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Effects of CO₂ vegetation forcing on precipitation and heat extremes in China

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Abstract

Anthropogenic CO₂ emissions are expected to significantly impact climate patterns, including extreme heat events. The influence of plants on land-atmosphere water and energy exchanges plays a crucial role in shaping these heat extremes. The response of vegetation growth and physiology to elevated CO₂, both directly and indirectly, will determine their contribution to future heat extremes. In this study, we employed a suite of CMIP6 earth system models (ESMs) to differentiate between the effects of radiative forcing and vegetation forcing under elevated CO₂ background on extreme heat and precipitation events in China. The changes observed can be attributed to CO₂ physiological forcing, which reduces transpiration and its related cooling impact, leading to a decrease in clouds and precipitation under 2×CO₂ and 4×CO₂ scenarios. Our findings indicate that CO₂-induced vegetation forcing (VEG) intensifies the frequency and severity of future heatwaves. Additionally, we found that CO₂-driven vegetation decreases

extreme precipitation and increases dry days numbers in most humid regions of China, despite the increase in transpiration resulting from the saving of soil moisture and aboveground biomass enhancement due to CO₂ fertilization.

Keywords: anthropogenic activities, land-atmosphere feedback, vegetation forcing, extreme events

1 Introduction

Amidst the context of global warming, extreme events are becoming increasingly common worldwide and have had a significant impact on human society [1–3]. For example, real extreme heat waves can lead to crop reduction [4], reduced net primary productivity of vegetation [5], and even the death of organisms. Similarly, in China, extreme heat waves and extreme precipitation can cause incalculable losses [6, 7].

The IPCC has confirmed that the primary driver of current climate change is the increase in anthropogenic CO₂ emissions. Besides acting as a greenhouse gas, CO₂ has an indirect impact on climate conditions across its influence on the growth and physiology of plants [8, 9]. In the presence of elevated CO₂ levels, plants experience an increase in photosynthetic carbon fixation rates, even with reduced or maintained stomatal aperture. This phenomenon, known as CO₂ fertilization, leads to enhanced biomass production [10, 11]. Additionally, the effects of non-radiative in higher CO₂ scenario cause a reduction of conductance and transpiration in stoma, which is referred to as CO₂ physiological forcing.[12, 13]. The effects of enhanced CO₂ on plants vary depending on the species and environmental conditions, and studies indicate that these effects can have contrasting impacts on climate [14, 15]. While the influence of CO₂ fertilization on leaf area index (LAI) is often limited, it can result in increased LAI during early plant development and in regions with water limitations, particularly in nutrient-limited areas and mature forests [16, 17]. Increased leaf area index (LAI) promotes higher rates of plant transpiration and enhances surface evaporative cooling., provided there is sufficient moisture supply [18]. However, in regions where water limitation is not severe, CO₂ physiological forcing reduces transpiration. As a consequence, the ratio of sensible to latent heat fluxes at the leaf surface is increased, consequently raising the temperature of boundary layer [19, 20].

Considering the influence of both CO₂ physiological forcing and CO₂ fertilization, which are commonly referred to as CO₂ vegetation forcing, it is evident that they have an impact on surface moisture and energy fluxes. As a result, both of these factors may contribute to the occurrence of extreme events. [21–23]. However, the overall effects on projected extreme events are still uncertain. For example, elevated CO₂ levels could lead to a vegetation response that mitigates the the occurrence and severity of summer heat waves [24, 25]. This could occur through increased canopy water use efficiency (WUE, the ratio of carbon assimilation rate to transpiration rate) during springtime, which is induced by CO₂ physiological forcing. This would subsequently increase soil-moisture availability for cooling effects due to evapotranspiration later in the summer peak [26]. Additionally, the increase in atmospheric CO₂ concentrations, together with

37 other greenhouse gases, is anticipated to lead to substantial alterations in evaporation
38 patterns (over oceans) and evapotranspiration (over land) through enhanced radiative
39 forcing [27]. Additionally, elevated CO₂ concentrations can cause changes in evapotran-
40 spiration unrelated to radiative forcing. In the presence of elevated CO₂ levels, many
41 plant species reduce transpiration and conductance in stoma rates to minimize water
42 loss, as observed in numerous plant species. Consequently, this adaptation results in
43 an improvement in plant water use efficiency. [28, 29]. These changes in transpiration
44 can affect soil moisture and evapotranspiration, which in turn impact the intensity,
45 duration, and frequency of precipitation events [30]. As transpiration accounts for
46 approximately 64% of the terrestrial evapotranspiration [31], gaining insights into the
47 intricate and occasionally contradictory reactions of vegetation-water interactions to
48 fluctuations in CO₂ levels is crucial for global hydrologic cycle and energy assessment
49 in the future [21].

50 The majority of research focused on future extreme events relies on climate model
51 simulations, which typically consider either the radiative effect of CO₂ alone or incor-
52 porate both CO₂ radiative forcing and CO₂ physiological forcing along with CO₂
53 fertilization concurrently. [32]. Prior studies investigating CO₂ vegetation forcing have
54 predominantly examined the average temperature response over annual or seasonal
55 time scales. However, these investigations have not thoroughly explored the poten-
56 tial differential impacts of future CO₂ vegetation forcing on heat and precipitation
57 extremes compared to the mean conditions [33–35]. In this study, we examine a
58 set of Earth system models (ESMs) from the CMIP6 that incorporate active bio-
59 geophysics and biogeochemistry to investigate the impact of VEG (by increasing CO₂
60 concentrations fourfold) on extreme events of heat and precipitation in China.

61 The study is structured as follows: Section 2 outlines the data and methods used.
62 Section 3 presents the main findings regarding the influence of vegetation forcing
63 on extreme events. Finally, Section 4 offers concluding remarks and discusses the
64 implications of our study.

