- Ecosystem carbon balance in the Hawaiian Islands under
- ² different scenarios of future climate and land use change
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${f Abstract}$

The State of Hawai'i passed legislation to be carbon neutral by 2045, a goal that partly depends on carbon sequestration by terrestrial ecosystems. However, there is considerable uncertainty surrounding the future direction and magnitude of the land carbon sink in the Hawaiian Islands. We used simulation modeling to assess how projected future changes in climate and land use will influence ecosystem carbon balance in the Hawaiian Islands under all combinations of two land-use scenarios (low and high) and two radiative forcing scenarios (RCPs 4.5 and 8.5) over a 90-year timespan from 2010-2100. Collectively, ecoystems of 25 the Hawaiian Islands acted as a net carbon sink under low radiative forcing throughout the 90-year simulation period, but carbon sink strength was greatest under the combination of 27 low radiative forcing and low land-use change. In contrast, Hawaiian terrestrial ecosystems 28 transitioned from a net sink to a net source of CO_2 to the atmosphere under high radia-29 tive forcing, with high land-use accelerating this transition and exacerbating net carbon loss. A sensitivity test of the CO₂ fertilization effect on plant productivity revealed it to 31 be a major source of uncertainty in projections of ecosystem carbon balance. Reconciling 32 this uncertainty in how net photosynthesis will respond to rising atmospheric CO_2 will be 33 essential to realistically constrain simulation models used to evaluate the effectiveness of ecosystem-based climate mitigation strategies. 35

36 Introduction

- $_{\rm 37}$ Terrestrial ecosystems are a major sink for atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO $_{\rm 2}),$ removing
- $\sim 30\%$ of human emissions on an annual basis (Friedlingstein et al 2019).
- 39 The main Hawaiian Islands are a complex mosaic of natural and human-dominated land-
- scapes overlain by steep climate gradients across relatively short distances.

$_{\scriptscriptstyle{41}}$ Methods

We used the Land Use and Carbon Scenario Simulator (LUCAS), an integrated landscape change and carbon gain-loss model, to project changes in ecosystem carbon balance for the seven main Hawaiian Islands under all combinations of two land-use scenarios (low and high) and two radiative forcing scenarios (RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5). We also developed a separate set of scenarios to test model sensitivity to different levels of a CO₂ fertilization effect (CFE). The landscape change portion of LUCAS is a state-and-transition model that applies a Monte Carlo approach to track the state type and age of each simulation cell in response to a predetermined set of transitions (Daniel et al 2016). The carbon gain-loss portion tracks carbon stocks within each simulation cell over time as continuous state variables, along with a predefined set of continuous flows specifying stock level rates of change over time (Daniel et al 2018, Sleeter et al 2019). We parameterized the Hawai'i LUCAS model to estimate annual changes in carbon stocks and fluxes in response to land use, land use change, wildland fire, and long-term climate variability for the time period 2010-2100.

55 Study area

The spatial extent of this study was the terrestrial portion of the seven main Hawaiian Islands (figure 1), a total land area of 16,554 km². We subdivided this landscape into a grid of 264,870 simulation cells, each of which was 250 x 250 m in size. Each simulation cell was assigned to one of 210 possible state types based on the unique combination of three moisture zones (dry, mesic, and wet; figure S1), seven islands, and ten discrete land cover classes (figure 1).

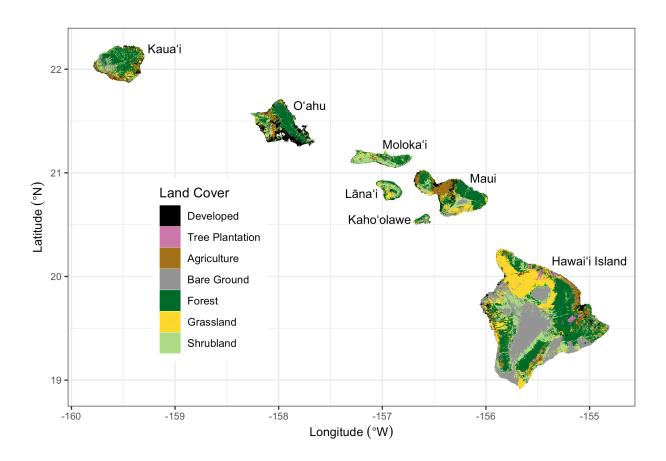


Figure 1: Land cover classification of the seven main Hawaiian Islands, adapted from Jacobi et al (2017). Agriculture in this map combines herbaceous and woody crops, but these two crop types are treated as separate land cover classes in the simulation model. Water and Wetland land cover classes are not shown.

