





14 **Abstract.** This study explores the seasonal transpiration and physiological responses  
15 of two dominant coexisting tree species, *Schima superba* and *Michelia macclurei*, to  
16 manipulated precipitation patterns in a subtropical evergreen broadleaf forest of South  
17 China, in which an ambient control treatment (BC), a drier dry and wetter wet season  
18 treatment (DD), and an extended dry and wetter wet season treatment (ED) were  
19 applied. Tree water use and associated ecophysiological characters, such as the daily  
20 whole tree transpiration ( $E_L$ ), intrinsic water use efficiency ( $WUE_i$ ), Huber values  
21 ( $A_s:A_i$ ), and utilization proportions from different water sources were determined  
22 during the period from October 2012 to September 2013. For both tree species, no  
23 significant difference in transpiration among the three treatments was observed in the  
24 wet season, but a relatively stronger decrease of transpiration occurred under DD and  
25 ED treatments during the later dry season. Moreover, the higher transpiration of *M.*  
26 *macclurei* and its advantage of utilizing the shallow water derived from light rainfall  
27 under dry condition suggested that *M. macclurei* was more competitive in this  
28 subtropical forest. *M. macclurei* was inclined to adopt a drought-avoidance strategy,  
29 whereas *S. superba* that could uptake deeper soil water was more likely to be drought  
30 tolerant. The different spatial and temporal patterns of water use, together with the  
31 contrasting water use strategies, could partly explain the current coexistence of the  
32 two tree species. Their varying performance under different water conditions  
33 implies possible shifts in species dominance within the forest community that were  
34 potentially stimulated under future precipitation change scenarios from a long-term  
35 perspective.



36 **Keywords:** sap flow, tree transpiration, plant coexistence, precipitation pattern  
37 change, subtropical forest.  
38



## 39 **1 Introduction**

40 Under the global climate changes, most ecosystems are predicted to be confronted  
41 with much severer environmental conditions, such as increasing aridity and frequency  
42 of extreme rainfall events, in the future (IPCC, 2013). Forest ecosystems are  
43 generally vulnerable to the increased intensity and frequency of drought events, which  
44 may reduce trees' survival, productivity and vitality (Allen et al., 2010; Cook et al.,  
45 2015). In this context, the variations in water availability and distribution may have  
46 profound influences on plant growth and survival at the ecosystem level (Drake and  
47 Franks, 2003; Nolan et al., 2018). To maintain high wood productivity and to  
48 counteract the effects of a changing climate on water availability for forest trees, it  
49 verifies the necessity of new and appropriate forestry management strategies in the  
50 future.

51 Mixed forests have been regarded as an alternative management practice to help  
52 forest ecosystems adapt to future climatic changes (Kelty, 2006; Grossiord et al.,  
53 2014), and the coexisting plants' capacity to exploit the spatiotemporally  
54 differentiated resources determines the degree to which resources are available for  
55 productivity in the ecosystem. In fact, while coexisting species compete with each  
56 other for resources, the complementarity effect in mixed forests implies that the  
57 coexisting species could seek unique ecological niches and use resources at different  
58 spatial locations or temporal segregations (Loreau and Hector, 2001). Attributed to  
59 the different tree traits, such as xylem trait, water use efficiency, root systems and  
60 stomatal regulations, the tree species coexistence is achieved at relatively small spatial



61 scales, especially under water-limited conditions (Forner et al., 2014; del Castillo et  
62 al., 2016). Sterck et al. (2011) has proposed that, in a water-limited ecosystem,  
63 coexisting species may exhibit spatial or temporal resource partitioning and use water  
64 more efficiently in order to maintain the forest growth and diversity. Terrazas et al.  
65 (2009) also verified that under a Mediterranean climate plant species with deeper  
66 roots can make full use of groundwater resources, while those with shallow roots  
67 mainly utilize episodic rainwater. Other works also proposed some facilitation  
68 processes, for example, the hydraulic lift by deep-rooted species favors neighbor  
69 shallow-rooted species under water limited conditions (Prieto et al., 2012;  
70 Rodríguez-Robles et al., 2015). The result of Metz et al. (2016) strongly suggested  
71 that the sensitivity of European beech to environmental factors depends on  
72 neighborhood species, indicating that the development of mixed stands tends to be a  
73 reasonable silvicultural strategy to mitigate drought effects on growth of *Fagus*  
74 *sylvatica* stand. In addition, the contrasting water use strategies of coexisting species  
75 would also contribute to different responses of tree species to the moisture  
76 environment, and consequently be beneficial for their coexistence. Anisohydric  
77 species displaying little stomatal regulation might suffer large fluctuations in  
78 minimum leaf water potential, which are relatively drought-tolerant. Isohydric  
79 species, however, are often regarded as drought avoiders as they tend to occur in  
80 mesic areas where they can avoid drought-induced hydraulic failure by way of strict  
81 stomatal control and then relatively constant minimum leaf water potential  
82 (McDowell et al., 2008). For instance, as a water-saving and drought-avoiding



83 species, Mediterranean pines could share space and resources with drought-tolerant  
84 and less conservative species such as evergreen oaks (Zavala et al., 2011). However,  
85 several recent studies have also shown that water deficit will increase the competition  
86 for water resource in mixed forests (Grossiord et al., 2014), and consequently reduce  
87 the potential benefits of species coexistence (Jucker et al., 2014).

88        Though coexisting plants often possess contrasting or complementary  
89 resource-use strategies, related researches have been largely focused on arid and  
90 semi-arid regions (Nolan et al., 2018; Forner et al., 2014), while studies addressing  
91 the differential water use strategies of coexisting tree species in response to changed  
92 seasonality of precipitation in subtropical moist areas are scant. Despite the  
93 abundant rainfall, many tropical areas with rich species have already experienced little  
94 or no rain falls during dry seasons and upper soil layers might undergo severe drying  
95 (Goldstein et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2010; Gao et al., 2015). The unevenly distributed  
96 precipitation might cause spatiotemporal changes in soil water availability, and thus,  
97 would reshape the plant acclimation traits and water use (Gao et al., 2015; Ramírez et  
98 al., 2009). For example, del Castillo et al. (2016) reported that Aleppo pine and  
99 holm oak shared the same hydrological niche when soil layers are well hydrated but  
100 shifted to distinct water sources during periods of summer drought. In addition,  
101 adjustments of above- and below-ground biomass allocation in favor of the latter  
102 would confer greater water transport capacity on a leaf area basis and help adapt to  
103 the drier condition. For example, Martin-StPaul et al. (2013) observed that the  
104 transpiration of cork oak changed with the manipulated rainfall. Their study also



105 showed no significant differences in the gas exchange parameters and leaf water  
106 potential, while significant increase in ratio of branch sapwood area to leaf area ( $A_s:A_l$ )  
107 was found for drought treatment plots, implying that higher  $A_s:A_l$  could partially  
108 compensate for the negative effect of decreased soil water availability, and thus ensure  
109 a stable hydraulic continuum. Moreover, as mentioned above, deep-rooted plants  
110 have the advantage of exploiting relatively dependable water source that enables them  
111 to survive long drought periods and to overcome seasonal water limitations (Dai et al.,  
112 2015; del Castillo et al., 2016). However, the soil water recharge from precipitation  
113 pulses was the main water resource for shallow-rooted plants (Zapater et al., 2011;  
114 Yang et al., 2011). The different ability of plants to utilize available water of  
115 different soil layers is apparently related to the precipitation pattern and intensity  
116 during the growing seasons. In addition, species-specific seasonal patterns in  
117 transpiration rates, together with the distinct ability to access water at different soil  
118 depths, may lead to an alternation among competition, facilitation and niche  
119 segregation patterns (Prieto et al., 2012; Rodríguez-Robles et al., 2015). Therefore,  
120 investigating the response of water use by coexisting plants to the soil moisture  
121 dynamic changes are important to gain a deep understanding of the relationships  
122 between precipitation patterns and plants growth.

