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1 **Does long-term drought or repeated defoliation affect seasonal leaf N**
2 **cycling in young beech trees?**

3
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12
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20

21 **Abstract**

22 Forest trees adopt effective strategies to optimize nitrogen (N) use through internal N recycling. In
23 the context of more recurrent environmental stresses due to climate change, the question remains
24 whether increased frequency of drought or defoliation threatens this internal nitrogen recycling
25 strategy. We submitted 8-year-old beech trees to two years of either severe drought (Dro) or manual
26 defoliation (Def) to create a state of N starvation. At the end of the 2nd year before leaf senescence,
27 we labeled the foliage of the Dro and Def trees, as well as that of control (Co) trees, with ¹⁵N-urea.
28 Leaf N resorption, winter tree N storage (total N, ¹⁵N, amino acids, soluble proteins) and N
29 remobilization in spring were evaluated for the three treatments. Defoliation and drought did not
30 significantly impact foliar N resorption or N concentrations in organs in winter. Total N amounts in
31 Def tree remained close to those in Co tree, but winter N was stored more in the branches than in the
32 trunk and roots. Total N amount in Dro trees was drastically reduced (-55%), especially at the trunk
33 level, but soluble protein concentrations increased in the trunk and fine roots compared to Co trees.
34 During spring, ¹⁵N was mobilized from the trunk, branches and twigs of both Co and Def trees to
35 support leaf growth. It was only provided through twig ¹⁵N remobilization in the Dro trees, thus
36 resulting in extremely reduced Dro leaf N amounts. Our results suggest that stress-induced changes
37 occur in N metabolism but with varying severity depending on the constraints: within-tree ¹⁵N
38 transport and storage strategy changed in response to defoliation whereas a soil water deficit induced
39 a drastic reduction of the N amounts in all the tree organs. Consequently, N dysfunction could be
40 involved in drought-induced beech tree mortality under the future climate.

41

42 **Introduction**

43 The drought periods and heat waves are expected to increase in severity and frequency in the coming
44 decades (Coumou et al. 2013, Wagner et al. 2013, IPCC 2021). Such climate hazards may alter the
45 functioning of vital processes in trees, and beyond a certain threshold, induce tree dieback or even
46 threaten their survival (Senf et al. 2018, Archambeau et al. 2020, Taccoen et al. 2021). Hydraulic
47 signals and how the tree carbon (C) metabolism respond to soil water deficit have been fairly well
48 studied in recent years (McDowell 2011, Choat et al. 2018, Hartmann et al. 2018), but the responses
49 of tree nitrogen (N) metabolism received less attention, despite its importance for tree functioning
50 (Gessler et al. 2017). The external supply of nitrogen necessary for tree metabolism depends largely
51 on the uptake of mineral N from the soil by the roots (Bazot et al. 2013, Villar-Salvador et al. 2015).
52 A severe soil water deficit limits the soil water and nutrients available to the trees, hinders the roots
53 ability to explore the soil and decreases microbial activity, which strongly influences nutrient
54 concentrations in the soil (Kreuzwieser and Gessler 2010, Cregger et al. 2014). Trees have adopted a
55 dedicated strategy to optimize their N use efficiency under soil N limitations via internal recycling
56 (Vitousek 1982). But any reduced nutrient availability, coupled to tree hydraulic dysfunction during
57 prolonged drought events, may likely damage their internal N cycle and cause severe physiological
58 dysfunction (Gessler et al. 2017). Under a temperate climate, the internal N cycle of deciduous trees
59 is marked by its seasonality (Cooke and Weih, 2005). In spring, the N stored in the perennial organs
60 (trunk, branches and roots) is remobilized towards the new leaves and shoots, and metabolized into
61 proteins, thus playing an essential role in leaf functioning during the summer. In autumn, leaf N
62 resorption is an important process: foliar proteins degrade into amino acids which are transported via
63 the phloem towards the wood parenchyma where they are stored during winter in the form of amino
64 acids and vegetative storage proteins (Sauter et al. 1989, Wetzal et al. 1989, Stepien et al. 1994,
65 Millard 1996). According to the studies, leaf N resorption efficiency has been observed as decreased
66 (Marchin et al. 2010, Estiarte and Peñuelas 2015) or increased (Meier and Leuschner 2014, Touche

67 et al. 2024) by drought whereas in response to defoliation, the few studies available in forest trees
68 have shown no effect on leaf N resorption efficiency in the remaining foliage (May and Killingbeck
69 1995, Gortari et al. 2021). The N reserves in the tree are at their maximum concentrations at the end
70 of winter (El Zein et al. 2011b, Bazot et al. 2013). In the 1990s, use of both ^{15}N stable isotope analysis
71 and N-compound biochemistry made it possible to quantify these seasonal processes and to
72 characterize the nutrient budget of young trees (Millard 1994, Tagliavini et al. 1995). More recently,
73 the N budget has also been characterized in mature forest trees (El Zein et al. 2011ab, Bazot et al.
74 2013).

75 European beech (*Fagus sylvatica* L.) is known to be more drought-sensitive than other European
76 broad-leaves (Zang et al. 2014, Zimmermann et al. 2015), but paradoxically, it has also a remarkable
77 potential for recovery after drought stress (Elling et al. 2007). However, in Europe, recent models
78 predict a sharp decrease in the beech distribution range by 2100 (Landmann et al. 2008, Cheaib et al.
79 2012). A recent illustration occurred after the exceptional drought in 2018 (Schuldt et al. 2020, Rohner
80 et al. 2021): a large-scale die-back was observed in beech forests, accompanied by a degradation in
81 crown condition, and an early leaf fall before the senescence could occur. Early defoliation may
82 worsen tree nitrogen deprivation in beech because an important amount of total tree N (about 38%)
83 is located in the foliage in summer (El Zein 2011). How stresses such as drought or defoliation might
84 impact the seasonal nitrogen cycle is not well understood (Babst and Coleman 2018). Consequently,
85 we undertook to study in detail the consequences of repeated defoliation and a prolonged drought
86 during two years on the N cycle of beech trees. Both defoliation and drought can induce dysfunction
87 in certain physiological processes that are essential to overall tree metabolism. In the present paper,
88 we present the consequences of experimental N deprivation on the internal N cycle and N stock
89 rebuilding in 8-year-old beech trees. We compared the impact of two methods of N deprivation for
90 trees: 1) a two-year severe water shortage, which decreased the uptake of nutrients, their use and their
91 transport within the tree to the leaves; and 2) manual defoliation (removing 75 % of the leaves)

92 repeated for two successive years, which reduced the internal N pool in the trees. We compared the
93 impact of these two constraints on tree N stocks and on tree seasonal internal N cycling. To track
94 internal N changes, we labeled all the foliage of control, defoliated and water-stressed beech trees
95 with ^{15}N -urea in September (before leaf senescence), at the end of the 2nd stress period. We followed
96 the fate of the ^{15}N from the senescent leaves toward the perennial storage organs and estimated the N
97 returning to the soil by analyzing litter N. Finally, we tracked ^{15}N remobilization and N allocation
98 among organs for spring growth. We also analyzed seasonal changes in the concentrations of non-
99 structural N compounds (amino acids, soluble proteins) in the different tree organs.

100 We evaluated the following hypotheses:

101 (H1) A drastic reduction in N induced by recurrent yearly defoliation is likely and no additional N
102 uptake will be possible due to prolonged drought over several seasons. Therefore, since nitrogen is
103 the main driver of growth and subsequently of biomass accumulation, a significant reduction in the
104 total amounts of C and N in the tree is expected; (H2) Under defoliation and drought, at leaf fall, leaf
105 N resorption should increase and less N return to the soil through the litter; (H3) Regardless of their
106 potential effect on seasonal growth, the treatments should also decrease winter N storage per dry mass
107 unit in perennial organs, especially under drought; (H4) In spring, changes in stored N compounds as
108 well as in ^{15}N remobilization from the perennial organs should be source driven and unaffected by
109 the current N supply, as proposed by Millard and Grelet (2010).

110 **Materials and methods**

111 *Plant material and experimental design*

112 *Fagus sylvatica* seedlings were grown in an open ground nursery at the INRAE Grand-Est site
113 (Champenoux, France, 48°75'N, 6°34'E, 229 m asl) for seven years (2007-2013). In 2014, a
114 transparent roof built of polycarbonate sheets was installed 5m above the seven-year-old trees to
115 intercept rainfall. Three treatments were imposed on the trees (n=336 per treatment) for three years
116 (2014-2016): (i) a control treatment (Co) in which the trees were kept intact and regularly irrigated;
117 (ii) a defoliation (Def) treatment in which the trees were submitted to yearly manual defoliation
118 (removal of 75% of the foliage in June) and regularly irrigated; and (iii) a drought treatment (Dro)
119 where the trees were not irrigated, thus inducing a predawn twig water potential down to -2.0 MPa
120 (Chuste et al. 2019, 2020). The root systems of Dro trees were isolated with a rigid waterproof plastic
121 sheet (DELTA®-MS) buried to a depth of around 1.80 m. The Dro trees were slightly irrigated (about
122 40 mm) only once a year in November, every year. An automatic drip watering system delivered
123 between two and four liters of water per tree to the Co and Def trees two to three times a week.
124 Irrigation was adjusted to avoid any water shortage in these two treatments.

