A comparison of the climate and carbon cycle effects of carbon removal by Afforestation and an equivalent reduction in Fossil fuel emissions

Koramanghat UnnikrishnanK. U. Jayakrishnan¹ and Govindasamy Bala¹

⁵ ¹ Centre for Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore-560012, India.

Correspondence to: K. U. Jayakrishnan (jayakrishnan@iisc.ac.in)

Abstract

Afforestation and reduction of fossil fuel emissions are two major components of climate mitigation policies. However, their effects on the earth's climate are different because reduction of fossil fuel emissions directly alters the biogeochemical cycle of the climate system and modifies the physics of the atmosphere via its impact on radiation

- 15 and the energy budget, while afforestation causes biophysical changes in addition to changes in the biogeochemical cycle. In this paper, we compare the climate and carbon cycle consequences of carbon removal by afforestation and an equivalent fossil fuel emission reduction using simulations from an intermediate complexity Earth system model. Our simulations show that the climate is cooler by 0.36°C, 0.47°C, and 0.42°C in the long term (2471-2500) in the case of reduced fossil fuel emissions compared to the case with afforestation when the emissions follow the SSP2-4.5,
- 20 SSP3-7.0, and SSP5-8.5 scenarios, respectively. Though afforestation results in a lower atmospheric CO₂, the cooling from the reduced atmospheric CO_2 is partly offset by the <u>a net biophysical</u> warming from <u>due to biophysical effects</u> such as a decrease in surface albedo decrease and an increase in evapotranspiration associated with the regrowth of forests. Since this net warming effect from surface albedo decrease is due to biophysical effects are nearly absent in the reduced fossil fuel emission case, the climate is relatively cooler, even though the atmospheric CO_2 levels are
- 25 similar to the afforestation case. Thus, in terms of climate benefits, reducing fossil fuel emissions is could be relatively more beneficial than afforestation for the same amount of carbon removed from the atmosphere. Nevertheless, fossil fuel emission reduction and afforestation efforts should be pursued simultaneously as both lead to a decrease in global mean warming and reduced ocean acidification.

30 <u>However, a robust understanding of the processes that govern the biophysical effects of afforestation should be improved before considering our results for climate policy.</u>

1 Introduction

45

50

Human activities in the industrial era have led to an increase in the concentration of greenhouse gases (GHGs) and an increase in global mean surface temperature (Masson-Delmotte et al., 2021). GHGs emitted by human activities
include carbon dioxide, methane, nitrous oxide, etc., among which CO₂ is the most important GHG because of its long lifetime in the atmosphere (Archer et al., 2009; Montenegro et al., 2007; Archer, 2005; Archer and Brovkin, 2008; Moore and Braswell, 1994; Eby et al., 2009). The atmospheric CO₂ concentration has increased from approximately 277 ppm to 415ppm during the period 1750 2021 (Joos and Spahni, 2008; Keeling et al., 1976). Most of the anthropogenic emissions of atmospheric CO₂ result from either fossil fuel use or land use and land cover changes. In the recent decade (during the period 2010-19), the CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel use and land use and land cover changes are 9.6±0.5 PgC yr⁺ and 1.6 ± 0.7 PgC yr⁻¹, respectively (Friedlingstein et al., 2020).

Approximately 50% of the emitted carbon stays in the atmosphere while the rest is taken up by the land and ocean on decadal timescales (Friedlingstein et al., 2020). As a result of the increasing atmospheric CO₂, the global mean surface temperature has increased by 1.07°C from 1850 1900 to 2010 2019 (Masson Delmotte et al., 2021). Global warming Climate change has been directly linked to an increase in the frequency of floods, extreme rainfall events, and forest fires in different parts of the world (Alfieri et al., 2015; Ali et al., 2019; Allan and Soden, 2008; Papalexiou and Montanari, 2019; Anderson et al., 2011; Canadell et al., 2021). Two major strategies are considered for mitigating climate change (Allan and Soden, 2008; Anderson et al., 2011; Alfieri et al., 2015; Ali et al., 2015; Ali et al., 2015; Papalexiou and Montanari, 2019; Canadell et al., 2021). Two major strategies considered for mitigating climate change (Allan and Soden, 2008; Anderson et al., 2011; Alfieri et al., 2015; Ali et al., 2015; Ali et al., 2015; Ali et al., 2019; Papalexiou and Montanari, 2019; Canadell et al., 2021). Two major strategies considered for mitigating climate change (allan and Soden, 2008; Anderson et al., 2011; Alfieri et al., 2015; Ali et al., 2015; Ali et al., 2019; Papalexiou and Montanari, 2019; Canadell et al., 2021). Two major strategies considered for mitigating climate change are: i) reforestation/afforestation and ii) reduction of fossil fuel emissions. While both these methods reduce the carbon accumulation in the atmosphere, the net effect of these two actions on Earth's climate could be different. It may be noted that reforestation/afforestation is one of several carbon dioxide removal (CDR) options that havehas been suggested to mitigate climate change (Pacala and Socolow, 2004; Psarras et al., 2017; van Kooten, 2020).

The nature of the source or sink of atmospheric CO₂ could play a key role in determining its net effect on the
earth's climate. For example, Jayakrishnan *et al.*, 2022 investigated the contrasting response of the climate system to emissions from fossil fuel use and deforestation and showed that these two emissions are fundamentally different in how they affect the climate system. However, adequate emphasis is not given to the nature of the source or sink in many contexts. An example for the implications of neglecting the non-radiative effects of the source of atmospheric CO₂ is described by Simmons & Matthews, 2016, where they show the importance of accounting for the biophysical
changes due to land cover changes for calculating the transient climate response to cumulative carbon emissions). For example, fossil fuel and deforestation emissions differ fundamentally in two ways: i) fossil fuel use transfers carbon from a relatively inert geological reservoir to the atmosphere, while deforestation results in an internal rearrangement of carbon within the active carbon reservoirs of the climate system, ii) deforestation emissions involve direct change

Jayakrishnan et al., 2022 showed that the millennial scale response of the climate system to emissions from fossil fuel use and deforestation are different because of the above fundamental differences in fossil fuel and deforestation emissions. However, adequate emphasis is not given to the nature of the source or sink in many contexts. An example for the importance of including the non-radiative effects of the source of atmospheric CO_2 is discussed in Simmons

- 70 and Matthews, 2016, where they show that the net response of the climate system to land cover change is non-linear when biophysical cooling effect of land cover change is included. In the current study, we address another set of related questions where the nature of the source or sink is important: Are the climate and carbon cycle effects of carbon removal by afforestation or an equivalent reduction of fossil fuel emissions the same? Which of these two actions is more beneficial from a climate change mitigation point of view?
- 75 Previous studies on the biophysical effects of land cover change are relevant in answering these questions (Anderson et al., 2011; Huang et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2014). The changes in land cover such as deforestation/afforestation have biophysical effects on the earth's climate, which results from changes in surface albedo and moisture and heat fluxes at the surface. The land surface albedo depends on the vegetation type since each vegetation has different optical properties (Gao et al., 2005;Henderson Sellers and Wilson, 1983; Houldcroft et al., 80 2009). Therefore, large-scale changes in the vegetation type can significantly affect the earth's climate by changing the surface albedo. The grasslands have a higher albedo than forests. Additionally, in mid latitudes, the snow albedo feedback increases the surface albedo further when forests are converted to grasslands (Bonan et al., 1992; Claussen et al., 2001; Thackeray & Fletcher, 2016). Therefore, deforestation in mid and high latitudes has a cooling effect because of an increase in the surface albedo (Bala et al., 2007; Bathiany et al., 2010; Govindasamy et al., 2001). 85 Deforestation in the tropical regions also results in a decrease in evaporation, causing a warming effect (Bathiany et al., 2010; Davin & de Noblet Ducoudre, 2010; Lean & Rowntree, 1993). Therefore, the net effect of deforestation (afforestation) is determined by the balance of the biophysical effects and the biogeochemical warming (cooling) effect from emission (removal) of carbon into (from) the atmosphere. The biophysical effects of afforestation are often neglected even though it could be comparable to the biogeochemical cooling effect of afforestation (Chen et al., 2012, 90 Huang et al., 2018 and Shen et al., 2022).

In this study, we compare the climate and carbon cycle effects of afforestation and reduction of fossil fuel emissions by considering two idealized simulations. In the first case, emissions follow three SSP scenarios (SSP2 4.5, SSP3 7.0 and SSP5 8.5) (Meinshausen et al., 2020), and some amount of carbon is removed by afforestation. In the second case, fossil fuel emissions are reduced by the same amount that is additionally stored on land by afforestation in each of the three SSP scenarios. Figure S1 gives a schematic representation of the two simulations. The final climate state of these two cases is compared to assess the difference in the climate and carbon cycle effects of afforestation and reduced fossil fuel emissions.

95

Previous studies on the biophysical effects of land cover change are relevant in answering these questions (Anderson et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2018). The changes in land cover such as afforestation/deforestation have biophysical effects on the earth's climate, which primarily results from the changes in land surface albedo and evapotranspiration. The land surface albedo depends on the vegetation type since each vegetation has different optical properties (Henderson-Sellers and Wilson, 1983; Gao et al., 2005; Houldcroft et al., 2009). Therefore, large-scale changes in the vegetation type can significantly affect the earth's climate by changing

the land surface albedo. Converting the grasslands to forests will lower the land surface albedo, resulting in a warming
 effect (Chen et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2018; Shen et al., 2022). In addition to the effects on land surface albedo, afforestation can increase the evapotranspiration because of larger transpiration rates of trees compared to grasslands resulting in a cooling influence (Bonan, 2008; Chen et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2014; Duveiller et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2018). However, elevated atmospheric CO₂ levels could lead to an increase in the water use efficiency of the plants resulting in reduced transpiration rates (Cao et al., 2009, 2010; Gopalakrishnan et al., 2011).
 The effects of elevated atmospheric CO₂ on the transpiration rates are larger for trees compared to grasslands

(Kirschbaum and McMillan, 2018). This could lead to a warming effect by afforestation in the future climate scenarios with higher atmospheric CO₂. The net effect of afforestation is determined by the balance of the biophysical effects and the biogeochemical cooling effect of removal of carbon from the atmosphere. While many previous studies have shown that the biophysical effects of afforestation are comparable to the biogeochemical cooling effect of afforestation are comparable to the biogeochemical cooling effect of afforestation (Chen et al., 2012, Huang et al., 2018 and Shen et al., 2022), it is often neglected while climate mitigations strategies

are developed primarily because of the uncertainties in quantifying the biophysical effects of afforestation.

