

Plant regrowth as a driver of recent enhancement of terrestrial CO₂ uptake

Running Title: CO₂ uptake by plant regrowth

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36 **Key Points**

37

38 Main point #1: The recent enhancement of CO₂ uptake by the land cannot be explained without a
39 contribution from plant regrowth from past land use changes.

40

41 Main point #2: Ecosystems induce a strong tendency toward a net sink for the past 50 years when the
42 effect of land use changes is taken into account.

43

44 Main point #3: North America, Europe, and temperate Eurasia account for 94% of the global total CO₂
45 uptake enhancement by plant regrowth.

46 **Abstract**

47 The increasing strength of land CO₂ uptake in the 2000s has been attributed to a stimulating
48 effect of rising atmospheric CO₂ on photosynthesis (CO₂ fertilization). Using terrestrial biosphere
49 models, we show that enhanced CO₂ uptake is induced not only by CO₂ fertilization, but also an
50 increasing uptake by plant regrowth (accounting for 0.33±0.10 Pg C yr⁻¹ increase of CO₂ uptake in the
51 2000s compared with the 1960s–1990s) with its effect most pronounced in eastern North America,
52 southern-eastern Europe, and southeastern temperate Eurasia. Our analysis indicates that ecosystems in
53 North America and Europe have established the current productive state through regrowth since the
54 1960s, and those in temperate Eurasia are still in a stage from regrowth following active afforestation in
55 the 1980s–1990s. As the strength of model representation of CO₂ fertilization is still in debate, plant
56 regrowth might have a greater potential to sequester carbon than indicated by this study.

57

58 *Keywords:* carbon budget, plant regrowth, CO₂ fertilization, land use change, biosphere model

59 **1. Introduction**

60 CO₂ accumulates in the atmosphere as a result of greater anthropogenic emissions due to fossil
61 fuel consumption and cement production compared to the net uptake by the land and ocean (Le Quéré et
62 al., 2016). Although atmospheric CO₂ has been consistently increasing from the industrial era, the
63 airborne fraction has declined from the early 2000s because of an enhancement in CO₂ uptake by the
64 land and ocean (Keenan et al., 2016; Sarmiento et al., 2010), which has doubled during the past 50 years
65 and is predicted to remain strong hereafter (Ballantyne et al., 2012). Mechanisms behind the enhanced
66 CO₂ uptake involve physiological and biogeochemical processes on both the land and ocean (Ballantyne
67 et al., 2017; DeVries et al., 2017; Keeling et al., 2017; Keenan et al., 2016; Sarmiento et al., 2010), but
68 the land is of primary importance because it has a larger control on the interannual growth rate of
69 atmospheric CO₂ (Cox et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2013), and is thus believed to be more responsible for
70 the recent slowing down of surface warming (Fyfe et al., 2016; Shevliakova et al., 2013).

71 Growing evidence suggests that the enhancement of CO₂ uptake by the land is primarily due to
72 the effect of CO₂ fertilization (Fisher et al., 2013; Keenan et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2014), which has led to
73 a greening of a large fraction of the terrestrial biosphere (Zhu et al., 2016) and compensated for large
74 CO₂ emissions resulting from tropical land use (Schimel et al., 2015). An experiment with an Earth
75 system model suggests that the observed rise of ~115 ppm in atmospheric CO₂ since the preindustrial
76 era might have been higher by ~85 ppm without the effect of CO₂ fertilization (Shevliakova et al.,
77 2013), implying a large contribution of CO₂ fertilization to net CO₂ flux (balance between CO₂ uptake
78 and release by the terrestrial biosphere). However, it is still arguable whether the CO₂ fertilization is a
79 dominant cause for the recent enhancement of CO₂ uptake because, in addition to the level of
80 atmospheric CO₂, the terrestrial biosphere has undergone historical changes through land use and
81 management (Erb et al., 2013, 2018). CO₂ emissions resulting from land use change (LUC) activities

82 account for ~9% of the total global anthropogenic CO₂ emissions (Le Quéré et al., 2016), therefore
83 changes in LUC could affect the course of the net sink-source pattern of CO₂ over time. The recent
84 declining trend in global LUC activities (Houghton & Nassikas, 2017) implies likely reductions in CO₂
85 release from land use and land cover change (LUC emissions, hereafter) and increases in uptake by
86 plants recovering from past LUC (regrowth flux, hereafter). Pacala et al. (2001) demonstrated that forest
87 regrowth in the eastern US accounted for much of the land uptake in the region during the 1980s, thus
88 identifying regrowth as a potentially globally significant flux. However, quantification of such changes
89 over the recent period has not been fully addressed before and contribution of LUC fluxes to the recent
90 terrestrial CO₂ uptake is not clearly understood. Neglecting contributions from LUC fluxes would lead
91 to incomplete understanding of processes involved in the climate-carbon cycle feedback and future
92 pathways to climate change mitigation.

93 For a better understanding of mechanisms behind the recent enhancement of land CO₂ uptake,
94 we investigate global and regional patterns of relative contributions to net CO₂ uptake through an
95 attribution study using an ensemble of biosphere models from TRENDY, in conjunction with
96 independent net CO₂ flux estimates that are estimated to be optimally consistent with atmospheric CO₂
97 measurements (atmospheric CO₂ inversion) and CO₂ growth rate (a residual land uptake from Global
98 Carbon Project: GCP). Through the evaluation of the relative contributions (i.e., CO₂ fertilization effect,
99 climate effect, LUC emissions, and regrowth flux) to the past and current CO₂ uptake, we address the
100 role of historical LUC in the recent uptake enhancement.

