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Water availability affects seasonal CO₂-induced photosynthetic enhancement in herbaceous species in a periodically dry woodland

Running head: Soil water controls herb [CO₂] response

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Type of Paper: Primary Research Article

1 Abstract

2 Elevated atmospheric CO₂ (eCO₂) is expected to reduce the impacts of drought and increase photosynthetic rates via two key mechanisms: first, through decreased stomatal conductance 3 (g_s) and increased soil water content (V_{SWC}) and second, through increased leaf internal CO₂ 4 5 (C_i) and decreased stomatal limitations (S_{lim}) . It is unclear if such findings from temperate 6 grassland studies similarly pertain to warmer ecosystems with periodic water deficits. We 7 tested these mechanisms in three important C_3 herbaceous species in a periodically dry 8 Eucalyptus woodland and investigated how eCO₂-induced photosynthetic enhancement varied with seasonal water availability, over a three-year period. 9

Leaf photosynthesis increased by 10-50% with a 150 µmol mol⁻¹ increase in atmospheric CO₂ 10 11 across seasons. This eCO₂-induced increase in photosynthesis was a function of seasonal 12 water availability, given by recent precipitation and mean daily V_{SWC}. The highest photosynthetic enhancement by eCO₂ (> 30%) was observed during the most water-limited 13 period, e.g., with $V_{SWC} < 0.07$ in this sandy surface soil. Under eCO₂ there was neither a 14 15 significant decrease in gs in the three herbaceous species, nor increases in V_{SWC}, indicating no 'water-savings effect' of eCO₂. Periods of low V_{SWC} showed lower g_s (less than ≈ 0.12 mol 16 $m^{-2} s^{-1}$), higher relative S_{lim} (> 30%) and decreased C_i under the ambient CO₂ concentration 17 18 (aCO₂), with leaf photosynthesis strongly carboxylation-limited. The alleviation of S_{lim} by 19 eCO₂ was facilitated by increasing C_i, thus yielding a larger photosynthetic enhancement 20 during dry periods. We demonstrated that water availability, but not eCO₂, controls g_s and 21 hence the magnitude of photosynthetic enhancement in the understory herbaceous plants. 22 Thus, eCO₂ has the potential to alter vegetation functioning in a periodically dry woodland 23 understory through changes in stomatal limitation to photosynthesis, not by the 'water-24 savings effect' usually invoked in grasslands.

26 Introduction

27 Grass-tree mixtures such as savannas and woodlands occupy extensive areas in tropical and 28 sub-tropical regions and are characterised by strong seasonal variation in water availability 29 (Baudena et al., 2015, Polley et al., 1997). Due to the ongoing rise in atmospheric CO₂ these 30 ecosystems are expected to undergo ecological changes via seedling establishment during dry 31 periods (Bond & Midgley, 2000), changes in tree-grass interactions (Baudena et al., 2015), 32 woody plant encroachment (Higgins & Scheiter, 2012), and altered fire regimes from the 33 build-up of organic matter (Bond & Midgley, 2012). These changes may have profound 34 effects on the structure and functioning of savannas and woodlands, with potentially large but 35 unquantified implications for their capacity to sequester carbon and regulate water balances 36 (Huxman et al., 2005, Prober et al., 2012). In spite of their importance for local and regional 37 carbon and water cycles (Higgins & Scheiter, 2012, Snyder et al., 2004), there is a significant 38 knowledge gap in responses of savannas and woodlands to elevated atmospheric CO_2 (eCO₂) 39 concentrations (Leakey et al., 2012). Consequently, the expected impacts of eCO₂ on these 40 warm ecosystems have been based on findings from cold temperate ecosystems (Leakey et 41 al., 2012). Tropical and sub-tropical savannas and woodlands differ from cold temperate ones 42 in important attributes like temperature, seasonal and total precipitation, maximal 43 evapotranspiration and type of nutrient limitation (Cernusak et al., 2013), suggesting different 44 and potentially larger responses to eCO₂ in these ecosystems on the basis of being warmer and drier than northern hemisphere temperate systems (Hickler et al., 2008). Both higher 45 46 temperature and periodic low soil moisture have been hypothesised to increase the 47 responsiveness to eCO₂ (Higgins & Scheiter, 2012, Morgan et al., 2011). Hence, there is a 48 need for experiments addressing effects of eCO₂ on woodlands, in order to improve our

ability to predict their vulnerabilities to climate change and improve their representations in
Earth system models (Cernusak *et al.*, 2013, Norby *et al.*, 2016).

In general, eCO_2 increases CO_2 assimilation rates and plant biomass, decreases stomatal 51 52 conductance and leaf nitrogen concentrations and increases water-use efficiency (Ainsworth 53 & Rogers, 2007, Ellsworth et al., 2004, Morgan et al., 2011). However, the magnitude of 54 these linked responses also depends on the availability of other resources such as soil 55 nutrients and water (Rastetter & Shaver, 1992). Water availability is a primary factor limiting 56 growth and productivity in many ecosystems including grasslands (Knapp et al., 2002), 57 savannas and woodlands (Baudena et al., 2015, Polley et al., 1997) so the response of these 58 ecosystems to eCO_2 will in part depend upon water availability. One important way, through 59 which eCO_2 is expected to ameliorate the negative impact of water-limitation is by stomatal 60 closure resulting in decreased plant water use and increased soil water content (Morgan et al., 61 2011, Morgan *et al.*, 2004). The increase in soil water content under eCO_2 , also termed a 'water-savings effect', has led to the generalisation that plant photosynthesis and productivity 62 63 responses to eCO₂ will be strongest in dry conditions (Duursma & Medlyn, 2012, Ellsworth 64 et al., 2012) though it is unclear if this best applies to short or long dry periods. Still, the 65 generalisation has been used to rationalise why the eCO₂-induced enhancement response of 66 deserts will be large (Jordan et al., 1999), why arid and semi-arid zones have shown greening 67 and shrub encroachment over the past 20 years (Ahlström et al., 2015, Donohue et al., 2013) 68 and why the eCO₂-induced enhancement of grasslands is larger in dry vs. wet years 69 (Owensby et al., 1999). Hence, this particular phenomenon deserves closer investigation 70 especially in water-limited ecosystems because even small increases in soil water content in 71 dry climate zones can have significant effects on processes such as growing season length 72 (Reyes-Fox et al., 2014), nutrient mineralisation and organic matter decomposition (Morgan 73 et al., 2004, Wullschleger et al., 2002), and survival of plants during dry periods (Bond &

Midgley, 2012). Furthermore, earlier evidence from northern hemisphere temperate 74 75 grasslands indicate that the extent, timing and duration of eCO₂-induced 'water-savings 76 effect' varies (Morgan et al., 2004) and may be determined by factors like species-specific 77 water-use efficiencies (Blumenthal et al., 2013, Dijkstra et al., 2010), changes in leaf area 78 index and canopy temperature (Gray et al., 2016, Kelly et al., 2016), and soil texture (Fay et 79 al., 2012, Polley et al., 2012). Though the eCO₂-induced increase in soil water content has 80 been demonstrated for temperate grasslands (Blumenthal et al., 2013, Lecain et al., 2003, 81 Morgan *et al.*, 2011), it has not been substantiated for warm-climate savannas or woodlands. 82 These occur in zones where potential evapotranspiration can exceed mean annual 83 precipitation, so that the 'water-savings effect' induced by eCO₂ may reduce such deficits. 84 Whilst tests of the 'water-savings effect' hypothesis largely emanate from a number of short-

85 term glasshouse and controlled-environment studies (e.g., Dijkstra et al., 2010, Polley et al., 86 2012, Volk et al., 2000), only a few field-based studies in grasslands support the corollary 87 that photosynthesis and productivity responses to eCO_2 are strongest in dry seasons or years 88 (Belote et al., 2004, Lecain et al., 2003, Morgan et al., 2011, Morgan et al., 2004, Niklaus & 89 Körner, 2004). Some studies suggest that eCO_2 effect can be strongest in wet years (Morgan 90 et al., 2004, Naumburg et al., 2003, Newingham et al., 2013, Smith et al., 2000; but see 91 Norby & Zak, 2011). Water demand for herbaceous species varies seasonally (Knapp et al., 92 2002) suggesting that the benefit of eCO₂-induced water-savings should differ across seasons 93 on the basis of their differences in water availability (Hovenden et al., 2014). An 94 understanding of the relationship between seasonal water availability and eCO_2 effect is 95 essential since large changes in the timing of rainfall in seasonally dry regions are anticipated 96 by climate models, even where total annual rainfall will remain unchanged (Berg et al., 2016, 97 Sillmann *et al.*, 2013).

