

The effects of CO₂ and nutrient fertilisation on the growth and temperature response of the mangrove *Avicennia germinans*

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3 **Title**4
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7 3 The effects of CO₂ and nutrient fertilization on the growth and temperature response of
8
9 4 the mangrove *Avicennia germinans*10
11 512
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28 **Running headline**

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30 CO₂ AND NUTRIENT EFFECT ON MANGROVES

31

32 **Abstract**

33 In order to understand plant responses to both the widespread phenomenon of
34 increased nutrient inputs to coastal zones and the concurrent rise in
35 atmospheric CO₂ concentrations, CO₂-nutrient interactions need to be
36 considered. In addition to its potential stimulating effect on photosynthesis and
37 growth, elevated CO₂ affects the temperature response of photosynthesis. The
38 scarcity of experiments testing how elevated CO₂ affects the temperature
39 response of tropical trees hinders our ability to model future primary
40 productivity. In a glasshouse study we examined the effects of elevated CO₂ (800
41 ppm) and nutrient availability on seedlings of the widespread mangrove
42 *Avicennia germinans*. We assessed photosynthetic performance, the temperature
43 response of photosynthesis, seedling growth and biomass allocation. We found
44 large synergistic gains in both growth (42%) and photosynthesis (115%) when
45 seedlings grown under elevated CO₂ were supplied with elevated nutrient
46 concentrations relative to their ambient growing conditions. Growth was
47 significantly enhanced under elevated CO₂ only under high nutrient conditions,
48 mainly in above ground tissues. Under low nutrient conditions and elevated CO₂,
49 root volume was more than double that of seedlings grown under ambient CO₂
50 levels. Elevated CO₂ significantly increased the temperature optimum for
51 photosynthesis by ca. 4°C. Rising CO₂ concentrations are likely to have a
52 significant positive effect on the growth rate of *A. germinans* over the next
53 century, especially in areas where nutrient availability is high.

54 **Key Words**

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5 56 Climate Change, CO₂, Eutrophication, Mangrove, Nitrogen, Phosphorous, Photosynthesis,
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7 57 RUBISCO, Temperature-Response, Tropics
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3 60 Introduction:
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7 62 Current increases in the concentration of CO₂ in the Earth's atmosphere are thought to
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9 63 have an overall positive effect on plant growth and productivity (Drake et al. 1997).
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11 64 However, due to factors interacting with CO₂, such as nutrient and water availability and
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13 65 temperature, measured growth responses to elevated CO₂ have often been variable
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15 66 (Körner 2006; van der Sleen et al. 2015). In particular, progressive nitrogen limitation
16
17 67 tends to reduce the long-term growth stimulation by elevated CO₂ (Luo et al. 2004;
18
19 68 Norby et al. 2010; Reich et al. 2006), and thus under nutrient limiting conditions, the
20
21 69 stimulating effects of elevated CO₂ on plant growth are often significantly reduced
22
23 70 relative to nutrient replete conditions (Oren et al. 2001). The handful of experiments
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25 71 studying the effects of elevated CO₂ (700–800 ppm) on mangrove seedlings have shown
26
27 72 responses in growth and productivity, with a growth enhancement from 12% to up to
28
29 73 47% under elevated CO₂ conditions (Ball et al. 1997; Farnsworth et al. 1996; McKee and
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31 74 Rooth 2008; Reef et al. 2015). Mangroves develop along tropical coastlines, where
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33 75 nutrients frequently are in low supply. In many mangrove forests, nitrogen and
34
35 76 sometimes phosphorous have been shown to limit growth (Reef et al. 2010b) and saline
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37 77 conditions may be expected to limit responses to elevated CO₂ (Ball et al. 1997). Thus, to
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39 78 better understand the response of mangroves to elevated CO₂ conditions, CO₂-nutrient
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41 79 interactions need to be considered.
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44 80
45
46 81 In addition to its potential stimulating effect on photosynthesis and growth, elevated
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48 82 CO₂ affects the temperature response of photosynthesis in C₃ plants. Since current
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50 83 mangrove distributions are strongly influenced by temperature (Duke et al. 1998;
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52 84 Hutchison et al. 2014; Quisthoudt et al. 2013; Woodroffe and Grindrod 1991),
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54 85 quantifying the effects of elevated CO₂ on the temperature response of mangroves is key
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56 86 to determining the fate of mangroves in the face of atmospheric and climate change.
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3 87 Photosynthesis is one of the most temperature sensitive processes in plants (Berry and
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5 88 Bjorkman 1980). The carbon fixing enzyme RUBISCO catalyses both carboxylation (and
6
7 89 subsequently photosynthesis) and oxygenation (photorespiration) with CO₂ and O₂ as
8
9 90 competing substrates. As temperatures rise, the specificity of RUBISCO for CO₂
10
11 91 decreases and CO₂ solubility decreases to a greater extent than that of O₂. Hence, the
12
13 92 ratio between photorespiration and photosynthesis increases with increasing
14
15 93 temperature (Bernacchi et al. 2001; Jordan and Ogren 1984), significantly reducing
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17 94 carbon assimilation rates and requiring higher CO₂ concentrations to attain similar
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19 95 levels of carbon assimilation. Based on theoretical models of photosynthesis, elevated
20
21 96 CO₂ concentrations could have a strong effect on the temperature response of
22
23 97 photosynthesis (Farquhar et al. 1980; Lloyd and Farquhar 2008), but experimental
24
25 98 evidence for this is not well documented for tropical trees. A number of recent models
26
27 99 predict a significant shift in mangrove distributions, for example the loss of mangrove
28
29
30 100 forests from regions of high temperature and a reduction in productivity based on an
31
32 101 anticipated rise in global temperature (Beaumont et al. 2011; Koch et al. 2015; Osland et
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34 102 al. 2013), but these predictions are based on the climatic niche of present day
35
36 103 mangroves growing under current CO₂ concentrations. The scarcity of experiments
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38 104 testing how elevated CO₂ affects the temperature relationships of tropical trees hinders
39
40 105 our ability to model how elevated CO₂ will affect primary productivity in these systems
41
42 106 into the future (Cernusak et al. 2013).

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44 107
45
46 108 Mangrove forests contribute a large proportion of the primary productivity on tropical
47
48 109 coasts, which is important for carbon sequestration and support of both marine and
49
50 110 terrestrial food webs (Duarte et al. 2013). Members of the genus *Avicennia* are dominant
51
52 111 within higher latitude forests and are documented to have expanded their range in
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54 112 recent decades on three continents (Saintilan et al. 2014). Additionally, in the core of the
55
56 113 mangrove distribution (tropical latitudes) they have an important role as they colonize
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3 114 sediments and are tolerant of disturbance (Fromard et al. 2004). In this study we
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5 115 examined the effects of elevated CO₂ and nutrient availability on the mangrove *Avicennia*
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7 116 *germinans* (L.) L. We assessed the photosynthetic performance, the temperature
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9 117 response of photosynthesis, seedling growth and biomass allocation.
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13 119 Methods:
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18 121 *Avicennia germinans* propagules were collected in July 2014 at Galeta Point, Panama
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20 122 (9°24'N, 79°51'W) and transferred to the Santa Cruz Experimental Field Facility,
21

