

1 **The cold-drought tolerance trade-off in temperate woody plants constrains range**
2 **size, but not range filling**

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18 **Acknowledgements:** The Estonian University of Life Sciences provided funding for this work
19 (grant number: P200187PKEL and P200190PKEL awarded to GP and LL, respectively). GP also
20 thanks Babak Naimi for helpful discussion on the implementation of SDMs.

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28 **Abstract**

29 Interspecific differences in plant species' ranges are shaped by complex mechanistic interactions,
30 which have so far remained largely beyond the reach of comprehensive models and explanations.
31 Previous attempts to find underlying mechanisms by examining physiological tolerances to cold
32 and heat separately have yielded contradictory results. Here we test the hypothesis that, instead
33 of examining single stressors, abiotic stress tolerance syndromes that involve trade-offs between
34 multiple abiotic stressors (namely drought, cold, waterlogging and shade), will provide reliable
35 explanations.

36 We compiled a dataset of actual range size and range filling (the ratio between actual and
37 potential species range) as range metrics for 331 temperate woody plants species from Europe
38 and North America. Tolerance syndromes were expressed as two PCA axes. One axis reflects a
39 drought-cold/waterlogging tolerance trade-off (cold/wet-drought trade-off), the second axis
40 represents a shade tolerance spectrum. Phylogenetic generalized linear mixed models were used
41 to model the range metric-tolerance axes relationships using latitude as an additional main effect,
42 and phylogeny and plant functional type as random effects.

43 Actual range scaled negatively with the cold/wet-drought tolerance trade-off axis, mostly
44 independently of latitude and continent. Thus, cold/wet-tolerant species had the largest ranges
45 and drought tolerant species the smallest. The sign (-) of the relationship was independent of
46 phylogeny and plant functional type. In contrast, range filling depended on latitude. However,
47 deciduous and evergreen species displayed different distributions of range metrics and tolerance
48 syndromes. No significant relationships with the shade tolerance spectrum were found.

49 Our findings demonstrate that the cold/wet-drought trade-off partly explains interspecific range
50 size differences. However, this trade-off did not explain range filling. We also showed that
51 fundamental adaptations of species also significantly influence range sizes – stress avoidance
52 through the deciduous habit also explained interspecific differences in range size.

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54 **Keywords:** abiotic stress, plant species distributions, cold tolerance, drought tolerance,
55 Hutchinsonian niche, range filling, range size, woody plant species

56 **Introduction**

57 The identification of the factors shaping species range size and filling is a major focus of
58 biogeography (Brown, 1984; Gaston *et al.*, 2009). In recent years, a number of theories aimed at
59 explaining species distribution patterns at the global scale have been developed. For example, the
60 mid-domain effect predicts that species close to the equator have larger distribution ranges
61 (Colwell & Hurtt, 1994), whereas Rapoport's rule assumes the opposite (Stevens, 1989). Several
62 mechanistic hypotheses either addressing extrinsic factors (e.g. the climate variability hypothesis
63 (Stevens, 1989) to explain Rapoport's rule) or intrinsic factors (e.g. the dispersal (Hanski *et al.*,
64 1993) or niche breadth (Brown, 1984) hypotheses) have been proposed (reviewed in Sheth *et al.*,
65 2020). Most of the hypotheses formulated so far to explain interspecific differences in range size
66 have emerged from zoology (Fine, 2015). In comparison, this topic has been little investigated in
67 plant species (Sheth *et al.*, 2020), for which the determinants of range size, and its global
68 variation, remain elusive.

69 Different metrics of range size are used in the literature to describe plant biogeographic
70 patterns (Sheth *et al.*, 2020). These metrics include latitudinal or longitudinal range, extent of
71 occurrence or area of occupancy, along with the ratio of realized range size (based on known
72 species distributions) over potential range size (usually estimated using species distribution
73 models), also known as range filling (Svenning & Skov, 2004; Paul *et al.*, 2009; Sheth *et al.*,
74 2020). Despite the use of different metrics, some consistent biogeographic patterns have
75 emerged. For example, North American regions with strong climate instability have lower
76 species richness and large-ranged species, while small-ranged species inhabit more species-rich
77 regions with more stable climates (Morueta-Holme *et al.*, 2013; McFadden *et al.*, 2019). For
78 European tree species, both potential range size and range filling increase with latitude
79 (Svenning & Skov, 2004; Nogués-Bravo *et al.*, 2014), and both European and North American
80 woody species tend to have larger ranges at higher latitudes (Morin & Chuine, 2006).

81 All these results are consistent with Rapoport's rule, which predicts larger ranges and
82 lower species richness at higher latitudes, possibly due to high latitude species being more
83 tolerant of more variable environmental conditions (e.g., Morueta-Holme *et al.*, 2013), or to an
84 increased frequency of pioneer species with broader niches at higher latitudes (Morin & Chuine,
85 2006). Despite these general tendencies, exceptions to Rapoport's rule have been documented.

86 For example, in the Americas, woody species' range size has a bimodal distribution in relation to
87 latitude, being largest in both north temperate and tropical areas (Weiser *et al.*, 2007). A similar
88 bimodal distribution has been observed for range filling in European (Svenning & Skov, 2004)
89 and North American tree species spanning sub-tropical to boreal climates (Seliger *et al.*, 2021).
90 Thus, although a positive range size-latitude relationship is well documented for plants, it is not
91 without exceptions and a mechanistic explanation of this pattern is still missing.

92 Morin & Chuine (2006) proposed that the proximate driver behind Rapoport's rule is
93 abiotic stress tolerance. In particular, they argued that intrinsic differences in abiotic stress
94 tolerance between species, and thus in their ability to persist under given resource regimes, might
95 explain interspecific variation in range size. Following this proposal, analysis of species'
96 inherent abilities to withstand extreme heat and/or cold has provided the main way to seek a link
97 between species' physiology and distribution ranges, chiefly expressed as latitudinal limits
98 (mostly for animals, e.g. Addo-Bediako *et al.*, 2000; Gaston *et al.*, 2009; Sunday *et al.*, 2011;
99 Araújo *et al.*, 2013). Comprehensive large-scale datasets of thermal tolerances have only
100 appeared recently for plant species (e.g., Lancaster & Humphreys, 2020). Nevertheless, relating
101 species' abiotic stress tolerances to their distribution ranges is complex. Cold and heat tolerance,
102 for instance, only have clear relationships with latitudinal and climatic gradients under certain
103 conditions. Cold tolerance seems to be more closely related to climatic conditions than heat
104 tolerance (Araújo *et al.*, 2013; Lancaster & Humphreys, 2020), and patterns are stronger for
105 northern hemisphere than southern hemisphere species. Similarly, cold and drought tolerances do
106 not display straightforward relationships with range filling, despite showing a clear latitudinal
107 pattern across Europe (Nogués-Bravo *et al.*, 2014). Thus, our comprehension of the relationship
108 between abiotic stress tolerance and species distributions remains poor.

