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Growth enhancements of elevated atmospheric [CO₂] are reduced under drought-like conditions in temperate eucalypts

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1 **Growth enhancements of elevated atmospheric [CO₂] are reduced under drought-like**
2 **conditions in temperate eucalypts**

3

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21

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59 All data and code used to produce the results in the manuscript are available in the GitHub
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61

1 **Abstract**

- 2 • Elevated atmospheric [CO₂] ('eCO₂') may alter species composition within
3 vegetation types by favouring growth of some species over others.
4 However, other related changes in climate conditions, such as increased
5 frequency and severity of drought, may reduce eCO₂ fertilisation effects
6 on plant growth. For many species it is not known if responses will reflect
7 variability in trait adaptations due to environment.
- 8 • We grew seedlings of nine species of eucalypts indicative of three regional
9 vegetation types (representing a mesic–xeric ecosystem gradient) under
10 two CO₂ concentrations (400 parts per million; 640 ppm, i.e. eCO₂) and
11 two watering regimes (well-watered; drought-like conditions).
- 12 • Elevated CO₂ increased biomass accumulation but drought reduced this
13 effect, with mesic species experiencing larger relative reductions. Elevated
14 CO₂ increased the size of storage organs used during resprouting, in the
15 absence of drought. Typical drought responses, such as increased leaf
16 mass per unit area and root mass ratio, were more pronounced in xeric
17 species and were reduced under eCO₂.
- 18 • Seedling growth and resprouting may be enhanced by eCO₂, suggesting
19 continued dominance of resprouting species in disturbance-prone
20 ecosystems, although severe drought is likely to offset eCO₂ fertilisation.
21 Xeric species may cope with drought more effectively under eCO₂ than
22 mesic species due to resource acquisition and storage traits that are more
23 responsive.

24

25 **Keywords:** climate change, biomass, temperate forest, drought, elevated CO₂,
26 eucalypt, tree seedling, vegetation type

27

28 **Introduction**

29 Atmospheric [CO₂] is now higher than at any time during at least the last 800,000
30 years and anthropogenic activities are the main cause of increasing [CO₂] and
31 associated climate change (IPCC 2021). Future increases in climatic extremes
32 such as drought are projected to have substantial consequences for forested
33 ecosystems (Liu *et al.* 2019). Elevated CO₂ is hypothesised to lead, directly, to

34 changes in ecosystem structure and function by favouring some plant taxa over
35 others (Bond 2000; Macinnis-Ng *et al.* 2011; Buitenwerf *et al.* 2012). However,
36 there is still uncertainty around the interactive effects of eCO₂ and changes in
37 climate, e.g. antagonistic effects may limit eCO₂ effects on plants (Duursma *et al.*
38 2011; Franks *et al.* 2013; Duan *et al.* 2014; Zeppel *et al.* 2015; Walker *et al.*
39 2021). While there has been substantial work regarding [CO₂] effects or drought
40 and temperature effects on contrasting species (Drake *et al.* 2017; Resco de Dios
41 *et al.* 2018; Blackman *et al.* 2019), most work investigating CO₂–climate
42 interactions has focused on just one or a few species, usually those of commercial
43 interest (e.g. Duursma *et al.* 2011; Lewis *et al.* 2013; Duan *et al.* 2018a; Duan *et*
44 *al.* 2019). Hence, there is a need for experiments to address the effects of eCO₂–
45 climate interactions among contrasting vegetation communities found in natural
46 landscapes, so that predictions can be made about vegetation responses to global
47 change (Ghannoum *et al.* 2010; Franks *et al.* 2013).

48 Elevated CO₂ has been identified as a key driver of landscape greening
49 and increased woody biomass across a range of ecosystems globally over the past
50 few decades (Andela *et al.* 2013; Donohue *et al.* 2013; Zhu *et al.* 2016). Elevated
51 CO₂ may increase the growth of woody plants via the direct enhancement of
52 photosynthesis in C₃ species (i.e. CO₂ fertilisation; Roden & Ball 1996; Atwell *et*
53 *al.* 2007; Eamus & Palmer 2007) or indirectly by increasing plant water use
54 efficiency (Polley *et al.* 1997). Many studies investigating the effects of eCO₂
55 show strong positive responses such as significant increases in growth rate
56 (Hovenden & Williams 2010) and biomass (e.g. 41–108%, Roden & Ball 1996;
57 Poorter & Nagel 2000; Atwell *et al.* 2007, Walker *et al.* 2021). Enhanced growth
58 of seedlings and saplings under eCO₂ may lead to faster establishment and
59 increase the chances of plants reaching maturity, thereby facilitating population
60 growth (Bond 2000). Increased allocation of non-structural carbohydrates (NSC)
61 is a key physiological response to eCO₂ (Du *et al.* 2020). Non-structural
62 carbohydrates are utilised by plants to grow new foliage following disturbance
63 such as drought or fire (Hoffmann 2000). Elevated CO₂ may accelerate investment
64 in NSC storage organs such as lignotubers (woody mass at the base of the stem
65 containing growth buds) and coarse roots (structural roots >2 mm diameter,
66 Zhang & Wang 2015), increasing the capacity of young plants to draw on reserves

67 depleted after disturbance-related damage (Hoffman *et al.* 2000; Bond & Midgley
68 2012).

69 Increases in drought and fire have been linked with elevated plant
70 mortality and demographic shifts in forests around the globe (Allen *et al.* 2010;
71 Brando *et al.* 2014; Cobb *et al.* 2017; Fairman, Bennett & Nitschke 2019). It is
72 predicted that climate change and associated changes to disturbance regimes may
73 lead to the conversion of forest to non-forest biomes (Bowman *et al.* 2013).
74 Forests typically considered resilient to change, such as resprouter-type eucalypt
75 forests, may be vulnerable to severe drought, e.g. through loss of canopy cover
76 and increased mortality (Matusick *et al.* 2013). Plants have a range of
77 physiological mechanisms and traits that enable them to cope with drought, with
78 species from more xeric environments likely to have more highly developed
79 drought adaptations than species from more mesic environments (Merchant *et al.*
80 2006; Merchant *et al.* 2007). Adaptation to xeric environments include increased
81 root to shoot mass ratio (RMR) to maximise water uptake while decreasing water
82 loss (Brunner *et al.* 2015) and increased leaf mass per unit area (LMA) to
83 conserve resources and reduce wilting (Poorter *et al.* 2009). Low-LMA species
84 are generally associated with faster growth and resource acquisition (e.g. higher
85 productivity, mesic environments), while high-LMA species are generally
86 associated with more conservative growth and persistence (e.g. lower
87 productivity, xeric environments; Poorter *et al.* 2009). Elevated CO₂ may alleviate
88 drought stress by allowing sufficient gas exchange to continue during drought via
89 reduced stomatal conductance and increased water use efficiency (Atwell *et al.*
90 2007; Lewis *et al.* 2013). Whereas eCO₂ may increase leaf water potential in
91 some species (Atwell *et al.* 2007), water limitation can also increase LMA (Roden
92 & Ball 1996), assisting survival during drought through limiting transpirational
93 water loss. The response of different vegetation types to the fertilisation effect of
94 eCO₂ in conjunction with detrimental effects of drought remains uncertain, with
95 variable results evident across a range of biomes (Duan *et al.* 2014; Souza *et al.*
96 2019).

97 In Australia, eucalypts (the sub-genera *Corymbia*, *Angophora* and
98 *Eucalyptus*) dominate most fire-prone forest and woodland communities (Nicolle
99 2006). Eucalypts inhabit a diverse range of climates (e.g. semi-arid, moist, alpine,
100 Keith 2004), have diverse physiological responses to eCO₂ and drought (Merchant

101 *et al.* 2006; Merchant *et al.* 2007), well-developed storage organs used for post-
102 disturbance resprouting (Burrows 2013) and are highly resilient to major
103 structural changes under extreme disturbance regimes (Collins 2020). Most
104 eucalypts are ‘resprouters’, able to produce new foliage from the canopy or main
105 stem via epicormic buds beneath the bark and/or from the base of the stem via
106 below-ground lignotuber buds (Nicolle 2006; Burrows 2013). Plants such as
107 eucalypts typically inhabit fire-prone environment and seedlings must capture and
108 store resources in order to survive drought and fire (Lawes & Clarke 2011;
109 Burrows 2013; Pausas *et al.* 2018), as juvenile stems are vulnerable to mortality
110 until other resistance traits such as tall canopies and thick bark are developed later
111 in life (Prior, Murphy & Russell-Smith 2009; Clarke *et al.* 2013; Nolan *et al.*
112 2020).

113 Eucalypts from xeric communities more effectively maintain osmotic
114 balance (Merchant *et al.* 2006) and higher stomatal conductance under water-
115 stress than mesic eucalypts (Ngugi *et al.* 2004). Thus, such species may be able to
116 more effectively take advantage of eCO₂ under drought conditions by maintaining
117 higher relative growth rates. Elevated CO₂ may facilitate greater allocation of
118 non-structural carbohydrates to storage organs such as lignotubers and roots,
119 which can be utilised to grow new foliage following disturbance (Hoffman *et al.*
120 2000). Plants with larger lignotubers are more likely to successfully resprout
121 (Walters, Bell & Read 2005; Wigley, Cramer & Bond 2009; Borzak, Potts &
122 O’Reilly-Wapstra 2016). Thus, understanding changes in biomass, resource
123 acquisition and storage traits to eCO₂ among species from a range of
124 environments and the degree to which these responses are modified by drought-
125 like conditions, is important to gain insights into potential future changes across a
126 range of eucalypt-dominated plant communities.

127 This study investigated the responses of seedlings of nine common
128 *Eucalyptus* species when grown under two levels of [CO₂] (elevated versus
129 ambient) in combination with two levels of moisture availability (well-watered
130 versus drought-like conditions). To gain insight into community-level responses
131 to future climate change, we compared indicative species of several widespread,
132 contrasting southeastern Australian vegetation types: wet sclerophyll forest
133 (WSF), a mesic type; dry sclerophyll forest (DSF), a moderately xeric type; and
134 grassy woodland (GW), a strongly xeric type. Generally, we expected that eCO₂

135 would enhance growth of biomass including storage organs (e.g. Hovenden &
136 Williams 2010; Walker *et al.* 2021), that drought would increase LMA and RMR
137 (e.g. Poorter & Nagel 2000; Poorter *et al.* 2009; Brunner *et al.* 2015). We also
138 expected that drought would result in potential reductions in the CO₂ fertilisation
139 effect (e.g. see Duan *et al.* 2013; Duan *et al.* 2018b) and that such reductions may
140 differ between vegetation types, due to inherent variability in drought adaptation
141 (e.g. see Merchant *et al.* 2007; Cernusak *et al.* 2011; Lewis *et al.* 2011).
142 Specifically, we asked whether eCO₂ has a fertilisation effect on the biomass
143 components indicative of successful growth and establishment (e.g. above-
144 ground, below-ground), resource acquisition traits indicative of adaptation to
145 environmental conditions (e.g. LMA, RMR). We also asked whether eCO₂ has a
146 fertilisation effect on the storage capacity of resprouting organs indicative of
147 resilience to disturbance (e.g. lignotuber size), and whether any such fertilisation
148 effect is modified by drought-like conditions at the community-level.

