

1           **Nonlinear carbon feedbacks in CMIP6 and their impacts on future**  
2                                   **freshwater availability**

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## ABSTRACT

Some theories and analyses of earlier generations of Earth System Models (ESM) suggest that transpiration will decline with higher atmospheric carbon dioxide concentrations [CO<sub>2</sub>] due to stomatal closure, thereby enhancing runoff and soil moisture relative to the continental drying predicted by warming alone. Using the latest generation of idealized experiments from the Coupled Climate-Carbon Cycle Model Intercomparison Project forced with increasing [CO<sub>2</sub>], we show that the opposite effect prevails: plants themselves contribute to projected soil drying, with smaller negative effects on runoff, and this picture emerges by considering the interactions between radiatively driven warming and the physiological effects of high [CO<sub>2</sub>] on plants. These interactions act to increase plant-based evapotranspiration (ET) by expanding leaf area and lengthening and warming growing seasons beyond what would be predicted by radiative or biogeochemical effects alone. Collectively, these interactions increase ecosystem water use and dry soils, compensating any land water savings from stomatal closure. At the same time, these interactions have grown and become more uncertain across ESM generations. We also find that the simulated strength of these plant-water interactions scale with the resilience of the land carbon sink to warming—a key feedback in the carbon cycle. Our results emphasize that a linearity assumption underpinning analyses of carbon, plant, and water interactions is not appropriate for the latest generation of ESMs, with implications for model development, as well as the accurate interpretation of projected changes to the carbon cycle and the consequences for future climate, drought, and water availability.

## SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT

Understanding plants and how their water use will respond to climate change is essential to understanding future drought and aridity. We demonstrate that interactions between warming and higher atmospheric carbon dioxide in the latest generation of climate models lead to amplified plant growth and associated plant water use. The simulated strength of this interaction is related to weaker land carbon losses from warming. The net result is that in climate models, plant responses forcing enhance land surface drying rather than reduce it, as previous analyses of earlier generations of climate models have found. Our findings highlight that as models become more sophisticated, carbon feedbacks become more uncertain with implications for how we assess plant influences on water cycle changes.

53 1. Introduction

54 Plants and their countervailing responses to anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions and  
55 climate change will impact the fate of water availability on land (Idso and Brazel 1984).  
56 Some theories, modeling, and nascent observations have suggested that high atmospheric  
57 carbon dioxide concentrations (hereafter [CO<sub>2</sub>]) reduce plant transpiration, leaving more  
58 water for other components of land surface hydrology, like runoff or soil moisture (Idso and  
59 Brazel 1984; Swann et al. 2016; Fowler et al. 2019; Roderick et al. 2015; Keenan et al. 2013;  
60 Zhou et al. 2023). Earth System Models (ESMs) parameterize plant photosynthesis to capture  
61 the real world in which carbon gains are optimized while minimizing water losses (Sabot et  
62 al. 2022; Medlyn et al. 2011; Cowan and Farquhar 1977; Bonan et al. 2014). As [CO<sub>2</sub>]  
63 increases, stomatal conductance declines (Zhang et al. 2018), diminishing the atmosphere's  
64 access to deep soil moisture via transpiration (Field et al. 1995) and increasing canopy  
65 resistance to evapotranspiration (ET) (Roderick et al. 2015; Milly and Dunne 2016;  
66 Lemordant et al. 2018). This leads plants to photosynthesize at a lower water cost under  
67 higher [CO<sub>2</sub>], manifesting as increased plant water use efficiency (WUE) (Keenan et al.  
68 2013; De Kauwe et al. 2013). Together, such stomatal closure and consequent WUE  
69 increases suggest that plant physiological responses to high [CO<sub>2</sub>] will “turn on the tap”  
70 (Jasechko 2018), meaning they will either directly enhance runoff and soil moisture or reduce  
71 the drought and aridity risks projected by the radiative effects of warming alone (Idso and  
72 Brazel 1984; Swann et al. 2016; Fowler et al. 2019; Roderick et al. 2015; Betts et al. 2007;  
73 Milly and Dunne 2016; Yang et al. 2019; Aston 1984; Lemordant et al. 2018; Scheff et al.  
74 2021).

75 While prior work emphasizes that plant responses to [CO<sub>2</sub>] might enhance land water  
76 availability in some regions, other analyses emphasize that total plant-based ET increases in  
77 the models, decreasing runoff and soil moisture (Mankin et al. 2018, 2017a, 2019), with  
78 implications for water availability (Mankin et al. 2017b) and drought globally (Cook et al.  
79 2021, 2020). In transient simulations, [CO<sub>2</sub>]-amplified plant growth due to CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization  
80 manifests as increased leaf area (and associated canopy interception and leaf evaporation).  
81 Together with longer and warmer growing seasons, plant-based ET can increase, even in the  
82 face of enhanced stomatal closure. Some studies have used emergent constraints methods to  
83 reduce projection uncertainty in CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization (Cox et al. 2013; Keenan et al. 2023) and its  
84 associated hydrologic consequences (Mankin et al. 2019; Lehner et al. 2019). Yet, persistent  
85 uncertainties in plant responses to [CO<sub>2</sub>] across model generations remain. For example, the

86 IPCC's Working Group I concluded in the 6<sup>th</sup> Assessment Report that "there is *low*  
87 *confidence* that increased WUE by vegetation will [...] diminish the frequency and severity  
88 of soil moisture and streamflow deficits associated with the radiative effect of higher CO<sub>2</sub>  
89 concentrations" (Canadell et al., 2021). The U.S. Fifth National Climate Assessment differs  
90 from the IPCC conclusion, emphasizing that the remaining uncertainties imply the possibility  
91 of plant-induced water savings, stating that "[...] changes in plant water use in response to  
92 increasing temperatures and rising atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> are complex and poorly understood and  
93 may either ameliorate or amplify soil moisture and runoff droughts at the surface" (Leung et  
94 al. 2023). As such, this important source of uncertainty in projections of future freshwater  
95 availability, with the potential to inform drought mitigation and adaptation decisions globally,  
96 remains unresolved.

97 The uncertainty in ecohydrological responses to [CO<sub>2</sub>] in models emphasizes the  
98 importance of accurately representing the interactions among the carbon, nutrient, and water  
99 cycles as expressed through plants. Importantly, biogeochemical sophistication in ESMs has  
100 increased considerably across generations (Arora et al. 2020) as land surface models have  
101 rapidly developed (Fisher and Koven 2020). Such model advancements have been driven in  
102 part by the longstanding recognition that simulating coupled carbon and nutrient cycles could  
103 influence nonlinear responses in terrestrial carbon and water budgets. Such responses would  
104 likely affect projected warming and climate impacts as well. For example, there is a long  
105 history of work focused on how nitrogen (Vitousek and Howarth 1991) can limit plant  
106 productivity responses to enhanced [CO<sub>2</sub>], with consequences for carbon feedbacks and  
107 hydrologic impacts (Sokolov et al. 2008; Zaehle et al. 2010; Zaehle 2013; Zaehle et al. 2015;  
108 Thornton et al. 2009; Felzer et al. 2009; Lee et al. 2013; Davies-Barnard et al. 2020).

109 Recent work has shown that the latest generation of ESMs participating in the sixth phase  
110 of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP6) exhibit more sizable interactions  
111 among the radiative and biogeochemical effects of [CO<sub>2</sub>] than in previous CMIP generations,  
112 driven in large part by changes in net primary production (Huang et al. 2022). Here we  
113 extend this important work, showing that in the CMIP6, these interactions in carbon  
114 responses to warming and high [CO<sub>2</sub>] are related to the carbon-climate feedback and generate  
115 hydrologic responses with implications for the interpretation of how plants responses to  
116 warming and [CO<sub>2</sub>] will impact terrestrial water availability.

117 Using the idealized 1% [CO<sub>2</sub>] experiments performed under the CMIP6 Coupled  
118 Climate-Carbon Cycle Intercomparison Project (C4MIP) framework (Jones et al. 2016), we  
119 present three key findings. Firstly, within the CMIP6, there is a sizable interaction between  
120 warming and enhanced [CO<sub>2</sub>]. The interaction leads to amplified plant growth, the ensemble  
121 variation in the strength of which, we show, is tightly associated with ensemble variation in  
122 the response of the atmosphere-land CO<sub>2</sub> flux to warming. Secondly, this amplified plant  
123 growth generates an increase in plant-based ET beyond that predicted by radiative or  
124 biogeochemical effects individually or their sum, cancelling any transpiration reductions  
125 from the stomatal effects of [CO<sub>2</sub>] and causing declines in soil water. Lastly, runoff changes  
126 within the ensemble are associated with precipitation changes (Lesk et al. 2025), not plant-  
127 based ET changes. The causes of interactive terms in the carbon cycle in CMIP6 relative to  
128 earlier CMIP generations is a crucial question for future evaluation. Together, our results  
129 highlight that while CMIP6 projections of future aridity require reconciling plant responses to  
130 [CO<sub>2</sub>], doing so provides little evidence that plant stomatal responses will increase future  
131 water availability or offset radiatively driven drying. Relative to the present day, these  
132 idealized projections suggest increased plant-based ET for much of the globe, with model  
133 uncertainties in carbon cycle responses playing a key role in determining broader hydrologic  
134 impacts.

135

## 136 **2. Data & Methods**

### 137 *a. Climate model experiments*

138 All ESM data used in this study come from a set of experiments conducted as part of CMIP6  
139 (Jones et al. 2016; Friedlingstein et al. 2006), downloaded from the Earth System Grid  
140 Federation (<https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/>) and analyzed via Python and R.

141 A common approach to assess whether plants will tend to ‘wet’ or ‘dry’ the surface is to  
142 compare hydrologic responses in a set of idealized ESM experiments that isolate plant  
143 responses to [CO<sub>2</sub>] from other factors associated with radiatively driven changes. This  
144 protocol was originally developed over 20 years ago (Friedlingstein et al., 2006; Fung et al.,  
145 2000) to quantify the strength of carbon feedbacks arising from climate changes versus  
146 enhanced [CO<sub>2</sub>], and is evaluated using the C4MIP framework, a model intercomparison  
147 approved by CMIP6 (Jones et al. 2016). In the idealized experiments used in C4MIP, [CO<sub>2</sub>]

148 is quadrupled from its preindustrial level by increasing at a rate of 1% per year for 140 years  
149 (i.e., “4xCO<sub>2</sub>”). The difference among simulations resides in the parts of the model that are  
150 allowed to respond to the [CO<sub>2</sub>] increase. We use data from 13 models (ACCESS-ESM1.5,  
151 BCC-CSM2-MR, CanESM5, CanESM5-CanOE, CESM2, CMCC-ESM2, CNRM-ESM2-1,  
152 EC-Earth3-CC, GFDL-ESM4, IPSL-CM6A-LR, MIROC-ES2L, NorESM2-LM, and  
153 UKESM1.0-LL) participating in the experiments that contributed results to C4MIP and for  
154 which the required variables are available: (1) The 1% CO<sub>2</sub> experiment (“1pctCO<sub>2</sub>”, termed  
155 “coupled” or COU), which is a fully coupled simulation forced with an increase in  
156 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations of 1% per year for 140 years from preindustrial until  
157 quadrupling, conducted as part of the CMIP6 DECK; (2) The 1% [CO<sub>2</sub>] biogeochemically  
158 coupled run (“1pctCO<sub>2</sub>-bgc”, termed BGC), in which only the land and ocean  
159 biogeochemical schemes respond to [CO<sub>2</sub>], not the climate; and (3) The 1% CO<sub>2</sub> radiatively  
160 coupled run (“1pctCO<sub>2</sub>-rad”, termed RAD), in which only the radiation scheme responds to  
161 increasing [CO<sub>2</sub>], while the land and ocean biogeochemical schemes are prescribed  
162 preindustrial [CO<sub>2</sub>] levels. Collectively, the COU, BGC, and RAD experiments allow  
163 analyses of how climate and the carbon cycle independently respond to increased [CO<sub>2</sub>] and  
164 how those responses generate carbon feedbacks from the land and ocean acting to amplify or  
165 dampen climate change. We also use results from seven models that participated in C4MIP  
166 during the fifth phase of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP5) to compare  
167 against results from C4MIP for CMIP6 (bcc-csm1-1, CanESM2, CESM1-BGC, HadGEM2-  
168 ES, IPSL-CM5A-LR, MPI-ESM-LR, NorESM1-ME). We note that the net ecosystem  
169 exchange variable was not available for CESM1-BGC from CMIP5; we opted to include the  
170 model for all analyses that do not rely on that variable.

171 Our effort centers on investigating the linearity of carbon and water terms in the C4MIP,  
172 building on earlier work with previous generations of the experiment that focused on their  
173 independent effects in the RAD and BGC runs (Swann et al. 2016; Fowler et al. 2019; Zhou  
174 et al. 2023). Linearity in the context of the C4MIP means that one can generally recover the  
175 fully coupled 1pctCO<sub>2</sub> response after the 140-year simulation ( $\Delta\text{COU}$ ) by summing each  
176 model’s isolated biogeochemical ( $\Delta\text{BGC}$ ) and radiative ( $\Delta\text{RAD}$ ) responses as  $\Delta\text{COU} \approx$   
177  $\Delta\text{BGC} + \Delta\text{RAD}$ . Any residual in this calculation,  $\text{NL} = \Delta\text{COU} - (\Delta\text{BGC} + \Delta\text{RAD})$ , is what  
178 we call the “nonlinear term,” NL, for any quantity at hand. We investigate the NL terms for  
179 carbon, plant, and hydrologic variables to assess how the RAD and BGC schemes in the

180 models interact to affect the COU response and what that implies about how plants impact  
181 water availability.

## 182 *b. Data processing*

183 Monthly hydrologic variables (precipitation, “pr”; runoff, “mrro”; transpiration, “tran”; leaf  
184 evaporation “evspsblveg”; soil evaporation, “evspsblsoi”) are converted to monthly totals in  
185 mm and then resampled to be water year (WY) totals, which we define as October-September  
186 in the Northern Hemisphere and July-June in the Southern Hemisphere.

