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*Research*

# Variations in Amazon forest productivity correlated with foliar nutrients and modelled rates of photosynthetic carbon supply

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The rate of above-ground woody biomass production,  $W_p$ , in some western Amazon forests exceeds those in the east by a factor of 2 or more. Underlying causes may include climate, soil nutrient limitations and species composition. In this modelling paper, we explore the implications of allowing key nutrients such as N and P to constrain the photosynthesis of Amazon forests, and also we examine the relationship between modelled rates of photosynthesis and the observed gradients in  $W_p$ . We use a model with current understanding of the underpinning biochemical processes as affected by nutrient availability to assess: (i) the degree to which observed spatial variations in foliar [N] and [P] across Amazonia affect stand-level photosynthesis; and (ii) how these variations in forest photosynthetic carbon acquisition relate to the observed geographical patterns of stem growth across the Amazon Basin. We find nutrient availability to exert a strong effect on photosynthetic carbon gain across the Basin and to be a likely important contributor to the observed gradient in  $W_p$ . Phosphorus emerges as more important than nitrogen in accounting for the observed variations in productivity. Implications of these findings are discussed in the context of future tropical forests under a changing climate.

**Keywords:** modelling photosynthesis; nutrient limitation; Amazon forest

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Recent research has found large-scale variations in stem growth rates (the rate of new wood production into both boles and branches,  $W_p$ ) as well as tree turnover rates (mean rates of tree recruitment and mortality) across Amazonia. In general, the forests of

western Amazonia are more dynamic, with younger and faster growing trees which have lower wood density than those of the central and eastern Amazon [1–3]. The scale of the variability is substantial, with  $W_P$  varying by more than a factor 2 [1].

Different hypotheses have been proposed to explain this spatial variability in  $W_P$  [1]. First, owing to the proximity of the Andes, forest soils in western Amazonia tend to be richer in nutrients than their counterparts in central and eastern Amazon [4,5], and therefore greater soil fertilities might explain the higher  $W_P$  found in the west. Indeed,  $W_P$  has been found to be related to soil P and soil N concentrations and soil C:N ratios for 59 sites across the Amazon Basin, and also partly related to the amount of rainfall and its spatial distribution [6]. Trees with higher foliar nutrient contents are generally associated with these more fertile soils of the western part of the Basin [7], and one possibility is that the influence of soil fertility on  $W_P$  is exerted via effects of foliar [N] and/or foliar [P] on the canopy-level gross primary productivity ( $G_P$ ).

A second possibility is that  $G_P$  actually varies very little across the Amazon Basin, but that different patterns of carbon allocation to respiration and/or other above- and below-ground organs could also explain the observed variations in stem growth [1]. However, faster growing trees on high-nutrient soils from western sites seem to allocate nearly the same proportion of productivity to above and below ground as their counterparts in the slower growing central and eastern Amazon forests [8]. This result does not, however, exclude the possibility that the slower growing eastern forests expend a greater proportion of their  $G_P$  on respiration than on growth [9].

In this study, we test the first hypothesis by quantifying the extent to which variations in simulated  $G_P$  across the Amazon Basin can explain observed variations in  $W_P$ . To investigate the likely variability in  $G_P$ , we undertake a basin-wide application of a tropical forest canopy gas-exchange model, which has already been calibrated and validated at various sites across the Amazon Basin [10].

Under the assumption of nitrogen (N) limitation, leaf photosynthesis is usually modelled based on the measured linearity between photosynthetic capacity and foliar N content. This reflects the large investment of foliar nitrogen in photosynthetic machinery [11]. Nevertheless, for tropical ecosystems, it has been suggested that phosphorous (P) rather than nitrogen (N) may constrain productivity in lowland tropical rain forests. A relative abundance of N in tropical rainforests has been suggested from foliar and soil  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  measurements [12–14] as well as by high rates of nitrogen oxide emissions and considerable losses of nitrogen through leaching processes in many tropical forest systems [9]. This is consistent with the suggestion first made by Vitousek [15] that most tropical forests may be phosphorous- rather than nitrogen-limited and consistent with the few available studies showing a close correlation between photosynthesis and foliar [P] for tropical forest species [16]. In a cross-biome analysis of the influence of P on the linear relationship between the light-saturated rate of photosynthesis ( $A_{\text{max}}$ ) and foliar [N], it was found that the slope of such linear relationship increases with leaf [P] [17]. This suggests

that in P-limited ecosystems, the relationship between  $A_{\text{max}}$  and foliar [N] is constrained by low [P] availability.

Most recently, Domingues *et al.* [18] implemented P limitation into the main photosynthetic parameters of the Farquhar & von Caemmerer [19] photosynthesis model. The parametrizations for maximum RuBisCO activity ( $V_{\text{max}}$ ) and electron transport capacity ( $\mathcal{J}_{\text{max}}$ ) used leaf-level nutrient and photosynthesis measurements, taken across a precipitation gradient incorporating different types of woody species in West Africa. Initial tests showed that the model (which allows for both  $V_{\text{max}}$  and  $\mathcal{J}_{\text{max}}$  to be limited by either N or P) can also successfully predict leaf-level photosynthetic rates for tropical trees in the Cameroon, Bolivia and Australia [18].

Here, we use an ecosystem canopy-scale photosynthesis model, validated using flux tower data from five sites in the Brazilian Amazon [10], to simulate  $G_P$  for 38 sites across the Amazon Basin incorporating possible nitrogen and/or phosphorus limitations using the parametrizations developed by Domingues *et al.* [18] and *in situ* measurements. Specifically, we examine to what extent the simulated  $G_P$  with constraints of foliar [P] and/or [N] can explain the observed variability in stem growth rates.

## 2. METHODS

### (a) Data

#### (i) Sites

We simulate  $G_P$  for 38 primary lowland rainforest sites located in Colombia, Venezuela, Ecuador, Peru and Brazil (figure 1). For all sites foliar nutrients, specific leaf area ( $S$ ) and leaf area index ( $L$ ) data had already been collected as part of the work of the RAINFOR Consortium. Site descriptions are given in table 1.

#### (ii) Leaf nutrient data (nitrogen and phosphorous) and specific leaf area

Nitrogen and phosphorous concentrations for upper canopy leaves used to derive canopy photosynthetic parameters ( $V_{\text{max}}$  and  $\mathcal{J}_{\text{max}}$ ) are as in Fyllas *et al.* [7] with around 20 trees sampled per plot, with average values for each (usually) 1 ha plot calculated here with a species abundance weighting *viz*:

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{N_s \sum_{t=1}^{n_s} \theta_{t,s} / n_s}{\sum_{s=1}^m N_s}, \quad (2.1)$$

where  $\hat{\theta}$  represents the plot-level estimate for the average value of any parameter,  $\theta$ ,  $N_s$  is the number of times that any species,  $s$ , occurs in the plot,  $n_s$  is the number of times that species was actually sampled in the plot,  $m$  is the total number of species sampled in the plot and  $\theta_{t,s}$  represents individual measurement of parameter  $\theta$  on tree number  $t$  of species,  $s$ . Effectively, equation (2.1) gives a species abundance-weighted estimate for the plot-level average value of  $\theta$ , with the estimate of  $\hat{\theta}$  taking into account the fact that different species have different characteristic nutrient concentrations [7] as well as vastly varying relative abundances in different plots.

#### (iii) Soil phosphorous

Observed total soil phosphorous concentrations [21] available at 33 out of the 38 studied sites are taken from Quesada *et al.* [5].

