1	Future increases in Amazonia water stress from CO ₂ physiology
2	and deforestation
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19 Several different drivers are contributing to climate change within the Amazon basin, including forcing from greenhouse gases and aerosols, plant physiology responses to rising 20 CO₂, and deforestation. Attribution among these drivers has not been quantified for 21 22 shared socioeconomic pathway (SSP) climate simulations. Here, we identify the contribution of CO₂ physiology and deforestation to future hydroclimate change in the 23 Amazon basin by combining information from three experiments and eight different 24 25 Earth system models in CMIP6. Together, forcing from CO₂ physiology and deforestation account for about 44% of the projected annual precipitation decline, 48% of surface 26 relative humidity decline, and 11% of warming over the Amazon basin by 2100 for SSP3-27 7.0. Other CMIP6 SSP simulations have similar contributions from the two drivers. 28 29 Insight from our attribution analysis can aid in identifying research priorities aimed at reducing uncertainty in future projections of water availability, carbon dynamics, and 30 31 wildfire risk.

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Climate change is a major threat to Amazon rainforests as warming and drying contribute 33 to higher levels of tree mortality in intact forests^{1,2} and to more destructive fires that escape 34 human control^{3,4}. To explore both future climate change and its impacts within the Amazon 35 basin, Earth system model (ESM) simulations from the 5th and the 6th Phases of the Coupled 36 Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP)⁵⁻¹² are widely used. Specifically, simulations from 37 ScenarioMIP¹³ for different future shared socioeconomic pathway (SSP)¹⁴ scenarios have been 38 analyzed extensively to assess climate change impacts on ecosystem composition¹⁵, carbon 39 storage¹⁶, the hydrological cycle¹⁷, fire risk¹⁸, and socio-economic systems¹⁹, often with the 40

CMIP simulations serving as external forcing for a set of downstream models that resolve the 41 basin with a higher spatial resolution or greater process representation (for example, Koch & 42 Kaplan¹⁶). Another important application of the CMIP simulations is their use in the 43 44 development of emergent constraints²⁰, which allow for a better understanding of the individual models from the broader ensemble that are more likely to accurately predict the sign and 45 magnitude of future change²¹⁻²³. Despite the extensive use of SSP simulations for these purposes, 46 47 we do not clearly understand how different forcing agents within the simulations contribute to projected future changes in climate and the hydrological cycle in the Amazon basin. 48

Identifying the forcing agents responsible for projected future changes in climate is 49 50 important for identifying research priorities to reduce uncertainties in key model components. 51 In CMIP6 SSP simulations, critical forcing agents include well mixed greenhouse gases, aerosols, and land use change. Particularly for the Amazon basin, it is well established that the 52 53 surface evapotranspiration changes from plant stomatal responses to rising atmospheric CO₂ and deforestation are important drivers of the precipitation response²⁴⁻²⁹, yet studies analyzing 54 SSP simulations may include an implicit assumption that most of the projected change in the 55 basin is associated with the climate system response to radiative forcing from greenhouse gases 56 and aerosols, since these are the main forcing agents at a global scale (for example, Zhao & 57 Dai¹²). To ensure a successful and informative assessment for policy- and decision-makers, it 58 59 is essential to provide comprehensive reports on both the magnitude of climate change and its consequences. Additionally, it is crucial to clearly quantify the factors that contribute to future 60 regional change. Failing to fully understand these key drivers hinders progress in reducing 61 uncertainties within climate models³⁰. 62

Future precipitation changes in Amazonia will likely be influenced by increased 63 atmospheric CO₂ and deforestation^{31,32}. The CO₂ impacts on Amazonian precipitation can be 64 separated into radiative and plant physiological effects. The CO₂ radiative effect alters physical 65 66 and dynamical processes, with regional Amazonian precipitation responding to large-scale thermodynamical adjustments of the ocean-atmosphere system, including the "wet regions 67 getting wetter" mechanism identified in past work^{33,34}. By contrast, the plant physiological 68 69 effect in response to rising CO₂ is associated with a reduction in plant stomatal conductance and land surface evapotranspiration, that in turn, influence boundary layer processes, the 70 frequency of deep convection, and interactions with the tropical jet³⁵. Though sharing similar 71 72 mechanisms of reducing surface evapotranspiration and boundary layer humidity, deforestation 73 additionally increases surface albedo and reduces surface roughness, two processes that play major roles in altering precipitation patterns in various parts of the Amazon basin³⁶⁻³⁸. Across 74 75 the basin as a whole, it has been suggested that increasing the deforestation fraction may cause a linear decline in regional average precipitation³⁹, and that for some scenarios of future change, 76 this decline in precipitation may be similar in magnitude to that caused by forcing from CO₂ 77 physiology⁴⁰. 78

