Transgenerational effects of elevated CO 2 : Downregulation of photosynthetic efficiency and stomatal sensitivity to drought

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Abstract

Increasing atmospheric CO $_2$ and drought are major symptoms of anthropogenic climate change with profound effects on plant growth. Transgenerational memory (i.e. influence of the parental environment on offspring phenotype and performance) has been suggested as a relevant mechanism for plants to build-up adaptative capacity for rapid environmental changes. However, this mechanism of pre-adaptation remains poorly investigated so far. We investigated intra- and transgenerational effects of elevated CO $_2$ on drought response of wheat. We used seeds from a FACE (Free Air Carbon Dioxide Enrichment) experiment with ambient and elevated CO $_2$ to grow plants in climate chambers in which we varied CO $_2$, atmospheric water demand and soil moisture. We quantified photosynthetic efficiency, stomatal sensitivity and biomass production. We observed intragenerational upregulation of photosynthetic efficiency but transgenerational downregulation of photosynthetic efficiency, stomatal sensitivity and water use efficiency as response to maternally elevated CO $_2$. Plant biomass was affected by drought and experimental CO $_2$ but not by maternal CO $_2$. Our study showcases the importance of transgenerational memory effects when studying climate change response of plants and could have major implications for our understanding of global dynamics of carbon sequestration. It highlights the pressing need for multi-generational experiments accounting for transgenerational memory effects of elevated CO $_2$.

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Transgenerational effects of elevated CO_2 : Downregulation of photosynthetic efficiency and stomatal sensitivity to drought

Short title: Transgenerational effects of elevated CO_2

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Summary

Increasing atmospheric CO_2 and drought are major symptoms of anthropogenic climate change with profound effects on plant growth. Transgenerational memory (i.e. influence of the parental environment on offspring phenotype and performance) has been suggested as a relevant mechanism for plants to build-up adaptative capacity for rapid environmental changes. However, this mechanism of pre-adaptation remains poorly investigated so far.

We investigated intra- and transgenerational effects of elevated CO_2 on drought response of wheat. We used seeds from a FACE (Free Air Carbon Dioxide Enrichment) experiment with ambient and elevated CO_2 to grow plants in climate chambers in which we varied CO_2 , atmospheric water demand and soil moisture. We quantified photosynthetic efficiency, stomatal sensitivity and biomass production.

We observed intragenerational upregulation of photosynthetic efficiency but transgenerational downregulation of photosynthetic efficiency, stomatal sensitivity and water use efficiency as response to maternally elevated CO_2 . Plant biomass was affected by drought and experimental CO_2 but not by maternal CO_2 .

Our study showcases the importance of transgenerational memory effects when studying climate change response of plants and could have major implications for our understanding of global dynamics of carbon sequestration. It highlights the pressing need for multi-generational experiments accounting for transgenerational memory effects of elevated CO_2 .

Keywords : crops, drought, epigenetic, Free Air Carbon Dioxide Enrichment (FACE) experiments, maternal effects, photosynthesis, stomata regulation, water use efficiency, wheat

Introduction

The human-induced increase in atmospheric CO₂concentrations has profound effects on global climate and ecosystems (Körner, 2006; Li *et al.*, 2017; Liu *et al.*, 2019). An increasing severity and frequency of drought events is thereby one of the main symptoms of anthropogenic climate change (Trenberth *et al.*, 2014). Both, increasing CO₂ concentrations and drought have and will continue to have strong effects on plant growth with significant consequences for ecosystem functioning and agricultural production (Kaur*et al.*, 2016; Böhnisch *et al.*, 2021). Due to the speed in which these environmental changes happen, it becomes inevitable to analyse and understand the adaptive mechanisms of plants to cope with these rapid changes (Pascual *et al.*, 2014). Knowledge about the adaptive capacity of plants to increasing CO₂concentrations and decreasing water availability as well as their interactions is therefore imperative to develop agendas for efficient and sustainable mitigation and adaptation strategies with the aim to maintain global ecosystem functioning and food security (Sniderhan*et al.*, 2018).

