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- Rooting depth and xylem vulnerability are independent woody plant traits jointly selected
 by aridity, seasonality, and water table depth
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- **Running title:** Rooting depth and xylem vulnerability

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87 Summary

| 88 | • | Evolutionary radiations of woody taxa within arid environments were made possible by |
|-----|-------|---|
| 89 | | multiple trait innovations including deep roots and embolism-resistant xylem, but little is |
| 90 | | known about how these traits have coevolved across the phylogeny of woody plants or |
| 91 | | how they jointly influence the distribution of species. |
| 92 | • | We synthesized global trait and vegetation plot datasets to examine how rooting depth |
| 93 | | and xylem vulnerability across 188 woody plant species interact with aridity, |
| 94 | | precipitation seasonality, and water table depth to influence species occurrence |
| 95 | | probabilities across all biomes. |
| 96 | • | Here we show that xylem resistance to embolism and rooting depth are independent |
| 97 | | woody plant traits that do not exhibit a trade-off. Resistant xylem and deep roots increase |
| 98 | | occurrence probabilties in arid, seasonal climates over deep water tables. Resistant xylem |
| 99 | | and shallow roots increase occurrence probabilities in arid, non-seasonal climates over |
| 100 | | deep water tables. Vulnerable xylem and deep roots increase occurrence probabilities in |
| 101 | | arid, non-seasonal climates over shallow water tables. Vulnerable xylem and shallow |
| 102 | | roots increase occurrence probabilities in humid climates. |
| 103 | • | Traits related to water uptake and transport explain biogeographic-scale species |
| 104 | | occurrences, suggesting that responses of deeply rooted vegetation may be buffered if |
| 105 | | evaporative demand changes faster than water table depth under climate change. |
| 106 | | |
| 107 | Keyw | ords: cavitation, drought avoider, drought resistant, embolism, species distribution |
| 108 | model | ing, water availability |

110 'Species that show deviations from statistical correlations (and there are always many such

111 species) may tell us more about the adaptive value of particular characteristics than species that

112 *fit the correlation.*' (Sherwin Carlquist, 1975, p. 1)

113

114 Introduction

115 Hotter droughts are expected to become more frequent and severe under most climate change 116 scenarios (Spinoni et al., 2018; Hammond et al., 2022) and they have already resulted in 117 widespread tree mortality (Bauman et al., 2022; Hartmann et al., 2022; McDowell et al., 2022). 118 Understanding which plant species are winners and losers under scenarios of decreasing water 119 availability is critical for improving predictions of vegetation dynamics (Hammond et al., 2019) 120 and ecosystem restoration success (Laughlin *et al.*, 2017). Rooting depth and xylem vulnerability 121 to drought-induced embolism are strongly linked to how woody plant species respond to 122 moisture availability (Aubin et al., 2016; Volaire, 2018) because the physiological link between 123 water uptake and xylem conductance is vital to maintaining photosynthesis in arid climates and 124 during dry seasons. However, little is known about how these traits have coevolved within 125 woody taxa, nor do we know the joint effects of these traits on species distributions and potential 126 responses to global change.

Survival in water-limited landscapes can be achieved by resisting, avoiding, or escaping
dehydration caused by low soil water potentials (May & Milthorpe, 1962; Fischer & Maurer,
1978; Levitt, 1980; Volaire, 2018). First, drought resistance (also called drought tolerance) is
achieved by constructing xylem that can resist embolism formation and maintain water
conductance to enable CO₂ uptake even under extreme negative xylem pressure. Woody plants
vary widely in their vulnerability to embolism (Hacke *et al.*, 2001; Maherali *et al.*, 2004; Choat

