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1 Hourly water-carbon interactions modulate decadal water-use efficiency trends inferred
2 from ecosystem-scale measurements

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19

20 **Abstract**

21 Plant stomatal conductance regulates photosynthesis and transpiration. This
22 physiological link affects ecosystem responses to microclimate and harmonizes carbon,
23 energy, and water exchanges between the biosphere and atmosphere. The relationship
24 between water losses via transpiration and carbon gains via photosynthesis can be
25 quantified by plant water-use efficiency (*WUE*). While leaf- and ecosystem-scale
26 observations both suggest rising *WUE* in recent decades, *WUE* trends inferred from the
27 ecosystem scale are much larger than those inferred from the leaf scale or implied by
28 theory. The unexpectedly large ecosystem-scale *WUE* trends complicate interpretation
29 of ecophysiological responses to changing environmental conditions. Here, we analyze
30 ecosystem-scale *WUE* inferred from 40 FLUXNET sites, each with at least 10 years of
31 measurements. Our results demonstrate that observed ecosystem-scale *WUE* trends are
32 more sensitive to hourly weather conditions than longer-term changes in atmospheric
33 carbon dioxide or vapor pressure deficit. Our analysis shows that Earth System Models
34 participating in CMIP6 did not capture the observed *WUE* sensitivity to inter-site
35 variability and microclimatic conditions. Collectively, our findings suggest that
36 ecosystem-scale *WUE* trends reflect water-carbon interactions across multiple temporal
37 scales, and disentangling factors contributing to emergent ecosystem responses is
38 needed to infer ecophysiological relationships and model structures from observations.

39

40 **1. Introduction**

41 Terrestrial plants assimilate atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) through
42 photosynthesis, which currently removes about one-third of anthropogenic CO₂
43 emissions and helps mitigate the rate of climate change (Friedlingstein et al., 2020;
44 Keenan and Williams, 2018). However, plant stomata not only enable CO₂ assimilation,
45 but also lead to water vapor losses via transpiration. This tradeoff is often quantified
46 with a water-use efficiency (*WUE*) metric, for which several different calculation
47 methods have been proposed. For example, *WUE* has been defined as the ratio
48 between carbon assimilation and transpiration at the leaf scale (Driscoll et al., 2020), or
49 as the ratio between gross primary production (GPP) and evapotranspiration (ET) at the
50 ecosystem scale (Bastos et al., 2020). Intrinsic *WUE* (*WUE_i*) has been defined as the ratio
51 between carbon assimilation and stomatal conductance (GPP and surface conductance
52 at the ecosystem scale) to better represent stomatal controls on plant ecophysiological
53 function (Lloyd et al., 2002; Schulze and Hall, 1982). To account for stomatal responses
54 to vapor pressure deficit (VPD), inherent *WUE* (*WUE_{ei}*, $GPP \cdot VPD \cdot ET^{-1}$) (Beer et al., 2009)
55 and underlying *WUE* (*uWUE*, $GPP \cdot VPD^{-0.5} \cdot ET^{-1}$) (Zhou et al., 2014) have been proposed
56 to quantify stomata-mediated carbon and water tradeoffs at the ecosystem scale. All of
57 these *WUE* metrics employ different techniques to quantify different aspects of plant
58 water-carbon interactions (Medlyn et al., 2017).

59 Importantly, measurements across leaf to ecosystem scales, regardless of the
60 functional forms and sampling methods used to estimate *WUE*, show primarily
61 increasing forest *WUE* over the past several decades (Adams et al., 2020; Guerrieri et al.,

62 2019; Keenan et al., 2013; Mastrotheodoros et al., 2017; Mathias and Thomas, 2021).
63 Studies have attributed the observed *WUE* increases to changes in photosynthesis
64 and/or stomatal conductance driven by rising atmospheric CO₂ concentrations
65 (Guerrieri et al., 2019; Mathias and Thomas, 2021; Ueyama et al., 2020; Walker et al.,
66 2020) and trends in VPD (Yi et al., 2019). Although rising *WUE* trends are qualitatively
67 consistent across spatial scales, *WUE* trends inferred from ecosystem-scale eddy
68 covariance measurements (1.3–2.3% yr⁻¹) (Guerrieri et al., 2019; Keenan et al., 2013;
69 Lavergne et al., 2019; Mastrotheodoros et al., 2017) are much larger than the trends
70 expected with ecophysiological theory (0.5% yr⁻¹) (Mastrotheodoros et al., 2017) and
71 those inferred from carbon isotopes in tree rings (0.2–0.5% yr⁻¹) (Guerrieri et al., 2019;
72 Lavergne et al., 2019; Mathias and Thomas, 2021). Imbalances in energy closure in eddy
73 covariance measurements may contribute to discrepancies between leaf- and
74 ecosystem-scale *WUE* values and trends (Knauer et al., 2018; Wohlfahrt et al., 2009),
75 although the underlying dynamics leading to such discrepancies are under debate
76 (Lavergne et al., 2019; Medlyn et al., 2017; Walker et al., 2020). A potentially overlooked
77 aspect controlling ecosystem-scale *WUE* trends is that annual water and carbon budgets
78 based on eddy covariance methods are sensitive to short-term (hourly - daily) favorable
79 weather conditions that typically cover less than 20% of the observational period
80 (Zscheischler et al., 2016). These factors complicate the interpretation of *WUE* controls
81 inferred from eddy covariance measurements.

82 Accurate interpretation of observed *WUE* trends is needed to understand
83 biosphere-atmosphere interactions and improve land models used to predict ecosystem

84 structure, function, and services under climate change (Knauer et al., 2017; Yi et al.,
85 2019). While CO₂-induced reductions in stomatal conductance have been proposed to
86 drive the observed *WUE* increases (Keenan et al., 2013), such a physiological response
87 may only be present in species that experienced moisture limitations (Guerrieri et al.,
88 2019). In addition, studies have reported negative *WUE* trends under rising atmospheric
89 CO₂ concentrations (Guerrieri et al., 2019; Knauer et al., 2018), which further suggests
90 that factors other than CO₂ contribute to the observed *WUE* trends. It is therefore
91 important to carefully translate mechanisms inferred from observations to land-model
92 process representations because carbon cycling is strongly impacted by multiple
93 interacting climate-change drivers (Reich et al., 2020).

94 Here, we investigated factors modulating emergent *WUE* trends inferred from
95 ecosystem-scale flux measurements using the global FLUXNET2015 CC-BY-4.0 Dataset
96 (Pastorello et al., 2020). We hypothesized that changes in short-term water-carbon
97 interactions affect seasonal ecosystem-scale *WUE* estimates and thereby contribute to
98 discrepancies between previously-inferred leaf- and ecosystem-scale *WUE* trends. The
99 FLUXNET2015 database provides half-hourly to hourly ecosystem-scale eddy covariance
100 flux measurements from 212 sites (1532 site-years) across the globe, from which we
101 included sites with at least 10 years of measurements. These criteria resulted in
102 observations from 560 site-years across 40 FLUXNET sites in six ecosystem types:
103 deciduous broadleaf forests, evergreen broadleaf forests, evergreen needleleaf forests,
104 grasslands, mixed forests, and woody savannas (Supplemental Fig. 1 and Supplemental
105 Table 1). For conciseness, we focus our discussion on results inferred from *uWUE* for its

106 better representation of ecosystem-scale carbon and water interactions (Zhou et al.,
107 2014), and report consistent results using WUE_{ei} in the Supplemental Material.

