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Citation for published version:

Medlyn, BE, De Kauwe, MG, Lin, YS, Knauer, J, Duursma, RA, Williams, CA, Arneth, A, Clement, R, Isaac, P, Limousin, JM, Linderson, ML, Meir, P, Martin-StPaul, NK & Wingate, L 2017, 'How do leaf and ecosystem measures of water-use efficiency compare?' New Phytologist. DOI: 10.1111/nph.14626

Digital Object Identifier (DOI):

10.1111/nph.14626

Link: Link to publication record in Edinburgh Research Explorer

Document Version: Peer reviewed version

Published In: New Phytologist

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1	How do leaf and ecosystem measures of water-use efficiency compare?							
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3	Belinda E. Medlyn ¹ , Martin G. De Kauwe ² , Yan-Shih Lin ^{2,3} , Jürgen Knauer ^{1,4} , Remko A.							
4	Duursma ¹ , Christopher A. Williams ^{1,5} , Almut Arneth ⁶ , Rob Clement ⁷ , Peter Isaac ⁸ , Jean-							
5	Marc Limousin ⁹ , Maj-Lena Linderson ¹⁰ , Patrick Meir ^{7,11} , Nicolas Martin-StPaul ¹² , Lisa							
6	Wingate ¹³							
7								
8								
9	1. Hawkesbury Institute for the Environment, Western Sydney University, Locked Bag							
10	1797, Penrith NSW 2751 Australia							
11	2. Dept of Biological Science, Macquarie University, North Ryde NSW 2109 Australia							
12	3. Ecologie et Ecophysiologie Forestières, Centre INRA de Nancy-Lorraine, Route							
13	d'Amance, 54280 Champenoux France							
14	4. Department of Biogeochemical Integration, Max Planck Institute for							
15	Biogeochemistry, 07745 Jena, Germany							
16	5. Graduate School of Geography, Clark University, 950 Main Street, Worcester, MA							
17	01602 USA							
18	6. Karlsruhe Institute of Technology, Dept. Atmospheric Environmental Research							
19	(IMK-IFU), Kreuzeckbahnstr. 19, 82467 Garmisch-Partenkirchen							
20	7. School of Geosciences, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh EH93FF, UK							
21	8. OzFlux, Melbourne, Australia							
22	9. Centre d'Ecologie Fonctionnelle et Evolutive CEFE, UMR 5175, CNRS - Université							
23	de Montpellier - Université Paul-Valéry Montpellier – EPHE, 1919 Route de Mende,							
24	34293 Montpellier Cedex 5, France							
25	10. Dept. of Physical Geography and Ecosystem Science, Lund University, Sölvegatan							
26	12, SE-262 33 Lund, Sweden							
27	11. Research School of Biology, Australian National University, Canberra ACT 2601,							
28	Australia							
29	12. INRA, UR629 Ecologie des Forêts Méditerranéennes (URFM), Avignon, France							
30	13. ISPA, Bordeaux Sciences Agro, INRA, 33140, Villenave d'Ornon, France							
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32	For submission to: NewPhytologist
33	
34 35	No of words in Abstract: 198
36 37	No of words in Main text: 5190
38 39	No of figures: 7
40 41 42	No of tables: 2
42 43 44 45	Abstract
46	The terrestrial carbon and water cycles are intimately linked: the carbon cycle is driven by
47	photosynthesis, while the water balance is dominated by transpiration, and both fluxes are
48	controlled by plant stomatal conductance. The ratio between these fluxes, the plant water
49	use efficiency (WUE), is a useful indicator of vegetation function. WUE can be estimated
50	using several techniques, including leaf gas exchange, stable isotope discrimination, and
51	eddy covariance. Here we compare global compilations of data for each of these three
52	techniques. We show that patterns of variation in WUE across plant functional types are
53	not consistent among the three datasets. Key discrepancies include: (1) Leaf-scale data
54	indicate differences between needle-leaf and broadleaf forests, but ecosystem-scale data
55	do not; (2) leaf-scale data indicate differences between C3 and C4 species, whereas at
56	ecosystem scale there is a difference between C3 and C4 crops but not grasslands; and (3)
57	isotope-based estimates of WUE are higher than estimates based on gas exchange for most

PFTs. Our study quantifies the uncertainty associated with different methods of measuring

WUE, indicates potential for bias when using WUE measures to parameterise or validate

models, and indicates key research directions needed to reconcile alternative measures of

Keywords: stomatal conductance, water use efficiency, plant functional type, stable

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61 62 63 WUE.

isotopes, leaf gas exchange, eddy covariance

67 Introduction

68

69 One of the fundamental trade-offs governing plant growth is the exchange of water for 70 carbon: land plants must open their stomata to take up carbon dioxide in order to grow, 71 but at the same time water vapour is lost via transpiration, with the concomitant risk of 72 desiccation (Cowan & Farquhar 1977). This trade-off can be characterised by the plant's 73 water-use efficiency (WUE), defined as the amount of carbon taken up per unit water 74 used (Sinclair et al. 1984). Combining as it does the key processes of photosynthesis and 75 transpiration, WUE is a widely-used parameter indicating vegetation performance. 76 77 Water-use efficiency can be estimated using several methods that operate at different 78 temporal and spatial scales. Community research efforts have led to the compilation of

79 global datasets based on each of these methods. These datasets are increasingly being

80 utilised to constrain and evaluate global vegetation models (e.g. Groenendijk et al. 2011,

81 Saurer et al. 2014, Kala et al. 2015, Dekker et al. 2016). However, there has to date been

82 little comparison across methods. It is often assumed that values obtained at one scale

83 should be relatable to values obtained at other scales, but this assumption has not been

84 explicitly tested across ecosystems. Our goal in this paper is to compare three

85 independent global datasets of WUE, obtained using leaf gas exchange, stable isotope,

86 and eddy covariance techniques, and investigate whether global patterns obtained using

these different techniques are consistent with our current understanding of scaling.

88 Specifically, we focus on patterns of variation across plant functional types (PFTs),

89 which are used to represent vegetation in global vegetation models, and ask whether the

90 three datasets indicate consistent differences among PFTs.

