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## Changes in leaf anatomy of *Betula papyrifera* in response to elevated temperatures and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations

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Changes in leaf anatomy of *Betula papyrifera* in response  
to elevated temperatures and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>  
concentrations

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## ABSTRACT

As anthropogenic activity increases the concentration of atmospheric carbon dioxide ([CO<sub>2</sub>]) and global temperatures, Canada's boreal tree species are at risk of reduced growth. The exchange of CO<sub>2</sub> and water between plants and the atmosphere is important for plant growth, as well as climate regulation. Leaves are the site of these exchanges, and therefore any structural changes in leaves due to environmental factors will impact these fluxes. Currently, there is little information available on the combined effects of elevated temperature and [CO<sub>2</sub>] on leaf anatomy. This study examined changes in stomatal size and density, palisade layer length, overall leaf thickness, and length of spongy mesophyll exposed to intracellular air space in *Betula papyrifera* (white birch) under elevated temperature and [CO<sub>2</sub>] as compared to ambient conditions. Plasticity among stomatal traits was observed in response to both temperature and [CO<sub>2</sub>], with an overall increase in stomatal capacity at elevated temperatures to increase transpiration and facilitate evaporative cooling. Combined with reduced spongy mesophyll length, this suggests that there is a trade-off between leaf cooling and water retention via adjustment of internal and external leaf traits. Based on the results obtained in this study, temperature may be more a more important environmental factors in determining leaf anatomy than [CO<sub>2</sub>]. Warming reduced palisade length at ambient [CO<sub>2</sub>], but unexpectedly this effect disappeared with elevated [CO<sub>2</sub>]. This is likely due to decreased efficiency in CO<sub>2</sub> uptake at ambient [CO<sub>2</sub>] exacerbated by decreased spongy mesophyll cell length at elevated temperatures. Alternatively, there may be other factors at play, such as tradeoffs in leaf number, size and thickness based on carbon availability and temperature.

## INTRODUCTION

### *Global Climate Change*

For the past 10000 years, Earth's environment has been in a stable geological state known as the Holocene [1, 2]. However, since the dawn of the Industrial Revolution in 1790, Earth has undergone significant environmental transition. Human activity is a significant driver of global change, and has already pushed our planet away from the stable Holocene state, to the point where many researchers now recognize that we have entered a new geological period, the Anthropocene [1, 2]. A multitude of planetary boundaries have been proposed, beyond which Earth can no longer support our way of living. In 2009, it was suggested that  $[\text{CO}_2]$  not surpass 350 ppm, as the risk of irreversible climate change, including loss of major ice sheets, rapid shifts in forest systems, and accelerated rising sea levels, would drastically increase [1].

Unfortunately, we have already passed this boundary, as our current  $[\text{CO}_2]$  sits at 415.61 ppm [3].

Measurements of  $[\text{CO}_2]$  have been made continuously since 1957 [4], documenting increases in tropospheric  $[\text{CO}_2]$ , as well as seasonal cycles due to terrestrial ecosystem activity in the Northern Hemisphere [3, 4]. These measurements, in conjunction with ice-core records, have allowed us to determine that the aforementioned increase in  $[\text{CO}_2]$  is unprecedented when compared with previous natural fluctuations [3, 4]. According to the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, global  $[\text{CO}_2]$  has risen by 80 ppm since 1980 [3]. This has led to an increase of global surface temperatures by  $0.18^\circ\text{C}$  per decade [3], a rate far greater than any preceding decade [1, 2, 4]. Without the implementation of mitigation strategies and climate policies, this trend will continue. Based on the RCP 8.5 climate scenario proposed by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change [Fig. 1], by the year 2100, Earth could see  $[\text{CO}_2]$  of

1200 ppm [5]. This would cause mean global temperature increases of 4.3°C, which would increase mean boreal temperatures by ~8°C [5, 6].

### *Leaf Anatomy and Elevated [CO<sub>2</sub>] and Temperature*

Stomata are small pores on the leaf surface that regulate the exchange of CO<sub>2</sub> and water between plants and the atmosphere. The size of the stomatal pore determines the rate of gas diffusion through the pore, with the opening and closing of the stomata controlled by guard cells, which form the pore [7, 8]. When the stomata are open, CO<sub>2</sub> diffuses into the leaf while O<sub>2</sub> and water diffuse out, such that plants must balance the intake of CO<sub>2</sub> for photosynthesis with water loss to the atmosphere [7]. Thus, changes in the environment that affect photosynthesis and/or water availability, such as humidity, light intensity, and [CO<sub>2</sub>], trigger signalling cascades that cause stomata to open and close [8], or change their size and density during leaf development.

