



Carbon budget for 1.5 and 2oC targets lowered by natural wetland and permafrost feedbacks

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1 **Carbon budget for 1.5 and 2°C targets lowered by natural wetland** 2 **and permafrost feedbacks**

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14 **Keywords: Climate stabilisation, global warming, temperature thresholds, carbon cycle,**
15 **methane cycle, permafrost thaw**

16 **Methane emissions from natural wetlands and carbon release from permafrost thaw have**
17 **a positive feedback on climate, yet are not represented in most state-of-the-art climate**
18 **models. Furthermore, a fraction of the thawed permafrost carbon is released as methane,**
19 **enhancing the combined feedback strength. We present simulations with an intermediate**
20 **complexity climate model which follow prescribed global warming pathways to**
21 **stabilisation at 1.5°C or 2.0°C above pre-industrial levels by the year 2100, and that**
22 **incorporates a state-of-the-art global land surface model with updated descriptions of**
23 **wetland and permafrost carbon release. We demonstrate that the climate feedbacks from**
24 **those two processes are substantial. Specifically, permissible anthropogenic fossil fuel**
25 **CO₂ emission budgets are reduced by 17-23% (47-56 GtC) for stabilisation at 1.5°C, and**
26 **9-13% (52-57 GtC) for 2.0°C stabilisation. In our simulations these feedback processes**
27 **respond faster at temperatures below 1.5°C, and the differences between the 1.5°C and**
28 **2°C targets are disproportionately small. This key finding is due to our interest in**

29 **transient emission pathways to the year 2100 and does not consider the longer term**
30 **implications of these feedback processes. We conclude that natural feedback processes**
31 **from wetlands and permafrost must be considered in assessments of transient emission**
32 **pathways to limit global warming.**

33 **Background**

34 The 2009 meeting of the United Nations' Framework Convention on Climate Change
35 (UNFCCC) in Copenhagen formalised the aspiration to stabilise global warming at no more
36 than 2°C above pre-industrial levels¹. The subsequent UNFCCC Paris Agreement in 2015
37 raised the additional possibility of aiming for an even lower upper warming threshold of 1.5°C².
38 These targets will require large reductions in anthropogenic greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions,
39 with sustained decreases of ~3% per annum^{3,4} and development of technologies to remove
40 carbon dioxide (CO₂) from the atmosphere. This is because the equilibrium global warming for
41 current GHG concentrations may already be near 1.5°C⁵. Given the anticipated difficulty in
42 keeping below the 1.5°C threshold, two key questions are being asked. First, what are the
43 implications in terms of allowable anthropogenic emissions to keep warming below 1.5°C
44 rather than 2.0°C? Second, what is gained climatically or environmentally by keeping below
45 1.5°C, i.e. are unwelcome climate impacts potentially avoided?

46 The climate change observed during recent decades has been strongly linked to human
47 influences on atmospheric GHG composition, leading the 5th IPCC assessment to state: “it is
48 extremely likely that human influence has been the dominant cause of the observed warming
49 since the mid-20th century”⁶. However atmospheric GHG levels are affected both directly (via
50 anthropogenic GHG emissions) and indirectly by human activity. Indirect effects include
51 climate change-induced adjustments to the land-atmosphere and/or ocean-atmosphere GHG
52 exchange fluxes. This was first modelled for the global carbon cycle by [7] who predicted a

53 significant flux of carbon to the atmosphere via increased plant and soil respiration under
54 warming for a business-as-usual scenario. Similar analyses have been undertaken separately
55 for additional methane (CH₄) release from wetlands^{8,9} and additional carbon released from the
56 long-term permafrost store¹⁰⁻¹². The increase in global warming may be under-estimated for a
57 prescribed anthropogenic emissions trajectory if these processes are not considered. In
58 reference to policy objectives, the anthropogenic fossil fuel emission budgets (AFFEBs) to
59 limit global warming to 1.5°C or 2.0°C may be significantly reduced from current
60 assessments^{6,13,14}.

61 This research focusses on two key feedback processes which were not included in most models
62 in the fifth phase of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP5)¹⁵ and will only be
63 included in a small fraction of models participating the sixth phase (CMIP6). These are the
64 effects of carbon release from the long-term permafrost store as CO₂ and the increased CH₄
65 emissions from natural wetlands, and the coupling between the two effects where carbon from
66 thawed permafrost is also released as CH₄^{16,17}. These are particularly pertinent issues given that
67 CH₄ has a larger Global Warming Potential (GWP) by equivalent weight than CO₂, and the
68 recent resurgent growth in atmospheric CH₄¹⁸.

69 In contrast to CMIP5 simulations, which modelled climatic and environmental responses to
70 prescribed pathways in atmospheric concentrations, the objective here is to estimate the
71 anthropogenic response to meet a specified global warming target. We develop an inverted
72 form of climate model to follow prescribed temperature trajectories¹⁹ and calculate the
73 corresponding AFFEBs¹³, including the two aforementioned feedback effects. The modelling
74 framework is based on the coupled Joint UK Land Environment Simulator (JULES^{20,21}) and
75 Integrated Model Of Global Effects of climatic aNomalies (IMOGEN^{22,23}) system (Methods).
76 The approach taken is generic and may be employed in further research to answer a number of
77 environmental policy related questions in terms of meeting specified warming thresholds.

78 **Model Setup**

79 We use JULES version 4.8 release, with the addition of a 14 layered soil column for both
80 hydro-thermal²⁴ and carbon²⁵ dynamics (Methods). The JULES configuration includes
81 representations of land-use and land-use change (LULUC) and ozone damage on plant stomata
82 to address policy-relevant warming scenarios outside the scope of this paper. Full JULES
83 details are given in Methods.

84 The major advancement in the IMOGEN configuration used for this study is the prescription
85 of evolving global temperature trajectories. Following this inverted form (Figure SI.1b;
86 Methods), changes in radiative forcing, ΔQ , are calculated as a function of the time-history of
87 global warming which are then ascribed to compatible atmospheric compositions of GHGs.
88 The anthropogenic contribution to atmospheric CO₂ is calculated whilst taking in to account
89 changes to the land and ocean carbon stores, together with prescription or calculation of non-
90 CO₂ greenhouse gases. Additional IMOGEN enhancements for this analysis include the
91 calculation of atmospheric CH₄ concentration and effective radiative forcing, capturing the
92 climate impacts on CH₄ release from natural wetlands (Methods).

