# Stomatal behavior moderates water cost of CO 2 acquisition for 21 boreal and temperate species under experimental climate change

Artur Stefanski<sup>1</sup>, Ethan Butler<sup>1</sup>, Raimundo Bermudez<sup>1</sup>, Rebecca Montgomery<sup>1</sup>, and Peter Reich<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>University of Minnesota Department of Forest Resources

September 14, 2022

# Abstract

The linkage of stomatal behavior with photosynthetic processes is critical to understanding water and carbon cycles under global change. The slope ( $g_1$ ) of stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ ) versus CO <sub>2</sub> assimilation ( $A_{net}$ ) serves as a proxy of the marginal water cost of carbon acquisition and the trade-off between carbon gain and water loss. Here we use  $g_1$  to assess species differences in the response of stomatal behavior to experimental climate change manipulations, asking whether generalizable patterns exist across species and climate contexts. A total of 17,727  $A_{net^-} g_s$  measurements made in a long-term open-air experiment under ambient and +3.3°C warming, and ambient and ~40% summer rainfall reduction provided > 2,700 estimates of  $g_1$  across 21 boreal and temperate tree species. All species became more conservative in their water use (lower  $g_1$ ) in warming and/or reduced rainfall treatments because of lower soil moisture. In contrast to these phenotypic responses, species from warmer and drier habitats tended to have slightly higher  $g_1$  and to be the least sensitive to the decrease in soil water. Overall, both warming and rainfall reduction consistently made stomatal behavior more conservative in terms of water loss per unit carbon gain across 21 species and a decade of experimental observation.

Stomatal behavior moderates water cost of  $CO_2$  acquisition for 21 boreal and temperate species under experimental climate change

#### Short informative title:

Experimentally manipulated temperature and summer rainfall affects stomatal behavior

Artur Stefanski<sup>1\*</sup>, Ethan E. Butler<sup>1</sup>, Raimundo Bermudez<sup>1</sup>, Rebecca A. Montgomery<sup>1</sup>, and Peter B. Reich<sup>1,2,3</sup>

Affiliations: <sup>1</sup> Department of Forest Resources, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, MN 55108, USA.

<sup>2</sup> Hawkesbury Institute for the Environment, Western Sydney University, Penrith, NSW 2753, Australia.

<sup>3</sup> Institute for Global Change Biology, and School for the Environment and Sustainability, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI, 48109, USA

\*Corresponding Author

Corresponding author: Artur Stefanski

Department of Forest Resources, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, MN 55108, USA.

Tel: 612.625.2261

Email: stefa066@umn.edu

Total Words: manuscript main body - 59890, abstract - 199

**Summary statement:**Climate change may influence the trade-off between water loss and carbon gain of forest trees. Experimental warming and rainfall manipulation in southern boreal forest led to elevation of soil water deficits causing all 21 tree species studied to become more conservative in their use of water.

# Abstract

The linkage of stomatal behavior with photosynthetic processes is critical to understanding water and carbon cycles under global change. The slope  $(g_1)$  of stomatal conductance  $(g_s)$  versus CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation  $(A_{net})$  serves as a proxy of the marginal water cost of carbon acquisition and the trade-off between carbon gain and water loss. Here we use  $g_1$  to assess species differences in the response of stomatal behavior to experimental climate change manipulations, asking whether generalizable patterns exist across species and climate contexts. A total of  $17,727A_{net}$  - $g_s$  measurements made in a long-term open-air experiment under ambient and  $+3.3^{\circ}$ C warming, and ambient and  $\sim 40\%$  summer rainfall reduction provided > 2,700 estimates of  $g_1$  across 21 boreal and temperate tree species. All species became more conservative in their water use (lower  $g_1$ ) in warming and/or reduced rainfall treatments because of lower soil moisture. In contrast to these phenotypic responses, species from warmer and drier habitats tended to have slightly higher  $g_1$  and to be the least sensitive to the decrease in soil water. Overall, both warming and rainfall reduction consistently made stomatal behavior more conservative in terms of water loss per unit carbon gain across 21 species and a decade of experimental observation.

#### Key words:

B4WarmED, boreal-temperate ecotone, drought, water-use efficiency, stomatal behavior, warming, Unified Stomatal Optimization

# Introduction

The rate of photosynthesis is dynamically regulated by stomatal responses to environmental factors (e.g., temperature, water availability) in concert with leaf biochemical capacities. In doing so, stomata influence the marginal water cost of carbon acquisition at the leaf scale and more broadly affect the coupling between carbon and water cycles, which is especially important in light of a changing climate (Damour *et al.*, 2010; Duursma *et al.*, 2013; Gimeno*et al.*, 2016; Héroult *et al.*, 2013). However, it is not well understood whether the water-carbon trade-off will shift towards a more profligate or more conservative water use strategy in a changing climate. To address this knowledge gap, we used 11 years of data from an ecologically realistic long-term climate change experiment to test whether and how the trade-off between water loss and carbon gain changes with modest experimental warming and rainfall reduction in 21 tree species at the boreal-temperate forest ecotone.

One of the long-standing hypotheses about stomata is that their behavior follows optimization theories (Cowan, Farqhuar, 1977; Medlyn *et al.*, 2011; Manzoni *et al.*, 2013; Wolf *et al.*, 2016) with stomatal behavior often modeled as a gain-cost trade-off that maximizes carbon gain through variation of stomatal conductance in response to environmental constraints (e.g., water availability and temperature). Cowan and Farquhar (1977) proposed a mechanistic model where the role of stomata is to maximize carbon acquisition (A) at the lowest water loss through transpiration (E), described as a marginal water cost of carbon gain ( $\lambda$ ). Therefore, optimal stomatal behavior minimizes the integrated sum of the following expression – that effectively defines the marginal water cost of carbon gain – and can be written as:

? - ?? (1)

where:

A – photosynthesis,

E – transpiration,

 $\lambda$  – is a parameter representing the marginal water cost of carbon gain.

proportional to the combination of  $\lambda$  and CO<sub>2</sub> compensation point ( $\Gamma^*$ ):

However, fully mechanistic models like the one proposed by Cowan and Farqhuar (1977) (equation 1) are difficult to parameterize with typically measured field data, leading to models using proxies to represent  $\lambda$ . Following many important predecessors (e.g., Ball, Woodrow & Berry *et al.*, 1987; Leuning, 1995, and others), Medlyn*et al.*, (2011) developed the Unified Stomatal Optimization model (USO), that describes stomatal conductance as a function of carbon assimilation and environmental conditions ( $\frac{A}{(C_a \sqrt{D})}$  where: A– is net assimilation rate,  $C_a$  – is atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration at the leaf surface, D – is vapor pressure deficit (kPa) at the leaf surface). As derived by Medlyn*et al.*, (2011) the slope ( $g_1$ ) of the USO model gains biological meaning by combining equations of standard leaf diffusion with optimum leaf internal CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (C<sub>i</sub>) to link the  $g_1$  parameter with  $\lambda$  (Arneth *et al.*, 2002); for detailed description of the model see Medlyn *et al.*, 2011 and supplement). The slope of the USO model ( $g_1$  parameter) is directly

 $q_1 \propto \sqrt{\Gamma^* * \lambda} (2)$ 

where:

 $\Gamma^*$  – is CO<sub>2</sub> compensation point,

 $\lambda$  – is marginal water cost of carbon gain.

This linkage allows interpretation of the slope parameter  $g_1$ , where low values represent conservative water use while higher  $g_1$  indicates more profligate use, and the development of testable hypotheses, including about the response of stomatal conductance to novel environmental conditions such as elevated temperatures and reduced water availability.

Thus, the  $g_1$  parameter should increase with  $\lambda$  and  $\Gamma^*$ , assuming that  $C_a$  is much larger than  $\Gamma^*$  (Ehleringer, 2005) and that stomatal behavior optimizes for RuBP (Ribulose 1,5-biphosphate) regeneration limitation but not for Rubisco limitation of photosynthesis (Outlaw *et al.*,1979; Outlaw & De Vlieghere-He, 2001; Shimazaki, 1989). Because  $g_1$  is proportional to the  $\sqrt{\Gamma^* * \lambda}$  term it can be assumed that it will be sensitive to water availability, temperature, and CO<sub>2</sub>concentration, and will vary as those do. Thus, it is expected that  $g_1$  will decrease with decreasing water availability, and because  $\Gamma^*$  is exponentially dependent on temperature (Bernacchi *et al.*, 2001),  $g_1$  should increase with increasing growth temperature.

Despite theoretical predictions summarized above, and many studies of photosynthesis and stomatal conductance in relation to climate, empirical evidence about the trade-off between carbon gain and water loss remain limited (Lin *et al.*, 2015; Medlyn *et al.*,2016) especially concerning individual species representing different biomes, plant types, and responses to potential future climates. Moreover, while there has been considerable research on the impacts of single climatic drivers on stomatal behavior, we lack research on multiple climatic drivers and multiple species (Atkinson & Urwin, 2012; Stevens *et al.*, 2021). As a result, the effects of climate warming and water availability are highly uncertain and poorly represented in many models (from leaf to global scale) and in particular are not well parameterized in terms of drought sensitivity. By changing evaporative demand and/or soil moisture, both temperature and rainfall variation might change the optimal water cost and thus stomatal conductance and net photosynthetic rates. Additionally, given that species differ in their adaptations and sensitivity to both warm temperatures and limited water availability, we might also expect plants to differ systematically in terms of their stomatal behavior, water use efficiency (WUE), and how they modulate these as air and soil moisture conditions vary as pushed by a changing climate (Medlyn *et al.*,2011).

