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How does solar ultraviolet-B radiation improve drought tolerance of silver birch (Betula pendula Roth.) seedlings?

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- 1 Title: By which mechanism does solar ultraviolet-B radiation
- 2 improve drought tolerance of silver birch (Betula pendula Roth.)
- **seedlings?**
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Abstract

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We hypothesized that solar ultraviolet (UV) radiation would protect silver birch seedlings from the detrimental effects of water stress. To elucidate the mechanism behind this interaction, plants were grown in an experiment under nine treatment combinations filtering out ultraviolet-A and ultraviolet-B from solar radiation together with differential watering to create water deficit conditions. The effects of UV on growth and morphology were evident after the first month of treatments, and largely persisted, without increasing, over the second month. In seedlings under water deficit, UV attenuation reduced height growth, leaf production and leaf length compared with seedlings receiving the full spectrum of solar radiation; whereas the growth and morphology of well-watered seedlings was largely unaffected by UV attenuation. There was an interactive effect of the treatment combination on water relations, which was more apparent as a change in the water potential at which leaves wilted or plants died than through differences in gas exchange. This suggests changes occur in the cell wall elastic modulus or accumulation of osmolites in cells under UVB. Overall, the strong negative effects of water deficit are partially ameliorated by solar UV radiation, whereas well-watered silver birch seedlings are slightly impaired by the solar UV radiation they receive.

Abbreviations

- 32 Ultraviolet radiation 280–400 nm (UV). Ultraviolet-B radiation 280–315 nm (UVB). Ultraviolet-
- A radiation 315–400 nm (UVA). Attenuated solar UVB treatment (UVB–), Attenuated solar
- 34 UVA and UVB treatment (UVA&B–).

Introduction

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During seedling establishment in spring and summer, growth and development are affected by various environmental constraints that impose selective pressure on plant functional traits (Bazzaz 2004). Periods of sunny weather associated with high ultraviolet radiation (UV) frequently occur before and during the onset of drought. In nature, plants perceive these cues and may be able to pre-emptively acclimate to minimise the detrimental impact of the "predictable" future water stress. Recent findings that moderate doses of UV act in a regulatory manner at the cellular level (Heije & Ulm 2012; Hideg et al. 2013; Tilbrook et al. 2013), should assist our interpretation of how the physiological processes affected by UV integrate at the whole plant level. The heightened importance of regulatory- rather than stress responses begs the question, is UV radiation fulfilling a signaling function that allows plants to prepare for the onset of seasonal environmental stresses? It would make sense for plants' response to conditions such as drought and high radiation to be complementary, and it has even been suggested that detection of UV radiation may act as a signal to initiate plant defense from photo-oxidative stress (Jansen et al. 2012). In this study, our objective is to test the response of silver birch (Betula pendula Roth.) seedlings to combinations of solar UV radiation and water deficit at realistic values that might co-occur in nature. Seedlings are at the most critical stage of a trees' development where selection occurs through an environmental filter (Clark et al. 1999). In Finland, solar UVB radiation is highest in spring and early-summer when silver birch seedlings come into leaf, and when periods of water deficit can occur (Atkinson 1992; Kaurola et al. 2000; Jylhä et al. 2009). Light-demanding species like silver birch regenerate in open ground and forest gaps where high evaporative demand and large vapour pressure deficits (VPD) hinder water retention, so escalating any

effects of drought (Portsmuth & Niinemets 2006). However, higher physiological activity of seedlings in sunny than shady conditions also allows for greater flexibility in their mechanisms to limit water loss, because responses such as tolerance of higher tissue dehydration through a greater capacity for osmotic adjustment and stomatal regulation of water loss can be employed while still maintaining a positive carbon balance (Chaves *et al.* 2002; Flexas *et al.* 2006; Robson *et al.* 2009). Nevertheless, early successional tree species maybe particularly responsive to UVB with respect to gas exchange and leaf anatomy (Cai *et al.* 2008).

Various studies have suggested that UV radiation could confer an advantage on particular plant species under drought stress, but an understanding of which mechanisms underpin this benefit is lacking. Common trait responses to UVB radiation, such as smaller leaf and epidermal cells with thicker walls and thicker cuticles (Wargeant *et al.* 2009; Hectors *et al.* 2010; Robson *et al.* 2013), largely coincide with those responses that help to protect plants from water stress. However, experiments have typically concentrated only on specific ecophysiological responses, hence conclusions have been inconsistent and failed to identify which particular physiological changes combine to produce a coherent response across levels of organisation when scaling up to the whole plant. The synergistic effects of UV and water stress have sometimes been attributed to improved stomatal control and changes in root/shoot allocation (e.g. Duan *et al.* 2008 in poplar), or alternatively to improved hydraulic acclimation expressed through changes in leaf water potential (e.g. Hofmann *et al.* 2003 in clover; Feng *et al.* 2007 in wheat) and allowing continued photosynthetic function at reduced leaf water content (Poulson *et al.* 2006 in *Arabidopsis thaliana*).

Common responses of silver birch to drought include reduced biomass and leaf growth, and reduced shoot:root ratio; which reflect smaller leaf size, increased stomatal control of water

loss and decreased assimilation (Ranney *et al.* 1991; Aspelmeier & Leuschner 2004; Sellin & Kupper 2005; Possen *et al.* 2011). Silver birch maintains rather isohydric leaves which wilt easily and are often shed under relatively mild water stress (leaf pre-dawn water potential (Ψ_{pd}) < -1.3 MPa: Aspelmeier & Leuschner 2006). This is considered to be an adaptive mechanism to reduce transpirational leaf area under mild drought despite the costs incurred constructing new leaves and the loss of assimilation capacity.

As with many species, the most widely-reported response of silver birch leaves to UV radiation is a change in the production of UV-absorbing compounds (Searles *et al.* 2001). Most studies report that flavonoids accumulate during leaf expansion (Laitinen *et al.* 2002, Morales *et al.* 2011), suggesting that newly produced leaves are most susceptible to UV penetration.

Although after reaching maturity the flavonoid content of leaves starts to decline with leaf age (Kotilainen *et al.* 2010). Flavonoids are produced constitutively in the leaves of many species (Gotz *et al.* 2010), but even small doses of UV can induce sufficient additional UV-screening phenolics to effectively limit penetration into the mesophyll to 5–12 % of incident UV radiation in a range of species (Barnes *et al.* 2008), while higher doses of UV often fail to elicit any further increase in UV-screening phenolics (de la Rosa *et al.* 2001; Tegelberg *et al.* 2001).

Possibly because of the effectiveness of UV-protection, most reported detrimental effects of UV on growth and leaf traits in silver birch have either been subtle (Kostina *et al.* 2001; Tegelberg *et al.* 2004; Robson *et al.* 2012) or undetectable (Keski-Saari *et al.* 2005; Kotilainen *et al.* 2009; Morales *et al.* 2010). Of course, the response of silver birch to additional environmental constraints in these and other experiments may be masking, or superseding, the effect of UV because of functional trade-offs in response to different factors.

Our experiment was explicitly designed to test which plant traits were affected by combinations of UV and water stress, to identify where these two factors were having synergistic or antagonistic effects on plant function. We grew seedlings of silver birch outside in a replicated fully-factorial experiment under filters creating near-ambient full solar UV radiation treatments (near-ambient UV control) and reduced solar UVB (UVB-) and reduced solar UVA and UVB (UVA&B-), also giving differential watering to create water deficit conditions during June and July of 2011. We expected near-ambient UV to reduce leaf area and promote greater investment in protection, e.g. more phenolics, and thicker leaves, similar responses to those expected under water deficit. Consequently, we hypothesized that UVB-x-drought responses should be complementary, with the trait response to one stress partially alleviating the severity of the other. Hence the comparison of ambient UV control and reduced UV silver birch seedlings subjected to water deficit should favour the control seedlings, whereas in the well-watered treatment the reduced UV seedlings should do better. So as to better understand the mechanisms underlying any treatment effects, we monitored a suite of traits allowing comparison of adjustments in hydraulic sufficiency, stomatal control, and changes in morphology and whole plant performance.