In addition to a 'water-savings effect', another important mechanism through which C₃ plants 98 99 might benefit from CO₂ fertilisation during water limited periods is via alleviation of 100 diffusional limitations (Lawlor, 2002). Stomatal closure, one of the first events to occur 101 during water stress (Chaves et al., 2002), results in significant limitations on plant CO₂ 102 assimilation. This restriction of stomata to CO₂ supply, also termed as stomatal limitation, 103 decreases leaf intercellular CO_2 concentrations (C_i) as well as photosynthetic rates (Grassi & 104 Magnani, 2005, Lawlor, 2002). Thus, an important consequence of higher stomatal 105 limitations in dry conditions is that plants operate on the steep linear phase of the 106 photosynthetic CO_2 response curve (Ellsworth *et al.*, 2012). Under such conditions, CO_2 107 fertilisation can help alleviate the stomatal limitations by increasing C_i and hence plants 108 would experience larger photosynthetic enhancement (Kelly et al., 2016, Lawlor, 2002). The 109 importance of such limitations in controlling eCO₂-induced photosynthetic enhancement 110 during dry periods has rarely been studied in the field (Galmés et al., 2007, Grassi & 111 Magnani, 2005) and has not been investigated in eCO₂.

112 Building on knowledge from previous ecosystem studies (see Leakey et al., 2012), we 113 examined eCO₂ responses of an herbaceous understory community in the Eucalyptus Free Air 114 CO_2 Enrichment Experiment (EucFACE). The EucFACE experiment is located in a mature, 115 undisturbed *Eucalyptus* woodland in south eastern Australia which shows strong seasonal and 116 inter-annual variability in precipitation (Gimeno et al., 2016). The 30-year mean potential 117 evapotranspiration exceeded precipitation by 40%, evidence that water deficits are frequent 118 (Duursma *et al.*, 2016). These attributes provide a unique opportunity to test the mechanisms 119 responsible for eCO_2 response in a periodically water-limited woodland ecosystem. We 120 hypothesized that:

121 H1: Maximum photosynthetic enhancement by eCO₂ will be observed in dry seasons;

122	H2: This photosynthetic enhancement will be mediated by a decrease in stomatal
123	conductance in eCO ₂ and hence increases in soil water content;
124	H3: Elevated CO ₂ will reduce stomatal limitations induced by stomatal closure during the dry
125	periods thus resulting in increased photosynthetic rates.
126	To test the above hypotheses, we measured leaf CO ₂ assimilation and stomatal conductance
127	of a dominant C ₃ grass across seasons over three years, as well as corroborating evidence
128	from two sympatric C ₃ forbs over 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ years.

130 Materials and Methods

131 Experimental design and site description

We conducted leaf level gas exchange measurements on herbaceous understory in the first three years of the *Eucalyptus* Free-Air CO₂ Enrichment (EucFACE) experiment. EucFACE consists of six 25-m diameter circular plots or rings, with three of these maintained at ambient CO₂ (aCO₂) and three maintained at elevated CO₂ (ambient + 150 μ mol mol⁻¹, eCO₂) since February 2013 (see Gimeno *et al.*, 2016). CO₂ treatment was completely randomised among the six plots at the outset.

This experiment is located in a remnant patch of native Cumberland Plain Woodland (CPW) near Richmond, NSW Australia ($33^{\circ} 37'$ S, $150^{\circ} 44.3'$ E) with substantial understory cover dominated by a C₃ grass, locally termed a grassy *Eucalyptus* woodland. The relatively high species diversity of this vegetation type (> 60 species) is attributed to the herbaceous understory vegetation (Tozer, 2003) comprising a mixture of C₃ grasses, C₃ forbs and C₄ grasses. *Microlaena stipoides* Labill., a native perennial C₃ grass, is the dominant herbaceous species at EucFACE (\approx 70% of total understorey biomass, Pathare unpubl. data) along with

the co-occurrence of C_3 forbs like *Lobelia purpurascens* R.Br., C_4 grasses like *Cymbopogon refractus* R.Br., and naturalised species such as *Senecio madagascariensis* Poir. We measured three common C_3 herbaceous understorey species in our study: the dominant C_3 grass (*M. stipoides*) and two prevalent C_3 forbs (*L. purpurascens* and *S. madagascariensis*), denoted in figures by the genus initial and the first three letters of the species name.

150 The climate of the site is warm-temperate with a mean annual temperature of 17° C, 151 characterised by a mean daily maximum temperature of 30.0°C during the warmest month 152 17.6°C (January) and during the coldest month (July) 153 (http://www.bom.gov.au/climate/averages/tables/cw 067105.shtml) (Fig. 1a). It is seasonally 154 water-limited with a 20-year average annual precipitation of 800 mm and an estimated annual 155 pan evapotranspiration of 1350 mm (Australian Bureau of Meteorology, station 067105, 8 km 156 from the site; www.bom.gov.au). Precipitation timing is variable, with larger monthly rainfall 157 amounts received mostly during summers (December through February in southern 158 hemisphere). However, substantial amounts of rainfall occur periodically throughout the year 159 thus resulting in multiple seasonal wet-dry cycles (Fig. 1b). The soil at the site is a well-160 drained, sandy loam with low organic carbon content (Gimeno et al., 2016).

161

162 Gas exchange measurements at EucFACE and model fitting

For the purpose of measurements, the year was divided into four major seasons comprising summer (December to February), autumn (March to May), winter (June to August) and spring (September to November). Leaf level gas exchange measurements were conducted at four time points per year, with each time point representing a season of the year. Measurements began, one week after initiation of full CO₂ fumigation, in February 2013 on

M. stipoides as the dominant herbaceous species in the ecosystem, and two prevalent C₃ forb
 species (L. purpurascens and S. madagascariensis) were added starting from October 2014.

170 A set of portable infrared photosynthesis systems (Li-COR 6400XT; Li-COR Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA) with six cm² chambers were used for gas exchange measurements. In order to 171 172 assess instantaneous and long term effects of eCO_2 on the photosynthetic capacities of the species, photosynthetic CO₂ response curves (A_{net}-C_i curves) were measured, starting at the 173 mean growth CO₂ concentration for each treatment ($\approx 400 \ \mu mol \ mol^{-1}$ for aCO₂ and ≈ 550 174 µmol mol⁻¹ for eCO₂). Average daytime CO₂ concentrations at the ground layer 20 cm above 175 the soil were $582 \pm 8.1 \,\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$, measured at 8 points within each plot compared to the 176 target of ambient + 150 µmol mol⁻¹ (Craig McNamara, personal communication). Multiple 177 178 non-overlapping leaves were placed across the Li-COR chamber and a minimum time of 15-179 min at light saturation was allowed for stabilisation of gas exchange before commencing measurements. After stabilisation, an initial measurement of net CO₂ assimilation rate (A_{net}; 180 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹), stomatal conductance (g_s; mol m⁻² s⁻¹), intercellular CO₂ (C_i; μ mol mol⁻¹) and 181 182 the ratio of intercellular to growth CO_2 (C_i/C_a) was conducted at growth CO_2 concentration, followed by the Anet-Ci response curves. Anet-Ci curves for the three species were done with a 183 minimum of ten different steps of CO₂ concentrations, ranging from 40 µmol mol⁻¹ to 1800 184 μ mol mol⁻¹, while maintaining saturating light conditions (photon flux density of 1800 μ mol 185 m⁻² s⁻¹), 55 - 65 % relative humidity and prevailing leaf temperatures (T_{leaf}, °C). The canopy 186 187 openings in this *Eucalyptus* woodland are relatively large with tree canopy leaf area index < 2(Duursma *et al.*, 2016) and the high intensity sun flecks (> 1000 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹) lasting about 188 189 30 min/day during summer and spring. Understory species rely on the sun flecks for 190 achieving a majority of daily carbon gain (Chazdon & Pearcy, 1991). Hence, saturating light levels of 1800 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ were used for gas exchange measurements to better reflect the 191 rates during sun flecks. T_{leaf} during the gas exchange measurement corresponded to the 192

193 prevailing mean daily maximum air temperatures (T_{air}) during each measurement season (18, 194 22, 27 and 29 °C for winter, autumn, spring and summer respectively) (Fig. 1a). Measurements were taken during sunny days (09:30-14:30 local time) on fully expanded 195 196 leaves exposed to sunlight. At least two measurements per CO₂ plot per species were 197 undertaken at every time-point and all measurements were completed over the course of three 198 days. After each Anet-Ci response curve, leaves were marked to assess the correct leaf area in 199 the chamber, collected in self-sealing polythene bags, labelled and immediately placed on ice 200 until further analyses. In the laboratory, the projected leaf area of the marked leaves in Li-201 COR 6400XT chamber was determined (Win Rhizo software, Regent Instruments Inc., 202 Québec City, Canada) and gas exchange measurements were recalculated accordingly.