101

102 **2. Methods**

103 **2.1. Sign convention for net CO₂ flux**

104 In this analysis, we chose the sign convention for net CO₂ flux that is commonly used in top-
105 down analyses: the negative sign (–) for a net sink to the land and the positive sign (+) for a net source to
106 the atmosphere. This sign convention is used for all components of this study and thus applied to terms
107 for CO₂ exchange such as Net Biome Production (NBP) and Net Ecosystem Production (NEP). It should
108 be noted that this convention is opposite to the one commonly used in bottom-up analyses (Chapin et al.,
109 2006).

110

111 **2.2. Terrestrial biosphere models**

112 **2.2.1. TRENDY models**

113 Simulations of the biosphere models used in this study are from the TRENDY v2 (Sitch et al.,
114 2015; Zhao et al., 2016). The TRENDY models were run with a consistent forcing dataset: (1)
115 atmospheric CO₂ mixing ratio for 1860–2012 based on ice-core measurements and station observations,
116 (2) climate dataset for 1901–2012 based on a merging between Climate Research Unit (CRU) TS3.2
117 0.5° × 0.5° monthly climate data (Harris et al., 2014) and National Centers for Environmental Prediction
118 (NCEP) and National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) Reanalysis 2.5° × 2.5° 6-hourly
119 climate data (Kistler et al., 2001), and (3) 0.5° × 0.5° gridded annual LUC dataset for 1860–2012. The
120 TRENDY models were run following a common protocol: simulation that considers variability in
121 atmospheric CO₂ only (S1); simulation that considers variability in CO₂ and climate (S2); and
122 simulation that considers variability in CO₂, climate, and historical LUC (S3). For each simulation, the
123 models were first spun-up to an equilibrium state of carbon balance forced with the 1860 CO₂ mixing
124 ratio (287.14 ppm), recycling climate mean and variability from the early decades of the 20th century
125 (i.e., 1901–1920), and using constant 1860 crop and pasture distribution. S1, S2, and S3 simulations
126 were then conducted for a transient period 1861–2012 after initialization from these spin-up runs.

127

128 **2.2.2. Attributions to net CO₂ flux**

129 Attributions to net CO₂ flux were extracted by separating flux signals in the simulations S1, S2,
130 and S3 (Table 1). NBP of the S3 (forced with varying CO₂, climate, and LUC) represents a best estimate
131 of the actual net CO₂ flux of the terrestrial biosphere. NBP from the S1 and S2 simulations represent
132 partial contributions to net CO₂ flux, representing the CO₂ (fertilization) effect and CO₂+climate effects
133 on net CO₂ flux, respectively. The climate effect was extracted by subtracting NBP of the S1 from that
134 of the S2; their difference leaves out the effect of CO₂ fertilization, and only the effect of climate
135 remains (Table 1).

136 Net LUC flux (a partial contribution to net CO₂ flux associated with LUC) was extracted by
137 subtracting NBP of the S2 from that of the S3; their difference leaves out the effects of CO₂ fertilization
138 and climate, and only the effect of LUC remains (to be precise, residuals of the CO₂ and climate effects
139 remain due to changing land cover types). Further, we decomposed net LUC flux into regrowth flux and
140 LUC emissions. Regrowth flux represents the post LUC effect on ecosystem CO₂ exchange (i.e., NEP);
141 thus, it was extracted by subtracting NEP of the S2 from that of the S3 (NEP differs from NBP by
142 excluding disturbance fluxes from fire and LUC). The rest of net LUC flux components (i.e., emissions
143 from removed wood products) were defined as LUC emissions, which was estimated by subtracting
144 regrowth flux from net LUC flux (Table 1).

145

146 **2.2.3. Land use change forcing**

147 The LUC forcing for the TRENDY models provides gridded information of land cover changes
148 between cropland, pastureland, and primary and secondary lands, based on the U.N. Food and
149 Agricultural Organization (FAO) national statistics. The initial land cover changes (annual transitions of

150 cropland and pastureland at the spatial resolution of 5') were calculated using allocation algorithms and
151 time-dependent weighting maps based on global historical population density, soil suitability, distance to
152 rivers, lakes, slopes, and biome distributions (HistorY Database of the Global Environment: HYDE
153 v3.1; Klein Goldewijk et al., 2011). The LUH v1, an extended version of HYDE, then combined the
154 HYDE cropland and pastureland status with the wood harvest information from the FAO national
155 statistics with an empirically estimated biomass density map produced at the spatial resolution of 0.5°
156 (Hurtt et al., 2011). The LUH v1 provides the full annual transition matrix of primary and secondary
157 lands in addition to those of cropland and pastureland.

158 The implementation of the LUC forcing was left to the discretion of each TRENDY modeling
159 group because of differences in fundamental assumptions and levels of complexity in LUC modeling,
160 for instance, distinction of primary and secondary lands, implementation of wood and crop harvests,
161 consideration of residue carbon after deforestation, and turnover rates of a product pool (Table S1; more
162 details shown in Le Quéré et al., 2015). Despite these differences in LUC schemes, land cover changes
163 predefined by the LUC forcing data ensure relatively consistent forest area changes among the
164 TRENDY models (minor differences occur, e.g. due to dynamic vegetation).

