

# Climate forcing from the transport sectors

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Although the transport sector is responsible for a large and growing share of global emissions affecting climate, its overall contribution has not been quantified. We provide a comprehensive analysis of radiative forcing from the road transport, shipping, aviation, and rail subsectors, using both past- and forward-looking perspectives. We find that, since preindustrial times, transport has contributed  $\approx 15\%$  and  $31\%$  of the total man-made  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{O}_3$  forcing, respectively. A forward-looking perspective shows that the current emissions from transport are responsible for  $\approx 16\%$  of the integrated net forcing over 100 years from all current man-made emissions. The dominating contributor to positive forcing (warming) is  $\text{CO}_2$ , followed by tropospheric  $\text{O}_3$ . By subsector, road transport is the largest contributor to warming. The transport sector also exerts cooling through reduced methane lifetime and atmospheric aerosol effects. Shipping causes net cooling, except on future time scales of several centuries. Much of the forcing from transport comes from emissions not covered by the Kyoto Protocol.

radiative forcing | emissions | GWP | greenhouse gases | aerosols

Transport of goods and people is one of the key drivers for the growth in global greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. Although global  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions increased by  $13\%$  from 1990 to 2000,  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions from road transport and aviation each grew by  $25\%$ . In Eastern Asia, the  $\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions from road transport doubled from 1990 to 2000 (1). In the European Union, most sectors decreased their GHG emissions from 1990 to 2001, but emissions from transport increased by nearly  $21\%$  (2). The accompanying emissions of  $\text{NO}_x$ , CO, volatile organic compounds (VOC), aerosols, and  $\text{SO}_2$  are often higher than for other sectors but have increased less than  $\text{CO}_2$  because of improved vehicle technologies and reduced fuel sulfur content. The growth in GHG emissions from transport is expected to continue throughout the world. In 2050, as much as  $30\text{--}50\%$  of total  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions are projected to come from the transport sector (3), compared with today's  $20\text{--}25\%$ .

In light of the objectives of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, the increasing levels of emissions from transport suggest that stronger mitigation efforts may be necessary for this sector. This may be difficult to accomplish for several reasons, including issues related to globalization and development, as well as the difficulty of assigning responsibility for emissions from international transport. A crucial first step in designing an efficient mitigation policy is to quantify the extent to which emissions from transport affect the climate system.

There are four main mechanisms by which emissions from transport affect climate: (i) by emission of direct greenhouse gases, mainly  $\text{CO}_2$ ; (ii) by emission of indirect greenhouse gases, i.e., precursors of tropospheric  $\text{O}_3$  or gases affecting the oxidation capacity of the atmosphere, such as  $\text{NO}_x$ , CO, and VOC; (iii) by the direct effect of emission of aerosols or aerosol precursors, in particular black carbon (BC), organic carbon (OC), and sulfur compounds; and (iv) by the indirect effect of aerosols, which trigger changes in the distribution and properties of clouds.

Although current climate policies focus on the well mixed GHGs (WMGHGs), which have relatively well known behavior and radiative forcing (RF) of climate, there is strong evidence that the other emissions and mechanisms (ii–iv above) play an important role for the transport sector. Quantifying these effects

is a complex scientific undertaking because of the broad mix of substances and physical/chemical processes involved. Adjustment times are short for many of the emissions associated with transport—months for  $\text{O}_3$  and days for sulfate ( $\text{SO}_4$ ), BC, and OC—whereas the WMGHGs have adjustment times of decades ( $\text{CH}_4$ ) and centuries ( $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{CO}_2$ ). Thus, an evaluation of the climatic impact of transport depends on how future effects are evaluated from a long-term perspective. Furthermore, emissions can cause both negative and positive RF; for example, aerosols such as OC and  $\text{SO}_4$  reflect solar radiation and cause cooling. Comparing all of these effects on a common scale is a challenging task that involves exercising value judgments, e.g., comparing and weighting different climate effects occurring at different times and thus affecting different generations.

## Approach

Whereas previous studies have provided detailed results on specific forcing agents or subsectors (4–12), we present a quantitative overview of the climate effects in terms of chemical responses and RF for all transport emissions related to fossil fuel use and for all major transport subsectors. First, we calculate the contribution since preindustrial times to the current RF, in accordance with the traditional historical perspective used by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC). Then, to evaluate the impact of current emissions from each transport sector, we compare the future integrated RF caused by present-day emissions. (We chose to focus on current emissions rather than future emissions scenarios because the latter would demand an analysis of future policies, which would be beyond the scope of this article.) In both the historical and future perspectives, we quantify (with uncertainty ranges) the RF from the individual substances and subsectors.

