

1 **Stem CO₂ efflux in six co-occurring tree species: underlying factors and**
2 **ecological implications**

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12 *Running title: stem carbon loss in six deciduous trees*

13

14 **ABSTRACT**

15 Stem respiration plays a role in species coexistence and forest dynamics. Here we examined the
16 intra- and inter-specific variability of stem CO₂ efflux (E) in dominant and suppressed trees of
17 six deciduous species in a mixed forest stand: *Fagus sylvatica* L., *Quercus petraea* [Matt.]
18 Liebl, *Quercus pyrenaica* Willd., *Prunus avium* L., *Sorbus aucuparia* L. and *Crataegus*
19 *monogyna* Jacq. We conducted measurements in late autumn. Within species, dominants had
20 higher E per unit stem surface area (E_s) mainly because sapwood depth was higher than in
21 suppressed trees. Across species, however, differences in E_s corresponded with differences in
22 the proportion of living parenchyma in sapwood and concentration of nonstructural
23 carbohydrates (NSC). Across species, E_s was strongly and NSC marginally positively related
24 with an index of drought tolerance, suggesting that slow growth of drought-tolerant trees is
25 related to higher NSC concentration and E_s . We conclude that, during the leafless period, E is
26 indicative of maintenance respiration and is related with some ecological characteristics of the
27 species, such as drought resistance; that sapwood depth is the main factor explaining variability
28 in E_s within species; and that the proportion of NSC in the sapwood is the main factor behind
29 variability in E_s among species.

30 *Key-words:* forest succession; shade tolerance, tree canopy class, carbon balance, xylem live
31 cell content, tree survival.

32

33 *Abbreviations:* E , stem CO₂ efflux; E_{s5} , E per unit surface area at 5 °C; E_{v5} , E per unit sapwood
34 volume at 5 °C; E_{p5} , E per unit living sapwood volume at 5 °C; E_{m5} , E per unit mass of sapwood
35 at 5 °C; E_{n5} , E per unit mass of nitrogen at 5 °C; N, nitrogen; NSC, nonstructural carbohydrates;
36 Q_{10} , the proportional change in E per 10 °C change in temperature; R , stem respiration; SS,
37 soluble sugars.

38 INTRODUCTION

39 The living cells of the stem provide energy and carbon skeletons through respiration that help
40 to maintain different tree functions. Consumption of assimilated carbon in stem respiration (R)
41 makes it an important component of tree and ecosystem carbon budgets (e.g. Litton *et al.* 2007).
42 However, despite the likely importance of R in tree carbon balance and survival, there is still
43 little information on the causes of variability in R within and among species and its ecological
44 implications.

45 Part of the variability in R per unit surface area among trees resides in the volumes of
46 cambium, phloem (Pruyn *et al.* 2002a; Pruyn *et al.* 2005) and sapwood (Ryan 1990; Ryan *et al.*
47 1995; Edwards & Hanson 1996; Pruyn *et al.* 2005; Yang *et al.* 2012a). For a given volume of
48 sapwood, R may be related to the proportion of living parenchyma (Ryan 1990; Ryan *et al.*
49 1995; Ceschia *et al.* 2002; Gruber *et al.* 2009); while at a finer scale, it may depend on the
50 concentration of nitrogen (N) – which affects the cell respiratory potential (Cannell & Thornley
51 2000; Vose & Ryan 2002; Bosc *et al.* 2003; Pruyn *et al.* 2005; Reich *et al.* 2008) – and
52 nonstructural carbohydrates (NSC) – which affects the cell respiratory rate (Pruyn *et al.* 2005;
53 Wang *et al.* 2006; Wertin & Teskey 2008; Maier *et al.* 2010; Maunoury-Danger *et al.* 2010).
54 Therefore, the weighted rate of R per unit surface area depends on the amount of living cells
55 and their activity, which is related to the concentration of N and NSC. The inverse relationships
56 between some of the above traits could lead to some unexpected results. For example, high
57 sapwood depth may not necessarily translate into high R per unit surface area because of the
58 trade-off between sapwood depth and proportion of parenchyma in sapwood (Spicer &
59 Holbrook 2007). Similarly, high parenchyma volume may not lead to high R , because of the
60 trend for respiratory potential of living cells to decline with increasing parenchyma volume
61 (Pruyn *et al.* 2003; Pruyn *et al.* 2005; Spicer & Holbrook 2007).

62 Anatomical and biochemical features can vary among trees occupying different
63 positions in the forest canopy and thus affect R . Suppressed trees can have less sapwood
64 (Whitehead & Jarvis 1981; Deckmyn *et al.* 2006; Renninger *et al.* 2007) and thus lower R than
65 dominants. In support of this, Guidolotti *et al.* (2013) found higher CO₂ efflux per unit stem
66 surface area in dominant than co-dominant *Fagus sylvatica* trees. It is also possible that the
67 balance between the supply and use of NSC (Deckmyn *et al.* 2006) as well as the uptake and
68 allocation of N (Couto-Vázquez & González-Prieto 2010) differ between trees of different
69 crown classes, thus affecting NSC and N concentrations, and rates of R of dominant, co-
70 dominant and suppressed trees.

71 Similarly to variation within species, R can differ between species in relation to their
72 functional and ecological characteristics, but this is something which has been barely studied.
73 Fast growing species, with abundant foliage (Körner 1991), can have higher sapwood depth but
74 lower sapwood N concentration than less competitive species (Martin *et al.* 1998). Drought-
75 adapted species can be highly resistant to xylem cavitation and have high sapwood density
76 (Hacke *et al.* 2001); they can also store large amounts of NSC in xylem parenchyma cells to
77 resprout (Palacio *et al.* 2007) or restore water transport capacity after hydraulic failure
78 (Zwieniecki & Holbrook 2009). Shade tolerance can also be related to the amount of carbon
79 losses occurring through respiration. In the same way as shade-tolerant species tend to show
80 lower leaf respiration (Bazzaz 1979; Veneklaas & Poorter 1998; Walters & Reich 1999;
81 Valladares & Niinemets 2008), low stem respiration (R) may contribute to persistence of shade
82 tolerant trees under low light conditions imposed by the canopy.

83 Despite a likely role of R in tree adaptation/acclimation to environmental conditions, no
84 empirical evidence has been found between R and species ecological requirements. Here we
85 investigated the intra- and inter-specific variability of R by measuring radial CO₂ efflux (E)
86 from intact stems of six tree species of different ecological characteristics growing together in

87 a mixed sub-Mediterranean forest. Eight trees were selected from each species, half occupying
88 a dominant position in the canopy and half a suppressed position. Measurements were made at
89 the end of autumn in leafless trees to minimize the effects of stem growth and transpiration on
90 E , and so using this variable as a proxy of maintenance R (see McGuire *et al.* 2007). We
91 hypothesized that i), within and across species, bigger trees having deeper crowns and sapwood
92 depth would have higher E per unit surface area than smaller ones; ii) E per unit mass or volume
93 of sapwood would be related to the proportion of parenchyma and concentration of N and NSC
94 in sapwood; and iii) E per unit sapwood parenchyma would decline as trees had higher amounts
95 of parenchyma. Finally, we expected that E would be related with some ecological requirements
96 of the species, such as shade- and drought-tolerance, in support of the role of R in plant fitness.

97 **MATERIAL AND METHODS**

98 **Study area and species**

99 The study was conducted in central Spain, at the “El Hayedo de Montejo” forest (3°30’W,
100 41°07’ N; altitude: 1240-1575 m a.s.l.). This forest was managed for centuries as a wood pasture
101 and used to keep livestock until 1961 (Pardo *et al.* 2004). When grazing was banned, recruits
102 from the multi-centennial trees composing the savannah-like woodland rapidly established and
103 generated the current uneven-aged structure and mixed-species composition of the forest. The
104 soil is relatively deep and classified as Luvisol Orthodystric (FAO 2006), and dominant
105 lithology is granitic micaceous gneiss. The climate is Mediterranean, with the highest
106 temperature and lowest precipitation occurring during summer months. Meteorological data
107 collected in the forest since 1994 to 2013 indicate mean monthly temperatures range from 2.3
108 °C in January to 18.9 °C in July; mean annual precipitation is 901 mm, of which only 147 mm
109 occur from June through September.

