

1 **Title: Underestimating global land greening: future vegetation changes and its impacts on**  
2 **terrestrial water loss**

3

4 **Authors:** Yuanfang Chai <sup>1</sup>, Chiyuan Miao<sup>1,7,\*</sup>, Louise Slater <sup>2</sup>, Philippe Ciais<sup>3</sup>, Wouter R. Berghuijs <sup>4</sup>,  
5 Tiexi Chen <sup>5</sup>, Chris Huntingford <sup>6</sup>

6

7 <sup>1</sup> State Key Laboratory of Earth Surface Processes and Resource Ecology, Faculty of Geographical  
8 Science, Beijing Normal University, Beijing 100875, China.

9 <sup>2</sup> School of Geography and the Environment, University of Oxford, Oxford OX1 3QY, United  
10 Kingdom.

11 <sup>3</sup> Laboratoire des Sciences du Climat et de l'Environnement, LSCE/IPSL, CEA-CNRS-UVSQ,  
12 Université Paris Saclay, 91191 Gif-sur-Yvette, France.

13 <sup>4</sup> Department of Earth Sciences, Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam, Amsterdam 1081 HV, Netherlands.

14 <sup>5</sup> School of Geographical Sciences, Nanjing University of Information Science and Technology,  
15 Nanjing 210044, China.

16 <sup>6</sup> Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Wallingford, Oxfordshire OX10 8BB, United Kingdom.

17 <sup>7</sup>**Lead contact**

18 **\*Correspondence:** Chiyuan Miao (miaocy@bnu.edu.cn).

19

20

21

22

23 **SUMMARY:** The growing demand for water presents a significant sustainability challenge.  
24 Understanding vegetation changes is crucial, as plants significantly influence water exchange  
25 through transpiration. However, global climate models show considerable uncertainty in predicting  
26 future vegetation trends ranging from  $-0.007$  to  $0.083 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ decade}^{-1}$ , impacting water management.  
27 Here, we apply an emergent constraint method to reduce uncertainty in global vegetation projections  
28 for the period 2015–2100 from CMIP6, focusing on the Leaf Area Index (LAI). Our approach  
29 reduces uncertainty in global LAI projections by 37.7–53.1%. We find that this uncertainty is  
30 primarily due to incomplete representations of the  $\text{CO}_2$  fertilization effect. Our results also show that  
31 models underestimate future LAI increases by 28.2–32.1%, leading to underestimated water loss  
32 from increased transpiration. These findings improve predictions of future vegetation and  
33 transpiration, providing valuable insights for policymakers to adjust water management strategies  
34 and better prepare for water-related challenges.

35

36 **KEYWORDS:** Emergent constraint; Vegetation dynamics; Transpiration; Uncertainty reduction;  
37  $\text{CO}_2$  fertilization effect;

38

## 39 **INTRODUCTION**

40 Vegetation plays a central role in regulating key Earth system processes, including carbon dynamics,  
41 water cycling, and energy exchanges between the biosphere and atmosphere<sup>1-6</sup>. Recent increases in  
42 global vegetation cover, often referred to as “greening”, have significant implications for terrestrial  
43 water availability. As plants absorb water from the soil and release it through transpiration, they  
44 influence regional and global water cycles. About 60–65% of terrestrial precipitation is converted

45 into evapotranspiration<sup>7</sup>, with transpiration accounting for 65% of this flux<sup>8</sup>. Given the vital role of  
46 vegetation in these processes, the Leaf Area Index (LAI)—which measures the one-sided green leaf  
47 area per unit ground area—becomes a key parameter in understanding water and energy dynamics<sup>9-10</sup>.  
48 Accurate estimation of LAI is therefore critical for predicting changes in water availability and  
49 informing water management strategies in a changing climate.

50

51 Current Earth System Models (ESMs) face considerable challenges in reliably predicting future LAI  
52 changes<sup>11</sup>. Such uncertainty is due to simplified formulations or incorrect parameterizations of  
53 underlying biogeochemical processes and, arguably, the coarse spatial resolution of simulated LAI<sup>12</sup>.  
54 It has already been reported that most of the earlier CMIP5 models overestimated background  
55 global-averaged LAI<sup>13</sup>. Although the CMIP6 simulations have improved global area-averaged LAI  
56 time series in comparison to contemporary measurements and when compared with CMIP5  
57 projections<sup>3</sup>, they still display significant uncertainties. Critically, such uncertainties exist not only  
58 in model projections of mean values but also in estimated trends in LAI. The dynamics of LAI have  
59 a critical influence on vegetation growth<sup>14-15</sup>, the terrestrial carbon cycle<sup>16-18</sup>, and land-atmosphere  
60 feedbacks<sup>19-21</sup>. Therefore, the large discrepancies in global LAI projections may severely limit our  
61 understanding of future global water, carbon, and energy cycles.

62

63 The emergent constraint method is a relatively new technique to reduce the spread among ESM  
64 projections (see background and method descriptions in Note S1) and has recently gained much  
65 attention. The method exploits heuristic, and ideally physically explainable, inter-ESM empirical  
66 relationships<sup>22-25</sup> between some feature of current climate ‘X’ and an aspect of future climate ‘Y’.

67 The emergent constraint approach has reduced the uncertainty of model spread in the projections of a  
68 broad range of climate attributes <sup>26-28</sup>.

69

70 Here we introduce an emergent relationship to constrain the predicted future global LAI trends for  
71 the CMIP6 ensemble under four main future emission scenarios: SSP126, SSP245, SSP370 and  
72 SSP585 (Table S1). To verify the emergent constraint, the emergent relationship is tested  
73 out-of-sample by using models from the earlier CMIP5 ensemble (for the RCP45 and RCP85  
74 emission scenarios, Table S2) and also using offline land surface models from the TRENDY-v9  
75 ensemble (ensembles S1, S2 and S3, Table S3) <sup>29</sup>, in this instance, comparing estimates for two  
76 different historical periods. Given the strong connection between LAI and transpiration, we then  
77 utilize the global LAI trends to adjust the predictions of transpiration. Our findings indicate that  
78 incorporating this emergent relationship greatly reduces uncertainty in future LAI projections,  
79 enhancing the accuracy of related transpiration estimates. These results have important implications  
80 for understanding water availability and ecosystem responses to climate change, providing valuable  
81 insights for policymakers in developing effective climate adaptation strategies.

82

## 83 **RESULTS**

### 84 **Emergent constraint on future vegetation greening trend**

85 The CMIP6 ensemble has a substantial inter-model spread in the projected long-term trend in  
86 magnitude of LAI ranging from  $-0.007$  to  $0.083 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ decade}^{-1}$  (Note S2): SSP126 ( $0.0068 \pm$   
87  $0.0083 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ decade}^{-1}$ ), SSP245 ( $0.0153 \pm 0.0148 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ decade}^{-1}$ ), SSP370 ( $0.0207 \pm 0.0215 \text{ m}^2$   
88  $\text{m}^{-2} \text{ decade}^{-1}$ ) and SSP585 ( $0.0296 \pm 0.0268 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ decade}^{-1}$ ). To reduce the uncertainty, we fit a

89 linear regression to the set of points that are inter-model variations in the estimates of historical  
90 (1982–2014) and future (2015–2100) global greening trends (Figure 1A) and found a statistically  
91 significant empirical relationship between them (Figure 1A). This relationship, which provides an  
92 emergent constraint (See Methods), holds under all four emission scenarios of SSP126, SSP245,  
93 SSP370 and SSP585 (Figure 1A and Figure S3,  $0.85 \leq r \leq 0.96$  across the four SSPs,  $p$  value  $< 0.001$ ).  
94 This type of emergent constraint (i.e., based on projecting a variable onto itself) is particularly robust,  
95 as it relies on the same physical mechanisms for both the predictor and the predictand, leading to a  
96 very high correlation coefficient for the emergent relationships (Note S3). Given this statistically  
97 significant relationship across the CMIP6 models, we can impose a constraint on future global  
98 greening by using the CMIP6-based relationship and an observational estimate of global greening  
99 trends for the recent historical period (from three observational datasets: Global Mapping LAI  
100 (GLOBMAP v3)<sup>30</sup>, Global Land Surface Satellite LAI (GLASS)<sup>31</sup> and Global Inventory Modeling  
101 and Mapping Studies LAI4g (GIMMS LAI4g)<sup>32</sup>). The hierarchical emergent constraint procedure  
102 proposed by Bowman et al.<sup>33</sup>, which provides a robust approach for constraining future Earth system  
103 projections (See Method), is applied to narrow the inter-model spread in expected future LAI trends.  
104 This method enables us to account for the observational uncertainty across the three LAI datasets.

