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Research paper

Late-day measurement of excised branches results in uncertainty in the estimation of two stomatal parameters derived from response curves in *Populus deltoides* Bartr. × *Populus nigra* L.

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Many terrestrial biosphere models depend on an understanding of the relationship between stomatal conductance and photosynthesis. However, unlike the measurement of photosynthetic parameters, such as the maximum carboxylation capacity, where standard methods (e.g., CO₂ response or A_{C_i} curves) are widely accepted, a consensus method for empirically measuring parameters representing stomatal response has not yet emerged. Most models of stomatal response to environment represent stomatal conductance as being bounded by a lower intercept parameter (g_0), and linearly scaled based on a multivariate term described by the stomatal slope parameter (g_1). Here we employ the widely used Unified Stomatal Optimization model, to test whether g_1 and g_0 parameters are impacted by the choice of measurement method, either on an intact branch or a cut branch segment stored in water. We measured paired stomatal response curves on intact and excised branches of a hybrid poplar clone (*Populus deltoides* Bartr. × *Populus nigra* L. OP367), measured twice over a diurnal period. We found that predawn branch excision did not significantly affect measured g_0 and g_1 when measured within 4 h of excision. Measurement in the afternoon resulted in significantly higher values of g_1 and lower values of g_0 , with values changing by 55% and 56%, respectively. Excision combined with afternoon measurement resulted in a marked effect on parameter estimates, with g_1 increasing 89% from morning to afternoon and a 25% lower g_1 for cut branches than those measured in situ. We also show that in hybrid poplar the differences in parameter estimates obtained from plants measured under different conditions can directly impact models of canopy function, reducing modeled transpiration by 18% over a simulated 12.5-h period. Although these results are only for a single isohydric woody species, our findings suggest that stomatal optimality parameters may not remain constant throughout the day.

Keywords: climate model, photosynthesis, stomata, stomatal conductance, stomatal optimality, stomatal response.

Introduction

Model representation of the exchange of carbon dioxide (CO₂) and water vapor between vegetative canopies and the atmosphere is a critical component of terrestrial biosphere models (TBMs). Both of these fluxes are fundamentally governed by stomatal control, which balances water loss through transpiration (E) against CO₂ entry into the leaf via photosynthesis (Hetherington and Woodward 2003). Many models of stomatal regulation assume that stomatal conductance (g_s), the rate of

water vapor exiting leaf stomata, has evolved to be optimal with respect to water-use, that is, plants maximize carbon gain per unit of water lost (Cowan and Fraquhar 1977, Damour et al. 2010). This optimal relationship can be represented empirically using the 'Unified Stomatal Optimization' model (USO; Medlyn et al. 2011; Eq. (1)), which has two derived parameters, g_1 (kPa^{0.5}), typically referred to as the stomatal slope, which governs the relationship between the stomatal index (a multivariate term combining photosynthetic rate, CO₂ concentration, and

leaf to air vapor pressure deficit) and g_s , and g_0 ($\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) representing the expected stomatal conductance when net photosynthesis is zero. The model also has three measured variables, photosynthetic rate (A , $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), the leaf to air vapor pressure deficit (D_s , kPa) and CO_2 concentration at the leaf surface (C_s , mol mol^{-1}). In the USO framework, g_1 is inversely proportional to water-use efficiency, abbreviated WUE and defined as $\partial E/\partial A$. A large g_1 is associated with a plant that loses more water per unit carbon assimilation than a plant with a low g_1 .

$$g_s = g_0 + 1.6 \left(1 + \frac{g_1}{\sqrt{D_s}} \right) \frac{A}{C_s} \quad (1)$$

Despite the fact that A and g_s rates directly impact global carbon and water cycles, their relationship continues to be a large source of variation in current model predictions (Ricciuto et al. 2018). For example, Dietze et al. (2014) found that when unconstrained by data, g_1 was the second largest uncertainty in their analysis of global controls on net primary productivity. However, unlike many other photosynthetic parameters that can be derived from gas exchange measurements, no consensus exists on a standard method for estimating g_0 and g_1 (Sharkey et al. 2007, Bernacchi et al. 2013). One common method for assessing stomatal function is a survey-based approach, in which rates of A and g_s are measured instantaneously under natural conditions, and g_1 and g_0 are fit from the data with regression analysis (e.g., Lin et al. 2015). Alternatively, many investigators have used a response curve approach for the estimation of stomatal behavior, in which the environment around a leaf (e.g., irradiance, atmospheric CO_2 concentration (C_a) or vapor pressure deficit (D or VPD)) is altered, and the operator observes how rates of steady state A and g_s respond (Ball et al. 1987, Mott 1988, Leakey et al. 2006). Unlike survey methods, response curves control for leaf-to-leaf variation in response, and capture a parameter estimate at a fixed point in time, and thus are an appealing method for fitting parameter estimates used in TBMs of vegetation function.

However, stomatal response curves are not without drawbacks, sometimes taking up to a full day to complete for a single leaf (Leakey et al. 2006). This poses a challenge when the species of interest is difficult to access, and for this reason, researchers often sample branches and conduct response curves *ex situ*, utilizing methods such as shotgun sampling (Serbin et al. 2014, Burnett et al. 2019, 2021) or manual branch pruning (Wu et al. 2019). However, with these *ex situ* measurements comes the assumption that excision of a branch will not fundamentally alter the response of the parameter of interest, through branch cavitation or other stress responses (Santiago and Mulkey 2003, Verryckt et al. 2020, Missik et al. 2021).

It is well known that excision can alter wood conduit structure by introducing air into the xylem, which can lead to cavitation

and embolism of tissue upstream of the cut (Williamson and Milburn 1995). Xylem damage can also reduce the volume of water reaching the leaf tissue, altering capacitance (Sperry et al. 1993), potentially influencing the relationship between A and g_s . A number of studies (e.g., Santiago and Mulkey 2003, Verryckt et al. 2020, Akalusi et al. 2021, Missik et al. 2021) have shown that if branches are immediately recut under water after initial excision, rates of A and g_s may be unaffected. Importantly, however, these studies do not assess changes in the parameters g_1 and g_0 , stomatal traits may be more acutely affected by hydraulic damage if water supply to the leaf is impaired.

A final implicit assumption with the response curve approach is that the measured parameter will be temporally constant, and thus will not change over the length of the measurement. In most cases however, there is a contrast between the apparent parameter measured, and the ideal or nominal value for the parameter. For example, it is known that the maximum rate of Rubisco carboxylation ($V_{\text{cmax},25}$) declines over a diurnal time course due to Rubisco deactivation, leading late-day estimation of $V_{\text{cmax},25}$ to be up to 50% lower than the morning value (Salvucci and Anderson 1987, Kobza and Seemann 1989). In addition, Resco de Dios et al. (2020) found that changes in the circadian timing of metabolism over diurnal timescales leads to different 'optimal' levels of g_s , showing that assuming a fixed optimal level for stomatal parameters is not consistent with observation.

Here we attempt to test two key assumptions of stomatal response curves in a controlled manner, namely that time since branch excision and the time of day in which a measurement is made will not impact fitted parameter estimates. Our objective was to determine if g_1 and g_0 estimations were different between pairs of cut and intact branches, measured across two periods during a day. Our specific research questions were (i) does predawn excision of branches lead to a modified stomatal response to irradiance, compared with the intact *in situ* measurement curves? (ii) Is g_1 diurnally dynamic, leading to shifts in WUE over the course of the day? (iii) Will use of g_0 and g_1 estimated from excised or late-day measurements produce different estimates of leaf scale transpiration?

Materials and methods

Plant material

In May 2019, 20-cm hardwood stem cuttings of *Populus deltoides* Bartr. \times *Populus nigra* L. OP367 (hybrid poplar) were soaked in water until roots formed and transplanted into 210 l pots filled with Pro-Mix M (Premier Tech, Quebec, Canada) potting soil. Plants were grown outside on a fenced concrete pad at Brookhaven National Laboratory (Upton, NY, USA, latitude: 40.8834319, longitude: -72.870103 , elevation: 18 m above sea level). Mean annual temperature at the site is 10.3 °C, and

mean annual precipitation is 1244.6 mm. During the period of study average temperature was 22.3 °C, and the site received a total of 114.3 mm of precipitation. Data collection took place during the second year of growth. During spring and summer, pots were irrigated every other day to field capacity to prevent soil from drying to the point at which the plants would experience soil water stress. During this period, three fertilizer treatments of Peters Professional 15-16-17 (ICL Specialty Fertilizers, Dublin, OH, USA) were applied, the last of which occurred 7 days before the first measurements were taken. At each application, approximately 4.5 l of fertilizer mix was injected into the soil using a Dosatron D14MZ10 Fertilizer Injector (Dosatron International Inc., Clearwater, FL, USA), set to a mix rate of 200 p.p.m. with the injector set at a 1:100 ratio fertilizer to water.

Measurements took place from 15 July to 21 August 2020. For each measurement day, two plants were selected, and on each plant two equivalent branches were identified, one that would be excised predawn and the other to serve as an intact control. Prior to excision, a target leaf was identified and flagged on each of the four candidate branches. The target leaves were matched so that within each plant, leaves were of the same approximate size, color, phenological stage and leaf plastochron index (LPI) (Erickson and Michelini 1957, Rogers et al. 2012, Meicenheimer 2014), a measure of the approximate age of a leaf based on its proximity to the most distal leaf that has expanded beyond 10 mm in length from base to apex. Although the plant-to-plant criteria for leaf selection varied, the target leaves were always the most recently fully expanded, physiologically mature and undamaged leaves. The LPI ranged from 8 to 15, indicating that all leaves were physiologically mature and fully expanded. In this way, although the total plant-to-plant variation in target leaves was considerable, within each plant the target leaves were as closely matched as possible.

