



1 Detecting soil moisture drought impacts on ecosystem 2 physiology from earth observation data

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9 Abstract

10 Satellite remote sensing is widely used to monitor vegetation drought impacts, yet water stress triggers
11 both structural changes and physiological adjustments, whose relative importance varies across space
12 and time. Structural responses, captured by multispectral vegetation indices are well documented,
13 while the extent to which readily available satellite data can detect physiological drought effects
14 remains insufficiently quantified.

15 Here, we assess how much information on drought-induced physiological responses is contained in
16 multispectral reflectance, land surface temperature (LST), and climate reanalysis data. We combine
17 MODIS reflectance and thermal data with an ERA5-Land potential cumulative water deficits metric
18 (PCWD), and train a machine-learning model using eddy covariance data. The target variable
19 represents drought-induced reductions in light use efficiency (fLUE), explicitly separating
20 physiological regulation from structural canopy changes.

21 Our resulting data-driven model captures variations in drought-related physiological response more
22 accurately than previously documented indices commonly applied for drought monitoring ($R^2 = 0.64$,
23 RMSE = 0.112, spatial cross-validation). Application across central Europe during two recent
24 summers demonstrates that the model detects drought impacts on photosynthesis earlier and more
25 sensitively than NDVI, particularly in evergreen ecosystems where structural signals are muted.

26 Our results show that a systematically trained, data-driven integration of multispectral reflectance,
27 thermal signals, and climate data can extract a substantial portion of the physiological drought
28 response from Earth observation data. This approach enables a more confident and spatially consistent
29 assessment of drought impacts on photosynthesis using the full combined information content of
30 satellite and climate datasets, beyond what structural vegetation indices alone can provide.



1. Introduction

Droughts are important in driving impacts on vegetation, the carbon cycle, agriculture, and water resources. Our understanding of the timing, magnitude and extent of drought impacts on vegetation is crucially informed by satellite remote sensing data. Greenness vegetation indices, such as the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) and the Enhanced Vegetation Index (EVI), the near-infrared reflectance of vegetation (NIR), and the fraction of absorbed photosynthetic active radiation (fAPAR) are widely used for the quantification of drought impacts on terrestrial photosynthesis and on vegetation, the carbon cycle, and agriculture (Reichstein et al. 2013; Zscheischler et al. 2013; Xie and Fan 2021; Chaudhari, Sardar, and Ghosh 2023; Hermann et al. 2023; Chen et al. 2025). These indices are derived from multispectral imaging, available, e.g., from long-term and high resolution satellite missions with global coverage (e.g., MODIS, Landsat, Sentinel-2, AVHRR). Ease of availability and use has spurred research on drought impacts based on data products emerging from such indices.

However, these greenness indices primarily measure structural changes and reflect the amount of active green foliage (Cai et al. 2025; World Meteorol. Organ. 2024), but the mechanistic connection to and quantitative influence by the physiological response of photosynthesis to water stress is often unclear. Short-term and moderate levels of limitation of photosynthesis and transpiration by low root zone water availability or by dry ambient air often have a limited effect on canopy structure and the overall greenness of vegetated land surfaces, but can significantly reduce ecosystem carbon and water vapour fluxes through stomatal closure and other physiological responses that affect the photosynthetic light use efficiency (LUE) (B. D. Stocker et al. 2018a; W. Li et al. 2024). The reduction of stomatal conductance under limited root zone water availability and/or dry air is a key physiological response and affects the diffusion of CO₂ inside leaves and its subsequent assimilation through photosynthesis (Lin et al. 2015; Medlyn et al. 2011; Cowan and Farquhar 1977; Oren et al. 1999; J. Flexas et al. 2004). Other important physiological responses to water stress are linked to changes in the capacities for Rubisco carboxylation and electron transport (Zhou et al. 2013), or to light absorption by photoprotective pigments (Demmig-Adams and Adams 1996; Demmig-Adams and Adams III 2006; Jaume Flexas and Medrano 2002; Jahns and Holzwarth 2012; D'Odorico et al. 2021a) and/or dissipation of absorbed light through non-photochemical quenching (Müller et al. 2001; Jaume Flexas and Medrano 2002). Physiological responses may arise before or in the absence of visible structural responses. In contrast to fast-evolving physiological responses, structural changes, including foliage area or live vegetation cover reductions typically occur under more severe water limitation, persistent over longer periods (Meir, Mencuccini, and Dewar 2015; Flack-Prain et al.



64 2019). It remains challenging to capture the relatively fast physiological response of vegetation, in
65 addition to the structural response, from the analysis of vegetation greenness indices.

66 To some extent, the physiological response might correlate with the structural response, observable
67 from greenness indices. Indeed, bulk evaluations suggest that greenness indices correlate well with
68 gross primary production (GPP), measured by eddy covariance data from multiple sites, covering
69 multiple years, and reflecting both structural and physiological responses to water stress (John A.
70 Gamon et al. 2016; Badgley et al. 2017; X. Li et al. 2018). However, strong reductions in LUE in
71 response to water stress are also evident (B. D. Stocker et al. 2018a) and suggest that the physiological
72 response may lead - at least partly - to a decoupling between vegetation greenness and ecosystem
73 photosynthesis. From these bulk evaluations, it remains unclear where the limits lie in using greenness
74 indices to assess and quantify vegetation activity and drought impacts on the carbon cycle, and under
75 what specific conditions, such as vegetation types or levels of water stress, the structural and
76 physiological responses deviate.

77 A range of indices have been proposed to estimate vegetation stress from reflectance bands available
78 from global multispectral missions (Loaiza et al. 2024). However, they generally make *a priori*
79 choices for the consideration of specific bands - usually a subset of all available bands - and functional
80 relationships. Remotely sensed sun-induced fluorescence (SIF) and other sensing modalities, e.g.
81 microwave remote sensing, provide complementary information and have been argued to relate more
82 directly to vegetation's physiological response to water stress (Gu et al. 2023; W. Li et al. 2023; Ying
83 Wang et al. 2024; Qiu et al. 2024). However, these data usually have lower spatial and temporal
84 resolution, limited temporal coverage, and require targeted spectral sensing with relatively narrow
85 bandwidths, which is not supported by readily available global long-term missions such as MODIS,
86 VIIRS, Landsat, or Sentinel-2. Physiological responses are also reflected in changes in chlorophyll
87 and carotenoid content, which can be detected using multispectral reflectance data and derived indices,
88 including PRI (J. A. Gamon et al. 1992; Garbulsky et al. 2011; D'Odorico et al. 2021b). However, an
89 application of these methods across larger scales and across diverse land cover types and ecosystems
90 remains challenging. Yet, alternative spectral reflectance indices and thermal remote sensing measure
91 different canopy and leaf properties that relate to photosynthesis and water stress. They bear
92 complementary information to common greenness indices, indicating that key information relevant for
93 water stress detection and quantification is contained in multispectral reflectance and thermal remote
94 sensing data, but is not fully exploited by commonly used vegetation indices for drought impact
95 studies.

