

Precipitation leads the long-term vegetation increase in the conterminous United States drylands

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Abstract

Drylands, encompassing over 40% of the conterminous United States (CONUS), are crucial to the global carbon cycle and highly susceptible to climate change. However, Earth system models offer conflicting projections of future drought and vegetation activity in North America, and in-depth analyses of the long-term changes in greenness and its relationship with underlying climate drivers, considering both spatial and temporal variations at the ecosystem scale, are lacking. This study analyzes 20-year (2001-2020) MODIS NDVI observations to assess greening trends in CONUS drylands and their relationship with climate drivers at 1km spatial resolution. Results indicate a large scale and systematic greening trend, particularly in the northern Great Plains (NGP) region. Using an empirical linear attribution approach and Empirical Orthogonal Function (EOF) analysis, we uncover varied relationships between greenness trends and climate drivers, particularly highlighting the dominant role of increased precipitation in driving the observed greening. Trend analysis reveals that while rain use efficiency (RUE) remains stable in most areas, increases in the NGP region suggest potential CO₂ fertilization effects (CFE), while decreases in southern states correlate with rising temperatures. We also develop an efficiency-based model featuring RUE which successfully reproduces historical NDVI, re-confirming the dominant influence of precipitation in local greenness interannual variability. However, CMIP6 projections for 2021-2040 under the “Regional Rivalry” scenario (SSP370) paint a worrying picture, with projected browning in the NGP region and states near the 42°N latitude, contrasting recent greening trends. This potential reversal underscores the vulnerability of these ecosystems to future climate change, highlighting the need to consider both historical trends and future climate projections when assessing the resilience of drylands ecosystems. Overall, our work re-emphasizes the significance of water availability to drylands vegetation growth and contributes to a more comprehensive understanding of carbon-water cycling in arid and semi-arid regions.

Introduction

Dryland ecosystems play a critical role in the global carbon cycle, strongly contributing to the trend and inter-annual variability of the global terrestrial carbon sink, due to their high sensitivity to inter-annual climate variability (Ahlström et al., 2015). Drylands feature a scarcity of water and are particularly susceptible to climate change (Lian et al., 2021), especially variations in

precipitation and temperature. Recent studies indicate declining future of water availability in drylands as climate projections show that drylands will experience increased warming, drought frequency, and evaporative demand at rates faster than the global average (Lehner et al., 2017; Bradford et al., 2020; Feng & Fu, 2013; Müller & Bahn, 2022). Drylands tend to be more severely impacted by drought events which stress local vegetation and subsequently affect their carbon sequestration capabilities. Conversely, as droughts exacerbate due to global warming, the increasing level of CO₂ concentration is reported to benefit photosynthesis through the CO₂ fertilization effect (CFE) (Gonsamo et al., 2021), as vegetation can keep their stomata closed for longer durations to conserve water for photosynthesis while maintaining a consistent level of intercellular CO₂ concentration (Zhang et al., 2022).

Discrepancies between global and regional scale studies regarding the present trajectories of drylands are evident. Several analyses have indicated a global increase in aridity within drylands, resulting in significant and sudden alterations in numerous ecosystem characteristics (Berdugo et al., 2020). A considerable portion of drylands has been reported to experience desertification and soil deterioration due to unsustainable land management practices exacerbated by human-induced climate variations (Burrell et al., 2020). However, these assertions have been challenged with claims that conventional aridity metrics inadequately represent the land-based water cycle, thereby producing questionable outcomes from Dynamic Global Vegetation Models (DGVMs) (Berg & McColl, 2021). In contrast, trends of greening and increased vegetation activity across diverse dryland environments have been reported in regional studies (Hänke et al., 2016; He et al., 2019; Li et al., 2022). Various factors contribute to this discrepancy in findings, with differing spatial resolutions of input datasets emerging as a pivotal factor. Coarse-resolution pixels consist of mixed land surface signals, leading to ambiguity in temporal trend analyses when compared with outcomes derived from datasets at finer resolution (Ji & Brown, 2022; Zhang et al., 2023). Spatial grain needs to be explicitly considered in dryland ecosystem which is constrained by precipitation when examining the influence of climate variables on local vegetation dynamics as experiments have shown that the effects of precipitation manipulation on plants are strongest at the smallest spatial scale compared to other environmental factors (Korell et al., 2021).

Drylands in the conterminous United States (CONUS) account for more than 40 % of the territory, encompassing a diverse array of arid and semi-arid ecosystems. These regions, including parts of the Great Basin, the Colorado Plateau, the Sonoran and Mojave Deserts, and most of the Great Plains, exhibit pronounced climatic variability. This climatic regime leads to a persistent water deficit, exerting a significant influence on soil moisture availability and vegetation dynamics. The temperature profiles in these regions are marked by extreme seasonal and diurnal variations. The high variability in temperature and precipitation, both spatially and temporally, underpins the ecological processes and biotic adaptations in these arid landscapes.

Few research endeavors have been focused on exploring the prolonged alteration in vegetation over an extensive time-frame in conjunction with contemporary climate fluctuations within CONUS on a continental scale, among global and site-specific investigations. This research

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3 79 addresses this gap by examining greenness trends in the natural CONUS drylands from 2001 to
4 80 2020, utilizing long-term satellite-derived Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) data
5 81 from MODIS. This study delves into the primary climatic drivers at 1km spatial resolution through
6 82 regression-based attribution and empirical orthogonal function (EOF) analysis, assessing
7 83 associations from both temporal and spatial perspectives. To evaluate the local ecosystem's
8 84 functionality, adaptability, and reaction to climatic changes, the study specifically scrutinizes the
9 85 long-term trends of rain use efficiency (RUE) across the entire research area. Furthermore, we
10 86 develop a simplified model based on RUE to replicate observed NDVI trends and annual variations,
11 87 projecting NDVI alterations in CONUS drylands for the subsequent two decades (2021-2040)
12 88 utilizing downscaled CMIP6 precipitation projections.

17 89 **Data and methods**

19 90 **Terra MODIS Vegetation Index Products**

20 91 The NDVI observations in this study comes from Terra MODIS Vegetation Index Products
21 92 Collection 6.1 (MOD13Q1 v061) (Didan, 2021, DOI:10.5067/MODIS/MOD13Q1.061) which
22 93 provides consistent, spatial, and temporal comparisons of global terrestrial vegetation conditions.
23 94 Normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) is provided as 16-day composite layers at 250-
24 95 meter spatial resolution. To maintain the consistency of the data sources across all years, only
25 96 Terra MODIS products are used to acquire NDVI observations for its longer record compared to
26 97 Aqua products. Only data for 2001 to 2020 is used. In addition, to exclude the effects of cloud
27 98 cover, surface reflectance inconsistencies, and other potential artifacts, we mask out pixels related
28 99 to bad quality according to the built-in VI Quality band. We also adopt a upward-smoothing
29 100 approach to fill the data gap (Chen et al. 2004).

34 101 **MODIS Land Cover Type Products**

35 102 The land cover (LC) type information is obtained from MODIS Terra and Aqua combined Land
36 103 Cover Type products Collection 6.1 (MCD12Q1 v061) (Friedl & Sulla-Menashe, 2022,
37 104 DOI:10.5067/MODIS/MCD12Q1.061) which provide global land cover types at yearly intervals
38 105 from 2001 to 2022. The spatial resolution of MCD12Q1 is 500-meter. This study specifically uses
39 106 the International Geosphere-Biosphere Programme (IGBP) classification scheme. To focus on
40 107 vegetation change in natural drylands and avoid influence of human intervention, pixels classified
41 108 as one of following four land cover types, Croplands, Urban and Built-up Lands, Cropland/Natural
42 109 Vegetation Mosaics (Semi-Croplands), and Water Bodies, in any LC layers within the two-decade
43 110 study period are further masked out. To maintain spatial gridding consistency across datasets, the
44 111 final decision is made on a resampled 1km reference LC composite map.