123 In order to identify the physiological and ecological strategies of tree species  
124 coexistence under the changing precipitation patterns, a field manipulation experiment  
125 was conducted in a mesic forest located in Heshan County, Guangdong province,  
126 South China. Climate records of the Heshan County indicate increasing duration of



127 the dry seasons with more severe aridity intensity in recent years (Hu et al., 2018).  
128 Main objectives of this study are 1) to investigate the changed traits and  
129 spatial-temporal water use patterns of two dominant coexisting tree species (*Schima*  
130 *superba* and *Michelia macclurei*) under the manipulated precipitation conditions in  
131 this subtropical forest; 2) to determine the associated mechanism underlying the  
132 different water use behaviors by examining tree transpirations and their responses to  
133 changing environmental factors, the morphological adjustment of aboveground  
134 biomass, the intrinsic water use efficiency, and the stable isotope composition of  
135 xylem water and soil water.

136

## 137 **2 Materials and Methods**

### 138 **2.1 Site description**

139 Our study site is located in Heshan National Field Research Station of Forest  
140 Ecosystem in the Heshan County, Guangdong Province, China (22° 41' N, 112°  
141 54' E). Human disturbance had resulted in vegetation degradation in this region,  
142 and an ecological restoration campaign attempting to reforest the degraded lands was  
143 launched in the early 1980s. These man-made plantations have developed into  
144 stable secondary broad-leaved evergreen forests after more than two-decade natural  
145 growth (Hu et al., 2018). This area is dominated by a typical subtropical monsoon  
146 climate, with long-term annual average air temperature of 19.1° C. The hottest and  
147 coldest months are July (28.7° C) and January (13.7° C), respectively. Long-term  
148 monitoring data show that the precipitation in this area has an annual average of



149 1813.6 mm and is unevenly distributed, with more than 70% of the rainfall occurring  
150 from April to September (wet season) during which it is hot and humid. It receives  
151 less rainfall and is relatively cold and dry from October to March (dry season) (data  
152 from <http://www.cma.gov.cn/2011qx fw/2011qsjgx/>).

153 The experimental site lies on a southeast-facing slope with an inclination of 16°.  
154 Most of the plants are native species and approximately 25 years old, with *Michelia*  
155 *macclurei* and *Schima superba* being the dominant tree species. Forest density in  
156 this experimental site is approximately 1019 trees per hectare. The forest contains  
157 an Acrisol with a topsoil (0-20 cm) pH of 4.26, total nitrogen content of 1.2 g kg<sup>-1</sup>,  
158 organic carbon matter content of 24.2 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, and available phosphorous content of 2.4  
159 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> (Hu et al., 2018, Gao et al., 2015).

## 160 2.2 Experimental design

161 The Precipitation Seasonal Distribution Changes (PSDC) platform was established to  
162 carry out the whole experiment. We adopted four random blocks, 3 plots for each  
163 block containing 3 treatments separately: “Blank control (BC)”, “Drier dry and wetter  
164 wet season (DD)”, and “Extended dry and wetter wet season (ED)”. The DD  
165 treatment was achieved by excluding 67% of throughfall during dry season (October  
166 to March of the following year) using the under-canopy rain shelter devices to  
167 simulate the drier condition under the dry season, whereas for the ED treatment, 67%  
168 of throughfall was excluded in the spring (April-May) to simulate spring drought and  
169 prolonged dry season. To guarantee the equal total annual rainfall, approximately  
170 equivalent amounts of excluded water were pumped into these plots several times



171 during wet seasons (from April to September for DD, and from June to September for  
172 ED, respectively). The irrigated water was pumped from a lake approximately 800  
173 m away from the experimental site. To minimize the interactions between the plots,  
174 60-80 cm deep trenches were dug around the selected plots, and sufficient PVC plates  
175 were buried to cut off the lateral surface runoff and interflow. This operation could  
176 also block the crosslinking among the sample tree roots. More detailed information  
177 about the facilities and the operations was comprehensively described in Hu et al.  
178 (2018).

### 179 **2.3 Sap flow**

180 Two dominant coexisting tree species, *S. superba* and *M. macclurei* were chosen as  
181 sample species for this research. Sap flow of in total 24 *S. superba* and 39 *M.*  
182 *macclurei* trees in all experimental plots was monitored from October 1, 2012 to  
183 September 30, 2013. The thermal dissipation probes (TDPs), with a length of 2.0 cm  
184 and a diameter of 2.0 mm (Granier, 1987), were applied to measure trees' sap flux  
185 density ( $J_s$ ). The upper probe was continuously heated by constant DC producing  
186 power of 0.2 W, while the lower one was unheated and served as temperature  
187 reference. The self-made TDP probes were directly inserted into the xylem at a  
188 height of 1.3 m above the ground on the northern side of tree trunk. Sap flow  
189 readings were recorded by the Delta-T data loggers (DL2e, Delta-T Devices, Ltd.,  
190 Cambridge, UK). The temperature difference between two probes was used to  
191 calculate  $J_s$  ( $\text{g H}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) according to the following equation (Granier 1987):

$$192 \quad J_s = 119 \left( \frac{\Delta T_m - \Delta T}{\Delta T} \right)^{1.231} \quad (1)$$



193 where  $\Delta T_m$  is the maximum temperature difference under zero-flux conditions, and  $\Delta T$   
194 is the instantaneous temperature difference. To avoid the problem of radial variation  
195 in  $J_s$  with sapwood depth when integrating the measured sap flux values to whole tree  
196 transpiration, the consistent relationship proposed by Pataki et al. (2011) for  
197 angiosperm trees was applied as below:

$$198 \quad J_i / J_o = 1.033 \times \exp \left[ -0.5 \left( \frac{x-0.09963}{0.4263} \right)^2 \right] \quad (2)$$

199 where  $J_i/J_o$  is the ratio of sap flux at the actual to the outermost (2 cm in our study)  
200 sapwood depth, and  $x$  is the relative sapwood depth. We first standardized the sap  
201 flux density and sapwood depth on the basis of  $J_s$  and stem radius, then integrated the  
202 obtained standardized function to get the standardized mean sap flux density ( $\bar{J}_{\text{stan}}$ ),  
203 and consequently obtained the actual mean sap flux density ( $J_s = \bar{J}_{\text{stan}} \times J_s / 1$ ). The  
204 whole-tree sap flux was calculated by simply multiplying the mean sap flux density  
205 with sapwood area ( $E = \bar{J}_s \times A_s$ ,  $\text{g s}^{-1}$ ). To remove the effect of tree size on  
206 transpiration, we adopted a normalized tree transpiration ( $E_L$ ) expressed as  $E/DBH$   
207 following the proposal of Besson et al. (2014).

