

# Climate shift uncertainty and economic damages

By ROMAIN FILLON, MANUEL LINSSENMEIER AND GERNOT WAGNER\*

WORKING DRAFT—DO NOT CITE OR DISTRIBUTE

COMMENTS WELCOME

October 16, 2024

*Focusing on global annual averages of climatic variables, as in the standard damage function approach, can bias aggregate and distributional estimates of the economic impacts of climate change. Here we empirically estimate global and regional dose-response functions of GDP growth rates to daily mean temperature levels and combine them with regional climate projections of daily mean temperatures. We disentangle for various shared socio-economic pathways (SSPs) how much of the missing impacts are due to heterogeneous warming versus heterogeneous damage patterns over space and time. Global damages in 2050 are around 25% higher when accounting for the shift in the shape of the entire intra-annual distribution of daily mean temperatures at the regional scale.*

*JEL: Q54*

*Keywords: damage functions, climate risk, uncertainty, climate shift, temporal disaggregation, spatial disaggregation, temperature downscaling*

\* Fillon\*: Université Paris-Saclay, CIRED & PSAE, Paris, France, rfillon@protonmail.com (\*corresponding author); Linsenmeier: Princeton University, High Meadows Environmental Institut, NJ, United States, mlinsenmeier@princeton.edu; Wagner: Columbia University, Columbia Business School, New York, NY, United States, gwagner@columbia.edu

7     Knowing how future climate damages might be distributed in time and space  
8 is a key research frontier and policy issue for climate scientists, economists, and  
9 decision-makers. Projections of endogenous climate damages in macroeconomic  
10 models [Fernández-Villaverde et al., 2024] typically rely on reduced-form relation-  
11 ships between climate change and the macroeconomy, which are generally based  
12 on *annual* climatic statistics—e.g. mean annual temperatures. Furthermore,  
13 models are generally aggregated for that climate variable to be *global*—mean an-  
14 nual global temperatures. In these integrated climate-economy models, carbon  
15 emissions are a by-product of regional economic activities. A reduced-form cli-  
16 mate module then allows to capture how these carbon emissions turn into global  
17 annual mean temperature anomaly, from which regional annual mean temper-  
18 ature anomaly can be down-scaled through a simple linear and time-invariant  
19 factor ; a process also called pattern scaling. The regional physical impacts are  
20 then interacted with dose-response functions estimated on global data to mea-  
21 sure the economic impacts of endogenous climate change. These macroeconomic  
22 models are either global [Nordhaus, 1994], regional [Nordhaus and Yang, 1996]  
23 or gridded, as in the burgeoning spatial integrated assessment modelling (IAM)  
24 literature [Desmet and Rossi-Hansberg, 2024], e.g. Krusell and Smith Jr [2022]  
25 and Cruz and Rossi-Hansberg [2024].

26     The underlying assumption behind these approaches is that the shapes of the  
27 spatio-temporal distributions of mean temperatures do not matter. First, with  
28 regard to the temporal dimension, the intra-annual shape of the distribution of  
29 daily mean temperature is assumed to remain constant: temperature increases  
30 due to climate change are shape-preserving increases in annual mean. Second, re-  
31 garding the spatial dimension, an average increase in temperature at global level  
32 is assumed to affect the regional annual distribution by a linear and time-invariant  
33 down-scaling factor such as the regional transient response to cumulative emis-  
34 sions [Leduc et al., 2016]. The reality of future regional weather changes, however,  
35 seems more complex, for two main reasons. First, natural climate variability over

36 time and space, both from external (e.g. solar cycles) and internal factors (e.g.  
37 El Niño-La Niña), might distort future temperature distributions beyond the an-  
38 nual mean [Schwarzwald and Lenssen, 2022]. Second and more fundamentally,  
39 the process determining the shape of the weather distribution within a given year  
40 for a given regional mean temperature might not be stationary, so that time-  
41 invariant relations between annual averages and the intra-annual distribution of  
42 weather only imperfectly reflect regional-specific shifts in warming patterns. In  
43 North-West Europe, for example, hottest summer days are warming twice as fast  
44 as mean summer days [García-León et al., 2021, Patterson, 2023]. That opens  
45 the question around the ‘right’ level of spatial and temporal aggregation for pro-  
46 jecting future impacts. Aggregation has advantages, as it comes with statistical  
47 robustness, clear identification of causal relationships, and tractability in models  
48 where anomaly in climate results from endogenous anthropogenic emissions; it  
49 also has shortcomings, such as the risk of averaging contradictory effects between  
50 regions both in terms of damage and warming patterns.

51 In parallel to integrated assessment models with endogenous climate change  
52 stemming from anthropogenic carbon emissions, some integrated assessment mod-  
53 els use exogenous global circulation model projections to infer the costs of climate  
54 change with adapting agents, e.g. spatial IAM such as Bilal and Rossi-Hansberg  
55 [2023] and Rudik et al. [2022]. In these models, which incorporate credible cli-  
56 mate projections, climate change remains exogenous to economic activities. As  
57 a result, the estimates from the two bodies of literature, i.e. endogenous and  
58 exogenous, evolve in parallel, yet the effects of this divergence on the aggregate  
59 and distributional estimates of climate impacts remain unclear. Our paper aims  
60 to shed light on this gap. Indeed, our paper tests the impact of two separate  
61 (but related) limitations of many existing studies: the effect of separately fitting  
62 models by region on the initial dose response function, and the effect of including  
63 regional climate change and projections that sample changes in the entire distri-  
64 bution on future projections using those dose response functions. To disentangle

65 these effects, we here follow a two-step approach. First, we switch from annual  
66 average temperatures to the complete daily temperature distribution over a year  
67 and show how this affects the heterogeneous distribution of warming patterns  
68 between regions, compared to a setting where we assume a shape-preserving shift  
69 in mean annual temperatures under a synthetic changing climate. Second, we  
70 interact these regional-specific shifts in warming patterns with regional-specific  
71 damage patterns, in comparison with a setting where we assume homogeneous  
72 damage patterns at the global scale. Indeed, when disaggregating to regional lev-  
73 els, economists often use global damage functions, instead of using estimates from  
74 regional-specific damage patterns. Meanwhile, it seems intuitive that a hot day in  
75 a relatively warm country has a different impact than the same day in a cold coun-  
76 try; Heutel et al. [2021] show this to be the case for U.S. counties. Alongside efforts  
77 to measure the non-linear effects of temperature on economic activity, for exam-  
78 ple with temperature bins [Dell et al., 2014, Hsiang, 2016, Auffhammer, 2018],  
79 we measure regional dose response functions, to capture some of the regional id-  
80 iosyncrasies in the climate-society relation. We focus on a physical idiosyncrasy  
81 and estimate regional dose-response functions for each aggregate Köppen-Geiger  
82 climatic zone: arid, continental, polar, temperate, tropical.

