

1 **Environmental controls on stable isotope ratios in New Zealand**

2 **Podocarpaceae: implications for palaeoclimate reconstruction**

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9 **Abstract**

10 Stable isotope ratios of various proxies are widely used for palaeoclimate reconstruction, and
11 it is often assumed that isotope ratios reflect vegetation abundance or type. However, very
12 little research exists on the isotopic equilibration of extant biomes under variable
13 environmental conditions. In this study, carbon and oxygen isotope ratios from leaves of
14 various Podocarpaceae genera, endemic to New Zealand, are linked to environmental
15 parameters from the Land Environments New Zealand model. The dominant influence on
16 stable isotope ratios within the majority of Podocarpaceae studied here is vapour pressure
17 deficit (VPD). A simple latitudinal trend does not exist, and neither temperature nor rainfall
18 (decoupled from VPD) are major controls on the stable isotope ratios. The results suggest that
19 modern spatial heterogeneity in VPD affects the stable isotope values of vegetation, and that
20 historic VPD variability would change the stable isotope ratios of Podocarpaceae without
21 necessitating a change in vegetation type, density, or productivity. This represents an
22 alternative model for temporal isotope change within geochemical proxies, and reinforces the

23 need for increased stable isotopic research in modern plant ecosystems to better understand
24 modern, and eventually palaeoclimatic processes affecting the terrestrial biosphere.

25 **Keywords:**

26 Stable isotopes; New Zealand; Podocarps; leaves; environment; modern analogue;
27 palaeoclimate

28

29 **1. Introduction**

30

31 Stable isotope ratios of various climate proxy archives are used extensively in palaeoclimate
32 reconstructions (Brookman and Ambrose, 2013; Brown et al., 2013; Bussell and Pillans,
33 1997; Denniston et al., 1999; Dorale et al., 2010; Frappier et al., 2002; Frappier et al., 2007;
34 Loader et al., 2013; McCarroll and Loader, 2004; Royer et al., 2013), however not all the
35 processes affecting these ratios are understood. Past research has ascribed isotopic ratio
36 variability in some terrestrial climate proxies (e.g., lake sediments, speleothems) to either
37 changes in vegetation type (Denniston et al., 1999; Dorale et al., 2010) or biomass density
38 (Baldini et al., 2005; Cosford et al., 2009). Isotopic discrimination in plant biomass,
39 especially leaves, may affect climate proxy records. Stable-isotope ratios of plant material
40 (especially $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) will ultimately affect soil isotopic ratios. Thus any proxy whose formation
41 is partially dependent on soil processes will subsequently respond to changes in the terrestrial
42 biosphere. To maximise the accuracy of palaeoclimate proxy record interpretations our
43 understanding on how modern isotopic ratios of vegetation, regionally, respond to
44 environmental change is critical (Fig. 1).

45

46 Podocarpaceae are coniferous C_3 trees regarded as the Southern Hemisphere equivalent of
47 Pinaceae (Brodribb, 2011). A review focussing on the distribution and characteristics of
48 Podocarpaceae was presented by Turner (2012; see references therein), but to date, very little
49 isotopic research has been produced on Podocarpaceae.

50

51

52 Diefendorf et al. (2010) proposed that to better interpret $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in palaeo-records, modern
53 populations of similar species must be investigated under different environmental conditions

54 such as temperature, water availability and $p\text{CO}_2$. More accurate datasets would require a
55 natural laboratory setting, and in this case New Zealand, which has a very varied climate,
56 offers an excellent opportunity to produce such a dataset for Podocarpaceae, as an example of
57 how isotopes may vary greatly within one family due to environmental conditions. This study
58 measures $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of bulk leaf material and relates that directly to environmental influences.

59

60 The stable carbon isotope ratio of leaf material, hereafter referred to as $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{leaf}}$, is controlled
61 by photosynthetic capacity (the rate of photosynthetic fixation of carbon) or stomatal
62 conductance (the rate of gas exchange between the atmosphere and interstitial leaf space via
63 the stomata). Differentiating between these two possibilities is achievable using the
64 relationship between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of modern leaves (Scheidegger et al., 2000). In
65 macrofossils, the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ is a product of diagenesis and secondary alteration so it is not possible
66 to use that relationship to establish stomatal conductance or photosynthetic capacity as the
67 control for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, except by comparing to a modern analogue. Once the relationship in modern
68 leaves is known, it can be extended to leaf macrofossils of the same family to model the
69 original $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of that macrofossil. Therefore, the relationship between $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, and
70 environmental factors is critical for modelling macrofossil $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. Sampling $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of fresh
71 leaves allows interpretation of stomatal conductance and photosynthesis within each species
72 or genus. According to Scheidegger's conceptual model (Fig. 2), the relationship of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ to
73 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ indicates the dominance of stomatal conductance or photosynthetic capacity in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
74 discrimination.

75

76 In this study, the isotopic variation of a number of species from the Podocarpaceae family
77 across New Zealand were investigated. Podocarp species native to New Zealand are
78 particularly useful because they are drought intolerant and their occurrence in the fossil

79 record have already been used to constrain climatic conditions: that climate is wet, mild and
80 lacking in extremes (Coomes and Bellingham, 2011). Additionally, macrofossils from these
81 species have been found in New Zealand and King George Island (Antarctica) (Fontes and
82 Dutra, 2010; Turney et al., 1999), thus Podocarpaceae have the potential to provide regional
83 palaeoclimatic information from the high-latitude Southern Hemisphere. Moreover, the study
84 provides an example of how isotope ratios can vary across a plant family, which should be
85 taken into account when studying other coniferous C₃ vegetation. We report that whole-leaf
86 carbon isotope ratios within the same genus (Podocarpaceae) vary according to local climatic
87 conditions, thus implying that they would change accordingly in the historic record due to a
88 climatic shift.

89

90 **2. Methodology**

91 **2.1. Field Area**

92 Fieldwork was conducted in New Zealand, on both the North and South Islands. A large
93 proportion of the land area of New Zealand is set aside as National Parks, allowing a huge
94 area of native forest to flourish. With a wide variety of endemic and unique species, generally
95 unpolluted watercourses, and a large latitudinal range producing a variety of environmental
96 conditions, New Zealand is an ideal natural laboratory. Podocarpaceae do not grow in all
97 regions found in New Zealand, because they are: (1) intolerant to hard frost and therefore do
98 not grow at high altitude (with the exception of *P. alpinus* if conditions are correct); and (2)
99 subject to xylem cavitation under drought conditions and hence are not found in semi-arid
100 regions. *Nothofagus* dominates colder climate forest biomes (Leathwick, 2001) and native
101 tussock grass dominates in semi-arid areas (Mark et al., 2003); furthermore, large-scale
102 deforestation since the human settlement of New Zealand has limited the geographical extent
103 of native forest, and not all Podocarpaceae are found even where such native forests still exist.