Emission inventories for the transport sector are compiled by using existing datasets and our own estimates. The impacts on tropospheric  $\text{O}_3$ , methane lifetime, sulfate, BC, and OC (driven by emissions of  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{SO}_2$ , CO, VOC, BC, and OC) are calculated with the Oslo-CTM2 global chemical transport model (13). A radiative transfer model is then used to calculate the RF from these changes (14, 15). For the indirect effects of aerosols on cloud albedo, we use the ratio of the indirect and direct RF for land and ocean adopted from ref. 16. The ratio for land (1.5) is applied for road transport and rail, whereas the ratio for RF over ocean (2.1) is used for shipping. In this way, we account for the land–ocean differences in the indirect aerosol effect (9). Because of the short lifetime of ozone, aerosols, and aerosol precursors, these RF estimates can be used to calculate the contributions to both current RF and the future integrated RF

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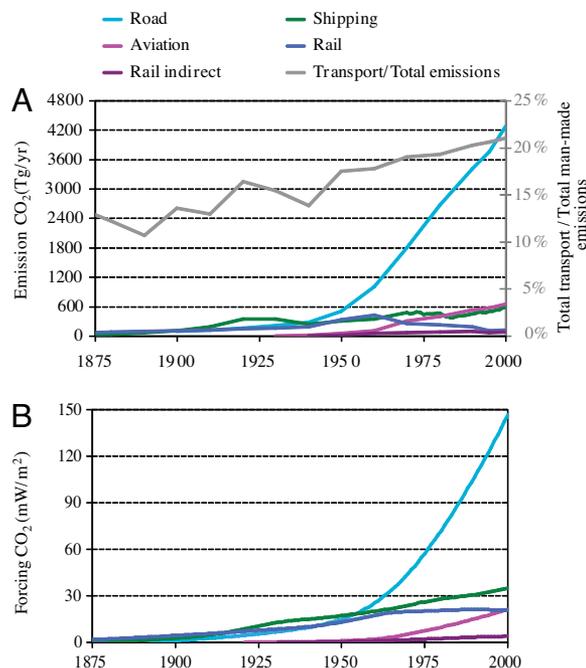
of current emissions [see [supporting information \(SI\) Methods](#)]. The historical development in global concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> from transport is calculated using a scheme based on ref. 17, and for N<sub>2</sub>O and CH<sub>4</sub> we use standard box models (see [SI Methods](#)). To calculate impacts of transport, we use the common method of removing all emissions from one transport sector at a time and then calculating the difference from the reference simulation (8). Because nonlinear processes control some substances (e.g., O<sub>3</sub> and OH), the RF of ozone and methane cannot be scaled exactly to obtain the effect of marginal changes reflecting realistic short-term mitigation measures. The approach is modified for CO<sub>2</sub> to account for the nonlinearity in the emission-concentration–RF relationships (18).

### Emissions

We use results from published studies to establish current emissions of WMGHGs and the short-lived gases and past emissions of WMGHGs for 1850–2000. We include emissions from energy consumed from tank to wheel, and we exclude emissions of halocarbons from air conditioning and road dust. Because railways may use electricity rather than fossil fuels, to enable a fair comparison with the other transport subsectors the emissions associated with the production of electricity have been included. For fossil fuels, the indirect component (well-to-tank) constitutes a smaller share of well-to-wheel emissions (19) and has not been included in the analysis. Emissions data for 2000 are taken from the EDGAR database (1), except for aviation (20), shipping, and BC and OC (21). Transport is the most important source of man-made emissions of NO<sub>x</sub> (37%). It is also a major contributor of CO<sub>2</sub> (21%), VOC (19%), CO (18%), and BC (14%). For other substances, the transport sector's share of total man-made emissions is 10% or less. With respect to the subsectors, road transport is the largest contributor of emissions of all substances except SO<sub>2</sub>, for which shipping is the most important (56% of transport emissions). For BC in particular, the contribution of off-road mobile machinery to total emissions is high, but in this article these sources are not considered part of transport. Estimates of BC and OC emissions from transport are generally more uncertain than estimates of the other substances. [SI Table 1](#) shows the emission data for 2000 used in our calculations.