203 A_{net}-Ci curves were then fit using the biochemical model of Farquhar et al. (1980), in order to obtain kinetic coefficients associated with rates of maximum carboxylation (V_{cmax}; μ mol m⁻² 204 s⁻¹) and electron transport (J_{max}; µmol m⁻² s⁻¹) (see Crous *et al.*, 2013, Duursma 2015). While 205 estimating the rates of V_{cmax} and J_{max} we used a fixed mesophyll conductance value (0.2 mol 206 m⁻² s⁻¹ for perennial herbaceous species; Flexas et al., 2008) to reflect the finite 207 characteristics of this trait. The temperature responses of V_{cmax} and J_{max} are important to 208 209 consider in model fitting (Medlyn et al., 2002), especially as seasonal temperatures varied. In 210 order to do this, we carried out temperature response measurements on *M. stipoides* following 211 a procedure modified from Crous *et al.* (2013) (Supporting material; Supplementary methods 212 for a description of the temperature response measurements). The temperature response of V_{cmax} was fit in R (v3.2.2, R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria) using the 213 214 modified form of an Arrhenius function (peaked function; see Harley et al., 1992 and Medlyn 215 et al., 2002). The resulting kinetics derived by fitting the modified Arrhenius function for V_{cmax} were used in the 'fitacis' function in the plantecophys package (Duursma, 2015) to 216 obtain a temperature-normalised V_{cmax} (V_{cmax-25}) from the A_{net}-C_i response curves. 217

218 Relative stomatal limitations

219 Limitations to light saturated CO₂ assimilation rates primarily occur through restrictions to 220 the diffusion of CO_2 into intracellular leaf spaces, in liquid-phase to the chloroplast, or due to 221 the biochemistry of CO₂ fixation at the chloroplast. Among these, the gas-phase diffusional 222 limitations to CO₂, also termed as stomatal limitation, is controlled by stomata and requires 223 computing the theoretical rates for Anet assuming a fractional increase in gs and Ci. Thus, relative stomatal limitations (Slim; fraction of total) can be defined as the ratio of change in 224 225 CO₂ assimilation resulting from changes in gs to the total measured change in CO₂ 226 assimilation resulting from the other processes (Wilson et al., 2000). Slim to photosynthesis were obtained by modelling the diffusional pathway and based on the Anet-Ci response 227 228 curves. For calculating S_{lim} to CO_2 assimilation rates, we used the approach proposed by 229 Grassi & Magnani (2005) which is similar to that defined in Jones (1985). We computed Slim 230 as follows:

231
$$S_{\text{lim}} = \frac{\partial A_{\text{net}} / \partial C_i}{g_{\text{sc}} + \partial A_{\text{net}} / \partial C_i}$$
(Eq. 1)

where, $\partial A_{net} / \partial C_i$ is the partial derivative of net CO₂ assimilation (A_{net}) for a relative change in leaf internal CO₂ (C_i) and g_{sc} is the stomatal conductance to CO₂ (g_{sc} = g_s/1.6). Our approach uses a static mesophyll conductance to CO₂ (g_{mes} of 0.2 mol m⁻² s⁻¹) as the study was focussed at the whole-leaf scale, and the magnitude of S_{lim} is not strongly affected by the inclusion of mesophyll conductance effects (Grassi & Magnani, 2005).

In addition to S_{lim} , we also derived C_i difference using the A_{net} - C_i responses curves. C_i difference was calculated as the difference between the transition C_i (or C_i at the V_{cmax} - J_{max} transition point) and operating C_i (or C_i under growth CO₂ levels). It was thus an indicator of how high the operating C_i is on the linear slope of the A_{net} - C_i response curve.

241 Other field measurements

242 Values for mean daily Tair were obtained from a temperature and humidity sensor (HMP 155 243 Vaisala, Vantaa, Finland) located at 2 m above ground in all six plots, while values for total precipitation (mm day⁻¹) were obtained from automated tipping buckets (Tipping Bucket 244 245 Rain gauge TB4, Hydrological Services Pty Ltd, Liverpool, NSW, Australia) at the top of a 246 tower in each of three plots. Data obtained from both sensor types were logged every 10 s and 247 recorded every 15 min using CR3000 data loggers (Campbell Scientific, Townsville, 248 Australia). In each of the six EucFACE plots (referred to as rings), three photosynthetically 249 active radiation (PAR) sensors (LI-190; Li-COR, Lincoln, NE, USA) were installed on metal 250 posts at one-m height and data was recorded every minute. Volumetric soil water content $(V_{SWC}; v/v)$ was measured up to a depth of 30 cm with permanently installed time-domain 251 reflectometry probes inserted into the soil at a 45° angle (eight per plot; CS650-L; Campbell 252 253 Scientific, Logan, UT, USA). V_{SWC} content data was recorded at 15 min interval by a data 254 logger in each plot (C3000; Campbell Scientific, Logan, UT, USA). In our study, we report 255 the daily averages for the plot-average V_{SWC} measurements under aCO₂ and eCO₂ treatments. 256 In addition to V_{SWC}, the field capacity for the top layer soil of the EucFACE facility was 257 determined by using soil moisture release curves (Campbell & Norman, 2000) measured with 258 pressure plates. Based on curve analysis, the field capacity and water potential of this sandy 259 loam was determined to be 0.18 v/v.

260

261

262 Statistical analysis

263	Statistical analyses were performed using R (v3.2.2, R Foundation for Statistical Computing,
264	Vienna, Austria). The EucFACE facility consists of three ambient and three elevated CO ₂
265	rings and hence the number of replicates was three for each of the two levels of CO_2
266	treatment. The overall dataset was unbalanced with regard to number of species measured
267	and the measurement months. For M. stipoides, gas exchange measurements were carried out
268	in at least two locations in each of the six rings across 13 measurement time points over 3
269	years. Similarly, for the other two C ₃ species (<i>L. purpurascens</i> and <i>S. madagascariensis</i>), gas
270	exchange measurements were carried out for seven measurement time-points (~1.5 years). A
271	mixed-model split-plot ANOVA with interactions was performed for the physiological and
272	biochemical parameters A_{net} , $V_{cmax-25}$, J_{max-25} , V_{cmax} , J_{max} , N content, g_s , C_i , S_{lim} and C_i
273	difference, with CO ₂ treatment as a whole-plot factor and measurement time point as a split-
274	plot factor. Appropriate tests were conducted to check the data for normality and equal
275	variances and wherever necessary, log or square root transformations were used to improve
276	the homoscedasticity of data (Zar, 2007). Linear mixed effects models were fitted using the
277	' <i>lme</i> ' function within the <i>nlme</i> package (Pinheiro <i>et al.</i> , 2016). Values of $P < 0.02$ were
278	considered as statistically significant, because we used the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure
279	for the number of tests we did to control the false discovery rate (Benjamini & Hochberg,
280	1995). In addition to the mixed level split-plot ANOVA, regression analyses were performed
281	in order to examine the relationships between key variables of interest, particularly with
282	regard to eCO_2 -induced A_{net} enhancement. These key variables were chosen according to
283	their causal hypothesised roles in regulating eCO2-induced photosynthetic enhancement
284	(Ellsworth et al., 2012; see Supplemental Information for further details). We also employed
285	Structural Equation Modelling approaches (Lamb et al., 2011) to understand the processes
286	underlying the relationships among variables describing photosynthetic enhancement by
287	eCO ₂ using the <i>lavaan</i> package in R (Rosseel, 2012; see Supplemental Information). We used

generalized additive models (*mgcv* package; Wood, 2006) to visualize the seasonal trends in

 V_{SWC} and test the differences between the CO_2 treatments during three years of this

290 experiment. Although both C_i and S_{lim} are recursive variables depending on both A_{net} and g_s

(Eq. 1), we included them in the structural equation models (Fig. 7 and Figs. S6-S8) as they

are key parts of the overall hypotheses we asked.