Despite the well-understood mechanisms of the rainfall reductions due to CO₂ physiology^{25,35,40} and deforestation⁴¹, there remains a lack of comprehensive and quantitative understanding of their contributions to future rainfall and other climate variable changes in future (21st century) simulations conducted as a part of ScenarioMIP for different SSPs. This attribution is challenging, in part, because each SSP has a different level of atmospheric CO₂ and prescribed forest cover change. In this study, we attribute changes in Amazonian

85 precipitation, surface relative humidity, and climate warming in the SSP simulations to forcings from CO₂ physiology and deforestation. For this purpose, we analyzed idealized model 86 simulations from two model comparison projects (MIPs) that were undertaken as a part of 87 88 CMIP6 (see Methods), namely, the Coupled Climate-Carbon Cycle Model Intercomparison Project (C4MIP⁴²) and the Land-Use Model Intercomparison Project (LUMIP⁴³). Idealized 89 experiments of the land surface response to rising CO₂ in C4MIP (known as the 90 91 biogeochemically coupled or BGC simulations) and to deforestation in LUMIP enabled us to first quantify the climate response of Amazon rainforest to these two mechanisms under 92 uniform simulation protocols. We specifically analyzed transient simulations from eight models 93 participating in C4MIP and six models participating in LUMIP (Supplementary Tables 1 and 94 95 2). This analysis revealed that regional annual mean precipitation, surface relative humidity, 96 and air temperature respond linearly to atmospheric CO₂ concentration and forest cover fraction 97 in the Amazon basin. In a second step, we applied linear models of the climate response to the absolute change in CO₂ concentration or forest cover fraction to quantify the contribution of 98 these mechanisms to climate change in the Amazon basin for different CMIP6 SSP simulations. 99 100

101 Isolating climate response to rising CO₂ or deforestation

We find that for the influence of rising CO₂ on plant physiology, the models show a significant (and mostly linear) decline in mean annual precipitation of $-0.91 \pm 0.07\%$ (P < 0.001, t-test) for a CO₂ increase of 100 ppm (Fig. 1a). Multiplied by the quadrupling increase in CO₂ (that is, from 285 ppm to 1140 ppm between last and first 20 years of the C4MIP BGC simulations) and a basin-wide mean annual precipitation climatology of 6.1 mm d⁻¹, this precipitation response to the CO₂ physiological forcing is equivalent to -0.47 mm d⁻¹, which is broadly consistent with estimates for this response from the mean of previous CMIP5 models (for example, -0.48 mm d⁻¹ in Kooperman et al. ²⁵). We also find all the individual CMIP6 models used in this study show a significant negative precipitation response to CO₂ physiological forcing (ranging from -0.5% to -1.6% per 100 ppm CO₂ increase), highlighting a reasonably coherent response of Amazonian precipitation to CO₂ physiological forcing within CMIP6 (Supplementary Table 2).

Deforestation also significantly decreases mean annual precipitation in the Amazon basin 114 (Fig. 1b). The multi-model average response is $-1.0 \pm 0.3\%$ per 10% deforestation (P < 0.001), 115 relatively linear, and equivalent to about 10% or -0.61 ± 0.18 mm d⁻¹ for 100% (complete) 116 117 deforestation of the whole basin. The sign and magnitude of the multi-model average precipitation response from the fully coupled LUMIP simulations for complete deforestation is 118 119 nearly identical and with a lower uncertainty compared to the mean estimate of $-12 \pm 11\%$ (per 100% deforestation) from a recent meta-analysis synthesizing information from climate models 120 with various degrees of ocean, ice, and atmospheric coupling³⁹. Moreover, we find all models 121 agree on the sign of the response with their magnitude ranging from -0.15% to -2.3% in 122 response to a 10% loss of forest cover, despite important structural differences in the CMIP6 123 models with respect to the representation of vegetation-hydrology coupling and biophysical 124 responses to land use change 28,29 . 125

Spatially, the precipitation response to forcing from a 100 ppm CO_2 increment is strongest in the northeastern part of the basin (Fig. 2a), with a pattern consistent with previous reports³⁴. Whereas the climate response to the basin-wide 10% deforestation is strongest in central and 129 western Amazonia, adjacent to the Andes Mountain range (Fig. 2b). Further, the CO₂ physiological forcing and deforestation also influence seasonality of the precipitation response. 130 Across the annual cycle, the CO₂ physiology impacts on precipitation are somewhat uniform, 131 132 when expressed as a percent change. However, the precipitation response in the southeastern part of the basin is stronger toward the end of the dry season (August and September) than at 133 the beginning of the dry season (June and July) (Supplementary Fig. 1). The negative 134 135 precipitation response to deforestation appears to be most robust across the models during the wet season (December to May), although there is also a strong response and high level of 136 agreement across models in the northern and eastern part of the basin during August, September, 137 138 and October (Supplementary Fig. 2).

