



Climate Change Adaptation and Decision Making Support

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Thought Experiment: Which would you rather have, (a) or (b)?

Choice a		Choice b
Ia.A gift of 100 DKK	OF	Ib.A 25% chance to win 500 DKK
2a.A loss of 100 DKK	OF	2b.A 75% chance at losing 500 DKK
3a.A gift of 30 DKK	OF	3b. I in 10,000 chance to win 250,000 DKK
4a.A loss of 30 DKK	OF	4b. I in 10,000 chance at losing 250,000 DKK
5a.A gain of 100 DKK now	OF	5b.A gain of 100 DKK 100 years in the future
6a.A loss of 100 DKK now	Of	6b. 10% chance at losing 1000 DKK 100 years in the future
7a.A gain of I mil DKK now	OF	7b.A gain of 5 mil DKK over the next 100 years
8a.A loss of I mil DKK now	OF	8b. I in 1000 chance to lose 5 billion DKK over the next 100 years



Climate Change Adaptation and Decision Making Support

The Case of Urban flooding



Outline

- I.Adaptation in Context
- 2. Risk Assessment & Impact Analysis
- 3. Example: Århus
- 4. Group Work
- 5. Economic Assessment of Adaptation
- 6. Decision Making
- 7. Group Work



Outline

I.Adaptation in Context

- 2. Risk Assessment & Impact Analysis
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1. Background- Adaptation in Context



Definitions (IPCC)

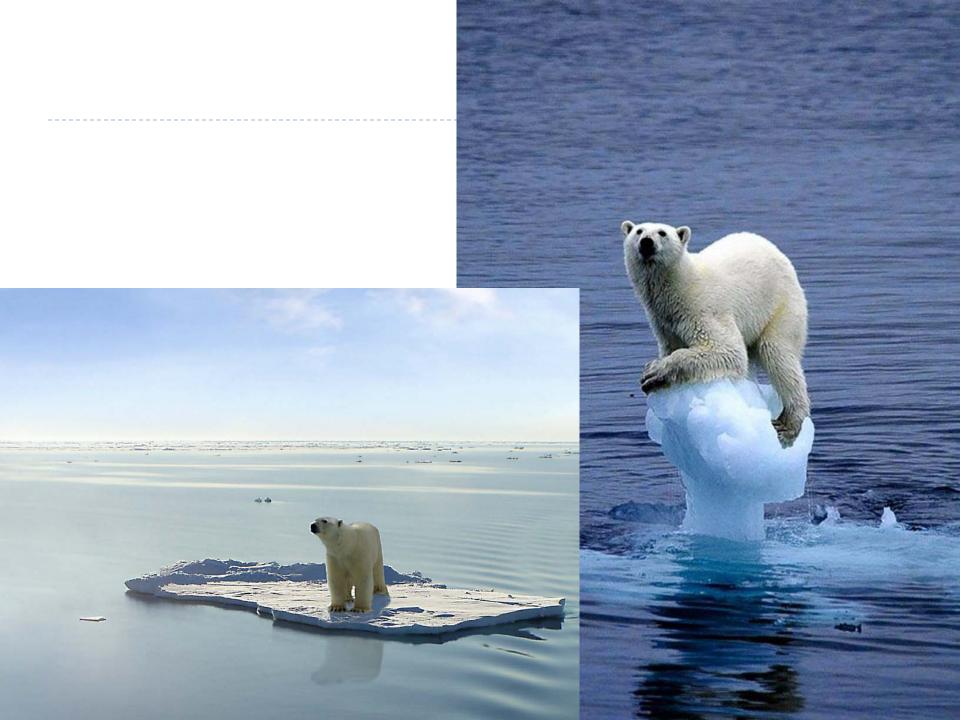
- Vulnerability- The propensity or predisposition to be adversely affected.
- Exposure- The presence of people; livelihoods; environmental services and resources; infrastructure; or economic, social, or cultural assets in places that could be adversely affected.
- Resilience- The ability of a system and its component parts to anticipate, absorb, accommodate, or recover from the effects of a hazardous event in a timely and efficient manner, including through ensuring the preservation, restoration, or improvement of its essential basic structures and functions.
- Adaptive Capacity- the ability or potential of a system to respond successfully to climate variability and change, and includes adjustments in both behavior and in resources and technologies.



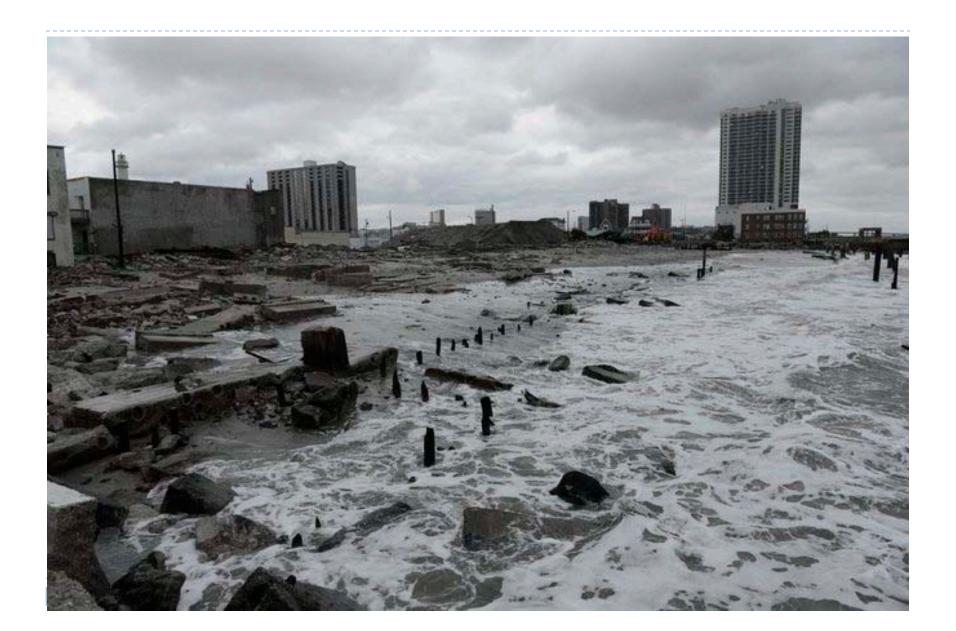
Impacts

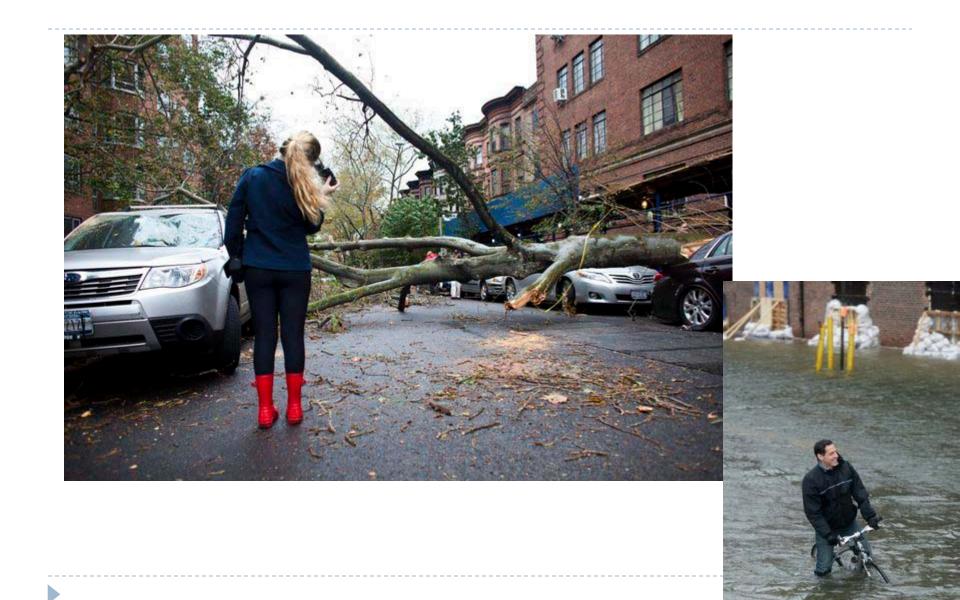












Climate Change Responses

Mitigation

- An anthropogenic intervention to reduce the sources or enhance the sinks of greenhouse gases (IPCC TAR 2001)
- Actions to reduce the effects of climate change
- e.g., carbon price, afforestation, etc.