Water deficit is known to limit plant growth. Drought is consequently one of the main drivers of worldwide crop yield reduction with even stronger effects on global agricultural production being expected for the near future (Ng et al., 2016; Zargar et al., 2017). Photosynthesis – the key primary process of plant carbon assimilation and thereby growth – plays a fundamental role for the response of plants to water deficit (Kaur et al., 2016). Water use efficiency (i.e. the amount of carbon assimilated as biomass per unit of water used by a plant) is closely controlled by stomata regulation (Haworth et al., 2011). Mechanisms of plants to prevent drought stress, such as stomata closure, directly interfere with photosynthetic carbon acquisition. However, increasing atmospheric CO₂ concentrations can reduce these limitations linked to water shortage. Higher atmospheric CO₂ concentrations increase photosynthetic carbon acquisition by increasing intercellular CO₂ concentrations and carboxylation efficiency as well as by reducing photorespiration (Bowes, 1993; Ainsworth & Long, 2005; Stiling et al., 2013). All this facilitates plant growth under elevated CO₂ with some variation between different species and photosynthetic pathways (C₃ vs. C₄) (Luo & Reynolds, 1999; Nowak et al., 2004; Prior et al., 2011). Elevated CO₂ can furthermore increase water use efficiency of plants by reducing stomatal conductance and, thus, transpirational water loss (Curtis & Wang, 1998; Prior *et al.*, 2011; Varga *et al.*, 2017). In other words, plants can reduce stomata opening under elevated CO_2 concentrations to receive the required amounts of CO_2 and, thus, can save water which otherwise is lost with increasingly open stomata. This increase in water use efficiency has been shown to be able to alleviate drought effects on photosynthetic carbon acquisition and plant growth (Bazzaz, 1990; Prior *et al.*, 2011; Medina *et al.*, 2016). Consequently, strong interactive effects on plant productivity have to be expected between increasing atmospheric CO_2 concentrations and the spatio-temporal variability of water availability. However, results obtained so far from studies regarding the short-term plant responses to elevated CO_2 within one generation are increasingly realized to be insufficient to predict long-term, transgenerational responses of plants to a future environment enriched in CO_2 but depleted in water (Luo & Reynolds, 1999; Liu *et al.*, 2019).

The strength and direction of individual and interactive effects of environmental drivers on plant performance are rarely static but do change over time due to the continuous adaptation of plants and the environment they inhabit. Being sessile organisms, plants are constantly forced to adapt to changing environmental conditions during their life-time, across generations or over evolutionary time scales (Pascual et al., 2014). Evolutionary adaptation has been suggested to provide an important way for natural populations to counteract environmental changes (Hoffmann & Sgrò, 2011). However, climate change at its current and predicted pace increases the difficulties of plants to adapt (Mishra et al., 2022). Evolutionary adaptation usually happens over multiple of generations and, thus, can hinder rapid adaptation which depends on fast generation times and high selection pressure (Bradshaw & Holzapfel, 2006; Bell & Collins, 2008; Shoo et al., 2013). Short-term responses to environmental stress, such as acclimation, provides another important strategy for crops and wild plant species to cope with reoccurring harsh environmental conditions (Irigoyen et al., 2014). Such kind of intragenerational memory is active within the lifespan of individual plants but does not transmit the information into the next generation, thus, lacks lasting impacts on the fitness of plant species. However, environmental changes can furthermore induce epigenetic imprints which can be transmitted into the next generation. Epigenetic imprints are here defined as mechanisms that enable the developmentally appropriate expression of genes (cf. House & Lukens, 2014). This mechanism provides a kind of pre-adaptation for subsequent generations as a form of maternal effect or transgenerational memory (Pascual et al., 2014).

Transgenerational memory (i.e. the influence of the parental environment on offspring phenotype and performance beyond the effects of transmitted genes; Walter *et al.*, 2016), remains longer active than acclimation and enables plants to respond faster and more adequate to subsequent stress events (Walter *et al.*, 2013; House & Lukens, 2014). It furthermore allows plants to prepare subsequent generations comparably fast for future environmental changes (Latzel *et al.*, 2016). Consequently, transgenerational memory such as epigenetic effects are increasingly realised as one of the main sources of quick phenotypic variation and evolutionary change and, thus, are considered a relevant mechanism of plants to build-up adaptative capacity with regard to accelerating global climate change (Pascual *et al.*, 2014; McCaw*et al.*, 2020). Furthermore, epigenetic effects are increasingly recognized as a very promising approach in plant breeding to obtain progenis with pre-adaptations to different environmental conditions (Alvarez-Venegas *et al.*, 2014). However, transgenerational memory remains poorly investigated for climate change responses of plants (Li*et al.*, 2017; Saban *et al.*, 2019; Liu *et al.*, 2019). Therefore, nature conservationists and plant breeders rarely know the underlying causes of the observed phenotypic and genetic variation in populations of wild plants or varieties of crops (House & Lukens, 2014). This hinders effective conservation planning and breeding programs aiming to maximize the adaptive potential of ecological and agricultural systems for future climate change.

In this study we investigated the intra- and transgenerational effects of elevated CO_2 on stress response of wheat to atmospheric water demand and soil water availability – the two major environmental drivers of plant drought stress (Philip, 1966; Passioura, 1982). We focus on wheat as one of the three most important crops globally (Li *et al.*, 2019; Grote *et al.*, 2021). Wheat is furthermore assumed to be strongly susceptible to increasing drought (Farooq *et al.*, 2012) with major efforts being taken e.g. in breeding programs to foster its adaptive capacity to drought (Li*et al.*, 2021).

