

1 **The potential of an increased deciduous forest fraction to mitigate the effects of heat extremes in**  
2 **Europe**

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11  
12 **Abstract**

13 Deciduous forests are characterized by a higher albedo, a reduced stomatal resistance and a deeper  
14 root system in comparison to coniferous forests. As a consequence, less solar radiation is absorbed  
15 and evapotranspiration is potentially increased, making an increase in the deciduous forest fraction  
16 potentially a promising measure to mitigate the burdens of heat extremes for humans and nature. We  
17 analyze this potential by means of an idealized 30 years long regional climate model experiment, in  
18 which all coniferous forests in Europe are replaced by deciduous forests and compared to a simulation  
19 using the actual forest composition.

20 Results show that an increase in the deciduous forest fraction reduces the heat intensity during heat  
21 periods in most regions of Europe. In mean, a slight reduction of the daily maximum 2 m temperatures  
22 about 0.2 K is simulated locally, and 0.1 K non-locally during heat periods. Regions with a high cooling  
23 potential are south-western France and northern Turkey, where heat period intensities are reduced  
24 up to 1 K. Warming effects are simulated in Scandinavia and Eastern Europe.

25 Although the cooling effect on heat period intensities is statistically significant over large parts of  
26 Europe, the magnitude of the temperature reduction is small. An increase in the deciduous forest  
27 fraction has consequently only a limited potential to reduce heat period intensities in Europe and can  
28 therefore only be considered as a supporting mitigation measure to complement more effective  
29 mitigation strategies.

## 36 **1. Introduction**

37 More frequent and more intense heat periods constitute one of the most serious impacts of  
38 anthropogenic climate change in Europe (Seneviratne et al., 2021). Since the 1950s, the number of  
39 days with extreme heat has tripled and the intensity of heat extremes has increased about 2,3 K in  
40 Europe (Lorenz et al., 2019). Although the intensities and characteristics of heat extremes depend on  
41 the applied heat extreme indices (Becker et al., 2022), the results of the latest CMIP6 projections  
42 indicate that this trend will further continue within the next decades (Li et al., 2021). The resulting heat  
43 stress will entail enormous burdens for humans and nature. Therefore, in order to minimize future  
44 heat extreme impacts, effective mitigation strategies will be required.

45 In this context, one of the most frequently debated mitigation strategies to man-made climate change  
46 is afforestation (e.g. Sonntag et al., 2016; Harper et al., 2018). Forests actively remove CO<sub>2</sub> from the  
47 atmosphere and store the carbon long-term in their biomass (Pan et al., 2011). Thus, afforestation has  
48 a beneficial biogeochemical effect on the greenhouse effect. Furthermore, the capability of forests to  
49 transpire water is higher than for other vegetation types (Bonan, 2008). A larger part of the available  
50 energy at the surface can consequently be transformed into latent heat instead of heating up the land  
51 surface (Strandberg & Kjellström, 2019).

52 Beyond these beneficial effects on the local surface energy balance, afforestation can also affect  
53 climate conditions non-locally (Winckler et al., 2019). For instance, Meier et al., (2021) showed that  
54 forests increase downwind precipitation in most regions of Europe, partially counteracting the  
55 projected precipitation decrease from climate change. Afforestation is therefore an indispensable  
56 component of all shared socio-economic pathways (SSPs) to reach the target of the Paris agreement  
57 to keep the rise in mean global temperature well below 2 K above pre-industrial levels (Roe et al.,  
58 2019).

59 However, the efficiency of afforestation as a mitigation strategy strongly depends on the planted forest  
60 type (Jackson et al., 2008; Anderson et al., 2011). For instance, deciduous forests are brighter than  
61 coniferous forests (e.g. Breuer et al., 2003; Jackson et al., 2008; Otto et al., 2014). Thus, less solar  
62 radiation is absorbed and the energy input into the climate system is reduced. Moreover, deciduous  
63 forests are characterized by a deeper root system (e.g. Canadell et al., 1996) and a reduced stomatal  
64 resistance (Breuer et al., 2003; Carnicer et al., 2013). As a consequence, deciduous forests are able to  
65 extract water from deeper soil layers and the available amount of soil water for evapotranspiration is  
66 increased, reducing the water stress particularly during heat periods (e.g. Brinkmann et al., 2019). Due  
67 to the reduced stomatal resistance of deciduous forest, the release of this additional water amount  
68 into the atmosphere via transpiration is facilitated and surface temperatures are reduced. The general  
69 effects of different forest types on the climate conditions are already documented (e.g. Duveiller et  
70 al., 2018; Luysaert et al., 2018). For instance, using a statistical model based on remote sensing data,

71 Schwaab et al., (2020) concluded that deciduous forests have an increased cooling effect on heat  
72 extremes in comparison to coniferous forests.

73 However, the current composition of European forests is dominated by coniferous trees (Bartholome  
74 & Belward, 2005), due to forestry reasons. The composition of primary European forests is different  
75 and depends on the regional conditions. In boreal and mountainous regions, cold and wet climate  
76 conditions cause a leaching and acidification of soils, favoring the dominant establishment of cold-  
77 tolerant coniferous trees (Bohn et al., 2000). Otherwise, primary European forests are mainly  
78 characterized by large deciduous tree fractions, like beech (Bohn et al., 2000). After humans started to  
79 cultivate landscapes in the course of the Holocene, European forests were extensively cleared for  
80 croplands, timber and firewood (Kaplan et al., 2009), particularly during the medieval period (Pongratz  
81 et al., 2008). As a consequence, the forest cover on usable land for agriculture declined to under 6 %  
82 in central and western Europe in the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century (Kaplan et al., 2009). The resulting scarcity of  
83 timber and firewood made the management of forests necessary, which led to an intensive plantation  
84 of coniferous trees (McGrath et al., 2015). The persistent cold climate conditions of the so-called “little  
85 ice age” during this period, and the high yields of coniferous trees, favored their cultivation in Europe.  
86 This yield-orientation is still driving forest management today (Ceccherini et al., 2020), and is the  
87 reason why today primary forests cover only 0.7 % of Europe’s forest area (Sabatini et al., 2021).

88 The resulting high proportion of coniferous trees in today’s European forests and the associated dark  
89 vegetation surface has the consequence that comparatively large amounts of solar radiation are  
90 absorbed, and a relatively lower fraction of this available energy amount is transformed into latent  
91 heat. The energy balance of European forests is consequently not ideal, potentially increasing the  
92 intensity and duration of heat extremes. Therefore, a potential strategy to optimize this energy  
93 balance, and thus, to mitigate hot temperature extremes in Europe is an increase in the broadleaf tree  
94 fraction in European forests. The goal of this study is to investigate this mitigation potential and  
95 quantify its effects in an idealized setup.