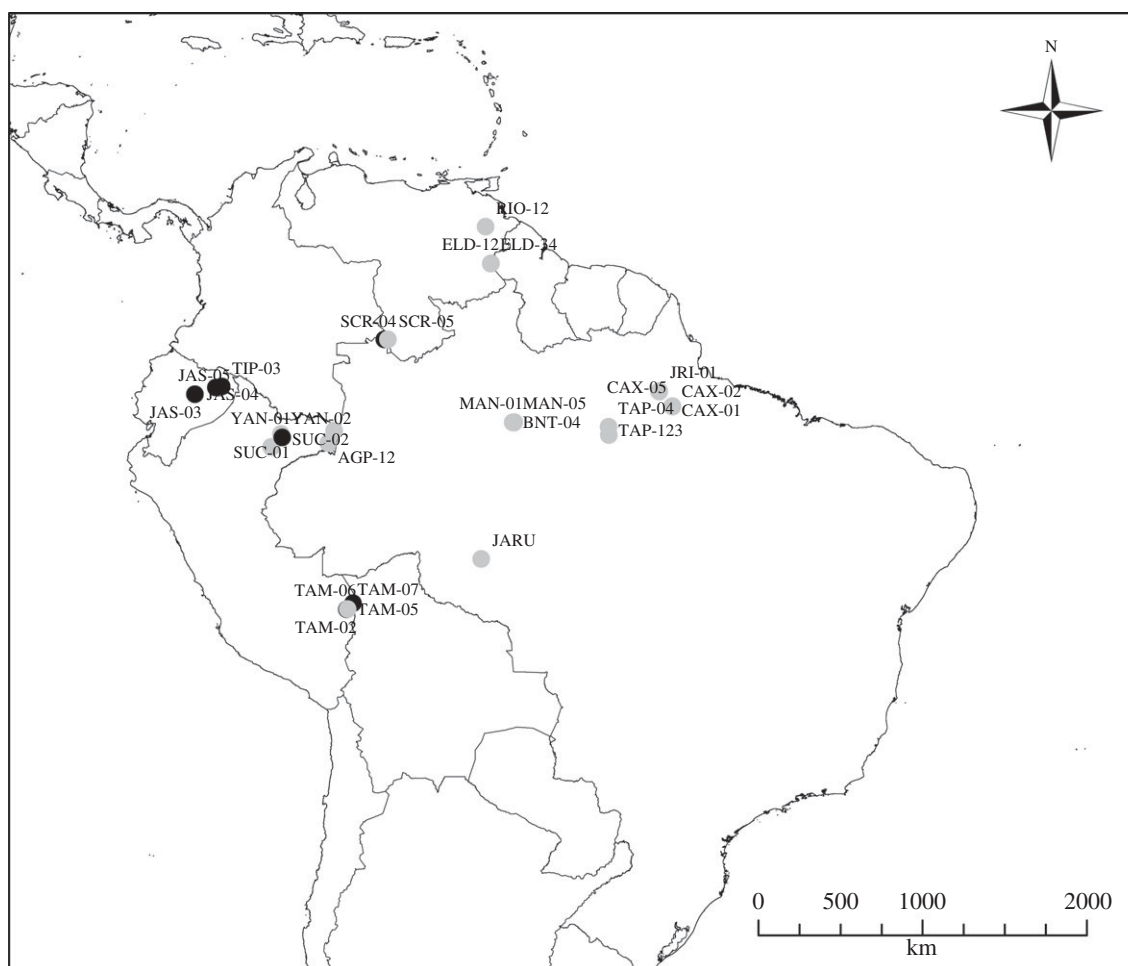


Figure 1. Rainforest site locations used in this study. Black and grey symbols denote N- and P-limited sites, respectively, according to Domingues *et al.* [18] parametrization (equation 2.2).

(iv) *Leaf area index*

Leaf area index ( $L$ ) was derived from around 20 hemispherical photographs per site [22], these usually having been taken at the end of the rainy season (S. Patiño 2001–2004, unpublished data). For the JARU site,  $L$  was taken from the estimate of Meir *et al.* [23]. We assume a constant  $L$  for each site, throughout the simulations.

(v) *Atmospheric carbon dioxide concentration*

Six-monthly atmospheric  $[\text{CO}_2]$  from 1982 to 2001 (340 to  $373 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ ) were used as input data [24]. Although significant diurnal variations in  $[\text{CO}_2]$  may occur both above and within tropical forest canopies [25], neglecting this diurnal variability should not have a major impact on the overall estimate of  $G_p$ .

(vi) *Climatology*

The WATCH Forcing Data were used to provide sub-daily meteorology, and are based on the ERA-40 reanalysis regridded to half-degree with adjustment of meteorological variables for changes in elevation plus monthly adjustments based on observations [26,27]. The model input variables are solar radiation (downward shortwave radiation flux), wind speed, air temperature and specific humidity at three-hourly time steps, for the period 1980–2001. The monthly adjustments include for the downward shortwave radiation flux allowance for cloud fraction and the effects

of both seasonal- and decadal-variations in atmospheric aerosol-loading, as well as the use of observed monthly average temperature and diurnal temperature range. The 38 sites are covered by 25 half-degree grid squares in the WATCH Forcing Data as some of the sites are adjacent to each other (figure 1).

(vii) *Data for validation*

Simulated values of mean annual gross primary productivity in the absence of foliar respiration ( $G_p^*$ , defined as  $G_p$  plus canopy foliar respiration,  $R_C$  [28]) are compared against bottom-up estimates based on individual measurements of the different components of the forest carbon-cycle at the five sites where data were available. The individual components included branch production, litterfall, tree growth, fine root production and autotrophic- and heterotrophic-respiration [8,29–31] (Y. Malhi, L. E. O. C. Aragão & D. B. Metcalfe 2005–2006, unpublished data). The methodology was standardized across all sites, in eastern Amazonia at Caxiuana (CAX-06) and western Amazonia at Tambopata, Peru (TAM-04 and TAM-05), but for sites located in central Amazon at Manaus (MAN-K34, denoted here MAN-01) and at Tapajos (TAP-04),  $G_p^*$  was derived from component measurements presented in the literature [31].

Eddy correlation estimates of  $G_p^*$  have been calculated by subtracting daytime measured net ecosystem exchange from ecosystem respiration (measured during

Table 1. Description of sites. Latitude (lat) and longitude (long) are given in decimal degrees, altitude (alt) in m, precipitation (precip) in mm and temperature (temp) in degrees Celsius. Soil types are taken from Quesada *et al.* [5] and remaining information is taken from Patiño *et al.* [20]. Sites in bold are nitrogen-limited according to equation (2.2).

plot	plot code	lat	long	alt.	precip	temp	soil type	forest type
AGP-12	Colombia	-3.74	-70.31	109	3216	25.8	Plinthosol	Terra firme
ALP-11	Peru	-3.95	-73.43	126	2763	26.34	Gleysol	Terra firme
ALP-12	Peru	-3.95	-73.44	133	2763	26.34	Alisol	Terra firme
ALP-21	Peru	-3.95	-73.44	142	2763	26.34	Arenosol	Terra firme
ALP-22	Peru	-3.95	-73.44	137	2763	26.34	Plinthosol	Terra firme
ALP-30	Peru	-3.95	-73.43	144	2763	26.34	Arenosol	Tall caatinga
BNT-04	Brazil	-2.63	-60.15	103	2272	27.08	Ferrasol	Terra firme
<b>BOG-02</b>	<b>Ecuador</b>	<b>-0.70</b>	<b>-76.48</b>	<b>271</b>	<b>3252</b>	<b>25.67</b>	<b>Cambisol</b>	<b>Terra firme</b>
CAX-01	Brazil	-1.74	-51.46	15	2314	26.88	Acrisol	Terra firme
CAX-02	Brazil	-1.74	-51.46	15	2314	26.88	Acrisol	Terra firme
CAX-06	Brazil	-1.72	-51.46	15	2314	26.88	Ferrasol	Terra firme
<b>CUZ-03</b>	<b>Peru</b>	<b>-12.50</b>	<b>-68.96</b>	<b>190</b>	<b>2417</b>	<b>25.54</b>	<b>Cambisol</b>	<b>Terra firme</b>
ELD-12	Venezuela	6.10	-61.40	201	1977	26.66	Cambisol	Terra firme
ELD-34	Venezuela	6.08	-61.41	369	1977	25.82	Leptosol	Terra firme
JARU	Brazil	-10.08	-61.93	150	1600	26	Acrisol	Terra firme
JAS-02	Ecuador	-1.07	-77.62	434	4013	23.38	Alisol	Terra firme
JAS-03	Ecuador	-1.08	-77.61	410	4013	23.38	Alisol	Terra firme
JAS-04	Ecuador	-1.07	-77.61	430	4013	23.38	Alisol	Terra firme
<b>JAS-05</b>	<b>Ecuador</b>	<b>-1.06</b>	<b>-77.62</b>	<b>394</b>	<b>4013</b>	<b>23.38</b>	<b>Fluvisol</b>	<b>Terra firme</b>
JRI-01	Brazil	-0.89	-52.19	127	2346	26.59	Ferrasol	Terra firme
LOR-12	Colombia	-3.06	-69.99	94	3216	25.8	Plinthosol	Terra firme
MAN-01	Brazil	-2.61	-60.21	100	2950	26.7	Ferrasol	Terra firme
MAN-05	Brazil	-2.61	-60.20	100	2950	26.7	Ferrasol	Terra firme
RIO-12	Venezuela	8.11	-61.69	270	1239	25.62	Lixisol	Terra firme
SCR-05	Venezuela	1.93	-67.04	111	3093	25.98	Acrisol	Tall caatinga
<b>SCR-04</b>	<b>Venezuela</b>	<b>1.93</b>	<b>-67.04</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>3093</b>	<b>25.98</b>	<b>Podzol</b>	<b>Terra firme</b>
SUC-01	Peru	-3.25	-72.91	123	2671	26.29	Plinthosol	Terra firme
SUC-02	Peru	-3.25	-72.90	122	2671	26.29	Acrisol	Terra firme
TAM-01	Peru	-12.84	-69.29	205	2417	25.2	Alisol	Terra firme
TAM-02	Peru	-12.83	-69.29	210	2417	25.2	Alisol	Terra firme
TAM-05	Peru	-12.83	-69.27	220	2417	25.2	Cambisol	Terra firme
<b>TAM-06</b>	<b>Peru</b>	<b>-12.84</b>	<b>-69.30</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>2417</b>	<b>25.2</b>	<b>Alisol</b>	<b>Terra firme</b>
TAM-07	Peru	-12.83	-69.26	225	2417	25.2	Cambisol	Terra firme
TAP-123	Brazil	-3.31	-54.94	187	1968	26.13	Ferrasol	Terra firme
<b>TIP-03</b>	<b>Ecuador</b>	<b>-0.64</b>	<b>-76.14</b>	<b>237</b>	<b>3252</b>	<b>25.79</b>	<b>Gleysol</b>	<b>Terra firme</b>
YAN-01	Peru	-3.44	-72.85	104	2671	26.31	Alisol	Terra firme
<b>YAN-02</b>	<b>Peru</b>	<b>-3.43</b>	<b>-72.84</b>	<b>104</b>	<b>2671</b>	<b>26.31</b>	<b>Cambisol</b>	<b>Terra firme</b>

