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**Article:**

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<https://doi.org/10.1126/science.adg6196>

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# Chemistry-albedo feedbacks offset up to a third of forestation's CO<sub>2</sub> removal benefits.

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**Abstract:** Forestation is widely proposed for CO<sub>2</sub> removal but its impact on climate, via changes to atmospheric composition and surface albedo, remain relatively unexplored. We assess these responses using two Earth-System models by comparing a scenario with extensive global forest expansion in suitable regions to other plausible futures. We find forestation increases aerosol scattering and the greenhouse gases methane and ozone, following increased biogenic organic emissions, and decreases surface albedo which yields a positive radiative forcing (i.e. warming). This offsets up to a third of the negative forcing from the additional CO<sub>2</sub> removal under a 4°C warming scenario. However, when forestation is pursued alongside other strategies which achieve the 2°C Paris Agreement target, the offsetting positive forcing is smaller, highlighting the urgency for simultaneous emission reductions.

**One-Sentence Summary:** Extensive forestation changes atmospheric composition and surface reflectivity to offset a third of the extra CO<sub>2</sub> removal.

1 Forestation changes atmospheric composition and albedo to offset up to 1/3 of the extra CDR,  
2 depending on climate scenario.

3 Reforestation and afforestation are widely proposed nature-based strategies for  
4 atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) removal (CDR) and climate change mitigation (1). These  
5 strategies have the potential to provide additional benefits for biodiversity and multiple  
6 ecosystem services, including reduced soil erosion and climate resilience, and forestry products  
7 and local cooling via transpiration (2-4). The Bonn Challenge, New York Declaration on Forests  
8 and the UN Decade on Ecosystem Restoration set a target to restore 350 Mha of degraded and  
9 deforested lands by 2030 (5). However, wide-scale forest expansion drives biophysical  
10 feedbacks within the Earth system that may lead to warming. For example, darker forests  
11 decrease surface albedo which can substantially offset the cooling effects of carbon sequestration  
12 in some regions of the world (6,7).

13 Forests also release substantial quantities (760 TgC yr<sup>-1</sup>) of biogenic volatile organic  
14 compounds (BVOCs) that affect the greenhouse gases ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) and methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) as well as  
15 organic aerosols, with complex impacts on climate (8,9). Chemical reactions of BVOCs deplete  
16 the hydroxyl radical (OH), increasing CH<sub>4</sub>, drive O<sub>3</sub> production or loss depending on the  
17 chemical environment, and produce oxidation products, which can add to or form aerosols that  
18 interact with solar radiation. Changes to atmospheric composition have been shown to be  
19 important in the net climatic impact of instantaneous global deforestation (10) and 1850-2000  
20 deforestation due to cropland expansion (11). However, atmospheric composition's response to  
21 proposed reforestation and afforestation programmes under different 21<sup>st</sup> century future climate  
22 pathways, and the effects on climate, has received less consideration.

23 We present an assessment of climate feedbacks from a large-scale afforestation,  
24 reforestation and forest enhancement (hereafter all three are referred to as forestation) scenario.  
25 To mitigate possible single model bias (8), we perform the same experiments in two state-of-the-  
26 art climate models, UKESM1 (12) and CESM2 (13), which feature interactive atmospheric  
27 chemistry, aerosols and BVOC emission schemes. We use a land surface cover scenario that  
28 expands forests from 2015 land cover in biomes where trees are expected to thrive: through  
29 reforestation (of rangeland, secondary forest and secondary non-forest in forest biomes), forest  
30 enhancement (of forests where tree cover density is less than its potential), and afforestation (of  
31 rangeland, secondary forest and secondary non-forest in non-forest biomes where tree cover is  
32 greater than 10%) ("Maxforest" (MF)) (14). The Maxforest scenario represents a near  
33 biophysical maximum for forestation, given constraints on the rate of forestation and excluding  
34 expansion on croplands, pasturelands, urban lands and IUCN designated protected areas (SM  
35 Maxforest Scenario,). This scenario results in additional tree cover of 500 Mha by 2050 rising to  
36 750 Mha in 2095 (relative to 2015) (Fig 1A), with approximately 55% from afforestation, 25%  
37 from reforestation, and 20% from forest enhancement by 2095. Although large-scale forestation  
38 presents certain risks and trade-offs (1), we use this theoretical biophysical maximum forestation  
39 scenario for our assessment to best detect biophysical changes.

