

Author responses to referee comments

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Manuscript title: Water availability limits tree productivity, carbon stocks, and carbon residence time in mature forests across the western United States

Authors: Logan T. Berner, Beverly E. Law, and Tara W. Hudiburg

Anonymous Referee #1

General Comments:

This is a very interesting paper that uses forest inventory and satellite data to evaluate the influence of mean annual moisture balance on forest productivity and biomass across the western US with a particular focus on California, Oregon, and Washington. While it is no surprise that productivity and biomass in this region are affected by water availability, this paper provides the most thorough quantification of this influence to date and represents a fantastic use of US Forest Service survey data. This thorough quantification leads to the conclusion that water balance has not just an important influence on forest carbon in the western US, but that it is instead THE dominant driver in this region, with a strong and reliable effect on both biomass and productivity, which translates to a strong and reliable effect on carbon residence time. This information has clear implications for future forest carbon dynamics in a warmer world with altered precipitation regimes, which is importance since dynamic vegetation models are still in need of substantial improvement before their representations of future shifts in forest demographics across regions as large and complex as the western US are taken seriously. I recommend publication after some minor points below are addressed.

RESPONSE: Thank you for your feedback on our manuscript. Your comments were very helpful in preparing a revised version of our manuscript. We made the minor revisions that you suggested, as detailed below.

Specific Comments:

L79: The Singh et al. study is a great one but the focus is not on the impact of recent warm temperatures on west coast drought, but rather on an observed increase in the frequency of east-west dipole years when the western US is anomalously warm and the eastern US is anomalously cool. There have been many papers that more compellingly evaluate the role of temperature in exacerbating recent drought conditions on the west coast, particularly CA, than either of the references provided here:

AghaKouchak, A., L. Cheng, O. Mazdinyasni, A. Farahmand (2014), Global warming and changes in risk of concurrent climate extremes: Insights from the 2014 California drought, *Geophysical Research Letters*, 41(24), 8847-8852, doi:10.1002/2014GL062308.

Griffin, D., K. J. Anchukaitis (2014), How unusual is the 2012–2014 California drought? *Geophysical Research Letters*, 41(24), 9017-9023, doi:10.1002/2014GL062433.

Mao, Y., B. Nijssen, D. P. Lettenmaier (2015), Is climate change implicated in the 2013- 2014 California drought? A hydrologic perspective, *Geophysical Research Letters*, 42(8), 2805-2813, doi:10.1002/2015GL063456.

Mote, P. W., D. E. Rupp, S. Li, D. J. Sharp, F. Otto, P. F. Uhe, M. Xiao, D. P. Lettenmaier, H. Cullen, M. R. Allen (2016), Perspectives on the causes of exceptionally low 2015 snowpack in the western United States, *Geophysical Research Letters*, 10.1002/2016GL069965, In press, doi:10.1002/2016GL069965.

Shukla, S., M. Safeeq, A. AghaKouchak, K. Guan, C. Funk (2015), Temperature impacts on the water year 2014 drought in California, *Geophysical Research Letters*, 42(11), 4384-4393, doi:10.1002/2015GL063666.

Williams, A. P., R. Seager, J. T. Abatzoglou, B. I. Cook, J. E. Smerdon, E. R. Cook (2015), Contribution of anthropogenic warming to California drought during 2012-2014, *Geophysical Research Letters*, 42(16), 6819-6828, doi:10.1002/2015GL064924.

RESPONSE: Thank you for guiding us towards several more appropriate references. We removed the citation to Singh et al. (2016) found several of the suggested citations to be more appropriate (e.g., Mote et al. 2016; AghaKouchak et al. 2014).

L132-136: The allometric equations and LAI-vs-root relationship should be cited, particularly for the diverse (non-forestry) readership of this journal.

RESPONSE: We added the appropriate citations for the allometric equations (Means et al. 1994; Law et al. 2001) and equation for estimating root biomass from leaf area index (Van Tuyl et al. 2005).

L140: I don't think it's necessary to specify that stands of >100 years of age are considered here since it was already stated that only stands of this age group were considered in the analysis.

RESPONSE: Suggestion adopted.

L177-194: The circularity involved in using the MODIS NPP product, which incorporates climate data, to evaluate the relationship between NPP and climate needs to be acknowledged.

RESPONSE: We agree that the circularity should be acknowledged and added the following sentence to the methods (section 2.1.2):

We acknowledge a degree of circularity in relating NPP_{sat} to CMI given that both computations incorporate temperature data, specifically, temperature-effects on VPD.

L341-344: Is this artifact due to saturation of satellite-derived NDVI/LAI in densely vegetated areas? It seems like the likely reason for the false plateauing in the satellite obs could be stated.

RESPONSE: It is possible that the apparent saturation of MODIS NPP in the wettest areas was related to MODIS becoming less sensitive to variation in FPAR in densely vegetated areas. We modified part of the text to read (starting on line 337):

The $NPP-CMI_{wy}$ relationship was similar when NPP was assessed using field measurements from across WAORCA or using MODIS covering the western US. MODIS did show NPP leveling off in the wettest parts of WAORCA ($CMI_{wy} \approx 100-200$ $cm\ yr^{-1}$), whereas this was less evident in the field measurements. The inventory sites and MODIS forestland occurred at similar elevations along the CMI_{wy} gradient in WAORCA, suggesting that this discrepancy in NPP was not due to MODIS systematically including cold, high-elevation areas not sampled by the inventory sites. One possibility is that MODIS NPP did not increase in the wettest areas because MODIS becomes less sensitive to increases in the fraction of photosynthetically-active radiation (FPAR) absorbed by plant canopies in densely vegetated areas (Yan et al., 2016)....

L459-460: The projected soil moisture trends in Dai (2013) are for just 0-10 cm. For model projections of the more important 1-2 m layer, Cook et al. (2015) is a good reference, at least for CA and the Southwest. Cook, B. I., T. R. Ault, J. E. Smerdon (2015), Unprecedented 21st century drought risk in the American Southwest and Central Plains, Science Advances, 1(1), e1400082, doi:10.1126/sciadv.1400082.

RESPONSE: Thank you for the suggestion. We incorporated this reference into our discussion.

L469-472: But isn't it under hotter/drier conditions where, all else held equal, vegetation stands to benefit the most from increased CO₂. The argument that recent drought-driven declines in productivity in the Southwest is evidence for a lack of a CO₂ effect is an incomplete argument, as it could be counter-argued that the recent drought period has been particularly intense and that the consequences would have been more severe without CO₂ fertilization. There is still much that is unknown about CO₂ fertilization, the forests that will benefit from it, and how these benefits will manifest, but just as it is unwise to argue that CO₂ fertilization will definitely allow semi-arid forests to become more productive in a warmer world, it is also unwise to imply

without a thorough evaluation of evidence that CO₂ fertilization will not have any effect on the future relationship between CMI and NPP, BIO, or CRT.

RESPONSE: Following this comment and feedback from Reviewer 2, we chose to remove the 'Climate change implications' section and replace it with a section called 'Predicting ecosystem response to environmental change' that reads (starting on line 475):

Water availability is projected to decline in much of the western US over the coming century, in part due to higher temperatures increasing atmospheric evaporative demand (Walsh et al., 2014; Dai, 2013; Cook et al., 2015). Predicting the timing, magnitude and extent of ecological response to regional climate change remains a challenge. Our study showed that water availability is a key determinant of forest structure and function in the western US, broadly suggesting that chronic reductions in regional water availability could reduce the NPP, BIO, and CRT of mature stands. Nevertheless, it is problematic to predict the temporal response of extant forest communities to near-term climatic change based on ecoclimatic relationships derived from spatial data. For instance, recent studies found that the slope of the NPP-precipitation relationship was much steeper when derived from spatial data than when derived from the temporal response of NPP to interannual variation in precipitation (Wilcox et al., 2016; Jin and Goulden, 2014). Near-term effects of climate variability depend on the physiological characteristics of species in the extant plant community, yet ecoclimatic relationships derived from spatial data reflect gradual adjustment of community composition and population size to climate over long periods of time (Wilcox et al., 2016; Jin and Goulden, 2014). Furthermore, ecoclimatic models derived from spatial data cannot account for other ecophysiological impacts of environmental change, such as (1) enhanced plant water use efficiency from CO₂ fertilization (Soulé and Knapp, 2015); (2) increased likelihood of tree mortality due to hotter drought (Adams et al., 2009); or (3) novel changes in disturbance regimes (Hicke et al., 2006; Dale et al., 2001). Consequently, predicting ecological response to environmental change over the coming century will require the use of mechanistic ecosystem models that account for physiologic, demographic, and disturbance processes at fine taxonomic and spatial scales (Law, 2014; Hudiburg et al., 2013). Although spatial models may not be suitable for near-term projection of ecosystems change, they do provide insight into long-term ecosystem adaptation to local climate and, furthermore, can be used to validate and refine mechanistic models if constructed from a representative sample of forestlands.

Technical Corrections:

L39 & 41: CMI should be defined on L39, therefore allowing the definition of CMI_{wy} on L41 to make more sense.

RESPONSE: Suggestion adopted.

L94: Should “be” be “by”?

RESPONSE: Yes, thank you.

L112: The specification of the converse hypothesis is unnecessary.

RESPONSE: The converse hypothesis has been removed.

L125: Should “using” be “used”?

RESPONSE: Yes, thank you.

L237: Should “extensive” be “extensively”?

RESPONSE: Yes, thank you.

L443: “elucidate underlying mechanism” may be missing a word or letter.

RESPONSE: We changed the sentence to read, “...additional efforts are needed to determine the underlying mechanism by which changes in water availability affect CRT.”

L847 (Fig 2 caption): Should “annual” be “annually”?

RESPONSE: Yes, thank you.

Anonymous Referee #2

This is a nice study demonstrating the regional relationship between water availability and productivity, C stocks and residence time in forests of the western US. An impressive data set based on both forest inventory and satellite data were used to establish these relationships. I am not a specialist in estimating forest NPP or C dynamics, but the methods used and assumptions made seem reasonable and the authors are experts in these ecosystems.

Their results indicate that mature forests in the western US were strongly sensitive (across spatial gradients) to changes in water availability. This is not a surprising result, but the scale and scope of this analysis makes this a publishable study. Where I take issue is the inference drawn from this analysis. The authors conclude that their analysis suggests that projected climatic change

over the coming century could reduce productivity, biomass and carbon residence time in many parts of this region. Indeed, they justify their study by noting that “Changes in ecosystem structure and function along spatial climatic gradients can provide insight into long-term ecosystem response to climatic change”. While this makes sense in the broadest terms, using spatial relationships (based on average values derived from long-term data) to make predictions about temporal changes in (or the differential sensitivity of) ecosystems to a climate change is risky at best.

We have long known that large scale spatial relationships between NPP and precipitation (or water availability) have a slope that is determined by combined changes in water availability, biogeochemistry and the plant community. But the temporal dynamics over which each of these factors will change in the future will vary dramatically. . .from decades to centuries to even millennia. Thus, spatial models of NPP vs. water are not good predictors of expected temporal dynamics in ecosystems...particularly in forests that have long-lived trees and where communities may turnover very slowly (hundreds of years?). Please see the three references below. Combined, they do a nice job of covering many of the well-known problems inherent in substituting spatial models for temporal models when projecting a future with directional and chronic climate change.

Thus, while I am in favor of publishing this analysis, the conclusions drawn that “projected warming and drying over the coming century. . .could have important impacts on ecosystem structure, function, and services. . .” are really not that noteworthy. Nonetheless, a well-done confirmatory message is much better than much of the introduction and discussion which repeatedly references “sensitivities to changes in water availability” in the context of climate change. As presented, the implication that there is climate change relevance in this analysis is really quite misleading. . .given that spatial sensitivity does not equate to temporal sensitivity – except perhaps for sign. This is true under today’s environment, and spatial relationships such as those derived here will likely be even poorer surrogates for predicting the future as the varying time scales of change (climate vs forest community turnover vs. biogeochemistry) lead to novel functional relationships.

Thus, at the very least the authors should point out the limitations of their analysis and approach with regard to its relevance to future temporal C dynamics. Specifically, because the slopes (sensitivity) of temporal relationships between NPP and water are almost always less steep than slopes from spatial models, the authors need to recognize that the sensitivity implied by their analysis will likely not be manifest.

Estiarte, M., Vicca, S., Peñuelas, J., Bahn, M., Beier, C., Emmett, B. A., Fay, P. A., Hanson, P. J., Hasibeder, R., and Kigel, J.: Few multi-year precipitation-reduction experiments find a shift in the productivity-precipitation relationship, *Global change biology*, 2016.

Gaitan et al. 2014. Vegetation structure is as important as climate for explaining ecosystem function across Patagonian rangelands. *Journal of Ecology* 102: 1419- 1428.

Wilcox 2016. Does ecosystem sensitivity to precipitation at the site-level conform to regional-scale predictions? *Ecology* 97: 561-568.

