



UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

This is a repository copy of *South India projected to be susceptible to high future groundnut failure rates for future climate change and geo-engineered scenarios*.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper:

<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/163786/>

Version: Accepted Version

Article:

Yang, H, Dobbie, S, Ramirez-Villegas, J et al. (4 more authors) (2020) South India projected to be susceptible to high future groundnut failure rates for future climate change and geo-engineered scenarios. *Science of The Total Environment*, 747. 141240. ISSN 0048-9697

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.141240>

© 2020 Published by Elsevier. Licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>).

Reuse

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives (CC BY-NC-ND) licence. This licence only allows you to download this work and share it with others as long as you credit the authors, but you can't change the article in any way or use it commercially. More information and the full terms of the licence here: <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/>

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



eprints@whiterose.ac.uk
<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/>

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

3
4 **Huiyi Yang^{1,2*}, Steven Dobbie², Julian Ramirez-Villegas^{2,3,4}, Bing Chen⁵, Shaojun Qiu⁶, Sat Ghosh⁷ and Andy**
5 **Challinor²**

6 ¹Natural Resources Institute, University of Greenwich, ME4 4TP.

7 ²ICAS, School of Earth and Environment, University of Leeds, Leeds, LS2 9JT.

8 ³ International Center for Tropical Agriculture, Cali, Colombia.

9 ⁴ CGIAR Research Program on Climate Change, Agriculture and Food Security, c/o CIAT, Cali,
10 Colombia.

11 ⁵ Key Laboratory of Atmospheric Environment and processes in the Boundary Layer over the
12 Low-latitude Plateau Region, Department of atmospheric science, Yunnan University,
13 Kunming, 650091, China

14 ⁶ Institute of agricultural resources and regional planning, Chinese Academy of Agriculture
15 Science, Beijing, China

16 ⁷ Vellore Institute of Technology, Vellore, Tamil Nadu, India. 632 014.

17
18 *Corresponding authors: Huiyi Yang (h.yang@greenwich.ac.uk); Dr Huiyi Yang and Dr Steven
19 Dobbie (s.dobbie@see.leeds.ac.uk) have contributed equally to this work.
20
21

22 **Abstract**

23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51

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/m² 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 SO₂ 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 21st 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 CO₂ levels; however, precipitation is less well understood, with some areas
230 increasing and other areas decreasing.

231 Increased CO₂ 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.

322 **Acknowledgments**

323 The authors would like to thank the participants of the inter-comparisons CMIP and GeoMIP for
324 making their data available. The project was supported by the National Science Foundation for
325 Young Scholars of China (Grant No.: 41205003). JRV and AJC are supported by the CGIAR
326 Research Program on Climate Change, Agriculture and Food Security (CCAFS), which is carried
327 out with support from CGIAR Fund Donors and through bilateral funding agreements. For
328 details please visit <https://ccafs.cgiar.org/donors>. The views expressed in this document cannot
329 be taken to reflect the official opinions of these organizations. The authors thank the members of
330 the Climate Impacts Group at the University of Leeds for feedback on some of the results
331 presented here.