110 The species compared in the study were: *Quercus petraea* [Matt.] Liebl (sessile oak),
111 *Quercus pyrenaica* Willd. (melojo oak), *Fagus sylvatica* L. (beech), *Prunus avium* L. (wild
112 cherry), *Sorbus aucuparia* L. (rowan). and *Crataegus monogyna* Jacq. (common hawthorn). All
113 are broadleaved winter deciduous tree species. *F. sylvatica*, *Q. petraea*, *P. avium* and *S.*
114 *aucuparia* are mostly found in temperate forests, but are rare in sub-Mediterranean forests such
115 as the one of study, where these species are at or close to their southernmost distribution limit.
116 On the contrary, *Q. pyrenaica* and *C. monogyna* are typical of sub-Mediterranean regions with
117 a moderate drought period. Overall, the three Fagaceae species (*F. sylvatica*, *Q. petraea* and *Q.*
118 *pyrenaica*) form the late stage of forest succession, whereas the three Rosaceae species (*P.*
119 *avium*, *S. aucuparia* and *C. monogyna*) appear in earlier successional stages or sparsely in edges
120 and gaps of mature forests. Further, all species vary in ecological traits such as growth rate,
121 shade and drought tolerance. Based on our observations in the study plot from 2006 to 2012
122 and data from Gil *et al.* (2010), the ranking of growth rate is: *F. sylvatica* > *P. avium* > *Q.*
123 *petraea* > *S. aucuparia* > *C. monogyna* > *Q. pyrenaica*. Based on quantitative indexes from
124 Niinemets & Valladares (2006) and data from Rodríguez-Calcerrada *et al.* (2010), the ranking
125 of shade tolerance is *F. sylvatica* > *P. avium* > *S. aucuparia* = *Q. petraea* > *Q. pyrenaica* > *C.*
126 *monogyna*; while species ranking in drought tolerance is roughly inverse: *Q. pyrenaica* > *C.*
127 *monogyna* > *Q. petraea* > *P. avium* > *F. sylvatica* > *S. aucuparia*. All species resprout after
128 perturbation, *Q. pyrenaica* being the species that sprouts more profusely.

129 **Study plot and sampling**

130 The study plot was located in a mixed forest stand. All species were found within 1ha of similar
131 slope ($\approx 10\%$) and orientation (Fig. 1). The canopy was around 16 m height and was formed by
132 *Q. petraea*, *Q. pyrenaica*, *F. sylvatica* and less so by *P. avium*, with *S. aucuparia* and *C.*
133 *monogyna* only reaching the canopy around gaps.

134 For each species we selected four dominant (D) and four suppressed (S) trees. Dominants
135 had most of the crown exposed to full sunlight while suppressed trees had the crown completely
136 overtopped (Davies *et al.*, 2008). We selected trees with diameter greater than 5 cm at breast
137 height for the study but did not include ancient multi-centennial trees. We measured stem CO₂
138 efflux (*E*) and morphological and biochemical features of inner bark and sapwood at breast
139 height. *E* was measured five times from dawn to midday during three late autumn days (3rd, 9th
140 and 10th December 2012). Anatomical and biochemical properties were examined from stem
141 cores extracted at breast height within the three days following the last measurement of *E*.
142 Sampling for biochemistry alternated among trees from different species and canopy positions
143 to minimize any effect of sampling time. Tree age was also estimated by counting growth rings
144 in fine-sanded cores extracted at the base of the stem.

145 **Stem CO₂ efflux measurements**

146 Stem CO₂ efflux (*E*) was measured with a LI-6400 portable photosynthesis system (Li-Cor Inc.,
147 Lincoln, NE, USA) coupled to a soil respiration chamber, using the protocol described in Xu *et*
148 *al.* (2000). The method consists in measuring the increase in air CO₂ concentration in the closed
149 system formed by the measuring device and an adapter previously fixed to the stem. The PVC
150 adapter houses the soil chamber and was fixed to the stem with silicon sealant and wire, which
151 was placed around the stem upon thick rubber strips to avoid any damage to trees with thin
152 bark. The rise in CO₂ concentration coming from the stem was recorded in three successive
153 cycles. Each cycle started with the machine pumping the air of the system through soda lime to
154 reduce the CO₂ concentration and finished when the CO₂ flowing through the bark reached an
155 upper CO₂ concentration limit. The increase in CO₂ concentration was recorded over 2 minutes,
156 at the most, and then used to compute the rate of *E* per unit stem surface area (*E_s*) at ambient
157 air CO₂ concentration. The upper limit of measurement cycles was typically 2 to 10 ppm units
158 higher than the ambient CO₂, which varied between 380 and 395 ppm during the day. The

159 calculation of E_s requires additional corrections for the volume of the adapter and the curvature
160 of the stem (Xu *et al.* 2000). Measurements were made at ambient air temperature and relative
161 humidity.

162 **Climatic variables**

163 Air temperature and relative humidity were measured at 1.5 m height in the center of the plot
164 with a HOBO microstation data logger H21-002 (Onset Computer Corporation, MA, USA).
165 Stem temperature was measured with type T (copper – constantan) thermocouples inserted 2
166 cm into the sapwood. Air and stem temperatures were measured every minute and stored every
167 five minutes in two data loggers (CR23X and CR10X Campbell Scientific Ltd. UK).

168 Soil moisture measured with a TDR (Trime-FM, IMKO, Germany) at five points on the
169 plot at 10, 30, 50 and 70 cm depths, was 22.1 ± 0.7 %, providing evidence that drought had
170 ended by the beginning of the experiment.

171 **Morphological and anatomical variables**

172 We measured the thickness of inner bark and sapwood and the density of sapwood for all trees
173 in the study. Increment cores were taken at 1.5 m height with a 5 mm increment borer, taking
174 care to reach the pith of the stem. The separation of sapwood and heartwood was marked by a
175 clear change in color for the two *Quercus* species, *P. avium* and *S. aucuparia*, but not for *F.*
176 *sylvatica* and *C. monogyna*, for which it was necessary to stain the cores. We used Lugol's
177 Iodine reagent (IKI), which reacts with starch of living parenchyma and stains the sapwood
178 with a deep blue-black color. Sapwood density was computed as the ratio of oven-dried weight
179 to water-saturated volume (measured as displaced water in a precision balance) of 1-cm deep
180 samples. The amount of sapwood was also expressed relative to total diameter (Whitehead &
181 Jarvis 1981).

182 Increment cores were then stored in FAA (formalin–acetic acid–70% ethanol in
183 proportions 10:5:90) to estimate the proportion of living parenchyma cells in the sapwood.
184 Tangential and cross sections 15–20 μm thick were cut using a sliding microtome, stained with
185 an aqueous solution of 1% safranin and 1% alcian blue, mounted for optical microscopy, and
186 photographed with a digital camera (Canon EOS 600D with a LM microscopy adapter,
187 MicroTech Lab; Supporting Information Fig. S1). Tangential sections were obtained from the
188 early wood of the last five growth rings. Three randomly located images per section of 1 mm^2
189 size were processed and the proportion of tangential surface occupied by rays was manually
190 measured with ImageJ (<http://rsb.info.nih.gov/ij/>). The mean value of the 15 images was used
191 to calculate the proportion of ray parenchyma for each tree. Axial parenchyma was quantified
192 in five cross sections per tree. Two randomly located images per section of 0.2 mm^2 size were
193 analyzed in the earlywood and two in the latewood. The mean value of 20 images per tree was
194 used to calculate the proportion of surface area occupied by axial parenchyma. The total volume
195 of parenchyma in each sample was determined as the sum of radial and axial parenchyma.

196 **Biochemical measurements**

197 We measured the concentration of nitrogen (N) and total nonstructural carbohydrates (NSC) in
198 lyophilized samples from the inner bark and sapwood. Analyses of N were made with an
199 Elemental Combustion System CHNS-O 4010 analyzer (Costech Instruments, Italy/USA).
200 Analyses of NSC were made separately for soluble sugars (SS) and starch as described by
201 Haissig and Dickson (1979) and Hansen and Møller (1975). SS were extracted in a 12:5:3 (by
202 volume) solution of methanol, chloroform and water, incubated with anthrone reagent, and
203 measured at 625 nm wavelength in a spectrophotometer within the next 30 min (UV–1700
204 PharmaSpec, UV-Visible Spectrophotometer, Shimadzu, Japan). Starch contained in the
205 residue left by the extraction was transformed into glucose by amyloglucosidase activity, and
206 glucose was oxidized with the peroxidase-glucose oxidase complex. Glucose was measured at

207 450 nm within 30 min of further reaction with dianisidine. Additional details on the protocols
208 can be found in Oleksyn *et al.* (2000) and Karolewski *et al.* (2013).

209 **Data analyses**

210 Limitations in radial transport of CO₂ can cause E at a given time to reflect the metabolic
211 activity of living tissues at previous temperatures, rather than the concurrent stem temperature
212 (Ryan *et al.* 1995; Acosta *et al.* 2008). Thus, we examined the relationship between E_s and stem
213 temperature registered at the same time, and at 30, 60, 90 and 120 minutes earlier, and used the
214 relationship with the highest coefficient of determination (r^2) to compute the Q_{10} of E and the
215 value of E per unit surface area at a constant temperature of 5 °C (E_{s5} ; $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) for
216 each tree (Ryan *et al.* 1995; Acosta *et al.* 2008).

