

Agriculture and land use implications of early climate change mitigation efforts without reliance on net-negative emissions

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Abstract (approximately 150 words) - 157 words currently

Allowing delayed climate mitigation actions and overshoot of temperature targets requires large scale negative carbon emissions that may induce adverse side-effects on land, food and ecosystems in the second half of this century. Meanwhile, meeting climate goals without net negative emissions inevitably needs the implementation of early and quick emissions reduction measures, which also brings challenges in the near-term. Here we identify the implications of scenarios without a dependence on net-negative carbon emissions on land-use and food systems. We find that early climate actions without the reliance on net-negative carbon emissions have multiple benefits and trade-offs in land-use and food systems, and avoid the need for drastic (mitigation-induced) shifts in land-use in the long term. Further long-term benefits are lower food prices, a reduced risk of hunger and lower water scarcity. At the same time, however, near-term mitigation pressure in the AFOLU sectors and the required land area for energy crops increases, resulting in additional agricultural intensification.

Key words

AFOLU, climate mitigation, net zero, bioenergy and CCS, afforestation, carbon budget, model comparison, integrated assessment models.

Main text (<3500 words) – 3212 words currently

To understand how global warming can be limited to a certain level of temperature increase, climate policy scenario assessments use assumptions that describe how society could reduce its greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. Emissions scenarios used in the IPCC SR1.5¹ are heavily based on major model intercomparison studies^{2,3,4} where the carbon budget (CB) spaces are prescribed and potentially biased to several specific points (e.g., 400, 1000 and 1600 GtCO₂). However, this is problematic and involves a risk of being outdated by the choice of CB and climate science⁵. Future emissions scenarios for the IPCC Sixth Assessment Report should explore the CB space in a systematic manner so that policy implications can be adequately assessed⁵. Furthermore,

31 current scenarios typically focus on reaching specific climate goals in 2100. This choice may
32 encourage risky pathways that delay action, reach higher-than-acceptable mid-century warming
33 (overshoot), and rely on a net removal of carbon dioxide thereafter to reverse their initial shortfall
34 in emission reductions⁶. For these purposes, a new set of scenarios was generated that focuses on
35 capping global warming at various levels of a specific maximum with either temperature
36 stabilization or reversal thereafter⁷. However, the impacts of scenario choice and carbon budget
37 caps on the Agriculture, Forest and Land Use (AFOLU) sector have not been analyzed so far.

38

39 Currently, the main argument concerned with long-term climate stabilization is gradually shifting
40 from seeking emissions pathways that reach climate targets to identifying the feasibility of the
41 pathways shown in the literature^{1, 8} and how to realize them. One of the key issues that we still
42 have not figured out is the feasibility of implementing land-based mitigation measures such as
43 non-CO₂ emissions reductions⁹ and so-called negative emissions technologies via afforestation
44 and bioenergy combined with CCS (BECCS)¹⁰, which play a vital role in the stringent mitigation
45 scenarios^{4, 11, 12} but at the same time, create negative trade-offs with other sustainable development
46 goals¹³. This would obviously be dependent on the stringency of the climate goals and associated
47 emissions pathways as well as socioeconomic conditions. For example, immediate actions
48 involving rapid emission reductions in the near-term basically lower the need for negative
49 emissions mostly dominated by BECCS in the second half of century^{14, 15} whereas delayed actions
50 would increase the need for deep negative emissions. At the same time, the need for negative
51 emissions depends on the total carbon budget. Moreover, bioenergy and afforestation may have
52 different roles from the perspective of energy system implications and technological costs. There
53 is currently little known about the dynamics of emissions pathways and land-use side implications.

54

55 Here, we conducted a multi-model intercomparison using integrated assessment models (IAMs)
56 that aims to answer the following questions: i) Is early climate change mitigation action without
57 global net-negative emissions beneficial or harmful from the perspective of the agricultural and
58 land-use systems, and ii) Is the optimal timing of net-zero emissions in the agricultural and land-
59 use sectors the same as for anthropogenic emissions in other sectors of the economy? While
60 mitigation from BECCS is not attributed to AFOLU but rather to the energy sector, bioenergy
61 crops used for BECCs would be the major source that can change the land use condition and we,
62 thus, assess and discuss them as part of AFOLU sector in our study. We carried out a multi-model

63 comparison using seven state-of-the-art global IAMs. Two sets of scenarios are analyzed,
64 differentiated by an allowance of global net negative emissions: first, ‘End-of-century (EOC)
65 budget’ scenarios constraining only cumulative CO₂ emissions over this century, thus allowing
66 massive negative emissions in the latter half of century. Secondly, ‘net-zero (NZ) budget’
67 scenarios which limit remaining cumulative CO₂ emissions until carbon neutrality (net zero CO₂
68 emissions) is reached, and which do not allow for any net negative CO₂ emissions, thus limiting
69 temperature overshoot⁷. This, in turn, may mitigate the need for negative emissions in the latter
70 half of century. For each set, we assume a wide range of CBs to fill the gaps between CBs in the
71 IPCC SR1.5 and to explore the consequence of mitigation and the timing of net zero emissions
72 across the CB spectrum. See **Method** for more details about the methodology.

73

74 **GHG emissions in AFOLU in climate mitigation not relying on net-negative emissions**

75 Scenarios from IAMs indicate the substantial and essential role of AFOLU sectors in climate
76 stabilization for low CB scenarios. Projected net GHG emissions from the AFOLU sectors (CO₂
77 reductions through avoided deforestation, afforestation/reforestation and non-CO₂ emissions from
78 agriculture) and BECCS carbon sequestration combined must decline towards net-zero where
79 emissions and sequestrations are equally balanced in the mid-century for both NZ and EOC
80 scenarios (Fig. 1a, Figure S 1). NZ scenarios tend to require both faster transitions and an earlier
81 achievement of net-zero while EOC scenarios require more mitigation in the long-term. For
82 example, for the scenarios with CB of 600 GtCO₂, which is a median of the range of remaining
83 CBs consistent with limiting warming to 1.5°C relative to the preindustrial level¹, global net-zero
84 emissions are achieved around 2052 in NZ scenarios while net-zero is achieved in 2060 in EOC
85 scenarios at median levels across models. For the NZ scenarios, in 2050, CH₄ and N₂O emissions
86 from AFOLU are 2.8 (1.9 to 4.1) GtCO₂eq/year and 1.8 (1.3 to 3.2) GtCO₂eq/year, respectively,
87 while CO₂ sequestration of 2.6 (0.39 to 4.5) GtCO₂/year and 3.4 (0.73 to 6.2) GtCO₂/year is
88 achieved through forest management such as avoided deforestation and afforestation/reforestation
89 and BECCS, respectively, at median level across models.

