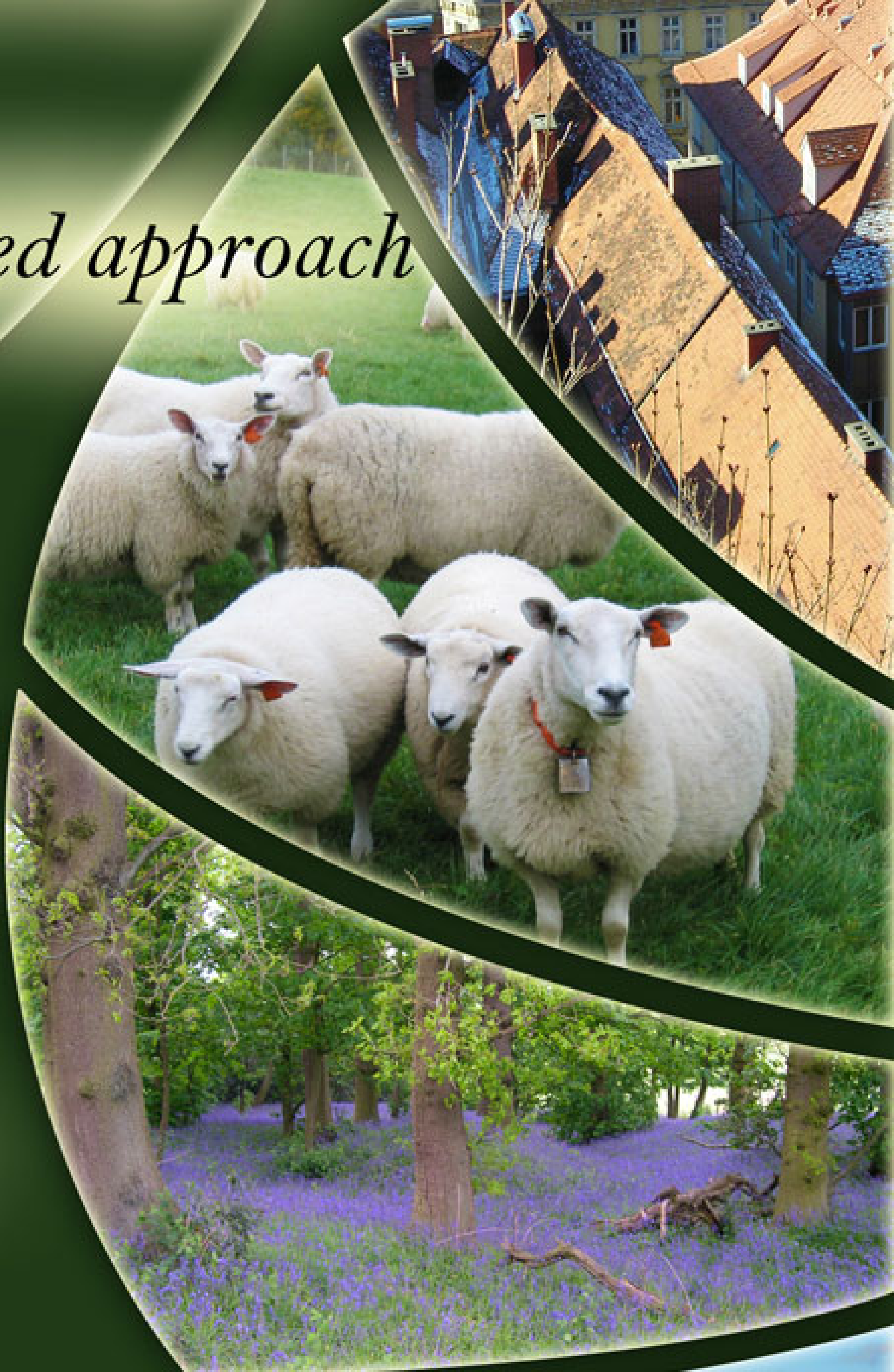
Climate Change Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability in Europe:

An integrated approach



Paula A. Harrison
and the CLIMSAVE consortium

Preface

The research reported here was undertaken as part of the CLIMSAVE project ("Climate Change Integrated Assessment Methodology for Cross-Sectoral Adaptation and Vulnerability in Europe"). CLIMSAVE was conducted over the period January 2010 to October 2013 under the European Commission's Seventh Framework Programme (Contract number 244031).

It was coordinated by Dr. Paula Harrison from the Environmental Change Institute at the University of Oxford and was implemented as a collaborative project by the following scientists and institutions:

- ⇨ Paula Harrison, Robert Dunford and Pam Berry, Environmental Change Institute, University of Oxford, UK
- ⇨ George Cojocaru and Cristina-Mirela Savin, TIAMASG Foundation, Romania
- ⇨ Marc Gramberger, Martin Watson and Marjan Maes, Prospex bvba, Belgium
- ⇨ György Pataki, Chris High, Ágnes Kalóczkai and Gusztáv Nemes, ESSRG Kft, Hungary
- ⇨ Ian Holman and Eric Audsley, Cranfield University, UK
- ⇨ Santi Sabaté, Anabel Sanchez and Joan Maspons, CREAF, Spain
- ⇨ Karl-Heinz Simon, Florian Wimmer, Benjamin Stuch and Martina Flörke, University of Kassel, Germany
- ⇨ Mirek Trnka and Martin Dubrovsky, Mendel University, Czech Republic
- ⇨ Michalis Skourtos and Areti Kontigianni, University of the Aegean, Greece
- ⇨ Rob Tinch, Belgium
- ⇨ Ines Omann and Jill Jäger, SERI, Austria
- ⇨ Mark Rounsevell, Marc Metzger, Calum Brown and Evan Brown, University of Edinburgh, UK
- ⇨ Martin Sykes and Florian Sallaba, University of Lund, Sweden
- ⇨ Kasper Kok, Wageningen University, The Netherlands
- ⇨ Robert Nicholls, Abiy Kebede and Mustafa Mokrech, University of Southampton, UK
- ⇨ Lin Erda and Minpeng Chen, Institute of Environment and Sustainable Development in Agriculture, China
- ⇨ Richard Warrick, University of the Sunshine Coast, Australia
- ⇨ Roger Jones, Victoria University, Australia

The project was implemented at two scales: Europe and Scotland. This report summarises the policy relevant final results of the project for the European case study. Three professionally facilitated workshops were organised in Europe throughout the lifetime of CLIMSAVE to effectively integrate stakeholder views into the climate change impact and adaptation research. The workshops focused on the development of participatory scenarios which were integrated within a software tool (the CLIMSAVE Integrated Assessment Platform). The project team would like to acknowledge and thank all the stakeholders who provided their valuable input to these workshops.

Further information can be obtained from the project's website (www.climsave.eu) or by contacting the Project Coordinator: Dr. Paula Harrison (Paula.Harrison@ouce.ox.ac.uk).

Key findings

There is widespread acceptance that the climate is changing and, thus, it is vital that decision-makers have access to reliable science-based information to help them respond to climate change impacts and assess opportunities for adaptation. CLIMSAVE is a pan-European project that has developed an integrated assessment approach that enables stakeholders to explore and understand the cross-sectoral benefits and conflicts of different adaptation options to better inform the development of robust policy responses. The main findings were:

⇨ The CLIMSAVE Integrated Assessment (IA) Platform is a unique user-friendly, interactive web-based tool that enables European stakeholders to explore the complex multi-sectoral issues surrounding impacts, adaptation and vulnerability to climate and socio-economic change across Europe within the agriculture, forest, biodiversity, coast, water and urban sectors. See pages 6 and 7.

⇨ A range of climate change scenarios are incorporated into the IA Platform to allow Users to explore the effects of climate change uncertainties on impacts and vulnerabilities. Projections of Europe-wide average temperature change range from 1 to 5°C in the 2050s, whilst precipitation changes range from increases of between 1 and 13% in winter and decreases of between 2 and 30% in summer. See pages 8 and 9.

⇨ Four contrasting socio-economic storylines were developed in a series of participatory workshops by European stakeholders and quantified to include in the IA Platform. This led to strong feelings of ownership of the scenarios which illustrate that a broad range of futures are envisioned to be plausible for Europe, ranging from the very positive (We are the World) to the very negative (Should I Stay or Should I Go). See pages 10 and 11.

⇨ Europe will be significantly influenced by both climate and socio-economic change. Urban development increases in most scenarios. The number of people affected by a 1 in 100 year flood increases in western and northern Europe. Biodiversity vulnerability and water exploitation both increase in southern and eastern Europe. Changes in land use (intensive farming, extensive farming, forests and unmanaged land) vary depending on the scenario, but food production generally increases across Europe at the expense of forest area to satisfy the demand from an increasing population. See pages 12 to 15.

⇨ The broad range of adaptation options to address the impacts of climate change in Europe in the IA Platform allows the User to consider their costs, capital requirements, applicability, effectiveness and secondary (synergistic and cross-sectoral) impacts, but detailed assessment is needed to take account of local conditions and constraints. See pages 16 to 21.

⇨ However, effective adaptation emerging out of decisions made by local community actors needs to be strongly supported by an empowering national and EU institutional setting which facilitates coordination and knowledge sharing among Member States. See pages 4 and 5.

⇨ Mapping of vulnerability hotspots suggests that human well-being is most at risk from water stress and biodiversity loss in southern Europe, and from the lack of food provision and land use diversity in northern Europe. See pages 22 to 25.

⇨ The most robust policy strategy (defined in terms of beneficially reducing vulnerability to climate and socio-economic change across sectors, scenarios and spatial scales) is one that increases coping capacity through an increase in social and human capital. See pages 26 to 29.

⇨ A review of adaptation and mitigation measures showed that almost all had impacts beyond the original intended one, often in a different sector(s) and many of these were cross-sectoral interactions. Those between adaptation and mitigation measures were positive, representing potentially cost-effective synergies for addressing climate change. See pages 30 and 31.

How can policy promote climate change adaptation?

Adaptation to the changing climate is an urgent policy issue which has high stakes for current and future societies. Climate change adaptation is gaining importance at the EU level since it has been recognised that climate change mitigation alone, though still of primary importance, no longer constitutes an effective climate change policy. A strategic approach, establishing national, regional and local adaptation strategies with clear timetables, financing of knowledge creation and the building of knowledge hubs, is advocated, rather than piecemeal and spontaneous approaches characterised by ad-hoc reactions to climatic events.

It is argued throughout official EU documents that adaptation to the changing climate can be characterised as a positive gain for all sectors and social groups both with regard to environmental as well as economic gains. The toolbox for adaptation contains a wealth of market-based instruments (economic incentives and disincentives) serving the need for material adaptation, and so-called soft policy tools, such as changing the attitudes, values, and norms of economic actors (including producers and consumers) aiming at institutional modification. The EU Adaptation Policy Framework is based on four pillars: knowledge generation, policy integration, developing a diverse pool of policy instruments, and cooperation and partnership (see Figure 1).

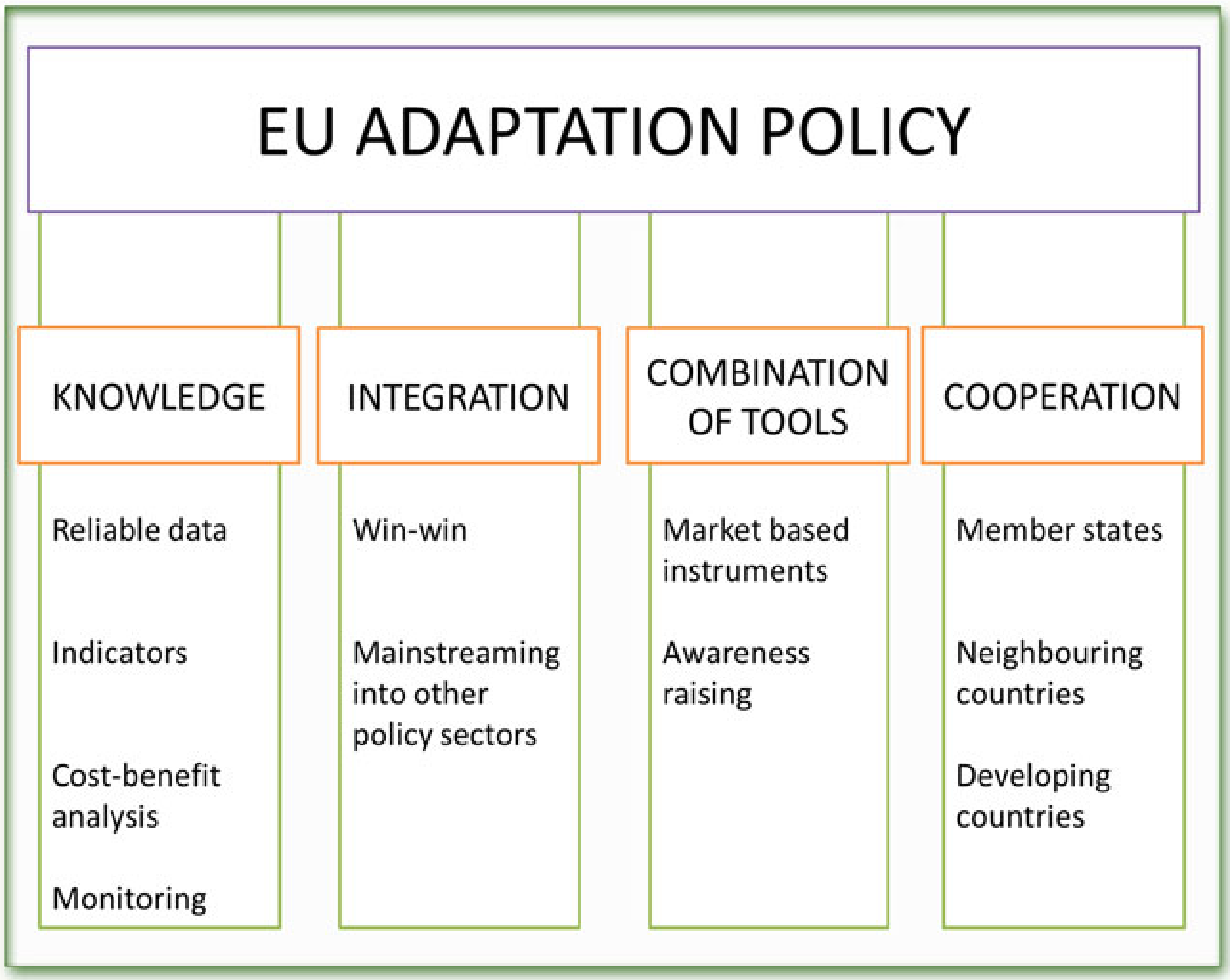
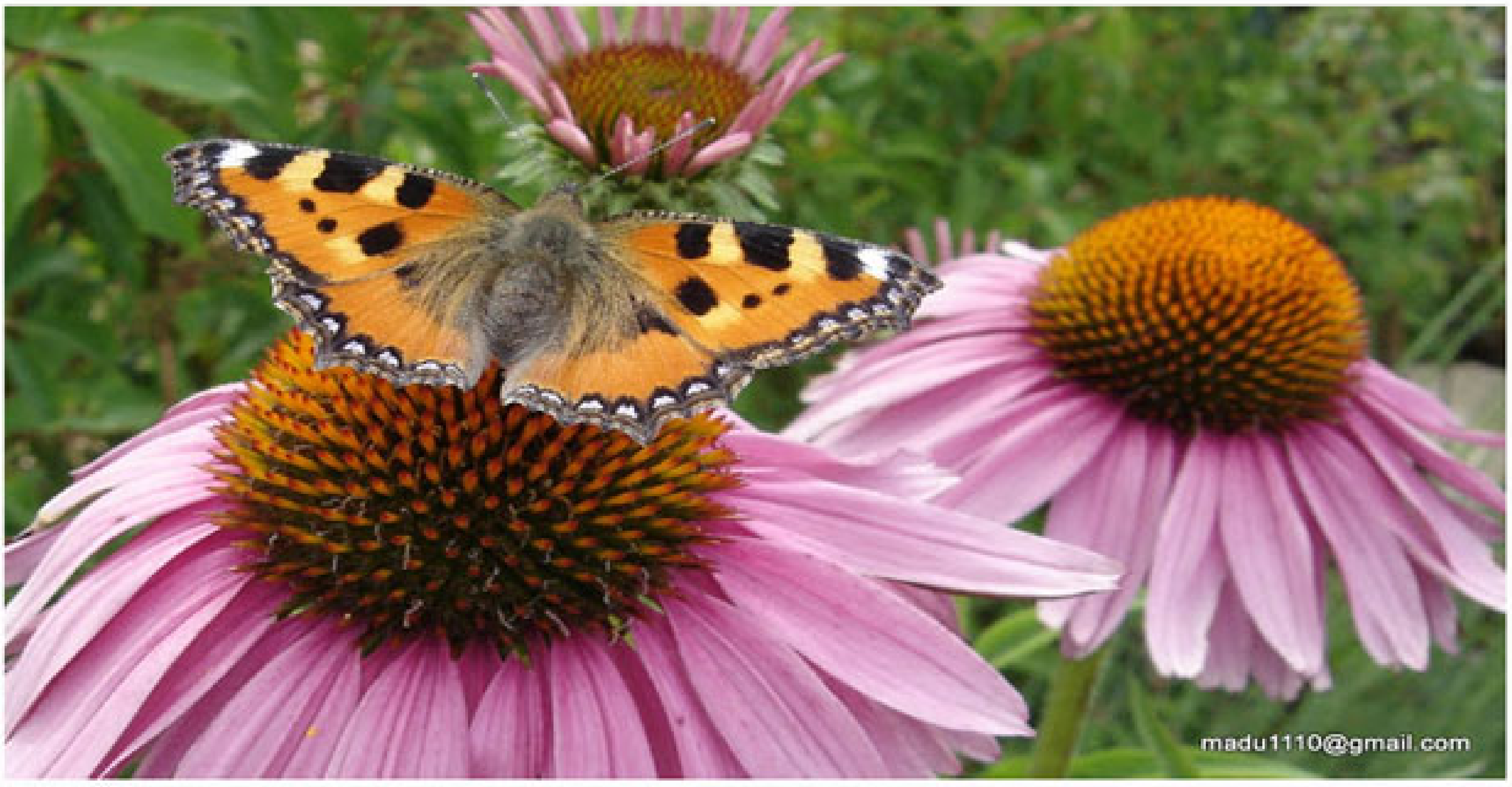