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Materials and methods

Preparation of silver birch seedlings

Silver birch seeds (*Betula pendula Roth.*) of central Finnish provenance (Seed orchard 379,

Ey/FIN M29-93-0001), were soaked in water for 24 hours prior to being sown on 2nd May and

were maintained at 25° C in a greenhouse receiving no UVB during germination until they produced two true leaves and attained a height of 2–3 cm. On 1st June, seedlings were transplanted, one individual seedling per cell of volume 275 cm³, in trays (400 × 300 × 130 cm; Plantek PL 35F, BCC Oy, Finland). Seedlings were grown in a standard soil mixture of peat, sand and vermiculite (6:2:1 v/v respectively) to which 2 g of slow release nutrient pellets (15% N; 4.4% P₂O₅; 8.3% K₂O; 1.8% MgO, TE; Scotts International BV, Netherlands) per cell were added, plus water to field capacity. A total of 455 silver birch seedlings of equal size were randomly selected and divided between 13 trays, each containing 35 seedlings in five rows of seven plants. Each of the three middle rows was allocated to a drought treatment, and a surrounding border of plants was left untreated. This ensured that all plants included in the experiment were surrounded by eight neighbouring silver birches providing a homogeneous light environment at the start of the experiment.

Prior to their transfer outside under the UV filters, the transplanted silver birch seedlings were kept in the greenhouse for a further 5 days to become established in the cells. At this stage any dead seedlings were replaced. To obtain an estimate of the initial state of the seedlings directly prior to the experiment, the chlorophyll content of the first leaf produced was measured non-invasively using a SPAD-502 chlorophyll meter (Minolta Camera Co., Osaka, Japan), as was the leaf length and width of the second leaf using digital callipers, and the soil moisture in each cell (SM200 Moisture Sensor with HH2 Moisture Meter, Delta-T Devices, Cambridge, UK). In order to minimise soil-surface disturbance by the probe during subsequent soil moisture measurements a thin layer of sand was sprinkled on top of the soil.

Design of the UV filtration experiment

The UV-x-drought experiment was performed outside in an open area at the greenhouse-and-field-trials complex of University of Helsinki, Viikki Campus ($60^{\circ}13'$ N, $25^{\circ}1'$ E). Plastic filters were used to create treatments comprising the full spectrum of solar UV (near-ambient UV control: 0.05 mm thick polythene, 04 PE-LD; Etola, Jyväskylä, Finland), reduced UVB (UVB–: 0.125 mm thick polyester, Autostat CT5; Thermoplast, Helsinki, Finland) and reduced UVA and UVB (UVA&B–: Rosco theatrical 'gel' E+# 226; Rosco Labs, Stamford, Connecticut, USA). Filters attached to frames (80×100 cm area) were hung from wooden posts and their height was adjusted throughout the experiment to keep them suspended c 20 cm above the upper leaves of the silver birch seedlings. The three UV treatment plots were arranged in a random position within four replicate blocks. On June 8^{th} , trays were systematically allocated to the three different ultraviolet radiation treatments such that trays of similarly sized seedlings were evenly distributed among the treatments to ensure that there were no initial treatment differences in seedling size. Trays of seedlings were placed at the centre of each plot to minimize the scattered and diffuse UV radiation they received around the sides of the filters.

Directly prior to the start of the experiment the complete solar spectrum was measured at the location of the seedlings under each of the 12 filters and in the open under an almost completely clear sky close to solar noon on 8th June (Maya 2000 Pro CCD array spectroradiometer, Ocean Optics, Florida, USA, D7-H-SMA cosine diffuser, Bentham, Reading, UK). Each measurement consisted in three consecutive scans, one with the bare cosine diffuser, one in the dark, and third using a polycarbonate filter blocking UV radiation. The post processing of the spectra included both a correction for the shape of the slit function and for stray light (Ylianttila *et al.* 2005; Kreuter & Blumthaller 2009). This protocol was cross-validated at

the Finnish Radiation Authority in spring 2011 against a Bentham DM 150 double monochromator spectroradiometer (Bentham Instruments Ltd., Reading, UK) under natural sunlight. The average of 20 solar spectra was used for each filter, and the mean calculated from four plots of each treatment (Table 1; Fig. S1). All three UV treatments reduced the photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) received by just over 10% but the spectral composition of radiation under the polyethene (near-ambient UV control) filter was unchanged compared with unfiltered sunlight. The UVB— and UVA&B— treatments did not completely exclude UV radiation but provided less than 10% of the control dose to the central area of the plot where the plants were situated (Table 1).

Watering treatments

All 15 seedlings (5×3 rows) from every tray, excluding the border plants, were subjected to three different watering regimes designed to impose differential water stress treatments: (1) water-stressed, (2) limited-water and (3) well-watered. Every 2–3 days during the experiment the seedlings were individually given a measured volume of water using a syringe. As the seedlings grew at different rates they dried the soil to varying degrees, so the soil moisture in each seedling's cell was measured (HH2 Moisture Meter) prior to watering and the administered volume of water adjusted to raise the soil to approximately 10% v/v in the water-stressed treatments ($c \times 5 \text{ ml day}^{-1}$ on average), 20% v/v in the limited-water treatment ($c \times 10 \text{ ml day}^{-1}$), and 30% v/v in the well-watered treatment ($c \times 15-20 \text{ ml day}^{-1}$). The rate of depletion of soil moisture depended on the weather and on the size of the seedlings (Fig. S2), but there was no significant difference in soil moisture among UV treatments for a given watering treatment over

experimental period (Table 2). To maintain the differences between watering treatments, more water was required by larger seedlings and consequently towards the end of the experiment soil moisture was similarly depleted prior to watering in the water-stressed treatment and limited-water treatment where plants had grown larger. Soil moisture in the border seedlings was depleted quicker than from the rest so they required more water (c 15–20 ml day⁻¹) to attain values equivalent to the limited-water treatment.

Other environmental variables

The air temperature and relative humidity in each plot was monitored at 5 cm above the soil surface using an *in situ* miniature logger (shielded from direct sunlight) that recorded data every hour (DS1923 iButton, Maxim Integrated Products, Inc., Sunnyvale, CA, USA) (Fig. 1). A white plastic sheath was used to shield the sides of the plastic trays from direct sunlight so reducing the heat load on the soil of the border plants.

Measurements of seedling growth, leaf traits and water potential

The experiment ran from 8th June when silver birch seedlings all had two small leaves, until 2nd August when the seedlings were harvested for both stem and root biomass. The seedling height, number of leaves, length and width of the largest leaf of each seedling were measured twice, mid-way through (5th July) and at the end of the experiment (27th July), and evidence of wilting was recorded on 11th July as well as on these two occasions. At the start of the experiment on June 3rd, the length and width of the 2nd proximal leaf were measured on all seedlings. Silver birch seedlings produce successively larger leaves as the growing season proceeds. Hence, the

most recently produced fully-expanded leaf provided the most consistent comparison of traits among treatments: in practice this was the largest sun leaf. Seedlings grew at different rates in our treatments meaning that the 4th or 5th proximal leaf was measured on July 5th and again on July 27th. The same leaves were used for all non-destructive measurements and were sampled at the end of the experiment except when leaves died during the experiment. Additional measurements of the number of lateral shoots or branches, root collar diameter, and number of buds were made at the end of the experiment only. Leaf damage, such as herbivory, was extremely low throughout the experiment. The July stem extension rate in mm day⁻¹ was calculated by taking the difference in natural logs of stem extension between the two measurement dates relative to the final height, (ln H₁-ln H₂)/ln H₂.

