

Carbon allocation to root exudates is maintained in mature temperate tree species under drought

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37 Abstract

- 38 • Carbon (C) exuded via roots is proposed to increase under drought and facilitate important
39 ecosystem functions. However, it is unknown how exudate quantities relate to the total C
40 budget of a drought-stressed tree, i.e. how much of net-C assimilation is allocated to exudation
41 at the tree level.
- 42 • We calculated the proportion of daily C assimilation allocated to root exudation during early
43 summer by collecting root exudates from mature *Fagus sylvatica* L. and *Picea abies* (L.) Karst.
44 exposed to experimental drought, and combining above- and belowground C fluxes with leaf,
45 stem, and fine-root surface area.
- 46 • Exudation from individual roots increased exponentially with decreasing soil moisture, with the
47 highest increase at the wilting point. Despite ~50 % reduced C assimilation under drought,
48 exudation from fine-root systems was maintained and trees exuded 1.0 % (*F. sylvatica*) to 2.5 %
49 (*P. abies*) of net C into the rhizosphere, increasing the proportion of C allocation to exudates
50 two- to threefold. Water-limited *P. abies* released two-thirds of its exudate-C into the surface
51 soil, whereas it was only one-third in droughted *F. sylvatica*.
- 52 • Across the entire root system, droughted trees maintained exudation similar to controls,
53 suggesting drought-imposed belowground C investment, which could be beneficial for
54 ecosystem resilience.

55 **Keywords:** Belowground-carbon allocation; carbon partitioning; experimental drought; fine-root
56 exudation; *Fagus sylvatica* (European beech); *Picea abies* (Norway spruce); rhizosphere; temperate-
57 forest C budget

58 1. Introduction

59 In recent years, important processes controlling ecosystem carbon (C) dynamics and plant
60 susceptibility to drought have been identified in the rhizosphere - the interface between plant roots
61 and the soil environment (Finzi *et al.*, 2015; Joseph *et al.*, 2020; Williams & de Vries, 2020). In this
62 narrow zone, plants interact with their environment by releasing root exudates, which fulfill
63 fundamental roles in the regulation of microbial growth (de Graaff *et al.*, 2010), the liberation of C
64 from protective associations with minerals (Keiluweit *et al.*, 2015), maintenance of soil hydrological
65 properties (Carminati *et al.*, 2016) and communication with plants and other organisms (Bais *et al.*,
66 2006). Collectively, these interactions facilitate water and nutrient acquisition (Coskun *et al.*, 2017;
67 Williams *et al.*, 2021), microbiome selection (van Dam & Bouwmeester, 2016), and plant species
68 interactions (Ehlers *et al.*, 2020) that can alleviate plant stress (Vives-Peris *et al.*, 2020). Potential shifts
69 in C allocation to exudates in drought-exposed ecosystems can affect many of the processes influenced
70 by root exudates. However, although drought is a major natural risk that threatens the functionality of
71 long-living ecosystems such as forests in the 21st century (IPCC, 2018), we do not know how shifts in
72 C allocation to root exudates in response to soil water limitation are related to tree C budgets.

73 Trees respond to reduced water supply by modifying their belowground C allocation (Rühr *et al.*, 2009;
74 Hagedorn *et al.*, 2016; Hommel *et al.*, 2016) and potentially increase root exudation rates (Karst *et al.*,
75 2017; Karlowsky *et al.*, 2018; Preece *et al.*, 2018; de Vries *et al.*, 2019; Jakoby *et al.*, 2020). However,
76 most studies only use single root branches – defined as ephemeral terminal branch orders – to describe
77 a plant's exudation behavior, which does not consider changes in root growth, distribution, and
78 longevity that can also be significantly altered under drought (Nikolova *et al.*, 2020; Zwetsloot &
79 Bauerle, 2021). Allometric scaling of root exudates from a single root branch to the entire root system,
80 while accounting for changes in root production and longevity, can advance our understanding of
81 species-specific belowground C allocation patterns during periods of drought and improve terrestrial
82 biosphere models (Fatichi *et al.*, 2019). In combination with an assessment of aboveground net-C
83 assimilation, calculating the balance of belowground C allocation dynamics can identify whether trees
84 “invest” in the production of root exudates under drought.

85 Belowground C allocation has been assessed in pot experiments with small annual or perennial species
86 (Kaštovská *et al.*, 2015; de Vries *et al.*, 2019) and tree saplings (Hagedorn *et al.*, 2016; Preece *et al.*,
87 2018). However, findings from these experiments cannot be easily translated to mature forest
88 ecosystems. Soil water dynamics not only deviate drastically between homogenized and naturally
89 developed field soils but also between surface soil and subsoil. Consequently, it is difficult to simulate
90 exudation dynamics in artificial setups and field-based studies are required to understand how an
91 entire root system responds to drought. Previous studies addressing the impact of drought on root

92 exudation failed to include measurements across different soil depths, although general vertical
93 variations in exudation rates were identified (Finzi *et al.*, 2015; Tückmantel *et al.*, 2017). However,
94 altered root distribution patterns with depth may affect root-system level exudation and consequently
95 whole-tree C budgets. Stable-isotope labeling studies have allowed C-flux integration over the entire
96 rooting zone but this was usually achieved by tracing belowground C allocation via microbial activity
97 (Joseph *et al.*, 2020; Gao *et al.*, 2021). Since microbial respiration is hampered under drought (Moyano
98 *et al.*, 2013), tracing C via microbial activity may hide potential increases in exudation, particularly if
99 vertical variations occur. To scale root exudates to C-allocation dynamics in a forest ecosystem,
100 vertically separated *in situ* exudate capture, combined with belowground root abundance is needed.

101 Root growth and exudation responses to water limitation may vary among tree species according to
102 their drought susceptibility. Shallow-rooting species can be particularly vulnerable to drought; for
103 example, when exposed to seasonal drought, *Picea abies* (L.) Karst., one of Central Europe's most
104 abundant and economically important tree species (Caudullo *et al.*, 2016) had a five-fold higher
105 mortality rate compared to *Fagus sylvatica* L. (Pretzsch *et al.*, 2020), a broadleaf species representing
106 the widespread natural vegetation in Central Europe (Fang & Lechowicz, 2006). Each species exhibited
107 different root responses to drought, with *F. sylvatica* having an inherently deeper root system (Schmid
108 & Kazda, 2002), reduced fine-root diameter, and increased specific root area to improve water uptake
109 (Comas *et al.*, 2013; Hertel *et al.*, 2013; Nikolova *et al.*, 2020). By contrast, *P. abies* did not respond to
110 soil moisture deficit by growing new, deeper roots but instead prolonged existing fine-root lifespan
111 (Zwetsloot & Bauerle, 2021). It is likely that earlier seasonal transpiration by *P. abies* compared to
112 deciduous *F. sylvatica* results in lower soil moisture under *P. abies* throughout the year (Grams *et al.*,
113 2021). Thus, the potential lack of access to water from deeper soil and overall lower soil moisture may
114 amplify the susceptibility of *P. abies* to drought. Given the potentially crucial role of root exudates in
115 response to water limitation, greater root exudation by both *F. sylvatica* and *P. abies* would be
116 anticipated at root branches located in dry soils. In *P. abies*, prolonged root-system lifespan in dry
117 surface soils may imply higher exudation across a larger proportion of *P. abies* root systems. By
118 contrast, for the more dynamic root system of *F. sylvatica*, overall exudation amounts are harder to
119 predict.

120 In this study, we utilized a novel throughfall-exclusion experiment in a mature temperate forest, which
121 imposed five years of severe drought during the entire growing season, to test if the allocation of
122 photosynthates to root exudation increases under drought. We combined vertically distributed *in situ*
123 root exudation measurements with fine-root surface area observations throughout the soil profile of
124 mature *P. abies* and *F. sylvatica* trees to identify C partitioning at the whole-tree level. We
125 hypothesized that 1) roots in dry surface soils exude more C than roots in deeper moist soils and root

126 exudation rates are negatively correlated with soil water content across root-accessible soil depths.
127 Therefore, allocation of C to exudates will be greater for the more drought-susceptible *P. abies* than
128 for *F. sylvatica*. We further hypothesized that 2) at the tree level, the proportion of C exuded by roots
129 increases relative to net-photosynthetic C assimilation, which could be considered as a greater
130 investment into root exudation in water-limited trees.