Figure 1 : EU Adaptation Policy Framework. Based on the White Paper on "Adapting to climate change: Towards a European framework for action" (COM(2009) 147).

Climate change cannot be treated as a stand-alone policy issue as it affects many other policy sectors, including health, energy, mobility, water, biodiversity and food. An effective climate change adaptation policy needs to evaluate policies against adaptation requirements as routine practice. Therefore, the EU has placed special emphasis on integrating or mainstreaming climate issues into other policy sectors supported by guidelines for so-called 'climate-proofing'.

Nature conservation and agriculture are particularly relevant policy sectors to be considered with regard to the impacts of climate change and the requirements for adaptation. It is argued that the best insurance against a changing climate are healthy ecosystems that are able to adapt without compromising their services to human societies, including safe water, flood control and food provision. Conserving and investing in healthy ecosystems leads us to a so-called ecosystem-based adaptation policy that is cost-effective (nature provides her services for free), environmentally friendly (maintaining biodiversity), and socially just (access to all is not compromised).

Agricultural experts state that adaptation has always been part of farmers' repertoire in responding to changing circumstances, including the climate. Adaptation policy-making, therefore, should take this into consideration and avoid crowding-out private motivations for adapting to the changing climate by using public resources carelessly. The renewal of the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) of the EU provides a key opportunity for incorporating adaptation requirements and incentives for land use management practices that are more climate-friendly.



A considerable part of climate policy in the EU, as well as Member States, has originated from international environmental agreements and policy-making. In addition, local actors have also initiated climate adaptation strategies that feedback to the scale of EU climate policy-making. Consequently, adaptation policy-making is a multi-level issue, ranging from international cooperation through the EU, regional, and national level to the very local context. Adaptation activities and decisions are inherently local and based on contextual knowledge. Therefore, adaptation to climate change, and consequently the limits of adaptation, cannot be understood and supported without reference to their local contexts. Local and regional levels of governance should, therefore, be better equipped and enabled for carrying out specific planning and operational activities. The national level has a significant role to play in establishing a favourable and enabling legal and political context. The EU aims to provide added value in coordinating Member States' actions, building up a knowledge base to share experience and best practices (e.g. http://climate-adapt.eea.europa.eu/), and developing financial mechanisms for motivating effective actions (proposing 20% of the European budget to be climate-related expenditure) and ensuring solidarity among European regions differentially affected by climate change. An important step forward in accomplishing this value-added potential of the EU level was the recent publication of "An EU Strategy on Adaptation to Climate Change" (COM(2013) 216).

How can stakeholders explore climate change impacts and opportunities for adaptation?

To contribute to the development of the EU knowledge base on climate change impacts, adaptation and vulnerability, CLIMSAVE has developed a web-based tool which enables decision-makers and other interested European citizens to access reliable science-based information on the risks of climate change impacts and opportunities for adaptation.

The CLIMSAVE Integrated Assessment (IA) Platform is a unique, interactive, exploratory web-based tool to allow European stakeholders to assess for themselves climate change impacts and vulnerabilities for a range of sectors (Figure 2). It provides rapid user-friendly interactivity through www.climsave.eu and the European Climate Adaptation Platform (CLIMATE-ADAPT - http://climate-adapt.eea.europa.eu/), helping to broaden accessibility and participation and increase impact in research communities.

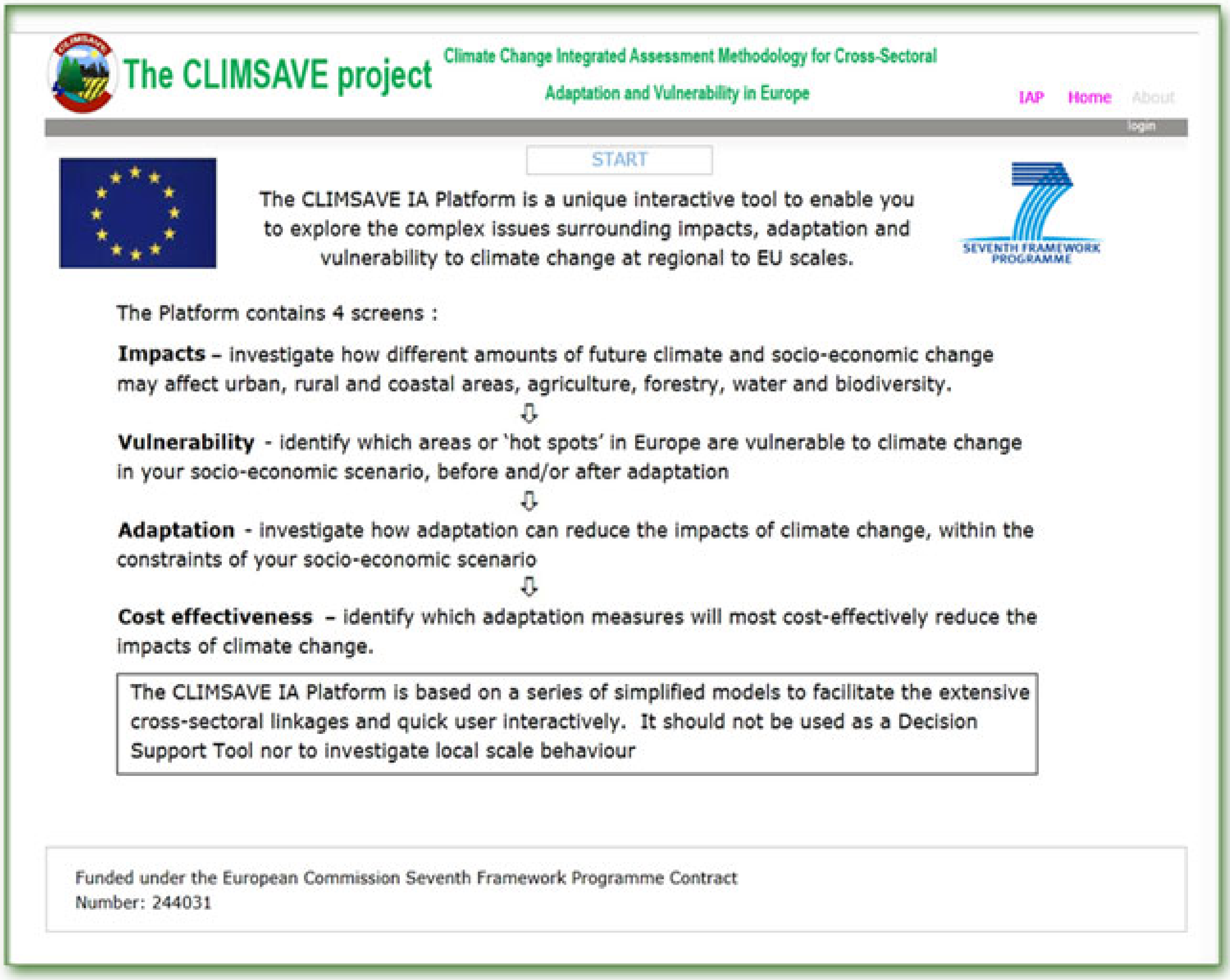


Figure 2: Introductory screen to the CLIMSAVE IA Platform.

The CLIMSAVE IA Platform screens

The CLIMSAVE IA Platform is designed to facilitate a two-way iterative process of dialogue and exploration of "what if's" through its different screens:

- **Impacts screen** – investigate how different amounts of future climate and socio-economic change may affect urban, rural and coastal areas, agriculture, forestry, water and biodiversity (Figure 3).
- **Vulnerability screen** – identify which areas or 'hot spots' in Europe are vulnerable to climate change in your selected climate and socio-economic scenarios, before and/or after adaptation (Figure 4). Vulnerable regions are those in which impacts before or after adaptation are high and the coping capacity of society is low.

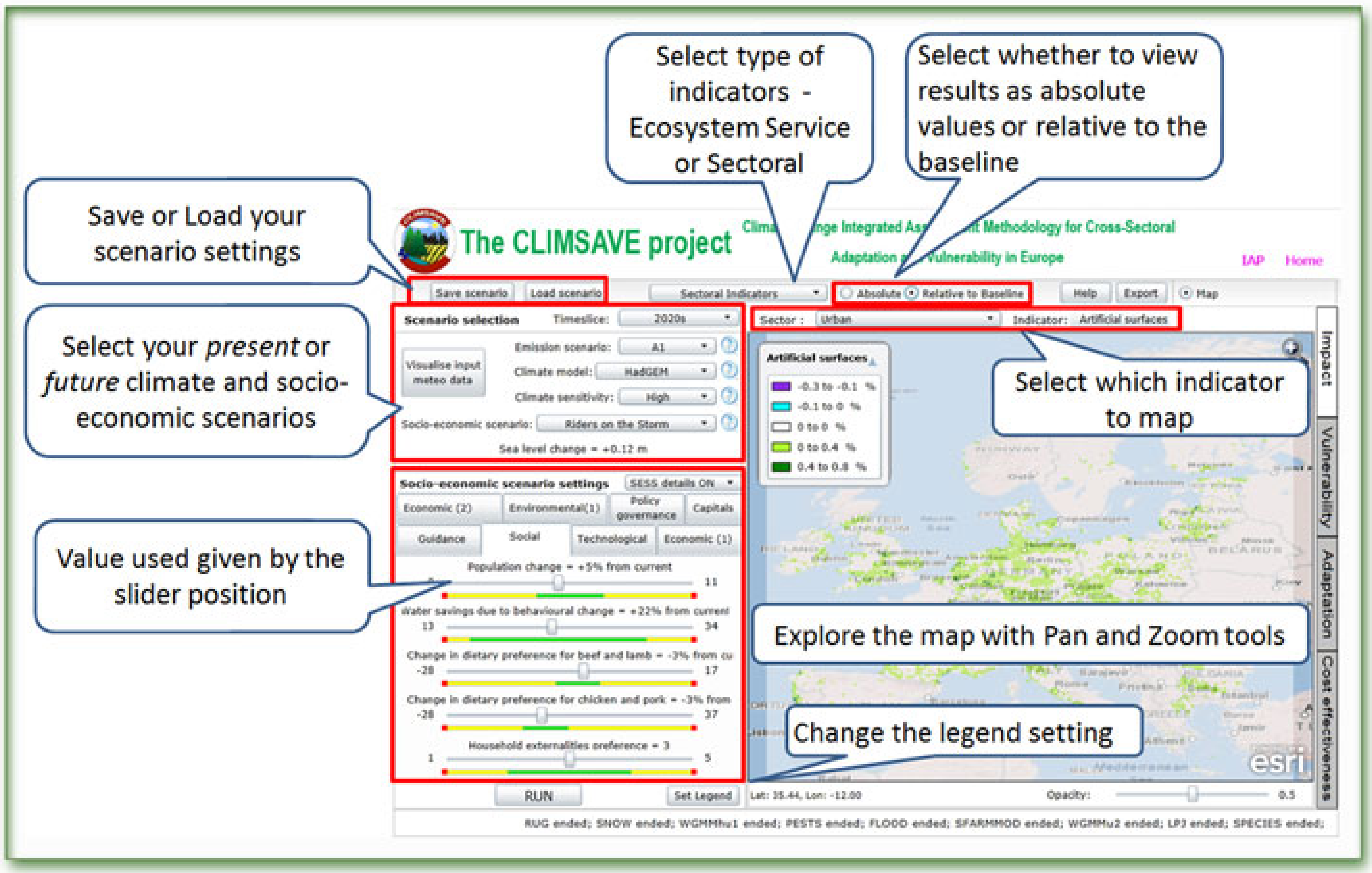


Figure 3: The Impacts screen of the European IA Platform.

⇨ **Adaptation screen** – investigate how adaptation can reduce the impacts of climate change across Europe, within the constraints of your socio-economic scenario. These include scenario-independent limits (technical, physical, etc), scenario-specific values and scenario-specific resource availability.