To address this knowledge gap, we evaluate the  $g_1$  parameter for a suite of temperate and boreal tree species grown in a realistic experimental setting that mimics climate change drivers (i.e., warming and rainfall reduction). Our main goals were to explore whether and how (i) stomatal behavior changes (e.g., plants decrease  $g_1$  indicating more conservative water use) in response to climate warming or soil water deficits induced by experimental treatments; (ii) stomatal behavior varies with species identity, drought tolerance, and biome association; and to determine (iii) whether there are generalizable patterns across species, their associations (e.g., biome) and environmental conditions: i.e. do species differ in response to climate treatments, and are responses to warming and rainfall reduction additive or interactive? To achieve those goals, we addressed the following issues and hypotheses.

First, consistent with optimization theory that predicts a decrease of  $\lambda$  with declining water availability, we hypothesize that  $g_1$  (which is proportional to  $\lambda$ , see equation 2) will decrease as soil moisture declines (e.g., Lu *et al.*, 2016). This leads to *H1: g<sub>1</sub> decreases with reduced rainfall for all species*.

Second, equation 2 suggests that  $g_1$  will increase with warming because; i) it is proportional to  $\Gamma^*$  which is dependent on temperature (Bernacchi *et al.*, 2001), ii) temperature induced changes in wood density will affect hydraulic conductivity (Héroult *et al.*, 2013; McCulloh *et al.*,2016), and iii) increasing temperature lowers the viscosity of water making it cheaper to transport (Yamamoto, 1995). However, we hypothesize that soil drying induced by warming treatments will cause  $g_1$  to decrease. Thus, the ultimate influence of warming will depend upon a balance between the direct influences of temperature that should increase  $g_1$ and the indirect influence of temperature on soil moisture that should decrease  $g_1$ . We expect the direct warming effects  $ong_1$  to be modest at best, and therefore the response of  $g_1$  to warming to be dominated by soil moisture (Reich *et al.*, 2018). This leads to  $H2: g_1$  will decrease with climate warming due to soil moisture reduction induced by elevated temperature.

The interactions of warming and rainfall reduction do not easily lend themselves to a simple hypothesis, due to the complexity of both direct and indirect effects of elevated temperature on factors that might influence  $g_1$  (such as leaf temperature and soil moisture), and uncertainty about whether those effects are contingent on rainfall levels. However, because the effects of warming and reduced rainfall do not have a consistent interaction on VWC (Volumetric Water Content in soil) at our study sites (data not shown), we hypothesize

# H3: reduced rainfall and warming will have an additive effects on $g_1$ because the primary mechanism of both warming and reduced rainfall effects on $g_1$ will be via the same pathway, of reduced VWC.

Modeling shows that plants can be differentially acclimated to low soil moisture in ways consistent with socalled aniso- and iso-hydric behavior (i.e., slow vs. fast decline of  $g_s$  in response to changing environemental conditions)(Mrad *et al.*,2019). Since plants in warmer regions tend to experience greater evaporative demand and soil water deficits during periods of low precipitation, we expect them to have more isohydric behavior and conservative water use strategies and thus we hypothesize  $H_4$ :that in species adapted to either drier and/or warmer conditions  $g_1$  will be both lower on average and less responsive to varying VWC than in species adapted to more mesic or cooler conditions.

To test these hypotheses, we collected  $A_{net}$  and  $g_s$  data over the span of 11 years (2009-2019) in a warming and rainfall manipulation experiment (B4WarmED; Boreal Forest Warming at an Ecotone in Danger, e.g., Reich *et al.*, 2015, 2018; Rich *et al.*, 2015). This data set consists of 17,727 measurements that were collected from roughly mid-June to the end of September in each growing season during two to five independent survey campaigns each 1-2 weeks long. A minority of these data have been used in prior publications (Reich *et al.*, 2015, 2018), none of which examined questions of marginal water costs of carbon gain.

#### Materials and Methods

#### Site description and experimental design

This research was conducted *in situ* at the two sites of the B4WarmED experiment in northern Minnesota, USA established in 2008. The sites are located at the Cloquet Forestry Center (CFC, 46°40'46" N, 92°31'12" W, 382 m a.s.l.) near Cloquet, MN and the Hubachek Wilderness Research Center (HWRC, 47°56'42" N, 91°45'29" W, 415 m a.s.l.) near Ely, MN in the ecotone of the boreal-temperate forest. The research sites are characterized by a mean annual precipitation and temperature (1980–2019) of 824 mm and 4.9°C for the CFC and 715 mm and 2.8°C for the HWRC (based on nearby weather stations). At each site 24 research plots 3 m in diameter were established, half in relatively open areas that were recently cleared (open canopy) and half in the understory (closed canopy) of existing stands of [?]70 years old mixed aspen-pine-birch with scattered fir, spruce, and other species; in both sites on coarse-textured upland soil. The study includes an

incomplete factorial of sites, canopy types, warming and rainfall manipulation, which we analyzed as two overlapping factorial experiments. One experiment consisted of two sites, two canopy conditions (closed and open), and two temperature treatments (ambient and elevated), replicated in three blocks per canopy condition per site. In addition, rainfall was manipulated but only in open canopy plots; thus the second experiment consisted of two sites, one canopy condition (open), two temperature treatments (ambient and elevated), and two rainfall manipulation (ambient and reduced), replicated in three blocks per site.

An open air (chamberless) warming treatment was implemented simultaneously for the above- and belowground part of the plot via an integrated microprocessor-based feedback control system (Rich *et al.*, 2015), designed to maintain a fixed temperature differential between ambient and warmed plots. Infrared ceramic heaters mounted above each plot in an octagonal pattern were used for the aboveground warming of plant surfaces, while resistance-type warming cables were buried (10 cm deep and spaced 20 cm apart) to achieve belowground warming. For more details about the project warming methodology see Rich *et al.*,(2015) as well as in Reich *et al.*, (2015), Sendall *et al.*,(2015), and Reich *et al.*, (2016). Aboveground temperature on each plot was measured at mid-canopy height (i.e., roughly the average for all planted tree seedlings in each plot). For temperature measurements below ground (i.e., soil temperature), we used soil temperature probes randomly inserted on each plot at the depth of 10 cm. During the mid-summer and daytime periods, across all 11 years, average temperature differentials between treatments specifically for the above ground were slightly different than the target of 3.3degC (Tables 1 and 2, Figures S1 and S2) but as they were close for the full period of warming treatments, we call the warming treatment +3.3degC throughout the paper.

The summer rainfall reduction treatment began in 2012 via rainout shelters installed only in the open canopy, on randomly selected plots across warming treatments at both sites. Rainout shelters were used to reduce both total summer rainfall and the number of rain events in each year from June 1<sup>st</sup> to September 30<sup>th</sup> (for details on rain shelter design and implementation see Stefanski *et al.*, (2020)). To minimize shading of tree seedlings, rainout shelters were typically deployed during overcast condition or at night shortly before and closed shortly after (typically 0.5-1h) the rain event. Over the course of seven seasons, rain shelters were deployed for an average total time of  $^{8}$ % of the entire rainfall reduction period (i.e., June 1<sup>st</sup> – September 30<sup>th</sup>). In each growing season, about half of this time occurred during night hours (for more information about treatments see Table 1 and Figures S1 and S2). Across the seven years of the summer rainfall removal, we saw an average reduction of 40.7% summer rainfall as compared to ambient plots (Table 1 and Figures S1 and S2). That translated to a reduced mean summer rainfall of 269.5 mm (+-15.5 SE) and 222.9 mm (+-11.6 SE) as compared to ambient mean realized summer rainfall of 454.5 mm (+-26.4 SE) and 376.8 mm (+-19.9 SE) at the CFC and HWRC sites respectively. Consequently, our rainfall treatments were representative of relatively wet summer (~70<sup>th</sup> percentile wettest) and rather dry summer (~10<sup>th</sup> percentile driest) for ambient and reduced rainfall respectively as compared to the broader temporal context of the 100 year of the weather record (1912-2011 available for the CFC site). Soil moisture on the research plots was monitored over the course of this research using water reflectometers (Model CS616 from Campbell Scientific). Soil Volumetric Water Content (VWC - cm<sup>3</sup> water/cm<sup>3</sup> soil) was measured across 0-30 cm soil profile on an hourly basis through all years. The reduction of soil moisture by warming treatment is a result of increased evapotranspirative demand due to elevated temperatures that reduces soil moisture on a continuous manner as we warm 24/7 from early spring until late fall. In contrast to warming, rainfall reduction treatment is implemented on a cyclic demand basis that allows replenishing soil water in between rainfall removal events (see Table 1 and Figure S2 for more details).

