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Journal

Global Biogeochemical Cycles, 35(2)

ISSN 0886-6236

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Publication Date

2021-02-01

DOI

10.1029/2020gb006807

Peer reviewed

Leaf trait plasticity alters competitive ability and functioning of simulated tropical trees in response to elevated carbon dioxide

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Key Points:

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13	•	Including the observed response of leaf traits to higher CO_2 results in lower com-
14		petitive ability for modeled tropical trees
15	•	Concurrent changes in multiple leaf traits could help maintain per-area photosyn-
16		thetic rates and confer a competitive advantage
17	•	Resulting ecosystem-scale carbon uptake depends on the magnitude of trait plas-
18		ticity coupled with changes in plant type abundance

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19 Abstract

The response of tropical ecosystems to elevated carbon dioxide (CO_2) remains a criti-20 cal uncertainty in projections of future climate. Here we investigate how leaf trait plas-21 ticity in response to elevated CO_2 alters projections of tropical forest competitive dy-22 namics and functioning. We use vegetation demographic model simulations to quantify 23 how plasticity in leaf mass per area and leaf carbon to nitrogen ratio alter the responses 24 of carbon uptake, evapotranspiration, and competitive ability to a doubling of CO₂ in 25 a tropical forest. Observationally constrained leaf trait plasticity in response to CO₂ fer-26 tilization reduces the degree to which tropical tree carbon uptake is affected by a dou-27 bling of CO_2 (up to -14.7% as compared to a case with no plasticity; 95% confidence in-28 terval $CI_{95\%}$ -14.4 to -15.0). It also diminishes evapotranspiration (up to -7.0%, $CI_{95\%}$ 29 -6.4 to -7.7), and lowers competitive ability in comparison to a tree with no plasticity. 30 Consideration of leaf trait plasticity to elevated CO_2 lowers tropical ecosystem carbon 31 uptake and evapotranspirative cooling in the absence of changes in plant type abundance. 32 However, 'plastic' responses to high CO₂ which maintain higher levels of plant produc-33 tivity are potentially more competitively advantageous, thus, including changes in plant 34 type abundance may mitigate these decreases in ecosystem functioning. Models that ex-35 plicitly represent competition between plants with alternative leaf trait plasticity in re-36 sponse to elevated CO_2 are needed to capture these influences on tropical forest func-37 tioning and large-scale climate. 38

³⁹ Plain Language Summary

When tropical trees grown in air with a high concentrations of carbon dioxide it 40 has been observed that they grow leaves and change aspects of how leaves work, called 41 leaf traits. We used computer simulations to look at how changes in two particular leaf 42 traits, leaf thickness and the concentration of nitrogen in leaves, alter how much trop-43 ical trees grow when carbon dioxide concentrations are high. We find that trees grow less 44 when they have lower concentrations of nitrogen in leaves, but that if they can simul-45 taneously make their leaves thicker this alleviates the negative effects. This holds true 46 both when plants are growing without any competition, and also corresponds to how likely 47 they are to grow better than a neighbor with a different combination of leaf traits. Our 48 findings suggest that if tropical trees change only the concentration of nitrogen in their 49 leaves then tree growth and the related transfer of carbon into the land and water back 50 to the atmosphere will be reduced. However if the two trait changes occur simultane-51 ously tropical forests could maintain exchanges of carbon and water close to the rates 52 at which they currently occur. 53

54 1 Introduction

Tropical forests currently exert strong control over large-scale carbon, water, and 55 energy fluxes and thus strongly influence global climate (Bonan, 2008; Davin & de Noblet-56 Ducoudré, 2010; Cusack et al., 2016; Cox et al., 2000). Yet, the poorly understood re-57 sponse of tropical ecosystems to elevated carbon dioxide (CO_2) over the coming decades 58 and centuries remains a key uncertainty in projections of future climate (e.g., Ciais et 59 al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2015; Lloyd & Farquhar, 2008; Schimel et al., 2015; Brienen et 60 al., 2015; Hickler et al., 2008; Fisher et al., 2010; Cernusak et al., 2013; Leakey, Bishop, 61 & Ainsworth, 2012; van der Sleen et al., 2015; Cusack et al., 2016). Predictive models 62 of the carbon cycle are predicated on using observable plant properties (traits) as inputs 63 to mechanistic models that project the functioning of ecosystems under unobserved fu-64 ture conditions. Typically, most plant traits are fixed in these models for a given plant functional type, irrespective of environmental conditions, although some newer approaches 66 allow traits to vary based on optimality arguments (e.g. Caldararu et al., 2020). In re-67 ality, leaf traits vary both across plant types as well as within plant types across envi-68

ronmental gradients. Further, under experimental conditions, a number of leaf traits have 69 demonstrated plasticity, in that the leaves of existing trees are altered in response to, 70 for example, elevated CO₂ concentrations (e.g., Garbutt et al., 1990; Yin, 2002; Verhei-71 jen et al., 2015). Alterations in leaf traits can modify plant photosynthesis and evapo-72 transpiration rates. Thus this leaf trait plasticity could alter ecosystem functioning, with 73 potential implications for large-scale climate. We use the term 'plasticity', rather than 74 'acclimation' to allow for the fact that these changes might occur as a result of nutri-75 ent scarcity, rather than a specific 'acclimation' to altered conditions. The capacity for 76 leaf trait plasticity to alter ecosystem functioning could act directly, without changes in 77 plant type abundance, as well as indirectly, through changes in plant competitive dynam-78 ics and thus the relative abundance of different plant types. 79

Among the most commonly observed plant trait responses to experimentally ele-80 vated CO₂ are increases in leaf mass per area (LMA, g leaf carbon m^{-2} leaf area) and 81 the ratio of carbon to nitrogen within leaves (C: N_{leaf} , g leaf carbon g^{-1} leaf nitrogen). 82 Observations suggest that each of these leaf traits could increase by as much as one-third 83 under doubled CO_2 in a wide range of tropical tree species spanning successional classes (Fig. 1; Lovelock et al., 1998; Reekie & Bazzaz, 1989; Winter et al., 2000; Winter & Love-85 lock, 1999) implying thicker leaves with lower mass-based nitrogen concentrations. Com-86 parison of Earth system model simulations to observations at ecosystem-scale CO₂ en-87 richment experiments suggests that accurately representing these two leaf traits is crit-88 ical to predicting ecosystem responses to elevated CO_2 (Zaehle et al., 2014; De Kauwe 89 et al., 2014; Medlyn et al., 2015). Fisher et al. (2019) also found that LMA was a crit-90 ical control over the responsiveness of ecosystems in the CLM5 land surface model. 91

The leading hypothesis for why $C:N_{leaf}$ and LMA increase with elevated CO_2 is 92 that CO_2 fertilization leads to nitrogen limitation of plant growth and the accumulation 93 of nonstructural carbohydrates in leaves (Winter et al., 2001; Poorter et al., 2009, 1997; 94 Pritchard et al., 1999; Roumet et al., 1999; Meyerholt & Zaehle, 2015). This is also con-95 sistent with the prediction from optimality approaches which suggest that higher CO_2 96 should lead to lower allocation to rubisco in favor of allocating the nitrogen to other parts 97 of the plant (Xu et al., 2012; Quebbeman & Ramirez, 2016; Smith et al., 2019). While 98 both LMA and $C:N_{leaf}$ trait changes have potential benefits (discussed below), it is pos-99 sible that these changes are forced upon plants as there is not enough nitrogen to retain 100 default leaf traits under high CO₂. It is possible that even if plastic responses of LMA 101 and $C:N_{leaf}$ do not lead to increased assimilation they could still benefit plants, i.e. by 102 allowing for more efficient use of N across the plant. Here we impose a range of $C:N_{leaf}$ 103 and LMA plasticity levels and quantify the total canopy nitrogen required to support 104 each leaf trait plasticity level. 105

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1.1 Direct effects of trait plasticity

Plasticity in C:N_{leaf} and LMA directly influence tropical forest functioning by altering area-based photosynthetic rates. C:N_{leaf} is the amount of nitrogen present in a given unit of leaf mass, with higher C:N_{leaf} indicating a lower amount of nitrogen per unit leaf mass. LMA describes the mass used to construct a unit of leaf area. Together these two traits control the nitrogen per leaf area (N_{area}, g nitrogen m^{-2} leaf area) as follows:

$$N_{area} = \frac{LMA}{C:N_{leaf}} \tag{1}$$

Given that nitrogen is an essential component of photosynthetic enzymes, particularly rubisco, N_{area} is an important determinant of maximum photosynthetic rates per leaf area (Drake & Gonzàlez-Meler, 1997; Kattge et al., 2009, 2011; Walker et al., 2014; Norby et al., 2017). N_{area} is therefore used in many terrestrial biosphere models to estimate photosynthetic parameters, which in turn exert strong influence over modeled carbon uptake (Verheijen et al., 2013; Bonan et al., 2011; Walker et al., 2017; Rogers et al., 2017). Changes in maximum photosynthetic rates due to altered N_{area} can also influence rates of evapotranspirative cooling, as transpiration is coupled to photosynthesis in all commonly used stomatal conductance algorithms (Ball et al., 1987; Medlyn et al., 2011).

