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1 **South India projected to be susceptible to high future groundnut**  
2 **failure rates for future climate change and geo-engineered scenarios**

3  
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22 **Abstract**

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With an increase in global mean temperature predicted for this century accompanied by more frequent extremes, will farming communities need to brace for increased crop failures and hardship? Solar dimming climate geoengineering has been proposed as a possible solution to combat rising global temperature but what effect will it or other climate related adaptation have on crop failures? We performed a crop modelling study using future climate and geoengineering projections to investigate these questions. Our results indicate that groundnut crop failure rates in Southern India are very sensitive to climate change, and project an increase of approximately a factor of two on average over this century, affecting one out of every two to three years instead of one in every five years. We also project that solar dimming geoengineering will have little impact on reducing these failure rates. In contrast, the projections for the rest of Indian regions show decreasing failure rates of 20-30%. In this research, we indicate why south India is more susceptible than the rest of the country and show that neither Solar dimming geoengineering nor reducing heat or water stress are able to fully counteract the increase in failure rates for this region. Thus our modelling projections indicate the potential for a groundnut crop failure crisis for the South India.

## 52 **1 Introduction**

53 According to the latest IPCC report, our Earth's globally averaged surface temperature is likely  
54 to continue to follow a warming trajectory that could have serious consequences for socio-  
55 ecological systems during this century (Bindoff *et al* 2013). A recent global meta-analysis of  
56 projected climate impacts on food production highlighted that our understanding is limited  
57 (Challinor *et al* 2014, Campbell *et al* 2016, Challinor *et al* 2018). Challinor *et al.* (2014)  
58 concluded that projected climate change would, on average, reduce crop production stability. In  
59 addition, with future climate we can expect more frequent extreme weather compared to the past  
60 (IPCC, 2012). Increasing frequency and strength of extremes will affect crop failure rates, and  
61 it highlights the importance of assessing potential consequences for a wide range of crop types  
62 and climate scenarios (Challinor *et al* 2010, Hansen *et al* 2012, Parkes *et al* 2015, Gaupp *et al*  
63 2019, Mehrabi and Ramankutty 2019).

64 Future food production and crop stability will be, to some degree, determined by our collective  
65 impact on the climate system. Approaches using one or more of mitigation, adaptation,  
66 geoengineering or 'business as usual' will all lead to different radiative forcing and global  
67 warming pathways. These pathways also lead to different food-stability and economic futures  
68 (Lobell *et al* 2008, Porter *et al* 2014, Harding *et al* 2020). Adaptation is a viable option to deal  
69 with the effects of climate change on food production (Kravitz *et al* 2013, Yang *et al* 2016) but,  
70 equally, mitigation is also important to address increasing temperature and changing rainfall  
71 patterns that can affect plant growth. It is also prudent to investigate the value of climate  
72 geoengineering as a possible strategy to restore our climate if necessary in the extreme. There  
73 are numerous geoengineering approaches and implementation strategies and some of these have  
74 been modelled in studies such as Kravitz *et al.* (2011). The GeoMIP project evaluated the  
75 potential of climate geoengineering to restore future globally averaged temperature to current  
76 levels. Although, recent studies have examined the effects of geoengineering on local and  
77 regional hydrology (Kravitz *et al* 2013, Bal *et al* 2019, Irvine *et al* 2019), few studies have  
78 assessed the geoengineering consequences for crops.

79 In this paper, we focus on the effects of extremes of predicted climate change and geoengineered  
80 climate on groundnut failure rates (i.e. frequency of very low yielding years). We hypothesise  
81 that crop failure rates will increase in frequency over this century relative to historical failure

82 rates. This is expected due to expected increased mean temperature and more frequent extremes  
83 of temperature and precipitation predicted for this century. Although increasing precipitation  
84 can lead to higher yields, it is anticipated that extremes will be detrimental for crop yields and  
85 lead to an increase in failures. A further hypothesis is that geoengineering will moderate the  
86 failure rates by reducing the severity of climate change and associated extremes. Knowing  
87 whether crop failures are likely to change with future climate change needs to be understood for  
88 future planning by farmers and their communities (Parkes *et al* 2015). We chose groundnut as  
89 the crop to study as it is strongly dependent on the monsoon which is likely to alter for future  
90 climates (Kravitz *et al* 2013, Akram *et al* 2018, Halder *et al* 2020) and because groundnut is an  
91 important cash crop for the Indian population (Talawar 2004 and Singh *et al* 2014b;  
92 Supplementary Text S1).