In this study, we compare the climate and carbon cycle effects of afforestation and reduction of fossil fuel emissions by considering two idealized simulations. In the first case, fossil fuel emissions follow three extended SSP scenarios (SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5; Meinshausen et al., 2020), and afforestation results in removal of carbon from the atmosphere. In the second case, fossil fuel emissions are reduced by the same amount that is additionally stored on land by afforestation in each of the three SSP scenarios. Figure S1 shows a schematic representation of the two simulations. The final climate states in these two cases are compared to assess the differences in the climate and carbon cycle effects of afforestation and reduced fossil fuel emissions. We hypothesize that the atmospheric warming in these two cases will be different because of the biophysical effects of afforestation. We compare the ocean potential temperature, ocean carbon content and surface ocean pH in the afforestation and reduced fossil fuel emissions cases to investigate the differences in the impacts on ocean in these two cases. The sea surface temperature could be different in the afforestation and reduced fossil fuel emission cases because the differences in the atmospheric state should be reflected in the surface ocean on decadal timescales. However, the impacts on ocean carbon cycle in these two cases

is expected to be similar as the amount of carbon removed from the atmosphere is the same.

130 2 Model description and Methodology

2.1 Model

Our simulations use the University of Victoria Earth System Climate Model (UVic ESCM) version 2.9, which is an Earth system Model of Intermediate Complexity (EMIC).) with a horizontal resolution of 3.6° in longitude and 1.8° in latitude. UVic ESCM includes a vertically integrated energy-moisture balance atmospheric model, a primitive equation ocean general circulation model with 19 vertical layers, and a dynamic-thermodynamic sea ice model (Weaver et al., 2001). The detailed description of the atmospheric, ocean and sea ice components of the UVic model are given by Weaver et al. 2001. The inorganic ocean carbon cycle is included in the UVic model following the Ocean Carbon-Cycle Model Intercomparison Project (OCMIP) protocol and a marine ecosystem model as described in Keller et al., 2012. The sediment processes are represented by an oxic-only model of sediment respiration (Eby et al., 2009).
 140 The land surface component of the UVic model has a dynamic vegetation model coupled with a land surface scheme (Meissner et al., 2003).

<u>The large-scale present-day climate is represented quite well in the UVic model (Weaver et al., 2001,</u> <u>Skvortsov et al., (Weaver et al., 2010). 2009, Eby et al., 2009 and Cao and Jiang, 2017). The spatial distribution of the</u> <u>precipitation and evaporation is simulated quite well in the UVic model compared to the NCEP reanalysis data</u> (Weaver et al., 2001; Meissner et al., 2003). The vegetation biomass, areal coverage of the different plant functional <u>types and the atmosphere to land carbon fluxes simulated by the UVic model are also comparable to the observations</u> (Meissner et al., 2003). Further, Keller et al., 2012 show that the annual global net primary production in the ocean <u>simulated by the UVic model is in good agreement with observations.</u>

145

The dynamic vegetation model of UVic ESCM is the Top-down Representation of Interactive Foliage and
Flora Including Dynamics (TRIFFID) (Cox, 2001) model.; Cox, 2001) model. TRIFFID describes the state of the terrestrial ecosystem using soil carbon, the structure and areal coverage of five plant functional types (broad leaf tree, needleleaf tree, C₃ grass, C₄ grass and shrub) and bare ground. The competition between the different plant functional types is modeled using Lotka-Volterra approach (Cox, 2001). When the agricultural land is specified in a grid cell, natural vegetation in that grid cell is removed to satisfy the specified agricultural land fraction. A part of the carbon from the removal of natural vegetation goes into the atmosphere and the rest goes into the soil depending on a variable called burn fraction (BF). If BF is 1, the entire carbon from removal of natural vegetation goes into the atmosphere and the rest goes into the atmosphere and the rest goes into the atmosphere and the rest goes into the atmosphere. In our simulations BF is set to 0.5. Thus, half of the carbon from removal of natural vegetation goes into the soil.

In the dynamic vegetation model, the trees and shrubs can grow in the prescribed agricultural land, and this 160 regrowth of trees and shrubs into the agricultural land is continually removed to maintain the specified agricultural land fraction. The variable "VEGBURN" indicates the amount of carbon that is released into the atmosphere either from the removal of natural vegetation for the expansion of agricultural land or from the removal of trees and shrubs that regrow on the prescribed agricultural land fraction. The TRIFFID dynamic vegetation model is coupled to the Met Office Surface Exchange Scheme (MOSES), which is a single layer version of the MOSES scheme described in 165 Cox et al., 1999. TRIFFID, together with MOSES scheme, simulates the distribution of vegetation over land and calculates terrestrial carbon stocks and fluxes. The inorganic ocean carbon cycle is included in the UVic model following the Ocean Carbon Cycle Model Intercomparison Project (OCMIP) protocol and a marine ecosystem model (Keller et al., 2012). The sediment processes are represented by an oxic only model of sediment respiration (Eby et al., 2009). The land surface model (TRIFFID dynamic vegetation model coupled to MOSES land surface scheme) 170 calculates the land surface albedo as a function of snow, ice or changing vegetation distributions (Matthews et al., 2004). The detailed description of energy-moisture balance equations for the land surface are given in Meissner et al., 2003, Matthews et al., 2004 and Matthews et al., 2005. The large scale present day climate is represented quite well

in the UVie model (Weaver et al., 2001, Skvortsov et al., 2009, Eby et al., 2009 and Cao and Jiang, 2017).

2.2 Simulations

- 175 First, we spin up the model with the land use data corresponding to the year 1750 (Chini *et al.*, 2014) for 7500 years to a steady state with an atmospheric CO₂ concentration of 280.8 ppm (Figure S2a, Table S1). The last 30 years of this preindustrial spin-up simulation (PI_1750) has a global mean surface air temperature (SAT) of 13.2°C (Figure S2b, Table S1). Further details of the spin-up simulation are given in SI (Supplementary Information) TEXT S1. A historical simulation (HIST_1750_2005) is performed from 1750 to 2005 starting from the end of PI_1750 by
- prescribing historical fossil fuel emissions (Hoesly et al., 2018), land cover change (Chini et al., 2014), and volcanic forcing (Crowley, 2000). In the UVic model, land cover change during the historical period is modeled by prescribing the fraction of agricultural land (cropland and pastureland) in each grid. The dynamic vegetation model has representation for five natural vegetation types (broad leaf tree, needle leaf tree, C₃ grass, C₄ grass, and shrub) and bare soil. The atmospheric CO₂ concentration and SAT averaged over the last 30 years (19861976-2005) of HIST_1750_2005 are 349.1ppm and 13.5°C, respectively (Figure S3, Table S1). A comparison of our historical simulation with observations shows that the model underestimates the amount of warming in the historical period (SI TEXT S2, Figure S3). The evolution of key climate variables during the historical simulation is shown in Figure S4, and further details of the historical simulation are provided in SI TEXT S2.
- Starting from the historical simulation, three simulations are performed from the year 2006 to 2500 (Table 1): i) prescribed fossil fuel emission simulation with fixed agricultural land (FIXED_AGR) corresponding to the year 2005, which is a reference simulation to calculate the net effects of afforestation or reduction of fossil fuel emissions ii) prescribed fossil fuel emission simulation with afforestation starting from the year 2006 (AFFOREST), and iii) prescribed fossil fuel emission simulations with reduced emissions (REDUCED_FF) and fixed agricultural land corresponding to the year 2005. The fossil fuel emissions in these three simulations follow three extended SSP scenarios (SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5; Meinshausen et al., 2020). The fossil fuel emissions peak in the year 2040, 2100 and 2100 in the SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios, respectively, and reduces to zero by the year 2050 in all three scenarios. In the REDUCED_FF case, the fossil fuel emissions are reduced from the corresponding SSP scenarios by the same amount of carbon additionally stored in land in the AFFOREST case.
- In the FIXED_AGR and REDUCED_FF cases, the fraction of the agricultural land is kept constant at values corresponding to the year 2005. Note that the five natural vegetation types can compete outside the agricultural land, and thus, the land cover in the FIXED_AGR and REDUCED_FF cases can change dynamically depending on the climate conditions. In the AFFOREST experiment, vegetation is allowed to regrow over the agricultural land by abruptly setting the agricultural land fraction to zero everywhere, which leads to <u>an</u> additional storage of carbon in the land and a reduction in the growth of atmospheric CO₂. The fossil fuel emissions in FIXED_AGR and <u>In the</u> AFFOREST cases follow three extended SSP scenarios (simulations, the amount of carbon additionally stored in land (between 2006-2500) are 319.84 PgC, 418.93 PgC, and 379.21PgC in the SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0, and <u>SSP5-8.SSP 5</u>; Meinshausen et al., 2020). The fossil fuel emissions peak in the year 2040, 2100 and 2100 in the SSP2 4.5, SSP3 7.0 and <u>SSP5-8.5</u> scenarios, respectively, and reduces to zero by the year 2250 in the three scenarios. In the <u>REDUCED_FF case</u>, (Figure 1, Table 2). Note that our simulations (AFFOREST and REDUCED_FF) are highly

210 <u>idealized and are designed with the sole purpose to assess the relative effectiveness of afforestation and reduced fossil fuel emissions. Hence, these simulations are not consistent with the fossil fuel emissions are reduced from the corresponding-SSP scenarios by the same amount of carbon additionally stored over land in the AFFOREST case.</u>

The AFFOREST (REDUCED_FF) simulations differ from the FIXED_AGR simulations only by afforestation (reduced fossil fuel emissions) in the AFFOREST (REDUCED_FF) simulations. Thus, the net effect of afforestation (reduced fossil fuel emissions) on the climate system is estimated by comparing the climate state of AFFOREST (REDUCED_FF) case with the FIXED_AGR case. Thus, in our analyses in the following sections, FIXED_AGR case is used as the reference case.

