of
171 Dynamic Global Vegetation Models (DGVMs; Cramer et al., 2001; Sitch et al., 2008).
172 More recently, a large number of global hydrological and land-surface models were
173 compared in the WaterMIP initiative (Haddeland et al., 2011; Hagemann et al. 2012),

174 building upon earlier model comparison efforts in the water sector (Dirmeyer et al.,
175 1999; Hoff et al., 2010). An important ongoing community initiative is the Agricultural
176 Model Intercomparison and Improvement Project (AgMIP), an ambitious multi-scale,
177 multi-model impacts assessment in the agricultural sector (Rötter et al. 2011;
178 Rosenzweig et al. 2013). Several other research projects have combined impact
179 model ensembles with observational records to analyse causes of past climate effects
180 (e.g., on the carbon and water cycles) (Vetter et al., 2008; Jung et al., 2010), rather
181 than provide future projections. Regional examples include the comparison of
182 modelling schemes to assess climate change consequences for the hydrological cycle
183 in the US (Xia et al., 2012) and in the monsoon-dominated countries of West Africa
184 (Ruti et al., 2011).

185

186 **3 The Inter-Sectoral Impact Model Intercomparison Project (ISI-MIP)**

187 The ISI-MIP, launched in 2012 (Schellnhuber et al., 2014), is an example of a new type
188 of community effort situated in the otherwise largely unpopulated upper right corner
189 of the impacts integration matrix (Fig. 1). It builds upon existing sectoral model
190 intercomparison efforts, such as the WaterMIP and AgMIP initiatives, but is designed
191 to integrate these and other impacts simulation schemes across sectors and scales.
192 Integration pursued in ISI-MIP entails running models of different sectors and scales
193 with a minimum level of harmonization and common input data, rather than
194 dynamically linking these models.

195 In its recently concluded fast-track phase the ISI-MIP involved more than thirty
196 international modeling teams and covered five sectors (agriculture, water,
197 ecosystems, coastal infrastructure, and health) (Warszawski et al., 2014). Global

198 impacts projections were based on common bias-corrected climate input data
199 (Hempel et al., 2013) and socio-economic indicators, using state-of-the-art climate-
200 change and socio-economic scenarios (Representative Concentrations Pathways
201 (RCPs) (Moss et al., 2011) and Shared Socio-Economic Pathways (SSPs) (Van Vuuren
202 et al., 2012).

203

204 Major results of the ISI-MIP fast track have recently been discussed by Schellnhuber
205 et al. (2014). Here we present a synopsis of important advances made by ISI-MIP and
206 other recent multi-model efforts with regards to (i) the integration of impacts
207 projections across sectors and spatial scales, and (ii) the quantification and
208 classification of uncertainties. We also define related research challenges, which
209 should now be addressed by the scientific community.

210

211 **4 Cross-sectoral intercomparison of impact models – major advances and future** 212 **challenges**

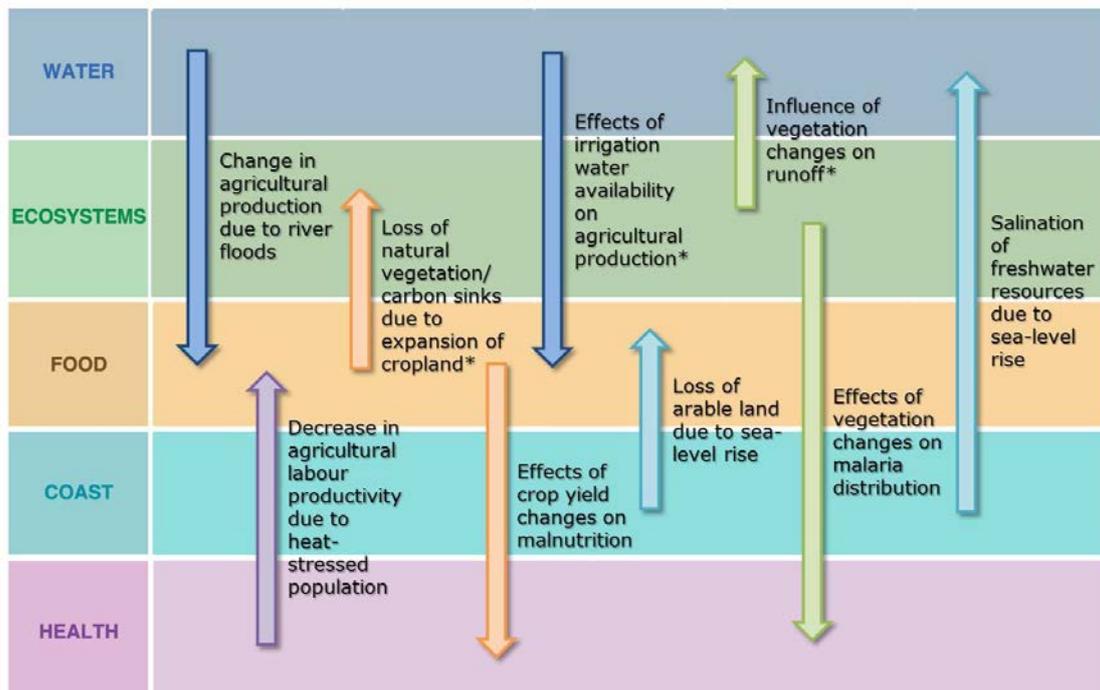
213 *4.1 Integrating impacts projections across sectors and spatial scales*