187 We preprocess monthly layered soil moisture (“mrsol”) from each model, integrating soil  
188 moisture in each model to a common 2-m depth in units of mm. Soil moisture is analyzed as  
189 a WY average, weighted by the number of days in each month. We also calculate vapor  
190 pressure deficit (VPD, kPa). To do so, we use monthly near-surface (2-m) air temperature  
191 (“tas”) and relative humidity (“hurs”) to estimate the saturation vapor pressure ( $e_s$ , kPa) as  
192  $e_s = 0.61078 \times e^{\frac{17.269T}{273.3+T}}$ , where T is temperature (°C); we calculate VPD as  $vpd = (1 -$   
193  $rh/100) * e_s$ , where rh is relative humidity (%), which we aggregate to WY means.  
194 Ecosystem-scale water use efficiency (WUE) is calculated as the ratio of gross primary  
195 productivity (GPP, “gpp” on ESGF) to transpiration (“tran”). Both of these ratios are  
196 calculated at the WY scale. Extreme precipitation, where analyzed, is calculated using daily  
197 precipitation for the models and experiments for which it is available, estimating the Rx5d  
198 measure, which is the maximum total precipitation (mm) occurring over a five-day period in  
199 each WY. Within each WY, we estimate the start of the growing season using two-day  
200 rolling mean of daily 2-m temperature to identify frost events as those in which two-day  
201 mean temperatures are less than zero. The growing season is then the longest consecutive  
202 stretch of days without frosts in each WY. Throughfall is calculated as the difference between  
203 WY total precipitation and WY leaf evaporation ( $E_L$ ), which is the evaporation of intercepted  
204 precipitation. Gross primary productivity (“gpp”), leaf area index (“lai”), and the land carbon  
205 store quantities (vegetation, “cVeg”; litterfall, “cLitter”; soil, “cSoil”) are all resampled to  
206 WY averages weighting by days per month, as above.

207 In all variables except where otherwise noted, WY changes in response to 4xCO<sub>2</sub> are  
208 calculated as the difference between the average of the last 30 water years and the first 30  
209 water years in each 140-year experiment (e.g., **Figs. S1 and S2**). All quantities are calculated  
210 on the native grids for each model and experiment. Where ensemble means are presented, the

211 change from each model is calculated and then interpolated to a common 1°x1° grid (based  
 212 on the CESM2 grid). For all data except the carbon cycle data, we mask out grid cells where  
 213 the ensemble mean climatological monthly peak LAI is below 0.1 m<sup>2</sup>/m<sup>2</sup>. This masks barren  
 214 regions like Greenland and the Sahara and other extremely low vegetation areas (shown as  
 215 grey in maps). For the ensemble mean fields, statistically significant change is calculated at  
 216 the regridded grid-point scale based on a Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test. To do this, we  
 217 pool all model water years from the first and last 30 years of each experiment and test the  
 218 statistical significance of the difference between them. We mask out (in white) any grid cells  
 219 where the K-S test indicates little difference between the two periods ( $p \geq 0.05$ ). Where we  
 220 present regional or global averages, we area-weight the average of each model on their native  
 221 grids.

### 222 *c. Carbon cycle feedback calculations*

223 Carbon cycle feedbacks are calculated following previous work using the “BGC-COU”  
 224 approach (Arora et al. 2020). Where available, we use the [CO<sub>2</sub>] time series provided by each  
 225 model (“co2”) or those provided as a data addendum to Arora et al. (2020) or based on the  
 226 last CO<sub>2</sub> value in the preindustrial control simulation. Where CO<sub>2</sub> data are not archived, we  
 227 calculate their annual value for year  $i$  assuming a 1% compounding increase from 285 ppm  
 228 based on the C4MIP experimental design. Following Arora et al. (2020), for each model and  
 229 experiment, we calculate the change in the total global land carbon storage (sum of cVeg,  
 230 cLitter, and cSoil in petagrams of carbon PgC) as the area-weighted average of carbon  
 231 change at each grid cell. We compute temperature changes based on monthly 2-m  
 232 temperature for each model and experiment as the temperature change between year 139 and  
 233 year 0 of the simulation.

234 We compute the land carbon-concentration feedback,  $\beta_L$ , or what we call  $\beta$  in this  
 235 analysis, as  $\beta = \frac{1}{c'} \left( \frac{\Delta C^* \Delta T' - \Delta C' \Delta T^*}{\Delta T' - \Delta T^*} \right)$ , where  $c$  refers to [CO<sub>2</sub>] change,  $\Delta C$  refers to the change  
 236 in total land carbon stores,  $\Delta T$  refers to 2-m temperature changes, primes (‘) refer to  
 237 quantities from the coupled run (COU) and the asterisks (\*) refer to those from the  
 238 biogeochemical experiment (BGC); the units of  $\beta$  are PgC ppm<sup>-1</sup>. The carbon-climate  
 239 feedback over land, or  $\gamma_L$ , which we call  $\gamma$ , is calculated as  $\gamma = \frac{\Delta C' - \Delta C^*}{\Delta T' - \Delta T^*}$ ; the units are PgC  
 240 °C<sup>-1</sup>. These calculations are performed on global quantities over land.



241 To estimate net ecosystem exchange (NEE), we follow earlier work (Huang et al., 2022).  
242 We calculate the “ $C_{int}$ ” quantity they present, which is equivalent to the nonlinear term on net  
243 ecosystem exchange (NEE) or what we call  $NEE_{NL}$ . We calculate time-cumulative net  
244 primary productivity (“npp”) and heterotrophic respiration (“rh”) fluxes for each model and  
245 grid cell, estimating the flux in total PgC. In contrast to Huang et al. (2022), and to be  
246 consistent with the rest of our analysis, we define the reference carbon flux as the  
247 climatological average flux over the first 30 years of the experiment. We remove the  
248 reference flux from the integrated time series in each grid cell, model, and experiment and  
249 estimate net ecosystem exchange (NEE, also called  $C$  by Huang et al. (2022)) as the  
250 difference between NPP and heterotrophic respiration; the total change in NEE is simply the  
251 value in the last simulation year. We compute the nonlinear term for NEE, called  $NEE_{NL}$ , as  
252  $NEE_{NL} = \Delta NEE' - (\Delta NEE^* + \Delta NEE^+)$ , where, as above, primes signal the COU, asterisks,  
253 the BGC, and the plus sign (“+”) refers to the RAD simulation. All interactive, or nonlinear  
254 terms (i.e., COU – BGC – RAD), which are presented with an “NL” subscript, are calculated  
255 similarly as  $X_{NL} = \Delta X' - (\Delta X^* + \Delta X^+)$ . All model-by-model regressions are linear ordinary  
256 least squares (OLS) with the fit and significance (Student’s t-test) reported.

#### 257 *d. Hydrologic budget framework*

258 Following earlier work (Mankin et al. 2018, 2019), we use a hydrologic budget that  
259 assumes climatological WY precipitation (P) is balanced by plant-based ET, or what we term  
260 the “canopy water flux” (C, which is the sum of transpiration and evaporation from the leaf  
261 surface,  $E_L$ ), total runoff (Q, surface and subsurface) fluxes, and soil water (S, which we  
262 calculate as the sum of soil evaporation and each year’s change in WY mean 2-m soil  
263 moisture, calculated as the first difference of the soil moisture time series). Following earlier  
264 work, we write this budget as  $P = C + Q + S$ , where all terms are WY totals in mm. We note  
265 two things: firstly, S can equivalently be represented as the residual of  $P - C - Q$ . In fact, a  
266 comparison between changes in the S term and the change in the residual from  $P - C - Q$  are  
267 similar in pattern and magnitude, suggesting that our S term effectively characterizes the  
268 residual in the hydrologic budget (**Fig. S3**). Secondly, snow is not explicitly considered in our  
269 budget owing to the fact that we analyze climatological WY changes over vegetated regions  
270 (recall the LAI mask described in *b. Data Processing*), making any multi-year snowpack  
271 exceedingly rare. To ensure this is not an issue and that our budget terms recover model  
272 precipitation, we calculate precipitation partitioning to each WY term C, Q, and S as the ratio

273 of each to WY total precipitation (e.g., for canopy partitioning as C/P). We find that the  
274 partitioning ratios sum to unity nearly everywhere outside of High Mountain Asia, suggesting  
275 the terms we include in our water balance equation capture the scope of each model's  
276 hydrologic budget and reproduce WY total precipitation.

277 For the regional analyses, we calculate the ensemble mean changes in precipitation  
278 partitioning to each budget term,  $\Delta(C/P)$ ,  $\Delta(Q/P)$ , and  $\Delta(S/P)$  in the COU for all grid points  
279 by averaging across all models. Based on that ensemble mean response in the COU, we then  
280 classify and group all grid points that share positive signed changes in partitioning to runoff,  
281  $\Delta(Q/P)$ , or to plant canopies,  $\Delta(C/P)$ . We then calculate area-weighted averages across all  
282 these grid points for a number of quantities to assess the composite response over regions  
283 where runoff or canopy partitioning increases as a function of  $[CO_2]$ . We use this same  
284 approach to calculate  $\Delta P$  positive versus  $\Delta P$  negative regions, again, based on the response in  
285 the COU. Where time series are presented, we present the 30-year rolling mean as a function  
286 of  $[CO_2]$ ; statistical significance in the time series is presented as a thicker line where the  
287 model signal (the ensemble mean change evaluated at that time point) is greater than one  
288 standard deviation of the ensemble variability ( $S/N > 1$ ). Where we present grid-point level  
289 scatter plots, we construct them by pooling all model grid points on their native grids. To  
290 calculate the canopy water flux (C) for the ACCESS-ESM1-5 model, we use  $C = ET - \text{soil}$   
291 evaporation ("evspsbl" minus "evspsblsoi"), as this model does not provide "tran" or  
292 "evspsblveg" to the ESGF archive.

293

### 294 **3. Results**

295 Our analysis centers on whether plants will consume more or less water in a high  $[CO_2]$   
296 versus low  $[CO_2]$  world and what the hydrologic consequences of those plant-water use  
297 changes will be. We present our analysis in six parts: (1) we motivate the work by showing  
298 the pattern of projected greening and drying in the CMIP6 ensemble, which suggests future  
299 plant growth and ecosystem health in the face of land water availability declines; (2) to  
300 understand this overlapping greening and drying, we outline the set of radiative versus  
301 physiological plant-relevant responses in the CMIP6 C4MIP experiments; (3) we show that  
302 there are sizable nonlinear terms in vegetation productivity in the CMIP6 C4MIP experiment,  
303 much larger than those in CMIP5, emphasizing that nonlinear interactions among the RAD

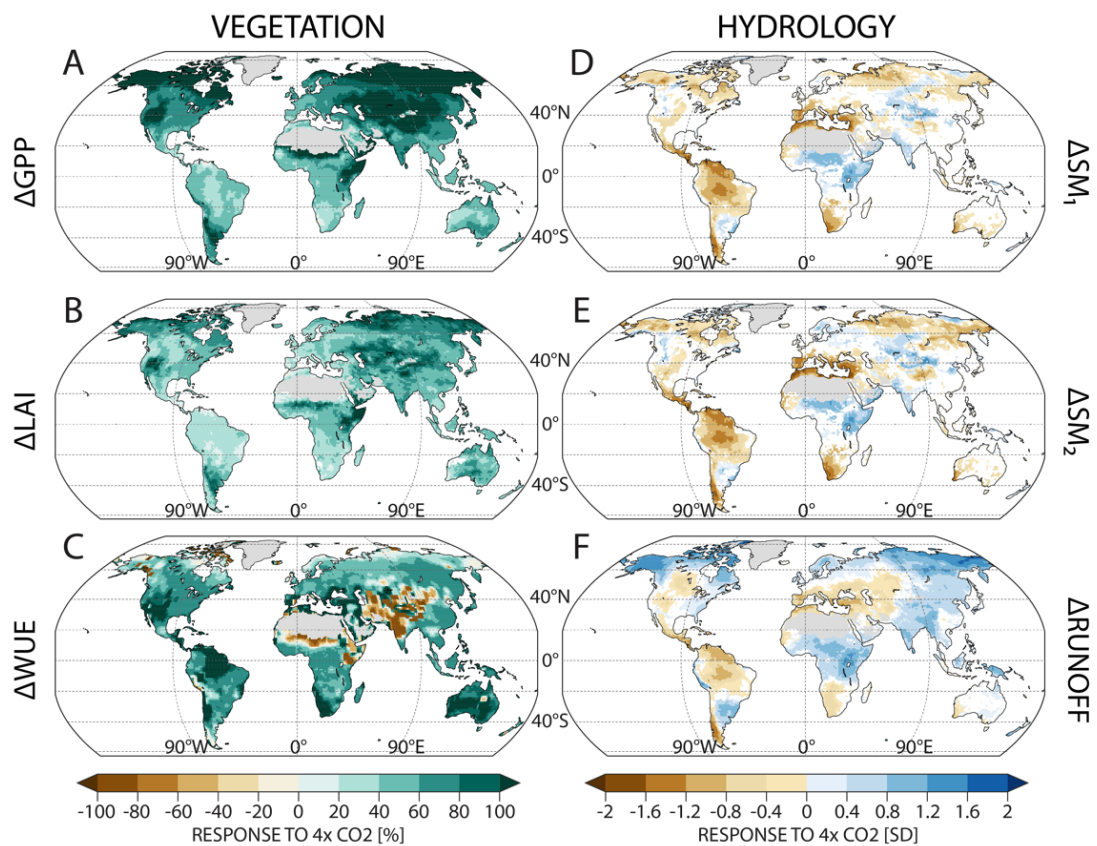
304 and BGC simulations have grown across model generations and act to amplify projected  
305 plant growth beyond what would be expected from CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization or temperature effects  
306 alone; (4) we show that ensemble variation in nonlinear vegetation growth is closely tied to  
307 ensemble variation in the climate-carbon feedback, or  $\gamma$ , a key climate parameter; (5) we use  
308 a simple hydrologic framework to show that these vegetation growth nonlinearities emerge  
309 from carbon cycle processes and generate positive nonlinearities in plant-based ET; and (6)  
310 we show that these increases in plant-based ET from interactive warming and [CO<sub>2</sub>] are  
311 tightly associated with soil moisture decreases and act to offset water savings from reductions  
312 in stomatal conductance in response to high [CO<sub>2</sub>]. Collectively our results connect the  
313 nonlinearity in carbon feedbacks to consequences for vegetation, hydrology, and future water  
314 availability in a high-[CO<sub>2</sub>] world.