We recognize that the term "afforestation" in the real world refers to the intentional human activity of planting of trees to increase forest cover. However, the increase in forest in our AFFOREST simulations is due to dynamical natural evolution of tree type vegetation with no human intervention. Nevertheless, we use the term "afforestation" to refer to the increase in tree cover in these simulations.

3 Results

215

220

3.1 Effects of afforestation on landLand carbon and land surface albedostock changes

In this section, we analyze the effects of afforestation on land carbon and land surface albedostock in our
simulations. The areal coverage of tree and grass type vegetations at the end of the historical simulation (averaged over 1976-2005) are 22% and 32%, respectively, compared to the observed values of 32% and 36% (Poulter et al. 2011). In the AFFOREST case, regrowth of forests in abandoned agricultural land results in an increase in tree fraction from approximately 0.222 to 0.444 globally, while in the FIXED_AGR and REDUCED_FF cases, tree fraction remains nearly unchanged at around 0.2 (Figure S5) in the three SSP scenarios. The larger tree fraction (averaged over 2471-2500) in the AFFOREST case compared to the FIXED_AGR case has similar spatial distribution in the three SSP scenarios, while there is virtually no difference in tree fraction (averaged over 2471-2500) between REDUCED_FF and FIXED_AGR cases everywhere in the three SSP scenarios (Figure S62).

In our preindustrial spinup simulation, the land carbon stock is 1789 PgC (Averaged over the last 30 years of PI_1750) (Table S1). In the historical simulation, it stays nearly unchanged at the preindustrial value (Figure S7) as
 the land carbon averaged over the last 30 years (1986 2005) of HIST_1750_2005 is 1779 PgC (Table S1). In the UVic model, the atmosphere to land carbon flux is the difference between net primary productivity (NPP) and the sum of soil respiration and vegetation burning flux (VEGBURN). VEGBURN is estimated as the carbon that is released into the atmosphere either from the removal of natural vegetation for expansion of agricultural land or from the removal of trees and shrubs that regrow on the prescribed agricultural land fraction. A brief description of VEGBURN is provided in SI TEXT S3. Because agricultural land fraction is zero everywhere in the AFFOREST case, VEGBURN is zero in the AFFOREST case (Figure S8). In the FIXED_AGR, AFFOREST, and REDUCED_FF simulations, NPP increases initially until around the year when emissions peak (2040 in SSP2 4.5 and 2100 in SSP3 7.0 and SSP5 8.5) due to CO₂ fertilization effect (Lobell and Field, 2008, Cernusak *et al.*, 2019 and Haverd *et al.*, 2020) in which elevated atmospherie CO₂-levels lead to increased plant productivity (Figure S9). The increase in atmosphere to land carbon

245 flux due to this increase in NPP is partly offset by an increase in soil respiration (Figure S10) due to an increase in SAT.

In our preindustrial spinup simulation, the land carbon stock is 1789 PgC (averaged over the last 30 years of PI_1750) (Table S1). In the historical simulation, it stays nearly unchanged at the preindustrial value (Figure S6) as the land carbon stock averaged over the last 30 years (1976-2005) of HIST 1750 2005 is 1779 PgC (Table S1). The 250 land carbon stock is underestimated in the UVic model compared to the observations likely because of the simple land surface scheme used in the UVic model which does not include representation for peatlands (Meissner et al., 2003). In our historical simulation, the land act as a net source of ~10PgC, which is in the range of 30±45PgC estimated in Ciais et al., 2014. In the UVic model, the atmosphere to land carbon flux is the difference between net primary productivity (NPP) and the sum of soil respiration and vegetation burning flux (VEGBURN). Because agricultural 255 land fraction is zero everywhere in the AFFOREST case, VEGBURN is zero in the AFFOREST case (Figure S7). In all nine simulations, NPP increases initially until around the year when emissions peak (2040 in SSP2-4.5 and 2100 in SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5) due to CO₂ fertilization effect (Lobell and Field, 2008, Cernusak et al., 2019 and Haverd *et al.*, 2020), in which elevated atmospheric CO_2 levels lead to increased plant productivity (Figure S8). The increase in atmosphere to land carbon flux due to this increase in NPP is partly offset by an increase in soil respiration (Figure 260 <u>S9) due to an increase in SAT.</u>

The land carbon stock initially increases in all nine simulations until near the end of the 21st century (Figure \$7\$6) because the increase in NPP is larger than the increase in the sum of soil respiration and VEGBURN during this period. After the 21st-century, emissions decrease, causingpeak, the rate of increase of NPP to become relatively constant (Figure S9). Since and soil respiration is larger in the SSP3 7.0 and SSP5 8.5 scenarios due to largerstarts to 265 decrease because of weaker CO₂ fertilization effect and reduced warming (Sect. 3.2), rates, respectively (Figure S8 and S9). During this period, the land carbon stock decreases after the emissions peak in five out of nine simulations (the FIXED_AGR and REDUCED_FF simulations of the SSP3-7.0 scenario and in all three simulations of SSP5-8.5 scenario) (Figure S7). S6), because the sum of soil respiration and VEGBURN becomes larger than the NPP in these simulations. In other four simulations, land carbon stock becomes almost constant by around 2100 after the emissions 270 peak (Figure <u>\$7</u>\$6). After the cessation of emissions by the year 2250 (Figure <u>\$11</u>\$10), NPP becomes relatively constant (Figure $\frac{S9}{S8}$) in all nine simulations because of the absence of the CO₂ fertilization effect-in all nine simulations. Global SAT increases only slightly after the cessation of emissions (Sect. 3.23); hence soil respiration also becomes almost constant near the end of all our simulations (Figure <u>\$1059</u>). Since NPP, soil respiration, and VEGBURN become relatively constant after the cessation of emissions (Figure <u>S7</u>, S8, S9, and <u>S10S9</u>), the land 275 carbon also becomes relatively constant after the cessation of emissions in all nine simulations (Figure <u>\$7\$6</u>).

The AFFOREST simulations show a larger increase in land carbon <u>stock compared to FIXED_AGR</u> <u>simulations</u> because of the forest regrowth, while the REDUCED_FF simulations show a similar land carbon <u>stock</u> as that of the FIXED_AGR simulations in the three SSP scenarios (Figure <u>13a</u>). In the <u>AFFOREST simulations</u>, <u>SSP 5-</u> <u>8.5 and SSP3-7.0 scenarios</u>, the <u>amount of carbon additionally</u> stored <u>overin</u> land (<u>betweenduring the period</u> 2006-2500) are <u>319.84 PgC</u>, <u>418.93 PgC</u>, and <u>379.21PgC</u> in the <u>SSP2 4.5</u>, <u>SSP3 7.0</u>, and <u>SSP 5 8.5 scenarios</u>, respectively

(Figure 1, Table S2). In the SSP 5–8.5 and SSP3–7.0 scenarios, the additional carbon stored in land is larger than that of the SSP 2-4.5 scenario (Figure $\frac{1}{3a}$), because of the larger CO₂ fertilization effect due to larger atmospheric CO₂ concentrations. However, added storage of land-carbon stored in land after the year 2005 is more in the SSP3-7.0 scenario than the SSP5-8.5 scenario which, though SSP5-8.5 has a larger atmospheric CO₂ concentration. This is

because the<u>due to</u> larger temperature<u>warming</u> in the SSP5-8.5 scenario<u>which</u> causes a larger increase in soil respiration than the increase in net primary productivity (NPP) due to CO₂ fertilization (Figure <u>S12S11</u>). In the AFFOREST simulations, land carbon <u>stock</u> (averaged over 2471-2500) is larger in regions with forest regrowth (Figure <u>S13S12</u> and <u>S62</u>), while the spatial distribution of land carbon <u>stock</u> in the REDUCED_FF case is similar to the FIXED_AGR case in the three SSP scenarios (Figure <u>S13</u>). In the REDUCED_FF case fossil fuel emissions in corresponding SSP scenarios are reduced by the amount of carbon additionally stored over land in the AFFOREST simulations each year (Figure S14S12).

In addition to the increased land carbon, 3.2 Biophysical effects of afforestation-can significantly change the land surface albedo.

