



# The effects of intrinsic water-use efficiency and climate on wood anatomy

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## Abstract

Climate warming may induce growth decline in warm-temperate areas subjected to seasonal soil moisture deficit, whereas increasing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (C<sub>a</sub>) is expected to enhance tree growth. An accurate understanding of tree growth and physiological processes responding to climate warming and increasing C<sub>a</sub> is critical. Here, we analyzed tree-ring stable carbon isotope and wood anatomical traits of *Pinus tabulaeformis* from Qinling Mountains in China to understand how lumen diameter (LD) determining potential hydraulic conductivity and cell-wall thickness (CWT) determining carbon storage responded to climate and C<sub>a</sub>. The effects of climate and C<sub>a</sub> on intrinsic water-use efficiency (iWUE) were isolated, and iWUE values due to only-climate (iWUE<sub>Clim</sub>) and only-CO<sub>2</sub> effects (iWUE<sub>CO2</sub>) were obtained. During a low-iWUE period, the influences of climate on earlywood (EW) LD and latewood (LW) CWT prevailed. During a high-iWUE period, CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization promoted cell enlargement and carbon storage but this was counteracted by a negative influence of climate warming. The limiting direct effects of iWUE<sub>Clim</sub> and indirect effects of climate on EW LD were greater than on LW CWT. *P. tabulaeformis* in temperate forests will face a decline of growth and carbon fixation, but will produce embolism-resistant tracheids with narrow lumen responding to future hotter droughts.

**Keywords** CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization · Climate warming · Drought · Tree ring δ<sup>13</sup>C · Wood anatomy · Temperate forest

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## Introduction

Leaf stomata balance the carbon assimilation of photosynthesis and water loss during transpiration, thus determining carbon and water cycle in forests (Giguere-Croteau et al. 2019; Wang et al. 2021). On the one hand, climate warming with increasing drought stress has a negative effect on tree growth, increasing the risk of growth decline and tree mortality (Allen et al. 2010, 2015), notably for semi-arid forests in warm-temperate areas (Liu et al. 2013a; Drake et al. 2015). On the other hand, the concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere (C<sub>a</sub>) has continuously increased from ~277 ppm in 1750 (Joos and Spahni 2008) to 421.4 ppm in 2023 (data from Global Monitoring Laboratory, <https://gml.noaa.gov/ccgg/mbl/crvfit/crvfit.html>). The ongoing increase of C<sub>a</sub> is expected to reverse the negative effect caused by global warming on trees by enhancing growth or by improving intrinsic water-use efficiency (iWUE), i.e., the ratio between photosynthetic rate (A) and the stomatal conductance of water vapor (g<sub>s</sub>), through the so-called CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization effect (Pan et al. 2011; Schimel et al. 2015).

Tree-ring studies provide the opportunity to explore the response of tree radial growth to climate warming and rising  $C_a$  because tree-ring stable carbon isotope ratios ( $\delta^{13}C$ ) provide information about the tree physiological processes of carbon gain and leaf water loss over long-term scales (Liu et al. 2019; Wang et al. 2021). Increased  $C_a$  promotes the metabolic activity of the RuBisCo enzyme, which increases  $A$  (Huang et al. 2007). Meanwhile, the leaf stomata of  $C_3$  plants tend to close in response to elevated  $C_a$ , thus reducing water loss, which leads to a decrease in  $g_s$  and intercellular  $CO_2$  concentration ( $C_i$ ) (Battipaglia et al. 2013) and to an increase  $iWUE$  (McCarroll and Loader 2004). Therefore, the long-term variations of  $iWUE$  can be estimated through the determination of tree-ring  $\delta^{13}C$  (Saurer et al. 2004; Frank et al. 2015; Wang et al. 2021). Recently, increases in  $iWUE$  have been found in several forests around the world (Peñuelas et al. 2011; Kannenberg et al. 2021; Saurer et al. 2014). Although some studies have reported that increased tree growth benefited from  $CO_2$  fertilization (e.g., Lu et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2018), most studies concluded that  $iWUE$  did not translate into growth enhancement (e.g., Mediterranean areas Andreu-Hayles et al. 2011; González Muñoz et al. 2015; Brito et al. 2016), humid subtropical, temperate, and tropical areas (Nock et al. 2011; Li et al. 2017, 2019)). Particularly, several studies concerning temperate forests subjected to seasonal soil moisture deficit found that improved  $iWUE$  did not necessarily lead to growth increases owing to the complex response of trees to drought stress (Peñuelas et al. 2008; Levesque et al. 2014; Frank et al. 2015; Fernández-de-Uña et al. 2016; Giguere-Croteau et al. 2019; Marchand et al. 2020; Belmecheri et al. 2021; Heilman et al. 2021). The lack of growth enhancement may be related to warming-induced drought stress and its interaction with rising  $CO_2$  levels (Andreu-Hayles et al. 2011; Gagen et al. 2011). Yet, tree growth in response to elevated  $CO_2$  concentration and the dynamic interaction between atmospheric  $CO_2$  and warming climate trends remain unclear, especially in temperate forests subjected to episodic seasonal droughts.

To date, either tree-ring width or basal area increment (BAI) are used as proxies of tree growth in most dendrochronological studies exploring  $CO_2$  fertilization (Soulé et al. 2015; Wieser et al. 2018; Liu et al. 2019). In addition to tree-ring width analysis, xylem anatomical traits are potential proxies to reflect the key functions and ecophysiological processes of trees, because some anatomical variables (e.g., lumen diameter (LD), cell wall thickness (CWT)) are strongly related to radial growth, hydraulic conductivity, and carbon allocation (Fonti et al. 2010; Camarero et al. 2015; Cuny et al. 2015; Pellizzari et al. 2016; Castagneri et al. 2020). For example, trees invest more carbon to form embolism-resistant conduits with small conduit diameter and thick cell-wall in response to drought (Hacke et al. 2015). The formation of large conduits with wide lumen and thin

walls is also observed during drought and leads to higher hydraulic conductivity, but these conduits are more vulnerable to embolism (Eilmann et al. 2009). Thus, LD and CWT are important indicators for the assessment of tree growth dynamics and forest carbon cycling (Cuny et al. 2015; Fonti and Babushkina 2016; Castagneri et al. 2020). In conifer tree rings, earlywood (EW) and latewood (LW) are formed in the early and late growing seasons, respectively. Thus, wood formation processes (e.g., cell enlargement, cell wall thickening, and maturation) are affected by seasonal climate conditions (Fritts 1976; Vaganov et al. 2006; Castagneri et al. 2017). However, how the interactive effects of  $CO_2$  and climate variation impact on EW and LW anatomical characteristics and their related hydraulic function and carbon allocation is still poorly understood.

