# The partitioning of gross primary production for *Eucalyptus tereticornis* trees exposed to experimental warming and drought

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**Summary**

* The allocation of C is an important component of tree physiology that may be influenced by environmental changes such as warming and drought.
* We exposed *Eucalyptus tereticornis* trees to a 2x2 factorial combination of +3°C warming and an extreme summer drought in field conditions using whole-tree chambers. We calculated C allocation terms using detailed measurements of growth and continuous whole-crown CO2 and H2O exchange measurements.
* Warming accelerated growth and leaf area development, and increased the partitioning of Gross Primary Production (GPP) to aboveground respiration and growth, while decreasing C partitioning belowground. Trees utilized deep soil water to avoid physiological stress during the drought treatment, such that drought did not affect C allocation.Warming increased growth respiration, but maintenance respiration acclimated homeostatically.
* Warming-induced tree growth stimulations likely involve increased C allocation aboveground, particularly to leaf area development. Mathematical models should consider a dynamic C allocation scheme that includes a carbohydrate buffer pool and sink driven growth.

**Introduction**

The C economy of trees and forests depends not only on the amount of C fixed via photosynthesis, but how that fixed C is used. For example, ecosystem C storage is affected by the allocation of C to long-lived C pools, such as wood and coarse roots, relative to C allocation to pools with higher turnover rates, such as leaves and fine roots (DeLucia *et al.*, 2005). The allocation of C also affects the acquisition of light, nutrients, and water resources, which influences ecosystem C cycling (Litton *et al.*, 2007; Epron *et al.*, 2012; Franklin *et al.*, 2012; De Kauwe *et al.*, 2014). The allocation of C belowground has strong effects on soil C and nutrient cycling (Högberg *et al.*, 2001; Epron *et al.*, 2012) in part because belowground C allocation can affect soil organic matter decomposition and the acquisition of limiting nutrients by trees (Drake *et al.*, 2011; Finzi *et al.*, 2015). The importance of C allocation and the relative difficulty of its study contribute to its role as an important unknown for modeling the biogeochemistry of ecosystems (Roux *et al.*, 2001; Franklin *et al.*, 2012; Dietze *et al.*, 2014; De Kauwe *et al.*, 2014).

Terminology regarding allocation has been a source of some confusion. Here, we follow Litton *et al.* (2007) and use ‘allocation’ as a term of broad definition encompassing three specific aspects of study: (1) *ratios* of biomass pool sizes, (2) *fluxes* of C to a given component, and (3) *partitioning*, or the ratio of C flux to GPP. We note that the partitioning of GPP is one of the most interesting and relevant metrics of allocation, yet it is the most uncertain given the challenges of direct measurement. These areas of study are similar, but not equivalent. For example, old and large trees have a large wood mass fraction relative to small young trees, but this primarily reflects the low turnover of woody tissues relative to leaves, rather than a higher partitioning of GPP to wood in old trees (Duursma & Falster, 2016). Thus it is often inappropriate to infer C partitioning from biomass ratios (Litton *et al.*, 2007).

Several schemes have been used to conceptualize and model C allocation in trees and forests. The simplest approach is to assume that trees partition a constant fraction of fixed C to each use, such as autotrophic respiration and the production of leaves, wood, and roots. This simple scheme is supported by linear relationships between production terms in some systems, such as a strong and constant relationship between aboveground net primary productivity and total net primary productivity in boreal forests (Gower *et al.*, 2001). However, fixed allocation schemes cannot capture ontogenetic effects (Duursma & Falster, 2016) or the dynamic temporal responses that have been observed in some ecosystems, including forests exposed to atmospheric CO2 enrichment (De Kauwe *et al.*, 2014). Another approach is to constrain C allocation by assuming a functional balance between tree organs, encapsulated via allometric relationships, Huber values, or root to leaf mass fractions (Landsberg & Waring, 1997; Mäkelä *et al.*, 2008; Feng *et al.*, 2012). Finally, there is the concept that trees increase C partitioning towards the acquisition of the primary limiting resource (e.g., light, soil nutrients, water; McMurtrie & Dewar, 2013). This approach appears to be ecologically sensible and has been implemented in several models (e.g., Running & Gower, 1991; Friedlingstein *et al.*, 1999). However, direct empirical evidence supporting this concept is relatively scarce, given the challenges involved in measuring allocation, but optimization approaches have been used to constrain dynamic allocation schemes with some success (Franklin *et al.*, 2012; McMurtrie & Dewar, 2013).

Temperature is a fundamentally important aspect of climate that affects many aspects of tree physiology (Way & Oren, 2010; Lu *et al.*, 2013). Trees dynamically adjust their photosynthetic and respiratory physiology in response to their thermal environment, which affects tree C balance with warming (i.e.; physiological acclimation; Atkin & Tjoelker, 2003; Smith & Dukes, 2013; Way & Yamori, 2014; Reich *et al.*, 2016). Furthermore, several lines of evidence suggest that warming may increase tree C allocation aboveground at the expense of C allocation belowground. Experimental warming of forest soil increased aboveground biomass while reducing or not affecting belowground biomass (Strömgren & Linder, 2002; Melillo *et al.*, 2011), which has been attributed to a warming-induced increase in soil N availability and an associated stimulation of aboveground tree growth (Melillo *et al.*, 2002). A recent 13C-CO2 labeling study also indicated that warmer temperatures can reduce C allocation belowground in beech samplings via a direct effect on tree physiology, without the influence of an altered soil N cycle (Blessing *et al.*, 2015). Broad environmental gradients in mean annual temperature (MAT) are strongly correlated with the distribution of biomass, such that forests have a lower root mass fraction in warm climates than in cold climates (Reich *et al.*, 2014). Meta-analyses of experimental warming experiments have generally found an increase in aboveground plant growth (Rustad *et al.*, 2001) that is slightly larger than the increase in belowground plant growth (Lu *et al.*, 2013), although such experiments have exclusively involved small stature vegetation given the logistical challenges of warming tall forests. Thus, prior research suggests a shift in C allocation aboveground with experimental warming, although direct tests in the field with large trees have not yet been performed.

Water availability also strongly impacts tree growth and physiology (e.g., Nemani *et al.*, 2003; Farooq *et al.*, 2009). The effects of drought are of particular concern given widespread forest mortality (e.g., Allen *et al.*, 2015) and predictions that climate change may increase the frequency and severity of droughts in many regions (Burke *et al.*, 2006; Sillmann *et al.*, 2013). While it appears sensible that trees would increase C allocation to roots in dry regions or during drought periods to acquire soil water, there is limited support for this idea. Remarkably, Reich *et al.* (2014) found no correlation between forest root mass fraction and aridity across a global dataset of >6,200 forests. Amazonian forests responded to droughts in 2005 and 2010 with a shift away from fine-root growth and increased C partitioning to aboveground growth and respiration, particularly in the year following the drought (Doughty *et al.*, 2014, 2015). Increased C allocation belowground under drought is consistent with some 13C-CO2 labeling studies (Hommel *et al.*, 2016), but not others (Hartmann *et al.*, 2015). While the simple expectation of increased allocation to roots during drought is appealing, the reality of tree C allocation responses to drought are likely more complex and merit further study.

Interactions between temperature and drought may also be important for tree C allocation. Warmer temperatures may exacerbate tree H2O loss during drought and increase mortality risk (Allen *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore, if warmer temperatures reduce C allocation belowground, then the ability of trees to acquire soil water may also be impaired. However, an experiment with young oak saplings in 3-m-tall open top chambers found no interaction between experimental warming and drought on tree growth or evapotranspiration (Kuster *et al.*, 2013). A six-year warming and precipitation redistribution experiment with two tree species found complex growth responses (Volder *et al.*, 2013). The relative growth rate of *Quercus stellata* monocultures was unaffected by either warming or precipitation redistribution alone, but was strongly reduced in the combination of warm and dry conditions. However, the relative growth rate of *Juniperus virginiana* was reduced by precipitation redistribution and increased by warming, with no interactions (Volder *et al.*, 2013). Thus, it is challenging to generalize regarding the interactive effects of drought and warming on tree physiology and growth.

We exposed *Eucalyptus tereticornis* trees to experimental warming of +3 oC for more than one year, crossed with a summer drought for three months. We continuously measured whole-crown CO2 and H2O exchange and measured aboveground biomass production every 2 weeks. From these measurements, we derive GPP, aboveground net primary production (NPPa), aboveground autotrophic respiration (Ra) and the residual C that must have been partitioned belowground for each fortnightly interval. We predict that warming will decreases C partitioning belowground, while drought will increase C partitioning belowground.

