

1 **Tropical forest lianas have greater non-structural carbohydrate concentrations in**
2 **the stem xylem than trees**

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34 **Abstract**

35 Lianas (woody vines) are important components of tropical forests and are known to
36 compete with host trees for resources, decrease tree growth and increase tree mortality.
37 Given the observed increases in liana abundance in some forests and their impacts on
38 forest function, an integrated understanding of carbon dynamics of lianas and liana-
39 infested host trees is critical for improved prediction of tropical forest responses to
40 climate change. Non-structural carbohydrates (NSC) are the main substrate for plant
41 metabolism (e.g., growth, respiration), and have been implicated in enabling tree survival
42 under environmental stress, but little is known of how they vary among life-forms or of
43 how liana infestation impacts host tree NSC. We quantified stem total NSC (NSC)
44 concentrations and its fractions (starch and soluble sugars) in trees without liana
45 infestation, trees with more than 50% of the canopy covered by lianas, and the lianas
46 infesting those trees. We hypothesized that i) liana infestation depletes NSC storage in
47 host trees by reducing carbon assimilation due to competition for resources; ii) trees and
48 lianas, which greatly differ in functional traits related to water transport and carbon
49 uptake, would also have large differences in NSC storage, and that As water availability
50 has a significant role in NSC dynamics of Amazonian tree species, we tested these
51 hypotheses within a moist site in western Amazonia and a drier forest site in southern
52 Amazonia. We did not find any difference in NSC, starch or soluble sugar concentrations
53 between infested and non-infested trees, in either site. This result suggests that negative
54 liana impact on trees may be mediated through mechanisms other than depletion of host
55 tree NSC concentrations. We found lianas have higher stem NSC and starch than trees in
56 both sites. The consistent differences in starch concentrations, a long term NSC reserve,
57 between life forms across sites reflect differences in carbon gain and use of lianas and
58 trees. Soluble sugar concentrations were higher in lianas than in trees in the moist site but
59 indistinguishable between life forms in the dry site. The lack of difference in soluble
60 sugars between trees and lianas in the dry site emphasize the importance of this NSC
61 fraction for plant metabolism of plants occurring in water limited environments.

62 Abstract in Portuguese and Spanish are available in the supplementary material.

63

64 **Keywords:** starch, soluble sugars, liana infestation, host-tree

65

66 **Introduction**

67 Lianas (woody vines) are important components in forests worldwide, especially
68 lowland tropical forests (Gentry 1991) where they constitute up to 40% of woody stems
69 and up to 35% of woody species richness (Schnitzer and Bongers 2011). Liana abundance
70 and biomass are increasing throughout the Neotropics, with potentially profound
71 implications for the future of tropical forest carbon balance (Phillips et al. 2002, Schnitzer
72 et al. 2021). Lianas are non-self-standing plants that reach the forest canopy by using host
73 tree stems or other established lianas as support, and can compete with trees through local
74 light monopolization, affecting host tree carbon sequestration and growth (Schnitzer and
75 Bongers 2002, Avalos et al. 2007, Paul and Yavitt 2011, van der Heijden et al. 2013,
76 2015, García León et al. 2017). Lianas have developed root and vascular systems that
77 may effectively compete with trees for water and nutrients (Pérez-Salicrup and Barker
78 2000, Andrade et al. 2005, Meunier et al. 2021). Furthermore, lianas can cause direct
79 mechanical damage to host trees, causing changes in leaf and branch area index (Schnitzer
80 and Bongers 2002, Reis et al. 2020), factors that could also limit carbon gain. Not
81 surprisingly, liana presence is associated with major decreases in tree productivity,
82 reproduction, biomass accumulation and biomass carbon stocks across tropical forests
83 (Durán and Gianoli 2013, van der Heijden et al. 2015, García León et al. 2017).

84 In the tropics, liana abundance increases towards areas with lower mean annual
85 precipitation and longer dry seasons. Trees, in contrast, follow the opposite pattern with
86 greater abundance in less seasonal areas (Gentry 1991, DeWalt et al. 2010, Esquivel-
87 Muelbert et al. 2017, Parolari et al. 2020). The growth advantage lianas have over trees
88 particularly in areas with high climatic seasonality (Schnitzer and van der Heijden 2019),
89 are suggested to be driven by their more efficient strategy to capture dry season

90 precipitation (De Deurwaerder et al. 2018), and their efficient hydraulic system, with
91 some studies also suggesting lianas also have a safe hydraulic system (Carvalho et al.
92 2015, Chen et al. 2017, van der Sande et al. 2019). These set of characteristics may allow
93 lianas to absorb and transport more water and potentially enhance their growth rates
94 without risks for their hydraulic system. The enhanced capacity lianas have in keeping
95 water transport efficient and possibly also safety without restricting growth during the
96 dry season, may be related to the amount and efficiency in use of their carbon stores (i.e.,
97 non-structural carbohydrates)(Schnitzer and van der Heijden 2019). Non-structural
98 carbohydrates (NSC) are the primary products of photosynthesis, providing plants with
99 the necessary energy for growth and survival (O'Brien et al. 2014, Hartmann and
100 Trumbore 2016). The NSC also play a key role mediating plant responses to abiotic
101 stresses, as they contribute to the regulation of osmotic potential and provide energy for
102 active water transport, thereby contributing to a healthier water balance in plants (Myers
103 and Kitajima 2007, Dietze et al. 2014, Dickman et al. 2015, Thalmann and Santelia 2017).
104 The two main NSC fractions are the soluble sugars (glucose, fructose, sucrose, etc) which
105 are the main substrate for plant metabolism (e.g., growth, respiration), and starch, a long-
106 term reserve that can be converted to soluble sugars when carbon demand surpasses
107 supply (Rosa et al. 2009, Krasensky and Jonak 2012, MacNeill et al. 2017, Thalmann and
108 Santelia 2017). Although the use of stored NSC has been hypothesised to be involved in
109 the higher capacity lianas have to grow during the dry season compared to trees (Schnitzer
110 and van der Heijden 2019), to our knowledge there is no study that explores the
111 differences in NSC concentrations in co-occurring trees and lianas (Schnitzer 2018,
112 Schnitzer and van der Heijden 2019).

113 Liana infestation can hinder tree growth, fecundity, and survival (Schnitzer et al.
114 2005, Ingwell et al. 2010, van der Heijden et al. 2015, García León et al. 2017, McDowell

115 et al. 2018, Reis et al. 2020). Shading caused by lianas over tree canopies can lead to a
116 reduction in the amount of light intercepted by trees, resulting in a decrease in carbon
117 assimilation (Godoy-Veiga et al. 2018). Meanwhile, belowground lianas compete
118 strongly with trees belowground for water and nutrients (Pérez-Salicrup 2001, Andrade
119 et al. 2005, Meunier et al. 2021). The negative response to liana infestation, observed in
120 tree growth rates, fecundity, and survival, may reflect carbon limitation resulting from
121 decreased carbon gain in host trees caused by above and belowground competition. Such
122 limitation in carbon gain could lead to reduction in NSC reserves in trees, that in turn can
123 reduce tree growth and limit its ability to deal with environmental stressors (e.g.,
124 drought). Nevertheless, to our knowledge there is no empirical evidence that liana
125 infestation can cause reduction in NSC reserves in long-term storage organs (e.g., stem)
126 of host trees. Given the increase in liana abundance in some tropical areas (Phillips et al.
127 2002, Schnitzer et al. 2021), it is essential to provide a mechanistic explanation of their
128 impact on tree function, which will enable estimates of future changes in species
129 composition and carbon stocks in tropical forests.