125

126 *Soil characteristics and soil water content measurements*

127 The experimental site is characterized by a homogeneous silty-clay loam soil 60 cm deep (silt:
128 61±1.28%; clay: 27±0.98%; sand: 12±0.66%), a pH ranging from 7.5 to 8 and an organic matter
129 content between 12.1 and 14.9 g · kg⁻¹ (E Silva 2010). Below 60 cm, the grey marl of the Jurassic
130 inferior (Lotharingian) is characterized by a swelling heavy clay soil with a high bulk density. We
131 used a neutron probe (TROXLER TX 4301, Research Triangle Park, NC, USA) to measure the
132 volumetric soil water content. Three neutron probe access tubes were installed in each treatment to
133 quantify water content at different depths: two tubes measured from 0 to 1 m in depth and the other
134 one measured from 0 to 1.6 m. Relative Extractable Water (REW, in %) was calculated according to

135 Bréda et al. (1995). In the Co and Def treatments, the REW was maintained above 40%, the threshold
136 below which stomatal closure reduces transpiration (Granier et al. 1999). In the Dro treatment, the
137 REW remained below 40% throughout the experiment and dropped below 15% at the end of each
138 growing season (Chuste 2018, Chuste et al. 2020).

139

140 *Foliar ¹⁵N labeling procedure*

141 The labeling experiment was performed at the end of September 2015 before leaf fall according to
142 the procedure described by Zeller et al. (1998). Zeller et al (1998) showed that beech trees efficiently
143 metabolize urea when it is applied to the leaves. Metabolized N (¹⁵N) is transformed into amino acids
144 and proteins and behaves in the same way as the rest of the unlabeled leaf N, then leaf N as a whole
145 (a mixture of ¹⁴N and ¹⁵N) is transferred to the perennial parts of the tree (see also Chuste et al. 2019).
146 In the context of the present study, we used ¹⁵N as a tracer of leaf N. For this, it is crucial that the
147 applied urea N enters the leaf N protein pool, previously shown by Zeller et al. (1998). The timing
148 for the labeling is summarized in Figure 1. Forty-four trees randomly distributed in the different
149 treatments (14 Co trees, 16 Dro trees and 14 Def trees) were chosen for labeling. A crown bag made
150 of polyethylene was placed over the total foliage of each tree to isolate it from its local environment.
151 In the late afternoon, an aqueous solution of ¹⁵N urea (10.4 atom%, 5.0 g.L⁻¹) was sprayed inside the
152 bag onto the leaves with a hand sprayer. The urea solution was sprayed in a fine mist to limit the
153 formation of drops and ensure a homogeneous labeling of the leaves. After labeling, the plastic bag
154 was kept on the tree for the night, then very carefully removed the next morning to avoid any
155 contamination of the soil and among trees. In October 2015, a net was installed around each tree to
156 collect the falling ¹⁵N-labeled litter during late autumn.

157

158

159

160 *Sampling protocol*

161 We harvested two Co, two Def and four Dro labeled trees one month after labeling (October 2015) to
162 evaluate the incorporation of ^{15}N in the different organs of the tree. We chose to double the number
163 of Dro trees to sample to ensure that the transport system was still functional after almost two years
164 without watering. We wanted to verify that ^{15}N could still be exported from labeled leaves to other
165 organs of Dro trees. In each tree, the following main organs were sampled: leaves, twigs, branches,
166 trunk top, trunk and coarse roots. In each treatment, the ^{15}N label was recovered in the leaves (source
167 of the ^{15}N) and in the other organs, indicating that the internal process of leaf N redistribution inside
168 the tree was underway (Figure S1). The leaves and branches were still the most enriched in ^{15}N at
169 that time, compared to the trunk and roots (Figure S1). Nine unlabeled trees (3 Co; 3 Def; 3 Dro)
170 were also harvested in autumn to assess the natural abundance of ^{15}N in each tree organ.

171 The other labeled trees were harvested at two key phenological dates for estimating within-tree N
172 winter store and ^{15}N distribution on the one hand, and spring ^{15}N allocation to new growth on the
173 other: 1) in February 2016 (winter), 5 months after labeling at the theoretically highest N storage level
174 in perennial organs; and 2) in June 2016 (spring), 9 months after labeling at the theoretical end of
175 spring N remobilization (El Zein 2011b), once leaf expansion was completed. The timing of the
176 harvests is summarized in Figure 1. We harvested six trees per treatment and per date. In each tree,
177 the total biomass of the following main organs was sampled: leaves, twigs, branches, trunk top and
178 main trunk. Some wilted, browned and leafless branches, identified as dead branches, were collected
179 separately. A subsample of coarse ($d > 2\text{mm}$) and fine roots ($d < 2\text{mm}$) was also taken. In February 2016,
180 we also collected the litter in the net on the trees of the three treatments. A subsample of each aerial
181 and subterranean organ was immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen, stored at -80°C , then freeze-dried
182 (Dura-Top^(r), Dura-Dry^(r), FTS Systems^(r), Stone Ridge, NY, USA). The freeze-dried subsamples
183 were weighed, ground into a fine powder with a ball mill (CEPI SODEMI CB2200, Cergy, France)
184 then stored in vials in the dark until the isotopic and biochemical analyses. The rest of the aerial

185 organs was also kept, dried three days at 80°C and weighed. The total dry matter (DM) of each aerial
186 organ was obtained by summing the weight of the dry matter (DM) of the subsample and the
187 remainder of each organ. Once the experiment was fully completed (2018), the whole aerial system
188 of 18 additional trees (n = 6 per treatment) was harvested and their whole root system was excavated
189 and dried for three days at 80°C. The root biomass of all the trees sampled in 2015 and 2016 was then
190 estimated a posteriori with the allometric relationship between total aboveground and belowground
191 biomass (total coarse roots, $d > 2\text{mm}$), as shown in Figure S2. For the same age class, our root biomass
192 results were close to those in a study that had investigated the biomass production of beech trees in
193 the North-East of France (Le Goff and Ottorini 2022). We were not able to fully recover the fine root
194 system with an excavator. However, with regard to the total root system, coarse roots appear to
195 account for 95% of the total belowground biomass increment while fine roots account for only 5%,
196 independently of tree age (Le Goff and Ottorini 2022). Therefore, we took fine roots into account for
197 our concentration calculations but assumed they could be neglected when calculating amounts.
198 Therefore, we based each calculated amount (C, N and soluble N compounds) on total roots minus
199 fine roots and referred to this result as ROOT in our figures and tables.

200

201 *Leaf measurements*

202 We assessed several leaf characteristics on 100 randomly-sampled mature leaves per tree on both
203 unlabeled trees in 2015 (June 2015) and labeled trees in 2016 (June 2016) for each treatment. The
204 individual leaf area was measured with a portable area meter (LI 3000 A) connected to a belt conveyer
205 (LI-3050A, both LI-COR, Lincoln Nebraska, USA), then the leaves were dried for 48h at 80°C and
206 weighed. The mean individual leaf area and the mean leaf mass per area (LMA) were calculated for
207 each tree. For harvested trees, the leaves remaining after sampling were also dried for 48h at 80°C
208 and weighed to determine the total leaf mass of each tree. We calculated the total number of leaves

209 and the total leaf area of the trees based on the allometric relationship between the leaf biomass and
 210 the leaf area of the 100 sampled leaves.

211

212 *Nutrient resorption efficiency*

213 Nutrient resorption efficiency was calculated as described by Killingbeck (1996) and more recently
 214 by Zhang et al. (2018):

$$215 \quad Nur = \frac{(N_{green} - N_{sen})}{N_{green}} * MLCF * 100 \quad (1)$$

216 where N_{green} and N_{sen} are the N concentrations in green leaves (sampled in June 2015) and in the litter
 217 (sampled in February 2016), respectively. The Mass Loss Correction Factor (MLCF) corresponds to
 218 the percentage of leaf mass remaining in the litter compared to the mass of the green leaves (Vergutz
 219 et al. 2012). European beech is a deciduous temperate species; therefore, we used a MLCF value of
 220 0.784 as recommended in Vergutz et al. (2012).

221 *Isotopic analyses and calculations*

222 Total C and N concentrations (% of dry matter) and ^{15}N isotopic abundance (atom%) of each organ
 223 were measured with an elemental analyzer (Eurovector, Redavalle, Italy) coupled to an Isoprime
 224 (Elementar UK) at the isotopic platform “Plant Biochemistry and Molecular Physiology” (INRAE,
 225 Montpellier, France).

226 The isotopic abundance for N expressed in atom% (A_N %) was defined as:

$$227 \quad A_N = \frac{^{15}\text{N}}{^{14}\text{N} + ^{15}\text{N}} * 100 \quad (2)$$

228 The ^{15}N enrichment (atom %) in each organ after tree labeling was defined as:

$$229 \quad ^{15}\text{N}_{excess} = A_{N \text{ labeled organ}} - A_{N \text{ unlabeled organ}} \quad (3)$$

230 where $A_{N \text{ labeled organ}}$ is the ^{15}N abundance of the labeled tree organ and $A_{N \text{ unlabeled organ}}$ is the natural ^{15}N
 231 abundance of the unlabeled tree organ, with an $A_{N \text{ unlabeled organ}}$ of about 0.3683 ± 0.0031 atom% to
 232 0.3709 ± 0.0013 atom% depending on the considered organ.