**Materials and Methods**

*Site and experimental design*

We implemented a warming and drought experiment using 12 whole-tree chambers (WTCs) in Richmond, New South Wales (Australia; 33°36ʹ40ʺS, 150°44ʹ26.5ʺE). The WTCs were large cylindrical structures topped with a cone that enclosed a single tree rooted in soil (3.25 m in diameter, 9 m in height, volume of ~53 m3). The WTCs controlled atmospheric CO2 concentration, air temperature (Tair), relative humidity (RH), and irrigation while continuously measuring the net exchange of CO2 and H2O between the entire tree crown and the atmosphere (Barton *et al.*, 2010; Duursma *et al.*, 2011; Barton *et al.*, 2012; Duursma *et al.*, 2014; Drake *et al.*, 2016b; Aspinwall *et al.*, 2016).

The rooting volume of each tree was compartmentalized with a root exclusion barrier of heavy duty polyethylene (300 µm thick) extending vertically belowground to 100-cm-depth. A cemented layer of manganese nodules and clay was present at 90–100 cm depth, providing a natural horizontal barrier at the bottom of the rooting volume. Thus the rooting volume of each tree was controlled and isolated from surrounding trees. Note however, that some trees extended roots through the horizontal hard layer and acquired deep soil water in a previous experiment at this site (Duursma *et al.*, 2011). Soil was collected from an adjacent paddock and placed in the chambers in two layers (0–25 cm and from 25 cm to the depth of the hard layer) on 10 July 2012. Soils at the site were an alluvial formation of low-fertility sandy loam (Clarendon sand).

Nursery seedlings of a local provenance of *Eucalyptus tereticornis* Sm. were established in 25 L pots inside the WTCs using the same surface soil as used to fill the WTCs. *Eucalyptus  
tereticornis* was chosen because it is a widespread and abundant tree across eastern Australia (Drake *et al.*, 2015). Six potted trees were placed in each chamber on 5 December 2012; a single tree was selected based on size similarity within each treatment and planted in the chamber center on 12 March 2013. Six chambers tracked ambient Tair and six chambers tracked ambient Tair + 3°C warming (n = 6; ‘ambient’ and ‘warmed’); treatments started on 12 December 2012 (see Drake *et al.* 2016 and Aspinwall *et al.* 2016 for details). Trees were irrigated regularly and equally every 15 d with half the mean monthly rainfall. A water exclusion treatment was applied to half of the trees on 12 February 2014, resulting in a 2x2 factorial design between the experimental treatments of warming and drought (n = 3 after 12 February 2014). Trees assigned to the drought treatment received no irrigation from 12 Feb 2014 through 5 May 2014, representing an extreme summer drought of nearly three months.

*Soil water content and plant water status*

Predawn leaf water potentials (ΨL-PD) were measured approximately monthly prior to the drought and every one to two weeks during the drought treatment. Two leaves were measured per tree on each date using a Scholander-type pressure chamber (1505D-EXP; PMS Instrument Company, OR, USA). Leaves were placed in sealed plastic bags humidified with damp paper towel, placed in a dark cool box, and measured within one hour of collection in a nearby laboratory.

Soil volumetric water content was measured by three sensors permanently-installed in each chamber (CS650 time-domain reflectometers; Campbell Scientific, Logan, UT, USA). Sensors were installed horizontally at three depths: in the surface soil (10-cm-depth), at 30-cm-depth, and just above the hard layer of cemented manganese (~100-cm-depth). All sensors measured volumetric water content at 15-minute resolution; we present daily averages.   
 We also utilized neutron-probe measurements to assess variation in soil volumetric water content throughout the soil profile, including deep soil (25-425 cm depth). A single neutron probe (503DR, Hydroprobe, Instrotek, NC, USA) was used to measure soil water content to a depth of 425 cm (at 25 or 50 cm steps) approximately every two weeks (Duursma *et al.*, 2011). Note that high neutron probe counts in deep soil (150-400 cm depth) partially reflect a change in soil texture towards a higher clay content.

*Whole tree crown flux measurements*

An automated system measured the net exchange of CO2 and H2O between the each tree’s crown and its chamber airspace (Barton *et al.*, 2010). Measurements began on 13 September 2013 when suspended plastic floors were installed in each chamber and sealed around the stem of each tree at ~45 cm height, when the trees were ~3 m tall. Flux measurements finished on 26 May 2014 when the crown harvest began and the trees were nearly 9 m tall. We report >70,000 hourly flux observations aggregated into >3000 daily sums across 12 trees.

We partitioned the hourly net CO2 fluxes into the components of GPP and Ra using a technique common to eddy-covariance research (Reichstein *et al.*, 2005); see Drake *et al.* (2016) for a complete description. In brief, we utilized direct measurements of whole-crown Ra and its temperature dependence at night to predict Ra for each hourly measurement as a function of Tair. For daylight hours, we then calculated GPP as the sum of the measured net CO2 flux and the predicted Ra given the measured Tair. We assumed GPP to be zero when PPFD = 0; in such conditions, the measured net C flux was used as the measure of Ra. Note that the chamber airspaces were continuously well-mixed, avoiding many of the issues inherent in eddy covariance partitioning. The underlying flux data and the partitioning approach were published previously (Drake *et al.*, 2016).

*Final harvest*

The mass of all trees was measured destructively at the end of the experiment (26 May 2014). Tree mass was measured as the sum of five components: stem, branches, leaves, coarse roots, and fine roots.

The crown of each tree was divided into three equal heights (lower, middle, and upper thirds). All branches were cut flush to the stem, grouped by layer, and all leaves were separated from branches. A random subsample of 100 leaves was measured for total leaf area for each layer (LI-3100C leaf area meter, LiCor, Lincoln, NE, USA), dry mass, and specific leaf area (SLA). The stem was cut into three segments and 1-cm-thick cookies were sampled for bark depth, wood density, and bark density. Cookies were sampled from the stem base, between the first and second layers, and between the second and third crown layers. Bark and wood density was measured on cookie subsamples as the ratio of dry mass to fresh volume; fresh volume was measured using Archimedes principle of water displacement (Thomas *et al.*, 2007). Wood and bark densities were similar (mean of 0.44 and 0.37 g cm3 for wood and bark, respectively). Bark depth increased with stem diameter (log10(bark depth, mm) = -1.48 + 1.23 × log10(diameter, cm), *P* <0.001, r2 = 0.92) while wood and bark density decreased modestly with stem diameter (wood density = 0.50 – 0.001 × diameter, *P* = 0.007, r2 = 0.17; bark density = 0.45 – 0.001 × diameter, *P* < 0.001, r2 = 0.48; densities in g cm3, diameter in cm). Warming and drought treatments did not alter these relationships (ANCOVA, *P* > 0.05). Total stem, branch, and leaf mass were measured directly after drying at 70 °C until sample mass no longer changed; this took up to seven weeks.

Fine roots were measured with a soil coring approach. The soil surface area was divided into four equal quadrants and two 50-mm-diameter cores were taken within each quadrat at random locations within each chamber on 29 May 2014, just after the crown harvest. These cores were separated into two depths of 0-25 cm and from 25 cm to the hard layer, which varied from 70 to 100 cm depth. Samples within each quadrat and depth category were composited, resulting in eight samples per chamber. Fine roots were isolated by hand by washing samples through 2-mm and then 1-mm brass sieves; fine roots were defined as all roots < 2-mm-diameter. Fine root dry mass was measured directly after drying at 70 °C.

Coarse roots were destructively harvested by fully excavating the soil volume of each chamber. Soil was shoveled out of the chamber onto a conveyor belt that transported the soil to a series of 5-mm steel sieves. Roots were collected by hand, washed, sorted into two size categories (2-10 mm, > 10 mm diameter), and weighed after drying at 70 °C.

*Growth measurements*

Aboveground biomass was estimated every fortnight (i.e., every two weeks) for each tree as the sum of wood, bark, branch, and leaf mass; aboveground net primary production (NPPa) was estimated as the fortnightly difference in aboveground biomass plus fortnightly litterfall, assuming a constant biomass C fraction of 0.5.

Tree height and stem volume were measured fortnightly; stem diameter was measured at 30-cm-intervals along each tree stem from a basal height of 15-cm (prior to floor installation) or 65-cm (after floor installation) to the tree apex. The volume of stem wood and bark was estimated for each stem segment as the frustum of a cone, corrected for bark depth (*see above*). Wood and bark mass were calculated as the product of volume and density.