131 2. Materials and Methods

132 2.1. Site description

133 Sampling occurred at the 'Kranzberg Forest Roof' (KROOF) long-term drought experiment located in
134 southern Bavaria, Germany (N 48° 25.2'; E 11° 39.7'). Drought was imposed on six throughfall exclusion
135 plots (sizes between 110 and 200 m²; Grams *et al.* (2021)) via automated understory roofs that
136 withheld throughfall during the growing season (April to November). On average, roof closure withheld
137 c. 70% of total annual precipitation during five years of simulated drought (Grams *et al.*, 2021). Six
138 additional plots without roofs served as non-droughted controls. The mixed stands comprised large
139 groups of *F. sylvatica* (90 ± 4 years old) surrounded by *P. abies* (70 ± 2 years old) trees. Each plot
140 consisted of an *F. sylvatica* and a *P. abies* cohort with 3-6 individuals each (Grams *et al.*, 2021). The soil
141 at the site originated from Loess over Tertiary sediments and was classified as haplic Luvisol (FAO
142 Classification) with moder type humus. Sediments form a loamy dense layer at c. 50 cm depth that is
143 difficult for roots to penetrate, so that > 90% of roots are found between 0-50 cm depth (Häberle *et*
144 *al.*, 2012). Soil pH was between 3.8-4.6 (*P. abies*: 4.1, *F. sylvatica*: 4.5) and C:N ratios typically decreased
145 with depth and were higher under *P. abies* (14.4 ± 0.6) compared to *F. sylvatica* (12.5 ± 0.4; Table S1).
146 During the sampling period (26 May - 03 June 2019), relative humidity (rH) and temperature at 2 m
147 height were 82.9 ± 0.4 % and 16.8 ± 0.1 °C, respectively. Above the canopy, photosynthetically active
148 radiation (PAR) was 655.5 ± 17.9 μmol s⁻¹ m⁻² during the day (recorded in 10-min). Precipitation
149 amounted to 17.7 mm during sampling (withheld on droughted plots). Soil moisture was assessed
150 across the soil profile as volumetric soil water content (SWC in vol.-%) using time domain reflectometry
151 sensors (TDR, Campbell Scientific, Logan, USA) installed vertically at 0-7 cm, 7-30 cm and 30-50 cm
152 depth increments.

153 2.2 Root exudate collection and analysis

154 We sampled intact root branches in each of three drought and three control plots in previously
155 installed root window boxes (40 cm long, 40 cm wide, c. 50 cm high; *n* = 3 per plot) that allowed access
156 to roots without disturbing the experimental site. Root branches, comprising 1st-3rd order roots
157 attached to a single transport root, were randomly selected for sampling (Figure S1). Sampled root
158 branches had an average weight of 0.20 ± 0.02 g, an average fine-root (≤ 2 mm diameter) surface area

159 of $17.15 \pm 1.83 \text{ cm}^2$ and 23.9 ± 4.5 tips per cm^2 root surface area (Table S2). We sampled exudates from
160 root branches growing in surface soils at the interface between the organic layer and mineral soil (0-7
161 cm depth) and the mineral soil (7-30 cm depth) according to Phillips *et al.* (2008). Briefly, root branches
162 were carefully excavated, and the soil was gently removed with tweezers and by rinsing with a nutrient
163 solution to limit osmotic stress (0.5 mM NH_4NO_3 , 0.1 mM KH_2PO_4 , 0.2 mM K_2SO_4 , 0.15 mM MgSO_4 , 0.3
164 mM CaCl_2). We excluded dead roots and roots that did not pass a vitality check (i.e. no lateral roots
165 present or black tissue color) from sampling and evaluation. Afterwards, root branches were left to
166 recover for 48 hours in a 1:1 mixture of sand and native soil from the site, cleaned again, and placed
167 into 30-ml glass syringes containing sterile glass beads simulating a physical soil environment. Syringes
168 were flushed three times with the nutrient solution and then equilibrated for 48 hours, flushed again,
169 and left wrapped in aluminum foil and covered with leaf litter. After another 48 hours, we extracted
170 root exudates trapped in the syringes using a membrane pump after adding 30 ml nutrient solution.
171 We sampled 36 root branches in total, 18 from *F. sylvatica* and 18 from *P. abies* at either 0-7 cm or 7-
172 30 cm soil depth (Table S3). Blank syringes ($n = 4$) with glass beads, flushed with nutrient solution but
173 without root branches, served as a reference. Root exudates were filtered through sterile syringe filters
174 ($0.22 \mu\text{m}$, ROTILABO® MCE, Carl Roth GmbH + Co. KG, Karlsruhe, Germany) and stored at 4°C until
175 analysis. All consumables were acid-washed in 1% HNO_3 before use. Root exudation below 30 cm soil
176 depth was estimated from minirhizotron and soil water content data (see 2.4.4.).

177 Exudate samples were quantitatively analyzed for total non-purgeable organic carbon concentration
178 (TOC) with a multi N/C 2100 S (Analytik Jena GmbH, Jena, Germany). The method included the removal
179 of total inorganic carbon by adding $50 \mu\text{l}$ 2 M HCl and flushing with synthetic air (180 s). The detection
180 limit was $69.8 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$.

181 2.3 Root characteristics

182 All root branches were harvested after exudate collection and scanned at 1200 dpi (Epson Perfection
183 4990 Photo, SEIKO Epson CORPORATION, Tokyo, Japan). Root-surface area and the number of root tips
184 were determined using WinRhizo (WinRHIZO Pro 2016a, Regent Instruments Inc., Quebec, Canada).
185 Root branches were dried and total dry biomass was recorded. Measured exudate TOC was expressed
186 per root-surface area with a diameter $\leq 2 \text{ mm}$ (henceforth: fine roots) of each branch, to correspond
187 to sampled roots from soil coring (see 2.4.4). We also related exudation rates to the dry biomass of
188 the branches (Figure S2) and to absorptive-root density (Figure S3), calculated as the number of root
189 tips per unit of total surface area of the root branches (Table S2). Similar trends with treatment and
190 depth were observed regardless of which parameters were used for normalization.

191 2.4 Assessment of C fluxes and parameters for scaling to the rooting zone and the tree 192 level

193 2.4.1. C assimilation

194 To quantify C assimilation, light-saturated (Photosynthetically active Photon Flux Density:
195 $1500 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) gas exchange rates (A_{sat}) were determined at 400 ppm carbon dioxide (CO_2)
196 concentration for two trees per species and plot using an open gas-exchange system (LI-6800, Li-Cor
197 Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA) over two weeks in June 2019. Gas exchange rates were modeled for leaves in
198 the shade crown for both species and six different needle ages for *P. abies* (see supplement). Light
199 response curves were derived for leaves in the sun and shade crowns of *F. sylvatica* and *P. abies*,
200 assuming steady assimilation at respective light saturation points (Larcher, 2001; Matyssek, 2010), a
201 linear decrease between light saturation and light compensation and leaf respiration below light
202 compensation (see supplement). Assimilation rates were derived from light response curves during
203 each 10-min interval when PAR was measured during exudate sampling. Daily assimilation rates were
204 calculated assuming constant light conditions within these 10-min intervals. The total leaf area for *F.*
205 *sylvatica* and *P. abies* was calculated using allometric equations determined individually for both
206 species based on tree diameter and tree height (Patzner (2004); Table S7). No reduction in the leaf
207 area was detected for *F. sylvatica* or the shade crown of *P. abies* in drought plots, while the leaf area
208 in the sun crown of *P. abies* trees in drought plots was c. 50 % lower compared to trees on control plots
209 (data not shown) and the reduction was considered in our calculations accordingly. To obtain daily C
210 assimilation per tree, leaf areas of the shade and sun crown were multiplied with assessed assimilation
211 rates. Daily C assimilation was summed for all trees per species and plot and divided by plot size (Grams
212 *et al.*, 2021) to obtain assimilation per species and m^2 and day, assuming each species occupied 50 %
213 of the plots as species distribution was uniform (Grams *et al.*, 2021).