Adaptation

- Adjustment in natural or human systems in response to actual or expected climatic stimuli or their effects, which moderates harm or exploits beneficial opportunities (IPCC TAR 2001)
- Actions to tolerate the effects of climate change
- e.g., sea walls, improve storm sewer systems, etc.

Others?

- Geo-engineering?
- Nothing



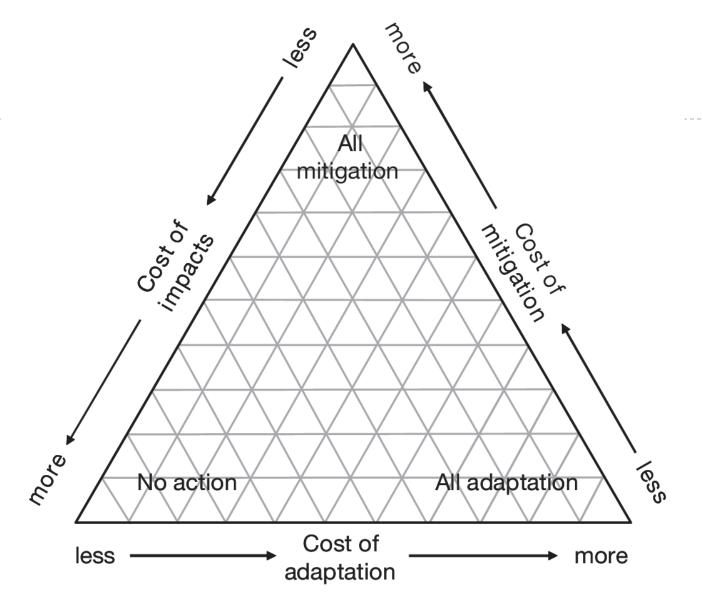
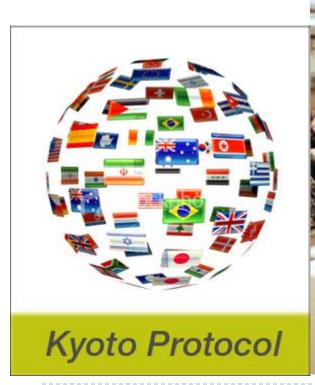


Figure 18.1. A schematic overview of inter-relationships between adaptation, mitigation and impacts, based on Holdridge's life-zone classification scheme (Holdridge, 1947, 1967; M.L. Parry, personal communication).

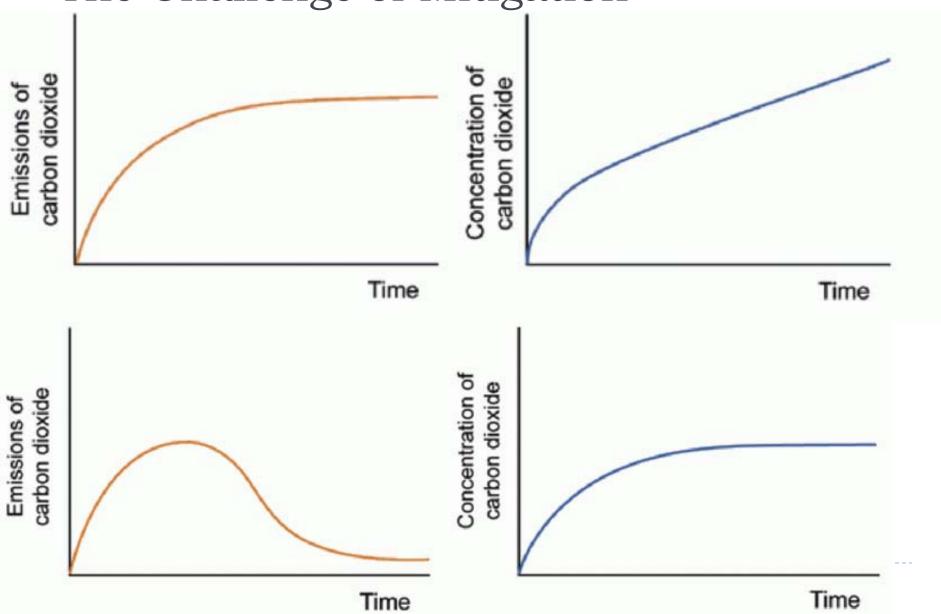
What about Mitigation?

- Seek a global agreement to limit greenhouse gases
- E.g. Kyoto Protocol

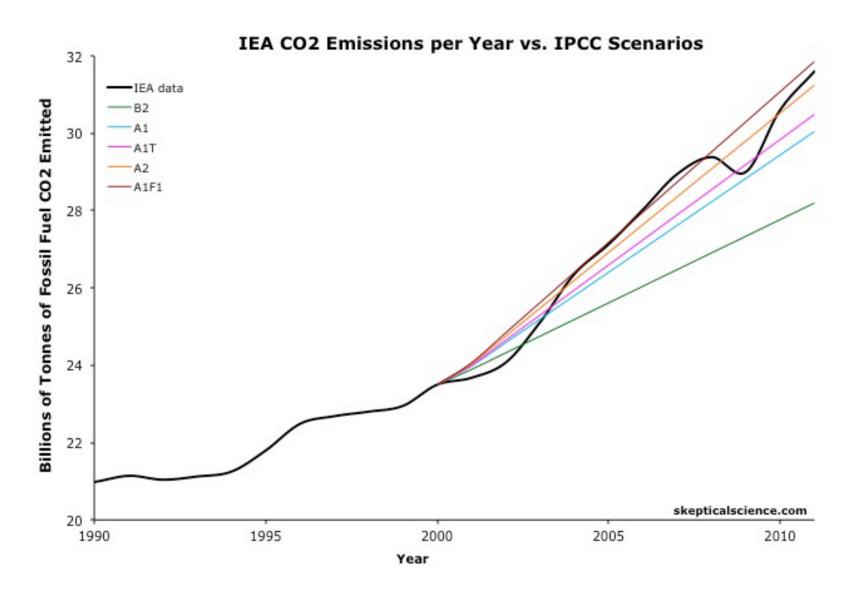




The Challenge of Mitigation

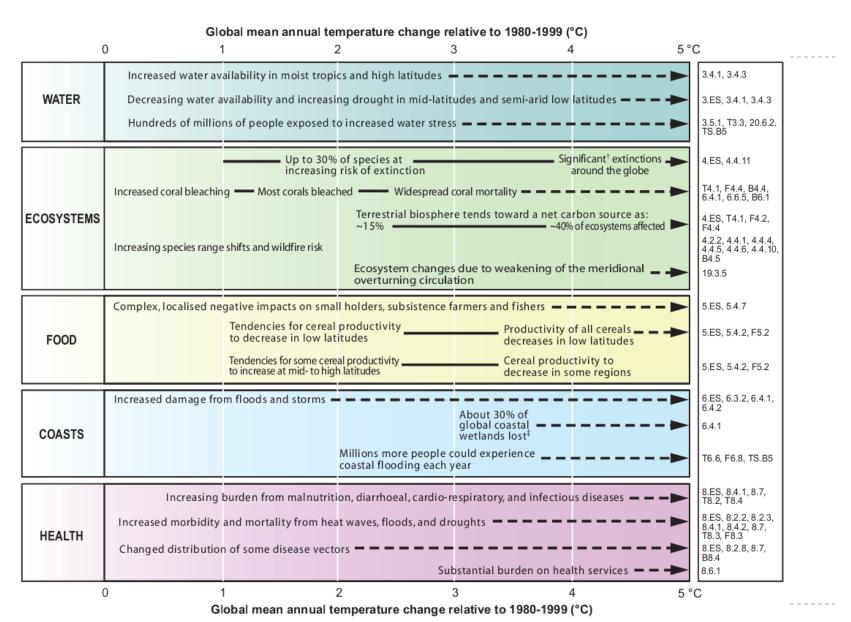


How are we doing?