315

#### 316 *a. Greening and drying in the CMIP6*

317 The CMIP6 ensemble mean COU simulation shows a consistent spatial pattern of  
318 vegetation “greening” and land surface “drying” implying healthy vegetation in the face of  
319 general reductions in water availability (**Fig. 1**). While the response is consistent with earlier  
320 model generations (Mankin et al. 2017a, 2018, 2019), its magnitude appears stronger in the  
321 CMIP6. The most salient indicator of this resides with GPP, which is the rate of plant  
322 photosynthesis (**Fig. 1a, S1**). The fully coupled ensemble mean COU response is to increase  
323 WY GPP by 68% over global land. The response is reflective of the productivity benefits of  
324 additional [CO<sub>2</sub>] and the strengthening of the land carbon sink (**Fig. 1a, S1**). Complementing  
325 these productivity gains is additional carbon allocation to the leaves of plants, as measured by  
326 LAI, which increases by over 53% in the global mean (**Fig. 1b, S2**). The ensemble-mean  
327 responses in these two quantities, GPP and LAI, share consistent increases with each model  
328 in the COU run, though nuances in the spatial patterns vary (**Fig. S1, S2**). Notably, there is a  
329 57% increase in canopy WUE, suggesting that plants are also more efficient in their water  
330 consumption (**Fig. 1c**). While the ubiquitous signal of the biogeochemical and physiological  
331 effects of [CO<sub>2</sub>] on plants are clearly denoted by the widespread greening in **Figures 1a-c**,  
332 the shared water responses are far more heterogenous. A considerable fraction of land area,  
333 for example, has statistically significant WY drying in 1-m and 2-m soil moisture, as well as  
334 a reduction in WY total runoff (the sum of surface and subsurface runoff in the models). For  
335 example, approximately 50% of land areas have GPP and/or LAI increases collocated with 1-

336 and 2-m soil moisture declines and about 40% have runoff declines and such greening (**Fig.**  
 337 **1d-f**). These results suggest that for many locations, plant growth is unimpeded by regional  
 338 land water reductions.



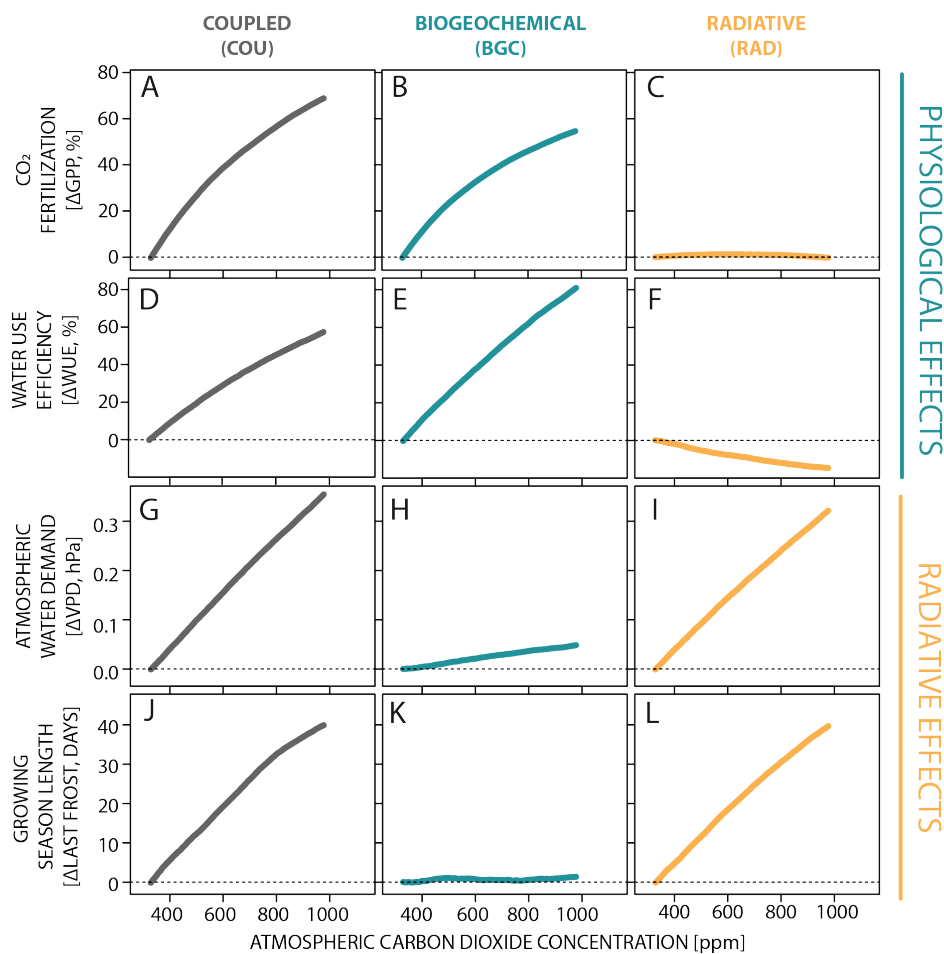
339 **Fig. 1** Plant greening (in percent change, %) and soil drying (in standard deviations of change, SD) in the  
 340 ensemble mean of the 1pctCO2 coupled simulation (COU). In response to 4xCO2 (taken as the  
 341 climatological difference between the last and first 30 WYs of the simulations, **Section 2**), we show spatial  
 342 patterns of changes in gross primary productivity, GPP (**a**), leaf area index, LAI (**b**), and ecosystem water  
 343 use efficiency, WUE, calculated as the ratio of GPP to transpiration (**c**), all in percentage (%) changes. We  
 344 also show the change in 1-m soil moisture (SM<sub>1</sub>) (**d**), 2-m soil moisture (SM<sub>2</sub>) (**e**), and total runoff (**f**), all in  
 345 standard deviation (SD) changes. Only statistically significant changes are shown (**Section 2**).  
 346

347

348 *b. Plant-relevant responses to high [CO<sub>2</sub>] in the C4MIP experiments*

349 Part of the power of the experimental design of the C4MIP is that it allows us to assess  
 350 why the biogeochemical and radiative responses of plants to enhanced [CO<sub>2</sub>] can result in  
 351 vegetation greening and hydrological drying in the same grid points in the fully coupled COU  
 352 simulations (**Fig. 1**). To illustrate this, we examine the ensemble and global mean responses  
 353 of the physiological and radiative effects of increasing [CO<sub>2</sub>] on terrestrial vegetation across

354 the three experiments, COU, BGC, and RAD (Fig. 2). As noted in Section 2a, comparing the  
 355 BGC and RAD runs (one simulation in which plants are responsive to increasing [CO<sub>2</sub>] and  
 356 one in which they are not) to a third, fully coupled run (COU) in which all parts of the model  
 357 respond to enhanced [CO<sub>2</sub>], allows changes in plant water use and water availability to be  
 358 attributed to radiative (e.g., warming) versus biogeochemical (e.g., plant physiological)  
 359 effects.



360

361 **Fig. 2** Ensemble mean plant-related changes in response to the biogeochemical and radiative effects of  
 362 enhanced CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (in parts per million, ppm). For each of the fully-coupled experiment (COU),  
 363 that where the biogeochemical response is isolated (BGC), or that where radiative response is isolated  
 364 (RAD), we show the ensemble-mean global-land fertilization effect, estimated from gross primary  
 365 productivity (GPP, %, a.-c.), water use efficiency (WUE, %, d.-f.), atmospheric water demand, proxied by  
 366 the vapor pressure deficit (VPD, hPa, g.-i), and the growing season length, proxied by the advance in days  
 367 of the last frost (j.-l.).

368 The CO<sub>2</sub>-fertilization effect, as proxied by GPP, prevails in the COU run (Fig. 2a) due  
 369 to the strong BGC response (Fig. 2b), with no contributions from RAD effects (Fig. 2c). Such  
 370 enhanced GPP should tend to increase ecosystem water consumption and dry out the land.  
 371 Stomatal closure under high [CO<sub>2</sub>] yields increased WUE (Fig. 2d) and is considered to be the

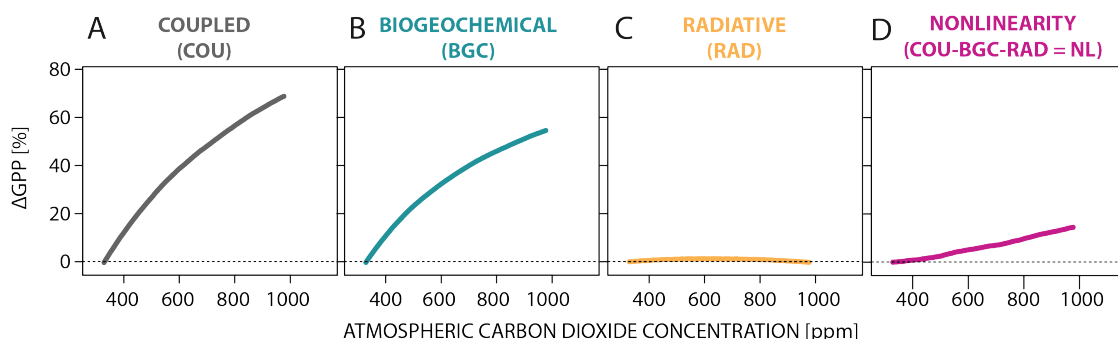
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372 dominant factor contributing to enhanced water availability under anthropogenic forcing,  
 373 particularly when compared to radiative effects alone. In contrast, atmospheric water demand,  
 374 as reflected in VPD (**Fig. 2g**), is driven predominantly by radiative effects (**Fig. 2i**). Plant water  
 375 consumption would also be impacted by changes to the growing season length, which increases  
 376 with forcing due to radiative, rather than biogeochemical, effects (**Fig. 2m-o**).

377

378 *c. Nonlinear interactions between warming and [CO<sub>2</sub>] enhance vegetation growth in CMIP6*

379 Resolving the countervailing physiological and radiative responses presented in **Figure 2** is  
 380 critical for appraising whether plants have a net wetting or drying effect under the full effects  
 381 of CO<sub>2</sub> forcing. Such an effort, however, is complicated by the potential for nonlinear  
 382 interactions among the radiative and biogeochemical effects of CO<sub>2</sub>. Prior work using earlier  
 383 generations of C4MIP have assumed that the BGC and RAD effects can be linearly  
 384 decomposed, including investigations of how plant responses impact water availability under  
 385 high-[CO<sub>2</sub>] (Swann et al. 2016; Fowler et al. 2019; Arora et al. 2020; Zhou et al. 2023);  
 386 however, the assumption of linearity in carbon feedbacks does not hold in CMIP6 (Huang et  
 387 al. 2022).



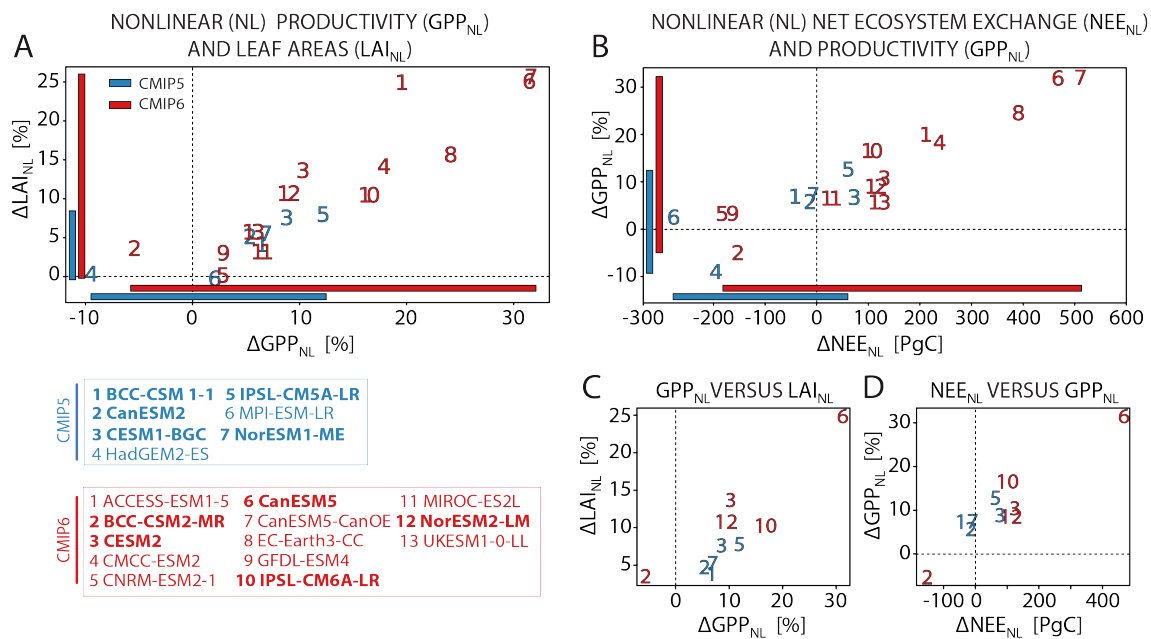
388 **Fig. 3** An emergent nonlinear term in vegetation productivity in the C4MIP **a-d**, The ensemble mean percent  
 389 change in gross primary productivity ( $\Delta$ GPP, %) in each of the three experiments, the coupled (COU, **a**), the  
 390 biogeochemical (BGC, **b**), the radiative (RAD, **c**), and the nonlinear term (NL, **d**) that is calculated as the  
 391 experimental residual all presented as a function of increasing [CO<sub>2</sub>].  
 392

393 In analyzing the linearity assumption for the CMIP6 C4MIP experiments, there is a large and  
 394 significant nonlinear response of enhanced plant growth from the interaction of radiative and  
 395 biogeochemical effects of high [CO<sub>2</sub>] (**Fig. 3**). This response can be seen in **Figure 3d**, where  
 396 a nonlinear term in GPP, which we term  $GPP_{NL}$ , increases by ~35% beyond that predicted by  
 397 the biogeochemical or radiative effects, or their sum, alone. The magnitude of this nonlinear

398 GPP term is sizable—it is equivalent to ~25% of the fully coupled COU response in GPP at a  
399 quadrupling of [CO<sub>2</sub>].

400 While such an interaction between [CO<sub>2</sub>] and warming is expected in the real world,  
401 sizable interactions between RAD and BGC across the ESM ensemble is a new feature in  
402 CMIP6. We can compare the nonlinear plant terms calculated with CMIP6 versus that from  
403 an earlier generation, CMIP5. Nonlinear interactions between the radiative and  
404 biogeochemical effects of high [CO<sub>2</sub>] on carbon and plants were smaller and less uncertain in  
405 CMIP5 than in CMIP6 (**Fig. 4**). Consider for example, the change across generations in  
406 GPP<sub>NL</sub> (**Fig. 4a**). Two features are worth noting here. First is the expected and tight  
407 association between ensemble variation in GPP<sub>NL</sub> and LAI<sub>NL</sub> across both ensembles—  
408 positive nonlinear GPP changes imply positive nonlinear leaf area growth. Second, however,  
409 is that the strength of this relationship and the inter-model variation in the magnitude of these  
410 nonlinear terms is considerably larger in CMIP6 than in CMIP5. The ensemble spread in  
411 GPP<sub>NL</sub> in the CMIP5 spans ±10%, approximately half the range found in CMIP6 (**Fig. 4a**).  
412 Moreover, the CMIP5 ensemble range in LAI<sub>NL</sub> is less than a third of that for CMIP6 (e.g.,  
413 compare relative spans of the bars mapped to the y-axis in **Fig. 4a,b**).