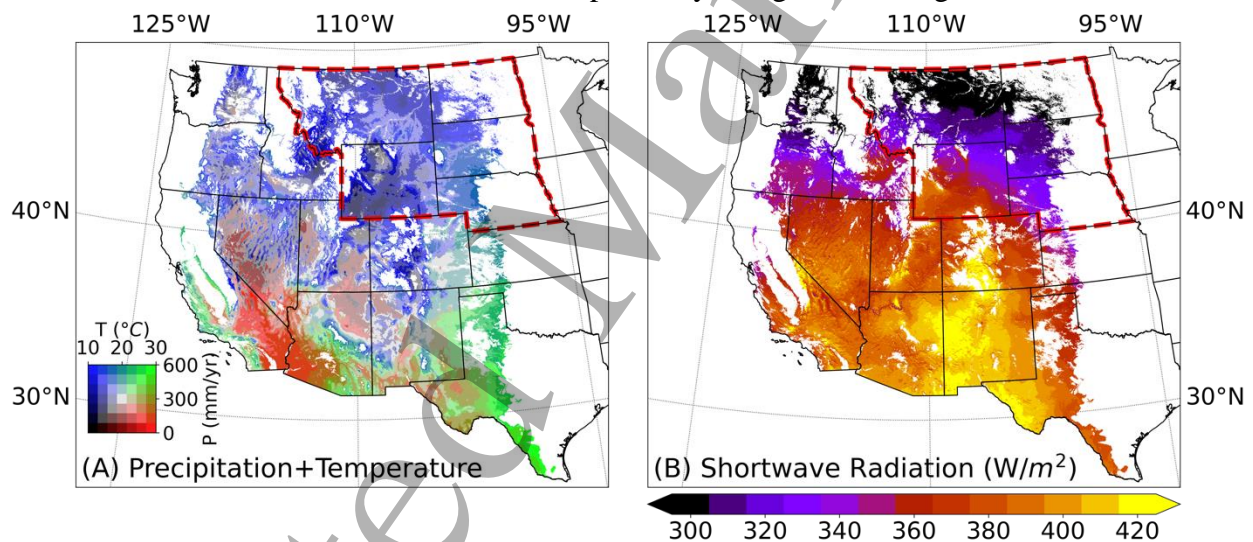
49 112 **Meteorological data**

50 113 Data of precipitation, daily maximum temperature, and incoming shortwave radiation flux density
51 114 used in this study are collected from Daymet: Daily Surface Weather Data (Version 4) (Thornton
52 115 et al., 2022, available at <https://doi.org/10.3334/ORNLDAAAC/2129>). This dataset offers persistent
53 116 and continuous gridded estimations of daily weather and climatological variables at 1km spatial
54 117 resolution and over an extended period (1980~2022), which is arguably the most accurate and

118 updated meteorological dataset currently available for CONUS. These estimations are derived by
 119 interpolation and extrapolation of ground-based observations through statistical modeling
 120 techniques (Thornton et al., 2021).

121 Study Region

122 This study focuses on CONUS drylands, defined as areas receiving less than 600 mm of annual
 123 total precipitation (ATP). Figure 1 illustrates the spatial patterns of key climate variables across
 124 the study region, highlighting distinct regional differences. Precipitation tends to be the primary
 125 limiting factor for vegetation growth in CONUS drylands, particularly in the south (Nemani et al.
 126 2003). While temperature exerts a secondary influence, its importance increases with latitude. This
 127 is reflected in the three distinct climate zones evident in Figure 1A: the Northern Great Plains
 128 (NGP) region, encompassing Montana, Wyoming, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Nebraska, is
 129 characterized by a relatively wet and cool environment and is the focus of further investigation in
 130 this study; the Southern Great Plains have a wet and hot climate; and the Southwestern states are
 131 dominated by dry and hot conditions. Figure 1B further reveals the spatial distribution of incoming
 132 shortwave radiation, which exhibits variation primarily along latitudinal gradients.



133 Figure 1. Climatology (2001~2020) spatial distribution of climate drivers in CONUS drylands (ATP <
 134 600mm/year). The enclosed area defines the zoom-in study region in the northern Great Plains. (A) Joint
 135 spatial distribution of annual total precipitation and annual mean daily maximum temperature. Distinct
 136 regional patterns can be observed; (B) Spatial distribution of daytime incident shortwave radiation flux
 137 density. Its value varies mainly along latitude.

135 Temporally Summarized Datasets

136 The primary challenge of analyzing the impacts of interdependent and correlated climatic factors
 137 on the trend of greenness is to identify climate indices that effectively capture the “period of
 138 climatic influence” (Ahlström et al., 2015). Because of that, two types of datasets, annual and
 139 growing season summarized datasets, are created for NDVI and three climatic variables from
 140 original monthly datasets. Annual summarized data has the merit of being simple and is more

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3 141 useful for studying extensive areas where heterogeneity in growing seasons is present. Growing
4 142 season summarized data is in general a better proxy for quantifying the direct influence of climatic
5 143 variables on vegetation growth. By adopting growing season identifying methods introduced in
6 144 Körner et al., 2023, a period of six months (April~September) is determined as the growing season
7 145 (monthly resolution) for the NGP region (Figure S1). Corresponding growing season average/sum
8 146 datasets are created for all variables.

11 147 **Trend Analysis**

12 148 In this study, trends are evaluated using the Mann-Kendall (MK) test, a non-parametric method
13 149 well-suited for detecting trends in vegetation indices without assuming data normality (de Jong et
14 150 al., 2011; Fensholt et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2019). Specifically, we employ the modified pre-
15 151 whitening MK test (Yue et al., 2002), which reduces potential false positives by mitigating
16 152 autocorrelation in time series data. For computational efficiency, the pyMannKendall package
17 153 (Hussain & Mahmud, 2019) source code is adapted for compatibility with C++. A significance
18 154 level (α) of 0.1 is set, indicating that a time series with $p \leq 0.1$ exhibits a statistically significant
19 155 trend.

22 156 **Empirical Linear Attribution Method**

23 157 A multiple linear regression (MLR) model is employed to attribute observed greenness changes to
24 158 the dominant climate drivers. MLR has been in studying spatial-temporal variation of LAI (Zhang
25 159 et al., 2024), soil properties (Forkuor et al., 2017), and droughts (Kim et al., 2020). Similar methods
26 160 are used to assess contributions of anthropogenic and natural factors to global climate change
27 161 (Canty et al., 2013; Lean & Rind, 2008; Stern & Kaufmann, 2014). The regression coefficients in
28 162 MLR provide conceptually simple and direct insights into the strength and direction of the
29 163 relationship between NDVI and each climate variable, which makes it easy to assess the relative
30 164 contributions of different drivers. This approach assumes predictor independence. To ensure this,
31 165 the correlation matrix is evaluated prior to analysis. The model takes the following form:

$$32 \quad \Delta V = \alpha + \beta_1 \Delta P + \beta_2 \Delta T + \beta_1 \Delta R_{sw} + \epsilon \quad (1)$$

33 167 where the Δ terms are normalized anomalies of each variable, β_i is the associated coefficient, α is
34 168 the intercept, and ϵ is the error term, and V, P, T and R_{sw} denote greenness (NDVI in this study),
35 169 precipitation, temperature, and shortwave radiation, respectively.

36 170 Anomalies are calculated as deviations from climatological means, and normalization is
37 171 achieved by dividing by the Euclidean (L2) norm. This allows each time series to be viewed as a
38 172 unit vector in multidimensional space. By evaluating the coefficients, the interannual variability
39 173 of NDVI in the study region can be attributed to its potential climate drivers.