93 Critical to our analysis is understanding emission pathways available to stabilise at either 1.5°C
94 or 2.0°C of warming since pre-industrial times. As this will be strongly influenced by
95 anthropogenic perturbation of the climate system to present day, we constrain the historical
96 global temperature (ΔT_G) to the HadCRUT4 observational record²⁶ and atmospheric
97 composition to the Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) record²⁷ for the period 1850-
98 2015. Future projections of the non-CO₂ atmospheric composition is taken from the IMAGE-
99 3.0 implementation of Shared-Socioeconomic-Pathway (SSP) version 2 under RCP2.6
100 (SSP2_RCP-2.6_IMAGE)²⁸ (Methods).

101 We select three possible global warming pathways to stabilisation at the 1.5°C or 2.0°C targets
102 by 2100 (Figure 1a and Figure SI.2), which are described using the formulation in [19]
103 (Methods). Two of the considered trajectories follow the more traditional scenario of reaching
104 asymptotes at 1.5°C and 2.0°C from below. The third asymptotes to 1.5°C after an overshoot
105 to 1.75°C, representing far greater attempts of decarbonisation of the atmosphere towards the
106 end of the 21st century. The overshoot trajectory allows investigation into hysteresis effects
107 which may have path-dependent impact on temperature stabilisation, e.g. carbon release due to
108 permafrost thaw.

109 **Discussion**

110 The atmospheric CO₂ concentrations and derived anthropogenic emission pathways from our
111 control runs (i.e. with no natural wetland CH₄ nor permafrost carbon feedbacks) are displayed
112 in Figure 1. Using this “standard” configuration of JULES, we estimate the interquartile range
113 of the AFFEBs for 2015-2100 as 464-568 GtC to meet the 2°C target, and 227-283 GtC or 227-
114 288 GtC to meet the 1.5°C target with or without the overshoot, respectively (Table 1). The
115 AFFEBs are broadly linear in ΔT_G across the three scenarios, i.e. 378-480 GtC °C⁻¹ and 421-
116 516 GtC °C⁻¹ for the 1.5°C and 2°C scenarios, respectively. These results agree with previous
117 estimates of AFFEBs using different methods¹³.

118 The 2°C scenario allows close to “business as usual” emissions for the coming decade followed
119 by extensive emission reductions of 3.5-4.1% per year between 2030 and 2100. However, if
120 society were to act more immediately, the AFFEB could be met with year-on-year reductions
121 of 2.2-2.7% from 2020. The 1.5°C scenario with no overshoot indicates a near immediate peak
122 in annual emissions followed by 3.5-4.3% year-on-year reductions from 2020. Despite the
123 similarity of the AFFEB for the two 1.5°C scenarios, the overshoot scenario places larger
124 pressure on future generations. This pathway implies that anthropogenic activities are a net

125 311-377 GtC source of CO₂ until the early-2050s, then must become a net sink, capturing 90.4-
126 101 GtC. These estimates go further than previous attempts to quantify AFFEB^{13,14} as they
127 provide an AFFEB for each GCM, and the transient pathway, to meet the specified stabilised
128 temperature.

129 The role of permafrost thaw in modulating the AFFEB is measured as the amount of carbon
130 that was in the pre-industrial permafrost carbon store that is lost to the atmosphere. We define
131 permafrost as soil layers within grid cells which JULES simulates as perennially frozen. We
132 find our estimates of present day permafrost extent and loss rate to agree with the models
133 assessed in [11] (Figure SI.3). Furthermore, a comparison with an observation dataset²⁹
134 demonstrates that our simulations reproduce a reasonable present day spatial coverage of
135 permafrost (Figure SI.4). By 2100, the model ensemble estimates a median 138 Mha loss of
136 permafrost area at 3m depth for the 1.5°C asymptote pathway and a median 239 Mha loss for
137 the 2.0°C pathway (Figure 2a and Table SI.3). This degradation of permafrost results in an
138 additional 40.0-46.3, 45.6-51.2 and 61.9-72.0 GtC of pre-industrial permafrost carbon which
139 is no longer perennially frozen, relative to 2015, for the three temperature scenarios. Between
140 20% and 30% of this newly “thermally active” carbon has been released to the atmosphere,
141 reducing AFFEBs by 11.6-13.8 GtC across the three scenarios (Figure 2d and Table 1– blue
142 boxes in first column). The uncertainty range presented here is the interquartile range of the
143 climate ensemble. We use a model configuration very close to the upper extreme of the process
144 uncertainty presented in [10], hence our estimates represent an upper limit to the potential
145 permafrost feedback. Applying the findings of [10] implies that a lower limit to the permafrost
146 feedback would be roughly half of what is presented here (~5-7 GtC).

147 The differences in permafrost loss between scenarios appears less than previous estimates³⁰.
148 However, our estimates represent a transient snapshot at 2100 and not equilibrium conditions
149 which will not be met for several centuries. The permafrost is not in equilibrium by 2100,

150 particularly the deeper soil layers which show a lagged response to changes in the surface air
151 temperature (Figure 2a and 2b). This behaviour is similarly observed in the pre-industrial
152 permafrost carbon stocks which are still being significantly depleted by year 2100 (Figure 2c
153 and 2d). The loss-rate of pre-industrial permafrost carbon to the atmosphere is still increasing
154 by 2100 as the total pool of soil carbon to respire continues to grow despite the stabilisation of
155 surface air temperature. This highlights the time-scales involved in permafrost processes and
156 indicates that permafrost thaw will continue to have large implications on anthropogenic
157 emissions into the 22nd century even if temperatures have stabilised.

158 The response of the AFFEB to permafrost thaw is non-linear with respect to ΔT_G , i.e. 19.3-21.7
159 GtC °C⁻¹ for the 1.5°C scenarios and 11.6-12.5 GtC °C⁻¹ for the 2°C scenario. This implies that
160 the permafrost feedback is faster at lower temperature changes, and keeping temperatures
161 below 1.5°C, rather than 2°C, does not make large differences to AFFEBs to 2100. However,
162 this behaviour is primarily a feature of our interest in the AFFEB to 2100 and the additional
163 carbon released in the 2°C scenario will continue to have implications into the 22nd century.

164 The impact of the natural wetland CH₄ feedback on the AFFEBs is the sum of reduced carbon
165 uptake of the atmosphere, ocean and land due to a higher atmospheric CH₄ concentration. The
166 magnitude and distribution of the JULES natural wetland CH₄ emissions are driven primarily
167 by wetland area and the soil temperature and carbon content (Methods). Our estimates of
168 wetland extent and zonal distribution for the present day are within the range of state-of-the-
169 art observation datasets^{31,32} (Figure SI.4). To encapsulate a range of methanogenesis process
170 uncertainty we include a temperature sensitivity ensemble by varying Q_{10} in Equation 1
171 (Methods). We use Q_{10} values calibrated to represent two wetland types identified in [33]
172 (“poor-fen” and “rich-fen”) and a third “low- Q_{10} ” which gave increased importance to high
173 latitude emissions (Methods). Our ensemble spread sufficiently describes the magnitude and
174 distribution of present day CH₄ emissions from natural wetlands according to the models

175 assessed in a recent intercomparison study³⁴ (Figure SI.5). That said, there is still much
176 uncertainty in natural wetland CH₄ emissions and future work will look to improve our model
177 via more rigorous comparisons with observational datasets.

