

# Analysing the effects of local environment on the source-sink balance of Cecropia sciadophylla: a methodological approach based on model inversion

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- 1 Analysing the effects of local environment on the source-sink balance of
- 2 Cecropia sciadophylla: a new methodology based on model inversion.
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23 Abstract:

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Functional-structural model (FSM) of tree growth have great potentials for the forestry field but their development, calibration and validation are hampled by the difficulty to collect experimental data at organ scale for adult trees. Owing to their simple architecture and morphological properties, 'model plants' such as Cecropia sciadophylla are of great interest to validate new models and methodologies since exhaustive descriptions of the plant structure and mass partitioning are accessible.

- The objective of this study was to propose a methodology and to analyse the influence of environmental conditions on the dynamics of trophic competition within the trees.
- Using data of 11 trees measured in September 2007 for calibration and data of 7 trees measured in December 2008 for validation, we present a method to estimate an integrated factor of local environment for each plant, based on model inversion of the GreenLab FSM. It provides as a result the complex dynamics of biomass allocation to the different components of the plants during their growth, according to the environmental pressure they underwent.
- Extension of the model to population level could be done by linking the integrated environment factor to a competition index.

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#### Introduction

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47 Classically, individual-based forestry models use simplified representations of tree 48 crown and characterize the growth by variations of key indicators such as height 49 or diameter at breast height (Pretzsch, 2002). In the last decades, a new class of plant growth models has emerged, representing trees at organ scale and integrating 50 51 structural and functional processes, and their interactions with the environment 52 (Sievänen et al., 2000; Prusinkiewicz, 2004). However, their potential application 53 to the field of forest management is not straightforward. A major obstacle is model 54 calibration and validation against adequate data. For adult trees, their high stature, 55 complex structure, and long life span drastically increase the experimental work 56 required to collect data at organ scale. So, practically, only global, aggregated or 57 sampled measurements are used to develop and evaluate the models (e.g. in 58 Perttunen et al., 2001; Lopez et al., 2008). In that context, another promising approach is to consider 'model trees' with a 59 60 reduced lifespan and structure complexity to build and validate FSTM. The 61 neotropical genus Cecropia Loefl. is the most important genus of pioneer trees in 62 the neotropics; it grows rapidly and ably colonizes gaps (Berg and Rosselli, 2005). 63 It includes 61 species that possess several properties of a 'model tree'. Cecropia 64 has a very simple architecture following a Rauh model (Hallé et al., 1978). Each 65 node bears three lateral buds that potentially give rise to a branch (central bud) 66 and two inflorescences (Zalamea et al., 2008), as illustrated in Fig. 1B. Branching

67 and flowering are immediate; growth is continuous (no period of cessation of growth). The number of phytomers constituting the whole tree remains relatively 68 69 low even though the life span can reach several decades. In previous studies, 70 Heuret et al. (2002) and Zalamea et al. (2008) have shown a high annual 71 periodicity in reproductive and branching processes, as well as an alternation of 72 long and short nodes, for C. obtusa and C. sciadophylla respectively. Additionally, their results indicate that it is possible to estimate the age of a tree by observing its 73 74 morphology, due to the fact that stipules, leaves, inflorescences, and branches scares remain visible along growth axes.. This is especially interesting in these 75 76 tropical zones where tree age determination is difficult. 77 The origins of these periodic patterns might be linked, among others, to climatic

78 fluctuations and/or dynamic trophic competition during the plant development.

79 The question is thus: how to analyse the effect of environment on source-sink

80 balance?

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Unravelling the environment influence from the trophic dynamics can be done using a FSTM. But determining how to define the environment factor to input in the model is complex since many factors interact together and are impossible to measure with accuracy. Therefore, in our approach, we chose to characterize the environment by a single variable, that would represent the integration of every environmental factors and would be an indicator of the plant potentiality at each growth step. For suitable models, this integrated environmental factor can be 89 estimated together with the model parameters using tree data.

In this study, we present the application of that method, using inversion of the FSTM GreenLab (Yan et al., 2004; Mathieu et al., 2009), for analysing the environmental influence on the source-sink balance for Cecropia sciadophylla. A previous study of Cecropia using the GreenLab model was performed in Letort et 94 al. (2009) using data of 11 trees that were measured in French Guiana in September 2007. However, the environment was considered as a constant factor. It did not allow to analyse the influence of the seasonal fluctuations of the Guyanese climate (alternation of dry and rain seasons) on plant growth. Especially internode lengths seem to be related to rainfall (Heuret et al., 2002; Zalamea et al., 2008). A new methodology had to be introduced and the model had to be adapted to take into account the intra-annual variations of the environmental pressure. Besides, a new set of data on seven trees was collected in December 2008 and was used as an independent dataset for validation of the method.