Predawn (approximately 30 min prior to nautical twilight) on the day of each measurement, two approximately 2.5-m candidate branches were cut for each of two plants. These branches would serve as the cut treatment for both the morning (AM) and afternoon (PM) measurement period. Each branch segment was then placed in a bucket containing 22 l of water, and immediately recut under water to prevent cavitation or embolism of the xylem (Sperry 2013, Wheeler et al. 2013). This method serves to remove embolized tissue, and allows for xylem tension to be relieved by drawing liquid water into the cut, thereby restoring the hydraulic driving gradient within the branch (Venturas et al. 2015). Each recut consisted of removing at least 50 cm of material to provide a sufficient buffer between the site of the second cut and any embolized xylem (Wolfe et al. 2016). After the branches had been recut, they measured approximately 2 m in length. We chose to make our initial branch cuts predawn as that is when water potential is closest to zero, no photosynthesis is occurring, ambient temperatures are low,

and the branches and the intact plants experience no thermal stress.

Cut branches were stored under ambient metrological conditions adjacent to their parent individual from the time of cutting until gas exchange measurement commenced. After gas exchange, the four measured leaves were sampled for fresh mass and area. Fresh mass was taken on an ER-60A digital balance (A&D Weighing, San Jose, CA, USA) and area was calculated from digital photographs with a scale reference and subsequently post processed using the software application ImageJ (v1.53a, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA). Dry mass was recorded after samples were dried to constant mass at 60 °C. Leaf mass per area (LMA) was calculated as dry mass divided by the total leaf area. In total, 32 curves were conducted (16 pairs).

Gas exchange measurements

All gas exchange measurements were conducted using one of two LI-6800 portable photosynthesis systems (LI-COR Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA) with either a multiphase flash fluorometer leaf chamber (6800-01A) (first 16 curves) or a 'Small Light Source' leaf chamber (6800-02) for the remaining curves. We found no significant effect of chamber type on either g_0 or g_1 estimates. For all measurements, the color spectrum of the irradiance was 90% red, 10% blue. Both LI-6800s were factory calibrated by the manufacturer three months prior to use and were running the same version of the operating system (v 1.14.05).

Stomatal response curves followed previously established methods (Leakey et al. 2006) in which irradiance was systematically adjusted in order to propagate changes in A , while holding VPD_{leaf} and sample CO_2 concentration (CO_2S) constant (Figure 1). Before beginning the collection of all experimental stomatal response curves, 10 irradiance response curves were conducted on randomly selected individuals at a leaf temperature of 30 °C to determine the overall response of A to various levels of irradiance. From these curves, the response of A to irradiance was subdivided into 10 approximately equal levels representing the full range of irradiance and their corresponding levels of A , ranging from light saturated photosynthesis (A_{sat}), to respiratory CO_2 release in the dark (R_{dark}). The final irradiance levels chosen were as follows (1500, 900, 700, 450, 250, 175, 90, 40, 20, 0 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$). We chose to decrease irradiance on a sun-adapted leaf, rather than increase irradiance for a dark-adapted leaf, as in general, stomata are known to react more slowly to increases in irradiance than decreases in irradiance (Lawson and Blatt 2014, Lawson and Vialet-Chabrand 2019), presumably as a mechanism to maximize carbon gain in unstable conditions (Lawson et al. 2012, Drake et al. 2013, McAusland et al. 2016). Thus, by conducting our response curves by decreasing irradiance, we estimate that the length of a single curve was reduced by approximately half. While the direction of a change in irradiance (increase vs decrease)

does impact instantaneous WUE (iWUE; $A_n g_s^{-1}$) immediately following the change in irradiance, this will have no impact on the steady state levels of A and g_s required to estimate g_1 and g_0 .

Before the collection of each individual g_s response curve, a leaf temperature and VPD_{leaf} level was chosen that would be representative of the mean external environment for that day for the full length of the curve. As each curve took 5–6 h to complete, leaf temperature set-point values often had to be higher than ambient air temperature in the morning to prevent reaching the dew point temperature later in the day when cooling was necessary. On average for the morning curves, T_{leaf} was 28.1 °C and VPD_{leaf} was 1.15 kPa. For the afternoon curves, mean T_{leaf} was 30.2 °C and mean VPD_{leaf} was 1.25 kPa. CO_2S was set to 400 $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ mol}^{-1}$ so that the level of CO_2 at the leaf surface was approximately equivalent to the level of CO_2 outside the leaf chamber. CO_2S , VPD_{leaf} and T_{leaf} were held constant for the entirety of each curve so that A and g_s response between curves were comparable and related only to the leaf-to-leaf variation at a given irradiance level on the experimental plants. An automatic logging program was used to collect a data point every 10 s for the duration of measurements, and the devices were set to automatically match sample and reference gas analyzers every 10 min.

Each curve began at 1500 PPF. After a 1-h acclimation and stabilization period, PPF was dropped to the next lowest irradiance level, and leaves were allowed to acclimate to this new irradiance level for a minimum of 25 min. After the 25-min acclimation period, A and g_s levels were monitored for stability in both leaves, after which the process was repeated until measurements at all 10 irradiance levels had been completed. For each irradiance level an average of the five log points prior to a change in irradiance constituted that measurement. Irradiance level was dropped for both branches simultaneously so that any external influences of ambient irradiance or wind on the curves would be equivalent between branches. Overall, both branches responded similarly to changes in irradiance, with negligible differences in stabilization times between treatments. Two pairs of curves were conducted per day, the morning treatment (~07:30–13:30 EST, hereafter AM treatment) and the afternoon treatment (~13:30–18:30 EST, hereafter PM treatment).

Estimation of stomatal conductance parameters

Stomatal response was evaluated using the USO model (Medlyn et al. 2011) (Eq. (1)). Using the USO model, data can be fit to estimate the two main parameters, a stomatal slope (g_1) and an intercept (g_0). The g_0 parameter represents the expected g_s when $A_{\text{net}} = 0$, which will occur at a PPF equivalent to the light compensation point. The g_1 parameter represents the slope of the relationship between g_s and a combined term including C_s , D_s , and A , sometimes termed the stomatal index. It should be

noted that although Eq. (1) uses the term C_s , C_a is often used in its place when data are derived using gas exchange systems as the two values are identical when the effect of boundary layer conductance is eliminated.

Eq. (1) can be rewritten as a linear model where g_1 is the slope term, and g_0 is the intercept term, as in other Ball–Berry type model formulations (e.g., Ball et al. 1987, Leuning 1995, Katul et al. 2010; Eq. (2); Figure 1b). g_1 and g_0 are mathematically identical in Eqs (1) and (2), however Eq. (2) provides for simpler graphical depiction of the data and will be used throughout.

$$g_s - \frac{1.6A}{C_s} = g_0 + g_1 * \left(\frac{1.6A}{C_s \sqrt{D_s}} \right) \quad (2)$$

Typically, the model parameters g_0 and g_1 are simultaneously fitted so that the model best represents the observations. However, several authors have shown a strong correlation between the estimates of g_0 and g_1 which can lead to interdependency in their estimation (Damour et al. 2010, Duursma et al. 2019), which in turn can bias estimates of g_1 based on g_0 . Alternatively, other authors (e.g., Leuning 1995) have suggested using another method where g_0 is fixed either as zero or given a positive value to minimize the impact of g_0 on g_1 estimation. To account for this concern, we used two approaches to fit g_0 and g_1 . In the first approach, both g_0 and g_1 are simultaneously estimated for each treatment group, and both g_0 and g_1 are reported. In the second approach, a population value for g_0 was estimated by extrapolating g_s at a value of $A_n = 0$ from points just above and below the light compensation point for each curve, then taking the mean of these values for the full population of curves (hereafter $g_{0,\text{population}}$; 0.037 $\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$). Then, using $g_{0,\text{population}}$ as the intercept, g_1 was estimated for each treatment group. For models that use $g_{0,\text{population}}$ as the intercept, only the g_1 value is reported.

Leaf biochemical analysis for modeling synthesis

To estimate V_{cmax} , we used the ‘one-point method’ (De Kauwe et al. 2016, Eq. (3)), which has shown comparable results to traditional AC_i curves in this species (Burnett et al. 2019):

$$V_{\text{cmax}} = \frac{A_{\text{sat}}}{\left(\frac{C_i - \Gamma^*}{C_i + K_m} - 0.015 \right)} \quad (3)$$

where K_m is the Michaelis–Menten constant (404.9 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$), Γ^* is the CO_2 compensation point in the absence of mitochondrial respiration, and C_i is the intercellular CO_2 concentration.

The ‘one-point’ data used were our first point on each stomatal response curve, as it was an acclimated, steady state, light saturated measurement at 400 p.p.m. CO_2 . V_{cmax} at measurement temperature was then scaled to V_{cmax} at 25 °C using a modified Arrhenius equation (Leuning 2002, Eq. (4))