96 The limited link of remote sensing data with the physiological response of plants to water stress is also
97 due to an observational challenge. Eddy covariance measurements of ecosystem-atmosphere exchange



98 fluxes are a mainstay for calibrating and “groundtruthing” remote sensing data for interpretations
99 related to ecosystem functioning, CO₂ fluxes, and photosynthesis (Yin et al. 2022; B. D. Stocker et al.
100 2018a; Middleton et al. 2016). However, these data measure the combined effect of the structural and
101 physiological responses to water stress, and it is challenging to interpret the physiological component
102 directly (Yanbing Wang et al. 2023; W. Li et al. 2024). Instead, observations of the physiological
103 response are commonly obtained through leaf-level measurements of, e.g., stomatal conductance, or
104 photosynthetic capacities. Because these measurements are laborious, the volume of related data is
105 limited and thus cannot easily be used in connection with continuous global-scale remote sensing.

106 One solution to this challenge was recently developed by Stocker et al. (2018). These authors assessed
107 drought-induced physiological stress from eddy covariance flux measurements and soil moisture data.
108 Their artificial neural network framework was used to separate reductions in photosynthetic efficiency
109 caused by soil moisture limitation from concurrent changes in vegetation greenness. Thus, they
110 developed a metric to quantify the fractional reduction in light use efficiency (fLUE) due to soil
111 moisture stress. Light use efficiency was defined at the ecosystem-level as the ratio of GPP over
112 absorbed photosynthetically active radiation. This approach allowed for the estimation of soil
113 moisture-mediated physiological response, isolated from the structural response, and was applied
114 across a broad range of vegetation types and climatic conditions. Building on this framework, we use
115 independently derived fLUE estimates as a physiological target and test whether they can be predicted
116 spatially from MODIS multispectral reflectance and thermal infrared observations, enabling
117 large-scale monitoring of drought-induced physiological responses separately from structural
118 vegetation changes.

119 Here, we exploit this potential and use fLUE as a starting point. We use a machine learning method to
120 develop a generally applicable EO-based model for the quantification of the physiological response of
121 ecosystem photosynthesis to water stress. To address this, we used estimates of the magnitude of soil
122 moisture drought stress on light use efficiency (fLUE) from globally distributed sites, provided by
123 Stocker et al. (2018), as a target for a data-driven model that uses the full spectral reflectance signal
124 and the thermal band from MODIS, combined with climate data. Thus, we investigated the extent to
125 which the physiological drought response can be sensed from readily available remote sensing data
126 with long-term (>20 years) global coverage. To evaluate the effectiveness of our satellite-derived
127 index (fLUE*) in capturing physiological impacts of soil moisture drought and in generalising across
128 different ecosystem types, we compared its response with that of the normalised difference vegetation
129 index (NDVI) and a set of other vegetation indices that have previously been used for remote
130 sensing-based drought monitoring. The comparison of fLUE* and NDVI is then extended to assessing
131 their spatial patterns across central Europe during the severe 2018 drought (Kowalski et al. 2022),
132 compared to the more moist summer conditions in 2020.

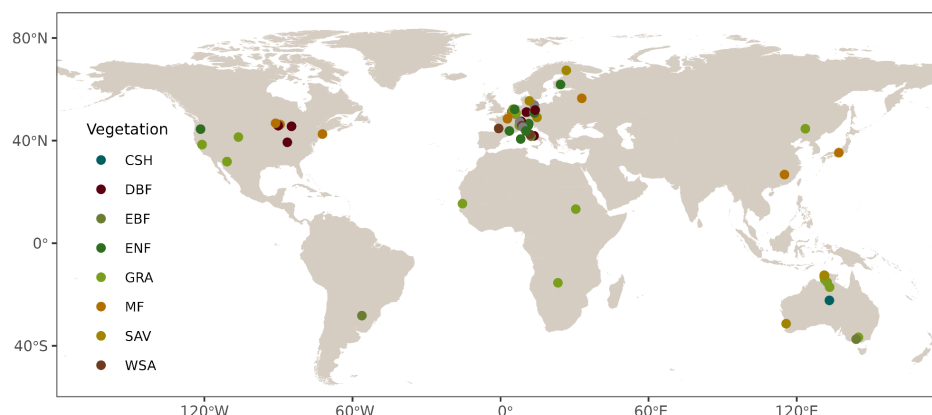


133 2. Methods

134 2.1. Study sites and target data

135 We obtained data from 69 sites, covering 644 site-years, for which the target variable of our analysis
136 and models, fLUE, was provided (B. D. Stocker et al. 2018a; B. Stocker 2018). The study sites are
137 globally distributed and cover five vegetation classes comprising, evergreen needleleaf forest (ENF),
138 grassland (GRA), savanna and woody savanna (SAV), evergreen broadleaf forest (EBF), and
139 deciduous broadleaf forest (DBF) (Fig. 1). The sites are grouped into four clusters based on their
140 vegetation responses to soil moisture drought with cDD referring to the drought-deciduous cluster of
141 sites, cGR to the evergreen cluster, and cLS to the cluster of sites where vegetation appears to have a
142 low sensitivity to low root zone moisture. At sites in cNA, LUE was not affected by low soil moisture
143 (Stocker et al. 2018). These sites were originally selected by (B. D. Stocker et al. 2018a) from 166
144 sites provided through the FLUXNET2015 dataset (Pastorello et al. 2020). Their selection was based
145 on the availability of good-quality data, covering at least 500 days per site, and the performance of
146 their site-specific models in predicting LUE variations. fLUE measures a soil moisture drought
147 magnitude, estimated as the ratio of actual to potential LUE. Their models predicted LUE using a
148 machine learning approach, trained on observed FLUXNET data and environmental drivers including
149 air temperature, photosynthetically active radiation (PAR), vapour pressure deficit (VPD), and soil
150 moisture. They derived LUE by dividing GPP, estimated from eddy covariance measurements and the
151 nighttime flux partitioning method, by the product of PAR and fAPAR, where fAPAR was obtained
152 from MODIS EVI (MOD13Q1, Collection 5) and, alternatively, from MODIS FPAR (MOD15A2).
153 The separation of the physiological and structural response of photosynthesis to root zone water stress
154 was thus achieved by assuming that EVI (FPAR) fully and exclusively capture the structural response.

155



156

157 **Fig. 1.** Map of the sites used in the analysis, colour-coded by the vegetation class (GRA, grasslands; SAV,
 158 savannah; WSA, woody savannah; ENF, evergreen needleleaved forest; EBF, evergreen broadleaved forest;
 159 DBF, deciduous broadleaved forest; CSH, closed shrubland; MF, mixed forest).

160 2.2. Predictor data

161 We used MODIS reflectance bands, land surface temperature (LST), meteorological drivers from
 162 ERA5-Land climate reanalysis, potential cumulative water deficit, normalized differences of all
 163 reflectance band combinations, and land cover type as predictors for modelling fLUE (Tab. 1),
 164 obtained for the 69 sites described above (Fig. 1). To obtain nadir reflectance and land surface
 165 temperature data for single pixels containing the flux tower locations, we created a base query
 166 containing site names, latitudes, longitudes, and relevant time frames for each site, submitted to
 167 AppEEARS (<https://appeears.earthdatacloud.nasa.gov/>) (Hufkens 2023). Multispectral reflectance data
 168 (Tab. 1) was taken from the MODIS MCD43A4 Bidirectional Reflectance Distribution Function
 169 (BRDF) adjusted product Version 6.1. Land surface temperature data was taken from the MODIS
 170 MOD11A1 product. The MCD43A4 data have a spatial resolution of 500 m and daily temporal
 171 resolution, while MOD11A1 provides data with a daily Land Surface Temperature Emissivity with
 172 spatial resolution of 1 km.