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With the objective of using the model as a tool to unravel the ontogenic variations (low-frequency trend) and the environmental variations (high-frequency variation), the aims of this work are (i) to determine morphological allometries to simplify future measurements, (ii) to evaluate the ability of the GreenLab model to trace back the dynamics of internal trophic competition within the plants, and (iii) to evaluate the possibility of driving the morphological and architectural plasticity by a single control variable. Eventually this study paves the way to the 111 definition of an index of competition, in order to obtain a forest model based on 112 individual trees with explicit architectures and to analyse the emergent properties 113 at stand level. 114 115 Materials and methods 116 The individuals sampled for this study were taken from two sites in French 117 118 Guiana: Saint-Elie road (5°17'N, 53°04'W) and Counami road (5°24'N, 53°11'W). 119 120 *Measures and experimental protocol* 121 122 In September 2007, 11 individuals were felled and measured, ten at Saint-Elie 123 road and one at Counami Road. All the trees from Saint-Elie population were 124 sterile and only one had branches. The tree from Counami road was pistillate and had branches. 125 126 In December 2008, dataset was completed with seven individuals measured at 127 Counami Road. They were all sterile and without branches. 128 129 Trees were described node by node following the protocol defined by Heuret et al. 130 (2002). Tree topology, i.e. the relative position nodes and axes, was recorded 131 following the MTG formalism (Godin and Caraglio, 1998) and analysed using the

Vplant package, the successor of AMAPmod (Godin et al., 1997) now integrated

in the OpenAlea platform (Pradal et al., 2009). The age determination of trees and annual growth delimitation were performed following the protocol proposed by Zalamea et al. (2008). For each phytomer, the following information was recorded: the length of the underlying internode, the diameter in the middle of the internode, and the presence of developed branches, inflorescences and/or leaves at each internode. The blade was weighed. For trees of 2007, blades were pressed between two plates of Plexiglas and then photographed using a digital camera with a focal length of 50 mm. Blade areas were estimated by analysing the photographs with the ImageJ freeware (http://rsbweb.nih.gov/ij/). The length, the diameter in the middle and the fresh weight of the petioles were recorded. Inflorescence or infructescence were weighted. The plant axes were then cut node by node, 1 cm above the top of the stipule scar. The length of the cut segment (not exactly equal to the internode as there is a 1 cm shift) was recorded as well as its fresh weight and two orthogonal diameters of the pith. Internodes, leaves, infloresences, and petioles were dried at 103°C during 72 h and the dry mass was measured. For young individuals, the root system was extracted, washed, dried and weighed.

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Model of biomass production in GreenLab for Cecropia

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GreenLab is a dynamic model of plant growth that aims at simulating plant topological development, biomass production and allocation at organ scale. For

155 sake of simplicity, we use here the discrete version of GreenLab, where the simulation step is based on the rhythm of plant development both for the organogenesis part and for the functional part of the model. This simulation step is set as the duration between emission of two successive phytomers along the main 159 axis and is called the Growth Cycle (GC). For Cecropia species, after some variability during the phase of growth establishment, the rate of emission of new phytomers is remarkably stable (Heuret et al., 2002): each axis increases by 2-3 nodes per month for Cecropia sciadophylla (Zalamea et al., 2008).

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- 164 At plant emergence, the initial biomass is provided by the seed, O(0). The,
- 165 biomass production at every GC is set to be simply proportional to blade area S(t),
- multiplied by a factor that represent the environmental pressure, E(t): 166

167 
$$Q(t) = \mu \cdot E(t) \cdot S(t) \tag{1}$$

- 168 where  $\mu$  can be seen as a coefficient of conversion of a given environmental input
- E into biomass. No self-shading is taken into account in this equation, given the 169
- 170 particular arrangement of leaves: they are located at tips of branches with
- 171 phyllotaxy 5/13. Low self-shading was also reported by Kitajima et al. (2002) for
- Cecropia longipes. The environmental factor E(t) is defined in the next section. 172

173

174 The environmental factor

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We decompose the environment factor into two parts: one with temporal 176

variations that corresponds to the climatic variations and is thus common to every
plant of the same region; the other one is a constant relative site local index,
defined on an arbitrary scale, which is a multiplicative factor that set the relative
level of local conditions on each site compare to each others, thus accounting for
local spatial variations. This integrated index might aggregate the levels various
local factors such as soil quality, nutriment and water availability, local density,
etc.

184 Climate in French Guiana is seasonal with a 3-months dry season from mid-185 August to mid-November and a rain season during the other 9 months.

Additionally, a short dry season may occur in February and March.

A new function was added in the model to represent these seasonal variations of precipitations over an average year. The absolute value of a sinusoidal function was chosen, and truncated by a constant threshold B to set the duration of the dry season. The environmental factor integrated over month i ( $0 \le i < T$  with the origin i=0 in October at the middle dry season) for an average year is then defined as follows:

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$$e_i = m_i \cdot Max \left\{ B, \left| A \cdot \sin\left(\frac{i \cdot \pi}{T}\right) \right| \right\}$$
 (2)

where T=12 is the period (one year), A is the amplitude of the variations of precipitations that will be fitted to the precipitation data, B the truncation threshold: it corresponds to the average amount of precipitations during the dry season. The short dry season was included in the climate function using a

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multiplicative factor,  $m_j$  ( $0 \le m_j \le 1$ ), which is equal to 1-a ( $0 \le a \le 1$ ) during the month m of the short summer season, and is equal to 1 otherwise.

