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31	Abstract
32	The Mediterranean region is a hot spot of climate change vulnerable to increased
33	droughts and heat waves. Scaling carbon fluxes from leaf to landscape levels is
34	particularly challenging under drought conditions. We aimed to improve the
35	mechanistic understanding of the seasonal acclimation of photosynthesis and

morphology in sunlit and shaded leaves of four Mediterranean trees (Quercus ilex L.,

Pinus halepensis Mill., Arbutus unedo L., and Q. pubescens Willd.) under natural conditions. $V_{c,max}$ and J_{max} were not constant, and mesophyll conductance was not infinite, as assumed in most terrestrial biosphere models, but varied significantly between seasons, tree species, and leaf position. Favourable conditions in winter led to photosynthetic recovery and growth in the evergreens. Under moderate drought, adjustments in the photo/biochemistry and stomatal/mesophyllic diffusion behaviour effectively protected the photosynthetic machineries. Severe drought, however, induced early leaf senescence mostly in A. unedo, Q. pubescens, and significantly increased leaf mass per area in Q. ilex and P. halepensis. Shaded leaves had lower photosynthetic potentials but cushioned negative effects during stress periods. Species-specificity, seasonal variations, and leaf position are key factors to explain vegetation responses to abiotic stress and hold great potential to reduce uncertainties in terrestrial biosphere models especially under drought conditions.

Introduction

The Mediterranean region is dominated by arid or semi-arid ecosystems where high evaporative demand and low soil-water content during the summer dry period are the main ecological limitations to plant growth (Specht 1969, Di Castri 1973). The resilience of plants to drought and heat waves is determined by their frequency and duration, which are projected to become much more severe under current climate change scenarios - particularly in the Mediterranean region (Somot et al. 2008, Friend 2010, IPCC 2013). Increased drought-induced defoliation (Poyatos et al. 2013) associated with the depletion of carbon reserves (Galiano et al. 2012) can ultimately lead to catastrophic hydraulic failure and tree mortality (Urli et al. 2013, Choat 2013). Drought-induced forest impacts and diebacks in the Mediterranean region have been reported in numerous studies (Peñuelas et al. 2001, Martínez-Vilalta and Piñol 2002, Raftoyannis et al. 2008, Allen et al. 2010, Carnicer et al. 2011, Matusick et al. 2013) and can lead to shifts in vegetation composition (Jump and Penuelas 2005, Anderegg et al. 2013) and to a higher risk of forest fires (Piñol et al. 1998, Pausas et al. 2008). The challenge in the Mediterranean region in the coming years will be to learn how carbon uptake and growth in species and communities will respond to these changes, and how forest management strategies can be adapted to cushion the negative impacts of climate change on forests (Sabaté 2002, Bugmann et al. 2010).

In past decades, ecosystem models on regional or global level contributed substantially to our understanding of the implications of climate change on a coarse scale where field experiments are limited (Luo 2007). Much uncertainty, however, remains in the modelled feedback of the global carbon cycle to climatic warming (Friedlingstein et al. 2014) and in the

understanding and modelling of species responses to climate change (Luo 2007, McDowell et al. 2008, Beaumont et al. 2008). Photosynthesis is generally overestimated in the main Earth system models, with significant regional variations (Anav et al. 2013). Two critical parameters, the maximum rate of carboxylation $(V_{c,max})$ and the maximum rate of electron transport (J_{max}) , are a prerequisite for scaling foliar photosynthesis to the canopy level at which global dynamic models operate (Friedlingstein et al. 2006, Friedlingstein and Prentice 2010). These two parameters describe the biochemical limitations to carbon assimilation, but are not easily measured. So relatively little data of their variability between species or seasons are available. $V_{c,max}$ and J_{max} are thus often used as constants for various plant functional types and seasons or, in some cases, are derived from other parameters such as leaf nitrogen content (Grassi and Magnani 2005, Walker et al. 2014). Moreover, extreme climatic conditions and inter-annual variability in arid and semi-arid regions are challenging for scaling carbon assimilation patterns from one year to another (Reynolds et al. 1996, Morales et al. 2005, Gulías et al. 2009). Simulations of ecosystem carbon fluxes are consequently limited, first, by underrepresented temporal variability of photosynthetic parameters and soil-water patterns, and second by our limited understanding of the effects of water stress on both carbon uptake and release (Hickler et al. 2009, Niinemets and Keenan 2014). The modelling performance in Mediterranean-type ecosystems is thus particularly poor and stresses the need for a better mechanistic description of photosynthetic processes under water stress (Morales et al. 2005, Keenan et al. 2011, Zheng et al. 2012, Vargas et al. 2013). Mesophyll conductance, $g_{\rm m}$, might play a future key role in improving model performance of photosynthesis under drought conditions (Keenan et al. 2010).

The photosynthetic limitations of Mediterranean vegetation, especially under drought, have been extensively studied (for a review see Flexas et al., 2014), but fewer studies have thoroughly assessed the seasonal behaviour of photosynthesis and morphology under natural conditions in a mixed mature forest. The information gained from seedlings under controlled conditions can only poorly represent the physiological mechanisms of the long-term acclimation to variable environmental conditions in mature trees (Flexas et al., 2006; Mittler, 2006; Niinemets, 2010). Seedlings or saplings are characterised by higher metabolism and enzymatic function, lower leaf dry mass per unit area (LMA), and higher photosynthetic potential relative to mature trees (Johnson & Ball, 1996; Bond, 2000; Niinemets, 2014). Responses to short-term stress are related to the mechanisms of prompt reactions (Flexas et al., 2006). Under natural conditions, however, mature trees acclimate to gradually developing water stress through the photosynthetic pathway (biochemical, stomatal or mesophyllic) (e.g. Martin-StPaul et al. 2013), but also through foliar traits such as nitrogen, LMA etc. (Poorter et al. 2009). Less work has evaluated simultaneously the variations of photosynthetic and morphological traits in response to abiotic stress conditions. The variation of these traits is largely species specific (Orshan 1983, Chaves et al. 2002, Gratani and Varone 2004, Krasteva et al. 2013), although within-canopy

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gradients can play an additional overriding role (Valladares and Niinemets 2008, Sperlich et al. 2014). Mixed forests provide ideal test conditions where we can observe distinct species-specific strategies coping equally with the yearly variability of environmental conditions.

The aim of this study was to investigate the impact of seasonal environmental changes (above all drought) on foliar photosynthetic and morpholocial traits of the winter-deciduous sub-Mediterranean Quercus pubescens, two evergreen sclerophyllous species (Quercus ilex and Arbutus unedo) and an early-successional drought-adapted conifer, Pinus halepensis. P. halepensis is characterised as isohydric following a water saving and photoinhibition-tolerant strategy (Martínez-Ferri et al. 2004, Baquedano and Castillo 2006, Sperlich et al. 2014). Q. ilex L. is a late-successional, slow growing, water-spending, photoinhibition-avoiding, anisohydric tree species with a plastic hydraulic and morphological behaviour (Villar-Salvador et al. 1997, Fotelli et al. 2000, Corcuera et al. 2004, Ogaya and Peñuelas 2006, Limousin et al. 2009). The winter-deciduous anisohydric Q. pubescens follows a similar drought- avoiding strategy as Q. ilex, but maximizes gas exchange during a shorter growing season (Baldocchi et al. 2009), resulting in high transpiration rates throughout the summer (Poyatos et al. 2008). Over extensive areas of the Mediterranean region Q. ilex and Q. pubescens form the terminal point of secondary succession (Lookingbill and Zavala 2000). A. unedo - relict of the humid-subtropical Tertiary tree flora (Gratani and Ghia, 2002a and references therein) – is typically occurring as shrub or small tree in the macchia ecosystems and holding a intermediate position concerning stomatal-(Beyschlag et al. 1986, Vitale and Manes 2005, Barbeta et al. 2012) and photoinhibitionsensitivity (Sperlich et al. 2014). Prolonged climate stress might disadvantage A. unedo being more drought sensitive than the companion species (Ogaya and Peñuelas 2004, Barbeta et al. 2012).

