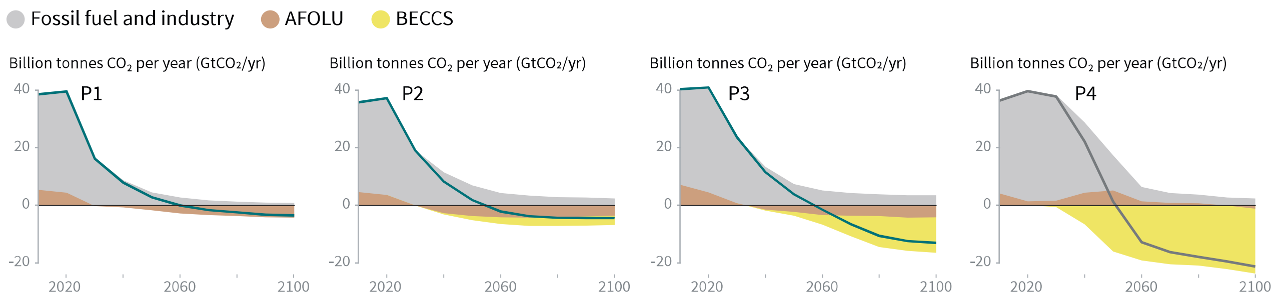
Characteristics of four illustrative model pathways

Different mitigation strategies can achieve the net emissions reductions that would be required to follow a pathway that limits global warming to 1.5°C with no or limited overshoot. All pathways use Carbon Dioxide Removal (CDR), but the amount varies across pathways, as do the relative contributions of Bioenergy with Carbon Capture and Storage (BECCS) and removals in the Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land Use (AFOLU) sector. This has implications for emissions and several other pathway characteristics.

Breakdown of contributions to global net CO_2 emissions in four illustrative model pathways



P1: A scenario in which social, business and technological innovations result in lower energy demand up to 2050 while living standards rise, especially in the global South. A downsized energy system enables rapid decarbonization of energy supply. Afforestation is the only CDR option considered; neither fossil fuels with CCS nor BECCS are used.

P2: A scenario with a broad focus on sustainability including energy intensity, human development, economic convergence and international cooperation, as well as shifts towards sustainable and healthy consumption patterns, low-carbon technology innovation, and well-managed land systems with limited societal acceptability for BECCS.

P3: A middle-of-the-road scenario in which societal as well as technological development follows historical patterns. Emissions reductions are mainly achieved by changing the way in which energy and products are produced, and to a lesser degree by reductions in demand.

P4: A resource- and energy-intensive scenario in which economic growth and globalization lead to widespread adoption of greenhouse-gas-intensive lifestyles, including high demand for transportation fuels and livestock products. Emissions reductions are mainly achieved through technological means, making strong use of CDR through the deployment of BECCS.