## 93 **2 Methods**

### 94 2.1 CMIP5 and GeoMIP meteorological data

95 Our study used a combination of climate prediction data and crop modelling to predict groundnut  
96 yields and evaluate the frequency of crop failure rates for future climate. The climate model  
97 data used are from the CMIP and GeoMIP studies (Taylor *et al* 2012, Kravitz *et al* 2011). The  
98 CMIP provides projections of future climate making various assumptions about emissions for the  
99 future, resulting in radiative forcing ranging from approximately 2.6 to 8.5 W/m<sup>2</sup> by the year  
100 2100. The different emission scenarios are referred to as representative concentration pathways  
101 (RCPs). We chose to use the RCP4.5 which is an intermediate scenario of climate change. In  
102 addition to the CMIP climate projections being a frequently used set of climate projections,  
103 including for the IPCC, the additional benefit for this work is that the GeoMIP project uses the  
104 CMIP RCP4.5 as the basis for its geoengineering simulations. GeoMIP is an international study  
105 that focused on understanding the effects of geoengineering on modelled future climate.  
106 GeoMIP focused on radiation management of geoengineering through, for example, the  
107 introduction of additional stratospheric aerosol, which was considered in this study. Thus, in this  
108 research, by running crop models using GeoMIP and CMIP RCP4.5, both for historical periods

109 and future climate, we were able to isolate both the impacts of geoengineering and climate  
110 change on our crop projections and failure rates.

111 India's summertime precipitation levels depend significantly on the South-Eastern monsoon so  
112 we selected a climate model that was effective at modelling this complex system. We used the  
113 Beijing Normal University Earth System Model (BNU-ESM) as it scored well compared to  
114 analysis of the historical meteorological trends for the region, has realistic spatial distributions of  
115 precipitation for the summer Indian monsoon, and performed well compared with other GCMs  
116 participating in CMIP5 according to a quantitative assessment of a variety of key variables  
117 (mean temperature, total precipitation, wet day frequency, and diurnal temperature range, see  
118 Supplementary Text S2) (Ramirez-Villegas 2014, Sabeerali *et al* 2013).

119 The CMIP5 project (Taylor *et al* 2012) provided data for historical (HIS) and RCP 4.5  
120 simulations, and the GeoMIP project (Kravitz *et al* 2013) provided data for G3 climate  
121 geoengineering results. From the GeoMIP study, we used the G3 implementation of solar  
122 dimming as it is considered a realistic geoengineering scenario based on injection of SO<sub>2</sub> into the  
123 stratosphere at a constant rate forming aerosol and was designed to compensate for the annual  
124 radiative forcing of the RCP 4.5 scenario. In the simulations, the geoengineering was  
125 implemented early this century (by 2020) and lasted for 50 years. After the geoengineering  
126 intervention was ceased, climate simulations were extended to the end of the 21<sup>st</sup> century (2099).

## 127 2.2 Crop simulation design and data analysis

128 The General Large-Area Model for annual crops (GLAM) was used in this study to simulate the  
129 groundnut crop. It is a process based model designed to take advantage of the large-scale  
130 relationships between climate and crop yields (Challinor *et al* 2004). Details about the crop  
131 model and crop simulation design can be found in the Supplementary text (see S2 and S3). The  
132 GLAM model was designed to model crops at the scale of the resolution of GCMs so no  
133 downscaling was necessary.

134 The crop failure rates were determined according to Challinor *et al.* (2010) as the percentage of  
135 harvests failing for a specified time period. A failed harvest was defined as a yield below a set  
136 threshold. Here, we use a relatively conservative threshold of one standard deviation below the

137 historical mean for each grid, indicative of moderate crop failures (Challinor *et al* 2010, Parkes  
138 *et al* 2015) and evaluated the consistency of results with larger (i.e. 1.5 x standard deviation) and  
139 smaller thresholds (i.e. 0.5 x standard deviation). For the historical simulation, we computed  
140 failure rates over the period 1966-1990 and for the future simulations we computed failures for  
141 the period when geoengineering is first applied (2020) until ending in 2099, totalling 80 years.  
142 Crop failures were calculated individually using grid-cell yields and failure thresholds and were  
143 used to depict spatial variability in the boxplots. These results were then used to determine mean  
144 national and regional failure rates (for each of the four groundnut growing zones) by aggregating  
145 the grid-cell failure rates.