Our particular interests were to distinguish the species-specific strategies and to explore the eco-physiological mechanism behind drought responses by examining the fine tuning of foliar photosynthetic potentials/rates and foliar morphological traits. We hypothesized that i) seasonal environmental changes (above all drought) affect the photosynthetic and ii) morphological traits, iii) mesophyllic diffusion conductance (g_m) strongly constrains photosynthesis under drought conditions, iv) the seasonal acclimation varies qualitatively and quantitatively with species and v) light environment (leaf canopy position). We thus created a matrix of photosynthetic parameters that could be incorporated into process-based ecosystem models to improve estimates of carbon flux in the Mediterranean region.

Materials and methods

Field site

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- The experimental site Can Balasc is located in the coastal massif of the Collserola Natural Park
- 146 (8500 ha), in the province of Barcelona, northeastern Spain (41° 25' N, 2° 04' E, 270 m a.s.l.).
- 147 Seasonal summer droughts, warm temperatures and mild winters characterise the typical
- 148 Mediterranean climate with a mean August temperature of 22.8 °C and a mean January
- temperature of 7.9 °C. Mean annual precipitation and temperature are 723 mm and 15.1 °C
- 150 (1951-2010), respectively (Ninyerola et al. 2007a, 2007b). Sensors for measuring air
- temperature (HMP45C, Vaisala Oyj, Finland) and solar radiation (SP1110 Skye Instruments
- Ltd., Powys, UK) were installed at a height of 3 m, in a clearing *ca*. 1 km from the plot.

Stand structure

- Our study site is characterised by a dense forest stand (1429 stems ha⁻¹) with a two-layered
- canopy consisting of a dense layer of *Quercus* species surmounted by shelter trees of the early-
- successional and fast growing Aleppo Pine (P. halepensis Mill.). The mean heights of each
- layer are 9.9 m and 17.1 m, respectively. The Quercus species are the late-successional
- evergreen Holm Oak (Q. ilex L.) and the deciduous Pubescent Oak (Q. pubescens Willd.). The
- Strawberry tree (A. unedo L.) grows usually as a shrub being widely abundant in the macchia
- ecosystems of the Iberian peninsula (Beyschlag et al. 1986, Reichstein et al. 2002). In our study
- site, however, A. unedo occurs scattered in the tree canopy (mean height 8.1 m) enriching the
- forest diversity with its flowering and fruiting habit. The trees with the biggest dimensions are
- the pines followed by the two *Quercus* species and at last by A. unedo (mean DBH of 33.7,
- 164 12.9, 9.6 cm, respectively). The forest succession has reached the final stage: The dense
- 165 Quercus canopy is out-competing the early-successional P. halepensis by suppressing the
- growth of the light demanding pine seedlings and saplings. More details of stand history and
- field site are described in Sperlich *et al.* (2014).

Sampling method

- We conducted eight field campaigns from June 2011 to February 2013. The sampling periods
- are presented in Table 2 and Figure 1. We avoided difficulties encountered during field
- measurements such as deviations from the standard temperature (25 °C) or unpredictable plant
- 172 responses (patchy stomatal conductance) (Mott and Buckley 1998, 2000) by analysing sampled
- twigs in the laboratory. We cut twigs with a pruning pull from sunlit and shaded leaf positions,
- optimally at similar heights. The twigs were immediately re-cut under water in the field,
- wrapped in plastic bags to minimise transpiration, stored in water buckets, and transported to
- the laboratory. Five replicates of each leaf position and tree species were collected for the
- analysis of gas exchange. The twigs were pre-conditioned in the laboratory at room temperature

- 178 (24-28 °C) in dim light for 1-3 d and were freshly cut every morning. More details and
- references can be found in Sperlich *et al.* (2014).

180 Analyses of gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence

- Gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence were measured with a Li-Cor LI-6400XT Portable
- Photosynthesis System equipped with a LI-6400-40 Leaf Chamber Fluorometer (Li-Cor, Inc.,
- Lincoln, USA). Response curves for foliar net assimilation versus CO₂ concentration were
- recorded in parallel with the chlorophyll fluorescence measurements. In some cases the sunlit
- leaves of Q. ilex were too small to fill the leaf cuvette (2 cm^2) and so the measured parameters
- were adjusted after the measurements. For *P. halepensis*, we positioned a layer of needles (ca.
- 187 10-15) on the leaf cuvette, avoiding gaps and overlays, and sealed the gaskets with Blu-tack
- 188 (Bostik SA, La Plaine St Denis, France) to keep the needles in position. The preparation and
- acclimation of the leaves prior to recording the response curves were conducted as in Sperlich et
- 190 al. (2014).

191 CO_2 experiments

- The CO₂-response curves were recorded at a leaf temperature (T_{Leaf}) of 25 °C and a quantum
- flux density of 1000 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹. The CO₂ concentrations in the leaf chamber (C_a) used
- 194 to generate the response curves were $400 \rightarrow 300 \rightarrow 200 \rightarrow 150 \rightarrow 100 \rightarrow 50 \rightarrow 400 \rightarrow 400 \rightarrow 600 \rightarrow$
- 195 $800 \rightarrow 1200 \rightarrow 2000 \ \mu \text{mol CO}_2 \ \text{mol air}^{-1}$. The minimum and maximum times for stabilising net
- assimilation rate (A_{net} in μ mol CO₂ m⁻² s⁻¹), stomatal conductance (g_s in mol H₂O m⁻² s⁻¹), and
- stomatal internal CO₂ concentrations (C_i in μ mol CO₂ mol air⁻¹) for each log were set to 4 and 6
- min, respectively.