⇨ **Cost-effectiveness screen** – as each slider or button on the Adaptation screen represents the combined effects of multiple individual adaptation measures, this screen allows you to investigate the relative cost-effectiveness of these different adaptation measures.

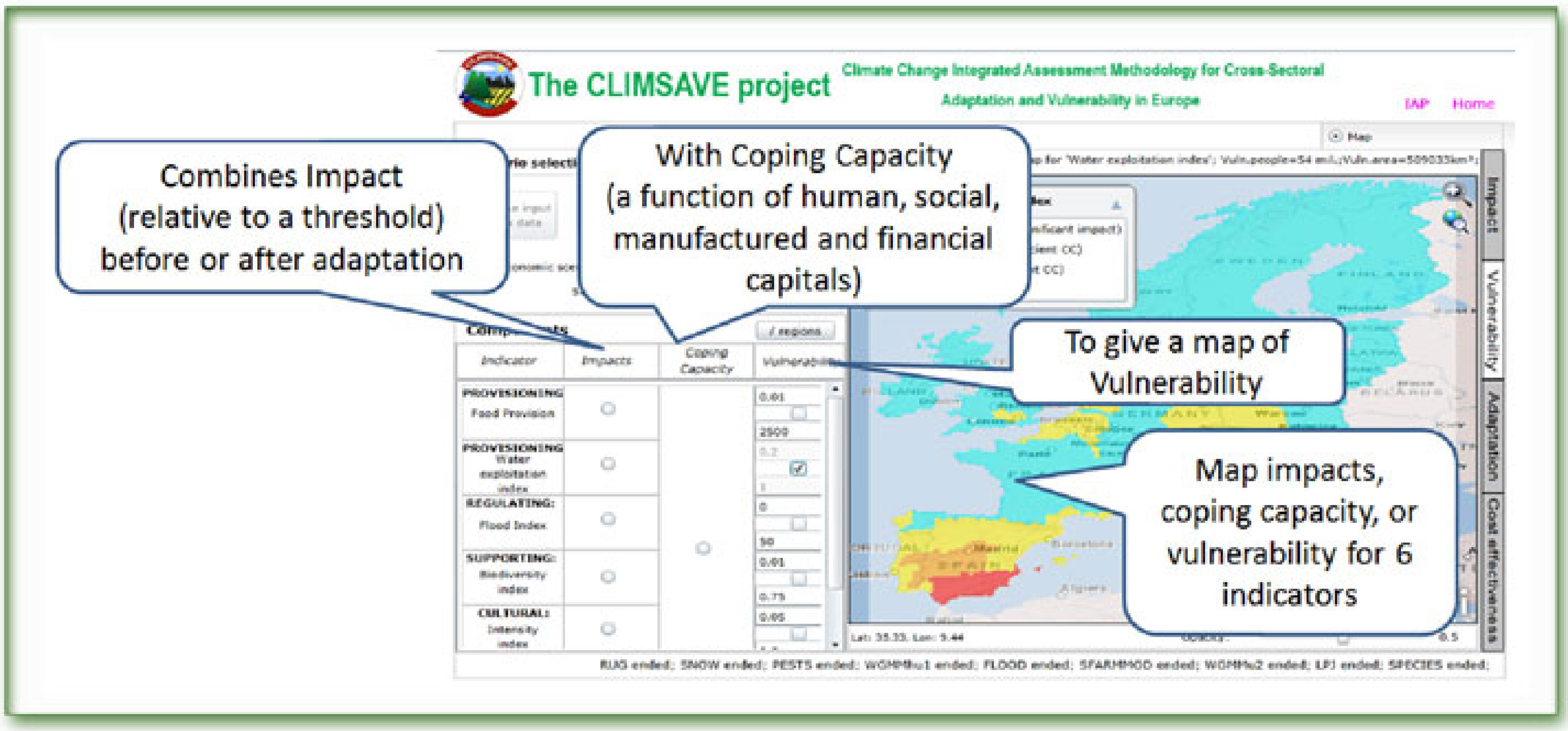


Figure 4: The Vulnerability screen of the European IA Platform.

The power of the CLIMSAVE IA Platform lies in its holistic framework (cross-sectoral, climate and socio-economic change) that is intended to complement, rather than replace, the use of more detailed sectoral tools in informing the development of robust policy responses.

What are plausible futures for Europe?

Scenarios help us to understand the different ways in which the future might develop and can be utilised to evaluate and change current thinking and, thus, improve decision-making. Scenarios can also be used, as has been done in CLIMSAVE, to integrate knowledge and enhance 'out of the box' thinking across expertise (stakeholders and researchers), disciplines (areas of expertise), and a wider range of factors, sectors and actors. Two types of scenarios have been developed: climate change scenarios and socio-economic scenarios.

Climate change scenarios

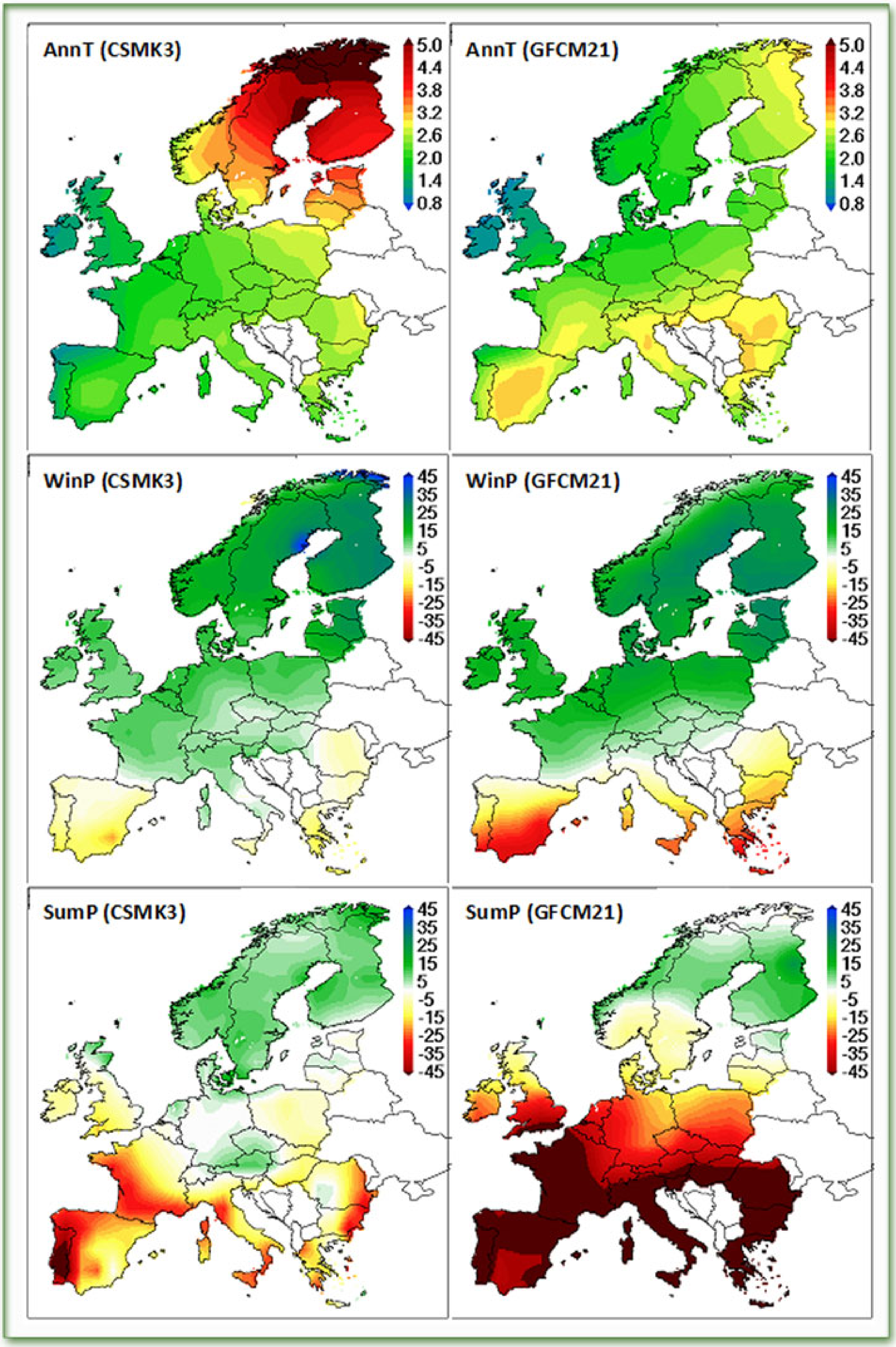
A range of climate change scenarios were prepared and incorporated within the IA Platform. The user interface to the European IA Platform allows the user to select a greenhouse gas emissions scenario (SRES A1b, A2, B1 or B2), the climate sensitivity (low, medium or high, with medium being the default) and the global climate model (GCM) in order to explore the effects of climate change uncertainties on impacts and vulnerabilities. In order to make the number of combinations manageable for the user, it was decided to include a maximum of five GCMs within the IA Platform. Thus, a methodology was developed to objectively select a representative subset of GCMs incorporating the "best" GCM (through an assessment of GCM quality, based on the fit between model and observed seasonal cycles of precipitation and temperature), the most "central" GCM (the GCM whose climate change scenario is the closest to the mean scenario over 16 available GCMs), and three other GCMs that preserve as much uncertainty as possible due to between GCM differences. The final set of GCMs selected to include in the IA Platform were: MPEH5 ("best"), CSMK3 ("central"), and HADGEM, GFCM21 and IPCM4 (the triplet of most diverse GCMs for Europe).

Projections of Europe-wide area-average temperature change range from 1.1 to 4.9^{o}C in winter and 1.0 to 3.6^{o}C in summer in the 2050s (Table 1). Projections of Europe-wide area-average precipitation changes range from increases of between 1.1 and 12.5% in winter and decreases of between 2.0 and 29.5% in summer. There are large differences in the magnitude and pattern of precipitation changes between the GCMs with GFCM21 and HadGEM showing the strongest reductions in summer precipitation (Figure 5).

Table 1: European area-average changes in winter (DJF) and summer (JJA) mean temperature and precipitation for the 2050s, the five GCMs and three combinations of emissions scenario and climate sensitivity.

Emissions	Climate sensitivity	CSMK3		IPCM4		HadGEM		GFCM21		MPEH5	
		DJF	JJA	DJF	JJA	DJF	JJA	DJF	JJA	DJF	JJA
2050s Area average temperature change (°C)											
B1	Low	1.7	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.1	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.0
B2	Medium	3.3	2.1	2.4	2.5	2.0	2.4	2.3	2.0	2.2	1.9
A1b	High	4.9	3.1	3.6	3.6	3.0	3.5	3.4	3.0	3.3	2.8
2050s Area average precipitation change (%)											
B1	Low	4.2	-2.0	2.5	-4.2	1.1	-9.6	3.6	-13.6	3.6	-7.8
B2	Medium	8.3	-3.4	4.9	-7.4	2.1	-16.8	7.2	-22.6	7.0	-13.6
A1b	High	12.5	-4.6	7.4	-10.3	3.3	-23.0	11.1	-29.5	10.6	-18.6

Figure 5: Changes in annual temperature (AnnT, °C), winter (DJF) precipitation (WinP, %) and summer (JJA) precipitation (SumP, %) for the CSMK3 and GFCM21 GCMs for the 2050s assuming an A1B emissions scenario and a medium climate sensitivity.



Socio-economic scenarios

Climate change impacts will be in addition to, or concurrent with, those associated with continuing socio-economic and political changes. Our vulnerability to climate change, therefore, needs to be evaluated in a holistic or integrated assessment of the effects of our changing future. A set of plausible socio-economic futures for Europe were developed with stakeholders through a series of workshops (Figure 6). This participatory approach has two main advantages. Firstly, by developing qualitative scenarios in the form of stories it is relatively easy for a broad range of stakeholders from different backgrounds, expertise and professions to participate. Additionally, the stories are a good basis to stimulate discussion and ultimately shared learning. Secondly, stakeholders quantify the resulting stories, which serve as an important input for the CLIMSAVE IA Platform. In this way, the perspectives of stakeholders on future developments in a number of key sectors, such as agriculture, water, forests and biodiversity can be integrated with model outputs, leading to a set of qualitative and quantitative scenarios co-produced by stakeholders and CLIMSAVE experts.

The CLIMSAVE project developed these scenarios through three professionally facilitated, participatory workshops, which were very positively evaluated by stakeholders. In addition to the development of long-term scenarios of socio-economic change, adaptation options for reducing climate change vulnerability were appraised.

Figure 6: Photo from the 2nd European stakeholder workshop held in Prague in February 2012.

The scenarios were developed by looking at forces that drive changes within society and the environment we live in, including changes in social, economic and institutional factors. Stakeholders participating in the workshops drafted a list of the main uncertainties facing Europe and from this list selected two key uncertainties that formed the basis for four scenarios (Figure 7). The two key uncertainties were whether solutions by innovation would be effective or ineffective and whether economic development would be gradual or rollercoaster.

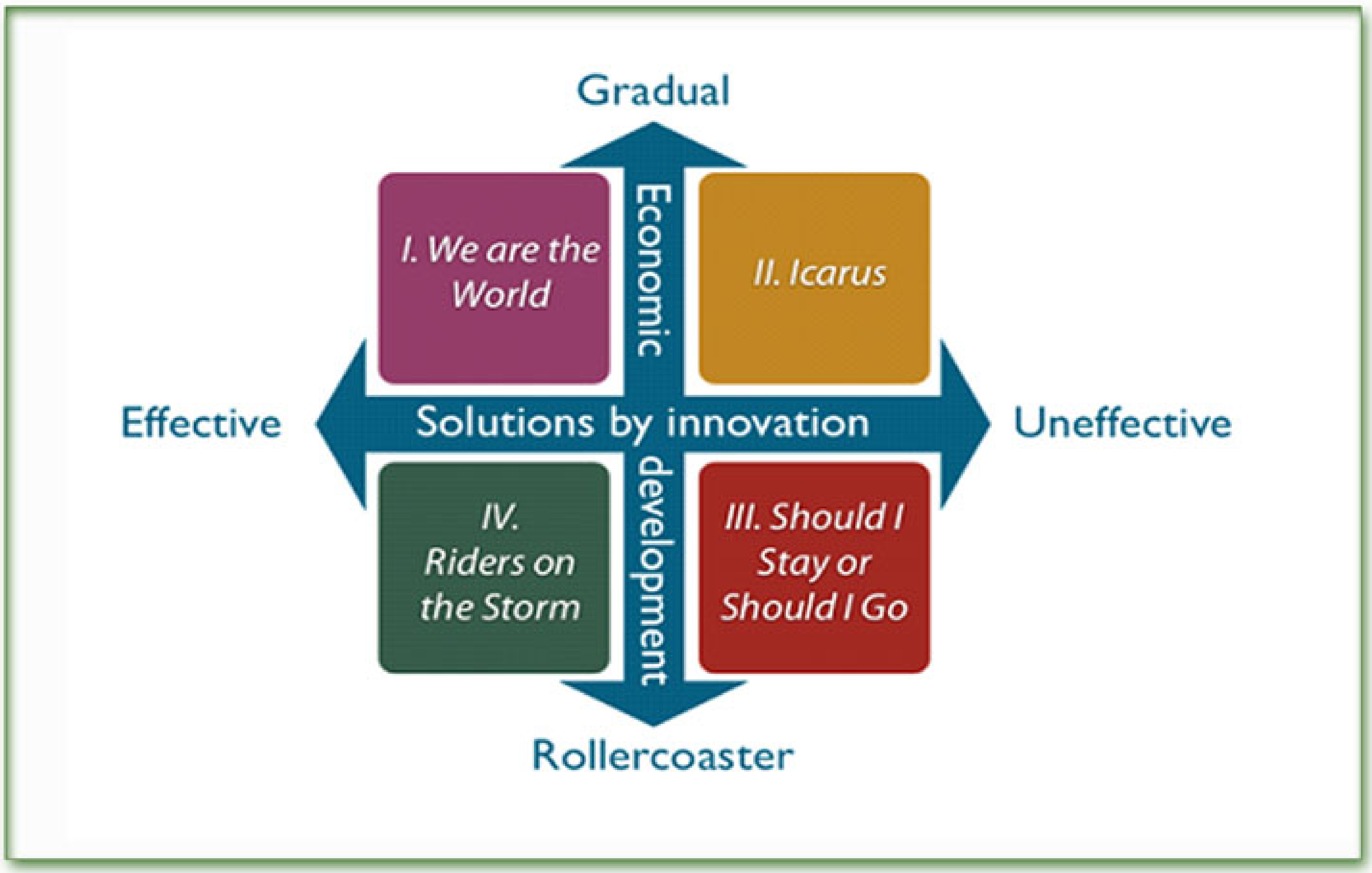


Figure 7: Structure and names of the four CLIMSAVE socio-economic scenarios for Europe.