. Leaf pre-dawn water potential (Ψ_{pd}) was taken from the 5th proximal leaf (04:30–05:30); plants were shaded overnight to ensure pre-dawn-like conditions in the early morning. Midday leaf water potential (Ψ_{md}) water taken from the 6th proximal leaf receiving full sun to the leaf lamina during the sampling period (12:00–15:00: 2nd August). On the same day, the mid-day water potential of the main stem $(\Psi_{md\text{-stem}})$ just above the root collar was also measured using a pressure chamber (Model 1000, PMS Instrument Co., Albany, Oregon, USA) in all seedlings at the time of final harvest

Measurement of leaf optical properties and phenolics

The chlorophyll content of the largest fully-expanded full-sun leaf (4th or 5th proximal leaf) was measured non-invasively (SPAD chlorophyll meter) immediately prior to the experiment, then one week after the start of the experiment (17th June), and at the end of the experiment (27th July).

= 10° (SPAD^{0.267}) obtained for this particular machine with other species (Randriamanana *et al.* 2012). The adaxial epidermal flavonoid content of these same leaves was assessed prior to the experiment and on three occasions during the experiment (29th June, 11th July, and 27th July) using the Dualex FLAV 3.3 (FORCE-A, Orsay, France). This instrument measures, the absorbance of epidermal flavonoids, particularly flavones and flavonols, at 375 nm (Goulas et al. 2004). By the end of the experiment, the 4th or 5th proximal leaf was no longer receiving full sun all day in those treatments where seedlings had continued to grow during July so an additional measurement was made of the youngest fully-expanded leaf, usually the 2nd distal leaf on each seedling. Dualex absorbance units at λ_{375} were converted to flavonoid contents according to the calibration given by Morales et al (2010) for silver birch leaves. SPAD and Dualex measurements were performed together on sunny days in the early afternoon just after the daily peak in solar UVB radiation, this also eliminated any possible variability due to diurnal relocation of chlorophylls (Naus et al. 2010) or phenolics (Barnes et al. 2008) within the leaf. Methanol-extractable phenolics were also measured in leaves sampled at the end of the experiment (27th July), from mature fully-expanded sun leaves harvested at dawn and midday. and the youngest fully-expanded leaves harvested at midday. Two leaf disks (6 mm in diameter) were sampled from one leaf of every plant surviving until harvest, and immediately placed in 3 ml acidified methanol mechanically shaken in the dark at 4° C for 4 hours prior to analysis in a scanning spectrophotometer (Shimadzu UV-2501 PC UV-VIS, Kyoto, Japan) for the spectral absorbance over the range λ_{190} to λ_{1100} . If the absorbance was saturating at some λ the extract was diluted with 1 ml acidified methanol until absorbance < 2.0 to avoid non-linearity and the

Leaf chlorophyll contents were calculated from SPAD absorbance units using the equation [Chl]

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peaks were subsequently recalculated using a calibration curve produced by diluting other samples in the same way.

Measurement of leaf physiological and morphological traits

Gas exchange of fully-expanded sun leaves was measured on two occasions, mid-way through the experiment ($7-8^{th}$ July) and towards the end of the experiment (20^{th} July). On each occasion one leaf from three silver birch seedlings of each water treatment under each filter were measured: i.e. 3 seedlings × 3 water-treatments × 3 UV-treatments × 4 replicate filters × 2 dates = 216 leaves measured. Measurements were performed under clear-sky conditions on sunny days using a LI- COR 6400 infra-red gas analyser (LI-COR Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA) equipped with a 6 cm² leaf chamber. The seedlings received light-saturating conditions solar radiation (photosynthetic photon flux density >1200 μ mol m-² s-¹). The environment in the chamber was maintained close to air temperature 25°C and 23°C on each date, the relative humidity 35 \pm 2 %, vapour pressure deficit 2.1 \pm 0.2 K Pa, the CO₂ concentration was 380 ppm, and flow rate of gas through the chamber was 600 μ mol s-¹. Once net photosynthesis (A_{net}), stomatal conductance of water vapour (g₈) per m-² leaf area and intercellular CO₂ concentration (C_i) were considered to be stable for each leaf these parameters were recorded for the next 10 s and the mean value of this period for each leaf was used in subsequent analyses.

To assess how spectral quality was influencing the relationship between photosynthesis and stomatal conductance, the same gas exchange measurements detailed for light-saturating conditions were performed on seedlings acclimated to blue and red light (25–26th July). This enabled us to examine whether acclimation to UV radiation selectively reduced the blue-light

specific opening response of stomata as a means of controlling water loss (Negash & Björn 1986), or whether this was a more general response. Prior to gas exchange measurements, seedlings were acclimated for approximately 1 hour to the conditions under the filter boxes, filters transmitting only blue or red sunlight attached to a cubic frame (Roscolux#80 Primary Blue and Rosco E-colour#106 Primary Red filters; Rosco Labs, Stamford, Connecticut, USA; photo: supplemental material). In addition to this, light response curves to red light, and to saturating red plus a low dose of blue light, were performed on 19th July using red and blue light sources (Norlux NHXRGB090S00S red-green-blue LED array, Norlux, 575 Randy Road, Carol Stream, IL 60188, USA).

At the end of the experiment (27th July), two leaves from each water treatment under each filter were harvested (72 leaves total). The same leaves, the 4th proximal leaf of known dimensions, were used as those harvested for leaf disks used for leaf phenolics extracts. An additional leaf disk (6 mm diameter) was removed from the lamina of the leaf avoiding the midrib and weighed immediately after harvest for fresh weight, then oven dried at 65° C for 3 days until a constant weight, then reweighed for dry weight. The leaf relative water content (RWC) was calculated from these measurements as (FW–DW)/FW. These data were also used to calculate leaf mass area (LMA), DW divided by the known area of the leaf disk.

Silver birch leaves are hypostomatic, they have stomata only on their abaxial epidermis. To inspect the number of stomata on the abaxial epidermis, an impression of the leaf surface was made using nail varnish, which was peeled from the leaf using transparent adhesive tape. The density of stomata on the leaf impression, and of trichomes on the adaxial epidermis of leaf itself, were quantified under a microscope with a times 40 objective and a times 10 ocular lens.

Between harvesting and taking leaves impressions (later the same day) leaves were kept hydrated using damp filter paper in sealed zip-lock plastic bags.

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Data analyses

A mixed model ANOVA was performed to test for the main fixed effect of UV treatment and the split-plot effect of water treatment and their interaction (4 replicate filters \times 3 filter types creating UV treatments × 3 drought treatments under each filter) fitted using restricted maximum likelihood estimation (REML). Block was included as a random effects factor within the model. In addition to this ANOVA, a three-way factorial ANOVA including date was performed for parameters which were repeatedly measured during the course of the experiment, including growth, leaf length, wilting, and epidermal flavonoids. The three-way factorial output is given in the supplemental material, and any differences over time which affect our interpretation of the results are also mentioned in the text. The correct variance structure to use in the ANOVA model was determined by comparison of Akaike's Information Criterion and the log-likelihood ratio (Zuur et al. 2009 p83). The best variance structure was produced by fitting different variances per stratum (VarIdent). Pairs of UV treatments were compared by t-tests adjusted using Holm's (1979) correction for multiply comparisons, for each date and drought treatment. Significant differences (P<0.05) are shown by different letters within each treatment combination in the Figures. All statistical analyses were performed in R version 2.14.1 (R Core Team 2011).

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Results

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Effects of UV-x-Drought treatments on silver birch growth

At commencement of the experiment there were no significant differences in leaf length among the treatments, but at each subsequent measurement there were very clear effects of both UV treatments and watering treatments. After 4 weeks of treatments, on 5th July, the largest leaf (2nd distal leaf) was larger in the well-watered seedlings, smaller in the limited-water treatments and smallest in the water-stressed treatment, but there was only a difference in leaf size due to UV treatment in the two water-deficit treatments (Fig. 2), where leaves of the near-ambient UV seedlings were larger than those of both the UVB- and UVA&B- seedlings. Towards the end of the experiment (27th July), the effect of UV reduction in the water-stressed seedlings persisted, but in the limited-water seedlings it was no longer evident, and in the well-watered seedlings the effect was contrary to that in the two water-deficit treatments with slightly larger leaves under UVA&B- than the rest (Fig. 2). Hence, among the water-deficit seedlings, most of the benefit to growth in the UVB- and UVA&B- treatments occurred during the first four weeks of the experiment and not the latter part of the experiment when the difference was maintained or slightly reversed. The leaf length-to-width ratio (L:W ratio) was neither affected by watering nor UV treatment except at the final measurement when L:W ratio was smaller in seedlings from both the UVBand UVA&B- treatments compared with seedlings in the near-ambient UV treatment under the two water-deficit treatments but not the well-watered treatment (Table 3).

