

Climate Change and Greenhouse Gases  
Background Information for AGU Position Statement  
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The American Geophysical Union (AGU), as a scientific organization devoted to research on the Earth and space sciences, provides current scientific information to the public on issues pertinent to geophysics. The Council of the AGU approved a position statement on Climate Change and Greenhouse Gases in December 1998. The statement, together with a short summary of the procedures that were followed in its preparation, review, and adoption were published in the February 2, 1999 issue of *Eos* ([AGU, 1999], [http://www.agu.org/sci\\_soc/policy/climate\\_change.html](http://www.agu.org/sci_soc/policy/climate_change.html)). The present article reviews scientific understanding of this issue as presented in peer-reviewed publications that serves as the underlying basis of the position statement.

***Greenhouse Gases and Their Effect on the Earth-Atmosphere Energy Balance***

Infrared active gases, principally water vapor ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ), carbon dioxide ( $\text{CO}_2$ ), and ozone ( $\text{O}_3$ ), naturally present in the Earth's atmosphere absorb thermal infrared radiation emitted by the Earth's surface and atmosphere. The atmosphere is warmed by this mechanism and, in turn, emits infrared radiation, with a significant portion of this energy acting to warm the surface and the lower atmosphere. As a consequence the average surface air temperature of the Earth is about  $30^\circ\text{C}$  higher than it would be without atmospheric absorption and re-radiation of infrared energy [Kellogg, 1996; Peixoto and Oort, 1992; Henderson-Sellers and Robinson, 1986]. This phenomenon is popularly known as the "greenhouse effect", and the infrared active gases responsible for the effect are likewise referred to as "greenhouse gases." The rapid increase in concentrations of greenhouse gases over the industrial period has given rise to concern over potential resultant climate changes.

***Increases in greenhouse gases.*** The principal greenhouse gases whose concentrations have increased over the industrial period are carbon dioxide ( $\text{CO}_2$ ), methane ( $\text{CH}_4$ ), nitrous oxide ( $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ ), and chlorofluorocarbons CFC-11 ( $\text{CCl}_3\text{F}$ ) and CFC-12 ( $\text{CCl}_2\text{F}_2$ ) [Hansen et al., 1998; Schimel et al., 1996]. The observed increase of  $\text{CO}_2$  in the atmosphere from about 280 ppm in the pre-industrial era to about 364 ppm in 1997 (Figure 1) [Friedli et al., 1986; Hansen et al., 1998; Keeling and Whorf, 1998] has come largely from fossil fuel combustion and cement production. These sources amounted to approximately  $6.5 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$  in 1996 [Marland et al., 1999]. Land use changes produce a non-negligible but more uncertain contribution of about  $1.6 \pm 1.0 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$  [Fan et al., 1998; Schimel et al., 1996]. These anthropogenic sources of  $\text{CO}_2$  exceed the estimated uptake of  $\text{CO}_2$  by the atmosphere and oceans, implying a significant but as yet unidentified terrestrial sink [Enting and Pearman, 1987]

The atmospheric concentration of  $\text{CH}_4$  has increased from about 700 ppb in pre-industrial times to about 1721 ppb in 1994 (Figure 1) [Houghton et al., 1996]. Fossil-fuel related sources of  $\text{CH}_4$  amount to approximately  $70\text{-}120 \text{ Tg (CH}_4\text{) yr}^{-1}$ , and increases in  $\text{CH}_4$  sources resulting from rice cultivation, animal husbandry, biomass burning, and landfills contribute about  $200\text{-}350 \text{ Tg (CH}_4\text{) yr}^{-1}$  [Schimel et al., 1996].

The atmospheric concentration of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  has increased from about 275 ppb in pre-industrial times to about 312 ppb in 1994 (Figure 1) [Houghton *et al.*, 1996]. Estimated anthropogenic emissions of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  for the 1980's range from 3 to 8 Tg  $\text{N yr}^{-1}$ . [Houghton *et al.*, 1996]. The main anthropogenic sources are from agriculture and industrial sources including adipic acid and nitric acid production [Schimel *et al.*, 1996].

Chlorofluorocarbons CFC-12 and CFC-11 are man-made compounds which were not appreciably present in the atmosphere before 1950 (Figure 1). These compounds have been widely used as refrigerants and in spray propellants and foam blowing. Because of their role in catalyzing decomposition of stratospheric ozone, production of these compounds has been dramatically reduced in response to the Montreal Protocols and subsequent international agreements [Prather *et al.*, 1996]. Atmospheric concentrations of these compounds are expected to diminish substantially over the next century [Prather *et al.*, 1996].