199 Calculation of chlorophyll fluorescence parameters

- 200 $F_{\rm m}'$ and $F_{\rm s}$ were used to estimate the effective quantum yield of photosystem II ($\Phi_{\rm PSII}$, unitless)
- 201 as

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$$\Phi_{PSII} = \frac{(F_{m'} - F_{s})}{F_{m'}}$$
 (1)

- where F_s is the steady-state fluorescence of a fully light-adapted sample, and F_m is the maximal
- 204 fluorescence yield reached after a pulse of intense light. The effective quantum yield of PSII
- 205 represents the fraction of photochemically absorbed photons for a light-adapted leaf. The
- electron-transport rate based on the effective quantum yield of PSII (J_{CF} in μ mol electron m⁻² s⁻¹
- 207 ¹) was calculated as

$$J_{CF} = \varepsilon * \Phi PSII * \alpha_{L}$$
 (2)

- 209 ε is a scaling factor accounting for the partitioning of intercepted light between photosystem I
- 210 (PSI) and PSII. We assumed that light was equally distributed between both photosystems ($\varepsilon =$
- 211 0.5) (Bernacchi et al. 2002, Niinemets et al. 2005). α_L (unitless) is the foliar absorbance; we

212 used the following values: 0.932 for Q. ilex and 0.912 for P. halepensis for both sunlit and 213 shaded leaves, 0.935 for sunlit leaves of A. unedo, 0.917 for shaded leaves of A. unedo, 0.939 214 for sunlit leaves of Q. pubescens, and 0.900 for shaded leaves of Q. pubescens. For the 215 determination of α_L , foliar reflectance and transmittance were measured at midday in August 216 2012 using a UniSpec Spectral Analysis System spectroradiometer (PP Systems, Haverhill, 217 USA). The ambient photosynthetic electron transport (J_{amb}) was defined as the value of J_{CF} at a CO_2 concentration of 400 μ mol CO_2 mol air⁻¹ and a PPFD of 1000 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹. The 218 219 relationship between J_{amb} and the net assimilation rate (J_{amb}/A_{net}) was used for the analyses of 220 alternative electron sinks other than carbon metabolism. Calculations of F_v/F_m and NPQ can be 221 found in the supplementary material (Note S1).

222 Estimation of mesophyll conductance

We estimated g_m (in mol m⁻² s⁻¹ bar⁻¹) using the variable-*J* method by Harley et al. (1992):

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$$g_m = \frac{A_{\text{net}}}{C_i - \frac{[\Gamma^* * J_{\text{CF}} + 8(A_{\text{net}} + R_{\text{d}})]}{J_{\text{CF}} - 4(A_{\text{net}} + R_{\text{d}})}}$$
 (6)

where Γ^* is the CO₂ concentration at which the photorespiratory efflux of CO₂ equals the rate of photosynthetic CO₂ uptake, and R_d is the mitochondrial respiration of a leaf in light conditions and was estimated from the light-response curves combining gas exchange and measurements with the CF- method proposed by Yin et al. (2009). See supplementary material for details (Note S2). The chloroplastic CO₂ concentration (C_c in μ mol CO₂ mol air⁻¹) was determined as:

$$230 \quad C_c = C_i - \frac{A_{net}}{g_m} \tag{7}$$

231 Photosynthesis model

The photosynthesis model of Farquhar et al. (1980) considers photosynthesis as minimum of the potential rates of Rubisco activity (A_c) and ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate (RuBP) regeneration (A_j). The model was further complemented with a third limitation (A_p) that considers the limitation by triose-phosphate use (TPU) at high CO₂ concentrations when the CO₂ response shows a plateau or decrease (Sharkey 1985). However, we rarely detected A_p limitations and TPU was therefore discarded in our analyses. A_{net} was then determined by the minimum of these two potential rates from an A/C_c curve:

$$239 \quad A_{net} = min\{A_c, A_i\} \tag{8}$$

240 where

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$$A_c = V_{cmax} * \left[\frac{C_c - \Gamma^*}{C_c + K_c \left(1 + \frac{O}{K_O} \right)} \right] - R_d$$
 (9)

- where $V_{c,max}$ (in μ mol CO₂ m⁻² s⁻¹) is the maximum rate of Rubisco carboxylation, K_c is the
- 243 Michaelis-Menten constant of Rubisco for CO₂, O is the partial pressure of O₂ at Rubisco, and
- K_0 is the Michaelis-Menten constant of Rubisco for O_2 , taken from Bernacchi et al. (2002). The
- equation representing photosynthesis limited by RuBP regeneration is:

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$$A_j = J * \left[\frac{C_c - \Gamma^*}{4C_c + 8\Gamma^*} \right] - R_d$$
 (10)

- where J (in μ mol electron m⁻² s⁻¹) is the rate of electron transport. We assumed that J becomes
- J_{max} under light and CO_2 saturation when the maximum possible rate of electron transport is
- 249 theoretically achieved, although we may have underestimated the true J_{max} (for further details
- 250 see Buckley & Diaz-Espejo, 2014). $V_{c,max}$ and J_{max} define the biochemical potential to drive
- photosynthesis and are summarised in the term "photosynthetic potential" (Niinemets et al.
- 252 2006). Curves were fit, and diffusion leakage was corrected, as in Sperlich et al. (2014).

Foliar morphology, chemical analyses, and assessment of crown

254 condition

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- Foliar morphological traits were measured on fully expanded leaves (n = 60 per leaf position
- and species) from the excised twigs in five sampling campaigns in spring and autumn 2011^a
- 257 (2011^a indicates sampling during a drought), and winter, spring, and summer 2012. Immediately
- after the gas exchange analyses, we measured fresh weight (FW, mg) and projected leaf surface
- area (LA, cm²) (including petioles) with Photoshop from scanned leaves at 300 dpi. We oven-
- 260 dried the leaves at 70 °C for 48 h and weighed the leaves for dry weight (DW, mg) and
- 261 measured leaf thickness (LT, mm) with a portable dial thickness gauge (Baxlo Precisión,
- Barcelona, Spain). We then calculated the percentage of the leaf water content (WC) as [1-
- 263 (DW/FW)]*100. Leaf mass per area (LMA) (mg cm⁻²) was calculated as the ratio of DW to LA
- and leaf tissue density (D, mg cm⁻³) as the ratio of LMA to LT. Foliar Succulence (S) was
- 265 calculated as (FW-DW)/LA. We ground the leaves to a fine powder using a MM400 mixer mill
- 266 (Retsch, Hahn, Germany), encapsulated a sample of 0.7 mg in tin foil and determined carbon
- and nitrogen contents by EA/IRMS (Elemental Analyzer/Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometry) and
- 268 GC/C/IRMS (Gas Chromatography/Combustion/IRMS). The crown condition was assessed
- 269 using 'International Co-operative Programme on Assessment and Monitoring of Air
- Pollution Effects on Forests' (ICP Forests)standards (Eichhorn et al. 2010).

Statistical analyses

- We performed the statistical analyses with the R version 3.0.2 (http://www.r-project.org/). The
- 273 matrix of photosynthetic and morphological traits was subjected to principal component
- analyses (PCAs) to summarise the principal factors explaining the variation in these parameters.
- 275 Differences in the parameters between sunlit and shaded leaves were determined with Student's

t-tests ($P \le 0.05$). The normality of the data was tested with Shapiro-Wilk tests. If the data were not normally distributed, they were normalised. One-factorial analyses of variance (ANOVAs) with season as the main factor were used to test for differences in the parameters in each species and leaf position. Significant differences were determined at $P \le 0.05$ with Fisher's least significance difference (LSD) tests. Bonferroni correction was used for familywise error rate. Linear regression analyses were conducted to study the relationships among various leaf traits such as $A_{\rm net}/g_{\rm s}$, $A_{\rm net}/g_{\rm m}$, $J_{\rm max}/V_{\rm c,max}$, $g_{\rm m}/g_{\rm s}$, $J_{\rm amb}/A_{\rm net}$. With analyses of co-variance (ANCOVAs), we tested for differences in regression slopes and intercepts. We applied a non-linear regression analysis using the nls function in R to study the relationship of $g_{\rm m}/{\rm LMA}$.