104 Hence some areas of New Zealand have not been sampled and not all genera are sampled at
105 every site.

106

107 All samples for this study were collected within a time window of 5 weeks during July and
108 August of 2011. Sample types included leaves, leaflets, and water. After collection, leaf and
109 water samples were regrettably not kept in constant conditions; samples were parcelled and
110 sent by airmail to the UK in an uncontrolled environment and would have experienced
111 changes in temperature and pressure. For example, *Phyllocladus* samples changed colour
112 from green to brown during transit whilst all other specimens remained green.

113

114 Leaves or leaflets were taken from the family Podocarpaceae. The inclusion of the genus
115 *Phyllocladus* in this family is debated (Keng, 1978; Molloy and Markham, 1999; Wagstaff,
116 2004). Leaflets were sampled at approximately 1.5 – 2 m above ground level and, where
117 possible, from the side of the tree likely to experience the most sunshine (for example at the
118 outside edge of a forested areas). Podocarpaceae are coniferous and do not drop their foliage
119 seasonally, but produce new growth at the tip. To ensure a consistent sampling strategy,
120 leaflets were taken from growth further down the branch, which grew approximately 2 - 3
121 years before. These stipulations were limited by the natural propensity of the trees to grow in
122 dense rainforest and to grow very tall (up to 60 m) with the foliage only at the top few metres.
123 This resulted in more sampling of juvenile trees which have morphologically different leaves
124 from the adult tree in a number of genera. Reference samples were obtained from Dunedin
125 Botanical Gardens where all genera in question were growing in the same conditions and at
126 the same altitude.

127

128 To sample water, 10 cm³ plastic vials were filled from lakes, rivers and streams at ~30 cm
129 depth or base of water course, whichever was shallower. An air space of approximately 0.5
130 cm³ was left at the top of each vial to allow for thermal expansion of the water whilst in
131 transit. Sampled waters include glacial melt, shallow and deep lakes, rivers, streams, and
132 water from hydrothermal areas.

133

134 **2.2. Isotopic analysis**

135

136 All analyses were performed in the Stable Isotope Biogeochemistry Laboratory, part of the
137 Durham Geochemistry Centre at Durham University, UK. Whole-leaf $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ was determined
138 using a Thermo-Finnigan Delta V Advantage isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS)
139 coupled with a Costech ECS 4010 Elemental Analyser. Samples of 0.3–0.5 mg were taken
140 from a leaf or leaflet from each location, placed within a 6mm x 4mm tin foil capsule and
141 sequentially dropped into a furnace where they were completely combusted. The resulting
142 gases were passed through a gas chromatography column for separation and then measured in
143 succession by the TCD detector. Isotopic measurements were initially taken from a transect
144 of a token sample for each species, in order to establish any significant variation in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
145 within the leaf. Each species was sampled at the same point on the leaf and the same area of
146 growth to minimise any error from the natural variation in carbon within a leaf and tree. Data
147 accuracy is monitored through routine analyses of in-house standards, which are stringently
148 calibrated against international standards (e.g., USGS 40, USGS 24, IAEA 600, IAEA CH6,
149 UREA, SPAR): this provides a linear range in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ between +2‰ and -47‰ VPDB.
150 Analytical uncertainty for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ is typically $\pm 0.1\%$ for replicate analyses of the international
151 standards and typically $< 0.2\%$ on replicate sample analysis.

152

153 Whole-leaf $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ was determined using a Thermo-Finnigan Delta V Advantage isotope ratio
154 mass spectrometer (IRMS) coupled with a Thermo-Finnigan High Temperature Conversion
155 Elemental Analyser (TC/EA). The method for preparing samples for the TC/EA was similar
156 to that for the EA; except the mass weighed out was between 0.5–0.6 mg and silver foil
157 capsules of 5mm x 3mm were used. The samples were introduced to the TC/EA where they
158 underwent pyrolysis to produce CO and H₂. These gases were separated using an isothermal
159 gas chromatography column and passed to the IRMS for measurement. Data accuracy was
160 monitored through routine analyses of international standards (e.g., IAEA 600, 601, 602): this
161 provided a linear range in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ between +71.4‰ and –3.5‰ VSMOW. Analytical
162 uncertainty for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ was typically $\pm 0.1\%$ for replicate analyses of the international standards
163 and typically $< 0.2\%$ on replicate sample analysis.

164

165 Each water sample was prepared using a sterilized 0.45 μm filter attached to a 5 cm³ syringe.
166 Approximately 1 cm³ of water was filtered into a glass vial and sealed using a septum cap.
167 Isotopic measurements of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD were obtained by laser spectroscopy using a Los
168 Gatos Research DLT-100 liquid water isotope analyser (Berman et al. 2013). A suite of Los
169 Gatos Research water isotope standards was used and the analytical uncertainties for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
170 and δD were typically better than $\pm 0.1\%$ and $\pm 0.3\%$ respectively. Replicate analyses of the
171 samples were typically $< 0.15\%$ for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $< 0.3\%$ for δD .

172

173 **2.3. Data Analysis**

174 Latitude and longitude of each sampling locale were entered into the Land Environments
175 New Zealand (LENZ) model, which then output modelled mean parameters used for this
176 study: mean annual temperature (MAT), mean minimum daily temperature of the coldest
177 month (TMIN), mean annual solar radiation (MAS) monthly water balance (R2PET), and

178 vapour pressure deficit (VPD). For accuracy and modelling details refer to Leathwick *et al.*
179 (2003a,b).

180

181 Bowen and Revenaugh (2003), and Bowen and Wilkinson (2002) presented the Online
182 Isotopes in Precipitation Calculator (OIPC) based on data from the International Atomic
183 Energy Association and the World Meteorological Organization Global Network for Isotopes
184 in Precipitation. OIPC values have been calculated for all water sampling locations from this
185 study for comparison (see section 3.1).