90

91 BECCS, which is usually not counted as a part of AFOLU but is strongly interlinked, shows the
92 highest CDR, followed by afforestation/reforestation and avoided deforestation at the end of this
93 century (Fig. 1a). CO₂ emissions decline more rapidly and prominently than non-CO₂,
94 underscoring the difficulty of reducing non-CO₂ emissions in agriculture. The portfolio of land-
95 based mitigation measures in IAMs is limited, because the CO₂ removal technologies
96 incorporated in the current IAMs are mainly BECCS and afforestation/reforestation. Despite this,
97 the large share of total mitigation highlights the importance of the land sector in achieving low

98 emissions pathways.

99

100 Globally, by shifting from EOC to NZ budgets, emission reductions will be enhanced earlier and
101 deeper mostly by increasing the BECCS carbon sequestration (228 MtCO₂/year) with a small
102 additional reduction of agricultural CH₄ and N₂O emissions of 1.6 MtCO₂eq/year, 0.40
103 MtCO₂eq/year respectively (Fig. 1b) in the medium-term (2050). In 2050, the contribution of
104 BECCS to deeper decarbonization in NZ scenarios is high in OECD countries, while forest
105 management's contribution to carbon sequestration is high in Latin America and Middle East and
106 Africa (MEA) (Fig. 1b). In the long-term (2100), BECCS carbon sequestration decreases by 3.3
107 GtCO₂eq/year while forest management's carbon sequestration increases by 270 MtCO₂eq/year.
108 The lower BECCS carbon sequestration in the second half of the century reduces the need for
109 drastic mitigation-induced shifts in land-use in the long-term. In 2100, net emissions are -7.5 (-
110 12.1 to -2.3 to) GtCO₂/year and -10.3 (-14.9 to -5.1) GtCO₂/year, respectively for the NZ and
111 EOC scenarios (Figure S 1). This difference comes mainly from BECCS carbon sequestration.
112 Non-CO₂ emissions show a wide range between 3.3-7.3 GtCO₂eq across models in 2050 in
113 scenarios with 600 GtCO₂ CB (Fig1d). This large uncertainty is concerned with the baseline
114 assumptions of food demand as well as the emissions abatement potential.

115

116

117 **Net Zero GHG emissions timing of AFOLU**

118 Globally, the net zero GHG emissions timing of AFOLU is about 10 to 30 years earlier, at median
119 levels, than that of total anthropogenic CO₂ emissions across different CBs in the NZ scenarios
120 (Fig. 2a). This highlights the competitiveness of the sector in contributing to GHG mitigation
121 efforts and the importance of fast transitions in the AFOLU sector for reaching stringent climate
122 change targets such as stabilization at 1.5 °C. The relationship between the net-zero timing of
123 total anthropogenic CO₂ emissions and AFOLU's GHG emissions varies across regions (Fig. 2b).
124 Net-zero GHG emissions from AFOLU is achieved earlier than total anthropogenic CO₂
125 emissions in OECD countries, while the opposite is seen in other regions such as Latin America,
126 Asia and MEA. The net-zero GHG emissions timing of AFOLU depends on BECCS carbon
127 sequestration and the amount of non-CO₂ emissions for two reasons. First, BECCS carbon
128 sequestration changes significantly over time throughout this century while CO₂ emission
129 reduction and sequestration through avoided deforestation and/or afforestation/reforestation
130 remains almost constant over time from 2030 and hardly affects the net-zero timing. Second, net-
131 zero is achieved when non-CO₂ emissions are offset by carbon sequestration in BECCS or forest
132 management. In OECD countries, where AFOLU's net-zero GHG emissions are reached earlier
133 than total anthropogenic CO₂ emissions, the dependency of carbon sequestration on BECCS is

134 higher compared to other regions and non-CO₂ emissions are low enough to be offset by BECCS
135 sequestration (Fig. 1c). On the other hand, regions such as Latin America, Asia and MEA have a
136 large share of CO₂ sequestration through forest management or have high non-CO₂ emissions
137 relative to CO₂ sequestration (Fig. 1b). For all regions, the net zero GHG emissions timing in the
138 AFOLU sectors is earlier in NZ compared to EOC scenarios (Fig. 2c).

139

140 **Land dynamics in climate mitigation not relying on net-negative emissions**

141 As for land area, in the medium-term, total forest area and cropland for bioenergy expands
142 substantially due to increased afforestation and reforestation and higher bioenergy demand driven
143 by the energy system. At the same time, land for pasture and non-energy crops (food, feed and
144 fiber) decrease as a result of carbon pricing on land-related emissions and increases in the above
145 mitigation options (Fig. 3a). The substantial land-use changes are caused by carbon price
146 impositions, BECCS deployment and afforestation/reforestation, the scale of which varies across
147 models according to the socioeconomic and model specific parameter assumptions on biomass
148 feedstock (e.g., wood, energy crops or residues), agricultural development of energy- and non-
149 energy crop yields and land and conversion efficiencies (Fig. 3d). At the regional level, forest area
150 expands in Asia and LAM while cropland for bioenergy increases in Asia and OECD countries
151 (Fig. 3c). Non-energy cropland will decrease in Asia, OECD countries and LAM, while pasture
152 area will be reduced in MEA and LAM (Fig. 3c).

153

154 Globally, the transition from EOC to NZ budgets will increase the area for forestry and cropland
155 for bioenergy by 21 (19 to 46) Mha and 27 (19 to 42) Mha respectively and decrease the area used
156 for non-energy cropland and pasture by 62 (29 to 70) Mha and 52 (3.7 to 108) Mha, respectively,
157 in 2050 in the 600 GtCO₂ CB scenarios (Fig. 3b). Similar trends are shown in all regions, but in
158 MEA, pasture land is significantly reduced, leading to large changes in total land area use. In the
159 long-term, the avoided BECCS carbon sequestration reduces the need for drastic mitigation-
160 induced shifts in land-use and saves land for food. In 2100, globally, land for bioenergy crops and
161 forest decreases by 205 (153 to 213) Mha and 17 (-20 to 42) Mha, while the area for pasture and
162 cropland for non-energy crops increases by 27 (14 to 31) Mha and 11 (-26 to 36) Mha respectively
163 (Fig. 3b).

