Variation in white spruce needle respiration at the species range limits: a potential impediment to northern expansion

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Abstract

White spruce (*Picea glauca*) spans a massive range from arctic treeline to temperate forests, yet

the variability in respiratory physiology and related implications for tree carbon balance at the

extremes of this distribution remain as enigmas. Working at both the most northern and southern

extents of the white spruce distribution range more than 5000 km apart, we measured the short-

term temperature response of dark respiration (R/T) at upper and lower canopy positions. R/T

curves were fit to both polynomial and thermodynamic models so that model parameters could

be compared among locations, canopy positions, and with previously published data. Respiration

measured at 25°C (R_{25}) was 68% lower at the southern location than at the northern location

(0.73 ± 0.15 vs. 2.27 ± 0.02 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1}), resulting in a significantly lower (p< 0.01) intercept in

R/T response in temperate trees. Only at the southern location did upper canopy leaves have a

steeper temperature response than lower canopy leaves, likely reflecting steeper canopy gradients

in light. No differences were observed in the maximum temperature of respiration. At the

northern range limit respiration is nearly twice that of the average R_{25} reported in a global leaf

respiration database. This large carbon cost likely challenges tree survival and contributes to

restricting the location of the northern treeline. We predict that without significant thermal

acclimation, foliage respiration will increase with projected end-of-the-century warming and will

likely constrain the future range limits of this important boreal species.

Keywords: *Picea glauca*, Canopy gradients, Carbon balance, Dark respiration, Arctic

treeline, physiological plasticity

Summary Statement: White spruce (*Picea glauca*) needle respiration at the northern limit of

the species range is three times higher than at the southern range limit (when measured at 25 °C).

This high carbon cost likely challenges tree survival and contributes to the location of the

northern treeline.

Short Title: Variation in white spruce needle respiration at the species range limits

Introduction

The distribution range of a species delineates the geographical location where historical, physiological and biotic filters combine to result in successful growth and reproduction (Lambers & Oliveira, 2019). The niche-breadth hypothesis explains species distributions based on envelopes of environmental conditions tolerated (Lowry & Lester, 2006), yet there is no universally accepted "cause" for delineating a species' range despite a long history of debate (see Casazza et al., 2005; Kruckeberg & Rabinowitz, 1985; Kunin & Gaston, 1993; Lavergne et al., 2004; Stebbins, 1942; Watson, 1833). Clearly many other evolutionary and ecological factors influence species range distributions, including genetic diversity, phenotypic plasticity, reproduction strategies, and metapopulation dynamics (*reviewed in* Brown et al., 1996; Gaston, 1996; Lowry & Lester, 2006). Still, the role of the growth environment is undeniable and links a species' distribution to its physiological performance. Using a physiological approach to understand the complex relationships between climate and the distribution of species can be preferable to simple climate envelope models because the former is capable of predicting species distributions under a variety of possible environmental conditions (Hijmans & Graham, 2006; Malanson et al., 1992; Prentice et al., 1992), including novel conditions that are likely to occur with rapid climate change.

Physiological processes such as photosynthesis, respiration and growth all respond strongly to local environmental conditions. Together these processes constrain plant carbon balance and thus contribute to a species distribution range (part of the physiological filter of Lambers & Oliveira, 2019). Here, we concentrate on leaf respiration. This flux is less well studied than photosynthesis, provides a crucial link between photosynthesis (carbon gain) and growth (carbon

sequestration) and has been hypothesized to control the range distribution of individual species

(Criddle et al., 2003). Furthermore, respiration is highly temperature sensitive, making it an

important determinant of ecosystem productivity (Valentini et al., 2000). *GlobResp* (Atkin et al.,

2015*)*, a global database of plant respiratory characteristics, identifies latitudinal gradients in leaf

respiration measured at a common temperature and these respiration gradients increase with

absolute latitude. These findings suggest that species with a large range should exhibit variable

rates of respiration across their distribution, although this hypothesis has not been explicitly

tested (Atkin et al., 2015). Patterson et al. (2018) quantified respiratory rates and responses to

temperature in 16 tree species growing in a common temperate location, grouping them by their

relative location within their individual species distributions. The results show that northern

ranged species growing near their southern range limit had 71% higher respiration rates

(measured at 20 °C) than southern ranged species growing near the northern edge of their range

limits. Quantifying respiratory characteristics of individuals growing near the margins of their

species range distributions can elucidate physiological controls of the current distribution.

Recently, we reported that white spruce (*Picea glauca* (Moench) Voss) growing at the arctic

treeline (which marks the transition between the boreal forest and treeless tundra occurring in the

Forest Tundra Ecotone (FTE)) exhibit high respiratory costs (Griffin et al., 2021). As one of the

hardiest coniferous species, white spruce has a suite of structural and functional traits that are

adapted to cold temperatures and short growing seasons (Sutton, 1969) . With a transcontinental

range in North America from the west coast of Alaska to the east coast of Canada and New

England (US Geological Survey, 1999) (Figure 1), white spruce is one of the most common tree

species defining the FTE. Perhaps surprising given this large geographical range, several studies

show that white spruce has limited physiological plasticity (Benomar et al., 2018; Man &

Lieffers, 1997; McNown & Sullivan, 2013; Prud'Homme et al., 2018; Stinziano & Way, 2017;

Weger & Guy, 1991). However, McNown & Sullivan (2013), working across a gradient that

included terrace, forest and treeline sites, demonstrated that the physiological capacity of white

spruce can vary due to other site factors such as soil properties and nutrition, even when climatic

variables like temperature are constant. Furthermore, ambient environmental conditions at the

southern edge of its range distribution can be markedly different from those at northern edge,

implying that white spruce can be successful under vastly different environmental extremes. To

our knowledge no studies have compared the respiratory characteristics of this species at the

opposite ends of its distribution where climate and light conditions differ dramatically.

Canopy position can also significantly influence leaf respiration (Griffin et al., 2001, 2002;

Tissue et al., 2002; Whitehead et al., 2004; Xu and Griffin 2006; Weerasinghe et al., 2014; Araki

et al., 2017). Generally, the top of the canopy is the most physiologically active portion of a tree

crown and this has been shown to affect both average respiration rates and the response of

respiration to temperature (Griffin et al., 2001, 2002; Araki et al., 2017). In addition, substantial

environmental gradients can exist from the top to the bottom of a tree canopy and these should

also have predictable effects on foliar respiration. The strength of these canopy environmental

gradients is affected by physical factors influencing the available light energy, such as leaf area

density and distributions, tree density, local topography, and solar geometry (Walcroft et al.,

2005). Light acclimation has been shown to affect respiration rates in white spruce dramatically,

with higher rates of respiration in higher light environments (Awada & Redmann, 2000). These

indirect environmental effects on leaf respiration may be particularly important at the extremes

of white spruce distribution, given that there are intra-canopy gradients in light absorption in the

dense canopy at the southern limit of the range that do not exist at the more open northern limit

(Schmiege et al., *pers com*). Considering the vast potential physical, environmental and

morphological differences across the white spruce range, it is important to consider the possible

effects of canopy position on foliar respiration and its response to temperature.