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The parameters *B*, *A*, *a* and *m* were estimated using the precipitation data of the St Elie meteorological station from 1978 to 1991 (Fig. 2).

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To use this function as control variable for the growth of *Cecropia* trees, we need a change of variable from the calendar time to GC. A preliminary step is thus to input the number of phytomers,  $T_y$ , emitted every year for each plant. Then, for a given individual I, the environmental factor integrated over GC j of year y can be defined as:

$$E_{j,y}^{I} = E^{I} \cdot m_{j,y} \cdot \frac{T}{T_{y}^{I}} \cdot Max\left(B, \left| A \cdot \sin\left(\frac{j \cdot \pi}{T_{y}^{I}} + \varphi_{0}^{I}\right)\right|\right)$$
(3)

where the index I denotes the variables that are specific to each individual:  $E^I$  is the relative local index;  $\varphi^I_0$  is the phase at origin: it depends on the time when the plant I emerged from the seed;  $T^I_y$  is given for every plant I and each year y, based on the annual growth delimitations recorded. The ratio  $T/T_y$  comes from the change of variable and corresponds to a normalization the total amount of precipitation received by each plant over the year.

216 The short dry season is modelled by:

$$m_{j,y} = \begin{cases} 1 - a & \text{if } \frac{mT_y^I}{T} \le j < \frac{(m+1)T_y^I}{T} \\ 1 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$
 (4)

This equation is valid if  $\varphi_0$ =0 and a simple translation of phase is performed otherwise.

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221 Model of biomass allocation

- The allocation process is modelled with two steps: first, biomass is allocated to the four compartments of plant growth: primary growth of phytomers, biomass for ring increment (secondary growth), expansion of inflorescences, roots, then there is intra-compartment partitioning to each organ.

  The root mass of young individuals allowed us to build a simple allometric relationship for the biomass allocated to the root system at each GC: it is simply set proportional to the biomass production. The remaining biomass,  $O_r(t)$ , is
- partitioned between the three other compartments in proportion to their respective demands,  $D_c(t)$ , where c stands for primary growth (pg), inflorescences (inflo) and
- 232 ring increment (ring) respectively. So, D(t) being the plant total demand at GC t,
- 233 i.e. the sum of the demands of the three compartments, the amount of biomass
- 234 that goes to compartment c is:

$$Q_c(t) = D_c(t) \cdot \frac{Q_r}{D}(t) \quad (5)$$

236 with 
$$\begin{cases} c = pg: & D_{pg}(t) = \sum_{Buds(t)} P_b(1 - e^{-K_b(o) \cdot k}) \\ c = inflo: & D_{inflo}(t, n) = \sum_{Inflos(t)} P_{fl} \cdot \varphi(n; a_{fl}, b_{fl}, T_{fl}) \\ c = ring: & D_{ring}(t) = P_{rg} \cdot L(t) + K_{rg} \cdot \frac{Q}{D}(t) \end{cases}$$

where the demand for primary growth  $D_{pg}(t)$  is the sum of the demands of every active meristem (noted "Buds" in the equations), designed by its rank k and branching order o. Letort et al. (2009) have shown the existence of a transitory phase when meristems are young (at axis emergence). The duration of that transitory phase is driven by the parameter  $K_b(o)$ , that depends on the branching order o. Afterwards, meristems reach a stable phase where they all have similar sink  $P_b$  whatever their rank and branching order. Sink parameter  $P_b$  is taken as reference for the other compartment demands so its value can be arbitrarily set. The demand of inflorescences  $D_{inflo}(t)$  is defined as the sum of the sink strength of every growing inflorescence of the plant at GC t. The sink strength is  $P_{fl}$  and its variations with inflorescence age n follow a beta law density function whose parameters are  $a_f$ ,  $b_f$ , and the expansion duration  $T_f$  (see Yin et al. (2003) and Christophe et al. (2008) for expression and use of beta law density function). The demand for ring increment is assumed to consist of two parts: the first one is proportional to the total length of all axes of the plant. The sink linear density is  $P_{rg}$ . The second one is proportional to the ratio of biomass supply to demand, Q/D. It implies that vigorous plants invests relatively more in their ring compartments, compared to plant that are stressed and have thus a low *Q/D* value.

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The intra-compartment partitioning is straightforward for the compartments of primary growth and inflorescence growth: each component receives an amount of biomass proportional to its demand. Then, inside each bud, biomass is partitioned

between blade, petiol and internode using allometric proportions  $p_b$ ,  $p_p$ , and  $p_i$ :

indeed, data analysis revealed a good proportionality between organ mass and

phytomer mass (see Results part). The partitioning of ring biomass to each

phytomer follows the principles similar to those of the Pipe model of Shinozaki et

al. (1964): each internodes receive an amount of biomass proportional to its length

and to the total area of blades localized above it in the tree architecture (see Letort

et al. (2008) for further details).

