



Peer review status:

This is a non-peer-reviewed preprint submitted to EarthArXiv.

# 1 Amplified agricultural impacts from more frequent 2 and intense sequential heat events

3 Raed Hamed<sup>1\*</sup>, Carmen B. Steinmann<sup>2,3\*</sup>, Qiyun Ma<sup>4</sup>, Daniel  
4 Balanzategui<sup>5,6,7</sup>, Ellie Broadman<sup>8</sup>, Corey Lesk<sup>9</sup> and Kai  
5 Kornhuber<sup>10,11</sup>

6 <sup>1</sup>Institute for Environmental Studies (IVM), Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam,  
7 Amsterdam, 1081, the Netherlands.

8 <sup>2</sup>Institute for Environmental Decisions, ETH Zurich, Zurich, 8092, Switzerland.

9 <sup>3</sup> Federal Office of Meteorology and Climatology MeteoSwiss, Zurich, 8058,  
10 Switzerland

11 <sup>4</sup> Alfred Wegener Institute, Helmholtz Centre for Polar and Marine Research,  
12 Bremerhaven, 27570, Germany.

13 <sup>5</sup> Materials Testing Institute, University of Applied Sciences, Luebeck, 23562,  
14 Germany.

15 <sup>6</sup> Department of Natural Sciences, German Archaeology Institute DAI, Berlin, 14195,  
16 Germany.

17 <sup>7</sup> Geography Department, Humboldt University of Berlin, Berlin, 10117, Germany.

18 <sup>8</sup> Laboratory of Tree-Ring Research, University of Arizona, Tucson, 85721, USA.

19 <sup>9</sup> Department of Geography, Neukom Institute for Computational Science,  
20 Dartmouth College, Hanover, 03755, USA.

21 <sup>10</sup> Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory, Columbia University, Palisades, 10964, USA.

22 <sup>11</sup> International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis, Laxenburg, 2361, Austria.

23 \*These authors contributed equally to this work.

24 E-mail: carmen.steinmann@usys.ethz.ch

25 **Keywords:** Compound Events, Food Production, Heat Extremes, Climate Change

26 **Abstract.** As the climate warms, interacting weather extremes such as sequential  
27 heat events pose complex risks to societies. Regarding global agriculture, laboratory  
28 experiments suggest that early crop exposure to heat may either confer tolerance or  
29 enhance vulnerability to subsequent heat during the critical crop flowering stage. We  
30 show that warm early-seasons improve crop yield potential, particularly for soybean  
31 and maize, but also increase the impacts of subsequent heat by 5% to 55% compared  
32 to years with average early-season temperatures. The impacts of this increased yield  
33 sensitivity outweigh the benefits of early season heat when mid-season temperature  
34 anomalies exceed 0.7-5 °C (depending on the crop). Analyzing projected temperatures  
35 under the Shared Socioeconomic Pathway 3-7.0, we find a tenfold increase in the  
36 likelihood of experiencing sequential heat in early and mid-season crop growth stages,  
37 defined as a joint 90<sup>th</sup> percentile event. Accounting for the interactive effects of early  
38 and mid-season warming increases projected temperature-related crop yield losses by  
39 2–44%, depending on crop and region. These results underline the emerging nonlinear  
40 risks from sequential heat extremes to food systems, which can largely be avoided when  
41 limiting warming to 1.5 °C globally.

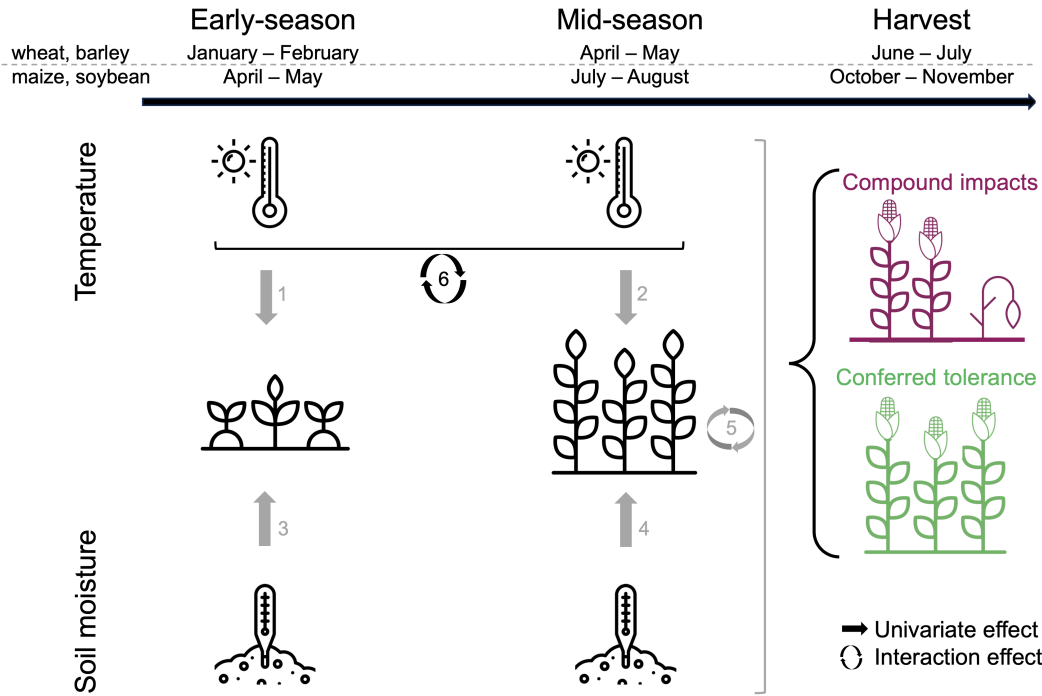
## 1. Introduction

Climate and weather extremes often have detrimental effects on crop production (Lesk et al.; 2016; Vogel et al.; 2021), especially when multiple extremes occur within the same growing season (Zscheischler et al.; 2018). While the compounding impacts of combined heat and drought on crops have drawn substantial attention (Hamed et al.; 2021; Lesk et al.; 2021), the occurrence of more complex combinations of weather and climate extremes is becoming increasingly likely as the climate warms. Sequential (in other words, consecutive or temporally compounding) heat extremes are a particularly salient example, as they are projected to become more likely and reach greater intensities as growing seasons get warmer and begin earlier (Raymond et al.; 2022; Baldwin et al.; 2019).

The likelihood of sequential heat extremes is expected to increase as individual seasons warm due to the thermodynamic response to rising greenhouse gas concentrations (Robinson et al.; 2021). Additionally, more complex climate change effects involve potential changes in the dependence between seasonal heat (Weiland et al.; 2021). For example, warmer springs will likely feature lower soil moisture due to the direct drying effect of spring heat combined with the indirect effects of earlier snowmelt and vegetation green-up. A drier land surface during spring can prime the surface energy balance and boundary layer in ways that enhance the causal connection between sequential heat events, increasing their likelihood by more than what would be expected from warming alone (Gloege et al.; 2022).

While thermal limitations in crop species are well studied, little is known about the impact of sequential hot seasons on crops at the scale of regional production. In small-scale experiments, early crop exposure to heat stress triggers myriad physiological responses with lasting effects on vegetative growth, yield processes, and stress signaling and response pathways (Hossain et al.; 2018; Antoniou et al.; 2016; Mittler et al.; 2012). Competing responses to early heat exposure can confer tolerance (acclimation) or worsen susceptibility (accumulating or compounding stress) to subsequent heat (WANG et al.; 2017; Liu et al.; 2022; Nadeem et al.; 2018), and may be dependent on region and crop type. As a result, it is unclear whether the cumulative effect of these inter-seasonal heat responses helps or hinders crops confronted by consecutive heat stress.

Here, we clarify the impact of sequential warm seasons on yields for staple crops at local and regional production scales across the United States (US) and Europe (EU) over the past four decades. We introduce a statistical model that isolates the interactive effect of sequential heat on observed maize, soybean, barley, and wheat yields. We then investigate future frequency changes in sequential heat using Coupled Model Intercomparison Project 6 (CMIP6) model experiments under different emission scenarios. Finally, we compute the associated expected future crop yield losses, including impacts from compounding sequential heat events. We conclude by highlighting the urgent need to consider enhanced non-linear impacts to crops resulting from the increased intensity and likelihood of sequential heat events. This is essential for a more



**Figure 1. Impacts of compound temperature and soil moisture extremes on crop yields.** Straight arrows represent univariate effects of temperature (1 early-season, 2 mid-season) and soil moisture (3 early-season, 4 mid-season). Circular arrows represent the interactive effects of mid-season co-occurring interactive effects of temperature and soil moisture and sequential early and late seasonal temperature anomalies (arrow 6). The interactive effect of sequential early- and mid-season temperature (arrow 6) is the core focus of this study, while we control for the effects represented by the remaining gray arrows.

accurate estimation of future risks to the food system, facilitating the adaptation of cropping systems to increasingly sequential extremes.

## 2. Data and Methods

### 2.1. A statistical model to attribute yield losses to univariate and compound weather conditions across seasons

We use crop- and region-specific mixed-effects models to relate crop yield  $Y_t^{(c)}$  in county  $c$  and year  $t$  (1980–2020) to seasonal climate anomalies and temporal trends. The fixed effects include linear and quadratic terms for mean maximum temperature ( $T$ ) and soil moisture ( $M$ ) during early ( $e$ ) and mid-season ( $m$ ) growth stages, along with interaction terms for sequential temperature effects and compound heat-moisture stress. A linear time trend  $t$  captures gradual changes from climate and technological progress. To account for spatial heterogeneity, we include county-level random intercepts  $u_0^{(c)}$  and random slopes  $u_1^{(c)}t$ . The full model is specified as:



$$\begin{aligned}
Y_t^{(c)} = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 T_{e,t}^{(c)} + \beta_2 T_{m,t}^{(c)} + \beta_3 \left(T_{e,t}^{(c)}\right)^2 \\
& + \beta_4 \left(T_{m,t}^{(c)}\right)^2 + \beta_5 M_{e,t}^{(c)} + \beta_6 M_{m,t}^{(c)} \\
& + \beta_7 \left(M_{e,t}^{(c)}\right)^2 + \beta_8 \left(M_{m,t}^{(c)}\right)^2 \\
& + \beta_9 \left(T_{e,t}^{(c)} T_{m,t}^{(c)}\right) + \beta_{10} \left(T_{m,t}^{(c)} M_{m,t}^{(c)}\right) \\
& + \beta_{11} t + u_0^{(c)} + u_1^{(c)} t + \varepsilon_t^{(c)}
\end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

96 We weight each observation by harvested area so that high-production counties  
 97 exert proportionally greater influence on fixed-effect estimates. To ensure agronomic  
 98 comparability, we include only counties where cropping calendars align with the  
 99 following criteria: soybean and maize are planted in April–May and wheat and barley  
 100 reach maturity in June–July. Accordingly, we define the early and mid-seasons as  
 101 April–May and July–August for soybean and maize, and January–February and April–  
 102 May for wheat and barley. We further limit the sample to counties that are at least 90%  
 103 rain-fed to avoid confounding effects from irrigation (Fig. S8), and require a minimum  
 104 of 25 years of yield and weather data per county to enable robust statistical inference.  
 105 Crop calendars and irrigation status are derived from the MIRCA-OS dataset (Kebede  
 106 et al.; 2025).

## 107 2.2. Historic crop and climate data.

108 County-level yield (metric tons per hectare, t/ha) and harvested area (hectares, ha)  
 109 data for soy, maize, and wheat in the US from 1980 to 2020 are obtained from the  
 110 USDA dataset <https://quickstats.nass.usda.gov/>, last access: 15 November 2022).  
 111 Sub-regional yield (t/ha) and harvested area (ha) for soft wheat, winter barley and  
 112 maize in the EU from 1980 to 2020 are sourced from the EUROSTAT dataset (<https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/agriculture/>, last access: 1 May 2024). Harvested  
 114 area is utilized as weights both in fitting the model and for spatial averaging across crop  
 115 regions.

116 Root zone soil moisture and maximum temperature variables are obtained from  
 117 GLEAM v3.5a (Martens et al.; 2017) and CPC datasets (CPC Global Unified  
 118 Temperature data provided by the NOAA PSL, Boulder, Colorado, USA, from  
 119 their website at <https://psl.noaa.gov/>), respectively. GLEAM is a model-based  
 120 dataset forced with satellite and reanalysis data, while CPC leverages station-based  
 121 observations. We filter these datasets for the study period and average them over two-  
 122 month intervals to represent early and mid-season weather conditions. These intervals  
 123 roughly align with the dominant regional vegetative and flowering crop stages identified  
 124 in the Crop Calendar Dataset (Sacks et al.; 2010). Soil moisture is standardized at the  
 125 county level to reflect local drought conditions, similar to the SPEI approach (Stagge  
 126 et al.; 2015). All climate variables are spatially averaged to correspond to sub-regional  
 127 crop yield administrative units.

### 2.3. Projecting changes in the frequency of sequential heat extremes.

To analyse changes in frequency of sequential heat extremes, we make use of CMIP6 projections for four different emission scenarios: SSP1-1.9 (9 models) and SSP1-2.6 (22 models), SSP2-4.5 (15 models), SSP3-7.0 (15 models). The choice of models per scenario are described in Table S3.