214 2.4.2. Stem respiration

215 Stem respiration ($\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ stem area and s}^{-1}$) was measured on two *F. sylvatica* and two *P. abies*
216 trees per plot using custom-built chambers ($60\text{-}204 \text{ cm}^2$) that were sealed to the stem at 1-m height
217 with Terostat-IX (Henkel AG & Co. KGaA, Duesseldorf, Germany). Respired CO_2 was measured with a
218 Delta Ray Isotope Ratio Infrared Spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) in 5-min
219 intervals during day and night when C assimilation measurements took place. The cumulative daily
220 stem respiration was calculated for each tree on days when C assimilation was measured, and scaled
221 to the total tree stem area based on tree diameter and height (based on a conical tree shape; McDaniel
222 *et al.* (2012), Rance *et al.* (2012); Table S7), assuming unchanged respiration rates along the stem (see
223 supplement).

224 2.4.3. Soil and root respiration

225 Soil respiration rates were used to estimate the microbial response to drought and to calculate root
 226 respiration. Soil CO₂ efflux (μmol m⁻² plot area and s⁻¹) was measured via permanent soil collars (PVC
 227 pipe, 20-cm inner diameter, 12 cm height), which were inserted c. 2 cm deep into the soil and sampled
 228 every 30 min to 1 h per tree species for seven days in each plot (*n* = 1-3 per species and plot) using a
 229 multiplexed automated soil-chamber system (LiCor-8100M, LiCor Biosciences, Lincoln, NE, USA), and
 230 the daily sum was calculated per plot (see supplements). We averaged the daily sums of seven-day
 231 measurement periods per plot and species to calculate the contribution of root respiration to total soil
 232 respiration using estimates from the site, i.e. 50 % for *F. sylvatica* and control *P. abies* trees and 40 %
 233 for *P. abies* trees on drought plots (Nikolova, 2007).

234 2.4.4. Exudation at the root system and tree level

235 Fine-root biomass, surface area, and number of tips per plot were assessed using two soil cores (34 mm
 236 diameter) per species and plot in October 2018. Cores were taken randomly within the rooting zones
 237 of each species and divided into two depth increments (0-7 cm and 7-30 cm mineral soil depth; Nickel
 238 *et al.* (2018). Fine roots (≤ 2 mm) were extracted from cores by washing with tap water and separated
 239 by species under a stereomicroscope. Fine roots were scanned and analyzed for surface area and the
 240 number of tips using WinRhizo (WinRHIZO Pro 2016a, Regent Instruments Inc.), and subsequently
 241 dried to assess dry fine-root biomass. Fine-root surface area (*Fr_{sa}*) per m² for each species and soil
 242 depth was calculated from fine-root surface area per soil core (*Fr_{core}*), using the core volume (*V_{core}*) and
 243 the respective thickness of the soil depth increment (7 cm for 0-7 cm and 23 cm for 7-30 cm soil depth):

$$244 \quad Fr_{sa} = \frac{Fr_{core}}{V_{core}} * depth (0.07 m / 0.23 m) * 10,000 (m^2 m^{-2})$$

245 The total number of fine-root tips per m² was calculated using the same function, i.e. by dividing root
 246 tips per soil core by core volume and multiplying by soil increment thickness.

247 Although most fine roots of both species were in the upper 30 cm (Zwetsloot *et al.*, 2019), we
 248 estimated fine-root surface area at 30-50 cm soil depth to integrate over the entire rooting zone
 249 (Häberle *et al.*, 2012). Since no soil cores were taken to this depth, we analyzed images from
 250 minirhizotron tubes (six per plot, capturing roots of both species and each reaching a vertical depth of
 251 50 cm), taken every two weeks during the growing season, and once a month during the winter months
 252 with a minirhizotron camera (BTC-100X Camera, Bartz Technology, Carpinteria, California; Zwetsloot
 253 *et al.*, 2019; see supplements). We analyzed the number of root tips from minirhizotron images for the
 254 7-30 cm and 30-50 cm depth layers, respectively, and calculated their ratio to estimate fine-root
 255 surface area below 30 cm. There were 1.9 times more tips at 7-30 cm than at 30-50 cm for *F. sylvatica*,

256 and 12.4 times more tips for *P. abies*. Using these factors, the total number of root tips for the 30-
257 50 cm soil was calculated from the number of root tips obtained from cores:

$$258 \quad Tips_{30-50} = \frac{Tips_{7-30}}{1.9/12.4}$$

259 A non-linear regression between the number of fine-root tips and fine-root surface area ($Fr_{sa} = 8.1 *
260 \quad Tips^{0.3}$, $R^2=0.4$, $p < .001$) was then used to estimate fine-root surface area at 30-50 cm depth.

261 To obtain root-system level exudation ($g C m^{-2} day^{-1}$), fine-root surface area ($m^2 m^{-2}$) was multiplied by
262 exudation rates of the individual root branches ($g C cm^{-2} day^{-1}$, Figure 1). We used the relationship
263 between soil water content and exudation rates across both species at 0-30 cm (Figure 2C) to estimate
264 exudation rates based on soil water content at 30-50 cm depth. Finally, to assess whole-tree C
265 exudation, we calculated root-system exudation per m^2 plot surface area (Ex_{fra}) as a relative proportion
266 of net-C assimilation:

$$267 \quad Ex_{fra} = \frac{\sum Exudation (0 - 50 \text{ cm depth})}{Net \text{ assimilation } (Assimilation - Stem \text{ resp.} - Root \text{ resp.})} \frac{(g C m^{-2} day^{-1})}{(g C m^{-2} day^{-1})}$$

268 2.5 Statistics

269 All statistical analyses were conducted in R (version R 3.6.3, R Development Core Team 2020) in the
270 RStudio environment (version 1.2.1335, RStudio Team, 2019). We used linear mixed-effects models
271 (*lme* function in the *nlme* package; version 3.1-137, Pinheiro *et al.* (2018)) with plot as random effect
272 to test the relationship between dependent variables (exudation, assimilation, respiration, root
273 characteristics) and independent variables (soil depth, treatment (control or drought) and species).
274 The significance of individual terms and interactions of independent variables were determined by
275 likelihood ratio tests using the *anova* function. Pairwise post-hoc testing of significant terms and
276 interactions was performed using the *emmeans* function (*emmeans* package version 1.5.2-1, Searle *et*
277 *al.* (1980)). Differences were considered as significant at $p < .05$. We checked if the model assumptions
278 of homoscedasticity (*leveneTest* function in the *car* package, version 2.1-2, Fox and Weisberg (2019))
279 and normal distribution of residuals (*shapiro.test*) were met and transformed dependent variables,
280 where necessary. We performed a non-linear regression (*nls*) to fit a power function for the
281 relationship between root exudation rates and soil water content. The coefficient of determination
282 and p -value for the regression were estimated from power transformation and linear regression of the
283 data. Finally, we assumed that the maximum curvature of the power function represented the highest
284 increase in exudation with SWC. Therefore, we calculated the first derivation of the power function
285 and, using the *optimize* function (*stats* package, version 4.0.4), assessed the maximum curvature of
286 the power function as a threshold for increased exudation with SWC. Results are presented as mean
287 values ± 1 standard error (1 SE) for $n = 3$ plots per treatment and species.

288 3. Results

289 3.1. Soil water content

290 Volumetric soil water content (SWC) was lower in drought plots compared to control plots for both
 291 species but the difference was only significant at 0-7 cm depth (Table 1). Under drought, *P. abies* trees
 292 tended to have the lowest SWC across all soil depths and 0-7 cm soils were significantly drier than the
 293 deeper 7-30 cm and 30-50 cm soils under both species (Table 1). In the control plots, SWC at 0-7 cm
 294 depth was lower than SWC below 30 cm but neither differed from SWC at 7-30 cm (Table 1).