214 Juxtaposing impacts measures from different sectors in order to synthesize impacts
215 requires a common scenario framework. Earlier approaches, such as the summaries
216 of impacts at different levels of GMT rise presented by Hare (2006) and Warren
217 (2006) , constitute important steps forward but were not always based on
218 harmonized input (in particular with regard to non-climatic drivers such as
219 populations scenarios and land-use patterns). Integrative efforts that function as
220 inter-sectoral exercises from the outset circumvent such inconsistencies. For
221 example, based on ISI-MIP multi-model ensembles, Piontek et al. (2014) presented

222 an analysis of coinciding biophysical impacts in four different sectors (agriculture,
223 water, ecosystems, health) to identify regional hotspots. Their analysis included
224 estimates of the number of people exposed to ‘severe’ changes in one or several
225 sectors, measured as significant departures from the historical norm. The areas
226 identified as hotspots in this analysis are of course contingent on the limited number
227 of sectors considered, and the employed definitions of severe change.

228

229 An important development towards a more general map of climate change hotspots
230 would be to move from ‘exposure analyses’ to actual impacts assessments that
231 account for vulnerabilities and adaptive responses. As a first step, the results from
232 ISI-MIP allow for the assessment of inter-sectoral interactions and adaptation trade-
233 offs (Fig. 2), based on consistent multi-sector, multi-model data. Using output of up
234 to 11 global hydrological models and 7 crop models, two recent studies (Elliott et al.,
235 2014; Frieler et al., in preparation) have, for example, investigated the effect of
236 climate change on food production – directly, through climate-induced yield changes,
237 and indirectly, through the constraint that changing availability of freshwater puts on
238 the enhancement of irrigation. Complementing the multi-sectoral ensemble by 7
239 global vegetation models, Frieler et al. (in preparation) have additionally studied the
240 loss of natural carbon sinks resulting from the expansion of cropland required to
241 meet the projected food demand. The necessary simulation data are now available to
242 explore further important inter-sectoral interactions and trade-offs, such as the loss
243 of arable land to sea-level rise, or the effect of river floods on agricultural production
244 (Fig. 2).



245

246 **Figure 2** Climate-impact cascades across sectors. Each arrow, overlain on the
 247 standard impacts table from the 4th IPCC assessment report (Parry et al., 2007),
 248 illustrates an exemplary inter-sectoral feedback. Whereas previous studies have
 249 commonly focused on individual sectors in isolation (along the horizontal dimension),
 250 integrative efforts – such as ISI-MIP and AgMIP – now also allow for the analysis of
 251 feedbacks and interactions across sectors (along the vertical dimension). *Feedbacks
 252 recently studied in the context of ISI-MIP (Davie et al., 2013; Wada et al., 2013; Elliott
 253 et al., 2014; Frieler et al., in preparation).