Intragenerational effects of elevated CO₂ on wheat biomass production, grain yield and quality have been

intensively studied during the last decades (e.g. Asseng *et al.*, 2004; Högy & Fangmeier, 2008; Myers *et al.*, 2014). Transgenerational effects, however, remain sparely investigated (but see e.g. Li *et al.*, 2019). Based on results from existing intragenerational studies, we assume elevated atmospheric CO₂ concentrations experienced by mother plants to affect the stress response of the offspring generation to drought, i.e. changes in atmospheric water demand and soil water availability. More specifically we hypothesize that maternally elevated CO₂ will trigger transgenerational pre-adaptations in carboxylation capacity and stomatal control with positive effects on water use efficiency under elevated CO₂ conditions. We tested this assumption by growing plants from seeds that originate from a FACE experiment with ambient and elevated CO₂ concentration. Plants from these seed sources were grown in climate chambers in which we varied atmospheric CO₂ as well as atmospheric water demand (i.e. Vapour Pressure Deficit, VPD) and soil moisture. In this climate chamber experiment we investigated plant ecophysiological characteristics related to photosynthetic efficiency and drought response as well as parameters related to biomass production. Besides photosynthetic efficiency, we specifically focused on stomatal response of plants to changes in atmospheric water demand, as this important driver of drought stress emergence in plants and its interaction with soil water availability and atmospheric CO₂ concentration is chronically understudied.

Material and Methods

For our climate chamber experiment we used seeds of summer wheat (*Triticum durum* L. var Miradoux) grown at ambient (400 ppm) and enriched CO₂ concentration (550 ppm) in a FACE experiment for one generation in 2018 (see Fangmeier *et al.*, 2016 for details on the FACE experiment). For our experiment, the seeds from this FACE experiment were sawn in cylinders of 30 cm diameter and a total height of 40 cm at seven equidistant locations on the circumsphere of 7.5 cm radius, with three seeds aligned radial at each segment with 1 cm distance between them. Seeds were sown uniform at 2 cm depth (February 18th 2022, Day 1 of experiment). After germination, seedlings were removed to a density of one seedling per equidistant segment (corresponding to 6.7 cm distance between nearest individuals). At the bottom end of each cylinder a perforated plate with a wick system was installed 5 cm above the bottom to prevent water logging but allow the substrate to keep hydraulic contact to excess water collected at the bottom. Pots were filled with a 50:50 (volume-%) mixture of LD80 and sand to a bulk density of 1 g cm⁻³. Substrate was filled up to 2 cm under the rim of each pot leaving a total of 33 cm depth for rooting and an available rooting volume of 23 L. Each cylinder contained pure stand of plants with the same maternal CO₂ treatment (ambient vs. elevated, see above). In total we had 16 pots, with each 7 individuals.

We used four climate chambers, two with ambient CO_2 concentration (450 ppm) and two with elevated CO_2 concentration (800 ppm). Atmospheric CO_2 concentrations below 600 ppm are generally known to be insufficient to saturate carboxylation in photosynthesis (Nowak *et al.*, 2004). To minimize CO_2 limitation of Rubisco and maximize suppression of competitive oxygenation we decided for a concentration of 800 ppm for our elevated CO_2 treatment which is also in line with previous experiments on transgenerational effects of elevated CO_2 (see Li *et al.*, 2017). In each chamber we placed 4 pots, two pots with seed material from ambient maternal CO_2 and two with enriched maternal CO_2 seed material.

In addition to the experimental application of different levels of CO_2 we also applied different, edaphic drought treatments. 31 days after sowing, we randomly assigned one pot per maternal CO_2 condition in each chamber to a drought treatment while the other one remained well-watered throughout the experiment. The environmental setting of all chambers was similar besides the CO_2 concentration, which means day conditions at 24 °C air temperature, 64 % relative humidity and full light (800 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹) and night conditions at 18 °C, 46 % relative humidity and no light. Thus, Vapour Pressure Deficit (VPD) within the chambers was held mild and similar during day (1.08 kPa) and night (1.12 kPa). To change between day and night we conducted a linear ramp of one-hour duration, for sunrise between 5:00 and 6:00 and for sunset between 20:00 and 21:00, resulting in a day length of 14 hours.

We conducted ACi curves to determine key ecophysiological parameters describing photosynthetic efficiency, namely the maximum rubisco carboxylation rate (V_{cmax}), the maximum electron transport rate (J_{max}), the dark respiration (Rd) and the CO₂ compensation point (Γ) (see Farquhar *et al.*, 1980). With V_{cmax} indicating the efficiency of rubisco carboxylation and J_{max} indicating ribulose 1,5 biphosphat (RuBP) regeneration, both processes represent key limitations within the photosynthetic pathway. Additionally, Rd and Γ are important parameters to describe both limitation processes. Under ambient atmospheric CO₂ concentrations V_{cmax} is usually limiting light saturated photosynthesis. Consequently, J_{max} , which is driving the regeneration of ribulose 1,5 biphosphat, is becoming increasingly limiting under raising CO₂ concentrations (Pignon & Long, 2020). Based on the parameters derived from ACi curves we are therefore able to quantify and compare changes in photosynthetic efficiency and limitations based on maternal imprints. Net assimilation rate for fitting ACi curves was measured at reference CO₂ of 400 ranging to 0 ppm [400, 300, 200, 100, 50, 0] directly followed by measurements between 400 to 1200 ppm [400, 400, 600, 800, 1000, 1200] with minimum 90 and maximum 180 seconds at each CO₂ concentration allowing for early measurement based on stability criteria. V_{cmax} , J_{max} , Rd and Γ were estimated from ACi curves (based on the model of Farquhar *et al.*, 1980) fitted to the measured assimilation rates using the *plantecophys* -R-package (v.1.4-6; Duursma, 2015).