105

106 After applying the constraint, we found that the raw CMIP6 ensemble mean underestimates the  
107 expected future global greening trends by 32.1%, 29.8%, 30.9% and 28.2% for the emission  
108 scenarios SSP126 to SSP585, respectively (Figure 1B and Figure S3). Hence, we estimate that the  
109 future global mean LAI trends are likely to reach higher values of  $0.010 \pm 0.005 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ decade}^{-1}$   
110 (SSP126, mean  $\pm$  one standard deviation),  $0.022 \pm 0.007 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ decade}^{-1}$  (SSP245),  $0.030 \pm 0.010 \text{ m}^2$

111  $\text{m}^{-2} \text{decade}^{-1}$  (SSP370) and  $0.041 \pm 0.013 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{decade}^{-1}$  (SSP585). In addition to constraining mean  
112 trends, these values also indicate that the emergent constraint narrows the span of the PDFs of the  
113 constrained LAI. Such refinement lowers the uncertainty ranges of the future global greening trends  
114 by 37.7–53.1% (Figure 1B and Figure S3). The aforementioned emergent constraints are minimally  
115 affected by land cover changes (LCCs, Note S4).

116

117 Winkler et al.<sup>34</sup> demonstrated that analysing different future time periods or different durations may  
118 affect any emergent relationship. To assess emergent relationship sensitivity and to test the effects of  
119 future time period length, we rebuilt emergent relationships between the historical LAI trend during  
120 1982–2014 and the future LAI trend during periods of different duration. Specifically, we considered  
121 future periods ranging from 30 years (2015–2044) to 86 years (2015–2100). We found that the  
122 constrained LAI trends consistently reveal an underestimation of future global greening trends by the  
123 CMIP6 models, irrespective of the duration of the future period considered (Figure S6). The  
124 emergent relationships are significant for each time period length ( $r \geq 0.89$ , Figure S7). In addition,  
125 we employed a 30-year moving window analysis. Under the emission scenarios of SSP245, SSP370,  
126 and SSP585, the correlation coefficients of the emergent relationships remain significant across  
127 different moving time windows ( $p \text{ value} < 0.01$ , Figure S8). The CMIP6 models consistently  
128 underestimated the future global mean LAI trend across all moving time windows, and the  
129 application of the emergent constraints substantially reduced uncertainty in each case. In contrast,  
130 under the SSP126 scenario, the correlation coefficients of the emergent relationships became  
131 non-significant after 2050 (Figure S8). This change occurs because, under the sustainable “green”  
132 pathway of SSP126, atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  trends peak after 2050 and subsequently decline.  $\text{CO}_2$  acts as a

133 key driver for LAI growth, and the shift in CO<sub>2</sub> dynamics after 2050 greatly alters this fertilization  
134 effect, disrupting the physical mechanisms behind the emergent relationships. Comparing the results  
135 over the full period of 2015–2100 with those from the shorter period of 2015–2050, we were pleased  
136 to find that there is an improvement in the emergent relationships when using the shorter period of  
137 2015–2050, with correlation coefficients increasing from 0.85 to 0.95 (Figure S9). Applying the  
138 emergent constraint once again confirms that future LAI trends are indeed underestimated by the  
139 CMIP6 models.

140

#### 141 **Confirming the robustness of the emergent constraints**

142 Hall et al.<sup>35</sup> and Williamson et al.<sup>36</sup> suggest using out-of-sample testing to assess the robustness of  
143 mechanisms underpinning an emergent constraint. We thus tested the same emergent constraint but  
144 now for the earlier CMIP5 model ensemble. For the CMIP5-based calculations, we again found a  
145 significant emergent relationship between the historical (1982–2005) and the future (2015–2100  
146 under RCP45 and RCP85) global LAI trends (Figure 1C and Figure S10,  $0.69 \leq r \leq 0.83$ ,  $p$   
147 value < 0.001). Importantly, as in the case of the CMIP6 models, these emergent constraints illustrate  
148 that the CMIP5 models also underestimated the future increasing rates of global LAI (by 14.8–17.2%,  
149 depending on the RCPs, Figure 1D and Figure S10). The uncertainties of the future LAI trends are  
150 also reduced by 14.4–21.6% in comparison with the original CMIP5 predictions. The constrained  
151 results, therefore, remain broadly invariant between the CMIP5 (Figure 1D) and CMIP6 (Figure 1B)  
152 ensembles, providing further support for the robustness of these results.

153

154 Most CMIP6 models have been developed based, to some extent, on their previous version in the

155 CMIP5 ensemble, suggesting the two generations of ESMs are not entirely independent. Thus, we  
156 further tested the emergent constraints by using an arguably more independent model ensemble,  
157 TRENDY-v9. Such independence is due to this ensemble consisting of 15 terrestrial carbon cycle  
158 models, two thirds of which are not used as the land component of CMIP6 ESMs. We found a nearly  
159 linear emergent relationship between the “*historical*” (1982–2000) and the “*pseudo future*” (2001–  
160 2019) global greening trends across the TRENDY-v9 models under all three numerical experiments  
161 ( $0.97 \leq r \leq 0.98$ , Figure S11 and Note S5), again supporting the robustness of the emergent constraints.  
162 After constraining by using observations during 1982–2000, the newly estimated global greening  
163 trends under all three controlled experiments are much closer to the real rate of increase from the  
164 observations during 2001–2019 (Figure S11), with the discrepancy between the simulations and the  
165 observations reduced by 32.8–77.2%.

166

### 167 **Applications of emergent constraints at regional scale**

168 We explored our LAI-based emergent constraints for six continents and three main tropical regions,  
169 henceforth referred to as the American rainforest, African rainforest and Asian-Australian rainforest.  
170 Statistically significant emergent relationships between the past and the future greening trends under  
171 the four emission scenarios from SSP126 to SSP585 were successfully established for all nine  
172 sub-regions ( $0.55 \leq r \leq 0.98$  across the nine sub-regions under four SSPs,  $p$  value  $< 0.05$ , Figure 2 and  
173 Figures S17–19). When combined with observational data, the constrained results indicate that the  
174 raw CMIP6 predictions underestimate future land greening trends across all six continents and in the  
175 three rainforest regions (Figure 2 and Figures S17–19). This highlights the need for more accurate  
176 assessments of regional greening trends. This finding underscores the importance of refining climate

177 projections to better inform regional ecosystem management and adaptation strategies. The new  
178 regional constrained estimates of future LAI trends for the SSP585 scenario are  $0.036 \pm 0.021 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2}$   
179  $\text{decade}^{-1}$  (mean  $\pm$  one standard deviation) for North America,  $0.042 \pm 0.021 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ decade}^{-1}$  for  
180 Europe,  $0.041 \pm 0.013 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ decade}^{-1}$  for Asia,  $0.032 \pm 0.025 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ decade}^{-1}$  for Africa,  $0.031 \pm$   
181  $0.020 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ decade}^{-1}$  for South America,  $0.022 \pm 0.017 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ decade}^{-1}$  for Australia,  $0.035 \pm 0.028$   
182  $\text{m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ decade}^{-1}$  for the American rainforest,  $0.063 \pm 0.047 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ decade}^{-1}$  for the African rainforest  
183 and  $0.057 \pm 0.030 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ decade}^{-1}$  for the Asian-Australian rainforest (Table S4). As with the global  
184 calculations, for all regional locations these emergent relationships also markedly reduce the  
185 inter-model spread in greening trends by 7.4–65.8% (i.e., lower standard deviations), depending on  
186 the SSPs and sub-regions.

187

### 188 **Hydrological implications of global greening trends**

189 The relationship between LAI and transpiration is closely intertwined. A higher LAI typically  
190 indicates that plants can capture more light energy, enhancing photosynthetic efficiency, promoting  
191 growth, and increasing transpiration capacity<sup>37-39</sup>. As LAI increases, there is often a corresponding  
192 rise in the number of stomata and stomatal conductance, facilitating the evaporation of water from  
193 the leaf interior into the atmosphere<sup>40-41</sup>. Additionally, a higher LAI demands more water from plants,  
194 which can lead to water stress during drought conditions, impacting their physiological functions<sup>42</sup>.  
195 Furthermore, LAI influences the surrounding microclimate by enhancing shading effects, which can  
196 lower soil temperatures and transpiration rates<sup>43-45</sup>. Consequently, uncertainties in LAI can  
197 propagate to uncertainties in transpiration by affecting stomatal conductance, water demand,  
198 photosynthetic efficiency, microclimate conditions, and ecosystem responses<sup>46</sup>. The interactions

199 among these factors may result in notable discrepancies in transpiration projections across different  
200 ESMs. Hence, we sought to determine the implications of the underestimated global greening trends  
201 for future global transpiration. If there is sufficient water availability in soils to meet the evaporative  
202 demand of vegetation, transpiration can be expected to be controlled by the extent of vegetation leaf  
203 area, thereby depending directly on LAI. We find substantial evidence of this suggestion when  
204 studying the relationships between the historical global mean LAI trend and the future global mean  
205 transpiration trend, as projected by CMIP6 models. However, this finding, as derived at the global  
206 scale across the CMIP6 models, is only valid under the low and middle emission scenarios of  
207 SSP126 ( $r=0.77$ ,  $p$  value $<0.01$ , Figure 3A) and SSP245 ( $r=0.76$ ,  $p$  value $<0.01$ , Figure 3B)<sup>47</sup>.