**Persistence of increased greenhouse gas concentrations.** Prediction of the future persistence of anthropogenic greenhouse gases in the atmosphere is based on mathematical models that simulate future additions and removals. The greenhouse gas concentrations predicted by these models are subject to large uncertainties in the effects of both natural processes and human activities. For some greenhouse gases persistence can be estimated from "mean residence times," which are obtained with simple linear models and represent the time that would be required for removal of 63% of the anthropogenic excess of the material in the atmosphere, if anthropogenic sources were abruptly diminished to zero [Lasaga and Berner, 1998]. This approach yields a rough measure of the persistence in the atmosphere of anthropogenic additions of  $\text{CH}_4$  with an estimated mean residence time of 10 years [Prather, 1996; Prather, 1998];  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ , 100 years, [Prather, 1996; Prather, 1998]; and CFC-11 and CFC-12, 50 and 102 years, respectively [Prather *et al.*, 1995].

The persistence of anthropogenic  $\text{CO}_2$  in the atmosphere cannot be estimated with such a simple model because exchange with the ocean and sediments leads to a more complex behavior. Model simulations of oceanic  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake provide response times associated with  $\text{CO}_2$  gas exchange at the ocean surface of approximately 10 years [Liss and Merlivat, 1986; Toggweiler *et al.*, 1989] and downward mixing of surface waters on the order of decades to centuries [Maier-Reimer and Hasselmann, 1987; Sarmiento *et al.*, 1992]. But even when these oceanic  $\text{CO}_2$  removal processes are allowed sufficient time in the models to reach their maximum capacity, they can remove only about 70 to 85% of the anthropogenic  $\text{CO}_2$  added to the atmosphere [Archer *et al.*, 1998; Broecker and Peng, 1982; Sarmiento *et al.*, 1992]. Additional  $\text{CO}_2$  might be removed by burial in soils or deep sea sediments through mechanisms that, although poorly understood, are generally believed to require times extending to thousands of years [Harden *et al.*, 1992; Schlesinger, 1990; Stallard, 1998]. Removing some of the anthropogenic  $\text{CO}_2$  by this mechanism may require reactions with carbonate sediments in the deep sea that occur on time scales of thousands of years [Archer *et al.*, 1998; Boyle, 1983; Sundquist, 1990]. On the basis of such analyses, it is now generally believed that a substantial fraction of the excess  $\text{CO}_2$  in the atmosphere will remain in the atmosphere for decades to centuries, and about 15-30% will remain for thousands of years.

**Effect of increases in greenhouse gases on fluxes of thermal infrared radiation.** The additional anthropogenic greenhouse gases that have been introduced into the

atmosphere increase the infrared energy absorbed by the atmosphere, thereby exerting a warming influence on the lower atmosphere and the surface, and a cooling influence on the stratosphere [Peixoto and Oort, 1992; Ramanathan *et al.*, 1985].

The radiative influence resulting from a given incremental increase in greenhouse gas concentration can be quantified and compared as the change in downward infrared flux at the tropopause, a quantity known as the radiative forcing. Climate model calculations indicate that to good approximation the global warming influence of the several greenhouse gases is equal for equal forcing [Wang *et al.*, 1992; Wang *et al.*, 1991], lending support to the utility of the concept of climate forcing and response.

Of the several anthropogenic greenhouse gases, CO<sub>2</sub> is the most important agent of potential future climate warming because of its large current greenhouse forcing, its substantial projected future forcing [Houghton *et al.*, 1996], and its long persistence in the atmosphere (see above).

Understanding climate response to a specified forcing is one of the major challenges facing the climate research community. The equilibrium response of the nonlinear climate system depends in complex ways on various feedbacks, such as changes in water vapor concentration and cloudiness that can augment or diminish climate response from that which would occur in the absence of such feedbacks. In principle empirical inferences of climate sensitivity would be of great value, but development of such inferences is confounded by the natural variability of the climate system [Santer *et al.*, 1996], by local or regional effects that can be different from the global effects, and by the simultaneous working of multiple transient forcings and responses. For these reasons a principal means to understanding of climate system response to forcing is by use of computer models of the Earth climate system.

### ***Association of Climate Changes with Carbon Dioxide Abundances***

#### ***Climate change over the past 150 years in the context of the last few centuries.***

The most commonly considered indicator of climate change is the surface air temperature. Extensive efforts have been made to examine the trends in global and regional mean temperatures over time [Ghil and Vautard, 1991; Hasselmann, 1993; North and Kim, 1995; North *et al.*, 1995; Schlesinger and Ramankutty, 1994] and in the global patterns of temperature change [Hegerl *et al.*, 1997; Hegerl *et al.*, 1996; Jones and Hegerl, 1998; Santer *et al.*, 1995].