414 The larger uncertainty and magnitude of carbon interactions across model generations  
415 suggests that the assumption that carbon feedbacks can be linearly decomposed into those  
416 arising from biogeochemistry or radiative effects alone, or that any carbon feedback  
417 nonlinearity is trivial does not hold for CMIP6 (**Figs. 3 and 4**). The large nonlinear terms in  
418 GPP presented in **Figure 3** are invariably tied to the carbon cycle and are critical to  
419 understand, particularly given the ongoing efforts to constrain model uncertainty in land  
420 carbon responses to forcing (Hall et al. 2019; Liu et al. 2023; Wenzel et al. 2014). While  
421 GPP, NPP, and NEE are all tightly related quantities, here we show the strength of their  
422 nonlinear terms are also positively correlated across the ensemble: changes in NEE<sub>NL</sub> are  
423 directly related to the changes in GPP<sub>NL</sub> across the ensemble (**Fig. 4b**). NEE<sub>NL</sub> is very tightly  
424 correlated with that from GPP<sub>NL</sub> across both the CMIP5 and CMIP6 ensembles, with a strong  
425 positive relationship consistent across model generations. There is, however, a far larger  
426 range of modeled NEE<sub>NL</sub> values in the CMIP6 than in the CMIP5, suggesting a growing  
427 uncertainty in carbon interactions across generations.



428

429 **Fig. 4** The inter-model association between nonlinear vegetation terms in CMIP5 and CMIP6. We show the  
 430 variation in (a)  $GPP_{NL}$  and  $LAI_{NL}$  and (b) in  $NEE_{NL}$  and  $GPP_{NL}$  in CMIP5 (blue) and CMIP6 (red) for all  
 431 vegetated land areas. The full model range is mapped to each axis via the colored bars. Panels (c) and (d)  
 432 show the same set of results as in (a) and (b) but for the subset of models that are available for both  
 433 generations of CMIP (bolded models in legend): BCC-CSM 1-1 and BCC-CSM2-MR; CESM1-BGC and  
 434 CESM2; CanESM2 and CanESM5; IPSL-CM5A-LR and IPSL-CM6A-LR; NorESM1-ME and NorESM2-  
 435 LM. It is clear that the CMIP6 spans nearly double the range of that from the earlier CMIP5, suggesting a  
 436 growth in uncertainty due to nonlinear interactions among biogeochemistry and warming across generations.

437

438 The growth in RAD-BGC interactions in CMIP6 relative to CMIP5 is perhaps related  
 439 to the increased complexity of terrestrial biogeochemical processes across model generations.  
 440 Future work should focus on identifying the processes that contribute the most to the  
 441 magnitude of the nonlinear RAD-BGC interactions. Hypotheses to test could include whether  
 442 the representation of nutrient cycles, or other processes, such as ecosystem disturbance,  
 443 succession, and mortality account for the change from CMIP5 to CMIP6. It is certainly the  
 444 case that more models are representing nitrogen and phosphorous cycles and vegetation  
 445 cohort dynamics (Fisher and Koven 2020). As such, a rigorous model-by-model investigation  
 446 of which key model choices have shaped the growing interactions between RAD and BGC  
 447 changes is essential to better-constrain the land carbon sink under warming and its  
 448 consequences for water and warming.

449 At the same time, while increased model complexity is a possible contributing factor, an  
 450 expanding range in these nonlinearities could simply be a function of the larger number of

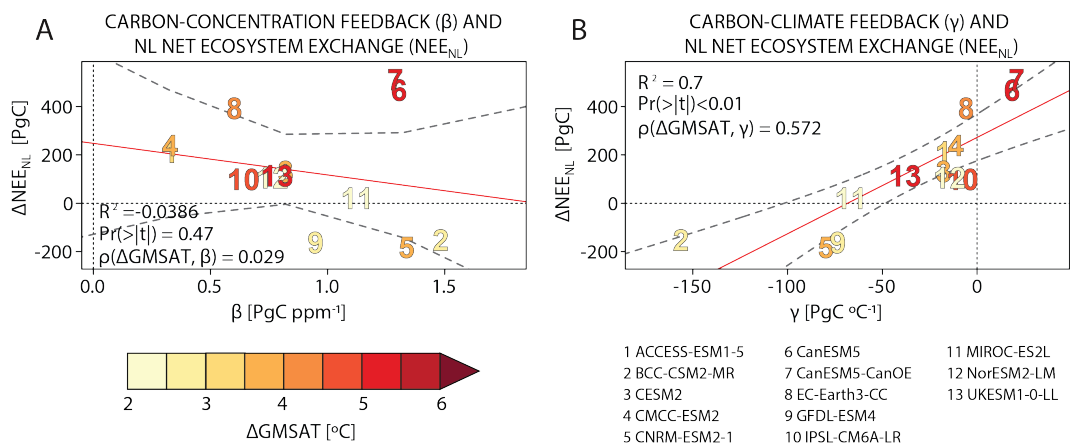


451 participating models in CMIP6 or the increase in modeling centers contributing simulations.  
 452 To assess whether the growing CMIP uncertainty is robust, we consider the subset of five  
 453 models that have the requisite data available across both generations (**Fig. 4c,d**). The results  
 454 show that even when considering paired models across generations and the same number of  
 455 models, CMIP6 spans a far greater range of nonlinear carbon flux values than CMIP5. All  
 456 five models except those from the Beijing Climate Center (BCC models) show an increase in  
 457 in  $LAI_{NL}$ ,  $GPP_{NL}$ , and  $NEE_{NL}$ —some as large as 20 percentage points—as is the case for the  
 458 Norwegian model (NorESM). These results suggest that the magnitude of nonlinear  
 459 uncertainties has expanded in the CMIP6 relative to the CMIP5.

460

461 *d. Nonlinear vegetation growth in CMIP6 tied to carbon feedback parameters*

462 The large nonlinear vegetation response to enhanced  $[CO_2]$  present in CMIP6 models  
 463 (Huang et al. 2022) raises questions about their implications for carbon feedbacks and land  
 464 hydrology. To provide some insights into the former, we extend earlier analyses (e.g., Huang  
 465 et al. (2022)) and examine two key carbon feedback metrics estimated from the C4MIP  
 466 simulations, as detailed in the Section 2 (Arora et al. 2020; Jones et al. 2016): the carbon-  
 467 concentration feedback,  $\beta$ , and the climate-carbon feedback,  $\gamma$ . Positive values of  $\beta$  or  $\gamma$   
 468 indicate land carbon gains in response to increasing  $[CO_2]$  and temperature (**Fig. 5**).



469

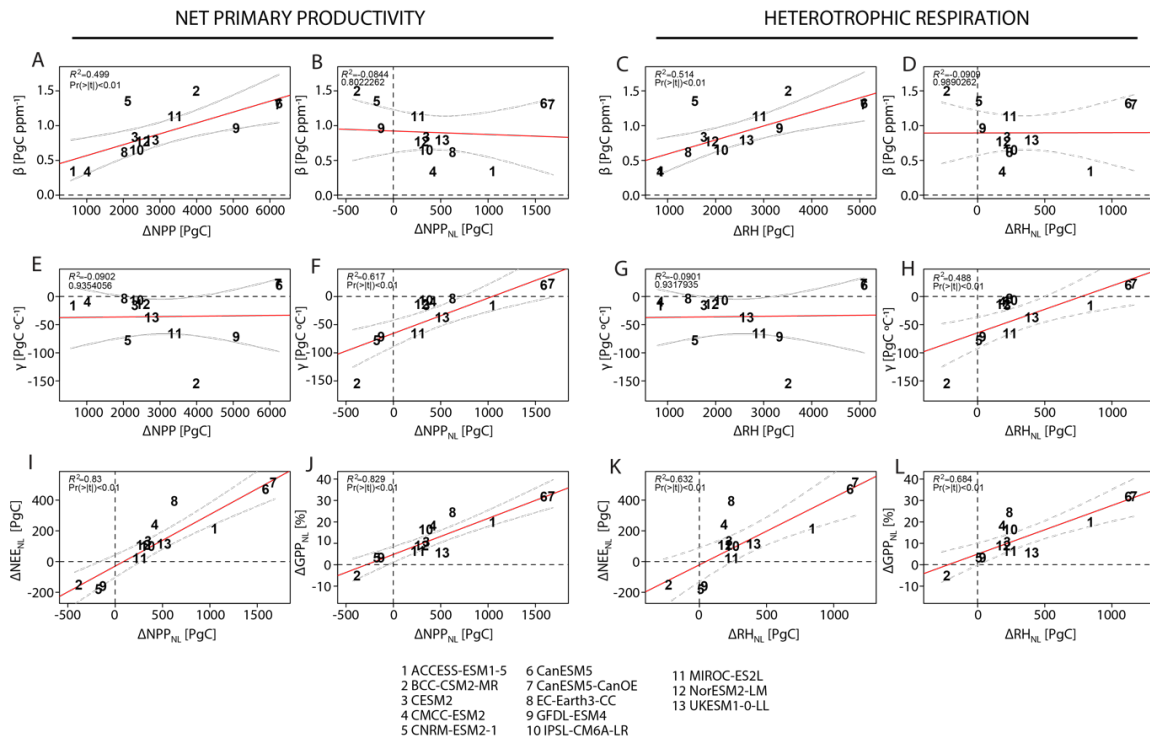
470 **Fig. 5** Nonlinear carbon feedbacks and their association with vegetation growth for global land areas in  
 471 CMIP6. **a**, The ensemble association between the nonlinear term in net ecosystem exchange ( $NEE_{NL}$ ) and  
 472 the carbon-concentration feedback,  $\beta$ . **b**, The inter-model association between the nonlinear term in net  
 473 ecosystem exchange ( $NEE_{NL}$ ) and the carbon-climate feedback,  $\gamma$ . Colors indicate the magnitude of each  
 474 COU model's 2-m global mean  $4xCO_2$  surface air temperature (GMSAT)  $4xCO_2$  response (land and  
 475 ocean). The 13 models included in the analysis are listed. Inset text in each panel indicates the R-squared  
 476 derived from a linear regression, shown as a red line, the significance of that regression, and the correlation  
 477 between the x- and z-axis variables. Dotted grey lines indicate the 95% prediction-based confidence  
 478 interval.

479

480 We find that carbon nonlinearities (exemplified by  $NEE_{NL}$ ) scale much more tightly with  
481 model variation in the land-carbon sensitivity to climate ( $\gamma$ , **Fig. 5b**), than to higher  $[CO_2]$   
482 concentrations ( $\beta$ , **Fig. 5a**). In particular, models in which GPP is amplified by the  
483 interactions of warming and  $[CO_2]$  have larger values of  $GPP_{NL}$ , larger values of  $LAI_{NL}$ , and  
484 they also stimulate stronger carbon uptake than release by heterotrophic respiration (a  
485 positive  $NEE_{NL}$ ) relative to models with weaker nonlinear terms (**Fig. 4**). These same models  
486 also tend to be warmer than models with weaker nonlinearities, denoted by the global mean  
487 surface air temperature (GMSAT) changes from the COU in **Figure 5**. As a consequence, the  
488 models with strong nonlinearities in carbon exchange tend to have less negative or even  
489 positive values of  $\gamma$  (**Figs. 5b**). Weaker carbon-climate feedbacks ( $\gamma$ ) imply either stronger  
490 carbon assimilation by the land, less land carbon lost from warming-induced heterotrophic  
491 respiration, or some combination thereof, making for a more resilient land-carbon sink under  
492 climate change (**Fig. 5b**). In contrast, models with smaller  $GPP_{NL}$  have less amplified  $LAI_{NL}$   
493 (**Fig. 4a**), weaker or negative  $NEE_{NL}$  (**Fig. 4b**), less warming (**Fig. 5**) and a more negative  $\gamma$   
494 (from the land perspective), indicating larger land carbon losses to the atmosphere per degree  
495 of warming (**Fig. 5b**).

496 Decomposing NEE into its components, net primary productivity (NPP) and  
497 heterotrophic respiration (RH), confirms the above interpretation and further emphasizes that  
498 these nonlinear carbon terms are more tightly associated with  $\gamma$  than with  $\beta$  (**Fig. 6**).  
499 Cumulative changes in NPP and RH from the COU run, for example, tightly scale with  $\beta$ ,  
500 rather than with  $\gamma$ , (cf. **Fig. 6a,e and c,g**). Such an association is expected and intuitive:  $\beta$  is  
501 dominant in shaping the total carbon cycle response to climate change in the fully coupled  
502 models (Arora et al. 2020). What is notable, however, is that this pattern reverses entirely  
503 when considering nonlinear terms, such as  $NPP_{NL}$  and  $RH_{NL}$  (cf. **Fig. 6b,f and d,h**). Across  
504 the CMIP6 ensemble, the magnitude of  $\gamma$  tightly corresponds with the magnitude of the  
505 RAD-BGC interactions terms in net primary productivity,  $NPP_{NL}$ , and respiration,  $RH_{NL}$

506 (Fig. 6f,h). Both of those terms also shares a tight positive association with  $NEE_{NL}$  and  
 507  $GPP_{NL}$  (Fig. 6i-l).