40 174 **Empirical Orthogonal Function (EOF) Analysis**

41 175 EOF analysis is commonly used to reduce the dimensionalities of the datasets and extract the
42 176 leading modes of variability which are often assumed to relate to various physical processes
43 177 (Volkov et al., 2022). It has vast applications in environmental studies to analyze spatiotemporal
44 178 patterns of climate variables (Roundy, 2015; Tippett & L'Heureux, 2020; Werb & Rudnick, 2023;

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3 179 Zhang et al., 1997). We employ EOF analysis in this study to assess the intercorrelation between
4 180 NDVI and selected climate variables in both spatial and temporal domains. For each mode of a
5 181 climate variable, a spatial regression map (EOF_i) and the corresponding principal component (PC_i)
6 182 are generated, and they are then compared with the EOF analysis results of NDVI using different
7 183 techniques. A python package (eofs) (Dawson, 2016) is used for performing the analysis.

184 **Rain use efficiency and efficiency-based model**

11 185 Rain Use Efficiency (RUE) refers to the ratio of Aboveground Net Primary Production (ANPP) to
12 186 total precipitation, and it is an effective index for assessing ecosystem productivity of drylands (Le
13 187 Houérou, 1984). The linear relationship between ANPP and NDVI has been well studied and
14 188 established (Myneni & Williams, 1994; Holm et al., 2003; PRINCE, 2007; Rasmussen, 2010;
15 189 Wessels et al., 2006; Xue et al., 2017). Temporal integrated NDVI ($\sum NDVI$ or $iNDVI$) is found to
16 190 be a consistent proxy for ANPP (Chang et al., 2018; Dardel et al., 2014; Fensholt et al., 2013;
17 191 Kaptué et al., 2015; Paruelo et al., 1999). In this study, the temporal average NDVI (\overline{NDVI}), which
18 192 is conceptually equivalent to $iNDVI$ (only differ by a constant factor), is used for RUE calculation,

$$193 \quad RUE = \frac{\overline{NDVI}_n}{\sum_1^n P_i} \quad (2)$$

24 194 where n represents the number of months, which varies depending on the period (annual or
25 195 seasonal) for which the RUE is evaluated, and i denotes the month.

26 196 To rule out the climate influence on vegetation beyond the target period, which is often defined
27 197 as the “zero intercept” difficulty when using NDVI instead of ANPP for RUE calculation (Dardel
28 198 et al., 2014; Verón et al., 2005). A concept of baseline average NDVI (\overline{NDVI}_b) is proposed in this
29 199 study. It is assumed to be proportionate to a portion of in-situ ANPP which is not attributable to
30 200 the precipitation descended within the target period but rather to the stored soil moisture or
31 201 underground water. \overline{NDVI}_b in this study is taken as the minimum monthly mean NDVI during a
32 202 year for annual case, and the monthly mean NDVI over three non-growing season months prior to
33 203 the growing season for seasonal case. The improved RUE calculation is then expressed as below,

$$34 \quad RUE = \frac{\overline{NDVI}_n - \overline{NDVI}_b}{\sum_1^n P_i} \quad (3)$$

35 204 The regional average RUE is calculated as the ratio of pixel-wise sum of NDVI to the pixel-wise
36 205 sum of total precipitation,

$$37 \quad \overline{RUE} = \frac{\sum_1^N (\overline{NDVI}_{n,p} - \overline{NDVI}_{b,p})}{\sum_1^N \sum_1^n P_{i,p}}, \quad (4)$$

38 206 where N denotes the pixel count of the target region, and p denotes the pixel index.

39 207 Based on RUE, we proposed a efficiency-based model to reproduce the historical NDVI
40 208 interannual variability and project future conditions of CONUS drylands vegetation. This model
41 209 is adapted from an open-loop linearized model, first introduced in Wang et al., 2006, which is
42 210 established for semi-arid grassland regions in the North America to quantify the vegetation
43 211 dynamics and contribution of precipitation to local vegetation growth. With the main difference
44 212 that we aim to study vegetation change and its correlation with precipitation seasonally and
45 213 annually instead of monthly in its original work, we can safely regard that NDVI can be informed
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216 by contemporary precipitation, given the prolonged study period and transit nature of precipitation
 217 in drylands environments. The modified model has the following form,

$$218 \quad V_t = \alpha V_{b,t} + \beta P_t + \epsilon_t \quad (6)$$

219 where V_t and $V_{b,t}$ denote the temporal average NDVI and corresponding baseline NDVI, α and β
 220 denote the persistence rate of greenness and RUE, respectively, P_t is the total precipitation of
 221 interested period.

222 To account for the widely observed negative correlation between RUE and precipitation (RUE
 223 decreases as precipitation increases) (Huxman et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2020), RUE (β) in this
 224 model is calculated as the sum of its climatology value and response to precipitation anomaly (ΔP)
 225 by coefficient k , which has the following form,

$$226 \quad \beta = \beta_0 \cdot (1 + k\Delta P_t) \quad (7)$$

227 When $V_{b,t}$ is taken as its climatology value, the only independent variable in this model is annual
 228 or seasonal total precipitation.

229 **Future Projections from downscaled CMIP6 simulations**

230 The proposed efficiency-based model is in addition used for projecting the future greenness
 231 conditions of CONUS drylands, with the state-of-the-art CMIP6 climate projections as inputs
 232 (Eyring et al., 2016). WorldClim (worldclim.org) provides the latest downscaled CMIP6
 233 projections at 30 arc seconds, processed and calibrated with WorldClim v2.1 (Fick & Hijmans,
 234 2017) as baseline climate. 20-year climatology monthly precipitation predictions for the future
 235 (2021~2040) are obtained from [six](#) global climate models (GCMs), which are GFDL-ESM4
 236 MIROC6, MPI-ESM1-2-HR, EC_Earth3-Veg, UKESM1-0-LL, and CMCC-ESM2 for the
 237 boundary conditions given by the SSP370 scenario (O'Neill et al., 2016). SSP370 is specifically
 238 selected because the projection period in this study (2021-2040) is not far into the future. Because
 239 of that, we predict the trajectory of our study region, assuming that there is no major change in the
 240 environment policies for the next two decades. SSP370 is the one closest to the “business as usual”
 241 scenario among all available SSPs.

242 **Results and discussions**

243 **Inter-annual NDVI trend and relationship with climate drivers**

244 The 20-year trend analysis of annual mean NDVI in CONUS drylands (Figure 2A) reveals a
 245 predominance of non-significant trends, with the notable exception of the Northern Great Plains
 246 (NGP) region, which exhibits extensive and clustered greening. In other states, significant greening
 247 trends are fragmented and sparsely distributed. Arizona also demonstrates notable greening trends,
 248 though less pronounced than in the NGP and weaker in magnitude. Browning trends are minimal
 249 across the study area, occurring primarily at a micro-scale, with slightly higher prevalence in New
 250 Mexico and west Texas. Focusing on the NGP region, Figure 2B illustrates the growing season
 251 mean NDVI trend, revealing a larger proportion of pixels with increasing trends compared to the
 252 annual mean NDVI analysis. Figure 2C compares the time series of annual mean NDVI for all
 253 CONUS drylands with the seasonal mean NDVI of greening pixels in the NGP. As confirmed by
 254 the MK test, the annual mean NDVI of all dryland pixels shows no significant trend over the study

255 period due to the relatively small proportion of greening pixels. In contrast, within the NGP region,
 256 the seasonal mean NDVI of greening pixels exhibits a consistent and steady increasing trend
 257 despite clear interannual variability. Figure S2 shows the LC map for CONUS drylands.
 258 Grasslands dominate CONUS drylands (71%), followed by shrublands (17%), together comprising
 259 nearly 90% of the area. Greening trends are evident in 16% of the study area, concentrated
 260 primarily in the Northern Great Plains (NGP) grasslands (90% of the greening trend). Browning
 261 trends are minimal (1%).