All seedlings had two leaves and were approximately 2–3 cm tall at the start of the experiment. After 4 weeks of treatments, during June (when the weather in Helsinki was sunny and solar UVB relatively high), the near-ambient UV seedlings had produced more leaves than the UVB– and UVA&B– seedlings (Fig. 3). This difference was particularly evident in the water-stressed treatment. At the end of July, these UV effects on the number of leaves on the main stem remained in the two water-deficit treatments, but not in the well-watered seedlings (Fig. 3).

The number of new leaves produced on lateral buds at the end of the experiment followed a similar pattern of response to the treatment combinations as that of the number of leaves on the main stem; in that the water-stressed seedlings produced more leaves in the near-ambient-UV treatments and fewer in both the UVB– and UVA&B– treatments, although this effect of different UV treatments was not so evident in the well-watered seedlings (Table 3).

At the first measurement of seedling height after 4 weeks of treatments (5th July) the near-ambient-UV seedlings were taller than the UVB– or UVA&B– seedlings (Fig. 4). This effect was most evident in the water-stressed seedlings. This difference due to UV treatment persisted for the two water-deficit treatments after a further 3 weeks (27th July), but there was no longer any statistically significant difference in seedling height in the well-watered treatment between the UVA&B– seedlings and the near-ambient-UV treatment (Fig. 4). As expected, there was also strong overall impairment of height growth due to water-deficit.

The treatment effects on stem- dry-weight of seedlings harvested at the end of the experiment followed a similar pattern of response to the treatment combinations as those effects on height and other growth parameters, except that the tendency for larger UVA&B- seedlings than the UVB- seedlings was more clearly apparent in the stem biomass data than from the

height data (Table 3). The response of root dry-weight was similar to but more variable than the stem biomass, so no significant treatment differences were detected. This was also the case for the stem-to-root- biomass ratio (Table 3).

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Effects of UV-x-Drought treatments on silver birch leaf pigments

The reduced UV treatments did not significantly affect chlorophyll content per unit leaf area (Fig. 5) or per unit leaf mass (not shown), which was higher in the water-stressed than well-watered seedlings; an effect possibly associated with the smaller leaf size yet equivalent N fertilisation under water stress (Figs. 3 & 6). The flavonoid content of the upper leaf epidermis, estimated using Dualex, responded to both factors and was the only trait to respond more to UV-reduction than watering treatment. Flavonoid content was highest in the near-ambient UV seedlings and lowest in the UVA&B- seedlings in all watering treatments throughout the experiment (Fig. 6). Flavonoid content was also higher in the well-watered seedlings than in the water-stressed seedlings. The flavonoid content of mature leaves was highest in early July and declined over time, however flavonoid content of young fully-expanded leaves at the end of the experiment was the highest of any recorded, suggesting that its decline in mature leaves was an effect of aging rather than of season or light acclimation (Fig. 6). Peaks of absorbance were determined from the results of the spectral spectrophotometry which mostly gave consistent differences with those measured non-invasively. Since more detailed studies of phenolic responses to UV in silver birch have already been published elsewhere (Julkunen-Tiitto et al. 2005; Kotilainen et al. 2009; Morales et al. 2010) we just highlight the main results here (Table S2). The largest peak at 262 nm also produced the clearest differences

between near-ambient UV and the two reduced UV treatments in mature leaves, much more so than the peak at 279 nm, where in particular UV treatment had no effect on absorbance in the well-watered treatment. A smaller peak at 335 nm was highest in the near-ambient UV seedlings under all watering treatments, even in the young leaves, whereas at 414 nm the opposite trend with UV treatment occurred. As with the non-invasive measurements, the peaks for chlorophyll *a* did not differ among treatments, and neither did anthocyanins (data not shown).

Effects of UV-x-Drought treatments on silver birch mortality and water

relations

Silver birch seedlings in the two water-deficit treatments exhibited wilting which in some cases eventually led to seedling mortality, although this was largely restricted to the most water-stressed treatment (Table 3). The proportion of wilted (and dead) seedlings measured prior to daily watering increased during the experiment and was highest in the UVA&B— seedlings and lowest in the near-ambient UV seedlings (Fig. 7).

These observations of wilting were corroborated by the results of water potential measurements. Pre-dawn leaf water potential (Ψ_{pd}) was similar across all the treatment combinations, but midday water potential (Ψ_{md}) was more negative in the near-ambient UV seedlings than in the UVB– seedlings in the two water-deficit treatments (Table 4). This produced a larger pre-dawn to mid-day difference in water potential (Ψ_{diff}) in the near-ambient UV seedlings than in those receiving UVA&B– and UVB– under the two water-deficit treatments, and contrasted with the well-watered treatments, where Ψ_{md} was higher (less-negative) overall and differences among UV treatments were absent (Table 4).

Since we were able to measure the midday stem water potential ($\Psi_{md\text{-stem}}$) of every plant surviving until harvest (up to 14 plants per treatment combination) this analysis had greater statistical power than the leaf water potential measurements during the experiment (4 plants per experimental unit), but nevertheless the two types of midday-water-potential measurement produced similar results. Stem water potential was most negative in the near-ambient UV seedlings under the two water-deficit treatments, and least negative in the UVB— seedlings. In the well-watered seedlings, there was no difference in $\Psi_{md\text{-stem}}$ attributable to UV treatments (Table 4). This contrast was responsible for the significant UV-by-drought interaction term for $\Psi_{md\text{-stem}}$.

Effects of UV-x-Drought treatments on silver birch leaf anatomy

There were no treatment effects on leaf mass ratio (LMA) at the end of the experiment (Table 4).

The relative leaf water content was lower in the water-stressed treatment than the well-watered treatment but no significant effects of UV treatment on leaf water content were detected (Table 4).

No differences in stomatal density on the leaf abaxial epidermis were detected among the seedlings in any of the UV-treatments, but there was an interactive UV-by-drought treatment effect on the density of glandular trichomes on the adaxial epidermis (Table 4). In the two water-deficit treatments there was a higher density of glandular trichomes on leaves of near-ambient UV seedlings compared with the UVA&B— and UVB— seedlings, whereas in the well-watered seedlings there were no differences among the UV treatments (Table 4).

Effects of UV-x-Drought treatments on silver birch leaf gas exchange

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The responses of the seedlings under the treatment combinations were fairly consistent on the two sampling dates in July, so both are considered together here (Table 5). As would be expected, water deficit reduced A_{net} and g_s, and increased the instantaneous water use efficiency (IWUE) of gas exchange (measured as A_{net} / g_s). The IWUE of seedlings in the limited-water treatment was as high as in the water-stressed treatment, supporting the premise that by mid-July the larger plants in the limited-water treatment were drying the soil so rapidly that this treatment's severity was almost equivalent to the water-stressed treatment despite receiving more water. There was no general effect of UV treatment on A_{net} nor on g_s, although the UV-by-drought interaction effect on A_{net} suggests that there was a difference between the responses of near-ambient UV and UVB- seedlings under well watered- compared with under water-stressed conditions (Table 5). In comparison, the IWUE results more-clearly highlighted a difference in the response of nearambient UV seedlings compared with the UVB- and UVA&B- seedlings that depended on watering treatment: that with increasing water-deficit treatment the IWUE of near-ambient UV seedlings increased relative to the reduced UV treatments (Table 5: IWUE UV-by-drought interaction: P = 0.003).

