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University College Cork, Ireland Coláiste na hOllscoile Corcaigh

1	Title:
2	A meta-analysis of the interactive effects of UV and drought on plants
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5	Running title:
6	A meta-analysis of UV and drought effects
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22	Abstract
23	Interactions between climate change and UV penetration in the biosphere are resulting
24	in exposure of plants to new combinations of UV radiation and drought. In theory, impacts
25	of combinations of UV and drought may be additive, synergistic or antagonistic. Lack of
26	understanding of impacts of combined treatments creates substantial uncertainties that
27	hamper predictions of future ecological change. Here, we compiled information from 52
28	publications and analysed relative impacts of UV and/or drought. Both UV and drought
29	have substantial negative effects on biomass accumulation, plant height, photosynthesis,
30	leaf area, and stomatal conductance and transpiration, while increasing stress associated
31	symptoms such as malondialdehyde accumulation, and reactive-oxygen-species content.
32	Contents of proline, flavonoids, antioxidants, and anthocyanins, associated with plant
33	acclimation, are upregulated, both under enhanced UV and drought. In plants exposed to

both UV and drought, increases in plant defence responses are less-than-additive, and so
are the damage and growth retardation. Less-than-additive effects were observed across
field, glasshouse and growth-chamber studies, indicating similar physiological response
mechanisms. Induction of a degree of cross-resistance seems the most likely
interpretation of the observed less-than-additive responses. The data show that in future
climates, the impacts of increases in drought exposure may be lessened by naturally high
UV regimes.

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42 Keywords

- 43 Drought, UV, stress, cross-resistance, additive effect, synergistic effect
- 44

45 Introduction

Awareness that stratospheric ozone concentrations were decreasing as a result of human 46 activities, triggered a substantial research effort in the 1980's, aimed at understanding 47 the impacts of ambient (and enhanced) UV-B radiation doses on microorganisms, algae, 48 plants, animals, and human health (Farman et al., 1985; Stapleton, 1992). Some (but not 49 all, e.g. Barnes *et al.*, 1996) early UV studies indicated severe, damaging impacts of UV-B 50 (280-315 nm) radiation on plants (Tevini et al., 1989; Tevini & Teramura, 1989). Many of 51 these effects were found to depend not just on the UV dosage, but also the spectral 52 balance, i.e. the distribution of UV-B wavelengths, as well as the background of UV-A and 53 photosynthetically active radiation (Aphalo & Albert, 2012). Relatively little work was 54 done on characterising impacts of UV-A radiation (315-400 nm), as these longer 55 56 wavelengths are not affected by stratospheric ozone layer depletion (Middleton & Teramura, 1994; Verdaguer et al., 2017). However, more recent studies have 57 contradicted some of the findings of early UV-B studies, and emphasise that UV-radiation 58 is predominantly an environmental regulator that modulates plant growth and 59 developmental processes via a dedicated UV-B photoreceptor (Bornman et al., 2019). UV-60 mediated damage is now considered a relatively rare event in plants that are grown 61 under otherwise favourable conditions. Notwithstanding these advances in 62 understanding, UV-B radiation is still an important player in plant stress biology as this 63 type of radiation has been hypothesised to either diminish or aggravate the stress effects 64 caused by exposure to other stressors. This particular point has been emphasised in the 65 most recent UNEP-EEAP (United Nations Environment Programme – Environmental 66 67 Effects Assessment Panel) report (Bornman et al., 2019) which highlights potential interactive effects of UV radiation and climate change factors (i.e. heat, drought, and CO₂). 68 Interactions between climate change and stratospheric ozone depletion can occur at 69 multiple levels. For example, stratospheric ozone depletion has been shown to alter the 70 71 climate in the southern hemisphere (Bais *et al.*, 2019). Conversely, climate change can affect stratospheric ozone depletion by altering the temperature dynamics between the 72 73 stratosphere and troposphere (Arblaster *et al.*, 2014). These interactions will ultimately impact on UV-B penetration in to the biosphere. Climate change is also contributing to 74 changes in UV radiation in the biosphere through impacts on cloud patterns, aerosols and 75 surface reflectivity and these impacts will affect both UV-B and UV-A wavelengths (e.g. 76 Lubin & Frederick, 1991). For example, due to reduced cloudiness, areas such as the 77

Mediterranean are expected to be exposed to increasing intensities of UV, as well as
aggravated periods of drought (Sanchez-Lorenzo *et al.*, 2017). Thus, it is predicted that
plants will be exposed to new combinations of climate and UV radiation (Bornman *et al.*,
2019), with largely unknown consequences for organisms and ecosystems.

Drought and UV-B both exert complex, multidimensional stress and stress acclimation 82 responses that include molecular, biochemical, physiological, morphological and 83 organismal aspects (Jansen *et al.*, 2019). In theory, exposure of a plant to both a climate 84 change factor and UV-B can result in additive, synergistic, or antagonistic impacts 85 (Sullivan & Teramura, 1990; Bandurska & Cieślak, 2013). In one of the earliest studies on 86 the interactive effects of drought and UV-B, Sullivan and Teramura (1990) demonstrated 87 that supplemental UV-B had no significant effect on soybean (*Glycine max*) grown under 88 89 drought-stress conditions. As UV exerted a substantial negative effect on well-watered 90 plants, it was hypothesised that UV-B effects were avoided by a suite of anatomical, biochemical and physiological acclimation responses induced by drought. Such 91 observations are of considerable interest in the context of plant performance in future 92 climates (Bornman et al., 2019), and can also inform plant priming approaches. Other 93 studies have also shown that UV-B can diminish the impact of abiotic stressors such as 94 95 drought and heat by boosting plant resistance. For example, ambient UV-B radiation improved drought-resilience of silver birch (Betula pendula) saplings which were 96 97 simultaneously exposed to UV and drought (Robson *et al.*, 2015). In such a scenario, it is thought that UV-B induces a degree of cross-protection by inducing a suite of acclimation 98 responses. The mechanisms underlying such putative cross-resistance are not 99 100 necessarily fully understood, but a study by Rodríguez-Calzada et al. (2019) showed a synergistic increase in some glycosylated phenolic compounds with antioxidant activity, 101 102 when plants were exposed to UV and subsequently to drought. These observations have direct environmental relevance as seasonal droughts are commonly associated with, or 103 trail, periods of sunny weather and thus exposure to high UV radiation (Robson et al., 104 2015; Jansen et al., 2019). 105

106 Cross-resistance relates to the scenario whereby acclimation following exposure to one 107 environmental factor does result in a degree of protection against another factor (Jansen 108 *et al.* 2019). This may relate to a particular acclimation response yielding protection 109 against multiple environmental factors. For example, both drought and UV-B can induce 110 decreases in leaf area and stomatal gas exchange, and increases in leaf and cuticle

thickness. Also, both UV-B and drought can enhance concentrations of antioxidants, 111 flavonoids and a range of other secondary metabolites such as proline and volatile 112 terpenes (Alonso et al., 2015). Therefore, it is conceivable that UV induced responses 113 offer cross-protection against drought, and *vice versa*. An alternative scenario refers to 114 "cross-talk", a potential exchange of information between shared plant-signalling 115 pathways. For example, UV induced changes in the concentration of the hormone abscisic 116 117 acid can potentially trigger enhanced resistance to drought, extreme temperatures, and salinity (Pastori & Foyer, 2002). 118

In contrast to observed cross-resistance, some studies have shown that UV-B radiation increases the susceptibility of plants. For example, Bandurska *et al.* (2012) showed that spring barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) leaves exposed to a combination of UV and drought contained synergistically enhanced concentrations of stress-associated malondialdehyde (MDA), compared to the low MDA concentrations measured in leaves exposed to just UV or drought. These data suggest that plant defences can be overwhelmed by the combined exposure of UV and drought.