Worldwide temperature measurements, carefully screened for instrumental and measurement artifacts, such as effects of urbanization, have been used to estimate that global mean annual surface temperatures have increased between 0.3 and 0.6 °C over the last 150 years [Hansen and Lebedeff, 1987; Jones *et al.*, 1997; Nicholls *et al.*, 1996]. However it must be stressed that the increase has not been monotonic, with interannual fluctuations in the global annual mean temperature equal to an appreciable fraction of the overall rise over this time period. No single explanation can account for this variability.

Although temperature is usually the first variable considered in assessments of global climate change, it is important to consider other data that integrate the state of the climate system over space and time. These include temperature proxy data (such as tree ring records), borehole temperature measurements in soil and in permafrost, and measurements of the mass balance of valley glaciers. Several recent proxy temperature

reconstructions have suggested that the warming during the twentieth century is greater than any seen in the last 400 to 600 years [Briffa *et al.*, 1998b; Jones *et al.*, 1998; Mann *et al.*, 1998; Overpeck *et al.*, 1997] and perhaps the last 1200 to 1500 years (Figure 2) [Overpeck, 1998; Thompson *et al.*, 1993]. A completely independent estimate [Pollack *et al.*, 1998], based on analysis of subsurface (borehole) temperature measurements, supports the unusual character of the recent global warming in the context of the last five centuries.

Glaciers exist on every continent except Australia, and are thus excellent indicators of regional climate. The Earth's valley glaciers and small ice caps have generally been shrinking during the last century [Haeberli, 1990; Meier, 1984; Oerlemans, 1994]. Studies in North America [Hall *et al.*, 1992; Marcus *et al.*, 1995; Rabus *et al.*, 1995], South America [Thompson *et al.*, 1995], Europe [Bayr *et al.*, 1994; Haeberli and Hoelzle, 1995; Johannesson and Sigurosson, 1998], Africa [Hastenrath, 1989], and Asia [Thompson *et al.*, 1998; Thompson *et al.*, 1993; Thompson *et al.*, 1989] have shown substantial recession of many of the ice caps and non-tidewater, non-surge-type glaciers [Dyurgerov and Meier, 1997] since the early nineteenth century.

***Changes in climate and greenhouse gases over the last few thousand years.***

The record of the past few thousand years is more difficult to piece together than the more recent record because fewer data are available. There is evidence from this period that climatic conditions were sometimes warmer and sometimes cooler than at present [Dahl-Jensen *et al.*, 1998; Feng and Epstein, 1994; Prentice *et al.*, 1998]. There is also evidence of large and abrupt climate changes exceeding recent experience [Bond *et al.*, 1997; Denton and Karlen, 1973; Gasse and Van Campo, 1994; Laird *et al.*, 1996; Petitmaire and Guo, 1996; von Grafenstein *et al.*, 1998]. These climatic variations occurred during a time when atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> variations were minimal [Barnola *et al.*, 1995; Indermuhle *et al.*, 1999]. It is clear from these records, and from many other studies of paleoclimate evidence throughout the geologic record, that the global climate system has been influenced by many factors in addition to greenhouse gases (see, for example, [Berger and Crowell, 1982].) To evaluate geologic evidence for the influence of greenhouse gases, one must focus on records from periods when changes in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> were much larger than those that occurred during the millennia immediately preceding anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> production.

***Changes in climate and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> in the geologic past.*** Larger natural variations in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> have been inferred from the geologic record of the more distant past (for an overview, see Sundquist and Broecker, [Sundquist and Broecker, 1985]). Variations of 80-100 ppm, observed in analyses of gas bubbles trapped in glacier-ice cores, are correlated with the glacial ("ice age") and interglacial climatic oscillations of the latest Pleistocene and Holocene epochs (Figure 3; [Barnola *et al.*, 1987; Berner *et al.*, 1980; Jouzel *et al.*, 1993; Wahlen *et al.*, 1998]). Glacial periods are associated with low CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, and interglacial periods with high CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Ice core methane profiles show a similar correlation with climate [Chappellaz *et al.*, 1990; Delmotte *et al.*, 1998; Jouzel *et al.*, 1993; Stauffer *et al.*, 1988].

Still larger past variations in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> have been estimated using geochemical models constrained by the sediment record [Berner, 1994; Berner *et al.*, 1983; Budyko and Ronov, 1979; France-Lanord and Derry, 1997; Francois and

Godderis, 1998; Raymo *et al.*, 1988]). Over the last several hundred million years, these larger and slower CO<sub>2</sub> changes are correlated with general features of climate change [Berner, 1990; Crowley and North, 1991; Fischer, 1981].