The most prosperous future scenario, combining high levels of innovation and gradual economic development is We are the World; where effective governments change the focus from GDP to well-being, which leads to a redistribution of wealth, and thus to less inequality and more (global) cooperation.

In comparison, governments in the Icarus scenario focus on short-term policy planning, which together with a gradually stagnating economy, leads to the disintegration of the social fabric and to a shortage of goods and services.

The Should I Stay or Should I Go scenario is characterised by actors failing to address a rollercoaster of economic crises, which leads to an increased gap between rich and poor, to political instability and to conflicts. In this scenario most citizens live in an insecure and unstable world.

The Riders on the Storm scenario is equally hit hard by continual economic crises. However, actors successfully counter the situation through investment in renewable energies and green technologies. In this scenario Europe is an important player in a turbulent world.

The CLIMSAVE socio-economic scenarios illustrate that a broad range of futures are envisioned to be plausible for Europe, ranging from the very positive (We are the World) to the very negative (Should I Stay or Should I Go).

What are the key impacts of climate change?

Numerous studies have explored the impacts of climate change at a variety of spatial scales in Europe. However, most of these treat each sector independently thereby ignoring important feedbacks and cross-sectoral interactions. Cross-sectoral interactions are important since changes in one sector can affect another sector either directly, e.g. changes in land use affect regional hydrology or biodiversity, or indirectly through policy, e.g. measures designed for coastal flood defence also impact on coastal habitat. Ignoring cross-sectoral interactions can lead to either over- or under-estimation of climate change impacts and the need for adaptation. Furthermore, many previous studies report the impacts of climate change under current socio-economic conditions, but in fact impacts will interact with those associated with continuing socio-economic and political changes, in potentially complex, non-additive ways.

The CLIMSAVE IA Platform was run for 50 climate change and socio-economic change scenarios for the 2050s timeslice to explore the effects of climate change uncertainties on cross-sectoral impacts. The scenario combinations can be categorised into three groups:

- ⇨ Climate scenarios for the five GCMs incorporated within the IA Platform (see pages 8-9) combined with a low emissions scenario (B1) and low climate sensitivity (5 runs);
- ⇨ Climate scenarios for the same five GCMs combined with a high emissions scenario (A1) and high climate sensitivity (5 runs); and
- ⇨ Climate scenarios (the 10 runs above) combined with the four CLIMSAVE socio-economic scenarios (see pages 10-11; 40 runs).

Each scenario run was analysed for thirteen indicators representing the six sectors considered within CLIMSAVE (agriculture, forestry, biodiversity, water, coasts and urban). The indicators were analysed for the whole of Europe and four catchment-based regions for northern, western, eastern and southern Europe.

Uncertainty in future impacts due to climate scenarios

The effects of uncertainty due to the climate change scenarios (assuming baseline socio-economics) are shown in Table 2. This shows the minimum and maximum area-average values across the 10 climate change scenarios for each indicator and region. Most indicators are expressed as percentage change from the baseline, except for the biodiversity vulnerability index and Intensity Index (where the indices are already calculated relative to the baseline) and irrigation usage and forest area which are given as absolute changes. The results show that there is reasonable confidence in the direction of change for most indicators and regions with only water availability at the European scale, intensively farmed area and water availability for western Europe and extensively farmed area for southern Europe showing uncertainty in the direction of change. The robust results are that:

- ⇨ There is no change in **artificial surfaces** as climatic factors do not influence urban development.
- ⇨ The number of **people affected by a 1 in 100 year flood** increases in northern, southern and western Europe, but declines in eastern Europe. The increases reflect the impact of the relatively modest increases in sea-level by the 2050s (18-21 cm) under the climate change scenarios on coastal towns and cities. Furthermore, at the resolution of the European grid cell, fluvial flooding doesn't significantly increase the number of people flooded in the absence of socio-economic changes.
- ⇨ **Biodiversity vulnerability** increases in southern, eastern and western Europe, but may improve in northern Europe. The index is based on a group of 12 species selected to represent a cross-section of European species from different taxa, regions and habitats. Their vulnerability increases when the climate becomes less suitable. The reduction in vulnerability in northern Europe compared to increases in vulnerability elsewhere reflects many of the selected species gaining climate space in the north as it gets warmer and sometimes wetter.

Table 2: Minimum and maximum values of the mean change from baseline for the 2050s for the climate change scenarios combined with baseline socio-economics. Coloured cells show indicators where the minimum and maximum trends are in different directions; where this is not the case the direction of the trend may be seen as robust in the context of the scenarios.

Indicator	Europe		West		South		East		North	
	Min	Mix	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max
Artificial surfaces (%)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
People flooded (%)	0.5	0.9	1.7	2.6	0.5	1.1	-1.0	-0.4	0.1	0.2
Biodiversity VI (-)	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.0	0.3	-0.4	-0.1
Intensively farmed (%)	-3.6	-0.6	-5.7	1.9	-19.0	-9.1	-10.2	-6.0	5.4	10.0
Extensively farmed (%)	-7.1	-2.0	0.8	7.7	-8.3	4.2	1.6	8.3	-20.3	-17.9
Food production (%)	228	280	328	431	275	337	154	236	113	209
Forest area (km²)	-1995	-1389	-2999	-1799	-1768	-904	-1799	-1072	-1817	-1059
Unmanaged land (%)	10.7	20.5	3.5	14.2	9.3	33.9	4.9	15.0	19.0	22.3
Intensity index (-)	-0.1	0.0	-0.1	0.0	-0.2	-0.1	-0.1	0.0	-0.1	-0.1
Land use diversity (%)	-0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	-0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	-0.2	-0.1
Water availability (%)	-5090	287	-10397	68	-11080	-2419	-7377	-764	227	5608
Water Exploitation Index (%)	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.6	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.0
Irrigation usage (10^3 m³/yr)	0.5	0.9	0.0	0.3	1.7	2.7	0.7	1.5	0.0	0.0

Table 3: Minimum and maximum values of the mean change from baseline for the 2050s for the climate change scenarios combined with the CLIMSAVE socio-economic scenarios. Coloured cells show indicators where the minimum and maximum trends are in different directions; where this is not the case the direction of the trend may be seen as robust in the context of the scenarios.

Indicator	Europe		West		South		East		North	
	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max
Artificial surfaces (%)	0.0	1.2	0.0	2.5	0.0	1.0	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.6
People flooded (%)	-0.2	2.7	0.5	5.3	-0.2	2.5	-1.9	7.8	0.0	0.6
Biodiversity VI (-)	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.3	0.1	0.5	0.0	0.4	-0.4	0.0
Intensively farmed (%)	-5.5	26.7	-9.0	23.7	-20.7	21.4	-20.5	28.1	3.6	31.7
Extensively farmed (%)	-7.8	5.3	-3.8	7.2	-9.6	7.2	-3.5	12.4	-20.5	4.6
Food production (%)	199	353	302	502	198	398	157	350	101	286
Forest area (km²)	-4159	-1451	-4340	-1822	-2977	-959	-4875	-653	-4279	-945
Unmanaged land (%)	-1.5	22.5	-0.1	16.4	-0.2	33.4	-0.2	25.7	-4.4	26.2
Intensity index (-)	-0.1	0.1	-0.1	0.1	-0.2	0.1	-0.2	0.1	-0.1	0.2
Land use diversity (%)	-0.1	0.0	-0.2	0.1	-0.3	0.1	-0.3	0.0	-0.2	0.2
Water availability (%)	-5090	287	-10397	68	-11080	-2419	-7377	-764	227	5608
Water Exploitation Index (%)	0.0	0.3	-0.1	0.2	0.1	0.7	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.0
Irrigation usage (10^3 m³/yr)	0.2	2.4	0.0	3.1	0.4	5.3	0.3	4.0	0.0	0.0

⇨ **Land use indicators**: **Intensive farming** decreases in southern and eastern Europe, and increases in northern Europe. **Extensive farming** decreases in northern Europe, and increases in western and eastern Europe. **Food production** increases across all regions of Europe. Forest area decreases across all regions of Europe. **Unmanaged land** increases across all regions of Europe. The land use model's primary challenge is to ensure that enough food is supplied to support the European population. This focus on food provision has the knock-on impact that, even in the absence of socio-economic scenarios, forest area declines often to be replaced by intensive or extensive agriculture.

⇨ The **land use summary** indicators reflect changes in land use with the **intensity index** showing no change or a decrease across all regions of Europe. **Land use diversity** decreases in southern and northern Europe, but shows no change in western and eastern Europe.

⇨ **Water-related indicators: Water availability** decreases in southern and eastern Europe, and increases in northern Europe. This indicator is entirely climatically driven, reflecting changes in precipitation. The **water exploitation index** shows increases in most regions, but no change in northern Europe. **Irrigation usage** increases in all regions, but northern Europe; most notably in southern and eastern Europe.

Uncertainty in future impacts due to climate and socio-economic scenarios

To evaluate the importance of future socio-economic change to the impact range associated with climate change uncertainty, Table 3 shows the minimum and maximum area-average change for each indicator and region when the climate change scenarios are combined with the CLIMSAVE socio-economic scenarios. The results show that there is increasing uncertainty in the direction of change at both the European and regional scales. The results show:

⇨ The socio-economic scenarios generally encourage **artificial surfaces** to increase. The model is heavily driven by population and GDP changes. Therefore, socio-economic scenarios with high population increase and higher GDP, such as Riders on the Storm, see the most growth. Icarus has a population decline and as such shows no growth.

⇨ The number of **people affected by a 1 in 100 year flood** increases in western and northern Europe, but the range is greater than seen for the climate scenarios alone. There is no clear trend for southern and eastern Europe. This indicator is largely driven by changes in urban area driven by population and GDP.

⇨ The socio-economic scenarios exacerbate the changes in the **biodiversity vulnerability index** driven by climate. This reflects changes in habitat availability driven by a range of socio-economic factors which affect land use change.

⇨ Land use indicators: The socio-economic scenarios make a significant difference to the patterns of **intensive and extensive farming** and **unmanaged land**: there is no longer a clear message for any region of Europe with the exception of intensive farming in northern Europe which shows general increases. **Food production** increases across Europe whilst **forest area** decreases across Europe; the socio-economic scenarios considerably increase the range of possible outcomes. In scenarios such as Should I Stay or Should I Go, where pressure is put on the food resource due to increasing population and failed agricultural innovation there are significant increases in food production and intensive farming and the decline in extensive farming is less marked, whilst the area of unmanaged land and forestry decline greatly. Conversely in scenarios where the population declines (Icarus) or innovations are successful and dietary preferences change (We are the World and Riders on the Storm) the area of unmanaged land increases and more mixed patterns are seen in terms of food production and intensive farming.

⇨ Land use summary indicators: The socio-economic scenarios heavily influence the land use **intensity index** and **land use diversity**. The intensity index increases in the Should I Stay or Should I Go scenario and decreases in other scenarios. The changing patterns in land use also lead to mixed impacts on land use diversity – some regions, such as southern and northern Europe gain new land use classes – and thus increase in diversity as a result of intensification, whilst other areas such as

western and eastern Europe decrease in diversity due to loss of forest and unmanaged land and an increase in intensive agriculture

⇨ **Water-related indicators:** There is no socio-economic influence on **water availability**. The socio-economic scenarios exacerbate the increase driven by climate alone in the **water exploitation index** for southern and eastern Europe reflecting changes in both climate and socio-economic factors driving water extraction for agriculture, domestic/industrial use and power generation. In western Europe there is no clear message as some scenarios show a decrease in water exploitation and others an increase. In northern Europe there is no change in water exploitation. **Irrigation usage** increases in all areas (except northern Europe), but most notably in southern and eastern Europe; the socio-economic scenarios significantly modify the extent of this irrigation, both positively and negatively. In the scenarios where water-related innovations are unsuccessful (Icarus and Should I Stay or Should I Go), the water exploitation index is considerably higher (greater stress) and irrigation use is considerably lower. Conversely the scenarios where water-saving innovations are successful (We are the World and Riders on the Storm) use significant amounts of irrigation, particularly in southern Europe, whilst maintaining lower water exploitation values in comparison to the impacts based on climate change alone.

Reflection

The outputs for each of the thirteen modelled indicators for each of the 50 scenario combinations were tested for significant differences compared to the modelled baseline. Between 82% and 92% of indicator-scenario combinations were found to be statistically significantly different from the baseline for Europe and the four regions. These results clearly show that Europe will be significantly influenced by future change. The results also show that non-climatic pressures, such as future socio-economic change, may be at least as, if not more, important than climate change, but there are many compounding and interacting effects (Figure 8). This highlights the importance of quantifying future impacts for both climate and socio-economic change to more fully capture uncertainties which can better inform the assessment of robust adaptation options.

Figure 8: Cross-sectoral summary of changes in the 25th and 75th percentiles of indicator distributions for Europe and the four regions for the 2050s. 2050 BL is based on climate-only scenarios with baseline socio-economics. 2050 WRW and 2050 SoG are based on combined climate and socio-economic scenarios (WRW: We are the World and SoG: Should I Stay or Should I Go).