65 2 Data and methods

66 2.1 Experiment design

67 We examined the roles of CO₂ radiative forcing and CO₂ vegetation forcing by utiliz-
68 ing simulations from five ESMs, which were obtained from the carbon-climate feedback
69 experiment within CMIP6. The ESMs we selected for this study were CanESM2,
70 CESM1-BGC, BCC-CSM1-1, IPSL-CM5A-LR and MPI-ESMLR. Because these mod-
71 els were chosen based on their daily-scale rainfall and temperature data, which were
72 necessary for our analysis of precipitation and heat extremes. In order to evaluate the
73 influence of VEG on climate, we conducted comparative simulations for each model.
74 Two model runs were conducted for each model, one incorporating the comprehensive
75 interactive effects of rising CO₂ levels on radiative forcing, physiological responses,
76 and fertilization. (Total referred to as 1pctCO₂ in CMIP6, as shown in Table 1 and
77 Fig. 2c). The concentration of CO₂ in this experiment is increasing in both the atmo-
78 sphere and the carbon cycle on land and oceans. Further experiments carried out
79 within the framework of the Coupled Climate-Carbon Cycle Model Intercomparison

80 Project (C4MIP, [36, 37]) allow us to distinguish the individual contributions of CO₂
81 vegetation forcing and radiative effects. A separate simulation solely considering the
82 radiative effects of elevated CO₂ (RadCO₂, referred to as 1pctCO₂-rad in CMIP6,
83 as shown in Table 1 and Fig. 1a). The simulations were divided into two sets, differ-
84 ing only in whether the model’s vegetation was directly impacted by the rising CO₂
85 levels (RadCO₂) or not, which is crucial for our analysis. Alongside evaluating the
86 impact of VEG on climate, we also assessed the influence of RAD. To achieve this, we
87 compared the Total simulations with another set of simulations called VegCO₂ (see
88 Table 1 and Fig. 1b), which focused exclusively on the physiological and fertilization
89 impacts of heightened CO₂ levels and is denoted as 1pctCO₂-bgc in CMIP6. The two
90 sets of simulations differ only in the direct influence of increasing CO₂ on the atmo-
91 spheric radiative transfer scheme in VegCO₂. It is important to note that we utilize
92 the RadCO₂ to isolate the impact of VEG on climate (i.e., VEG = Total - RadCO₂),
93 while the VegCO₂ simulations are used to isolate the influence of RAD (i.e., RAD =
94 Total - VegCO₂).

95 In all simulation sets, the CO₂ concentrations gradually rise by 1% per year over
96 a span of 140 years, commencing at 284 ppm and reaching approximately 1132 ppm
97 at the end (Table 2) [21, 38]. We concentrate on extreme events across various CO₂
98 concentration scenarios. The 1×CO₂ period is from year 1 to year 29, with an average
99 CO₂ concentration of around 330 ppm. The 2×CO₂ period is from year 58 to year
100 87, with an average CO₂ concentration of about 575 ppm. The 4×CO₂ period is from
101 year 111 to year 140, with an average CO₂ concentration of roughly 984 ppm. The
102 reference climate used for defining extremes is the period from year 1 to year 29 in
103 the Total simulation. All the data is remapped to 1°×1°.

Table 1 Summary of the employed CMIP6 experiments.

Simulation name	CMIP6 experiment name	Effects of CO ₂ concentration on	
		Land	Atmosphere
Total	1pctCO ₂	1% per year	1% per year
RadCO ₂	1pctCO ₂ -rad	Pre-industrial	1% per year
VegCO ₂	1pctCO ₂ -bgc	1% per year	Pre-industrial

Table 2 CO₂ forcing experiment.

Experiment	Time range	Reference climate for extreme heat and precipitation definition
1×CO ₂	Years of 1-29	
2×CO ₂	Years of 58-87	Years of 1-29 in Total
4×CO ₂	Years of 111-140	

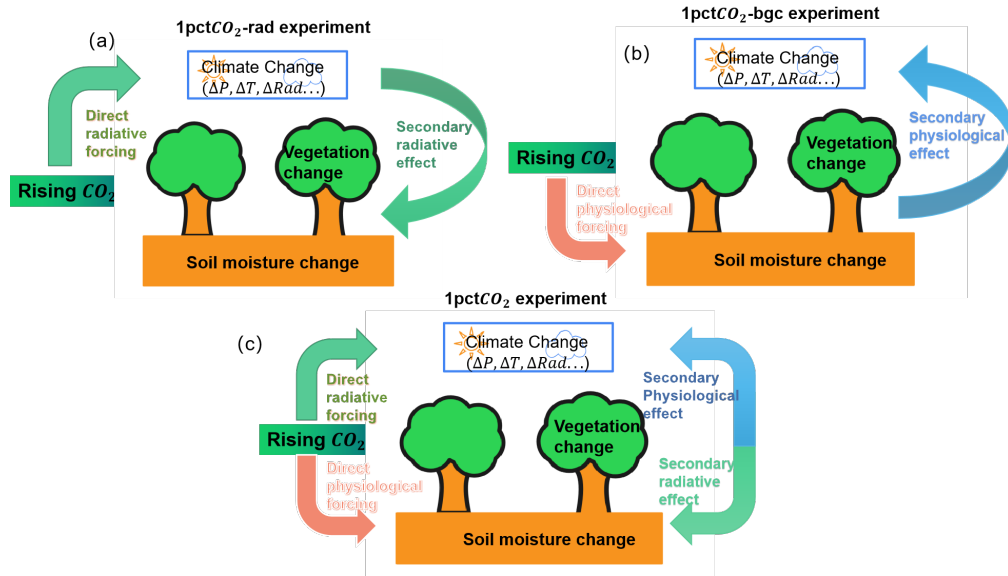


Fig. 1 Descriptions of the direct and secondary effects of CO₂ radiative and physiological forcings in CMIP6 simulations: (a) In the experiment of 1pctCO₂-rad, only RAD is considered, which involves the effects of enhanced atmospheric CO₂ concentration on radiative transfer processes and climate. The direct radiative forcing leads to changes in climate variables such as net radiation (Rad), air temperature (T), precipitation (P) and others, directly influencing the terrestrial water cycle and energy. These climatic changes further affect soil moisture and vegetation cover, leading to an additional radiative effect that modifies how precipitation is distributed between evapotranspiration and energy exchange at the land surface. (b) In the 1pctCO₂-bgc experiment, only CO₂ physiological forcing is considered, focusing on the influence of increased atmospheric CO₂ concentration on plant physiological behavior. The direct physiological forcing entails the response of vegetation to elevated CO₂, influencing transpiration, evaporation from canopy interception and soils, primarily through the reduction in stomatal conductance and increase in vegetation cover. These CO₂-induced changes in evapotranspiration alter the interactions between land and atmosphere in terms of water and energy exchanges, atmospheric circulation, precipitation, and potential evapotranspiration (PET), leading to additional impacts on the terrestrial water balance. (c) The experiment of 1pctCO₂ includes both radiative and physiological forcings of rising CO₂ concentration, encompassing the combined effects described in (a) and (b).