Global indicators	P1	P2	P3	P4	**Interquartile range**
Pathway classification	No or limited overshoot	No or limited overshoot	No or limited overshoot	Higher overshoot	No or limited overshoot
CO_2 emission change in 2030 (% rel to 2010)	-58	-47	-41	4	(-58,-40)
└ in 2050 (% rel to 2010)	-93	-95	-91	-97	(-107,-94)
Kyoto-GHG emissions in 2030 (% rel to 2010)*	-50	-49	-35	-2	(-51,-39)
└ in 2050 (% rel to 2010)	-82	-89	-78	-80	(-93,-81)
*Final energy demand** in 2030 (% rel to 2010)*	-15	-5	17	39	(-12,7)
└ in 2050 (% rel to 2010)	-32	2	21	44	(-11,22)
Renewable share in electricity in 2030 (%)	60	58	48	25	(47,65)
└ in 2050 (%)	77	81	63	70	(69,86)
Primary energy from coal in 2030 (% rel to 2010)	-78	-61	-75	-59	(-78, -59)
└ in 2050 (% rel to 2010)	-97	-77	-73	-97	(-95, -74)
from oil in 2030 (% rel to 2010)	-37	-13	-3	86	(-34,3)
└ in 2050 (% rel to 2010)	-87	-50	-81	-32	(-78,-31)
from gas in 2030 (% rel to 2010)	-25	-20	33	37	(-26,21)
└ in 2050 (% rel to 2010)	-74	-53	21	-48	(-56,6)
from nuclear in 2030 (% rel to 2010)	59	83	98	106	(44,102)
└ in 2050 (% rel to 2010)	150	98	501	468	(91,190)
from biomass in 2030 (% rel to 2010)	-11	0	36	-1	(29,80)
└ in 2050 (% rel to 2010)	-16	49	121	418	(123,261)
from non-biomass renewables in 2030 (% rel to 2010)	430	470	315	110	(245,436)
└ in 2050 (% rel to 2010)	833	1327	878	1137	(576,1299)
Cumulative CCS until 2100 ($GtCO_2$)	0	348	687	1218	(550,1017)
└ of which BECCS ($GtCO_2$)	0	151	414	1191	(364,662)
Land area of bioenergy crops in 2050 (million km^2)	0.2	0.9	2.8	7.2	(1.5,3.2)
Agricultural CH_4 emissions in 2030 (% rel to 2010)	-24	-48	1	14	(-30,-11)
in 2050 (% rel to 2010)	-33	-69	-23	2	(-47,-24)
Agricultural N_2O emissions in 2030 (% rel to 2010)	5	-26	15	3	(-21,3)
in 2050 (% rel to 2010)	6	-26	0	39	(-26,1)

NOTE: Indicators have been selected to show global trends identified by the Chapter 2 assessment. National and sectoral characteristics can differ substantially from the global trends shown above.

** Kyoto-gas emissions are based on IPCC Second Assessment Report GWP-100*
*** Changes in energy demand are associated with improvements in energy efficiency and behaviour change*

Cross-Chapter Box 8 (continued)

Cross-Chapter Box 8, Table 2 | Storylines of possible worlds resulting from different mitigation options. The storylines build upon Cross-Chapter Box 8, Table 1 and the assessments of Chapters 1–5. Only a few of the many possible storylines were chosen and they are presented for illustrative purposes.