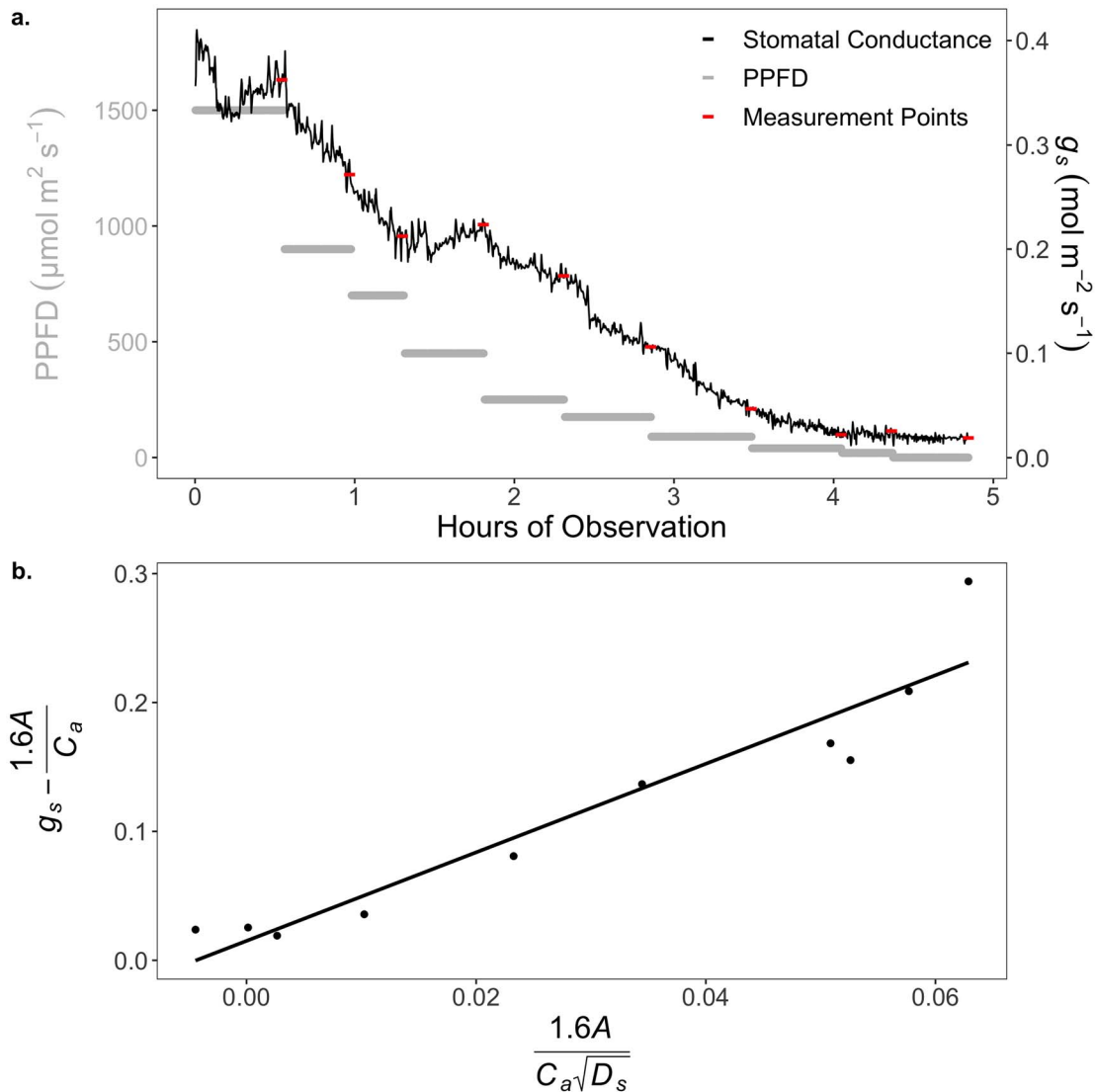


Figure 1. Overall format of the stomatal response curve approach in which irradiance is reduced in a stepwise manner, and rates of g_s decline in response. (a) Example of a curve in which rates of g_s reached steady state at each light level. Red points on the response curve correspond to the mean value for that irradiance level extracted for subsequent analysis. Even at steady state levels of g_s , there is still a great degree of observation-to-observation variation. (b) Standard visualization of the data from the curve conducted in (a). Plotting this way allows for a linear approximation of the g_1 and g_0 parameters, which are the slope and intercept, respectively, of the best fit line.

with the kinetic constants provided in Bernacchi et al. 2001):

$$V_{\text{cmax},25} = \frac{C * \exp[(H_a/RT_{25})(1 - T_{25}/T_{\text{leaf}})]}{1 + \exp[(S_v T_{\text{leaf}} - H_d)/(RT_{\text{leaf}})]} \quad (4)$$

where $V_{\text{cmax},25}$ is the value of V_{cmax} at the reference temperature ($T_{25} = 298.15$ K), $V_{\text{cmax},T}$ is the value of V_{cmax} at the leaf temperature (T_{leaf} in K), H_a , H_d and S_v are the activation and deactivation energies of the enzyme Rubisco and an entropy term ($H_a = 65,330$ J mol⁻¹, $H_d = 149,250$ J mol⁻¹, $S_v = 486$ J mol⁻¹ K⁻¹), R is the ideal gas constant ($R = 8.314$ J mol⁻¹ K⁻¹) and C is a combined term equivalent to $1 + \exp[(S_v T_{25} - H_d)/(RT_{25})]$.

J_{max} at 25 °C was then calculated as $1.615 * V_{\text{cmax},25}$, a ratio observed in values collected from AC_i curves in a previous study on the same individuals (Walker et al. 2021). $R_{\text{dark},T}$ was calculated from dark adapted measurements of A (the final response curve point) and was scaled to 25 °C ($R_{\text{dark},25}$) using an inverse Arrhenius equation (Eq. (5); Bernacchi et al. 2001, Von Caemmerer 2013):

$$R_{\text{dark},25} = \frac{R_{\text{dark},T}}{\exp\left(\frac{H_a}{(R*T_{25})} - \frac{H_a}{(R*T_{\text{leaf}})}\right)} \quad (5)$$

where H_a is the activation energy of mitochondrial respiration ($H_a = 46,390$ J mol⁻¹).

Statistical analysis

To test the effect of branch excision and time of day on g_0 and g_1 , we used a mixed effect model, with two fixed effects: excision (cut and intact) and the time of day (AM and PM). We also tested the interaction between these two factors. We have a total of 32 curves (8 cut-AM, 8 intact-AM, 8 cut-PM, 8 intact-PM), each consisting of 10 points for 320 total measurements. However, points within each curve are nonindependent, making this an excellent application for mixed models, with leaf considered as a random effect on g_0 and g_1 . We also used mixed models to test for an effect of LMA and fresh mass on g_0 and g_1 . In all mixed models, we consider a $P < 0.05$ as evidence of a significant result, and the differences between group means were assessed using a post hoc Tukey's honest significant difference test (Tukey 1949).

Paired sample *t*-tests were used to compare cut and intact LMA, fresh mass, V_{cmax} , A and C_i . Paired sample *t*-tests were also used to examine the effect of time of day on the same leaf properties. To examine the effect of leaf on stomatal traits, we constructed linear models of LMA, fresh mass:dry mass, V_{cmax} and R_{dark} versus g_0 and g_1 . Models with a slope not significantly different from 0 were considered to be non-significant.

All analyses were performed using the software package R (v 3.6.2, R Development Core Team 2013); mixed models were constructed and tested using the package 'nlme' (v 3.1, Pinheiro et al. 2020) and contrast estimates were analyzed with the package 'emmeans' (v 1.4.8 Lenth et al. 2020).

Leaf gas exchange simulation

In order to simulate A and g_s in response to ambient environmental conditions, we used a coupled leaf scale steady state assimilation, conductance and energy balance model included in the R package 'LeafGasExchange' (v 1.0.1 Lamour and Serbin 2021). The model first simulates environmental conditions at the leaf surface. It uses meteorological data for the study site obtained from the Brookhaven National Lab Meteorological Service (<https://www.bnl.gov/weather/>), which records air temperature, wind speed, irradiance level and atmospheric pressure at 1-min time intervals.

We use a leaf energy budget model published by Muir (2019, 2020) to simulate T_{leaf} , C_s , and VPD_{leaf} . This energy budget uses an iterative solving function to estimate T_{leaf} and boundary layer conductance (g_{bw}) by first assuming $T_{\text{leaf}} = T_{\text{air}} + 1$ °C, $C_s = C_a$ and $\text{VPD}_{\text{leaf}} = \text{VPD}_{\text{air}}$, then solving for A , g_s , C_i , T_{leaf} and g_{bw} accounting for the temperature dependencies of the photosynthetic parameters R_{dark} , V_{cmax} and J_{max} (Bernacchi et al. 2001, Leuning 2002, Bernacchi et al. 2003b, Von Caemmerer 2013). Then the model compares the resulting estimation of T_{leaf} to the prior value, and if the values are within 0.1 °C, assumes the model has converged. If the values differ by

more than 0.1 °C, the model is rerun using the updated values of T_{leaf} , C_s and VPD_{leaf} .

Stomatal conductance is simulated using the USO model (Medlyn et al. 2011) shown in Eq. (1). Photosynthesis is simulated using the FvCB assimilation model (Farquhar et al. 1980) which assumes that net photosynthesis (A_n) is the minimum of carboxylation limited assimilation (A_c) and RuBp regeneration limited assimilation (A_j), minus the respiration rate that is not attributable to the photorespiratory pathway (R_{dark}). The model uses parameters for the maximum rate of electron transport at 25 °C ($J_{\text{max},25}$), maximum rate of carboxylation at 25 °C ($V_{\text{cmax},25}$) and the leaf dark respiration rate at 25 °C ($R_{\text{dark},25}$), which are scaled to T_{leaf} using an Arrhenius function or an inverse Arrhenius function (Bernacchi et al. 2001, 2003b, Leuning 2002, Von Caemmerer 2013). The model was parameterized using $V_{\text{cmax},25}$, $J_{\text{max},25}$, $R_{\text{dark},25}$, g_0 and g_1 calibrated using the data from this study. For the other parameters necessary to calculate photosynthesis, default parameters for C_3 plant species were chosen (Lamour and Serbin 2021; Table S1 available as Supplementary data at *Tree Physiology* Online). For all model simulations, uncertainty was modeled by rerunning the model using g_1 and g_0 values corresponding to \pm SE of the fitted value.

Two different types of models were run using these data, one run simulating A and g_s over a 12-h time period on each day of data collection, and one using an 'average day' which was an aggregation of the mean daytime meteorological parameters at 1-min intervals. We also ran the model across an expected range in leaf temperature, VPD_{leaf} , and irradiance to ensure changes in A , g_s and C_i were as expected (Figure S1 available as Supplementary data at *Tree Physiology* Online).

Results

Stomatal model parameters

When looking at the overall effect of time of day on stomatal parameters we find a significant increase ($F_{2,298} = 126.6$, $P < 0.001$) in g_1 by 55% between the AM and PM treatment, and a significant ($F_{2,298} = 20.2$, $P < 0.001$) 56% decrease in g_0 between AM and PM treatments. When using $g_{0,\text{population}}$ in place of g_0 , there was a significant ($F_{2,298} = 68.0$, $P < 0.001$) 89% increase in g_1 from AM to PM, a larger effect than seen with the model that considers both g_0 and g_1 (Table 1, Figure 2b and c).