149

150 **Materials and Methods**

151 *Study Area*

152 The vegetation types examined in this study dominate the southeastern portion of
153 New South Wales, Australia (approximate centre = 36°3'10" S; 149°39'4" E). The
154 topography is heterogeneous and consists of coastal plains, undulating hinterland,
155 coastal escarpments and tablelands west of the escarpment. Elevation ranges from
156 sea level to over 1200 m in the mountains and tablelands. Soils are mainly of low
157 to moderate fertility, derived from a range of parent material including sandstone,
158 granite, metasediments and basalt (DPI 2017). Temperature and rainfall vary across
159 the region as function of both altitude and distance from coast. The mean minimum
160 temperature of the coolest month ranges from -3 to 7°C in DSF, -3 to 6°C in WSF
161 and -3 to 1°C in GW. The mean maximum temperature of the warmest month
162 ranges from 21–31°C in DSF, 21–26°C in WSF and 21–28°C in GW. Mean annual
163 precipitation is lower in areas dominated by DSF (886 mm) and GW (892 mm) than
164 in areas dominated by WSF (989 mm, all values derived from BioClim 2022). Dry
165 Sclerophyll Forest tends to dominate drier, nutrient-limited areas where water
166 drains away, whilst WSF tends to dominate moist microclimates (e.g. gullies) and
167 areas of higher rainfall. Grassy Woodland tends to dominate where soil nutrients

168 are higher in coastal rainshadow valleys and on cooler, drier tablelands west of the
169 coastal escarpment (Keith 2004). Fire regimes in DSF and WSF communities
170 consists of a combination of mixed severity wildfires and low to moderate severity
171 prescribed burns, whilst in GW fires tend to be low to moderate severity grass or
172 litter fires (NPWS 2004; Bradstock *et al.* 2010; Murphy *et al.* 2013; Collins *et al.*
173 2021). Typical fire intervals range between 5–20 years in DSF and 20–100 years in
174 WSF and GW (Murphy *et al.* 2013). The data and R scripts used to generate the
175 climatic envelope of the study region and vegetation types are provided online in a
176 data repository (<https://github.com/erb418/EB.Ch4.scripts>).

177

178 *Experimental design*

179 Indicative species of the three widespread southeastern Australian forest types
180 (Keith 2004) were chosen for the experiment, with *Eucalyptus viminalis* Labill.,
181 *Eucalyptus fastigata* H.Deane & Maiden and *Corymbia maculata* K.D.Hill &
182 L.A.S.Johnson representing WSF; *Eucalyptus sieberi* F.Muell, *Eucalyptus*
183 *pilularis* Sm. and *Corymbia gummifera* K.D.Hill & L.A.S.Johnson representing
184 DSF; and *Eucalyptus melliodora* A.Cunn ex Schauer, *Eucalyptus blakelyi* Maiden
185 and *Eucalyptus bridgesiana* R.T.Baker representing GW. Each species chosen
186 was common and widespread within their respective vegetation types and capable
187 of epicormic resprouting (see Brooker & Kleinig 1999; Boland *et al.* 2006).
188 Seedlings were raised as standard tube stock by Greening Australia (Western
189 Sydney University, Hawkesbury Campus) from wild-collected seed acquired from
190 the coast, ranges and tablelands of southeastern Australia. Seedlings were initially
191 grown in low-light conditions (poly tunnel/shade house) under ambient [CO₂]
192 (aCO₂, i.e. 400 ppm) and well-watered conditions for three months commencing
193 18 July 2017. Following this establishment period, seedlings were transplanted
194 into PVC pots (diameter of 150 mm, height of 400 mm), each of which contained
195 10 kg of free-draining alluvial topsoil, with drainage holes to allow water free
196 passage through the pots and plastic mesh to prevent soil loss through drainage
197 holes.

198 The experiment was conducted over 18 weeks (28 October 2016 to 9
199 March 2017) during the regional growing-season at Western Sydney University,
200 Richmond NSW (33°36'40" S; 150°44'26.5"E). Twelve seedlings from each

201 species were assigned to each of four adjacent sun-lit, climate-controlled
202 glasshouse chambers (width 3.0 m × length 5.0 m × height 3.5 m each). Daily air
203 temperature in the chambers was customised to suit the 30-year growing season
204 average of the study region, changing four times over a 24 hour period to simulate
205 a daily cycle, and ranging from a minimum of 15°C to a maximum of 25°C
206 (Aspinwall *et al.* 2019). Two chambers were set at aCO₂ level (400 ppm), while
207 two chambers were set at eCO₂ level (640 ppm), the latter representing a projected
208 moderate 2100 climate change scenario, i.e. between Representative
209 Concentration Pathways 4.5 and 6 (IPCC 2021). Seedlings were given a single
210 dose of slow-release native fertiliser (Osmocote ®) when initially transplanted to
211 the pots and watered to field capacity every two to three days to provide two
212 months of optimal growth conditions prior to imposing drought-like conditions.
213 The CO₂ treatments began immediately after seedlings were transplanted into the
214 pots and placed in the glasshouse. Throughout the experiment, plants were rotated
215 between and within chambers fortnightly to minimise chamber-related effects on
216 plant growth. [CO₂] was changed with each rotation so that plants remained in the
217 designated treatment as they moved to a new chamber.

218

219 *Drought treatment*

220 At 75 days after planting, water limitation was imposed on half of the plants
221 within each species (n = 24), by reducing water supply by half to simulate
222 drought-like conditions. Four pots were randomly selected for each species (n =
223 48 in total) and weighed in the morning (between 08:00–10:00) every 2–4 days to
224 measure water loss between glasshouse visits. In the well-watered treatment
225 plants were re-watered to field capacity regardless of species or vegetation type,
226 while in the water-limited treatment plants received an amount of water equal to
227 50% of total weight lost between each measurement, thereby incrementally
228 reducing available water until the onset of wilting. After the first instance of
229 wilting, water-limited plants were maintained slightly above the threshold of
230 wilting for the duration of the experiment. Plants in the well-watered treatment
231 were re-watered to field capacity every 3–4 days. Measurements of pre-dawn leaf
232 water potential (Ψ_{pd}) were carried out twice a week over four weeks to determine
233 plant water status and ensure that plants in the water-limited treatment were

234 water-stressed. Water-use efficiency can be variable among eucalypts in a
235 glasshouse setting, particularly where both mesic and xeric species are used
236 (Lewis *et al.* 2013; Kelly *et al.* 2016; Zhou, Medlyn & Prentice 2016). Hence,
237 three individuals of each species in each treatment group within each glasshouse
238 chamber were selected for Ψ_{pd} measurements, with different individuals used on
239 each occasion to minimise the effects of leaf excision on plant health. Ψ_{pd} was
240 measured using a pressure-chamber (Scholander-type, PMS Instruments,
241 Corvallis, Oregon). See Supporting Information Fig. S1 for Ψ_{pd} monitoring data.

242

243 *Harvest*

244 Plant height was measured with a long ruler from the soil surface to the leading
245 edge of the uppermost canopy leaf. The longest axis of the canopy was measured
246 along with the perpendicular axis, which was then calculated as an ellipse as a
247 proxy for projected crown area. Watering stopped for all plants (dry-down) 10
248 days prior to harvest (Chick 2016). At 133 days after planting, all plants were
249 clipped at 50 mm above the soil surface and shoot biomass was weighed, bagged
250 and placed in an oven to dry for a minimum of 72 hours at 70°C, before dry
251 weight was recorded. Leaf area was measured using a LI-COR leaf area meter
252 (LI-3100C, Lincoln, Nebraska). Finally, all soil was removed by tipping pots
253 upside down and using pressurised water to loosen the soil. Large 3 mm sieves
254 were used to collect root material. Once bulk soil was removed, plant material
255 was gently washed to remove residual soil before fresh biomass was recorded.
256 Lignotuber presence was recorded and roots separated from lignotubers. Roots
257 and lignotubers were weighed and lignotuber dimensions recorded before all plant
258 material was bagged and placed in an oven to dry for a minimum of 72 hours at
259 70°C, before dry weight was recorded.

260

261 *Data analysis*

262 We compared plant responses under each of the 12 treatment combinations (3
263 vegetation types X 2 levels of CO₂ X 2 watering regimes) by fitting a Bayesian
264 cell means model for each measured attribute. This is equivalent to fitting a
265 conventional 3-way analysis of variance, in that the same main effects and

266 interactions are being modelled. However, it has the advantage that estimates of
267 the difference in response between treatment combinations can be quantified by
268 directly querying the fitted model without the need to perform additional post-hoc
269 procedures. The Bayesian approach also naturally allows for minor differences in
270 replication between treatment combinations as this is reflected in the bounds of
271 the model estimates.

272 Community-level responses (i.e. DSF, WSF, GW) were of primary
273 interest, thus data for each species was pooled within each vegetation type for
274 analyses. However, additional modelling of species-specific responses suggested
275 that the majority of species within each vegetation type responded similarly (see
276 Fig. 1,2,3 for species modelling). The measured attributes consisted of three
277 biomass components (total; above-ground; below-ground), four resource
278 acquisition traits (plant height; crown area; leaf mass per unit area; root to shoot
279 mass ratio); and two biomass components associated with storage (lignotuber
280 biomass; coarse root biomass, i.e. structural roots >2 mm diameter). Cell means
281 models were fitted using Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) as implemented in
282 the 'rjags' package for R version 3.5.0 (Plummer *et al.* 2019; R Core Team 2020).
283 Each model considered 12 cells, representing all combinations CO₂ level,
284 watering treatment and vegetation type. All measured attributes other than RMR
285 were modelled as Gamma-distributed variables, with cell means based on vague
286 Normal prior distributions. The right-tailed nature of the Gamma distribution
287 sometimes resulted in the mean lying some distance from the mode, toward the
288 tail of the distribution. Variances were allowed to vary between cells and were
289 based on a uniform distribution. The RMR measure was modelled as Beta-
290 distributed (see Niekerk *et al.* 2019) using a parameterisation based on cell mean
291 and dispersion, with means drawn from a t-distribution to help account for outlier
292 values within some cells. For each model, we sampled three Markov chains, each
293 consisting of 10,000 model iterations. We assessed model convergence using the
294 Gelman-Rubin diagnostic (Gelman & Rubin 1992) and checked for acceptable
295 levels of serial autocorrelation. Separate Markov chains for each model were then
296 combined into a matrix of samples from the joint posterior distribution of model
297 parameters, which we subsequently used to derive predictions for the value of
298 each measured attribute within each treatment (Kruschke 2015; Suzuki 2019).

