



1 **Correct use of radiative efficiencies in calculating global** 2 **warming potentials and other emission metrics**

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9 **Abstract**

10 The calculations of Global Warming Potentials (GWPs) and other related climate emission metrics should use
11 radiative efficiencies that are representative of the mean atmospheric mole fraction, rather than the surface mole
12 fraction as is commonly used. This correction leads to an upward revision of GWP values. Radiative forcing from
13 projected changes in mean atmospheric mole fraction (such as for climate scenario) also need to be corrected. For
14 species with lifetimes greater than a few years, the revision is an increase of a few percent e.g., 8% for
15 trichlorofluoromethane (CFC-11). For species with lifetimes less than a year this correction can lead to increases
16 in the GWPs (and in some cases radiative forcing) of tens of percent, which could impact on policymaker decisions
17 on the desirability of using such gases

18 **Short summary**

19 The global warming potential (GWP) is a commonly used metric for relating the climate impact of emissions of
20 a gas relative to that for carbon dioxide. We show that previous calculations have systematically underestimated
21 these values by applying calculations of radiative forcing efficiency appropriate to changes in surface mole
22 fractions rather than changes in the mass-weighted mean mole fraction in the atmosphere.

23 **1. Introduction**

24 The Global Warming Potential (GWP) of a species is given by the ratio of the absolute global warming potential
25 (AGWP) to that of CO₂. The AGWPs are the radiative forcing following a 1 kg emission integrated over a
26 specified time horizon H with units of W m⁻² yr kg⁻¹ (Shine et al., 1990).

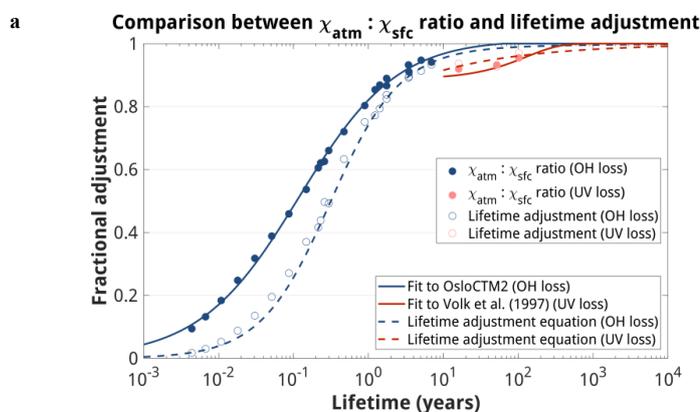
27 $AGWP_x = \int_0^H A_x R_x(t) dt$ where A_x is the radiative forcing from 1 kg of species x (i.e. units of W m⁻² kg⁻¹), and
28 $R_x(t)$ is the time evolution of the atmospheric mass of the species following the pulse emission. Hence, the
29 AGWPs are proportional to the radiative efficiency defined per unit mass of the emitted species.

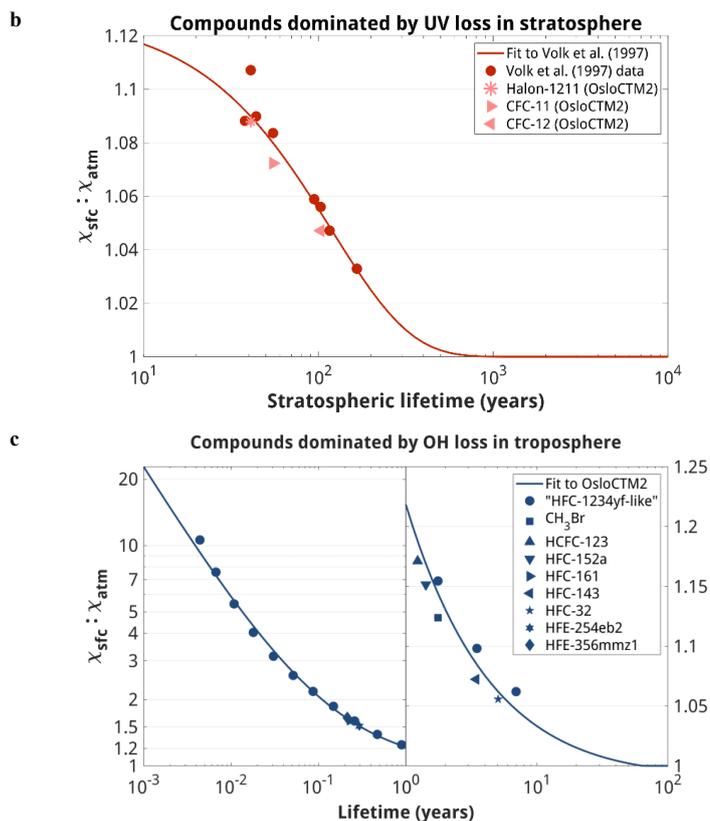
30 Values of radiative efficiency for many species have been calculated (Etminan et al., 2016; Hodnebrog et al.,
31 2020) but are usually reported defined per change in surface mole fraction. This letter sets out to clarify the
32 importance of using the appropriate conversion from mole fraction to mass when calculating GWPs and other
33 climate emission metrics.