The goal of this research was to gain a better understanding of how respiration varies between

the two extremes of the white spruce species range and with canopy position at each of those

extremes. Using our recent, detailed assessment of white spruce respiratory physiology at the

Alaskan FTE (Griffin et al., 2021), we implement identical techniques to compare this to the

physiological function of spruce growing more than 5000 km away at the opposite end of the

species distribution. We test four research hypotheses. First, that leaf respiration measured at 25

°C (R_{25}) will increase with latitude (Atkin et al., 2015). We extend this to examine the overall

temperature response of respiration at the two range limits. Second, while our previous study did

not find canopy position differences in respiration at the northern FTE site (Griffin et al., 2021),

we hypothesize that at our southern site, upper canopy leaves will have higher respiration rates

and be less responsive to temperature than lower canopy leaves. Third, we hypothesize that

southern but not northern white spruce respiration will be similar to the average for the Needle-

leaved Evergreen (NLEv) plant functional type (PFT) to which they belong. To quantify white

spruce respiratory temperature response and make these comparisons, we use two models, the

global polynomial model of Heskel et al. (2016) and the thermodynamic model of Liang et al.

(2017). Fourth, we hypothesize that trees from the southern edge of the species range will have a

higher temperature tolerance than trees from the northern edge of the distribution. To test this,

we quantify T_{max}, the leaf temperature at which the maximum rate of respiration is reached, from

the respiratory temperature response curves. Finally, we examine the general relationships

between respiratory traits and leaf traits, and test the prediction that leaf nitrogen will be a strong

predictor of respiration. The two specific locations of this study are Black Rock Forest, located

in the Hudson highlands of New York, and the FTE in north central Alaska, USA (referred to as

the "southern location" and "northern location" respectively, Figure 1). Our southern site is at the

same location as the species range study described above (Patterson et al., 2018) and represents

an extreme southerly location for white spruce. By quantifying these variables at the extremes of

the species distribution, we characterize the mechanistic contribution of respiration to the current

and potential future distribution of white spruce.

Materials and Methods

Site Descriptions and Leaf Material: This research was conducted at two sites representing the

opposite ends of the species range, Black Rock Forest (BRF), New York, USA (41°24' 03.91" N

latitude, 74°01'28.49" W longitude – southern location) and the Forest Tundra Ecotone (FTE),

AK USA (67°59' 40.92" N latitude, 149°45'15.84" W longitude – northern location). The sites

are more fully described elsewhere (Eitel et al., 2019, Patterson et al., 2018). The average annual

precipitation and temperature of these two sites are 1285 mm and 10.9 °C at the southern

location (Arguez et al., 2010) and 485.4 mm and -8.12 °C at the northern location (Eitel et al.,

2019). The northern location is spruce dominated evergreen forest (Eitel et al., 2019), while the

southern location is a northern temperate deciduous forest that is oak dominated (Patterson et al.,

2018; Schuster et al., 2008). The southern location is to the south of the natural species range

distribution presented by Little (2004). White spruce was probably introduced into BRF as

nursery stock for forestry trials in the early 1930's but has since expanded naturally. The trees

used for this study were naturally seeded on the forest edge along Continental Road, a dirt trail

established during the Revolutionary War to facilitate troop travel between West Point and the

encampment of the Continental army in New Windsor. While the trail represents a break in the

forest canopy it gets limited use and has only a minor impact on the canopy-dominant study trees

located at least 15 m from the road. Photographs of trees from the two sampling locations are

shown in Figure S1.

Leaves used for the respiration measurements from the southern site were collected in late June

and early July of 2018. Samples were taken from south facing branches of six study trees, and

were selected from both upper (1 m below the apical meristem) and lower (1.37 m from the

ground) canopy positions. As in our FTE study (Griffin et al., 2021), the terminal portions of

several branches were cut with sharp pruners and the removed portion of the stem was

immediately wrapped with wet paper towels, sealed in a plastic bag with ample air and placed in

cooler where they could be kept dark and transported to the lab. The top of the canopy was

accessed with an articulating boom lift. Once returned to the lab, the stem pieces were recut

underwater and then placed in a beaker containing enough water to submerge the cut end until

analyzed, typically within 8 (but no more than 24) hours. Leaves from the northern site were a

subset of data used by Griffin et al., (2021) and thus are described fully in that study. The

motivation of Griffin et al., (2021) was to assess the effect of tree size (saplings vs. trees) and

test current hypotheses about the location of treeline. For the current study, we focus on fully

developed trees growing at the northern and southern range extremes. Thus, the Griffin et al.

(2021) dataset was trimmed to exclude all saplings (stems < 10cm DBH), leaving 18 individual

trees ($\geq$ 10 cm DBH) and re-analyzed for the present study to complement new data presented

from the southern site. No part of the analysis presented here was included in the earlier

publication.

Respiration Temperature Response Curves: The techniques employed here were identical to

those used in our treeline study in order to facilitate direct comparison and methods are described

more fully in Griffin et al. (2021). Briefly, CO_2 exchange rates were measured on needles that

were carefully removed from the stems, weighed to determine the initial fresh mass (g),

photographed to determine projected surface area and placed in a fine nylon mesh bag. The mesh

bag containing the leaves was placed inside a custom-made cuvette (Patterson et al. 2018, Li et

al. 2019, Schmiege et al. 2021) with computer controlled thermoelectrical cooling (CP-121

Thermoelectric Peltier Cooling Unit, TE Technology, Traverse City, MI USA). The custom

cuvette was interfaced with a portable photosynthesis system (Li-6400XT, LiCor Lincoln,

Nebraska USA) which recorded all gas exchange and environmental parameters every 20

seconds.

After equilibrating the system to 5°C, the mesh bag holding the leaves was sealed inside. Once

stability was reached the instrument was zeroed and the response curve was measured as

described in Heskel et al. (2016), O'Sullivan et al. (2013), and Schmiege et al. (2021). During

measurements the flow rate through the cuvette was set to 500 ml min^{-1} and the CO_2

concentration to 400 ppm. The air was dried using a Li-6400XT desiccant column and then

transpiration was allowed to humidify the cuvette. During the measurement the cuvette

temperature was ramped up from 5 to 65 °C at a constant rate of 1 °C min^{-1}.