Scenario 1 [one possible storyline among best-case scenarios]: **Mitigation:** early move to decarbonization, decarbonization designed to minimize land footprint, coordination and rapid action of the world's nations towards 1.5°C goal by 2100 **Internal climate variability:** probable (66%) best-case outcome for global and regional climate responses	**In 2020, strong participation and support for the Paris Agreement and its ambitious goals for reducing CO_2 emissions by an almost unanimous international community led to a time frame for net zero emissions that is compatible with halting global warming at 1.5°C by 2100.** There is strong participation in all major world regions at the national, state and/or city levels. Transport is strongly decarbonized through a shift to electric vehicles, with more cars with electric than combustion engines being sold by 2025 (Chapter 2, Section 2.4.3; Chapter 4, Section 4.3.3). Several industry-sized plants for carbon capture and storage are installed and tested in the 2020s (Chapter 2, Section 2.4.2; Chapter 4, Sections 4.3.4 and 4.3.7). Competition for land between bioenergy cropping, food production, and biodiversity conservation is minimized by sourcing bioenergy for carbon capture and storage from agricultural wastes, algae and kelp farms (Cross-Chapter Box 7 in Chapter 3; Chapter 4, Section 4.3.2). Agriculture is intensified in countries with coordinated planning associated with a drastic decrease in food waste (Chapter 2, Section 2.4.4; Chapter 4, Section 4.3.2). This leaves many natural ecosystems relatively intact, supporting continued provision of most ecosystem services, although relocation of species towards higher latitudes and elevations still results in changes in local biodiversity in many regions, particularly in mountain, tropical, coastal and Arctic ecosystems (Chapter 3, Section 3.4.3). Adaptive measures such as the establishment of corridors for the movement of species and parts of ecosystems become a central practice within conservation management (Chapter 3, Section 3.4.3; Chapter 4, Section 4.3.2). The movement of species presents new challenges for resource management as novel ecosystems, as well as pests and disease, increase (Cross-Chapter Box 6 in Chapter 3). Crops are grown on marginal land, no-till agriculture is deployed, and large areas are reforested with native trees (Chapter 2, Section 2.4.4; Chapter 3, Section 3.6.2; Cross-Chapter Box 7 in Chapter 3; Chapter 4, Section 4.3.2). Societal preference for healthy diets reduces meat consumption and associated GHG emissions (Chapter 2, Section 2.4.4; Chapter 4, Section 4.3.2; Cross-Chapter Box 6 in Chapter 3). By 2100, global mean temperature is on average 0.5°C warmer than it was in 2018 (Chapter 1, Section 1.2.1). Only a minor temperature overshoot occurs during the century (Chapter 2, Section 2.2). In mid-latitudes, frequent hot summers and precipitation events tend to be more intense (Chapter 3, Section 3.3). Coastal communities struggle with increased inundation associated with rising sea levels and more frequent and intense heavy rainfall (Chapter 3, Sections 3.3.2 and 3.3.9; Chapter 4, Section 4.3.2; Chapter 5, Box 5.3 and Section 5.3.2; Cross-Chapter Box 12 in Chapter 5), and some respond by moving, in many cases with consequences for urban areas. In the tropics, in particular in megacities, there are frequent deadly heatwaves whose risks are reduced by proactive adaptation (Chapter 3, Sections 3.3.1 and 3.4.8; Chapter 4, Section 4.3.8), overlaid on a suite of development challenges and limits in disaster risk management (Chapter 4, Section 4.3.3; Chapter 5, Sections 5.2.1 and 5.2.2; Cross-Chapter Box 12 in Chapter 5). Glaciers extent decreases in most mountainous areas (Chapter 3, Sections 3.3.5 and 3.5.4). Reduced Arctic sea ice opens up new shipping