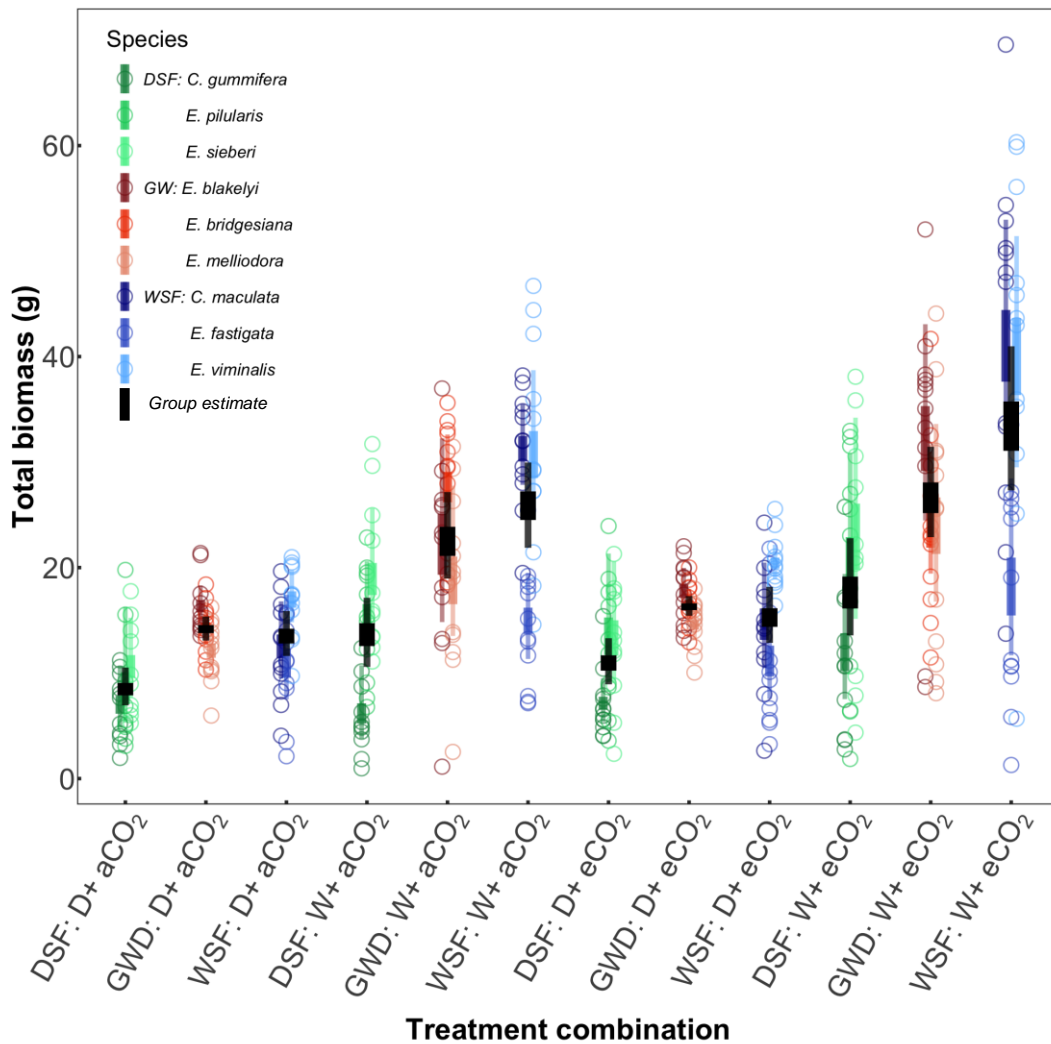
299 For each vegetation type, we quantified the extent to which drought-like
300 conditions modified the effects of eCO₂ on each measured attribute using a two-
301 step difference calculation: (i) the posterior sample of values for the attribute in
302 the aCO₂ treatment were subtracted from those in the eCO₂ treatment, generating
303 a distribution of CO₂ fertilisation magnitudes (performed separately for the values
304 corresponding to well-watered and drought-like conditions); (ii) the set of
305 magnitudes for well-watered conditions was subtracted from the set for drought-
306 like conditions, resulting in a distribution of drought-reduction values. Credible
307 intervals were calculated as highest posterior density intervals (HPDI), in order to
308 display the central 50% of model predictions and lower/upper 95% bounds of
309 model predictions. The data and R scripts used to generate the results are provided
310 online in a data repository (<https://github.com/erb418/EB.Ch4.scripts>) and
311 secondary results summaries can be found in Supporting Information **Table S1–**
312 **S10**.

313

314 **Results**

315 *Biomass: species-level*

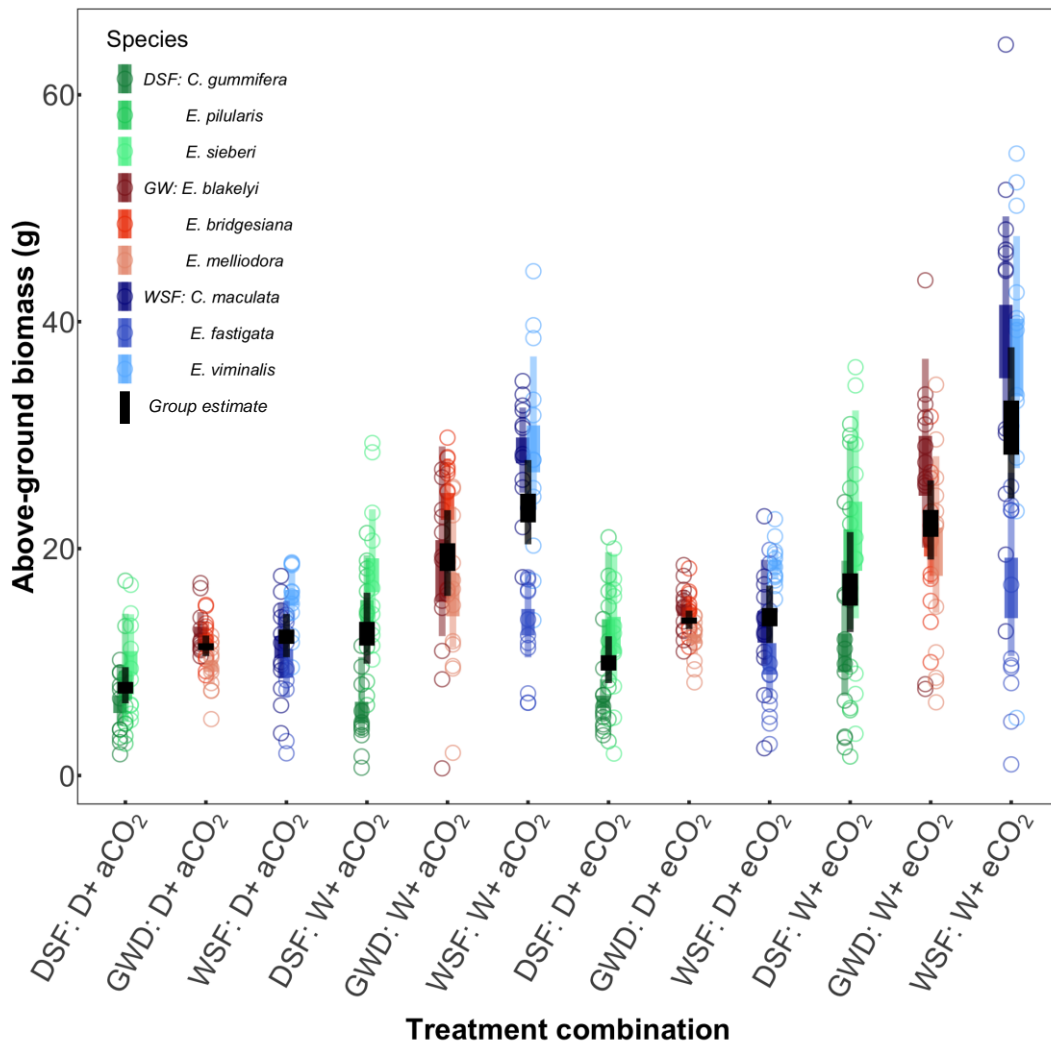
316 We analysed species-specific responses to eCO₂ and drought-like conditions to
317 investigate how variability at the community-level was influenced by species, in
318 order to confirm the appropriateness of our experimental design (Fig. **1,2,3**). The
319 modelling approach was similar to that described in the *Data Analysis* section but
320 with adjusted model parameters to account for species-level responses. The
321 majority of species responded similarly within each vegetation type, with the
322 exception of one species in both DSF (*C. gummifera*) and WSF (*E. fastigata*), which
323 did not respond as strongly as the other species within their respective vegetation
324 types.



325

326 **Fig 1.** Observed (points) and predicted (box and whiskers) total biomass for plants
 327 subjected to four combinations of CO₂ and watering treatments (elevated CO₂ + well-
 328 watered = eCO₂ + W; ambient CO₂ + well-watered = aCO₂ + W; elevated CO₂ + drought =
 329 eCO₂ + D; ambient CO₂ + drought = aCO₂ + D; bottom x-axis) in a glasshouse
 330 experiment consisting of nine eucalypt species grouped into three vegetation types (wet
 331 sclerophyll forest = WSF; dry sclerophyll forest = DSF; grassy woodland = GW). Coloured
 332 points are raw data and colours correspond to species within each vegetation type; black
 333 shaded boxes represent 50% credible intervals at the group-level and black shaded
 334 whiskers represent 95% intervals at the group-level, independent of the species-level
 335 responses. Coloured shaded boxes represent 50% credible intervals at the species-level
 336 and coloured shaded whiskers represent 95% intervals at the species-level, independent
 337 of the group-level response.