The Qinling Mountains are located in central China and represent the transitional climate boundary between the subtropical and temperate zone in China meaning that Qinling Mountains play a major role in Chinese geographical and climatic patterns, biota divisions and natural resources distribution (Ma et al. 2019). Qinling Mountains is a typical climate and ecology-sensitive area. Since the 1960s, there has been a warming and drying trend in these areas, especially a climate shift since the 1990s (Gao et al. 2018) which has greatly influenced regional tree growth. Warming and drying climate and episodic seasonal drought events have caused the decline of conifers due to drought stress in the Qinling Mountains (Liu et al. 2013b, 2018). Here, we put forward that a combination of tree-ring xylem anatomy measurements and  $iWUE$  estimate from *Pinus tabuliformis* in the Qinling Mountains can provide an insight into possible  $CO_2$  fertilization effects from an ecophysiological point of view. We analyze tree-ring xylem anatomy characteristics influencing tree-ring width, hydraulic conductivity, and carbon allocation, and quantify  $iWUE$  which reflects the balance between carbon assimilation and water vapor loss. We aim to explore how  $CO_2$  fertilization and climate variability and their interaction affect tree-ring anatomy because it is critical for the sustainable management of threatened or protected temperate conifer forests. We hypothesized that the fertilization effect caused by increasing atmospheric  $CO_2$  concentration could not compensate the inhibiting effect caused by climate warming on xylem anatomy characteristics.

## Materials and methods

### Study area

The western Qinling Mountains are mainly influenced by the east Asian monsoon, characterized by cold and dry climate conditions in winter, but warm and humid conditions in summer. The intra-annual climate performs simultaneous

rain and heat and negative water balance in spring and summer (Fig. S1).

*Pinus tabulaeformis* is one of the dominant tree species in the western Qinling Mountains. We conducted the field sampling in Zhangjiazhuang forest farm (ZJZ, 34° 08' N, 106° 31' E, 1,400 m a.s.l.), western Qinling Mountains. The mean annual temperature of ZJZ is 11.6 °C, with monthly means ranging from −0.4 °C in January to 22.7 °C in July, and the mean annual precipitation is 627 mm, with up to 96.5% falling in spring and summer-early autumn (March to October). The meteorological data is obtained from the Fengxian meteorological station (33° 55' N, 106° 33' E). In ZJZ, *P. tabulaeformis* is primarily distributed on southern slopes at elevations of 1400–2000 m a.s.l. (Wang et al. 2009). The soil type is forest brown soil, with a thickness of ~30–50 cm.

### Field sampling and dendro-sample processing

For each tree, we collected four tree-ring core samples on the opposite sides of the stem (two cores for the north–south direction, two cores for the east–west direction) with a 5.15-mm-diameter increment borer (Haglöf, Långsele, Sweden). From previous tree-ring  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  analysis, four cores from different trees can guarantee the reliable values representing the site isotope chronology (Liu et al. 2012, 2015). In total, we sampled 104 tree cores from 26 mature trees, more information about tree ring growth was provided in Fig. S2. After air-drying and sanding the cores, tree rings were visually cross-dated and tree-ring width was then measured at 0.01 mm resolution using a Lintab-TSAP system (Rinntech, Heidelberg, Germany). Cross-dating was checked using the COFECHA software (Holmes 1983). Whole-ring width was detrended by fitting a cubic spline smoothing function with a 50% frequency cutoff at 67% of the series length to remove size/age-related trends and mean raw and standard chronologies were developed by using the *dplR* package in R (Bunn 2008). Ten trees were used for anatomical analyses, including four trees for stable carbon isotope ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) measurements corresponding to those most correlated to the mean standard whole-ring width chronology. The mean longevity of these ten trees was 66 years and mean diameter was 32.3 cm. The dendro-anatomical and isotopic analysis was performed on the rings corresponding to the period from 1970 to 2017.

### Dendro-anatomical analysis

The method of dendro-anatomical analysis referred to Hong et al. (2021). First, the ten cores were divided into 4–5 cm-long pieces and put in the boiling water for about 15 min to soften the wood. Then, the pieces were cut perpendicular to the axially oriented xylem with a sliding microtome (WSL-LAB-Microtome, WSL, Birmensdorf, Switzerland) (Schneider and Gärtner 2013) for obtaining flat wood

surfaces. Compared with taking micro-section, the method of obtaining flat wood surfaces can avoid distortion and cell damage resulting from sectioning thin fragile samples (Liang et al. 2013). Third, the wood surfaces of pieces were stained with safranin (1% in distilled water) and these pieces were glued on a wooden sample holder. The micro surfaces were scanned using a confocal laser scanning microscope (FV1200, Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) (Liang et al. 2013) at 100× magnification, with a resolution of 1.25 pixels  $\mu\text{m}^{-1}$ . The images of each year were obtained and merged using the software Adobe Photoshop CC 2019 (Adobe Systems Inc., San Jose, CA, USA). The images were then processed with WinCell Pro 2018 (Regent Instruments Inc., Québec, QC, Canada), which allowed measuring LD and CWT of all tracheids within each annual ring. Generally, 30 cell rows per ring were measured, resulting in > 7 millions of analyzed tracheids.

According to Mork's index (with a modified value of 0.83 as an efficient threshold) (Samusevich et al. 2020), the EW and LW were distinguished along the radial axis for each ring. For each core, we calculated the mean LD and mean CWT of EW and LW, respectively. To assess the climate influence on anatomical traits, the size/age-related trends were removed from these series using a similar detrending procedure as with tree-ring width data. The mean LD and CWT detrended individual series were averaged using a bi-weight robust mean to obtain the mean series (Fig. S3).

### Stable carbon isotope analysis

Whole wood was used for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  analyses because it shows the same iWUE trend as  $\alpha$ -cellulose  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (Belmecheri and Lavergne 2020). For each core, each tree ring of the 1970–2017 period was split into EW and LW parts with a dissecting scalpel under a binocular microscope. Then, the sample was put in 2 ml centrifuge tube and was milled with a ball mill (JXFSTPRP-24, Jingxin, Shanghai, China) to the fine powder. The powder samples of 70–75  $\mu\text{g}$  in weight were wrapped in tin capsules and rolled into strips for stable carbon analysis. Then, the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of each sample was measured by an elemental analyzer (EA Isolink) linked to a mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Science, Bremen, Germany). The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  was expressed with reference to the Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) standard and calculates as:

$$\delta^{13}\text{C} = \left( \frac{R_{\text{sample}}}{R_{\text{standard}}} - 1 \right) \times 1000 \quad (1)$$

where  $R_{\text{sample}}$  and  $R_{\text{standard}}$  are the ratios of  $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$  of the sample and the VPDB standard, respectively. During the isotope measurement, the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of each sample was calibrated according to VPDB (−24.25‰ for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ). The analytical error (the standard deviation) of isotope measurements was

0.04‰ based on the repeated measurement of the standards. Suess effect caused by fossil fuel burning was removed following the procedure provided by Belmecheri and Lavergne (2020).