208

209 The significant emergent relationships under the SSP126 and SSP245 scenarios (Figure 3) explain  
210 more than half of the variance of the global mean transpiration trends projections across the CMIP6  
211 models. The remaining variance might be explained by stomatal behavior, canopy light use,  
212 interception loss, and root water uptake processes that are not considered in the regression. By  
213 combining the regression relationship with the observations, we estimate that the future trend of  
214 global monthly transpiration increase during 2015–2100 is  $0.0138 \pm 0.0077$  mm month<sup>-1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup>  
215 (SSP126, Figure 3A) or  $0.0136 \pm 0.0099$  mm month<sup>-1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> (SSP245, Figure 3B). Similar to LAI  
216 trends, these trends in transpiration are higher than when considering the ESM simulations without  
217 applying any constraint. Specifically, we estimate that future transpiration increases have been  
218 underestimated by 24.6% and 31.1%, respectively, relative to the original CMIP6 predictions of  
219  $0.0104 \pm 0.0111$  mm month<sup>-1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> (SSP126) and  $0.0094 \pm 0.0141$  mm month<sup>-1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> (SSP245).  
220 This underestimation suggests that future increases in terrestrial water availability may be

221 overestimated by 29.9% to 48.2%, highlighting the urgent need for a comprehensive assessment of  
222 future climate change impacts on water resource management to prevent unsustainable water use.  
223 Furthermore, the significant underestimation of the transpiration processes by the ESMs also implies  
224 largely underestimated values of the future transpiration to evapotranspiration ratio, which have also  
225 been identified in the CMIP5 models for the period of 1980–2005 by Lian et al.<sup>46</sup>. Besides  
226 constraining the mean future transpiration trend, the emergent constraint approach also lowers the  
227 standard deviations by 29.6–30.8% (Figure S20) compared to the original CMIP6 outputs. The  
228 substantially higher future rates of LAI-driven transpiration may indicate a raised risk of water  
229 shortage in the future, due to related lower soil moisture content.

230

## 231 **DISCUSSION**

### 232 **Verifying mechanisms underpinning emergent constraints**

233 Accurate prediction of LAI is essential for understanding transpiration processes, which are a vital  
234 component of the water cycle. Transpiration affects the availability of regional water resources by  
235 transferring water moisture from the soil to the atmosphere. An elevated LAI can lead to excessive  
236 extraction of soil moisture by plants to meet their transpiration needs, potentially threatening the  
237 sustainability of regional water resources. Therefore, improving the accuracy of LAI predictions is  
238 crucial, as it allows for more precise assessment and management of water resources, facilitating  
239 effective utilization in agriculture, forestry, and urban planning. However, existing ESMs exhibit  
240 significant uncertainty in forecasting changes in LAI. A major challenge stems from the unclear  
241 mechanisms contributing to the uncertainties in future LAI trends predicted by the models, resulting  
242 in a substantial knowledge gap. Understanding the mechanistic links that explain the emergent

243 relationship between model diagnostics predicting historical quantity X and their future estimates of  
244 quantity Y helps identify the underlying causes of uncertainty in LAI predictions.<sup>35</sup> Here we start by  
245 individually regressing the global mean LAI trend against the trend in (or the mean value of) global  
246 water availability, nitrogen in soils, air temperature and length of the growing season across the  
247 CMIP6 models. However, we find relatively weak linear correlations between these variables across  
248 models and under all SSPs, for both past and future periods ( $-0.4 \leq r \leq 0.50$ ,  $p \text{ value} > 0.01$ , Figure S21).  
249 This suggests that these driving factors have relatively little influence on the LAI trend spread at the  
250 global scale.

251

252 Increasing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration enhances plant photosynthetic carbon fixation rates (this  
253 is the CFE)<sup>48</sup>, and this has been found to explain approximately 70% of the observed global greening  
254 phenomenon, followed by nitrogen deposition (9%), climate change (8%) and land cover change  
255 (4%)<sup>49-50</sup>. Thus, it can be assumed that models with different CFE may predict different future LAI  
256 trends. To test this assumption, we estimated the sensitivity of LAI to climate variations by  
257 performing a multi-linear regression of annual mean LAI anomalies with CO<sub>2</sub>, air temperature and  
258 precipitation (Note S6). We used the regression coefficients to estimate the effects of the physically  
259 relevant driving factors on vegetation dynamics, which is an approach similar to previous studies<sup>51-52</sup>  
260 (Note S6). We found that the sensitivity of LAI to CO<sub>2</sub> has a nearly linear relationship with global  
261 mean LAI trends across the CMIP6 models during both the past (1982–2014,  $r=0.88$ , Figure S21)  
262 and future periods (2015–2100,  $0.82 \leq r \leq 0.91$  under the four SSPs). This indicates the dominant role  
263 of CFE in driving the large inter-model spread in LAI trends across ESMs. As an additional test, we  
264 also investigated model projections from the Coupled Climate Carbon Cycle Model Intercomparison

265 Project (C4MIP) (Figure S22). The C4MIP runs provide separate radiatively and biogeochemically  
266 coupled experiments, which enable us to separate and quantify the sensitivity of vegetation dynamics  
267 to changes in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration<sup>53</sup>. We found a series of significant relationships  
268 between future CFE and future global mean LAI trends across the C4MIP models ( $r=0.84$ , Figure  
269 S22). This indicates that the models with high CFE tend to predict a high future global mean LAI  
270 trend, while the models with low CFE tend to have a low global mean LAI trend. Therefore, our  
271 findings support the key role of CFE in driving LAI uncertainties, with a contributing of 71%.

272

### 273 **Drivers of uncertainty in transpiration projections**

274 In contrast to the strong correlations shown in Figure 3 under low emission scenarios, the  
275 correlations of the emergent relationships between historical global mean LAI trends and future  
276 global mean transpiration trends are weak for the higher emission scenarios of SSP370 and SSP585  
277 ( $r \leq 0.28$ , Figure S23). A possible reason for these last two relationships being statistically  
278 insignificant is that, although the vegetation leaf area is enhanced under the high emission scenarios  
279 of SSP370 ( $0.030 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ decade}^{-1}$ ) and SSP585 ( $0.041 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ decade}^{-1}$ ), compared to SSP126 ( $0.010$   
280  $\text{m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ decade}^{-1}$ ) and SSP245 ( $0.022 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ decade}^{-1}$ ), the spatial extent of terrestrial drying (reduced  
281 soil water content) is also enhanced by 30.2%. These high future soil water limitations occur over  
282 more than half of the Earth's land surface under the SSP370 and SSP585 scenarios<sup>54</sup>. Therefore,  
283 although high increases in LAI are projected under SSP370 and SSP585, the lower soil water  
284 availability offsets this increase and becomes a limitation to future transpiration. As such, LAI  
285 changes may therefore contribute less to the inter-model spread of future transpiration changes under  
286 the high emission scenarios (Figure S23). The uncertainty sensitivity analysis further demonstrates

287 that uncertainty in future LAI trends significantly contributes to uncertainty in future transpiration  
288 trends under the low and middle emission scenarios (Note S7). Conversely, under the high-emission  
289 scenarios (SSP370 and SSP585), as soil moisture declines, its influence on transpiration becomes  
290 more pronounced, with uncertainties in future surface soil moisture trends exerting a greater impact  
291 on future transpiration uncertainties (Note S7).