164

165 **AFOLU's emissions and land dynamics under different carbon budgets**

166 The stringency of climate mitigation naturally affects the emissions trend in AFOLU sectors and
167 land dynamics. In general, the stronger the degree of climate change mitigation levels, the deeper
168 emissions reduction and more dynamic land use change are needed in the AFOLU sector (Fig. 1e,
169 Fig. 3e). Scenarios with low CBs require substantial levels of net negative emissions (Fig. 1e).

170 The scenarios with CB of less than 1000 GtCO₂ show CDR associated with BECCS of 2-3
171 GtCO₂/year in 2050, with a similar range for forests. Total primary bioenergy of 100 (80-120)
172 EJ/year and 80 (63-96) EJ/year is required in 2050, respectively, for the NZ and EOC carbon
173 budget of 600 GtCO₂. Note that there are similarities in CO₂ removal in AFOLU for scenarios
174 with CBs lower than 1000GtCO₂eq in 2050 (Fig. 1d). These are due to the relatively lower cost
175 of mitigation in forest management such as avoided deforestation and afforestation compared with
176 other mitigation options, which consequently leads to early implementation. Across all scenarios
177 with less than 1000 GtCO₂ CB, land area for pasture and non-energy crops decreases with the
178 development of biotechnology and rising land productivity (crop yield) (Fig. 3e). Most models
179 exhibit a sort of ceiling in cropland area for bioenergy at a certain level (300 to 600 Mha), which
180 varies across models but is not dependent on CB below 1000 GtCO₂ (equivalent to 1.5 and 2°C
181 scenarios).

182

183 **Benefits and trade-offs for food and land systems of climate mitigation not relying on net-** 184 **negative emissions**

185 Our statistical results from regression analysis show that allowing net negative emissions (EOC
186 versus NZ budgets) significantly affects emission trends, sequestrations, land use, and food
187 systems both in the medium- and long-term (Table 1). In the medium-term (2040-2060), switching
188 from an EOC to NZ budget significantly reduces AFOLU-related CO₂ emissions and agricultural
189 non-CO₂ emissions by 160MtCO₂/year and 60MtCO₂/year, respectively, while increasing
190 carbon sequestration of BECCS by 350MtCO₂/year. Over the same period, agricultural
191 intensification increases by 0.051 tonne dry matter (DM)/ha/year and forest area expands by
192 19Mha and land for food crops decreases by 11Mha for NZ scenarios compared to the EOC
193 scenario with the same CB. As a result, the reduced agricultural area reduces the demand for
194 irrigation water and nitrogen fertilizer by 8.8 km³/year and 2.5TgN/year, respectively, and protects
195 land in the medium-term. On the other hand, there are some trade-offs. Carbon prices are higher
196 by 200US\$/tCO₂ in NZ scenarios compared to EOC in the medium-term. In addition, land
197 pressure increases due to higher deployment of bioenergy in the medium-term, leading to higher
198 food prices and higher risk of hunger.

199

200 In the long-term, switching from EOC to NZ budgets significantly lowers carbon prices, by
201 800US\$2010/tCO₂, and largely reduces carbon sequestration from BECCS by 1290MtCO₂/year.
202 The reduced deployment of BECCS saves land for bio crops (by 75Mha) and increases cropland
203 for food (by 11Mha) and pasture (by 16Mha) and protects forest area (by 11Mha). This induces
204 lower food prices, higher food consumption (by 14kcal/cap/day) and lower risk of hunger (4.8
205 million fewer people at risk of hunger). Lower land pressure reduces agricultural intensification

206 by -0.15 tonne DM/ha/year, while increased food production increases nitrogen fertilizer use (by
207 4.2TgN/year). Carbon sequestration through forest management is not significantly different
208 between EOC and NZ scenarios in the long-term because the scale of carbon sequestration by
209 afforestation/reforestation is primarily constrained by the potential area rather than the cost of
210 forest management, which is relatively lower than other measures.

211

212 The statistical results from regression analysis show that the stringency of the imposed CB
213 significantly affects emission trends, sequestrations, land use, and food systems both for in the
214 medium- (2040-2060) and long-term (2080-2100) (Table S 1). Almost all variables indicate
215 significant slopes in the CB coefficient, meaning that they vary significantly across the different
216 CBs in the medium- and long-term. This would also imply that the degree of the benefits and
217 trade-off mentioned above can differ significantly depending on both the stringency of the CB
218 and the choice of CB scheme, e.g. whether we allow net negative emissions or not. For the
219 medium –term in particular, the size of the CB is more important for AFOLU-related variables
220 rather than allowing net negative emissions or not.

221

222 **Discussion and Conclusions**

223 We conducted a multi-model intercomparison using IAMs that aims to answer the question
224 whether early climate action, with relatively large emission reductions in the first half of the
225 century and no net-negative emissions in the second half of century, is beneficial or harmful from
226 the perspective of the agricultural and land-use systems. We find that early climate actions have
227 multiple benefits and trade-offs. Early climate action avoids temperature overshoot along with
228 the additional climate change impacts (Drouet et al., submitted), and reduces the reliance on net
229 negative emissions as well as the need for drastic (mitigation-induced) shifts in land use in the
230 long-term. Land demand pressure in the second half of the century would be eased because there
231 would not be such a strong need for massive negative emissions. Further benefits include lower
232 food prices, lower risk of hunger and less water scarcity in the long-term. At the same time,
233 however, near-term mitigation pressure in the AFOLU sectors and required land area for energy
234 crops increase, resulting in additional agricultural intensification as well as higher food prices
235 than if action were delayed, which increases concerns of food insecurity in the medium-term.
236 Therefore, food support systems for the most vulnerable groups would contribute to avoiding
237 these adverse effects of earlier action¹⁶.