91

92 WUE is known to vary with atmospheric vapour pressure deficit (VPD) (Monteith 1986).

93 To compare across datasets, a metric of WUE is required that accounts for this variation.

94 One commonly-used metric is the intrinsic WUE (iWUE), defined as photosynthetic C

95 uptake divided by stomatal conductance to water vapour (A/g_s) . Another related metric is

96 the ratio of intercellular to atmospheric CO_2 (C_i/C_a ratio). However, both iWUE and the

97 C_i/C_a ratio also vary with VPD, meaning that values obtained under different VPD

98 conditions cannot be directly compared. In this work, we account for variation in VPD 99 conditions by using the parameter, g_1 , of a recent model of stomatal conductance (g_s mol 100 m⁻² s⁻¹), derived from the theory of optimal stomatal behaviour (Medlyn et al. 2011): 101

$$g_s = 1.6 \left(1 + \frac{g_1}{\sqrt{D}} \right) \frac{A}{C_s} \tag{1}$$

102

103 where A is the net assimilation rate (μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹), C_s (μ mol mol⁻¹) and D (kPa) are the 104 CO₂ concentration and the vapour pressure deficit at the leaf surface, respectively. The model parameter g_1 (kPa^{0.5}) represents normalised plant water use efficiency. The model 105 106 parameter g_1 is inversely related to iWUE but accounts for VPD, by assuming a \sqrt{D} 107 dependence of the Ci/Ca ratio, as found for leaf gas exchange (Medlyn et al. 2011) and 108 eddy covariance data (Zhou et al. 2015). and ean thus be directly compared across 109 $\frac{datasets.}{datasets.}$ This parameter also corrects for increases in WUE driven by changes in C_a . If 110 the ratio C_i/C_a is constant with increasing C_a, then g₁ is also constant (Medlyn et al. 111 2011). Assuming that these relationships accurately account for environmental effects on 112 WUE, the parameter g_1 is then a measure of WUE that can <u>and can thus be directly</u> 113 compared across datasets. 114 115 We apply this model to three major global data compilations. Lin et al. (2015) compiled a global database of leaf gas exchange measurements, including photosynthetic rate and 116 117 stomatal conductance, and used these data to estimate instantaneous values of g_1 . Lin et 118 al. (2015) found systematic differences in g_1 among PFTs, with high values of g_1 (and 119 thus low iWUE) in crops, C3 grasses and deciduous angiosperm trees, and low values in 120 C4 grasses and gymnosperms. Leaf-level gas exchange data such as these are commonly

- 121 used to parameterise stomatal behaviour in vegetation models (e.g. Bonan et al. 2014).
- 122 The differences among PFTs observed by Lin et al. (2015) have important consequences
- 123 for modelled vegetation function at large scales, including changes in predicted surface
- 124 cooling and consequent heatwave development (Kala et al. 2015, 2016).
- 125

- 126 Stable isotope methods can be applied to plant tissue to estimate iWUE and g_1 values
- 127 over monthly to annual time scales (Farquhar et al. 1989, Cernusak et al. 2013). Long-
- 128 term stable isotope records from tree rings are widely used to constrain model predictions
- 129 of WUE at large spatial and temporal scales (e.g. Frank et al. 2015, Saurer et al. 2015,
- 130 Dekker et al. 2016). A compilation of leaf ¹³C discrimination measurements indicated
- 131 differences in stomatal behaviour among PFTs (Diefendorf et al. 2010). Here, we
- 132 estimated g_1 values from a global database of nearly 4,000 measurements of bulk leaf ¹³C
- 133 discrimination (Δ^{13} C), taken from 594 sites spread across all seven continents (Cornwell
- 134 et al, in review). We predicted that values of g_1 estimated from this dataset would show
- 135 similar rankings across PFTs as the leaf gas exchange data set, but that values would be
- lower, due to mesophyll resistance to CO₂ diffusion (Seibt et al. 2008).
- 137
- 138 At larger spatial scales, eddy flux measurements can be used to estimate whole-
- 139 ecosystem gross primary productivity (GPP) and evapotranspiration (ET), and their ratio
- 140 GPP/ET, which is the whole-ecosystem water-use efficiency (Law et al. 2002, Beer et al.
- 141 2009, Keenan et al. 2013). These data are also being widely applied to constrain and
- 142 evaluate vegetation models (e.g. Groenendijk et al. 2011, Bonan et al. 2012, Haverd et al.
- 143 2013). We predicted that g_1 values estimated from these data would show similar
- 144 rankings across PFTs as the leaf gas exchange and stable isotope datasets, but that
- estimated values of g_1 would be higher due to the contribution of non-transpiratory water
- 146 vapour fluxes to evapotranspiration (i.e. free evaporation from soil and canopy).
- 147
- 148
- 149 Methods
- 150
- 151 Datasets
- 152 We synthesised three independent datasets to estimate values of g_1 . All datasets, and our
- 153 analysis code, are available online; web addresses are given below under "data deposition
- 154 statement". Leaf gas exchange data were taken from Lin et al. (2015), who collated
- 155 measurements under ambient field conditions from 286 species, covering 56 sites across
- the globe. The majority of these data are measurements on upper-canopy leaves during

- the growing season. Isotope data came from a global database of leaf carbon isotopes
- 158 measurements from natural and semi-natural habitats, across 3985 species-sites
- 159 combinations (Cornwell et al. in review). Flux measurements were taken from the global
- 160 collection of eddy flux measurements that comprise the FLUXNET "La Thuile" Free and
- 161 Fair dataset (http://www.fluxdata.org). This dataset contains gap-filled, half-hourly
- 162 measurements of carbon dioxide, water vapour and energy fluxes; following filtering (see
- 163 below) we were able to use data from 120 sites. The global distribution of the three
- 164 datasets is shown in Figure 1.
- 165

166 *Estimating* g_1

167 g_1 was estimated from leaf gas exchange data using non-linear regression to fit the

unified stomatal optimisation model (Medlyn et al. 2011, eqn 1) to g_s measurements for

169 each species. Here we followed the methods of Lin et al. (2015). All model fits were

done using the "minimize" function of the python "Imfit" library, using the Levenberg-