$_{ m 62}$ States and transitions

We developed two land-use scenarios (low and high) with transition pathways modified from Daniel et al (2016). Transitions between state types were pre-defined to represent urbanization, agricultural contraction, agricultural expansion, harvesting of tree plantations, and wildfire. Agriculture, forest, grassland, tree plantation, and shrubland state types each had multiple transition pathways, while the barren state type could only transition to developed (i.e., urbanization). There was no transition pathway out of an urbanized (developed) state. Water and wetland state types remained static throughout the simulation period. Transition targets were based on historical trends of land use change in the Hawaiian Islands from 1992-2011 (NOAA 2020) and on population projections for the State of Hawai'i (Kim and Bai 2018). For the high land-use scenario, transition rates for each timestep and Monte Carlo realization were sampled from uniform distributions bounded by the median and maximum historical rates of agricultural contraction, agricultural expansion, and urbanization for each island. For the low land-use scenario, rates of agricultural contraction and expansion were sampled from uniform distributions bounded by zero and the minimum 76 historical rates for each island. Urbanization rates in the low land-use scenario were based on island-level population estimates and projections at five year intervals from 2010-2045 (Kim and Bai 2018). We converted population projections into urbanization transition targets following Sleeter et al (2017) by calculating population density for each island and then projecting future developed area based on the five-year incremental change in island population. 81 The spatial extent of agricultural contraction, agricultural expansion, and urbanization was constrained in both land-use scenarios based on existing zoning maps (Daniel et al 2016). Transition targets for tree plantation harvest were set at $\sim 75\%$ of recent historical rates in the high land-use scenario and $\sim 40\%$ of recent historical rates in the low land-use scenario (Daniel et al 2016). In both land-use scenarios, approximately 60% of tree plantation har-

vests were replacement harvests resulting in conversion to agriculture. The remaining 40%

were rotation harvests replanted to Eucalyptus spp.

The wildfire transition sub-model was modified from Daniel et al (2016) by incorporating a new 21-year historical wildfire spatial database of the Hawaiian Islands (figure S2). We used this new spatial database to calculate historical wildfire size distribution and ignition probabilities for each unique combination of moisture zone (figure S1), island, and state type (figure 1) for the years 1999-2019. Starting in 2020, the number and size of fires was randomly drawn from one of these historical year-sets for each timestep and Monte Carlo realization, using burn severity probabilities from Selmants et al (2017). Wildfire in the low land-use scenario was sampled from the subset of historical fire years at or below the median area burned statewide from 1999-2019. The high land-use scenario sampled from historical fire years above the median area burned over the same 21-year period (Fig. S2a).

99 Carbon stocks and flows

The fate of carbon stocks was tracked for each simulation cell based on a suite of carbon flows 100 (i.e., carbon fluxes) specifying the rates of change in these carbon stocks over time (Daniel 101 et al 2018, Sleeter et al 2019). We defined carbon stocks as continuous state variables for 102 each simulation cell, including live biomass, standing dead wood, down dead wood, litter, 103 and soil organic carbon. We also included and tracked carbon in atmospheric, aquatic, 104 and harvest product pools to enforce carbon mass balance (Daniel et al 2018). To transfer 105 carbon between stocks, we defined baseline carbon flows as continuous variables resulting 106 from growth, mortality, deadfall, woody decay, litter decomposition, and leaching (which 107 includes runoff). We also defined carbon flows resulting from land use, land use change, and 108 wildfire (Selmants et al 2017, Daniel et al 2018). 109

Initial carbon stocks and baseline carbon flows were estimated based on the moisture zone (figure S1), state type, and age of each simulation cell using a lookup table derived from the Integrated Biosphere Simulator (IBIS; Foley et al 1996, Liu et al 2020), a process-based

dynamic global vegetation model. We initiated IBIS with minimal vegetation and simulated forward for 110 years using 30-year climate normals for the Hawaiian Islands (Giambelluca et al 2013, 2014). We calibrated IBIS carbon stocks with statewide gridded datasets of soil organic carbon (Soil Survey Staff 2016) and forest aboveground live biomass (Asner et al 2016). We also calibrated gross photosynthesis in IBIS using a Hawai'i-specific gridded dataset derived from MODIS satellite imagery (Kimball et al 2017).