293

294 **Results**

295 Effect of CO_2 and measurement time on A_{net} and g_s

296 *M. stipoides* was the dominant herbaceous species in the grassy woodland understorey, and 297 thus it was measured more intensively than the other species. CO₂ enrichment by 150 µmol mol⁻¹ resulted in a significant increase in $A_{net} (\approx 28\%)$ across species measured for seven time 298 299 points from 1.5 to 3 years after the start of CO_2 enrichment (P = 0.009, Table 1, Fig. 2a-c). 300 Similarly, for the dominant *M. stipoides*, eCO_2 resulted in a significant increase in A_{net} (\approx 301 32%) across the 13 time points across three years (P = 0.019, Table S1, Fig. 2a). There was a significant measurement time effect on A_{net} across species (P < 0.001, Table 1 and S1, Fig. 302 2a-c) with average values ranging from $17 \pm 3.2 \ \mu mol \ m^{-2} \ s^{-1}$ during the warmer times 303 (Oct'15 and Feb '16) to $11 \pm 2.4 \ \mu mol \ m^{-2} \ s^{-1}$ during the cooler time points (May'15 and 304 April'16). For *M stipoides*, maximum A_{net} (12 ± 1.5 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹) occurred during the wet 305 and warmer times (Feb'13, Feb'14, Oct'14 and Feb'15), with minimum A_{net} of $\sim 5 \pm 1.2 \mu mol$ 306 $m^{-2} s^{-1}$ occurring in two dry periods, Oct'13 and Jul'14. We did not observe a significant CO₂ 307 308 x measurement time effect on A_{net} across the three species (P > 0.02, Table 1 and S1). Similar 309 to seasonal variation in A_{net}, the percent increase in photosynthetic rates due to eCO₂ also 310 varied among seasonal time points, with values ranging from 12-53%. The maximum 311 increase in photosynthetic rates due to CO₂ treatment across the species was observed during

Feb'16 (40%) and the minimum was observed in Feb'15 (13%). Similarly, for the dominant *M. stipoides*, the maximum increase in A_{net} due to eCO₂ was observed in Oct'13 (62%), whereas minimum increase was reported in Feb'14 (13%). Overall, we observed a significant seasonal variation in the A_{net} values and the magnitude of eCO₂-induced photosynthetic enhancement across all the species (Fig. 2a-c). We will now further look into the sources of the variations in seasonal photosynthetic enhancement.

318 There was no CO₂ treatment effect on g_s across the species (P > 0.02, Table 1, Fig. 2d-f). 319 However, there were highly significant measurement time effects on g_s in all species (P < P320 0.01, Table 1 and Table S1) with average values ranging from maximum of 0.27 ± 0.03 mol $m^{-2} s^{-1}$ in Oct'15 and Feb'16 to minimum of 0.18 ± 0.02 mol $m^{-2} s^{-1}$ in May'15 and April'16. 321 For *M. stipoides*, maximum $g_s (0.17 \pm 0.02 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1})$ was observed during warmer time 322 323 points (Feb'13, Feb'14, Oct'14 and Feb'15), whereas, minimum g_s was observed in Oct'13 324 and Jul'14 as noted above for Anet. Given that higher Anet values were observed during time points with higher gs (Fig. 2), the seasonal variation in Anet could be partly ascribed to 325 326 seasonal variation in the gs. This dependence of Anet on gs is evident from the positive correlation between A_{net} and g_s for the three species under both, aCO₂ ($r^2 = 0.64$, P < 0.01, 327 Fig. S1a) and eCO₂ ($r^2 = 0.57$, P < 0.01, Fig. S1b) concentrations. 328

329 Effect of water availability on A_{net} , g_s and eCO_2 -induced A_{net} enhancement

Water supply and use is important to physiological activities of herbaceous species in other ecosystems (Knapp *et al.*, 2002). Thus, in order to understand the effect of water availability on A_{net} , g_s and eCO₂-induced A_{net} enhancement in our study, these parameters were plotted as a function of seasonal water availability, determined as the recent week total precipitation and mean daily V_{SWC} (Fig. 3). The recent week for these measures was the seven days prior to the initiation of gas exchange measurements at the EucFACE. Fig. 3a-d shows the responses of

A_{net} and g_s respectively, for the dominant *M. stipoides* species, with respect to seasonal water availability. Lower values for A_{net} (< 9 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹; Fig. 3a, b) and g_s (< 0.12 mol m⁻² s⁻¹; Fig. 3c, d) were mostly observed during time points when recent week precipitation was < 10 mm

340 (Fig. 3a, c) and mean daily V_{SWC} was < 0.10 v/v (Fig. 3b, d). Fig. 3e-h shows the effect of 341 water availability on eCO2-induced Anet enhancement. For all the C3 species considered 342 together, eCO2-induced Anet enhancement was negatively correlated with both, total precipitation ($r^2 = 0.38$, P < 0.01, Fig. 3e) and mean daily V_{SWC} ($r^2 = 0.49$, P < 0.01, Fig. 3f) 343 344 of the preceding week. Similarly, for M. stipoides, eCO2-induced Anet enhancement was a decreasing function of total precipitation ($r^2 = 0.56$, P < 0.01, Fig. 3g) and mean daily V_{SWC} 345 $(r^2 = 0.64, P < 0.01, Fig. 3h)$ of the preceding week. Overall, a photosynthetic enhancement 346 347 of > 20% under eCO₂ was observed during the relatively water-limited time points when the 348 recent week total precipitation was < 10 mm and mean daily V_{SWC} was < 0.10 v/v. Thus, there was evidence that water was an important regulator of Anet, gs and eCO2-induced Anet 349 350 enhancement.

351 *Effect of CO₂ and measurement time on biochemical parameters*

To understand the underlying biochemical regulation of $A_{\text{net}},$ we focused on V_{cmax} and $J_{\text{max}},$ 352 353 the parameters that are derived from the photosynthesis model of Farquhar et al. (Farquhar et al., 1980) and leaf N content. Though there was no significant CO₂ effect on the V_{cmax} and 354 J_{max} values across the species (P > 0.02, Table S2 and S3, Fig. S3), we observed a highly 355 356 significant measurement time effect on both the parameters (P < 0.01, Table S2 and S3). 357 There was evidence of different species responses for these parameters (Fig. S3). Variation in 358 V_{cmax} and J_{max} could be attributed to the variation in the measurement time weather 359 conditions and the inherent temperature dependencies of these two biochemical parameters.

Thus, V_{cmax} and J_{max} were normalised to a common standard temperature of 25 ^{o}C using the 360 361 activation energy and entropy parameters derived from instantaneous temperature responses 362 of *M. stipoides* as indicated in supplementary methods (see Supporting Material). Though 363 there was a significant measurement time effect on the normalised parameters (V_{cmax-25} and J_{max-25}) across the species (P < 0.01, Table 1 and S1, Fig. 4), they were less variable over 364 365 measurement time compared to non-normalised V_{cmax} and J_{max} (Fig. S3). When averaged 366 across the three species and CO₂ treatments, maximum values for $V_{cmax-25}$ and J_{max-25} (80 ± 13.06 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ and 129 \pm 5.23 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ respectively) were observed in Oct'14 and 367 368 Oct'15.

369 We did not observe a significant CO₂ effect on $V_{cmax-25}$ and J_{max-25} across the species (P >370 0.02, Tables 1 and S1 and Fig. 4). However, there was a non-significant CO₂ x measurement 371 time interaction effect on $V_{cmax-25}$ and J_{max-25} (P < 0.1, Tables 1 and S1 and Fig. 4). In 372 particular, there was a trend towards lower V_{cmax-25} and J_{max-25} under eCO₂ during Oct' 14 in M.stipoides and during Oct' 14 and Oct'15 in L. purpurascens. Trends similar to V_{cmax} and 373 374 J_{max} were also observed for leaf N content. There were no significant CO₂ or CO₂ x 375 measurement time interaction effects on the leaf N content (Narea and Nmass) across the three 376 species (P > 0.02, Table 1 and S1, Fig. S4). However, we observed a significant measurement 377 time effect of the leaf N content across the species and CO_2 treatments (P < 0.01, Table 1 and 378 S1). Similarly, for *M. stipoides*, there were no statistically significant CO_2 and CO_2 x 379 measurement time interaction effects on N_{area} (P > 0.02, Table S1, Fig. S4a) and N_{mass} (P >380 0.02. Table S3, Fig. S4d). However, leaf N content of *M. stipoides* varied significantly with 381 time across the CO₂ treatments (P < 0.01, Table S1 and S3). Overall, across the species we 382 did not observed a significant decrease in any of the measured biochemical parameters under 383 eCO₂, though individual species varied in this regard.