Besides photosynthetic efficiency, we quantified stomatal conductance (qs) and net assimilation rate (A)to increasing atmospheric water demand (increasing VPD) by measuring VPD-response curves. Stomatal opening is regulated by edaphic water supply and atmospheric water demand (see Buckley, 2005). Stomatal opening itself regulates CO_2 uptake as well as H_2O loss at the leaf surface, thus stomatal conductance ultimately regulates the trade-off between net carbon assimilation and transpirational water loss. The stomatal response to drought (reduced opening to avoid water loss) is similar to the stomatal response to elevated CO_2 (reduced opening, as with higher CO_2 concentration less air is needed to achieve a sufficient intercellular CO₂ concentration). By conducting VPD-response curves for plants which experience different levels of maternal and experimental CO_2 as well as different drought treatments, we are able to quantify maternal effects of elevated CO_2 on stomatal regulation under atmospheric and edaphic drought. For fitting VPD-response curves for gs and A we measured both parameters at VPD_{leaf} of 1 to 3 kPa by equidistant steps of 0.5 kPa with each step lasting 15 minutes and measurements obtained every minute. We calculated water use efficiency as the ratio between A and gs under aVPD of 1. We fitted the corresponding VPDresponse curves of stomatal conductance and net assimilation rate by using generalised additive models with integrated smoothness estimation using the gam()-command from the mgcv -R-package (v.1.8-34; Wood, 2004). The optimal degrees of freedoms used for the smoothing spline interpolation were selected based on penalized regression splines. Additionally, we limited the maximum possible degrees of freedom (i.e. limited number of maximum possible knots, $k_{max}=5$) to omit overfitting.

ACi and VPD curves were measured for one (the same) plant individual in each pot using a LiCor 6800 [LiCor, USA] with standardized settings: flow rate 500 µmol s⁻¹, Temperature 26 °C, PAR 1000 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹, 10.000 rpm ventilation. For the ACi curves VPD_{leaf} was fixed at 1 kPa. For the VPD-response curves, reference CO₂ was fixed to chamber CO₂, meaning 800 ppm for plants in elevated chambers and 450 ppm for chambers in ambient conditions. Both, ACi- and VPD curves have been measured right before the start of the drought treatment (between 24 to 27 days after sowing) and VPD curves in addition at the end of the drought treatment prior to harvesting (between 38 and 41 days after sowing).

To monitor plant water stress during the experimentally imposed drought, we measured pre-dawn leaf water potential $\Psi_{\lambda\epsilon\alpha\varphi}$ during the leaf gas-exchange measurements using a scholander pressure chamber [Model 1000, PMS Instrument Company, USA]. Measurements were conducted on the youngest, unfolded and undamaged leaves 26, 31, 33, 35, 38-41 days after sowing, every time before 5:00 AM.

We harvested aboveground biomass of all individuals at 3 cm aboveground at the end of the drought treatment 42 days after sowing (April 1st 2022). We decided to separate biomass by plant organ for 4 out of 7 individuals. Those 4 individuals were never used for water potential measurements, thereby we avoid any bias by preharvest removal of leaves as it had occurred for the individuals used for water potential measurements. For these 4 individuals per pot, aboveground biomass was separated into stem, leaves and senesced leaves, with the latter being separated if the leaf showed more than 50 % senesced tissue. We measured number of leaves, leaf area and fresh weight of all three separated organs per individual. After drying to constant weight at 60 °C, we measured dry weight. For the remaining three individuals we only measured aboveground biomass without separation of plant organs after drying to constant weight at 60 °C. The calculated ratio of total aboveground biomass of all seven individuals per pot divided by the available 23 L of soil rooting volume spanned a range between 0.38 and 1.58 gL⁻¹ (10 out of 16 pots being < 1 g L⁻¹), which is within the recommended range reported by Porter et al (2012) to omit limitation of root growth in pot experiments.

