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Maxime Durand, Oliver Brendel, Cyril Buré, Pascal Courtois, Jean-Baptiste Lily, et al.. Impacts of a partial rainfall exclusion in the field on growth and transpiration: consequences for leaf-level and whole-plant water-use efficiency compared to controlled conditions. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 2020, 10.1016/j.agrformet.2019.107873 . hal-02949021

HAL Id: hal-02949021

<https://hal.inrae.fr/hal-02949021>

Submitted on 21 Jul 2022

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1 **TITLE**

2 Impacts of a partial rainfall exclusion in the field on growth and transpiration: consequences for
3 leaf-level and whole-plant water-use efficiency compared to controlled conditions.

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No. of figures:	8 (figure 2 in colors)
No. of Tables:	1
No of Supporting Information files:	6 (4 figures, 2 tables)

15

16 **ABBREVIATIONS**

- 17 WUE: water use efficiency
18 W_i : leaf intrinsic water use efficiency measured by leaf gas exchange (A/g_s)
19 TE: whole-plant transpiration efficiency (biomass production over water used, DM_T/WU)
20 Δ : carbon isotope discrimination
21 δ : carbon isotope composition
22 A: net CO_2 assimilation
23 C_i : internal CO_2 concentration
24 g_s : stomatal conductance to water vapour
25 WU: whole plant water use
26 E: daily whole-plant transpiration per unit area
27 VPD: vapour pressure deficit
28 $V_{c_{max}}$: maximum CO_2 carboxylation rate
29 J_{max} : maximum photosynthetic electron flux
30 A_{max} : net CO_2 assimilation measured under saturating atmospheric CO_2 concentration
31 SWC: soil water content
32 Ψ_p : predawn leaf water potential
33 H: tree height
34 DBH: diameter at 1.3 meters
35 DM_T : total aboveground dry mass
36 DM_L : leaf dry mass
37 DM_S : stem dry mass
38 TLA: total leaf area
39 LMA: leaf mass per unit area
40 SA: sapwood area

41 **ABSTRACT**

42 • Water use efficiency (WUE), oftentimes estimated as transpiration efficiency (TE): the amount
43 of biomass produced with regard to the water used, has not yet been used as a breeding trait to
44 select poplar genotypes with simultaneously high productivity and conservation of water. Before
45 its application as a selection target, evidence must be presented showing that WUE or its
46 estimators remain constant with age and across environmental conditions.

47 • We conducted a rainfall exclusion experiment in the field on two *Populus euramericana*
48 (Moench.) and two *Populus nigra* (L.) genotypes, and assessed leaf-level and whole-plant WUE
49 as well as their components and related traits. Then, we aimed to compare these results with the
50 same poplar genotypes grown in a glasshouse under contrasting water availability.

51 • Despite a reduction of soil water content and whole-plant transpiration, growth was stimulated
52 in the rainfall exclusion plot, likely as a result of an increased nitrogen assimilation. However,
53 TE values between the glasshouse and the field were similar, and genotype ranking remained
54 fairly constant for transpiration, carbon isotopic discrimination (Δ) and TE. Moreover, even
55 though the drivers of WUE in both experiments were different, increases of WUE measured as Δ
56 or TE was not associated with lower biomass production. Relatively good agreement was found
57 between Δ and TE in the field, absence of a similar correlation in the glasshouse is discussed.

58 • These results suggest that Δ may be a good proxy for TE, and could be used, both as a breeding
59 target for genotype selection in glasshouses without impacting biomass production when planted
60 in the field. However, reduced water availability modified the genotype ranking more
61 significantly than between the field/glasshouse experiments, suggesting a diversity of poplar
62 response to drought that should be considered in breeding strategies.

63 **KEYWORDS**

64 drought, Populus, stomatal conductance, transpiration, carbon isotopic discrimination

65 **1. INTRODUCTION**

66 Increased intensity and frequency of short and long-term droughts is an expected consequence of
67 global changes (Dai, 2012; IPCC, 2014), as is predicted by current global climate change models
68 (Sheffield and Wood, 2008). The amount of land exposed to droughts has risen significantly
69 around the globe since 1950 (Dai, 2011). This will likely cause enduring environmental,
70 economic and humanitarian consequences on societies and ecosystems (Touma et al., 2015).
71 Since climate and forests are interconnected (Bonan, 2008), each influencing the other, the effect
72 of a reduction of soil moisture on forests, while complex, is a key element in global change
73 research.

74 A decrease in plant productivity is commonly found as a response to a decline in soil water
75 availability (Ciais et al., 2005; Coopman et al., 2008; Monclus et al., 2006). A trend that is in
76 contrast with the foreseen rise in wood demand, driven by economic growth in conjunction with
77 energy and environmental policies (FAO, 2018). This divergence motivates plantation managers
78 to extend their cultivation of trees species such as poplars away from their natural distribution in
79 riparian ecosystems (Stobrawa, 2014), due to their high water requirements (Tschaplinski and
80 Blake, 1989), to mesophyte habitats where soil water deficits are more frequent. Maintaining or
81 increasing wood production while reducing water use appears therefore as a major challenge for
82 the coming decades (Condon et al., 2004; Hamdy et al., 2003).

83 The concept of water-use efficiency (WUE) can be defined at the whole-plant scale as the
84 transpiration efficiency (TE), the amount of biomass produced for a given amount of water used
85 over a defined period of time (Condon et al., 2002). Since biomass production is linked at the
86 leaf-level to CO₂ assimilation (A), and the majority of water is lost by leaf transpiration, driven
87 by stomatal conductance (g_s) and the leaf-to-air vapour-pressure deficit (VPD), we can define

88 WUE at the leaf level intrinsically as W_i : the ratio of A over g_s (Ehleringer, 1993; Meinzer et al.,
89 1991).

90 Currently, commercial genotypes of hybrid poplars were selected mainly on a basis of high
91 productivity, resistance to pathogens and suitable wood properties but not for high WUE
92 (Monclus et al., 2006). If WUE is to be used as a breeding trait, reducing water use must not
93 come at the expense of wood production. Given the asymptotic relationship between A and g_s at
94 the leaf level, there is a range of high g_s for which A does not improve further (Wong et al.,
95 1979). Therefore, a reduction of g_s does not always cause a similar reduction of A, making
96 improvements of W_i possible.

97 At the whole-plant scale, methods for measuring TE demand a labor-intensive account of the
98 water used, often limiting its widespread use in large-scale experiments. This makes it not
99 realistically applicable to large screenings for cultivar improvement. Indirect estimations of
100 WUE by measuring the composition of stable carbon isotopes (δ , the ratio of ^{13}C to ^{12}C in a
101 biological sample relative to an international standard, Pee Dee Belemnite) enables the
102 comparisons of δ in the sample of interest relative to the one of the atmosphere (Δ). Differences
103 of δ between the two arise from processes of discriminations which provide insights into leaf gas
104 exchange processes and may be useful as a proxy to W_i (Farquhar et al., 1982). Δ has been
105 negatively related to W_i in C_3 crops (Anyia et al., 2007; Farquhar et al., 1989) and trees (Ponton
106 et al., 2002; Roussel et al., 2009b). In poplars Δ has been negatively linked with W_i and TE in
107 black and hybrid poplars (Rasheed et al., 2015; Rasheed et al., 2013). However, some studies
108 reported a lack of correlation with TE (Devi et al., 2011; Turner et al., 2007). Δ is a leaf-level
109 assimilation rate-weighted temporal integration of the A/ g_s ratio. Unlike TE, Δ does therefore not
110 take into account possible carbon gains through photosynthetic stems, carbon losses by

111 respiration (apart from leaves during the day) and water losses at night or during the day in
112 organs other than leaves (Farquhar et al., 1989; Hubick and Farquhar, 1989). Because of the
113 different spatiotemporal integrations of WUE estimators (Δ , W_i , TE), understanding how and
114 under which circumstances they are related can be complex.

115 An important consideration regarding the usefulness of WUE in selecting genotypes for
116 improved WUE but similar or enhanced biomass production, is the stability of genotypic
117 differences across growing conditions (*i.e.* age and environmental conditions). Because TE is
118 laborious to measure, experiments are often conducted in pot experiments in glasshouses.
119 However, in controlled conditions the environment is widely different than in the field, with
120 plants rarely experiencing high winds or pathogens as well as often being limited in the range of
121 global radiation, temperature and humidity they are subjected to. Comparisons of WUE in
122 controlled and field conditions are scarce in the literature. Some studies were able to establish a
123 correlation or similar genotype ranking between growing conditions of Δ or WUE in grass
124 species (Johnson and Bassett, 1991) and crops (Anyia et al., 2007; Ehdaie et al., 1991) while
125 others reported a weak correlation (Lambrides et al., 2004) in sunflowers or not at all in three
126 wheat species (Frank et al., 1987). In oaks, field grown genotypes with high or low Δ (reflecting
127 low or high WUE, respectively) had a similar ranking in terms of Δ , A/g_s and TE when planted
128 in a glasshouse (Roussel et al., 2009a; Roussel et al., 2009b). To our knowledge and in general,
129 field estimations of TE are rare but extensive progress could be gained from understanding to
130 what degree WUE estimators from genotypes planted in glasshouses influence TE in the field.

131 In this context, we investigated the biomass production, water use, TE and Δ of poplar genotypes
132 grown in the field. Poplars were either irrigated or not, with the latter growing under a rainfall
133 exclusion system. Our aim was to compare this data with a glasshouse drought experiment using

134 the same poplar genotypes, previously published in Durand *et al.* (2019) in order to answer the
135 questions: (1) Is leaf-level and whole-plant WUE similar among well-watered poplar genotypes
136 when grown in a glasshouse or in the field? (2) Does soil water deficit modify our assessment of
137 the genotypic differences of leaf and whole-plant WUE under well-watered conditions? (3) What
138 are the underlying processes driving WUE at the leaf and whole-plant scale in controlled and
139 field conditions?

140 **2. MATERIAL & METHOD**

141 *2.1 Plant material and experimental design*

142 We used four poplar genotypes throughout the experiment. Carpaccio and I214 are commercially
143 available *Populus deltoides* × *nigra* (Moench.) clones, while 6J29 and N38 are *Populus nigra*
144 (L.) genotypes originating from natural populations in France (Drôme 6; FR-6) and Italy (La
145 Zelata; IT1), respectively. Clones were selected to compare them with a previous glasshouse
146 experiment (Durand et al., 2019) and for their diversity of drought tolerance, I214 and 6J29
147 being usually found to be drought-sensitive (Chen et al., 1997; Giovannelli et al., 2007; Muller
148 and Lambs, 2009; Viger et al., 2016). The glasshouse drought experiment is explained in details
149 in Durand *et al.* (2019). Shoot cuttings of similar diameter and length (30 cm), without roots,
150 were used in the glasshouse and the field experiment. Briefly, 64 shoot cuttings were planted in
151 10 l pots filled with a sand/peat mixture (1/1, v/v) and complemented with fertilizers (1 g l⁻¹
152 CaMg(CO₃)₂ and 20 g of Nutricote T100, 13:13:13:2 N/P/K/MgO and micronutrients, FERTIL
153 S.A.S., Boulogne-Billancourt, France). Plants were grown in a fully automated glasshouse under
154 natural light with a free range for air temperature between 15 and 25 °C at INRA-Grand-Est
155 (48°45'09.3"N, 6°20'27.6"E; Champenoux, France). Volumetric soil water content (SWC) was
156 maintained constant at 27.9% (85% of field capacity) using a weighting and watering robot at
157 least three times a day. After 60 days, waterings were stopped on half the individuals until a
158 SWC of 18.3% was reached (55% of field capacity). SWC was kept constant for 25 days using a
159 pot-specific linear regression between SWC measured by Time Domain Reflectometry (HD2,
160 IMKO, Ettlingen, Germany) and pot mass ($R^2 > 0.8$). Reference masses were adjusted each week
161 to take the plant growth into account.