96 For this purpose, we designed an idealized multidecadal modeling experiment, in which the whole  
97 coniferous forest fraction in Europe is replaced by deciduous forest. In order to simulate the complex  
98 effects of such a forest replacement on the regional climate system as accurately as possible, a regional  
99 climate model (RCM) is applied, by which global reanalysis data are downscaled over Europe. The  
100 results of this RCM simulation are compared with the results of a reference simulation, in which the  
101 actual composition of European forests is used. By means of this idealized modeling experiment, we  
102 are able to quantify the general potential effect of an increase in the deciduous forest fraction on heat  
103 extreme characteristics in Europe. The design of the modeling experiment is described in section 2. In  
104 section 3, the general potential effect of an optimized composition of European forests on the intensity

105 (section 3.1) and duration (section 3.2) of heat periods is assessed. Results are discussed in section 4  
106 and conclusions are drawn in section 5.

107

## 108 2. Methods

109 In the course of this study, the regional climate model COSMO-CLM (CCLM, Rockel et al., 2008) is two-  
110 way coupled to the Land Surface Model VEG3D (Breil & Schädler, 2021) and used to simulate the  
111 effects of an increased deciduous forest fraction on heat extremes in Europe. The CCLM-VEG3D runs  
112 are performed for the Coordinated Downscaling Experiment – European Domain (EURO-CORDEX;  
113 Jacob et al., 2014) on a horizontal resolution of 0.11° (~12.5 km). All simulations were driven by ERA5  
114 reanalyses (Hersbach et al., 2020) at the lateral boundaries and the lower boundary over sea. The  
115 simulation period is 1986–2015 and a spin-up of 7 years was performed before 1986.

116 In the first simulation, yearly updated maps of the actual land cover conditions in Europe are  
117 implemented in CCLM-VEG3D (Fig. 1a). This experiment constitutes the reference simulation (REF).  
118 The applied land use maps were developed in the framework of the Land Use and Climate Across Scales  
119 (LUCAS) project (Davin et al., 2020), based on the European Space Agency Climate Change Initiative  
120 Land Cover (ESA-CCI LC) dataset (ESA, 2017). Changes in the land use cover during the simulation  
121 period were derived from the Land-Use Harmonization 2 (LUH2) dataset (Hurtt et al., 2020). A detailed  
122 description of the method, by which this land use dataset was created, can be found in Hoffmann et  
123 al., (2022a).

124 Since in VEG3D only the dominant land use class in a grid cell is considered, land use changes are only  
125 taking place in CCLM-VEG3D if the dominant land use class in a grid cell is changing. In addition, the  
126 vegetation characteristics of different deciduous tree species (e.g. beech, oak, etc.) and different  
127 coniferous tree species (pine, spruce, etc.) are all combined in one representative forest class,  
128 respectively. This means that for the different vegetation parameters, describing the characteristics of  
129 these different tree species, the mean values over the parameter space of the respective deciduous  
130 and coniferous trees are used. In CCLM-VEG3D, therefore, only one deciduous forest class and one  
131 coniferous forest class are considered (see table 1). In this context, for the deciduous forest class, only  
132 deciduous broadleaved trees are considered, while in the coniferous forest class, only evergreen  
133 needleleaved trees are included. Evergreen broadleaved trees (e.g., Mediterranean oaks) or deciduous  
134 needleleaved trees (e.g. larch) are consequently not considered. This approach is associated with a  
135 certain degree of uncertainty, since the parameter spaces of deciduous and coniferous trees have a  
136 certain overlap (e.g. Wright et al., 2005, van Bodegom et al., 2012). This means that the characteristics  
137 of several deciduous tree species and several coniferous tree species do show a high level of  
138 agreement. However, we assume in our approach that in general the parameter similarity is higher  
139 within the respective deciduous and coniferous tree classes than between the two classes (e.g. Gitay

140 & Noble, 1997). The averaged parameter values of deciduous and coniferous trees can consequently  
141 be used to differentiate between the general characteristics of these tree species. Therefore, the usage  
142 of two representative forest classes in this study is assumed to be suitable to investigate the general  
143 effects of deciduous and coniferous trees on heat period characteristics.

144 In the second simulation, all grid cells covered with coniferous forests in REF are replaced by deciduous  
145 forests (DECID, Fig. 1b). As a consequence, deciduous forests in this simulation are located in regions,  
146 in which their growth is ecologically limited to some extent (e.g. Högberg et al., 2017). For instance,  
147 broadleaved deciduous forests have generally high nitrogen needs. However, soils are generally  
148 nitrogen-poor in boreal regions, explaining why the ecological conditions are not optimal for the  
149 growth of deciduous forests, and only deciduous tree species with low nitrogen demands are naturally  
150 growing, like birch or poplar. Therefore, coniferous trees have a naturally high proportion in boreal  
151 forests. However, these ecological limitations of an increased deciduous forest cover fraction are not  
152 considered in this idealized sensitivity study, the focus is only on the potential climatological effects.

153 By comparing the results of this idealized DECID simulation with the results of the REF simulation the  
154 general potential effect of an increase in the deciduous forest fraction on the intensity and duration of  
155 heat periods in Europe is assessed. In order to quantify changes in the heat period intensities, days  
156 above the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile of the daily maximum temperatures in 2 m height in summer (JJA) are  
157 analyzed. In this context, we define the heat period intensities as the mean daily maximum 2 m  
158 temperature for these warmest 10 % of summer days, and compare these mean values for DECID and  
159 REF with each other. Changes in the duration of heat periods in both simulations are quantified by  
160 counting the number of days, in which the daily maximum 2 m temperature exceeds the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile  
161 of daily maximum temperatures in REF over at least three consecutive days (Russo et al., 2015). The  
162 analyzed processes are separated in local effects; changes in the climate conditions in grid cells with  
163 an increase in the deciduous forest fraction, which are directly caused by changes in the surface energy  
164 balance, and non-local effects; changes in the climate conditions in grid cells with no increase in the  
165 deciduous forest fraction, which are only indirectly caused by changes in the surface energy balance.

166

### 167 **3. Results**

#### 168 **3.1 Heat Period Intensity**

##### 169 **3.1.1 Local Effects**

170 We first analyze the local effects of an increased deciduous forest fraction on heat period intensities.  
171 Fig. 2a shows the local changes in the net short-wave radiation for the regions, in which coniferous  
172 forests were replaced by deciduous forests. Net short-wave radiation is in all these regions reduced,  
173 due to the increased albedo of deciduous forests in comparison to coniferous forests. Thus, less  
174 radiative energy is locally available at the land surface. At the same time, in central and southern

175 Europe, the latent heat fluxes of deciduous forests are increased (Fig. 2b) and the sensible heat fluxes  
176 are reduced (Fig. 2c). This indicates that, in a deciduous forest in central and southern Europe, the  
177 radiative energy input during heat periods is reduced and a larger part of this reduced available energy  
178 at the surface is additionally used for evapotranspiration instead of heating up the land surface. During  
179 heat periods, the replacement of coniferous forests with deciduous forests leads consequently to a  
180 local reduction of the daily maximum 2 m temperatures, and thus the heat period intensities (Fig. 2d).  
181 In northern Europe, or more precisely in the northern part of Scandinavia, this is not the case. In this  
182 region, a warming of the mean daily 2 m temperatures during heat periods is simulated with an  
183 increase in the deciduous forest fraction. This warming effect is directly caused by a reduction of the  
184 evapotranspiration rates in Scandinavia (Fig. 2b).