A key factor responsible for the seemingly contradictory interactive effects of UV and 126 drought is the applied dose of the two environmental factors. Stress-dose-response 127 128 curves are, by-and-large, unknown, and this applies especially to UV. Typically, a doseresponse curve comprises a eustress phase where acclimation dominates, and a distress 129 phase during which cellular damage is prevalent (Jansen *et al.*, 2019). Thus, it can be 130 speculated that when doses of the two combined environmental factors (i.e. UV and 131 drought) are low, acclimation responses will dominate. Conversely, where higher doses 132 of two environmental factors are used, protective capacity may be overwhelmed and 133 deleterious effects prevail. Yet, this speculation underestimates the complexity of the 134 responses of plants exposed to two simultaneously applied environmental change 135 factors. This aspect was well captured by Mittler *et al.* (2006) who postulated that any 136 interaction between two stressors creates effectively a new stressor. 137

Meta-analyses summarize data from multiple scientific studies allowing the identification of patterns or distinct relationships that would be unnoticed from individual studies. This meta-analysis study aimed to develop a more holistic insight into responses of plants exposed to combinations of drought and UV. Specifically, we asked the question whether there are interactive effects of UV and drought on overall growth, plant physiology, and protective mechanisms, and if so, whether these effects were antagonistic, additive or

even synergistic. For the purpose of this meta-analysis, drought refers to a temporal 144 shortage of water that is available to the plant, and which will decrease plant growth. UV 145 radiation includes both UV-B and UV-A wavelengths, in variable proportions. By 146 integrating different studies in one meta-analysis new insights in dose-response 147 relationships will be acquired, including how these relationships cause cross-resistance 148 or cross-sensitivity. Thus, this study will contribute to better understanding of plant 149 responses to complex environmental conditions, a key determinant of successful 150 modelling forecasts of future climate change impacts. 151

152 153

154 Materials and Methods

The search of the peer-reviewed literature centred on studies that explored the effects of 155 UV, drought, and the combination of UV and drought on growth, physiological and/or 156 biochemical parameters. The relevant literature was systematically searched using the 157 on-line scientific database Scopus. An additional search for peer-reviewed literature was 158 performed using Google Scholar. All searches were completed in February 2019. The 159 principle search terms used to identify relevant publications were "drought AND UV*". 160 Additionally, the citation-lists of identified publications were inspected for further 161 relevant papers. Identified papers were screened for the quality of the information. In 162 particular, it was assessed whether separate as well as combined impacts of drought and 163 UV were documented. Excluded were studies using UV-C lamps, studies using UV-B lamps 164 where radiation with a wavelength shorter than 280 nm was not effectively filtered out, 165 studies where controls comprised plant material taken prior to the actual UV and drought 166 treatments, and studies where responses were not measured on leaves or stems but, for 167 example, on berries. Also excluded were studies in which confounding factors were likely 168 to affect data, for example a comparison of UV effects in wetter and drier locations. 169 Finally, where very few papers reported a particular plant response, this response was 170 excluded as it could not be subjected to meta-analysis criteria of minimal number of cases. 171 172 This applies, amongst others, to measurements of plant hormones, reproduction, water use efficiency, and leaf number. 173

For the purpose of this meta-analysis, controls in the case of supplementary UV exposure
were either plants kept under energized UV tubes wrapped in polyester type film, plants
under non-energized UV tubes, or plants not covered by UV tubes. Many published UV-B

exposure studies involve exposure to additional UV-A wavelengths emitted by UV-B
emitting sources (Aphalo & Albert, 2012). Similarly, many commonly used UV-filters do
not achieve a clean separation of UV-B and UV-A wavelengths (Aphalo & Albert, 2012).
For the purpose of this study, such studies were included, and results are presented as
generic effects of UV-B plus UV-A wavelengths.

Large discrepancies were identified in the quantification and characterisation of UV 182 doses and spectra. Furthermore, only a fraction of the published papers on interactive 183 effects of UV and drought reported biologically weighted UV doses. Similarly, different 184 methods were used to impose and quantify drought. This precludes direct quantitative 185 comparisons of impact as a function of UV or drought dose. Therefore, the biological 186 impact on plant parameters was used as a proxy for the intensity of drought and UV 187 188 radiation. Most studies imposed drought by withholding water. However, for the purpose of this meta-analysis, we included studies (six in total) in which polyethyleneglycol (PEG) 189 was used as a drought-proxy (see Supplemental table 1). In most studies, the untreated 190 plants represent the control. However, in some outdoor experiments plants experienced 191 natural drought conditions. In these cases, watered plants were taken as the control, 192 while untreated plants represent the drought treatment. Similarly, in UV 193 194 supplementation studies, the untreated plants represent the control. Conversely, in outdoor exclusion studies, the UV-shielded plants were treated as the control, while 195 plants experiencing ambient UV were considered as UV-treatments. 196

It was identified that some publications reported on more than one plant species, cultivar, 197 or plant developmental stage. In such cases, the results obtained with each species, 198 199 cultivar or developmental stage were treated as a separate "experiment". Thus, separate experiments presented in the meta-analysis are not necessarily fully independent. No 200 single publication presented more than four "experiments". Similarly, no single 201 experiment presented more than two entries for any individual parameter, except for the 202 parameter "flavonoid contents", where some experiments presented three entries. To 203 ascertain whether this may impact on the outcomes of the meta-analysis, additional 204 205 analyses were performed whereby duplicate (or triplicate) entries were removed from the "antioxidant" and "biomass" datasets (Supplemental table 3). This had no effect on 206 the outcomes of the analysis. 207

In nearly all identified studies, plants were simultaneously exposed to UV and drought (i.e. "parallel" exposure). A total of six studies represent sequential exposure where plants were typically first exposed to UV, and later to a combination of UV and drought.
Just one study involves priming with drought, followed by parallel exposure to a
combination of UV and drought. These studies are marked accordingly in Supplemental
table 1.

Papers included in this meta-analysis present impacts of UV and/or drought on a broad range of parameters. To facilitate meta-analysis, these variables were grouped into two major categories; (1) Plant acclimation responses, and (2) Plant stress responses. Within each category, related parameters were grouped as variables. The following two categories and 17 variables were constituted:

219 Plant acclimation responses

1. Proline content (Prol) including data on concentrations of proline, and free proline

Flavonoid contents (Flavs) including data on concentrations of total flavonoids
 determined spectrophotometrically in methanolic extracts, phenolic acids
 determined using the Folin-Ciocalteau method, total quercetin, total myricetin,
 and overall UV-absorbing pigments determined spectrophotometrically or using
 the Dualex leaf clip sensor

- Antioxidant capacity (Antio) including data on SOD enzyme content or activity,
 peroxidase enzyme content or activity, glutathione reductase enzyme or activity,
 ascorbate-dehydroascorbate ratio, trolox-equivalent antioxidant capacity (TEAC),
 Ferric Reducing Antioxidant Potential(FRAP)
- 4. Anthocyanin content (Anth) including data on concentrations of anthocyanin
- 5. Carotenoid content (Cars) including data on concentrations of total carotenoids
- 6. Leaf area (LA) including data on individual leaf area and total leaf area
- 233 7. Leaf mass to area ratio (LMA) including data on specific leaf area (SLA = 1/LMA),
 234 and leaf thickness
- 8. Height (H) including data on stem length, plant height, and inflorescence height in
 Arabidopsis
- 237 9. Root/shoot-ratio (R/S) including data on root-to-shoot ratio and the inverse of
 238 shoot-to-root ratio
- 239 Plant stress responses and/or markers
- 240 10. Stress markers (Stress) including data on MDA (sometimes reported as TBARS,
 241 thiobarbituric acid-reactive substances) concentration, and other measures of
 242 lipid peroxidation