- The global land surface albedo in our preindustrial simulation (PI_1750) is 0.28 (Table S1), which remains
 nearly unchanged in the historical simulation (HIST_1750_2005)-(; Figure S15S13, Table S1). In the FIXED_AGR, AFFOREST, and REDUCED_FF simulations, the land surface albedo is nearly constant, while in the AFFOREST case land surface albedo decreases initially due to the regrowth of forests and becomes nearly constant after 2250 in the three SSP scenarios (Figure S15). TheS13). In the AFFOREST case, the land surface albedo is less in the AFFOREST caselower than in the FIXED_AGR case by 0.011 globally in the three SSP scenarios (Figure 23b, Table S22), while the changes in land surface albedo in the REDUCED_FF case relative to the FIXED_AGR case is nearly zero in the three SSP scenarios (Figure 23b, Table S22). The land surface albedo (averaged over 2471-2500) is lower in the AFFOREST case compared to FIXED_AGR case in regions with forest regrowth (Figure S16S14 and S62), while in the REDUCED_FF case, the land surface albedo (averaged over the last 30 years2471-2500) is similar to the FIXED_AGR case everywhere in the three SSP scenarios (Figure S16S14).
- In the AFFOREST case, evapotranspiration (averaged over 2471-2500) is smaller by 2.6%, 4.5% and 6.2% relative to FIXED_AGR case in the SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios, respectively (Figure 3c). Elevated CO₂ levels cause an increase in water use efficiency of the plants resulting in reduced transpiration (Cao et al., 2009, 2010; Gopalakrishnan et al., 2011). The effects of elevated atmospheric CO₂ on the transpiration fluxes are larger for trees compared to grasslands (Kirschbaum and McMillan, 2018). The lower evapotranspiration in the AFFOREST case compared to the FIXED_AGR case is caused by this increase in plant water use efficiency in trees due to elevated CO₂ levels. In the REDUCED_FF case, the evapotranspiration (averaged over 2471-2500) is larger by 3.7%, 7.0% and 5.3% relative to FIXED_AGR case in the SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios, respectively (Figure 3c). The larger evapotranspiration in the REDUCED_FF case compared to the FIXED_AGR case is caused by lower atmospheric CO₂ in the REDUCED_FF case and the associated decrease in plant water use efficiency (Figure 3c). In the AFFOREST case, the evapotranspiration (averaged over 2471-2500) is smaller by 10wer atmospheric CO₂ in the REDUCED_FF case and the associated decrease in plant water use efficiency (Figure 3c). In the AFFOREST case, the evapotranspiration (averaged over 2471-2500) is smaller compared to FIXED_AGR case mostly over the regions with an increase in tree fraction in the three SSP scenarios, while in the REDUCED_FF case, the evapotranspiration in the three SSP scenarios, while in the REDUCED_FF case.

the evapotranspiration is larger or nearly same as the FIXED_AGR case in different regions in the three SSP scenarios (Figure S15). In our simulations, afforestation results in reduced evapotranspiration because of increased plant water use efficiency resulting in a warming effect. This is in contrast with the previous regional studies that reported that evapotranspiration increases after afforestation, resulting in a cooling effect (Chen et al., 2012; Huang et al., 2018; Shen et al., 2022). The net effect likely depends on the relative magnitude of the effects of increased water use efficiency under elevated CO_2 levels and the effects of increase in leaf area index due to afforestation (Betts et al., 1997).

In summary, we find that afforestation leads to additional carbon storage over land and a lower land surface albedo and reduced evapotranspiration in the AFFOREST case compared to the FIXED_AGR and REDUCED_FF cases where the agricultural land fraction is maintained at the year 2005 values.

3.23 Evolution of Atmospheric CO2 and Surface Air Temperature

The atmospheric CO₂ concentration and SAT (averaged over the last 30 years of PI_1750) in our preindustrial simulation (PI_1750) are 280.8ppm and 13.2 °C (averaged over the last 30 years of PI_1750) (Figure S2, Table S1),
respectively. In our historical simulation (HIST_1750_2005), atmospheric CO₂ increases due to fossil fuel and land use change emissions. At the end of the historical simulation, atmospheric CO₂ concentration increases to 349.1ppm (averaged over 1976-2005) increases to 349.1ppm (Figure S3, Table S1), and consequently, SAT increases to 13.5°C (Figure S3, Table S1).

The increase in atmospheric CO_2 (averaged over 2471-2500) in our nine simulations compared to HIST 1750 335 (averaged over 1976-2005) vary from 140ppm to 1675ppm (Figure <u>\$17\$16</u>, Table <u>\$3\$2</u>). Initially, atmospheric CO₂ increases until around the cessation of fossil fuel emissions in the year 2250 in all simulations because fossil fuel emissions add more carbon to the atmosphere. After the cessation of emissions around 2250, atmospheric CO₂ decreases slightly until the end of the simulations (Figure S16) because of further carbon uptake by the ocean continues to be a weak sink till the end (Sect. 3.34) in all nine simulations though the land becomes neutral. The atmospheric 340 CO₂ concentration is similar and smaller in the AFFOREST and REDUCED_FF simulations compared to the FIXED AGR in the three SSP scenarios because of the removal of carbon by afforestation and reduced fossil fuel emissions, respectively (Figure $\frac{1}{2}$). The decrease in atmospheric CO₂ because of afforestation or reduction ofreduced fossil fuelsfuel emissions is almost twice in the-SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios-compared to SSP2-4.5 (Figure 3, Table S3). This is due to two reasons: i) the amount of carbon removed by land is larger in the SSP3-7.0 345 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios because of the larger CO₂-fertilization effect as discussed in Sect- 3.1 ii) larger ocean carbon uptake in the FIXED_AGR case relative to the AFFOREST ease and REDUCED FF cases in the SSP2-4.5 compared to SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios compared to SSP2 4.5 (Table S2).2).

The future projections of changes in SAT (averaged over 2471-2500) in our nine simulations relative to HIST_1750 (averaged over 1976-2005) vary from 2°C to 8°C (Figure <u>S18S17</u>, Table <u>S3S2</u>). In the three SSP scenarios, the REDUCED_FF case simulates a smaller SAT increase compared to the AFFOREST and FIXED_AGR cases (Figure <u>S18S17</u>). The afforestation in the AFFOREST case results in a cooling of 0.31°C and 0.1°C and a

330

350

warming of 0.05°C in the SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0, and SSP5-8.5 scenario, respectively, while the reduction of fossil fuel emissions in the REDUCED_FF case results in a cooling of 0.66°C, 0.56°C and 0.36°C in the SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0, and SSP5-8.5 scenario, respectively when compared to the FIXED_AGR case (Figure 44b, Table \$32).

355

In the AFFOREST case, the cooling effect of CO₂ removal from the afforestation is partly offset by the biophysical warming effect of the changes ineffects (from lower land surface albedo because of the growth and reduced evapotranspiration) due to the regrowth of forests. Hence, the AFFOREST case has a larger SAT than the REDUCED FF case in the three SSP scenarios (Figure 44b and \$18\$17). In the SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios, this offsettingoffset is almost fullperfect so that the AFFOREST and FIXED_AGR cases have similar SAT (Figure 360 44b and S18S17). However, in the SSP2-4.5 scenario, though the reduction in atmospheric CO₂ is smaller (Figure 44b and $\frac{S18S17}{S18S17}$, the cooling effect of CO₂ removal is larger as temperature change scales with the logarithm of atmospheric CO₂ levels. Therefore, in the SSP2-4.5 scenario, the biophysical warming effect of offects due to the regrowth of forests does not completely offset the cooling effect of removing atmospheric CO₂. Note that the cooling effect of reducing fossil fuel emissions are comparable in SSP2-4.5 and SSP3-7.0, because the reduction in fossil fuel 365 emissions (the REDUCED FF simulations) is smaller for the SSP2-4.5 scenario compared to SSP3-7.0, but the effect of removal of same amount of carbon is higher in SSP2-4.5 because of the lower atmospheric CO₂ concentration. The cooling effect of reducing fossil fuel emissions are lowest in SSP5-8.5 because the amount of carbon removed is similar to SSP3-7.0, but SSP5-8.5 has larger CO₂ concentration than SSP3-7.0.

The spatial patterns of SAT (averaged over 2471-2500) in the AFFOREST and REDUCED FF cases are 370 compared with the FIXED_AGR case in Figure 5. The REDUCED_FF case is cooler in all regions with respect to the FIXED_AGR case in the three SSP scenarios (Figure 5), while AFFOREST case shows regional warming in the SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios. This regional warming in the AFFOREST case is more prominent over land, where the afforestation results in a lower land surface albedo (Figure 5 and S16). and reduced evapotranspiration (Figure 5). The REDUCED FF case has lower surface ocean potential temperature (averaged over 2471-2500) compared to the 375 FIXED AGR case, while the ocean potential temperature is nearly same in the AFFOREST and FIXED AGR cases (Figure 6). The effects of atmospheric carbon removal are only seen in the surface ocean as it equilibrates with the

In summary, we find that a reduction in fossil fuel emissions is more effective than afforestation since the cooling benefits of storing atmospheric carbon in vegetation is partly offset by biophysical warming effect from the 380 decrease in the albedo of the surface and evapotranspiration in the AFFOREST case. However, afforestation is beneficial for reducing ocean acidification, as shown in the next section.

3.34 Ocean carbon content and Surface Ocean pH

changes in the atmosphere on shorter timescales compared to the deep ocean.

The ocean carbon content in the PI_1750 simulation (averaged over 2471-2500) is 37287 PgC (Table S1). In our historical simulation (HIST_1750_2005), ocean carbon content increases as increasing CO₂ levels in the 385 atmosphere results in an increased carbon uptake by the ocean (Figure <u>\$19\$18</u>). The increase in ocean carbon content

averaged over the period 1976-2005 of HIST_1750_2005 is 82 PgC-(Table S1), The cumulative carbon uptake during the historical period is 113PgC, which falls in the observed range of 105 ± 20 PgC (Masson-Delmotte et al., 2021).