Results

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Environmental and crown conditions

288 The year 2011 was characterised by 30% more precipitation than the climatic average of 723 289 mm (1951-2010) (Ninyerola et al. 2007a, 2007b) (Tab. 3, Fig. 1), and no drought-induced leaf 290 shedding was observed. The winter from 1 December 2011 to 31 January 2012 was relatively 291 mild with average maximum and minimum temperatures of 11.8 and 4.2 °C, respectively, 292 coinciding with high photosynthetic potentials and shoot growth. The precipitation in 2012 was 293 20% lower than the climatic average (Table 3). A. unedo and Q. pubescens were strongly 294 defoliated during summer 2012; O. ilex and P. halepensis to a lesser extent (Table 4). O. ilex 295 showed some discoloration in the more exposed sites. Only one individual of P. halepensis 296 showed discoloration. The defoliated Q. pubescens trees recovered completely in 2013. In 297 contrast, heavily affected individuals of A. unedo showed an irreversible dieback of the main 298 leading branches but also vigorous re-sprouting in 2013.

Effect of season, tree species and leaf position on photosynthetic

parameters

- 301 In Fig. 2a, we present the PCA for the morphological and photosynthetic parameters. No 302 rotation was applied to the space of the PC's. $V_{c,max}$, J_{max} , and g_s were negatively correlated with 303 N_{mass} , C_{mass} , NPQ, and g_{m} . $F_{\text{v}}/F_{\text{m}}$, g_{s} , and water content (WC) were negatively correlated with 304 nitrogen and carbon per unit leaf area (N_{area} , C_{area}), LMA, and density (D). Nitrogen per unit leaf 305 mass (N_{mass}) and g_{m} correlated well with LT (Fig. 2). A_{net} was correlated negatively with 306 succulence (S) and positively with g_m . PC1 and PC2 explained 37.2 and 20.4% of the variation, 307 respectively. The datapoints within the cluster circles in Fig. 1b-d exhibited similar behaviours 308 in photosynthetic and morphological traits. Leaf positions, seasons, and species could be 309 separated. Sunlit leaves were characterised by higher values on the orthogonal axis. The 310 horizontal axes separated A. unedo and Q. pubescens from Q. ilex and P. halepensis. The 311 orthogonal axes separated Q. ilex from P. halepensis with generally positive values. The 312 seasonality was further investigated for each species and leaf position with ANOVAs for each 313 photosynthetic and morphological parameter.
- 314 *Q. ilex*
- Q. ilex had the most plastic response to the environmental conditions. The sunlit leaves of Q. ilex exhibited strong declines in several photosynthetic parameters from summer 2011 to autumn 2011^a. $V_{c,max}$, A_{net} and g_s were significantly (P < 0.05), and J_{max} and g_m were marginally significantly lower (P < 0.10) (Fig. 3 a1-b1). The means of the majority of the photosynthetic parameters recovered after the first rains in autumn 2011^b (2011^b indicates sampling after the
- drought), reaching pre-drought values, but accompanied by a high standard error. This recovery

321 was thus only significant for J_{max} and g_{m} . Surprisingly, $V_{\text{c,max}}$ and J_{max} peaked in winter and not, 322 as expected, in spring. From that peak we observed significant declines from winter to spring to 323 summer 2012. In contrast to the pattern of $V_{c,max}$ and J_{max} , F_v/F_m , A_{net} , and g_s peaked in spring 324 2012 (Figs. 3c1, 4a1-b1). These parameters then also declined significantly in summer 2012. 325 Interestingly, $g_{\rm m}$ peaked in summer 2012 in parallel with a reduction in $g_{\rm s}$ (Fig. 4c1). The 326 photosynthetic parameters of shaded leaves in Q. ilex showed a similar trend, declining after the 327 drought in 2011 and recovering after the autumn rains (Figs. 3, 4). The parameter means of 328 shaded leaves remained relatively stable throughout the season, in contrast to the pattern in 329 sunlit leaves, except for a peak of $V_{c,max}$ and J_{max} in spring 2012. The photosynthetic parameters 330 in Q. ilex were significantly lower in shaded leaves. During periods of stress, however, the 331 photosynthetic parameters of sunlit leaves declined and had values similar to those of shaded 332 leaves (Table 6, Figs. 3, 4). P. halepensis

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334 Mean $V_{c,max}$, J_{max} , and F_v/F_m were generally higher in sunlit leaves of P. halepensis than the 335 other species (Figs. 3, 4). The seasonal variation of the photosynthetic potential was not as 336 strongly pronounced as in Q. ilex, and mean $V_{c,max}$ and J_{max} remained relatively high and stable 337 in 2011 (Fig. 3a1-b1). The 2012 drought had comparatively stronger effects on $V_{c,max}$ and J_{max} 338 than the 2011 drought. Mean A_{net} , g_s , and g_m , however, were significantly lower in autumn 2011^a 339 (Fig. 4a1-c1). These values recovered quickly and significantly after the first autumn rains. The 340 relatively high $V_{c,max}$, J_{max} , and F_v/F_m during this period reflected a stronger limitation of g_s and 341 $g_{\rm m}$ than of the biochemistry imposed on $A_{\rm net}$. $A_{\rm net}$ recovered in winter 2012 due to the mild 342 conditions (Fig. 4a1). The 2012 summer drought significantly reduced the high values of A_{net} 343 observed in winter 2012, but not as much as after the 2011 drought (Fig. 4a1). Both g_s and g_m 344 remained relatively stable during this period, so the reductions in A_{net} were due to biochemical 345 limitations ($V_{c,max}$ and J_{max}) (Figs. 3, 4). Sunlit and shaded leaves differed the least in P. 346 halepensis; only $V_{c,max}$ and J_{max} were significantly different (Table 6). The sunlit and shaded 347 leaves of P. halepensis had similar patterns of seasonal variation, but changes between seasonal 348 campaigns were not significant (Fig. 3a1-b1).

349 A. unedo

350 Similar to Q. ilex, the photosynthetic parameters in A. unedo varied strongly seasonally but had 351 high standard errors (Figs. 3, 4). A_{net} decreased significantly in winter 2012, in contrast to J_{max} 352 and $V_{c,max}$ that peaked in the same campaign (Figs. 3a1-b1 and 4a1). A decline in g_s and g_m in 353 this campaign suggested that they more strongly regulated A_{net} (Fig. 4b1-c1). A_{net} , g_s , and g_m 354 peaked in spring 2012. These increases were significant for A_{net} and g_s and marginally 355 significant for $g_{\rm m}$ relative to the other field campaigns (Fig. 4a1-4c1). The photosynthetic 356 parameters were generally lower in the shaded leaves of A. unedo, but with no clear pattern and 357 high variability (Table 5).

- 358 Q. pubescens
- 359 The photosynthetic potentials were much higher in Q. pubescens than in the other species but
- also had high standard errors (Fig. 3a1-b1). The 2012 summer drought led to a decline of the
- photosynthetic potentials by approximately one third. These decreases were only significant for
- 362 the average of spring 2011 and spring 2012 relative to the average of summer 2011 and summer
- 2012. A_{net} showed a similar trend, with a peak in spring 2012 being reduced significantly by the
- 364 2012 summer drought (Fig. 4a1). Stomatal control was more strongly pronounced than
- mesophyllic control (Fig. 4b1-c1). Shaded leaves had higher A_{net} , g_m , and g_s means throughout
- 366 the campaigns, in contrast to lower means of $V_{c,max}$ and J_{max} (Figs. 3a1-c2, 4a1-b2). Shaded
- leaves generally showed lower values than sunlit leaves and were less affected by the droughts
- 368 (Figs. 3a1-c2, 4a1-c2).