233 The concentration of ^{15}N ($\text{mg}\cdot 100\text{g}^{-1}$ DM) incorporated by labeling in the dry matter (DM) of a given
 234 organ was calculated as:

$$235 \quad {}^{15}\text{N}_{\text{concentration}} = \frac{{}^{15}\text{N}_{\text{excess}} \cdot [\text{N}]}{100} * 1000 \quad (4)$$

236 where [N] is the N concentration ($\text{g}\cdot 100\text{g}^{-1}$ DM) in the organ. The ^{15}N amount ($\text{mg}\cdot \text{organ}^{-1}$)
 237 incorporated by labeling into each organ was calculated as:

$$238 \quad {}^{15}\text{N}_{\text{amount}} = \frac{{}^{15}\text{N}_{\text{concentration}}}{1000} * \frac{\text{DM}}{100} \quad (5)$$

239 where DM is the dry matter (g) of the organ.

240 N partitioning and ^{15}N allocation represent the ratio (%) of the amount of N or ^{15}N , respectively,
 241 incorporated into a given organ relative to the total amount of N or ^{15}N incorporated into the whole
 242 tree.

$$243 \quad N_{\text{partitioning}} = \frac{N_{\text{amount of the organ}}}{N_{\text{amount of the tree}}} * 100 \quad (6)$$

244 and

$$245 \quad {}^{15}\text{N}_{\text{allocation}} = \frac{{}^{15}\text{N}_{\text{amount of the organ}}}{{}^{15}\text{N}_{\text{amount of the tree}}} * 100 \quad (7)$$

246 *Amino acid concentration, amount by organ and within-tree partitioning*

247 For each organ, the amino acids (AA) were extracted from 20 mg of dry matter at 4°C in 1.5 mL of
 248 70% methanol. After shaking for 30 minutes and centrifuging for five minutes at $17,000\text{g}$ at 5°C , the
 249 Eppendorf tubes were immediately placed on ice. Total AA were assayed by colorimetry at a
 250 wavelength of 570 nm with a ninhydrin reagent, following Yemm and Cocking (1955). AA content
 251 was determined with reference to a standard curve established from a stock solution of leucine (25
 252 mM). Results were expressed as AA concentrations ($\text{g}\cdot 100\text{g}^{-1}$ DM *i.e.*, %DM); AA amount per organ
 253 ($\text{g}\cdot \text{organ}^{-1}$) was calculated by multiplying AA concentrations by the biomass of the considered organ
 254 in the tree. AA partitioning was expressed as the ratio (%) of the amount of amino acids incorporated
 255 into a given organ relative to the total amount of amino acids in the whole tree.

256

257 *Soluble protein concentration, amount by organ and within-tree partitioning*

258 All soluble proteins (PROT) were extracted from 10 mg of dry matter at 4°C in 1.5 mL of extraction
259 buffer [Na₂/KH₂PO₄ 0.1M at pH 7.38; Dithiothreitol (DTT) 5mM 0.8 mg/mL; Polyvinylpyrrolidone
260 (PVP 40,000) 19.5 mg/mL; Polyethylene glycol (PEG 20,000) 4.5 mg/mL] mixed in a ball mill
261 (Vibro-mill MM400-RETSCH) two times for 45 seconds. The samples were centrifuged for 15
262 minutes at 12,000 g at 4°C and kept on ice. Total soluble proteins were assayed by colorimetry at 595
263 nm with Coomassie blue (Bio-Rad Protein Assay Dye Reagent Concentrate, 500-0006), as in
264 Bradford (1976). The PROT content was determined with reference to a standard curve established
265 from a stock solution of Bovine Serum Albumin (Bio-Rad Protein Assay Standard II, 500-0007).
266 Results were expressed as PROT concentrations (g.100g⁻¹DM *i.e.*, %DM); PROT amount per organ
267 (g.organ⁻¹) was calculated by multiplying PROT concentrations by the biomass of the considered
268 organ. PROT partitioning was expressed as the ratio (%) of the amount of soluble proteins
269 incorporated into a given organ in the tree relative to the total amount of soluble proteins in the whole
270 tree.

271

272 *Statistical analyses*

273 All statistical analyses were performed in R version 4.1.2 (2021-11-01). Before statistical analysis,
274 all data were checked for normality (Shapiro-Wilk test) and homoscedasticity (Levene's test). We
275 used ANOVA models to compare leaf properties, C, N and ¹⁵N content and concentration, amino acids
276 and proteins content and concentration between dates and treatments. Differences are considered
277 significant when p<0.05. Statistically significant differences among groups were further tested with
278 Tukey's post hoc test. Values are presented as mean ± standard error.

279

280 **Results**

281 *Impact of defoliation and water stress on leaf growth variables and on leaf N resorption efficiency*

282 After only one year of constraints (2015), no treatment effect was noted on the LMA of the trees
 283 (Figure 2A) whereas in 2016, LMA was significantly higher in Def than in Co trees (Figure 2B).
 284 Individual leaf area (+63%), total leaf area (+307%) and leaf number (+169%) markedly increased in
 285 Co trees between 2015 and 2016 (Figures 2C-2H). The total leaf area and leaf number of the Def trees
 286 (+174% and +133%, respectively) also increased over time but to a lesser extent than for the Co trees
 287 (Figures 2E-, 2B-2H). In contrast, leaf growth in the Dro trees was markedly reduced over the two
 288 years (2015, 2016) with significantly smaller leaves (-39% and -61%, respectively), lower total leaf
 289 area (-52% and -68%) and a lower number of leaves (-28% and -38%) than for the Co trees (Figures
 290 2C-2H).

291 In 2015, summer leaf N concentrations ranged from 1.83 to 2.28 % (Table 1), without any significant
 292 effect of treatment at $p < 0.05$. The following winter, litter N concentrations ranged from 0.44% (Dro)
 293 to 0.65% (Def) resulting in a similar N resorption efficiency [comprised between 55% (Def) and 61%
 294 (Dro)].

295

296 *C and N seasonal changes and their partitioning within the tree in relation to the constraints*

297 After two years of drought, the total C amount in the above-ground and root systems was strongly
 298 reduced (-62%) compared to the Co trees (Table 2A, 2B). N amounts were also reduced by drought,
 299 more so in the above-ground (-59%) than in the root system (-43%). In particular, drought
 300 significantly reduced the C and N amounts in the leaves in spring (Table 2A). However, N
 301 concentrations in spring leaves were remarkably stable (2 to 2.3%) regardless of treatment (Figure
 302 S3B). Similar reductions in C and N amounts in response to drought were also observed in winter but
 303 statistical differences with the Co trees were only noted for the top of the trunk at that time (Table
 304 2A). C and N amounts in the organs of the Def and Co trees were not significantly different, except

305 in spring when a marked decrease in the amounts of C and N was noted in the trunk top along with a
306 decrease in N in the trunk of the Def trees (Table 2A). A season x treatment interaction effect was
307 noted on the amounts of C and N in the leaves i.e. litter in winter and mature leaves in spring (Table
308 2B). Globally, season and treatment effects were significant for C and N amounts in the total above-
309 ground system whereas in the root system, they were only significant for C, without any season x
310 treatment interaction. Effect of season was much more marked on N concentrations: spring N
311 concentrations were significantly reduced in the trunks and fine roots of the Co trees, but also reduced
312 in the trunk, branches and coarse roots in def trees (Figure S3A, S3B). In Dro trees, spring N
313 concentrations decreased only in the branches but increased in fine root (Figure S3A, S3B).

314 Carbon partitioning among organs was preserved regardless of the treatment and the season: trunk
315 (41 to 54%), roots (23 to 24%) and branches (14 to 19%) (Figure 3A, 3B). Carbon partitioning to Def
316 litter was less than to Co litter due to the defoliation in 2015. In spring, before defoliation, leaf C
317 partitioning was significantly higher for the Def than the Co trees in connection with increased LMA
318 (Figure 2B). In winter, tree N was mainly partitioned to the trunk (39 to 41%), branches (23 to 25%)
319 and roots (22 to 29%). N partitioning to the roots was significantly increased by drought (Figure 3C).
320 Whatever treatment, litter N always represented less than 6% of total tree N. Spring growth induced
321 marked changes in N partitioning with a decrease in N in the trunk and roots of the Co and Def trees
322 (Figure 3D). About 40% of tree N appeared in Co leaves, even more (51%) in Def leaves (Figure 3C).
323 However, under drought, N partitioning to the roots and trunk remained high, and was significantly
324 higher than in the other treatments. In the Dro treatment, the leaves accounted for only 18% of tree
325 total N in spring and N partitioning in the trunk top was reduced compared to Co trees (Figure 3D).

326

327 *Amounts, concentrations and within-tree allocation of ^{15}N*

328 In winter, ^{15}N exported from the leaves during autumnal N resorption was mainly allocated to the
329 trunk (42%), branches (25%) and roots (20%) in the Co trees (Figure 3E). In response to defoliation

330 (Def), ^{15}N was allocated more to the branches (48%) and less to the trunk (23%) and roots (8%).
331 Drought (Dro) also modified ^{15}N allocation in the trees with less going to the trunk (30%) and more
332 to the branches (38%).

