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1

2 **Assessing the impact of internal conductance to CO<sub>2</sub> in a land-surface scheme:**

3 **Measurement and modelling of photosynthesis in *Populus nigra***

4

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9

10 **Abbreviations:**

11 Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration ( $c_a$ ); intercellular CO<sub>2</sub> concentration ( $c_i$ ); chloroplastic CO<sub>2</sub>  
12 concentration ( $c_c$ ); net photosynthesis ( $A_{net}$ ); stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ ); maximum carboxylation rate  
13 of Rubisco ( $V_{max}$ ); maximum rate of electron transport ( $J_{max}$ ); internal CO<sub>2</sub> conductance ( $g_i$ ); intrinsic  
14 quantum efficiency ( $\alpha_{int}$ ); apparent quantum efficiency ( $\alpha_{app}$ );  $c_i/c_a$  ratio for specific humidity deficit  
15 in the canopy ( $F_0$ ); critical humidity deficit ( $D_c$ )

16

17 **Abstract**

18

19 Vegetation plays a key role in both the global carbon and water cycles. Therefore, the representation  
20 of leaf-level fluxes of carbon and water in process-based land-surface schemes is central to  
21 accurately predicting these surface exchanges on a larger scale. Leaf-level models of photosynthesis  
22 used in such schemes are commonly based on the equations of Farquhar *et al.*, (1980), which were  
23 founded on the assumption that differences in the drawdown of CO<sub>2</sub> from sub-stomatal cavities ( $c_i$ )  
24 to the site of carboxylation inside chloroplasts ( $c_c$ ) were negligible. Recent research, however,  
25 indicates an important role for this additional internal pathway of CO<sub>2</sub> transfer ( $g_i$ ) in photosynthesis.  
26 This work therefore combined fieldwork and modelling to assess the impact of  $g_i$  on estimation of  
27 key photosynthetic parameters, and on the accuracy of simulated photosynthesis ( $A_{net}$ ) and stomatal  
28 conductance ( $g_s$ ) in a coupled model of leaf-level  $A_{net}$  and  $g_s$  embedded in a land-surface scheme. It  
29 was shown that, in a fast growing poplar genotype (*Populus nigra*), the photosynthetic parameter  
30  $V_{max}$  was sensitive to  $g_i$ . Determination of  $V_{max}$  under the assumption of finite  $g_i$  led to estimates of  
31  $V_{max}$  in well-watered trees that were, on average, 52 % higher than values calculated on a  $c_i$  basis.  
32 Drought induced declines in all key photosynthetic parameters measured were observed ( $V_{max}$ ,  $J_{max}$ )

33 and  $g_i$ ), in addition to a two-fold increase in photosynthetic biochemical capacity upon re-watering.  
34 Reasons for this and the implications for land-surface modelling are discussed. It was shown that  
35 inclusion of a constant (non-water stressed) internal conductance to CO<sub>2</sub> in a coupled model of leaf-  
36 level  $A_{net}$  and  $g_s$  did not improve the accuracy of these simulated fluxes. It was concluded that, for  
37 application within a land-surface scheme, currently, accurate calibration of  $V_{max}$  potentially has a  
38 greater impact on simulated  $A_{net}$  and  $g_s$  than the inclusion of additional, fine-scale leaf-level  
39 processes such as  $g_i$ .

40

41 **Keywords:** land-surface model, poplar, gas exchange,  $V_{max}$ , mesophyll conductance

42

### 43 **1. Introduction**

44

45 From the gains and losses of carbon through photosynthesis and respiration, and the passage of water  
46 through plant stomata to the atmosphere, vegetation plays a major role in both the global carbon and  
47 water cycles. For land-surface schemes to correctly simulate carbon and water budgets, they must  
48 accurately represent the processes of carbon and water exchange from vegetated surfaces. Land-  
49 surface schemes commonly model carbon exchange of vegetation using biochemical models of leaf-  
50 level photosynthesis based on the equations of Farquhar *et al.*, (1980), coupled to a stomatal  
51 conductance model to simulate leaf-level fluxes of carbon dioxide and water. These are then scaled  
52 up to simulate carbon and water exchanges at the canopy-level. Therefore, correct parameterisation  
53 of these models at the leaf-level is central to accurate predictions of vegetation productivity and  
54 water-use at the larger-scale. The work of Hughes *et al.*, and Vanloocke *et al.*, (2010) for example,  
55 both used land-surface schemes to determine the carbon- and water-balances respectively of  
56 extensive plantings of *Miscanthus x giganteus*, a C<sub>4</sub> perennial grass bioenergy crop. Used in  
57 applications such as these, it is imperative that models are parameterised appropriately, and that  
58 simplifications used to represent key processes in models are adequate.

59

60 Until recently, photosynthesis in plants was considered to be limited dominantly by two factors;  $g_s$ ,  
61 which regulates the CO<sub>2</sub> supply into the leaf, and leaf biochemistry, which is the basic  
62 photochemistry, carboxylation and Calvin cycle reactions that regulate the CO<sub>2</sub> demand (Flexas *et al.*,  
63 2008). Consequently, models of photosynthesis, such as Farquhar *et al.*, (1980) and Collatz *et al.*,  
64 (1991; 1992), were founded on the assumption that differences in the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the sub-  
65 stomatal cavities and at the site of carboxylation in the chloroplast stroma were negligible. In other  
66 words,  $c_i$  (the intercellular CO<sub>2</sub> concentration) was equal to  $c_c$  (the chloroplastic CO<sub>2</sub> concentration).  
67 Recent research, however, identified the important role of internal CO<sub>2</sub> conductance ( $g_i$ ) in regulating

68 photosynthesis, i.e. the transfer of CO<sub>2</sub> across mesophyll cells from  $c_i$  to  $c_c$ . There is increasing  
69 evidence suggesting that  $g_i$  is actually finite and can itself respond to changing environmental  
70 conditions, such that it can impose a significant limitation on photosynthesis (Centritto et al., 2003;  
71 During, 2003; Flexas et al., 2007a; Flexas et al., 2002; Grassi and Magnani, 2005; Warren et al.,  
72 2004). Current research suggests that  $g_i$  is of similar quantitative importance to stomata and Rubisco  
73 in terms of limiting/regulating photosynthesis (Ethier and Livingston, 2004; Flexas et al., 2008;  
74 Warren, 2008). Therefore, it is suggested that it may be necessary to re-formulate photosynthesis  
75 models to include this process in order to improve predictions of leaf-level carbon assimilation  
76 (Ethier and Livingston, 2004; Flexas et al., 2008; Niinemets et al., 2009).

77

78 The present study addresses two questions: (1) what is the impact of internal conductance to CO<sub>2</sub> ( $g_i$ )  
79 on estimates of the key photosynthetic parameters  $V_{max}$  (the maximum rate of carboxylation at  
80 Rubisco) and  $J_{max}$  (the maximum rate of electron transport) in *Populus nigra*? (2) does the inclusion  
81 of this additional pathway of CO<sub>2</sub> transfer in a coupled model of leaf-level photosynthesis – stomatal  
82 conductance improve the accuracy of these two simulated fluxes? CO<sub>2</sub>- and light-response curves  
83 were measured on a variety of poplar (*P. nigra* L.) to determine the impact of  $g_i$  on estimates of the  
84 key photosynthetic kinetic parameters. This data was used to test and calibrate a coupled model of  
85 leaf-level photosynthesis and stomatal conductance embedded in a land-surface scheme called  
86 JULES (Best et al., 2011; Clark et al., 2011). The leaf-level model was modified to include the  
87 transfer of  $c_i$  to  $c_c$  to assess the impact of  $g_i$  on the accuracy of predicted photosynthesis and stomatal  
88 conductance. An independent data set was used to validate the performance of the different model  
89 configurations.

90

## 91 **2. Materials and Methods**

92

### 93 **2.1. Plant material and experimental setup**

94

95 Established cuttings of *P. nigra* L. (cv. Jean Pourtet) were cultivated at Wytham field station  
96 (Wytham, Oxfordshire, UK; 51°44'99"N, 1°18'97"W). In April 2008, the cuttings were potted into  
97 10 L pots (300 mm diameter x 250 mm depth) using a soil-based, lime-free compost (John Innes No.  
98 3). Fifty trees (25 per treatment) were arranged in a split-plot design. Trees were randomly  
99 distributed between four blocks. Two blocks were subject to periods when water was withheld to  
100 impose a drought treatment. The remaining two blocks were watered continuously over the course of  
101 the experiment.  $A_{net}$  and  $g_s$  were measured over the course of the experiment under ambient  
102 atmospheric conditions. Recordings were made from at least four, and up to ten trees per block, per  
103 treatment at each measurement period (before, during and after each drought period). Trees were

104 chosen at random, and measurements were made on the first fully expanded, sun-exposed leaf (i.e.  
105 one leaf per tree). Three recordings on the same leaf were made, and the average of these was used in  
106 analyses. Measurement of response curves used three trees per treatment, and the same trees were  
107 used over the course of the experiment. Trees had been selected at random from the blocks, and  
108 curves were measured on the first fully expanded leaf of each tree.

109

110 Before the onset of experiments all trees were fully watered. Pots were spaced at 300 mm intervals to  
111 avoid shading and allow access to the trees. Watering treatments began when leaves were completely  
112 developed and matured. Control trees were continuously watered so their soil moisture content  
113 remained near to field capacity (around 30 % volume). For the duration of the experimental period,  
114 mean soil moisture of control trees was 30.6 % vol.  $\pm$  3.5 %vol. Stressed trees endured two periods  
115 of imposed soil water stress where they were not watered and pots were shielded from rainfall by the  
116 use of a polythene cone fitted around the base of the stem and the lip of the pot so the canopy  
117 remained exposed to the atmosphere. The protective covers could be raised and lowered as necessary  
118 to allow circulation of air beneath during dry periods. Any effect of the use of these covers on soil  
119 temperature was deemed minimal when compared to the effect of reduced moisture content on soil  
120 temperature. In total, water was withheld for 25 days (2 to 26 June) during the first drought cycle;  
121 trees were then fully re-watered for eight weeks until the onset of the second drought cycle, which  
122 lasted 40 days (20 August to 28 September). In both drought cycles, plants were kept without water  
123 until net photosynthesis was almost completely inhibited during the late morning.