130 It has been demonstrated that in Amazonian forests the NSC concentrations in tree
131 species can vary along climatic gradients (Signori-Müller et al. 2021), with higher
132 proportion of soluble sugars in species occurring in drier areas (precipitation < 2000
133 mm/year). The concentration of NSC in Amazonian species can also vary depending on
134 plant life history strategy (i.e., fast vs. slow growing species), with slow-growing species
135 presenting higher starch storage and less seasonal variation of NSC than fast-growing
136 species (Herrera-Ramirez et al. 2021, Signori-Müller et al. 2022). The position of a species
137 along the fast–slow growth continuum may have important implication in plant capacity
138 to deal with stressors, for example Visser et al. (2018) showed that in tropical tree species,
139 liana infestation has stronger negative effects on growth and survival of fast-growing

140 species than in slow-growing species. Fast-growing species, which have lower NSC
141 concentrations than slow-growing species (Herrera-Ramirez et al. 2021, Signori-Müller
142 et al. 2022), may be more vulnerable to liana infestation due to impairment between
143 carbon assimilation and demand for metabolism maintenance. None of these studies,
144 however, have investigated the NSC storage in plants with different life forms (lianas vs
145 trees) and on the impact of liana infestation on NSC reserves of host trees. To address
146 this knowledge gap, we sampled trees infested by lianas, the lianas infesting those trees,
147 and non-infested trees in two Amazon locations with contrasting mean annual
148 precipitation and dry season length. We quantified starch and soluble sugars, which
149 comprise the most significant portions of NSC reserves in most trees (Martínez-Vilalta et
150 al. 2016). We hypothesized that 1) liana infestation negatively impact on the NSC
151 reserves of host-trees, with stronger impact in fast-growing species (Visser et al. 2018).
152 Additionally, we expected trees infested by lianas to have lower NSC concentrations than
153 non-infested trees in the dry site, where trees are less adapted to shading (Medina-Vega,
154 Bongers, Schnitzer, et al. 2021) and where the forest may already be at their physiological
155 limit (Tavares et al. 2023); 2) co-occurring lianas and trees will have different NSC
156 concentrations per gram of dry wood, with lianas having higher stem NSC concentrations
157 compared to trees in both, the dry and moist site. It because lianas have better capacity
158 to intercept light than trees, which can reflect in enhanced carbon gain leading to higher
159 stem NSC concentration on a dry mass basis in wood, with accentuated differences in
160 the dry site (Medina-Vega, Bongers, Schnitzer, et al. 2021, Medina-Vega et al. 2022).

161 **Material and methods**

162 *Site description and species selection*

163 We performed our sampling in two forests in the Amazon with contrasting

164 precipitation regimes. One of the sites is in the Western Amazon, in the Tambopata
165 National Reserve, Puerto Maldonado, Madre de Dios, Peru ($12^{\circ}49'S$, $69^{\circ}16'W$),
166 hereafter referred to as the moist site. In this site mean annual precipitation is ≈ 2450
167 mm/year, with a three-month dry season (rainfall < 100 mm; Sombroek 2001) extending
168 from June to August (Fick and Hijmans 2017). The other chosen site is an ecotonal forest
169 located at the dry fringe of the Amazon basin, in a permanent plot in Fazenda Vera Cruz,
170 Nova Xavantina, Mato Grosso, Brazil ($14^{\circ}49' S$, $52^{\circ}9' W$), hereafter referred as the dry
171 site. In this site mean annual precipitation is ~ 1500 mm and the dry season can last up to
172 six months (Marimon et al. 2010). We selected these sites due to the markedly differences
173 in climatic conditions and consequently species composition and likely functional
174 strategies to identify the difference in NSC storage of co-occurring trees and lianas living
175 in contrasting environments.

176 Studies with seedlings and adult trees have shown that the stem represents one of
177 the major storage organs for NSC (Poorter and Kitajima 2007, Martínez-Vilalta et al.
178 2016) therefore due to financial constraints to sample and perform chemical analysis we
179 focus our study on the xylem stem of trees and lianas. In both sites, sampling occurred
180 during the wet season, taking place in January 2017 in the moist site and in December
181 2017 in the dry site. Although stems have smaller diurnal variation in NSC concentrations
182 compared to canopy organs (Tixier et al. 2018), we standardized the sampling time to be
183 between 08:30 and 11:00 a.m. In the field and during the transport to the laboratory,
184 samples were kept on ice. Upon arrival at the laboratory, we microwaved the samples for
185 90 s at 700 W to stop enzymatic processes and oven-dried at $\sim 60^{\circ}C$ for at least 48 hr or
186 until they were completely dry.

187 In each site we sampled trees infested by lianas, the lianas infesting the trees and

188 non-infested trees. We selected the trees based on the liana Crown Occupancy Index
189 (COI, percentage of the canopy covered by lianas, Schnitzer et al. 2005) and tree diameter
190 at breast high (DBH). Here, we considered infested those trees with COI = 3 or 4, meaning
191 that liana cover was more than 50% or 75% of tree canopy cover, respectively. All lianas
192 with DBH \geq 5 cm infesting the trees were then sampled too. Non-infested trees are those
193 with COI = 0, meaning that there were no liana infesting the tree canopy.

194 In both sites, wherever possible, we sampled individuals with a similar diameter
195 for the trees of the same species, resulting in no difference in diameter between infested
196 and non-infested trees in both sites (Fig. 1S). Both in the moist and dry site we selected
197 late-successional canopy species for NSC sampling. In the moist site all sampled trees
198 had a DBH \geq 20 cm. This is a hyperdiverse forest making it challenging to find many
199 infested and non-infested individuals of the same species. We selected those tree species
200 that are representative of the community and which we could find at least three infested
201 and non-infested individuals (Table 1), the sampled species represent \approx 24% of the total
202 plot basal area. In the moist site we sampled 59 individual trees (30 non-infested, 29
203 infested) from 10 species, and 55 lianas with DBH \geq 5 that were infesting those trees.
204 From the 10 species we sampled in the moist site eight are evergreen, one is deciduous
205 (*Pouteria torta*), and one is a semi-deciduous species (*Cedrelinga cateniformis*). For
206 Amazonian species wood density and tree size are good proxies for life-history strategies
207 (Coelho de Souza et al. 2016). In the moist site, species span a wide range across the fast–
208 slow continuum of growth, with species with wood density as low as 0.38 g/cm³ to up to
209 0.87 g/cm³ (Chave et al. 2009, Zanne et al. 2009).