## 208 **2.4 Micrometeorology**

209 Photosynthetically active radiation ( $PAR$ ), relative humidity ( $RH$ ), air temperature ( $T$ ),  
210 and precipitation ( $P$ ) were recorded hourly by a standard weather station 50 m away  
211 from the experimental site. Vapor pressure deficit ( $VPD$ ) was calculated from  $T$  and  
212  $RH$  using the formula proposed by Campbell and Norman (1998) as follows:

$$213 \quad VPD = a \times \exp(b \times T / (T + c)) \times (1 - RH) \quad (3)$$

214 where  $T$  is the air temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ),  $RH$  is the relative humidity of the air (%), and  $a$ ,  $b$



215 and  $c$  are constants with values of 0.611, 17.502 and 240.97, respectively.  
216 Additionally, soil samples were periodically collected in the experimental plots to  
217 measure the soil water contents ( $SWC$ ) by gravimetric method.

## 218 **2.5 Tree biometric parameters**

219 Biometric parameters of the sample trees for sap flow monitoring were measured at  
220 the beginning of the experiment. Tree diameter at breast height ( $DBH$ ) and tree  
221 height ( $H$ ) were measured using a  $DBH$  ruler and a Tandem-360R/PC altimeter  
222 (Suunto, Finland), respectively. We chose 20 trees of each species from the  
223 surrounding area with different diameters to determine the sapwood area ( $SA$ ), and  
224 empirical equations between  $SA$  and  $DBH$  were established and then were used to  
225 calculate the  $SA$  values for all sampled trees. For wood density determination, we  
226 used an increment borer to core the sapwood from six to seven trees outside the  
227 experimental site. The obtained wood cores were well wrapped by the wet towels  
228 and placed in sealed plastic bags, then immediately transported to laboratory where  
229 they were weighed by an electronic balance (Shinko, Japan, with an accuracy of  
230 0.0001 g), and then dried to a constant weight at 80 °C in an oven to obtain the dry  
231 weight. The wood density values were calculated from the dry mass divided by  
232 fresh volume. The biometric parameters of the studied trees, including the diameter  
233 breast height ( $DBH$ , cm), tree height ( $H$ , m), and sapwood area ( $A_s$ ,  $10^{-4}$  m<sup>2</sup>) were  
234 summarized in Table 1.

## 235 **2.6 Whole tree and branch $A_s:A_l$**

236 In this study, three to ten branches (20 cm) with 50-200 healthy leaves from each of



237 five replicate trees per species for each treatment were randomly sampled and  
238 collected at the end of experiment. All the leaf and wood samples of twigs were  
239 oven dried at 80°C to obtain a constant weight. Branch barks were removed  
240 carefully to measure the branch diameter and consequently to calculate the branch  
241 sapwood area. All leaves on each branch were scanned (Li-3000A, Li-Cor, Inc.,  
242 Lincoln, NE) to calculate the branch  $A_s:A_l$  (the ratio of sapwood area to leaf area).  
243 The whole tree  $A_s:A_l$  was obtained by the following procedures. Firstly, we  
244 calculated the values of leaf mass per area ( $LMA$ ) according to the measured leaf  
245 weight and the scanned leaf area mentioned above. Then, we adopted the following  
246 models to calculate the leaf biomass ( $B_l$ ) (Gao et al., 2015):

247  $M. macclurei$  :  $\text{Log}(B_l) = 0.5967 \log(DBH^2 \times H) - 1.0986$  ( $n = 4, r^2 = 0.96$ ) (4)

248  $S. superba$  :  $\text{Log}(B_l) = 0.7364 \log(DBH^2 \times H) - 1.7732$  ( $n = 4, r^2 = 0.99$ ) (5)

249 By combining the calculated data of  $LMA$  and  $B_l$ , we achieved the whole tree leaf area  
250 ( $A_l$ ) and finally obtained the whole tree  $A_s:A_l$ .

## 251 2.7 Water use efficiency

252 The leaf-level intrinsic water use efficiency ( $WUE_i$ ) was estimated by measuring  
253 photosynthetic carbon isotope discrimination ( $\Delta$ ) in bulk leaf tissue at the end of the  
254 experiment (Farquhar et al., 1982). As proposed by Farquhar et al. (1982),  $\Delta$  is  
255 inversely related to  $WUE_i$  in  $C_3$  plants, with  $\Delta$  in bulk leaf tissue representing  $WUE_i$   
256 integrated over the time when carbon was assimilated. The above-obtained dried  
257 leaves described in the previous section were crushed and sieved through a 150 mesh,  
258 and then used to measure the C isotopic signatures ( $\delta^{13}C$ , ‰) using Pee Dee



259 Belemnite (PDB) limestone and N<sub>2</sub> as the standards. Photosynthetic <sup>13</sup>C  
260 discrimination ( $\Delta$ ) was then calculated as:

$$261 \quad \Delta = \frac{\delta^{13}C_{atm} - \delta^{13}C_{plant}}{1 + \delta^{13}C_{plant}/1000} \quad (6)$$

262 where  $\delta^{13}C_{atm}$  is the carbon isotope ratio of the atmosphere and assumed to be  $-8.72\%$   
263 (Gao et al., 2015).  $WUE_i$  was calculated as:

$$264 \quad WUE_i = \frac{C_a}{1.6} \times \left( \frac{27.5 - \Delta}{27.5 - 4.4} \right) \quad (7)$$

265 where  $C_a$  is atmospheric carbon concentration (400 ppm), 27.5 (‰) is the  
266 fractionation associated with enzyme reactions during CO<sub>2</sub>-carboxylation, and 4.4 (‰)  
267 is the fractionation during CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion through stomata.