We set the 90th percentile of the joint early and mid-season temperature ranks during the historic period as our baseline to define sequential extreme heat events (i.e., the warmest 10% of sequential heat years). For each year  $i$ , the count threshold is computed as

$$C_i = \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{1}\{T_{\text{early},i} \geq T_{\text{early},j} \text{ and } T_{\text{mid},i} \geq T_{\text{mid},j}\} \quad (2)$$

where  $\mathbf{1}\{\cdot\}$  is the indicator function that equals 1 if the condition holds and 0 otherwise, and  $n$  is the total number of years in the dataset. A year is classified as extreme if its  $C_i$  exceeds the historical 90th percentile.

We then compute the frequency of extreme events for each combination of ssp scenario, model, and crop pair and derive a likelihood multiplication factor by comparing these frequencies to the historic baseline.

In addition, we calculate count thresholds  $C_i$  independently for each period and assess changes in the relative frequency of extreme events compared to the historic period. This complementary approach provides insights into potential shifts in the tail behavior and dependence structure between early and mid-season temperatures.

### 2.4. Projecting compound crop impacts from sequential spring and summer warming.

We calculate 40-year yield estimates for both a historical period (1975–2015) and a future period (2060–2100) using each CMIP6 model. This forms the basis to analyze changes in mean yields, which are weighted by harvested area as per period (2010–2020).

We first compute changes in average maximum temperature  $\overline{\Delta T_s^c}$  for each season  $s$  (early ( $e$ ) and mid ( $m$ )) and county  $c$  between the historic (1975–2015) and future (2060–2100) 40-year periods for each CMIP6 model. Second, we combine these delta changes with the historical estimated model coefficients (see Section 2.1) to project future yield changes ( $\overline{\Delta Y^c}$ , Eq. 3) – function of early-season, mid-season and interactive temperature effects.

$$\overline{\Delta Y} = \beta_1 \overline{\Delta T_e} + \beta_3 \overline{\Delta T_e^2} + \beta_2 \overline{\Delta T_m} + \beta_4 \overline{\Delta T_m^2} + \beta_9 \overline{\Delta T_e \Delta T_m}. \quad (3)$$

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Negative effects of sequential hot conditions on crop yields

Our prime objective in this study is to quantify the effects of sequential heat on crop yields. In particular, we are interested in the interactive effect of early and mid-season

161 temperature conditions beyond the impacts of each separately. For this, we develop  
162 crop- and region-specific mixed-effects models linking crop yields to mean maximum  
163 temperature and soil moisture anomalies during early and mid-season crop growth stages  
164 (see Methods). For soybean and maize, the early season is April–May and the mid-season  
165 July–August; for wheat and barley, the early season is January–February and the  
166 mid-season April–May (see Methods). Non-linear responses are captured with linear and  
167 quadratic terms for each variable in both seasons. Interaction terms between mid-season  
168 temperature and soil moisture represent well-documented impacts of compound hot and  
169 dry conditions on crop yields (Lesk et al.; 2022), while interactions between early- and  
170 mid-season temperature test for sequential heat effects.

171 Explicitly including soil moisture is in line with recent efforts aimed at better  
172 disentangling water and heat stress in statistical models (Proctor et al.; 2022; Rigden  
173 et al.; 2020). Separating moisture and heat stress is important as their impacts  
174 reflect distinct physiological mechanisms and therefore would eventually require different  
175 adaptation strategies (Suzuki et al.; 2014). Figure 1 illustrates the fitted relationships;  
176 full coefficient estimates appear in Table S1 and Table S2. Our statistical model explains  
177 roughly half of the variability in soybean and maize yields (soybean-US:59%, maize-  
178 US:66%, maize-EU: 42%) and 24% of barley in the EU. The predictability for wheat in  
179 both the US and the EU is considerably lower (wheat-US: 17%, wheat-EU: 5%).

180 Our statistical model detects yield effects of temperature and soil moisture within  
181 the early-season and mid-season periods. Warm early-season temperatures generally  
182 enhance yield potential, but for wheat and barley, above-average early-season warmth  
183 reduces yields (Fig. S1). Wet early-season conditions lower yields for soybean, maize,  
184 and barley, but benefit wheat in both the EU and US (Fig. S2). In the mid-season, heat  
185 consistently reduces yields across all crops (Fig. S3). Wet conditions generally boost  
186 yields, except for wheat and barley in the EU, where excess moisture leads to losses.  
187 Notably, extreme wet conditions negatively affect all crops (Fig. S4). We also find  
188 that co-occurring hot and dry conditions produce synergistic impacts that significantly  
189 amplify yield losses for all crops beyond the simple additive effects of temperature and  
190 soil moisture anomalies (Fig. S5). The varying sensitivities of crops to early- and mid-  
191 season temperature and moisture conditions are consistent with results highlighted in  
192 previous work (Ortiz-Bobea et al.; 2019; Butler and Huybers; 2015), along with the  
193 compounding effects of hot and dry conditions (Hamed et al.; 2021; Lesk et al.; 2021).

194 However, we also find an additional compounding impact from interactions between  
195 early- and mid-season temperatures (Fig. 1, arrow 6). These interactions are negative for  
196 all crops and regions, though they are less pronounced for wheat. This suggests that crop  
197 yield sensitivity to mid-season temperature depends on the temperature experienced  
198 during the early season. Specifically, while high early-season temperatures are generally  
199 beneficial, they appear to prime crops for stronger negative responses to heat later in the  
200 season. These effects are not captured by early- or mid-season temperature alone and  
201 emerge despite controlling for soil moisture and compound heat–moisture interactions.

202 The important effect of early-season heat in pre-conditioning crop yield responses

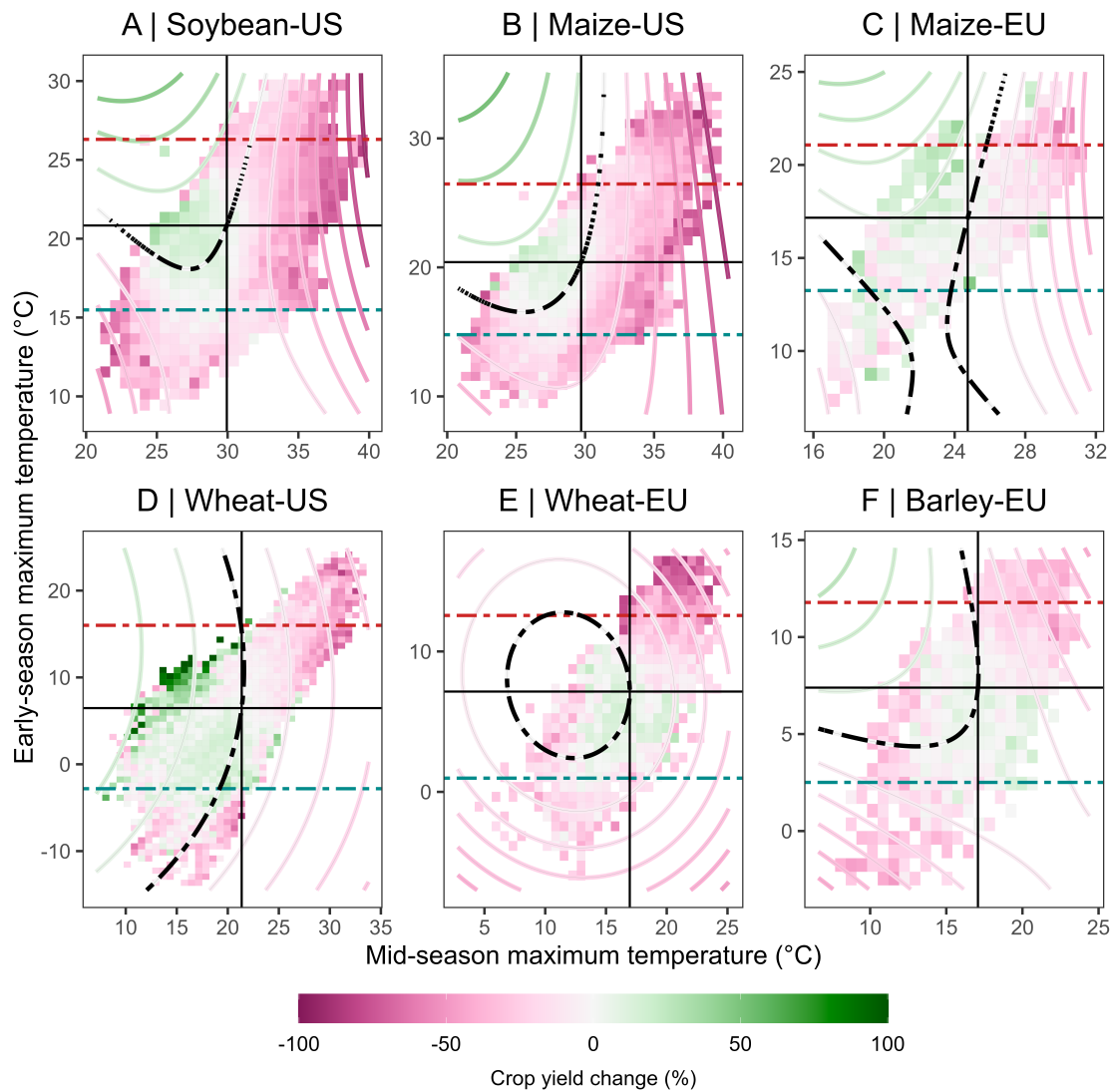
to subsequent mid-season heat is confirmed by both yield and climate observations (bins, Fig. 2), and by our statistical models (contours, Fig. 2) for crops both in the US and EU. Yields exhibit non-linear bivariate dependence structures with respect to early- and mid-season temperatures. We express yield changes relative to the trend-based expected yield. Notably, the strongest negative yield anomalies occur when hot mid-seasons follow warmer-than-average early-seasons (upper right quadrants, Fig. 2). In such growing seasons, yield losses are approximately four times larger compared to hot mid-seasons following an early season with average to below-average temperatures (bottom right quadrant, Fig. 2A, B). While years with warm springs are more likely to be dry, the statistical results in Fig. 2 isolate the interactive effect of inter-seasonal temperature using controls on early- and mid-season soil moisture. This result thus highlights sequential early- and mid-season heat as a notable climate risk to crop yields over recent decades.

The nonlinear relationship between crop yields and temperature anomalies reveals that sensitivity to mid-season heat is modulated by early-season temperatures. To illustrate this, we show yield responses to mid-season temperatures under the 5<sup>th</sup> (cold), 50<sup>th</sup> (normal), and 95<sup>th</sup> (hot) percentiles of early-season temperature (Fig. 3). Yields decline more steeply with rising mid-season temperatures following a hot early-season compared to normal early conditions (red vs. grey lines, Fig. 3). This increased sensitivity varies by crop and region: soybean shows a 36% higher sensitivity, maize 25% (US) and 16% (EU), and barley the most at 56%. In contrast, wheat shows only a marginal increase (5%) in both regions. The differences roughly double when comparing cold versus hot early-season preconditions (blue vs. red lines, Fig. 3). While mid-season heat has long been recognized as a key driver of yield loss, these results show that its impact is amplified by preceding early-season warmth.

Yield benefits from warm early-seasons (red vs. blue lines, Fig. 3) only materialize under cool-to-normal mid-season conditions and are largely canceled out when followed by hot mid-seasons. We identify crop-specific mid-season temperature thresholds beyond which early-season warmth results in net yield losses: 5 °C for US maize, 3.6 °C for US soybean, 3.5 °C for EU maize, and just 0.7 °C for EU barley (vertical red dashed line, Fig.3). Beyond these thresholds, early-season warmth amplifies mid-season heat sensitivity enough to negate the yield benefits of early-season heat. This pattern reflects an interactive effect, where early-season conditions alter mid-season yield responses, rather than a simple additive effect of temperature across the two periods. In contrast, wheat shows neither benefits from warm early-seasons nor a clear modulation of mid-season sensitivity (Fig. 3D, E).