124

## 125 **2.2. Soil moisture**

126

127 Soil moisture content was monitored continuously over the course of the experiment using SM200  
128 soil moisture sensors (Delta-T Devices Ltd, Cambridge, UK). Soil moisture was recorded as %  
129 volumetric water content (% vol.). Twelve sensors in total were used, so soil moisture content of six  
130 trees per treatment could be continuously logged. Point measurements were also made to check the  
131 soil moisture content of pots without sensors.

132

## 133 **2.3. Leaf-gas exchange measurements**

134

135 Leaf-level gas exchange was recorded using a portable infrared gas exchange analyser (IRGA)  
136 system (CIRAS-2, PP-systems, Hitchin, UK). For all measurements, the leaf area used was 250 mm<sup>2</sup>.  
137 *P. nigra* is amphistomatous so the stomatal ratio was maintained at 30% for the upper- and 70% for

138 the lower-leaf surface. This ratio had been determined from previous measurements of the  
139 contribution of stomata on the abaxial and adaxial leaf surfaces to the rate of  $g_s$  in this genotype  
140 (Ingmar Tulva *pers. comm.*, 2007).

141

### 142 **2.3. Leaf-gas exchange under ambient atmospheric conditions**

143

144 Leaf-level  $A_{net}$  and  $g_s$  were measured *in situ* under ambient atmospheric conditions over the course of  
145 the experiment. Measurements were made during the hours 09:00-12:00 GMT, and were restricted to  
146 days with clear skies; temperature and relative humidity inside the leaf chamber were close to  
147 ambient values. The CO<sub>2</sub> concentration inside the leaf chamber was maintained at  $380 \pm 5$  ppm using  
148 a CO<sub>2</sub> cartridge plugged into the CIRAS-2.

149

### 150 **2.4. CO<sub>2</sub> response curve**

151

152 The response of  $A_{net}$  to increasing concentrations of  $c_i$  was measured *in situ* using the IRGA system.  
153 Measurements were made between the hours of 09:00 and 14:00 GMT. Leaf temperatures were set at  
154 25 °C for all measurements, leaves were illuminated using a red-blue LED light source attached to  
155 the gas exchange system and photosynthetic photon flux density ( $P_{PFD}$ ) was maintained at 1500  $\mu\text{mol}$   
156  $\text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ . According to Bernacchi *et al.*, (2003) this level of  $P_{PFD}$  is just above the light saturation point  
157 for this species. Leaf vapour pressure deficits were maintained close to ambient. Following protocols  
158 suggested by Long and Bernacchi (2003) and Bernacchi *et al.*, (2003), leaves were incubated at a  
159 CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of 200 ppm for 20-30 minutes prior to measurement to maximise stomatal  
160 opening. Measurement of  $A_{net}$  -  $c_i$  curves followed the method of Bernacchi *et al.* (2003) starting at  
161 400 ppm CO<sub>2</sub>, decreasing stepwise to 50 ppm, then increasing stepwise to 1800 ppm CO<sub>2</sub>.

162

163 The  $A_{net}$  -  $c_i$  curves were fitted using the method of Sharkey *et al.*, (2007) to provide optimised  
164 estimates of  $g_i$  ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{Pa}^{-1}$ ),  $V_{max}$  ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) and  $J_{max}$  ( $\mu\text{mol electrons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ). An online  
165 analytical tool to aid with curve fitting can be found at:

166 [www.blackwellpublishing.com/plantsci/pcecalculation](http://www.blackwellpublishing.com/plantsci/pcecalculation). This method uses the biochemically based  
167 model for photosynthesis of Farquhar *et al.*, (1980) with modifications for finite internal CO<sub>2</sub> transfer  
168 ( $g_i$ ), which uses  $c_c$  instead of  $c_i$  where  $c_c = c_i - A/g_i$ . This model was then adapted to calculate  $V_{max}$  and  
169  $J_{max}$  at  $c_i$ , where  $c_c = c_i$ . For more information see Sharkey *et al.*, (2007) and Pons *et al.*, (2009).

170

### 171 **2.5. Light response curve**

172

173 Leaves were sampled as described for  $A_{net} - c_i$  measurements above. Leaves were placed in the leaf  
174 chamber and illuminated until steady-state rates of  $A_{net}$  and  $g_s$  had been achieved. Leaf temperature  
175 was set at 25 °C for all measurements and CO<sub>2</sub> concentration was maintained at 380 ppm.  $A_{net} - P_{PFD}$   
176 response curves were then measured starting at saturating light (2000  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) and decreased  
177 stepwise to darkness.

178

179 The  $A_{net} - P_{PFD}$  response curves were analysed using the software ‘Photosynthesis Assistant’ (Parsons  
180 and Ogston, 1998), which uses the equation given by Prioul & Chartier (1977). The software fits the  
181 equation through an iterative process to give parameter values associated with the smallest error.

182

## 183 **2.6. Models**

184

### 185 **2.6.1. The coupled model for leaf-level photosynthesis and stomatal conductance**

186

187 The photosynthesis – stomatal conductance model used in this work is embedded in the land-surface  
188 scheme JULES (Best et al., 2011; Clark et al., 2011), hereafter referred to as the JULES  $A_{net} - g_s$   
189 model. This sub-model calculates the leaf-level exchanges of carbon and water. These are described  
190 as being dependent on a number of environmental variables as well as  $c_i$ , with an additional direct  
191 dependence on soil moisture status. This sub-model is based on the photosynthesis model of Collatz  
192 *et al.*, (1991) for C<sub>3</sub> plants and Collatz *et al.*, (1992) for C<sub>4</sub> plants, and uses the stomatal closure  
193 described by Jacobs (1994).

194

### 195 **2.6.2. Overview of the modelling**

196

197 The measured  $A_{net} - c_i$  and  $A_{net} - P_{PFD}$  response curves provided parameter values for *P. nigra* to test  
198 and calibrate the JULES  $A_{net} - g_s$  model. The JULES  $A_{net} - g_s$  model was used in the following  
199 configurations; 1) the original configuration 2) modified to include the transfer of CO<sub>2</sub> from  $c_i$  to  $c_c$ ,  
200 and 3) modified to use the photosynthesis model of Farquhar *et al.*, (1980) and include internal CO<sub>2</sub>  
201 conductance. The accuracy of simulated  $A_{net}$  and  $g_s$  was compared in these three different model  
202 configurations. Model testing, calibration and validation occurred in three steps:

203 i) The performance of each model configuration was tested after being parameterised with individual  
204 values for the photosynthetic parameters taken from separate  $A_{net} - c_i$  and  $A_{net} - P_{PFD}$  response curves.  
205 The accuracy of simulated  $A_{net}$  in response to increasing concentrations of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> was  
206 compared against the measured  $A_{net} - c_i$  response curves.

207 ii) When used in the land-surface scheme, the coupled  $A_{net} - g_s$  model requires a single value for each  
208 of the photosynthetic parameters. Therefore, the average value of each photosynthetic parameter

209 derived from the  $A_{net} - c_i$  and  $A_{net} - P_{PFD}$  response curves, measured in well-watered trees, was used  
210 to calibrate the model, and model performance was assessed again. Model performance was also  
211 assessed using a default set of model parameter values as opposed to calibrated values.

212 iii) Using the calibration performed in step ii), the model configurations were validated against an  
213 independent data set of leaf-level  $A_{net}$  and  $g_s$  measured across the growing season under ambient  
214 atmospheric conditions, in healthy and water stressed top of canopy leaves of *P. nigra*.

215

### 216 **2.6.3. Model configurations**

217

218 The three different configurations of the JULES  $A_{net} - g_s$  model are summarised in Table 1. Model 1  
219 is the photosynthesis sub-model currently used in JULES. Model 2 is equivalent to Model 1, but the  
220 transfer of  $c_i$  to  $c_c$  has been included according to Ethier & Livingston (2004). Model 3 uses the  
221 configuration of the Farquhar *et al.*, (1980) photosynthesis model, which has been modified in the  
222 same manner as Model 2 to include the transfer of  $c_i$  to  $c_c$ . The main differences between the basic  
223 configuration of the Collatz *et al.*, (1991) model (Model 1 and Model 2) and the Farquhar *et al.*,  
224 (1980) model (Model 3) is the description of the dependence of photosynthetic rate on light. The  
225 Farquhar *et al.*, (1980) model uses an additional parameter,  $J_{max}$ , to determine the light limited rate of  
226 photosynthesis, whereas Model 1 and Model 2 use the Collatz *et al.*, (1991) dependence on quantum  
227 yield. Model 2 and Model 3 use exponential temperature response functions for key temperature  
228 dependent parameters;  $K_o$  (Michaelis-Menton constant of Rubisco for  $O_2$ ),  $K_c$  (Michaelis-Menton  
229 constant of Rubisco for  $CO_2$ ),  $\Gamma^*$  (chloroplastic  $CO_2$  photocompensation point in the absence of  
230 mitochondrial respiration),  $V_{max}$ ,  $J_{max}$ ,  $R_d$  (dark respiration) and  $g_i$ . The temperature response functions  
231 used in Model 2 and Model 3 are those shown in Sharkey *et al.*, (2007) and are reproduced here in  
232 equations 8 and 9. The Rubisco kinetic constants ( $K_o$ ,  $K_c$ ,  $\Gamma^*$ ) used in Model 2 and Model 3 are taken  
233 from Sharkey *et al.*, (2007) and have been determined *in vivo* at  $c_c$  (Table 2). Because both Model 2  
234 and Model 3 include  $g_i$ , they were parameterised with values of  $V_{max}$  estimated at  $c_c$  instead of  $c_i$ .  
235 Model 1 and uses  $Q_{10}$  temperature response functions as shown in Collatz *et al.*, (1991) (see equation  
236 7; Table 2). For all three models, calculation of the dark respiration rate and the triose-phosphate  
237 export limited rate of photosynthesis were the same, and followed the approach used in the Collatz *et*  
238 *al.*, (1991) model.