178 The global mean atmospheric CH₄ concentrations are increased by 3-9% and 6-15% (w.r.t. the
179 control simulation) when the natural CH₄ feedback is included for the 1.5°C and 2°C target,
180 respectively (Figure 3a for the “poor-fen” parameterisation and supplementary Figure SI.6 for
181 the other parameterisations). The major driver of increased CH₄ emissions is increased soil
182 temperatures as changes in wetland extent and soil carbon content are not consistent globally
183 (Figure SI.7). The increased atmospheric CH₄ concentrations imply reduced atmospheric CO₂
184 concentrations to ensure that simulations follow the prescribed temperature pathway (Figure
185 3b). The reduced atmospheric CO₂ concentrations result in reduced CO₂ fertilisation of
186 vegetation and a slower oceanic drawdown of CO₂. Additionally, the increased ozone due to
187 increased CH₄ (Methods) limits productivity further still. The AFFEBs are hence lowered by
188 33-51 GtC for the full temperature sensitivity ensemble (yellow cells in Table 1 and Figure
189 3d).

190 Similar to the permafrost feedback, the natural CH₄ feedback is non-linear with respect to ΔT_G ,
191 i.e. 55-71 GtC °C⁻¹ for the 1.5°C scenario and 34-46 GtC °C⁻¹ for the 2°C scenario. The effects
192 of the natural CH₄ feedbacks are 13-21% larger for the 2°C scenario than the 1.5°C scenarios
193 despite a temperature increase that is 83% larger, from present day. Furthermore, we found that
194 this non-linear behaviour was maintained for the three temperature sensitivities considered in
195 our uncertainty analysis (Figure 3d). Therefore, in the context of the natural wetland feedback
196 strength, we conclude that constraining warming to less than 1.5°C, rather than 2°C, has a
197 disproportionately small impact on the AFFEB.

198 The natural CH₄ feedback strength is slightly reduced for the 1.5°C with overshoot in
199 comparison to the 1.5°C asymptote pathway (Figure 3a). The two scenarios have similar
200 atmospheric CH₄ concentrations by 2100 (median difference < 5ppb) hence the atmospheric
201 CO₂ sinks in year 2100 are similar. However, the overshooting pathway has higher atmospheric
202 CO₂ concentrations during the 21st Century, hence the ocean and land sinks are not reduced by
203 as much. This implies that an overshooting pathway may be more robust to the natural CH₄
204 feedback as the land and ocean sinks are more effective. Given that the magnitude of this
205 difference is small, 1-2 GtC, it is difficult to generalise this behaviour.

206 Our simulations show little interaction (where thawed permafrost is released as CH₄) between
207 the feedback processes, i.e. the difference between the sum of the AFFEB differences and
208 AFFEB difference from the simulation including both feedback processes < 2 GtC. The amount
209 of CH₄ released from the thawed permafrost carbon is 0.2-0.6 TgCH₄ per year, where the upper
210 limit corresponds to the “low-Q₁₀” parameterisation (Figure SI.8a) which gave a greater
211 emphasis to CH₄ emissions from cooler regions (methods). This is ~0.16-0.56 % of global CH₄
212 emissions in 2015, decreasing to ~0.12-0.46% in 2100 (Figure SI.8b). Similarly, the fraction
213 of permafrost carbon released as CH₄ is 0.15-0.59% (Figure SI.8c). The additional atmospheric
214 CH₄ translates to changes of global atmospheric CO₂ of the order 0.1 ppmv, which has little
215 impact on the absolute atmospheric carbon sink nor the uptake of carbon by the land and ocean.
216 Hence, in the context of our estimates of AFFEBs to meet the UNFCC targets (200-500 GtC),
217 the interplay of these two feedback schemes is largely negligible. However, our modelling
218 framework does not account for thermokarst lakes created via ground subsidence following
219 permafrost thaw. To provide an estimate of uncertainty regarding this omission we emulate the
220 behaviour offline by linearly increasing wetland extent in permafrost regions through the 21st
221 Century, from a factor of 1 in year 2000 to a factor of 2 in year 2100 (Figure SI.10). The
222 increased CH₄ emissions reduces the AFFEB by a further 0.8-2.5 GtC. However, we see this

223 as an over-estimate as the emulation does not consider the reduced aerobic respiration due to
224 increased saturated soil which has been shown to outweigh the increased CH₄ emissions¹⁶.

225 **Conclusions**

226 The combined effect of these feedback processes has large implications on AFFEBs, 16.7-
227 23.2% (46.6-55.7 GtC) and 9.5-13% (51.4-64.6 GtC) reductions for the 1.5°C and 2°C
228 scenarios from the control runs, respectively (Table 1 – green cells). In terms of mitigation
229 pathways this corresponds to 4.6-5.4% year-on-year reductions in anthropogenic emissions
230 beginning in 2020 to meet the 1.5°C emission budget. To meet the 2°C warming target, the
231 allowable emissions would require year-on-year reductions of 3.9-4.5% beginning in 2030, or
232 2.4-3.0% starting in 2020. This represents a 1-1.5% increase in reduction rates for the 1.5°C
233 and only a 0.3-0.6% increase in reduction rates for the 2°C. The 1.5°C overshoot pathway
234 indicates that total allowable anthropogenic emissions would need to be no more than 292-351
235 GtC prior to the mid-2050s followed by a removal of 101-118 GtC.

236 We find that to fulfil a 1.5°C warming threshold with no overshoot, increased CH₄ emissions
237 from natural wetlands reduce the AFFEB between now and year 2100 by 12-17%. Carbon
238 released from the long-term permafrost store reduces the AFFEB by an additional 4.1-5.3%,
239 and the interplay between the two processes a further 0.5-1 %. This leaves AFFEBs of 175-
240 235 GtC to 2100, a total reduction of 17-23%. Allowing for an overshoot to 1.75°C, but still
241 leading ultimately to 1.5°C warming, makes little difference to the AFFEB, 172-240 GtC to
242 2100. However, such an eventuality would require significant developments of carbon capture
243 technologies in the second half of the 21st century during which the net anthropogenic
244 contribution to the carbon cycle would have to be a 101-118 GtC sink. The reduction in AFFEB
245 for stabilisation at 2.0°C is, in absolute terms, similar to the reductions required to meet the
246 1.5°C target, 51.4-64.6 GtC. However, this is a much lower fraction of the AFFEB, 9.5-13.0%.