108 **2. Methods**

109 **2.1 FLUXNET2015 Dataset**

110 We used half-hourly and hourly temperature (air and soil), precipitation, VPD,
111 solar radiation, net radiation, wind speed, friction velocity (u^*), atmospheric CO₂
112 concentration, soil water content, latent heat flux, ground heat flux, GPP,
113 photosynthetic photon flux density, and ecosystem respiration data recorded in the
114 FLUXNET2015 CC-BY-4.0 Dataset ([http://fluxnet.fluxdata.org/data/fluxnet2015-](http://fluxnet.fluxdata.org/data/fluxnet2015-dataset/)
115 [dataset/](http://fluxnet.fluxdata.org/data/fluxnet2015-dataset/)). These data were processed following a consistent and uniform processing
116 pipeline (Pastorello et al., 2020).

117 **2.2 Flux data processing**

118 We evaluated $uWUE$ and WUE_{ei} for 40 FLUXNET sites of the total of 212 sites in
119 the FLUXNET2015 CC-BY-4.0 Dataset (Supplemental Table 1), where at least 10 years of
120 measurements are available. Wetland and cropland systems were excluded in our
121 analysis to reduce uncertainty caused by water management. Measurements collected
122 during growing season (above-zero air temperature and GPP) and summer (June to
123 August in the Northern Hemisphere and December to February in the Southern
124 Hemisphere) were analyzed and reported.

125 Following the data processing criteria applied in Mastrotheodoros *et al.* 2017,
126 we excluded negative evapotranspiration, GPP, and VPD values and calculated hourly
127 $uWUE$ and WUE_{ei} with daytime measurements (without gap filled data) when incoming

128 shortwave radiation was greater than 100 W m^{-2} . Data extracted during rainy days
129 (defined as days with daily precipitation larger than 1 mm) and 1 day after every rainy
130 day were excluded from the baseline analysis to reduce the influence of ground and
131 canopy evaporation on evapotranspiration. However, a substantial part of the measured
132 evapotranspiration can be attributed to ground and canopy evaporation long after
133 precipitation events (Nelson et al., 2020), affecting the interpretation of transpiration.
134 Therefore, we also examined the sensitivity of our data sampling criteria by (1)
135 screening out data within 5 days of a rain event and (2) including data during and after
136 rainy days.

137 **2. 3 Underlying water-use efficiency calculation**

138 The $uWUE$ is defined as the ratio of GPP to ecosystem ET, adjusted for
139 atmospheric evaporative demand represented as the square root of VPD (Zhou et al.,
140 2014). We used two metrics to represent site-year specific $uWUE$ during daytime hours
141 described in Section 2.2: (1) the median of site-year specific half-hourly to hourly $uWUE$
142 values ($uWUE_{median}$) and (2) using seasonal aggregates of GPP, ET, and VPD to calculate
143 $uWUE$ for each site-year ($uWUE_{aggregate}$).

144 For $uWUE_{median}$, we calculated hourly $uWUE$ for all available measurements
145 within a given site-year (see Section 2.2), and used the median of hourly $uWUE$ values to
146 represent the seasonal $uWUE$. For $uWUE_{aggregate}$, we calculated the ratio of the hourly
147 sums of daytime GPP to ecosystem ET, multiplied by the square root of seasonal mean
148 VPD.

149 Using median values to represent ecosystem-scale *WUE* is recommended for its
150 weaker sensitivity to extremely low or high values measured at the hourly scale
151 (Mastrotheodoros et al., 2017). We used the median values in this study since our
152 analysis indicated that using mean hourly *uWUE* values (instead of *uWUE_{median}*) to
153 represent seasonal *uWUE* leads to larger differences against the values, trends, and
154 interannual variability inferred from *uWUE_{aggregate}* (Supplemental Fig. 2).

155 **2.4 Most active hour calculation**

156 The most active hour (*MAH*) metric is defined as the number of hours when the
157 investigated property (e.g., GPP) is above a percentile-based threshold for each site-year
158 (Zscheischler et al., 2016). Inspired by the concept that interannual variability in carbon
159 and water fluxes may be attributed to variations in the positive tail of their hourly flux
160 distributions, we evaluated how variations in higher *WUE* hours affect decadal *WUE*
161 trends inferred from eddy covariance measurements. Specifically, we calculated site-
162 specific annual cumulated active hours when hourly *uWUE* is above the 1st to 99th *uWUE*
163 percentiles recorded at each site over the entire measurement period, i.e.,

$$164 \quad AH(uWUE_x, year) = \sum_{i=1}^n 1_{\{hourly\ uWUE(year) > uWUE_x\}} \quad (1)$$

165 where *AH* is the active hours, *n* is the number of active hours in a given site-year and
166 *uWUE_x* is the *x*th percentile of *uWUE* computed over all years for *x* between 1 and 99.
167 We note that active hours represent time periods when *uWUE* values inferred from half-
168 hourly to hourly measurements are within the *uWUE* percentiles selected in our
169 calculation. Active hour time series calculated at each *uWUE* percentile were compared
170 with the *uWUE_{median}* time series at each site to infer the percentile where the average

171 correlation over the 40 FLUXNET sites reached its maximum that defines *MAH*. *MAH*
172 indicates the annual number of hours that strongly affect interannual variability in
173 ecosystem-scale carbon and water fluxes (Zscheischler et al., 2016), and is thus suitable
174 to quantify effects of short-term water-carbon interactions on seasonal *uWUE*. Detailed
175 *MAH* descriptions, including mathematical derivation, can be found in Zscheischler *et al*
176 2016.

177 We examined three sets of *MAH* measures to investigate which *uWUE* percentile
178 best explains the decadal *uWUE_{median}* trends inferred from the 40 Fluxnet sites.
179 Specifically, we evaluated correlations between *MAH* and *uWUE_{median}* when *MAH* is
180 defined as the number of hours when *uWUE* is above (1) a fixed *uWUE* threshold based
181 on the highest correlation between *MAH* and *uWUE_x* across the 40 FLUXNET sites
182 (*uWUE₇₈*, when *uWUE* exceeds the 78th percentile of the *uWUE* inferred from all years at
183 a given site); (2) ecosystem-specific *uWUE* based on the highest correlation between
184 *MAH* and *uWUE_x* inferred from each ecosystem type; and (3) site-specific *uWUE* based
185 on the highest correlation between *MAH* and *uWUE_x* inferred from each site. For
186 conciseness, we focus our discussion on results inferred from using a fixed *uWUE*
187 threshold (*uWUE₇₈*), and report consistent results using site- and ecosystem-specific
188 *uWUE* thresholds in the Supplemental Material.

189 **2.5 Random-forest model selection**

190 We used random-forest model selection to identify the most important
191 predictors for short-term water-carbon interactions represented by hourly *uWUE*.
192 Individual predictors were ranked and scaled by their permutation importance

193 calculated at the 40 FLUXNET sites. The random-forest model selection was performed
 194 by the Statistics and Machine-Learning Toolbox in Matlab (MathWorks Inc., 2019,
 195 version 9.7.0).

196 The permutation importance of ten predictors on $uWUE$ was analyzed: VPD, u^* ,
 197 air and soil temperatures, soil water content, downwelling solar radiation, residual
 198 energy imbalance (differences between the sum of net radiation and ground heat flux
 199 and the sum of sensible and latent heat fluxes), atmospheric CO_2 concentration, site
 200 identity, and ecosystem type. Site identity and ecosystem type were labeled as
 201 categorical data and the other eight predictors were labeled as numerical data in our
 202 random-forest models. Categorical features in site identity and ecosystem type were
 203 assigned by the site name and IGBP (International Geosphere-Biosphere Programme)
 204 vegetation classification reported at each FLUXNET site, respectively. $uWUE$ values are
 205 represented by the median of site-year specific hourly $uWUE$ values ($uWUE_{median}$).