An allometric relationship was developed to predict branch wood mass from branch diameter at the insertion point based on destructively sampled branches on 13 May 2014 and 22 May 2014 (log10(branch mass) = -1.299 + 2.722 × log10(branch diameter), *P* < 0.001, r2 = 0.91, branch mass in g, branch diameter in mm, n = 48 branches). This allometry was used to predict total branch mass on three dates when the diameter of all branches was measured (24 Oct 2013, 15 Jan 2014, and 22 May 2014). Total branch mass and stem volume were strongly correlated in a chamber specific manner (log-log ANCOVA, *P* < 0.001, r2 = 0.95), which was used to estimate branch mass as a function of stem volume for each fortnightly growth interval.

Standing leaf area and leaf mass production were estimated as previously at this site (Barton *et al.*, 2012; Drake *et al.*, 2016b). Standing leaf area was measured for each tree by counting all the leaves and multiplying by a tree-specific mean leaf size measured across the crown of each tree with a handheld leaf area meter (LI-3000; n = 86 to 102 leaves per tree). These measurements were performed prior to chamber floor installation (9 Sept 2013) and at the beginning of the drought treatment (10 Feb 2014); in total 86,431 leaves were counted. A third direct measurement of standing leaf area was calculated from the final harvest data (26 May 2014) by multiplying total crown leaf dry mass by SLA weighted by the leaf dry mass in each layer. Litterfall was collected, dried, and weighed fortnightly for each tree, although relatively few leaves fell as litter (~5% of the total leaf mass). Total tree leaf mass was estimated for each set of fortnightly size measurements by dividing leaf area by the crown-weighted SLA measured at harvest.

*Calculating C partitioning*

A major goal of this project was to calculate the partitioning of photosynthetically fixed C into components for each fortnightly interval (i.e., the ratio of component fluxes relative to GPP). We quantified GPP, NPPa, and Ra separately, as described above. We calculated the residual between GPP and the sum of NPPa and Ra:

(eq. 1)

Note that the residual term includes all C put belowground to root production, respiration, and exudation, as well as measurement error in GPP, NPPa, and Ra. We calculated the partitioning of GPP directly for each fortnightly interval as NPPa/GPP, Ra/GPP, and residual/GPP.

*Growth and maintenance Ra*

Given the direct effects of temperature on Ra and the evidence for thermal acclimation of tissue-specific respiration rates to experimental warming in this specific experiment (Drake *et al.*, 2016b; Aspinwall *et al.*, 2016), we investigated the roles of growth and maintenance respiration as drivers of Ra (McCree, 1970; Amthor, 2000; Adu‐Bredu & Hagihara, 2003). We evaluated the relationship between Ra per unit tree C and relative growth rate (RGR) using the fortnightly estimates of aboveground tree mass, Ra, and NPPa described above. The slope of this relationship reflects the growth component of Ra, while the y-intercept reflects the maintenance component of Ra. If Ra does not acclimate to experimental warming, we expect the warmed treatment to have a higher y-intercept than the ambient treatment. However if Ra acclimates homeostatically, we expect the ambient and warmed treatments to have equivalent intercepts.

*Data analysis*

Many datasets consisted of longitudinal measurements over time of twelve individual trees (N=12). Data were analyzed following a completely randomized design with the single treatment of warming (n = 6 for 6 months, then n = 3 for the drought period). Longitudinal analyses were performed using the ‘lme’ function within the ‘NLME’ R package with a random tree effect and fixed effects of date, temperature treatment, and water treatment. Treatment means were estimated after adjustment for other terms in the model (i.e. least square means, or LS means) with the ‘LSMEANS’ package in R v.3.2.2 (R Development Core Team, 2012; Pinheiro et al., 2013). Analyses were evaluated to test assumptions of residual normality and variance homoscedasticity; transformations were often necessary. Datasets that were not longitudinal in nature, such as the final harvest data, were analyzed as a simple 2x2 ANOVA using the ‘lm’ function in R.

**Results**

*Growth*

Trees assigned to the ambient and warmed temperature treatments had equivalent height and basal diameter when potted seedlings were placed into the WTCs in December 2012 (heights of 41.5 +/- standard error of 0.8 and 40.2 +/- 1.8 cm; diameters of 2.4 +/- of 0.1 and 2.5 +/- 0.1 mm in ambient and warmed treatment, respectively).

Experimental warming strongly increased the rates of diameter and height growth (Fig. 1ab), particularly during the Austral Winter and Spring. Trees in the warmed treatment were considerably larger than trees in the ambient treatment when the floors were installed and CO2 and H2O flux measurements began (13 Sept 2013; vertical dashed line in Fig. 1). On that date, experimental warming had increased diameter by 21% (*P* < 0.01; Fig. 1a), height by 19% (*P* < 0.01; Fig. 1b), total leaf area by 53% (*P* < 0.01; Fig 1c), and stem volume by 79% (*P* < 0.01; Fig 1d). After the warm Summer, however, the size of the ambient and warmed treatment trees converged such that tree diameters and heights did not differ at the end of the experiment (Fig. 1ab). However, warmed trees had a larger amount of leaf area than control trees during most of the experiment (Fig. 1c). The drought treatment reduced tree diameter but not height growth (Fig. 1ab), modestly reduced total leaf area (Fig. 1c), and reduced stem volume increment (Fig. 1d). Notably, there was no interactive effect of warming and drought on growth (e.g., *P* > 0.4 for volume increment).

*CO2 and H2O fluxes*

Experimental warming strongly increased the rate of tree C uptake via photosynthesis and H2O loss via transpiration early in the experiment (Fig. 2ac). This was expected, given the strong increase in tree growth and total leaf area with experimental warming during this period (Fig. 1). However, the rates of C uptake and H2O loss converged between the ambient and warmed treatments during the summer (January; Fig. 2ac), despite the fact that the warmed trees were larger. This was likely driven by warming-induced reductions in photosynthetic rates per unit leaf area during the Summer (Drake *et al.*, 2016b).

We imposed an experimental drought during the Austral summer, in which all water was withheld from trees in the dry treatments for nearly three months. This drought treatment reduced C and H2O fluxes; total C uptake during the drought period was reduced 25% while total H2O loss was reduced 32% (Fig. 2bc; main effects of drought, *P* < 0.01; no interaction with warming, *P* > 0.5). Thus, whole-crown fluxes of C uptake and H2O loss were maintained at relatively high values during the drought, despite the complete lack of water addition.

*Final biomass*

The final biomass measured with a complete destructive harvest did not vary with either the warming or drought treatments (Fig. 3a), but the final harvest occurred after the size of ambient and warmed trees had converged (Fig. 1). The lack of difference in final mass between the ambient and warmed treatments likely arose from an experimental warming effect that varied through time. That is, experimental warming increased growth during cool periods, but reduced growth during warm periods (Fig. 1). The only biomass component that was affected by the experimental treatments at harvest was fine root biomass, for which there was a significant interaction between warming and drought (*P* < 0.05). The A-Dry trees had higher fine root biomass than the A-Wet trees, while the W-Dry trees had slightly lower fine root biomass than the W-Wet trees (Fig. 3a). This interaction was also present in the tree root mass ratios; experimental warming reduced the root mass ratio; experimental drought increased the root mass ratio, but only in the ambient temperature treatment (Fig. 3b).

*Plant and soil water status*

The drought treatment effectively reduced soil volumetric water content (Fig. 4). Volumetric water content was reduced by the drought treatment at 10, 50, and 100 cm depth (Fig. 4a-c) to values that were approximately equivalent with the permanent wilting point of this soil (*i.e.*, volumetric water content at which soil water potential is -1.5 MPa; 0.05 m3 m-3). Low volumetric water content in the dry treatments persisted for more than two months. Pre-dawn leaf water potentials (ΨL-PD) were reduced in the dry treatments relative to the wet treatments (Fig. 4d; *P* < 0.01). However, the drought effect on ΨL-PD was modest (ΨL-PD was -0.29 +/- 0.02 in control, -0.48 +/- 0.05 in dry treatments), such that ΨL-PD in the dry treatments did not approach extremely negative values that would be expected to impair physiological function. Thus despite extremely dry surface soils (Fig. 4a-c), trees in the drought treatment maintained high rates of transpiration (Fig. 2c) and relatively moderate ΨL-PD (Fig. 4d).