Experimental manipulation of CO_2 in tropical forest systems has been observed 123 to modify both LMA and $C:N_{leaf}$ in a wide range of tropical tree species across succes-124 sional classes (Lovelock et al., 1998). These observations suggest that co-occurring changes 125 in LMA and $C:N_{leaf}$ in response to a doubling of CO_2 most often caused N_{area} to de-126 crease (Fig. 1 below diagonal line) or, in fewer cases, to be maintained (Fig. 1 on diag-127 onal line; Lovelock et al., 1998). Thus, in the absence of other changes (such as adjusted 128 partitioning of nitrogen between different photosynthetic processes; e.g., Xu et al., 2012; 129 Leakey, Ainsworth, et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2019) the observed leaf trait plasticity in 130 response to elevated CO_2 has the potential to lower projections of tropical ecosystem car-131 bon uptake and evapotranspirative cooling by reducing photosynthetic rates and stom-132 atal conductance. 133

Leaf trait plasticity could also directly influence ecosystem functioning by modi-134 fying leaf area index (LAI, m^2 leaf area m^{-2} ground), which provides the surface area 135 over which photosynthesis and transpiration are scaled to the ecosystem level. Increas-136 ing LMA increases the carbon cost of building leaf area, as thicker leaves require more 137 carbon to build a given unit of leaf area. For a given unit mass of carbon allocation to 138 leaves, LMA is, by definition, used to calculate plant leaf area. In terms of nutrient bud-139 gets, for a constant $C:N_{leaf}$, increasing LMA also increases nitrogen requirements, while 140 increasing $C:N_{leaf}$ makes leaf area less expensive in terms of nitrogen. In models, these 141 dynamics are of course only applicable when active nitrogen cycling is represented. 142

There are direct trade-offs between the influences of leaf plasticity on $C:N_{leaf}$ and 143 LMA on photosynthetic rates and leaf area under elevated CO_2 . Increases in $C:N_{leaf}$ 144 could reduce maximum photosynthetic rates but do not alter the carbon cost of build-145 ing leaf area while increases in LMA could offset reductions in maximum photosynthetic 146 rates due to higher $C:N_{leaf}$ but increase the cost of building leaf area. Thus, given both 147 the conflicting impacts of increasing $C:N_{leaf}$ and LMA on N_{area} , and the secondary im-148 pacts on leaf area itself, the likely net response of ecosystems to elevated CO_2 taking into 149 account this type of leaf trait plasticity is not immediately apparent. While some nitrogen-150 enabled models allow for flexible C:N stoichiometry (Zaehle & Friend, 2010; Ghimire et 151 al., 2016; Fisher et al., 2019; Caldararu et al., 2020), we are unaware of studies that have 152 specifically included these direct and indirect effects of plasticity in response to forcing 153 for LMA. Further, changes in leaf area and leaf functioning incur changes in respiratory 154 costs as well. The resulting trade-offs of changes in leaf traits for both per leaf area and 155 total canopy rates of functioning thus depend on assumptions about how respiratory costs 156 scale with either total leaf mass or total mass of nitrogen. 157

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1.2 Indirect effects of trait plasticity

Competition for light is recognized to be a dominant driver of community compo-159 sition in tropical forests (e.g., Sterck et al., 2011). In addition to the direct influences 160 described above, tropical tree responses to increasing CO_2 could also indirectly change 161 ecosystem functioning by altering plant competition for light and the relative abundance 162 of different plant types (reviewed by Cusack et al., 2016). The magnitude of leaf trait 163 responses to elevated CO_2 has been observed to differ among tropical tree species (Lovelock 164 et al., 1998; Reekie & Bazzaz, 1989; Winter et al., 2000; Winter & Lovelock, 1999). Vari-165 ation in leaf trait plasticity across tropical tree types could lead to differential changes 166 in the competitive ability for light in response to elevated CO_2 and thus alter the abun-167

dance of competing plant types. LMA and $C:N_{leaf}$ act to modify both leaf area index 168 and biomass through their influence on per leaf area photosynthetic rates as well as to-169 tal leaf area. Leaf area index and biomass in turn can influence plant competitive abil-170 ity. In general, trees which accumulate less biomass may not be able to grow as tall as 171 their neighbors and may therefore become more heavily shaded; while trees with lower 172 leaf area index may not be able to capture as much light or shade their neighbors in com-173 petition for light. Thus changes in these traits are likely to differentially alter the com-174 petitive ability of individual trees depending on their magnitude of plasticity. 175

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1.3 Results from previous studies

Observational manipulation experiments have shown that tropical tree trait responses 177 to CO₂ are species-specific (Lovelock et al., 1998; Reekie & Bazzaz, 1989; Winter et al., 178 2000; Winter & Lovelock, 1999) and suggest that differences in CO_2 responses across species 179 could lead to changes in community structure (reviewed by Cusack et al., 2016). Inves-180 tigating the relationship between individual traits and community outcomes is challeng-181 ing in empirical studies due to multiple, confounding changes in plants treated with el-182 evated CO₂ (Lovelock et al., 1998; Reekie & Bazzaz, 1989). While increases in C:N_{leaf} 183 and increases in LMA both appear to have negative impacts on plants at first consid-184 eration each has the potential to confer advantage. Despite first-order reductions in ni-185 trogen per unit plant area, increasing $C:N_{leaf}$ may benefit plants as an adaptation to 186 N limited conditions. McMurtrie et al. (2008) showed that a temperate monoculture was 187 able to maximize productivity under limited nitrogen availability and elevated CO_2 by 188 increasing $C:N_{leaf}$ which enabled increased leaf area. Increasing LMA could also be ben-189 eficial despite the higher cost of leaf area. Previous modeling studies have used obser-190 vations of LMA and $C:N_{leaf}$ change to simulate changes in assimilation and individual 191 plant growth and found that increasing LMA helps to offset negative effects of higher 192 $C:N_{leaf}$ on N_{area} and photosynthetic rates per leaf area under elevated CO_2 (Luo et al., 193 1994; Ishizaki et al., 2003). 194

None of these studies, however, considered communities of plants or the effects of 195 competition between different plant types, nor did they focus on tropical tree species. 196 Other modeling studies have found variability in plant traits, such as LMA, to have strong 197 influences on plant competition for resources and ecosystem functioning under elevated 198 CO₂ (Ali et al., 2015; Verheijen et al., 2015; Fisher et al., 2010). For example, Ali et al. 199 (2015) found that decreasing LMA (the opposite of the observed change) was beneficial 200 to competitive success under elevated CO_2 , but did not consider the observed concomi-201 tant changes in $C:N_{leaf}$. Thus it remains unclear how the combination of observed trait 202 responses to CO_2 will influence plant competitive dynamics, the survival of responsive 203 trees, and tropical ecosystem structure and functioning in the future. Additionally, Verheijen et al. (2015) allowed LMA to vary with CO_2 (along with other environmental drivers and 205 traits) globally in a dynamic global vegetation model, however they didn't allow LMA 206 influence leaf area index, nor, did they focus on tropical trees. 207

1.4 Modeling Objectives

In this study we explore how plasticity in two key leaf traits mediates tropical ecosys-209 tem carbon uptake and evapotranspirative cooling responses to a doubling of CO_2 us-210 ing an ensemble of simulations of the Functionally Assembled Terrestrial Ecosystem Sim-211 ulator (FATES; Fisher et al., 2015; Koven et al., 2020) vegetation demographic model 212 at a tropical forest test site, Barro Colorado Island, Panama. We investigate how dif-213 ferent levels of plasticity in $C:N_{leaf}$ and LMA (gray squares in Fig. 1) in response to a 214 doubling of CO_2 : 1) modify ecosystem level carbon uptake and evapotranspirative cool-215 ing in the absence of competition; 2) alter biomass and leaf area index; and 3) alter com-216 petitive outcomes when two plant types with different leaf trait plasticity responses com-217 pete. 218



Figure 1. Leaf trait plasticity in response to a doubling of CO_2 in tropical trees for leaf C:N (leaf $gC \ gN^{-1}$) and leaf mass per area ($gC \ m^{-2}$ leaf area). Observed changes across nine tropical tree species (red circles) from Lovelock et al. (1998). Leaf trait plasticity levels sampled for our experiments (gray squares). Diagonal black line indicates where nitrogen per area (N_{area} , $gN \ m^{-2}$ leaf area) remains at control levels. Above the diagonal line nitrogen per area increases ($+N_{area}$) compared to the control; below the diagonal line it decreases ($-N_{area}$).