247 Our overall findings are that the natural climate feedbacks considered here are non-linear with
248 respect to the AFFEB to meet a given temperature target by year 2100. Therefore, the role of
249 the natural CH₄ and permafrost thaw feedback processes become increasingly more important
250 when considering the lower stabilisation temperature target of 1.5°C.

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377 **Author Contributions**

378 G.H., E.B., S.C. and E.C-P conceived and developed the project. E.C-P and C.H. led the
379 development of the inverse IMOGEN model system. E.B. and S.C. contributed code and
380 expertise on permafrost and soil carbon modelling. N.G., S.C. and E.C.P. contributed code and
381 expertise on the JULES wetlands methane scheme. A.H. and T.P. contributed land use change,
382 W.C. and C.W. ozone ancillary data and S.S. contributed expertise on the ozone damage
383 effects, respectively. E.C-P., C.H., G.H., E.B., S.C., W.C., C.W., P.C., A.H. and T.P.
384 contributed to the design of the IMOGEN model runs. All authors contributed to the
385 interpretation of the results and to the writing of the paper.

386 **Competing financial interests**

387 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

388 **Methods**

389 **(1) The JULES model^{20,21}.**

390 **(a) Model version and configuration**

391 JULES is a process-based land surface model that simulates energy, water and carbon fluxes
392 at the land-atmosphere boundary. JULES can be run as a standalone model using given
393 meteorological driving variables or as the land surface component of climate modelling
394 systems of varying degrees of complexity, e.g. Earth System Models³⁵ or IMOGEN¹⁸. We use
395 the JULES version 4.8 release with the addition of a 14 layered soil column over 3m for both
396 hydro-thermal²⁴ and carbon dynamics²⁵. Burke et al.,²⁵ demonstrated that modelling the soil
397 carbon fluxes as a multi-layered scheme improves estimates of soil carbon stocks and net
398 ecosystem exchange. In addition to the vertically discretised respiration and litter input terms,
399 the soil carbon balance also includes a diffusivity term which represents
400 cryoturbation/bioturbation processes. The freeze-thaw processes of cryoturbation is
401 particularly important in cold permafrost type soils¹⁰.

402 The multi-layered methanogenesis scheme improves the representation of high latitude CH₄
403 emissions where previous studies underestimated production at cold permafrost sites during
404 “shoulder seasons”³⁶. The multi-layered scheme allows an insulated sub-surface layer of active
405 methanogenesis to continue after the surface has frozen. These model developments not only
406 improve the seasonality of the emissions, but more importantly for this study capture the release
407 of carbon as CH₄ from deep soil layers, including thawed permafrost. The formulation of the
408 multi-layered scheme gives the local land-atmosphere CH₄ flux, E_{CH_4} (kg C m⁻² s⁻¹), as:

$$E_{CH_4} = k \cdot f_{wetl} \cdot \sum_{C_s \text{ pools}}^i \kappa_i \cdot \sum_{z=0m}^{z=3m} e^{-\gamma z} C_{S_{i,z}} \cdot Q_{10}(T_{soil_z})^{0.1(T_{soil_z}-T_0)}$$

Equation 1

409 Where z is the depth in soil column (in m), i is the soil carbon pool, f_{wetl} (-) is the fraction of
410 wetland area in the gridcell, κ_i (s^{-1}) is the specific respiration rate of each pool (Table 8 of [21]),
411 C_s ($kg\ m^{-2}$) is soil carbon, T_{soil} (K) is the soil temperature. γ ($= 0.4\ m^{-1}$) is a constant that
412 describes the reduced contribution of CH_4 emission at deeper soil layers due to inhibited
413 transport and increased oxidation through overlaying soil layers. This is a simplification,
414 however previous work which explicitly represented these processes showed little to no
415 improvement when compared with in-situ observations³⁷. The four soil carbon pools (i) in
416 JULES are decomposable plant material, resistant plant material, microbial biomass, and
417 humus. As JULES is a processed based model, the carbon emitted as CH_4 is therefore removed
418 from the soil carbon stock. Furthermore, as described in [38], soil respiration is non-zero in
419 fully saturated soils, hence in anaerobic conditions JULES produces CO_2 in addition to CH_4 .

420 f_{wetl} is calculated using the JULES implementation of TOPMODEL³⁹ as the integral of a
421 normalised gamma distribution of a prescribed topographic index dataset⁴⁰, $G(\tau)$, between a
422 critical, τ_{crit} ($\ln(m)$), and maximum, τ_{max} ($\ln(m)$), topographic index, i.e.:

$$f_{wetl} = \int_{\tau_{crit}}^{\tau_{max}} G(\tau) d\tau, \quad \text{Equation 2}$$

423 τ_{crit} is dependent on the local water table as:

$$\tau_{crit} = \ln\left(\frac{\Psi(0)}{\Psi(\bar{z}_w)}\right) + \bar{\tau}, \quad \text{Equation 3}$$

424 where $\Psi(0)$ and $\Psi(\bar{z}_w)$ ($m^2 s^{-1}$) are the transmissivities of entire soil column and the soil column
425 below the mean water table depth, \bar{z}_w (m). The τ_{max} limit excludes regions where the water
426 table is sufficiently high enough for stream flow and hence assumed to be a negligible emitter
427 of CH_4 . It is calculated as:

$$\tau_{max} = \tau_{crit} + \tau_{range}, \quad \text{Equation 4}$$

428 where τ_{range} ($= 2.0$) is a global tuning parameter.

429 \bar{z}_w is incrementally updated based on the balance of water flux processes on each JULES
 430 timestep. When \bar{z}_w is in the deep store (a singular 15 m below the 14 modelled layers) it is
 431 updated as the balance between the infiltration water, I_{Deep} , and the baseflow, B_{Deep} , as:

$$\rho\theta_{sat} \frac{d(\bar{z}_w)}{dt} = I_{Deep} - B_{Deep}, \quad \text{Equation 5}$$

432 where ρ is the density of water and θ_{sat} is the saturated volumetric water content. If the deep
 433 layer is fully saturated \bar{z}_w is calculated diagnostically to be in the deepest unsaturated model
 434 soil layer. The water content of each layer, j , is updated on each time step as the balance of the
 435 vertical flux processes (infiltration, I_j , and Evapotranspiration, E_j), and, for layers below \bar{z}_w , a
 436 horizontal baseflow flux, B_j , i.e.:

$$\Delta z_j \rho \frac{d(\theta_j)}{dt} = I_j - E_j - B_j, \quad \text{Equation 6}$$

437 where Δz_j is the thickness and θ_j is the volumetric water content of j^{th} soil layer. For full details
 438 of the process based JULES hydrology please refer to [20] and [39].