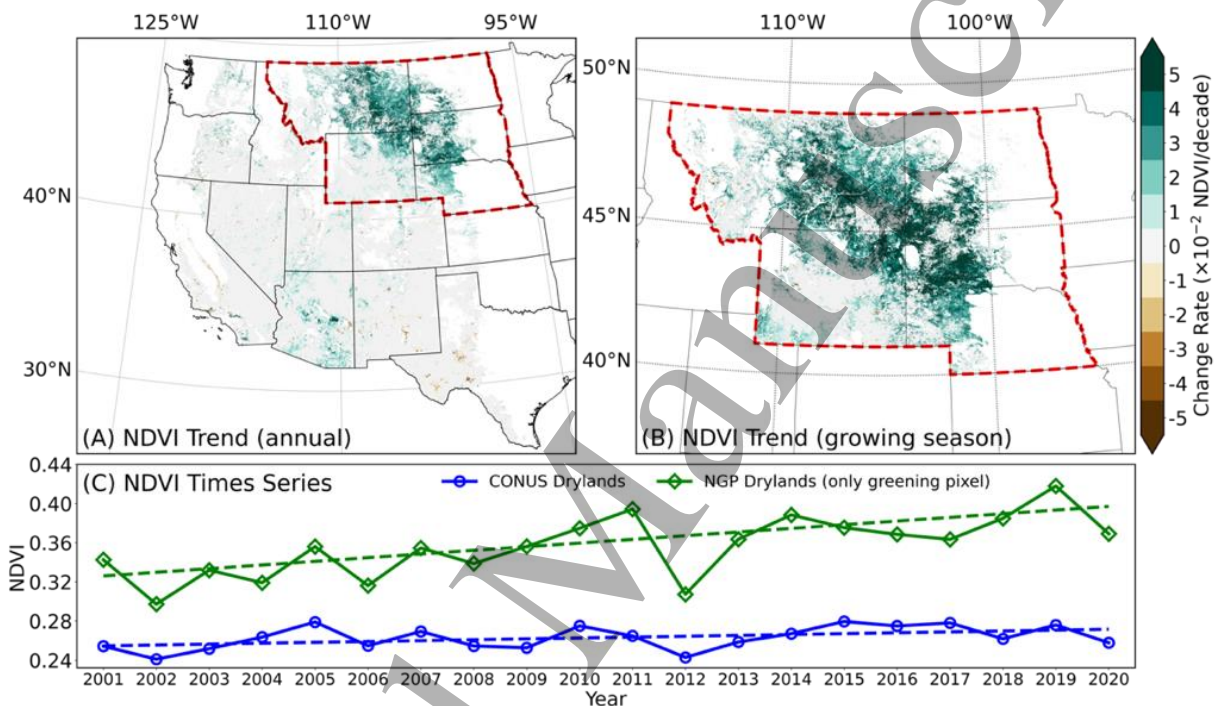


Figure 2. Results of NDVI trend analysis from 2001 to 2020. (A) Annual mean NDVI trend in CONUS drylands; (B) Growing season mean NDVI in the northern Great Plains (NGP) region; (C) Zonal-average NDVI time series for two regions of interest. The blue line represents the annual mean NDVI averaged over all pixels in CONUS drylands. The green line represents the growing season mean NDVI averaged over only greening pixels (P -value < 0.1) in NGP drylands. The dashed lines are fitted regression lines according to MK test. The green line shows significant increasing trend (P -value < 0.1). The blue line doesn't show any significant trend.

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263 Climate variables exhibit differed trends in the CONUS drylands (Figure 3). Among all three
 264 climate factors, precipitation is most strongly correlated with greening trends in CONUS drylands,
 265 especially in the NGP region. While some spatial inconsistencies exist due to differing data
 266 resolutions, the association between increased precipitation and vegetation greening is clear.
 267 Temperature shows less influence, and shortwave radiation exhibits a minor negative correlation
 268 with greening. Outside the NGP, precipitation trends are less significant, while temperature
 269 variations are observed in southern California, Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas. To understand
 270 the drivers of the significant greening trend in the Northern Great Plains (NGP), the MLR model
 271 is applied to greening pixels **only**. Analysis revealed weak but negligible correlation between

272 climate variables, validating the variable independence assumption. The model effectively
 273 reproduced observed NDVI patterns (R -squared = 0.685) (Figure S3). Table 1 shows the values of
 274 coefficients from the attribution analysis. Precipitation is the dominant driver, with a significantly
 275 larger coefficient (0.8001) compared to temperature and radiation whose coefficients are close to
 276 zero (0.0169 for T, -0.0455 for R_{sw}), indicating minimal influence on the observed NDVI
 277 interannual variability. This highlights the importance of precipitation in driving vegetation
 278 greening in the NGP. The comparison of the interannual variability of NDVI and precipitation is
 279 provided in Figure S6.

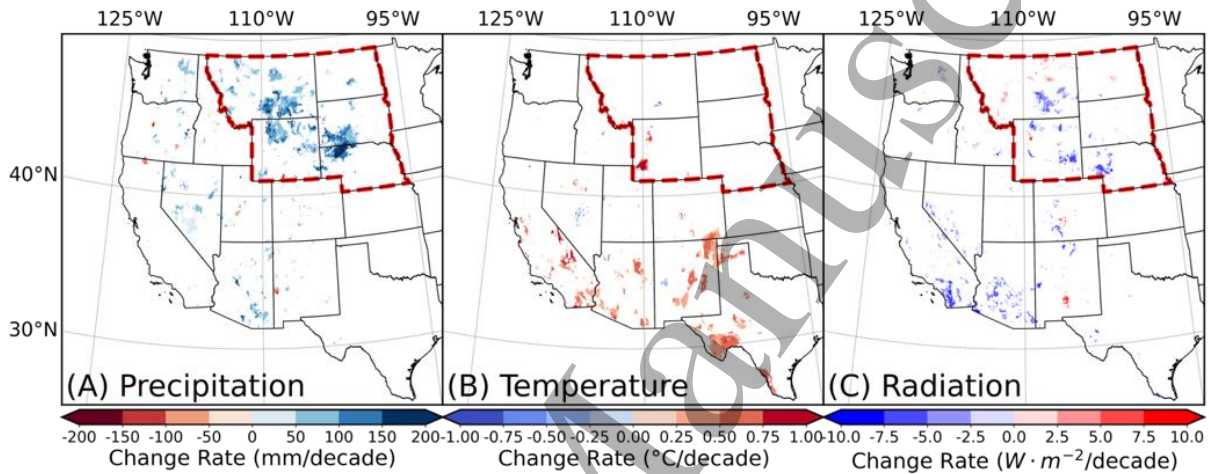


Figure 3. Trends of climate variables from 2001 to 2020. (A) Annual total precipitation; (B) Daily maximum temperature; (C) Shortwave radiation flux density.

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Table 1. Results of the empirical linear attribution model

Coefficient	Value	P-value
α	<0.01	1
β_1	0.8001	0.037
β_2	0.0169	0.939
β_3	-0.0455	0.877

Note: α is the intercept term in the MLR model. Its close-to-zero value indicates the selected climate variables explain the most variability in NDVI anomalies. β_1 , β_2 and β_3 are coefficients corresponding to anomalies of precipitation, temperature and shortwave radiation.

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283 EOF analysis was conducted to further investigate the relationship between precipitation and
 284 NDVI in the NGP region, following the attribution model results. Figure 4 shows the EOF analysis.
 285 The first two EOF modes of both precipitation and NDVI capture the majority of the variance
 286 (72.7% and 69.8%, respectively), exhibiting similar spatial patterns and a high correlation
 287 ($\rho=0.849$) between their principal components (PCs). This confirms that interannual variability in
 288 seasonal NDVI is primarily driven by local precipitation, with no lagged effects. The first EOF

289 mode for each variable also aligns with the spatial patterns observed in the trend analysis. The
 290 second EOF modes, while still highly correlated ($\rho=0.809$), reveal a latitudinal gradient in both
 291 precipitation and NDVI, suggesting the influence of other latitude-dependent climate factors on
 292 plant growth. However, the direct driver remains precipitation. From the third mode onwards,
 293 spatial correlations decrease significantly. The third EOF modes for precipitation and NDVI
 294 present similar regional clusters. This might indicate a weak topographic link between
 295 precipitation and NDVI variability at finer spatial scales.