#### 268 *Stable isotope composition of xylem water and environmental water*

269 Different water samples for isotope analysis were collected from plant xylem water,  
270 soil water, groundwater and rain at the end of the experiment (mid-September).  
271 Suberized branch samples were collected from five selected trees for each treatment.  
272 The green tissue and outer bark were carefully removed to prevent the isotopic  
273 discrimination. These pretreated branches were immediately cut into 1-cm long  
274 segments, sealed in a glass vial, and stored at  $-20^\circ\text{C}$  refrigerator after being  
275 transported to laboratory. Four rainfall samples were collected and analyzed for the  
276 isotope analysis. Soil samples at different depths (0-20, 20-40, and 40-60 cm) were  
277 collected from each experimental plot. Water from a small well near the  
278 experimental plots was collected as the groundwater and kept in the laboratory at  
279  $0-5^\circ\text{C}$ . The cryogenic vacuum extraction was used to extract water from soil and  
280 branch samples, and the obtained water was filtered with microporous membranes



281 (pore size 0.45  $\mu\text{m}$ ) to remove solid organic matters (Ehleringer et al., 2000). All the  
282 prepared water samples were measured for the hydrogen/oxygen isotopic composition  
283 using an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Finnigan MAT253, USA). Specifically,  
284 the analyzer gave D and  $^{18}\text{O}$  ratios relative to V-SMOW, and revisions were  $\pm 1\%$  and  
285  $\pm 0.2\%$  for D and  $^{18}\text{O}$ , respectively. D and  $^{18}\text{O}$  compositions of water samples were  
286 input in the IsoSource software V1.3.1 to quantitatively differentiate water in  
287 branches absorbed from different water sources (Phillips and Gregg, 2003). In the  
288 process of calculation, mixtures were set to the hydrogen and oxygen isotopic  
289 compositions of the branch water. The increment and tolerance were set to 2% and  
290 0.05%, respectively (Sun et al., 2018).

## 291 **2.8 Statistical analysis**

292 Differences of monthly  $SWC$ , whole-tree and branch  $A_s:A_i$ , and  $WUE_i$  among tree  
293 species and changed precipitation patterns were tested by the post hoc LSD test in the  
294 SPSS software package (SPSS Inc. 2003). Differences between the treatments were  
295 considered statistically significant at  $p < 0.05$ . To establish and compare the  
296 correlations between whole-tree transpiration and  $PAR$  or  $VPD$ , the linear model ( $y =$   
297  $= ax + b$ ) and exponential saturation model [ $y = a \times (1 - e^{-bx})$ ] were operated in Origin  
298 8.0, where  $a$  and  $b$  are the fitting parameters.

## 299 **3 Results**

### 300 **3.1 Environmental factors**

301 As shown in Figure 1, the monitored environmental factors exhibited pronounced  
302 seasonal variations. The maximum monthly mean  $T$  occurred in June with value of



303 27.72°C, while the minimum monthly mean  $T$  was 13.83°C and occurred in January.  
304 Large variation was observed in daily  $PAR$  values, ranging from 3.69 to 46.26 mol  
305  $m^{-2} d^{-1}$ , and the monthly mean  $PAR$  values during the whole experimental period  
306 ranged from 16.44 (March) to 26.30  $mol m^{-2} d^{-1}$  (June). Total precipitation at the  
307 research site during the experimental period was 2094 mm. The precipitation was  
308 unevenly distributed and occurred mainly between April and September, accounting  
309 for approximately 84% of the annual total. It was noticeable that the heaviest  
310 precipitation with a value of 498.6 mm occurred in August, while the lightest  
311 precipitation occurred in February with only 2.7 mm. Difference in daily mean  $VPD$   
312 was remarkable between wet and dry seasons, reaching the peak (1.90 kPa) in  
313 September and the lowest in March, respectively. Monthly measured  $SWC$  values  
314 for the three manipulated precipitation treatments were shown in Figure 2.  
315 According to the statistical analysis, the DD treatment possessed significantly lower  
316  $SWC$  values for majority of the experimental months, with approximately 5%-30%  
317 decline compared to BC and ED treatments, and no difference was observed between  
318 the BC and ED treatments in the wet season. Regarding the seasonal variations, the  
319 highest  $SWC$  values occurred in May for all three treatments, ranging from 26.0% to  
320 31.0%. Compared to the wet season, the average  $SWC$  values decreased by  
321 9.8%-13.7% in the dry season.

### 322 **3.2 Daily tree transpiration**

323 The daily normalized tree transpiration ( $E_L$ ) of two tree species under dry (from  
324 October to the next February), spring drought (from March to May), and wet (from



325 June to September) season was presented in Figure 3. Generally,  $E_L$  was higher in  
326 wet season than in dry and spring drought seasons. *M. macclurei* transpired more  
327 water than *S. superba* under the same treatment for most sunny days, and it was more  
328 significant during the periods of dry and spring drought seasons. In terms of  
329 temporal change,  $E_L$  was relatively higher in wet and early dry seasons (October), but  
330 showed a clear decline during later dry season, while increased and generally  
331 maintained stable for the spring drought. The changed precipitation pattern has  
332 obviously posed an effect on tree transpiration. Specifically, no significant  
333 difference of transpiration for the three precipitation treatments was observed for both  
334 tree species in the wet season, and such non-distinction in transpiration had continued  
335 until later October. During the dry season, trees in BC plots experienced a relatively  
336 stronger transpiration (generally exceeded  $40 \text{ kg day}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$ ) than those under DD  
337 treatments (mostly maintained at about  $10\text{-}20 \text{ kg day}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$  after November).  
338 Differing from those in the wet and dry seasons,  $E_L$  values of ED treatment were  
339 significantly lower for both tree species than those of other two treatments during the  
340 spring drought period.

341 To analyze the tree transpiration changes of two tree species with the changed  
342 precipitation pattern, we averaged the daily tree transpiration and calculated the  
343 decline percentages with the seasonal changes. Compared to the wet season, the  
344 transpiration of *M. macclurei* declined by 43% to 47% for the three treatments, while  
345 the decline percentages for *S. superba* were from 33% to 46%, during the dry season,  
346 and the DD treatment led to a largest decline in transpiration for both tree species



347 among the three treatments. Similarly, the transpiration of *S. superba* and *M.*  
348 *macclurei* under ED treatment during the spring drought period has decreased by  
349 8.6% and 34%, respectively, with *M. macclurei* undergoing greater drop (26%-35%)  
350 than *S. superba* (8%-28%) for the three different treatments.

### 351 **3.3 Water use efficiency and $A_s:A_l$ value**

352 As listed in Table 2, the water use efficiency ( $WUE_i$ ) ranged from 64.8 to 73.7  $\mu\text{mol}$   
353  $\text{mol}^{-1}$  for *S. superba*, and 61.8 to 63.9  $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$  for *M. macclurei*. No distinct  
354 precipitation treatment or species differences of  $WUE_i$  were found, except a  
355 significantly higher value for *S. superba* under DD treatment. The branch and  
356 whole-tree  $A_s:A_l$ , however, showed significant differences between two tree species.  
357 To be specific, the branch and whole-tree  $A_s:A_l$  of *M. macclurei* were 7.7% ~ 30.7%  
358 lower than those of *S. superba* among the different rainfall treatments ( $p < 0.05$ ). It  
359 is remarkable that the  $A_s:A_l$  values of *M. macclurei* trees under the DD treatment  
360 experienced the biggest drop (decreased by 30%), and the smallest decrease (with  
361 values of 7.7% and 14%) under the ED treatment. Whereas for the same tree species,  
362 sampled trees in three different manipulated precipitation blocks shared similar  
363 whole-tree  $A_s:A_l$  values ( $p > 0.05$ ).