239

### 240 **2.6.4. Modelling photosynthesis with internal conductance to $CO_2$**

241

242 Models 2 and 3 were modified to include the transfer of  $CO_2$  from intercellular air spaces across the  
243 mesophyll cell wall and into the chloroplast. This followed the procedure of Ethier & Livingston  
244 (2004) who modified the biochemically based photosynthesis model of Farquhar *et al.*, (1980) to

245 include this transfer. They developed a non-rectangular hyperbola version of the model that includes  
 246  $g_i$  to calculate both the CO<sub>2</sub>- and light-limited rates of photosynthesis at the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration inside  
 247 the chloroplast ( $c_c$ ). This approach was taken in both Model 2 and Model 3. Under Rubisco limited  
 248 conditions, the rate of photosynthesis can be determined at  $c_c$  by equation 1:

249

$$250 \quad W_{carbc} = \frac{(c_c - \Gamma^*)V_{\max}}{c_c + K_c(1 + O_a / K_o)} - R_d \quad (1)$$

251

252 Where,  $W_{carbc}$  ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) is the CO<sub>2</sub> - limited (or RuBP - saturated) CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rate  
 253 determined at  $c_c$ ,  $c_c$  (Pa) is the chloroplastic CO<sub>2</sub> concentration and  $\Gamma^*$  (Pa) is the chloroplastic CO<sub>2</sub>  
 254 photocompensation point in the absence of mitochondrial respiration. Substituting  $c_c$  with equation 2,  
 255 where  $g_i$  ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$ ) is the internal CO<sub>2</sub> conductance transfer, gives a quadratic equation  
 256 whose solution is the positive root (equation 3)

$$257 \quad c_c = c_i - \frac{W_{carbc}}{g_i} \quad (2)$$

$$258 \quad W_{carbc} = \frac{-b + \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

259

$$\text{where,} \quad a = -1 / g_i$$

260

$$b = (V_{\max} - R_d) / g_i + c_i + K_c(1 + O_a / K_o)$$

261

$$c = R_d(c_i + K_c(1 + O_a / K_o)) - V_{\max}(c_i - \Gamma^*)$$

262

(3)

263

264 The light-limited rate of photosynthesis at  $c_c$ ,  $W_{litec}$ , can be derived in a similar manner. Using the  
 265 Farquhar *et al.*, (1980) model (Model 3),  $W_{litec}$  is determined following equation 4:

266

$$267 \quad W_{litec} = \frac{J / 4(c_c - \Gamma^*)}{c_c + 2\Gamma^*} - R_d \quad (4)$$

268

269 Where,  $J$  ( $\mu\text{mol e}^- \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) is the rate of electron transport dependent on irradiance ( $I_{par}$ ), given in  
 270 equation 5 after Harley *et al.*, (1992):

$$271 \quad J = \frac{\alpha_{app} I_{par}}{\sqrt{1 + (\alpha_{app} I_{par} / J_{\max})^2}} \quad (5)$$

272

273 Where,  $J_{max}$  ( $\mu\text{mol e}^- \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) is the maximum electron transport rate,  $\alpha_{app}$  ( $\text{mol e}^-/\text{mol photons}^{-1}$ ) is  
 274 the apparent quantum efficiency, and  $I_{par}$  ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) is the photosynthetically active radiation. In  
 275 the Collatz *et al.*, (1991) model, the description of the dependence of photosynthetic rate on light is  
 276 dependent on the quantum yield, and is shown in equation 6 for determination at  $c_c$ :

277

$$278 \quad W_{litec} = \frac{\alpha_{int} \omega I_{par} (c_c - \Gamma^*)}{c_c + 2\Gamma^*} - R_d \quad (6)$$

279

280 Where,  $\omega$  is the leaf scattering coefficient for PAR (0.15) and  $\alpha_{int}$  is the intrinsic quantum efficiency  
 281 ( $\text{mol CO}_2 / \text{mol}^{-1} \text{ PAR}$ ). For simplicity we will call the first three terms on the top of equation 6  
 282  $J_{collatz}$  which describes the dependency of photosynthetic rate on available light in the Collatz *et al.*,  
 283 (1991) model. Consequently, like  $W_{carbc}$ , the light-limited  $\text{CO}_2$  assimilation rate,  $W_{litec}$ , can be derived  
 284 as outlined in equations 1 to 3 for Model 2 and Model 3 by replacing  $V_{max}$  with  $J_{collatz}$  (Model 2) or  
 285 with  $J/4$  (Model 3), and  $K_c(1 + O_a/K_o)$  with  $2\Gamma^*$ . The factor of four used in the Farquhar *et al.*, (1980)  
 286 model accounts for four electrons being required per carboxylation/oxygenation reaction.

287

### 288 2.6.5. Adjusting for temperature

289

290 In Model 1, temperature dependencies of the following parameters,  $R_d$ ,  $V_{max}$ ,  $g_i$ ,  $K_o$ ,  $K_c$  and  $\Gamma^*$  are  
 291 described using a  $Q_{10}$  function shown in equation 7 (see Table 2).

292

$$293 \quad f_T = f_{T25} Q_{10}^{0.1(T_c - 25)} \quad (7)$$

294

295 Where,  $f_{T25}$  is the parameter value at 25 °C and  $Q_{10}$  is the relative change in the parameter for a 10  
 296 °C change in temperature (Collatz *et al.*, 1991). Exponential temperature response functions were  
 297 used in Model 2 and Model 3. In this version of the model, the temperature dependence of  $V_{max}$ ,  $J_{max}$ ,  
 298  $R_d$ ,  $K_c$ ,  $K_o$  and  $\Gamma^*$  were each described by equation 8, (Harley *et al.*, 1992; Sharkey *et al.*, 2007);

299

$$300 \quad \text{Parameter} = \exp(c - \Delta H_a / RT_c) \quad (8)$$

301

302 Where,  $c$  is a scaling constant,  $\Delta H_a$  is an enthalpy of activation,  $R$  is the perfect gas constant ( $8.314 \text{ J}$   
 303  $\text{mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ ) and  $T_c$  is the leaf absolute temperature (°C). The temperature dependence for  $g_i$  used in  
 304 Model 2 and Model 3 follows Bernacchi *et al.*, (2002), and shown in equation 9 below:

305

$$Parameter = \frac{\exp(c - \Delta H_a / RT_c)}{1 + \exp[(\Delta ST_c - \Delta H_d) / RT_c]} \quad (9)$$

307

308 Where,  $\Delta H_d$  is an enthalpy of deactivation and  $\Delta S$  is an entropy term. The parameter values used are  
 309 shown in Table 2.

310

## 311 2.7. Data

312

### 313 2.7.1. Model testing

314

315 The key photosynthetic parameters required by the three model configurations are shown in Table 1.

316 Individual values of  $V_{max}$ ,  $J_{max}$  and  $g_i$  inferred from the measured  $A_{net} - c_i$  response curves were used

317 to test the performance of the three model configurations (Table 3).  $V_{max}$  estimated without  $g_i$  (i.e. at

318  $c_i$ ), was used in Model 1, whereas  $V_{max}$  estimated with  $g_i$  was used in Models 2 and 3. Additionally,

319 Model 3 used values of  $J_{max}$  determined at  $c_c$ . The apparent quantum efficiency ( $\alpha_{app}$ ) describes the

320 efficiency of light utilization in photosynthesis, and was inferred from the measured  $A_{net} - P_{PFD}$

321 response curves. The intrinsic quantum efficiency ( $\alpha_{int}$ ), is similar to  $\alpha_{app}$  but takes into account

322 reflected and transmitted light and is therefore thought to be highly conserved across  $C_3$  species

323 (Long et al., 1993). Typical values for  $\alpha_{int}$  range between 0.06 to 0.125 mol CO<sub>2</sub> mol<sup>-1</sup>PAR (Collatz

324 et al., 1991; Farquhar et al., 1980; Laisk et al., 2002; Lambers et al., 2008; Long et al., 1993). It is

325 also suggested that there is a close relationship between  $\alpha_{int}$  and  $F_v/F_m$  (the maximum potential

326 quantum efficiency of photosystem II) as measured by chlorophyll fluorescence (Kao and Forseth,

327 1992).  $F_v/F_m$  was also measured in well-watered *P. nigra* trees over the same experimental period.

328 Individual results are not reported, but  $F_v/F_m$  varied little over the course of the growing season,

329 ranging between 0.072 - 0.08 mol CO<sub>2</sub> mol<sup>-1</sup> PAR. The average of this range (0.076 mol CO<sub>2</sub> mol<sup>-1</sup>

330 PAR) was chosen as the value of  $\alpha_{int}$  to use in both Model 1 and Model 2.  $F_0$  (unit-less) and  $D_c$  (kg

331 kg<sup>-1</sup>) are additional model plant-specific parameters.  $F_0$  is the  $c_i/c_a$  for specific humidity deficit in the

332 canopy, and  $D_c$  is the critical humidity deficit. These parameters are not as readily measured, so it

333 was necessary to tune these parameters to find suitable values. Each model was run in a Monte-Carlo

334 simulation for 5000 iterations to find the parameter value that minimised the RMSD (root mean

335 squared deviation) between modelled and observed  $A_{net}$ . The values of  $F_0$  and  $D_c$  that minimised the

336 RMSD were close to the default values for  $C_3$  plants specified in the JULES documentation (Cox,

337 2001). It was observed that there was minimal sensitivity of simulated  $A_{net}$  to each of these

338 parameters. The same values were used in all model configurations. At this stage, model testing was

339 only performed with parameters from well watered trees, therefore the soil moisture stress factor ( $\beta$ )

340 in the model was set to one (i.e. no soil moisture stress), (Cox et al., 1998).