171 Marquardt method (Newville et al. 2014).

172

173 Cornwell et al. (in review) estimated carbon isotope discrimination (Δ) values from bulk 174 leaf δ^{13} C and estimates of source air δ^{13} C composition. From these data, we estimated 175 the ratio of the intercellular to ambient carbon dioxide concentration (C_i/C_a) following 176 Farquhar et al. (1989) for C₃ species:

177

$$\frac{C_i}{C_a} = \frac{\Delta - a}{b - a} \tag{2}$$

178

where *a* represents the fractionation caused by gaseous diffusion $(4.4\%_0)$ and *b* is the effective fractionation caused by carboxylating enzymes (assumed to be 27%₀) (Cernusak et al. 2013). Note that we were unable to utilise values for C4 vegetation from this dataset. For C4 plants, the relationship between C_i/C_a and Δ^{13} C depends on bundle sheath leakiness, ϕ (Henderson et al. 1998; Cernusak et al. 2013). Adopting a value for ϕ of 0.21 184for C4 vegetation, as suggested by Henderson et al. (1998), yielded unrealistic estimates185of $C_i/C_a < 0$ for more than half (79/140) of the dataset.

186

187 Values of g_1 for C3 species were estimated following Medlyn et al. (2011):

188

$$g_1 = \frac{\left(\frac{c_i}{c_a}\sqrt{b}\right)}{\left(1 - \frac{c_i}{c_a}\right)} \tag{3}$$

189

190 Mean daytime growing season VPD was estimated from monthly mean and maximum 191 temperature and relative humidity data obtained from the Climatic Research Unit (CRU 192 1.0) 0.5-degree gridded monthly climatology (New et al. 2002). Growing season was 193 defined as the time period during which the daytime mean temperature is above zero. All 194 values were estimated on a monthly basis then linearly interpolated to a daily basis. Daily 195 VPD estimates could then be averaged over the growing season. 196 197 Values of g1 were estimated from FLUXNET data as follows. First, canopy stomatal conductance (G_s) was estimated from LE flux (J m⁻² s⁻¹) as 198 199 $G_s = \frac{LE/\lambda}{D/P}$ 200 (4) 201 202 where λ is the latent heat of water vapour (J mol⁻¹), D (Pa) is the vapour pressure deficit 203 and P is the atmospheric pressure (Pa). Pressure was estimated using the hypsometric 204 equation based on site elevation data. Where site elevation information was missing, 205 values were gap-filled using the 30-arc seconds (~1 km) global digital elevation model

206GTOPO30 data from the United States Geological Survey (USGS). Values of g_1 were207then estimated by fitting eqn (1) to data, taking G_s for g_s and gross primary productivity208(GPP) for A.

209

210 FLUXNET data were screened as follows: (i) data flagged as "good"; (ii) data from the

211 three most productive months, in terms of flux-derived GPP (to account for the different

timing of summer in the Northern and Southern hemispheres); (iii) daylight hours

- 213 between 9 am and 3 pm; (iv) time slices with precipitation, as well as the subsequent 48
- 214 half-hour time slices, were excluded (to minimise contributions from soil/wet canopy
- evaporation); (v) time slices with missing CO₂ data were gap-filled with the global
- 216 annual mean from averaged marine surface (http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/trends/).
- 217 If the entire year's data were missing, or if the annual mean departed from the global
- 218 mean by ± 15 %, data were replaced with the global mean. This screening check was used
- 219 to address possible errors in locally recorded CO₂ concentrations in 14 site-year
- 220 combinations, which showed drops against a global trend of increasing CO₂
- 221 concentrations (1995–2004: 1.87 ppm yr⁻¹). In addition, fitted g_1 values with an $R^2 < 0.2$
- 222 were excluded, as were fitted g_1 values that were \pm 50 % from the site average.
- 223

224 We used equation (4) to estimate canopy conductance as this approach is taken in a

number of other studies (e.g. Beer et al. 2009, Keenan et al. 2013) and the equation can

- be applied to all Fluxnet datasets. However, the use of equation (4) to estimate canopy
- 227 conductance is a simplification because it assumes that the vegetation is fully coupled to
- 228 the surrounding atmosphere, and therefore that water vapour exchange is directly
- 229 proportional to stomatal conductance. There is also an aerodynamic resistance to gas
- 230 exchange, resulting in a partial decoupling of canopy-atmospheric gas exchange,
- particularly in short-statured vegetation (Jarvis & McNaughton 1986). To estimate values of g_1 accounting for aerodynamic resistance, G_s was estimated by inverting the Penman-
- 233 Monteith equation from measured LE flux:
- 234

$$G_s = \frac{G_a \gamma \lambda E}{s(R_n - G) - (s + \gamma)\lambda E + G_a M_a c_p D}$$
(5)

235

where G_a (mol m⁻² s⁻¹) is the canopy aerodynamic conductance, λ is the latent heat of water vapour (J mol⁻¹), *E* (mol m⁻² s⁻¹) is the canopy transpiration, γ is the psychrometric constant (Pa K⁻¹), *s* is the slope of the saturation vapour pressure curve at air temperature (Pa K⁻¹), R_n (W m⁻²) is the net radiation, *D* (Pa) is the vapour pressure deficit, *G* (W m⁻²) is the soil heat flux, M_a (kg mol⁻¹) is molar mass of air, c_p is the heat capacity of air (J kg⁻¹). At sites where values of *G* were not available, *G* was set to zero. G_a was calculated

- 242 as $P / (R_{gas} T_k) / (u/u^{*2} + 6.2u^{*-2/3})$ where $u^* (m s^{-1})$ is friction velocity and $u (m s^{-1})$ is wind
- speed (Thom et al. 1972). P is atmospheric pressure (Pa), R_{gas} is the gas constant (J mol⁻¹
- 244 K⁻¹), T_k is the air temperature in Kelvin, and the term $P / (R_{gas} T_k)$ converts from units of
- 245 m s⁻¹ to mol m⁻² s⁻¹. Equation (5) was applied to all datasets where R_n and u^* were
- 246 available. Inspection of equation (5) shows that, under most conditions, incorporating a
- 247finite G_a value will lead to a lower estimate of G_c than would be obtained with infinite248 G_a .
- 249
- 250 Ancillary data
- 251 The isotope dataset does not contain information on PFTs; these were determined from
- 252 species information online. If we were unable to assign a PFT, data were excluded from
- 253 further analysis. For Fluxnet data, the PFTs WSA (woody savannah) and SAV
- 254 (savannah) were combined into SAV, and PFTs OSH (open shrublands) and CSH (closed
- shrublands) were combined into SHB. PFT MF (mixed forest) was omitted. Data
- screening led to a loss of 12% from the isotope dataset and ~35% from the FLUXNET
- 257 dataset.
- 258
- 259 Estimates of the relative fraction of C4 present at each FLUXNET site were derived from
- 260 the closest matching 0.5-degree pixel in the North American Carbon Program (NACP)
- 261 Global C3 and C4 SYNergetic land cover MAP (SYNMAP) (Jung et al. 2006).
- 262