206 To further investigate factors modulating water-carbon interactions under
 207 varying weather conditions, we calculated mean climate conditions at individual $uWUE$
 208 percentiles recorded at each site-year over the entire measurement period, i.e.,

$$209 \overline{Predictor}_k(uWUE_x, year) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Predictor_{k_{\{uWUE(year) > uWUE_x\}}} \quad (2)$$

210 where $\overline{Predictor}_k$ is the mean climate condition, $Predictor_k$ is the hourly weather
 211 condition from observations, n is the number of hours in a given site-year, and $uWUE_x$ is
 212 the x^{th} percentile of $uWUE$ computed over all years for x between 1 and 99. For each
 213 site-year, we evaluated the permutation importance of six climate drivers (VPD, u^* , air
 214 and soil temperatures, soil water content, and downwelling solar radiation), residual

215 energy imbalance, and atmospheric CO₂ concentrations on *uWUE* at each *uWUE*
216 percentile.

217 In addition to the measured atmospheric CO₂ concentrations, we evaluated the
218 decadal CO₂ trends inferred from NOAA's CarbonTracker (version CT2019B, Jacobson et
219 al., 2020) to examine potential bias associated with temporal drifts in long-term CO₂
220 measurements. Our results indicate that decadal CO₂ trends are comparable between
221 the two datasets (0.49 % yr⁻¹ for FLUXNET2015 and 0.53 % yr⁻¹ for CarbonTracker),
222 although the measured atmospheric CO₂ concentrations are generally lower than those
223 inferred from CarbonTracker (Supplemental Fig. 3).

224 **2.6 CMIP6 models**

225 We used model outputs from the AMIP experiments released by the Coupled
226 Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6 (CMIP6), where each model was driven by
227 standardized forcings of prescribed CO₂ concentration and sea surface temperature for
228 the years 1979–2014 (Eyring et al., 2016). We analyzed data derived from eight models
229 that provided monthly outputs for GPP, transpiration, relative humidity, and air
230 temperature for *uWUE* calculations. The eight models are CESM2 (Danabasoglu et al.,
231 2020), CanESM5 (Swart et al., 2019), CESM2-WACCM (Danabasoglu et al., 2020), CMCC-
232 CM2-SR5 (Cherchi et al., 2019), IPSL-CM6A-LR (Boucher et al., 2020), GISS-E2-1-G (Kelley
233 et al., 2020), MPI-ESM1-2-HR (Gutjahr et al., 2019), and NorESM2-LM (Seland et al.,
234 2020), with model details provided in Supplemental Table 2. These monthly outputs
235 were extracted at gridcells containing the 40 FLUXNET sites. We note that CMIP6
236 models were used to evaluate the *WUE* trends captured by existing land surface models,

237 not the water-carbon interaction dynamics embedded in ecosystem process
238 parameterization.

239 **2.7 Statistical Analyses**

240 *uWUE* trends were estimated using the Mann-Kendall Tau non-parametric trend
241 test with Sen's method using the Matlab (MathWorks Inc., 2019, version 9.7.0) `ktaub`
242 function (Burkey, 2022). The violin plots, used to present the inferred *uWUE* properties,
243 are generated by the Violin function (Bechtold et al., 2021).

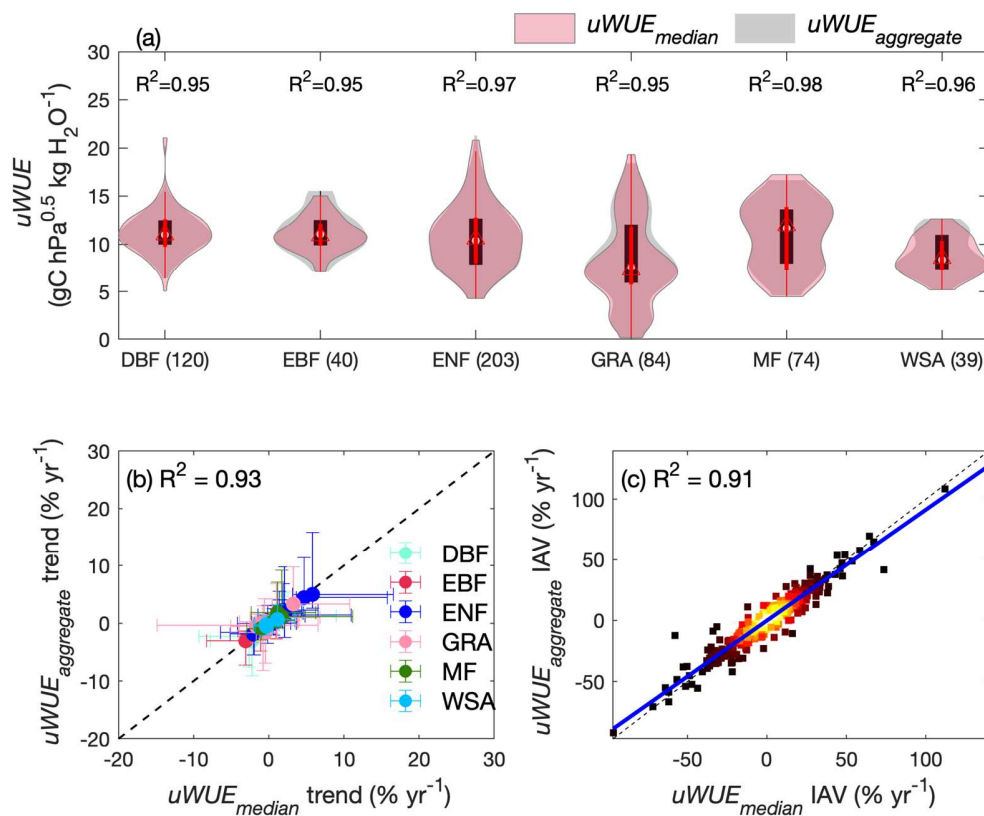
244 **3. Results**

245 **3.1 *uWUE* sensitivity to data processing**

246 The growing season *uWUE* values and trends inferred from our study sites differ
247 substantially within and across the examined ecosystem types (Fig. 1a, b), highlighting
248 the need to recognize effects of varying microclimate and ecosystem types on *uWUE*
249 interpretation. As described in Methods, we used two metrics to measure growing
250 season *uWUE* (Section 2.3): (1) $uWUE_{median}$ (based on the median of site-year specific
251 hourly *uWUE* values) and (2) $uWUE_{aggregate}$ (based on the seasonal aggregate of GPP, ET,
252 and VPD). Consistent estimates of growing season *uWUE* values, trends, and interannual
253 variability were inferred from $uWUE_{median}$ and $uWUE_{aggregate}$ (Fig. 1). Our results thus
254 indicate that the distribution of hourly *uWUE* can be used to evaluate how short-term
255 ecosystem responses modulate interannual and multi-year *uWUE* trends while
256 reflecting consistent seasonal dynamics shown in seasonal aggregate approaches.

257 We found that *uWUE* values, trends, and interannual variability are not sensitive
258 to the presence of wet canopy conditions that include data during and after rainy days

259 (Supplemental Fig. 4). Consistent $uWUE$ values, trends, and interannual variability were
 260 found when using data that exclude measurements made within 5 days of a rain event
 261 (Supplemental Fig. 5). While we acknowledge that using evapotranspiration observed
 262 one day after rain may not be an adequate approximation of transpiration (Nelson et al.,
 263 2020), our sensitivity tests suggest that the $uWUE$ properties present in this study are
 264 not subject to our data processing scheme.