Carbon flow rates for each state type and moisture zone were estimated as the ratio of the IBIS-derived flux to the size of the originating carbon stock at each age (Sleeter et al 120 2018). A spatially explicit stationary growth multiplier was applied to each simulation cell 121 to reflect local variations in net primary productivity (NPP) driven by microclimate. This 122 spatial growth multiplier was the NPP anomaly for each cell relative to mean values for each 123 combination of state type and moisture zone (Sleeter et al 2019) calculated using empirical 124 relationships between total annual NPP and mean annual rainfall or temperature (Schuur 125 2003, Del Grosso et al 2008). Climate change impacts on carbon flows were represented by 126 temporal growth and decay multipliers applied to each simulation cell based on statistically 127 downscaled CMIP5 climate projections for the Hawaiian Islands under each of the two radia-128 tive forcing scenarios (RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5; Timm et al 2015, Timm 2017). The impact 129 of future changes in rainfall and temperature on NPP were represented by annual growth 130 multipliers calculated using empirical NPP models (Schuur 2003, Del Grosso et al 2008) 131 and climate model projections of temperature and rainfall for each radiative forcing scenario. 132 The effect of future warming on turnover rates of dead organic matter were represented by 133 temporal decay multipliers calculated using Q10 functions and climate model temperature projections for each radiative forcing scenario. We applied a Q10 of 2.0 for wood and soil organic matter decay flows (Kurz et al 2009, Sleeter et al 2019) and a Q10 of 2.17 for litter decay flows (Bothwell et al 2014). Transition-triggered carbon flows resulting from distur-137 bances associated with land use change, timber harvesting, and wildfire were based on values 138 from Don et al (2011), Selmants et al (2017), and Daniel et al (2018). 139

$CO_2 \ fertilization \ effect$

Increasing atmospheric CO₂ concentrations stimulate leaf-level photosynthesis, potentially 141 increasing NPP as well (Walker et al 2020). However, the magnitude and persistence of this effect is highly uncertain, particularly across a range of climatic conditions and over long time spans (Walker et al 2020). Following Sleeter et al (2019), we developed a separate set of scenarios designed to test the sensitivity of LUCAS model ecosystem carbon balance 145 projections to different rates of a CO₂ fertilization effect (CFE). We incorporated a CFE multiplier for NPP that represented the percent increase in NPP for every 100 ppm increase 147 in atmospheric CO_2 concentration under the high land use and high radiative forcing (RCP 148 8.5) scenario. We tested five CFE levels ranging from 5% to 15%, which is within the range 149 of CFEs observed in free air CO_2 enrichment (FACE) experiments. For all levels, we assumed 150 CFEs reached saturation at an atmospheric CO₂ concentration of 600 ppm, with no further 151 stimulation of NPP despite a continued increase in CO₂ concentration to 930 ppm by 2100. 152 This 600ppm threshold generally coincides with the upper limit from FACE experiments and 153 is reached by the year 2060 under RCP 8.5. 154

155 Scenario simulations and analysis

Each of the four unique scenarios were run for 90 years at an annual timestep and repeated 156 for 30 Monte Carlo realizations, using initial conditions corresponding to the year 2010. All 157 simulations were performed within the SyncroSim (version 2.2.4) software framework with 158 ST-Sim (version 3.2.13) and SF (version 3.2.10) add-on modules (Daniel et al 2016, 2018). 159 Model inputs and outputs were prepared with the R statistical computing platform (R Core 160 Team 2019) using the tidyverse (Wickham et al 2019), raster (Hijmans 2020), and rsyncrosim 161 (Daniel et al 2020) packages. Carbon stocks and fluxes for the seven main Hawaiian Islands 162 were calculated for each scenario by summing within each Monte Carlo realization on an 163 annual basis and then calculating annual means as well as the annual upper and lower limits

of the 30 Monte Carlo realizations. Carbon balance for the seven main Hawaiian Islands was calculated on annual basis for each scenario and Monte Carlo realization as net biome 166 productivity (NBP), which was equal to annual carbon input in the form of NPP minus 167 the annual sum of all carbon losses from terrestrial ecosystems, including heterotrophic 168 respiration (R_h) from litter and soil, carbon fluxes to the atmosphere triggered by land use 169 and land-use change, wildfire emissions, and aquatic carbon losses through leaching and 170 overland flow. Positive NBP values indicated ecosystems of the seven main Hawaiian Islands 171 were acting as a net sink for atmospheric CO₂, while negative NBP values indicated that 172 these ecosystems were acting as a net carbon source to the atmosphere (Chapin et al 2006). 173