292

### 293 **Implications of underestimated vegetation on warming**

294 In addition to transpiration, the overall land surface water and energy balance is also highly sensitive  
295 to predicted LAI trends<sup>7,55-56</sup>. Recent studies have indicated that the global greening phenomenon has  
296 slowed down the increase of the global mean land surface air temperature by  $0.09 \pm 0.02$  °C since  
297 1982 (i.e., 12% of global warming)<sup>57</sup>. This slowdown is due to the cooling effects from the  
298 increased evapotranspiration<sup>56</sup>. Therefore, our discovered underestimate of future global vegetation  
299 suggests that greening may play a stronger role in cooling the land surface air temperature than  
300 hitherto expected. As a consequence, our work implies that future global warming trends might be  
301 overestimated by the ESMs when aggregated globally. Indeed, a recent study indicates that the  
302 CMIP6 models overestimate the future global mean air temperature increases in 2090 by 14–16%,  
303 relative to 1995–2014<sup>22</sup>, and we offer the possibility that this may be partially due to inaccuracies in  
304 simulating LAI. A counterargument to this is that stomata closure in response to higher CO<sub>2</sub> levels  
305 could limit transpiration and thus may offset some of the cooling due to higher LAI values<sup>58</sup>. This  
306 closure effect might be especially strong in temperate, boreal and tropical forests but less evident in  
307 grasslands (see discussion in Note S8).

308

309 In summary, our constraint provides a powerful benchmark to those responsible for enhancing  
310 process representation in the land part of ESMs and in particular including components that influence  
311 simulated LAI response to rising CO<sub>2</sub> levels. Such improvements may enable better simulations of  
312 carbon allocation between different land carbon pools as the climate changes, as well as improved  
313 depiction of terrestrial geochemical cycles that interact with the full global carbon cycle. Our second  
314 constraint reveals that the underestimation of the greening trends implies that there may also be an  
315 underestimation by the ESMs of increases in future water losses from the land to the atmosphere.  
316 Higher water losses may exacerbate any future shortages of water resources. Lastly, we noted that  
317 the predictive capability by any emergent constraint may diminish if key certain processes are not  
318 accounted for in any ESM. This concern becomes particularly significant if such processes become  
319 more important as climate change increases. One example is that very few land components of ESMs  
320 describe drought impacts on vegetation mortality, which may become more important as global  
321 warming increases. It is noteworthy that the emergent constraint method has inherent limitations.  
322 While this approach seeks to enhance estimates of future Earth system dynamics, several factors can  
323 influence the reliability of emergent constraint (Note S5). Observational uncertainties, incomplete  
324 integration of land cover changes into ESMs, and significant fluctuations in global land surface  
325 temperatures may impact the accuracy of the constrained results. Additionally, reliance on single  
326 historical variables and the use of linear relationships may not adequately capture the complexities of  
327 nonlinear interactions among multiple climate variables. Acknowledging these limitations can refine  
328 the applicability and effectiveness of the emergent constraint approach.

329

330 **Methods**

331 **Selection of models and observational data sets**

332 To build emergent relationships, we collected monthly LAI data from 18 models of the Coupled  
333 Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6 (CMIP6) during the historical period (1982–2014) and the  
334 future period (2015–2100) under the four Shared Socio-economic Pathways scenarios (SSP126,  
335 SSP245, SSP370 and SSP585, and where additional to scenarios of future atmospheric  
336 concentrations of greenhouse gas, they also provide pathways in atmospheric aerosols and notably  
337 land-use changes). The Norwegian Earth System Models (NorESM2-LM and NorESM2-MM) and  
338 the Community Earth System Models (CESM2 and CESM2-WACCM) are excluded from these 18  
339 models because they predict unrealistic future tropical LAI increases <sup>59</sup> (Note S9). These models  
340 share much of the same code and components, resulting in nearly identical land dynamics (Note S9).  
341 To assess the robustness of our proposed emergent constraints, we also collected for analysis  
342 historical and future outputs from 17 CMIP5 models under the emission scenarios of RCP45 and  
343 RCP85. The monthly data from 15 terrestrial carbon cycle models of TRENDY-v9 during the period  
344 1982–2019 was also used to test the emergent relationships. After identifying a series of emergent  
345 relationships between past and future global mean LAI trends, we used the observed estimates of  
346 global LAI trends from the remote sensing datasets to obtain the constrained future LAI trends  
347 (GLOBMAP, GLASS and GIMMS LAI4g). Based on extensive validations for all biome types  
348 against field measurements and other satellite products, it has been demonstrated that these datasets  
349 provide a reliable estimate of global LAI trends with high quality and accuracy<sup>32,60-61</sup>.

350

351 **Hierarchical emergent constraint framework**

352 Traditional emergent constraints proposed by Cox et al.<sup>27</sup> provide a quantitative, probabilistic

353 framework for estimating equilibrium climate sensitivity based on observations and the current  
354 climate. However, their formulation lacks an explicit consideration of observational uncertainty<sup>27</sup>.  
355 The hierarchical emergent constraint framework provides a robust approach for constraining future  
356 projections of Earth system features because it considers the correlation between present and future  
357 Earth system features, the bias between observations and the model ensemble mean, and the  
358 observation uncertainty<sup>33</sup>. This method inherently possesses recursive characteristics through the use  
359 of conditional distributions, which encompass data assimilation techniques, such as Kalman filtering  
360<sup>33</sup>. These techniques are utilized in various forms within numerical weather prediction<sup>62</sup>.  
361 Additionally, this approach has been applied in the realm of climate analysis, covering areas like  
362 regional climate forecasting and the detection and attribution of climate change<sup>63-64</sup>. The  
363 method requires data for a projected future Earth system variable ( $y$ ), a simulated historical Earth  
364 system variable ( $x$ ) and an observed current Earth system variable ( $x_o$ )<sup>33</sup>. Least-squares linear  
365 regression is applied to develop the emergent constraint relationship between  $x$  and  $y$  (equation (1))  
366<sup>23</sup>:

$$367 \quad y = a(x - \bar{x}) + \bar{y} \quad (1)$$

368 where  $a$  is the regression coefficient, which can be calculated by using equation (2);  $\bar{y}$  and  $\bar{x}$  are  
369 the multi-model ensemble mean values of  $y$  and  $x$ , respectively.

$$370 \quad a = \rho \frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_x} \quad (2)$$

371 Here,  $\rho$  is the correlation coefficient between  $y$  and  $x$ ;  $\sigma_y$  and  $\sigma_x$  are the standard deviations of  $y$  and  $x$ ,  
372 respectively, across an ESM ensemble. The observed current Earth system variable  $x_o$  is used to  
373 constrain  $y$ , and thus we need to consider the uncertainty in the observations. Assuming that the  
374 observation is related to the current Earth system variable through the additive-noise model under

375 Gaussian assumptions, we use the signal–noise ratio (SNR) in the observed current Earth system  
376 variable to correct the scaling factor  $a$  (equation (3))<sup>33,65</sup>.

$$377 \quad a^* = \frac{1}{1 + SNR^{-1}} a \quad (3)$$

378 The SNR defines the relative strength of the signal variability to the noise variability<sup>33</sup>, estimated by  
379 using equation (4), where  $\sigma_x^2$  and  $\sigma_o^2$  are the variances across the models and across the different  
380 observational datasets, respectively.

$$381 \quad SNR = \frac{\sigma_x^2}{\sigma_o^2} \quad (4)$$

382 If the noise dominates the signal, the forecast anomaly will be close to 0. Conversely, if the signal  
383 dominates the noise (i.e.,  $SNR \geq 1$ ), the correction in equation (3) has a slight influence, and thus the  
384 constrained future Earth system variable  $\bar{y}_c$  with its variance can be estimated by equations (5) and  
385 (6), respectively.

$$386 \quad \bar{y}_c = \bar{y} + \frac{a}{1 + SNR^{-1}} (\bar{x}_0 - \bar{x}) \quad (5)$$

$$387 \quad \sigma_{y_c}^2 = \left(1 - \frac{\rho^2}{1 + SNR^{-1}}\right) \sigma_y^2 \quad (6)$$

388

## 389 **References**

- 390 1. Anav, A., Murray-Tortarolo, G., Friedlingstein, P., Sitch, S., Piao, S., & Zhu, Z. (2013).  
391 Evaluation of land surface models in reproducing satellite Derived leaf area index over the  
392 high-latitude northern hemisphere. Part II: Earth system models. *Remote. Sens.* 5, 3637–3661.  
393 <https://doi.org/10.3390/rs5083637>.