217 From the slope (k) of the relationship between stem temperature and the natural
218 logarithm of E_s , we calculated the Q_{10} of E as:

$$219 \quad Q_{10} = e^{10k}.$$

220 Using the value of Q_{10} we calculated E_{s5} as:

$$221 \quad E_{s5} = E_{s0} Q_{10}^{\left(\frac{5-0}{10}\right)}.$$

222 In this equation, E_{s0} is E_s at 0 °C, and is obtained from the intercept of the relationship
223 between stem temperature and the natural logarithm of E_s (Atkin *et al.* 2005).

224 E was expressed per unit of sapwood volume (E_{v5} ; $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$) as:

$$225 \quad E_{v5} = E_{s5} \frac{S}{V}$$

226 where S and V are the surface area and volume of sapwood, respectively. Thus,

$$227 \quad E_{v5} = E_{s5} \frac{2\pi r_{h+s} \text{height}}{\pi(r_{h+s}^2 - r_h^2) \text{height}} = E_{s5} \frac{2r_{h+s}}{(r_{h+s}^2 - r_h^2)}$$

228 where r_h and r_{h+s} denote the radius of heartwood and heartwood plus sapwood,
229 respectively.

230 We expressed E on the basis of living sapwood volume (E_{p5} ; $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$), by
231 dividing E_{v5} by the summed proportion of ray and axial parenchyma in the sapwood. Finally,
232 based on sapwood density and N concentration, we estimated E per mass of sapwood (E_{m5} ;
233 $\text{nmol CO}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) and mass of N (E_{n5} ; $\text{nmol CO}_2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$).

234 Means of all variables were compared between species and canopy positions by analysis
235 of variance (ANOVA). We first included tree age as a covariate, but it was never significant at
236 $P < 0.05$ and was removed from the final models. Whenever the main effect of species was
237 significant, a post-hoc Tukey HSD test was applied to delineate significant differences among
238 species. The interaction term between species and canopy position in ANOVA models was
239 never significant at $P < 0.05$, so differences between species were analyzed by pooling together
240 dominant and suppressed trees. Variables were transformed when necessary to meet
241 assumptions of parametric analysis. The two groups formed by the three Rosaceae and three
242 Fagaceae species were also compared by ANOVA, with species as the experimental unit. The
243 relationships among variables were studied within and across species separately through
244 regression analysis. We used the software Statistica 8.0 (StatSoft Inc. Tulsa, OK, USA).

245 **RESULTS**

246 **Dendrometric characteristics**

247 The number of growth rings at the stem base was used as a proxy of tree age. All trees had a
248 similar number of rings, 37 on average, and differences among species or canopy positions were
249 not significant at $P < 0.05$ (Fig. 2). On the contrary, stem diameter, tree height and crown height
250 differed significantly among species and canopy positions (all $P < 0.01$). Suppressed trees had
251 lower values in all these metrics than dominants, although differences were small for some
252 species, such as *C. monogyna* (Fig. 2). Moreover, in general, *F. sylvatica*, *P. avium* and *Q.*
253 *petraea* were bigger than *Q. pyrenaica*, *S. aucuparia* and *C. monogyna* (Fig. 2). A strong

254 relationship existed between the quantitative index of shade-tolerance and the height of the
255 living crown, with more shade-tolerant species having deeper crowns ($n = 6$, $r^2 = 0.94$, $P <$
256 0.01).

257 **Morphological and anatomical characteristics**

258 Sapwood density was higher in *C. monogyna* ($0.55 \pm 0.01 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$) than *P. avium* ($0.48 \pm 0.01 \text{ g}$
259 cm^{-3} ; $P = 0.049$; Fig. 3), and similar intermediate densities were found in the other species. The
260 depth of inner bark and sapwood also varied significantly among species (both $P < 0.001$).
261 Sapwood depth was the highest in *F. sylvatica*, intermediate in *C. monogyna* and lower in the
262 other species (Fig. 3).

263 Sapwood density was similar between canopy positions but sapwood and inner bark
264 depth were higher in dominant than suppressed trees (both $P < 0.01$; Fig. 3). Relative to stem
265 diameter, however, the sapwood occupied a larger proportion in suppressed trees than
266 dominants ($69.1 \pm 4.4\%$ vs $58.1 \pm 4.1\%$, respectively; $P = 0.027$). A marginally significant
267 relationship between the quantitative index of shade-tolerance and sapwood depth pointed to
268 more shade-tolerant species having deeper sapwood ($n = 6$, $r^2 = 0.56$, $P = 0.085$).

269 Regarding anatomical characteristics, *F. sylvatica*, *P. avium*, *C. monogyna* and *S.*
270 *aucuparia* had diffuse-porous wood and the two *Quercus* species ring-porous wood. The
271 proportion of parenchyma in the sapwood differed markedly among species (Fig. 3). The
272 proportion of axial parenchyma was approximately 15% in the two *Quercus*, nil in *P. avium*,
273 and lower than 4% in the rest of species. Both ray and total parenchyma were highest in *Q.*
274 *pyrenaica* ($33 \pm 2\%$ and $48 \pm 2\%$ for ray and total parenchyma, respectively), lowest in *S.*
275 *aucuparia* ($12 \pm 1\%$ and $14 \pm 1\%$) and intermediate in the other species (Fig. 3; Supporting
276 Information Fig. S1). A marginally significant positive relationship was observed between the
277 drought-tolerance index and the proportion of xylem parenchyma ($n = 6$, $r^2 = 0.56$, $P = 0.087$;
278 Supporting Information Fig. S2). Ray and total parenchyma were significantly lower in the

279 sapwood of Rosaceae than of Fagaceae species (both $P < 0.05$). Regarding canopy position,
280 dominant trees had slightly higher proportion of ray ($P < 0.001$) and total ($P = 0.015$)
281 parenchyma than suppressed trees.

282 **Biochemical characteristics**

283 Averaged across species, N concentration was 0.41 ± 0.06 % in inner bark and 0.33 ± 0.03 %
284 in sapwood. For either inner bark or sapwood, N concentration differed significantly among
285 species but not between canopy positions, at $P < 0.05$. In sapwood, *Q. pyrenaica* showed higher
286 values of N concentration than the Rosaceae species, while *F. sylvatica* and *Q. petraea* had
287 intermediate values (Fig. 4; both $P < 0.001$). Comparing the two botanical families, we observed
288 that the Fagaceae had significantly higher concentrations of N in inner bark and sapwood than
289 the Rosaceae at $P < 0.05$. However, N concentrations in parenchyma cells tended to be higher
290 in the Rosaceae species (8.4 ± 0.8 mg N cm⁻³ parenchyma) than in the Fagaceae (5.7 ± 0.8 mg
291 N cm⁻³ parenchyma; $P = 0.056$).

292 Similarly to N concentration, NSC concentration in inner bark (7.8 ± 0.4 %) was higher
293 than in sapwood (5.1 ± 1.0 %), and in both stem parts, it did not differ significantly between
294 dominant and suppressed trees at $P < 0.05$, but it did differ among species ($P < 0.01$). In
295 sapwood, NSC, and in general starch and SS, were all higher in the two *Quercus* than in the
296 rest of species, *F. sylvatica* and *S. aucuparia* having particularly low concentrations of starch
297 (Fig. 4). A marginally significant positive relationship was observed between drought-tolerance
298 index and concentrations ($n = 6$, $r^2 = 0.61$, $P = 0.067$) and pools ($n = 6$, $r^2 = 0.55$, $P = 0.091$) of
299 NSC in sapwood (Supporting Information Fig. S2).

300 The proportion of parenchyma in the sapwood was positively related with its
301 concentrations of N and NSC across species (Fig. 5). The strength and significance of
302 relationships were similar using total, ray or axial parenchyma as explanatory variables,
303 suggesting a similar storage role of both axial and ray parenchyma cells.

304 **Sensitivity of stem CO₂ efflux to temperature**

305 There was a variable response of E to temperature among trees. 67% of trees showed a moderate
306 positive relationship between E_s and temperature ($r^2 > 0.50$), but the remaining trees showed a
307 weaker response, or even a strong negative relationship (two trees with $r^2 > 0.80$). Accordingly,
308 the Q_{10} was very variable; it was not significantly different between canopy positions but varied
309 significantly among species ($P < 0.01$; Fig. 6). *P. avium* showed the highest value of Q_{10} , and
310 *F. sylvatica* and *S. aucuparia* the lowest.