We test leaf trait plasticity levels that increase $(+N_{area})$, decrease $(-N_{area})$, and 219 maintain N_{area} (= N_{area}). Our simulations do not explicitly represent growth limitation 220 by or competition for nitrogen. Instead, we are able to quantify the change in total canopy 221 nitrogen (g nitrogen m^{-2} ground) required to support an ecosystem with each level of 222 leaf trait plasticity (under doubled CO_2). We find that leaf trait plasticity levels that 223 decrease Narea, - consistent with observed responses of LMA and C:Nleaf, could reduce 224 projections of future carbon uptake and evapotranspiration in the absence of competi-225 tion. However, trees that are able to maintain or increase N_{area} under high CO₂ would 226 likely have a competitive advantage and could therefore maintain higher levels of ecosys-227 tem carbon uptake and evapotranspirative cooling. 228

229 2 Methods

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2.1 Model Overview

We use an ensemble of simulations of the Functionally Assembled Terrestrial Ecosys-231 tem Simulator (FATES; Fisher et al., 2015; Massoud et al., 2019; Koven et al., 2020) em-232 bedded within the Community Land Model version 5 (Lawrence et al., 2018) to test the 233 influence of leaf trait plasticity on tropical ecosystem functioning and competitive dy-234 namics. CLM(FATES) is a cohort-based vegetation demographic model (Fisher et al., 235 2018; Koven et al., 2020), that mechanistically simulates plant ecological dynamics and 236 ecosystem assembly via processes including plant growth, competition for light, recov-237 ery from disturbance, reproduction, mortality, and recruitment. A key feature of the model, 238 based on the ecosystem demography concept (Moorcroft et al., 2001), is that it resolves 239 distributions of vegetation height and time since disturbance, which allows it to simu-240 late competition for light. In the model, disturbance, from tree mortality, fire, or log-241 ging, occurs at some rate across patches of the simulated ecosystem. Plants grow upon 242 ground area within these "patches", which are tracked by an age that represents the time 243 since the last disturbance that that area of ground experienced. Within a patch, indi-244 vidual plants are grouped into "cohorts", which can differ in height and functional type. 245 Thus, cohorts represent individual plants of the same plant type and height as a repre-246 sentative average individual. The height structure of cohorts within a patch determines 247

the light profile experienced by each cohort. The leaf area of taller cohorts in the canopy 248 can shade cohorts deeper in the canopy, which is further depicted as discrete canopy lay-249 ers using the perfect plasticity approximation (Purves et al., 2008). Photosynthesis, res-250 piration, turnover, and mortality, as well as the interaction of these processes with the 251 abiotic environment, control the amount of carbon each cohort can use for growth. Growth 252 and size-dependent allometric equations then determine the height, biomass, and tar-253 get leaf area of each cohort. Thus, carbon uptake is dynamic and influences plant growth, 254 leaf area, and size, which in turn influence competition for light. Radiation streams for 255 direct and diffuse light are calculated at the leaf layer level for each plant type, patch 256 and canopy layer. This incoming energy drives photosynthesis and the surface energy 257 budget, and thus rates of carbon uptake and transpiration. In sum, the model tracks fluxes 258 of carbon, water, and energy throughout the ecosystem. This version of CLM(FATES) 259 does not explicitly represent growth limitation by or competition for nutrients, thus, we 260 implement $C:N_{leaf}$ and LMA plasticity levels that represent the potential influences of 261 nutrient limitation and quantify the total canopy nitrogen required to support each leaf 262 trait plasticity level. 263

Baseline parameters for the model (Table S1) were chosen from a parameter en-264 semble that sampled plant parameters from observations when possible following the meth-265 ods of Koven et al. (2020) and described in Kovenock (2019). In brief, Kovenock (2019) 266 sampled 287 plausible parameterizations from the tropical tree trait space for 12 param-267 eters, 6 of which were based on observations (see further discussion in Supporting In-268 formation Text S1.1 and Kovenock, 2019). Our primary results used the parameteriza-269 tion that allowed the simulated ecosystem to best match present day measurements of 270 leaf area index, above-ground biomass, basal area, net primary productivity, latent heat 271 fluxes, and sensible heat fluxes at our test site, Barro Colorado Island, Panama (also used 272 in Koven et al., 2020). We further test the sensitivity of our results to the next two best 273 performing parameter sets. (See Supporting Information Text S1.1 and S2.1 for details.) 274

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2.2 Leaf trait plasticity estimation and implementation

Our experiments test 13 levels of leaf plasticity in $C:N_{leaf}$ and LMA sampled from 276 the two-dimensional leaf trait plasticity space in Fig. 1 (gray squares). We test the equi-277 librium response to elevated CO_2 rather than representing dynamic changes in time. The 278 leaf trait plasticity space represents both observed (at or below diagonal line in Fig. 1) 279 and hypothetical (above the diagonal line in Fig. 1) levels of leaf trait plasticity. The 280 observed leaf trait plasticity space is estimated from observations of leaf responses to a 281 doubling of CO_2 in nine tropical tree species, including early, mid- and late successional 282 classes (Lovelock et al., 1998, Fig. 1 red circles), and supported by additional studies in 283 tropical trees and many other C3 plant types (e.g., Lovelock et al., 1998; Reekie & Bazzaz, 1989; Winter et al., 2000; Winter & Lovelock, 1999). These observations suggest that 285 both $C:N_{leaf}$ and LMA could increase by as much as one-third in response to a doubling 286 of CO_2 while N_{area} (Eqn 1) decreases or remains constant. Thus, we define observed leaf 287 trait plasticity levels as those that maintain N_{area} at $(=N_{area})$ or below $(-N_{area})$ con-288 trol (CTRL and CC) levels. We also test leaf trait plasticity levels that increase N_{area} 289 $(+N_{area})$, to determine if such a response could help tropical trees enhance their pro-290 ductivity and competitive ability. Given the wide diversity of tropical tree species it is 291 possible that some tropical tree species, (e.g. those with traits that enhance nutrient for-292 aging or fixing capabilities), could in principle increase N_{area} (Fig. 1 above diagonal line) 293 in response to higher CO_2 . 294

²⁹⁵ Changes in C:N_{leaf} and LMA in our simulations drive changes in N_{area}, maximum ²⁹⁶ photosynthetic and respiration rates, and leaf area index. Plasticity in C:N_{leaf} and LMA ²⁹⁷ drives changes in N_{area} (as described above) and this in turn alters maximum rates of ²⁹⁸ photosynthesis (e. g. V_{cmax}, J_{max}, T_{pmax}) and leaf respiration, following Eqn 1. We di-²⁹⁹ rectly implement changes in V_{cmax25} to vary in proportion to N_{area} (which was allowed

to change with changes to $C:N_{leaf}$ and LMA). Changes in the other maximum photo-300 synthetic rates, J_{max25} and T_{pmax25} , are thus also altered as they are are calculated by 301 the model in proportion to V_{cmax25} . Changes in maximum rates of photosynthesis and 302 leaf respiration assume no changes in nitrogen partitioning among photosynthetic en-303 zymes (c.f. Xu et al., 2012). We assume that LMA decreases with canopy depth follow-304 ing the observations of Lloyd et al. (2010) as previously implemented in FATES by Kovenock 305 (2019). In FATES, leaf area index responds dynamically to carbon available for leaf growth, 306 reducing canopy depth until no leaf layers are in negative annual carbon balance (Fisher 307 et al., 2015). See further discussion in Supporting Information Text S1.2 for details. 308