22 123 Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute, Gamboa, Panama (9°07'N, 79°42'W) where
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24 124 they were planted in individual 1.6 L tree pots (Short One Treepot™, 10x10x23 cm.
25

26 125 Stuewe and Sons, Tangent, Oregon) filled with a mixture (50% / 50%) of local topsoil
27

28 126 and sand. The plants (propagules) were randomly assigned to one of two naturally
29

30 127 illuminated glasshouses (n=34 pots per glasshouse), one with similar to ambient (ca.
31

32 128 400 ppm) CO₂ concentrations and one with an elevated (800 ppm) CO₂ concentration.
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34 129

35
36 130 Elevated CO₂ was maintained by releasing CO₂ gas from a high-pressure cylinder in brief
37

38 131 pulses to maintain CO₂ concentrations between 790 and 810 ppm. The glasshouses were
39

40 132 equipped with split air conditioning units programmed to turn on when ambient air
41

42 133 temperature exceeded 30°C. Air temperature and relative humidity were recorded in
43

44 134 the two glasshouses every 15 min using a data logger (CR10X; Campbell Scientific,
45

46 135 Logan, Utah, USA). The conditions in each of the two glasshouses during the experiment
47

48 136 are summarised in Table 1.
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51 137

52
53 138 Seedlings were watered twice weekly with 300 ml salt solution that saturated the pots.
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55 139 Two nutrient treatments were implemented in each glasshouse, a low nutrient
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57 140 treatment (n=17 in each glasshouse) and a high nutrient treatment (n=17 in each
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3 141 glasshouse). The solution low in nutrients contained 0.06 mM KNO₃, 0.04 mM Ca(NO₃)₂,
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5 142 0.01 mM NH₄H₂PO₄, 0.01 mM (NH₄)₂HPO₄, 0.01 mM MgSO₄, 2.5 μM H₃BO₃, 0.2 μM
6
7 143 MnSO₄, 0.2 μM ZnSO₄, 0.05 μM CuSO₄, 0.05 μM H₂MoO₄, 2 μM C₁₀H₁₂FeN₂NaO₈
8
9 144 (ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid iron (III)-sodium salt), which is similar to the nutrient
10
11 145 concentrations in mangrove porewater where they are not exposed to anthropogenic
12
13 146 eutrophication (Alongi et al. 1993; Chen and Twilley 1999). The concentrations in the
14
15 147 high nutrient solution were 5 times those of the low nutrient solution. Ocean salt
16
17 148 (Instant Ocean, Blacksburg, VA, USA) was added to both nutrient solutions to a
18
19 149 concentration of 20 g L⁻¹. Instant ocean aquarium salt does not contain nitrogen and
20
21 150 phosphorus. Once a week the plants received a rinse of fresh water (10 ml) from a spray
22
23 151 bottle to simulate a rain event washing the salt from their leaves.
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25
26 152 Two plants died during the experimental period. After three months of growth (October
27
28 153 6, 2014), photosynthetic temperature response curves were assessed for four randomly
29
30 154 selected plants from each of the four treatments over the period of a week. All plants
31
32 155 were harvested on the 14th of October 2014.
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35
36 157 *Photosynthetic temperature response curves:*
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40 159 Photosynthetic gas exchange was measured on intact leaves of known area enclosed in a
41
42 160 Walz gas-exchange cuvette with Peltier temperature control (GWK 3M Walz, Effeltrich,
43
44 161 Germany) connected to a LI-6252 infrared gas analyser (Li-Cor, Lincoln NE, USA) under
45
46 162 constant illumination of 1000 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹ from a red/blue LED light array. The CO₂
47
48 163 concentration of the air entering the chamber was set to 400 ppm for the seedlings
49
50 164 grown at ambient CO₂ concentrations and to 800 ppm for the seedlings grown at
51
52 165 elevated CO₂ concentrations. Following the enclosure of the leaf into the chamber, the
53
54 166 chamber temperature was reduced to 20°C for ~60 min. The temperature was then
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56 167 increased in 5°C increments (every 20–30 min, when a stable reading was established)
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3 168 up to 40–50°C. The youngest fully expanded leaves were studied. Leaf temperature was
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5 169 measured using a copper-constantan thermocouple attached to the bottom surface of
6
7 170 the leaf.

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9 171 Temperature response data were fitted to the equation from Battaglia, Beadle &
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11 172 Loghhead (1996; Eq. 1) using the *nlsfit* function in R (Team 2014). The equation
12
13 173 describes the photosynthetic rate (P) at a given temperature (T) as a parabolic
14
15 174 relationship, with P_{opt} and T_{opt} being the maximal photosynthetic rate, and the
16
17 175 temperature at which P_{opt} is achieved, respectively. Analysis of variance was used to
18
19 176 detect differences in the parameters P_{opt} (measured here as photosynthetic capacity,
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21 177 A_{max}), T_{opt} and the high-temperature CO_2 compensation point (where net CO_2 exchange is
22
23 178 zero) among treatments.
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30 181 $P(T) = P_{opt} - b(T - T_{opt})^2$ Eq. 1
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32 182
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35 183 Transpiration rate was calculated from the water vapour difference between the air
36
37 184 leaving the chamber and the incoming air. Stomatal conductance at each temperature
38
39 185 was calculated from the rate of transpiration divided by the leaf-air vapour pressure
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41 186 difference (VPD) in the air leaving the chamber relative to the incoming air. Intrinsic
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43 187 water use efficiency was calculated as the carbon assimilation rate divided by the
44
45 188 stomatal conductance.
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49 190 *Plant growth parameters and elemental composition:*
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53 192 Plant growth (stem length, no. of nodes and no. of leaves, no. of branches along the main
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55 193 stem) was monitored throughout the experiment. Leaf temperatures were measured for
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57 194 three leaves per seedlings one week prior to harvest on two cloudless days using a laser
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3 195 infrared thermometer. The measurements were repeated on all seedlings five times
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5 196 during the day (08:00, 10:00, 13:00, 16:00 and 20:00). Following the harvest, plants
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7 197 were divided into leaves, stem and roots. Leaves were kept in a sealed bag with moist
8
9 198 paper towel in order to maintain hydration status. Leaf area was measured using a LI-
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11 199 3100C leaf area meter (Li-Cor Corp. Lincoln, NE, USA). Washed roots free of soil were
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13 200 photographed against a dark background and analysed using the IJ Rhizo root analysis
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15 201 package (Pierret et al. 2013). The entire root system was measured for each seedling.
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17 202 Plant material was then washed in distilled water to remove external salt, patted dry
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19 203 and weighed after which it was dried at 70°C for 5 days and reweighed.
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24 205 Samples for leaf nutrient concentrations and isotopic composition were taken from
25
26 206 finely ground leaves and roots from ten randomly selected plants from each treatment.
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28 207 All leaves from each plant were pooled before grinding. The isotopic composition of the
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30 208 added CO₂ in the 800 ppm treatment differed slightly from that in ambient air. The
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32 209 correction for this was previously determined for this system by growing two C₄ plants
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34 210 (*Saccharum spontaneum* and *Portulaca oleracea*) in the chambers. A correction factor of
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36 211 2‰ was used in foliar δ¹³C values of seedlings from the 800 ppm treatment (Cernusak
37
38 212 et al. 2011a).
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42 214 Phosphorous (P) concentrations were determined using a colourimetric assay as
43
44 215 described in (Reef et al. 2010a). Leaf isotope values for δ¹³C and δ¹⁵N were measured
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46 216 from pooled samples of green leaves for ten seedlings from each treatment. Samples
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48 217 were measured in an elemental-analyser isotope ratio mass spectrometer (EA-IRMS,
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50 218 Sercon System, Griffith University; analytical errors of 0.1‰ for δ¹³C and 0.2‰ for
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52 219 δ¹⁵N). Nitrogen is expressed relative to atmospheric nitrogen and carbon relative to
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54 220 Vienna Pee-Dee Belemnite.
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3 222 We used ANOVA to test for differences in growth parameters among the treatments.
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5 223 Root/Shoot ratios were *logit* transformed prior to analysis. Partial correlation analysis
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7 224 was used to test the relationship between specific leaf area (SLA) and growth. Climate
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9 225 data for Galeta Point was downloaded from the Smithsonian Physical Monitoring
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11 226 Program climate station at the Galeta Marine Laboratory.
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15 228 Results:
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19 230 *Effects of CO₂ and nutrients on foliar physiology*
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23 232 Using a two-way ANOVA we found significant effects of both CO₂ concentration and
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25 233 nutrient treatment on photosynthetic capacity, A_{\max} (ANOVA, $F_{(1,11)} = 8.5$, $p = 0.014$, and
26
27 234 $F_{(1,11)} = 5.6$, $p = 0.04$ respectively, Figs 1A-D, Table 2), where A_{\max} increases with
28
29 235 increased CO₂ concentration and with nutrient enrichment, but more so when both
30
31 236 elevated CO₂ and elevated nutrients were provided (Table 2).
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33 237