Under elevated [CO<sub>2</sub>], the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration gradient between the atmosphere and leaf interior is steeper, meaning CO<sub>2</sub> diffuses more easily into the leaf [8]. As such, trees grown at high [CO<sub>2</sub>] typically have reduced stomatal conductance and transpiration, and increased water-use efficiency [7, 9]. With increased [CO<sub>2</sub>], most leaves develop smaller stomata and fewer stomata per leaf unit area (stomatal density) [7, 8, 9]. Reduced stomatal density in plants grown under elevated [CO<sub>2</sub>] has also been attributed to a notable increase in leaf area [7] and down-regulation of genes associated with stomatal development [7, 8].

Stomatal traits (size and density) also decrease with increasing temperature [9], as a means to prevent excess water loss due to the higher vapour pressure deficit (the difference between the amount of moisture in the air and the maximum potential moisture at saturation)

associated with warmer air [10, 11, 12]. Transpiration is lower in leaves with reduced stomatal traits, which restricts the diffusion of water out of leaves [10, 11]. However, reduced stomatal traits also limit latent cooling [13], which implies that plants prioritize water retention may be more susceptible to heat stress.

Mesophyll tissues are found within dicotyledonous leaves are composed of two types of cells: palisade mesophyll cells and spongy mesophyll cells [14]. Palisade cells are the primary location of photosynthesis. They contain 70% of all chloroplasts in the leaf [14] and are tightly packed near the upper leaf (adaxial) surface to maximize light absorption [Fig. 2]. Spongy mesophyll cells are located below the palisade cells, closer to the lower (abaxial) leaf surface, and are round and loosely packed [Fig. 2]. Although spongy mesophyll cells contain some chloroplasts, these cells are located far below the leaf surface, limiting light absorption to high intensities [14]. Instead, spongy mesophyll cells function to facilitate the gas and water exchange necessary for photosynthesis.

Though there has been extensive research conducted regarding response of leaf traits to elevated temperature and [CO<sub>2</sub>] individually, there has been limited investigation into the combined effects of these environmental stimuli.

### *Boreal Forests*

Global warming is not uniform across the planet [6]; high latitude regions, which include boreal forests, are predicted to warm by more than 8°C throughout the next 80 years [5] — a faster rate of warming than expected for most regions. Boreal regions account for 30% of the world's forests, making them an important ecosystem for CO<sub>2</sub> exchange with the atmosphere.

Further, boreal forests engage in many complex feedback loops with climate systems, including precipitation and fires, such that tree responses to elevated temperatures and [CO<sub>2</sub>] can either accelerate or slow global change [15]. Therefore, it is critical to understand the anatomical and physiological responses of boreal trees to climate change so that their future CO<sub>2</sub> exchange can be accurately modelled. Determining the mechanisms underlying tree responses to elevated temperature and [CO<sub>2</sub>] will provide insight into ecosystem changes with respect to climate [15].

*Betula papyrifera* (Marshall), or white birch, is a broad-leaf deciduous tree known for its striking white, paper-like bark. This tree has a wide range across North America [Fig. 3]. White birch is a pioneer species, colonizing communities in disturbed areas, which makes it a dominant member of boreal ecosystems where fire return intervals are frequent [16]. Understanding leaf anatomical responses of white birch to elevated [CO<sub>2</sub>] and temperature is important in determining how plant CO<sub>2</sub> and water fluxes will change with the climate. Given its range and abundance, studying white birch leaf anatomy could provide insights into the CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity of the North American region as a whole [15].

## **OBJECTIVE, HYPOTHESES, AND PREDICTIONS**

The objective of my research project was to examine the impacts of elevated temperatures and [CO<sub>2</sub>] on the internal and external leaf anatomy of *B. papyrifera*. I hypothesize that white birch will adjust its stomatal traits and mesophyll tissue morphology to maximize carbon gain and minimize water loss and heat stress when grown under high [CO<sub>2</sub>] and warming conditions. I predict that plants grown under elevated [CO<sub>2</sub>] will produce thicker leaves with longer palisade mesophyll cells [17] and reduced stomatal traits (size and density). At increased

temperatures, I expect to see a thinner leaves [18] due to cellular heat stress, and a further reduction of stomatal traits. Under combined elevated temperatures and [CO<sub>2</sub>], I predict that stomatal traits will be lower than in either high [CO<sub>2</sub>] or warm-grown plants independently, but that leaves will not differ in thickness compared to those grown under ambient [CO<sub>2</sub>] and temperatures. As for spongy mesophyll cells, I predict that cell length exposed to intracellular air space will increase under future climate change conditions due to an increased demand for gas exchange and water-use efficiency [19].

## **METHODS AND MATERIALS**

### *Plant Material and Experimental Growth Conditions*

*Betula papyrifera* (Marshall) was grown from seed at Western University's Biotron Experimental Climate Change Research Centre (43.0096°N, 81.2737°W) in early May 2021 by the Way lab. Seeds were sourced from between 45-46°N in Ontario (near the southern range of the species) and sown in 11.6 L pots filled with Pro-Mix BX Mycorrhizal growth medium (Premier Tech Home and Garden, QC, Canada) and slow-release fertilizer (Slow-Release Plant Food, 12-4-8, Miracle Gro®, The Scotts Company, Mississauga, ON, Canada).