165

166 **2.3. Independent estimates of net CO₂ flux**

167 **2.3.1. Atmospheric CO₂ inversions**

168 Atmospheric CO₂ inversions estimate net land-atmosphere CO₂ flux from the continuous and
169 discrete atmospheric CO₂ measurements from global networks, e.g., NOAA Earth System Research
170 Laboratory (NOAA/ESRL: <https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/trends/full.html>), World Data Centre
171 for Greenhouse Gases (WDCGG: <http://ds.data.jma.go.jp/gmd/wdcgg/wdcgg.html>), and Comprehensive
172 Observation Network for TRace gases by AIrLiner (CONTRAIL: <http://www.cger.nies.go.jp/contrail/>),

173 and the prior fluxes (information on land and ocean fluxes, fire emissions, and anthropogenic CO₂
174 emissions). In this study, an ensemble of six atmospheric CO₂ inversions was used for validation of the
175 biosphere models providing quasi-independent data for net CO₂ flux. Outputs of four inversions are
176 from Thompson et al. (2016): ACTM v5.7b (Saeki & Patra, 2017), CCAM (Rayner et al., 2008), JMA-
177 CDTM (Maki et al., 2010), and MACC v14r2 (Chevallier et al., 2010). Two others are from Peylin et al.
178 (2013): JENA s81 v3.8 (Rödenbeck et al., 2003) and NICAM-TM (Niwa et al., 2012). A choice of CO₂
179 measurements and prior fluxes for each inversion system was left to the discretion of modeling groups,
180 as well as spatial resolution and time period of inverted fluxes. Details of a transport model, prior fluxes,
181 and CO₂ measurement data for these inversions are described in Thompson et al. (2016) and Peylin et al.
182 (2013), and corresponding literature for each inversion. Using data from the six atmospheric CO₂
183 inversions, net CO₂ flux for the period 1980–2009 was estimated by an ensemble average for
184 overlapping time periods (ACTM covers the period for 1990–2011; JENA and MACC for 1980–2014;
185 CCAM for 1993–2012; JMA for 1985–2012; NICAM-TM for 1988–2007).

186

187 **2.3.2. Residual method**

188 The residual method from GCP (Le Quéré et al., 2015, 2016) provides the global annual budget
189 of land CO₂ uptake calculated as the difference of the other terms of the global carbon budget such as
190 the CO₂ growth rate (NOAA/ESRL), fossil fuel emissions from Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis
191 Center (CDIAC: <http://cdiac.ess-dive.lbl.gov/>) and United Nations Framework Convention on Climate
192 Change (UNFCCC: http://unfccc.int/ghg_data/items/3800.php), net ocean flux from ocean
193 biogeochemistry models, and net LUC flux from the book-keeping model (Giglio et al., 2013; Houghton
194 et al., 2012), i.e. land flux = CO₂ growth rate – fossil fuel emissions – ocean flux – net LUC flux. The
195 land uptake calculated in the above-mentioned method does not account for the effect of LUC (that is

196 provided by the land use change book-keeping model); thus, it represents an attribution from the CO₂
197 and climate effects on net CO₂ flux (broadly comparable to NBP of the TRENDY S2 simulations). Net
198 CO₂ flux of GCP was estimated as a sum of the residual land uptake and net LUC flux from the book-
199 keeping model, i.e., land flux + net LUC flux (comparable to the atmospheric CO₂ inversions and NBP
200 from TRENDY S3 simulations). These land uptake estimates are referred to as GCP, hereafter.

201

202 **2.4. Screening of biosphere models**

203 In this study, we evaluate the relative contributions in terms of the difference between mean
204 annual CO₂ fluxes for the 2000s and 1960s–1990s (termed ΔF), for the key components to net CO₂ flux
205 (Table 1): climatological components (CO₂ fertilization effect, climate effect, and their net effect termed
206 CO₂+climate effect) and LUC components (LUC emissions, regrowth flux, and their net flux termed net
207 LUC flux). As ΔF is the key variable of the analysis, accurate simulations of CO₂ budgets for the 2000s
208 and 1960s–1990s are required. Therefore, we examined the degree of agreement between the
209 independent estimates of net CO₂ flux (GCP and atmospheric CO₂ inversions) and the eight biosphere
210 models of TRENDY: the Community Land Model v4.5: CLM (Lawrence et al., 2011), Integrated
211 Science Assessment Model: ISAM (Jain et al., 2013), Joint UK Land Environment Simulator v3.2:
212 JULES (Clark et al., 2011), Lund-Potsdam-Jena DGVM wsl: LPJ (Sitch et al., 2003), LPJ-GUESS
213 (Smith et al., 2001), LPX (Stocker et al., 2014), ORCHIDEE-CN: O-CN (Zaehle and Friend, 2010), and
214 Vegetation Integrative Simulator for Trace gases: VISIT (Ito, 2010).

215 For the period 1960–2012, all the TRENDY models were relatively consistent in patterns of
216 interannual variability (IAV) and trends of global net CO₂ flux with respect to the GCP and atmospheric
217 CO₂ inversions, but for some the consistency was particularly notable (Fig. S1). To quantify the level of
218 consistency, we examined a residual sum of squares (RSS) between the TRENDY models and GCP for

219 the periods 1960–2012 and 2000–2012 (Fig. S2). Four models (CLM, JULES, O-CN, and VISIT)
220 yielded a substantially lower RSS than the others for both time periods, and an ensemble of the four
221 models resulted in highly consistent IAV in net CO₂ flux with respect to the GCP ($r = 0.70, p < 0.01$) and
222 atmospheric CO₂ inversions ($r = 0.75, p < 0.01$) (Fig. S3).