186

187 Stable isotope data derived from leaves were organised by genus rather than species or family
188 for a number of reasons: *P. totara* and *P. hallii* display a high degree of hybridisation
189 between the two species (Leathwick, 2001; Leathwick and Whitehead, 2001), and *D.*
190 *cupressinum* and *D. dacrydioides* are the only examples of these genera native to New
191 Zealand. *P. ferruginea* is much more readily identifiable than *P. taxifolia* such that the former
192 is our representative for the genus *Prumnopitys*. Further mixture analysis highlighted the
193 significant difference between juvenile and mature *D. cupressinum* specimens; the mean and
194 standard deviations of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ from mature *D. cupressinum* versus juvenile specimens were well
195 predicted by the numerical model. Juvenile and mature *D. cupressinum* have significantly
196 different mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values, and due to the difference in morphologies between the juvenile
197 and mature stages, and the growing conditions favoured by Podocarpaceae in general, this
198 observation is discussed in detail in section 3.3.

199

200 The statistical analysis package PAST (Hammer et al., 2001) was used to compute normality
201 using the Shapiro-Wilk, Jarque-Bera and Chi^2 tests; the Shapiro-Wilk values were used in
202 conjunction with the latter two for confirmation. When datasets were normally distributed,

203 Pearson's regressions were used to link isotopes to environmental variables, and where
204 normality was rejected, Spearman's rank correlation coefficient was used. In each case r
205 values and p values were calculated with p values below 0.001 taken to be the limit for very
206 significant correlation, and 0.01 for significant.

207

208 Variability in regional climates due to landforms and weather patterns is very important for
209 the distribution of Podocarp forests (Leathwick, 2001; Leathwick and Whitehead, 2001;
210 Turner, 2012). Contour maps were created for the different environmental parameters used
211 and for the isotopic datasets generated in this study. By comparing these maps one can
212 qualitatively assess how the different environmental factors influence the correlation between
213 the maps. For example, the Tongariro National Park in the centre of the North Island and the
214 Southern Alps dividing the South Island are topographical highs, which strongly influence
215 weather patterns. The contour maps for the different environmental parameters and isotopic
216 datasets were generated using the contouring program, Surfer 10 (Golden Software).

217

218 **3. Results & Discussion**

219 **3.1. Oxygen isotopes in New Zealand water samples**

220 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{water}}$ measurements displayed significant positive correlation with latitude ($r^2 = 0.31$, $p =$
221 2.5×10^{-4}) as well as significant negative correlation with elevation ($r^2 = 0.38$, $p = 3.8 \times 10^{-5}$).
222 Temperature is partially a function of latitude and elevation so regression analysis of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{water}}$
223 with mean annual temperature (mat) and the mean minimum temperature of the coldest
224 month (tmin) data from LENZ was conducted. Strong and statistically very significant
225 positive correlations exist with both: $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{water}}$ against MAT had an r^2 of 0.56 ($p = 9.26 \times 10^{-8}$)
226 and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{water}}$ against tmin results in 0.67 ($p = 6.03 \times 10^{-10}$). These values are consistent with
227 Rayleigh fractionation theory (Bowen and Wilkinson, 2002) even though these samples were

228 from streams, rivers, and lakes instead of direct precipitation and isoscapes reflect the
229 relationship between tmin and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{water}}$ (Fig. 3).

230

231 OIPC (Bowen and Wilkinson, 2002) uses latitudes, longitudes and elevation to model $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
232 precipitation, but this study sampled surface water so a degree of difference would be
233 expected between theoretical precipitation values and observed surface water values.
234 Although a strong correlation between OIPC and sampled $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{water}}$ exists, it is not as strong
235 as might be initially expected ($r^2 = 0.49$). Sampled water displays more extreme values than
236 OIPC (Fig. 4) and the means and variances of these data are not statistically similar ($f =$
237 2.9×10^{-9} and $t = 0.04$). OIPC calculates a monthly average $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of precipitation which should
238 account for seasonality. Surface water end members are included in our data; glaciers and
239 estuaries were sampled. Sampled water also has a greater deviation from the global meteoric
240 water line than OIPC values mostly likely due to interaction of precipitation with
241 groundwater, aquifer units, and evaporation from rivers and lakes. The discrepancy in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
242 range between them may stem from the effect of elevation where sampled values have a
243 much stronger and more statistically significant correlation with elevation than OIPC values.

244

245 **3.2. Leaf Isotopes**

246 Water and leaves were not always sampled at the same locations so it is difficult to get an
247 overall estimate of how $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{water}}$ affects $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{leaf}}$, however for the sites at which both were
248 sampled, there is no significant correlation ($r^2 = 0.09$, $p = 0.4$, $n = 9$). No significant
249 correlation allows the application of Scheidegger's conceptual model (Scheidegger et al.,
250 2000) but it is still useful as a secondary source of inference supporting our conclusions.

251

252 Podocarpaceae leaf $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ is positively correlated with monthly water balance ($r^2 = 0.18$, $p =$
253 1.46×10^{-6} , $n = 120$) and VPD ($r^2 = 0.13$, $p = 6.37 \times 10^{-5}$, $n = 120$). Leathwick and Whitehead
254 (2001) demonstrated that the optimum VPD and root zone water deficit vary for different
255 species of Podocarpaceae in New Zealand, potentially explaining the observed weak (but
256 very significant) correlations; mixing of species and great diversity of environments may also
257 contribute. The statistical significance of the relationship between $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ within the
258 overall leaf data ($p = 0.07$) permits the use of the model produced by Scheidegger et al.
259 (2000), which indicates that stomatal conductance is a slightly stronger control than
260 photosynthetic capacity on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of Podocarpaceae in New Zealand (Fig. 2). Analysis of each
261 genus separately corroborates this finding with stronger and more significant trends (section
262 3.3).