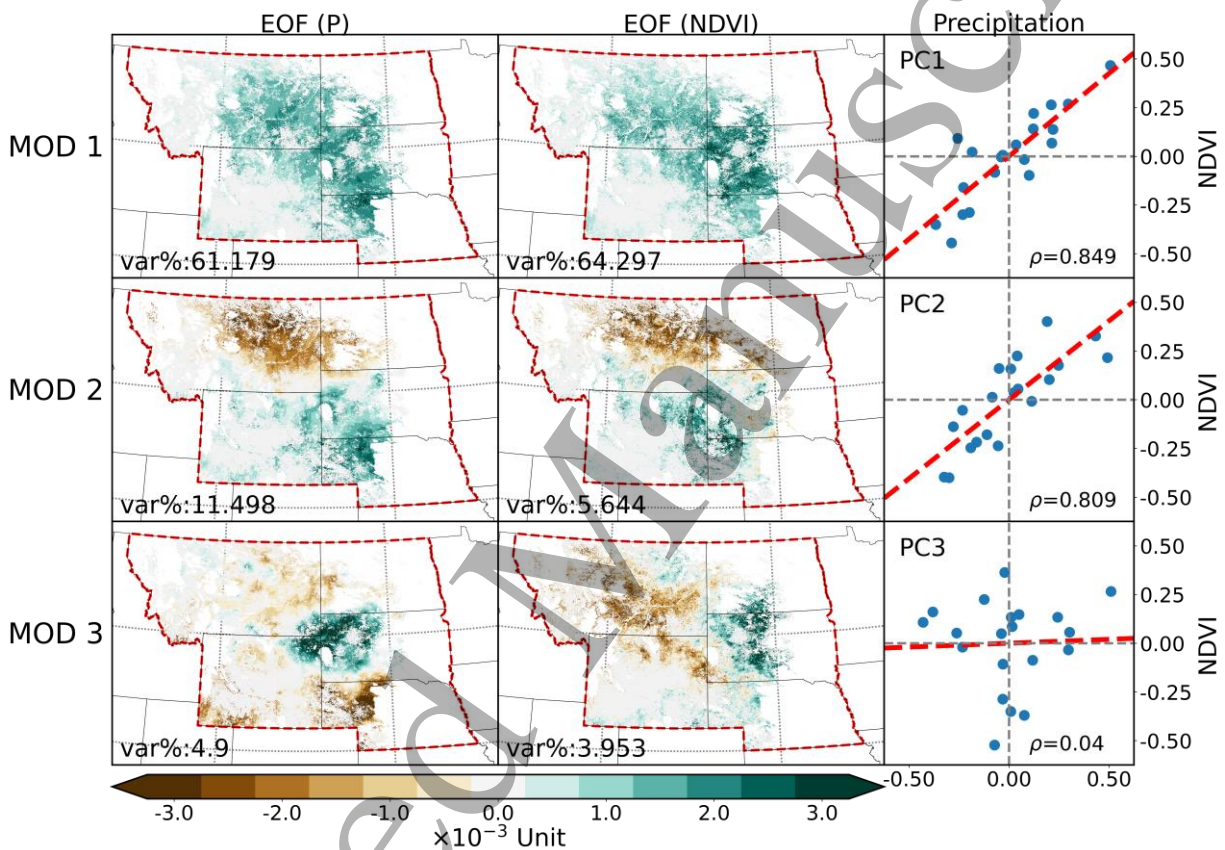


Figure 4. EOF analysis of seasonal precipitation and NDVI anomalies from 2001 to 2020. Only the results of the first three leading modes (EOF) and corresponding principal components (PC) for each variable are presented. The first two columns present the EOFs, and the third column presents the comparison of corresponding PCs.

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297 Based on the combination of historical precipitation records and earth observations (EOs),
 298 precipitation in CONUS drylands is surely experiencing spatial shifting. Precipitation has become
 299 more unevenly distributed over the two-decade study period. Water availability in northern states,
 300 especially the NGP region, are progressively improved as the result of increase in precipitation,
 301 which theoretically increases the capacity of corresponding area to sustain denser and higher-level
 302 vegetation communities. In contrast, water scarcity for vegetation growth is expected to intensify
 303 in the southern states, including southern California, Arizona, New Mexico, and western Texas,
 304 mainly due to the widely observed increase in air temperature (Wahl et al., 2022; Zhuang et al.,

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3 305 2024). The local potential evapotranspiration becomes even higher because of the elevated vapor-
4 306 pressure deficit (VPD) (Swain et al., 2025), which strengthens the water constraint on local plant
5 307 growth.

8 308 **Rain use efficiency patterns and CO₂ fertilization effect**

9 309 Analysis reveals a significant linear relationship between precipitation and NDVI in our study
10 310 regions over the two-decade period, evident from both annual (Appendix S4&S5) and
11 311 climatological perspectives (Figure 5A&B). Strong correlations (exceeding 0.6) between
12 312 climatological NDVI and precipitation suggest a stable long-term mean RUE, around which yearly
13 313 values fluctuate. The wide shading areas (one standard deviation interval) in Figure 5C highlight
14 314 substantial spatial variation in RUE, likely due to varying species composition and local
15 315 environmental factors. Despite this variability, MK tests detect no significant RUE trends from
16 316 2001 to 2020 at the aggregated spatial scale (Figure 5C). Per-pixel trend analysis of RUE reveals
17 317 greater spatial variation. While most pixels show no trend (Figure 6A), a significant number in the
18 318 NGP region exhibit increasing annual mean RUE, largely coinciding with areas of increasing
19 319 precipitation and NDVI. Although spatial discrepancies exist, annual and seasonal RUE trends in
20 320 this region show broad similarity (Figure 6A&B). Notably, clusters of increasing seasonal RUE
21 321 are concentrated further downstream along the Missouri River, compared to annual RUE. Outside
22 322 the NGP region, increasing RUE is sparsely distributed, primarily along the 40°N latitude. Further
23 323 south, declining RUE becomes more prevalent, particularly in southern California bordering
24 324 Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas. This pattern of decline spatially overlay the increasing
25 325 temperature trends in Figure 3B.

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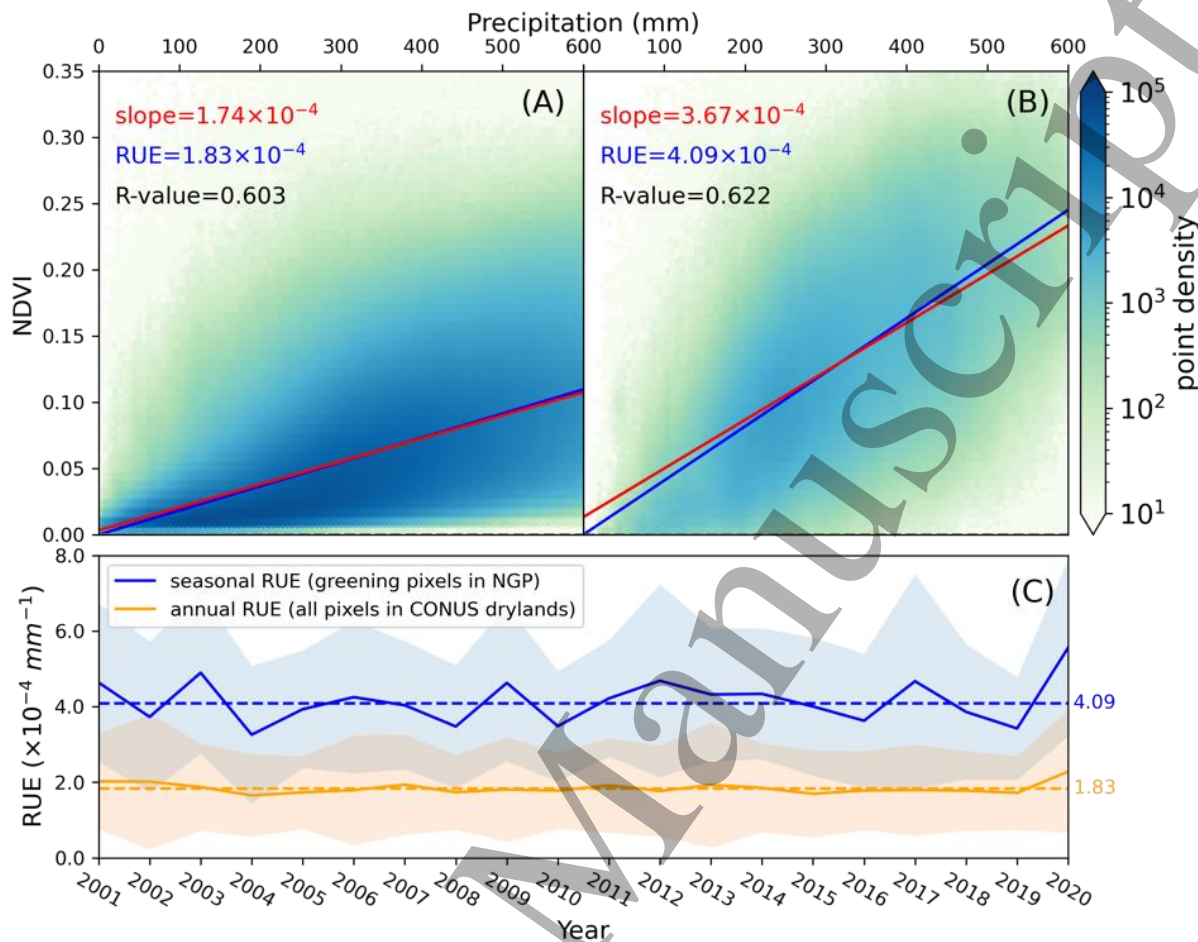