263 Peak LAI for FLUXNET sites was obtained from the site-level ancillary data when

- available in the supporting documents contributed to the La Thuile Synthesis Collection
- 265 (see www.fluxdata.org).
- 266
- 267 Statistics
- 268 We tested for statistical differences among methods by applying one-way ANOVA to
- log-transformed values of $g_{1-\text{leaf}}$, $g_{1-\text{isotope}}$ and site-averaged $g_{1-\text{flux}}$ for each PFT. For each
- 270 method, we used a mixed-model approach to test for differences among PFTs, taking site
- as a random factor. Similarly, a mixed-model approach was used to test for statistical

- 272 differences among PFTs for a given method. Differences among methods and among
- 273 PFTs were identified using Tukey's Honest Significant Difference.

274

276 Results

277

Values of g_1 estimated using the three alternative methods differed significantly within most PFTs (Figure 2). In addition, the variation in g_1 across PFTs was not consistent among the three methods (Table 1).

281

282 Forest PFTs

283 Among the four forest PFTs, median values of g1 derived from leaf gas exchange (g1-leaf)

284 were lowest in evergreen needleleaf forest (ENF), intermediate in evergreen broadleaf

285 forest (EBF) and highest in deciduous broadleaf forest (DBF) and tropical rainforest

286 (TRF). Isotope-derived values of g_1 ($g_{1-isotope}$) mostly had similar variation across forest

287 types as g_{1-leaf} values: they were lowest in ENF, intermediate in EBF and DBF, but were

288 significantly larger in TRF. In clear contrast to other two datasets, there were no

289 significant differences among forest types for values of g_1 derived from flux data (g_{1-flux}).

290 Values of g_{1-flux} for ENF and EBF were higher than those of the other datasets.

291

292 Values of $g_{1-isotope}$ were generally lower than values of g_{1-leaf} for a given PFT, with the

293 exception of TRF (Figure 2). The largest difference between $g_{1-\text{leaf}}$ and $g_{1-\text{isotope}}$ was

observed for DBF species, whereas there was no significant difference in mean values for

295 EBF and TRF species. For the TRF PFT, g_{1-isotope} values were often unrealistically high;

inferred values of $C_i/C_a > 0.95$ resulted in values of $g_{1-isotope} > 20$ kPa^{0.5}. Such high

297 values were not limited to one dataset, but were observed in a number of TRF datasets.

298

299 Non-forest PFTs

300 Among the non-forest PFTs, g_{1-leaf} values were significantly higher in C3 grasses (C3G)

than C4 grasses (C4G), intermediate in shrubs (SHB), and rather variable in savannah

302 (SAV) trees. The variability of g_{1-leaf} in SAV is likely related to the high seasonality in

303 these systems: this instantaneous measure of WUE can vary considerably between wet

and dry seasons. Note that the comparison among methods for the SAV PFT is somewhat

305 biased because eddy covariance data are from the whole ecosystem and thus include both

306 trees and understorey, whereas leaf gas exchange for this PFT is from trees only while

- 307 isotope data are principally from trees and shrubs. As with forest PFTs, values of g_{1-isotope}
- 308 for non-forest PFTs were on average lower than values of g1-leaf, but the rankings of PFTs
- 309 differed: C3 grasses had lower g1-isotope values than SAV or SHB, an unexpected result.
- 310 We were unable to estimate values of g1-isotope for C4 species (see Methods) although
- 311 Δ^{13} C values clearly differed between C3 and C4 vegetation (Cornwell et al. in review).
- 312
- 313 Photosynthetic pathway had a significant effect on g1-flux values for crop vegetation: g1-flux
- 314 was significantly lower in C4 crops (C4C) than C3 crops (C3C). Values of g1-flux were
- 315 high for grasslands (C3G), similar to g_{1-leaf} values and much higher than g_{1-isotope} values.
- 316 We did not find evidence that the presence of C4 grasses reduced g1-flux in grasslands
- 317 (Figure 3); grassland g_{1-flux} values were not correlated with estimated C4 fraction.
- 318

319 Comparison of forest and non-forest PFTs

- 320 Apart from C4C, median values of g1-flux were somewhat higher for non-forest than forest
- 321 vegetation, and were particularly high for SHB. It is possible that the contribution of soil 322
- evaporative flux to total evapotranspiration is higher in these more open systems,
- 323 resulting in larger g_{1-flux} values. This conclusion is supported by an examination of the
- 324 influence of leaf area index (LAI) on g1-flux for forest and non-forest vegetation, for sites
- 325 where LAI estimates were available (Figure 4). At lower LAI (up to 3 m² m⁻²), values of
- g1-flux were more variable for non-forest than forest sites, with several non-forest sites 326
- 327 showing values of g_{1-flux} greater than 8 kPa^{0.5}, providing some support for the inference
- 328 that soil evaporative fluxes play a larger role in non-forest ecosystems.
- 329
- 330 Exploration of inconsistent patterns among datasets
- 331 The lack of difference among g_{1-flux} values for forest PFTs was unexpected. The
- 332 consistent evidence from g1-leaf and g1-isotope values suggests that leaf-scale g1 is low for
- 333 ENF. We had anticipated that this difference would scale to canopy behaviour, yet there
- 334 is no evidence that g_{1-flux} values were lower for this PFT. It is possible that sampling
- 335 biases lead to different results for the three methodologies. To investigate this possibility,
- 336 we first compared the latitudinal distributions of the three datasets, using latitude as an
- 337 indicator of climatic conditions (Figure 5). Clear differences in sampling coverage with

338 latitude can be seen. However, Figure 5 demonstrates that irrespective of latitude, values

of $g_{1-\text{leaf}}$ and $g_{1-\text{isotope}}$ are lower in ENF than in DBF, whereas values of $g_{1-\text{flux}}$ are similar

340 between ENF and DBF.