### 146 **3 Results**

#### 147 3.1 Projected changes in regional climate

148 For future climate change, it is anticipated that the Asian monsoon will alter with or without  
149 geoengineering (Kravitz *et al* 2013). Fig. 1 shows projected changes to temperature and  
150 precipitation for the period June-July-August-September (JJAS), during which 80 % of the  
151 groundnut crop in India is cultivated. In the figure, the geoengineering intervention is also  
152 included (i.e. acting between years 2020 and 2069) and the subsequent years without  
153 geoengineering until 2099 (totalling 80 years). For the geoengineering results, we note that the  
154 mean temperature in a number of regions of India (especially North and South India) are reduced  
155 as expected for the geoengineering scenario (G3, Fig. 1c) compared to the global warming  
156 scenario (RCP 4.5, Fig. 1b).

157 The geoengineered case shows a mean seasonal decrease in precipitation for India as a whole.  
158 We see regionally that in particular the precipitation in the Central and Eastern India are below  
159 the historical levels (see Fig. 1e and 1f) whereas the other regions increased. Similarly, we note  
160 important regional differences in projections of inter-annual variability for precipitation and  
161 highlight that there is similarity in results for RCP 4.5 and G3 scenarios (Fig. 1g, 1h and 1i).  
162 With decreased precipitation, one might expect reduced mean yields and increased crop failure  
163 rates. In the following sections, we concentrate on the groundnut crop failure frequencies for  
164 these climate scenarios outlined above.

## 165 3.2 Crop failure projections

166 Figure 2 illustrates the results of the model simulations for groundnut crop failures. All of the  
167 plots in Fig. 2 have been derived from aggregating the grid-scale results weighted by the  
168 production (the production for each region is given in Table S4). We found that for India the  
169 crop failures for South India contrast strongly with the rest of the study region (See Fig. S1)  
170 further north (north of about 18° latitude). South India showed a very large percentage increase  
171 in the failure rates of 198% (33 percentage points, pp) and 166% (27 pp) for RCP and G3  
172 relative to the HIST period, respectively. In contrast, the failures are reduced for the regions of  
173 Eastern, Central and Western India (zones 1-3), especially for zones 1 and 3. Zone 1 failures are  
174 reduced by 39% (7 pp) and 23% (4 pp) for RCP and G3, respectively, and zone 3 failures are  
175 reduced by 64% (11 pp) and 45% (7 pp) for RCP 4.5 and G3, respectively.

176 All zones were tested to determine if the production weighted yields were statistically different  
177 for RCP and G3 relative to the HIST results by applying both the Student-T and Kolmogorov  
178 Smirnov (KS) tests for the period between 2020 and 2099 using a 95% confidence level (Table  
179 S5). Both results were required to be statistically significant in order to consider a zone or zones  
180 to be statistically significant. The result for the national scale was determined not to be  
181 statistically different for RCP and G3 relative to HIST and so was not shown. However,  
182 statistical significance between RCP/G3 and HIST were found for all zones 1-4 individually and  
183 also when zones 1-3 were combined (production weighted failures were aggregated at the grid-  
184 scale level to obtain the results, shown in Fig. 2). So South India (zone 4, Fig. 2) was predicted to  
185 undergo approximately a two-fold increase in failure rates with climate change. North of this, the  
186 combined Eastern, Central and Western regions showed an opposing 32% (6 pp) reduction in  
187 failure rates for RCP relative to HIST and an 18.5% (3.5 pp) reduction in failure rate for G3  
188 relative to HIST. Although the same trend shown in the national plot is seen in three out of the  
189 four growing zones (western, central, and eastern India), the whole-India failure rate masks  
190 important spatial variations, especially for south India.

191 In addition to the production weighted failures shown in Fig. 2, we were also interested in the  
192 distribution of grid-specific failure rates as shown in Fig. 3. Fig. 3 shows box-whisker plots  
193 which include all grid failures and shows the degree of variability within regions at the highest



194 resolution undertaken in the study. It is evident that there is a significant contrast in the results  
195 of South India compared to the three regions to the north. South India exhibited the largest  
196 variability in failure rates, by far, for both of the future scenarios when compared to historical.  
197 Thus, whilst the country and regional results exhibit a fairly consistent picture, the significant  
198 spatial variability of crop failures under global warming and geoengineered climate suggests it is  
199 necessary to take grid-specific yields into account when assessing and communicating potential  
200 impacts. This highlights the need for an adequate resolution for simulating crops (Baron *et al*  
201 2005, Angulo *et al* 2013) and also appropriate specification of crop failure thresholds. We show in  
202 Supplementary S5-8 that the trends exhibited in our results remain consistent when using  
203 alternative specifications of the failure thresholds including 0.5 and 1.5 times the standard  
204 deviation.