40

41 We compare Maxforest to two well-established future scenarios: SSP3-7.0 ('Regional  
42 rivalry') which features resource-intensive consumption, diminished technology development  
43 and very low climate change mitigation efforts leading to global warming up to 4°C above pre-  
44 industrial temperatures, and SSP1-2.6 ('Sustainability') characterised by inclusive development,  
45 environmental management, and lower resource and energy intensive consumption with much

1 stronger efforts to mitigate climate change limiting warming to under 2°C (15). The land surface  
2 cover projection of SSP3-7.0 includes high levels of deforestation relative to 2015 (-290 Mha by  
3 2095) while SSP1-2.6 has forestation which, at 310 Mha by 2095, is already 40% of the increase  
4 in Maxforest (Fig 1). The extensive mitigation efforts in SSP1-2.6 also lead to lower well-mixed  
5 greenhouse gas concentrations (CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O) than SSP3-7.0 and greater reductions to  
6 anthropogenic emissions of other climatically-relevant air pollutants such as NO<sub>x</sub> (Fig S2,3;  
7 Table S1).

8 Specifically, we compare contemporaneous pairs of model simulations at 2050 and 2095 - a  
9 control run with land cover and atmospheric conditions from SSP3-7.0 or SSP1-2.6 (referred to  
10 as 4C\_SSP3 and 2C\_SSP1, respectively) and a run identical except for the substitution of land  
11 cover from Maxforest (4C\_MF and 2C\_MF, Table 1). These simulations use prescribed sea-  
12 surface temperatures and sea-ice. The land surface cover, described in terms of the fraction of  
13 each land surface type (trees, grassland, crops, urban etc) in each model grid cell, was fixed to  
14 scenario-specific values (Table 1). Thus, no deviation from the scenarios occurs over the course  
15 of the model simulations. This approach allows the effective radiative forcing to be calculated  
16 (16). However, the emissions of BVOCs from vegetation into the atmosphere are still  
17 interactively simulated based on the vegetation type, using the standard MEGAN (CESM2) (17)  
18 and iBVOC (UKESM1) (18) schemes, linking forestation to atmospheric composition. Thus, we  
19 isolate the effects of forestation on surface albedo and atmospheric chemical composition under  
20 two possible futures. We calculate the resulting change in the atmosphere's energy balance (the  
21 radiative forcing; RF) in 4C\_MF and 2C\_MF relative to the corresponding control simulation  
22 (4C\_SSP3 & 2C\_SSP1) with a focus on changes to surface albedo (RF<sub>Alb</sub>), aerosol scattering  
23 (RF<sub>Aer</sub>), CH<sub>4</sub> (RF<sub>CH4</sub>) and O<sub>3</sub> (RF<sub>O3</sub>). We compare this to the climatic impact of the extra CDR  
24 from Maxforest's additional forestation to establish the net climate benefit, calculated with  
25 CLM5, the CESM2 land surface component (Table S2), as Maxforest was originally developed  
26 within CESM2.

27 To isolate the effect of BVOC changes while ensuring comparability with the SSP  
28 pathways, we kept the fire and ozone induced-damage modules inactive in both UKESM1  
29 and CESM2; i.e., we do not consider how fire emissions would respond to forestation nor the  
30 effect of surface ozone damage on forest carbon uptake (19, 20). For fire emissions, we used  
31 the same prescribed biomass burning emissions for simulation pairs. For example, both  
32 4C\_SSP3 and 4C\_MF scenarios use biomass burning emissions from SSP3-7.0 in 2050 and  
33 2095 (see SM Earth Systems Model Simulations).