83 These debates over the spatio-temporal aggregation of climate projections might  
84 have important consequences, not only for establishing our best approximation of  
85 future damage and reconciling different approaches, but also in quantifying the  
86 uncertainty surrounding this best guess. Uncertainties in climate-economic mod-  
87 elling abound [Rising et al., 2022, Kotz et al., 2023]. The quantifiable variance of  
88 future projections of climate impacts is affected by scenario uncertainty (differ-  
89 ences in Shared Socioeconomic Pathways - SSPs), model uncertainty (differences  
90 in Earth System Models - ESM - responses to the SSPs), internal variability  
91 (spatiotemporally, due to the chaotic nature of the climate and due to regional  
92 differences that may be hidden by regional aggregation), any choices made in  
93 post-processing or bias-correcting ESM output (including how finely to apply



94 projected changes in climate distributions from ESMs), in addition to regression  
95 uncertainty from the dose-response functions, and differences between observa-  
96 tional data products used to fit the dose-response function and act as a baseline to  
97 which future ESM output is compared. Historically, many studies use global an-  
98 nual average climate variables to estimate and project climate damages, thereby  
99 ignoring an important source of internal variability stemming from regional dif-  
100 ferences in climate states and from only extracting mean changes from ESM  
101 projections. Among all uncertainties, we focus on two uncertainties and their in-  
102 teraction: the sensitivity of economic impact projections to an improved sampling  
103 of internal variability (through capturing regional differences in impacts) and an  
104 improved treatment of ESM output (by capturing changes in the full shape of the  
105 temperature distribution instead of annual averages). We take part in uncovering  
106 some of the model uncertainties between ESM using the whole shape of warming  
107 patterns that is usually reduced by the aggregation procedure on a global and  
108 annual scale. We provide a framework based on temperature distributions that  
109 can be applied to other climate data, for instance precipitation or maximum tem-  
110 peratures, and a quantification to show how much the regional-specific shift in  
111 the shape of warming patterns interacting with regional-specific damage patterns  
112 matter empirically, both at the aggregate level and in the distribution of impacts,  
113 with the year 2050 as a case study.

114 Our work yields two main conclusions. First, switching from annual global  
115 mean temperature to the regional annual distribution of daily mean tempera-  
116 tures affects the magnitude of the estimates of economic damages: in 2050, using  
117 regional damage patterns interacted with the shift in the whole shape of the dis-  
118 tribution of daily temperatures yields climate damage at the global scale that  
119 are around 25% larger than the damage obtained under the assumption of homo-  
120 geneous damage patterns over the world and a shape-preserving shift in annual  
121 mean daily temperature. Standard aggregation comes with underestimation of  
122 future climate damages. This result holds for a variety of more or less carbo-

123 intensive SSPs: SSP1-2.6, SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5. Second, we show that the  
 124 distributional effect is not clear-cut. Uncertainty in the change in the shape of  
 125 the temperature distributions affects all regions of the world in a heterogeneous  
 126 way, but is particularly strong in continental areas. This result is important for  
 127 standard climate change adaptation modelled in spatial integrated assessment  
 128 models. Indeed, they project that adaptation through migration to some regions  
 129 [Cruz and Rossi-Hansberg, 2024] or greater agricultural output in these regions  
 130 through structural change [Conte et al., 2021] might reduce the aggregate wel-  
 131 fare impacts of climate change and have large distributional implications, with  
 132 many benefits shifting to the northern hemisphere. The benefits of adaptation to  
 133 mitigate the aggregate welfare costs of climate change could therefore be overesti-  
 134 mated if the regions to which people migrate and where more agricultural output  
 135 is produced are continental climatic zones, which is the case.

## 136 I. Climate and economic data

### 137 A. Warming patterns

138 We compare the distribution of daily mean temperatures in actual climate pro-  
 139 jections to a counter-factual synthetic projection where the shape of the distribu-  
 140 tion remains the same while the mean annual temperature increases, a standard  
 141 assumption in the literature. We build different climate landscapes, where ‘cli-  
 142 mate’ is defined as the underlying distribution, from which a specific regional  
 143 temperature distribution over a year is drawn [Waidelich et al., 2023]. We use  
 144 CMIP6 bias-corrected and downscaled data at a resolution of 60 arc-minutes  
 145 from five earth system models (ESM) stored in ISIMIP Protocol 3B [Frieler  
 146 et al., 2023]: GFDL-ESM4, IPSL-CM6A-LR, MPI-ESM1-2-HR, MPI-ESM2-0,  
 147 UKESM1-0-LL. ISIMIP subset of climate models and de-biasing techniques were  
 148 designed to assess impacts of climate change and to span the larger ensemble  
 149 of CMIP models [Warszawski et al., 2014]. Thus, our illustrative study under-  
 150 estimates inter-model uncertainty among the over 100 CMIP6 models. Data is

151 available for three shared socioeconomic pathways (SSP 1-2.6, 3-7.0, 5-8.5). We  
152 construct four different climate landscapes for each SSP. The first is the climate  
153 landscape without climate change, the ‘control’ climate: it is the mean distribu-  
154 tion of ‘picontrol’ time series experiments run over 2006 to 2100 with pre-industrial  
155 CO<sub>2</sub> concentration. The second is the landscape from actual climate projections  
156 which consists of bias-corrected, downscaled output from five ESMs forced with  
157 future emissions from three different SSPs, the ‘projection’ climate: we use the  
158 average of the 10-year distribution around a date to approximately capture the  
159 underlying distribution from which the specific weather realization from a spe-  
160 cific year is drawn, i.e. 2045-2055 in our example<sup>1</sup>. This landscape samples  
161 scenario uncertainty, inter-model uncertainty, and regionally specific changes in  
162 the shape of daily mean temperature distributions. The third climate landscape  
163 is a ‘synthetic-model’ landscape, where we add for each temperature observed in  
164 the ‘control’ climate of each of the five ESM the mean of the change in annual  
165 temperature in ‘projection’ climate in this specific ESM. This yields a ESM-  
166 specific shape-preserving mean-shifted climate. This landscape samples scenario  
167 uncertainty, inter-model uncertainty, and regional differences in mean changes,  
168 but keeps the shape of daily mean temperature distributions unchanged. The  
169 last climate landscape is a ‘synthetic-general’ landscape. The difference with the  
170 ‘synthetic-model’ approach is that we sum the mean ‘control’ climate over all  
171 ESM and the mean change in annual mean temperature across ESM. This yields  
172 a mean shape-preserving, mean-shifted climate, which aggregates heterogeneity  
173 between climate models. This landscape samples scenario uncertainty and re-  
174 gional differences in mean changes while aggregating across ESMs and keeping  
175 the shape of daily mean temperature distributions unchanged.

176 Rather than aggregating this data at the global scale, we construct regional

<sup>1</sup>On the one hand, adding more years around 2050 would enable us to capture more of the internal variability which characterizes 2050 climate [Schwarzwalder and Lenssen, 2022], for instance more El Niño cycles. On the other hand, it would come with a costly assumption of perfect symmetry around 2050 in climate change dynamics. By capturing less internal variability, we probably under-count the impact of including regional information.