162 In the field, 144 shoot cuttings were planted in June 2nd 2014 by groups of three along six
163 parallel rows spaced 5 m apart. A single randomly selected genotype was use for each group of
164 three trees. Within and between groups on a row, poplars were separated by 1 m and 4 m,
165 respectively (Fig. S1). The plantation was setup in a nursery at INRA-Nancy (48°45'09.3"N,
166 6°20'27.6"E; Champenoux, France). The plot had a 6° slope southeastward. The studied site is
167 characterized by gray marls of the Jurassic inferior (Lotharingian) era, a deep homogenous
168 swelling heavy clay soil (52% silt, 40% clay, 8% sand). On average, the soil had a pH of 7.1, an
169 organic matter content of 33.3 g kg⁻¹, a total nitrogen content of 1.96 g kg⁻¹ and a C/N ratio of
170 11.6.

171 *2.2 Rainfall exclusion setup*

172 Our objective was to establish a moderate drought, thus by design our rainfall exclusion is
173 partial, so that stomata would not be completely closed, preventing leaf gas exchanges. Each tree
174 was equipped with a water-dripping system, each dispensing 50 l per day. Waterings on the three
175 more elevated rows relative to the slope stopped in May 26th 2015, to limit surface runoff of
176 water to the rows below. In April 2016, covers 1.5 meters-wide were placed on the ground on
177 each side of the three rows where irrigation was stopped (Fig. S1), covering 85% of the total
178 ground area. Covers were two-fold, the one on top was green to mirror soil optical properties and
179 limit the rise of temperature under the covers (green canvas mulch, Triangle-outillage,
180 Ennevelin, France), the other was impervious to liquids but not to gases. Thus it prevented
181 rainfall to reach the ground without preventing soil evaporation (Berner France, Saint-Julien-du-
182 Sault, France). Gutters were placed on the downward side of each cover to evacuate water to the
183 bottom of the site (PVC, First Corp, Altare, Italy). The irrigated treatment was not covered by
184 canvas, thus received 100% of rainfalls, as well as water through irrigation.

185 1.6 and 0.9 meters-long neutron probe access tubes (ten of each, aluminum, closed at their base)
186 were installed, evenly spaced on the rows of the plot (Fig. S1), in order to quantify volumetric
187 soil water content every 10 cm in depth (TROXLER TX 4301, Research Triangle Park, NC,
188 USA). Calibration of each tube was performed following Normand (1974) by simultaneously
189 measuring at each depth the wet soil bulk density (Gamma probe, Campbell, CPN 501 DR), the
190 neutron counting speed of the soil (neutron probe) and the gravimetric soil moisture by taking
191 soil samples during the installation and subsequently measuring the ponderal water content.

192 Measurements were performed once each month, in May 17th, June 23rd, July 18th and August
193 22nd 2017. For the last three dates, predawn leaf water potentials (Ψ_p) were measured on the
194 same day (4:00 to 5:00 h, local time) on six randomly-chosen non-senescent leaves of each
195 genotype and treatment (*i.e.* 48 leaves) with a Scholander pressure bomb (SKPM-1400, Skye
196 Instruments LTD, Llandrindod Wells, UK).

197 2.3 Sapflow

198 Whole-tree water use (WU) was inferred from sapflow measurements using the thermal
199 dissipation technique. Probes 20 millimeters-long were installed on July 11th 2017 20 cm above
200 ground in the main stems in the North direction to estimate the sapflow per unit of sapwood area
201 (*i.e.* sap flux density), following Granier (1985; 1987). Six probes per genotype and treatment
202 were used (*i.e.* 48 probes). Probes were enclosed in aluminum sheets to protect them from direct
203 radiation and rainfall. Data collection started on July 16th and sensors were removed on
204 September 3rd 2017. WU per tree was then computed by scaling sap flux density from transversal
205 cross-section at sensor height since harvests revealed the absence of heartwood, which is
206 common in young trees.

207 *2.4 Monitoring and harvests*

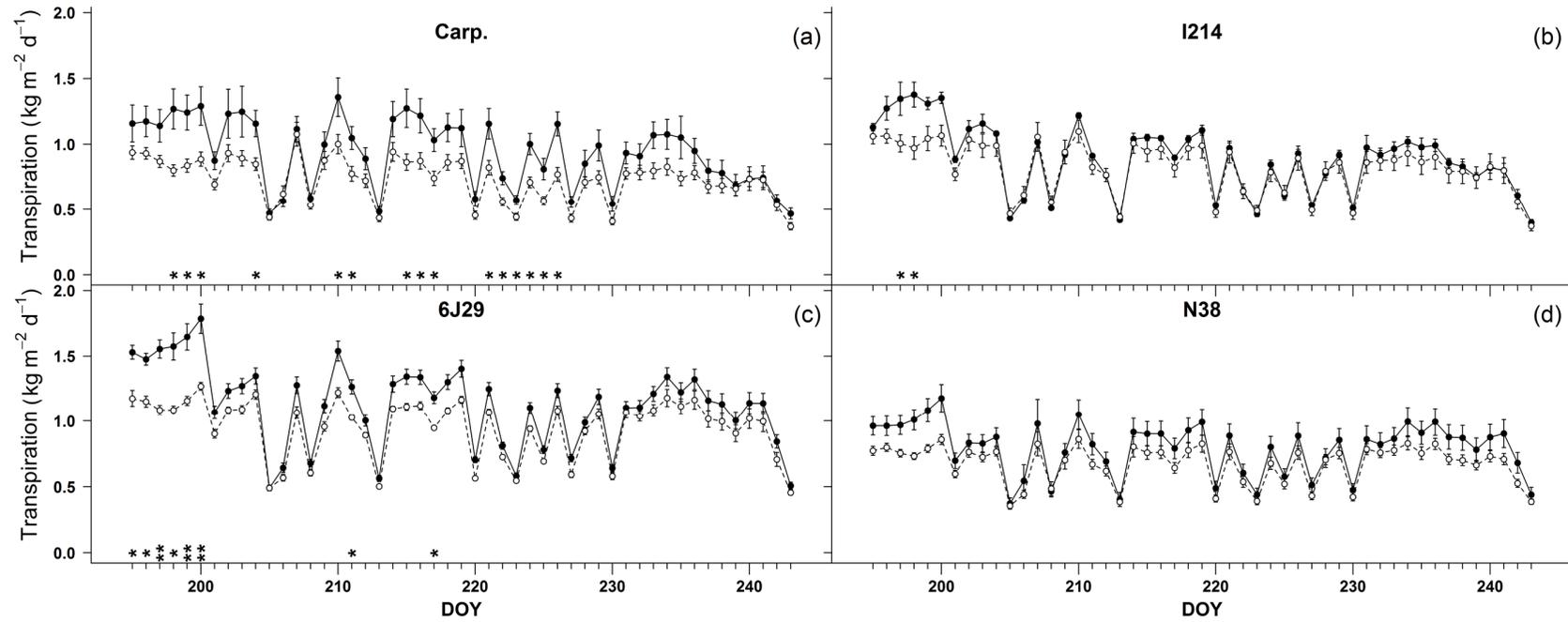
208 Meteorological variables were measured in a meteorological station 190 m away from the
209 planted poplars. The station was equipped with a data logger (Campbell 21X, Campbell
210 Scientific Ltd), temperature and atmospheric relative humidity (Vaisala HMP45), global
211 radiation (pyranometer Kipp and Zonen CMP6), wind speed (contact anemometer, Campbell
212 Scientific A100) and rainfall sensors (tipping bucket rain gauge, Precis Mecanique 3030).

213 Diameter at 1.3 m (DBH) and height (H) of each tree were measured once each week during the
214 growing season (from budbreak to leaf fall) from 2015 to 2017. In April 18th 2016 and
215 September 4th 2017 harvests were conducted to measure the above-ground biomass (DM_T),
216 separated in leaves (DM_L) and stems (DM_S). The first harvest was done before bud-break so only
217 the woody biomass was measured. Every tree used for the sapflow experiment was used in the
218 second harvest. One of each group of three trees was used for each harvest (*i.e.* 48 trees). Leaves
219 and stems were oven-dried at 60°C until they reached a constant dry mass to estimate the
220 biomass in each compartment before the covers were installed and after the sapflow experiment.
221 Using an exponential relationship between H and woody biomass for each genotype (root-mean-
222 square error: $RMSE < 26$ g), we were able to compute the biomass in April 2016 for each tree
223 harvested in September 2017 (Fig. S2a). From this data, we fitted a second order polynomial
224 relationship between tree height and woody biomass for each combination of genotype and
225 treatment ($RMSE < 229$ g). This enabled us to estimate the woody biomass of each of the 48
226 trees used for sapflow measurements at the start of the sapflow experiment using their measured
227 height at the time (Fig. S2b). TE was estimated from estimation of above-ground biomass
228 between the start and the end of the sapflow experiment, divided by WU. As such it did not

229 integrate root biomass. TE from the glasshouse experiment was also re-calculated without the
230 root biomass to be able to consistently compare the two experiments.

231 Total leaf area (TLA) was estimated twice during the experiment. The first one was performed in
232 the first week of July 2017, right before the sapflow sensors installation. We fitted a third order
233 polynomial between the number of leaves and the total leaf area (estimated from leaf width, Fig.
234 S3) on each branch for two trees of each combination of genotype and treatment (*i.e.* eight trees).
235 Then we estimated the total leaf area on 19 trees by counting the number of leaves on each
236 branch and summing the computed leaf area of the tree. A second estimation of leaf area was
237 performed by fitting a linear relationship between leaf mass and area from 50 leaves per tree
238 harvested in September 2017 ($R^2 > 0.94$, Li-3000A, LI-COR, Lincoln, NE, USA). Using this
239 relationship we were able to estimate leaf mass per area (LMA), TLA from DM_L on the 48
240 harvested trees in September 4th and DM_L from the TLA estimated at the start of the sapflow
241 experiment (July 11th).

242 Since the sapwood area (SA), calculated from DBH measurements, was highly correlated with
243 TLA (using both dates for each genotype, $R^2 > 0.91$), we estimated TLA for each tree and each
244 day of the sapflow experiment from weekly measurements of SA, using a smoothing spline
245 function. Furthermore, by dividing for each day and each individual, their daily WU (from
246 sapflow measurements) by their daily estimated TLA, we were able to calculate daily whole-
247 plant transpiration per unit area (E, Fig. 1).