To account for pseudoreplication in our study, we performed linear mixed models with a random effect for planting pot nested in chamber to properly account for both zero inflation and the correlation structure among the ecophysiological and biomass-related parameters which we measured for the different plant individuals growing in the same pot and camber (cf. Zimmerman *et al.*, 2021). For this we applied the lmer()-command of the *lmerTest* -R-package (v.3.1-3; Kuzentsova*et al.*, 2017). For each model we calculated marginal and conditional R^2 using the r.squaredGLMM()-command of the *MuMIn* -R-package (v. 1.43.17; Barton, 2020). Similarly, we used robust linear mixed effect models to estimate the effects of changing atmospheric drought (VPD) on carbon assimilation and stomatal control by accounting for chamber effects in the random term of the models. We subsequently used the residuals of these models to analyse the effect of maternal CO_2 and edaphic drought on these VPD-responses. All analyses were performed in R (v.4.0.5; R Core Team, 2021) with a level of significance of alpha = 0.05.

Results

Maximum rate of carboxylation V_{cmax} was significantly reduced for plants with maternally elevated CO₂ environments but increased with maturation of experimental plants and increasing experimental CO₂concentrations with no significant interaction between the different predictors (Fig. 1A and B; $R^2_{marginal}$ and $R^2_{conditional} = 0.70$ for a linear mixed effect model with chamber as random effect, see Supplementary Material Table S1 for more details).



Figure 1. Differences in the maximum rate of carboxylation V_{cmax} and maximum rate of electron transport J_{max} between wheat plants with maternally ambient (400 ppm; green) and elevated (550 ppm; purple) CO_2 environments grown in climate chambers under ambient (400 ppm, left column) and elevated (800 ppm, right column) CO_2 concentrations.

The maximum rate of electron transport J_{max} was significantly reduced for plants with maternally elevated CO₂ environments with no significant effects of maturation of experimental plants and elevated, experimental CO₂ (Fig. 1C and D; $R^2_{marginal}$ and $R^2_{conditional} = 0.42$; Supplementary Material Table S1). This effect of maternal CO₂ exposure became marginally insignificant when accounting for interactions between the predictors, with the effects of experimental CO₂ and maturation as well as all interactions being insignificant ($R^2_{marginal}$ and $R^2_{conditional} = 0.43$; Supplementary Material Table S1). For dark respiration, none of the predictors nor their interactions showed significant effects (Supplementary Material Fig. S 1 a and b and Table S1). Dark respiration as well as CO₂ compensation points significantly decreased with increasing maturation of experimental plants with no effects of experimental and maternal CO₂ and their interactions ($R^2_{marginal} = 0.35$ and $R^2_{conditional} = 0.65$ for dark respiration; $R^2_{marginal} = 0.39$ and $R^2_{conditional} = 0.68$ for compensation point; Supplementary Material Fig. S1C and D and Table S1).

In contrast to the ecophysiological variables, maternal CO_2 exposure did not show significant effects on any of the considered biomass-related variables (number of leaves, leaf area, leaf fresh and dry weight, total aboveground fresh and dry weight; see Supplementary Material Fig. S2 and Table S2 for more details).

Elevated experimental CO_2 showed significant positive effects on leaf area, number of leaves, leaf fresh and dry weight as well as on total aboveground fresh and dry weight per plant (Supplementary Material Fig. S2 and Table S2). Edaphic drought had significant negative effects on all considered biomass-related variables (see Supplementary Material Table S2). No significant interactions between maternal CO2, experimental CO_2 and edaphic drought was observable for any of the biomass variables.



Figure 2. Response of stomatal conductance gs to changing vapor pressure deficit at leaf surface (VPD_{leaf}) for wheat plants with maternally ambient (400 ppm; A and C) and elevated (550 ppm; B and D) CO_2 environments grown in climate chambers under ambient (400 ppm, A and B) and elevated (800 ppm, C and D) CO_2 concentrations. Blue points and lines reflect plants sufficiently supplied with water whereas orange points reflect plants which experienced edaphic drought. Lines represent predictions of generalised additive models (means indicated by solid lines as well as the 5% and 95% percentile as dashed lines).

Stomatal conductance gs and net assimilation rate Adecreased with increasing atmospheric water demand (increasing Vapor Pressure Deficit, VPD) for well-watered plants. Plants with experienced edaphic drought showed significantly lower gs and A which slightly increased with increasing VPD (Fig. 2). Water use efficiency increased for plants exposed to edaphic drought (Supplementary material Table S3). All plants exposed to drought treatment experienced significant drought stress during measurements (see Supplementary Material Fig. S3). Net assimilation rate A was significantly lower for plants which experienced edaphic drought and further decreased with increasing atmospheric drought (VPD, Supplementary Material Fig. S4). Stomatal conductance was not affected by material CO₂ under ambient chamber CO₂ but was significantly lower for plants with maternally elevated CO_2 with a significant positive interaction between maternal CO_2 and VPD (Fig. 2, $\text{R}^2_{\text{adjusted}} = 0.10$ for a linear model in which the effect of edaphic drought and the pots/chambers is accounted for, see Supplementary Material Table S3 for more details). Elevated maternal CO_2 showed negative effects on assimilation rate under ambient chamber CO_2 with a negative interaction between maternal CO_2 and VPD ($\text{R}^2_{\text{adjusted}} = 0.34$). This effect of maternal CO_2 turned negative under elevated chamber CO_2 with a positive interaction between maternal CO_2 and VPD ($\text{R}^2_{\text{adjusted}} = 0.34$). This effect of maternal CO_2 turned negative under elevated chamber CO_2 with a positive interaction between maternal CO_2 and VPD ($\text{R}^2_{\text{adjusted}} = 0.38$, Supplementary Material Table S3). Water use efficiency was not affected by maternal CO_2 or VPD but was significantly increased for elevated, experimental $\text{CO}_2(\text{R}^2_{\text{adjusted}} = 0.43, p < 0.001)$.