341

### 342 **2.7.2. Model Calibration**

343

344 The leaf-level  $A_{net} - g_s$  model tested is integral to a land-surface scheme. This requires just one value  
345 for each parameter ( $V_{max}$ ,  $J_{max}$ ,  $g_i$ ,  $\alpha$ ,  $F_0$  and  $D_c$ ). Therefore, the mean across the growing season from  
346 well-watered trees was used for each parameter. These values are shown in bold at the bottom of  
347 Table 3. Model 1 was also used with a default parameter set for a broadleaf tree plant functional type  
348 (PFT) in the JULES model (JULES<sub>def</sub>;  $V_{max} = 32.00$ ,  $\alpha_{int} = 0.076$ ,  $F_0 = 0.875$ ,  $D_c = 0.09$ ). This was to  
349 assess the accuracy of modelled  $A_{net}$  when using default parameter values as opposed to calibrated  
350 parameters. This could not be done to compare the performance of Model 2 or Model 3 as default  
351 values for  $J_{max}$  and  $g_i$  were unknown.

352

### 353 **2.7.3. Model Validation**

354

355 Model validation was performed against measured leaf-level rates of  $A_{net}$  and  $g_s$  across the growing  
356 season in *P. nigra* trees under ambient environmental conditions and with imposed soil moisture  
357 stress. The soil moisture stress factor was calculated according to Cox *et al.*, (1998).

358

### 359 **2.7.4. Model assessment and statistical analyses**

360

361 Observed data were plotted against their corresponding model-predicted values, model bias and  
362 goodness of fit was assessed based on the intercept, slope and coefficient of determination ( $r^2$ ) of the  
363 optimal least squares regression line. Based on the recommendation of Piñeiro *et al.*, (2008) all  
364 model assessments used regressions of observed (in the y-axis) vs. predicted (in the x-axis). The root  
365 mean squared deviation (RMSD) was also estimated.

366

367 Statistical analysis used a linear mixed effects model with the package *lme4* (Bates and Maechler,  
368 2009) available in the statistical software *R2.10.1* (R2.10.1, 2009). The analysis tested main effects  
369 and interactions, with the random effect of block nested within treatment levels, and day of year.

370 Significance of fixed effects were tested for using likelihood ratio tests (*LRT*) that use the chi-  
371 squared ( $\chi^2$ ) distribution and maximum likelihood estimators (*MLE*) (Faraway, 2006).

372

### 373 **2.7.5. Model driving data**

374

375 Required meteorological driving variables were; leaf temperature (K), air pressure (Pa), PAR ( $\text{W m}^{-2}$ )  
376 and specific humidity ( $Q$ ;  $\text{kg kg}^{-1}$ ). Leaf temperature, air pressure and PAR were measured and

377 recorded by the IRGA at the time of measurement. Specific humidity ( $Q$ ; kg kg<sup>-1</sup>) was calculated  
378 using equation 10, where  $e_a$  is the actual vapour pressure (kPa) as measured by the IRGA:

379

$$380 \quad Q = 0.622e_a 0.01 \quad (10)$$

381

### 382 **3. Results**

383

#### 384 **3.1. Photosynthetic parameters**

385

386 An effect of  $g_i$  on the estimate of  $V_{max}$  was detected in both well-watered and stressed trees ( $\chi^2=15.7$ ,  
387  $p < 0.01$ ,  $n = 50$ ). Estimates of  $V_{max}$  made assuming finite  $g_i$  resulted in significantly higher values of  
388  $V_{max}$  (Fig 1a & b). Over the course of the growing season, in well-watered trees,  $V_{max}$  estimated at  $c_c$   
389 ranged from  $89.95 \pm 21.7 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  to  $106.84 \pm 24.6 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  depending on  
390 measurement period, however, estimated at  $c_i$ ,  $V_{max}$  ranged between  $58.51 \pm 12.2 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  to  
391  $70.64 \pm 21.9 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . In either case, the estimated values of  $V_{max}$  remained fairly constant  
392 for the duration of the growing season in control trees, with measurements falling well within the  
393 error of each other (Fig. 1a & b). During the measurement periods preceding a drought (Predrt.1 and  
394 Predrt.2 in Fig. 1),  $V_{max}$  estimated in both control and treatment trees were similar, falling well within  
395 the measurement error of each other (Fig. 1a & b). Drought led to a substantial decrease in estimated  
396  $V_{max}$  compared to well-watered trees ( $\chi^2=11.78$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $n = 50$ ; Fig 1a & b). The mean of  $V_{max}$   
397 estimated for stressed trees during the first drought period was  $29.88 \pm 13.7 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$   
398 ( $106.42 \pm 4.9 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) and  $20.80 \pm 5.8 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  ( $69.97 \pm 5.9 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )  
399 with and without  $g_i$  respectively (numbers in brackets indicate the corresponding value measured in  
400 control trees). During the second drought period this was  $42.39 \pm 3.9 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  ( $94.32 \pm 15.4$   
401  $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) and  $39.81 \pm 2.9 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  ( $68.04 \pm 3.8 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) respectively.  
402 Mean soil moisture content during the first drought period (i.e. reported from the period when water  
403 was first withheld to just before re-watering) was  $8.8 \pm 6.8 \%$  vol. with a minimum of  $1.5 \%$  vol.,  
404 during the second drought period mean soil moisture content was  $19.3 \pm 7.9 \%$  vol. with a minimum  
405 of  $3.5 \%$  vol (Fig. 2). It is notoriously difficult to impose a controlled drought, nevertheless, soil  
406 moisture content during both drought periods was sufficiently reduced to impact on estimates of  $V_{max}$   
407 measured at both  $c_i$  and  $c_c$  (Fig. 2b). During the recovery period,  $V_{max}$  estimated in trees that were re-  
408 watered following drought was substantially higher than the control trees (Rec. in Fig. 1a & b).  $V_{max}$   
409 estimated at  $c_c$  in trees recovering from drought was  $230.14 \pm 28.0 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  compared to  
410  $89.95 \pm 21.7 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  measured in control trees.

411

412 There was no detectable effect of  $g_i$  on the estimate of  $J_{max}$ . As seen in Fig. 1c & d, estimates of  $J_{max}$   
413 both with and without  $g_i$  were similar, for control trees these ranged between  $121.84 \pm 12.4 \mu\text{mol}$   
414  $\text{CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $156.84 \pm 48.7 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  when measured at  $c_c$ , and  $108.18 \pm 14.7 \mu\text{mol CO}_2$   
415  $\text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  to  $145.99 \pm 50.0 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  when measured at  $c_i$ . Drought caused a significant decline  
416 of  $J_{max}$  ( $\chi^2=12.70$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $n = 50$ ).  $J_{max}$  in drought stressed trees declined to  $47.87 \pm 18.2 \mu\text{mol}$   
417  $\text{CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  with  $g_i$  and  $38.55 \pm 11.4 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  without  $g_i$  during the first drought period, and  
418  $53.35 \pm 5.3 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $51.81 \pm 4.5 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  respectively during the second  
419 drought period. Similar to  $V_{max}$ , it is likely that  $J_{max}$  declined less during the second drought period  
420 because the reduction in soil moisture content was less severe (Fig. 2). As stressed trees were re-  
421 watered following the first drought,  $J_{max}$  measured in these trees was significantly higher compared  
422 to control trees. In stressed trees recovering from drought,  $J_{max}$  was  $260.21 \pm 14.0 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$   
423 compared to  $116.09 \pm 15.3 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (with  $g_i$ ), and  $239.65 \pm 17.2 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  compared  
424 to  $108.18 \pm 14.7 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (without  $g_i$ ).

425

426 Internal conductance to  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $g_i$ ) declined with water stress ( $\chi^2=18.4$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $n = 25$ ; Fig. 1e and  
427 see Fig. 2b). In control trees however,  $g_i$  remained consistent over the course of the growing season,  
428 with no detectable differences between the different measurement periods. In control *P. nigra* trees,  
429  $g_i$  ranged between  $1.75 \pm 0.3 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$  to  $2.55 \pm 0.8 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$  (Fig. 1e). In droughted  
430 trees,  $g_i$  declined to  $0.41 \pm 0.01 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$  to  $0.60 \pm 0.07 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$  during the first and  
431 second drought periods respectively. In trees recovering from water stress,  $g_i$  was higher ( $3.38 \pm$   
432  $0.1 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$ ), but this was within the measurement error of  $g_i$  measured in control trees ( $2.55$   
433  $\pm 0.8 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$ ; Fig. 1e).

434

### 435 3.2. Model testing

436

437 All model configurations simulated observed rates of  $A_{net}$  with high accuracy (Fig. 3a-c). Model 1  
438 was seen to marginally over predict at low values of  $A_{net}$  and under predict at high rates (Fig. 3a).  
439 Both the intercept and slope of the regression line were found to be significantly different from zero  
440 and one respectively (Table 4). Although the bias in the relationship was small, as shown by the 95%  
441 confidence intervals (CIs) surrounding the slope and intercept. Further, the coefficient of  
442 determination ( $r^2$ ) was high (0.98), and the RMSD low ( $1.68 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ; Table 4). Model 2  
443 reduced the accuracy of simulated  $A_{net}$  compared to Model 1 (Fig. 3b). The  $r^2$  declined to 0.93 and the  
444 RMSD increased to  $5.86 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . Model 2 showed a pronounced bias to over-estimate  $A_{net}$   
445 that increased with increasing  $A_{net}$ . The scatter around the model regression line was much greater,  
446 with larger CIs around the slope and intercept of the line (Table 4). No significant improvement in  
447 modelled  $A_{net}$  was seen with Model 3 compared to Model 1 (Fig. 3c). Although the  $r^2$  were identical,

448 Model 3 generated a marginal increase in the RMSD ( $1.71\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) compared to Model 1.  
449 Model 3 showed a similar bias in predicted  $A_{net}$  to Model 1, over predicting at low values and under  
450 predicting at high values of  $A_{net}$  (Table 4). Model 3, however, improved the accuracy of simulated  
451  $A_{net}$  compared to Model 2.