Trees likely utilized deep soil water during the drought treatment. There is a hard and continuous horizontal layer of cemented manganese at ~1-m-depth which acts as a barrier for root exploration of deep soil. However, it appears that this barrier was not complete, as we observed a few roots of approximately 1-cm-diameter penetrating through this barrier during the complete soil excavation during the harvest (JE Drake, *personal observation*). Furthermore, neutron probe measurements of soil volumetric water content down to 400-cm-depth indicated that soil water was removed from the profile in the dry treatment chambers during the drought, particularly from 50- to 200-cm-depth (Fig. S1). Thus we suggest that the trees in the dry treatments transpired deep soil water during the summer drought, consistent with a previous drought study of *Eucalyptus saligna* at this site (Duursma *et al.* 2011).

*Fluxes of GPP, NPPa, Ra and allocation belowground*

We derived gross primary production (GPP) and its partitioning to aboveground net primary production (NPPa), aboveground autotrophic respiration (Ra), and the residual, which we attribute to C allocation belowground as well as measurement error.

GPP was increased by experimental warming early in the experiment (+22%, *P* < 0.01), but GPP between ambient and warmed treatments converged beginning in the Summer (late January; Fig. 5a). The drought treatment reduced GPP in both temperature treatments (-15%, *P* < 0.01). These results follow the net C flux measurements (Fig. 2ac). The response of NPPa (Fig. 5b) closely followed the results for GPP, with a warming effect early in the experiment (+36%, *P* < 0.01) and a reduction with drought in both temperature treatments (-25%, *P* < 0.01). The response of Ra (Fig. 5c) also followed GPP, with a stimulation by warming early in the experiment (+39%, *P* < 0.01) and a modest reduction with drought that was equivalent across temperature treatments (-13%, *P* < 0.05). The allocation of C belowground, as measured by the residual, was decreased by experimental warming throughout the experiment (-11%, *P* < 0.05) and was unchanged by the drought treatment (+3%, *P* > 0.1; Fig. 5d).

*GPP partitioning*

Given these flux measurements, we derive the partitioning of GPP into three components; NPPa/GPP, Ra/GPP, and Residual/GPP (Fig. 6). Experimental warming increased the partitioning of GPP aboveground and reduced partitioning belowground. Warming increased NPPa/GPP in a way that was stronger early in the experiment (+11%, *P* = 0.01) relative to the entire experiment (+3%; *P* > 0.1; Fig. 6ab). Similarly, warming increased Ra/GPP (+12%; *P* < 0.1; Fig. 6cd) but decreased Residual/GPP (-15%; *P* < 0.05; Fig. 6ef) prior to the drought. Thus, experimental warming increased the partitioning of GPP to aboveground components and decreased partitioning belowground. This effect was consistent with warming effect on root mass ratios observed at the final harvest (Fig. 3b). The experimental drought had weak effects on partitioning, none of which were statistically significant (*P* > 0.1): drought decreased NPPa/GPP (-6%), increased Ra/GPP (+7%), and increased Residual/GPP (+2%). Averaged across the entire experiment and all treatments, these trees expended 43% of GPP for aboveground net primary production (NPPa), 29% of GPP for aboveground autotrophic respiration (Ra), with 28% remaining for belowground C allocation and measurement error.

*Growth and maintenance respiration*

One of the advantages of combining growth and respiratory measurements is the ability to infer changes in respiratory C efflux attributable to growth versus maintenance respiration (Amthor, 2000). There was a strong and linear relationship between Ra per unit aboveground tree C and relative growth rate (RGR; Fig. 7). Neither the slope nor the intercept of this relationship were affected by experimental treatments (all *P* > 0.1). Thus, we present a common relationship across all measurements. The y-intercept of this relationship was positive (mean of 0.0213, 95% CI of 0.0157 to 0.0268), indicating significant Ra in the absence of aboveground growth, which reflects maintenance respiration. The lack of a warming effect on this y-intercept is consistent with respiratory temperature acclimation; trees in the ambient and warmed treatments expended similar amounts of C on maintenance respiration, despite the increased temperature in the warmed treatment. The slope of the relationship (Fig. 7) was strongly positive (mean of 0.0059, 95% CI of 0.0053 to 0.0065), indicating that much of the Ra observed at the whole-crown scale was attributable to construction respiration. Observations during the drought period followed the general relationship, with lower values on both axes (Fig. 7). Thus, the experimental drought reduced Ra primarily via a reduction in growth respiration.

**Discussion**

*Summary*

We studied the experimental effects of warming and drought on the C allocation of *Eucalyptus tereticornis* trees using a combination of growth and whole-crown flux measurements. Experimental warming increased the proportion of GPP that was allocated to aboveground uses and decreased the proportion of GPP that was allocated belowground. This was consistent with a reduced root mass fraction in the warmed treatments at the final harvest. The experimental drought had relatively modest effects on CO2 and H2O fluxes and did not affect the allocation of C, likely because tree access to deep soil water prevented the trees from becoming physiologically water-stressed. There were no interactive effects between warming and drought on C partitioning terms, so we discuss the impacts of warming and drought separately.

*Effects of experimental warming on C allocation*

Experimental warming strongly affected several aspects of tree C allocation. Warming increased the fractional partitioning of GPP to aboveground uses, including growth and respiration, at the expense of C partitioning belowground. This observation is consistent with some soil warming experiments (e.g., Melillo *et al*., 2002, 2011) that attributed this effect to a warming-induced stimulation of soil nutrient availability, such that trees did not “need” to allocate as much C belowground on nutrient acquisition. Such a mechanism may have been at play here. However it is also possible that experimental warming directly stimulated the activity of meristems aboveground, such that a smaller remainder of fixed C was available for transport and use belowground. Such a mechanism would imply an aboveground priority in tree C allocation, consistent with previous work on forest C budgets and elevated atmospheric CO2 treatments (Palmroth *et al.*, 2006). This mechanism also makes sense given the structural arrangement of tree phloem, as aboveground tissues have the opportunity to remove sucrose from the phloem before belowground tissues (Lemoine *et al.*, 2013). However we note that the mechanisms regarding soil N mineralization and aboveground metabolic activity are not mutually exclusive. Enhanced N supply from soil N mineralization may have enabled the increased aboveground metabolism in the warmed treatment, which may have resulted in the larger consumption of GPP aboveground in the warmed relative to the ambient treatment.

We previously demonstrated that aboveground autotrophic respiration acclimated nearly homeostatically to experimental warming in this experiment, both at the leaf-scale (Aspinwall *et al.*, 2016) and at the whole-crown scale (Drake *et al.*, 2016b). As such, the demonstration that warming increased Ra (Fig. 5) may appear contradictory. We emphasize that our previous presentations of autotrophic respiration were expressed per unit leaf area (Drake *et al.*, 2016b; Aspinwall *et al.*, 2016), while the current study did not normalize the fluxes by tree size or total crown leaf area (Fig. 5c). Experimental warming increased Ra primarily by increasing growth and tree size early in the experiment. Furthermore, the common relationship between relative growth rate and Ra per unit tree mass for the ambient and warmed treatment is indicative of homeostatic acclimation of maintenance respiration in this experiment (Fig. 7). The stimulation of whole-crown Ra by warming was primarily attributable to an increase in respiration to support growth. Thus, we suggest that this study is in agreement with previous published work from this experiment (Drake *et al.*, 2016b; Aspinwall *et al.*, 2016), where homeostatic acclimation of respiration to experimental warming prevented a warming-induced increased in maintenance respiration, while a warming effect on growth stimulated growth respiration and increased whole-crown Ra.

The increased allocation of C aboveground in the warmed treatment, combined with homeostatic acclimation of maintenance respiration, likely contributed to the observed warming-induced stimulation in growth during the first half of this experiment (Fig. 1). Experimental warming had neutral or negative effects on leaf-level photosynthesis in this study (Drake *et al.*, 2016b; Aspinwall *et al.*, 2016), so a warming-induced stimulation of growth was somewhat surprising. We suggest that an increase in C partitioning aboveground (Fig. 6a) was associated with accelerated leaf development early in the experiment in these young and rapidly growing trees (Fig. 1c), such that trees exposed to the warmed treatment had higher rates of crown-scale photosynthesis (Fig. 5a) primarily through a warming effect on total crown leaf area, rather than a warming effect on leaf-scale photosynthetic rates. Warming temperatures thus may have a large effect on resource partitioning and growth trajectories for small trees undergoing exponential growth, with implications for ecological processes such as regrowth following disturbance.

*Effects of drought on C allocation*

The experimental drought did not strongly impact tree C allocation. While the drought clearly reduced the overall rates of GPP, NPPa, Ra, and the residual, drought did not impact C partitioning. In particular, we find no evidence that trees increased C partitioning belowground in response to the drought. We recognize that our ability to resolve C partitioning belowground may have been limited by the nature of the measurements based on the residual, and our lack of root biomass measurements in deep soil below the hard layer at ~1-m-depth. The relatively small effect of the drought treatment on C and H2O fluxes was likely influenced by the relatively modest physiological water stress experienced by the trees. Leaf predawn water potential declined to only approximately -0.6 MPa, which is a moderate value that is not indicative of water stress. We emphasize, however, that we successfully implemented a severe drought, as the water content of the soil from the surface to ~1-m-depth was at or below the wilting point for more than two months.