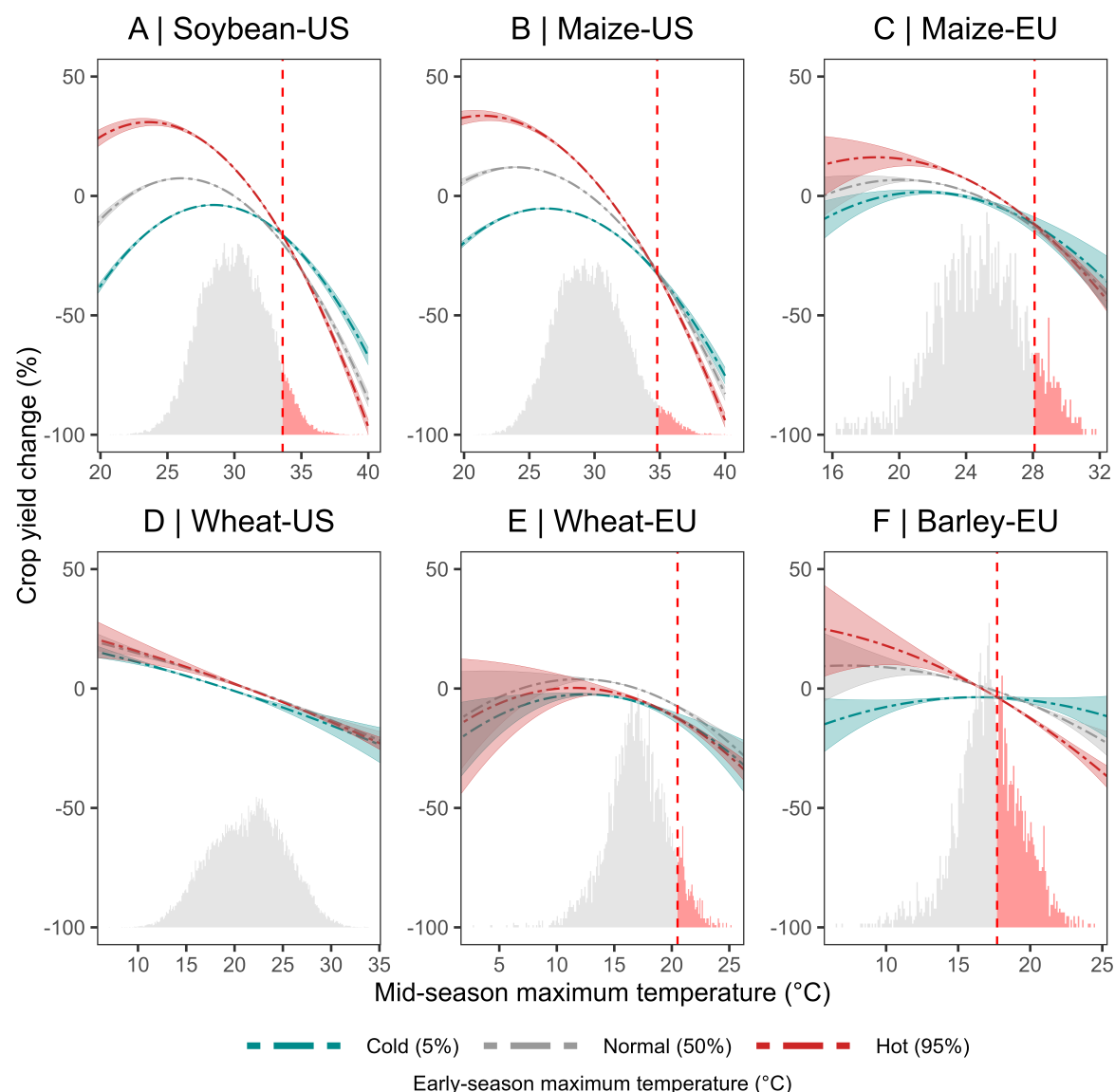
### *3.2. Amplified risks of sequential heat events beyond +1.5 °C of global warming*

Prior projections of crop yields under climate change generally conclude that yield losses from warmer mid-seasons outstrip the benefits of early-season warming, except in the coldest cropping regions (Ortiz-Bobea et al.; 2019; Ray et al.; 2019; Butler and Huybers;



**Figure 2. Yield sensitivity to early and mid-season mean maximum temperature.** Observed yield anomalies relative to the trend-based expected yield are stratified by different early- and mid-season temperature levels (shaded bins; bin size =  $0.7^{\circ}\text{C}$ ). Contour lines represent yield anomalies based on the statistical model. The dotted black curve shows joint early and mid-season conditions conducive to average yield estimates. Dotted blue and red lines represent the  $5^{\text{th}}$  and  $95^{\text{th}}$  percentiles of early-season temperature conditions. Solid black lines indicate the average early- and mid-season temperature conditions.

243 2015). However, our findings suggest that this balance may further depend on the  
 244 conditioned influence of early-season temperatures on crop responses to subsequent mid-  
 245 season heat. This insight implies that future yield projections depend on the relative  
 246 seasonal rates of warming and concurrence of early- and mid-season heat anomalies. To  
 247 assess future risks of sequential heat events, we use climate projections from CMIP6  
 248 model experiments (see Table S3) under emission scenarios compatible with the 1.5



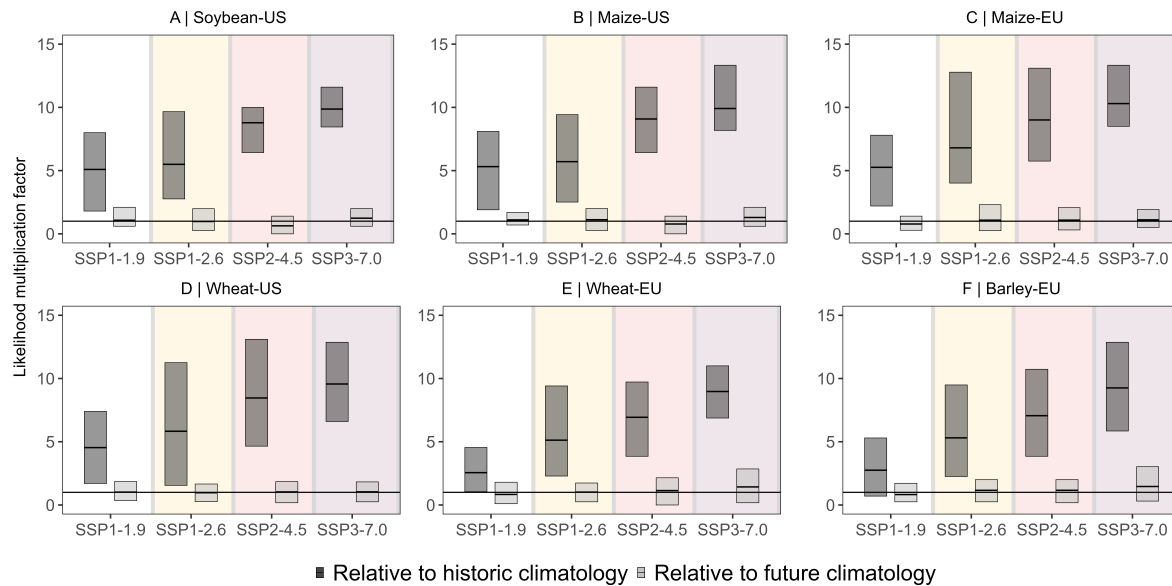
**Figure 3. Modeled dependence of yield sensitivity to mid-season temperatures on early-season temperature percentile.** The Y-axis shows yield anomalies relative to the trend-based expected yield, as a function of mid-season temperature levels. These sensitivities are shown separately for three different early-season temperature percentiles (5<sup>th</sup> in blue, 50<sup>th</sup> in grey, and 95<sup>th</sup> in red). Shading represents the associated 95% confidence intervals for the estimated effects. Histograms display the distribution of mid-season maximum temperatures.

249 degree guardrail stated in the Paris Agreement (mitigation scenarios SSP1-1.9 and SSP1-  
 250 2.6), the current-policy scenario (SSP2-4.5), and a high-emissions scenario (SSP3-7.0).  
 251 Note that the number of models differs between SSP scenarios (see Table S3), but that  
 252 we do provide results also for the 8 climate models shared across scenarios (Fig. S6).

253 Temperature increases become more pronounced under higher emission scenarios.  
 254 Under SSP2-4.5, we project additional warming of 2.7 °C in the early season and 3.5 °C

in the mid-season over soybean and maize growing areas in the US by the end of the century. For wheat, the increase is 2.9 °C and 2.8 °C, respectively, compared to historical conditions from 1975 to 2015. In the EU, maize is projected to experience 2.2 °C of early-season and 3.9 °C of mid-season warming, while wheat and barley show smaller increases of 2 °C in both growth stage periods (Fig. S7). These differences between crops within the same region are mainly due to variations in the timing of early- and mid-season growth stages. That is, early-season conditions for wheat and barley occur in February and March, whereas for soybean and maize, they fall in April and May.

The frequency of sequential heat extremes, defined as the 10 percent most extreme combinations of early- and mid-season heat during the historical period (see Data and Methods), increases substantially with emissions. We find that sequential heat extremes are 10 times more likely under a high-emission scenario (SSP3-7.0), 8 times more likely under SSP2-4.5, and 5 times more likely even under stringent mitigation (SSP1-1.9) (Fig. 4).



**Figure 4. Projected frequency changes in sequential heat events for the time period 2060–2100 under different emission scenarios:** SSP1-1.9 (number models  $n=9$ ), SSP1-2.6 ( $n=22$ ), SSP2-4.5 ( $n=15$ ), SSP3-7.0( $n=15$ ). The change in event frequency represents a weighted spatial average over harvesting regions and is defined as the frequency of events exceeding the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile of joint early- and mid-season temperature extremes for two cases: 1)frequency change relative to historic climatology (1975–2015), 2)frequency change relative to future climatology (2060–2100). Bars show average climate model projections, while error bars show the spread across models.

To account for changes in the climate baseline, we also examine frequency shifts using a relative definition of sequential heat extremes that adjusts to future climatological conditions (Fig. 4). This approach allows us to detect changes in the dependence between early- and mid-season heat, beyond expected increases in

absolute temperatures. Under this definition, relative event frequency remains largely unchanged across emission scenarios. However, models show persistent disagreement on the direction of change, indicating high uncertainty in projections of relative sequential heat risk. This uncertainty is likely linked to uncertainties in land–atmosphere feedback or circulation changes under forcing (Shepherd; 2014; Sippel et al.; 2017; Dong et al.; 2022).

### *3.3. Enhanced impacts on yield production from increasingly sequential heat events under future emission scenarios*

To evaluate crop risks from projected warming in the context of interactive seasonal temperature effects, we apply our crop-climate models using early- and mid-season temperature projections. Under SSP2-4.5, soybean and maize yields decline by 13–19% on average (up to 35% in some models), while wheat and barley losses are smaller (around 4–5%), with consistent sign agreement across all CMIP6 models (Fig. 5). These results suggest that crop type, rather than region, is the dominant factor shaping total yield sensitivity to warming.

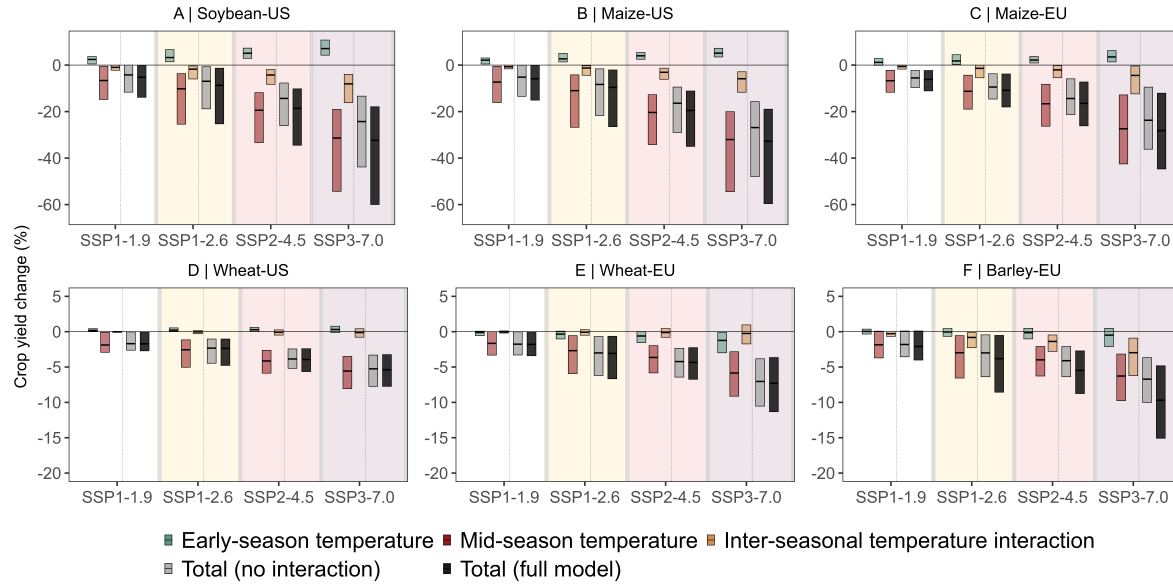
However, the yield impacts of early- and mid-season temperature anomalies, and their interaction, varies across crops and regions. Early-season warming benefits soybean and maize, especially in the US, but has little effect on wheat and barley in either the US and EU (Fig. 5). Joint warming of early and mid-seasons substantially amplifies yield losses for maize, soybean, and barley (Fig. 5A-C, F), but has minimal impact on wheat (Fig. 5D, E). In many cases, the losses from this inter-seasonal interaction effect cancel out or even exceed the gains from warmer early seasons under the SSP2-4.5 scenario and beyond. Ignoring this interaction under SSP3-7.0 leads to underestimated losses of 2–3% for wheat (EU, US), 19–22% for maize (EU, US), 33% for US soybean, and 44% for EU barley (Fig. 5, comparing total including and excluding the contribution of the temperature interaction). This highlights the importance of accounting for the inter-seasonal dependence of yield sensitivities to heat in future crop-climate risk assessments.

Importantly, our results show that nonlinear yield losses from sequential heat can be substantially mitigated by limiting global warming to 1.5 °C (SSP1-1.9), where projected losses are restricted to 1–6% compared to expected yield, albeit with significant model uncertainty (Fig. 5).