185 During heat periods, different evapotranspiration responses to an increase of the deciduous forest  
186 fraction are caused by a different weighting of opposing vegetation characteristics of deciduous and  
187 coniferous forests. On the one hand, the stomatal resistance of a deciduous forest is reduced in  
188 comparison to a coniferous forest (see table 1), and transpiration through the leaf stomata is  
189 facilitated. Furthermore, the root system of deciduous forests reaches deeper than of coniferous  
190 forests (table 1). Therefore, deciduous forests are able to extract water from deeper soil layers. The  
191 available amount of soil water for evapotranspiration is consequently increased during phases of water  
192 limitation, reducing the water stress and enabling an enhanced evapotranspiration particularly during  
193 heat periods. These two characteristics of deciduous forests have a facilitating effect on  
194 evapotranspiration during heat periods.

195 On the other hand, the albedo of a deciduous forest is higher than of a coniferous forest (table 1).  
196 Therefore, less solar radiation is absorbed and the energetic forcing of evapotranspiration is reduced  
197 (Fig. 2a). Additionally, the surface roughness of a deciduous forest is lower than of a coniferous forest  
198 (table 1). Thus, the turbulent transport of water from the surface to the atmosphere is not as efficient  
199 as for a coniferous forest. These two characteristics of deciduous forests have consequently an  
200 attenuating effect on evapotranspiration during heat periods.

201 In most parts of Europe the weight of the reduced stomatal resistance and the reduced water stress  
202 of deciduous forests is dominating the evapotranspiration response during heat periods and latent  
203 heat fluxes are increased (Fig. 2b). But this is not the case in Scandinavia. In general, the net short-  
204 wave radiation and the saturation deficit are lower in Scandinavia than in central and especially in  
205 southern Europe. Thus, the energetic forcing of evapotranspiration and the atmospheric demand for  
206 evapotranspiration are reduced in comparison to the southern parts of Europe, generally attenuating  
207 evapotranspiration in Scandinavia (Breil et al., 2021). Now, by increasing the deciduous forest fraction  
208 in Scandinavia, the already comparatively low energetic forcing of evapotranspiration is further  
209 reduced (Fig. 2a). In addition, due to the generally low radiative energy input in Scandinavia, surface

210 temperatures are lower than in central and southern Europe, with the consequence that buoyance is  
211 comparatively small and wind shear becomes more important for the turbulent exchange between the  
212 surface and the atmosphere. The surface roughness has therefore in Scandinavia a stronger impact on  
213 evapotranspiration rates than for the rest of Europe (Breil et al., 2021). In a deciduous forest, this  
214 surface roughness is lower than in a coniferous forest (table 1). Wind shear is consequently reduced  
215 and the turbulent transport of water between the surface and the atmosphere is further attenuated  
216 in Scandinavia, leading to reduced latent heat fluxes (Fig. 2b).

217 On top of this, evapotranspiration is even during heat periods not water limited in Scandinavia, due to  
218 the generally high water supply and the low energetic forcing. **This is shown by the higher correlation**  
219 **between latent heat fluxes and daily maximum 2 m temperatures during heat periods in Scandinavia**  
220 **in comparison to central and southern Europe (Fig. 2f).** This means that also for a coniferous forest  
221 with its comparatively shallow root system, enough soil water is available to use its higher evaporative  
222 potential of an increased energetic forcing and surface roughness in Scandinavia entirely. The  
223 increased radiative energy input of a coniferous forest can consequently be transformed into higher  
224 evapotranspiration rates (Fig. 2b), although its stomatal resistance is higher (table 1). This increase in  
225 evapotranspiration is even so strong that lower daily maximum 2 m temperatures are simulated with  
226 coniferous forests, although more energy is available to heat up the surface in Scandinavia (Fig. 2a).  
227 Therefore, an increase in the deciduous forest fraction leads in Scandinavia to more intense heat  
228 periods (Fig. 2d).

229 The same weighting of processes leads also in the Alpine region and the low mountain ranges of central  
230 Europe to increased latent heat fluxes for coniferous forests (Fig. 2b). But in these regions, the effects  
231 of the increased evapotranspiration is just balancing and not exceeding the effects of the increased  
232 radiative energy input of coniferous forests. As a result, the local intensities of heat periods are of the  
233 same magnitude for coniferous and deciduous forests (Fig. 2d).

234 In central and southern Europe, the radiative energy input is generally higher than in Scandinavia and  
235 thus, also buoyance. The effect of wind shear and the surface roughness on the turbulent water  
236 transport is consequently less pronounced (Breil et al., 2021), and the weighting of the stomatal  
237 resistance on evapotranspiration is increased. In addition, the water stress during heat periods is lower  
238 for deciduous forests than for coniferous forests, due to the deeper root system of deciduous forests  
239 (table 1), which is shown in Fig. 2e, by the higher temporal correlation between latent heat fluxes and  
240 daily maximum 2m temperatures in DECID than in REF. As a consequence, evapotranspiration of  
241 deciduous forests is increased, although the energetic forcing is lower than for coniferous forests. An  
242 increase in the deciduous forest fractions leads therefore to a local reduction of heat period intensities  
243 in central and southern Europe (Fig. 2d).

244 However, the absolute local effects of an increased deciduous forest fraction in Europe on the daily  
245 maximum 2 m temperatures are quite small during heat periods (Fig. 2d). The mean local reduction in  
246 the heat period intensity in Europe (except Scandinavia) is 0.2 K. Regions with a pronounced  
247 temperature reduction are located in south-western France (0.6 K – 0.9 K) and northern Turkey (up to  
248 1 K). The highest simulated temperature reduction is 3,7 K. But such strong local effects are absolutely  
249 exceptional. At 95% of the **grid cells**, in which an increase in the deciduous forest fraction leads to a  
250 local cooling, the reduction of the daily maximum 2 m temperatures is below 0.5 K.

251 Although this local cooling effect is just slightly pronounced, it is statistically significant for 45 % of all  
252 grid cells **in which an increase in the deciduous forest fraction resulted in** reduced daily maximum 2m  
253 temperatures, uniformly distributed all over Europe (except Scandinavia, Fig. 2d). **This means that for**  
254 **nearly half of these grid cells the process chain of reduced absorbed solar radiation and increased**  
255 **evapotranspiration results in a significant reduction of local heat period intensities for deciduous**  
256 **forests. However, this also means that for slightly more than half of these grid cells the simulated**  
257 **reduction of the daily maximum temperatures is not significant. Thus, for these grid cells random**  
258 **causes for the temperature reduction cannot be excluded.**

259 The mean local warming in Scandinavia is 0.1 K, with a maximum warming effect of 0.4 K. Local  
260 warmings with an increase in the deciduous forest fraction are statistically not significant.