34
35 238 Elevated CO₂ significantly increased the temperature optimum for photosynthesis by ca.
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37 239 4°C (ANOVA, $F_{(1,12)} = 17.3$, $p = 0.001$, Figs 1A-D, Table 2). Despite the shift in the
38
39 240 temperature optimum, the high-temperature CO₂ compensation point, i.e. the
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41 241 temperature at which net CO₂ exchange is zero, did not change significantly and was on
42
43 242 average 41.8 (±3)°C. The range of temperatures at which photosynthesis was near
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45 243 maximum (≥80% of A_{\max}) spanned 13°C and shifted to higher temperatures with
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47 244 elevated CO₂ (Table 2).
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51 246 Transpiration rate (E), stomatal water vapour conductance (Gs) and intrinsic water use
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53 247 efficiency (WUEi) are presented for leaf temperatures of 25°C. Elevated CO₂ resulted in a
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55 248 significant reduction in stomatal conductance and transpiration relative to the ambient
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3 249 CO₂ treatment (ANOVA, $F_{(1,11)} = 5.7, p = 0.04$ and $F_{(1,10)} = 13.5, p = 0.004$, Figs 2A and 2B
4
5 250 respectively), which contributed to a significant increase in water use efficiency ($F_{(1,10)} =$
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7 251 $22.1, p < 0.001$ Fig. 2C), most notably under the high nutrient regime ($p = 0.03$). The
8
9 252 foliar $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of leaves was significantly less negative in the elevated CO₂ treatment
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11 253 indicating that water use efficiency for the duration of the experiment was higher in this
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13 254 treatment ($F_{(1,35)} = 42.4, p < 0.001$, Fig. 2D)

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16
17 256 There were no significant differences in leaf temperatures among the CO₂ and nutrient
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19 257 treatments (Fig. 3). On sunny days, leaf temperatures of ambient CO₂ grown plants were
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21 258 found to be at the high range, and sometimes exceeded the optimal temperature
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23 259 threshold for photosynthesis (defined here as the temperature range at which 80% of
24
25 260 maximum photosynthetic rates can be achieved, Table 2). For plants growing under
26
27 261 elevated CO₂ conditions, leaf temperatures were well within the optimal range for
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29 262 photosynthesis (Fig. 3). Neither the CO₂ nor the nutrient treatment significantly affected
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31 263 leaf water content, which was on average (\pm SD) 71.3% (\pm 2.2%) of the fresh weight.
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36 266 *Effects of CO₂ and nutrients on growth and biomass allocation*

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38 268 Seedling growth (total biomass accumulated) was significantly enhanced under elevated
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40 269 CO₂ but only under high nutrient conditions (ANOVA $F_{(1,62)} = 9.2, p = 0.003$, Fig. 4A). In
41
42 270 the high nutrient treatment, the rise in CO₂ concentrations from 400 to 800 ppm
43
44 271 resulted in a 44% increase in biomass. Growth enhancement in the high nutrient
45
46 272 treatment occurred mainly in above ground tissues (Fig. 4B), resulting in significantly
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48 273 lower root/shoot biomass ratios, with a more pronounced decrease in elevated CO₂
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50 274 grown plants (ANOVA $F_{(1,62)} = 9.8, p = 0.003$). However, despite a lower overall
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52 275 allocation to roots vs. shoots, root biomass under elevated CO₂ was significantly greater
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3 276 for the high relative to the low nutrient treatment (ANOVA $F_{(1,62)} = 6.5, p = 0.013$, Fig.
4 277 4A). The increased allocation of biomass to shoots was associated with a significant
5 278 increase in leaf area: for the high nutrient treatment elevated CO_2 resulted in a 55%
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7 279 increase in leaf area and for the elevated CO_2 concentration, high nutrient conditions
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9 280 resulted in a 71% increase in leaf area (ANOVA $F_{(1,62)} = 13.9, p < 0.001$ and $F_{(1,62)} = 18.9,$
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11 281 $p < 0.001$ respectively Fig. 4C),
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17 283 In contrast, in the low nutrient treatment, elevated CO_2 did not lead to significant
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19 284 biomass gains (Tukey HSD, $p = 0.96$). Increasing nutrient concentrations five-fold alone
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21 285 did not lead to significant biomass gains at ambient CO_2 levels.
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25
26 287 Using partial correlation (while controlling for nutrient treatment and CO_2
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28 288 concentration) we found specific leaf area (SLA) to be negatively correlated with
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30 289 relative growth rate, RGR ($R = -0.47, p < 0.001$, Fig. 4D) and thus higher growth rates
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32 290 were associated with lower SLA values. The slope of this relationship was independent
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34 291 of nutrient treatment or CO_2 concentration ($p > 0.05$).
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39 293 Consistent with the stimulation of biomass growth, seedlings in the high nutrient -
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41 294 elevated CO_2 treatment had longer stems and more leaves than seedlings from other
42
43 295 treatments (ANOVA, $F_{(1,62)} = 4.7, p = 0.03$ and $F_{(1,62)} = 7.0, p = 0.01$ respectively, Table 3).
44
45 296 Notwithstanding the difference in size, we did not observe changes to growth allocation
46
47 297 patterns in these stems (e.g. branching rates and internode lengths did not differ among
48
49 298 treatments, Table 3).
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51 299
52
53 300 Root structure was significantly influenced by the CO_2 and nutrient treatments. Roots
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55 301 were significantly longer in elevated CO_2 grown seedlings relative to ambient CO_2 ($F_{(1,37)}$
56
57 302 $= 9.5, p = 0.004$). Under low nutrient conditions and elevated CO_2 , root volume was
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3 303 more than double that of seedlings grown under ambient CO₂ levels ($F_{(1,37)} = 5.8, p =$
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5 304 0.02, Table 3). Mean root diameter was also affected, with a higher frequency of fine
6
7 305 roots in the ambient CO₂/low nutrient and high CO₂/high nutrient treatments ($F_{(1,37)} =$
8
9 306 28.4, $p < 0.001$, Table 3). We identified three major root types in our seedlings: fine
10
11 307 roots with diameters < 2 mm, lateral roots ($d = 2-4$ mm), and pneumatophores, which
12
13 308 developed in a few seedlings ($d > 4$ mm). Fine roots made up on average 76% of the
14
15 309 total root length. The fine root ratio (fine roots/total root biomass) was higher in the
16
17 310 low nutrient treatment under ambient CO₂ conditions, as was the total fine root length.
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19 311 Under elevated CO₂ conditions, the effect of nutrients on fine root production was
20
21 312 reversed, with a significant decrease in the fine root ratio in the low nutrient treatment.
22
23 313 However, total fine root length remained higher in elevated CO₂ than under ambient CO₂
24
25 314 conditions for both nutrient treatments. Roots from elevated CO₂ grown seedlings also
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27 315 had a higher concentrations of carbon, regardless of nutrient treatment ($F_{(1,36)} = 15.5, p$
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29 316 < 0.001 , Table 4).
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318 *Effects of CO₂ and nutrients on plant nutrient content*