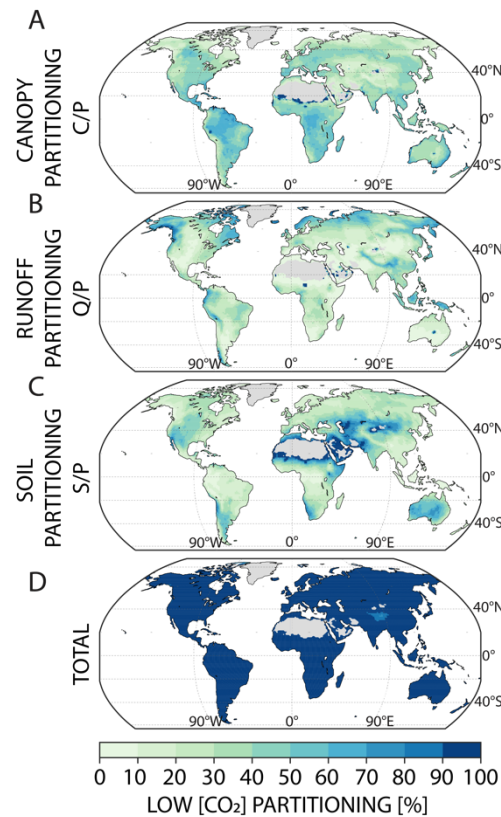
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509 **Fig. 6** The CMIP6 inter-model association between the components of NEE,  $NEE_{NL}$  and carbon feedback  
 510 metrics for global land areas. We show cumulative changes in net primary productivity, cumulative NPP  
 511 and cumulative  $NPP_{NL}$ , left side, and heterotrophic respiration, RH and  $RH_{NL}$ , right side, all in of  
 512 petagrams of carbon (PgC) and carbon feedbacks,  $\beta$  (a-d) and  $\gamma$  (e-h) for each model. We also show the  
 513 model-by-model association between  $NEE_{NL}$  and  $GPP_{NL}$  and the components that comprise each term (i-l).  
 514 Ensemble variation in NPP and RH changes from the COU are tightly associated with  $\beta$  (a, c) (as opposed  
 515 to  $\gamma$  (e, g)). However, the nonlinear components  $NPP_{NL}$  and  $RH_{NL}$  are not associated with  $\beta$  (b, d). Instead,  
 516 these nonlinear terms are tightly associated with variation in  $\gamma$  (f, h), and are closely related to  $NEE_{NL}$  and  
 517  $GPP_{NL}$  (i-l). R-squared values and the significance of each regression is shown in the top left of each panel.  
 518

519 *e. Nonlinear interactions between warming and [CO<sub>2</sub>] enhance plant-based ET*

520 To examine how the nonlinear terms in vegetation growth influence ecosystem water  
 521 use, we use a simple hydrologic budget following earlier work (Mankin et al. 2019, 2018).  
 522 We analyze changes in how WY precipitation (P) is partitioned at the land surface among  
 523 three terms: the canopy water flux (C), total runoff (Q), and soils (S) (see **Section 2**). To  
 524 illustrate that this budget is reasonable and that there is, in fact, closure among the terms, we  
 525 plot the ensemble mean percentage of total WY precipitation going to each term—C, Q, and  
 526 S—in the first 30 years of the COU run (**Fig. 7**). If there is closure, then the sum of the  
 527 partitioning ratios C/P, Q/P, and S/P should approach 100%. We find they do for most

528 regions, save for a small portion of High Mountain Asia (**Fig. 7d**), where multiyear snowpack  
529 (**Section 2**) is present in both observations and models (Gottlieb and Mankin 2024).



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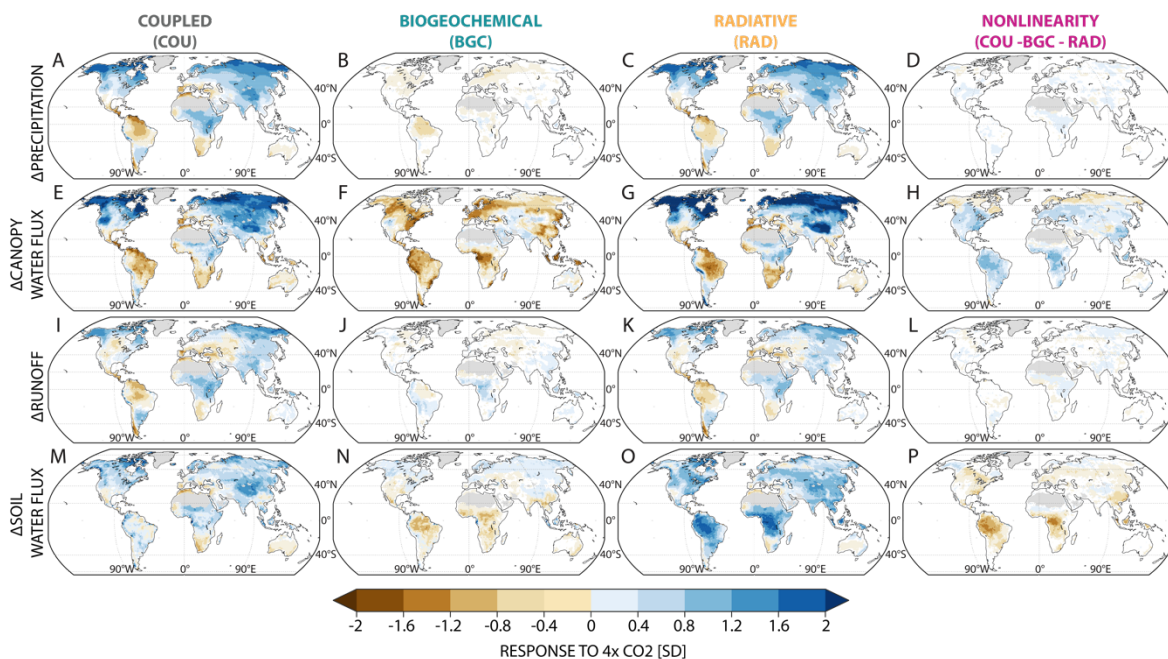
531 **Fig. 7** Ensemble mean precipitation partitioning during the first 30 years of the 1pctCO<sub>2</sub> (COU) simulation  
532 expressed as a percent (rather than fraction) for the canopy (C/P) (**a**), runoff (Q/P), (**a**), and soils (S/P), (**c**).  
533 The sum of the three ratios (**d**) should approach 100% assuming that at climatological WY scales as  
534  $P=C+Q+S$ .

535

536 Maps of total changes in WY hydrologic variables (**Fig. 8**) and their relative changes  
537 from precipitation partitioning (**Fig. 9**) show that nonlinear terms increase plant-based ET  
538 both relatively (as a fraction of precipitation) and absolutely (in standard deviations of  
539 change) in response to high [CO<sub>2</sub>]. As expected, and consistent with the pattern of the fully  
540 coupled ensemble mean response to forcing, precipitation in the COU increases in the  
541 extratropical northern latitudes and equatorial Africa and Asia, with drying in the  
542 Mediterranean, the Amazon, Central America, southern Africa and Chile, and uncertain  
543 change elsewhere (**Fig. 8a**). Across most of the budget terms, P (**Fig. 8a-d**), C (**Fig. 8e-h**), Q  
544 (**Fig. 8i-l**), and S (**Fig. 8m-p**), the ensemble mean pattern in the COU is primarily driven by  
545 the forced climate response in the RAD, more so than the BGC or NL terms, which are  
546 modest in the ensemble mean, if and where they are significant. This response is because P

20

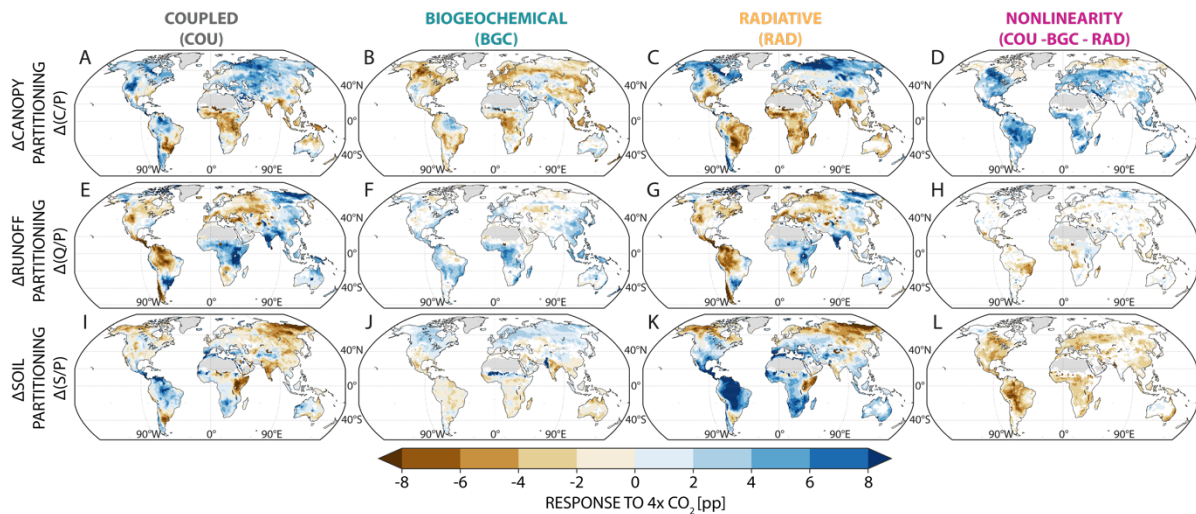
547 changes are driven by the thermodynamic response in the RAD, whereas forced P responses  
 548 in the BGC are smaller (though still potentially important) (Skinner et al. 2017; Lesk et al.  
 549 2025).



550  
 551 **Fig. 8** Hydrologic changes across experiments under the water budget of  $P = C + Q + S$ , presented in standard  
 552 deviations of change (SD) in response to  $4xCO_2$ . The ensemble mean response of precipitation (**a-d**), canopy  
 553 water flux,  $C$  (**e-h**) total runoff ( $Q$ , **i-l**), and soils (change in 2-m soil moisture storage plus soil evaporation,  
 554 **Section 2, m-p**) in the fully coupled experiment (COU), the experiments in which the biogeochemical response  
 555 is isolated (BGC), the radiative response is isolated (RAD), and the residual or nonlinear interaction between the  
 556 RAD and BGC (calculated as  $COU - BGC - RAD$ ). Gray regions indicate where historical peak leaf area index is  
 557 below 0.1. Only statistically significant changes (K-S test,  $p < 0.05$ ) are shown and all maps are at the WY scale.  
 558

559 Beyond the pattern of precipitation changes, the stomatal response from higher  $[CO_2]$  in  
 560 the BGC run clearly leads to a global-scale reduction in plant-based ET, the  $C$  term in our  
 561 budget (**Fig. 8f**). The ubiquity of the brown contours in **Figure 8f** is striking, and it is this  
 562 response in the C4MIP BGC that gives rise to the suggestion that plant physiological  
 563 responses to enhanced  $[CO_2]$  will tend to enhance water availability for soils or rivers,  
 564 offsetting the drying from RAD effects or  $CO_2$  fertilization. However, the NL term for plant-  
 565 based ET,  $C_{NL}$  (**Fig. 8h**), shows a pattern of *increases* that roughly mirrors the *reductions* in  
 566 plant-based ET in the BGC run (**Fig. 8f**). This means that nonlinear interactions between the  
 567 radiative and biogeochemical effects cancel any plant-water savings from the BGC run,

568 leaving the RAD run to dominate the COU pattern. It is also noteworthy that there are  
 569 decreases in the  $S_{NL}$  term (**Fig. 8p**), which we explore further in later sections.  
 570

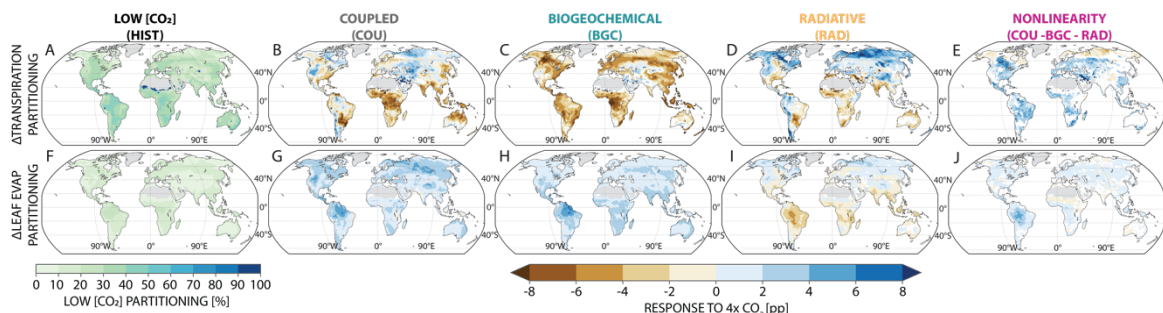


571  
 572 **Fig. 9** Changes in WY precipitation partitioning at the land surface to each term in the hydrologic budget  
 573 in response to 4xCO<sub>2</sub>, presented in percentage points (pp) of change. For each experiment and the NL term  
 574 (columns) we show the spatial pattern of changes in the fraction of total WY precipitation directed to  
 575 canopies,  $\Delta(C/P)$  (**a-d**), runoff,  $\Delta(Q/P)$  (**e-h**), and soils,  $\Delta(S/P)$  (**i-l**) (see **Section 2**). Gray regions indicate  
 576 where historical peak leaf area index is below 0.1. Only statistically significant epoch changes (K-S test,  
 577  $p < 0.05$ ) are shown.  
 578

579 The nonlinear terms are robust in the parts of land hydrology most closely associated with  
 580 vegetation; this pattern also persists when we examine relative changes in precipitation  
 581 partitioning. The maps in **Figure 9** show the change in the fraction of WY precipitation  
 582 allocated to each hydrologic budget term, C, Q, and S. In the fully coupled COU run, the  
 583 change in canopy partitioning,  $\Delta(C/P)$ , increases across vast swaths of the globe, particularly  
 584 in the northern and eastern hemispheres (**Fig. 9a**) as plants in those regions demand larger  
 585 fractions of each drop of precipitation. In tropical Africa and Asia, canopy partitioning  
 586 declines (**Fig. 9a**), likely due to WUE and stomatal closure effects being stronger than CO<sub>2</sub>  
 587 fertilization in the BGC runs (**Fig. 9b**) and because of either reduced precipitation or higher  
 588 VPD in the RAD runs (**Fig. 9c**). Fully coupled changes in runoff partitioning,  $\Delta(Q/P)$ , show  
 589 declines over much of the northern and eastern hemispheres (**Fig. 9e**), driven predominantly  
 590 by radiative warming (**Fig. 9g**), and show increases in tropical Africa and Asia through  
 591 contributions from both the biogeochemical and radiative effects of increasing [CO<sub>2</sub>]. The  
 592 BGC contribution to increased Q/P and decreased C/P (cf. **Fig. 8f, j** and **Fig. 9b, f**) is the  
 593 “plants turn on the tap” response (Jasechko 2018), where stomatal closure and WUE

594 increases spare water for runoff and or soils. Lastly, there are the changes in soil partitioning,  
 595  $\Delta(S/P)$  (**Fig. 9i-k**), which outside of western North America, shows an inverse pattern to  
 596 runoff partitioning in the COU run (cf. **Fig. 9e, i**) driven largely by radiative effects (**Fig. 9k**).  
 597 Because the partitioning ratios sum to unity (**Fig. 7**), changes are bounded such that increases  
 598 in one term must be compensated by decreases in another.

599 Importantly, changes in precipitation partitioning at the land surface for the COU run do  
 600 not equal the sum of changes in the BGC and RAD components. A large, positive, and  
 601 statistically significant  $(C/P)_{NL}$  spans most regions globally in the C4MIP (**Fig. 9d**), a feature  
 602 that is associated with decreased  $(Q/P)_{NL}$  and, primarily,  $(S/P)_{NL}$  (**Fig. 9h and i**). Increases in  
 603  $\Delta(C/P)_{NL}$  shown in **Figure 9d** arise from some combination of changes in transpiration and  
 604 leaf evaporation, which are combined in the C term.