139 The negative precipitation response to forcing from CO₂ physiology and deforestation implies greater future risks for meteorological drought and fire. To provide more insight into 140 141 potential changes in these risks caused by CO₂ physiology and deforestation forcing, we performed a similar regression analysis (see Methods) for surface relative humidity (RH) from 142 the five models with available output from C4MIP and the four models with available output 143 from LUMIP. Basin-wide RH decreases at a rate of $-0.91 \pm 0.02\%$ (P < 0.001) in response to a 144 100 ppm CO₂ increase and by $-0.5 \pm 0.1\%$ (P < 0.001) in response to a 10% loss of tree cover 145 in the Amazon basin (Fig. 1c, d). Regressions for each available model also confirm that the 146 147 RH response is consistently negative in response to these drivers, although not every model exhibits a statistically significant trend (Supplementary Table 2). The spatial pattern of RH 148 response to CO₂ physiology and deforestation is more homogeneous than for precipitation, with 149 the largest signal occurring in the central Amazon basin (Supplementary Fig. 3a, b). 150

Similar to precipitation and RH, the surface air temperature response in the Amazon basin to forcing from CO₂ physiology is mostly linear (Fig. 1e), with a regional average warming rate of 0.13 ± 0.01 °C per 100 ppm increase in CO₂ (P < 0.001). All models agree on a significantly positive surface air temperature response to rising CO₂ (Supplementary Table 2). This warming signal is likely to increase the saturation vapor pressure, which, combined with the declined surface moisture availability due to declined stomatal conductance, contributes to the RH declines for CO₂ physiology.

The surface air temperature response to deforestation is considerably noisier than for the 158 other climate variables shown in Figure 1f, with a 10% loss in forest fraction contributing to a 159 basin-scale warming of 0.03 ± 0.02 °C (P = 0.058). Further regression analysis was performed 160 161 for each model, revealing that the sign and magnitude of deforestation impacts on surface air temperature diverge considerably from model to model (-0.19 °C to 0.15 °C in response to 10% 162 163 deforestation, Supplementary Table 2). Specifically, the CanESM2 and UKESM1 show decreases in surface air temperature from deforestation in contrast to the other models that show 164 a warming trend (Supplementary Table 2). Some of this variation may be linked to cooling from 165 deforestation in the extratropics in the LUMIP simulations (ref. ²⁸). As a result, the mean 166 estimate of climate warming from deforestation reported here is likely a lower bound (that is, 167 CanESM2 and UKESM1 contribute negatively to the ensemble mean warming, Supplementary 168 169 Table 2) and has a high level of uncertainty associated with model-to-model variability (see Discussion for further information). Compared to the spatial pattern of the precipitation 170 response, the spatial patterns for the warming response to CO₂ physiology and deforestation are 171

diffuse and broadly similar, with the strongest response in the central part of the basin(Supplementary Fig. 3c, d).

The climate responses to CO₂ physiology and deforestation are not directly comparable in 174 175 Figs. 1 and 2, with the slopes having different units. However, we can compare relative impacts of the two drivers by specifying a fixed increment of atmospheric CO₂ and then identifying the 176 equivalent level of deforestation necessary to generate the same magnitude of climate change. 177 For precipitation, a 100 ppm CO₂ increase is equivalent to a 9% increase in deforestation in 178 terms of generating an equivalent amount of climate change for the set of CMIP6 models 179 analyzed here. Similarly, for relative humidity a 100 ppm CO₂ increase is equivalent to an 18% 180 increase in deforestation, and for temperature, a 100 ppm CO₂ increase is equivalent to a 43% 181 182 increase in deforestation.

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184 Contributions of CO₂ physiology and deforestation in SSPs

The analysis shown in Figure 1 provides evidence that the climate response to atmospheric 185 CO₂ concentration or deforestation is mostly linear in CMIP6 models for the domain of the 186 Amazon basin. As a next step, we used these linear relationships to separately isolate climate 187 change arising from these two drivers in widely used SSP scenarios¹³ by the end of the 21st 188 century. We estimated their contributions as the product of the multi-model average climate 189 190 response from Fig. 1 and the changes in future atmospheric CO₂ concentration or deforestation fraction from each SSP simulation (Fig. 3, Methods). Contributions from the CO₂ physiology 191 and deforestation have not been systematically identified for ScenarioMIP SSP simulations that 192 integrate the forcing from many different climate change drivers. 193

194 SSP scenarios have different pathways of future atmospheric CO₂ concentration and land use, depending on different assumptions about the strength of international cooperation, 195 technology, and economic development¹⁴. SSP1-2.6 has been described as the most sustainable 196 197 future with global temperature stabilizing below 2°C of warming by 2081-2100 (ref. 44). In this scenario, atmospheric CO₂ increases slowly, reaching a maximum of 474 ppm in 2063, and 198 then declining to a mean level of 456 ppm by 2081-2100. By contrast, atmospheric CO₂ 199 200 concentrations under the other three scenarios keep rising throughout the 21st century, reaching 597 ppm for SSP2-4.5, 792 ppm for SSP 3-7.0, and 1005 ppm for SSP5-8.5. The CO₂ 201 increments for these SSPs, relative to the background level in 1850 for the pre-industrial control, 202 203 are summarized in Fig. 3.