- 394 2. Parker, G. G. (2020). Tamm review: leaf area index (LAI) is both a determinant and a  
395 consequence of important processes in vegetation canopies. *Forest. Ecol. Manag.* 477, 118496.  
396 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2020.118496>.
- 397 3. Zhao, Q., Zhu, Z., Zeng, H., Zhao, W., & Myneni, R. B. (2020). Future greening of the Earth  
398 may not be as large as previously predicted. *Agr. Forest. Meteorol.* 292, 108111.  
399 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2020.108111>.
- 400 4. Chen, J. M., Ju, W., Ciais, P., Viovy, N., Liu, R., Liu, Y., & Lu, X. (2019). Vegetation structural  
401 change since 1981 significantly enhanced the terrestrial carbon sink. *Nat. Commun.* 10, 4259.  
402 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-019-12257-8>.
- 403 5. Burnham, J. H., & Sletten, R. S. (2010). Spatial distribution of soil organic carbon in Northwest  
404 Greenland and underestimates of high Arctic carbon stores. *Global. Biogeochem. Cy.* 24,  
405 GB3012. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2009GB003660>.
- 406 6. Launiainen, S., Katul, G. G., Kolari, P., Lindroth, A., Lohila, A., Aurela, M., Varlagin, A., Grelle,  
407 A., & Vesala, T. (2016). Do the energy fluxes and surface conductance of boreal coniferous  
408 forests in Europe scale with leaf area?. *Global. Change. Biol.* 22, 4096–4113.  
409 <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.13497>.
- 410 7. Miao, C., Immerzeel, W. W., Xu, B., Yang, K., Duan, Q., & Li, X. (2024). Understanding the  
411 Asian water tower requires a redesigned precipitation observation strategy. *P. Natl. Acad. Sci.*  
412 *Usa.* 121, e2403557121. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2403557121>.
- 413 8. Liu, Y., Kumar, M., Katul, G. G., Feng, X., & Konings, A. G. (2020). Plant hydraulics  
414 accentuates the effect of atmospheric moisture stress on transpiration. *Nat. Clim. Change.* 10,  
415 691–695. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-020-0781-5>.

- 416 9. Cheng, L., Zhang, L., Wang, Y. P., Canadell, J. G., Chiew, F. H., Beringer, J., Li, L., Miralles, D.  
417 G., Piao, S., Zhang, Y. (2017). Recent increases in terrestrial carbon uptake at little cost to the  
418 water cycle. *Nat. Commun.* 8, 110. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-017-00114-5>.
- 419 10. Kumar, S. V., Mocko, D. M., Wang, S., Peters-Lidard, C. D., & Borak, J. (2019). Assimilation of  
420 remotely sensed leaf area index into the Noah-MP land surface model: Impacts on water and  
421 carbon fluxes and states over the continental United States. *J. Hydrometeorol.* 20, 1359–1377.  
422 <https://doi.org/10.1175/JHM-D-18-0237.1>.
- 423 11. Asaadi, A., Arora, V. K., Melton, J. R., & Bartlett, P. (2018). An improved parameterization of  
424 leaf area index (LAI) seasonality in the Canadian Land Surface Scheme (CLASS) and Canadian  
425 Terrestrial Ecosystem Model (CTEM) modelling framework. *Biogeosciences.* 15(22), 6885–  
426 6907. <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-15-6885-2018>.
- 427 12. Kucharik, C. J., Barford, C. C., El Maayar, M., Wofsy, S. C., Monson, R. K., & Baldocchi, D. D.  
428 (2006). A multiyear evaluation of a Dynamic Global Vegetation Model at three AmeriFlux forest  
429 sites: Vegetation structure, phenology, soil temperature, and CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O vapor exchange. *Ecol.*  
430 *Model.* 196, 1-31. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2005.11.031>.
- 431 13. Anav, A., Friedlingstein, P., Kidston, M., Bopp, L., Ciais, P., Cox, P., Jones, C., Jung, M.,  
432 Myneni, R., Zhu, Z. (2013). Evaluating the land and ocean components of the global carbon  
433 cycle in the CMIP5 earth system models. *J. Climate.* 26(18), 6801–6843.  
434 <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-12-00417.1>.
- 435 14. Jiapaer, G., Liang, S., Yi, Q., & Liu, J. (2015). Vegetation dynamics and responses to recent  
436 climate change in Xinjiang using leaf area index as an indicator. *Ecol. Indic.* 58, 64–76.  
437 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolind.2015.05.036>.

- 438 15. Shang, X., He, Z., Chen, W., He, L., & Yang, H. (2023). Changes and response mechanisms of  
439 leaf area index and evapotranspiration in the typical natural landscapes of the Loess Plateau in  
440 northern Shaanxi of China under the human intervention. *Ecol. Indic.* 154, 110517.  
441 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolind.2023.110517>.
- 442 16. Chen, X., Cai, A., Guo, R., Liang, C., & Li, Y. (2023). Variation of gross primary productivity  
443 dominated by leaf area index in significantly greening area. *J. Geogr. Sci.* 33(8), 1747–1764.  
444 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11442-023-2151-5>.
- 445 17. Li, Q., Lu, X., Wang, Y., Huang, X., Cox, P. M., & Luo, Y. (2018). Leaf area index identified as  
446 a major source of variability in modeled CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization. *Biogeosciences.* 15(22), 6909–6925.  
447 <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-15-6909-2018>.
- 448 18. Zhao, W., Tan, W., & Li, S. (2021) High leaf area index inhibits net primary production in global  
449 temperate forest ecosystems. *Environ. Sci. Pollut. R.* 28(18), 22602–22611.  
450 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-020-11928-0>.
- 451 19. Dong, N., Luo, M., Liu, Z., Sun, J., Wu, K., & Lin, H. (2021). The roles of leaf area index and  
452 albedo in vegetation induced temperature changes across China using modelling and  
453 observations. *Clim. Dynam.* 58, 2557–2573. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-021-06028-9>.
- 454 20. Kala, J., Decker, M., Exbrayat, J. F., Pitman, A. J., Carouge, C., Evans, J. P., Abramowitz, G.,  
455 Mocko, D. (2014). Influence of leaf area index prescriptions on simulations of heat, moisture,  
456 and carbon fluxes. *J. Hydrometeorol.* 15, 489–503. <https://doi.org/10.1175/JHM-D-13-063.1>.
- 457 21. Zhang, J., & Walsh, J. E. (2007). Relative impacts of vegetation coverage and leaf area index on  
458 climate change in a greener north. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* 34(15), L15703.  
459 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2007GL030852>.

- 460 22. Tokarska, K. B., Stolpe, M. B., Sippel, S., Fischer, E. M., Smith, C. J., Lehner, F., & Knutti, R.  
461 (2020). Past warming trend constrains future warming in CMIP6 models. *Sci. Adv.* 6, eaaz9549.  
462 <https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.aaz9549>.
- 463 23. Chai, Y., Martins, G., Nobre, C., von Randow, C., Chen, T., & Dolman, H. (2021). Constraining  
464 Amazonian land surface temperature sensitivity to precipitation and the probability of forest  
465 dieback. *Npj. Clim. Atmos. Sci.* 4, 6. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41612-021-00162-1>.
- 466 24. Chai, Y., Berghuijs, W. R., Naudts, K., Janssen, T. A., Yao, Y., & Dolman, H. (2021). Using  
467 precipitation sensitivity to temperature to adjust projected global runoff. *Environ. Res. Lett.* 16,  
468 124032. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/ac3795>.
- 469 25. Hall, A., & Qu, X. (2006). Using the current seasonal cycle to constrain snow albedo feedback in  
470 future climate change. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* 33, L03502. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2005GL025127>.
- 471 26. Cox, P. M., Huntingford, C., & Williamson, M. S. (2018). Emergent constraint on equilibrium  
472 climate sensitivity from global temperature variability. *Nature.* 553, 319–322.  
473 <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature25450>.
- 474 27. Cox, P. M., Pearson, D., Booth, B. B., Friedlingstein, P., Huntingford, C., Jones, C. D., & Luke,  
475 C. M. (2013). Sensitivity of tropical carbon to climate change constrained by carbon dioxide  
476 variability. *Nature*, 494(7437), 341–344. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature11882>.
- 477 28. Wenzel, S., Cox, P. M., Eyring, V., & Friedlingstein, P. (2016). Projected land photosynthesis  
478 constrained by changes in the seasonal cycle of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. *Nature.* 538, 499–501.  
479 <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature19772>.
- 480 29. Sitch, S., Friedlingstein, P., Gruber, N., Jones, S. D., Murray-Tortarolo, G., Ahlström, A., Doney,  
481 S. C., Graven, H., Heinze, C., Huntingford, C. et al. (2015). Recent trends and drivers of