309 2.3 Simulations

We ran simulations for a tropical forest test site at Barro Colorado Island in Panama. 310 All simulations were forced with repeating meteorological data from this site from the 311 years 2003-2016 (Faybishenko et al., 2018). All of our simulations used one or two broadleaf 312 evergreen tropical trees, characteristic of our tropical forest test site. This plant func-313 tional type represents an average of many species within the evergreen tropical tree plant 314 type, and thus here is not meant to resolve trait distinctions between species or succes-315 sional classes. Two control simulations represent a baseline tropical forest ecosystem with-316 out leaf trait plasticity. The first control simulates the ecosystem with CO_2 concentra-317 tion fixed at 400 ppm CO_2 (CTRL; 1xCO₂). The second control is identical to the first 318 except that the ecosystem experiences a fixed atmospheric CO_2 concentration of 800 ppm 319 $(CC; 2xCO_2)$. Plants in these control simulations do not experience leaf trait plastic-320 ity in response to elevated CO_2 (gray square at origin in Fig. 1). The difference between 321 the control simulations (CC - CTRL) quantifies the influence of CO_2 fertilization on the 322 baseline simulated tropical ecosystem. Meteorological air temperature does not change 323 in response to elevated CO_2 in our simulations to reflect the experimental conditions un-324 der which the leaf plasticity was observed. We chose these two levels of CO_2 concentra-325 tion to represent a doubling of CO_2 from current conditions which results in a similar 326 change but slightly higher baseline values compared to the conditions imposed in (Lovelock 327 et al., 1998) from which we draw empirical inference for the magnitude of trait response 328 of tropical trees. 329

We quantify the direct influence of different degrees of leaf trait plasticity, in the 330 absence of competition, using an ensemble of simulations that are identical to the $2xCO_2$ 331 control (CC). Each ensemble member imposes a different level of leaf trait plasticity (gray 332 squares sampled from leaf trait plasticity space in Fig. 1) on all plants in the simulation. 333 We call these simulations of the ecosystem "in absence of competition" because differ-334 ent plant types that compete against each other are not present. We further group leaf 335 trait plasticity experiments by whether they decrease (-N_{area}, below diagonal line in Fig. 336 1), maintain ($=N_{area}$, on diagonal line in Fig. 1), or enhance N_{area} ($+N_{area}$, above di-337 agonal line in Fig. 1). We calculate the total canopy nitrogen required for each "in ab-338 sence of competition" simulation as total canopy leaf carbon (g leaf C m^{-2} ground) di-339 vided by C:N_{leaf} ($g \subset g N^{-1}$). 340

We test the influence of leaf trait plasticity level on competitive ability using a sec-341 ond ensemble of simulations, which we refer to as "pairwise competition" simulations. 342 These simulations are identical to the $2xCO_2$ control (CC) except that each experiment 343 includes two different plant types with identical initial conditions, which are identical 344 in all traits except in their level of leaf trait plasticity. The two plant types are allowed 345 to compete for light within the ecosystem. We repeat these pairwise competition exper-346 iments for all factorial combinations of two levels of leaf trait plasticity sampled from 347 the species-specific points in leaf trait plasticity space (gray squares in Fig. 1), includ-348 ing the control "no leaf trait plasticity" plant type (gray square at origin in Fig. 1). We 349 find that in each competition simulation, one plant type (i.e. one level of leaf trait plas-350 ticity) always eventually out-competes the other. For an analysis of the dynamics of co-351

existence in the FATES model see Koven et al. (2020). We define one plant type as "winning" the competition when it overtakes at least two-thirds of the total ecosystem biomass (see below for further details). We quantify differences in competitive ability due to leaf trait plasticity using a measure called percent wins (% wins), which is the percent of all pairwise competitions a plant type with a given leaf trait plasticity level wins across competition with the other plant types in the ensemble.

The 1xCO₂ control simulation (CTRL) was started from near-bare ground and in-358 tegrated for 700 years. All variables came into equilibrium within 450 years, the time 359 required to grow a mature forest with our model set up. The $2xCO_2$ control simulation 360 (CC) and all experiments were branched from the $1xCO_2$ control simulation (mature for-361 est) at year 500 and experienced an abrupt doubling of CO_2 to a time-invariant concen-362 tration of 800 ppm CO_2 . The $2xCO_2$ control and experiment simulations were run to 363 the point that the community was dominated by one plant type considered the "winner". 364 Specifically, every simulation was run for 3,500 years, at which point 99% of competi-365 tions between plant types with different trait changes were complete (one plant type reached 366 at least 95% of the ecosystem biomass). In the remaining 1% of competitions one plant type had become dominant (taken over at least 67% of ecosystem biomass and trend-368 ing towards overtaking all ecosystem biomass). We analyze the last 100 years of each sim-369 ulation as our equilibrium ecosystem. 370

2.4 Statistical Analysis

We quantify the influence of leaf trait plasticity in the absence of competition (i.e. 372 simulations with only one plant type) using 1) differences in annual mean ecosystem prop-373 erties and 2) relationships between leaf trait plasticity levels and annual mean ecosys-374 tem properties across simulations. We use bootstrap methods with model years as the 375 unit of replication (n = 50,000) to construct confidence intervals for annual mean leaf 376 area index, biomass, net primary productivity, evapotranspiration, and total canopy ni-377 trogen and test for differences between simulations. We use bootstrapping methods be-378 cause some variables have time series that are non-normally distributed, have unequal 379 variances, and temporal autocorrelation. The 100 model years we analyze for each vari-380 able are unique despite repeating the 14 years of meteorological forcing, as ecological dy-381 namics also influence the environment (e.g., light availability) and ecosystem structure 382 and functioning in our simulations. We use simple, multiple, and stepwise linear regres-383 sion methods to test for relationships between leaf trait plasticity levels (C: N_{leaf} , LMA, 384 N_{area}) and annual mean ecosystem properties across simulations. Correlations between 385 percent wins and annual mean net primary productivity and evapotranspiration across 386 simulations were tested using Pearson's linear correlation coefficient. Differences, rela-387 tionships, and correlations were considered statistically significant at the 95% confidence 388 level. (See Supporting Information Text S1.4 for details.) 389

390 **3 Results**

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3.1 Elevated CO_2 response in the control simulation

Previous observations, simulations, and theory show that elevated atmospheric CO_2 392 concentration enhances photosynthesis and reduces stomatal conductance, which has the 393 potential to enhance productivity and reduce evapotranspiration at the ecosystem scale 394 (e.g, Cernusak et al., 2013; Cusack et al., 2016; Lloyd & Farquhar, 2008; Zhu et al., 2016; 395 Lloyd & Farquhar, 2008; Swann et al., 2016; De Kauwe et al., 2013, and references therein). 396 In our control simulation (no leaf trait plasticity) a doubling of atmospheric CO_2 con-397 centration from 400 ppm to 800 ppm (CC-CTRL) increases annual mean net primary 398 productivity (+74.2%), leaf area index (+7.0%), and biomass (+102.6%), and reduces 399 evapotranspiration (-9.2%) (Table 1, Fig. 2). As noted in the methods section, the FATES 400 model we use here does not explicitly represent nutrient limitation, thus we directly im-401



Figure 2. Annual mean (a) biomass $(kgC m^{-2})$ and (b) leaf area index $(m^2 m^{-2})$ and (c) net primary productivity $(gC m^{-2} s^{-1})$ for the 1xCO₂ control, 2xCO₂ control (black), and the following leaf trait plasticity levels in the absence of competition: a one-third increase in leaf C:N alone (+CN, light green), a one-third increase in leaf mass per area alone (+LMA, purple), and a one-third increase in both leaf C:N and leaf mass per area (+CN+LMA, dark green). A bootstrap 95% confidence interval for the mean value all fall within the size of the markers.

plement leaf trait changes in our experiments that represent potential influences of nu trient limitation and quantify the total canopy nitrogen required to support each leaf trait
 plasticity level.