night). The method to derive ecosystem respiration from night-time measurements is explained elsewhere [32–34]. Hourly night-time net ecosystem exchange measurements include a correction during periods of low turbulence using a friction velocity threshold [35]. A measure of the night-time friction velocity uncertainty of fluxes is presented using the upper and lower bounds of the friction-velocity threshold used for corrections as in Saleska *et al.* [34].

Mean annual values of  $G_p^*$  from eddy correlation at MAN-01, TAP-04 and an additional tower at Jaru (southwestern Amazon) were calculated from monthly mean values [36] taking the mean of all available years with an uncertainty bound explained above. Mean annual  $G_p^*$  at MAN-05 and CAX-06 are taken from table 12 in Malhi *et al.* [31].

(viii) *Stem wood production ( $W_p$ ) and basal area growth  $\Delta B$  data*

Recent estimates for  $W_p$  and basal area growth  $\Delta B$  were available for 35 sites taken from Quesada *et al.* [4], and supplemented in a few cases with unpublished

data from the RAINFOR database [37]. The methodology for these measurements is described in detail elsewhere [1,38] and is based on tree-by-tree records of long-term diameter growth over multiple intervals that total on average greater than 10 years per plot, and applies mean measured species-level wood densities, stand-level allometric models and census-interval corrections to estimate stand-level wood production.

(b) *Model, modelling approach and parametrization*

The canopy-scale photosynthesis model [10,39] uses the  $C_3$  leaf photosynthesis model from Farquhar & von Caemmerer [19] and the sun and shade approach from de Pury & Farquhar [40] to scale from leaf- to canopy-level, and assumes an optimization of stomatal behaviour [41]. The model has been calibrated and evaluated at five eddy covariance sites in the Brazilian Amazon.

Photosynthetic parameters ( $V_{cmax}$  and  $f_{max}$ ) were parametrized using two approaches. First, using

eqn (2) from Domingues *et al.* [18] which includes both N and P constraints on photosynthesis and a leaf structure term  $S$ , specific leaf area, in ( $\text{cm}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$ ). These ‘min{N:P}’ relationships are:

$$V_{\max}^{\text{DW}} = \min\{a_{\text{NV}}[\text{N}]_{\text{DW}} + b_{\text{NV}}S + c_{\text{NV}}; a_{\text{PV}}[\text{P}]_{\text{DW}} + b_{\text{PV}}S + c_{\text{PV}}\}$$

and

$$\mathcal{J}_{\max}^{\text{DW}} = \min\{a_{\text{NJ}}[\text{N}]_{\text{DW}} + b_{\text{NJ}}S + c_{\text{NJ}}; a_{\text{PJ}}[\text{P}]_{\text{DW}} + b_{\text{PJ}}S + c_{\text{PJ}}\}, \quad (2.2)$$

where  $V_{\max}^{\text{DW}}$  and  $\mathcal{J}_{\max}^{\text{DW}}$  are  $V_{\max}$  and  $\mathcal{J}_{\max}$  expressed on a leaf dry-weight basis ( $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ ), subsequently converted to area basis using the specific leaf area  $S$ , with  $[\text{N}]_{\text{DW}}$ ,  $[\text{P}]_{\text{DW}}$  expressed in  $\text{mg g}^{-1} \text{DW}$ . The empirical coefficients from equations (2.2) are

$$a_{\text{NV}} = 0.43, b_{\text{NV}} = 0.368, c_{\text{NV}} = -1.559, \\ a_{\text{PV}} = 0.453, b_{\text{PV}} = 0.25, c_{\text{PV}} = -0.798$$

and

$$a_{\text{NJ}} = -0.406, b_{\text{NJ}} = 0.447, c_{\text{NJ}} = -1.496, \\ a_{\text{PJ}} = 0.436, b_{\text{PJ}} = 0.318, c_{\text{PJ}} = -0.741$$

with  $a$  coefficients in ( $\mu\text{mol mg}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ ),  $b$  coefficients in ( $\mu\text{mol cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) and  $c$  coefficients in ( $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ ).

The remaining parameter values, from the photosynthesis model, are assumed invariant across all sites and are as follows: temperature sensitivities of  $V_{\max}$  and  $\mathcal{J}_{\max}$ ,  $S_{\text{J}}$  ( $693.124 \text{ J mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ ) and  $H_{\text{J}}$  ( $220\,000 \text{ J mol}^{-1}$ ), respectively; the curvature factor (0.7 unit less) of the potential rate of electron transport equation, quantum yield of photosynthesis ( $0.35 \text{ mol electrons mol}^{-1} \text{ photons}$ ) and  $\lambda$  for the stomatal conductance model being  $1200 \text{ mol mol}^{-1}$ .

#### (i) Scaling up from leaf- to canopy-level

Canopy-level values of  $V_{\max}$ ,  $\mathcal{J}_{\max}$  and leaf respiration  $R_{\text{d}}$  were estimated as the integral of the vertical profile of their leaf-level values over the entire canopy leaf area ( $L$ ) following the method of de Pury & Farquhar [40], as implemented and applied in Mercado *et al.* [39] and Mercado *et al.* [10]. Canopy-level maximum carboxylation activity of RuBisCO  $\hat{V}_{\max}^{\text{C}}$  ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ), is estimated as

$$\hat{V}_{\max}^{\text{C}} = \frac{\hat{V}_{\max}[1 - e^{-k_{\text{P}}L}]}{k_{\text{P}}}, \quad (2.3)$$

where  $\hat{V}_{\max}$  is the estimated RuBisCO activity at the top of the canopy obtained by the relevant substitutions of and  $[\hat{\text{N}}]$ ,  $[\hat{\text{P}}]$  and/or  $\hat{S}$  into equation (2.2) and  $k_{\text{P}}$  is the extinction coefficient for photosynthetic capacity that defines how photosynthetic capacity decreases with the cumulative  $L$  downwards from the top of the canopy. Low values of  $k_{\text{P}}$  mean shallow profiles of photosynthetic capacity, and thus for any given values for  $\hat{V}_{\max}$  and  $L$  then  $\hat{V}_{\max}^{\text{C}}$  increases with decreasing  $k_{\text{P}}$ .

The upper canopy photosynthetic capacity parameter estimates,  $\hat{V}_{\max}$  and  $\mathcal{J}_{\max}$ , were estimated using equation (2.2) with  $R_{\text{d}}$  being estimated as a constant fraction of  $\hat{V}_{\max}$  (0.022) [10]. We calculate the extinction coefficient  $k_{\text{P}}$  using the equation derived by Lloyd

*et al.* ([28], fig. 10) from a compilation of data from different sources from broadleaf forest and trees, *viz*:

$$\log(k_{\text{P}}) = 0.00963\hat{V}_{\max} - 2.43, \quad (2.4)$$

where  $\hat{V}_{\max}$  is in the units of  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ .

