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# Inferring Foliar Water Uptake Using Stable Isotopes of Water

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# Inferring Foliar Water Uptake Using Stable Isotopes of Water

## **Comments**

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1                    **Inferring foliar water uptake using stable isotopes of water**

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22

23    **Author Contributions**

24

25    GRG and RS conceived of the project. GRG, MML, and LC performed the research with

26    assistance from MA. GRG analyzed the data and wrote the paper with contributions from all

27    the authors.

28 **Abstract**

29

30 A growing number of studies have described the direct absorption of water into leaves, a  
31 phenomenon known as foliar water uptake. The resultant increase in the amount of water  
32 in the leaf can be important for plant function. Exposing leaves to isotopically enriched or  
33 depleted water sources has become a common method for establishing whether or not a  
34 plant is capable of carrying out foliar water uptake. However, a careful inspection of our  
35 understanding of the fluxes of water isotopes between leaves and the atmosphere under  
36 high humidity conditions shows that there can clearly be isotopic exchange between the  
37 two pools even in the absence of a change in the mass of water in the leaf. We provide  
38 experimental evidence that while leaf water isotope ratios may change following exposure  
39 to a fog event using water with a depleted oxygen isotope ratio, leaf mass only changes  
40 when leaves are experiencing a water deficit that creates a driving gradient for the uptake  
41 of water by the leaf. Studies that rely on stable isotopes of water as a means of studying  
42 plant water use, particularly with respect to foliar water uptake, must consider the effects  
43 of these isotopic exchange processes.

44

45

46

47 **Key words:** fog, isotope dendrochronology, leaf wetting, plant-water relations, stomata

48

49

50

51 **Body of Text**

52

53 Foliar water uptake describes the process by which plants absorb water into their leaves,  
54 resulting in a net increase in the mass of water in the leaf. This occurs when saturating  
55 atmospheric water vapor conditions result in a driving gradient for water to enter into a  
56 leaf that is at a more negative water potential (Simonin et al. 2009; Goldsmith 2013; Vesala  
57 et al. 2017). The conditions necessary for this phenomenon are often observed in dew- and  
58 fog-affected ecosystems such as coastal Mediterranean ecosystems (Burgess and Dawson  
59 2004; Baguskas et al. 2016) and tropical montane cloud forests (Eller et al. 2013; Gotsch et  
60 al. 2014; Malhi et al. 2017), where fog (often leading to leaf wetting) serves as an  
61 alternative plant water source during the dry season. However, the effects of precipitation  
62 events are similar and foliar water uptake has now been described as affecting plant water  
63 and carbon relations in > 70 species from a number of different ecosystems (Goldsmith et  
64 al. 2013).

65         The capacity for species to do foliar water uptake has frequently been established  
66 by means of water isotope labeling experiments (Burgess and Dawson 2004; Breshears et  
67 al. 2008; Limm et al. 2009; Eller et al. 2013; Berry and Smith 2014; Berry et al. 2014;  
68 Gotsch et al. 2014; Cassana et al. 2015; Eller et al. 2016; Emery 2016; Schwerbrock and  
69 Leuschner 2017). This method relies on exposing leaves to a water source that is highly  
70 enriched or depleted in heavy isotopes of oxygen or hydrogen compared to that of the  
71 xylem source water and measuring for the presence of this label in the leaf. The labeled  
72 water is delivered through a simulated fog or leaf wetting event using an ultrasonic fog

73 machine or a simple spray bottle. A shift in the bulk leaf water isotope ratio towards that of  
74 the labeled water source is interpreted as foliar water uptake.