While there was no difference in Ci/Ca among the three UV treatments for the well-watered seedlings, Ci/Ca was lower in the near-ambient UV treatment than in the UVB- and UVA&B- treatments for seedlings under the two water deficit treatments (Table 5).

Under a filter that transmitted only blue light (\sim 50 µm m⁻² s⁻¹) the patterns of response to UV and watering treatments were similar to those recorded without the blue filter (Table 5). The interactive UV-by-drought treatment effect was evident in g_s , which tended to be lower in the near-ambient UV seedlings than the UVB– and UVA&B– seedlings under the two water-

deficit treatments but not the well-watered treatment. The response of Ci/Ca to the treatments also followed the same pattern under the blue filter as without the blue filter (Table 5).

Under a filter that transmitted only red light (~225 μm m⁻² s⁻¹) the treatment differences in gas exchange due to UV treatment were functionally small in terms of their likely biological significance. The UV-by-drought interaction was largely due to higher g_s in seedlings under the near-ambient UV treatment in the well watered treatment (Table 5). There was a tendency for Ci/Ca to be higher in well-watered treatment for near-ambient UV seedlings, and lower in the water-deficit treatments for the near-ambient UV seedlings compared with the UVB– and UVA&B– seedlings (Table 5).

Discussion

Our water deficit treatments had a greater effect than our UV reduction treatments on most of the traits we measured, with the exception of leaf flavonoid content which was more responsive to UV reduction than to watering. Water stress was evident producing smaller plants, fewer leaves, and leaf traits suggestive of a more conservative strategy under both water deficit treatments. Whereas, any negative effects of near-ambient UV were either absent (as in leaf production, seedling height, $\Psi_{md-stem}$, LMA) or only apparent after eight weeks of treatments (e.g. short leaf length), as consistent with previous studies of silver birch seedlings (de la Rosa *et al.* 2001; Kotilainen *et al.* 2009; Robson *et al.* 2012). However, when a water deficit was imposed on seedlings growing under near-ambient UV conditions, their acclimation to UV was consistent over a suite of traits encompassing leaf traits, growth, and water relations, which conferred an advantage on them compared with seedlings from the UVB– or UVA&B– treatments. This

advantage was particularly evident during the first month of treatments and subsequently diminished for most traits. Similar benefits of plant acclimation to UV radiation prior to the imposition of water stress have been reported in experiments with clover (Hofmann *et al.* 2003) and poplar (Duan *et al.* 2008) but not across such a broad suite of traits.

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Interactive effects of UV-x-Drought treatments

Our watering treatment commenced when the seedlings were put under the filters, but the gradual reduction in soil moisture from initial field capacity in the water-deficit treatments provided seedlings with a period to acclimate to the differential UV treatments while weather conditions were mild in mid-June (Fig. 2). Seedlings could establish prior to the warmest driest period of the experiment when VPD was highest in early July and again in late July, providing two occasions for us to measure gas exchange following periods of high evaporative demand. The responses of gas exchange to UV were small but did partially compensate the effects of drought, as reflected in improved IWUE in seedlings from the near-ambient UV treatment compared with UVB- and UVA&B- treatments under the most-severe water deficit. Tighter regulation of the relationship between A_{net} and g_s is implicit in this effect. Improvements in stomatal control and photosynthetic assimilation have been reported in other species where high doses of UVB have been combined with water stress (Nogués et al. 1998; 1999). More often reductions in A_{net} due to UVB under well-watered conditions are simply no longer evident between UV treatments under the drought stress (e.g. in Arabidopsis, spruce and poplar: Poulson et al. 2006; Cechin et al. 2008; Duan et al. 2008; 2011). These changes have been attributed to more conserved Ci/Ca and net assimilation rates, reduced lipid peroxidation, and increased

proline content and reduced stomatal conductance respectively. In our study, the treatment differences in Ci/Ca were maintained even at high PPFD, and the differences in g_s among drought treatments were large, particularly in darkness (Table 5; Fig. S3). Leaf morphological or physiological acclimation to UV provide a more-likely explanation for improved IWUE when combined with water stress than the direct closure of stomata. Although our measurements of gas exchange under coloured filters confirmed that small doses of blue light do stimulate stomatal opening beyond that of red light, they did not reveal any differential stomatal sensitivity to coloured light with the UV treatments, only a consistent tendency for increased IWUE in seedlings receiving near-ambient UV under water stress compared with those receiving UVB—and UVA&B—.

Among our water-stressed treatments, the pre-dawn-to-midday difference in leaf water potential (Ψ_{diff}) was largest and the midday stem water potential (Ψ_{md-stem}) was most negative in the near-ambient UV seedlings. Water potential did not drop very low (< –1.84 MPa) even among the most water-stressed seedlings, and this supports the existing evidence that silver birch's capacity for osmotic adjustment is relatively limited (Ranney *et al.* 1991). Nevertheless, the treatments effect we report might reflect a greater capacity for osmotic adjustment among seedlings under near-ambient UV; since, irrespective of their lower Ψ, these leaves wilted less readily indicating that their turgor pressure was higher than in the UVB– and UVA&B– seedlings. This would signify that leaves receiving near-ambient UV were more drought-adapted which is consistent with the mechanisms of drought response (stomatal and non-stomatal limitation of water loss) reported for adult silver birch seedlings in a common garden (Aspelmeier & Leuschner 2004; 2006). Increased leaf and epidermal thickness in silver birch under near-ambient UV-treatments (Kotilainen *et al.* 2009), could contribute to these treatment

effects since both changes would also favour drought tolerance. Although stomatal density was apparently unchanged by our UV treatments, the density of glandular trichomes was greater under near-ambient than reduced- UV, another complementary adaptation to water limitation and UV (Liakoura *et al.* 1997; Kostina *et al.* 2001; Semerdjieva *et al.* 2003; Valkama *et al.* 2004).

The positive interaction of near-ambient-UV under the water-deficit-treatment is also reflected in the larger leaf area (leaf size- \times -number) maintained by these seedlings than those under UVB— and UVA&B— in the two water deficit treatments (though not in the well watered treatments). This whole-plant scale effect may also be responsible for the larger leaf Ψ_{diff} in the near-ambient-UV- \times -water-deficit seedlings compared with other treatments. This evidence of plasticity of leaf functional traits in acclimation to near-ambient UV is likely to contribute to the lower mortality in this treatment under water-stress as well as greater height growth than the UVB— and UVA&B— treatments under equivalent watering regimes. Nevertheless, the benefits of receiving UV during the onset of water stress did not continue to accumulate, in terms of effects on growth, over time during the second month of treatments. Since silver birch is known to sacrifice its leaves quite readily under moderately-severe water stress, the production costs saved by retaining more leaves, thanks to the various improvements in water relations we report under near-ambient compared with reduced UV could help to promote survival during spring drought during seedlings establishment.

The greatest specific effect of UV on silver birch in this and other experiments (de la Rosa *et al.* 2001; Kotilainen *et al.* 2009; Morales *et al.* 2010) was the accumulation of certain UV-absorbing phenolics in the leaves. In this case the response is evident from increases in some, but not all, peaks of absorbance within the UV spectrum as well as general epidermal absorbance. Although UV absorbance was greater in well-watered seedlings receiving near-ambient solar UV

than the reduced UV treatments, the lack of growth effects among these treatments implies both that UV-screening provided effective UV-protection for the plant and that the synthesis and maintenance of a higher concentration of these phenolic compounds did not impose a significant cost on plants receiving UV radiation (or that the benefit of having these compounds counterbalanced this cost).