385 *Effect of CO*₂ and measurement time on V_{SWC}

386 There was no significant CO2 treatment effect on the mean daily VSWC during the three years of this experiment, indicated by overlapping confidence intervals (Fig. 5b). Also, mean daily 387 388 V_{SWC} during the weeks preceding gas exchange measurements was similar between aCO₂ and eCO_2 (P > 0.02, Table S4). However, V_{SWC} varied substantially during the course of this 389 390 study and there were several seasonal wet-dry periods (Fig. 5a). During a substantial amount 391 of time (average 14 days per month or \approx 50% of the time), V_{SWC} was < 0.10 v/v (Fig. 5a). 392 Thus, the EucFACE facility experienced frequent dry periods during the duration of our 393 measurements. Overall, there were no significant CO₂ x measurement time interaction effects 394 on mean daily V_{SWC} during the three years of measurement period indicated by overlapping 395 confidence intervals in Fig. 5b as well as during the week preceding the gas exchange 396 measurements across all the 13 measurement time points (P > 0.02, Table S4).

397 Effect of CO₂ and measurement time on diffusional parameters

398 Elevated CO₂ resulted in a significant increase in C_i ($391 \pm 27 \mu$ mol mol⁻¹) compared to aCO₂ $(288 \pm 15 \text{ }\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1})$ across the three species (P < 0.01, Table S2 and S3, data not shown). 399 However, this increase was not accompanied by a corresponding increase in the C_i/C_a ratio (P 400 401 > 0.02, Table S2 and S3). Both C_i and C_i/C_a varied significantly with measurement time 402 across the species (P < 0.001, Table S2 and S3). A result of increased atmospheric CO₂ and hence increased C_i, but no change in C_i/C_a, should be a reduction in S_{lim} and C_i difference 403 404 under eCO₂, as leaves operate closer to the CO₂ saturation for A_{net}. We therefore examined 405 the responses of Slim and Ci difference across the species (Fig. 6). There was no significant 406 CO_2 effect on S_{lim} across the three species (P > 0.02, Table 1 and S1, Fig. 6a-c). However, 407 there was a highly significant measurement time effect on Slim across the CO₂ treatments and species (P < 0.01, Table 1 and S1). Since there was a trend towards higher S_{lim} during the dry 408

409 time points (Fig. 6a-c) when values for A_{net} (Fig. 2a) and g_s (Fig. 2b) were lower, we plotted 410 S_{lim} as a function of water availability measured by total precipitation and mean daily V_{SWC} of preceding week (Fig. S5). S_{lim} was a decreasing function of V_{SWC} across the species ($r^2 =$ 411 0.33, P = 0.016, Fig. S5b) and for *M. stipoides* ($r^2 = 0.55$, P = 0.02, Fig. S5d). Thus, higher 412 S_{lim} were observed during periods of low water availability or when V_{SWC} was < 0.10 v/v 413 414 (Fig. S5b, d). Though the S_{lim} were similar between aCO₂ and eCO₂ treatments (Fig. 6a-c), 415 we observed a significant decrease in C_i difference under eCO₂ across the species (P < 0.01, 416 Table 1 and S1, Fig. 6d-f) indicating that plants in eCO_2 operated higher on the linear part of 417 the Anet-Ci curve. We did not observe a highly significant measurement time effect on Ci 418 difference across CO₂ treatments and three species (P > 0.02, Table 1). However, there were 419 significant measurement time effects on C_i difference of *M. stipoides* (P < 0.01, Table S1, 420 Fig. 6d). Higher average C_i difference was evident during the time points with higher relative 421 Slim (Fig. 6). We expected that there would be a two-way interaction between CO₂ and time 422 on C_i difference, but overall there was no significant CO₂ x measurement time interaction 423 effect on S_{lim} and C_i difference across the species (P > 0.02, Table 1 and S1). Taken together, 424 higher relative S_{lim} and C_i difference were evident during water-limited time points (Fig. S5), 425 suggesting that these diffusional factors may be responsible for seasonal variation in eCO₂-426 induced A_{net} enhancement. Further evidence of this comes from a set of physiologically-427 based causal hypotheses laid out in a structural equation model (Fig. 7, see Supporting 428 Material for details). Here, there was both a direct effect of the seasonal variation in g_s 429 affecting photosynthetic enhancement by eCO₂ as well as a strong effect mediated through 430 Slim.

433 To obtain a greater insight into the role of diffusional factors in controlling seasonal variation 434 in eCO₂-induced A_{net} enhancement we further plotted A_{net} enhancement ratio as a function of Slim (Fig. 8a) and C_i difference (Fig. 8b) under aCO₂ conditions. The eCO₂-induced A_{net} 435 enhancement was positively correlated with S_{lim} at aCO₂ conditions across the species ($r^2 =$ 436 0.39, P < 0.01, Fig. 8a) and for M. stipoides ($r^2 = 0.63$, P < 0.01). Similar to S_{lim}, we observed 437 a strong positive correlation between eCO₂-induced A_{net} enhancement and C_i difference at 438 aCO₂ across the species ($r^2 = 0.44$, P < 0.01, Fig. 8b) and for M. stipoides ($r^2 = 0.64$, P < 0.01, Fig. 8b) and for M. stipoides ($r^2 = 0.64$, P < 0.01, Fig. 8b) and for M. stipoides ($r^2 = 0.64$, P < 0.01, Fig. 8b) and for M. stipoides ($r^2 = 0.64$, P < 0.01, Fig. 8b) and for M. stipoides ($r^2 = 0.64$, P < 0.01, Fig. 8b) and for M. stipoides ($r^2 = 0.64$, P < 0.01, Fig. 8b) and for M. stipoides ($r^2 = 0.64$, P < 0.01, Fig. 8b) and for M. stipoides ($r^2 = 0.64$, P < 0.01, Fig. 8b) and for M. stipoides ($r^2 = 0.64$, P < 0.01, Fig. 8b) and for M. stipoides ($r^2 = 0.64$, P < 0.01, Fig. 8b) and for M. stipoides ($r^2 = 0.64$, P < 0.01, Fig. 8b) and for M. stipoides ($r^2 = 0.64$, P < 0.01, Fig. 8b) and for M. stipoides ($r^2 = 0.64$, P < 0.01, Fig. 8b) and for M. stipoides ($r^2 = 0.64$, P < 0.01, Fig. 8b) and for M. stipoides ($r^2 = 0.64$, P < 0.01, Fig. 8b) and for M. stipoides ($r^2 = 0.64$, P < 0.01, Fig. 8b) and for M. stipoides ($r^2 = 0.64$, P < 0.01, $r^2 = 0.01$, $r^2 = 0.00$, $r^2 = 0.01$, r^2 439 0.01). Overall, maximum enhancement in photosynthetic rates under eCO₂ were observed 440 441 when S_{lim} and C_i difference were higher under aCO₂ conditions.