Over the course of this experiment between both the open and closed canopy we grew seedlings of 17 native and four invasive tree species (a total of 21) in different combinations among years and canopies (for details see Tables 3 and S2). Seedlings were sourced from local ecotypes, well suited for the research sites typical environmental conditions. We planted one or two year old seedlings produced by MN DNR (Minnesota Department of Natural Resources) nurseries into an existing matrix of native vegetation. The chosen species represent dominant tree species from the boreal-temperate ecotonal region of northern Minnesota. Newly planted cohorts were given one year ([?]14 months) to acclimate after transplant before any gas exchange measurements were performed except for the 2012 and 2013 cohorts when plants were measured in the same growing season following spring planting (but see below on requirements of foliage selection for the measurement). The observations reported in this study were made throughout all years of the experimental operation from 2009 to 2019 on different cohorts of seedlings that ranged from two to eight years of age (See Tables 3 and S2 for more details).

#### Gas exchange measurements

Eleven years of surveys of net assimilation  $(A_{net})$  of CO<sub>2</sub> at light saturation using Li-6400XT – infrared gas exchange analyzers (LICOR, Lincoln, Nebraska, USA) were conducted in situ on randomly selected individuals of target species (for details see Tables 3 and S2), yielding 17,727 unique measurements. Measurements were typically conducted in one to two weeks long campaigns from two to five times in each growing season starting late spring and ending in early fall (i.e., roughly mid-June to the end of September). We used the same measurement protocol for all gas exchange measurements performed across all years that defined their scope and constraints of environmental conditions during which they were performed. Thus, all measurements were performed between 09:00 hours and 16:00 hours on foliage from the upper part of the crown, using fully expanded, healthy leaves or current year needles, ensuring that the foliage we measured was fully mature and acclimated to growing conditions. Over the course of the day, we let measurement track ambient conditions for temperature, and VPD, but to achieve saturating levels of irradiance the Photosynthetically Active Radiation (PAR) was set to 1200  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> for plants grown in the open canopy and 800  $\mu$ mol  $m^{-2}$  s<sup>-1</sup> for plants grown in the closed canopy. Light levels were chosen based on a light response curve survey performed in the first year of the study and represent the light intensity needed to saturate  $A_{net}$  for all species. Relative humidity (RH) in the leaf chamber ranged from 40 to 80% with the target goal of 60%. The air flow rate was set to 500  $\mu$ mol s<sup>-1</sup> and the leaf temperature and VPD (Vapor Pressure Deficit) were unconstrained due to limitations of the instrument to control temperature and VPD under field conditions. Across all measurements, leaf temperatures ranged from 16.5 - 35.7°C (for 90% of the data) with a mean of 27.2°C and VPD<sub>chamber</sub> (Vapor Pressure Deficit of the air inside the leaf chamber) ranged from 1.0 to 2.89 kPa (for the 10% and 90% quantile respectively) and a mean of 1.89 kPa. For the other meteorological background information related to conditions to which plants were exposed and during which measurements were taken refer to Tables 1 and 2 and Figures S1 and S2 that describe overall research plot level conditions that plants experienced. The environmental conditions under which foliage gas exchange was measured were used to parameterize the USO model and obtain estimates of  $q_1$ .

# Modeling

The large data set used for the  $g_1$  estimates required careful evaluation and screening for erroneous data points. Thus, we used a methodical approach to screen, evaluate, test and if necessary, remove outlier and/or high leverage points as outlined below. We started screening of the data set for any potentially erroneous data points based on physiological and environmental constraints that were considered either physiologically unlikely (e.g., data points with extremely negative C<sub>i</sub> while positive  $A_{net}$ , etc.) or measured at unfavorable chamber conditions (e.g., extremely high T<sub>leaf</sub>, very low RH, etc.) or any points that were indicated by the operator of the instrument during measurement as potentially erroneous, all those points were removed. For additional details outlining methodology of initial evaluation of the carbon assimilation measurements used in the further modeling work see supplemental materials.

We used the subsequent data set to fit the USO model (see equation 1 in supplement and for its derivation details see Medlyn *et al.*, (2011)) and to estimate and effectively define  $g_1$  for each species in accordance with their respective growing conditions (i.e., respective treatments and replication, see below). We used estimated  $g_1$  values to analyze and quantify the size of the warming and rainfall reduction effects across spatial and temporal scales (i.e., site, canopy, and growing season). The  $g_0$  parameter was set to zero as suggested (Duursma *et al.*, 2019, B Medlyn, pers comm), given its otherwise high correlation to  $g_1$  and lack of precision. We used the "plantecophys" package (Duursma, 2015) in R (R Development Core Team, 2019) to fit the USO model (Medlyn *et al.*, 2011). In some cases, the final data set at the finest levels of factorial combinations (i.e., species × warming × rainfall reduction × treatment replicate (i.e., individual research plot) × block × canopy × site × year × measurement campaign) did not have a sufficient number

of replicates (i.e., at least 3 replicates are needed) to fit the USO model and/or available replicates were not enough to produce a fit with good confidence. Thus, the 17,727 collected observations were binned by experimental treatment, effectively pooling measurements across the same treatment combination by combining plot replicates of the same treatment together to achieve the following factorial combination by canopy:

closed canopy: species  $\times$  warming  $\times$  site  $\times$  year  $\times$  measurement campaign,

open canopy: species  $\times$  warming  $\times$  rainfall reduction  $\times$  site  $\times$  year  $\times$  measurement campaign.

This yielded a total of 2,732 estimates of  $g_1$  by fitting the USO model. The mean number of data points used to fit the USO model was six (±2 SD) with less than 2.5% of the model fits constructed based on the minimum of three data points and >75% based on six or more, with the maximum of 18 points. A data point was a unique instance where the four metrics needed to fit the USO model ( $A_{net}$ ,  $g_s$ , D and C<sub>a</sub>) were sampled on a single leaf.

Overall, estimates of  $g_1$  values for our species (Table S2 and Figures 1-3) are within the range of those found by others (e.g., Franks et al., 2017; Medlyn et al., 2011; Zhouet al., 2013). However, to further evaluate the quality of the  $g_1$  estimates we implemented a two-step process. First, we compared values of observed stomatal conductance used in the USO model to estimate  $q_1$  values, to the values of  $q_s$  predicted by the A-g<sub>s</sub> coupled model (as described by Duursma, 2015). Used A-g<sub>s</sub> coupled model predict  $A_{net}$  and  $g_s$  based on the environmental conditions that a given leaf experienced during measurement (i.e., leaf temperature, VPD,  $C_a$ , PAR), estimated  $g_1$  values (based on USO model), and estimated photosynthetic capacity (i.e., rate of Rubisco carboxylation and photosynthetic electron transport, estimated based on one-point method (De Kauwe et al., 2015)) (for more details on the A- $q_s$  coupled model used here see Duursma, 2015). The overall linear fit for the entire data set minus outliers (n = 17,040) produced  $R^2 = 0.71$  with nearly 1:1 slope adding confidence to the fits of the model. Second, we used a multivariate jackknife analysis of the  $g_1$  estimates, performed in JMP statistical software (JMP 14.2, SAS Institute), that detected 146 (~5%) out of 2732 total  $g_1$  estimates as potential outliers. Out of those 146  $g_1$  estimates ~75% of them were above the maximum values reported elsewhere in the literature (e.g., Medlyn et al., 2011; Gimeno et al., 2016; Héroult et al., 2013; Franks et al., 2017). Thus, we removed all 146 points indicated as outliers. We note that, in an analysis (not shown here) that excluded only the 12 most extreme values  $(g_1 ?)$  500; orders of magnitude higher than average  $q_1$  values reported here and elsewhere) the overall effects detected did not change.

To separate thermal effects from the indirect effect of warming on soil VWC we examined  $g_1$  parameters for observations grouped by different VWC classes. To do this we used the 24h averages of the soil VWC on the day when the  $A_{ne}$  t measurements were made. The categorical values of VWC were created by binning 24h soil VWC averages into three categories as follows: i) low VWC < 12.99%, ii) medium VWC 13 – 17.99%, and high VWC [?] 18% (for details on soil VWC measurements see Rich *et al.*, 2015).

# Data analysis

We used mixed effects models to test  $g_1$  separately for each canopy with the following independent variables: site, species, warming, rainfall reduction, and up to 4-way interactions; with measurement campaign (e.g., year and campaign during that year) as a random effect. To separate the direct effect of warming temperature from the indirect effect of warming treatment on soil moisture

we used soil VWC categories and tested the effect of experimental treatment when soil VWC was high in contrast to when it was low. We ran those tests separately for each canopy with independent variables: warming, rainfall reduction (for open only), and soil VWC category up to 3-way interactions; with measurement campaign set up as a random effect. In addition, we tested the effect of warming and rainfall reduction  $ong_1$  for high soil VWC independently from other soil VWC categories. Moreover, we used soil VWC as a covariate in combination with fixed variables (as outlined above) and campaign measurement and site set as random variables. We tested whether different cohorts behaved differently in response to environmental drivers and found no evidence for this, so did not further consider those in analyses (but see Figure S3). We also constructed additional mixed effects models to analyze the effect of warming and drought on higher groupings of the species following their biome association, drought tolerance, and phylogenetic affiliation (for details about mixed effects models for species and their respective groupings [drought tolerance, biome, phylogeny] see Tables 3 and S2). All statistical analyses were carried out in JMP statistical software (JMP 14.2, SAS Institute).