***Inter-relationships between geologic CO<sub>2</sub> variations and climate change.***

Paleoclimate model simulations (using models similar in many ways to the models used in modern climate projections) support the importance of CO<sub>2</sub> in explaining global mean temperatures in the geologic past [Berger *et al.*, 1998; Bush and Philander, 1997; Kasting and Ackerman, 1986; Ottobliesner, 1996; Tarasov and Peltier, 1997; Weaver *et al.*, 1998]. Model simulations have also shown the importance of changes in other climate controls, for example the Earth's orbital configuration [Berger and Loutre, 1997; Kutzbach *et al.*, 1988] and the geographical distribution and elevation of continental areas [Barron, 1985; Kutzbach *et al.*, 1989]. Significant gaps remain in understanding the relationships among these diverse climatic influences. However, the prevailing paradigm in paleoclimate research treats the radiative effects of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> as an integral component in a complex system of many variables and interactive influences on global climate.

The complexity of the long-term coupling of CO<sub>2</sub> and climate is enhanced by the extent to which climate variability is hypothesized to have influenced past atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. The Pleistocene glacial/interglacial CO<sub>2</sub> variations appear to have involved a combination of changes in global carbon cycling that were probably driven by some aspect of climate change [Boyle, 1988; Broecker, 1982; Broecker and Henderson, 1998; Crowley, 1995; Heinze *et al.*, 1991; Shackleton, 1977; Sundquist, 1993]. Likewise, over time scales of millions of years and longer, atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> appears to have been affected by the influence of climate on weathering and erosion rates [Berner, 1990; Berner, 1994; Berner *et al.*, 1983; Walker *et al.*, 1981].

Thus current interpretation of the geologic record accommodates not only the radiative influence of CO<sub>2</sub> on climate, but also the effects of climate on atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. Greenhouse gases are viewed as both responding and contributing to climate change. Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> is viewed as one of many climate system components that interact in complex ways over a wide range of time scales. A change in one of these interactive components is likely to affect other aspects of the global climate system. This interactive relationship between CO<sub>2</sub> and climate implies that the geologic record is not likely to reveal analogs of simple climate forcing by anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions [Crowley, 1997; Hay *et al.*, 1997; Sundquist, 1986]. There is no known geologic precedent for large increases of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> without simultaneous changes in other components of the carbon cycle and climate system.

***Predicted Changes in Climate Due to Increases in Greenhouse Gases and Uncertainties.***

***Predicted changes in response to increased greenhouse gases.*** Some of the predicted responses to increases in greenhouse gases include increases in mean surface air temperature, increases in global mean rates of precipitation and evaporation, rising sea level, and changes in the biosphere. Many of these predictions are based largely on computer models that simulate fundamental geophysical processes.

Most model simulations of Earth's climate indicate that an increase in the atmospheric concentration of a greenhouse gas will lead to an increase in the average surface air temperature of the Earth ([Kattenberg *et al.*, 1996] table 6.3, p298). For example, the 18 model runs (using 7 independent models) quoted in Kattenberg (1996) predict an equilibrium temperature increase of  $2.0 \pm 0.6^{\circ}\text{C}$  for simulations using double the current level of atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$ .

An increase in surface air temperature would cause an increase in evaporation and generally higher levels of atmospheric water vapor. The positive feedback associated with this leads to the expectation that an increase in surface air temperatures would lead to a more intense hydrological cycle, with more frequent heavy precipitation events ([Houghton *et al.*, 1992; Kattenberg *et al.*, 1996], p 335). However, because of the coarse spatial resolution of present general circulation models (GCM), simulations of the regional and seasonal distribution of precipitation are poor [Kattenberg *et al.*, 1996].

Another possible consequence of greenhouse-gas induced climate change is elevated sea level. The main factors that contribute to sea level rise are thermal expansion of ocean water and the melting of glaciers, both of which are in response to higher air temperatures. Although it has been well established that meltwater from the world's small glaciers has contributed to sea level rise over the last century [Dyurgerov and Meier, 1997; Meier, 1984], the mass balance of the ice sheets covering Greenland and Antarctica is unknown. Recent measurements indicate that Greenland's ice sheet might be shrinking [Krabill *et al.*, 1999]. World wide measurements from tidal gauges over the last 100 years indicate that mean sea level has risen between 10 and 25 cm (18 cm mean) [Douglas, 1991; Douglas, 1992; Gornitz, 1995; Warrick *et al.*, 1996]. This rate is greater than would be expected from the archaeological and geological record of sea level from the last two millennia [Warrick *et al.*, 1996]. Most modeling studies, including simulations of the combined effects of increasing greenhouse gases and aerosols, predict that the trend in rising sea level will continue into the future [Titus and Narayanan, 1995; Warrick and Oerlemans, 1990; Warrick *et al.*, 1996; Wigley and Raper, 1992; Wigley and Raper, 1993].

A possible biological effect may be seen in evidence that there has been an increase in the active growing season at high latitudes in the Northern Hemisphere [Keeling *et al.*, 1996; Myneni *et al.*, 1997].