204 Although SSP5-8.5 has the highest atmospheric CO₂ increase, its assumptions regarding global energy development are not closely coupled to land use change, and therefore the 205 206 deforestation fraction in the Amazon basin remains nearly constant at 6.4% from 2021-2040 through 2081-2100. This projection is similar to the 6.1% deforestation fraction for SSP1-2.6. 207 For SSP2-4.5, Amazonian deforestation first increases to 8.3% during 2041-2060 and then 208 decreases to 5.2% during 2081-2100 as a consequence of forest recovery (Fig. 3b). The greatest 209 Amazonian forest cover loss occurs under SSP3-7.0 where deforestation increases to 12.4% by 210 2081-2100 (Fig. 3c). 211

Precipitation decreases by 4.8% (-0.26 mm d⁻¹) for SSP1-2.6 by 2081-2020 relative to the pre-industrial mean level in 1850 (5.5 mm d⁻¹). For this scenario, we find that the sum of contributions from CO₂ physiology and deforestation account for 46% (-0.12 mm d⁻¹) of future precipitation decline over the Amazon basin (Fig. 4a). Similarly, of the 13.2% decline (-0.72 216 mm d⁻¹) in Amazonia precipitation occurring by 2100 for SSP3-7.0, 44% of this decrease (-0.32) mm d⁻¹) can be attributed to the combined effect of CO₂ physiology and deforestation. Across 217 all the different future scenarios and time intervals shown in Fig. 4, the combined contributions 218 219 of CO₂ physiology and deforestation to Amazonian precipitation change vary between 34% and 56% (Fig. 4). For surface RH, a key driver of fire risk^{45,46}, the impact of CO₂ physiology and 220 deforestation is even greater in magnitude, accounting for 48% of the RH decline for SSP3-7.0 221 and 52% for SSP5-8.5 (Supplementary Fig. 4). These findings highlight the importance of 222 decreases in surface evapotranspiration due to both CO₂ physiology and deforestation 223 (Supplementary Fig. 5a, b) as key model drivers influencing the future hydroclimate of the 224 225 Amazon basin (Fig. 5).

In contrast, for surface air temperature, the contribution from the two drivers to warming is relatively small, primarily because of the stronger regional and global temperature response to radiative forcing from greenhouse gases. For example, for SSP3-7.0 about 11% of future Amazonian warming can be attributed to forcing from CO_2 physiology and deforestation by the end of the century (Fig. 5, Supplementary Fig. 6).

Solely considering contributions from the response of physiology to rising CO₂, precipitation declines ranged between 33% for SSP1-2.6 to 46% for SSP5-8.5 (Fig. 4a, d). Deforestation contributions to precipitation declines varied between 4% for SSP5-8.5 to 13% for SSP1-2.6. CO₂ physiology also had a much larger impact than deforestation for relative humidity and temperature changes within the different SSP simulations.

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237 Discussion

238 CO₂ physiology and deforestation are found to account for over 40% of the declines in both precipitation and surface relative humidity in the Amazon basin by the end of the 21st century 239 (Fig. 4, Supplementary Fig. 4). These results indicate that a considerable amount of future 240 Amazonian precipitation and meteorological drought⁷⁻¹² can be attributed to drivers other than 241 the radiative effects of greenhouse gases and aerosols. The important role of climate forcing 242 from the land surface could enable a relatively fast (and positive) hydroclimate response in the 243 244 Amazon basin if climate policies are enacted that allow for reforestation or a decline in atmospheric CO₂ levels. This contrasts with the considerably slower (multi-decadal) response 245 time of climate to radiative forcing from greenhouse gases as a consequence of long-term 246 adjustments in ocean heating⁴⁷. The estimated contributions of deforestation to future 247 248 precipitation at the basin scale vary between 4% and 13% across the different SSPs. These estimates also serve as a range for the potential co-benefits in hydroclimate that could be 249 250 achieved by preventing further deforestation, complementing carbon and ecological co-benefits reported in previous work⁴⁸. 251