261

### 262 3.1.2 Non-local Effects

263 An increase in the deciduous forest fraction has a non-local cooling effect on the heat period intensities  
264 over large parts of Europe in non-forested areas (Fig. 3a). **Over central, western and southern Europe,**  
265 **a non-local cooling of the daily maximum 2 m temperatures is simulated in general.** The local cooling  
266 of air masses over deciduous forests is consequently also inducing a cooling of air masses in the  
267 surrounding areas. This non-local cooling effect is further intensified by generally higher precipitation  
268 sums in summer in regions showing a non-local cooling (Fig. 3b). Thus, the available amount of water  
269 for evapotranspiration is during heat periods increased in these regions and the water stress is  
270 reduced, resulting in higher evapotranspiration rates (Fig. 3c) and lower heat period intensities (Fig.  
271 3a).

272 However, in eastern Europe, at the North Sea coast of central Europe and the Balkan Mountains higher  
273 daily maximum 2 m temperatures are simulated in non-forested areas (Fig. 3a). **These warmer non-**  
274 **local temperatures arising with an increase in the deciduous forest fraction are also caused by non-**  
275 **local differences in the summer precipitation sums between DECID and REF. In all these regions, mean**  
276 **precipitation sums in summer are reduced (Fig. 3b), and thus, the available amount of water for**  
277 **evapotranspiration during heat periods is also reduced. Lower evapotranspiration rates are the**



278 consequence (Fig. 3c), which means that more energy is available at the surface to heat up the surface,  
279 finally leading to non-locally intensified heat periods.

280 These changes in the spatial distribution of precipitation sums in summer are most likely caused by  
281 local changes in the vegetation characteristics, associated with an increase in the deciduous forest  
282 fraction in Europe. Deciduous forests are locally increasing evapotranspiration rates (Fig. 2b), and thus  
283 the release of water into the atmosphere. Downwind precipitation is therefore potentially increased.  
284 However, deciduous forests are also reducing local temperatures (Fig. 2d) and are characterized by a  
285 lower surface roughness (table 1), potentially inhibiting the development of convective precipitation  
286 events in summer in comparison to coniferous forests. Because of these opposing vegetation  
287 characteristics, therefore, an increase in the deciduous forest fraction can lead to changes in the spatial  
288 and temporal precipitation distribution over Europe (Fig. 3c).

289 For instance, the locally increased evapotranspiration rates in central Europe (Fig. 2b) are increasing  
290 the water vapor content in the atmosphere. Thus, moister air masses are generally transported  
291 eastward with the typical westerly flow in Europe (Fig. 3d). We hypothesize that due to the increased  
292 water vapor content of this air mass, downwind rain is falling earlier and more extensively, leading to  
293 increased precipitation sums in a region from Greece to the Baltics (Fig. 3b). Further east, air masses  
294 are consequently drier and precipitation sums in summer are reduced (Fig. 3b), resulting in intensified  
295 heat periods (Fig. 3a).

296 A slight non-local warming during heat periods is additionally simulated in the coastal regions of  
297 Scandinavia (Fig. 3a). This warming is not caused by reduced precipitation sums, but is a direct  
298 consequence of the warmer air masses above forested regions in Scandinavia. This is shown by the  
299 fact that evapotranspiration rates are slightly increased instead of reduced (Fig. 3c). Thus, changes in  
300 the evapotranspiration rates are here a result of warmer temperatures and not their cause, as it is the  
301 case in eastern Europe.

302 Quantitatively, the non-local effects of an increased deciduous forest fraction in Europe are of the  
303 same magnitude as the local effects, and thus quite small (Fig. 3a). The non-local warming effect in  
304 eastern Europe, at the North Sea coast of central Europe and the Balkan Mountains is in mean 0.1 K,  
305 and is statistically not significant. The warming at 95 % of the respective grid cells is again below 0.4 K.  
306 The non-local cooling effect over central, western and southern Europe is in mean also 0.1 K with a  
307 95<sup>th</sup> percentile of 0.3 K. As already identified for the local effects, non-local cooling effects are  
308 statistically significant for 23 % of all grid cells with reduced daily maximum 2 m temperatures (Fig. 3a).  
309 However, this also means that the simulated non-local reduction of the daily maximum temperatures  
310 is statistically not significant for the other 77 % of these grid cells. Although for these non-significant  
311 grid cells the same process chain is simulated as for the significant grid cells, random causes for the  
312 temperature reduction during heat periods cannot be excluded.

313

### 314 3.2 Heat period duration

315 We finally analyze potential impacts of an increase in the deciduous forest fraction in Europe on  
316 changes in the heat period durations (Fig. 4). Therefore, a heat event is in both simulations defined as  
317 a period in which the daily maximum 2 m temperature exceeds the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile of daily maximum  
318 temperatures in the reference run over at least three consecutive days.

319 Results show that in mean the duration of heat periods is generally not affected by changes in the  
320 European forest composition. In eastern Europe isolated grid cells with a heat period extension of up  
321 to one day are simulated. In central Europe and northern Scandinavia a few grid cells with a shortening  
322 of heat periods are simulated. However, these grid cells are not systematically connected to local or  
323 non-local processes. Thus, no significant impact of an increase in the deciduous forest fraction on heat  
324 period durations is detected in Europe.

325

### 326 4. Discussion

327 The results of this study show that the benefit of an increased deciduous forest fraction on the heat  
328 period intensities in Europe strongly depends on the water availability for evapotranspiration. In  
329 northern Europe, evapotranspiration of (deciduous as well as coniferous) forests is under current  
330 climate conditions even during heat periods not water limited (Fig. 2e+f). By means of a higher  
331 energetic forcing (Fig. 2a) and a higher surface roughness, coniferous forests are consequently able to  
332 transpire more water than deciduous forests (Fig. 2b). This simulated property of coniferous forests in  
333 northern Europe depends of course on the considered vegetation parameters. As mentioned in section  
334 2, the used vegetation parameters in table 1 are averaged values over the parameter space of  
335 deciduous and coniferous forests and vary consequently for specific deciduous and coniferous tree  
336 species. This variability in the vegetation characteristics is also reflected in observations. For instance,  
337 higher transpiration rates of deciduous forests are reported in Baldocchi et al. (2000), who reviewed  
338 several field studies in Canada, Siberia and Scandinavia, in Eugster et al., (2002) based on the analysis  
339 of several eddy-covariance stations in the boreal regions of Europe and northern America, and in  
340 Grossiord et al., (2013) for measurements in a boreal plantation in south-western Finland. On the other  
341 hand, contradictory results have been reported in Augusto et al., (2015), who reviewed studies on the  
342 water-use efficiencies of deciduous and coniferous forests in boreal regions, implying higher  
343 transpiration rates of coniferous forests, in Ewers et al., (2005) for a comparison between pines and  
344 poplar in the BOREAS Northern Study Area in Canada, and in Baumgarten et al. (2019), where higher  
345 transpiration rates of coniferous forests are measured in hemiboreal regions even during the warm  
346 summer months.