**Predictive capabilities and uncertainties.** The models that have been used to study climate change are necessarily simplified representations of the climate system. Despite the inevitable limitations, climate model simulations accurately reproduce the large-scale seasonal distributions of pressure and temperature. In addition, the large-scale structure of precipitation and ocean surface heat flux also closely resembles the observed estimates [Gates *et al.*, 1998].

Confidence in models is also gained from their emerging predictive capability. An example of this capability is the development of a hierarchy of models to study the El Niño and Southern Oscillation (ENSO) phenomena [Neelin and Latif, 1998]. These models are becoming capable of predicting sea surface temperature anomalies in the tropical Pacific six to twelve months in advance [Latif *et al.*, 1998]. The models cannot predict specific storms related to ENSO, but they can predict the lower frequency responses of the climate

system, such as anomalies in monthly and seasonal averages of the sea surface temperatures in the tropical Pacific [Neelin and Latif, 1998].

Despite these gains there are a number of features of the climate system which are still rather crudely represented in climate models. The coarse resolution of these models (typically 3° or roughly 300 km) restricts their ability to accurately represent terrain effects and to simulate processes that occur on smaller scales. Other shortcomings occur in the representation of aerosols, precipitation and clouds and changes in solar irradiance. For these and other reasons there remain substantial scientific uncertainties in model predictions, including uncertainties in the predictions of local effects of climate change, occurrence of extreme weather events, effects of aerosols, changes in clouds, shifts in the intensity and distribution of precipitation, and changes in oceanic circulation [Hansen et al., 1998; Houghton et al., 1996; Mahlman, 1997].

A source of particular uncertainty in modeling climate change over the industrial period arises from uncertainties in representing the influence of anthropogenic aerosols. Aerosols scatter and absorb short wave (solar) radiation and modify the reflectivity of clouds. Both effects are thought to decrease the absorption of shortwave radiation by the Earth, exerting a cooling influence on climate, despite the fact that tropospheric aerosols are short lived in the atmosphere (a few days) [Charlson et al., 1992; Kaufman and Fraser, 1997; Twomey et al., 1984; Haywood et al., 1999]. Recent climate modeling studies which include the effects of aerosols [Hasselmann, 1997; Hegerl et al., 1997; Houghton et al., 1995; Kattenberg et al., 1996; Mitchell et al., 1995; Roeckner et al., 1996] show improved comparisons between the simulated and observed global temperature trends over the industrial period. However, given the present large uncertainties in aerosol forcing, such improvement may only be fortuitous.

An additional uncertain contribution to radiative forcing of climate change over the industrial period arises from possible changes in solar irradiance. Based on reconstructions of solar irradiance and climate response in the pre-industrial era, together with instrumental records and solar observations over the industrial period, Lean and Rind [Lean and Rind, 1998] estimate that solar forcing may have contributed about half of the observed surface warming since 1900.

Uncertainties regarding clouds and the hydrological cycle and their representation in climate models also introduce uncertainty into present understanding of the response of the climate system to increases in atmospheric greenhouse gases. It has been indicated in model calculations that warming in the lower atmosphere as a result of greenhouse gases would increase the abundance of water vapor in the atmosphere and intensify the hydrologic cycle ([Gates et al., 1992; Kattenberg et al., 1996]. These changes might be expected to lead to an enhancement in cloudiness. Clouds reduce the net absorbed short wave radiation in the climate system because of their high reflectivity (a cooling influence); however, they also radiate energy back down to the surface and lower atmosphere (a warming influence). The overall effect of these opposing influences is a net cooling [Ramanathan et al., 1989] although this varies regionally, with cloud type, and with geography. The question of whether average cloudiness would be increased or decreased in a greenhouse-enhanced world is not yet established. Issues such as these contribute to the present uncertainty in climate sensitivity.

In summary, the atmospheric concentrations of the principal anthropogenic greenhouse gases (CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O, CFC-11, and CFC-12), have increased significantly over the industrial period. Elevated concentrations are predicted to persist in the atmosphere for times ranging to thousands of years. The increased atmospheric levels of these gases, especially CO<sub>2</sub>, increase the infrared energy absorbed by the atmosphere, thereby producing a warming influence at the Earth's surface.

Global mean temperatures have increased between 0.3 and 0.6 °C over the last 150 years. This change has not been monotonic, but it is unusual in the context of the last few centuries. On the time scale of the last few thousand years there have been larger climatic variation during times when variations in CO<sub>2</sub> have been relatively low. It is clear that atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> is not the only influence on global climate. However, there have been large natural variations of CO<sub>2</sub> in the geologic past, and these changes are correlated with general features of climate change. There is no known geologic precedent for large increases of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> without simultaneous changes in other components of the carbon cycle and climate system.