RESPONSE: We appreciate your critique of our manuscript, as well as the references that you suggested. We revised our manuscript to better acknowledge that the ecoclimatic relationships we observed reflect long-term climatic constraints on ecosystem structure and function, which are shaped by gradual shifts in community composition and population size (Jin and Goulden, 2014). Consequently, these ecoclimatic relationships are not sufficient to predict ecosystem response to near-term changes in climate. We re-wrote the introduction, de-emphasizing observed and projected climate change, while emphasizing how this study seeks to confirm earlier observation at a larger scale. Furthermore, we remove the “Climate change implications” section (4.5) from the discussion and replaced it with section called “Predicting ecosystems response to environmental change” that reads (starting on line 475):

“Water availability is projected to decline in much of the western US over the coming century, in part due to higher temperatures increasing atmospheric evaporative demand (Walsh et al., 2014; Dai, 2013; Cook et al., 2015). Predicting the timing, magnitude and extent of ecological response to regional climate change remains a challenge. Our study showed that water availability is a key determinant of forest structure and function in the western US, broadly suggesting that chronic reductions in regional water availability could reduce the NPP, BIO, and CRT of mature stands. Nevertheless, it is problematic to predict the temporal response of extant forest communities to near-term climatic change based on ecoclimatic relationships derived from spatial data. For instance, recent studies found that the slope of the NPP-precipitation relationship was much steeper when derived from spatial data than when derived from the temporal response of NPP to interannual variation in precipitation (Wilcox et al., 2016; Jin and Goulden, 2014). Near-term effects of climate variability depend on the physiological characteristics of species in the extant plant community, yet ecoclimatic relationships derived from spatial data reflect gradual adjustment of community composition and population size to climate over long periods of time (Wilcox et al., 2016; Jin and Goulden, 2014). Furthermore, ecoclimatic models derived from spatial data cannot account for other ecophysiological impacts of environmental change, such as (1) enhanced plant water use efficiency from CO₂ fertilization (Soulé and Knapp, 2015); (2) increased likelihood of tree mortality due to hotter drought (Adams

et al., 2009); or (3) novel changes in disturbance regimes (Hicke et al., 2006; Dale et al., 2001). Consequently, predicting ecological response to environmental change over the coming century will require the use of mechanistic ecosystem models that account for physiologic, demographic, and disturbance processes at fine taxonomic and spatial scales (Law, 2014; Hudiburg et al., 2013). Although spatial models may not be suitable for near-term projection of ecosystems change, they do provide insight into long-term ecosystem adaptation to local climate and, furthermore, can be used to validate and refine mechanistic models if constructed from a representative sample of forestlands.”

We also modified the Summary and Conclusions section to read (starting on line 519):

“The pronounced increase in tree productivity, biomass, and carbon residence time between the driest and wettest areas illustrates the gradual adjustment of ecosystem structure and function to long-term variation in water availability; however, the observed ecoclimatic relationships are not suitable for near-term projections of future ecosystem response to regional drying. Predicting near-term ecosystem response to drying and other environmental change (e.g., increased CO₂) will require mechanistic ecosystem models, which can be evaluated against ecoclimatic relationships developed using inventory sites from a representative sample of forestlands (e.g., Forest Service inventory sites). Overall, our results indicate long-term water availability is a key determinant of tree productivity, live biomass, and carbon residence time in mature stands ranging from dry woodlands to coastal temperate rainforests, underscoring that additional efforts are needed to anticipate and mitigate the impacts of projected warming and drying on forest ecosystems in the western US and elsewhere around the world.”

Anonymous Referee #3

General comments:

In my view, this paper makes an important contribution in quantifying the relationship between forest characteristics (net primary productivity, NPP; live biomass, BIO; mean carbon residence time, CRT) and climatic moisture regimes in the western United States. The analysis is strengthened by the inclusion of two fundamentally different data sources and methods, including forest inventory measurements from 3 states (WA, OR and CA) and satellite-based estimates across an even larger area (11 western states). The results are striking as both methods show that forest characteristics in this region are governed primarily by spatial gradients in climatic moisture regimes (as represented by a simple climate moisture index, CMI_{wy}). Although this general conclusion is not new, the work provides valuable quantitative estimates of forest-climate relationships that are likely to be useful in improving models of forest responses to

the climatic drying that is already evident in this region. Overall, the paper is clearly presented and the methods seem appropriate, given the major challenges of spatial scaling in this mountainous and climatically diverse region.

My main questions relate to a) the justification for including only mature stands > 100 years, and b) unstated assumptions and potential sources of error in estimating CRT (see specific points, below).

RESPONSE: Thank you for providing valuable comments on our manuscript. In the revised manuscript we provide (1) better justification for focusing on mature stands and (2) a more thorough discussion of the assumptions and limitations associated with computing CRT as BIO/NPP. We describe these revisions in greater detail below.

Specific comments:

L110 What is the justification for restricting the analysis to mature stands older than 100 years? Is this age considered to be a threshold, beyond which the variables BIO, NPP and/or CRT remain constant over time?

RESPONSE: We focused on mature stands (>100 years) because inventory plots in this region showed that tree BIO and NPP tended to increase rapidly with stand age during the first century and then change more gradually during subsequent years (Hudiburg et al., 2009). In essence, we assume that BIO and NPP have hit much of their ‘climatic potential’ after 100 years. Several prior studies similarly focused on mature stands that were at least 100 years old (Gholz, 1982;Whittaker and Niering, 1975;Webb et al., 1983). Furthermore, computing CRT as BIO/NPP assumes (as discussed below) that BIO is stable through time, which is an assumption met more closely by examining older stands. We did perform the analysis using all forestland, regardless of stand age, and found very similar results (albeit with lower BIO and CRT). We added the following text to the introduction (starting on line 76):

“Prior studies drew on small networks of field sites ($n < 20$) to investigate how tree net primary productivity (NPP) and BIO varied among mature stands spread along hydrologic gradients in parts of this region (Webb et al., 1983;Berner and Law, 2015;Whittaker and Niering, 1975;Gholz, 1982). Tree BIO and NPP can vary widely with stand age (Hudiburg et al., 2009)

and thus these studies focused on mature stands (stand age generally > 100 years) where BIO and NPP had somewhat stabilized after reaching their ‘climatic potential.’”

We also added the following text to the introduction directly before stating our hypotheses (starting on line 112):

“We focused on forest stands that were at least 100 years old because field surveys from the region indicated that BIO and NPP reached much of their ‘climatic potential’ after a century, though we acknowledge that BIO tends to gradually increase and NPP remains stable or gradually declines during subsequent centuries (Hudiburg et al., 2009).”

L127-128: Do these inventory sites represent forests across the full range of elevations in this region? If they exclude sampling of unproductive forests in climatically cold, wet sites near the upper timberline then I’m wondering if this could explain the observed differences in response to CMI for inventory sites versus satellite-derived estimates (Fig. 2).

RESPONSE: An astute question. The Forest Service inventory sites are spread among areas > 1 acre (0.40 ha) that have at least 10% tree cover (Bechtold and Patterson, 2005). The sites do occur in cold, wet, high-elevation areas so long as those requirements are met. We compared the average (SD) elevation of inventory sites and MODIS forest pixels (stands > 100 years) at each step along the CMI_{wy} gradient and found that inventory sites and MODIS forest had very similar elevational distribution across WAORCA. A paired t-test found no significant difference in average elevation between inventory sites and MODIS forest along the CMI_{wy} gradient in WAORCA (P=0.43). The differences between inventory and satellite-derived estimates of BIO and NPP were most apparent in the wettest areas (e.g. CMI_{wy} > 100 cm/yr) that overwhelming occurred in WAORCA (e.g., 98% of MODIS forest with CMI_{wy} > 100 cm/yr was in WAORCA). Consequently, it does not appear that differences between inventory and satellite-derived estimates of BIO and NPP in wet areas can be attributed to the satellite data systematically including cold, high-elevation areas that were not represented by the inventory sites. We added text in several places to help clarify. We edited part of the methods to read (starting on line 134):

“These 1-ha sites were surveyed by the US Forest Service Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA) program between 2001 to 2006 and comprise a representative sample of forest lands (tree cover > 10%) in the region (Bechtold and Patterson, 2005). The inventory sites occurred at elevations ranging from 5 m to 3,504 m, with an average ($\pm 1SD$) elevation of 1429 ± 677 m.”

Additionally, we added modified part of the discussion to read (starting on line 336):

“The NPP-CMI \overline{wy} relationship was similar when NPP was assessed using field measurements from across WAORCA or using MODIS covering the western US, though MODIS did show NPP leveling off in the wettest parts of WAORCA (CMI \overline{wy} \approx 100-200 cm yr⁻¹), whereas this was less evident in the field measurements. The inventory sites and MODIS forestland occurred at similar elevations along the CMI \overline{wy} gradient in WAORCA, suggesting that this discrepancy in NPP was not due to MODIS systematically including cold, high-elevation areas not sampled by the inventory sites. One possibility is that MODIS NPP did not increase in the wettest areas because MODIS becomes less sensitive to increases in the fraction of photosynthetically-active radiation (FPAR) absorbed by plant canopies in densely vegetated areas (Yan et al., 2016).”

L138-140: I believe that the equation used for carbon residence time (CRT = BIO / NPP) is based on the assumption that BIO is constant over time (e.g., see equation 1 of Friend et al 2014, reference cited in the MS). If so, then this assumption (and any others) should be stated explicitly. Overall, I'm wondering how much of the variation in the reported estimates of CRT is driven simply by variation in stand age, given that in my experience, older stands tend to exhibit increasing (or stable) values of BIO along with age-related declines in NPP. On a related point, using the above equation, I would expect estimates of CRT to be inflated in forests with anomalously low NPP over the 10-year period of calculation (e.g., during droughts or insect defoliation episodes that are not sufficiently severe to cause a proportional decline in BIO). Again, it would be helpful to at least acknowledge the potential sources of bias in the reported CRT estimates.

RESPONSE: You are correct that calculating mean carbon residence time (CRT) as CRT = BIO/NPP assumes that BIO is constant over time and we agree that this assumption should be explicitly stated and more thoroughly discussed in our manuscript. We added the following text to the introduction to note this assumption (starting on line 91):

“Several of these earlier field studies also indicated that plant communities accumulated more BIO per unit of NPP in progressively wetter areas, suggesting slower turnover of plant BIO as climate became wetter (Webb et al., 1983;Whittaker and Niering, 1975). Mean carbon residence time (CRT) describes the average duration that a carbon molecule will remain in a specific pool (Waring and Running, 2007) and for CRT in live biomass can be computed as BIO/NPP assuming that BIO remains constant over time (Friend et al., 2014;Whittaker, 1961). CRT in live biomass is also known as the *biomass accumulation ratio* (Whittaker, 1961) and ranged, for instance, from ~2 years in a hot desert shrubland to ~75 years in an wet, old-growth Douglas-fir forest (Webb et al., 1983).”

Older stands did have higher CRT and average stand age did increase moving into wetter areas. Together, these indicate that the CRT-CMI_{wy} relationships we observed did incorporate an age-related effect; however, the age-related effect appears to be rather small. For instance, let's compare the median CRT between mature (100-200 years) and old (>200 years) stands occupying very dry (CMI_{wy} < -100 cm yr⁻¹) and very wet (CMI_{wy} > 100 cm yr⁻¹) areas. Median CRT differed by 6% (16 vs. 17 years) between mature and old stands in very dry areas and by 10% (47 vs. 52 years) in very wet areas. Conversely, median CRT of mature stands differed 98% (16 vs. 47 years) between very dry and very wet areas, while the median CRT of old stands differed 101% (52 vs. 17 years) between very dry and very wet areas. In very dry areas 80% of stands were mature and 20% were old, whereas in very wet areas 67% of stands were mature and 33% were old. Furthermore, CRT-CMI_{wy} relationships constructed using mature and old were quite similar, diverging slightly in the wettest areas. These comparisons illustrate CRT is affected by stand age, but that the age effect is quite small relative to the climate effect. We edited the CRT discussion section so that it now begins by addressing uncertainty in our estimates of CRT (starting on line 430):

“One limitation of our study is that computing CRT in this manner assumes that BIO is constant over time (Friend et al., 2014). We focused on mature stands (>100 years) to minimize the change in BIO over time, though acknowledge that BIO can gradually increase during subsequent centuries (Hudiburg et al., 2009), which would lead us to underestimated CRT. Conversely, drought and insect-induced defoliation in the early 2000s could have suppressed NPP (Bernier and Law, 2015; Schwalm et al., 2012) without a proportional reduction in BIO, which could have inflated our estimates of CRT in some areas.”

We then revised the text to include a discussion of the age-related effect (starting on line 457):

“We also found that mature stands tended to be older in wetter areas and that older stands tended to have longer CRT, likely as a result of these stands having higher BIO and similar NPP (Hudiburg et al., 2009). Consequently, the CRT-CMI_{wy} relationships that we observed incorporate an age-related effect; however, the effect was quite small relative to the climate-effect. This can be illustrated by comparing median CRT between mature (100-200 years) and old (>200 years) stands occupying very dry (CMI_{wy} < -100 cm yr⁻¹) and very wet (CMI_{wy} > 100 cm yr⁻¹) areas. Median CRT differed by 6% (16 vs. 17 years) between mature and old stands in very dry areas and by 10% (47 vs. 52 years) in very wet areas. Conversely, median CRT of mature stands differed 98% (16 vs. 47 years) between very dry and very wet areas, while the median CRT of old stands differed 101% (52 vs. 17 years) between very dry and very wet areas. In other words, the difference in CRT between stands in contrasting climates is much greater than difference in CRT between mature and old stands within a climate zone. Our study

demonstrates that CRT in live tree biomass was strongly influenced by water availability, yet additional efforts are needed to determine the underlying mechanism by which changes in water availability affect CRT, particularly given that CRT is a primary source of uncertainty in global vegetation model projections of future terrestrial carbon cycling (Friend et al., 2014).”