223 We cross-checked mean annual CO₂ budgets (from S3 NBP and S2 NBP) for the 2000s and
224 1960s–1990s between the biosphere models with lower RSS and others (Fig. S4). Decadal CO₂ budgets
225 by an ensemble of the four models with lower RSS were consistent with the GCP and atmospheric CO₂
226 inversions, whereas an ensemble of the other models yielded a weaker sink compared with the
227 independent estimates. Based on these evaluations, we selected the four models, CLM, JULES, O-CN,
228 and VISIT, for the following analysis.

229

230 **3. Results**

231 **3.1. Increasing CO₂ uptake and contribution of regrowth flux**

232 The biosphere models of this analysis (the four models evaluated against the GCP and
233 atmospheric CO₂ inversions) support the recent increase in CO₂ uptake by the terrestrial biosphere (Fig.
234 1a). Decadal variability in global net CO₂ flux by the ensemble of the biosphere models (S3 NBP)
235 indicates a tendency toward a net source during the 1910s–1950s and a transition toward a net sink
236 during the 1960s–2000s (Fig. 1a and Fig. S5). The transition from a net source to a net sink in the 1960s
237 is in line with that simulated by an Earth system model (Shevliakova et al., 2013). The increasing CO₂
238 uptake since the 1960s results in the 2000s displaying a larger decadal CO₂ uptake than at any time
239 during the preceding century, -1.52 ± 0.31 Pg C yr⁻¹ (average $\pm 1\sigma$ as model-by-model variability).

240 We found that both climatological and LUC components ($\Delta F_{\text{CO}_2+\text{clim}}$ and ΔF_{LUC} , respectively:
241 Table 1) contributed to the recent enhancement of global CO₂ uptake (indicated by ΔF_{net}), which

242 amounted to -1.27 ± 0.34 Pg C yr⁻¹ (Fig. 1b). Components of net CO₂ flux by the GCP agree with the
243 pattern of relative contributions by the biosphere models (Fig. 1b; see Fig. S6 for individual biosphere
244 model results). Examining the individual relative contributions further, we found that despite its large
245 contribution, the CO₂ fertilization effect (ΔF_{CO_2}) does not fully explain the recent enhancement in CO₂
246 uptake. A relative contribution from ΔF_{CO_2} to ΔF_{net} , -1.11 ± 0.25 Pg C yr⁻¹, is reduced to -0.92 ± 0.29 Pg C
247 yr⁻¹ when combined with climate effect (ΔF_{clim}), which induced a shift towards a net source in the 2000s
248 (Fig. 1b and S6). Importantly, the remainder of ΔF_{net} is accounted for by the net LUC flux (ΔF_{LUC}), -
249 0.37 ± 0.21 Pg C yr⁻¹, of which regrowth flux (ΔF_{reg}) is the primary constituent at -0.33 ± 0.10 Pg C yr⁻¹.
250 The pattern of the relative contribution from ΔF_{reg} is considered robust because the ratio of ΔF_{reg} to ΔF_{net}
251 is consistent between the individual biosphere models with a range of 23–30% (Fig. 1c), and is
252 accompanied by a consistent trend toward a net sink throughout the past 50 years (-0.01 Pg C yr⁻², $p <$
253 0.01 by Mann-Kendall test; Fig. 1d). As a result, regrowth flux appears to have mitigated the increasing
254 trend of LUC emissions during the 1960s–1990s, and further facilitated the decreasing trend in LUC
255 emissions during the 1990s–2000s (Fig. 1d).

256

257 **3.2. Spatial pattern and hotspots of the uptake enhancement by plant regrowth**

258 A closer look at regional patterns of the relative contributions reveals a clear distinction in
259 locations responsible for the uptake enhancement between the climatological and LUC components. As
260 illustrated in the spatial distribution of ΔF_{net} , the uptake enhancement has occurred over large
261 proportions of vegetated area across the globe (Fig. 2a), but with substantial regional variations (the
262 regional classification is shown in Fig. S7). The contribution from $\Delta F_{\text{CO}_2+\text{climate}}$ was widespread from
263 boreal Eurasia to tropical regions such as coastal regions of South America, central Africa, and tropical
264 Asia (Fig. 2b). In contrast, the contribution from ΔF_{LUC} was concentrated in three particular regions: an

265 eastern part of North America, southern and eastern parts of Europe (including European Russia), and a
266 southeastern part of Temperate Eurasia (hereafter, hot-spots in ΔF_{LUC} : Fig. 2c). It is important to note
267 that these hot-spots in ΔF_{LUC} largely coincide with locations where a large contribution from ΔF_{reg} is
268 found (especially in North America and Europe; Fig. S8), and these patterns are consistent between the
269 biosphere models (Figs. S9 and S10). The three regions characterized by large ΔF_{reg} accounted for 94%
270 of the global total (Table S2), with the largest contribution from North America ($-0.17 \pm 0.03 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$).
271 In North America, we found that a large fraction of ΔF_{CO_2} ($-0.21 \pm 0.04 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$) was cancelled by
272 $\Delta F_{climate}$ ($0.13 \pm 0.08 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$), which clearly demonstrates that the enhanced uptake indicated by ΔF_{net} ($-$
273 $0.24 \pm 0.06 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$) cannot be explained without the contribution from regrowth flux during the 2000s
274 (Table S2).