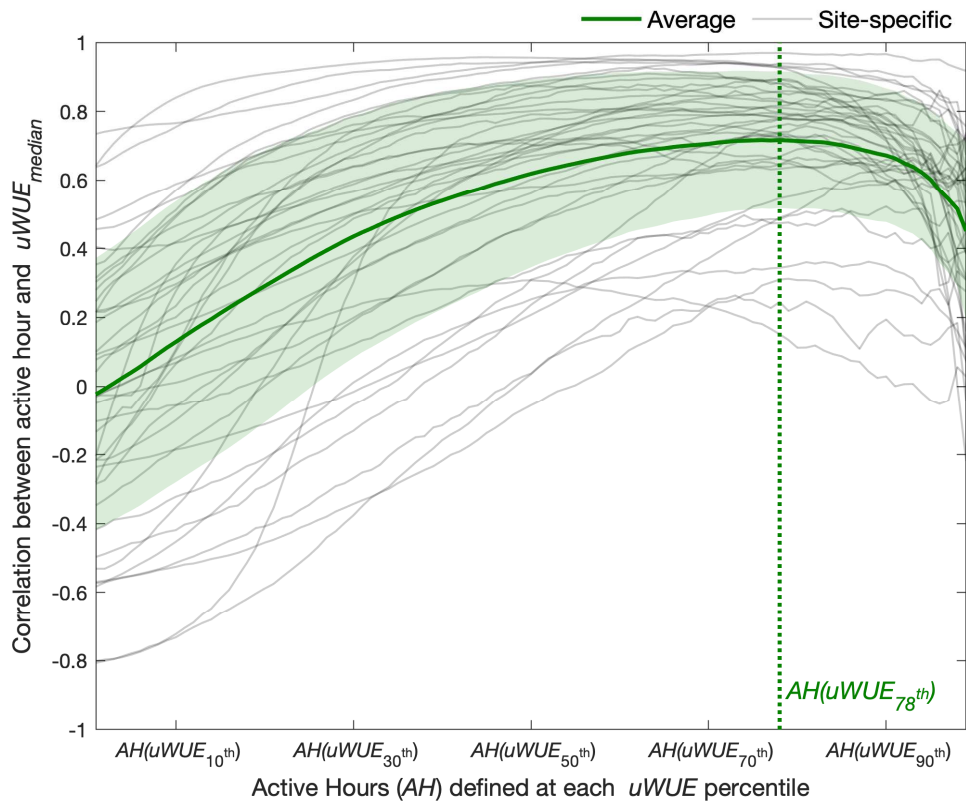
265
 266 Figure 1. The distribution of seasonal $uWUE_{median}$ and $uWUE_{aggregate}$ values computed at
 267 deciduous broadleaf forests (DBF), evergreen broadleaf forests (EBF), evergreen
 268 needleleaf forests (ENF), grasslands (GRA), mixed forests (MF), and woody savannas
 269 (WAS) (a). The red (black) central mark, and the bottom and top edges of the red (black)
 270 box in each violin plot indicate the 50th (median), 25th, and 75th percentiles, respectively,

271 of $uWUE_{median}$ ($uWUE_{aggregate}$). $uWUE$ trends estimated by the Mann-Kendall Tau non-
272 parametric trend test with Sen's method (b). Error bars represent the lower and upper
273 confidence interval for Sen's slope. The comparison between interannual variability in
274 $uWUE_{median}$ and $uWUE_{aggregate}$ (c). Lighter colors in the density scatter plot represent
275 denser data points. Solid blue and dashed black lines represent the linear best-fit and
276 one-to-one lines, respectively. The R^2 values for $uWUE_{median}$ and $uWUE_{aggregate}$ values (a),
277 trends (b), and interannual variability (c) are denoted in the corresponding subplot.

278 **3.2 $uWUE$ sensitivity to hourly weather conditions**

279 We calculated the number of active hours when hourly $uWUE$ exceeds site-
280 specific $uWUE$ thresholds to quantify effects of short-term water-carbon interactions on
281 $uWUE$ trends, based on the Most Active Hour (*MAH*, Section 2.4) framework
282 (Zscheischler et al., 2016). Across the 40 FLUXNET sites, correlations between active
283 hour and seasonal $uWUE$ generally increase with increasing $uWUE$ percentile up to a
284 maximum around the 78th $uWUE$ percentile before correlations decrease again (Fig. 2).
285 We thus define *MAH* for each site-year as the number of hours when hourly $uWUE$
286 exceeds the 78th percentile of the $uWUE$ inferred from all years at a given site.
287 Consistent results were found with $uWUE$ and WUE_{ei} inferred from measurements taken
288 at different seasons (growing season vs. summer) and canopy conditions (wet vs. dry),
289 where *MAH* is defined as the number of hours when site-specific WUE exceeds its 70th
290 to 83rd percentiles (Supplemental Figs. 6, 7, 8, 9). These results indicate that temporal
291 variations in annual WUE are more sensitive to frequency changes in high WUE events

292 (i.e., annual hours when $WUE \geq WUE_{78th}$) than gradual shifts in baseline WUE (i.e.,
 293 around WUE_{50th}) under a changing climate.



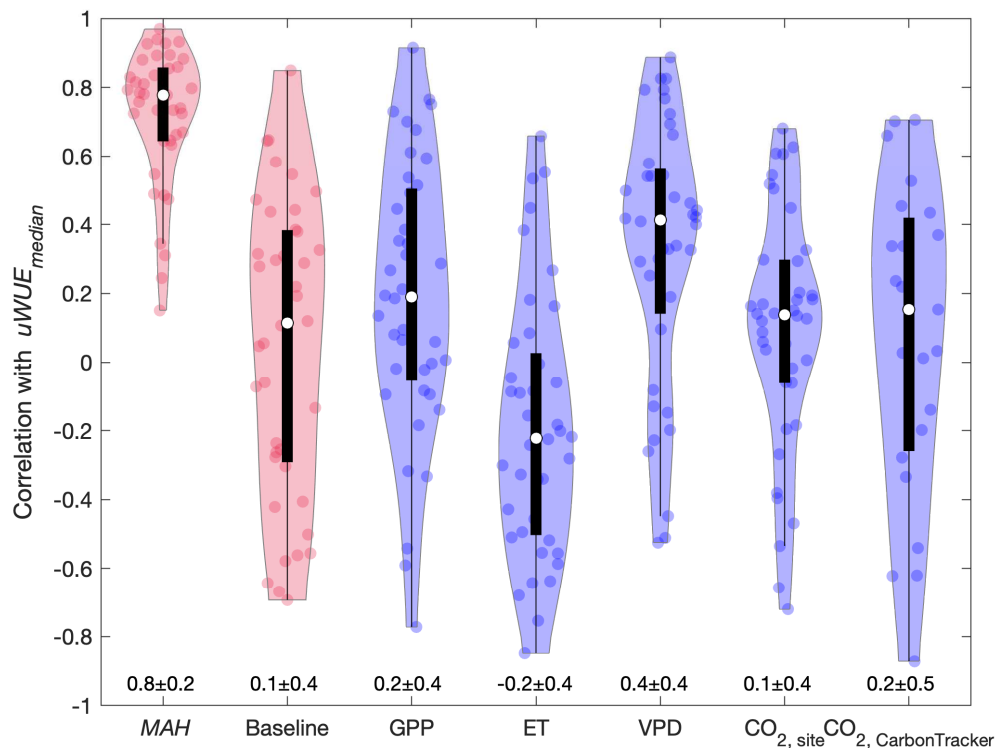
294
 295 Figure 2. The correlation between active hour and $uWUE_{median}$ time series. The green
 296 solid line and shaded area represent the average correlation between active hour (AH)
 297 and $uWUE_{median}$ and the corresponding standard deviation among the 40 FLUXNET sites,
 298 respectively. Gray solid lines represent results inferred from individual sites. The dashed
 299 green line indicates the percentile (78th) resulting in the highest overall correlation
 300 between active hour and $uWUE_{median}$ among the 40 FLUXNET sites.