#### Results

Over more than a decade of experimental manipulation, growing conditions were altered in a consistent and significant way at our research plots. The warming treatment elevated temperature above and belowground by 3.3degC on average across all years, sites, and canopies (see Table 1, and Figure S1). Warming treatment had a significant effect on soil moisture; reducing VWC by 13% in the closed canopy plots and by 24% in open plots. In the open canopy plots reduced rainfall treatment caused an 11% decrease in VWC, and warming with reduced rainfall together reduced VWC by 35% (see Table 1 and Figures S1 and S2 for more details).

Analysis of 11 growing seasons of leaf gas exchange data across multiple species showed that rainfall reduction and warming treatments led to more conservative water use on average evidenced by decreased  $g_1$  (the slope of the USO model serving as a proxy of the marginal water cost of carbon gain  $-\lambda$ ) (*P* [?] 0.0087, Table 4). However, species differed in their responsiveness to both drivers. We organize the presentation of results around the hypotheses.

H1:  $g_1$  decreases with reduced rainfall for all species. – Our hypothesis was supported as  $g_1$  was lower in reduced rainfall treatments (P = 0.006; Table 4 and Figures 1-5). This effect was consistent in all tested models (for selected additional models see methods and Table S1). Overall, plants grown under the rain reduced treatment regime reduced  $g_1$  by 10.5% on average compared to plants in ambient plots. This decrease of the  $g_1$  parameter was generally consistent across both sites and all years (see Figure 5b). The role of VWC in these responses is presented below with respect to both rainfall and warming treatment effects.

**H2:**  $g_1$  will decrease with climate warming due to soil moisture reduction induced by elevated temperature.-Mixed effect models showed that warming treatment strongly reduced  $g_1$  in both canopies (P < 0.0001; Table 4 and Figures 1-5). This effect was generally consistent across all models and years (see Table 4 and Figure 5). Overall, plants grown in warmed treatments reduced  $g_1$  by 25% in the understory and 18% in open canopy plots (see Table 4 and Figures 1-5). These responses support H2 (as further documented below).

Assessing soil moisture regulation of g1 . – As both the warming treatment and reduced rainfall had significant effects on VWC (Table 1) we explored the role that soil moisture might play in regulating  $g_1$ . Estimates of  $g_1$  for plants experiencing different levels of soil moisture in each treatment (binned into three categories, i.e., low, medium, and high soil VWC – refer to modeling and data analysis section of methods for additional details on VWC bins) showed that  $g_1$  declined when soil water content was low either due to reduced rainfall or elevated temperatures, or both (Table 5, and Figure 4a,b). Moreover, when we add soil VWC as a covariate the significance of the main effects (*i.e.*, warming and rainfall reduction) is eliminated (P > 0.3855, Table 6) in open canopy but not in the closed (P < 0.0001, Table 6) while soil VWC alone has a significant (P < 0.0124, Table 6) effect on  $g_1$  in both canopies. Also, a combination of soil VWC with warming becomes significant (P < 0.019) in both canopies that collectively demonstrates strong influence of soil moisture on  $g_1$  that overtakes the effect of warming particularly in the open canopy. Slightly different response of plants in closed canopy is likely due to differences in microenvironments where plots in closed canopy have overall higher soil VWC on average that does not consistently become low enough for plants to drive changes in  $g_1$ .

H3: reduced rainfall and warming will have an additive effects on  $g_1$  because the primary mechanism of both warming and reduced rainfall effects on  $g_1$  will be via the same pathway, of reduced VWC on stomatal behavior. – Warming and reduced rainfall did not show significant interaction in any model (P [?] 0.3621, for details see Table 4, 5, 6 and S1, and Figures 1b, 2b, 3b, 4b, and 5b) confirming our hypothesis. Across all other sources of variation (in open plots), reduced rainfall alone caused 8.3% decline while warming alone

resulted in 15.6% decline of  $g_1$ , and both treatments acting together reduced  $g_1$  by 26.5% (see Table S2 and Figures 1b, 2b, 3b, and 5b).

H4: species adapted to either drier and/or warmer conditions will on average have lower and less sensitive  $g_1$  than species adapted to more mesic or cooler conditions. – Species (for details about species see Tables 3 and S2) differed in their  $g_1$  parameter (P < 0.0001, Tables 4, 6, S1 and S2, and Figure 1). Species average  $g_1$  in ambient growth conditions ranged in open canopy from 2.8 for *P. banksiana* to 5.5 in *F. alnus*, and in closed canopy from 2.3 for *A. balsamea* to 6.1 for *R. cathartica*. The four invasive species (i.e., *F. alnus*, *L. morrowii*, *L. tatatrica*, and *R. cathartica*) and native *T. americana* had the highest  $g_1$  of all species (Figure 1 and Table S2). The boreal species had on average the lowest  $g_1$ with native temperate species in between invasive and boreal groups. Species with higher drought tolerance indices had slightly higher  $g_1$  on average. For more details on the average  $g_1$ values across species, their respective groupings (e.g., biome association, drought tolerance, etc.) and treatment effects, see Figures 1-3 and Table S2.

There were few differences among species and their respective higher groupings (i.e., drought tolerance, biome association, and phylogenic associations) in sensitivity of  $g_1$ , (that is the decline of  $g_1$  in response to rainfall reduction or warming) (Figures 2-3, Table S1) as most species and groups responded to warming and reduced rainfall by significantly reducing  $g_1$  (Table 4, Figure 1). For example, in closed canopy plots there was a large individualistic variation in responses (P = 0.0384, Figure 1) to warming, with change  $ing_1$  ranging from a 10.6% increase in P. glauca to decreases for all other species that ranged from 3.3% for Q. rubra, to 60.5% in T. canadensis.

# Discussion

More than a decade of measurements documented generally consistent ways that novel environmental conditions associated with climate change influenced the trade-off of water loss vs. carbon gain among 21 boreal and temperate species Overall,  $g_1$  decreased in response to both reduced rainfall and warming, driven largely by stomatal responses to soil drying in both cases, effectively increasing the water use efficiency of plants by maintaining stomata less open (H1, H2). The direction of these responses to experimental manipulations was uniform across all species despite differences in average  $g_1$  associated with species-specific adaptations (i.e., drought tolerance) and associations (i.e., climate of origin or phylogeny) (H4). We also found that the combination of warming plus reduced rainfall (H3) had an additive effect. Moreover, the warming and reduced rainfall effects were consistent across years, sites, and species (Figure 1, 5) providing strong support for these responses as a general prediction. These results suggest that projected future warming and reduced summer rainfall will likely move boreal and temperature species to a more conservative water spending stomatal behavior; likely helping plants ameliorate drought stress but at a carbon cost.

The unified optimization theory predicts  $g_1$  to have a small increase in response to warming, largely because it is related to  $\Gamma^*$  (Medlyn *et al.*, 2011), which is dependent on temperature (*Bernacchi et al.*, 2001). Hence, a neutral or near neutral effect of temperature  $ong_1$  was found previously (Nijs *et al.*, 1997; Duursma et al., 2013; or Gimeno *et al.*, 2016). Our results support that prior work but only when water was abundant (Table 5 and Figure 4). This is firm evidence that the weak neutral to positive direct effect of temperature on  $g_1$  was overwhelmed by the stronger effect warming had on water limitation, through an increase in evapotranspiration demand (Seager *et al.*, 2014; Wang *et al.*, 2014); Reich *et al.*, 2018).

Species differ in  $g_1$  but respond predictably in their response to soil water limitation and warming

We hypothesized that species would vary  $g_1$  in ways largely related to their individual adaptations to drought. We found that  $g_1$  did vary among species, but the responses to novel experimental conditions did not differ among them. Overall,  $g_1$  was only modestly higher in species with greater drought tolerance and the  $g_1$ of species with greater drought tolerance did not respond differently from less tolerant species to variation in VWC, in disagreement with prior reports in the literature (e.g., Gimeno *et al.*, 2016; Héroult*et al.*, 2013 and Zhou *et al.*, 2013). Differences in our result versus those previously reported could be due to the extent to which drought is a primary stress in these contrasting ecosystems, interspecific trait differences that modulate the value of conservative stomatal behavior, or both. In boreal systems, although drought can occur, chronic low temperatures except for a short time window in mid-summer, and low nutrient availability, are also important, and may dampen the strength of selection for  $g_1$  in relation to drought adaptation. Additionally, trait differences and acclimation may increase some species tolerances to drought without a need of compromising water use. For example, oaks are known to develop deeper root systems (e.g., Abrams, 1990) and thus increase access to water. Oaks and maples have relatively higher wood density, compared to lower wood density species (e.g., gymnosperms), which has been associated with greater drought tolerance (Greenwood *et al.*, 2017). Moreover, modeling work by Mrad et al., (2019) demonstrates that either aggressive or conservative behavior in water use might be related to acclimation of the rooting zone to competition for water, and little is known about such differences for our species.