173 Poor-quality data were implicitly excluded through the internal quality screening applied in the
 174 MODIS products, and additional filtering based upon good data quality using data QA/QC
 175 descriptions was performed. The screened bad values were cleaned up and marked as NA. This
 176 resulted in a loss of 35-39% for reflectance bands 1, 3, 5, and 7, 3-4% for reflectance bands 2, 4, and
 177 6, and 65% for LST. Prior to model training, we imputed missing data using additional meteorological
 178 predictors, extracted from eddy-covariance site records using FluxDataKit (Hufkens and Stocker
 179 2024). For each site and date, daytime mean air temperature (TA_F_MDS) and incoming shortwave



radiation (SW_IN_F_MDS) were added to the dataset. Missing remote-sensing variables were then filled using sequential k -nearest-neighbour (KNN) imputation. In the first step, reflectance bands 1, 3, 5, and 7 - those with the highest proportion of missing values - were imputed using air temperature, shortwave radiation, and the remaining reflectance bands 2, 4, and 6 as predictors. In the second step, land surface temperature (LST) was imputed using all reflectance bands together with the same meteorological predictors. Bands 2, 4, and 6 were not imputed. Variables were imputed iteratively using a custom imputation function that trains a KNN model for the target variable and replaces missing values with predicted estimates. The KNN model was specified using normalised values of all predictors and the optimal k was selected among (5, 15, 25) based on 5-fold cross-validation. Imputation was done once prior to model training and not implemented as part of the model cross-validation workflow due to prohibitive computational costs and in view of the fact that the target variable of the final model (fLUE) was not used as predictor for any of the imputation steps - thus largely averting the risk of data leakage.

To provide predictors for downstream modelling, additional variables from earth observation and climate data products were merged with the dataset, and other locally measured variables, used for imputation, were dropped again. We used, meteorological data from ERA5-Land, including air temperature at 2 m (t2m_era5), surface solar radiation downwards (ssrd_era5), and the ERA5-Land data-derived potential cumulative water deficit (PCWD, see below), all originally provided at 0.1° spatial resolution. For both ERA5-Land variables and PCWD, the nearest 0.1° grid-cell values to each FLUXNET site of the 69 sites were extracted and added to the training dataset. This resulting dataset, containing fLUE data, spectral reflectance, land surface temperature, and ERA5-Land variables and PCWD for all 69 sites and available dates was used to train the machine learning model.

Potential cumulative water deficit (PCWD) was calculated as the cumulative difference between potential evapotranspiration (PET) and precipitation (P) over continuously dry periods when atmospheric evaporative demand exceeds water supply (B. D. Stocker et al. 2023), following the workflow established by (Helpap et al. 2026). PET was used instead of actual evapotranspiration to isolate atmospheric forcing and avoid uncertainties associated with vegetation processes and model-specific assumptions about soil water storage (Stocker et al. 2024). PET was computed using the Priestley–Taylor equation as implemented by (Davis et al. 2017), which expresses PET as a function of temperature and net radiation. For ERA5-Land, PET was recalculated from daily temperature and monthly net radiation, the latter calculated from surface net solar and thermal radiation (ssr + str). Precipitation was partitioned into rainfall and snowfall using an ERA5-specific snow-simulation scheme that models snow accumulation, melt, and meltwater release; meltwater was added to rainfall to obtain daily liquid water input to the soil (P_{in}). PCWD accumulation begins on the first day when PET exceeds P_{in} and continues until the deficit is compensated, with an absolute



threshold of 10 mm marking the end of a PCWD event. All computations were performed for each ERA5-Land grid cell using the *cwd* R package (Stocker et al. 2024).

Table 1. MODIS spectral bands and ERA-Land variables with their annotations, spectral ranges, and descriptions (Schaaf and Wang 2021; Wan et al. 2021; Muñoz-Sabater et al. 2021)

Product	Short name	Spectral range [nm]	Description
MCD43A4.061	NR_B1	620 - 670	Red
	NR_B2	841 - 876	NIR
	NR_B3	459 - 479	Blue
	NR_B4	545 - 565	Green
	NR_B5	1230 - 1250	SWIR1
	NR_B6	1628 - 1652	SWIR2
	NR_B7	2105 - 2155	SWIR3
MOD11A1.061	LST	-	Land surface temperature
MCD12Q1	LC	-	Land cover
ERA5-Land	t2m_era5	-	2 m air temperature
	ssrd_era5	-	Surface solar radiation downwards
	pcwd_era5	-	Potential cumulative water deficit (derived)

2.3. Modelling

We trained the model that uses data measuring the fractional reduction of light use efficiency due to soil moisture stress (fLUE (B. D. Stocker et al. 2018b)) as the target and seven spectral reflectances (Tab. 1), land surface temperature, and meteorological data (*t2m*, *ssrd*, and *pcwd*) as the predictors. The model was implemented as a Random Forest (RF) model, using the *ranger* R package (Wright et al. 2024). Model training was conducted through leave-one-site-out cross-validation to ensure spatial generalization. This approach places data for a specific site either entirely in the training, or entirely in



the validation set and yields models that should be generalisable across sites. We performed the following pre-processing steps as part of the cross-validation workflow. First, all possible pairwise combinations of MODIS surface reflectance bands were computed as normalized difference indices (nd_NR_BX1_NR_BX2) and incorporated as predictors in the model. Second, all numeric predictors were normalised. Third, the predictor *vegetation type* was dummy-encoded. Fourth, data points belonging to periods with substantial fLUE reductions ('fLUE droughts' as defined in the data by (B. Stocker 2018)) were up-sampled to have the same ratio as non-'fLUE droughts'. Hyperparameters were tuned using a grid search over *mtry* (3, 5, 7) and minimum node size (*min.node.size*) (5, 15, 25), while the split rule was fixed to *variance*. Hyperparameters were optimized with *mtry* = 7, *min.node.size* = 15, and 500 trees. Training used bootstrap sampling (fraction = 0.5) and 500 trees, and the final model was refitted with 2,000 trees for improved stability. Variable importance analysis based on impurity reduction identified the most influential predictors for predicting the physiological drought impacts on vegetation.

2.4. Comparison of fLUE* with common spectral vegetation indices

2.4.1. Linear correlation between fLUE* and vegetation indices

We compared the correlation between fLUE and fLUE* (predicted value of fLUE) with the correlation between fLUE and a set of commonly used vegetation indices (VIs) to understand how well remote sensing-based indices capture variations in the physiological response of ecosystem photosynthesis to water stress, as measured by fLUE. For this, we selected the most commonly used vegetation indices for monitoring vegetation drought (Table S1) from a list of spectral indices widely used in remote sensing (Loaiza et al. 2024). The VIs are computed using MODIS nadir reflectance bands (Table. 1) for each date for which fLUE was available. Within each cluster, during 10 days pre-drought onset and drought events (30 days after drought onset), a linear model of fLUE with fLUE* and with the calculated VIs was fitted separately. Then, the R^2 value for each linear model was extracted and plotted to compare the relationship between vegetation indices, fLUE*, and fLUE, and to determine which remote sensing indices best capture the physiological changes in vegetation due to soil moisture drought. The normalised difference vegetation index (NDVI), besides fLUE*, turned out to yield the highest correlation with fLUE (Fig. 3) and was therefore used for subsequent analysis steps, described below. The drought events were defined according to Stocker et al. (2018) as days when fLUE falls below a site-specific threshold. We considered only data from dates that belonged to soil moisture drought events of at least twenty-seven consecutive days. For each site, data from each event was aligned with respect to the first day of the respective event.