Six glasshouses were set to six factorial climate treatments: ambient (AC, 410 ppm) or elevated [CO<sub>2</sub>] (EC, 750 ppm) with either ambient temperature (T0), or +4°C (T4) or +8°C (T8) warming to simulate moderate and extreme climate scenarios [Table 1]. The ambient temperatures follow a five-year day/night average for Algonquin Park, ON (45°58'N, 78°48'W) to align with the climate at the seed source. Pure CO<sub>2</sub> was added to the air as needed to maintain EC levels. Relative humidity was kept above 60%.



There were 6 pots per treatment (total N=36). Watering was provided as needed to prevent water stress, and soil moisture was checked for consistency among treatments using a soil moisture probe (HH2 Moisture Meter, Delta-T Devices, Cambridge, UK). Seedlings were grown for 6 months (October 2021) before leaves were harvested for measuring stomatal traits and internal anatomy.

### *Stomatal Traits*

For each climatic condition, six mature leaves per treatment were collected and used to obtain a negative mould of the leaf surface following Duarte et al. [20]. Dental resin (President SEM High Resolution Replication Kit, TED Pella Inc.) was spread on a 3 cm × 1 cm area on the abaxial surface of each leaf. A positive mould was then obtained by applying a layer of wet clear nail varnish to the negative mould. Once dry, the layer of nail polish was then carefully removed and fixed to a microscope slide. Using the positive mould, stomatal traits were assessed and imaged at a magnification of 20× magnification using a Zeiss Lumar.V12 Stereoscope.

### *Leaf Thickness and Mesophyll Characteristics*

A subsample of leaves was harvested for microscope analysis of mesophyll traits from six seedlings per climate condition. Strips of tissue were taken from fresh leaves from a uniform location across the full width of the leaf and washed with de-ionized water. Leaf tissues were stored in buffered 2% paraformaldehyde with 0.1% Triton X-100 and placed in a vacuum chamber overnight to force the solution into the leaf air spaces. Excess solution was drawn off the next day, and samples were rinsed in Microtubule-Stabilizing Buffer under vacuum three

times over 24 hours. Following this, samples were rolled up and placed into tissue cassettes in 70% ethanol. Leaf tissues were then transferred to an external lab for processing and paraffinization.

Semi-thin sections (1.0  $\mu\text{m}$ ) were cut using a razor blade, and fixed on a microscope slide. The slides were then deparaffinized in decreasing concentrations of xylene and ethanol, and stained with 0.02% Calcofluor White to visualize the internal leaf structures. Photographs of stained sections were taken with a Zeiss Lumar.V12 Stereoscope.

#### *Data Collection and Statistical Analyses*

When assessing both internal and external leaf anatomy, ImageJ software was used to define areas, and count and measure various traits.

For stomatal density, an area of 2500  $\mu\text{m}^2$  was randomly selected for each leaf, and the number of stomata in this area was counted [Table 2]. Stomatal density was then calculated as:

$$\text{Stomatal density} = \text{number of stomata/unit area}$$

In each of the six conditions, for each of which there were six leaves, 10 stomata were selected from the same area, and their length was measured, totalling 60 measurements for each condition [Table 3]. The mean value for each leaf was used for data analysis.

The cross-sectional palisade layer length [Table 4] and leaf thickness [Table 5] were measured at randomly selected locations along the leaf with 10 measurements taken for each leaf, totalling 60 measurements for each condition. The mean value for each leaf was used for data analysis.

An 100  $\mu\text{m}$  wide area was randomly selected for each leaf cross-section. The length of spongy mesophyll exposed to intracellular air space was then measured. Each leaf was measured 10 times at randomly selected locations, resulting in a total of 60 measurements for each condition [Table 6]. The mean value for each leaf was used for data analysis.

Data exploration and statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad software by Prism. Two-way ANOVAs were used to analyze the effects of growth temperature, growth  $[\text{CO}_2]$  and their interaction on leaf traits (stomatal size, stomatal density, leaf thickness, palisade mesophyll cell layer length, and spongy mesophyll cell length exposed to intracellular air space). A post-hoc Tukey test was used when significant treatment effects were found. All data are reported as means  $\pm$  standard errors.

## RESULTS

### *Stomatal Size and Density*

Both temperature,  $[\text{CO}_2]$ , and the interaction between the two variables influenced stomatal density [Fig. 4]. Warming increased stomatal density ( $F=158.7$ ,  $P<0.0001$ ), with a 20% increase from T0 to T8 in AC leaves and a 30% increase from T0 to T8 in EC leaves [Fig. 4]. However, elevated  $[\text{CO}_2]$  reduced ( $F=83.24$ ,  $P<0.0001$ ) stomatal density [Fig. 4]. When comparing AC to EC, stomatal density decreased by 25% in T0, 5% in T4, and 3% in T8 [Fig. 4]. The significant interaction between temperature and  $[\text{CO}_2]$  ( $F=29.42$ ,  $P<0.0001$ ) [Fig. 4] describes this reduced  $[\text{CO}_2]$  effect with warming. When comparing current (ACT0) to future (ECT8) climate conditions, there was an overall 8% increase in stomatal density [Fig. 4].