### Calculations of iWUE

The carbon isotope discrimination ( $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) between the air carbon isotope ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_a$ ) and tree-ring carbon isotope ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_p$ ) can be expressed by Farquhar et al. (1989) as follows:

$$\Delta^{13}\text{C} = \frac{\delta^{13}\text{C}_a - \delta^{13}\text{C}_p}{1 + \delta^{13}\text{C}_p/1000} \quad (2)$$

The carbon isotope discrimination of  $\text{C}_3$  plants is also related to the intercellular and atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration:

$$\Delta^{13}\text{C} = a + (b-a)(C_i/C_a) \quad (3)$$

where  $a$  ( $\sim 4.4\%$ ) represents the  $\text{CO}_2$  discrimination caused by the  $\text{CO}_2$  diffusion from the atmosphere into the leaf cell intercellular;  $b$  ( $\sim 27\%$ ) represents the fractionation discrimination of ribulose biphosphate (RuBP) carboxylase against  $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ ;  $C_i$  and  $C_a$  represent the  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration in the intercellular spaces and the atmosphere, respectively.

The intrinsic water-use efficiency (iWUE) can be calculated by  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ , which quantifies the amount of carbon assimilated per unit of leaf area per unit of time for per unit of water cost. The iWUE is the ratio of the photosynthetic assimilation rate ( $A$ ) to the stomal conductance for water vapor ( $g_s$ ):

$$\text{iWUE} = \frac{A}{g_s} = \frac{C_a(1 - C_i/C_a)}{1.6} = \frac{C_a(b - \Delta^{13}\text{C})}{1.6(b - a)} \quad (4)$$

The separated influences of  $\text{CO}_2$  and climate on iWUE were calculated based on Voelker et al. (2016) and Liu et al. (2019). The percent change value in iWUE due to  $\text{CO}_2$  and climate and the percent change value in iWUE due to only climate ( $\text{iWUE}_{\text{Clim}}$ ) were first calculated and the difference between these two values was the percent change value in iWUE due to only  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $\text{iWUE}_{\text{CO}_2}$ ). Based on the theoretical regulation of plant gas exchange in response to increasing  $C_a$ , three scenarios were considered: (i) constant  $C_i$ , (ii) constant  $C_i/C_a$ , and (iii) constant  $C_a - C_i$  (Saurer et al. 2004). These three scenarios represent different response degrees of increase in  $C_i$  to increase in  $C_a$ : (i) not at all, (ii) in a proportional way, (iii) at the same rate. More detailed explanations for these three scenarios were presented in previous studies (Saurer et al. 2004; Linares and Camarero 2011).

### Climate data and statistical analysis

We used the instrumental records from the Fengxian meteorological station ( $33^\circ 55' \text{N}$ ,  $106^\circ 33' \text{E}$ , 1097 m a.s.l., 1970–2017) which is located near the sampling site. The meteorological dataset of Fengxian station was obtained from the China Meteorological Administration (<http://www.cma.gov.cn/en/>).

The shift years in iWUE for EW and LW were detected by *cpt.np* function in *changept.np* R package (Killick and Eckley 2014). Structural equation models (SEMs) were used to explore the influences of  $\text{iWUE}_{\text{CO}_2}$  and  $\text{iWUE}_{\text{Clim}}$  and climate and their interactions on EW and LW anatomy. Firstly, we developed two initial models based on the published literature and a priori knowledge (Fig. 1). According to previous findings on *P. tabuliformis* by Hong et al. (2021), LD of EW and CWT of LW were mainly affected by spring (March–May) and summer (June–August) climate variables, respectively. In these two initial models, climate variables (i.e., precipitation and maximum temperature of spring and summer) were used to represent the early- and late-growing season climate conditions, respectively. To develop the final SEMs, we started with the initial models with initial hypothesized relationships. The initial model for EW LD hypothesized that spring temperature, precipitation and  $\text{iWUE}_{\text{CO}_2}$  had positive effects on EW LD while  $\text{iWUE}_{\text{Clim}}$  had negative effect on EW LD (Fig. 1a). Besides, the initial model for LW CWT hypothesized that spring temperature, summer temperature and  $\text{iWUE}_{\text{Clim}}$  had negative effects on LW CWT while  $\text{iWUE}_{\text{Clim}}$  had negative effect on LW CWT (Fig. 1b). Secondly, a number of alternative simplified models sharing the same structure as that of initial models were built by removing non-significant ( $P > 0.05$ ) paths one by one according to the performance of the overall model fit and the  $P$  values of the path's standard coefficient. Finally, the optimal models were selected according to model-fit statistics (goodness-of-fit index, comparative fit index, root mean square error of approximation) and by minimizing the Akaike information criterion. SEMs were performed using the *lavaan* package in R (Rosseel 2012).