- 243 11. Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) including data on concentrations of H₂O₂ and other
 244 reactive species
- 245 12. Quantum yield of photosystem II photochemistry (QY) including parameters
 246 measured using chlorophyll *a* fluorometry, i.e. the maximum and effective
 247 quantum yield of photosystem II in dark and sun adapted leaves, respectively
- 248 13. Photosynthetic activity (Pn) including parameters measured using gas-exchange
 249 technology, i.e. the net photosynthetic rate
- 14. Stomatal conductance (Cond) including data on stomatal conductance, stomatal
 density, transpiration rate, and stomatal index
- 252 15. Leaf water content (LWC) including data on percentage water content, relative
 253 water content (RWC), and water potential of leaf or plant
- 254 16. Chlorophyll content (Chls) including data on contents of chlorophyll a, chlorophyll
 255 b, and total chlorophyll (a+b) in leaf extracts or intact leaves
- 256 17. Plant biomass (Mass) including data on plant biomass, weight, relative growth
 257 rate (RGR), fresh weight, dry weight.
- These 17 variables revolve around the grouping of loosely related, but not identical, plant parameters. For example, the variable "antioxidant capacity" (Antio) included measurements of content and activity of SOD, peroxidases, and glutathione reductase as well as on the ascorbate-dehydroascorbate ratio, TEAC, and FRAP. The advantage of grouping parameters into broader variables is an increase in replication, and this outweighs the disadvantage of grouping non-identical, parameters.
- Datasets were compiled using Excel 2016. This was followed by the analysis of the 264 265 relationships between parameters, and of the significance of any difference, using the Comprehensive Meta-Analysis (CMA, Biostat Inc., Englewood, USA) software. 266 Standardized Difference in Means (SDM) has been used for the calculation of the 267 summary (net) effect across all investigated experiments. The SDM expresses the size of 268 the intervention effect in each experiment relative to the data variability observed in that 269 experiment. Necessary inputs for the meta-analysis are arithmetic mean, standard 270 deviation and number of repetitions for both control and treated groups. In principle, two 271 basic statistical models can be used for calculating the net effect, i.e. fixed and random 272 effect models (Borenstein et al., 2009). We selected the random effect model, since it 273 accounts for the variability of the true effect among different studies, which is expected 274 given the use of different plant species, experimental conditions, and set-ups, as well as 275

different measurement methods. The summary effect size and the statistical significance 276 277 of all considered experiments is expressed by SDM and the probability (p) value. The variability and spread of the effect is than expressed as 95% confidence (CI) and 278 prediction (PI) intervals. While CI provides an absolute measure of statistical precision, 279 the advantage of PI is that it provides an absolute measure of dispersion (i.e. variability) 280 of the observed effect. For details and rationale behind the PI calculations, see Borenstein 281 282 et al. (2017). For the details and mathematical formulas used to calculate SDMs, CIs and *p* values, see Ač *et al.* (2015). 283

284

Concepts of antagonism, synergy, and additivity are commonly used in a poorly defined 285 manner. For the purpose of this study, nomenclature as detailed by Piggott *et al.* (2015) 286 287 was used. In short, the impacts of UV and drought were expressed as percentage change 288 relative to the untreated control. The sum of these relative changes was compared to the measured impact of a combined UV and drought treatment. Thus, predicted values were 289 calculated as the sum of the impacts of both environmental factors acting separately. 290 Where the measured effect matches the calculated sum, effects are referred to as additive. 291 Where the measured effect is greater than the sum of individual effects, the effects are 292 293 considered synergistic. Where the measured effect is smaller than the sum of individual effects, the effect is considered less-than-additive or antagonistic. To evaluate the 294 interactive effect of UV radiation and drought, linear regression was used to relate 295 measured (i.e. observed) values (in the y-axis) vs. calculated (i.e. predicted) values (in the 296 x-axis) for individual variables (Piñeiro *et al.*, 2008). Consequently, statistically 297 298 significant differences between slope (a1) and intercept (b1) parameters for the best linear fit and the 1:1 line (i.e., $a_0 = 1$ and $b_0 = 0$) were evaluated using the t-test. In addition, 299 300 the Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) was calculated for both the 1:1 line and the best linear fit. 301

302

303 **Results**

A comprehensive literature search resulted in a collection of 52 papers (89 experiments) published in peer-reviewed scientific journals. Although there was no restriction on publication year, the bulk of the analysed papers was published in the last 13 years (Supplemental figure 1A). Most of these studies were performed using supplemental UV radiation, in either glasshouse or growth chamber (Supplemental figure 2). About 50%

of the studies were short term with a duration of up to one month (Supplemental figure 309 3). Studies longer than 3 months represented about 20% of the data set. These long-term 310 studies were mainly represented by work on tree species (broadleaved and coniferous), 311 and shrubs (*Vaccinium* spp.), although there were also long-term studies on Arabidopsis 312 and wheat, both with a duration of 120 days. A study by Duan et al. (2011) using spruce 313 (*Picea asperata*) was exceptional as this was the only study that lasted more than one 314 year. Studies were limited to terrestrial plants, but included crops and wild species, 315 herbaceous and woody species, perennials and annuals (full details in supplemental table 316 1). UV doses ranged from 0.11 to 49 kJ m⁻² day⁻¹. However, given the variation in both 317 experimental approaches, lamps and UV quantification, these numbers need to be 318 interpreted with extreme caution. Indeed, analysis of the data showed no link whatsoever 319 320 between UV-dose and impact on the plant (Supplementary figure 4). Similarly, drought was quantified as water pressure in MPa, percentage water content of the soil, or simply 321 322 deviation from the water regime.

A dataset of all studies was compiled, and this included basic information on the species 323 as well as the experimental treatments (Supplemental table 1). Also listed were the 324 impacts of UV, drought, and a combination of UV and drought on a range of parameters, 325 326 relative to control values, as well as the extent of replication. Overall, UV had a significant negative impact on seven variables (Figure 1). Drought also had a significant negative 327 impact on seven variables, although these were not fully identical to those affected by UV. 328 Drought had a significant negative impact on LWC, unlike UV, while UV had a significant 329 negative impact on chlorophyll content, unlike drought. UV had a positive effect on 330 331 another six variables, while drought had a significant positive on the same six variables, as well as on the R/S ratio (Figure 1). A comparison of the effects of UV compared to 332 drought, UV compared to a combination of UV and drought, and drought compared to a 333 combination of UV and drought, showed that UV dominates only effects on antioxidants, 334 anthocyanins, and root-shoot ratio (Table 1). Drought dominates effects on most of 335 variables including proline, flavonoids, leaf area, quantum yield and photosynthetic CO₂ 336 337 uptake, stomatal conductance, LWC, and plant biomass.