L396-400: The discussion includes reporting of the large percentage difference in BIO across the climatic moisture gradient (CMI_wy) using the two methods (from Fig. 2) but I expect that the percentage difference would be even greater than this if dry, naturally unforested areas (with zero forest BIO and NPP) were included in the analysis. In this respect, it would be interesting to see how %forest cover varies as a function of the binned values of CMI_wy across this region. I recognize that such an analysis would go beyond the scope of this paper, but it could provide an interesting additional indicator of how forest NPP and carbon stocks may respond over the long term under the projected (and ongoing) climatic drying, i.e., drought-related loss of forest cover in addition to drought-related decreases in BIO, NPP and CRT in those sites that continue to remain forested.

RESPONSE: We appreciate the suggestion and believe that it would be interesting to investigate how forest cover changes with CMIwy over this region; however, we believe this addition is beyond the scope of our current study.

Anonymous Referee #4

General comments:

This is a thorough, straightforward study using both field and satellite measurements to estimate forest productivity and carbon cycling along a spatial moisture index across the western US. The goals of the study were outlined well, and made use of two datasets that if assimilated properly, can reveal ecological trends and relationships that cross spatial scales. The results revealed, unsurprisingly, that as moisture index increased, so did both productivity and biomass; however this study is one of the more thorough I have seen in both its spatial and methodological scale. The results suggest that climatic moisture availability is perhaps the most fundamental environmental control of forests in the Western US, and that the forest communities are extremely sensitive to this across large spatial scales. I feel this study is well conceived and publishable, but needs more explanation of methods, particularly with regards to data assimilation and validation. You mention in section 2.3 that you ‘minimize[d] uncertainty’ by using two different data types (field and remotely sensed), but you present no evidence of this. Also, though you present the Spearman coefficient in Table 2, I would have liked to see some

cross-domain validation between data types; that is, a simple statistical comparison of how each median variable (NPP, BIO, CRT) value compares between field and satellite data.

RESPONSE: We appreciate the reviewer taking the time to comment on our manuscript. In the revised manuscript we removed the comment about ‘minimizing uncertainty by incorporating both field and remote sensing data sets,’ which was not phrased appropriately. In fact, we removed that section (2.3) entirely and incorporated select element into other parts of the manuscript. Following the reviewer’s second comment, we compared field- and satellite-derived estimates of median NPP, BIO, and CRT, which showed that they were strongly correlated. We then added a sentence towards the end of the results section stating that, “Field- and satellite-derived estimates of median NPP, BIO, and CRT were strongly correlated ($r_s=0.90-0.95$; $p<0.001$).” We address the reviewer’s remaining comments below.

Specific comments:

L52: Mention of ecosystem services seems unnecessary

RESPONSE: We removed the reference to ecosystem services.

L69: Suggest substituting ‘risk’ with ‘frequency’ or ‘occurrence’

RESPONSE: We changes ‘risk’ to ‘occurrence.’

L101: CRT should be defined before acronym is introduced.

RESPONSE: We edited these sentences to read (starting on line 91):

“Several of these earlier field studies also indicated that plant communities accumulated more BIO per unit of NPP in progressively wetter areas, suggesting slower turnover of plant BIO as climate became wetter (Webb et al., 1983;Whittaker and Niering, 1975). Mean carbon residence time (CRT) describes the average duration that a carbon molecule will remain in a specific pool (Waring and Running, 2007) and for CRT in live biomass can be computed as BIO/NPP assuming that BIO remains constant over time (Friend et al., 2014;Whittaker, 1961).”

L154: This sentence is very unclear. I don't understand what 'ensemble average' is referring to, nor what the 'previous work' revealed.

RESPONSE: We changed the two sentences to read (starting on line 161):

“We then reprojected these maps onto a uniform grid in an equal area projection, masked them to the common forest extent, and then averaged the AGB for each pixel across the three biomass maps. We used the biomass map ensemble average in the subsequent analysis, recognizing that pixel-wise estimates of AGC can vary notably among individual maps (Neeti and Kennedy, 2016).”

L196: Should it be climate 'data' sets?

RESPONSE: Yes, thank you.

L196: Some context should be given for CMI values. What is the typical range? What constitutes extreme values on either end?

RESPONSE: We provide a summary of minimum and maximum CMI_{wy} across the western US, as well as the average CMI_{wy} in forested areas in the results section.

L229: Make sure use of 'Spearman' or 'Spearman's' is consistent

RESPONSE: We edited the manuscript to consistently use *Spearman's* .

L447: Changing natural disturbance regimes should be mentioned in the climate change implications section, given that you discuss it earlier in the context of carbon residence time.

RESPONSE: We ended up replacing the 'Climate change implication' section with a section called 'Predicting ecosystems response to environmental change,' which mentions the importance of changes in disturbance regimes. Part of this section reads (starting on line 485):

“Near-term effects of climate variability depend on the physiological characteristics of species in the extant plant community, yet ecoclimatic relationships derived from spatial data reflect

gradual adjustment of community composition and population size to climate over long periods of time (Wilcox et al., 2016;Jin and Goulden, 2014). Furthermore, ecoclimatic models derived from spatial data cannot account for other ecophysiological impacts of environmental change, such as (1) enhanced plant water use efficiency from CO₂ fertilization (Soulé and Knapp, 2015); (2) increased likelihood of tree mortality due to hotter drought (Adams et al., 2009); or (3) novel changes in disturbance regimes (Hicke et al., 2006;Dale et al., 2001). Consequently, predicting ecological response to environmental change over the coming century will require the use of mechanistic ecosystem models that account for physiologic, demographic, and disturbance processes at fine taxonomic and spatial scales (Law, 2014;Hudiburg et al., 2013).”

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List of relevant changes

We made the following changes to our manuscript during the revision process, as described in greater detail in the section above. This list only includes substantive changes, with changes listed in the same order as our responses to the reviewer's comments:

1. We added an acknowledgement regarding the circularity of comparing MODIS NPP against the CMI given that both include the effect of VPD.
2. We added text discussing possible reasons why MODIS NPP could saturate in the wettest areas.
3. We replaced the 'Climate change implications' section in the discussion with a section called 'Predicting ecosystem response to environmental change.'
4. We revised our manuscript to better acknowledge that the ecoclimatic relationships we observed reflect long-term climatic constraints on ecosystem structure and function, which are shaped by gradual shifts in community composition and population size (Jin and Goulden, 2014). Consequently, these ecoclimatic relationships are not sufficient to predict ecosystem response

to near-term changes in climate. We re-wrote the introduction, de-emphasizing observed and projected climate change, while emphasizing how this study seeks to confirm earlier observation at a larger scale.

5. We added additional justification for focusing on mature (>100 years) forest.
6. We added clarification about the forest inventory sampling design and discussion as to why difference in NPP between the field and satellite data sets did not reflect differences in sampling extent.
7. We clarified that computing carbon residence time as the ratio of biomass to productivity assumes that both biomass and productivity are not changing through time. We also added text to the discussion illustrating that the changes in CRT that we observed were not due to differences in stand age, but rather climate.
8. We added a comparison of field- and satellite-derived estimates of NPP, BIO, and CRT.

Water ~~limits forest ecosystems~~ limitations on forests in the western US

1 **Water availability limits tree productivity, carbon stocks, and carbon residence time in**
2 **mature forests across the western United States**

3

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20

21 *Running header:*

22 Water limitations on forests in the western US

23

24 *Keywords:*

25 ~~Ecological gradient, climate~~ Bioclimatic gradient, carbon cycle, climate change, climate moisture
26 index, forest inventory, MODIS, satellite remote sensing, biomass

27

28 *Type of paper:*

29 Primary research article

30

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Water ~~limits forest ecosystems~~limitations on forests in the western US

31 **Abstract**

32 ~~Much of~~Water availability constrains the western US structure and function of terrestrial
33 ecosystems and is projected to ~~become warmer and drier~~change in many parts of the world over
34 the coming century, ~~underlining the need to understand how climate influences terrestrial~~
35 ~~ecosystems in this region~~. We quantified the response of tree net primary productivity (NPP),
36 live biomass (BIO), and mean carbon residence time (CRT=BIO/NPP) to spatial variation in
37 ~~climate~~ water availability in the western US. We used forest inventory measurements from
38 1,953 mature stands (≥ 100 years) in Washington, Oregon, and California (WAORCA) along
39 with satellite and climate data sets covering the western US. We summarized forest structure and
40 function in both domains along a 400 cm yr⁻¹ hydrologic gradient, quantified with a climate
41 moisture index (CMI) based on the difference between precipitation and reference
42 evapotranspiration summed ~~from over the water-year~~ (October-September ~~(i.e., water year)~~) and
43 then averaged annually from 1985-2014 ($CMI_{\overline{wy}}$). Median NPP, BIO, and CRT computed at 10
44 cm yr⁻¹ intervals along the $CMI_{\overline{wy}}$ gradient increased monotonically with increasing $CMI_{\overline{wy}}$
45 across both WAORCA ($r_s=0.93-0.96$, $p<0.001$) and the western US ($r_s=0.93-0.99$, $p<0.001$).
46 Field measurements from WAORCA showed that median NPP increased from 2.2 to 5.6 Mg C
47 ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ between the driest and wettest 5% of sites, while BIO increased from 26 to 281 Mg C
48 ha⁻¹ and CRT increased from 11 to 49 years. The satellite data sets revealed similar changes over
49 the western US, though these data sets tended to plateau in the wettest areas, suggesting that
50 additional efforts are needed to better quantify NPP and BIO from satellites in high-productivity,
51 high-biomass forests. Our results ~~indicate~~illustrate that ~~mature forests in this region were widely~~
52 ~~sensitive to changes in~~long-term average water availability, ~~suggesting that is a key~~
53 environmental constraint on tree productivity, carbon storage, and carbon residence time in

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54 mature forests across the western US, underscoring the need to assess potential ecosystem
55 response to projected ~~climatic change~~warming and drying over the coming century ~~could reduce~~
56 NPP, BIO, and CRT in many parts of this region, particularly the Southwest, with resulting
57 impacts on ecosystem services.

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59 1 Introduction

60 ~~Climatic water~~Water availability strongly ~~affects~~constrains the distribution of plants on Earth's
61 land surface (~~Holdridge, 1947; Major, 1963~~) and the resulting structure and function of terrestrial
62 ecosystems (Schuur, 2003; Churkina and Running, 1998; Law et al., 2002). For instance,
63 ~~productivity of desert (Whittaker and Niering, 1975), grassland (Yang et al., 2008) and forest~~
64 productivity (Schuur, 2003; Law et al., 2002; Berner and Law, 2015) ~~ecosystems varies along~~
65 spatial gradients in climatic water availability. Climatic water differ widely among sites with
66 contrasting water availability. Water availability is shaped by regional climate (e.g.,
67 precipitation, atmospheric evaporative demand), as well as by local topography and soils (Webb
68 et al., 1983). Water availability is projected to change in many parts of the world over the
69 coming century in response to continued atmospheric warming from sustained anthropogenic
70 greenhouse gas emissions (Dai, 2013; Collins et al., 2013; Walsh et al., 2014). ~~Rising atmospheric~~
71 ~~temperatures increase evaporative demand (Hobbins et al., 2012) and the probability that periods~~
72 ~~with anomalously low precipitation co occur with anomalously high temperatures, which~~
73 ~~increases the frequency and severity of drought (Differbaugh et al., 2015).~~ Societies depend on
74 the goods and services provided by terrestrial ecosystems (e.g., forests; Williams, 2006) and thus

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75 it is imperative to elucidate climatic controls over ecosystem structure and function to help
76 anticipate and mitigate potential impacts of ongoing climatic change.