311 **Stem CO₂ efflux at a comparable temperature of 5 °C**

312 Making use of the relationship between temperature and E_s , we estimated E_s at a comparable
313 temperature of 5 °C. This value was reliable even for trees for which E_s was poorly predicted
314 by temperature, because the temperature of 5 °C was in the measurement range of all trees (from
315 -1 to 10 °C). Actually, there were consistent differences among species and canopy positions
316 when either the E_s modeled from temperature or that observed at near 5 °C (5.1 ± 0.2 °C) were
317 compared, both values differing by just 0.7%.

318 E was significantly different among species irrespective of how it was expressed. The
319 highest coefficient of variation was observed for E_{s5} (70%) and the lowest for E_{n5} (55%).
320 Species ranking was similar for E_{s5} , E_{v5} , and E_{m5} , indicating species differences in sapwood
321 depth or density did not explain variability in E_{s5} . These rankings were headed by *Q. pyrenaica*,
322 with *Q. petraea*, *C. monogyna* and *P. avium* having intermediate values, and *F. sylvatica* and
323 *S. aucuparia* the lowest values (Fig. 6). Species ranked in a different order when we expressed
324 E per unit of sapwood parenchyma volume (E_{p5}) and N mass (E_{n5}). The higher values of E_{p5}
325 were found in *P. avium*, followed by *S. aucuparia* and *C. monogyna*, and then the Fagaceae
326 species of which *F. sylvatica* had the lowest values (Fig. 6). Actually, the parenchyma of
327 Rosaceae species exhibited significantly higher E rates than that of Fagaceae ($P < 0.01$). When

328 we took into account the concentration of N in sapwood, the difference in E (E_{n5}) between
329 families was no longer significant, suggesting that parenchyma cells of Rosaceae respired more
330 mainly because they contained more N (Fig. 6).

331 Regression analyses across species indicated that sapwood depth was not related with
332 E_{s5} (Fig. 7; Table 1). On the contrary, the proportion of parenchyma was related with E_{s5} ,
333 species with higher proportion of xylem parenchyma having higher E_{s5} (Fig. 7; Table 1).
334 Sapwood parenchyma volume (resulting from multiplying sapwood depth by parenchyma
335 proportion, over 1 m² of stem surface area) was negatively correlated with E_{p5} ($r^2 = 0.80$, $P =$
336 0.015 ; Fig. 8), but not with any other CO₂ efflux variable. The concentration of NSC was
337 strongly related with the rate of E_{s5} (Fig. 7; Table 1). Similarly, species quantified as more
338 drought tolerant showed significantly higher E per unit surface area (E_{s5} ; Fig. 7; Table 1),
339 sapwood volume (E_{v5} ; $r^2 = 0.74$, $P = 0.028$; Table 1) and sapwood mass (E_{m5} ; $r^2 = 0.65$, $P =$
340 0.051 ; Table 1). Finally, species quantified as more shade tolerant exhibited lower E_{n5} ($r^2 =$
341 0.71 , $P = 0.034$; Table 1).

342 Regarding canopy position, E was significantly higher in dominant than suppressed trees
343 when it was expressed per unit stem surface area ($P < 0.01$), but not when it was expressed per
344 unit sapwood volume, mass, parenchyma volume or N mass (Fig. 6). The correlation between
345 variables within species is shown in Supporting Information Table S1. It is worth noting
346 significant correlations across species did not hold for all species, and that some significant
347 relationships within species did not occur across species.

348 Finally, we noted that sapwood density was not significantly related with E_{s5} across or
349 within any species ($P > 0.05$) and that inner bark depth was only marginally significantly related
350 with E_{s5} for *Q. pyrenaica* ($n = 8$, $r^2 = 0.49$, $P = 0.053$) but not across species (data not shown).
351 In summary, the availability of respiratory substrates in sapwood (mostly NSC; accounting for
352 sapwood depth, parenchyma proportion, density and NSC concentration), and the activity of

353 sapwood parenchyma per unit N (E_{n5}) govern E_{s5} across trees of different species and canopy
354 positions (see Principal Component and Classification Analysis in Supporting Information Fig.
355 S4).

356 **DISCUSSION**

357 **Differences in E between tree species**

358 In seasonal climates, stem CO₂ efflux (E) peaks during the growing season, often coinciding
359 with high respiratory energy requirements for lignification of new cells, and is lower in late
360 autumn and winter, when temperatures are low and growth has ceased (Ceschia *et al.* 2002;
361 Gaumont-Guay *et al.* 2006; Rodríguez-Calcerrada *et al.* 2014). But E is not negligible during
362 the “winter-dormant” season. Here, the rate of stem CO₂ efflux per unit surface area at 5 °C
363 (E_{s5}) in late autumn varied from 0.28 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ in *F. sylvatica* to 0.75 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ in *Q.*
364 *pyrenaica*, which agrees with literature values from angiosperms estimated at a comparable
365 temperature (e.g. Levy & Jarvis 1998; Cernusak *et al.* 2006; Zach *et al.* 2010; Yang *et al.* 2012a,
366 b; Guidolotti *et al.* 2013; Rodríguez-Calcerrada *et al.* 2014). Since stem diameter increment had
367 long ceased at the time of E measurements (Aranda *et al. unpublished data*), we suggest that
368 these rates most likely reflected the energy costs associated with maintenance of living cells
369 under cold conditions – such as maintenance of ion gradients and synthesis of molecules
370 involved in stability of membranes at freezing temperatures (Cavender-Bares 2005; Pagter *et*
371 *al.* 2008) – and possibly “waste” respiration (Cannell. & Thornley 2000). Indeed, without the
372 confounding effects of stem photosynthesis and sap flow on CO₂ fluxes, E_{s5} is a close surrogate
373 of stem respiration (McGuire *et al.* 2007) that will depend on the amount of living cells and
374 their respiratory potential and actual activity. Here, the proportion of parenchyma and NSC in
375 sapwood governed the variability of E_{s5} across species; *Q. pyrenaica* had the highest proportion
376 of parenchyma and the highest rate of E_{s5} , whereas *S. aucuparia* had the lowest proportion of
377 parenchyma and the lowest rate of E_{s5} (Fig. 7). Interestingly, the volume of parenchyma in

378 sapwood was not a reliable predictor of E_{s5} across species, because the respiratory activity of
379 parenchyma cells decreased with and compensated for high parenchyma volume (Fig. 8).

380 Some trade-offs between the factors that compound stem respiration could reflect an
381 evolutionary trend towards maintaining stem respiration within certain limits according to the
382 growth environment, and be advantageous for survival. First, parenchyma cells tend to show
383 low activity when the amount of parenchyma is important (Pruyn *et al.* 2003; Pruyn *et al.* 2005;
384 Spicer & Holbrook 2007; Fig. 8), which could attenuate carbon losses from trees requiring a
385 large depth of sapwood. For example, E per unit of sapwood parenchyma volume and N mass
386 were the lowest in *F. sylvatica*, so that, even if sapwood was deep and contained a considerable
387 proportion of parenchyma in this species, rates of E_{s5} were eventually moderate and similar to
388 rates of Rosaceae species with half as much parenchyma and depth of sapwood (i.e. *P. avium*
389 and *S. aucuparia*). In other words, abundant foliage of *F. sylvatica* is supplied with needed
390 water through sapwood, but the stem does not incur in severe carbon losses, because the
391 respiratory activity of living cells is low. A similar trade-off was found between the two families
392 studied. The parenchyma of Rosaceae respired twice as much as that of Fagaceae, although E_{s5}
393 was similar between families because Rosaceae had half as much parenchyma. The main reason
394 for high parenchyma respiration in the Rosaceae species studied was the high N observed in
395 this tissue, something which could be related to the presence of Rosaceae species in fertile soils
396 of gaps and forest edges where more N is available than in the forest interior (Hamberg *et al.*
397 2009; Esen *et al.* 2012). Finally, trade-offs between respiratory components can also
398 discriminate between functional groups of differing water-transport capacity. Sapwood tends
399 to be thicker in diffuse- than ring-porous species (Martin *et al.* 1998; Gebauer *et al.* 2008), but
400 sapwood-based R tends to be lower in diffuse- than ring-porous species (Edwards & Hanson
401 1996; Spicer & Holbrook 2007). In our study, diffuse- and ring-porous trees did not show clear

402 differences in E_{s5} or E_{v5} . Diffuse-porous *F. sylvatica* and *S. aucuparia* had lower E_{v5} than the
403 ring-porous *Q. pyrenaica*, but this pattern did not hold for the other species (Fig. 7).

