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Article type : Regular Manuscript

Determinants of legacy effects in pine trees - implications from an irrigation-stop experiment

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Received: 4 December 2019

Accepted: 24 March 2020

Word count total: 6427, Introduction: 1117, M&M: 1933, Results: 1100, Discussion: 2277, number of figures: 7, number of tables: 2, supplementary figures: 3, supplementary tables: 2, supplementary methods: 2

Summary

- Tree responses to altered water availability range from immediate (e.g., stomatal regulation) to delayed (e.g., crown size adjustment). The interplay of the different response times and processes, and their effects on long-term whole-tree performance, however, is hardly understood.
 - Here we investigated legacy effects on structures and functions of mature Scots pine in a dry inner-Alpine Swiss valley after stopping an 11-year lasting irrigation treatment. Measured ecophysiological time series were analyzed and interpreted with a system-analytic tree model.
 - We found that the irrigation-stop led to a cascade of downregulations of physiological and morphological processes with different response times. Biophysical processes responded within days, whereas needle and shoot lengths, crown transparency, and radial stem growth reached control levels after up to four years only. Modelling suggested that organ and carbon reserve turnover rates play a key role for a tree's responsiveness to environmental changes. Needle turnover rate was found to be most important to accurately model stem growth dynamics.
 - We conclude that leaf area and its adjustment time to new conditions is the main determinant for radial stem growth of pine trees since the transpiring area needs to be supported by a proportional amount of sapwood, despite the growth-inhibiting environmental conditions.

Key words: Cambial activity, drought stress, ecological memory, irrigation experiment, osmoregulation, point dendrometer, radial stem growth, TreeNet

Introduction

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22 Physiological responses of plants in general, and trees in particular, are often explained by current 23 environmental conditions in e.g., ecophysiological models (Steppe et al., 2006; Zweifel et al., 2007; 24 Medlyn et al., 2011), wood formation studies (Drew et al., 2010; Rathgeber et al., 2016; Delpierre et al., 2019) or assessments of climate-vegetation dynamics (Liu et al., 2018; Ma et al., 2019). However, 25 26 a wide range of evidence documents the limitation of this common approach accounting for 27 concurrent environmental drivers only and, instead, strongly suggests to additionally consider past 28 conditions (Anderegg et al., 2015; Ogle et al., 2015; Jump et al., 2017; Zweifel & Sterck, 2018; 29 Kannenberg et al., 2019a). This effect is commonly described with the term 'legacy effect' (Huang et 30 al., 2018; Peltier et al., 2018) and is in this work used as a generic term encompassing various carry-31 over or lagged effects (also called ecological memory effects). As a consequence, the stronger a legacy 32 effect is, the lower becomes the predictive power of current conditions for a physiological response 33 (Meinzer et al., 2013; Jump et al., 2017; Zweifel & Sterck, 2018). It is thus also a measure for the 34 degree of decoupling of plant responses from the concurrent environmental conditions (Kannenberg 35 et al., 2019b; Kannenberg et al., 2019c). 36 There is fast-growing statistical evidence for such legacy effects (Ogle et al., 2015; Jiang et al., 2019; Peltier & Ogle, 2019). Annual stem growth of trees, as an example, is generally not optimally 37 38 explicable with current year conditions ($R^2 = 20-40\%$) and including past conditions has been shown to result in greater fractions of explained variance (R² increased by 30% and more (Ogle et al., 2015). 39 40 But the question remains, how do legacy effects take place at a mechanistic, physiological level? In 41 contrast to statistical evidences for the importance of legacy effects, little is known about the 42 potential mechanisms. Zweifel and Sterck (2018) recently proposed an approach considering the 43 turnover rates of organs and reserves as a way to link past conditions to the current plant response. 44 They employed a model showing that differences in turnover rates can theoretically explain different 45 levels of responsiveness to current conditions. Trees with generally longer turnover rates of leaves, 46 sapwood and carbon reserves (> 5 years) were found to be less responsive to a sudden change in the 47 environmental conditions than trees with shorter organ turnover rates of 1 or 2 years. It means that 48 the former type of trees is better able to buffer short-term negative environmental impacts. However, 49 it also means that it takes longer to recover from severe impacts, in terms of re-building structures of 50 the pre-disturbance level (Zweifel et al., 2000; Weber et al., 2007; Galiano et al., 2011; Zweifel & 51 Sterck, 2018). The turnover rate of an organ or a reserve is defined as the time in which the underlying structure 52

(e.g., the needles of the crown, or the carbon molecules of the carbon reserve) is on average replaced.

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54 Consequently, the turnover rate of needles strongly affects the adjustment time of the total leaf area 55 to changed conditions. For the sapwood, as another example, the turnover rate translates into the 56 average number of years a tree-ring remains part of the sapwood before it is turned into heartwood. Therefore, this individual tree-ring with its specific number and distribution of water conducting 57 elements and thus particular hydraulic properties, can affect the water conductance of a tree for a 58 59 longer or a shorter time period depending on its functional life-span. The value of such an organ and 60 reserve turnover approach lies in its intrinsic capacity to mechanistically link past conditions to a 61 current plant's response (Jump et al., 2017; Zweifel & Sterck, 2018). 62 Here we test this idea of linking past and present environmental conditions to current physiological 63 and morphological responses via organ and reserve turnover rates with field data from mature Scots pine trees which were experimentally irrigated since 2003 and cut off from the treatment after 64 eleven years at the end of 2013 (Dobbertin et al., 2010; Schönbeck et al., 2018; Brunner et al., 2019). 65 The setup of the Pfynwald irrigation experiment allows comparing control trees that were never 66 irrigated with trees that received continued irrigation treatment until present, with trees for which 67 irrigation was recently stopped (Bose et al., 2020). 68 69 Scots pines in this dry inner-Alpine valley (Valais) have been reported to suffer from increased mortality during the past decades (Zweifel et al., 2009; Rigling et al., 2013; Etzold et al., 2019), a 70 71 phenomenon caused by longer and more frequent dry periods (Bigler et al., 2006; Szejner et al., 72 2019). The irrigation treatment in the Pfynwald experiment added about 500-600 mm water per 73 year. This doubling of the natural precipitation increased stem radial growth, leaf area, needle and 74 shoot lengths, whereas crown transparency decreased (Dobbertin et al., 2010; Eilmann et al., 2013; Schönbeck et al., 2018). Further, the irrigated trees adjusted their root production to the irrigation in 75 76 terms of a significantly increased fine-root biomass (Brunner et al., 2009; Herzog et al., 2014; 77 Brunner et al., 2019). Over the 11 years of irrigation, these trees thus developed new (overbuilt) 78 structures and adjusted their carbon reserves to the growth increase (Schönbeck et al., 2018). 79 We propose three alternative response types of the trees growing in the irrigation-stop plots (Fig. 1) 80 in order to discuss timing and strength of legacy effects in different organs and the interplay among 81 them at a whole-tree level. i) In the first type, the physiological and morphological variables (i.e., sap 82 flow, tree water deficit, stem growth, needle and shoot length, and crown transparency) return to the 83 respective levels of the control trees in the first year after the irrigation stop. This type of response is 84 not affected by past conditions (at least not to the extent as compared to the control) and is called 85 here a type of response with 'no legacy effect'. ii) In the second type, the different variables are maintained above the level of the control for several years before returning to it. This response type 86