258 2.4.2. Spatial analysis for summers of 2018 and 2020 in central Europe

259 Using geospatial images (rasters) of multispectral reflectances and LST, we applied the fitted model to
260 predict fLUE* over Central Europe for two contrasting summer conditions, comparing the severe
261 drought of 2018 with more humid conditions in 2020 (Kowalski et al. 2022). For comparison, we
262 calculated NDVI from the same data (Table. S1). Multispectral reflectance and LST data were
263 obtained from the same products as used for training the model (Table. 1). For the LST band, before
264 averaging, the rasters, originally provided at 1 km resolution, were resampled using bilinear
265 interpolation to a spatial resolution of 500 m to be compatible with the resolution of the reflectance
266 rasters. Similarly, the t2m_era5, ssrd_era5, and pcwd_era5 datasets for the Central Europe extent were
267 extracted. Their spatial extents were matched to the MODIS rasters and disaggregated by replication
268 to achieve the same spatial resolution as MODIS for spatial upscaling of the model.

269 Data for June, July, and August of 2018 and 2020 were obtained and averaged per month and year.
270 The average values for these months were calculated for each band and combined into a raster stack
271 for each year. Pixels covered by croplands, permanent snow, and water bodies, as well as other
272 vegetation types (closed shrublands, deciduous needleleaf forests, open shrublands, and barren or
273 sparsely vegetated areas), represented by a small number of pixels in the study area, were masked.
274 Wetlands were also dropped because of their distinct water-vegetation relations which we did not
275 expect to capture with a single generalised model, informed almost exclusively by data from
276 non-wetland sites. The mask was created using the land cover (LC) product (MCD12Q1) from
277 MODIS and applied to the fLUE* and NDVI rasters. Temporal changes in fLUE* and NDVI during
278 the summers of 2018 and 2020, referred to as Δ fLUE* and Δ NDVI, were analysed as the differences in
279 their values between June and July, and between June and August. Then, the difference between NDVI
280 and fLUE* temporal changes were calculated to compare spatial patterns of temporal changes between
281 both summers. We conducted further analysis of the distribution of the difference between the values
282 of two rasters for the summers of 2018 and 2020. Furthermore, we analyzed Δ fLUE* and Δ NDVI
283 during both summers separately for each vegetation type as the respective mean across pixels covered
284 by the respective vegetation.

285

286 To identify areas where these spatial predictions represented interpolation rather than extrapolation,
287 the model's Area of Applicability (AOA) was assessed using the CAST package (Meyer et al. 2026).
288 Euclidean distances in the processed predictor space were weighted by variable importance derived
289 from the final random-forest model. For each prediction pixel, the Dissimilarity Index (DI) was
290 calculated from its distance to the most similar training observation, normalized by the mean
291 nearest-neighbour distance among the training observations. The DI threshold was derived using the
292 same leave-site-out cross-validation folds employed for model evaluation. Pixels with $DI \leq 0.195$ were



classified as inside the AOA, whereas those with $DI > 0.195$ were considered extrapolations. Pixels with missing predictor values were excluded.

3. Results

3.1. fLUE prediction models

Fig. 2 presents fLUE out-of-sample prediction performance using MODIS spectral and thermal bands, ERA5-Land variables $t2m$ and $ssrd$, and potential cumulative water deficit (Fig. 2a). Prediction performances are quantified on pooled data from individual held-out sites of each cross-validation fold. The model predicted fLUE with an R^2 of 0.64 and a RMSE of 0.112 (unitless). The variable importance plot showed that a normalized vegetation index derived from nadir reflectance bands corresponding to red and green ($nd_NR_B1_NR_B4$) was the most important predictor for fLUE. This index corresponds to the negative of the broadband green-red vegetation index (GRVI). The importance of this index was followed by PCWD and LST, while other spectral indices and sensor bands contributed to a lesser extent.

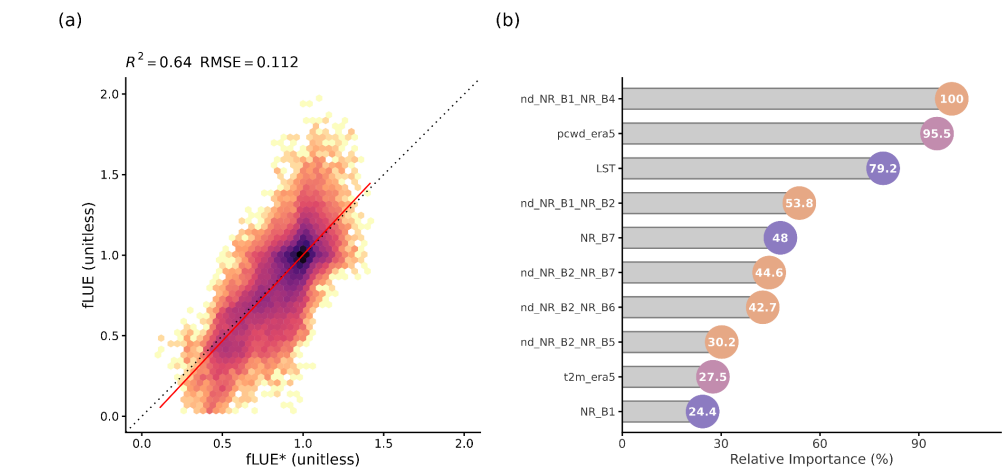


Fig. 2. Regression model performance (a) and variable importance plots (b) for fLUE predictions using MODIS spectral and thermal bands, ERA5-Land variables $t2m$ and $ssrd$, and potential cumulative water deficit. The prediction performance metrics are quantified on pooled data from predictions for individual held-out sites of each cross-validation folds.



3.2. Comparison of satellite-derived fLUE and vegetation indices

A simple linear correlation analysis between fLUE*, vegetation indices, and fLUE shows that our remote sensing data-based predictions of fLUE (fLUE*) are better correlated to “observed” fLUE than all tested vegetation indices across all clusters (Fig. 3). In the deciduous vegetation cluster (cDD), fLUE* shows the highest median R^2 values (~0.5), followed by vegetation indices NDVI and ARVI (see Table. S1 for a description of all vegetation indices shown here) with median R^2 values around 0.35, but show higher variance across sites, while GRVI had a median R^2 around 0.20. The correlation is stronger in the cDD cluster than in the evergreen cluster (cGR) for all indices tested. In the evergreen cluster, the median is higher for fLUE* than the vegetation indices. However, there is a relatively high variance in performance from site to site. In contrast, very low or no correlations were found between fLUE and these vegetation indices in the cluster with low sensitivity to soil moisture (cLS) (not shown).