442 Species effects and higher-order interactions

443 The spilt-plot ANOVA (CO₂ x measurement time x species) for the seven time points, during 444 which all three species were measured, indicated that species differed significantly in most of the measured physiological and biochemical parameters (P < 0.01, Table 1 and S2). When 445 averaged across CO₂ treatments and seven measurement time points, we observed higher 446 values for A_{net} and g_s (Fig. 2) in *S. madagascariensis* (18.5 ± 4.4 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ and 0.34 ± 0.13 447 mol m⁻² s⁻¹, respectively) than the other species (average Anet was $12 \pm 2.7 \mu$ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ and 448 $9.4 \pm 3.12 \text{ }\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for L. purpurascens and M. stipoides, respectively). A similar trend 449 450 was observed for the biochemical parameters like V_{cmax-25} and J_{max-25} (Fig. 4), V_{cmax} and J_{max} 451 (Fig. S3) and leaf N content (Fig. S4), with rates for the former ranking S. madagascariensis 452 > L. purpurascens > M. stipoides. Species also differed significantly in all the diffusional 453 parameters (P < 0.01, Table 1 and S2) except for S_{lim} (P > 0.02, Table 1, Fig. 6a-c) which 454 was similar across the three species ($\approx 33\%$) as expected given that it is a relative measure 455 that already accounts for intrinsic physiological rates. We observed a significant species x CO_2 interaction effect only for two variables (P < 0.01, Table 1 and S2), as S. 456 madagascariensis had higher values for J_{max-25} (Fig. 4f) and J_{max} (Fig. S3f) under eCO₂ than 457

458	for all other cases. Compared to <i>M. stipoides</i> , the biochemical (J_{max} , $V_{cmax-25}$, J_{max-25}) and
459	diffusional (g _s , C _i , C _i /C _a , and S _{lim}) parameters varied substantially with season in L.
460	purpurascens and S. madagascariensis. Overall, there were no statistically significant three-
461	way interaction effects (CO ₂ x measurement time x species) on any of the measured
462	physiological and biochemical parameters in our study ($P > 0.02$, Table 1 and S2).

463 Discussion

464 During three years of this study, photosynthetic rates under eCO₂ were almost 30% higher on average (Fig. 2), which we expect would have led to an increase in above- or below-ground 465 466 production. However, the relative enhancement in photosynthetic rates by eCO_2 across 467 species varied substantially between seasons, with values ranging from 12-53%. We 468 investigated the mechanisms underlying the seasonal variation in photosynthetic responses to 469 eCO_2 in three herbaceous C_3 species from a periodically dry *Eucalyptus* woodland, with a 470 focus on water availability and stomatal limitations, recognising that this would be the driver 471 for biomass accumulation responses. Our first hypothesis was supported, as we observed 472 maximum photosynthetic enhancement by eCO_2 during the dry periods ($V_{SWC} < 0.07$). In 473 contrast to our second hypothesis, we did not observe a significant increase in V_{SWC} under 474 eCO₂ or decrease in stomatal conductance. The results indicate that eCO₂ induced 475 photosynthetic enhancement during dry periods was the result of alleviation of stomatal 476 limitation by increasing C_i, thus supporting our third hypothesis.

477

478 Maximum eCO_2 -induced A_{net} enhancement is observed during dry periods

479 The grassy *Eucalyptus* woodland in this study experienced frequent seasonal wet and dry 480 periods (Fig. 1b and Fig. 5a). Since herbaceous species respond quickly to events of water 481 availability (Knapp et al., 2002), water was expected to be an important environmental factor 482 controlling growth, productivity and probably the eCO₂ response in the herbaceous species of 483 this ecosystem. The relationship between seasonal water availability (total precipitation and 484 mean daily V_{SWC} of preceding week) and eCO₂-induced A_{net} enhancement (Fig. 3e-h) 485 indicated that maximum eCO2-induced Anet enhancement occurred during relatively dry 486 periods, that is, when the total precipitation in the week preceding the measurements was <

10 mm (Fig. 3e, g) or the mean daily V_{SWC} was < 0.10 v/v (Fig. 3f, h). Similar relationships have been observed between A_{net} enhancement ratio and soil water content by Lecain *et al.* (2003) and between biomass enhancement and precipitation by Morgan *et al.* (2004), both for herbaceous species from temperate grasslands. The relationship between A_{net} enhancement ratio and seasonal water availability in our study is in agreement with these previous reports, and support our first hypothesis.

493 How is seasonal water availability related to the eCO₂-induced photosynthetic enhancement 494 and its variability? We argue that this relationship emerges out of stomatal control of 495 photosynthetic rates across a range of soil moistures. Previous studies addressing the 496 interaction effects of eCO₂ and drought (Kelly et al., 2016, Lecain et al., 2003, Morgan et al., 497 2004, Niklaus & Körner, 2004) indicate that eCO_2 can mitigate the impact of water-limitation 498 via two key mechanisms; first, decreased gs under eCO2 resulting in increased soil water 499 content or 'water-savings effect' and second, lower gs and higher Slim during drought 500 resulting in increased C_i and hence A_{net} under eCO₂. We evaluated these two mechanisms and 501 discuss them in the following sections.

502 Elevated CO₂ does not increase soil water content

503 Previous studies in water-limited temperate ecosystems have reported improved 504 photosynthetic rates and productivity under eCO₂ during dry conditions, generally attributed 505 to decreased g_s and the linked increase in soil water content (Blumenthal et al., 2013, Lecain 506 et al., 2003, Morgan et al., 2011, Morgan et al., 2004), called the 'water-savings effect'. 507 Although we observed the maximum CO₂-induced photosynthetic enhancement in dry 508 periods (Fig. 3e-h), stomatal conductance (g_s) did not significantly decrease under eCO₂ (Fig. 509 2d-f) even during dry periods (Fig. 3c, d). Stomatal conductance showed significant variation across seasons, but was similar under both aCO2 and eCO2 conditions (Fig. 2d-f), thus 510

511 indicating that plants under both CO_2 treatments were constrained by the same diffusional 512 limitations. Also, there was no detectable increase in mean daily V_{SWC} under eCO₂ compared to aCO₂ at any time point during three years of this study, not even during the dry periods 513 when we expected a significant increase in V_{SWC} (Fig. 5). Unlike temperate ecosystems 514 515 (Blumenthal et al., 2013, Lecain et al., 2003, Morgan et al., 2011, Morgan et al., 2004), the 516 'water-savings effect' of eCO_2 was absent in the ground layer and upper soil of this sub-517 tropical grassy *Eucalyptus* woodland, rejecting our second hypothesis. Thus we do not expect 518 such an effect on plant biomass accumulation for the grassy understory, though this remains 519 to be tested.

520 The 'water-savings effect' of eCO_2 has been expected to affect the structure and functioning 521 of savannas and grassy woodlands through feedbacks on species composition, partly through 522 the establishment of woody plant seedlings and tree-grass interactions (Bond & Midgley, 523 2012, Polley et al., 1997). For instance, the 'water-savings effect' could favour the 524 establishment of woody plant seedlings that were previously excluded due to low water 525 availability (Polley et al., 1997) or could help lengthen the growing season, thus reducing the 526 period when fires can occur (Bond & Midgley, 2012). An invasive grass, Microstegium, 527 responded differently between years to eCO_2 in a temperate plantation, which may be been 528 due to interannual differences in soil moisture interacting with eCO_2 (Belote *et al.*, 2004). 529 However, the above predictions might not be true in the case of warm temperate grassy 530 woodlands with periodic drought, as there was no evidence of eCO₂-induced water savings in 531 our study. We speculate that the dominance of C3 species in the ground layer at our site may 532 have been a factor responsible for this finding, as suggested previously by Morgan et al. (2004).533

534 Higher stomatal limitations and A_{net} enhancement by eCO₂ during dry periods

535 Given that we did not find decreased stomatal conductance in eCO₂ and hence no 'water-536 savings effect', we investigated the possibility of changed stomatal limitations in eCO₂. S_{lim} was a function of water availability, especially mean daily V_{SWC} (Fig. S5b,d). As a result, 537 lower gs (Fig. 3d) and consequently higher Slim (Fig. S5b,d) were observed during the water-538 539 limited periods than during wet periods. From this we infer that water availability controlled 540 the variability in S_{lim} to photosynthesis as depicted in the path analysis in Figure 7. A similar 541 relationship was previously observed between soil water content and diffusional limitation by 542 Grassi & Magnani (2005). A consequence of lower gs and higher Slim observed during water-543 limitation is a decrease in C_i and A_{net} with plants operating deeper in the carboxylation-544 limited zone, and so more responsive to eCO2. At such low Ci's, CO2 fertilisation can 545 facilitate the alleviation of Slim by increasing Ci, thus generating a larger photosynthetic 546 enhancement during dry periods (Lawlor, 2002). In support to this prediction, we observed 547 maximum increase in photosynthetic rates under eCO_2 when S_{lim} were higher under aCO_2 548 concentrations (Fig. 8a). A similar relationship was observed between eCO2-induced Anet 549 enhancement and C_i difference (Fig. 8b). The C_i difference is a measure of how high the 550 operating point is, relative to a transition away from carboxylation limitation to 551 photosynthesis. Larger C_i difference indicates that plants have more capacity to increase 552 carboxylation with increased atmospheric CO_2 concentrations. Thus, eCO_2 enables plants to 553 overcome the higher S_{lim} during water-limited periods resulting in increased C_i and 554 photosynthetic rates compared to plants grown in aCO₂. Examining the multivariate pathway 555 to photosynthetic enhancement by eCO_2 in Figure 7, greater soil moisture in turn increased g_s 556 in ambient CO_2 . There was both a direct pathway from g_s to the enhancement in A_{net} in eCO_2 , 557 as well as an indirect pathway through the change in relative stomatal limitation in aCO_2 . 558 This model clearly supports the mechanism of how higher stomatal limitations, caused by 559 lower g_s during dry periods, can be overcome by eCO_2 thus resulting in significant increase in photosynthetic rates. Taken together, the results indicate that seasonal variability in S_{lim} was responsible for the variability in eCO₂-induced A_{net} enhancement. The increased photosynthetic rates under eCO₂ suggest a potential for increased ecosystem C gain during dry periods. The phenology of different species would dictate if these responses could be translated to increased biomass accumulation, for which we currently have limited data. This is the first study to demonstrate the role of S_{lim} in controlling eCO₂ response at field level and over multiple seasons in a periodically water-limited grassy woodland ecosystem.