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Differentiating the effects of removing UVA and UVB

Differences have been reported in specific effects of the UVA and UVB portions of the solar spectrum on plant traits such as leaf growth (Robson & Aphalo 2012), UV-absorbing compounds (Morales et al. 2010), and gas exchange (Johnson & Day 2002), but the modifications of these differences by drought have not previously been tested using UVA controls in a filtration experiment. We found that the relationships between the effects of removing UVB radiation and removing both UVA and UVB radiation were specific to the types of traits considered. For growth-related traits, leaf length and number, and height (Figs. 3, 4, & 5), the only unique effect of filtering UVA in addition to UVB- was that well-watered seedlings had grown more by the end of the experiment under this treatment compared with UVB- seedlings. Removing UVA and UVB radiation caused a further decrease in total epidermal flavonoids (monitored noninvasively with a Dualex), and likewise smaller individual peaks of absorbance, beyond that of the UVB- treatment. A similar additive increase in phenolics due mainly to UVB but further strengthened by UVA has been reported (Kotilainen et al. 2009), but in contrast other reports suggest that UVA can affect certain silver-birch phenolics differently from UVB radiation without significantly affecting total phenolics (Morales et al. 2010). This selective response of

only silver birch phenolics with absorption peaks at particular wavelengths was not apparent from our results, but might have been detected by using HPLC rather than spectrophotometry of leaf extracts.

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Conclusions

Near-ambient UV radiation ameliorated some of the detrimental effects of drought stress for silver birch. By identifying effects over different scales within the same seedlings, we were able to begin to elucidate the mechanism of response to this treatment combination. Under all three watering treatments, seedlings grew better, in terms of size and number of leaves, height and stem biomass production, under the near-ambient UV treatment than in the UVB- and UVA&Btreatments. In seedlings receiving the well-watered treatment this difference was marginal, but under the water-stressed treatment the difference was quite pronounced. Lower stem- and leafwater potential in the near-ambient UV seedlings under water deficit provided evidence for acclimation of hydraulic architecture, and when combined with leaf morphological and anatomical adaptations (see also Kotilainen et al. 2009) would explain the reduced turgor loss/wilting point for these seedlings. Most of these responses were evident when near-ambient UV was compared with the UVB- treatment and generally the further filtration of UVA produced equivalent or more pronounced effects of a similar nature. Our results suggest that in silver birch hydraulic limitation exerts greater influence than stomatal control in reducing the effect of water stress under near-ambient UV radiation, although further studies of water movement through the hydraulic system should explicitly test the functional limitations to water movement imposed by drought with-and-without solar UV. As the pathways of UV perception

and response become better known at a molecular level, it should become possible to identify the underlying physiology behind these hydraulic and morphological changes in the future. The next step towards a better functional understanding of this response is to identify whether plants are utilising UV as a pre-emptive signal for forecasting a change in environmental condition, or whether the complementary responses to UV and drought, and likewise UV and high PAR radiation, are purely coincidental.

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Tables

Table 1: Solar radiation received by seedlings under each UV treatment. Clear sky irradiance (energy and photon units) under each filter type and in the open close to solar noon on 8th June directly prior to starting the experiment. The effective dose according to various biological spectral weighting functions was calculated using R package UVcalc (Björn *et al.* 2012): GEN(G) and GEN(T) respectively are Green's *et al.* (1974) formulation of the generalised plant action spectrum extending to 313 nm and Thimijan's *et al.* (1978) formulation extending further to 350 nm: PG is the Plant Growth action spectrum (Flint &Caldwell 2003): DNA(N) action spectrum is for damage to naked DNA (Setlow 1974). CIE action spectrum for erythema induced on human skin (McKinlay & Diffey, 1987). Wavelength ranges are, UVB (280–315 nm) UVA (315–400 nm), PAR (400–700 nm), blue (420–490 nm), green (500–570 nm), red (650–670 nm) far-red (720–740 nm). Mean of 4 filters of each type (each of the 4 replicate plots). For full spectra see Fig. S1.

	Energy I	rradiance		Photon Irrad	iance		Effective	Irradianc	е			Photon ratio	0	Photo	n ratio	
	(W m ⁻²)			(μmol m ⁻² s ⁻¹)		(W m ⁻²)					(×1000)				
Filter	PAR(e)	UVA(e)	UVB(e)	PAR(PPFD)	UVA	UVB	GEN(G)	GEN(T)	PG	DNA(N)	CIE	UVB:UVA	UVB:PAR	R:FR	B:G	B:R
Polyethene (control)	318.4	114.5	2.72	1461.4	37.7	1.05	0.22	0.27	0.92	0.10	0.15	23.71	1.86	1.11	0.80	0.86
Rosco #226 (UVAB-)	310.9	8.4	0.07	1432.1	2.6	0.03	0.00	0.01	0.03	0.00	0.00	7.75	0.05	1.12	0.80	0.86
Polyester (UVB-)	314.1	101.3	0.13	1440.7	33.1	0.05	0.01	0.03	0.65	0.01	0.03	1.26	0.09	1.12	0.80	0.88
Open	350.5	134.1	3.18	1604.1	44.2	1.22	0.25	0.32	1.08	0.12	0.17	23.69	1.98	1.13	0.82	0.90

Table 2: Soil moisture content of the three watering treatments in each of the three UV treatments. For the whole experimental period means and standard deviations are displayed from measurements taken every 2–3 days just before and following watering and for three dates of particular interest, 8th & 20th July (gas exchange measurements) and 2nd August (water potential measurements). Towards the end of the experiment, plants in the water stressed treatment were mostly small, wilted or dying, so they depleted the soil moisture very little, leading producing similar soil moisture values prior to watering in these and the limited-water treatments. Likewise, at the end of the experiment large seedlings with large leaf area depleted the well watered treatments quickly.

1. Water Stressed				2. Limited \	Nater		3. Well Wa		P values			
Soil Moisture (% v/v)	Control	UVB-	UVA&B-	Control	UVB-	UVA&B-	Control	UVB-	UVA&B-	UV	Water	UV×Water
Whole Experiment	14.2 ± 1.0	14.3 ± 1.5	14.4 ± 1.2	17.7 ± 0.7	17.4 ± 1.3	17.2 ± 0.7	24.2 ± 3.5	23.3 ± 5.0	23.2 ± 3.2			
8th July	8.8 ± 1.2	8.8 ± 1.1	9.0 ± 1.2	15.5 ±1.2	16.4 ±0.8	16.7 ±0.9	18.7 ±1.1	18.3 ±1.0	18.6 ±0.8	0.415	<0.0001	0.576
20th July	10.1 ± 1.0	10.2 ± 1.3	10.9 ± 2.0	11.4 ± 1.6	12.1 ± 2.8	13.5 ±2.2	30.5 ± 1.9	28.9 ± 1.2	29.3 ± 1.8	0.649	<0.0001	0.076
2nd August	7.4 ± 0.7	7.4 ± 1.3	6.8 ± 0.7	9.1 ± 0.9	9.9 ± 1.5	11.3 ± 1.2	16.4 ± 3.3	16.4 ± 2.5	16.2 ± 3.2	0.629	<0.0001	0.320

Table 3: Effect of UV and water treatments on growth and seedling mortality parameters. Measurements were from 5 seedlings in each of the 4 replicate plots for each treatment combination (n=4; mean \pm 1 SE). Main treatment and interaction effects from mixed model ANOVA are given (details in Table S1).