133 et al., 2012), which can be quantified by P_{50} , the xylem pressure (MPa) at which xylem 134 conductance is reduced to 50% of its maximum. Species with lower P₅₀ values (i.e., more 135 negative values) are more resistant to embolism. Second, drought avoidance can be achieved by 136 constructing root systems that access deeper soil water in the unsaturated vadose zone or directly 137 from the water table in the saturated zone (Loheide *et al.*, 2005; Ryel *et al.*, 2008). Maximum 138 rooting depth varies widely among woody plants (Canadell et al., 1996; Jackson et al., 1996). Deep root systems evolved for a variety of reasons, including anchorage, support, and increasing 139 140 the available soil volume, but here we explore its vital role in water uptake. Shallow-rooted 141 species rely on rainfall directly, whereas deep-rooted species can access water from deeper and 142 older sources of water (Miguez-Macho & Fan, 2021). Both phreatophytic species that tap into 143 water tables and deeply-rooted xerophytic plants that access vadose zone soil water can avoid the 144 drought-induced reductions in soil water potential near the soil surface (Ryel *et al.*, 2008; Miguez-Macho & Fan, 2021). In arid climates, species that develop only shallow roots confront 145 146 drought directly and must be able to resist embolism formation. If "roots grow only as deeply as 147 needed" (Schenk & Jackson, 2002, p. 481), then in humid climates plants should grow shallow 148 roots, and may even need to restrict their roots to the shallow oxygenated zone to prevent anoxia 149 (Jackson et al., 1996; Fan et al., 2017; Tumber-Dávila et al., 2022). Third, drought escape can be achieved by completing a short life cycle during the wet growing season or by deciduous leaf 150 151 senescence in the dry season.

The large carbon investment into growth and maintenance of deep roots must be offset by carbon gains made possible by having such deep roots, otherwise the strategy would be unlikely to have evolved (Seyfried *et al.*, 2005). The construction costs of deep roots could possibly be offset by lower stem xylem construction costs, and evidence for a trade-off between rooting

156 depth and xylem resistance to embolism was demonstrated across 12 species in a humid tropical forest, where shallow-rooted species were more tolerant of low water potentials (Brum et al., 157 158 2019). However, the relationship between rooting depth and xylem vulnerability across global-159 scale climatic gradients has never been rigorously quantified. There are well-known examples of 160 deep-rooted species in arid climates that also exhibit remarkably resistant stem xylem (Jackson et 161 al., 2000; Seyfried et al., 2005), suggesting that the carbon costs of constructing both deep roots and resistant xylem are offset by the carbon gains that are achieved by simultaneously avoiding 162 163 and resisting dehydration.

164 Rooting depth and xylem vulnerability may jointly influence species distributions along 165 gradients of water availability in complex ways (Fig. 1A). Water limitation in plants is affected 166 by the regional macroclimate, precipitation seasonality, and local topography and drainage 167 gradients (Schwinning & Ehleringer, 2001; Fan et al., 2017; Grossiord et al., 2020). Climatic aridity is defined by both the total precipitation relative to potential evapotranspiration, as well as 168 the occurrence of dry seasons during the year. From a hydrological perspective, water from 169 170 'uplands' (defined as well-drained topographic positions independent of elevation above sea 171 level) flows into local topographic depressions creating shallow water tables in 'lowlands' 172 (defined as poorly drained topographic depressions independent of elevation above sea level) (Fig. 1A) (Nobre et al., 2011; Fan et al., 2017). Water table depth is largely independent of 173 174 regional climate because it is primarily under hydrologic control (Sousa et al., 2022), and plant 175 species responses to regional drought may depend on water table depth (Sousa et al., 2020). For 176 example, phreatophytic plants growing in arid riparian areas experience severe atmospheric 177 vapor pressure deficits yet have ample access to soil water. Conversely, plants growing in coarse, 178 shallow, or excessively drained soils within humid regions will experience local soil water

deficits despite receiving high amounts of precipitation. In previous studies, species with low P₅₀
were associated with arid regional climates (Larter *et al.*, 2017; Laughlin *et al.*, 2020a) and
upland topographical positions (Oliveira *et al.*, 2019). Plants with shallow roots tend to occur in
humid climates and waterlogged soil, whereas both shallow and deep-rooted species occur in
well-drained soil in arid climates (Schenk & Jackson, 2005; Fan *et al.*, 2017). Determining the
joint response of both traits to gradients of regional aridity, seasonality, and local water table
depth will improve our understanding of vegetation response to drought.