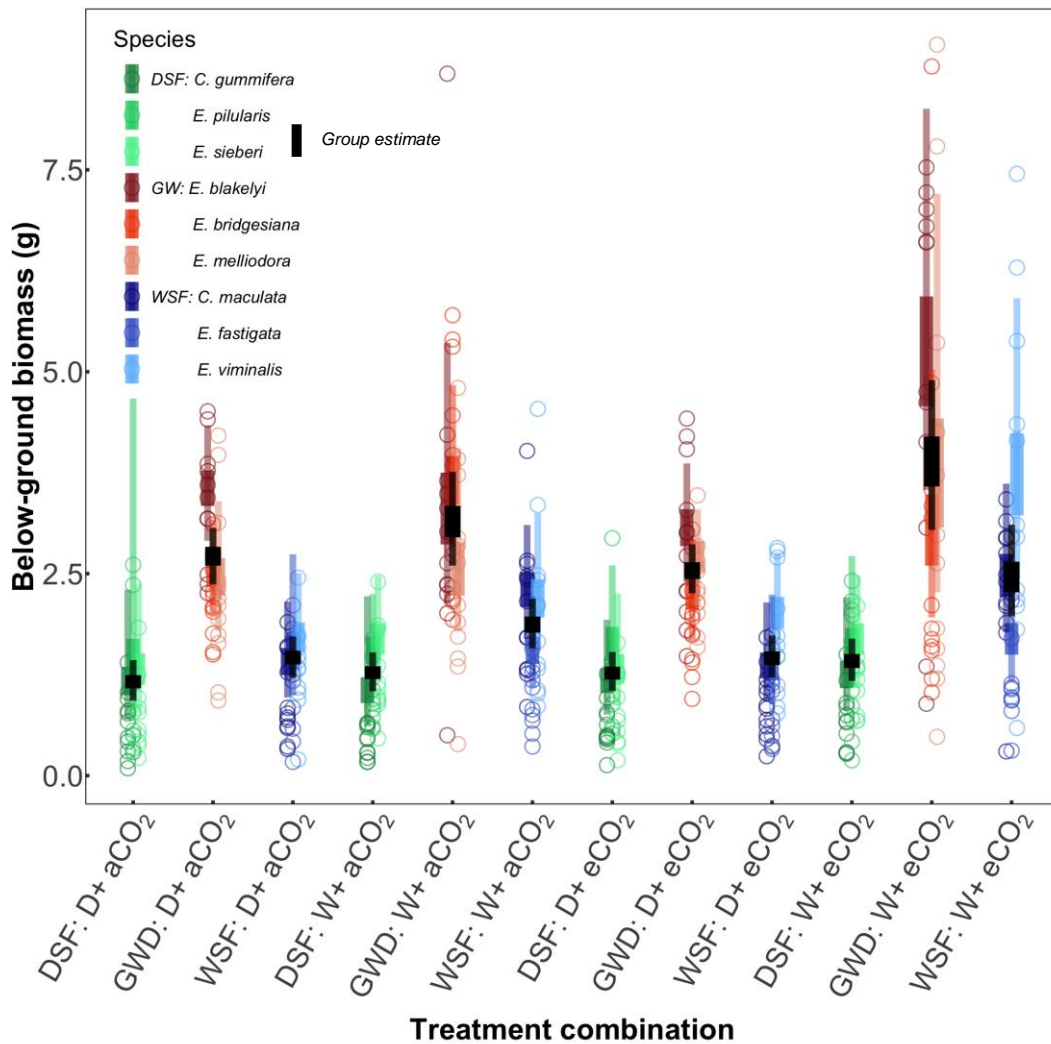
338



339

340 **Fig 2.** Observed (points) and predicted (box and whiskers) above-ground biomass for
 341 plants subjected to four combinations of CO₂ and watering treatments (elevated CO₂ +
 342 well-watered = eCO₂ + W; ambient CO₂ + well-watered = aCO₂ + W; elevated CO₂ +
 343 drought = eCO₂ + D; ambient CO₂ + drought = aCO₂ + D; bottom x-axis) in a glasshouse
 344 experiment consisting of nine eucalypt species grouped into three vegetation types (wet
 345 sclerophyll forest = WSF; dry sclerophyll forest = DSF; grassy woodland = GW). Coloured
 346 points are raw data and colours correspond to species within each vegetation type; black
 347 shaded boxes represent 50% credible intervals at the group-level and black shaded
 348 whiskers represent 95% intervals at the group-level, independent of the species-level
 349 responses. Coloured shaded boxes represent 50% credible intervals at the species-level
 350 and coloured shaded whiskers represent 95% intervals at the species-level, independent
 351 of the group-level response.

352



353

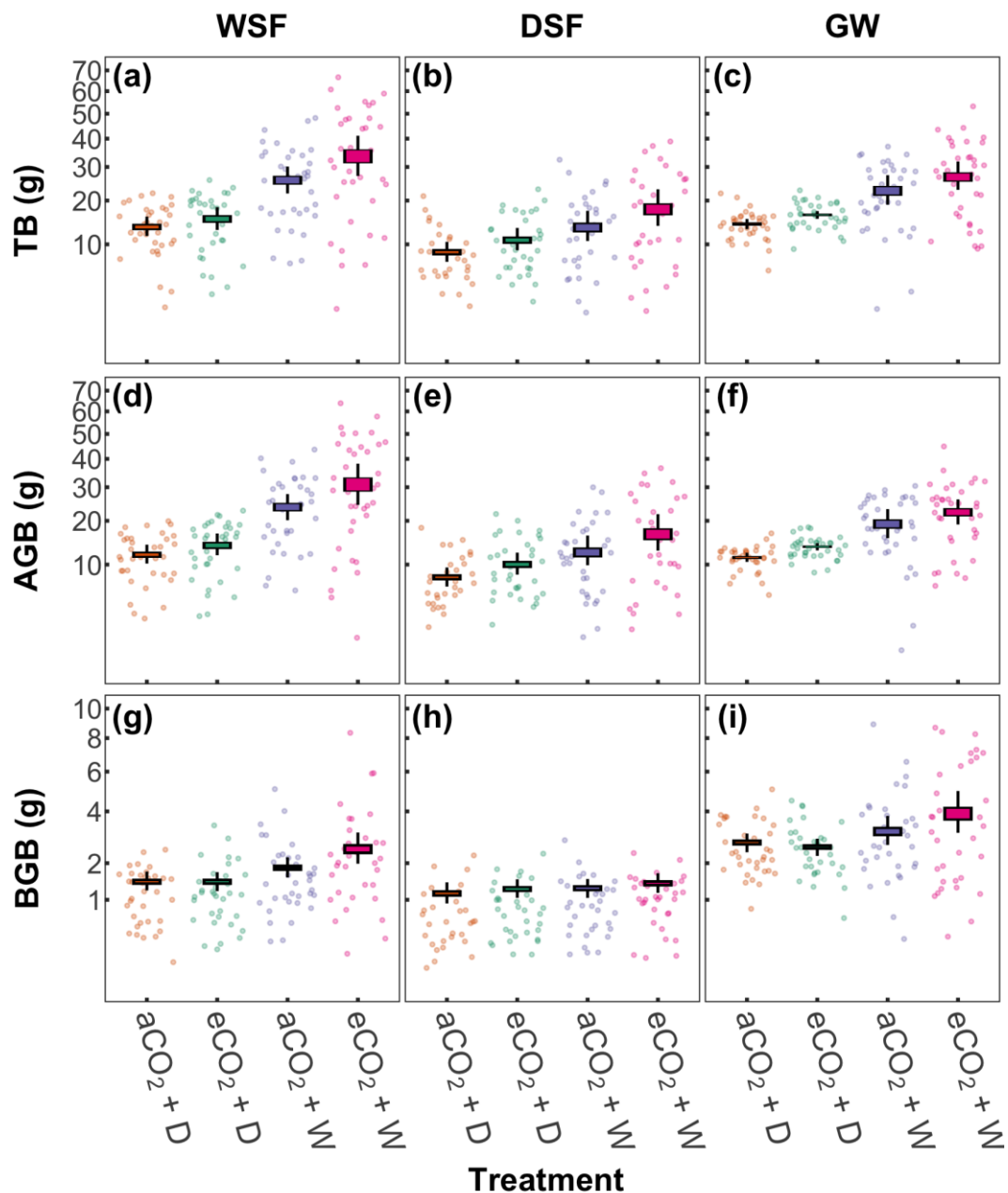
354 **Fig 3.** Observed (points) and predicted (box and whiskers) below-ground biomass for
 355 plants subjected to four combinations of CO₂ and watering treatments (elevated CO₂ +
 356 well-watered = eCO₂ + W; ambient CO₂ + well-watered = aCO₂ + W; elevated CO₂ +
 357 drought = eCO₂ + D; ambient CO₂ + drought = aCO₂ + D; bottom x-axis) in a glasshouse
 358 experiment consisting of nine eucalypt species grouped into three vegetation types (wet
 359 sclerophyll forest = WSF; dry sclerophyll forest = DSF; grassy woodland = GW). Coloured
 360 points are raw data and colours correspond to species within each vegetation type; black
 361 shaded boxes represent 50% credible intervals at the group-level and black shaded
 362 whiskers represent 95% intervals at the group-level, independent of the species-level
 363 responses. Coloured shaded boxes represent 50% credible intervals at the species-level
 364 and coloured shaded whiskers represent 95% intervals at the species-level, independent
 365 of the group-level response.

366

367 *Biomass: community-level*

368 For all vegetation types, total biomass (Fig. **4a–c**) was highest under well-watered
369 + eCO₂ ('W + eCO₂'), followed by well-watered + aCO₂ ('W + aCO₂') then
370 drought-like conditions + eCO₂ ('D + eCO₂'). Total biomass was lowest under
371 drought-like conditions + aCO₂ ('D + aCO₂'); Fig. **4a–c**). Under well-watered
372 conditions, WSF had higher total biomass than both DSF and GW (Fig. **4a–c**).
373 Total biomass values were more similar across the vegetation types under
374 drought-like conditions (Fig. **4a–c**). When the distribution of differences between
375 treatments was calculated, drought-like conditions reduced the eCO₂ fertilisation
376 effect on total biomass by 16.38% for WSF, 5.26% for DSF and 4.3% for GW
377 (percentages represent mean values; Fig. **5a–c**). WSF experienced a reduction in
378 total biomass that was four times as large as the reduction experienced by
379 DSF/GW (Fig. **5a–c**), both of which experienced similar reductions (Fig. **5b,c**).