104 2.2 Extreme events definition

105 2.2.1 Heat wave detection

106 The study examines heat waves using the temperature extreme indices recommended
 107 by the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) [39]. In particular, A heatwave
 108 event is characterized as a duration of at least three consecutive days when the
 109 maximum temperature surpasses the 90th percentile value of the daily maximum tem-
 110 perature for the corresponding calendar day in a reference period, which is determined
 111 by a 5-day moving average [40]. To consider the effects of seasonality and temporal
 112 autocorrelation in the daily data, a percentile is obtained for each calendar day and
 113 we also use a 5-day moving average on the dataset. We utilize four metrics to analyze

114 extreme heat events: HWTD (Heat wave total days), representing the total number of
115 days meeting the heat wave criteria in each season. HWML (Heat wave max length),
116 indicating the length of the longest heat wave event in each season. HWN (Heat wave
117 number), representing the average amount of heat wave occurrences per season. HWMI
118 (Heat wave max intensity), representing the highest daily temperature reached once
119 each heat wave event occurred. We then calculate the 30-year average of these four
120 metrics annually.

121 2.2.2 Precipitation detection

122 Extreme precipitation is determined by identifying heavy rainy days that surpass the
123 95th percentile observed during the reference period. Conversely, a dry day is defined
124 as having no precipitation if the accumulated daily rainfall amounts to less than 0.1
125 mm within a year [21]. Maximum 1-day precipitation (RX1day) is an indicator that
126 measures extreme precipitation events and is defined as the maximum of single-day
127 maximum precipitation. This indicator is commonly used to study the relationship
128 between climate change and extreme weather events, as extreme precipitation events
129 may increase in frequency and intensity as a result of climate change. RX1day is one
130 of the extreme climate indices of the WMO and is widely used in climate simulation
131 and prediction. In this paper, we use the index of extreme precipitation RX1day to
132 represent the annual extreme precipitation events that have significant impacts on
133 society.

134 2.3 Significance test

135 We generated a multi-model ensemble (MME) by converting the outputs of the Earth
136 System Models (ESMs) to a consistent $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid. To assess the significance of dif-
137 ferences between the experiments, we utilized the bootstrap method. Within the
138 MME, we randomly sampled 5 values from the 5 ESMs with replacement, computed
139 their average, repeated this process 1000 times, established confidence intervals, and
140 reported only the 95% significant values to represent the consensus among the models..

141 3 Results

142 3.1 Precipitation

143 We examined precipitation in three scenarios, namely $1 \times \text{CO}_2$, $2 \times \text{CO}_2$, and $4 \times \text{CO}_2$.
144 During the $1 \times \text{CO}_2$ period, which spans from year 1 to year 29 and features an average
145 CO_2 concentration of about 330 ppm. It has been researched that CO_2 has a signifi-
146 cant impact on the early growth of LAI and in areas with water scarcity [22]. When
147 water supply is sufficient, a higher LAI can increase plant transpiration and surface
148 evaporation cooling. At the same time, in areas where water supply is not severely
149 restricted (humid areas), CO_2 physiological forcing reduces transpiration and increases
150 the ratio of sensible heat flux to latent heat flux, thus increasing leaf surface tem-
151 perature. This leads to an increase in boundary layer temperature. Dry soil and low
152 transpiration increase surface temperatures during heat waves. Based on the previous
153 researches, we divided China into two areas based on the Aridity Index (AI). Regions

154 with an AI less than 0.65 were designated as dry areas, while those with an AI greater
 155 than 0.65 were designated as humid areas (humid area). By utilizing this separation
 156 approach, we were able to specifically isolate the impacts of CO₂ vegetation forcing on
 157 these two regions. We found that the vegetation forcing led to a drying trend in China
 158 overall (-6.43 ± 1.55 ; mean \pm s.d., Fig. 2a), with humid area becoming even drier
 159 (12.92 ± 3.54) and dry area becoming slightly wetter (0.058 ± 0.012). On the other
 160 hand, the radiative forcing resulted in increased precipitation across China ($18.76 \pm$
 161 5.52 , Fig. 2d). The 2 \times CO₂ period, which occurred from year 58 to year 87 and had
 162 an average CO₂ concentration of approximately 575 ppm, led to a drying effect on
 163 all of China due to vegetation forcing (-9.89 ± 1.06 , Fig. 2b), with both humid area
 164 (-17.53 ± 4.56) and dry area (2.37 ± 0.58) experiencing reduced precipitation. Once
 165 again, the radiative forcing led to increased precipitation across China (27.93 ± 6.52 ,
 166 Fig. 2e). Finally, during the 4 \times CO₂ period from year 111 to year 140, with an average
 167 CO₂ concentration of about 984 ppm, the vegetation forcing caused drying across all
 168 of China (-5.72 ± 1.23 , Fig. 2c), with both humid area (-5.74 ± 1.26) and dry area
 169 (-5.69 ± 1.38) experiencing a decline in precipitation. However, the radiative forcing
 170 led to increased precipitation across China (27.93 ± 6.52 , Fig. 2f).