From equation (2.4), ‘ $k_{\text{P}}$ ’ increases with increasing  $\hat{V}_{\max}$ . This means that plants with high upper-leaf photosynthetic capacities have relatively steeper vertical canopy photosynthetic profiles than plants with low values of upper-leaf photosynthetic capacities which have shallower profiles.

We incorporate an inhibition of leaf respiration with light [42] where for any leaf in the canopy,  $R_{\text{d}}$  is reduced by 30 per cent when its incident irradiance,  $I$ , is higher than  $10 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ .

#### (ii) Outline of simulations and analysis

- Canopy photosynthesis is simulated using the parametrizations given by the ‘min{N:P}’ equations and model evaluation is assessed with available observations from single components of the ecosystem carbon balance (the so-called ‘bottom up’) and also from eddy correlation.
- Additionally, the following sensitivity tests are performed. (i) A control simulation at which  $\hat{V}_{\max}$  and  $\mathcal{J}_{\max}$  are held constant (to the mean value for all sites given by the ‘min{N:P}’ equations), in order to assess the climate effect on simulated  $G_{\text{P}}$  when compared with simulations with variable parameters, (ii) a set of simulations assuming N limitation, and (iii) P limitation at all sites using the ‘min{N:P}’ equations.
- Relationships between simulated  $G_{\text{P}}$  (under all model configurations), observed leaf nutrients (N,P), total soil P and observed stem wood production ( $W_{\text{P}}$ ) and basal area growth ( $\Delta B$ ) are provided (at 33 sites where all data are available) and linear-adjusted Pearson correlation coefficient ( $R^2$ ) is used to assess how the above given variables are related.

## 3. RESULTS

### (a) Leaf nutrients

As shown in figure 2,  $[\hat{\text{P}}]$  varies by a factor of 3–4 when expressed on either an area or dry-weight basis and with  $[\hat{\text{N}}]$  varying less across the 38 sites. The highest  $[\hat{\text{P}}]$  content was found at some of the western sites in Ecuador and Peru while the lowest values are found in eastern Brazil. Lowest  $[\hat{\text{N}}]$  values were at some of the sites in northeast Venezuela and were highest in Ecuador, north and south Peru. As  $[\hat{\text{P}}]$  increases,  $[\hat{\text{N}}]:[\hat{\text{P}}]$  ratios decrease from *ca* 40 to 10.

### (b) Relationship between foliar (N,P) and soil (P) nutrients to observed stem wood production ( $W_{\text{P}}$ ) and basal area growth ( $\Delta B$ )

Figure 3 illustrates relationships between measured  $[\hat{\text{N}}]$  and  $[\hat{\text{P}}]$  in leaves on a dry-weight and area basis with  $W_{\text{P}}$  (top row) and  $\Delta B$  (bottom row). Additionally, the figure shows the relationships between measured total soil P with  $W_{\text{P}}$  (top row) and  $\Delta B$  (bottom row). Pearson’s adjusted  $R^2$  shows significant correlation ( $p < 0.05$ ) between foliar P, on both dry-weight and

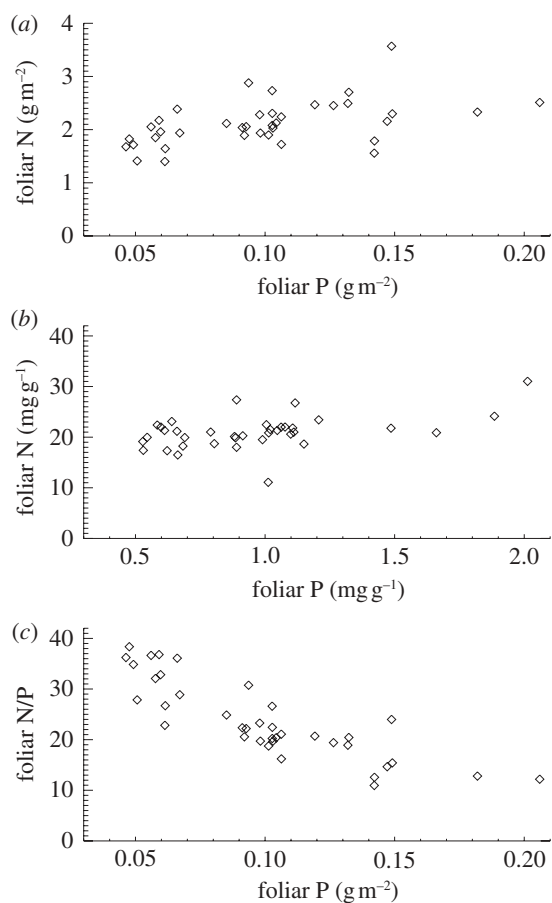


Figure 2. Variability of foliar  $[\hat{N}]$  and  $[\hat{P}]$  on (a) area basis, (b) dry-weight basis and (c) their N:P ratio. Data taken from Fyllas *et al.* [7].

area basis with  $W_P$  and  $\Delta B$ . Total soil P is also significantly correlated with  $\Delta B$ , but apparently not with  $W_P$  ( $p = 0.062$ ). Foliar N is not correlated with  $W_P$ , but is correlated with  $\Delta B$ , but only when expressed on an area basis. This suggests that P is more important than N at explaining some of the observed variability in stem-wood production and basal area growth. However, foliar P and foliar N are correlated with each other ( $R = 0.54$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Using partial correlation, foliar P is significantly correlated with  $W_P$  ( $R = +0.49$ ,  $p = 0.004$ ) controlling for foliar N. On the other hand, partial correlation of foliar N with  $W_P$  is not significant ( $R = -0.06$ ,  $p = 0.737$ ) after controlling for its correlation with foliar P. Using a canopy photosynthesis model, we now explore the extent to which P limitation to photosynthesis is more important than N limitation as implied by figure 3.

### (c) Relationship between simulated net carbon uptake and observed stem wood production ( $W_P$ ) and basal area growth ( $\Delta B$ )

Simulated mean annual  $G_P^*$ , averaged over the period 1980–2001 for all sites, as shown in table 2, ranges from 30.9 Mg C ha<sup>-1</sup> a<sup>-1</sup> for CAX-01 in eastern Amazonia to 41.2 Mg C ha<sup>-1</sup> a<sup>-1</sup> for JAS-05 in Ecuador.

In figure 4, the relationships between simulated  $G_P$  and observed  $W_P$  (top row) and  $\Delta B$  (bottom row) are illustrated for four model configurations with various combinations of  $\hat{V}_{max}$  and  $\hat{J}_{max}$ . For the first

simulation,  $\hat{V}_{max}$  and  $\hat{J}_{max}$  are taken as invariant across all sites using the mean dataset values obtained from equation (2.2). This simulation thus shows the effect of climate alone on simulated  $G_P$ . The remaining three simulations allow for between-site climate variability, but with different assumptions regarding the nature of nutrient limitations on tropical forest tree photosynthesis *viz*: (i) N limitation, (ii) P limitation, and (iii) both N and P limitation with  $\hat{V}_{max}$  and  $\hat{J}_{max}$  calculated using the ‘min{N:P}’ relationship of equation (2.2) (figure 4).

Simulated  $G_P$  with invariant photosynthetic parameters showed no significant correlation with either  $W_P$  or  $\Delta B$ . There was, however, a significant correlation between  $G_P$  simulated under N-limitation, under P-limitation, and under both N- and P-limitation with both  $W_P$  and  $\Delta B$ . From the relationships with  $W_P$ , simulated  $G_P$  under P-limitation (adjusted  $R^2 = 27.4\%$ ) explains nearly the same observed variability as when both N and P are limiting (adjusted  $R^2 = 26.25\%$ ). From the relationships with  $\Delta B$ , simulated  $G_P$  under P-limitation (adjusted  $R^2 = 48.2\%$ ) explains less observed variability than when both N and P are limiting (adjusted  $R^2 = 60.5\%$ ). This means that, when explaining basal area growth, N becomes important as well. This is consistent with figure 3, based on observations; it is clear that P is more important than N in accounting for variations in canopy photosynthesis that are relatable to the observed variability in stem wood production. However, in some circumstances to explain the basal area growth rates, a relatively low N availability is important.