404 It is remarkable that approximately half of the sapwood of *Q. pyrenaica* was formed by
405 living axial and multiseriate ray parenchyma cells. Other studies have shown high proportions
406 of parenchyma in sapwood and E_s in oaks compared to other co-occurring trees (Panshin *et al.*
407 1964; Yang *et al.* 2012a). Maintaining such a high fraction of parenchyma with considerable
408 respiratory activity (see E_{p5} and E_{n5} as compared to the other Fagaceae in Fig. 6), incurs a high
409 penalty in terms of carbon loss (see E_{s5} and E_{v5} in Fig. 6), but it must provide some fundamental
410 advantages to the tree. The parenchyma is involved in nutrient storage (Pruyn *et al.* 2005), radial
411 water transport (James *et al.* 2003), and possibly conduit refilling and tolerance of hydraulic
412 failure (Zwieniecki & Holbrook 2009). All these functions are particularly important for
413 Mediterranean species (such as *Q. pyrenaica*) prone to suffer cavitation and other perturbations,
414 including wildfires (Gebauer *et al.* 2008).

415 Another interesting finding was that, although *Q. pyrenaica* has a large fraction of
416 woody biomass, small crown, and the shortest leaf life span of all species, it had the highest
417 proportion of living stem cells and E_{s5} without any symptom of NSC depletion. These
418 apparently contradictory characteristics are reconciled by the slow growth, little expenditure in
419 sexual regeneration (Salomón *et al.* 2013), and high rates of leaf net photosynthesis during
420 summer (Gallego *et al.* 1994; Rodríguez-Calcerrada *et al.* 2008). Reduced growth seems to be
421 a pivotal factor explaining the positive correlation of drought-tolerance index with NSC
422 concentration and E_{s5} across species. Imposed by climatic constraints, drought-tolerant species
423 have adapted to grow little (Mooney 1981). The residual carbon not consumed during the
424 growing season needs to be stored in woody tissues in these deciduous trees. Accordingly,
425 storage capacity and NSC reserves in stem sapwood tended to be higher in more drought-

426 tolerant species. Xylem parenchyma may help to tolerate drought in different ways (see above),
427 but it enhances respiration and adds to growth limitations already imposed by climatic factors.

428 There was also a significant relationship between E_{n5} and shade tolerance (Table 1),
429 suggesting that xylem parenchyma of more shade tolerant species has lower respiratory activity
430 per unit N than that of less shade tolerant ones. However, this did not translate into lower CO₂
431 emitted through bark (i.e. no significant relationship was found between E_{s5} and shade
432 tolerance), suggesting that high biomass allocation to foliage (Niinemets 1998; this study) and
433 sapwood volume (Martin *et al.* 1998; this study) in shade-tolerants offset its potentially low
434 cellular respiratory activity.

435 Differences in E_{s5} among species did not correspond with differences in inner bark
436 depth. The inner bark is much thinner than the sapwood, but it may have 2-5 times higher N
437 and NSC concentration (Pruyn *et al.* 2005 in coniferous trees; Fig. 3), and 2-11 times higher
438 respiratory potential than the more active outer sapwood, thus largely contributing to E
439 (Stockfors & Linder 1998; Pruyn *et al.* 2002a; Bowman *et al.* 2005; Pruyn *et al.* 2005). We
440 suggest that, during the growing season, cambium and phloem could contribute to E more than
441 during the winter dormant season (Edwards & Hanson 1996).

442 **Differences in E between tree canopy positions**

443 Sapwood depth was the main factor behind the variability in E_{s5} within species. Sapwood depth
444 increases up to species-specific limits imposed by constraints to respiration of inner xylem
445 parenchyma cells as trees grow (Pruyn *et al.* 2003), such as reduced oxygenation and increased
446 proportion of woody relative to photosynthetic tissues (see Spicer & Holbrook 2007). Foliage
447 area determines parenchyma respiration and sapwood area (Walters & Reich 1999), and vice
448 versa (Martin *et al.* 1998). Here, from the relationships of stem diameter *vs* sapwood, no
449 asymptotic value of sapwood depth seemed to be attained. Sapwood depth increased linearly
450 with stem diameter so that larger dominant trees had thicker sapwood and higher E_{s5} than

451 suppressed ones. The significant difference between canopy positions in E_{s5} but not in E_{v5} , E_{m5} ,
452 E_{p5} or E_{n5} supports this reasoning and suggests that parenchyma of both dominant and
453 suppressed trees respired at a similar rate. In support of these results Pruyn *et al.* (2003) found
454 that respiratory potential of sapwood was similar in dominant and suppressed trees of *Tsuga*
455 *heterophylla*, but Guidolotti *et al.* (2013) found similar E_s in dominants and co-dominants of
456 *Fagus sylvatica* (of unknown diameter) during the dormant season. In the study of Pruyn *et al.*
457 (2003), age was a confounding factor in the comparison of crown classes because suppressed
458 trees were younger than dominants. Here the sampled trees were recruits that established almost
459 simultaneously after the abandonment of a wood pasture, and differences between crown
460 classes were due to differences in competition and growth rate rather than age. One corollary
461 of these results is that sapwood volume is an appropriate variable to upscale E to the forest level
462 in monospecific stands (Ryan 1990), at least during the period of low cambium and phloem
463 activity.

464 **Sensitivity of E to temperature: the use of E as a surrogate of R**

465 Values of Q_{10} (1.7 on average) were similar to those reported for other species – ranging from
466 1.3 to 2.6 in Ryan *et al.* (1995), Ceschia *et al.* (2002), Yang *et al.* (2012a) and Guidolotti *et al.*
467 (2013), to cite some examples. Surprisingly, however, we found low Q_{10} and predictability of
468 E_s by temperature for some trees. The literature reveals variable coupling of temperature and
469 E_s , ranging from nil (e.g. Edwards & McLaughlin 1978; Zach *et al.* 2010) to strong (e.g. Zach
470 *et al.* 2010; Rodríguez-Calcerrada *et al.* 2014). In our case we expected a strong positive
471 relationship between E_s and temperature because the study was made when growth and sap
472 flow, two factors potentially affecting E_s (Ryan *et al.* 1995; McGuire *et al.* 2007; Yang *et al.*
473 2012b), were negligible. Low temperature and E_s for some trees likely contributed to a poor
474 relationship between E_s and temperature, but it is also possible that across the range of
475 temperatures measured in the sapwood (from -1 to 10 °C), the solubility of CO₂ in the xylem

476 sap experienced important changes and altered E_s . Temperature-induced changes of CO₂
477 solubility in xylem sap have already been said to affect Q_{10} when sap is flowing (Ryan *et al.*
478 1995; McGuire *et al.* 2007). In winter leafless trees, internal storage of CO₂ could vary around
479 freezing temperatures and affect E_s depending on sap freezing point or pH (Bowman *et al.* 2005;
480 see also Saveyn *et al.* 2008). Less likely, cuticular photosynthesis in trees with more light-
481 permeable bark might reduce E_s with increasing temperatures and weaken relationships of
482 temperature and E_s (Saveyn *et al.* 2008; Bloemen *et al.* 2013).

483 **Concluding statements**

484 Stem CO₂ efflux measured in leafless deciduous trees during the dormant season is a good
485 surrogate of maintenance respiration. The concentration of NSC and to lower extent the
486 proportion and respiratory rate of parenchyma cells in sapwood determine variation of CO₂
487 efflux across species, whereas sapwood depth is the main factor behind variability of CO₂ efflux
488 between dominant and suppressed trees within species. The relationships between drought-
489 tolerance index and xylem parenchyma proportion and stem CO₂ efflux suggest a drought-
490 adaptive role of parenchyma in deciduous trees. The benefits of storing NSC in parenchyma
491 cells for tolerating drought and related perturbations such as fires come at the cost of high
492 carbon respiratory losses, which can add to other factors limiting tree growth in Mediterranean
493 species, such as low leaf area, leaf- to sapwood-area ratio and shoot to root ratio.

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694 **SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

695 Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article at the
696 publisher's web-site:

697 Figure S1. Images of stem cuttings showing axial and ray parenchyma of six tree species.

698 Figure S2. Relationship of species drought tolerance indexes with stem anatomical, biochemical
699 and respiratory variables.

700 Figure S3. Principal Component and Classification Analysis with factors potentially affecting
701 stem CO₂ efflux across trees of different species and canopy positions.