Parameter	Date	1. Water	Stressed		2. Limited	Water		3. Well W	atered		P value	es	
		Control	UVB-	UVA&B-	Control	UVB-	UVA&B-	Control	UVB-	UVA&B-	UV	Water	UV×Water
Small Secondary Leaves (#)	-05 Jul	1.45 ± 0.25	0.55 ± 0.25	0.75 ± 0.25	2.55 ± 0.29	2.05 ± 0.32	1.95 ± 0.35	3.10 ± 0.40	2.95 ± 0.39	2.30 ± 0.34	0.023	<.0001	0.702
Leaf Length/Width (1)	05 Jul	1.02± 0.01	1.01± 0.02	1.01± 0.02	1.01± 0.01	0.99± 0.01	0.98± 0.03	0.99± 0.01	1.02± 0.01	1.02± 0.03	0.945	0.305	0.469
Leaf Length/Width (2)	27 Jul	1.13± 0.03	1.01± 0.02	1.06± 0.04	1.09± 0.01	1.08± 0.02	1.10± 0.03	1.14± 0.01	1.12± 0.01	1.14± 0.03	0.056	0.010	0.148
Seedling mortality (proportion)	27 Jul	0.25 ± 0.10	0.45 ± 0.11	0.65 ± 0.11	0.25 ± 0.10	0.15 ± 0.08	0.05 ± 0.05	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	0.574	<.0001	0.005
Stem Extension Rate (mm day ⁻¹)	July	0.78 ± 0.08	0.76 ± 0.08	0.83 ± 0.08	1.10 ± 0.08	1.24 ± 0.08	1.20 ± 0.08	1.08 ± 0.08	1.16 ± 0.08	1.22 ± 0.08	0.010	<.0001	0.736
Root Collar Diameter (RCD; mm)	27 Jul	2.09 ± 0.07	1.41 ± 0.08	1.85 ± 0.10	3.08 ± 0.08	2.65 ± 0.09	2.76 ± 0.10	3.74 ± 0.13	3.50 ± 0.09	3.58 ± 0.10	0.000	<.0001	0.281
Branches (#)	27 Jul	0.61 ± 0.27	0.00 ± 0.00	0.33 ± 0.21	0.60 ± 0.17	0.71 ± 0.19	0.75 ± 0.19	1.80 ± 0.28	1.15 ± 0.24	1.45 ± 0.39	0.218	<.0001	0.578
Stem Biomass (g)	02 Aug	0.20 ± 0.02	0.08 ± 0.01	0.17 ± 0.03	0.71 ± 0.02	0.56 ± 0.03	0.58 ± 0.03	1.36 ± 0.04	1.22 ± 0.04	1.35 ± 0.05	0.000	<.0001	0.417
Root Biomass (g)	02 Aug	0.20 ± 0.02	0.11 ± 0.01	0.14 ± 0.02	0.45 ± 0.04	0.44 ± 0.05	0.33 ± 0.03	1.31 ± 0.18	1.28 ± 0.09	1.18 ± 0.21	0.506	<.0001	0.994
Relative Stem/Root Biomass	02 Aug	2.04 ± 0.13	2.09 ± 0.22	1.83 ± 0.09	1.65 ± 0.06	1.77 ± 0.07	1.59 ± 0.05	1.98 ± 0.12	2.07 ± 0.09	1.86 ± 0.13	0.062	<.0001	0.983

Table 4: Effect of UV and water treatment on physiological, morphological, and anatomical, measurements of stem and leaf water relations (sampled 2^{nd} August). Measurements were from 5 seedlings in each of the 4 replicate plots for each treatment combination (n=4; mean \pm 1 SE). Main treatment and interaction effects from mixed model ANOVA are given (details in Table S1).

Parameter	1. Water S	Stressed		2. Limited	Water		3. Well W	atered		P values		
	Control	UVB-	UVA&B-	Control	UVB-	UVA&B-	Control	UVB-	UVA&B-	UV	Water	UV×Water
Pre-dawn leaf water potential (Ψ_{pd}) MPa	-1.23 ± 0.27	-1.00 ± 0.07	-1.18 ± 0.09	-1.15 ± 0.05	-0.97 ± 0.03	-1.21 ± 0.10	-0.50 ± 0.13	-0.63 ± 0.16	-0.71 ± 0.09	0.657	0.388	0.180
Midday leaf water potential (Ψ_{md}) MPa	-1.84 ± 0.14	-1.47 ± 0.20	−1.62 ± 0.17	-1.75 ± 0.09	-1.47 ± 0.18	−1.70 ± 0.08	-1.11 ± 0.27	-1.03 ± 0.10	-1.13 ± 0.18	0.022	0.000	0.848
Difference Midday- Predawn (Ψ _{diff}) MPa	-0.62 ± 0.06	-0.47 ± 0.26	-0.44 ± 0.11	-0.60 ± 0.05	-0.50 ± 0.09	-0.49 ± 0.07	-0.61 ± 0.06	-0.40 ± 0.15	-0.42 ± 0.14	0.095	0.426	0.411
Midday Relative Water Content (FW–DW)/FW	0.70 ± 0.01	0.69 ± 0.01	0.70 ± 0.01	0.72 ± 0.01	0.71 ± 0.01	0.71 ± 0.01	0.74 ± 0.01	0.73 ± 0.01	0.72 ± 0.01	0.611	0.006	0.850
Midday stem water potential ($\Psi_{\text{md-stem}}$) MPa	-1.47 ± 0.08	-1.23 ± 0.08	-1.30 ± 0.01	-1.79 ± 0.03	-1.63 ± 0.06	-1.68 ± 0.04	-1.09 ± 0.05	-1.17 ± 0.09	-1.21 ± 0.06	0.028	<.0001	0.056
Leaf Mass Area (LMA) mg cm ⁻²	0.38 ± 0.01	0.34 ± 0.04	0.40 ± 0.02	0.38 ± 0.02	0.39 ± 0.02	0.39 ± 0.02	0.39 ± 0.02	0.40 ± 0.01	0.38 ± 0.01	0.782	0.594	0.630
Stomatal Density (mm ⁻²)	206 ± 19	211 ± 21	237 ± 24	201 ± 22	199 ± 14	211 ± 27	201 ± 13	196 ± 7	221 ± 10	0.607	0.478	0.861
Glandular Trichome Density (mm ⁻²)	27 ± 6	14 ± 5	10 ± 2	53 ± 8	40 ± 7	37 ± 5	36 ± 3	43 ± 5	47 ± 5	0.0541	<.0001	<.0001

Table 5: Effect of UV and water treatment on leaf gas exchange parameters measured through IRGA. Clear sky measurement from two dates 8^{th} & 20^{th} July. Blue and red light treatments were treatments under coloured filters on box-frames providing complete filtration of solar radiation apart from blue and red sunlight respectively on 25^{th} & 26^{th} July . Measurements were from 5 seedlings in each of the 4 replicate plots for each treatment combination (n=4; mean \pm 1 SE). Main treatment and interaction effects from mixed model ANOVA are given (details in Table S1).