### (d) Model evaluation

Comparison of observed and modelled  $G_P^*$ ,  $G_P$  and  $R_C$  at the few available sites (table 3 and figure 5) shows that simulated values are close to the observations, with simulated  $R_C$  closer to the bottom-up estimates ( $-5\%$ ). Comparison between  $G_P^*$  derived from bottom-up and eddy correlation shows much more variability in the bottom-up values. Simulated  $G_P^*$  using the ‘min{N:P}’ relationships is on average 14 and 7 per cent higher than the mean from bottom-up and eddy covariance estimates, respectively.

## 4. DISCUSSION

### (a) Model parametrization and implications for simulated $G_P$

Although the parametrization of Domingues *et al.* [18] was developed using a dataset based on savannah and forest trees from West Africa, it performed surprisingly well, in as much that the predicted  $G_P$  correlated well with the observed values of  $W_P$  and  $\Delta B$  across the Amazon Basin. Although it might be argued that this was more-or-less inevitable given the already strong correlation between foliar P and these growth parameters (figure 3), what is important here is that this result was obtained through the model results showing that most sites should be represented as phosphorus- rather than nitrogen-limited in order to account for the maximum range in woody growth rates (figure 4). Only a few sites were predicted to be nitrogen-limited (black in figure 1, filled circles in figures 3 and 4). These were located on either alisols, fluvisols or

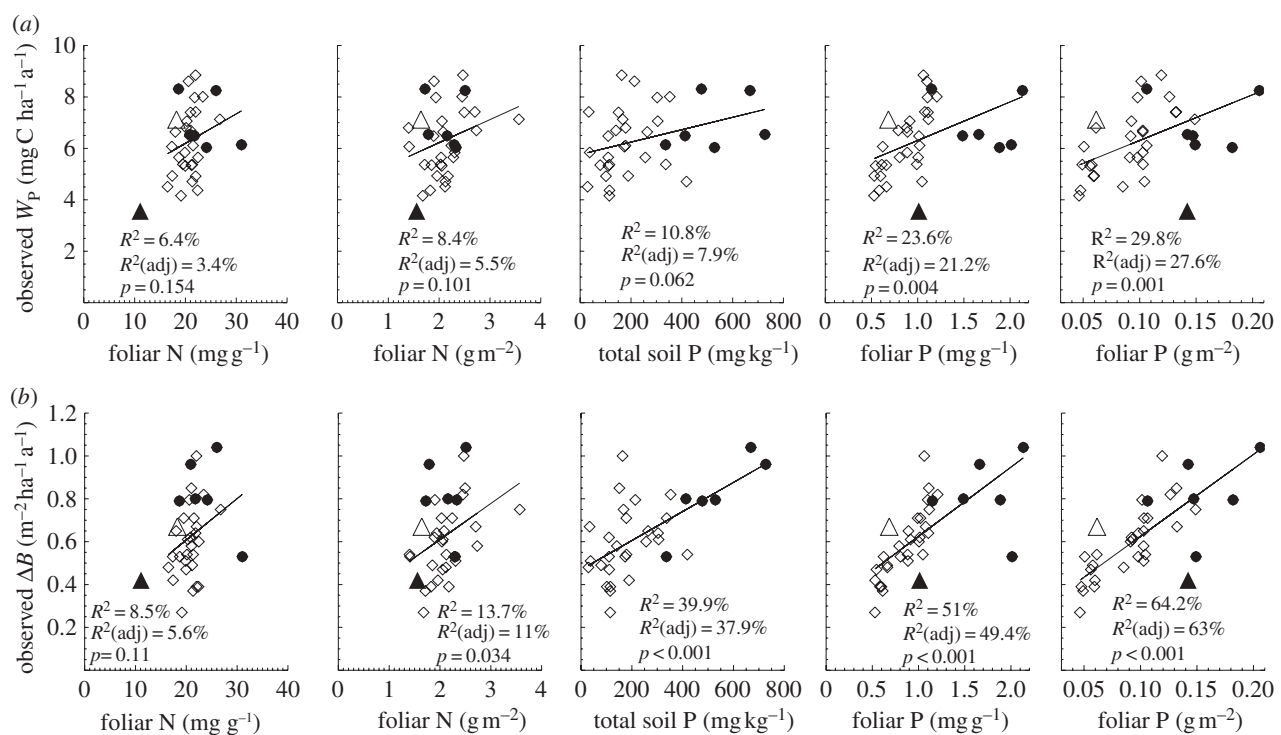


Figure 3. Relationships of foliar N and P (on dry-weight and area basis) [7] and soil P content [5] against (a) observed stem growth ( $W_p$ ), (b) basal area growth ( $\Delta B$ ) [6] at 33 sites. Filled and open symbols correspond to N- and P-limited sites, respectively, according to equation (2.2). The triangle symbols correspond to sites with no available soil phosphorous data.

cambsols—all of which are relatively high in available soil phosphorus [5] or, in one case, on a podzol, this being a soil type for which nitrogen availability may be unusually low [5,12]. Nevertheless, despite some suggestion of N limitations (at seven sites), there was little practical difference between the ‘P-limited’ sites and ‘min{N:P}’ cases (figure 4, third and fourth columns) in their ability to predict either of the growth metrics investigated. This is because even when N-limitation was predicted, the modelled photosynthetic parameters under P-limitation were only marginally greater. For example at TIP-03, BOG-02 and YAN-02, it appears that N and P are co-limiting and  $\hat{V}_{\max}$  derived from  $[\hat{N}]_A$  and  $[\hat{P}]_A$  were 54.5 and 55.2  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  at TIP03, 56.2 and 59.8  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  at BOG-02 and 50.3 and 50.6  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  at YAN-02, respectively. At the remaining four sites, more N-limitation was obtained (only three included in  $R^2$  calculations), corresponding values for  $\hat{V}_{\max}$  derived from  $[\hat{N}]_A$  and  $[\hat{P}]_A$  were 59.7 and 69.1  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  at JAS-05, 57.8 and 65.3  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  at TAM-06, 50.3 and 56.4  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  at CUZ-03 and 52.4 and 65.3  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  at SCR-04. Finally, application of the Domingues *et al.* [18] parametrization to our dataset showed P-limitation at sites with foliar N:P ratios higher than 17. This is also the threshold value suggested for P-limitation in plants [43,44].

Indeed, it may be that because the small number of N-limited sites are used in the simple (but independent) parametrization of photosynthesis based on foliar [P] in area basis, the ‘[P]<sub>A</sub> only’ equation of Mercado *et al.* [10] (equation A 1) gives as good relationship between  $G_p$  and both  $W_p$  and  $\Delta B$  (figure 6) as the more complex ‘min{N:P}’ model of Domingues *et al.* [18]. Additionally, the related model predictions of

$G_p$  based on foliar [N] on area basis ‘[N]<sub>A</sub> only’ (equation A 1) performs particularly poorly (figure 6). Indeed, the simple ‘[P]<sub>A</sub> only’ equation actually gives rise to slightly higher  $R^2$  than the ‘min{N:P}’ model. The reasons for this are unclear, but might have to do with the fact that the ‘[P]<sub>A</sub> only’ relationship was empirically derived by fitting the canopy-scale model used in this study to eddy correlation data from just five sites, all located in poor-nutrient soils. Additionally, even though  $V_{\max}$  parametrizations (equations (2.2) and A 1) were quantitatively similar at many sites (not shown), simulated  $G_p$  was higher with the ‘[P]<sub>A</sub> only relationship’ (table 2). This is mostly because the ratio  $\hat{J}_{\max}/V_{\max}$  was higher in those simulations (1.92 versus  $\hat{J}_{\max}/V_{\max}$  ranging between 1.5 and 1.6), which translates into higher light-limited velocity of photosynthesis, and therefore simulated  $G_p$  under both sets of parametrizations is not strictly comparable.