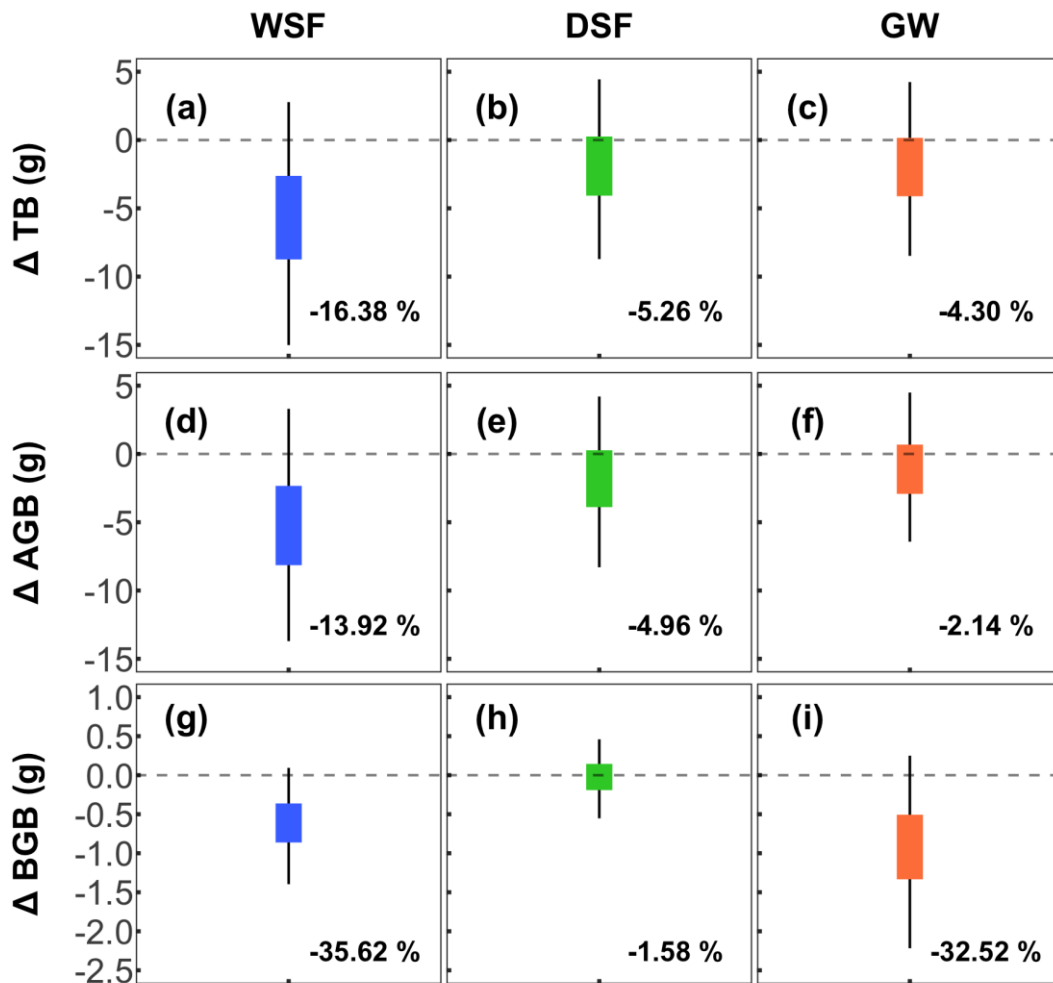
380 Above-ground biomass was consistently larger than below-ground
381 biomass (i.e. >90% of biomass), thus trends and differences followed similar
382 patterns to total biomass (Fig. **4d–f**). For all vegetation types below-ground
383 biomass was highest under W + eCO₂ followed by W + aCO₂, with eCO₂ having
384 negligible effect (mean values: 0.01–0.1 g) in the presence of drought-like
385 conditions, i.e. similar to D + aCO₂ (Fig. **4g–i**). Across the treatments GW had
386 consistently higher below-ground biomass than WSF (Fig. **4g,i**) and DSF, which
387 had the lowest (Fig. **4h**). There was little difference (mean values: 1.17–1.42 g)
388 among treatment combinations for DSF (Fig. **4h**). Drought-like conditions
389 reduced the eCO₂ fertilisation effect on below-ground biomass by 35.62% for
390 WSF, 1.58% for DSF and 32.52% for GW (Fig. **5g–i**). WSF and GW experienced
391 similarly large reductions in below-ground biomass, while the change was
392 negligible for DSF (Fig. **5g–i**).



393

394 **Fig 4.** Observed (jittered points) and predicted (boxes) total biomass (TB; panels **a–c**),
 395 above-ground biomass (AGB; panels **d–f**) and below-ground biomass (BGB; panels **g–i**)
 396 for plants subjected to four combinations of CO₂ and watering treatments (elevated CO₂ +
 397 well-watered = eCO₂ + W; ambient CO₂ + well-watered = aCO₂ + W; elevated CO₂ +
 398 drought = eCO₂ + D; ambient CO₂ + drought = aCO₂ + D; bottom x-axis) in a glasshouse
 399 experiment consisting of nine eucalypt species grouped into three vegetation types (wet
 400 sclerophyll forest = WSF, panels **a,d,g**; dry sclerophyll forest = DSF, panels **b,e,h**; grassy
 401 woodland = GW, panels **c,f,i**). Jittered points are raw data and colours correspond to
 402 treatment combinations; shaded boxes represent 50% credible intervals and whiskers

403 represent 95% intervals. The y-axis has been rescaled (square root) to ensure all data
 404 points are visible in the plot.



405
 406 **Fig 5.** Predicted change (i.e. distribution of differences) in the CO₂ fertilisation effect on
 407 total biomass (TB; panels **a–c**), above-ground biomass (AGB; panels **d–f**) and below-
 408 ground biomass (BGB; panels **g–i**) under drought versus well-watered conditions in a
 409 glasshouse experiment consisting of nine eucalypt species grouped into three vegetation
 410 types (wet sclerophyll forest = WSF, panels **a,d,g**; dry sclerophyll forest = DSF, panels
 411 **b,e,h**; grassy woodland = GW, panels **c,f,i**). Negative values represent a lower, or
 412 stronger negative CO₂ fertilisation effect under drought-like compared to well-watered
 413 conditions, while positive values represent a greater effect. Colours correspond to
 414 vegetation type; shaded boxes represent 50% credible intervals and whiskers represent
 415 95% credible intervals. Annotations indicate mean magnitude of change expressed as
 416 percentage. See Methods and Materials for calculation details.

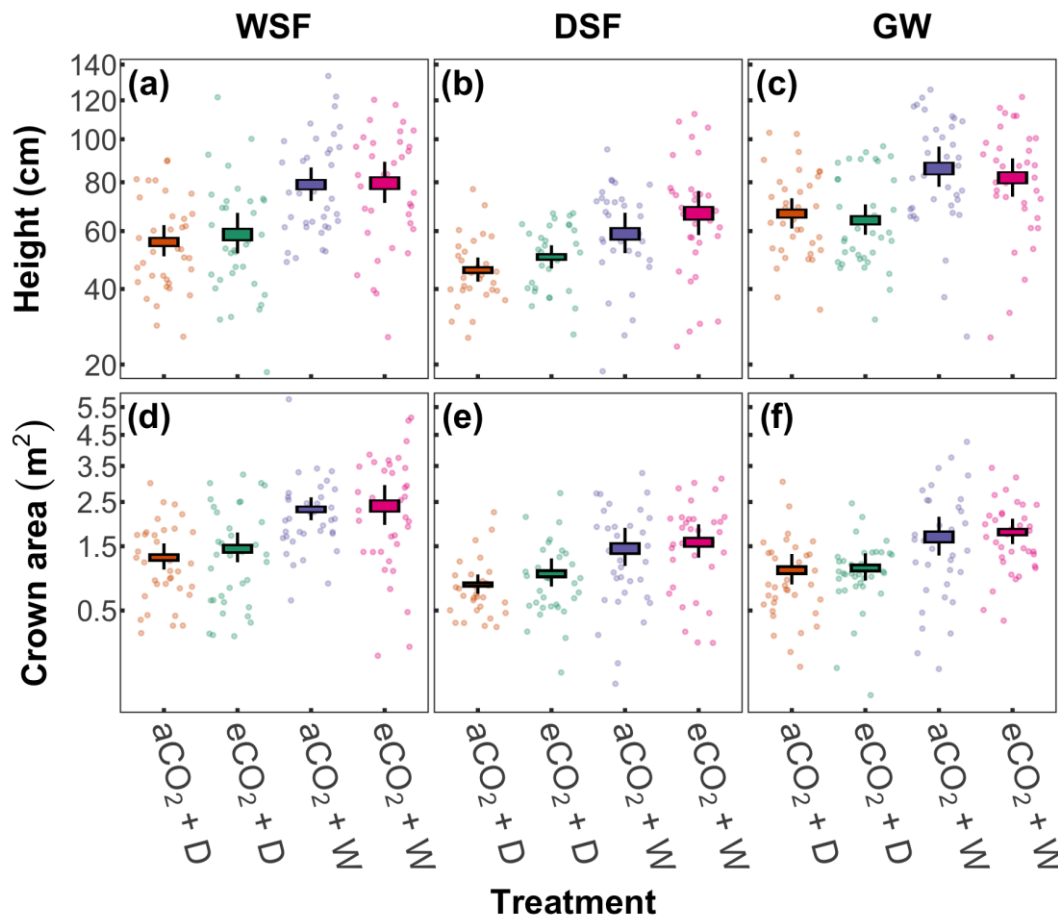
417

418 *Resource acquisition traits*

419 Plant height was greater under well-watered conditions than drought-like
 420 conditions for all vegetation types (Fig. **6a–c**). There were only minor differences

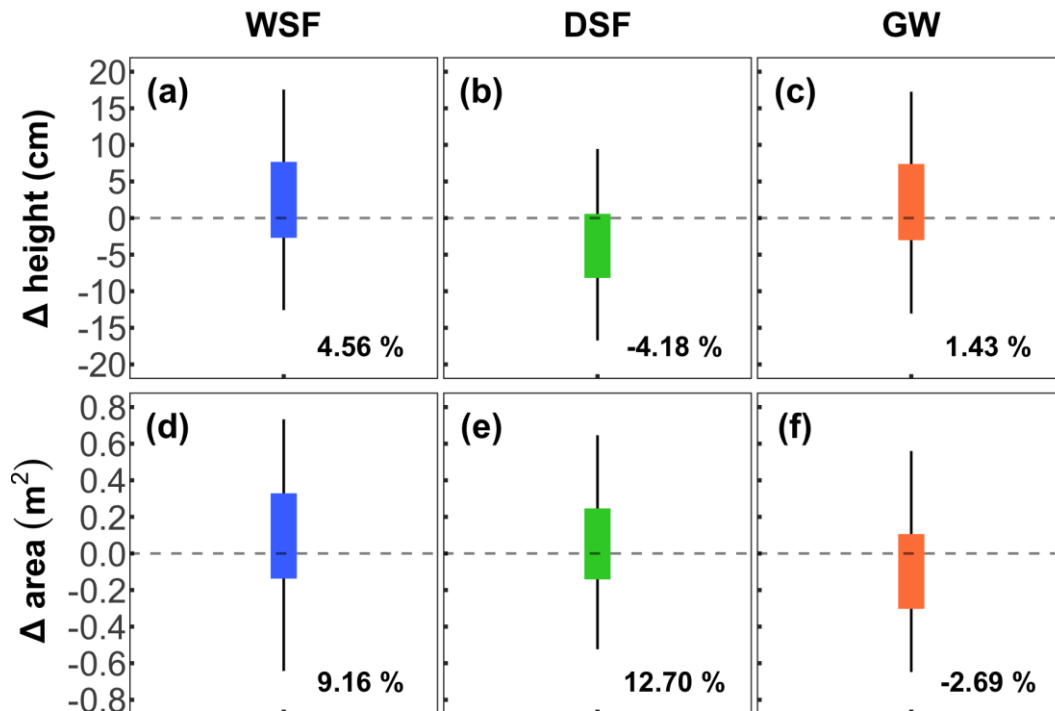
421 between CO₂ treatments within either watering treatment for both WSF and GW
 422 (mean values: 0.75–4.19 g; Fig. 6a,c). DSF plants grown under eCO₂ were
 423 slightly taller (by 5–8 cm) compared to aCO₂ (Fig. 6b). Differences in the CO₂
 424 fertilisation effect between drought and well-watered conditions were negligible
 425 (<5% difference in means; Fig. 7a–c).