301 3.3 Factors regulating decadal $uWUE$ time series and trends

302 Our results indicate that temporal variations in MAH have stronger predictability
 303 on $uWUE_{median}$ than temporal variations in baseline active hours (represented by the

304 number of hours when $uWUE$ is within its 40th to 60th percentiles), GPP, ET, VPD, and
305 CO_2 concentrations on decadal timescales (Fig. 3). We did not identify any abrupt breaks
306 in $uWUE_{median}$ and MAH time series that could affect the correlation inferred from the 40
307 FLUXNET sites (Supplemental Figs. 10, 11). Implementing site- or ecosystem-specific
308 $MAH-uWUE$ relationships does not substantially improve the correlation between MAH
309 and $uWUE_{median}$, supporting our use of a fixed $uWUE$ threshold ($uWUE_{78}$) in representing
310 temporal changes in hourly weather conditions (Supplemental Fig. 12).

311 The relatively weak relationships between $uWUE_{median}$ and any single
312 ecophysiological factor (i.e., GPP, ET, VPD, and CO_2 concentrations) indicate that
313 variability in ecosystem-scale WUE cannot be explained without representing water-
314 carbon interactions. While temporal variations in GPP, ET, VPD, and CO_2 concentrations
315 correlate well with $uWUE_{median}$ at some of the sites, they do not individually explain
316 variability in $uWUE_{median}$ across all the examined ecosystems. Although CO_2
317 concentrations measured at eddy covariance towers may degrade with temporal drifts
318 in CO_2 sensors, the comparable correlation inferred from FLUXNET2015 (0.1 ± 0.4) and
319 CarbonTracker (0.2 ± 0.5) datasets suggest that our analysis is not sensitive to potential
320 biases in CO_2 measurements. Consistent results were also found with the inclusion of
321 wet canopy conditions (Supplemental Fig. 13), $uWUE$ inferred from summer only
322 measurements (Supplemental Fig. 14), WUE_{ei} inferred from growing season
323 (Supplemental Fig. 15), and WUE_{ei} inferred from summer only measurements
324 (Supplemental Fig. 16).

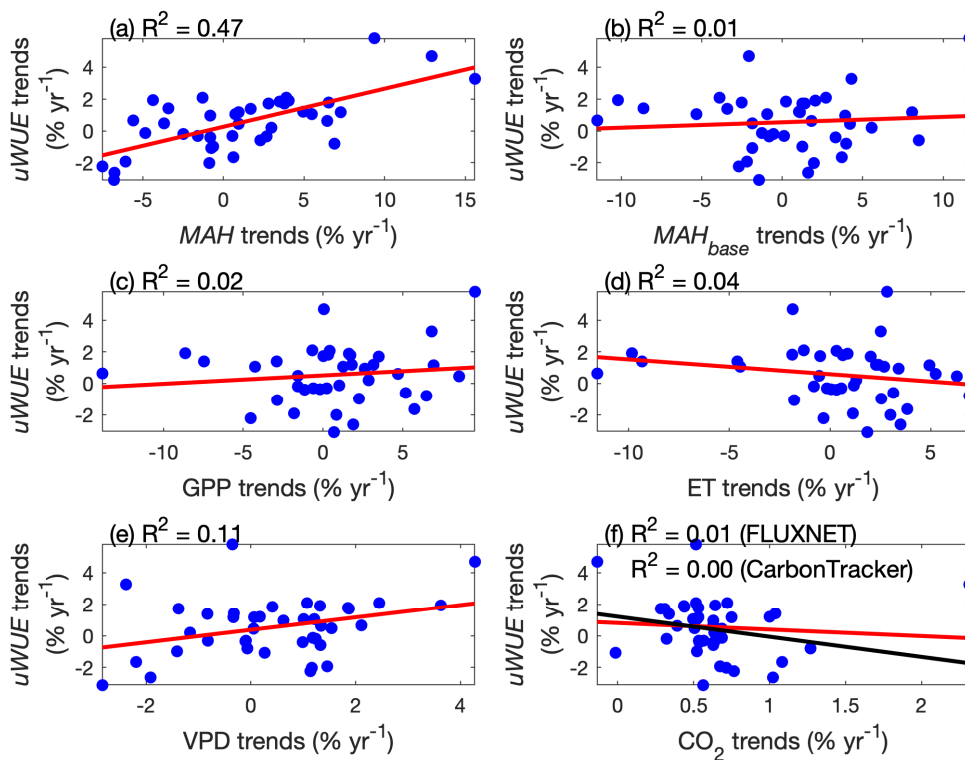


325

326 Figure 3. The distribution of correlations between growing season $uWUE$, MAH, baseline
 327 active hour (Baseline), gross primary productivity (GPP), evapotranspiration (ET), vapor
 328 pressure deficit (VPD), FLUXNET2015 CO₂ concentrations (CO_{2, site}), and CarbonTracker
 329 CO₂ concentrations (CO_{2, CarbonTracker}). The baseline active hour indicates the number of
 330 hours when $uWUE$ is within its 40th to 60th percentiles. The open circle, bottom edge,
 331 and top edge of the black box in each violin plot indicate the 50th (median), and the 25th
 332 and 75th percentiles of the inferred correlation values, respectively. Numbers below
 333 each violin plot represent the median ± standard deviation of the correlation inferred
 334 from the 40 FLUXNET sites.

335 In terms of decadal trends, we found a strong relationship between MAH and
 336 $uWUE_{median}$ trends, suggesting WUE trends inferred from eddy covariance

337 measurements are modulated by variations in hourly water-carbon interactions that
 338 cover less than 22% of the observational period (Fig. 4). Trends in baseline active hour,
 339 GPP, ET, VPD, and CO₂ concentrations explain limited variability in $uWUE_{median}$ trends,
 340 and their magnitudes do not scale with $uWUE_{median}$ trends. While correlation does not
 341 imply causality, our results demonstrate the need to filter out *MAH* effects on
 342 ecosystem-scale *WUE* trends to properly interpret observationally-inferred
 343 ecophysiological responses across multiple temporal scales.