Leaf Traits: Leaves were photographed with a known scale and *ImageJ* software was used to

determine their projected area (Schneider et al., 2012). The leaves were then dried at 65°C for a

minimum of 48 hours and again weighed to determine leaf dry mass (g). Specific leaf area (SLA

cm^2 g^{-1}) was calculated and used to determine mass-based respiratory fluxes from the area-based

fluxes. Leaf water content (%) and leaf dry matter content (LDMC -mg dry mass g^{-1} fresh mass)

were calculated from the fresh and dry masses (Vaieretti et al., 2007). Leaf carbon, nitrogen and

the stable isotope ratios of these elements were determined on Thermo Scientific Delta V+

IsoLink IRMS System (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, MA, USA) at the Stable Isotope

Lab of Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory (Palisades, NY).

Data Analyses: The respiration temperature response curves were analyzed as in Heskel et al.

(2016) by fitting a second-order polynomial model to the log transformed respiration rates

between 10 and 45 °C.

$$LnR = a + bT + cT^2 \qquad \text{(Eqn 1)}$$

Where *a* represents the basal respiration rate (y-intercept), while *b* and *c* describe the slope and

curvature of the response (Heskel et al. 2016). The respiration rate at a common temperature of

25 °C (R_{25}) was also calculated and the temperature where the maximum respiration rate was

reached (T_{max}) was recorded. The modeled temperature response was also used to quantify the

possible effect of warming on respiration rates (in the absence of thermal acclimation – *see*

justification below), based on the current growing season average temperatures for the two sites

and projections for end of the century warming (US Federal Government, 2021).

In addition, the thermodynamic underpinnings of the respiratory temperature response were

explored using the model developed by Liang et al., (2017) based on macromolecular rate theory

(MMRT). This model, which itself is based on transition state theory (TST) for enzyme-

catalyzed kinetics, not only provides a thermodynamic explanation for the observed temperature

response of R, but has also been extensively cross checked with the global database used by

Heskel et al., (2016) to develop the simple log polynomial model above (Eqn 1). The model

provides the following equivlencies to the coefficients in Eqn 1:

$$a = ln\left(\frac{k_B T_0}{h}\right) - \left(\frac{\Delta G_{T_0}}{RT_0}\right) \hspace{3cm} \text{(Eqn 2)}$$

$$b = \frac{1}{T_0} + \frac{\Delta H_{T_0}}{RT_0^2} \hspace{3cm} \text{(Eqn 3)}$$

$$c = \frac{\Delta C_p}{2RT_0^2} \hspace{3cm} \text{(Eqn 4)}$$

Where k_B = the Boltzman constant, h = Plank's constant, R = ideal gas constant, T_0 = reference

temperature. ΔG_{T_0} = Gibbs free energy between the ground state and transition state at the

reference temperature and thus accounts for changes in both the change in bond energies

(ΔH_{T_0}) and the temperature dependent change in entropy ($T\Delta S$). ΔC_p representes the change in

heat capacity during the reaction.

Respiration vs. temperature curves were fit to the polynomial model of Heskel et al., (2016)

using R v. 3.6.3 (R Core Team, 2020). Due to the unequal sample size (n BRF = 6; n FTE = 18),

a one-way ANOVA was used to test our first hypothesis regarding respiration across the species

range. To test our second hypothesis regarding the main effects of canopy position on respiration

within each of the two sites, paired t-tests were used to compare each of the model parameters *a*,

b and *c* (see Eqn 1), and model predictions of R_{25}. All traits were transformed as necessary to

fulfil assumptions of normality. To test our third hypothesis, we compared our model estimates

with those of Heskel et al. (2016) by means of an independent sample t-test based on the mean,

confidence intervals and sample size for the NLEv PFT (as reported in their Table 1). Our fourth

hypothesis regarding the $\underline{T}_{max}$ of respiration was tested similarly to hypotheses 1 and 2 described

above. Finally, regression equations were used to assess the general relationships between leaf

traits and leaf respiration and, in particular, the ability of leaf N (per unit leaf area) to predict the

rate of respiration (Atkin et al., 2015). All data analysis other than the initial R/T curve fitting

was done in Excel (version 16.51 for Mac, Microsoft, Redmond, Washington, U.S.A.) with both

the Solver and *RealStatistics* (Release 7.6, Zaiontz 2021) add-ins.

Results

Tree and leaf traits: The average tree in this study was 18.3±1.0 cm in DBH (1.37 m from the

ground) and 9.5 ±0.46 m tall (Table 1). Trees from the southern location tended to be larger in

diameter (23.1±2.0 vs. 16.6±0.7 cm), but similar in height (9.9 ±0.73 vs. 9.36±0.41 m) compared

to the northern location trees. The leaf dry matter content (LDMC) and leaf water content (LWC)

did not differ by canopy position at either location, but LDMC was 32% lower and LWC was

37% higher at the southern location compared to the northern location (Table 1). The specific

leaf area (SLA) of the upper canopy leaves was 23% lower than that of the lower canopy leaves

at the southern location (Table 1). Leaf C did not vary between the two sites, but leaf N

concentration ([N]) was 36% lower at the northern compared to the southern location and thus

the C/N ratio was 56% higher at the FTE (Table 2). Canopy position did not affect either the leaf

C or C/N ratio at either site (Table 2). The lower canopy leaves of the southern location had the

most negative $\delta^{13}C$ and were significantly different than the upper canopy leaves at this same

site. As a result, leaves from the southern location had significantly more negative $\delta^{13}C$ values

than leaves from the northern site (Table 2). Leaf $\delta^{15}N$ also differed significantly between the

two locations with the northern location being the more negative of the two (Table 2). On a leaf

area basis, leaf nitrogen was 70% higher at the northern location than the southern location

(Table 2). Canopy position did not affect leaf nitrogen per unit area at either location.

Respiration temperature response curves: In all trees, respiration increased exponentially

between 5 and 45 °C, then slowed briefly before increasing rapidly to a maximum rate (R_{max})

defining the T_{max} (Figure 2a). Measured respiration rates between 10 and 45 °C were used to

model the ecologically relevant response (Figure 2b). The global polynomial model of Heskel et

al. (2016) fit all log normal respiration temperature curves with an $r^2 \geq 0.99$ (Figure 3). Overall,

the three model coefficients averaged -1.82±0.12, 0.090±0.003 and -0.00030±0.0001 (*a*, *b* and *c*

respectively, mean ± SEM, Table 2). At the southern location, leaves from the top of the canopy

had a 24% lower intercept (coefficient *a*) than leaves from the bottom of the canopy (p=0.04,

Table 3). Canopy position did not affect the model coefficients at the northern location. The

temperature response of white spruce growing at the southern location was quite similar to the

average model coefficients for the plant functional type to which this species belongs, needle-

leaved evergreen (NLEv, Heskel et al. 2016), and only the curvature (*c*) of the southern location

upper canopy leaves was statistically different from the average NLEv response (Figure 3).

However, the southern location measurements from both canopy positions were significantly

different when compared to their counterparts from the northern location (Figure 3). These

differences include lower intercepts for both the BRF canopy positions, as well slight differences

in both the slope and curvature of the upper canopy leaves. The response of respiration to

temperature at the northern site was significantly different from the NLEv PFT response (higher

a). The Gibbs free energy released during the transition from the ground state to the transition

state of the respiratory process was 4% higher from leaves at the southern location compared to

the northern location (Table 4).