Next, when considering the interaction of excision and time of day we find a significant effect on g_1 ($F_{4,294} = 64.3$, $P < 0.001$), g_0 ($F_{4,294} = 17.1$, $P < 0.001$) and g_1 when using $g_{0,\text{population}}$ ($F_{4,298} = 68.0$, $P < 0.001$; Table 2). The parameter g_1 increased by 49% between AM and PM in the cut treatment ($t_{296} = -2.7$, $P = 0.0334$), whereas it only increased by 36% for the intact treatment ($t_{296} = -3.5$,

Table 1. Fixed effect components from the mixed effects models tested. Effects denoted with + 0 are from the model where g_0 was $g_{0,\text{population}}$.

Model	Numerator df, Denominator df	F-value	Random effect SD	P-value	Contrast	Mean	SE	% difference
$g_0 \sim \text{excision}$	2, 298	51.730	0.022	<0.001	g ₀ : Cut	0.037	0.0060	6%
					g ₀ : Intact	0.039	0.0060	
$g_1 \sim \text{excision}$	2, 289	71.011	0.840	<0.001	g ₁ : Cut	2.54	0.233	9%
					g ₁ : Intact	2.76	0.231	
$g_1 \sim \text{excision} + 0$	2, 300	102.177	0.917	<0.001	g ₁ : Cut	2.87	0.221	10%
					g ₁ : Intact	3.15	0.219	
$g_0 \sim \text{time}$	2, 298	20.151	0.016	<0.001	g ₀ : AM	0.052	0.0063	-56%
					g ₀ : PM	0.023	0.0062	
$g_1 \sim \text{time}$	2, 298	126.615	0.607	<0.001	g ₁ : AM	2.10	0.240	55%
					g ₁ : PM	3.26	0.243	
$g_1 \sim \text{time} + 0$	4, 289	68.035	0.691	<0.001	g ₁ : AM	1.61	0.231	89%
					g ₁ : PM	3.04	0.233	

$P = 0.0036$, Figure 3c and d). The g_0 parameter followed a similar pattern, with a 66% decrease between AM-cut and PM-cut treatments ($t_{296} = 3.9$, $P < 0.001$), however there was no significant difference between AM and PM in the intact treatment (Table 2, Figure 3a and b). When $g_{0,\text{population}}$ was used, all pairwise comparisons of g_1 were significant, except the comparison between AM-cut and AM-intact treatments (Table 2, Figure 3e–f). Across all significant contrast, g_1 was lower in the AM treatment than the PM treatment and lower for the cut treatment than the intact treatment (Figure 2c).

Finally, we observed a significant ($F_{2,298} = 71.0$, $P < 0.001$) 9% reduction in g_1 measured on leaves from excised branches respective to leaves from intact branches, and a smaller significant ($F_{2,298} = 51.7$, $P < 0.001$) 6% reduction in g_0 . When using $g_{0,\text{population}}$ in place of g_0 we observed a significant ($F_{2,300} = 102.2$, $P < 0.001$) 10% reduction in g_1 for the cut treatment over the intact treatment (Table 1, Figure 2a). However, these effects of excision are likely due to large differences in treatments in the PM group, as we find no significant differences between AM-cut and AM-intact treatments.

Leaf traits

Paired sample t -tests revealed no significant ($P < 0.05$) difference in leaf traits (LMA, mass:dry mass ratio, $R_{\text{dark},25}$, $V_{\text{cmax},25}$) between cut and intact leaves or leaves from the AM and PM treatments, aside from a significant ($t_{21.58} = -2.23$, $P = 0.037$) 29.7% increase in $V_{\text{cmax},25}$ from AM to PM (Figure 4a–d). A full list of treatment level leaf trait means, and standard deviations, can be found in Table S2 available as Supplementary data at *Tree Physiology* Online.

Differences in leaf structural properties had no significant effect on either g_1 or g_0 parameter estimates (Table S3 available as Supplementary data at *Tree Physiology* Online). Both LMA and the ratio of fresh mass to dry mass show no significant relationship with fitted values of g_0 and g_1 , suggesting that leaf

to leaf variation in these properties was not a cause of other fixed effects trends in g_1 or g_0 (Figure 4e–h).

Simulation of leaf level A, g_s and E

Simulations using our coupled leaf assimilation, stomatal conductance and energy balance model revealed stark differences in both the shape and overall magnitude of the leaf level A and E response (Figure 5). Parametrization has a strong effect on the integrated daily level of E, with $2.73 \pm 0.4 \text{ l m}^{-2}$ for the AM-cut treatment, $2.76 \pm 0.4 \text{ l m}^{-2}$ for the AM-intact treatment, $3.04 \pm 0.3 \text{ l m}^{-2}$ for the PM-cut treatment and $3.32 \pm 0.36 \text{ l m}^{-2}$ for the PM-intact treatment (Figure 5c). Rates of daily integrated A followed a similar pattern with $0.390 \pm 0.000039 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$ for the AM-cut treatment, $0.387 \pm 0.000039 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$ for the AM-intact treatment, $0.391 \pm 0.000039 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$ for the PM-cut treatment and $0.394 \pm 0.00040 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$ for the PM-intact treatment (Figure 5d). We also see that when we compare a model which has fixed values of g_1 , g_0 , $V_{\text{cmax},25}$, $J_{\text{max},25}$ and $R_{\text{dark},25}$, and a model where these values are dynamic with time of day (AM group values used from 06:00–13:00 EST and PM group values used from 13:01–18:30 EST), the dynamic model produces estimates of E and A that are 8.6% and 1.1%, respectively, lower than the model that assumes fixed values.

Discussion

Here we demonstrate that predawn excision, combined with late-day measurement, can strongly influence parameter estimates of g_0 and g_1 in hybrid poplar. We see that in our PM treatment, excision of a branch leads to a 25% lower g_1 estimate than in an intact control, suggesting that WUE may increase as the result of branch excision. However, if measurements were made within 4 hours of branch excision, we observed no significant difference in measured g_0 or g_1 . We also

Table 2. Linear effect means and contrast estimates for the interactive effects of excision and time of day. Model denoted with + 0 is the model where g_0 was $g_{0, population}$. Bolded values are significant with an alpha cutoff of 0.05. Sign (+ or -) on the effect size indicates the direction of the comparison.

Model	Numerator df	F-value	Random effect SD	P-value	Effect	Mean	SE	Contrast	Effect size	t-value	P-value
$g_0 \sim$ excision:time	4, 294	17.052	0.016	<0.001	AM-Cut	0.0556	0.00663	AM-Cut vs PM-Cut	-66%	3.941	<0.001
					AM-Intact	0.048	0.00665	AM-Cut vs AM-Intact	-14%	1.474	0.455
					PM-Cut	0.0189	0.00654	AM-Intact vs PM-Cut	-61%	-3.118	0.011
					PM-Intact	0.029	0.00658	AM-Cut vs PM-Intact	-48%	2.852	0.024
								PM-Intact vs PM-Cut	-53%	-2.038	0.176
								AM-Intact vs PM-Intact	-40%	2.033	0.178
$g_1 \sim$ excision:time	4, 294	64.272	0.606	<0.001	AM-Cut	2.02	0.252	AM-Cut vs PM-Cut	+49%	-2.731	0.034
					AM-Intact	2.18	0.252	AM-Cut vs AM-Intact	+8%	-0.935	0.786
					PM-Cut	3.01	0.259	AM-Intact vs PM-Intact	+37%	2.304	0.099
					PM-Intact	3.41	0.253	AM-Cut vs PM-Intact	+69%	-3.883	<0.001
								PM-Intact vs PM-Cut	+13%	-2.271	0.107
								AM-Intact vs PM-Intact	+36%	-3.451	0.004
$g_1 \sim$ excision:time + 0	4, 298	68.0350	0.727	<0.001	AM-Cut	1.52	0.23	AM-Cut vs PM-Cut	+71%	-3.284	0.006
					AM-Intact	1.50	0.23	AM-Cut vs AM-Intact	-1.3%	0.135	0.999
					PM-Cut	2.60	0.238	AM-Intact vs PM-Intact	+73%	3.335	0.005
					PM-Intact	3.25	0.231	AM-Cut vs PM-Intact	+114%	-5.309	<0.0001
								PM-Intact vs PM-Cut	+25%	-5.055	<0.0001
								AM-Intact vs PM-Intact	+117%	-5.364	<0.0001