210 In the dry site, due to the smaller tree sizes, sampling was performed on trees with
211 diameter \geq 10 cm. However, preference was given to larger individuals whenever

212 possible. In the dry site, we sampled individuals from four species from a mixed plot
213 where these species accounted for $\approx 61\%$ of the total plot basal area (Soares Jancoski et
214 al. 2022), and one species, *Brosimum rubescens*, from a plot where it is the
215 monodominant species and accounts for $\approx 70\%$ of the total plot basal area. For the dry site
216 we sampled in total 71 trees (31 non-infested trees, 40 infested trees) and 37 lianas with
217 $DBH \geq 5$ cm infesting those trees. In the dry site four out five species are evergreen, and
218 one is a brevi-deciduous (*Mabea fistulifera*). Species sampled in this site have high wood
219 density, varying between 0.61 to 0.80 g/cm³ (Soares Jancoski et al. 2022). Due to the
220 difficulty in accessing leaf and fertile material, lianas were not identified on any of the
221 sites.

222 We collected stem samples for both trees and lianas at 1.20 m above the ground
223 using a 4.3 mm increment borer (Haglöf Company Group, Sweden). To quantify the
224 stored NSC concentration and not transient sugars we removed the bark and phloem and
225 then obtained the stem xylem cores of lianas and trees. As tree species vary in their growth
226 rates, we use a proportion of the sampled core that should roughly represent the last five
227 years of growth increment. This is because liana infestation status (COI) changes over
228 time and we established five years as the minimum period over which COI measured
229 during our field campaign could reasonably be expected to apply. Establishing a fixed
230 window for analysis based on five years of growth should also reduce the bias caused by
231 trees growing under different environmental conditions. To estimate the proportion of the
232 core to use in the NSC analyses we calculated the growth rate of each species using
233 inventory data from TAM-05, TAM-07, VCR-01 and VCR-02 plots (Lopez-Gonzalez et
234 al. 2011, ForestPlot.net et al. 2021). When possible, we used the growth rate of the
235 sampled individual trees to estimate the amount of material for NSC analysis. When this
236 was not possible, we used the mean growth rate calculated for the species across all

237 individuals of the species occurring in the plot. It is worth noting that the sampled infested
238 and non-infested trees did not differ in growth rate, likely due to a temporal mismatch
239 between the growth data at our disposal and the liana infestation data (data not presented).
240 This result may reflect the small number of individuals of each species, and the fact that
241 for some of them it was not possible to obtain the mean growth rate. Lianas have a small
242 stem diameter increment (Putz 1990, Restom and Nepstad 2004), and therefore, we
243 standardize the amount of material used to 1.5 cm long cores (excluding bark and phloem)
244 to ensure that we had enough liana material for the NSC analysis.

245 *Non-structural carbohydrates quantification*

246 Before the NSC quantification we ground the samples to a fine powder
247 (GenoGrinder®, USA). Non-structural carbohydrates are defined here as free, low
248 molecular weight sugars (glucose, fructose, sucrose, etc) plus starch. NSC was analysed
249 as described in Hoch et al. (2002) with minor modifications (Rowland et al. 2015,
250 Signori-Müller et al. 2021, 2022). First, we diluted 15 mg of the ground plant material
251 with 1.6 ml of distilled water and then incubated in a water bath at 90–100°C for 60 min
252 to solubilize sugars. We then took an aliquot of 700 µl from each sample and used the
253 remaining aliquot volume (900 µl) to determine soluble sugar concentrations using
254 invertase from *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) to break down sucrose
255 and fructose to glucose. Additionally, for both reaction routines, we used GAHK
256 (Glucose Assay Hexokinase Kit – Sigma-Aldrich, USA) together with phosphoglucose
257 isomerase from *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (Sigma-Aldrich, USA). The concentration of
258 free glucose was measured photometrically in a 96-well microplate spectrophotometer at
259 340 nm (EPOCH – Biotek Instruments INC, USA). The 700 µl aliquot that we initially
260 separated was incubated overnight to react with amyloglucosidase from *Aspergillus niger*

261 (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) to break down the total NSC to glucose. Thereafter total glucose
262 (corresponding to NSC) was determined as described above and starch was calculated as
263 total NSC minus soluble sugars. All NSC values are expressed in mg/g dry mass.

264 *Statistical analysis*

265 We performed all statistical analysis using R software (R Core Team 2018,
266 version 4.2.3). Preliminary tests included: analysis of normality (Shapiro–Wilk), and
267 homogeneity of variances (Flinger–Killeen) for each NSC fraction (NSC, starch and
268 soluble sugars). As NSC, starch and soluble sugars were not normally distributed, we
269 used non-parametric analyses or log_{1p} transformed the data.

270 To conduct a paired analysis to test differences in median stem NSC, starch and
271 soluble sugars between infested and non-infested trees we averaged the concentration per
272 species and used the Paired Samples Wilcoxon Test. We also tested the effect of
273 infestation at species level for species where $n \geq 3$ (Tab. 1) using a t-test, following log_{1p}
274 transformation of NSC data. We investigated whether infestation influences NSC
275 concentration of trees depending on the leaf habit. Due to the small number of species
276 that are not evergreen (Tab. 1), we used the individual value of each sampled tree and
277 grouped deciduous and semi-deciduous species into a single group. Analysis was
278 conducted independently for each site and NSC fraction using Wilcoxon Tests.

279 As species with different life strategies may differ in their response to liana
280 infestation (Visser et al. 2018), we tested how the NSC varied depending on the level of
281 infestation (COI) interacting with species wood density, a trait established as a good
282 proxy to identify the position of species across the fast-slow continuum of growth for
283 Amazonian species (Kitajima and Poorter 2008, Coelho de Souza et al. 2016). We

284 perform the analysis separately from each site and each NSC fraction using the *lmer*
285 function from lme4 package (Bates et al. 2007), for this analysis we used the individual
286 log_{1p} transformed NSC, starch and soluble sugars concentration for each tree and species
287 as random effect. Wood density data from the dry site is from (Soares Jancoski et al.
288 2022) and from the moist site from (Zanne et al. 2009), diameter was measured in situ in
289 the sampled trees at 130 cm above the ground.

290 To compare the NSC concentration of trees and lianas we used Wilcoxon rank
291 sum test. Analysis was performed using the individual NSC concentration of each
292 individual tree and liana, for each NSC fraction and site. As lianas were not identified it
293 was not possible to carry out analysis that control for the lack of independence between
294 observations within species. For all analyses, we assumed a significance level of 0.05.