Interestingly, even though the proportion of statistically significant experiments for any given variable was in most cases less than half, only a few variables showed insignificant net effects of UV and/or drought treatments (Supplemental table 2). The highest proportion of statistically significant experiments for a UV effect was observed for

anthocyanins (91%) and ROS (70%). Drought impacted in most experiments significantly 342 on stress markers (82%) and stomatal conductance (81%), while a combined drought 343 and UV treatment showed the highest number of statistically significant experiments for 344 anthocyanins (81%), stress markers (79%), plant biomass and the R/S ratio (75%). 345 Considering the scale of the absolute *variability* among experiments and parameters as 346 quantified by the 95% PI (Supplemental table 3), only the UV effect on ROS (positive) and 347 348 the drought effects on photosynthesis (negative) and proline (positive) don't cross 0 threshold and fall with 95% probability into one direction only (Figure 1). 349

With respect to individual variables, proline accumulation is a well characterised defence 350 response. Yet, only half the experiments show a statistically significant UV effect 351 (Supplemental table 2). However, the resulting net effect of UV is strong, since all but two 352 353 experiments have the same (positive) effect on proline content. As for the drought effect on proline accumulation, the response is one of the few showing a 95% PI interval in the 354 positive territory only ($p_{\text{SUM}} = 7.3 \times 10^{-15}$), with just one experiment with a negative SDM, 355 and almost 30% of experiments with no statistical significance. On the other hand, there 356 357 is no statistically significant difference between the effect of drought and the combined effect of UV and drought. 358

359 Another commonly observed stress response is the decrease in stomatal conductance. The net UV effect on stomatal conductance is significantly negative ($p_{\text{SUM}} = 1.28 \times 10^{-9}$), 360 however, only 33% of experiments were statistically significant and five experiments 361 even showed a positive effect (Supplemental table 2). The net effect of UV was statistically 362 different from the effect of drought and also from the combined effect of UV and drought. 363 364 Amongst drought experiments, the highest proportion (81%) of significant experiments was found for the effect on stomatal conductance. Regarding the combined drought plus 365 UV effect, in only one case the SDM was negative (Supplemental table 3), thus showing a 366 consistent (but variable) net response. 367

Biomass can be regarded as an integrating or "final response" quantity. A higher than average proportion of significant experiments was found for the effects of UV (46%), drought (67%), and combined UV plus drought effect (75%) on plant biomass (Supplemental table 2). All but one (with zero change) experiment showed a negative SDM of the UV effect, and all experiments showed a negative response to drought ($p_{SUM} =$ 0.00) and the combined exposure ($p_{SUM} = 0.00$) (Supplemental table 3). The overlap of PI over the 0 threshold was relatively small in the case of all treatments. In contrast, the R/S ratio displayed only a limited response to UV exposure ($p_{SUM} = 0.89$) with only one experiment showing a significant response. However, the net impact of drought was significant ($p_{SUM} = 8.7 \times 10^{-5}$) and across all experiments had a positive SDM with only two experiments which were not significant. Combined effects of UV and drought showed lower statistical significance ($p_{SUM} = 0.043$) but the highest proportion of significant experiments (86% with one outlier case study showing a negative change) (Supplemental table 3). Yet, only seven experiments were available for analysis.

For all measured plant variables, the summary impacts of UV and drought went in the same direction (i.e. positive or negative impact), and therefore a simplified version of the scheme proposed by Piggott *et al.* (2015) was used to define additive, synergistic and antagonistic interactions. To assess whether the combined exposure to UV and drought caused additive, synergistic or antagonistic effects, the sum of the impacts of UV and drought was calculated and compared to the measured impact of a combined UV and drought treatment.

389

390 *Exposure to drought and/or UV, and induction of plant acclimation responses*

UV, and especially drought, enhance the proline content in plants. Under mild stress 391 392 conditions (as defined by no, or limited accumulation of MDA and/or H₂O₂), the increases in proline induced by UV and drought appear to match those induced by a combination 393 of UV and drought. However, when the plant stress becomes more severe, responses to a 394 combination of UV and drought are significantly less-than-additive (Figure 2A) 395 (Supplemental table 4). This pattern can also be observed in the case of flavonoid content 396 397 (Figure 2B), carotenoid content (Figure 2E) and antioxidant capacity (Figure 2C), albeit less pronounced. In the case of morphological parameters such as leaf mass per area, leaf 398 area, and plant height (Figures 2F, 2G and 2H) and branching (data not shown), the 399 observed effects under a combination of drought and UV are similarly less than expected, 400 while effects on root-to-shoot ratio (Figure 2I) under combinations of UV and drought 401 can be described as additive. The less-than-additive effect on plant height is particularly 402 403 pronounced under more severe exposure conditions. It was anticipated that under more severe stress conditions the combined exposure to two factors would result in aggravated 404 stress. This is, however, not obvious from the results. 405

406

407 *Exposure to drought and/or UV causes stress*

Exposure to UV or drought increased stress markers such as MDA accumulation (Figure 408 1, Figure 3A). Where plants were exposed to a combination of UV and drought, effects 409 appear to be additive under mild stress conditions (Figure 3A). However, under more 410 severe conditions, the stress caused by exposure to a combination of UV and drought is 411 somewhat less than additive, compared to the sum of the impacts of UV and drought alone 412 (Figure 3A) (Supplemental table 4). The tendency to have significantly smaller than 413 expected impacts exerted by combinations of UV and drought, can also be seen in the 414 measured photosynthetic CO₂ uptake (Figure 3E) as well as in the chlorophyll content 415 (Figure 3G), especially under more severe conditions. Photosynthetic CO₂ uptake and 416 chlorophyll content are negatively affected by both UV and drought, however, impacts of 417 these two factors in combination are significantly less-than-additive (Supplemental table 418 419 4). Additive effects can be observed in the case of quantum yield of photosystem II 420 photochemistry (Figure 3D) and leaf water content (Figure 3C). Both positive effects and negative impacts of combinations of UV and drought on leaf water content are closely 421 matched by the arithmetic sum of impacts of UV and drought alone (Figure 3C). Thus, in 422 423 the case of leaf water content, predicted values (i.e. additive) closely match measured values. This may relate to the fact that leaf water content only responds to drought 424 425 treatment (Figure 1). In the case of ROS (mostly hydrogen peroxide) the slope of the predicted versus the measured impact is not significantly different from the one-to-one 426 line (Figure 3B). However, a considerable intercept is observed. Yet, this intercept is not 427 significant (Supplemental table 4). 428

Stomatal conductance and transpiration rate, were strongly affected by drought but also, 429 430 to a lesser extent, by UV. Measured decreases in stomatal conductance or transpiration in plants exposed to mixtures of UV and drought were significantly less-than-additive as 431 compared to the calculated sum of responses to UV and drought alone (Figure 3F) 432 (Supplemental table 4). Decreases in stomatal conductance and transpiration are 433 typically measured on a per fixed leaf area basis. However, leaf area itself is also 434 diminished in plants grown under drought conditions, and to a lesser extent under UV 435 radiation and or a combination of UV and drought (Figures 1 and 2G) (Supplemental table 436 4). 437

438 Drought was found to have a strong negative effect on biomass production. When plants
439 were exposed to a combination of UV and drought, effects were significantly less-than-

additive under mild as well as under more severe stress-inducing conditions (Figure 3H)(Supplemental table 4).