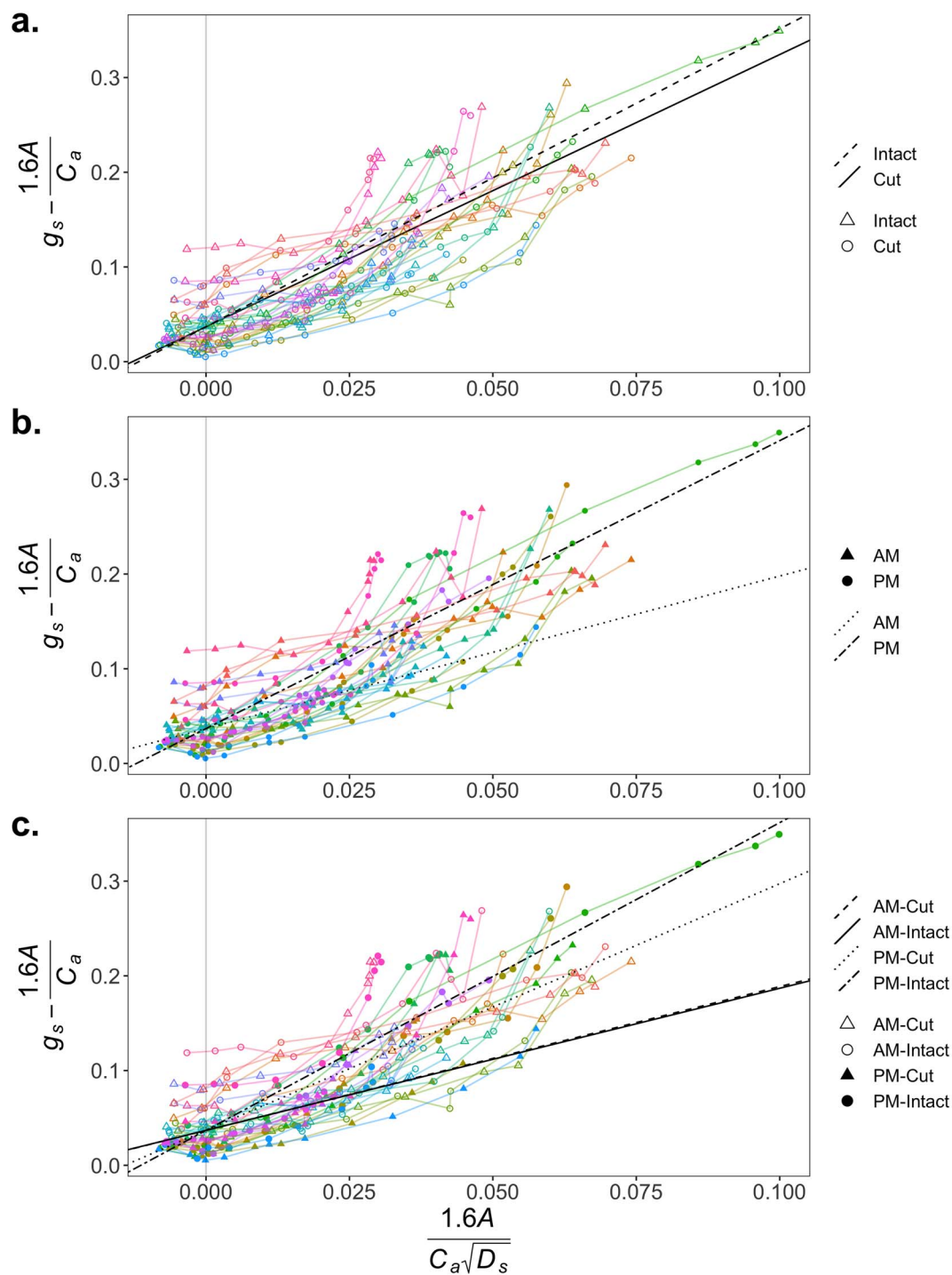


Figure 2. Effect of (a) excision and (b) time of day, and their interaction (c) on the fitted value of g_1 from the USO model, when g_0 is set to $g_{0,\text{population}}$ ($0.037 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$). Both excision and time of day produced a significant fixed effects relationship, with a 10% reduction in estimated g_1 for excised branches (a), and an 89% increase in g_1 from the AM treatment to the PM treatment (b). For the interaction (c) all contrast level differences are significant, except for the difference between cut and intact treatments during the AM time period. Notably, for the PM time period, predicted g_1 for the cut treatment was 25% less than the intact treatment, suggesting that the measurements are not comparable. Points connected by a colored line indicate that they were collected together as part of the same response curve. Points of the same color have the same random effects structure applied. Gray vertical line denotes the point of light compensation ($A_n = 0$).

see that over the diurnal course g_0 decreases by 55% and g_1 increases by 56%, irrespective of treatment. These differences mean that if PM-cut branches are used to derive values of g_1

for models of intact branches, this can result in up to a 34% overestimation of leaf level g_s for AM and mid-day periods. If extended over the course of a full day, the differences in

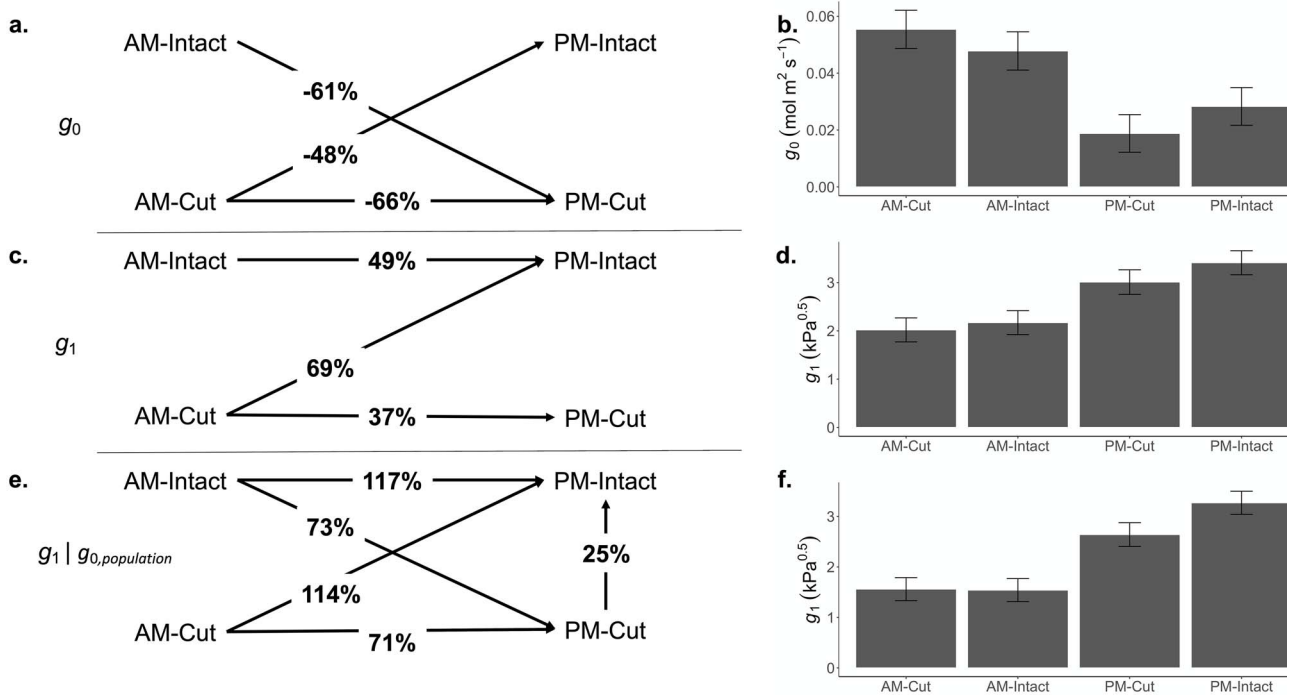


Figure 3. Comparisons of the interactive effects of excision and time of day on stomatal parameters. Percent difference between all six linear contrasts and absolute values and their error for (a, b) g_0 estimates, (c, d) g_1 estimates and (e, f) g_1 estimates when g_0 is set to $g_{0, \text{population}}$. All differences reported in panels (a), (c) and (e) by percentage are significant. Error bars in panels (b), (d) and (f) are ± 2 SE, $n = 8$. Full statistics and values for all effects are reported in Table 2.

estimated g_1 between PM-intact and AM-cut branches led to a modeled level of transpiration that is 18% higher than would be simulated when using AM-cut measurements alone.

Excision effect on g_1 and g_0

When looking at excision alone as a factor influencing parameter estimates, there was only a small effect of excision on branches, leading to a 10% reduction in g_1 for the cut treatment when compared with the intact treatment. However, when the interaction of excision and time of day are considered together, an important trend emerges. In the morning, g_1 was not significantly different between the cut and intact treatment, however in the afternoon g_1 was 25% lower in the cut treatment than the intact treatment (Figure 3e and f). This finding, that there is no effect of excision on g_1 when measurements are within 4 h of branch removal, is critical as it reinforces the validity of using *ex situ* measurements of excised branches for physiological study (Leakey et al. 2006, Verryckt et al. 2020, Missik et al. 2021). This observation also highlights that while excision does not impact g_1 early in the day, over time the effect of excision becomes more pronounced.

This is, to our knowledge, the first study which directly compares the stomatal property g_1 between cut and intact branches, as typically one measurement method is chosen without any cross comparison on the effect excision has on rates of A or g_s . While other studies have examined excision effects

(Santiago and Mulkey 2003, Leakey et al. 2006, Verryckt et al. 2020, Missik et al. 2021) none has addressed the potential effects of excision on the stomatal parameter g_1 or g_0 . Missik et al. (2021) investigates rates of A and g_s relative to time since excision, finding that for the three species studied, rates of A decline by between 25–63%, and rates of g_s decline by 31–43%. Missik et al. (2021) also examine the literature for similar studies, finding that of 13 previous studies which examine excised branches, only one examines a quantitative difference in rates of A and g_s . That study (Santiago and Mulkey 2003) examines the impact of excision on both sustained rates of A and on photosynthetic response curves in 10 tropical canopy tree species. Santiago and Mulkey (2003) suggest that an excision induced decline in g_s may be the cause of their observed decline in A , however they lack strong evidence for this claim. Leakey et al. (2006) measured rates of A and g_s in excised leaves of soybean (*Glycine max* (L.)) in order to parametrize a model of crop photosynthesis and transpiration. Leakey et al. (2006) then tested the parametrization of these laboratory derived data by comparing measured and modeled rates of g_s , finding that they were highly correlated, with a non-significant bias. Finally, Verryckt et al. (2020) explores the effect of excision on rates of A in tropical species. However, they do not examine any impact of excision on rates of g_s , limiting the comparisons that can be drawn between their work and this study.