567 Though eCO₂ overcomes S_{lim} thus increasing A_{net} during dry periods, this may not always be 568 the case. The Eucalyptus woodland ecosystem in this study experienced frequent wet-dry 569 periods resulting in moderate water stress (Fig. 1b,c), likely enhanced by water extraction by 570 nearby trees. Findings from this study might best apply in systems such as savannas and 571 grasslands where frequent droughts are common, rather than the long and more intense dry 572 periods observed in semi-arid to arid regions. In the latter case, metabolic limitations that 573 decrease photosynthetic capacity become more important than stomatal limitations and any 574 increase in external CO₂ is unable to increase photosynthetic rates (Ghannoum et al., 2003, 575 Lawlor, 2002). For instance, eCO_2 was unable to increase photosynthetic rates in a desert 576 shrub during severe drought as a consequence of reduced Rubisco content and low 577 photosynthetic capacity (Naumburg et al., 2003). Similarly, Gray et al. (2016) observed that 578 during severe droughts, decreases in g_s and depression of C_i were greater in eCO₂ than aCO₂. 579 Consequently, there may be negative effects of severe restrictions on water availability that 580 are manifest by non-stomatal effects that can override the stomatal ones under severe plant 581 water deficits.

In summary, under field conditions and over three years of CO_2 fumigation, we investigated two key mechanisms that might be responsible for eCO_2 -induced photosynthetic enhancement observed during periods of low water availability in C_3 herbaceous species of a

585 grassy woodland. One of these, the 'water-savings effect', has been frequently assumed to be 586 the main mechanism responsible for eCO₂ effect during dry conditions (Morgan et al., 2004) and has been used in global models (Ahlström et al., 2013, Zhu et al., 2016). Though we 587 588 observed maximum eCO₂-induced photosynthetic enhancement during the dry periods, this 589 enhancement was not mediated through the 'water-savings effect'. Low water availability 590 resulted in lower g_s, higher relative S_{lim} and thus a greater increase in C_i possible which led to 591 a significant photosynthetic enhancement under eCO₂. The results demonstrate that water 592 availability, but not eCO_2 , controls g_s and hence the photosynthetic enhancement in the 593 herbaceous understorey of the dry grassy *Eucalyptus* woodland. Further, modelling 594 photosynthetic enhancement should involve dynamic regulation of the set-point for gas 595 exchange according to stomatal limitations across different times of year. Thus, eCO₂ has the 596 potential to alter the structure and functioning of warm and periodically dry grassy woodland 597 ecosystems through alleviation of S_{lim} and increase in photosynthetic CO₂ assimilation, but 598 not via a 'water-savings effect' as is usually observed in temperate grasslands.

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804	$\textbf{Table 1} \text{ Results of mixed-model split-plot ANOVA for net photosynthesis (A_{net}), temperature normalised maximum carboxylation (V_{cmax-25}) and$
805	electron transport rates (J_{max-25}) , N content on area basis (N_{area}) , stomatal conductance (g_s) , relative stomatal limitation (S_{lim}) and C_i difference as
806	the difference between the transition C_i and operating C_i , across the three C_3 species measured for seven seasonal time points ¹ . Results shown are
807	across M. stipoides, L. purpurascens and S. madagascariensis. CO2 refers to the CO2 treatment and time refers to the seasonal time points during
808	which measurements were carried out. P-values for the split-plot ANOVA are shown in bold for significant effects when the false discovery rate
809	is controlled using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure. Three-way interactions were not statistically significant ($P > 0.02$) and hence are not
810	shown in the table. The numerator degrees of freedom (df) are given for the statistical tests.
011	

	Sou	rce of variation	on									
		CO_2	2		Time	9		Speci	es		CO ₂ x Tin	me
Variables	df	<i>F</i> -value	P-value	df	<i>F</i> -value	P-value	df	<i>F</i> -value	P-value	df	<i>F</i> -value	<i>P</i> -value
A _{net}	1	23.18	0.009	6	13.85	<0.001	2	83.22	<0.001	6	1.14	0.367
V _{cmax-25}	1	0.06	0.815	6	4.95	0.002	2	129.25	<0.001	6	2.45	0.055
J _{max-25}	1	0.32	0.602	6	8.69	<0.001	2	137.91	<0.001	6	2.33	0.064
N _{area}	1	0.09	0.771	6	5.62	<0.001	2	9.20	<0.001	6	0.80	0.575
gs	1	2.35	0.200	6	4.94	0.002	2	57.99	<0.001	6	1.24	0.320
S _{lim} C _i	1	2.77	0.172	6	5.09	0.002	2	0.28	0.755	6	1.16	0.361
difference	1	46.40	0.002	6	2.99	0.025	2	16.72	<0.001	6	0.97	0.466

813

Source of variation (continued)

	Species x	CO ₂	_	Species x Time				
df	<i>F</i> -value	<i>P</i> -value	df	<i>F</i> -value	<i>P</i> -value			
2	0.21	0.810	12	1.29	0.250			
2	1.94	0.153	12	2.09	0.034			
2	4.30	0.019	12	2.40	0.015			
2	4.08	0.022	12	2.76	0.005			

2	0.25	0.776	12	3.50	<0.001
2	2.02	0.142	12	5.69	<0.001
2	1.38	0.261	12	1.55	0.135

⁸¹⁵ ¹All variables were transformed (square root or log transformation) to meet the normality assumptions for the mixed-model ANOVA.

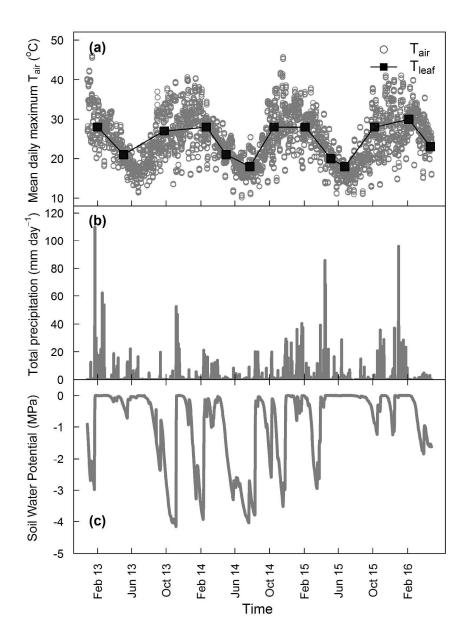


Fig. 1 Time course through the three measurement years for (a) daily maximum air temperature (Tair in °C, open circles), and mean leaf temperature at the time of measurement (Tleaf in °C, filled squares), (b) daily total precipitation received at the site, and (c) surface soil water potential (0-30cm depth). Tleaf is a mean of three ground layer species.