34 2. Radiative efficiencies

35 The radiative efficiencies for atmospheric species are typically calculated using sophisticated radiative transfer
36 models in which the mole fractions of the species of interest are varied. The radiative efficiencies are then
37 calculated as the ratio of the radiative forcing change to the mole fraction change, for small changes in mole
38 fraction. Originally calculations used constant profiles of mole fraction with height (Pinnock et al., 1995) but
39 vertical profile information from models or observations was later adopted for many species (Etminan et al., 2016;
40 Freckleton et al., 1998; Jain et al., 2000; Myhre et al., 1998; Myhre & Stordal, 1997; Naik et al., 2000). This is
41 now done routinely in international assessments for halogenated gases using parameterisations based on species
42 lifetime (Hodnebrog et al., 2020, 2013). Species that are destroyed in the stratosphere (N_2O , chlorofluorocarbons
43 (CFCs)) will have lower mole fractions in the stratosphere than at the surface. Species that have very short
44 tropospheric lifetimes (comparable to the vertical mixing timescales in the troposphere) such as some
45 hydrocarbons and halocarbons will have significantly lower mole fractions in the upper troposphere than at the
46 surface. In both cases the radiative forcing will be less (for the same surface mole fraction change) than if a
47 constant profile were used, and so the radiative efficiency will be lower too. Figure 1a shows the adjustments to
48 the radiative efficiency for species destroyed in the stratosphere (dashed red line) and troposphere (dashed blue
49 line) based on parameterisations derived in (Hodnebrog et al., 2013). The adjustments can be considered to
50 comprise two components, a correction due to the spatial distribution of the species (radiative efficiency per mass
51 is greatest in the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere (Maycock et al., 2021)) and a correction because of
52 the lower atmospheric mass of a species for a given surface mole fraction (solid lines in Figure 1a).
53 A key use of radiative efficiencies is to determine the radiative forcing from observed changes in surface mole
54 fractions of different species (Forster et al., 2021) so accounting for the declining mole fractions with height has
55 allowed a more complete determination of their climate effects (Hodnebrog et al., 2013). These adjustments
56 however make them less useful for directly determining GWPs which are based on radiative efficiency per mass.
57





58 **Figure 1.** (a) Comparison between the ratio of mean atmospheric-to-surface mole fraction ($\chi_{atm}:\chi_{sfc}$; filled circles) and
 59 the lifetime adjustment that corrects RE to account for non-homogeneous atmospheric distribution (open circles) based
 60 on OsloCTM2 simulations (see Figure 9 and associated discussion in Hodnebrog et al., 2013). (b) Ratio $\chi_{sfc}:\chi_{atm}$ from
 61 the OsloCTM2 simulations, and from observations in Volk et al. (1997) and associated fit from Collins et al. (2026) (see
 62 Equation 3), against stratospheric lifetimes from WMO (2022). (c) Ratio $\chi_{sfc}:\chi_{atm}$ against total lifetimes from OsloCTM2
 63 simulations in Hodnebrog et al. (2013) and associated fit (see Equation 4). Note that in (a), red circles and solid red line
 64 are plotted against stratospheric lifetimes and not total lifetimes.

65 3 Radiative forcing per mass.