- 482 regional sources and sinks of carbon dioxide. *Biogeosciences*. 12(3), 653–679.  
483 <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-12-653-2015>.
- 484 30. Liu, Y., Liu, R., & Chen, J. M. (2012). Retrospective retrieval of long-term consistent global leaf  
485 area index (1981–2011) from combined AVHRR and MODIS data. *J. Geophys. Res-Biogeo.*  
486 117(G4), G04003. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2012JG002084>.
- 487 31. Xiao, Z., Liang, S., Wang, J., Chen, P., Yin, X., Zhang, L., & Song, J. (2013). Use of general  
488 regression neural networks for generating the GLASS leaf area index product from time-series  
489 MODIS surface reflectance. *IEEE. T. Geosci. Remote.* 52, 209–223.  
490 <https://doi.org/10.1109/TGRS.2013.2237780>.
- 491 32. Cao, S., Li, M., Zhu, Z., Wang, Z., Zha, J., Zhao, W., Duanmu, Z., Chen, J., Zheng, Y., Chen, Y.  
492 et al. (2023). Spatiotemporally consistent global dataset of the GIMMS leaf area index (GIMMS  
493 LAI4g) from 1982 to 2020. *Earth. Syst. Sci. Data.* 15, 4877–4899.  
494 <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-15-4877-2023>.
- 495 33. Bowman, K. W., Cressie, N., Qu, X., & Hall, A. (2018). A hierarchical statistical framework for  
496 emergent constraints: Application to snow-albedo feedback. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* 45(23), 13050–  
497 13059. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2018GL080082>.
- 498 34. Winkler, A. J., Myneni, R. B., & Brovkin, V. (2019). Investigating the applicability of emergent  
499 constraints. *Earth. Syst. Dynam.* 10(3), 501–523. <https://doi.org/10.5194/esd-10-501-2019>.
- 500 35. Hall, A., Cox, P., Huntingford, C., & Klein, S. (2019). Progressing emergent constraints on  
501 future climate change. *Nat. Clim. Change.* 9, 269–278.  
502 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-019-0436-6>.

- 503 36. Williamson, M. S., Thackeray, C. W., Cox, P. M., Hall, A., Huntingford, C., & Nijse, F. J.  
504 (2021). Emergent constraints on climate sensitivities. *Rev. Mod. Phys.* 93(2), 025004.  
505 <https://doi.org/10.1103/RevModPhys.93.025004>.
- 506 37. Hatfield, J. L., & Dold, C. (2019). Photosynthesis in the solar corridor system. In *The solar*  
507 *corridor crop system* (pp. 1-33). Academic Press.  
508 <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-814792-4.00001-2>.
- 509 38. Yan, Y., Hou, P., Duan, F., Niu, L., Dai, T., Wang, K., Zhao, M., Li, S., & Zhou, W. (2021).  
510 Improving photosynthesis to increase grain yield potential: an analysis of maize hybrids released  
511 in different years in China. *Photosynth. Res.* 150, 295–311.  
512 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11120-021-00847-x>.
- 513 39. van Loon, M. P., Schieving, F., Rietkerk, M., Dekker, S. C., Sterck, F., & Anten, N. P. (2014).  
514 How light competition between plants affects their response to climate change. *New Phytol.*  
515 203(4), 1253–1265. <https://doi.org/10.1111/nph.12865>.
- 516 40. Hoff, C., & Rambal, S. (2003). An examination of the interaction between climate, soil and leaf  
517 area index in a *Quercus ilex* ecosystem. *Ann. Forest. Sci.* 60(2), 153–161.  
518 <https://doi.org/10.1051/forest:2003008>.
- 519 41. Seo, H., & Kim, Y. (2021). Role of remotely sensed leaf area index assimilation in  
520 eco-hydrologic processes in different ecosystems over East Asia with Community Land Model  
521 version 4.5–Biogeochemistry. *J. Hydrol.* 594, 125957.  
522 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2021.125957>.
- 523 42. Wen, N., Han, Y., Qi, J., Marek, G. W., Sun, D., Feng, P., Srinivasan, R., Liu, D., & Chen, Y.  
524 (2024). Improving hydrological modeling to close the gap between elevated CO<sub>2</sub> concentration

- 525 and crop response: Implications for water resources. *Water. Res.* 265, 122279.  
526 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2024.122279>.
- 527 43. Peters, E. B., & McFadden, J. P. (2010). Influence of seasonality and vegetation type on  
528 suburban microclimates. *Urban. Ecosyst.* 13, 443–460.  
529 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11252-010-0128-5>.
- 530 44. Baker, T. P., Jordan, G. J., Steel, E. A., Fountain-Jones, N. M., Wardlaw, T. J., & Baker, S. C.  
531 (2014). Microclimate through space and time: microclimatic variation at the edge of  
532 regeneration forests over daily, yearly and decadal time scales. *Forest. Ecol. Manag.* 334, 174–  
533 184. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2014.09.008>.
- 534 45. Sándor, R., & Fodor, N. (2012). Simulation of soil temperature dynamics with models using  
535 different concepts. *Sci. World. J.* 2012, 590287. <https://doi.org/10.1100/2012/590287>.
- 536 46. Lian, X., Piao, S., Huntingford, C., Li, Y., Zeng, Z., Wang, X., Ciais, P., McVicar, T. R., Peng, S.,  
537 Ottlé, C. et al. (2018). Partitioning global land evapotranspiration using CMIP5 models  
538 constrained by observations. *Nat. Clim. Change.* 8, 640–646.  
539 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-018-0207-9>.
- 540 47. Alkama, R., Forzieri, G., Duveiller, G., Grassi, G., Liang, S., & Cescatti, A. (2022).  
541 Vegetation-based climate mitigation in a warmer and greener World. *Nat. Commun.* 13, 606.  
542 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-022-28305-9>.
- 543 48. Skinner, C. B., Poulsen, C. J., & Mankin, J. S. (2018). Amplification of heat extremes by plant  
544 CO<sub>2</sub> physiological forcing. *Nat. Commun.* 9, 1094.  
545 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-018-03472-w>.

- 546 49. Piao, S., Wang, X., Park, T., Chen, C., Lian, X. U., He, Y., Bjerke, J. W., Chen, A., Ciais, P.,  
547 Tømmervik, H. et al. (2020). Characteristics, drivers and feedbacks of global greening. *Nat. Rev.*  
548 *Earth. Env.* 1, 14–27. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43017-019-0001-x>.
- 549 50. Zhu, Z., Piao, S., Myneni, R. B., Huang, M., Zeng, Z., Canadell, J. G., Ciais, P., Sitch, S.,  
550 Friedlingstein, P., Arneeth, A. (2016). Greening of the Earth and its drivers. *Nat. Clim. Change.* 6,  
551 791–795. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nclimate3004>.
- 552 51. Wang, S., Zhang, Y., Ju, W., Chen, J. M., Ciais, P., Cescatti, A., Sardans, j., Janssens, I. A., Wu,  
553 M., Berry, J. A. et al. (2020). Recent global decline of CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization effects on vegetation  
554 photosynthesis. *Science.* 370, 1295–1300. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.abb7772>.
- 555 52. Piao, S., Sitch, S., Ciais, P., Friedlingstein, P., Peylin, P., Wang, X., Ahlström, A., Anav, A.,  
556 Canadell, J. G., Cong, N. et al. (2013). Evaluation of terrestrial carbon cycle models for their  
557 response to climate variability and to CO<sub>2</sub> trends. *Global. Change. Biol.* 19, 2117–2132.  
558 <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.12187>.
- 559 53. Jones, C. D., Arora, V., Friedlingstein, P., Bopp, L., Brovkin, V., Dunne, J., Graven, H., Hoffman,  
560 F., Ilyina, T., John, J. G. et al. (2016). C4MIP–The coupled climate–carbon cycle model  
561 intercomparison project: Experimental protocol for CMIP6. *Geosci. Model. Dev.* 9, 2853–2880.  
562 <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-9-2853-2016>.
- 563 54. Cook, B. I., Mankin, J. S., Marvel, K., Williams, A. P., Smerdon, J. E., & Anchukaitis, K. J.  
564 (2020). Twenty-first century drought projections in the CMIP6 forcing scenarios. *Earths. Future.*  
565 8, e2019EF001461. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2019EF001461>.
- 566 55. Duveiller, G., Hooker, J. & Cescatti, A. (2018). The mark of vegetation change on Earth’s  
567 surface energy balance. *Nat. Commun.* 9, 679. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-017-02810-8>.