Despite individualistic variation in average  $g_1$  among species, there was consistent movement towards more conservative (i.e., water-saving) stomatal behavior in response to both rainfall reduction and warming, likely as a response to soil drying. This shift was consistent among species, sites, and canopy conditions, and observed across more than a decade of experimental responses. This strongly suggests a consistent acclimation by northern temperate and boreal species that would be beneficial in terms of ameliorating soil drought, but at a carbon cost. It is also unclear just how much additional soil drought this trade-off will offset, and whether those carbon costs translate into adverse impacts on growth or survival.

#### Conclusions

Our work documents the water-carbon trade-off response to long-term experimental manipulation for tree species common to the boreal-temperate ecotone in North America. Empirically quantifying those responses across a large number of species in a relatively realistic experimental context contributes to our understanding of whether and how stomatal behavior is expected to vary across species and their hierarchical affiliations (e.g., climate of origin or phylogeny) in response to climate change. In particular, we found that  $g_1$  was reduced in response to growth conditions that caused a decline of soil VWC (i.e., rainfall removal and warming). We also showed that there was a large variation among species intrinsic  $g_1$ ; however, their responses to reduced rainfall and warming did not depend on species identity or grouping. Our study also provides additional evidence that soil moisture will govern plants' response to future climate change: when soil moisture is abundant plants use it to facilitate greater carbon assimilation, but when soil water is limited plants will have diminished carbon assimilation but more efficient water use.

#### Acknowledgements

This research was supported by the U.S. Department of Energy; Office of Science, and Office of Biological and Environmental Research award number DE-FG02-07ER644456; Minnesota Agricultural Experiment Station MN-42-030 and MN-42-060; the Minnesota Department of Natural Resources; College of Food, Agricultural, and Natural Resources Sciences and Wilderness Research Foundation, University of Minnesota; the NSF Biological Integration Institute program (NSF-DBI 2021898); and funding provided by the Minnesota Invasive Terrestrial Plants and Pests Center through the Minnesota Environment and Natural Resources Trust Fund. Assistance with experimental operation and data collection was provided by Karen Rice-David, Kerrie Sendall and numerous interns who worked at the project throughout the years. We also want to thank two anonymous reviewers and editor for their expertise, which helped us to improve our manuscript. Author Contribution

PBR, RAM and AS designed the study, RB and AS collected data, EEB and AS modeled the data, PBR, RAM, EEB, and AS analyzed the data and drafted the manuscript. All authors discussed and interpreted the results and substantially contributed to the final manuscript.

# Conflict of interest

Authors declare no conflict of interest

# **References:**

Abrams, M. D. (1990). Adaptations and responses to drought in *Quercus* species of North America. *Tree Physiology*, 7 (1-2-3-4), 227–238. https://doi.org/10.1093/treephys/7.1-2-3-4.227

Aphalo, P. J., & Jarvis, P. G. (1991). Do stomata respond to relative humidity? *Plant, Cell and Environment*, 14 (1), 127–132. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3040.1991.tb01379.x

Arneth, A., Lloyd, J., Šantrůčková, H., Bird, M., Grigoryev, S., Kalaschnikov, Y. N., Gleixner, G., & Schulze, E.-D. (2002). Response of central Siberian Scots pine to soil water deficit and long-term trends in atmospheric CO <sub>2</sub> concentration: LONG-TERM<sup>13</sup> C IN SIBERIAN SCOTS PINE. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, 16 (1), 5-1-5–13. https://doi.org/10.1029/2000GB001374

Atkinson, N. J., & Urwin, P. E. (2012). The interaction of plant biotic and abiotic stresses: From genes to the field. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, 63 (10), 3523–3543. https://doi.org/10.1093/jxb/ers100

Ball, J. T., Woodrow, I. E., & Berry, J. A. (1987). A Model Predicting Stomatal Conductance and its Contribution to the Control of Photosynthesis under Different Environmental Conditions. In J. Biggins (Ed.), Progress in Photosynthesis Research: Volume 4 Proceedings of the VIIth International Congress on Photosynthesis Providence, Rhode Island, USA, August 10–15, 1986 (pp. 221–224). Springer Netherlands. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-0519-6\_48

Bernacchi, C. J., Singsaas, E. L., Pimentel, C., Portis Jr, A. R., & Long, S. P. (2001). Improved temperature response functions for models of Rubisco-limited photosynthesis: *In vivo* Rubisco enzyme kinetics. *Plant, Cell & Environment*, 24 (2), 253–259. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3040.2001.00668.x

Cowan, Ian, Farqhuar Graham. (1977). Stomatal function in relation to leaf metabolism and environment.

Damour, G., Simonneau, T., Cochard, H., & Urban, L. (2010). An overview of models of stomatal conductance at the leaf level: Models of stomatal conductance. *Plant, Cell & Environment*, no-no. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3040.2010.02181.x

De Kauwe, M. G., Kala, J., Lin, Y.-S., Pitman, A. J., Medlyn, B. E., Duursma, R. A., Abramowitz, G., Wang, Y.-P., & Miralles, D. G. (2015). A test of an optimal stomatal conductance scheme within the CABLE land surface model. *Geoscientific Model Development*, 8 (2), 431–452. https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-8-431-2015

Duursma, R. A. (2015). Plantecophys—An R Package for Analysing and Modelling Leaf Gas Exchange Data. *PLOS ONE*, 10 (11), e0143346. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0143346

Duursma, R. A., Blackman, C. J., Lopéz, R., Martin-StPaul, N. K., Cochard, H., & Medlyn, B. E. (2019). On the minimum leaf conductance: Its role in models of plant water use, and ecological and environmental controls. *New Phytologist*, 221 (2), 693–705. https://doi.org/10.1111/nph.15395

Duursma, R. A., Payton, P., Bange, M. P., Broughton, K. J., Smith, R. A., Medlyn, B. E., & Tissue, D. T. (2013). Near-optimal response of instantaneous transpiration efficiency to vapour pressure deficit, temperature and [CO2] in cotton (Gossypium hirsutum L.). *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 168, 168–176. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2012.09.005

Eamus, D., Taylor, D. T., Macinnis-Ng, C. M. O., Shanahan, S., & De Silva, L. (2008). Comparing model predictions and experimental data for the response of stomatal conductance and guard cell turgor to manipulations of cuticular conductance, leaf-to-air vapour pressure difference and temperature: Feedback mechanisms are able to account for all observations. *Plant, Cell & Environment*, 31 (3), 269–277. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3040.2007.01771.x

Ehleringer, J. R. (2005). The Influence of Atmospheric CO2, Temperature, and Water on the Abundance of C3/C4 Taxa. In I. T. Baldwin, M. M. Caldwell, G. Heldmaier, R. B. Jackson, O. L. Lange, H. A. Mooney, E.-D. Schulze, U. Sommer, J. R. Ehleringer, M. Denise Dearing, & T. E. Cerling (Eds.), A History of Atmospheric CO2 and Its Effects on Plants, Animals, and Ecosystems (pp. 214–231). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/0-387-27048-5\_10

Franks, P. J., Berry, J. A., Lombardozzi, D. L., & Bonan, G. B. (2017). Stomatal Function across Temporal and Spatial Scales: Deep-Time Trends, Land-Atmosphere Coupling and Global Models. *Plant Physiology*, 174 (2), 583–602. https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.17.00287

Gimeno, T. E., Crous, K. Y., Cooke, J., O'Grady, A. P., Osvaldsson, A., Medlyn, B. E., & Ellsworth, D. S. (2016). Conserved stomatal behaviour under elevated CO <sub>2</sub> and varying water availability in a mature woodland. *Functional Ecology*, 30 (5), 700–709. https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2435.12532

Greenwood, S., Ruiz-Benito, P., Martinez-Vilalta, J., Lloret, F., Kitzberger, T., Allen, C. D., Fensham, R., Laughlin, D. C., Kattge, J., Bonisch, G., Kraft, N. J. B., & Jump, A. S. (2017). Tree mortality across biomes is promoted by drought intensity, lower wood density and higher specific leaf area. *Ecology Letters*, 20 (4), 539–553. https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.12748

Heroult, A., Lin, Y.-S., Bourne, A., Medlyn, B. E., & Ellsworth, D. S. (2013). Optimal stomatal conductance in relation to photosynthesis in climatically contrasting *Eucalyptus* species under drought: Stomatal responses of eucalyptus under drought. *Plant, Cell & Environment*, 36 (2), 262–274. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3040.2012.02570.x