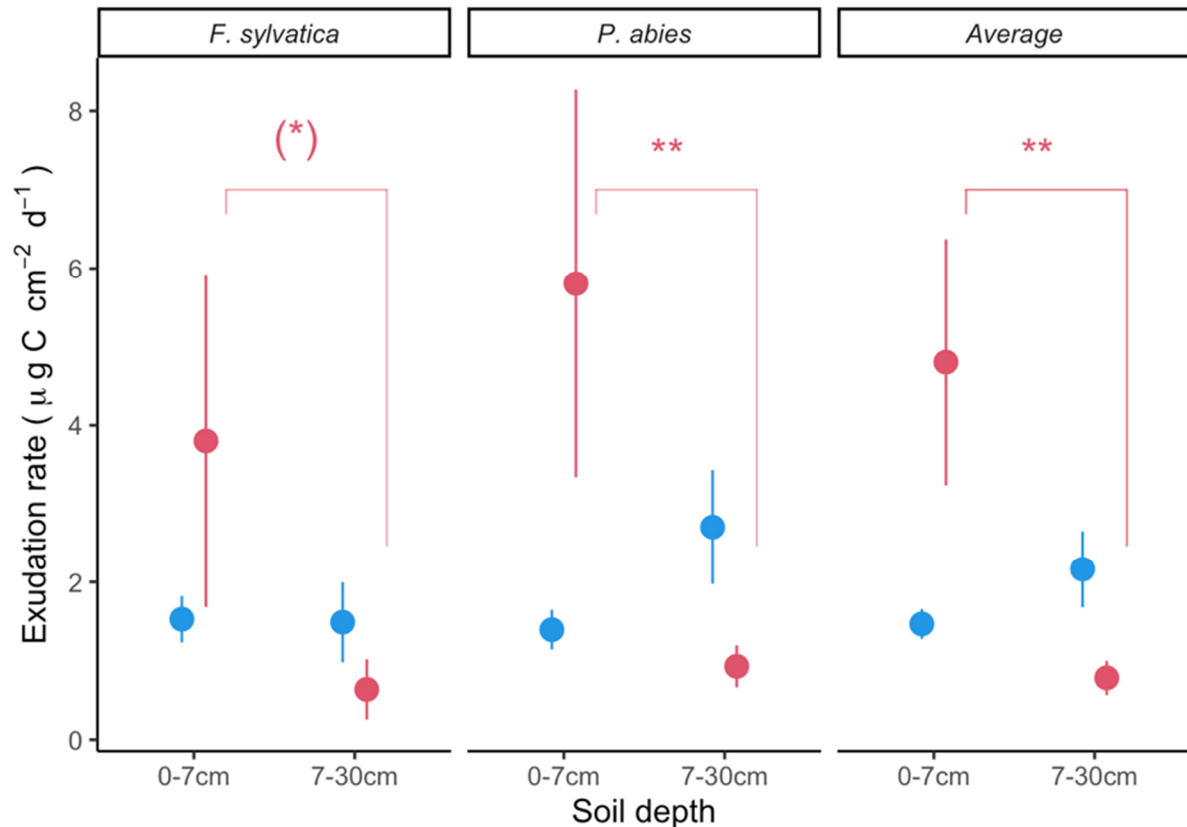
295 **Table 1:** Soil volumetric water content (SWC in vol-%) per soil depth increment (0-7 cm, 7-30 cm, and 30-50 cm) under *F.*
 296 *sylvatica* and *P. abies* trees on control and drought plots in the KROOF drought experiment.

Species	Treatment	0-7 cm	7-30 cm	30-50 cm
<i>F. sylvatica</i>	Control	28.1 (1.6) ^{a A}	29.8 (1.4) ^{a AB}	34.8 (2.2) ^{a B}
	Drought	10.4 (1.3) ^{b A}	20.1 (0.9) ^{ab B}	28.3 (1.3) ^{ab C}
<i>P. abies</i>	Control	25.1 (1.8) ^{a A}	26.9 (2.0) ^{ab AB}	31.2 (2.0) ^{ab B}
	Drought	8.9 (1.1) ^{b A}	18.0 (1.4) ^{b B}	22.2 (3.3) ^{b B}

297 SWC was measured on 27 May, before exudate sampling. Lowercase letters indicate significant ($p < .05$) differences between
 298 species and treatments within each soil depth increment (0-7 cm, 7-30 cm, and 30-50 cm, respectively). Capital letters indicate
 299 significant differences between soil depths within the same species and treatment. Values are given as means with standard
 300 errors for $n = 3$ plots per treatment.

301 3.2. Exudation rates of single root branches

302 Neither biomass nor fine-root surface area of root branches differed between species, treatments or
 303 depths, whereas root tip abundance and estimated absorptive-root density were overall higher in *F.*
 304 *sylvatica* than in *P. abies* (Table S2). Exudation rates were significantly higher in the dry 0-7 cm soil
 305 than in the more moist 7-30 cm soil, for both species in drought plots (Figure 1, Figure S1 and Figure
 306 S2). Exudation rates per fine-root surface area were $3.8 \pm 2.1 \mu\text{g C cm}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in 0-7 cm depth and $0.6 \pm$
 307 $0.4 \mu\text{g C cm}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in 7-30 cm depth for *F. sylvatica* ($p = .1$) and $5.8 \pm 2.5 \mu\text{g C cm}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in 0-7 cm and $0.9 \pm$
 308 $0.3 \mu\text{g C cm}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in 7-30 cm for *P. abies* ($p < .01$; Figure 1). In the control plots, where the vertical SWC
 309 distribution was more homogeneous, exudation rates did not differ across soil depths for either
 310 species. Average exudation rates per fine-root surface area did not differ between drought plots and
 311 control plots. However, in the drought plots, there was a strong trend towards increased exudation in
 312 the 0-7 cm depth and decreased exudation in 7-30 cm depth compared to controls (Figure 1).



313

314 **Figure 1:** Fine-root exudation rates (branch-level exudation) per fine-root surface area in *F. sylvatica*, *P. abies* and average
 315 values over both species in control (blue) and drought (red) plots in the KROOF experiment. Significant differences between
 316 0-7 cm and 7-30 cm soil depths for the drought plots are indicated with red asterisks, where (*) is $p = .1$, and ** is $p < .01$.
 317 Symbols and whiskers indicate means \pm standard errors for $n = 3$ plots per treatment.

318 Exudation rates of root branches per fine-root surface area declined with increasing SWC across
 319 treatments and soil depths in *P. abies*. Although a similar trend of declining exudation with increasing
 320 SWC was detected in *F. sylvatica*, the relationship was not statistically significant (Figure 2). Overall,
 321 root branches exuded more C at lower SWC than at higher SWC under drought (Figure 2, Figure S4). In
 322 both species, a single root branch in the driest 0-7 cm soil exuded substantially higher amounts of C
 323 than all other root samples (Figure 2). However, there were no distinctive features to these roots -
 324 other than being in the driest soils - that would justify removing them from the dataset. Interestingly,
 325 expressing exudation rates per number of root tips (Figure S5) brought the exudation rate in the *F.*
 326 *sylvatica* root branch with the highest exudation rate closer to the mean values of the other root
 327 branches, supporting our assumption that the high exudation rates were reliable. Due to the high
 328 variability in a few data points, we also ran the regression analyses without the two high-exuding
 329 branches in the driest soils and obtained a similar relationship between root exudation and SWC
 330 regardless of whether or not these two datapoints were included in the model (Figure S6). We
 331 identified a SWC threshold (the maximum curvature of the power function) at which exudation rates
 332 increased, which was similar for both species: 9.1 vol-% SWC for *P. abies* and 8.3 vol-% for *F. sylvatica*

333 (Figure 2). This SWC threshold was in the range of the permanent wilting point of the soil on the site
 334 (7.4 - 13.5 vol-%; Grams *et al.* (2021)).