### 205 3.3 Adaptation potential

206 From the numerous possible adaptation approaches (Howden *et al* 2007, Challinor *et al* 2014),  
207 we considered two climactically important strategies: (1) reduction of water stress through  
208 irrigation and water management adaptation and (2) reduction of heat-stress through use of  
209 adapted germplasm (see Supplementary Test S4). We implemented idealised scenarios showing  
210 the maximum effect of these strategies, for illustration. The results showed that water stress  
211 adaptation is very effective for most of India as it reduces the future crop failure rates for  
212 Eastern, Central and Western India by 95% (20 pp) or more at the grid-scale level (Fig. 4), while  
213 avoiding almost all of the regional and national-level crop failures (values near zero so figures  
214 not shown). For South India, adaptation to water stress was also effective at regional scales but to  
215 a lesser degree than elsewhere, and it was found that large variability was noted at the local scale  
216 (grid cell). We note that in addition to water stress adaptation leading to increased mean yields  
217 and reduced interannual yield variability (hence substantially or completely reduced crop  
218 failures), it also led to reduced spatial variations in crop failures, thus in general leading to much  
219 greater spatio-temporal yield stability for most of India (Fig. 4). Conversely, adaptation to heat  
220 stress was largely ineffective, with negligible effects at the local scale (grid cell) (Fig. S4).

## 221 4 Discussion

### 222 4.1 Crop processes and projected changes in failure rates

223 One of the main advantages of using the GLAM model (Challinor *et al* 2004) was that it is a  
224 process based crop model so enables analysis of the underlying reasons for changes to crop  
225 failure rates. To highlight the underlying reasons, first we highlight that the definition of crop  
226 failures was based on the historical mean and standard deviation (see Sect. 2.2), so future crop  
227 failures depend on changes in both projected mean yields and yield variability relative to  
228 historical. RCP4.5 climate change predictions for India indicate temperatures will increase along  
229 with increased CO<sub>2</sub> levels; however, precipitation is less well understood, with some areas  
230 increasing and other areas decreasing.

231 Increased CO<sub>2</sub> levels and reduced water stress both acted to reduced failure rates; whereas, the  
232 effects on failures due to temperature is complicated by the fact that the definition of failures  
233 depends on the historical temperature. It is important to note that in the GLAM model there is a  
234 cardinal temperature for crop development,  $T_o$ , and the temperature the crop experiences relative  
235 to  $T_o$  largely determines the rate of crop development, which determines growth duration and, in  
236 turn, determines the time intercepting sunlight, amount of water transpired and hence yield  
237 (Wheeler *et al* 2000, Porter and Semenov 2005). For groundnut,  $T_o$  is 28 °C (Singh *et al* 2014,  
238 Challinor *et al* 2004) and, therefore, if the crop experiences temperatures at the cardinal  
239 temperature  $T_o$  then the crop will develop through the growth stages quickly but this means a  
240 shorter growth period and thus less yield. If the historical temperature is, on average, either side  
241 of  $T_o$  then there will be greater yield but, importantly, if the historical is on the lower (higher)  
242 temperature side of  $T_o$  and temperature increases with climate change then the yield will  
243 decrease (increase). Thus, it is critical for the crop yield as to which side of  $T_o$  the historical  
244 mean temperature resides.

245 In Fig. 1, we identified with stippling the regions where the historical mean temperatures were  
246 less than the cardinal temperature of 28 °C. With climate change, temperatures in India are  
247 predicted to be 0.5-1.5 °C higher (both RCP4.5 and G3 scenarios) than the historical mean, so the  
248 regions identified with stippling with climate change will tend towards the cardinal temperature,  
249 resulting in a faster development rate for crops relative to historical rates and thus will be  
250 projected to have lower mean yields and higher failure rates in the future. This is one of the  
251 main reason why South India (zone 4) has projected increases in failure rates in this study.  
252 Another important factor that contributed to the projected increased occurrences of failures for

253 the south is the presence of increased interannual variability of precipitation, which is shown in  
254 Fig. 1 g-i to have a distinct increase for South Indian in the future relative to historical. The  
255 increased interannual variability in precipitation will further increase failure rates.

256 In contrast to South India, the Eastern, Central and Western regions mean historical temperatures  
257 are above the cardinal temperature of 28 °C and so climatically increased temperatures from  
258 global warming act to increase the temperature relative to the cardinal temperature and this  
259 increases the duration of growth stages and hence yields, resulting in decreased failures. This is  
260 also amplified by reduced interannual precipitation variability which also acts to decrease  
261 failures.