Respiration at a common temperature & at R_{max}: Across all samples at the southern location, the

average rate of respiration at a common temperature of 25 °C was 0.75 ± 0.08 μmol CO_2 m^{-2} leaf

area s^{-1}, which is 68% lower than the average rate at the northern location (2.35 ± 0.88 μmol CO_2

m^{-2} leaf area s^{-1}). The rate differed significantly by canopy position at the southern, but not the

northern location. R_{25} was 48% higher in upper canopy leaves than in lower canopy leaves (0.90

± 0.09 μmol m^{-2} s^{-1} vs. 0.61 ± 0.10 μmol m^{-2} s^{-1}) from the southern location (Figure 4a). Due to

significantly lower SLA of the southern location upper canopy leaves compared to the lower

canopy leaves, there were no significant differences in the mass based R_{25} (Figure 4b). Per gram

of leaf N, the respiration rates at 25 °C did not differ by canopy position at either site, but overall

the northern location had rates that were 87% higher than those of the southern location ($0.34 \pm$

0.019 vs. 0.64 ± 0.034 μmol g N^{-1} s^{-1}, Figure 4c). Leaves from the southern location, at both

canopy positions, continued to respire until leaf temperature reached 58.5 ± 0.5 °C (T_{max}) before

quickly decreasing as the leaves died. This was a slightly higher, but statistically similar

temperature to the T_{max} of northern location trees (57.6 ± 0.36 °C). However, at the southern

location the maximum rate of respiration (R_{max}) of the upper canopy leaves at T_{max} (7.43 ± 0.78

$\mu mol\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$) was 40% higher than the R_{max} of the lower canopy leaves ($5.29 \pm 0.66\ \mu mol\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$

$^{-1}$), and the southern location average R_{max} was 59% lower than the northern location average, a

difference of more than $9.3\ \mu mol\ CO_2\ m^{-2}$ leaf area s^{-1} (Figure 4d). All of the major respiratory

parameters (R_{25}, a and R_{max}) were significantly related to leaf N (mg N m^{-2}). R_{25} at the northern

location was nearly twice the *GlobResp* average and more than double the *GlobResp*

gymnosperm average (Figure 5). There was a significant negative relationship between R_{25} per

unit leaf area and the average growing season temperature across published respiration rates for

this species (Figure 6, Table S1). Estimated *in situ* rates of respiration at the average growing

season (i.e. June, July, August) temperature were significantly higher at the northern location

than at the southern location (indicated as solid vertical arrows on Figure 7), as are the estimated

rates for the projected end of century temperatures (indicated by dotted vertical arrows on Figure

7). These projections do not account for thermal acclimation. Benomar et al. (2018) report that

while basal respiration is linearly related to growing season temperature, the shape of the

temperature response (Q_{10}) does not change across an experimental gradient varying in

temperature.

Discussion

We found dramatic differences in white spruce leaf respiration between trees at the limits of the

species range. Our two locations are separated by more than 5000 km, from New York State at

the south-eastern edge of the distribution, to the Forest Tundra Ecotone in arctic, north-central

Alaska. The differences are large, and likely represent a significant physiological response by

this species to differences in ambient environmental conditions. The rates of respiration at the

northern range limit of the species distribution are nearly twice as high (when measured at a

common reference temperature) as the global average and more than twice as high as the average

gymnosperm according to a global database of leaf respiration rates (*GlobResp*, Atkin et al.,

2015). At the limits of the vast range of this species, many environmental differences exist,

including in day length, air temperature, soil temperature, soil moisture, vapor pressure deficit

(VPD), pollutant exposure and edaphic factors, all of which are moderated differently by the

distinctive forest canopy structures of the sites. Of the above environmental factors, the response

of white spruce foliage to air temperature is of particular interest for three reasons: 1)

temperature is known to have strong effects on the rate of respiration (Heskel et al., 2016); 2)

temperature is increasing rapidly and unevenly across the species range (warming is more rapid

at high latitudes (Cohen et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2017) and; 3) ecosystem models calculate the

temperature response of respiration to scale over both time and space (Atkin et al., 2014; Heskel

et al., 2016; Huntingford et al., 2017a). At the northern and southern range limits of white

spruce, average growing season (June, July, and August) temperatures differ by nearly 6 °C,

from approximately 21 °C at the southern location (US Federal Government, 2021) to slightly

less than 15 °C at the northern location (Harris et al., 2020; Zepner et al., 2021). This 29%

difference in average temperature is associated with a tripling of the respiration rate in white

spruce growing at the FTE relative to the southern site when measured at a common temperature

of 25 °C, and a doubling of the rate at the *in situ* average growing season temperature.

Combining our findings with published rates of leaf respiration in white spruce demonstrates a

significant linear trend between decreasing growing season temperatures and increasing rates of

respiration.

The much higher rates of respiration at the northern range limit of this species support our first

research hypothesis and may help explain not only why white spruce is not found further to the

north, but also why the boreal forest biome transitions to tundra at these high northern latitudes

(Griffin et al., 2021). Plants acclimated to cold temperatures often have higher rates of

respiration measured at a common temperature and a steeper respiratory temperature response

(Atkin & Tjoelker, 2003; Körner, 1989; Reich & Oleksyn, 2004) as a means to maintain

metabolic function in cold environments. A comparison of the mean growing season temperature

and reported rates of leaf respiration across the white spruce range confirms this pattern in the

species. The high respiratory rates, coupled with slow growth rates (Jensen et al., *pers com*) at

the northern range limit suggest that northern trees experience large carbon losses that are likely

related to high maintenance and other metabolic costs. These costs are not incurred at the same

magnitude by white spruce growing at the southern edge of its distribution.

The response of respiration to temperature in trees at either end of the species range provides

additional insights into the regulation of respiration and the root cause of the observed

differences. First, we find differences between the two locations in the measured rates of

respiration at both cold and warm temperatures. This finding is consistent with Type II

acclimation (Atkin & Tjoelker, 2003) and suggests that there are differences in respiratory

capacity, efficiency or perhaps mitochondrial numbers and structure (Atkin & Tjoelker, 2003;

Klikoff, 1966; Kornfeld et al., 2013; Miroslavov & Kravkina, 1991; Patterson et al., 2018).

Second, the measured T_{max} of white spruce needle respiration does not differ significantly

between the two geographic extremes. This indicates that overall thermal tolerance is not plastic

but a fixed species trait in white spruce (Heskel et al., 2014; O'Sullivan et al., 2013, 2017).