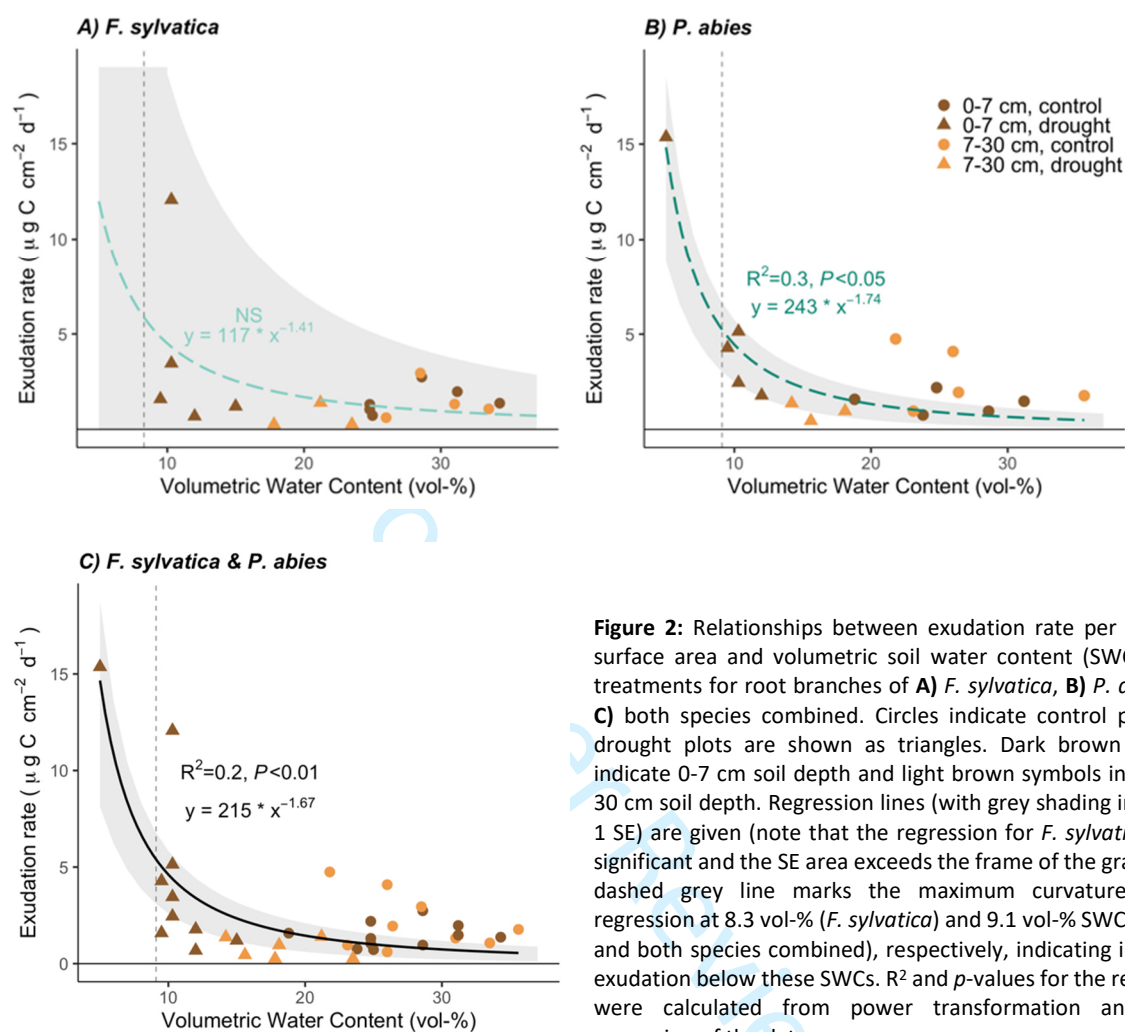


Figure 2: Relationships between exudation rate per fine-root surface area and volumetric soil water content (SWC) across treatments for root branches of **A)** *F. sylvatica*, **B)** *P. abies* and **C)** both species combined. Circles indicate control plots and drought plots are shown as triangles. Dark brown symbols indicate 0-7 cm soil depth and light brown symbols indicate 7-30 cm soil depth. Regression lines (with grey shading indicating 1 SE) are given (note that the regression for *F. sylvatica* is not significant and the SE area exceeds the frame of the graph). The dashed grey line marks the maximum curvature of the regression at 8.3 vol-% (*F. sylvatica*) and 9.1 vol-% SWC (*P. abies* and both species combined), respectively, indicating increased exudation below these SWCs. R^2 and p -values for the regression were calculated from power transformation and linear regression of the data.

352 3.3. Root exudation and carbon allocation at the root system and the tree level

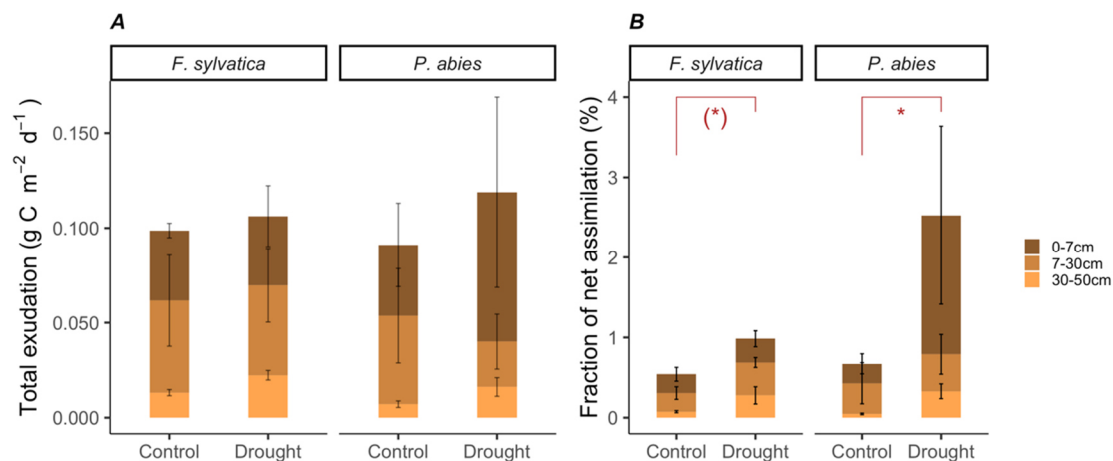
353 Fine-root surface area did not differ between treatments (Table 2). However, for both species there
 354 was a trend towards a smaller proportion of fine-root surface area at 0-7 cm depth in the drought
 355 plots, while the proportion of fine-root surface area at 7-30 cm and 30-50 cm soil depth was greater
 356 compared to the controls (Table 2).

357 **Table 2:** Fine-root (≤ 2 mm) surface area and depth distribution of *F. sylvatica* and *P. abies* trees on control and drought plots
 358 in the KROOF drought experiment.

Species	Treatment	Fine-root area	0-7 cm	7-30 cm	30-50 cm
		$m^2 m^{-2}$	Fine root distribution (%)		
<i>F. sylvatica</i>	Control	8.7 (1.1)	33.5 (7.4)	40.1 (6.4)	26.4 (0.9)
	Drought	9.0 (0.9)	19.5 (5.7)	51.5 (6.2)	29.1 (1.3)
<i>P. abies</i>	Control	5.4 (0.6)	43.4 (16.4)	37.4 (13.1)	19.2 (3.3)
	Drought	4.1 (0.8)	34.3 (11.9)	46.1 (12.4)	19.6 (1.2)

359 Numbers right of the dotted line give the fine-root distribution (as % of the total fine-root surface area) across the soil profile
 360 in three depth increments. Note that fine-root abundance at 30-50 cm depth was modeled from minirhizotron regression
 361 data (see methods). There were no significant differences between treatments. Values are given as means with standard
 362 errors for $n = 3$ plots per treatment.

363 Scaled to the root-system level, fine-root exudation across all soil depths did not differ between species
 364 or treatments (Figure 3A). Fine-root exudation of *F. sylvatica* trees was $0.099 \pm 0.023 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in
 365 control plots and $0.106 \pm 0.037 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in drought plots, whereas fine-root exudation of *P. abies*
 366 amounted to $0.091 \pm 0.021 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in control and $0.119 \pm 0.044 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in drought plots (Figure
 367 3A).