Key impacts as a function of increasing global average temperature change

(Impacts will vary by extent of adaptation, rate of temperature change, and socio-economic pathway)



[†]Significant is defined here as more than 40%.

[‡] Based on average rate of sea level rise of 4.2 mm/year from 2000 to 2080.

Some adaptation is necessary...

- Adaptation will be necessary to address impacts resulting from the warming which is already unavoidable due to past emissions.
- Past emissions are estimated to involve some unavoidable warming (about a further 0.6°C by the end of the century relative to 1980-1999) even if atmospheric greenhouse gas concentrations remain at 2000 levels. There are some impacts for which adaptation is the only available and appropriate response.

-IPCC AR4



More definitions

- anticipatory (or proactive) adaptation: before the impacts of climate change
- reactive adaptation: put in place after the impacts of climate change
- autonomous adaptation: an unconscious response to climatic stimuli, triggered by climate changes
- planned adaptation: resulting from political decisions, and based on an awareness of changing conditions and that actions are necessary to ensure well-being
- private adaptation: initiated by individuals, families or private companies
- public adaptation: initiated and instituted by government at all levels



Mitigation, Adaptation, and Scale

Adaptation is an investment in private self-insurance to reduce the severity of realized damages. Mitigation is an investment in collective self-protection to reduce the odds that a bad state of nature is realized, and is the sum of all nations' efforts to reduce carbon emissions. Thus adaptation is mainly a private good in which the benefits of reduced severity accrue to one nation, whereas mitigation is a public risk-reduction strategy in which the benefits of reduced risk accrue to all nations. (Hanley et al.,p 280)



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2. Risk & Impact Assessment

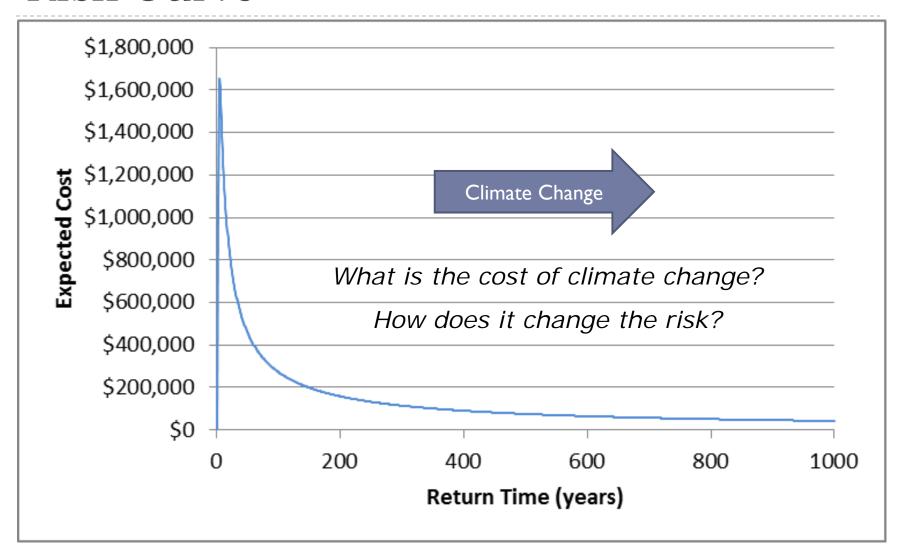


Risk = Probability of the impact x magnitude of the impact

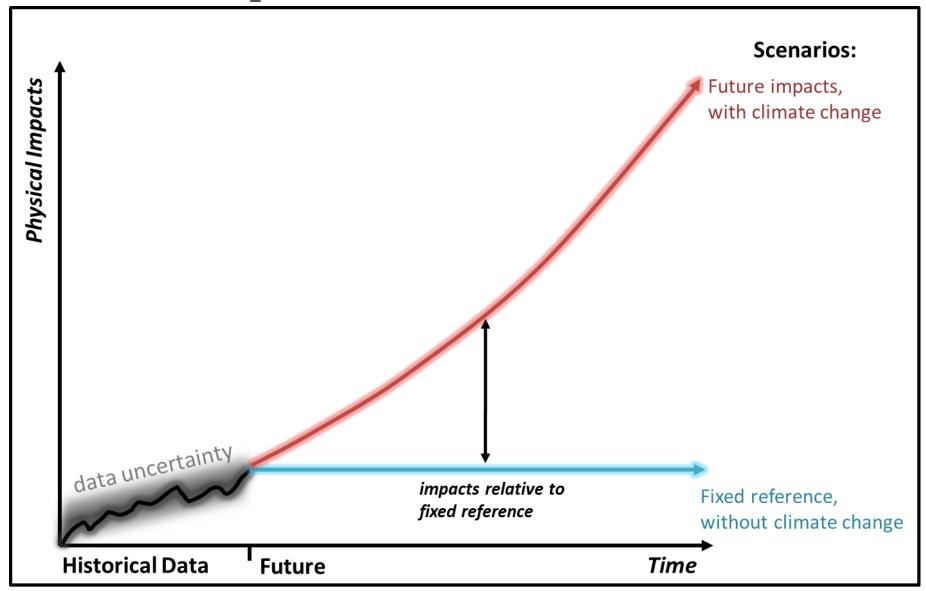
The more severe storms have larger impacts, but they are also less common. As the climate changes, they are expected to become more frequent.



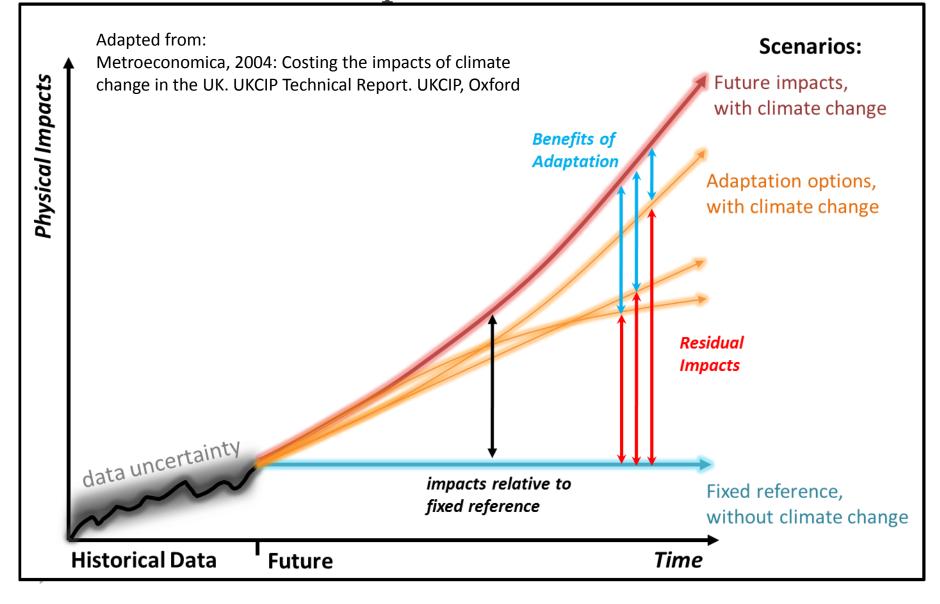
Risk Curve



Risk & Impact Assessment



"Benefits of Adaptation"