#### 262 4.2 Implications of projected changes in failure rates at national and regional scales

263 South India is the second largest groundnut producing region of India, and our results predict  
264 failure rates to greatly increase for this region relative to historical values for both RCP 4.5 and  
265 G3. For RCP 4.5, the increase is predicted to be 198 % (33 pp) and for G3 the increase is  
266 predicted to be 166 % (27 pp). Increased failure rates could be very detrimental to groundnut  
267 farmers income stability (82 % of groundnut production is used for edible oil production;  
268 Mehrotra, 2011) and the wellbeing of farmers and farming communities (discussed below). In  
269 contrast, for the Eastern, Central and Western regions (latitudes higher than about 18° N) the crop  
270 failures are projected to decrease by 20-30%. In all regions, geoengineering was projected to  
271 have failures rates between RCP and HIST, and usually much closer to RCP.

272 In a recent study by Carleton (2017), evidence is presented linking crop damaging temperatures  
273 to increased suicide rates for India. The study used a nationally comprehensive 47 year dataset  
274 of India and showed that fluctuations of, primarily, temperature during the growing season  
275 significantly affected suicide rates. Carleton (2017) found that temperatures in excess of 20 °C  
276 could explain 6.8% of the total upward trend in the national suicide rate. In the Fig. 2C, the  
277 geographical heterogeneity in the suicide-temperature response shows that South India is one of  
278 the main ‘hot-spots’ in terms of the sensitivity of suicide rate to temperature. This is  
279 particularly concerning when compared to our zone 4 panels in Figs. 2 and 3 which predict  
280 increases in failure rates for South India, and that even human intervention by solar dimming  
281 climate geoengineering is likely to have little effect on reducing these failures.

282 Finally, we would like to point out that uncertainties associated with numerical modelling can  
283 limit the usefulness of results for decision making (Vermeulen *et al* 2013, Campbell *et al* 2016).  
284 In this work, most notably, the use of single climate and crop models can entail potentially  
285 significant uncertainty in the study, especially with regards to regional climate projections;  
286 however, we have reduced the risk as much as possible by using the BNU-ESM which was noted  
287 to have appropriate regional spatial distributions of meteorological variables for the Indian  
288 Monsoon (Sabeerali *et al* 2013). We also note that we have not accounted for the farmers'  
289 autonomous response to changing climate change aside from through altered planting dates, nor  
290 have we accounted for future technological changes (e.g. new machinery, new germplasm, etc.)  
291 which are typical of the timescales we have analysed here (Tilman *et al* 2001). However, we did  
292 choose an intermediate climate change pathway, RCP 4.5, which may potentially offset these.  
293 Our analysis uses state-of-the-art, well-established crop and climate simulation models, and  
294 shows a consistent picture for groundnut crop failures under future climate.

## 295 **5 Conclusion**

296 In this work, we questioned whether farming communities should brace for more crop failures  
297 and increased crop instability and whether climate geoengineering might reduce or adversely  
298 affect future crop failure rates. We hypothesised that crop failure rates would increase in  
299 frequency over this century relative to historical failure rates and that geoengineering would  
300 moderate these increases. We find from our results that certain parts of India likely do need to  
301 brace for increases in crop failures in coming years with climate change. Most concerning is  
302 South India where projections show dramatically increased failures rates of 198 % (33 pp) and  
303 166 % (27 pp) for RCP4.5 climate change and G3 climate geoengineering scenarios,  
304 respectively, relative to the historical means. However, the opposite was predicted for Eastern,  
305 Central and Western India (in this work defined as North of 18° latitude) which was attributed to  
306 the historical mean temperature of this region being below the cardinal temperature for  
307 groundnut and thus leading to increased yeilds with climate change and fewer failures. RCP4.5  
308 climate change reduced the groundnut failures by 20 to 30 % and solar dimming geoengineering  
309 intervention GeoMIP G3 was predicted in all cases to moderate the failures, resulting in failure  
310 rates part-way between the RCP4.5 and historical values.

311 Our projections indicate that South India can expect to have on average an almost doubling of  
312 crop failures for groundnut, with on average one failure every two to three years instead of one  
313 every four to five years. Also concerning is that projections for South India showed limited  
314 response to reduced heat and water stress or even solar dimming climate geoengineering.  
315 Agriclimate projections contain a number of uncertainties but these results suggest South India's  
316 groundnut should be the focus of innovative adaptation and farming strategies going forward to  
317 combat future climate impacts.

#### 318 Author Contributions

319 HY and SD designed the project. HY performed all the GLAM-groundnut simulations. JRV and  
320 AJC assisted with calibration. JRV, AJC, SQ and SG assisted with results analysis. HY and SD  
321 wrote the paper with all authors providing input.

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