333 In spring, ^{15}N was remobilized from the perennial organs (mainly the branches, trunk and roots) of
334 the Co trees to fuel new growth and was allocated mainly to the leaves, where it accounted for about
335 49% of total tree ^{15}N (Table 2A, 2B, Figure 3). By comparison, more ^{15}N was allocated to leaves
336 (62%) in the Def treatment and less (36%) in the Dro treatment (Figure 3F). In terms of amount, leaf
337 ^{15}N did not significantly change in response to defoliation (5.75mg in Def vs 6.99 mg in Co) but was
338 strongly reduced (-77%) in response to drought, as was the N amount (Table 2A). The ^{15}N amount
339 was significantly lower in the trunk, trunk top and roots of Def and Dro trees than in the Co trees
340 (Table 2A), and the most important decrease in ^{15}N concentrations between winter and spring
341 occurred in twigs for all treatments and in the branches and trunks for the Dro and Def trees (Figure
342 S3C, S3D).

343

344 *Amounts, concentrations and within-tree partitioning of AA and PROT*

345 In winter, AA and PROT amounts in the Co trees (Figure 4A, 4D) were mainly present in the trunk
346 (AA: 41%, PROT: 49%), roots (AA: 27%, PROT: 27%) and branches (AA: 28%, PROT: 17%). In
347 terms of concentration, AA in the trunk, trunk top and coarse roots of the Def trees were significantly
348 higher than those of the Co trees (Figure S4A, S4B). PROT branch concentrations were also higher
349 than those of the Co trees while PROT concentrations in the trunk and coarse roots were lower (Figure
350 S4D, S4E). Significantly fewer AA (13%) and more PROT (32%) were partitioned to the branches in
351 the Def trees (Figure 4B, 4E). In the Dro trees, AA partitioning to the trunk (7.39%) was drastically
352 reduced and most of the AA in the tree were found in the roots (73.62%) (Figure 4C, 4F). PROT
353 amount was strongly reduced in Dro trees with lower PROT concentrations in the trunk (Figure S4)

354 but the PROT distribution among the organs remained broadly similar to that of the Co trees (Figure
 355 4D, 4E, 4F).

356 In spring, both the amounts, concentrations and the partitioning of AA to the trunk, branches and roots
 357 of the Co trees decreased markedly compared to winter (Figure 4A). PROT concentration decreased
 358 also in twigs, the trunk and roots (Figure S4D). We noted that PROT partitioning in the Co trees was
 359 also slightly less to the roots and trunk but not to branches (Figure 4D). Leaf AA accounted for 45%
 360 (Figure 4A) and leaf PROT for about 20% of the total amount in the Co trees (Figure 4D). In response
 361 to defoliation, the main changes were that AA amount increased in the branches (Figure 4B), and
 362 PROT amount decreased in the trunk top (Figure 4E). A reduction in AA partitioning (Figures 4A,
 363 4B) and an increase in PROT partitioning to the leaves was also noted (Figures 4D, 4E). In terms of
 364 concentration and compared to Co trees, AA increased in the trunk, the trunk top and dead branches
 365 of Def trees (Figures S4A, S4B). In spring, most of the AA and PROT amounts in the Dro trees stayed
 366 in the trunk and roots (Figures 4C, 4F), and PROT amount in Dro branches was lower than in the Co
 367 branches (Figure 4F). AA concentration increased in coarse and fine roots of Dro trees (Figure S4C)
 368 and PROT concentrations in the trunk and fine roots of the Dro trees were higher than in the Co trees
 369 but lower in twigs (Figure S4D, S4E, S4F). The amount, concentration and partitioning of AA (Figure
 370 S4C, Figure 4C), as well as PROT amount and partitioning (Figure 4D, 4F) to Dro leaves were lower
 371 than for Co and Def leaves (Figures 4A, 4B). However, PROT leaf concentration was not affected by
 372 drought (Figure 4SD, 4SF).

373

374 **Discussion**

375 *Delayed impacts on C and N stocks of repeated defoliation compared to a prolonged soil water deficit*
 376 After one year of defoliation (-75 %), the following growing season, the Def beech trees were able to
 377 maintain leaf growth, and C and N levels were similar to those of the Co trees. However, after two
 378 successive years of defoliation, a decrease in total leaf area was observed during the third growing

379 season of the experiment, mainly due to a reduction in individual leaf area in Def trees. Such a
380 decrease in foliage growth following a defoliation event has also been observed on several deciduous
381 and evergreen tree species and at various stages of development: on *Quercus velutina* saplings (Wiley
382 et al. 2013), *Quercus petraea* and *Quercus ilex* saplings (Schmid et al. 2017) or on mature *Quercus*
383 *robur* (Marçais and Bréda 2006) and *Northofagus pumilio* trees (Piper et al. 2015). Finally, after the
384 two-successive years of defoliation that we applied, the quantities of C and N in beech trees were also
385 impacted. Indeed, C and N amounts in beech trees were significantly reduced in the youngest part of
386 the trunk (trunk top) as was the N amount in the rest of the trunk compared to controls (Table 2). In
387 addition to the effect of repeated defoliation on *Fagus sylvatica* C and N amounts, underlying changes
388 in growth are possible, especially at the anatomical level of the transport system; Future research
389 should include this aspect. In fact, a recent study on *Fagus crenata* (Ueda et al. 2024) showed that
390 repeated defoliation for 4 years reduced hydraulic transport safety in beech because the total area of
391 inter-vessel pits with thin pit membranes increased per unit of vessel wall area. Ueda et al. (2024)
392 hypothesize that repeated defoliation can increase drought stress and the risk of drought-induced tree
393 mortality by increasing susceptibility to xylem cavitation and embolism.

394 In our study, drought affected the beech trees earlier than defoliation did. In fact, drastic reductions
395 in foliage growth were observed from the growing season of the second year of soil water deficit.
396 Leaf area reduction in response to drought is commonly observed in beech trees to reduce water loss
397 through transpiration (Bréda et al. 2006). In our study, total N amount in the trees was also drastically
398 reduced in response to drought, especially at the trunk level. This reduction in N was mainly due to a
399 strong reduction in primary and secondary growth in response to drought (Chuste et al. 2020), as
400 evidenced by the strong lessening of C accumulation in the water-stressed trees (Table 2). Reduced
401 cambial growth in beech trees following drought events are common and have been shown at various
402 sites (van der Werf et al. 2007, Charru et al. 2010, Leuschner 2020). However, depending on soil
403 conditions and other local factors, when the precipitation pattern becomes favorable again, beech

404 trees are able to regain pre-drought cambial growth rates only three years after drought onset; the
405 most resistant individuals even show improved post-drought growth (Camamero et al. 2018). The
406 potential for growth recovery after defoliation depends on the species and is generally greater in
407 deciduous than in evergreens (Krause and Raffa 1996). Growth recovery also depends on the level of
408 defoliation (Anttonen et al. 2002). Following defoliation, new leaf production later in the same
409 growing season is sometimes observed, depending on the species, defoliation intensity and the period.
410 In our study, despite severe defoliation (75% in 2014 and 2015), none of our defoliated beech trees
411 produced new leaves in the same season, nor did any die or show signs of dieback (Chuste 2018).
412 However, prolonged drought or repeated defoliation created a significant reduction in the total C and
413 N amounts in the trees. Our hypothesis (H1) was therefore verified, though with a delayed effect and
414 at a lesser magnitude than expected for the defoliated beech trees, whose organs seemed able to resist
415 repeated N loss longer and better than Dro trees. The reason probably lies in the fact that the defoliated
416 beech trees were able to take up more N from the soil to compensate for the loss of N through
417 defoliation, especially in our fertile soil conditions. On the contrary, limited access to water and
418 minerals induced by our experimental severe water stress may have forced the water-deprived trees
419 to depend almost exclusively on their reserves for survival. Mobilizing stored compounds to recover
420 from stress and help maintain C and N homeostasis and growth is certainly key in beech, which, like
421 other hardwood species, store their reserves in the woody parts of the tree, which are generally
422 protected from herbivory (Delaporte et al. 2016, Chuste et al. 2020). In contrast, evergreen species
423 store a significant part of their reserves in the foliage and are therefore less tolerant to defoliation
424 (Krause and Raffa 1996, Millard et al. 2001, Chuste et al. 2019), as well as to drought (DeSoto et al.
425 2020). However, it has been shown that young beech trees (aged 8 to 10 years) take up more N from
426 the soil than do older trees, due to their lower internal N storage capacity (Simon et al. 2021).
427 Consequently, the tipping point at which the availability of C and N becomes insufficient to support

428 growth and storage may occur earlier in 10-year-old beech trees than in older ones with larger stocks,
429 particularly in response to drought and a limited access to soil N resources.