177 climate landscapes. Indeed, using a global dataset means that locations in which  
 178 a given temperature is relatively cold and places in which the same temperature  
 179 is relatively warm in the two locations fall within the same bin of temperature,  
 180 which distorts the picture of regional climate shifts, and biases the estimates  
 181 used to convert these climate shifts into economic damage. We aggregate at the  
 182 level of five major Köppen regions [Beck et al., 2023]: arid, continental, polar,  
 183 temperate and tropical. It is reasonable to think that these climate classifications  
 184 are both good ensembles in terms of warming patterns but also in terms of damage  
 185 patterns to capture differences between relatively homogeneous regions. If the  
 186 differences between damage patterns differ for many other reasons (e.g. cultural  
 187 and political), we capture some of the regional heterogeneity due to climatic  
 188 conditions. A finer disaggregation would reduce the statistical robustness of the  
 189 estimates we obtain from our econometric specification below because of limited  
 190 sample size and variation. When building these climate landscapes, we keep only  
 191 locations for which we have economic data to estimate dose-response functions  
 192 below and treat each of these economic region within each climatic Köppen region  
 193 as a single unit.

194 *B. Econometric estimates of climate damages*

For the empirical analysis we combine Wenz et al. [2023]’s Database Of Sub-national Economic Output (DOSE v2) with Hersbach et al. [2020]’s climate reanalysis (ERA5). We process the climate reanalysis by first calculating degree-days at the grid-cell level and then aggregating to DOSE regions. We use the combined data to estimate global and regional dose-response functions of GDP growth to daily mean temperatures. We estimate the model:

$$g_{it} = \alpha_i + P_{it}\beta + \sum_{b=1}^B n_{bit}\gamma_b + \mu_t + \epsilon_{it}$$

195 with the growth rate of GDP per capita PPP in USD in administrative unit  $i$  in  
 196 year  $t$  as  $g_{it}$ , with the number of days with daily mean temperature in the bin  
 197 indexed  $b$  as  $n_{bit}$ , and with total annual precipitation  $P_{it}$ . Note that here,  $P_{it}$   
 198 is indeed only a control, focused on global annual values, rather than regionally  
 199 disaggregated daily ones [Kotz et al., 2022]. The model also includes region  
 200 fixed effects  $\alpha_i$  and year fixed effects  $\mu_t$ . Errors  $\epsilon_{it}$  are clustered at the level  
 201 of countries to account for spatial and temporal autocorrelation. We estimate  
 202 this model for all regions jointly and for each Köppen-Geiger climate zone  $k$   
 203 separately. Our main parameters of interest are the coefficients of temperature  
 204 bins  $\gamma_b$  (for the global model) and  $\gamma_{bk}$  (for the regional models) which represent  
 205 the non-linear association between daily temperature levels and economic growth.  
 206 For the regional model, we use a gridded dataset on Köppen climate regions  
 207 and assign to every administrative unit the share of each climatic zones it is  
 208 included in based on surface area. The 2°C temperature bins are winsorized  
 209 at level 99% for econometric estimation to limit the influence of rare events for  
 210 which we do not have sufficient observations. Furthermore, we follow Cruz and  
 211 Rossi-Hansberg [2024] and smooth the behavior of the point estimates across  
 212 temperature bins on the whole temperature distribution in 2050 with degree-  
 213 two polynomials, assuming that temperature effect on growth changes remains  
 214 constant above and below our upper and lower bins used for the estimation. We  
 215 also weigh each point estimate by the inverse of their standard errors to provide  
 216 a greater weight to the more accurate estimates.

### 217 *C. Descriptive statistics*

218 Figure 1 gives summary statistics for the warming and damage patterns of each  
 219 region in 2050 for SSP5-8.5. Graphs on the left plot the distribution of mean  
 220 daily temperatures for all climate landscapes, taking the average of all five earth  
 221 system models. The distributions have different shapes, both in terms of their  
 222 dispersion and their mean. The shifts in the average temperature are also of

223 different magnitude, which is consistent with the observation of spatially hetero-  
224 geneous global warming. Shifts in shapes are also diverse, and not just because  
225 of the initial shape of each distribution as we show on the middle graphs. The  
226 middle graphs describe the difference between the ‘synthetic-model’ and the ‘pro-  
227 jection’ landscapes for different earth system models: for each 1°C temperature  
228 bin, it gives the difference in frequency (in number of days) between two distribu-  
229 tions. The first distribution is constructed by adding to each daily temperature  
230 for each climate model the mean of the annual anomaly observed in that model,  
231 thus obtaining a shape-preserving shift in mean, which is the assumption gener-  
232 ally made in the literature. The second distribution is taken from climate model  
233 projections of daily mean temperatures. These difference can have opposite signs  
234 and various magnitude depending on the model considered. The graphs on the  
235 right present the minimum, central and maximum estimates of the two global  
236 and regional dose-response functions of GDP growth rate to an additional day in  
237 a given bin in comparison with a day in the [20 : 22°C] bin, estimated for each  
238 region. Our regional dose-response functions reveals different damage patterns  
239 than the global dose-response function. For instance, while the positive effect  
240 of colder temperatures on GDP growth in the global functions stills holds with  
241 regional estimates in the continental areas, the sign of this effect is reversed for  
242 polar and temperate areas. For warmer days, in relatively warmer areas, the  
243 effect of higher temperatures goes in both directions, i.e. positive effect for arid  
244 areas, negative effects for tropical areas, while it is flat in our global estimate  
245 that conflates both climatic zones. Disentangling global and regional damage  
246 patterns matter for climate policy because it provides a more accurate picture of  
247 the spatial and temporal heterogeneity in future climate damage.