341

To further rule out sampling bias, we also compared half-hourly leaf gas exchange data

343 and eddy flux data for eight sites where both kinds of data were available (Figure 6). This

344 direct comparison shows that g_{1-leaf} and g_{1-flux} values were in a similar range for DBF and

345 TRF forest types but that g_{1-leaf} was lower than g_{1-flux} for EBF and ENF forest types,

further confirming that the discrepancy between $g_{1-\text{leaf}}$ and $g_{1-\text{flux}}$ is not simply a result of

347 sampling bias.

348

349 We tested whether decoupling of canopy-atmosphere gas exchange could explain the

discrepancy between the cross-PFT patterns in g_{1-leaf} and g_{1-flux} values. We estimated

351 canopy stomatal conductance from eddy flux data using the Penman-Monteith (PM)

352 equation (equation 5), which incorporates an aerodynamic resistance term. Applying the

353 PM equation results in a large reduction in estimated values of g_{1-flux} for all PFTs (Figure

354 7). For PFTs where $g_{1-\text{flux}}$ previously exceeded $g_{1-\text{leaf}}$, the values become comparable (e.g.

ENF). However, for PFTs where g_{1-flux}was previously comparable with g_{1-leaf}, the values

become significantly lower (e.g. DBF, C3G). Thus, consideration of decoupling does not

resolve the inconsistency in cross-PFT patterns between $g_{1-\text{leaf}}$ and $g_{1-\text{flux}}$.

358

359 **Discussion**

360

361 Our comparison of g_1 values across three global datasets provides a number of new

362 insights into patterns of water use efficiency across scales, and highlights some important

363 inconsistencies in the datasets. The parameter g₁ is inversely related to water-use

364 efficiency, such that plants with high WUE have low g_1 and vice-versa. We had predicted

that g₁ values would vary consistently across PFTs in all three datasets, but our results did

366 not support this prediction, as there were significantly different patterns across PFTs in

each dataset. We also predicted that g1 values would vary across methods, with the lowest

368 values obtained from isotope data, and the highest values obtained from flux data. The

- 369 first part of this prediction was largely supported, with lower g_{1-isotope} than g_{1-leaf} for most
- 370 PFTs, but the second part of the prediction was not, as g_{1-flux} values were not in general
- higher than g_{1-leaf}, particularly when decoupling between the canopy and atmosphere was
- 372 taken into account.
- 373
- 374 Cross-PFT patterns compared among datasets
- 375 For forest vegetation, there was an important discrepancy in cross-PFT patterns between
- 376 leaf and ecosystem-scale estimates of g₁. At leaf scale, a difference between needle-leaf
- 377 (ENF) and deciduous broad-leaf (DBF) forests is seen in both leaf gas exchange and
- 378 stable isotope data, as has also been found in previous studies (e.g. Lloyd & Farquhar
- 379 1994, Diefendorf et al. 2010). Our current understanding of scaling between leaves and
- 380 ecosystems suggests that a similar difference between these PFTs should be seen in g₁
- 381 estimated from eddy covariance data. Intriguingly, however, no such difference was
- 382 observed; values of g_{1-flux} were similar for all forest PFTs (Figures 2, 6). This
- 383 inconsistency between datasets has important consequences for our ability to model water
- 384 use efficiency at larger scales, since it implies that models parameterised with leaf gas
- 385 exchange or stable isotope data will not agree with flux data, or with models
- 386 parameterised using flux data.
- 387
- 388 Consideration of decoupling between stomata and atmosphere (sensu Jarvis &
- 389 McNaughton 1986) did not help to explain this discrepancy (Figure 7). We found that
- 390 there was no difference in $g_{1-\text{flux}}$ among forest types irrespective of whether the estimation
- 391 of g_{1-flux} incorporated a decoupling factor. We found that median g_{1-flux} approached
- 392 median g_{1-leaf} for needle-leaf forests when decoupling was considered, and for broadleaf
- 393 forests when it was not. This observation is supported by previous studies of scaling on
- 394 single forests: a study on water-use efficiency in Scots pine found congruence between
- 395 leaf and canopy water-use efficiency using a scaling approach incorporating decoupling
- 396 (Launiainen et al. 2011) whereas studies in broadleaf forests find congruence using
- 397 approaches that do not consider decoupling (Linderson et al. 2012, Barton et al. 2012).
- 398 However, it is generally thought that decoupling should be smallest in needleleaf
- 399 canopies (Jarvis & McNaughton 1986). This discrepancy clearly requires further

400	investigation. Refining estimates of canopy stomatal and non-stomatal conductances from
401	eddy flux data is one potential way forwards (e.g. Wehr et al. 2017).

402 403 Leaf gas exchange also indicates a large difference in g1 between C3 and C4 species, as 404 expected from their physiology. Although there was a clear difference in Δ^{13} C between 405 these two groups of species, we were unable to estimate g1-isotope for the C4 species and 406 hence unable to substantiate this difference in g1 at leaf level using isotopic data. The issues involved in estimating C_i/C_a from $\Delta^{13}C$ in C4 plants are discussed by Cernusak et 407 408 al. (2013). A simple linear relationship was proposed by Henderson et al. (1992) but requires an estimate of bundle-sheath leakiness, ϕ . Cernusak et al. (2013) suggest that ϕ < 409 410 0.37 under most environmental conditions. With this value of ϕ , the linear relationship 411 yields unrealistic values of Ci/Ca for much of the dataset, as the majority of measured 412 values have $\Delta^{13}C > 4.4\%_0$. These data imply that either a value for $\phi > 0.37$ is more 413 commonly found in field conditions, or else that the simple linear relationship between Δ^{13} C and C_i/C_a is inaccurate for leaf dry matter. Further research is needed to establish 414 415 more widely-applicable relationships between stable isotope data and water-use 416 efficiency for C4 species. 417