702 Table S1. Relationship of anatomical and biochemical variables with stem CO₂ efflux within
703 species.

704

705 **Tables**

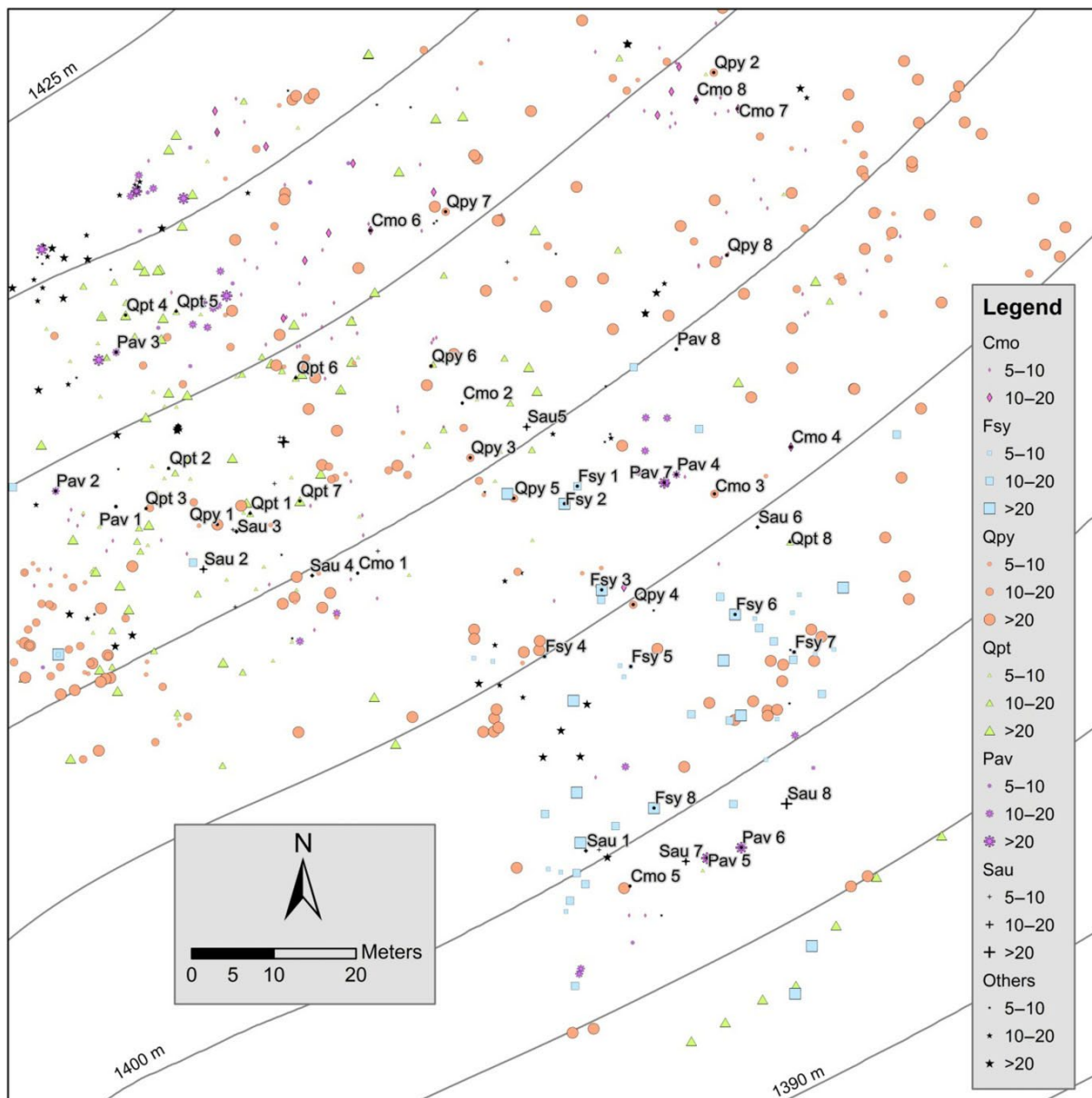
706 **Table 1.** Coefficient of correlation of anatomical, biochemical and ecological characteristics
 707 with stem CO₂ efflux expressed per unit of stem surface area (E_{s5}), sapwood volume (E_{v5}),
 708 sapwood mass (E_{m5}), sapwood parenchyma volume (E_{p5}) and sapwood nitrogen mass (E_{n5})
 709 across species (n =6). [NSC] = concentration of nonstructural carbohydrates; [N] =
 710 concentration of nitrogen. Highlighted in bold are correlations significant at $P < 0.05$.
 711 Quantitative indexes of shade- and drought-tolerance are taken from Niinemets and Valladares
 712 (2006) and Rodríguez-Calcerrada *et al.* (2010), with positive values indicating increasing
 713 tolerance to shade and drought.

	Sapwood depth	Sapwood parenchyma proportion	Sapwood [NSC]	Sapwood [N]	Shade- tolerance	Drought- tolerance
E_{s5}	-0.27	0.81	0.90	0.74	-0.48	0.96
E_{v5}	-0.47	0.63	0.78	0.50	-0.70	0.96
E_{m5}	-0.50	0.61	0.80	0.50	-0.67	0.94
E_{p5}	-0.72	-0.65	-0.27	-0.69	-0.50	-0.05
E_{n5}	-0.70	-0.02	0.26	-0.17	-0.84	0.62

715

716 **Figure legends**

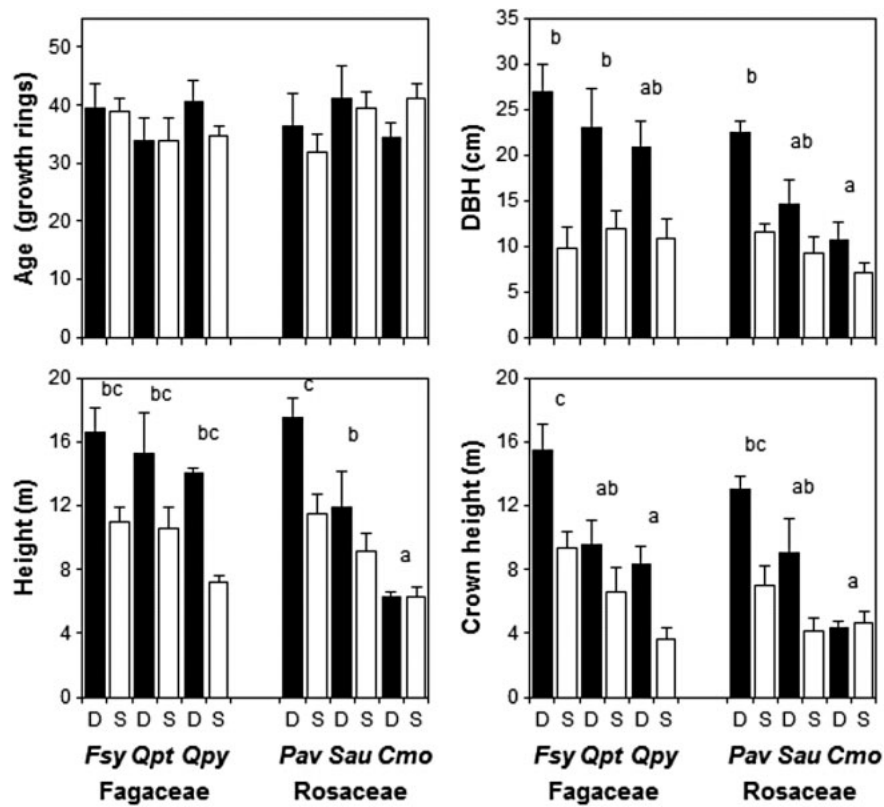
717 **Fig. 1.** Study plot showing trees with diameter at breast height (DBH) higher than 5 cm and the
 718 48 sampled trees. Species are identified by different symbols and abbreviations: *Fagus sylvatica*
 719 (*Fsy*), *Quercus petraea* (*Qpt*), *Quercus pyrenaica* (*Qpy*), *Prunus avium* (*Pav*), *Sorbus*
 720 *aucuparia* (*Sau*) and *Crataegus monogyna* (*Cmo*).