### 364 **3.4 Proportions of water resources use**

365 Oxygen stable isotopes measurements and analyses by IsoSource model (Figure 4)  
366 showed that trees obtained water predominantly from rainwater and soil water, which  
367 generally account for more than 80% of xylem tree water use. Normally, the  
368 rainwater use of *M. macclurei* for BC and ED treatments was higher than that of *S.*



369 *superba*, but not for the treatment of DD. The utilization of soil water by *M.*  
370 *macclurei* trees showed no obvious treatment-difference. However, attributed to the  
371 full use of rainwater, the consumption of soil water by *S. superba* in DD plots (29%)  
372 was relatively lower than that under the other two treatments (45.3% for BC, and  
373 49.5% for ED, respectively). In terms of soil water use depth, both tree species took  
374 20.8% ~ 39.6% of water from a relatively deeper layers (40-60 cm soil layer and  
375 groundwater), whereas the transpiration proportion obtained from shallow soil layers  
376 water (0-40cm) for the different precipitation treatment plots accounted for 17.1%~  
377 30.9%, and *S. superba* was inclined to use more deeper water and groundwater than  
378 *M. macclurei*.

### 379 **3.5 Tree water use in response to *VPD* and *PAR***

380 Responses of  $E_L$  to *VPD* and *PAR* for both species in dry, and spring drought and wet  
381 seasons were presented in Figures 5-6, indicating that tree transpiration could be well  
382 explained by *VPD* and *PAR*. Significant linear relationships were established  
383 between  $E_L$  and *VPD* for the *S. superba* and *M. macclurei* ( $R^2$  values ranged from 0.20  
384 to 0.81,  $p < 0.05$ ), except under BC treatment in wet season. Normally, the slopes of  
385 fitted lines in BC treatment were significantly higher than those in DD and ED  
386 treatments, with values of BC > DD > ED in sequence. During spring drought, a  
387 much flatter change in daily transpiration with increasing *VPD* was observed in *M.*  
388 *macclurei* of BC treatment. For the DD and ED treatments, there was no significant  
389 difference in the slopes of the fitted linear relationships for the three periods within  
390 the same tree species. We used the exponential saturation model to explore the



391 relationships between  $E_L$  and  $PAR$  for all treatments. As suggested by Gao et al.  
392 (2015), parameter  $b$  might indicate the sensitivity of tree transpiration to the  
393 environmental variables in the exponential saturation model. Compared with BC  
394 and DD treatments, tree transpiration under ED treatment for both species generally  
395 showed less sensitivity to the increasing  $PAR$ , especially under dry season. Further,  
396 variations in parameter  $b$  could not be ignored, with values ranging from -6.89 to 0.08  
397 for different treatments. Though no obvious change pattern was observed for the  
398 parameter  $b$  in the relationships between tree transpiration and  $PAR$ , the changes of  $E_L$   
399 with increased  $VPD$  still indicated that the sensitivity of *M. macclurei* was slightly  
400 higher than that of *S. superba*.

## 401 **4 Discussion**

### 402 **4.1 Transpiration**

403 The results indicated that tree water utilization varied with time and tree species at the  
404 experimental site. Changed climatic indices are the main reasons for the temporal  
405 variation of tree water use, as partly supported by the well-established relationships  
406 between  $E_L$  and  $VPD$  or  $PAR$  (Figure 5 and 6). With more precipitation, higher  $SWC$ ,  
407  $VPD$ , and  $T$  values, both tree species undoubtedly transpired more water during the  
408 wet season. Despite sufficient precipitation, tree transpiration still experienced a  
409 decrease from March to May, even under the BC plots, which is mainly due to the  
410 cloudy/rainy days and lower  $VPD$  or  $PAR$ . It is noticeable that the transpiration in  
411 October for both species remained at a relatively high level, which could be attributed  
412 to the correspondingly higher evaporative demand and  $PAR$ .



413 Tree hydraulic characters and biometric parameters could explain the diverse tree  
414 water use (Zinnert et al., 2013; Seyoum et al., 2014). For example, *S. superba*  
415 possessed a relatively higher wood density and a less transpired water than *M.*  
416 *macclurei* (Table 1 and Figure 3). Similar results were also reported by Köcher et al.  
417 (2013), which demonstrated that tree species with lower wood density might have the  
418 ability to utilize more water when transpiration demands are high than species with  
419 higher wood density. Since the hydraulic conductivity is conversely related to  
420 sapwood density (Pratt et al., 2007), the lower wood density of *M. macclurei* favored  
421 a higher hydraulic conductivity, partly explaining why *M. macclurei* had the higher  
422 transpiration quantity during most experimental time. Results indicated that the *S.*  
423 *superba* had a significantly larger Huber value ( $A_s:A_t$ ) (Table 2), which means this  
424 species would be less access to water and can further reduce the risk of xylem  
425 cavitation (Zolfaghar et al., 2014). Similar results, i.e., larger Huber values but less  
426 transpired water, were also reported in Nolan et al. (2018), indicating that *S. superba*  
427 was more likely to be drought-tolerant. As a stable and reliable indicator, xylem  
428 water  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values can be regarded as an integrated estimate of water uptake by roots,  
429 and it could help to distinguish the main water source used by a plant by comparing  
430 them with those of potential water sources (Jackson et al., 1999; Liu et al., 2010).  
431 We compared the xylem water  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values between *S. superba* and *M. macclurei*  
432 ( $-5.80 \pm 0.02\text{‰}$  and  $-5.66 \pm 0.28\text{‰}$ , respectively) and presented the water use  
433 proportion in Figure 4. The results suggested *M. macclurei* used less groundwater,  
434 but consumed more water from the shallow soil (0-60 cm soil depth) than *S. superba*.



435 Combined this water use proportion with the hydraulic characters (for example, Huber  
436 value, stem wood density, etc.), the water relations of *M. macclurei* and *S. superba* are  
437 consistent with drought avoidance and drought tolerance strategies, respectively.

#### 438 **4.2 Influence of changed precipitation patterns on water use of coexisting trees**

439 As illustrated in Figure 3, the manipulated precipitation has significantly changed the  
440 transpirations of both *M. macclurei* and *S. superba*. Similar reduction of tree  
441 transpiration following precipitation exclusion was also reported in other studies  
442 (Besson et al., 2014; Pangle et al., 2015). The significant decrease of soil water  
443 content and the associated water availability were considered as the most direct reason  
444 for the decrease of tree water use (Figure 2 and 3). Furthermore, precipitation was  
445 also a crucial limiting factor of  $WUE_i$  (Battipaglia et al., 2014). Scanlon and  
446 Albertson (2004) pointed out that  $WUE_i$  changed along the aridity gradient and  
447 increased as precipitation decreased. Moreno-Gutierrez et al. (2012) also stated that  
448 many drought tolerant plants have increased  $WUE_i$  compared to drought avoiding  
449 plants. In this study, an obvious increase of  $WUE_i$  of *S. superba* in DD treatment  
450 might indicate its better ability to cope with drought and ensure their own growth.  
451 Moreover, under the conditions of water scarce, drought stress is the main influencing  
452 factor on plant survival and growth. Various mechanisms, including controlling  
453 growth rate, adjusting leaf area index, increasing  $WUE_i$ , and uptaking water from deep  
454 soil, would help plants adapt to this stress (Lévesque et al., 2014; Nock et al., 2011;  
455 Sun et al., 2011). In our study, the utilization of water from distinct soil layers by the  
456 two tree species was observed under relatively drier condition. The difference in



457 root biomass distribution of *M. macclurei* and *S. superba* may be the possible reason  
458 for the different water use proportion. According to Hu et al. (2018), *S. superba* and  
459 *M. macclurei* allocate approximately 47% and 72% of the total root biomass to the  
460 shallow soil layers, respectively. This could also explain the higher transpiration rate  
461 of *M. macclurei* than that of *S. superba* even during dry and spring drought periods, as  
462 the less and lighter rain events that only kept the soil upper layer moist could render  
463 *M. macclurei* convenience of obtaining shallow layer water, while *S. superba* had to  
464 turn to deeper soil water by way of allocating more root biomass to the deeper soil  
465 layers.