418 Nonetheless, a difference in leaf-level g1 between C3 and C4 species is well-documented

419 in the literature (e.g. Morison & Gifford 1983; Ghannoum et al. 2010). Earlier studies

420 synthesising water-use efficiency from eddy covariance data did not explicitly address

421 photosynthetic pathway (Law et al. 2002, Beer et al. 2009), and thus it was not known

422 whether this fundamental leaf-level difference in g_1 is reflected in canopy scale gas

423 exchange. Zhou et al. (2016) reported a difference in "underlying WUE", an index

similar to g₁, between C3 (corn) and C4 (soybean) crops at 5 Ameriflux sites. Similarly,

425 we found a significant difference in g_{1-flux} between C3 and C4 crops that is consistent

426 with the difference in $g_{1-\text{leaf}}$ (Figure 2). However, we did not find any evidence for lower

427 g_{1-flux} for grasslands with a C4 component (Figure 3). The difference in g_{1-flux} between C3

428 and C4 crops demonstrates that differences in g_{1-leaf} can scale to whole canopies, and that

429 photosynthetic pathway must be considered when interpreting fluxes from crop canopies.

430 The lack of an influence of photosynthetic pathway on grassland g_{1-flux} , in contrast to

- 431 crops, has several potential explanations. It is possible that there are significant
- 432 evaporative fluxes from soil in grasslands that compensate for differences in transpiration
- 433 between C3 and C4 vegetation. However, we also note that, owing to a lack of
- 434 information at site scale, we were obliged to estimate C4 fraction in grasslands from a
- 435 global dataset with relatively coarse resolution, suggesting that our characterisation of C4
- 436 fraction may have been inaccurate. To correctly interpret fluxes from grasslands with a
- 437 significant C4 component requires better quantification of vegetation C3/C4 fraction at
- the site level. Furthermore, the estimated grassland C4 fraction did not exceed 0.4; data
- 439 from grasslands known to have high C4 fraction is needed to test robustly for this effect.
- 440 Finally, there is very high variability across site-years in g_1 -flux estimates for C3-only
- 441 grasslands (Figure 3), meaning our test lacks power; a better understanding of the reasons
- for this variability is needed to design fairer comparisons between C3 and C4-dominatedgrasslands.
- 444

445 *Relative* g₁ values from different methods

- 446 We predicted that g_{1-flux} values would exceed g_{1-leaf} values, due to additional water vapour 447 loss from soil or canopy evaporation (cf .Figure 4). In contrast to our prediction, we 448 found that once decoupling was taken into account, values of median g1-flux were lower 449 than values of g1-leaf for several PFTs (Figure 7). Significant within-canopy gradients in 450 g1-leaf can occur (e.g. Campany et al. 2017), but consideration of these gradients would 451 also result in larger g_{1-flux} than canopy-top g_{1-leaf}. One potential explanation may be 452 related to the use of GPP in the calculation of g_{1-flux}, rather than net photosynthesis (i.e. 453 gross photosynthesis, less leaf respiration) as is used in the calculation of g_{1-leaf} . Recent 454 work by Wehr et al. (2016) also suggests that the current method used to estimate GPP 455 can over-estimate daytime foliar respiration, which would tend to exaggerate the 456 difference between GPP and net canopy photosynthesis. Further research is required to 457 quantify the effect of including foliage respiration in estimation of g_{1-flux} , to determine if 458 this mechanism is sufficient to account for low g1-flux values. 459
- 460 We also predicted that $g_{1-isotope}$ values would be somewhat-lower than those of g_{1-leaf} due 461 to mesophyll conductance (g_m), which is neglected in the simplified isotopic theory used

- 462 here to relate leaf isotopic composition to C_i/C_a ratio (Seibt et al. 2008). (Evans et al.
- 463 <u>1986</u>), though it has been suggested that the value of b used here (Eq. 2) should at least
- partially account for g_m effects (Seibt et al. 2008, Cernusak et al. 2013). In support of
- this <u>our</u> prediction, median values of $g_{1-istope}$ were lower than median values of g_{1-leaf} for
- all PFTs other than tropical rainforest (Figure 2). The size of this effect should increase
- 467 with increasing drawdown of CO₂ from the intercellular airspace to the site of
- 468 carboxylation; this drawdown is high in plants with low mesophyll conductance
- 469 (typically ENF and EBF species, Niinemets et al. 2009) and/or high photosynthetic rates.
- 470 Nonetheless, we were surprised by the magnitude of the difference, which was substantial
- 471 in most PFTs. Previous smaller-scale studies have found a good correspondence between
- 472 leaf isotope and gas exchange measurements of C_i/C_a (e.g. Farquhar et al. 1982, Orchard
- 473 et al. 2010). The size of this difference in our global data comparison suggests that use of
- 474 the values of $g_{1-isotope}$ to constrain large-scale models requires that g_m be taken into
- 475 account. To do so, models will need a general quantitative knowledge of the drawdown
- 476 of CO_2 from the intercellular space to the mesophyll, which depends on both g_m and the
- 477 photosynthetic rate (Evans et al. 1986). As woody tissue is generally ¹³C enriched
- 478 compared to leaf tissue (Cernusak et al. 2009), values of g₁ estimated from tree ring
- 479 stable isotopes would likely be lower still.
- 480

481 One exception to this general pattern of lower $g_{1-isotope}$ values was the TRF PFT (Figure

482 2). Very high g_{1-isotope} values were obtained for tropical rainforest species by comparison

- 483 with other PFTs. These high values may indicate that the leaves used for these
- 484 measurements were exposed to air with a signature of recent respiration and a
- 485 correspondingly low ¹³C fraction, although previous studies suggest that this effect
- 486 should only be important in the lower canopy (Buchmann et al. 2002). A further potential
- 487 explanation is that our estimates of long-term average daytime VPD, taken from a global
- 488 climate dataset (see Methods), do not reflect in-canopy VPD values experienced by
- sampled leaves, particularly in high-humidity conditions typical of the TRF PFT.
- 490