295 **Results**

296 *Infested vs non-infested trees*

297 Our results demonstrate that NSC concentrations in stem xylem are similar in
298 infested (Median±SE; 30.8 ± 1.73 mg/g) and non-infested trees (28.4 ± 1.43 mg/g; $p >$
299 0.05 ; Paired Samples Wilcoxon Test; Fig. 2S). Furthermore, these results remain
300 consistent across both the dry and moist sites (Fig. 1). Infested and non-infested trees
301 have similar starch (infested: 16.0 ± 1.92 mg/g; non-infested: 1.32 ± 1.31 mg/g) and
302 soluble sugars (infested: 7.67 ± 1.35 mg/g; non-infested: 7.88 ± 0.75 mg/g) concentration
303 (Fig 2S), with results consistent for the dry and moist sites (Fig. 1). At species level (Fig.
304 2), only *Pouteria torta*, from the moist site, showed statistically significant differences in
305 stem starch concentration between infested (17.8 ± 2.17 mg/g) and non-infested trees
306 (34.7 ± 1.55 , $p < 0.05$), all other species from both sites had similar stem NSC, starch and

307 soluble sugars concentrations between infested and non-infested trees. There were also
308 no significant differences observed between infested and non-infested trees when we
309 examined deciduous and evergreen species separately (Fig. 3S).

310 We fitted Linear Mixed-Effects Models to predict NSC, starch and soluble sugar
311 concentration with infestation level and wood density as predictors and found that overall,
312 the explanatory power of these models was low, especially at the dry site (Table 2 and 3).
313 Interaction between infestation level (COI), and wood density did not explain the variance
314 in any NSC fraction in both dry and moist sites (Fig. 4S). Only wood density alone in the
315 moist site has a statistically significant and positive relationship on stem NSC and starch
316 concentration (Fig. 3; Table 2-3).

317 *Trees vs. lianas*

318 Due to the lack of differences in NSC, starch and soluble sugar concentrations
319 between infested and non-infested trees we grouped them to compare to lianas.

320 Lianas have higher stem NSC concentrations than trees (Fig. 4) both in the dry
321 (liana: 59.1 ± 6.15 mg/g; tree: 34.2 ± 3.69 mg/g; $p < 0.001$) and moist site (liana: $59.5 \pm$
322 6.15 mg/g; tree: 24.8 ± 4.43 mg/g; $p < 0.001$). Stem starch concentrations were higher in
323 lianas than in trees (Fig. 4), both in the dry (liana: 47.2 ± 5.56 mg/g; tree: 16 ± 3.30 mg/g;
324 $p < 0.001$; Wilcoxon rank sum test) and moist site (liana: 44 ± 6.69 mg/g; tree: $17.9 \pm$
325 4.33 ; $p < 0.001$). In the moist site, stem soluble sugar concentrations were higher in lianas
326 (17.6 ± 1.31 mg/g; $p < 0.001$) than in trees (6.25 ± 0.73 mg/g; Fig. 4), while in the dry
327 site both life forms have similar stem soluble sugar concentrations (liana: 11.5 ± 1.24
328 mg/g; tree: 12.6 ± 1.83 mg/g; $p = 0.92$). Lianas had similar NSC, starch and soluble sugar
329 concentrations in both sites (Fig. 6S), while trees only differed among sites with respect

330 to soluble sugar concentrations, which was higher in the dry site (Fig. 6S)

331 The proportion of total NSC allocated to soluble sugars (SS:NSC) was similar
332 between lianas (30.0 ± 2.67) and trees (29.3 ± 2.75) in the moist site ($p = 0.60$; Wilcoxon
333 rank sum test), but not in the dry site (Fig. 5), where we find trees have higher SS:NSC
334 (49.1 ± 3.73) than lianas (30.9 ± 3.16 ; $p = 0.005$). Intersite comparisons show that lianas
335 have similar SS:NSC among sites ($p > 0.05$), while for trees the higher SS:NSC are found
336 in the dry site ($p < 0.001$; Fig. 6S).

337 **Discussion**

338 Despite its role in plant fitness, to our knowledge, this is the first study to
339 investigate differences in NSC concentrations of trees and lianas, and the effect of liana
340 infestation on tree NSC concentrations. The hypothesis that lianas have higher xylem
341 stem NSC than trees was confirmed by our results (Fig. 2). However, our hypothesis that
342 major differences in NSC concentration between trees and lianas would occur in the dry
343 site was not confirmed by our results. In fact, in the dry site, soluble sugar concentrations
344 in tree stem xylem were indistinguishable to those from lianas, while starch and total NSC
345 were higher in lianas than in trees in both sites (Fig. 4). Despite the negative impact of
346 liana infestation on host trees (Schnitzer et al. 2005, 2014, van der Heijden et al. 2013,
347 2015, Reis et al. 2020), our results do not support the hypothesis that liana infestation can
348 lead to changes in stem NSC concentration of Amazonian trees (Fig. 1).

349 *Infested vs non-infested trees*

350 Liana presence may prevent trees from experiencing the expected maximum
351 growth capacity throughout their lifetime (Godoy-Veiga et al. 2018), with more
352 pronounced negative effect in fast-growing species than in slow-growing species (Visser

353 et al. 2018). Despite that we found no difference in stem NSC, starch and soluble sugar
354 concentration of infested and non-infested trees regardless of tree life-history strategy
355 (Tab. 1-2, Fig. 3, Fig. 4S). The fitted linear models only showed a significant relationship
356 between NSC and starch with wood density in the moist site (Fig. 3), and it was
357 independent of infestation or tree size. These results are in line with previous studies with
358 Amazonian species, which showed that across the fast-slow continuum of life story
359 strategies, stem starch is positively related with wood density (Herrera-Ramirez et al.
360 2021, Signori-Müller et al. 2022). The lack of relationship between starch and wood
361 density in the dry site may reflect the fact that only species with high wood density were
362 sampled there. Reis et al. (2020) showed that in the southern Amazonia, where our dry
363 site is located, slow-growing, dense-wooded species are more susceptible to liana
364 infestation than fast-growing species, elucidating the absence of species with low wood
365 density in our data set. Considering the many impacts lianas have on trees performance
366 and community structure the results we found are surprising. (Ingwell et al. 2010, García
367 León et al. 2017, Reis et al. 2020).

368 Although lianas can exert mechanical damage on host trees, causing changes in
369 leaf and branch area index (Schnitzer and Bongers 2002, Reis et al. 2020) the mechanical
370 stress they induce on host trees does not affect stem NSC concentrations (Fig. 1).
371 Rademacher et al. (2021), manipulated phloem transport in a conifer species through
372 compressing the stem, and found that although compression affects wood formation it
373 does not affect the NSC reserves. Investigating the impact of liana infestation on water
374 status of trees species in a forest close to our dry site, in southeast Amazon, Beú (2019)
375 found infested and non-infested trees have similar pre-dawn and mid-day water potential
376 across seasons. Based on our findings of no difference in NSC concentrations between
377 infested and non-infested trees, we hypothesise that the much-reported impacts of lianas

378 on forest dynamics (reduced growth, increased mortality) (Ingwell et al. 2010, van der
379 Heijden et al. 2015, Reis et al. 2020, 2022), may be mediated primarily by the weakening
380 of tree structure..