332
333
334
335
336
337
338
339
340
341
342

343 References

- 344 Akram N A, Shafiq F and Ashraf M 2018 Peanut (*Arachis hypogaea* L.): A Prospective Legume Crop to Offer
 345 Multiple Health Benefits Under Changing Climate *Compr. Rev. Food Sci. Food Saf.* **17** 1325–38 Online:
 346 <http://doi.wiley.com/10.1111/1541-4337.12383>
- 347 Angulo C, Rötter R, Trnka M, Pirttioja N, Gaiser T, Hlavinka P and Ewert F 2013 Characteristic ‘fingerprints’ of
 348 crop model responses to weather input data at different spatial resolutions *Eur. J. Agron.* **49** 104–14
- 349 Bal P K, Pathak R, Mishra S K and Sahany S 2019 Effects of global warming and solar geoengineering on
 350 precipitation seasonality *Environ. Res. Lett.* **14** 034011 Online:
 351 <https://iopscience.iop.org/article/10.1088/1748-9326/aafc7d>
- 352 Baron C, Sultan B, Balme M, Sarr B, Traore S, Lebel T, Janicot S and Dingkuhn M 2005 From GCM grid cell to
 353 agricultural plot: scale issues affecting modelling of climate impact. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. Lond. B. Biol. Sci.*
 354 **360** 2095–108 Online: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16433096>
- 355 Bindoff N L, Stott P, AchutaRao K, Allen M, Gillett N, Gutzler D, Hansingo K, Hegerl G, Hu Y, Jain S, Mokhov I,
 356 Overland J, Perlwitz J, Sebbari R, Zhang X, Qin D, Plattner G, Tignor M, Allen S, Boschung J, Nauels A, Xia
 357 Y, Bex V, Midgley P, Bindoff N L, Stott P A and Mirle AchutaRao K 2013 *Contribution of Working Group I*
 358 *to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change* (Geneva, Switzerland)
- 359 Campbell B M, Vermeulen S J, Aggarwal P K, Corner-Dolloff C, Girvetz E, Loboguerrero A M, Ramirez-Villegas
 360 J, Rosenstock T, Sebastian L, Thornton P and Wollenberg E 2016 Reducing risks to food security from
 361 climate change *Glob. Food Sec.* 1–10
- 362 Carleton T A 2017 Crop-damaging temperatures increase suicide rates in India. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **114**
 363 8746–51 Online: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28760983>
- 364 Challinor a. J, Wheeler T R, Craufurd P Q, Slingo J M and Grimes D I F 2004 Design and optimisation of a large-
 365 area process-based model for annual crops *Agric. For. Meteorol.* **124** 99–120
- 366 Challinor A J, Adger W N, Benton T G, Conway D, Joshi M and Frame D 2018 Transmission of climate risks across
 367 sectors and borders *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. A Math. Phys. Eng. Sci.* **376** 20170301 Online:
 368 <https://royalsocietypublishing.org/doi/10.1098/rsta.2017.0301>
- 369 Challinor A J, Simelton E S, Fraser E D G, Hemming D and Collins M 2010 Increased crop failure due to climate
 370 change: assessing adaptation options using models and socio-economic data for wheat in China *Environ. Res.*
 371 *Lett.* **5** 034012
- 372 Challinor A J, Watson J, Lobell D B, Howden S M, Smith D R and Chhetri N 2014 A meta-analysis of crop yield
 373 under climate change and adaptation *Nat. Clim. Chang.* **4** 287–91 Online:
 374 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nclimate2153>
- 375 Gaupp F, Hall J, Mitchell D and Dadson S 2019 Increasing risks of multiple breadbasket failure under 1.5 and 2 °C
 376 global warming *Agric. Syst.* **175** 34–45 Online:
 377 <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0308521X18307674>
- 378 Halder D, Kheroar S, Rajiv &, Srivastava K, Rabindra & and Panda K 2020 Assessment of future climate variability
 379 and potential adaptation strategies on yield of peanut and Kharif rice in eastern India *Theor. Appl. Climatol.*
 380 **140** 823–38 Online: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00704-020-03123-5>
- 381 Hansen J, Sato M and Ruedy R 2012 Perception of climate change. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **109** E2415–23
 382 Online: <http://www.pnas.org/content/109/37/E2415.abstract>
- 383 Harding A R, Ricke K, Heyen D, MacMartin D G and Moreno-Cruz J 2020 Climate econometric models indicate
 384 solar geoengineering would reduce inter-country income inequality. *Nat. Commun.* **11** 227 Online:
 385 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31932612>
- 386 Howden S M, Soussana J-F, Tubiello F N, Chhetri N, Dunlop M and Meinke H 2007 Adapting agriculture to
 387 climate change. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **104** 19691–6 Online:
 388 <http://www.pnas.org/content/104/50/19691.full>
- 389 IPCC, Field C B, Barros V, Stocker T F, Qin D, Dokken D J, Ebi K L, Mastrandrea M D, Mach K J, Plattner G-K,
 390 Allen S K, Tignor M and Midgley P M 2012 *Managing the Risks of Extreme Events and Disasters to Advance*
 391 *Climate Change Adaptation - SREX Summary for Policymakers* (A Special Report of Working Groups I and II
 392 of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK, and New
 393 York, NY, USA)
- 394 Irvine P, Emanuel K, He J, Horowitz L W, Vecchi G and Keith D 2019 Halving warming with idealized solar
 395 geoengineering moderates key climate hazards *Nat. Clim. Chang.* **9** 295–9 Online:
 396 <http://www.nature.com/articles/s41558-019-0398-8>
- 397 Kravitz B, Caldeira K, Boucher O, Robock A, Rasch P J, Alterskjaer K, Karam D B, Cole J N S, Curry C L,

398 Haywood J M, Irvine P J, Ji D, Jones A, Kristjánsson J E, Lunt D J, Moore J C, Niemeier U, Schmidt H,
399 Schulz M, Singh B, Tilmes S, Watanabe S, Yang S and Yoon J-H 2013 Climate model response from the
400 Geoengineering Model Intercomparison Project (GeoMIP) *J. Geophys. Res. Atmos.* **118** 8320–32 Online:
401 <http://doi.wiley.com/10.1002/jgrd.50646>