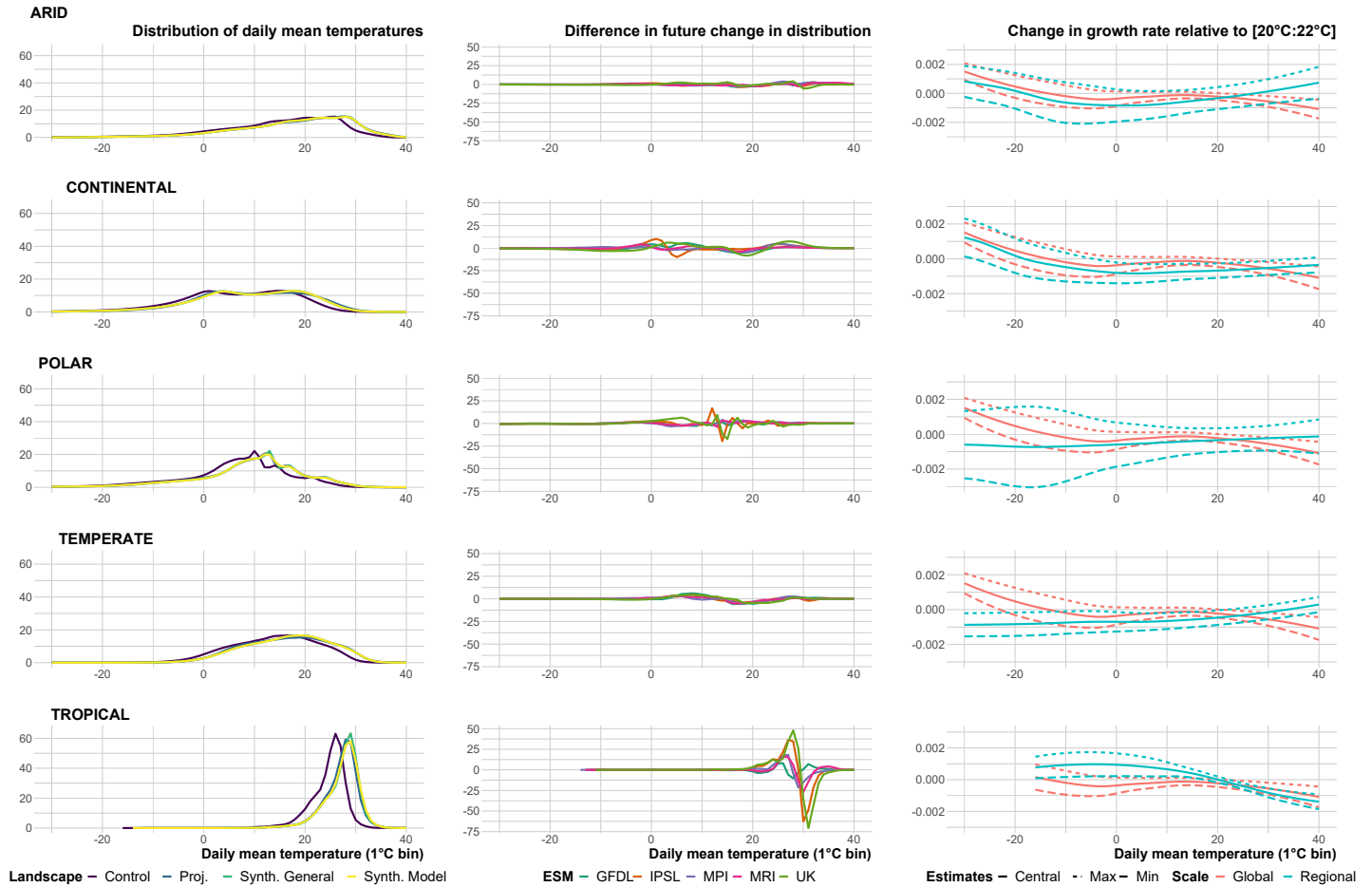


Figure 1. : **Left** Distribution of daily mean temperatures for four climate landscapes. **Middle** Distribution of climate shift, i.e. difference in distribution of daily mean temperatures under projection vs. a synthetic-model climate. **Right** Change in growth rate from one day in this bin relative to one additional day in [20°C : 22°C]. Data are for all DOSE regions, SSP5-8.5, 2050.

248

## II. Quantification

249

### A. Missing shape-related growth effect of climate change

250

We express the GDP growth effect of daily temperatures in climate projections

251

as a share of this effect in synthetic climate, i.e. in a setting where we assume that

252 the shape of the distribution of daily temperatures remains the same when the  
 253 mean increases. Indeed, we want to measure how much the change in the shape of  
 254 the distribution of daily mean temperatures matter for the estimation of economic  
 255 damages. To have a measure that approaches standard climate damages, growth  
 256 effects in warming climates are expressed with respect to growth effects in control  
 257 climate. Growth effect at each 1°C bin  $b$  is  $\gamma_b$  ( $\gamma_{bk}$ ) if we use global (regional)  
 258 dose-response functions, where  $k$  stands for a Köppen-Geiger climate zone. The  
 259 global growth effect  $\Omega$  for a given SSP and year in our climate landscape  $C$  for  
 260 a given dose-response function in subadministrative region DOSE  $d$  in Köppen-  
 261 Geiger climate zone  $k$  is:

$$\Omega_{ymd}^{glob,C} = \frac{(\sum_b \gamma_b t_{bymd}^C - \sum_b \gamma_b t_{bymd}^{control})}{\sum_b \gamma_b t_{bymd}^{control}}, \quad \Omega_{ymdk}^{reg,C} = \frac{(\sum_b \gamma_{bk} t_{bymdk}^C - \sum_b \gamma_{bk} t_{bymdk}^{control})}{\sum_b \gamma_{bk} t_{bymdk}^{control}}$$

262 Then, we apply a double difference procedure to find the change in growth  
 263 effect between synthetic climate and projections. For damage function  $\gamma$ , and  
 264 synthetic climate:  $DD_{ymdk}^\omega = 100 * (\Omega_{ymdk}^{\omega,projection} - \Omega_{ymdk}^{\omega,synthetic}) / \Omega_{ymdk}^{\omega,synthetic}$ , with  
 265  $\omega \in \{global, regional\}$ . This estimate expresses the share the missing shift in  
 266 shape represents in the standard estimates of damages assumed from shape-  
 267 preserving synthetic shift in mean. We summarize the values of this estimate  
 268 for various specifications in Figure 2 below which disentangles various layers of  
 269 uncertainty. On the top left graph, we plot the dispersion in our DD estimate  
 270 for each Köppen climatic region and each SSP, for each ESM (in blue) and the  
 271 average over ESM (in red). This graph captures how for each region the differ-  
 272 ences between SSP and between climate models drives the impact omitting the  
 273 whole shape of warming pattern has on the assessment of damages. There is an  
 274 important climate model uncertainty. Outside continental areas, depending on  
 275 the climate model used, the sign of the difference between the standard assump-  
 276 tion and the full shape of the distribution is either positive or negative. Part  
 277 of this structural uncertainty between climate models is already captured when



278 comparing climate models at the aggregate annual scale. Thus, on the top right  
279 graph, we plot the dispersion between two methods to build our synthetic climate:  
280 either using the model-specific control climate and mean aggregate temperature  
281 increase to build the new synthetic benchmark, or using the average over different  
282 ESM. On the bottom left graph, we plot the difference in our estimates depending  
283 on the dose-response function of GDP growth to daily temperatures that is used:  
284 either the global dose-response function which combines potentially contradictory  
285 effects of changes in temperature distribution over space, or the regional estimates  
286 which might capture part of the spatial heterogeneity in damage patterns. On  
287 the bottom right graph, we plot our coefficient for the central, minimum and  
288 maximum estimates of the regional dose-response function to measure how much  
289 parametric uncertainty for a given damage function specification matters in com-  
290 parison with structural uncertainty about the damage function, i.e. either global  
291 or regional. All four sources of uncertainty that are hidden under the assump-  
292 tion of a shape-preserving mean-shifted synthetic climate matter, especially in  
293 the continental areas.