- 568 56. Hoek van Dijke, A. J., Mallick, K., Schlerf, M., Machwitz, M., Herold, M., & Teuling, A. J.  
569 (2020). Examining the link between vegetation leaf area and land–atmosphere exchange of water,  
570 energy, and carbon fluxes using FLUXNET data. *Biogeosciences*, 17, 4443–4457.  
571 <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-17-4443-2020>.
- 572 57. Zeng, Z., Piao, S., Li, L. Z., Zhou, L., Ciais, P., Wang, T., Li, Y., Lian, X., Wood, E. F.,  
573 Friedlingstein, P. et al. (2017). Climate mitigation from vegetation biophysical feedbacks during  
574 the past three decades. *Nat. Clim. Change*. 7, 432–436. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nclimate3299>.
- 575 58. He, M., Piao, S., Huntingford, C., Xu, H., Wang, X., Bastos, A., Cui, J., Gasser, T. (2022).  
576 Amplified warming from physiological responses to carbon dioxide reduces the potential of  
577 vegetation for climate change mitigation. *Commun. Earth. Environ.* 3, 160.  
578 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43247-022-00489-4>.
- 579 59. Park, H., & Jeong, S. (2021). Leaf area index in Earth system models: how the key variable of  
580 vegetation seasonality works in climate projections. *Environ. Res. Lett.* 16, 034027.  
581 <https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/abe2cf>.
- 582 60. Xiao, Z., Wang, T., Liang, S., & Sun, R. (2016). Estimating the fractional vegetation cover from  
583 GLASS leaf area index product. *Remote. Sens.* 8(4), 337. <https://doi.org/10.3390/rs8040337>.
- 584 61. Fang, H., Jiang, C., Li, W., Wei, S., Baret, F., Chen, J. M., Garcia-Haro, J., Liang, S., Liu, R.,  
585 Myneni, R. B. et al. (2013). Characterization and intercomparison of global moderate resolution  
586 leaf area index (LAI) products: Analysis of climatologies and theoretical uncertainties. *J.*  
587 *Geophys. Res-Bioge.* 118, 529–548. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jgrg.20051>.
- 588 62. Wikle, C. K., & Berliner, L. M. (2007). A Bayesian tutorial for data assimilation. *Physica. D.*  
589 230, 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.physd.2006.09.017>.

- 590 63. Kang, E. L., & Cressie, N. (2013). Bayesian hierarchical ANOVA of regional climate-change  
591 projections from NARCCAP Phase II. *Int. J. Appl. Earth. Obs.* 22, 3–15.  
592 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jag.2011.12.007>.
- 593 64. Katzfuss, M., Hammerling, D., & Smith, R. L. (2017). A Bayesian hierarchical model for  
594 climate change detection and attribution. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* 44(11), 5720–5728.  
595 <https://doi.org/10.1002/2017GL073688>.
- 596 65. Chen, X., Zhou, T., Wu, P., Guo, Z., & Wang, M. (2020). Emergent constraints on future  
597 projections of the western North Pacific Subtropical High. *Nat. Commun.* 11, 2802.  
598 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-16631-9>.

599

## 600 **Resource Availability**

### 601 **Lead contact:**

602 Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled  
603 by the lead contact, Chiyuan Miao ([miaocy@bnu.edu.cn](mailto:miaocy@bnu.edu.cn)).

604 **Materials availability:** *This research generated no novel materials*

### 605 **Data and Code availability**

606 The observed LAI was obtained from three datasets: GLASS LAI  
607 (<http://www.geodata.cn/data/index.html?word=GLASS>), GLOBMAP LAI  
608 (<https://zenodo.org/record/4700264#.Ye5xwStzy70>) and GIMMS LAI4g  
609 (<https://zenodo.org/records/8035760>). The observed air temperature and precipitation were provided  
610 by the HadCRUT4 dataset (<http://www.cru.uea.ac.uk/>). Simulations from the CMIP6 models were  
611 collected from <https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/projects/cmip6/>. Some models lack the r1i1p1f1 output but

612 provide the r1i1p1f2 output instead. Due to the high consistency in LAI values between these two  
613 outputs, we adopt r1i1p1f2 as a replacement for models missing r1i1p1f1. The atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>  
614 concentration data were obtained from  
615 <https://tntcat.iiasa.ac.at/SspDb/dsd?Action=htmlpage&page=about>. Simulations from the CMIP5  
616 models were corrected from <https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/projects/cmip5/>. The TRENDY-v9 model  
617 simulations under the three controlled experiments of S1, S2 and S3 can be obtained by contacting  
618 Stephen Sitch (s.a.sitch@exeter.ac.uk) and Pierre Friedlingstein (p.friedlingstein@exeter.ac.uk). The  
619 code for this study is available at  
620 <https://github.com/Yuanchai1/Climate-projections-underestimate-future-global-land-greening-and-terrestrial-water-losses.git>.

622

### 623 **Acknowledgements**

624 We are thankful to Prof. Peter Cox and Prof. Han Dolman for their helpful comments and valuable  
625 suggestions for this paper. Y.C. acknowledges support from the National Natural Science Foundation  
626 of China (42301018). C.M. acknowledges support from the National Natural Science Foundation of  
627 China (U24A20572) and the National Key Research and Development Program of China  
628 (2024YFF0809301). L.S. acknowledges support from UKRI (MR/V022008/1).

629

### 630 **Author contributions**

631 Conceptualization, Y.C. and C.M.; methodology, Y.C. and C.M.; investigation, Y.C. and C.M.;  
632 writing—original draft, Y.C. and C.M.; writing—review & editing, P.C., L.S., W. R. B., T.C. and  
633 C.H.; funding acquisition, C.M.; resources, Y.C. and C.M.; supervision, C.M.

634

635 **Competing interests**

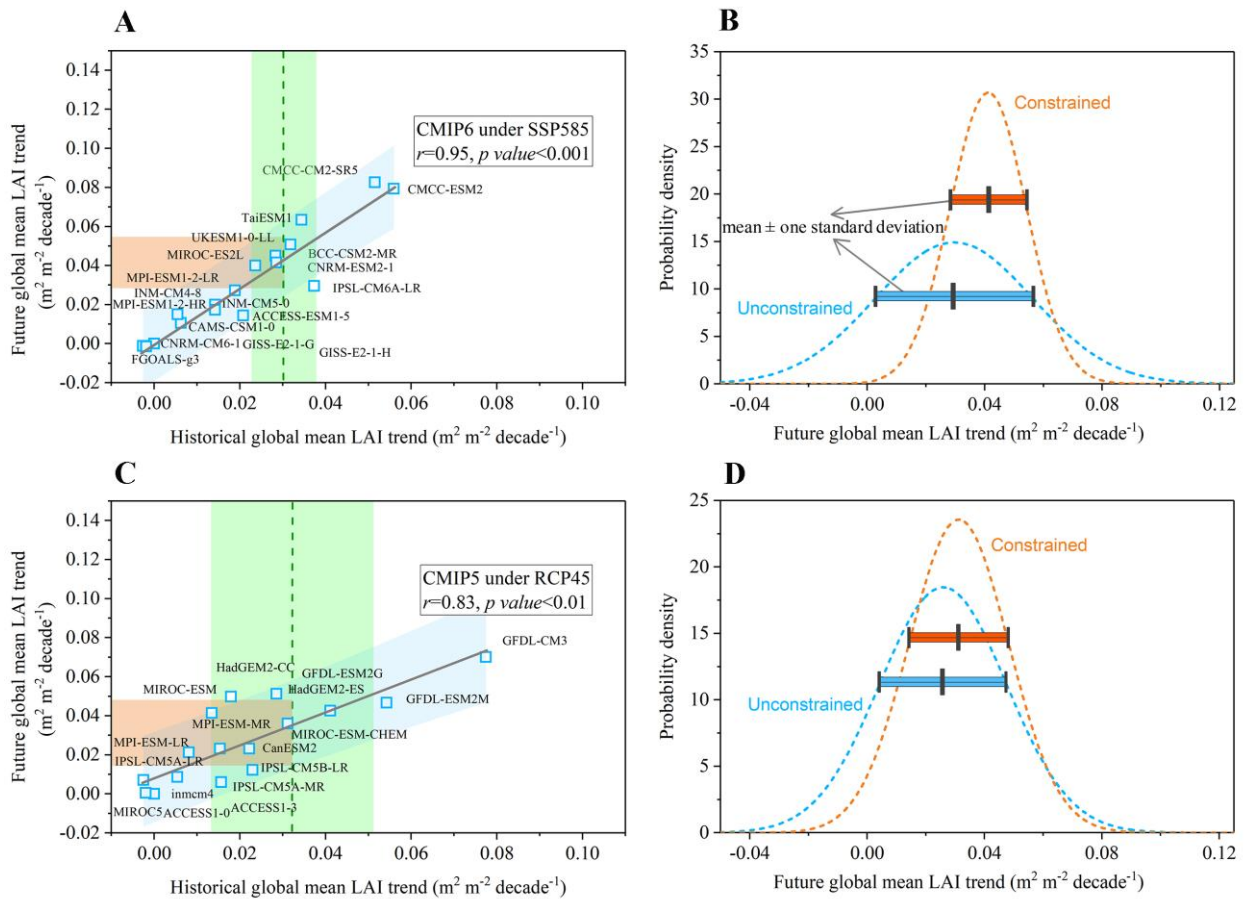
636 The authors declare no competing interests.