Changes in the climate system that are confidently predicted in response to increases in greenhouse gases include increases in mean surface air temperature, increases in global mean rates of precipitation and evaporation, rising sea level, and changes in the biosphere. Substantial uncertainties remain in the magnitudes and geographical distribution of these changes and in the rates at which they may be expected to occur. The significant recent progress in the scientific understanding of climate change and the uncertainties in predictions of climate change are documented in the peer-reviewed literature. Peer-reviewed scientific research provides the scientific basis for the AGU position statement on Climate Change and Greenhouse Gases ([AGU, 1999], [http://www.agu.org/sci\\_soc/policy/climate\\_change.html](http://www.agu.org/sci_soc/policy/climate_change.html)) and must continue to be utilized in informed decision making on this issue.

## Figure Captions

- Figure 1. Concentrations of principal anthropogenic greenhouse gases in the industrial era [*Hansen et al.*, 1998]. Because these gases are well mixed in the atmosphere, measurements at any location are representative of the global atmosphere. Black curves denote actual (in-situ) atmospheric measurements. Points denote abundances determined from air bubbles trapped in polar ice sheets using cores obtained in Antarctica (blue) or Greenland (yellow); red curves denote fits to these points. Mixing ratios of CFC-11 and CFC 12 prior to the first in-situ atmospheric measurements were estimated from industrial production data and assumed atmospheric lifetimes of 50 and 100 years, respectively ([*Hansen et al.*, 1998], [www.gis.nasa.gov/dta/GHgases](http://www.gis.nasa.gov/dta/GHgases)). The early records of the other gases are based on ice core data [*Etheridge et al.*, 1998; *Machida et al.*, 1995].
- Figure 2. Reconstruction of Northern Hemisphere temperature anomaly trend from 1000 AD to present [*Mann et al.*, 1999; see also *Mann et al.*, 1998] from dendroclimatic, coral, and ice-core proxy records as calibrated by instrumental measurements [*Jones and Briffa*, 1992]. Thin curves give reconstruction and raw data from AD 1000-1998. Smoothed version (thick solid), linear trend from AD 1000 to 1850 (long dashed) and two standard error limits (shaded) are also shown.
- Figure 3. Carbon dioxide concentration (top), proxy temperature (middle), and methane concentration from analyses of ice cores at Vostok, Antarctica [*Jouzel et al.*, 1993].