439 In addition, the JULES configuration includes prescribed land-use and land-use change
 440 (LULUC), where land used for agriculture can only grow C3 and C4 grasses to represent crops
 441 and pasture. The land-use mask consists of an annual fraction of agricultural land in each grid
 442 cell. Historical LULUC is based on the HYDE 3.1 dataset⁴¹, and future LULUC is based on
 443 the SSP2_RCP-2.6_IMAGE²⁸. When natural vegetation is converted to managed agricultural
 444 land, the removed vegetation carbon is placed into woody product pools that decay at various
 445 rates back into the atmosphere³⁵. The carbon flux from LULUC is therefore not lost from the
 446 system.

447 We use a JULES configuration including ozone deposition damage to plant stomata, which
 448 then affects land-atmosphere CO₂ exchange⁴². JULES requires surface atmospheric ozone
 449 concentrations, O₃ (ppb), for the duration of the simulation period (1850-2100). Here, we use

450 two sets of monthly O₃ concentration fields calculated using the HADGEM3-A GA4.0 model
451 for low (1285 ppbv) and high (2062 ppbv) global mean atmospheric CH₄ concentrations⁴³. We
452 regrid these fields (1.875°x1.25° horizontal grid) to the spatial grid of IMOGEN-JULES
453 (3.75°x2.5° horizontal grid). We then linearly interpolate between the respective months in the
454 regridded O₃ fields using the global annual atmospheric CH₄ concentration. The CH₄
455 concentration is taken from the prescribed SSP2_RCP-2.6_IMAGE plus the natural CH₄
456 modulation when the interactive scheme is in use.

457 **(b) Wetland CH₄ emission scheme calibration**

458 We calibrate the temperature sensitivity of the multi-layered methanogenesis scheme (k and
459 $Q_{10}(T_{soil}) = Q_{10}^{[T_0/T_{soil}]}$ in Equation 1) for each CMIP5 model in the IMOGEN ensemble to
460 ensure the wetland CH₄ production rates match present day observations^{33,34}. [33] fit observed
461 surface CH₄ fluxes, E_{CH_4} , against temperature to Equation 7 using data from 71 sites:

$$E_{CH_4, Turetsky} = A_{Turetsky} \times Q_{10, Turetsky}^{0.1T_{soil-10cm}}, \quad \text{Equation 7}$$

462 where $T_{soil-10cm}$ is the temperature of the top 10 cm of soil.

463 To capture temperature sensitivity uncertainty we calibrate Q_{10} in Equation 1 against Equation
464 7 for 2 of the wetland types identified in [33] (“Poor Fen” and “Rich Fen”) using the daily output
465 from the JULES-simulations at the year 2000 for each GCM. We select Q_{10} values which
466 maximise the Pearson’s correlation coefficient. k is then calculated such that the global total
467 for the year 2000 is 180 TgCH₄ to match our assumptions of the atmospheric growth rate of
468 CH₄ in the IMOGEN CH₄ feedback calculations (see IMOGEN description below). We
469 selected the “Poor Fen” and “Rich Fen” parameterisations for our ensemble as these gave the
470 best representation of the global distribution of CH₄ emissions when compared with the output
471 from [34] (Figure SI.9). A “Bog” parameterisation was ruled out as this tended towards
472 unrealistically high tropical emissions, a “Swamp” parameterisation was ruled out due to the

473 high levels of uncertainty reported in [33]. The optimised parameter values are given in Table
474 SI.2 of the Supplementary Information. In addition to the two calibrated parameterisations we
475 include a “low Q_{10} ” ($Q_{10}=2.0$, $k=1.625\times 10^{-9}$) parameterisation which gave a larger fraction of
476 global emissions to lower temperature regions (Figure SI.9).

477 **(2) IMOGEN, EBM Inversion and the CMIP5 models selected for its calibration.**

478 **(a) IMOGEN²³** is a climate-carbon cycle model of intermediate complexity that uses “pattern-
479 scaling” of the seven meteorological variables required to drive JULES. Huntingford, et al. ²³
480 assume that changes in local temperature, precipitation, humidity, wind-speed, surface
481 shortwave and longwave radiation and pressure are linear in global warming. Patterns are
482 multiplied by the amount of global warming over land, ΔT_L , to give local monthly predictions
483 of climate change. When using IMOGEN in forward mode, ΔT_L is calculated with an Energy
484 Balance Model (EBM) as a function of the overall changes in radiative forcing, ΔQ (W m^{-2}).
485 ΔQ is the sum of the atmospheric greenhouse gas contributions⁴⁴, updated on a yearly timestep.
486 Our simulations include a CH_4 feedback system that captures the climate impacts on CH_4
487 emissions from natural wetland sources. The approach here follows that of [8] where prescribed
488 CH_4 concentrations, which assume a non-varying natural wetland CH_4 component²⁸, are
489 perturbed using the anomaly in modelled natural wetland CH_4 emission. To ensure consistency
490 with the observed atmospheric CH_4 growth rate we calibrate our model to produce 180 TgCH_4
491 per year for the year 2000, as detailed in the model calibration description above. The
492 increased/reduced atmospheric CH_4 concentration will have corresponding longer/short
493 atmospheric lifetime, λ , than the prescribed concentration pathway. We account for changes in
494 λ following the formulation and parameterisation of [45], i.e. $\lambda=8.4 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for an atmospheric CH_4
495 concentration of 1745ppb. The changes in radiative forcing were calculated using the
496 formulation in [44]. There is large uncertainty in the natural wetland contribution to global CH_4

497 emissions, for this study we scale to 180 TgCH₄ per year, approximation based on a recent
 498 model intercomparison study³⁴ (Figure SI.6). Additionally, the effect of increased atmospheric
 499 CH₄ concentrations on tropospheric ozone levels is also accounted for, both in terms of
 500 radiative forcing and the impact on surface functioning through stomatal damage (see JULES
 501 description in Methods section 1a).

502 Previous IMOGEN studies^{23,10} used 22 of the Earth System models (ESMs) involved in CMIP3
 503 (phase 3 of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project). Here, we update and extend
 504 IMOGEN to use Earth System models (ESMs) involved in CMIP5. We downloaded CMIP5
 505 data from the mirror database held on the UK JASMIN computer during Autumn 2015. Table
 506 SI.1 lists every model for which historical monthly *surface temperature* fields were available.