	2050 BL					2050 WRW					2050 SoG				
	Eu	N	W	E	S	Eu	N	W	E	S	Eu	N	W	E	S
Artificial surfaces (%)	∘	∘	∘	∘	∘	+	↑	↑	+	+	∘	∘	∘	+	∘
People flooded (1000s people)	↑	∘	+	↑	↑	↑	∘	+	↑	↑	↑	∘	+	↑	↑
Water Exploitation Index (-)	↕	-	+	+	↑	-	-	-	↓	↑	↑	+	↑	+	↑
Irrigation usage (m^3/yr)	↑	∘	∘	-	↑	↑	∘	↑	+	↑	∘	∘	∘	↓	↑
Biodiversity VI (-)	+	-	+	+	↑	+	-	+	+	↑	+	-	+	+	+
Food production (cal/day)	↓	↑	-	>	↓	↕	↑	-	↓	↕	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑
Intensively farmed (%)	∘	↑	-	+	↓	-	↑	-	↓	↓	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑
Extensively farmed (%)	↓	↓	↑	↓	↓	↓	↓	↕	↓	↓	-	+	-	↓	↓
Forest area (km^2)	↓	-	↓	+	↓	↓	-	↓	+	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
Unmanaged land (%)	↑	↑	↑	↓	↑	↑	↑	↑	↕	↑	∘	-	-	↓	∘
Intensity index (-)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+

↑	Increase >50% in either the 25th or 75th percentile with a non-negative change in the other
+	Increase >5% in either the 25th or 75th percentile with a non-negative change in the other
∘	Change < ±5% in both the 25th or 75th percentile
-	Increase >5% in either the 25th or 75th percentile with a non-positive change in the other
↓	Decrease >50% in either the 25th or 75th percentile with a non-positive change in the other
>	Decrease > 5% in 75th percentile and Increase > 5% in 25th percentile – contracting distribution
↕	Increase > 5% in 75th percentile and decrease > 5% in 25th percentile – widening distribution

How might Europe adapt to climate change?

Adaptation can be achieved through 'hard' options and 'soft' options. Hard options are engineering and technological solutions; soft options seek to change knowledge or behaviour (and can include changing information and incentives relating to adoption of hard options). Adaptation can be anticipatory or reactive, planned or autonomous. Anticipatory or proactive adaptation takes place before impacts of climate change are observed. Reactive adaptation takes place after the impacts of climate change have been observed. Behavioural changes taken by private actors as a reaction to actual or expected climate change are known as "autonomous" adaptation. Planned adaptation is the result of a deliberate policy decision based on an awareness that conditions have changed and that action is required to return to, maintain, or achieve a desired state. This is partly a matter of perspective: adaptation that is 'planned' by an individual farmer may be viewed as 'autonomous' by the ministry of agriculture (when farmers just get on and do it without any ministry intervention).

Within CLIMSAVE, autonomous adaptation, both anticipatory and reactive, occurs within the meta-models which run inside the IA Platform: for example, the agriculture model automatically selects the best crops for the climate and economic conditions. Planned adaptation is implemented by the Platform user changing the sliders or buttons that control the models – for example, changing the rate at which agricultural technology improves. Each of the sliders represent broad adaptation responses, which could be made up of a range of specific adaptation options, individually or in combination, in most cases including both hard options and soft options. Which options could actually be used is a matter of choice, and depends on the scenario and resources (capitals) available: for example, high wealth scenarios are well suited to expensive solutions; scenarios with strong government are well suited to regulatory and tax solutions; and so on. The cost-effectiveness screen seeks to aid Platform users in thinking about these choices, highlighting the costs, effectiveness, and capital requirements of the different options available for influencing a slider (see pages 20-21).

CLIMSAVE does not seek to cover all adaptation options, partly because it does not cover all sectors (so there are options in, for example, transport, health and industry that are not included) and partly because the sliders that control the models in the Platform do not reflect every possible aspect of the sectors modelled. Nevertheless, the sliders do cover a very wide range of possible options, and in particular for sectors with a strong influence on land use and land cover.

These adaptation options were identified in three main ways. Firstly, research into cost-effectiveness involved a wide-ranging search for estimates of the actual costs of adaptation options, resulting in an extensive database of (primarily hard) adaptation options (see pages 20-21). Secondly, work on adaptation and mitigation synergies and their cross-sectoral impacts involved a broader search (i.e. without the focus on costed options) for information on adaptation options (see pages 30-31). And finally, a range of additional ideas for future adaptation options, including many soft options, were developed in the CLIMSAVE stakeholder workshops, focusing on the sets of adaptation options that might be appropriate under the different future socio-economic scenarios developed by the stakeholders (see pages 10-11).

Agricultural sector

The agricultural sector has a capacity for autonomous adaptation through crop choices and changing practices, including the timing of crop operations, water management and changes in tillage. These can be encouraged by soft options, such as support and extension programmes to help farmers make the best choices. Hard/technological options include investments in conventional or GM crop breeding, better irrigation systems, increased mechanisation and precision farming methods. Different uses of fertilizers, nitrification inhibitors and so on can influence both yields and the environmental impact of farming. At a societal level, changes in diet, for example discouraging meat consumption, could reduce pressure on

agricultural systems. Expanding into marginal land could increase output, but could also have serious consequences for other sectors, notably biodiversity but also water and perhaps forestry and flooding. Increasing food imports could reduce domestic pressures, but could make people more vulnerable by making food supply more dependent on environmental and political conditions in foreign states.

Forestry sector

Like agriculture, there is a degree of autonomous adaptation in the forestry sector as private foresters will consider climate factors when making choices about tree species and forest management. However, the time lags in forestry are particularly large and this places a strong emphasis on outreach and information programmes to help foresters take the best long-term projections into account. Adaptation options to ensure timber demand is met include planting drought-resistant species, measures to reduce fire risks, and afforestation/reforestation of new areas. Cross-sectoral effects may be variable: newly wooded land could reduce land for agriculture and nature conservation, but could also benefit biodiversity. Water supplies may be cleaner and released in a more controlled fashion, with flood risks reduced, but water quantities can also be reduced due to increased interception by tree canopies. This is unlikely to be a problem in relatively wet, low population areas such as Scotland and Scandinavia, but could be a serious limitation in hotter, drier regions.

Water sector

Adaptation options in the water sector include various 'hard' options for improving water storage, such as dam construction, desalination, aquifer recharge and even using renewable energy to extract water from the atmosphere. Many of these options are large-scale, but smaller scale equivalents exist and could be encouraged using soft options such as information programmes or subsidies for investments. Behavioural change could also be important for adaptation in the water sector; encouraging more efficient water use and avoiding waste. Finally, plans might be needed for deciding how water is to be apportioned during drought conditions: when there is not enough to meet all demands, does priority go to households, industry, agriculture or nature (maintaining river flows)?

Coasts/Flooding sector

Climate change and sea-level rise make adaptation options for reducing flooding an important issue in all areas with developed coasts and floodplains. There are many hard options, ranging from very expensive and effective measures such as sea walls and storm surge barriers, to cheaper solutions such as groynes, artificial reefs, and beach replenishment. A 'softer' approach is to facilitate more natural coastlines and floodplains through a process of managed realignment, retreating flood defences to high ground or a new line of defence, allowing wetland habitats to develop and act as natural flood defences or storage. Smaller scale options include designed-in or retrofitted changes to building architecture, for example, water-resistant floor and wall coverings, storm porches and even buildings on 'terps' (artificially raised ground). Planning options include measures to restrict building on floodplains and in at-risk coastal areas. Other soft options could be used to encourage the use of small-scale flood resilience measures, to improve knowledge on how to react to flood events, and to institute early warning and evacuation systems.

Urban sector

There are a great many adaptation options in the urban sector, but in CLIMSAVE the focus is on the extent of urban building. Keeping urban areas compact (as opposed to 'sprawled' development) will reduce pressures on surrounding green space, make mass transit systems more efficient and can help ensure proximity to key facilities. However, it could also increase vulnerability to some factors such as heat waves. The main adaptation options for urban development include planning/zoning policy (restricting greenfield development, setting minimum density requirements), incentive policies such as taxes on second homes or tax breaks on letting, or policies to make urban living more attractive (better/cheaper facilities, higher taxation on private transport).

Biodiversity sector

There are many adaptation options with indirect (cross-sectoral) impacts on biodiversity, including increases in bioenergy crops, various agricultural and forestry options, and flood adaptation options (in particular managed realignment/wetland creation). In fact, most of the CLIMSAVE adaptation options influence land use/land cover in some way, and this will often have some positive or negative indirect impacts on biodiversity. The more specific biodiversity options in the IA Platform are primarily associated with increasing protected areas and with set-aside policy, i.e. policy to compensate farmers for leaving farmland out of production. There are many more detailed options – in particular, assisted migration/managed relocation and the creation/management of biodiversity corridors and networks to help species adapt to climate change – however, these more detailed and spatially-specific policies cannot be represented directly in the Platform.

Using the IA Platform to explore adaptation options: An illustration

To illustrate how the CLIMSAVE IA Platform can be used to investigate impacts and adaptation, we consider the effects of climate and socio-economic change on the Eurasian Bittern or Great Bittern (*Botaurus stellaris*), a wetland bird with a large range across Europe but with a decreasing population. Using a single illustrative climate change scenario within the IA Platform, the bittern will face pressures due to the changing suitability of the climate across important habitat areas in southern and south eastern Europe (Figure 9). This pressure is compounded by water abstraction as these are also areas of increased future water stress due to low water availability and high water demand – the climate change scenario leads to a further 11 river basins experiencing water stress (Figure 9).

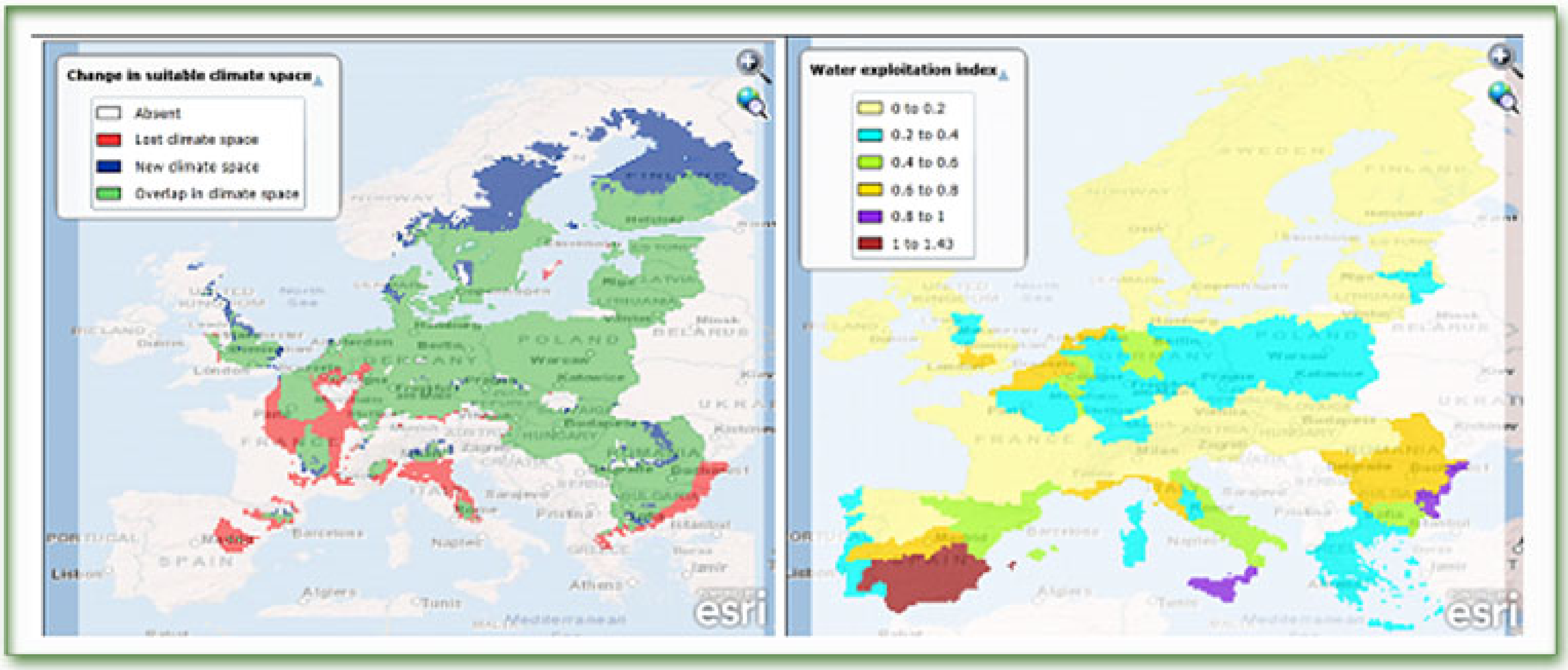


Figure 9: Illustrative example of the pressures from future changing climate suitability (left map) and water stress (right map; indicated by a Water Exploitation Index of >0.4) for the Great Bittern in Europe.

The IA Platform was used to investigate how two contrasting CLIMSAVE socio-economic futures (We are the World and Icarus; see pages 10-11) modify the impacts due to climate change, and how these two futures affect the potential of adaptation to reduce the pressures. Without any adaptation, We are the World is shown in Table 4 to reduce the number of water stressed river basins compared to climate change alone (+7 compared to +11), but there are still seven more water stressed river basins than at present (baseline). In contrast, Icarus leads to an increase in both total water use (39% higher than the baseline) and water stressed river basins.

Water saving through behavioural change and technological change are important strategies within the We are the World scenario. However, there is insufficient adaptive capacity to offset the impacts of future change on water stress and total water use, so that maximum water savings only lead to reductions in total water use of -8%. Strategies to increase human capital within the scenario enable further water savings and consequently significant reductions in total water use and the number of water stressed river basins.

Human capital is severely reduced within the Icarus scenario preventing the effective implementation of water saving strategies due to behavioural and technological change, even though the latter is a potentially important adaptation strategy within the storyline. Because of the low starting levels of human capital in the storyline, strategies to increase human capital fail to enable sufficient additional adaptation, resulting in only small reductions in total water use of -7% and the number of water stressed river basins.

Table 4: Illustrative results of applying the CLIMSAVE IA Platform to investigate the effects of climate and socio-economic change on impacts and the potential for adaptation across Europe.

	Change in number of water stressed river basins (WEI>0.4)		Change in total water use (%)	
	We are the World	Icarus	We are the World	Icarus
Impact (relative to baseline) of:				
Climate change only	+11		+13 %	
Climate and socio-economic change	+7	+14	-6 %	+39 %
Effect of adaptation (relative to scenario impact):				
Maximum water savings	-1	-2	-8 %	-5 %
Enhanced water savings due to increased capital availability	-11	-3	-49 %	-7%

The above example illustrates how the CLIMSAVE IA Platform enables the User to explore the effects of climate and socio-economic scenarios on sectoral and ecosystem service impact indicators, and to consider the potential for adaptation to offset these impacts. However, models such as the IA Platform cannot represent many of the processes involved in adaptation and it is important for the User to consider how such modelled strategies might be implemented in practice.