## **Discussion & Conclusion**

Sequential heat extremes are a growing climate risk with potentially non-linear impacts on natural and societal systems. In this study, we assess the sensitivity of several crop types to sequential temperature and soil moisture anomalies using a statistical framework. Relying on observations avoids the key limitations of current process-based crop models, which struggle to capture extreme heat impacts and do not explicitly simulate interactions between key stress stimuli (Heinicke et al.; 2022; Schewe et al.; 2019; Asseng





**Figure 5. Projected crop production changes for the future period (2060–2100) compared to historic (1975–2015) under different emission scenarios:** SSP1-1.9 (number models  $n=9$ ), SSP1-2.6 ( $n=22$ ), SSP2-4.5 ( $n=15$ ), SSP3-7.0( $n=15$ ). Average crop yield losses are attributed to early- and mid-season temperature changes and their interaction. Bar show average projected losses, while error bars show the 5–95% range accounting for regression and model projection uncertainties.

et al.; 2015; N33133ia J33133unior et al.; 2025), leading to an underestimation of projected yield losses (Kornhuber et al.; 2023). Although our model does not capture the full range of agronomic factors affecting yield, the inclusion of terms  $t$  and  $u$  allows us to account for some of these influences (Equation 1). Specifically, the  $t$  term reflects long-term trends in yield, which is extensively used as a proxy for technological advancements, adoption of new cultivars, and the  $CO_2$  fertilization effect during the study period (Liu et al.; 2016). The  $u$  term captures systematic, time-invariant differences between counties, including baseline management practices and soil quality. However, in future projections, we only study the effects on yields driven by sequential heat events, assuming changes in agronomic factors, and sensitivities to environmental conditions remain at their observed historical levels. This ignores potential adaptation measures that could contribute significantly to future yields (Aggarwal et al.; 2019).

323

Within the climate system, both spring warmth (Gloege et al.; 2022) and the inter-relationship between temperature and soil moisture (Miralles et al.; 2014) can drive heat extremes during summertime. Here, we control for soil moisture and its interaction with mid-season temperature. Additionally, we control for a potential direct, non-linear heat response in both seasons separately by including quadratic temperature terms. This approach pinpoints the influence of early-season heat exposure on crop responses during the mid-season, independent of both the potential physical coupling between temperature in both seasons and the non-linear impacts of soil moisture and its interplay with

331

temperature on crop yields. We focus on temperature and soil moisture across seasons as principal drivers of crop yields (Butler and Huybers; 2015; Ortiz-Bobea et al.; 2019) and disregard other correlated climatic factors such as radiation, wind, humidity, and  $CO_2$ , which also play distinct, but secondary roles. Future research can further disentangle these drivers for more detailed process attribution and improved representation in yield projections.

We find amplified yield losses from mid-season heat preceded by warm early seasons. This interaction is consistent across crops and regions, though weaker for wheat. The results reveal an underappreciated climate risk to crops beyond 1.5 °C warming, with important implications for compound stress assessments and adaptation planning. In field and laboratory experiments, certain crop responses to early heat exposure have been shown to confer acquired thermotolerance (or 'heat priming'). Key physiological tolerances such as cell membrane stability and water-use efficiency at high temperatures can be enhanced when young crops experience heat (WANG et al.; 2017; Liu et al.; 2022; Nadeem et al.; 2018). However, our results suggest that at regional crop-production scales, these yield-benefiting responses are outweighed by compounding stress interactions (Hossain et al.; 2018; Antoniou et al.; 2016; Mittler et al.; 2012). For instance, the accumulation of reactive oxygen species due to early-season heat may raise baseline plant stress, and thus heat sensitivity, during the flowering stage (Choudhury et al.; 2017). Moreover, warm early conditions may also promote pathogen development, increasing crop susceptibility to later-season heat stress (Dixit et al.; 2024).

The structure of interactive heat effects highlights the balance between early-season gains and mid-season heat damage. Warmer early-season conditions increase net yield for all crops except barley and wheat, which show signs of early-season heat stress above average levels, particularly in the EU (Fig. 5D,E). These responses are consistent with prior findings on regional sensitivity (Ben-Ari et al.; 2018) and reported impacts of early heat stress on photosynthesis and tissue development in barley and wheat (Mendanha et al.; 2018; Nadeem et al.; 2018). For soybean and maize, however, yield gains due to warmer early-season temperatures are negated by exacerbated losses from mid-season heat. We interpret these losses as due to enhanced mid-season yield sensitivity to heat, consistent with physiological literature. An alternative explanation is that mid-season heat prevents crops from realizing the benefits of early-season warming such as improved germination rates (Butler et al.; 2014), a potential gain in yield that can only be realized alongside favorable mid-season conditions.

While the overall direction of sequential heat impacts is consistent across regions, the temperature thresholds at which benefits of early heat are completely negated by the increased sensitivity to mid-season heat differ. For example, maize yields decline under sequential heat in both the EU and the US, but the mid-season temperature at which interaction losses outweigh early-season gains is lower in the EU (28 °C) than in the US (35 °C), corresponding to anomalies of 3.6 °C and 5 °C, respectively.

374 This suggests that although the response direction is consistent, regional differences in  
375 cultivar, management, or baseline climate modulate the interactive effects of early- and  
376 mid-season heat.

377 A notable difference is the response of wheat to sequential heat, which is weaker  
378 than that of barley, even though both share similar planting and harvesting windows.  
379 This contrast may stem from physiological and developmental differences. Experimental  
380 evidence shows that both wheat and barley are highly sensitive to heat during repro-  
381 ductive development, particularly around anthesis and grain filling. In addition, both  
382 wheat and barley are sensitive to early-season heat, which can delay inflorescence devel-  
383 opment and reduce spikelet formation (Jacott and Boden; 2020). However, wheat more  
384 frequently exhibits accelerated phenology and greater acclimation capacity (Jacott and  
385 Boden; 2020), which may enable partial recovery from early-season stress. For example,  
386 in Germany, warmer springs have advanced wheat heading by up to 14 days over recent  
387 decades, a shift estimated to almost fully offset the warming-induced increase in anthe-  
388 sis heat stress, with potential impacts being 60% greater if phenology did not advance  
389 (Rezaei et al.; 2015). Globally, wheat growing seasons have shortened and heading dates  
390 have advanced by  $\sim 2$  days per decade on average (Ren et al.; 2019; Hu et al.; 2005),  
391 highlighting the widespread acceleration of wheat phenology under warming. Barley  
392 may lack such phenological flexibility, which is consistent with the stronger sequential  
393 heat interaction effects observed for this crop in our analysis. Some of the differences  
394 in wheat's sequential heat sensitivity may also reflect differences in model skill between  
395 crops. More broadly, our findings suggest that the impacts of sequential heat exposure  
396 vary across crops, reflecting underlying genetic and physiological traits (Jagadish et al.;  
397 2021), and may also vary across regions for a given crop due to differences in climate,  
398 management, or soils.

399

400 Our core conclusion is that increasingly sequential heat events will have non-linear  
401 and compounding impacts on crop yields under higher levels of warming. Projected  
402 yield losses from sequential heat often offset, and in some cases exceed, the benefits  
403 of warmer early-season conditions under high emission scenarios (SSP2-4.5 and SSP3-  
404 7.0). This study isolates the effects of sequential heat in a warming climate, rather  
405 than providing a full assessment of future climate change impacts. While we control  
406 for soil moisture in our models, we do not account for projected changes in moisture  
407 availability, which remain highly uncertain compared to temperature projections (Cheng  
408 et al.; 2017). However, future soil moisture changes could further amplify losses, both  
409 directly and through enhanced heat-drought interactions (Hamed et al.; 2025).

410 Given the key role of soil moisture in modulating crop yields and surface  
411 temperature, future work could integrate scenario-based moisture pathways to explore  
412 potential yield outcomes. This would help better characterize both aleatoric and  
413 epistemic uncertainty in projections. One example is the 2023 Dutch climate  
414 scenarios (KNMI'23), which include wet and dry variants for each emission pathway  
415 (Bessembinder et al.; 2023). Such storyline frameworks offer a valuable approach for

improving preparedness under a wide range of plausible futures. Similarly, irrigation can substantially alter crop responses to heat (Troy et al.; 2015) and robustly accounting for future irrigation availability is an important avenue for future research.

To conclude, our analysis underlines the need for anticipating nonlinear crop production impacts from sequential heat, a form of temporally compound extreme that merits further attention. Our results also highlight how reducing emissions can limit these risks within relatively manageable margins. Furthermore, our findings underscore the need to improve our understanding of interacting impact mechanisms, and enhance the resilience of crop varieties and the global food system to effectively adapt to future complex climate risks. For instance, our findings suggest that climate-adaptive crop development may achieve greater yields under warming by selectively breeding not only for mid-season heat tolerance, but for tolerance to combinations of early- and mid-season heat. This approach may help capture potential benefits of warmer early seasons, especially in combination with agronomic developments, such as earlier sowing. Along with mitigation efforts, our results illustrate the importance of bridging the detailed physiological insights arising from small-scale experiments with emerging, production-relevant insights available from regional statistical analyses for effective adaptation planning.

## Acknowledgments

This work emerged from the Training School on Statistical Modelling of Compound Events which took place in Como, Italy in September/October 2022. C.B.S received funding from the Swiss Innovation Agency Innosuisse under Grant Agreement No 53733.1 IP-SBM. Q.M. is supported by funding from the Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) and the Helmholtz Research Field Earth & Environment for the Innovation Pool Project SCENIC. C.L. received funding from FRQNT (31916) and the Dartmouth Neukom Institute for Computational Science. DB was supported by the “Groundcheck” research cluster of the German Archaeological Institute (DAI).

## Author contributions

All authors (R.H., C.B.S., Q.M., D.B., E.B., C.L., K.K.) designed the analysis and the methodology. C.B.S and Q.M. pre-processed and analysed the climate data. R.H. set up the statistical model and generated the figures. R.H., C.B.S., C.L. and K.K. analysed the results and wrote the manuscript. All authors (R.H., C.B.S., Q.M., D.B., E.B., C.L., K.K.) reviewed and edited the manuscript.

## Conflict of interest

There are no competing interests to declare.

## 451 Data availability statement

452 All used data sets are described in the Methods Section.

- 453 • USDA dataset: <https://quickstats.nass.usda.gov/>, last access: 15 November
- 454 2022
- 455 • European crops: Ronchetti et al. (2024)
- 456 (<https://doi.org/10.2905/685949ff-56de-4646-a8df-844b5bb5f835>)
- 457 • EUROSTAT dataset: <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/agriculture/>
- 458 • CPC Global Unified Temperature data provided by the NOAA PSL, Boulder,
- 459 Colorado, USA, from their website at <https://psl.noaa.gov>
- 460 • Icons used in Fig. 1 are sourced from the noun project (<https://thenounproject.com>), downloaded on the pro-membership *carmenbeatriz.steinmann*. Image
- 461 numbers include icons with Image number 4028435 (heat); 4546214 (soil moisture);
- 462 1179620, 1078364, 1673868, 1179616 (crops).

## 464 References

- 465 Aggarwal, P., Vyas, S., Thornton, P., Campbell, B. M. and Kropff, M. (2019).  
 466 Importance of considering technology growth in impact assessments of climate change  
 467 on agriculture, *Global Food Security* **23**: 41–48.
- 468 Antoniou, C., Savvides, A., Christou, A. and Fotopoulos, V. (2016). Unravelling  
 469 chemical priming machinery in plants: the role of reactive oxygen–nitrogen–sulfur  
 470 species in abiotic stress tolerance enhancement, *Current Opinion in Plant Biology*  
 471 **33**: 101–107.  
 472 **URL:** <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1369526616301030>
- 473 Asseng, S., Ewert, F., Martre, P., Rötter, R. P., Lobell, D. B., Cammarano, D., Kimball,  
 474 B. A., Ottman, M. J., Wall, G. W., White, J. W., Reynolds, M. P., Alderman, P. D.,  
 475 Prasad, P. V. V., Aggarwal, P. K., Anothai, J., Basso, B., Biernath, C., Challinor,  
 476 A. J., De Sanctis, G., Doltra, J., Fereres, E., Garcia-Vila, M., Gayler, S., Hoogenboom,  
 477 G., Hunt, L. A., Izaurralde, R. C., Jabloun, M., Jones, C. D., Kersebaum, K. C.,  
 478 Koehler, A.-K., Müller, C., Naresh Kumar, S., Nendel, C., O’Leary, G., Olesen, J. E.,  
 479 Palosuo, T., Priesack, E., Eyshi Rezaei, E., Ruane, A. C., Semenov, M. A., Shcherbak,  
 480 I., Stöckle, C., Stratonovitch, P., Streck, T., Supit, I., Tao, F., Thorburn, P. J., Waha,  
 481 K., Wang, E., Wallach, D., Wolf, J., Zhao, Z. and Zhu, Y. (2015). Rising temperatures  
 482 reduce global wheat production, *Nature Climate Change* **5**(2): 143–147.  
 483 **URL:** <https://doi.org/10.1038/nclimate2470>
- 484 Baldwin, J. W., Dessy, J. B., Vecchi, G. A. and Oppenheimer, M. (2019). Temporally  
 485 Compound Heat Wave Events and Global Warming: An Emerging Hazard, *Earth’s*  
 486 *Future* **7**(4): 411–427.  
 487 **URL:** <https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1029/2018EF000989>