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320 Phosphorous (P) concentrations in plant tissues were significantly affected by the CO₂
321 treatment. Elevated CO₂ seedlings had significantly higher concentration of P in their
322 root tissues, relative to ambient CO₂ grown seedlings (ANOVA $F_{(1,36)} = 11.5, p = 0.002$,
323 Table 4). In leaves, we found the opposite, lower P concentrations in seedlings from the
324 elevated CO₂ treatment relative to ambient CO₂ ($F_{(1,35)} = 5.1, p = 0.03$, Table 4). The
325 nutrient treatment had no significant effect on tissue P concentrations.

326

327 The exhaustion of maternal nutrient reserves as the seedlings matured led to a
328 significant loss of foliage in low nutrient grown seedlings where leaf mortality rates
329 were more than double those of the high nutrient grown seedlings (ANOVA, $F_{(1,62)} = 4.8,$

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3 330 $p = 0.03$, Table 3). However, N or P concentrations in leaves of the low nutrient plants
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5 331 were not significantly lower than those in plants from the high nutrient treatment
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7 332 (Table 4). Differences in elemental composition between the nutrient treatments were
8
9 333 detected in the roots, with higher %N, lower C:N and higher N:P in the high nutrient
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11 334 plants ($F_{(1,36)} = 24.8, p < 0.001$, $F_{(1,36)} = 7.2, p = 0.01$ and $F_{(1,36)} = 21, p < 0.001$
12
13 335 respectively, Table 4).
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17 337 Discussion:
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20
21 339 We found large synergistic gains in both photosynthesis and growth in *Avicennia*
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23 340 *germinans* seedlings when seedlings grown under elevated CO₂ were supplied with
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25 341 elevated nutrient concentrations. In the high nutrient-elevated CO₂ treatment,
26
27 342 photosynthesis was enhanced on average by 75% relative to the high nutrient ambient
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29 343 CO₂ grown seedlings, and 115% when compared with the low nutrient ambient CO₂
30
31 344 grown seedlings. Growth was enhanced by 42% in the elevated CO₂/high nutrient
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33 345 treatment relative to ambient CO₂/high nutrient seedlings. As has been observed in
34
35 346 other species, growth was less sensitive than photosynthesis to elevated CO₂
36
37 347 (Kirschbaum 2011). Despite significant differences in water use efficiency among the
38
39 348 nutrient and CO₂ treatments, plant water use efficiency was not associated with growth
40
41 349 or productivity. This is consistent with growing evidence that indicates mangrove
42
43 350 growth is not limited by water availability at moderate salinities (Reef et al. 2012).
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48 352 Elevated CO₂ had a significant effect on the temperature dependence of light saturated
49
50 353 photosynthesis as is predicted by theoretical models (Farquhar et al. 1980; Lloyd and
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52 354 Farquhar 2008). The optimal temperature for carbon fixation increased from 24.5°C at
53
54 355 CO₂ concentrations of 400 ppm to 28.3°C in plants that were grown and measured at
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3 356 800 ppm CO₂, an increase of nearly 4°C, which is higher than the predicted increase in
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5 357 mean global temperature for 2100 for moderate emissions scenarios (IPCC 2013).
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9 359 T_{max}, the temperature at which net assimilation is zero, was not significantly affected by
10
11 360 elevated CO₂ concentrations, remaining on average 41.8°C. Irreversible damage in
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13 361 tropical tree leaves has been shown to occur at temperatures >50 °C (Krause et al. 2010;
14
15 362 Krause et al. 2014)
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17 363
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19 364 Despite differences in transpiration rates of 74% among the different CO₂ and nutrient
20
21 365 treatments, leaf temperatures measured during the experiment were not significantly
22
23 366 higher in the elevated CO₂ grown seedlings. This could be due to the fact that
24
25 367 transpiration plays a relatively small role in leaf temperature regulation compared to
26
27 368 the important influence of air temperature and irradiance (Miller 1972) especially in
28
29 369 mangroves, where non-evaporative cooling strategies (e.g. leaf orientation, pubescence
30
31 370 and salt excretion) are adaptations that maintain high water use efficiencies in these
32
33 371 species (reviewed in (Reef and Lovelock 2014b).
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37
38 373 The photosynthesis temperature response measured for *A. germinans* was of similar
39
40 374 shape to the temperature response measured for the congeneric *Avicennia marina* (Ball
41
42 375 et al. 1988) , and while T_{opt} of *A. germinans* was 3°C lower than that of its Australian
43
44 376 counterpart, the high temperature CO₂ compensation point was similar to that of *A.*
45
46 377 *marina*. Evidence from field measurements suggests that photosynthesis in *Bruguiera*
47
48 378 *parviflora* from northern Queensland was strongly depressed at leaf temperatures >
49
50 379 34°C (Cheeseman et al. 1991). Also in northern Queensland, assimilation rates in
51
52 380 *Rhizophora stylosa* decreased linearly as temperatures increased from 27–40°C and was
53
54 381 at nearly the CO₂ compensation point at 39.5°C (Andrews and Muller 1985). However,
55
56 382 in both these studies, the effect of temperature on carbon assimilation rates was
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3 383 confounded by coinciding changes in light levels, humidity and differences in leaf angles.
4
5 384 The CO₂ compensation point (T_{\max}) for *A. germinans* in our study was on average
6
7 385 41.8±3°C, and while we found a significant increase in T_{opt} with elevated CO₂, we do not
8
9 386 find a corresponding increase in T_{\max} and our results do not support an increase in the
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11 387 high temperature threshold for this species under elevated CO₂ conditions.
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15 389 The optimal temperature for photosynthesis under ambient CO₂ conditions was lower
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17 390 than the T_{leaf} measured for the seedlings throughout the day (Fig. 1). T_{opt} was also lower
18
19 391 than the mean temperature in the glasshouse (Table 1) and lower than the mean daily
20
21 392 atmospheric temperature recorded at Punta Galeta, where the plant material was
22
23 393 collected, in the years 2002–2015 between 07:00 and 16:00 (27.8°C ±2). However, the
24
25 394 temperature range of near optimal photosynthetic performance of the seedlings was
26
27 395 very broad (approx. 13°C, Table 2) and the leaf temperatures measured in the
28
29 396 glasshouse during growth were within this range (Fig. 3). Nonetheless, a T_{leaf} that is on
30
31 397 average higher than T_{opt} suggests an incomplete acclimation to the mean growing
32
33 398 temperature. It is possible that broad response of photosynthesis to temperature in *A.*
34
35 399 *germinans* reflects its broad latitudinal distribution. Despite the low levels of gene flow
36
37 400 among *A. germinans* populations (Ceron-Souza et al. 2012), a relatively low T_{opt} could be
38
39 401 a conserved trait. There is growing evidence that not all plant species are capable of
40
41 402 complete photosynthetic thermal acclimation to growth temperature (e.g. Dillaway and
42
43 403 Kruger 2010). Our findings for *A. germinans* support this possibility. Relatively low T_{opt}
44