109 Relating species' physiological tolerances to their geographical distribution patterns is
110 complicated by occupied ranges representing realized niches (e.g. Hutchinson, 1957), whereas
111 physiological tolerances should reflect species' fundamental niches. Furthermore, physiological
112 tolerances of different stressors might trade-off against each other due to correlation with
113 independent niche axes of the Hutchinsonian hypervolume (Sexton *et al.*, 2017), shrinking the
114 number of feasible tolerance combinations. Accounting for trade-offs between multiple
115 tolerances may more closely reflect species' realized physiological requirements (Sack, 2004;

116 Niinemets & Valladares, 2006; Laanisto & Niinemets, 2015; Puglielli *et al.*, 2021a) and possibly
117 reveal consistent relationships with realized range sizes. Thus, multivariate trade-off axes
118 between different tolerances might be needed to detect correlates with range size. Recently,
119 Puglielli *et al.* (2021a) examined multivariate trade-offs in woody species' ecophysiological
120 tolerances of four major abiotic stresses (cold, shade, drought and waterlogging). The trade-offs
121 were visualized in a triangular stress tolerance space (henceforth *Stress Space*). Ecophysiological
122 tolerance is defined as a species' ability to survive long-term extreme shortage of a given
123 resource in its natural environment (Niinemets & Valladares, 2006). The *Stress Space* was built
124 using published species-specific tolerance data (Niinemets & Valladares, 2006; Laanisto &
125 Niinemets, 2015) for ~800 Northern Hemisphere woody plant species. Each pair of coordinates
126 in the *Stress Space* reflects species-specific multi-stress tolerance syndromes shaped by trade-
127 offs among the different tolerances. In particular, the first *Stress Space* axis reflects a trade-off
128 between drought and cold/waterlogging tolerance. The second axis is a shade tolerance spectrum,
129 from low- to high shade tolerance. Thus, the *Stress Space* framework permits to link abiotic
130 stress tolerance syndromes to other aspects of species' biology, including range size. A well-
131 developed framework describing the relationship, and potential trade-offs, between multiple
132 abiotic stress tolerances is crucial for making realistic inferences about the role of abiotic stress
133 tolerance in shaping species distribution patterns, including global variation in range sizes
134 (Gaston *et al.*, 2009).

135 Identification and interpretation of range size correlates has the potential to increase
136 understanding of the factors and processes that influence species' ranges (Svenning & Skov,
137 2004; Estrada *et al.*, 2016). Although a complete spectrum of range size correlates is not yet
138 available (Estrada *et al.*, 2016, 2018), especially for plants, we employ a dataset on 300
139 temperate woody species from Europe and North America, to analyze the relationships between
140 abiotic stress tolerance syndromes, as summarized by the *Stress Space* axes, and species actual
141 range sizes and range filling. We decided to consider both of these range metrics because they
142 reflect different aspects of species' ranges. Actual range size includes historical legacies (e.g. for
143 temperate species, the degree to which they have been able to expand since the Last Glacial
144 Maximum; Svenning *et al.*, 2008; Normand *et al.*, 2011; Nogués-Bravo *et al.*, 2014; Estrada *et*
145 *al.*, 2016) and ecological constraints (e.g. areas with suitable habitat, Linder *et al.*, 2013). Range
146 filling, on the other hand, is a measure of the extent to which species' ranges are at a climatic

147 equilibrium (Svenning & Skov, 2004). Thus, the traits that are positively correlated with actual
148 range size are expected to be those that are associated with range expansion (Estrada *et al.*,
149 2016, 2018), whereas traits associated with range filling reflect limits on species' distributions
150 imposed by historical non-climatic factors (Estrada *et al.*, 2016). Previous studies have mostly
151 attempted to link range filling to plant dispersal syndromes (Svenning *et al.*, 2008; Normand *et*
152 *al.*, 2011; Nogués-Bravo *et al.*, 2014). However, even assuming successful migration and
153 dispersal, the *regeneration niche* theory (Grubb, 1977), also requires that a species is able to
154 survive the prevailing abiotic (and biotic) conditions to establish viable populations (Estrada *et*
155 *al.*, 2018). The *Stress Space* framework can therefore provide further insights into the
156 determinants of species' range size and range filling.

157 In this study, we examined the relationships between temperate woody species range
158 sizes and range filling, and the *Stress Space* axes. Assuming these metrics are positively
159 correlated (e.g. Seliger *et al.*, 2021), we propose that species' abiotic stress tolerance syndromes
160 (reflected in their positioning along the *Stress Space* axes) can largely explain latitudinal
161 differences in range size and filling. Specifically, we hypothesized that:

162 **1)** As the first *Stress Space* axis represents a spectrum from cold/waterlogging- to drought
163 tolerant species, and assuming this reflects a latitudinal gradient (Nogués-Bravo *et al.*, 2014), we
164 expected a negative relationship between both range metrics and this axis.

165 **2)** Both range metrics will be independent of shade tolerance, which in turn is
166 independent of latitude. Shade tolerance data used in the *Stress Space* are measures of a species'
167 capacity for growth in low light conditions compared to the capacity for growth of coexisting
168 species (Niinemets & Valladares, 2006). Shade tolerance is also largely independent of the other
169 tolerances in the *Stress Space* (Puglielli *et al.*, 2021a). Therefore, shade tolerance can be either
170 high or low irrespective of latitude.

171 These hypotheses were tested by taking into account the effects of both phylogeny and
172 plant functional type, as defined by Puglielli *et al.* (2021b).