is called a 'positive legacy effect' because past conditions induce a positive physiological or morphological response temporarily remaining above the level of the control. We hypothesize that such trees may benefit from reserves accumulated during the irrigated years. Finally, in the third type (iii), the physiological responses drop below the control level before returning to it. This response is called 'negative legacy effect' since the past conditions alter the tree's response in a negative way by shifting the process (temporarily) below the control level. This case reflects the idea that the 'overbuilt irrigated trees' are less well adjusted to the reduction in soil water after the irrigation-stop than control trees and therefore perform worse.

Material and Methods

Site

The long-term irrigation experiment is located in a Scots pine forest (*Pinus sylvestris* L.) at the northwest-exposed slope close to the bottom of the Swiss Rhone valley in the driest part of the Valais, $(46^{\circ} 18' \text{ N}, 7^{\circ} 36' \text{ E}, 615 \text{ m} \text{ a.s.l.})$ and close to the dry edge of distribution of Scots pine. Mean annual temperature was 9.2°C and mean annual precipitation 518 mm (1971–1990, Fig. S1) (Wehren *et al.*, 2010).

The forest is described as *Erico Pinetum sylvestris* with a mean tree height of 10.8 m, a stand density of 730 stems ha⁻¹, and a basal area of 27.3 m² ha⁻¹ (Dobbertin *et al.*, 2010). A description of trees equipped with dendrometer and sap flow sensors can be found in Table S1. For the irrigated plots, precipitation has been approximately doubled since 2003 (additional 500-600 mm/year) by adding water from a nearby channel during night of the growing season (April-October) using sprinklers of 1 m height (Herzog *et al.*, 2014; Bose *et al.*, 2020). End of 2013, the irrigation was stopped in the upper third of each irrigated plot. The soil is a shallow Regosol characterized by low water retention capacity. All plots had the same exposition.

General setup

We measured microclimatic variables in air and soil (data resolution: 10 min), physiological variables (10 min) and crown morphological variables (annual) on trees in the different subplots: (i) control plots which never were irrigated (control), (ii) treated plots with irrigation until the end of 2013 (irrigation-stop), and (iii) irrigated plots until the end of 2017 (irrigation).

Additionally, we applied a system-analytical tree model (Zweifel & Sterck, 2018) that bridges the influence of past conditions to the present physiological response on an annual level (Fig. 2). The model quantifies legacy effects on the organ and reserve status of a tree with the help of turnover rates of leaves, sapwood and carbon reserves. Those response variables which were measured and modelled (radial stem growth, needle and shoot length) were compared in order to quantify the explanatory power of the 'turnover approach' to catch different patterns of legacy effects (Fig. 1).

Environmental measurements

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- Meteorological measurements were recorded 2 m above the canopy on top of a scaffold, about 13 m above ground. Air temperature (Sensirion, Stäfa, Switzerland), relative humidity (Sensirion, Stäfa Switzerland) and precipitation (Young tipping bucket 52203, Michigan, USA) were continuously recorded at a 10 min interval. Data obtained in nearby meteorological stations of MeteoSwiss (www.meteoswiss.admin.ch) were employed to fill gaps and to correct obvious instrumental errors by applying filters and using simple regressions.
- Soil water content was measured with TDRs (Tektronix 1502B cable tester) at soil depths of 10, 40 and 60 cm from 2002 to 2013. In spring 2014, the soil water measurement equipment was partially replaced and relocated. Since 2014, 10 HS-Sensors (Decagon Devices, USA) were installed in all treatments and recorded soil water content at 10 and 80 cm soil depth. Soil water content data were gap-filled and homogenized for the period from 2011 to 2017 with the help of overlapping periods of different soil measurement methods and devices. The logging devices used were from DecentLab (DecentLab GmbH, Dübendorf Switzerland) and Campbell (CR1000, Logan, USA).

Physiological measurements

- Stem radius (SR) changes were measured with point dendrometers at breast height (ZN11-T-WP,
- Natkon, Oetwil am See, Switzerland) on nine trees (three trees per treatment) consisting of a T-
- shaped carbon fibre frame anchored in the stem with three stainless steel rods and a potentiometer.
- The dendrometers, including cables and loggers, have a low temperature sensitivity of < 0.3 µm per
- °C and SR data were not further corrected for temperature sensitivity. Further, tree water deficit-
- induced reversible stem shrinkage and swelling (TWD) and growth-induced irreversible increment
- (GRO) were calculated with the R package TreenetProc (Haeni et al., 2020), according to the
- approach of Zweifel et al. (2016) assuming no cell growth during periods of stem shrinkage.
- Stem sap flow was measured simultaneously with Granier-type sensors (UMS/UP, Germany) on the same trees where the dendrometers were mounted. The two needles of the sensors were drilled 5 cm
- into the sapwood and insulated from direct sunlight. Data resolution was 10 min. Sapwood depth