45 404 compared to mean daily temperature, may also indicate acclimation of photosynthesis
46
47 405 to early morning conditions when the majority of photosynthetic carbon gain in this
48
49 406 species occurs (Smith et al. 1989). The mean temperature in the early morning (06:00-
50
51 407 09:00) at Punta Galeta was (26.7±1.9). In mangroves midday depressions in
52
53 408 photosynthesis are common (Andrews and Muller 1985; Bjorkman et al. 1988;
54
55 409 Cheeseman et al. 1991), with some field studies showing a peak in photosynthesis
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3 410 before 0800 AM and a cessation of photosynthesis by 1100 AM (Cheeseman et al. 1991).
4
5 411 An incomplete acclimation to high ambient temperatures could be one of the causes of
6
7 412 these depressions. Photosynthesis temperature response in three Australian mangrove
8
9 413 species (*Bruguiera gymnorrhiza*, *Rhizophora apiculata* and *Avicennia marina*), measured
10
11 414 under ambient (unspecified) CO₂ concentrations showed a broad temperature optima
12
13 415 (25-30°C), which was significantly lower than leaf temperatures measured on sun
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15 416 exposed leaves as early as 0825 AM (Ball et al. 1988). In the Ball et al. study (1988) it
16
17 417 was shown that leaf angle in mangroves is optimised to reduce leaf temperatures rather
18
19 418 than maximise light capture, resulting in lower rates of photosynthesis. Irrespective of
20
21 419 the underlying pressure that leads to selection for the broad temperature optima of
22
23 420 photosynthesis and the cause of incomplete acclimation to the mean growing
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25 421 temperature, the increase in T_{opt} with increasing CO₂ concentrations could result in
26
27 422 improved photosynthetic performance and growth rates for this species within the
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29 423 tropics as CO₂ concentrations continue to increase.
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34 425 Low nutrient availability restricted the growth response of the mangrove *A. germinans*
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36 426 to elevated CO₂ despite significant improvements to photosynthesis and water use
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38 427 efficiency. Elevated CO₂ stimulated growth mainly above ground (increasing leaf area),
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40 428 although significant increases in below ground biomass were also detected relative to
41
42 429 ambient CO₂ concentrations. Leaf SLA decreased as seedling growth rates increased. The
43
44 430 enhancements observed in plant performance are consistent with previous studies
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46 431 conducted in greenhouses with mangrove seedlings (Ball et al. 1997; Farnsworth et al.
47
48 432 1996; McKee and Rooth 2008; Reef et al. 2015) and other plant species (Ainsworth and
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50 433 Long 2005; Winter et al. 2001a; Winter et al. 2001b), but also with a historical
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52 434 assessment that indicated SLA has already decreased in response to rises in CO₂ over the
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54 435 period since industrialization (Reef and Lovelock 2014a).
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3 437 The combination of elevated CO₂ and elevated nutrients resulted in significantly higher
4
5 438 leaf areas but no significant differences in the nitrogen and carbon concentration of
6
7 439 leaves. An analysis of 16 FACE experiments worldwide found no effects of elevated CO₂
8
9 440 on foliar nitrogen concentrations in woody plants (Nowak et al. 2004). However, due to
10
11 441 the increase in leaf area, an increase in nitrogen uptake did occur at the whole-plant
12
13 442 level. Elevated CO₂ led to a reduction in foliar phosphorus concentrations (Table 4), a
14
15 443 phenomenon which has been observed previously in *A. germinans* (Reef et al. 2015) and
16
17 444 could be due to reduced transpiration rates (Fig. 4B), possibly involving subsequent
18
19 445 lower translocation rates of P to the shoot via the xylem stream, as has been suggested
20
21 446 for other tropical trees (Cernusak et al. 2011b). This is further supported by the increase
22
23 447 in P concentrations (and small increases in %N) in the roots of the elevated CO₂
24
25 448 seedlings (Table 4). The reduction in foliar phosphorous concentrations under elevated
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27 449 CO₂ was overcome to some extent (although not significantly so) in the high nutrient
28
29 450 treatment. Elevated CO₂ induced reduction in whole seedling transpiration rates, could
30
31 451 thus have a significant effect on growth rates in mangrove forests where P is the limiting
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33 452 nutrient for growth such as in forests that are hydrologically isolated from regular tidal
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35 453 inundation (Feller et al. 2003).

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40 455 Elevated CO₂ had a significant effect on roots, increasing root length and biomass and
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42 456 also the carbon concentration in the roots, but did not increase allocation of biomass to
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44 457 roots (except under high nutrient levels) as has been shown in other woody species
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46 458 (Hättenschwiler and Körner 1997). Root morphology was influenced in a complex
47
48 459 interaction between elevated CO₂ and nutrient availability as root systems under
49
50 460 elevated CO₂ and high nutrient conditions tended to have a lower proportion of biomass
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52 461 allocated to roots, but roots had a higher proportion of fine roots (Table 3). The increase
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54 462 in fine root production we observed for *A. germinans* under elevated CO₂ conditions is
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56 463 consistent with allocation models based on findings from other tree species (Dybzinski
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3 464 et al. 2015) and is suggested to be driven by the use of carbon exudates to prime
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5 465 microbial populations to enhance N release for plant growth (Phillips et al. 2011). Root
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7 466 development is influenced by complex interactions among nutrient and water demands
8
9 467 of the shoot (Poorter et al. 2012) and carbohydrate availability (Eveland and Jackson
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11 468 2012). Reduction in transpiration in seedlings grown under elevated CO₂ (and increased
12
13 469 WUE) reduces the demand for water, which may be balanced by an increase in nutrient
14
15 470 demand due to higher growth rates (Chapin 1980), leading to little overall change in
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17 471 allocation to roots under low nutrient conditions (Fig. 4). As the rate of root
18
19 472 development in mangroves is an important determinant of seedling establishment
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21 473 success in the soft sediment of tidal flats (Balke et al. 2011) the rapid elongation of roots
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23 474 under elevated CO₂ may increase survivorship of seedlings. Potential changes under
24
25 475 elevated CO₂ in allocation to root biomass, or alterations to root morphology and
26
27 476 elemental composition, which may influence decomposition, are important in mangrove
28
29 477 forests as these factors are likely to influence capacity for carbon sequestration in these
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31 478 habitats and their responses to sea level rise (Krauss et al. 2014).