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267 Allometric relationships link organ volume and its geometrical dimensions.

268 Internode length is calculated from internode volume by assuming a cylinder

269 shape:

$$270 l = Be \cdot V^{\beta} (6)$$

271 Blade area is calculated from blade mass by:

$$S = \frac{M}{SBM} \quad (7)$$

where *SBM* is the specific blade mass (g.cm<sup>-2</sup>). The parameters *Be* and *SBM* are of special interest for Cecropia since they have a strong influence on the source-sink balance: internode length determines ring demand; blade area determines the plant production. It was also observed that they vary with time and among different individuals. Therefore a mechanistic modelling was the objective: these allometries were set dependent on the source-sink balance of each plant.

279 Classically, the ratio of biomass supply to demand, Q/D, is taken as a key variable

280 of the GreenLab model and is considered as an index of the level of internal 281 trophic competition (Mathieu et al., 2009). Here, the variations of Q/D are from 282 two sources: the high frequency variations represent the response of the plant to 283 seasonal environmental stress while the low-frequency variations represent the 284 global trend of trophic competition. Since it seems not realistic to have so fast 285 variations of these allometries, we extract this low-frequency trend: we define the 286 variable  $A_T(Q/D(t))$  which is the average of the Q/D values over the previous year. 287 So the following equations were chosen:

288 (1) 
$$Be(t,k) = Be_{min} + Be_{max} \cdot \exp(-K_{Be} \cdot k \cdot A_T(Q/D(t)))$$
 (8)

at GC t and rank k, where  $Be_{min}$ ,  $Be_{max}$  and  $K_{Be}$  are parameters to estimate.

290 (2) 
$$SBM(t) = Min \left[ SBM_{max}, SBM_{min} + K_{SBM} \cdot A_T(Q/D(t)) \right]$$
 (9)

where  $SBM_{max}$  is the SBM at measurement date, input for each tree,  $SBM_{min}$  is the minimal observed value and  $K_{SBM}$  is a parameter to estimate.

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- Additionally, leaf functioning duration was also set as an affine function of  $A_T(Q/Q)$
- 295 D). It was indeed observed that the number of active leaves varied with tree
- 296 development and environmental conditions. A leaf appearing at GC t will stay
- 297 photosynthetically active during  $T_a$  GC:

298 
$$T_a(t) = T_{a,min} + K_a \cdot A_T(Q/D(t))$$
 (10)

where  $T_{a, min}$  is the minimal value that was observed and  $K_a$  is a parameter to

300 estimate.

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Some allometric relationships were first estimated directly from the data, using the R software (R Development Core Team (2008)). In particular, we used the data from 2007 to derive a model for a faithful prediction of blade area using petiol fresh sectional area. Indeed, large blades produces more biomass that needs to be exported to the rest of the plant and thus necessitate a large sectional area of the corresponding petiol. Another advantage is that is very easy to measure. The allometry was then applied to estimate blade areas for the 2008 data. Then target files were filled with the data of tree topology (position of branches and inflorescences), and data of organ mass and dimensions of the 11 trees of the 2007 and 2008 protocols: internode dry mass, length, diameter; blade dry mass and area; petiol dry mass; inflorescence dry mass, for each phytomer. Additionally, a file giving the number of phytomers emitted per year was input for each plant. The shape of environmental variations was set using the parameters estimated on the precipitation data. The estimation of the relative local index for each plant site and of the remaining hidden parameters was performed using the Digiplant software (Cournède et al., 2006). An adaptation of the 2-stage Aitken estimator was used, where the observations are classified into groups with respect to the type of organs (that have potentially very different size orders) and the error term of each group has common unknown variance and errors are mutually independent (Zhan et al., 2003; Cournède et al., 2011). Only the data from 2007 protocol were 324 used for estimating the model parameters. Then data from 2008 protocol were 325 used for validation, only estimating their relative local index of environment. 326 327 **Results** 328 329 Data analysis 330 331 Fig. 1C-D shows two of the measured individuals (ID 4 and 10). Tab. 1 presents 332 some characteristics of the measured trees. The oldest measured trees are 8 year-333 old and had approx. 230 phytomers on the main stem. There is a large inter-tree 334 variability: for instance, Tree 9 is five years younger than Tree 8 but is nearly as 335 large (approx. 40 kg). For trees 1, 2, and 30, that all have between 50 and 55 336 phytomers, aerial mass varies from 0.2 to 5.5 kg. 337 Root dry mass was measured for the eight youngest individuals of 2007 338 measurements. The ratio between root mass and total mass was found of 0.19 in 339 average (s.d. 0.059). 340 Tree age results from the procedure of year delimitation based on the sequence 341 analysis of organ dimensions along the main stem, and based on the position of 342 branches and inflorescences when they were present (Fig. 3). 343 344 The allometry relationship between blade area (cm<sup>2</sup>) and petiol sectional area 345

(mm²) was obtained using n=523 data points, giving a coefficient of 35.18 (R²=0.975; Fig. 4A). More precisely, a key variable of our model is the SBM (blade dry mass/ blade area): Fig. 4B shows the comparison between SBM calculated from measured or estimated blade areas. The results are satisfying except for low values of petiol section.