430

431 *Autumnal foliar N resumption: a way to optimize N recycling*

432 Our study shows that the foliage of trees submitted to defoliation or soil water deficit for two years
433 managed to maintain high leaf N concentrations, similar to the control trees (about 2%, and even a
434 little more in the Def trees). These results are in line with a previous study with the same experimental
435 design, which demonstrated that N metabolism was still active in the leaves of both Def and Dro trees
436 during the growing season of the 2nd year of treatment (Chuste et al. 2019). The lack of access to N
437 soil under water stress or the major loss of N caused by spring defoliation forced the trees to rely at
438 least partly on internal N remobilization from storage in perennial organs (branch, trunk, root) to
439 maintain high leaf N concentrations. This leaf N concentration homeostasis in beech tree match for
440 example results of Ognjenović et al. (2023) who did not find significant foliar N concentration
441 changes in beech trees (ICP forests) in response to defoliation events. A recent meta-analysis on tree
442 nutritional changes during drought found inconsistent relationships between tree nutritional status
443 and drought survival. Certain nutrients (P, K, Fe and Cu) pointed out by these authors could, however,
444 serve as a potential early warning signal of decline in tree vitality (He et al. 2024). The beech trees,
445 subjected for two years to internal N restrictions, had to maintain high N levels in their leaves for two
446 reasons:

447 i) to ensure and stimulate leaf metabolic activity and C acquisition in order to limit the risk of C
448 starvation (McDowell 2011) – indeed, a large amount of leaf N in plants is invested in Rubisco
449 proteins (Makino 2003, Evans and Clarke 2019), and

450 ii) amino acids such as proline, can act as osmoprotectors under water stress some tree species
451 (Peuke et al. 2002, Gessler et al. 2017, Chuste et al. 2019). High N partitioning to the leaves could

452 also be a strategy for local nitrogen storage near the growing organs, as hypothesized in other studies
453 (Ourry et al. 2001, Millard et al. 2007).

454 In autumn, prior to dormancy, nutrient resorption by deciduous tree species is a fundamental process
455 through which the tree can withdraw nutrients from senescing tissues prior to abscission (Hagen-
456 Thorn et al. 2006). Previous studies have shown that this process allows trees to recover up to 31%
457 of their nitrogen (Cleveland et al. 2013), and that temperate deciduous trees may exhibit high N
458 resorption (Aert 1996). In our study, about 60% of the leaf N was recycled (Table 1), which is
459 consistent with the values found in the meta-analysis by Zhang et al. (2018). In our study, 3 to 6% of
460 C, 4 to 6% of N and 4 to 9% of ^{15}N (corresponding to mobile non-structural N compounds) of the
461 beech trees returned to the soil through the litter and so were not able to be internally recycled. The
462 low N concentrations we found in the beech litter for all treatments indicate that N resorption was
463 very efficient and that N levels were maintained despite the constraints (Table 2). This result
464 contradicts our hypothesis (H2), which was that, under stress, the trees would intensify their recycling
465 of leaf N. Our results therefore suggest that leaf N resorption in beech is efficient and that its
466 efficiency depends little on the environment also observed on mature beech trees exposed to drought
467 (Touche et al. 2022, 2024). But they also identified that the resorption efficiency of other mineral
468 nutrients such as potassium and magnesium could be impacted by drought in beech. Even though
469 beech trees are capable of efficient cycling for major nutrients, the tree response to water and nutrient
470 deficiencies is likely to depend also on complex interactions between tree roots, micro-organisms,
471 soil nutrients (Calvaruso et al. 2017) and soil type. These interactions should be the subject of future
472 research.

473

474

475

476 *Prolonged water deficit decreased winter N storage whilst repeated defoliation modified within-tree*
477 *N storage location*

478 Amino acid and soluble protein amounts were reduced in the aerial organs of our water-deprived trees
479 compared to the controls, mainly because of the severe reduction in growth of the beech trees in
480 response to drought. In the roots, which also exhibited a strong reduction in growth in response to
481 drought, soluble proteins were also reduced whereas amino acids increased. We assume that this
482 accumulation of amino acids in the roots was the result of proteolysis triggered to protect them from
483 dehydration according to Wargo (1972) and Parker and Patton (1975). How drought events affect tree
484 metabolite concentrations, can be indicative of underlying biochemical regulation processes, as
485 underlined by authors like Jia et al. (2020). In our study, winter concentrations of amino acids and
486 proteins in beech organs were not drastically affected by drought except for the trunk, where soluble
487 protein concentrations significantly decreased. This result suggests that, despite efficient leaf N
488 resorption, the internal nitrogen storage function of water-deprived beech trees was impaired due to
489 decreased protein synthesis in the trunk. Our hypothesis (H3), in which we supposed that winter N
490 storage would decrease under drought, was validated by these results.

491 Olmo et al. (2014) showed that, for ten tree species including *Fagaceae* like oak, in general, the root
492 systems responded to drought through a decrease in the proportion of fine roots (2 to 0.5 mm) and an
493 increase in the proportion of very fine roots (<0.5mm) in the deepest soil levels (20-40 cm deep).
494 Even after a few weeks of drought, saplings from six deciduous and evergreen tree species showed
495 common responses, for example a reduction in soil N uptake and in C allocation to roots as well as a
496 reduction in root biomass (Joseph et al. 2021). Using minirhizotrons, Zwetsloot and Bauerle (2021)
497 found that dry summers in mature beech stands stunted the growth of fine roots and even shortened
498 their lifespan. In our study, given the total absence of irrigation for two consecutive growing seasons,
499 no root growth was possible at all (Joseph Levillain, personal communication). It is therefore
500 reasonable to hypothesize that the extreme 2-year drought we imposed on the beeches drastically

501 altered root absorption of N, in particular by stopping the growth of fine roots and, possibly, by
502 increasing dieback among the fine roots as also reported by Leuschner (2020) in beech trees exposed
503 to extreme drought. The dead branches, which were more numerous under drought, kept a small,
504 definitively sequestered, part of the N, ^{15}N and soluble N compounds of the tree thus also contributing,
505 along with the dead roots in the soil, to N loss in the living components of the trees under drought.
506 These combined effects could be the cause of the reduction in protein storage we observed, mainly in
507 the trunk. Therefore, in the event of prolonged drought for more than two consecutive years, beech
508 trees may no longer be able to fully meet their N requirements for basic functions, and a large
509 reduction in N storage can potentially reduce their stress acclimatization and survivability.

510 We also observed reductions in both amino acid and soluble protein concentrations in the trunk and
511 roots in response to defoliation, although this was counterbalanced by a significant increase in soluble
512 protein concentrations in the branches. In terms of amounts, defoliation resulted in fewer amino acids
513 and more soluble proteins in the branches than in the control trees; inversely, the roots presented more
514 amino acids and fewer soluble proteins. Total N was unchanged. These results suggest that defoliation
515 induced a change in storage location and organ functioning rather than a decrease in winter N storage.

516 Tracking the mobile ^{15}N pool from autumnal leaf N resorption within the tree brought additional
517 information to these results. The percentage of ^{15}N allocated to the trunk was reduced in favor of the
518 branches in defoliated trees, and a significant decrease in ^{15}N concentrations in the trunk and fine
519 roots was noted. The same tendency was observed in the water-stressed trees compared to the controls.
520 These original results suggest within-tree changes in mobile N transport from the senescent leaves to
521 other organs that reveal a tree storage strategy modified in response to stress. Defoliation episodes
522 impair root nutrient uptake (Piper et al. 2015) and consequently the ^{15}N in the defoliated trees stayed
523 more in the branches near growth spots (twigs, leaves), ready to be remobilized and meet the demands
524 for new leaf growth. Interestingly, the ^{15}N label was still transported from leaves to roots under
525 drought and this indicates that the internal transport of metabolites was still ensured despite probable

526 hydraulic dysfunctions such as increased viscosity and reduced transport velocity in the phloem, as
527 shown by Dannoura et al. (2019) in trees from the same experiment, and by Hesse et al. (2019) on
528 mature beech trees submitted to repeated dry summers.

529

530 *N* compound remobilization and allocation of ^{15}N to new twigs and leaves in the spring are source
531 driven

532 Total beech N in the spring was not significantly different from that in winter regardless of treatment,
533 thus suggesting that there was no significant N uptake at that time of the year. This confirms El Zein
534 et al.'s (2011b) conclusions on young beeches; the authors showed that the spring growth of mature
535 beech trees mainly depends on the remobilization of stored N. Indeed, the internal N cycle in
536 deciduous trees makes it possible to decouple growth from N absorption (Millard 1996), and the
537 internal N changes that we observed in spring were likely due to remobilized N exchanges between
538 actively growing and storage organs, regardless of growing conditions. In spring, we noted a marked
539 decrease in amino acid, soluble protein and ^{15}N concentrations in the twigs, trunks and roots of both
540 control and defoliated beech trees. Above- and below-ground organs contributed to spring growth but,
541 in response to defoliation, the N soluble compounds and ^{15}N stored in the branches were also
542 remobilized. We assume that the extra winter N storage in the branches of the defoliated trees then its
543 spring remobilization helped them to recover a total leaf area and a leaf count similar to the unstressed
544 trees. This also suggest source-driven N remobilization. Compared to the control trees, the observed
545 elevated concentrations of amino acids in the trunks and trunk tops of the defoliated trees in spring
546 could be due to higher amino acid requirements for protein synthesis in the new shoots (Chuste et al.
547 2019). Under drought, even though a decrease in ^{15}N concentrations was noted in the twigs, trunk top,
548 trunk and branches, indicating the occurrence of N remobilization, nothing indicates that proteins in
549 these organs were remobilized for new leaf growth, which was drastically reduced. In fact, the soluble
550 protein concentrations in the drought-stressed trees remained equal to the concentrations in the