Third, we find differences in the temperature response of respiration across the species range,

with northern white spruce also exhibiting a significantly different response to that of the needle

leaved evergreen plant functional type. This suggests that the northern range limit is an

extremely challenging environment for the species, and that the high respiration rates may be

affecting leaf carbon balance and ultimately tree survival (Heskel et al., 2016; Huntingford et al.,

2017b; Patterson et al., 2018). And fourth, despite the indication of a Type II acclimation

response (Atkin & Tjoelker, 2003), the adjustments in respiratory physiology do not result in

homeostasis with regards to maintaining observed rates of respiration at the local temperatures

during the growing season. The lack of homeostasis may reflect the large difference in ambient

temperatures that exist between the northern and southern range limits (Campbell et al., 2007). In

summary, rates of respiration at the northern edge of the species range are high and respond

strongly to temperature, most likely stemming from biochemical and physiological responses to

the extreme environmental conditions of the Arctic.

The polynomial model we used to describe the temperature response of white spruce leaf

respiration (Heskel et al., 2016) resulted in excellent predictions over the physiologically and

ecologically relevant ranges of leaf temperatures and is useful for facilitating the biome and PFT

comparisons above. The model of Liang et al. (2017), is derived from macromolecular rate

theory, and provides a thermodynamic interpretation of these results. Term *a*, which varied by

both location and canopy position, defines the rate of respiration as defined by variables such as

substrate and moisture availability, and is thermodynamically related to the activation energy of

the overall respiratory process (Liang et al., 2017). Our results are consistent with others who

show that activation energy can be considered a temperature dependent feature of an ecosystem

(Davidson & Janssens 2006; Lloyd & Taylor 1994; Liang et al., 2017). Furthermore, the *b*

coefficient, which represents changing enthalpy (ΔH_{To}) for the reaction at the reference

temperature, is unaffected by either location or canopy position, and thus our examination of

white spruce respiratory physiology is consistent with the broad patterns found when comparing

biomes and PFT's (Liang et al., 2017). Finally, we show that the heat capacity of the respiratory

system (ΔC_p) is similarly unaffected by either location or canopy position, and shows a

convergent respiratory response to temperature. Once the differences in the basal rates are

quantified, either model can accurately predict respiration of white spruce, despite the well-

known temperature dependence of the activation energy of the overall reaction (Kruse & Adams

2008; Noguchi et al., 2015; O'Sullivan et al., 2013).

We gained further insights into the response of white spruce to local environmental conditions by

examining leaf traits and the relationships between them and respiratory physiology. Needles

from the northern edge of the species distribution tend to be thicker, or perhaps denser, than

needles from the southern location, likely reflecting large differences in ambient temperatures

(Atkin et al., 2006; Rosbakh et al., 2015). While leaf carbon concentrations were invariant at

45.94 ± 0.19 %, the higher carbon to nitrogen ratio of leaves at the northern range limit again

suggests a relative increase in leaf structure at this site compared to the southern extreme. R_{25} per

gram of leaf material is also statistically invariant at our two sites, further suggesting that the

difference in respiration is not related to increased structure, but rather to the metabolic function

of the leaves. Increasing leaf structure is potentially adaptive in the harsh environmental

conditions at the arctic treeline where, in addition to cold temperatures, leaves must survive high

winds and abrasion, prolonged winters and the possibility of large snow or ice loads while

remaining metabolically active for many years. Overall, the variation in leaf structural

characteristics were consistent with expected relationships with cold temperatures and canopy

gradients (Niinemets et al., 2015).

Leaf nitrogen typically correlates negatively to temperature (Yin, 1993) and latitude (Körner

1989, Reich & Oleksyn 2004), and our findings show that these trends hold at the opposite ends

of the white spruce species range. The low leaf nitrogen concentration at the northern compared

to the southern range limit likely reflects the effects of environment on nitrogen

biogeochemistry, which often results in nitrogen limitation at the northern location. For example,

arctic temperatures, hydrology, permafrost dynamics and bedrock geology can all limit nitrogen

availability (Nadelhoffer et al., 1991; Schimel et al., 2004). Furthermore, ecosystem properties

such as limited nitrogen fixation, slow decomposition rates, rapid nitrogen uptake rates and

microbial competition could further limit nitrogen availability at the northern range limit

(Schimel & Chapin, 1996; Schimel & Bennett, 2004; Yano et al., 2010). While the precise

mechanism or combination of mechanisms limiting nitrogen uptake at the northern location is

unknown, it is interesting that the resulting low leaf nitrogen concentrations are offset by

changes in SLA. The result is higher leaf nitrogen per unit leaf area at the northern range limit

and positive correlations with foliar respiration rates. This relationship conforms to global

observations (Reich et al., 2008) and facilitates the modeling and prediction of respiration (Atkin

et al., 2015). Finally, per gram of nitrogen, leaf respiration is higher at the northern range limit,

indicating higher maintenance costs at this site relative to the southern site.

The nitrogen isotope signature of the northern and southern sites differed significantly, which

may reflect a change in nitrogen source, differences in within-plant fractionation, and/or

mycorrhizae-to-plant fractionation (Pritchard & Guy 2005; Craine et al., 2009, 2015).

Experimentally, when spruce is grown with NO_3^-, the isotopic ratios become more negative than

when grown with either NH_4^+ or NH_4NO_3 (Pritchard & Guy 2005). This, together with a positive

correlation between the foliar nitrogen isotope ratio and tree growth in white spruce (Matsushima

et al., 2012), may help explain the much lower (more negative) $\delta^{15}N$ values at the northern range

limit than at the southern range limit. However, spruce is ectomycorrhizal (Malloch & Malloch

1981), which tends to lower the isotope ratios relative to arbuscular and non-mycorrhizal species

(Craine et al., 2009). Thus, a reduced rate of infection at the southern site could potentially

contribute to the observed differences. Similarly, cold temperatures are associated with lower

$\delta^{15}N$ values (Craine et al., 2009). These factors are not mutually exclusive, nor strictly

predictive, and thus attributing the large differences in observed $\delta^{15}N$ to specific mechanisms is

not possible without significantly more experimentation. Working in the same general location

more than 25 years earlier, Schulze et al. (1994) reports a similar $\delta^{15}N$ in this species (-7.7 ‰ vs.

-7.1 ‰), suggesting the ecological differences in the treeline N cycle are long-lived. Here we

connect these to respiratory activity and demonstrate that leaf nitrogen serves as a strong proxy

for respiration (Atkin et al., 2015) as a result of morphological adjustments that maintain a high

leaf nitrogen per unit leaf area despite limited nitrogen availability.

Finally, a small difference in carbon isotope fractionation was found between our two sites,

suggesting that white spruce at the northern limit of the species range has slightly higher water

use efficiency than trees at the southern limit. The lower canopy leaves at the southern range

limit have the most negative carbon isotope ratios (-29.76 ± 0.24), perhaps reflecting canopy

gradients in both light and VPD. Overall, these patterns in leaf traits outline the general

adaptative strategy in white spruce necessary to survive harsh northern conditions, and implicate

the local environmental conditions as directly and indirectly driving the respiratory physiology

across the species range.