- 488 Ben-Ari, T., Boé, J., Ciais, P., Lecerf, R., Van der Velde, M. and Makowski, D. (2018).  
489 Causes and implications of the unforeseen 2016 extreme yield loss in the breadbasket  
490 of France, *Nature Communications* **9**(1): 1627.  
491 **URL:** <https://www.nature.com/articles/s41467-018-04087-x>
- Bessembinder, J., Bintanja, R., van Dorland, R., Homan, C., Overbeek, B., Selten,  
F. and Siegmund, P. (2023). KNMI'23 klimaatscenario's voor Nederland, *Technical  
report*.  
**URL:** [https://cdn.knmi.nl/system/data\\_center\\_publications/files/000/071/901/original/KNMI23\\_klimo03.pdf](https://cdn.knmi.nl/system/data_center_publications/files/000/071/901/original/KNMI23_klimo03.pdf)
- 492 Butler, E. E. and Huybers, P. (2015). Variations in the sensitivity of US maize yield to  
493 extreme temperatures by region and growth phase, *Environmental Research Letters*  
494 **10**(3): 034009.  
495 **URL:** <https://iopscience.iop.org/article/10.1088/1748-9326/10/3/034009>
- 496 Butler, T. J., Celen, A. E., Webb, S. L., Krstic, D. and Interrante, S. M. (2014).  
497 Temperature Affects the Germination of Forage Legume Seeds, *Crop Science*  
498 **54**(6): 2846–2853.  
499 **URL:** <https://doi.org/10.2135/cropsci2014.01.0063>
- 500 Cheng, S., Huang, J., Ji, F. and Lin, L. (2017). Uncertainties of soil moisture in historical  
501 simulations and future projections, *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*  
502 **122**(4): 2239–2253.  
503 **URL:** <https://doi.org/10.1002/2016JD025871>
- 504 Choudhury, F. K., Rivero, R. M., Blumwald, E. and Mittler, R. (2017). Reactive oxygen  
505 species, abiotic stress and stress combination, *The Plant Journal* **90**(5): 856–867.  
506 **URL:** <https://doi.org/10.1111/tpj.13299>
- 507 Dixit, S., Sivalingam, P. N., Baskaran, R. K. M., Senthil-Kumar, M. and Ghosh,  
508 P. K. (2024). Plant responses to concurrent abiotic and biotic stress: unravelling  
509 physiological and morphological mechanisms, *Plant Physiology Reports* **29**(1): 6–17.
- 510 Dong, J., Lei, F. and Crow, W. T. (2022). Land transpiration-evaporation partitioning  
511 errors responsible for modeled summertime warm bias in the central United States,  
512 *Nature Communications* **13**(1): 336.  
513 **URL:** <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-27938-6>
- 514 Gloege, L., Kornhuber, K., Skulovich, O., Pal, I., Zhou, S., Ciais, P. and Gentine,  
515 P. (2022). Land-Atmosphere Cascade Fueled the 2020 Siberian Heatwave, *AGU  
516 Advances* **3**(6): e2021AV000619.  
517 **URL:** <https://doi.org/10.1029/2021AV000619>
- 518 Hamed, R., Lesk, C., Shepherd, T. G., Goulart, H. M. D., van Garderen, L., van den  
519 Hurk, B. and Coumou, D. (2025). One-third of the global soybean production failure  
520 in 2012 is attributable to climate change, *Communications Earth & Environment*  
521 **6**(1): 199.  
522 **URL:** <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43247-025-02171-x>

- Hamed, R., Van Loon, A., Aerts, J. and Coumou, D. (2021). Impacts of compound hot-dry extremes on US soybean yields, *Earth System Dynamics* **12**: 1371–1391.
- Heinicke, S., Frieler, K., Jägermeyr, J. and Mengel, M. (2022). Global gridded crop models underestimate yield responses to droughts and heatwaves, *Environmental Research Letters* **17**(4): 044026.
- URL:** <https://iopscience.iop.org/article/10.1088/1748-9326/ac592e>
- Hossain, M. A., Li, Z.-G., Hoque, T. S., Burritt, D. J., Fujita, M. and Munné-Bosch, S. (2018). Heat or cold priming-induced cross-tolerance to abiotic stresses in plants: key regulators and possible mechanisms, *Protoplasma* **255**(1): 399–412.
- URL:** <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00709-017-1150-8>
- Hu, Q., Weiss, A., Feng, S. and Baenziger, P. S. (2005). Earlier winter wheat heading dates and warmer spring in the U.S. Great Plains, *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology* **135**(1-4): 284–290.
- Jacott, C. N. and Boden, S. A. (2020). Feeling the heat: developmental and molecular responses of wheat and barley to high ambient temperatures, *Journal of Experimental Botany* **71**(19): 5740–5751.
- URL:** <https://doi.org/10.1093/jxb/eraa326>
- Jagadish, S. V. K., Way, D. A. and Sharkey, T. D. (2021). Plant heat stress: Concepts directing future research, *Plant, Cell & Environment* **44**(7): 1992–2005.
- URL:** <https://doi.org/10.1111/pce.14050>
- Kebede, E. A., Oluoch, K. O., Siebert, S., Mehta, P., Hartman, S., Jägermeyr, J., Ray, D., Ali, T., Brauman, K. A., Deng, Q., Xie, W. and Davis, K. F. (2025). A global open-source dataset of monthly irrigated and rainfed cropped areas (MIRCA-OS) for the 21st century, *Scientific Data* **12**(1): 208.
- URL:** <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41597-024-04313-w>
- Kornhuber, K., Lesk, C., Schleussner, C. F., Jägermeyr, J., Pfliegerer, P. and Horton, R. M. (2023). Risks of synchronized low yields are underestimated in climate and crop model projections, *Nature Communications* **14**(1): 3528.
- URL:** <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-023-38906-7>
- Lesk, C., Anderson, W., Rigden, A., Coast, O., Jägermeyr, J., McDermid, S., Davis, K. F. and Konar, M. (2022). Compound heat and moisture extreme impacts on global crop yields under climate change, *Nature Reviews Earth & Environment* **3**(12): 872–889.
- URL:** <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43017-022-00368-8>
- Lesk, C., Coffel, E., Winter, J., Ray, D., Zscheischler, J., Seneviratne, S. I. and Horton, R. (2021). Stronger temperature–moisture couplings exacerbate the impact of climate warming on global crop yields, *Nature Food* **2**(9): 683–691.
- URL:** <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-021-00341-6>
- Lesk, C., Rowhani, P. and Ramankutty, N. (2016). Influence of extreme weather disasters on global crop production, *Nature* **529**(7584): 84–87.
- URL:** <https://www.nature.com/articles/nature16467>

- Liu, B., Asseng, S., Müller, C., Ewert, F., Elliott, J., Lobell, D., Martre, P., Ruane, A., Wallach, D., Jones, J., Rosenzweig, C., Aggarwal, P., Alderman, P., Anothai, J., Basso, B., Biernath, C., Cammarano, D., Challinor, A., Deryng, D., Sanctis, G., Doltra, J., Fereres, E., Folberth, C., Garcia-Vila, M., Gayler, S., Hoogenboom, G., Hunt, L., Izaurralde, R., Jabloun, M., Jones, C., Kersebaum, K., Kimball, B., Koehler, A.-K., Kumar, S., Nendel, C., O’Leary, G., Olesen, J., Ottman, M., Palosuo, T., Prasad, P., Priesack, E., Pugh, T., Reynolds, M., Rezaei, E., Rötter, R., Schmid, E., Semenov, M., Shcherbak, I., Stehfest, E., Stöckle, C., Stratonovitch, P., Streck, T., Supit, I., Tao, F., Thorburn, P., Waha, K., Wall, G., Wang, E., White, J., Wolf, J., Zhao, Z. and Zhu, Y. (2016). Similar estimates of temperature impacts on global wheat yield by three independent methods, *Nature Climate Change* **6**(12): 1130–1136.
- Liu, H., Able, A. J. and Able, J. A. (2022). Priming crops for the future: rewiring stress memory, *Trends in Plant Science* **27**(7): 699–716.  
**URL:** <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1360138521003216>
- Martens, B., Miralles, D. G., Lievens, H., van der Schalie, R., de Jeu, R. A. M., Fernández-Prieto, D., Beck, H. E., Dorigo, W. A. and Verhoest, N. E. C. (2017). GLEAM v3: satellite-based land evaporation and root-zone soil moisture, *Geoscientific Model Development* **10**(5): 1903–1925.  
**URL:** <https://gmd.copernicus.org/articles/10/1903/2017/>
- Mendanha, T., Rosenqvist, E., Hyldgaard, B. and Ottosen, C.-O. (2018). Heat priming effects on anthesis heat stress in wheat cultivars (*Triticum aestivum* L.) with contrasting tolerance to heat stress, *Plant Physiology and Biochemistry* **132**: 213–221.  
**URL:** <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0981942818304005>
- Miralles, D. G., Teuling, A. J., van Heerwaarden, C. C. and Vilà-Guerau de Arellano, J. (2014). Mega-heatwave temperatures due to combined soil desiccation and atmospheric heat accumulation, *Nature Geoscience* **7**(5): 345–349.  
**URL:** <https://doi.org/10.1038/ngeo2141>
- Mittler, R., Finka, A. and Goloubinoff, P. (2012). How do plants feel the heat?, *Trends in Biochemical Sciences* **37**(3): 118–125.  
**URL:** <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0968000411002015>
- Nadeem, M., Li, J., Wang, M., Shah, L., Lu, S., Wang, X. and Ma, C. (2018). Unraveling Field Crops Sensitivity to Heat Stress: Mechanisms, Approaches, and Future Prospects, *Agronomy* **8**(7).  
**URL:** <https://www.mdpi.com/2073-4395/8/7/128>
- Nóia Júnior, R. d. S., Asseng, S., Müller, C., Deswarte, J.-C., Cohan, J.-P. and Martre, P. (2025). Negative impacts of climate change on crop yields are underestimated, *Trends in Plant Science* .  
**URL:** <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tplants.2025.05.002>
- Ortiz-Bobea, A., Wang, H., Carrillo, C. M. and Ault, T. R. (2019). Unpacking the climatic drivers of US agricultural yields, *Environmental Research Letters*



- 604 **14**(6): 064003.  
 605 **URL:** <https://iopscience.iop.org/article/10.1088/1748-9326/ab1e75>
- 606 Proctor, J., Rigden, A., Chan, D. and Huybers, P. (2022). More accurate specification of  
 607 water supply shows its importance for global crop production, *Nature Food* **3**(9): 753–  
 608 763.  
 609 **URL:** <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-022-00592-x>
- 610 Ray, D. K., West, P. C., Clark, M., Gerber, J. S., Prishchepov, A. V. and Chatterjee,  
 611 S. (2019). Climate change has likely already affected global food production, *PLOS*  
 612 *ONE* **14**(5): e0217148.  
 613 **URL:** <https://dx.plos.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0217148>
- 614 Raymond, C., Suarez-Gutierrez, L., Kornhuber, K., Pascolini-Campbell, M., Sillmann,  
 615 J. and Waliser, D. E. (2022). Increasing spatiotemporal proximity of heat and  
 616 precipitation extremes in a warming world quantified by a large model ensemble,  
 617 *Environmental Research Letters* **17**(3): 035005.  
 618 **URL:** <https://iopscience.iop.org/article/10.1088/1748-9326/ac5712>
- 619 Ren, S., Qin, Q. and Ren, H. (2019). Contrasting wheat phenological responses to  
 620 climate change in global scale, *Science of The Total Environment* **665**: 620–631.
- 621 Rezaei, E. E., Siebert, S. and Ewert, F. (2015). Intensity of heat stress in  
 622 winter wheat—phenology compensates for the adverse effect of global warming,  
 623 *Environmental Research Letters* **10**(2): 024012.  
 624 **URL:** <https://iopscience.iop.org/article/10.1088/1748-9326/10/2/024012>
- 625 Rigden, A. J., Mueller, N. D., Holbrook, N. M., Pillai, N. and Huybers, P. (2020).  
 626 Combined influence of soil moisture and atmospheric evaporative demand is important  
 627 for accurately predicting US maize yields, *Nature Food* **1**(2): 127–133.  
 628 **URL:** <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-020-0028-7>
- 629 Robinson, A., Lehmann, J., Barriopedro, D., Rahmstorf, S. and Coumou, D. (2021).  
 630 Increasing heat and rainfall extremes now far outside the historical climate, *npj*  
 631 *Climate and Atmospheric Science* **4**(1): 45.  
 632 **URL:** <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41612-021-00202-w>
- 633 Ronchetti, G., Nisini Scacchiafichi, L., Seguini, L., Cerrani, I. and van der Velde, M.  
 634 (2024). Harmonized European Union subnational crop statistics can reveal climate  
 635 impacts and crop cultivation shifts, *Earth System Science Data* **16**(3): 1623–1649.  
 636 **URL:** <https://essd.copernicus.org/articles/16/1623/2024/>
- 637 Sacks, W. J., Deryng, D., Foley, J. A. and Ramankutty, N. (2010). Crop planting dates:  
 638 an analysis of global patterns, *Global Ecology and Biogeography* pp. no–no.  
 639 **URL:** <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/j.1466-8238.2010.00551.x>
- 640 Schewe, J., Gosling, S. N., Reyer, C., Zhao, F., Ciais, P., Elliott, J., Francois, L.,  
 641 Huber, V., Lotze, H. K., Seneviratne, S. I., van Vliet, M. T. H., Vautard, R., Wada,  
 642 Y., Breuer, L., Büchner, M., Carozza, D. A., Chang, J., Coll, M., Deryng, D., de Wit,  
 643 A., Eddy, T. D., Folberth, C., Frieler, K., Friend, A. D., Gerten, D., Gudmundsson,