149 was found to range between 23 and 107 mm in a sampling of 20 irrigated and 20 control trees in 150 2013 (other trees than the ones equipped with sap flow sensors). The mean sap wood width for 151 control and irrigated trees was 47 and 51 mm, respectively (Fig S2), found to be not significantly 152 different (t-test, p>>0.05). Sap flow was calculated from individual stem diameters and an average 153 sapwood depth of 5 cm (370-425 cm²). 154 Sensors were powered and logged by devices establishing a local mesh network around a central base station with data transmission to the related online database (DecentLab GmbH, Dübendorf, 155 156 Switzerland). 157 **Crown morphology measurements** 158 Needle and shoot lengths were measured from 36 trees (10 control, 12 irrigated, 14 irrigation-stop). 159 Three branches from each of these trees were selected from the top and the middle parts of the crown, resulting in 116 sampled branches. Shoot lengths on every branch were measured for the 160 161 years 2011 to 2017 and averaged for the three treatments. Needle length of each shoot was determined by measuring five randomly selected needles close to the center of the shoot. 162 Annual crown transparency was assessed by a visual rating in 5% steps of all (about 800) trees of the 163 experimental area using reference photographs ranging from 0% (a fully foliated tree) to 100% (a 164 165 dead tree) as described by Dobbertin et al. (2005). The tree crown foliage is judged relative to the 166 optimum foliage of an average tree of the same size and species. The average crown transparency of 167 all trees within the different treatments (control, irrigation-stop, and irrigation) was used as a proxy 168 for the development of the total leaf area. System-analytical tree model 169 The model applied (Zweifel & Sterck, 2018) is based on physiological key processes such as crown 170 growth, radial stem growth and carbon reserve growth (Fig. 2). The key processes described as linear 171 functions (with weighting factors, Methods S1) are driven by environmental conditions (linearly 172 coupled to tree water relations), and the status of crown, buds, carbon reserves and sapwood of the 173 past year. We refer to this approach as a system-analytic model (Vester, 2007) in which absolute 174 mass or energy balances are not quantified, but the individual responses of system components are quantified relative to each other and relative to a 'normal' response (value = zero). This approach is 175 176 particularly valuable to assess a system responsiveness, respectively the legacy effects of system 177 parts (organs), in our case a tree. 178 The simulation in annual steps starts with the status of buds, crown, carbon reserve, and sapwood 179 which are the result of the past environmental conditions and the related processes over time. The 180 initial status needs to be set before the first iteration. The length of time considered to affect the

182 respective structure is built and renewed, respectively. The model quantifies the current-year 183 environmental impact on all the processes involved and calculates the new status of the organs and 184 reserves at the end of the year according to the network of functions (Fig. 2, Methods S1). 185 The model input is an annual environmental index calculated from water supply (precipitation plus irrigation), soil water content, air temperature, and radiation (Methods S2). 186 The model consists of linear functions with weighting factors (Methods S1) for which the input-187 operating- and output-ranges are limited to index values ranging from -1 (very poor status), over 0 188 189 (average) to +1 (very good/improved status). This way, annual changes of environmental conditions 190 (also expressed in values between -1 and +1) alter the status of structures (crown, bud, sapwood) 191 and reserves (carbon reserve) according to the linear functions, their weighting factors and their 192 turnover rates. Status values are thus always relative to an average value of zero. Values above zero 193 always mean a status or a response above the average, a value below zero a status or response below 194 the average. 195 The weighting factors (WF) for the linear functions between the status and the processes of the 196 model were parameterized (Table S2) for the control trees (never irrigated, control), for the irrigated 197 trees (irrigated), and for the trees treated with irrigation until the end of 2013 and for which 198 irrigation was removed afterwards (irrigation-stop). 199 The model was run for two scenarios for all three treatments (control irrigation, irrigation-stop) with 200 the respective parameter sets. Scenario I mimics a tree with no ecological memory in which the 201 model parameters 'turnover rate of needles', 'turnover rate of sapwood', and 'turnover rate of carbon 202 reserves' were set to 1 year (abbreviation 'NoMemo'). Scenario II (abbreviation 'Memo') mimics a 203 tree with more realistic turnover rates of needles (5 years), sapwood (50) and carbon reserves (10) 204 based on empirical findings. The number of Scots pine needle cohorts at Pfynwald was measured to 205 be between three and five (data not shown). The average sapwood turnover rate was found to be 206 between 45 and 55 years (Fig. S2). Most uncertain was the estimation of the turnover rate of the 207 carbon reserve (Gessler & Treydte, 2016). The metabolically active carbon reserve was reported to 208 be 1-2 years old (Gaudinski et al., 2009), whereas the average age of all stem carbon reserves was 209 found to be 10 years (Carbone et al., 2013). (Richardson et al., 2015) explained this finding by the 210 presence of two storage pools – a fast-turning and a slow-turning one. They assumed that the slow 211 pool, however, was large enough that it cannot be ignored as a store of reserves and that it is over simplistic to assume a single pool that turns over quickly. As a consequence, we set the average 212 213 turnover rate of the carbon pool to 10 years.

status of organs and reserves is defined by the turnover rates determining over how many years the

214	Statistical methods
215	Stem radius data were aligned, cleaned and gap-filled for gaps < 120 min with the R-based (Team,
216	2019) package treenetproc (Haeni et al., 2020). Data gaps equal or longer than 120 min remained in
217	the data set as NA.
218	The weighting factors (WF) of the system-analytic model were calculated in an optimization process
219	with Excel's function Solver, maximizing the determination coefficients for annual stem growth
220	(GRO), needle (NL) and shoot length (SL) between consecutive years. These three variables were
221	measured in the field as well as explicitly modelled and thus qualified to be used for the optimization
222	process. Parameterization was run in three steps grouping WF according to their direct effect onto
223	NL, SL, and GRO. In the first step the two WF directly affecting NL were parameterized by optimizing
224	the determination coefficients between measured and modelled NL. In the second and third step, the
225	same was performed with SL (2 WF) and GRO (11 WF).
226	The sensitivity of the model output to changes in the (set) turnover rates of needles, sapwood and
227	carbon reserves was tested with a stepwise variation of each of the three turnover rates (Fig. S3). The
228	average change in the output for annual stem growth was used as an indication for the model
229	sensitivity to changes in the turnover rates. The turnover rate of carbon reserves had the lowest
230	impact (weight 1) on model output, followed by sapwood turnover (2.3), and needle turnover had by
231	far the highest impact on model output (2180) (Table S3).
232	The explanatory power of the simulations was quantified with the determination coefficient of linear
233	regressions between measured and modelled means and standard errors of means per treatment.
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236	Results