442

443 Discussion

Analysis of published experiments revealed a mixture of short- and long-term studies, 444 involving a variety of plant species. This variety includes gymnosperms and angiosperms, 445 446 and herbaceous species, shrubs, and trees. Rapantová et al. (2016) demonstrated speciesspecific effects with UV amplifying negative effects of drought on bitter dock (Rumex 447 *obtusifolius*) photosynthesis but ameliorating the same effect in common bent (*Agrostis* 448 *capillaris*). This study revealed that negative impacts of drought and combinations of 449 drought and UV (but not UV alone) on plant biomass were significantly greater for woody, 450 451 compared to non-woody plants (Supplemental figures 5, 6 and 7). Experimental 452 conditions might also be expected to affect these impacts. However, rather surprisingly, interactive effects of UV, drought and a combination of UV and drought on flavonoid 453 accumulation, and net carbon assimilation were similar across growth-chamber, 454 greenhouse and field studies (Supplemental figure 7). Yet, experimental growth 455 conditions did effect the impacts of drought and a combination of UV and drought (but 456 not UV alone) on plant biomass accumulation, emphasising the importance of the 457 experimental approach. The survey of the literature revealed relatively low numbers of 458 field studies (28 experiments out of 89) (Supplemental figure 2). Natural dynamics of 459 drought and UV exposure are difficult to replicate under laboratory conditions (e.g. see 460 Allen et al., 1999; Aphalo, 2003; Aphalo et al., 2015), with rapid fluctuations in 461 462 momentary UV dose depending on cloud cover and time of day (Barnes et al., 2016). Thus, field experiments are a critical component of an evidence-based assessment of UV-463 drought interactions, and more are needed to assess the importance of interactions 464 between UV and drought in future climates. 465

466

467 Published datasets are biased towards more extreme UV-effects

Large discrepancies are present in the published literature with respect to the quantification and characterisation of drought and UV exposure. This precludes direct quantitative comparisons of impact as a function of UV or drought doses. Indeed, no clear relationship was observed between biological impacts and used UV-doses (Supplemental figure 4). Therefore, the biological impacts of UV and drought were used as a proxy for the intensity these factors. Thus, where studies reported plant stress (MDA accumulation,
and H₂O₂ content), this was perceived as a high UV effect, while a lack of stress was seen
as indicative of milder UV conditions.

The data show that UV and drought have overlapping effects on a range of plant variables. 476 For example, both UV and drought negatively impact on biomass accumulation, height, 477 photosynthesis, leaf area, stomatal conductance and transpiration, while increasing 478 479 stress associated variables such as MDA and H₂O₂ contents (Figure 1). UV-induced stress is commonly associated with unnaturally high UV doses and/or high ratios of UV to 480 photosynthetically active radiation (Hideg *et al.*, 2013; Aphalo *et al.*, 2015). Low, natural 481 UV-doses do not necessarily induce stress, but rather regulate plant responses. 482 Therefore, it can be argued that the acquired dataset of published studies is biased 483 484 towards more extreme UV-impacts, and is not fully representative of the often mild, 485 acclimative UV-effects measured in the natural environment. Consistent with this point, the number of field studies is low, and this is a major impediment to understanding 486 ecologically relevant interactive effects between UV exposure and drought. Furthermore, 487 all but two of the field studies used supplemental (i.e. above ambient) UV radiation. 488 Interestingly, there were significant differences in the effects of UV on net carbon fixation, 489 490 flavonoid content and biomass when UV exclusion studies were compared with supplementation studies (Supplemental figures 5, 6 and 7), suggesting a dose-response 491 effect. Of the two field studies using natural UV radiation (i.e. exclusion approach), one 492 showed particularly modest impacts of UV on photosynthesis (Rapantová et al., 2016), 493 while the second reported a protective effect of UV-B on drought stressed silver birch 494 495 (Betula pendula) (Robson et al., 2015). Conversely, supplemental UV-B or UV-A did not alleviate the mild stress exerted by drought in pea (*Pisum sativum*) plants under outdoor 496 conditions (Allen *et al.*, 1999). While recognising the limitations of a comparison between 497 birch seedlings and pea plants, it is notable that the protective effect reported by Robson 498 et al. (2015) relates to below ambient intensities of UV, while the lack of protection noted 499 by Allen et al. (1999) concerns a 30% increase above ambient solar UV. It has been 500 501 hypothesised that where plants are exposed to high doses of the two stressors, defences can be overwhelmed resulting in cross-sensitivity (Jansen et al., 2019). Conversely, where 502 a plant is simultaneously exposed to low levels of two potential environmental stressors, 503 504 a degree of cross-protection may occur. Thus, an important question for future research concerns the importance of the UV dose as a determinant of interactive effects of UV and 505

drought. Unfortunately, virtually all published studies are limited to just one UV and/or 506 drought-dose. The current analysis incorporates UV-B, UV-A, and UV-A and UV-B 507 exposure studies. Both UV-B and UV-A can have deleterious effects on plants, and induce 508 acclimation. However, there are strong mechanistic differences between these two UV 509 wavelength bands in terms of photoreceptors and signalling pathways activated 510 (Verdaguer *et al.*, 2017). Thus, spectral analysis of interactive effects of UV and drought 511 512 is required as UV-B and UV-A wavelengths are differentially affected by phenomena such as stratospheric ozone layer recovery and cloud cover. 513

514

Less-than-additive increases in plant defence responses and plant stress, occur when plants
are exposed to a combined treatment with UV and drought

517 Overall, a combination of two environmental factors caused a significantly less-thanadditive decrease in plant stress, photosynthesis, and chlorophyll content. Yet, the 518 impacts of the two combined factors on ROS concentrations and leaf water content were 519 additive. This implies that the primary consequences of exposure to a stressor (i.e. 520 521 increased ROS production and a decrease in water content) do not necessarily fully translate in secondary stress symptoms such as membrane damage and inactivation of 522 523 the photosynthetic apparatus. Consistently, impacts of UV and drought on plant biomass are also less-than-additive. It is possible to explain these data based on the role of ROS as 524 signalling compounds involved in the plants' response to stress. Such signalling may 525 cause the synergistic upregulation of plant defence responses, as shown by several 526 authors (Rajabbeigi et al., 2013; Rodríguez-Calzada et al., 2019; Mátai et al., 2019), further 527 528 decoupling stress and defence responses. However, this is not the case for defence responses that were analysed in this study. In fact, less-than-additive increases were 529 found for flavonoid, proline, antioxidant, and anthocyanin content, and less-than-additive 530 decreases in plant height and leaf area. Thus, a picture arises whereby increases in plant 531 defence responses are less-than-additive, and so is the damage caused. The current study 532 does not reveal the mechanism underlying the moderation of both stress and acclimation 533 534 responses, but a schematic overview of potential contributing factors was assembled (Figure 4). Three distinct scenarios' can be envisaged to explain the observed less-than-535 additive responses: 536

537 1) Where a response adheres to a classical saturation curve, the addition of a second
538 environmental factor may theoretically cause response saturation, i.e. a

diminishing increment, resulting in an less-than-additive response (Figure 4).
However, in multiple experiments the response following exposure to two
environmental factors is smaller than that in response to just one factor (e.g.
Bandurska *et al.*, 2012; Basahi *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, saturation response
kinetics are an unlikely explanation for less-than-additive responses.

- Some defence responses may follow a bell-shaped dose-response curve (Figure 4).
 In this scenario, low doses of UV boost antioxidant defences (eustress) while high
 doses do the opposite (distress) (Sztatelman *et al.*, 2015). This may potentially
 explain less-than-additive increases in proline and flavonoid accumulation.
 However, a bell-shaped dose-response curve is unlikely to explain less-thanadditive accumulation of plant stress markers, biomass production, height, and
 chlorophyll content. Thus, this scenario seems also unlikely.
- 3) A third scenario is the induction of cross-resistance. In the case of exposure to two 551 552 stressors, expression of a common response may be enhanced and/or defence responses are utilised more effectively. In this scenario, there will be less stress, 553 less growth retardation and a lesser need to induce further defence responses 554 (compared to separate effects of two stressors summed up). Underlying cross-555 556 resistance would be the observed substantial similarity in protective responses induced by drought and UV (Figure 1). It is likely that common responses are 557 mediated by partially overlapping signalling cascades, involving shared 558 transcription factors, ROS, antioxidants and plant hormones such as salicylic acid 559 (Potters et al., 2009; Bandurska & Cieślak, 2013; Kovács et al., 2014) (Figure 4). In 560 this cross-resistance scenario, drought exposure may trigger a degree of UV-561 protection, while UV exposure may also induce drought resistance. Indeed, work 562 by He et al. (2011) showed that pre-acclimation to drought yields a degree of 563 resistance to UV-B, just as pre-acclimation to UV-B yields resistance to drought. 564
- 565