The ‘min{N:P}’ parametrization was evaluated against single leaf  $V_{\text{cmax}}$  and  $\hat{J}_{\max}$  derived from gas exchange measurements at a site in Tapajos [18]. Results show no statistically significant difference between the mean predicted and observed values (mean values of predicted and observed  $V_{\text{cmax}}$  were  $0.45 \pm 0.09$  and  $0.39 \pm 0.16$   $\mu\text{mol g}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  and mean values of predicted and observed  $\hat{J}_{\max}$  were  $0.69 \pm 0.15$  and  $0.60 \pm 0.22$   $\mu\text{mol g}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ). Furthermore, estimates of  $V_{\text{cmax}}$  derived from gas exchange measurements for tropical rainforest in the Amazon are scarce. Here, we use the only five available data sources that we are aware of to compare against the top of the canopy  $V_{\text{cmax}}$  estimated in this study. Our estimates are close to, and within the range of, mean values inferred from gas exchange measurements at MAN-05 [45], CAX-06 [46] TAP-04 in Brazil [47] and LFB-02 in Bolivia (T. Domingues



Table 2. Simulated mean annual  $G_p^*$  in  $\text{Mg C ha}^{-1} \text{a}^{-1}$  for the period 1980–2001 using ‘min {N:P}’ (equation 2.2) and ‘P<sub>A</sub>-only’ (equation A 1) model parametrizations.

site	‘min{N:P}’	‘P <sub>A</sub> -only’
AGP-12	36.6	41.6
ALP-11	37.1	41.1
ALP-12	38.8	42.4
ALP-21	39.6	43.7
ALP-22	34.9	40.4
ALP-30	36.8	41.1
BNT-04	33.7	38.7
BOG-02	39.0	43.7
CAX-01	30.9	36.6
CAX-02	31.0	36.7
CAX-06	30.3	35.8
CUZ-03	37.6	44.4
ELD-12	32.3	38.6
ELD-34	35.1	40.5
JARU	35.2	39.8
JAS-02	40.8	44.8
JAS-03	38.8	43.1
JAS-04	38.0	42.5
JAS-05	41.2	46.7
JRI-01	34.6	38.6
LOR-12	37.1	41.8
MAN-01	34.3	39.4
MAN-05	35.8	40.6
RIO-12	33.3	40.5
SCR-04	36.2	43.0
SCR-05	36.2	39.4
SUC-01	37.2	41.8
SUC-02	37.5	41.7
TAM-01	36.2	40.7
TAM-02	35.8	40.5
TAM-05	33.4	38.6
TAM-06	40.8	46.0
TAM-07	34.7	39.3
TAP-04	35.7	40.4
TAP-123	33.3	38.6
TIP-03	37.1	43.2
YAN-01	38.5	43.2
YAN-02	37.0	42.1

2007, unpublished data), as shown in figure 7. Estimated  $\mathcal{J}_{\max}/V_{\max}$  in this study ranged between 1.5 and 1.6 using the ‘min{N:P}’ relationship, which agrees well with published values for other tropical rainforest in the Amazon and in Africa.  $\mathcal{J}_{\max}/V_{\max}$  values for upper-canopy leaves at Manaus [45], Caxiuanã [46], Tapajos [47] and LSL-02 (T. Domingues 2007, unpublished data) have been reported as 2.27, 1.94, 1.59 and 1.92, respectively. Also, Coste *et al.* [48] reported a  $\mathcal{J}_{\max}/V_{\max}$  ratio of 2.1 from seedlings of 14 tree species in the tropical forest of French Guiana. Meir *et al.* [49] obtained  $\mathcal{J}_{\max}/V_{\max}$  ratios of 1.7 from gas exchange measurements at a rainforest in Cameroon with broadleaf, coniferous, shrubs and herbaceous plants.

### (b) Model evaluation

The model evaluation presented in this study comparing simulated  $G_p^*$  against bottom-up and eddy covariance flux estimates is intended as a point of reference for the model only (i.e. as a general evaluation). This is because simulations correspond to an

average over the period 1980–2001 and the available  $G_p^*$  estimates from both type of observations used in this study correspond to a different and shorter period of time, generally a few years at most.

There are errors associated with both methods used to estimate  $G_p^*$ , with both likely to underestimate the fluxes. Underestimation of total net ecosystem exchange using bottom-up approaches for tropical forest can potentially be up to 20 per cent [50]. There are also difficulties in estimating  $G_p^*$  from eddy covariance fluxes. Important sources of error from eddy covariance measurements include data representativity, treatment of data gaps, flux correction for systematic errors and the non-measured night-time fluxes [51]. The latter are associated with a frequent failure of the system to measure night-time fluxes during low wind speed conditions [34,52–54]. Therefore, only observations above a defined wind-speed threshold can be used for the purpose of estimating ecosystem respiration,  $R_c$  which is used together with the daytime net ecosystem exchange measurements to estimate  $G_p^*$  from eddy covariance. Unmeasured night-time fluxes can introduce significant errors into estimates of  $R_c$  [51]. Additionally, the response of  $R_c$  to daytime temperatures and a response of leaf respiration to both temperature and light conditions [42] are still unaccounted for in the calculation of  $R_c$  in the studied sites. However, although these effects might counteract each other, there are no available measurements to quantify them. As for daytime measurements, the total uncertainty estimated for the Manaus K34 and Jarú site are  $\pm 12$  and  $\pm 32$  per cent, respectively [55].

Once the difficulties in estimating  $G_p^*$  from bottom-up and eddy covariance measurements are considered, we conclude that our model estimates are in reasonable agreement. Furthermore, the canopy exchange photosynthesis model used in this study showed agreement of between  $\pm 10$  per cent with eddy covariance estimates of  $G_p^*$  at the five main eddy covariance sites (MAN-C14, MAN-K34, TAP-K67, Jarú and CAX-06, [10]), despite the photosynthesis/nutrient parametrizations. Similarly, our estimates of  $G_p^*$  agree with values reported for tropical humid evergreens in the global dataset of Luysaert *et al.* [56] with estimates from the bottom-up approach ( $36 \text{ Mg C ha}^{-1} \text{a}^{-1}$ , from six sites). Nevertheless, the main purpose of this study was to simulate variation in  $G_p$  across the Amazon Basin and to look for relationships with observed stem wood production ( $W_p$ ) and basal area growth ( $\Delta B$ ) rather than to simulate the absolute value of  $G_p$  at any single site.

Evaluation of simulated leaf respiration (figure 5 and table 3) shows good model agreement against observations. Analyses with global datasets have shown a consistent coupling between mass-based respiration rates and [N]<sub>DW</sub> content across species [57]. In this study, we estimate leaf respiration rates at 25°C from  $V_{c\max}$  but  $V_{c\max}$  is usually constrained by leaf P, according to our models. Although numerically our leaf respiration rates seem to match the scaled-up observations, it remains to be determined if this assumption is valid. Nevertheless, it is worth pointing out that Meir *et al.* [58] found high correlation between measured leaf respiration rates and foliar [P]<sub>A</sub>, especially when specific leaf area was included in their analysis for the Jarú tower site.