- 644 L., Hanasaki, N., Ito, A., Khabarov, N., Kim, H., Lawrence, P., Morfopoulos, C.,  
 645 Müller, C., Müller Schmied, H., Orth, R., Ostberg, S., Pokhrel, Y., Pugh, T. A. M.,  
 646 Sakurai, G., Satoh, Y., Schmid, E., Stacke, T., Steenbeek, J., Steinkamp, J., Tang,  
 647 Q., Tian, H., Tittensor, D. P., Volkholz, J., Wang, X. and Warszawski, L. (2019).  
 648 State-of-the-art global models underestimate impacts from climate extremes, *Nature*  
 649 *Communications* **10**(1): 1005.  
 650 **URL:** <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-019-08745-6>
- 651 Shepherd, T. G. (2014). Atmospheric circulation as a source of uncertainty in climate  
 652 change projections, *Nature Geoscience* **7**(10): 703–708.  
 653 **URL:** <https://doi.org/10.1038/ngeo2253>
- 654 Sippel, S., Zscheischler, J., Mahecha, M. D., Orth, R., Reichstein, M., Vogel, M. and  
 655 Seneviratne, S. I. (2017). Refining multi-model projections of temperature extremes  
 656 by evaluation against land–atmosphere coupling diagnostics, *Earth System Dynamics*  
 657 **8**(2): 387–403.  
 658 **URL:** <https://esd.copernicus.org/articles/8/387/2017/>
- 659 Stagge, J. H., Tallaksen, L. M., Gudmundsson, L., Van Loon, A. F. and Stahl, K.  
 660 (2015). Candidate Distributions for Climatological Drought Indices (SPI and SPEI),  
 661 *International Journal of Climatology* **35**(13): 4027–4040.  
 662 **URL:** <https://doi.org/10.1002/joc.4267>
- 663 Suzuki, N., Rivero, R. M., Shulaev, V., Blumwald, E. and Mittler, R. (2014). Abiotic  
 664 and biotic stress combinations, *New Phytologist* **203**(1): 32–43.  
 665 **URL:** <https://doi.org/10.1111/nph.12797>
- 666 Troy, T. J., Kipgen, C. and Pal, I. (2015). The impact of climate extremes and irrigation  
 667 on US crop yields, *Environmental Research Letters* **10**(5): 054013.
- 668 Vogel, J., Rivoire, P., Deidda, C., Rahimi, L., Sauter, C. A., Tschumi, E., van der  
 669 Wiel, K., Zhang, T. and Zscheischler, J. (2021). Identifying meteorological drivers  
 670 of extreme impacts: an application to simulated crop yields, *Earth System Dynamics*  
 671 **12**(1): 151–172.  
 672 **URL:** <https://esd.copernicus.org/articles/12/151/2021/>
- 673 WANG, X., LIU, F.-I. and JIANG, D. (2017). Priming: A promising strategy for  
 674 crop production in response to future climate, *Journal of Integrative Agriculture*  
 675 **16**(12): 2709–2716.  
 676 **URL:** <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2095311917617866>
- 677 Weiland, R. S., van der Wiel, K., Selten, F. and Coumou, D. (2021). Intransitive  
 678 Atmosphere Dynamics Leading to Persistent Hot–Dry or Cold–Wet European  
 679 Summers, *Journal of Climate* **34**(15): 6303–6317.  
 680 **URL:** [https://journals.ametsoc.org/view/journals/clim/34/15/JCLI-D-20-](https://journals.ametsoc.org/view/journals/clim/34/15/JCLI-D-20-0943.1.xml)  
 681 [0943.1.xml](https://journals.ametsoc.org/view/journals/clim/34/15/JCLI-D-20-0943.1.xml)
- 682 Zscheischler, J., Westra, S., {van den Hurk}, B. J. J. M., Seneviratne, S. I., Ward, P. J.,  
 683 Pitman, A., AghaKouchak, A., Bresch, D. N., Leonard, M., Wahl, T. and Zhang, X.

- 684 (2018). Future climate risk from compound events, *Nature Climate Change* **8**(6): 469–  
685 477.  
686 **URL:** <http://www.nature.com/articles/s41558-018-0156-3>

# **Supplementary Information: Amplified agricultural impacts from more frequent and intense sequential heat events**

**Raed Hamed<sup>1\*</sup>, Carmen B. Steinmann<sup>2,3\*</sup>, Qiyun Ma<sup>4</sup>, Daniel  
Balanzategui<sup>5,6,7</sup>, Ellie Broadman<sup>8</sup>, Corey Lesk<sup>9</sup> and Kai  
Kornhuber<sup>10,11</sup>**

<sup>1</sup>Institute for Environmental Studies (IVM), Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam,  
Amsterdam, 1081, the Netherlands.

<sup>2</sup>Institute for Environmental Decisions, ETH Zurich, Zurich, 8092, Switzerland.

<sup>3</sup> Federal Office of Meteorology and Climatology MeteoSwiss, Zurich, 8058,  
Switzerland

<sup>4</sup> Alfred Wegener Institute, Helmholtz Centre for Polar and Marine Research,  
Bremerhaven, 27570, Germany.

<sup>5</sup> Materials Testing Institute, University of Applied Sciences, Luebeck, 23562,  
Germany.

<sup>6</sup> Department of Natural Sciences, German Archaeology Institute DAI, Berlin, 14195,  
Germany.

<sup>7</sup> Geography Department, Humboldt University of Berlin, Berlin, 10117, Germany.

<sup>8</sup> Laboratory of Tree-Ring Research, University of Arizona, Tucson, 85721, USA.

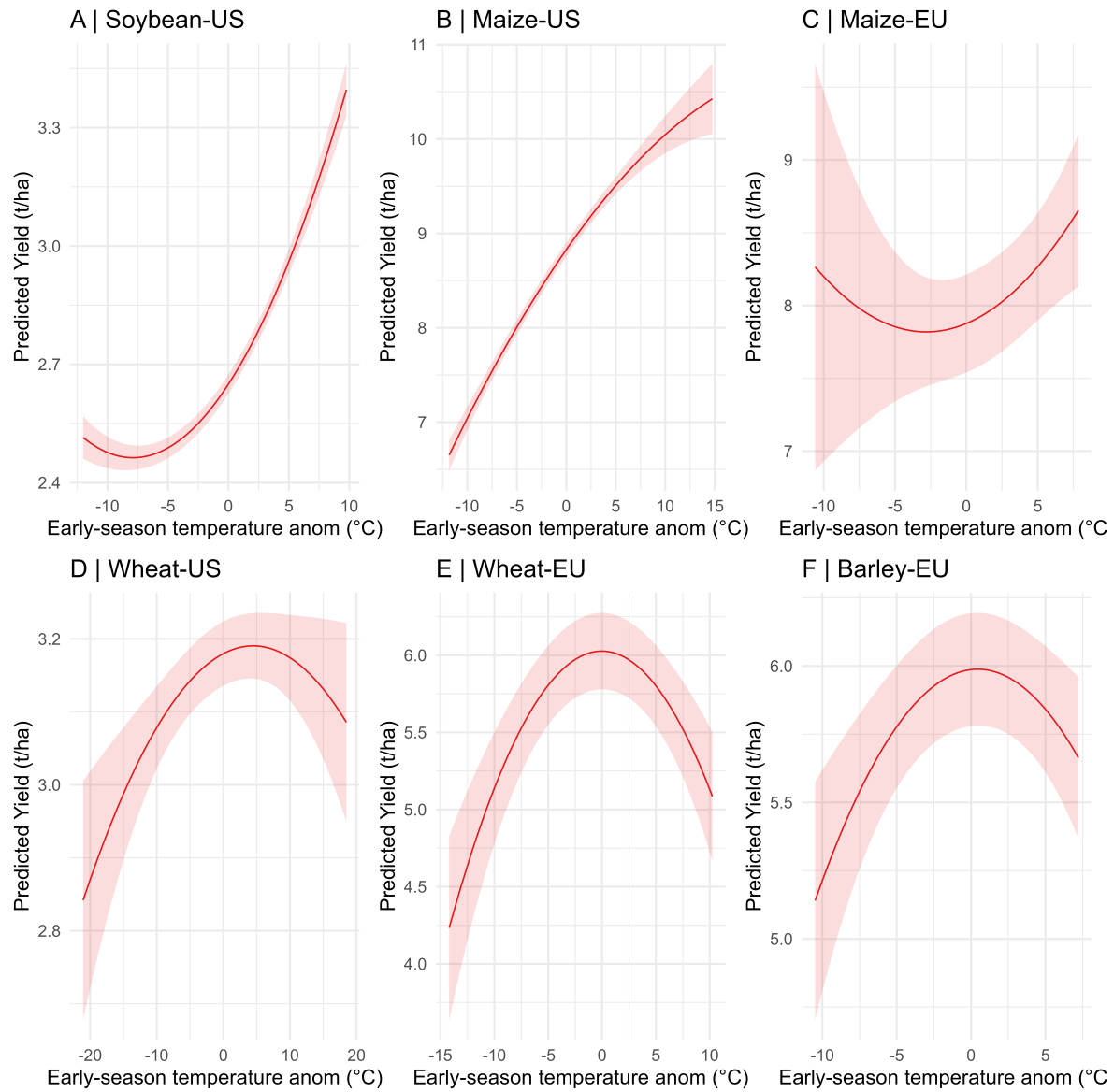
<sup>9</sup> Department of Geography, Neukom Institute for Computational Science,  
Dartmouth College, Hanover, 03755, USA.

<sup>10</sup> Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory, Columbia University, Palisades, 10964, USA.

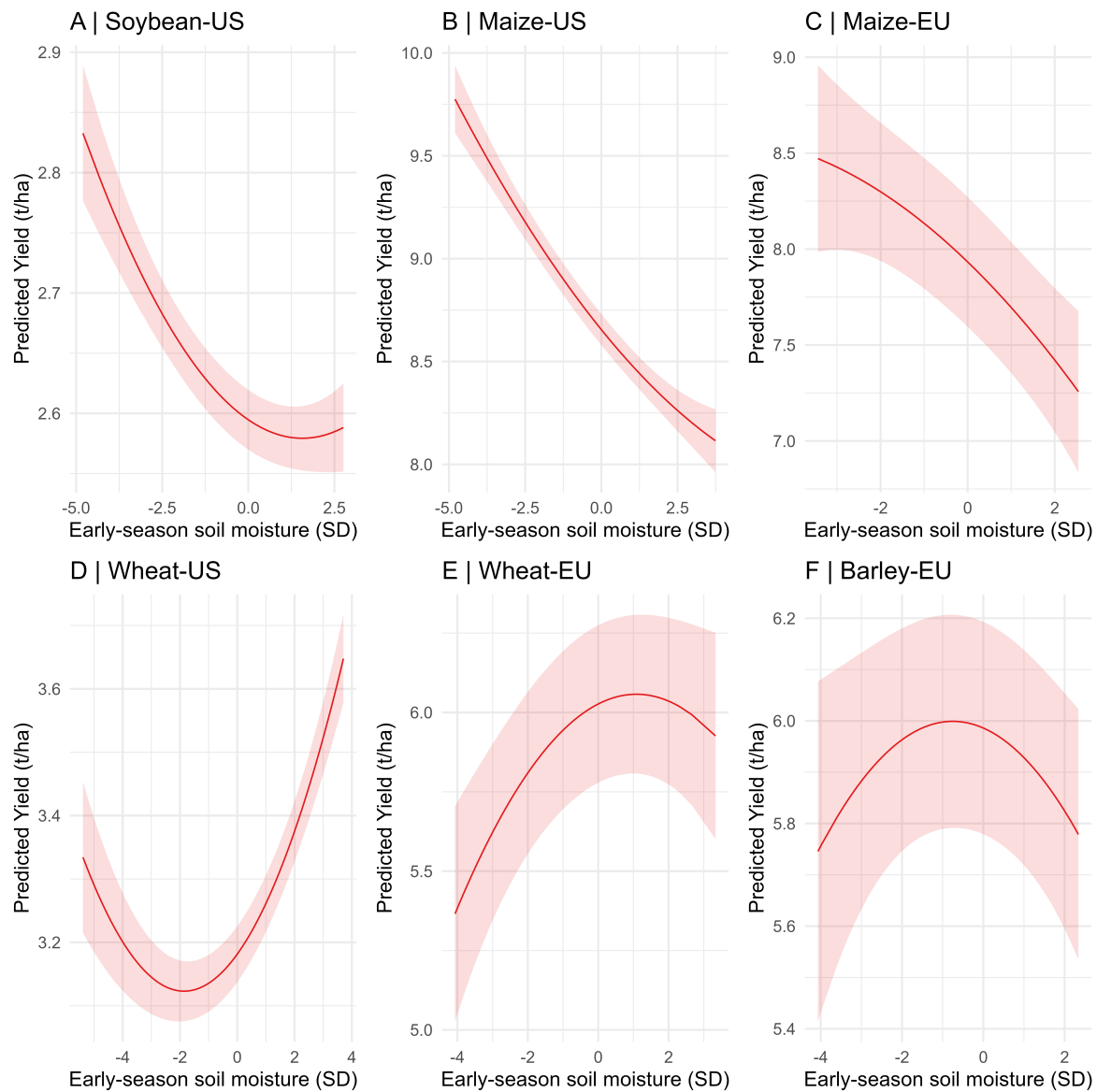
<sup>11</sup> International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis, Laxenburg, 2361, Austria.

\*These authors contributed equally to this work.