426 Crown area was highest in the well-watered treatment (Fig. 6d–f) and
 427 lowest in the drought treatment across all vegetation types. WSF consistently had
 428 the largest crown area, while both DSF and GW were similar (Fig. 6d–f). The
 429 effect of eCO₂ on crown area was negligible (mean values: 0.02–0.18 m²; Fig. 6d–
 430 f). Drought-like conditions increased the eCO₂ fertilisation effect on crown area
 431 by 9.16% for WSF, 12.7% for DSF and decreased it by 2.69% for GW (Fig. 7d–
 432 f), although these changes represented an increase/decrease of <0.1 m², e.g.
 433 minimal change in crown area (Fig. 7d–f).



434
 435 **Fig 6.** Observed (jittered points) and predicted (boxes) height (panels a–c) and crown
 436 area (panels d–f) for plants subjected to four combinations of CO₂ and watering
 437 treatments (elevated CO₂ + well-watered = eCO₂ + W; ambient CO₂ + well-watered =
 438 aCO₂ + W; elevated CO₂ + drought = eCO₂ + D; ambient CO₂ + drought = aCO₂ + D;

439 bottom x-axis) in a glasshouse experiment consisting of nine eucalypt species grouped
 440 into three vegetation types (wet sclerophyll forest = WSF, panels **a,d**; dry sclerophyll
 441 forest = DSF, panels **b,e**; grassy woodland = GW, panels **c,f**). Jittered points are raw
 442 data and colours correspond to treatment combinations; shaded boxes represent 50%
 443 credible intervals and whiskers represent 95% credible intervals. The y-axis has been
 444 rescaled (square root) to ensure all data points are visible in the plot.



445

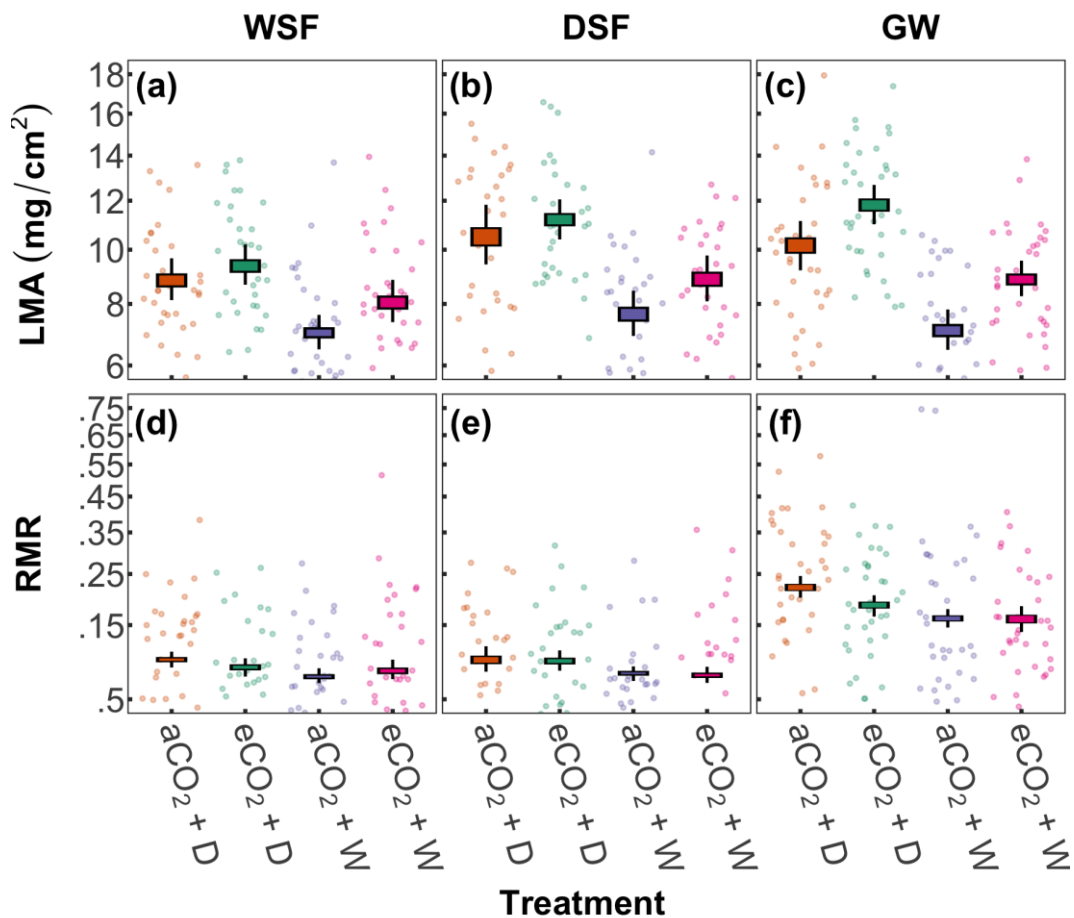
446 **Fig 7.** Predicted change (i.e. distribution of differences) in the CO₂ fertilisation effect on
 447 plant height (panels **a–c**) and crown area (panels **d–f**) under drought versus well-watered
 448 conditions in a glasshouse experiment consisting of nine eucalypt species grouped into
 449 three vegetation types (wet sclerophyll forest = WSF, panels **a,d**; dry sclerophyll forest =
 450 DSF, panels **b,e**; grassy woodland = GW, panels **c,f**). Negative values represent a lower,
 451 or stronger negative CO₂ fertilisation effect under drought-like compared to well-watered
 452 conditions, while positive values represent a greater effect. Colours correspond to
 453 vegetation type; shaded boxes represent 50% credible intervals and whiskers represent
 454 95% credible intervals. Annotations indicate mean magnitude of change expressed as
 455 percentage. See Methods and Materials for calculation details.

456

457 For all vegetation types LMA was highest under D + eCO₂ (Fig. **8a–c**).
 458 LMA was lowest under W + aCO₂ (Fig. **8a–c**). WSF had lower LMA under
 459 drought-like conditions than DSF or GW (Fig. **8a–c**). For all vegetation types
 460 LMA was 1–2 mg/cm² higher under eCO₂ than aCO₂ (Fig. **8a–c**). LMA response

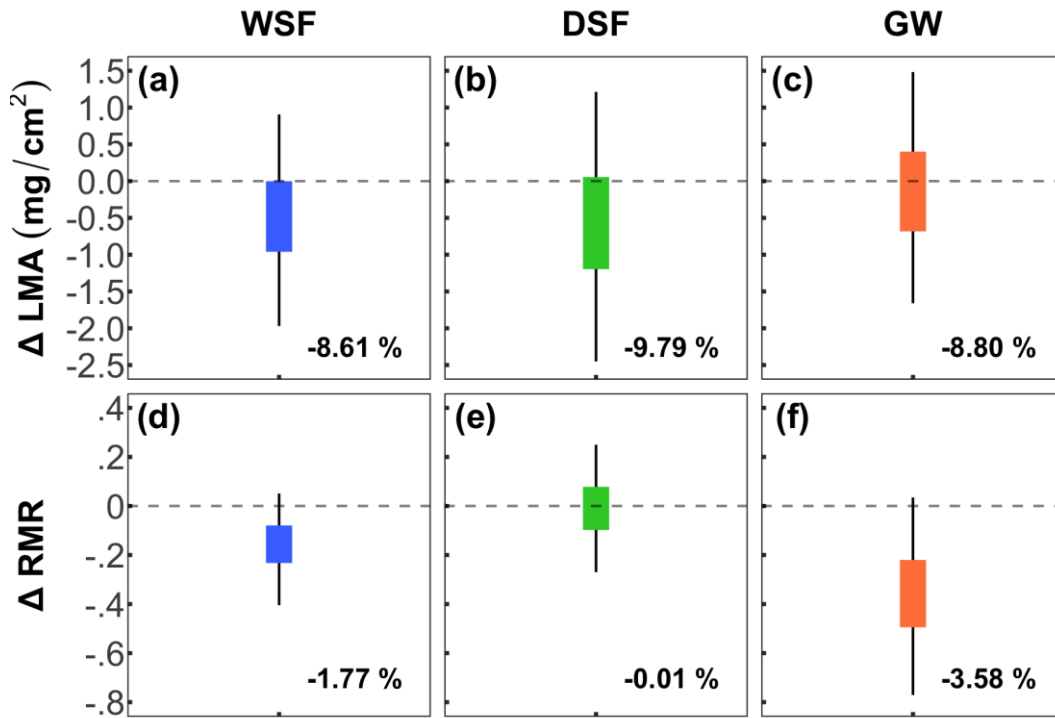
461 to eCO₂ was reduced by 8.61–9.79% across the vegetation types (Fig. 9a–c), i.e.
 462 all vegetation types experienced similar reductions in LMA.

463 CO₂ or watering treatment had only a minor effect on root mass ratio for
 464 both WSF and DSF (e.g. 0.02 difference) where values averaged between 0.08–
 465 0.10 (Fig. 8d,e). For GW, root mass ratio was highest under aCO₂ and around 0.04
 466 lower under eCO₂ (Fig. 8f). Root mass ratio was reduced by eCO₂ by 1.77% for
 467 WSF, 0.01% for DSF and 3.58% for GW, i.e. there was a minor change in root
 468 mass ratio for DSF and WSF and relatively larger change for GW (Fig. 9d–f).