Figure 5. Rain use efficiency in the CONUS drylands and NGP region. (A) Scatter plot of climatology annual mean NDVI against annual total precipitation (ATP) in the CONUS drylands; (B) scatter plot of climatology growing season mean NDVI against growing season total precipitation for greening pixels only in the NGP region; (C) time series comparison of yearly annual mean RUE in CONUS drylands (orange line) and seasonal mean RUE in the NGP region (blue line, greening pixels only). The shading represents one standard deviation interval for each line. No trend is detected for both RUE time series by MK test ($\alpha=0.1$).

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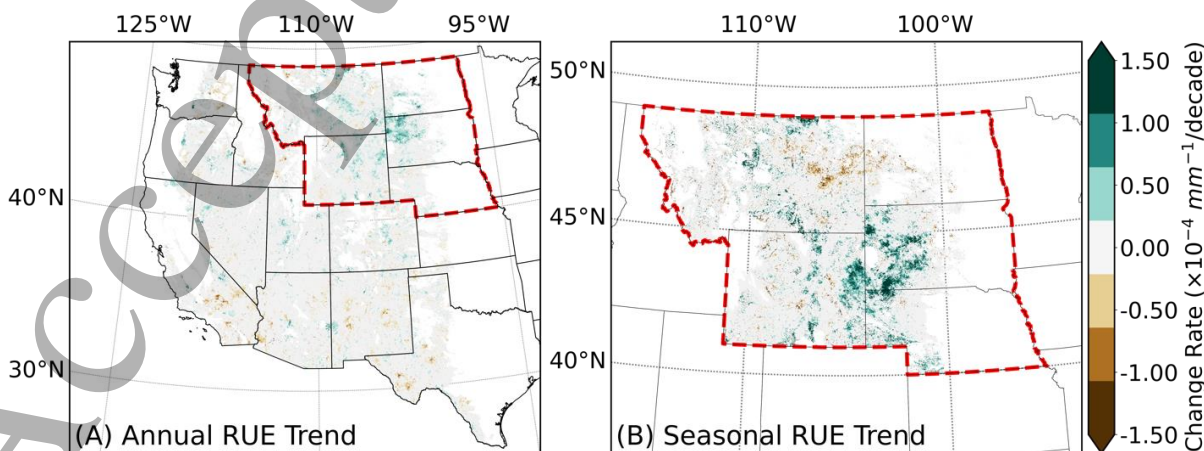


Figure 6. Per-pixel rain use efficiency trend analysis results. (A) Trend of annual mean RUE in the CONUS drylands; (B) Trend of seasonal mean RUE in the NGP region.

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328 While a negative relationship between precipitation and RUE is often observed due to reduced
 329 water limitation (Huxman et al., 2004; Chen et al., 2020), the NGP region exhibits a contrasting
 330 pattern of increasing RUE alongside increasing precipitation. This suggests factors beyond simple
 331 water availability are at play. In drylands, high potential evapotranspiration and sparse vegetation
 332 can limit the translation of increased precipitation into significant improved plant growth (and
 333 RUE) (Zhu et al., 2022). A growing body of research has revealed the large-scale CO₂ fertilization
 334 effect (CFE) in drylands (Rifai et al., 2022; Verbruggen et al., 2024; Uddin et al., 2018). It has
 335 been commonly accepted that CFE increases water use efficiency (WUE) through reducing
 336 stomatal conductance (Haverd et al., 2020). This phenomenon is expected to be more prominent
 337 in water limited areas, such as drylands, as local vegetation tends to save water while maintaining
 338 the level of photosynthesis. The observed RUE increase in the NGP region (Figure 6A&B) also
 339 points towards the CO₂ fertilization effect as a key driver (Zhang et al., 2022; Gonsamo et al.,
 340 2021). The potential CO₂ fertilization effect in cool grasslands is echoing findings in Winkler et
 341 al., 2021. However, in contrast to expected large-scale decrease in RUE across CONUS drylands
 342 due to CFE, Figure 6A&B show that significant decreases in RUE are limited to areas with
 343 concurrent increases in precipitation (Figure 8C and Figure 9A). This highlights the complex
 344 interplay between water availability and CO₂ fertilization in driving vegetation dynamics in
 345 response to climate change in drylands.

346 If specifically considering the role of plant transpiration in RUE calculation, Eq. 2 can be re-
 347 rewritten as follow,

$$348 \quad \text{RUE} = \frac{\overline{\text{NDVI}}}{\sum P} = \frac{\overline{\text{NDVI}}}{\sum E_T} \cdot \frac{\sum E_T}{\sum P} \quad (6)$$

349 The increase in atmospheric CO₂ concentration affects plant growth in two major ways, reducing
 350 stomata conductance ($\frac{\sum E_T}{\sum P}$) by shortening the duration of stomata opening and stimulating vegetation
 351 cover ($\frac{\overline{\text{NDVI}}}{\sum E_T}$). Zhang et al., 2022 concluded that the increase in sensitivity of dryland vegetation
 352 greenness to precipitation is mainly because the stimulation effect overrides the decline in $\frac{\partial E_T}{\partial P}$ in
 353 those ecosystems. In our study region, except the NGP region, the simulation effect is limited as
 354 indicated by the relatively unchanged NDVI. The water use efficiency ($\frac{\overline{\text{NDVI}}}{\sum E_T}$) of local plants may
 355 have increased so that it compensates for the decrease in stomata conductance, but not to the point
 356 where the RUE also shows significant changes.

357 The above explanation assumes that vegetation in drylands aims to maximize water use
 358 efficiency (WUE) and that CFE suppresses stomatal conductance, consistent with the traditional
 359 optimality theory of plants (Cowan & Farquhar, 1977). However, Wolf et al. (2016) propose that
 360 under conditions of intense water competition—driven by high evaporative demand and
 361 competition from neighboring plants—a more evolutionarily advantageous strategy for plants may
 362 be to prioritize maximizing growth rate by increasing stomatal conductance, even at the cost of
 363 reduced WUE. The absence of a large-scale increase in resource use efficiency (RUE) and the

364 spatially correlated increase in RUE with precipitation in the NGP region (Figure 6A&B) may
 365 reflect this theory at the ecosystem scale. This suggests that alleviating water limitations could be
 366 a prerequisite for dryland ecosystems to fully benefit from elevated CO₂ concentrations. To reach
 367 a decisive conclusion requires a thorough quantitative analysis of the long-term stomatal behavior
 368 of local vegetation, accounting for the plant hydraulic stress imposed by scarce soil moisture in
 369 drylands.