We found support for our second hypothesis, that needles from the top of the tree would have

higher rates of respiration than needles from the bottom of the tree at the southern range limit

where canopy complexity creates resource gradients. The nature of the tree crown and the forest

canopy differs significantly at our two sites. The southern location trees are strongly conical and

compete for above ground resources in a mostly closed canopy surrounded by deciduous

hardwood species. The FTE trees, however, are more cylindrical and arranged in mostly open

canopies composed of individual trees or small groups of trees with only limited competition for

space and aboveground resources such as light. As a result, strong intra-canopy light gradients

exist at the southern location but are much less pronounced at the northern location. Light, VPD,

wind and air temperature microclimates could all be affected by these differences in canopy

structure (Whitehead et al., 2001; Walcroft, et al., 2004), but light is the most plausible driver of

the observed respiratory response (*similar to* Bond et al., 1999 or Niinemets et al., 2015

(photosynthesis)). The upper canopy leaves at the southern location receive full light and as a

result have higher photosynthetic rates than the lower canopy leaves which experience self-

shading and generally lower ambient light conditions (Schmiege et al., *pers com).* Higher

photosynthetic rates and more rapid growth in the upper canopy require higher respiration to

support the ensuing growth and maintenance costs (Bond et al., 1999; Griffin et al., 2001, 2002;

Tissue et al., 2002; Whitehead et al., 2004, Xu and Griffin 2006; Weerasinghe et al., 2014; Araki

et al., 2017). By contrast, the combination of the open canopy, low sun angles and narrow

unbranching crown morphology of white spruce at the northern location has the effect of

homogenizing the light environment, and thus equalizing both photosynthetic capacities (see

Niinemets et al., 2015) and the rates of respiration throughout the canopy. Clearly spruce trees at

either end of the species distribution must dynamically respond and adapt to different

environmental conditions over multiple spatial and temporal scales. However, our findings show

that it is the interplay between the environment and tree form and function that contributes to,

and ultimately determines, the geographic location of the species range. At the southern edge of

its range, white spruce exhibits unique respiratory responses in the upper vs. lower canopy

needles. At the northern limits, the unequal distribution of metabolic activity amongst the

different canopy positions is not observed and presumably not needed.

Climate change has, and will continue, to increase air temperature across the white spruce range

(Tamarin-Brodsky et al., 2020). This may increase rates of respiration and exacerbate increases

in respiratory carbon loss at both the southern and northern range limits of this species. The

short-term temperature response curves presented here can be cautiously used to infer how

respiration might change with continued warming. We note that thermal acclimation of

respiration could directly alter the predicted response (Atkin et al., 2008; Slot & Kitajima, 2015;

Vanderwel et al., 2015), most likely lessening the effect of climate warming. However, the noted

lack of thermal acclimation of respiration in this species implies that the short-term respiration

temperature response may be used to predict the long-term effect of climate warming in white

spruce (Benomar et al., 2016). Using the current growing season temperature and the predicted

rate of temperature increase by the end of the century (U.S. Climate Resilience Toolkit Climate

Explorer), we calculate that white spruce respiration may increase by 67% at the northern range

limit regardless of canopy location and by 53% at the southern range limit, where the upper

canopy needles are likely to increase more than the lower canopy (46 vs. 60% respectively).

These are massive estimated changes in the leaf carbon flux to the atmosphere that, if unmatched

by similar increases in photosynthesis or mediated by thermal acclimation, would have dramatic

effects on leaf carbon balance (Ow et al., 2008a; Ow et al., 2008b). Combining the R_{25} rates with

these projected rates of increase suggests that any increase in respiration is likely to be more

detrimental to the carbon balance of white spruce at the northern relative to the southern range

limit. The ecological effects of these physiological changes on the competitiveness of this

species and the future species range are unknown but clearly the metabolic adjustments needed

to respond to the changing environmental conditions are likely to play a role. We suggest that

these effects are at least as severe, if not significantly more so, at the northern end of the range

limit than they are at the southern edge. This calls into question the suggestions (ACIA 2005;

Zhang et al. 2013; Pearson et al. 2013) that species migrations will shift species ranges

northward, and more specifically, to move arctic treeline north in response to climate change.

Conclusions

The natural distribution of white spruce extends not just across strong environmental gradients,

but also to the very limit of tree growth form. North of its current range limit, not only is white

spruce not found, but neither are trees of any species. The results presented here may help

explain this observation. We clearly show that respiration rates of white spruce at their northern

range limit are not only higher than those from trees growing at the southern range limit, but that

these rates are extreme. Furthermore, we show that canopy position has a strong influence on the

distribution of respiratory activity at the southern but not at the northern range limit, a pattern

that likely reflects differences in metabolic activity driven by light. The model of Heskel et al.

(2016) was successfully fit to our data and demonstrates that the temperature response of

respiration at the southern end of the species distribution is statistically indistinguishable from

the NLEv tree plant functional type used in their global survey. In contrast, the northern range

limit trees have much higher rates of respiration and differ significantly from the NLEv PFT. Our

work supports the conclusion of Griffin et al. (2021), that white spruce needles at the northern

edge of the species range respire at what are likely near the species limits, and that this carbon

cost likely contributes to the location of northern treeline. Using the short-term temperature

response curves to constrain the potential response of respiration to predicted end-of-the-century

warming, we show that respiration will have a significant impact on leaf carbon balance that is

likely to contribute to future range limits of this species. Our findings raise questions regarding

the assertion that species like white spruce will simply shift their range distributions northward in

response to warming and suggest that, without a detailed understanding of the myriad ways

photosynthesis, respiration and growth will respond to changing climatic conditions, range shifts

will be difficult to predict.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or

financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Author Contributions

K.L.G., S.C.S., N.B., L.A.V. and J.U.H.E. designed the research. They were assisted in data

collection by Z.M.G. & S.G.B., S.C.S, Z.M.G. & K.L.G. analyzed the data. K.L.G wrote the first

draft of the manuscript. All authors contributed to the revisions, editing and submission of the

final manuscript.

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Table 1. Top of canopy leaf and bottom of canopy tree and leaf characteristics of *Picea glauca* growing at either the southern edge of the species range limit in Black Rock Forest (BRF), New York, USA, or at the northern edge at the Forest Tundra Ecotone (FTE) in northcentral Alaska, USA. DBH = diameter at breast height (1.37m), SLA = specific leaf area, LDMC = leaf dry matter content (g dry mass g⁻¹ fresh mass), LWC = leaf water content and N = leaf nitrogen %. Lowercase letters following the canopy position means (within a site) and uppercase letters following the location means (across the canopy positions) denote statistically significant differences ($p<0.05$). n = 6-47, all values mean±1 standard error.