469
 470 **Fig 8.** Observed (jittered points) and predicted (boxes) leaf mass per unit area (LMA;
 471 panels a–c), and root mass ratio (RMR; panels d–f) for plants subjected to four
 472 combinations of CO₂ and watering treatments (elevated CO₂ + well-watered = eCO₂ + W;
 473 ambient CO₂ + well-watered = aCO₂ + W; elevated CO₂ + drought = eCO₂ + D; ambient
 474 CO₂ + drought = aCO₂ + D; bottom x-axis) in a glasshouse experiment consisting of nine
 475 eucalypt species grouped into three vegetation types (wet sclerophyll forest = WSF,
 476 panels a,d; dry sclerophyll forest = DSF, panels b,e; grassy woodland = GW, panels c,f).
 477 Jittered points are raw data and colours correspond to treatment combinations; shaded

478 boxes represent 50% credible intervals and whiskers represent 95% credible intervals.
 479 The y-axis has been rescaled (square root) to ensure all data points are visible in the plot.



480

481 **Fig 9.** Predicted change (i.e. distribution of differences) in the CO₂ fertilisation effect on
 482 leaf mass per unit area (LMA; panels **a–c**) and root mass ratio (RMR; panels **d–f**) under
 483 drought versus well-watered conditions in a glasshouse experiment consisting of nine
 484 eucalypt species grouped into three vegetation types (wet sclerophyll forest = WSF,
 485 panels **a,d**; dry sclerophyll forest = DSF, panels **b,e**; grassy woodland = GW, panels **c,f**).
 486 Negative values represent a lower, or stronger negative CO₂ fertilisation effect under
 487 drought-like compared to well-watered conditions, while positive values represent a
 488 greater effect. Colours correspond to vegetation type; shaded boxes represent 50%
 489 credible intervals and whiskers represent 95% credible intervals. Annotations indicate
 490 mean magnitude of change expressed as percentage. See Methods and Materials for
 491 calculation details.

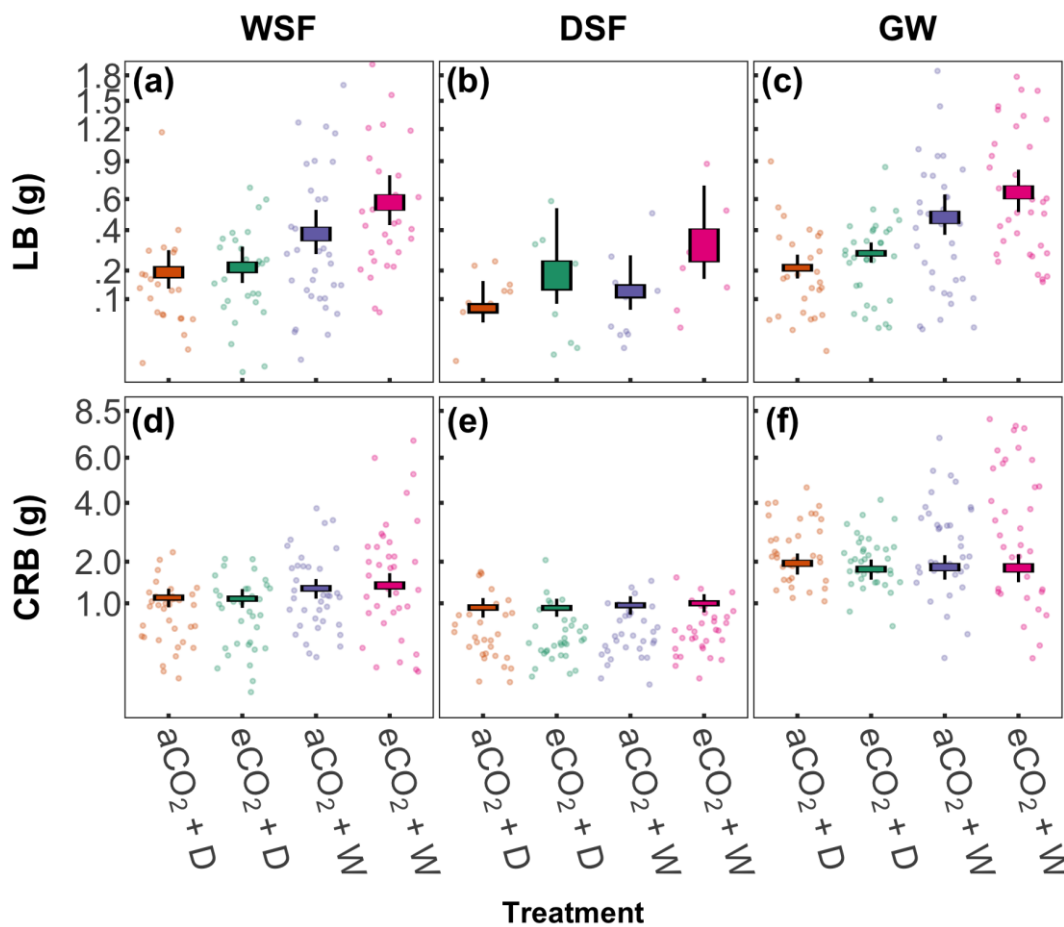
492

493 *Storage organs*

494 Lignotuber biomass was highest under W + eCO₂ and lowest under D + aCO₂
 495 (Fig. **10a–c**) for all vegetation types. Lignotuber biomass was slightly higher
 496 under D + eCO₂ than D + aCO₂ (mean increase: 0.05–0.17 g; Fig. **10a–c**), i.e.
 497 eCO₂ had a positive effect on lignotuber biomass regardless of watering treatment.
 498 Drought-like conditions reduced the eCO₂ fertilisation effect on lignotuber
 499 biomass by 43.29% for WSF, increased it by 22.2% for DSF and decreased it by

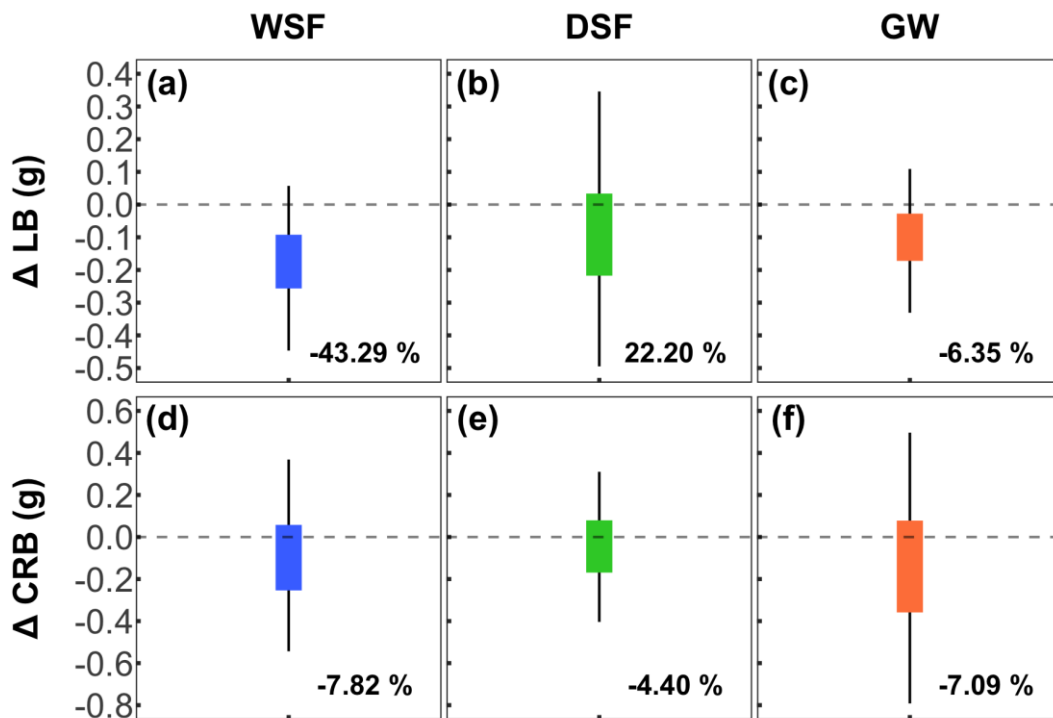
500 6.35% for GW (Fig. 11a–c), i.e. WSF experienced substantially larger reductions
 501 in lignotuber biomass than either DSF or GW. For DSF, very wide bounds reflect
 502 uncertainty around this result (Fig. 11b).

503 Coarse-root biomass showed little response to [CO₂] and watering
 504 treatment across the vegetation types (e.g. <0.3 g difference; Fig. 10d–f). Coarse-
 505 root biomass was highest for GW and lowest for DSF, while WSF had
 506 intermediate coarse-root biomass (Fig. 10d–f). Drought-like conditions reduced
 507 the eCO₂ fertilisation effect on coarse-root biomass by 7.82% for WSF, 4.40% for
 508 DSF and 7.09% for GW (Fig. 11d–f). WSF and GWD experienced slightly larger
 509 reductions in coarse-root biomass than DSF (e.g. 2.7–3.4% larger; Fig. 11d–f).



510
 511 **Fig 10.** Observed (jittered points) and predicted (boxes) lignotuber biomass (LB; panels
 512 a–c), and coarse root biomass (CRB; panels d–f) for plants subjected to four
 513 combinations of CO₂ and watering treatments (elevated CO₂ + well-watered = eCO₂ + W;
 514 ambient CO₂ + well-watered = aCO₂ + W; elevated CO₂ + drought = eCO₂ + D; ambient
 515 CO₂ + drought = aCO₂ + D; bottom x-axis) in a glasshouse experiment consisting of nine
 516 eucalypt species grouped into three vegetation types (wet sclerophyll forest = WSF,
 517 panels a,d; dry sclerophyll forest = DSF, panels b,e; grassy woodland = GW, panels c,f).
 518 Jittered points are raw data and colours correspond to treatment combinations; shaded

519 boxes represent 50% credible intervals and whiskers represent 95% credible intervals.
 520 The y-axis has been rescaled (square root) to ensure all data points are visible in the plot.



521
 522 **Fig 11.** Predicted change (i.e. distribution of differences) in the CO₂ fertilisation effect
 523 under drought versus well-watered conditions for lignotuber biomass (LB; panels **a–c**)
 524 and coarse-root biomass (CRB; panels **d–f**) in a glasshouse experiment consisting of
 525 nine eucalypt species grouped into three vegetation types (wet sclerophyll forest = WSF,
 526 panels **a,d**; dry sclerophyll forest = DSF, panels **b,e**; grassy woodland = GW, panels **c,f**).
 527 Negative values represent a lower, or stronger negative CO₂ fertilisation effect under
 528 drought-like compared to well-watered conditions, while positive values represent a
 529 greater effect. Colours correspond to vegetation type; shaded boxes represent 50%
 530 credible intervals and whiskers represent 95% credible intervals. Annotations indicate
 531 mean magnitude of change expressed as percentage. See Methods and Materials for
 532 calculation details.