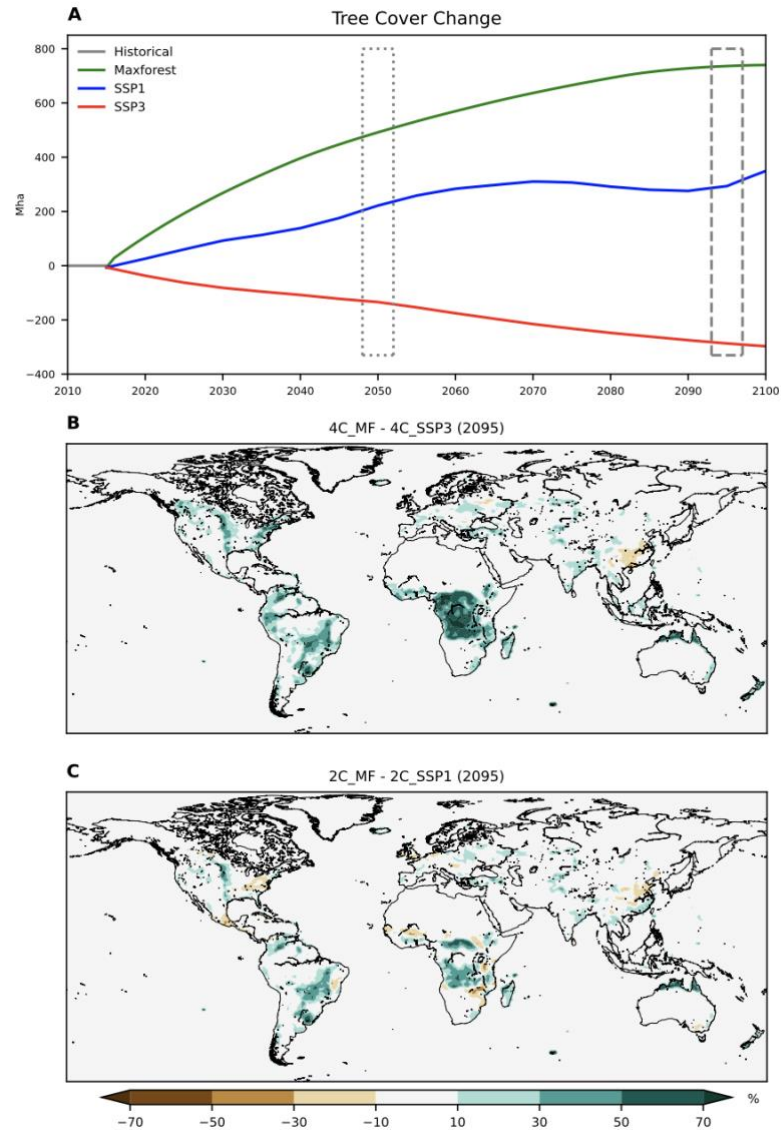
34 By embedding Maxforest's land surface cover into simulations using SSP3-7.0 and SSP1-  
35 2.6 atmospheric conditions, we provide thorough insights into forestation's impacts on  
36 atmospheric composition and climate in two contrasting futures. Our comprehensive analysis  
37 extends earlier work which considered the climatic impact of extensive forestation from CDR  
38 (e.g., (21)) or, in some cases, albedo changes as well (7).

## 39 40 **Results**

41 We find the global net RF ( $RF_{net} = RF_{Alb} + RF_{Aer} + RF_{CH4} + RF_{O3}$ ) from changes to surface  
42 albedo, aerosol scattering, CH<sub>4</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> from forestation is, in all cases, positive (i.e.  
43 corresponding to a warming) and relatively consistent between the models. Compared to  
44 4C\_SSP3,  $RF_{net}$  in 4C\_MF is 90-104 mWm<sup>-2</sup> (range here and throughout indicates the two-  
45 model range unless otherwise stated) by 2050, rising to 101-192mWm<sup>-2</sup> by 2095 (Fig 3D). This

1 is equivalent to CO<sub>2</sub> increases of 9-11 ppm (2050) and 16-30 ppm (2095) (Radiative Forcing  
2 Calculations, SM). The smaller increase in tree cover and BVOC emissions in 2C\_MF relative to  
3 2C\_SSP1 leads to a smaller RF<sub>net</sub> of 8-56mWm<sup>-2</sup> at 2050 and 41-63 mWm<sup>-2</sup> at 2095, equivalent  
4 to CO<sub>2</sub> increases of 1-5 ppm (2050) and 5-10 ppm (2095).

5



6

7 **Fig. 1. Tree cover change.** (A) Total tree cover change relative to the historical 2010-2014  
8 mean for the Maxforest (MF), SSP3 and SSP1 land surface cover scenarios. Dotted and  
9 dashed boxes indicate time periods considered in this study (2050 and 2095). Also shown is  
10 the percentage difference in tree cover at 2095 between (B) 4C\_MF and 4C\_SSP3 and  
11 (C) 2C\_MF and 2C\_SSP1, corresponding to dashed region in (A).

12

13

14 **Surface Albedo and Aerosol Scattering**



1 We first assess the extent to which reductions in surface albedo arising from the expansion  
2 of forests (22), are offset by enhanced aerosol scattering following increases to organic aerosol  
3 produced from BVOC oxidation.

4 In the tropics, forest expansion leads to both models simulating positive  $RF_{Alb}$ , although the  
5 magnitude in UKESM1 is about twice that of CESM2 (Fig 2A,B, S6). The increase in BVOC  
6 emissions and thus organic aerosol from BVOC oxidation products (Fig S4,5) yields a negative  
7 forcing from aerosol scattering ( $RF_{Aer}$ ) (Figs 2C, S6) which offsets some of the positive  $RF_{Alb}$ .  
8 The spatial distribution of  $RF_{Aer}$  correlates well with those regions exhibiting the greatest  
9 increases in organic aerosol. In 2095, under 4C and 2C conditions, aerosol scattering offsets  
10 about 50% of  $RF_{Alb}$  in UKESM1 and the entirety in CESM2 (Fig 3C,D).