Though there was no significant  $[\text{CO}_2]$  or interaction effects, warming reduced stomatal size ( $F=32.95$ ,  $P<0.0001$ ) [Fig. 5]. Stomata were 15% smaller in ACT8 leaves compared to ACT0 leaves, and 10% smaller in ECT8 leaves compared to ECT0 leaves [Fig. 5]. When comparing current (ACT0) to future (ECT8) climate conditions, there was an overall 13% decrease in stomatal size [Fig. 5].

#### *Palisade Layer Length and Leaf Thickness*

Neither temperature nor  $[\text{CO}_2]$  had an impact on palisade layer length independently, but there was a significant interaction effect ( $F=5.908$ ,  $P=0.0069$ ) [Fig. 6]. At T0, elevated  $[\text{CO}_2]$  decreased palisade layer length, but at T4 and T8, elevated  $[\text{CO}_2]$  increased palisade layer length [Fig. 6]. In AC leaves, palisade layer length decreased by 14% from T0 to T8, whereas in EC leaves, palisade layer length increased by 19% from T0 to T8 [Fig. 6].

There were no significant differences in leaf thickness among the different climate treatments [Fig. 7].

#### *Length of Spongy Mesophyll Exposed to Intracellular Air Space*

No significant differences were observed for the length of spongy mesophyll exposed to intracellular air space for  $[\text{CO}_2]$  independently or in combination with warming [Fig. 8]. As an independent factor, warming significantly decreased ( $F=8.506$ ,  $P=0.0012$ ) spongy mesophyll length exposed to intracellular air space, with a 17% decrease from T0 to T8 in AC leaves and 14% decrease from T0 to T8 in EC leaves [Fig. 8]

## DISCUSSION

### *Plasticity Among Stomatal Traits for Evaporative Cooling*

Both stomatal size and stomatal density influence CO<sub>2</sub> uptake, water loss, and leaf cooling. Stomatal density represents the number of sites available for gas and water exchange, whereas stomatal size represents the available area for this exchange at each site. Thus, it is important that these traits be examined together. In AC, warming increased stomatal density by 20%, but reduced stomatal size by 15% [Fig. 4, Fig. 5]. Taken together, the stomatal capacity, or the ability for the stomata to carry out exchange of water and gases, increased by 5% at elevated temperatures [Fig. 4, Fig. 5]. In EC, warming increased stomatal density by 30% and decreased stomatal size by 10%, resulting in an overall 20% increase in stomatal capacity [Fig.4, Fig. 5]. These results suggest that with increasing temperature, leaves are increasing transpiration rates in effort to decrease leaf temperature through evaporative cooling [22, 23]. However, increased rates of transpiration can lead to water loss, especially when warming increased the vapour pressure deficit (drying) of the air, so leaves must conserve water in other ways.

Interestingly, warming generally increases stomatal capacity. However, EC leaves increase stomatal capacity (20%) more than their AC counterparts (5%). A decrease in stomatal density at elevated [CO<sub>2</sub>] is considered to be a common response [7]. Therefore, as reflected in the results, ECT0 leaves have a lower stomatal density than ACT0 leaves, by 22% [Fig. 4]. Consequently, there is a greater increase of stomatal density from ECT0 leaves to ECT8 leaves compared to ACT0 leaves to ACT8 leaves [Fig. 4] to compensate for heat stress.

### *Internal Management of Water Loss*

The increase stomatal capacity as a means for evaporative cooling under warm conditions increases the risk of water loss. However, trees grown under elevated temperatures also decreased the length of spongy mesophyll cells exposed to intracellular air space [Fig. 8]. This provides a possible explanation for why warmed trees increased their stomatal capacity at the risk of becoming water stressed. Before water is transpired by the leaf through its stomata, it must first evaporate from the leaf tissues into the intracellular air space. By reducing spongy mesophyll cell length, leaves limit the cell surface area exposed to the intracellular air space and thereby minimize water evaporation from these surface. Therefore, although there was an increase in stomatal capacity and potential transpiration in warm-grown leaves [Fig. 4, Fig. 5], water stress can be mitigated internally [Fig. 8]. This allows for a balance to be maintained between leaf temperature and the rate of water loss.