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For intra-phytomer partitioning of biomass, observations of young phytomers 352 353 (n=540 leafy phytomers) suggested a linear model of organ dry mass with respect to phytomer dry mass. To be biologically realistic, it was imposed that organ mass 354 355 is zero when phytomer mass is zero. Fig. 5 and Tab. 2 present the results for blades  $(y = 0.7177 \cdot x, R^2 = 0.99)$ , petiols  $(y = 0.2080 \cdot x, R^2 = 0.97)$  and internodes 356  $(y = 0.07423 \cdot x, R^2 = 0.81)$ . Note that Individual 9 was not included (although 357 358 represented on the graphs) since its high values of internode mass let suspect that 359 secondary growth might not be negligible for this individual even on young phytomers. 360

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362 The environmental factor, representing precipitations at St Elie station.

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Analysis of our precipitation data showed that the so-called "short summer of March" was more likely found in February ( *m*=4 in Eq. (4)). The parameters estimated for the environmental fluctuations over an average year are given in Tab 2. The comparison between recorded and fitted data is presented in Fig. 2.

Fitting results.

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371 Tab. 2 gathers the values of the parameters used in the simulations. The values of 372 the model hidden parameters and individual local environment indices were 373 estimated using the 11 individuals of 2007 protocol. Fitting in parallel their data of 374 organ dimensions and mass represented in total more than 4600 data points, while 375 the number of degrees of freedom (number of parameters to identify in parallel) 376 was 24. Some parameters were fixed, based on observations and biological 377 knowledge: the initial biomass, coming from the seed, was set to 0.1g; the 378 parameter β defining internode shape was set to 0.9 since internode length was 379 highly variable; duration of inflorescence expansion was observed to last 380 approximately 7 GC; the initial value of leaf functioning duration was set to 7 381 according to the minimal number of active leaves observed on young plants; 382 primary growth compartment (buds) was chosen as the reference for the model of 383 proportional sinks and could be set arbitrarily: the value 10 was chosen. It is 384 interesting to note that the ratio between the sink bud parameters  $K_b(1)$  and  $K_b(2)$ 385 is 1.04, which means that the demand of the apical meristem of branches follows nearly the same trajectory as that of the main stem. The parameters  $P_{rg}$  and  $K_{rg}$  are 386 387 close but the resulting ring demand consists in fact at approximatively 90% of the 388 part of the demand which depends on the total axis length (linear density of sink 389 for rings).

391 Fig. 6 presents some of the fitting graphs: measured and simulated values of 392 internode mass (a), blade mass (b), petiol mass (c) and inflorescence mass (d) for 393 the main stems of the 11 individuals. The sinusoidal variations of internode mass 394 are generated by the environmental fluctuations. Although the fitting accuracy 395 looks correct at visual inspection, the coefficient of determination are relatively 396 low (0.43, 0.79, 0.43, 0.45, 0.50 for internode mass, diameter, blade mass, blade 397 area, and petiol mass respectively) because of the sinusoidal shape of these curves. 398 The coefficients of determination for the cumulated values (internode, blade and 399 petiol compartments) are all above 0.98. 400 The validation with data from 2008 are acceptable: coefficients of determination 401 are 0.43, 0.75, 0.07, and 0.18 for the same variables. The inaccuracy on blade and 402 petiol mass is due to some variability in the number of active leaves that are 403 present. For cumulated values, the coefficient of determination are also all above 404 0.98. 405 Although not perfect, these fittings prove that it is possible to reproduce the large 406 variability that was observed for our target trees with a common model where the 407 environmental pressure is integrated into a single factor. 408 409 The variations of the biomass supply to demand ratio Q/D are presented in Fig. 410 7(A). The strong fluctuations are related to the seasonal variations of the

environment. Fig. 7(B) shows the global trend of O/D: its values were averaged

over one year. A strong increase was observed after the appearance of the first tier of branches for tree 8 and tree 10. In contrast, the growth inflorescences decreased the Q/D ratio, as expected.

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#### **Discussion**

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The relative simplicity of Cecropia architecture made it possible to analyse the growth of the tree with the GreenLab model, using a complete description at the same scale as the simulation scale. It even offered the possibility to include in total 18 plants in the analysis. The advantage of multi-fitting (fitting several plants in parallel) have been demonstrated for crops with GreenLab (Guo et al. 2006) and is even more crucial for trees given their high variability. By fitting several plants in parallel, we expect to extract a set of stable parameters that would be representative of the species, and to avoid that the fitting would be too much perturbed by individual random particularities of single plants (known as problem of over-optimisation). Additionally, it allows testing the robustness of the model and its ability to simulate several plants with the same parameter values, with only one site-specific factor to explain the observed variability.