75 Water molecules can also exchange back and forth between the leaf and the  
76 atmosphere without a net increase in the mass of water in the leaf (Kim and Lee 2011).  
77 This occurs when atmospheric vapor pressure ( $e_a$ ) increases relative to leaf vapor pressure  
78 ( $e_i$ ). As a result, the air to leaf vapor pressure deficit decreases and reduces the driving  
79 gradient for water loss from the leaf. Stomata generally open in response to decreasing  
80 VPD (Lange et al. 1971), leading to an increase in leaf stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ ) in the light,  
81 even though net transpiration ( $E$ ) is decreasing to zero. Thus, with the stomata open, but  
82 transpiration suppressed due to  $e_a/e_i$  reaching unity (i.e. 100% relative humidity), water  
83 molecules simply move from the leaf to the atmosphere and vice versa with no net flux.  
84 This is akin to isotopic exchange between two pools of water in a closed system (Clark and  
85 Fritz 1997). Notably, this changes the isotope ratio of the leaf water, but does not lead to a  
86 net increase in the amount of water in the leaf. Thus, it is not possible to distinguish  
87 between a change in the leaf water isotope ratio due to foliar water uptake (net gain H<sub>2</sub>O)  
88 versus a change caused solely by water isotopes simply exchanging back and forth (no net  
89 change H<sub>2</sub>O) between the leaf and the atmosphere (Figure 1).

90 The effect of the isotope exchange of water across the leaf surface on leaf water  
91 isotope ratios at steady state is described by the Craig-Gordon Model (Craig and Gordon  
92 1965; Dongmann et al. 1974):

93

$$94 \quad e = e_a + k \left( \frac{e_i}{e_a} - 1 \right) \quad (1)$$

95

96 where the enrichment in leaf water isotopes relative to the source ( $\Delta_e$ ) is a function of  
97 equilibrium ( $\epsilon^+$ ) and kinetic fractionation factors ( $\epsilon_k$ ), the enrichment in atmospheric water  
98 vapor isotopes relative to source water isotopes ( $\Delta_v$ ), and the ratio of ambient air vapor  
99 pressure to leaf intracellular vapor pressure ( $e_a/e_i$ ). Equilibrium fractionation occurs with  
100 the phase change of water from liquid to vapor within the stomata, whereas kinetic  
101 fractionation occurs with the diffusion of that vapor through the stomata and boundary  
102 layer into the atmosphere. Dongmann et al. (1974) notes that when  $e_a/e_i$  is at unity, the  
103 model simplifies to:

104

$$105 \quad \epsilon_e = \epsilon^+ + \epsilon_k \left( \frac{e_a}{e_i} - 1 \right) + \Delta_v \left( \frac{e_a}{e_i} - 1 \right) \quad (2)$$

106

107 In Eq. 2, the stable isotope ratio of water in leaves is not subject to kinetic fractionation and  
108 can be explained solely by a temperature-dependent equilibrium fractionation factor and  
109 the difference in atmospheric water vapor isotopes relative to source water isotopes. It is  
110 important to note that this theory cannot distinguish between the effects of foliar water  
111 uptake versus bi-directional exchange.

112 The exchange of water isotopes between leaves and the atmosphere in the absence  
113 of foliar water uptake can be demonstrated experimentally. We exposed leaves from well-  
114 watered poplar (*Populus x canescens*) plants growing in a high humidity (~80%) growth  
115 chamber to a fog event using water with a depleted oxygen isotope ratio. We excised leaves  
116 at full water content, measured the leaf mass, and sealed the petioles from water entry.

117 Leaves were either immediately exposed to fog, or allowed to lose 5 or 10% of their initial

118 mass prior to fog exposure to create a driving gradient for water to enter the leaf through  
119 foliar water uptake (n = 1 leaf each from 5 individuals per treatment). Fog was generated  
120 using an ultrasonic fog machine (Ultrasonic 3, CIS Products, France) and supplemented by  
121 periodic physical spraying for 1 h (i.e. fog leading to leaf wetting). We then quickly and  
122 carefully dried the leaf surfaces, re-measured the leaf mass, and sealed the leaf in a glass  
123 vial to later measure the oxygen isotope ratios of bulk leaf water via isotope ratio mass  
124 spectrometry. We compared the three treatments (0, 5, and 10% mass loss) with the  
125 isotope ratio of the source water provided to the plants (for methods, see Online Resource).  
126 All data are available in the KNB data repository (Goldsmith et al. 2017).