263

264 If leaf samples are considered based on their locations on either the North or the South
265 Islands, it becomes apparent that $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ leaves for North Island have no significant
266 correlations to any environmental parameters considered here. Coomes and Bellingham
267 (2011) noted that Podocarpaceae thrive on post-catastrophic landscapes (e.g. volcanic)
268 because their superior ability to capture and retain nutrients from poor soils allows them to
269 outcompete angiosperms that would usually dominate on richer soils. On North Island,
270 Podocarpaceae are at greatest abundance on post-eruptive landscapes whereas on South
271 Island, landslides and floods allow them to regenerate their population while they temporarily
272 have the advantage over angiosperms. Geothermal activity is a major aspect of North Island
273 hydrology and has a significant impact of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of source water (Clayton and Steiner, 1975)
274 which is likely to dampen correlations with environmental influences. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data from South
275 Island Podocarpaceae are very significantly correlated with VPD ($r^2 = 0.27$, $p = 1.83 \times 10^{-5}$, n
276 $= 63$) and water balance ($r^2 = 0.2$, $p = 2.78 \times 10^{-4}$, $n = 63$). $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ also has weak but significant

277 correlation with water balance ($r^2 = 0.15$, $p = 0.048$, $n = 51$). Water balance is inversely
278 correlated with VPD because they are both a function of precipitation and temperature. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
279 and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ are strongly correlated ($r^2 = 0.37$, $p = 0.007$, $n = 51$), which is consistent with
280 Scheidegger's model (Scheidegger et al., 2000) suggesting a primary control of stomatal
281 conductance over photosynthetic activity.

282

283 **3.3. Segregated data by species or genera**

284 Initial r and p values of the entire data set displayed very little correlation to the
285 environmental parameters and mixing models indicated that at least two distinct normal
286 distributions existed within the data set). *Podocarpus* and *D. cupressinum* have significant
287 positive correlations with VPD and significant negative correlations with monthly water
288 balance in both $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (Table 1), indicating a primary control of stomatal
289 conductance on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, consistent with Scheidegger's model when $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ was regressed against
290 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$.

291

292 *D. dacrydioides* and *D. cupressinum* both have distinctive dimorphism between juvenile and
293 adult specimens. Mixture analysis for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ *D. dacrydioides* indicated two normal
294 distributions within the data set although the correlation with VPD is significant throughout
295 the species. Acceptable sampling density of *D. cupressinum* provided an opportunity to look
296 for isotopic differences between juvenile and mature leaves. Juvenile leaf $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
297 display significant correlations with water balance and vapour pressure deficit (Fig. 5)
298 whereas mature leaf isotopes are not significantly correlated with the environmental
299 parameters considered (Table 2), although the two groups had statistically similar means. For
300 *D. cupressinum*, a juvenile form could therefore be a better palaeoclimate indicator than a
301 mature form because it appears to be much more sensitive to environmental stresses.

302

303 *P. ferruginea* $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ correlates with elevation rather than VPD and the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ data indicate
304 influences from MAT, MAS, water balance and VPD, although the latter is the strongest and
305 most significant. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ *P. ferruginea* display a correlation of 0.47 ($p = 0.007$, $n = 13$) with
306 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ indicating again a consistent relationship between the two isotopes and a controlling
307 influence of stomatal conductance within this family.

308

309 Increased sunshine hours should cause an increased photosynthetic rate, which theoretically
310 would cause a more negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ratio, but correlations with MAS are not evident in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
311 for *Podocarpus*, *D. dacrydioides*, *D. cupressinum* and *P. ferruginea*. However, increased
312 sunshine hours would also cause an increased VPD; using the LENZ data, VPD and MAS
313 have a strong positive correlation ($r^2 = 0.4$, $p = 2.25 \times 10^{-14}$, $n = 118$). Increased VPD causes
314 stomata to close to minimise evaporation from the leaves hence $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ becomes less negative
315 due to decreased gas exchange resulting in Rubisco sequestering more ^{13}C than usual.
316 Because these two effects are opposed, the correlation with MAS would be highly dampened.
317 Coomes and Bellingham (2011) note that Podocarpaceae are shade tolerant and reach light
318 saturation at low thresholds compared with other C3 plants. *D. cupressinum* and *D.*
319 *dacrydioides* exhibit dimorphism with pendant adult leaves, reducing surface area of exposed
320 leaves exposed to direct sunlight and increasing the sunshine allowed into canopy areas; such
321 morphological adaptations would also decrease correlations with MAS.

322

323 *Phyllocladus* differs in response to most parameters compared to the other genera/species
324 studied here. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ has a negative correlation with MAS but no other significant correlations
325 and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ had no significant correlations with climatic parameters ($p > 0.1$). Unlike the other
326 plants, *Phyllocladus* $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ is negatively correlated to $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ although the correlation is not

327 significant ($r^2 = 0.21$, $p = 0.13$, $n = 12$). If we reject the significance of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ to $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, it would
328 be reasonable to propose that neither photosynthetic capacity or stomatal conductance have a
329 significantly dominant influence on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, however if significance is accepted, Scheidegger's
330 model would propose that photosynthetic capacity is the main controlling factor on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
331 which would agree with the correlation with MAS (Fig. 6). Turney et al (1999) carried out a
332 similar study on *Phyllocladus alpinus*, proposing VPD to be the main control on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, but the
333 *Phyllocladus* results presented here are inconsistent with that hypothesis. 86% of Turney's
334 samples were from South Island whereas the majority of *Phyllocladus* samples from this
335 study were from North Island, and geological differences between the islands may affect the
336 results. *Phyllocladus* is disputed as a member of the Podocarpaceae family and is
337 morphologically different from the other genera studied here because it has flattened stems
338 called cladodes rather than leaves; it is therefore unlikely that *Phyllocladus* would have
339 identical stomatal characteristics to the other genera considered.

340

341 **3.4. Potential for palaeoclimate reconstruction**

342

343 Presence of New Zealand Podocarpaceae in the fossil record constrains the palaeoclimatic
344 interpretation, because they currently thrive only in a relatively narrow climate band within
345 New Zealand. For Podocarpaceae forests dominated by these species to exist, the climate
346 must be wet and cool but without extreme cold, and periodic catastrophic events must occur
347 to allow regeneration of these conifers (Coomes and Bellingham, 2011). To further constrain
348 the vapour pressure deficit and water balance, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of macrofossils can be compared with the
349 modern day findings presented here. If *Phyllocladus* and a *Podocarp* fossil species occur in
350 the same sequence, information about both Mean Annual Sunshine hours and Vapour
351 Pressure Deficit of the palaeoclimate at time of deposition can be obtained.

352

353 The lack of strong latitudinal trends within these data and strong correlations with Vapour
354 Pressure Deficit suggest that topography-induced environmental conditions are more
355 important than latitudinally-induced conditions for affecting the stable isotope ratios of leaves
356 (Fig. 7). This reinforces the concept that palaeoclimate proxies are best interpreted
357 considering studies on stable isotopes in local vegetation.