The actual expected magnitude of tropical forest responses to elevated CO_2 is highly 405 uncertain and little experimental data exists, particularly at the ecosystem scale (Lloyd 406 & Farquhar, 2008; Hickler et al., 2008; Mahowald et al., 2016; Cusack et al., 2016; Norby 407 et al., 2016; Fleischer et al., 2019; Holm et al., 2020). However, our control simulation 408 response to elevated CO_2 shows reasonable agreement with observations from temper-409 ate forest FACE experiments (De Kauwe et al., 2013, 2014) if one assumes a linear scal-410 ing with increasing CO_2 (Cernusak et al., 2019). For example, a +200ppm CO_2 increase 411 at Duke Forest enhanced net primary productivity by approximately 30% (De Kauwe 412 et al., 2013), which when scaled to +400 pm results in a +60% increase in net primary 413 productivity (we find +74.2%, in the absence of N limitation). Similarly, when scaled 414 to +400 ppm these FACE experiments saw changes equivalent to approximately +6% and 415 +30% in leaf area index at Oak Ridge and Duke, respectively (we find +7%); -40% in 416 transpiration at Oak Ridge (no significant change at Duke Forest) (we find +9.2%); and 417 +100% in biomass increment at Duke (we find total biomass changes, which are not di-418 rectly equivalent, of +102%). Thus our modeled changes are all roughly comparable with 419 these ranges, with slightly higher modeled increases in net primary productivity in our 420 tropical simulations compared to these observational estimates from temperate forests. 421 Lastly, changes in each of these ecosystem properties in our control simulation also fall 422 within the simulated ranges from 11 Earth system models at these two temperate for-423 est FACE sites after linearly scaling for CO₂ concentration (De Kauwe et al., 2013, 2014). 424 While our control simulation response to elevated CO_2 is comparable to those estimated 425 from observations in temperate forests, tropical forest responses may of course be sub-426 ject to different constraints (e.g., De Graaff et al., 2006; Luo et al., 2006; Hickler et al., 427 2008; Zaehle et al., 2014; Fleischer et al., 2019). Davies-Barnard et al. (2020) illustrate 428 that for five CMIP6 class models with active nitrogen cycles, the fertilization impact of 429

 $\begin{array}{ll} _{430} & +200 \text{ppm CO}_2 \text{ had a mean net primary productivity response of 16-18\% for models other} \\ _{431} & \text{than CLM4.5 (which has an anomalously strong N limitation) which is about half the} \\ _{432} & \text{size of what we find (37\% for +200 ppm). These models, however, are all subject to N} \\ _{433} & \text{limitation, and also show strong spatial variation, with tropical forests showing higher} \\ _{434} & \text{than average simulated CO}_2 \text{ fertilization rates.} \end{array}$

435 436

3.2 Influence of leaf trait plasticity on canopy structure in absence of competition

We find that imposed leaf trait plasticity alters net primary productivity, biomass, 437 and leaf area index responses to a doubling of CO_2 in the absence of competition (Fig. 438 2). Under elevated CO_2 , increasing $C:N_{leaf}$ by one-third (the upper bound of our ob-439 served range) diminishes the increase in net primary productivity (-334 $gCm^{-2}s^{-1}$) and 440 biomass (-10.6 $kgCm^{-2}$), as well as decreasing leaf area index (-0.7 m^2m^{-2}) compared 441 to the control plant type (CN - CC). In contrast, increasing LMA by one-third enhances 442 the increases in both simulated biomass $(+7.2 \ kgCm^{-2})$ and leaf area index $(+1.4 \ m^2m^{-2})$ 443 compared to the control plant type (LMA - CC), via increases in net primary produc-444 tivity $(+304 \ gCm^{-2}s^{-1})$ from increasing N_{area} that has a larger effect than the more 445 costly leaf construction. Increasing both $C:N_{leaf}$ and LMA simultaneously by one-third 446 under a doubling of CO_2 (CNLMA) results in only a slightly reduced increase in biomass 447 $(-2.6 \ kgCm^{-2})$ and no change in leaf area index $(0.0 \ m^2m^{-2})$ or net primary produc-448 tivity (-0.8 $gCm^{-2}s^{-1}$) compared to the control plant type (CNLMA - CC). 449

The first-order impacts are that, for any given increase in $C: N_{leaf}$, a simultane-450 ous increase in LMA allows plants to maintain biomass and leaf area index that are closer 451 to the control plant type. It is worth noting additionally that the simultaneous change 452 is not a perfect cancellation between the two factors. When LMA increases in isolation 453 leaves get thicker and more productive per area with increased N_{area} . When C:N_{leaf} is 454 increased, Narea and net primary productivity decrease. When both factors occur simul-455 taneously, thicker leaves compensate for a lower mass density of nitrogen. The two fac-456 tors cancel one another out in terms of net primary productivity, as N_{area} is conserved, 457 however biomass is reduced slightly relative to the case with no leaf change. We hypoth-458 esize that this happens because thicker leaves require more carbon allocated to leaves 459 relative to wood and thus the overall whole plant turnover of carbon is faster resulting 460 in a smaller total biomass. Consistent with this hypothesis, we find that the fractional 461 allocation of net primary productivity to leaves goes up even for the case where N_{area} 462 is conserved (by +0.023, see Table S2), and the lifetime of total biomass decreases (by 463 -0.72 years, see Table S2). 464

465

3.3 Influence of leaf trait plasticity on competitive ability

We find that the control plant type, with no leaf trait plasticity (and thus no change in N_{area}), is more competitively advantageous than all leaf trait plasticity levels sampled where N_{area} either decreases or remains constant under a doubling of CO₂ (Fig. 3). The control plant type (origin in Fig. 3) wins all of pairwise competitions against plant types with leaf trait plasticity levels sampled from the trait changes that maintain N_{area} (= N_{area} , along black dashed diagonal line in Fig. 3) or reduce N_{area} (- N_{area} , below black dashed diagonal line in Fig. 3).

Increasing C:N_{leaf} strongly diminished competitive ability, as evidenced by the decreasing percentage of competitions a plant type wins as C:N_{leaf} increases (left to right, Fig. 3). At a given C:N_{leaf}, increasing LMA typically enhances competitive ability. At very high C:N_{leaf} there is little change, (bottom to top, Fig. 3) however, reflecting the trade-off between the impacts on N_{area} (reduced productivity) and leaf area index (increased productivity). This results from decreased net primary productivity, biomass, and leaf area index, as N_{area} is reduced (Fig. 4).

These results from our competition experiments are consistent with our findings 480 in the absence of competition-higher C:N_{leaf} leads to lower net primary productivity, 481 biomass, and leaf area index and increasing LMA results in net primary productivity, 482 biomass, and leaf area index gains (Fig. 2). However, LMA increases sampled from plas-483 ticity levels that maintain or decrease N_{area} do not, in this model, fully compensate for 484 the negative influence of higher $C:N_{leaf}$ on competitive ability at any level. Furthermore, 485 the competitive benefit of increasing LMA diminishes at higher $C: N_{leaf}$, as evidenced 486 by the sinusoidal shape of the 50% wins shading (white) in Fig. 3. In sum, we find that 487 plant types that can maintain higher N_{area} in high CO_2 , have greater competitive abil-488 ity. 489

Leaf trait plasticity levels that enhance N_{area} (+ N_{area} , above diagonal line in Fig. 3) enhance competitive ability compared to the control leaf type, as well as all leaf trait plasticity levels sampled from the = N_{area} and - N_{area} space (Fig. 3). This is consistent with our finding that increasing LMA in isolation enhances biomass and leaf area index beyond the control case in the absence of competition (Fig. 2).

495

3.4 Changes in carbon uptake and evapotranspirative cooling

Ecosystem carbon uptake is tightly coupled to changes in LMA and $C: N_{leaf}$, both 496 directly via their impacts on photosynthetic rate, and indirectly via impacts on leaf area 497 index. In our experiments we impose changes in leaf traits, which result in emergent rates 498 of carbon uptake, while in a fully evolving system we expect that the carbon uptake rates 499 and nutrient availability are likely involved in setting the leaf traits to begin with (see 500 further discussion in section 4.3). Evapotranspiration is additionally a downstream re-501 sult of stomatal conductance and leaf area index. Given that the meteorological condi-502 tions are the same in our experiments and our control, the changes in ET that we found 503 result from changes to plant traits and functioning only, and tend to change in concert 504 with carbon fluxes. Leaf trait plasticity levels sampled from the $-N_{area}$ space are asso-505 ciated with lower carbon uptake and evapotranspiration compared to the control response 506 to a doubling of CO_2 (CC) in our experiments reflecting the influence of reduced pho-507 to synthetic capacity (Fig. 5, Table 1). On average the observed changes in $C:N_{leaf}$ and 508 LMA reduce the increase in annual mean net primary productivity by -9.2% and further 509 reduce annual mean ET by -4.4% compared to the 2xCO₂ control ($-N_{area}$ - CC). The 510 largest reduction in net primary productivity (-14.7%) and evapotranspiration (-7.0%)511 results from the leaf trait plasticity level that increases $C:N_{leaf}$ by one-third without a 512 co-occurring increase in LMA (CN - CC), a response which was not specifically observed 513 by Lovelock et al. (1998). 514

Leaf trait plasticity levels that maintain N_{area} equal to the control (= N_{area}) also 515 maintain carbon uptake and evapotranspiration at control levels (Fig. 5, Table 1). An-516 nual mean net primary productivity and evapotranspiration do not differ significantly 517 between $=N_{area}$ simulations and the control simulation under a doubling of CO₂ ($=N_{area}$) 518 - CC). Leaf changes that enhance N_{area} (+ N_{area}) increase carbon uptake and moder-519 ate the reduction in evapotranspiration compared to the control response to a doubling 520 of CO_2 (Fig. 5, Table 1). On average $+N_{area}$ leaf trait plasticity levels increase annual 521 mean net primary productivity by +8.4% and lessen the reduction in evapotranspira-522 tion by +4.8% ($+N_{area}$ - CC). The largest enhancement of net primary productivity (+13.4%) 523 and evapotranspiration (+7.9%) results from the leaf trait plasticity level that increases 524 LMA by one-third but does not alter $C:N_{leaf}$ (LMA - CC). 525

Leaf trait plasticity levels that confer a higher competitive advantage also have a higher carbon uptake (Fig. 5). We expect that more N_{area} generally leads to higher productivity and thus higher associated evapotranspiration. The competitive ability of a plant type with a given level of leaf trait plasticity, as measured by the percent of competitions won against plant types with other levels of plasticity (percent wins), is significantly correlated with net primary productivity (r = 0.91) and evapotranspiration (r = 0.91).