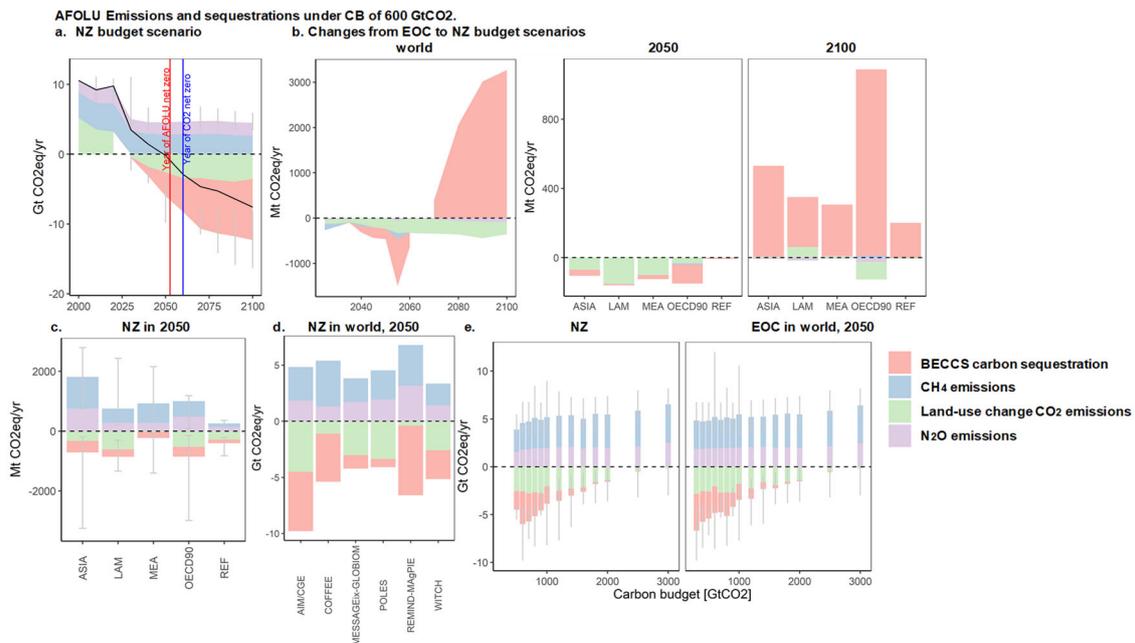
238 The NZ budget scheme has several benefits compared to an EOC budget scheme. First, making
239 earlier efforts lowers the peak temperature and reduces the risk of climate change impacts on
240 many sectors. Second, some benefits on land system in the long-term can be observed for OECD
241 countries, Asia and Latin America, some of which concern the invasion of habitats of local species
242 and serious food insecurity. The benefits can be large when we assess the biodiversity and food
243 security aspects. Considering this, these results suggest that moving forward with earlier actions
244 and not allowing net-negative emissions would not only lower peak warming but also benefit
245 land-related ecosystems.

246 Our results indicate that globally the timing of net-zero GHG emissions in the agricultural and
247 land-use sectors is about 10 to 30 years earlier than for total anthropogenic CO₂ emissions at
248 multi-model median. This trend is seen in particularly in OECD countries where the dependency
249 on BECCS carbon sequestration is relatively high. This highlights the importance of fast
250 transitions and early climate actions in the AFOLU sector in these countries. Carbon budgets or
251 net-zero emissions are often discussed only for CO₂ emissions. For non-CO₂ emissions, the
252 minimization of emissions is expected and hardly discussed due to the characteristics of non-CO₂
253 gases such as the long life of N₂O and uncertainty in radiative forcing. This study indicates that
254 non-CO₂ emission reductions do play a role in determining future emission pathways.

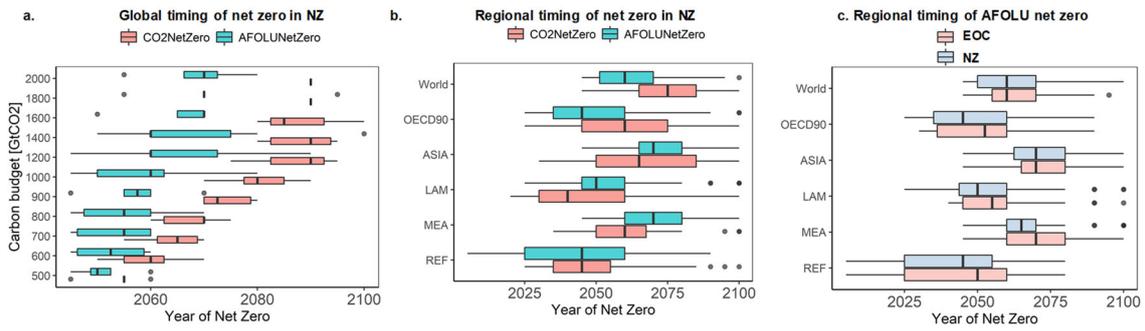
255 In this study, BECCS carbon sequestration is assessed as a part of AFOLU sector although
256 mitigation from BECCS is often attributed to the energy sector. Bioenergy without CCS (not
257 including iLUC) is usually deemed carbon neutral and additional carbon sequestration comes
258 from the CCS part. This CCS would be counted as the CCS industry's carbon credit. If this were
259 to be imputed to purely non-AFOLU-related sectors, the net zero GHG emissions timing in
260 AFOLU would be much later than presented in this study, and potentially not even be achieved
261 this century. While this change in attribution would not affect the main findings of this study
262 highlighting the co-benefits and adverse-side effects of NZ budget scenarios, there must be a
263 careful interpretation of the timing of net zero.

264 We quantified the effects of different CBs on the AFOLU sector by performing regression
265 analysis. The parameters generated in this study (Table 1 and Table S 1) can be used to assess the
266 benefits and trade-offs of moving between CBs and to fill the missing spaces in the CB spectrum
267 in SR1.5^{1,5}. Furthermore, a new scenario framework includes multiple options for climate goals
268 in 2100, carbon budget sizes and allowance of overshoot. This may reduce the risk of delayed