248

249 **Figure 1.** Daily transpiration per unit leaf area of two *Populus deltoides* × *nigra* Carpaccio (a), I214 (b) and two *Populus nigra* genotypes 6J29
 250 (c), N38 (d) under irrigation or a rainfall exclusion setup in the field in 2017. Black and white circles are respectively for irrigated and rainfall
 251 exclusion trees (means ± standard error). Significant differences between water treatments for each date is shown (n = 6). *, *P* < 0.05; **, *P* <
 252 0.01; ***, *P* < 0.001; ns, not significant.

253 *2.5 Leaf gas exchange*

254 At the end of July 2017, we assessed the photosynthetic capacity by measuring CO₂ assimilation
255 and internal CO₂ concentration (C_i) along discrete steps of [CO₂] using the LI-6800 portable
256 photosynthesis system (LI-COR, Lincoln, NE, USA). Conditions inside the leaf cuvette was as
257 follows: leaf temperature of 25°C, saturating irradiance of 326.1 W m⁻², leaf-to-air VPD of 1.6
258 kPa, fan speed of 10000 rpm, flowrate of 1000 μmol s⁻¹ with an overpressure of 0.1 kPa. Before
259 starting, we waited for g_s to reach a steady-state. Infrared gas analysers were matched after every
260 step changes of [CO₂] which were in order: 400, 1800, 1500, 1200, 1000, 800, 600, 400, 250,
261 200, 150, 100, 50, 0 and 400 ppm. Maximum carboxylation rate (V_{cmax}), maximum electron-
262 transport rate (J_{max}) and maximum CO₂ assimilation at saturating C_i (A_{max}) were estimated using
263 the “plantecophys” R package (Duursma, 2015; R Core Team, 2019), using the Michaelis-
264 Menten constants for CO₂ (K_c), and O₂ (K_o) and the CO₂ photo-compensation point (Γ*) of
265 Bernacchi *et al.* (2001).

266 On July 18th and August 22nd 2017 we monitored diurnal dynamics of gas exchange (A and g_s)
267 on a cloudless sky from 5:30 and 6:30 h to 15:30 and 16:30 h (universal time), respectively. To
268 avoid confusion, W_i in this article only refers to the ratio of A/g_s, measured by leaf gas exchange.
269 This was done on six replicates per genotype and treatment (*i.e.* 48 individuals) on sun leaves
270 facing the south-east direction using two intercalibrated portable photosynthesis systems (Li-
271 6200, LI-COR Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA).

272 2.6 Carbon isotope discrimination

273 Mature leaves were sampled in the field at the end of August 2015 and 2017 and in the
274 glasshouse during the leaf sampling described in Durand et al. (2019). In the field, leaves grew
275 under the rainfall exclusion setup, but they were fully mature before the start of the drought in
276 the glasshouse. All sampled leaves were oven-dried for 48 h at 70°C and grounded into a fine
277 powder. 1.0 ± 0.1 mg subsamples were weighed into tin capsules and δ was measured with a
278 continuous-flow elemental analyzer (Carlo Erba Analyzer-NA1500, Rodano, Italy) coupled with
279 an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Thermo-Finnigan; Delta S, Bremen, Germany). $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$
280 ratios were computed relative to the Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite international standard. Isotopic
281 composition of the air in the glasshouse was -9.61‰ , derived from isotopic compositions of two
282 *Zea mays* (L.) planted in the glasshouse at the time, following Marino & McElroy (1991). In the
283 field the isotopic composition of the air was -8.73‰ , estimated from its evolution over the past
284 three centuries following Bonal et al. (2011). Isotopic discrimination was estimated as $\Delta = (\delta_{\text{air}} -$
285 $\delta_{\text{leaf}}) / (1 + \delta_{\text{leaf}} / 1000)$. Farquhar et al. (1982) showed that Δ is negatively related to the ratio of
286 internal to atmospheric CO_2 concentration (C_i/C_a), which at the same time reflects A/g_s and thus
287 W_i , when taking into account fractionation processes by CO_2 diffusion through stomata and at the
288 sites of carboxylation by Rubisco.

289 2.7 Statistics

290 Statistics were done using R 3.5.2 (R Core Team, 2019, data used is available in Table S2).
291 Significant differences among the four genotypes and the two treatments was tested with type
292 two Two-Way ANOVA. A similar but repeated ANOVA design with genotypes and treatments
293 as between-subjects factors and the time as within-subjects factor was used for diurnal gas
294 exchange and daily whole-plant transpiration ($n = 5-6$). Differences of soil water content was

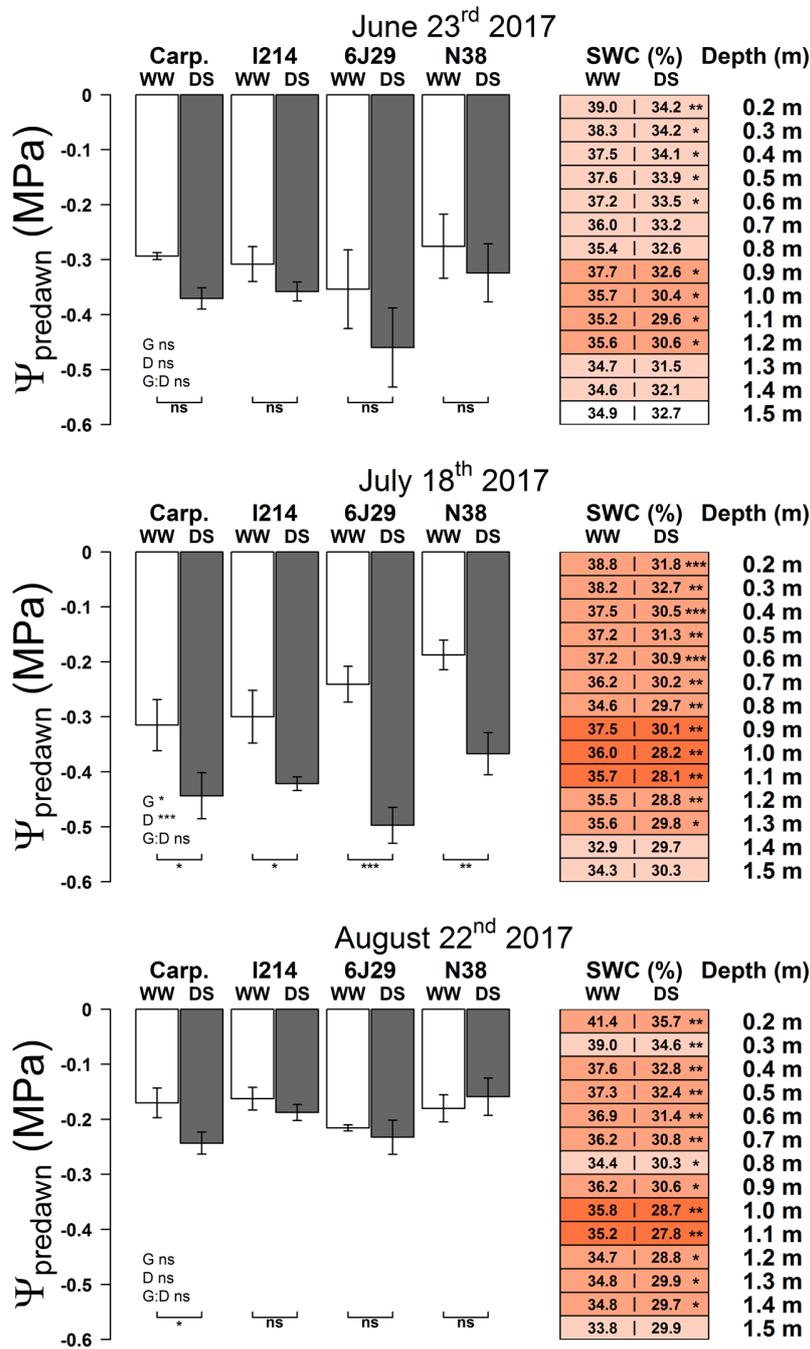
295 tested with Student tests at every depth ($n = 10$). Correlations were computed by performing
296 linear regressions ($n = 48$), using genotype-treatment means when comparing field and
297 glasshouse data because pairing could not be established between trees ($n = 8$). Normality,
298 homoscedasticity and sphericity were checked by Shapiro-Wilk normality tests, Levene tests and
299 Mauchly tests, respectively. When sphericity was violated we used the Greenhouse-Geisser
300 correction. Significant differences between modalities of each factors were tested by post-hoc
301 contrast analysis and P values were adjusted to control for the false discovery rate. Significant
302 differences were considered at $P < 0.05$ for all tests.

303 **3. RESULTS**

304 *3.1 Water relations in the field*

305 Our experimental rainfall exclusion design proved successful in reducing the SWC. On May 17th,
306 the mean SWC ranged from 47 to 35.9% from 20 to 150 cm in depth with no significant
307 difference between the irrigated and the rainfall exclusion plot at any depth (data not shown).
308 Both plots showed a decrease of SWC on June 23rd, which was larger in the rainfall exclusion
309 plot. This led to significant differences of SWC between plots in most of the first 120 cm ($P <$
310 0.04, except at 70 and 80 cm, Fig. 2). During the following month SWC continued to decrease in
311 the rainfall exclusion plot causing larger differences between the two plots in the first 130 cm (P
312 < 0.007) on July 18th. Ψ_p was also significantly lower in the rainfall exclusion trees than in the
313 irrigated for all genotypes ($P < 0.02$). More rainfall during the month of August (see Fig. S4c
314 between DOY 200 and 233: July 19th to August 22nd 2017) led to a small increase of SWC on
315 both plots in the first 100 cm on August 22nd. Nonetheless, we found significant differences of
316 SWC between plots in the first 140 cm. Ψ_p was however similar between irrigated and rainfall
317 exclusion trees, except for Carpaccio which showed a more negative Ψ_p in the rainfall exclusion
318 trees than in the irrigated ones (Fig. 2).