Impact Assessment

Goals:

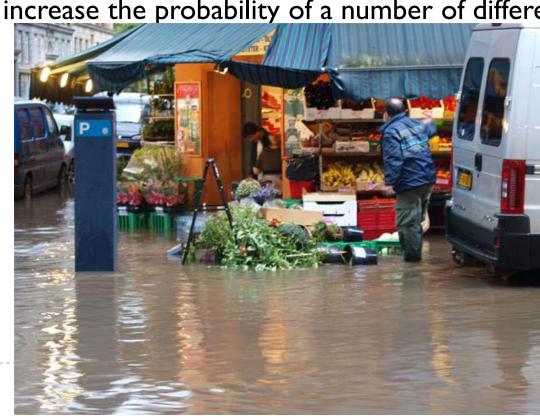
- identify impacted areas
- highlight key uncertainties
- inform decision makers on which adaptation options make sense

Climate change can increase the probability of a number of different

impacts

How do we select the impacts of interest?

How do we assess these?





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3. Example: Århus





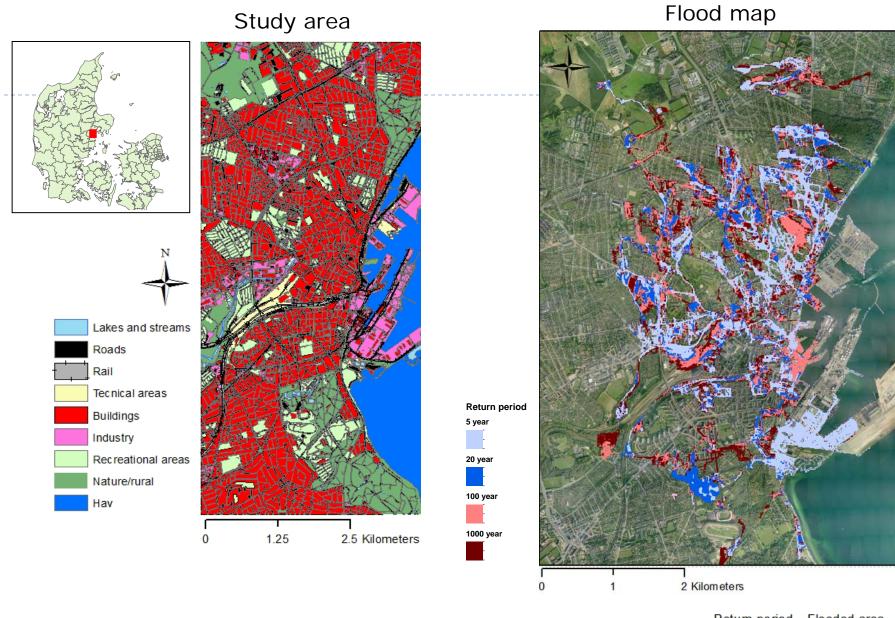
Århus case

Impacts considered:

- Infrastructure
 - Residential Structures
 - Industry and Commercial
- Transportation
 - Delays
 - Trips avoided
 - Road damage
- Health
 - Injuries and Illness
 - Deaths
- Other
 - Historical & Cultural Value
 - Symbolic & Religious Value







Retum period Flooded area 5 year = 2,41 km2 20 year = 3.52 km2 100 year = 5.01 km2 1000 year = 6.38 km2

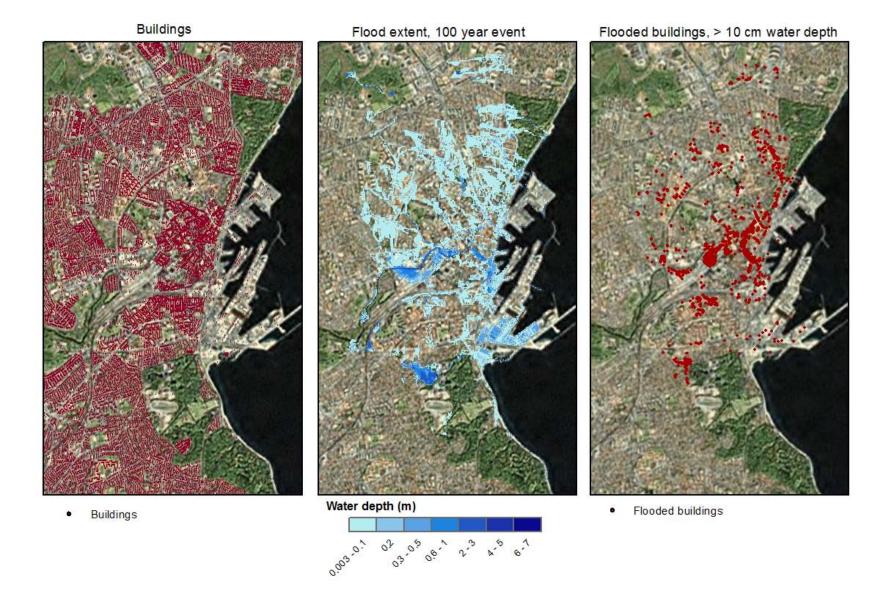
Infrastructure

Method:

- Use a flood map to locate structures that are inundated with more than 10cm of water
- Use insurance data from 2011 Copenhagen flood to estimate damage costs
- Assume similar cost for industrial areas, less the basement/ personal property loss.