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Morphological parameters

- 370 The foliar traits of *P. halepensis* and *Q. ilex* acclimated most strongly to drought. LMA was
- 371 significantly higher in *P. halepensis* and *Q. ilex* in both shaded and sunlit leaves in summer
- 372 2012 compared to the previous field campaigns (Fig. 5a1-a2). This was similar in A. unedo but
- less pronounced. LMA had no clear pattern in Q. pubescens. Elevated LMA was accompanied
- 374 by higher values of leaf density (D), succulence (S), and carbon content, indicating a more
- 375 sclerophyllic and succulent structure as response to the drier conditions in 2012 (Figs. S2, S3).
- N_{mass} was significantly higher in spring and summer 2012 for Q. ilex and P. halepensis (shaded
- and sunlit leaves) and for shaded leaves of *A. unedo*, but not for *Q. pubescens* (Fig. 5b1-b2).

Relationships of photosynthetic and morphological parameters

- In order to analyse the general pattern of several relationships of the photosynthetic parameters
- and foliar traits, we used ANCOVAs to test for differences in the slopes between seasons across
- 381 all species.
- The slope the A_{net}/g_s relationship was significantly steeper in summer and autumn 2011^a in all
- species compared to the other field campaigns (Fig. 6a1, Table S1), suggesting an increased
- intrinsic water-use efficiency during the dry period in 2011. Shaded leaves had a similar
- conservative water-use strategy in autumn 2011^a (Fig. 6a2). Shallower slopes in autumn 2011^b
- in both leaf positions represent rapid responses (less than one week) to the post-drought rains
- asing the strict stomatal control.
- The A_{net}/g_m relationship in autumn 2011^a also had a significantly steeper slope in both sunlit and
- shaded leaves recovering after the first rains in autumn 2011^b (Fig. 6b1-2, Table S2). In the drier
- 390 year 2012, g_m imposed less resistance on photosynthetic assimilation compared to the wet year
- 391 2011. The slope of the $A_{\text{net}}/g_{\text{m}}$ relationship was significantly higher for winter 2012 than spring
- and summer 2012, suggesting a stronger control of $g_{\rm m}$ on photosynthesis in winter. The autumn
- 393 2011^a and summer 2012 droughts had strong effects on the slope of A_{net}/g_m in shaded leaves.

394 With the ANCOVA of the relationship of g_m and g_{s_n} we investigated the proportional diffusion 395 limitation on photosynthesis. We observed seasonal differences across all species (Fig. 6c, 396 Table S3). Mesophyllic control was stronger in the dry autumn 2011^a and the two winter 397 periods. In contrast, stomatal control was higher than mesophyllic control in the mild 2011 398 summer drought. This was most strongly pronounced in P. halepensis and Q. ilex (data not 399 shown). 400 The slope in the relationship of $V_{c,max}$ and J_{max} was significantly steeper in autumn 2011^a for 401 both sunlit and shaded (Fig. 7a, Table S4) leaves due to a stronger reduction in $V_{\text{c.max}}$ compared 402 to J_{max} . The overall $J_{\text{max}}/V_{\text{c,max}}$ ratios were 1.09 for sunlit and 1.24 for shaded leaves. The slope 403 of the J_{amb}/A_{net} relationship in sunlit and shaded leaves was significantly lower in the more 404 humid periods (autumn 2011^b, winter 2012, and winter 2013), indicating lower protective 405 energy dissipation and alternative electron pathways under favourable conditions (Fig. 7b, Table 406 S5). 407 Increased foliar sclerophylly led to higher LMAs and thus to higher diffusion resistances in the 408 mesophyll, as shown by the relationship between $g_{\rm m}$ and LMA (Fig. 8, Table S6). In spring 409 2012 and summer 2012, we detected a less negative exponent (hence a gentler curve) (-0.953 410 and -0.800, respectively) compared to winter 2012 and autumn 2011^{a)} (-1.486 and -1.533, 411 respectively). This shows that, regardless of the drier conditions and higher LMA in 2012, $g_{\rm m}$ 412 was higher in this period reflecting a regulatory mechanism of g_m in the CO₂ diffusion pathway 413 (in line with the results of the g_m/g_s analyses).

Discussion

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Photosynthetic seasonality and effects of drought

417 We found that $V_{c,max}$ and J_{max} acclimated strongly to the seasonal changes in temperature and 418 water availability in agreement with previous studies (Vitale and Manes 2005, Corcuera et al. 419 2005, Misson et al. 2006, Ribeiro et al. 2009, Limousin et al. 2010). High radiation and water 420 stress can have a combinatory negative effect on the photosynthetic apparatus, especially in 421 sunlit leaves. Stomata close to avoid transpiration loss and hydraulic failure, but stomatal 422 closure impairs the diffusion of the CO₂ needed in the chloroplasts, the site of carboxylation. 423 $V_{c,max}$ is a proxy for the maximum potential rate of carboxylation, which is carried out by 424 Rubisco, a costly nitrogen-rich protein. The temporary unemployment of Rubisco due to limited 425 substrate (CO₂) availability leads to its de-activation and, during chronic water stress, to its 426 decomposition (Parry 2002, Chaves and Oliveira 2004, Lawlor and Tezara 2009). High 427 incoming radiation that cannot efficiently be dissipated in the Calvin cycle over-excites the 428 photoreaction centres (photoinhibition) and produces reactive oxygen species (ROS) that 429 damage the photosystems and the ATP synthase- needed for the carbon reactions (Epron et al. 430 1993). Leaves prevent harmful excess energy with protective actions such as the reorganisation 431 of the thylakoid membrane, closure of reaction centres, and reduced antennal size (Huner et al. 432 1998, Maxwell and Johnson 2000, Ensminger et al. 2012, Verhoeven 2014). These actions 433 reduce PSII efficiency and J_{max} , and enhance alternative energy pathways to prevent damage on 434 the molecular level on the cost of a lower carbon assimilation. 435 The trees in our study site maintained considerable rates of A_{net} during moderate drought 436 through improved water relations via g_s and g_m control. The relatively stable F_v/F_m values 437 indicate that the protective actions against photoinhibitory stress were effective. The trees 438 showed trunk rehydration after the first autumn rain (Sánchez-Costa et al., unpublished results) 439 and quickly recovered their photosynthetic potential, suggesting that the Rubisco content 440 remained unaffected by moderate drought. The drought impacts were much more severe in the 441 dry year 2012, illustrating the vulnerability of tree physiology to the depletion of soil-water 442 reserves during the early growing season. The severity of drought strongly determined the 443 relative limitations of g_s and g_m on photosynthesis, especially in Q. ilex and P. halepensis. 444 Stomatal closure regulated photosynthesis during both the moderate and servere droughts; $g_{\rm m}$, in 445 contrast, decreased under moderate, but increased under severe drought. We postulate that 446 altered $g_{\rm m}$ can ease the leaf internal CO₂ diffusion needed for photosynthesis, especially under 447 chronic water stress when depleted non-structural carbohydrates (NSCs) make plants 448 particularly reliant on photosynthetic products for refinement, repair, and protective actions 449 (Niinemets et al. 2009). Major changes of Φ_{PSII} , F_v/F_m , and photosynthetic potentials across all