As a consequence of land-atmosphere interactions, past work has identified a loss of 40% of forest within the Amazon basin as a "tipping point", beyond which hydroclimate changes would threaten the viability of remaining forests³¹. Our analysis also points to the negative consequences of deforestation for precipitation, but additionally suggests that at least for widely analyzed SSPs, threats to the future hydroclimate of the Amazon basin are even larger from the radiative effects of greenhouse gases and aerosols and from direct ecosystem responses to rising levels of atmospheric CO₂. 259 The significant contributions of CO₂ physiology to future Amazonian precipitation change in CMIP6 SSP simulations highlight the importance of improving our knowledge on key 260 processes of vegetation effects on precipitation and meteorological drought within the Amazon 261 262 basin⁴⁹. We have shown in this study the model evidence of rising CO₂ impacts on evapotranspiration, albedo, and leaf area index (Supplementary Fig. 5a, c, e). More 263 observational and model explorations are needed to understand the resulting changes in 264 265 boundary layer, deep convection, and regional circulation in order to reduce model uncertainties. While CMIP models provided a coherent and robust response to CO₂ forcing associated with 266 plant physiology, the magnitude of this response remains highly uncertain mainly because there 267 268 are relatively few ecosystem-level observations from tropical forests available for model testing. 269 This highlights the importance of new, sustained stomatal conductance and evapotranspiration measurements at different CO₂ levels, such as those planned as a part of the Amazon FACE 270 experiment⁵⁰. Additionally, acclimation of stomatal conductance responses to long-term 271 increasing levels of atmospheric CO_2 remains a key unresolved issue in this respect⁵¹. 272

Other key process-based uncertainties include the representation of land-atmosphere 273 coupling and atmospheric convection that influence the precipitation recycling ratio in the 274 Amazon basin⁵², and the ability of the models to capture the influence of changing ocean 275 dynamics on future atmospheric circulation (and precipitation). For example, a recent study 276 277 reported there is a systematic bias in CMIP6 models in capturing the cooling signal over the eastern equatorial Pacific in the past four decades⁵³. Such a cooling pattern resembles a La-278 Niña-like condition that could increase the precipitation in the Amazon basin through changes 279 in local Walker circulation⁵⁴. Some of the model-to-model differences in the magnitude of the 280

281 SSP precipitation response (shown with the error bars in Fig. 4, Supplementary Table 3) can 282 likely be traced back to the ocean response to radiative forcing from greenhouse gases and 283 aerosols^{55,56}, which also needs further exploration in future work.

284 For deforestation, paths for reducing uncertainty in coupled model estimates of the Amazonian climate response include more extensive comparison of models with observations 285 and refinement of the LUMIP protocol for CMIP7. In this study, we report that the local 286 biophysical temperature effects range from -0.19 °C to 0.15°C in response to 10% deforestation 287 in the Amazon basin (Supplementary Table 2). Although the multi-model mean warming 288 response is consistent with past work⁴¹, variability in the magnitude of the response across the 289 different CMIP models is large and stems from at least three possible sources. First, there is a 290 291 difference in the level of calibration and validation efforts from each modelling group to improve the biophysical temperature effects of deforestation. For example, land component of 292 CESM2, the Community Land Model (CLM), has been improved through parameter 293 optimization⁵⁷ and benchmarking with satellite observations⁵⁸. Second, there are still a limited 294 number of observations in the Amazon basin to help with the model calibration. For instance, 295 a recent comparison of biogeochemical and biophysical climate effects of deforestation⁵⁹ 296 includes observational datasets from Bright et al. ⁶⁰ and Duveiller et al. ⁶¹, which are still limited 297 to a paucity of paired forested and non-forested eddy-covariance sites and relatively sparse 298 satellite data coverage due to frequently cloudy conditions. Third, the CMIP6 LUMIP 299 deforestation protocol is global in scope²⁸. In designing the future LUMIP protocol for CMIP7, 300 consideration of a tropical-only experiment with an increased number of ensemble members 301 may provide a stronger basis for robustly characterizing regional climate responses. Further 302

analysis of drought and fire metrics in LUMIP simulations, including soil moisture and burned
 area, is also needed to understand better the processes of regional-scale dynamic vegetation
 feedbacks to Amazonian hydroclimate from changes in forest cover.