491 Dataset biases

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492 Each of the three datasets used in this study represents an enormous global scientific 493 effort, and each is extremely valuable in advancing our understanding of the role of 494 terrestrial vegetation in global carbon and water cycles. Nonetheless, each approach is 495 subject to limitations. Leaf gas exchange measures are a direct and relatively accurate 496 measure of the performance of a single leaf at a given point in time, but are inevitably 497 restricted in sampling coverage. Measurements are often made only at the top of the 498 canopy, for example, or only on a few days per season. There are some more extensive 499 datasets in the Lin et al. (2015) database that were gathered through the use of in-situ cuvettes (e.g. Kolari et al. 2007, Op de Beeck et al. 2010, Tarvainen et al. 2013), but 500 501 these remain the exception rather than the rule, and in any case cannot capture all 502 potential sources of variation in the canopy. Stable isotope measures are more extensive 503 (Figure 2) but are less direct measures of gas exchange, and, as our results show, may be 504 influenced by other sources of isotopic discrimination. Other potential sources of error in 505 interpreting stable isotope data are the values assumed for long-term average daytime 506 VPD, which are estimated from a global climate dataset (see Methods), and values 507 assumed for source air δ^{13} C. Eddy flux measurements have the advantage of measuring 508 the behaviour of entire ecosystems, rather than individual leaves. However, these 509 measurements are also subject to noise, and errors may be introduced in the estimation of 510 GPP from measurements of net ecosystem CO₂ exchange (Desai et al. 2008). 511 Furthermore, eddy flux data are known to suffer from an unresolved energy balance 512 problem, in that the sum of latent and sensible heat fluxes is generally less than net 513 radiation (Wilson et al. 2002, Foken 2008). The cause of this imbalance is not yet 514 understood but may differ across sites. There are thus significant uncertainties associated 515 with each of the three datasets. It is also important to be aware of potential bias 516 introduced by different spatial coverage of the three datasets (Figure 1). While we have 517 been able to make some comparisons of different methodologies at specific sites (Figure 518 6), more such comparisons - and comparisons with isotopic data - would be valuable 519 (e.g. Monson et al. 2010). 520

With global change accelerating, it is more important now than ever to make use of allavailable datasets to develop and constrain predictive models of vegetation function.

- 523 Cross-comparison of methodologically independent datasets, as we have done here, is a
- 524 crucial step forward. It highlights areas of inconsistency that should be high priorities for
- 525 further research. It also quantifies the uncertainty associated with different measurement
- 526 methods. Finally, our comparison indicates a need for understanding of potential biases
- 527 when using any or all of these three datasets to constrain or validate ecosystem models
- 528 that predict WUE.
- 529
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730

731 Acknowledgements

- 732 This work was funded by ARC Discovery Grant DP120104055. This work used eddy
- 733 covariance data acquired by the FLUXNET community and in particular by the following
- 734 networks: AmeriFlux (U.S. Department of Energy, Biological and Environmental
- 735 Research, Terrestrial Carbon Program (DE-FG02-04ER63917 and DE-FG02-
- 736 04ER63911)), AfriFlux, AsiaFlux, CarboAfrica, CarboEuropeIP, CarboItaly, CarboMont,
- 737 ChinaFlux, Fluxnet-Canada (supported by CFCAS, NSERC, BIOCAP, Environment
- 738 Canada, and NRCan), GreenGrass, KoFlux, LBA, NECC, OzFlux, TCOS-Siberia,
- 739 USCCC. We acknowledge the financial support to the eddy covariance data
- 740 harmonization provided by CarboEuropeIP, FAO-GTOS-TCO, iLEAPS, Max Planck
- 741 Institute for Biogeochemistry, National Science Foundation, University of Tuscia,
- 742 Université Laval and Environment Canada and US Department of Energy and the
- 743 database development and technical support from Berkeley Water Center, Lawrence
- 744 Berkeley National Laboratory, Microsoft Research eScience, Oak Ridge National
- 745 Laboratory, University of California Berkeley, University of Virginia. We thank Wang
- Han for extracting the VPD data corresponding to isotope data. We thank Will Cornwell,
- 747 Trevor Keenan, Colin Prentice and Ian Wright for valuable discussions on this topic.

748

751	Author Contributions					
752	BEM and RAD conceived and designed the study. BEM led writing of paper. MDK and					
753	YSL assembled and processed datasets, with assistance from JK, RAD and CAW. AA,					
754	RC, PI, J-ML, M-LL, PM, N M-S, and LW assisted with interpretation of datasets. All					
755	authors contributed to writing of paper.					
756						
757	Author Information					
758						
759	Data deposition statement: All data and code are available online as follows.					
760	Leaf gas exchange dataset: https://bitbucket.org/gsglobal/leafgasexchange					
761	Stable isotope dataset: Dryad Digital Repository. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.5061/dryad.3jh61</u>					
762	(Currently under embargo: this address will become live once Cornwell et al. in review					
763	paper is accepted)					
764	Eddy covariance dataset: http://fluxnet.fluxdata.org/data/la-thuile-dataset/					
765	Analysis code: https://github.com/mdekauwe/g1_leaf_canopy_ecosystem					
766						
767	The authors declare no competing financial interests.					
768						
769	Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to					
770	b.medlyn@westernsydney.edu.au					
771						
772						
773						

- 774

775 Table 1: Significant differences among PFTs by Method

776

TTT Linear mixed models with site as a random factor were applied to gas exchange, isotope

and flux data sets separately, and Tukey's HSD used to determine significant differences

across PFTs. PFTs with different letters for a given measurement type are significantly

780 different for that measurement type: for example, in the "gas exchange" column, ENF

781 (letter 'a') is significantly different from DBF (letters 'bc') but not EBF (letters 'ac).

782 Isotope values were log-transformed before analysis. Values of n in table indicate number

of sites used for each PFT.