452

### 453 3.3. Model calibration

454

455 Model 1 maintained a good fit to the observed data, the  $r^2$  remained reasonably high at 0.76 (Fig. 3d),  
456 and the RMSD was  $5.34\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Table 4). The regression model line was not significantly  
457 different to the 1:1 line, however, the CIs surrounding the slope and intercept were substantially  
458 larger compared to the model testing stage. This suggests greater uncertainty in the fit between  
459 observed and modelled data. Model 2 generated a slight decrease in the accuracy of predicted  $A_{net}$   
460 (Fig. 3e). Although the  $r^2$  increased to 0.80, the RMSD also increased to  $7.18\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  
461 which is substantially larger than either Model 1 or Model 3. There was also significant bias in the  
462 model to over-estimate  $A_{net}$  which was less pronounced in Model 1 or Model 3 (Table 4; Fig. 3). The  
463 performance of Model 3 was almost identical to Model 1 (Fig. 3f). The  $r^2$  was 0.76 and the RMSD  
464 only marginally increased to  $5.35 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Table 4). Also, similar to Model 1, the  
465 regression line was not significantly different to the 1:1 line, and the CIs surrounding this line were  
466 similar. Compared to Model 2, Model 3 increased the accuracy of predicted  $A_{net}$ . In each model  
467 configuration, the single parameter set clearly maintained a high level of accuracy of simulated  $A_{net}$ ,  
468 however there was noticeably more variation surrounding the model predicted values compared to  
469 the use of 'curve-specific' parameter values. This is to be expected, as each model was simulating  
470 observations from across the growing season with the use of a single calibrated parameter set, and it  
471 was seen that values inferred from each  $A_{net} - c_i$  and  $A_{net} - P_{PFD}$  curve varied across the growing  
472 season. Given the sensitivity of modelled  $A_{net}$  to  $V_{max}$  in particular, an exact match between the  
473 observed and modelled data could never be expected given the seasonal variation.

474

475 Comparison of Model 1 and Model 1<sub>def</sub> (Table 4) shows the increased accuracy of using calibrated  
476 parameters as opposed to default model values. Use of the latter led to substantial under prediction of  
477  $A_{net}$ . The RMSD was increased from  $5.34\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  to  $9.42\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Table 4). These  
478 simulations using the default parameter values highlight the sensitivity of simulated  $A_{net}$  to the  
479 photosynthetic parameter  $V_{max}$ . Values of  $\alpha_{int}$ ,  $F_0$  and  $D_c$  changed marginally between the default  
480 values and calibrated parameter sets. Additionally, in a previous Monte Carlo experiment to  
481 determine suitable values for  $D_c$  and  $F_0$ , it was seen that  $A_{net}$  displayed little sensitivity to these  
482 parameters.  $V_{max}$ , however, changed significantly between simulations, with the calibrated values

483 being more than double the default value. Therefore, correct calibration of  $V_{max}$  is key to improving  
484 predictions of leaf-level  $A_{net}$ .

485

### 486 **3.4. Model validation**

487

488 The accuracy of Model 1, the simplest model, and Model 3, the best performing 'alternative' model,  
489 were validated in this section.

490

#### 491 **3.4.1. Photosynthesis**

492

493 The accuracy of simulated  $A_{net}$  was improved by Model 1 compared to Model 3 (Fig. 3g & i). Model  
494 1 is the JULES model in its original configuration and is the simplest model. The improvement in  
495 accuracy seen with Model 1 was slight, nevertheless,  $r^2$  increased from 0.72 (Model 3) to 0.77  
496 (Model 1). The RMSD decreased from 3.91  $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Model 3) to 3.36  $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$   
497 (Model 1; Table 4). Both models suggested bias in model predictions, both the regression line slope  
498 and intercept were different to the 1:1 line suggesting a tendency to over predict  $A_{net}$  at higher values  
499 and under-predict at lower values (Table 4). Although this appears slightly less pronounced in Model  
500 1, as the 95% CI surrounding the intercept is marginally smaller for Model 1.

501

#### 502 **3.4.2. Stomatal conductance**

503

504 The accuracy of simulated  $g_s$  was marginally improved in Model 3 (Fig. 3h & j). The  $r^2$  was higher in  
505 Model 3 (0.86) than Model 1 (0.82), and the RMSD was lower in Model 3 (58.23  $\text{mmol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )  
506 than Model 1 (65.45  $\text{mmol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ). In both models, the regression model slope was significantly  
507 different to one. The intercepts were not different to zero, however the CI surrounding the intercept  
508 was smaller in Model 3. Nevertheless, in both models, the accuracy of simulated  $g_s$  was high.

509

## 510 **4. Discussion**

511

### 512 **4.1. Photosynthetic parameters**

513

514 In this work, estimates of  $V_{max}$  made under the assumption of infinite  $g_i$  were significantly lower than  
515  $V_{max}$  estimated assuming finite  $g_i$ . Therefore, in fast growing poplar genotypes, such as *P. nigra* used  
516 in this study, the assumption that internal  $\text{CO}_2$  transfer is infinitely large as to have a negligible  
517 impact on the drawdown of  $\text{CO}_2$  from  $c_i$  to  $c_c$  is invalid. Under well-watered conditions, values of

518  $V_{max}$  calculated from  $A_{net}$  -  $c_c$  curves were, on average, 52 % higher than values calculated from  $A_{net}$  -  
519  $c_i$  curves in *P. nigra* SRC trees. The differences between  $c_i$  and  $c_c$  based estimates of  $V_{max}$  in this  
520 poplar genotype are large. There are no comparable studies of poplars in the literature, but Niinemets  
521 *et al.*, (2009) reported  $V_{max}$  calculated on a  $c_c$  basis was 25 % higher than on a  $c_i$  basis in young fully  
522 mature leaves of field-grown olive trees. Bown *et al.*, (2009) found mean values of  $V_{max}$  calculated  
523 on a  $c_c$  basis were 15.4 % higher in pot grown *Pinus radiata* trees. Both these studies show smaller  
524 differences than in this study. Manter and Kerrigan (2004), however, reported differences in  $c_i$  versus  
525  $c_c$  based estimates of  $V_{max}$  for 19 woody tree species that were very wide ranging, from -1.6%  
526 (*Quercus garryana*) to +92.1% (*Abies concolor*). The results from this study fall within the mid  
527 range of these values. Similar to these studies, this work highlights the impact  $g_i$  has on estimates of  
528 this important photosynthetic parameter. In contrast, accounting for  $g_i$  did not result in significantly  
529 higher estimates of  $J_{max}$  in this study. Similarly, other studies have found that differences in  $J_{max}$   
530 calculated on a  $c_i$  or  $c_c$  basis are small (Flexas *et al.*, 2007b; Niinemets *et al.*, 2009; Warren, 2008).

531

532 In this study, values of  $g_i$  for well-watered *P. nigra* trees ranged between 1.12 – 3.74  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{Pa}^{-1}$   
533 <sup>1</sup>, Flexas *et al.*, (2008) report a range of  $g_i$  from literature measured in *Populus* species of between  
534 0.4 to 5.0  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{Pa}^{-1}$ , whilst this range is very large, it at least confirms that  $g_i$  measured in this  
535 study falls well within this. The drought induced decline in  $g_i$  was significant, indicating a substantial  
536 contribution of this diffusive limitation to photosynthetic carbon gain during the two periods of water  
537 stress. During drought,  $g_i$  declined to  $0.41 \pm 0.01 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{Pa}^{-1}$  and  $0.60 \pm 0.07 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{Pa}^{-1}$   
538 in *P. nigra* trees during the first and second drought period respectively. Although values of  $g_i$   
539 reported in this study are relatively high, there is noticeable variation in the measurements.  
540 Consequently, at times it is possible  $g_i$  may be limiting to photosynthesis even under well-watered  
541 conditions. This identifies a potential target for breeding programmes to improve yields and water-  
542 use efficiency (Centritto *et al.*, 2009).

543

544 Unlike the work of Galmés *et al.*, (2007), this study found that values of  $V_{max}$  and  $J_{max}$  in re-watered  
545 trees following the first drought period were almost two-fold higher than those of control trees.  
546 Poplar species are typically pioneers of riparian ecosystems, as such, many poplar species are  
547 notoriously susceptible to, and display limited sensitivity to drought (Hall and Allen, 1997; Monclus  
548 *et al.*, 2006). In this study,  $A_{net}$  and  $g_s$  in *P. nigra* trees only declined once the soil moisture deficit  
549 was below an apparent critical threshold of soil moisture content (11-18 % vol.). This threshold  
550 response has been observed in other genotypes of poplar (Hall and Allen, 1997). In addition to  
551 reduced  $A_{net}$  and  $g_s$ , the leaves of *P. nigra* trees in this study were observed to yellow, this was  
552 followed by leaf shedding. This is a common mechanism of acclimation to drought conditions in fast  
553 growing species, and before leaf senescence, nitrogen is assimilated out of leaves (Lambers *et al.*,

554 2008). There is a strong correlation between leaf nitrogen content and photosynthetic capacity since  
555 the proteins of the thylakoids and Calvin cycle (e.g. Rubisco, the enzyme involved in CO<sub>2</sub> fixation)  
556 represent the majority of leaf nitrogen (Evans, 1989). Consequently, depletion of leaf nitrogen as a  
557 result of drought leads to photosynthetic down-regulation resulting from necessary adjustments to the  
558 biochemical photosynthetic capacity. During drought, Rubisco content and/or activity has been  
559 observed to decline as a result of either reduced leaf nitrogen content and/or different partitioning of  
560 leaf nitrogen among photosynthetic enzymes (Bota et al., 2004; Castrillo et al., 2001; Grassi and  
561 Magnani, 2005; Parry et al., 2002; Tezera et al., 2002) leading to a decline in  $V_{max}$  and  $J_{max}$ . Large  
562 increases in biochemical photosynthetic capacity upon re-watering may result from the allocation of  
563 assimilated nitrogen back to the leaves, or partitioning of more nitrogen to photosynthetic enzymes  
564 such as Rubisco, to maximise growth once favourable environmental conditions return. This strategy  
565 may be symptomatic of the life strategy of this poplar species as a fast-growing pioneer.