The ocean carbon content increases in the FIXED_AGR, AFFOREST and REDUCED_FF simulations in the three SSP scenarios. The FIXED_AGR case shows the largest amount of ocean carbon content in the three SSP 390 scenarios (Figure $\frac{$19$18}{10}$), because of larger atmospheric CO₂ in the FIXED AGR case compared to AFFOREST and REDUCED FF cases. The spatial pattern of the ocean carbon content (averaged over 2471-2500) in AFFOREST and REDUCED FF cases relative to the FIXED AGR case shows that the ocean carbon content increase is less in the AFFOREST and REDUCED_FF cases compared to FIXED_AGR case in all regions in the three SSP scenarios (Figure <u>\$20\$19</u>). In the high emissions scenarios (SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5), the reduction in the ocean carbon content 395 in the AFFOREST and REDUCED_FF cases are less compared to SSP2-4.5 (Figure 67a and 819S18) because of the reduction in buffering effect capacity of the ocean as it takes up more carbon (Middelburg et al., 2020).(Middelburg et al., 2020, DeVries, 2022) and the reduced solubility of atmospheric CO₂ in sea water at higher temperatures (Duan and Sun, 2003). The reduction of ocean carbon content (averaged over 2471-2500) in the AFFOREST and REDUCED FF cases compared to the FIXED AGR case is more pronounced in the surface ocean as the surface 400 ocean adjusts more rapidly to the changes in atmospheric CO₂ (Figure <u>S21S20</u>). A longer simulation would be required for larger changes in carbon content in the deep ocean.

The surface ocean pH in our preindustrial state is 8.15 (averaged over the last 30 years of PI_1750). By year 2005, the surface ocean pH (averaged over 1976-2005) reduces to 8.09 asbecause the ocean takes up more carbon as atmospheric CO₂ increases during the historical period (Figure <u>\$22\$21</u>). In the FIXED_AGR, AFFOREST and REDUCED_FFall nine simulations, surface ocean pH decreases until the fossil fuel emissions reduce to zero in the year 2250 and increases slightly after the emissions cease (Figure <u>22\$21</u>). The AFFOREST and REDUCED_FF cases show larger and similar changes in surface ocean pH in comparison with the FIXED_AGR case in the three SSP scenarios (Figure <u>77b</u>) because of smaller increase in ocean carbon content in the AFFOREST and REDUCED_FF cases <u>compared to the FIXED_AGR case (Figure 67a and S19, and Table \$32).
</u>

The AFFOREST and REDUCED_FF cases show larger surface ocean pH (averaged over 2471-2500) in all regions in the three SSP scenarios relative to the corresponding FIXED_AGR <u>casescase</u>, because of smaller ocean carbon content as a result of reduced atmospheric CO₂ (Figure 8). In the high emissions scenarios (SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5), the increase in surface ocean pH in the AFFOREST and REDUCED_FF cases are less compared to SSP2-4.5 (Figure 77b and Figure 8) because the reduction in ocean carbon is smaller in higher emissions scenarios (Figure 415 67a).

As discussed in the previous section, the cooling effect of afforestation is offset by the warming effect of surface albedo changes. However, as shown in this section, afforestation is useful to reduce the effects of increased ocean carbon content and thereby ocean acidification.

420 4. Conclusions

425

Afforestation and reduced fossil fuel emissions are two major components of climate change mitigation currently adopted to slow climate change. Understanding the net effects of afforestation and reduced fossil fuel emissions is important for the development of climate mitigation strategies. In this paper, we have shown that the climate response to carbon removal by afforestation and an equivalent reduction in fossil fuel emissions is different because of the biophysical effects of afforestation, which is often neglected in the development of climate mitigation strategies.

We have analyzed the relative effectiveness of afforestation and reduction of fossil fuel emissions for mitigating climate change using climate model simulations. Our results show that allowing the forests to grow back by abandoning all the agricultural land in the year 2005 leads to an additional storage of carbon overin land of 319.84 430 PgC, 418.93 PgC, and 379.21PgC by 2500 (averaged over 2471-2500) in the SSP-2SSP2-4.5, SSP-3SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios, respectively. If fossil fuel emissions are reduced by the same amount of carbon that is additionally stored overin land, the climate is cooler in the reduced fossil fuel emission case compared to the afforestation case. The relative cooling is 0.36°C, 0.47°C and 0.42°C in the reduced fossil fuel emission case compared to the afforestation case in the year 2500 (averaged over 2471-2500) in the SSP 2SSP2-4.5, SSP 3SSP3-7.0 and SSP 5SSP5-435 8.5 scenario, respectively. In the case of afforestation, the change in vegetation cover from grasslands to forests has a warming effect (due to the biophysical effects of afforestation) which nearly offsets the cooling effect from carbon removed from the atmosphere. In our simulations, the cooling effect of afforestation is completely offset by its warming effect in the higher emission scenarios (SSP 3-7.0 and SSP 5-8.5) and partially offset in lower emission scenario (SSP 2 4.5).). However, in lower emission scenario (SSP 2-4.5), the offsetting of the cooling effect of 440 afforestation is only partial, because the removal of atmospheric carbon by afforestation results in a stronger cooling effect when the atmospheric CO_2 is lower. Therefore, the biophysical warming effect of regrowth of trees does not completely offset the biogeochemical cooling effect from the atmospheric carbon removal by afforestation. This suggests that afforestation may have a larger climate benefit in the lower emission scenarios. Both afforestation and

reduced fossil fuel emissions result in smaller ocean carbon stock (Figure S19 and 20), because the surface ocean
 equilibrates rapidly in response to changes in the atmosphere (Figure S20). However, the changes in the deep ocean
 are nearly zero (Figure S20) because the transport of ocean carbon between the surface and deep ocean could take
 multiple centuries to millennia.

There are several Several previous studies, both observational and modelling, have investigated the biophysical effects of deforestation/afforestation (Bala et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2014; Cescatti, 2016; Duveiller et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2018; Winckler et al., 2019; Alkama and Boysen et al., 2020; Shen et al., 2022). Observational studies on biophysical effects of deforestation by Alkama and Cescatti, 2016 and Duveiller et al., 2018 show that deforestation results in a biophysical warming effect which qualitatively contradicts our results, while climate modelling studies by Bala et al., 2007, Boysen et al., 2020 and Portmann et al., 2022 show that large scale deforestation results in a biophysical cooling effect which is qualitatively consistent with our results. Winckler et al., 2019 showed that this contradiction between the observational and modelling studies arises from the nonlocal

cooling in models, which is excluded from observations. On regional scales, the net effect of afforestation could be warming or cooling depending on the location at which the afforestation occurs (Chen et al., 2012; Huang et al., 2018; Shen et al., 2022). Wang et al., 2014 showed that, the net biophysical effect from global afforestation is a warming of 0.68–1.38 °C which is qualitatively consistent with the biophysical warming effect of afforestation in our results.

460 Previous studies (Bonan, 2008; Li et al., 2016; De Hertog et al., 2022) find that afforestation in the tropics leads to a cooling effect, while we simulate a warming for afforestation in the tropics. This contradiction is the result of higher atmospheric CO₂ concentrations in the SSP scenarios used in our study, resulting in increased water use efficiency of plants and consequently a warming effect due to a decrease in evapotranspiration (Kirschbaum and McMillan, 2018).

Our study has the following limitations to our study. First, the afforestation in our model is highly idealized. 465 In our afforestation simulations, we assume that the entire agricultural land in the year 2005 is abandoned and vegetation is allowed to regrow abruptly, while in the real-world implementing afforestation at this scale would take a longer period. Also, in our simulations, vegetation grows back naturally according to the climate conditions over the abandoned agricultural land, while in the real world, it might be possible to grow trees artificially in areas where the climate conditions do not support the growth of trees using dams, irrigation, etc. Second, many processes in the model 470 are highly simplified representations aimed at achieving a lower computational cost. For example, the dynamic vegetation model in our simulation has only five plant functional types, while the real-world ecosystems are far more diverse and complex. However, the simplified representation enables us to understand the role of climate-vegetation feedbacks in longer time scales with less computational cost. Even though the afforestation representation in our model is highly idealized and there are uncertainties in the processes that are represented in the model, we believe that the 475 qualitative conclusions would not be affected by these limitations. Third, the climate change scenarios used in our simulations would occur with frequent intense droughts that prevent the vegetation regrowth, which is not fully accounted for in our simulations because of a simple 1-layer energy balance atmospheric model (Weaver et al., 2001) that does not simulate convection and clouds. Therefore, the magnitude of the estimated sink from the regrowth of vegetation might be lower in the real world than in our simulations. Fourth, there could be uncertainty in the sensitivity 480 of the transpiration to CO_2 change in the future scenarios (Mengis et al., 2015). Despite the above limitations we believe that the qualitative results of the study will be unchanged in more complex modeling frameworks. Several previous studies (Bala et al., 2007, Wang et al., 2014, Devaraju et al., 2018 and Jayakrishnan et al., 2022) have used similar highly idealized deforestation/afforestation experiments for providing useful scientific insights.

Based on our<u>Our</u> results, we conclude show that a reduction in fossil fuel emissions iscould be more effective
than afforestation in mitigating climate change. Though afforestation ismight be relatively less effective in mitigating climate change, it has other benefits such as reducinga reduction in ocean acidification: the removal of carbon from the atmosphere results in <u>a</u> slightly reduced <u>amount of</u> carbon in the ocean, which leads to higher surface ocean pH and less ocean acidification. Therefore, a better strategy to address climate change is to reduce fossil fuel emission as well as pursue afforestation efforts. While our study show that the biophysical effects have significant role in determining the net effects of afforestation in the future climate, there are many uncertainties in the representation of the processes that govern the biophysical changes in our climate model simulations. Therefore, the understanding of

the biophysical effects of afforestation should be improved further before considering the implications of our research for climate policy.

Data availability

495 All data that support the findings of the study will be made available at the Zenodo database. DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.7321684.

Author Contribution

Govindasamy Bala formulated the idea behind the study. Govindasamy Bala and K U Jayakrishnan designed the experiments. K U Jayakrishnan performed the experiments. Govindasamy Bala and K U Jayakrishnan contributed to the writing and editing of the manuscript.