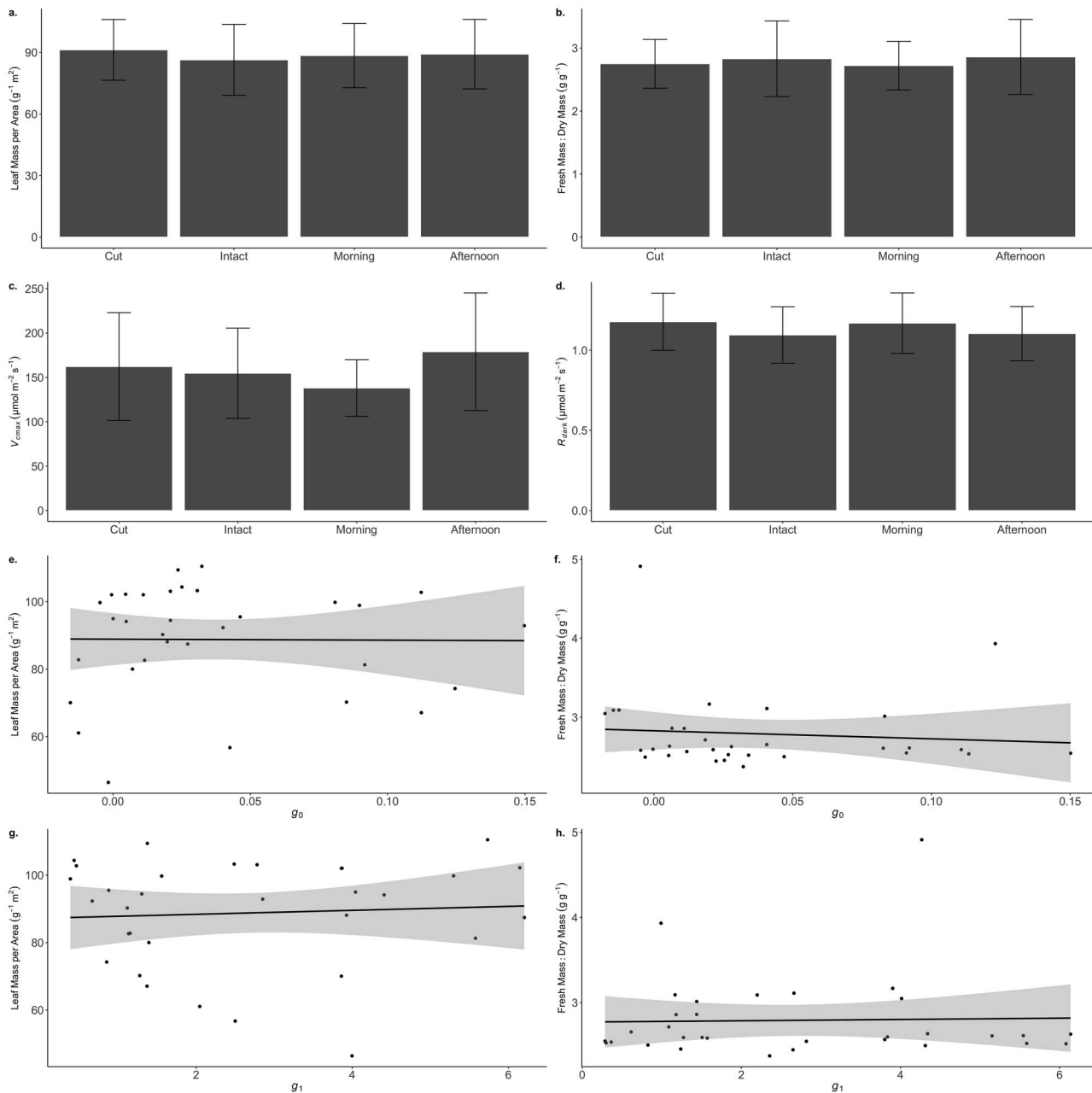


Figure 4. Leaf traits do not vary between cut and intact leaves or between leaves measured in the AM and PM groups with no significant effect on the estimated stomatal response parameters. Mean leaf mass per area (a), and fresh mass: dry mass ratio (b) are not different between treatments, however there is a large among plant variation in these values. There is a significant difference in V_{cmax} (c) between AM and PM groups, however there is no difference between cut and intact groups. For R_{dark} (d) there are no significant differences either between AM and PM groups or cut and intact groups. Leaf structural properties have no significant relationship with g_0 (e, f) or g_1 (g, h) estimates within curves.

In addition to the effect of excision on g_1 we also observe a difference in g_0 between treatments, with g_0 being slightly (6%) lower for the cut group than the intact group. This finding, that g_0 is lower for the cut treatment, aligns well with existing stomatal (Cowan and Fraquhar 1977) and hydraulic (Katul et al. 2003) optimality frameworks, which suggest that a lower g_0 is a more water-use efficient behavior, as any g_s at values of $A_{\text{net}} \leq 0$ is water 'wasted' with no net photosynthetic gain, unless as offsetting thermal stress alone (Cowan and Fraquhar

1977, Cowan 1978, Blackman et al. 2016, Martin-StPaul et al. 2017, Miner et al. 2017). While it is not biologically possible for g_s to be exactly equal to 0 due to cuticular leakage and incomplete stomatal closure (Duursma et al. 2019), lower g_0 is commonly associated with species in arid regions where any loss of water with no gain in carbon is maladaptive (Kerstiens 1996, Martin-StPaul et al. 2017, Duursma et al. 2019, Machado et al. 2021). Based on this reasoning, we expected a decrease in g_1 to be accompanied by a concurrent

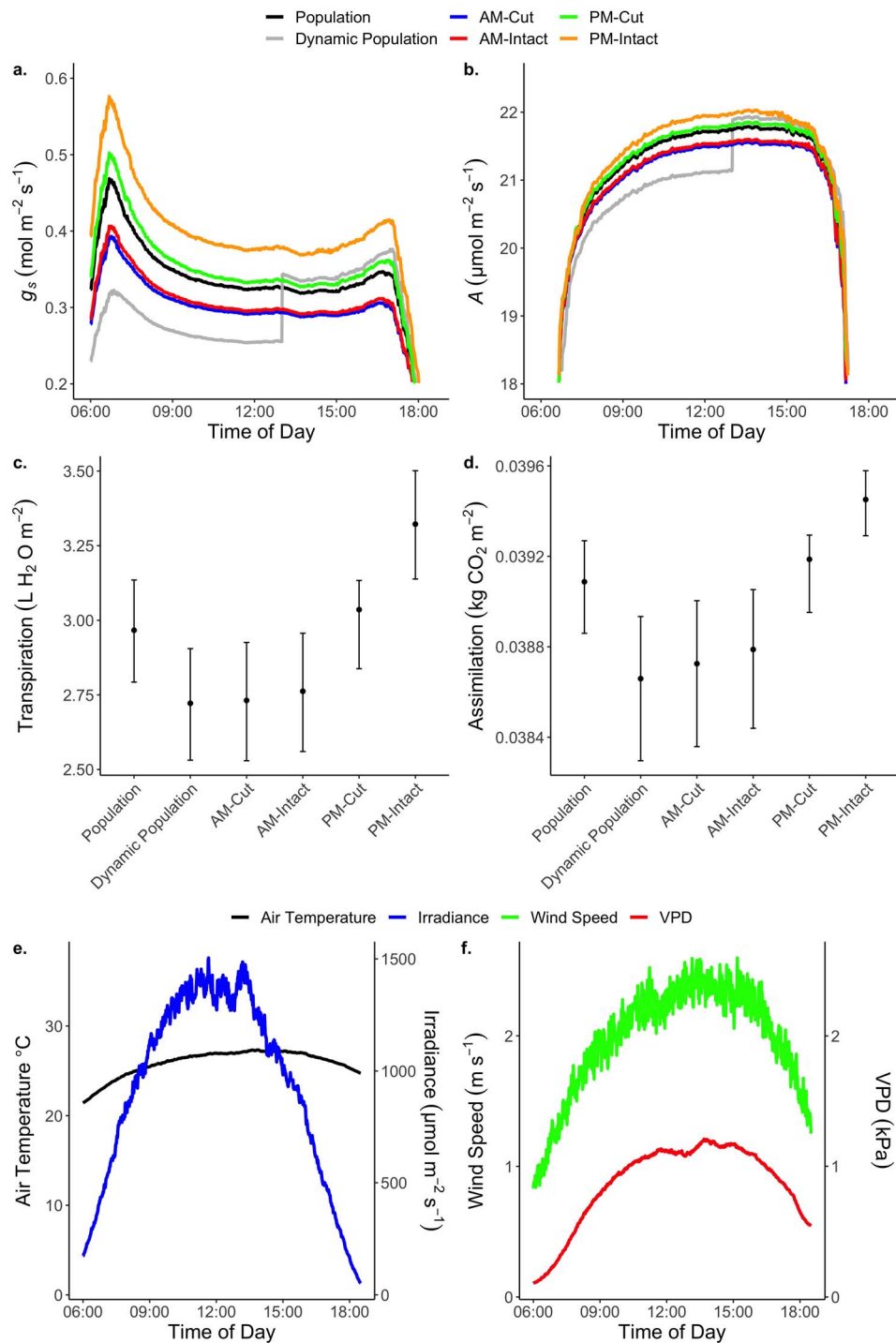


Figure 5. Model simulation results of rates of A and g_s given metrological data for an 'average day' (06:00–18:30 EST) during the period of measurement. Diurnal trends in (a) g_s and (b) A response for six different model runs conditioned on the mean g_1 and g_0 from the four treatments, the mean of all the data irrespective of treatment (population), and an dynamic model with the mean of the AM group used from 06:00–13:00 EST and the PM group used from 13:01 to 18:30 EST. g_s rates respond strongly to the level of irradiance, temperature (e), VPD and wind (f), which work in concert to produce a pronounced mid-day depression in g_s . Rates of A between model runs are different indicating stomatal limitation on A for the models with lower g_1 and g_0 parameter estimates. Total expected canopy (c) transpiration as a function of diurnal g_s and VPD, and (d) assimilation as a function of irradiance and leaf temperature. Error bars represent model runs using parameters ± 2 SE of their fitted means.

drop in g_0 . However, we did not observe this pattern in any of our comparisons. This unexpected finding may be because the hybrid poplar we used in this study is an agricultural variety, bred

for fast biomass accumulation, and thus its stomatal dynamics may not be adapted for maximum water retention at low irradiance.

Time of day effect on g_1 and g_0

In their optimization model of stomatal function, Cowan and Fraquhar (1977) assume that WUE (λ), and therefore the g_1 parameter, is constant over a given period of time, typically between a day and a growth season. This model assumes that a plant's stomata will always be operating at the lowest rate of g_s for a given rate of A and thus the function $\partial E/\partial A$ is minimized. Alternatively, hydraulic theory suggests that WUE may increase throughout the day as the 'cost' of water increases due to increased evaporative demand, and the 'demand' for carbon decreases due to water transport limitation (Katul et al. 2003). In this study we observed a lower mean g_0 and higher mean g_1 estimate from PM curves than for AM curves, suggesting that WUE decreased throughout the day, while stomatal behavior at low irradiance became more conservative. Here we explore two factors that may contribute to the observed diurnal trends in g_1 and g_0 .