Historical CO<sub>2</sub> emissions were calculated from 1850 for rail, 1870 for shipping, 1900 for road transport, and 1930 for aviation. Emissions data between 1970 and 1990 are taken from ref. 22, except for shipping, where emissions for 1970–2000 were estimated from energy consumption recorded by the International Energy Agency. Because of a lack of fuel consumption statistics, time-series for all sectors were constructed by combining multiple data sources (see [SI Methods](#)). Fig. 1A shows the development in CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the various subsectors. The figure shows a rapid growth in emissions from road transport and aviation and a decline in emissions from rail. Emissions from shipping decreased in the middle of the last century as a result of conversion from coal to diesel propulsion but later increased, until a decline in the 1980s. The figure also shows that the total transport CO<sub>2</sub> emissions as fraction of total man-made CO<sub>2</sub> emissions has increased since the middle of the 20th century to >20% in 2000.

Estimates of shipping fuel consumption vary considerably, ranging from ≈160 to 280 million metric tons (Mt) of fuel per year (23). We have used 577 Mt CO<sub>2</sub> in 2000 (corresponding to 180 Mt of fuel), which is in good agreement with ref. 24 when fishing is subtracted from the latter estimate. Other datasets would give substantially higher emissions, and the probability of higher emissions is included in our uncertainty analysis.



**Fig. 1.** Historical development in emissions and radiative forcing for CO<sub>2</sub> from the transport sector. (A) Development in CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the various transport subsectors and the fraction (right axis) of total man-made CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (excluding land use changes). (B) Development in RF due to CO<sub>2</sub> from these sectors.

### Atmospheric Burden and RF

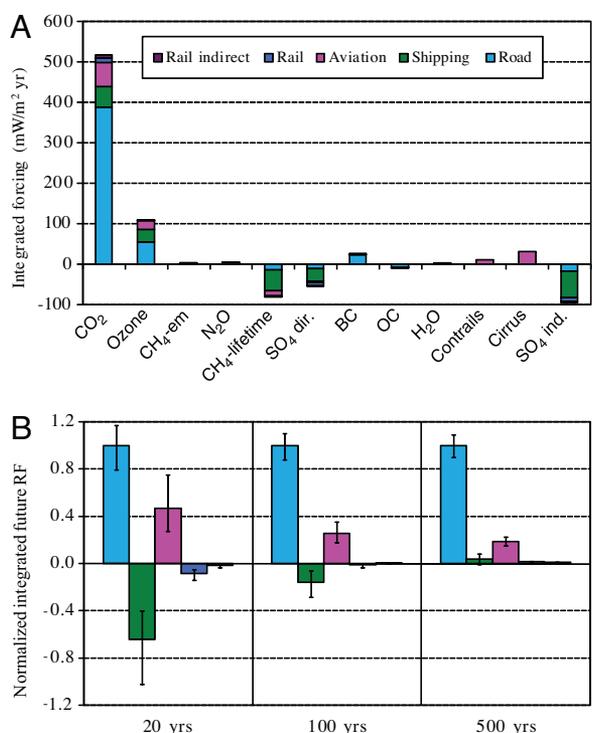
The historical emissions of the WMGHGs are used to calculate the development in contributions to the global atmospheric concentrations and RF for the various subsectors. After 1950, the CO<sub>2</sub> RF from road transport increased dramatically and is currently causing the largest transport-related CO<sub>2</sub> forcing (Fig. 1B), whereas for rail the RF is constant, even though CO<sub>2</sub> emissions decreased after 1960.

The effects on tropospheric O<sub>3</sub>, methane lifetime, and aerosols are calculated using the Oslo CTM2 model. Emissions of NO<sub>x</sub> enhance the levels of OH and thus reduce CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations, whereas CO and VOC have the opposite effect (25–28). For aviation, we calculated the RF from the WMGHGs, as well as BC and OC; the RF from changes in ozone, methane lifetime, and sulfate, as well as water vapor, contrails, and cirrus, are taken from refs. 10 and 29.