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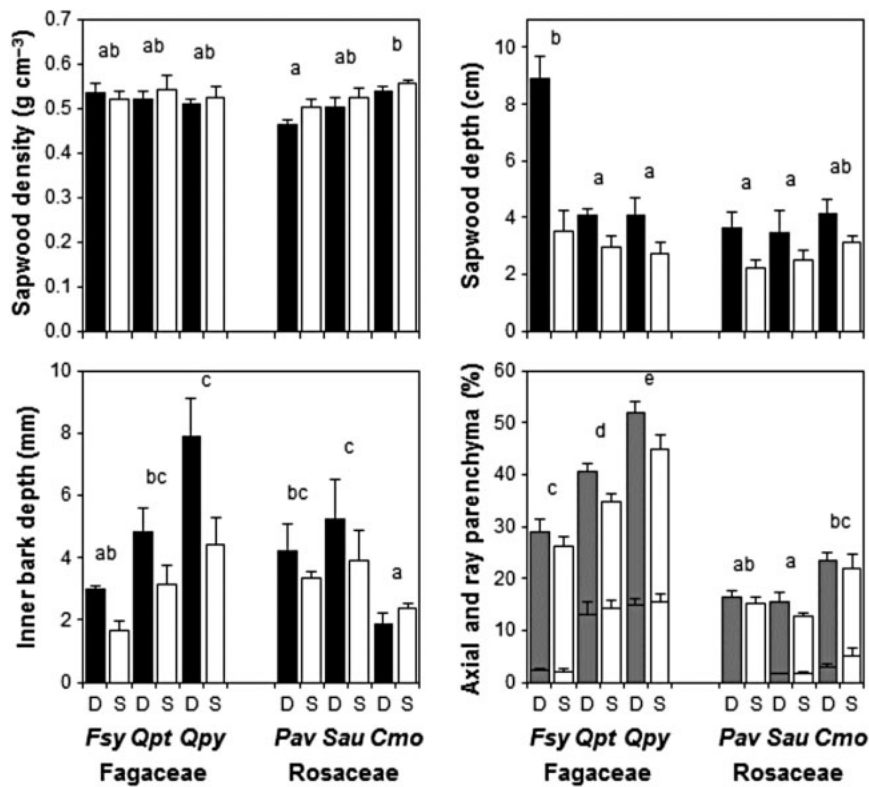
723 **Fig. 2.** Dendrometric characteristics of dominant (D) and suppressed (S) trees of six species:
 724 *Fagus sylvatica* (*Fsy*), *Quercus petraea* (*Qpt*), *Quercus pyrenaica* (*Qpy*), *Prunus avium* (*Pav*),
 725 *Sorbus aucuparia* (*Sau*) and *Crataegus monogyna* (*Cmo*). DBH = stem diameter at breast
 726 height. Different letters separate significantly different means among species based on post-hoc
 727 Tukey HSD tests at $P < 0.05$.



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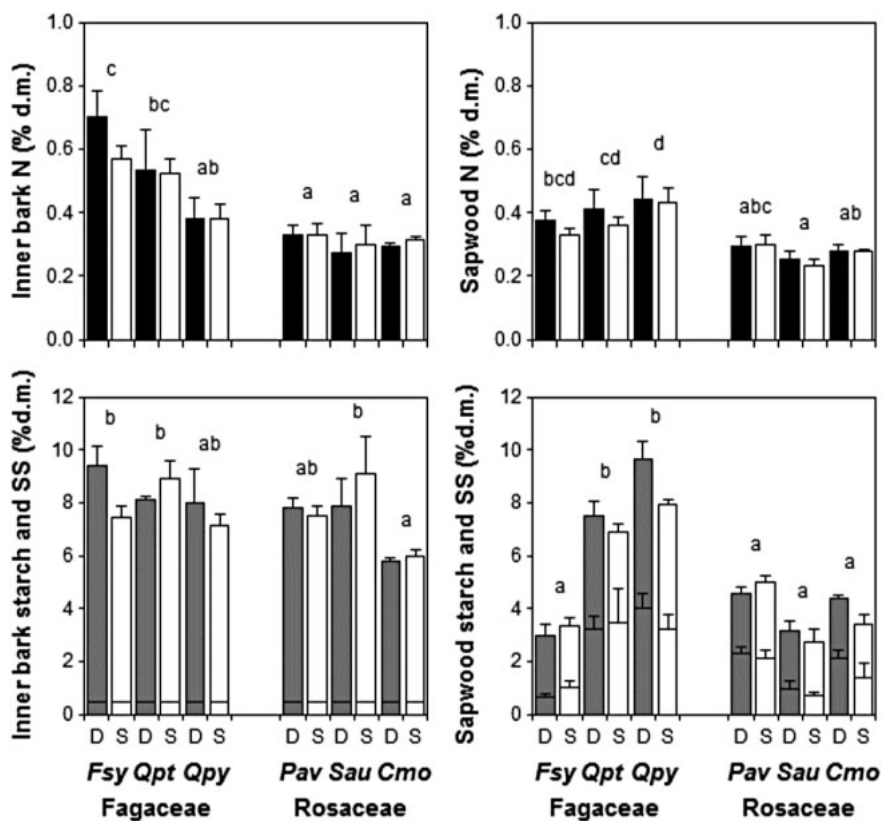
730 **Fig. 3.** Morphological and anatomical characteristics of dominant (D) and suppressed (S) trees
 731 of six species: *Fagus sylvatica* (*Fsy*), *Quercus petraea* (*Qpt*), *Quercus pyrenaica* (*Qpy*), *Prunus*
 732 *avium* (*Pav*), *Sorbus aucuparia* (*Sau*) and *Crataegus monogyna* (*Cmo*). Different letters
 733 separate significantly different means among species based on post-hoc Tukey HSD tests at P
 734 < 0.05 . In the case of parenchyma, letters allude to differences in the summed proportion of
 735 axial (lower bars) and ray (upper bars) cells.



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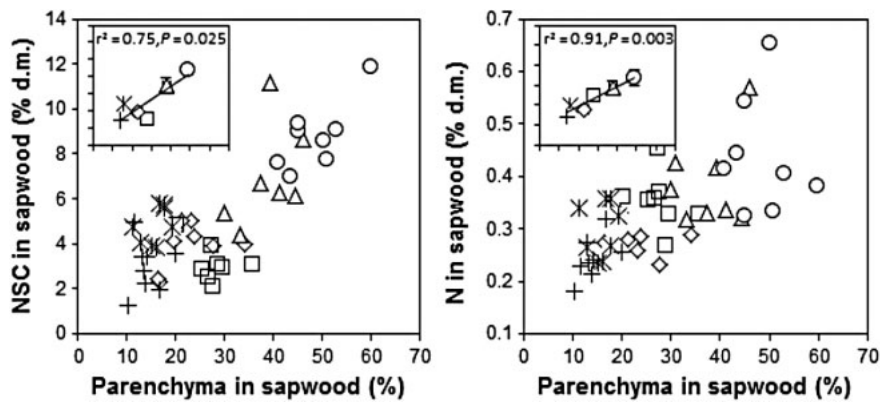
738 **Fig. 4.** Biochemical characteristics of dominant (D) and suppressed (S) trees of six species:
 739 *Fagus sylvatica* (*Fsy*), *Quercus petraea* (*Qpt*), *Quercus pyrenaica* (*Qpy*), *Prunus avium* (*Pav*),
 740 *Sorbus aucuparia* (*Sau*) and *Crataegus monogyna* (*Cmo*). N = nitrogen and SS = soluble sugars.
 741 Different letters separate significantly different means among species based on post-hoc Tukey
 742 HSD tests at $P < 0.05$. In the case of nonstructural carbohydrates, letters allude to differences
 743 in the summed proportion of starch (lower bars) and soluble sugars (upper bars).