Parameter	1. Water S	tressed		2. Limited	Water		3. Well Wa	tered		P values		
	Control	UVB-	UVA&B-	Control	UVB-	UVA&B-	Control	UVB-	UVA&B-	UV	Water	UV×Water
Clear Sky (ppfd 1200 µ	mol m ⁻² s ⁻¹)									F _{2,20}	F _{2,20}	F _{4,20}
A_{net} (µmol $CO_2 m^{-2} s^{-1}$)	6.5 ± 0.8	4.3 ± 0.8	4.4 ± 0.8	7.7 ± 0.8	7.7 ± 0.8	8.6 ± 0.8	11.1 ± 0.8	12.4 ± 0.8	11.1 ± 0.8	0.825	<.0001	0.037
g_s (mol $H_2O m^{-2} s^{-1}$)	0.07 ± 0.04	0.07 ± 0.04	0.08 ± 0.04	0.12 ± 0.04	0.13 ± 0.04	0.13 ± 0.04	0.34 ± 0.04	0.31 ± 0.04	0.31 ± 0.04	0.315	<.0001	0.849
$IWUE_{net} (A_{net} / g_s)$	98 ± 5	69 ± 5	68 ± 5	74 ± 5	73 ± 5	71 ± 5	45 ± 5	46 ± 5	48 ± 5	0.760	<.0001	0.003
C_i/C_a (proportion)	0.57 ± 0.02	0.68 ± 0.02	0.68 ± 0.02	0.62 ± 0.02	0.62 ± 0.02	0.65 ± 0.02	0.73 ± 0.02	0.74 ± 0.02	0.73 ± 0.02	0.031	<.0001	0.036
Blue light (ppfd 50 μmc	ol m ⁻² s ⁻¹)											
A _{net} (μ mol CO ₂ m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	3.6 ± 0.5	4.6 ± 0.5	4.0 ± 0.5	3.2 ± 0.5	3.9 ± 0.5	3.4 ± 0.5	3.3 ± 0.5	3.5 ± 0.5	2.8 ± 0.5	0.137	0.110	0.785
g_s (mol H ₂ O m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	0.03 ± 0.02	0.08 ± 0.02	0.04 ± 0.02	0.03 ± 0.02	0.03 ± 0.02	0.03 ± 0.02	0.08 ± 0.02	0.10 ± 0.02	0.11 ± 0.02	0.553	<.0001	0.022
IWUE _{net} (A_{net} / g_s) C_i/C_a (proportion)	146 ± 16 0.95 ±	108 ± 16 0.84 ±	115 ± 16 0.83 ±	133 ± 16 0.99 ±	112 ± 16 0.84 ±	99 ± 16 0.93 ±	43 ± 16 0.95 ±	54 ± 16 0.95 ±	45 ± 16 0.99 ±	0.076	<.0001	0.228
Red light (ppfd 225 μm	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.009	0.004	0.161
A _{net} (μ mol CO ₂ m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	•											
g _s (mol H ₂ O m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	5.8 ± 1.0 0.04 ±	4.9 ± 1.0 0.04 ±	3.8 ± 1.0 0.04 ±	6.1 ± 1.0 0.04 ±	7.7 ± 1.0 0.08 ±	6.9 ± 1.0 0.07 ±	6.9 ± 1.0	7.5 ± 1.0 0.18 ±	8.4 ± 1.0 0.19 ±	0.676	0.021	0.048
	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.32 ± 0.7	0.07	0.07	0.042	<.0001	0.027
IWUE _{net} (A_{net} / g_s) C_i/C_a (proportion)	93 ± 6 0.63 ±	75 ± 6 0.67 ±	86 ± 6 0.74 ±	118 ± 6 0.53 ±	104 ± 6 0.60 ±	79 ± 6 0.60 ±	31 ± 6 0.78 ±	49 ± 6 0.72 ±	59 ± 6 0.64 ±	0.326	<.0001	0.706
-, -u (p. opo)	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.492	0.005	0.020

Figure Legends

Figure 1: Daily mean air temperature and vapour pressure deficit (VPD) at 5 cm above the soil surface under the filters in each of the three UV filtration treatments throughout the course of the experiment from inception until final harvest on August 2nd. The mean of 4 replicate plots for each treatment is displayed (n = 4; mean ± 1 SE plotted). Overall mean temperatures and VPD for the duration of the experiment were "control" 22.5°C & 0.95 KPa; "UVB—" 22.9°C & 0.96 KPa; "UVA&B—" 22.5°C & 0.97 KPa. Solid vertical arrows and dashed vertical arrows, respectively, indicate the values on the dates of the two gas exchange measurements and the four Dualex measurements.

Figure 2: Effects of UV-×-Drought treatments on silver birch growth measured as leaf length (cm). The first date, 3rd June, is prior to the start of the experiment, and subsequent measurements were after 28 days of treatments, on 5th July, and after 50 days on 27th July. The largest leaf was measured on 5 seedlings in each of the 4 replicate plots for each treatment combination (n=4; mean ± 1 SE plotted). Significant differences (P<0.05) in pair-wise comparisons of three UV treatments for each date and watering treatment are shown by different letters. Main treatment and interaction effects from mixed model ANOVA with repeated measures are inset (details given in Table S1).

Figure 3: Effects of UV-×-Drought treatments on silver birch growth measured as the number of leaves produced on the main stem. The first date, 3^{rd} June, is prior to the start of the experiment, and subsequent measurements were after 28 days of treatments, on 5^{th} July, and after 50 days on 27^{th} July. Leaves were counted from 5 seedlings in each of the 4 replicate plots for each treatment combination (n=4; mean \pm 1 SE plotted). Significant differences (P<0.05) in pair-wise comparisons of three UV treatments for each date and watering treatment are shown by different letters. Main treatment and interaction effects from mixed model ANOVA with repeated measures are inset (details given in Table S1).

Figure 4: Effects of UV- \times -Drought treatments on silver birch growth on the height of birch seedlings from the base to tip of the main stem. Measurements were made after 28 days of treatments, on 5th July, and after 50 days on 27th July. Height was measured of 5 seedlings in each of the 4 replicate plots for each treatment combination (n=4; mean \pm 1 SE plotted).

Significant differences (P<0.05) in pair-wise comparisons of three UV treatments for each date and watering treatment are shown by different letters. Main treatment and interaction effects from mixed model ANOVA with repeated measures are inset (details given in Table S1).

Figure 5: Effects of UV-×-Drought treatments on silver birch leaf chlorophyll content. Measurements were made immediately prior to the experiment, on 8th June, after 28 days of treatments, on 5th July, and 50 days on 27th July. The SPAD index was measured from the largest fully-expanded full-sun leaf of 5 seedlings in each of the 4 replicate plots for each treatment combination (n=4; mean ± 1 SE plotted). Significant differences (P<0.05) in pair-wise comparisons of three UV treatments for each date and watering treatment are shown by different letters. Main treatment and interaction effects from mixed model ANOVA with repeated measures are inset (details given in Table S1).

Figure 6: Effects of UV-×-Drought treatments on silver birch leaf adaxial flavonoid contents (from absorbance at $\lambda=375$ nm). Measurements were made immediately prior to the experiment, on 8th June, and on three occasions (29th June, 11th July, 2nd August) during the experiment. The largest fully-expanded full-sun leaf at the start of the experiment was repeatedly sampled plus the youngest full-expanded sun leaf at the end of the experiment. Measured leaves from 5 seedlings in each of the 4 replicate plots for each treatment combination (n=4; mean \pm 1 SE plotted). Significant differences (P<0.05) in pair-wise comparisons of three UV treatments for each date and watering treatment are shown by different letters. Main treatment and interaction effects from mixed model ANOVA with repeated measures are inset, details given in Table S1 and details of the spectrophotometry in Table S2.

Figure 7: Effects of UV- \times -Drought treatments on silver birch leaf wilting. A census of wilting and seedling mortality on 3rd June is prior to the start of the experiment, and subsequently after 34 days of treatments, on 11th July, and after 50 days on 27th July. All 5 seedlings were monitored in each of the 4 replicate plots for each treatment combination (n=4; mean \pm 1 SE plotted). Significant differences (P<0.05) in pair-wise comparisons of three UV treatments for each date and watering treatment are shown by different letters. Main treatment and interaction effects from mixed model ANOVA with repeated measures are inset (details given in Table S1).

Appendix: Supplemental Material.

3 supplemental Figures and 2 supplemental Tables.

Supplemental Figure Legends

Figure S1: Solar spectra under each UV treatment and in the open on 8th June. The width of the line represents 1 SE either side of the mean values for 4 measurements of each UV treatment. See Table 1 for numerical values detailing the spectral composition.

Figure S2: Soil moisture content of the three watering treatments in each of the three UV treatments during the course of the experiment. Means and standard deviations are displayed from measurements taken every 2–3 days just before and following watering. The soil moisture gradually drops between additions of water. In the water-stressed treatment towards the end of the experiment the presence of small plants, wilted and dying plants depleted the soil moisture very little, leading producing similar minimum values in these and the limited-water treatments. Likewise, at the end of the experiment large seedlings with large leaf area depleted the well watered treatments quickly. Overall means and readings on days when the seedlings were measured are given in Table 2.

Figure S3: Light response curves of photosynthesis, stomatal conductance, and Ci/Ca to saturating red light, plus blue light under the three watering treatments (19th July). Responses were fitted to various functions, and the best fit was used: the Mitscherlich equation to photosynthesis, a linear function for conductance, and a power curve for Ci/Ca. Stable values of gas exchange were obtained by IRGA at red light PPFD 1, 50, 100, 200, 400, 600, 800, 1000, 1200, and 1400 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹, and saturating red plus blue light at PPFD 0.1, 3, 12, 25, 40, 60, 90, and 120 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹.