The increase in stomatal capacity is greater than the reduction in the length of spongy mesophyll exposed to intracellular air space [Fig. 4, Fig. 5, Fig. 8], which suggests that leaf cooling is more important than reducing water loss under warming. However, it is important to note that seedlings were grown in well-watered pots, and therefore may not have experienced the degree of water stress that might occur in their natural environment. With warming expected to continue in the future, boreal will face increased atmospheric drying and water loss. This could have large-scale impact on tree growth, possibly even leading to tree mortality [25] which will in turn increase the frequency and scale of fire disturbances [26]. White birch is known to be a pioneer species, particularly after fire intervals [16], so it is possible that it may become a dominant species in the North American boreal forest as climate change progresses.

Importantly, by reducing the cell surface area available for water exchange, the rate of CO<sub>2</sub> uptake is also limited. This implies that photosynthesis is reduced. Thus, at elevated temperatures, the leaf thickness and length of palisade layer should decrease as a result of reduced CO<sub>2</sub> availability.

#### *Suppression of Palisade Layer Thickness at Ambient CO<sub>2</sub> Conditions*

At ambient [CO<sub>2</sub>] conditions, warming suppressed the palisade layer length [Fig. 6], but at elevated [CO<sub>2</sub>], this effect disappeared and the length was approximately constant across all temperature treatments [Fig. 6].

Increasing temperature can have negative effects on leaf structure and function [24], resulting in thinner leaves and lower rates of photosynthesis. Therefore, the reduction of palisade layer length with warming at ambient [CO<sub>2</sub>] is not surprising. However, this same effect is not observed at elevated [CO<sub>2</sub>]. The observed reduction in length of spongy mesophyll with warming could explain these results. The warming-induced reduction in surface area for gas exchanged reduced the ability of trees to facilitate CO<sub>2</sub> uptake. Under ambient [CO<sub>2</sub>], carbon is less readily available in the atmosphere. This limits CO<sub>2</sub> uptake efficiency, causing decreased rates of photosynthesis [24]. However, elevated [CO<sub>2</sub>] increases the availability of carbon in leaf tissues allowing for greater photosynthetic rates. Therefore, the reduction of spongy mesophyll cell length exposed to intracellular air space can limit CO<sub>2</sub> uptake, but only when atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> is not readily available.

Overall, there is little difference in palisade layer length between ACT0 and ECT8, as predicted. Elevated temperatures place stress on leaf physiology resulting in reduced CO<sub>2</sub> uptake

and shorter palisade layers, but this effect disappears when [CO<sub>2</sub>] is high. As a result, there was no significant difference between current and future climate conditions with respect to palisade layer length. These results suggest that climate change may not directly impact the growth of white birch and other boreal trees. However, this study only used seedlings, not mature trees, and these changes in leaf anatomy could be highly-dependent on the conditions under which the leaves develop. Therefore, we might see variation in leaf anatomy from year to year as new leaves grow in the spring, which could have a cumulative effect on overall tree growth and performance. Coniferous tree growth is likely less dependent on annual conditions than deciduous trees, such as white birch, so it is possible that there will be a shift in species dominance.

Alternatively, it is possible that the observed reduction in palisade layer length is not the result of reduced CO<sub>2</sub> uptake, but instead simply due to a variation in carbon investment at ambient temperatures. For instance, warming may pressure trees to produce fewer thicker leaves, whereas at ambient temperatures trees might yield more thinner leaves.

## **CONCLUSION**

In investigating the plasticity of leaf traits in response to rising [CO<sub>2</sub>] and temperatures, assumptions about the physiological responses of boreal tree species to climate change can be made. While temperature and [CO<sub>2</sub>] have significant impacts on stomatal density, resulting in an overall increase, temperature simultaneously reduces stomatal size. The combined effect of these changes in leaf traits resulted in an overall increase in stomatal capacity, suggesting *B. papyrifera* prioritizes evaporative cooling at elevated temperatures. However, increased transpiration poses



the risk of severe water loss, especially as warming dries the air and soil. *Betula papyrifera* may manage this by reducing the length of spongy mesophyll exposed to intracellular air space, which is the site of water evaporation. Thus, it is possible that there is an elegant tradeoff between leaf cooling and water retention via changes in internal and external leaf anatomy. Warming suppresses palisade layer thickness at ambient [CO<sub>2</sub>], but this effect is not observed at elevated [CO<sub>2</sub>]. It is possible that there is a tradeoff in investment of carbon between leaf thickness and number based on temperature. Overall, we can expect boreal tree species that experience heat stress with future climate change to adjust their internal and external leaf anatomy to promote leaf cooling while preventing excess water loss, although likely at the expense of CO<sub>2</sub> uptake.