11 At higher latitudes, the effect of forestation on surface albedo is more pronounced than in the  
12 tropics due to the lower albedo of forest and seasonal snow cover (which greatly increases  
13 albedo for periods of the year when snow can settle on non-forested land). As a result, the  
14 reduction in albedo per unit area of forestation is much higher than in the tropics. Furthermore,  
15 lower temperatures at higher latitudes limit the BVOC emissions (Fig 3B), resulting in reduced  
16 organic aerosol production and a smaller  $RF_{Aer}$ , meaning at higher latitudes the warming from  
17 surface albedo changes tends to outweigh the cooling from aerosol scattering (Fig 3C).

18 The greater  $RF_{Alb}$  per unit area of forestation at high latitude supports previous findings that  
19 high latitude forestation is likely to produce net warming due to albedo decreases (22). However,  
20 we extend this by illustrating how the cooling effect of aerosol scattering, particularly at lower  
21 latitudes, makes tropical forestation even more favourable, from a climatic perspective, by  
22 lowering its albedo penalty. Relative to 4C\_SSP3 by 2095,  $RF_{Aer}$  in 4C\_MF is -71 to -86  $mWm^{-2}$   
23 and  $RF_{Alb}$  115-170  $mWm^{-2}$  (Fig 3D). The smaller increase in forest cover in 2C\_MF vs.  
24 2C\_SSP1 compared to 4C\_MF vs. 4C\_SSP3 (Fig 1) leads to smaller  $RF_{Aer}$  (-42 to -44  $mWm^{-2}$ )  
25 and  $RF_{Alb}$  (57-84  $mWm^{-2}$ ) by 2095 (Fig S6). We note that UKESM consistently exhibits higher  
26  $RF_{Alb}$ , highlighting the importance of a multi-model approach.

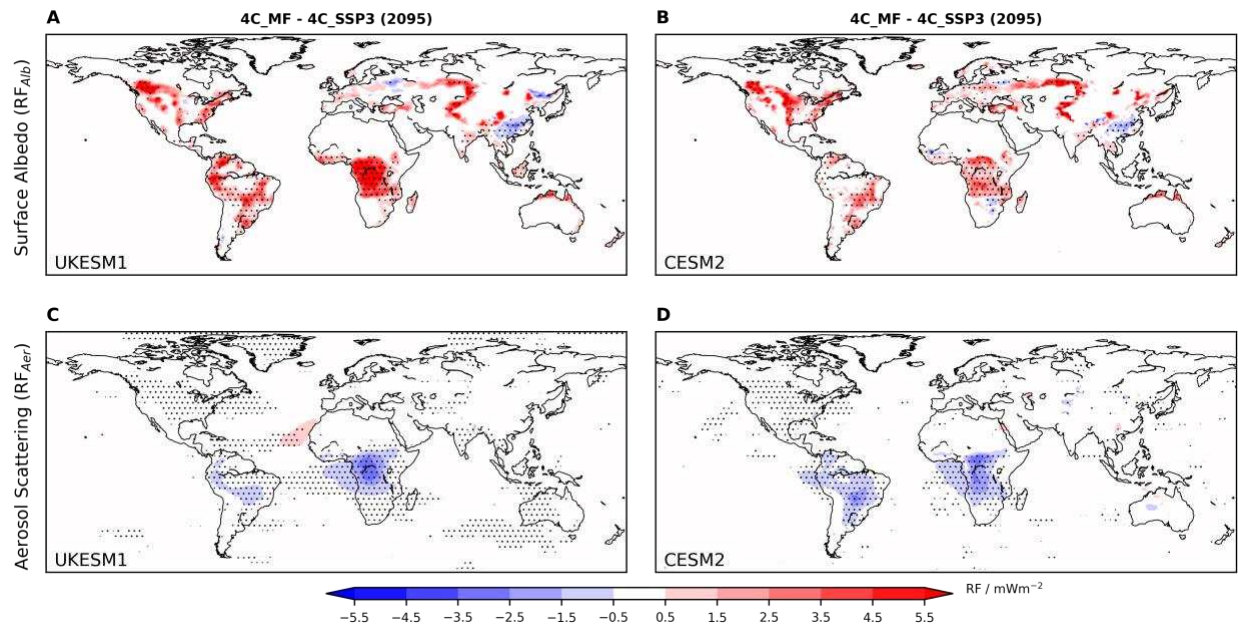
27 Changes to organic aerosol can also affect cloud properties, including reflectivity, albeit with  
28 the response highly sensitive to background cloud properties (23). Aside from a small region of  
29 central Africa, where the radiative impact is much smaller than the forcings from aerosol  
30 scattering and surface albedo changes, we find this effect statistically insignificant across almost  
31 the entire globe (SM Offline Cloud Forcing Calculations; Fig S7). While aerosol-driven changes  
32 to clouds appear relatively minor, the consideration of aerosol scattering and its partial offsetting  
33 of surface albedo-driven warming highlights the greater climatic benefits of tropical forestation  
34 and the need to assess the full range of processes by which forestation will affect the Earth  
35 System.