First, we observed an increase in $V_{\text{cmax},25}$ from AM to PM (Table S2 available as Supplementary data at *Tree Physiology* Online), which could influence our estimation of g_1 and g_0 . In this study $V_{\text{cmax},25}$ is fit using the 'one-point method' (De Kauwe et al. 2016) either at ~08:00 (AM) or ~13:00 (PM), rather than traditional A/C_i curves. In looking at the data used to estimate $V_{\text{cmax},25}$ we see that when correcting for the effect of leaf temperature, rates of $A_{\text{sat},25}$ are significantly different between AM and PM groups, with the AM group having lower mean $A_{\text{sat},25}$ than the PM group. However, rates of C_i are not different between groups (Figure S2 available as Supplementary data at *Tree Physiology* Online), nor are uncorrected rates of A_{sat} , suggesting that the AM group may be facing a temperature limitation on activity of the enzyme Rubisco rather than a limitation due to the supply of carbon reaching the site of carboxylation (Harrison et al. 2010, Resco de Dios et al. 2016). This is further supported by the fact that mean rates of g_s are not different between AM and PM groups.

Many authors have reported an afternoon decline in $V_{\text{cmax},25}$ (Singsaas et al. 2000, Kets et al. 2010, Nascimento and Marengo 2013, Stinziano et al. 2020), while an afternoon increase in $V_{\text{cmax},25}$ is rather unusual. However, the afternoon increase may be the result of a more complete activation of Rubisco at the start of the PM measurement (~13:00) compared with the AM (~08:00), leading to a suppressed apparent maximum capacity in the AM group. Slow activation of Rubisco in *Populus* species has previously been observed (Roden and Percy 1993), as well as suppression of rates of activation after initial high light exposure (Kobza and Seemann 1989).

With a higher $V_{\text{cmax},25}$ we would expect higher rates of A , which could lead to a lower g_1 and thus a higher iWUE if A and g_s did not increase in proportion. However, most plants maintain a fixed ratio of C_i to C_a as mesophyll requirements

for photosynthesis create a tight coordination between A and g_s (Wong et al. 1985, Sharkey et al. 2007). Wong et al. (1979) also showed that this coordination is robust to changes in photosynthetic capacity, suggesting that changes in $V_{\text{cmax},25}$ should not modulate the $A:g_s$ relationship. We did not observe any significant differences in C_i between AM and PM treatments at equivalent irradiance levels (Figure S2 available as Supplementary data at *Tree Physiology* Online), suggesting that while A may have increased due to higher $V_{\text{cmax},25}$, g_s would have increased in proportion to facilitate the increased stomatal conductance to CO_2 (g_{sc}) (Farquhar et al. 1980), and thus the g_1 estimate should not have been effected.

A second possible explanation for the increase in g_1 between AM and PM and the decrease in g_0 from AM to PM is the effect of ambient conditions, both metrological and hydraulic, on the measured parameters. Previous field studies of diurnal rates of g_s and sap flux have demonstrated a strong link between canopy scale g_s and ambient VPD (Maruyama and Kuwagata 2008, Miranda et al. 2013, Matthews et al. 2017), with g_s declining in response to increased VPD. In addition, hydraulic supply theory suggests that at the leaf level for non-stressed plants, supply of water increases with increased evaporative demand (Damour et al. 2010, Buckley 2017), meaning that at the same rate of A more water is available, and g_s will be higher.

In our experiment, we observed a rapid increase in ambient VPD from 06:00 to 12:30, and a decrease in ambient VPD from 12:31 to 18:00 (Figure 5f). In addition, from previous studies on the same individuals we observed that early in the day xylem tension remains low, and levels off at mid-day levels from 12:30 onward (Serbin et al. 2020). This combination of increasing VPD and low xylem tension may serve to limit rates of g_s for AM leaves, causing them to appear more water-use efficient in their stomatal behavior, as for the same rate of A , morning curves had lower g_s thus on average a higher fitted value for g_1 (Figure 2c). Likewise for g_0 , points from the AM curves were measured on or around solar noon, while for the PM curves, the g_0 points were measured around 18:30. When considering the ambient conditions at these two time points, it is not surprising that we see a 56% decrease in g_0 between AM and PM, as the ambient xylem flux at noon would be much higher than the flux late in the day when the solar zenith angle is much more obtuse (Figure 6). This drop also follows the expectations of hydraulic supply and demand, which would assume a drop in g_0 over the diurnal course, concurrent with declining water reserves, and carbon demands (Lombardozzi et al. 2017, Duursma et al. 2019).

Finally, we do not believe that length of the measurement or differences in enclosure time are contributing to the patterns observed, as both AM and PM curves took approximately the same length of time to complete and were stepped through changes in irradiance at the same time.

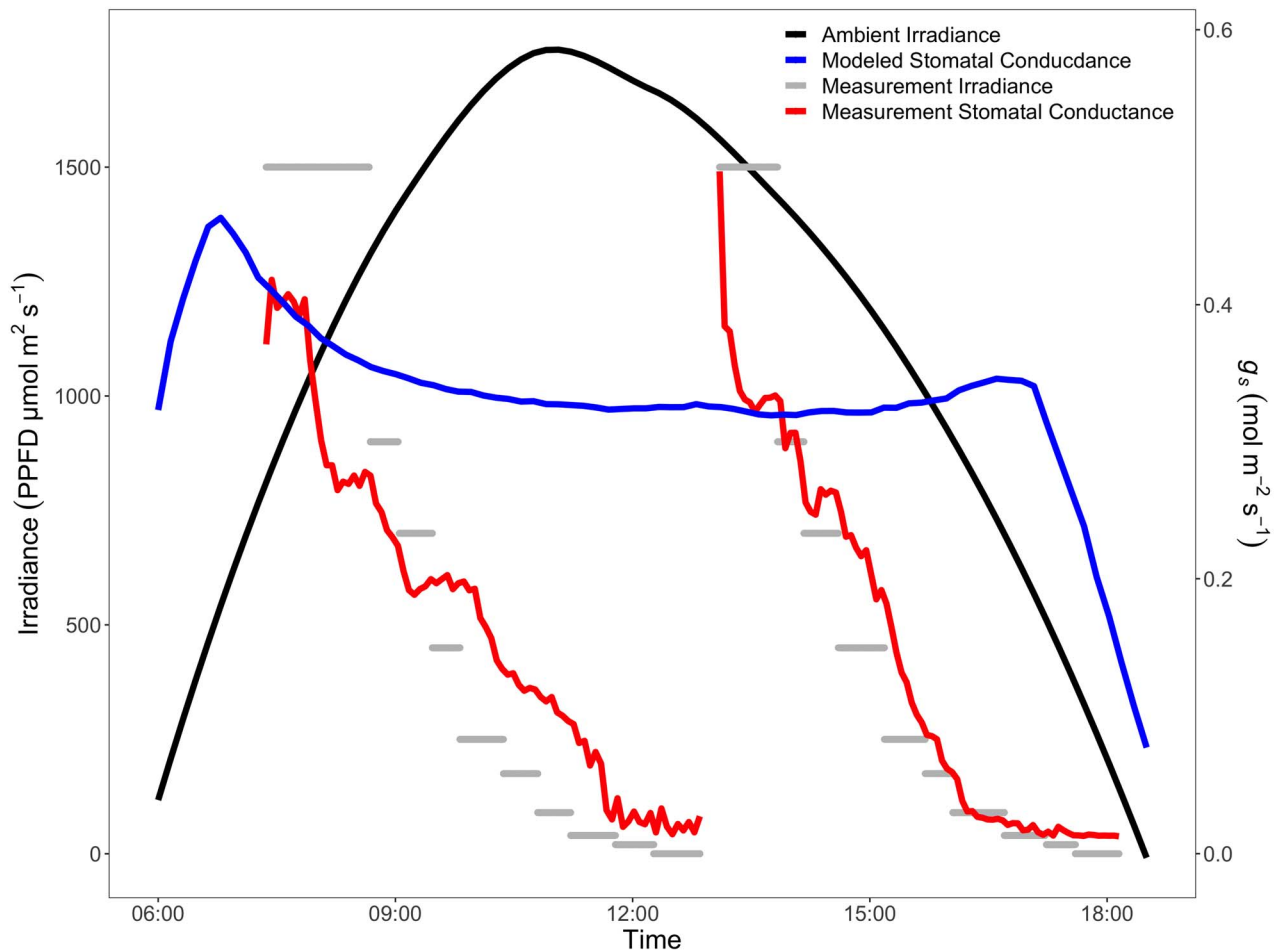


Figure 6. Observed experimental and predicted natural dynamics of light and rates of g_s measured on August 10, a typical day of measurement. Black and blue trend lines are the ambient PPFD and predicted rates of g_s based on metrological data and photosynthetic parameters (see Materials and methods). Note that the mid-day decline in g_s is due to an increase in VPD, rather than an effect of rates of A . Data in gray and red are the measurement PPFD and corresponding rates of g_s measured on intact leaves on the same day.

Interaction of excision and time of day could reveal a progressive effect of hydraulic stress on stomatal parameters

When the effect of treatment and time of day are jointly assessed, a temporal trend emerges. g_1 increases from AM to PM in both treatments, indicative of a time-of-day effect in both treatments. Interestingly, however, g_1 increases more for the intact branches than the cut branches between AM and PM (Figure 2c). There are several possible explanations for this asymmetrical response, (i) It could be due to a bias in the amount of leaf area outside the measurement chamber, as intact branches had a significantly higher portion of their total leaf area experiencing ambient conditions than the cut treatment. (ii) Due to hydraulic segmentation of woody tissue, the cumulative resistance across the water column of a cut branch will be lower than the resistance felt over the entire canopy of a tree (Pivovarov et al. 2014), which would manifest in a greater diurnal hydraulic driving gradient for the intact treatment, and thus a comparably higher stomatal slope difference from AM

to PM. (iii) Cut branches have been disconnected from root soil moisture signaling, which may dampen natural diurnal dynamics in stomatal response related to abscisic acid (ABA) signaling or hydraulic conductivity (Cochard et al. 1996, Christmann et al. 2007, Huber et al. 2019). (iv) The cutting of branches may have triggered the onset of xylem cavitation and failure (Tyree and Sperry 1989). A reduction in xylem sapwood area would result in less water reaching the leaves under the same xylem tension, as the total tension would be dispersed over a comparably smaller xylem area. If less water was reaching the leaves, g_s would be lower and thus a lower g_1 estimate would be observed. It is possible that all four factors are working in concert to produce the observed effect, however without xylem sapflow measurements, it is impossible to know exactly what the driving dynamic is.