507 The key criteria for inclusion of the output from a given CMIP5 GCM simulation is as follows
 508 (see Supplementary Information and Table SI.1):

- 509 1. Availability for the internal Energy Balance Model of surface temperature, top of the
 510 atmosphere (TOA) incoming shortwave radiation, outgoing TOA shortwave and longwave
 511 radiation;
- 512 2. Availability of meteorological parameters to drive JULES: surface temperature,
 513 precipitation, surface relative humidity, surface downward shortwave radiation, surface
 514 downward longwave radiation, surface wind speeds and surface pressure
- 515 3. Availability of two RCP scenarios for calibration and testing

516 **(b) Energy Balance Model (EBM) Inversion.** The EBM was inverted such that a change in
 517 radiative forcing, ΔQ , is calculated as a function of a change in the global temperature, ΔT_g
 518 (K), re-ordering of Equation (10) from Huntingford and Cox²² gives:

$$\Delta Q(t) = f \left[\Delta T_o \left[\frac{(1-f)\lambda_l \nu}{f} + \lambda_o \right] - \kappa \frac{\partial \Delta T_{o,s}}{\partial z} \Big|_{z=0} \right], \quad \text{Equation 8}$$

519 Where $\Delta Q(t)$ is the change in radiative forcing (W m^{-2}) at time t , f is the fraction of Earth that
 520 is ocean, λ_l and λ_o are the climate sensitivities over land and ocean, respectively ($\text{W m}^{-2} \text{K}^{-1}$), ν
 521 is the land-sea contrast and κ is the ocean diffusivity ($\text{W m}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$). The values of the parameters
 522 f , λ_l , λ_o , ν and κ are unique to each GCM in the ensemble and are listed in the Supplementary
 523 Information, Table SI.2.

524 The change in the depth-dependent ocean temperature (ΔT_o) (K) must satisfy the diffusivity
 525 equation:

$$c_p \frac{\partial \Delta T_{o,s}}{\partial t} = \kappa \frac{\partial^2 \Delta T_{o,s}}{\partial z^2}, \quad \text{Equation 9}$$

526 where c_p is ($\text{J K}^{-1} \text{m}^{-3}$) is the specific heat capacity of salt water and z (m) is ocean depth
 527 (positive downwards). The change in the global mean surface ocean temperature ($z=0$) is then
 528 calculated from the global temperature, ΔT_G as ²²:

$$\Delta T_o = \frac{\Delta T_G}{[f + \nu - f\nu]}. \quad \text{Equation 10}$$

529 The global mean land temperature, ΔT_L , required for the ‘‘pattern scaling’’ was calculated as:

$$\Delta T_L = \nu \Delta T_o \quad \text{Equation 11}$$

530 (c) Etminan CO₂ Radiative Forcing Inversion.

531 Etminan et al.⁴⁴ present a formulation to calculate the change in radiative forcing, ΔQ_{CO_2} , from
 532 a given change in the global mean atmospheric CO₂ concentration. There is no exact solution
 533 for the inverse of this, i.e. to calculate the change in CO₂ for a given ΔQ_{CO_2} . We find the solution
 534 iteratively using Equation 3:

$$CO_{2i+1} = CO_{2\text{REF}} \times e^{\left[\frac{\Delta Q_{CO_2}}{a_1(CO_{2i} - CO_{2\text{REF}})^2 + b_1(CO_{2i} - CO_{2\text{REF}}) + c_1\bar{N} + 5.36} \right]} \quad \text{Equation 12}$$

535 We assume convergence has occurred if the CO₂ concentration changes by less than 0.001
536 ppm. The initial CO₂ concentration for the iteration is taken to be the CO₂ concentration for
537 the previous year. We typically find that no more than 5 iterations are required for a change of
538 10 ppm from the starting concentration.

539 **(d) Q non-CO₂ calculation.** Changes in radiative forcing, ΔQ (Wm⁻²), calculated by the
540 inverted IMOGEN EBM must be ascribed to changes in the atmospheric composition of GHGs.
541 For this simplified description we consider two forcing contributions. The CO₂ forcing, ΔQ_{CO_2}
542 (Wm⁻²), and the forcing of all other agents, ΔQ_{nonCO_2} (Wm⁻²). In the simplest case (not
543 considering interactive CH₄), a prescribed ΔQ_{nonCO_2} , is removed from ΔQ to give ΔQ_{CO_2} as:

$$\Delta Q_{CO_2} = \Delta Q - \Delta Q_{non\ CO_2}. \quad \text{Equation 13}$$

544 The non-CO₂ composition is taken from the SSP2_RCP-2.6_IMAGE pathway²⁸. The
545 SSP2_RCP-2.6_IMAGE pathway was chosen as it assumes very high GHG mitigation and the
546 global warming pathway is reasonably close to the 1.5°C or 2.0°C targets of interest (i.e. 1.8
547 °C by 2100). This prescribed non-CO₂ radiative forcing is subtracted from ΔQ to give the CO₂
548 radiative forcing ($\Delta Q_{CO_2} = \Delta Q - \Delta Q_{non\ CO_2}$). The CO₂ concentration is then derived using an
549 iterated inversion of the CO₂ radiative forcing equation in Etminan et al.⁴⁴ (Methods). For a
550 given $\Delta Q_{non\ CO_2}$, we then estimate the CO₂ concentration iteratively, as described above, using
551 Equation 3.

552 Each of the 34 GCMs that IMOGEN emulates has a different set of EBM parameters - λ_1 , λ_o , ν ,
553 κ and f . Hence each GCM has a different ΔQ estimate for a given $\Delta T_G(t)$ pathway. When
554 IMOGEN is driven with a historical record of ΔT_G the range of ΔQ for the present day (2015)
555 is 1.13 W m⁻² (Supplementary Information Figure SI.5a). For this work, we require the
556 historical period, 1850-2015, to match observations of both ΔT_G and atmospheric composition
557 for all GCMs. We, therefore, attribute the spread in ΔQ to uncertainty in $\Delta Q_{non\ CO_2}$, particularly

558 the atmospheric aerosol contribution which has an uncertainty range of -0.5 to -4 Wm^{-2.6}. Given
 559 this, and to ensure continuous functions of ΔQ_{CO_2} and $\Delta Q_{non\ CO_2}$, we calculated the contributions
 560 as:

$$\Delta Q_{CO_2}(t) = \begin{cases} \Delta Q_{CO_2}(t)_{SSP}, & t \leq 2015 \\ \Delta Q(t) - \Delta Q_{non\ CO_2}(t), & t > 2015 \end{cases}$$

$$\Delta Q_{non\ CO_2}(t) = \begin{cases} \Delta Q(t) - \Delta Q_{CO_2}(t)_{SSP}, & t \leq 2015 \\ \Delta Q_{non\ CO_2}(t)_{SSP} + c(GCM), & t > 2015 \end{cases}$$

Equation 14

561 where the subscript SSP indicates the value is sourced from SSP2_RCP-2.6_IMAGE. c (Wm⁻²)
 562 ²) is a GCM specific offset which ensured continuous ΔQ_{CO_2} or $\Delta Q_{non\ CO_2}$ and was calculated
 563 at the transitional year (2015) as:

$$c(GCM) = \Delta Q_{non\ CO_2}(2015) - \Delta Q_{non\ CO_2}(2015)_{SSP}$$

Equation 15

564 Figure SI.5 in the supplementary information shows the allocation of the ΔQ and the resultant
 565 atmospheric CO₂ concentration pathways for the 2°C stabilisation temperature. We include the
 566 GCM specific 2015 aerosol-offsets in Table SI.2 in the Supplementary Information.