269 action, reaching higher-than-acceptable mid-century warming, and a reliance on the net removal
 270 of large volumes of CO₂ thereafter to undo the initial shortfall in emission reductions.
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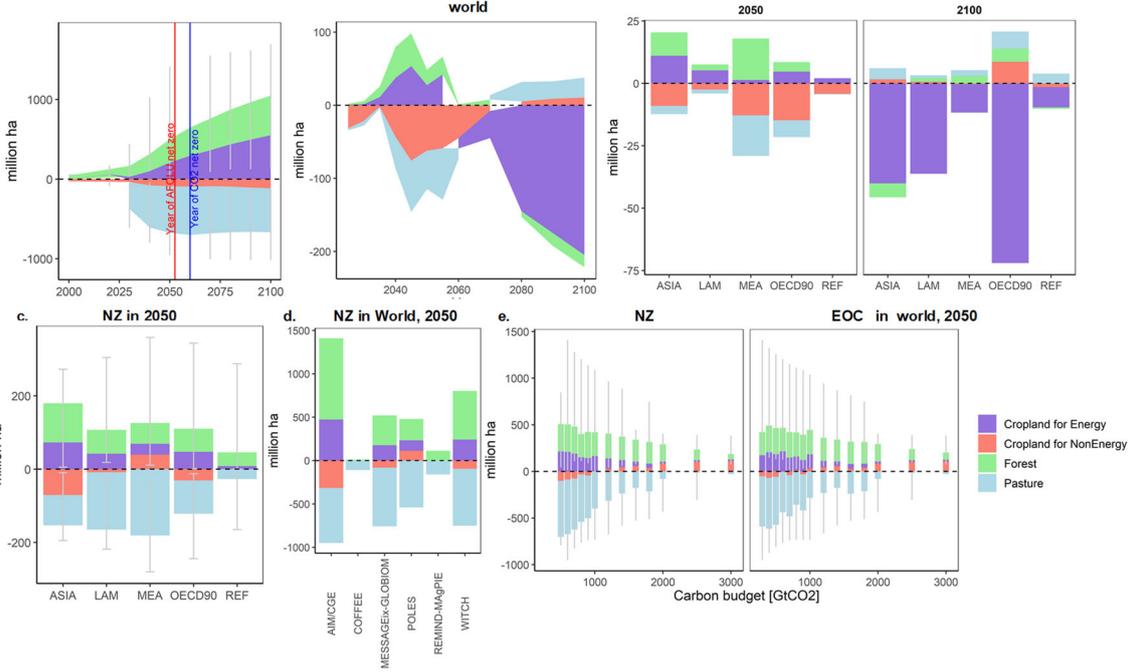
274
 275 Fig. 1 AFOLU related GHG emissions and sequestrations. a) Global emissions and sequestrations
 276 in the NZ scenarios with 600 GtCO₂ carbon budget (CB), b) changes in the NZ scenario relative
 277 to the EOC scenario at global and regional levels in 2050 and 2100, with 600 GtCO₂ CB, c,d)
 278 changes in 2050 for the NZ scenarios with 600 GtCO₂ CB for regions and global by individual
 279 models, e) global emissions and sequestrations in 2050 with respect to 2010 with different CBs.
 280 Bars or areas show multi-model median level while whiskers represent ranges across models.
 281 Black lines in a) show net emissions in AFOLU and BECCS carbon sequestration. The red and
 282 blue lines in a) indicate the timing of net-zero timing of AFOLU's GHG emissions and total
 283 anthropogenic CO₂ emissions respectively. Land-use change CO₂ emissions includes emissions
 284 from deforestation and removals due to afforestation/reforestation. Figure S 1 shows panel a) for
 285 both NZ and EOC scenarios. Figure S 3 shows more detailed individual model information.
 286 Regions: Asia (ASIA), Latin America and Caribbean (LAM), Middle East and Africa (MAF),
 287 developed regions (OECD 90) and Reforming Economies of Eastern Europe and the Former
 288 Soviet Union (REF).
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Fig. 2 Global and regional timing of net zero emissions for total anthropogenic CO₂ emissions and AFOLU's GHG emissions in NZ scenarios, with different CBs for global a) and for regional level and all the CB levels b), and c) regional timing of AFOLU net zero emissions. Black thick lines show multi-model median level while whiskers represent ranges across models. See **Table S 2** for the scenarios and models used in this analysis.

Land Use Change with respect to 2010 under CB of 600 GtCO₂.
a. NZ budget scenario



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Fig. 3 Land use changes in the scenarios with different carbon budget (CB) caps. a) Global land use change with respect to 2010 in the NZ budget scenarios with 600 GtCO₂ CB, b) changes from the EOC scenario to the NZ scenario at global and regional levels in 2050 and 2100 for a 600 GtCO₂ CB. c,d) changes in 2050 with respect to 2010 for the regional budget scenarios with 600 GtCO₂ CB for regions and global by individual models e) global land use change in 2050 with respect to 2010 with different CBs. Bars or areas show multi-model median levels while whiskers represent ranges across models. The red and blue lines in a) indicate the net-zero timing of AFOLU's GHG emissions and total anthropogenic CO₂ emissions respectively. **Figure S 2** shows panel a) for both NZ and EOC scenarios. Figure S 4 shows more detailed individual model information.

310

311 Table 1 The results of regression analysis for the effects of moving from EOC budgets to NZ
 312 scenarios on selected AFOLU relative indicators. Values shows the results of the coefficient to a
 313 dummy for schemes of the emission caps (β). This value can be interpreted as the degree of the
 314 effects of making more immediate mitigation efforts and moving from an EOC to NZ budget
 315 scheme for each variable. See Table S 1 for the comprehensive results of this regression analysis.

		Medium-term (2040-2060)	Effects	Long-term (2080-2100)	Effects
Benefit	Emissions and carbon price	Less AFOLU-related CO2 emissions*	-160 Mt CO2/yr	Low carbon price***	-800 US\$2010/t CO2
		Less agricultural non-CO2 emissions*	-60 Mt CO2/yr		
		Carbon sequestration of BECCS*	+350 Mt CO2/yr	Carbon sequestration of BECCS***	-1290 Mt CO2/yr
Food	Agricultural intensification		+0.051 t DM/ha/yr	Low food price***	-0.042 [2005 = 1]
				High food demand***	+14 kcal/cap/day
				Low risk of hunger	-4.8 million people
Land	Forest protection*		+19 Mha	Less land for biocrops***	-75 Mha
				More land for food crops*	+11 Mha
				More land for pasture**	+16 Mha
				Protect forest	+11 Mha
Other	Less irrigation water		-8.8 km3/yr	Less irrigation water	-7.2 km3/yr
		Less fertilizer use***	-2.5 Tg N/yr		
Trade-offs	Emissions and carbon price	High carbon price*	+200 US\$2010/t CO2		
		Food	High food price	+0.012 [2005 = 1]	Low agricultural intensification***
		Low food demand*	-10 kcal/cap/day		
		High risk of hunger*	+42 million people		
	Land	More land for biocrops	+15 Mha		
		High pressure on land for food crops*	-11 Mha		
		High pressure on land for pasture***	-35 Mha		
Other			More fertilizer use***		

316 * Asterisks identify significance of P value (*: P<0.05. **: P<0.01, ***: P<0.001)

317

318

319 **Methods(<3000 words)**

320 **Modelling framework**

321 Global integrated assessment models (IAMs) are used for the quantification of the scenarios in
 322 this study, which are involved in the ENGAGE project⁷. The objective of the scenarios in
 323 ENGAGE is to cover a range of carbon budgets consistent with low stabilization targets in a
 324 systematic way, and thus help to robustly understand implications of carbon budget uncertainties
 325 across different IAMs⁷. Furthermore, we have two kind of scenario sets differentiated by the
 326 possibility of net negative emissions. We selected seven state-of-the-art models that allow us to
 327 compute energy, emissions, economy, agriculture and land-use market interactions, considering
 328 different carbon caps consistently: AIM/CGE^{17, 18, 19}, COFFEE, IMAGE, MESSAGEix-
 329 GLOBIOM 1.0^{20, 21, 22}, POLES²³, REMIND-MAgPIE 2.0-4.1^{24, 25} and WITCH 5.0²⁶.