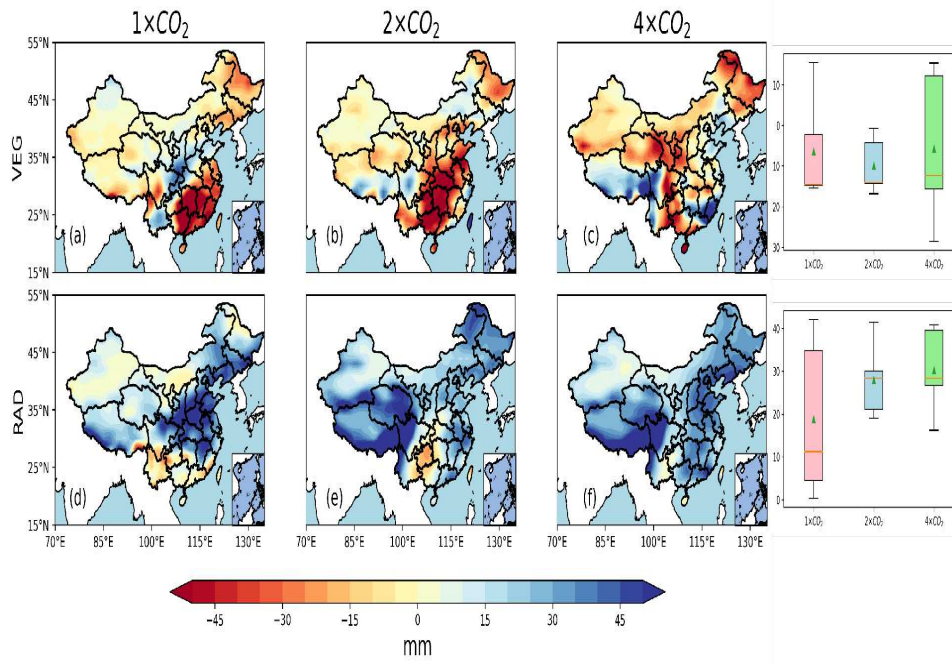


Fig. 2 Effects of CO₂ vegetation forcing (VEG) and radiative forcing (RAD) on mean precipitation. The right column is the variations in the precipitation of VEG and RAD. Only statistically significant differences are shown.

171 We conducted an analysis of how CO₂ vegetation forcing (VEG) affects the 95th
 172 extreme precipitation in China. Our findings indicate that VEG tends to reduce heavy

173 rainfall, with negative responses observed in all three scenarios (-0.14 ± 0.033 , $-0.15 \pm$
 174 0.028 , -0.52 ± 0.041 ; Fig. 3a-c). Conversely, radiative forcing (RAD) tends to promote
 175 the 95th extreme precipitation (1.18 ± 0.26 , 4.43 ± 0.53 , 9.24 ± 1.35 ; Fig. 3d-f).

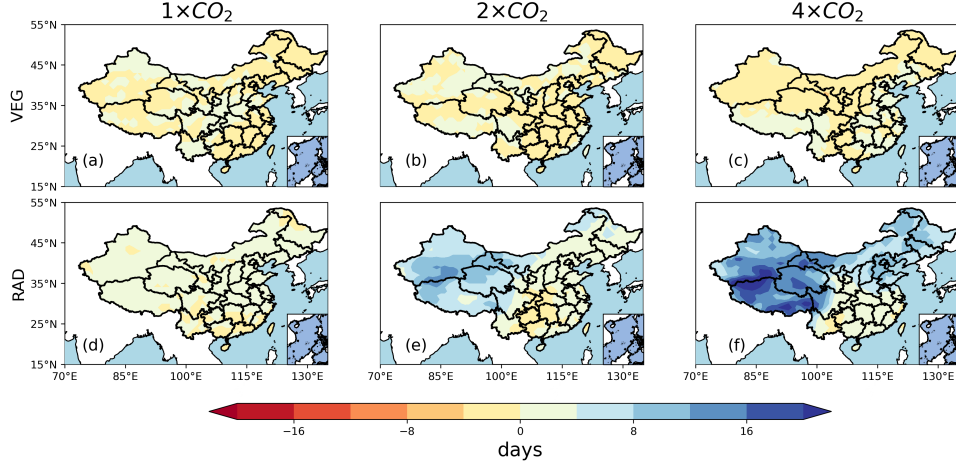


Fig. 3 Effects of VEG and RAD on 95th extreme precipitation. Only statistically significant differences are shown.

176 Additionally, we calculated the effects of VEG on the trend of days with extreme
 177 precipitation exceeding the 95th percentile (Fig. 4). In the $1\times\text{CO}_2$ scenario, VEG
 178 resulted in a decreasing trend, with a slope of -0.12 day/decade (Fig. 4a). In the $2\times\text{CO}_2$
 179 and $4\times\text{CO}_2$ scenarios, the trends were 0.11 and -0.17 day/decade, respectively. Only in
 180 the $2\times\text{CO}_2$ scenario did VEG contribute to an increasing trend. Regarding radiation
 181 (RAD), both the $1\times\text{CO}_2$ and $2\times\text{CO}_2$ scenarios exhibited decreasing trends (-0.006 and
 182 -0.019 days/decade, Fig. 4b). In the $4\times\text{CO}_2$ scenario, RAD leads to an enhancement
 183 in the trend of days with extreme precipitation exceeding the 95th percentile, with a
 184 trend of 0.32 day/decade.

185 We classified a dry day as a day with negligible precipitation, specifically when the
 186 accumulated daily rainfall amounted to less than 0.1 mm over the course of one year.
 187 From $1\times\text{CO}_2$ to $4\times\text{CO}_2$, VEG results in more dry days (0.28 ± 0.053 , 1.53 ± 0.095 ,
 188 3.47 ± 0.26 ; Fig. 5a-c). From $1\times\text{CO}_2$ to $4\times\text{CO}_2$, VEG leads to fewer dry days ($-1.33 \pm$
 189 0.088 , -2.52 ± 0.13 , -3.84 ± 0.26 ; Fig. 5d-f). There are noticeable differences between
 190 humid area and dry area in the RAD effects of $2\times\text{CO}_2$ and $4\times\text{CO}_2$. In $2\times\text{CO}_2$ (Fig.
 191 5e), RAD results in fewer dry days in dry area (-6.47 ± 1.22) and more dry days in
 192 humid area (1.49 ± 0.15). Furthermore, the difference is more apparent in $4\times\text{CO}_2$
 193 (Fig. 5f), with RAD leading to fewer dry days in dry area (-9.78 ± 2.62) and more
 194 dry days in humid area (2.18 ± 0.37).