306 By recognizing the relatively fast adjustment time and linear relationship between land surface forcing and Amazonian climate response, we developed a first attempt to separate CO₂ 307 physiology and deforestation contributions to climate change in CMIP6 SSP simulations. While 308 309 the assumption of linearity and independence of the two forcing agents simplified our analysis, it is important to recognize potential interactions and feedback between these two drivers and 310 target these interactions in future work. Further deforestation, for example, may weaken the 311 regional climate response to rising CO₂ as forests are replaced with pastures and grasslands that 312 313 have a smaller roughness and canopy fraction for transpiration. Across the SSPs, the deforestation fraction is generally small, as predicted in the SSPs by the end of the 21st century 314 315 and ranges from 5.2% in SSP-2-4.5 to 12.4% in SSP3-7.0. To estimate the potential magnitude of some of these interactions, we performed a back-of-the-envelope calculation. Specifically, 316 for the SSP3-7.0 scenario, we reduced the CO₂ physiological contribution by 12% to reflect the 317 318 concurrent loss of total forest cover. With this simple assumption, which is likely an upper bound due to the largest deforestation fraction of 12%, the precipitation decline attributed to 319 CO₂ physiology decreases from 35% to 31%. Some additional non-linearities are likely to be 320 321 introduced from interactions between the radiative effects of greenhouse gases and the land surface forcing mechanisms explored here. Supplementary Fig. 7, for example, shows that CO₂ 322 physiology effect on precipitation is largely independent of the deforestation effect but has a 323 weak relationship with precipitation response to CO₂ radiative effect. These illustrative 324

calculations and analysis suggest that interactions may slightly reduce our estimated magnitude of precipitation effects but are unlikely to change our study's main findings qualitatively. This also highlights the need to explore feedback between forcing agents in future work. One effective way to accomplish this in CMIP7 would be to add a CO₂ physiology simulation (for example, a BGC simulation) and a land use simulation to the DAMIP⁶² for historical and 1-2 SSPs to 2100.

331 In this study we provide an attribution analysis of Amazonian climate change in widely used SSP simulations by isolating contributions from the plant physiological response to rising 332 CO₂ and deforestation. We accomplish this by combining information from two different 333 idealized experiments from CMIP6. From the idealized (biogeochemically-coupled) CO₂ 334 335 experiment from C4MIP and the idealized deforestation experiment from LUMIP, we identify that the climate change response to feedbacks from changes in the land surface are rapid and 336 mostly linear across the basin and across the dynamic range of CO₂ concentration and land 337 cover change captured by the SSPs. The combined effects from the two drivers account for 338 more than 40% of future basin-wide precipitation and surface relative humidity declines, but 339 less than 11% of warming over the Amazon basin by the end of the 21st century. This implies a 340 substantial contribution from CO₂ physiology and deforestation to increasing risk of future 341 meteorological drought and wildfire. Our findings provide insight about the sources of 342 343 uncertainty of climate model projections and may help with identifying the full scope of climate benefits associated with forest conservation policies in the Amazon basin. 344

345 Methods

We isolated the climate change response in the Amazon basin to CO₂ physiology and 346 deforestation using output from two idealized CMIP6 experiments. From C4MIP⁴² we analyzed 347 348 the idealized 140-year simulations (1pctCO2-bgc) in which CO₂ concentrations increase by 1% per year, but the CO₂ increases are not radiatively active (that is, all models' radiation code uses 349 a constant atmospheric CO₂ concentration that was held constant at the pre-industrial level). 350 351 The 1pctCO2-bgc experiment from C4MIP allows for the isolation of the climate response resulting from plant physiological responses to rising CO₂. From LUMIP⁴³ we analyzed a 352 global idealized deforestation experiment (deforest-glob). The LUMIP deforest-glob simulation 353 has an 80-year duration with a total forest area of 20 million km² linearly removed from each 354 355 model's top 30% of forest grid cell across the globe during the first 50 years. This results in about a 0.9% per year decline in tree cover fraction across the Amazon basin as a whole (that 356 is, the deforestation was mostly spatially homogeneous in the simulations). Since there are only 357 deforestation effects in this experiment, changes in Amazonian climate can be attributed solely 358 to this driver. 359

In a second step, we identified the contribution of plant physiology responses to rising CO_2 and deforestation to Amazonian climate change within CMIP6 future scenario experiments (ScenarioMIP)¹³. We focused on CMIP6 simulations for 4 widely used shared socioeconomic pathways (SSPs)¹⁴. These SSP simulations have different radiative forcing levels by 2100. They are: SSP1-2.6, SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0, and SSP5-8.5. The number behind each future scenario (for example, 8.5 for SSP5-8.5) indicates the radiative forcing level (unit: W/m²) that occurs in the scenario by 2100. To quantify the relative change in Amazonian climate in the future, we also include the pre-industrial control (piControl) experiment of CMIP6 that uses fixed radiative
forcing identical to the level during the year of 1850. The year of 1850 is also the reference year
in our study.