#### 466 **4.3 Implications**

467 Availability of water can influence species composition and structure in many  
468 ecosystems as well as species distribution of vegetation zones (Corbin et al., 2005;  
469 Liu et al., 2010). Our result that the *M. macclurei* maintained a higher transpiration  
470 even under the relatively dry condition suggests its advantage under the present  
471 environment, but it would face the risk of embolism in severe long-term drought due  
472 to its relatively more root biomass allocation in shallow soil, lower wood density and  
473  $A_s:A_1$  values. In contrast, with more root biomass allocated in the deep layer, higher  
474 Huber values, and higher wood density, *S. superba* might be drought tolerant and less  
475 prone to xylem embolism (McDowell et al., 2008). Additionally, the sensitivity of  
476 tree transpiration to meteorological factors such as *VPD* and *PAR* could be indicated  
477 by the slopes of the established fitting functions (Figure 5 and 6). As proposed by  
478 Sala et al. (2010), lower slopes implies a less increasing extent of water transpiration



479 following the increasing *VPD* or *PAR* under the DD and ED treatment, suggesting a  
480 potential of smaller increasing extent of carbon uptake due to the stomatal closure  
481 when potential drought stress happens. Considering the importance of stomata  
482 sensitivity for tree's growth, a higher transpiration rate under low *VPD* and higher  
483 light demands are regarded as adaptive characteristics of the pioneering successional  
484 tree species for ecological restoration (van Gelder et al., 2006), and our results also  
485 proved that the *M. macclurei* was more sensitive to the environmental variations than  
486 and therefore possessed a competitive advantage over *S. superba* under current  
487 climatic condition in this moist forest. These different water use strategies allow the  
488 coexisting species to exploit resources differentially and can partially explain the  
489 current coexistence of both species. However, changes in the length and intensity of  
490 drought events could lead to alternation in the dominance of tree species. This  
491 becomes particularly important for lower subtropical ecosystems in South China,  
492 where it has experienced considerable changes of precipitation patterns in the recent  
493 decades (Cao et al., 2012). From this point, a chronic, prolonged drought could have  
494 a stronger negative effect on *M. macclurei* than on *S. superba*, since hydraulic failure  
495 would become a serious threat under long droughts. Therefore, we might expect that  
496 their current coexisting relations be altered under the potential future changes in  
497 precipitation pattern.

## 498 **5 Conclusion**

499 Manipulated precipitation changes including drier condition and changed precipitation  
500 seasonality have a species-specific impact on water use of dominant tree species in



501 the subtropical evergreen broad-leaved forest. During the experimental period,  
502 normalized daily transpiration was generally higher in wet season than those under  
503 dry and spring drought condition. *M. macclurei* that distributes more root biomass in  
504 shallow soil layers transpired more water than *S. superba* even under dry/spring  
505 drought period, implying that the shallow soil layer still does not experience the  
506 drought stress under the current climate conditions, and thus the advantage of  
507 acquiring shallow water for *M. macclurei* is guaranteed. The manipulated  
508 precipitation exclusion significantly reduced the transpiration for both tree species,  
509 and a greater decrease of  $E_L$  was observed for *M. macclurei* than for *S. superba* under  
510 the drier conditions. Though no significant difference in branch and whole  $A_s:A_l$   
511 values was induced by the precipitation exclusion, the measured oxygen stable  
512 isotopes showed utilization of distinct water resources for the two studied tree species,  
513 with *M. macclurei* preferring to a shallow soil water, and *S. superba*, however, being  
514 more inclined to a deeper soil water. Linear relationships between  $E_L$  and  $VPD$   
515 established for both species under different treatments further explained the  
516 species-specific water use under the changing water conditions. Our findings have  
517 emphasized the importance of current changing precipitation patterns in subtropical  
518 moist zones for the coexistence of maturing individuals with different functional  
519 types.

520

521 *Author contribution statement.* ZP, SWJ, GJG and OYL conceived and designed the  
522 experiments. GJG, ZP, RXQ, ZLW, and NGY performed the experiments. OYL



523 analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript, ZP was involved in the revision of the  
524 manuscript, other authors provided editorial advice.

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532

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692



693 **Table 1.** Biometric characters of the trees selected for sap flow measurement

Tree species	<i>S. superba</i>			<i>M. macclurei</i>		
	BC	DD	ED	BC	DD	ED
N	8	10	6	15	12	12
Height (m)	7.0 ± 0.5	7.0 ± 0.5	6.5 ± 0.5	9.4 ± 0.6	13.6 ± 0.5	9.5 ± 0.5
DBH (cm)	12.9 ± 1.2	14.0 ± 0.9	13.7 ± 1.2	17.5 ± 1.4	19.0 ± 1.4	17.9 ± 1.3
Sapwood area (cm <sup>2</sup> )	116.4 ±	133.2 ±	133.3 ±	203.0 ±	234.3 ±	205.7 ±
	2.5	6.8	6.1	1.1	8.2	8.2
Projected crown area (m <sup>2</sup> )	12.8 ± 2.6	13.1 ± 1.8	14.4 ± 2.1	30.1 ± 5.5	31.5 ± 4.1	25.7 ± 3.0
Wood density (g cm <sup>-3</sup> )		0.61 ± 0.03			0.53 ± 0.03	

694 BC: an ambient control treatment, DD: a drier dry season and wetter wet season treatment, and ED an extended dry season and wetter wet season treatment.