368

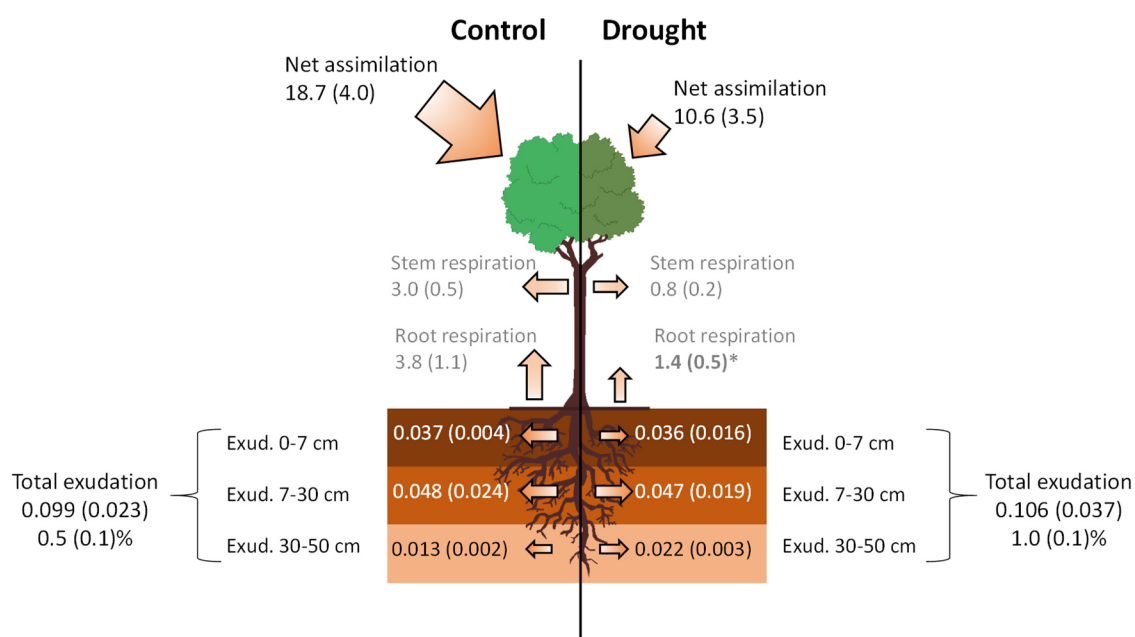
369 **Figure 3:** Fine-root exudation of *F. sylvatica* and *P. abies* trees integrated over three rooting depths in the KROOF experiment
 370 as **A**) total fine-root exudation (root-system level exudation) in g C m^{-2} plot surface area and day^{-1} , and **B**) as a fraction of net
 371 assimilation of the trees (tree-level exudation: Ex_{fra} , in %). Significant differences are highlighted, with (*) indicating $p = .1$,
 372 and * indicating $p < .05$. Bars and whiskers indicate means \pm standard errors for $n = 3$ plots per treatment. Note that values
 373 for 30-50 cm soil depth were modeled from minirhizotron and soil water content data (see methods). Exudation data were
 374 integrated over a two-week period in early summer.

375 The amount of C exuded at the root-system level did not change with soil depth for *F. sylvatica*, but
 376 there was a trend towards higher exudation rates below 30 cm depth in drought ($0.022 \pm 0.003 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$)
 377 compared to control plots ($0.013 \pm 0.002 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, Figure 3A, Figure 4). In drought plots, *P. abies*
 378 tended to exude more at 0-7 cm and 30-50 cm depth ($0.079 \pm 0.050 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ and $0.016 \pm 0.005 \text{ g C}$
 379 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, respectively) than in control plots, whereas exudation at 7-30 cm depth ($0.024 \pm 0.014 \text{ g C m}^{-2}$
 380 d^{-1}) was lower than in control plots ($0.047 \pm 0.025 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, $p > .05$; Figure 3A, Figure 4).

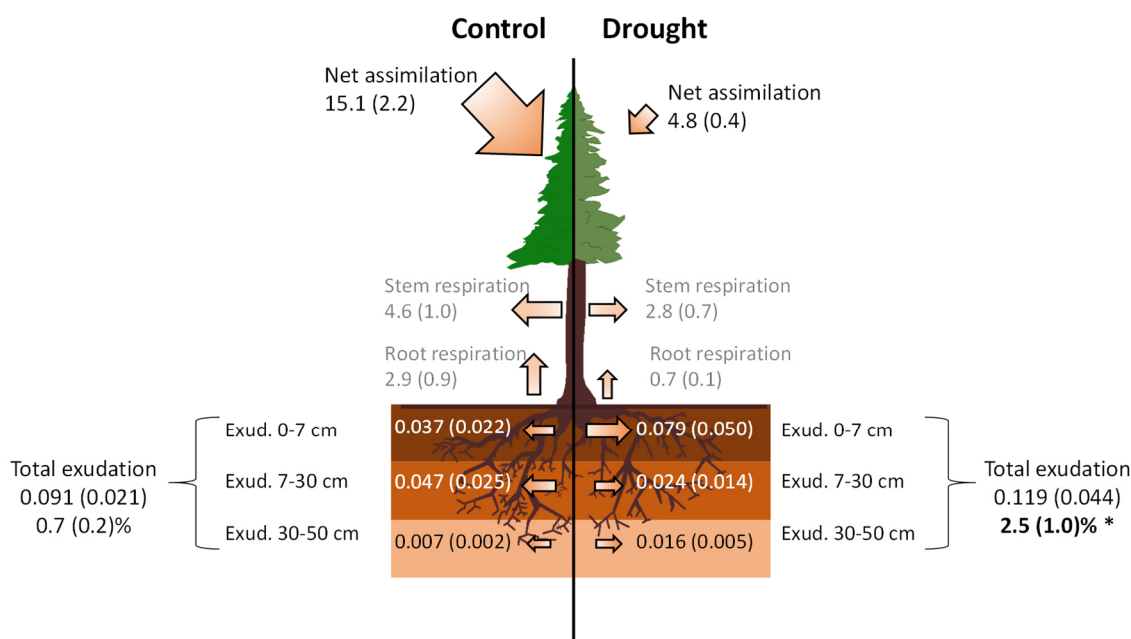
381 During early summer, both, *F. sylvatica* and *P. abies* trees in drought plots assimilated less than half
 382 the C of trees in control plots. Assimilation of *F. sylvatica* was $25.5 \pm 4.8 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in control and 12.7
 383 $\pm 3.9 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in drought plots ($p = .05$), whereas *P. abies* assimilated $22.5 \pm 2.4 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in control
 384 and $8.3 \pm 0.7 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in drought plots, respectively ($p < .05$). At the tree level, stem respiration did
 385 not differ between species but there was a trend towards higher stem respiration in *F. sylvatica* in
 386 control ($3.0 \pm 0.5 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) compared to drought plots ($0.8 \pm 0.2 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$; $p = .07$) and stem
 387 respiration also tended to be higher in control *P. abies* ($4.6 \pm 1.0 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) than in *P. abies* in drought

388 plots ($2.8 \pm 0.7 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, $p = .1$; Figure 4). Root respiration of *F. sylvatica* in control ($3.8 \pm 1.1 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$)
 389 was significantly higher than root respiration in drought plots ($1.4 \pm 0.5 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, $p < .05$) and somewhat
 390 higher than of *P. abies*. Roots of *P. abies* in control plots ($2.9 \pm 0.9 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) tended to respire more
 391 than roots in drought plots ($0.7 \pm 0.1 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, $p = .1$, Figure 4). Net assimilation was higher in control
 392 than in drought plots in both *F. sylvatica* ($18.7 \pm 4.0 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in control and $10.6 \pm 3.5 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in
 393 drought plots; $p = .1$) and in *P. abies* trees ($15.1 \pm 2.2 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in control and $4.8 \pm 0.4 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in
 394 drought plots; $p = .07$; Figure 4). The proportion of net-C assimilation allocated to root-system
 395 exudation (Ex_{fra}) during early summer in *F. sylvatica* trees was $0.5 \pm 0.1 \%$ in control plots and doubled
 396 to $1.0 \pm 0.1 \%$ of net assimilation in drought plots ($p = .1$, Figure 3B, Figure 4). In *P. abies* trees,
 397 $0.7 \pm 0.2 \%$ of net-C assimilation was allocated to root exudates in control plots, whereas in drought
 398 plots the proportion of net-C assimilation allocated to fine-root exudation increased more than
 399 threefold ($2.5 \pm 1.0 \%$, $p < .05$, Figure 3B, Figure 4).

A) *F. sylvatica*



400

B) *P. abies*

401
 402 **Figure 4:** Carbon (C) fluxes in **A)** *F. sylvatica* and **B)** *P. abies* on control (left) and drought plots (right) after 5 years of repeated
 403 summer drought. Numbers next to the arrows show C fluxes in g C m⁻² plot surface area and day⁻¹ (net assimilation, stem
 404 respiration, root respiration, and root exudation). Respiration fluxes are shown in grey boxes. Numbers next to the roots give
 405 the fine-root exudation separated by soil depth increments (dark brown: 0-7 cm, brown: 7-30 cm, and light brown: 30-50
 406 cm). Total exudation of the entire rooting zone and the proportion of net-C assimilation allocated to total exudation
 407 (assimilation - stem respiration - root respiration; see methods) are given next to the brackets. Note that values for 30-50 cm
 408 soil depth were modeled from minirhizotron and soil water content data (see methods). Bold numbers and asterisks indicate
 409 significant differences ($p < .05$) in scaled root respiration and proportion of net-C assimilation allocated to exudation between
 410 control and drought plots. Values are given as means with standard errors for $n = 3$ plots per treatment. All data represent a
 411 two-week period in early summer.