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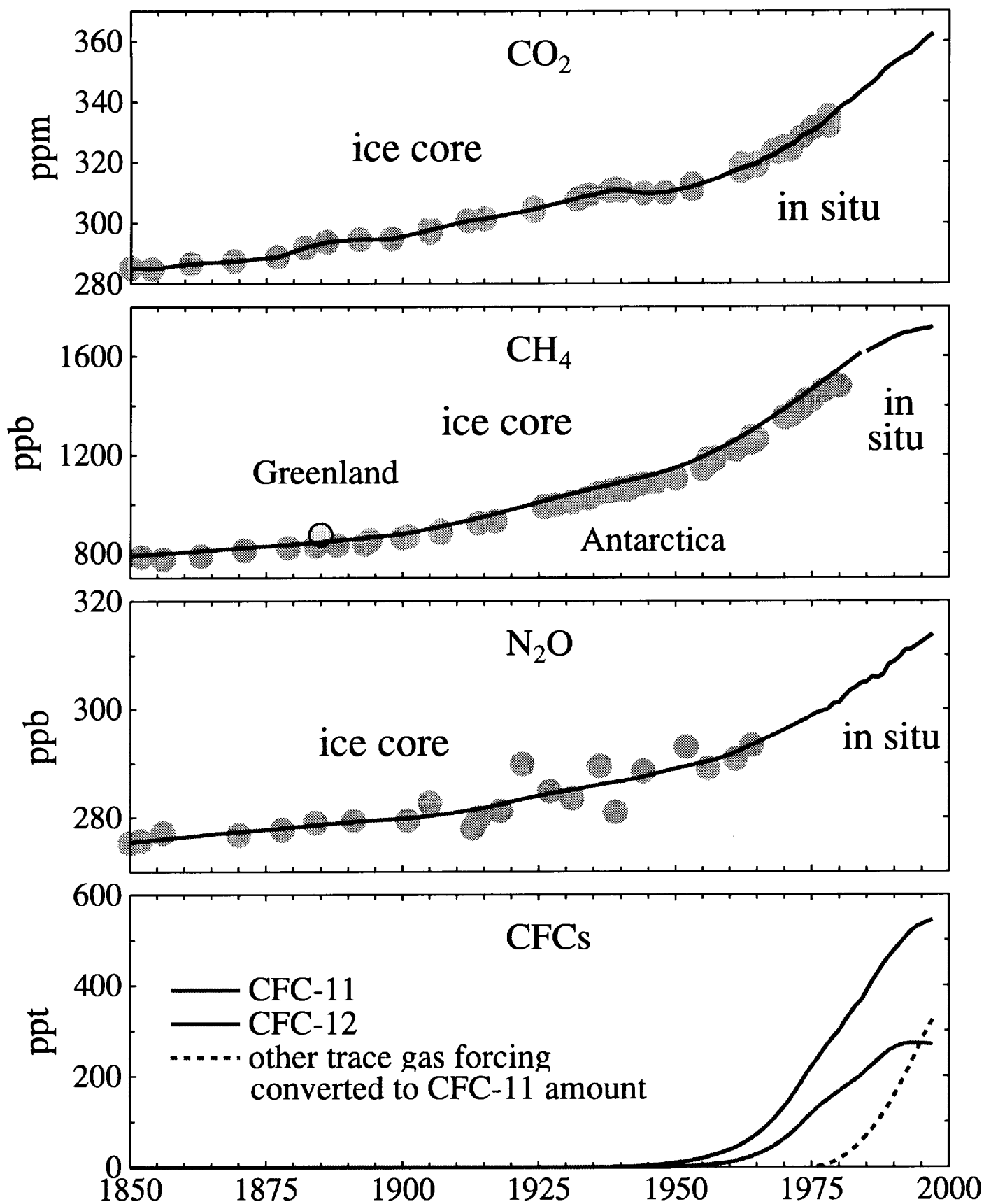
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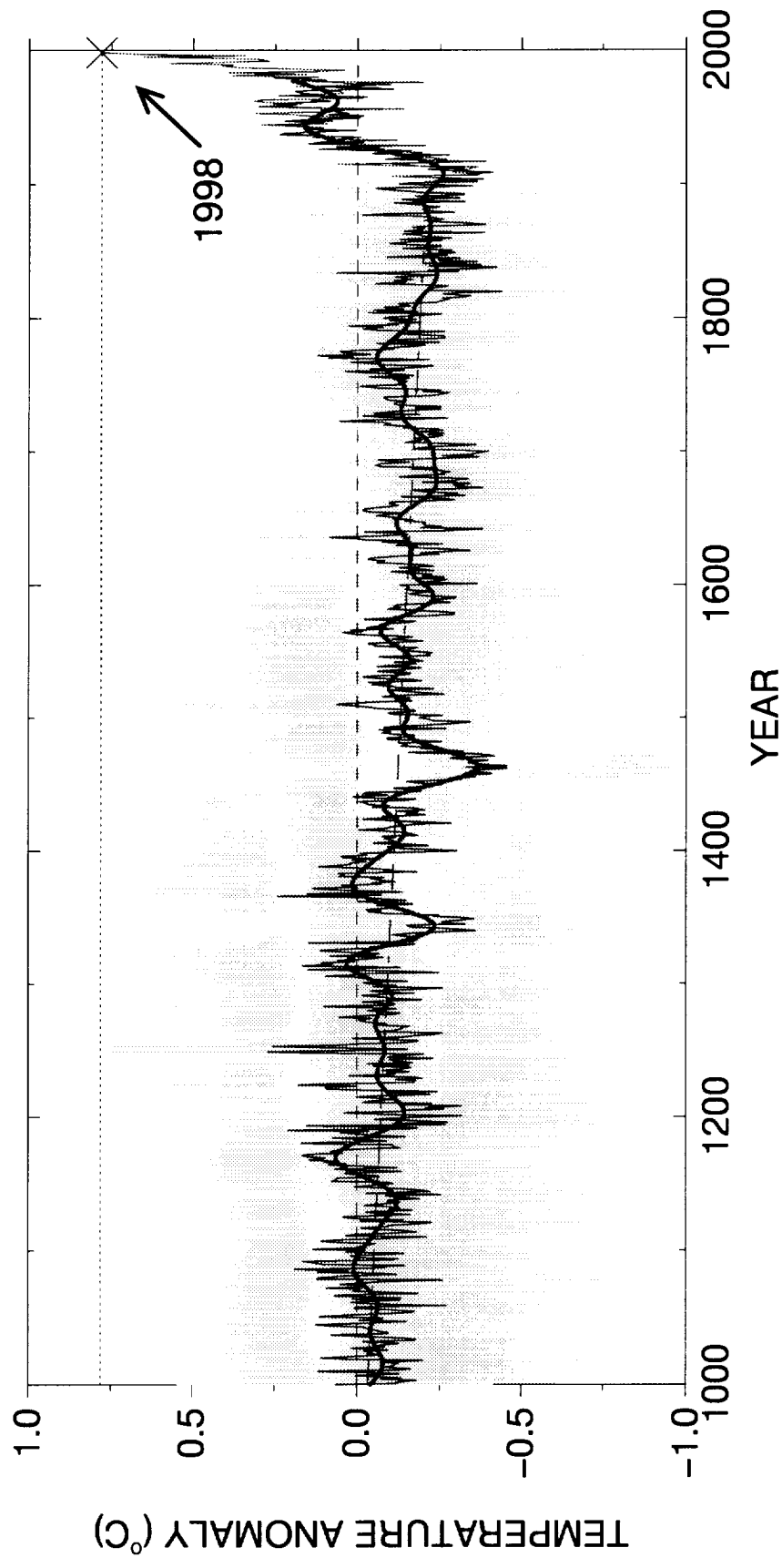
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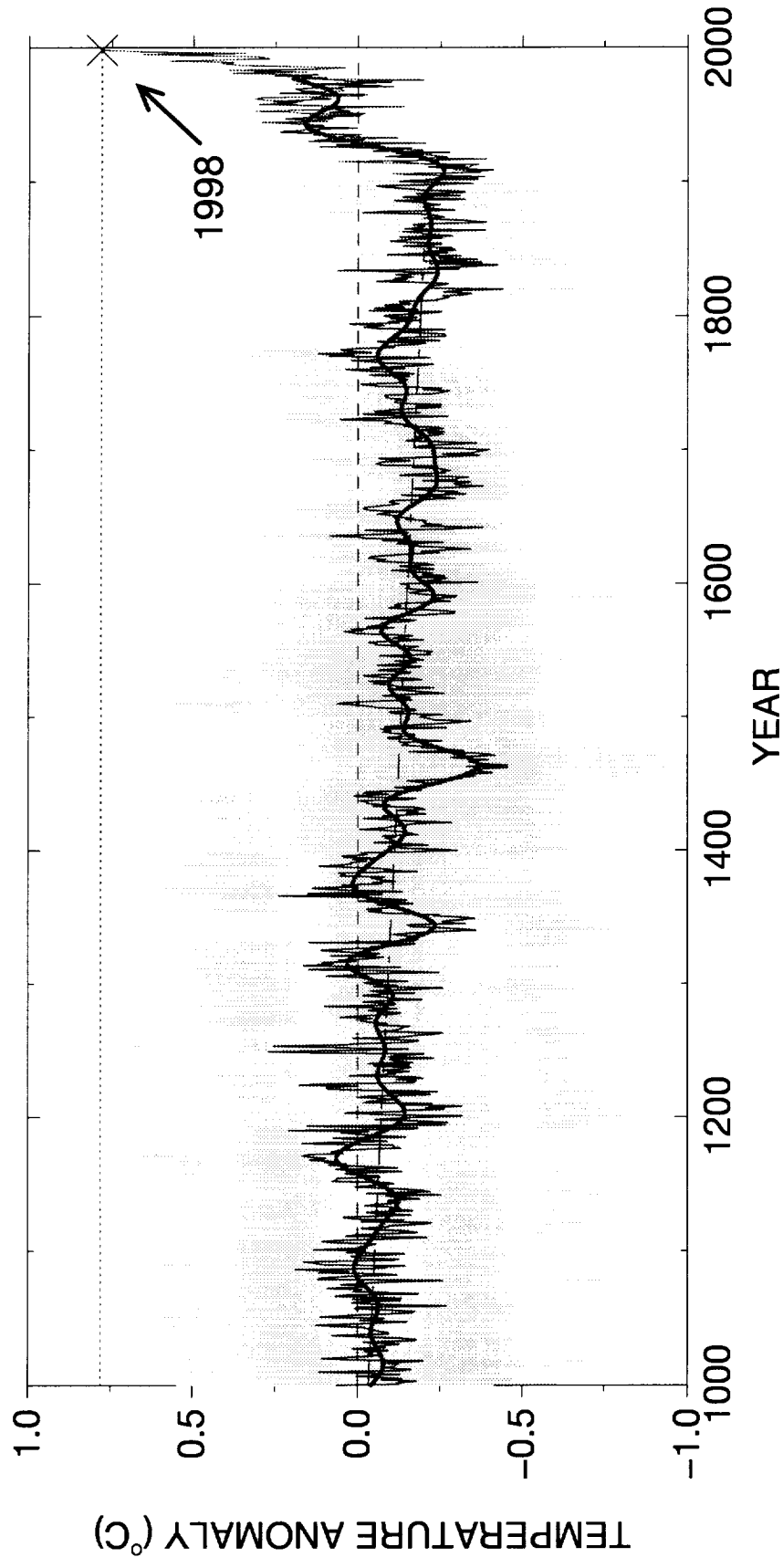
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# Greenhouse Gas Mixing Ratios





- reconstruction (AD 1000-1980)
- instrumental data (AD 1902-1998)
- - - calibration period (AD 1902-1980) mean
- reconstruction (40 year smoothed)
- - - linear trend (AD 1000-1850)



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