275 Focusing on the hot-spots in ΔF_{LUC} (colored grid cells in Figure 3), we found that IAVs in net
276 LUC flux and NEP in the North American and European hot-spots have a similar tendency toward a net
277 sink for the past 50 years when the effect of land use and land over changes is taken into account for
278 NEP, i.e. S3 NEP (Fig. 3a, b). Zonally-averaged fluxes indicate that the shift from a net source to net
279 sink in net LUC flux between the 1960s and 2000s in Europe and North America corresponds closely to
280 the emergence of a strong regrowth sink in those locations over this time (Fig. 3d, e). Contrary to North
281 America and Europe, the hot-spot in temperate Eurasia indicates a relatively less uptake from regrowth
282 flux during the 2000s (Fig. 3c, 3f), suggesting that a decrease in LUC emissions is the factor also
283 responsible for the change in net LUC flux (Fig. S8c, d).

284

285 **4. Discussion and conclusions**

286 Our approach for attribution of the net CO_2 flux revealed that both regrowth after LUC and
287 growth enhancement due to CO_2 fertilization are responsible for the recent enhancement of CO_2 uptake,

288 but the quantification of these effects still presents potential large uncertainties. A recent synthesis of
289 biosphere models argues that LUC emissions may previously have been underestimated, due to the
290 neglect, until very recently, of processes such as shifting cultivation, wood harvest and cropland
291 management (Arneth et al., 2017). Arneth et al. (2017) suggests that such an underestimation implies a
292 larger land CO₂ uptake than previously thought. Because of a large contribution to the net CO₂ balance
293 (Fig. 1), the CO₂ fertilization may be a strong candidate for this additional CO₂ uptake. However,
294 physiological evidences from long-term inventory (Clark et al., 2010) and carbon isotope measurements
295 (van der Sleen et al., 2015) criticize a strong CO₂ fertilization effect in tropics, posing a question on its
296 dominate role in the recent uptake enhancement.

297 Local studies support reliability of the hot-spots of plant regrowth found in this study. Regional
298 analyses of extensive forest inventory measurements have reported that a large fraction of the current
299 forest carbon stock accumulations in the eastern part of North America (specifically, the eastern US) and
300 European countries originates from the large-scale reforestation and afforestation during the post-war
301 period in the 1960s (Pacala et al., 2001; Ciais et al., 2008; Woodall et al., 2015). The LUC forcing used
302 for the biosphere models reflects these regional characteristics, indicating a decadal land conversion
303 with a substantial increase in secondary forests and the corresponding decrease in cropland between
304 1960 and 2000 (Figs. S11 and S12). This corroboration of historical LUC increases a confidence in the
305 modeled increase in CO₂ uptake due to plant regrowth during recent years, and the likely continuation of
306 forest conservation in US and European countries (Forest Europe, 2015; USDA Forest Service, 2016)
307 suggests a further increase in CO₂ uptake by plant regrowth in the future.

308 In addition to plant regrowth, the decrease in LUC emissions also contributed to the change in
309 net LUC flux in temperate Eurasia. However, this causality should be interpreted with caution. Large-
310 scale afforestation programs have been initiated in eastern China since the 1980s, which led to an

311 increase in forest area at 1.6 % per year over the 1990s–2000s (Piao et al., 2012; Peng et al., 2014).
312 Nevertheless, the LUC forcing for the biosphere models does not indicate any notable increase in
313 secondary forests during the past 50 years in this region, instead a large fraction of primary forests is
314 replaced by croplands and pastures (Figs. S11 and S12). This mismatch between the real event and LUC
315 forcing in temperate Eurasia might have caused an underestimation of CO₂ uptake in the absence of
316 regrowth of secondary forests, and it calls for an immediate improvement of the LUC forcing for this
317 region.

318 Although the biogeochemical effects of plant regrowth from historical land use and management
319 has likely moderated rates of present day climate change, the biophysical effect of land cover changes
320 may act in the opposite direction, especially on the local-regional scale (Alkama and Cescatti, 2016). For
321 example, in Europe, continuous afforestation from past has led to an increase in land CO₂ uptake, but
322 species change from broadleaf to needleleaf forests resulted in a regional increase of the summertime
323 temperature because of a decrease in evapotranspiration (Naudts et al., 2016). Thus, the net effect of
324 plant regrowth on climate is complex and scale-dependent, and further work is required integrating over
325 both biogeochemical and biophysical effects of plant regrowth at both regional and global scales. This
326 will require complementing the existing datasets that identify wood harvest and transitions between
327 forests, croplands, and pastures, with estimates of forest age, and tree species changes due to
328 management.

329

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342 inversion data are available by contacting Dr. Yosuke Niwa (niwa.yosuke@nies.go.jp or yniwa@mri-
343 jma.go.jp). Flux data of Global Carbon Project are available from the web site (<http://cdiac.ess->
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499 **Table 1.** Descriptions of flux terminologies and calculation methods.