Acknowledgements

500

505

We acknowledge the Supercomputer Education and Research Centre, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, for providing the computational facility required for running the UVic model. The first author gratefully acknowledges the Prime Minister's Fellowship from the government of India. We are thankful to the developers of UVic Model for providing us with the source code of the model. We are also thankful to Dr. Michael Eby (School of Earth and Ocean Sciences, University of Victoria, Canada), and Long Cao and Xiaoyu Jin (School of Earth Sciences, Zhejiang University, China) for helping us with instructions for running the simulations.

Competing Interest Statement

The authors do not have any competing interests to disclose.

510 References

Alfieri, L., Burek, P., Feyen, L., and Forzieri, G.: Global warming increases the frequency of river floods in Europe, Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci., 19, 2247–2260, https://doi.org/10.5194/HESS-19-2247-2015, 2015.

Ali, H., Modi, P., and Mishra, V.: Increased flood risk in Indian sub-continent under the warming climate, Weather Clim. Extrem., 25, 100212, https://doi.org/10.1016/J.WACE.2019.100212, 2019.

Allan, R. P. and Soden, B. J.: Atmospheric warming and the amplification of precipitation extremes, Science (80-.).,
 321, 1481–1484, https://doi.org/10.1126/SCIENCE.1160787/SUPPL_FILE/ALLAN.SOM.PDF, 2008.

Anderson, R. G., Canadell, J. G., Randerson, J. T., Jackson, R. B., Hungate, B. A., Baldocchi, D. D., Ban-Weiss, G. A., Bonan, G. B., Caldeira, K., Cao, L., Diffenbaugh, N. S., Gurney, K. R., Kueppers, L. M., Law, B. E., Luyssaert, S., and O'Halloran, T. L.: Biophysical considerations in forestry for climate protection, Front. Ecol. Environ., 9, 174–182. https://doi.org/10.1800/000170.2011

520 174–182, https://doi.org/10.1890/090179, 2011.

Archer, D.: Fate of fossil fuel CO2 in geologic time, J. Geophys. Res. Ocean., 110, 1–6, https://doi.org/10.1029/2004JC002625, 2005. Archer, D. and Brovkin, V.: The millennial atmospheric lifetime of anthropogenic CO2, Clim. Chang. 2008 903, 90, 283–297, https://doi.org/10.1007/S10584-008-9413-1, 2008.

- 525 Archer, D. U. of C. > D. of G. S., Eby, M. U. of V. > S. of E. and O. S., Brovkin, V. M. P. I. for M., Ridgwell, A. U. of B. > S. of G. S., Cao, L. C. I. > D. of G. E., Mikolajewicz, U. M. P. I. for M., Caldeira, K. C. I. > D. of G. E., Matsumoto, K. U. of M. > D. of G. and G., Munhoven, G. U. de L. Ul. > D. d'astrophys. . géophysique et océanographie (AGO) > L. de physique atmosphérique et planétaire (LPAP), Montenegro, A. U. of V. > S. of E. and O. S., and Tokos, K. U. of M. > D. of G. and G.: Atmospheric Lifetime of Fossil Fuel Carbon Dioxide, Annu. Rev.
 530 Earth Planet. Sci., 37, 117–134, https://doi.org/10.1146/ANNUREV.EARTH.031208.100206, 2009.
 - Canadell, J. G., Meyer, C. P. (Mick., Cook, G. D., Dowdy, A., Briggs, P. R., Knauer, J., Pepler, A., and Haverd, V.: Multi-decadal increase of forest burned area in Australia is linked to climate change, Nat. Commun. 2021 121, 12, 1–11, https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-27225-4, 2021.

Cao, L. and Jiang, J.: Simulated Effect of Carbon Cycle Feedback on Climate Response to Solar Geoengineering, Geophys. Res. Lett., 44, 12,484-12,491, https://doi.org/10.1002/2017GL076546, 2017.

Cernusak, L. A., Haverd, V., Brendel, O., Le Thiec, D., Guehl, J.-M., and Cuntz, M.: Robust response of terrestrial plants to rising CO2, Trends Plant Sci., 24, 578–586, 2019.

Chen, G. S., Notaro, M., Liu, Z., and Liu, Y.: Simulated Local and Remote Biophysical Effects of Afforestation over the Southeast United States in Boreal Summer, J. Clim., 25, 4511–4522, https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-11-00317.1, 2012.

Chini, L. P., Hurtt, G. C., and Frolking, S.: LUH1: Harmonized Global Land Use for Years 1500-2100, V1, ORNL DAAC, 2014.

Cox, P. M.: Description of the "TRIFFID" Dynamic Global Vegetation Model, 2001.

535

540

<u>Cox, P. M</u>., Betts, R. A., Bunton, C. B., Essery, R. L. H., Rowntree, P. R., and Smith, J.: The impact of new land
 surface physics on the GCM simulation of climate and climate sensitivity, Clim. Dyn. 1999 153, 15, 183–203,
 https://doi.org/10.1007/S003820050276, 1999.

Crowley, T. J.: Causes of climate change over the past 1000 years, Science (80-.)., 289, 270–277, https://doi.org/10.1126/SCIENCE.289.5477.270/ASSET/F912AC33-9AD4-4809-BCB0-D30391499765/ASSETS/GRAPHIC/SE2708679006.JPEG, 2000.

550 Eby, M., Zickfeld, K., Montenegro, A., Archer, D., Meissner, K. J., and Weaver, A. J.: Lifetime of Anthropogenic Climate Change: Millennial Time Scales of Potential CO2 and Surface Temperature Perturbations, J. Clim., 22, 2501–2511, https://doi.org/10.1175/2008JCLI2554.1, 2009.

DeVries, T.: The Ocean Carbon Cycle, Annu. Rev. Environ. Resour., 47, 317-341, 2022.

Duan, Z. and Sun, R.: An improved model calculating CO2 solubility in pure water and aqueous NaCl solutions

555 from 273 to 533 K and from 0 to 2000 bar, Chem. Geol., 193, 257–271, 2003.

565

Haverd, V., Smith, B., Canadell, J. G., Cuntz, M., Mikaloff-Fletcher, S., Farquhar, G., Woodgate, W., Briggs, P. R., and Trudinger, C. M.: Higher than expected CO2 fertilization inferred from leaf to global observations, Glob. Chang. Biol., 26, 2390–2402, 2020.

Henderson-Sellers, A. and Wilson, M. F.: Surface albedo data for climatic modeling, Rev. Geophys., 21, 1743–
 560 1778, https://doi.org/10.1029/RG0211008P01743, 1983.

Hoesly, R. M., Smith, S. J., Feng, L., Klimont, Z., Janssens-Maenhout, G., Pitkanen, T., Seibert, J. J., Vu, L.,
Andres, R. J., Bolt, R. M., Bond, T. C., Dawidowski, L., Kholod, N., Kurokawa, J. I., Li, M., Liu, L., Lu, Z., Moura,
M. C. P., O'Rourke, P. R., and Zhang, Q.: Historical (1750-2014) anthropogenic emissions of reactive gases and
aerosols from the Community Emissions Data System (CEDS), Geosci. Model Dev., 11, 369–408,
https://doi.org/10.5194/GMD-11-369-2018, 2018.

Houldcroft, C. J., Grey, W. M. F., Barnsley, M., Taylor, C. M., Los, S. O., and North, P. R. J.: New Vegetation Albedo Parameters and Global Fields of Soil Background Albedo Derived from MODIS for Use in a Climate Model, J. Hydrometeorol., 10, 183–198, https://doi.org/10.1175/2008JHM1021.1, 2009.

Huang, L., Zhai, J., Liu, J., and Sun, C.: The moderating or amplifying biophysical effects of afforestation on CO2–
 induced cooling depend on the local background climate regimes in China, Agric. For. Meteorol., 260–261, 193–
 203, https://doi.org/10.1016/J.AGRFORMET.2018.05.020, 2018.

Jayakrishnan, K. U., Bala, G., Cao, L., and Caldeira, K.: Contrasting climate and carbon-cycle consequences of fossil-fuel use versus deforestation disturbance, Environ. Res. Lett., 17, 064020, https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/AC69FD, 2022.

575 Joos, F. and Spahni, R.: Rates of change in natural and anthropogenic radiative forcing over the past 20,000 years, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A., 105, 1425–1430, https://doi.org/10.1073/PNAS.0707386105, 2008.

Keeling, C. D., Bacastow, R. B., Bainbridge, A. E., Ekdahl Jr, C. A., Guenther, P. R., Waterman, L. S., and Chin, J.
 F. S.: Atmospheric carbon dioxide variations at Mauna Loa observatory, Hawaii, Tellus, 28, 538–551, 1976.

van Kooten, G. C.: How effective are forests in mitigating climate change?, For. Policy Econ., 120, 102295, 2020.

580 Lobell, D. B. and Field, C. B.: Estimation of the carbon dioxide (CO2) fertilization effect using growth rate anomalies of CO2 and crop yields since 1961, Glob. Chang. Biol., 14, 39–45, 2008.

Masson-Delmotte, V., Zhai, P., Pirani, A., Connors, S. L., Péan, C., Berger, S., Caud, N., Chen, Y., Goldfarb, L., and Gomis, M. I.: Climate change 2021: the physical science basis, Contrib. Work. Gr. I to sixth Assess. Rep. Intergov. panel Clim. Chang., 2, 2021.

585 <u>Matthews, H. D., Weaver, A. J., Meissner, K. J., Gillett, N. P., and Eby, M.: Natural and anthropogenic climate</u> change: Incorporating historical land cover change, vegetation dynamics and the global carbon cycle, Clim. Dyn., https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-004-0392-2, 2004.

Matthews, H. D., Weaver, A. J., and Meissner, K. J.: Terrestrial carbon cycle dynamics under recent and future climate change, J. Clim., 18, 1609–1628, 2005.