605 **Fig. 10** WY precipitation partitioning and its changes across experiments to the components of plant-  
 606 based ET in percentage points of change (pp). The ensemble mean low  $[CO_2]$  partitioning, defined as the  
 607 first 30 years of the 1pctCO<sub>2</sub> (COU) run (first column, **a,f**) and then its change in the COU (second  
 608 column, **b,g**), BGC (third column, **c,h**), RAD (fourth column, **d,i**) simulations, and then in the NL term  
 609 (fifth column, **e,j**). We show the response for transpiration partitioning (first row **b-e**, calculated as WY  
 610 changes,  $\Delta(TRAN/P)$ ) and leaf evaporation partitioning (second row, **g-j**, calculated as  $\Delta(E_L/P)$ ).  
 612

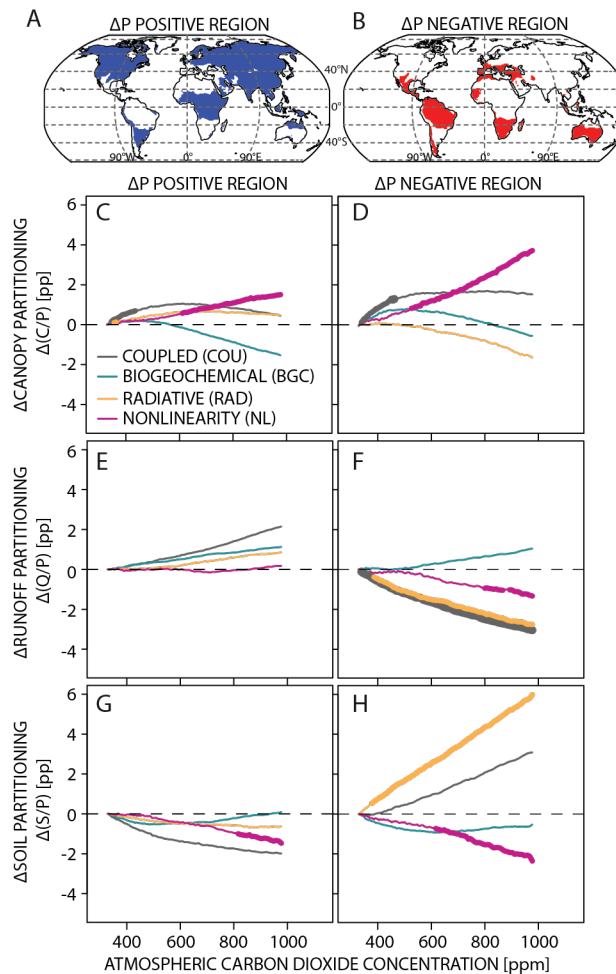
613 We decompose canopy partitioning (the C term) into its components, transpiration and  
 614 leaf evaporation, in **Figure 10**. It is clear that positive  $(C/P)_{NL}$  changes are driven by a  
 615 nonlinear term in transpiration partitioning, though important contributions also come from  
 616 increased leaf evaporation (**Fig. 10e, j**). In other words, while BGC responses alone are  
 617 associated with plant responses that diminish transpiration and thus spare water for runoff  
 618 and soil moisture (cf. **Fig. 9b, f, j**), that alone does not shape plant-based ET changes.  
 619 Nonlinear interactions between BGC and RAD responses favor relative increases in plant-  
 620 based ET to the sacrifice of runoff and soil moisture when controlling for precipitation  
 621 changes (cf. **Fig. 9d,h,i**), predominantly by enhancing transpiration (**Fig. 10e**) even in the  
 622 face of stomatal closure. The consequence of RAD and BGC interactions is an increase in

623 plant-based ET relatively and absolutely, reducing soil water (**Figs. 8p and 9l**), and to a  
624 lesser extent, runoff partitioning (**Fig. 9h**).

625 It is notable that this nonlinear increase in relative plant water use is insensitive to the  
626 sign of precipitation change (**Fig. 11**). To make this assessment, we divide global grid points  
627 into regions where precipitation increases versus where it decreases based on COU 4xCO<sub>2</sub>  
628 response (**Fig. 11a,b, Section 2**). For each of these domains, we present the area-weighted  
629 average response as a function of [CO<sub>2</sub>] in each experiment as well as the NL term (**Fig. 11c-**  
630 **h**). Regardless of the precipitation change, there is a significant increase in precipitation that  
631 is partitioned to plants from the nonlinear interactions between the radiative and  
632 biogeochemical effects of [CO<sub>2</sub>] (**Fig. 11c,d**, bolded pink lines). It is also interesting that in  
633 regions with decreased precipitation, there is a significant decrease in runoff partitioning  
634 from the NL term that emerges under high [CO<sub>2</sub>], countering any increase in runoff  
635 partitioning from the BGC (cf. the pink and green lines in **Fig. 11f**). There is essentially no  
636 statistically significant enhancement of runoff partitioning in precipitation positive regions,  
637 suggesting that mean precipitation changes alone do not account for runoff enhancement  
638 (**Fig. 11e**). Notably, we find that increases in extreme precipitation are more tightly  
639 associated with increasing runoff partitioning than mean precipitation (**Fig. S4**).

640 Regardless of the precipitation change, the NL term acts to decrease precipitation  
641 partitioning to soils, denoted by the statistically significantly declines (**Fig. 11g,h**, pink lines).  
642 The direction of precipitation change appears to affect the extent to which runoff partitioning  
643 or soil partitioning is affected, with precipitation decreases leading to an increase in  $(C/P)_{NL}$   
644 (pink line in **Fig. 11d**), and a decrease in  $(Q/P)_{NL}$  and soils  $(S/P)_{NL}$  (pink lines in **Fig. 11f**, and  
645 **h**, respectively). Together, these results indicate that the NL increase in plant-based ET  
646 occurs regardless of the sign of precipitation change and can diminish water partitioning to  
647 soils and runoff. This response occurs in spite of enhanced WUE and surface resistance to ET  
648 that are thought to be key to runoff enhancement or drought-risk reductions (Roderick et al.  
649 2015; Swann et al. 2016; Fowler et al. 2019). Where canopy partitioning does decrease, such  
650 as from the BGC effect (statistically insignificant segments of green lines in **Fig. 11c,d**), the  
651 nonlinear term acts to weaken or completely counter that effect (statistically significant  
652 segments of pink lines in **Fig. 11c,d**).



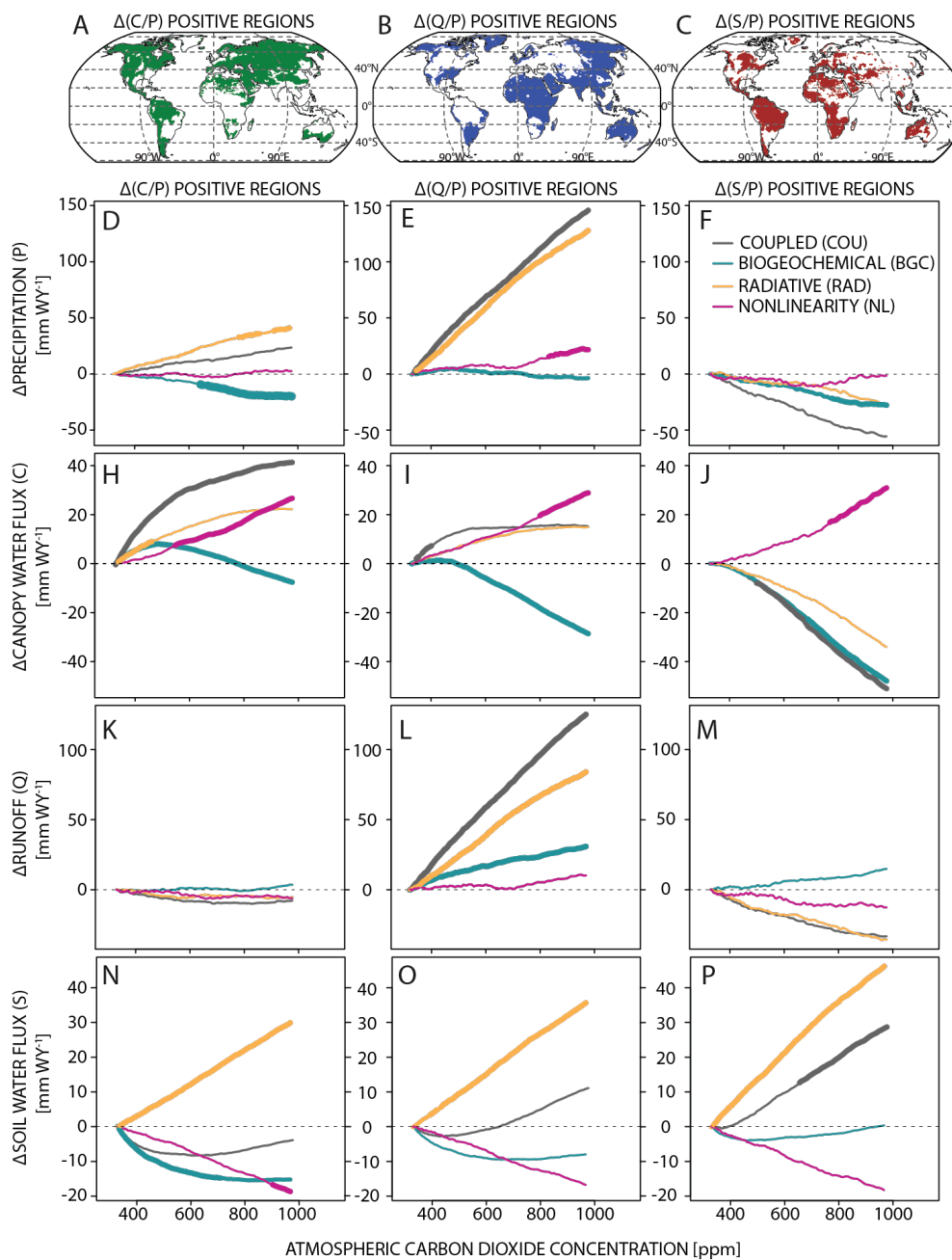


653

654 **Fig. 11** Precipitation partitioning responses in percentage point change (pp) to increasing [CO<sub>2</sub>] in ppm.  
 655 Maps show the regions of ensemble mean precipitation increases in blue (a) and decreases in red (b) from  
 656 the COU run. These maps define the domains over which we evaluate the ensemble mean changes in each  
 657 experiment for each quantity presented in panels c-h. The ensemble mean area-weighted regional average  
 658 responses in percentage points [pp] of canopy partitioning, C/P (c-d), runoff partitioning, Q/P (e-f), and  
 659 soil partitioning S/P (g-h) in precipitation increasing (a) and decreasing (b) regions as a function of [CO<sub>2</sub>].  
 660 Ensemble statistical significance is presented as a bolded line (Section 2).

661 The changes in precipitation partitioning due to nonlinear interactions between the RAD  
 662 and BGC runs generate wide changes in land hydrology. To illustrate the connection between  
 663 the relative changes presented in Figures 9-11 and the changes presented in Figure 8, we  
 664 divide global land areas into three regions, one in which ensemble mean COU 4xCO<sub>2</sub>  
 665 changes in canopy partitioning are positive (called “Δ(C/P) positive region”), one in which  
 666 COU changes in runoff partitioning are positive (or “Δ(Q/P) positive region”), and one in  
 667 which COU changes in soil partitioning are positive (or “Δ(S/P) positive region”) (Fig. 12a-c,  
 668 S4). We note two revealing patterns of hydrologic change: First, the precipitation increase in  
 669 the Δ(Q/P) positive region is far larger than in the Δ(C/P) positive region, as precipitation

670 changes have a first-order control on enhancing runoff partitioning and total runoff, even in  
 671 the BGC run (cf. **Fig. 12d and e** with **Fig. 12k and l**).



672  
 673 **Fig. 12** Total hydrologic changes in mm per WY across experiments and the nonlinear terms in response to  
 674 increasing  $[CO_2]$  in ppm. Maps (a-c) of regions where the ensemble mean partitioning increases for  
 675  $\Delta(C/P)$ ,  $\Delta(Q/P)$ , and  $\Delta(S/P)$ , based on the COU 4xCO<sub>2</sub> response (see maps in **Fig. 9, a, e, i**). The maps in  
 676 (a-c) define the domains over which we evaluate the ensemble mean change in total hydrologic quantities  
 677 in mm per WY presented in panels d-p, linking how the partitioning changes shape total changes in C, Q,  
 678 and S. For each partitioning increase region, we show the time series of ensemble mean precipitation  
 679 changes (d-f), canopy water flux, C, changes (h-j), runoff, Q, changes (k-m) and soil water, S, changes (n-

680 p) in each experiment and the nonlinear term. Ensemble statistical significance in the time series is  
681 presented as a bolded line.