358

359 **4. Conclusions**

360

361 The diversity of altitudes, latitudes, and types of environments from which the samples were
362 obtained provides a robust test of the controls on stable isotope ratios of vegetation.
363 *Podocarpus*, *D. cupressinum*, *D. dacrydioides*, and *P. ferruginea* $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ is primarily controlled
364 by stomatal conductance responding to Vapour Pressure Deficit variability. The relationship
365 between Mean Annual Sunshine hours and *Phyllocladus* $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ demonstrates that
366 photosynthetic capacity is the dominant control. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ratios support these conclusions
367 through statistical associations with Vapour Pressure Deficit and application of Scheidegger's
368 conceptual model. These results are relevant for palaeoclimate reconstructions using a range
369 of New Zealand proxies and macrofossils, and, when compared with $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of other
370 species worldwide, to construct more detailed global isotopic gradients. Additionally, this
371 research suggests that local environmental conditions can directly affect climate proxy $\delta^{13}\text{C}$,
372 suggesting that interpretations based on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ proxies records should consider shifts in
373 vegetation type, density, and climate (Fig. 1), because they can operate simultaneously and
374 independently.

375

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380

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465 **7. Captions**

466 **Fig. 1:** Simplified models for interpretation of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ excursions. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ becomes less negative
467 in the direction of x-axes arrows. Model A: A shift from sparse to dense vegetation causes δ
468 ^{13}C to decrease (e.g., Baldini et al. 2005). Model B: A shift of vegetation type from forest to
469 prairie will cause $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ to increase (e.g., Denniston et al., 1999). Model C: Model tested by
470 this study where a change in climatic conditions such as vapour pressure deficit or sunshine
471 hours can cause $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ shifts within a stable biosphere.

472 **Fig. 2:** For scenarios a-h, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ is plotted against $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and related to stomatal
473 conductance(g_i) and photosynthetic capacity (A_{max}) in a number of steps. Firstly the change
474 in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ is related to a change in vapour pressure deficit since $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ is controlled by stomatal
475 conductance and stomatal conductance is primarily a function of relative humidity or in this
476 study, vapour pressure deficit. Then $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ is linked to intercellular CO_2 concentration (c_i). In
477 the 3rd step two possible causes for the change in c_i are proposed in terms of changes in A_{max}
478 and g_i , and then the more likely one chosen by considering vapour pressure deficit. This
479 results in an output model of relative dominance of g_i or A_{max} . Adapted from Scheidegger et
480 al. (2000).

481 **Fig.3:** Left: mean minimum temperature of the coldest month (LENZ) with sampling
482 locations; green = leaves, blue = water, scale in °C. Right: $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of sampled water with
483 sampling locations..

484 **Fig. 4:** Data relative to Global Meteoric Water Line (green). OIPC $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ precipitation (blue)
485 and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ NZ water samples (red).

486 **Fig. 5:** Juvenile and mature *D. cupressinum* isoscapes. Colour scale is isotope ratio in ‰.

487 **Fig. 6:** *Phyllocladus* was sampled primarily from North Island and is correlated with Mean
488 Annual Sunshine hours.

489 **Fig. 7:** Isoscapes a) *Podocarpus* leaf $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ b) *Podocarpus* leaf $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ c) Vapour Pressure
490 Deficit d) Water Balance. Topographically controlled conditions provide a greater influence
491 on leaf stable isotopes than latitudinal variations.

492 **Table 1:** Statistics for segregated data.

493 **Table 2:** Statistics for juvenile and mature *D. cupressinum*

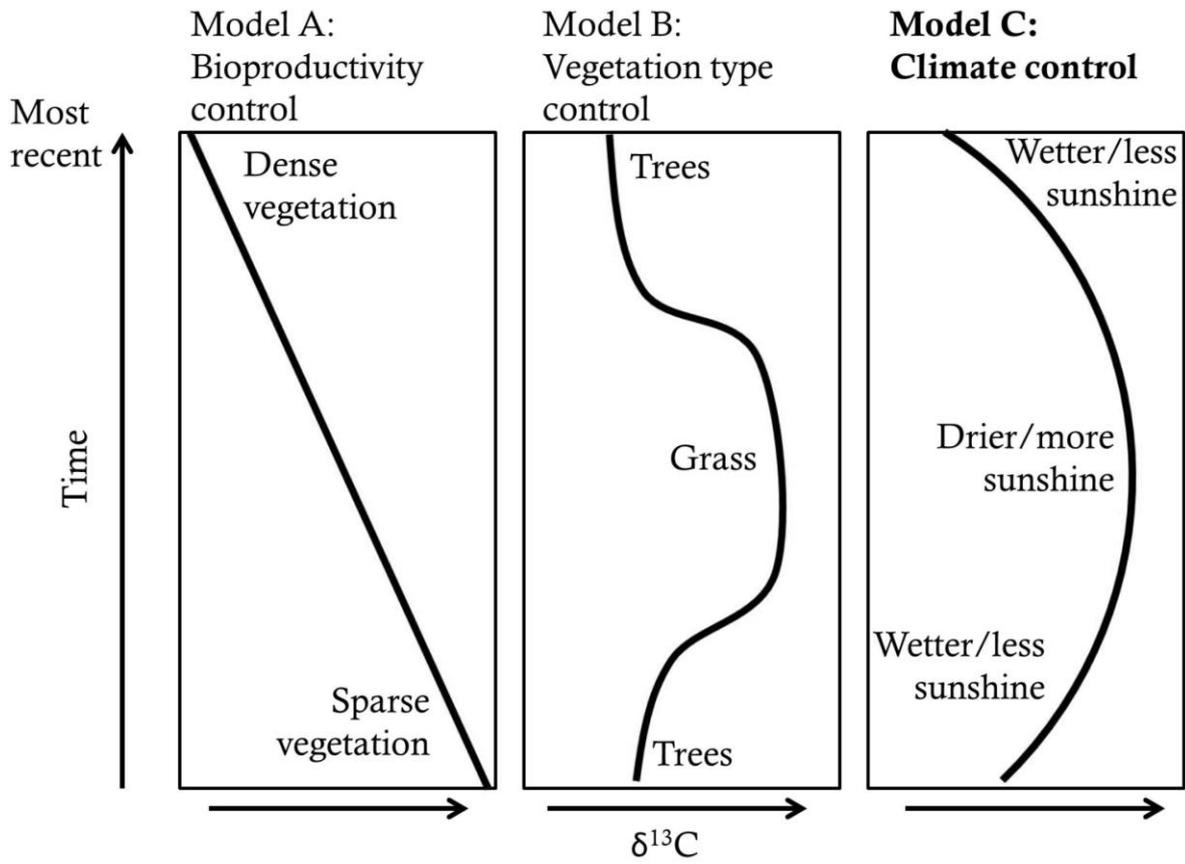
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501 Figure 1