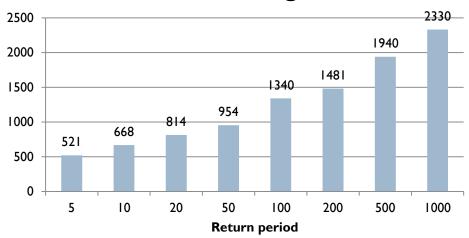
28.11

Buildings Flooded

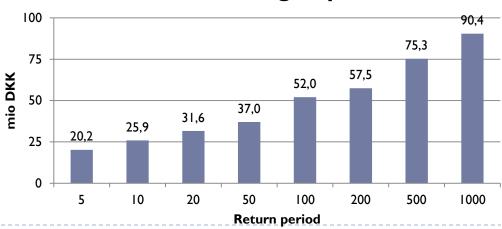


Cost of building impacts

Number of buildings flooded



Cost of building impacts



Transportation

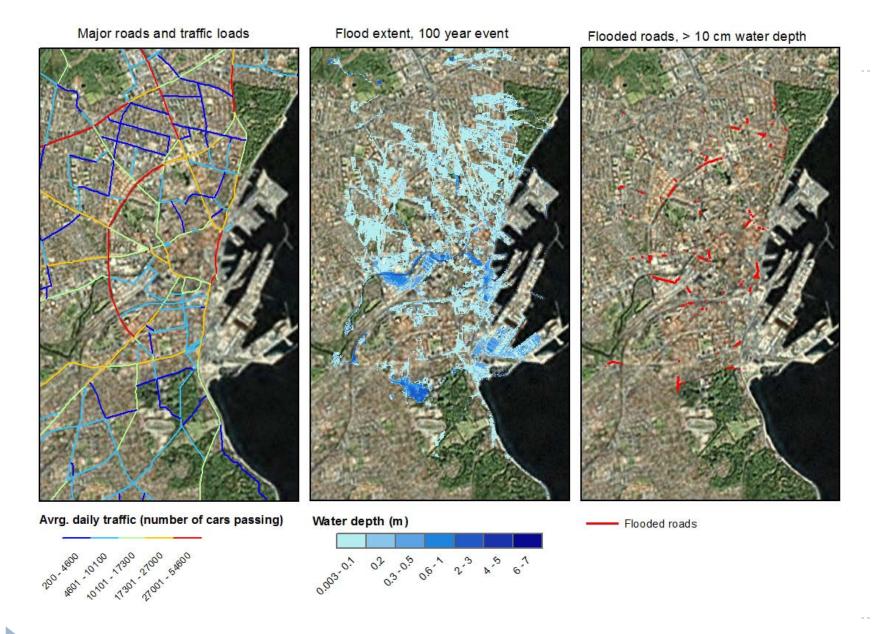
Method:

- Delays
 - Use traffic count data from Århus
 - Google traffic maps
 - We assume traffic delay can be approximated by peak traffic versus nonpeak. Multiply travel times by this % increase
 - Multiply by average salary
- Avoided travel
 - We assume that the proportion of transportation network that is flooded (approx. equivalent to % of residential area flooded) represents proportion of people who stay home from work
 - Multiply by average salary
- Road Damage
 - Function of water depth and peak velocity from GIS map. Cost data from multi-country, multi-study review (Netherlands).

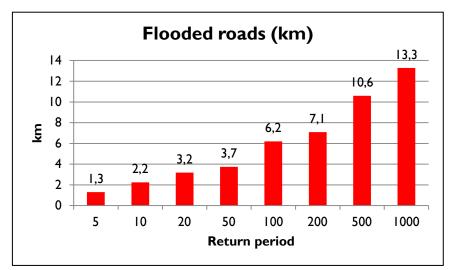
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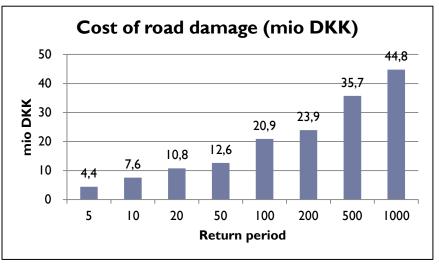
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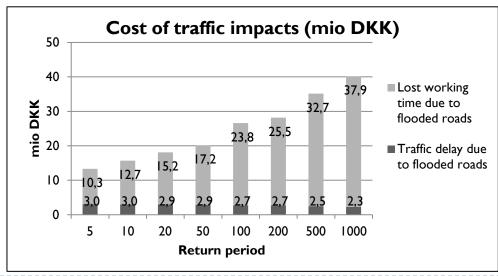
Transportation Flooding



Cost of transportation impacts







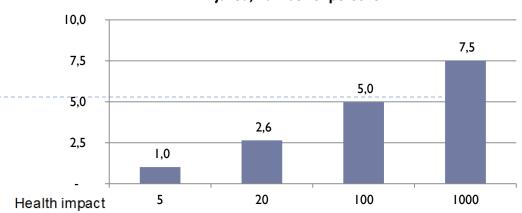


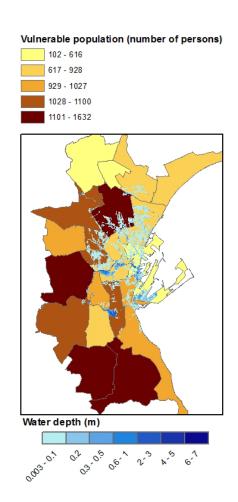
Health

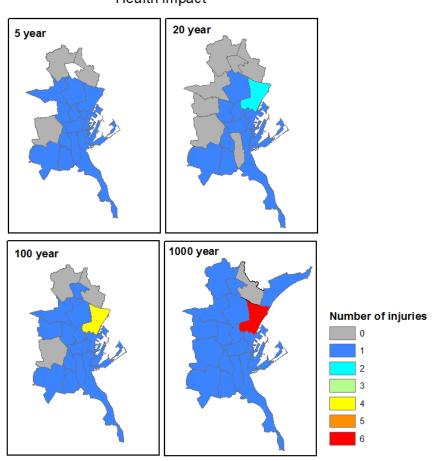
- Number of injured and killed based on a procedure by Penning-Rowsell et al. (2005). Approach employs:
 - water depth,
 - maximum velocity,
 - anticipated debris loads,
 - housing type,
 - warning systems and
 - location of vulnerable population.
- Spatially explicit based on flood map and age specific census map
- ▶ Costs estimated from value of a statistical life, adjusted by assuming different severity of injuries

Health Impacts

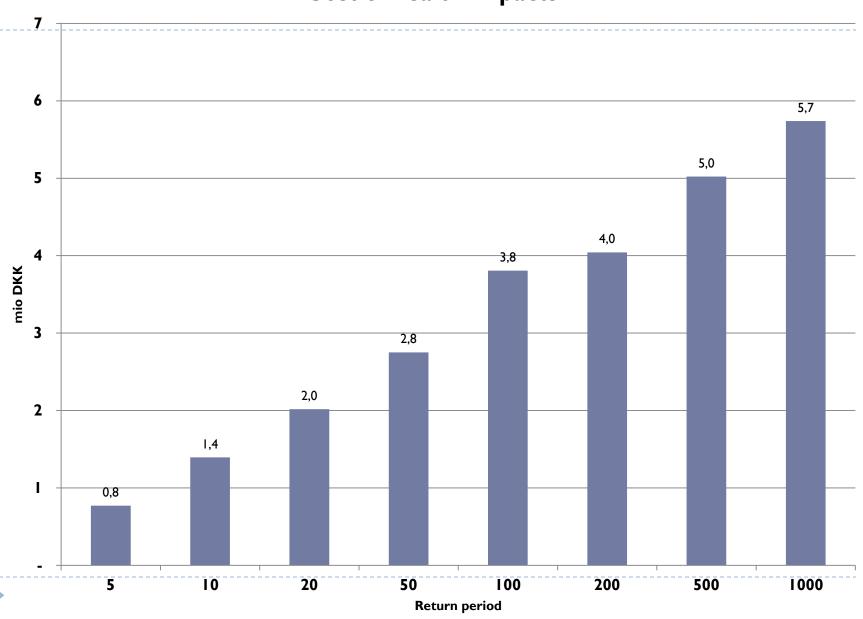
Injured, number of persons



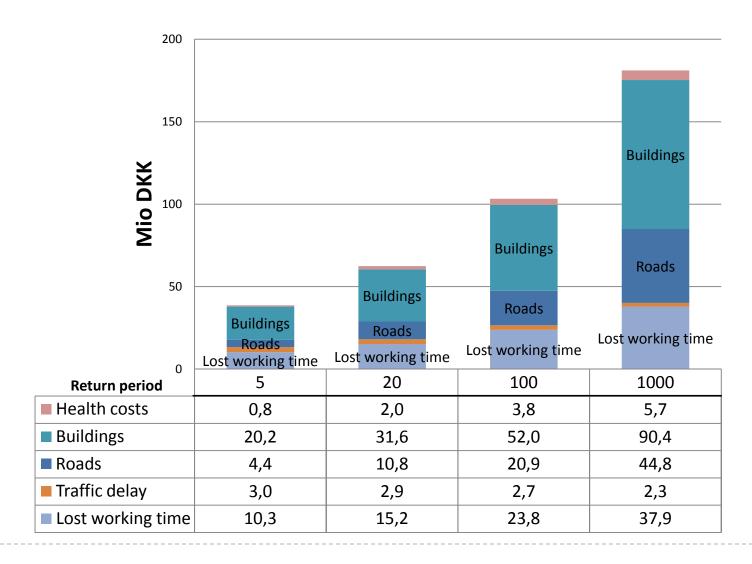




Cost of health impacts



Cost benefit summary



Other Impacts: What are the costs of these?