412

4. Discussion

413 Our study aimed to investigate whether tree species increased C allocation to root exudation in
 414 response to drought, both at the individual root and at the whole-tree level. Consistent with our first
 415 hypothesis, *P. abies* root exudation rates increased with decreasing soil water content and root
 416 exudates in *F. sylvatica* showed a similar trend, indicating increased exudation rates of root branches
 417 in dry surface soils. When scaled to the whole-tree level, fine-root exudation did not differ between
 418 the control and drought treatment. However, the proportion of net-C assimilation partitioned to root
 419 exudation was significantly higher for trees under drought, supporting our second hypothesis that the
 420 belowground investment increases when water becomes limited. We found stronger evidence to
 421 support both hypotheses in the more drought-susceptible *P. abies*, but *F. sylvatica* showed similar
 422 trends.

423

4.1. Lower soil water content promotes C exudation of root branches

424 Various studies have found elevated exudation when roots were exposed to dry soil (Karlowsky *et al.*,
 425 2018; Preece *et al.*, 2018; de Vries *et al.*, 2019; Jakoby *et al.*, 2020). Accordingly, we hypothesized that

426 exudation rates would be highest from roots exposed to the lowest soil water content (SWC).
427 Supporting this hypothesis, we found significantly higher exudation rates for both species in the drier
428 surface soil under drought, whereas exudation rates in the moister control plots, where vertical
429 differences in SWC were less distinct, did not differ across soil depths (Figure 1, Table 1). These trends
430 persisted regardless of whether exudation was normalized by root biomass or absorptive-root density
431 (Figure S1, Figure S2). However, and in contrast to previous studies (Finzi *et al.*, 2015; Tückmantel *et*
432 *al.*, 2017), root exudation tended to increase with depth under control conditions, which may reflect
433 site-specific soil texture characteristics (Grams *et al.*, 2021). We found a threshold at low SWC where
434 root exudation rates increased sharply (9.1 vol-% SWC for *P. abies* and 8.3 vol-% for *F. sylvatica*; Figure
435 2), which corresponded to the wilting point in the loess-dominated silty soil at the study site (Grams
436 *et al.*, 2021), suggesting that trees were stimulated to release exudates when water availability became
437 severely limiting. However, it is unlikely that exudation rates increase indefinitely with decreasing SWC,
438 as there is evidence that root exudation is eventually reduced under severe drought (Williams & de
439 Vries, 2020), e.g. when roots lose contact to the soil. However, given that the SWC in the rhizosphere
440 is less dynamic and likely higher under drought than the SWC of non-rooted soil (Carminati, 2013; Holz
441 *et al.*, 2018), the SWC of the rhizosphere may differ from the bulk soil measurements captured by the
442 TDR method used in this study. Thus, exudation may already be stimulated at higher rhizosphere SWC
443 than the observed threshold indicates. Fine-scale spatio-temporal measurements in the rhizosphere
444 could further elucidate the relationship between SWC and root exudation. Although, we found no
445 changes in absorptive-root density with drought (Table S2), further studies are necessary to identify
446 whether and how root morphology interacts with root exudation under drought (Wen *et al.*, 2022).

447 Since we did not sample root exudates from dead roots and excluded roots that did not pass the vitality
448 check, the presented exudation rates only reflect those in vital tree roots. Nonetheless, the *in situ*
449 exudate capture approach provides a reasonable measure of soluble C input to the rhizosphere under
450 drought, a fraction of C that is disregarded when belowground C allocation is solely traced via
451 respiratory losses from soil. As soil microbial activity declined under drought (indicated by reduced soil
452 CO₂ efflux, Table S6), increased exudation under low SWC might not be captured by measurements of
453 respiratory losses or microbial biomass. For example, Joseph *et al.* (2020) reported that C
454 mineralization was strongly reduced in soils below 15 % SWC, which was close to the threshold at
455 which we measured the highest exudation. Consequently, elevated exudation may contribute to C
456 accumulation in the dry surface mineral soil, where large increases in C stocks at 0-5 cm depth were
457 measured (Brunn *et al.*, unpublished data).

4.2. Belowground C allocation at the root-system level is maintained under drought

Despite aboveground growth reduction and declining photosynthesis rates, several studies have reported increased belowground C allocation to roots under drought (Poorter *et al.*, 2012; Hagedorn *et al.*, 2016; Hommel *et al.*, 2016; Jakoby *et al.*, 2020). Although the opposite has also been shown (Rühr *et al.*, 2009), these studies mostly measured C allocation as root growth or exudation at the root-branch level but did not assess whether C exudation at the root-system and the tree level also increased. Extending root C exudation to larger scales helps to identify processes related to the up- and down regulation of exudation at the whole-tree level and the linkage to rhizosphere characteristics (Prescott *et al.*, 2020; Schnepf *et al.*, 2022). Given the potential ecological benefits of belowground C allocation in the forest's capacity to recover from drought (Hagedorn *et al.*, 2016) and for tree drought tolerance (Carminati *et al.*, 2016), we hypothesized that trees would increase the partitioning of C from net photosynthesis into root exudation under drought.

We found an overall reduction in net-C assimilation with drought for both species, > 40 % in *F. sylvatica* and > 60 % in *P. abies*. However, in contrast to declining aboveground C assimilation, belowground C release through fine-root exudation at the root-system level remained constant with drought (Figure 3A, Figure 4), suggesting that the reduced fine-root surface area at 0-7 cm depth and increased fine-root surface area at 7-30 cm depth (Table 2) were compensated by higher exudation in surface and lower exudation in deeper soils. Nevertheless, the fraction of net-C assimilation allocated to root exudates doubled for drought-stressed *F. sylvatica* trees and tripled for *P. abies* (Figure 3B, Figure 4), supporting our second hypothesis that trees under drought partition relatively more available C to root exudation at the tree level.

In our study, the proportion of net-C assimilation allocated to root exudation was only 0.6 ± 0.1 % and 1.8 ± 0.6 % in control and drought plots, respectively, which was below the 3-30 % previously reported at other study sites for multiple species (Kuzyakov & Domanski, 2000; Jones *et al.*, 2009; Finzi *et al.*, 2015; Abramoff & Finzi, 2016; Gougherty *et al.*, 2018). Our observed exudation rates from root branches are in line with modeled or measured root exudation rates of diverse vegetation types (Finzi *et al.*, 2015; Dror & Klein, 2021; Rog *et al.*, 2021; Sell *et al.*, 2021), although they are at the lower end of reported values from comparable temperate forests (Tückmantel *et al.*, 2017; Meier *et al.*, 2020) and other ecosystems (summary provided by Gougherty *et al.* (2018)). Discrepancies in exudate estimates across studies may arise due to methodological differences such as filter size variations (0.2 μm vs. 0.7 μm) or the use of C-free materials (Gougherty *et al.*, 2018), bedrock characteristics (Meier *et al.*, 2020), or potential reuptake during longer collection periods (Oburger & Jones, 2018). In this study, we targeted low molecular weight substances of vital roots and thus excluded other rhizodeposits or volatile compounds (Delory *et al.*, 2016), which might account for a large fraction of

492 previously reported root C deposition rates. Low root-system level exudation could also be related to
493 physiological conditions varying throughout seasons, as exudates may not peak in early summer when
494 we sampled, but in the late summer and autumn (Jakoby *et al.*, 2020), when fine-root production is
495 higher (Abramoff & Finzi, 2016; Zwetsloot *et al.*, 2019). As net-C assimilation is lower in autumn, the
496 proportion of total C assimilation allocated to root exudates might therefore be substantially higher
497 towards the end of the growing season. Thus, the presented C fluxes may not reflect whole year
498 dynamics but give an accurate approximation of relative and absolute exudation patterns of mature
499 trees during early summer. We did not measure exudation or fine-root surface area in the deepest soil
500 increment, but we ensured high scaling accuracy to the whole-tree level by observing and modelling C
501 fluxes of different soil depths and entire above- and belowground compartments (see supplementary
502 methods S1 for further discussion on accuracy). Exudate C may have partially originated from tree C
503 storage pools that were reduced under drought (Hesse *et al.*, 2021). However, there is indication of
504 rapid belowground allocation of recently fixed C (Gorka *et al.*, 2019; Fossum *et al.*, 2022) and exudates
505 at the experimental site contained at least 65-90% newly assimilated C (Hikino *et al.*, unpublished
506 data).