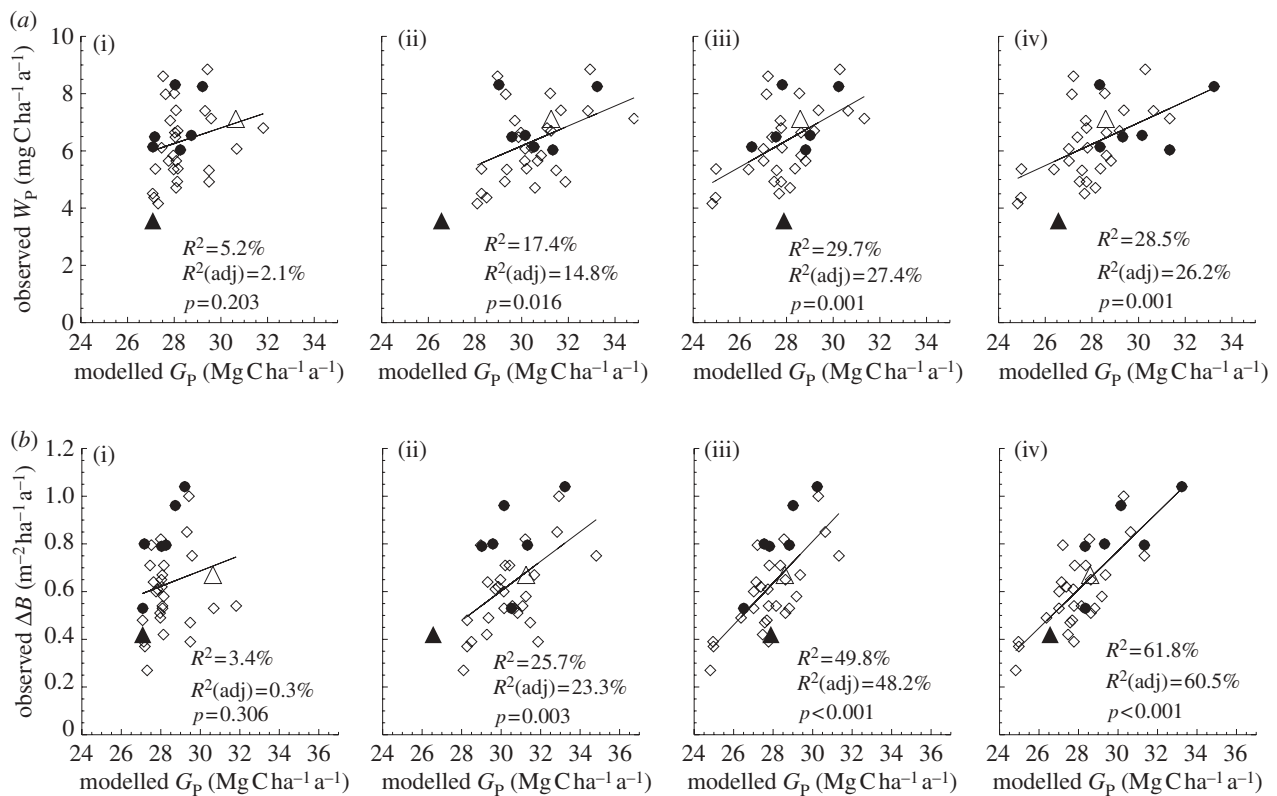


Figure 4. Relationships of simulated  $G_p$  (using the ‘min{N:P}’ relationship under four model configurations) against (a) observed stem growth ( $W_p$ ), and (b) basal area growth ( $\Delta B$ ) [6] at 33 sites. Each of the four model configurations correspond to a column: (i) with invariant  $\hat{V}_{\max}$  and  $\hat{J}_{\max}$ , assuming (ii) N limitation, (iii) P limitation and (iv) both N and P limitation across all studied sites. Filled and open symbols correspond to N and P limited sites, respectively, according to equation (2.2). The triangle symbols correspond to sites with no available soil phosphorous data.

Table 3. Model evaluation of simulated gross primary productivity in the absence of foliar respiration ( $G_p^*$  defined as  $G_p$  plus canopy foliar respiration,  $R_C$ ),  $G_p$  and  $R_C$  in  $\text{Mg C ha}^{-1} \text{a}^{-1}$  using available observations from ‘bottom-up’ and eddy correlation. Upper and lower bounds of uncertainty correction for eddy correlation values are related to a night-time friction velocity threshold used [35]. Data sources for each site are described in the methods.

site		bottom-up	SE	tower	upper bound uncertainty	lower bound uncertainty	‘min{N:P}’
TAM-06	$G_p^*$	28.3	3.0	—			40.8
	$R_C$	6.3	2.5	—			9.5
	$G_p$	22.0	—	—			31.3
TAM-05	$G_p^*$	31.9	3.4	—			33.4
	$R_C$	7.5	3.0	—			6.4
	$G_p$	24.4	—	—			27.0
CAX-06	$G_p^*$	30.9	1.5	36.0			30.3
	$R_C$	6.4	0.1	—			5.4
	$G_p$	24.5	—	—			24.8
TAP-04	$G_p^*$	29.3	4.4	28.8	29.3	28.6	35.7
	$R_C$	7.4	4.0	—			7.9
	$G_p$	21.9	—	—			27.8
MAN-01	$G_p^*$	29.9	4.8	36.9	37.9	35.5	34.3
	$R_C$	10.0	4.0	—			6.6
	$G_p$	19.9	—	—			27.8
MAN-05	$G_p^*$	—	—	30.4			35.8
	$R_C$	—	—	—			7.4
	$G_p$	—	—	—			28.5
JARU	$G_p^*$	—	—	34.5	34.9	33.5	35.2
	$R_C$	—	—	—			7.1
	$G_p$	—	—	—			28.1

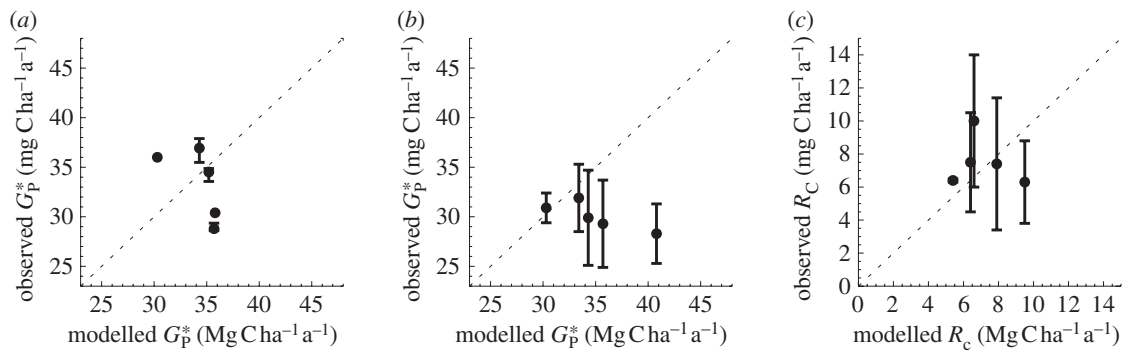


Figure 5. Model evaluation of simulated gross primary productivity ( $G_p^*$ ), and leaf respiration ( $R_C$ ) using available observations derived from (a) eddy correlation and (b,c) bottom-up. Error bars for eddy correlation measurements correspond to uncertainty [35] and correspond to standard error for bottom-up estimates. Data sources for each site are described in the methods.

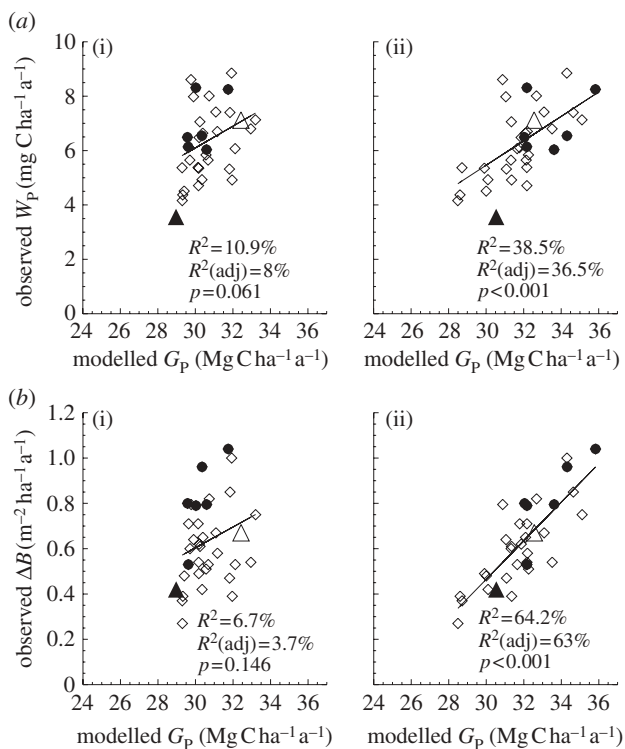


Figure 6. Relationships of simulated  $G_P$  against (a) observed stem growth ( $W_P$ ) and (b) basal area growth ( $\Delta B$ ) [6] at 33 sites. Model configurations correspond to assumption of (i) N limitation (using  $[N]_A$  only) and (ii) P limitation (using  $[P]_A$  only) across all studied sites. Filled and open symbols correspond to N- and P-limited sites, respectively, according to equation (2.2). The triangle symbols correspond to sites with no available soil phosphorous data.

The modelling framework used in this study does not consider plant-related soil water stress. The stomatal conductance formulation used [41] takes into account drought stress via atmospheric vapour-pressure deficits. However, especially at forest sites with strong seasonality, there is a strong stomatal control of transpiration combined with deep rooting systems that allow water recharge from deep soils [59]. There is little evidence of soil water deficit effects on tropical forest productivity [32,59,60], except for the most peripheral forests close to the forest/savannah transition zone [9] and no such forests were considered in this study.

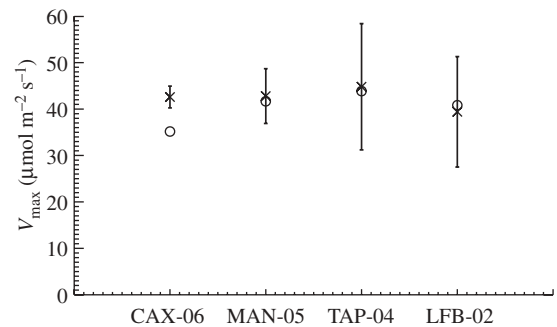


Figure 7. Comparison of top of the canopy  $V_{\text{max}}$  derived from gas exchange measurements at four rainforest sites in the Amazon Basin (crosses, error bars correspond to one standard deviation), and estimated in this study using the 'min{N:P}' relationship (circles). Data sources from Brazilian sites are Caxiuaena from Vale *et al.* [46], Manaus from Carswell *et al.* [45] and Tapajos from Domingues *et al.* [47]. The Bolivian site LFB-02 is courtesy of T. F. Domingues, unpublished data.