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Simulations using the parameter values estimated in this multi-fitting process provides the dynamics of the different compartment biomass and of the ratio of 433 biomass supply to demand for each plant. No obvious conclusion can be drawn

concerning the link between this ratio and the appearance of the first tiers of branches and inflorescences. Nevertheless, it shows that tree 8 has a ratio of biomass supply to demand, Q/D, a bit lower than that of tree 10, which might explain its later emission of branches. But given that tree 9 had a very high Q/D ratio but no branches, it is likely that other factors than the trophic competition are involved in the appearance of branches. From Fig. 7, it seems that branches contribute greatly to the plant production and are more sources than sinks. The interpretation of Fig. 7 suggests new hypotheses for the senescence of *Cecropia*: when an axis grows in height, its production tends to reach a saturation level while its demand increases regularly because of the increasing load of rings. If no branches appear, this would end to the death of the plant.

However, this behaviour is strongly linked to the modelling choices, as illustrated by the comparison with the curves found in Letort et al. (2009), that were obtained with a constant environment and a less mechanistic model. In particular, several weaknesses of the current model can be highlighted. Two variables are still input directly in the simulation instead of being modelled: the maximal value for the specific blade mass and the number of phytomers emitted per year. The latter is all the more important when considering the annual environmental variations, since a difference of phase would perturb the fitting results. But questions remains on what factors affect the organogenesis rhythm and it is likely that strong random effects induce the variability observed during the first years after plant emergence.

A second question that arise from this work is the possible existence of interactions between the plant structure and its strategy for biomass allocation. First, the presence of stilt-roots has been observed on some individuals, but were considered as part of the root system in this study. But, given the particular candelabrum-like architecture of *Cecropia* and the important heights that they can rapidly reach, a natural hypothesis would be that the appearance of stilt-roots, as well as the demand of the ring compartment, could be influenced by requirements to ensure the mechanical stability of the tree. Such hypothesis could be investigated in parallel by an experimental approach and by a model-based approach: indeed, since the calibrated model faithfully reproduce internode masses and dimensions along the main stem, it would be possible to calculate the biomechanical stresses in the trunk at each growth step, as done by Qi et al. (2009) with the GreenLab model for a virtual tree. Thus, virtual experiments could be performed to understand the potential relationship between ring increment or stilt-root growth and the mechanical stability of the tree.

A result of our study was the introduction of an environmental factor that consisted of two parts: one for the temporal variations, related to the amount of precipitations over an average year; and the other one, constant through time and set for each individual, that corresponds to the global level of environmental pressure on the plant, as the integration of many different factors. This might look like an oversimplification, in contrast with most FSTM that integrate the effects of

many environmental factors (PAR, water, nitrogen content, etc) on the plant growth at fine scales (e.g. Lopez et al. (3008)). But in natural conditions, it is difficult to characterize the environment of each plant in details because of the numerous local heterogeneities and to unravel the respective influences of the different factors. The choice of a single, integrative factor might then be considered and in our study, the large inter-plant variability of the data was successfully reproduced. The interest of a model where tree growth and, potentially, architecture (see Mathieu et al., 2009) are driven by a single environmental factor, is that it paves the way to extension from individual-based model to population level (Cournède et al. 2008). Indeed, this simple environmental factor could be related to an index of competition to simulate the growth of a stand.

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620 Tables

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Tab. 1. Characteristics of trees measured in September 2007 (ID 1 to 11) and

625 December 2008 (ID 29 to 48).

626

ID	Age	NbPhyts	Loc	H (m)	DBH (cm)	AerMass(kg)	RootMa.(kg)
1	2	55	Е	3.61	3.9	5.481	0.96
2	2	55	E	2.97	2.3	1.092	0.216
3	2	45	E	2.2	1.2	0.341	0.054
4	1	18	Ε	0.35	-	0.038	0.009
5	1	29	Ε	0.08	-	0.002	0.00047
6	2	33	E	0.71	-	0.07	0.0297
7	2	37	Ε	0.77	-	0.125	0.044
8	8	248	Ε	9.87	9.3	40.72	-
9	3	74	Ε	7.72	9.5	40.605	-
10	8	391	С	12.64	13.4	71.741	-
11	2	52	Ε	1.49	1.6	0.486	0.083
29	3	86	С	3.87	2.9	1.057	-
30	2	51	С	1.63	1.1	0.179	-
31	2	67	С	2.92	1.91	0.512	-
40	4	99	С	6.16	5.7	4.092	-
41	2	70	С	1.73	1.2	0.193	-
42	2	69	С	2.98	2.44	0.7	-
48	4	74	С	4.8	4.25	2.389	-

627

ID: identifier index, Age: ontogenetical age (years), Nphyt.: total number of

628

phytomers,

629

Loc.: location (E:Saint-Elie, C: Counami), H: height (m), DBH: diameter at

630	breast height (cm),
631	AerMass: total aerial fresh mass (kg), RootMa.: fersh mass of the root system
632	(kg).
633	
634	

Tab. 2. Parameters used in the simulations: parameters for the climate function fitted on St Elie precipitation data, allometries estimated directly from the data, relative local index for each tree (from 1 to 11 for trees of 2007 and from 1 to 7 for trees of 2008) and model hidden parameters estimated against the data of 639 2007.