#### 294 *B. Aggregate impacts*

295 While we build regional climate landscapes that use the granularity given in  
296 climate datasets rather than too aggregated information to discuss climate policy,  
297 we seek for global indicators that can easily be applied to aggregate economic  
298 models. We compute for each DOSE region within each larger Köppen-Geiger  
299 zone the share of missing growth due to disaggregated warming and damage  
300 patterns. We use area-weighting to build DOSE-level estimates of missing growth  
301 from DOSE\*Köppen estimates. We then aggregate the DOSE-level growth effect  
302 to the global scale based on the share of each zone in global GDP. We use the  
303 synthetic-model approach to build a synthetic climate, assuming that aggregate  
304 uncertainty between climate model is already taken into account in the literature  
305 studying aggregate annual mean temperatures. Indeed, our study focuses on one

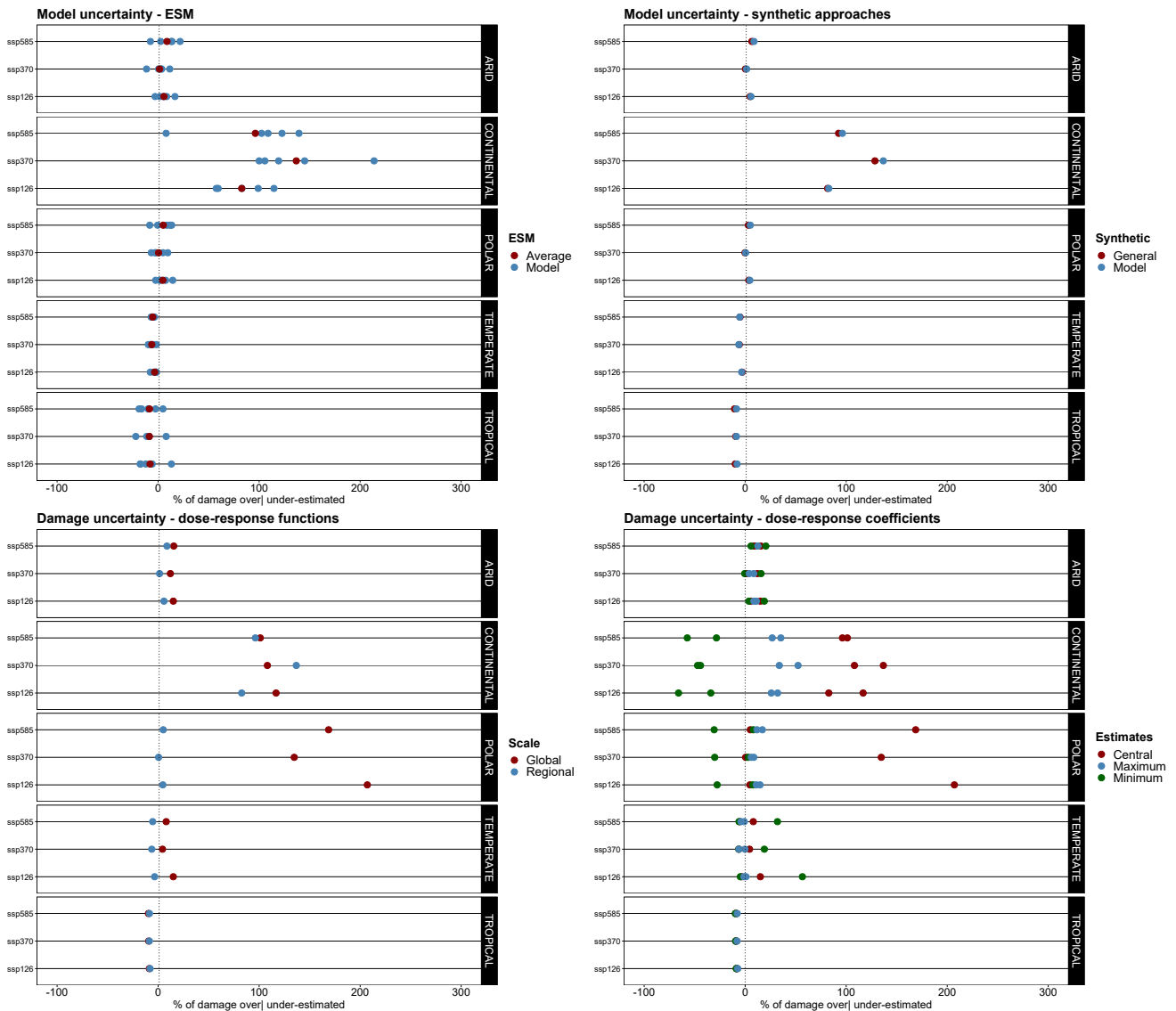


Figure 2. : DD for different specifications, year 2050, all SSP and regions. **Left Top** For each ESM vs. average, using synthetic-model and regional damage **Right Top** For synthetic-model vs. synthetic-general, using regional damage, averaging over ESM **Left Bottom** For global vs. regional damage, using synthetic-model, averaging over ESM **Right Bottom** For central, minimum and maximum estimates of regional damage, using synthetic-model, averaging over ESM.

306 channel of uncertainty: the interactions between intra-annual warming patterns  
 307 and damage patterns at the regional scale. On left graph in Figure 3, we plot  
 308 our estimate of the share of missing growth effects for various ESM and the mean  
 309 across ESM under regional damages. On the right graph, we plot global DD for  
 two specifications of the dose-response function: either global or regional.

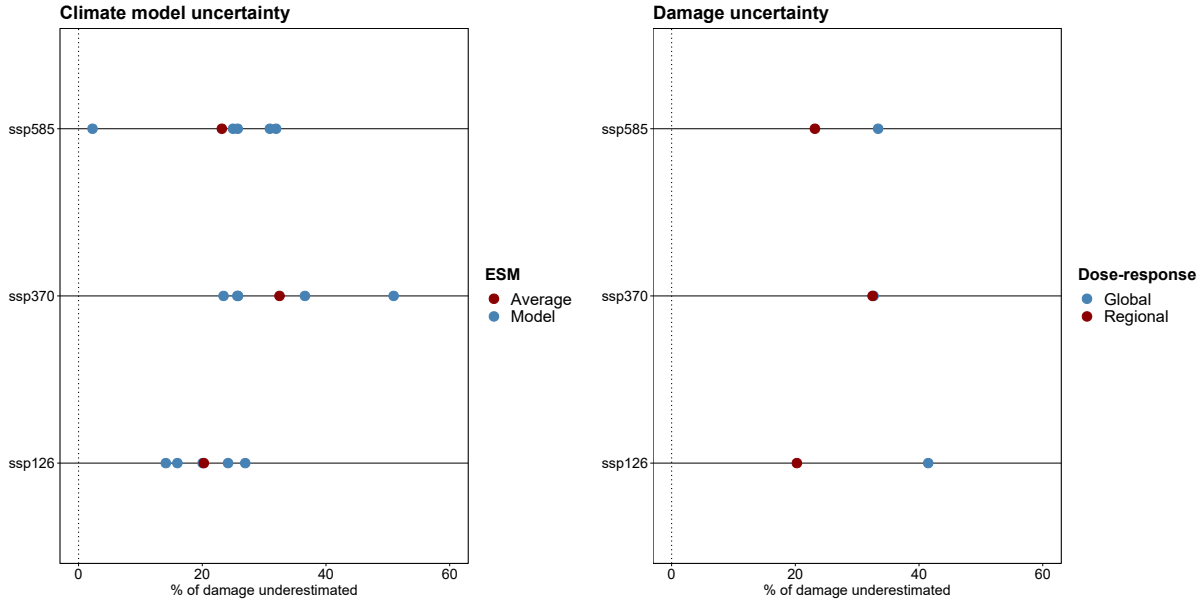


Figure 3. : **Left** Global DD under synthetic-model approach for each ESM and the average over ESM with regional dose-response function **Right** Global DD for each dose-response function, synthetic-model approach and average climate model with regional dose-response function.