Results

Soil	water	content
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The irrigation treatment starting in 2003 considerably increased the soil water content of the treated $\frac{1}{2}$
plots (Fig. 3). However, with the stop of the irrigation in 2013, the level of soil water content (orange
line) dropped to the same level as the control plot (red line) or even slightly below already in 2014.
Generally, the water content of the soil with its low water holding capacity responded quickly to
changes in the treatment, which became visible during periods of irrigation outages and during
wintertime when the irrigation was stopped.

Tree water deficit

The irrigation-stop trees had a significantly lower tree water deficit TWD than the control trees during the irrigation period until the end of 2013 (Fig. 4). After switching off irrigation, the average annual TWD of the irrigation-stop trees generally increased, however, not linearly over the entire season. TWD remained reduced from March to July 2014-2016 (Fig. 4) before returning to the TWD level of the control trees during the later summer months. This intra-seasonal pattern disappeared in the fourth year (2017) after the irrigation-stop.

Sap flow data

Prior to stopping the irrigation treatment, sap flow rate of the irrigation-stop trees was strongly increased during the summer months. During this time, sap flow reached values up to the double the rates of the control trees, however with a wide variation among individual trees (Fig. 5). During winter-time, when the irrigation was stopped, both treatments behaved in a similar way. After the irrigation was stopped at the end of 2013, sap flow rates generally dropped significantly below the rates of the control trees during the summer months but remained increased in spring when soil water availability was generally higher than in summer (Fig. 3). This pattern persisted over the entire measurement period until 2017. Interestingly, the short response time to reduced soil water availability became also visible during short-term failures of the irrigation system (e.g., in July/August 2011, Fig. 5): As soon as the irrigation was stopped, the sap flow of the treated trees started to decrease and went markedly below the sap flow level of the control trees after about 1-2 weeks without irrigation. On a mean annual scale, sap flow remained downregulated below the level of the control trees for all four years measured after stopping the irrigation.

Radial stem growth (GRO)

Radial stem growth (GRO) – deduced from SR measurement including irreversible bark and wood growth – was markedly increased in the irrigated compared to the control trees (Fig. 6). On average, the irrigated trees grew two to three times faster and started growth earlier than the control trees, however, with considerable individual differences. GRO decreased gradually after the irrigation-stop but remained significantly above the growth rate of the control trees for three more years. In the fourth year after the irrigation was stopped (2017), the difference in GRO disappeared between the two treatments. An interesting detail is the often occurring GRO increase towards the end of the year which goes in parallel with the general soil rehydration at this time of the year (Fig. 3).

Crown morphological measurements

275 Needle length (NL) of the new cohort responded in the first year after the irrigation was stopped 276 with a marked decrease (Fig. 7b). The needles grew even shorter than the ones of the control trees 277 and kept this trend in the following years (Fig. 7b). Shoot length (SL) remained high in the first year after stopping irrigation and strongly responded in the second year after the irrigation-stop (Fig. 7c). 278 279 SL remained markedly below the control in the following years. 280 Crown transparency (Fig. 7d) and GRO (Figs. 6, 7e) showed the most distinct delays in their response. In both cases, the irrigation-stop trees needed three to four years to reach the same values 281 282 as the control trees. 283 Simulated tree responses 284 The simulations were run for all treatments (control, irrigation-stop, and irrigation) using the two 285 alternative scenarios (Memo and NoMemo). The NoMemo scenario with a model parameterization not allowing for legacy effects (Table S2) was not able to accurately simulate the measurements of 286 287 the irrigation-stop trees and led to a consistently lower explanatory power of the response variables shoot length and stem growth than the Memo scenario (Tab. 1). The only exception was with needle 288 length which was insensitive to the turnover rates of needles, sapwood and carbon reserves and 289 290 showed the same simulation output for both scenarios (Fig. 7, Tab. 1, Fig. S3, Tab. S3). 291 In contrast, the Memo scenario with the more realistic turnover rates of needles (5 years), sapwood 292 (50) and carbon reserves (10) was able to predict the measured annual courses of radial stem 293 growth and shoot lengths significantly better for all treatments (control, irrigation-stop, and 294 irrigation). The increased explanatory power of the Memo scenario compared to the NoMemo 295 scenario ranged between 13.8 and 52%, depending on the variable (Tab. 1). 296 Contrary to the above described measurement-model relationships, the relationship between the

Chronology of responses and the respective legacy effects

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The irrigation-stop treatment led to a reduction of the soil water content to a level comparable with or even slightly lower than - the control plots (Fig. 4), and a cascade of tree physiological and morphological responses started (Figs. 5-7). On an annual timescale, needle length, sap flow, and tree water deficit responded already in the first year (Tab. 2). Shoot length responded strongly in the second year, while radial stem growth and crown transparency did not respond abruptly but gradually, needing about four years to reach the level of the trees in the control plots (Fig. 7, Tab. 2).

environmental index ENV and the modelled radial stem growth (GRO) was stronger in the NoMemo

scenario than in the Memo one (Tab. 1) showing that increasing the memory effect (by increasing the

turnover rates) is reducing the responsiveness of GRO to current environmental conditions.