77 ~~Atmospheric warming in the western United States has increased the risk of drought and~~
78 ~~continued warming over the coming century could reduce water availability in much of the~~
79 ~~region (Diffenbaugh et al., 2015;Kunkel et al., 2013;Williams et al., 2012). Regional mean~~
80 ~~annual temperatures increased 0.8–1.1°C from 1895 to 2011, while concomitant changes in~~
81 ~~precipitation were more variable (Kunkel et al., 2013;Mote et al., 2014). Coincident with~~
82 ~~regional warming there was an increase in area annually affected by drought (Cook et al., 2004)~~
83 ~~and an increase in drought frequency (McCabe et al., 2004). The 2000–2004 drought was the~~
84 ~~most severe drought to have occurred in the region during the past 800 years (Schwalm et al.,~~
85 ~~2012). In 2013–2015, much of the western US experienced record low soil moisture and~~
86 ~~mountain snowpack along with persistent high temperatures that exacerbated the multi-year~~
87 ~~drought (Singh et al., 2016;Diffenbaugh et al., 2015). Climate models project mean annual~~
88 ~~temperatures could further increase ~3.8–5.5°C by the end of the 21st century under a high~~
89 ~~greenhouse gas emission scenario (RCP 8.5; Walsh et al., 2014;Kunkel et al., 2013). Models also~~
90 ~~suggest that mean annual precipitation might increase ~10% in the northern part of the region,~~
91 ~~though change little in the southern parts under the same high emissions scenario; however,~~
92 ~~these projections are more uncertain than projected changes in temperature (Walsh et al.,~~
93 ~~2014;Kunkel et al., 2013). The recent severe droughts and projected increases in regional~~
94 ~~atmospheric temperatures potentially foreshadow a shift towards hotter, drier conditions in much~~
95 ~~of the region over the coming century (Collins et al., 2013;Dai, 2013;Williams et al.,~~
96 ~~2012;Schwalm et al., 2012).~~

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97 ~~Changes in ecosystem structure and function along spatial climatic gradients can provide~~
98 ~~insight into long-term ecosystem response to climatic change (Jin and Goulden, 2014; Biederman~~
99 ~~et al., 2016; Berner et al., 2013). Mean annual precipitation varies over 500 cm yr⁻¹ across the~~
100 ~~western US. The western United States is a region where pronounced spatial variation in water~~
101 ~~availability exerts a strong influence over forest structure and function. For instance, average~~
102 ~~annual precipitation varies over 500 cm yr⁻¹ across this region, with particularly steep hydrologic~~
103 ~~gradients in the Pacific Northwest (Daly et al., 2008) contributing to a range of ecosystems from~~
104 ~~dry desert shrublands to coastal temperate rainforests (Franklin and Dyrness, 1988; Waring and~~
105 ~~Franklin, 1979) where live tree biomass (BIO) attains levels thought to be exceeded only by~~
106 ~~Differences in water availability gives rise to forest communities that range from dry, low-~~
107 ~~productivity woodlands to high-productivity coastal temperate rainforests where live tree~~
108 ~~biomass (BIO) attains levels thought to be exceeded only by primary *Eucalyptus regnans* forests~~
109 ~~in southern Australia (Keith et al., 2009; Waring and Franklin, 1979). Field studies carried in this~~
110 ~~region found that BIO and/or net primary productivity (NPP) tended to increase as conditions~~
111 ~~became wetter (Keith et al., 2009; Waring and Franklin, 1979).~~

112 ~~Prior studies drew on small networks of field sites (n < 20) to investigate how tree net~~
113 ~~primary productivity (NPP) and BIO varied among mature stands spread along hydrologic~~
114 ~~gradients in parts of this region (Webb et al., 1983; Berner and Law, 2015; Whittaker and Niering,~~
115 ~~1975; Gholz, 1982); however, each study was based on fewer than 20 field sites selected using a~~
116 ~~set of criteria (e.g., mature forest near a road). Several of these earlier studies also indicated that~~
117 ~~mean carbon residence time (CRT=BIO/NPP) in live aboveground biomass (AGB) increased~~
118 ~~several fold between the driest and wettest plant communities (Webb et al., 1983; Whittaker and~~
119 ~~Niering, 1975; Gholz, 1982), which is potentially related to differences in disturbance regimes~~

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120 ~~and carbon allocation.~~ Tree BIO and NPP can vary widely with stand age (Hudiburg et al., 2009)
121 and thus these studies focused on mature stands (stand age generally > 100 years) where BIO and
122 NPP had somewhat stabilized after reaching their ‘climatic potential.’ These studies showed that
123 BIO and NPP tended to increase linearly or curvilinearly across sites as average water
124 availability increased (Webb et al., 1983; Whittaker and Niering, 1975; Gholz, 1982; Berner and
125 Law, 2015). These spatial relationships are thought to reflect long-term climatic constraints on
126 ecosystem structure (e.g., BIO) and function (e.g., NPP) that are shaped by gradual shifts in
127 community composition and population size (Jin and Goulden, 2014). The field studies
128 mentioned above make a compelling case that water availability is an important determinant of
129 BIO and NPP in mature stands, yet these studies were based on a small number of field sites
130 selected using a set of criteria (e.g., mature stands near a road) rather than on a large sample of
131 mature stands in the region.

132 Several of these earlier field studies also indicated that plant communities accumulated
133 more BIO per unit of NPP in progressively wetter areas, suggesting slower turnover of plant BIO
134 as climate became wetter (Webb et al., 1983; Whittaker and Niering, 1975). Mean carbon
135 residence time (CRT) describes the average duration that a carbon molecule will remain in a
136 specific pool (Waring and Running, 2007) and for CRT in live biomass can be computed as
137 BIO/NPP assuming that BIO remains constant over time (Friend et al., 2014; Whittaker, 1961).
138 CRT in live biomass is also known as the *biomass accumulation ratio* (Whittaker, 1961) and
139 ranged, for instance, from ~2 years in a hot desert shrubland to ~75 years in an wet, old-growth
140 Douglas-fir forest (Webb et al., 1983). Differences in CRT among plant communities with
141 contrasting climate are potentially associated with shifts in carbon allocation (e.g. short-lived
142 fine roots and foliage vs. long-lived stem wood) and disturbance regimes (Girardin et al., 2010).

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143 ~~These~~Together, these field studies illustrate that ~~ecosystem~~forest structure and function are
144 ~~strongly influenced~~constrained by water availability in parts of the western US; however,
145 additional efforts are needed to assess ~~forest response to variation in water availability at larger~~
146 ~~scales across this region~~these relationships at larger scales across the region, particularly given
147 that climate models project a pronounced shift towards hotter, drier conditions over much of the
148 region during the coming century (Collins et al., 2013; Cook et al., 2015; Walsh et al., 2014).

149 ~~Our objective in this study was to explore how forest structure and function changed~~
150 ~~along spatial gradients in climatic water availability in the western US. We hypothesized that~~
151 ~~tree NPP, BIO, and CRT in mature stands (>100 years old) are constrained by water availability~~
152 ~~in this region. We thus anticipated that NPP, BIO, and CRT would increase as climate became~~
153 ~~wetter (or, conversely, decrease as climate became drier). We tested these hypotheses first across~~
154 ~~Washington, Oregon, and California (WAORCA) using forest inventory measurements from~~
155 ~~1,953 sites and then across 18 Mha of mature forest in the western US using satellite remote~~
156 ~~sensing data sets that included three national biomass maps and NPP derived from the Moderate~~
157 ~~Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS). Tree NPP, BIO, and CRT were based on~~
158 ~~above and below ground components. We quantified water availability using a climate moisture~~
159 ~~index (CMI) that accounted for the cumulative difference between precipitation (P) and reference~~
160 ~~evapotranspiration (ET₀) over the approximate seasonal cycle of soil water recharge and draw-~~
161 ~~down (October-September; i.e., water year).~~

162
163 Our objective in this study was to explore how forest structure and function change along
164 spatial gradients in water availability across the western US. We used the average water-year

165 climate moisture index (CMI_{wy} ; 1985-2014) as an indicator of long-term water availability
166 (Webb et al., 1983;Hogg and Hurdle, 1995), which we computed as the cumulative difference
167 between precipitation (P) and reference evapotranspiration (ET_0) over the approximate seasonal
168 cycle of soil water recharge and draw-down (October-September). Furthermore, we focused on
169 forest stands that were at least 100 years old because field surveys from the region indicated that
170 BIO and NPP reached much of their ‘climatic potential’ after a century, yet we acknowledge that
171 BIO tends to gradually increase and NPP remains stable or gradually declines during subsequent
172 centuries (Hudiburg et al., 2009). Building on prior field studies (e.g., Webb et al., 1983;Berner
173 and Law, 2015;Gholz, 1982), we hypothesized that long-term water availability limits tree NPP,
174 BIO, and CRT in mature forest stands across the region. We thus predicted that tree NPP, BIO,
175 and CRT in mature forests would increase with increasing CMI_{wy} . Tree NPP, BIO, and CRT
176 were based on above- and below-ground components. We tested these hypotheses first across
177 Washington, Oregon, and California (WAORCA) using forest inventory measurements from
178 1,953 sites and then across 18 Mha of mature forest in the western US using satellite remote
179 sensing data sets. These data sets included three national biomass maps, along with NPP derived
180 from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS). Forest inventories provide
181 rigorous, though spatially-limited field measurements of forest structure and function, while
182 satellite remote sensing provides spatially-continuous, albeit modeled estimates of forest
183 structure and function across large domains.

184 _____

185 **2 Materials and methods**

186 **2.1 Data sets and pre processing**

Water ~~limits forest ecosystems~~limitations on forests in the western US

187 2.1.1 Field estimates of tree biomass, productivity, and carbon residence time

188 We ~~using~~used field measurements to estimate BIO (BIO_{field} ; Mg C ha⁻¹), NPP (NPP_{field} ; Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), and CRT (CRT_{field} ; year) at 1,953 forest inventory sites located in mature stands spread
189 across WAORCA. These 1-ha sites were surveyed by the US Forest Service ~~from 2001 to 2006~~
190 ~~and comprise a representative sample of forest lands in the region.~~Forest Inventory and Analysis
191 (FIA) program between 2001 to 2006 and comprise a representative sample of forest lands (tree
192 cover > 10%) in the region (Bechtold and Patterson, 2005). The inventory sites occurred at
193 elevations ranging from 5 m to 3,504 m, with an average ($\pm 1SD$) elevation of 1429 \pm 677 m. We
194 included sites in our analysis when stand age was at least 100 years. Stand age was defined as the
195 average age of the oldest 10% of trees, where individual tree age was determined on survey plots
196 using increment cores (Van Tuyl et al., 2005). BIO_{field} and NPP_{field} were computed for each site
197 as part of a prior study (Hudiburg et al., 2011). BIO_{field} was estimated using regional allometric
198 equations for tree components (e.g., stem, branch, bark, foliage, and coarse roots) based on tree
199 diameter and/or height; (Means et al., 1994; Law et al., 2001), along with estimates of fine root
200 mass derived from a relationship with leaf area index (LAI; m² leaf m⁻² ground); Van Tuyl et al.
201 2005. NPP_{field} was estimated based on changes in above- and below-ground woody biomass
202 over a 10-year interval plus annual foliage and fine root turn-over. See Hudiburg et al. (2011) for
203 additional details. ~~Carbon residence time is a key ecosystem characteristic that describes the~~
204 ~~average duration, in years, that a carbon molecule will remain in a specific pool (e.g., live~~
205 ~~biomass; Waring and Running, 2007).~~We computed CRT_{field} in live tree biomass as the ratio of
206 BIO_{field} to NPP_{field} in stands averaging >100 years of age. We then computed CRT_{field} in live tree
207 biomass as the ratio of BIO_{field} to NPP_{field} .

209

210 **2.1.2 Remote sensing estimates of tree biomass, productivity, and carbon residence time**

211 We used satellite remote sensing and ancillary data sets to estimate BIO (BIO_{sat}), NPP (NPP_{sat}),
212 and CRT (CRT_{sat}) across mature forests in the western US. BIO_{sat} included the same component
213 carbon pools as BIO_{field} (i.e. stem, branch, bark, foliage, coarse roots and fine roots). We
214 quantified the amount of carbon in stems, branches, and bark using an ensemble of three
215 satellite-derived data sets that depicted live tree aboveground biomass (AGB; excluded foliage)
216 circa 2000 to 2008 (Blackard et al., 2008; Wilson et al., 2013; Kelldorfer et al., 2012). Each map
217 was generated using satellite and geophysical (e.g., climate, topography) data sets to spatially
218 extrapolate forest inventory measurements over the conterminous US. We acquired these maps at
219 250-m spatial resolution and then converted two of the maps (Blackard et al., 2008; Kelldorfer
220 et al., 2012) from dry biomass to carbon assuming a 50% conversion factor (Smith et al., 2006).
221 We then reprojected these maps onto a uniform grid in an equal area projection, masked them to
222 the common forest extent, and then ~~computed the ensemble average. We used the ensemble~~
223 ~~average in the subsequent analysis given previous work showing that the ensemble average~~
224 ~~agreed more closely with state level estimates of tree aboveground carbon stocks derived from~~
225 ~~forest inventories than any of the individual maps (Berner et al., in review); averaged the AGB~~
226 for each pixel across the three biomass maps. We used the biomass map ensemble average in the
227 subsequent analysis, recognizing that pixel-wise estimates of AGC can vary notably among
228 individual maps (Neeti and Kennedy, 2016).

229 After deriving spatial estimates of carbon storage in AGB, we then estimated carbon
230 storage in coarse roots, fine roots, and foliage for each 250-m forested pixel. As with AGB, we
231 assumed that roots and foliage were 50% carbon (Smith et al., 2006; Berner and Law, 2016). We
232 computed coarse root biomass based on an empirical relationship with AGB (Cairns et al., 1997)

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233 and fine root biomass based on an empirical relationship with peak summer LAI (Van Tuyl et al.,
234 2005). Spatial estimates of LAI were available globally at 1-km resolution from NASA's
235 Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) as part of the MOD15A2 (Collection
236 5) data set (Myneni et al., 2002). We obtained these LAI estimates at 8-day intervals during July
237 and August (late-summer) from 2000 to 2014 for the western US. We then (1) excluded poor-
238 quality pixels using the quality control flags; (2) computed average late-summer LAI over the
239 15-year period; and (3) reprojected and resampled the data set to the common 250-m resolution
240 equal area grid. We used average late-summer MODIS LAI to compute both fine root biomass
241 (as described above) and foliage biomass. Foliage biomass was estimated for each pixel by
242 dividing LAI by the average specific leaf area (SLA; g C m^{-2} leaf) of the forest type found in that
243 pixel. We aggregated an existing map of forest type (Ruefenacht et al., 2008) into nine classes
244 (e.g., *Pinus ponderosa*, true fir) and then varied SLA among classes using species-, genus-, or
245 division-specific estimates of average SLA from a recent leaf trait synthesis (Berner and Law,
246 2016). We then estimated BIO_{sat} for each 250-m resolution pixel by summing the above- and
247 below-ground carbon pools.