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36 480 *Mangroves in a changing environment*

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40 482 Rising CO₂ concentrations are likely to have a significant positive effect on the growth
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42 483 rate of the widespread mangrove *Avicennia germinans* over the next century, especially
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44 484 in areas where nutrients availability is high. For a congenitor in the Pacific Ocean, there
45
46 485 is evidence that primary production has already been influenced by elevated CO₂ (Reef
47
48 486 and Lovelock 2014a). Increased nutrient loading in coastal areas is widespread and
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50 487 synergistic interactions with elevated CO₂ are likely to result in overall increases in
51
52 488 mangrove biomass, C sequestration and below ground C storage. Elevated CO₂
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54 489 concentrations will affect the temperature response of photosynthesis in this species
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3 490 more so than the predicted rise in mean global temperature over this period, possibly
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5 491 mitigating growth inhibition by future high temperature anomalies.
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23 500 manuscript.
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7 693 Figure 1. Measured carbon assimilation rates (A) for attached, intact *Avicennia*
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9 694 *germinans* leaves as a function of leaf temperature in seedlings grown under (top)
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11 695 ambient (400 ppm) and (bottom) elevated (800 ppm) CO₂ concentrations subjected to
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13 696 low (left) or high (right) nutrient treatments. The measurements were made under
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15 697 saturating light conditions of 1000 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹. Points are the mean (±SE) values for
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17 698 four seedlings, fitted lines are derived from the quadratic relationship described in Eq. 1.
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19 699 Dotted vertical lines denote the calculated temperature optimum for each treatment.
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23 701 Figure 2. Mean (±SE) A) stomatal water vapour conductance (Gs) B) transpiration (E)
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25 702 and C) intrinsic water use efficiency (WUEi) of attached, intact leaves of four seedlings
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27 703 from each treatment at a leaf temperature of 25°C, irradiance of 1000 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹ and
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29 704 CO₂ concentrations of 400 ppm for seedlings from the low and high nutrient treatments
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31 705 grown at ambient CO₂ levels (open bars), or 800 ppm for seedlings grown at the
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33 706 elevated CO₂ concentration (filled bars). D) Foliar δ¹³C values for N = 10 seedlings from
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35 707 each treatment measured at the end of the experiment. Different letters denote
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37 708 significant differences among treatments (*p* < 0.05).
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42 710 Figure 3. Mean (±SE) leaf temperature measured in seedlings grown under ambient
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44 711 (open circles) and elevated (closed circles) CO₂ concentrations using a laser infrared
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46 712 thermometer at different time points on two cloudless days. Diamond symbols are the
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48 713 mean air temperature in the glasshouses at each time point. The optimal temperature
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50 714 range for photosynthesis (see Table 2) at 400 ppm and 800 ppm CO₂ is represented by
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52 715 the area bound by the horizontal dotted lines and the shaded area, respectively. N=33
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54 716 seedlings for each point.
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3 718 Figure 4. The mean (\pm SE) A) final above ground (AG) and below ground (BG) biomass,
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5 719 B) root/shoot biomass ratio, and C) total leaf area of seedlings grown under ambient
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7 720 (400 ppm, open bars) or elevated (800 ppm, filled bars) CO₂ concentrations and subject
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9 721 to either a low or high nutrient treatment. N = 16-17 seedlings per treatment. “*”
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11 722 denotes significant differences among treatments ($p < 0.05$). Panel D shows the
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13 723 relationship between relative growth rate (RGR) and mean specific leaf area (SLA) for
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15 724 each seedling. The fitted linear regression is of the form $SLA = -885RGR + 78.9$ ($R^2 = 0.22$,
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17 725 $p < 0.001$). Open and filled circles represent seedlings grown under ambient or elevated
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19 726 CO₂ concentrations respectively.
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21 727
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3 729 Table 1. CO₂, temperature and humidity conditions in the two glasshouses between the
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5 730 22nd of June and the 13th of October 2014. Measurements were taken every 5 minutes
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7 731 throughout the day.
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Parameter measured	Ambient CO ₂ glasshouse	Elevated CO ₂ glasshouse
Mean air temperature (°C) ± SD	28.6 ± 8.9	28.2 ± 3.4
Mean relative humidity (%) ± SD	67 ± 20	68 ± 22
Mean [CO ₂] (ppm) ± SD	423 ± 17	827 ± 27

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734 Table 2. Mean (SD) values describing the temperature response of photosynthesis in
 735 *Avicennia germinans* seedling grown at ambient (ca. 400 ppm) and elevated (ca. 800
 736 ppm) CO₂ concentrations and under two nutrient regimes (low and high). A_{max} is the
 737 maximal carbon assimilation rate at light saturation and T_{opt} is the temperature at which
 738 A_{max} is achieved. T_{max} is the temperature at which the upper CO₂ compensation point
 739 occurs, above which net CO₂ loss occurs. Values were calculated from the quadratic
 740 relationship fit to the temperature series from each seedling (Eq. 1). N = 4 seedlings per
 741 treatment. Different letters indicate significant differences among the treatments (*p* <
 742 0.05).

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Parameter	CO ₂ ppm	400	400	800	800
	Nutrients	Low	High	Low	High
A _{max} (μmol C m ⁻² s ⁻¹)		7.5 (1.5) ^a	9.4 (1.4) ^b	10.3 (4.4) ^c	16.1 (3.6) ^d
T _{opt} (°C)		24.9 (1.6) ^a	24.1 (2.9) ^a	28.7 (1.8) ^b	27.8 (0.6) ^b
T _{max} (°C)		39.4 (0.6) ^a	41.6 (5.5) ^a	43.8 (2.2) ^a	42.2 (1.9) ^a
T _{80% Amax} (°C)		19.0 - 31.9	17.2 - 30.9	22.4 - 35.3	21.8 - 34.4