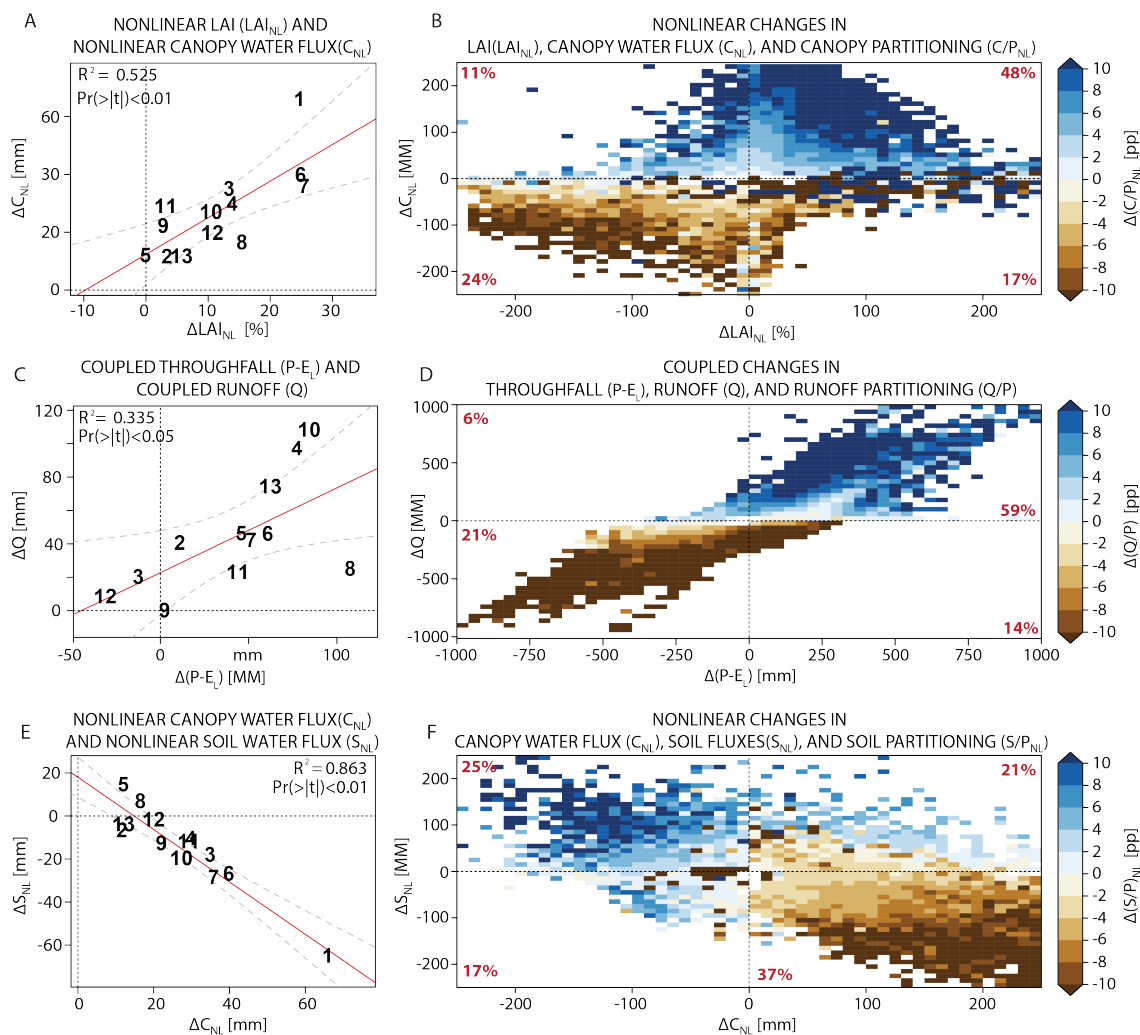
682  
683 The  $\Delta(S/P)$  and  $\Delta(C/P)$  positive regions contrast with the  $\Delta(Q/P)$  positive regions in that they  
684 have no statistically significant change in precipitation in the COU run (**Figure 12d,f**, thin  
685 gray lines). Second, and consistent with the nonlinear term in carbon and in plant-based ET,  
686 our results also demonstrate a clear—and previously unaccounted for—significant nonlinear  
687 increase in the canopy water flux, C (and its components: transpiration and leaf evaporation),  
688 regardless of the partitioning region (bolded pink lines in **Fig. 12h-j**). Such ubiquity suggests  
689 that the nonlinear term in canopy partitioning, or  $\Delta(C/P)_{NL}$ , is associated with a positive  
690 nonlinear term in the absolute plant-based ET ( $\Delta C_{NL}$ ) as well, regardless of whether canopy  
691 partitioning increases in the COU run. These changes are sizable, amounting to more than  
692 50% of the canopy water flux response in the COU experiment. The widespread increase in  
693 plant-based ET from interactions between BGC and RAD runs cancel or exceed any water  
694 savings that accrue in the BGC runs from stomatal closure in the CMIP6 across precipitation  
695 changes (**Fig. 11**), or hydrologic partitioning changes (**Fig. 12**).

696  
697 *Nonlinear plant-based ET reduces soil moisture while runoff is controlled by precipitation*

698 To connect our two sets of results—the nonlinear vegetation growth from carbon  
699 feedbacks (**Fig. 3-6**) and the nonlinear hydrologic changes (**Figs. 8-12**)—we examine inter-  
700 model global changes in C, Q, and S, as well as their grid-point responses to evaluate  
701 whether they are consistent across model spatial scales and within individual models (**Fig. 13**).

702 At the global scale, and across all models in the C4MIP ensemble, the magnitude of  
703  $C_{NL}$  is significantly and positively correlated with  $LAI_{NL}$ , accounting for over 50% of the  
704 inter-model variation in the C4MIP (**Fig. 13a**). Positive leaf-area nonlinearities ( $LAI_{NL}$ ) are  
705 closely tied to nonlinear changes in  $GPP_{NL}$  (**Figs. 4-6**), suggesting the RAD-BGC interactions  
706 in carbon cycle processes amplify plant growth and consequent ET. We pool all model grid  
707 points together, bin them into their  $LAI_{NL}$  and  $C_{NL}$  responses, and calculate the average of  
708  $\Delta(C/P)_{NL}$  across all model grid points falling in each  $LAI_{NL}$  and  $C_{NL}$  bin (**Fig. 13b, Section**  
709 **2**). While  $LAI_{NL}$  is positive in the ensemble mean everywhere, across the full model  
710 distribution, there are grid points within individual models with negative values (**Fig. 13b**).  
711 Across spatial scales there is a clear positive correlation between  $LAI_{NL}$  increases,  $C_{NL}$   
712 increases, and  $(C/P)_{NL}$  increases. The positive association among all three is strong,

713 suggesting that plant growth nonlinearities influence both the relative and absolute increases  
 714 in simulated ecosystem water use across models, regions, climates, and biomes.



715  
 716 **Fig. 13** Linking plant greening to soil drying in the C4MIP. **a**, The inter-model association between the  
 717 4xCO<sub>2</sub> response in the nonlinear LAI term (LAI<sub>NL</sub>, %) and the nonlinear canopy water flux term (C<sub>NL</sub>, mm  
 718 WY<sup>-1</sup>) over global land areas. **b**, The model-grid point association among LAI<sub>NL</sub> term and C<sub>NL</sub>. Colors  
 719 indicate area-weighted model-grid point average change in nonlinear canopy partitioning (C/P)<sub>NL</sub> in  
 720 percentage points (pp). **c**, The inter-model association among 4xCO<sub>2</sub> changes in total canopy throughfall,  
 721 calculated as the difference between WY precipitation and WY leaf evaporation (P-E<sub>L</sub>, mm WY<sup>-1</sup>) and  
 722 total runoff (mm WY<sup>-1</sup>) in the COU run. **d**, As in **b**, except showing the model-grid point association  
 723 among precipitation throughfall, runoff, and runoff partitioning (colors) from the COU run. **e**, The inter-  
 724 model association among the C<sub>NL</sub> (mm WY<sup>-1</sup>) and the nonlinear soil water flux (S<sub>NL</sub>, mm WY<sup>-1</sup>). **f**, as in **b**  
 725 and **d**, but showing the model-grid point association between C<sub>NL</sub> and S<sub>NL</sub>. Colors indicate the nonlinear  
 726 soil partitioning, (S/P)<sub>NL</sub>. In **a**, **c**, and **e**, R-squared and p-values are reported. Model numbers are the same  
 727 as presented in **Figure 4-6**. In **b**, **d**, and **e**, red text indicates the percentage of pooled model-grid points  
 728 falling into that quadrant.

729 In contrast to the canopy water flux from plant-based ET, there is little nonlinearity  
 730 that emerges in runoff partitioning or runoff itself, and—where it exists—it tends to be  
 731 negative or statistically insignificant, implying that interactions among the RAD and BGC

732 weakly reduce runoff (e.g., **Figs. 9h, 12k-m**). Because there is not a strong nonlinear runoff  
733 term to explain, we instead focus on the factors determining total runoff in the fully-coupled  
734 COU run (**Fig. 13c,d**). While the assumption has always been that plant-driven runoff  
735 enhancements were conditioned on precipitation changes, precipitation, not plants, is the  
736 dominant factor shaping runoff changes across the ensemble, even in the BGC run where  
737 plant effects are thought to be central to hydrologic changes (**Fig. 11-13**). The result here is  
738 consistent with other work that shows that, even in the BGC run alone, precipitation changes  
739 are five times more important than transpiration changes for determining runoff changes  
740 (Lesk et al. 2025). Nonlinear vegetation responses do appear to impact runoff responses in  
741 regions with precipitation decreases, reducing runoff partitioning or countering any runoff  
742 partitioning gains from the BGC run (**Fig. 11f**, pink line). This implies that in the models,  
743 plants take their share of precipitation regardless of precipitation change, which in turn cuts  
744 into the runoff allocation where precipitation is limited. In contrast, runoff appears to increase  
745 primarily through increased precipitation (**Figs. 12e,l**) and canopy throughfall, with the latter  
746 estimated as the difference between precipitation and leaf evaporation (**Fig. 13c, d**).

747 The relationship between throughfall, runoff, and runoff partitioning is clear at both the  
748 inter-model and model grid-point scales, as enhanced throughfall increases runoff (**Figs. 13c,**  
749 **d**). As such, in regions where increased runoff partitioning does occur, these changes are  
750 associated with precipitation changes that more than compensate for canopy interception and  
751 leaf evaporation changes, or have larger increases in extreme precipitation relative to other  
752 regions (**Fig. S4**). For example, changes in extreme precipitation changes (defined as the  
753 maximum total precipitation (mm) occurring over a five-day period in each WY) in  $\Delta(Q/P)$   
754 positive regions are 50% larger than in  $\Delta(C/P)$  positive regions, driven by a strong radiative  
755 response in those regions (**Fig. S4d,e**). This is consistent with earlier work that showed that  
756 the strength of extreme precipitation change accounts for the strength of runoff partitioning  
757 changes in models (Mankin et al. 2018).

758 We find that plant changes due to interactions of the RAD and BGC runs act to draw  
759 down soil water, drying the surface (**Fig. 13e-f**). Global-scale inter-model decreases in  $S_{NL}$   
760 are tightly associated with increases in  $C_{NL}$  (**Fig. 13e**). The result implies that the increase in  
761 plant-based ET (e.g., **Fig. 13a,b**) comes at the expense of soil water. This relationship holds  
762 across grid points and models, as positive  $C_{NL}$  is associated with decreases in  $(S/P)_{NL}$  (colors  
763 in **Fig. 13f**). This implies that the strength of the greening and drying pattern in the CMIP6

764 ensemble (**Fig. 1**) is, in part, a function of the nonlinear increase in plant growth and the  
765 associated increase in plant-based ET, which leads to soil water reductions in the CMIP6  
766 ensemble.

#### 767 **4. Discussion & Conclusions**

768 Relative to the CMIP5, the latest generation of CMIP6 ESMs simulate larger interactions  
769 between the radiative and biogeochemical effects of [CO<sub>2</sub>] (Huang et al. 2022) (**Fig. 4**).  
770 There are a number of potential reasons for the growth in these interactions, from varied  
771 sophistication in nutrient cycling schemes, mortality, disturbance, and succession, among  
772 others. Irrespective of the precise reasons for these emergent interactions between the  
773 radiative and biogeochemical effects of CO<sub>2</sub>, they lead to larger and more uncertain nonlinear  
774 terms in plant growth and net ecosystem exchange that are associated with a reduced  
775 sensitivity of the land carbon feedbacks to warming across the ensemble (**Fig. 5**). These plant  
776 responses have consequences for hydrology (**Figs. 8-13**): leaf areas increase beyond what  
777 would be predicted by the sum of CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization and radiative effects alone, leading to  
778 *increased* ecosystem water use, both absolutely (as total plant-based ET increases) (**Fig. 8**)  
779 and relatively (as plant-based ET comprises an increasing fraction of precipitation) (**Fig. 9**).  
780 These increases in plant-based ET from interactions among RAD and BGC contribute to  
781 land-surface drying (**Figs. 11-12**) or counter any gains from increased ecosystem WUE.  
782 Vegetation in CMIP6 simulations only increases water availability when comparing radiative  
783 and biogeochemical simulations in isolation (Swann et al. 2016; Scheff et al. 2021). When  
784 radiative and biogeochemical responses can interact in simulations as they do in the real  
785 world, the models suggest that vegetation and its water use counter (or exceed) any increases  
786 in runoff or soil moisture from stomatal closure in the BGC runs. In the fully coupled  
787 simulations, plants and their responses to [CO<sub>2</sub>] generally dry the land.

788 These results suggest that the curious global pattern of vegetation greening and land  
789 surface drying (Mankin et al. 2017a) projected by the models appear to be internally  
790 consistent, meaning that the soil drying is, in part, associated with enhanced greening (**Figs.**  
791 **1, 13**). It does not suggest, however, that they are reflective of what will occur in the real  
792 world. Future investigations should consider the set of processes governing carbon uptake  
793 and release by the land (**Fig. 6**), and how this has evolved across the CMIP5 to CMIP6  
794 ensemble and whether this has contributed to a weaker climate-carbon feedback (**Fig. 5b**).

795 That nonlinear interactions among nutrient cycles and warming has emerged in the  
796 models is not surprising (Burkett et al. 2005; Field et al. 1995, 2007). It is also not surprising  
797 that the magnitude of and uncertainty in such interactions has increased across model  
798 generations even as the models become more realistic (Fisher and Koven 2020; Zaehle et al.  
799 2015). However, the emergence of sizable nonlinear interactions in carbon feedbacks appears  
800 to be a new feature of the latest generation of CMIP relative to earlier generations (e.g., **Fig.**  
801 **4**) (Huang et al. 2022). While new parameterizations likely make land surface schemes more  
802 reflective of real-world processes, how they interact to shape model responses and accuracy  
803 requires continued evaluation. Certainly, in this instance, the CMIP6 range in the magnitude  
804 of nonlinear carbon responses has increased relative to CMIP5, and the reasons for this  
805 change are a worthy subject for future research.

806 Our findings reinforce a more widespread need for the perturbed parameter ensembles  
807 being pursued by researchers in the land surface modeling community (Zarakas et al. 2024;  
808 McNeall et al. 2024). As science seeks to understand the independent and interactive effects  
809 of these parametrizations schemes around plants, nutrients, and hydrology, such interactions  
810 can give very different model answers, even within the same land surface model (Zarakas et  
811 al. 2020, 2024). Our results here emphasize a point relevant to these efforts: one-at-a-time  
812 perturbed parameter ensembles, while computationally feasible, may actually be insufficient  
813 to characterize the importance of any one land surface parameter, owing to interactive effects.  
814 Instead, “global variance-based” sensitivity analyses (Saltelli 2000; Saltelli et al. 2010)  
815 should be pursued, where modelers jointly and independently perturb carbon, plant, and  
816 water parameters to evaluate not just the contribution of any one parameter to the distribution  
817 of model answers, but how interactions among parameters influence uncertainties in model  
818 responses. These ensembles could help identify the parameters most culpable for uncertainty  
819 in RAD and BGC interactions and position their benchmarking to the real world.