533

534 Discussion

535 In temperate, eucalypt-dominated vegetation types, the effects of eCO₂
 536 fertilisation on biomass accumulation and storage organs were effectively negated
 537 by drought, though some typical drought-stress responses, such as increased LMA
 538 and RMR, were reduced under eCO₂. Physical dimensions of eucalypt seedlings,
 539 such as height and crown area, were essentially unaffected by eCO₂. In the
 540 absence of drought, however, eucalypt species may experience faster seedling
 541 growth, establishment and enhanced resprouting capacity due to eCO₂.

542

543 *Plant biomass*

544 When water was not limited, eucalypt seedlings responded to eCO₂ by increasing
545 biomass by more than 30% (Fig. **1,4a–c**), which is comparable to increases found
546 in the majority of global studies on non-eucalypt woody species (e.g. 48%,
547 Poorter & Nagel 2000) and in similar studies of eucalypts (e.g. 41–108%, Roden
548 & Ball 1996; 44–74%, Ghannoum *et al.* 2010). This result suggests there is
549 potential for increased seedling establishment in temperate woody ecosystems in
550 regions or during periods where rainfall is adequate, as has been suggested
551 elsewhere (Ghannoum *et al.* 2010). Seedlings that accumulate biomass more
552 quickly are more likely to escape fire-related mortality by reaching fire-tolerant
553 size-classes (Hoffmann & Solbrig 2003; Clarke *et al.* 2013) and thus transition
554 faster to maturity, supporting the idea that eCO₂ may facilitate woody thickening
555 in temperate woody ecosystems. While some studies have demonstrated that trees
556 in regenerating forests may also increase biomass in response to eCO₂ (e.g. by 20–
557 30%, Norby *et al.* 2001; Kim *et al.* 2019; Walker *et al.* 2019), this enhanced
558 growth is typically reported in the earlier stages of tree growth, with most studies
559 of established mature trees suggesting that eCO₂ has little effect on biomass
560 accumulation (Jiang *et al.* 2020; Walker *et al.* 2021). Competitive interactions
561 with grasses (Manea & Leishman 2015), herbivory (Collins *et al.* 2018a) and
562 nutrient limitation (Norby *et al.* 2010; Ellsworth *et al.* 2017) may limit the
563 potential for increased carbon sequestration in natural ecosystems under eCO₂.

564 In our study, the effect of CO₂ fertilisation on biomass was reduced by
565 drought-like conditions, as found in other studies (Duan *et al.* 2013; Duan *et al.*
566 2018b). We did not find a doubling of biomass under drought-like conditions +
567 eCO₂ as in Atwell *et al.* (2007). Of our nine species, wet sclerophyll species
568 showed the greatest reduction in total, above-ground and below-ground biomass
569 (Fig. **1,2,3,4**), although reductions did occur across all vegetation types. Thus,
570 drought-like conditions placed limitations on growth regardless of species or CO₂
571 level. Relative to the forest species, grassy woodland species invested
572 substantially more resources into roots under drought-like conditions (Fig. **3,4g–**
573 **i**), although the same pattern occurred under well-watered conditions, suggesting
574 that high below-ground biomass investment is typical for grassy woodland

575 systems. Indeed, larger, deeper root systems are characteristic of species adapted
576 to drier climates (Brunner *et al.* 2015).

577 Eucalypts from more mesic environments have been reported to
578 experience reduced biomass accumulation when water is limited (e.g. >80%;
579 Duan *et al.* 2014), with smaller reductions reported in xeric species (e.g. >50%,
580 Susiluoto & Berninger 2007). We found species from wet sclerophyll forest to be
581 relatively more sensitive to drought. For example, the 16.38% reduction in
582 biomass between well-watered and water-stressed wet sclerophyll species was
583 larger than either grassy woodland (4.3%) or dry sclerophyll species (5.26%; Fig.
584 **5**). This suggests that, under drier future climates, trees of wet sclerophyll
585 environments may experience sharper decreases in productivity than those in drier
586 wooded landscapes; for example, through reducing seedling success.

587

588 *Resource acquisition traits*

589 Under climate change, seedling success and ongoing competitive advantage of a
590 given species depends on how resource acquisition is balanced with water
591 conservation, e.g. low-LMA species adapted to high productivity, mesic
592 environments may have greater success under normal rainfall conditions while
593 high-LMA species adapted to lower productivity, xeric environments may have
594 greater success when rainfall declines (Poorter *et al.* 2009). In our study, LMA
595 was highest under drought-like conditions for species of the drier habitats (Fig.
596 **8b–c**), which suggests that such species are more effectively able to cope with
597 drought-like conditions than those of wet sclerophyll forests. This pattern is
598 consistent with trends elsewhere, showing that LMA can vary according to
599 positions along rainfall gradients (Cernusak *et al.* 2011) and eucalypts from xeric
600 environments may have higher LMA than those from mesic environments (Lewis
601 *et al.* 2011). Increasing LMA is a strategy plants employ to conserve resources
602 and reduce wilting (Poorter *et al.* 2009). We found that the LMA increase with
603 eCO₂ was only 8–10% smaller under drought-like conditions compared to well-
604 watered conditions (Fig. **9a–c**), suggesting that eCO₂ may help some species cope
605 with drought (e.g. by developing tougher leaves to reduce water loss).

606 Increasing the proportion of biomass allocated to roots maximises water
607 uptake while limiting water loss (Brunner *et al.* 2015). In this study there was

608 evidence that eCO₂ decreased the root-to-shoot mass ratio under drought
609 conditions, representing a 1–4% ameliorative effect for some species (Fig. 9d–f).
610 This result was consistent with both general patterns (Poorter & Nagel 2000;
611 Schall *et al.* 2012; Brunner *et al.* 2015) and some studies of eucalypts (e.g. Barton
612 and Montagu 2006; Thomas 2009), though other studies have found little or no
613 difference in RMR under varying watering regimes (Osório *et al.* 1998; Merchant
614 *et al.* 2006; Merchant *et al.* 2007). Our results suggest that eCO₂ fertilisation may
615 reduce drought stress for some species. Root-to-shoot mass ratio was highest for
616 grassy woodland species, around twice that of species in the forest categories.
617 Overall our results were broadly comparable (e.g. ~0.1 for WSF spp., DSF spp.;
618 ~0.2% for GW spp.; Fig. 8d–f) with global trends in root-to-shoot mass ratio
619 across varying habitats and water availability: e.g. 0.2 at 3000 mm cf. 0.4 at 500
620 mm mean annual rainfall (Brunner *et al.* 2015). The comparatively high LMA and
621 RMR of the more xeric species in our study and the magnitude of increase in
622 these variables due to drought, suggests that these taxa are more capable of
623 withstanding and responding to drought.

624 Changes to plant height due to eCO₂ in our study were generally small
625 (e.g. <5%), with moderate increases in crown area (<12%). Hence, the eCO₂-
626 related biomass gains observed in our study may be due to increases in tissue
627 density, stem diameter, branch number, leaf number and rooting architecture
628 (Atwell *et al.* 2007; Ghannoum *et al.* 2010). This suggests that, for the study
629 species, additional carbon was allocated to biomass and, to some extent, crown
630 area, rather than height.

631

632 *Storage organs*

633 Elevated CO₂ may facilitate greater allocation of non-structural carbohydrates to
634 storage organs such as lignotubers and roots, which resprouting species such as
635 eucalypts utilise following disturbance (Hoffman *et al.* 2000). In our study we
636 found that when sufficient water was available, eCO₂ increased the size of
637 lignotubers by 5–33% for species from wet sclerophyll forests and 21–58% for
638 those native to drier environments (Fig. 10, 11a–c), consistent with results of other
639 glasshouse studies (Hoffman *et al.* 2000; Bond & Midgley 2012). In contrast,
640 Collins *et al.* (2018b) found no effect of eCO₂ on lignotuber growth in eucalypts

641 in a field experiment, probably due to competition with grasses, herbivory and
642 nutrient limitation. Elevated CO₂ may increase the biomass and vigour of
643 resprouting stems and increase the size of coarse roots, which contain resources
644 needed for resprouting (Hoffman *et al.* 2000; Bond & Midgley 2012). The trends
645 in above and below ground biomass (e.g. increased shoot biomass and increased
646 storage capacity under eCO₂) in the study species, described above, may therefore
647 have potential to enhance resprouting capacity as atmospheric CO₂ levels
648 increase. However, our result that drought-like conditions imposed severe
649 restrictions on lignotuber growth for some species and thereby reduced the effect
650 of eCO₂ fertilisation, suggests that enhanced resprouting would be limited to
651 periods of adequate rainfall (Fig. **10,11a–c**). Nonetheless, there remained
652 substantial uncertainty in the results for dry sclerophyll species due to the failure
653 of many plants to produce a lignotuber during the experiment.

654

655 *Future climate and potential ecosystem change*

656 Further rapid and substantial increases in atmospheric [CO₂] are predicted
657 globally, along with increases in global mean air temperature, with changes to
658 rainfall patterns likely to be more diverse and harder to predict (IPCC 2021).
659 Drought has been identified as a factor that may negatively impact resprouting
660 success across many ecosystems, including Australian forests (Rosas *et al.* 2013;
661 Nolan *et al.* 2021). There is also evidence that some eucalypt forests can undergo
662 state-changes, for example a shift toward smaller, multi-stemmed trees, during
663 severe drought conditions (Matusick *et al.* 2016). Climate change-driven increases
664 in fire frequency could potentially result in higher mortality and decreased
665 complexity in resprouting eucalypt woodlands (Fairman *et al.* 2017). One
666 possibility could be that future forested landscapes experience eCO₂-enhanced
667 growth during periods of adequate rainfall, but the coupled effects of more
668 extreme droughts and fires may equate to zero net-change over the long term.

669 Our results indicate that drought offsets the effect of eCO₂ fertilisation on
670 biomass accumulation and lignotuber size in seedlings. Species from drier habitats
671 may have a physiological advantage over those in mesic forests in the seedling
672 phase in a high-CO₂ world where drought pervades landscapes. There may be
673 potential for reduced seedling survival in vulnerable areas within wet sclerophyll

674 forests, e.g. climatically marginal ridgetops, plateaus or ecotones. Species from
675 dry sclerophyll or grassy woodlands that are more effectively able to cope with
676 drought and short-interval fires could potentially encroach into such areas, leading
677 to reductions in the extent of wet sclerophyll forests. However, our study only
678 examined seedlings grown under controlled conditions for a short period of time,
679 so it is not clear how these effects may translate to natural forest ecosystems.
680 Thus, future scenarios of coupled changes to climate and disturbance regime
681 could lead to major shifts in vegetation composition, structure and function,
682 potentially reducing carbon storage within forests, which may accelerate climate
683 change and result in further changes to vegetation.

684

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