## 36 37 **Methane and Ozone**

38 The radiative impact of  $CH_4$  changes ( $RF_{CH_4}$ ) from forestation is generally smaller in  
39 magnitude to that from aerosol scattering and opposite in sign (Fig 3D). OH is suppressed by  
40 reaction with elevated BVOC concentrations in both models, particularly in regions of forest  
41 expansion (Fig S8), reducing OH's destruction of  $CH_4$  (Fig S9) and increasing  $CH_4$  in both  
42 models. We find that forestation at 2095 results in a global positive  $RF_{CH_4}$  of 32-57  $mWm^{-2}$  for  
43 4C\_MF relative to 4C\_SSP3 and 12-24  $mWm^{-2}$  for 2C\_MF relative to 2C\_SSP1, with CESM2  
44 exhibiting higher  $RF_{CH_4}$  than UKESM1. Critically, the simulation of chemistry in both models

1 features up-to-date descriptions of the chemistry of isoprene (the most widely emitted BVOC),  
2 including important reactions which regenerate OH and thus somewhat buffer its initial depletion  
3 (SM Earth System Model Simulations, SM).

4  
5



6  
7

8 **Fig. 2. Surface albedo and aerosol scattering.** Radiative forcing from changes to surface  
9 albedo ( $\text{RF}_{\text{Alb}}$ ) and the aerosol scattering ( $\text{RF}_{\text{Aer}}$ ) between 4C\_MF and 4C\_SSP3 in (A, C)  
10 UKESM1 and (B, D) CESM2 at 2095. (Stippling shows regions of statistical significance at 95%  
11 confidence.)

12

13 The response of  $\text{O}_3$  to BVOC changes is more complex than  $\text{CH}_4$ .  $\text{RF}_{\text{O}_3}$  is positive in all  
14 cases, except SSP1-2.6 conditions in 2050 for CESM2 (i.e. 2C\_MF vs. 2C\_SSP1), with values of  
15 7-20  $\text{wMWm}^{-2}$  (rising to 60  $\text{wMWm}^{-2}$  for 4C\_MF vs. 4C\_SSP3 in UKESM1 at 2095) albeit with  
16 greater interannual variation than  $\text{RF}_{\text{CH}_4}$  due to the wide range of factors affecting  $\text{O}_3$ . A positive  
17  $\text{RF}_{\text{O}_3}$  with increasing BVOCs is in qualitative agreement with prior studies (8,11). The  
18 complexity of the  $\text{O}_3$  response can be understood in terms of the strong dependence of net  $\text{O}_3$   
19 production on the local chemical environment and the fact that  $\text{O}_3$  is much more efficient as a  
20 GHG in the upper troposphere than at lower altitudes (24).  $\text{O}_3$  can be destroyed by direct reaction  
21 with BVOCs, produced in the presence of sufficient  $\text{NO}_x$  and destroyed again under very high  
22  $\text{NO}_x$  via titration. This makes the net response highly dependent on regionally variable local  
23 conditions, on the pollution scenario (i.e., SSP3-7.0 has higher  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions than SSP1-2.6;  
24 Fig S3, Table S1) and, to a lesser extent, on the models due to differences in their chemical  
25 mechanisms. The climatic effect of ozone is generally comparable to that of  $\text{CH}_4$  but smaller  
26 than the impact of aerosol scattering and surface albedo.