- species reflected these refinements of the photosynthetic apparatus as responses to chronic water
- 451 stress in summer 2012.
- These acclimatisations occurred not only under dry and hot conditions, but also in winter at high
- radiation and low temperature. Nevertheless, favourable winter conditions in 2012 resulted in
- biochemical recovery (peak of $V_{c,max}$ and J_{max}), new shoot growth, and moderate transpiration
- across species (often exceeding summer values) (Sánchez-Costa et al., unpublished results).
- Year-round growth patterns with several flushes during the year have also been reported in other
- 457 studies (Alonso et al. 2003). Under novel climatic conditions, favourable conditions in winter
- may be crucial in the competition between evergreen and deciduous tree species.
- We observed a highly species-specific pattern. Q. ilex and A. unedo followed a water-spending,
- anisohydric strategy that maintained A_{net} and g_{s} in parallel with lower $V_{\text{c,max}}$ and J_{max} . In contrast,
- 461 *P. halepensis* had significantly decreased g_s , consistent with the conservative water-use strategy
- and strict stomatal control of isohydric species (Borghetti et al. 1998, Martinez-Ferri et al.
- 463 2000). Q. ilex generally responded most plastically by rapidly adjusting the photosynthetic
- machinery to the prevailing conditions (García-Plazaola et al. 1997, 1999, Martínez-Ferri et al.
- 465 2004). P. halepensis was the most tolerant to photoinhibition and had the most robust
- photosynthetic machinery to combat abiotic stress (Baquedano and Castillo 2006, Sperlich et al.
- 467 2014). The mesophyllic diffusion limitation was lowest in Q. pubescens and A. unedo, as we
- claim, due to their deciduous/semi-evergreen foliar habits and lower LMAs (see also Tomás et
- 469 al., 2014). Q. pubescens must maximise gas exchange during a shorter growing season, leading
- 470 to high photosynthetic potentials, A_{net} (Baldocchi et al. 2009) and transpiration rates throughout
- 471 the summer (Sánchez-Costa et al., unpublished results; Poyatos et al., 2008).

Responses specific to leaf position

- The seasonality of photosynthetic parameters was qualitatively different between leaf positions
- 474 (Niinemets et al. 2006, Vaz et al. 2011) and was mostly pronounced in sunlit leaves. Shaded
- leaves cushioned the negative climatic effects, maintaining their functionality compared to
- 476 sunlit leaves. Foliar anatomy, morphology, and biochemistry were highly specialised and
- dependent on the light regime, leading to smaller but also thicker sunlit leaves and broader and
- 478 thinner shaded leaves (Kull and Niinemets 1993, Terashima and Hikosaka 1995, Niinemets
- 479 2001). Shaded leaves had lower N, photosynthetic potentials, carbon metabolisms and higher
- $J_{\text{max}}/V_{\text{c,max}}$ ratio (see also Le Roux et al. 2001). Shaded leaves invest in higher J_{max} relative to
- $V_{c,max}$ in order to increase the light-use efficiency. Responses specific to leaf position, however,
- differed among tree species due to distinct foliar morphologies and crown architectures. The
- sun-exposed crown position of *P. halepensis*, surmounting the forest canopy resulted in high
- 484 photosynthetic potentials and a low $J_{\text{max}}/V_{\text{c,max}}$ ratio throughout the crown. Pine needles attain
- nearly saturated photosynthetic rates over a wide range of diurnal and seasonal variation in
- 486 radiation due to their cylindrical shape and steep angles (Jordan and Smith 1993, Lusk et al.

487 2003). Similarly, *Q. pubescens* showed a low differentiation between sunlit and shaded leaves.

A low $J_{\text{max}}/V_{\text{c.max}}$ ratio throughout the crown suggests a higher proportion of sunlit leaves. In

contrast, the comparatively higher $J_{\text{max}}/V_{\text{c.max}}$ ratio of sunlit leaves in A. unedo reflects a more

shaded growth environment explained by its subordinated position in the forest canopy. The Q.

491 *ilex* canopy was dense with a high proportion of shaded leaves, in line with its shade tolerance.

492 Hence, leaf position specific responses were highest in Q. ilex. The comparatively higher

photosynthetic values in sunlit leaves decreased partly below the level of shaded leaves under

stress conditions (see also Sperlich et al., 2014). Shaded leaves are less exposed to the dramatic

changes in radiation and temperature in the outer canopy and can be of particular importance for

Q. ilex to attain a positive net carbon ratio during stress periods (Valladares et al. 2008). We

stress that the solar environment of the leaves is a crucial factor for assessing tree performance,

498 especially in a competitive environment.

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Acclimation of foliar morphology

Mediterranean trees acclimate to water deficits with higher investments in structural compounds, thereby increasing leaf density and succulence (Niinemets 2001, Ogaya and Peñuelas 2006, Poorter et al. 2009). Foliar traits are known to be good indicators for the ability of Maquis-species to respond to decreases in rainfall under climate change (Gratani and Varone 2006, Ogaya and Peñuelas 2007). We confirm that severe water deficit resulted in increased LT and reduced LA and consequently in higher LMA. It was reported that the plasticity of leaf morphology is generally higher than the plasticity of foliar chemistry and assimilation rates over a wide range of woody species (Niinemets 2001). Under moderate drought, however, foliar morphology was less plastic than foliar chemistry and assimilation rates (Quero et al. 2006); severe water stress affected both to a similar extent. Leaf trait acclimation strongly constrained mesophyll conductance under severe drought, especially in Q. ilex and P. halepensis (see also Tomás et al. 2013). We postulate that foliar traits served best as proxies for drought acclimation in O. ilex (Grossoni et al. 1998, Bussotti et al. 2000) and P. halepensis (Alonso et al. 2003), both characterised by high leaf-longevities. These changes may be accompanied by increased leaf vein density that may helped to increase the tolerance to foliar hydraulic dysfunction in Mediterranean plants (Nardini et al. 2014). The foliar traits of A. unedo and Q. pubescens acclimated the least, so leaves were susceptible to foliar hydraulic dysfunction and droughtdeciduousness. We attribute this species-specificity in leaf trait acclimation to functional differences of leaf investment costs and distinct leaf shedding strategies between deciduous / semi-deciduous (Q. pubescens and A. unedo) to evergreen sclerophyllic species (Q. ilex and P. halepensis) which we will elaborate further in the following chapter.