551 perennial organs (trunks and roots) of the unstressed trees. These results suggest that the strongly
552 reduced leaf growth we observed during the third year of drought stress was probably more due to
553 internal hydraulic limitations preventing N remobilization and transportation than to limited N stored
554 resources. We found also higher concentrations of amino acids in the fine and coarse roots of the
555 drought-stressed trees in spring than for the control trees, thus suggesting stress-induced changes in
556 N metabolism. Drought-stressed trees may need more N osmoprotectants to guarantee cell integrity
557 and prevent osmotic stress from killing the root system. In fact, severe drought is known to increase
558 amino-acids, which play an important role in protecting organs like leaves from dehydration in tree
559 species such as apple (Sircelj et al. 2005) or beech (Fotelli et al. 2002). However, in our drought-
560 stressed beech trees, the amino-acid concentrations in the few newly formed spring leaves decreased
561 significantly, thus suggesting impaired leaf metabolism and problems with osmotic adjustments
562 during the third year of extreme drought. We therefore assume that a threshold, after which survival
563 is jeopardized for 10-year-old beeches, is reached after 3 years of extreme drought. Even after
564 implementing survival mechanisms such as a strong reduction in growth, maintaining C storage
565 (Chuste et al. 2020), or an induced early senescence of the foliage (Massonnet et al. 2021), such a
566 tipping point has been also observed in the 3d year of severe water deficit for nonstructural
567 carbohydrates in the same trees (Chuste et al. 2020), suggesting that three successive years of drought
568 alter C and N metabolisms enough to threaten beech survival. Studies in the 1970s showed that
569 defoliation and drought can cause a marked increase in amino acids in tree species such as maple and
570 oak, especially in the coarse roots (Wargo 1972, Parker and Patton 1975). These authors showed that
571 specific amino acids, threonine, cysteine, tyrosine, proline and asparagine, were involved in the
572 response to defoliation and drought. Changes in these amino acids, in particular the increase in
573 asparagine, (Parker and Patton 1975) and the increase in sugars often observed in response to stress
574 are known to increase tree survival (Chuste et al. 2020, Leuschner 2020). However, according to
575 Wargo (1972), the accumulation of amino acids in the roots could also jeopardize the survival of

576 stressed trees by making them more palatable to certain fungi like *Armillaria mellea*. In fact, the
577 negative impact of extreme weather events on the health of tree root systems and the increasing
578 occurrence of armillaria root diseases have been regularly reported and could become serious threats
579 to trees under future climatic conditions (Kim et al. 2022). Our results showed that changes in stored
580 N compounds as well as ^{15}N remobilization from perennial organs in the spring were source driven
581 and dependent on N stores regardless of treatment, thus confirming our hypothesis H4. However,
582 remobilization itself was impaired in the trees submitted to three years of severe water deficit, even
583 when they had high N stores. Water is strongly involved in the process of N remobilization and N
584 distribution to growing organs; therefore, water deficit is a strong limiting factor under prolonged
585 drought and may alter these processes as well as phloem transport (Dannoura et al. 2019).

586

587 **Conclusion**

588 Our results suggest stress-induced changes in N metabolism in response to recurrent constraints such
589 as soil water deficit and defoliation, but the degree of severity depends on the constraints. Defoliation
590 had a relatively small impact on N stocks and this, only in the growing season following the second
591 year of defoliation. The impact was mainly expressed through modifications in the within-tree
592 distribution of stored N compounds and the N lost by defoliation was potentially and partially
593 compensated for by soil N uptake. Soil water deficit had a more severe and faster impact on beech
594 trees both in terms of storage and remobilization, which is mainly source-dependent. As our drought-
595 stressed beech trees seemed to have already optimized leaf N resorption as much as possible in the N
596 cycle, no more compensation was possible under drought when soil N was not accessible. Our results
597 suggest that the within-tree N storage capacity and the remobilization of N stores could be threatened
598 under future climatic conditions where soil water deficits will become more frequent and intense. The
599 N cycle should be further studied as it is a possible process involved in drought-induced tree mortality.

600

601 **Data Availability statement**

602

603 The data and materials that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding
604 author upon reasonable request.

605

606 **Supplementary Data**

607 Supplemental figures S1, S2, S3 and S4.

608

609

610 **Conflict of Interest**

611 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

612

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632 **Authors contributions**

633

634 P.M. C.M. and N.B. conceived the idea and acquired the funds; C.M., P.M., P.-A.C. and B.Z. de-
635 signed the methodology and collected samples. P.-A. C. P.T., C.M. and P.M. collected and analyzed
636 the C, N and ¹⁵N data; B.G. and L.C. collected the biochemistry data, P.M. and C.M. analyzed all the
637 data; P.M. and C.M. drafted the manuscript. All the authors revised the manuscript and gave approval
638 of the final manuscript.

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918

UNCORRECTED MANUSCRIPT

919 **Legend captions for tables**

920 **Table 1.** Nitrogen concentrations in green leaves (Ngreen, %DM) in summer 2015 and leaves in the
 921 litter (Nsen, %DM) in winter 2016, and nitrogen resorption efficiency (NuR, %) of the European
 922 beech submitted to the three treatments: control (Co), defoliation (Def) and drought (Dro). Mean ±
 923 SE with n = 12, 11 and 24 for Ngreen in the control, defoliation and drought treatments, respectively,
 924 and n = 6 for Nsen for all treatments in winter 2016. There were no significant differences (p<0.05)
 925 among treatments.

Treatment	Ngreen (%DM)	Nsen (%DM)	NuR (%)
Co	1.83 ± 0.32	0.47 ± 0.16	58
Def	2.28 ± 0.24	0.65 ± 0.22	55
Dro	1.97 ± 0.36	0.44 ± 0.15	61

927
928

929 **Table 2A.** Changes between winter 2015 and spring 2016 in C, N and ¹⁵N amounts in the main organs
 930 of European beech trees (leaf, twigs, dead branches, branches, trunk top, trunk and roots) in the three
 931 treatments: control (Co), defoliation (Def) and drought (Dro). Mean ± SE (n = 6) for each organ
 932 except dead branches (winter: n= 2 Co; n= 4 Def; n= 5 Dro; spring: n= 5 Co; n=5 Def, n=5 Dro).
 933 Lowercase letters indicate significant differences (p<0.05) among treatments for a given date and
 934 organ. Differences between seasons for a given organ and treatment are presented as *(p<0.05), **
 935 (p<0.01) or *** (p<0.001). Note: leaf is litter in winter and mature leaves in spring.

936

Organ	Treatment	Carbon amount (g)		Nitrogen amount (g)		¹⁵ N amount (mg)	
		winter	spring	winter	spring	winter	spring
Leaf	Co	21.49 ± 6.35	80.25 ± 14.68b**	0.25 ± 0.08	3.81 ± 0.63b***	0.61 ± 0.19	6.99 ± 1.33b***
	Def	8.98 ± 2.12	72.82 ± 11.87b***	0.18 ± 0.05	3.64 ± 0.63b**	0.63 ± 0.19	5.75 ± 1.35b**
	Dro	5.99 ± 3.07	14.91 ± 4.18a	0.06 ± 0.03	0.63 ± 0.03a**	0.15 ± 0.05	1.62 ± 0.32a***
Twig	Co	2.16 ± 0.54	5.35 ± 1.79	0.05 ± 0.03	0.09 ± 0.01	0.14 ± 0.02	0.15 ± 0.04
	Def	5.00 ± 1.65	4.08 ± 0.89	0.10 ± 0.03	0.07 ± 0.01	0.53 ± 0.21	0.13 ± 0.01
	Dro	1.41 ± 0.59	2.16 ± 0.49	0.03 ± 0.03	0.05 ± 0.01	0.12 ± 0.02	0.12 ± 0.02