310

311 The assumption made in the literature of a shape-preserving shift in mean annual  
 312 global temperature interacted with global damage patterns thus yields biased  
 313 estimates of future economic damages of climate change. For all climate models  
 314 and across various specifications of damage patterns and economic scenarios, this  
 315 bias is an underestimation of future damages: accounting for the shift in regional  
 316 shape would increase the actual damage by around 25% under all concentration  
 317 pathways in 2050. The shift in shape matters also for less carbon-intensive

318 pathways. Both uncertainty between climate models on the shape of regional  
319 warming patterns and uncertainty on the damage patterns matter. Their inter-  
320 action is likely to significantly alter the temporal and spatial distribution of the  
321 economic damage caused by climate change. This change in the aggregate pic-  
322 ture of climate impacts should encourage greater mitigation and adaptation. But  
323 what about the distributional effects?

324

### 325 *C. Distributional impacts*

326 We have focused on the aggregate impact of this omitted shift in regional daily  
327 temperature shape. Now, when we look in more detail at the distribution of  
328 damage, we see that there is no perfect correlation with income: the countries  
329 most affected by these shifts in the patterns of intra-annual weather distribution  
330 are not necessarily the poorest. In fact, the opposite is true, even if the data are  
331 widely scattered. In Figure (4) below, we show on the left that, for certain DOSE  
332 regions, climate impacts are in fact lower when using climate projections with  
333 intra-annual temperature distributions with regional response functions than in a  
334 synthetic approach using a mean-shifted shape-preserving climate. In particular,  
335 we show on the right graph that gives the distribution of omitted impacts for  
336 each quantile of the 2015 distribution of DOSE regions in terms of USD GDP per  
337 capita that this applies to the poorest 20% of regions, even if the distribution is  
338 fairly skewed.

339 Uncertainty about changes in the shape of regional temperature distributions  
340 interacts with regional damage functions mainly concerning continental regions,  
341 as we show on Figure (5), in line with estimates from Figure (1). This is partic-  
342 ularly important if less significant impacts are expected in these regions, notably  
343 on agricultural productivity, but also on regional amenities, which could justify  
344 adaptations that reduce the total cost of climate change. The welfare benefit  
345 of these adaptations would be particularly reduced if it turns out that these re-

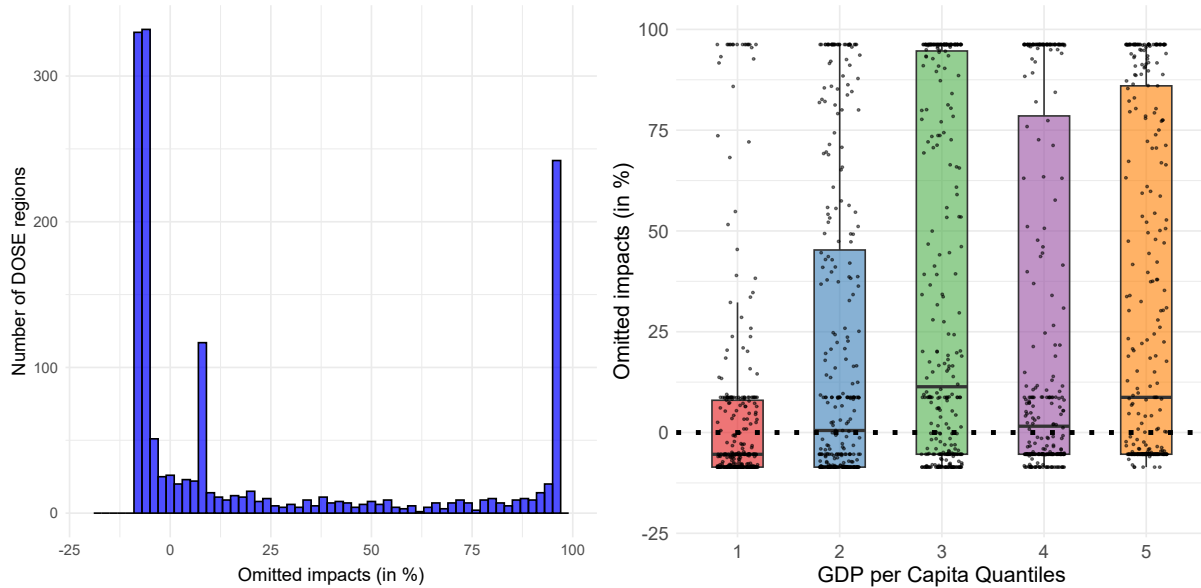


Figure 4. : Estimates are for year 2050, SSP5-8.5. **Left** Distribution of impacts (in % of current estimates) across DOSE regions **Right** Distribution of impacts across and within 2015 USD GDP per capita quantiles of DOSE regions. The colored bars span the interquartile range for each quantile. The black lines represent the mean for each quantile.

346 gions have very significant welfare changes: impacts on growth up to 100% higher  
 347 than estimates based on global dose-responses interacted with shape-preserving  
 348 projected climates.

### 349 III. Conclusion

350 If climate-society relationships were linear, then aggregating would not make  
 351 any difference. But since they are nonlinear, what happens at the regional and  
 352 intra-annual levels matters. Indeed, switching from annual global mean tem-  
 353 perature to a regional annual distribution of daily mean temperatures affects  
 354 the magnitude of economic damages from climate change. This change comes  
 355 from heterogeneity in both damage and warming patterns across regions. Spatio-

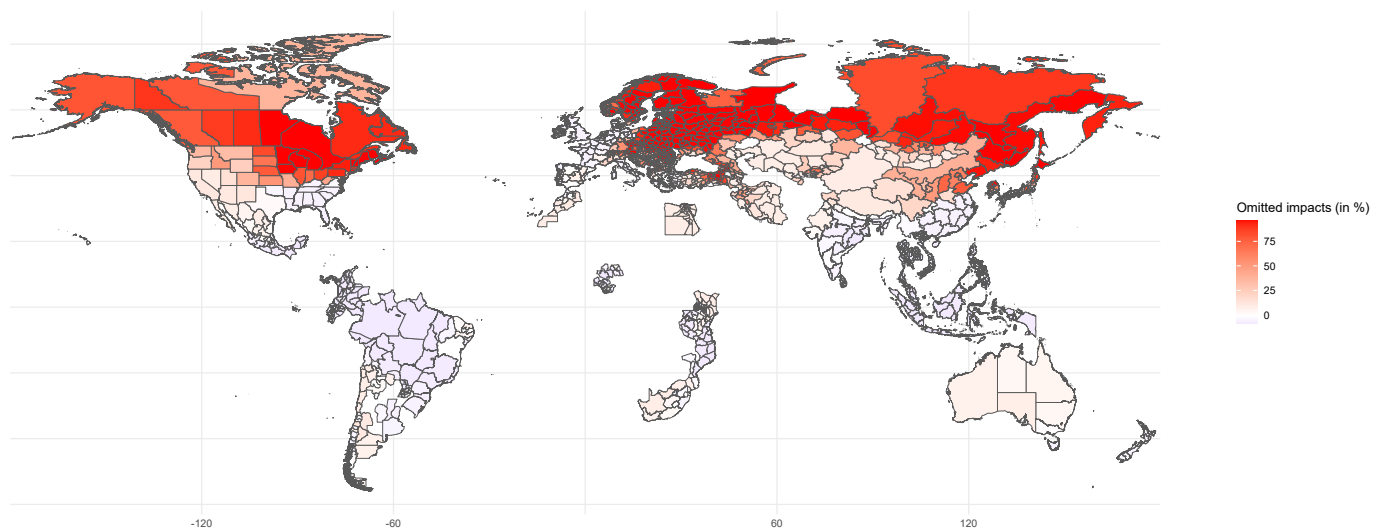


Figure 5. : Map of DOSE regions with their associated missing-shaped related climate impacts, as a share of 2050 estimated growth impacts along SSP5-8.5.