402 Kravitz B, Robock A, Boucher O, Schmidt H, Taylor K E, Stenchikov G and Schulz M 2011 The Geoengineering
403 Model Intercomparison Project (GeoMIP) *Atmos. Sci. Lett.* **12** 162–7

404 Lobell D B, Burke M B, Tebaldi C, Mastrandrea M D, Falcon W P and Naylor R L 2008 Prioritizing climate change
405 adaptation needs for food security in 2030. *Science* **319** 607–10 Online:
406 <http://www.sciencemag.org/content/319/5863/607.abstract>

407 Mehrabi Z and Ramankutty N 2019 Synchronized failure of global crop production *Nat. Ecol. Evol.* **3** 780–6 Online:
408 <http://www.nature.com/articles/s41559-019-0862-x>

409 Parkes B, Challinor A and Nicklin K 2015 Crop failure rates in a geoengineered climate: impact of climate change
410 and marine cloud brightening *Environ. Res. Lett.* **10** 084003 Online:
411 <http://iopscience.iop.org/article/10.1088/1748-9326/10/8/084003>

412 Porter J R and Semenov M A 2005 Crop responses to climatic variation. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. Lond. B. Biol. Sci.*
413 **360** 2021–35 Online: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16433091>

414 Porter J R, Xie L, Challinor A J, Jordan J, Barros R, Dokken D, Mach K, Bilir T, Chatterjee M, Ebi K, Estrada Y,
415 Genova R, Girma B, Kissel E, Levy A and MacCracken S 2014 *Food security and food production systems.*
416 *In: Climate Change 2014: Impacts, Adaptation, and Vulnerability. Part A: Global and Sectoral Aspects.*
417 *Contribution of Working Group II to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate*
418 *Change* (Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA: Cambridge University Press)

419 Ramirez Villegas J A 2014 Genotypic adaptation of Indian groundnut cultivation to climate change: an ensemble
420 approach

421 Sabeerali C T, Ramu Dandi A, Dhakate A, Salunke K, Mahapatra S and Rao S A 2013 Simulation of boreal summer
422 intraseasonal oscillations in the latest CMIP5 coupled GCMs *J. Geophys. Res. Atmos.* **118** 4401–20 Online:
423 <http://doi.wiley.com/10.1002/jgrd.50403>

424 Singh P, Singh N P, Boote K J, Nedumaran S, Srinivas K and Bantilan M C S 2014 Management options to increase
425 groundnut productivity under climate change at selected sites in India *J. Agrometeorol.* Online:
426 http://oar.icrisat.org/8463/1/JournalofAgrometeorology_16_1_52-59_2014.pdf

427 Talawar S 2004 *Peanut in India: History, Production and Utilization* (Athens, Georgia, USA: University of
428 Georgia)

429 Taylor K E, Stouffer R J and Meehl G A 2012 An Overview of CMIP5 and the Experiment Design *Bull. Am.*
430 *Meteorol. Soc.* **93** 485–98 Online: <http://journals.ametsoc.org/doi/abs/10.1175/BAMS-D-11-00094.1>

431 Tilman D, Fargione J, Wolff B, D'Antonio C, Dobson A, Howarth R, Schindler D, Schlesinger W H, Simberloff D
432 and Swackhamer D 2001 Forecasting Agriculturally Driven Global Environmental Change *Science* (80-.).
433 **292** 281–4

434 Vermeulen S J, Challinor A J, Thornton P K, Campbell B M, Eriyagama N, Vervoort J M, Kinyangi J, Jarvis A,
435 Läderach P, Ramirez-Villegas J, Nicklin K J, Hawkins E and Smith D R 2013 Addressing uncertainty in
436 adaptation planning for agriculture. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **110** 8357–62

437 Wheeler T R, Craufurd P Q, Ellis R H, Porter J R and Vara Prasad P . 2000 Temperature variability and the yield of
438 annual crops *Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.* **82** 159–67

439 Yang H, Dobbie S, Ramirez-Villegas J, Feng K, Challinor A J, Chen B, Gao Y, Lee L, Yin Y, Sun L, Watson J,
440 Koehler A-K, Fan T and Ghosh S 2016 Potential negative consequences of geoengineering on crop
441 production: A study of Indian groundnut *Geophys. Res. Lett.* Online:
442 <http://doi.wiley.com/10.1002/2016GL071209>

443

444