Lin, Y.-S., Medlyn, B. E., Duursma, R. A., Prentice, I. C., Wang, H., Baig, S., Eamus, D., de Dios, V. R., Mitchell, P., Ellsworth, D. S., de Beeck, M. O., Wallin, G., Uddling, J., Tarvainen, L., Linderson, M.-L., Cernusak, L. A., Nippert, J. B., Ocheltree, T. W., Tissue, D. T., ... Wingate, L. (2015). Optimal stomatal behaviour around the world. *Nature Climate Change*, 5 (5), 459–464. https://doi.org/10.1038/nclimate2550

Lu, Y., Duursma, R. A., & Medlyn, B. E. (2016). Optimal stomatal behaviour under stochastic rainfall. *Journal of Theoretical Biology*, 394, 160–171. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtbi.2016.01.003

Manzoni, S., Vico, G., Palmroth, S., Porporato, A., & Katul, G. (2013). Optimization of stomatal conductance for maximum carbon gain under dynamic soil moisture. *Advances in Water Resources*, 62, 90–105. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.advwatres.2013.09.020

McCulloh, K. A., Petitmermet, J., Stefanski, A., Rice, K. E., Rich, R. L., Montgomery, R. A., & Reich, P. B. (2016). Is it getting hot in here? Adjustment of hydraulic parameters in six boreal and temperate tree species after 5 years of warming. *Global Change Biology*, 22 (12), 4124–4133. https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.13323

Medlyn, B. E., De Kauwe, M. G., Zaehle, S., Walker, A. P., Duursma, R. A., Luus, K., Mishurov, M., Pak, B., Smith, B., Wang, Y.-P., Yang, X., Crous, K. Y., Drake, J. E., Gimeno, T. E., Macdonald, C. A., Norby, R. J., Power, S. A., Tjoelker, M. G., & Ellsworth, D. S. (2016). Using models to guide field experiments: *A priori* predictions for the CO <sub>2</sub> response of a nutrient- and water-limited native Eucalypt woodland. *Global Change Biology*, 22 (8), 2834–2851. https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.13268

Medlyn, B. E., Duursma, R. A., Eamus, D., Ellsworth, D. S., Prentice, I. C., Barton, C. V. M., Crous, K. Y., De Angelis, P., Freeman, M., & Wingate, L. (2011). Reconciling the optimal and empirical approaches to modelling stomatal conductance. *Global Change Biology*, 17 (6), 2134–2144. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2486.2010.02375.x

Mott, K. A., & Parkhurst, D. F. (1991). Stomatal responses to humidity in air and helox. *Plant, Cell and Environment*, 14 (5), 509–515. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3040.1991.tb01521.x

Mrad, A., Sevanto, S., Domec, J.-C., Liu, Y., Nakad, M., & Katul, G. (2019). A Dynamic Optimality Principle for Water Use Strategies Explains Isohydric to Anisohydric Plant Responses to Drought. *Frontiers in Forests and Global Change*, 2, 49. https://doi.org/10.3389/ffgc.2019.00049

Niinemets, U., & Valladares, F. (2006). TOLERANCE TO SHADE, DROUGHT, AND WATERLOGGING OF TEMPERATE NORTHERN HEMISPHERE TREES AND SHRUBS. *Ecological Monographs*, 76 (4), 521–547. https://doi.org/10.1890/0012-9615(2006)076[0521:TTSDAW]2.0.CO;2

Nijs, I., Ferris, R., Blum, H., Hendrey, G., & Impens, I. (1997). Stomatal regulation in a changing climate: A field study using Free Air Temperature Increase (FATI) and Free Air CO2 Enrichment (FACE). *Plant*, Cell and Environment, 20 (8), 1041–1050. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3040.1997.tb00680.x

Outlaw, W. H., & De Vlieghere-He, X. (2001). Transpiration Rate. An Important Factor Controlling the Sucrose Content of the Guard Cell Apoplast of Broad Bean. *Plant Physiology*, 126 (4), 1716–1724. https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.126.4.1716

Outlaw, W. H., Manchester, J., DiCamelli, C. A., Randall, D. D., Rapp, B., & Veith, G. M. (1979). Photosynthetic carbon reduction pathway is absent in chloroplasts of Vicia faba guard cells. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 76 (12), 6371–6375. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.76.12.6371

Reich, P. B., Sendall, K. M., Rice, K., Rich, R. L., Stefanski, A., Hobbie, S. E., & Montgomery, R. A. (2015). Geographic range predicts photosynthetic and growth response to warming in co-occurring tree species. *Nature Climate Change*, 5 (2), 148–152. https://doi.org/10.1038/nclimate2497

Reich, P. B., Sendall, K. M., Stefanski, A., Rich, R. L., Hobbie, S. E., & Montgomery, R. A. (2018). Effects of climate warming on photosynthesis in boreal tree species depend on soil moisture. *Nature*, 562 (7726), 263–267. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-018-0582-4

Reich, P. B., Sendall, K. M., Stefanski, A., Wei, X., Rich, R. L., & Montgomery, R. A. (2016). Boreal and temperate trees show strong acclimation of respiration to warming. *Nature*, 531 (7596), 633–636. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature17142

Rich, R. L., Stefanski, A., Montgomery, R. A., Hobbie, S. E., Kimball, B. A., & Reich, P. B. (2015). Design and performance of combined infrared canopy and belowground warming in the B4WarmED (Boreal Forest Warming at an Ecotone in Danger) experiment. *Global Change Biology*, 21 (6), 2334–2348. https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.12855

Seager, R., Neelin, D., Simpson, I., Liu, H., Henderson, N., Shaw, T., Kushnir, Y., Ting, M., & Cook, B. (2014). Dynamical and Thermodynamical Causes of Large-Scale Changes in the Hydrological Cycle over North America in Response to Global Warming<sup>\*</sup>. *Journal of Climate* ,27 (20), 7921–7948. https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-14-00153.1

Sendall, K. M., Reich, P. B., Zhao, C., Jihua, H., Wei, X., Stefanski, A., Rice, K., Rich, R. L., & Montgomery, R. A. (2015). Acclimation of photosynthetic temperature optima of temperate and boreal tree species in response to experimental forest warming. *Global Change Biology*, 21 (3), 1342–1357. https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.12781

Shimazaki, K. (1989). Ribulosebisphosphate Carboxylase Activity and Photosynthetic O2 Evolution Rate in Vicia Guard-Cell Protoplasts 1.*Plant Physiology*, 91 (2), 459–463. https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.91.2.459

Stefanski, A., Bermudez, R., Sendall, K. M., Montgomery, R. A., & Reich, P. B. (2020). Surprising lack of sensitivity of biochemical limitation of photosynthesis of nine tree species to open-air experimental warming and reduced rainfall in a southern boreal forest. *Global Change Biology*, 26 (2), 746–759. https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.14805

Wang, Y., Hogg, E. H., Price, D. T., Edwards, J., & Williamson, T. (2014). Past and projected future changes in moisture conditions in the Canadian boreal forest. *The Forestry Chronicle*, 90 (05), 678–691. https://doi.org/10.5558/tfc2014-134

Wolf, A., Anderegg, W. R. L., & Pacala, S. W. (2016). Optimal stomatal behavior with competition for water and risk of hydraulic impairment. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 113 (46), E7222–E7230. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1615144113

Zhou, S., Duursma, R. A., Medlyn, B. E., Kelly, J. W. G., & Prentice, I. C. (2013). How should we model plant responses to drought? An analysis of stomatal and non-stomatal responses to water stress. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 182–183, 204–214. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2013.05.009

**Table 1.** Summary of the aboveground and belowground warming and summer rainfall reduction treatments for both research sites (Cloquet Forestry Center – in Cloquet, MN and Hubachek Wilderness Research Center – Ely, MN). The comparison summaries represent means for each treatment based on hourly records for each experimental plot and averaged for the period from June 1<sup>st</sup> – September 30<sup>th</sup> (as that is the period when rainfall removal occurred and represents the main part of the growing season when the  $A_{ne t}$  measurements were conducted) for all years combined. For the comparison of the rainfall removal, we show the summary of precipitation for the years when treatment was active in contrast to 40 years means for the same period. Standard deviation of the mean calculated for all years and all units of replication (i.e., all plots in each treatment combination) is shown in parentheses.