lanes and commercial corridors (Chapter 3, Section 3.3.8; Chapter 4, Box 4.3). Small island developing states (SIDS), as well as coastal and low-lying areas, have faced significant changes but have largely persisted in most regions (Chapter 3, Sections 3.3.9 and 3.5.4, Box 3.5). The Mediterranean area becomes drier (Chapter 3, Section 3.3.4 and Box 3.2) and irrigation of crops expands, drawing the water table down in many areas (Chapter 3, Section 3.4.6). The Amazon is reasonably well preserved, through avoided risk of droughts (Chapter 3, Sections 3.3.4 and 3.4.3; Chapter 4, Box 4.3) and reduced deforestation (Chapter 2, Section 2.4.4; Cross-Chapter Box 7 in Chapter 3; Chapter 4, Section 4.3.2), and the forest services are working with the pattern observed at the beginning of the 21st century (Chapter 4, Box 4.3). While some climate hazards become more frequent (Chapter 3, Section 3.3), timely adaptation measures help reduce the associated risks for most, although poor and disadvantaged groups continue to experience high climate risks to their livelihoods and well-being (Chapter 5, Section 5.3.1; Cross-Chapter Box 12 in Chapter 5; Chapter 3, Boxes 3.4 and 3.5; Cross-Chapter Box 6 in Chapter 3). Summer sea ice has not completely disappeared from the Arctic (Chapter 3, Section 3.4.4.7) and coral reefs, having been driven to a low level (10–30% of levels in 2018), have partially recovered by 2100 after extensive dieback (Chapter 3, Section 3.4.4.10 and Box 3.4). The Earth system, while warmer, is still recognizable compared to the 2000s, and no major tipping points are reached (Chapter 3, Section 3.5.2.5). Crop yields remain relatively stable (Chapter 3, Section 3.4). Aggregate economic damage of climate change impacts is relatively small, although there are some local losses associated with extreme weather events (Chapter 3, Section 3.5; Chapter 4). Human well-being remains overall similar to that in 2020 (Chapter 5, Section 5.2.2).
Scenario 2 [one possible storyline among mid-case scenarios]: **Mitigation:** delayed action (ambitious targets reached only after warmer decade in the 2020s due to internal climate variability), overshoot at 2°C, decrease towards 1.5°C afterward, no efforts to minimize the land and water footprints of bioenergy **Internal climate variability:** 10% worst-case outcome (2020s) followed by normal internal climate variability	**The international community continues to largely support the Paris Agreement and agrees in 2020 on reduction targets for CO_2 emissions and time frames for net zero emissions. However, these targets are not ambitious enough to reach stabilization at 2°C of warming, let alone 1.5°C.** In the 2020s, internal climate variability leads to higher warming than projected, in a reverse development to what happened in the so-called 'hiatus' period of the 2000s. Temperatures are regularly above 1.5°C of warming, although radiative forcing is consistent with a warming of 1.2°C or 1.3°C. Deadly heatwaves in major cities (Chicago, Kolkata, Beijing, Karachi, São Paulo), droughts in southern Europe, southern Africa and the Amazon region, and major flooding in Asia, all intensified by the global and regional warming (Chapter 3, Sections 3.3.1, 3.3.2, 3.3.3, 3.3.4 and 3.4.8; Cross-Chapter Box 11 in Chapter 4), lead to increasing levels of public unrest and political destabilization (Chapter 5, Section 5.2.1). An emergency global summit in 2025 moves to much more ambitious climate targets. Costs for rapidly phasing out fossil fuel use and infrastructure, while rapidly expanding renewables to reduce emissions, are much higher than in Scenario 1, owing to a failure to support economic measures to drive the transition (Chapter 4). Disruptive technologies become crucial to face up to the adaptation measures needed (Chapter 4, Section 4.4.4).