Viking Museum:
Archaeological Site



Kindergarten:

Very new things





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4. Group Work

Questions I & 2 in the Excel Spreadsheet





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5. Economic Assessment of Adaptation



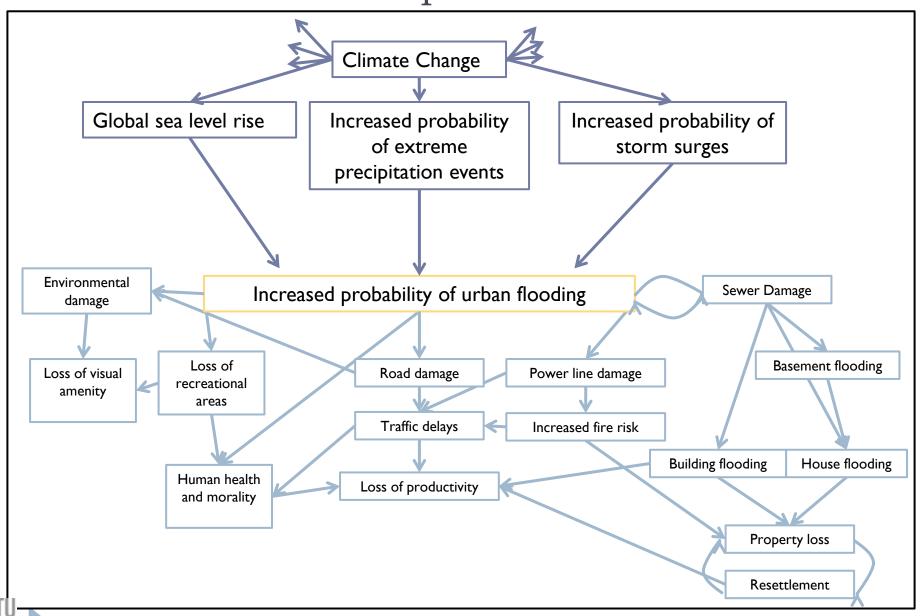
Identifying Risks and Impacts

Impact	Physical measure	Direct Cost	Additional Consequences
Flooding of basement in	Number of houses and	Repair	Loss of irreplaceable
houses	area		objects
Erosion of road	Distance of road	Repair	Traffic congestion and
			delay
Illness from water	Number of person days	Lost salary,	General loss of wellbeing
pollution	with sickness	Lost productivity	loss of life
Flooding of local lake	Impacts on life in the lake	Clean up, restoration	Esthetic value,
	water level		loss of recreational area
			illness
Flooding of unique	Physical character of the	Repair and replacement	Esthetic values
historical building	building		
Traffic delay	Time	Lost salary,	Worker morale,
		Lost productivity	lost time for leisure
Loss of recreational areas	Area inundated	Reparation, clean up,	Lost leisure,
		replacement	visual amenity

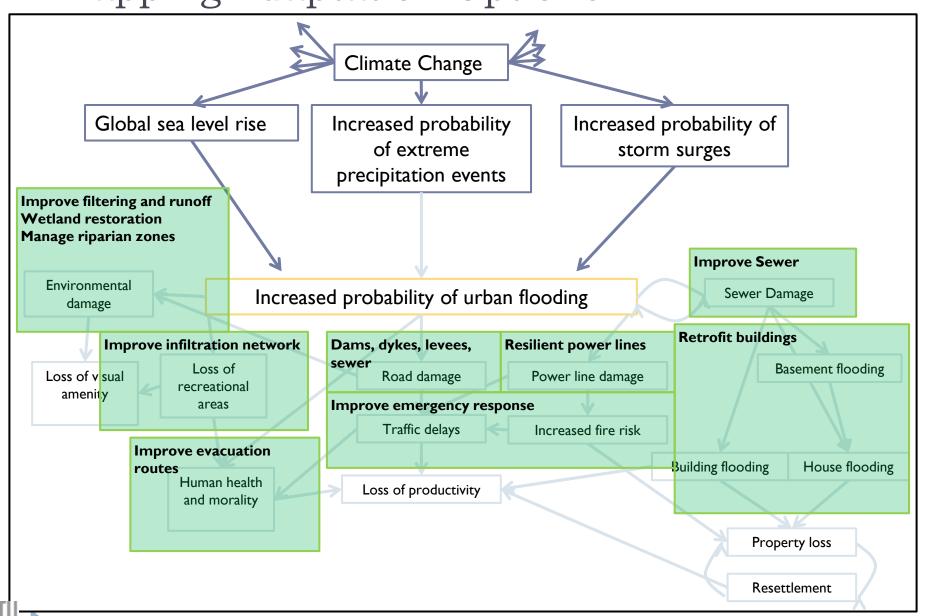
etc.



Causal Chain of Impacts



Mapping Adaptation Options





Which Adaptation Options?

- How do the various adaptation options relate to the different damage categories?
 - e.g., expanding sewage pipes may protect more than just buildings
 - e.g., a focus on protecting a church may at the same time be a solution that will protect the adjacent buildings
- Each adaptation option is analyzed in the decision matrix.

Adaptation option	Cost of imple-mentating option i	Impact a, given option i	Preference factor for impact a	Impact b, given option i	Preference factor for impact b		Proba- bility of extreme event	Damage
O ₁	C(O ₁)	a ₁ = a O ₁	W a	b ₁ = b O ₁	w_b	•••	p(x)	$C(O_1)+p(x)*$ $(w_a*a_1 + w_b*b_1+)-V(O_0)$
O ₂	C(O ₂)	a ₂ = a O ₂	\mathbf{w}_{a}	b ₂ = b O ₂	w_b		p(x)	$C(O_2)+p(x)*$ $(w_a*a_2 + w_b*b_2+)-V(O_0)$
:	:	:	:	÷	:		:	:
O _n	C(O _n)	a _n = a O _n	\mathbf{w}_{a}	$b_n = b \mid O_n$	w_b		p(x)	$(W_a*a_n + W_n*b_n+)-V(O_0)$



Impact Assessment within the Decision Making Framework

Decision Support Matrix: A systematic way of comparing available choices and options (rows) on the basis of a set of criteria (columns) associated with each hypothetical outcome from the climate model

Adaptation option	Cost of imple-mentating option i	Impact a, given option i	Preference factor for impact a	Impact b, given option	Preference factor for impact b		Probability of extreme event	Damage
O _R	←refere	a = alo nce scena	rio, no clim	b _e =blO _e ate ^e change	W_b		p(x _R)	$V(O_R) = p(x_R)^*$ $(w_a^*a_R + w_b^*b_R^*+)$
O ₀	←climat	e change	scenario	h=bl0 damage f	rom Climate	e cha	nge(x)	$V(O_0) = p(x)*(w_a*a_0 + w_b*$ $b_0+) - V(O_R)$
O ₁	C(O ₁)	a ₁ = a O ₁	W _a	b ₁ = b O ₁	Wo		p(x)	$C(O_1)+p(x)*$ $(w_a*a_1+w_b*b_1+)-V(O_0)$
O ₂	C(O ₂)	a ₂ = a O ₂	\mathbf{w}_{a}	b ₂ = b O ₂	w_b		p(x)	$C(O_2)+p(x)*$ $(w_a*a_2+w_b*b_2+)-V(O_0)$
O ₃	C(O ₃)	a ₃ = a O ₃	\mathbf{w}_{a}	b ₃ = b O ₃	\mathbf{w}_{b}		p(x)	$C(O_3)+p(x)*$ $(w_a*a_3+w_b*b_3+)-V(O_0)$
:	:	:	:	:	:	.:.	:	:
O _n	C(O,) ←adapta	a = a O ation opti	ons, given cl	b = b Q imate char	nge scenaric		p(x)	$C(O_n)+p(x)*$ $(w_a*a_n+w_n*b_n+)-V(O_0)$



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6. Decision Making



Why decision theory?