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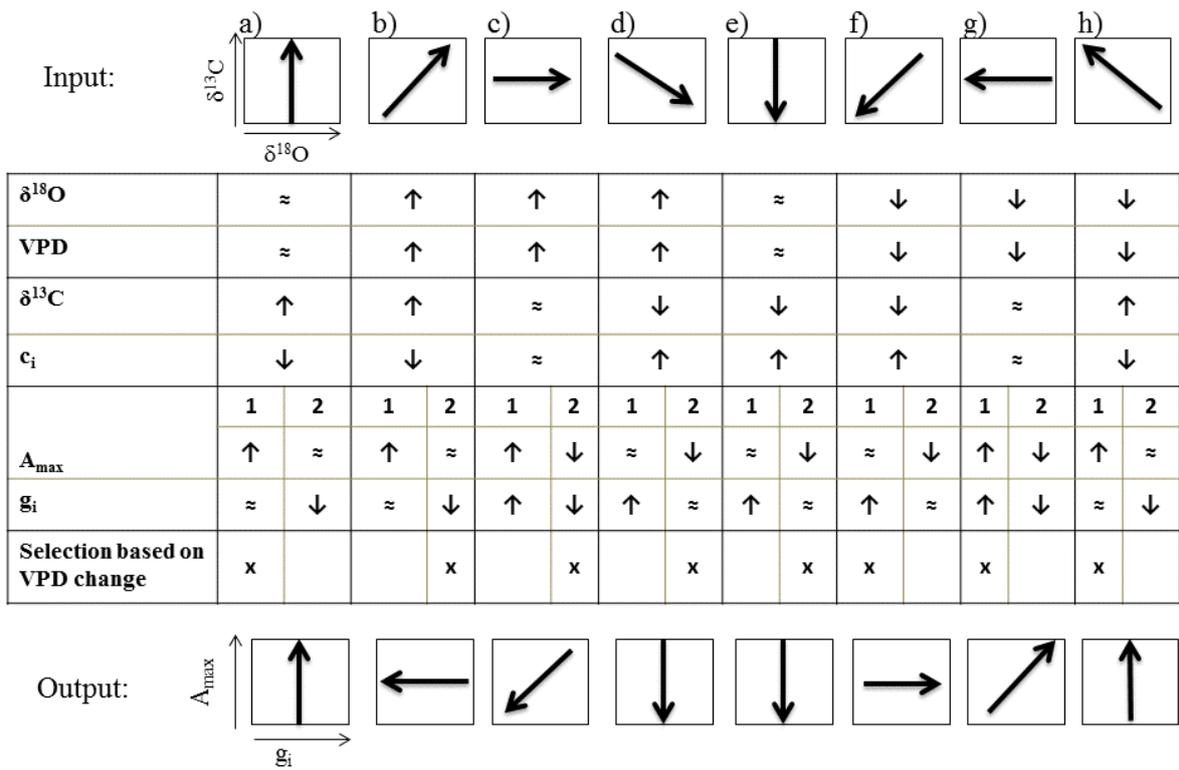
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515 Figure 2