195 The RX1day is a metric utilized to assess extreme precipitation events, often used
 196 to examine the connection between climate change and extreme weather. With climate
 197 change, extreme precipitation events may become more frequent and severe. In this
 198 study, we computed the RX1day and illustrated its trend (mm/yr) in Fig. 6. Results

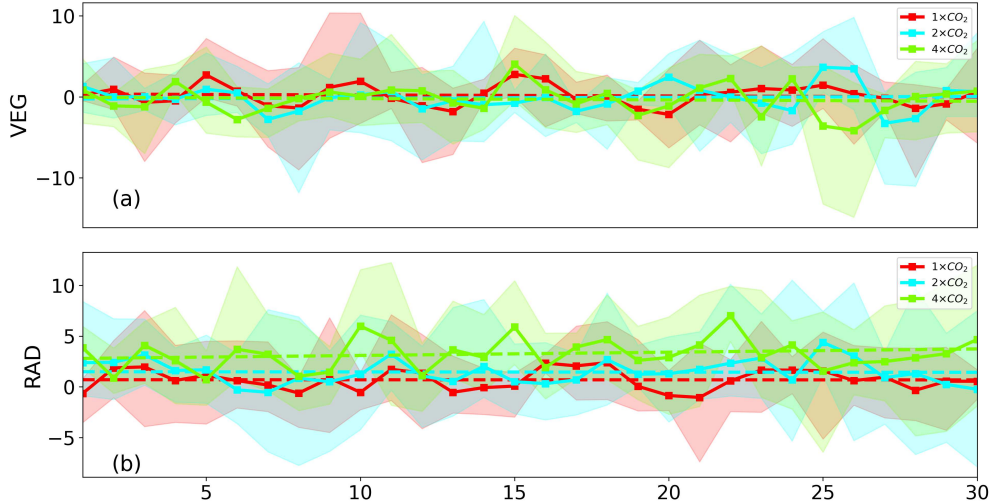


Fig. 4 Effects of VEG and RAD on the trend of days that exceed 95th extreme precipitation. The red dotted line is ensemble mean of the $1\times\text{CO}_2$ trend. The cyan and green are $2\times\text{CO}_2$ and $4\times\text{CO}_2$. The shading areas are the uncertainties. (a) is the VEG and (b) is the RAD.

199 indicate that from $1\times\text{CO}_2$ to $4\times\text{CO}_2$, the trends caused by China's VEG are 0.051
 200 ± 0.0058 , -0.013 ± 0.0069 , 0.045 ± 0.015 (Fig. 6a-c). The trends in humid area were
 201 more responsive to VEG than in dry area, where VEG tends to decrease the trend.
 202 Specifically, in humid area, the VEG-induced trends are 0.073 ± 0.015 , -0.043 ± 0.0091 ,
 203 and 0.037 ± 0.0083 . Moreover, the trends induced by RAD are 0.11 ± 0.095 , $0.063 \pm$
 204 0.0086 , and 0.15 ± 0.067 in the $1\times\text{CO}_2$, $2\times\text{CO}_2$, and $4\times\text{CO}_2$ scenarios, respectively.

205 3.2 Heat wave

206 Carbon dioxide, as a prominent greenhouse gas contributing to global warming, also
 207 plays a beneficial role in enhancing vegetation's carbon uptake capacity, which serves
 208 as a partial offset to emissions. However, the physiological response of vegetation
 209 to increasing carbon dioxide, such as partial closure of stomata and an increase in
 210 leaf area, can actually exacerbate global warming. Unfortunately, this effect is often
 211 neglected in assessments of climate change mitigation strategies. In fact, the physiolog-
 212 ical response of vegetation to rising carbon dioxide consistently amplifies the warming
 213 effect, mainly due to the reduction in evapotranspiration caused by stomatal closure
 214 [22]. In this section, we conduct the analysis on the effects of CO_2 vegetation forcing
 215 on Chinese heat wave event.

216 From Fig. 7, it is evident that VEG has caused an increase in the mean tempera-
 217 ture except in the case of $1\times\text{CO}_2$. When comparing the temperature changes induced
 218 by VEG from $1\times\text{CO}_2$ to $4\times\text{CO}_2$ (Fig. 7a-c), it can be observed that they are -0.011
 219 ± 0.006 , 0.099 ± 0.015 , and 0.44 ± 0.24 , respectively. Both dry area and humid area
 220 experience warmer temperatures due to VEG for $2\times\text{CO}_2$ and $4\times\text{CO}_2$. Additionally,
 221 RAD could contribute to warming in China, with mean temperature changes induced

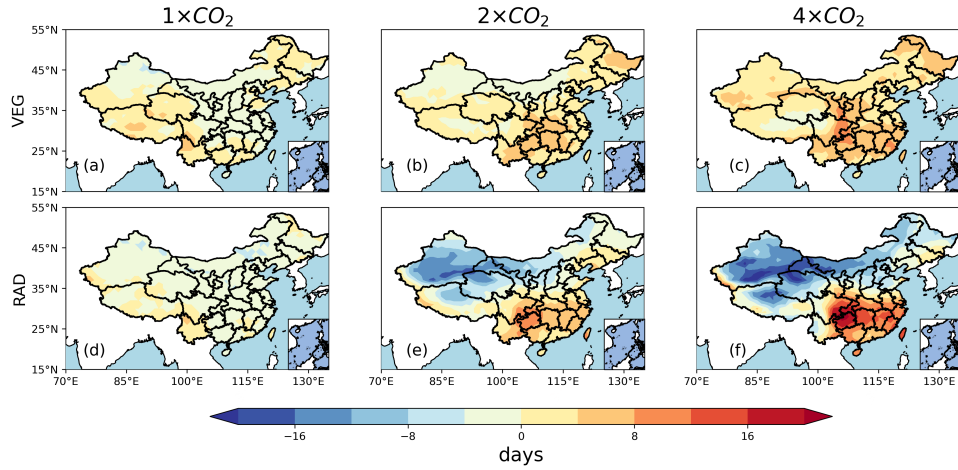


Fig. 5 Effects of VEG and RAD on number of dry days. We established a definition for a dry day as a day without any precipitation when the total amount of daily precipitation is below 0.1 mm within a year. Only statistically significant differences are shown.