566 On balance, induction of cross-protection is the most likely interpretation of the less-567 than-additive responses. UV is an important regulatory factor, perceived by the 568 photoreceptors UVR8, CRY and PHOT which, in turn, activate signalling cascades and 569 control expression of 100s of genes (Verdaguer *et al.*, 2017). The functional importance 570 of UV-sensing, and especially UV-B sensing, has been questioned, given that UV-B 571 radiation is unlikely to cause substantial distress in plants exposed to realistic UV-

conditions (Hideg *et al.*, 2013). Rather, it has been speculated that plants exploit UV-B as 572 a proxy for drought, heat and photoinhibitory conditions (Hideg et al., 2013; Jansen et al., 573 2019). Indeed, in natural environments, positive associations occur between UV-B, 574 photosynthetically active radiation, temperature and drought exposure (Jansen et al., 575 2019). In such a scenario, UV exposure early in the growing season may result in priming 576 of plants for exposure to subsequent drought. This has been demonstrated in a 577 horticultural setting, where UV-B was exploited to pre-acclimate lettuce plants to 578 withstand drought (Wargent *et al.*, 2011). Thus, UV radiation can potentially be exploited 579 as part of a more sustainable system of cropping, less dependent on supplemental 580 watering. In the natural environment, droughts linked to climate change will be 581 accompanied by increased UV exposure where decreases in cloudiness occur. Thus, less-582 583 than-additive impacts may be an important factor that moderates climate change impacts (Bornman et al., 2019). An early UV study showed that supplemental UV exposure of pine 584 (*Pinus pinea* and *Pinus halepensis*) seedlings during the hot, dry Mediterranean summer 585 resulted in substantial increases in aboveground biomass production relative to trees 586 kept under ambient light conditions (Petropoulou et al., 1995). Yet, it is important to 587 recognise that the current meta-analysis does not reveal positive effects of UV on growth, 588 589 but rather indicates that combined impacts of UV and drought in a future climate will be less than additive. 590

591

592 **Conclusions**

This study shows that both UV and drought have substantial negative effects on a range 593 594 of plant traits including biomass accumulation, photosynthesis, and stomatal conductance and transpiration, while increasing stress associated symptoms such as 595 MDA accumulation, and ROS content. Contents of proline, flavonoids, antioxidants, and 596 anthocyanins, associated with plant acclimation, are upregulated, both under enhanced 597 UV and drought. Similarly, protective responses such as a decrease in leaf area and plant 598 height increase under UV and drought. A combined treatment with UV and drought leads 599 to less-than-additive plant stress and acclimation responses. This is likely due to the 600 induction of a cascade of cross-resistance processes, involving the enhanced expression 601 and/or utilisation of shared defence responses. The data show that in future climates, the 602 impacts of increases in drought exposure may be lessened by naturally, high UV regimes. 603 604

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617	A.A. and O.U. proc	A.A. and O.U. produced the figures and tables; M.A.K.J., A.A., K.K., and O.U. interpreted					
618	the results; M.A.K.J. and O.U. designed and wrote the paper; M.A.K.J., A.A., K.K., and O.U.						
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630							
631							
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875 **<u>Tables</u>**

876

Table 1. Overview of statistically significant differences between plant responses to UV 877 (UV), drought (D) and UV plus drought (UV+D). Data are extracted from 52 peer-878 reviewed papers. Variables are grouped in two categories: acclimation responses (Prol = 879 Proline content, Flavs = Flavonoid content, Antio = Antioxidant capacity, Anth = 880 Anthocyanin content, Cars = Carotenoid content, LA = Leaf area, LMA = Leaf mass per 881 882 area, H = Height, R/S = Root/shoot-ratio), and stress responses (Stress = Stress markers, ROS = Reactive Oxygen Species, QY = Quantum yield of photosystem II photochemistry, 883 Pn = Photosynthetic CO₂ assimilation rate, Cond = Stomatal conductance, LWC = Leaf 884 water content, Chls = Chlorophyll content, Mass = Plant biomass). * ($p \le 0.05$), ** ($p \le 0.05$) 885 886 0.01), *** ($p \le 0.001$), NS = Not Significant (p > 0.05). 887

	UV vs D	UV vs (UV+D)	D vs (D+UV)
Prol	**	***	NS
Flavs	NS	***	NS
Antio	***	NS	***
Anth	***	NS	**
Cars	NS	NS	NS
LA	***	***	NS
LMA	NS	NS	NS
Height	NS	NS	NS
R/S	**	NS	*
Stress	NS	NS	NS
ROS	NS	NS	NS
QY	***	**	NS
Pn	***	***	NS
Cond	***	***	NS
LWC	***	***	NS
Chls	*	NS	NS
Mass	***	***	NS





Figure 1 Overview of plant responses to UV (UV), drought (D) and UV plus drought 891 (UV+D). Data are extracted from 52 peer-reviewed papers. Variables are grouped in two 892 categories: acclimation responses (Prol = Proline content, Flavs = Flavonoid content, 893 Antio = Antioxidant capacity, Anth = Anthocyanin content, Cars = Carotenoid content, LA 894 = Leaf area, LMA = Leaf mass per area, H = Height, R/S = Root/shoot-ratio) and stress 895 responses (Stress = Stress markers, ROS = Reactive Oxygen Species, QY = Quantum yield 896 of photosystem II photochemistry, Pn = Photosynthetic CO₂ assimilation rate, Cond = 897 Stomatal conductance, LWC = Leaf water content, Chls = Chlorophyll content, Mass = 898 Plant biomass). SDM = Standard Difference in Means, CI = 95% Confidence Interval, PI = 899 95% Prediction Interval, * ($p \le 0.05$), ** ($p \le 0.01$), *** ($p \le 0.001$), NS = Not Significant (p900 > 0.05). The numbers indicate number of experiments included in the meta-analysis. See 901 Supplemental table 3 for exact values of SDM, CI, and PI. 902 903



Figure 2 Relationship between observed (Measured effect) and calculated (Predicted 905 906 effect) effects of combined exposure to UV radiation and drought for variables describing plant acclimation responses: proline content (A), flavonoid content (B), antioxidant 907 capacity (C), anthocyanin content (D), carotenoid content (E), leaf mass per area (F), leaf 908 area (G), height (H), and root-to-shoot ratio (I). The predicted effect was calculated as the 909 910 sum of individual UV and drought effects. The data were fitted using linear regression (best linear fit). Coefficients of determination (R^2) and significance levels (* $p \le 0.05$, ** p911 \leq 0.01, NS *p* > 0.05) are shown. Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) was calculated for both 912 the 1:1 line (red) and the best linear fit (black). See Supplemental table 2 for the 913 914 statistically significant differences between linear fits and 1:1 line. 915



Figure 3 Relationship between observed (Measured effect) and calculated (Predicted 917 effect) effects of combined exposure to UV radiation and drought for variables indicating 918 919 plant stress responses: stress markers (A), Reactive Oxygen Species (B), leaf water content (C), photosynthetic activity – quantum yield of the photosystem II 920 photochemistry (D), photosynthetic activity – net CO₂ assimilation rate (E), stomatal 921 conductance (F), chlorophyll content (G), and plant biomass (H). The predicted effect was 922 923 calculated as the sum of individual UV and drought effects. The data were fitted using linear regression (best linear fit). Coefficients of determination (R^2) and significance 924 levels (* $p \le 0.05$, ** $p \le 0.01$, NS p > 0.05) are shown. Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) 925 was calculated for both the 1:1 line (red) and the best linear fit (black). See Supplemental 926 927 table 2 for the statistically significant differences between linear fits and 1:1 line. 928