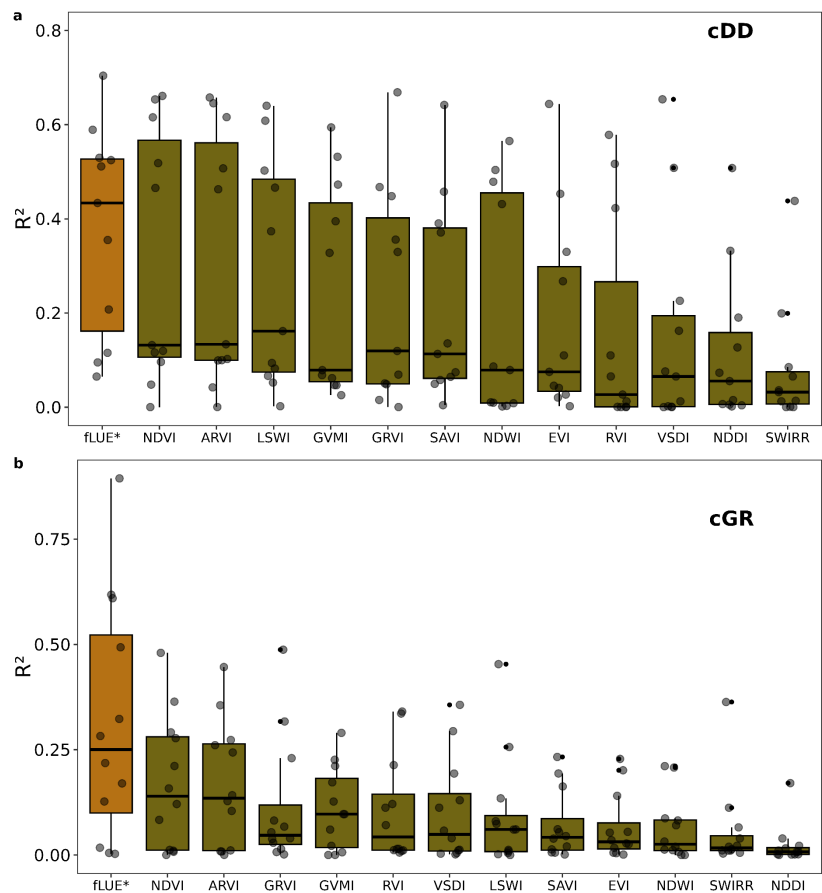


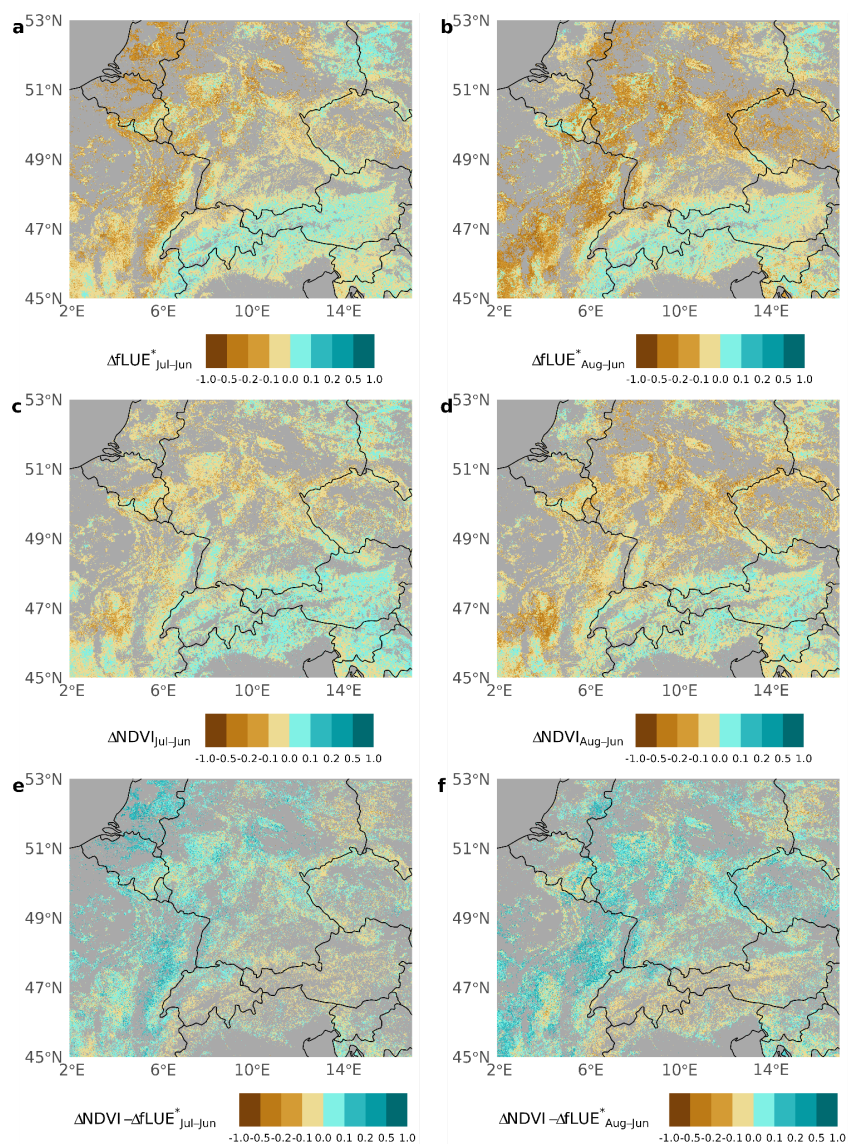


Fig. 3. Linear correlation between fLUE, fLUE*, and selected vegetation indices (Table S1) across the two different clusters of sites (cDD: drought-deciduous cluster and cGR: evergreen cluster). The indices are ranked in decreasing order of the median R^2 for the cGR cluster. Each point indicates the R^2 of fLUE* vs. fLUE for the held-out site from the cross validation for fLUE*.

3.4. Sensing drought responses across Central Europe

Satellite-derived fLUE* and NDVI across central Europe and their evolution over the course of a severe summer drought - from June to August of 2018 - are shown in Fig. 4. For comparison, we also investigated these changes over the course of the relatively moist summer of 2020 (Fig. S2). In general, fLUE* exhibits a stronger decline over summer months than NDVI. In the early drought phase (July), fLUE* records widespread strong reductions (by >0.2 units) across northeastern France, central Germany, and the Netherlands (Fig. 4a), while reductions in NDVI in these regions are much weaker. The magnitudes of both quantities are comparable as they are expressed unitless, between 0 and 1. These differences in early drought phase sensitivity are directly reflected by the map shown in Fig. 5e with a clear dominance of positive values, indicating a stronger decline in fLUE* than in NDVI. The differences in sensitivity between fLUE* and NDVI became even more expressed as the 2018 summer drought progressed (change from June to August, second column in Fig. 4). August-vs.-June reductions of >0.2 fLUE* units are found across most forest regions of northeastern France and central Germany (Fig. 4b). In contrast, reductions appear less pronounced when considering NDVI (Fig. 4d). During the relatively moist summer of 2020, both fLUE* and NDVI increased from June to July in central Germany and the Netherlands compared to the same period in 2018 (Fig. S2a–c). In contrast, fLUE* in northeastern France declined by more than 0.2 units, whereas NDVI exhibited weaker reductions. From June to August, fLUE* again shows a more pronounced decline in August than NDVI (Fig. S2b), with reductions over this period affecting 78% of the study area for fLUE* compared to 60% for NDVI (Fig. S3). As a consequence, we found widespread strong differences between the two metrics across forests of Central Europe, indicating a generally more sensitive response of fLUE* than NDVI.