Abovegroun Tem- pera-	$ m dT_{ambient}$ $ m \Delta_{3.3^{\circ}C}$	CFC open 16.41 (7.63)	CFC	CFC closed 16.10 (5.92)		HWRC open 16.96 (7.65)	HWRC	
Tem-		16.41 (7.63)		16.10		16.96		clo 16
Tem-		(7.63)						- 16
	Δ <sub>3.3°C</sub>					(7.65)		(5)
ture (°C)	$\Delta_{ m 3.3^{\circ}C}$							
		3.12		3.49		3.19		3.5
D 1	1 -	(1.27)		(0.88)		(1.28)		(0
Belowground Tem-	d T <sub>ambient</sub>	16.43 (2.71)		15.89 (2.80)		16.96 (3.20)		15 (2
pera- ture (°C)								
	$\Delta_{ m 3.3^{\circ}C}$	$3.20 \\ (0.79)$		3.27 (0.71)		3.17 (0.92)		$\frac{3.4}{(0.1)}$
Soil	VWC	21.9		19.61		15.08		23
Volu- metric Water Con- tent (%)	Tambient $\times$ Rain ambient	(3.70)		(4.39)		(4.28)		(6
	VWC	16.56		16.87		11.46		20
	$+3.3^{\circ}C \times Rain ambient VWC$	(3.90) 18.94		(4.04)		(3.30) 14.14		(5
	Tambient $\times$ reduced rainfall VWC	(5.00) 12.98		-		(3.24) 11.07		-
	3.3°C	(3.31)				(3.08)		
	$\times$ reduced rainfall	2012- 2019	2012- 2019	$\begin{array}{c} 2012 - \\ 2019 \end{array}$	2012- 2019	2012 - 2019	2012 - 2019	20 20
Precipitation (mm)	n Total Summer	454.5 (70.0)		454.5 (70.0)		376.8 (52.6)		37 (5)

Total Sum-	269.5 (41.0)		-	222.9 (30.8)		-
mer	× /					
After						ļ
Reduction						l
%	40.8		-	40.9		-
Reduction	(1.1)			(1.8)		l
40	424.4	424.4	424.4	408.8	408.8	40
years	(101.9)	(101.9)	(101.9)	(100.6)	(100.6)	(10
nearby	· · · ·	· · ·				`
weather						l
stations						

**Table 2.** Mean ambient plant surface temperatures  $(\pm \text{SD})$  and the degrees above ambient achieved by the warming treatment from June 1<sup>st</sup> to September 30<sup>th</sup> (the portion of the growing season when the majority of photosynthesis occurs, and all our measurements were conducted). Means are shown for 24h periods, as well as for the period of the day when most photosynthetic activity occurs (08:00-16:00 hours) for the days when gas exchange measurements were conducted and overall means for the entire period between June 1<sup>st</sup> and September 30<sup>th</sup> across all years. All averages are pooled across years (2009 – 2019) and both sites (Cloquet Forestry Center – in Cloquet, MN and Hubachek Wilderness Research Center – Ely, MN), but separately for both canopies.

Canopy	Treatment	During the measurement campaign	During the measu
		Mean ambient 24h air temperatures (°C)	Mean ambient 08
closed	ambient temperature – ambient rainfall	17.03(3.75)	20.64 (4.35)
closed	+3.3°C – ambient rainfall	$20.51 \ (3.73)$	$23.91 \ (4.35)$
open	ambient temperature – ambient rainfall	16.89(4.30)	23.29(5.46)
open	ambient temperature – reduced rainfall	$17.24 \ (4.36)$	24.38(5.38)
open	+3.3°C – ambient rainfall	20.09(4.12)	26.18(5.43)
open	+3.3°C – reduced rainfall	20.50 (4.11)	27.33(5.16)

**Table 3.** List of species with their corresponding biome and phylogenetic associations and drought indices as described by Niinemets and Valladares (2006). Drought tolerance is expressed as an index where one denotes low and four high tolerance to drought. Category of the drought tolerance is denoted in parenthesis as follow: I – intolerant, M – moderately tolerant, T – tolerant. All species came from local ecotypes. Species are ordered by drought tolerance index from the most intolerant to the most tolerant.

Scientific name	Common name	Biome association	Phylogeny	Drought index
Abies balsamea L.	Balsam fir	Boreal	gymnosperm	1 (I)
Acer negundo L.	Box elder	Temperate	angiosperm	1 (I)
Tsuga canadensis (L.) Carriere	Canadian hemlock	Temperate	gymnosperm	1 (I)
Frangula alnus Mill.	Glossy buckthorn	Invasive	angiosperm	1.37 (I)
Populus tremuloides Michx.	Trembling aspen	Boreal	angiosperm	1.77 (I)
Acer rubrum L.	Red maple	Temperate	angiosperm	1.84 (I)
Picea mariana (Mill.) Britton	Black spruce	Boreal	gymnosperm	2 (M)
Betula papyrifera Marshall.	Paper birch	Boreal	angiosperm	2.02 (M)
Acer saccharum Marshall.	Sugar maple	Temperate	angiosperm	2.25 (M)
Pinus strobus L.	White pine	Temperate	angiosperm	2.29 (M)
Thuja occidentalis L.	White cedar	Temperate	gymnosperm	2.71 (M)
Picea glauca (Moench) Voss.	White spruce	Boreal	$\operatorname{gymnosperm}$	2.88 (M)

Quercus rubra L. Tilia americana L. Betula alleghaniensis Britt. Pinus resinosa Sol. Ex Aiton Lonicera morrowii A. Gray Lonicera tatarica L. Rhamnus cathartica L. Ouercus macrocarna Michy	Red oak American basswood Yellow birch Red pine Morrow's honeysuckle Tatarian honeysuckle Common buckthorn Bur oak	Temperate Temperate Temperate Invasive Invasive Temperate	angiosperm angiosperm angiosperm gymnosperm angiosperm angiosperm angiosperm	2.88 (M) 2.88 (M) 3 (T) 3 (T) 3.04 (T) 3.04 (T) 3.46 (T) 3.85 (T)
Rhamnus cathartica L.	Common buckthorn	Invasive	angiosperm	3.46 (T)
Quercus macrocarpa Michx.	Bur oak	Temperate	angiosperm	3.85 (T)
Pinus banksiana Lamb.	Jack pine	Boreal	gymnosperm	4 (T)

**Table 4.** Mixed effect models conducted on the  $g_1$  estimates. Square root transformation was applied to meet ANOVA assumptions. Campaign representing day of measurement was used as random variable. Experimental factors are represented as follow: sites (Cloquet Forestry Center – in Cloquet, MN and Hubachek Wilderness Research Center – Ely, MN), warming (ambient T and +3.3°C), reduced rainfall (ambient and ~40% of summer rainfall removed), species (see Table 3). The environmental treatment (i.e., open and closed canopy) are analyzed separately.

Source	Open canopy $q_1$ estimates	Open canopy $q_1$ estimates	Open canopy $q_1$ estimates	Closed $g_1$ estim
		0 -	$R^2 = 0.24 \ n = 1604$	
	df	F Ratio	Prob > F	df
site	1	1.4351	0.2311	1
warming	1	24.559	<.0001	1
site $\times$ warming	1	8.5896	0.0034	1
reduced rainfall	1	7.567	0.006	-
site $\times$ reduced rainfall	1	0.3235	0.5696	-
warming $\times$ reduced rainfall	1	0.2615	0.6092	-
site $\times$ warming $\times$ reduced rainfall	1	3.8608	0.0496	-
species	13	9.6242	<.0001	17
site $\times$ species	13	0.6128	0.8453	17
warming $\times$ species	13	0.5705	0.8789	17
site $\times$ warming $\times$ species	13	1.6184	0.0736	17
reduced rainfall $\times$ species	13	0.8304	0.6279	-
site $\times$ reduced rainfall $\times$ species	13	0.3396	0.9858	-
warming $\times$ reduced rainfall $\times$ species	13	0.4708	0.9413	-
site $\times$ warming $\times$ reduced rainfall $\times$ species	13	0.9076	0.5445	-

**Table 5.** Mixed effect models conducted on the  $g_1$  estimates. Square root transformation was applied to meet ANOVA assumptions. Campaign representing day of measurement was used as random variable. Experimental factors are represented as follow: warming (ambient T and +3.3°C), reduced rainfall (ambient and ~40% of summer rainfall removed), soil Volumetric Water Content bins (low VWC, medium VWC and high VWC, for details see methods section). The environmental treatment (i.e., open and closed canopy) are analyzed separately.

Source VWC Bins	Open	Open	Open	Closed	Closed	Closed
	$g_1$	$g_1$	$g_1$	$g_1$	$g_1$	$g_1$
	estimates	estimates	estimates	estimates	estimates	estimates
	$R^2 = 0.15$					
	n=1604	n=1604	n=1604	n = 982	n = 982	n = 982

warming	df1	F Ratio 7.8423	Prob > F 0.0052	$\frac{df}{1}$	F Ratio 39.8832	Prob > F <.0001
reduced rainfall	1	6.1062	0.0136			
warming* reduced rainfall	1	0.0506	0.822			
VWC bin	2	4.8495	0.008	2	0.8612	0.4231
warming <sup>*</sup> VW bin	C2	4.3745	0.0127	2	3.1289	0.0442
reduced rainfall *VWC bin	2	0.3366	0.7143			
warming <sup>*</sup> reduced rainfall *VWC bin	2	1.0629	0.3457			

**Table 6**. Mixed effects models conducted on the  $g_1$  estimates. Square root transformation was applied to meet ANOVA assumptions. Campaign representing day of measurement and site were used as random variable. Experimental factors are represented as follow: warming (ambient T and +3.3 °C), reduced rainfall (ambient and ~40% of summer rainfall removed), species (see Table 3), and soil Volumetric Water Content (VWC). The environmental treatment (i.e., open and closed canopy) are analyzed separately.