3.5 Total canopy nitrogen

Progressive nitrogen limitation is hypothesized to limit plant growth in response 533 to elevated CO_2 (Luo et al., 2004) and may be a cause of $C:N_{leaf}$ and LMA plasticity 534 in response to elevated CO₂ (Poorter et al., 2009, 1997; Pritchard et al., 1999; Roumet 535 et al., 1999; Meyerholt & Zaehle, 2015). Here we report the total amounts of canopy ni-536 trogen required for ecosystems with differing levels of leaf trait plasticity, and compare 537 them to the $1xCO_2$ control simulation (CTRL), which provides a reference for the amount 538 of nitrogen used by canopies in the simulated current day ecosystem. Variation in to-539 tal canopy nitrogen across simulations results from the leaf trait plasticity changes we 540 imposed and changes in overall leaf carbon, which is an emergent property of each sim-541 ulation. 542

Under 1xCO₂ conditions, our control simulation (CTRL) had a total canopy ni-543 trogen content of 8.3 gNm^{-2} ground. Doubling CO₂ increased the control ecosystems 544 total canopy nitrogen content by $+0.3 \ gNm^{-2}$ or +3.2% (Fig. 3 red contours). This in-545 crease is only due to the increase in leaf biomass, which at the canopy level in FATES 546 is governed by a combination of within-plant optimization of leaf biomass to maximize 547 canopy carbon export combined with the ability of plants to survive in the understory, 548 both of which are expected to promote slightly higher leaf carbon under the elevated CO_2 549 conditions. Leaf trait plasticity levels that maintain N_{area} at control levels (= N_{area}) but 550 have increases in both $C:N_{leaf}$ and LMA also increase the total amount of canopy ni-551 trogen required beyond the $1xCO_2$ control level, although by slightly less than the $2xCO_2$ 552 control, with the mean change across $=N_{area}$ simulations ranging from 2.1% to 3.0% ($=N_{area}$ 553 - CTRL; Fig. 3). The -N_{area} scenarios all maintain canopy N content at or below the 554 1xCO₂ control level (-N_{area}; Fig. 3). Simulation with high C:N and unchanged LMA low-555 ered canopy N content by as much as -23.2%. 556

557 4 Discussion

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4.1 Large-scale climate implications

We find that observed changes in leaf C:N ratios and LMA reduce model predic-559 tions of tropical tree productivity, evapotranspiration, and competitive ability under high CO_2 and alter carbon and water fluxes, with implications for projections of future large-561 scale climate. We expect that reductions in evapotranspirative cooling over tropical forests 562 would lead directly to local warming (Kovenock & Swann, 2018). Reductions in carbon 563 uptake leave more CO_2 in the atmosphere thus if such reductions were to be widespread 564 over tropical forests there might be global scale implications for warming through the 565 greenhouse effect of CO_2 (Kovenock & Swann, 2018). We find that, as is intuitive, trop-566 ical trees which are more able to maintain their leaf nitrogen per unit area near present 567 day levels have the highest competitive abilities and also show the smallest changes in 568 carbon and water fluxes (Fig. 5), suggesting that if changes in plant type abundance shift 569 to reflect the most competitive members of the community this will allow maintenance 570 of higher gas exchange rates, leaf area index, and biomass. 571

572

4.2 Constraints from canopy nitrogen budgets

Maintaining present-day leaf N_{area} with a doubling of CO₂ requires an increase in canopy nitrogen for the control case (CC; red contour lines in Fig. 3) to support the increase in leaf area index (Fig. 2). Thus if we assume that ecosystem N limitation imposes a requirement for conservation of canopy N_{area} , this limits the possible leaf trait plasticity space by excluding the control and central diagonal band along with the en-



Figure 3. The percent of pairwise competitions won (% Wins, color shading and black numbers) and percent change in total canopy nitrogen compared to the $1xCO_2$ control (red contours) for each leaf trait plasticity level of leaf C:N and leaf mass per area. Percent wins for sampled trait changes (black numbers). Diagonal line (dashed black) indicates where nitrogen per area $(N_{area}, gN m^{-2} \text{ leaf area})$ remains at control levels ($=N_{area}$). Leaf trait plasticity levels below the diagonal line reduce N_{area} ($-N_{area}$) compared to the control plant type. Leaf trait plasticity levels above the diagonal line enhance N_{area} ($+N_{area}$) compared to the control plant type. Linear interpolation used to estimate percent wins and change in total canopy nitrogen between sampled trait changes.

tire upper-left triangle in Fig. 3. This limitation of nitrogen may thus partially explain 578 why the control case, where LMA and $C:N_{leaf}$ are simultaneously conserved, is not ob-579 served in the real world. Although phosphorus limitation is thought to be the primary 580 nutrient constraint on plant growth in the tropics, evidence from empirical studies and 581 manipulation experiments suggests that tree growth is also limited by nitrogen in the 582 tropics (e.g. Winter et al., 2001; reviewed in Cernusak et al., 2013). Most of the changes 583 in leaf traits observed by Lovelock et al. (1998) show reduced N_{area} , which in our sim-584 ulations leads to a reduction in total canopy nitrogen. This could be due to a change in 585 nitrogen allocation. For example, nitrogen allocation to roots could increase or increases 586 in woody biomass could require greater total amounts of nitrogen (see discussion below). 587

588

4.3 Why do leaf changes occur?

Our model results suggest that, in the context of the FATES parameterization used 589 here, observed increases in $C:N_{leaf}$ in response to elevated CO_2 do not confer a compet-590 itive advantage. We find that plant types in which $C:N_{leaf}$ increases in response to el-591 evated CO_2 suffer in several metrics of plant fitness, including biomass, leaf area index, 592 net primary productivity, and competitive ability. Thus our results suggest that changes 593 in $C:N_{leaf}$ are likely forced upon plants by changes in elevated CO_2 , rather than occur-594 ring as a beneficial acclimation. This is consistent with the leading hypothesis for the 595 mechanism underlying $C:N_{leaf}$ increases with elevated CO_2 . Nitrogen limitation has been 596 proposed as a cause for lower mass-based nitrogen concentrations in leaves (e.g., Poorter 597 et al., 1997; Winter et al., 2001; Fyllas et al., 2009; Cusack et al., 2016). As carbon diox-598 ide fertilizes plant growth the demand for nutrients is likely to increase and eventually 599 result in the depletion of nitrogen available for growth (Luo et al., 2004; Hungate et al., 600 2003). The limited availability of nitrogen, as well as accumulation of nonstructural car-601



Figure 4. Changes in (a) biomass $(kgC m^{-2})$, (b) leaf area index $(m^2 m^{-2})$, (c) net primary productivity $(gC m^{-2} yr^{-1})$, and (d) evapotranspiration $(W m^{-2})$ compared to the 2xCO₂ control (color shading and black numbers) and percent change in total canopy nitrogen compared to the 1xCO₂ control (red contours, identical on all plots) for each leaf trait plasticity level of leaf C:N and leaf mass per area. Diagonal line (dashed black) indicates where nitrogen per area $(N_{area}, gN m^{-2}$ leaf area) remains at control levels. Leaf trait plasticity levels at or below the diagonal line reduce N_{area} (- N_{area}) compared to the control plant type. Leaf trait plasticity levels above the diagonal line enhance N_{area} (+ N_{area}) compared to the control plant type. Changes were measured for sampled trait changes (black numbers). Linear interpolation used to estimate changes between sampled trait changes.