566

567 The observed decline in  $V_{max}$  and  $J_{max}$  during drought was apparent when measured at both  $c_c$  and  $c_i$ ,  
568 suggesting there is a biochemical limitation to photosynthetic capacity during periods of water stress.  
569 Additionally, the up-regulation of these parameters upon re-watering suggests that  $V_{max}$  and  $J_{max}$  are  
570 highly plastic. This has implications for land-surface modelling and the representation of drought  
571 within these models. Currently in the JULES  $A_{net} - g_s$  model, water stress effects on  $A_{net}$  and  $g_s$  are  
572 accounted for by applying a normalised soil moisture dependent function to  $A_{net}$  directly (Best et al.,  
573 2011). The potential (i.e. non water stressed) rate of  $A_{net}$  is calculated and then modified by the soil  
574 moisture stress function. The rate of  $g_s$  in response to water stress is then modified accordingly, and  
575 is derived from a semi-empirical function that relates  $g_s$  to modelled  $A_{net}$  and intercellular/  
576 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (Best et al., 2011). However, the results of this work suggest it may  
577 be more appropriate to apply the soil moisture stress function directly to one or more parameters in  
578 the photosynthesis model itself, such as  $V_{max}$  and  $J_{max}$ , to better represent this biochemical limitation  
579 to photosynthetic capacity during drought.

580

581 The measured reduction in  $V_{max}$  and  $J_{max}$  clearly shows there was a biochemical limitation to  
582 photosynthesis during drought in *P. nigra* trees. However, the threshold function that described the  
583 decline in  $g_s$  with increasing water stress in *P. nigra* trees in this study was mirrored by  $A_{net}$ , which  
584 clearly suggests a stomatal limitation to photosynthetic carbon gain. Further, the decline in  $g_i$  with  
585 drought suggests an additional diffusional limitation. The consensus in the literature on the main  
586 processes governing photosynthetic limitation during drought is diffusional processes at mild to  
587 moderate drought, and biochemical processes during severe water stress (Flexas et al., 2006; Flexas  
588 et al., 2004a; Flexas et al., 2008; Grassi and Magnani, 2005; Lawlor and Cornic, 2002). The current  
589 representation of water stress in the JULES  $A_{net} - g_s$  model uses a linear function to model the

590 response of  $A_{net}$  and  $g_s$  to drought, which is evidently not appropriate for all species. Moreover, the  
591 results of this work and the literature suggest that future work should consider modelling drought  
592 through biochemical and diffusional controls, since it is the sum of both these processes that  
593 determine water stressed  $A_{net}$ . Initial work by Egea et al., (2011) in this area demonstrated that in the  
594 coupled  $A_{net}$  -  $g_s$  model used in their work, it was necessary to combine both diffusional and  
595 biochemical limitations of  $A_{net}$  to accurately capture observed functional relationships between  $A_{net}$   
596 and  $g_s$  in response to drought.

597

598 For the purposes of this work,  $V_{max}$  was parameterised directly using field measurements of  $V_{max}$   
599 from *P. nigra* trees. Currently, in the JULES model,  $V_{max}$  can be parameterised with a distribution of  
600 leaf nitrogen (N) that allows  $V_{max}$  to decrease from top to bottom of the canopy (see Eq. (28) from  
601 Clark et al., 2011). However, currently, leaf N, and hence  $V_{max}$ , does not vary temporally. This means  
602 that the high plasticity observed in  $V_{max}$  in this study, when stressed trees were re-watered, would be  
603 difficult to represent in the model. In addition, other studies have shown that  $V_{max}$  decreases over the  
604 course of the growing season (Grassi et al., 2005; Niinemets et al., 1999; Wilson et al., 2001), which  
605 again is not possible to simulate without temporal variation in  $V_{max}$ , or leaf N concentration. It has  
606 been shown that modelled seasonal trends in carbon fluxes are explained best with a temporally  
607 varying  $V_{max}$  (Wang et al., 2004; Wilson et al., 2001). Therefore, a time-varying  $V_{max}$  would allow for  
608 greater plasticity in this parameter as is observed in the field. It may be possible to link water stress  
609 effects on plant  $A_{net}$  and  $g_s$  to changes in leaf N concentration, although this would likely require a  
610 prognostic model of nitrogen availability and uptake by plants. Nevertheless, results from this work  
611 and the literature suggest that the photosynthetic capacity of plants changes with time and  
612 environmental conditions, which indicates there should be greater flexibility in the temporal  
613 parameterisation of  $V_{max}$ . This may be possible to do with respect to the different plant functional  
614 types (PFTs) used in land-surface models, however, comparing the large increase in  $V_{max}$  upon re-  
615 watering observed in this study with the results of Galmés et al., (2007) shows that there is  
616 significant variation between species in the way this parameter responds to water stress and its  
617 alleviation.

618

#### 619 **4.2. Does inclusion of $g_i$ in a coupled $A_{net}$ - $g_s$ model improve the accuracy of simulated $A_{net}$ and** 620 **$g_s$ ?**

621

622 The results of model testing, calibration and validation from this work suggest there is no significant  
623 improvement in the accuracy of modelled  $A_{net}$  from the inclusion of  $g_i$  to necessitate the addition of  
624 this process to the JULES  $A_{net}$  -  $g_s$  model parameterisation (Table 4; Fig. 3). Testing, calibration and  
625 validation of the three model configurations agreed and showed that the performance of Model 1 (no

626  $g_i$ ) and Model 3 (with  $g_i$ ), were very similar. Both model configurations shared high  $r^2$  and low  
627 RMSD (Table 4). In this work,  $g_i$  was included in model configurations 2 and 3 as a constant, using  
628 the mean  $g_i$  value measured in unstressed *P. nigra* trees over the course of the experimental period.  
629 Simulated  $A_{net}$  and  $g_s$  values in Model 1 used an ‘apparent’ value of  $V_{max}$  (i.e. determined at  $c_i$ ),  
630 whereas Model 2 and 3 used a ‘true’ value of  $V_{max}$  (i.e. determined at  $c_c$ ). The true  $V_{max}$  value is  
631 estimated by explicitly modelling the extra diffusional pathway from  $c_i$  to  $c_c$ , whereas the apparent  
632 value inherently includes this information about  $g_i$ . Therefore, including  $g_i$  in the model  
633 configurations did not have a large impact on the accuracy of modelled  $A_{net}$  and  $g_s$  in the coupled  
634 model since the value of  $V_{max}$  used in each model configuration compensated for the  
635 presence/absence of this additional pathway.

636

637  $V_{max}$  is generally regarded as a good indicator of photosynthetic capacity and is considered a directly  
638 transferable parameter to calibrate models of ecosystem carbon exchange. However, given the  
639 difference between estimates of  $V_{max}$  determined at either  $c_c$  or  $c_i$ , the assumed transferability of this  
640 parameter from measurements to models and between models is not so straightforward. It must be  
641 ensured that values of  $V_{max}$  used in carbon exchange models are correct for the assumptions  
642 underlying the model (i.e. determination of photosynthesis on a  $c_i$  or  $c_c$  basis). If, for example, a true  
643  $V_{max}$  value were used to parameterise a photosynthesis model that calculated  $A_{net}$  at  $c_i$ , it is likely that  
644  $A_{net}$  would be grossly over-estimated because of the significantly higher value of  $V_{max}$ , and the lack of  
645 explicit representation of the  $c_i$  to  $c_c$  CO<sub>2</sub> transfer. This would likely propagate into errors in the  
646 prediction of ecosystem NPP at the larger scale.

647

648 Simulated  $A_{net}$  using a default model set of parameter values highlighted the sensitivity of simulated  
649  $A_{net}$  to  $V_{max}$ . In this simulation, the accuracy of predicted  $A_{net}$  was greatly reduced; the RMSD was  
650 almost two times higher the RMSD from model configurations 1 to 3 which used a calibrated value  
651 of  $V_{max}$  for *P. nigra* (Table 4). This high sensitivity to  $V_{max}$  again emphasises the importance of  
652 correctly matching values of  $V_{max}$  (i.e. true or apparent) to the correct assumptions of the  
653 photosynthesis model. Moreover, however, it suggests that the uncertainty surrounding values of  
654  $V_{max}$  used to parameterise land-surface models potentially has a much greater impact on the  
655 simulation of  $A_{net}$  than other fine-scale leaf-level processes such as internal CO<sub>2</sub> transfer. Recent  
656 work by Bonan et al., (2011) on improving canopy processes in the Community Land Model version  
657 4 (CLM4) concludes that uncertainty in the parameter  $V_{max}$  produces effects of comparable  
658 magnitude as model structural errors, and that currently,  $V_{max}$  remains a poorly constrained, model-  
659 dependent parameter.