695 DBH: tree diameter at breast height.



696 **Table 2.** The intrinsic water use efficiency ( $WUE_i$ ,  $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ H}_2\text{O}$ ), branch and  
697 whole-tree  $A_s:A_1$  values ( $\text{mm}^2 \text{ cm}^{-2} \times 10000$ ) for *S. superba* and *M. macclurei*

Treatment	BC	DD	ED
<i>S. superba</i>			
$WUE_i$	$66.0 \pm 3.1 \text{ a}$	$73.7 \pm 3.5 \text{ b}$	$64.8 \pm 4.0 \text{ a}$
Branch $A_s:A_1$	$1.68 \pm 0.16 \text{ cd}$	$1.86 \pm 0.18 \text{ d}$	$1.53 \pm 0.09 \text{ bc}$
Whole tree $A_s:A_1$	$3.55 \pm 0.50 \text{ bcd}$	$3.70 \pm 0.41 \text{ cd}$	$3.80 \pm 0.42 \text{ d}$
<i>M. macclurei</i>			
$WUE_i$	$61.8 \pm 2.6 \text{ a}$	$62.6 \pm 5.0 \text{ a}$	$63.9 \pm 3.8 \text{ a}$
Branch $A_s:A_1$	$1.35 \pm 0.05 \text{ ab}$	$1.20 \pm 0.06 \text{ a}$	$1.42 \pm 0.05 \text{ abc}$
Whole tree $A_s:A_1$	$3.11 \pm 0.65 \text{ ab}$	$2.83 \pm 0.38 \text{ a}$	$3.23 \pm 0.68 \text{ abc}$

698 BC: an ambient control treatment, DD: a drier dry season and wetter wet season treatment,  
699 and ED: an extended dry season and wetter wet season treatment.

700



701 **Figure Captions:**

702 **Figure 1.** Daily mean values of (a) photosynthetically active radiation (*PAR*), (b) temperature  
703 (*T*), (c) vapor pressure deficit (*VPD*), and (d) precipitation (*P*) during the experimental period  
704 (from October 1, 2012 to September 30, 2013).

705 **Figure 2.** Monthly soil water content under treatment of BC: an ambient control treatment,  
706 DD: a drier dry and wetter wet season treatment, and ED: an extended dry and wetter wet  
707 season treatment.

708 **Figure 3.** Daily water transpiration of *M. macclurei* (a, c and e, respectively) and *S. superba*  
709 (b, d and f, respectively) during the dry season (the upper, from October, 2012 to February,  
710 2013), spring drought (the middle, from April to May, 2013), and wet season (the bottom,  
711 from June to September, 2013). Missing data were due to instrument failure or power-off. BC:  
712 an ambient control treatment (open circles), DD: a drier dry and wetter wet season treatment  
713 (open triangles), and ED an extended dry and wetter wet season treatment (half-filled  
714 squares).

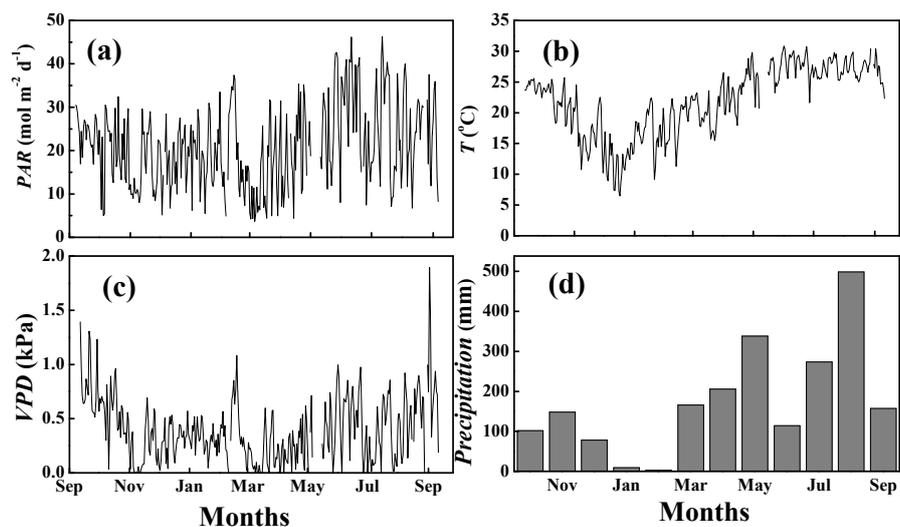
715 **Figure 4.** Proportions of the different water sources used by *S. superba* (left) and *M.*  
716 *macclurei* (right) under different treatments. BC: an ambient control treatment, DD: a drier  
717 dry and wetter wet season treatment, and ED an extended dry and wetter wet season  
718 treatment.

719 **Figure 5.** Response of average daily water transpiration to average daily vapor pressure  
720 deficit (*VPD*) for *M. macclurei* (a, c and e, respectively) and *S. superba* (b, d and f,  
721 respectively) during the dry season (the upper), spring drought (the middle), and wet season  
722 (the bottom). BC: an ambient control treatment (open circles and black lines), DD: a drier dry



723 and wetter wet season treatment (open triangles and green lines), and ED an extended dry and  
724 wetter wet season treatment (half-filled squares and blue lines). All displayed fitted lines  
725 showed significant linear regressions ( $p < 0.05$ ).

726 **Figure 6.** Response of average daily water transpiration to daily *PAR* for *M. macclurei* (a, c,  
727 and e, respectively) and *S. superba* (b, d and f, respectively) during the dry season (the upper),  
728 spring drought (the middle), and wet season (the bottom). BC: an ambient control treatment  
729 (open circles and black lines), DD: a drier dry and wetter wet season treatment (open triangles  
730 and green lines), and ED an extended dry and wetter wet season treatment (half-filled squares  
731 and blue lines). All displayed fitted lines showed significant linear regressions ( $p < 0.05$ ).  
732



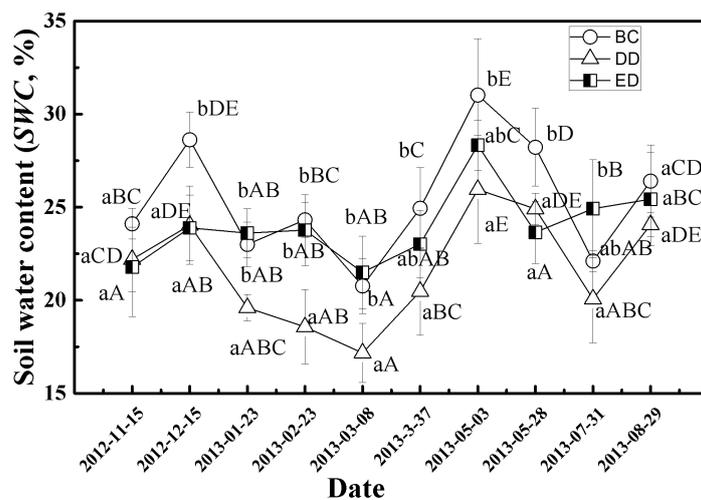
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734 **Figure 1**