319

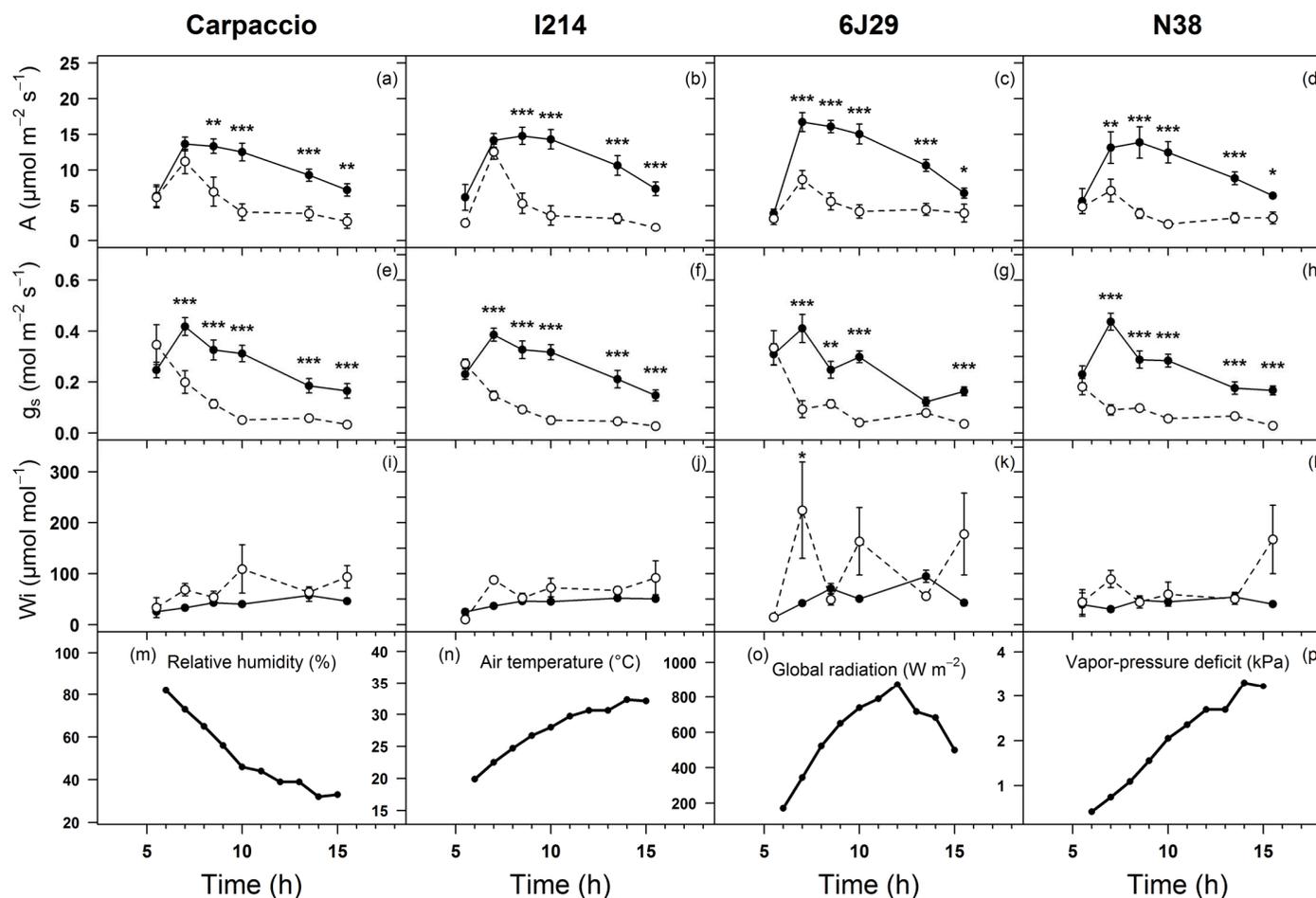


320

321 **Figure 2.** Predawn leaf water potential (left side) of two *Populus deltoides* × *nigra* (Carpaccio and I214)
 322 and two *Populus nigra* genotypes (6J29 and N38) and soil water content (right side) under irrigation or a
 323 rainfall exclusion setup in the field at three dates. Values reported are means ± standard error (n = 6).
 324 WW and DS is for irrigated and rainfall exclusion trees respectively (white and gray bars respectively).
 325 Mean soil water content (SWC) is shown for each 10cm in depth with stronger colors indicating stronger
 326 differences between treatments. Results of two-way ANOVA are given for main effects (G: genotype; D:
 327 water treatment) and interaction (G:D). Significant differences between water treatments are reported. *,
 328 P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01; ***, P < 0.001; ns, not significant.

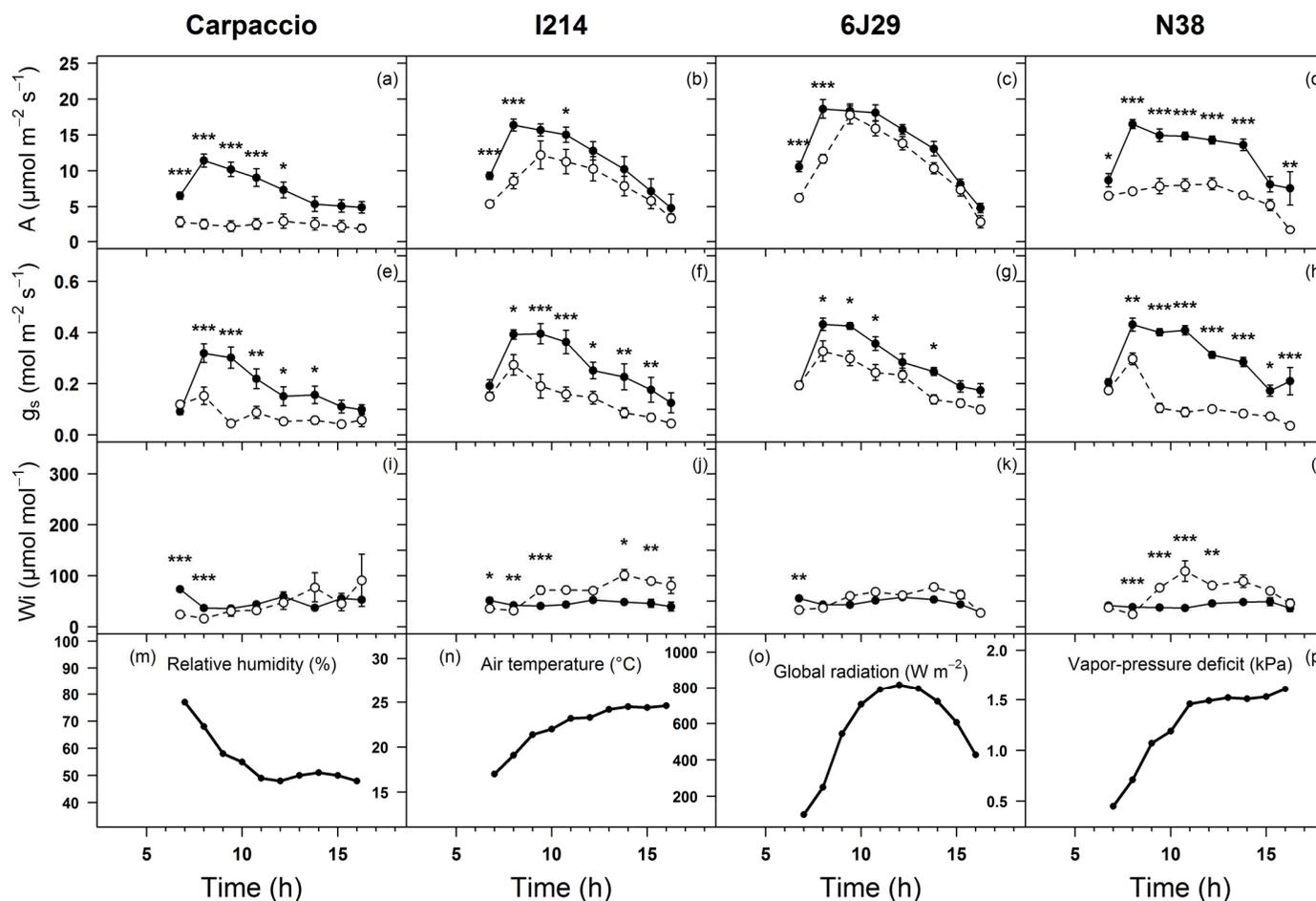
329 Sapflow sensors recorded the flow of ascending sap in the main stem, from which we can infer
330 plant water use (WU), between July 14th and August 31st (Table 1). Whole-plant water use was
331 higher in the rainfall exclusion hybrid poplars than in the irrigated by 34 and 58% for Carpaccio
332 and I214 ($P < 0.03$). However, whole-plant daily transpiration per leaf area (E) was overall
333 significantly lower in rainfall exclusion trees. Post-hoc comparisons were able to detect
334 significant differences of E in Carpaccio and 6J29 but not in I214 and N38 (Table 1). When
335 investigating differences of E on specific days, transpiration in the irrigated trees was almost
336 always higher than in the rainfall exclusion trees for every genotype (Fig. 1). Despite this, we
337 were able to detect significant differences of transpiration between treatment only in 15, 2, 8 and
338 0 days for Carpaccio, I214, 6J29 and N38 respectively, because of the high individual variability
339 of whole-plant transpiration.

340 At the leaf level, diurnal gas exchange measurements on July 18th and August 22nd showed a
341 clear reduction of g_s in the rainfall exclusion plot compared to the irrigated one for every
342 genotype throughout the day except early in the morning ($P < 0.001$, Fig. 3e-h, Fig. 4e-h). On
343 July 18th, stomata of the rainfall exclusion trees, regardless of genotype, were completely closed
344 from 10:00 until the end of the day, while those of the irrigated trees continued to decrease
345 during the afternoon. Overall, g_s was similar between the four genotypes at this date ($P = 0.45$).
346 On August 22nd, Carpaccio rainfall exclusion trees were almost completely closed throughout the
347 day similarly to July 18th (Fig. 4e), while the other three genotypes showed different extents at
348 which g_s was reduced under rainfall exclusion with N38 exhibiting the second strongest and 6J29
349 the smallest reduction of g_s . Overall, g_s was also reduced in the rainfall exclusion trees but to a
350 smaller degree than on July 18th (Fig. 4e-h).



351

352 **Figure 3.** Gas-exchange dynamic on a cloudless sky of two *Populus deltoides* × *nigra* Carpaccio (a, e and i), I214 (b, f and j), and two *Populus*
 353 *nigra* genotypes 6J29 (c, g and k), N38 (d, h and l) under irrigation or a rainfall exclusion setup in the field. (a) to (d): net CO₂ assimilation (A),
 354 (e) to (h): stomatal conductance to water vapour (g_s) and (i) to (l): intrinsic water use efficiency (W_i), computed as the ratio of A/ g_s . Relative
 355 humidity (m), air temperature (n), global radiation (o) and atmospheric vapour-pressure deficit (p) in the field are also reported. Black and white
 356 circles are respectively for irrigated and rainfall exclusion trees (means ± standard error). Time is displayed in universal time (local time –2h). All
 357 measurements were done on the 199th day of the year (July 18th), including the meteorological data. Significant differences between water
 358 treatments for each time is shown (n = 4-6). *, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01; ***, P < 0.001; ns, not significant.