637

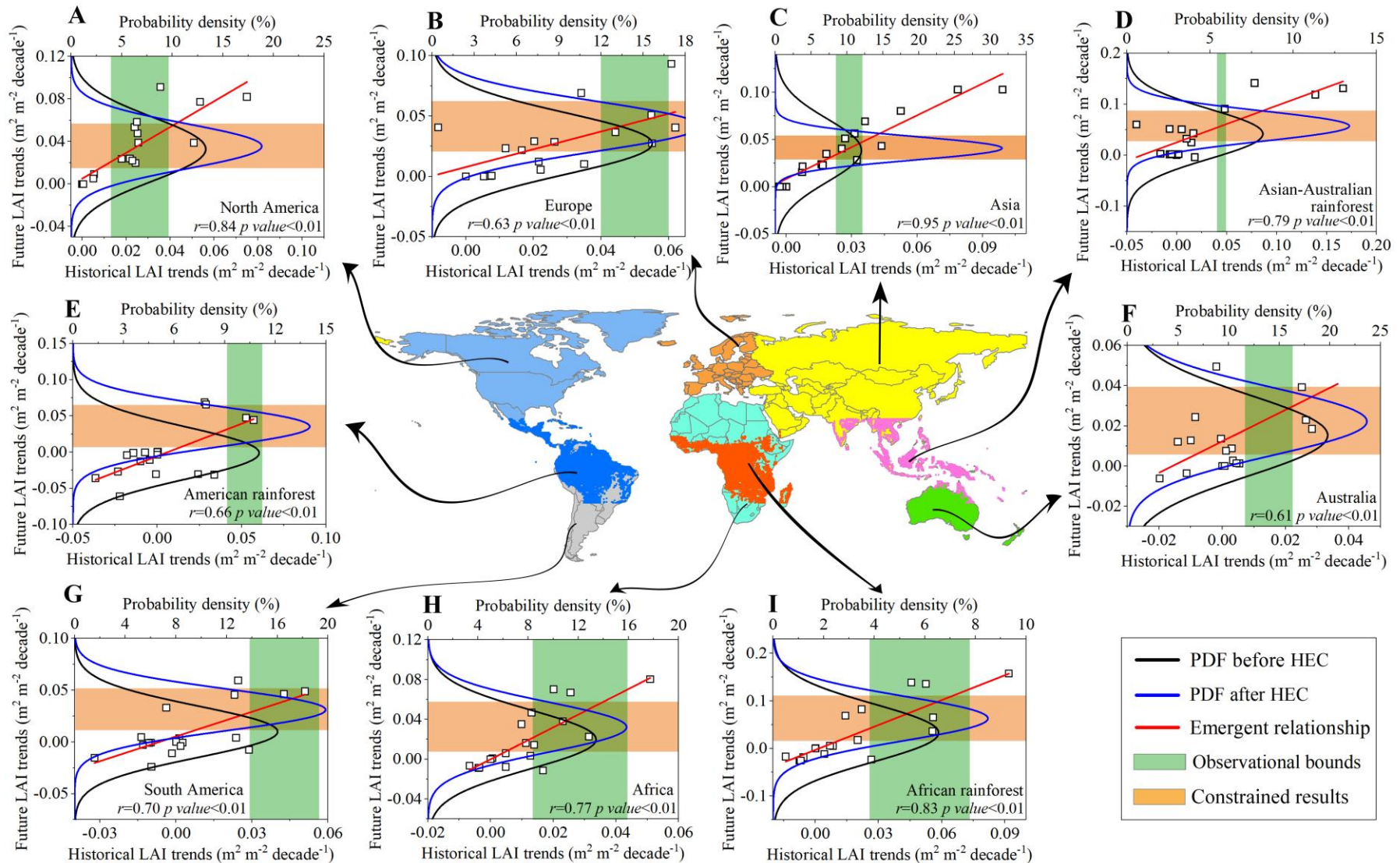
638 **Additional information**

639 Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to C.M.

640



641  
642 **Figure 1. Emergent constraints on future global mean LAI trends.** A and C, The emergent  
643 relationships between the historical and future global mean LAI trends in the CMIP6 model  
644 ensemble (1982–2014 and 2015–2100 under scenario SSP585) and in the CMIP5 ensemble (1982–  
645 2005 and 2015–2100 under RCP45), respectively. The vertical green shadings in A and C are the  
646 observed estimates of global LAI trends (mean  $\pm$  one standard deviation) based on the three  
647 observational datasets. The horizontal orange shading indicates the new constrained estimates of  
648 future global LAI trends (mean  $\pm$  one standard deviation) after application of the emergent constraint.  
649 The light blue shadings are the error of the regression lines. B and D, The probability density  
650 functions (PDFs) of the original ESM global greening trend projections (dashed light-blue line), and  
651 of the updated global greening trend projections obtained by applying the observational constraint  
652 (dashed orange line) to the CMIP6 and CMIP5 model ensembles, respectively. The horizontal  
653 boxplots show the future global LAI trends (mean  $\pm$  one standard deviation).  
654



655

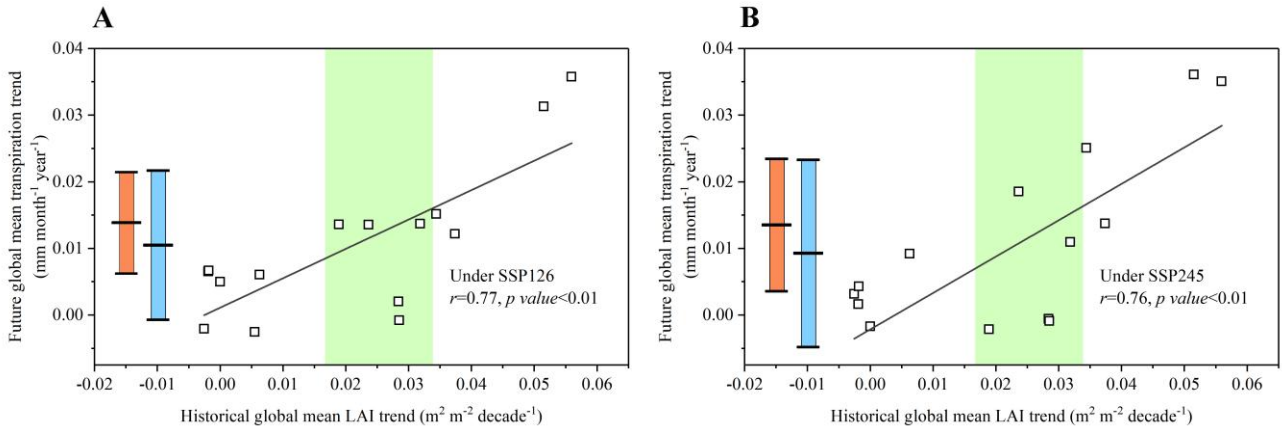
656

657

658

**Figure 2. Emergent constraints on the future LAI trends in nine sub-regions of the global land surface for the CMIP6 models under the SSP585 emission scenario.** Presented are the emergent relationships between historical LAI trends (1982–2014,  $\text{m}^2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{decade}^{-1}$ ) and future LAI trends (2015–2100,  $\text{m}^2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{decade}^{-1}$ ) in the nine sub-regions of North America (A), Europe (B), Asia (C), the Asian-Australian

659 (D), the American rainforest (E), Australia (F), South America (G), Africa (H) and the African rainforest (I). The term “rainforest” is used to  
660 refer to tropical regions with rainforest (rainforest regions overlap with the continent regions). Black and blue curves are the PDFs of the future  
661 LAI trends before and after using the hierarchical emergent constraint procedure (HEC), respectively. Vertical green shadings are the observed  
662 estimates of LAI trends (mean  $\pm$  one standard deviation) based on the three datasets. Horizontal orange shadings are the constrained future LAI  
663 trend (mean  $\pm$  one standard deviation). Square markers are individual CMIP6 models. The central panel presents the geographical distributions  
664 of the nine sub-regions.  
665



666

667 **Figure 3. Implications of underestimated global land greening trends for future global mean**  
 668 **transpiration trends under the low and middle emission pathways associated with the SSP126**  
 669 **and SSP245 scenarios.** The fitted line illustrates the emergent relationship between the historical  
 670 trends in global mean LAI (1982–2014) and the future projected trends in global mean transpiration  
 671 (2015–2100) across the CMIP6 models. **A** and **B**, The relationships under the SSP126 and SSP245  
 672 emission scenarios, respectively. Each square represents a CMIP6 model. Vertical green shadings are  
 673 the observed global mean LAI trends (mean  $\pm$  one standard deviation). Box plots in each panel  
 674 indicate the mean value  $\pm$  one standard error of the original model predictions of future transpiration  
 675 trends (light-blue box plots) and of the constrained future transpiration trend (orange box plots).