381

382 *Tree vs lianas*

383 Parenchymatic cells constitute a major NSC storage compartment in plants
384 (Plavcová and Jansen 2015), and have been reported to be found in lianas in amounts
385 about twice as high as in angiosperm trees (Morris et al. 2016). We find the stem xylem
386 NSC concentrations in lianas are the double of that in trees. This may be driven by a
387 greater parenchyma fraction in stem xylem of lianas relative to trees and not necessarily
388 by greater NSC concentrations per unit of parenchyma.

389 Trees can have access to NSC pools integrating carbon accumulated over more
390 than a decade (Vargas et al. 2009, Muhr et al. 2018). Despite the ability of trees to use
391 old, stored carbon, some NSC accumulated in woody tissues may become sequestered,
392 and therefore not available for future use, representing a metabolic dead end, with the
393 carbon no longer physiologically active and so not affecting metabolism (Millard et al.,
394 2007). Maximum ages of accessible carbon reserves could be affected by the time that
395 sapwood is alive and functional before it undergoes heartwood transformation (Muhr et
396 al. 2018). Average sapwood lifespans for tropical tree species can vary between 5.7 and
397 88.6 years with an average of 29.78 years (van der Sande et al. 2015). In the trees, we
398 quantified the NSC concentration in a portion of the xylem that represent the increment
399 of the last five years (see methods), which likely encompasses the functional portion of
400 the xylem. For lianas, we standardized the length of the xylem segment we used for

401 analysis to 1.5 cm, which may represent growth increments of > 10 years (considering
402 stem increment of 1.4 mm/year presented by Putz 1990 and Restom and Nepstad 2004).
403 Information about liana sapwood lifespan is missing, however it is known that they have
404 a high sapwood to heartwood ratio (Tyree and Ewers 1996), therefore for the purposes of
405 this study we assume the xylem portion we analysed for lianas is active and reserves in
406 this portion accessible to be used. To understand the liana dynamics and its increase in
407 abundance in some areas, we must comprehend its carbon metabolism, including the
408 dynamics of NSC, which remains unexplored compared to the water relations (i.e.,
409 hydraulic traits). Future studies should prioritize investigating the life span of liana xylem
410 and the extent to which lianas can utilize stored (NSC) that are several years old and in
411 which temporal scale it occurs (seasonally vs extreme events) (Carbone et al. 2007,
412 Vargas et al. 2009).

413 A recent study conducted in a tropical forest in Panama showed that lianas have
414 the ability to maintain higher growth rates during dry season and the authors speculate
415 this may occur through the maintenance of high water potential or by relying on stored
416 NSC (Schnitzer and van der Heijden 2019). Starch, which we found concentrations in
417 lianas to be higher than in trees in both sites, is a long term NSC fraction that can be
418 remobilized to fulfil plant needs for carbon when demand is higher than assimilation
419 (MacNeill et al. 2017). Through analysis of scanning electron photomicrographs of liana
420 xylem, Masrahi (2014) found a dense accumulation of starch grains on ray parenchyma
421 cells near vessel groups of lianas from a very dry area (precipitation 150 mm/year). We
422 speculate that by relying on the structural investment of trees for mechanical support,
423 lianas can allocate a high proportion of the assimilated carbon into reserves. By being
424 hydrolysed into soluble sugars, starch can support growth, enhance water flow by raising
425 vessel osmotic pressure to regulate conductance and reduce the risk of embolism entering

426 the vessels (Thalman and Santelia 2017, Tomasella et al. 2017). High concentrations of
427 starch allied to parenchyma cells in contact with vessels could enable lianas to have easy
428 access and use of the NSC reserves, increasing hydraulic efficiency without
429 compromising safety (Secchi et al. 2017), promoting growth during period of carbon
430 limitation and fuelling liana reproductive events and leaf flush (Olson 2003, Schnitzer
431 and van der Heijden 2019).

432 In this study differences between trees and lianas were overall consistent in both
433 dry and moist sites, while other studies found co-occurring trees and lianas differ more in
434 drier than in wetter sites in functional traits related to water transport, (Medina-Vega,
435 Bongers, Poorter, et al. 2021, Smith-Martin et al. 2022). The only similarity observed in
436 stem NSC concentration between the different life forms was found in the soluble sugars
437 fraction in the dry forest (Fig. 4). Although absolute stem soluble sugar concentration of
438 both life-forms was similar in the dry site, the proportion of the total NSC allocated to
439 soluble sugars (SS:NSC) was higher for trees than for lianas (Fig. 5). A study considering
440 leaves and branches of Amazonian tree species, also found higher SS:NSC in more dry
441 and seasonal sites (Signori-Müller et al. 2021). Together these results reinforce the idea
442 that soluble sugars cannot be drawn below a certain threshold (Sala et al. 2012) due to its
443 immediate role in the maintenance of plant metabolism (e.g., growth, respiration,
444 osmoregulation, embolism repair, etc. Rosa et al. 2009, Krasensky and Jonak 2012,
445 MacNeill et al. 2017, Thalman and Santelia 2017). Based on the higher starch
446 concentrations in lianas than in trees, lianas could have more carbon to fulfil their soluble
447 sugar requirements than trees, in both dry and moist sites. The increase in liana abundance
448 towards areas that are experiencing reduction in water availability and increasing
449 seasonality, especially in the Neotropics (Phillips et al. 2002, Laurance et al. 2014,
450 Marimon et al. 2020), may be the result of a well-adjusted hydraulic system and carbon

451 metabolism (McDowell 2011).

452 **Conclusion**

453 In Amazonian tree species, high starch concentration in stem xylem is linked to
454 high wood density and low mortality rates (Herrera-Ramirez et al. 2021, Signori-Müller
455 et al. 2022). For lianas, it is unknown whether starch or soluble sugar concentrations are
456 related to plant life-history traits and whether the seasonal dynamics are similar to those
457 in trees. An increasing number of experimental studies with mature trees, seedlings and
458 shrubs shows that under stressful conditions plants with higher NSC concentrations can
459 cope better with stressors (e.g., drought, canopy damage), hence increasing survival rates
460 (e.g., O'Brien et al. 2014, Shibata et al. 2016, Tomasella et al. 2017, Gessler and
461 Grossiord 2019, Guo et al. 2020). Non-structural carbohydrates may play a similar role
462 in liana response to stressors as it does in plants with other life forms, even favouring
463 liana growth in periods that trees would prioritize the maintenance of storage (Schnitzer
464 and van der Heijden 2019, Chuste et al. 2019). The high starch concentration in lianas
465 compared to trees, point to differences in carbon gain (Cai et al. 2009) and possibly in
466 carbon storage and use. To be able to predict changes in forest composition and carbon
467 accumulation, we need to understand the mechanisms linked to liana ability to increase
468 in abundance in areas where seasonality in precipitation is increasing. An underrated but
469 key component to understand it can be related to how liana use its carbon reserves and
470 how well coordinated it is with their hydraulic system. Despite their significance, lianas
471 are persistently understudied and even a basic understanding of NSC dynamics remains
472 elusive (Zotz et al. 2006, Slot et al. 2014).