356 temporal disaggregation, thus, reveals how uncertainty between climate models  
 357 on the whole shape of the distribution of future weather realizations cascades  
 358 down to regional damage estimates. This shape uncertainty affects risk rankings  
 359 across models and increases the magnitude of uncertainty between models. More-  
 360 over, accounting for daily temperatures rather than annual averages increases the  
 361 estimation of economic damages, a finding consistent with previous studies [Rudik  
 362 et al., 2022]. In 2050, under SSP5-8.5, using regional damage patterns interacted

363 with the shift in the entire shape of the distribution of daily temperatures, yields  
364 climate damages at the global scale that are 25% larger than the damage obtained  
365 under the assumption of homogeneous damage patterns over the world and shape-  
366 preserving shift in annual mean daily temperature. The shape uncertainty about  
367 shifts in daily temperature distributions and regional damage patterns should  
368 therefore be taken into consideration for decision-making.

369 To our knowledge, we provide the first comparison between various approaches  
370 to spatial and temporal aggregation regarding impacts of changes in mean surface  
371 temperatures on economic activity and quantify how much these often-overlooked  
372 aggregation procedures matter empirically. We believe that this procedure can  
373 be reasonably translated horizontally and vertically. Vertically, this framework  
374 can be applied to other economic damages stemming, for instance, from changes  
375 in maximum or minimum daily temperatures. Horizontally, the framework could  
376 be used to infer results in regions for which we do not have socioeconomic data  
377 to estimate damage functions. In this work, we have kept the DOSE regions  
378 for the sake of consistency. But using Köppen-Geiger climatic zones, i.e. widely  
379 available physical data, to build ensembles and generalize the results over these  
380 ensembles could be a useful detour at first, alongside a necessary deepening in  
381 the availability of socioeconomic data, particularly in Africa.

382 Our analysis also comes with limitations. In particular, our estimation of re-  
383 gional damage functions is based on the idea that differences in the economic dam-  
384 age caused by weather—and therefore by climate change—is intimately linked to  
385 climatic zones. However, there are many factors that go well beyond geographical  
386 determinism that we do not explore here. Furthermore, Earth System Models are  
387 imperfect, and some may not be able to capture well the shape (or changes in the  
388 shape) of the temperature distribution [Kornhuber et al., 2023]. When it comes  
389 to estimating the future damage of climate change, other approaches use annual  
390 temperature [Bilal and Känzig, 2024] and thus avoid the problem of time-fixed  
391 effects, which erase a large proportion of the impacts. The question of aggregation

392 is less of an issue in this case, as these approaches consider annual temperature to  
393 be a sufficient statistic for estimating impacts. Nevertheless, the question of the  
394 relevance of past natural variability as a proxy for global annual climate change  
395 based on complex processes and rising carbon concentration remains. This ques-  
396 tion is left for future research. Finally, while we studied variations of warming  
397 patterns in space and time, and variation of damage patterns in space, we have  
398 left out the question of variation of damage patterns in time under a ‘swinging  
399 climate’ [Mérel et al., 2024]—i.e. adaptation to shifts in climate. How might  
400 a given daily temperature yield different damages in any particular region un-  
401 der a different climate, as the region moves away from its normal climatic zone?  
402 Lastly, that raises the question of how adaptation might interact with the entire  
403 distribution of climatic factors, a question left for further research.

#### 404 **Acknowledgement**

405 Romain Fillon thanks the Fulbright Program (France) for funding his research  
406 stay at Columbia University. The authors thank François Bareille, Adrien Dela-  
407 hais, Célia Escribe, Céline Guivarch, Radley Horton, Adam Sobel and especially  
408 Kevin Schwarzwald for fruitful comments on earlier versions of this work. Com-  
409 putations were performed on the Columbia University Research Grid.



410

### Appendix A. Building climate landscapes

411 We scale the frequency of observations by the share of land area in each cell  
 412 using GPW4 dataset. We compare changes in shapes of daily mean temperature  
 413 distributions  $T_{mr}$  in five Köppen regions  $r$  and climate model  $m$ , i.e. the dis-  
 414 tribution of all  $T_{mr}$  daily mean temperatures in region  $r$  and model  $m$ , in four  
 415 different climates  $C$ . Climate  $C$  are: a control climate, ISIMIP projections, the  
 416 synthetic distribution with model average, the synthetic distribution with average  
 417 over models. We bin the temperature distributions  $t$  at  $1^\circ\text{C}$ :  $f(\cdot)$  is a function  
 418 that bin the distributions. Our final landscapes for each year are:

419 • Control climate, without climate change  $T_{mr}^{control} = f(t_{mr}^{control})$

420 • ISIMIP projections  $T_{mr}^{proj} = f(t_{mr}^{proj})$

421 • Synthetic model with model average are built by adding the difference be-  
 422 tween binned projections and control climate

$$423 \quad T_{mr}^{synth.model} = f\left(t_{mr}^{control} + T_{mr}^{proj} - T_{mr}^{control}\right)$$

424 • Synthetic model with total average are built by adding the difference be-  
 425 tween binned projections and control climate, averaged over all models  $m$   
 426 in ensemble  $M$

$$427 \quad T_{mr}^{synth.general} = f\left(t_{mr}^{control} + \text{mean}_M(T_{mr}^{proj} - T_{mr}^{control})\right)$$

428 Let us define a climate shift indices for a given year:  $CSI_{mr} = \hat{T}_{mr}^{proj} -$   
 429  $\hat{T}_{mr}^{synth.model}$ , which gives for each bin the difference in the frequency of this degree-  
 430 day in the projections with respect to the synthetic shape-preserving mean-shifted  
 431 climate for each ESM.

432

433

### Appendix B. Köppen regions

434 The Köppen region of use are:

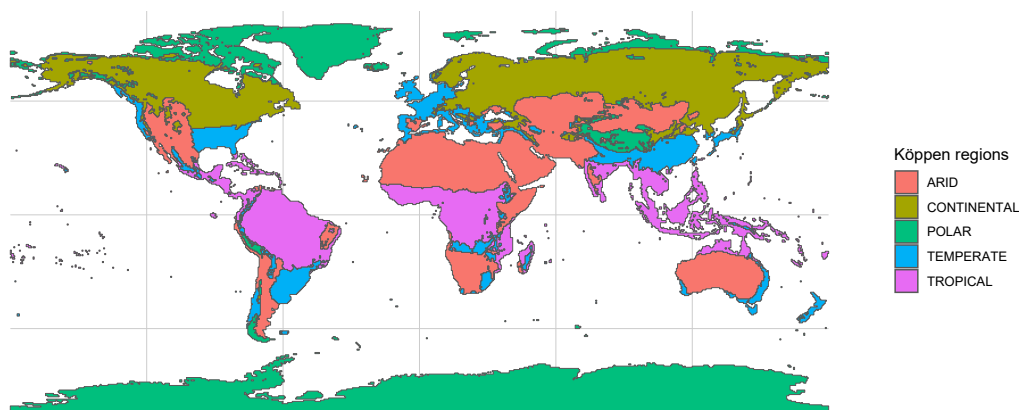


Figure 6. : Köppen climatic zones.