507 Our approach did not allow us to account for potential C fluxes to mycorrhizal fungi. However, root
508 exudation in ectomycorrhizal trees under drought can be twice as high as under well-watered
509 conditions (Liese *et al.*, 2018) suggesting preferential C allocation to exudation than to mycorrhizae.
510 Although the rate of colonization for our exclusively ectomycorrhizal trees was comparable between
511 control and drought plots, the number of vital ectomycorrhizal tips declined by >70% after three years
512 of drought at the experimental site (Nickel *et al.*, 2018). This decline was accompanied by changes in
513 ectomycorrhizal species composition, suggesting a relative increase in more C-demanding
514 ectomycorrhizal types able to forage long distances (Nickel *et al.*, 2018). Thus, it is unclear whether
515 drought altered the partitioning of belowground C to exudates or mycorrhizae. Nonetheless, the
516 presented rates reflect the soluble C that enters the rhizosphere. Although the proportion of net-
517 assimilated C allocated to root exudation seems negligible in forest C budgets, after entering the soil,
518 root exudate C can accumulate in dry soil and facilitate ecosystem functions (e.g. soil water storage or
519 C sequestration; Sokol *et al.* (2019), thereby contributing to the belowground C sink strength of forests
520 and acting as a component of drought resilience (Körner, 2015; Hagedorn *et al.*, 2016). The
521 composition of exudates can also change with drought (Gargallo-Garriga *et al.*, 2018) and specific
522 compounds in root exudates have been associated with complex and diverse roles, e.g. changing the
523 quantity of osmolytes that maintain cell turgor under water stress, developing the soil structure
524 (Ahmed *et al.*, 2014; Baumert *et al.*, 2018; Guhra *et al.*, 2022) and enabling microbial recruitment or
525 selection (van Dam & Bouwmeester, 2016), which may ensure survival during periodic stresses (Huang
526 *et al.*, 2019). Such changes in the metabolite composition of root exudates under drought could

527 contribute to the increased belowground C allocation we measured here, presenting an intriguing
528 avenue for further research.

529 4.3. Drought-susceptible *P. abies* has a greater belowground C allocation under water- 530 limitation than *F. sylvatica*

531 Although both species showed similar patterns in exudation rates from individual root branches (Figure
532 1) and at the root-system level (Figure 3), we found relatively higher C allocation to root exudation in
533 *P. abies* than *F. sylvatica* under drought (Figure 3B). Greater tree-level exudation was mostly a result
534 of the stronger decline in net-C assimilation in *P. abies* (>60 %) than in *F. sylvatica* (>40 %) under
535 drought. Although both species maintained root-system level exudation at comparable rates
536 throughout the soil profile, they showed different vertical distribution patterns: in *F. sylvatica*, root-
537 system level exudation was homogeneously distributed through the soil profile, whereas *P. abies*
538 released two-thirds of the allocated C into the surface soil under drought (Figure 3). In addition,
539 although both species reduced fine-root surface area in the surface soil, the decline in *P. abies* roots
540 was less pronounced (Table 2), and exudation rates per fine-root surface area of root branches tended
541 to be higher (Figure 1). The decreased assimilation, respiration (Figure 4, Table S6), and reduced
542 growth (Pretzsch *et al.*, 2020; Grams *et al.*, 2021) of *P. abies* indicates that this species was more
543 strongly affected by drought than *F. sylvatica*. It is therefore striking that *P. abies* allocated a relatively
544 greater proportion of C belowground (Figure 3B). However, our findings agree with the theory of
545 Williams and de Vries (2020) that fast-growing species like *P. abies* increase relative exudation, while
546 slower growing species like *F. sylvatica* maintain root exudation under drought (Williams & de Vries,
547 2020). Although the proportion of net-C assimilation allocated to root exudation in *P. abies* was greater
548 than in *F. sylvatica*, assessing the benefits to the water balance or the ecosystem resilience of these
549 species due to exudates was beyond the scope of this study. Whether tree-level C investment into root
550 exudation is an active or passive process calls for finer-scaled manipulative experiments to identify
551 mechanistic underpinnings. Alongside lower SWC, it should finally be noted that there may be several
552 additional reasons for higher root exudation from *P. abies* in the surface soil. For example, soil-root
553 nutrient concentration gradients may increase concentration-related diffusion under water limitation
554 and contribute to elevated exudation (Canarini *et al.*, 2019; Butcher *et al.*, 2020). The low variation in
555 absorptive-root density in *P. abies* compared to *F. sylvatica* (Table S2) further suggests limited
556 morphological adaptation of *P. abies* roots to drought. Together with the observed prolonged lifespan
557 of *P. abies* roots in the surface soil (Zwetsloot & Bauerle, 2021), overall root functionality might have
558 been reduced (Vetterlein & Doussan, 2016; Nikolova *et al.*, 2020) and *P. abies* might have lost its
559 capability to control C release to a greater extent than *F. sylvatica*. Although the relationships between
560 root exudation, root morphology, and root lifespan (both in general and under drought) require further

561 study, our findings indicate that drought stress will have a greater impact on rhizosphere processes in
562 *P. abies* than *F. sylvatica*.

563 5. Conclusion

564 Root-system and whole-tree level exudation during the study period in early summer were small
565 compared to other assessed C fluxes and seemed negligible in the overall C budget of the forest.
566 However, the observed elevated belowground C partitioning under drought may play a crucial role in
567 ecosystem functioning and maintaining tree vitality, with the drought-susceptible *P. abies* investing
568 more C belowground under water limitation than *F. sylvatica*. Our findings pave the way for future
569 work integrating the chemical composition of exudates, microbial, and plant functional processes to
570 evaluate the fate of root exudate C entering the soil, its spatio-temporal stability, and its role in forest
571 ecosystem drought resilience. Our findings encourage future studies to record belowground C
572 allocation even under low microbial activity by including 1) *in situ* exudate collection during drought
573 experiments, 2) spatially explicit exudation measurements in naturally developed soil profiles, and 3)
574 calculations of tree-level exudation in mature forest. By integrating across different soil depths and
575 using allometric scaling of the unique empirical dataset of the KROOF experiment, our study
576 demonstrates that trees can maintain root exudation by increasing the proportion of net-C assimilates
577 allocated to exudates under water-limitation, suggesting novel strategies of up- and downregulating
578 belowground C partitioning under drought. Given that there is large variation in how models estimate
579 belowground C allocation under changing climate, our data provide valuable information about how
580 temperate tree species partition assimilates into individual soil layers as well as to the entire
581 rhizosphere under water limitation.

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594 Author contribution

595 MB and BDH and TLB designed the study. MB and BDH collected the data, developed hypotheses and
 596 the concept of the manuscript. MJZ, and TLB helped with data analysis and interpretation. MJZ, FW,
 597 KP, KH, NKR, and EJS contributed data and reviewed the manuscript draft. MB and BDH wrote the
 598 manuscript and all co-authors thoroughly revised and edited manuscript drafts.

599 Data availability

600 Data that supports this study is available through Cornell University e-commons data repository at:
 601 DOI (citation).

602 References

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821 [Supporting Information](#)

822 **Table S1** Edaphic conditions of the experimental site.

823 **Table S2** Root characteristics of root branches.

824 **Table S3** Number of root branches collected for exudation rates.

825 **Fig. S1** Example of a sampled root branch.

826 **Fig. S2** Exudation rates with drought per dry-root biomass.

827 **Fig. S3** Exudation rates with drought per density of absorptive roots.

828 **Methods S1** Scaling approach

829 **Table S4** Rates of light-saturated gas exchange (A_{sat}), and PAR light intensity at light saturation and
830 light compensation for sun and shade leaves of *F. sylvatica* and *P. abies*.

831 **Table S5** Estimated decrease of A_{sat} in *P. abies* trees with needle age.

832 **Table S6** Rates of photosynthesis, stem, soil- and root respiration.

833 **Table S7** Leaf and stem area used as parameters for scaling C fluxes.

834 **Fig. S4** Relationships between exudation rate per density of absorptive fine roots and volumetric soil
835 water content for the drought treatment.

836 **Fig. S5** Exudation rates per number of root tips related to volumetric soil water content.

837 **Fig. S6** Relationships between exudation rate per fine-root surface area and volumetric soil water
838 content separated for drought and control treatments.

839