The Dissimilarity Index threshold derived from the leave-site-out cross-validation structure was 0.195. Of the 3,662,766 valid pixels in the June 2018 prediction raster, 98.29% of the pixels were located inside the model's Area of Applicability, whereas 1.71% were outside. The mean DI was 0.089 ± 0.037 , substantially below the applicability threshold, indicating that most spatial predictions were made within predictor conditions represented by the training data. Nevertheless, a small number of pixels showed substantially higher dissimilarity (maximum DI = 1.500), mainly in high altitude areas of the alps (Fig. S4).



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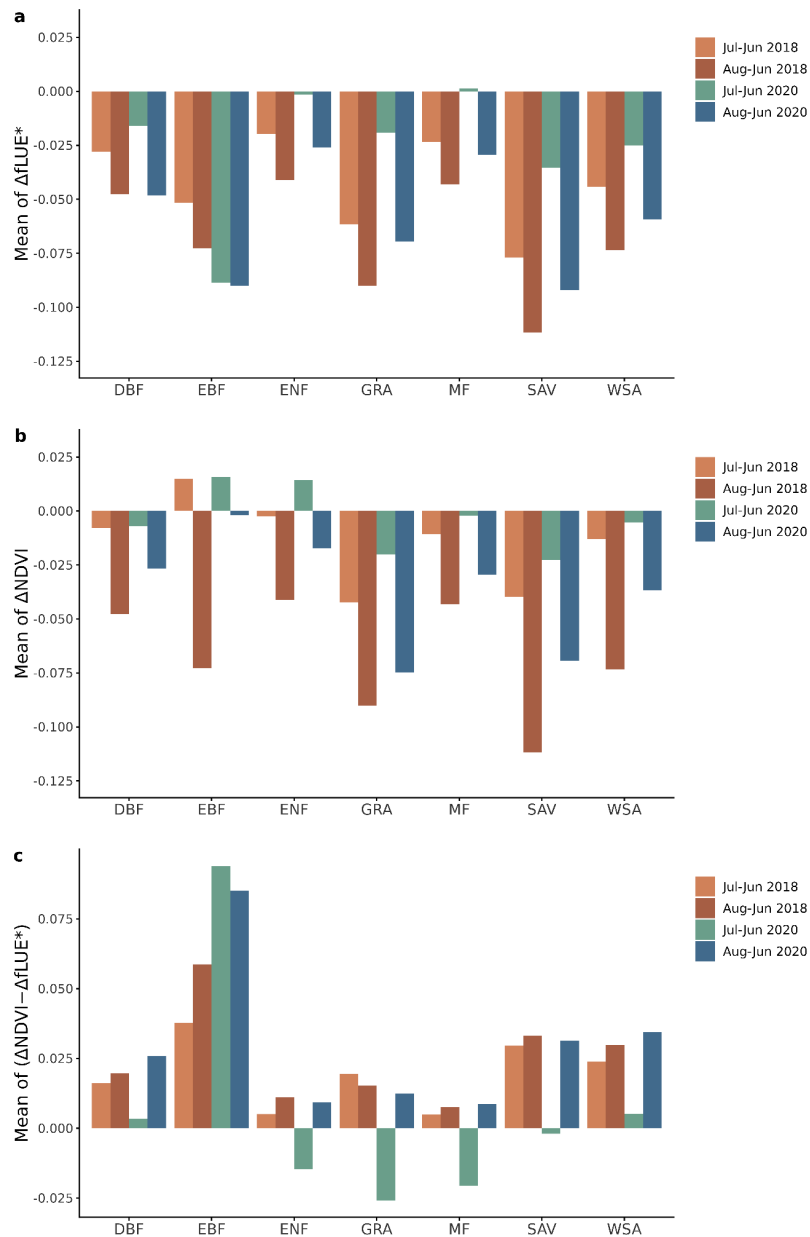
359 **Fig. 4.** Spatial patterns of changes in fLUE* and NDVI from June to July (a) and from June to August (b) of
 360 2018. Changes in NDVI for the same periods are shown in (c) and (d), respectively. The difference between
 361 temporal changes recorded by NDVI vs. fLUE* for the periods June to July and June to August are shown in (e)
 362 and (f), respectively.

363



364 3.5. Drought responses across vegetation types

365 As indicated by our analysis of fLUE* and NDVI over the course of soil moisture drought at eddy
366 covariance sites (Fig. 3 and Fig. 4), differences in the sensitivity of the two metrics are more expressed
367 in evergreen vegetation. Therefore, we aggregated spatial results shown in Fig. 4 by vegetation type
368 across Central Europe (Fig. 5). This confirms the finding that fLUE* is much more sensitive than
369 NDVI in evergreen vegetation (strongly positive values for evergreen broadleaf forest, EBF, in Fig.
370 5c). We also found that this difference is greatest under the relatively moist summer conditions of
371 2020. fLUE* generally declined over the course of both summers, considering both the July vs. June
372 and the August vs. June decline, in all vegetation types (except for mixed forests, we found no decline
373 in July vs. June 2020). Interestingly, we also found a strong decline in fLUE* for 2020 in evergreen
374 broadleaf forests, despite comparably moist conditions in that year. In contrast, NDVI recorded no or
375 only minimal declines for July vs. June 2018 in evergreen vegetation (both broadleaf and needleleaf).
376 For July vs. June 2020, NDVI exhibited an increase or minimal decline for most vegetation types
377 (except grasslands and what was classified as savannah).



378

379 **Fig. 5 .** Changes in fLUE* (a), NDVI (b), and the difference between the both (c) for each vegetation type
 380 during the summers of 2018 and 2020, comparing July vs. June values and August vs. June values. Values are
 381 averages over areas covered by each type within the spatial domain shown in Fig. 5 (GRA: grasslands; SAV:
 382 savanna; WSA: woody savanna; ENF: evergreen needleleaf forest; EBF: evergreen broadleaf forest; DBF:
 383 deciduous broadleaf forest; DNF: deciduous needleleaf forest; MF: mixed forest).