Discussion

Plants are sessile organisms which are rooted in the environment they inhabit and, thus, are constantly forced to adapt to changing environmental conditions to counteract abiotic stress (Pereira, 2016). Populations of plants are therefore generally believed to be primed for the environments they inhabit due to past adaptive and selective forces (Bell & Collins, 2008). However, rapid increases in CO_2 concentrations and drought events – two major facets of contemporary climate change with contrasting effects on plant carbon acquisition and water status – pose new challenges to plants by disrupting these evolutionary dynamics and make it more difficult for plants to sustain productivity under these novel conditions (Duarte-Aké *et al.*, 2019; Hamann *et al.*, 2021). Such rapid climatic changes are assumed to create a range of new selection pressures on plant populations (Hoffmann & Sgrò, 2011). Rapid ways of pre-adaptation such as intra- and transgenerational memory might become increasingly important under the novel settings of accelerating, climatic changes.

The importance of intra- and transgenerational memory for plant fitness and survival has previously been investigated on certain organisational levels. These include investigations on the carbon and nutrient acquisition and allocation of single plants (Bloom *et al.*, 1985) or with regard to demographic dynamics of plant populations and as a potential mechanism ensuring species coexistence (Warner & Chesson, 1985). Empirical evidence exists that plants are able to adapt e.g. their metabolism in response to previous environmental stress (Bruce*et al.*, 2007). This ecological stress memory can play out within the lifespan of an individual plant (intragenerational; Walter *et al.*, 2011) or in the subsequent generations (transgenerational; Walter *et al.*, 2016). Transgenerational memory such as epigenetic regulation is increasingly recognized as an important process in plants' response to environmental changes in e.g. temperature, light and water availability (Duarte-Aké *et al.*, 2019). Intra- and transgenerational memory is furthermore discussed as an important component of single organisms or population resilience to climatic extreme events such as drought (Walter *et al.*, 2013, 2016).

Transgenerational effects of elevated CO_2 have been reported by a number of studies including effects on flowering phenology (Springer & Ward, 2007; Johnston & Reekie, 2008), reproductive traits (i.e. number of flowers, number and mass of fruits and seed, nitrogen and carbon concentrations of seeds; Jablonski et al., 2002; Frenck et al., 2013) and enhanced seedling growth in the subsequent generation (Derner et al., 2004; Lau et al., 2008). In our study, we observed for the first time intra- and transgenerational effects of elevated, atmospheric CO_2 on photosynthetic efficiency and stomatal sensitivity to atmospheric water demand and soil water availability – the two main environmental drivers of plant drought stress. We observed carboxylation efficiency to decrease for plants with maternally elevated CO_2 and to increase with maturation of the experimental plants. Carboxylation capacity under Rubisco-limited conditions (V_{cmax}) and RuBP regeneration (J_{max}) – the two major components of the photosynthetic dark reaction (Farquhar et al., 1980) – are generally assumed to scale with one another (Leuning, 1997; Medlyn et al., 1999). This is partly true for our study V_{cmax} was significantly reduced for plants with maternally elevated CO_2 environments but increased under elevated chamber CO_2 and with maturation of experimental plants. Also J_{max} was significantly lower for plants with maternally elevated CO₂ environments but showed no response to the maturation of experimental plants and elevated chamber CO₂. Stomatal conductance was significantly lower for plants with maternally elevated CO_2 growing under elevated, experimental CO_2 with a significant positive interaction between maternal CO_2 and VPD. This suggests plants to become more risky with regard to transpirational water loss under high atmospheric water demand. Such kind of down regulation of stomatal sensitivity to drought was also observed by Li et al. (2017) for plants with maternally elevated CO_2 . However, water use efficiency was observed by Li and colleagues to be higher for plants with an maternal exposure to elevated CO_2 . In our study, we observed no effects of maternal CO_2 or VPD on WUE. We, furthermore, observed a significant positive effect of increased maternal CO_2 on assimilation rate for plant grown under ambient, experimental CO_2 . This positive effect reversed into a negative effect under elevated, experimental CO_2 . The interactive effects between maternal CO_2 and VPD changed from negative under ambient experimental CO_2 into positive for elevated, experimental CO_2 . All these observations hint towards a transgenerational memory of maternally elevated, atmospheric CO_2 which modulate carboxylation efficiency and stomatal sensitivity of the offspring generation under drought. Generally, plants seem to become riskier with regard to carbon assimilation under drought when the previous generation has experienced elevated CO_2 concentrations. Photosynthetic capacity is closely associated with stomatal regulation (Körner *et al.*, 1979; Hetherington & Woodward, 2003). Stomatal control is furthermore a critical component of the adaptation of plants to the