Cross-Chapter Box 8 (continued)

Cross-Chapter Box 8, Table 2 *(continued)*

Scenario 2 [one possible storyline among mid-case scenarios]: **Mitigation:** delayed action (ambitious targets reached only after warmer decade in the 2020s due to internal climate variability), overshoot at 2°C, decrease towards 1.5°C afterward, no efforts to minimize the land and water footprints of bioenergy **Internal climate variability:** 10% worst-case outcome (2020s) followed by normal internal climate variability	Temperature peaks at 2°C of warming by the middle of the century before decreasing again owing to intensive implementation of bioenergy plants with carbon capture and storage (Chapter 2), without efforts to minimize the land and water footprint of bioenergy production (Cross-Chapter Box 7 in Chapter 3). Reaching 2°C of warming for several decades eliminates or severely damages key ecosystems such as coral reefs and tropical forests (Chapter 3, Section 3.4). The elimination of coral reef ecosystems and the deterioration of their calcified frameworks, as well as serious losses of coastal ecosystems such as mangrove forests and seagrass beds (Chapter 3, Boxes 3.4 and 3.5, Sections 3.4.4.10 and 3.4.5), leads to much reduced levels of coastal defence from storms, winds and waves. These changes increase the vulnerability and risks facing communities in tropical and subtropical regions, with consequences for many coastal communities (Cross-Chapter Box 12 in Chapter 5). These impacts are being amplified by steadily rising sea levels (Chapter 3, Section 3.3.9) and intensifying storms (Chapter 3, Section 3.4.4.3). The intensive area required for the production of bioenergy, combined with increasing water stress, puts pressure on food prices (Cross-Chapter Box 6 in Chapter 3), driving elevated rates of food insecurity, hunger and poverty (Chapter 4, Section 4.3.2; Cross-Chapter Box 6 in Chapter 3; Cross-Chapter Box 11 in Chapter 4). Crop yields decline significantly in the tropics, leading to prolonged famines in some African countries (Chapter 3, Section 3.4; Chapter 4, Section 4.3.2). Food trumps environment in terms of importance in most countries, with the result that natural ecosystems decrease in abundance, owing to climate change and land-use change (Cross-Chapter Box 7 in Chapter 3). The ability to implement adaptive action to prevent the loss of ecosystems is hindered under the circumstances and is consequently minimal (Chapter 3, Sections 3.3.6 and 3.4.4.10). Many natural ecosystems, in particular in the Mediterranean, are lost because of the combined effects of climate change and land-use change, and extinction rates increase greatly (Chapter 3, Section 3.4 and Box 3.2). By 2100, warming has decreased but is still stronger than 1.5°C, and the yields of some tropical crops are recovering (Chapter 3, Section 3.4.3). Several of the remaining natural ecosystems experience irreversible climate change-related damages whilst others have been lost to land-use change, with very rapid increases in the rate of species extinctions (Chapter 3, Section 3.4; Cross-Chapter Box 7 in Chapter 3; Cross-Chapter Box 11 in Chapter 4). Migration, forced displacement, and loss of identity are extensive in some countries, reversing some achievements in sustainable development and human security (Chapter 5, Section 5.3.2). Aggregate economic impacts of climate change damage are small, but the loss in ecosystem services creates large economic losses (Chapter 4, Sections 4.3.2 and 4.3.3). The health and well-being of people generally decrease from 2020, while the levels of poverty and disadvantage increase considerably (Chapter 5, Section 5.2.1).
Scenario 3 [one possible storyline among worst-case scenarios]: **Mitigation:** uncoordinated action, major actions late in the 21st century, 3°C of warming in 2100 **Internal climate variability:** unusual (ca. 10%) best-case scenario for one decade, followed by normal internal climate variability	**In 2020, despite past pledges, the international support for the Paris Agreement starts to wane. In the years that follow, CO_2 emissions are reduced at the local and national level but efforts are limited and not always successful.** Radiative forcing increases and, due to chance, the most extreme events tend to happen in less populated regions and thus do not increase global concerns. Nonetheless, there are more frequent heatwaves in several cities and less snow in mountain resorts in the Alps, Rockies and Andes (Chapter 3, Section 3.3). Global warming of 1.5°C is reached by 2030 but no major changes in policies occur. Starting with an intense El Niño–La Niña phase in the 2030s, several catastrophic years occur while global warming starts to approach 2°C. There are major heatwaves on all continents, with deadly consequences in tropical regions and Asian megacities, especially for those ill-equipped for protecting themselves and their communities from the effects of extreme temperatures (Chapter 3, Sections 3.3.1, 3.3.2 and 3.4.8). Droughts occur in regions bordering the Mediterranean Sea, central North America, the Amazon region and southern Australia, some of which are due to natural variability and others to enhanced greenhouse gas forcing (Chapter 3, Section 3.3.4; Chapter 4, Section 4.3.2; Cross-Chapter Box 11 in Chapter 4). Intense flooding occurs in high-latitude and tropical regions, in particular in Asia, following increases in heavy precipitation events (Chapter 3, Section 3.3.3). Major ecosystems (coral reefs, wetlands, forests) are destroyed over that period (Chapter 3, Section 3.4), with massive disruption to local livelihoods (Chapter 5, Section 5.2.2 and Box 5.3; Cross-Chapter Box 12 in Chapter 5). An unprecedented drought leads to large impacts on the Amazon rainforest (Chapter 3, Sections 3.3.4 and 3.4), which is also affected by deforestation (Chapter 2). A hurricane with intense rainfall and associated with high storm surges (Chapter 3, Section 3.3.6) destroys a large part of Miami. A two-year drought in the Great Plains in the USA and a concomitant drought in eastern Europe and Russia decrease global crop production (Chapter 3, Section 3.3.4), resulting in major increases in food prices and eroding food security. Poverty levels increase to a very large scale, and the risk and incidence of starvation increase considerably as food stores dwindle in most countries; human health suffers (Chapter 3, Section 3.4.6.1; Chapter 4, Sections 4.3.2 and 4.4.3; Chapter 5, Section 5.2.1). There are high levels of public unrest and political destabilization due to the increasing climatic pressures, resulting in some countries becoming dysfunctional (Chapter 4, Sections 4.4.1 and 4.4.2). The main countries responsible for the CO_2 emissions design rapidly conceived mitigation plans and try to install plants for carbon capture and storage, in some cases without sufficient prior testing (Chapter 4, Section 4.3.6). Massive investments in renewable energy often happen too late and are uncoordinated; energy prices soar as a result of the high demand and lack of infrastructure. In some cases, demand cannot be met, leading to further delays. Some countries propose to consider sulphate-aerosol based Solar Radiation Modification (SRM) (Chapter 4, Section 4.3.8); however, intensive international negotiations on the topic take substantial time and are inconclusive because of overwhelming concerns about potential impacts on monsoon rainfall and risks in case of termination (Cross-Chapter Box 10 in Chapter 5). Global and regional temperatures continue to increase strongly while mitigation solutions are being developed and implemented.