254 When integrating different sectors, it is important to include those that are socially
 255 relevant but have largely been ignored in the past. Climate impacts on agriculture,
 256 hydrology, ecosystems and forestry have been the subject of intensive research. It is
 257 questionable whether the concept of more or less clearly distinct sectors is a good
 258 one to start with. However, the broad areas of human health, migration, transport,
 259 infrastructure (also beyond coastal areas), energy production and distribution,
 260 settlements (including mega-cities), and marine ecosystems clearly require the
 261 attention of the impacts-research community. For some of these areas, not even one
 262 global-scale model exists yet, let alone ensembles of comparable models.

263

264 Regarding the integration across different spatial scales, it is generally agreed that
265 process-based impact models operating on different spatial scales are yet to be
266 systematically tested and compared (Challinor et al., 2014a). Global models often
267 agree on large-scale patterns of change, but diverge in their projections of specific
268 changes at the regional scale (where even the sign of change often differs between
269 models) (Warszawski et al., 2013; Dankers et al., 2014). Comparing global and
270 regional models in selected areas (e.g., major river basins or critical biomes such as
271 the Amazon or boreal forests) may contribute to constraining these large regional
272 uncertainties. Global models may “learn” from the regional ones and help to
273 generalize their results by extrapolations to other regions not covered by regional
274 simulations. Driving global impact models with higher-resolution climate input (so-
275 called hyper-resolution global modelling) is another avenue to potentially improve
276 local and regional projections (Wood et al., 2011). Pin-pointing and reducing the
277 existing scale dependency (Boone et al., 2004) constitutes an important step towards
278 the eventual use of global models for on-the-ground adaptation planning.

279

280 *4.2 Quantifying and classifying uncertainties*

281 'Perturbed physics ensembles' commonly explore parametric uncertainties
282 associated with a single model (e.g., Challinor et al., 2009), with the major advantage
283 that causes of model spread can often be traced back to specific parameters and
284 processes. 'Ensembles of opportunity', based on the comparison of several process-
285 based impact models, constitute another wide-spread approach for deriving
286 probabilistic assessments of climate change impacts. The challenge lies in
287 appropriately interpreting these multi-model simulations (Sanderson and Knutti,

288 2012). The conventional approach, which has been adopted by the majority of ISI-
289 MIP-related studies (e.g., Haddeland et al., 2014; Schewe et al., 2014), is to treat all
290 model output equally – despite model interdependencies and common genealogies.
291 This issue has been widely discussed in the global climate modelling community
292 (Knutti, 2010), but requires more attention from climate impact modellers in light of
293 the increasing number of multi-model assessments in this field.

294

295 If some models share more code or concepts than others, or multiple versions of one
296 model enter the ensemble, a simple average of model outputs is necessarily biased,
297 as these models are implicitly given greater weight (Knutti et al., 2013).

298 Understanding model genealogy is thus important to assess the significance of this
299 bias. Yet, it has rarely been made transparent for ensembles of global impact models
300 (GIMs); but see Rosenzweig et al. (2014) for a genealogy of global crop models.

301

302 A complementary approach, often adopted by global climate modellers, is weighting
303 simulation output based on model performance compared to observations. In this
304 context, a robust definition of what constitutes a ‘better’ or ‘poorer’ model
305 performance (Tebaldi and Knutti, 2007) would be required. One important question
306 with regard to GCMs is, for example, to what extent the models’ ability to represent
307 current climate is related to their ability to represent future climate (Knutti, 2010). To
308 our knowledge the only example of weighting impacts models based on performance
309 so far can be found in a recent AgMIP study (Asseng et al., 2013) on the uncertainty
310 of simulating wheat yields under climate change. Previous studies have rather relied

311 on weighted GCM output for deriving probabilistic impact assessments (e.g., Rammig
 312 et al., 2010).

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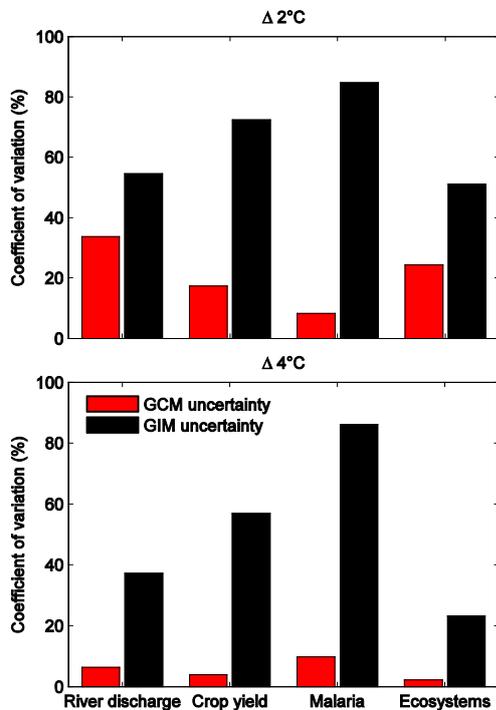