173 **Methods**

174 **Actual range and occurrence data**

175 We carried out an extensive literature search for polygons defining species' actual ranges for the
176 799 woody species in Puglielli *et al.* (2021a). We were able to retrieve polygons defining
177 species' actual range for 331 species. Specifically, spatial distributions of North American
178 species ($n = 201$) were obtained from the “*Digital representations of tree species range maps*
179 *from Atlas of United States Trees*” (available at <https://github.com/wpetry/USTreeAtlas>).
180 Distributions of European species ($n = 130$) were gathered from the International Union for
181 Conservation of Nature (IUCN, www.iucnredlist.org), the European forest genetic resources
182 program (EUFORGEN, <http://www.euforgen.org/species>), and published papers (Kalwij *et al.*,
183 2014; Caudullo *et al.*, 2017; Wazen *et al.*, 2020).

184 Species occurrence records for the 331 species were obtained from the Global
185 Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF, www.gbif.org/, accessed 21/12/2018; full list of data
186 sources in **Appendix S1, Supporting Information Table S1.1**). GBIF data were carefully
187 cleaned using both standardized and customized procedures (see **Appendix S1, Fig. S1.1**).

188 **Potential range size and range filling calculation**

189 To estimate species' potential range sizes, we used two presence-only models - i.e., Bioclim
190 (Busby, 1986), and Maxent (Phillips *et al.*, 2006) - to account for differences in potential range
191 size that may arise from algorithmic differences (Nogués-Bravo *et al.*, 2014). Each model was
192 fitted with three environmental parameters: growing degree days at 5°C (GDD, unitless);
193 climatic moisture index (the ratio of annual precipitation to annual potential evapotranspiration,
194 CMI, unitless) and mean minimum temperature of the coldest month (T_{\min} , °C). GDD and CMI
195 data were obtained from the ENVIREM dataset (Title & Bemmels, 2018) and T_{\min} (i.e. Bio6)
196 from WorldClim (Hijmans *et al.*, 2005); each at 10 arcmin resolution.

197 Before computing Species Distribution Models (SDMs), occurrence data were subjected
198 to environmental filtering following Varela *et al.* (2014; see **Appendix S1, Fig. S1.1**). All the
199 331 species had > 20 occurrences, which is considered a reasonable threshold for fitting SDMs
200 (Guisan *et al.*, 2017).

201 The SDMs were fitted using the *sdm* R package (Naimi & Araújo, 2016). For each run,
202 80% of species data was used for training, and the remaining 20% for evaluating the model. 30

203 replicates per species were generated through bootstrapping and 20,000 background points were
204 generated at each run. The Area under the ROC Curve (AUC; Fielding & Bell, 1997) and True
205 Skill Statistic (TSS; Allouche *et al.*, 2006) were used to evaluate model performance. The SDMs
206 predictions were converted into presence/absence maps by using the threshold that maximized
207 both sensitivity and specificity of the model. This is considered the best option for presence-only
208 methods (Liu *et al.*, 2013). The number of suitable 10 arcmin cells in the binary maps
209 corresponded to potential range size while actual range was determined by counting the 10
210 arcmin cells occupied by the polygons defining species' actual range. Range filling (%) was then
211 calculated as: (Actual range/Potential range)×100 (see **Appendix S2, Fig. S2.2**). Due to a lower
212 percentage of species with range filling estimates greater than 100% (see **Appendix S3, Figs.**
213 **S3.3-3.6, Table S3.2** for considerations on models' performance and range filling estimates)
214 only Bioclim derived estimates of potential range were used in subsequent analyses.

215 In order to account for broad differences in species' adaptive syndromes, species were
216 classified according to three major plant functional types: deciduous angiosperms, evergreen
217 angiosperms and evergreen gymnosperms. For the complete list of species' actual range size
218 (\log_{10} -transformed number of 10 arcmin cells), range filling, centroid latitude and species
219 classification according to their continental origin (N. America, Europe) and plant functional
220 type see **Appendix S4**.

221 **Abiotic stress tolerance data**

222 The species-specific estimates of tolerance of shade, drought, cold and waterlogging used to
223 define the *Stress Space* were obtained from the datasets of Niinemets & Valladares (2006) and
224 Laanisto & Niinemets (2015), which include stress tolerance scores for ~800 Northern
225 Hemisphere woody species. In the original data compilation (Niinemets & Valladares, 2006),
226 shade, drought and waterlogging tolerance were independently estimated by cross-calibrating
227 multiple tolerance scales reported in the literature where multiple measurements for one species
228 were available across tolerance scales. Cold tolerance data were extracted from USDA plant
229 hardiness data (Laanisto & Niinemets, 2015). All the stress tolerance scores were then
230 harmonized to fit a 5-level scale (1 - very intolerant; 5 - very tolerant) (Niinemets & Valladares
231 2006 and Laanisto & Niinemets 2015).

232 The formalization of the *Stress Space* (Puglielli *et al.*, 2021a) revealed that two-
233 dimensions (principal components) capture ~80% of the variance in species-specific
234 combinations of shade, drought, cold and waterlogging. Each pair of coordinates in the *Stress*
235 *Space* corresponds to a species-specific stress tolerance syndrome. Stress Axis 1 is positively
236 correlated with drought tolerance and negatively correlated with both waterlogging and cold
237 tolerance. It is interpreted here as a cold-drought tolerance trade-off, where the term cold refers
238 to a short growing season. This interpretation stems from the positive covariance between cold
239 and waterlogging tolerance in our dataset: the highest cold tolerance is expected where
240 snowpacks are greater, resulting in later snowmelt, followed by waterlogging and consequently a
241 shorter growing season (Chuine, 2010). Stress Axis 2 is positively correlated with shade
242 tolerance, and represents a shade tolerance spectrum. Stress Axes are available in Puglielli *et al.*
243 (2021a).

244 **Data analysis**

245 Actual range size (hereafter range size) was log-transformed before analysis. Range filling was
246 strongly related with range size ($R^2 = 0.46$, $p < 0.0001$, $n = 331$), but not with \log_{10} -transformed
247 potential range size ($R^2 = 0.02$, $p < 0.001$, $n = 331$). Thus, we used the residuals deriving from
248 the relationship range size vs. range filling as a metric of range filling (Seliger *et al.*, 2021).