The other interesting temporal trend is the difference in excision effect from AM to PM. In the AM group of plants, there was no significant difference in g_1 between cut and intact

leaves, while for the PM group, g_1 was 25% higher in the intact treatment than the cut treatment. This suggests that while excision does not seem to bias the measurement results early in the day when the plants are experiencing lower levels of water stress, as time goes on, the effect of excision becomes more pronounced, leading the cut branches to exhibit a markedly more water-use efficient stomatal behavior. This response of increased iWUE, associated with stomatal limitation as a result of water stress, has been well documented in the past (Franks et al. 1998, Klein 2014), and may either be associated with embolism of the tissue adjacent to the cut (Tyree and Sperry 1989, Santiago and Mulkey 2003), or a larger influence of hydraulic stress due to the removal of tissue and thus material over which to resist xylem tension (Pivovarov et al. 2014). This change in WUE is in line with our expectations that predawn cutting, along with significant storage or wait time before a long response curve, could alter the observed stomatal behavior, and thus bias the parameter estimates obtained.

Interestingly, however, g_0 does not follow the same pattern as g_1 with no statistical difference in g_0 between excision treatments in the PM group (albeit a 53% lower g_0 for the cut branches than the intact branches). This suggests that the excision effect on stomata is more acutely seen at higher g_s levels, and that both treatments are already behaving in a physiologically optimal fashion under low irradiance (Duursma et al. 2019). It has been well documented that maximum g_s is limited by leaf (Schulze and Hall 1982, Brodribb et al. 2003, Klein 2014) and soil (Thomas et al. 1999, Manzoni et al. 2011, Hérault et al. 2013) water stress, with the magnitude of the reduction in g_s larger at higher rates of conductance. Therefore, if excision is contributing to hydraulic constraint within the xylem transport pathway, maximum g_s at high irradiance should be more acutely limited than g_s levels across all irradiance conditions (Anderegg et al. 2017).

There are several possible explanations for these treatment and temporal effects on g_0 and g_1 . As mentioned before, the initial predawn cut may have been an impetus for xylem damage, which under increased diurnal xylem tension, continued to propagate throughout the day, becoming more acute in the PM treatment. 'Runaway' cavitation and embolism of the xylem (Tyree and Sperry 1989, Sperry et al. 1993, Hölttä et al. 2009) effectively reduces the total xylem conduit area, limiting water supply to the leaves, and distributes the same amount of tension over less xylem area. These factors result in a reduction of apparent g_s rates compared with leaves supplied by intact xylem tissue, as less water is available at the site of conductance (Sperry et al. 1993).

Increased xylem tension also serves to decrease leaf water potential, which can trigger stomatal closure as Ψ_{leaf} approaches Ψ_{leaf} at turgor loss point (Martin-StPaul et al. 2017). This is especially apparent in species with more isohydric behavior (Klein 2014), such as the poplar clone

used in this study (Johnson et al. 2002, Coccozza et al. 2010). Isohydric plants are thought to have superior stomatal adjustment capacity compared with anisohydric plants, and as a consequence, more closely link their stomatal opening to ambient stress conditions, closing stomata at high VPD, and low Ψ_{leaf} or Ψ_{soil} (Klein 2014).

Alternatively, levels of ABA or another stress signaling hormone could have been building over the day, with the effects becoming more pronounced for the PM group than the AM group. Like Ψ_{leaf} influenced stomatal closure, hormonal stomatal closure is linked to an external stressor such as leaf water stress, thermal stress or excision stress (Wilkinson and Davies 2002, Tombesi et al. 2015). The predicted isohydric response to any such stressor would be to reduce stomatal aperture to safeguard against xylem damage and cellular turgor loss, both of which are difficult to recover from, and costly in terms of carbon resource allocation (Klein et al. 2018, McDowell et al. 2019).

When comparing between these two possible explanations for a lower $g_s:A$ ratio for the PM group, we find more evidence in support of hydraulic limitation than reduced stomatal aperture. In previous studies of these individuals there were no detectable differences in Ψ_{leaf} or survey rates of g_s from morning to Mid-day (Serbin et al. 2020), suggesting that this species does not alter its stomatal behavior in response to heat or moisture stress. A reduction in stomatal aperture while maintaining the same rate of A would reduce C_i , as for the same rate of A less CO_2 is being supplied to the site of carboxylation. However, we found no significant difference in either A or C_i between any cut-intact pair at any level of irradiance (Figure S2 available as Supplementary data at *Tree Physiology* Online). This suggests that stomatal aperture and thus g_{sc} was not affected by excision, leading hydraulic limitation to be the most plausible cause of the effect observed, a similar finding to other excision studies (Santiago and Mulkey 2003, Missik et al. 2021). This could also explain the incongruence between an effect on g_1 but not g_0 , as the effect of hydraulic limitation would be more acute under high irradiance, as xylem tension scales with evaporative demand (Schulze et al. 1985, Tang and Boyer 2008, Cai et al. 2020).

Impact of parameter assumptions on leaf-level simulations

Results from simulations of hybrid poplar using our coupled assimilation, stomatal conductance and energy balance model revealed that methodological choice in parametrization resulted in significant differences in both the diurnal pattern of g_s , and the integrated transpiration over a simulated diurnal cycle (Figure 5, Figure S1 available as Supplementary data at *Tree Physiology* Online). Simulated rates of A and g_s correspond closely to previous studies of poplar species which find mean rates of A at $20 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ and g_s at $0.35 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (Bernacchi et al. 2003a, Cseke et al. 2009, Rogers et al. 2012). Across all six simulations, g_s rates exhibited a marked

midday decline, which is brought on by an increased VPD as the air warms (El-Sharkaway and Cock 1984, Dai et al. 1992, Tardieu and Davies 1993, Merilo et al. 2018). This decline in g_s results in stomatal limitation on A , regulating the shape of the photosynthetic response (Bernacchi et al. 2003a). The use of a dynamic simulation reveals that the parameters g_0 and g_1 strongly regulate both E and A , as an afternoon increase in g_1 leads to a nearly 33% increase in rates of g_s . As expected, the parametrizations, which resulted in higher fitted values of g_1 and g_0 , produced higher sustained simulated rates of both g_s and A , while still maintaining the same pronounced overall diurnal pattern representative of irradiance and VPD trends (Figure 5a). When considering total transpiration over a diurnal (06:00–18:30) period, choice of parametrization has a strong effect on the total level of transpiration in poplar, with values ranging from 2.73 l m⁻² day⁻¹ for the AM-cut treatment, to 3.32 l m⁻² day⁻¹ for the PM-intact treatment (Figure 5c). While this difference is small compared with the day-to-day variation expected in E (Bauerle et al. 2009), this consistent 18% difference taken over a full growth season would represent a large uncertainty in the rate of transpiration of a plant canopy. In addition, the two predictions from the intact treatment (and their associated error) are largely different, suggesting that choice regarding time of day of measurement has serious ramifications on g_1 and g_0 in poplar, as well as predicted model output.

Conclusions

In ecophysiology, it is often necessary to assume that single leaf, ex situ measurements of gas exchange are broadly comparable to in situ, whole canopy dynamics, if the proper precautions (e.g., predawn excision and recutting under water) are taken, and assumptions (e.g., the hydraulic dynamics of a cut branch are equivalent to an intact branch) are minimized. Although it has been shown that ex situ measurement does not alter photosynthesis (Verryck et al. 2020) and may even be the better option for AC_i curves (Ainsworth et al. 2003), it is currently unknown what approach is most suitable for long duration response curves used to estimate g_1 (Damour et al. 2010) and g_0 (Duursma et al. 2019). Here we show that in cases where measurements are made early in the day, or a short time post-excision, ex situ stomatal response parameters estimated from ex situ response curves match those obtained from in situ response curves (Figure 3). However, we also demonstrate that choices regarding experimental design, and failure to consider the strong diurnal effect on hydraulic driving gradients can confound comparisons of results (Figure 5).

Although this study only investigated stomatal dynamics in a single isohydric woody species, we none the less show that if the aim of stomatal response curves is to ascertain a single nominal value for a species or group of interest, the exact sampling method must be carefully considered. It may be preferable to average measurements across the diurnal period,

rather than conduct all curves at one time point during the day. If the time since excision is not recorded, conclusions about plant-to-plant or species-to-species differences in parameters may be of limited value. Therefore, failure to consider potential stomatal parameter measurement uncertainties, together with other uncertainties and known variation in parameters across space and time, on downstream leaf-, canopy- and ecosystem-scale processes, have the potential to introduce considerable uncertainties into the modeling of plant carbon and water cycling (Dietze et al. 2014, Rogers et al. 2017).

Data and materials availability

The gas exchange data that support the findings of this study are publicly available in Kenneth Davidson, Kim Ely, Alistair Rogers (2022). Stomatal response curves of hybrid poplar, New York, USA, 2020. Ngee Tropics Data Collection. Accessed at <http://dx.doi.org/10.15486/ngt/1783681>.

Supplementary data

Supplementary data for this article are available at *Tree Physiology Online*.

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Authors' contributions

K.J.D. and J.L. conceived of and designed the study. All authors contributed to methodology development. K.J.D. executed the experiment, collected data, conducted data analysis and wrote the manuscript with contributions from J.L., A.R. and S.P.S.

Conflict of interest

None declared.

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