248 We quantified regional NPP using the satellite-derived MODIS primary productivity data
249 set (NPP_{sat} ; MOD17A3 v. 55). The MODIS light-use efficiency model predicts ~~global terrestrial~~
250 annual NPP ~~each year~~ at 1-km resolution across global terrestrial ecosystems by incorporating
251 estimates of ~~LAI~~, absorbed photosynthetically active radiation (APAR), LAI, and land cover
252 derived from MODIS together with plant physiological characteristics and climate data (Running
253 et al., 2004; Zhao et al., 2010). The model first predicts ~~annual NPP as the cumulative difference~~
254 ~~between~~ daily gross primary productivity (GPP) based APAR and ~~daily to annual the efficiency~~
255 with which APAR is converted to biomass (ϵ), which is affected by low temperatures (frost) and

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256 high vapor pressure deficit (VPD) inducing stomatal closure. The model then estimates plant
257 respiration: (R) at daily to annual increments and subsequently computes annual NPP as the
258 cumulative difference between GPP and R. These estimates thus reflect NPP allocated both
259 above- and below-ground. We acknowledge a degree of circularity in relating NPP_{sat} to CMI
260 given that both computations incorporate temperature data, specifically, temperature-effects on
261 VPD. We obtained annual NPP estimates from 2000 to 2014 for the western US, reprojected the
262 data onto an equal area grid, and then averaged over years.

263 Several additional preprocessing steps were required after deriving forest BIO_{sat} and
264 NPP_{sat} . These included masking both BIO_{sat} and NPP_{sat} to areas mapped as forest by the MODIS
265 land cover map (Friedl et al., 2010) and then further masking these data sets to include only areas
266 where stand age was at least 100 years. The map of stand age reflected conditions c. 2006 and
267 was produced by Pan et al. (2011) by combining forest inventory measurements, information on
268 historical fires, and optical satellite imagery. We applied these 1-km resolution masks to the 250-
269 m resolution BIO_{sat} assuming homogenous land cover and stand age within each 1-km pixel. We
270 then ~~average~~ aggregated BIO_{sat} from 250-m to 1-km resolution and computed CRT_{sat} as the ratio
271 of BIO_{sat} to NPP_{sat} .

272

273 2.1.3 Climate ~~data~~data sets and derivation of the climate moisture index

274 We quantified water availability using a climate moisture index (CMI) that was computed at
275 monthly time steps as precipitation minus ET_0 (~~Hogg, 1994; Webb et al., 1983~~)(Hogg,
276 1994;Webb et al., 1983). We summed monthly CMI over each water-year (October in year $t-1$ to
277 September in year t) from 1985 to 2014 and then averaged over years to produce a 30-year

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278 climatology (CMI_{wy} ; $cm\ yr^{-1}$). The water year represents the approximate annual cycle of soil
279 water recharge and withdrawal (Thomas et al., 2009). We obtained estimates of monthly
280 precipitation from the Parameter-elevation Relationships on Independent Slopes Model (PRISM;
281 Daly et al., 2008), which interpolated weather station measurements onto a 4-km resolution grid.
282 We then estimated monthly ET_0 using the Food and Agricultural Organizations (FAO) Penman-
283 Monteith equation (FAO-56; Allen et al., 1998), where

$$284 \quad ET_0 = \frac{0.408\Delta (R_n - G) + \gamma \left(\frac{900}{T + 273} \right) U(e_s - e_a)}{\Delta + \gamma (1 + 0.34 U)}$$

285 Variables included net incoming radiation (R_n), soil heat flux (G), mean daily temperature (T),
286 wind speed (U), and both saturation (e_s) and actual vapor pressure (e_a), as well as the
287 psychrometric constant (γ) and the slope of the vapor pressure curve (Δ). We quantified R_n and U
288 using monthly climatologies from the North American Land Data Assimilation System-2
289 (NALDAS-2; ~12-km resolution) that were based on measurements from 1980-2009 (Mitchell et
290 al., 2004). We derived G , T , e_s , and e_a from PRISM temperature data following Zotarelli et al.
291 (2010). We also computed CMI_{wy} based on ET_0 derived using the modified-Hargreaves
292 approach (Hargreaves and Samani, 1985; Droogers and Allen, 2002) and found that our analysis
293 was robust to differences in methods used to compute ET_0 (results not shown). After computing
294 CMI_{wy} , we then resampled these data using the nearest neighbor approach to match the
295 footprints of both the 1-km NPP and 250-m BIO remote sensing data sets.

296

297 2.2 Analysis

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298 We quantified the response of forest NPP, BIO, and CRT to changes in $CMI_{\overline{wy}}$ across both
299 WAORCA and the broader western US. We specifically focused on areas where $CMI_{\overline{wy}}$ was
300 between -200 and 200 $cm\ yr^{-1}$, conditions which occurred both in WAORCA and in the broader
301 region. This range encompassed 98% of forest area in the western US; the paucity of data in the
302 remaining 2% of forest area that was either drier or wetter precluded rigorous analysis. We
303 divided the landscape along this gradient into 10 $cm\ yr^{-1}$ non-overlapping bins and then
304 summarized forest characteristics in each bin by computing the median, along with the 10th, 25th,
305 75th and 90th percentiles. Forest characteristics were summarized separately for the field and
306 remote sensing data sets. There were a minimum of 10 and a maximum of 114 field sites in each
307 bin. We then assessed the association between the median forest characteristic (i.e., NPP, BIO,
308 and CRT) in each bin and $CMI_{\overline{wy}}$ across the ~~ee~~ecoclimatic~~bioclimatic~~ gradient using nonparametric
309 Spearman's rank correlation. This test yields a coefficient (r_s) between -1 and +1, where a value
310 of +1 indicates a perfect monotonically increasing relationship, a value of zero indicates no
311 covariation between the two variables, and a value of -1 indicates a perfect monotonically
312 decreasing relationship. The test is analogous to Pearson's correlation where the data have first
313 been ranked. We assessed the association between forest characteristics and $CMI_{\overline{wy}}$ using
314 Spearman's correlation rather than nonlinear regression because our intent was to describe the
315 general relationship rather than develop a predictive model. We performed data preprocessing,
316 analysis, and visualization using ArcGIS 10 (ESRI, Redlands, CA) and *R* statistical software (R
317 Core Team, 2015), relying ~~extensive~~extensively on the *R* packages *raster* (Hijmans and van
318 Etten, 2013) and *dplyr* (Wickham and Francois, 2015).

319

320 **2.3 — Uncertainty**

~~We minimize uncertainty in our analysis by incorporating satellite and field data sets, as well as by examining the sensitivity of CMI_{wy} to methods used to estimate ET_0 . Specifically, we characterized forest BIO using three satellite-derived maps and field inventories. We similarly characterized forest NPP using both satellite and field inventory data sets. This approach combines the strengths of spatially continuous satellite-based model output with the rigor of spatially limited, field-based inventory measurements. Additionally, we computed CMI_{wy} based on ET_0 derived using both the FAO-56 (Allen et al., 1998) and modified Hargreaves (Hargreaves and Samani, 1985; Droogers and Allen, 2002) methods. This comparison revealed that our results were robust to differences in methods (results not shown) and thus we focused on CMI_{wy} computed using the FAO-56 method.~~

331

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332 **3 Results**

333 Average annual ~~climatic~~ water availability varied widely across both WAORCA and the broader
334 western US from 1985-2014 (Fig. 1a, b). The CMI_{wy} ranged from ~~around -400~~a minimum of -
335 330 $cm\ yr^{-1}$ in southern California and Arizona to ~~over 400~~a maximum of 490 $cm\ yr^{-1}$ in the
336 ~~coastal mountain ranges~~Olympic Mountains in northwestern Washington ~~and Oregon~~. Forests
337 mapped by MODIS occurred in areas where CMI_{wy} was between -340 and 490 $cm\ yr^{-1}$, though
338 98% of forest area occurred between -200 and 200 $cm\ yr^{-1}$, and 72% occurred between -100 and
339 100 $cm\ yr^{-1}$. Average (± 1 SD) CMI_{wy} in forested areas was $-40 \pm 80\ cm\ yr^{-1}$. The Coast Range and
340 Cascade Mountains in Washington and Oregon were the wettest areas, with CMI_{wy} generally
341 $>100\ cm\ yr^{-1}$. Water availability decreased rapidly in the rain shadows east of the Cascades and

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342 Sierra Nevada, giving rise to very steep $CMI_{\overline{wy}}$ gradients. For instance, annual $CMI_{\overline{wy}}$ in northern
343 Oregon decreased nearly 350 cm over ~30 km between high-elevation forests in the Cascades
344 and low-elevation woodlands in the eastern foothills of the Cascades. The range in $CMI_{\overline{wy}}$
345 encountered along this gradient in the Cascades almost spanned the full range in $CMI_{\overline{wy}}$ that
346 supported 98% of forest area in the western US. Dry forests occurred along the low-elevation
347 margins of mountain ranges throughout continental areas, though the largest tract of dry forest
348 was found in Arizona and New Mexico.

349 Forest NPP, BIO, and BIO residence time varied substantially across both WAORCA and
350 the broader western US in response to variation in $CMI_{\overline{wy}}$ (Fig. 1, 2, Table 2). We focused on
351 forests in areas where $CMI_{\overline{wy}}$ was between -200 and 200 $cm\ yr^{-1}$ given the paucity of land and
352 measurements in the 2% of forest area that was either drier or wetter. Median NPP_{field} , BIO_{field} ,
353 and CRT_{field} all exhibited a strong, positive association with $CMI_{\overline{wy}}$ ($r_s=0.93-0.96$, $p<0.001$).
354 Median NPP_{field} increased 155% between the driest and wettest 5% of sites in WAORCA (Fig.
355 2a), while median BIO_{field} and CRT_{field} increased 997% and 358%, respectively, between these
356 sites (Fig. 2b, c; Table 2). The relationship in each case was slightly curvilinear. There were also
357 strong, positive relationships among median NPP_{field} , BIO_{field} , and CRT_{field} along the WAORCA
358 ~~ecoclimatic~~bioclimatic gradient ($r_s=0.90-0.96$, $p<0.001$).

359 Broadly similar patterns were evident when forest NPP_{sat} , BIO_{sat} , and CRT_{sat} were
360 examined across the western US using remote sensing data sets (Fig. 1b, c, d, 2c, d; Table 2).
361 Median NPP_{sat} , BIO_{sat} , and CRT_{sat} all showed a strong, positive relationship with $CMI_{\overline{wy}}$
362 ($r_s=0.93-0.99$; $p<0.001$). Median NPP_{sat} increased 97% between the driest and wettest 5% of
363 forested areas along the regional $CMI_{\overline{wy}}$ gradient (Fig. 2d, Table 2). Similarly, median BIO_{sat} and

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364 CRT_{sat} increased 410% and 160%, respectively, between the driest and wettest areas (Fig. 2e, f,
365 Table 2). The response of median NPP_{sat}, BIO_{sat}, and CRT_{sat} to increased CMI_{wy} was more
366 curvilinear than the ~~responses observed in the field measurements, with the satellite data sets~~
367 ~~plateauing and plateaued~~ in areas where ~~annual CMI_{wy} was above~~exceeded ~100 cm yr⁻¹.
368 Furthermore, while magnitude of NPP_{sat} and NPP_{field} response to CMI_{wy} were similar, the
369 magnitude of BIO_{sat} and CRT_{sat} responses to increased CMI_{wy} were much more muted than the
370 magnitude of response in BIO_{field} and CRT_{field}. ~~There~~Nevertheless, field- and satellite-derived
371 estimates of median NPP, BIO, and CRT were strongly correlated (r_s=0.90-0.95; p<0.001).
372 Furthermore, there were again strong relationships among median NPP_{sat}, BIO_{sat}, and CRT_{sat}
373 along the western US ~~eco~~climatic-bioclimatic gradient (r_s=0.93-0.97, p<0.001).