500

Terminology	Calculation method ^{*†}	Description	Symbol for ΔF
Net CO ₂ flux (1+2)	S3 NBP	Net exchange of CO ₂ uptake and release between land and atmosphere, accounting the spatio-temporal variability in historical CO ₂ , climate, and LUC.	ΔF_{net}
1. CO₂+climate effect (1a+1b)	S2 NBP	Partial net exchange of CO ₂ accounting for spatio-temporal variability in historical CO ₂ , and climate.	$\Delta F_{\text{CO}_2+\text{climate}}$
1a. CO₂ effect	S1 NBP	Partial net exchange of CO ₂ accounting for spatio-temporal variability in historical CO ₂ only.	ΔF_{CO_2}
1b. Climate effect	S2 NBP – S1 NBP	Partial net exchange of CO ₂ accounting for spatio-temporal variability in historical climate only.	$\Delta F_{\text{climate}}$
2. Net LUC flux (2a+2b)	S3 NBP – S2 NBP	Partial net exchange of CO ₂ accounting for spatio-temporal variability in historical LUC only. This flux constitutes of CO ₂ uptake and release by LUC and plant regrowth.	ΔF_{LUC}
2a. LUC emissions	(S3 NBP – S2 NBP) – (S3 NEP – S2 NEP)	CO ₂ emissions from wood storages removed by LUC. It is the dominant component of gross LUC source.	ΔF_{LUCe}
2b. Regrowth flux	S3 NEP – S2 NEP	Exchange of CO ₂ uptake and release during the process of plant regrowth after LUC. This flux is the dominant component of gross LUC sink, but it also includes emissions from decomposition of woody residues (i.e., litters) remaining on sites.	ΔF_{reg}

501 *NBP: Net Biome Production (photosynthesis - autotrophic and heterotrophic respirations - natural disturbances - LUC emissions),

502 NEP: Net Ecosystem Productivity (photosynthesis - autotrophic and heterotrophic respirations)

503 †S3: simulation forced with varying CO₂, climate, and LUC, S2: simulation forced with varying CO₂ and climate, and S1: simulation

504 forced with varying CO₂.

505 **Figure 1. Increasing pattern of global CO₂ uptake and contributions of component fluxes.**

506 **a**, Decadal variability of global net CO₂ flux from the ensemble mean of the four TRENDY models: (S3
507 NBP: orange) for the 1910s–2000s, Global Carbon Project (GCP: grey) for the 1960s–2000s, and the
508 ensemble mean of the atmospheric CO₂ inversions (cyan) for the 1980s–2000s. Negative values in net
509 CO₂ flux represent a net sink, and positive values a net source. Error bars indicate 1σ variations among
510 models. A top-right panel shows correlation coefficients (*r*) between interannual variability of the three
511 net CO₂ flux estimates for the overlapping periods (1980–2009 for the TRENDY and atmospheric CO₂
512 inversions; 1960–2009 for the TRENDY and GCP, and 1980–2009 for the atmospheric CO₂ inversions
513 and GCP) and statistical significance is indicated by ** (*p* < 0.01). A middle panel shows mean annual
514 CO₂ budgets of attributing factors to net CO₂ flux (CO₂ effect, climate effect, and net LUC flux) for the
515 periods 1910–1959 and 1960–2009. **b**, Changes of global CO₂ uptake in the 2000s with respect to that
516 during the 1960s–1999s (indicated by ΔF: difference between mean annual CO₂ budget for 2000–2009
517 and that for 1960–1999). ΔF for net CO₂ flux and component fluxes (refer to Table 1 for descriptions of
518 component fluxes) by the TRENDY models (orange bars and coloured lines) are showed along with
519 estimates by the GCP (grey bars). Negative values in ΔF represent that CO₂ flux in the 2000s is more
520 toward a net sink than that in the 1960s–1990s, and positive values indicate the opposite. **c**, ΔF for net
521 CO₂ flux (open bars) and regrowth flux (green bars) from the individual TRENDY models (CLM,
522 JULES, O-CN, and VISIT) and their ensemble mean. **d**, Interannual variability of net LUC flux (red
523 line), LUC emissions (purple line), and regrowth flux (green line) by the TRENDY models in the form
524 of anomaly with a base period 1960–2009. For each flux, shading indicates 1σ variations among models.
525 Dashed lines are linear regressions on the data for 1960–1999 and 1990–2009 and statistical
526 significance is determined by Mann-Kendall test and indicated by ** (*p* < 0.01).

527

528 **Figure 2. Spatial patterns of ΔF for net CO₂ flux and component fluxes.**

529 Spatial variability in ΔF for **a**, net CO₂ flux (ΔF_{net}), **b**, CO₂+climate effect ($\Delta F_{\text{CO}_2+\text{climate}}$), and **c**, net LUC
530 flux (ΔF_{LUC}) by the ensemble mean of the TRENDY models. Along with spatial maps, regional budgets
531 of ΔF based on the RECCAP land classification (Figure S7) are shown for net CO₂ flux, CO₂ and
532 climate effects (ΔF_{CO_2} and $\Delta F_{\text{climate}}$, respectively), regrowth flux (ΔF_{reg}), and LUC emissions (ΔF_{LUCe}).
533 Negative values in ΔF represent that CO₂ flux in the 2000s is more toward a net sink than that in the
534 1960s–1990s, and positive values indicate the opposite.

535

536 **Figure 3. Temporal transition of regrowth flux in the three hot-spot regions of ΔF_{LUC} .**

537 Temporal variability (five-year averaged) of net LUC flux (red bar) and NEP with and without
538 considering variability in LUC (green and grey lines, respectively) for the three hot-spot regions of
539 ΔF_{LUC} , **a**, North America, **b**, Europe, and **c**, Temperate Eurasia. Error bars and shading indicate 1σ
540 variations among models. A spatial map in background is from Figure 2c and the three regional hot-
541 spots characterized by large negative ΔF_{LUC} are highlighted with different colours. Decadal changes in
542 longitudinal averaged net LUC flux (red gradient lines) and regrowth flux (green gradient lines) over the
543 three hot-spot regions, **d**, North America, **e**, Europe, and **f**, Temperate Eurasia. All results are from the
544 TRENDY models.