660

661 Represented as a constant, unstressed, value of  $g_i$  in different configurations of the coupled  $A_{net}$  -  $g_s$   
662 model, the inclusion of  $g_i$  to simulate the extra diffusional pathway of  $\text{CO}_2$  from  $c_i$  to  $c_c$  during  
663 photosynthesis did not improve the accuracy of simulated  $A_{net}$  and  $g_s$ . Given the current limited  
664 understanding of  $g_i$ , it was necessary to take such an approach. Few models simulating whole plant  
665 carbon exchange consider the internal transfer of  $\text{CO}_2$  as part of their parameterisation. The ISBA-  
666 Ags land-surface model (Calvet et al., 1998), C-TESSSEL surface exchange scheme (Voogt et al.,  
667 2005), and the SPA model (Williams et al., 1996) are the few examples of models that do include  $g_i$ .  
668 In these models,  $g_i$  is also parameterised as a constant value. Similar to  $g_s$ , however,  $g_i$  is known to  
669 respond to changing environmental conditions in the long (days/weeks) and short (minutes) term  
670 (Flexas et al., 2008; Warren, 2008). A process-based implementation of  $g_i$  may therefore be more  
671 desirable, currently, however, there are significant research gaps that would make this difficult.  
672 These include the variation in  $g_i$  with temperature, the response of  $g_i$  to light and vapour pressure  
673 deficit, and scaling  $g_i$  within the canopy (Bernacchi et al., 2002; Flexas et al., 2008; Niinemets et al.,  
674 2006; Warren, 2008; Warren and Adams, 2006; Warren and Dreyer, 2006). Consequently, greater  
675 understanding of the interaction of  $g_i$  with its environment is needed before a truly process-based  
676 approach can be used to model this additional  $\text{CO}_2$  pathway. Nevertheless, this work contributes to  
677 our understanding of the impact of  $g_i$  in land-surface modelling, and raises further issues that may be  
678 of equal importance to address before consideration of additional fine-scale leaf-level processes such  
679 as  $g_i$ . These include the uncertainty surrounding values of  $V_{max}$  used in land-surface models, and the  
680 representation of water stress effects on vegetation within such models.

681

682

683

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694

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	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
$V_{max}$	x	x	x
$\alpha_{(int/app)}$	x <sub>(int)</sub>	x <sub>(int)</sub>	x <sub>(app)</sub>
$g_i$	n/a	x	x
$J_{max}$	n/a	n/a	x
$F_0$	x	x	x
$D_c$	x	x	x
Temperature dependencies	$Q_{10}$ function (see Collatz <i>et al.</i> , 1991)	Exponential function (see Sharkey <i>et al.</i> , 2007)	Exponential function (see Sharkey <i>et al.</i> , 2007)
Rubisco kinetic constants	$Q_{10}$ temp. Coefficients (see Collatz <i>et al.</i> , 1991)	Values determined <i>in vivo</i> at $c_c$ (see Sharkey <i>et al.</i> , 2007)	Values determined <i>in vivo</i> at $c_c$ (see Sharkey <i>et al.</i> , 2007)

850 **Table 1.** Differences between the three model configurations:  $V_{max}$  ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), maximum  
851 carboxylation rate of Rubisco;  $\alpha_{int/app}$  ( $\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ PAR}$ ;  $\text{mol e}^- \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ photons}$  respectively),  
852 intrinsic/apparent quantum efficiency;  $g_i$  ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$ ), the internal conductance to  $\text{CO}_2$ ;  
853  $J_{max}$  ( $\mu\text{mol e}^- \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), maximum rate of electron transport;  $F_0$ ,  $c_i/c_a$  ratio for specific humidity deficit  
854 in canopy;  $D_c$  ( $\text{kg kg}^{-1}$ ), the critical humidity deficit.  
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	Exponential function				$Q_{10}$ function		
	Value at 25 °C	c	$\Delta H_a$	$\Delta H_d$	$\Delta S$	Value at 25 °C	$Q_{10}$
Parameters used for fitting							
$K_o$ (Pa)	16582	12.3772	23.72			30000	1.20
$K_c$ (Pa)	27.238	35.9774	80.99			30	2.10
$\Gamma^*$ (Pa)	3.743	11.187	24.46			2.6	0.57
Used for normalising							
$R_d$ ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )		18.7145	46.39				2.00
$V_{max}$ ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )		26.355	65.33				2.00
$J_{max}$ ( $\mu\text{mol e}^- \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )		17.71	43.9				n/a
$g_i$ ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$ )		20.01	49.6	437.4	1.4		n/a

856 **Table 2.** Exponential and  $Q_{10}$  temperature response functions for photosynthetic parameters and  
857 Rubisco enzyme kinetic parameters (plus values at 25 °C for model fitting). Values are taken from  
858 Bernacchi *et al.*, (2002; 2001) and Bernacchi *et al.*, (2003) for the exponential functions. Values are  
859 from Collatz *et al.*, (1991) and Niinemets *et al.*, (2009) for the  $Q_{10}$  response functions: c, scaling  
860 constant;  $\Delta H_a$ , enthalpy of activation;  $\Delta H_d$  enthalpy of deactivation;  $\Delta S$ , entropy;  $K_o$ , Michaelis-  
861 Menton constant of Rubisco for  $\text{O}_2$ ;  $K_c$ , Michaelis-Menton constant of Rubisco for  $\text{CO}_2$ ;  $\Gamma^*$ ,  
862 chloroplastic  $\text{CO}_2$  photocompensation point in the absence of mitochondrial respiration;  $R_d$ , dark  
863 respiration;  $V_{max}$ , maximum carboxylation rate of Rubisco;  $J_{max}$ , maximum rate of electron transport;  
864  $g_i$  the internal conductance to  $\text{CO}_2$ . This table is partly reproduced from Sharkey *et al.*, (2007).  
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*P. nigra*

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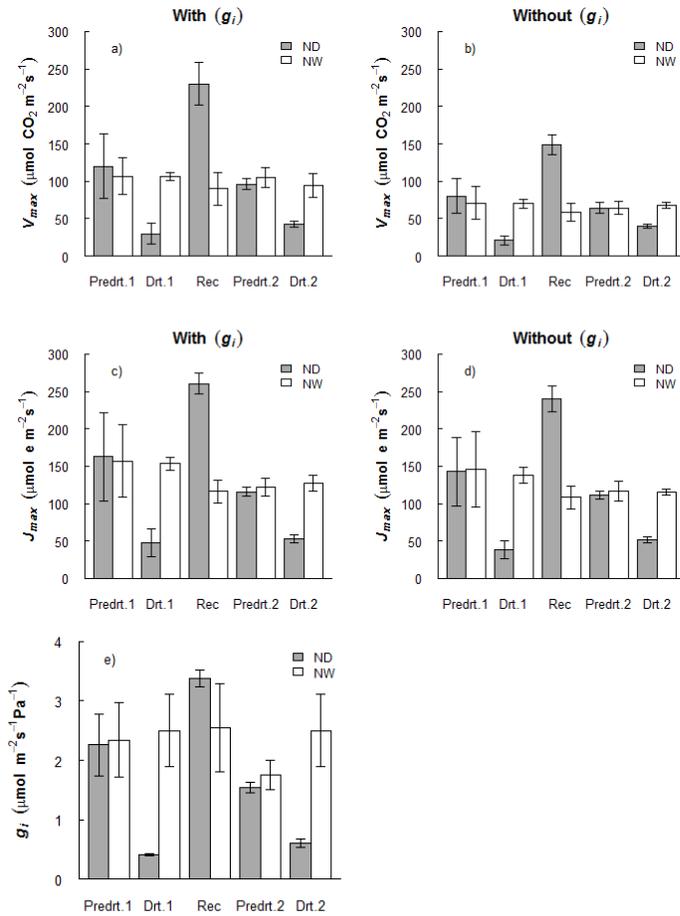
Without $g_i$	With $g_i$		$\Delta \dagger$	$\dagger$	$\blacklozenge \Delta$	$\blacklozenge \Delta \dagger$	$\blacklozenge \Delta \dagger$
	$\Delta \dagger$	$\dagger$					
$V_{max}$	$V_{max}$	$J_{max}$	$g_i$	$\alpha_{app}$	$\alpha_{int}$	$F_0$	$D_c$
27.92	59.11	61.12	1.12	0.11	0.076	0.875	0.07
100.73	120.69	220.23	3.01	0.18	0.076	0.875	0.07
96.91	38.41	56.25	1.27	0.24	0.076	0.875	0.07
110.00	186.54	259.96	2.70	0.19	0.076	0.875	0.07
81.93	114.39	171.27	3.70	0.14	0.076	0.875	0.07
63.71	97.62	144.62	2.07	0.09	0.076	0.875	0.07
64.26	107.24	143.76	1.73	0.14	0.076	0.875	0.07
82.43	126.00	143.66	3.74	0.22	0.076	0.875	0.07
42.70	51.04	90.61	1.85	0.11	0.076	0.875	0.07
50.41	92.80	114.01	1.17	0.15	0.076	0.875	0.07
47.88	80.50	97.47	1.27	0.14	0.076	0.875	0.07
67.34	109.41	130.07	2.73	0.20	0.076	0.875	0.07
77.07	124.77	137.99	2.13	0.20	0.076	0.875	0.07
60.59	63.45	105.74	3.70	0.20	0.076	0.875	0.07
70.48	109.75	136.23	2.07	0.20	0.076	0.875	0.07
73.05	109.75	139.58	1.73	0.21	0.076	0.875	0.07
<b>69.84</b> <b><math>\pm 5.47</math></b>	<b>99.47</b> <b><math>\pm 8.99</math></b>	<b>134.54</b> <b><math>\pm 13.04</math></b>	<b>2.25</b> <b><math>\pm 0.23</math></b>	<b>0.17</b> <b><math>\pm 0.01</math></b>	<b>0.076</b>	<b>0.875</b>	<b>0.07</b>

866 **Table 3.** Parameter values from each individual  $A_{net} - c_i$  and  $A_{net} - P_{PFD}$  response curve measured for  
867 *P. nigra*. Values in bold show the mean  $\pm$  S.E. The symbols indicate which model the parameter  
868 values were used in:  $\blacklozenge$  Model 1,  $\Delta$  Model 2,  $\dagger$  Model 3.  $V_{max}$  ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), maximum  
869 carboxylation rate of Rubisco estimated with and without  $g_i$ ;  $J_{max}$  ( $\mu\text{mol e}^- \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), maximum rate of  
870 electron transport;  $g_i$  ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$ ), the internal conductance to  $\text{CO}_2$ ;  $\alpha_{int/app}$  ( $\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ mol}^{-1}$   
871 quanta;  $\text{mol e}^- \text{ mol}^{-1}$  quanta respectively), intrinsic/apparent quantum efficiency;  $F_0$ ,  $c_i/c_a$  ratio for  
872 specific humidity deficit in canopy;  $D_c$  ( $\text{kg kg}^{-1}$ ), the critical humidity deficit.