370 The similarity in the spatial distributions of the decreasing RUE and increasing temperature
 371 patterns observed in the southern states implies their physiological connections. The influence of
 372 temperature on RUE is complicated, as optimum temperature ranges exist for all biomes, in which
 373 vegetation balances its carbonate production and water loss through stomata. Drylands in southern
 374 states are characterized by excessive temperature and dry environments. Increasing temperature in
 375 water limited region strengthens the need for plant to preserve water through further reducing the
 376 stomata conductance. As a result, the intercellular CO₂ concentration won't always be as high as
 377 atmospheric CO₂ concentration, which reduces $\frac{NDVI}{\Sigma E_T}$. The combined effect of intensified reduction
 378 of $\frac{\Sigma E_T}{\Sigma P}$ and further limited $\frac{NDVI}{\Sigma E_T}$ entails the observed decrease in RUE in southern states.

379 **Modeling and projections**

380 The proposed model aims to quantify the interannual variability of NDVI in CONUS drylands
 381 using precipitation as the sole independent variable. Model performance is evaluated across both
 382 temporal and spatial domains. We first use the model to reproduce the time series of observed
 383 spatial-average NDVI for two regions: the NGP (using growing season mean NDVI) and the entire
 384 CONUS drylands (using annual mean NDVI). As presented in Table 2, there are 61888211 and
 385 16742453 valid pixels in total used for parameter estimation in two different cases. Their
 386 respective R-squared values are 0.721 and 0.859, indicating good model fit. The estimated
 387 climatological RUE (β_0) (Table 2) closely match values derived directly from the data (Figure 5C).
 388 Figure 7 further demonstrates strong agreement between observed and modeled spatial-average
 389 NDVI times series over time. The model effectively reproduces the spatial-average NDVI time
 390 series in both regions, exhibiting high R² values (0.825 for NGP and 0.9 for CONUS), low RMSE
 391 (0.014 and 0.004), and low NRMSE (0.125 and 0.112). These results confirm the model's ability
 392 to capture the temporal dynamics of NDVI. To assess the model's ability to capture spatial
 393 heterogeneity, we applied it at the pixel level across the entire study region (Figure 8). R-squared
 394 values exceed 0.5 for most pixels (Figure 8A). After excluding pixels with insufficient data or
 395 invalid parameters, the relative error between modeled and observed climatological annual mean
 396 NDVI remains below 10% for most areas, with some overestimation (around 10%) observed in
 397 the NGP region (Figure 8B). Overall, the proposed model demonstrates robust performance in
 398 capturing the interannual variability of NDVI in CONUS drylands, both temporally and spatially,
 399 underscoring the critical role of water availability in driving vegetation dynamics.

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Table 2. Modeling results in two study regions

Results	Region	
	NGP	CONUS
# of pixels	16742453	61888211
R ²	0.721	0.859
Intercept	-0.009	-0.011
α	0.966	1.037
k	-2.620×10^{-7}	-7.220×10^{-8}
β_0	4.721×10^{-4}	1.970×10^{-4}

Note: α , k, and β_0 in the above table are estimated parameters, representing the persistence rate of greenness, the sensitivity of RUE to precipitation anomaly, and climatology RUE

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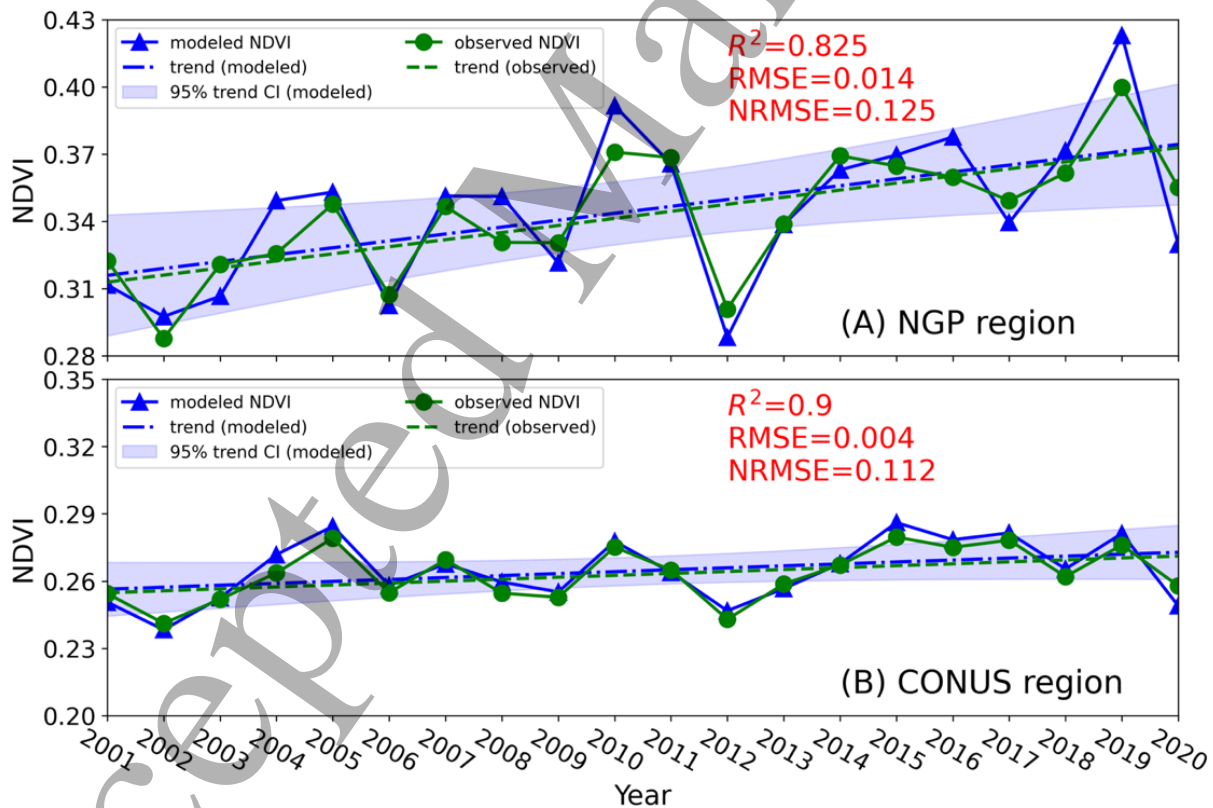


Figure 7. Comparison of observed and modeled NDVI interannual variability in (A) NGP and (B) CONUS dryland regions. The trend lines for observed and modeled NDVI, as estimated through linear regression in both panels, exhibit a high degree of overlap. Significant increasing trends are detected in both observed and modeled in (A) by MK test. No significant trends are detected in (B) by MK test.