Figure 1.

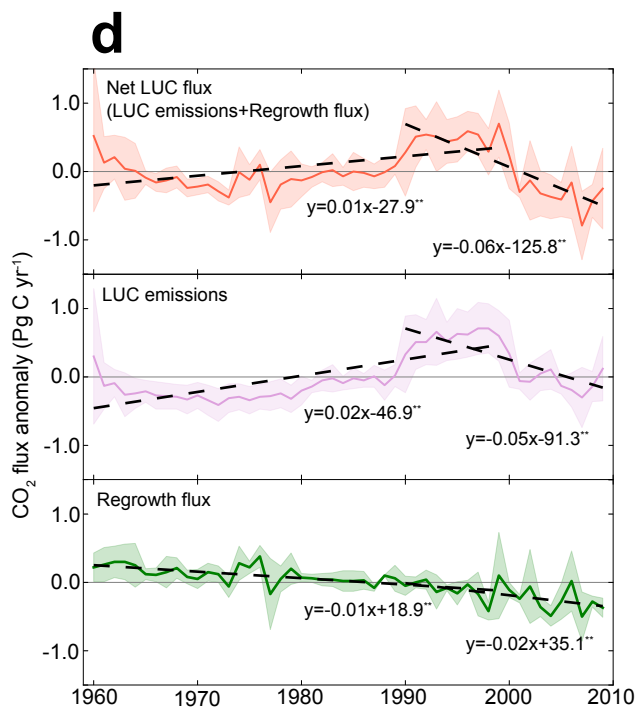
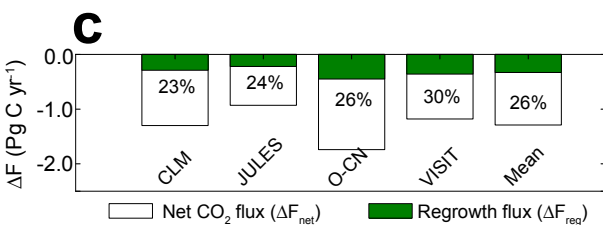
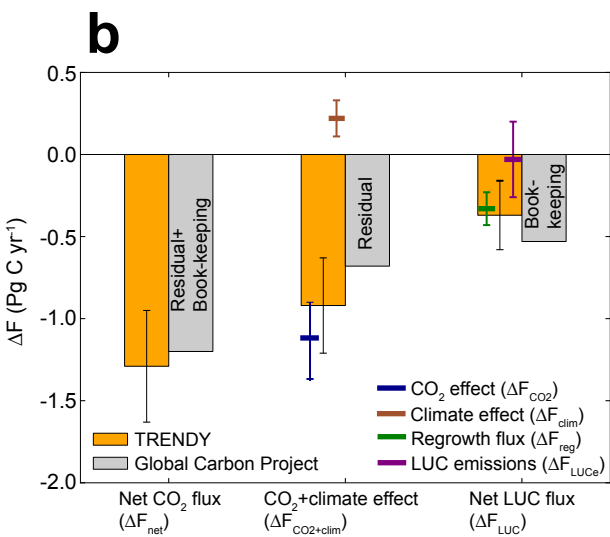
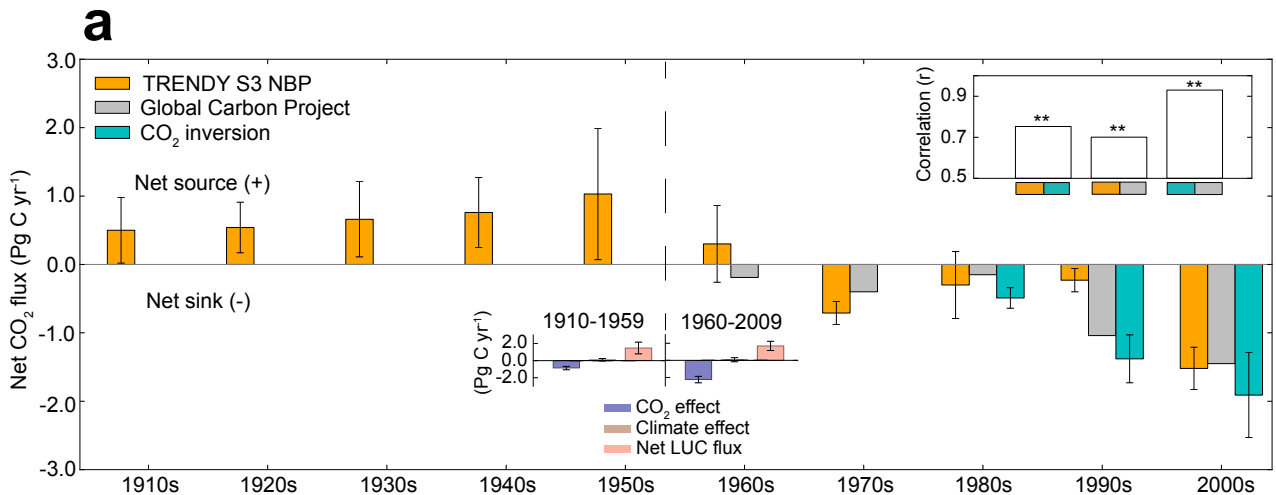
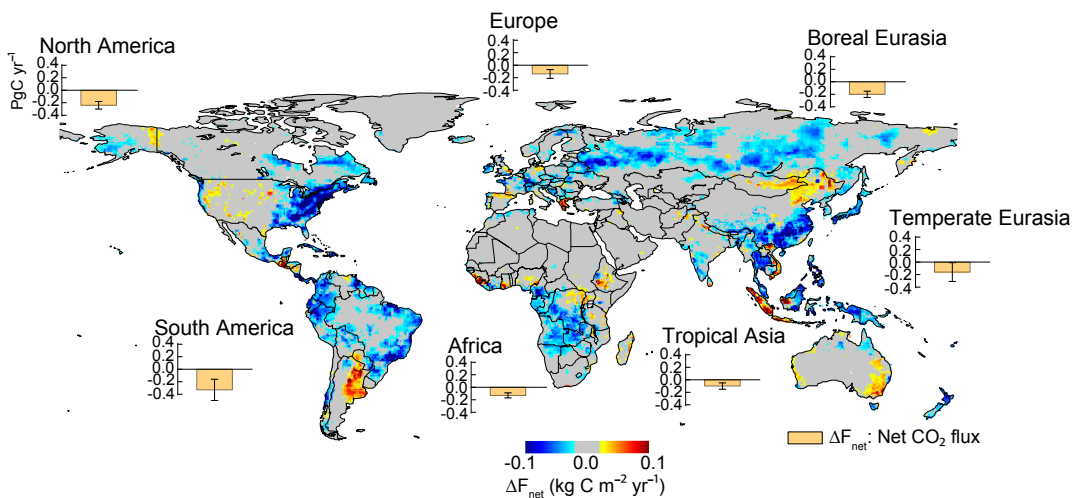
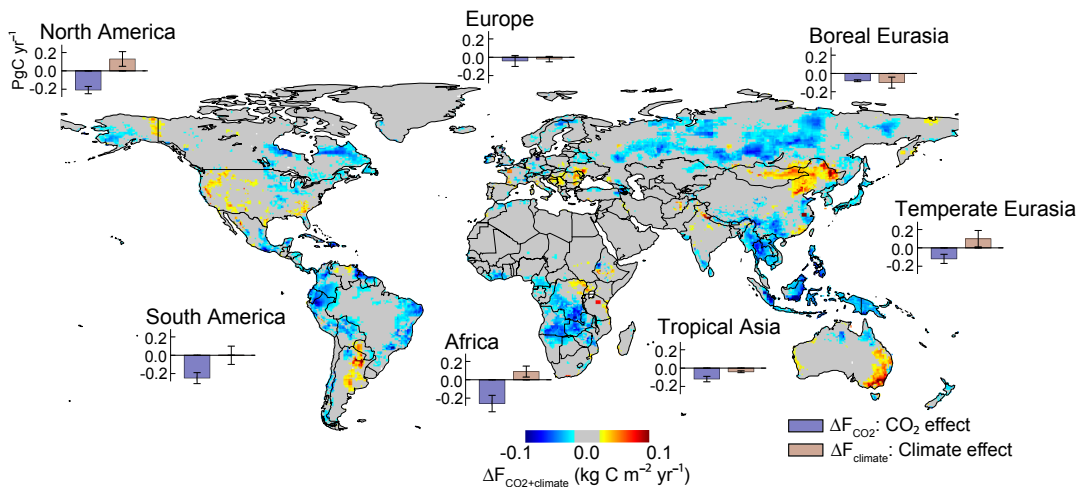