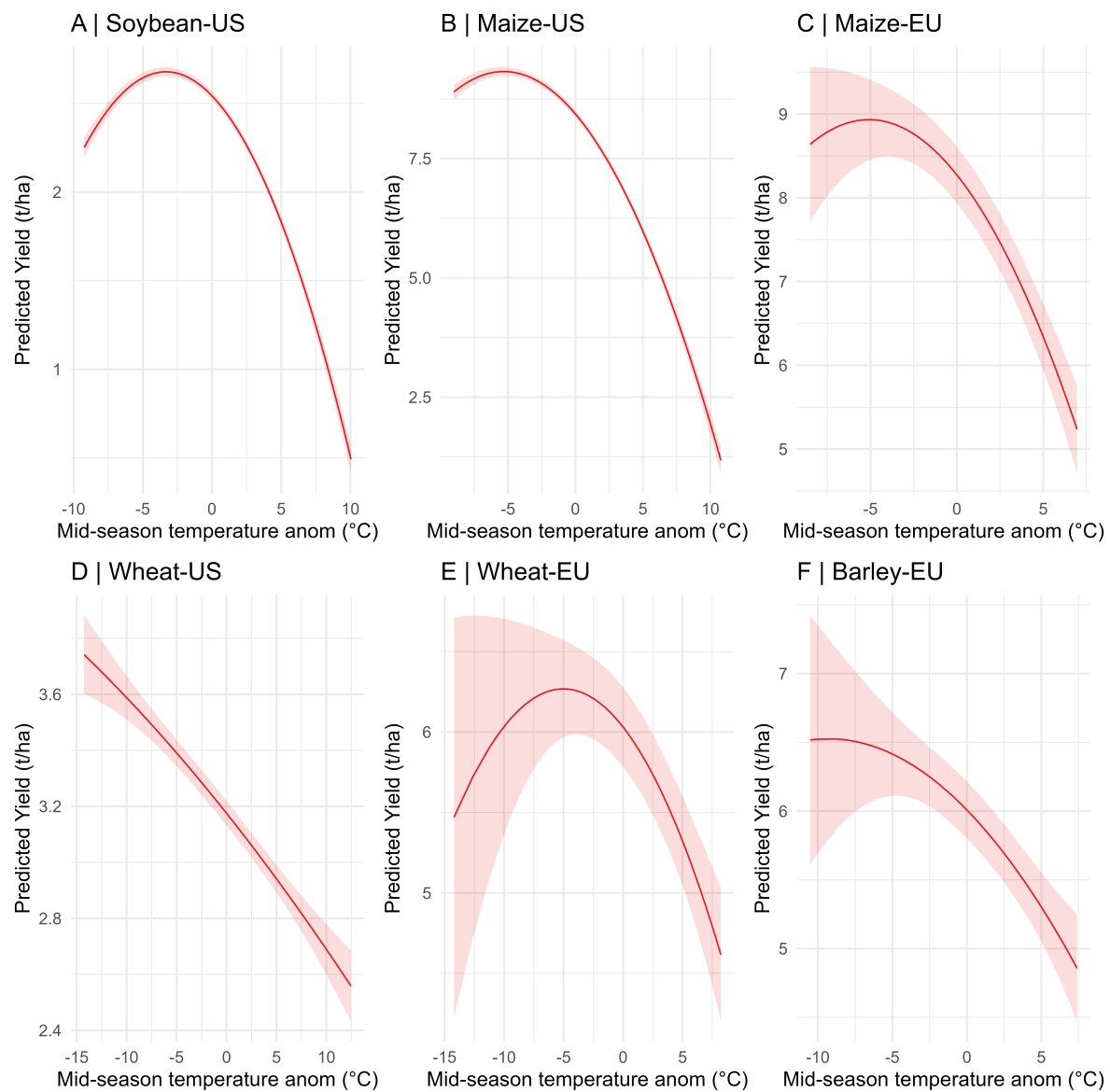
E-mail: [carmen.steinmann@usys.ethz.ch](mailto:carmen.steinmann@usys.ethz.ch)



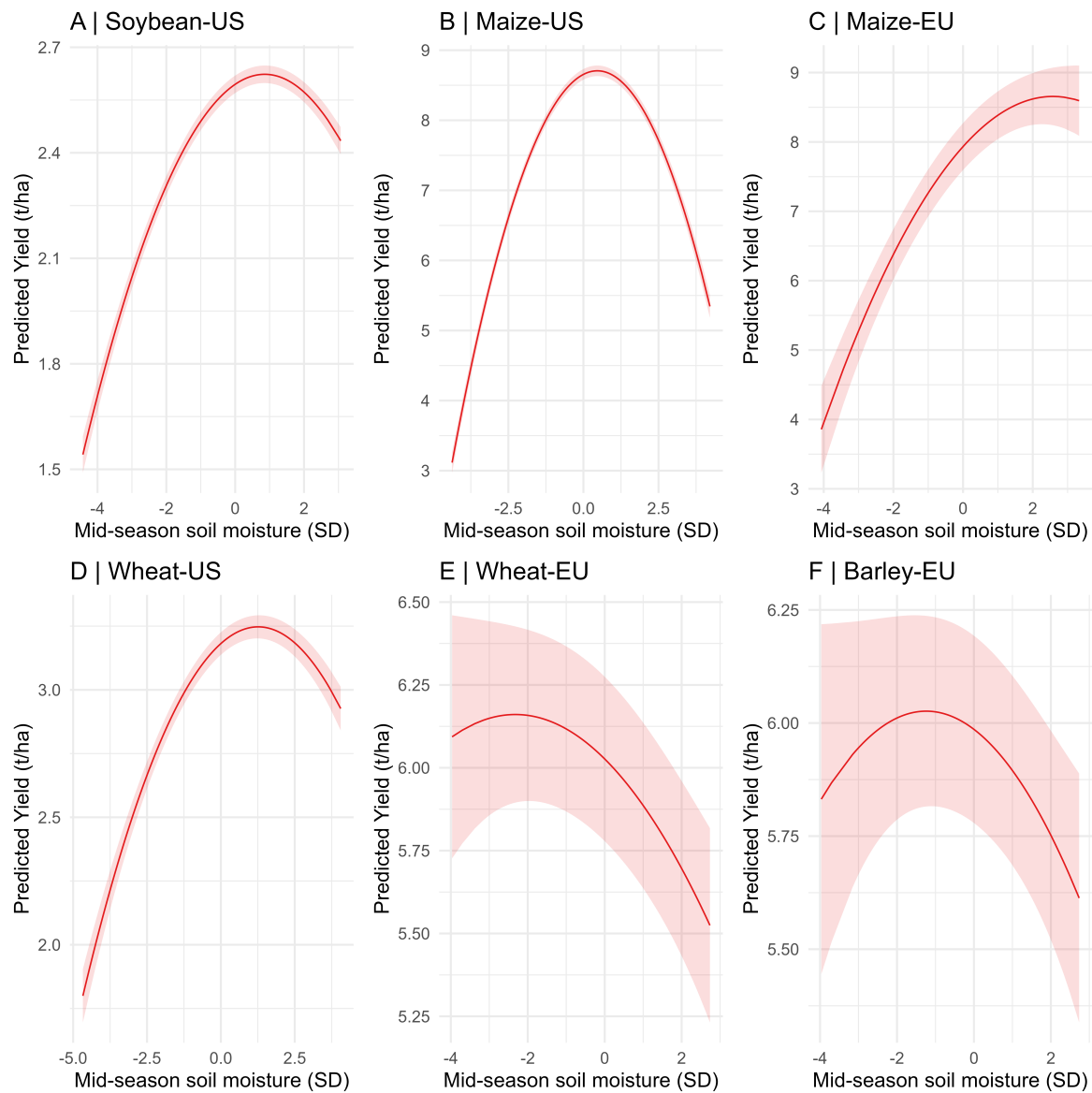
**Figure S1. Marginal effect of early-season temperature anomalies on crop yield.** Values represent changes in yield (t/ha) per °C anomaly in early-season mean maximum temperature



**Figure S2. Marginal effect of early-season soil moisture anomalies on crop yield.** Values represent changes in yield (t/ha) per standard deviation anomaly in early-season mean soil moisture

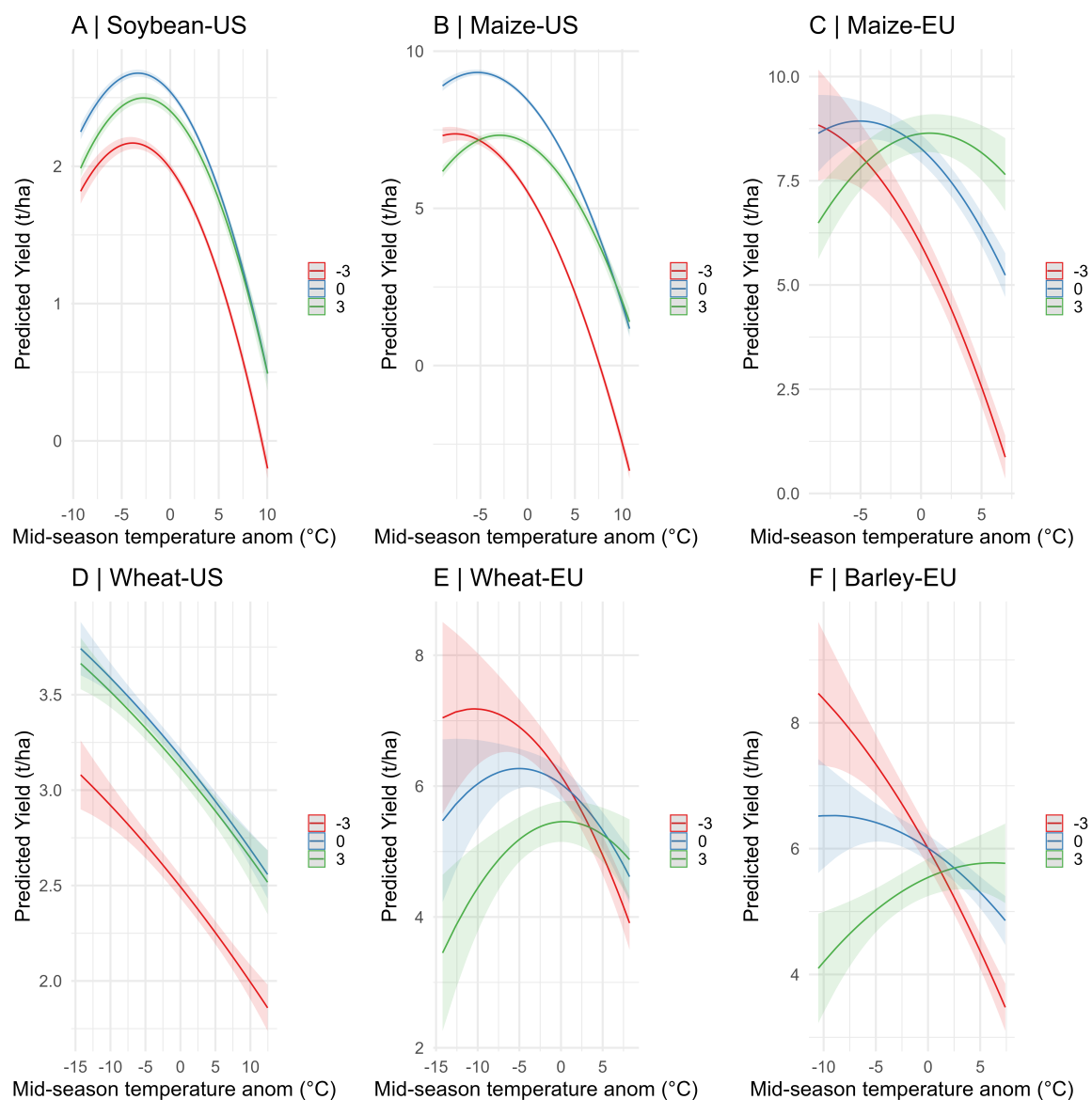


**Figure S3. Marginal effect of mid-season temperature anomalies on crop yield.** Values represent changes in yield (t/ha) per °C anomaly in mid-season mean maximum temperature

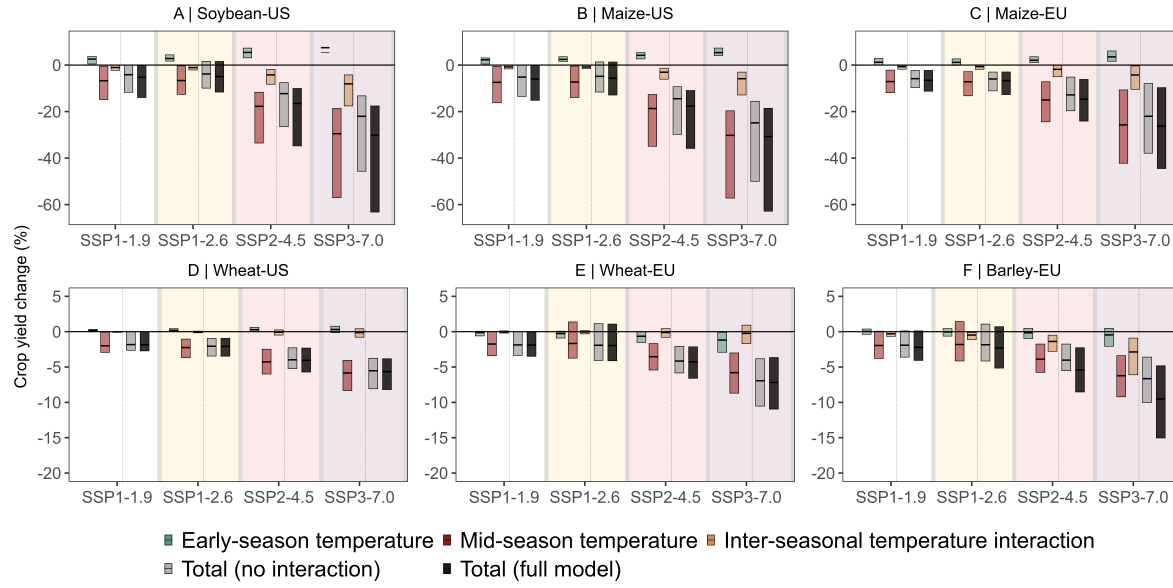


**Figure S4. Marginal effect of mid-season soil moisture anomalies on crop yield.** Values represent changes in yield (t/ha) per standard deviation anomaly in mid-season mean soil moisture