127         The leaf water isotope ratios of all three treatments shifted towards the depleted  
128 isotopic label following fog exposure (Figure 2). However, the leaf mass of the 0%  
129 treatment did not change, indicating the exchange of water isotopes even though there was  
130 no foliar water uptake. The 5 and 10% treatments recovered some (but not all) of their  
131 initial mass, as would be predicted by the establishment of a driving gradient for foliar  
132 water uptake. Due to the short duration of the experiment, the leaf water isotope ratios did  
133 not converge with the labeled water vapor, as would be predicted by theory and has been  
134 observed in other experimental approaches (Kim and Lee 2011).

135         The observation that leaf water isotopes exchange even in the absence of a change  
136 in leaf mass is of particular importance if the primary pathway for foliar water uptake is  
137 stomata (Burkhardt et al. 2012). However, the pathways for foliar water uptake are not yet  
138 fully resolved. There is evidence for water entry through hydathodes, trichomes, fungal  
139 hyphae and the cuticle, depending on the species under study ( Burgess and Dawson 2004;  
140 Oliveira et al. 2014). However, even if the primary pathways were to be something other



141 than the stomata, inferences regarding foliar water uptake could still be confounded by bi-  
142 directional exchange through open (or at night, partially open) stomata.

143         There are other analogous applications of water isotope tracers that should also be  
144 considered. Branch water uptake directly through bark has been studied by submerging  
145 branch segments into labeled water sources; even in the absence of stomata, it is likely that  
146 isotopic exchange will occur given sufficient time (Mayr et al. 2014; Earles et al. 2015).

147 Several studies have also used differences between the stable isotope ratios of fog versus  
148 soil water to infer the proportional use of these two sources through sampling of xylem  
149 water isotope ratios (Berry et al. 2013; Fischer et al. 2016; Fu et al. 2016). Here, it must be  
150 assumed that the water in the xylem could come from a combination of the 1) soil water  
151 derived from precipitation, 2) drip of intercepted fog water from the plant canopy into the  
152 soil, 3) foliar uptake of fog water, or 4) bi-directional exchange of fog water with leaf water.  
153 The subsequent incorporation of these water isotopes into plant tissue (e.g.  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of tree  
154 rings) has also been proposed as a means of tracing the contribution of fog water to plant  
155 water use over time (Hu and Riveros-Iregui 2016); our results may help explain patterns  
156 observed in fog-affected environments (Anchukaitis et al. 2008; Zhu et al. 2012).

157         Foliar water uptake remains a real phenomenon. There are a number of different  
158 methods to independently establish its existence, including sapflow (Burgess and Dawson  
159 2004), dye tracers (Eller et al. 2013), gravimetric approaches (Limm et al. 2009), and plant  
160 water potentials (Goldsmith et al. 2013). In fact, many of the research studies cited above  
161 combined stable isotope labeling experiments with other methods and thus the results are  
162 likely to stand. As no single method is perfect, we recommend that investigators try to use  
163 multiple means to establish foliar water uptake wherever possible.

164

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166

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269

270 **Figure Legend**

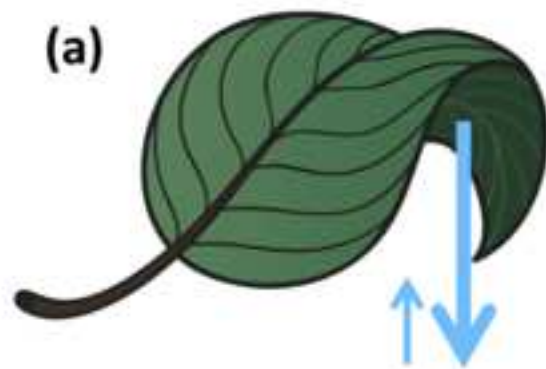
271

272 **Figure 1.** Leaf water isotope ratios can vary due to (a) the effects of transpiration when the  
273 ratio of ambient air vapor pressure to leaf intracellular vapor pressure ( $e_a/e_i$ ) < 1, (b) the  
274 effects of transpiration suppression when  $e_a/e_i = 1$ , which results in no change in the mass  
275 of leaf water and (c) the effects of foliar water uptake when  $e_a/e_i \geq 1$ , which results in a net  
276 increase in the mass of leaf water. The effects of bi-directional exchange of water isotopes  
277 between the leaf and the atmosphere observed in (b) cannot be distinguished from the net  
278 uptake of water isotopes from the atmosphere in (c).