## REFERENCES

435

436 M. Auffhammer. Quantifying economic damages from climate change. *Journal*  
 437 *of Economic Perspectives*, 32(4):33–52, 2018.

438 H. E. Beck, T. R. McVicar, N. Vergopolan, A. Berg, N. J. Lutsko, A. Dufour,  
 439 Z. Zeng, X. Jiang, A. I. van Dijk, and D. G. Miralles. High-resolution (1 km)  
 440 köppen-geiger maps for 1901–2099 based on constrained cmip6 projections.  
 441 *Scientific data*, 10(1):724, 2023.

442 A. Bilal and D. R. Känzig. The macroeconomic impact of climate change: Global  
 443 vs. local temperature. Technical report, National Bureau of Economic Research,  
 444 2024.

445 A. Bilal and E. Rossi-Hansberg. Anticipating climate change across the united  
 446 states. Technical report, National Bureau of Economic Research, 2023.

447 B. Conte, K. Desmet, D. K. Nagy, and E. Rossi-Hansberg. Local sectoral special-  
 448 ization in a warming world. *Journal of Economic Geography*, 21(4):493–530,  
 449 2021.

- 450 J.-L. Cruz and E. Rossi-Hansberg. The economic geography of global warming.  
451 *Review of Economic Studies*, 91(2):899–939, 2024.
- 452 M. Dell, B. F. Jones, and B. A. Olken. What do we learn from the weather? the  
453 new climate-economy literature. *Journal of Economic literature*, 52(3):740–798,  
454 2014.
- 455 K. Desmet and E. Rossi-Hansberg. Climate change economics over time and  
456 space. *Annual Review of Economics*, 16, 2024.
- 457 J. Fernández-Villaverde, K. Gillingham, and S. Scheidegger. Climate change  
458 through the lens of macroeconomic modeling. 2024.
- 459 K. Frieler, J. Volkholz, S. Lange, J. Schewe, M. Mengel, M. d. R. Rivas López,  
460 C. Otto, C. P. Reyer, D. N. Karger, J. T. Malle, et al. Scenario set-up and forc-  
461 ing data for impact model evaluation and impact attribution within the third  
462 round of the inter-sectoral model intercomparison project (isimip3a). *EGU-*  
463 *sphere*, pages 1–83, 2023.
- 464 D. García-León, A. Casanueva, G. Standardi, A. Burgstall, A. D. Flouris, and  
465 L. Nybo. Current and projected regional economic impacts of heatwaves in  
466 europe. *Nature communications*, 12(1):5807, 2021.
- 467 H. Hersbach, B. Bell, P. Berrisford, S. Hirahara, A. Horányi, J. Muñoz-Sabater,  
468 J. Nicolas, C. Peubey, R. Radu, D. Schepers, A. Simmons, C. Soci, S. Ab-  
469 dalla, X. Abellan, G. Balsamo, P. Bechtold, G. Biavati, J. Bidlot, M. Bonavita,  
470 G. De Chiara, P. Dahlgren, D. Dee, M. Diamantakis, R. Dragani, J. Flem-  
471 ming, R. Forbes, M. Fuentes, A. Geer, L. Haimberger, S. Healy, R. J. Hogan,  
472 E. Hólm, M. Janisková, S. Keeley, P. Laloyaux, P. Lopez, C. Lupu, G. Rad-  
473 noti, P. De Rosnay, I. Rozum, F. Vamborg, S. Villaume, and J.-N. Thépaut.  
474 The ERA5 global reanalysis. *Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological*  
475 *Society*, 146(730):1999–2049, July 2020. ISSN 0035-9009, 1477-870X. doi:  
476 10.1002/qj.3803.

- 477 G. Heutel, N. H. Miller, and D. Molitor. Adaptation and the mortality effects  
478 of temperature across us climate regions. *Review of Economics and Statistics*,  
479 103(4):740–753, 2021.
- 480 S. Hsiang. Climate econometrics. *Annual Review of Resource Economics*, 8:43–75,  
481 2016.
- 482 K. Kornhuber, C. Lesk, C. F. Schleussner, J. Jägermeyr, P. Pfliegerer, and R. M.  
483 Horton. Risks of synchronized low yields are underestimated in climate and  
484 crop model projections. *Nature Communications*, 14(1):3528, 2023.
- 485 M. Kotz, A. Levermann, and L. Wenz. The effect of rainfall changes on economic  
486 production. *Nature*, 601(7892):223–227, 2022.
- 487 M. Kotz, A. Levermann, and L. Wenz. The economic commitment of climate  
488 change. 2023.
- 489 P. Krusell and A. A. Smith Jr. Climate change around the world. 2022.
- 490 M. Leduc, H. D. Matthews, and R. de Elía. Regional estimates of the transient  
491 climate response to cumulative co2 emissions. *Nature Climate Change*, 6(5):  
492 474–478, 2016.
- 493 P. Mérel, E. Paroissien, and M. Gammans. Sufficient statistics for climate change  
494 counterfactuals. *Journal of Environmental Economics and Management*, page  
495 102940, 2024.
- 496 W. D. Nordhaus. *Managing the global commons: the economics of climate change*,  
497 volume 31. MIT press Cambridge, MA, 1994.
- 498 W. D. Nordhaus and Z. Yang. A regional dynamic general-equilibrium model of  
499 alternative climate-change strategies. *The American Economic Review*, pages  
500 741–765, 1996.
- 501 M. Patterson. North-west europe hottest days are warming twice as fast as mean  
502 summer days. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 50(10):e2023GL102757, 2023.

- 503 J. Rising, M. Tedesco, F. Piontek, and D. A. Stainforth. The missing risks of  
504 climate change. *Nature*, 610(7933):643–651, 2022.
- 505 I. Rudik, G. Lyn, W. Tan, and A. Ortiz-Bobea. The economic effects of climate  
506 change in dynamic spatial equilibrium. 2022.
- 507 K. Schwarzwald and N. Lenssen. The importance of internal climate variability in  
508 climate impact projections. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*,  
509 119(42):e2208095119, 2022.
- 510 P. Waidelich, F. Batibeniz, J. A. Rising, J. Kikstra, and S. Seneviratne. Climate  
511 damage projections beyond annual temperature. 2023.
- 512 L. Warszawski, K. Frieler, V. Huber, F. Piontek, O. Serdeczny, and J. Schewe. The  
513 inter-sectoral impact model intercomparison project (isi-mip): project frame-  
514 work. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 111(9):3228–3232,  
515 2014.
- 516 L. Wenz, R. D. Carr, N. Kögel, M. Kotz, and M. Kalkuhl. Dose-global data set  
517 of reported sub-national economic output. *Scientific Data*, 10(1):425, 2023.