Crown defoliation in summer 2012

The lack of rain in early 2012 predisposed the vegetation to leaf senescence observed in summer

2012, with high variability across and within species. Leaf senescence was highest in A. unedo

524 and Q. pubescens - showing partly completely defoliated crowns. Q. ilex and mostly P. 525 halepensis overcame this period with marginal leaf shedding. Stored NSCs strongly determine 526 the recovery of xylem hydraulic conductivity by vessel refilling and the resistance of water 527 transport to drought under prolonged evaporative demand (Ogasa et al. 2013). Depleted NSCs 528 may limit the ability to recover from embolisms (Galiano et al. 2012). A. unedo is susceptible to 529 hydraulic dysfunction induced by depleted NSC (e.g. Rosas et al., 2013) which might explain 530 the severe branch dieback of A. unedo in our study. As shrubby species characteristic of 531 Maquis-biomes (Beyschlag et al. 1986, Harley et al. 1986), A. unedo likely faced a trade-off 532 between growing tall and risking hydraulic dysfunction due to high xylem tension under severe 533 soil-water deficits (Choat et al. 2012). Though, A. unedo might contend with severe climatic 534 stress through its strong capacity to resprout (see also Ogaya & Peñuelas, 2004). 535 Pines follow a strategy of water conservation and embolism avoidance, because they have a low 536 capacity to store carbohydrates (Meinzer et al. 2009). P. halepensis had a high growth-based 537 water-use efficiency (WUE_{BAI} = Basal area increment/Tree transpiration) during severe drought 538 (Sánchez-Costa et al., unpublished results), through the combinatory effect of photosynthetic 539 downregulation, foliar-trait acclimation, and improved gas exchange. Thus, this tree species is 540 comparatively the most productive one, especially under drought, confirming its high 541 competitiveness in dry habitats (Zavala and Zea 2004, Maseyk et al. 2008, de Luis et al. 2011). Sánchez-Costa et al. (unpublished results) observed a higher WUEBAI in Q. pubescens compared 542 543 to Q. ilex during the soil-moisture deficit in 2012. The "low-cost" leaves of the deciduous Q. 544 pubescens facilitate drought senescence, so that the reduced transpiratory surface area can 545 effectively avoid damage from hydraulic cavitation and xylem embolism (Ogaya and Peñuelas 546 2006, Barbeta et al. 2013). Fully refoliated crowns in the following growing season was 547 evidence of its success relative to A. unedo. The extraordinarily high photosynthetic potentials 548 in the remaining leaves were probably due to a mechanism to compensate for the reduced total 549 leaf area, as indicated by the higher translocation of leaf nitrogen before leaf shedding. 550 Q. ilex can effectively tolerate the effects of drought by reducing its LMA and by allowing low 551 water potentials (anisohydric behaviour) (Villar-Salvador et al. 1997, Ogaya and Peñuelas 2006, 552 Limousin et al. 2009). Its hydraulic features are highly plastic, because yearly vessel diameter 553 and recovery are well coupled with annual rainfall (Fotelli et al. 2000, Corcuera et al. 2004). Q. 554 ilex, however, was also severely effected in 2012, shedding leaves (Tognetti et al. 1998), 555 reducing radial growth and WUE_{BAI} (Sánchez-Costa et al., unpublished results). The positive 556 $A_{\rm net}$, despite the reduced WUE_{BAI}, suggests that photosynthetic products were used for the 557 maintenance and recovery of xylem hydraulic conductivity instead of growth (Castell et al. 558 1994). In fact, Quercus species show generally a good ability in vessel refilling after xylem 559 embolism (Carnicer et al. 2013).

Implications for the global carbon cycle and modelling

561 There is evidence that the use of seasonally variable photosynthetic potentials reduces 562 uncertainties in modelled ecosystem carbon fluxes relative to the use of constant values (Wilson 563 et al. 2001, Tanaka et al. 2002, Kosugi et al. 2003, 2006, Medvigy et al. 2013). The significant seasonal acclimation of $V_{\rm c,max}$ and $J_{\rm max}$ observed in our study demonstrates that prognostic 564 565 models should account for seasonal variation, especially in drought-prone areas. Also, the 566 significant role of $g_{\rm m}$ under abiotic stress periods highlights its importance for estimating the 567 whole-carbon gain. It is now widely accepted that the apparent values of $V_{c,max}$ and J_{max} derived 568 from A/C_i curves are, from a physiological point of view, incorrect. A recent study by Sun et al. 569 (2014a) for nearly 130 C_3 species showed that the assumption of infinite g_m in the 570 parameterization of CO₂-response curves underestimates $V_{c,max}$ and J_{max} by up to 75 and 60%, 571 respectively. Terrestrial biosphere models on regional or global scales are most commonly 572 calibrated on A/C_i-based parameters and therefore use apparent values of $V_{c,max}$ and J_{max} . 573 Incorporating values of $V_{c,max}$ and J_{max} parameterised on A/C_c curves would clearly lead to 574 erroneous results, because their use requires the incorporation of g_m and different Rubisco 575 kinetic parameters into the sub-models of photosynthesis. Therefore, the use of consistent 576 equations and parameters when incorporating parameters from experimental studies into 577 vegetation models is inevitable to correctly estimate photosynthesis (Rogers et al. 2014). From a 578 modelling point of view, it might seem questionable why including g_m and A/C_c- based parameters would improve simulation results and not just increase model complexity. 579 580 Terrestrial biosphere models are currently well calibrated against observational data despite 581 their use of apparent $V_{c,max}$ and J_{max} . Another criticism often raised is that there are still potential 582 errors in various methods to estimate $g_{\rm m}$ (and subsequently $V_{\rm c,max}$ and $J_{\rm max}$) including the 583 variable *J*- method (used in this study) (Pons et al. 2009, Tholen et al. 2012, Gu and Sun 2014). 584 Nonetheless, large uncertainties remain in the simulations of the future CO₂ fluxes of the global 585 carbon cycle (Anav et al. 2013, Friedlingstein et al. 2014). Patterns of temperature and 586 precipitation are highly uncertain in these models due to both a lack of scientific understanding 587 and model representation (Booth et al. 2012). 588 These uncertainties could partly explain the poor modelling performance for Mediterranean-589 type ecosystems, because the mechanistic description of the photosynthetic processes under 590 water stress is not very well developed (Morales et al. 2005, Keenan et al. 2011, Zheng et al. 591 2012, Vargas et al. 2013). As we have shown, the limitations imposed by $g_{\rm m}$ on photosynthetic 592 assimilation can decrease relatively more than the limitations imposed by g_s or biochemistry 593 $(V_{c,max})$ and J_{max} under drought or winter stress. This distinction has important consequences for 594 the control of water-use efficiency and holds great potential for improving the estimation of 595 ecosystem carbon fluxes under drought conditions (Niinemets et al. 2009a). As already 596 mentioned above, the issue of whether (and how) to include g_m in models is actively debated by 597 physiologists and modellers (see also Rogers et al. 2014). Keenan et al. (2010a) showed that $g_{\rm m}$

was the missing constraint for accurately capturing the response of terrestrial vegetation productivity to drought. Yet relatively little information is available from modelling exercises that have included $g_{\rm m}$ in their algorithms, and more research in this field is needed. Concluding the above, we underline that we need to consider the seasonality of photosynthetic potentials and mesophyll conductance to explain eco-physiological responses to abiotic stress. These two factors should deserves much more attention in terrestrial biosphere modelling because they hold great potential to reduce model uncertainties, especially under Mediterranean climatic conditions.

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Figure captions

- Fig. 1. Environmental variables are presented for the day of the year (DOY) from January 2011 until February 2013; a) atmospheric vapour pressure deficit (VPD), b) rainfall in mm c) soil water content in cm³ cm⁻³ (gap in data is due to power cut), d) maximum and minimum temperatures in °C on the primary y-axes (in dark circles) and radiation in W m⁻² (in light crosses, foreground) on the secondary y-axes.
- Field campaigns are indicated (acronyms of seasons are detailed in Tab. 2).