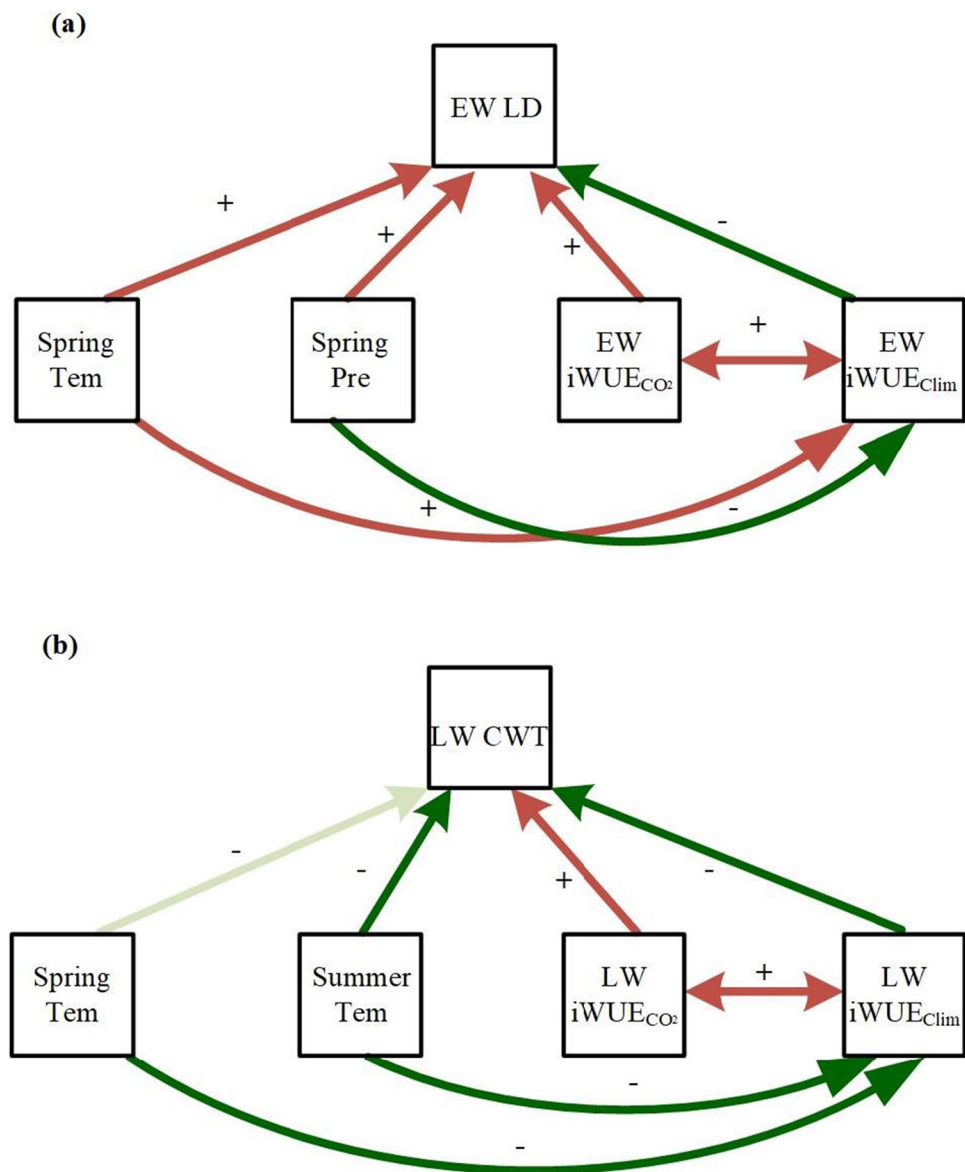
## Results

### Trends of climate variables

EW iWUE and LW iWUE showed different years of a shift in 1989. The difference of the shift years between EW iWUE and LW iWUE maybe related to the different climatic factors affecting EW and LW. Spring temperature showed a significant increasing trend after 1989 ( $P < 0.01$  for minimum, mean, and maximum temperatures; Fig. 2a), while summer temperature did not show significant increases after 1993



**Fig. 1** The initial model shows hypothesized relationships indicating the effects of climate and intrinsic water-use efficiency [iWUE (including  $iWUE_{CO_2}$ ,  $iWUE_{Clim}$ )] on **a** earlywood lumen diameter (EW LD) and **b** latewood cell wall thickness (CWT). Paths with a single arrow ( $\rightarrow$ ) represent unidirectional relationships between variables. Paths with double-headed arrow ( $\leftrightarrow$ ) represent correlated relationships among variables. The red paths denote positive (+) relationships, and the green paths indicate the negative (-) ones. Abbreviations: Tem, temperature; Pre, precipitation



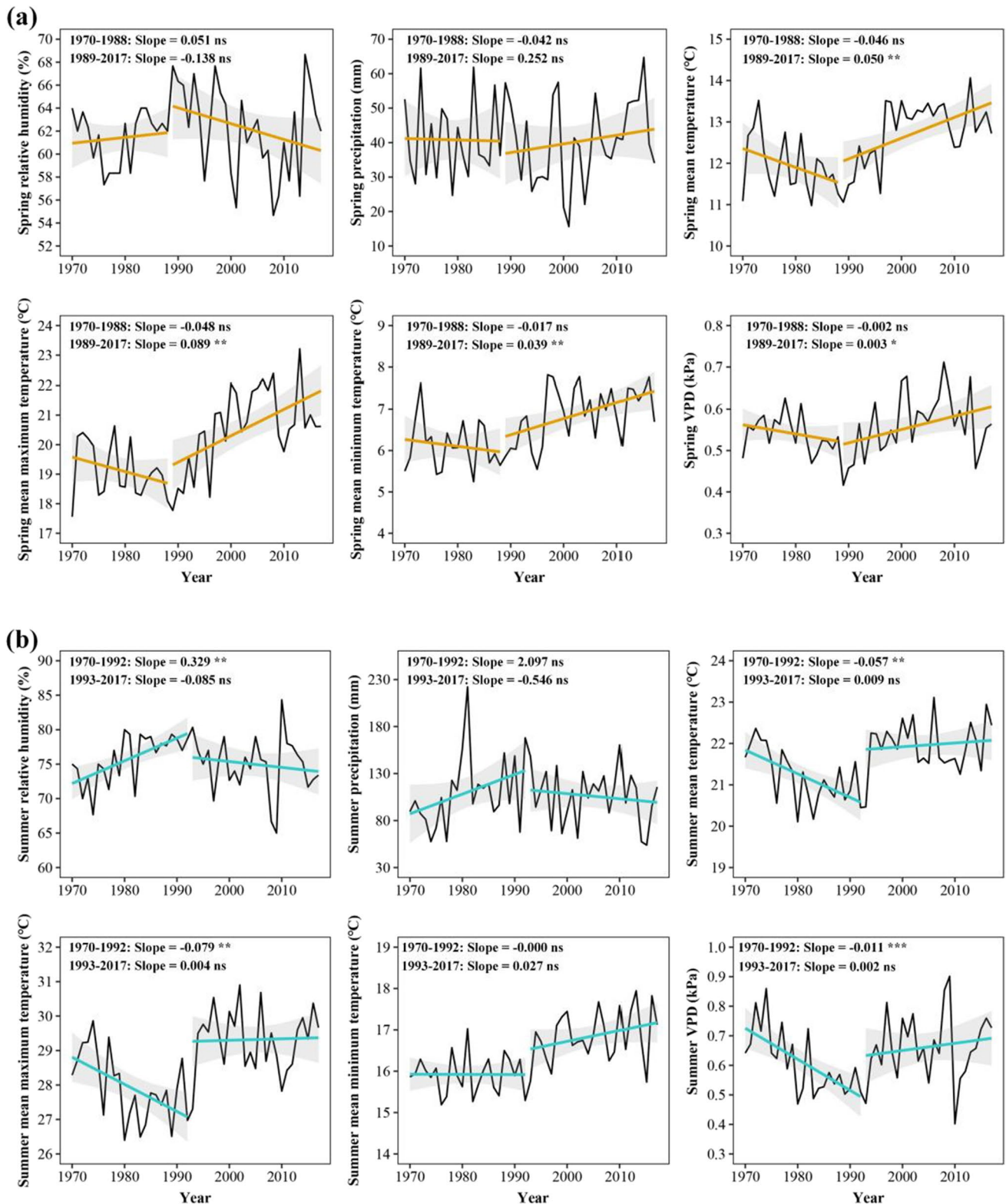
( $P > 0.05$  for minimum, mean, and maximum temperatures; Fig. 2b). There were no significant changes after the shift years (1989 for spring, 1993 for summer) for both spring ( $P > 0.05$ ; Fig. 2a) and summer ( $P > 0.05$ ; Fig. 2b) precipitation. For vapor pressure deficit (VPD), there was a positive and significant trend in spring ( $P < 0.05$ , Fig. 2a), but not in summer ( $P > 0.05$ ; Fig. 2b). For relative humidity, spring ( $P > 0.05$ ; Fig. 2a) and summer ( $P > 0.05$ ; Fig. 2b) relative humidity showed decreasing trends after the shift years, but they were not significant.