473 We do not rule out the hypothesis that liana infestation may impact the NSC
474 dynamics of host trees. To better understand if it is the case, future studies should

475 investigate for example if there are differences in NSC concentrations of infested and
476 non-infested trees also during the dry season, when water transport and carbon
477 assimilation are potentially compromised (Wagner et al. 2016). Leaves and branches,
478 which have more dynamic NSC pools should also be considered (Würth et al. 2005,
479 Signori-Müller et al. 2022). It may be that the canopy organs may have more carbon
480 imbalance due to liana infestation than the stem xylem, which can serve as a long-term
481 storage organ thus less affected if storage is prioritized over growth (Herrera-Ramirez et
482 al. 2021, Signori-Müller et al. 2022).

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483 **Authors' contributions**

484 C.S.-M., R.S.O., D.G. and M.M. conceived the research ideas. C.S.-M. led the data
485 analysis and writing of the manuscript. C.S.-M. and J.V.T. led the field sampling for the
486 moist site; C.S.-M., S.M.R. and B.S.M. led the field sampling for the dry site. C.S.-M.,
487 J.V.T., F.C.D., M.G., A.N., C.A.S.Y. and M.J.M.Z collected samples in the moist site.
488 S.M.R, C.B. and P.S.M. collected samples in the dry site. C.S.-M., M.G., S.M. and
489 B.B.L.C. took part on sample preparing and analysis. G.M.F.v.d.H. provided the crown
490 occupancy index for the moist site. B.S.M. provided the crown occupancy index for the
491 dry site. R.B., E.G.C., B.S.M., B.H.M.J., A.M.M., O.P., N.S. and R.V. lead the
492 ForestPlots.net field expeditions for data collection for inventory. All authors contributed
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514 **Data availability**

515 The stem non-structural carbohydrate concentration data for trees and lianas are available
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517 inventory data to estimate species growth rate at the study site are from the RAINFOR
518 network, available upon request at ForestPlots.net (Lopez-Gonzalez et al. 2011,
519 ForestPlot.net et al. 2021). Wood density from species occurring in the dry site are from
520 Soares Jancoski et al. (2022), for species in the moist site, we used mean species wood
521 density for the Amazon Basin from Chave et al. (2009), Zanne et al. (2009).

522 **Conflict of interest**

523 The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

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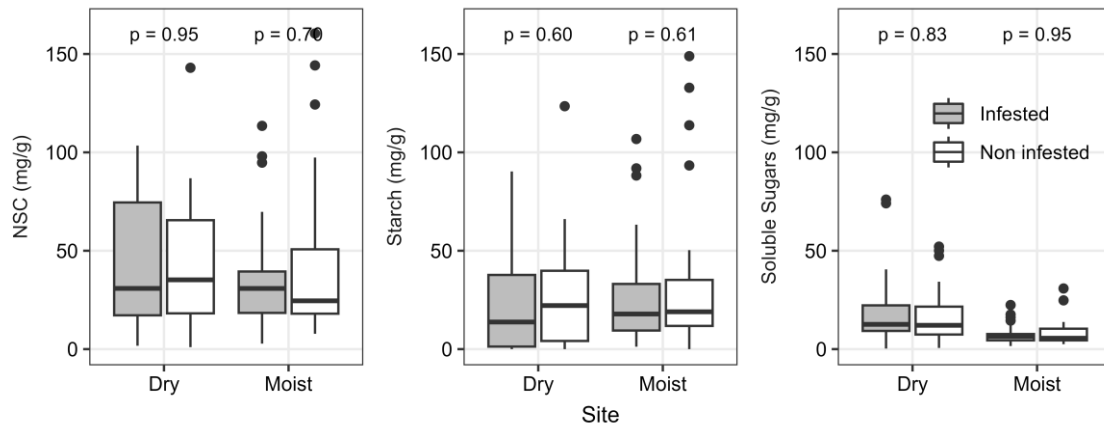
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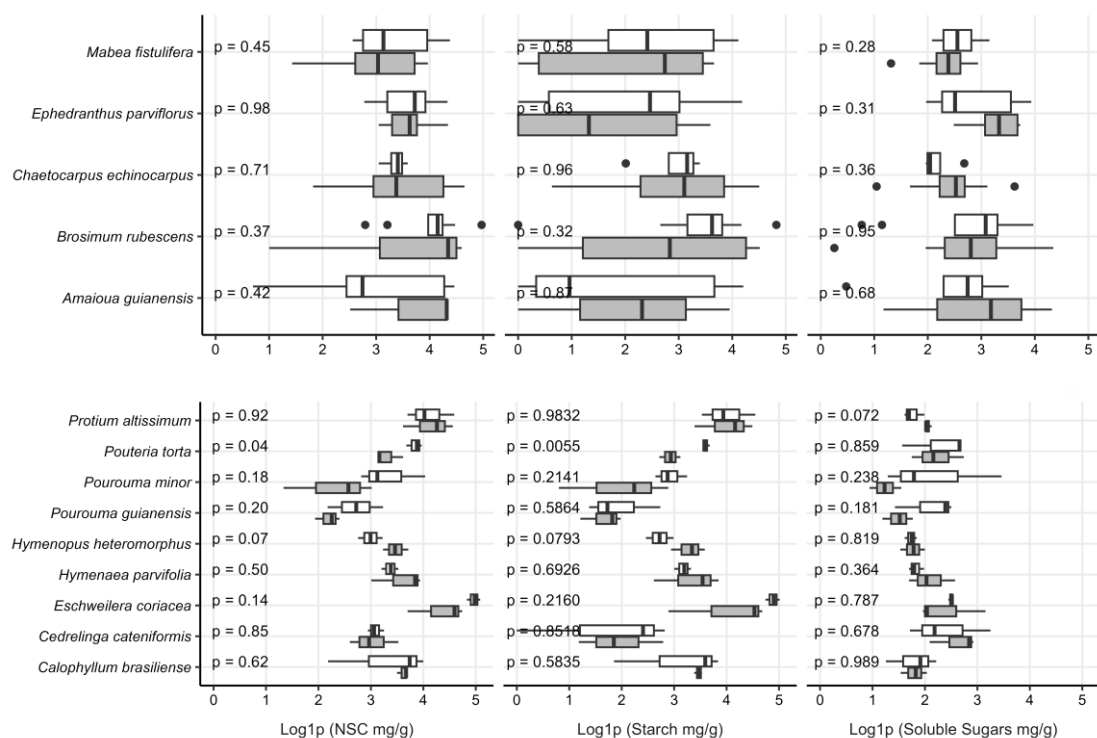


958
 959 **Figure 1** – Concentrations of stem non-structural carbohydrates (NSC), starch and
 960 soluble sugars in co-occurring tree species with liana infestation $\geq 50\%$ (grey) and in
 961 trees without liana infestation (white). For figure and analysis, we used the mean
 962 concentration per species. Differences between groups were tested using Paired Samples
 963 Wilcoxon Test. Data are present for the dry and moist site. Dry site: infested $n = 40$, non-
 964 infested $n = 31$; Moist site: infested $n = 29$, non-infested $n = 30$. Each box encompasses
 965 the 25th to 75th percentiles; the median is indicated by the horizontal line within each
 966 box while external horizontal lines indicate the 10th and 90th percentiles; dots indicate
 967 outlier.