	DBH cm	Height m	SLA $cm^2\ g^{-1}$	LDMC $mg\ g^{-1}$	LWC %
BRF	23.1 ± 1.99 **B**	9.9 ± 0.73 **A**	61.34±4.53 **B**	368.93±6.79 **A**	63.1±0.78 **B**
Upper Canopy	-	-	53.19±4.43 **a**	375.99±5.27 **a**	62.4±0.53 **a**
Lower Canopy	-	-	69.50±6.62 **b**	361.87±12.45 **a**	63.8±1.25 **a**
FTE	16.6±0.68 **A**	9.36±0.41 **A**	44.90±1.46 **A**	540.03±3.15 **B**	46.0±0.32 **A**
Upper Canopy	-	-	44.15±3.51 **a**	542.19±4.55 **a**	45.8±0.46 **a**
Lower Canopy	-	-	45.64±1.46 **a**	537.99±4.44 **a**	46.2±0.44 **a**
All Trees	*18.31±1.02*	*9.47±0.46*	*53.12±1.88*	*496.34±11.37*	*50.4±1.14*

Table 2. Top of canopy leaf and bottom of canopy leaf chemistry of *Picea glauca* growing at
either the south-eastern edge of the species range limit in Black Rock Forest (BRF), New York,
USA, or at the northern edge at the Forest Tundra Ecotone (FTE) in northcentral Alaska, USA.
Lowercase letters following the canopy position means (within a site) and uppercase letters
following the location means (across the canopy positions) denote statistically significant
differences (p<0.05). n = 6-47, all values mean±1 standard error.

	C %	N %	C/N	δ^{13}C ‰	δ^{15}N ‰	N g m^{-2}
BRF	45.49 ± 0.36 **A**	1.29 ± 0.07 **B**	36.41 ± 1.84 **B**	-29.11 ± 0.29 **B**	-0.10 ± 0.21 **B**	2.20 ± 0.17 **A**
Upper Canopy	45.63 ± 0.42 **a**	1.28 ± 0.08 **a**	36.26 ± 2.12 **a**	-28.34 ± 0.38 **a**	0.13 ± 0.25 **a**	2.47 ± 0.21 **a**
Lower Canopy	45.34 ± 0.63 **a**	1.29 ± 0.11 **a**	36.57 ± 3.23 **a**	-29.76 ± 0.24 **b**	-0.34 ± 0.33 **a**	1.93 ± 0.25 **a**
FTE	46.09 ± 0.22 **A**	0.82 ± 0.02 **A**	56.96 ± 1.24 **A**	-28.51 ± 0.14 **A**	-7.08 ± 0.28 **A**	3.78 ± 0.10 **B**
Upper Canopy	46.07 ± 0.32 **a**	0.82 ± 0.02 **a**	57.07 ± 1.79 **a**	-28.43 ± 0.20 **a**	-7.12 ± 0.43 **a**	3.81 ± 0.13 **a**
Lower Canopy	46.11 ± 0.31 **a**	0.82 ± 0.03 **a**	56.85 ± 1.76 **a**	-28.59 ± 0.21 **a**	-7.03 ± 0.38 **a**	3.76 ± 0.16 **a**
All Trees	*45.94 ± 0.19*	*0.94 ± 0.04*	*51.82 ± 1.65*	*-28.66 ± 0.13*	*-5.33 ± 0.49*	*3.38 ± 0.13*

Table 3. Polynomial model parameters (Heskel et al., 2016) fit to the measured high-resolution leaf respiration temperature response curves collected from either the top of canopy leaves or bottom of canopy leaves of *Picea glauca* trees growing at either the southern edge of the species range limit in Black Rock Forest (BRF), New York, USA, or the northern edge of the species range limit in the Forest Tundra Ecotone (FTE) in northcentral Alaska, USA. Lowercase letters following the canopy position means and uppercase letters following the location means denote statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$). n = 6-47, all values mean±1 standard error.

	a	*b*	*c*
BRF	-2.48±0.56 **B**	0.094±0.009 **A**	-0.00034±0.0001 **A**
Upper Canopy	-2.166±0.105 **a**	0.084±0.006 **a**	-0.00014±0.0001 **a**
Lower Canopy	-2.829±0.371 **b**	0.104±0.017 **a**	-0.00053±0.0003 **a**
FTE	-1.15±0.09 **A**	0.086±0.003 **A**	-0.00027±0.0001 **A**
Upper Canopy	-1.20±0.29 **a**	0.087±0.004 **a**	-0.00028±0.0001 **a**
Lower Canopy	-1.10±0.27 **a**	0.084±0.005 **a**	-0.00026±0.0003 **a**
All Trees	*1.82±0.12*	*0.090±0.003*	*-0.00030±0.0001*

Table 4. Macromolecular rate theory (MMRT) model parameters (Liang et al 2017) calculated from the measured high-resolution leaf respiration temperature response curves collected from either the top of canopy leaves or bottom of canopy leaves of *Picea glauca* trees growing at either the southern edge of the species range limit in Black Rock Forest (BRF), New York, USA, or the northern edge of the species range limit in the Forest Tundra Ecotone (FTE) in northcentral Alaska, USA. ΔG_T = the difference in Gibbs free energy between the ground state and transition state, ΔH_T = the change in enthalpy and ΔC_P = change in heat capacity. Lowercase letters following the canopy position means and uppercase letters following the location means denote statistically significant differences (p<0.05). n = 6 - 47, all values mean±1 standard error.

	ΔG_T kJ mol^{-1}	ΔH_T kJ mol^{-1}	ΔC_P kJ mol^{-1} K^{-1}
BRF	0.79 ± 0.005 **B**	67.04 ± 6.824 **A**	-0.50 ± 0.228 **A**
Upper Canopy	0.78 ± 0.003 **a**	59.39 ± 4.163 **a**	-0.21 ± 0.141 **a**
Lower Canopy	0.80 ± 0.009 **a**	74.69 ± 12.812 **a**	-0.79 ± 0.419 **a**
FTE	0.76 ± 0.002 **A**	60.84 ± 2.11 **A**	-0.40 ± 0.066 **A**
Upper Canopy	0.76± 0.003 **a**	62.12 ± 2.611 **a**	-0.44 ± 0.080 **a**
Lower Canopy	0.76± 0.003 **a**	59.62 ± 3.330 **a**	-0.37 ± 0.106 **a**
All Trees	*0.77 ± 0.003*	*62.42 ± 2.336*	*-0.43 ± 0.075*

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953 **Figure 1.** Species range distribution for *Picea glauca.* The southern range limit site, Black Rock
954 Forest, Cornwall NY, is marked with the red star. The arctic treeline site in northern Alaska is
955 marked with a yellow star. Map from U.S. Geological Survey, Department of the Interior/USGS
956 based on original data from Little (2004).
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Figure 2. Leaf respiration as a function of temperature in *Picea glauca* measured at the southern
end of the species distribution in Black Rock Forest, New York, USA. Panel A (top) is an
example high-resolution temperature response curve measured from 5 to 65 °C. Air temperature
was heated at a rate of 1 °C min^{-1} while the rate of CO_2 release and other gas-exchange
parameters were recorded every 20 seconds. Panel B (bottom) is the log of measured respiration
rate and model fit ($lnR = a + bT + cT^2$ – see text for full description) between 10 and 45 °C for
the same sample.