There appeared positive and negative legacy effects as shown in Fig. 1. Radial stem growth and crown transparency showed a distinct positive legacy effect (annual growth remaining above the control, crown transparency remaining below the control, Figs. 6 and 7), whereas the immediate biophysical responses related to tree water relations, i.e., sap flow (Fig. 5), tree water deficit (Fig. 4) and also needle length (Fig. 7), responded negatively (on a mean annual scale, Tab. 2) but with distinct intra-annual deviations from the annual patterns (Figs. 4-5). Shoot length responded with a positive legacy effect in the first year after the irrigation-stop (shoot length growth remained larger) and only negatively thereafter (shoots grew shorter than the control), i.e., shoot length responded with a negative legacy effect with a one-year delay.

Discussion

How to live with an overbuilt tree structure when soil water gets short?

The investigated pine trees grew larger and denser crowns during the 11 years of irrigation compared to the control trees (Dobbertin et al., 2010) and the functional structures such as sapwood (Schönbeck *et al.*, 2018) and roots (Brunner *et al.*, 2019) became adjusted to support this enlarged crown (Enquist & Niklas, 2002; Choat *et al.*, 2012). This response demonstrates the effect of water-limited conditions on tree growth on the one hand, and the general tree response to a release from limiting conditions on the other hand, already documented several times also in other studies from this area (Feichtinger *et al.*, 2014; Herzog *et al.*, 2014; Feichtinger *et al.*, 2015; Grossiord *et al.*, 2018). The novel aspect here is how trees with an overbuilt structure deal with a water shortage after 11 well-watered years. Are they able to benefit from potentially accumulated reserves or do they rather suffer from mal-adjusted structures? In the following, we discuss why both responses were found (positive and negative legacy effects, Figs. 1 and 7), depending on the organ or reserve that is considered (Tab. 2). With the help of the system-analytical tree model, we further discuss why the turnover rates of organs and reserves are able to explain, at least partially, the different legacy effects (Fig. 7). Finally, we speculate what processes could explain the measured fact that irrigation-stop trees grow better than the control trees despite the reduced soil water availability.

Tree water relations – mostly negative legacy effects

The first response of a tree to the sudden reduction of water is of a biophysical nature. Drought-stressed trees close their stomata and thus save water (Hetherington & Woodward, 2003; Zweifel *et al.*, 2012). The general reduction of the annual sap flow of the treated trees after the irrigation-stop

(Fig. 5) was thus most likely a consequence of the stomatal behavior of an oversized transpiring area, suffering from a reduced water supply. On an annual timescale, the response of sap flow and tree water deficit resembles a negative legacy effect (Fig. 1, Tab. 2), i.e., the downregulation of tree water relations is even stronger than the one observed for the control trees which grew under a continuous lack of water. However, there remained an important difference to this general annual pattern: during spring and early summer, sap flow remained higher (Fig. 5) and tree water deficit remained lower (Fig. 4) than in the control trees. We hypothesize that the enlarged root biomass in the uppermost soil layer (Brunner *et al.*, 2019) might have led to an increased soil water uptake during the time when the general soil water availability was still high in this first phase of radial stem growth (Fig. 6). As a consequence, the soil dried out even faster than in the control plots (Fig. 3) and sap flow dropped in the second half of the summer below the rates of the control trees (Fig. 5). Less likely but not excluded is the possibility that deep roots tapped water in soil layers not covered by the soil water sensors. However, if this was the case, we expected a persistent positive effect on the sap flow, what was not measured.

Needle and shoot lengths - negative legacy effects (with delay)

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New built needles responded with an immediate length reduction in the year after the irrigation was stopped (negative legacy effect, i.e., needles grew shorter than the control), whereas the shoots responded one year later (Fig. 7, Tab. 2, negative legacy effect with one year delay), a phenomenon that has been reported for pine trees before (Dobbertin et al., 2010; Feichtinger et al., 2015). As an explanation for the needle length reduction with drought, it has been proposed that the general decrease in leaf water potentials also reduces turgor pressure in the crown and thus, turgor pressure becomes limiting for needle growth (Myers, 1988; Giuggiola et al., 2018; Guerin et al., 2018). This lowered water potential was obviously not affecting the shoot growth at the same time (Tab. 2). The reason for that is not fully understood since both shoots and needles are pre-determined in the buds built in the previous year (Chen et al., 1996) and exposed to the same environmental conditions. However, the different responses of needles and shoots may be related to their tissue-specific exposures to the low water potentials or eventually with tissue-specific osmoregulation processes (Lazzarin et al., 2019), as hypothesized also for radial stem growth (Coussement et al., 2018). The model applied with the 'Memo' parameterization (Fig. 7) - inducing a strong dependency of the shoot growth on conditions of the past year and thus reducing the dependency from current environmental conditions - was able to simulate the legacy effect with a one-year delay. However, when cutting the functional link to the past year(s) – by setting the turnover rates of needles, sapwood and carbon reserves to 1 year - the model was no longer able to simulate the measured shoot lengths accurately

(Fig. 7, Tab. 1) and thus showing the importance of accounting for the turnover rates of organs and carbon reserve in the model to explain the trees' lagged response to current conditions.

Radial stem growth and total leaf area - positive legacy effects

After stopping irrigation, annual stem growth and total leaf area (as indicated by measured crown transparency data) clearly remained above the level of the control trees for three more years before matching the control level (Fig. 7). This is assigned to a positive legacy effect (Fig. 1) and indicates that this high growth rate cannot be explained by current environmental conditions alone but is positively influenced by the past more favorable conditions. The 'Memo' model balanced the status of the accumulated carbon reserves and particularly the enlarged total leaf area – two positive effects – against the direct impact of the environment (negative effect) on radial stem growth (Tab. S2). The simulation results support this statement by demonstrating that the 'Memo' model (Tab. S2) is able to simulate the observed growth pattern always better than the 'NoMemo' can (Fig. 7, Tab. 1).

Turnover rates of organs and reserves determine legacy effects

The turnover rate of needles of the pine trees was measured to be 3-5 years at our site, corresponding with the legacy effect in crown transparency and radial stem growth which lasted about four years. The 'Memo' parameterization of the model assumed a turnover rate for the needles of 5 years (which indicates that only about 20% of the total leaf area is replaced every year) and this model parameter (Tab. S2) was found to be crucial to be able to track the observed annual stem growth dynamics.