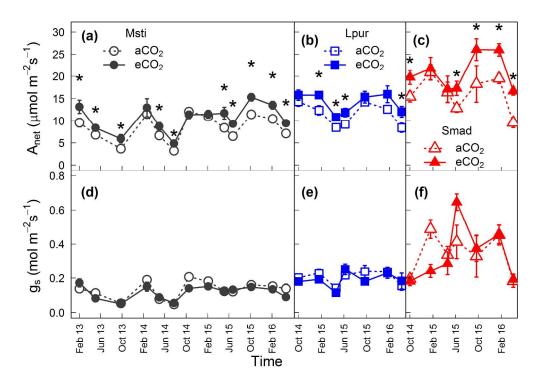


Fig. 2 Time course through the three measurement years for (a) seasonal net CO2 assimilation (Anet) as a function of CO2 treatment for M. stipoides (Msti, black circles), (b) L. purpurascens (Lpur, blue squares) and (c) S. madagascariensis (Smad, red triangles). Open symbols indicate ambient CO2 (aCO2) and closed symbols indicate elevated CO2 (eCO2). The corresponding stomatal conductance is shown for (d) M. stipoides, (e) L. purpurascens, and (f) S. madagascariensis. When there was a significant overall CO2 effect (Table 1), post-hoc treatment differences were denoted by * (P < 0.05; t-test).

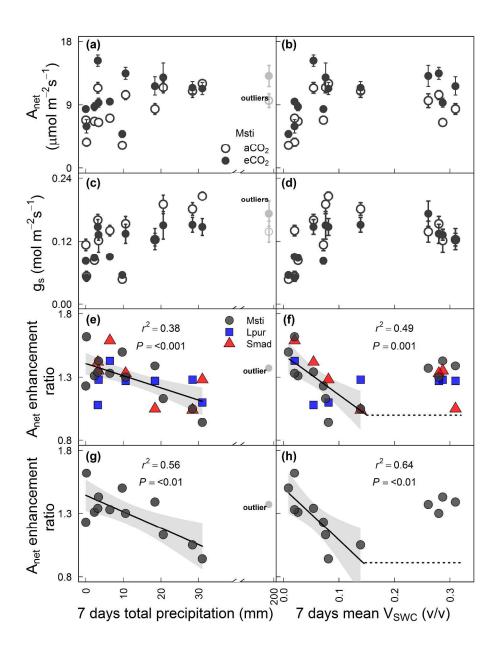


Fig. 3 (a, b) Seasonal Anet and (c, d) the corresponding seasonal gs for M.stipoides along with (e, f) the Anet enhancement ratio for all three species, and (g, h) for M. stipoides only. Anet, gs and Anet enhancement ratio are shown as a function of total precipitation (a, c, e and g) and mean daily volumetric soil water content (VSWC; b, d, f and h) in the week preceding Anet measurements. In the legends, the three species are indicated as M. stipoides (Msti, black circles), L. purpurascens (Lpur, blue squares and S. madagascariensis (Smad, red triangles). Anet enhancement ratio was calculated as mean Anet under eCO2 divided by mean Anet under aCO2. Gray shaded portions indicate 95% confidence intervals for the mean values. In panels f and h, a broken stick function is shown, with fit to the linear part below the field capacity for this soil (0.18 v/v).

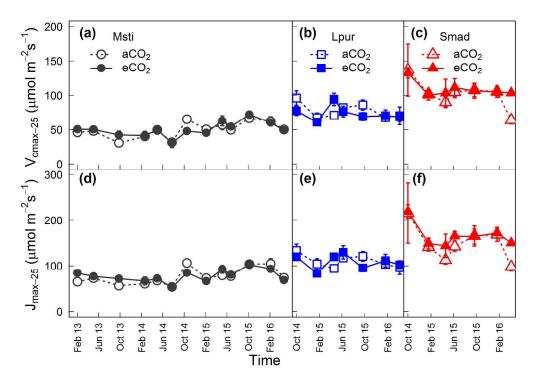


Fig. 4 Time course of rates of maximum carboxylation (Vcmax) and electron transport (Jmax) as a function of CO2 treatments. The rates have been normalised to a standard leaf temperature of 25 oC, indicated by (a, b and c) Vcmax-25 and (d, e and f) Jmax-25, respectively. These parameters are shown for M. stipoides (Msti; a,d; black circles), L. purpurascens (Lpur; b, e; blue squares) and S. madagascariensis (Smad; c, f; red triangles).

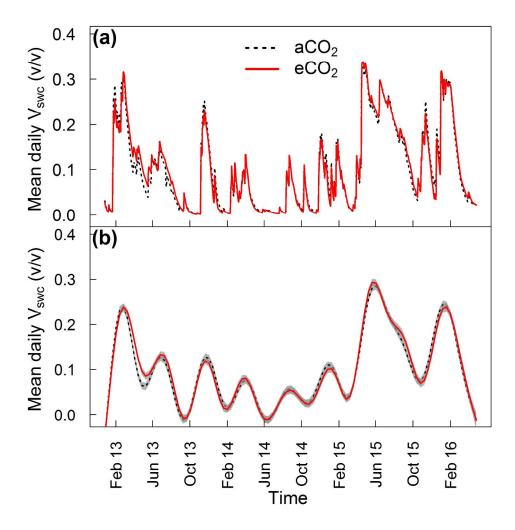


Fig. 5 Time course through the three measurement years for (a) mean daily VSWC under aCO2 (black dashed line) and eCO2 (red solid line) and (b) smoothed regressions with 95% confidence intervals (gray areas) around the smooth terms for VSWC under aCO2 and eCO2.

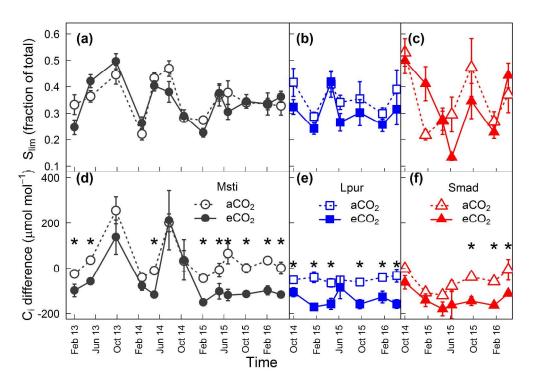


Fig. 6 Time course of (a, b and c) relative stomatal limitations (Slim) and (d, e and f) the difference between operating Ci and transition Ci (Ci difference) as a function of CO2 treatments. These parameters are shown for M. stipoides (Msti; a, d; black circles), L. purpurascens (Lpur; b, e; blue squares) and S. madagascariensis (Smad; c, f; red triangles). When there was a significant overall CO2 effect (Table 1), post-hoc treatment differences were denoted by * (P < 0.05; t-test).

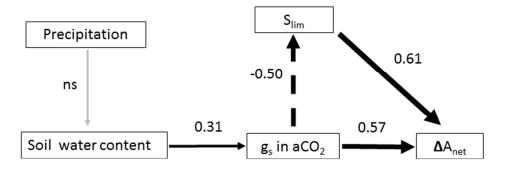


Fig. 7 The fitted structural equation model depicting causal hypotheses underlying the photosynthetic enhancement by eCO2 for herbaceous species measured at discrete points in the EucFACE experiment (see Fig. 2). Significant standardised path coefficients (P < 0.05) are shown near each arrow, with the width of the line proportional to the size of the standardised coefficients. The dashed line denotes a negative relationship, and non-significant pathways are indicated in grey. Δ Anet denotes the absolute enhancement of Anet by eCO2 with similar outcomes for the same model using the relative enhancement of Anet.

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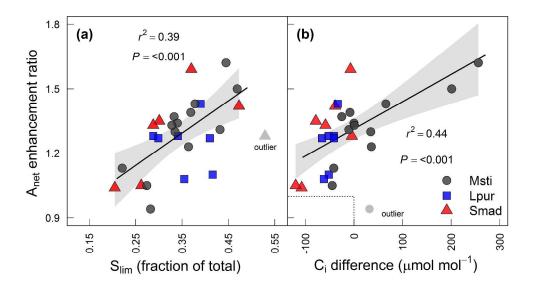


Fig. 8 The relative Anet enhancement ratio as a function of (a) Slim (fraction of total limitations), and (b) Ci difference for all three species. The species are M. stipoides (black circles), L. purpurascens (blue squares) and S. madagascariensis (red triangles). In (b), the dashed box in the lower left-hand corner of the panels denotes the null hypothesis of no Anet enhancement in eCO2. Gray shaded portions in panels (a) and (b) indicate 95% confidence intervals for the mean values, and the same outlier as shown in Fig. 3 is denoted.