249 The relationships between stress axes and both range size and range filling residuals were
250 tested at different levels. First, we used Ordinary Least Square (OLS) regression analysis.
251 Second, we used quantile regression to provide a more comprehensive characterization of the
252 studied relationship (Ricotta *et al.*, 2010). In addition, quantile regression is mostly insensitive to
253 outliers (Ricotta *et al.*, 2010). Quantile regressions were run using the *quantreg* R package
254 (Koenker, 2017) using different quantiles of range metrics distribution ($\tau = 0.1$, $\tau = 0.25$, $\tau =$
255 0.50 , $\tau = 0.75$ and $\tau = 0.90$). However, fitting models with many species while ignoring
256 phylogenetic relationships might lead to inflated type I errors (Freckleton *et al.*, 2002).
257 Consequently, as a third step, we computed Phylogenetic Generalized Linear Mixed Models
258 (PGLMMs, Ives & Helmus, 2011) using range metrics as response variable as a function of
259 stress axis 1 or 2 (considered separately), latitude (centroid latitude calculated using the
260 *geosphere* R package, Hijmans *et al.*, 2019) plus the first-order interaction stress axis : latitude;
261 species' phylogenetic relatedness and plant functional types were considered as random effects.

262 When the interaction was not found to be significant, only the main effects were considered.
263 PGLMMs were run using the *phyr* R package (Li *et al.*, 2020). Phylogenetic data were retrieved
264 for 325 species in our dataset using the mega-tree available via the *V.PhyloMaker* R package (Jin
265 & Qian, 2019). The mega-tree combines the phylogenies developed by Zanne *et al.* (2014) and
266 Smith & Brown (2018). Species nomenclature followed The Plant List v.1.1 (2013). We also
267 tested for potential signals of spatial autocorrelation in the model residuals using spline
268 correlograms from the *ncf* R package (Bjørnstad, 2020); specifically, 95% pointwise bootstrap
269 confidence intervals were computed from 5,000 bootstrap samples of Pearson residuals.

270 Finally, we tested for differences between plant functional types in terms of the
271 distributions of actual range and range filling residuals, and positioning along stress axes using
272 the Kruskal-Wallis test. Pairwise multiple comparisons between group levels were carried using
273 Dunn's test by adjusting p-values with Holm correction.

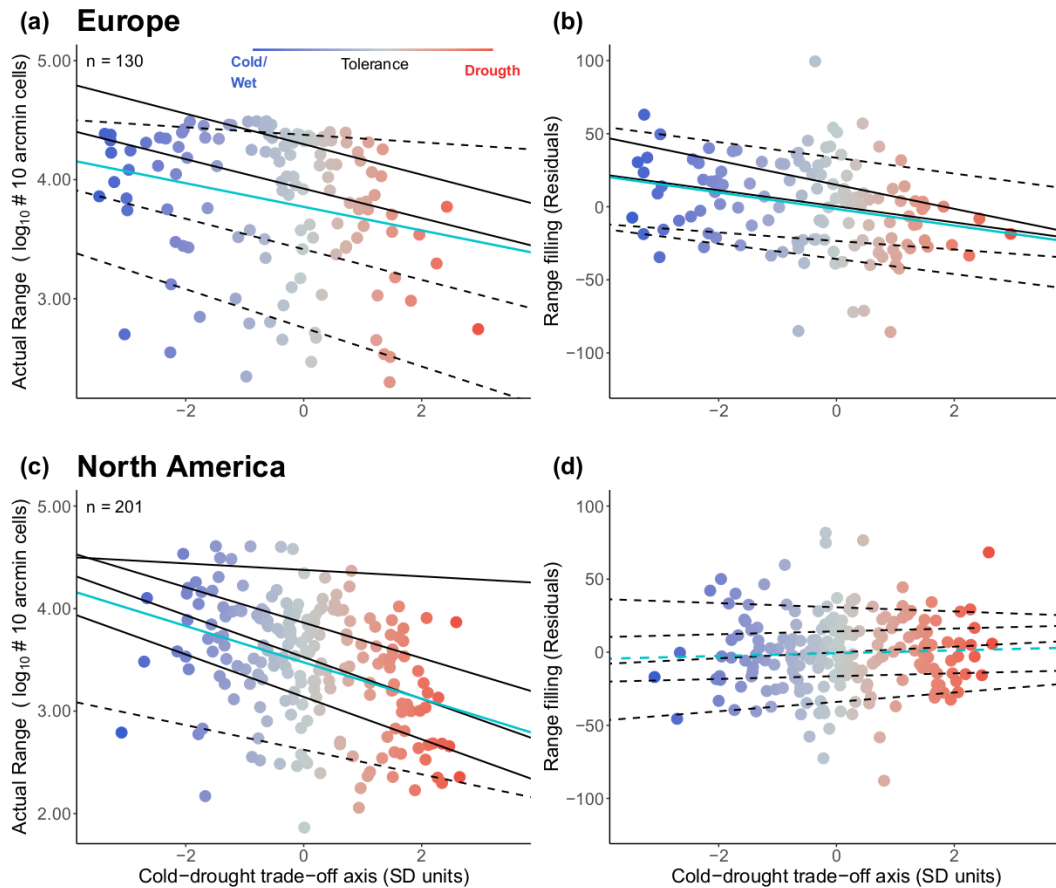
274 All the data analysis procedures were repeated for the European and North American
275 species separately to account for possible geographic differences in patterns observed. All
276 statistical analyses were performed in R 4.0.5 (R Core Team, 2021). As we did not find any
277 relationship between either range size or range filling residuals with the shade tolerance
278 spectrum at any level of analysis, only the results relative to the cold-drought tolerance trade-off
279 axis are shown.

280 **Results**

281 Actual range scaled negatively with species positioning along the cold-drought tolerance trade-
282 off axis for species from both continents (Europe: slope = -0.10, $R^2 = 0.06$, $p = 0.01$, $n = 130$;
283 North America: slope = -0.18, $R^2 = 0.14$, $p < 0.01$, $n = 201$) (**Fig. 1 a,c**). A negative relationship
284 between actual range and cold-drought tolerance trade-off axis was also observed across the
285 considered quantiles of the response variable, but with differences between the species from the
286 two continents. For European species, the quantile regressions were mostly significant at average
287 to high values of actual range (**Fig. 1 a**). For North American species quantile regressions were
288 all significant, except the one fitted at the lowest quantile (**Fig. 1 c**).