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375 4 Discussion and conclusions

376 4.1 Climate moisture index

377 ~~Climatic-water~~Water availability exerted a strong influence on NPP, BIO, and CRT among
378 mature forests in the western US. We chose to quantify ~~climate~~ water availability using an index
379 that accounted for both precipitation and energy-mediated ET₀, recognizing that both of these
380 factors contribute to the relative water stress experienced by plants within an ecosystem (~~Webb~~
381 ~~et al., 1983~~). We acknowledge that this index has several short-comings. For instance, the index
382 does not account for spatial variation in soil water storage capacity, which can be crucial for
383 determining plant performance during drought (Peterman et al., 2013). This might explain some
384 of the variation in NPP and BIO among areas with similar CMI_{wy}, however, quantifying soil

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385 water storage capacity even at individual sites is challenging given uncertainty in soil structure
386 and plant rooting capacity (~~Running, 1994~~)(Running, 1994). The index also does not account for
387 water added via fog drip, which has been shown to supply 13-45% of the water transpired by
388 redwood forests (*S. sempervirens*) (Dawson, 1998) and sustain other forest ecosystems along the
389 California coast (~~Fischer et al., 2016; Johnstone and Dawson, 2010~~)(Fischer et al.,
390 2016;Johnstone and Dawson, 2010). This potentially explains why there were areas with low
391 CMI_{wy} along the central and northern coast of California that supported forests with higher NPP
392 and BIO than other forests with similar CMI_{wy} . Furthermore, the index does not account for
393 spatial variation in runoff and thus likely overestimates water availability in the wettest areas
394 since the fraction of water lost as run-off increases with precipitation (Sanford and Selnick,
395 2013). Despite its relative simplicity, prior studies showed that CMI was a useful index for
396 explaining interannual variability in fire activity in the southwest US (Williams et al., 2014), as
397 well as forest productivity in northern Siberia (Berner et al., 2013), southern Canada (Hogg et al.,
398 2002), and central Oregon (Berner and Law, 2015). Several studies also found that the index, or
399 its inverse (i.e. $ET_0 - P$), explained substantial spatial variability in mature forest gross
400 photosynthesis (Law et al., 2002), productivity and biomass across a range of ecosystems
401 (Berner and Law, 2015;Webb et al., 1983;Hogg et al., 2008). Our current study further
402 demonstrates that CMI is a useful, empirical index for assessing climatic constraints on forest
403 ecosystems at large spatial scales.

404

405 4.2 Tree net primary productivity

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406 Median forest NPP in mature stands approximately doubled between the driest and wettest areas
407 in both WAORCA and the western US, though in both cases the rate at which NPP increased
408 with $CMI_{\overline{wy}}$ slowed in the wettest areas. Prior field studies conducted at a limited number of field
409 sites in the western US over the past four decades have similarly documented increased forest
410 NPP along spatial gradients of increasing water availability (Webb et al., 1983;Whittaker and
411 Niering, 1975;Gholz, 1982;Berner and Law, 2015). ~~Our~~Building on these prior efforts, our
412 current study demonstrates a robust relationship between mature forest NPP and~~climatic~~ water
413 availability using field measurements from nearly 2,000 inventory plots along with satellite
414 remote sensing ~~data sets~~estimates of NPP covering ~18 Mha ~~of forestland~~.

415 The NPP- $CMI_{\overline{wy}}$ relationship was similar when NPP was assessed using field
416 measurements from across WAORCA or using MODIS covering the western US,~~though~~
417 ~~MODIS showed NPP leveling off in the wettest areas ($CMI_{\overline{wy}} \approx 100-200 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$), whereas this~~
418 ~~was less evident in the field measurements. A recent remote sensing analysis of California used~~
419 ~~absorbed photosynthetically active radiation (APAR) derived from MODIS as an index of gross~~
420 ~~primary productivity and found that APAR increased asymptotically with increasing mean~~
421 ~~annual precipitation across vegetation communities. MODIS did show NPP leveling off in the~~
422 wettest parts of WAORCA ($CMI_{\overline{wy}} \approx 100-200 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$), whereas this was less evident in the field
423 measurements. The inventory sites and MODIS forestland occurred at similar elevations along
424 the $CMI_{\overline{wy}}$ gradient in WAORCA, suggesting that this discrepancy in NPP was not due to
425 MODIS systematically including cold, high-elevation areas not sampled by the inventory sites.
426 One possibility is that MODIS NPP did not increase in the wettest areas because MODIS
427 becomes less sensitive to increases in the fraction of photosynthetically-active radiation (FPAR)
428 absorbed by plant canopies in densely vegetated areas (Yan et al., 2016). A recent MODIS

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429 analysis similarly found that the amount of photosynthetically-active radiation absorbed by plant
430 canopies (APAR = FPAR x PAR) increased asymptotically with increasing mean annual
431 precipitation across plant communities in California (Jin and Goulden, 2014). Forests—
432 occupying the wettest areas and having the highest had higher APAR—than other plant
433 communities and, furthermore, exhibited the smallest increase in APAR per unit increase in
434 precipitation of any vegetationplant community—whether assessed along a spatial or a temporal
435 gradient, suggesting that forests wereforest productivity was less sensitive to changes in
436 precipitation than productivity of other vegetationplant communities (Jin and Goulden, 2014).
437 The lack ofIn contrast with the field measurements, the asymptotic response in our field
438 measurements together with the asymptotic response of both of MODIS NPP and APAR to
439 increasing water availability in wet areas suggests that climate impact assessments based on
440 MODIS could underestimate the sensitivity of NPPplant productivity to changes in water
441 availability in wet, densely forested area. areas with high biomass.

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442 Mechanistically, the strong $NPP-CMI_{wy}$ association reflects the coupling between carbon
443 and water cycling at leaf (Ball et al., 1987) to ecosystem scales (Law et al., 2002). Forest NPP
444 depends on regionally-specific relations with leaf area (Waring, 1983; Schroeder et al., 1982),
445 which largely determine the proportion of incoming solar radiation that is absorbed and thus
446 potentially available to fuel photosynthesis (Runyon et al., 1994). Leaf photosynthesis inevitably
447 leads to transpiration water loss (Ball et al., 1987) that must be balanced against water uptake
448 from the soil so as to prevent the formation of excessive tension on the internal water column
449 that could result in hydraulic failure (Ruehr et al., 2014; Williams et al., 1996). (Ruehr et al.,
450 2014; Williams et al., 1996). As soil water availability increases, trees are able to support greater
451 leaf area while maintaining water column tensions within physiologically operable ranges, which

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452 consequently leads to more photosynthate available to fuel NPP unless trees are limited by other
453 resources (e.g., nitrogen). The decreasing rate at which NPP increased with CMI_{wy} in the wettest
454 areas is likely due to low temperatures constraining productivity at high-elevations (~~Nakawatase~~
455 ~~and Peterson, 2006; Runyon et al., 1994~~) and heavy cloud-cover limiting solar radiation and thus
456 photosynthesis in coastal areas (Carroll et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2010). Forest NPP is affected by
457 many biotic (e.g., age) and abiotic factors (e.g., nutrients), yet ~~elimate~~ water availability emerges
458 as a key environmental constraint in the western US.

459

460 4.3 Tree carbon stocks

461 Mature forest BIO increased notably with increasing CMI_{wy} across both WAORCA and the
462 broader western US, reflecting underlying shifts in NPP and, likely, ~~tree~~BIO mortality rates due
463 to natural disturbance. BIO is determined by the rates at which carbon is gained via NPP and lost
464 due to tissue senescence and mortality integrated over annual to centennial time scales (~~Olson,~~
465 ~~1963~~;Olson, 1963). Hence, the increase in NPP with increasing CMI_{wy} explains some of the
466 concomitant increase in BIO. ~~We suspect that as conditions became wetter there was also a~~
467 ~~decline in the proportion of BIO lost to annual~~Our analysis did not investigate how tissue
468 senescence or mortality from natural disturbances. Several varied along the regional bioclimatic
469 gradient, though a recent ~~studies~~study found that ~~tree~~BIO mortality rates due to bark beetles and
470 fires were very low in the wettest parts of the western US (e.g., Coast Range and Cascades),
471 while considerably higher in most drier areas (~~Berner et al., in review; Hieke et al., 2013~~).
472 Furthermore, the field and satellite data sets also incidentally revealed there was an increase in
473 the median age of stands over 100 years as conditions became wetter, with median stand age

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474 ~140 years in the driest areas and 200-240 years in the wettest areas. The general increase in
475 mature forest BIO with increasing water availability is thus likely due to higher rates of
476 productivity and potentially lower ~~rates of BIO~~ mortality rates from natural disturbance.

477 The observed increase in mature forest BIO with increasing ~~climatic~~ water availability
478 was generally consistent with prior field studies from this region, yet our study demonstrates this
479 response over a much broader ~~eeclimatic~~bioclimatic gradient. For instance, early work by
480 ~~Whittaker and Niering (1975)~~ showed that mature forest BIO tended to increase with a moisture
481 index inferred from community composition along an elevational gradient in Arizona's Santa
482 Catalina Mountains. Subsequent studies focused on five LTER sites spread across the
483 conterminous US (~~Webb et al., 1983~~) and at (~~Webb et al., 1983~~) and at 8-12 sites in Oregon
484 (~~Berner and Law, 2015; Gholz, 1982~~) similarly showed a general increase in tree biomass with
485 increasing water availability. (~~Berner and Law, 2015; Gholz, 1982~~) similarly showed a general
486 increase in tree biomass with increasing water availability. Our study included sites that ranged
487 from dry woodlands with little BIO to temperate rainforests with BIO exceeded in few other
488 regions (e.g. max BIO $\approx 950 \text{ Mg C ha}^{-1}$). BIO in our study area has been reported to reach over
489 $2,000 \text{ Mg C ha}^{-1}$ in old-growth coastal redwood stands in northern California (Waring and
490 Franklin, 1979), which is thought to be exceeded only by the $>3,000 \text{ Mg C ha}^{-1}$ attained by old-
491 growth *Eucalyptus regnans* stands in southern Australia (Keith et al., 2009). A global synthesis
492 suggested that average AGB among high-biomass stands in wet temperate forests ($\sim 377 \text{ Mg C}$
493 ha^{-1}) was over twice that of high-biomass stands in wet tropical forests ($\sim 179 \text{ Mg C ha}^{-1}$) and
494 nearly six times that of high-biomass stands in wet boreal forests ($\sim 64 \text{ Mg C ha}^{-1}$) (Keith et al.,
495 2009). The range in mature forest BIO included in our analysis of WAORCA thus spanned much
496 of the observed global range in BIO.

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497 Both field and satellite measurements revealed that median BIO increased with CMI_{wy} ,
498 yet the satellite data set showed less of an increase than the field measurements. Median forest
499 BIO_{field} increased nearly 1,000% between the dry woodlands and coastal temperate rainforests in
500 WAORCA, yet the increase in BIO_{sat} with increasing CMI_{wy} was less pronounced (~~(~410%~~
501 increase) when assessed across the western US. Furthermore, median BIO_{sat} plateaued around
502 175 Mg C ha^{-1} in areas where CMI_{wy} was $\sim 100\text{-}200 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$. The response of BIO to increasing
503 CMI_{wy} was likely more muted when assessed using the satellite-derived maps than the field
504 measurements for several reasons. ~~Areas~~The maps are largely derived from optical, multi-
505 spectral satellite imagery that is not very sensitive to variation in BIO in high-biomass forests.
506 Additionally, areas with high BIO often occur as small patches set in a matrix of stands with
507 lower BIO (~~Spies et al., 1994~~) and thus the moderate-resolution satellite imagery used in
508 developing these maps records the spectral signature of this larger area rather than just the patch
509 with high BIO. In other words, the satellite imagery has a larger sampling footprint relative to
510 that of a field plot, which thus averages BIO over a larger area, reducing peak values.
511 ~~Additionally, the maps are largely derived from optical, multi-spectral satellite imagery that is~~
512 ~~not very sensitive to variation in BIO in high-biomass forests.~~ Advances in satellite remote
513 sensing, such as NASA's new Global Ecosystem Dynamics Investigation Lidar (GEDI)
514 instrument, are anticipated to help overcome some of these challenges (Goetz and Dubayah,
515 2011). Nevertheless, current BIO maps (~~e.g., Wilson et al., 2013; Kellndorfer et al., 2012~~) proved
516 a valuable tool for ecologic and natural resource assessments (Goetz et al., 2014; Krankina et al.,
517 2014; Berner et al., 2012).