Reflection

The range of adaptation options is wide, with much variety in costs, capital requirements, applicability, effectiveness and secondary (synergistic and cross-sectoral) impacts. Details of the choices are scenario dependent, but also in many cases dependent on local details that cannot be captured in the large-scale modelling of CLIMSAVE. The Platform, therefore, seeks to examine broad trends in possible adaptation, not specific details. The cost-effectiveness screen (see pages 20-21) aims to help Platform users to consider these features at the broad (cross-Europe) scale, offering a general understanding of the relative costs, potential (applicability) and effectiveness of the options, as well as of their cross-sectoral impacts. This is enough to sketch out broad scenarios for adaptation, and to inform the detailed assessment of specific adaptation plans that will be dependent on local conditions and constraints.

What are the costs of adaptation options?

Estimation of the costs and effects of adaptation options is an important step towards effective decision-making in the face of climate change. Climate change mitigation has the advantage of a clear unit of account – tonnes of emissions, weighted by greenhouse gas potential, most commonly expressed as tonnes of carbon dioxide equivalent. Calculating the cost of emissions control measures in monetary units per tonne saved (€ per tCO2e) enables comparison of the cost-effectiveness of different mitigation options. For adaptation there is no natural way to measure one 'unit' of adaptation that can be compared across different options within a single sector and, even more so, across different sectors. Nevertheless, the idea of cost-effectiveness in relation to adaptation remains important.

In the context of CLIMSAVE, adaptation options are modelled through changes in sliders in the IA Platform. Platform users test the impacts of possible adaptations by changing slider settings, and seeing how this changes the outputs that interest them. The sliders represent the combined effects of multiple possible adaptation measures. For example, the slider on flood resilience measures to reduce the amount of damages caused by a flood could be implemented through improvements to housing stock, development planning, retro-fitting or early warning systems. A list of possible adaptation options related to each slider was determined through stakeholder consultation and literature evidence. These include both 'hard' engineering options and 'soft' policy/behavioural changes.

The challenge was to capture evidence on the **costs** of each adaptation option, along with information on their effectiveness or **potential**, and on the **uncertainty** in the costs and potential, and to present this information to Platform users in a clear format that could help their thinking about the most appropriate choices (Figure 10). Furthermore, the different options could have quite different **cross-sectoral impacts** and, hence, it was necessary to develop a simplified account of these effects. Finally, adaptation options have different requirements, and might not be feasible under the conditions of particular socio-economic scenarios. Therefore, a way was needed to flag whether the availability of capital stocks (human, social, manufactured and financial capital) in a specific scenario future might limit the applicability of options or would not allow for their widespread use.

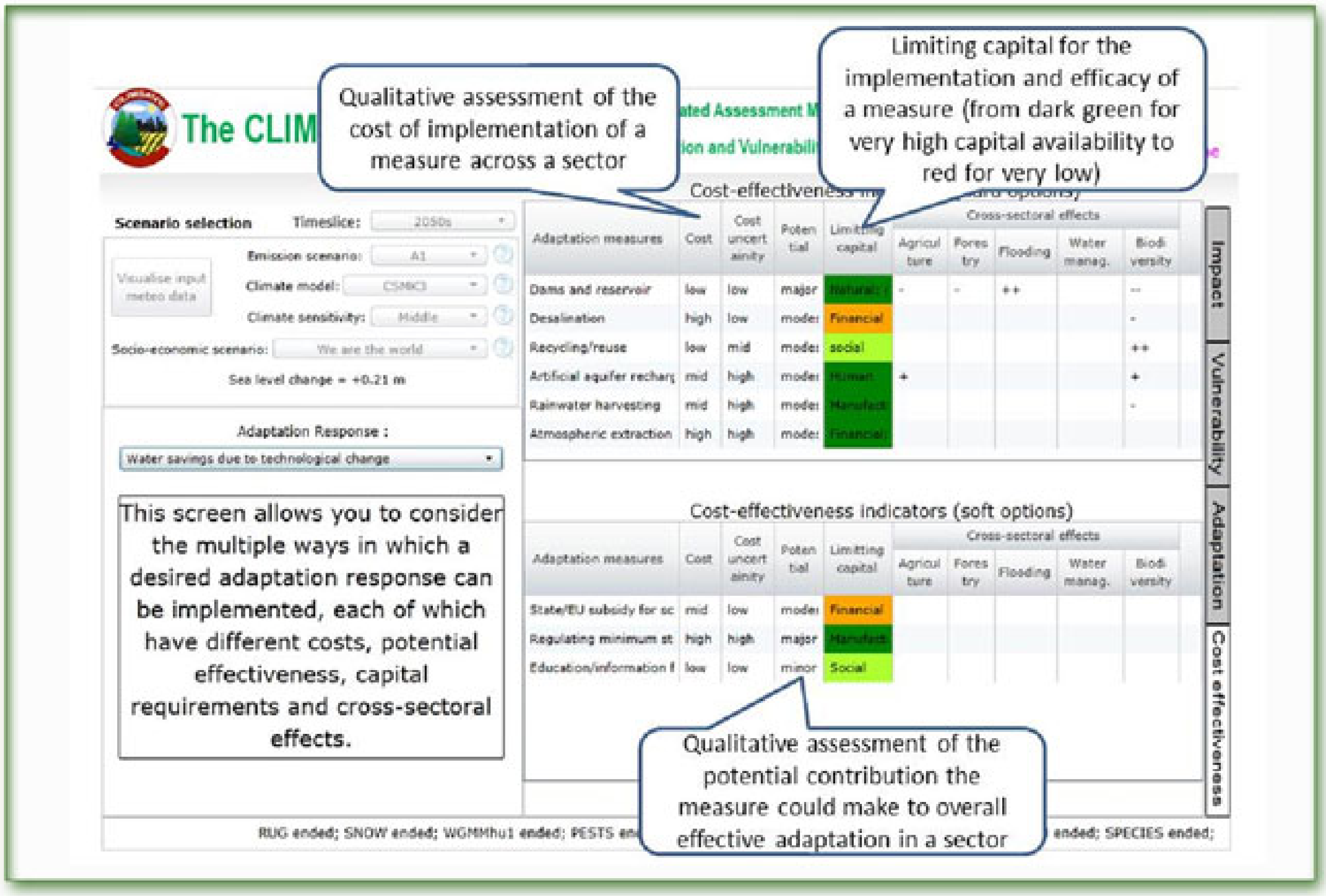


Figure 10: Cost-effectiveness screen of the IA Platform.

Information on these topics is quite rare: although there are many estimates of the costs of certain hard engineering options, these remain difficult to compare in terms of their effects, and there is little work on costs or effectiveness of soft adaptation options. There is even less information on the direction and intensity of cross-sectoral impacts, or on matches between different adaptation options and particular socio-economic scenarios.

CLIMSAVE researchers produced an extensive database of the costs of 'hard' adaptation options, drawing on hundreds of published studies from around the world. Where there are several studies of similar adaptation options, this allowed an assessment of the variability in costs, informing the assessment of the uncertainty of cost-effectiveness. The costs of 'soft' adaptation options were identified using expert judgement. The potential of hard and soft options to contribute to overall effective adaptation in a sector was also assessed using expert judgement, taking into account the way in which each slider affects the linked models underlying the IA Platform.

The feasibility of adaptation options within different socio-economic scenarios was partly tackled through stakeholder workshops, in which stakeholders identified the adaptation options thought most appropriate under different scenarios (see pages 10-11). Further work with stakeholders, indicator modelling and expert judgement led to the development of projections of capital levels under the scenarios and identification of limiting capitals for each adaptation option.

A new analytical tool, 'CrossAdapt', was developed and applied to gather information on cross-sectoral impacts. The tool was used to elicit expert judgment on the cross-sectoral effects of proposed adaptation measures in the six sectors of interest (agriculture, forestry, biodiversity, water, coasts and urban). The process targeted the effective elicitation of the type (positive or negative) and the intensity of cross-sectoral effects. As expected, experts express divergent views on a number of adaptation and cross-sectoral issues ('ambiguity effect'); this effect is lower in the urban, forestry and biodiversity sectors and higher in the water, agriculture and coastal sectors. Nevertheless, the CrossAdapt results help us to identify possible cross-sectoral impacts and to draw these to the attention of users of the CLIMSAVE IA Platform, ensuring that these potentially important impacts are considered.

Reflection

It remains impossible, with the current state of knowledge, to derive robust monetary measures of the cost-effectiveness of adaptation options at the European scale and how these might alter if cross-sectoral impacts are taken into account. The costs and/or effectiveness of most options are not fixed, but are functions of local physical, social, governance and economic conditions. Presenting currency amounts for the costs or cross-sectoral impacts in the Platform would give a spurious veneer of accuracy and would run the risk that the results could be misused – for example, to argue that 'measure X is more cost-effective than measure Y when cross-sectoral impacts are taken into account' - when in fact such conclusions are rarely general, but rather depend on specific local conditions. This would not help the debate or advance strategic understanding of adaptation. It is wiser, therefore, to restrict the cost-effectiveness analysis to a qualitative description that helps Platform users to think about adaptation options, while leaving the numerical focus on impacts that are estimated more rigorously, and in a spatial framework, in the other screens of the Platform. The CLIMSAVE IA Platform is a strategic tool to aid thinking: it cannot, and does not, seek to replace more detailed local or regional analysis of the costs and benefits of specific adaptation options.

Where is Europe most vulnerable to climate change?

For many policy and decision-makers, and other stakeholders, there is a need to better understand the future impacts of climate change and the related vulnerability of human and environmental systems. One of the main goals of adaptation is to reduce the future vulnerability to hazards associated with climate change, taking account of other socio-economic changes. Indicators are needed both to monitor progress in adaptation (process-based or upstream indicators) and to measure the effectiveness of adaptation (outcome-based or downstream indicators). Identification of vulnerability hotspots is an important form of outcome indicator, indicating where important vulnerabilities lie and how they might be tackled. Vulnerability is influenced by a wide range of factors - social, economic, political, cultural and environmental - and vulnerability indicators need to reflect this, while remaining feasible to calculate and implement.

Coping capacity and the vulnerability concept in CLIMSAVE

The CLIMSAVE approach to vulnerability hotspot mapping evaluates the spatially-variable impacts of future scenarios on human well-being. To do so it breaks vulnerability down into three key elements: (i) the severity of the impact itself; (ii) the level of adaptation in place to reduce the impact; and (iii) the extent to which humans are able to draw on their available resources (both tangible and societal) to cope with the impacts that remain, i.e. the "coping capacity". Vulnerability occurs where the level of impact following adaptation is greater than society's ability to cope.

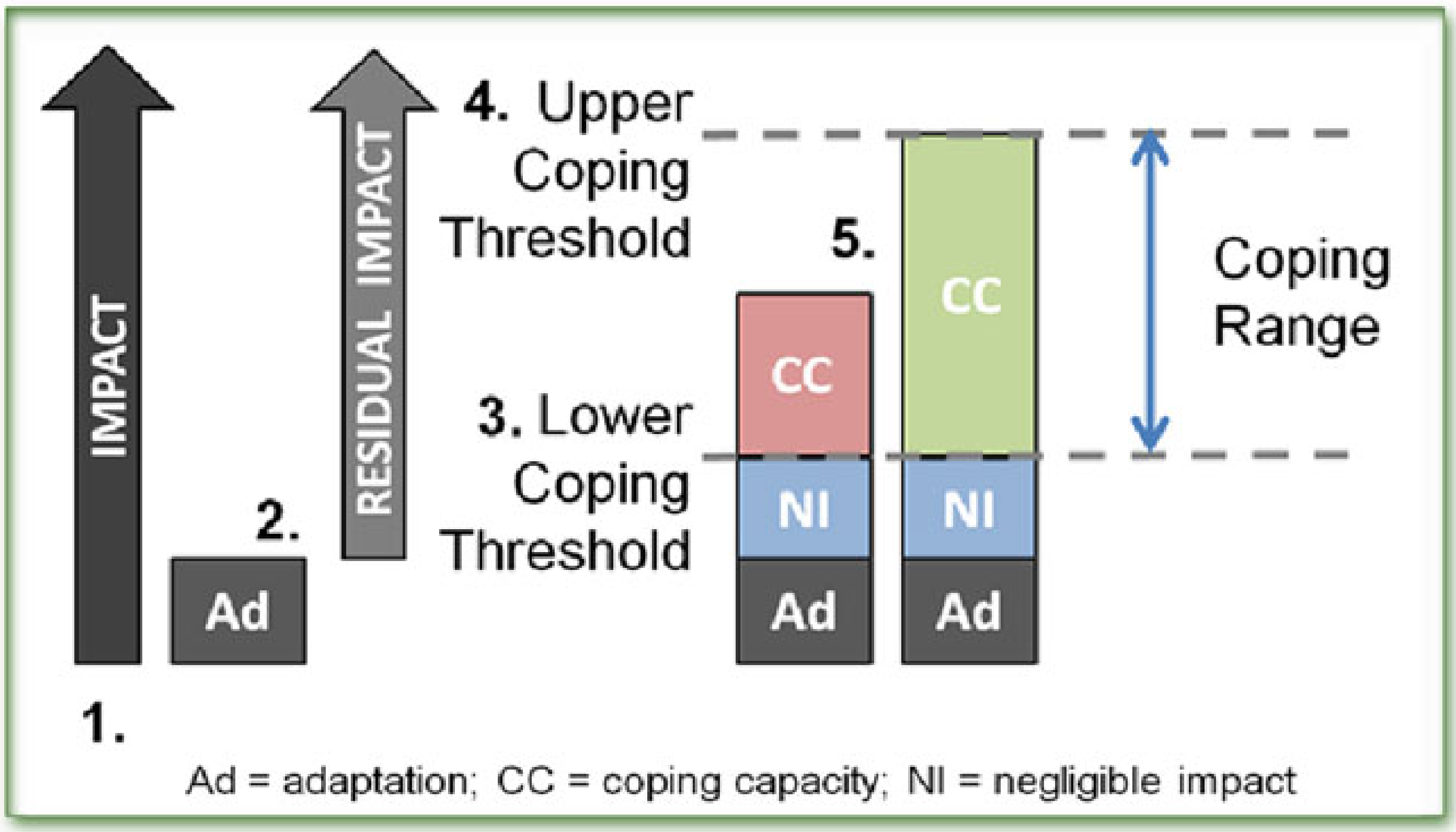


Figure 11: Schematic overview of the CLIMSAVE vulnerability approach.

This concept is shown schematically in Figure 11. Impact is modelled for a wide range of future scenarios (1 in Figure 11). Adaptation acts on the socio-economic scenario variables (for example, increasing the level of flood defence) and adaptive capacity changes with a scenario. The impact following adaptation is termed "residual impact", although the residual impact is the same as the "impact" if no adaptation is undertaken (2). The extent to which human well-being is affected by the residual impact depends on three further factors: (i) the "lower coping threshold" (the level of residual impact below which the impacts on human well-being can be considered negligible) (3); (ii) the "upper coping threshold" (the level of residual impact above which society is unable to cope, no matter how resource rich it is) (4); and, (iii) the "coping range" (the zone between the two thresholds) (5). Coping capacity reflects the resources that are available to society and is derived as a function of human, social, financial and manufactured capital. Natural capital is not included in the coping capacity since it is calculated directly by the IA Platform.