289 Range filling residuals scaled negatively with species positioning along the cold-drought
290 tolerance trade-off axis only for European species (slope = -5.66, $R^2 = 0.07$, $p < 0.01$, $n = 130$)

291 and, as for actual range, the quantile regressions were mostly significant at average to high
292 values of range filling (**Fig. 1 b**). No significant relationship was found between range filling
293 residuals and the cold-drought tolerance trade-off axis for North American species, and the
294 relationship was not significant at any considered quantile (**Fig. 1 d**).



295

296 **Fig. 1.** Relationship between the cold-drought trade-off (Standard Deviation units) and actual range
297 (log₁₀-transformed number of 10 arcmin cells) and range filling (residuals, see Methods) for: **(a,b)**
298 European, and **(c, d)** North American woody plant species. Pale blue line represents the Ordinary Least
299 Square fit. Black lines show the quantile regressions fitted at the 0.1, 0.25, 0.50, 0.75 and 0.90 quantile of
300 the response variable distribution. Solid lines depict significant relationships at $p < 0.05$ while dashed
301 lines represented not significant relationships. Sample size (n) is shown in panels **(a,c)** and applies also to
302 the relationships involving range filling as the response variable. The color gradient reflects the
303 progression from cold/wet-tolerant to dry/warm-tolerant species along the cold-drought trade-off.

304 The negative relationship between actual range and the cold-drought tolerance trade-off
305 axis was not affected by including latitude as an additional main effect (**Table 1**), and the cold-
306 drought tolerance trade-off axis effects were always greater than that of latitude for all data
307 pooled (see **Appendix S5, Table S5.3**), and for each continent considered separately (**Table 1**).

308 However, some differences between continents were detected. The cold-drought tolerance trade-
309 off axis effect was only marginally significant ($p = 0.06$) for European species and the effect of
310 latitude was not significant. The model explained 7% of the variance of actual range for
311 European species. In contrast, for North American species, the effects of both the cold-drought
312 tolerance trade-off axis and latitude were significant, but with opposite sign: the tolerance axis
313 maintained its negative relationship with actual size whereas latitude showed a positive
314 relationship ($p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.05$, respectively). This model explained 23% of the total
315 variation in actual range of North American species, and indicates that range sizes are greatest at
316 higher levels of cold/wet tolerance and at higher latitudes. Despite European and North
317 American species sets having no species in common, we explored whether differences between
318 continental species sets could be driven by differences in terms of genera composition.

319 Out of 106 genera in our entire dataset, there were 29 genera in common between the two
320 continents. These genera contributed 70% of the species included in the entire dataset. When the
321 analyses were repeated after removing genera that were unique to one or other continent, the
322 result remained significant for North American species, but the relationship between range size
323 and the cold-drought tolerance trade-off axis changed from being marginally significant to
324 become highly significant for European species as well ($R^2 = 0.12$, see **Appendix S5, Table**
325 **S5.4**). This indicates that differences in results between continents are partly driven by
326 differences in genera composition of their constituent species.

327 There was no significant interaction between the cold-drought tolerance trade-off axis
328 and latitude in any model involving actual range as the response variable for European or North
329 American species. Overall, species positioning along Stress Axis 1 was the main driver of
330 interspecific differences in actual range for both continents. Actual range data in relation to the
331 cold-drought tolerance trade-off axis and latitude are shown in **Appendix S5, Fig. S5.7a,c**.

332 The differences in results between continents were more pronounced for range filling
333 (**Table 1**). A significant positive interaction between the cold-drought tolerance trade-off axis
334 and Latitude was found in the model including range filling for European species, and it
335 explained approximately 19% of the variance. Despite a significant main effect of the cold-
336 drought tolerance trade-off axis on range filling (**Table 1**), we did not interpret this effect given
337 the presence of a significant interaction. We regard the interaction between the cold-drought

338 tolerance trade-off axis and latitude as the main driver of interspecific differences in range filling
339 across European species. For North American species, range filling showed a negative
340 relationship with latitude and no significant effect of the cold-drought tolerance trade-off axis.
341 This model suggests greater range filling at lower latitudes, but it explained only 4% of variance,
342 leaving range filling largely unexplained for North American species. Range filling data in
343 relation to the cold-drought tolerance trade-off axis and latitude are shown in **Appendix S5, Fig.**
344 **S5.7b,d.**

345 Regardless of the model, the effect of phylogenetic relatedness between species was
346 negligible (**Table 1**). In addition, the spline correlograms (see **Appendix S6, Fig. S6.8**) did not
347 reveal any evidence of spatial autocorrelation in the PGLMMs residuals. We can therefore safely
348 disregard spatial autocorrelation as a factor influencing model parameter estimates. Plant
349 functional types did not affect the strength or the sign of the relationships between the cold-
350 drought tolerance trade-off axis and either actual range or range filling. However, as a random
351 effect in PGLMMs, plant functional type had a greater effect overall than species phylogenetic
352 relatedness in terms of random effect variance (**Table 1**).

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360 **Table 1. Results of the Phylogenetic Generalized Linear Mixed models.**