The acquisition of deep soil water is a common feature in many ecosystems, including but not exclusive to *Eucalyptus spp* (Pfautsch *et al.*, 2015; Eamus *et al.*, 2015). Several previous studies have shown that groundwater use enables vegetation to avoid production declines under conditions of surface moisture limitation, including in mediterranean oak woodlands (Baldocchi *et al.*, 2010; Barbeta *et al.*, 2015). Some Eucalypt species are well-known users of groundwater. River red gum (*Eucalyptus camaldulensis*) is distributed throughout arid Australia along river beds that are frequently dry on the surface, and these trees frequently utilize groundwater during the hot and arid summer (Mensforth *et al.*, 1994). Additionally, Zolfaghar *et al.* (2017) found substantial groundwater use for transpiration by SP XXXX, even in a temperate mesic environment. However, groundwater use by trees during conditions of dry surface soils is not restricted to a few exceptional tree species and environments. Koirala *et al.* (2017) recently aggregated several high-resolution data products and demonstrated strong correlations between ecosystem gross primary productivity and groundwater table depth that were present over approximately 70% of the vegetated surface of the earth, suggesting that vegetation-groundwater interactions are common and globally relevant. Our study demonstrates that some trees may utilize access to soil water at depth to maintain substantial rates of photosynthetic C uptake and growth during extended droughts that lead to dry surface soils.

*Implications for mathematical models*

Many ecosystem and earth system models begin their simulation of ecosystem C cycling by predicting GPP as a function of leaf area and environmental drivers. GPP is then partitioned into component terms including autotrophic respiration and the production of leaf, wood, and root mass. Our observations suggest that tree C allocation of GPP to these terms is variable in time and can be influenced by environmental drivers such as temperature. That is, the observations presented here are not consistent with static partitioning schemes with fixed and constant partitioning of GPP into component fluxes. However, the observations presented here are also not consistent with a dynamic C partitioning scheme based on Sprengel and Leibig’s law of the minimum (van der Ploeg *et al.*, 1999), where C would be preferentially allocated to increase the acquisition of the factor most limiting primary production. Furthermore, Aspinwall *et al.* (2016) recently documented strong seasonal variation in carbohydrate storage in this experiment with evergreen trees, characterized by the buildup of high starch concentrations during the winter and a drawdown of these reserves during the summer. It appears that these trees partially utilize a non-structural carbohydrate storage reserve to fuel growth and metabolism during the hot summer. Based on these observations, we suggest that the following allocation scheme may be appropriate for future investigation.

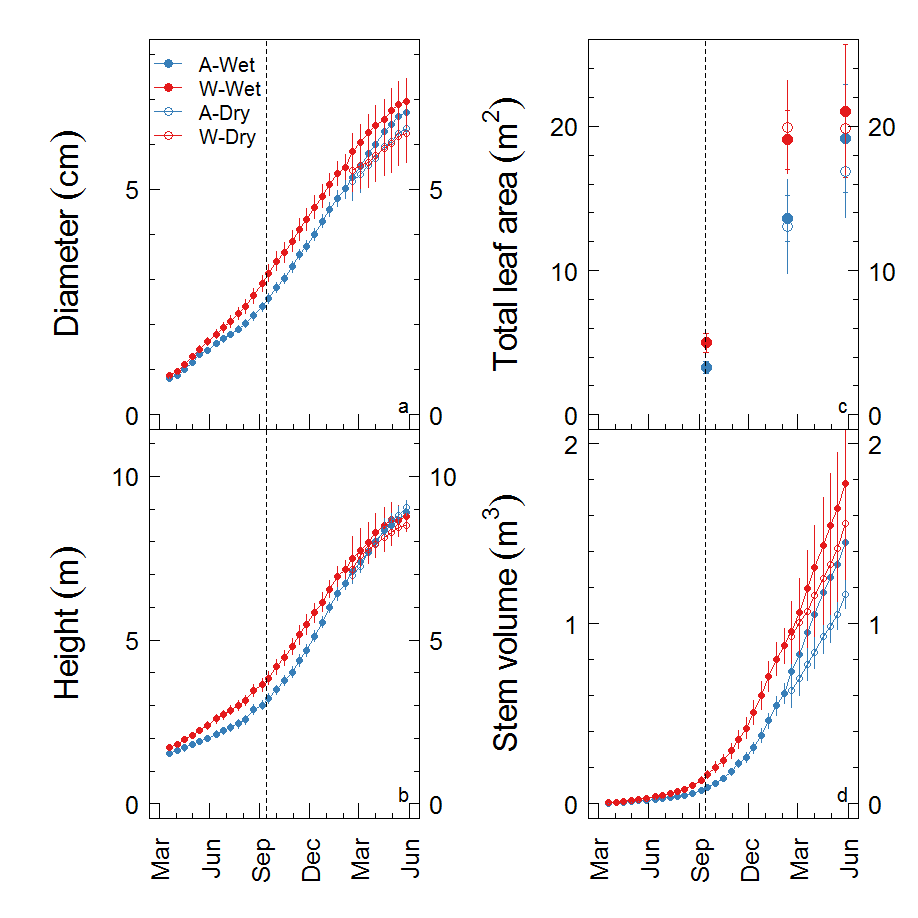
We suggest an allocation scheme that would incorporate a dynamic carbohydrate reserve and sink-oriented calculations of growth. That is, we suggest that simulations of GPP should result in C input to a storage term (e.g., non-structural carbohydrates), which is then utilized to fuel the production of biomass terms such as leaves, wood, and roots. These production terms would be based on meristem activity, with potential production a function of temperature and turgor pressure, and actual production a function of potential production and the supply of nutrients and non-structural carbohydrates (sensu Korner, 2003). We fully recognize similar prescriptions and the current work to incorporate these concepts into ecosystem and earth system models (Fatichi *et al.*, 2014; Pugh *et al.*, 2016).

*Conclusions*

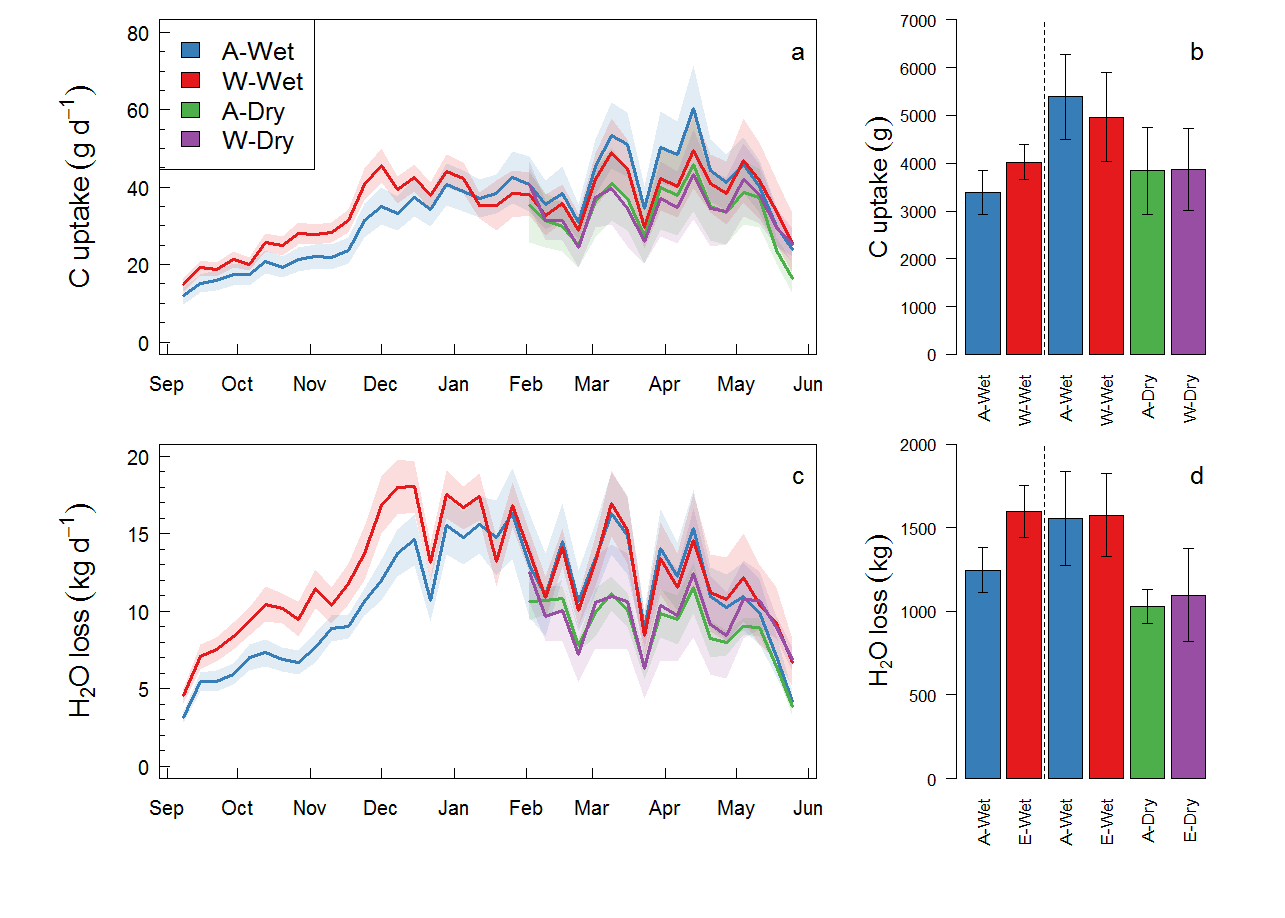
We used detailed measurements of growth and continuous whole-crown flux measurements to study the effects of warming and drought on the C allocation of *Eucalyptus tereticornis* trees. Experimental warming increased the proportion of GPP that was allocated to aboveground uses and decreased the proportion of GPP that was allocated belowground, while experimental drought did not alter C partitioning. Trees utilized deep soil water to maintain transpiration, photosynthesis, and growth during a prolonged summer drought with dry surface soils. A change in tree C allocation has implications for tree growth, forest C storage, and soil nutrient cycling in a warmer world.