384 4. Discussion

385 Greenness-based remote sensing of vegetation could underestimate drought impacts on the carbon
386 cycle due to strong physiological responses of plants to water stress that are not accompanied by
387 simultaneous canopy structural changes (Morton et al. 2014; Hu et al. 2022; B. D. Stocker et al. 2019).
388 Here, we have developed a non-parametric model, informed by multispectral reflectance and thermal
389 remote sensing data, combined with climate reanalysis, for a more accurate quantification of drought
390 impacts on the ecosystem photosynthetic C uptake, focusing on the physiological response. The model
391 was trained on estimates of the soil moisture stress on light use efficiency of photosynthesis, derived
392 from eddy covariance-based ecosystem flux data. The aim was to detect vegetation physiological
393 responses to drought, independent of canopy structural changes, across a wide range of ecosystems.
394 Greenness indices are widely used for drought impact detection and quantification, but reflect mostly
395 the structural response of ecosystem photosynthesis to drought. A strong effect of water limitation on
396 photosynthesis, independent of declines in greenness, is expected from known mechanisms of the
397 physiological response, including stomatal closure (Martin-StPaul et al. 2017; Abdalla et al. 2021),
398 acclimation of photosynthesis to sustained water stress (Zhou et al. 2013), and the deployment of leaf
399 pigments and NPQ (Müller et al. 2001; Jaume Flexas and Medrano 2002). It remains largely unknown
400 to what extent this component of the drought response can be captured from remote sensing data.
401 While previous studies have targeted the prediction of GPP (Jung et al. 2019), or have evaluated its
402 correlations of GPP with individual vegetation indices (Badgley et al. 2017; John A. Gamon et al.
403 2016; X. Li et al. 2018), our modeling and analysis targets the non-structural component of the
404 ecosystem photosynthesis response to drought, separated from the structural response captured by
405 vegetation greenness. We investigated (1) how well this non-structural component can be sensed with
406 available satellite remote sensing data, (2) which bands and other modalities provide most information
407 for its sensing, (3) to what extent our index fLUE* improves the estimation of non-structural drought
408 impacts over commonly used vegetation indices, (4) how fLUE* evolved over the course of a recent
409 summer drought in Europe and (5) to what extent its sensitivity differs from NDVI, and (6) how
410 differences vary across vegetation types.

411 4.1. Spectral, thermal, and meteorological data capture more 412 physiological drought response

413 Our results show that the physiological response can be partly estimated from multispectral
414 reflectances, land surface temperature sensing, and climate data combined. We found that while the
415 non-structural response is partly correlated with vegetation greenness, as captured by NDVI, the
416 correlation breaks down, particularly in evergreen ecosystems (see also Sec. 4.2), during the early



417 phases of drought events, and relatively mild water stress conditions. Under these conditions, fLUE*
 418 provides a more sensitive metric, reflecting reductions of ecosystem photosynthesis prior to
 419 discernible declines in greenness. Under these conditions, our earth observation data-driven model
 420 captures a larger portion and an earlier onset of the drought response. This finding rests on multiple
 421 results presented here. First, the model demonstrated good performance for spatial generalisation, as
 422 measured by the leave-site-out cross-validation performed on a wide variety of sites and vegetation
 423 types ($R^2 = 0.64$, RMSE = 0.112) (Fig. 2a), indicating that it reliably detects vegetation physiological
 424 responses to drought across space and diverse vegetation types. The cross-validation setup applied
 425 here (leave-site-out) measures the performance of the model estimating water-stress related light use
 426 efficiency reductions on a location for which no data was used for model training. This
 427 cross-validation setup thus reflects the application of the model here, where it is used for providing
 428 water stress effects estimation across space - an essential aspect of reliable model performance
 429 assessment (Ludwig et al. 2023; Sweet et al. 2023). Second, the comparison between fLUE* and
 430 vegetation indices in capturing physiological effects during drought periods showed that there is a
 431 correlation between photosynthetic efficiency and NDVI, but a stronger one when considering the
 432 multispectral signal in combination with the thermal signal and meteorological data (as expressed by
 433 fLUE*) (Fig. 3). Third, across Central Europe, fLUE* showed earlier, stronger, and more widespread
 434 declines starting from July under severe drought conditions of 2018 compared with NDVI in the same
 435 regions and periods. Even under the milder drought conditions of 2020, fLUE* declined for many
 436 vegetation types (e.g., DBF, EBF, GRA, SAV, and WSA), unlike NDVI. This may partly indicate
 437 increasing physiological stress under progressively drier conditions, but it may also reflect seasonal
 438 senescence or leaf ageing; disentangling these effects requires further analysis (Fig. 4 and Fig. 5).

439 Taken together, this shows that there is information in the combination of spectral, thermal, and
 440 meteorological data that is untapped by traditional vegetation indices and that can be used for a more
 441 complete estimation of drought impacts on vegetation functioning from earth observation data. Our
 442 analysis identifies the environmental conditions and vegetation types under which incorporating these
 443 data sources alters assessment of drought impacts on vegetation functioning.

444 Previous studies have shown a close link between photosynthetic efficiency and canopy greenness.
 445 Using only NDVI and LST from MODIS, LUE was estimated with an R^2 of 0.73 (Wu and Niu 2012;
 446 S. Wang et al. 2017). However, while such vegetation indices can effectively track LUE at broader
 447 time scales, they may be less sensitive to short-term environmental stress. Our spatial prediction
 448 during drought events reveals this limitation directly in many ecosystems. In contrast, our work
 449 estimates LUE reduction in response to soil moisture drought on a sub-seasonal timescale, capturing
 450 rapid physiological stress even under mild drought conditions, when structural or pigment-related
 451 changes are limited and often missed by greenness-based indices (Fig. 5). Over longer periods, VIs



452 can still capture stress-related changes in pigment composition, but they often don't respond as
453 directly to rapid changes in photosynthesis efficiency (Rossini et al. 2015) - in particular in locations
454 with evergreen vegetation cover.

455 Our model does not rely solely on spectral or thermal information but also learns from meteorological
456 drivers of drought, as reflected by the variable importance analysis (Fig. 2b). This integration enables
457 the model to better capture the causal link between atmospheric forcing and physiological response.
458 Our findings show that GRVI exerted a particularly strong influence as a predictor of reduced
459 photosynthetic efficiency (fLUE*) (Fig. 2b–c). This pattern reflects the well-established physiological
460 basis of GRVI as an indicator of pigment dynamics (Yin et al. 2022; Nagai et al. 2012). Specifically,
461 GRVI has been demonstrated to be a robust proxy for the Chlorophyll/Carotenoid Index and directly
462 tracks xanthophyll cycle activity (Yin et al. 2022). The xanthophyll cycle is a key photoprotective
463 mechanism that down-regulates photosynthetic efficiency under stress conditions (Demmig-Adams
464 and Adams 1996). This mechanistic link is further supported by evidence that GRVI correlates more
465 strongly with the forest canopy's maximum photosynthetic capacity than NDVI or EVI, confirming its
466 high sensitivity to the pigment-driven changes that control photosynthetic function (Nagai et al. 2012).

467 The secondary yet critical roles of PCWD and LST contextualize the primary spectral signal. PCWD
468 reflects the atmospheric drought forcing (Gimeno-Sotelo et al. 2024). This is supported by Buras et al.
469 (2020), who showed at the continental scale that precipitation and temperature anomalies are the
470 second- and third-most critical drivers of early wilting during severe drought in Central Europe.
471 PCWD importance confirms that the reduction in photosynthetic efficiency (fLUE*) is a direct
472 response to cumulative water stress. On the other hand, LST captures effects of water-stress induced
473 stomatal closure and reduced vegetation activity, including transpiration and photosynthesis (Ma et al.
474 2022; Geng et al. 2023; Mullapudi et al. 2023). The physiological response to water stress is strongly
475 driven by stomatal regulation and changes in photosynthetic capacities (J. Flexas et al. 2004; Zhou et
476 al. 2013). Stomatal regulation reduces water loss through transpiration, but also affects the surface
477 energy partitioning, leading to a heating of transpiring surfaces and leaves, more sensible heat flux,
478 while reducing the latent heat flux. Therefore, LST reflects stomatal regulation and thereby the
479 physiological response (Jiang et al. 2023; Lian et al. 2021; Zhang et al. 2025). These results suggest
480 that the integration of simple spectral indices from the visible range with key meteorological drivers
481 and the thermal infrared-based signal (LST) offers a robust approach for detecting the physiological
482 response of ecosystems during drought more than vegetation indices alone. While expected, given
483 fLUE was used as the training target, this highlights how specific and voluminous training data for
484 targeted machine learning models can yield more reliable and sensitive estimates of drought effects
485 than parametric regression models (indices) can do.



