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An ever-changing mix of anthropogenic pollutants alters the chemical and physical properties of the atmosphere and thereby causes potentially negative impacts on human society. To establish a robust cause-and-effect chain, all the way from a particular kind of emission to its economic and/or social impacts, remains a transdisciplinary tour de force with several risks of failure along the way. The first major link along such a chain, that between increased aerosol loads (“atmospheric brown clouds,” or ABC) over the Indian subcontinent, globally increasing greenhouse gas (GHG) concentrations, and regional changes in temperature, rainfall, and surface-near radiation, requires consideration of chemical and physical processes, ranging in scale from microscopic particles to atmospheric flows across the entire continent and its surrounding oceans. However, even if a changing environment near the ground can be attributed to anthropogenic emissions, it is still another matter to prove and quantify the second crucial link: to the existence of attributable impacts on society. For example, it may be shown that the changing atmosphere affects crop growth in some way, but does it also impact the farmer’s livelihood in some way? Ever since it had been shown that aerosols block some incoming radiation, and therefore might reduce direct warming effects from GHG (1), it had been a common notion that ABC and GHG could have locally counteracting effects. For rice yields in India, an innovative study by Auffhammer *et al.* (2) in this issue of PNAS provides compelling evidence that ABC and GHG both have reduced historical rice harvests well below the levels to be expected otherwise. The study has profound implications for ongoing and future efforts to improve both climate and air quality.

Vulnerability of Indian Agriculture to Global Climate Change

During recent decades, climate change has been identified as a very serious environmental problem for South Asia, with particularly high vulnerability being noted for the agricultural sector (3). Even a small change in climate may result in high social vulnerability, for at least two reasons: first, many crops rely on the regular return of



Fig. 1. Haze above Northern India and Bangladesh, observed from the Terra satellite’s MODIS instrument on December 4, 2001 (image courtesy of NASA, Visible Earth, <http://visibleearth.nasa.gov>).

Monsoon rainfall (4), a system that has fluctuated widely in the past, and, second, the economic potential to adapt is very low for most Indian farmers (5). Recent warming ($\approx 0.44^\circ\text{C}$ since 1930) has impacted crop yields through several mechanisms associated with direct temperature as well as changes in water availability (6). Most published impact assessments rely on biophysical crop model simulations that, despite substantial advances in development and good correspondence to experimental results, could still over- or underestimate the sensitivity. For example, these models rarely account for changes in water use efficiency under higher atmospheric CO_2 , nor do they reflect changes in crop area due to reduced water resources for irrigation.

Climate model simulations show that GHG increases alone, in the absence of aerosols, would have caused even more rapid warming than has been observed, perhaps at double the current rate (7). Impacts from this warming could be expected to scale with temperature. Could, therefore, the “dimming” caused by ABC reduce the regional impacts of climate change? Answering this question requires a careful study of all climatic aspects of

ABC and then a quantitative analysis of the major factors affecting agricultural output, a task for which currently no single crop model exists.

Climatic Impacts of Atmospheric Brown Clouds

Despite remaining open questions, the basic mechanisms linking regional climatic conditions in South Asia to ABC are known from a combination of measurement campaigns and model simulations (7). First, the radiation budget is strongly affected by the presence of haze (Fig. 1), which reduces direct radiation at the surface (land or ocean, approximately -10 to -15 W m^{-2} , during the 1990s) and warms the troposphere by approximately the same amount of energy. On average, the net solar forcing at the top of the atmosphere changes by $<1 \text{ W m}^{-2}$, but much higher values may occur between January and May. Particularly during this period, substantial dimming of solar radiation occurs, a progressive reduction of net radiation arriving at the plant canopy, bare soil, or water surface (approximately $-0.4 \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{ a}^{-1}$, 1960–1990). It leads to a reduction in surface evaporation, particularly over the ocean (-5 to -10% , with higher values between January and April). A further consequence is surface cooling, which reduces the warming trend that would have been attributable to GHGs ($0.76 \pm 0.1 \text{ K}$) between 1930 and 2000 to approximately half its value. The altered energy balance also weakens the latitudinal Monsoon-generating gradient in sea surface temperature due to the stronger cooling in the ABC-affected Northern Indian Ocean (by $\approx 25\%$ since 1950) and reduces vertical moisture transport in the troposphere (expressed by a decrease in convective instability from 1979 to 2003 by 15%). Together, these mechanisms are linked to an observed decrease in Monsoon rainfall ($\approx 5\%$ for 1930–2000) and to some increase in climatological droughts (7).

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