**Acknowledgements**

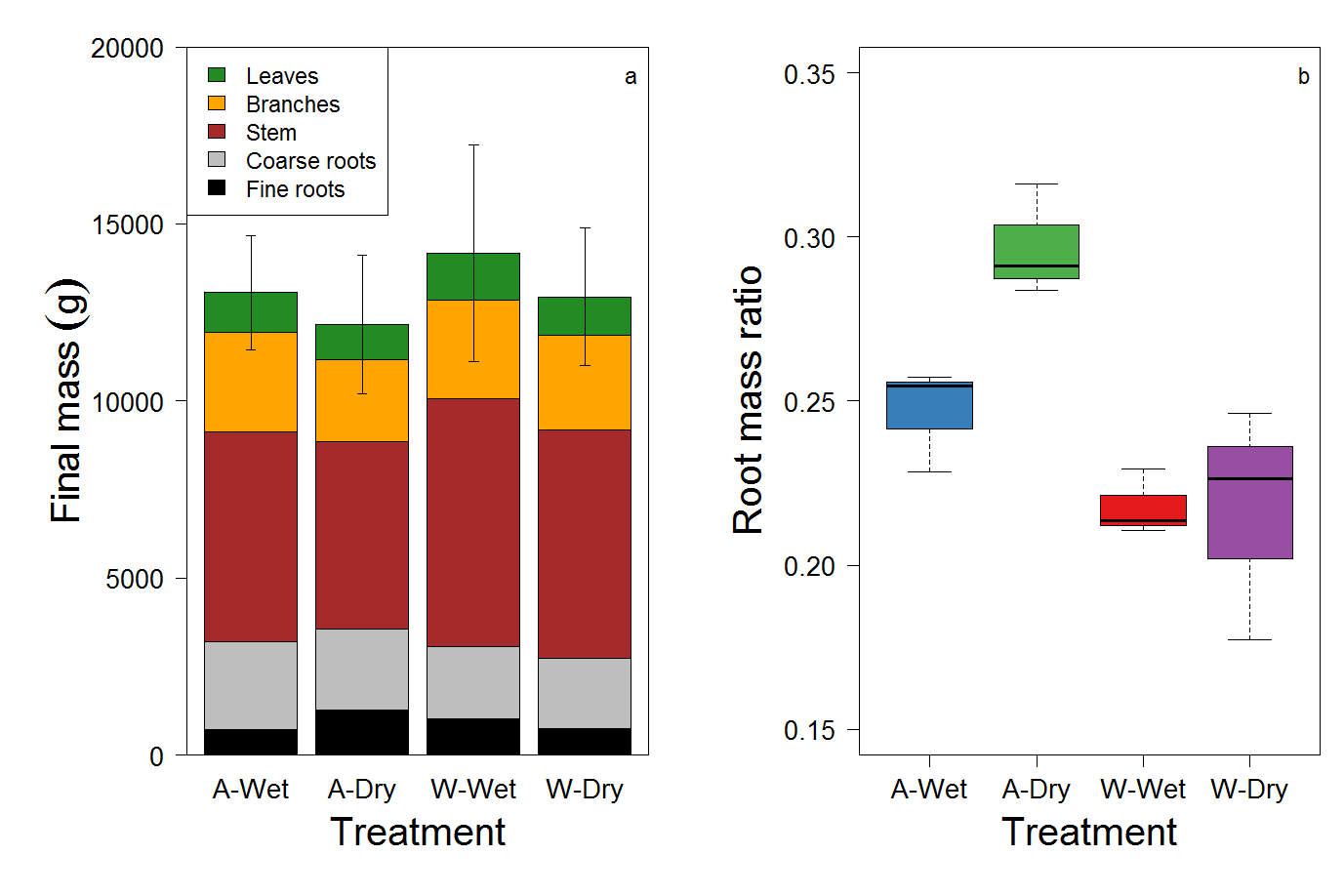
We thank Burhan Amiji (Western Sydney University) for maintaining the site and for his excellent research support. This experiment was made possible through a collaboration with Sune Linder and the Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, who designed, built, and generously provided the whole tree chambers. We also gratefully acknowledge Renee Smith, Carrie Drake (Western Sydney University), and Richard Harwood (Sydney University) for their help with the whole-tree harvests. This research was supported by the Australian Research Council (Discovery, DP140103415), a New South Wales government Climate Action Grant (NSW T07/CAG/016), the Hawkesbury Institute for the Environment, and Western Sydney University.



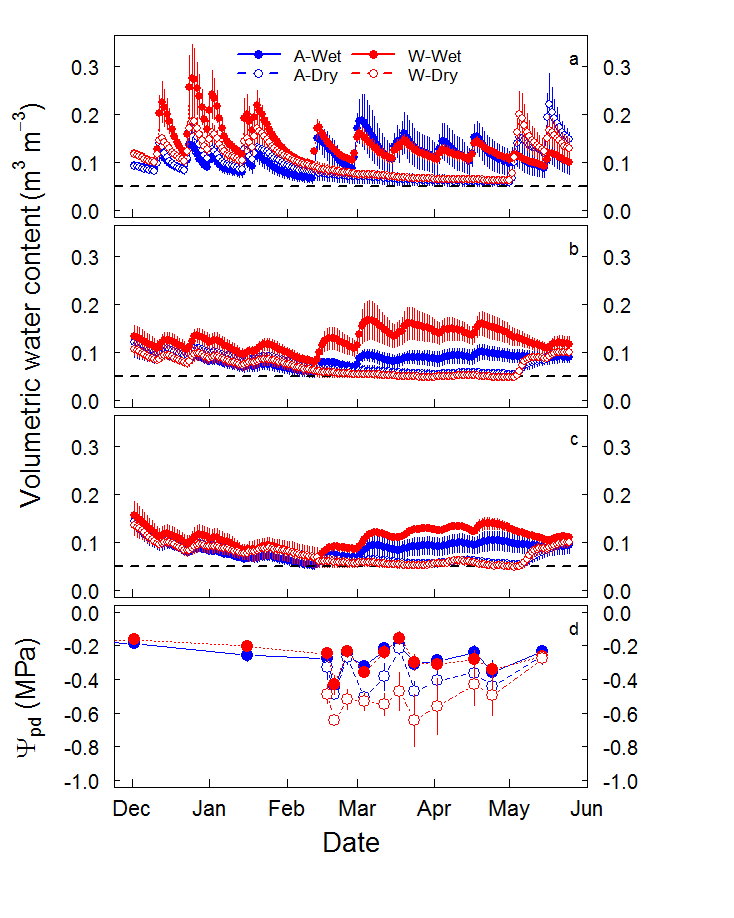
**Figure 1**. Growth of *Eucalyptus tereticornis* trees exposed to warming and drought. Trees were either exposed to ambient Tair (“A”, blue) or warming of +3 oC (“W”, red), and either well-watered (“Wet”, solid points) or drought conditions (“Dry”, open points). Stem diameter (a) was measured at 65-cm height, and height reflects total stem length (b). Total leaf area was directly measured on three dates (c) and stem volume was calculated from diameter measurements along the stem of each tree (d). The vertical dashed line denotes when CO2 and H2O flux measurements began. Points reflect the mean, error bars denote 1SEM (n = 6 until Feb 2014, when the drought treatment began and n = 3).