347 The increased transpiration rates of coniferous forest identified in our model study are consequently  
348 within the range of the observed transpiration variability in boreal regions and lead in our simulations  
349 to slightly increased heat period intensities for northern Europe (Fig. 2d). The low potential of an  
350 increased deciduous forest fraction to reduce heat period intensities in northern Europe was already  
351 suggested in Schwaab et al., (2020), who applied a statistical model. The application of a regional  
352 climate model with its capability to account for all associated atmospheric feedbacks indicates that  
353 this potential might be not only low, but even negative. However, considering the missing significance  
354 of the warming effect of an increased deciduous forest fraction in Scandinavia in the model and the  
355 observed variability in the sign of the transpiration response, a final assessment of the mitigation  
356 potential for heat extremes in northern Europe is not possible.

357 Conversely, evapotranspiration is in central and southern Europe moisture limited during heat periods  
358 (Fig. 2e+f). An increase in the deciduous forest fraction is beneficial in these regions for the heat period  
359 intensities (Fig. 2d), because of the deeper root system of deciduous forests and the associated  
360 increased evapotranspiration rates (Fig. 2b). However, in some regions of southern Europe, current  
361 climate conditions are already so dry that the root system of a deciduous forest does not reach deep  
362 enough to meet the atmospheric water demand during heat periods. Therefore, the benefit of an  
363 increased deciduous forest fraction arises in these areas only from the reduced radiative energy input  
364 (Fig. 2a). These effects of an increased deciduous forest fraction were already hypothesized by  
365 Schwaab et al., (2020) and are now underpinned by this study.

366 However, the results of recent climate projections indicate that the water availability for  
367 evapotranspiration will change in the future in Europe. For any climate change scenario, regional as  
368 well as global climate models simulate a dipole in the projected precipitation changes in Europe  
369 (Douville et al., 2021; Coppola et al., 2021). In northern Europe, precipitation will slightly increase,  
370 while in southern Europe the opposite is the case, particularly during summer. Simultaneously, the  
371 atmospheric water demand will increase in both regions, due to the generally increased atmospheric  
372 temperatures. In northern Europe, this will likely lead to a slight reduction of the available soil water  
373 amount, although precipitation sums are slightly increased (Cook et al., 2020). This might have the  
374 consequence that the evapotranspiration of shallow rooted coniferous forests in northern Europe will  
375 become water limited, and the cooling effect of coniferous forests on heat period intensities might get  
376 smaller in comparison to deciduous forests.

377 In southern Europe, reduced precipitation sums and increased atmospheric water demand will result  
378 in more frequent drought conditions (e.g. Mömken et al., 2022). It can therefore be concluded that in  
379 southern Europe the cooling effect of an increased deciduous forest fraction on the heat period  
380 intensities will even decrease, since progressing water limitation will further constrain  
381 evapotranspiration also for deciduous forests in future, as it is already the case in the driest regions of

382 southern Europe (e.g. Forner et al., 2018). Thus, the climate benefit of deciduous forests will then be  
383 restricted only on the reduced incoming solar radiation.

384 Central Europe is in the transition zone of this precipitation dipole (Giorgi & Coppola, 2007). Thus, in  
385 this region the lowest changes in water availability are expected with climate change in annual mean  
386 (Douville et al., 2021; Coppola et al., 2021). This means that also in the future an increase in the  
387 deciduous forest fraction will have a slight cooling effect on the heat period intensities in central  
388 Europe. However, the location of this transition zone is considerably varying between models (GCMs  
389 and RCMs) and climate change scenarios (Coppola et al., 2021). Therefore, uncertainties on changes  
390 in the spatial water availability in central Europe, and thus on the projected changes in  
391 evapotranspiration rates are quite large (Douville et al., 2021), whereby a small decrease in water  
392 availability is projected in the ensemble mean (Samaniego et al., 2018; Cook et al., 2020). This indicates  
393 that particularly during very extreme heat events, the likelihood of water stress will increase for  
394 deciduous forests also in central Europe and the cooling effect of an increased deciduous forest  
395 fraction on heat period intensities will likely decline.

396 Non-local changes in heat period intensities are also caused by changes in the available water amounts  
397 for evapotranspiration. In non-forested areas, these changes are obviously not caused by changes in  
398 the vegetation characteristics, but are a result of changes in the mean summer precipitation sums. **The**  
399 **interrelation between evapotranspiration rates of forests and downwind precipitation sums was**  
400 **already investigated by Belušić et al., (2019), Strandberg & Kjellström (2019) and Meier et al., (2021).**  
401 **While Strandberg & Kjellström (2019) could find almost no connection, Belušić et al., (2019) and Meier**  
402 **et al., (2021) provided evidence that increased evapotranspiration rates of forests can lead to**  
403 **increased downwind precipitation sums.** It is therefore evident that a change in the forest composition  
404 and associated evapotranspiration rates also affects downwind precipitation sums in Europe.  
405 However, beside the local increase in evapotranspiration rates, deciduous forests are also  
406 characterized by lower local temperatures and surface roughness, inhibiting the formation of  
407 convective precipitation. Therefore, an increase in the deciduous forest fraction changes the spatial  
408 and temporal distribution of precipitation sums over Europe (Fig. 3c) and leads, in this way, either to  
409 an increase or a decrease of the non-local heat period intensities (Fig. 3a).

410 However, in our study, the effects of an increased deciduous forest fraction on heat period intensities  
411 are not as clearly pronounced as one could expect from the results of other studies like Schwaab et al.,  
412 (2020). On the one hand, this might be due to the different methodological designs of the studies. In  
413 contrast to statistically based approaches as used in Schwaab et al., (2020), relevant atmospheric  
414 feedback processes are explicitly simulated in our regional climate model approach, potentially  
415 attenuating the impact of different vegetation characteristics on heat period intensities.

416 On the other hand, this might be related to the general representation of these vegetation  
417 characteristics in the regional climate model itself. In CCLM-VEG3D, different species of deciduous and  
418 coniferous trees are all aggregated in one representative forest class, respectively (see table 1).  
419 However, not everywhere in Europe the same species of deciduous and coniferous trees are growing  
420 (Bohn & Gollub, 2006), and these different tree types do not all have the same vegetation  
421 characteristics. An example for such differences, are the different vegetation characteristics of beech  
422 trees and oaks. The stomatal resistance of beech trees is lower than of oaks (Jonard et al., 2011), while  
423 the root system of oaks reaches deeper than of beech trees (Leuschner et al., 2001). It is therefore  
424 possible that the vegetation characteristics of deciduous and coniferous forests in CCLM-VEG3D are  
425 slightly overestimated at some locations or slightly underestimated at others. Thus, an increase in the  
426 deciduous forest fraction can have slightly deviating effects on the heat period intensities locally in a  
427 regional climate model.