359

360 **Figure 4.** Gas-exchange dynamic on a cloudless sky of two *Populus deltoides* × *nigra* Carpaccio (a, e and i), I214 (b, f and j), and two *Populus*
 361 *nigra* genotypes 6J29 (c, g and k), N38 (d, h and l) under irrigation or a rainfall exclusion setup in the field. (a) to (d): net CO₂ assimilation (A),
 362 (e) to (h): stomatal conductance to water vapour (g_s) and (i) to (l): intrinsic water use efficiency (W_i), computed as the ratio of A/g_s. Relative
 363 humidity (m), air temperature (n), global radiation (o) and atmospheric vapour-pressure deficit (p) in the field are also reported. Black and white circles are respectively for irrigated and rainfall exclusion trees (means ± standard error). Time is displayed in universal time (local time –2h). All
 364 measurements were done on the 234st day of the year (August 22nd), including the meteorological data. Significant differences between water
 365 treatments for each time is shown (n = 4-6). *, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01; ***, P < 0.001; ns, not significant.
 366

367 *3.2 Biomass and photosynthesis in the field*

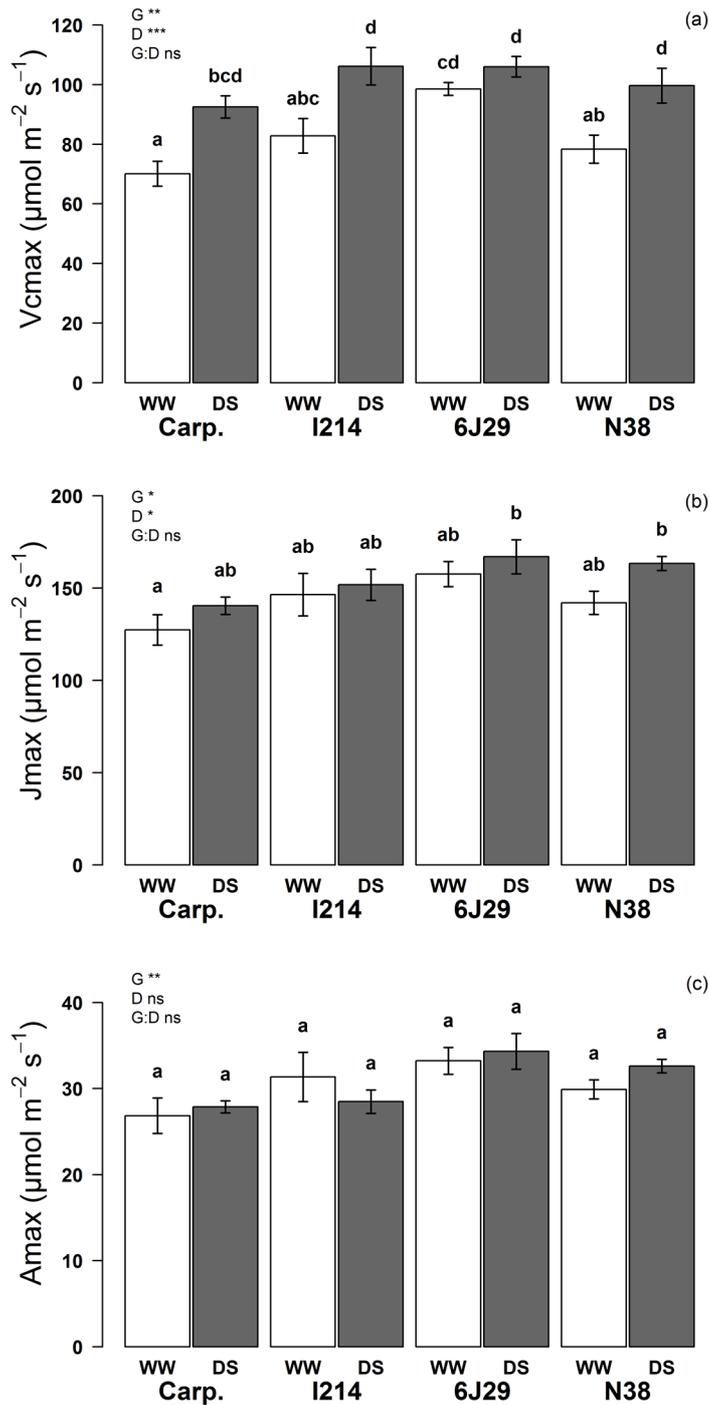
368 At the whole-plant scale at the end of the growth period in 2017, we found
369 H, DM_S and DM_L to be overall higher in the rainfall exclusion than in the irrigated trees ($P <$
370 0.001 , Table S1). While post-hoc comparisons were not always able to show significant
371 genotypic differences, the lack of interaction between the genotype and treatment effect ($P >$
372 0.05) highlights this result is not dependent on genotype. In April 2016, there were no such
373 differences between treatments ($P > 0.19$). Growth and biomass accumulation in 2017 show
374 these differences were in part, established during the summer 2017 (Table 1). Growth was 23 to
375 60% higher for height and 43 to 154% for DBH in the rainfall exclusion than in the irrigated
376 trees, depending on genotype. DM_T and DM_S, although similar among genotypes, were also
377 more than doubled in the rainfall exclusion than in the irrigated trees with a mean total biomass
378 accumulation of 2.43 kg in the former and 1.04 kg in the latter. Moreover, even though LMA
379 was 8.4 to 12.6% higher in the rainfall exclusion than in the irrigated trees depending on
380 genotype ($P < 0.001$), both DM_L and TLA were overall higher in the rainfall exclusion trees as
381 well (DM_L: 203 and 446 g, TLA: 2.05 and 3.94 m², for irrigated and rainfall exclusion trees
382 respectively).

Genotype	Treatment	H (cm)	DBH (mm)	DM _T (g)	DM _S (g)	DM _L (g)	TLA (m ²)	LMA (g mm ⁻²)	WU (kg)	E (kg m ⁻² d ⁻¹)	TE (g kg ⁻¹)	Δ ¹³ C (‰)
Carpaccio	irrigated	53 ± 11 a	3.3 ± 0.1 a	911 ± 531 a	684 ± 425 a	239 ± 58 a	2.59 ± 0.71 ab	0.95 ± 0.05 a	429 ± 163 ab	1.00 ± 0.09 de	2.26 ± 0.79 a	21.57 ± 0.55 e
	rainfall excl.	85 ± 17 cde	8.4 ± 1.9 d	2571 ± 1125 b	1960 ± 742 b	622 ± 324 b	5.79 ± 3.59 b	1.03 ± 0.07 ab	574 ± 63 c	0.73 ± 0.12 ab	4.02 ± 1.61 bc	18.72 ± 0.70 b
I214	irrigated	56 ± 9 ab	5 ± 1.6 ab	954 ± 407 a	638 ± 343 a	190 ± 50 a	2.06 ± 0.66 ab	0.95 ± 0.09 a	346 ± 74 a	0.89 ± 0.04 bcd	2.55 ± 0.57 ab	21.09 ± 0.34 de
	rainfall excl.	88 ± 21 de	8.5 ± 1.9 d	2563 ± 798 b	2133 ± 706 b	446 ± 266 ab	3.99 ± 2.55 ab	1.06 ± 0.07 bc	545 ± 88 bc	0.82 ± 0.16 abc	5.07 ± 0.65 cd	18.66 ± 0.43 b
6J29	irrigated	80 ± 10 cd	5.5 ± 0.4 bc	1216 ± 506 a	928 ± 399 a	235 ± 139 a	2.18 ± 1.37 ab	0.95 ± 0.11 a	391 ± 99 a	1.13 ± 0.12 e	3.39 ± 1.55 ab	20.74 ± 0.38 d
	rainfall excl.	98 ± 11 e	8.5 ± 1.3 d	2437 ± 497 b	2021 ± 341 b	415 ± 223 ab	3.48 ± 1.97 ab	1.07 ± 0.03 bc	468 ± 52 abc	0.95 ± 0.05 cd	4.98 ± 1.17 cd	19.39 ± 0.41 c
N38	irrigated	71 ± 8 bc	4.9 ± 0.6 ab	1084 ± 360 a	802 ± 405 a	148 ± 117 a	1.36 ± 1.07 a	1.05 ± 0.03 b	345 ± 84 a	0.80 ± 0.19 abc	2.93 ± 0.69 ab	19.99 ± 0.42 c
	rainfall excl.	99 ± 10 e	7 ± 1.7 cd	2139 ± 558 b	1840 ± 591 b	300 ± 199 ab	2.50 ± 1.74 ab	1.14 ± 0.02 c	351 ± 71 a	0.67 ± 0.09 a	5.75 ± 0.41 d	17.95 ± 0.93 a
	Genotype	0.001	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	0.001	0.002	< 0.001	0.049	< 0.001
<i>P</i> value	Treatment	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.001	0.005	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
	Interaction	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	0.014

383 **Table 1** Growth, biomass production and water use of two *Populus deltoides* × *nigra* (Carpaccio and I214) and two *Populus nigra* genotypes (6J29 and N38)
384 under irrigated or a rainfall exclusion setup in the field. Values reported are means ± standard deviation of the difference between the end and the start of the
385 sapflow experiment (July 16th to September 3rd, n = 6). ANOVA factors were considered significant when p < 0.05. Letters show significant differences by
386 post-hoc contrast among the eight groups (4 genotypes + 2 water treatments). H, plant height increment; D, main stem diameter increment at 1.3 m; DM_T, total
387 dry mass increment; DM_S, stem dry mass increment; DM_L, leaf dry mass increment; WU, cumulated water use; TLA, total leaf area increment; E, average
388 daily whole-plant transpiration per unit leaf area; TE, transpiration efficiency; Δ¹³C, carbon isotopic discrimination from bulk leaves; ns, not significant.

389 At the leaf level, photosynthetic capacity measurements showed a significant increase in
390 $V_{c_{max}}$ by 32, 28 and 27% in Carpaccio, I214 and N38 rainfall exclusion trees compared the
391 irrigated ones (Fig. 5a, $P = 0.009, 0.006, 0.385, 0.007$ for Carpaccio, I214, 6J29 and N38
392 respectively). J_{max} had a comparable overall increase in the rainfall exclusion trees but post-
393 hoc comparisons were not able to show genotypic-specific differences (Fig. 5b). A_{max} did not
394 show any significant difference between treatments (Fig. 5c, $P = 0.67$). Genotypic differences
395 were significant and similar among the three parameters tested ($P = 0.002, 0.011$ and 0.009
396 for $V_{c_{max}}, J_{max}$ and A_{max} respectively). Carpaccio had the lowest $V_{c_{max}}, J_{max}$ and A_{max} while
397 6J29 had the highest both under irrigated and rainfall exclusion conditions. Leaf nitrogen
398 content were also increased in the trees that were not irrigated in 2015 and under rainfall
399 exclusion in 2017, when compared to the irrigated ones ($P < 0.001$ in both cases, Fig. S5).

400 CO_2 assimilation during our gas exchange diurnals was significantly lower under rainfall
401 exclusion. On July 18th, A decreased in the rainfall exclusion compared to the irrigated trees
402 from 7:00 h onwards in the black poplars and from 8:30 h onwards in the hybrid poplars (Fig.
403 3a-d). On August 22nd, the reduction of A in the rainfall exclusion plants was still visible but
404 to a smaller degree depending on the concurrent decrease of g_s (Fig. 4a-h). I214 and 6J29
405 exhibited a decrease of A under rainfall exclusion, mostly in the early morning, which was
406 much smaller than in Carpaccio and N38.



407

408 **Figure 5.** Photosynthetic capacity data of two *Populus deltoides* × *nigra* (Carpaccio and I214) and
 409 two *Populus nigra* genotypes (6J29 and N38) under irrigation or a water exclusion setup in the field.
 410 a) Maximum rate of rubisco carboxylation (V_{cmax}) b) maximum rate of electron transport (J_{max}) c)
 411 maximum CO_2 assimilation under saturating CO_2 concentration (A_{max}). Values reported are means ±
 412 standard error (n = 6). WW and DS is for irrigated and rainfall exclusion trees respectively (white and
 413 gray bars respectively). Results of two-way ANOVA are given for main effects (G: genotype; D:
 414 water treatment) and interaction (G:D). Significant differences between water treatments are reported.
 415 *, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01; ***, P < 0.001; ns, not significant.