In this paper, we combined species-level trait data with two macroclimatic gradients and 186 187 one local gradient in water availability and asked the following two research questions: (1) Are 188 P₅₀ and maximum rooting depth correlated across the phylogeny of woody plants? and (2) Are species occurrences along regional aridity, seasonality, and local water table depth gradients 189 190 jointly explained by species P_{50} and maximum rooting depth? We demonstrate that there is no 191 evidence for a trade-off between drought resistance and avoidance and that each combination of 192 xylem vulnerability and rooting depth values differentially optimizes occurrence probabilities 193 along multiple gradients of water availability. 194

(A) Three drivers of water limitation



196

Figure 1. (A) Gradients of regional aridity (macroclimate), precipitation seasonality, and local water table depth drive variation of water limitation in plants. Green text reports predictions of optimal trait values along each environmental gradient. Note rooting depth is predicted to be highest at intemediate water table depth (Fan et al. 2017) (B) Biogeographic distribution of vegetation plots from the sPlot 3.0 database around the planet illustrated as density of plots per hexagonal grid cell. (C) Bioclimatic distribution of vegetation plots within Whittaker biome defined by mean annual temperature and total annual precipitation.

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205

206 Material and Methods

207 Dataset compilation

208 We combined the Xylem Functional Traits (XFT) database (Choat et al., 2012) with recently 209 published data to quantify average P₅₀ trait data at the species level (Table S1). We discarded 210 vulnerability curves that were non-sigmoidal in shape or were generated using the air-injection 211 method (Cochard et al., 2013). We merged this P₅₀ dataset with the Root Systems of Individual 212 Plants (RSIP) database based on species (Tumber-Dávila et al., 2022). We calculated maximum 213 rooting depth for each species as the absolute maximum rooting depth recorded for that species 214 in the database. This estimates the potential rooting depth of a species and is analogous to 215 maximum height, another size-dependent trait and key indicator of plant ecological strategies 216 (Díaz et al., 2022). Maximum rooting depth is meaningful because it captures the potential for 217 individuals of a species to construct deep roots. This potential may be more informative than 218 individual trait values, which are highly plastic and noisy, for explaining species occurrence 219 across environmental gradients. Maximum rooting depth was strongly correlated with the median 220 of individual plant rooting depths across species (r = 0.85), and models that used median rooting 221 depth were qualitatively indistinguishable from models that used maximum rooting depth. After 222 standardizing species names according to the World Flora Online taxonomic backbone (Miller & 223 Ulate, 2017) and filtering out two outlying measurements of maximum rooting depth that were < 224 0.3 m, the database contained 903 species (2458 observations) with average P₅₀ and 1089 species 225 (2716 observations) with maximum rooting depth. We merged the datasets based on species 226 names and found that both traits have been measured on 207 woody species (Table S1). For 227 these 207 species, there were 871 observations of P₅₀ and 950 observations of rooting depth (Table S1). 228

We extracted vegetation plots from the sPlot 3.0 database (Bruelheide *et al.*, 2019) that contained at least one of the 207 species with P₅₀ and rooting depth data and had a location