				0.01	0.03		
Branch	Co	84.90 ±	126.71 ±	1.36 ±	1.41 ±	2.55 ±	1.79 ± 0.49
		39.21	31.33 b	0.72	0.32 b	0.95	
	Def	57.27 ±	80.91 ±	1.09 ±	0.93 ±	3.65 ±	1.29 ± 0.11
		16.72	15.22 ab	0.40	0.18 ab	1.18	
	Dro	31.55 ±	34.67 ± 5.98 a	0.47 ±	0.43 ±	1.52 ±	0.89 ± 0.23
		9.28		0.14	0.07 a	0.49	
Dead branch	Co	2.87 ± 1.66	1.16 ± 0.90	0.03 ±	0.01 ± 0.01	0.03 ±	0.01 ± 0.01
				0.01		0.02	
	Def	0.49 ± 0.28	1.12 ± 0.82	0.01 ±	0.01 ± 0.01	0.03 ±	0.04 ± 0.02
				0.00		0.03	
	Dro	2.91 ± 2.39	2.04 ± 1.10	0.03 ±	0.02 ± 0.01	0.05 ±	0.01 ± 0.01
				0.02		0.03	
Trunk Top	Co	16.24 ±	12.44 ±	0.23 ±	0.21 ±	0.36 ±	0.34 ±
		5.03 b	0.94 b	0.07 b	0.02 b	0.09 b	0.06 b
	Def	7.21 ±	3.46 ± 0.99 a*	0.10 ±	0.08 ±	0.19 ±	0.11 ±
		1.31 ab		0.01 ab	0.02 a	0.05 ab	0.03 a
	Dro	2.68 ±	0.80 ± 0.53 a	0.04 ±	0.02 ±	0.08 ±	0.02 ±
		0.85 a		0.01 a	0.01 a	0.02 a	0.01 a
Trunk	Co	164.39 ±	303.05 ±	1.51 ±	2.26 ±	3.49 ±	2.69 ±
		34.40	59.57 b	0.31	0.46 b	0.72 b	0.31 b
	Def	153.59 ±	178.24 ±	1.57 ±	1.39 ±	1.45 ±	1.02 ±
		45.90	21.47 ab	0.45	0.16 a	0.41 a	0.13 a
	Dro	92.49 ±	147.92 ±	0.75 ±	1.23 ±	1.12 ±	1.37 ±
		25.93	29.15 a	0.21	0.27 a	0.28 a	0.36 a
Root	Co	90.63 ±	163.33 ±	0.99 ±	1.56 ± 0.33	2.33 ±	1.36 ±
		23.98	32.53 b	0.30		0.98	0.20 b
	Def	71.90 ±	105.83 ±	0.87 ±	0.98 ± 0.15	0.57 ±	0.27 ±
		19.10	13.84 ab	0.24		0.20	0.06 a
	Dro	41.26 ±	62.76 ±	0.56 ±	0.89 ± 0.12	0.70 ±	0.65 ±
		11.36	11.23 a	0.18		0.21	0.15 a
Total above-ground	Co	290.12 ±	528.76 ±	3.39 ±	7.78 ±	7.15 ±	11.96 ±
		75.15	102.83 b	1.10	1.44 b*	1.61	2.15 b
	Def	232.39 ±	340.44 ±	3.04 ±	6.11 ±	6.47 ±	8.02 ±
		66.25	45.83 ab	0.91	0.88 b*	1.70	1.36 ab
	Dro	136.55 ±	202.16 ±	1.38 ±	2.37 ±	3.03 ±	4.03 ±
		37.08	37.08 a	0.39	0.45 a	0.80	1.69 a
Total tree	Co	380.75 ±	692.09 ±	4.38 ±	9.34 ±	9.49 ±	13.32 ±
		99.08	135.35	1.39 b	1.76 b	2.50	2.25 b
	Def	304.29 ±	446.27 ±	3.91 ±	7.09 ±	7.04 ±	8.29 ±
		85.33	59.63	1.15 ab	1.02 ab	1.82	1.38 ab
	Dro	177.80 ±	264.93 ±	1.96 ±	3.26 ±	3.72 ±	4.67 ±
		48.43	47.70	0.56 a	0.53 a	0.96	0.76 a

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939 **Table 2 B.** Changes between winter 2015 and spring 2016 in C, N and ¹⁵N amounts in the main organs
 940 of European beech trees (leaf, twigs, dead branches, branches, trunk top, trunk and roots) in the three
 941 treatments: control (Co), defoliation (Def) and drought (Dro). Mean ± SE (n = 6) for each organ
 942 except dead branches (winter: n= 2 Co; n= 4 Def; n= 5 Dro; spring: n= 5 Co; n=5 Def, n=5 Dro).

943 Statistical values (represented as F and P values) for season and treatment effect and their interactions
 944 are given for each organ. Note: leaf is litter in winter and mature leaves in spring.

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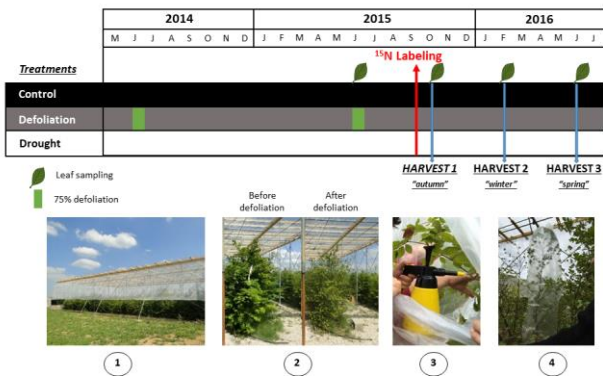
Organ	Amount	Season		Treatment		Season x Treatment	
		F _{value}	P _{value}	F _{value}	P _{value}	F _{value}	P _{value}
Leaf	C	40.419	<0.001	12.435	<0.001	6.4553	0.005
	N	62.343	<0.001	11.464	<0.001	9.4172	<0.001
	¹⁵ N	38.470	<0.001	6.592	0.004	4.496	0.020
Twig	C	1.198	0.283	3.157	0.057	1.695	0.201
	N	0.357	0.555	2.934	0.069	1.394	0.264
	¹⁵ N	3.208	0.083	3.219	0.054	3.162	0.057
Branch	C	1.491	0.232	5.029	0.013	0.357	0.703
	N	0.023	0.882	3.161	0.057	0.042	0.959
	¹⁵ N	4.924	0.034	1.842	0.176	0.973	0.390
Dead branch	C	0.194	0.665	0.703	0.507	0.303	0.742
	N	0.224	0.641	0.769	0.477	0.226	0.800
	¹⁵ N	0.726	0.404	0.128	0.880	0.397	0.678
Trunk Top	C	2.986	0.094	16.937	<0.001	0.121	0.886
	N	0.947	0.338	19.027	<0.001	0.003	0.997
	¹⁵ N	1.836	0.186	17.708	<0.001	0.237	0.791
Trunk	C	5.424	0.027	4.438	0.021	1.183	0.320
	N	1.720	0.200	3.689	0.037	1.068	0.356
	¹⁵ N	0.955	0.336	13.448	<0.001	0.835	0.444
Root	C	6.716	0.015	6.897	0.003	0.875	0.427
	N	3.062	0.090	2.839	0.074	0.515	0.603
	¹⁵ N	1.577	0.219	6.269	0.005	0.606	0.552
Total above-ground	C	6.688	0.015	6.805	0.004	0.960	0.394
	N	13.574	<0.001	8.396	0.001	1.677	0.204
	¹⁵ N	4.155	0.050	8.510	0.001	0.966	0.392
Total tree	C	6.700	0.015	6.832	0.004	0.940	0.402
	N	11.129	0.002	7.073	0.003	1.258	0.299
	¹⁵ N	2.025	0.165	8.653	0.001	0.416	0.663

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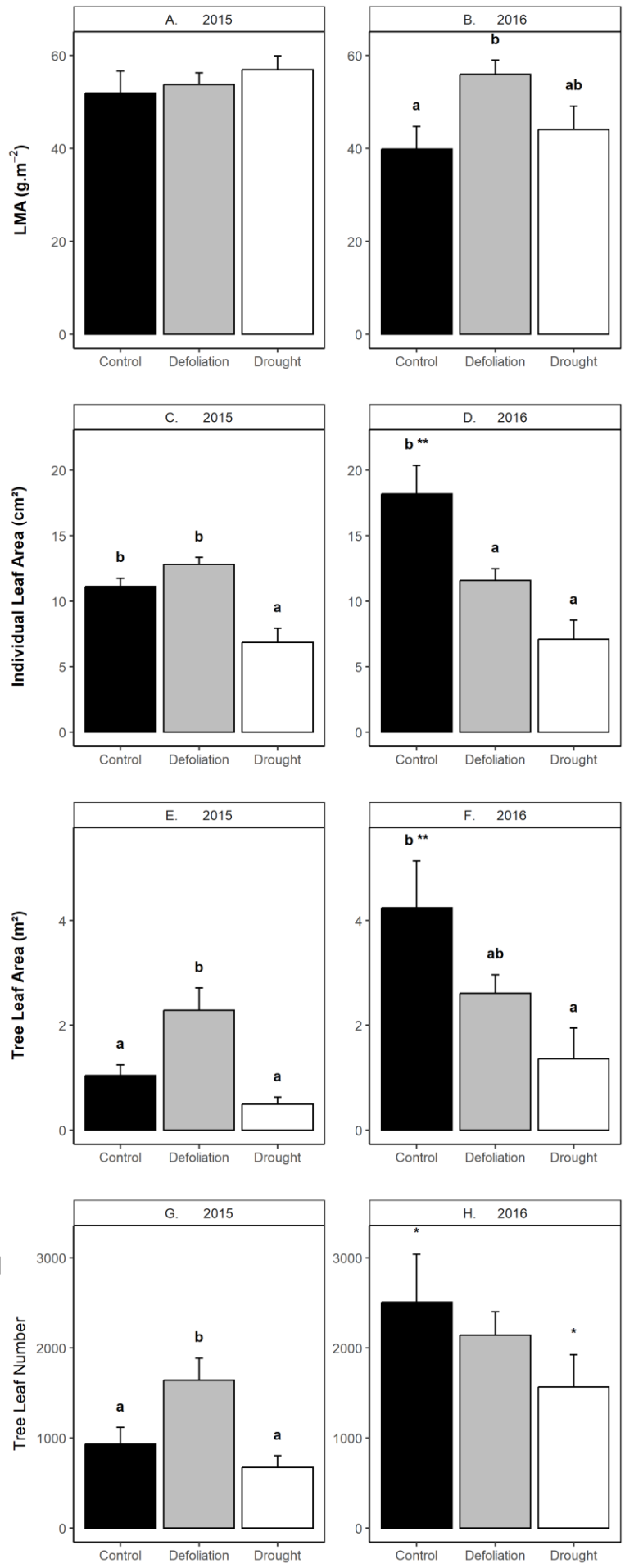
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949 **Legend captions for figures**



950

951 **Figure 1.** Schematic representation of the ¹⁵N labeling experiment: three treatments were applied
 952 from 2014 to 2016: control (Co), defoliation (Def) and drought (Dro). Schedule of the experiment
 953 since the onset in 2014 (Photograph 1). The Co and Dro treatments lasted from May 2014 to June
 954 2016; 75% of the foliage (green box) was removed once a year, in June 2014 and June 2015
 955 (Photograph 2). The foliage was labeled in September 2015 by spraying a ¹⁵N-urea solution on the
 956 leaves of the crown (Photograph 3). A polyethylene bag was installed over the tree before labeling
 957 and remained in place after labeling for a full night; it was then carefully removed the morning after
 958 labeling (Photograph 4). We took a first sample one month after labeling (Harvest 1, autumn) to
 959 confirm that the tracer had been incorporated into the perennial organs via leaf N resorption. Then,
 960 trees were harvested at two key phenological dates, in winter (Harvest 2, in February and in spring
 961 (Harvest 3, in June 2016). Leaf sampling was done in June 2015 and at each harvest date.