We find that the largest change in atmospheric O<sub>3</sub> burden is caused by road transport (13 Tg) and shipping (13 Tg), whereas the effects of rail (direct and indirect) are an order of magnitude smaller. The O<sub>3</sub> burden change due to aviation is ≈40% of the changes from either road transport or shipping. The largest contributor to changes in methane lifetime is the shipping sector, as a result of the high NO<sub>x</sub>/CO and NO<sub>x</sub>/VOC ratios in the emissions and the generally low NO<sub>x</sub> environment in which the emissions take place (26). The NO<sub>x</sub>/CO and NO<sub>x</sub>/VOC ratios are 70 and 40 times higher, respectively, for shipping than for road transport, which favors OH increases and thus loss of methane.

For O<sub>3</sub> and BC, road transport has higher radiative efficiency than shipping (i.e., RF/burden change). For the aerosols, the variation can be explained by land–ocean differences in surface albedo, cloud cover, and relative humidity. For instance, over oceans with low surface albedo, the radiative efficiency increases for scattering aerosols (SO<sub>4</sub> and OC) and decreases for absorbing aerosols (BC) (see [SI Table 2](#)). For ozone, the variation can be explained by the more effective vertical mixing over land that





**Fig. 3.** Integrated radiative forcing of current emissions, by substance and transport subsector, over different time horizons. (A) Integrated global mean RF ( $\text{mW/m}^2 \text{ yr}$ ) due to 2000 transport emissions, time horizon  $H = 100$  years. (B) Integrated global mean net RF per sector due to 2000 transport emissions, normalized to the values for road transport for various time horizons (20, 100, and 500 years). Uncertainty ranges are given as 1 SD.

limit long-term temperature increase (e.g., the European Union has stated that “the global annual mean surface temperature increase should not exceed  $2^\circ\text{C}$  above preindustrial levels”). Alternative approaches include choosing the change in global mean temperature for a selected year as an indicator (33, 37). This would take the thermal inertia of the system into account, and, in contrast to the integrated RF concept, would allow more short-term effects of the short-lived gases to be reduced over longer time scales. Using temperature change after 100 years for the evaluation would place less emphasis on short-lived components, but any perturbations of temperature between the time of emission and the evaluation year would not be captured.

Fig. 3A shows the integrated RF for the various components and sectors with a time horizon of 100 years, as adopted by the Kyoto Protocol. With this perspective,  $\text{CO}_2$  is by far the most important substance, with the largest contribution coming from road transport. Again, the second largest positive RF is from tropospheric  $\text{O}_3$ , also with a dominating contribution from road transport. With respect to methane and sulfate, both of which cause a negative RF, the dominating contribution comes from shipping. Note that with the perspective embedded in the choice of a 100-year horizon, the contributions from the short and intermediate perturbations (ozone, aerosols, and methane) become significantly smaller compared with  $\text{CO}_2$  than in the historical perspective (Fig. 2). Long-lived substances tend to contribute more to the total integrated RF with this forward-looking perspective than in the historical perspective used in Fig. 2A when recent emission growth is large. The total net RF from transport amounts to 16% of the 100-year integrated net RF of total current man-made emissions (see *SI Methods*).

## Discussion

The adoption of 100 years as time horizon has implications involving value judgments, and it may be argued that other

horizons should be applied (30). If the main concern is the near-term impacts of climate change, a shorter horizon is more appropriate. Fig. 3B shows the effect of the current emissions from the transport subsectors, relative to the effect of road transport for three time horizons. The uncertainties in the estimates of current emissions and in the RF calculations are accounted for (see *SI Methods*) and form the basis for the 1 SD uncertainty bars. Because of the critical role of sulfate, the impact of shipping switches from negative in a short and medium time perspective to positive on a scale of several centuries. The RF caused by sulfate (directly and indirectly) is strong and short-lived. Because this approach integrates the RF over the time horizon, the effect of sulfate is still significant in a 100-year perspective. For still longer time horizons, the effect of  $\text{CO}_2$  becomes dominating. This is also the case for rail. The integrated RF from road transport and aviation, however, is positive for all three time horizons. For all three horizons, road transport dominates, with aviation as the second largest contributor to warming. Shipping switches to a positive net forcing for a time horizon of 500 years, but with an uncertainty range that still includes negative RF. In general, the longer the time horizon, the less uncertain is the net effect because of the decreasing influence of the short-lived components that have high uncertainty.