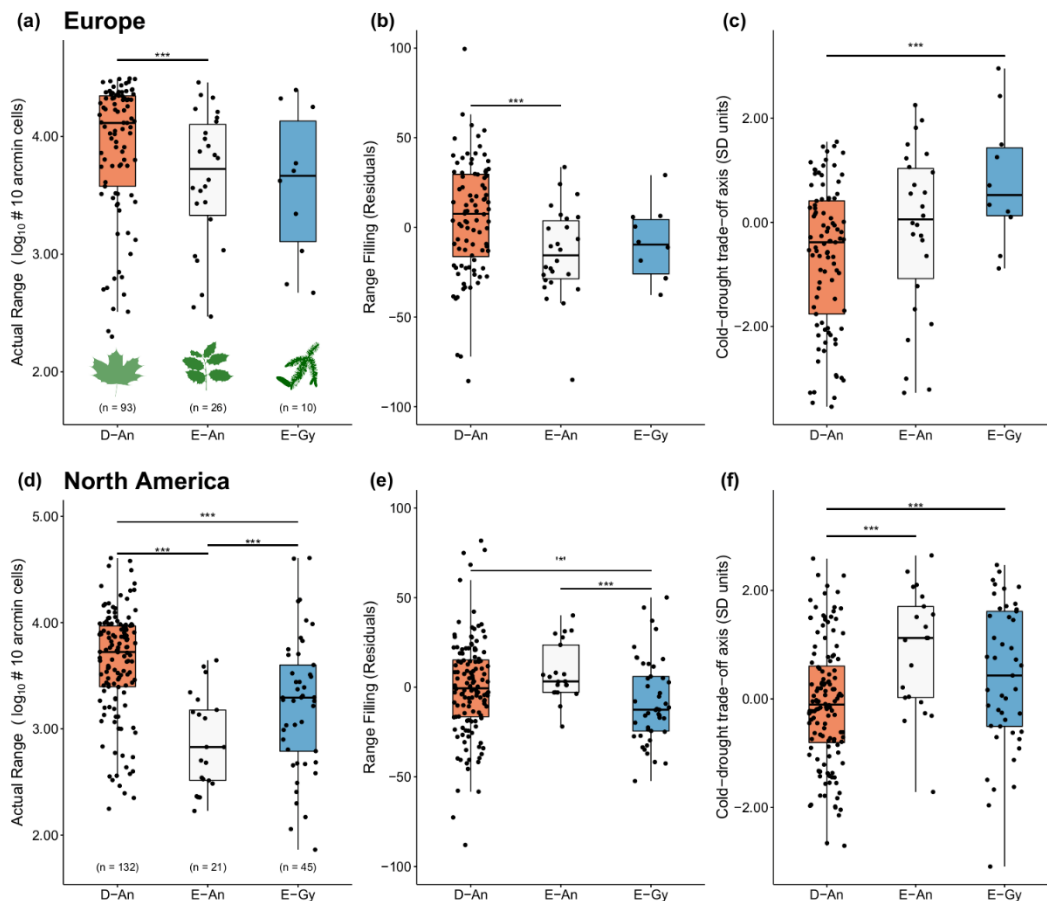
Response	Continent	Main effects					Random effects		
			Estimate	SE	<i>p</i>	Model <i>R</i> ²	<i>n</i>		Variance
Actual range	Europe	Intercept	3.39	0.34	< 0.0001	0.07	128	PFT	0.007
		Cold-drought trade-off	-0.07	0.04	0.06			Phylogeny	≈ 0
		Latitude	0.01	0.01	ns				
	North America	Intercept	2.9	0.22	< 0.0001	0.23	197	PFT	0.05
		Cold-drought trade-off	-0.11	0.03	< 0.001			Phylogeny	≈ 0
		Latitude	0.01	0.01	< 0.01				
Range filling	Europe	Intercept	27.08	17.37	ns	0.19	128	PFT	33.12
		Cold-drought trade-off	-43.18	11.77	< 0.0001			Phylogeny	0.003
		Latitude	-0.56	0.34	ns				
		Cold-drought trade-off * Latitude	0.69	0.22	< 0.001				
	North America	Intercept	22.96	9.25	0.05	0.04	197	PFT	3.97
		Cold-drought trade-off	0.01	1.56	ns			Phylogeny	0.001
Latitude		-0.6	0.22	< 0.001					

361 Models were run by continent (Europe and North America) using actual range (log10-transformed number of 10 arcm cells) and range filling (Residuals, see Methods) as
 362 response variables, Cold-drought trade-off (Standard Deviation units) and latitude (centroid latitude, °) as main effects, and Plant Functional Type (PFT) and species
 363 phylogenetic relatedness (Phylogeny) as random effects. Estimates of the main effects and their standard errors (SE), together with the variance explained by the model
 364 (Model *R*²) and sample size (*n*), are shown. The variance captured by the random effects is also shown.

365

366

367 The three plant functional types differed in distributions of actual range and range filling
 368 values and in positioning along the cold-drought tolerance trade-off axis (Kruskal-Wallis test, p
 369 ≤ 0.05 ; **Fig. 2 a-f**). As a general trend, deciduous angiosperms have larger actual range and range
 370 filling values ($p \leq 0.05$; **Fig. 2 a,b,d,e**), and they occupy the cold/wet side of the cold-drought
 371 tolerance trade-off (i.e. more negative values along the cold-drought tolerance trade-off axis)
 372 (**Fig. 2 c,f**), compared to the other plant functional types. However, multiple comparisons
 373 sometimes differed between continents (**Fig. 2 a-f**).



374

375 **Fig. 2.** Boxplots for the distribution of actual range size (log₁₀-transformed number of 10 arcmin cells),
 376 range filling (Residuals, see Methods) and positioning of species along the cold-drought trade-off
 377 (Standard Deviation units) within each of the plant functional types (D-An = deciduous angiosperms; E-
 378 An = evergreen angiosperms; E-Gy = evergreen gymnosperms) for: **(a-c)** European, and **(d-f)** North
 379 American woody species. Sample size and data points for each plant functional type are shown. ***
 380 indicates significant differences between plant functional types (Kruskal-Wallis, $p < 0.05$). ‘*’ indicates
 381 marginal significance ($p = 0.05$). Only significant and marginally significant differences are shown.
 382 Multiple comparisons between groups were carried out using the Dunn’s test and Holm correction for
 383 multiple testing.

384

385 **Discussion**

386 Our results show that the cold-drought tolerance trade-off axis (hereafter cold-drought trade-off)
387 constrains actual range size of temperate woody species (**Fig. 1**). In particular, we found large-
388 ranged species at the cold/wet tolerance end of the trade-off axis, and small-ranged species at the
389 drought tolerance end. Despite some nuanced variation discussed below, this result was
390 independent of continent, latitude, plant functional type and phylogeny, indicating its generality.
391 In contrast, range filling showed different patterns in Europe and North America: the interaction
392 between the cold-drought trade-off and latitude had the largest influence on range filling for
393 European species, whereas latitude was the only driver of range filling in our North American
394 species pool.