Fig. 2. Principal component analyses (PCA) for a) all trees species, leaf positions, and seasons, b) with differentiation between sunlit and shaded leaves, c) with differentiation between seasonal campaigns, and d) with differentiation between species. We used a subset of all data where both morphological and photosynthetic information was available. Fifteen parameters were used in the PCA: net assimilation rate (A_{net}) , stomatal conductance (g_s) , mesophyll conductance (g_m) , maximum carboxylation rate $(V_{c,\text{max}})$, maximum electron transport rate (J_{max}) , nonphotochemical quenching (NPQ), maximum quantum efficiency of PSII (F_v/F_m), leaf thickness (LT), leaf mass per area (LMA), leaf density (D), water content (WC), nitrogen content per leaf unit area (N_{area}), nitrogen content per leaf unit mass (N_{mass}), carbon content per leaf unit area (C_{area}), and carbon content per leaf unit mass (C_{mass}). The directions of the arrows indicate the higher levels of the parameters. Principal component (PC) 1 explains 37.2% of the variation, and PC 2 explained 20.4%. The ellipses are normal probability contour lines of 68% for the factors in b) leaf positions, c) seasons, and d) species.

Fig. 3. Line graphs depicting seasonal changes of a) maximum carboxylation rate $(V_{c,max})$, b) maximum electron-transport rate (J_{max}) , and c) maximum quantum efficiency of PSII (F_{v}/F_{m}) for Q. ilex, P. halepensis, A. unedo, and Q. pubescens in sunlit (1) and shaded (2) leaves. Seasonal campaigns were conducted in spring 2011 (sp11), summer 2011 (su11), autumn 2011^a (au11 a), autumn 2011^b (au11b), winter 2012 (wi12), spring 2012 (sp12), summer 2012 (su12), and winter 2013 (wi13). Missing data points were due to limitations of labour and equipment. Vertical bars indicate standard errors of the means (n = 3-5).

Fig. 4. Line graphs depicting seasonal changes of a) net assimilation (A_{net}) , b) stomatal conductance (g_s) , and c) mesophyll conductance (g_m) for Q. ilex, P. halepensis, A. unedo, and Q. pubescens in sunlit (1) and shaded (2) leaves. Seasonal campaigns were conducted in spring 2011 (sp11), summer 2011 (su11), autumn 2011^a (au11 a), autumn 2011^b (au11b), winter 2012 (wi12), spring 2012 (sp12), summer 2012 (su12), and winter 2013 (wi13). Missing data points were due to limitations of labour and equipment. Vertical bars indicate standard errors of the means (n = 3-5).

Fig 5. Seasonal changes of the relationships between a) net assimilation (A_{net}) and stomatal conductance (g_s), b) A_{net} and mesophyll conductance (g_m), and c) g_m and g_s in sunlit (1) and shaded (2) leaves. The regression lines represent the seasonal changes across species. For regression equations see Table S1-3. The relationships are shown as a thin solid line for spring 2011, short dashes for summer 2011, dots-

dashes for autumn 2011^{a)}, small dots for autumn 2011^{b)}, dashes for winter 2012, large dots for spring 2012, large dots-dashes for summer 2012, and a thick solid line for winter 2013. Statistical differences in the slopes between seasonal campaigns were tested by ANCOVAs.

Fig 6. Seasonal changes of the relationships between a) the maximum electron-transport rate (J_{max}) and the maximum carboxylation rate $(V_{\text{c,max}})$ and b) the electron-transport rate from chlorophyllic fluorescence (J_{amb}) and net assimilation (A_{net}) at ambient CO_2 concentrations and saturating light in sunlit (a) and shaded (b) leaves. The regression lines represent the seasonal changes across species. For regression equations see Table S4-5. The relationships are shown as a thin solid line for spring 2011, short dashes for summer 2011, dots-dashes for autumn 2011^{a)}, small dots for autumn 2011^{b)}, dashes for winter 2012, large dots for spring 2012, large dots-dashes for summer 2012, and a thick solid line for winter 2013.

Fig 7. Seasonal changes of the relationship for all species and leaf positions between a) mesophyll conductance (gm) and leaf mass per area (LMA). We used a subset of morphological and photosynthetic data. Non-linear regression lines of the form $y = x^{-b}$ were fitted to the data. The upper curve is for summer 2012 (b = 0.800), the middle curve is for spring 2012 (b = 0.953) and the lower two overlaying curves are for autumn 2011a) (b = 1.533) and winter 2012 (b = 1.486).

1121 **Supporting information**

- Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of this article.
- 1123 Fig. S1. Line graphs depicting seasonal changes of a) effective quantum efficiency of PSII
- 1124 (Φ_{PSII}), and b) nonphotochemical quenching (NPQ) for Q. ilex, P. halepensis, A. unedo, and Q.
- pubescens in sunlit (1) and shaded (2) leaves. Missing data points were due to limitations of
- labour and equipment. Vertical bars indicate standard errors of the means (n = 3-5).
- 1127 Fig. S2. Bar charts depicting seasonal changes of a) succulence (S), b) leaf density (D), c) water
- 1128 content (WC), and d) leaf thickness (LT) for Q. ilex, P. halepensis, A. unedo, and Q. pubescens
- in sunlit (1) and shaded (2) leaves. Error bars indicate standard errors of the means (n = 3-5).
- Fig. S3. Bar charts depicting seasonal changes of a) nitrogen per unit leaf area (N_{area}) and b)
- carbon per unit leaf mass (C_{mass}) for Q. ilex, P. halepensis, A. unedo, and Q. pubescens in sunlit
- 1132 (1) and shaded (2) leaves. Error bars indicate standard errors of the means (n = 3-5).
- 1133 **Table S1.** Regression equations and coefficients of determination (R^2) for A_{net}/g_s for sunlit and
- shaded leaves of Q. ilex, P. halepensis, A. unedo, and Q. pubescens in eight sampling
- 1135 campaigns
- 1136 **Table S2.** Regression equations and coefficients of determination (R^2) for $A_{\text{net}}/g_{\text{m}}$ for sunlit and
- shaded leaves of Q. ilex, P. halepensis, A. unedo, and Q. pubescens in eight sampling
- 1138 campaigns.
- 1139 **Table S3.** Regression equations and coefficients of determination (R^2) for $J_{\text{max}}/V_{\text{c,max}}$ for sunlit
- and shaded leaves of Q. ilex, P. halepensis, A. unedo, and Q. pubescens in eight sampling
- 1141 campaigns.
- 1142 **Table S4.** Regression equations and coefficients of determination (R^2) for J_{amb}/A_{net} for sunlit and
- shaded leaves of Q. ilex, P. halepensis, A. unedo, and Q. pubescens in eight sampling
- 1144 campaigns.
- 1145 **Table S5.** Regression equations and coefficients of determination (R^2) for g_m/g_s for sunlit and
- shaded leaves of Q. ilex, P. halepensis, A. unedo, and Q. pubescens in eight sampling
- 1147 campaigns.
- 1148 **Table S6.** Regression equations and coefficients of determination (R^2) for a) g_m/LMA and b)
- 1149 $V_{c,max}/N_{area}$ in four seasonal campaigns and for sunlit and shaded leaf positions for Q. ilex, P.
- halepensis, A. unedo, and Q. pubescens.
- Note S1 Calculation of maximum quantum yield of PSII and nonphotochemical quenching
- Note S2 Light experiments and estimation of day respiration

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