66 In assessments from the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) and the World Meteorological
 67 Organization (WMO) (Forster et al., 2021; WMO, 2022), the conversion from mole fraction to mass has been
 68 done using the following formula (Aamaas et al., 2013; Shine et al., 2005)

$$69 \quad A_x = RE \times \frac{M_{air}}{M_x} \times \frac{10^9}{T_M} \quad (1)$$

70

71 where A_x and RE are the radiative efficiencies given in $W m^{-2} kg^{-1}$ and $W m^{-2} ppb^{-1}$, respectively, M_{air} is the mean
 72 molecular weight of dry air ($28.97 kg kmol^{-1}$), M_x is the molecular weight of species x , and T_M is the total dry air
 73 mass of the atmosphere ($5.1352 \times 10^{18} kg$; Trenberth & Smith, 2005)). This conversion is appropriate if the RE
 74 is defined per mean atmospheric mole fraction change, but not if it is defined per surface mole fraction change
 75 since the assumed mass burden will be incorrect. In the latter case a correction factor $\frac{\Delta\chi_{sfc}}{\Delta\chi_{atm}}$ is needed (Collins et
 76 al., 2026) that is the ratio of the change in surface mole fraction $\Delta\chi_{sfc}$ to the change in mass-weighted mean
 77 atmospheric mole fraction $\Delta\chi_{atm}$, i.e. Equation (1) should be modified to



78
$$A_x = \left(\text{RE} \times \frac{\Delta\chi_{\text{sfc}}}{\Delta\chi_{\text{atm}}} \right) \times \frac{M_{\text{air}}}{M_x} \times \frac{10^9}{T_M}$$

79 (2)

80 Physically, the radiative efficiency per mean atmospheric mole fraction is higher because a lower $\Delta\chi_{\text{atm}}$ (or
81 equivalently a lower change in atmospheric burden) is required to generate the same forcing as a 1 ppb change in
82 χ_{sfc} .

83 Values of $\frac{\chi_{\text{sfc}}}{\chi_{\text{atm}}}$ for a range of species were calculated in Volk et al. (1997). These were species where the main
84 effect on the vertical profile came from destruction in the stratosphere. Collins et al. (2026) derived the following
85 empirical fit to the data in Volk et al. (1997):

86
$$\frac{\chi_{\text{sfc}}}{\chi_{\text{atm}}} = \frac{1}{1 - 0.113e^{-\frac{\tau_{\text{strat}}}{130}}}$$

87 (3)

88 τ_{strat} is the stratospheric lifetime of a species in years (WMO, 2022). Note the reciprocal of this term $\left(\frac{\chi_{\text{atm}}}{\chi_{\text{sfc}}}\right)$ is
89 referred to as a “fill factor” in Prather et al. (2012). Figure 1b shows that OsloCTM2 results from Hodnebrog et
90 al. (2013) align relatively well with the empirical fit that is based on Volk et al. (1997).

91 To calculate the $\frac{\chi_{\text{sfc}}}{\chi_{\text{atm}}}$ ratio for species with short tropospheric lifetimes we fit to OsloCTM2 results for a range of
92 molecules that react with OH in the troposphere in (Hodnebrog et al., 2013) using a similar form of equation to
93 their lifetime adjustment (τ is the total atmospheric lifetime in years).

94
$$\frac{\chi_{\text{sfc}}}{\chi_{\text{atm}}} = \max\left(\frac{1 + 3.908\tau^{0.6512}}{4.028\tau^{0.648}}, 1\right)$$

95 (4)

96 Figure 1c shows this fit on top of the $\frac{\chi_{\text{sfc}}}{\chi_{\text{atm}}}$ ratio against lifetime for all the OsloCTM2 simulations. For species
97 with both tropospheric and stratospheric loss, the larger value of $\frac{\chi_{\text{sfc}}}{\chi_{\text{atm}}}$ from equations (3) and (4) should be used.

98 **Table 1** shows, for a few selected molecules, how correcting for the $\frac{\chi_{\text{sfc}}}{\chi_{\text{atm}}}$ impacts GWP100 values (i.e. for $H =$
99 100 years). For CFC-11 the increase is approximately 8% and less for other CFCs. For some HFCs the effect can
100 be very large, suggesting the previous determinations of GWP100 were underestimated by 10s of %.

101 The methane and nitrous radiative efficiencies used in the IPCC 6th Assessment (Forster et al., 2021) come from
102 Etminan et al. (2016). The profiles of methane and nitrous oxide used in that study were from Myhre & Stordal
103 (1997) with values of $\frac{\chi_{\text{sfc}}}{\chi_{\text{atm}}}$ of 1.02 and 1.03. This means that IPCC AR6 GWP100s should be increased from 28.1
104 to 28.7 and from 267 to 275 for fossil methane and nitrous oxide respectively¹. Note these ratios are less than
105 those in Volk et al. (1997) or expected from Equation 3.

¹ We use here the GWP100 values from the Errata to the IPCC AR6
https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg1/downloads/report/IPCC_AR6_WGI_Errata.pdf rather than from the tables
initially published in Forster et al. (2021).