4.2. Clearest advantage in evergreen vegetation

Evergreen forests present a challenge for remotely detecting physiological stress because they show little variation in foliage over the course of the year and hence canopy greenness is often maintained under environmental stress (Hmimina et al. 2013). The spatial prediction of vegetation responses during drought events showed distinct patterns in NDVI and our satellite-derived fLUE (Fig. 4). fLUE* responds to drought earlier than NDVI, showing a stronger reduction in many regions in July, and continuing into August during the severe 2018 drought (Fig. 4e–f). Spatial aggregation by vegetation type across Central Europe showed a consistent fLUE* decline for all vegetation types during the summer droughts of 2018 and 2020, while NDVI failed to capture these changes, especially in evergreen forests, where it decreased only under the severe drought conditions of August 2018 (Fig. 5). A similar, yet nuanced, decoupling is observed in DBF. Here, fLUE* also shows a greater decline than NDVI in both years, with the most severe physiological stress occurring during late summer (August). While a classic remote-sensing symptom of severe drought in DBF is "early wilting" or leaf shedding (a sharp NDVI drop) (Brun et al. 2020), our results show that moderate mid-summer water stress (e.g., in July) is less captured by NDVI. Our fLUE* model, however, reliably detects this early-stage physiological decline, showing a stronger reduction in July than NDVI (Fig. 5). Consistent with previous studies that identified over 30,000 km² of deciduous forest in Central Europe falling within the lowest VI quantile during the 2018 drought (Buras et al., 2020). The substantial NDVI reductions have been associated with early leaf shedding, a mechanism to reduce overall tree transpiration and water loss (Schuldt et al. 2020; Brun et al. 2020; Buras, Rammig, and Zang 2020; Descals et al. 2023). NDVI also increased in some locations during dry periods (Fig. 4c), while fLUE remains around 1.0 under the same conditions. The NDVI increase is likely due to drought-associated sunny conditions under typically energy-limited rather than water-limited site conditions. This can enhance photosynthetic activity and thus vegetation greening (Mastrotheodoros et al. 2020; W. Li et al. 2023).

In contrast, evergreen forests showed only slight variations in NDVI during mid-summer droughts (Fig. 5b) make it challenging to remotely detect drought impacts. These biomes remain green year-round, and visible signs such as leaf shedding or discoloration typically indicate only severe stress or mortality (Huang and Xia 2019; Brun et al. 2020). Our findings reflect this pattern. While EBF and ENF showed minimal or positive NDVI changes in July 2018 and 2020, followed by a sharp decline only under extreme August 2018 stress (likely indicating irreversible damages), our fLUE* metric revealed a consistent and significant physiological downregulation beginning in July for both evergreen types (Fig. 5a–b).

The model was evaluated across a diverse set of sites spanning multiple biomes and continents, indicating that it is broadly applicable across a wide range of ecosystem types. However, its practical



521 application is demonstrated here only for a temperate European region, so further testing is still
522 needed in other contrasting climatic regimes. The finding that fLUE* is particularly effective at
523 detecting water stress in evergreen vegetation. This suggests considerable potential for application in
524 subtropical and tropical ecosystems characterized by closed evergreen canopies and pronounced
525 seasonal water limitations, including monsoon-influenced regions where timely detection of drought
526 stress remains challenging.

527 4.3. Opportunities

528 Several methodological and observational aspects motivated our study. First, fLUE (B. D. Stocker et
529 al. 2018) provided a physiologically meaningful target variable derived from eddy-covariance flux
530 measurements, with a large data volume and broad ecological representativeness across sites, offering
531 a robust empirical basis for model training and evaluation across diverse conditions. Second, readily
532 accessible satellite observations from the MODIS mission provide more than two decades of
533 consistent global coverage. Although the spatial resolution is moderate (500 m), MODIS combines
534 multiple complementary data streams, including visible, near-infrared, and thermal infrared
535 observations at a spatial resolution that matches the typical spatial extent of eddy-covariance
536 measurements' footprints (Chu et al. 2021). Third, readily available machine-learning methods
537 constitute an effective tool for modelling complex, nonlinear relationships and interactions, while
538 enabling robust generalization.

539 Future Earth observation missions may open new opportunities for using multi-source observations for
540 the accurate detection of physiological drought responses and photosynthetic activity. Upcoming
541 thermal remote sensing missions at high spatial resolution, or optical remote sensing with enhanced
542 spectral resolution and targeted sensing of solar-induced chlorophyll fluorescence (SIF), bear potential
543 for improving flux data-informed models in the future. In contrast, multispectral remote sensing with
544 high spatial resolution is not necessarily advantageous for this purpose, as the characteristic footprint
545 of eddy-covariance towers in forested systems (typically on the order of ~1 km) is inherently well
546 matched to moderate-resolution products such as those from MODIS or VIIRS (Chu et al. 2021).
547 Using higher-resolution imagery is not straightforward, because it requires explicit consideration of
548 sub-footprint heterogeneity. Uncertainties related to spatial and temporal representativeness must thus
549 be addressed to account for temporally varying source areas determined by wind direction (B. Chen et
550 al. 2010).



551 5. Conclusions

552 This study demonstrates that a data-driven integration of multispectral reflectance, thermal
553 information, meteorological drivers, and flux-derived target data can retrieve the ecosystem-scale
554 physiological drought responses more effectively than greenness-based vegetation indices alone. By
555 using fLUE as a physiologically meaningful target, measuring the water stress-related reduction in the
556 light use efficiency of photosynthesis, and a machine-learning framework that generalizes across sites,
557 we show that drought impacts on photosynthetic activity can be detected earlier and more sensitively
558 than with NDVI and related indices, especially in evergreen vegetation where structural signals are
559 weak. Our approach demonstrates how current available satellite observations, combined with flux
560 data and machine learning, systematically separates the physiological response from the
561 greenness-related response to soil moisture stress. Our modelling approach is adaptable to integrate
562 future high spatio-temporal resolution products, ensuring continuity and improved investigation of
563 separated vegetation structural and physiological dynamics of vegetation on the global scale.

564 Code/Data availability

565 MODIS data are publicly available through NASA's AppEEARS platform:
566 <https://appeears.earthdatacloud.nasa.gov/>. The fLUE dataset is available on Zenodo:
567 <https://zenodo.org/records/1158524>. All code used in this study, together with the machine-learning
568 dataset, is available in the GitHub repository :
569 https://github.com/yousra07/index_based_physiological_drought.

570 Competing interests

571 The authors declare no conflicts of interest relevant to this study

572 Author contributions

573 YEM downloaded and prepared the data for modelling and analysis, conducted the analyses, produced
574 visualisations, interpreted the results, wrote the first draft of the manuscript, and revised the
575 manuscript. BDS and KH designed the study. KH developed the initial MODIS data-processing and
576 modelling framework and reviewed the manuscript. BDS refined the model and data-imputation
577 approach, contributed to the methodology and interpretation, and revised the manuscript.

578

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