Evaluating vulnerability in the CLIMSAVE IA Platform

Vulnerability is assessed for six ecosystem service indicators and composite indices to represent a cross-section of ecosystem service categories: (i) food supply (provisioning service); (ii) water exploitation index (provisioning service); (iii) people affected by a 1:100 year flood event (regulating service); (iv) a biodiversity index (supporting service); (iv) a land use intensity index (to represent cultural/aesthetic services); and (vi) a land use diversity index (to represent multi-functionality). Upper and lower coping thresholds were selected for each of these indicators/indices. Vulnerability occurs in areas where the significant residual impact is greater than the coping capacity, and a vulnerability index is calculated for each ecosystem service indicator/index at the grid cell level. Grid cells are classified as:

- ⇨ "Not vulnerable, negligible impact" (residual impact is less than the lower coping threshold);
- ⇨ "Not vulnerable, coping" (the significant residual impact is less than the coping capacity);
- ⇨ "Vulnerable, not coping" (the coping capacity is insufficient to deal with the significant residual impact); and
- ⇨ "Vulnerable, impossible to cope" (the residual impact is greater than the upper coping threshold).

The total vulnerable area and number of vulnerable people are calculated at the European scale using the two vulnerable classes and summing the area and population of cells identified as vulnerable. Cross-sectoral aggregate vulnerability is calculated by counting the number of vulnerable sectors in each grid cell.

Mapping coping capacity

The majority of Europe has a medium level of coping capacity for the baseline (Figure 12a). The differentiation in classes between medium-high and medium-low or lower identifies key differences between northern and central Europe where coping capacity is generally higher, and southern and eastern Europe where coping capacity is lower. Only two sub-regions of Bulgaria have "very low" coping capacity and there is significant room for improvement in all countries, with only the Netherlands and Switzerland, north-western Norway and the cities London, Paris, Oslo and Brussels standing out as having high coping capacity. Figure 12b shows coping capacity for the CLIMSAVE socio-economic scenarios (see pages 10-11). In the "We are the world" scenario (WRW) successful innovation and steady economic growth combines with effective government leading to a continual improvement in coping capacity through the 2020s and 2050s. In the "Icarus" scenario, short-term policy planning and a stagnating economy leads to initial improvements in coping capacity in the 2020s, but a significant downturn by the 2050s. The dystopian society of "Should I Stay or Should I Go" (SoG) shows a continual decline in coping capacity and "Riders on the storm" shows significant improvements following a slow start.

Vulnerability hotspots

Aggregate vulnerability maps for a low and high vulnerability scenario highlight multi-sectoral hotspots (Figure 13). In the low vulnerability scenario (CSMK3 climate model combined with low emissions and the WRW socio-economic scenario for the 2050s), there are a few key areas of vulnerability linked mostly to single indicators, e.g. southern Spain (water exploitation), Estonia (food) and some coastal areas, particularly in northeast Italy (flood). There are very few areas with vulnerability to multiple indicators, the most notable being Scandinavia and the Alps (food and diversity) and pockets of France, Austria and Hungary (food, biodiversity and land use diversity). This reflects the small proportion of Europe that is vulnerable to at least one indicator for both people (46%) and area (36%). In the high vulnerability scenario (GFCM21 climate model combined with high emissions and the Icarus socio-economic scenario for the 2050s), the proportion of Europe that is vulnerable is much larger with 81% of the area and 88% of the baseline population (443,004,000 people) vulnerable to at least one sector. Furthermore, significant

areas of Scandinavia, France, Spain, Italy, Lithuania, Romania, Bulgaria and Greece are vulnerable to more than one indicator. Vulnerability differs between geographic areas. In Scandinavia, vulnerability is to food and land use diversity, whilst in southern and eastern Europe, and the areas around Prague and Paris, vulnerability is to biodiversity and water exploitation. Some areas are vulnerable to three indicators, especially along the coast which are vulnerable to floods, but also in parts of Germany, the Czech Republic and Romania where vulnerability is to land use intensity.

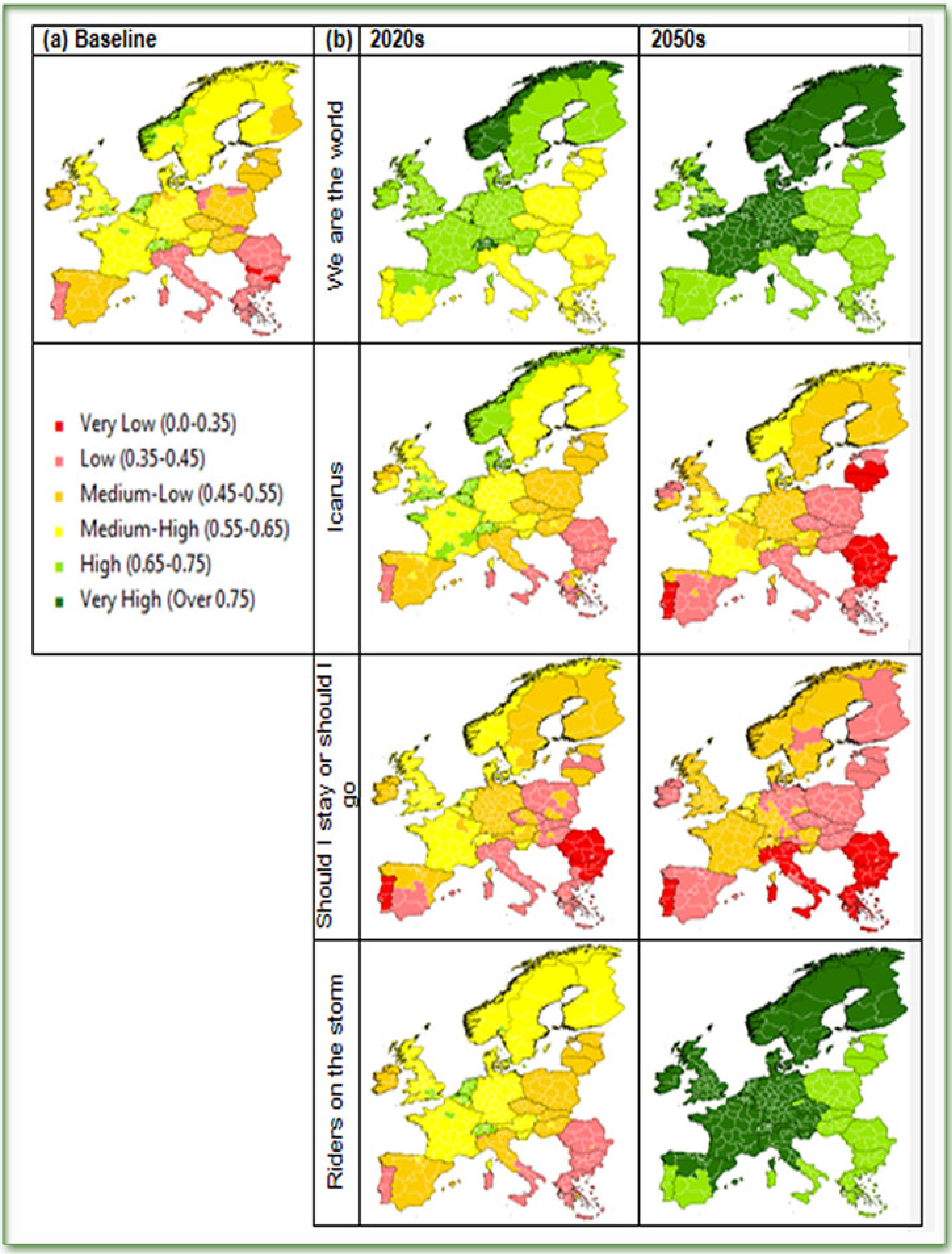


Figure 12: Coping capacity maps for: (a) the baseline; and (b) the CLIMSAVE socio-economic scenarios for the 2020s and 2050s.

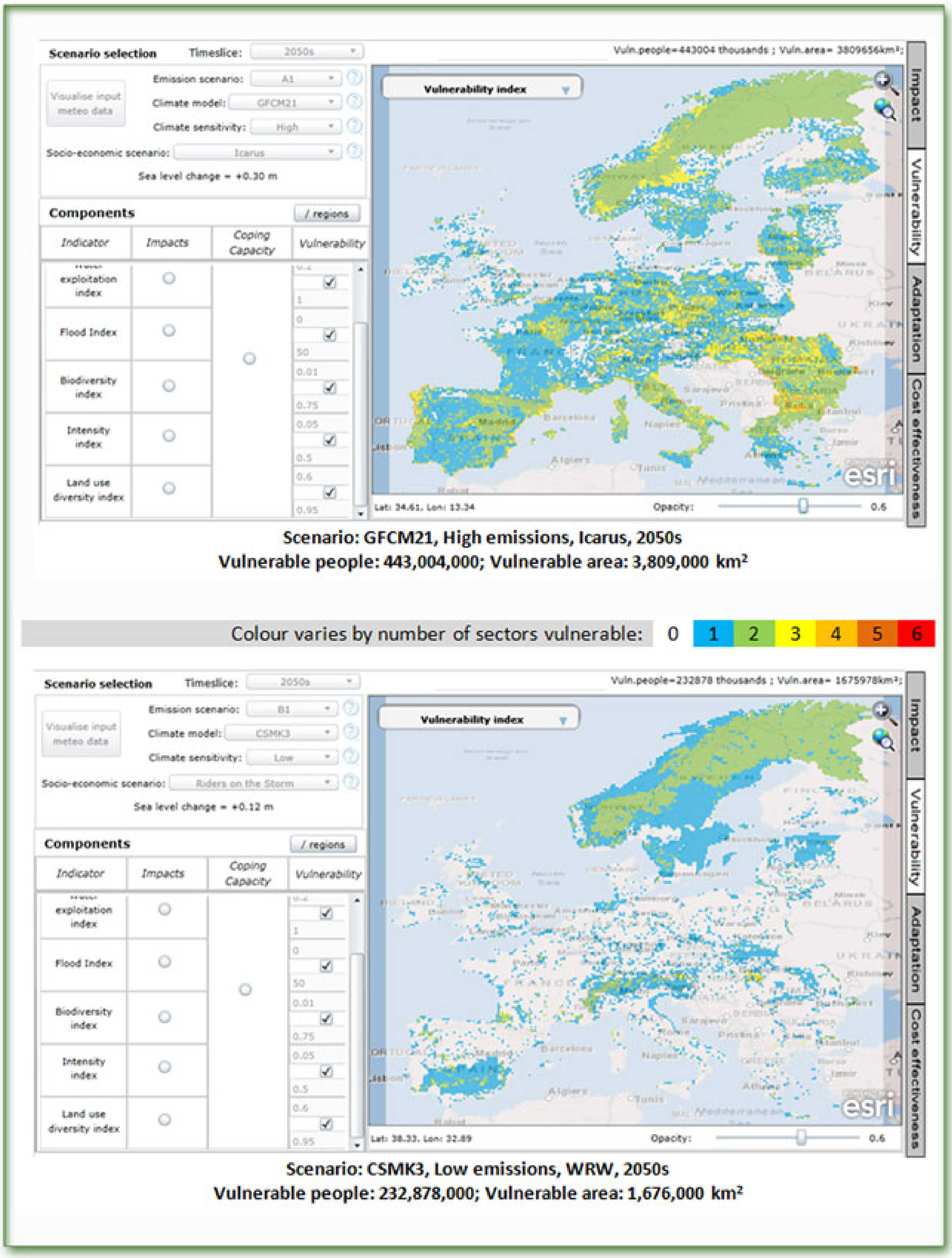


Figure 13: European aggregate vulnerability for two combinations of climate and socio-economic scenarios in the 2050s.

Reflection

The CLIMSAVE approach to vulnerability assessment is replicable and transferable, and allows the integration of the concepts of capitals and coping capacity with stakeholder-derived scenarios. The approach produces patterns of coping capacity that might be expected for the socio-economic scenarios. The aggregate vulnerability hotspot maps suggest that human well-being is most at risk from water stress and biodiversity loss in southern Europe, and from the lack of food provision and land use diversity in northern Europe.

Which adaptation policy strategies are robust to uncertain futures?

There is an increasing amount of research on policy robustness in the area of climate change adaptation. Such studies look at the effect of uncertainties about future climate change, technological advances and socio-economic development on policy responses in order to find adaptation responses that can be most effective in the long-term. The overall aim of this work in the CLIMSAVE project was to examine whether adaptation responses are robust, by looking at whether they would reduce vulnerability to climate and socio-economic changes across sectors, scales and scenarios.

For this analysis a robust policy measure was defined as one which has benefits across sectors, scenarios and spatial scales. A benefit is an improvement in human well-being through a reduction of vulnerability to climate and socio-economic change. The sectors examined are those for which vulnerability to changes are assessed in the CLIMSAVE IA Platform: food provision, water exploitation, flooding, biodiversity, land use intensity and land use diversity (see pages 22-25). The scenarios examined are four climate scenarios (two global climate models combined with high greenhouse gas emissions and high climate sensitivity and with low emissions and low sensitivity) and the four socio-economic scenarios for Europe: We are the World, Icarus, Riders on the Storm and Should I Stay or Should I Go (see pages 8-11). The robustness of policies across scale can be determined by comparing the results for Europe with those for the regional case study that was based on Scotland.

Clustering the adaptation options from the CLIMSAVE IA Platform

It is not possible to test the effects of policies within the CLIMSAVE IA Platform, but rather to test adaptation options. Therefore, for the robustness analysis the options available on the IA Platform were clustered into so-called "policy archetypes". Four archetypes were defined:

⇨ **Ecosystem-based Adaptation (EbA)**: The goal of EbA is to protect or improve the integrity and health of ecosystems and habitats so that nature retains capacity for adapting to changing complex pressures and conditions, such as climate change.

⇨ **Market-based Adaptation (MbA)**: The major objectives of market-based adaptation (MbA) are fund raising, for example through taxes/market mobilisation for adaptation activities; efficient allocation of funds that are available for projects aiming to avoid climate change related damages; promotion of adaptation by various stakeholders; and sharing of financial risks in the context of climate change (e.g. transfer of risks through insurance-based mechanisms).

⇨ **Technology-based Adaptation (TbA)**: The goal of TbA is to adapt to climate change and variability through the development and use of technology such as irrigation, flood defences and advanced early warning systems.

⇨ **People-based Adaptation (PbA)**: The goal of PbA is to adapt to climate change and variability using human and social capital. This includes education and awareness-raising, building of networks to respond to climate change and changing institutions (including regulation).

Testing the robustness of policy archetypes using the CLIMSAVE IA Platform

Table 5 shows how the adaptation options from the IA Platform were clustered for each archetype. Some measures are included in more than one archetype. So, for example, water demand prioritisation is included in both the EbA and the MbA archetypes. For the EbA archetype, the environment was set as the priority sector for water to maintain minimum environmental flows, while for MbA the priority was set to

domestic/industrial uses. The flood risk adaptation approach was set to "Retreat" for EbA, "Mixed" for MbA, "Upgrade" for TbA and "Resilience" for PbA. The reasoning behind these choices is that "Retreat" opens space for ecosystems, "Upgrade" is clearly a technological approach of building infrastructure, "Resilience" satisfies the needs of people for a safe environment, while "Mixed" is open to the use of market mechanisms. For each policy archetype, the slider for each measure was changed to the maximum amount that was credible for each socio-economic scenario. The tests were all carried out for the 2050s timeslice.