Figure 3 Uncertainty due to global climate models (GCMs) (red) and global impact models (GIMs) (black) in four different impact sectors at 2°C (top) and 4°C (bottom) GMT rise. Coefficients of variation were calculated based on data of model spread from Piontek et al. (2014), who compute climate impacts as the fraction of global land surface subject to ‘severe’ changes in 30-year averages of river discharge, crop yields, ecosystem characteristics, and the length of the malaria transmission season at given GMT levels. Multi-model ensembles consist of 11 hydrological models, 7 crop models, 4 malaria models, and 7 vegetation models. Climate input data were taken from 3 GCMs.

333 Beyond probabilistic interpretation of multi-model ensembles, integrative modelling
 334 frameworks such as ISI-MIP allow for the identification of contributions to
 335 uncertainty from different sources. A major finding emerging from these recent
 336 multi-model assessments of climate impacts is that the uncertainty stemming from
 337 GIMs is generally larger than the uncertainty stemming from GCMs (e.g., for
 338 hydrology models: Schewe et al., 2014; for crop models: Rosenzweig et al., 2014; for
 339 malaria models: Caminade et al., 2014; for vegetation models: Warszawski et al.,
 340 2013; see also Fig.3). One could deduce from this finding that investment in impact
 341 model development and improvement – rather than further constraining climate
 342 input data – is paramount in order to reduce overall uncertainty of climate impacts
 343 projections. This conclusion would also be supported by the argument that great
 344 effort has already been put into the development of GCMs, but that there might be

345 much to be gained with regard to the improvement of GIMs for comparably little
346 investment.

347

348 However, there are several important caveats to this statement. Firstly, bias
349 correction applied to GCM output will reduce the inter-GCM variability, thereby
350 potentially reducing the contribution of GCMs to total uncertainty of impacts
351 simulations (Dankers et al., 2014; Wada et al., 2013). A recent study using global
352 hydrological models concluded that the uncertainty related to statistical bias
353 correction is of the same order of magnitude as the uncertainties related to the
354 choice of the GCM or GIM (Hagemann et al., 2011). More in-depth studies on the
355 role of bias correction should definitely be high up on the agenda of climate impacts
356 research. (As a matter of fact, all statements about the relative contributions of
357 GCMs and GIMs to total impact uncertainty made here would need to stand the test
358 of using non-bias-corrected GCM data.) Secondly, the proportion of uncertainty due
359 to GIMs and GCMs is contingent on the respective ensemble sizes and characteristics
360 (also pointed out by Prudhomme et al., 2014). ISI-MIP relied on a subset of 5 GCMs
361 out of nearly 30 GCMs participating in the latest phase of the Coupled Model
362 Intercomparison Project (CMIP5) (Taylor et al., 2011), which points to the need of
363 more comprehensive analyses in the future. Thirdly, what is true for globally
364 aggregated metrics may not apply at the regional scale. For example, while GIMs
365 contribute the largest proportion to the total uncertainty in the length of the malaria
366 transmission season across most of the globe, variations between GCMs dominate in
367 regions where their precipitation projections diverge most strongly (Caminade et al.,
368 2014). Fourthly, the decomposition of uncertainty may change with both time and

369 the magnitude of GMT change (cf., Fig. 3 top and bottom). In support of this
370 argument, Wada et al. (2013) have found that the contribution of GCMs to overall
371 uncertainty in simulations of global irrigation water demand is greater at higher GMT
372 change. It follows from the third and fourth caveats that the task of constraining
373 uncertainty may differ strongly depending on whether the goal is to inform near-
374 term, regional adaptation or long-term, global mitigation decisions.