### Changes in iWUE and the contributions of climate and $CO_2$

The EW and LW iWUE values presented a significant increasing trend during 1970–1988 (slope = 0.602,

$P < 0.001$ ) and 1970–1992 (slope = 0.413,  $P < 0.05$ ), respectively (Fig. 3a). Compared with the former periods, the EW and LW iWUE showed steeper positive trends during 1989–2017 (slope = 1.116,  $P < 0.001$ ) and 1993–2017 (slope = 1.263,  $P < 0.001$ ), respectively. Thus, according to the magnitude of slopes before and after the shift years (1989 for EW iWUE, 1993 for LW iWUE), we defined the following low-iWUE periods (EW: 1970–1988, LW: 1970–1992) and high-iWUE periods (EW: 1989–2017, LW: 1993–2017), respectively. The EW iWUE and LW iWUE showed consistent high frequency variations (first-order differences) in the period 1970–1988 ( $r = 0.494$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ; Fig. 3b), but showed contrasting variations in the period 1989–2017 ( $r = -0.283$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ).

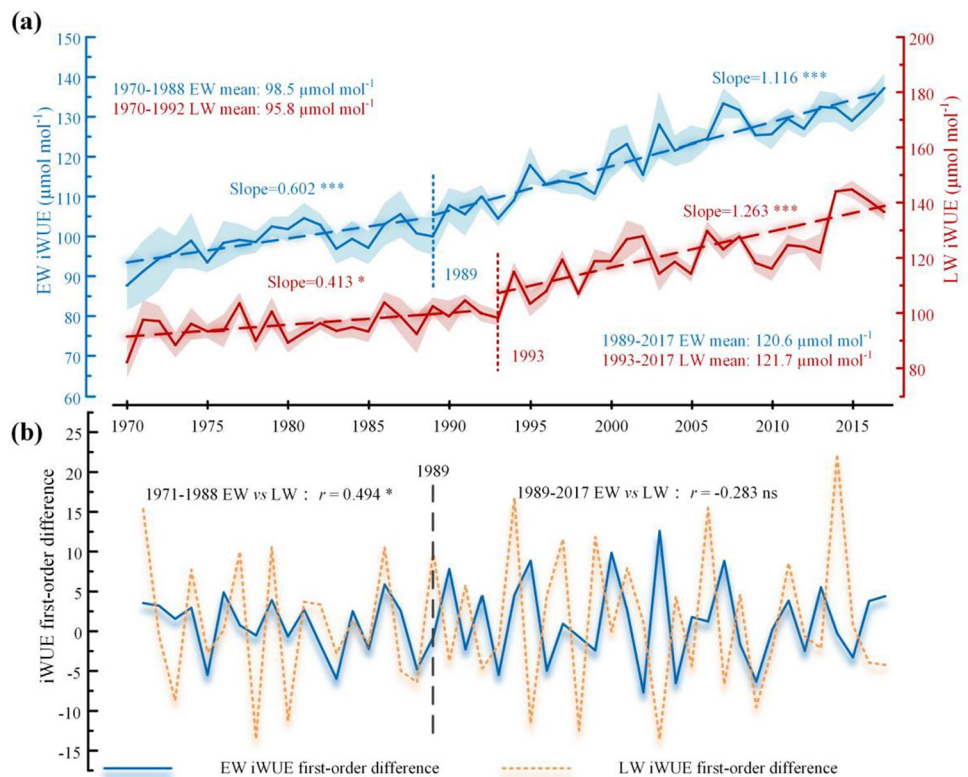
In the low-iWUE periods for EW (1970–1988) and LW (1970–1992), the changes in iWUE attributed to variation



**Fig. 2** Temporal variation of relative humidity, precipitation, mean temperature, mean maximum temperature, and mean minimum temperature, and vapor pressure deficit (VPD) in **a** spring (March–May) and **b** summer (June–August) during the period 1970–2017. Piecewise linear regressions were used to fit the variational trend of

subperiods (yellow lines: 1970–1988, 1989–2017; blue lines: 1970–1992 and 1993–2017). The climate values are means and the shaded areas represent standard errors of regressions. Significance levels of regressions: ns, not significant; \* $P < 0.05$ ; \*\* $P < 0.01$ ; \*\*\* $P < 0.001$

**Fig. 3** **a** The temporal trends of intrinsic water-use efficiency (iWUE) for earlywood (EW) and latewood (LW) during 1970–2017. **b** The first-order differences of iWUE for EW and LW. Significance levels of regressions' slopes and correlations ( $r$ ) between variables: ns., not significant; \* $P < 0.05$ ; \*\* $P < 0.01$ ; \*\*\* $P < 0.001$



in  $\text{CO}_2$  and climate were positive (Fig. 4a). There was low difference between the changes in iWUE caused by the variation only by  $\text{CO}_2$  (EW: slope = 0.311, LW: slope = 0.325) and the changes in iWUE caused by the variation only by climate (EW: slope = 0.362, LW: slope = 0.128) (Fig. 4a). Specifically, the contribution of  $\text{CO}_2$  to iWUE was almost equal to the contribution of climate to iWUE for EW, while the contribution of  $\text{CO}_2$  to iWUE was higher than that of climate to iWUE for LW (Fig. 4b). However, in the high-iWUE periods, the changes in iWUE attributed to variation in climate (EW: slope = 0.792, LW: slope = 0.910) were higher than those attributed to variation in  $\text{CO}_2$  (EW: slope = 0.471, LW: slope = 0.483) (Fig. 4a). Besides, the contribution of climate to iWUE was much higher than that of  $\text{CO}_2$  to iWUE for both EW and LW (Fig. 4b). In addition, EW iWUE (1970–1988) and LW iWUE (1970–1992) trends closely followed the predicted changes in a scenario with constant  $C_i/C_a$  (Fig. 4c). However, EW iWUE (1989–2017) and LW iWUE (1970–1992) trends followed the predicted changes in a scenario with constant  $C_i$ .