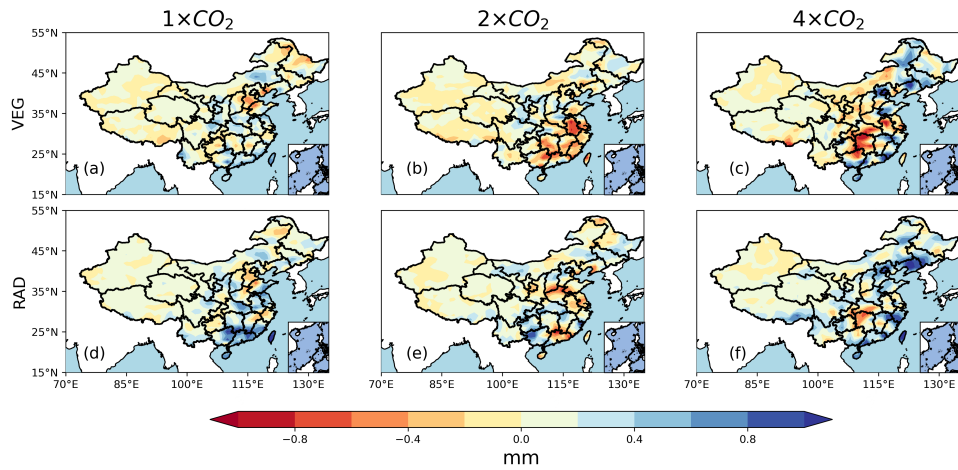


Fig. 6 Effects of VEG and RAD on number of dry days. We established a definition for a dry day as a day without any precipitation when the total amount of daily precipitation is below 0.1 mm within a year. Only statistically significant differences are shown.

222 by RAD being 0.51 ± 0.13 , 0.52 ± 0.15 , and 0.58 ± 0.11 , respectively. The CO_2 vegeta-
 223 tion forcing and radiative forcing have had the most significant impact on temperature
 224 changes.

225 Four metrics are used to analyze extreme heat events: HWN, which represents the
 226 average number of heat waves per season; HWTD, which is the total number of days
 227 that meet the heat wave criteria in each season; HWML, which measures the length of
 228 the longest heat wave event in each season; and HWMI, which represents the maximum
 229 daily temperature reached during each heat wave event. Although VEG increases the

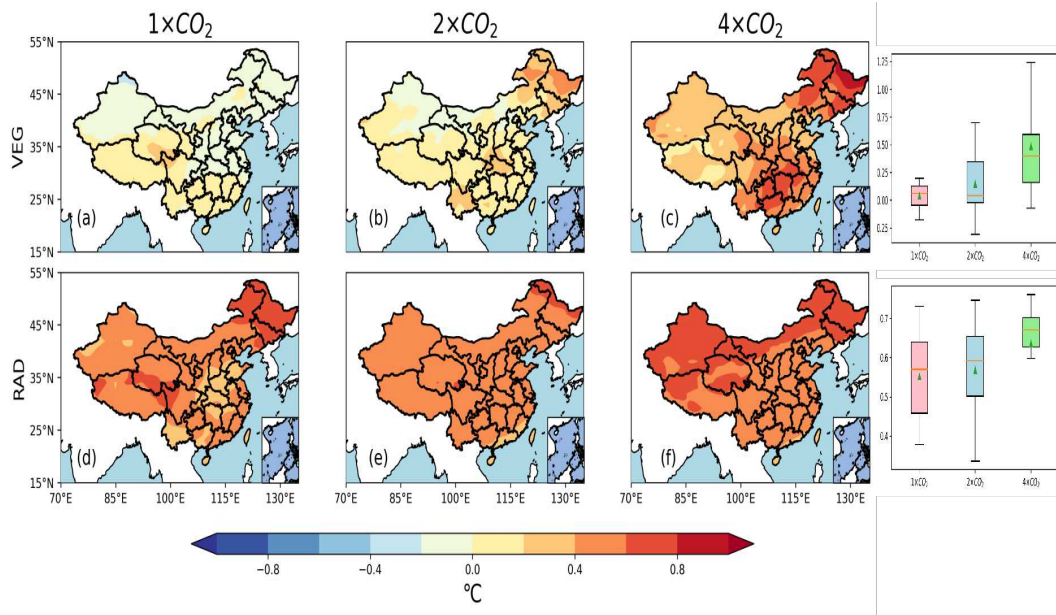


Fig. 7 Effects of VEG and RAD on mean temperature. The right column is the variations in the precipitation of VEG and RAD. Only statistically significant differences are shown.

230 mean temperature, it has a negative effect on the number of heat waves. From $1\times\text{CO}_2$
 231 to $4\times\text{CO}_2$ (Fig. 8a-c), the heat wave number induced by VEG decreases (-0.54 ± 0.12 ,
 232 -0.18 ± 0.054 , and -0.58 ± 0.13 , respectively). Conversely, RAD causes an increase in
 233 HWN except in $1\times\text{CO}_2$ (-0.017 ± 0.0054 , 1.48 ± 0.39 , 1.79 ± 0.42 ; Fig. 8d-f).

234 Additionally, we calculated the effects of VEG on trend of heat wave number (Fig.
 235 9). In the $1\times\text{CO}_2$ and $2\times\text{CO}_2$ scenarios, VEG resulted in a decreasing trend, with
 236 a slope of 0.03 and 0.02 event/decade, respectively (Fig. 9a). In the $4\times\text{CO}_2$ scenario,
 237 the trends were -0.01 event/decade. Only in the $4\times\text{CO}_2$ scenario did VEG contribute
 238 to an decreasing trend. Regarding radiation (RAD), both the $1\times\text{CO}_2$ and $2\times\text{CO}_2$
 239 scenarios exhibited increasing trends (0.46 and 0.22 event/decade, Fig. 9b). In the
 240 $4\times\text{CO}_2$ scenario, RAD led to an decrease in the trend of days with heat wave number,
 241 with a trend of -0.41 event/decade.

242 Regarding HWTD (Fig. 10), VEG increases the total days of heat wave in $2\times\text{CO}_2$
 243 and $4\times\text{CO}_2$. Specifically, the additional days induced by VEG are -0.69 ± 0.24 , 2.48
 244 ± 1.11 , and 5.45 ± 2.57 (Figure 10a-c). VEG has a stronger effect on humid area than
 245 on dry area. In comparison, RAD has a more intense impact and leads to more heat
 246 wave days (3.25 ± 1.22 , 2.94 ± 0.95 , 7.09 ± 3.55). Both VEG and RAD have a greater
 247 influence on humid area than dry area.