Figure 2.

aNet CO₂ flux**b**CO₂ + climate effect**c**

Net LUC flux

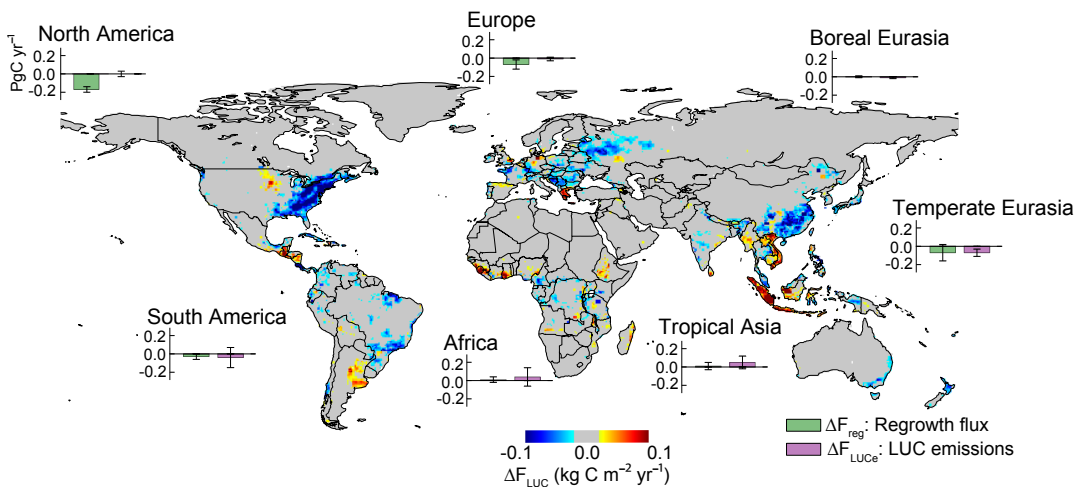


Figure 3.