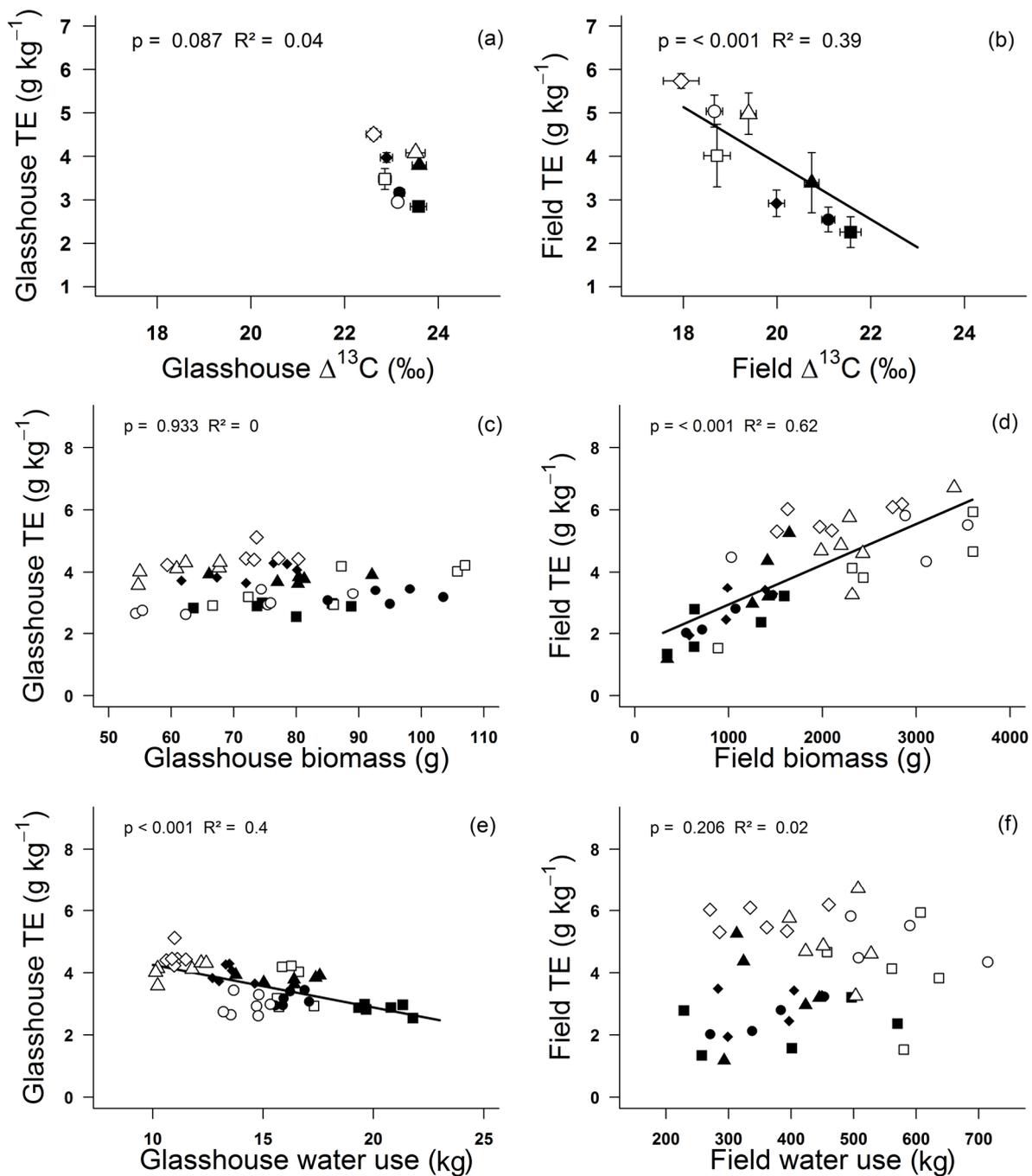
416 *3.3 Water use efficiency and comparisons between the glasshouse and field experiment*

417 Regarding the intrinsic WUE (W_i) during the gas exchange diurnals on July 18th, we found
418 almost no significant differences between treatments (Fig. 3i-l, Fig. 4i-l). Similarly to A and
419 g_s , no genotypic difference of W_i was found at this date. On August 22nd, W_i tended to be
420 higher in the early morning in irrigated trees because of a similar g_s but higher A while the
421 reverse was found in the afternoon in I214 and N38, resulting from a larger decrease of g_s
422 than A when comparing them to the irrigated trees.

423 As a consequence of the respectively large increase in biomass accumulation and the
424 moderate increase in water use in the rainfall exclusion poplars when compared to the
425 irrigated ones, TE was overall 78% higher under rainfall exclusion than in irrigated conditions
426 (2.78 and 4.96 g kg⁻¹, for irrigated and rainfall exclusion respectively). On the contrary, Δ was
427 significantly reduced by 13, 12, 6.5 and 10% in the rainfall exclusion trees when comparing to
428 the irrigated trees, for Carpaccio, I214, 6J29 and N38 respectively. 6J29 showed the smallest
429 increase of TE (47%) and the smallest decrease of Δ (6.5%) under rainfall exclusion.
430 Furthermore, we found a negative correlation between of TE and Δ among treatments and
431 genotypes in the field ($P < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.39$, Fig. 6b), driven mainly by the treatment. In the
432 glasshouse, TE and Δ were not significantly correlated ($P = 0.087$, $R^2 = 0.04$, Fig. 6a).
433 Components of TE were also different under controlled and field conditions. In the field, TE
434 was not correlated with water use ($P = 0.21$, Fig. 6f), but positively and strongly with biomass
435 accumulation ($P < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.62$, Fig. 6d) while the reverse was true in the glasshouse
436 experiment. TE was negatively correlated with water use ($P < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.40$, Fig. 6e) but
437 not with biomass accumulation ($P = 0.93$, Fig. 6c). Similar results were found when taking
438 the treatment into account using an ANCOVA statistical design.

439

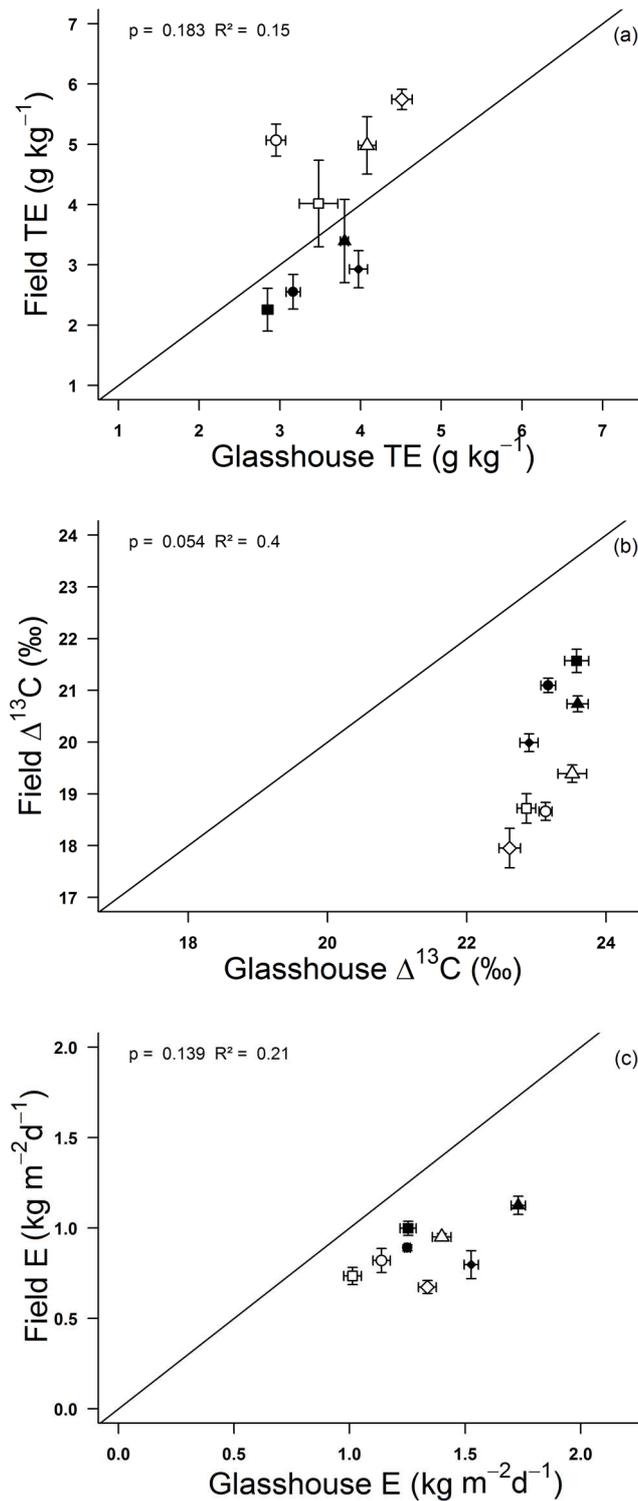
440 Unexpectedly, despite this divergence we found TE values in the field to be close to the one
441 we found in the glasshouse experiment (Fig. 7a). Only the TE of N38 well-watered trees was
442 significantly lower in the field than in the glasshouse ($P = 0.02$) whereas the TE of water-
443 limited I214 and N38 were significantly higher in the field than in the glasshouse ($P < 0.004$).
444 By contrast, Δ in the field was always lower than in the glasshouse for every combination of
445 genotype and treatment ($P < 0.001$), by 11 and 19% on average for irrigated and rainfall
446 exclusion trees, respectively (Fig. 7b). This was similar to the lower E in the field than in the
447 glasshouse (Fig. 7c), also exhibited by every combination of genotype and treatment, by 24,
448 28, 34 and 49% for Carpaccio, I214, 6J29 and N38 respectively ($P < 0.001$).



449

450 **Figure 6.** Correlations on two *Populus deltoides* × *nigra* (Carpaccio and I214) and two *Populus nigra*
 451 genotypes (6J29 and N38) under well-watered or reduced water availability either in a glasshouse or a
 452 field experiment. a) Transpiration efficiency and carbon isotopic discrimination in the glasshouse
 453 experiment b) Transpiration efficiency and carbon isotopic discrimination in the field experiment. c)
 454 Transpiration efficiency and biomass production in the glasshouse d) Transpiration efficiency and
 455 biomass production in the field e) Transpiration efficiency whole-plant water use in the glasshouse f)
 456 Transpiration efficiency and whole-plant water use in the field. For a) and b), values reported are
 457 means ± standard error (n = 6). Closed and open symbols are for well-watered and reduced water
 458 availability, respectively. Squares, circles, triangles and diamonds are for Carpaccio, I214, 6J29 and
 459 N38, respectively. *P* and *R*² values are shown.

460 Correlations of traits between the glasshouse and the field are difficult considering no pairing
461 can be established between trees. Correlations using genotypes and treatments means has the
462 effect of reducing the number of observations by a factor of 6 (equal to the number of
463 replicates in each conditions), thus reducing the statistical power to detect significant
464 correlations, even though each calculated mean is informed by six replicates. As a result,
465 these correlations of TE, Δ and E between the field and glasshouse experiment were not
466 statistically significant ($P = 0.18, 0.05$ and 0.14 , respectively) despite the discernable positive
467 trends and the relatively strong correlation coefficients ($R^2 = 0.15, 0.40$ and 0.21 ,
468 respectively, Fig. 7). However, by randomly pairing greenhouse and field data by genotype
469 and treatment a million times (similar to a bootstrap with replacement), we found 92, 97 and
470 92% of P values under the 0.05 threshold and R^2 of 0.22, 0.23 and 0.19 for TE, Δ and E,
471 respectively (Fig. S6). Thus genotype ranking between the field and glasshouse experiment
472 was fairly maintained. Typically, only one genotype switched order between the field and
473 glasshouse conditions. For example, from lowest to highest TE in irrigated trees, the order
474 Carpaccio, I214 and 6J29 was similar in the field and in the glasshouse (Fig. 7a). Likewise in
475 rainfall exclusion trees, the order Carpaccio, 6J29 and N38 was found in both conditions.
476 Overall, N38 frequently had the highest TE and always had the lowest Δ in both conditions
477 and for both treatments (Fig. 7a-b). On the contrary, Carpaccio irrigated trees had the lowest
478 TE and the highest Δ in both conditions. 6J29 also had the highest E in both conditions for
479 both treatments (Fig. 7c).