27

## 1 Carbon Dioxide Removal

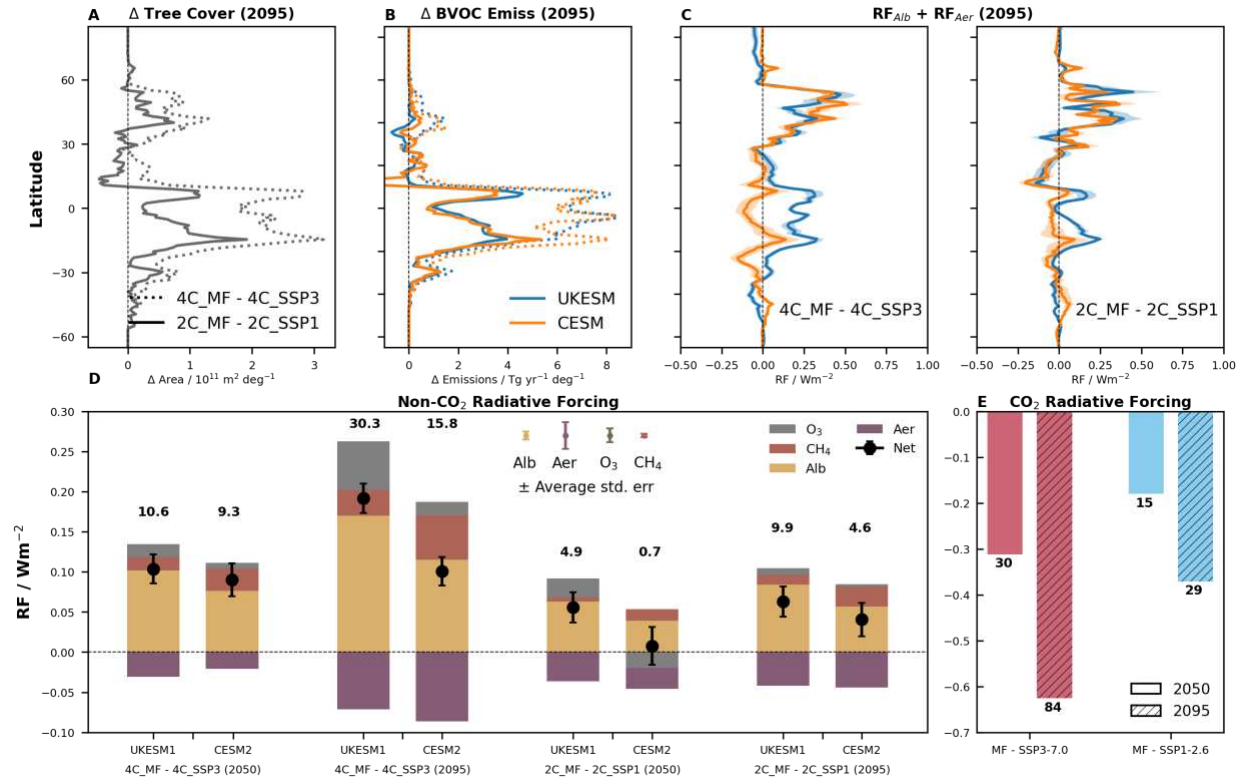
2 Balancing the positive net radiative forcing from albedo and atmospheric composition  
3 changes is the additional CDR arising from the forest expansion in Maxforest (Figs S10-12).  
4 This forestation leads to an average CDR rate of 4.1-4.3 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup> up to 2050 and 5.0-6.5  
5 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup> up to 2095 (with ranges for 2C and 4C conditions). This is within range of other  
6 estimates of biophysical and/or technical CDR potential of afforestation and reforestation of 0.5-  
7 10.1 GtCO<sub>2</sub> yr<sup>-1</sup> by 2050 (1).

8  
9 By 2095 Maxforest's CDR density (146 tCha<sup>-1</sup> and 184 tCha<sup>-1</sup> under 2C and 4C conditions,  
10 respectively) is also within the range of estimates from other 80-year widescale forestation  
11 studies, from 72 tC ha<sup>-1</sup> from forestation of dryland regions (7) to ~200 and ~300 tC ha<sup>-1</sup> reported  
12 by Bastin et al (2019) (21) (deserts, xeric shrublands and Mediterranean forests) and Griscom et  
13 al (2017) (25) respectively. The CDR density achieved by forestation is much smaller than that  
14 achieved by avoiding deforestation, which is about 500 tC ha<sup>-1</sup> by 2095 in SSP3-7.0 (Methods).  
15 Thus preventing deforestation is much more efficient than reforestation in terms of mitigation  
16 per unit area.