248 Regarding HWML (Fig. 11), both VEG and RAD make the longest heat wave
 249 events longer in $2\times\text{CO}_2$ and $4\times\text{CO}_2$. The additional days induced by VEG from
 250 $1\times\text{CO}_2$ to $4\times\text{CO}_2$ are -0.49 ± 0.21 , 1.06 ± 0.45 , and 2.69 ± 1.13 , respectively. RAD
 251 prolongs the heat wave events more than VEG. Additionally, for HWMI (Fig. 12),

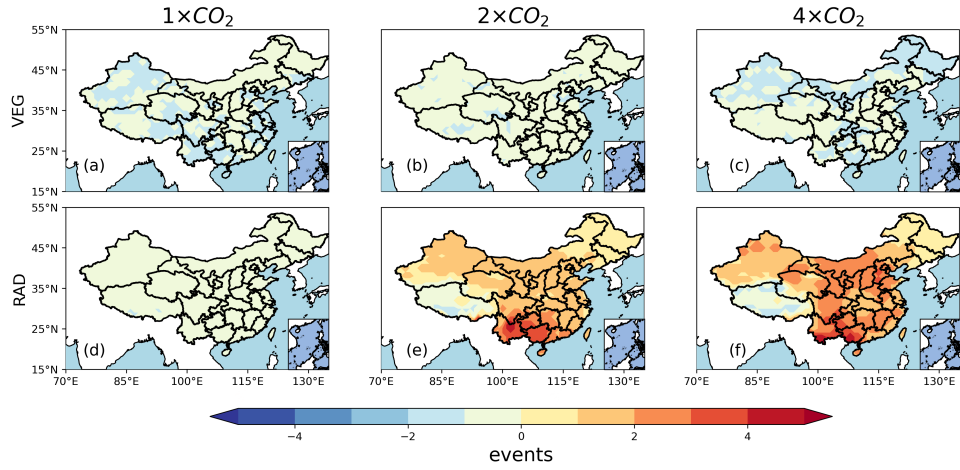


Fig. 8 Effects of VEG and RAD on mean temperature. The right column is the variations in the precipitation of VEG and RAD. Only statistically significant differences are shown.

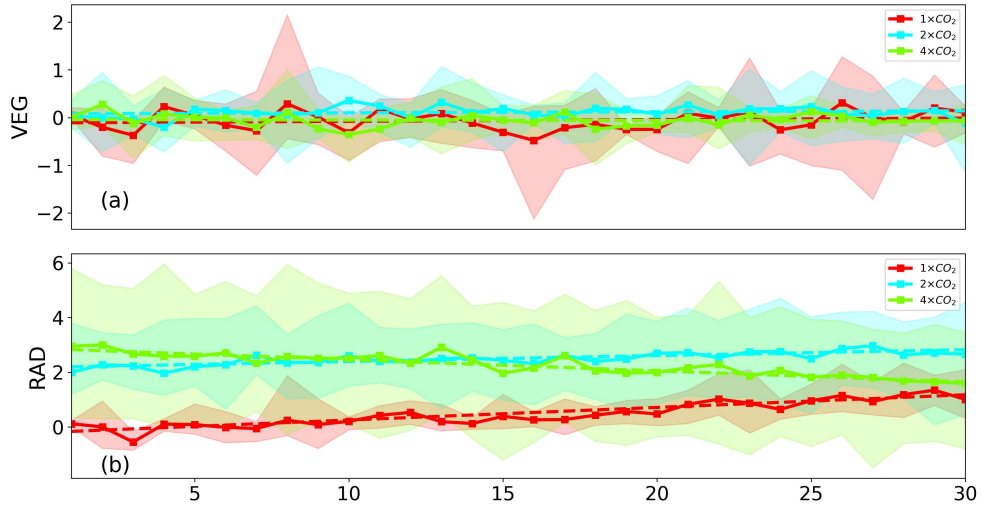


Fig. 9 Effects of VEG and RAD on the trend of heat wave number (HWN). The red dotted line is ensemble mean of the $1\times\text{CO}_2$ trend. The cyan and green are $2\times\text{CO}_2$ and $4\times\text{CO}_2$. The shading areas are the uncertainties. (a) is the VEG and (b) is the RAD.

252 both VEG and RAD make the intensity of heat waves stronger. The average maximum
 253 temperature increase induced by VEG is 0.14 ± 0.056 , 0.51 ± 0.21 , and 0.60 ± 0.29 ,
 254 respectively. For RAD, the corresponding figures are 2.18 ± 1.22 , 2.61 ± 1.25 , and
 255 3.47 ± 1.99 . Furthermore, both RAD and VEG have a stronger impact on humid area
 256 than on dry area.

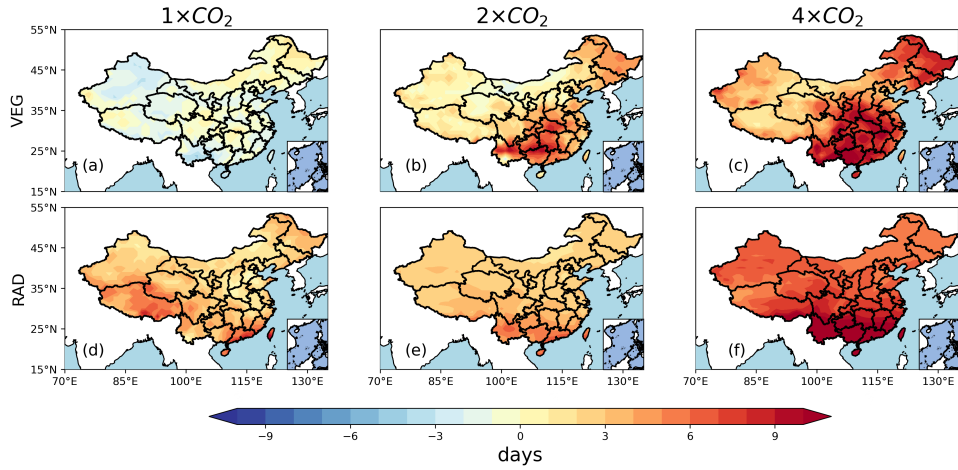


Fig. 10 Effects of VEG and RAD on total heat wave days (HWT). Only statistically significant differences are shown.