330

331 AIM/CGE, COFFEE, IMAGE, MESSAGEix-GLOBIOM and REMIND-MAgPIE incorporate
332 explicit agricultural commodity markets and land-use representation whereas POLES and
333 WITCH use simplified look-up table based on multiple scenario runs from a model that has
334 detailed representations and parameterizations for biophysical and socioeconomic processes
335 (GLOBIOM). Here, we focus on the endogenous responses of land-use and bioenergy-related
336 variables to the given changes in the underlying carbon budgets and climate policy assumptions
337 depending on whether net negative emissions are allowed or not. For the food demand side,
338 population and income growth increase food demand, shift the demand curve rightward, and raise
339 prices. Responding to the higher price, producers increase their production by expanding cropland
340 and pasture areas and increasing land productivity, while consumers lower their consumption or
341 shift to less-expensive goods. Some people might consume insufficient food and face a risk of
342 hunger. Trade globalization helps to reallocate supply and demand and dampens the impact of
343 producer-side price shocks on consumer prices, and contributes to a lower risk of hunger.
344 Similarly, climate mitigation increases the demand for land through energy system changes
345 leading to bioenergy demand increases and afforestation, which raise the price of land and then
346 food consumption, resulting in the same responses to higher prices. All models represent land-use
347 competition among food production, bioenergy crop production, and afforestation in some way.
348 All models consider emissions from land use change and agriculture including fertilizer use, and
349 manure management but do not consider pesticides. Among them, AIM, MESSAGEix-
350 GLOBIOM and WITCH endogenously determine food consumption in response to food price or
351 income (in AIM), whereas COFFEE, IMAGE, POLES and REMIND-MAgPIE determine food
352 consumption exogenously. We excluded the three models exogenously assuming food
353 consumption from results for food consumption and the population at risk of hunger.

354

355 **Scenarios**

356 To explore a comprehensive view of the relationship between carbon budget caps and agriculture
357 and land use responses, we use a set of scenarios from the ENGAGE project⁷ that covers two
358 dimensions: 1) different levels of climate stabilization and therefore climate change mitigation
359 efforts, represented by a global total carbon budget and 2) whether the net-negative emissions are
360 allowed or not, which we call EOC or NZ scenarios. Allowing global net negative emissions
361 implicitly considers the question of delayed versus early actions because scenarios without net
362 negative emissions require rapid emission reductions in the first half of this century. This also
363 corresponds to whether we would determine temperature targets by the level of peak warming
364 reached over the century or the warming level at the end of this century with overshoot. The use
365 of different carbon budget (CB) caps allows us to explore the effects of climate change mitigation
366 efforts on agriculture and land dynamics. The use of different carbon budget schemes allows us

367 to compare the effects of allowing net negative emissions and overshoots.

368

369 For the systematic exploration of the scenario space, the following carbon budgets are applied by
370 referring to cumulative CO₂ emissions budgets from 2018 onwards: 300 to 900 GtCO₂ in 100
371 GtCO₂ steps as the range of CBs associated with 1.5°C, and 1000 to 2000 GtCO₂ in 200 GtCO₂
372 steps as 1.5°C-2°C and 2500, 3000 GtCO₂. These cumulative CO₂ budgets are calculated for the
373 time period from 2018 to the time of reaching net zero CO₂ emissions for the NZ scenarios and
374 from 2018 to 2100 for the EOC scenarios.

375

376 All of the models represent climate policy by exogenously implementing a global uniform carbon
377 price on greenhouse gas (e.g., CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O) emissions from energy, agriculture and land
378 sectors. This carbon price induces changes in production systems, technological mitigation
379 options, and food demand via consumer responses (the models include changes in preferences
380 due to the price change), and hence decreases emissions. In comparison, in scenarios with no
381 carbon price, the production cost is low due to the lack of additional costs for land expansion and
382 fertilizer. This practice normally triggers penalties under the implementation of climate policies.
383 Concerning the land-use and food security trade-offs of climate policies, each model applies a
384 price ceiling of \$200/tCO₂-eq for CH₄, N₂O and CO₂ emitted from agriculture and land sectors
385 to both near- and long-term as well as for all scenarios (NZ and EOC scenarios) to avoid high
386 impacts on food security²⁷. Socioeconomic conditions, including the population demographics,
387 GDP, consumer preferences, food loss and waste are varied in each model according to qualitative
388 “middle-of-the-road” [shared socioeconomic pathway (SSP) 2] narratives²¹ through 2100.
389 GWP100 is used to convert non-CO₂ to CO₂ emissions in this study. See Riahi et al.⁷ for detailed
390 information on the representation of scenarios settings.

391

392 **Regression analysis**

393 To identify the effects of climate warming and CB regime choices on AFOLU sectors, we
394 performed a meta regression analysis on the scenarios with the following equation. The equation
395 has been applied to AFOLU related variables. The basic idea behind this regression analysis is
396 that the coefficients of CB (alpha) can be interpreted as a marginal variable change to the carbon
397 budget. The second critical parameter is a dummy variable for SceDum (beta), which
398 distinguishes between NZ or EOC budgets. This yields whether the NZ or EOC budget
399 assumption would linearly change the AFOLU implications. We pooled all scenario data and
400 classified the data into two periods, namely mid-century (2040-2060) and the end of this century

401 (2080-2100). They are individually estimated so that the periodic characteristics can be obtained
402 from this analysis.