820 As ESMs incorporate more sophisticated processes (Fisher and Koven 2020),  
821 nonlinearities are emerging with hydrologic consequences. Furthermore, considerable model  
822 spread in land carbon and hydrology stem from model representations of phenology, nutrient  
823 limitations, soil microbial and respiratory processes, vegetation mortality from wildfire,  
824 insects and pathogens, drought stress, wind storms, and post-disturbance successional  
825 processes (Ziehn et al. 2021; Sanderson and Fisher 2020; Albrich et al. 2020; Trugman et al.  
826 2018; Zaehle et al. 2015; Fisher and Koven 2020). To realistically represent the land carbon

827 sink and its implications for water availability for people and ecosystems, model  
828 development is rightfully focused on improving representation of the soil water-plant-  
829 atmosphere continuum (Clark et al. 2015) and plant mortality and succession (Anderegg et al.  
830 2013; Trugman et al. 2018; Williams et al. 2022). To what extent these processes collectively  
831 generate nonlinear feedbacks in the real world is poorly understood and must be evaluated.  
832 At the same time, greater model sophistication may improve the realism of any one model, it  
833 may also give rise to additional poorly understood nonlinear feedbacks, which may, or may  
834 not, be reflective of the real world. Identification of these nonlinearities and their  
835 consequences, as we have done here, is an essential step and creates a scientific imperative to  
836 understand the properties of the emerging nonlinearities in state-of-the-art ESMs.

837

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853

### 854 *Data Availability Statement.*

855 All CMIP5 and CMIP6 C4MIP data that support this study are publicly available at:  
856 <https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/>. All code that supports this study will be made available upon  
857 reasonable request.



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1077 **Supplemental Material:**

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**Nonlinear carbon feedbacks in CMIP6 and their impacts on future  
1080 freshwater availability**

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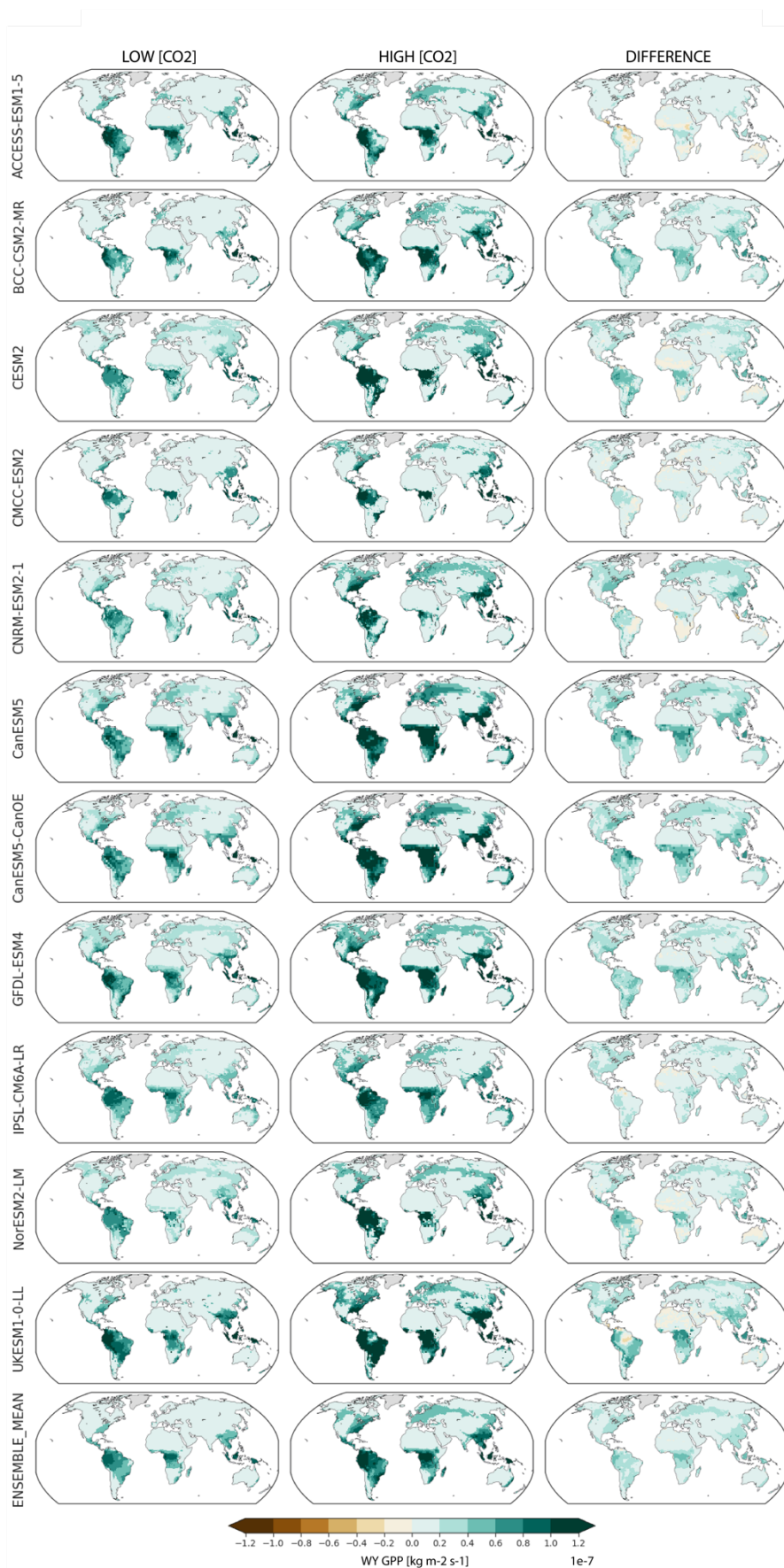
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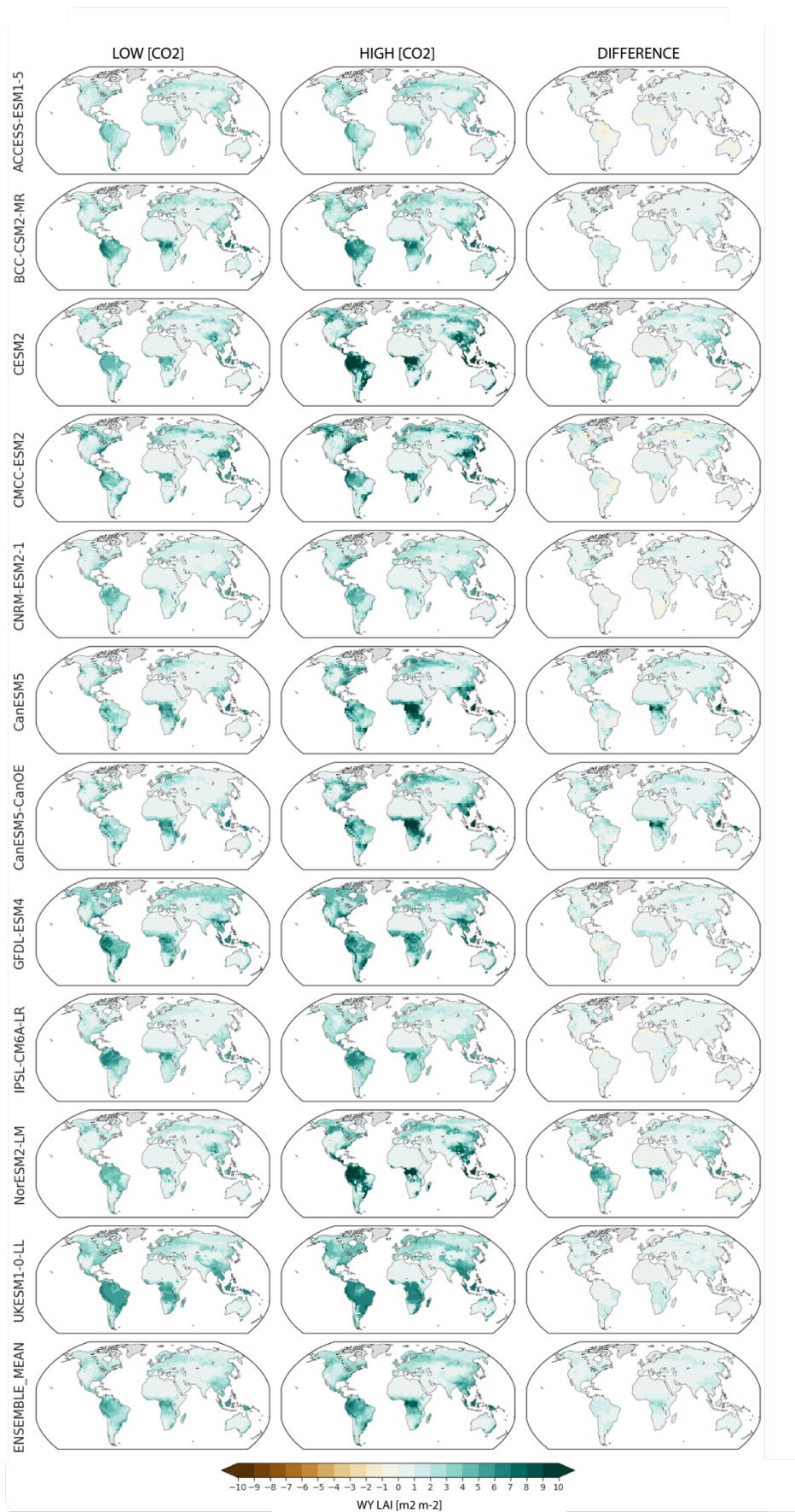
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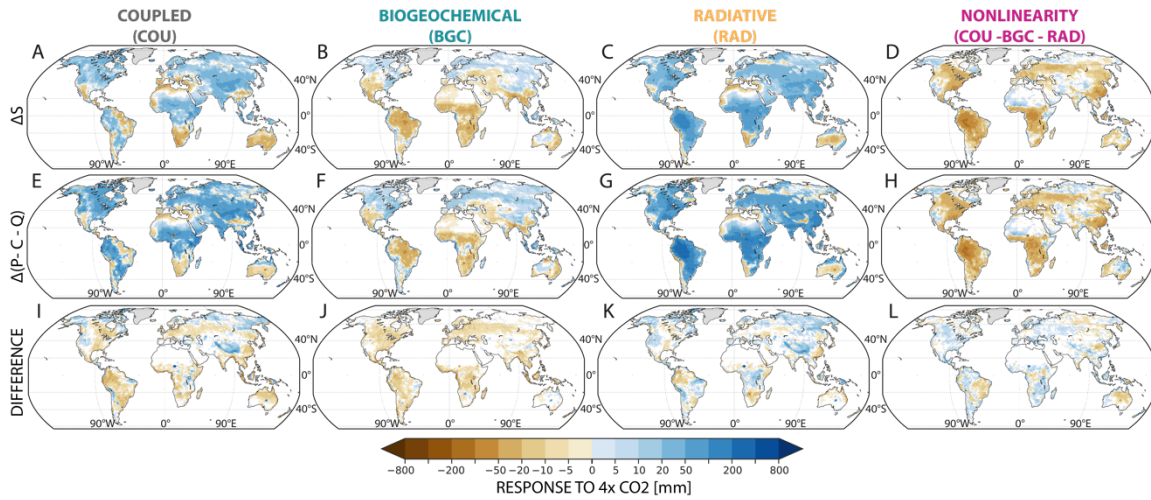




1093 **Fig. S1** Climatological GPP and its change in the 1pctCO2 fully coupled simulation (COU) for each model  
1094 in the analysis and the ensemble mean (rows). Columns correspond to the climatological water-year (WY)  
1095 mean of GPP in the first 30 years, last 30 years, and difference among the two periods for each simulation.  
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1098 **Fig. S2** Climatological LAI and its change in the 1pctCO2 fully coupled simulation (COU) for each model  
1099 in the analysis and the ensemble mean (rows). Columns correspond to the climatological water-year (WY)  
1100 mean of LAI in the first 30 years, last 30 years, and difference among the two periods for each simulation.  
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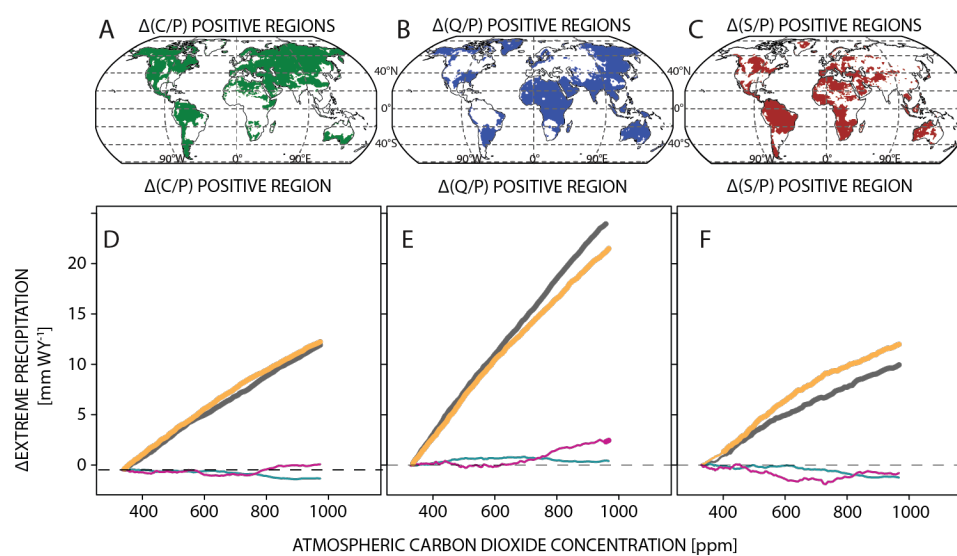
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1104 **Fig. S3** Climatological water-year (WY) ensemble-mean changes in response to 4xCO<sub>2</sub> in the S term in each  
 1105 experiment used in the analysis, defined as the sum of soil evaporation and the first difference of 2-m soil  
 1106 moisture (**a-d**), versus the S term when it is calculated as the residual of the difference between P, C, and Q  
 1107 (**e-h**). The last row (**i-l**) shows the difference between the two estimates of the S term. Only statistically  
 1108 significant changes are shown.

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1113 **Fig. S4** Changes in extreme precipitation (**d-f**) as a function of increasing [CO<sub>2</sub>] in  $\Delta(C/P)$ ,  $\Delta(Q/P)$ , and  
1114  $\Delta(S/P)$  regions (**a-c**) based on the ensemble-mean of the COU run (see maps in **Fig. 9, a, e, i**). Significance  
1115 in the time series is presented as a bolded line where the 30-year rolling ensemble mean change is greater  
1116 than one standard deviation of changes across the ensemble at that time.