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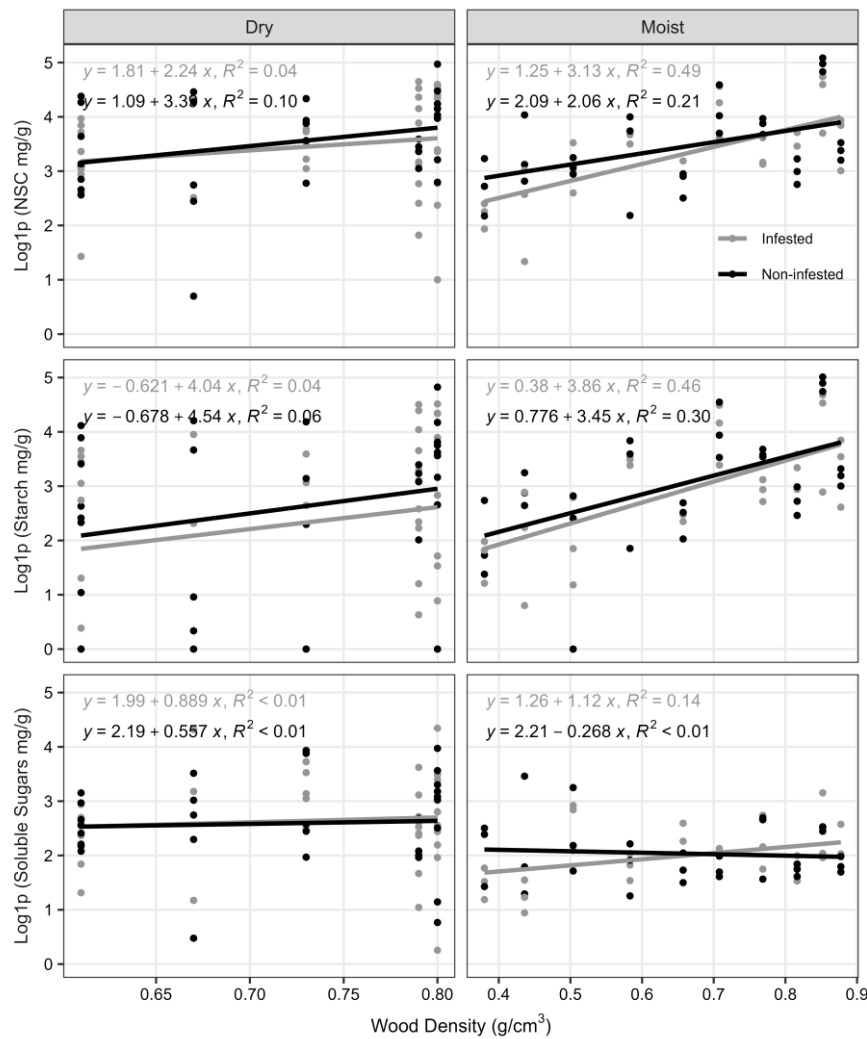


970

971 **Figure 2** – Concentrations of stem non-structural carbohydrates (NSC), starch and
 972 soluble sugars from trees infested by lianas (grey) and non-infested trees (white). Data
 973 are present for the dry site (top panels) and moist site (bottom panels). *Micropholis*
 974 *guyanensis* was excluded due to small sample size ($n < 3$). Data was log_{1p} transformed
 975 and differences between groups was tested using T-Test. Each box encompasses the 25th
 976 to 75th percentiles; the median is indicated by the horizontal line with each box while
 977 external horizontal lines indicate the 10th and 90th percentiles.

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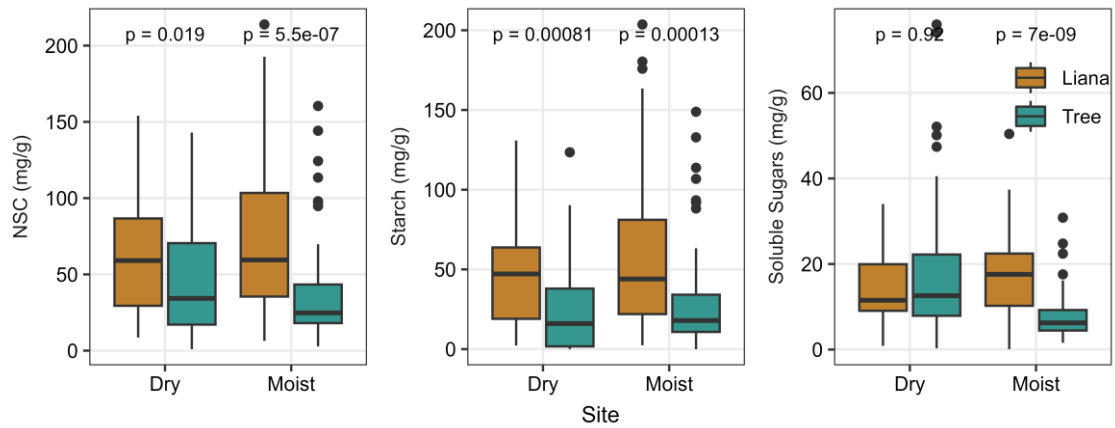


980

981 **Figure 3** – Relationship between stem non-structural carbohydrates (NSC), starch and
 982 soluble sugars (mg/g) with wood density (g/cm³). Mean wood density per species in the
 983 dry site (n = 5 species) are from Soares Jancoski et al. (2022) and for the species in moist
 984 site (n = 10 species) we used the basin mean from Zanne et al. (2009). The R² values
 985 were calculated using ordinary linear regression, NSC concentration and its fraction were
 986 log_{1p} transformed before analysis. Gray colour represent infested trees and black colour
 987 non-infested trees.