| 231 | uncertainty of 1 km or less (508,443 plots). Of the 207 species, 188 were present in at least one |
|-----|--|
| 232 | plot (1,733,795 occurrences). The selected plots were broadly distributed worldwide and |
| 233 | throughout Whittaker's bioclimatic space (Fig. 1B-C). Vegetation plots were assigned to |
| 234 | ecoregions using Olson's updated ecoregion map (Olson et al., 2001; Dinerstein et al., 2017). |
| 235 | We defined regional species pools as all of our species that were detected within an ecoregion, |
| 236 | and we defined species absences as species that were present in the regional species pool but not |
| 237 | detected in the plot itself (Laughlin et al., 2021). For each plot, we extracted the aridity index |
| 238 | (the ratio of precipitation-to-potential evapotranspiration) from the Global Aridity Index and |
| 239 | Potential Evapo-Transpiration Climate Database (Zomer et al., 2008; Trabucco & Zomer, 2018), |
| 240 | water table depth (WTD) from the 'wtd' database (Döll & Fiedler, 2008; Fan et al., 2013), and |
| 241 | precipitation seasonality (the CV of monthly precipitation) from WorldClim (Fick & Hijmans, |
| 242 | 2017). The aridity index estimates macroclimatic water availability, where ratios <0.65 indicate |
| 243 | arid climates and >0.65 indicate humid climates (Fig 1A). Water table depth varies |
| 244 | independently of climate (in this dataset, the correlation coefficient between aridity and WTD is |
| 245 | r = 0.13) and is thought to be a major driver of rooting depth distributions (Fan <i>et al.</i> , 2017). |
| 246 | Of the 207 species for which rooting depth and P_{50} were available, 105 were evergreen |
| 247 | and 102 were deciduous (Table S1). We focus on drought resistance and avoidance in this paper |
| 248 | because only a few deciduous species in our dataset were drought-deciduous escapers; the vast |
| 249 | majority were cold-deciduous species. Nevertheless, we evaluate deciduous and evergreen |
| 250 | species to understand their effects on the overall model results. |
| 251 | |

252 Data Analysis

253 To answer question 1, we extracted a fully resolved phylogeny based on the PhytoPhylo 254 megaphylogeny (Qian & Jin, 2016) using the R package V.PhyloMaker version 0.1.0 (Jin & 255 Qian, 2019). We calculated Pagel's λ under a Brownian motion model of evolution to quantify 256 the phylogenetic signal for each trait (Pagel, 1999) using the phylosig function in the R package 257 phytools version 1.2.0 (Revell 2012). We quantified the phylogenetic covariance between the 258 two traits by fitting phylogenetic generalized least squares (PGLS) regression and a phylogenetic 259 correlation structure to account for the non-independence of species across the phylogeny 260 (Revell & Harmon, 2022). Ancestral state reconstruction used maximum likelihood estimates 261 under a Brownian motion model of evolution. The phylogeny was plotted using the R package 262 phytools (Revell, 2012).

263 To answer question 2, we compared two generalized linear mixed effects models of 264 species presence-absence data using the binomial family and logit link. Both models included 265 species random intercepts to account for the fact that trait data were species-level averages and 266 not measured at the intraspecific level at each location, and ecoregion random intercepts to 267 account for the different numbers of observations in each ecoregion. Model 1 was an 268 environment-only model that included linear and quadratic fixed effects terms for aridity, 269 seasonality, and WTD, and interactions among their linear terms. Model 2 included both the 270 environment and traits, where P₅₀, rooting depth, aridity, seasonality, and WTD, their squared 271 terms, and interactions among linear terms up to a five-way interaction, were included as fixed 272 effects. Aridity index and the absolute value of P₅₀ were square root transformed, seasonality, 273 WTD and rooting depth were log transformed, and all predictors were mean-centered and scaled 274 to a standard deviation of 1 prior to fitting the models.

275

For example, in Model 1:

276 $y_i \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p_i)$

277
$$p_i = \text{logit}^{-1}(\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{arid}_i + \beta_2 \text{arid}_i^2 + \beta_3 \text{WTD}_i + \beta_4 \text{WTD}_i^2 + \beta_5 \text{seas}_i + \beta_6 \text{seas}_i^2$$

278

 $+ \beta_7$ arid_iWTD_i + $+\beta_8$ arid_iseas_i + β_9 WTD_iseas_i + β_{10} arid_iWTD_iseas_i

 $279 \qquad + \eta_{i[i]} + \gamma_{k[i]})$

280 where y_i is the *i*th presence-absence record, p_i is the expected occurrence probability, the β 's are 281 regression coefficients, η_i is a random intercept for species *j* drawn from a normal distribution, N(0, σ_{η}), and γ_k is a random intercept for ecoregion k drawn from a normal distribution, N(0, σ_{γ}). 282 283 This models a two-dimensional surface of P₅₀ and rooting depth and its interaction with a three-284 dimensional surface of aridity, seasonality, and WTD. The shape of the trait surface changes in 285 relation to aridity, seasonality, and WTD, accounting for trait-by-environment interactions that cause different trait combinations to be selected in different environments. We compared models 286 287 1 and 2 using a likelihood ratio test to determine the importance of traits for explaining species 288 occurrences when environmental variables were already in the model. The R syntax of Model 2 using the bam function in the R package mgcv 1.8.41 (Wood, 2011) was as follows: pres ~ arid * 289 wtd * ps * p50 * rd + arid² + wtd² + ps² + p50² + rd² + s(spp, bs = "re") + s(eco, bs = "re"). We 290 plotted 90% confidence intervals using posterior simulations from the fitted model. 291