- The decision-making process isn't a "black box" where calculations are done by scientists and finally presented to decision-makers
 - people make decisions
 - people are influenced by the probabilities, but
 - people have different preferences and values
- → The method and framing of the analysis leading up to the decision-making process needs to take this into account.

Impact Analysis



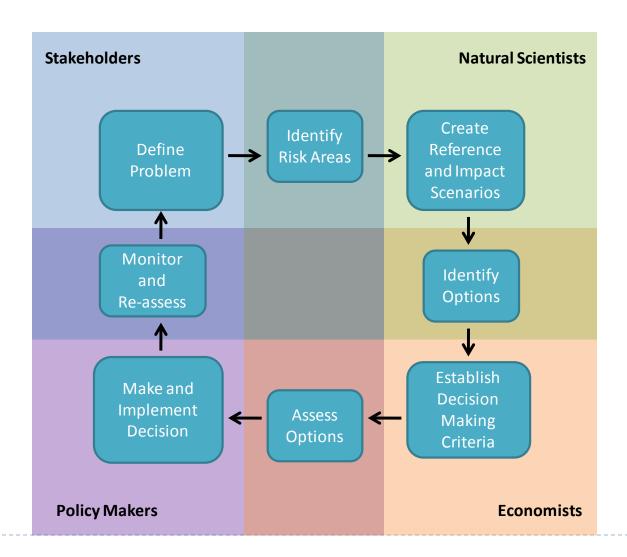
Decision Support Matrix





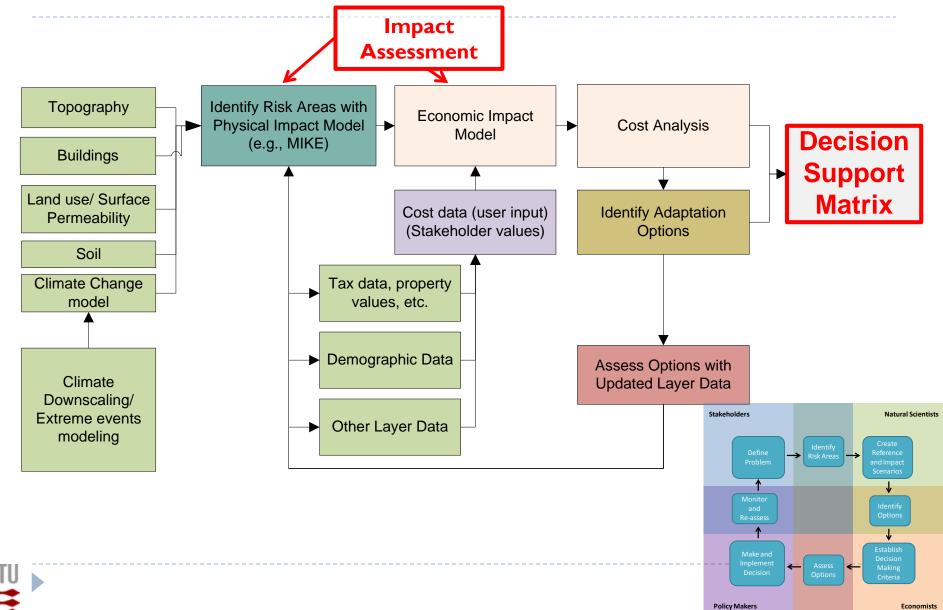
Decision

Adaptation Strategies and Decision Making: Actors and Process





Adaptation Decision Analysis



Decision Making

Impact Assessment

Decision Support Matrix

- Adaptation Decisions are Based Upon:
 - damage assessments
 - weighting of impacts
 - attitudes toward risk
 - parallel/competing goals with existing and concurrent policies
 - predefined non-negotiable constraints





Theory of Expected Utility

- The dominate approach to decision-making under risk
 - ~ Probability-weighted-utility-theory
- With *n* outcomes with utility *u* and *probability p* the <u>decision rule</u> is as follows:

$$Max (p_1 \cdot u_1 + p_2 \cdot u_2 + ... + p_n \cdot u_n)$$

thanges in probabilities or utility will of course change the choice of preferred action





Prospect theory: Background

- Developed by psychologists Daniel Kahneman and Amos Tversky in 1979
- More accurate description of preferences compared to expected utility theory
- Describes how people choose between probabilistic alternatives and evaluate potential losses and gains.
- →In a sense it takes account of the inconsistency / irrationality in decisions
 - e.g. the overweighing of low probabilities

⁻⁻⁻Source:-Kahneman & Tversky (1979): Prospect-Theory:-An-Analysis-of-Decision

under Risk. Econometrica.

Prospect theory

- The certainty effect:
- People underweight outcomes that are merely probable in comparison with outcomes that are obtained with certainty
 - → leads to risk aversion in choices involving sure gain
 - → leads to risk seeking in choices involving sure losses

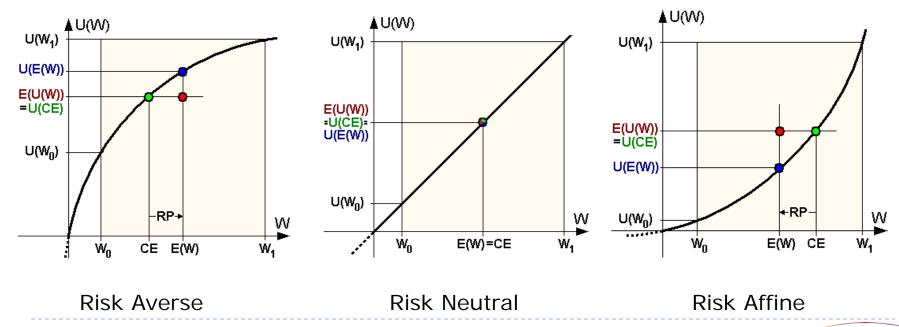
2. <u>Isolation effect</u>

- People tend to discard components that are shared by all prospects under consideration
 - → leads to inconsistent preferences when the same choice is presented in different forms
- 3. People react to relative changes and not to absolute levels
- Who is happier? The man than had 20 mil DKK and gained 2 mil DKK or the man that had nothing and found I mil DKK laying on the street?

Source: Kahneman & Tversky (1979): Prospect Theory: An Analysis of Decision under Risk. Econometrica.

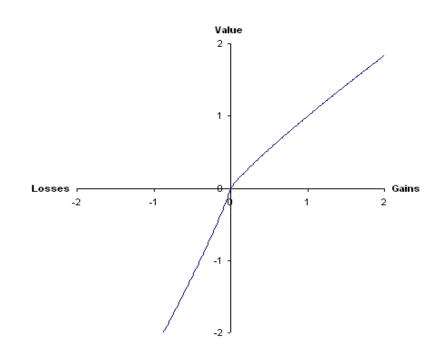
Risk Aversion Factor

- Index value that reflects a risk aversion factor
- Different factors are applied to different damage elements or applied in general to the whole function



Under prospect theory...