Interestingly, a sensitivity analysis of the 'Memo' model gave the highest correlation between model output and measured radial stem growth data when a needle turnover rate of three years was used (Fig. S3). This implies that the initially set needle turnover rate of 5 years could be adjusted to 3 years in order to further increase the goodness-of-fit. Furthermore, the turnover rates of sapwood and carbon reserves contributed to the modelling quality, however with much lower weights (Tab. S3).

According to our crown transparency measurements (Fig. 7), the irrigation-stop pines took about four years to adjust their leaf area to the new conditions. Further, the simulation of the crown status (proxy for total leaf area) indicated that the adjustment time might even be longer, since crown status remained still increased after four years (of modelling) (Fig. 7). Additionally, the lag of four years matched exactly the time during which measured radial stem growth rates appeared to be increased in relation to the expected values from the control trees, and it was also about the duration in which the needle biomass was totally renewed (needle lifetime was measured to be between 3 and

5 years). An argumentation that sets these facts into a causal relationship as done in our model, intrinsically implies a partial decoupling of growth from current environmental conditions as clearly supported by our results (Tab. 1).

Leaf area determines radial stem growth

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'The resources grow the leaves and the leaves grow the tree' is an old saying of some foresters which gets reappraised with this study. The rapid response of the needle growth to the current conditions fits the first part of the statement, whereas the delayed stem growth response supports the second part. Physiologically, we argue that the enlarged leaf area of the irrigation-stop trees demands an adequate water supply system which can support the high potential transpiration (Anfodillo et al., 2016). In other words, the sapwood area (particularly the annual sapwood increment) is needed to support the potential evaporative demand of the crown. This balanced relationship between leaves and their amount of xylem (Martinez-Vilalta et al., 2009) requires a corresponding amount of xylem at the stem level, also well-known as pipe model theory, which basically assumes a distinct number of xylem conduits per leaf area (Shinozaki et al., 1964; Mencuccini & Grace, 1996; Sterck & Zweifel, 2016). As a consequence, we assume a direct physiological causality between leaf area and wood growth (Zweifel et al., 2006; Fatichi et al., 2014; Zweifel & Sterck, 2018), which can lead to an increased radial stem growth despite drought. However, what mechanism is able to explain that?

Radial stem growth despite drought stress – towards an explanation

- 420 We propose two speculative explanations for the increased radial stem growth rates despite the 421 drought stress conditions in the irrigation-stop treatment: i) the enlarged root biomass (Herzog et al., 422 2014; Brunner et al., 2019) improved the water uptake capacity, and ii) osmoregulation actively 423 increased turgor pressure in the cambium in order to reach the threshold for cell growth (Hsiao & Xu, 424 2000; Coussement et al., 2018). The first point (i) is discussed in the second paragraph of the 425 discussion and could explain the more efficient water uptake with higher sap flow rates and lower 426 tree water deficits allowing these trees to keep cellular turgor pressure high enough to allow for cell division and cell enlargement (Lockhart, 1965; Petit et al., 2011; Ortega et al., 2012). 427 428 ii) A second effect we speculate about here is related to cellular osmoregulation in the bark including
 - growth during drought. Turgor pressure in living tissues is not only determined by physical conditions i.e., the dryness of air and soil, but is also affected by active biological processes, such as the increase of the osmotic potential in cells by sugar loading (Badalotti et al., 2000; De Schepper &

the cambium (e.g., (O'Brien et al., 2014; Lintunen et al., 2016) implying an active investment in

433 Steppe, 2010; De Schepper & Steppe, 2011; Barraclough et al., 2018; Barraclough, A.D. et al., 2019; 434 Barraclough, A. D. et al., 2019; Lazzarin et al., 2019; Michelot-Antalik et al., 2019). We speculate that 435 the irrigation-stop trees avoided the low turgor pressure in the cambium with the mobilization of 436 osmotically active compounds. Recent work at the same research site showed, indeed, that such active osmoregulation might take place in pine trees (Mencuccini et al., 2017; Lazzarin et al., 2019). 437 438 However, it was not particularly measured for the irrigation-stop trees and the osmoregulation effect 439 was mainly measured in the branches and not in the stem (Lazzarin et al., 2019). 440 Proposing an osmoregulation mechanism also raises the question whether these additional 441 resources for keeping high growth rates are available and for how long they could last. There is 442 evidence that the irrigated trees had more reserves available than the control trees. A recent study of 443 pine trees at the same site showed an overall increase of non-structural carbohydrates (NSC) in the 444 stems of irrigated trees (von Arx et al., 2017) and Schönbeck et al. (2018) found stem growth and 445 NSC being positively related to total leaf area, which was larger for the irrigated trees compared to 446 the control. We hypothesize that the irrigation-stop trees relied on the additional carbon reserves 447 and kept the reduction of available energy for extra growth under drought conditions in balance with 448 the rate of reduction of the leaf area. As long as a tree is able to keep its radial stem growth high with an extra investment of energy to support the large crown, it may be able to reduce its crown size 449 450 slowly. Obviously, no reserve is infinite and becomes exhausted somewhen. At this time, the tree's

leaf area should be reduced to a size that is in balance with the new dry conditions.

Conclusions

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The sudden reduction in soil water availability after the irrigation-stop did not lead to a rapid decrease in radial stem growth of pine trees, as we expected. Instead, radial stem growth was found to be in line with a slow reduction of the leaf area, taking four years of time to reach the level of the never irrigated control trees. From a functional point of view, we conclude that leaf area imposes radial stem growth in order to keep the balance between transpiring surface and supporting sapwood.