Figure 4 Schematic overview of potential cross-talk and cross-protection in plants 930 931 exposed to UV radiation (blue) and drought (orange). Potential shared signalling components are Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS), salicylic acid (SA), jasmonic acid (JA), 932 abscisic acid (ABA), nitric oxide (NO), and ethylene (Et), with responses additive (Adt), 933 934 antagonistic (Ant) or synergistic (Syn). It is hypothesised that shared signalling pathways 935 and defence mechanisms lead to interactive effects of ultraviolet radiation (UV) and drought on individual variables (hypothesis #1) and consequently may result in shifts of 936 plant sensitivity to stress conditions (hypothesis #2) seen as a shift in the dose response, 937 and/or a decreased magnitude of the stress response. 938 939

940 Supplemental figures



941

942 Supplemental figure 1. (A) A total of 52 papers were analysed, and these were published in peer-reviewed journals in the period 1990 through to 2019. (B) Variables 943 investigated were grouped into two main categories characterising plant acclimation 944 responses (black columns), and plant stress responses (white columns). Investigated 945 variables are: Flavs = Flavonoid content, Antio = Antioxidant capacity, Prol = Proline 946 content, H = Height, LA = Leaf area, LMA = Leaf mass per area, Cars = Carotenoid content, 947 Bra = Branching, Anth = Anthocyanin content, R/S = Root-to-shoot ratio, Mass = Plant 948 biomass, Pn = Photosynthetic CO₂ uptake, Chls = Chlorophyll content, QY = Quantum yield 949 of photosystem II photochemistry, Cond = Stomatal conductance, LWC = Leaf water 950 content, Stress = Stress markers, ROS = Reactive Oxygen Species. 951 952



Supplemental figure 2. A total of 89 experiments were analysed, of which just 32% were
performed under field conditions (28 experiments). Some 68% of experiments were
performed under more artificial conditions, including growth chambers and/or
glasshouses (26 and 35 studies, respectively).



Supplemental figure 3. Duration of the analysed experiments. The duration of the
experiments varied between 3 and 900 days. Moreover, there is one extraordinary long
study by Arróniz-Crespo *et al.* (2011) in Annals of Botany 108: 557-565 on Bryophytes –
13-15 years.



Supplemental figure 4. Relationship between observed (Measured effect) and 966 calculated (Predicted effect) effects of combined exposure to UV radiation and drought 967 for selected variables (Flavonoids - panel A, Photosynthetic CO2 uptake - panel B, and 968 Biomass – panel **C**). The experiments where high UV doses (above 20 kJ m⁻² day⁻¹) were 969 applied are shown in red. The data were fitted using linear regression (best linear fit). 970 971



Supplemental figure 5. Detailed analysis of drought effects on flavonoid content (Flav), 973 photosynthetic CO₂ uptake (Pn), and plant biomass (Mass). The data are categorized 974 according to anatomical structure (woody × non-woody plants), duration of the 975 experiment (short- × long-term), treatment conditions (field × greenhouse × growth 976 chamber), and UV application (supplementary × excluded). SDM = Standard Difference in 977 Means, CI = 95% Confidence Interval, PI = 95% Prediction Interval. Stars (*) refer to 978 significance of the experimental treatment * ($p \le 0.05$), ** ($p \le 0.01$), *** ($p \le 0.001$), NS = 979 Not Significant (p > 0.05). *p*-values in the top right-hand corner indicate the significance 980 of the differential response between compared categories. The numbers indicate the 981 number of experiments included in the meta-analysis. 982 983



Supplemental figure 6. Detailed analysis of UV effects on flavonoid content (Flav), 985 photosynthetic CO₂ uptake (Pn), and plant biomass (Mass). The data are categorized 986 according to anatomical structure (woody × non-woody plants), duration of the 987 988 experiment (short- × long-term), treatment conditions (field × greenhouse × growth chamber), and UV application (supplementary × excluded). SDM = Standard Difference in 989 Means, CI = 95% Confidence Interval, PI = 95% Prediction Interval. Stars (*) refer to 990 significance of the experimental treatment * ($p \le 0.05$), ** ($p \le 0.01$), *** ($p \le 0.001$), NS = 991 992 Not Significant (p > 0.05). *p*-values in the top right-hand corner indicate the significance of the differential response between compared categories. The numbers indicate number 993 of experiments included in the meta-analysis. 994



Supplemental figure 7. Detailed analysis of combined effects of UV and drought on 997 flavonoid content (Flav), photosynthetic CO₂ uptake (Pn), and plant biomass (Mass). The 998 data are categorized according to anatomical structure (woody × non-woody plants), 999 1000 duration of the experiment (short- × long-term), treatment conditions (field × greenhouse × growth chamber), and UV application (supplementary × excluded). SDM = 1001 Standard Difference in Means, CI = 95% Confidence Interval, PI = 95% Prediction Interval. 1002 Stars (*) refer to significance of the experimental treatment * ($p \le 0.05$), ** ($p \le 0.01$), *** 1003 1004 $(p \le 0.001)$, NS = Not Significant (p > 0.05). *p*-values in the top right-hand corner indicate the significance of the differential response between compared categories. The numbers 1005 indicate number of experiments included in the meta-analysis. 1006 1007

1008 Supplemental table 1

1009 Overview of all analysed experiments including details on plant material, experimental 1010 set up and measured variables. (Uploaded as a separate supplementary file.)

1011

1012 Supplemental table 2

The percentage of statistically significant (p < 0.05) effects on specific variables, and 1013 across the experiments included in the database. Variables are grouped into two main 1014 1015 categories characterising plant acclimation responses (dark grey; Prol = Proline content, Flavs = Flavonoid content, Antio = Antioxidant capacity, Anth = Anthocyanin content, Cars 1016 = Carotenoid content, LA = Leaf area, LMA = Leaf mass per area, H = Height, R/S = Root-1017 to-shoot ratio), and stress responses (while cells; Stress = Stress markers, ROS = Reactive 1018 1019 Oxygen Species, QY = Quantum yield of photosystem II photochemistry, Pn = Photosynthetic CO₂ assimilation rate, Cond = Stomatal conductance, LWC = Leaf water 1020 content. Chls = Chlorophyll content. Mass = Plant biomass). 1021

	UV	Drought	UV + drought
Prol	47.6	71.4	71.4
Flavs	60.9	43.8	70.3
Antio	38.2	75.0	25.0
Anth	90.9	18.2	81.8
Cars	20.0	10.0	10.0
LA	32.0	59.1	72.0
LMA	23.8	23.8	42.9
Н	38.5	38.5	50.0
R/S	25.0	71.4	75.0
Stress	57.1	82.1	78.6
ROS	70.0	70.0	70.0
QY	38.2	64.7	50.0
Pn	48.4	70.3	65.6
Cond	33.3	81.0	69.0
LWC	10.3	62.1	65.5
Chls	43.3	30.0	43.3
Н	38.5	38.5	50.0
Mass	45.8	66.7	75.0