480

481 **Figure 7.** Correlations between a glasshouse and a field experiment on two *Populus deltoides* × *nigra*
 482 (Carpaccio and I214) and two *Populus nigra* genotypes (6J29 and N38) under well-watered or reduced
 483 water availability. a) Transpiration efficiency b) Carbon isotopic discrimination c) Mean daily whole-
 484 plant transpiration per unit leaf area. Closed and open symbols are for well-watered and reduced water
 485 availability, respectively. Squares, circles, triangles and diamonds are for Carpaccio, I214, 6J29 and
 486 N38, respectively. Values reported are means ± standard error (n = 6). *P* and *R*² values are shown. The
 487 straight continuous line shows the 1:1 regression line.

488 **4. DISCUSSION**

489 Water use efficiency has a major potential to help select and breed new individuals with
490 similar or increased biomass production and lower water consumption. However, estimating
491 WUE is not an easy task. Further research is needed to better understand if and under which
492 conditions different spatiotemporally-integrated estimators of WUE are related. In this study
493 we investigated the water use efficiency and its components at the leaf and whole plant scale
494 of four poplar genotypes in the field under irrigation or a rainfall exclusion setup. This data
495 was also compared to a preceding study in a glasshouse (Table S3) in order to explore the
496 links between leaf-level and whole-plant WUE in each condition and across them.

497 *4.1 Rainfall exclusion effect in the field*

498 A major and unexpected result of our study was the increased biomass and leaf area
499 production in the rainfall exclusion trees as compared to the irrigated ones. The moderate but
500 significant reduction of soil water content from June to August, and lower predawn leaf water
501 potential in July, we found in the rainfall exclusion plot (Fig. 2) is usually associated with a
502 reduced biomass production in poplar genotypes, driven by stomatal closure (Monclus et al.,
503 2006). In our experiment at the leaf level, stomatal opening was substantially lower in the
504 rainfall exclusion trees (Fig. 3-4), as theory predicts, decreasing both transpiration and CO₂
505 assimilation. Despite this, the higher biomass production was most likely amplified by the
506 exponential growth with increased tree size, as larger trees have a higher total leaf area and
507 thus a higher number of photosynthetic organs. The increased photosynthetic capacity (V_{cmax}),
508 mitigating the reduced CO₂ assimilation prompted by stomatal closure may have also
509 contributed, to a lower degree, to the higher biomass production in the rainfall exclusion plot
510 compared to the irrigated one. The observed leaf-level lower transpiration per unit area (E)
511 when water is limited was also seen at the whole plant scale, with different magnitude of

512 decrease depending on genotype and environmental conditions (Fig. 1). A number of factors
513 could explain these genotypic differences, such as leaf aging (Reich, 1984), differences of
514 stomatal density in newly developing leaves or with leaf position in the canopy (Ceulemans et
515 al., 1995) and differences in the physiology of shaded leaves compared to sun leaves
516 (Campany et al., 2016).

517 Another consideration is the increased nitrogen content in leaves in 2015 which was
518 maintained in 2017 (Fig. S5). While total soil nitrogen content was not significantly different
519 between plots in 2017, it does not rule out that nitrogen in other forms (NO_3^- , NH_4^+) may have
520 been present in different concentrations. Nitrogen availability is known to stimulate growth
521 (Gruber and Galloway, 2008), and has a complex relationship with soil water availability. As
522 the soil dries, the rate of both diffusion and mass flow to the roots is reduced leading to a
523 decrease of permeability of roots to nutrients (Oren and Sheriff, 1995), counteracted
524 somewhat by the increased concentration of the soil solution (Nye et al., 1979). On the other
525 hand mineralization and nitrification can be reduced under lower water availability (Larsen et
526 al., 2011). In maize roots, response to drought resulted in an overexpression of nearly all
527 genes involved in nitrogen uptake and assimilation (Wang et al., 2017). When plant growth is
528 mainly limited by water, theory suggests that allocating more nitrogen per leaf area would
529 raise CO_2 assimilation when stomatal conductance and leaf area production declines
530 (Farquhar et al., 2002), which is in accordance with our results of higher nitrogen content and
531 photosynthetic capacity in the rainfall exclusion trees in the field. Mooney *et al.* (1978) found
532 an increased nitrogen content in eucalyptus species living in dryer habitats and other reports
533 show a similar results under drought in beech (Sánchez-Gómez et al., 2013) and willows
534 (Weih et al., 2011), driven by a higher leaf mass per area under drought, which is similar to
535 our findings (Table 1, Fig. S5). Higher LMA is often related to higher photosynthetic rates,

536 and higher nitrogen content per unit area and mass (Wright et al., 2004). In our experiment,
537 nitrogen content as a percent of leaf dry mass was higher in the rainfall exclusion trees, and
538 the leaves of these trees had a higher mass per leaf area, both contributing to the observed
539 higher photosynthetic capacity in the rainfall exclusion trees. This increased nitrogen content
540 was hypothesized to be a functional adaptation rather than a passive effect of reduced water
541 availability (Weih et al., 2011), potentially relevant as a breeding target for poplars.

542 This response may have interacted with the covers installed in the rainfall exclusion plot.
543 Placing covers permeable to water on the soil, like traditional mulch, is known to increase soil
544 water content (Walsh et al., 1996b), a rise in temperature of 1 to 2°C in the firsts 10 cm of soil
545 but not in the air 5 cm above the surface (Ham et al., 1993; Walsh et al., 1996b), and an
546 increased nitrate content in the soil because of the lower weed competition and lower leaching
547 (Walsh et al., 1996a). This results in an increased growth and biomass production when
548 compared to grass or mixed flora covers. In our setup the soil water content was reduced
549 under the covers (Fig. 2), which may have been promoted by increased soil evaporation
550 induced by the increase in soil surface temperature. However the amount of reflected light and
551 rise in temperature caused by the covers is largely dependent on the cover color (Hostetler et
552 al., 2007) which was green in our case, similar to the grass cover in the irrigated plot.

553 Poplar roots can have associations with ectomycorrhizal and with vesicular-arbuscular
554 mycorrhizal fungi but can be limited by high soil nitrogen and temperature (Block et al.,
555 2006), and by low water availability (Nickel et al., 2017). However, root systems were found
556 to be related to the main stem diameter in poplars, depending on soil fertility (Fortier et al.,
557 2015). Following this assumption would lead to a probable higher root biomass in the rainfall
558 exclusion trees than in the irrigated ones, even if mycorrhization may be limited under the
559 canvas. Carbon allocation to roots was found to be increased both under drought

560 (Tschaplinski et al., 1998) and under low soil nitrogen (Fortier et al., 2015). Furthermore,
561 under high nitrogen but low water availability, root proliferation was enhanced in different
562 poplar hybrids (Ibrahim et al., 1998), increasing levels of carotenoids, proline, ABA and
563 consequently, drought tolerance (Song et al., 2019). This has the additional result of
564 decreasing leaf gas exchange (Liu and Dickmann, 1996; Song et al., 2019). These
565 mechanisms may have strengthened the drought tolerance of the rainfall exclusion trees
566 subjected to repeated summer droughts.

567 *4.2 Carbon isotope discrimination as a leaf-level estimator of transpiration efficiency*

568 Numerous studies have found a negative relationship between Δ and WUE in C_3 crops and
569 trees species, in accordance with theory (see: Brugnoli and Farquhar, 2000; Roussel et al.,
570 2009b). More specifically, Δ measured in soluble sugars was negatively correlated with TE in
571 six hybrid poplar genotypes (Rasheed et al., 2013) and several black poplar genotypes
572 (Bogeat-Triboulot et al., 2019; Durand et al., 2019; Rasheed et al., 2015) grown in a
573 glasshouse. This is in agreement with our study showing the negative relationship between Δ
574 and TE across hybrid and black poplar genotypes in the field (Fig. 6b). In the glasshouse, our
575 lack of correlation may be explained by a number of factors. First, the sampled leaves were
576 already mature at the start of the drought so that leaf gas exchange measurements could be
577 performed on the same leaves (Durand et al., 2019). Thus, a significant part of the carbon
578 analyzed (*e.g.* carbon used for cell walls) was assimilated under well-watered conditions,
579 before the drought, and dampens the drought signal integrated into short turnover molecules
580 such as sugars and starch. This likely led to the observed small range (2 ‰) of Δ values in the
581 glasshouse. The trend may have been driven by leaf starch and soluble sugars as they are
582 known to more closely reflect the daily assimilation-weighted average of C_i over atmospheric
583 CO_2 concentrations (C_i/C_a ; Brugnoli *et al.*, 1988). Second, Δ and TE involve different spatial

584 and temporal integration. At the leaf level the link between Δ and C_i/C_a could be modified by
585 cuticular and mesophyll conductance (Brugnoli and Farquhar, 2000), fractionation during
586 respiration and photorespiration (Gillon and Griffiths, 1997), leaf physiology (*e.g.* sun/shade)
587 and leaf age causing different metabolisms and chemical compositions (Gutierrez and
588 Meinzer, 1994). All of which are susceptible to have genotypic-specific variations and/or be
589 altered under stress. At the whole-plant level, Δ does not include carbon lost through
590 respiration by non-photosynthetic organs during the day, or at night by the whole plant. It
591 does not take into account the water losses during the night through stomata or through other
592 organs during the day (Farquhar et al., 1989; Hubick and Farquhar, 1989). 6J29 appears to
593 deviate to the upper right in Fig. 6 both in controlled and field conditions by having the
594 highest combined TE and Δ , the latter being usually associated with lower WUE. A possible
595 explanation may be that the higher photosynthetic capacity found in this genotype may result
596 from differences of mesophyll conductance compared with the other genotypes, shifting the
597 relation between Δ and TE as well.