403

$$404 \quad X_{i,t,s,m} = X0_{i,t,s,m} + \alpha_{i,t,s} \cdot CB + \beta_{i,t,s} \cdot SceDum_s + \delta_{i,t,m} \cdot ModDum_m + C_{i,t,s} \quad (1)$$

405 where,

406 i: indicator, t: year, r: region, s: scenario, m: type of model,

407 $X_{i,t,r,s,m}$: outputs from models,

408 $X0_{i,r,s,m}$: values in 2010,

409 CB: level of global total carbon budget cap,

410 SceDum: dummy for emission cap schemes (1 for NZ budget; 0 for EOC budget).

411 ModDum: dummy for type of model.

412 $\alpha_{i,r}$: coefficient for indicators of carbon budgets

413 $\beta_{i,r}$: coefficient for dummy for schemes of the budget caps

414 $\delta_{i,r}$: coefficient for dummy for models

415

416

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531

Figures

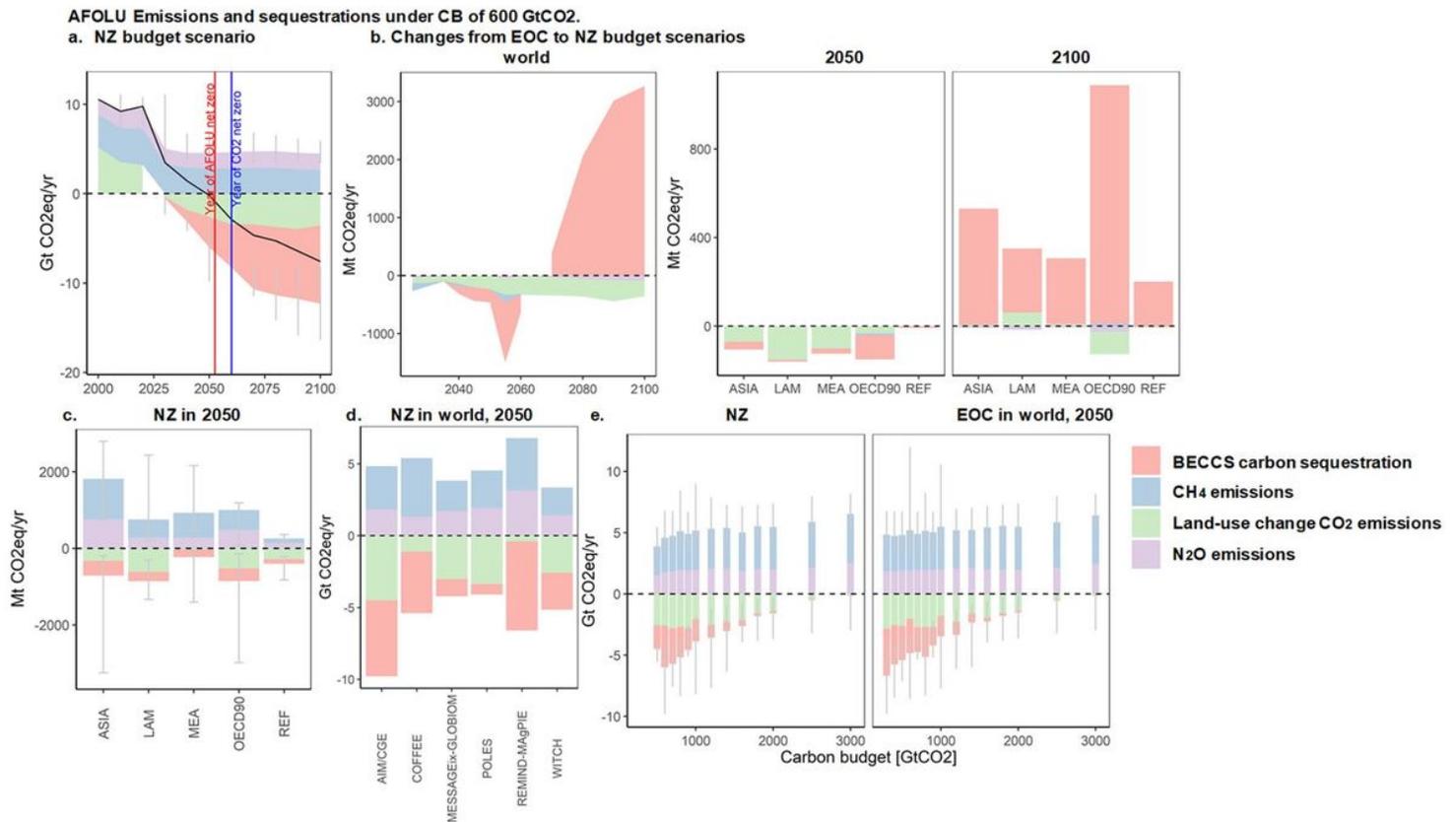


Figure 1

AFOLU related GHG emissions and sequestrations. a) Global emissions and sequestrations in the NZ scenarios with 600 GtCO₂ carbon budget (CB), b) changes in the NZ scenario relative to the EOC scenario at global and regional levels in 2050 and 2100, with 600 GtCO₂ CB, c,d) changes in 2050 for the NZ scenarios with 600 GtCO₂ CB for regions and global by individual models, e) global emissions and sequestrations in 2050 with respect to 2010 with different CBs. Bars or areas show multi-model median level while whiskers represent ranges across models. Black lines in a) show net emissions in AFOLU and BECCS carbon sequestration. The red and blue lines in a) indicate the timing of net-zero timing of AFOLU's GHG emissions and total anthropogenic CO₂ emissions respectively. Land-use change CO₂ emissions includes emissions from deforestation and removals due to afforestation/reforestation. Figure S 1 shows panel a) for both NZ and EOC scenarios. Figure S 3 shows more detailed individual model information. Regions: Asia (ASIA), Latin America and Caribbean (LAM), Middle East and Africa (MAF), developed regions (OECD 90) and Reforming Economies of Eastern Europe and the Former Soviet Union (REF).