174 Results

175 Carbon stocks and fluxes

Terrestrial ecosystems of the seven main Hawaiian Islands stored an estimated 316 Tg of 176 carbon at the beginning of the simulation period in 2010, with 58% in soil organic matter, 177 22% in living biomass, and 20% in surface dead organic matter (litter and dead wood; 178 figure 2a). Ecosystems accumulated carbon in all scenarios but at different rates, with 179 trajectories shaped primarily by climate change and to a lesser extent by land-use change. 180 The highest and most consistent projected accumulation of ecosystem carbon occurred under 181 the combination of low radiative forcing and low land use change, yielding a ~15\% increase 182 in ecosystem carbon to an average of 363 Tg by 2100 (figure 2a). In contrast, high radiative 183 forcing and high land use change resulted in the lowest ecosystem carbon gain, reaching a 184 peak of ~332 Tg in 2063 but declining to 327 Tg in 2100, resulting in a net increase of only 185 3% by the end of the simulation period (figure 2a). Ecosystem carbon accumulation was 186 driven exclusively by increasing soil organic carbon across all four scenarios, all other stocks declined over time (figure 2b).

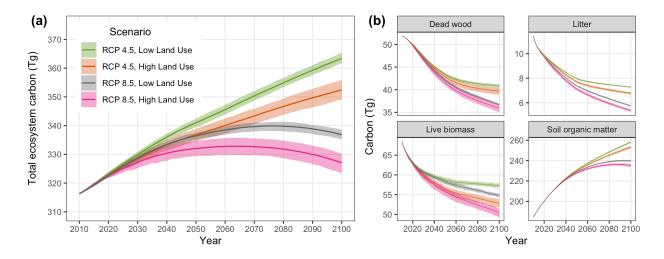


Figure 2: Projected changes in total ecosystem carbon storage (a) and individual carbon stocks (b) for the seven main Hawaiian Islands. Solid lines indicate the mean of 30 Monte Carlo realizations for each scenario, with shaded areas indicating the minimum and maximum range of Monte Carlo realizations.

Net primary production (NPP) for the seven main Hawaiian Islands declined across all four 189 scenarios, driven primarily by climate change and to a lesser extent by land use change (Fig. 190 3). The combination of high radiative forcing (RCP 8.5) and high land-use change led to 191 the steepest decline in NPP over time, driven by intense long-term drying on the leeward 192 sides of islands under RCP 8.5 (figure S4) and sustained losses of forest and shrubland land 193 area in the high land-use scenario (figure S5). In contrast, climate change led to increased 194 heterotrophic respiration (R_h) over time, such that more intense warming under RCP 8.5 195 (figure S4) resulted in R_h being $\sim 3\%$ higher by 2100 than under RCP 4.5 (figure 3). Land-use 196 change substantially reduced $R_{\rm h}$ in the high land-use scenario (figure 3) because of long-term 197 reductions in forest and shrubland land area (figure S5), similar to trends in NPP. Transition-198 triggered carbon fluxes to the atmosphere from land use, land-use change, and wildfire were 199 largely independent of changes in climate, stabilizing by mid-century at an average of ~ 0.4 200 Tg y^{-1} in the high land-use scenario and ~ 0.2 Tg y^{-1} in the low land-use scenario (figure 201 3). Uncertainty around transition-triggered carbon fluxes were higher in the high land-use 202 scenario, driven primarily by greater variability in wildland fire probabilities. 203