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	Regression fit	$r^2$	95 % CI Intercept	95 % CI Slope	Correlation		RMSD
					$F$ (1, 190 <i>d.f.</i> )	$P$	
<b>Model Testing</b>							
Model 1	$y = -1.26 - 1.06x$	0.98	0.38 ***	0.02 ***	9412	< 0.001	1.68
Model 2	$y = 0.14 - 0.77x$	0.93	0.69 ***	0.03 ***	2413	< 0.001	5.86
Model 3	$y = -0.97 - 1.08x$	0.98	0.37 ***	0.02 ***	9678	< 0.001	1.71
<b>Model Calibration</b>							
Model 1	$y = -1.16 - 1.00x$	0.76	1.41	0.08	614.3	< 0.001	5.34
Model 2	$y = 1.08 - 0.72x$	0.80	1.13 *	0.09 ***	775	< 0.001	7.18
Model 3	$y = -1.44 - 1.09x$	0.76	1.45	0.09	594.9	< 0.001	5.35
Model <sub>_def</sub>	$y = 1.12 - 1.71x$	0.71	1.43	0.16 ***	463.1	< 0.001	9.42
<b>Model Validation</b>							
$A_{net}$					$F^\dagger$		
Model 1	$y = 1.45 - 0.84x$	0.77	0.72 ***	0.06 ***	763.4	< 0.001	3.36
Model 3	$y = 1.96 - 0.77x$	0.72	0.78 ***	0.06 ***	589.2	< 0.001	3.91
$g_s$							
Model 1	$y = 8.50 - 0.90x$	0.82	13.61	0.05 ***	1083	< 0.001	65.45
Model 3	$y = 1.89 - 0.93x$	0.86	12.32	0.05 ***	1403	< 0.001	58.23

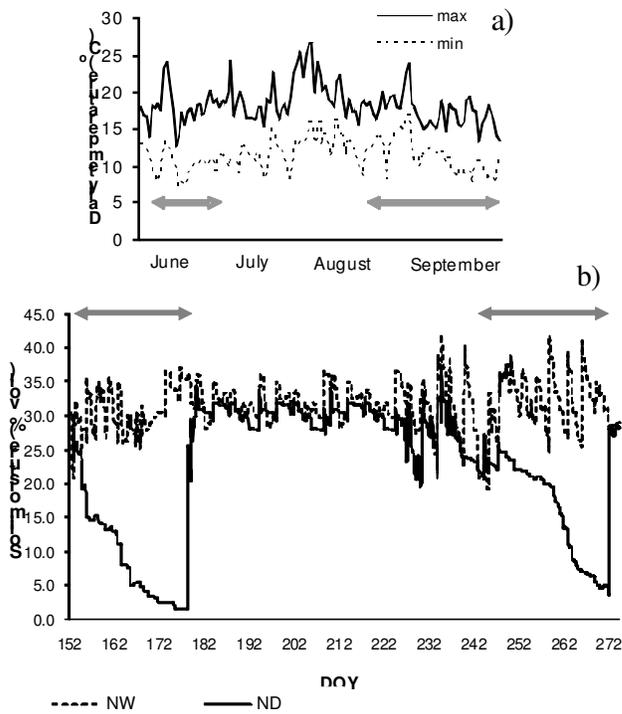
894 **Table 4.** Quantitative measures of the ability of the models to predict observed rates of  $A_{net}$  during  
895 model testing and model parameterisation. The units of RMSD are ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )  $A_{net}$  and  
896 ( $\text{mmol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) for  $g_s$ . CI refers to the 95 % confidence interval surrounding the estimate of the  
897 regression line intercept/slope. The stars indicate whether the intercept/slope is significantly different  
898 to zero/one respectively: \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*  $p < 0.05$ .  $F^\dagger$  indicates *P. nigra* is analysed on  
899 1, 230 *d.f.* for validation.



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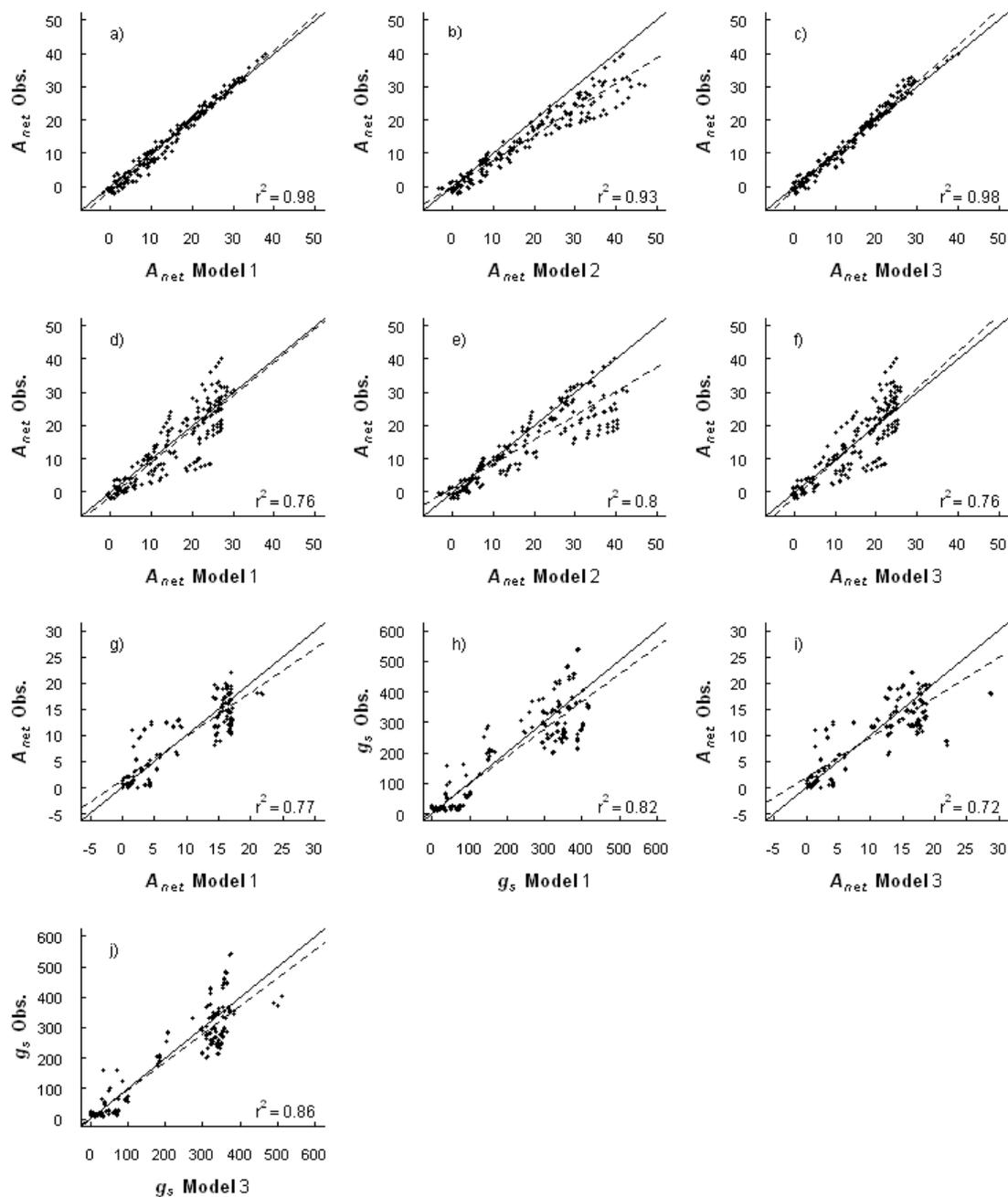
902 **Fig. 1.** Values of **a)** the maximum carboxylation velocity ( $V_{max}$ ) estimated with internal conductance  
 903 to  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $g_i$ ), **b)**  $V_{max}$  estimated without  $g_i$ , **c)** the maximum rate of electron transport ( $J_{max}$ ) estimated  
 904 with  $g_i$ , **d)**  $J_{max}$  estimated without  $g_i$ , and **e)**  $g_i$ . For each measurement period, the mean is shown  $\pm$   
 905 the standard error. ND and NW are stressed and control *P. nigra* trees respectively. Measurement  
 906 periods over the course of the experiment are denoted by; Predrt.1 = pre-drought 1 (first drought);  
 907 Drt.1 = first drought; Rec = recovery (re-watering of stressed trees); Predrt.2 = pre-drought 2 (second  
 908 drought); Drt.2 = second drought.

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911 **Fig. 2.** a) Daily maximum (solid line) and minimum (dotted line) air temperatures (°C), and b) hourly  
 912 soil moisture content (% vol.) over the experimental period (2<sup>nd</sup> June – 1<sup>st</sup> October 2008). Grey  
 913 arrows indicate the periods of imposed drought. NW, well-watered (control) *P. nigra* trees; ND,  
 914 drought treated *P. nigra* trees.  
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917 **Fig. 3.** Model testing, observed vs. predicted  $A_{net}$  ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) and  $g_s$  ( $\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) shown for *P.*  
 918 *nigra*: a, b & c) model testing d, e & f) model calibration, g, h, I & j) model validation. The  
 919 regression line (dotted line) and  $r^2$  are shown, along with the 1:1 line (solid line).

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