17  
18 To assess the importance of changes to surface albedo, aerosol scattering, CH<sub>4</sub> and O<sub>3</sub>,  
19 we compare the sum of these components (RF<sub>net</sub>) to the radiative forcing arising from the  
20 differences in cumulative CDR (and thus atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>) between the Maxforest scenarios and  
21 SSP3-7.0 or SSP1-2.6 (RF<sub>CO<sub>2</sub></sub>) (SM CDR Estimation). Under SSP3-7.0 conditions (4°C  
22 warming), the enhanced biosphere carbon sink in Maxforest reduces atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> by 84 ppm  
23 (656 GtCO<sub>2</sub>) relative to SSP3-7.0 by 2095 (32 ppm., 234 GtCO<sub>2</sub> at 2050), causing a negative  
24 RF<sub>CO<sub>2</sub></sub> (i.e. a cooling) of -660 mWm<sup>-2</sup> (-334 mWm<sup>-2</sup> at 2050) (Fig 3E). However, the climatic  
25 impact of the non-CO<sub>2</sub> changes (RF<sub>net</sub>) associated with the forestation negates 31±6% (at 2050)  
26 and 23±3% (at 2095) of this reduction (two-model mean with mean uncertainty), indicating that  
27 by 2095, Maxforest's forestation has only offset about 14% of SSP3-7.0's projected 420 ppm  
28 rise in CO<sub>2</sub>. This finding suggests that employing forestation up to the near biophysical limit is  
29 unlikely to reduce CO<sub>2</sub> to levels in line with Paris Agreement long-term temperature stabilisation  
30 targets when other climate change mitigation measures are not pursued in tandem.

31  
32 Under strong climate change mitigation SSP1-2.6 conditions (2°C warming), the  
33 additional CDR in Maxforest is lower, with 15 ppm (117 GtCO<sub>2</sub>) at 2050 and 31 ppm (227  
34 GtCO<sub>2</sub>) at 2095) (Fig 3E, S12) due to the lower atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and moderate reforestation in  
35 SSP1-2.6 itself (Fig 1A). However, RF<sub>net</sub> negates less of this additional CDR (18±12% at 2050;  
36 14±5% at 2095; two model mean with mean uncertainty) than is the case for SSP3-7.0, primarily  
37 due to smaller positive RF from surface albedo and methane changes. By 2095, Maxforest's  
38 forestation has offset 50% of the projected 52 ppm rise in CO<sub>2</sub> in SSP1-2.6 from 2015,  
39 suggesting that when implemented alongside GHG emission reductions, such forestation could  
40 contribute to a future where end-of-century CO<sub>2</sub> levels are close to 2015 levels; in contrast to  
41 SSP3-7.0.





1  
 2 **Fig. 3. BVOC emissions, radiative forcing from surface albedo ( $RF_{Alb}$ ) and aerosol scattering**  
 3 **( $RF_{Aer}$ ), global mean forcing and CDR differences.** Latitudinal changes between 4C\_SSP3 and  
 4 4C\_MF and 2C\_SSP1 and 2C\_MF (A) tree cover and (B) BVOC emissions, and (C) the sum of  
 5  $RF_{Alb}$  and  $RF_{Aer}$  at 2095 for 4C\_MF and 4C\_SSP3 and 2C\_MF and 2C\_SSP1 at 2095 (shading  
 6 shows standard error in the annual zonal mean). (D) Global mean of the non-CO<sub>2</sub> radiative forcing  
 7 ( $RF_{net}$ ) and individual RF components (surface albedo, aerosol scattering, CH<sub>4</sub> and O<sub>3</sub>), and (E)  
 8 forcing from CO<sub>2</sub> reduction from additional CDR in Maxforest relative to SSP3-7.0 and SSP1-2.6.  
 9 Bold values show equivalent change in CO<sub>2</sub> (ppm) (D) and simulated CO<sub>2</sub> change (ppm) (E). Error  
 10 bars in (D) show standard error in the mean.

11  
 12 We note that other mechanisms by which tree cover may affect atmospheric composition,  
 13 such as fire-related processes (20), ozone-induced damage (19) and changes in evapotranspiration  
 14 (26), could influence our study's outcomes. While the policy of adding trees where they can thrive  
 15 was central to the Maxforest scenario's development, certain forested areas may be at a higher risk  
 16 of wildfires. The exact response is uncertain given the range of drivers including changing  
 17 temperature and precipitation patterns and population density growth, a change in the vegetation  
 18 flammability (flammable grassland replaced by less flammable but longer burning trees), and  
 19 potential forest-driven changes to local moisture. Similarly, changes in surface ozone levels have  
 20 far-reaching implications for carbon uptake, potentially limiting the capacity for CO<sub>2</sub> removal (19).  
 21 Moreover, evaporative cooling could be important for surface temperatures in certain regions (27).  
 22 Our modelling setup is a trade-off that balances climate and earth system model parameterization  
 23 uncertainties while minimising the impact of the complexity of fully coupled interactions.

24  
 25

1 In conclusion, the changes to atmospheric composition from ozone, methane and aerosol  
2 scattering and surface albedo when forest cover is expanded to a near biophysical maximum  
3 have a net warming effect which offset up to a third of the CO<sub>2</sub> removal benefit (23-31% under  
4 SSP3-7.0 conditions and 14-18% in SSP1-2.6). However, the negative impact is reduced when  
5 forestation occurs alongside reduction of emissions of CO<sub>2</sub> and other pollutants. Our results  
6 indicate that for forestation to be an effective climate change mitigation strategy, integration with  
7 emissions reduction will be required to avoid driving indirect responses in the Earth system that  
8 would diminish its cooling potential.