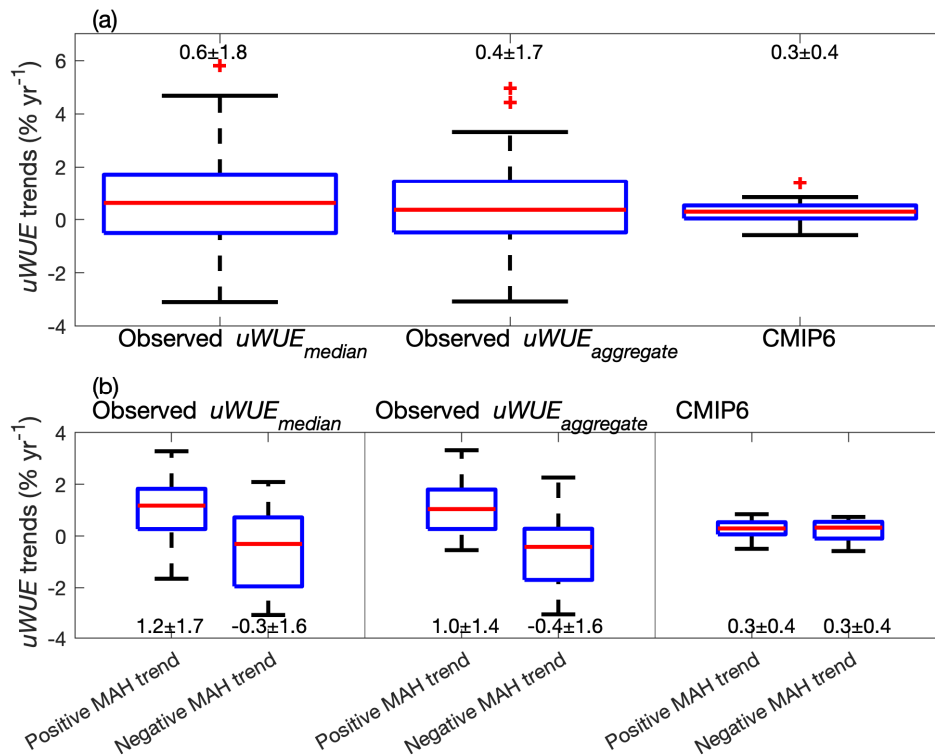
344
 345 Figure 4. Scatter plots between decadal $uWUE$, *MAH* (a), baseline active hour (b), gross
 346 primary productivity (GPP, c), evapotranspiration (ET, d), vapor pressure deficit (VPD, e),
 347 and CO₂ concentration (f) trends inferred from the 40 FLUXNET sites. Solid lines are
 348 linear regression lines for the scatters examined in each plot.

349 For the 40 FLUXNET sites, the median $uWUE_{median}$ and $uWUE_{aggregate}$ trends
350 inferred from observations (0.4–0.6% yr⁻¹) are comparable to the median $uWUE_{aggregate}$
351 trend inferred from CMIP6 simulations (0.3 % yr⁻¹) (Fig. 5a). The magnitude of the
352 observed and simulated decadal $uWUE$ trends is comparable to WUE trends inferred
353 from leaf-scale observations (0.2–0.5% yr⁻¹) (Guerrieri et al., 2019; Lavergne et al., 2019;
354 Mathias and Thomas, 2021), and is weaker than those from ecosystem-scale
355 observations at forest (0.9–2.3% yr⁻¹) (Guerrieri et al., 2019; Keenan et al., 2013;
356 Lavergne et al., 2019; Mastrotheodoros et al., 2017).

357 Our results show that MAH trends may amplify or dampen the corresponding
358 $uWUE$ trends (Fig. 5b), suggesting that ecosystem-scale plant water-carbon interactions
359 depend on microclimatic conditions and are thereby subjective to sampling site
360 selection. For example, sites with positive MAH trends experience substantially stronger
361 increases in $uWUE_{median}$ and $uWUE_{aggregate}$ (Fig. 5b; 1.0 ± 1.4 to $1.2 \pm 1.7\%$ yr⁻¹) than those
362 with negative MAH trends (Fig. 5b; -0.3 ± 1.6 to $-0.4 \pm 1.6\%$ yr⁻¹). Consistent sensitivities to
363 MAH were found with the inclusion of wet canopy conditions (Supplemental Fig. 17) and
364 with the use of WUE_{ei} (Supplemental Fig. 18).

365 Such $uWUE$ (and WUE_{ei}) sensitivity to MAH demonstrates the need to recognize
366 effects of short-term water-carbon interactions on the interpretation of decadal
367 ecosystem responses to climate change. The modeled CMIP6 $uWUE_{aggregate}$ trends show
368 substantially lower site-to-site variability than the observed $uWUE_{median}$ and
369 $uWUE_{aggregate}$ trends, and are not sensitive to varying MAH trends. Discrepancies
370 between the observed and CMIP6 modeled $uWUE$ trends could stem from scale

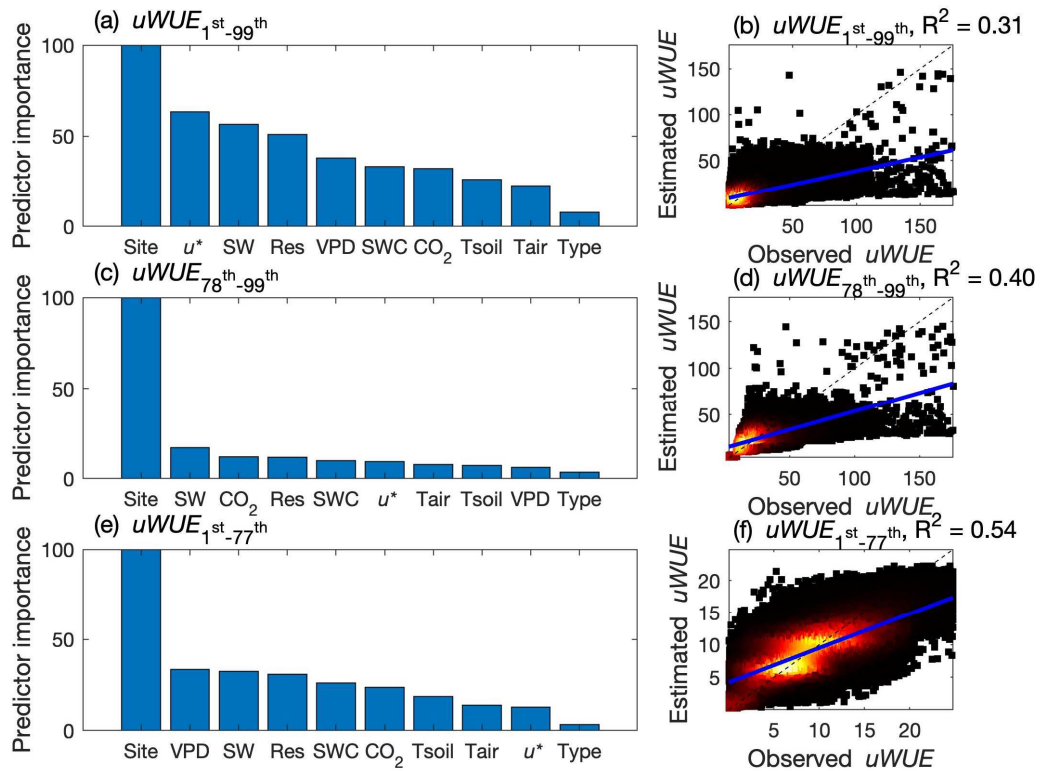
371 mismatch and incomplete process representations, and should be investigated in future
 372 analyses.



373
 374 Figure 5. The distribution of trends in $uWUE_{median}$, $uWUE_{aggregate}$, and $uWUE$ inferred
 375 from CMIP6 models when changes in MAH trends are not recognized (a), and explicitly
 376 represented (b). The red central mark, and the bottom and top edges of the blue box
 377 indicate the median, and the 25th and 75th percentiles, respectively. The black whiskers
 378 extend to the most extreme data points not considered outliers denoted in red plus
 379 symbol. Numbers above each box plot indicate the median \pm standard deviation of the
 380 corresponding $uWUE$ trend.