428 Another model constraint of CCLM-VEG3D is that only the dominant land use class is considered in a  
429 grid cell. This means that grid cells in which forest is the dominant land use class are completely  
430 assigned to forest in the model and the forest fraction is overestimated in these areas. In return,  
431 forested areas with a lower percentage in a grid cell are consequently not considered in the model and  
432 the forest fraction is underestimated. The spatial distribution of forests in Europe is therefore not as  
433 extensive in CCLM-VEG3D as in reality (Hoffmann et al., 2022b), leading potentially to an  
434 underestimation of the spatial extension of local effects. However, the goal of this study is to  
435 disentangle the general feedback processes of an increased deciduous forest and its general effects on  
436 local and non-local heat period intensities and not to analyze the effects of realistic transformations in  
437 the forest composition in Europe. Against this background, the use of the dominant land use class is  
438 from our point of view reasonable and suitable to investigate general deciduous forests effects on heat  
439 periods. **Of course, the simulated responses of other modeling systems to changes in the forest cover  
440 composition might be different.**

441 Beyond these model constraints, the advantage of our modeling approach is that both local and non-  
442 local effects of an increased deciduous forest fraction can be analyzed in detail, under the  
443 consideration of all relevant feedback processes represented in the regional climate model. This is not  
444 possible with studies, focusing on plant physiological differences of trees and their effects on the local  
445 energy budget of forests. Thus, our study contributes to complementing our knowledge on the general  
446 effects of deciduous forests on heat period intensities, by deriving a comprehensive understanding of  
447 the associated local and non-local process chains. **With this in mind, we could show that an increase  
448 in the deciduous forest fraction has significant as well as non-significant effects on local and non-local  
449 heat wave intensities. While for the grid cells with significant effects, consistent physical process chains  
450 are the reason for the local and non-local temperature reductions during heat periods, random causes**

451 for the temperature reductions in non-significant grid cells cannot be generally excluded. However, a  
452 missing significance does not necessarily mean that there is no connection (Wasserstein & Lazar, 2016)  
453 between an increase in the deciduous forest fraction and reduced heat period intensities in these grid  
454 cells. On the contrary, also for the non-significant grid cells with reduced daily maximum temperatures,  
455 the same process chains were identified as for the significant ones. From our point of view, this high  
456 physical consistency of the simulated processes is a strong indicator that the reduced heat period  
457 intensities are also not random in the non-significant grid cells. Particularly downwind processes are  
458 spatially and temporally highly variable. Thus, locally induced changes in the atmospheric moisture  
459 conditions do not always lead to precipitation at the same downwind locations (Perugini et al., 2017).  
460 This high spatial and temporal variability, therefore, has the consequence that the physical processes  
461 are difficult to detect and the temperature reductions are statistically not significant. However,  
462 comparing the potential reduction of heat period intensities with the substantial intensification of heat  
463 extremes of about 2,3 K in Europe since the 1950s (Lorenz et al., 2019), the effect of an increased  
464 deciduous forest fraction is small.

465

## 466 5. Conclusion

467 In the course of idealized regional climate simulations, the general potential effects of an increased  
468 deciduous forest fraction on heat period characteristics in Europe are quantified. Results show that an  
469 increase in the deciduous forest fraction has significant as well as non-significant effects on the local  
470 and non-local scale. Locally, mean heat period intensities are slightly reduced about 0.2 K, except for  
471 Scandinavia, where a mean warming of 0.1 K is simulated. The simulated temperature reductions in  
472 grid cells with replaced coniferous forests are statistically significant at 45 % of the grid cells and not  
473 significant at 55 % of the grid cells. The simulated local warming in Scandinavia is not statistically  
474 significant.

475 Non-locally, mean heat period intensities are slightly reduced in central, western and southern Europe  
476 about 0.1 K, but slightly increased in Eastern Europe, the North Sea coast of central Europe and the  
477 Balkan Mountains also about 0.1 K. Significant results are only simulated for 23 % of the grid cells in  
478 which an increase of the deciduous forest fraction leads to a cooling. The duration of heat periods is  
479 not affected by a change in the forest composition in Europe.

480 These results indicate that an increase in the deciduous forest fraction has no potential to reduce the  
481 intensity of heat periods in Scandinavia. This might change in future to a certain extent, since a slight  
482 decrease in water availability is projected in this region by regional as well as global climate models.  
483 This might limit evapotranspiration rates of shallow rooted coniferous forest during heat periods, and  
484 the cooling effect of coniferous forests on heat period intensities might get smaller in comparison to

485 **deciduous forests.** Furthermore, an increase in the deciduous forest fraction leads in several regions  
486 of Europe to reduced precipitation sums and non-locally intensified heat periods.

487 In central and southern Europe, deciduous forests have a cooling effect on heat period intensities.  
488 Although this effect is in parts significant, its magnitude is rather small in comparison to the  
489 intensification of heat periods since the 1950s. In addition, the cooling effect is likely to decrease with  
490 climate change, due to a projected reduction in water availability during heat periods. However, not  
491 all deciduous forest types must necessarily have such small effects. For instance, species which have  
492 an optimal balance between a reduced absorption of solar radiation and an increased transformation  
493 of the solar radiation in turbulent heat fluxes might reduce heat period intensities stronger at certain  
494 locations. But such species are not considered in the general forest classes of CCLM-VEG3D, and their  
495 impact on heat period intensities is consequently not simulated in the model. Therefore, a next step  
496 will be to implement more forest classes in the regional climate model, enabling a more detailed  
497 differentiation of the respective vegetation characteristics. However, the results of our study indicate  
498 that a replacement of coniferous forests with common deciduous forest types has only a limited  
499 cooling effect on heat periods in Europe. Thus, the method can only be considered as a supporting  
500 mitigation measure to complement other, more effective mitigation strategies to reduce heat extreme  
501 intensities.

502

#### 503 **Data availability**

504 The applied land use dataset is accessible at the World Data Center for Climate (WDCC) at DKRZ  
505 ([https://doi.org/10.26050/WDCC/LUC\\_hist\\_EU\\_v1.1](https://doi.org/10.26050/WDCC/LUC_hist_EU_v1.1)). The ERA-5 reanalysis data are obtained from  
506 the ECMWF (<https://apps.ecmwf.int/data-catalogues/era5/?class=ea>). The CCLM-VEG3D data is  
507 available upon request from the corresponding author.

508

#### 509 **Author contributions**

510 MB designed the study, performed the CCLM-VEG3D simulations and wrote the paper. MB and AW  
511 analyzed the data and MB prepared the figures. All authors contributed with discussion, interpretation  
512 of results and text revisions.