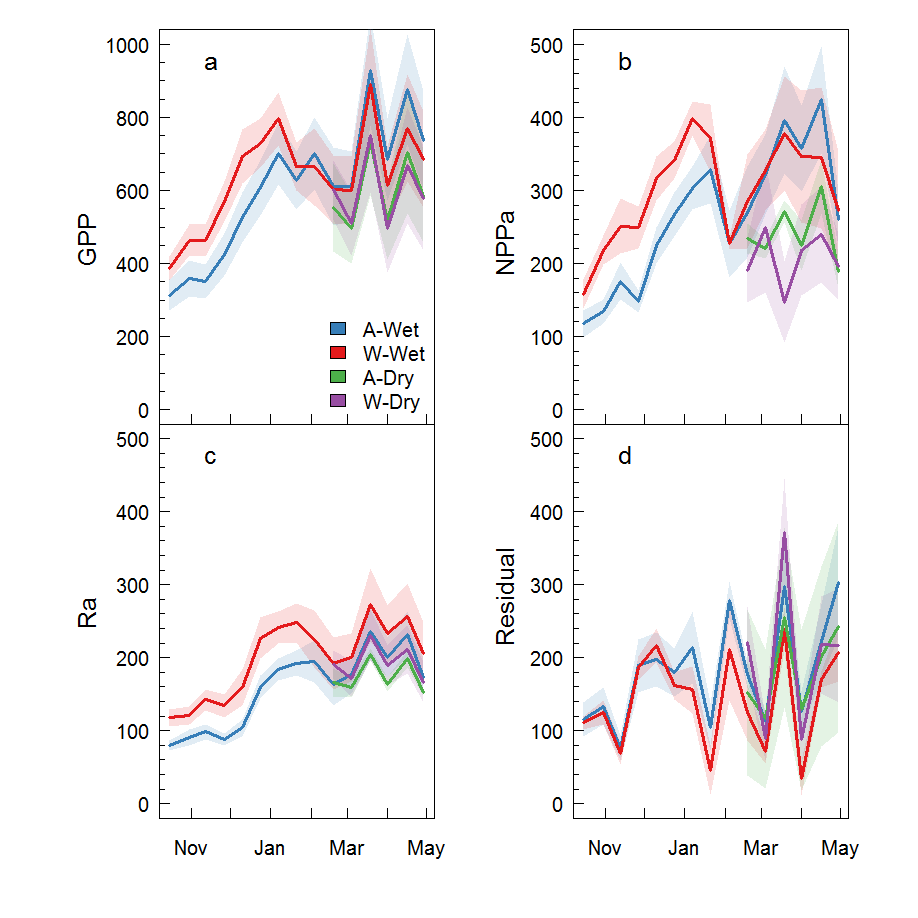
**Figure 2**. Summary of measured CO2 and H2O fluxes for twelve *Eucalyptus tereticornis* trees exposed to ambient (A) or warmed (W) air temperatures in 2013 and 2014. All trees were maintained in well-water conditions (Wet) until mid-Feb, when half of the trees were subjected to a soil drydown (Dry). We show weekly averages of the measured daily net C uptake (a) and the sum of net C uptake for the two measurement periods (pre-drought, drought; b). We also show weekly averages of the measured daily net H2O loss to transpiration (c) and the H2O loss to transpiration summed across the two measurement periods (d). In (a) and (c), lines reflect the mean and shaded areas reflect the standard error. The dotted vertical lines in (b) and (d) separate the pre-drought (left) and drought periods (right). These plots reflect >580,000 individual flux measurements at 15-minute resolution.



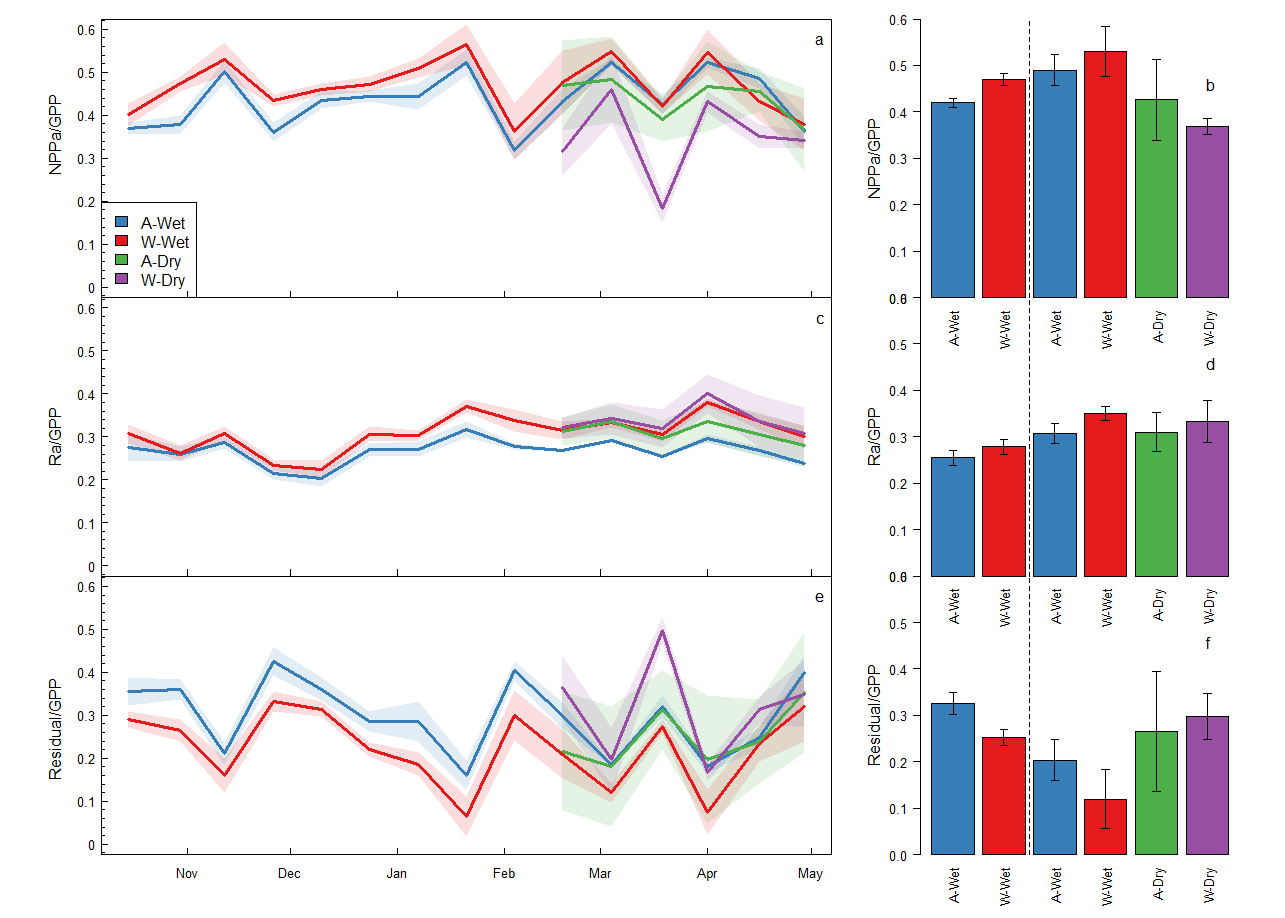
**Figure 3**. Biomass components at final harvest for twelve *Eucalyptus tereticornis* trees exposed to ambient (A) or warmed (W) air temperatures and either well-watered conditions (Wet) or a soil drydown treatment (Dry). Note that these data reflect grams of dry mass. Each of the measured biomass components (a) reflects the mean of three trees per treatment, the error bars reflect the standard error of the total measured mass. The root mass ratio (b) reflects the sum of coarse and fine roots relative to total tree mass. Warming reduced the root mass ratio, while the drought treatment increased root mass ratio in the ambient temperature treatment only. The root mass ratio interaction primarily follows the response of fine roots, although stem wood and coarse roots also contributed.