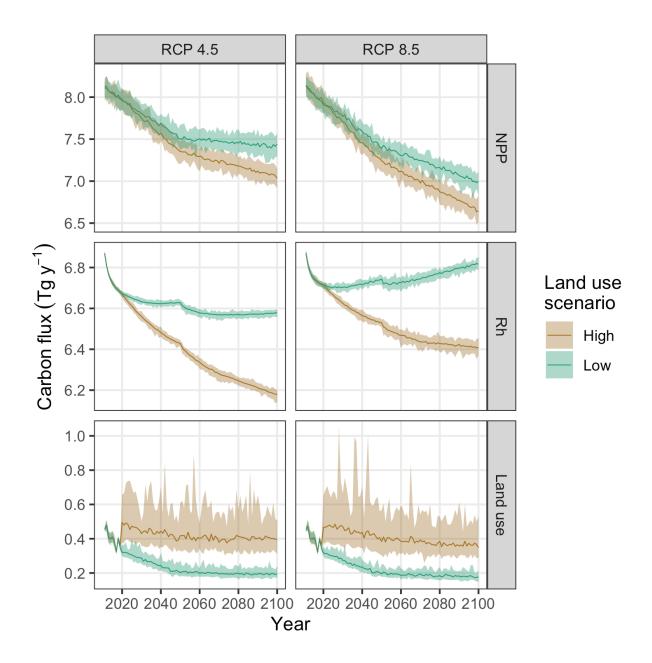


Figure 3: Projected changes in net primary production (NPP), heterotrophic respiration (Rh) and carbon fluxes induced by land use and land-use change for the seven main Hawaiian Islands. Solid lines indicate the mean of 30 Monte Carlo realizations for each scenario, with shaded areas indicating the minimum and maximum range of Monte Carlo realizations.

$_{ ext{204}}$ $Ecosystem\ carbon\ balance$

Net biome productivity (NBP) averaged approximately 0.6 Tg C y⁻¹ at the start of the 205 simulation period and declined over time in all four scenarios (figure 4). On average, ter-206 restrial ecosystems of the seven main Hawaiian Islands collectively acted as a net carbon sink throughout the simulation period under the RCP 4.5 radiative forcing scenario, but carbon sink strength was ~40% lower in the high land-use scenario compared to the low 209 land-use scenario by the end of the simulation period (figure 4). In contrast, ecosystems of the Hawaiian Islands acted as a net carbon source to the atmosphere toward the latter half 211 of the simulation period under RCP 8.5, with the transition from sink to source occurring 212 15 years earlier on average in the high land-use scenario than in the low land-use scenario 213 (figure 4). In addition, the high land-use scenario under RCP 8.5 represented a $\sim 40\%$ larger 214 net source of carbon to the atmosphere by the year 2100 than the low-land use scenario 215 under the same radiative forcing. Over the entire simulation period, both global emissions 216 reduction and avoided land conversion resulted in substantial increases in cumulative NBP 217 (figure 5). However, switching from RCP 8.5 to RCP 4.5 increased cumulative NBP in the 218 Hawaiian Islands more than twice as much as reducing emissions from local land-use change 219 and wildfire disturbance (figure 5). Switching from RCP 8.5 to RCP 4.5 under the low land-220 use scenario yielded the greatest cumulative increase in NBP, resulting in a median gain of 221 26.5 Tg of carbon over the entire 90-year simulation period. 222

$_{223}$ CO_{2} fertilization effect

Projected estimates of both total ecosystem carbon storage and ecosystem carbon balance were highly sensitive to differing rates of a CFE on plant productivity. Under the high radiative forcing (RCP 8.5) and high land-use scenario, the inclusion of a CFE ranging from 5-15% led to ~33-98 Tg of additional carbon storage in ecosystems by the end of the century, a ~10-30% increase (figure 6a). Compared to the reference scenario (0% CFE), a 5% CFE



Figure 4: Projected changes in net biome productivity (NBP) for the seven main Hawaiian Islands. Values above zero indicate terrestrial ecosystems are acting as a net carbon sink for atmospheric carbon and values below zero indicate ecosystems are acting as a net carbon source to the atmosphere. Solid lines indicate the mean of 30 Monte Carlo realizations for each scenario, with shaded areas indicating the minimum and maximum range of Monte Carlo realizations. The dashed horizontal line in each panel represents the boundary between ecosystems acting as a net carbon sink (positive NBP values) and a net carbon source (negative NBP values).