Source	Open canopy $g_1$ estimates	<b>Open canopy</b> $q_1$ estimates	<b>Open canopy</b> $q_1$ estimates	$\mathbf{Close}_{g_1} \mathbf{est}_1$
		$R^2 = 0.26 \ n = 1604$	$R^2 = 0.26 \ n = 1604$	$R^2 = 1$
	df	F Ratio	Prob > F	df
warming	1	0.3495	0.5545	1
reduced rainfall	1	0.7534	0.3855	
warming <sup>*</sup> reduced rainfall	1	0.0046	0.946	
species	13	5.6022	< .0001	17
warming*species	13	1.0447	0.4049	17
reduced rainfall*species	13	0.2389	0.9975	
warming <sup>*</sup> reduced rainfall <sup>*</sup> species	13	0.4048	0.9687	
VWC	1	25.6956	< .0001	1
warming*VWC	1	7.7082	0.0056	1
reduced rainfall *VWC	1	0.0213	0.8841	
warming <sup>*</sup> reduced rainfall <sup>*</sup> VWC	1	2.4053	0.1211	
species*VWC	13	1.2885	0.2125	17
warming*species*VWC	13	1.0489	0.4009	17
reduced rainfall *species*VWC	13	0.4467	0.9526	
warming <sup>*</sup> reduced rainfall <sup>*</sup> species <sup>*</sup> VWC	13	0.7669	0.6962	

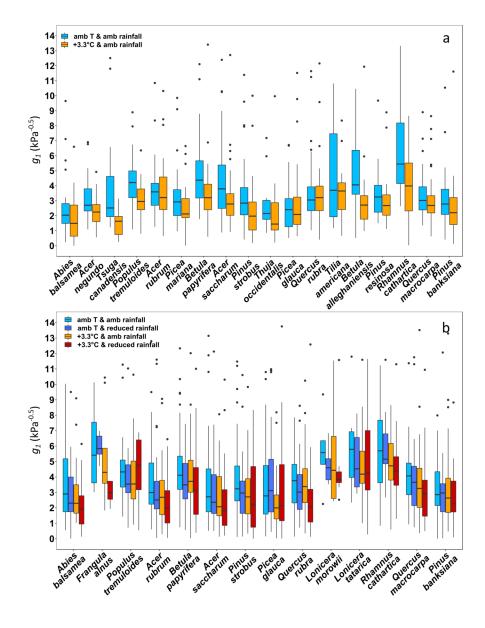


Figure 1. Effect of experimental treatments  $\operatorname{on} g_1$  estimates for all tested species. Panel a represent species grown in the closed canopy (n = 982) and panel b represents species from the open canopy (n = 1604). Species on each panel are organized with increasing drought tolerance from left to right in accordance with Niinemets and Valladares (2006). Whiskers extend to the largest or lowest value but no further than 1.5 times the interquartile range above and below the hinges of the box plot with the median. Any observations outside this range are denoted as individual points. The horizontal line inside the box denotes the median of the values.

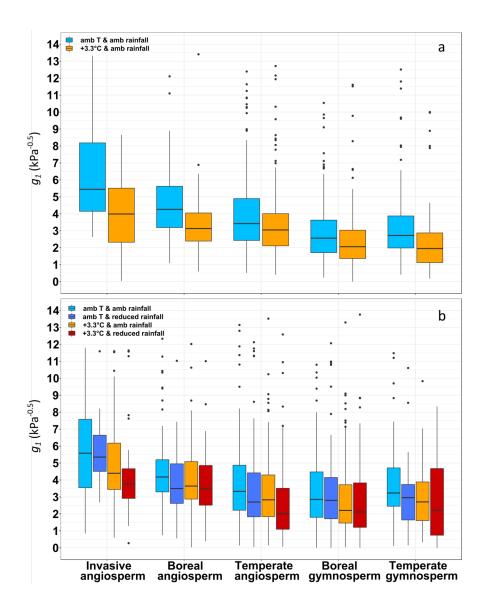


Figure 2.  $g_1$  estimates for all species grouped by functional type and phylogenetic association. Panel a represents closed canopy (n = 982) and panel b represents open canopy (n = 1604). Species are grouped into one of five categories in accordance with their phylogenetic and biome association (i.e., invasive, boreal or temperate and angiosperms or gymnosperms). Whiskers extend to the largest or lowest value but no further than 1.5 times of interquartile range above and below the hinges of the box plot with the median. Any observations outside this range are denoted as individual points. The horizontal line inside the box denotes the median of the values. Important to note that invasive species as nonnative are not classified as either boreal or temperate.

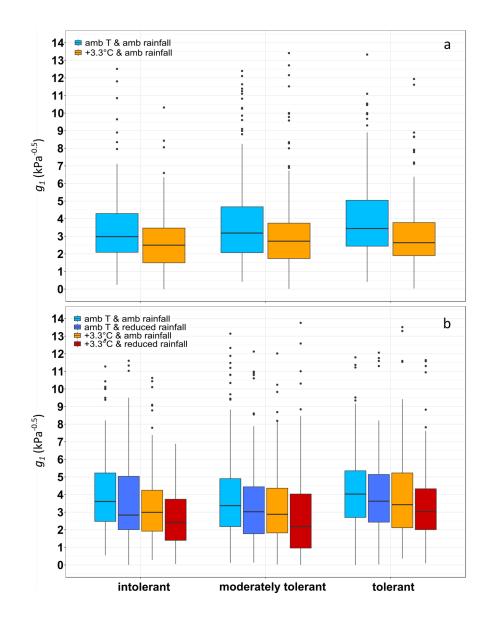


Figure 3. Effect of warming and reduced rainfall on estimates of  $g_1$  for species grouped by their drought tolerance adaptations into three major groups: i) intolerant (drought index from 1 to 1.84), ii) moderately tolerant (drought index from 2 to 2.88) and iii) tolerant (drought index from 3 to 4) in accordance with Niinemets and Valladares (2006) (for details about drought index see Tables 4 and S1). Panel a show closed canopy (n = 982), and panel b represents open canopy (n = 1604). Whiskers extend to the largest or lowest value but no further than 1.5 times of interquartile range above and below the hinges of the box plot with the median. Any observations outside this range are denoted as individual points. The horizontal line inside the box denotes the median of the values.

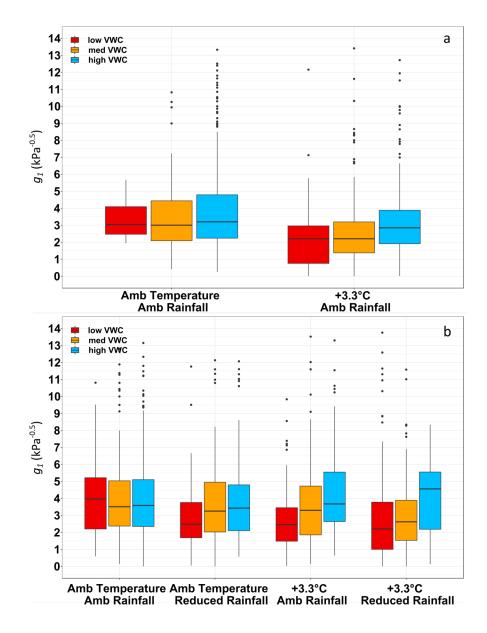
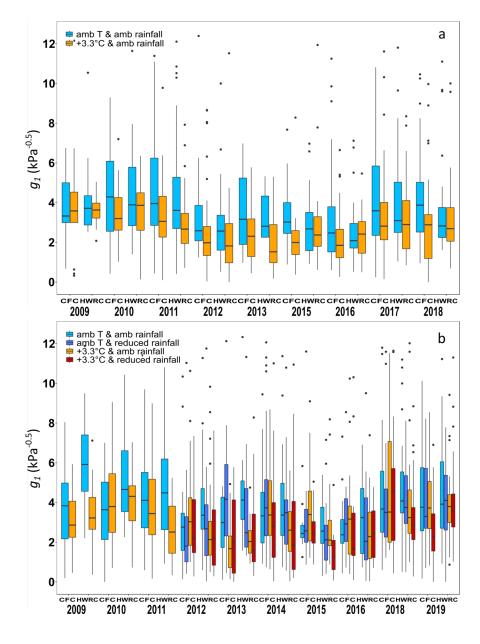


Figure 4. Effect of soil moisture on the mean estimates of  $g_1$  in respect to soil VWC (soil Volumetric Water Content) categories (low VWC < 12%, medium VWC 12 – 16.99% and high VWC [?] 17% of 24h average of the Volumetric Water Content on the day of measurement). Panel a represents closed canopy with n = 982 and panel b represents open canopy with n = 1604. Whiskers extend to the largest or lowest value but no further than 1.5 times of interquartile range above and below the hinges of the box plot with the median. Any observations outside this range are denoted as individual points. The horizontal line inside the box denotes the median of the values.



**Figure 5**. Comparison of  $g_1$  estimates across years, sites, and canopies. Panel a depicts closed canopy and panel b open canopy. Whiskers extend to 1.5 times of interquartile range above and below the hinges of the box plot with the median. Any observations outside this range are denoted as individual points. The horizontal line inside the box denotes the median of the values.