598 For WUE to be considered as a breeding trait, the optimization of plant water use should not
599 be at the cost of biomass production. In our glasshouse experiment TE was negatively
600 correlated with water use but not with biomass production (Fig. 6c-e), suggesting genotypes
601 with higher TE associated with reduced stomatal conductance without a concurrent and
602 proportional reduction in assimilation rate. The rainfall exclusion carried out likely shifted
603 within the asymptotic part of the A- g_s relationship (Wong et al., 1979) thereby decreasing
604 water use at a trivial cost of CO₂ assimilation. Many studies reported a positive (Bogeat-
605 Triboulot et al., 2019; Rasheed et al., 2013; Voltas et al., 2006) or an absence of correlation
606 (Marron et al., 2005; Monclus et al., 2005; Monclus et al., 2006; Rasheed et al., 2015)
607 between WUE estimators and biomass production in black and hybrid poplars as well as in

608 other species (Hubick et al., 1986; Virgona and Farquhar, 1996), both enabling the possibility
609 of selecting genotypes with improved TE and productivity. Negative correlations between
610 WUE and productivity are somewhat counter intuitive since for a given WU, the higher the
611 productivity, the higher WUE. For the correlation to be negative, a higher productivity has to
612 be met with an even higher WU so that WUE gets lower despite the higher productivity. Thus
613 it predicated upon a negative correlation between TE and water use so that increments of
614 biomass production would require a larger increment in water use. Such cases exists, often
615 under drought (Ray et al., 1999; Read et al., 1991), or when comparing genotypes with
616 contrasting growth adaptation to dryer climates (Zhang et al., 2004), but not necessarily
617 (Ehdaie and Waines, 1993). However in the field, the more productive trees were also under
618 reduced water availability, hence under stomatal control (Fig. 3-4) which led to higher TE and
619 lower Δ when compared with the not water-limited but less productive trees.

620 *4.3 Stability of transpiration efficiency across growing conditions*

621 Genotypic means of TE were mostly similar between in the field and the glasshouse
622 experiment. This is in agreement with investigations on the stability of poplar genotype
623 ranking with age (Rasheed et al., 2011) and different VPD treatments (Rasheed et al., 2015),
624 which make part of the distinctions between our glasshouse and field experiment. For black
625 poplars specifically, N38 when grown in a glasshouse and in the field tend to have a lower TE
626 and a higher Δ than 6J29, in agreement with previous drought experiments (Bogeat-Triboulot
627 et al., 2019; Durand et al., 2019). These findings of relatively stable transpiration efficiency
628 across wildly different environmental conditions and age suggests that selecting poplar
629 genotypes with higher WUE and higher productivity in glasshouses may be viable for poplar
630 plantation in the field. By contrast Δ , while finding significant correlations by combinatory
631 methods (Fig. S6), was systematically and largely higher in the glasshouse than in the field,

632 similar to previous studies on wheat (Ehdaie et al., 1991) and barley (Anyia et al., 2007). This
633 difference is not likely to be related to differences in the isotopic composition of the air as it
634 was 1‰ higher in the field ($\delta = -9.61$ and -8.73% for glasshouse and field air respectively).
635 Accurate estimations of air δ are difficult, and soil respiration may have interacted with the air
636 to further modify δ depending on species and environmental conditions (Ghashghaie et al.,
637 2001; Xu et al., 2004). Apart from differences of leaf sampling between experiments, these
638 differences of Δ may be rooted in differences of g_s between the two environments. Genotype
639 ranking of whole-plant daily transpiration was also fairly maintained, except for N38 between
640 the glasshouse and the field experiment. While comparisons of VPD experienced between the
641 two growing conditions are difficult, diurnal gas exchange data performed in similar
642 instrumental conditions, and during solar noon in summer on a cloudless sky, suggests a
643 lower g_s in the field (Fig. 3-4) as compared to the glasshouse (Durand et al., 2019), further
644 reduced by the decreased water availability. Overall, the sustained growth and low reduction
645 in predawn water potential measured under rainfall exclusion compared to trees under
646 irrigation, suggests that the reduced water availability in the field was moderate (Granier et
647 al., 1999). This is similar to our glasshouse experiment because the relative extractable water
648 was higher than the 40% threshold. The lower g_s in the field would contribute to a higher W_i
649 and thus a lower Δ , in agreement with our findings. Little is known about the stability of
650 WUE between field and glasshouse experiment, with only a handful of studies showing either
651 a strong (Ehdaie et al., 1991), a weak (Lambrides et al., 2004), a trend (Johnson and Bassett,
652 1991) or no correlation at all (Frank et al., 1987).

653 In conclusion, even though the environmental conditions and age of the poplars in the
654 glasshouse and the field experiment were largely different, the absolute values of transpiration
655 efficiency were similar, and the genotype ranking was fairly maintained. There was good

656 agreement between TE and Δ in the field, suggesting that leaf processes are the main drivers
657 of whole-plant TE. Thus, measurements of Δ could be used to estimate WUE instead of the
658 more laborious measurement of TE. Moreover, while TE was driven by water used in the
659 glasshouse experiment and biomass production in the field, both results suggest that
660 genotypes could be selected for both higher biomass production and lower water use. More
661 research is needed, for example in other poplar genotypes, to investigate the effect of the
662 environment during growth on WUE in poplars so that a consensus can be reached. Other
663 factors may play a major role. For example differences of stomatal dynamics along the day
664 has been found to impact whole-plant transpiration in poplar genotypes, partly linked to
665 variation in stomatal density and sizes (Durand et al., 2019). Under field and glasshouse
666 conditions, stomatal density, size and speed and their relation to transpiration and WUE may
667 be different. The higher wind speed in the field than in the glasshouse may lead to widely
668 different boundary layer conductance of the leaf, changing the relation between variations of
669 environmental conditions and leaf transpiration. This highlights the need for future studies to
670 investigate the drivers behind these contrasting patterns so that the opportunity to breed plants
671 for improved water use does not remain beyond our reach forever.

672 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

673 This work was conducted in the frame of the WATBIO (Development of improved perennial
674 biomass crops for water-stressed environments), a collaborative research project funded from
675 the European Union's Seventh Programme for research, technological development and
676 demonstration under grant agreement No. 311929. The research received funding from the
677 French National Research Agency through the Laboratory of Excellence ARBRE (ANR-12-
678 LABXARBRE-01). M.D. received a Ph.D. scholarship from the Lorraine Région and EFPA
679 (INRA research department). We thank the nursery of Guéméné Penfao for providing the
680 euramerican poplar cuttings. The authors acknowledge Marc Villar and Catherine Bastien
681 from the UR0588-INRA Unit for access to the referenced *Populus nigra* clones 6J29 and N38
682 as well as Joseph Levillain, David Cohen and Irène Hummel for their technical help.

683 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

684 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or
685 financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

686 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION**

687 MD, CB, JBL, PC and DLT contributed to the data collection. MD, OB, AG and DLT
688 contributed to the experimental design. MD, OB, DLT, JBL and AG contributed to data
689 analysis and interpretation. All contributors were involved in the writing of the manuscript.

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973 **SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

974 **Table S1** Growth and biomass production of the four poplar genotypes, Carpaccio, I214, 6J29
975 and N38 before and after the rainfall exclusion experiment.

976 **Table S2** Dataset used for statistical analysis (see separate Excel file).

977 **Table S3** Summary of the conditions during the measurement period in the glasshouse and
978 field experiment.

979 **Fig. S1** Experimental design for the poplar plantation in the field.

980 **Fig. S2** Allometries for wood biomass estimation in irrigated or rainfall exclusion Carpaccio
981 trees (*Populus deltoides* × *nigra*) in the field

982 **Fig. S3** Allometries for total leaf area estimation in irrigated or rainfall exclusion Carpaccio
983 trees (*Populus deltoides* × *nigra*) in the field.

984 **Fig. S4** Weather data during the 2017 growth season, from April 1st to August 31st 2017.

985 **Fig. S5** Soil and leaf nitrogen content.

986 **Fig. S6** Distribution of R² and *P* values from linear regression between glasshouse and field
987 values of TE, Δ and E randomly paired for each genotype and treatment.

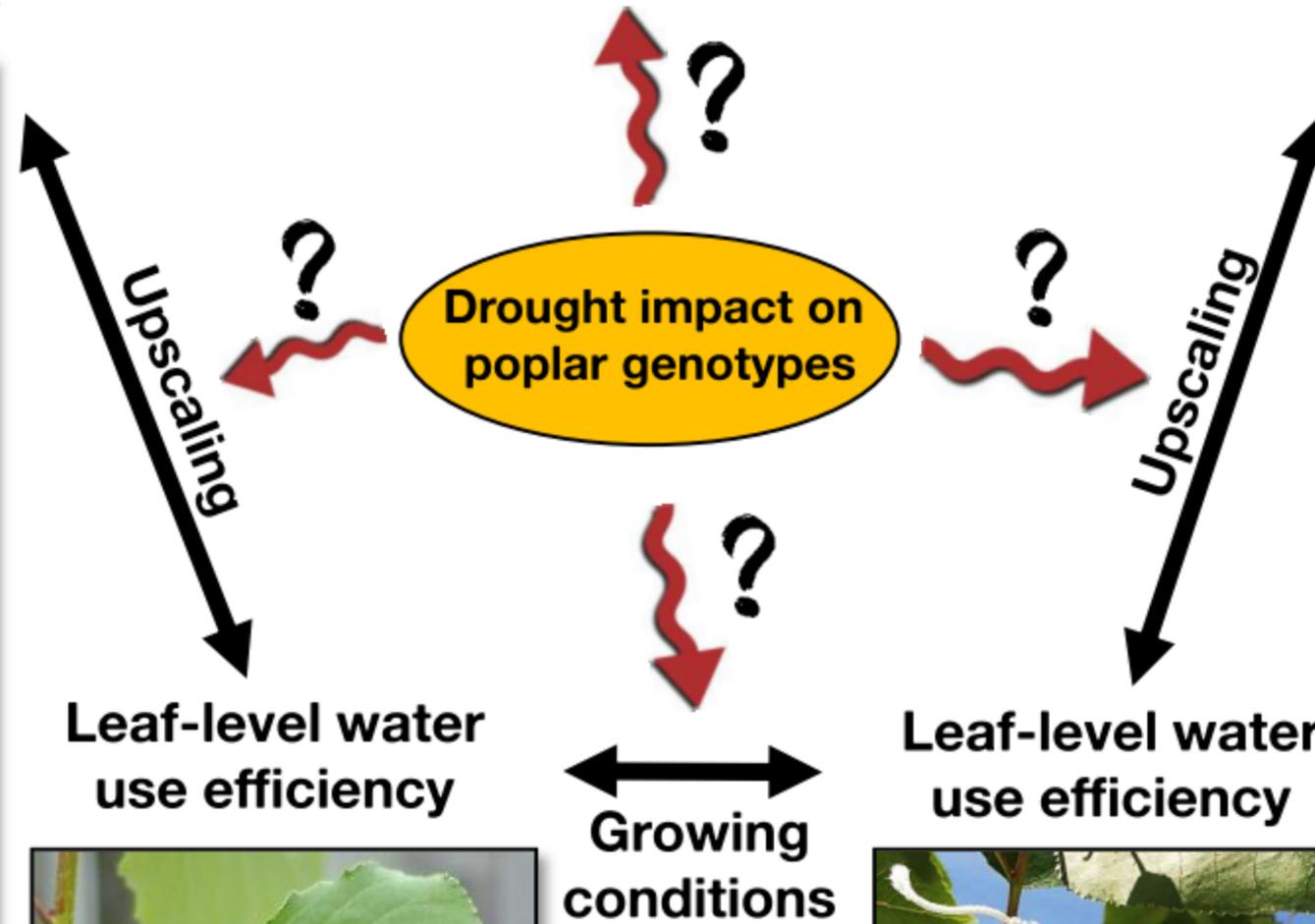
Glasshouse

Field

Whole-plant
transpiration efficiency

Whole-plant
transpiration efficiency

Growing conditions



Leaf-level water
use efficiency

Leaf-level water
use efficiency

Growing
conditions