- Meinshausen, M., Nicholls, Z. R. J., Lewis, J., Gidden, M. J., Vogel, E., Freund, M., Beyerle, U., Gessner, C., Nauels, A., Bauer, N., Canadell, J. G., Daniel, J. S., John, A., Krummel, P. B., Luderer, G., Meinshausen, N., Montzka, S. A., Rayner, P. J., Reimann, S., Smith, S. J., Van Den Berg, M., Velders, G. J. M., Vollmer, M. K., and Wang, R. H. J.: The shared socio-economic pathway (SSP) greenhouse gas concentrations and their extensions to 2500, Geosci. Model Dev., 13, 3571–3605, https://doi.org/10.5194/GMD-13-3571-2020, 2020.
- 595 Meissner, K. J., Weaver, A. J., Matthews, H. D., and Cox, P. M.: The role of land surface dynamics in glacial inception: A study with the UVic Earth System Model, Clim. Dyn., 21, 515–537, https://doi.org/10.1007/S00382-003-0352-2/TABLES/3, 2003.

Mengis, N., Keller, D. P., Eby, M., and Oschlies, A.: Uncertainty in the response of transpiration to CO2 and implications for climate change, Environ. Res. Lett., 10, 94001, 2015.

600 Middelburg, J. J., Soetaert, K., and Hagens, M.: Ocean alkalinity, buffering and biogeochemical processes, Rev. Geophys., 58, e2019RG000681, 2020.

Montenegro, A., Brovkin, V., Eby, M., Archer, D., and Weaver, A. J.: Long term fate of anthropogenic carbon, Geophys. Res. Lett., 34, https://doi.org/10.1029/2007GL030905, 2007.

Moore, B. and Braswell, B. H.: The lifetime of excess atmospheric carbon dioxide, Global Biogeochem. Cycles, 8,
 23–38, https://doi.org/10.1029/93GB03392, 1994.

Pacala, S. and Socolow, R.: Stabilization wedges: solving the climate problem for the next 50 years with current technologies, Science (80-.)., 305, 968–972, 2004.

Papalexiou, S. M. and Montanari, A.: Global and Regional Increase of Precipitation Extremes Under Global Warming, Water Resour. Res., 55, 4901–4914, https://doi.org/10.1029/2018WR024067, 2019.

610 Psarras, P., Krutka, H., Fajardy, M., Zhang, Z., Liguori, S., Dowell, N. Mac, and Wilcox, J.: Slicing the pie: how big could carbon dioxide removal be?, Wiley Interdiscip. Rev. Energy Environ., 6, e253, 2017.

Shen, W., He, J., He, Simmons, C. T., Hu, X., Tao, X., and Huang, C.: Biophysical EffectsMatthews, H. D.:
 Assessing the implications of Afforestation on Land Surface Temperature in Guangdong Province, Southern China,
 J. Geophys. human land-use change for the transient climate response to cumulative carbon emissions, Environ. Res.

615 Biogeosciences, 127, e2022JG006913Lett., 11, 035001, https://doi.org/10.1029/2022JG006913, 20221088/1748-9326/11/3/035001, 2016.

Wang, Y., Yan, X., and Wang, Z.: The biogeophysical effects of extreme afforestation in modeling future climate, Theor. Appl. Climatol., 118, 511–521, https://doi.org/10.1007/S00704-013-1085-8/FIGURES/6, 2014.



Figures

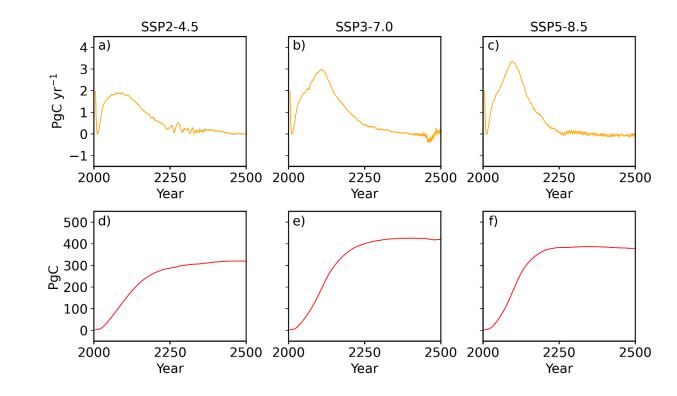


Figure 1. Top panels show the amount of carbon additionally stored in land in each year in AFFOREST case compared to the FIXED_AGR case in a) SSP2-4.5, b) SSP3-7.0 and c) SSP 5-8.5 scenarios, respectively. The bottom panels show the cumulative amount of additional carbon storage in land in AFFOREST case compared to FIXED_AGR case each year in d) SSP2-4.5, e) SSP 3-7.0 and f) SSP5-8.5 scenarios, respectively. In the AFFOREST simulations, the amount of carbon additionally stored in land (between 2006-2500) compared to FIXED_AGR case are 319.84 PgC, 418.93 PgC, and 379.21PgC in the SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0, and SSP 5-8.5 scenarios, respectively. The initial peak in yearly additional carbon storage is due to the rapid growth of vegetation over abandoned agricultural land in the AFFOREST case. The second peak is due to the gradual increase in tree fraction in the AFFOREST case (Figure S5).

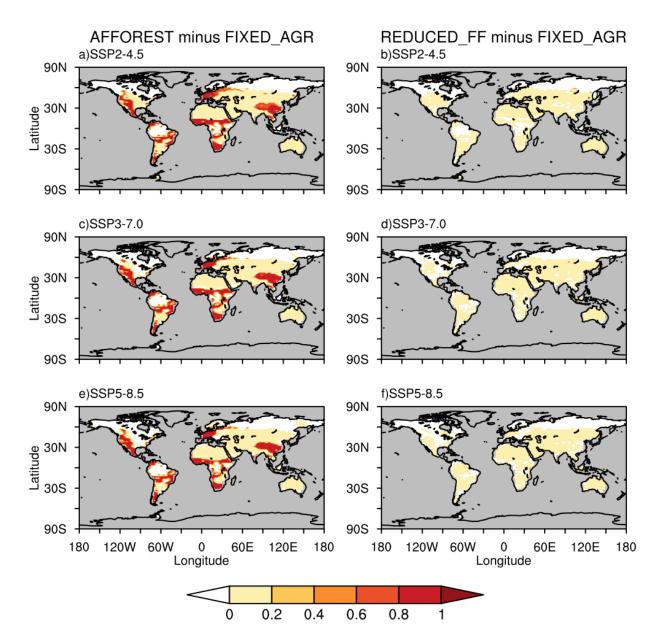


Figure 2. The left (right) panel shows spatial pattern of the difference in tree fraction (averaged over 2471-2500) between the AFFOREST (REDUCED_FF) and FIXED_AGR cases. The top, middle and bottom panels correspond to the SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios, respectively. The tree fraction is higher in the AFFOREST case compared to the FIXED_AGR case regionally because of the regrowth of forests over the abandoned agricultural land after the year 2005, while the REDUCED_FF and FIXED_AGR cases have similar tree fraction in all regions.

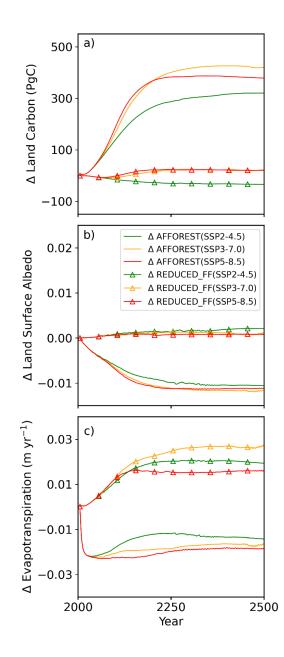
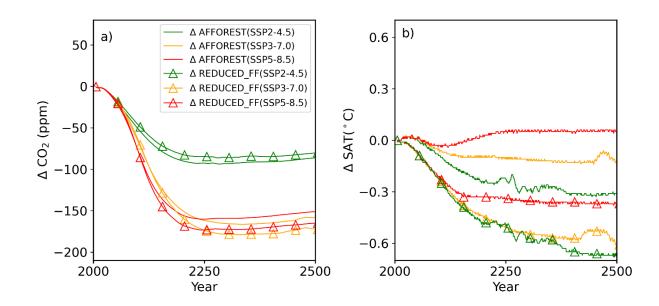


Figure 3. Changes in a) global total land carbon stock, b) land surface albedo and c) evapotranspiration in the AFFOREST (solid lines; ΔAFFOREST) and REDUCED_FF (solid lines with triangle markers; Δ REDUCED_FF) cases relative to the FIXED_AGR case in the SSP2-4.5 (green), SSP3-7.0 (orange) and SSP5-8.5 (red) scenarios. In the AFFOREST case, land carbon stock is larger than the FIXED_AGR case by 319.84 PgC, 418.93 PgC, and 379.21PgC in the SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios by year 2500, respectively, while the difference between land carbon stock in REDUCED_FF and FIXED_AGR cases is nearly zero in the three SSP scenarios. The land surface albedo in the AFFOREST case is smaller by 0.011 (averaged over 2471-2500) in the three SSP scenarios compared to FIXED_AGR case, while the REDUCED_FF case has similar land surface albedo as in the FIXED_AGR case in the three SSP scenarios. The evapotranspiration is smaller (larger) in the AFFOREST (REDUCED_FF) case compared to the FIXED_AGR case due to changes in water use efficiency of vegetation at higher atmospheric CO₂ levels.