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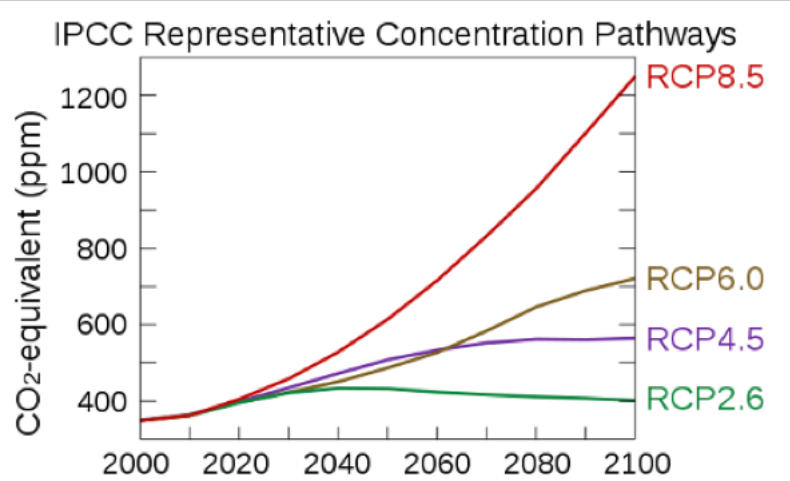
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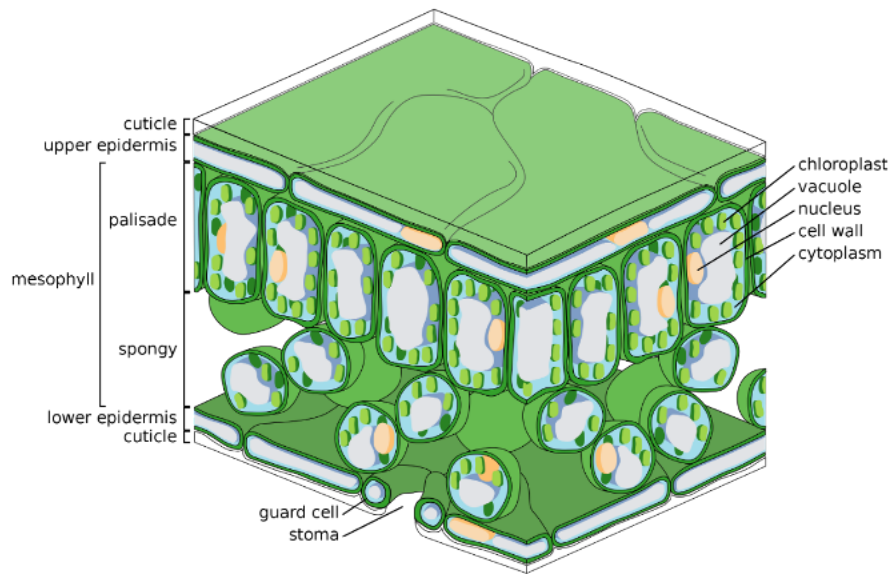
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## FIGURES AND TABLES



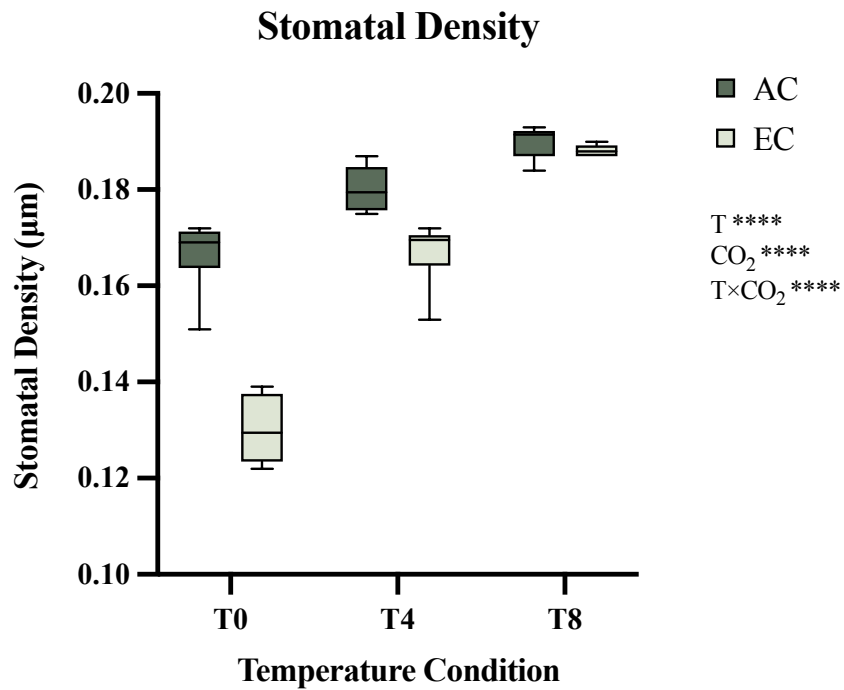
**Figure 1.** Predicted future climatic outcomes as denoted by [CO<sub>2</sub>], varying by mitigation strategy. Obtained from Stocker et al., 2013 [5].