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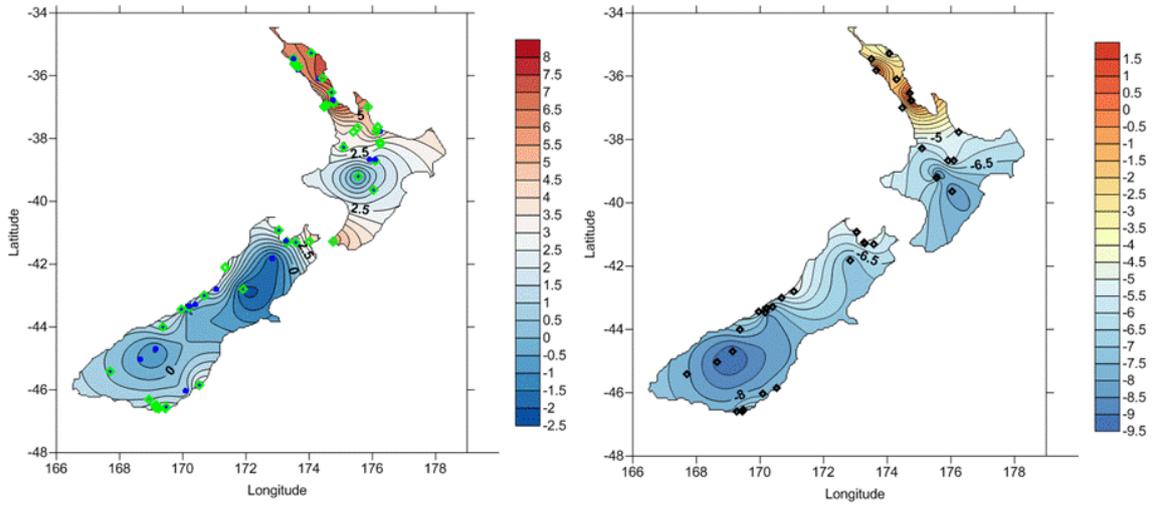
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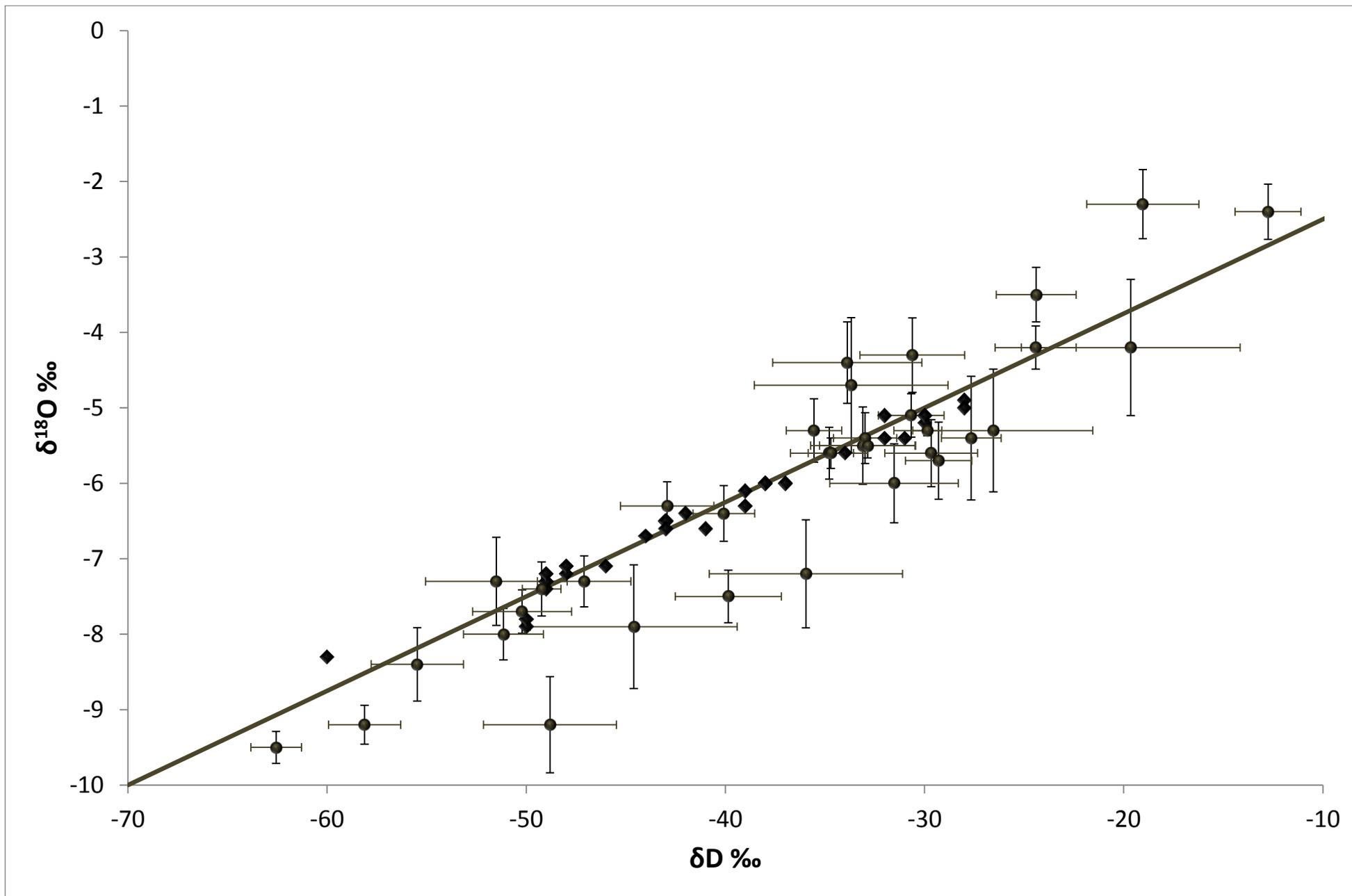
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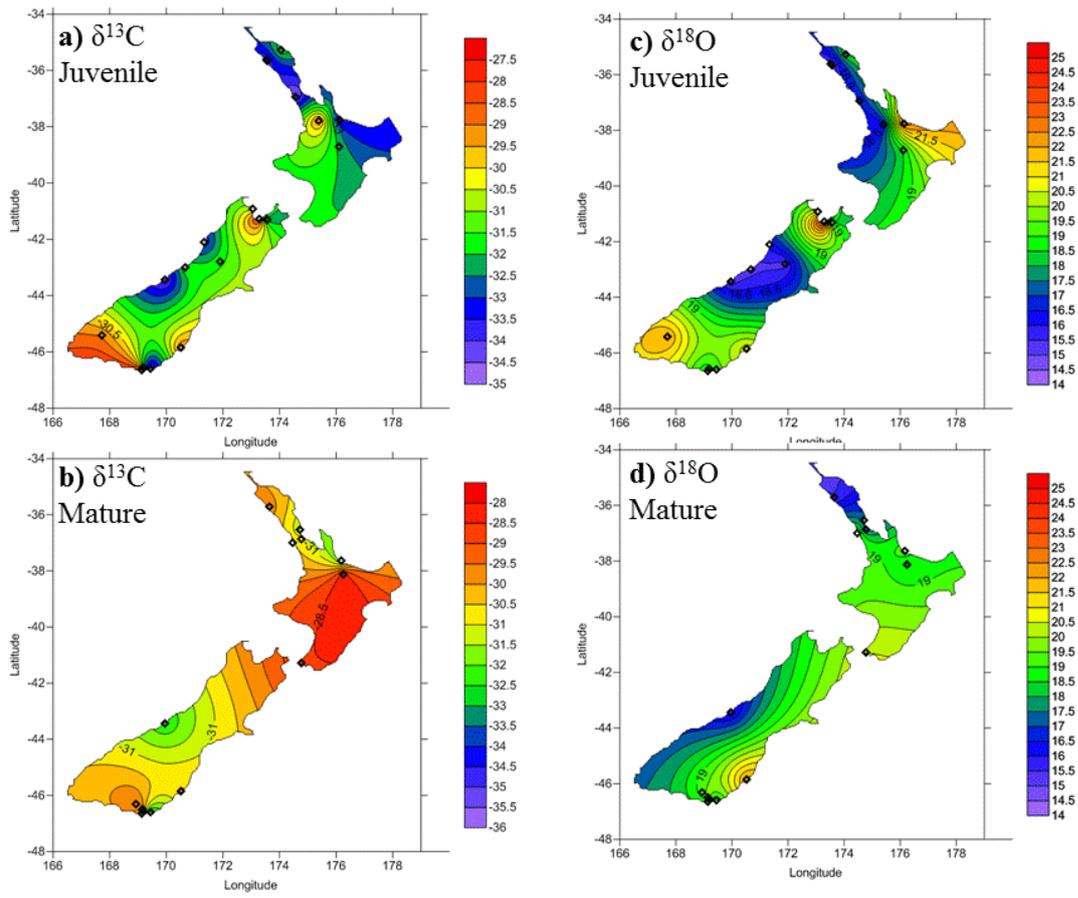
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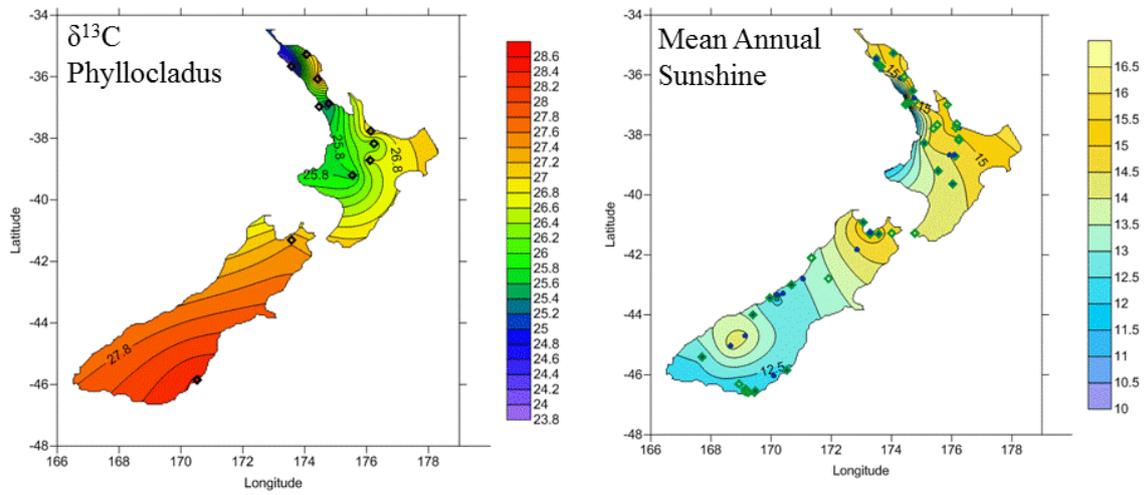
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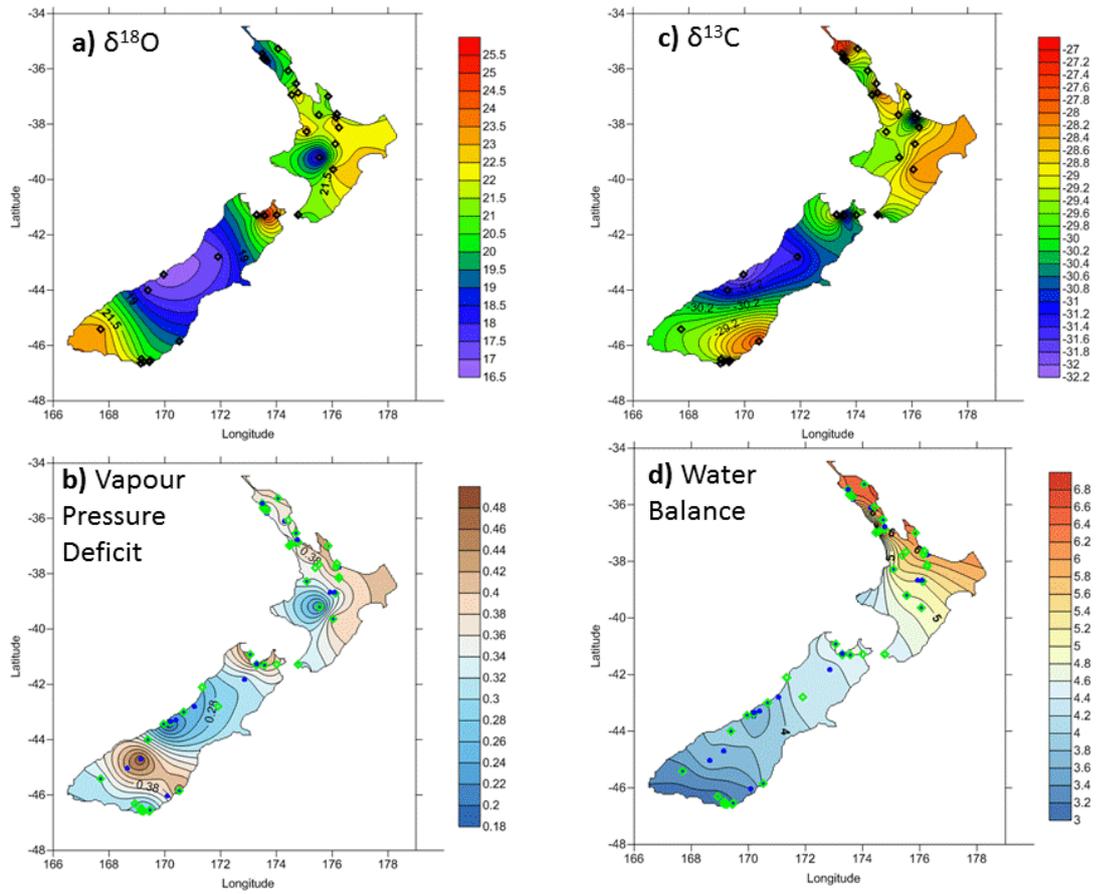
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Data set	Isotope	Parameter	Direction of correlation	Strength of correlation	p value (significance)	n
juvenile <i>d. cupressinum</i>	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	Water balance	negative	0.16	0.092	19
		VPD	positive	0.16	0.094	
	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	Water balance	negative	0.38	7.81×10^{-3}	17
		VPD	positive	0.44	3.77×10^{-3}	
mature <i>d. cupressinum</i>	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	no significant correlation				12
	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	no significant correlation				10

Table 2: Statistics for juvenile and mature *d. cupressinum*

Data set	Isotope	Parameter	Direction of correlation	Strength of correlation	<i>p</i> value (significance)	<i>n</i>
Podocarpus	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	Water balance	negative	0.47	8.77×10^{-4}	38
		VPD	positive	0.22	0.003	
	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	Water balance	negative	0.40	1.51×10^{-4}	31
		MAS VPD	positive positive	0.16 0.26	0.01 3.55×10^{-3}	
<i>d. cupressinum</i>	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	Water balance	negative	0.12	0.055	31
		VPD	positive	0.10	0.079	
	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	Water balance	negative	0.33	1.68×10^{-3}	27
		VPD	positive	0.37	7.01×10^{-4}	
<i>p.ferruginea</i>	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	Elevation	negative	0.26	0.074	14
	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	MAT	positive	0.28	0.06	13
		MAS	positive	0.35	0.03	
		Water balance	negative	0.32	0.04	
		VPD	positive	0.70	1.73×10^{-4}	
<i>d. dacrydioides</i>	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	Water balance	negative	0.13	0.162	16
		VPD	positive	0.25	0.048	
Phyllocladus	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	MAS	negative	0.20	0.143	12

Table 1: statistics for segregated data.