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746 Table 3. Mean (SD) values describing the morphological response of *Avicennia*
 747 *germinans* seedlings to ambient (ca. 400 ppm) and elevated (ca. 800 ppm) CO₂
 748 concentrations and two nutrient regimes (low and high). *N* = 17 seedlings per treatment
 749 for above ground measurements and *N* = 10 per treatment for root analysis. Different
 750 letters indicate significant differences among the treatments (*p* < 0.05).
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Parameter	CO ₂ ppm	400	400	800	800
	Nutrient	Low	High	Low	High
Stem Length (cm)		17.4 (5.8) ^a	17.6 (4.6) ^a	14.6 (4.8) ^a	20.2 (5.0) ^b
Internode Length (cm)		3.2 (0.8) ^a	3.1 (0.8) ^a	2.9 (0.7) ^a	3.0 (0.7) ^a
Leaves per seedling		9.8 (4.5) ^a	11.2 (5.8) ^a	8.5 (3.7) ^a	12.9 (3.5) ^b
Branching rate (cm ⁻¹)		0.10 (0.07) ^a	0.10 (0.09) ^a	0.09 (0.05) ^a	0.08 (0.04) ^a
Leaf mortality rate (day ⁻¹)		0.03 (0.03) ^a	0.01 (0.02) ^b	0.03 (0.03) ^a	0.01 (0.02) ^b
Root Length (cm)		864.8 (307.7) ^a	654.6 (249.2) ^a	1065.2 (446.9) ^b	1242.9 (585.7) ^b
Root Volume (cm ³)		2.1 (1.5) ^a	3.7 (1.9) ^a	4.5 (2.0) ^b	3.4 (1.7) ^a
Mean Root Diameter (mm)		0.56 (0.13) ^a	0.90 (0.12) ^b	0.80 (0.06) ^b	0.66 (0.17) ^a
Fine Root Length Ratio		0.85 (0.08) ^a	0.68 (0.08) ^b	0.73 (0.05) ^b	0.80 (0.1) ^a

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754 Table 4. Mean (SD) values describing the elemental composition of roots and leaves of
 755 *Avicennia germinans* seedlings grown at ambient (ca. 400 ppm) and elevated (ca. 800
 756 ppm) CO₂ concentrations and two nutrient regimes (low and high). *N* = 10 seedlings per
 757 treatment for above ground measurements and *N*=10 per treatment for root analysis.
 758 Different letters indicate significant differences among the treatments (*p* < 0.05).
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Parameter	CO ₂ ppm	400	400	800	800
	Nutrients	Low	High	Low	High
<u>Leaves:</u>					
%C		39.5 (0.9) ^a	39.5 (0.5) ^a	39.5 (0.7) ^a	39.7 (0.6) ^a
%N		3.8 (0.7) ^a	3.5 (0.6) ^a	3.7 (0.7) ^a	3.7 (0.4) ^a
%P		0.51 (0.60) ^a	0.51 (0.70) ^a	0.44 (0.8) ^b	0.47 (0.11) ^b
C:N		10.7 (1.8) ^a	11.5 (1.9) ^a	11.1 (2.4) ^a	10.9 (1.2) ^a
C:P		78.3 (12.6) ^a	78.3 (11.3) ^a	92.1 (17.1) ^b	88.7 (19.6) ^b
N:P		7.45 (1.6) ^a	6.86 (2.0) ^a	8.41 (2.3) ^a	7.87 (2.1) ^a
<u>Roots:</u>					
%C		31.1 (2.2) ^a	31.3 (2.1) ^a	33.7 (2.1) ^b	33.9 (1.8) ^b
%N		1.0 (0.04) ^a	1.2 (0.1) ^b	1.1 (0.1) ^a	1.3 (0.1) ^c
%P		0.50 (0.05) ^a	0.50 (0.08) ^a	0.62 (0.14) ^a	0.58 (0.1) ^a
C:N		30.3 (2.6) ^a	26.7 (2.1) ^b	30.5 (2.7) ^a	26.7 (2.7) ^b
C:P		63.1 (5.2) ^a	65.0 (13.0) ^a	56.2 (11.2) ^a	60.0 (9.6) ^a
N:P		2.0 (2.0) ^a	2.44 (0.7) ^b	1.77 (0.38) ^a	2.24 (4.1) ^b

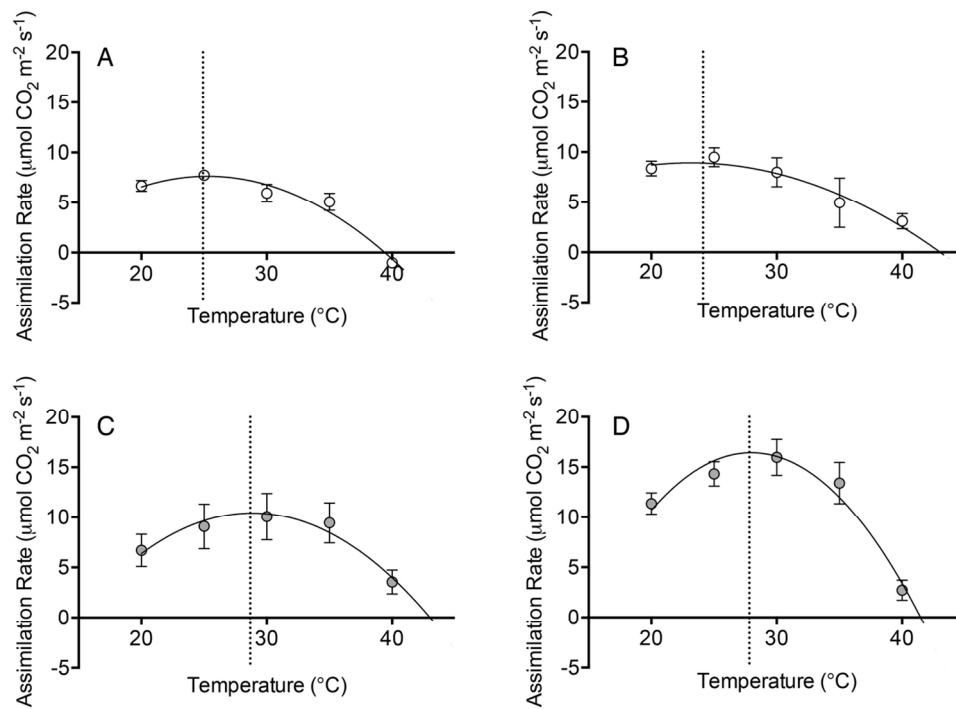
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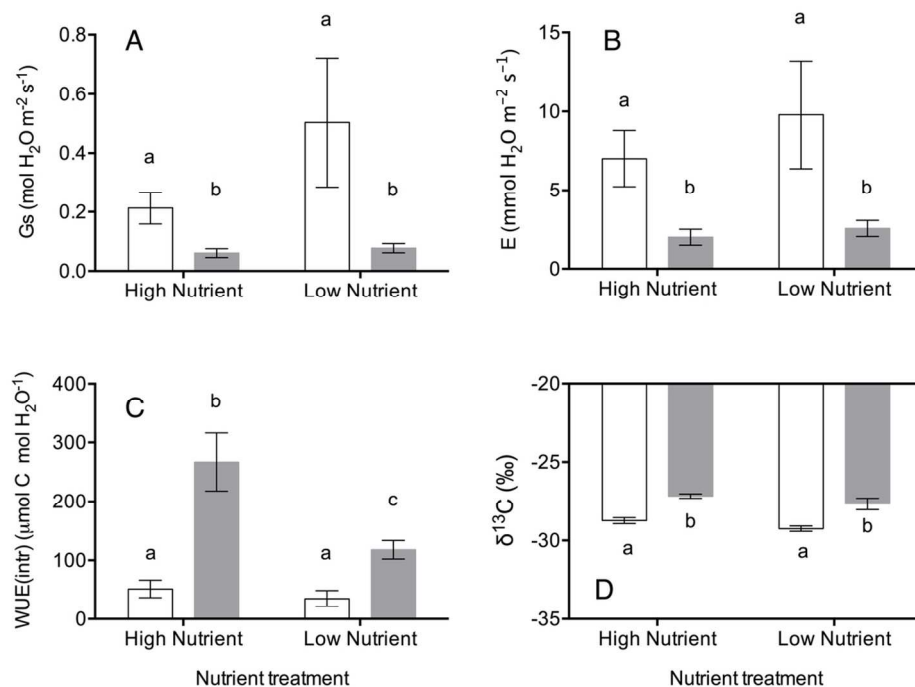
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For Peer Review Only