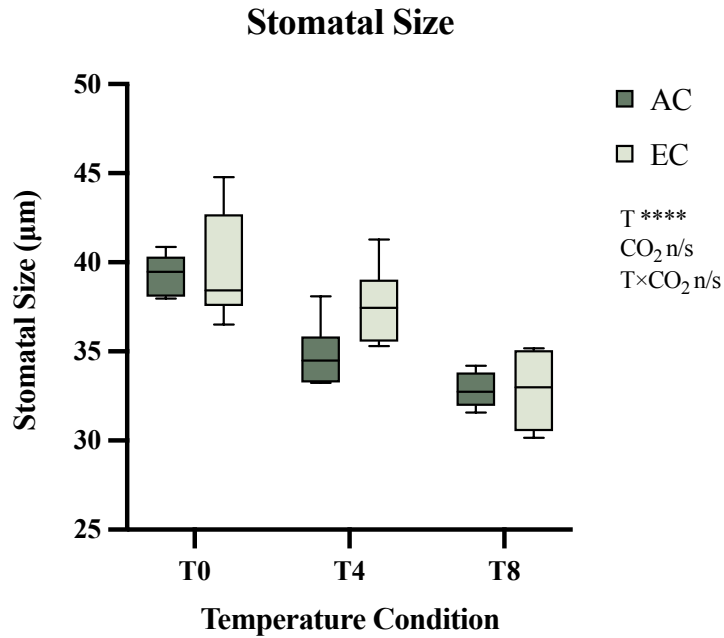
**Figure 2.** Cross-sectional internal leaf anatomy. Demonstrates differences in shape and distribution of palisade mesophyll and spongy mesophyll. Obtained from: [https://www.microscopemaster.com/mesophyll-cells.html#gallery\[pagegallery\]/1/](https://www.microscopemaster.com/mesophyll-cells.html#gallery[pagegallery]/1/)



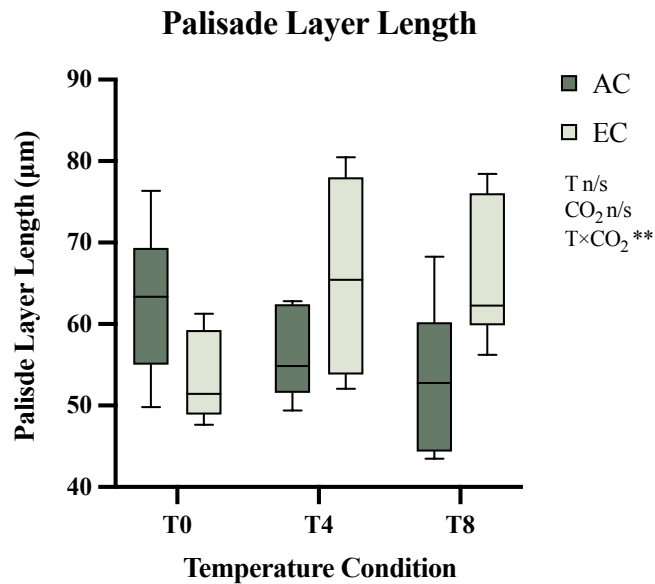
**Figure 3.** Range map of *Betula papyrifera*, or white birch tree. Areas highlighted in green represent the locations where the species grows naturally. Obtained from USDA, 2021 [16].



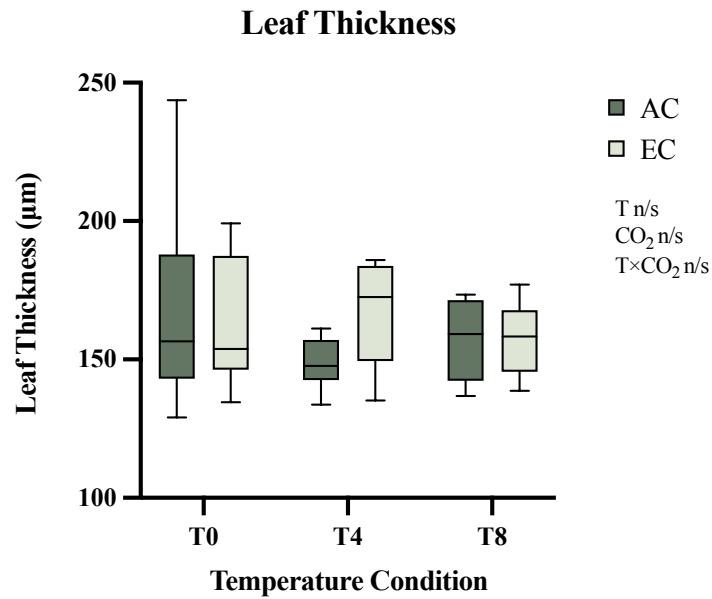
**Figure 4.** Mean ( $\pm$  SE) stomatal density of *Betula papyrifera* at various climate conditions, where AC represents ambient atmospheric [CO<sub>2</sub>] at 410 ppm, EC represents elevated atmospheric [CO<sub>2</sub>] at 750 ppm, T0 represents ambient temperature, T4 represents +4°C warming, and T8 represents +8°C warming.