375

376 Finally, exploring the reasons for inter-model differences can contribute to an
377 improved understanding of the mechanisms that produce specific climate impacts.
378 For example, Friend et al. (2014) found that the implementation of plant respiration
379 and mortality processes in global vegetation models is key to explaining the different
380 carbon source-sink dynamics simulated by these models. Taking a closer look at
381 ensemble spreads by comparing the output of different model classes (e.g., site-
382 based and ecosystem-type global crop models: Rosenzweig et al., 2014; hydrological
383 models with and without dynamic vegetation: Davie et al., 2013) forms an important
384 basis for future model development and improvement.

385

386 **5 General limitations of model intercomparison approaches**

387 Despite being powerful means of integration and uncertainty assessment, multi-
388 model approaches are no panacea for the currently incomplete patchwork of impacts
389 knowledge. CMIP, which now provides global climate projections in its fifth phase
390 (Taylor et al., 2011), is a suitable reference point to judge not only the successes of,
391 but also the risks involved in tightly integrated approaches. Ensemble convergence
392 often results from consensus on metrics and observational datasets rather than a

393 converging understanding of processes. Knutti (2010) suggested that there may even
394 be an ‘element of social anchoring’: Without any deliberate adjustment of models,
395 participating groups tend to produce results that fall in the middle of the ensemble
396 instead of representing an outlier. It is also worth noting that uncertainty in global
397 climate projections (e.g., GMT, seasonal and spatial pattern of temperature and
398 precipitation change) has not been considerably reduced between CMIP3 and CMIP5
399 (Knutti and Sedláček, 2013), despite continuing efforts into model development and
400 improvement.

401

402 Another potential shortcoming may arise in the communication of results to policy
403 makers. Individual models and small ensembles consisting of only a few models can
404 of course provide policy-relevant information. However, the general risk involved is
405 that critical information on the assumptions and characteristics of single models or
406 model ensembles is not conveyed to policy makers, making results appear more
407 general than they actually are. One example stems from the intercomparison of
408 integrated assessment models led by the Energy Modeling Forum (EMF), which
409 provided estimates of the economic costs of stringent mitigation policies for the 4th
410 IPCC assessment report. Since not all models were able to run the lowest emission
411 reduction scenario, it was later controversially discussed whether these estimates
412 were biased due to the selection of specific model types in the considered EMF sub-
413 ensemble (Tavoni and Tol, 2010; Knopf et al. 2012).

414

415 **6 Conclusions**

416 Keeping these caveats in mind, systematic and integrative model intercomparisons in
417 climate impacts research (such as initiated by ISI-MIP, AgMIP, and similar projects)
418 nonetheless constitute a major step forward. As demonstrated here, they are already
419 on the road to delivering significant progress towards an improved quantitative and
420 consistent view of a world exposed to a 2, 3, 4, or 5 degree higher GMT.

421

422 In the short term, improved understanding of climate impacts across sectors and
423 scales will support policy-makers in their review of the 2-degree temperature target
424 (UNFCCC 2010). Inter-sectoral considerations can make a difference in policy-making,
425 as recently demonstrated, for example, by an integrated analysis of climate change,
426 land use, energy and water strategies with regard to the establishment of a local
427 biofuel industry in Mauritius (Howells et al., 2013).

428

429 In the longer term, establishing a community-driven process that compares and
430 evaluates impact models regularly according to well-defined procedures will bring
431 climate impacts research on an equal footing with the corresponding climatological
432 and climate-economical sciences. In the latter fields, intercomparisons of GCMs and
433 Earth system models (such as in CMIP), and of integrated assessment models (as
434 through the Integrated Assessment Modelling Consortium, IAMC), respectively, have
435 evolved into community benchmarks. As such, they advance the science and
436 contribute significantly to an increasing transparency and accessibility of modelling
437 results. A comprehensive, publicly accessible archive of climate-change impacts
438 simulations, similar to that provided by the CMIP archive, would synthesize the state-
439 of-the art in impacts modelling and would guide the scientific community in further

440 addressing crucial model gaps and inconsistencies among models. The ISI-MIP data
441 archive, which is now openly available, provides a good starting point, but would
442 require a much broader involvement of the IAV research community to live up to its
443 full potential.

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445 *Note:* Studies resulting from the ISI-MIP Fast Track are marked with an asterisk.

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