Cross-Chapter Box 8 (continued)

Cross-Chapter Box 8, Table 2 *(continued)*

Scenario 3 [one possible storyline among worst-case scenarios]: **Mitigation:** uncoordinated action, major actions late in the 21st century, 3°C of warming in 2100 **Internal climate variability:** unusual (ca. 10%) best-case scenario for one decade, followed by normal internal climate variability	Global mean warming reaches 3°C by 2100 but is not yet stabilized despite major decreases in yearly CO_2 emissions, as a net zero CO_2 emissions budget could not yet be achieved and because of the long lifetime of CO_2 concentrations (Chapters 1, 2 and 3). The world as it was in 2020 is no longer recognizable, with decreasing life expectancy, reduced outdoor labour productivity, and lower quality of life in many regions because of too frequent heatwaves and other climate extremes (Chapter 4, Section 4.3.3). Droughts and stress on water resources renders agriculture economically unviable in some regions (Chapter 3, Section 3.4; Chapter 4, Section 4.3.2) and contributes to increases in poverty (Chapter 5, Section 5.2.1; Cross-Chapter Box 12 in Chapter 5). Progress on the sustainable development goals is largely undone and poverty rates reach new highs (Chapter 5, Section 5.2.3). Major conflicts take place (Chapter 3, Section 3.4.9.6; Chapter 5, Section 5.2.1). Almost all ecosystems experience irreversible impacts, species extinction rates are high in all regions, forest fires escalate, and biodiversity strongly decreases, resulting in extensive losses to ecosystem services. These losses exacerbate poverty and reduce quality of life (Chapter 3, Section 3.4; Chapter 4, Section 4.3.2). Life for many indigenous and rural groups becomes untenable in their ancestral lands (Chapter 4, Box 4.3; Cross-Chapter Box 12 in Chapter 5). The retreat of the West Antarctic ice sheet accelerates (Chapter 3, Sections 3.3 and 3.6), leading to more rapid sea level rise (Chapter 3, Section 3.3.9; Chapter 4, Section 4.3.2). Several small island states give up hope of survival in their locations and look to an increasingly fragmented global community for refuge (Chapter 3, Box 3.5; Cross-Chapter Box 12 in Chapter 5). Aggregate economic damages are substantial, owing to the combined effects of climate changes, political instability, and losses of ecosystem services (Chapter 4, Sections 4.4.1 and 4.4.2; Chapter 3, Box 3.6 and Section 3.5.2.4). The general health and well-being of people is substantially reduced compared to the conditions in 2020 and continues to worsen over the following decades (Chapter 5, Section 5.2.3).