Table 5: Adaptation options from the IA Platform included in the four policy archetypes.

EbA	MbA	TbA	PbA
Water demand prioritisation to the environment	Water demand prioritisation for domestic/industrial use	Water savings due to technological change	Water savings due to behavioural change
Reduce diffuse source pollution from agriculture	Increase food imports	Reduce diffuse source pollution from agriculture	Reduce dietary preferences for beef and lamb
Protected Area (PA) changed by increasing the number of PAs to improve connectivity and by increasing the size of existing PAs		Improvements in irrigation efficiency	Reduce in dietary preference for chicken and pork
Increasing the amount of Protected Area allocated to forest and agriculture land uses		Improvements in agricultural yields	Increase social capital
Increase compact development		Improvements in agricultural mechanisation	Increase human capital
Flood risk management adaptation approach: Retreat	Flood risk management adaptation approach: Mixed	Flood risk management adaptation approach: Upgrade	Flood risk management adaptation approach: Resilience
Increase in bioenergy production	Forest management for 5 tree species: Even-aged	Forest management for 5 tree species: Optimum	Forest management for 5 tree species: Uneven-aged
		Increase manufactured capital	

For each scenario, the IA Platform was run without any adaptation and then with each of the policy archetypes separately. The results were compared using the total number of vulnerable people (see pages 22-25) for each of the IA Platform sectors (food provision, water exploitation, flood, biodiversity, land use intensity and land use diversity).

Results of running the four policy archetypes through the IA Platform are shown in Table 6 for four sectors. The number of vulnerable people when no adaptation is implemented is shown in the first row of the table. The ability of the policy archetypes to reduce the number of vulnerable people is indicated by the green coloured cells of the table. Some policy archetype actually increased vulnerability (red coloured cells of the table) due to feedbacks and interactions between the sectors (see pages 12-15). White cells indicate that vulnerability does not differ from when no adaptation has been implemented.

Table 6: Results of the policy robustness analysis showing the number of people vulnerable (in thousands) for four sectors, two socio-economic scenarios (We are the World (WATW) and Icarus) and two climate scenarios (C1 = GFCM with A1 emissions and high sensitivity; C2 = IPCM4 with B1 emissions and low sensitivity).

Sector:	**Biodiversity**				**Water exploitation index**			
Socio-economic scenario:	**WATW**		**ICARUS**		**WATW**		**ICARUS**	
Climate scenario:	**C1**	**C2**	**C1**	**C2**	**C1**	**C2**	**C1**	**C2**
No Adaptation	112	46	201	890	1147	416	1994	1301
EbA	110	41	198	935	504	137	1763	1301
MbA	123	44	205	1008	580	580	1994	1301
TbA	105	44	202	1060	1147	1147	1994	1070
PbA	824	43	173	755	1059	1059	1732	1299

Sector:	**Flooding**				**Food provision**			
Socio-economic scenario:	**WATW**		**ICARUS**		**WATW**		**ICARUS**	
Climate Scenario:	**C1**	**C2**	**C1**	**C2**	**C1**	**C2**	**C1**	**C2**
No Adaptation	1293	1274	1573	1569	1378	1815	1705	1809
EbA	1291	1274	1573	1569	1734	1849	1690	1788
MbA	1293	1274	1573	1569	1574	1802	1881	1917
TbA	1267	1255	1545	1537	1910	1931	1864	1994
PbA	1248	1236	1201	1376	1814	1791	1717	1804

⇨ **Robustness across scales**: Comparing the results with those for Scotland, it can be seen that each of the policy archetypes has at least one indicator for which the total number of vulnerable people is lower than with no adaptation. At this very broad level, therefore, each of the archetypes reduces vulnerability with respect to at least one indicator, which suggests that there is robustness with respect to geographical scale.

⇨ **Robustness across climate scenarios**: Comparing the results of the different climate change scenarios (C1 and C2) shows that the MbA archetype is the only one that does not reduce vulnerability for both scenarios for at least one indicator, which suggests that MbA is less robust to the uncertainty regarding future climate. PbA reduces vulnerability for both climate scenarios for three of the four vulnerability indicators, but not for food provision which is only reduced in the C2 scenario, which is cooler and wetter on average over Europe than the C1 scenario.

⇨ **Robustness across socio-economic scenarios**: For the biodiversity indicator, for the C1 climate scenario, which has high emissions and high climate sensitivity, the only policy archetype that reduces vulnerability in both the We are the World and Icarus scenarios is PbA. For the water exploitation indicator, both EbA and PbA reduce the number of vulnerable people in the C1 climate scenario. For the flood indicator, PbA and TbA reduce vulnerability in both socio-economic scenarios. While for food provision none of the policy archetypes reduces vulnerability for both socio-economic scenarios using the C1 climate scenario.

⇨ **Robustness across sectors**: For the C1 climate scenario and the We are the World socio-economic scenario, EbA and PbA reduce vulnerability in all four sectors considered in Table 6, except for food provision. Food provision vulnerability is not reduced at all by TbA and none of the other policy archetypes reduce food provision vulnerability in all socio-economic and climate scenarios.

Testing adaptation options not included in the CLIMSAVE IA Platform

There are many "soft" adaptation options that are not included in the IA Platform, so these were incorporated into the assessment of policy robustness using expert judgement. The options were sorted according to policy archetype. For example, education belongs to the PbA archetype, while insurance schemes belong to the MbA archetype. A qualitative assessment was then made of the effectiveness of the resulting clusters.

The sorting of the options showed that they belonged either to the PbA (e.g. education, early warning systems, institutional change) or MbA (e.g. taxes, subsidies, insurance) archetypes. The PbA options that use and build human capital are not necessarily robust across sectors. For example, labelling in the forest sector could influence water and biodiversity. The PbA options are considered to be robust across spatial scales. However, they are not robust across socio-economic scenarios, since the Icarus scenario has strongly declining human capital in the 2050s and, thus, human capital would be a limiting factor for the effectiveness of the PbA archetype. The PbA options that use and build social capital through developing institutions and regulations are not necessarily robust across sectors, since regulations for one sector (e.g. coastal or urban) can affect another sector (e.g. agriculture or forestry). They are robust across scales, since the regulations and policy initiatives are in principle applicable at the EU and regional level. They are not robust across socio-economic scenarios, since in some scenarios there is very weak governance, such as in the Should I Stay or Should I Go scenario, while in the We are the World Scenario governance is strong. The MbA options are not robust across sectors because of cross-sectoral impacts. For example, changes to agricultural subsidies can affect water, forests, biodiversity, etc. They are perhaps not robust across socio-economic scenarios, since three of the socio-economic scenarios have declining financial capital towards 2050 and only the Riders on the Storm scenario has increasing financial capital that could be mobilised for these options. Furthermore, the scenarios have very different levels of governance that would affect the implementation of many taxation options.

Reflection

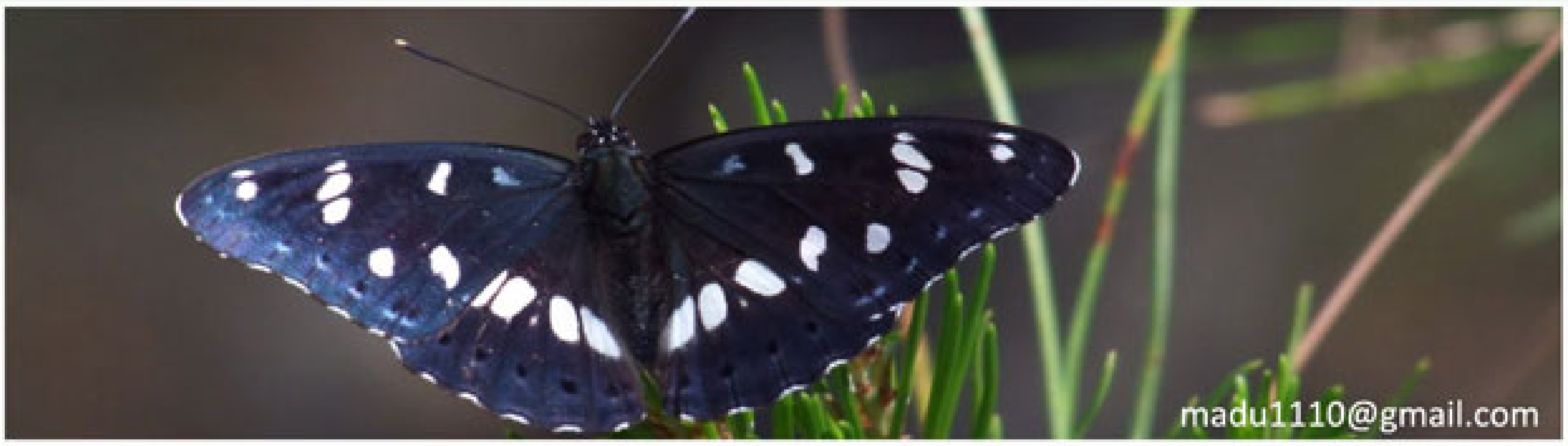
The results show that the use of policy archetypes enables an analysis of policy robustness across scales, sectors and scenarios using the CLIMSAVE IA Platform and expert judgement. The results presented here suggest that Ecosystem-based Adaptation and People-based Adaptation are more robust than Market-based Adaptation and Technology-based Adaptation. The effectiveness of PbA is related to the fact that it includes the options that increase both human and social capital, which thus increases coping capacity. The method used here was designed to identify the differences between archetypical policy strategies and to test the robustness of these. In practice, however, policy is based on a range of options that combine elements of the different archetypes. The archetypical results provide, therefore, the basis for understanding how different policy options might be combined to best reduce climate change vulnerability.

Why adaptation and mitigation need to be integrated?

Adaptation and mitigation are two complementary ways of addressing climate change. Adaptation seeks to reduce the impacts of climate change, while mitigation decreases greenhouse gas emissions or increases carbon storage. CLIMSAVE reviewed a selection of adaptation and mitigation measures for the agriculture, biodiversity, coastal, forestry, urban and water sectors to identify their impacts, how these interact with other sectors, and measures which could enhance both adaptation and mitigation.

It found that almost all measures had an impact beyond the original intended one and that these additional impacts could be in the same sector, but often involved one or more other sectors. For example, coastal adaptation measures, such as managed realignment and restoration projects, tend to impact on biodiversity via the creation of valuable intertidal habitat, as well as providing carbon storage for mitigation.

Examples were found of neutral, positive and negative impacts on the affected sector(s). Few measures had little or no direct impact, although in the urban sector, building measures, such as natural ventilation, insulation and painting surfaces white, have little or no effect on adaptation or mitigation in other sectors, nor do many biodiversity adaptation measures. These are no-low regret options and provide benefits despite climate change uncertainties (Table 7). The highest number of interactions between sectors was positive, with many benefitting adaptation in the biodiversity and water sectors. For example, stormwater management in urban areas using different types of greenspace, such as green roofs, Sustainable Urban Drainage Systems (SUDS) and urban trees can have numerous benefits for biodiversity. In addition to helping urban areas adapt, they can reduce adaptation needed by the biodiversity sector.



Some measures not only contribute to adaptation in other sectors, but also to mitigation, as in the example of coastal adaptation above. Major synergies between adaptation and mitigation also exist for agriculture through reducing greenhouse gas emissions by improving nitrogen use efficiencies and soil carbon storage. Measures include some forms of conservation agriculture, reducing soil erosion, soil moisture conservation, and land use changes involving abandonment or less intensive agriculture. Also, the restoration of freshwater wetlands, such as peat bogs, to manage water flows could contribute to biodiversity adaptation and mitigate climate change.

Many negative interactions also related to biodiversity and water. For example, no-tillage systems may negatively affect native species, as may some forestry planting and operations, while coastal hard-engineering could prevent ecosystems migrating inland in response to sea-level rise. Possible conflicts with water include afforestation on new land for carbon storage or crop irrigation which can increase water demand, while increasing water supply is needed to meet demands of urbanisation or economic activities. All these changes can impact biodiversity, especially river and wetland species/habitats, and their ability to adapt. These negative impacts may lead to trade-offs, for example between maintaining water levels for biodiversity and agriculture and domestic or industrial supply. For coasts they may relate to managed realignment, where the trade-off is between maintaining the current primary habitat and sustainable coastal defence. For forestry they may be between afforestation for carbon storage and water supply.

Table 7: Adaptation measures for the sectors and their interactions and impacts. No-low regrets: ++ indicates measures that will produce benefits regardless of climate change, + indicates no-regret in some cases, depending on circumstance.

Sector	Examples of adaptation options	No-low regret	Reversible / flexible	Synergies with mitigation	Synergies with adaptation in other sectors
Agriculture	Changing planting dates	+	✓		
	Genetic modification		×	✓	
	Conservation agriculture	+		✓	✓
Urban	Green infrastructure	++	✓	✓	✓✓
	Building measures	++	×	✓	
Water	SUDS	++		✓	✓✓
	Flood defences		××		✓
	Storage	+			
	Floodplain restoration	+		✓	✓
Biodiversity	Increasing habitat connectivity	++	✓	✓	✓✓
	Restoration schemes	++		✓	✓
	Habitat creation	+		✓	✓
Forest	Afforestation with climate-resilient tree genotypes	+	×	✓✓	✓
Coastal	Hard-engineering		××	×	
	Managed realignment	+		✓	✓
	Wetland creation	+		✓✓	✓✓

Reflection

Very often interactions with adaptation and mitigation measures in other sectors were not explicit, thus many opportunities of positive interactions are not taken into account in any assessment of the success of measures. An integrated approach to adaptation and mitigation is needed, therefore, so that measures with beneficial cross-sectoral interactions, which may also be more cost-effective, are implemented as well as avoiding negative cross-sectoral interactions. Since many interactions involved biodiversity and water, these may be good sectors to start with and already ecosystem-based adaptation for climate change is being promoted.

CLIMSAVE was a research project funded by the European Commission to assess climate change impacts, adaptation and vulnerability across six key sectors: agriculture, forestry, biodiversity, urban, water and coasts. This report summarises the key findings from this integrated approach, many of which were produced using the interactive web-based tool, the CLIMSAVE Integrated Assessment Platform. Two versions of the tool have been developed: one for Europe and one for Scotland. The European tool is publically available from the CLIMSAVE website (www.climsave.eu) or the Climate-Adapt website (http://climate-adapt.eea.europa.eu/). This tool allows stakeholders to explore and understand climate change impacts and adaptation for themselves.

SEVENTH FRAMEWORK PROGRAMME

CLIMSAVE

CLimate change Integrated assessment Methodology for cross-Sectoral Adaptation and Vulnerability in Europe

www.climsave.eu

Contract Number: 036890

Published by TIAMASG (Bucharest) in 2013