Climate fu	nction (temporal variation of the	environment)
Α	Amplitude	430.8mm
В	Threshold	74.81mm
m	Month of short dry season	4 (Febr.)
а	Coef. Short dry season	0.446
All	ometries estimated directly from	
r	Biomass proportion to roots	19.00%
$Q_{O}$	Initial biomass	0.1g
$p_b$	Blade sink coefficient	0.7177
$p_{p}$	Petiol sink coefficient	0.208
$p_i$	Internode sink coefficient	0.07423
Е	: Relative local index for each t	ree
2007 trees	1.03; 0.81; 0.62; 0.52; 0.33; 0.37;	
2008 trees	0.50; 0.37; 0.70; 0.70; 0.36; 0.67;	0.83
	Parameters common to all tree	
$\mu$	Production efficiency	6.4 <b>•</b> 10 <sup>-5</sup>
$P_b$	Bud Sink	10 (fixed)
$K_b(1)$	Bud sink param. order 1	0.0062
$K_b(2)$	Bud sink param. order 2	0.0064
$P_{\mathit{fl}}$	Inflorescence Sink	4.89
$T_{fl}$	Inflo.expansion duration	7 (fixed)
$a_{\it fl},b_{\it fl}$	Inflo param. expansion	1.82, 22.8
$P_{rg}$	Linear sink of rings	0.024
$K_{rg}$	Q/D-coefficient sink of rings	0.024
SBM <sub>min</sub>	Initial Specific Blade Mass	0.00749 (fixed)
$K_{SBM}$	Q/D-coefficient for SBM	0.0012
β	Internode shape coefficient	0.9 (fixed)
Be <sub>min</sub>	Initial Be (internode shape coef.)	75.1
Be <sub>max</sub>	Final value of Be	2.66
$K_{be}$	Q/D-coefficient for Be	0.0069
Ta <sub>min</sub>	Initial Leaf functioning duration	7 GC (fixed)
Ka	Q/D-coefficient for Ta	1.0

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641	Captions of figures
642	
643	Fig. 1. Habit of Cecropia sciadophylla. Sequence of internodes of an axis (A),
644	young inflorescence (B), youngest (C) and oldest (D) individuals 4 and 10, that
645	were measured in 2007 (respective heights: 35cm and 12m).
646	
647	Fig. 2. Fitting of pluviometry data from St Elie station.
648	
649	Fig. 3. Age determination for tree 10. Internode length (bold line) and pith
650	diameter (line) of internodes along the main stem and localization of branches
651	(triangles) and inflorescences (circles).
652	
653	Fig. 4. (A) Blade area with respect to fresh petiol section and (B) dry SBM
654	calculated using measured blade area (dark symbols) or blade area that was
655	estimated using the petiol fresh sectional area (open symbols). Gray symbols are
656	plants from the 2008 measurements, for which blade area was not measured.
657	
658	Fig. 5. Biomass allocation for primary growth: blade dry mass (A), petiol dry mass
659	(B), and internode dry mass (C) with respect to phytomer dry mass, for each
660	branching order.
661	

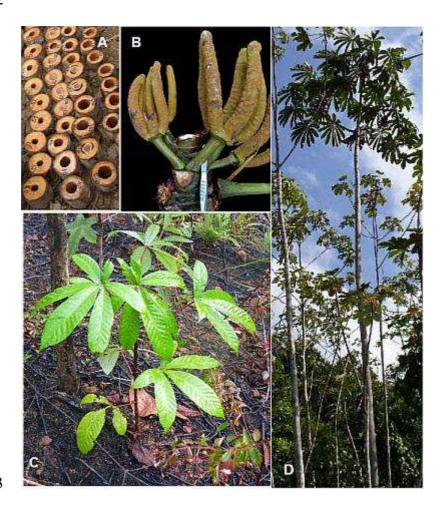
Fig. 6. Measured (dots) and simulated (lines) values of internode mass (a), blade

mass (b), petiol mass (c) and inflorescence mass (d) for the main stems of the 11 individuals from the data of 2007.