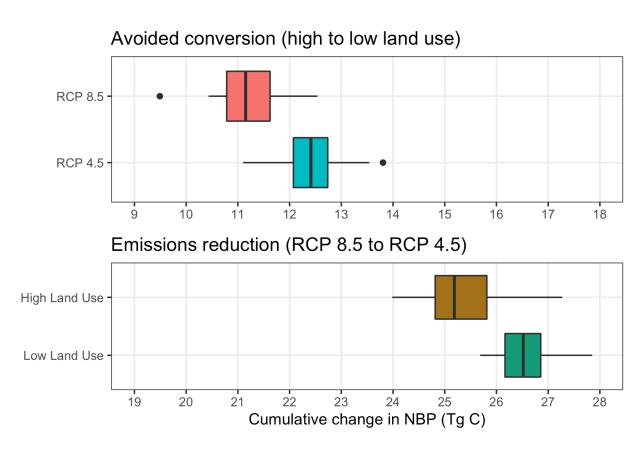


Figure 5: Projected changes in cumulative net biome productivity (NBP) for the seven main Hawaiian Islands when switching from high to low land-use change scenario under each radiative forcing scenario (top panel) and when switching from RCP 8.5 to RCP 4.5 radiative forcing scenarios under each land-use scenario (bottom panel). Box plots indicate the median (vertical black line), 25th and 75th percentiles (colored boxes), 10th and 90th percentiles (thin horizontal lines), and values outside of this range (black circles). Note the different scales for the x-axis in each panel.

was sufficient to transform Hawaiian Island ecosystems from a net carbon source to the atmosphere for the latter half of the 21st century (figure 4b) to a net carbon sink for the 230 entire simulation period (figure 6b), completely offsetting all other carbon losses induced by 231 high radiative forcing and high land use. Net carbon sink strength was further enhanced at 232 higher CFE rates, with NBP increasing by an average of 0.07 Tg C y⁻¹ for each 1% increase 233 in CFE (figure 6b). When compared to other scenarios, applying a 5% CFE to the high 234 radiative forcing and high land-use scenario resulted in a mean annual NBP of 0.46 ± 0.3 Tg 235 C y⁻¹, roughly equivalent to mean annual NBP in the low radiative forcing and low land-use 236 scenario with no CFE (0.52 \pm 0.12). A 15% CFE applied to the high radiative forcing and 237 high land-use scenario resulted in a mean annual NBP of 1.18 ± 0.29 Tg C y⁻¹, more than 238 double that of the low radiative forcing and low land-use scenario with no CFE. 239

240 Discussion

241 Conclusion

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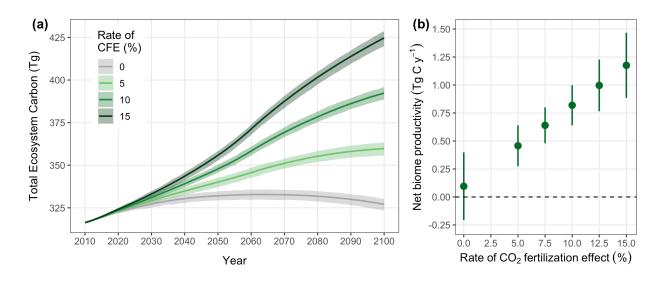


Figure 6: Sensitivity of projected changes in total ecosystem carbon storage (a) and mean annual net biome productivity (b) to different rates of carbon dioxide fertilization in the seven main Hawaiian Islands under the RCP 8.5 radiative forcing scenario and high land use scenario. The carbon dioxide fertilization effect (CFE) is the percent change in net primary productivity (NPP) for every 100 ppm increase in atmospheric carbon dioxide. The CFE for all rates is capped at 600 ppm, which is achieved around the year 2060. Solid lines in (a) indicate the mean total ecosystem carbon storage across 30 Monte Carlo realizations for each CFE rate, with shaded areas indicating the minimum and maximum range of Monte Carlo realizations. Solid circles in (b) represent mean annual net biome productivity averaged across all years and Monte Carlo realizations for each CFE rate, with vertical lines indicating the standard deviation of the mean. The dashed horizontal line in (b) represents the boundary between ecosystems acting as a net carbon sink (positive NBP values) and a net carbon source (negative NBP values).

249 Data Availability

Tabular model output data and metadata are available in machine readable format from the USGS ScienceBase data repository at https://doi.org/10.5066/P9AWLFKZ. Model input data and R code used to format input data, summarize output data, and compile this manuscript are available from a GitHub repository at https://github.com/selmants/HI_Model.

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