### Relationships between iWUE, climate, and anatomical traits

In the low-iWUE period, spring precipitation positively affected EW LD (path coefficient: 0.50) while EW  $\text{iWUE}_{\text{CO}_2}$  and EW  $\text{iWUE}_{\text{Clim}}$  both showed no significant influences on EW LD (Fig. 5). In contrast, spring temperature negatively

affected LW CWT (path coefficient: -0.51) while LW  $\text{iWUE}_{\text{CO}_2}$  and LW  $\text{iWUE}_{\text{Clim}}$  both had no significant influences on LW CWT.

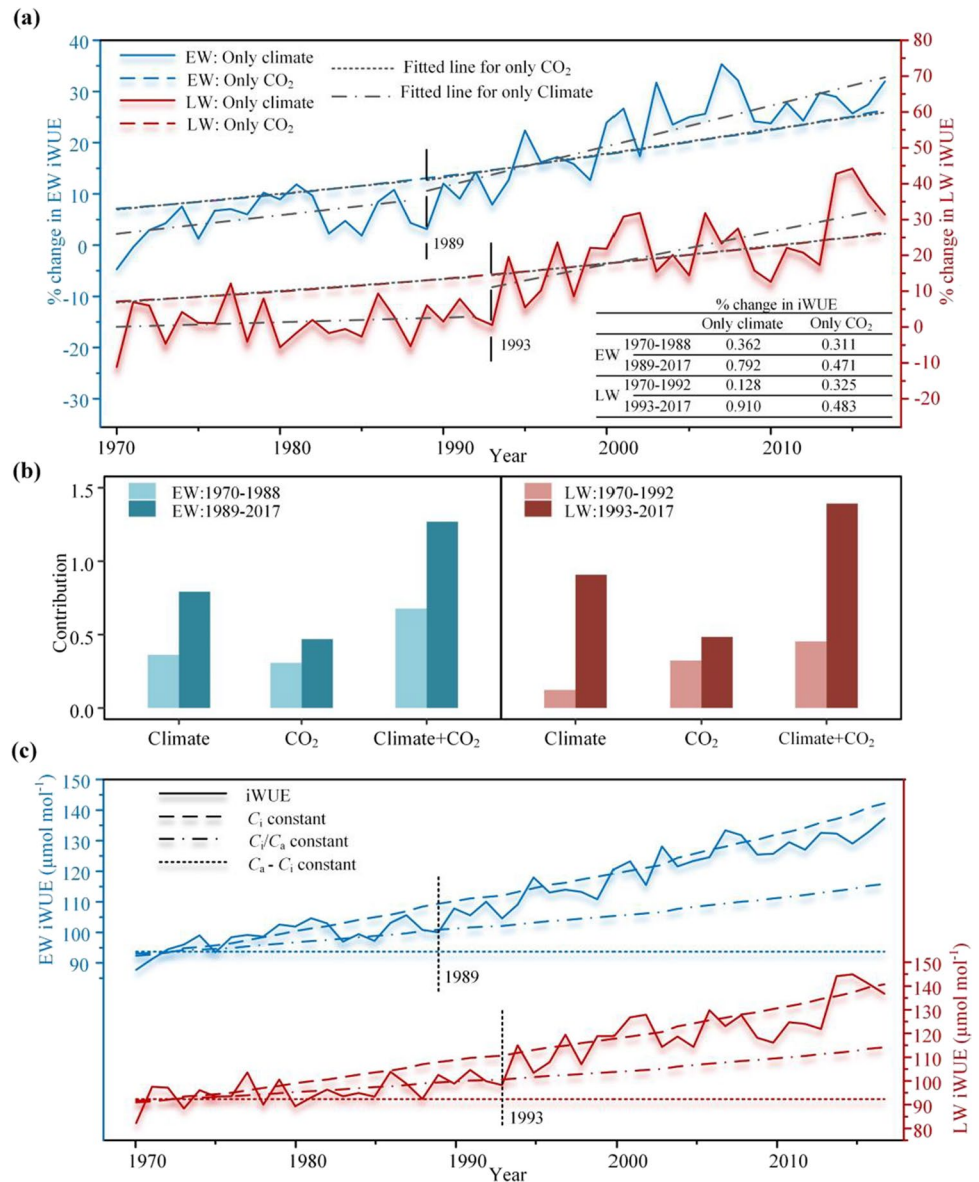
In the high-iWUE period, EW  $\text{iWUE}_{\text{CO}_2}$  had a significant positive effect (path coefficient: 0.67) but EW  $\text{iWUE}_{\text{Clim}}$  had a strong negative effect (path coefficient: -0.87) on EW LD, and the total iWUE effect on EW LD was negative (path coefficient: -0.20). Spring temperature had an indirect effect via EW  $\text{iWUE}_{\text{Clim}}$  on EW LD (path coefficient: -0.67). The total effects of iWUE (direct effects) and spring temperature (indirect effect) on EW LD was negative (total effect: -0.86). However, LW  $\text{iWUE}_{\text{Clim}}$  negatively affected LW CWT (path coefficient: -0.62) while LW  $\text{iWUE}_{\text{CO}_2}$  positively affected LW CWT (path coefficient: 0.47). Ultimately, the total effect of LW iWUE was negative (path coefficient: -0.15). Summer temperature showed an indirect effect via LW  $\text{iWUE}_{\text{Clim}}$  on LW CWT (path coefficient: -0.25). The total effects of iWUE (direct effect) and summer temperature (indirect effect) on LW CWT were negative (total effect: -0.40).

### Discussion

In this study, we quantified the direct and indirect influences of climate and iWUE on wood anatomy in low- and high-iWUE periods. We provided a new perspective to evaluate the influences of iWUE and climate on tree physiological



**Fig. 4 a** Percent change of intrinsic water use efficiency (iWUE) for earlywood (EW) and latewood (LW) since 1970–2017. The piece-wise linear regressions were used to fit the variational trends of iWUE caused by variation in only CO<sub>2</sub> (dotted line) or only climate (dash-and-dot line). The values in the inset table showed the slope of liner regressions in different periods (EW: 1970–1988 and 1989–2017; LW: 1970–1992 and 1993–2017). **b** The estimation of the contribution of only climate, only CO<sub>2</sub>, and climate + CO<sub>2</sub> to changes in iWUE for EW and LW in different periods. **c** The temporal change of estimated iWUE was based on tree-ring  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ . Based on the theoretical regulation of plant gas exchange in response to increasing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (C<sub>a</sub>), three models were considered: constant intercellular CO<sub>2</sub> (C<sub>i</sub>), constant C<sub>i</sub>/C<sub>a</sub>, and constant C<sub>a</sub>-C<sub>i</sub> (Saurer et al. 2004). The iWUE was held constant in the first 5-year mean values for EW and LW, respectively. The atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  were obtained from Belmecheri and Lavergne (2020)