- ... value is assigned to gains and losses rather than to final assets
- ... the value function is:
 - defined on deviations from a reference point
 - normally concave (f''(x)<0) for gains (= risk aversion)</p>
 - commonly convex (f''(x)>0) for losses (=risk seeking)
 - generally steeper for losses than for gains (=loss aversion)
 - steepest at the reference point



Source: Academy of Behavioural Finance and Economics

----Source:-Kahneman &-Tversky-(1979):-Prospect-Theory:-An-Analysis-of-Decision

under Risk. Econometrica.

Thought Experiments: Which would you rather have, (a) or (b)?

Choice a	0[Choice b
Ia.A gift of 100 DKK	Of	Ib.A 25% chance to win 500 DKK
2a.A loss of 100 DKK	Of	2b. 75% chance at losing 500 DKK
3a. A gift of 30 DKK	Of	3b. I in 10,000 chance to win 250,000 DKK
4a.A loss of 30 DKK	Of	4b. I in 10,000 chance at losing 250,000 DKK

Thought Experiments: Which would you rather have, (a) or (b)?

Choices based on Expected Value

Choice a	OF	Choice b
Ia.A gift of 100 DKK EV=100 DKK	OF	Ib.A 25% chance to win 500 DKK EV=125 DKK
2a.A loss of 100 DKK EV= -100 DKK	Oľ	2b. 75% chance at losing 500 DKK $EV = -125 \ DKK$
3a.A gift of 30 DKK EV= 30 DKK	Oľ	3b. I in 10,000 chance to win 250,000 DKK EV= 25 DKK
4a.A loss of 30 DKK $EV = -30 \ DKK$	Of	4b. I in 10,000 chance at losing 250,000 DKK EV= -25 DKK

Thought Experiments: Which would you rather have, (a) or (b)?

How most people choose!

Choice a	Of	Choice b
Ia.A gift of I00 DKK Certainty effect: Risk adverse for gains EV=100 DKK	OF	Ib.A 25% chance to win 500 DKK EV=125 DKK
2a.A loss of 100 DKK EV= -100 DKK	Of	2b. 75% chance at losing 500 DKK Certainty effect: Risk affine for losses EV= -125 DKK
3a. A gift of 30 DKK EV= 30 DKK	OF	3b. I in 10,000 chance to win 250,000 DKK Lottery: Risk affine for large gains EV= 25 DKK
4a.A loss of 30 DKK Insurance: Risk adverse for large losses $EV = -30 \ DKK$	Of	4b. I in 10,000 chance at losing 250,000 DKK EV= -25 DKK

6

28.11

Thought Experiments: Now which would you rather have, (a) or (b)?

Choice a	OF	Choice b
Ia.A gain of 100 DKK now	OF	Ib.A gain of 100 DKK 100 years in the future
2a.A loss of 100 DKK now	Of	2b. 10% chance at losing 1000 DKK 100 years in the future
3a. A gain of I mil DKK now	Of	3b.A gain of 5 mil DKK over the next 100 years
4a.A loss of I mil DKK now	Of	4b. I in 1000 chance to lose 5 billion DKK over the next 100 years



Thought Experiments: Now which would you rather have, (a) or (b)?

Choice a	OF	Choice b
Ia.A gain of 100 DKK now	OF	Ib.A gain of 100 DKK 100 years in the future
2a.A loss of 100 DKK now	Of	2b. 10% chance at losing 1000 DKK 100 years in the future
3a. A gain of I mil DKK now	Of	3b.A gain of 5 mil DKK over the next 100 years
4a.A loss of I mil DKK now	Of	4b. I in 1000 chance to lose 5 billion DKK over the next 100 years



Adaptation Decision Making: Which game are we playing?

▶ I.Abatement of future anticipated impacts

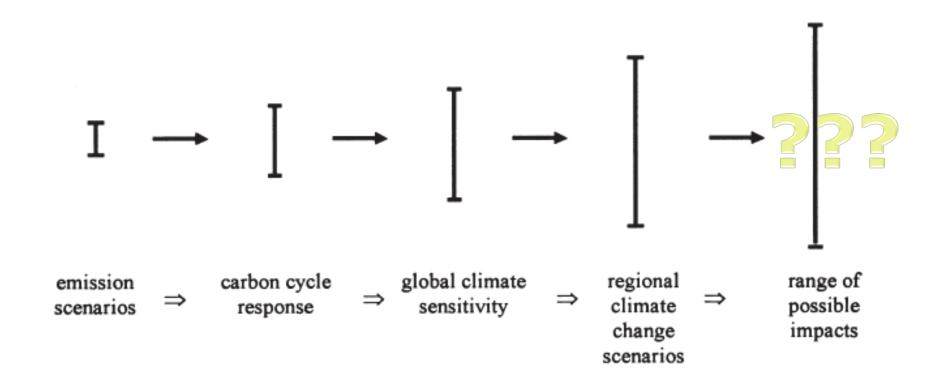


▶ 2. Insurance against current vulnerabilities





Cascade of uncertainty



Schneider et al. (eds.) (2002): Climate Change Policy: A survey



Uncertainty: Århus in the Future

Århus 2009 municipal plan: In the next 20 years:

- +50,000 jobs
- +10,000-15,000 students
- **▶** +75,000 population
- The council has made environmental and social sustainability a priority in it vision for the future.
- How does this affect the analysis of future impacts?
- How does this constrain the future decision making criteria?
- What will Århus look like in the future?



The Time Dimension

- How do we represent future hypothetical states and risk in models?
- How do we model future human behavior on a societal level?
- How do we know what future generations will value?





Decision Criteria: Planning for the Future

- What are the extent of impacts and the effectiveness of potential adaptation measures?
- What will the area look like in the future?
- What will we learn in the mean time?
- What will we value?

- Challenges of modeling the future:
 - Is it possible for a model to predict the future of a human system?
 - Is it possible to validate the model by running from a past date to the present?





Differences between modeling physical systems vs. conducting policy analysis

For policy analysis to make sense, we have two philosophical assumptions:

I. Non-Determinism:

If we assume that whatever is going to happen is already predestined, then policy has no role. We have to assume that policy has the power to change the course we are on.

2. Non-Nihilism:

We have to assume that some outcomes are better than others and that there exists a criteria for deciding between the different outcomes. If not, policy again would have no purpose because every possible future would be equally desirable.







Who Responsibility is it? Who pays?

- Individual? Autonomous Adaptation...
- Government?



Who is adapting?

- We only care about climate change adaptation because of the human system. If there were no people, it wouldn't matter.
- How do we understand climate change adaptation under the context of future human decisions?
- How should uncertainty and risk be understood in an economic analysis to support decision making?
- How should adaptation be considered in the larger context of responses to climate change, and other needs that require resources from the government?

Conclusions

- The goal of economic analysis of adaptation is to aid in decision making.
- A rigorous approach to cost-benefit analysis can clarify decisions about which adaptation options to implement, and when to implement them.
- How should we effectively incorporate economic discounting and attitudes toward risk (such as the precautionary principle) into adaptation decision making?



Outline

- 1. Adaptation in Context
- 2. Risk Assessment & Impact Analysis
- 3. Example: Århus
- 4. Group Work
- 5. Economic Assessment of Adaptation
- 6. Decision Making
- 7. Group Work



7. Group Work

Questions 3 & 4 in the Excel Spreadsheet