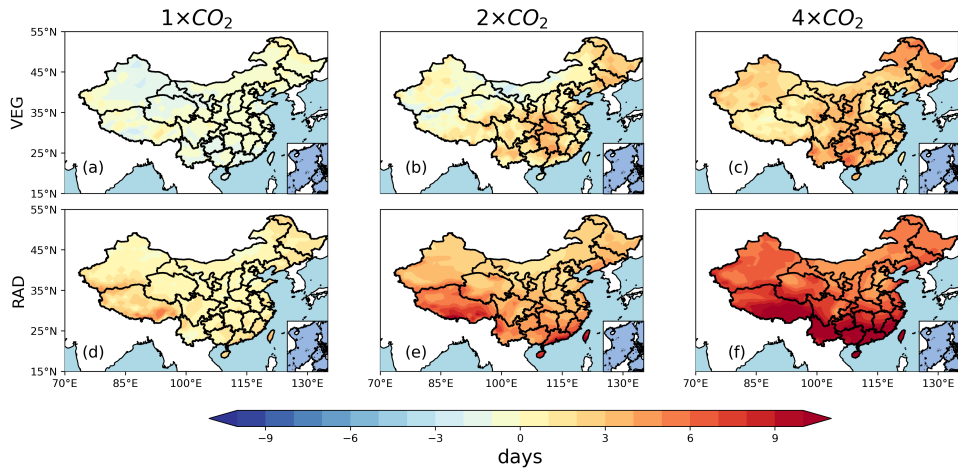


Fig. 11 Effects of VEG and RAD on heat wave maximum length (HWML). Only statistically significant differences are shown.

257 4 Conclusions and discussion

258 Theoretical studies and climate models suggest that rising concentrations of CO_2 will
 259 bring substantial changes to global precipitation and temperature patterns [41]. As a
 260 result, due to the rise in CO_2 levels, it is anticipated that the occurrence of extreme
 261 heat events will witness a substantial increase in the upcoming decades. While most
 262 projections of future extreme events mainly focus on the radiative effects of CO_2 , our
 263 findings indicate that the direct impact of rising atmospheric CO_2 concentrations on
 264 temperature and precipitation in vegetated regions of China, known as CO_2 vegetation

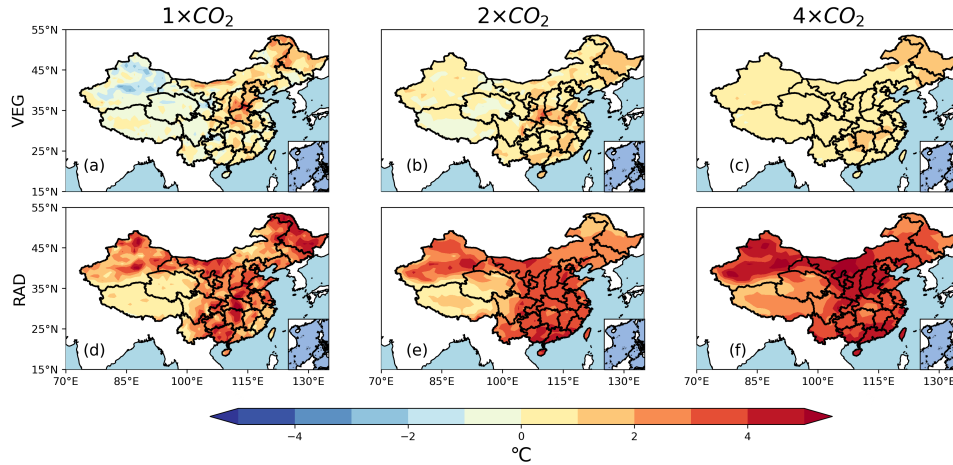


Fig. 12 Effects of VEG and RAD on heat wave maximum intensity (HWMI). Only statistically significant differences are shown.

265 forcing, should not be overlooked. Despite the enhanced leaf area index (LAI) result-
 266 ing from elevated CO_2 , the reduction in stomatal conductance during the warm season
 267 due to CO_2 physiological forcing limits surface evaporative cooling and contributes
 268 to an upward shift in both average and extreme summer temperatures in China. The
 269 decrease in transpiration caused by CO_2 physiological forcing triggers various inter-
 270 actions among climate systems that further intensify the probability and severity of
 271 extreme heat events. The transition from latent to sensible heating leads to a drier
 272 and more stable boundary layer characterized by lower evapotranspiration (ET) and
 273 increased planetary boundary layer heights. Additionally, CO_2 vegetation forcing sig-
 274 nificantly reduces transpiration in vegetated areas of China, which may potentially
 275 lead to an increase in the frequency of dry days. The days that exceed the 95th extreme
 276 precipitation decrease in the near future. In different CO_2 scenarios, the VEG and
 277 RAD show various effects on extreme events. All in all, these physiologically driven
 278 changes can either amplify or mitigate the effects of radiative forcing on future pre-
 279 cipitation patterns. Overall, our findings highlight the particularly pronounced effects
 280 of CO_2 vegetation forcing in the humid regions of China across various scenarios.

281 In the current climate, the analysis of CMIP6 experiments in this study highlights
 282 the significant role of CO_2 vegetation forcing in hydrological and energy processes.
 283 However, under high- CO_2 conditions, the reduction in transpiration resulting from
 284 CO_2 physiological forcing outweighs the potential increase in transpiration from CO_2
 285 fertilization. This leads to a widespread increase in heat waves and a decrease in
 286 extreme precipitation in China. Even after anthropogenic CO_2 emissions cease, tem-
 287 peratures and heat extremes will continue to rise due to the thermal inertia in the
 288 oceans. It is crucial to enhance our understanding of the influence of vegetation on
 289 carbon and hydrologic cycles and develop improved models to better anticipate and

290 mitigate the severe impacts of future heat waves. This is particularly important con-
291 sidering the potential of plant changes to influence the surface energy and hydrological
292 cycle in the future.

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296 **Declarations**

297 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest

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305 • Authors' contributions

306 Z. Chen and X.T. Hou helped design the study. X.T. Hou, P.Y. Fan and F. Ji
307 accessed and processed the dataset. They also helped to write the manuscript. L.
308 Li and Z.H. Qian helped to contribute the writing. G.Q. Sun and G.L. Feng helped
309 with validations. The finished version of the manuscript has been reviewed and get
310 all the approvals from all authors.

311 • Data availability

312 The CMIP6 data is available for access at the following URL: [https://esgf-node.
313 llnl.gov/search/cmip6/](https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/).

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