370 Monthly air temperature (tas), precipitation (pr), surface relative humidity (hurs), and tree cover (treeFrac) during the historical and future periods from the above CMIP6 experiments 371 were downloaded from the archive of Earth System Grid Federation (ESGF). Before analysis, 372 all variables were remapped to a 1-degree grid using the bilinear interpolation method from 373 Climate Data Operator (CDO⁶³). Because not all CMIP6 modeling centers participated in all 374 four experiments as described above, we chose to use eight models that have the maximum 375 availability of these variables (Supplementary Table 1). They include BCC-CSM2-MR (Wu et 376 al. ⁶⁴), CanESM5 (Swart et al. ⁶⁵), CESM2 (Danabasoglu et al. ⁶⁶), CNRM-ESM2-1 (Seferian 377 et al. ⁶⁷), IPSL-CM6A-LR (Boucher et al. ⁶⁸), GISS-E2-1-G (Kelley et al. ⁶⁹), UKESM1-0-LL 378 (Sellar et al. ⁷⁰), and MPI-ESM1-2-LR (Mauritsen et al. ⁷¹). To obtain the most robust climate 379 response to CO₂ physiology and deforestation as possible, climate variables were averaged for 380 each model across ensemble members based on their availability in both the C4MIP and LUMIP 381 experiments (Supplementary Table 1). The ensemble mean approach helps improve the signal-382 to-noise ratio of the climate response either to CO₂ physiology or deforestation in the Amazon 383 basin considering the different influences from interannual variability from each model. Yet, it 384 385 also relies on the mechanism coherence and traceability across these models. For future SSP scenarios, atmospheric CO₂ concentrations during the 21st century were obtained from the input 386 datasets for Model Intercomparison Projects (input4MIPS) and their land use including the 387

fraction of forest in the Amazon basin was obtained from the Land Use Harmonization dataset
 version 2 (LUHv2f, ref. ⁷²).

To isolate the precipitation response to either plant physiological response to increasing CO₂ or deforestation within the eight CMIP6 models, the relative precipitation changes in percent were computed relative to the pre-industrial average for each model in each experiment before determining the average across models. We used simple linear regression equations to describe the response of precipitation, surface relative humidity, and surface air temperature to CO_2 concentration and forest cover percentage.

396 Y =

$$Y = \alpha + \beta \times x$$

397 where y indicates the climate variables such as precipitation, surface relative humidity, or 398 surface air temperature, x indicates either CO₂ concentration change or deforestation fraction over the Amazon basin. B and α are the slope and y-intercept as estimated from the above 399 400 equation, respectively. As shown in Fig. 1, the estimated β at the basin scale was used as the climate sensitivity to either CO₂ concentrations in C4MIP 1pctCO2-bgc or deforestation 401 fraction in LUMIP deforest-glob. The y-axis intercept value in Fig. 1 may not be identical to 402 100% for precipitation and to 0 for surface air temperature, probably from the influence of the 403 internal variability. We chose not to force the regressions through a specified y-axis intercept to 404 avoid overestimating contributions from CO₂ physiology and deforestation in our attribution 405 406 analysis. To assess the spatial pattern of the Amazonian climate response, we also performed the linear regression analysis for each model pixel. 407

408 To estimate the contribution of plant physiological response to CO_2 to future climate 409 change in the Amazon basin, we first computed the changes in the atmospheric CO_2

410 concentration from the pre-industrial era (that is, 1850) to different future periods (that is, 2021-2040, 2041-2060, 2061-2080, and 2081-2100). We then multiplied this CO₂ change with the 411 slope derived from the linear regression describing the response of each climate variable to 412 413 atmospheric CO₂ concentration from the C4MIP 1pctCO2-bgc simulations (left column in Fig. 1). In the 1pctCO2-bgc simulations, land cover was held constant throughout the simulations at 414 1850 levels. Similarly, the deforestation contributions were computed as the product of the 415 416 basin-scale average deforestation fraction from each of the future SSPs scenarios relative to 1850 forest cover, and the slope derived from the linear regression describing the response of 417 each climate variable to Amazonian deforestation fraction from the LUMIP deforest-glob 418 simulations (right column in Fig. 1). In the LUMIP simulation atmospheric CO₂ concentration 419 was held constant at 1850 levels⁴³. The regression approach was applied for the purpose of 420 421 deriving the sensitivity of the climate response to CO₂ concentration or deforestation fraction, 422 respectively, using the different C4MIP and LUMIP simulations. The contribution by either CO₂ physiology or deforestation was estimated for the whole Amazon basin as shown in Fig. 4, 423 Supplementary Figs. 4 and 6. 424

We assumed that the climate response to CO₂ physiological forcing and deforestation could be isolated from the CMIP6 simulations because climate responses to land surface forcing, including adjustments in boundary layer height and convection from changes in surface evapotranspiration, are known to be relatively fast, occurring over timescales of days to weeks³⁵.