395 **Determinants of range size variation in temperate woody plants**

396 Occurrence in cold, highly seasonal environments is associated with large ranges in trees
397 (Stevens, 1989; Pither, 2003; Morin & Chuine, 2006; Morueta-Holme *et al.*, 2013). Hypotheses
398 to explain this include the *climate variability hypothesis* (Stevens, 1989), the *niche breadth*
399 *hypothesis* (Brown, 1984), and the likelihood of cold-tolerant species having had northerly
400 refugia prior to the Last Glacial Maximum, enabling faster colonization of newly available
401 habitat after ice retreat (Svenning *et al.*, 2008).

402 For North American species, we found that cold/wet tolerant species occurring at high
403 latitudes (e.g. *Salix* spp., *Larix laricina* (Du Roi) K.Koch) generally have the largest ranges
404 (**Table 1**). Consistent with this, large ranged, cold-tolerant North American tree species are
405 known to be generally absent from regions that are consistently warm and moist, such as the
406 southeastern regions of the continent (Pither, 2003). Palaeoecological records also provide
407 evidence for rapid northward range shifts in North American large-ranged trees after the latest
408 ice age (Seliger *et al.*, 2021, and references herein). Conversely, some species might have
409 maintained relatively small realized ranges following deglaciation, perhaps due to trait
410 syndromes guaranteeing competitive advantages only in specific ice age refugia (Seliger *et al.*,
411 2021). Possible examples are species with drought tolerance strategies that prevented northward
412 range expansions after glacial retreat, such as *Juniperus deppeana* Steud., *Pinus monophylla*
413 Torr. & Frém., and *Quercus douglasii* Hook. & Arn., among other species with relatively small
414 ranges that are confined to SW-North America. Long-term drought, and likely adaptations to

415 tolerate such conditions, are an important constraint on plant species distributions (e.g. Normand
416 *et al.*, 2009). Similarly, Pither (2003) hypothesized that latitudinal patterns in the range sizes of
417 North America woody species reflect a potential trade-off between species' cold tolerance
418 strategies and their competitiveness in warmer environments. In support of this, our results show
419 that the cold-drought trade-off, which largely reflect species biogeographical history, is a
420 mechanism that actively influences interspecific differences in range size for North American
421 plant species.

422 Cold-tolerant European species also have large ranges (**Fig. 1 a**), but the signal was
423 weaker than for North American species (**Table 1**). This difference is caused by differences in
424 genera composition between the continental species sets, and by a cluster of European species
425 with intermediate positions along the cold-drought trade-off having large ranges (**Fig. 1 a**).
426 These large-ranged species include *Picea abies* (L.) H.Karst, *Pinus sylvestris* L. and *Betula*
427 *pendula* Roth. Such species survived the last glacial maximum in central and/or eastern Europe
428 with easy access to Northern Europe, with possibility for rapid northward expansion, after ice
429 retreat (Normand *et al.*, 2011). While these species are indeed cold tolerant, their tolerance
430 syndromes include some degree of drought tolerance as well, shifting them towards the center of
431 the cold-drought trade-off axis. This effect has the potential to decouple these species from the
432 negative relationship between the cold-drought trade-off and range size, indicating the
433 importance of considering stress tolerance syndromes based on several factors rather than single
434 tolerances when investigating interspecific differences in ranges. Other species that are
435 potentially decoupled from this relationship belong to European genera that do not occur in the
436 North American species set. More studies are needed for these European species. In the case of
437 small range, drought-tolerant species, the explanation provided for North American species is
438 likely to apply to European species as well (e.g. Normand *et al.*, 2009).

439 The negative scaling of range size along the cold-drought tolerance trade-off is also
440 consistent with macrophysiological evidence suggesting that pre-adaptation to low temperature
441 or species-specific abilities to adapt to freezing temperatures may have favoured species'
442 northward migration after glacial retreat (e.g. Araújo *et al.*, 2013; Lancaster & Humphreys,
443 2020). In contrast, it has been suggested that heat tolerances might be less adaptable (e.g. Araújo
444 *et al.*, 2013) and, considering that drought-tolerant species usually thrive in hot environments,

445 adaptations to tolerate drought might have concomitantly prevented the northward post-glacial
446 race for drought tolerant plants. This suggests that the cold-drought trade-off might limit niche
447 expansion for temperate woody species, as has been suggested for heat stress globally (Araújo *et*
448 *al.*, 2013). Importantly, however, despite the fact that drought and heat stress can covary in
449 warm-temperate ecosystems, we argue that the effect of drought tolerance on range size should
450 be considered separately from that of heat tolerance. The most heat tolerant plants are from both
451 dry and moist environments (Lancaster & Humphreys 2020), and although transpirational
452 cooling generally costs moisture, plants have also evolved adaptations to reduce the detrimental
453 effects of heat stress under drought (Flexas *et al.*, 2014). For example, among a plethora of other
454 adaptations, changes in water-use efficiency (Flexas *et al.*, 2014) or leaf movements (Puglielli *et*
455 *al.*, 2017) can decouple leaf physiological responses to high temperatures from those to drought
456 in Mediterranean woody plants.

457 We have shown that species positioning along the cold-drought trade-off axis imposes
458 fundamental constraints upon interspecific differences in the range size of woody species, and
459 contributes to shaping their realized niches (i.e. actual range) across continents. Species
460 positioning in the *Stress Space*, which is determined by trade-offs between multiple tolerances
461 (Puglielli *et al.*, 2021a), can be interpreted as a measure of a species' realized niche based on
462 abiotic resources (*sensu* Hutchinson, 1957) more than as a measure of the fundamental niche.
463 After all the trade-off between tolerances shrinks fundamental niche size towards that of the
464 realized niche (e.g. Sack, 2004). Therefore, by representing the typical multiple abiotic stress
465 levels to which a plant species has adapted, its position in the *Stress Space* inherently
466 corresponds to a set of energy constraints that define plant life history strategies. Such strategies
467 are thought to directly control species' geographical distributions (Morin & Chuine, 2006).
468 Niche position along resource-defined axes is a strong predictor of range size and occupancy in
469 many animal groups (Seliger *et al.*, 2021), and our results show that this is also true for
470 temperate woody plant species.