381 **3.4 Factors regulating hourly $uWUE$**

382 Our random-forest predictor importance analysis shows large inter-site
383 variability in hourly $uWUE$ inferred from the 40 FLUXNET sites, demonstrating that
384 ecosystem-scale water-carbon interactions are site-specific properties that depend on
385 factors other than mean climate conditions (Fig. 6). The large inter-site variability in
386 $uWUE$ is not driven by different energy balance closures between sites, as energy
387 closure imbalance is not the dominant factor controlling $uWUE$. The relatively weak
388 $uWUE$ sensitivity to ecophysiological factors suggests that observed $uWUE$ trends are
389 unlikely attributed to ecosystem responses to temporal variations in any single
390 ecophysiological factor (e.g., VPD or CO_2 concentrations). Our analysis indicates that
391 plant water-carbon interactions inferred from eddy covariance measurements have to
392 be evaluated at a site-to-site basis, even though the inclusion of both inter-site and
393 inter-type variability could diminish the importance of inter-type variability on $uWUE$.
394 Consistent results were found at seasonal timescales with $uWUE_{median}$ and $uWUE_{aggregate}$,
395 highlighting the need to recognize inter-site variability to properly disentangle factors
396 regulating emergent water-carbon interactions (Supplemental Fig. 19). Additionally, our
397 analysis on $uWUE_{median}$ and $uWUE_{aggregate}$ demonstrates that MAH is the second most
398 important factor regulating seasonal $uWUE$, which may be attributed to the hourly
399 weather conditions embedded in MAH that vary among sites.



400

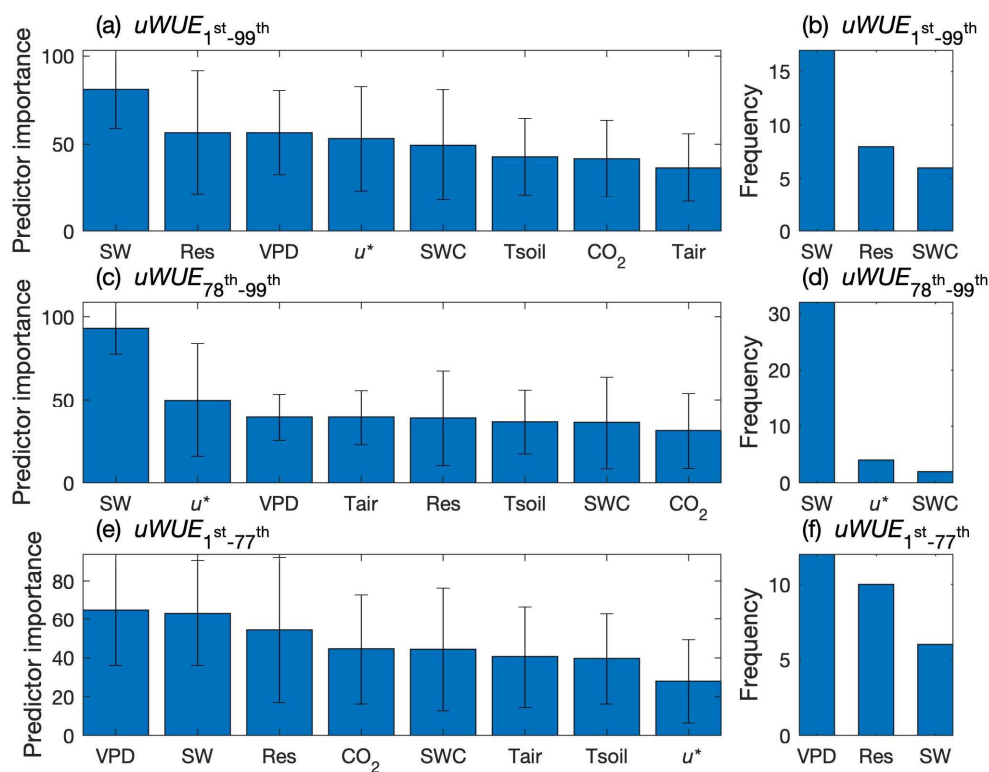
401 Figure 6. The predictor importance estimated by our random-forest model for the 1st to
 402 99th (a), 78th to 99th (c), and 1st to 77th (e) $uWUE$ percentile bins inferred from the 40
 403 FLUXNET sites. Ten ecophysiological factors were compared for their predictor
 404 importance on $uWUE$: vapor pressure deficit (VPD), air (Tair) and soil (Tsoil)
 405 temperatures, soil water content (SWC), friction velocity (u^*), downwelling solar
 406 radiation (SW), residual energy imbalance (Res), atmospheric CO_2 concentration, site
 407 identity (Site), and ecosystem type (Type). Site and Type are categorical data that
 408 represent effects of undetected variables at a given ecosystem and ecosystem type,
 409 respectively. The performance of the $uWUE$ percentile bins estimated for the 1st to 99th
 410 (b), 78th to 99th (d), and 1st to 77th (f) percentiles. Lighter colors in the density scatter

411 plot represent denser data points. Solid blue and dashed black lines represent the linear
412 best-fit and one-to-one lines, respectively.

413 Because of the large inter-site variability (Fig. 6), we built site-specific random-
414 forest models to evaluate factors regulating water-carbon interactions under hourly
415 weather conditions labeled as *MAH* (i.e., times when *uWUE* exceeds its 78th percentile).
416 Our results indicate that hourly *uWUE* is strongly affected by variations in solar radiation
417 across the 40 FLUXNET sites (Fig. 7a, b), suggesting that emergent water-carbon
418 interactions depend on ecosystem responses to radiative energy input. Measurements
419 collected from the 78th to 99th *uWUE* percentiles also indicate that solar radiation is the
420 most important predictor for *uWUE* (Fig. 7c, d), reinforcing the need to recognize effects
421 of canopy radiative transfer on the interpretation of *uWUE* values and trends. On the
422 other hand, lower *uWUE* values (i.e., $uWUE < uWUE_{78th}$) are sensitive to variations in
423 multiple ecophysiological factors (Fig. 7e, f), instead of being driven by a single
424 dominant controller across the 40 FLUXNET sites.

425 Differences in predictor importance inferred from different *uWUE* percentile
426 intervals suggest that higher *uWUE* is driven by both enhanced feedbacks to solar
427 radiation and adjustments to changing ecophysiological factors. Such shifts in ecosystem
428 responses are likely associated with changes in hourly weather conditions that integrate
429 the examined ecophysiological effects on emergent water-carbon interactions. Since
430 *MAH* quantifies the number of hours when solar radiation becomes the most important
431 predictor controlling the elevated *uWUE*, temporal variations in *MAH* contributes to
432 *uWUE* variability that correlates with decadal *uWUE* trends. Our results show that

433 water-carbon interactions inferred from eddy covariance measurements are modulated
 434 by ecosystem responses to hourly weather conditions that may be independent of
 435 decadal trends in ecophysiological factors. The strong effects of hourly ecosystem
 436 processes suggest that variations in canopy scalar profiles and turbulent mixing rates
 437 may contribute to discrepancies between *WUE* trends previously-inferred from leaf- and
 438 ecosystem- scale observations. The *MAH* metric presented here could help filter out
 439 non-physiological effects on water-carbon interactions inferred from eddy covariance
 440 measurements to better represent ecosystem responses to long-term climate change.