The modelling results suggest turnover rates of organs and carbon reserve as important determinants of legacy effects on trees. Particularly, crown size and stem growth seem to be strongly determined by past conditions and processes due to the needle lifetime of about four years, affecting the direct growth response to current environmental conditions. In other words, we showed that the

biological pre-disposition of a pine tree is able to strongly decouple growth from current

environmental conditions. Further we propose that an osmoregulation mechanism may help to

465	explain the increased radial stem growth despite the suddenly reduced availability of soil water.
466	Future work is called to particularly focus on the species-specific aspects of these findings.
467	
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469	Roman Zweifel 1 (idea, paper concept, data acquisition, data analyses, modelling, interpretation of
470	results,writing)
471	Sophia Etzold ¹ (data analyses, interpretation of results, writing)
472	Frank Sterck ^{1, 2} (modelling, interpretation of results, writing)
473	Arthur Gessler ^{1, 3} (interpretation of results, writing)
474	Tommaso Anfodillo ⁴ (interpretation of results, writing)
475	Maurizio Mencuccini ^{5, 6} (interpretation of results, writing)
476	Georg von Arx ¹ (data acquisition, interpretation of results, writing)
477	Martina Lazzarin ^{1,7} (data acquisition, interpretation of results, writing)
478	Matthias Haeni ¹ (data acquisition, data analyses, interpretation of results, writing)
479	Linda Feichtinger ¹ (data acquisition, data analyses, interpretation of results, writing)
480	Katrin Meusburger ¹ (data acquisition, data analyses, interpretation of results, writing)
481	Simon Knuesel ¹ (data analyses, interpretation of results, writing)
482	Lorenz Walthert ¹ (interpretation of results, writing)
483	Yann Salmon ^{8,9} (interpretation of results, writing)
484	Arun K. Bose ¹ (interpretation of results, writing)
485	Leonie Schoenbeck ¹ (interpretation of results, writing)
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489	Marcus Schaub ¹ (fund rising infrastructure, interpretation of results, writing)
490	Andreas Rigling ¹ (idea research infrastructure, research coordination, fund rising infrastructure,
491	interpretation of results, writing)

Acknowledgments

We thank the forestry services of the Pfynwald and the Wasserwerk Chippis for providing the land for the research site and part of the infrastructure. We particularly thank Konrad Egger (Forest Region Leuk) for his continuous technical support. We acknowledge the involved networks TreeNet, Swiss Long-term Forest Ecosystem Research Programme LWF, MeteoSwiss, the Integrated Carbon Observation System ICOS, and Swiss ForestLab for data and technical support. Further we acknowledge the financial support by the Federal Office for the Environment FOEN, (00.0365.PZ I 0427-0562, 09.0064.PJ/R301-0223), the Swiss National Science Foundation SNF (20FI21_148992, 20FI_173691), the Natural Environment Research Council NERC (#NE/I011749/11), and the Academy of Finland (#1312571, #323843).

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705	Fig. S1 Distribution of annual precipitation over Switzerland and the location of the research site
706	Pfynwald.
707	Fig. S2 Frequency distribution of sapwood rings per tree and sapwood widths.
708	Fig. S3 Sensitivity of model output to changes in the turnover rates of needles, sapwood, and carbon
709	reserves.
710	Table S1 Diameter at breast height and tree height for the pine (Pinus sylvestris) trees equipped with
711	dendrometer and sap flow sensors and group into subplots with treatment.
712	Table S2 Model parameters and their values for the three different treatments and the two
713	scenarios.
714	Table S3 Sensitivity analyses of model output to changes of the turnover rates of needles, sapwood,
715	and carbon reserves.
716	Methods S1 Model equations.
717	Methods S2 Calculation of environmental index.
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The following Supporting Information is available for this article:

Tables and Figures

Table 1. Explanatory power of model simulations for measured variables stem growth (GRO),
 needle length (NL), and shoot length (SL) of Scots pine.

Explanatory power of model for measurements													
	Trees in contr	ol plot		Trees in irrigation-stop plot			Trees in irrigated plot						
	R ² _NoMemo	R ² _Memo	Δ	R ² _NoMemo	R ² _Memo	Δ	R ² _NoMemo	R ² _Memo	Δ				
GRO	19.2%	68.8%	49.6%	83.3%	97.1%	13.8%	na	na	na				
NL	5.9%	5.9%	0.0%	79.2%	79.2%	0.0%	67.6%	67.6%	0.0%				
SL	1.4%	16.2%	14.8%	34.7%	86.6%	52.0%	52.5%	87.5%	35.0%				
Explanatory power of ENV for modelled variable GRO													
GRO	92.4%	19.8%	-72.7%	88.7%	56.9%	-31.8%	93.0%	63.1%	-29.9%				

Listed are the determination coefficients of a linear regression (R^2) between the measured and modelled annual values for control, irrigation-stop, and permanently irrigated trees. Additionally, R^2 was calculated for the environmental index ENV and the modelled GRO. Δ is the difference between the two simulation scenarios 'Memo' and 'NoMemo'. A positive value indicates an improvement of the explanatory power of the scenario 'Memo'. na = not available.

Table 2. Responsiveness of annual means of Scots pine responses after stopping the irrigation.

	SAP	TWD	NL	SL	СТ	GRO
First strong response [yrs]	1	1	1	2	gradual	gradual
Matching control level [yrs]	> 4	4	1	>4	4	4
Legacy type	negative (but see intra-seasonal responses)	negative (but see intra-seasonal responses)	negative	negative with 1 year delay	positive	positive

Listed are the number of years after the irrigation-stop in 2013 when the measured variables returned to the level of the control trees. Measurements refer to sap flow (SAP), tree water deficit (TWD), needle length (NL), shoot length (SL), crown transparency (CT), and radial stem growth (GRO). CT and GRO did not show a strong response but were more of a gradual nature. The legacy type refers to the scheme in Fig. 1.

Fig. 1. Alternative physiological or morphological responses of irrigated trees to a stop of the treatment in comparison to non-irrigated control trees. A positive legacy effect suggests that a response variable remains above the level of the control for several years. A tree without a legacy effect returns to the level of the control trees without delay. A negative legacy effect leads to a response variable below the level of the control before returning to the control level.

Fig. 2. System-analytical tree model to quantify legacy effects according to (Zweifel & Sterck, 2018). The model consists of four elements that describe the tree status at the beginning of the year (crown, bud, carbon reserve and sapwood). The model further takes up the key processes of radial stem growth, crown growth, needle length growth (NL), shoot length growth (SL), and carbon reserve growth. The elements are linked to a network with positive linear functions (indicated as arrows with numbers) weighted by a weighting factor (WF). Additionally, the turnover (TO) rates for the crown (needles), the sapwood, and the carbon reserves quantify the time that is needed to renew the respective organ or reserve. With this network of functions, the new status of crown, bud, carbon reserve and sapwood are calculated. The model is run by an index for environmental conditions (Supporting Information Methods S2). Functions and additional explanations for the numbered arrows are given in Methods S1.