We plotted model predictions of occurrence probabilities at different combinations of environment and trait values. We plotted conditional effects of each trait by illustrating the effects of one trait, while holding the other trait at its mean value, at different combinations of high (95th percentile) or low (5th percentile) aridity, seasonality, and water table depth. To illustrate trait-by-trait interactions, we plotted landscapes of occurrence probabilities across a two-dimensional surface of P₅₀ and rooting depth at different combinations of aridity, seasonality, and water table depth. To test the four hypotheses directly, we fixed the two traits at

| their 5 th and 95 th percentiles to represent four plant strategies and plotted landscapes of |
|---|
| occurrence probabilities along a two-dimensional surface of aridity and WTD at two levels of |
| seasonality. The average occurrence probability across this large dataset is approximately 5%, so |
| predicted probabilities vary above and below this mean value. All analyses used R version 4.2.2. |
| |
| Results |
| Phylogenetic correlation |
| Mean P ₅₀ and maximum rooting depth exhibited significant phylogenetic signal (Fig. 2), |
| although the signal was weaker for rooting depth (P ₅₀ : Pagel's $\lambda = 0.91$, $P < 0.001$; rooting depth: |
| Pagel's $\lambda = 0.58$, $P < 0.01$). These two traits were uncorrelated (Fig. 3) across the phylogeny of |
| woody plants (PGLS slope = 0.06, SE = 0.07, $t = 0.95$, $P = 0.35$), and inspection of intraspecific |
| trait ranges provided no indication that these traits were correlated (Figure S1). Deciduous and |
| evergreen species were well distributed throughout this two-dimensional trait space, but |
| deciduous species had on average more vulnerable xylem than evergreen species (Fig. 3). |
| |



Figure 2. Xylem vulnerability to embolism (P₅₀) mapped onto the phylogeny of woody plants, where the color of the internal tree branches show vulnerability based on maximum likelihoodbased ancestral state reconstruction. Dark colors indicate more resistant xylem and light colors indicate more vulnerable xylem (see legend in the center). The outer bars represent maximum rooting depth (log-scale) for each species, where longer bars represent deeper roots (see lower left for rooting depth scale legend). Pictures of representative species of major clades are illustrated around the phylogeny.



Deciduous
 A Evergreen

Figure 3. Distribution of species in the bivariate trait space defined by maximum observed 323 324 rooting depth and mean P₅₀. Deciduous species are red and evergreen species are blue. Vertical 325 and horizontal lines denote the 50th percentiles of the traits. Species names associated with bold 326 symbols were selected by an algorithm to represent as much as the occupied trait space as possible because not all names could easily fit. The four grey points represent the 5th and 95th 327 percentiles of the trait distributions (-7.0 and -1.5 MPa for P₅₀; 12.9 and 0.6 m for rooting depth) 328 329 to represent each of the four plant strategies described in Figure 1B (see Methods). The curves 330 depict the distribution of values across each of the two trait axes for each leaf type. 331