### (c) Relating simulated net carbon uptake to measured stem wood production ( $W_P$ ) and basal area growth ( $\Delta B$ )

In the analysis presented, we have shown that simulated  $G_P$  using 'min{N:P}' can explain approximately 30 per cent of observed variability in observed wood production including P-limitation alone or when including both N- and P-limitation. Including N-limitation with P-limitation marginally decreases the obtained correlation, and simulated  $G_P$  under N-limitation alone can only explain 15 per cent of the observed variability in  $W_P$ . However, from the seven N-limited sites (only six included in calculations of  $R^2$ ), three presented N and P co-limitation. Additionally, our analysis suggests that variability in local meteorological variables given fixed nutrient levels at the various sites does not simulate variation in  $G_P$  sufficient to explain any of the observed variability of  $W_P$  and  $\Delta B$ . Finally, using a species abundance weighting (equation (2.1)) to estimate leaf nutrients at each plot proved to have an impact on simulated  $G_P$  and its capability to explain variability of  $W_P$  and  $\Delta B$  (adjusted  $R^2$  of 26%,  $p = 0.001$  and 60%,  $p < 0.001$  respectively) as opposed to using plot level means which gave lower correlations and significance levels (adjusted  $R^2$  of 15%,  $p = 0.016$  and 23%,  $p = 0.003$  respectively, not shown).

Our simulations gave only a limited variability in  $G_P$  for the 38 sites simulated (with 95% of  $G_P$  estimates within 10% of our overall basin-wide means). These small variations in simulated  $G_P$  explained up to 26 and 60 per cent of the observed variability in  $W_P$  and  $\Delta B$ , respectively. This suggests not only that variations in  $W_P$  for the forests examined may indeed be driven to a considerable extent by variations in  $G_P$  (themselves driven by variations in canopy nutrient concentrations, and especially by variations in phosphorus), but also that as  $G_P$  increases beyond a certain point, then much of the extra carbohydrate availability is preferentially allocated towards  $W_P$ . For example, at a low  $G_P$  of 25 Mg C ha<sup>-1</sup> a<sup>-1</sup> as simulated by the 'min{N:P}' model,  $W_P$  is estimated at 3.9 Mg C ha<sup>-1</sup> a<sup>-1</sup> equal to just 0.16 of  $G_P$ . But at a higher  $G_P$  of 35 Mg C ha<sup>-1</sup> a<sup>-1</sup>,  $W_P$  is estimated at 11.3 Mg C ha<sup>-1</sup> a<sup>-1</sup>, equal to 0.32 of  $G_P$ . This is as suggested by Lloyd & Farquhar [61] and has important implications for any stimulation of  $G_P$  as might be expected to occur, for example, in response to elevated [CO<sub>2</sub>] with any stimulation of  $W_P$  being proportionally much higher than any associated increase in  $G_P$ .

For  $\Delta B$ , the differences are even more profound with the ratio  $\Delta B/G_P$  varying more than threefold from 0.012 to 0.037 m<sup>2</sup> Mg<sup>-1</sup> C for the same simulated  $G_P$  variations. This greater relative sensitivity is due to a consistent decline in tree-wood density with increasing  $G_P$ . Indeed, based on data presented by Baker *et al.* [38,62], we have also estimated changes in stand-level wood density ( $\hat{\rho}_w$ ) and found even stronger relationships with  $G_P$  than for either  $W_P$  or  $\Delta B$  with  $R^2$  of 0.76 and a slope of around 40 mol μmol kg m<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> (results not shown). For example,  $\hat{\rho}_w$  at a low  $G_P$  of 25 Mg C ha<sup>-1</sup> a<sup>-1</sup> as simulated by the 'min{N:P}' model is estimated at 730 kg m<sup>-3</sup>, but it is also estimated that  $\hat{\rho}_w$  would be only 331 kg m<sup>-3</sup> for  $G_P$  of 35 Mg C ha<sup>-1</sup> a<sup>-1</sup>. Thus, higher productivity sites are also characterized by a greater abundance of species characterized by a low  $\hat{\rho}_w$  capable of high rates of basal area (and presumably height) growth.

Variability in carbon use efficiency (CUE), the ratio of net primary productivity to  $G_P^*$ , across the studied transect owing to variability in autotrophic respiration rates has been proposed as a possible explanation for the observed spatial variability in observed rates of stem wood productivity [1]. This hypothesis suggests lower rates of CUE owing to higher plant respiration at low productivity sites and higher rates of CUE and lower plant respiration rates at the high productivity sites. Ongoing fieldwork campaigns at various sites across the Amazon Basin are currently measuring the individual carbon cycle components. This type of research should lead to a better understanding of (i) variability of main fluxes across the Amazon Basin and, most importantly, (ii) the mechanism behind a possible variability in plant respiration as proposed, and its relationship to nutrient supply, which as shown in the present analysis has a major role in influencing observed spatial variability in stem productivity across the Amazon Basin.

Global vegetation models, which ignore phosphorus availability [63,64], would not predict at least some of the observed spatial variability in stem growth-rates that clearly occurs across the Amazon Basin. This

variability appears to be of fundamental ecological importance, because it is closely correlated in space with similar variation in carbon stores (biomass), stand-level species composition, wood density and population dynamics, and with underlying soil properties. The likelihood, therefore, is that these macro-ecological gradients will prove important in determining forest responses to global change drivers such as increasing [CO<sub>2</sub>] and temperatures, as well as determining how forest ecosystems may respond to other more local drivers. For example, it has been suggested that western Amazon forests are less sensitive than eastern forests to some forms of anthropogenic disturbance, because they are adapted to the naturally much higher turnover rates of these forests compared with the eastern part of the Basin [65,66]. Clearly, global-scale models need to be able to reproduce the present-day spatial variation in tree growth-rates across the Amazon and to include any relevant additional process parametrizations, in our specific case effects of soil fertility on foliar [P] and hence on simulated net carbon uptake. Such advances should lead to an enhanced ability of global models to simulate the response of tropical ecosystems to future changes in climate and atmospheric composition, and to improved quantification of future climate–carbon cycle feedbacks.

## 5. SUMMARY

We have simulated the sensitivity of  $G_P$  to parametrizations of photosynthetic capacity, in order to understand spatial dynamics of observed  $W_P$ . We tested model sensitivity to including nutrient (N and P, only N, and only P) constraints on photosynthesis, and how the simulated photosynthesis relates to variables such as above-ground growth and biomass. In agreement with previous studies showing soil phosphorus as the principal soil fertility factor influencing rates of tree growth across the Amazon Basin, simulations performed in this study suggest that when including a leaf [P] constraint to photosynthetic capacity, simulated  $G_P$  agrees with the few available observations and can explain up to approximately 30 per cent of the spatial variability in stem growth. Incorporating this improved understanding of the role of soil nutrients in explaining basin-wide variations in  $G_P$  will lead to improved parametrizations in global carbon cycle models. This should enable improved simulation of the response of tropical ecosystems to future changes in climate and atmospheric composition, and improved quantification of future climate–carbon cycle feedbacks.

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## APPENDIX A

In addition to the  $\min\{N : P\}$  equation, we investigated the utility of the  $V_{\max}$  versus leaf P (area basis) relationship: the '[P]<sub>A</sub> only' relationship as obtained in Mercado *et al.* [10] with the 'A' subscript here used to denote values expressed on a leaf area basis. This relationship was obtained by relating the best-fitted top of the canopy  $V_{\max}$  from each of five calibration sites, against measured upper canopy [N]<sub>A</sub> and [P]<sub>A</sub> for the same sites. The relationship for [N]<sub>A</sub> ('[N]<sub>A</sub> only') was very poor ( $R^2 = 0.08$ ), but much better for [P]<sub>A</sub> ( $R^2 = 0.41$ ).  $\mathcal{J}_{\max}$  has been estimated as a constant ratio ( $r$ ) of  $V_{\max}$  as calibrated in the modelling exercise of Mercado *et al.* [10],

$$\left. \begin{aligned} V_{\max} &= a[P]_A + b \\ \text{and } \mathcal{J}_{\max} &= rV_{\max} \end{aligned} \right\}, \quad (\text{A } 1)$$

with corresponding values for  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $r$  of  $386.9 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ,  $17.9 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$  and 1.92, respectively. Respective values for the slope, intercept and  $r$  for the '[N]<sub>A</sub> only' relationship are  $6.8 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ,  $30.8 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$  and 1.92.

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