670

Figure 4. Changes in a) global mean atmospheric CO₂ concentration and b) global mean surface air temperature in the AFFOREST (solid lines; Δ AFFOREST) and REDUCED_FF (solid lines with triangle markers; Δ REDUCED_FF) cases relative to the FIXED_AGR case in the SSP2-4.5 (green), SSP3-7.0 (orange) and SSP5-8.5 (red) scenarios. The decrease in atmospheric CO₂ because of afforestation or reduced fossil fuel emissions is almost twice in SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 compared to SSP2-4.5 due to two reasons: i) amount of carbon removed by land is larger in the SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios because of larger CO₂-fertilization effect as discussed in Sect 3.1 ii)) larger ocean carbon uptake in the FIXED_AGR case relative to the AFFOREST and REDUCED_FF cases in the SSP2-4.5 compared to SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios (Table 2). The REDUCED_FF case has lower SAT than the FIXED_AGR case in the three SSP scenarios because of reduced fossil fuel emissions in the REDUCED_FF case. In the AFFOREST case, the cooling effect of removal of CO₂ is partially or completely offset by the biophysical warming effects from regrowth

675 the cooling effect of removal of CO_2 is partially or completely offset by the biophysical warming effects from regrowth of forests. Hence, the AFFOREST case has similar SAT as that of FIXED_AGR in the SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios and smaller SAT in the SSP2-4.5.

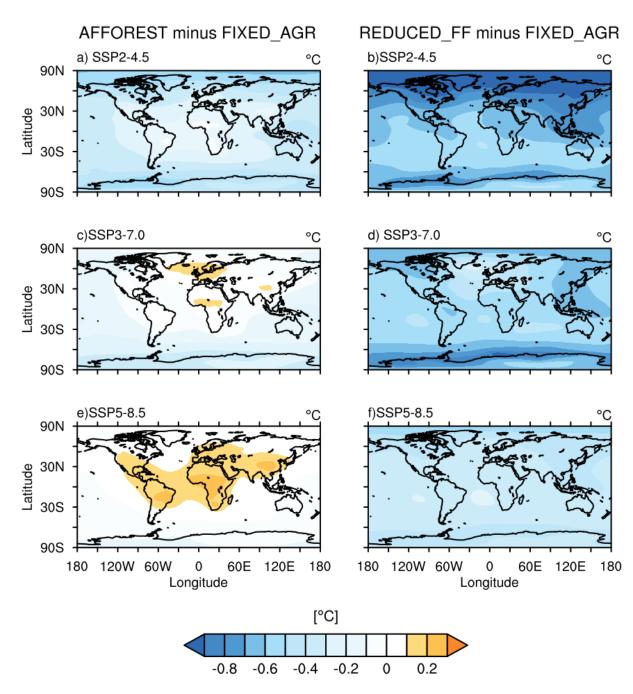


Figure 5. The left (right) panel shows the spatial pattern of the difference in global mean surface air temperature (SAT) averaged over the last 30 years between the AFFOREST (REDUCED_FF) and FIXED_AGR cases. The top, middle and bottom panels correspond to the SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios, respectively. The REDUCED_FF case shows lower SAT everywhere relative to the FIXED_AGR case in the three SSP scenarios, while the AFFOREST case shows regional warming relative to the FIXED_AGR case in the SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios. Note that the regions of warming in the AFFOREST case is more prominent over land where the forest regrowth results in a lower land surface albedo (Figure S14).

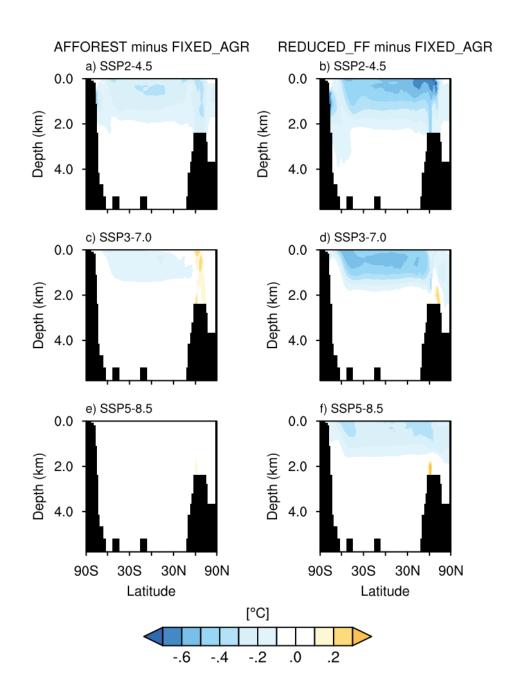


Figure 6. The left (right) panel shows the spatial pattern of the difference in zonally averaged vertical ocean potential temperature (averaged over 2471-2500) between the AFFOREST (REDUCED_FF) and FIXED_AGR simulations. The top, middle and bottom panels correspond to the SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios, respectively. The difference in ocean potential temperature between AFFOREST and FIXED_AGR cases is nearly zero everywhere, while in the REDUCED_FF case the surface ocean is cooler compared to the FIXED_AGR case.

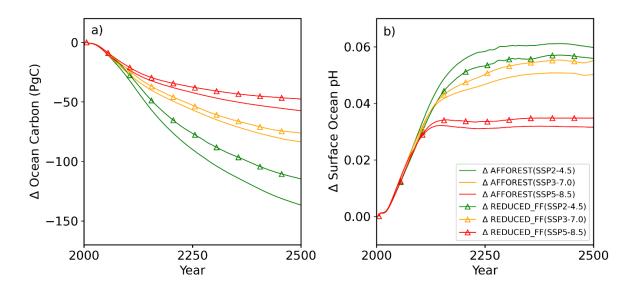


Figure 7. Changes in a) global total ocean carbon content and b) global mean surface ocean pH in the AFFOREST (solid lines; ΔAFFOREST) and REDUCED_FF (solid lines with triangle markers; Δ REDUCED_FF) cases relative to the FIXED_AGR case in the SSP2-4.5 (green), SSP3-7.0 (orange), and SSP5-8.5 (red) scenarios. The AFFOREST and REDUCED_FF cases have smaller ocean carbon than the FIXED_AGR case in the three SSP scenarios because of the reduction of atmospheric CO₂ in the AFFOREST and REDUCED_FF cases by afforestation and reduced fossil fuel emissions, respectively, and the consequent reduction in ocean carbon uptake. The AFFOREST and REDUCED_FF cases have larger surface ocean pH than the FIXED_AGR case because of the smaller ocean carbon content in the AFFOREST and REDUCED_FF cases.

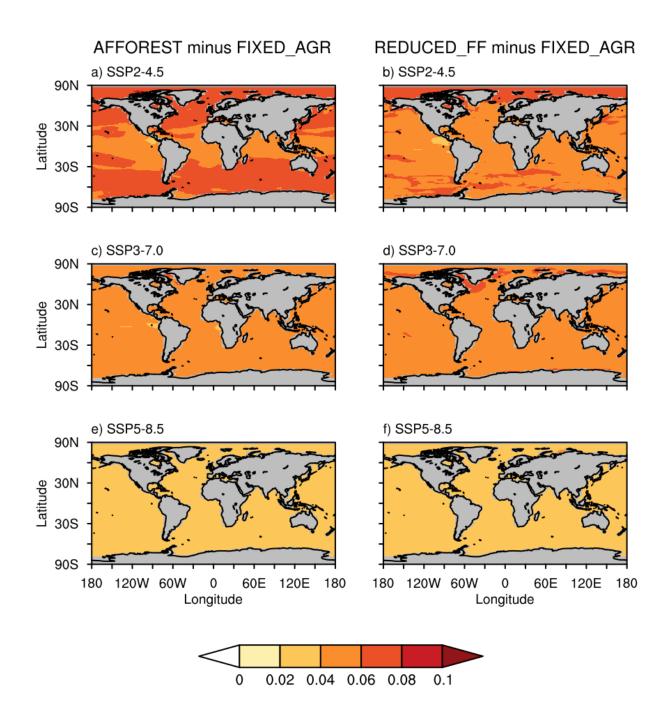


Figure 8. The left (right) panel shows the spatial pattern of the difference in global mean surface ocean pH (averaged over 2471-2500) between AFFOREST (REDUCED_FF) and FIXED_AGR cases. The top, middle and bottom panels correspond to the SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios, respectively. AFFOREST and REDUCED_FF cases have larger and similar surface ocean pH in all regions compared to the FIXED_AGR case in the three SSP scenarios.

Tables

	FIXED_AGR	AFFOREST	REDUCED_FF
Fossil fuel emissions	Follows three SSP scenarios (SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5)	Follows three SSP scenarios (SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5)	Follows emissions in three SSP scenarios (SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5) but CO ₂ emissions are reduced by the amount of carbon additionally stored on land in the AFFOREST simulation
Agricultural land fraction	Fixed at 2005 values	Set to zero from 2006	Fixed at 2005 values

Table 1. A summary of the simulations.

l

	SSP2-4.5		SSP3-7.0		SSP5-8.5	
	AFFOREST	REDUCED_	AFFOREST	REDUCED_	AFFOREST	REDUCED_
	minus	FF	minus	FF minus	Minus	FF
Parameter	FIXED_AG	minus	FIXED_AGR	FIXED_AG	FIXED_AGR	minus
	R	FIXED_AG		R		FIXED_AG
		R				R
Atmospheric	-87.5	-81.13	-158.25	-171.31	-151.79	-165.65
CO ₂ (ppm)						
Atmospheric	-0.31	66	-0.10	56	0.05	-0.36
Surface Air						
Temperature						
(°C)						
Surface ocean	0.06	0.056	0.05	0.054	0.032	0.035
pH						
Land Surface	-0.011	0.0002	-0.011	0.001	-0.011	0
Albedo						
Land carbon	319.76	-34	418.93	20.83	379.22	20.28
(PgC)						
Ocean carbon	-134.88	-113.33	-82.76	-75.58	-56.75	-47.25
(PgC)						

Table 2. Key climate and carbon cycle variables in the AFFOREST and REDUCED_FF simulations relative to the FIXED_AGR case in the SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios (difference in each variable averaged over 2471-2500). The difference between the AFFOREST (REDUCED_FF) and FIXED_AGR gives the effects of afforestation (reduced fossil fuel emission) on the climate or carbon cycle variables.