471 **Range filling is not affected by the cold-drought tolerance trade-off**

472 All species are expected to have constraints on the extent to which they fill their range because
473 of their specific physiological and ecological requirements (Paul *et al.*, 2009), and their inherent
474 trade-offs. Our results suggest that other factors that covary with latitude, not considered in this

475 study (e.g. dispersal syndromes, Estrada *et al.*, 2016), might be important for explaining range
476 filling pattern. Such historical non-climatic limitations can ultimately also covary with species'
477 abiotic stress tolerances. This might explain why a positive interaction between the cold-drought
478 tolerance trade-off and latitude drives their range filling differences. Similarly, Nogués-Bravo *et*
479 *al.* (2014) proposed that the negative correlation between seed mass and range filling found
480 across 38 European tree species could be due to covariation between seed mass and other factors
481 (e.g. drought tolerance), but further analysis including a larger number of species would be
482 needed in order to test this claim.

483 More importantly, our results highlight different range filling determinants between the
484 two continents, that contrarily to actual range, did not depend on differences in genera between
485 continents (see **Appendix S5, Table S5.4**). European species' range filling was driven by a
486 positive interaction between latitude and the cold-drought tolerance trade-off, while North
487 American species' range filling was influenced only by a negative effect of latitude. This
488 negative relationship between range filling and latitude for North American species was in
489 agreement with a previous study that also reported a positive relationship range filling-longitude
490 (Seliger *et al.*, 2021), suggesting that longitude can indeed alter the expected range filling-
491 latitude relationship. Differences between continents might therefore depend on their
492 geographical extent. Europe has a much smaller latitudinal and longitudinal range and less
493 gradual geographical clines than North America (Morin & Chuine, 2006). In addition, some
494 European species ranges also occur outside Europe (e.g., species with a Eurasian distributions)
495 and this might have influenced model's projections (see **Appendix S3**). According to the above,
496 we therefore suggest that the interaction between these contrasting continental features and
497 intrinsic drivers, such as dispersal syndromes, might determine continent-specific levels of range
498 filling.

499 **Differences among plant functional types**

500 Plant functional type (PFTs) did not affect the negative scaling of range size with the cold-
501 drought trade-off (**Table 1**). However, the distribution of range size, range filling and positioning
502 along the cold-drought trade-off axis differed between PFTs (**Fig. 2 a-f**). This probably explains
503 why PFTs generally accounted for more of the random effects variance (even though the amount
504 was generally low) for range metrics compared to phylogeny (**Table 1**). In general, despite some

505 overlap between PFTs, deciduous angiosperms showed the highest values for both actual range
506 and range filling (consistent with large-ranged species also having greater range filling, Seliger *et*
507 *al.*, 2021), and they were located further towards the cold tolerance end of the trade-off axis.
508 Using a dataset of European and North American woody species, Morin & Chuine (2006) also
509 found that deciduous species were overrepresented among the large-ranged species.

510 Many deciduous angiosperms differ in trait syndromes from evergreen angiosperms or
511 evergreen gymnosperms (e.g. Puglielli *et al.*, 2021b), and different trait syndromes match
512 differences in PFTs geographical distributions (Zanne *et al.*, 2018). For example, in the northern
513 hemisphere, deciduous species tend to be more frequent in cold climates compared to evergreen
514 broad-leaved angiosperms, despite some overlap between PFTs at almost all latitudes (Zanne *et*
515 *al.*, 2018). Conversely, while adaptations to tolerate drought closely match the distribution of
516 evergreen species, this is not always true for deciduous species (e.g. see Kunert *et al.*, 2021),
517 suggesting that drought does not always limit deciduous species spatial distribution.

518 Deciduousness *per se* has been the common explanation for the ability of deciduous
519 species to colonize either cold or dry environments, as it is an adaptation that permits avoidance
520 of unfavorable environmental conditions. This explains why deciduous angiosperms in our
521 dataset have larger ranges than other PFTs, and are mostly cold-tolerant. However, if
522 deciduousness is also a successful drought avoidance strategy that could drive to large ranges in
523 drought tolerant species as well, the relationship between range size and the trade-off axis should
524 be not significant rather than negative. We can reconcile this by considering that woody species
525 of the warm-temperate/temperate regions of the Northern Hemisphere are not generally drought-
526 deciduous. Drought tolerant deciduous species have sufficiently though leaves to widen their
527 growing season beyond the usual duration of periods of drought (Hallik *et al.* 2009). Such
528 adaptation is of course part of a wider trait syndrome (see Hallik *et al.*, 2009), including, for
529 example, greater biomass allocation to roots in species with greater drought-tolerance (Puglielli
530 *et al.*, 2021b), or smaller vascular conduits (Olson *et al.*, 2018), that support the investment in
531 tough leaves. This is consistent with the previous discussion of a link between species' tolerance
532 strategies, trait syndromes and range size.

533 To summarize, while we recognize that adaptations to very low temperatures are
534 complex, and involve a combination of avoidance and tolerance strategies together with

535 acclimation (Schubert *et al.*, 2020), we argue that large range sizes at the cold tolerant end of the
536 trade-off axis is made viable because of the deciduous habit in temperate woody species. In this
537 instance, stress avoidance is more important as an asset than stress tolerance. However, we also
538 observed a greater overlap, in both range size and positioning along the trade-off axis, between
539 freezing-tolerant North American gymnosperms and deciduous angiosperms than with evergreen
540 angiosperms (**Fig. 2 d,f**). Thus, we do not exclude the additional role for freezing tolerance in
541 guaranteeing large ranges.

542 **Conclusions**

543 Our results demonstrate that the cold-drought tolerance trade-off partly explains interspecific
544 differences in range size across temperate woody plant species and that this relationship is
545 largely independent of latitude and consistent with woody species biogeographical histories in
546 the considered continents. Notably, our findings also suggest that accounting for species' abiotic
547 stress tolerance towards multiple stresses can reconcile macroecological and macrophysiological
548 theories aimed at explaining range size differences among woody plant species, supporting a
549 previous hypothesis by Morin & Chuine (2006). However, our results concerning the impact of
550 abiotic stress tolerance on range filling were inconclusive, suggesting that other factors not
551 studied here and that covary with latitude and/or abiotic stress tolerance syndromes are the main
552 drivers of range filling in temperate woody species. Finally, our results also demonstrate the
553 importance of considering trait syndromes, reflected here as differences between plant functional
554 types, in clarifying the ways in which species' adaptations influence broad interspecific
555 differences in range size in woody plant species in relation to abiotic stress tolerance.

556

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