567 **(3) Temperature Profile Formulation.** [19] provides a framework to create temperature
 568 trajectories based on two parameters which model the efforts of humanity to limit emissions
 569 and, if necessary, capture atmospheric carbon, i.e.:

$$\Delta T(t) = \Delta T_0 + \gamma t + (1 - e^{-\mu(t)t})[\gamma t - (\Delta T_{Lim} - \Delta T_0)]$$

Equation 16

570 where, $\Delta T(t)$ is the change in temperature from pre-industrial levels at year t , ΔT_0 is the
 571 temperature change at a given initial point (in this case $\Delta T_0 = 0.89^\circ\text{C}$ for 2015), ΔT_{Lim} is the
 572 final prescribed warming limit and:

$$\mu(t) = \mu_0 + \mu_1 t,$$

Equation 17

$$\gamma = \beta - \mu_0(\Delta T_{\text{Lim}} - \Delta T_0).$$

573 Where β ($= 0.00128$) is the current rate of warming and the μ_0 and μ_1 are tuning parameters
 574 which describe anthropogenic attempts to stabilise global temperatures¹⁹. The selected
 575 parameterisation of the three trajectories are based on comparisons with CMIP5 simulations
 576 for the RCP2.6 scenario (grey lines in Figure SI.2). The parameter values used for the three
 577 profiles selected are shown below.

Profile	ΔT_{lim}	μ_0	μ_1
1.5°C	1.5	0.1	0.0
1.5°C (overshoot)	1.5	-0.01	0.00085
2°C	2.0	0.08	0.0

578

579 (4) Code and Data Availability

580 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author
 581 upon request. The IMOGEN patterns and the model output required to produce the resulted
 582 presented herein will shortly be made publicly available for download on the EIDC.

583 JULES is an open-source model and the branch used in this work is available from the met-
 584 office science repository using the following URL (registration required):

585 https://code.metoffice.gov.uk/trac/jules/browser/main/branches/dev/edwardcomynplatt/vn4.8_1P5_DEGREES?rev=11764

587 The parameterisations used here are also permanently stored on the met-office science
 588 repository. Given the complexities in accessing the specific revision and machine
 589 configuration, these will be made available upon request to the corresponding author.

590

591 **Figures**

592

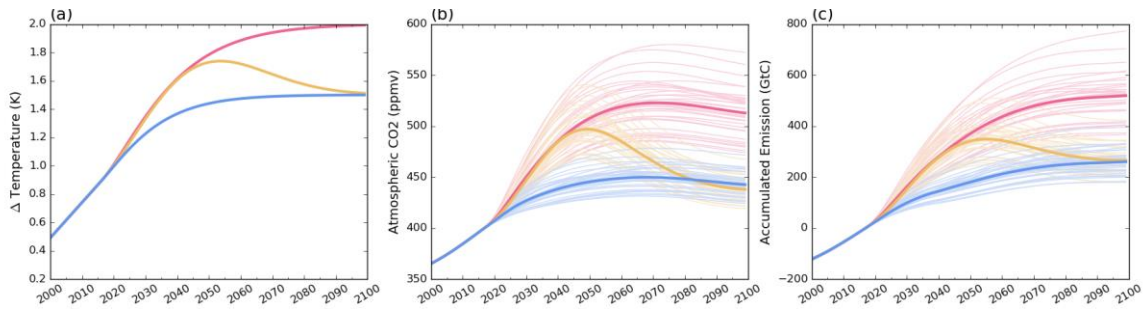


Figure 1 Time-series for the control model ensemble. Blue is the 1.5°C asymptote pathway, yellow is the 1.5°C overshoot pathway and red is the 2°C asymptote pathway. Faint lines are the individual GCMs, bold lines represent the ensemble median, and the colours are consistent across the panels. (a) Temperature pathways; (b) simulated atmospheric CO₂ concentrations; (c) derived allowable anthropogenic emissions.

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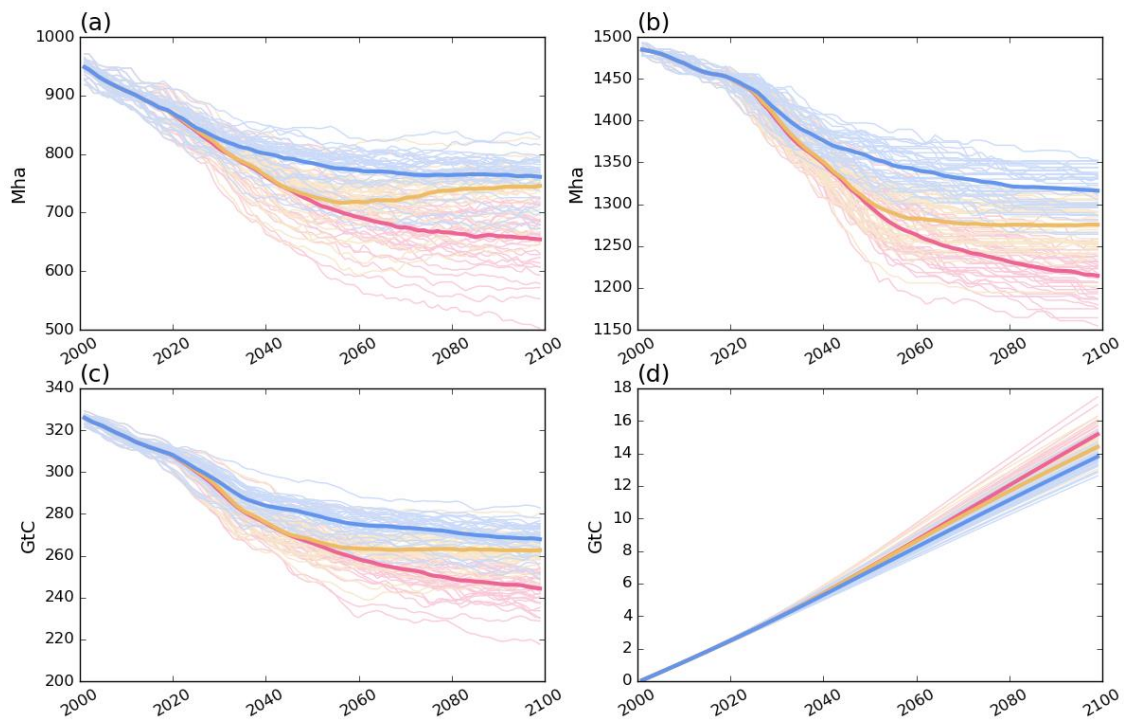