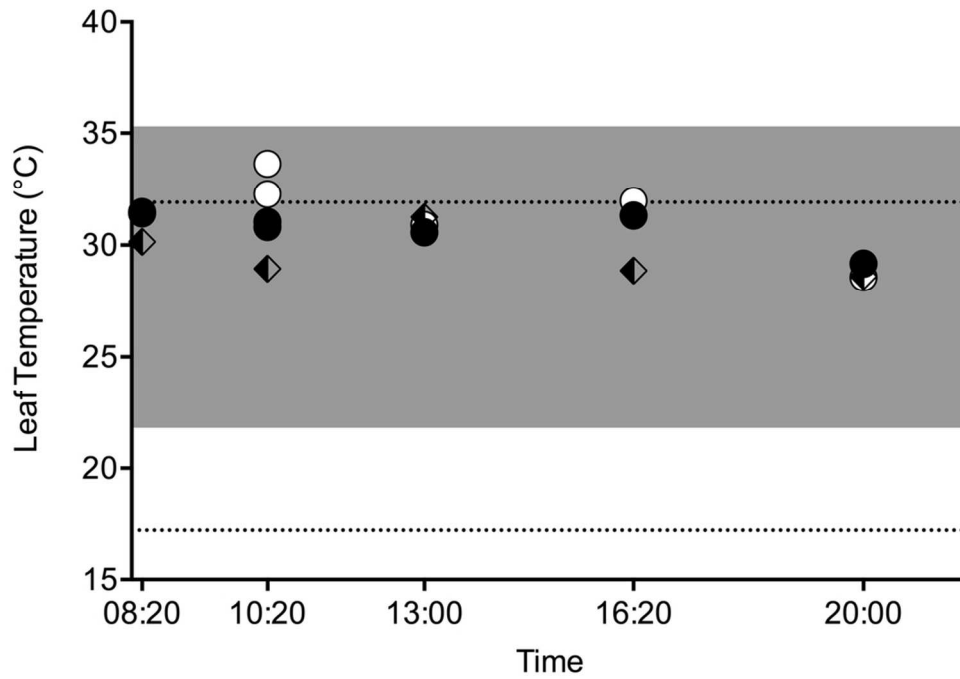
Measured carbon assimilation rates (A) for attached, intact *Avicennia germinans* leaves as a function of leaf temperature in seedlings grown under (top) ambient (400 ppm) and (bottom) elevated (800 ppm) CO₂ concentrations subjected to low (left) or high (right) nutrient treatments. The measurements were made under saturating light conditions of 1000 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Points are the mean ($\pm\text{SE}$) values for four seedlings, fitted lines are derived from the quadratic relationship described in Eq. 1. Dotted vertical lines denote the calculated temperature optimum for each treatment.

121x89mm (300 x 300 DPI)



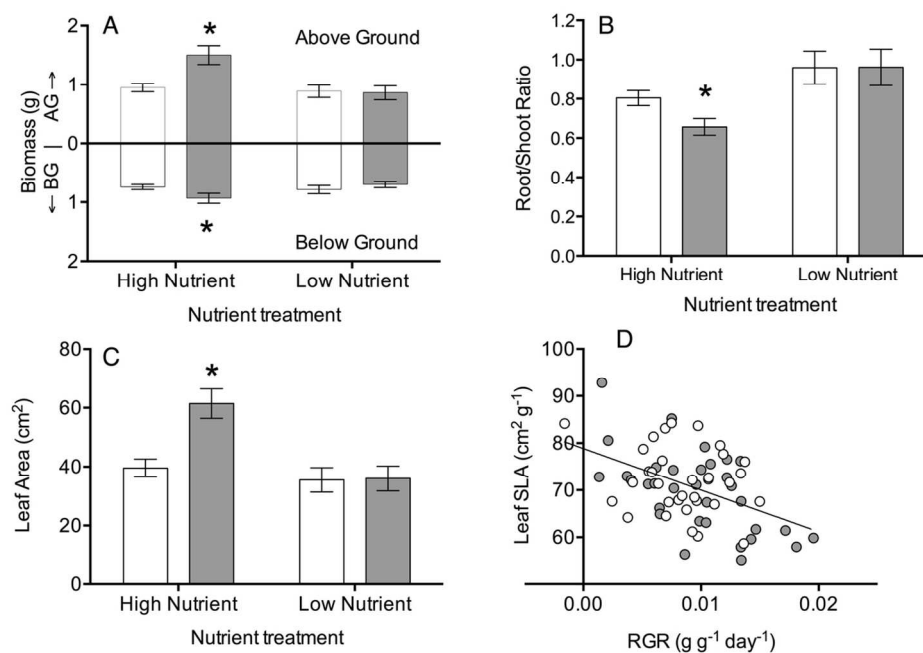
Mean (\pm SE) A) stomatal water vapour conductance (Gs) B) transpiration (E) and C) intrinsic water use efficiency (WUE_i) of attached, intact leaves of four seedlings from each treatment at a leaf temperature of 25°C, irradiance of 1000 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ and CO₂ concentrations of 400 ppm for seedlings from the low and high nutrient treatments grown at ambient CO₂ levels (open bars), or 800 ppm for seedlings grown at the elevated CO₂ concentration (filled bars). D) Foliar $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values for N = 10 seedlings from each treatment measured at the end of the experiment. Different letters denote significant differences among treatments ($p < 0.05$).

110x79mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Mean (\pm SE) leaf temperature measured in seedlings grown under ambient (open circles) and elevated (closed circles) CO₂ concentrations using a laser infrared thermometer at different time points on two cloudless days. Diamond symbols are the mean air temperature in the glasshouses at each time point. The optimal temperature range for photosynthesis (see Table 2) at 400 ppm and 800 ppm CO₂ is represented by the area bound by the horizontal dotted lines and the shaded area, respectively. N=33 seedlings for each point.

95x67mm (300 x 300 DPI)



The mean (\pm SE) A) final above ground (AG) and below ground (BG) biomass, B) root/shoot biomass ratio, and C) total leaf area of seedlings grown under ambient (400 ppm, open bars) or elevated (800 ppm, filled bars) CO₂ concentrations and subject to either a low or high nutrient treatment. N = 16-17 seedlings per treatment. "*" denotes significant differences among treatments ($p < 0.05$). Panel D shows the relationship between relative growth rate (RGR) and mean specific leaf area (SLA) for each seedling. The fitted linear regression is of the form $SLA = -885RGR + 78.9$ ($R^2 = 0.22$, $p < 0.001$). Open and filled circles represent seedlings grown under ambient or elevated CO₂ concentrations respectively.

118x81mm (300 x 300 DPI)