430 Data availability

431	All CMIP6 simulations used in this study are publicly available at https://esgf-
432	node.llnl.gov/projects/cmip6/. Atmospheric CO ₂ concentrations for future SSP scenarios were
433	downloaded from https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/projects/input4mips/. Future land use datasets
434	LUHv2f were downloaded from https://luh.umd.edu/data.shtml.
435	
436	Code availability
437	All computer codes used in this study are available via GitHub at
438	https://github.com/YueLi92/Contributions_CO2Phys_Def_SSP.
439	
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448	
449	Author Contributions Statement
450	Y.L. and J.T.R. designed the research; Y.L. performed data analysis and figure illustrations;
451	Y.L. and J.T.R. drafted the manuscript, with discussions and contributions from J.C.A.B.,

P.M.B., F.M.H., D.M.L., D.C.M., A.L.S.S., M.R.U.; All authors reviewed and revised the
manuscript.

454

455 **Competing Interests Statement**

- 456 The authors declare no competing interests.
- 457

458 Figure Captions

459



Figure 1. Transient response of annual mean precipitation, surface relative humidity, and
 air temperature to CO₂ physiology and deforestation in the Amazon basin. The
 precipitation changes were computed in percentage from each model, and then averaged across

eight CMIP6 models. Each data point represents the cross-model regional average that was computed for each year from their 140-year and 50-year simulations from the C4MIP and LUMIP experiments, respectively (see Methods). Climate changes are solely due to CO_2 physiology (no radiative effects) in the left column and deforestation in the right column. The exact *P* values for regression slope by t-test are 4.5×10^{-28} for (**a**), 2.1×10^{-4} for (**b**), 8.8×10^{-73} for (**c**), 6.0×10^{-6} for (**d**), 9.4×10^{-51} for (**e**), and 0.058 for (**f**).

470



Figure 2. Spatial distribution of the mean annual precipitation response to forcing from CO₂ physiology and deforestation. Precipitation response to (a) 100 ppm CO₂ increase, (b) 10% loss in forest fraction. The precipitation changes were computed in percent from each model, and then averaged across CMIP6 models. Linear regressions were performed for the precipitation at each pixel against (a) atmospheric CO₂ concentrations and (b) basin-scale average in forest cover loss from their 140-year and 50-year simulations of the C4MIP and LUMIP experiments, respectively (see Methods). Dotted area indicates the model agreement,

479 with at least six out of eight models agreeing on the sign of the precipitation response.

480



481

Figure 3. Changes in CO₂ concentrations and deforestation fraction of the Amazon basin in Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs). Both CO₂ increase (light brown) and loss in forest fraction of the Amazon basin (red brown) were computed as the difference between future projections and the preindustrial levels for (a) SSP1-2.6, (b) SSP2-4.5, (c) SSP3-7.0, and (d) SSP5-8.5. Future projections were derived from CMIP6 ScenarioMIP for different future shared socio-economic pathways (SSPs).



Figure. 4 Climate contributions of CO₂ physiology and deforestation to future changes in 490 491 precipitation over the Amazon basin. Future changes in Amazonian precipitation (%) due to CO₂ physiological effects (light brown) and deforestation (red brown) were computed from the 492 precipitation response from these two drivers (see Methods). Light grey indicates the future 493 Amazonian precipitation changes under the four Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs) 494 during different periods. They are: (a) SSP1-2.6, (b) SSP2-4.5, (c) SSP3-7.0, and (d) SSP5-8.5. 495 Red numbers indicate the percentage of total precipitation changes for each time period and 496 SSP attributed to CO₂ physiology and deforestation. Each error bar indicates 1 standard 497 deviation (SD) being added to the mean values across the CMIP6 models with available output 498 $(n = 8 \text{ for } CO_2 \text{ physiology and } SSP \text{ simulation}, n = 6 \text{ for deforestation})$. Data point for each 499 model has been shown along with the bar as indicated by plus sign. Relative precipitation 500

- 501 changes in percent can be converted to absolute changes in mm d⁻¹ by being multiplied by a
- 502 multi-model mean annual precipitation of 5.5 mm d^{-1} for the pre-industrial period.



504

Figure 5. Schematic diagram of the mechanisms by which CO₂ physiology and 505 deforestation influence climate change in the Amazon basin. Taking the SSP3-7.0 as an 506 example, the contributions of CO₂ physiology and deforestation to Amazonian climate change 507 508 by the end of the 21st century (2081-2100) were quantified using CMIP6 idealized experiments as described in the methods. More information about evapotranspiration, albedo, and leaf area 509 index model responses, which play a key role in regulating the integrated climate response, can 510 511 be found in Supplementary Fig. 5. Additional analysis of the underlying mechanisms can be found in previous work by Swann et al. ²⁴, Zhou et al. ²⁷, and Boysen et al. ²⁸. 512

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