**Figure S5. Marginal effect of mid-season temperature anomalies on crop yield, conditional on soil moisture levels.** Values represent changes in yield (t/ha) per °C anomaly in mid-season mean maximum temperature, evaluated at three mid-season soil moisture anomaly levels: -3 (dry), 0 (normal), and +3 (wet). Soil moisture anomalies are expressed in units of standard deviation

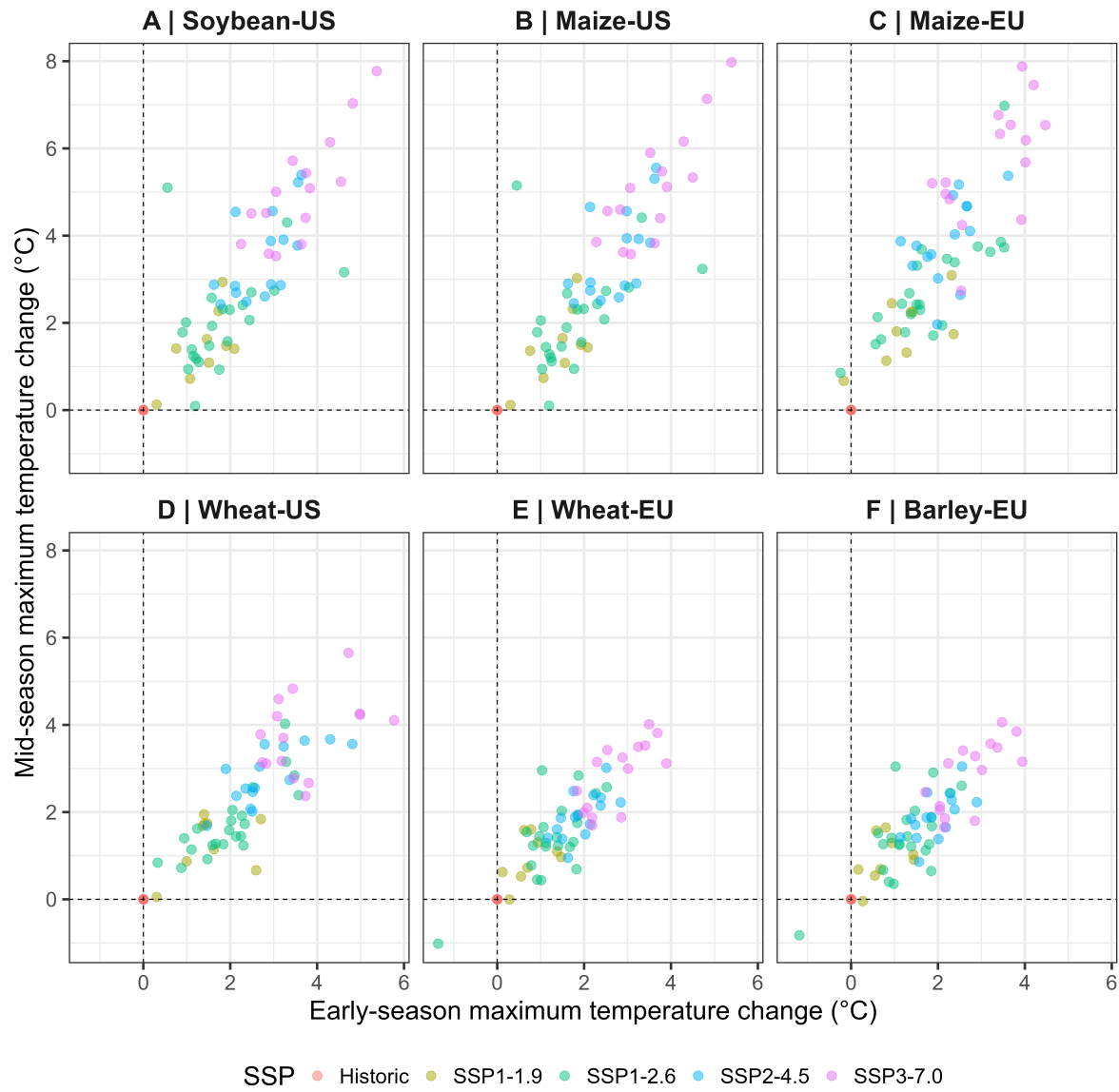


**Figure S6. Projected crop production changes for the future period (2060–2100) compared to historic (1975–2015) under different emission scenarios for a subset of 8 climate models shared across SSPs.** SSP1-1.9 (number models  $n=8$ ), SSP1-2.6 ( $n=8$ ), SSP2-4.5 ( $n=8$ ), SSP3-7.0( $n=8$ ). Average crop yield losses are attributed to early- and mid-season temperature changes and their interaction. Bar show average projected losses, while error bars show the 5–95% range accounting for regression and model projection uncertainties.

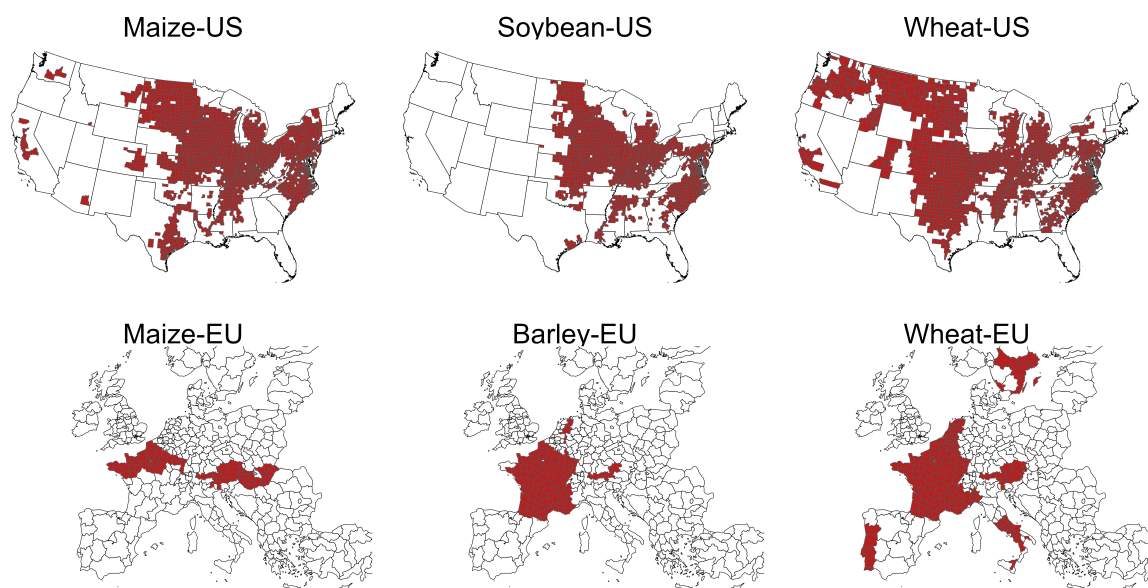
**Table S 1. Regression results by crop and region (Part 1: A–C)**

	A — Soybean-US		B — Maize-US		C — Maize-EU	
Predictors	Estimates	CI	Estimates	CI	Estimates	CI
(Intercept)	2.58 ***	2.55 – 2.60	8.52 ***	8.44 – 8.59	8.11 ***	7.77 – 8.44
early-season T	0.04 ***	0.04 – 0.04	0.13 ***	0.13 – 0.14	0.06 ***	0.03 – 0.09
mid-season T	-0.10 ***	-0.10 – -0.09	-0.36 ***	-0.37 – -0.35	-0.24 ***	-0.28 – -0.20
early-season M	-0.02 ***	-0.02 – -0.01	-0.18 ***	-0.20 – -0.17	-0.22 ***	-0.27 – -0.17
mid-season M	0.07 ***	0.06 – 0.07	0.26 ***	0.24 – 0.27	0.44 ***	0.39 – 0.50
early-season T <sup>2</sup>	0.00 ***	0.00 – 0.00	-0.00 ***	-0.00 – -0.00	0.01	-0.00 – 0.02
mid-season T <sup>2</sup>	-0.01 ***	-0.01 – -0.01	-0.03 ***	-0.03 – -0.03	-0.03 ***	-0.04 – -0.02
early-season M <sup>2</sup>	0.01 ***	0.00 – 0.01	0.01 **	0.00 – 0.02	-0.02	-0.05 – 0.01
mid-season M <sup>2</sup>	-0.04 ***	-0.04 – -0.04	-0.24 ***	-0.25 – -0.23	-0.11 ***	-0.14 – -0.08
year	0.03 ***	0.03 – 0.03	0.12 ***	0.12 – 0.12	0.09 ***	0.08 – 0.11
early-season T × mid-season T	-0.01 ***	-0.01 – -0.01	-0.03 ***	-0.03 – -0.02	-0.02 *	-0.03 – -0.00
mid-season T × mid-season M	0.00 ***	0.00 – 0.01	0.05 ***	0.04 – 0.05	0.10 ***	0.08 – 0.12
Counties	1191		1470		66	
Observations	46561		56997		2039	

\*  $p < 0.05$  \*\*  $p < 0.01$  \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$



**Figure S7. Projected changes in early- and mid-season temperature conditions.** Changes are displayed across models and SSPs, relative to each model's historical baseline. Each point represents the mean seasonal temperature anomaly (°C) for a given model and scenario, with anomalies calculated relative to that model's own historical period.



**Figure S8. Counties included in the analysis.** Counties shown in red meet all selection criteria: over 90% rainfed area, at least 25 years of yield and weather data, and crop calendars consistent with defined early- and mid-season periods—April–May and July–August for soybean and maize, and January–February and April–May for wheat and barley.

**Table S 2. Regression results by crop and region (Part 2: D–F)**

Predictors	D — Wheat-US		E — Wheat-EU		F — Barley-EU	
	Estimates	CI	Estimates	CI	Estimates	CI
(Intercept)	3.14 ***	3.09 – 3.18	6.04 ***	5.79 – 6.29	6.01 ***	5.80 – 6.22
early-season T	0.00 ***	0.00 – 0.01	-0.00	-0.01 – 0.01	0.01	-0.00 – 0.02
mid-season T	-0.04 ***	-0.05 – -0.04	-0.09 ***	-0.11 – -0.08	-0.11 ***	-0.13 – -0.09
early-season M	0.06 ***	0.06 – 0.07	0.06 ***	0.03 – 0.08	-0.03 *	-0.07 – -0.00
mid-season M	0.10 ***	0.10 – 0.11	-0.12 ***	-0.15 – -0.09	-0.08 ***	-0.11 – -0.05
early-season T <sup>2</sup>	-0.00 **	-0.00 – -0.00	-0.01 ***	-0.01 – -0.01	-0.01 ***	-0.01 – -0.00
mid-season T <sup>2</sup>	-0.00	-0.00 – 0.00	-0.01 ***	-0.01 – -0.00	-0.01	-0.01 – 0.00
early-season M <sup>2</sup>	0.02 ***	0.01 – 0.02	-0.03 ***	-0.04 – -0.01	-0.02 **	-0.04 – -0.01
mid-season M <sup>2</sup>	-0.04 ***	-0.05 – -0.04	-0.02 **	-0.04 – -0.01	-0.03 *	-0.05 – -0.00
year	0.03 ***	0.03 – 0.03	0.03 ***	0.02 – 0.03	0.03 ***	0.02 – 0.03
early-season T × mid-season T	-0.00	-0.00 – 0.00	-0.00	-0.01 – 0.00	-0.02 ***	-0.03 – -0.01
mid-season T × mid-season M	0.00	-0.00 – 0.00	0.03 ***	0.02 – 0.04	0.06 ***	0.05 – 0.08
Counties	1447		176		99	
Observations	51529		5310		3178	

\*  $p < 0.05$     \*\*  $p < 0.01$     \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$

**Table S 3. CMIP6 models considered per SSP scenario**

	1-1.9	1-2.6	2-4.5	3-7.0
ACCESS-CM2		X	X	X
ACCESS-ESM1-5		X		
AWI-CM-1-1-MR		X	X	X
BCC-CSM2-MR		X	X	X
CANESM5	X	X	X	X
CISESM		X		
CMCC-ESM2		X		
EC-EARTH3		X	X	X
EC-EARTH3-Veg	X	X	X	X
EC-EARTH3-Veg-LR	X	X		
FGOALS-g3	X	X	X	X
FIO-ESM-2-0		X		
GFDL-ESM4	X	X	X	X
INM-CM4-8		X	X	X
INM-CM5-0		X	X	X
IPSL-CM6A-LR	X	X	X	X
KACE-1-0-G		X		
MIROC6	X	X	X	X
MPI-ESM1-2-HAM				
MPI-ESM1-2-HR		X	X	X
MPI-ESM1-2-LR	X	X	X	X
MRI-ESM2-0	X	X	X	X
NESM3		X		
Number of models	9	22	15	15