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33

34

35 **Acknowledgments:.**

36 **Funding:**

37 UKRI Future Leaders Fellowship Programme awarded to MVM (MR/T019867/1)  
38 supporting JW and JAK.

1 High-performance computing support from Cheyenne (doi:10.5065/D6RX99HX) was  
2 provided by NCAR's Computational and Information Systems 650 Laboratory,  
3 sponsored by the National Science Foundation.

4 This work used Monsoon2, a collaborative high-performance computing facility funded  
5 by the Met Office and the Natural Environment Research Council. This work used  
6 JASMIN, the UK collaborative data analysis facility.

7 University of Cambridge ESS-DT (YMS).

8 NERC/IIASA Collaborative Research Fellowship awarded to CJS (NE/T009381/1).

9 We gratefully acknowledge funding from the Leverhulme Trust, (Leverhulme Research  
10 Centre grant RC-2015-029, DJB).

11 We thank Prof. Colin Osborne and Prof. Dave Edwards for their comments and advice on  
12 the manuscript.  
13

#### 14 **Author contributions:**

15 Conceptualization: JW, JK, MVM, DJB, SR

16 Methodology: JW, JK, MVM, NLA, YMS, CJS, PL, SR

17 Investigation: JW, JK, DPG

18 Visualization: JW, JK, MVM, DJB

19 Funding acquisition: MVM

20 Project administration: MVM

21 Supervision: MVM

22 Writing – original draft: JW

23 Writing – review & editing: JW, MVM, DJB, JK, SR

#### 24 **Competing interests:**

25 DJB has a minority equity stake in Future Forest/Undo.

26 JAK sits on the advisory panel for Ecologi, an organisation which invests in ecosystem  
27 restoration projects.

28 All other authors declare that they have no competing interests.

#### 29 **Data and materials availability:**

30 Model data from UKESM1, CESM2 and CLM5 are available from the following  
31 repositories. All the data are freely available.

32 (28) LULC input data: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7657286>

33 (29) UKESM1 data: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7691836>

34 (30) CESM2 data: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7692341>

1 (31) CLM5 land carbon data: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7689779>

2 (32) Additional CESM and UKESM data and plotting code:  
3 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.8338308>

4 Input emissions from SSP3-7.0 and SSP1-2.6 are available from the input4MIPs repository  
5 (<https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/projects/input4mips/>) maintained by ESGF.

6 (33) Code for making the figures: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7851079>

7 The CESM2 code is freely available online and can be downloaded at  
8 <https://www.cesm.ucar.edu/cesm2> (last accessed 1<sup>st</sup> August 2023). Due to intellectual  
9 property right restrictions, we cannot provide either the source code or documentation  
10 papers for the Unified Model/UKESM. The Met Office Unified Model/UKESM is available  
11 for use under licence. For further information on how to apply for a licence, see  
12 <https://www.metoffice.gov.uk/research/approach/modelling-systems/unified-model> (last  
13 accessed 1st August 2023). Suite numbers for the runs are listed in the README which  
14 accompanies the UKESM1 data repository on Zenodo.

15

## 16 **Supplementary Materials**

17 Materials and Methods

18 Figs. S1 to S12

19 Tables S1 to S2

20 References (34-59)

21



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2

**Table 1.** Modelling Experiments in UKESM1 and CESM2.

<b>Simulations<sup>a</sup></b>	<b>Land Surface Cover (forest cover change at 2095 relative to 2015)</b>	<b>Simulation Conditions<sup>b</sup></b>	<b>ΔGlobal Tree Cover (MF - SSP) at 2050 (2095)</b>	<b>ΔBVOC Emissions (MF - SSP) at 2050 (2095)<sup>c</sup></b>
4C_SSP3	SSP3 (deforestation, -290 Mha)	SSP3-7.0 (High warming up to 4°C, small air pollution decrease)	15% (26%)	17-19% (32-38%)
4C_MF	Maxforest (extensive forestation, +750 Mha)			
2C_SSP1	SSP1 (forestation, +300 Mha)	SSP1-2.6 (Low warming up to 2°C, large air pollution decrease)	6% (10%)	8% (11-13%)
2C_MF	Maxforest (extensive forestation, +750 Mha)			

3 <sup>a</sup>Simulations performed at 2050 and 2095  
 4 <sup>b</sup>Well-mixed GHGs, anthropogenic and biomass burning emissions, and sea-surface temperatures.  
 5 <sup>c</sup>Range shows model variation.  
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