Woodward, 2003). Stomatal control is furthermore a critical component of the adaptation of plants to the environment (Haworth *et al.*, 2011). Elevated CO₂ has been shown for numerous species to reduce stomatal conductance by 77%–86% as compared to ambient CO₂ conditions (Bunce, 1995). Contrary, lower diffusion of CO₂ form the atmosphere through drought regulated stomata is considered to be the major reason behind decreased photosynthetic rate during mild to moderate drought stress (Pinheiro & Chaves, 2011). Generally, reduced availability of CO₂ is predicted to be compensated by increasing carboxylation efficiency of Rubis-CO and/or increasing stomatal conductance (Woodward, 1998; Franks & Beerling, 2009). In our study, this effect seems to be downregulated by the transgenerational memory of elevated CO₂ concentrations. Transgenerational downregulation of stomatal sensitivity seems furthermore to be different from the downregulation of carboxylation efficiency. Whereas the downregulating effect of maternally elevated CO₂ just appeared for stomatal conductance under experimentally elevated CO₂, it changed from upregulation to downregulation for assimilation rate. Thus, experimentally elevated CO₂ seem to be able to modulate the maternal effects on stomatal control and even more on assimilation rate. All this hint at differences in the strength of transgenerational memory effects between stomatal control and photosynthetic carboxylation capacity.

Our results furthermore suggest that the intragenerational response of carboxylation capacity to elevated, atmospheric CO_2 is contrasting to the transgenerational response with an intragenerational upregulation (by increased experimental CO_2 in the chambers) but a transgenerational down-regulation of carboxylation capacity. These findings – if verified in future studies – could have major implication for the general validity and transferability of Free Air Carbon Enrichment (FACE) experiments as a major tool in plant-focussed climate change impact research. The strong interest in FACE experiments originates form the potential of such investigations to foster our understanding on potential future trajectories in the function and structure of our agroecosystems in a CO₂-enriched world (Luo & Revnolds, 1999). A major challenge for these experiments comes with the nature of FACE experiments being usually implemented as step experiments with an abrupt increase in atmospheric CO_2 concentration in contrast to the gradual increase in CO_2 concentrations we observe to happen as the consequences of rising global greenhouse gas emissions. Modelling studies concluded that the structural and functional responses yielded from these step experiments might most often be different to those that would be observed by exposing the same study system to a gradual increase of the same magnitude over several decades as currently happening under climate change (e.g. Luo & Reynolds, 1999). In fact, numerous studies have been reported intragenerational downregulation (cf. Sage, 1994), i.e. a biochemical adjustments in photosynthetic capacity to increase CO_2 concentrations (Huxman *et al.*, 1998b; Bernacchi et al., 2003). Another challenge comes with the fact, that FACE experiments are predominately designed as single-generation experiments investigating intragenerational responses to elevated CO_2 but rarely investigate effects across multiple generations and in interaction with other major symptoms of change such as drought or eutrophication (but see e.g. Ainsworth et al., 2003). Results from long-term FACE experiments are furthermore reported to differ from short-term responses with water and nutrients availability and demand being discussed as main abiotic drivers (Schneider et al., 2004). Based on the existing literature and our observations we postulate, that transgenerational memory effects of elevated CO_2 on carboxylation capacity and stomatal sensitivity to drought modulated by water and nutrients availability and demand could be a main biotic mechanism causing inconsistency in observed responses between single- and multigenerational FACE experiments.

Transgenerational memory effects of elevated CO_2 might be furthermore a key component to understand global dynamics of carbon sequestration. Increasing CO_2 concentrations has been identified to be a global driver for enhanced vegetation productivity. This CO_2 fertilisation effect, which is reported to results from the ecophysiological effects of elevated CO_2 on photosynthetic carbon gain and water use efficiency as discussed above – has been postulated to strongly affect ecosystem functioning, global food security and biosphere-atmosphere feedbacks in the near future (Saban et al., 2019). However, the fertilizing effect of increasing CO_2 concentrations has been recently reported to have substantially declined in most terrestrial regions of the globe during the last decades implying substantial reductions of the positive effects rising CO_2 concentrations terrestrial carbon sequestration (Wang et al., 2020). Changes in nutrient concentrations and water availability have been proposed as abiotic drivers of this process. Based on our results we argue, that transgenerational memory effects of elevated CO_2 in combination with memory effects of nutrient and water availability and demand are key evo-evolutionary mechanisms behind the changing dynamics of global carbon sequestration. Such transgenerational memory effects will furthermore have profound effects on stress response, grain yield and quality in crops which will be not predictable from single-generation investigations (Bottley, 2014; Li et al., 2019). However, all this is still rather speculative and in-depth investigations are urgently needed to test these assumptions.