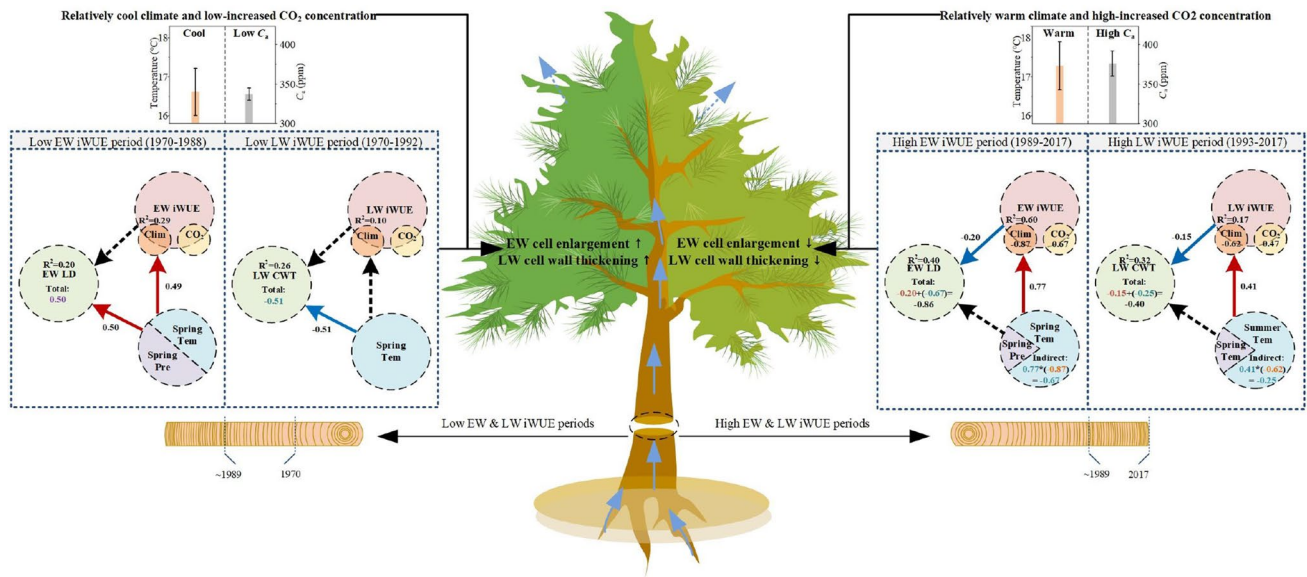
processes that are closely related to tree growth, potential hydraulic functions, and carbon allocation from a high-resolution scale (cellular scale) by taking into account the potential indirect effects of climate via iWUE on these physiological processes.

In the low-iWUE period (1970 to ~1989) with a relatively cool climate, wood anatomical traits of *P. tabuliformis* were affected by spring precipitation and temperature without relevant impacts of CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization (Fig. 5). Specifically, spring precipitation had a direct and positive influence on cell enlargement of EW, which was supported by previous studies (Zhang et al. 2018; Hong et al. 2021). Favorable spring water status leads to positive turgor pressure and thus promoted cell enlargement in the early growing season (Hsiao 1973). This finding was also consistent with previous studies showing a positive water balance during the early

growing season not only promoted cell enlargement and tree growth but also improved hydraulic conductivity (Wagner et al. 2012; Pacheco et al. 2016; Castagneri et al. 2017; Huang et al. 2020; Hong et al. 2021). However, high spring temperatures had a negative effect on LW cell-wall thickening, indicating less carbon fixation in LW formation (Hong et al. 2021). During the low-iWUE period, the climate was relatively wet and cool (Fig. 2), which was beneficial for EW tracheid radial enlargement and LW cell-wall thickening. In addition, although the contribution of CO<sub>2</sub> to iWUE was dominant during the low-iWUE periods of EW and LW (Fig. 4b), the impact of iWUE on wood anatomy was not significant, probably as a result of the relatively low CO<sub>2</sub> concentration caused relatively low iWUE.

In the high-iWUE period (~1989–2017) with a relatively warm climate, considering the strong influences of climate





**Fig. 5** Diagram showing the postulated effects of climate and intrinsic water-use efficiency (iWUE) on tree-ring wood anatomy [earlywood lumen diameter (EW LD) and latewood cell wall thickness (LW CWT)] for two subperiods with low and high iWUE, respectively. EW: 1970–1988 with low iWUE, 1989–2017 with high iWUE; LW: 1970–1992 with low iWUE, 1993–2017 with high iWUE. The schematic diagram below was constructed according to the results of structural equation models (SEMs) (Figs. S4 and S5). The lines with a single arrow (→) represent unidirectional relationships between variables. Except for path linkages between iWUE and wood anatomy parameters, the coefficient of each line is the standardized path

coefficient in SEMs. Two small circles at the bottom of iWUE are iWUE<sub>Clim</sub> (abbreviated as Clim) and iWUE<sub>CO<sub>2</sub></sub> (abbreviated as CO<sub>2</sub>). The coefficients in these two circles show their separate effects on wood anatomy, respectively. Thus, the coefficient of lines from iWUE to anatomical parameters represents the sum effects of iWUE<sub>CO<sub>2</sub></sub> and iWUE<sub>Clim</sub> on anatomical parameters. The indirect effects of climate on wood anatomy are shown in blue circles. The total effects of climates and (or) iWUE are shown in green circles. The black dashed lines represent non-significant effects ( $P > 0.05$ ). The red and blue solid lines represent significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) positive and negative effects, respectively

on iWUE changes, the responses of EW LD and LW CWT to iWUE, climate, and their interaction became more complex than those observed during the low-iWUE period (Fig. 5). In this period, CO<sub>2</sub> showed positive links with EW cell enlargement and LW cell-wall thickening, which promoted tree growth and structural carbon fixation in cell walls. Previous study conducted in northern Patagonia found that a reduction in iWUE caused by increased carbon assimilation related to increasing CO<sub>2</sub> atmospheric to an extent coupled with thicker cell walls, which suggested that the coupling response of water use-efficiency and wood anatomy to climate variations (Puchi et al. 2021). In this study, the increase in CO<sub>2</sub> by stimulating photosynthesis is not only essential for the synthesis of cell-wall products, but also for maintaining the expansion pressure of cell turgor, which has been supported by previous studies (Atkinson and Taylor 1996; Kostianen et al. 2014; Kim et al. 2015). However, spring and summer showed warming trends, especially for spring since ~1989 (Fig. 2), and a warming climate accompanied with enhanced transpiration demand would exacerbate drought stress. High EW and LW iWUE<sub>Clim</sub>, attributed to warming and drying climate conditions (Fig. 2), had stronger constraining effects on EW cell enlargement and LW cell-wall deposition than any fertilization effect due to