441
 442 Figure 7. The predictor importance estimated by our random-forest model for the 1st to
 443 99th (a), 78th to 99th (c), and 1st to 77th (e) percentile bins of *uWUE* inferred at individual
 444 sites. Blue bars and black error bars represent the mean and standard deviation across

445 the 40 FLUXNET sites, respectively. Eight climate drivers were compared for their
446 predictor importance on $uWUE$: vapor pressure deficit (VPD), air (T_{air}) and soil (T_{soil})
447 temperatures, soil water content (SWC), friction velocity (u^*), downwelling solar
448 radiation (SW), residual energy imbalance (Res), and atmospheric carbon dioxide
449 concentration (CO_2). The top three frequently identified most important climate drivers
450 controlling the 1st to 99th (b), 78th to 99th (d), and 1st to 77th (f) percentile bins of $uWUE$
451 across the 40 FLUXNET sites.

452 **4. Discussion**

453 Recent observed increases in plant WUE have important implications for
454 biosphere-atmosphere interactions under a changing climate, urging reassessment of
455 the ecophysiological parameterization used in existing Earth system models (Adams et
456 al., 2020; Guerrieri et al., 2019; Keenan et al., 2013; Mathias and Thomas, 2021).
457 However, discrepancies between WUE trends inferred from different temporal and
458 spatial scales hinder the interpretation and translation to models of the observed
459 ecosystem responses to climate (Knauer et al., 2018; Lavergne et al., 2019; Medlyn et
460 al., 2017). Such discrepancies may stem from indirect CO_2 effects on ecosystem
461 processes (e.g., altering canopy structure and soil moisture (Fatichi et al., 2016)) that
462 modulate the direct CO_2 effects on leaf-scale responses to elevated CO_2 (Lavergne et al.,
463 2019). Additionally, studies often use different data sampling and processing schemes to
464 calculate seasonal WUE , even though the same WUE functional form is applied. For
465 example, seasonal WUE inferred from the same WUE_{ei} definition could be attributed to
466 measurements during May to September (Guerrieri et al., 2019) or June to August

467 (Keenan et al., 2013), leading to different ecosystem-scale *WUE* trends from
468 observations.

469 Our analyses indicate that the observed decadal trends in ecosystem-scale *WUE*
470 are controlled primarily by changes in hourly weather conditions (i.e., $uWUE \geq uWUE$
471 $_{78th}$, labeled here as *MAH*). Temporal variations in *MAH* contribute more to decadal
472 trends in ecosystem-scale *WUE* than those from CO_2 and VPD across the 40 FLUXNET
473 sites. The strong *MAH* effects on decadal *WUE* trends suggests that ecosystem-scale
474 *WUE* cannot be directly compared with those inferred from leaf-scale measurements
475 due to non-ecophysiological factors embedded in measurements taken by the eddy
476 covariance method. For example, canopy structure effects on light competition and
477 turbulent mixing can modulate carbon and water fluxes inferred from eddy covariance
478 measurements, which affects ecosystem-scale *WUE* and contributes to the
479 discrepancies between previously-inferred leaf- and ecosystem- scale *WUE* trends.
480 Consistent results were found using different *WUE* measures (e.g., inherent vs.
481 underlying), data aggregating and processing schemes (e.g., hourly vs. seasonal), and
482 data sampling periods (e.g., growing season vs. summer only, considering wet canopy
483 conditions), buttressing our conclusions regarding the importance of short-term water-
484 carbon interactions on decadal ecosystem-scale *WUE* trends.

485 Ecosystem-scale water and carbon fluxes inferred from eddy covariance
486 measurements are determined by both leaf-scale ecophysiological strategy (e.g.,
487 stomatal responses to microenvironmental conditions varying along the canopy) and
488 ecosystem-scale eddy mixing (e.g., local and non-local turbulent transport). Therefore, it

489 is important to attribute emergent water-carbon interactions to different drivers to
490 properly interpret ecosystem-scale *WUE* trends and their implications. This conclusion is
491 in line with a recent study showing that causal networks of water-carbon interactions
492 are strongly shaped by prevailing meteorological conditions rather than vegetation type
493 and climatic region (Krich et al., 2021). The large *WUE* sensitivity to hourly weather
494 conditions that we inferred from various approaches may also be relevant to the strong
495 land-air coupling effects that strengthen water-carbon interactions observed at the
496 ecosystem scale (Humphrey et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2019). Identifying favorable
497 weather conditions leading to higher *WUE* requires dynamically considering interactions
498 among climate and ecophysiological factors, which is not represented in our predictor
499 importance analysis. Measurements of vertically resolved canopy scalar profiles are
500 needed to disentangle factors contributing to emergent water-carbon interactions, as
501 weather conditions measured at the top of the canopy may not accurately represent
502 environmental conditions experienced by plant leaves.

503 We found large *uWUE* sensitivity to inter-site variability, suggesting that factors
504 controlling the observed *WUE* trends are site-specific (e.g., only species that
505 experienced moisture limitations show reduced stomatal conductance (Guerrieri et al.,
506 2019)). The large *uWUE* sensitivity to solar radiation inferred from hourly timescale
507 demonstrates the importance of short-term ecosystem responses to weather conditions
508 and canopy radiative transfer. Proper representations of canopy structural and
509 functional profiles are thus needed to connect processes underlying water-carbon
510 interactions over a continuum of scales (Bonan et al., 2021; Chang et al., 2018a, 2018b).

511 Our finding that CMIP6 models did not accurately represent the observed *WUE*
512 sensitivity to inter-site variability and microclimatic conditions further motivates more
513 robust parameterization of water-carbon interactions in the canopy. Ecosystem-scale
514 modeling and observational data synthesis (e.g., Hawkins et al., 2020) that evaluates the
515 land component of Earth system models under a rigorous simulation protocol is needed
516 to identify bottlenecks in representing water-carbon interactions across temporal
517 scales. We recommend future studies distinguish short-term and long-term ecosystem
518 dynamics inferred from eddy covariance measurements to improve interpretation of
519 observed biosphere-atmosphere interactions.

520 **5. Conclusions**

521 Terrestrial plants mitigate anthropogenic climate change by removing a
522 substantial amount of atmospheric carbon dioxide through photosynthesis, a process
523 with unavoidable water loss via transpiration. Water-use efficiency (*WUE*) is a key
524 metric quantifying the amount of carbon gain per unit of water lost, and accurate
525 interpretation of observed *WUE* trends is needed to understand biosphere-atmosphere
526 interactions and improve climate projections. Our results indicate that ecosystem-scale
527 *WUE* trends are strongly modulated by short-term water-carbon interactions associated
528 with hourly weather conditions that typically cover less than 22% of the observational
529 period. Longer-term changes in atmospheric carbon dioxide concentrations and vapor
530 pressure deficit do not individually explain *WUE* trends inferred from the 40 FLUXNET
531 sites. Disentangling the role of microclimatic conditions and long-term trends on

532 ecosystem-scale *WUE* estimates is thus critical to properly translate observationally-
533 inferred ecophysiological understanding into next-generation Earth System Models.

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546 the website at <http://carbontracker.noaa.gov>.

547 **Data availability**

548 This work used publicly available FLUXNET2015 CC-BY-4.0 Dataset acquired and shared
549 by the FLUXNET community. All related data is publicly available for download at
550 <https://fluxnet.org/>.

551 **Code availability**

552 Code used in the analysis presented in this study is available online, and can be accessed
553 at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5140716>.

554 **Competing interests**

555 The authors declare no competing interests.

556 **Author Contributions**

557 K.Y.C. and W.J.R. designed the analysis. K.Y.C. processed the data and analyzed the
558 results. All authors contributed extensively to the contents of the manuscript.

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