Stomatal regulation under drought has been recently described to be closely coupled to a *de novo* synthesis of abscisic acid (ABA) within the leaf as a response to the exposure to dry air (high VPD; Buckley, 2016; McAdam *et al.*, 2016). ABA has been documented to play an important role in guard cell movement (Tardieu & Davies, 1993; McAdam & Brodribb, 2018) and, by this, allows plants to control the transpirational water loss under increasing edaphic and atmospheric drought (Liu *et al.*, 2005). This process of ABA biosynthesis is described to respond very fast to increasing atmospheric drought, i.e. within 20 min resulting in stomatal closure (Buckley, 2016). Nevertheless, ABA concentration has been reported to be affected across generations by maternally elevated CO_2 with increased concentrations of leaf ABA for plants with maternally elevated CO_2 concentrations (Li *et al.*, 2017). Also photosynthetic enzymes responsible for carboxylation efficiency have been documented to be modulated by epigenetic mechanisms (Duarte-Ake*et al.*, 2019). In our study we covered different aspects of carboxylation capacity but did not investigate ABA concentrations which opens room for speculation about the importance of ABA for transgenerational memory effects of elevated CO_2 . Further studies are urgently needed to disentangle the molecular mechanisms behind the observed, transgenerational effects of elevated, atmospheric CO_2 on the photosynthetic efficiency and stomatal sensitivity of plants to drought.

In our study we did not observe any effects of maternal CO_2 on any of the considered, biomass-related parameters. This might be due to the relatively short duration of the experiment or the overriding effect of experimental CO₂ and drought. However, transgenerational effects of elevated CO_2 on biomass-related parameters have been reported e.g. for the annual grass Bromus madritensis L. were growth rate of seedling was increased by elevated experimental CO_2 but the increase was less pronounced when parent plants also experienced elevated CO₂ (Huxman et al., 1998a, 2001). Furthermore, growth of spring wheat (Tritium aestivum L.) was reported to respond more to elevated CO_2 when the previous generations also already experienced elevated CO_2 (reported for second and third generation; Derner et al., 2004). Generally, there is no one-to-one translation of photosynthetic CO_2 response into growth response, but the latter depends on allocation dynamics modulated by additional, environmental factor such as water and nutrient demand and availability (Korner, 2006). Elevated CO₂ has been documented to change source-sink-dynamics in crops with effects of carbon and nutrient allocation from vegetative organs into grain (Bourgault et al. 2013; Biswas et al., 2013). Furthermore, reduced transpiration via reduced stomatal conductance can be considered to indirectly limit nutrition uptake under elevated CO_2 with effects in the plant growth and yield quality of crops (Hogy et al., 2009; Myerset al., 2014). We investigated the effects of edaphic and atmospheric water availability but did not account for nutrient availability. However, future studies should definitely account for the interrelations between transgenerational effects of elevated CO_2 and allocation dynamics modulated by water and nutrient availability and demand to get a more complete picture about historical contingencies in plant responses under changing environmental conditions.

Conclusions

Memory effects are a major feature of ecosystem dynamics which influence present and future response trajectories (Schweiger, 2017). Memory effects become especially important when environmental changes happen fast and single organisms, populations or entire ecosystems have to adapt to these novel environmental conditions (Schweiger *et al.*, 2019). In our study, we observed transgenerational memory effects of elevated CO_2 on the photosynthetic efficiency and drought sensitivity of plants. Such kind of memory effects can have major implications for global carbon sequestration and crop breeding under accelerating, global climate change and, thus, demonstrate the necessity to re-visit plant–environment interactions (Pereira, 2016). More in-depth knowledge on intra- and transgenerational effects on allocation dynamics modulated by water and nutrient availability and demand will be needed to implement a mechanistic understanding about memory effects of elevated CO_2 into modelling – one major tool for climate change impact assessment and future prediction. To achieve this, we urgently need a stronger focus on multi-generational greenhouse and FACE experiments accounting for transgenerational memory effects of elevated CO_2 to disentangle the molecular, cellular and organismal components of epigenetic pre-adaptation and its importance for the fitness of single organisms, viability of populations and functioning/productivity of agricultural and ecological systems.

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Author Contribution

AHS and BB developed the study idea and planned the experiment, FTA, WD and WD conducted the experiment, AHS and BB performed the analyses, AHS led the writing with significant contribution by all authors.

Data Availability

All data and script for data analyses will be made freely available on zenodo upon publication.

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