Figure 5. Annual mean (a) net primary productivity (NPP, $gC m^{-2} yr^{-1}$) and (b) evapotranspiration (ET, $W m^{-2}$) for the 1xCO₂ control, 2xCO₂ control (no leaf trait plasticity), and 12 ecosystems each consisting entirely of one plant type with a different level of leaf trait plasticity sampled from the -N_{area}, =N_{area}, and +N_{area} trait plasticity spaces. Color indicates the percentage of all pairwise competitions won by each level of leaf trait plasticity (% Wins). Error bars show bootstrap 95% confidence intervals for the mean value.

bohydrates due to sink limitation of growth, could lower mass-based leaf nitrogen con-602 centrations and result in higher C:N_{leaf} (e.g., Poorter et al., 1997; Winter et al., 2001). 603 Manipulation experiments in which tropical tree seedlings are treated with elevated CO_2 604 provide evidence that CO_2 stimulation of growth is enhanced by the addition of soil nu-605 trients, suggesting that nutrient limitation does indeed impact leaf trait responses (Winter 606 et al., 2001). Plants in which $C:N_{leaf}$ increases more in response to elevated CO_2 may 607 be those that are unable to adjust to lower nitrogen availability or higher competition 608 for nitrogen. Tropical trees with traits that allow them to better acquire nitrogen, for 609 example associations with nitrogen fixing bacteria or fungi, may be better able to main-610 tain $C:N_{leaf}$ levels under elevated CO_2 with advantages for growth and competitive suc-611 cess (Lovelock et al., 1998; Cusack et al., 2016; Cernusak et al., 2013). 612

Further, it has been suggested that the increase in LMA with elevated CO_2 is me-613 diated by nitrogen (or other resource limitation of plant growth causing nonstructural 614 carbohydrates accumulation in leaves; Poorter et al., 2009, 1997; Pritchard et al., 1999; 615 Roumet et al., 1999). We find that coordinated responses of both LMA and $C:N_{leaf}$ are 616 beneficial: plants that are able to increase LMA most for a given level of $C:N_{leaf}$ change 617 are those that are best able to maintain high biomass, leaf area index, productivity, and 618 competitive ability. Concurrently increasing LMA along with C:N_{leaf} leads to mainte-619 nance of equal N_{area} by counteracting decreases in mass-based nitrogen concentration 620 (Luo et al., 1994; Ishizaki et al., 2003). Indeed, we found that even when limited to con-621 trol levels of total canopy nitrogen, plants could maintain close to equal amounts of N_{area} . 622 As nitrogen is an essential component of photosynthetic enzymes, maintaining N_{area} can 623 maintain area-based maximum photosynthetic rates (Kattge et al., 2009, 2011; Walker 624 et al., 2014; Norby et al., 2017), and we find that net primary productivity closely fol-625 lows the amount of N_{area} in our simulations. Observations by Lovelock et al. (1998) of 626 tropical tree leaf trait responses to a doubling of CO_2 (Fig. 1) suggest that increases in 627 LMA are generally higher for larger increases in $C:N_{leaf}$, helping to maintain N_{area} – 628 and thus functioning – closer to control levels (Fig. 5). While it is logical that increas-629 ing LMA concurrently with $C:N_{leaf}$ is advantageous to plants, this leaves open the ques-630 tion of why these two factors would change in the first place if canopy nitrogen is the 631 limiting constraint. 632

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4.4 Other potential leaf trait plasticity trade-offs

Other coordinated plant plasticity responses to elevated CO_2 and nutrient limita-634 tion could further influence the impacts of leaf trait plasticity on competitive ability and 635 tropical forest functioning. Observations show that many trees, including tropical trees, 636 enhance carbon and nitrogen allocation to root growth at the expense of leaf growth in 637 response to elevated CO₂ (e.g., Luo et al., 2006, Körner and Arnone, 1992; reviewed in 638 Cusack et al., 2016; Cernusak et al., 2013). Such partitioning of nitrogen away from leaves 639 could increase $C:N_{leaf}$ but benefit plants if they use the nitrogen to build other struc-640 tures that help alleviate resource limitation, such as roots that can access further nu-641 trients (reviewed in Cusack et al., 2016; Cernusak et al., 2013) although, in some cases, 642 this growth strategy has been found to be ineffective (Norby et al., 2010). Our primary 643 results isolate the influence of leaf trait plasticity changes and do not include changes 644 in the target ratio of root mass to leaf area. However, we test the sensitivity of our re-645 sults to increasing target root mass in coordination with leaf trait plasticity using ad-646 ditional simulations (Supporting Information Text S1.3.2 and S2.1). In these additional 647 experiments, trees increase target root mass in proportion with increases in LMA. This 648 accounts for the additional carbon cost of growing more roots to support the additional 649 650 nutrient requirements for greater leaf mass. This makes it even more costly to increase LMA, which we expect should reduce the competitive advantage of doing so. In this case, 651 we find that the control plant type is always at competitive advantage, and the bene-652 fit of increasing LMA that we saw in our primary results no longer consistently occurs 653

(Fig. S3). This result highlights the importance of considering the whole plant system and coordinated trade-offs that might occur under modified environmental conditions.

Other potential trade-offs for leaf trait plasticity responses could be thought to al-656 ter their influence on tropical forest ecosystem dynamics and functioning. For example, 657 enhanced leaf lifespan is associated with greater LMA across species (Wright et al., 2004) 658 and could be expected to further enhance productivity and competitive outcomes. How-659 ever, this relationship across species does not necessarily hold within species (Anderegg 660 et al., 2018; Fisher et al., 2015; Lusk et al., 2008) and varies in response to elevated car-661 bon dioxide (Norby et al., 2003, 2010; Taylor et al., 2008; Lovelock et al., 1998), thus we chose not to couple increases in leaf lifespan with increases in LMA in our experiments. 663 Higher carbon to nitrogen ratios are also associated with defense against herbivory (reviewed 664 in Cusack et al., 2016), which could increase with climate change (e.g. Deutsch et al., 665 2018) but are not considered in our simulations. 666

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4.5 Indirect effects of plant type abundance

With limited changes in spatial distributions of plant types, the observed plastic 668 response of plants under high CO_2 is likely to lead to decreases in N_{area} and thus to over-669 all decreases in carbon uptake and evapotranspirative cooling. On the other hand, if the 670 distribution of plants in an ecosystem changes due to differences in competitive ability, 671 plant types that can maintain higher N_{area} and thus confer greater competitive advan-672 tage could, in the longer term, increase in abundance and bring carbon uptake and evap-673 otranspirative cooling more in line with projections that assume leaf traits remain as in 674 the control. 675

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4.6 Potential role of rising temperatures

Warming temperatures could be expected to alter the response of leaf traits to CO_2 , 677 with implications for the influence of leaf trait plasticity on ecosystem functioning and 678 composition. For example, warmer temperatures have been found to be associated with 679 lower leaf nitrogen content across a spatial gradients in present-day tropical forests (Cusack 680 et al., 2016; Fyllas et al., 2009; Tully & Lawrence, 2010), plausibly via the negative im-681 pacts of plant respiration with high nitrogen content (Cernusak et al., 2013). Such de-682 creases in leaf nutrient concentration could amplify the leaf responses to elevated CO_2 683 we test here (unless there were accompanying changes in the allocation of N to differ-684 ent plant processes). Higher temperatures have been associated with lower LMA in ma-685 nipulation experiments (Poorter et al., 2009), as well as across an elevational gradient 686 in present-day tropical forests (Doughty et al., 2018). This influence could be expected 687 to offset the LMA increase in response to CO_2 we test here. However, warming and CO_2 are hypothesized to influence LMA through different mechanisms (leaf expansion vs. ac-689 cumulation of carbohydrates, respectively), making it difficult to predict the combined 690 influence of these two environmental factors on LMA. Thus, the combined influence of 691 elevated CO_2 and temperature on tropical tree traits remains poorly constrained (Cusack 692 et al., 2016; Cernusak et al., 2013). 693

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4.7 Recommendations for including leaf trait plasticity in projections of future climate

We illustrate here that a better understanding of tropical tree responses to environmental change, as well as the use of plant competition models, will be needed to accurately include the effects of leaf trait plasticity in projections of future climate.