rising CO<sub>2</sub>. Previous studies also reported that improved iWUE could not compensate for tree growth decline triggered by drought stress (Linares and Camarero 2011; Levesque et al. 2014; Frank et al. 2015; Urrutia-Jalabert et al. 2015; Fernández-de-Uña et al. 2016; Xu et al. 2018; Liu et al. 2019; Marchand et al. 2020; Heilman et al. 2021). The possibility of this phenomenon was related to the photosynthetic pathway of species (C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub>), the threshold of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration and temperature tipping point of photosynthesis (Reich et al. 2018; Rahman et al. 2019; Duffy et al. 2021). Specifically, C<sub>4</sub> species are less in response to elevated CO<sub>2</sub> than C<sub>3</sub> species, and this pattern would reverse with the extension of experimental time. Photosynthetic efficiency would no longer rise or even decrease when the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration reaches a certain level. In addition, plant photosynthesis of leave increases with the temperature up to an optimum temperature while above the optimum temperature, foliar photosynthesis sharply decreases (Huang et al. 2019). Therefore, due to the increase in temperature and possibly exceeding the optimal foliar photosynthetic temperature in the high-iWUE period, A possibly reduce on the one hand, and the  $g_s$  may further reduce on the other hand, showing that high iWUE could not compensate for the decline in tree growth caused by drought.

During the high-iWUE period, probably caused by the decline of  $g_s$ , there was a reduction of EW LD and LW CWT. The scenario of constant  $C_i$  indicates the strong regulation of  $g_s$  or the enhancement of  $A$  while the scenario of constant  $C_i/C_a$  reflects proportional regulation of  $A$  and  $g_s$  (Saurer et al. 2004). In our study, iWUE was consistent with constant  $C_i/C_a$  scenarios during low-iWUE periods, while iWUE was consistent with constant  $C_i$  scenarios (the scenario that predicted the strongest response to increasing  $C_a$ ) in response to increasing  $CO_2$  during high-iWUE periods (Fig. 4c). In addition, we found that EW  $C_i$  and LW  $C_i$  almost remained stable, while EW  $C_i/C_a$  and LW  $C_i/C_a$  decreased during the high-iWUE period (Fig. S6). This indicated that the constraint of  $g_s$  became stronger or  $A$  increased and thus resulted in the increasing EW and LW iWUE in the high-iWUE period (Saurer et al. 2004; Liu et al. 2014; Urrutia-Jalabert et al. 2015). However,  $A$  may not increase too much or even remained relatively stable during ~1990–2017 because a reduced growth was observed during this period (Fig. S7). This suggests indirectly that decreased  $g_s$  may contribute to increasing iWUE more than increased  $A$  for both EW and LW during the high-iWUE period. Thus, we considered that the decline of  $g_s$  played a major role in the increasing EW and LW iWUE during the high-iWUE period, and therefore,  $g_s$  was deeply affected by drought stress. Thus, spring drought stress probably induced stomata closure, the decline of  $g_s$  and the increase of EW iWUE<sub>Clim</sub> (Fig. 4a). This may be further associated with the formation of EW tracheids with smaller lumen. It is widely known that the xylem structural characteristics are closely related to the hydraulic function of trees. Hong et al. (2021) found that EW lumen size (LD) was the main anatomy-related contributor influencing conduit wall reinforcement, a surrogate of xylem embolism resistance (Hacke et al. 2015). Moreover, plants with smaller conduits usually show lower hydraulic conductivity, but are less prone to drought-induced embolism and have better performance under higher xylem tension (Gleason et al. 2016; Epila et al. 2017). Thus, the smaller LD of EW would increase the hydraulic safety of *P. tabuliformis* at the expense of growth in the early growing season. For LW, a decrease in  $g_s$  contributed to the increase of LW iWUE<sub>Clim</sub> under warm summer conditions (Fig. 4a), which further resulted in lower carbon uptake and the formation of thin cell-wall tracheids with a lower carbon cost in the late growing season.

The present study allowed us to speculate on future xylem anatomy of *P. tabuliformis* in response to increasing  $CO_2$  concentration and climate warming. According to the two mechanisms of plant mortality (i.e., hydraulic failure and carbon starvation), a reduction in stomatal conductance rate can minimize water loss and hydraulic failure during drought, thereby reducing the carbon uptake

rate (Tyree and Zimmermann 2002; McDowell et al. 2008; Sevanto et al. 2014). The direct iWUE<sub>Clim</sub> and indirect climate negative effects on EW LD were stronger than those found on LW CWT (Fig. 5), indicating the improvement of potential hydraulic safety in the early growing season but a shift towards a decline in structural carbon fixation in the late growing season. Thus, we considered that future warmer and dryer climate conditions will probably lead to the enhancement of potential hydraulic safety in the early growing season and cause a decline in carbon uptake and fixation during the late growing season.

In conclusion, spring climate exhibited significant and dominant effects on EW cell enlargement and LW cell wall deposition during the low-iWUE periods. Relatively wet and cool climate conditions promoted cell enlargement and wall thickening before ~1989. However, the effects of rising  $C_a$  and warming climate and their interaction on EW and LW anatomical traits became complex afterward. Increased iWUE<sub>CO2</sub> could not compensate for the decline of cell enlargement in EW and carbon storage in LW cell walls related to climate. Moreover, the negative direct effects of iWUE<sub>Clim</sub> and the indirect effects of climate on EW LD were stronger than those acting on LW CWT. This suggests that *P. tabuliformis* will face a potential risk of growth and carbon uptake decline, but the formation of narrow conduits will decrease the potential risk of drought-induced xylem embolism.

In our study, wood rather than  $\alpha$ -cellulose was used for  $\delta^{13}C$  analysis. Trends in  $\delta^{13}C$  are little different between obtained from wood and obtained from  $\alpha$ -cellulose. Besides, the trend of  $\delta^{13}C$  as well as iWUE obtained from wood is same with that of obtained from  $\alpha$ -cellulose, which has been confirmed by many previous studies for multiple species.

Although we have identified the varied contribution of rising  $C_a$  and warming climate to xylem anatomical traits, more works need along similar climate gradients to provide a holistic understanding of temperate forests in response to rapid climate change. The mixed responses of trees to elevated  $C_a$  and warming climate should be considered into ecological models for more accurate forecasts of temperate forest dynamics in a warming future.

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## Declarations

**Conflict of interest** The authors declare no competing interests.

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