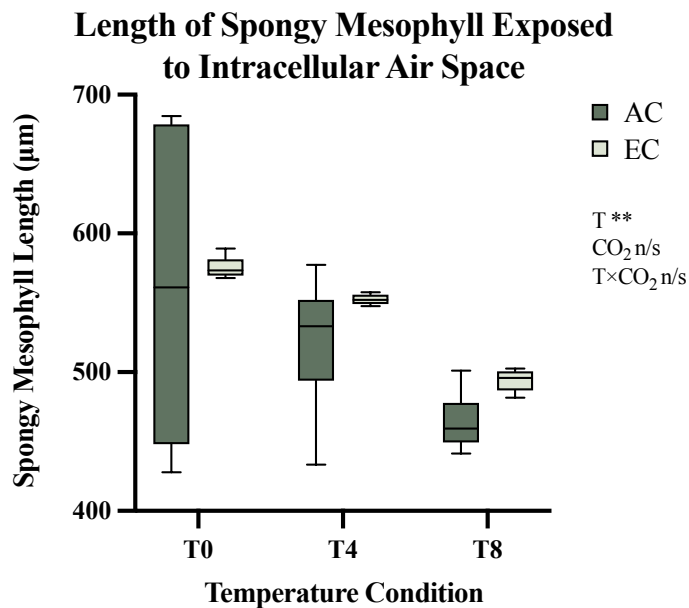
**Figure 5.** Mean ( $\pm$  SE) stomatal size of *Betula papyrifera* at various climate conditions, where AC represents ambient atmospheric [CO<sub>2</sub>] at 410 ppm, EC represents elevated atmospheric [CO<sub>2</sub>] at 750 ppm, T0 represents ambient temperature, T4 represents +4°C warming, and T8 represents +8°C warming.



**Figure 6.** Mean ( $\pm$  SE) palisade layer length of *Betula papyrifera* at various climate conditions, where AC represents ambient atmospheric [CO<sub>2</sub>] at 410 ppm, EC represents elevated atmospheric [CO<sub>2</sub>] at 750 ppm, T0 represents ambient temperature, T4 represents +4°C warming, and T8 represents +8°C warming.



**Figure 7.** Mean ( $\pm$  SE) leaf thickness of *Betula papyrifera* at various climate conditions, where AC represents ambient atmospheric [CO<sub>2</sub>] at 410 ppm, EC represents elevated atmospheric [CO<sub>2</sub>] at 750 ppm, T0 represents ambient temperature, T4 represents +4°C warming, and T8 represents +8°C warming.



**Figure 8.** Mean ( $\pm$  SE) length of spongy mesophyll exposed to intracellular airspace of *Betula papyrifera* at various climate conditions, where AC represents ambient atmospheric [CO<sub>2</sub>] at 410 ppm, EC represents elevated atmospheric [CO<sub>2</sub>] at 750 ppm, T0 represents ambient temperature, T4 represents +4°C warming, and T8 represents +8°C warming.



**Table 1.** Summary of climatic conditions used to simulate current, moderate, and extreme climatic scenarios.

[CO <sub>2</sub> ] conditions	Temperature Conditions		
Ambient [CO <sub>2</sub> ] (AC): 410 ppm	Ambient Temperature (T0)	+4°C (T4)	+8°C (T8)
Elevated [CO <sub>2</sub> ] (EC): 750 ppm	Ambient Temperature (T0)	+4°C (T4)	+8°C (T8)

**Table 2.** Raw data for stomatal density measurements, where stomatal density = number of stomata/unit area, and area = 2500 μm<sup>2</sup>.

Sample #	CO <sub>2</sub> Condition	Temperature Condition	# of Stomata	Stomatal Density
1	AC	T0	377	0.151
2	AC	T0	420	0.168
3	AC	T0	423	0.169
4	AC	T0	427	0.171
5	AC	T0	430	0.172
6	AC	T0	422	0.169
1	AC	T4	440	0.176
2	AC	T4	438	0.175
3	AC	T4	452	0.181
4	AC	T4	461	0.184
5	AC	T4	468	0.187
6	AC	T4	444	0.178
1	AC	T8	470	0.188
2	AC	T8	460	0.184
3	AC	T8	481	0.192
4	AC	T8	478	0.191
5	AC	T8	480	0.192
6	AC	T8	482	0.193
1	EC	T0	343	0.137
2	EC	T0	323	0.129
3	EC	T0	306	0.122
4	EC	T0	324	0.130
5	EC	T0	347	0.139
6	EC	T0	311	0.124
1	EC	T4	420	0.168
2	EC	T4	383	0.153
3	EC	T4	425	0.170
4	EC	T4	422	0.169
5	EC	T4	426	0.170
6	EC	T4	431	0.172
1	EC	T8	471	0.188
2	EC	T8	468	0.187
3	EC	T8	470	0.188
4	EC	T8	472	0.189
5	EC	T8	467	0.187
6	EC	T8	474	0.190