First, more observations are required to constrain tropical tree leaf responses to multiple environmental factors - including CO₂, nutrient availability, and temperature - and how these responses differ by tree type (e.g. successional class or species) and developmental stage (e.g. Cusack et al., 2016). Our ability to characterize leaf trait plasticity
in response to environmental change may ultimately require a better understanding of
whole plant carbon and nutrient dynamics, as leaf carbon and nitrogen can depend on
supply and demand from other plant organs (e.g. Luo et al., 1994; Pritchard et al., 1999;
Norby et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2012; Winter et al., 2001; Zaehle et al., 2014).

Second, numerous models of the terrestrial biosphere represent the cycling of nu-707 trients, and a subset of these represent flexibility in tissue C:N ratios in response to N 708 availability (Zaehle & Friend, 2010; Zaehle et al., 2014). Here we show that simulation 709 710 of changes in C:N ratio in isolation of apparently coordinated changes in LMA may overestimate the impact of changing stoichiometry on future gas exchange. Complex as it 711 is, models should thus strive to represent the temporal dynamics of important plant traits 712 themselves—including LMA—under changing environmental conditions. Here we test 713 the impacts of modifying plant traits as observed, but many studies aim to predict such 714 plant properties from principles of evolutionary optimality theory (McMurtrie & Dewar, 715 2011; Prentice et al., 2014; Dewar et al., 2012; Thomas & Williams, 2014; Xu et al., 2012), 716 for example, to maximize leaf or canopy carbon export per unit N investment, or sim-717 ilar metrics. Optimality models typically predict single optimal solutions for a given set 718 of conditions, without consideration of demographic time lags or genetic limitations on 719 trait plasticity. Vegetation demographic models, wherein competing plants might move 720 the community mean towards an optimum, provide an alternative means of predicting 721 plant trait dynamics in time (Weng et al., 2015; Falster et al., 2017; Fisher et al., 2018). 722 Using a model of plant competition, we show here that changes in leaf traits can alter 723 plant competitive dynamics and the abundance of different plant types with implications 724 for ecosystem functioning. Ideally, some consideration of the degree to which traits are 725 plastic within existing species would provide the best means to combining these two ap-726 proaches (Fisher & Koven, 2020), but would require detailed studies of limits to plas-727 ticity (e.g. Geange et al., 2017; Power et al., 2019). Consideration of alternative opti-728 mal approaches to trait prediction will be investigated in future versions of FATES. 729

730 4.8 Implications

Here we show that leaf trait plasticity in response to elevated CO₂ could alter tropical forest influences on climate directly, by altering the functioning of tropical trees, and indirectly, by modifying plant competitive dynamics and the abundance of different plant types. As such, including the effects of leaf trait plasticity could have a significant influence on projections of future climate. These results further support the need for more observations of tropical tree responses to environmental change and the use of plant competition models within earth system models used to predict future climate change.

738 Acknowledgments

MK, ALSS, CDK, RAF designed the study, all authors contributed to model develop-739 ment, MK completed the simulations, MK analyzed the output, all authors contributed 740 to interpretations of the results, and MK, ALSS wrote the paper with input from all au-741 thors. We thank Janneke Hille Ris Lambers an Elizabeth Van Volkenburgh for their in-742 sightful suggestions on an earlier version of this manuscript. We acknowledge support 743 from the National Science Foundation AGS-1553715 to the University of Washington. 744 RAF acknowledges the support of the National Center for Atmospheric Research, which 745 is a major facility sponsored by the National Science Foundation under Cooperative Agree-746 ment 1852977. CDK acknowledges support by the Director, Office of Science, Office of 747 Biological and Environmental Research of the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE BER) 748 under Contract DE-AC02-05CH11231 through the Early Career Research Program, the 749 Regional and Global Model Analysis Program (RUBISCO SFA). CDK, RAF, and RGK 750 acknowledge support from the DOE-BER Next Generation Ecosystem Experiment-Tropics 751 (NGEE-Tropics) project. All simulations were run on the National Center for Atmospheric 752

	Biomass (kg	$C m^{-2}$)	LAI (m ²	$(2 m^{-2})$	NPP $(qC m^{-})$	$-2 yr^{-1}$)
	Mean (CI_{95})	$\% (CI_{95})$	Mean (CI_{95})	% (CI ₉₅)	Mean (CI_{95})	% (CI ₉₅)
double CO_2	30.1	102.6	0.45	7	967.8	74.2
2	(30, 30.2)	(102.1,103)	(0.43, 0.46)	(6.8, 7.2)	(958.8,976.8)	(73.2,75.1)
-Narea	-(.1)	(19, 11, 7)	-0.3	(7572)	-208.0 (215 7 201 6)	(05.80)
	-1.6	(-12,-11.7)	(-0.51,-0.49)	-0.3	-215.7,-201.0)	(-9.0,-8.9)
$=N_{area}$	(-1.71.5)	(-2.92.6)	(-0.03, -0.01)	(-0.4, -0.1)	(-7.7.6.8)	(-0.3.0.3)
	4.1	(2.0, 2.0)	0.76	11.1	191.9	8.4
$+N_{area}$	(4.4.2)	(6.7.7)	(0.75.0.77)	(10.9.11.3)	(184.4.199.6)	(8.1.8.8)
C 11	-10.6	-17.8	-0.75	-11	-334.3	-14.7
+CN	(-10.7, -10.5)	(-18, -17.6)	(-0.76, -0.74)	(-11.1, -10.8)	(-342.4,-326.3)	(-15,-14.4)
	7.2	12.2	1.36	20	304.5	13.4
+LMA	(7.1, 7.4)	(11.9, 12.4)	(1.34, 1.38)	(19.7, 20.2)	(294.2, 314.9)	(12.9, 13.9)
	-2.6	-4.3	-0.03	-0.4	-0.8	0
+CN+LMA	(-2.7, -2.4)	(-4.5, -4.1)	(-0.04, -0.02)	(-0.6, -0.3)	(-9.9, 8.4)	(-0.4, 0.4)
	ET ($W r$	n^{-2})	Total Canopy	N $(gN \ m^{-2})$		
	Mean (CI_{95})	% (CI ₉₅)	Mean (CI_{95})	% (CI ₉₅)		
double CO	-7.3	-9.2	0.26	3.2		
double CO_2	(-7.8, -6.8)	(-9.8, -8.6)	(0.26, 0.27)	(3.1, 3.3)		
N	-3.2	-4.4	-			
-i varea	(-3.6, -2.8)	(-5, -3.9)	_	-		
-N	0	-0.1	_	_		
-i varea	(-0.4, 0.3)	(-0.6, 0.5)				
$+N_{max}$	3.4	4.8	_	_		
1 - area	(3,3.8)	(4.2, 5.3)				
+CN	-5	-7	-1.93	-23.2		
1 0 0 1	(-5.5,-4.6)	(-7.7,-6.4)	(-1.93, -1.92)	(-23.3,-23.2)		
+LMA	5.7	7.9	3.02			
	(5.1, 6.2)	(7.2,8.6)	(3,3.03)	(36.2, 36.5)		
+CN+LMA	-0.1	-0.1	0.18	2.1		
	(-0.6, 0.4)	(-0.8, 0.6)	(0.17, 0.18)	(2.1, 2.2)		

Biomass, Leaf area index (LAI), net primary productivity (NPP), evapotranspiration (ET), and total canopy nitrogen (total canopy N) mean and percent (%) changes. "Double CO₂" mean and percent changes are calculated as (CC - CTRL) and (CC - CTRL)/CTRL, respectively, where CTRL and CC are the control simulations at 400 ppm and 800 ppm CO₂, respectively. All other mean and percent changes are calculated as (Experiment - CC) and (Experiment - CC)/CC, where CC is the control simulation at 800 ppm CO₂ and Experiment refers to experiments with different leaf trait plasticity levels. Bootstrap 95% confidence intervals (CI₉₅%) in parentheses. -N_{area}, = N_{area}, and +N_{area} average across experiments with leaf trait plasticity levels that decrease, maintain, and enhance leaf nitrogen per area, respectively. +CN experiment increases C:N_{leaf} by one-third; +LMA increases LMA by one-third; and +CN+LMA, simultaneously increases C:N_{leaf} and LMA by one-third.

Table 1.

Research's Cheyenne system. High-performance computing support from Cheyenne (doi:10.5065/D6RX99HX)
 was provided by NCAR's Computational and Information Systems Laboratory, spon-

- ⁷⁵⁴ was provided by NCAR's Computational and Information Systems Laboratory, spon-
- sored by the National Science Foundation. Model output used in this study is available
- through the University of Washington Libraries ResearchWorks digital repository at http://
- ⁷⁵⁷ hdl.handle.net/1773/46218.

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