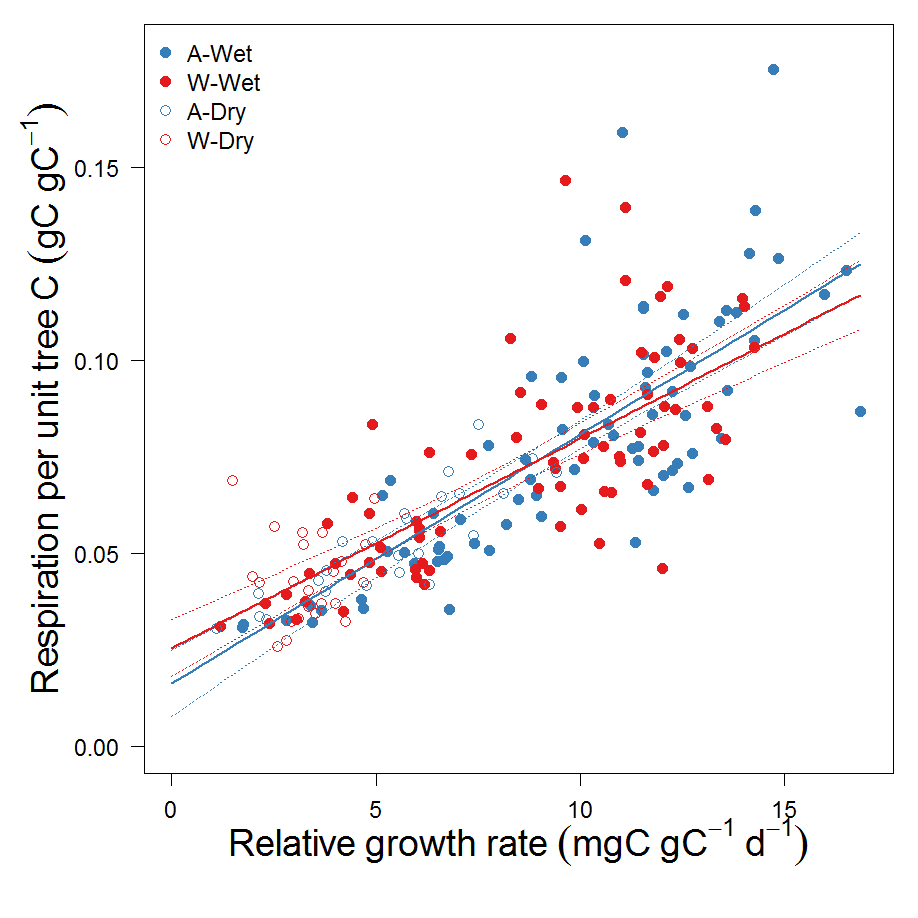
**Figure 4**. Soil volumetric water content and predawn leaf water potential (Ψpd) for twelve *Eucalyptus tereticornis* trees exposed to ambient (A) or warmed (W) air temperatures. All trees were maintained in well-water conditions (Wet) until mid-Feb, when half of the trees were subjected to a soil drydown (Dry). We show daily averages of the measured volumetric water content in surface soils (~0.1-m-depth; a), an intermediate depth (~0.5-m-depth; b), and in deep soils just above the hard layer of partially cemented manganese nodules (~1-m-depth; c). We also show leaf Ψpd measured throughout the drydown (d). Points reflect the mean and error bars reflect the standard error (n = 6 or 3). Note that Ψpd was moderate in all treatments.



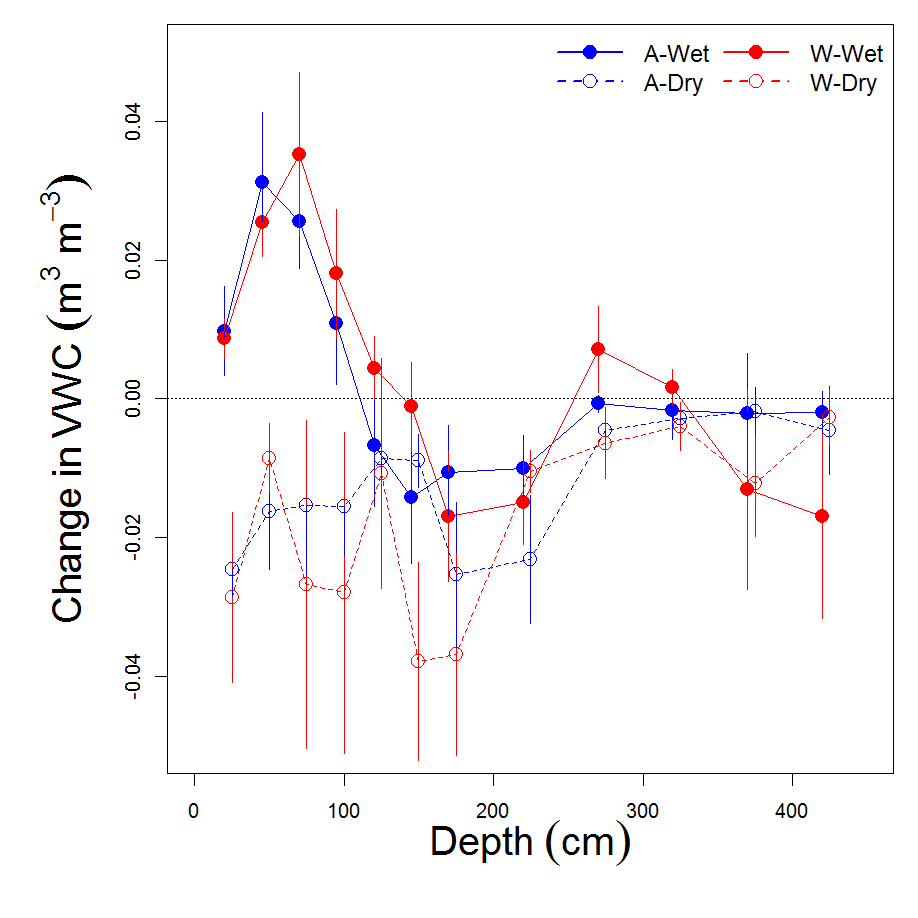
**Figure 5**. Fortnightly C fluxes for twelve *Eucalyptus tereticornis* trees exposed to ambient (A) or warmed (W) air temperatures. All fluxes are presented in units of g C tree-1 fortnight-1. All trees were maintained in well-water conditions until mid-Feb (Wet), when half of the trees were subjected to a soil drydown (Dry). Solid lines reflect the mean of fortnightly data (i.e., two-weekly) and shaded areas reflect 1SEM. Measurements include gross primary production (GPP; a), aboveground net primary production (NPPa; b), aboveground autotrophic respiration (Ra; c), and the residual (d). The residual reflects belowground C flux and measurement error. Note that the y-axis scale is twice as large for GPP relative to the other fluxes.



**Figure 6**. The fractional partitioning of gross primary production (GPP) for twelve *Eucalyptus tereticornis* trees. GPP was partitioned into aboveground net primary production (NPPa; a-b), aboveground autotrophic respiration (Ra; c-d), and the residual C, which includes belowground C allocation and measurement error (e-f). All trees were maintained in well-water conditions (Wet) until mid-Jan, when half of the trees were subjected to a soil drydown (Dry). Bar charts of flux partitioning terms (b, d, f) represent the mean (±1SEM), and the dotted vertical lines separate the pre-drought (left) and drought periods (right).



**Figure 7**. Partitioning of aboveground respiration into maintenance and growth components. Each point reflects a tree during a fortnightly growth interval. Note that the y-intercept reflects the maintenance respiration component and the slope reflects the growth respiration component. Neither the slope nor the intercept were affected by experiment treatments (mixed effects model with random intercepts for each chamber, *P* > 0.5). The solid lines reflects models fit to the ambient temperature (A) and warmed temperature (W) data and dashed lines reflect the 95% confidence interval. All of the data were well-described by a single linear function (Y = 0.021 + 0.0059x, r2 = 0.64, *P* < 0.001; *not shown*).



**Figure S1**. The change in volumetric water content (VWC) throughout the soil profile, comparing the end of the drought to the beginning of the drought. VWC was measured with the neutron probe method; negative values reflect reductions in VWC from the beginning (17 Feb 2014) to the end of the drought (24 April 2014). Points reflect means and error bars reflect 1SEM (n = 3). Note that trees in the dry treatment likely acquired water from soils as deep as 200 cm during the drought. The positive values in the shallow soils of “Wet” trees reflects the addition of H2O via surface irrigation.

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