784

	Gas	n	Isotope	n	Flux	n
PFT	exchange					
ENF (evergreen	a	13	а	85	cd	38
needleleaf forest)						
EBF (evergreen	ac	9	bd	139	bd	7
broadleaf forest)						
DBF (deciduous	bc	12	bc	108	bc	17
broadleaf forest)						
TRF (tropical	ab	4	e	95	abd	1
rainforest)						
SAV (savanna)	bc	7	de	31	bd	6
SHB (shrub)	ab	6	cd	215	d	4
C3G (C3 grass)	b	2	b	208	d	25
C4G (C4 grass)	a	5	-	-	-	-
C3C (C3 crops)	bc	4	-	-	b	15
C4C (C4 crops)	-	-	-	-	a	7

787 Table 2: Datasets used for leaf-canopy comparison at individual sites

- 788 Details of FLUXNET sites and leaf gas exchange datasets used for leaf-canopy comparison shown in Figure 6.

FLUXNET	Lat.	Long.	FLUXNET	Gas exchange sampling	FLUXNET	Gas exchange
Site ID			time period		reference	reference
AU-Tum	-35.66	148.15	12,1,3 / 2002	Diurnal spot measurements, mid-canopy,	Leuning et al. (2005)	Medlyn et al. (2007)
				3 campaigns (Nov-01, Feb-02, May-02)		
DK-Sor	55.49	12.10	5,6,7 / 1999	Diurnal spot measurements, upper	Pilegaard et al. (2003)	Linderson et al.
				canopy, 11 dates during Jun-Aug 99		(2012)
FI-Hyy	61.85	24.29	5,6,7 / 2006	Automated shoot cuvette, upper canopy,	V 1 (2005)	Kolari et al. (2007)
				continuous measurements, Jul-06	Vesala et al. (2005)	
FR-LBr	44.72	-0.77	6,7,8 / 1997	Automated branch cuvette, upper canopy,	Darbining et al. (2001)	Bosc (1999)
				continuous measurements, Sep-97	Berbigier et al. (2001)	
Fr-Pue	43.74	3.60	5,6,10 / 2006	First point of A-Ci curves, upper canopy,	Dambal et al. (2002)	Martin-StPaul et al.
				11 dates during Apr-Dec 09	Rambai et al. (2003)	(2012)
GF-Guy	5.28	-52.93	6,7,8 / 2006	Light-saturated photosynthesis, upper	Danal et al. (2008)	J. Zaragoza-Castells,
				canopy, Oct-10	Bonai et al. (2008)	O. Atkin, P. Meir,
						pers. comm.
UK-Gri	56.61	-0.86	5,6,7 / 2001	Automated branch cuvette, upper and	Class and at al. (2002)	Wingate et al. (2007)
				mid-canopy, Jul-01	Clement et al. (2003)	
US-Ha1	42.54	-72.17	6,7,8 / 1992	Diurnal spot measurements, upper	Urbanski at al. (2007)	Bassow & Bazzaz
				canopy, monthly Jun-Sep 91/92	Utballski et al. (2007)	(1999)

792 Figure Captions

793 794 Figure 1: Global distribution of datasets used in the study. 795 796 Figure 2: Box and whisker plot (line, median; box, inter-quartile range) showing the 797 estimated g1 values from leaf gas exchange, leaf isotope and FLUXNET data, grouped by 798 plant functional type. Whiskers extend to 1.5 times the inter-quartile range, with dots 799 outside of the whiskers showing outliers. Plant functional types are defined as: ENF evergreen needleleaf forest, EBF - evergreen broadleaf forest, DBF - deciduous broadleaf 800 801 forest, TRF - tropical rainforest, SAV - savanna, SHB - shrub, C3G - C3 grass, C4G -802 C4 grass, C3C - C3 crops, C4C - C4 crops. Values of n indicate no of species for leaf 803 gas exchange and leaf isotope datasets, and no of site-years for FLUXNET. Different 804 letters below boxes denote significant differences among methods for each PFT (Tukey's 805 Honest Significant Difference test, p < 0.05). Data shown have been clipped to a 806 maximum g1 of 14, which excludes 0.0%, 3.18% and 0.22% of leaf gas exchange, leaf 807 isotope and FLUXNET datasets, respectively. 808 809 Figure 3: Values of g1-flux for grasslands as a function of the estimated fraction of C4 810 vegetation. 811 812 Figure 4: Values of g_{1-flux} for forest and non-forest vegetation as a function of peak LAI. 813 814 **Figure 5:** Estimated g₁values from leaf gas exchange, leaf isotope and FLUXNET data, shown as a function of latitude. Where several values were obtained at the same site 815 816 (different species for leaf gas exchange and isotope, different years for Fluxnet), values 817 have been averaged and standard error bars show variability. Plant functional types are 818 defined as: ENF - evergreen needleleaf forest, EBF - evergreen broadleaf forest, DBF -819 deciduous broadleaf forest, TRF - tropical rainforest, SAV - savanna, SHB - shrub, C3G 820 - C3 grass, C4G - C4 grass, C3C - C3 crops, C4C - C4 crops. Data shown have been 821 clipped to a maximum g_1 of 14.

- 823 Figure 6: Comparison for individual sites between measured leaf-scale stomatal
- 824 conductance and canopy conductance estimated from FLUXNET as a function of a
- stomatal index (for gas exchange: $A / (C_a \sqrt{D})$ and for FLUXNET: GPP / $(C_a \sqrt{D})$).
- 826 Background points show data, darker points show fitted values. Details of gas exchange
- and FLUXNET measurements are given in Table 2. Measurements were taken from the
- same year whenever overlapping data were available. The g_1 values shown are the values
- 829 fitted to the corresponding data.
- 830
- 831 Figure 7: Box and whisker plot (line, median; box, inter-quartile range) showing the
- 832 estimated g₁ values from leaf gas exchange, and FLUXNET data calculated using eqn (4)
- 833 to estimate canopy stomatal conductance (FLUXNET) or the Penman-Monteith equation
- 834 (eqn 5, FLUXNET-PM). The Fluxnet data are a subset of the data shown in Figure 1 and
- include only those sites for which eqn 5 could be applied. Whiskers extend to 1.5 times
- the inter-quartile range, with dots outside of the extent of the whiskers showing outlying
- 837 values. Plant functional types are defined as: ENF evergreen needleleaf forest, EBF -
- 838 evergreen broadleaf forest, DBF deciduous broadleag forest, TRF tropical rainforest,
- 839 SAV savanna, SHB shrub, C3G C3 grass, C4G C4 grass, C3C C3 crops, C4C -
- 840 C4 crops.
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