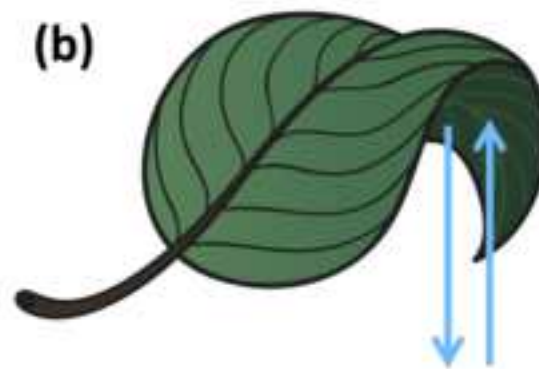
279

280 **Figure 2.** Changes in (a) the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of water and (b) the percent change in fresh leaf mass of  
281 poplar (*Populus x canescens*) leaves exposed to a fog source water depleted in  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  after 0,  
282 5, and 10% loss of fresh leaf mass achieved through bench drying (n = 1 leaf each from 5  
283 individuals per treatment). Data are means  $\pm$  1 SD.

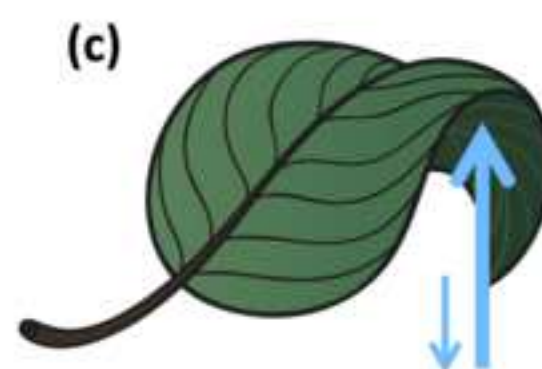




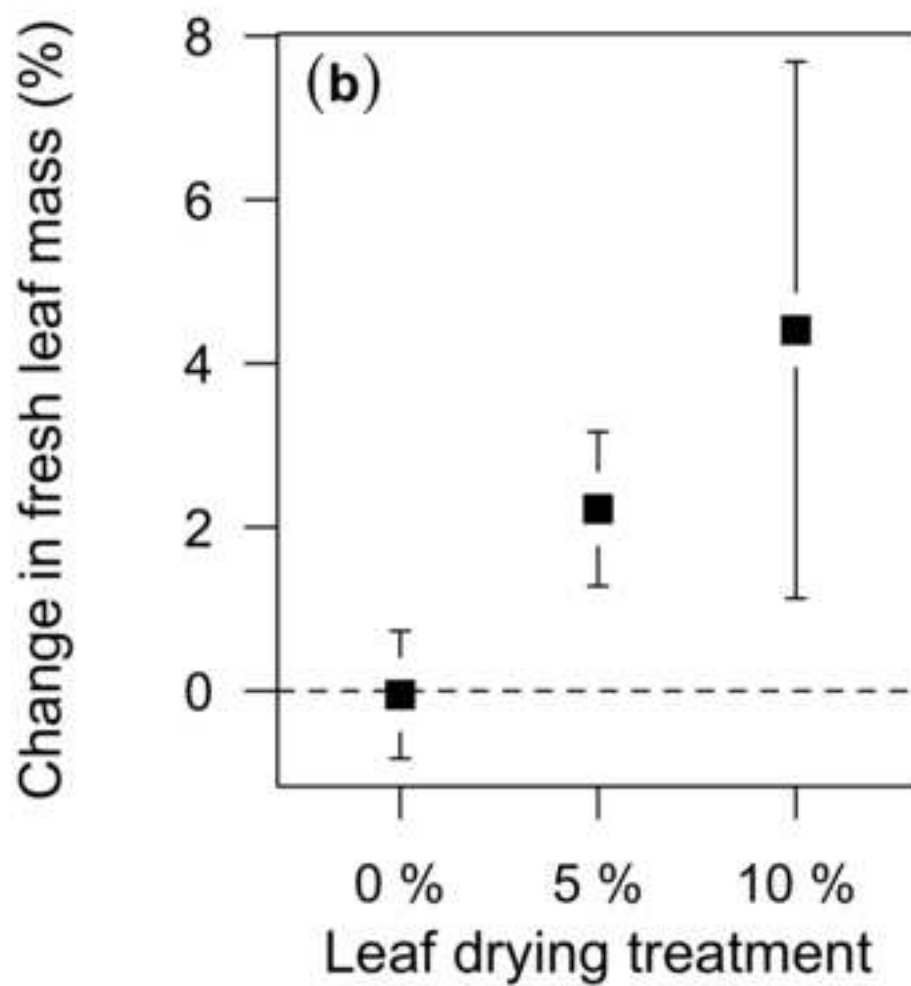
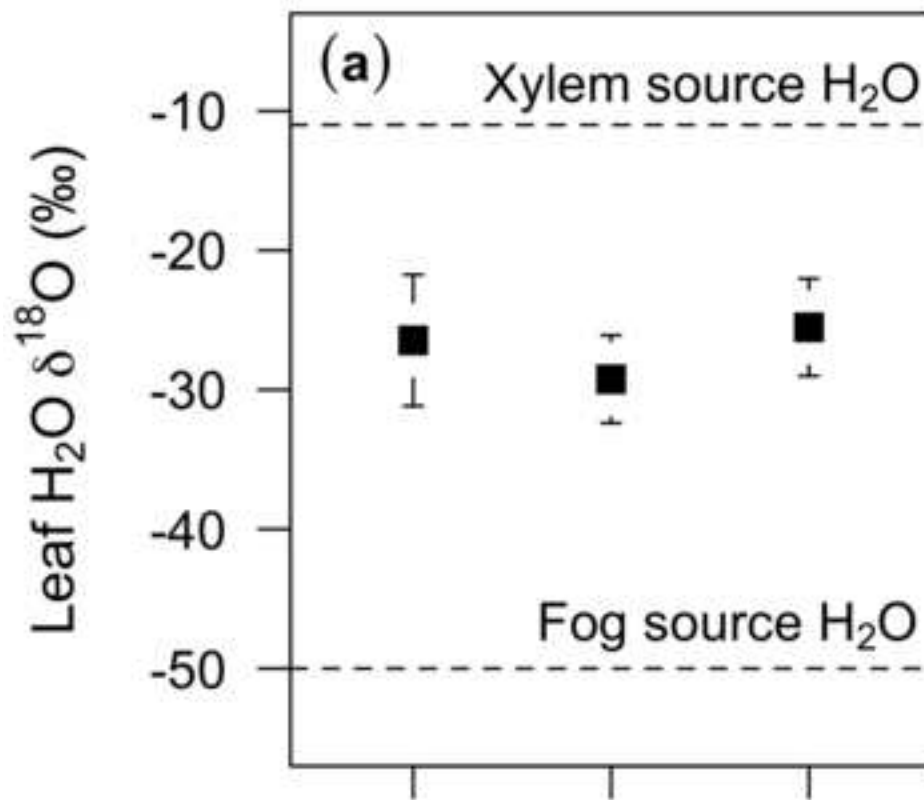
**Transpiration ( $e_a/e_i < 1$ )**  
Net loss  $H_2O$   
 $H_2O$  isotopes enriched



**No transpiration ( $e_a/e_i = 1$ )**  
No net change  $H_2O$   
 $H_2O$  isotopes exchange



**Foliar water uptake ( $e_a/e_i \geq 1$ )**  
Net gain  $H_2O$   
 $H_2O$  isotopes taken up





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