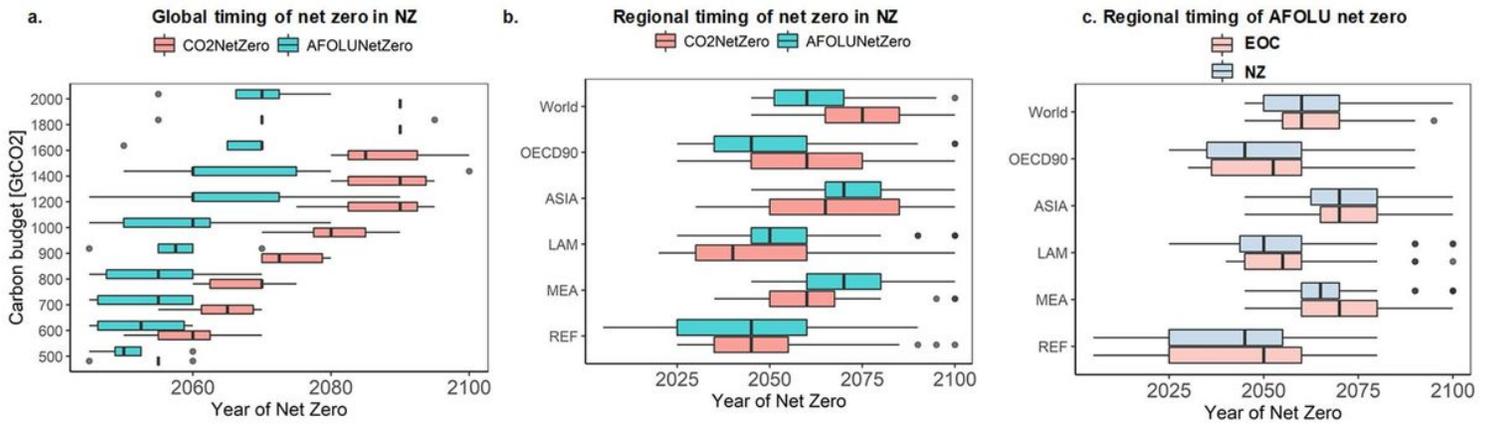


Figure 2

Global and regional timing of net zero emissions for total anthropogenic CO₂ emissions and AFOLU's GHG emissions in NZ scenarios, with different CBs for global a) and for regional level and all the CB levels b), and c) regional timing of AFOLU net zero emissions. Black thick lines show multi-model median level while whiskers represent ranges across models. See Table S 2 for the scenarios and models used in this analysis.

Land Use Change with respect to 2010 under CB of 600 GtCO₂.

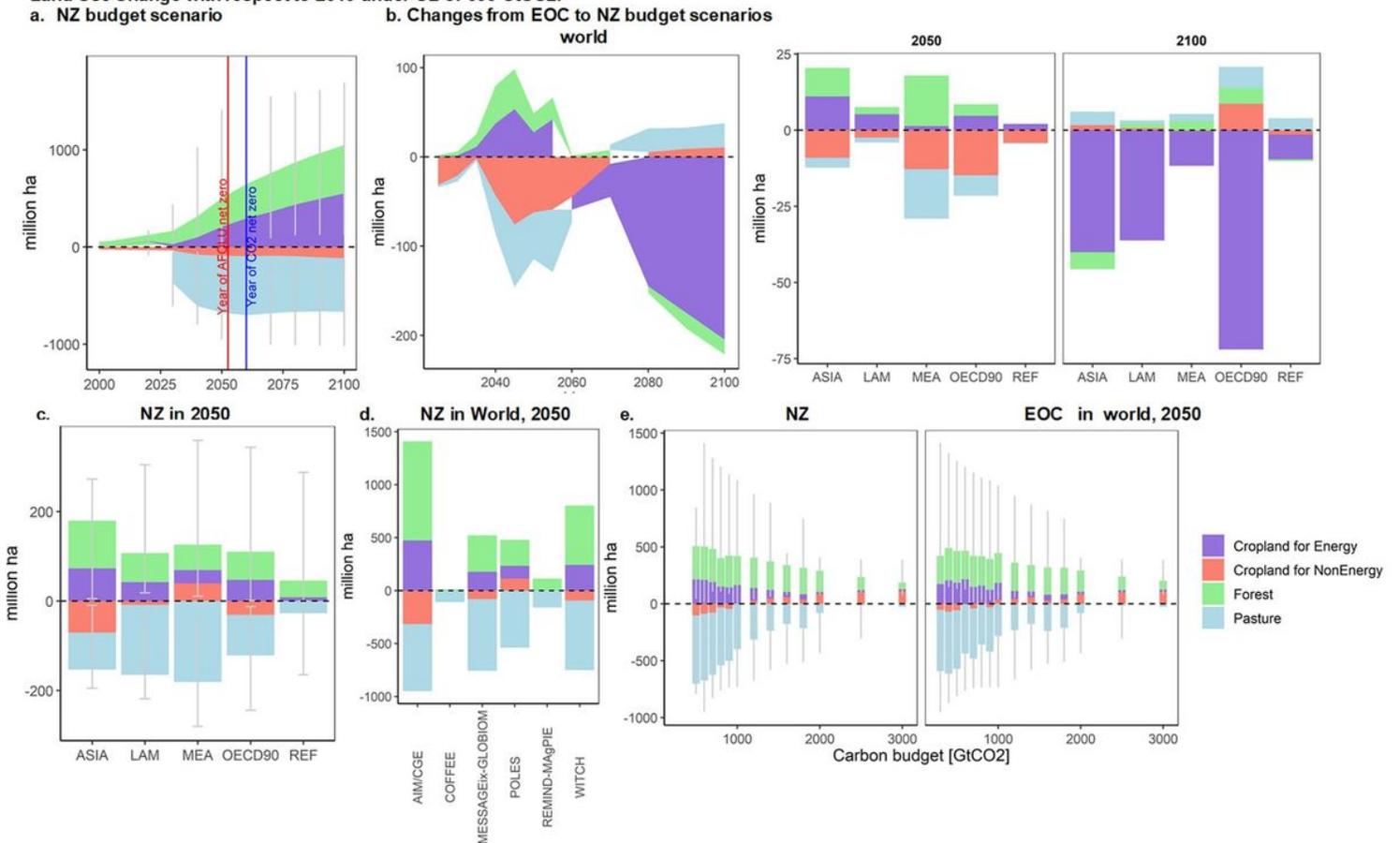


Figure 3

Land use changes in the scenarios with different carbon budget (CB) caps. a) Global land use change with respect to 2010 in the NZ budget scenarios with 600 GtCO₂ CB, b) changes from the EOC scenario to the NZ scenario at global and regional levels in 2050 and 2100 for a 600 GtCO₂ CB. c,d) changes in 2050 with respect to 2010 for the regional budget scenarios with 600 GtCO₂ CB for regions and global by individual models e) global land use change in 2050 with respect to 2010 with different CBs. Bars or areas show multi-model median levels while whiskers represent ranges across models. The red and blue lines in a) indicate the net-zero timing of AFOLU's GHG emissions and total anthropogenic CO₂ emissions respectively. Figure S 2 shows panel a) for both NZ and EOC scenarios. Figure S 4 shows more detailed individual model information.

Supplementary Files

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