Figure 2 The response of the permafrost soil column to warming through the 21st century. (a) Areal extent of permafrost within the top 1m of soil column; (b) areal extent of permafrost within the top 3m of soil column; (c) the amount of pre-industrial permafrost carbon still perennially frozen; (d) the amount of pre-industrial carbon lost to the atmosphere. Blue is the 1.5°C asymptote pathway, yellow is the 1.5°C overshoot pathway and red is the 2°C asymptote pathway

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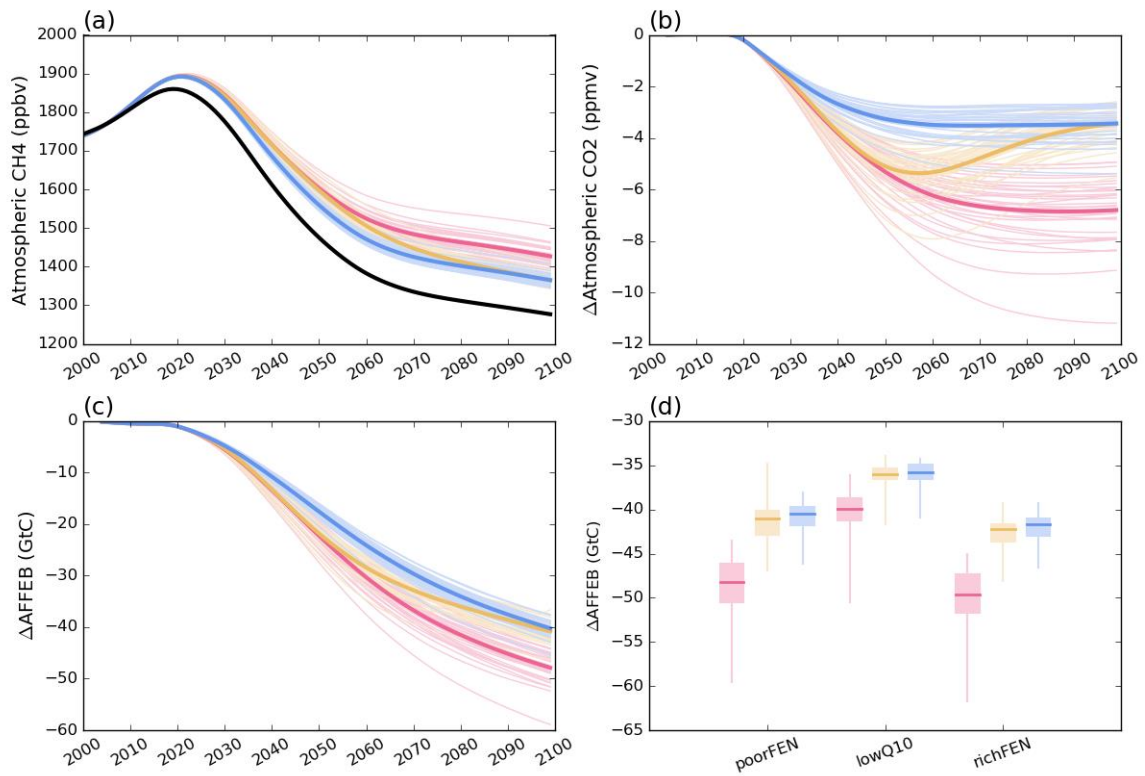


Figure 3 Summary results for the natural methane feedback experiment. (a) Time-series of atmospheric CH₄ when the interactive natural CH₄ is included (“poor fen” parameterisation) for the three temperature pathways. The black line is the control simulation atmospheric CH₄. (b) The reduction in atmospheric CO₂ (from control simulation) to follow the prescribed temperature pathway. (c) The reduction in anthropogenic fossil fuel emissions due to reduced atmosphere, land and ocean sinks. (d) The reduction in AFFEB for the temperature sensitivity uncertainty ensemble. Blue is the 1.5°C asymptote pathway, yellow is the 1.5°C overshoot pathway and red is the 2°C asymptote pathway.

Total Anthropogenic CO₂ emissions (GtC)				
		Standard	Methane Feedback	Difference
1.5°C	Standard	265 (226-283)	226 (187-249)	39.6 (33.1-42.1)
	Permafrost Feedback	254 (214-276)	214 (175-235)	40.1 (34.7-42.4)
	Difference	11.9 (11.6-12.2)	12.5 (11.9-14.0)	52.1 (46.6-54.2) 19.4 % (16.7-22.9 %)
1.5°C overshoot	Standard	271 (227-288)	232 (185-254)	40.2 (33.6-42.8)
	Permafrost Feedback	258 (214-276)	218 (172-240)	40.6 (36.3-43.1)
	Difference	12.5 (12.1-13.0)	13.0 (12.4-14.3)	53.5 (47.4-55.7) 19.5 % (16.6-23.2 %)
2°C	Standard	527 (464-568)	504 (417-528)	47.4 (37.3-51.0)
	Permafrost Feedback	514 (451-554)	467 (404-514)	47.8 (38.6-51.3)
	Difference	13.3 (12.8-13.8)	13.6 (13.0-15.0)	61.1 (51.4 -64.6) 11.4 % (9.5-13.0 %)

Table 1 Emission budgets from the factorial experiment and the changes due to the introduction of the feedback processes. White cells represent the absolute emission budget for the 2015-2100 period, blue cells represent the change due to inclusion of carbon released from the permafrost store, yellow cells represent the change due to inclusion of an interactive CH₄ scheme and green cells represent the change due to inclusion of both permafrost and interactive CH₄ feedbacks. Bold values give the climate ensemble median for the “poor fen” CH₄ parameterisation. Bracketed values represent the spread of the climate ensemble interquartile ranges for the 3 temperature sensitivity experiments (i.e. the full spread of the boxes in Figure 3b).