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Figure 3. Average model results (log of leaf respiration) for the bottom of canopy (dark green
and blue lines) and top of the canopy (light green and blue lines), of *Picea glauca* trees growing
at either the southern edge of the species range (green lines) in Black Rock Forest (BRF), New
York, USA, or the northern edge of the species range limit (blue lines) in the Forest Tundra
Ecotone (FTE) in northcentral Alaska, USA. Line presents the mean response (n=6 (BRF) or 18
(FTE). Also shown is the average response for Needle-Leaved Evergreen species (NLEv) from
the global survey of Heskel et al (2016) (black dotted line). Model parameters are presented in
Table 2.
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Figure 4. Respiration of white spruce (_Picea glauca_) foliage measured from the upper (light
green) or lower (dark green) canopy in the southern location (Black Rock Forest (BRF), New
York, USA), and the upper (light blue) or lower (dark blue) canopy from the northern location
(Forest Tundra Ecotone (FTE), Alaska, USA). Respiration was measured at a leaf temperature of
25 °C on a projected leaf area basis (panel a), leaf mass basis (panel b), leaf nitrogen basis (panel
c), as well as the maximum rate of respiration from a temperature response curve, expressed on a
leaf area basis (panel d). The middle line of the box represents the median, the x represents the
mean. The box is drawn between the second and third quartiles and the whiskers extend to the
first and fourth quartiles. * = statistical significance (p<0.05). _ns_ = not significant. n = 6 (BRF),
18 (FTE)

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Figure 5. Comparison of leaf respiration of white spruce (*Picea glauca*) foliage measured at the
Forest Tundra Ecotone (FTE, Alaska, USA – blue) with all measurements from the *GlobResp*
database (Atkin et al., 2015 - yellow) and the gymnosperm measurements from the same
database (brown). All respiration rates were measured at a leaf temperature of 25 °C and are
expressed on a projected leaf area basis. The middle line of each box represents the median; the x
represents the mean. The box is drawn between the second and third quartiles and the whiskers
extend to first and fourth quartiles. N = 1114 (*GlobResp*), 57 (*GlobResp* Gymno), 18 (FTE).
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999   Figure 6. Summary of the relationship between published White Spruce (*Picea glauca*) R_{25} (leaf
1000   respiration measured at 25 °C), and the average growing season temperature of the study
1001   locations. $p = 0.00001$. Data sources can be found in the supplemental information.

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Figure 7. Modeled rates of white spruce (*Picea glauca*) foliage respiration vs. leaf temperature
from two canopy positions at either the northern or southern range limits of the species. Lines
display the average modeled response from the upper (light green) or lower (dark green) canopy
from the southern location (Black Rock Forest (BRF), New York, USA, n= 6), and the upper
(light blue) or lower (dark blue) canopy from the northern location (Forest Tundra Ecotone
(FTE), Alaska, USA, n = 18). Vertical arrows represent the average June, July, August
temperatures from each of the field sites (solid blue = FTE, solid green = BRF) and the projected
end of century increases (dashed blue = FTE projection, dashed green = BRF projections, see
text for more information).
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Supplementary information
Table S1. Data used to summarize of the relationship between white spruce (*Picea glauca*) R_{25}
(leaf respiration measured at 25 °C), and the average growing season temperature of the study
locations. Entries from the *GlobResp* database are cited as Atkin et al., 2015 and the original data
source can be found there. Where respiration was reported at a temperature other than 25 °C, the
given Q_{10} relationships were used to determine R_{25}. Growing season temperature for the three
study sites of McNown & Sullivan (2013), were taken from Sullivan et al. (2021).
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Site	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°W)	JJA temp (°C)	R_{25} (µmol m^{-2} s^{-1})	citation
BRF, NY	41.40	74.07	21.2	0.75	*this study*
Ste-Rose de Watford	46.30	70.40	15.6	2.10	Benomar et al. 2015
Squatec	47.84	68.52	13.9	2.60	Benomar et al. 2015
DeRobidouxville	48.62	71.73	13.0	2.40	Benomar et al. 2015
Lac Bergeron	49.65	72.41	13.8	3.31	Benomar et al. 2018
Rousseau	49.15	79.20	14.9	3.37	Benomar et al. 2018
Deville	48.62	65.72	12.4	3.31	Benomar et al. 2018
Asselin	47.84	68.52	14.0	2.88	Benomar et al. 2018
Picard	47.34	73.57	14.4	3.72	Benomar et al. 2018
Dorion	46.30	70.40	13.9	2.32	Benomar et al. 2018
Watford	46.05	76.26	16.6	2.97	Benomar et al. 2018
Wendover	45.98	72.52	15.9	2.34	Benomar et al. 2018
Terrace, AK	67.47	162.22	14.3	2.28	McNown & Sullivan 2013
Forest, AK	67.47	162.22	14.3	2.25	McNown & Sullivan 2013
Treeline, AK	67.47	162.22	14.3	3.62	McNown & Sullivan 2013
Reichetal Wisconsin	42.50	90.00	20.7	1.14	Atkin 2015
Minnesota	46.17	92.87	17.7	0.93	Lusk & Reich
CloquetFC	46.71	92.53	17.7	0.81	Reich et al 2016
B4W-HWRC-OC	47.94	96.33	17.3	0.75	Atkin 2015
FTE, AK	67.98	149.75	14.8	2.35	*this study*

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1022 *Note while several other publications report respiration rates for Picea glauca leaves, they do*
1023 *not provide all of the information needed for this analysis.*
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1052 Figure S1. Photos of the tree canopies showing the open nature of the northern treeline site (top)
1053 vs. the more closed canopy of the southern site (bottom). Note the southern site photo was taken
1054 in Spring, and thus the surrounding deciduous canopy is not present.
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Figure S2. Relationships between leaf nitrogen and respiration of white spruce (*Picea glauca*)
foliage. Panel (a) is the relationship between respiration measured at a leaf temperature of 25 °C
and expressed on a projected leaf area basis and leaf nitrogen per m^{-2}. Panel (b) is the *a*
coefficient of the polynomial model (Heskel et al., 2016) fit to the measured high-resolution leaf
respiration temperature response curves vs. leaf nitrogen per m^{-2}. Panel (c) is the maximum rate
of respiration from a temperature response curve, expressed on a leaf area basis. All regressions
are statistical significance (p<0.05), n = 24.
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