106 **Table 1. The effect on GWP100 of correcting the approach for converting RE values from per ppb to per kg compared**
107 **to the previous approach for a selection of molecules. Equation 3 is used for CFC-11 and CFC-12, and equation 4 is**
108 **used for the other halogenated compounds. Lifetimes, REs and AGWP_{CO2} are as in WMO (2022).**

Acronym/name	Lifetime (yr)	Stratospheric lifetime (yr)	GWP100 (IPCC/WMO)	GWP100 corrected	Difference
CFC-11	52	55	6,410	6,920	+8%
CFC-12	102	103	12,500	13,200	+5%
HCFC-22	11.6	120	1,910	1,970	+3%
HFC-32	5.27	146	749	794	+6%
HFC-134a	13.5	313	1,470	1,510	+2%
HFC-152a	1.50	44.3	153	178	+16%
HFC-161	0.217	20	5	8	+63%
Fluorobenzene	0.059	20	<1	1	+152%

109
110

111 4. Discussion

112 The factor $\frac{\Delta X_{sfc}}{\Delta X_{atm}}$ discussed above is necessary to correct radiative efficiencies that have been reported per change
113 in surface mole fraction when RE per change in mean atmospheric mole fraction is required, such as in the
114 calculation of GWPs. This ratio should strictly be the ratio of the changes as used in the radiation calculations
115 which is not necessarily that observed in the atmosphere or derived from models. Hence we correct the methane
116 and nitrous oxide radiative efficiencies using the profiles used in Etminan et al. (2016) rather than from Equation
117 3. For CO₂ the radiation calculations used a constant profile with height so do not need a correction. For
118 halogenated species the ratios shown in figure 1c are taken from the profiles used to calculate the radiative
119 efficiencies in (Hodnebrog et al., 2020, 2013) so are appropriate to correct the reported values.

120 We have shown here the application to the GWP, but as most climate emission metrics (for example, GWP* and
121 global temperature-change potential – GTP) scale with the radiative efficiency per mass (e.g., Forster et al. 2021)
122 these will be similarly affected, as will calculations of GWP for different time horizons.

123 Simple climate models (Leach et al., 2021; Meinshausen et al., 2011) often project atmospheric mean mole
124 fractions of greenhouse gases to generate climate scenarios (Meinshausen et al., 2020). Radiative forcing
125 calculations based on these projections should also correct the radiative efficiencies using the $\frac{\Delta X_{sfc}}{\Delta X_{atm}}$ factor.

126 However, calculations of radiative forcing from observed changes in *surface* mole fractions using radiative
127 efficiencies should not use this correction. We recommend that, in future, calculations or assessments of radiative
128 efficiencies report both the radiative forcing per surface mole fraction change and per mean-atmospheric mole
129 fraction change.



130 **5. Conclusions**

131 We have shown that it is inconsistent to use radiative efficiency (per surface mole fraction) calculations in the
132 standard GWP formulation if they account for decreases in atmospheric mole fraction above the surface. Since
133 these calculations account for a decreased atmospheric mass, this must also be accounted for in the conversion to
134 radiative efficiency per mass; otherwise the inconsistency will cause errors in the GWP calculation. Similarly
135 calculations of radiative forcing from projected greenhouse gas molar fractions for climate scenarios should also
136 be corrected to use radiative forcing per mean-atmospheric mole fraction rather than per surface mole fraction.
137 For species where the main decrease in mole fraction occurs in the stratosphere, the effect is only around 5% to
138 8% but leads to a systematic underestimate of the GWP or radiative forcing. For species with short tropospheric
139 lifetimes (a year or less) the underestimates can be 10-60%, or even larger for species with lifetimes less than a
140 month. Correcting these underestimates can bring the GWP100 for some species over critical legislative
141 thresholds (see, for example, Section 4 of Hodnebrog et al., 2020) and thus impact on their perceived desirability
142 for use for certain applications. For instance the GWP100 for HFC-32 increases from 749 to 794. It is
143 recommended that the corrections provided in this letter are applied to GWP values and other climate emission
144 metrics from the IPCC Assessment Reports and WMO Ozone Assessments.

145 **Data Availability**

146 The data for the figure are available from Zenodo with the DOI [10.5281/zenodo.18485657](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.18485657) (Hodnebrog,
147 2026)
148

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153 **Author contributions**

154 WJC and ØH conceived the study. ØH analysed the data. All authors contributed to drafting and reviewing the
155 text.

156 **Competing interests**

157 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest

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