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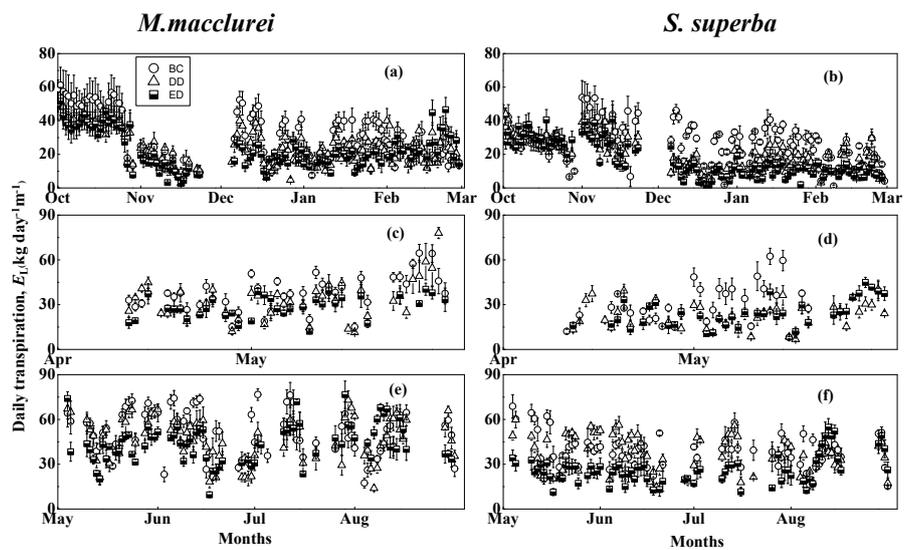
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739 **Figure 2**  
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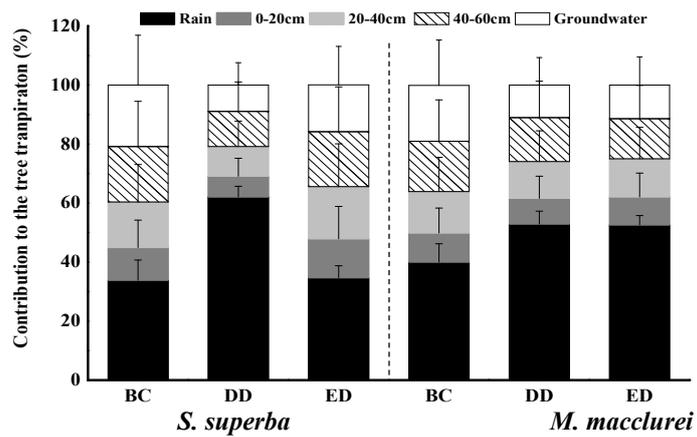
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Figure 3

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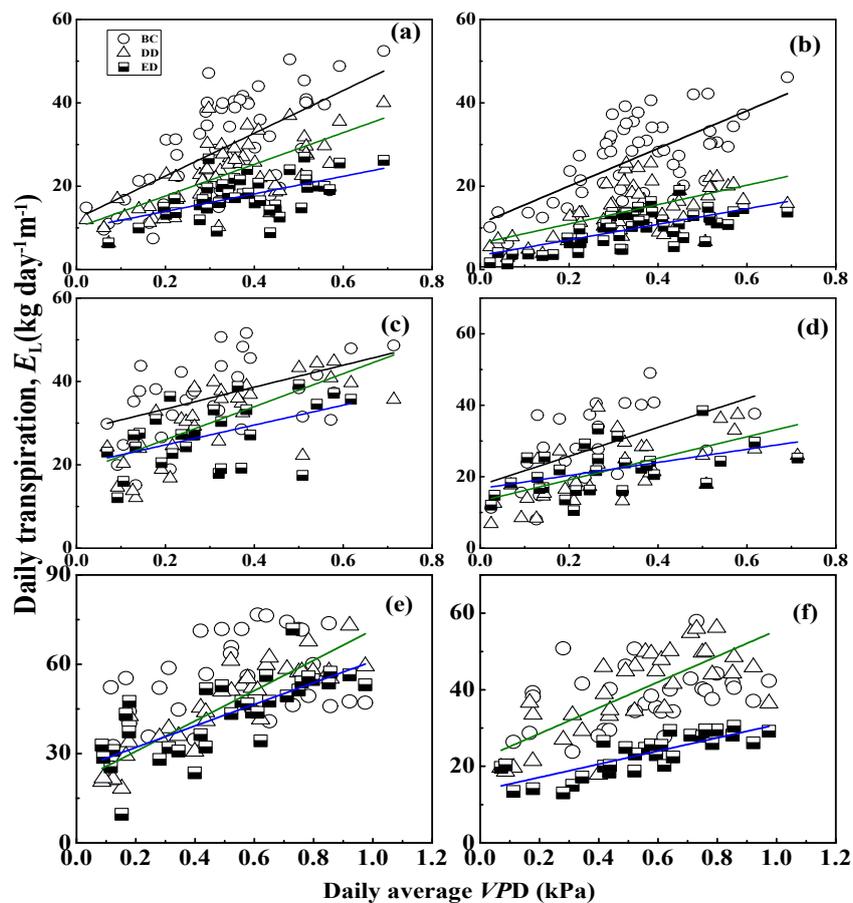


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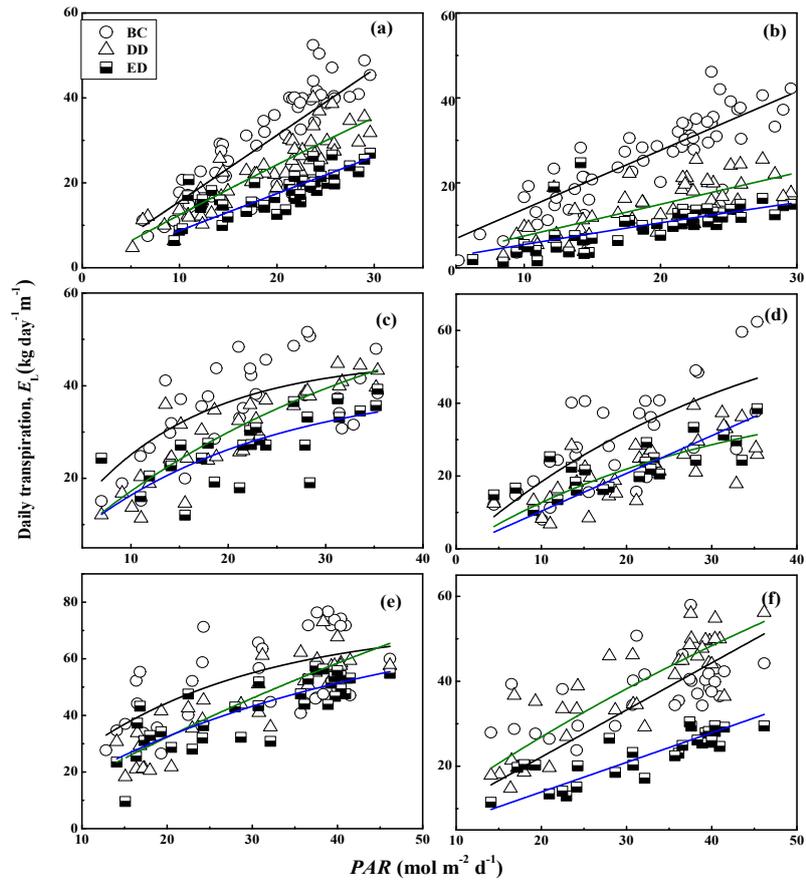
Figure 4



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752  
753 **Figure 5**  
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755

756 **Figure 6**