Models of occurrence probabilities

| 334 | The generalized linear mixed effects model that included traits (see Model 2 results in Table S2) |
|-----|--|
| 335 | explained 16.7% of the deviance (marginal $R^2 = 0.24$; conditional $R^2 = 0.70$). A likelihood ratio |
| 336 | test (LRT) determined that traits were a significant improvement to the model that only included |
| 337 | environmental data as predictors (LRT $\chi^2_{21} = 188, 143; P < 0.0001$) (see Model 1 results in Table |
| 338 | S3). Traits exhibited no significant main effects (i.e., the trait effects depended on the |
| 339 | environment), and the quadratic term for rooting depth was not significant. Nearly all trait-by- |
| 340 | environment interactions were significant (Table S2). |
| 341 | P ₅₀ interacted with aridity, seasonality, and water table depth (Fig. 4, Table S2). The |
| 342 | effect of P ₅₀ on probability of occurrence switched from negative to positive from arid to humid |
| 343 | climates, where the probability of occurrence of species resistant to embolism increased in more |
| 344 | arid climates (Fig 4A,B). In arid climates with shallow water tables, low P ₅₀ values increased |
| 345 | occurrence probability in seasonal environments, whereas high P ₅₀ values increased occurrence |
| 346 | probabilities in non-seasonal environments (Fig 4C). |
| 347 | Rooting depth interacted weakly with aridity, seasonality, and water table depth (Fig. 4, |
| 348 | Table S2). The effect of rooting depth on probability of occurrence switched from positive to |
| 349 | negative in arid to humid climates, where the probability of occurrence of species that avoid |
| 350 | drought by constructing deep roots increased in more arid climates (Fig. 4E,F). The interaction |
| 351 | was weak because the importance of shallow roots in humid climates increased slightly in sites |

with shallower water tables (Fig 4F,H).



Figure 4. (A-D) Effects of P₅₀ on occurrence probability (with rooting depth held at its average
value, 2.6 m) at the 5th and 95th percentiles of the aridity index, seasonality, and water table depth
(WTD). (E-H) Effects of rooting depth on occurrence probability (with P₅₀ held at its average
value, -3.6 MPa) at the 5th and 95th percentiles of the aridity index, seasonality, and water table
depth (WTD). Note that the 5th percentile of WTD was close to zero meters.

Trait-by-environment interactions generated highly contingent occurrence landscapes. Landscapes of probabilities illustrate the trait values and environments that optimize species occurrence probabilities and can be viewed through two perspectives: first, as functions of aridity, seasonality, and water table depth for each of the four plant strategies (Figure 5); and second, as functions of P₅₀ and rooting depth in different combinations of aridity, seasonality, and water table depth (Figure 6).

368 Each strategy was most likely to occur in different environments. First, resistant avoiders (low P₅₀ and deep roots) were most likely to occur in arid and seasonal climates in sites with 369 370 deep water tables (Figures 5A, 6A). Second, vulnerable confronters (high P₅₀ and shallow roots) 371 were most likely to occur in humid climates at any water table depth (Figures 5D, 6B, 6D). 372 Third, resistant confronters (low P₅₀ and shallow roots) were most likely to occur in arid and 373 non-seasonal environments in sites with deep water tables (Figure 5C). Fourth, vulnerable 374 avoiders (high P₅₀ and deep roots) were most likely to occur in arid and non-seasonal climates in 375 sites with shallow water tables (Figure 5B, 6C).

Trends in occurrence probabilities for deciduous species were qualitatively similar to full model results (Figure S2). However, resistant confronters and vulnerable avoiders with evergreen leaves exhibited relatively flat occurrence landscapes, suggesting that the full model results for these two strategies were driven by deciduous species.

380

depth at the 5th and 95th percentiles of precipitation seasonality. Warm colors indicate higher

386 probability of occurrence and cool colors indicate lower probability of occurrence. The

environmental space is masked to emphasize the 99th percentile of observed environmental

388 variation. Contour interval = 0.01.

Figure 6. Occurrence probability landscapes illustrating changes in the probability of woody species occurrence in different environments (i.e., set as the 5th and 95th percentiles of the aridity index and water table depth (WTD) at the 5th and 95th percentiles of precipitation seasonality along continuous gradients of P₅₀ and maximum rooting depth. Warm colors indicate higher probability of occurrence and cool colors indicate lower probability of occurrence. The trait space is masked to illustrate the convex hull of observed trait values. Contour interval = 0.01.