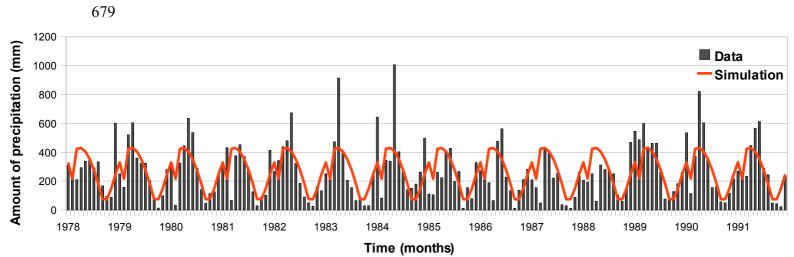
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Fig. 7. Variations of the biomass supply to demand ratio: values at each GC (A) and average values over one year (B) to extract the global trend. Triangles and circles represent the date of appearance of branches and inflorescences. Note: for a better distinction of the curves, Graph A was truncated in its highest values.

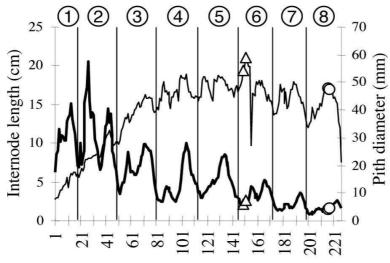
## 670 Figures



674 Fig. 1.

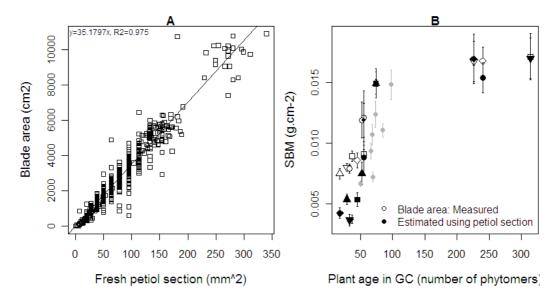


681 Fig. 2.

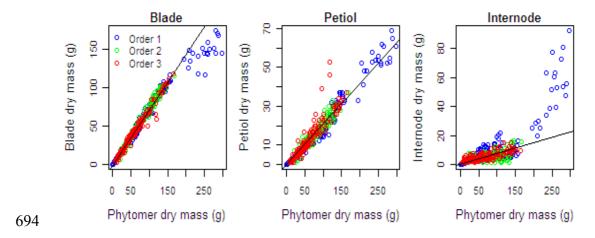


Internode rank from the base of the trunk

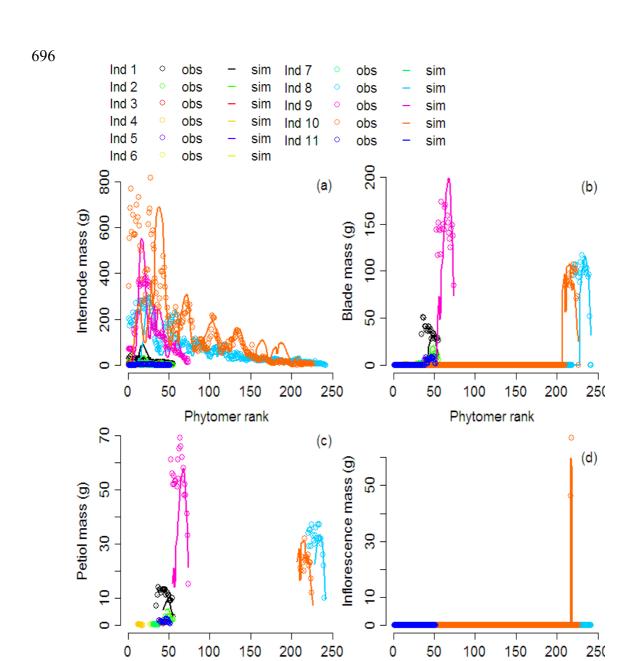
686 Fig. 3.



690 Fig. 4.



695 Fig. 5.

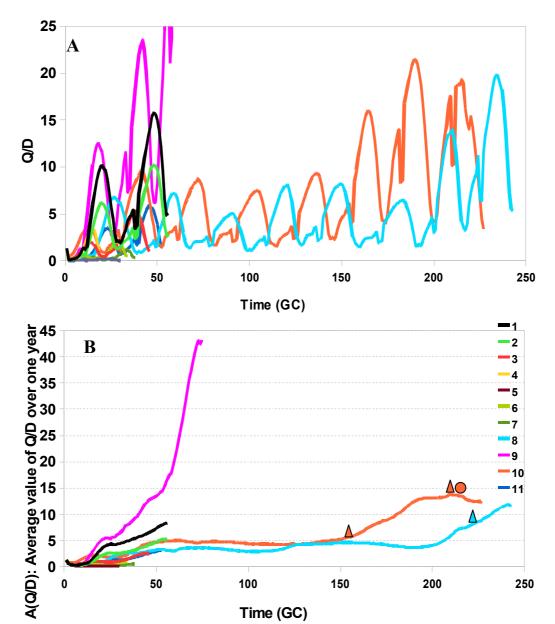


Phytomer rank

Phytomer rank

697 Fig. 6.





Time (GC)

Fig. 7.