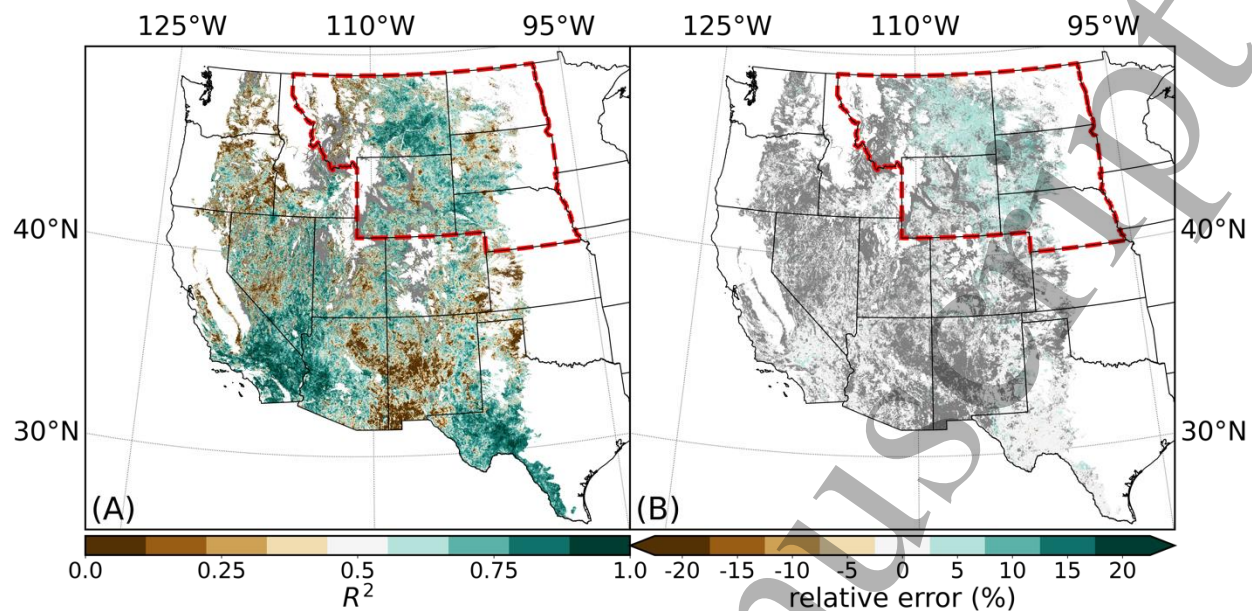
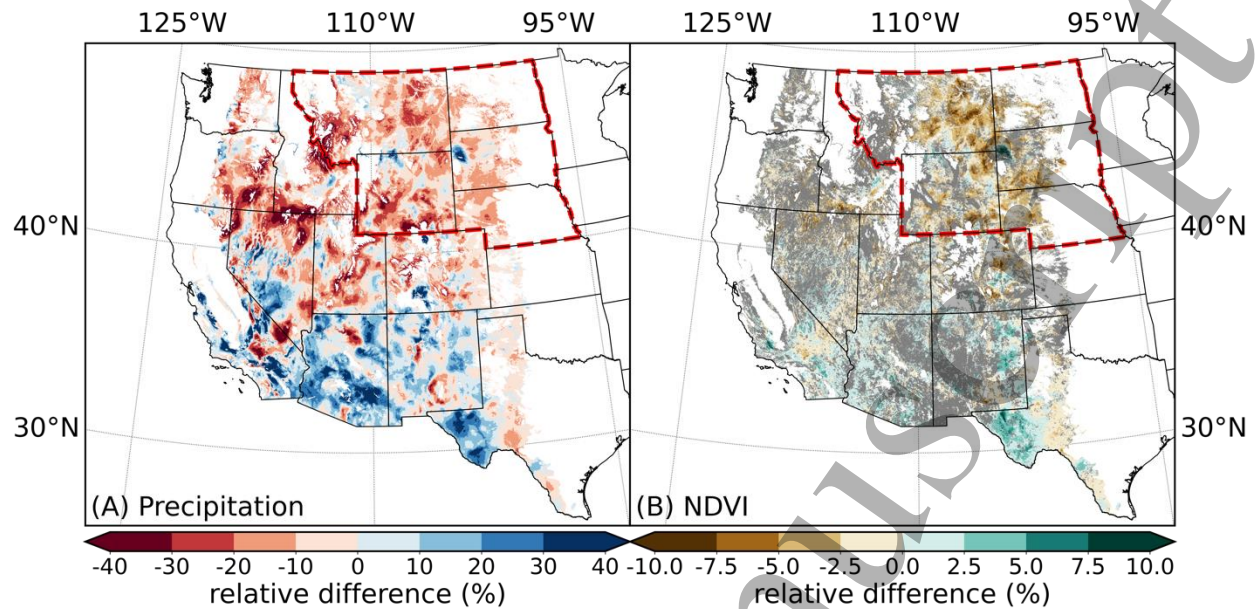


Figure 8. Per-pixel modeling results in the CONUS drylands. (A) presents the coefficient of determination (R^2) at each pixel; (B) presents the relative error between observed and modeled climatology annual mean NDVI (2001~2020) in percentage. Shaded area (gray) in (A) represents masked pixels which have less than 15 valid NDVI observations out of 20 years. Shaded area (gray) in (B) represents masked pixels that combine the shaded area in (A) and pixels with R^2 lower than 0.5 or negative estimated β_0 (RUE).

The model's success in reproducing observed NDVI patterns validates its utility for understanding and predicting vegetation responses to precipitation variability, particularly in light of future CMIP6 projections that indicate a potential reversal of recent greening trends. These projections, based on averaging predictions from six different models (GFDL-ESM4 MIROC6, MPI-ESM1-2-HR, EC_Earth3-Veg, UKESM1-0-LL, and CMCC-ESM2) under the SSP370 scenario, show a widespread decrease in climatological annual total precipitation (ATP) of approximately 20% in the NGP region (Figure 9A), with corresponding declines in NDVI of up to 10% (Figure 9B). This potential browning trend, contrasting with the observed greening, could have significant implications for ecosystem services and carbon sequestration in the NGP and Midwest. While some southern states may experience localized vegetation increases due to increased precipitation, the limited extent of these areas underscores the overall vulnerability of CONUS drylands to future climate change.



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423 Figure 9. Relative differences between (A) climatology annual total precipitation of the study
 424 period (2001~2020) and CMIP6 climatology projection (2021~2040), and (B) climatology NDVI
 425 of the study period and projected NDVI estimated by per-pixel model, using CMIP6 climatology
 426 precipitation projection (2021~2040) as input. Shaded area (gray) in (B) represents masked pixels
 427 in Figure 8B. CMIP6 climatology precipitation projection is taken as the average of precipitation
 428 simulations of different GCMs under SSP370 scenario.

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430 It is important to acknowledge that these projections rely on simplified assumptions and do not
 431 account for potential shifts in vegetation communities or factors like CO₂ fertilization. While
 432 demonstrating strong predictive power, the model's reliance on precipitation as the sole predictor
 433 also highlights a potential limitation. Future research could incorporate additional variables, such
 434 as temperature and soil moisture, to enhance its accuracy and applicability.

435 Conclusion

436 This study utilizes 20-year MODIS NDVI data and high-resolution meteorological data (1-km) to
 437 analyze long-term vegetation changes in conterminous United States (CONUS) drylands and their
 438 responses to climate variability. We find substantial greening trends across the Northern Great
 439 Plains (NGP) from 2001 to 2020, primarily driven by increased precipitation. Temperature and
 440 shortwave radiation exert secondary influences on NDVI by modulating local precipitation
 441 patterns. While rising CO₂ appears to enhance RUE in NGP region where increase trends of
 442 precipitation is also present, decreases in RUE across southern states correlate with rising
 443 temperatures, highlighting the complex interplay of climate factors on vegetation. Although CO₂
 444 fertilization effect (CFE) is expected to promote vegetation growth in drylands by enhancing
 445 water-use efficiency, the extent of this effect depends on local environmental conditions,
 446 particularly water availability, which is in contrast with large-scale CFE in drylands concluded in

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3 447 studies using coarser resolution products. These discrepancies also suggest the important role of
4 448 stomatal behavior in understanding the adaptation of vegetation in drylands to changing climate.
5 449 Our efficiency-based model effectively quantifies NDVI variability, emphasizing the critical role
6 450 of water availability in dryland ecosystems. However, CMIP6-based projections using this model
7 451 suggest potential future browning in the NGP region and areas near 42°N latitude, contrasting with
8 452 recent greening trends. This underscores the vulnerability of these ecosystems to future climate
9 453 change, although adaptive capacity and human interventions may modulate these outcomes. Our
10 454 findings highlight the need for adaptive management strategies to mitigate potential negative
11 455 impacts on dryland vegetation and emphasize the importance of incorporating additional factors
12 456 into future models for enhanced accuracy.
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18 458 **Competing Interests**

19 459 The authors declare no conflict of interests.
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