397 Discussion

Xylem vulnerability to drought-induced embolism and maximum rooting depth have each been
separately investigated as drivers of drought resistance and avoidance in woody species
(Canadell *et al.*, 1996; Choat *et al.*, 2012), yet their phylogenetic correlation and the joint effect
of these traits on species distributions were unknown until now. Here we have shown that 1)
drought resistance and avoidance are orthogonal woody plant strategies, and 2) P₅₀ and rooting
depth jointly improve predictions of species occurrence probabilities along gradients of aridity,
seasonality, and water table depth.

405 First, it has been suggested that drought resistance trades-off with drought avoidance 406 because species in a tropical forest were either shallow-rooted trees that built resistant xylem or 407 were deep-rooted trees that built vulnerable xylem (Brum et al., 2019). This proposed trade-off 408 assumed that investment in deep root systems comes at a cost of constructing vulnerable xylem. 409 However, our large sample across the phylogeny of woody plants provides strong evidence that 410 P₅₀ and rooting depth are phylogenetically uncorrelated. The many species that "show deviations 411 from statistical correlations" (Carlquist, 1975, p. 1) provide insight into the adaptive value of 412 these traits. The large carbon investment into growth and maintenance of deep roots and resistant 413 xylem must be offset by the large carbon gains that are made possible by deep roots and resistant 414 xylem in dry environments, otherwise these phenotypes could not persist in these environments. 415 Moreover, many plant species construct shallow root systems and vulnerable xylem to maximize 416 carbon gain in wetter environments. Drought resistance and avoidance do not exhibit a trade-off 417 and species representing most major clades of woody seed plants have been able to explore the 418 full range of combinations of these two traits to occupy a broad range of environments.

419 Second, P₅₀ and rooting depth jointly explain species occurrence probabilities, thereby 420 advancing our conceptual understanding of how species may respond to changing water 421 availability under climate change. Our modeling results suggest that forecasting woody species 422 range shifts in response to changing climate must also consider topographically mediated 423 hydrologic regimes. While both xylem vulnerability and rooting depth were more strongly 424 related to aridity, they interacted with water table depth to determine species occurrence 425 probabilities. Given that water table depth is relatively independent of regional climate (Fan et 426 al., 2017), if evaporative demand changes faster than water table depth under climate change, 427 then deeply-rooted vegetation responses may be buffered in the near-term by stable water table 428 depths.

429 To facilitate the interpretation of model results based on a complex five-way interaction 430 of continuous traits and environments, we discuss each of the four strategies that represent low 431 and high values of each trait in turn (Fig. 1B, Fig. 3, Fig. 5). First, resistant avoiders (low P₅₀ and 432 deep roots) exhibit, in theory, the most drought-tolerant strategy because they can withstand 433 substantial negative pressures in their xylem and at the same time are also able to avoid these 434 strongly negative pressures when accessing deep soil water reservoirs (Hammond *et al.*, 2019; 435 Tumber-Dávila et al., 2022). This strategy is most likely to occur in arid, seasonal climates with 436 deep water tables (Figs. 5E and 6E). This result was consistent for deciduous and evergreen 437 species, but most resistant avoiders were evergreen. For example, the evergreen angiosperm 438 Arbutus unedo, a small tree that grows in Mediterranean chaparral on dry slopes and ridges, and 439 the evergreen gymnosperm Juniperus monosperma, a small tree that grows in arid deserts, 440 illustrate how resistant xylem and deep roots optimize growth and survival in arid uplands. In

441 order to survive in some of the driest environments on earth, constructing deep roots and

442 resistant xylem is the optimal strategy for maintaining a positive carbon balance.