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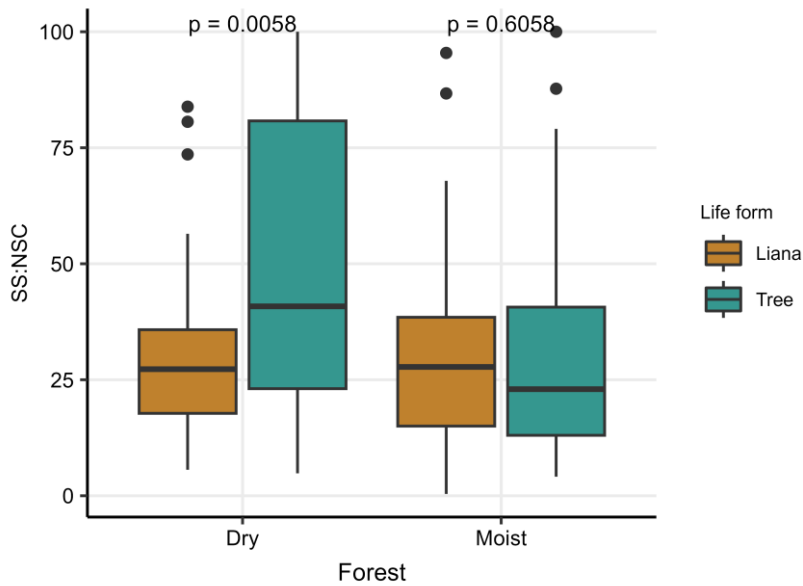
990

991 **Figure 4** – Concentrations of stem non-structural carbohydrates (NSC), starch and
 992 soluble sugars in co-occurring lianas (purple), and trees (green). Data are present for the
 993 dry and moist site. To test for differences between life form within site we used Wilcoxon
 994 rank sum test. Dry site: liana $n = 37$, tree $n = 71$; Moist site: liana $n = 73$, tree = 59
 995 individuals. Each box encompasses the 25th to 75th percentiles; the median is indicated
 996 by the horizontal line with each box while external horizontal lines indicate the 10th and
 997 90th percentiles; dots indicate outliers.

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1001 **Figure 5** – Comparison of proportion of NSC in the form of soluble sugars (SS:NSC) in
 1002 stems of co-occurring lianas (brown), and trees (green). Data are present for the dry and
 1003 moist site. To test for differences between life-form within site we used Wilcoxon rank
 1004 sum test. Dry site: liana n = 37, tree n = 71; Moist site: liana n = 73, tree = 59 individuals.
 1005 Each box encompasses the 25th to 75th percentiles; the median is indicated by the
 1006 horizontal line with each box while external horizontal lines indicate the 10th and 90th
 1007 percentiles; dots indicate outliers.

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1012 **Table 1** – Collected species and number of infested and non-infested trees, in the dry and
 1013 in the moist site.

Species	Site	<i>n</i>	WD*	Phenology
<i>Amaioua guianensis</i>	Dry	Infested = 3 Non-infested = 5	0.67	Evergreen
<i>Brosimum rubescens</i>	Dry	Infested = 11 Non-infested = 9	0.80	Evergreen
<i>Chaetocarpus echinocarpus</i>	Dry	Infested = 11 Non-infested = 4	0.79	Evergreen
<i>Ephedranthus parviflorus</i>	Dry	Infested = 6 Non-infested = 6	0.72	Evergreen
<i>Mabea fistulifera</i>	Dry	Infested = 9 Non-infested = 7	0.61	Brevi-deciduous
<i>Calophyllum brasiliense</i>	Moist	Infested = 3 Non-infested = 3	0.58	Evergreen
<i>Cedrelinga cateniformis</i>	Moist	Infested = 3 Non-infested = 3	0.50	Semi-deciduous
<i>Eschweilera coriacea</i>	Moist	Infested = 3 Non-infested = 3	0.85	Evergreen
<i>Hymenaea parvifolia</i>	Moist	Infested = 3 Non-infested = 3	0.87	Evergreen
<i>Hymenopus heteromorphus</i> **	Moist	Infested = 3 Non-infested = 3	0.81	Evergreen
<i>Micropholis guyanensis</i>	Moist	Infested = 2 Non-infested = 3	0.65	Evergreen
<i>Pourouma guianensis</i>	Moist	Infested = 3 Non-infested = 3	0.38	Evergreen
<i>Pourouma minor</i>	Moist	Infested = 3 Non-infested = 3	0.43	Evergreen
<i>Pouteria torta</i>	Moist	Infested = 3 Non-infested = 3	0.76	Deciduous
<i>Protium altissimum</i> ***	Moist	Infested = 3	0.70	Evergreen

		Non-infested =		
		3		

1014 *WD: wood density (g/cm³); **Former *Licania heteromorpha*; *** Former *Tetragastris*
1015 *altissima*

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Table 2 – Linear Mixed-Effects Models results to predicting non-structural carbohydrate, starch, and soluble sugars with Crown Occupancy

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Index (COI) and Wood Density (WD) in the dry site.

<i>Predictors</i>	log₁p (NSC)			log₁p (Starch)			log₁p (Soluble Sugars)		
	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	1.46	-1.44 – 4.35	0.319	-0.62	-5.83 – 4.58	0.812	2.44	-0.90 – 5.77	0.149
COI	0.03	-1.04 – 1.11	0.952	0.03	-1.87 – 1.94	0.972	-0.25	-1.28 – 0.78	0.623
WD	2.85	-1.16 – 6.86	0.161	4.39	-2.82 – 11.60	0.228	0.19	-4.43 – 4.82	0.933
COI × WD	-0.07	-1.56 – 1.41	0.923	-0.13	-2.76 – 2.50	0.922	0.37	-1.05 – 1.79	0.603
Random Effects									
σ^2	0.77			2.42			0.70		
τ_{00}	0.00	Species		0.01	Species		0.05	Species	
ICC				0.00			0.07		
N	5	Species		5	Species		5	Species	
Observations	71			71			71		
Marginal R ² / Conditional R ²	0.055 / NA*			0.043 / 0.047			0.013 / 0.080		

1026

*Not estimated because variance estimates for random effect is nearly zero.

1027 **Table 3** – Linear Mixed-Effects Models results to predicting non-structural carbohydrate, starch, and soluble sugars with Crown Occupancy
 1028 Index (COI) and Wood Density (WD) in the wet site. Bolt values represent significative relationships.

1029

<i>Predictors</i>	log1p (NSC)			log1p (Starch)			log1p (Soluble Sugars)			
	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>	
(Intercept)	2.06	0.72 – 3.39	0.003	0.73	-0.98 – 2.43	0.396	2.18	1.27 – 3.10	<0.001	
COI	-0.24	-0.55 – 0.06	0.110	-0.10	-0.51 – 0.31	0.629	-0.27	-0.58 – 0.03	0.075	
WD	2.14	0.17 – 4.10	0.033	3.55	1.04 – 6.05	0.006	-0.19	-1.53 – 1.16	0.781	
COI × WD	0.29	-0.15 – 0.72	0.194	0.08	-0.52 – 0.68	0.795	0.37	-0.06 – 0.81	0.093	
Random Effects										
σ^2	0.23			0.43			0.23			
τ_{00}	0.19 Species			0.30 Species			0.05 Species			
ICC	0.46			0.41			0.18			
N	10 Species			10 Species			10 Species			
Observations	59			59			59			
Marginal R ² / Conditional R ²	0.332 / 0.637			0.352 / 0.616			0.062 / 0.230			