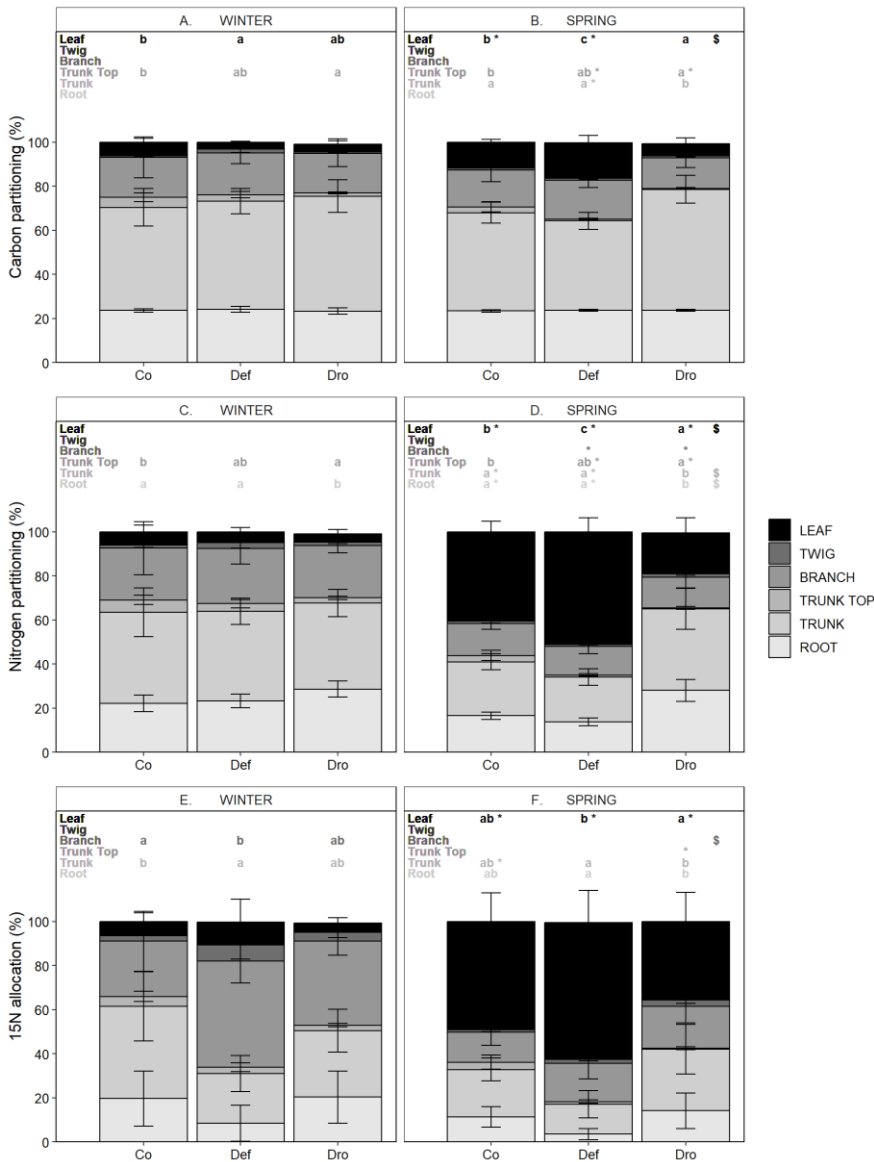


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963 **Figure 2.** Leaf characteristics in June 2015 and June 2016 of the European beech trees submitted to
964 the three treatments: Control (Co), defoliation (Def) and drought (Dro). Leaf mass area (LMA; A),
965 individual leaf area (B), total leaf area (C) and number of leaves per tree (D). “Year effect” is indicated
966 by an asterisk if a significant difference was found between years: *($p < 0.05$), ** ($p < 0.01$) or ***
967 ($p < 0.001$). Mean \pm SE. $n=6$. Different letters indicate a significant difference ($p < 0.05$) among
968 treatments for each year.

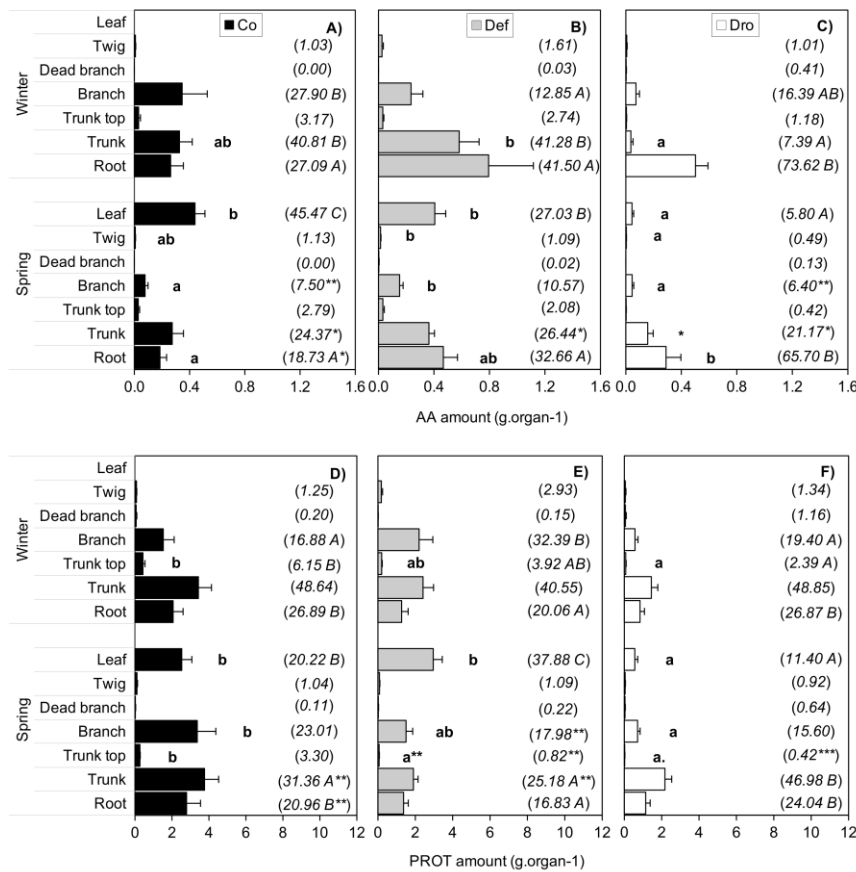
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971 **Figure 3.** Changes in C and N partitioning (%) and ¹⁵N allocation (%) among organs of European
 972 beech trees between winter (A, C, E) and spring (B, D, F). Each line of letters indicates significant
 973 differences between treatments for a given organ: lower light grey letters for the roots, trunk and trunk
 974 top; middle grey letters for branches and twigs; and upper black letters for leaves. Mean ± SE, n = 6
 975 for each organ. Note that leaves were in the litter in winter and were mature leaves removed from the
 976 tree in spring.



977

978 **Figure 4.** Changes between winter and spring amino acid (A to C) and soluble protein (D to F)
 979 amounts (mg. organ⁻¹) and in their partitioning (%) among organs for European beech trees submitted
 980 to three treatments: Control (Co), defoliation (Def) and drought (Dro). Note that for the leaf organ,
 981 leaves were in the litter in winter and were mature leaves removed from the tree in spring. The
 982 numbers in italics and brackets correspond to the % of amino acids or soluble proteins partitioned to
 983 each organ. Uppercase letters indicate significant differences (p<0.05) in partitioning among
 984 treatments for a given date and organ. Lowercase letters indicate significant differences (p<0.05) in
 985 amounts among treatments for a given date and organ. “Season effect” is indicated by an asterisk if a
 986 significant difference was found between winter and spring: * (p<0.05), ** (p<0.01) or *** (p<0.001).
 987 Values are mean ± SE, n = 6 for each organ except dead branches (winter: n= 2 Co; n= 4 Def; n= 5
 988 Dro; spring: n= 5 Co; n=5 Def; n=5 Dro).