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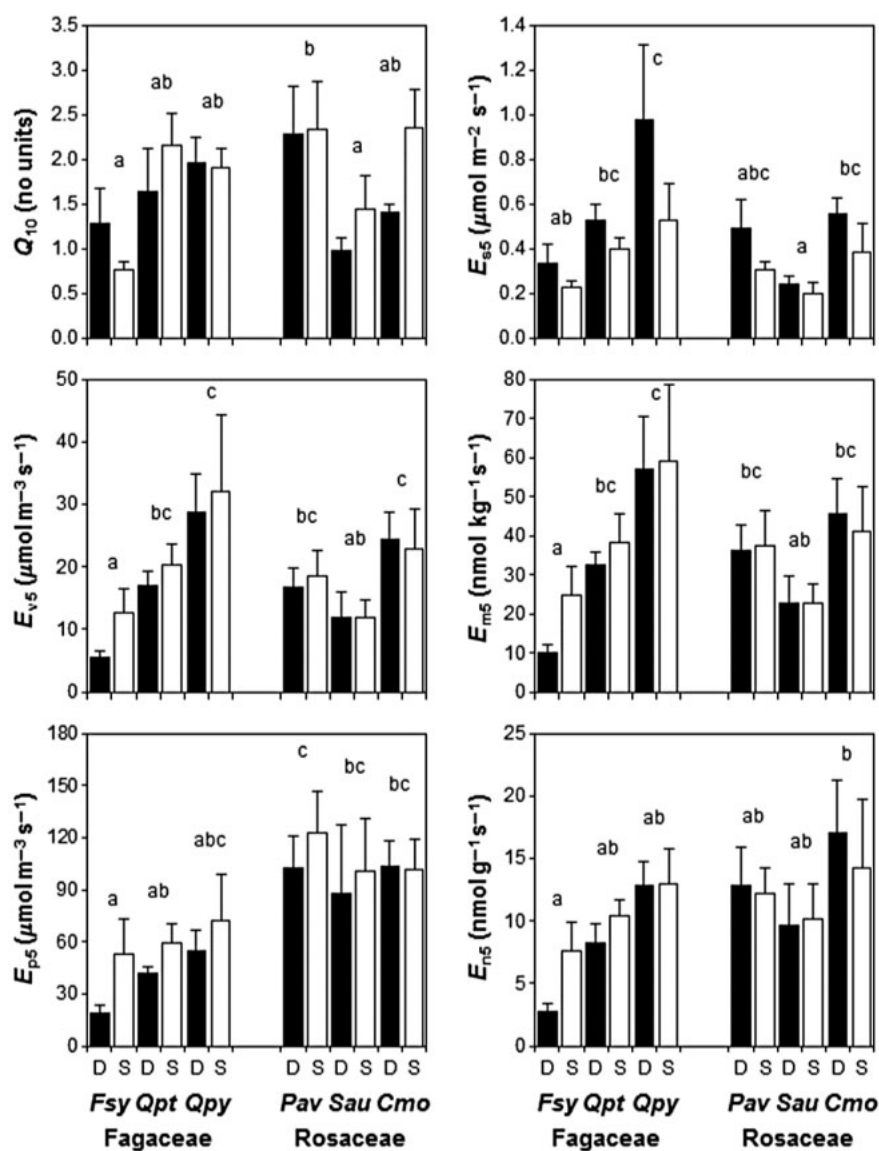
746 **Fig. 5.** Relationship between the proportion of living parenchyma and the concentration of
 747 nonstructural carbohydrates (NSC) and nitrogen (N) in sapwood for trees of six species: *Fagus*
 748 *sylvatica* (squares), *Quercus petraea* (triangles), *Quercus pyrenaica* (circles), *Prunus avium*
 749 (asterisks), *Sorbus aucuparia* (plus symbols) and *Crataegus monogyna* (diamonds). Symbols
 750 correspond to individual trees, and to species means ($\pm 2SE$) in the insets, where the strength
 751 and significance of the linear regressions between variables is indicated.



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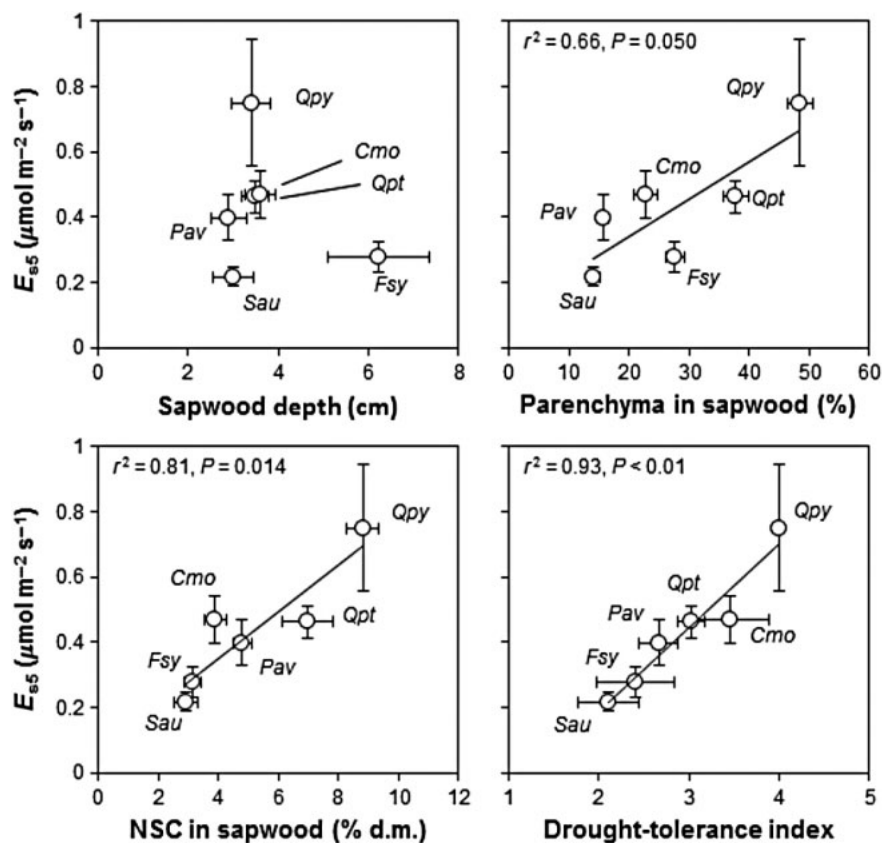
754 **Fig. 6.** Mean (\pm SE) of stem CO₂ efflux sensitivity to temperature (Q_{10}) and stem CO₂ efflux at
755 5 °C expressed per unit of stem surface area (E_{s5}), sapwood volume (E_{v5}), sapwood mass (E_{m5}),
756 sapwood parenchyma volume (E_{p5}) and sapwood nitrogen mass (E_{n5}) in dominant (D) and
757 suppressed (S) trees of six species: *Fagus sylvatica* (*Fsy*), *Quercus petraea* (*Qpt*), *Quercus*
758 *pyrenaica* (*Qpy*), *Prunus avium* (*Pav*), *Sorbus aucuparia* (*Sau*) and *Crataegus monogyna*
759 (*Cmo*). Different letters separate significantly different means among species based on post-hoc
760 Tukey HSD tests at $P < 0.05$ after.



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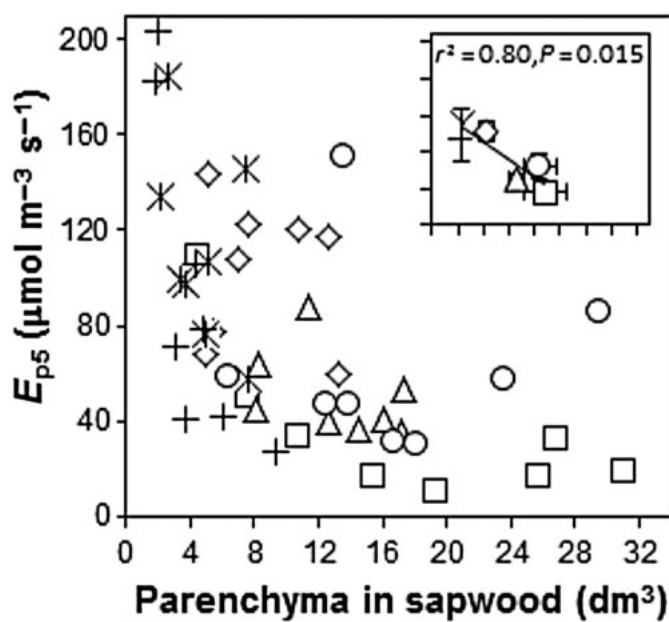
763 **Fig. 7.** Relationship of stem CO₂ efflux per unit surface area at 5 °C (E_{s5}) with sapwood depth,
 764 the proportion of living parenchyma, the concentration of nonstructural carbohydrates (NSC)
 765 and an index of drought tolerance for trees of six species: *Fagus sylvatica* (*Fsy*), *Quercus*
 766 *petraea* (*Qpt*), *Quercus pyrenaica* (*Qpy*), *Prunus avium* (*Pav*), *Sorbus aucuparia* (*Sau*) and
 767 *Crataegus monogyna* (*Cmo*). Values are species means ($\pm 2SE$). The strength and significance
 768 of relationships were indicated by the coefficient of determination and *P*-value of linear
 769 regression analyses within the panels. The drought-tolerance index is based on the review of
 770 Niinemets and Valladares (2006) where tolerance ranges from 0 to 5 (maximal tolerance).
 771 Based on Rodríguez-Calcerrada *et al.* (2010) tolerance for *Q. pyrenaica* was quantified as 4.0,
 772 similar to other Mediterranean broad-leaved oaks (e.g. *Q. pubescens*; 4.1 ± 0.25 ; Niinemets and
 773 Valladares 2006).



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776 **Fig. 8.** Relationship between sapwood parenchyma volume (calculated as the product of
 777 sapwood depth by parenchyma proportion, beneath 1 m² of stem surface area) and stem CO₂
 778 efflux at 5 °C per unit of sapwood parenchyma volume (E_{ps}) in trees of six species: *Fagus*
 779 *sylvatica* (squares), *Quercus petraea* (triangles), *Quercus pyrenaica* (circles), *Prunus avium*
 780 (asterisks), *Sorbus aucuparia* (plus symbols) and *Crataegus monogyna* (diamonds). Symbols
 781 correspond to individual trees, and to species means ($\pm 2SE$) in the insets, where the strength
 782 and significance of the linear regressions between variables is indicated.



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