518

519 **4.4 Carbon residence time in tree biomass**

520 ~~Median CRT_{field} increased persistently with CMI_{avg} from ~11 years in the driest forests to over 49~~
521 ~~years in the wettest forests, highlighting a fundamental change in ecosystem function along this~~
522 ~~broad ecoclimatic gradient. A prior study focused on 11 LTERs spread across the conterminous~~
523 ~~US found that CRT increased from ~2 years in a desert shrubland to ~73 years in 450 years old~~
524 ~~Douglas fir stand at the Andrews LTER in the Oregon Cascade Mountains (Webb et al., 1983).~~
525 ~~For comparison, we looked at five old-growth Douglas fir stands (336-555 years old) near the~~
526 ~~Andrews LTER and found that CRT averaged 79 ± 23 years ($\pm 1SD$) among these stands. An~~
527 ~~increase in the CRT of aboveground tissues was also observed among plant communities along~~
528 ~~an elevational moisture gradient in the Arizona Santa Catalina Mountains (Whittaker and~~
529 ~~Niering, 1975) and across nine mature stands in a range of forest types in Oregon (Gholz, 1982).~~
530 ~~Although this pattern has been documented in several instances, the underlying mechanisms~~
531 ~~remain unclear.~~

532 ~~We speculate that the increase in CRT with increased water availability was potentially~~
533 ~~associated with underlying changes in NPP allocation and BIO mortality rates. Trees invest a~~
534 ~~larger proportion of NPP into aboveground tissue production as conditions become wetter and~~
535 ~~competition for light intensifies (Runyon et al., 1994; Law et al., 2003). Our field measurements~~
536 ~~revealed that the fraction of NPP allocated aboveground increased from ~0.45 in the driest areas~~
537 ~~to ~0.64 in the wettest areas and, furthermore, that CRT in aboveground tissues averaged twice~~
538 ~~as long as the CRT in belowground tissues. Thus, a shift in NPP allocation toward longer-lived~~
539 ~~aboveground tissues likely contributed to the observed increase in CRT as conditions become~~
540 ~~wetter, as might changes in BIO mortality rates along this hydraulic gradient. Recent BIO~~

541 ~~mortality rates due to disturbance by wildfires and bark beetles tended to be considerably lower~~
542 ~~in the wettest parts of the western US than in drier parts of the region (Berner et al., in review).~~
543 ~~The incidental observation that mature stands tended to be older in the wetter areas is consistent~~
544 ~~with these areas experiencing lower mortality rates from natural disturbances. Our study~~
545 ~~demonstrates that CRT in live tree biomass was strongly influenced by water availability, yet~~
546 ~~additional efforts are needed to elucidate underlying mechanism affecting CRT, particularly~~
547 ~~given that CRT is a primary source of uncertainty in global vegetation model projections of~~
548 ~~future terrestrial carbon cycling (Friend et al., 2014).~~

550 **4.5 — Climate change implications**

551 ~~Forest NPP, BIO, and CRT in mature stands increased with CMI_{dry} across WAORCA and the~~
552 ~~broader western US, underscoring that climatic water availability is a major abiotic constraint on~~
553 ~~several key aspects of ecosystem structure and function in forests ranging from dry woodlands~~
554 ~~to coastal temperate rainforests. What do these findings mean in the context of regional climate~~
555 ~~change? Although future changes in precipitation are uncertain, climate models widely project~~
556 ~~extensive regional warming over the coming century in response to high rates of greenhouse gas~~
557 ~~emissions, which could lead to drier conditions as higher temperatures increase atmospheric~~
558 ~~evaporation demand (Walsh et al., 2014; Collins et al., 2013; Dai, 2013). For instance, simulations~~
559 ~~based on the sophisticated Variable Infiltration Capacity (VIC) hydraulic model and a high-~~
560 ~~emission scenario (A2) suggest that soil moisture could decline ~1-15% in many parts of the~~
561 ~~region by the end of the 21st century, with drying particularly acute in the Southwest (Walsh et~~
562 ~~al., 2014). Similarly, a large ensemble of climate models indicate that soil moisture could decline~~

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563 ~~3–12% throughout the region over this century (Dai, 2013). In fact, projections of regional drying~~
564 ~~are widespread, particularly for the Southwest (e.g., Williams et al., 2012; Schwalm et al.,~~
565 ~~2012; Burke et al., 2006; Seager and Vecchi, 2010; Dai, 2011; Collins et al., 2013).~~
566 ~~Increased atmospheric CO₂ and warming in the Northwest could enhance tree productivity in~~
567 ~~some areas by (1) increasing water use efficiency (WUE) through CO₂ fertilization and (2)~~
568 ~~enhancing spring photosynthesis.~~ We computed CRT as BIO/NPP and found that median CRT_{field}
569 increased persistently with CMI_{wy} from ~11 years in the driest forests to over 49 years in the
570 wettest forests, highlighting a fundamental change in ecosystem function along this broad
571 bioclimatic gradient. One limitation of our study is that computing CRT in this manner assumes
572 that BIO is constant over time (Friend et al., 2014). We focused on mature stands (>100 years) to
573 minimize the change in BIO over time, though acknowledge that BIO can gradually increase
574 during subsequent centuries (Hudiburg et al., 2009), which would lead us to underestimated
575 CRT. Conversely, drought and insect-induced defoliation in the early 2000s could have
576 suppressed NPP (Bernier and Law, 2015; Schwalm et al., 2012) without a proportional reduction
577 in BIO, which could have inflated our estimates of CRT in some areas. Nevertheless, our results
578 agree well with a prior study focused on 11 LTERs spread across the conterminous US that
579 found CRT increased from ~2 years in a desert shrubland to ~73 years in 450-year old Douglas-
580 fir stand at the Andrews LTER in the Oregon Cascade Mountains (Webb et al., 1983). For
581 comparison, we looked at five old-growth Douglas-fir stands (336–555 years old) near the
582 Andrews LTER and found that CRT_{field} averaged 79±23 years (± 1SD) among these stands. An
583 increase in the CRT of aboveground tissues was also observed among plant communities along
584 an elevational moisture gradient in the Santa Catalina Mountains of Arizona (Whittaker and
585 Niering, 1975) and across nine mature stands in a range of forest communities in Oregon (Gholz,

1982). Although this pattern has been previously documented at small scales, the underlying mechanisms remain unclear.

We speculate that the increase in CRT with increased water availability was associated with underlying changes in NPP allocation, BIO mortality rates, and stand age. Trees invest a larger proportion of NPP into aboveground tissue production as conditions become wetter and competition for light intensifies (Runyon et al., 1994; Law et al., 2003). Our field measurements revealed that the fraction of NPP allocated aboveground increased from ~0.45 in the driest areas to ~0.64 in the wettest areas and, furthermore, that CRT in aboveground tissues averaged twice as long as CRT in belowground tissues. Thus, a shift in NPP allocation toward longer-lived aboveground tissues likely contributed to longer CRT in wetter areas. Longer CRT in wetter areas could also be related to forests in these areas (e.g., Coast Range) experiencing lower BIO mortality rates from wildfire and bark beetles than forests in drier, continental areas (Hicke et al., 2013). We also found that mature stands tended to be older in wetter areas and that older stands tended to have longer CRT, likely as a result of these stands having higher BIO and similar NPP (Hudiburg et al., 2009). Consequently, the CRT-CMI_{wy} relationships that we observed incorporate an age-related effect; however, the effect was quite small relative to the climate-effect. This can be illustrated by comparing median CRT between mature (100-200 years) and old (>200 years) stands occupying very dry (CMI_{wy} < -100 cm yr⁻¹) and very wet (CMI_{wy} > 100 cm yr⁻¹) areas. Median CRT differed by 6% (16 vs. 17 years) between mature and old stands in very dry areas and by 10% (47 vs. 52 years) in very wet areas. Conversely, median CRT of mature stands differed 98% (16 vs. 47 years) between very dry and very wet areas, while the median CRT of old stands differed 101% (52 vs. 17 years) between very dry and very wet areas. In other words, the difference in CRT between stands in contrasting climates is much greater

609 than difference in CRT between mature and old stands within a climate zone. Our study
610 demonstrates that CRT in live tree biomass was strongly influenced by water availability, yet
611 additional efforts are needed to determine the underlying mechanism by which changes in water
612 availability affect CRT, particularly given that CRT is a primary source of uncertainty in global
613 vegetation model projections of future terrestrial carbon cycling (Friend et al., 2014).

615 4.5 Predicting ecosystem response to environmental change

616 Water availability is projected to decline in much of the western US over the coming
617 century, in part due to higher temperatures increasing atmospheric evaporative demand (Walsh et
618 al., 2014; Dai, 2013; Cook et al., 2015). ~~On the other hand, many tree species have narrow~~
619 hydraulic safety margins (Choat et al., 2012) and warming induced declines in tree growth have
620 occurred in other regions despite increased WUE (Andreu-Hayles et al., 2011; Peñuelas et al.,
621 2011; Lévesque et al., 2014). It is unlikely that increased WUE and other physiological
622 adjustments will fully compensate for impacts of rapid future warming on tree physiology (Allen
623 et al., 2015), especially in the Southwest where hotter and drier conditions are already
624 suppressing tree productivity and increasing tree mortality in some areas (Dennison et al.,
625 2014; Creedon et al., 2014; Williams et al., 2012; Anderegg et al., 2015; McDowell et al., 2015).
626 The strong NPP $CMI_{w,y}$, BIO $CMI_{w,y}$, and CRT $CMI_{w,y}$ associations that we observed in the
627 western US suggest that future reductions in water availability will likely reduce NPP, BIO, and
628 CRT in mature forests, particularly those in the driest areas.

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630 . Predicting the timing, magnitude and extent of ecological response to regional climate change
631 remains a challenge. Our study showed that water availability is a key determinant of forest
632 structure and function in the western US, broadly suggesting that chronic reductions in regional
633 water availability could reduce the NPP, BIO, and CRT of mature stands. Nevertheless, it is
634 problematic to predict the temporal response of extant forest communities to near-term climatic
635 change based on bioclimatic relationships derived from spatial data. For instance, recent studies
636 found that the slope of the NPP-precipitation relationship was much steeper when derived from
637 spatial data than when derived from the temporal response of NPP to interannual variation in
638 precipitation (Wilcox et al., 2016; Jin and Goulden, 2014). Near-term effects of climate
639 variability depend on the physiological characteristics of species in the extant plant community,
640 yet bioclimatic relationships derived from spatial data reflect gradual adjustment of community
641 composition and population size to climate over long periods of time (Wilcox et al., 2016; Jin and
642 Goulden, 2014). Furthermore, bioclimatic models derived from spatial data cannot account for
643 other ecophysiological impacts of environmental change, such as (1) enhanced plant water use
644 efficiency from CO₂ fertilization (Soulé and Knapp, 2015); (2) increased likelihood of tree
645 mortality due to hotter drought (Adams et al., 2009); or (3) novel changes in disturbance regimes
646 (Hicke et al., 2006; Dale et al., 2001). Consequently, predicting ecological response to
647 environmental change over the coming century will require the use of mechanistic ecosystem
648 models that account for physiologic, demographic, and disturbance processes at fine taxonomic
649 and spatial scales (Law, 2014; Hudiburg et al., 2013). Although spatial models may not be
650 suitable for near-term projection of ecosystems change, they do provide insight into long-term
651 ecosystem adaptation to local climate and, furthermore, can be used to validate and refine
652 mechanistic models if constructed from a representative sample of forestlands.

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654 **4.6 ~~Conclusions~~Summary and conclusions**

655 ~~Forests in~~Water availability varies widely across the western US, giving rise to forests that range
656 from dry, low-biomass woodlands to temperate rainforests, ~~an ecological gradient that nearly~~
657 ~~spans the global range in tree biomass and that largely reflects spatial variation in climatic water~~
658 ~~availability.~~ that are among highest biomass forests found anywhere in the world. In this study,
659 we quantified changes in tree productivity, live biomass, and carbon residence time along spatial
660 gradients in ~~climatic~~-water availability using field inventory measurements from WAORCA and
661 satellite remote sensing data sets spanning the western US. Our multi-method, multi-scale
662 analysis revealed that tree productivity, live biomass, and carbon residence time all increased
663 notably with ~~climatic~~-water availability, which ~~was~~we computed using an index that accounted
664 for both precipitation and reference evapotranspiration. The observed increase in productivity
665 was likely due to the close coupling between carbon and water cycling at leaf to ecosystem
666 scales, while the observed increase in live biomass was ~~likely due to the increased~~associated with
667 higher productivity and longer carbon residence. The increase in carbon residence time in wetter
668 areas was linked with greater carbon allocation to long-lived aboveground tissues, older stand
669 age, along with a decreased proportion of live and, possibly, lower biomass lost to annual
670 mortality. ~~Forest rates from natural disturbance (e.g., bark beetles, fires).~~ Tree productivity and
671 biomass derived from field- and satellite-measurements exhibited ~~broadly~~-similar ~~sensitivities to~~
672 ~~changes in climatic~~responses to increasing water availability, though the satellite data sets tended
673 to plateau in the wettest areas, suggesting that additional efforts are needed to better quantify
674 productivity and biomass from satellites in high-productivity, high-biomass forests. The

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675 pronounced increase in ~~carbon residence time with increasing tree productivity, biomass, and~~
676 carbon residence time between the driest and wettest areas illustrates the gradual adjustment of
677 ecosystem structure and function to long-term variation in water availability~~suggests that efforts~~
678 to increase terrestrial carbon storage as a tool; however, the observed bioclimatic relationships
679 are not suitable for near-term projections of future ecosystem response to combat climate regional
680 drying. Predicting near-term ecosystem response to drying and other environmental change (e.g.,
681 increased CO₂) will be most effective in the wettest areas. Furthermore, the observed change in
682 carbon residence time could provide a benchmark for evaluating the performance of global
683 vegetation require mechanistic ecosystem models, in which carbon residence time is a principle
684 source of uncertainty in future projections of the global carbon cycle.~~can be evaluated against~~
685 bioclimatic relationships developed using inventory sites from a representative sample of
686 forestlands (e.g., Forest Service inventory sites). Overall, our results indicate that water
687 availability is a key determinant of tree productivity, live biomass, and carbon residence time in
688 mature stands~~are widely sensitive to changes in climatic water availability in the western US,~~
689 suggesting that ranging from dry woodlands to coastal temperate rainforests. Future efforts are
690 needed to anticipate and mitigate the impacts of projected warming and drying over on forest
691 ecosystems in the western US and elsewhere around the coming century due to business as usual
692 greenhouse gas emissions could have important impacts on ecosystem structure, function, and
693 services in many parts of this region.~~world.~~

694

695 **Author contributions**

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696 L.T.B. designed the study, analyzed the data, and prepared the manuscript with contributions
697 from B.E.L. and T.W.H., who both also contributed data sets to this effort.