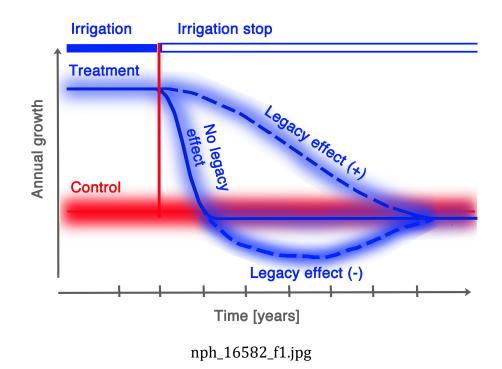
Fig. 3. Mean daily time courses of soil volumetric water content (10-80 cm) in control plots (no irrigation, red), irrigated plots (blue) and plots where irrigation was stopped at the end of 2013 after 11 years of treatment (orange). The irrigation was active during the non-freezing period of the year. Periods of missing irrigation during the irrigation period indicate outages of the irrigation system (blue horizontal line). Data resolution: 1 hour.

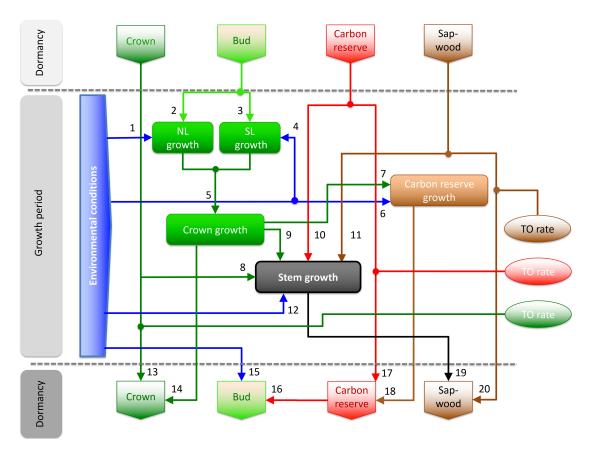
Fig. 4. Time courses of tree water deficit (TWD) of irrigation-stop (orange lines) and control trees (red lines) of Scots pine over 7 years. At the end of 2013, the irrigation treatment (blue horizontal bars) was stopped. A TWD of zero means a fully hydrated tree. Increased TWD indicates stem shrinkage and thus an increased lack of water in the stem, meaning increased drought stress. Bold lines show the mean of three trees; the thin lines indicate the standard error of the mean. Data resolution: 10 minutes.

Fig. 5. Running means of sap flow rates over 24 hrs of trees (n = 3) of the irrigation-stop (orange) and the control (red) trees for the years 2011 to 2017 (Scots pine). Bold lines show the mean, the thin lines indicate the standard error of the mean. Irrigation (blue vertical line) was stopped at the end of 2013. The lower panel of each year shows the difference in sap flow rates between treated and control trees. Areas coloured in orange indicate higher sap flow rates of the treated trees, whereas areas coloured in red indicate higher sap flow rates of the control trees. Data resolution: 10 minutes.

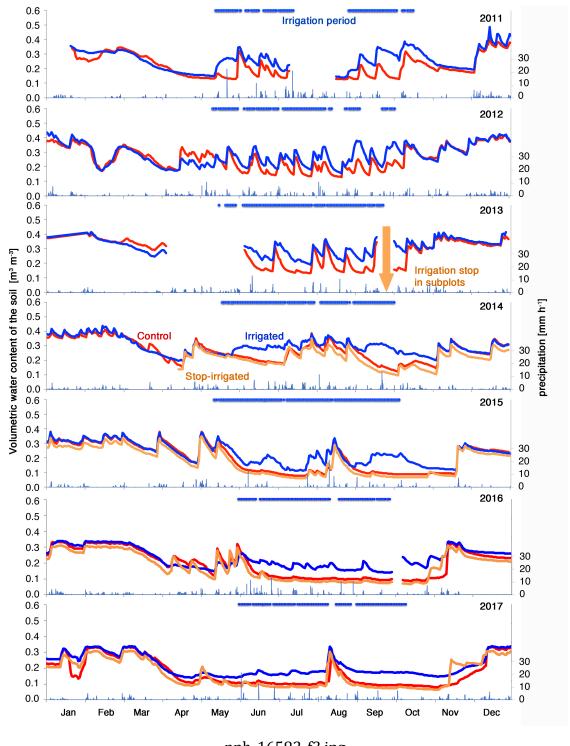
Fig. 6. Mean radial stem increments (GRO) of wood and bark of Scots pine trees in control (no irrigation, red) and irrigation-stop (orange) plots. Bold lines show the mean of three trees, the thin lines indicate the standard error of the mean. The irrigation (blue horizontal bars) was stopped at the end of 2013. The red line in 2016 ends prematurely because of a logger failure.

Fig. 7. Measurements (full lines) vs model results (broken lines) of two scenarios 'NoMemo' (crossed squares) and 'Memo' (circles) of Scots pine. 'NoMemo' excluded any type of memory effects by setting the turnover rates of needles, sapwood and carbon reserves to 1 year. Scenario 'Memo' set the turnover rates to more realistic values, i.e., 5 years (needles), 50 years (sapwood) and 10 years (carbon reserves). a) Environmental index (Supporting Information Methods S2) calculated for the control (red symbols), the irrigation-stop (orange symbols) and the irrigated plots (blue symbols). Positive values indicate favorable growth conditions above the average, negative values indicate poor growth conditions below the average. b) Measured and modelled needle lengths. c) Measured and modelled shoot lengths. d) Mean measured crown transparency and modelled crown status (proxy for leaf area). e) Measured and modelled mean annual growth increments (GRO). Note: Missing measurements or scenarios in some panels indicate not available data.





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