Second, resistant confronters (low P₅₀ and shallow roots) are most likely to occur in arid, 443 444 non-seasonal climates over deep water tables. This agrees with previous empirical work that arid 445 environments contain both deep and shallow-rooted species (Fan et al., 2017) yet clarifies that 446 shallow roots are more adaptive in non-seasonal arid climates where more consistent 447 precipitation (albeit still modest amounts) wets the top soil layers throughout the year. This result appeared to be driven by deciduous species, such as Amelanchier ovalis, which grows in open 448 449 sites in dry climates, but evergreen species, such as Encelia farinosa and Juniperus scopulorum, 450 also grow in dry habitats with well-drained soil (Ehleringer, 1993). 451 Third, vulnerable avoiders (high P₅₀ and deep roots) are most likely to occur in arid, nonseasonal climates over shallow water tables. This result was also most evident in deciduous 452 species. For example, the deciduous Populus euphratica grows in central Asian river flood plains 453 454 in arid regions (Bruelheide et al., 2010). This strategy may be emblematic of deep-rooted, 455 phraetophytic species that occur in desert riparian zones (Loheide et al., 2005). Fourth, vulnerable confronters (high P₅₀ and shallow roots) present, in theory, the least 456 457 drought-tolerant strategy because root-to-shoot conductance can decline under even weak 458 negative xylem pressure that cannot be overcome by access to deep soil water (Hammond *et al.*, 459 2019; Tumber-Dávila et al., 2022). This strategy is most likely to occur in humid climates, 460 regardless of water table depth. This result was consistent for deciduous and evergreen species. For example, the deciduous angiosperm Salix cinerea is a medium-sized shrub that grows in 461 462 wetlands in humid climates. Juglans cinerea, on the other hand, is a deciduous angiosperm tree 463 that grows in humid climates ranging from streambanks to well-drained slopes. Other drought464 related traits that were not measured here, such as leaf turgor loss point, could further explain 465 how species that are vulnerable confronters such as Juglans cinerea can survive in well-drained dry soil, yet turgor loss point was not available for most of the 188 species in this dataset. 466 467 Our work represents the first systematic analysis of the combined effect of drought 468 resistance and avoidance on the global distribution of woody species. Yet, some limitations of 469 the study deserve attention. First, maximum rooting depth data is underestimated due to the 470 logisitical difficulty of measuring this trait, and rooting depth within species responds plastically 471 to variation in soil water depth (Schenk & Jackson, 2005; Fan et al., 2017). Given the low 472 number of replicated trait observations within species (Table S1, Figure S1), our analysis was 473 unable to evaluate the phenotypic plasticity of each trait and whether individual species could 474 acclimate to changing vapor pressure deficits and soil water availability. We urge researchers to 475 develop methods to simultaneously measure xylem vulnerability and rooting depth on individual 476 plants in their environments. Second, our analysis does not predict the growth, survival, and 477 reproduction of different ontogenetic stages of trees, and these are the fitness components that 478 are important to population dynamics that lead to range shifts (Merow et al., 2017). Our analysis 479 is an important first step to determine the joint effect of these critical traits on species responses 480 to changing aridity, seasonality, and water table depth, but future work should link these trait-by-481 environment interactions to demographic rates and population growth rates to improve 482 forecasting generality (Laughlin et al., 2020b). Third, the limited data availability for drought-483 deciduous species prevented us from understanding how the drought escape strategy relates to 484 drought resistance and avoidance. Future work should address these limitations. 485 The earliest plants to colonize the land emerged in humid tropical environments and

486 likely did not stray too far from shorelines and streambanks where evaporative demand was

487 moderated by humid atmospheres and shallow water tables (Willis & McElwain, 2014; Bouda *et al.*, 2022). The evolution of increasing resistance to embolism and extension of roots deep into 489 the soil profile permitted species to occupy increasingly drier environments, and these traits have 490 retained their adaptive advantages to this day. Simultaneous understanding of drought resistance 491 and avoidance strategies that have evolved across the phylogeny of woody plants will enhance 492 our predictions of vegetation response to changing water availability and guide species selection 493 in ecological restoration projects (Laughlin *et al.*, 2017; McDowell *et al.*, 2022).

494

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505 Author Contributions

506 DL designed the study. AS, JF, and DL conducted the data analyses. DL and AS wrote the first507 draft, and all authors contributed substantially to revisions.

508

509 **Competing Interests**

| 510 | None declared. |
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| 511 | |
| 512 | Data Availability |
| 513 | All code and data will be archived on Dryad upon acceptance and the data DOI will be included |
| 514 | at the end of the article. Code is available for review at Andrew Siefert's GitHub repository |
| 515 | https://github.com/andrewsiefert/xylem_root3. |
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688 Supporting Information

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section atthe end of this article.