Given the forcing mechanisms included in our analysis, with their corresponding uncertainties, we find that the main results regarding dominating sectors and forcing agents are robust at the 1 SD level for all time horizons. In addition to the RF mechanisms considered in this study, other indirect processes have been proposed. These include reduction of snow and ice albedo by BC deposition (38–40), the so-called semidirect effect of BC on clouds (41), and indirect effects on cirrus clouds by particles from aviation (8). These RF mechanisms are generally given a low or very low level of scientific understanding by the IPCC (34).

The use of RF as a metric for global warming is based on the assumption that RF is proportional to global mean warming and that this relationship is independent of the forcing mechanism (i.e., equal climate efficacy for all RF mechanisms). As discussed in ref. 34, deviations from this assumption may be seen for RF mechanisms affecting high latitudes or altitudes. However, because there is no firm consensus from general circulation model studies on this issue, and because RF and integrated RF (as used in the GWPs) are still the preferred metrics for climate policy, we do not include variation in climate efficacies in our comparison of the transport sectors.

Many of the RF agents studied here are controlled by processes that are sensitive to changes in climate (e.g., water vapor, temperatures); for example, a change in OH levels affects  $\text{O}_3$  and  $\text{CH}_4$ . We have assumed a constant background atmosphere and climate. These chemistry–climate couplings may be significant on time scales beyond those of the responses in the chemically active components.

The transport sector is characterized by many small sources with high emission factors for  $\text{NO}_x$ , CO, VOC, and aerosols. This is reflected in the ratio between change in ozone burden and  $\text{CO}_2$  emission. Compared with the electricity production sector, where the range of this ratio is  $0.8 \times 10^{-3}$  to  $5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ TgO}_3/\text{TgC}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1}$  depending on geographical region (42), the corresponding global number for road transport is a factor of 2–15 times higher.

In our analysis, we have focused on changes in concentration levels initiated by emissions of a suite of gases and aerosols from the various transport sectors. Alternatively, an emission-based perspective could be used that attributes the forcings to the various individual emissions (e.g.,  $\text{NO}_x$ , CO, etc.) (27, 34). This would fit well with a gas-by-gas approach in policymaking, whereas our perspective is better suited for a policy perspective

that focuses on the total RF effect of the various sectors, aimed at reducing the total activity of a sector.

## Conclusions

This analysis has shown that there are large differences between the transport subsectors in terms of sign and magnitude of forcing, as well as in terms of the mix of contributions from short- and long-lived substances to the net RF and thus its temporal characteristics. Our calculations show that transport contributes significantly to man-made RF for some components. We find that, since preindustrial times, transport has contributed  $\approx 15\%$  and  $31\%$  of total man-made  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{O}_3$  forcing, respectively. The current emissions from transport are responsible for  $\approx 16\%$  of the integrated net forcing over the next 100 years for all current man-made emissions. The dominating contributor to positive forcing (warming) is  $\text{CO}_2$ , followed by tropospheric  $\text{O}_3$ . By subsector, road transport is the largest contributor to warming. Shipping causes net cooling, except on future time scales of several centuries. As discussed above, a variety of perspectives may be used in the evaluation and comparison of climate forcing from the transport sectors. We have used the integrated RF concept, which puts equal weight on all forcings over time, up to the chosen time horizon, and does not account for the thermal inertia of the climate system. This choice of metric is in line with the adoption of GWPs in the Kyoto Protocol and IPCC 2007

(34). Other metrics may also be used (e.g., change in global annual mean surface temperature at a chosen time).

Significant uncertainties are related to our estimates of both historical and integrated RF from the transport sectors, mainly due to cirrus, contrails, and direct and indirect aerosol effects, but the conclusion that road transport is the dominating warming sector and that  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{O}_3$  are the dominating warming agents, while shipping causes cooling, remains robust. The calculated RFs present a different picture than that shown by emissions data alone, mainly because of indirect effects, nonlinear atmospheric interactions, and dependence on geographical location of emissions (25, 28). In addition to its emission of  $\text{CO}_2$ , which is addressed by the Kyoto Protocol, the transport sector contributes to climate change by means of several forcing agents that are not covered by the Protocol, most notably tropospheric  $\text{O}_3$  driven by  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{CO}$ , and VOC. In addition, the negative forcings caused by  $\text{SO}_2$ , OC, and ozone precursors (on methane lifetime) are not included in the Kyoto "basket." Thus, a Kyoto Protocol perspective that includes only WMGHGs does not capture the full climate effects of transport, in particular for the shipping sector because of its large contribution to  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions.

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