698

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1011 **Tables**

1012 Table 1. Summary of tree net primary productivity (NPP; Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), live biomass (BIO; Mg C ha⁻¹),
1013 and carbon residence time (CRT; year) for stands over 100 years old across both WAORCA and the
1014 broader western US. These forest characteristics were quantified for WAORCA using field measurements
1015 from 1,953 sites and for the western US using satellite-derived data sets covering 18 Mha of mature
1016 forest. Satellite data sets included MODIS NPP and an estimate of BIO derived by combining existing
1017 maps of aboveground biomass with additional estimates of carbon storage in coarse root, fine roots, and
1018 foliage. ~~CRT describes the average duration, in years, that a molecule of carbon will remain in live tree~~
1019 ~~biomass and was computed as CRT = BIO/NPP. It is also known as the biomass accumulation ratio.~~ These
1020 carbon stocks and fluxes combine above- and below-ground components.

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Domain	Variable	Units	Time span	Mean (SD)	Range
WAORCA	NPP _{field}	Mg C ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	2001-2006	4.3 (2.5)	0.6 – 20.9
	BIO _{field}	Mg C ha ⁻¹	2001-2006	158 (135)	2 – 947

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Western US	CRT _{field}	year	2001-2006	33 (19)	2 – 137
	NPP _{sat}	Mg C ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	2000-2014	5.3 (2.0)	0.1 – 227
	BIO _{sat}	Mg C ha ⁻¹	2000-2008	83 (54)	2 – 669
	CRT _{sat}	year	2000-2008	15 (9)	2 – 1390

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1033 Table 2. Changes in tree net primary productivity (NPP; Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), live biomass (BIO; Mg
 1034 C ha⁻¹), and carbon residence time (CRT; year) for stands over 100 years old along gradients in a
 1035 climate moisture index (CMI_{wy}; cm yr⁻¹) in both WAORCA and the broader western US. Forest
 1036 characteristics were quantified using field measurements in WAORCA and satellite remote
 1037 sensing data sets covering the western US. The analysis incorporated forests in areas where
 1038 CMI_{wy} was between -200 cm yr⁻¹ and 200 cm yr⁻¹. Summaries include (1) median forest
 1039 characteristic in the driest 5% and wettest 95% of sites/pixels; (2) the corresponding change; (3)
 1040 and ~~the Spearman~~ Spearman's correlation (r_s) between CMI_{wy} and the median forest
 1041 characteristic computed at 10 cm yr⁻¹ CMI_{wy} intervals. All correlations were statistically
 1042 significant at $\alpha < 0.001$.

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Domain	Variable	Units	Median of...		Change...		CMI _{wy} cor. r _s
			Driest 5%	Wettest 95%	Abs.	%	
WAORCA	NPP _{field}	Mg C ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	2.2	5.6	3.4	155	0.93
	BIO _{field}	Mg C ha ⁻¹	26	281	255	997	0.96
	CRT _{field}	year	11	49	38	358	0.96
Western US	NPP _{sat}	Mg C ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	3.4	6.7	3.3	97	0.93
	BIO _{sat}	Mg C ha ⁻¹	32	165	133	410	0.97
	CRT _{sat}	year	10	26	16	160	0.99

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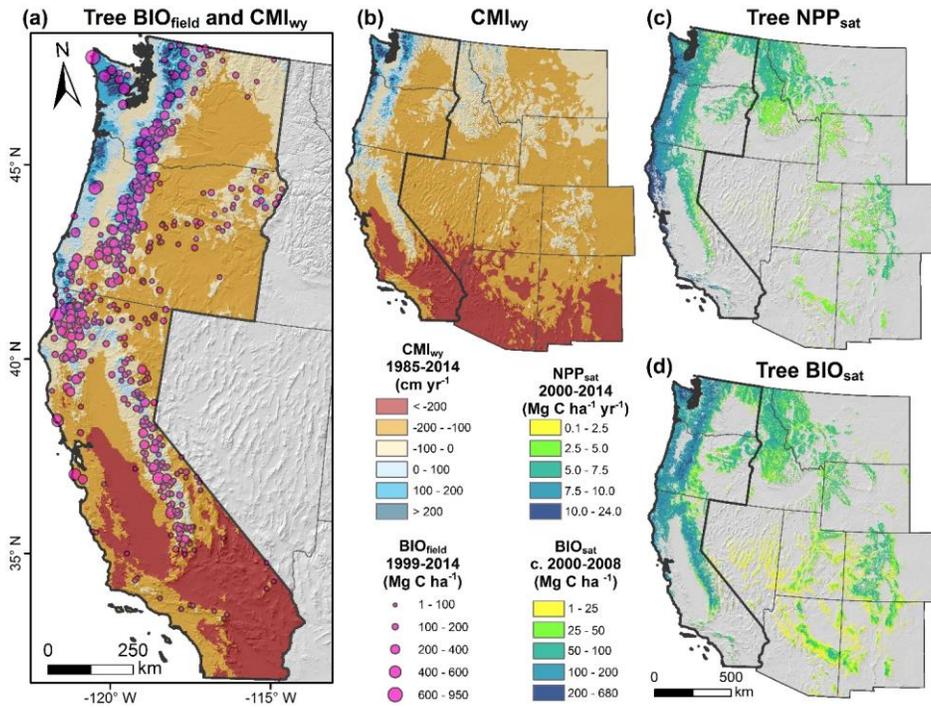
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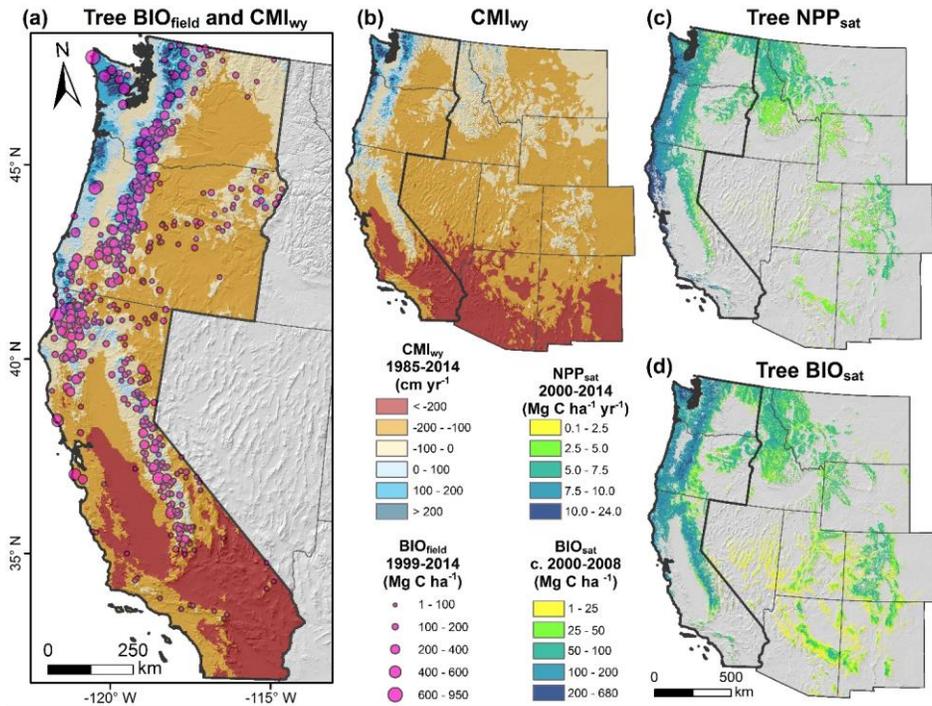
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Figures

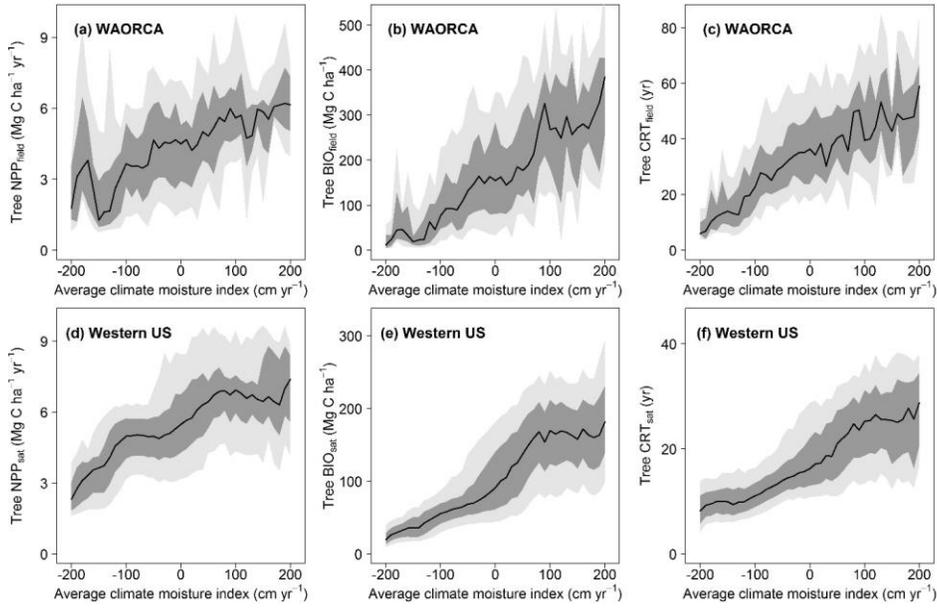


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 1058 Figure 1. Mean climatic moisture index (CMI_{wy} ; $cm\ yr^{-1}$), tree net primary productivity (NPP;
 1059 $Mg\ C\ ha^{-1}\ yr^{-1}$), and live tree biomass (BIO; $Mg\ C\ ha^{-1}$) in the western US. (a) BIO derived from
 1060 field measurements (BIO_{field}) at mature sites (>100 years) in WAORCA. For visual clarity only
 1061 20% of the 1,953 sites are depicted. (b) CMI_{wy} was computed as monthly precipitation minus
 1062 reference evapotranspiration summed over the annual water year (October-September) and then
 1063 averaged from 1985-2014. (c) Mean annual NPP was quantified using MODIS satellite data from
 1064 2000-2014 (NPP_{sat}). (d) BIO was quantified using satellite-derived estimates of carbon stocks
 1065 (BIO_{sat}).

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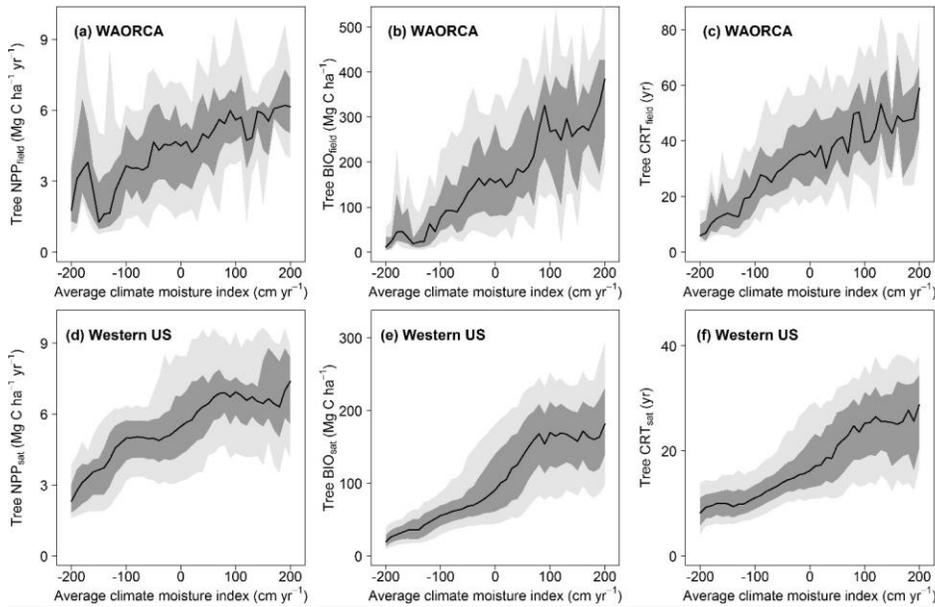
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Figure 2. Tree net primary productivity (NPP; Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), live biomass (BIO; Mg C ha⁻¹), and carbon residence time (CRT; years) increased with increasing ~~climatic~~ water availability across both WAORCA (a-c) and the broader western US (d-f). Forest characteristics were derived from field measurements on 1,953 inventory plots in WAORCA (a-c) and from satellite remote sensing data sets across 18 Mha of mature forest in the western US (d-f). NPP_{sat} was characterized using MODIS data averaged ~~annual~~annually from 2000 to 2014. BIO_{sat} was quantified based on an ensemble of aboveground biomass maps plus estimates of coarse root, fine root, and foliage biomass. CRT was computed for each field plot and pixel as BIO / NPP. Water availability was quantified using a climate moisture index (CMI= P-ET₀) summed over the water year (October-September) and then averaged from 1985-2014 (CMI_{wy}). The region was partitioned into 10 cm yr⁻¹ (non-overlapping) CMI_{wy} bins, pixels/plots were allocated to

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1081 bins, and then forest characteristics were summarized within each bin. In each panel, the bold
1082 line denotes the median, dark gray band the 25-75th percentiles, and light gray band the 10-90th
1083 percentiles. Note the different y-axis scales between (b) and (e), as well as (c) and (f).

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