513

#### 514 **Competing interests**

515 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

516

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519

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799 Table 1: Vegetation parameters of deciduous and coniferous forests in CCLM-VEG3D

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	Minimum stomatal resistance	root depth (density < 2%)	albedo	surface roughness
Deciduous forest	100 s/m	2.0 m	0.15	0.8 m
Coniferous forest	120 s/m	1.0 m	0.11	1.0 m

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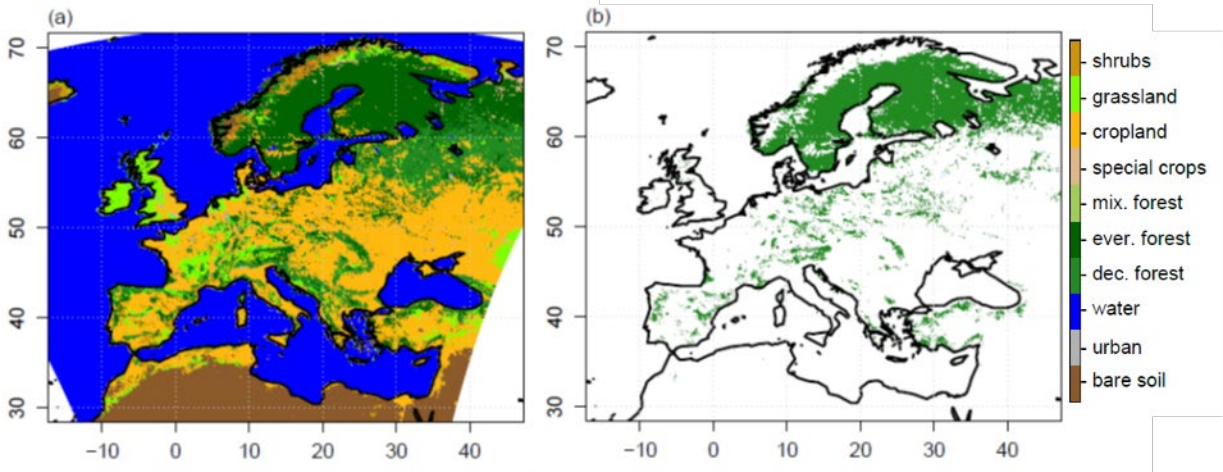
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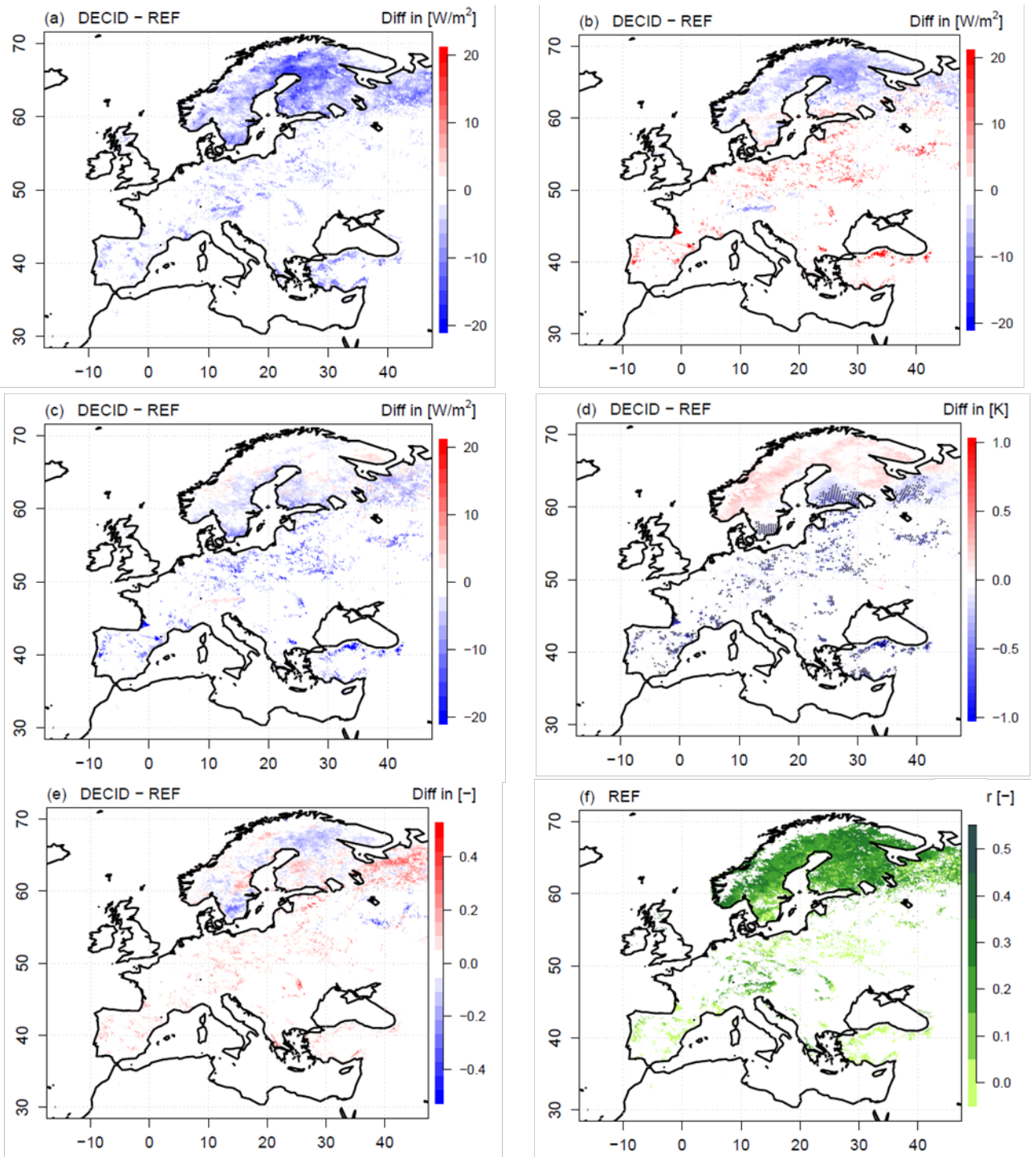
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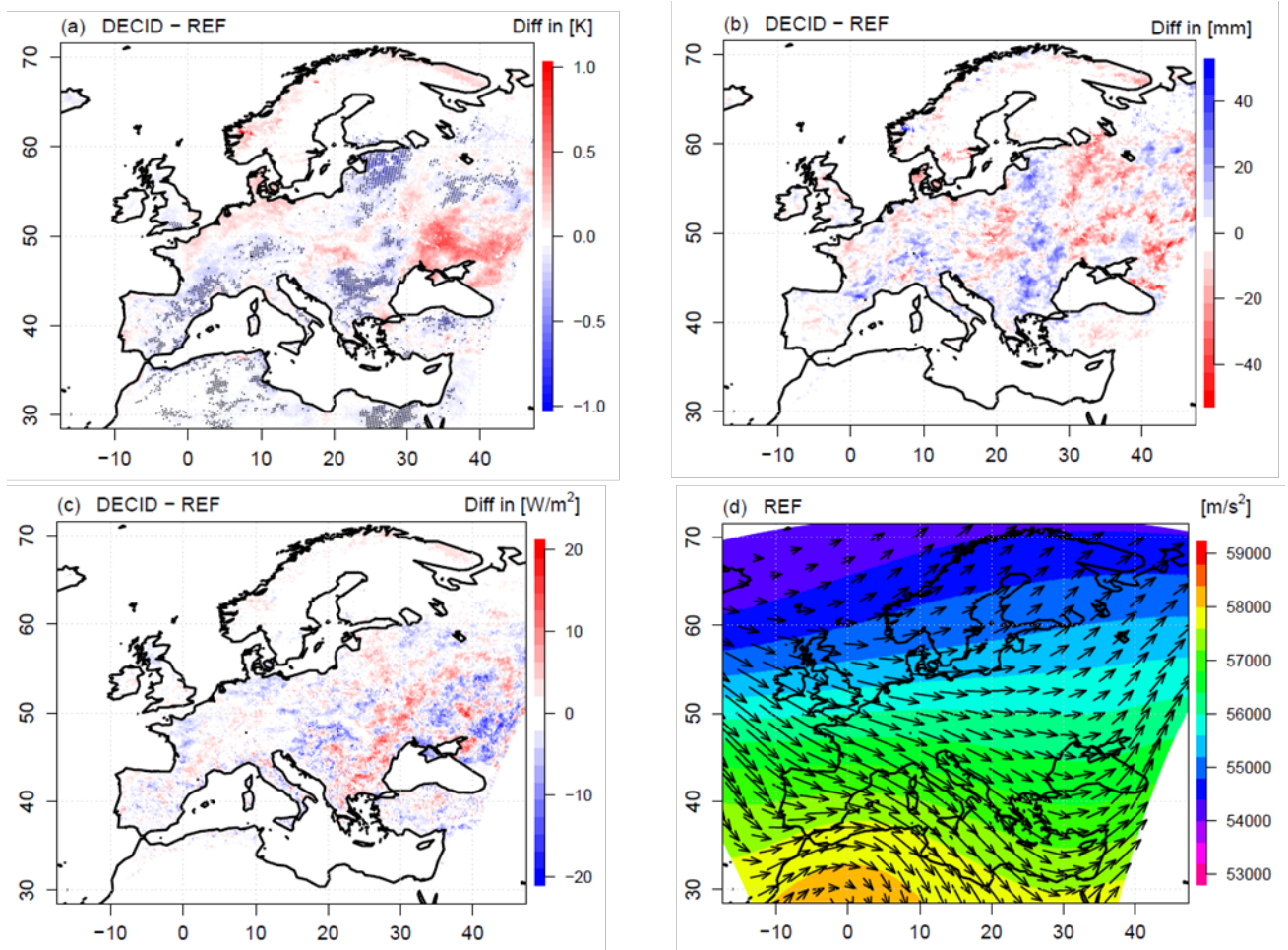
842 Figure 1: (a) CCLM-VEG3D land use classes. (b) grid cells in which coniferous forests were replaced by  
 843 deciduous forests in the DECID simulation.  
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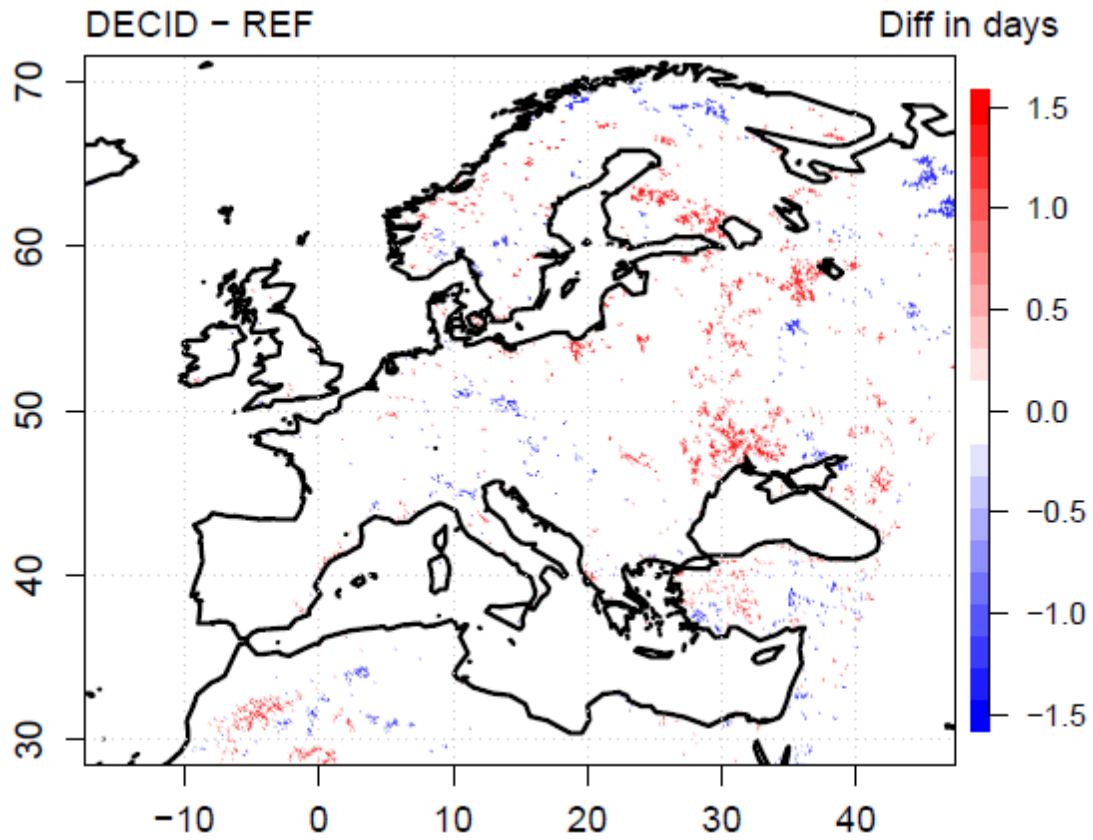
879  
 880 Figure 2: Local differences between DECID and REF for (a) net short-wave radiation, (b) latent heat  
 881 fluxes, (c) sensible heat fluxes, (d) daily maximum 2 m temperatures, (e) temporal correlation between  
 882 latent heat fluxes and daily maximum 2m temperatures during heat periods. (f) shows the temporal  
 883 correlation between latent heat fluxes and daily maximum 2m temperatures of coniferous forests in  
 884 REF during heat periods. The black circles in (d) indicate significant results calculated with a Wilcoxon-  
 885 Rank-Sum-Test at a 95 % level.

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 892 Figure 3: Non-local differences between DECID and REF for (a) daily maximum 2 m temperatures during  
 893 heat periods, (b) mean precipitation sums in summer, and (c) latent heat fluxes during heat periods.  
 894 (d) shows the geopotential height in 500 hPa and the mean wind direction (arrows) in REF in summer.  
 895 The black circles in (a) indicate significant results calculated with a Wilcoxon-Rank-Sum-Test at a 95 %  
 896 level.

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 916 Figure 4: Differences between DECID and REF for the mean heat period durations over the whole  
 917 simulation period from 1986-2015.  
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