1023 Supplemental table 3

Summary of comprehensive meta-analysis outcomes: SDM = Standard Difference in 1024 Means, 95% CI = 95% confidence interval, 95% PI = 95% prediction interval. Effects of 1025 ultraviolet radiation (UV), drought (D) and their combination (UV+D) are shown. 1026 Variables are grouped into two main categories characterising plant acclimation 1027 responses (grey cells; Prol = Proline content, Flavs = Flavonoid content, Antio = 1028 Antioxidant capacity, Anth = Anthocyanin content, Cars = Carotenoid content, LA = Leaf 1029 area, LMA = Leaf mass per area, H = Height, R/S = Root-to-shoot ratio), and stress 1030 1031 responses (while cells; Stress = Stress markers, ROS = Reactive Oxygen Species, QY = Quantum yield of photosystem II photochemistry, Pn = Photosynthetic CO₂ assimilation 1032 rate, Cond = Stomatal conductance, LWC = Leaf water content, Chls = Chlorophyll content, 1033 Mass = Plant biomass). Bold rows (Antio* and Mass*) indicate additional analyses 1034 1035 whereby duplicate (or triplicate) entries were removed from the "antioxidant" and "biomass" datasets. 1036

	SDM	95	% CI	95% PI		
UV						
Prol	1.09	0.55	1.63	-0.81	2.99	
Flavs	2.13	1.66	2.60	-0.82	5.09	
Antio	2.43	1.73	3.13	-1.04	5.90	
Antio*	2.02	1.27	2.77	1.24	5.28	
Anth	3.19	2.20	4.18	-0.98	7.36	
Cars	0.55	0.17	0.92	-2.69	3.93	
LA	-0.79	-1.17	-0.41	-2.40	0.82	
LMA	0.36	-0.21	0.93	-1.59	2.31	
Н	-1.08	-1.66	-0.50	-3.38	1.21	
R/S	0.23	-0.26	0.71	-1.00	1.45	
Stress	2.18	1.43	2.93	-1.34	5.69	
ROS	2.68	1.78	3.57	0.09	5.26	
QY	-0.74	-1.31	-0.16	-3.25	1.78	
Pn	-0.88	-1.32	-0.44	-3.04	1.28	
Cond	-0.96	-1.32	-0.60	-2.86	0.94	
LWC	-0.31	-0.68	0.05	-1.21	0.58	
Chls	-1.00	-1.48	-0.51	-3.11	1,12	
Mass	-1.54	-2.01	-1.07	-3.74	0.66	
Mass*	-1.56	-2.05	-1.08	-4.03	0.91	
Drought						
Prol	2.48	1.88	3.07	0.19	4.76	
Flavs	0.43	-0.02	0.87	-3.11	3.96	
Antio	0.83	0.33	1.32	-1.57	3.22	
Antio*	0.62	0.20	1.21	-1.90	3.13	
Anth	0.86	0.03	1.69	-1.32	3.03	
Cars	0.08	-0.69	0.84	-0.97	1.12	

LA	-1.92	-2.46	-1.38	-4.43	0.59	
LMA	0.21	-0.37	0.79	-2.24	2.66	
Н	-1.68	-2.29	-1.07	-4.05	0.70	
R/S	1.86	1.02	2.70	-0.76	4.47	
Stress	2.74	2.00	3.48	-0.38	5.86	
ROS	2.57	1.51	3.63	-0.78	5.92	
QY	-1.64	-2.23	-1.05	-5.27	1.99	
Pn	-2.09	-2.55	-1.63	-5.76	1.58	
Cond	-2.39	-2.97	-1.81	-5.81	1.03	
LWC	-1.89	-2.29	-1.49	-4.10	0.33	
Chls	-0.13	-0.60	0.34	-2.29	2.04	
Mass	-2.53	-3.01	-2.05	-5.49	0.43	
Mass*	-2.69	-3.33	-2.04	-6.07	0.70	
UV+D						
Prol	2.34	1.74	2.93	-0.15	4.82	
Flavs	1.92	1.45	2.40	-1.44	5.28	
Antio	2.56	1.91	3.20	-0.90	6.01	
Antio*	2.05	1.36	2.75	-0.86	4.97	
Anth	2.29	1.36	3.22	-0.55	5.13	
Cars	0.53	0.16	.90	-2.52	3.86	
LA	-2.29	-2.84	-1.73	-5.20	0.63	
LMA	0.55	-0.04	1.14	-2.30	3.41	
Н	-1.50	-2.11	-0.90	-4.21	1.20	
R/S	1.74	0.18	3.30	-3.77	7.24	
Stress	2.15	1.28	3.08	-1.74	6.04	
ROS	2.57	1.51	3.63	-0.78	5.92	
QY	-1.58	-2.17	-0.98	-5.96	2.81	
Pn	-2.05	-2.52	-1.58	-5.42	1.32	
Cond	-2.71	-3.35	-2.09	-6.42	1.00	
LWC	-1.58	-1.97	-1.19	-3.40	0.24	
Chls	-0.71	-1.19	-0.22	-3.51	2.10	
Mass	-2.79	-3.26	-2.31	-5.83	0.26	
Mass*	-3.18	-3.93	-2.43	-7.08	0.73	

1039 Supplemental table 4

Summary of slopes and intercepts of linear regression between observed and predicted 1040 values for individual variables, and their statistically significant differences from 1:1_fit. 1041 Variables are grouped into two main categories characterising plant acclimation responses 1042 (Prol = Proline content, Flavs = Flavonoid content, Antio = Antioxidant capacity, Anth = 1043 1044 Anthocyanin content, Cars = Carotenoid content, LMA = Leaf mass per area, LA = Leaf area, H = Plant height, R/S = Root-to-shoot ratio), and plant stress responses (Stress = 1045 Stress markers content, ROS = Reactive Oxygen Species, $Pn = Photosynthetic CO_2$ 1046 assimilation rate, QY = = Quantum yield of photosystem II photochemistry, Cond = 1047 Stomatal conductance, LWC = Leaf water content, Chls = Chlorophyll content, Mass = 1048 Plant biomass). DF = Degree of freedom, s.e. = standard error; statistically significant 1049 differences in slopes and intercepts between 1:1 fit and best-linear fit are shown in bold 1050 1051 (p).

Parameter	DF	Slope	s.e.	T Score	р	Intercept	s.e.	T Score	р
Prol	19	0.057	0.0536	-18.039	<0.001	42.1	7.53	5.543	<0.001
Flavs	51	0.661	0.0812	-4.221	<0.001	14.7	11.33	1.039	0.268
Antio	28	0.438	0.0870	-6.473	<0.001	52.79	16.59	3.159	0.005
Anth	11	0.163	0.0268	-31.231	<0.001	52.6	24.64	2.136	0.056
Cars	9	0.403	0.0566	-10.548	<0.001	2.0	2.36	0.867	0.409
LMA	20	0.710	0.0833	-3.481	0.002	5.6	2.41	2.321	0.031
LA	24	0.722	0.0644	-4.631	<0.001	-5.7	3.97	-1.013	0.320
н	24	0.508	0.1028	-3.995	<0.001	-9.4	4.71	-1.766	0.093
R/S	7	0.980	0.2764	-0.111	0.932	-17.3	22.13	-0.632	0.553
Stress	18	0.573	0.0974	-3.217	0.005	6.8	8.35	-1.536	0.159
ROS	8	0.978	0.1650	-0.133	0.897	-70.4	37.31	-1.888	0.096
Pn	40	0.551	0.1066	-4.004	<0.001	-9.8	6.87	-1.742	0.095
QY	32	1.022	0.0312	-0.098	0.891	-2.92	2.92	-0.288	0.781
Cond	34	0.519	0.1002	-4.908	<0.001	-15.9	6.49	-2.288	0.031
LWC	32	0.951	0.0593	-0.458	0.651	6.7	2.85	2.631	0.021
Chls	33	0.703	0.0644	-5.107	0.001	6.2	4.23	1.424	0.078
Mass	39	0.725	0.0723	-3.663	<0.001	3.8	4.92	1.038	0.306