



1 Validation of a coupled $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane} - \delta^{18} O_{sugar}$ paleohygrometer

approach based on a climate chamber experiment

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29 Keywords

hydrogen stable isotopes, oxygen stable isotopes, hemicellulose sugars, leaf waxes, leaf water
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32

33 Abstract

34 The hydrogen isotopic composition of leaf wax-derived biomarkers, e.g. long chain *n*-alkanes ($\delta^2 H_{n}$ alkane), is widely applied in paleoclimatology research. However, a direct reconstruction of the isotopic 35 composition of paleoprecipitation based on $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ alone can be challenging due to the overprint of 36 37 the source water isotopic signal by leaf-water enrichment. The coupling of $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ with $\delta^{18}O$ of hemicellulose-derived sugars ($\delta^{18}O_{sugar}$) has the potential to disentangle this effect and additionally 38 39 allow relative humidity reconstructions. Here, we present $\delta^2 H_{n-\text{alkane}}$ as well as $\delta^{18}O_{\text{sugar}}$ results obtained 40 from leaves of the plant species Eucalyptus globulus, Vicia faba var. minor and Brassica oleracea var. 41 *medullosa*, which were grown under controlled conditions. We addressed the questions (i) do $\delta^2 H_{n}$ 42 $_{alkane}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{sugar}$ values allow precise reconstructions of leaf water isotope composition, (ii) how 43 accurately does the reconstructed leaf-water-isotope composition enables relative humidity (RH) 44 reconstruction in which the plants grew, and (iii) does the coupling of $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ and $\delta^{18} O_{sugar}$ enable a 45 robust source water calculation?

46 For all investigated species, the alkane $n-C_{29}$ was most abundant and therefore used for compound-47 specific $\delta^2 H$ measurements. For Vicia faba, additionally the $\delta^2 H$ values of $n-C_{31}$ could be evaluated 48 robustly. With regard to hemicellulose-derived monosaccharides, arabinose and xylose were most 49 abundant and their δ^{18} O values were therefore used to calculate weighted mean leaf δ^{18} O_{sugar} values. Both $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ and $\delta^{18} O_{sugar}$ yielded significant correlations with $\delta^2 H_{leaf-water}$ and $\delta^{18} O_{leaf-water}$, 50 51 respectively ($r^2 = 0.45$ and 0.85, respectively; p < 0.001, n = 24). Mean fractionation factors between 52 biomarkers and leaf water were found to be -156‰ (ranging from -133 to -192‰) for $\epsilon_{n-alkane/leaf-water}$ 53 and +27.3‰ (ranging from +23.0 to 32.3‰) for $\varepsilon_{sugar/leaf-water}$, respectively. Using rearranged Craig-54 Gordon equations with either T_{air} or T_{leaf} and measured $\delta^2 H_{leaf-water}$ or $\delta^{18}O_{leaf-water}$ as input variables, we 55 furthermore modeled climate chamber RH_{air} and RH_{leaf} values. Modelled RH_{air} values, from the more 56 simplified Craig-Gordon model, turned out to be most accurate and correlate highly significantly with 57 measured RH_{air} values (R² = 0.84, p < 0.001; RMSE = 6%). When combining $\delta^2 H_{\text{leaf-water}}$ and $\delta^{18} O_{\text{leaf-water}}$ 58 values that are calculated from the alkane and sugar biomarkers instead of actually measured $\delta^2 H_{leaf}$ 59 $_{
m water}$ and $\delta^{
m 18}O_{
m leaf-water}$ as input variables, the correlation of modelled RH $_{
m air}$ values with measured RH $_{
m air}$ 60 values is getting worse, but is still highly significant with $R^2 = 0.54$, p < 0.001; RMSE = 10%. This 61 highlights the potential of the coupled $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane} - \delta^{18} O_{sugar}$ paleohygrometer approach for suitable relative humidity reconstructions. Finally, the reconstructed source water isotope composition ($\delta^2 H_s$ 62 63 and $\delta^{18}O_s$) as calculated from the coupled approach matches the source water in the climate chamber 64 experiment ($\delta^2 H_{tank-water}$ and $\delta^{18} O_{tank-water}$).





65 1 Introduction

66 Leaf-wax-derived biomarkers, such as long chain *n*-alkanes, and their stable hydrogen isotopic 67 composition ($\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$) are widely applied in paleoclimatology research. Sedimentary $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ values 68 correlate with δ^2 H of precipitation (Huang et al., 2004; Mügler et al., 2008; Sachse et al., 2004; Sauer et al., 2001), confirming the high potential of $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ to establish $\delta^2 H$ records of past precipitation 69 70 (Hou et al., 2008; Rao et al., 2009; Sachse et al., 2012). However, the alteration of the isotopic signal 71 as a result of the often unknown amount of leaf water enrichment caused by evapotranspiration can 72 be several tens of per mil. This poses a challenge for accurate data interpretation (e.g. Zech et al., 73 2015), especially in respect of single proxy ($\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$)-based climate records. Apart from studies of 74 sedimentary cellulose (Heyng et al., 2014; Wissel et al., 2008), the oxygen stable isotope composition 75 of sugar biomarkers ($\delta^{18}O_{sugar}$) emerged as complementary paleoclimate proxy during the last decade 76 (Hepp et al., 2015, 2017, Zech et al., 2013a, 2014a). The interpretation of the $\delta^{18}O_{sugar}$ values is 77 comparable to those of $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$. When sugars originate primarily from leaf biomass of higher 78 terrestrial plants, they reflect the plant source water (which is often directly linked to the local 79 precipitation) modified by evapotranspirative enrichment of the leaf water (Tuthorn et al., 2014; Zech 80 et al., 2014a). The coupling of δ^{2} H_{*n*-alkane} with δ^{18} O_{sugar} values allows quantification of leaf-water isotopic 81 enrichment and relative air humidity (Zech et al., 2013a). This approach was validated by Tuthorn et 82 al. (2015) by applying it to topsoil samples along a climate transect in Argentina. Accordingly, the 83 biomarker-derived relative air humidity values correlate significantly with actual air relative humidity 84 from the respective study sites, highlighting the potential of the $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane} - \delta^{18} O_{sugar}$ paleohygrometer 85 approach.

The coupled approach is based on the observation that the isotope signature of precipitation 86 87 $(\delta^2 H_{precpitation} \text{ and } \delta^{18} O_{precpitation})$ typically plots on or adjacent to the global meteoric water line (GMWL), 88 in a δ^2 H- δ^{18} O diagram. The GMWL is characterized by the equation δ^2 H_{precpitation} = 8 · δ^{18} O_{precpitation} + 10 89 (Dansgaard, 1964). In most cases, the local precipitation can be directly linked to the source water of 90 plants, which is indeed soil water and eventually shallow groundwater. The isotopic composition of 91 xylem water of plants readily reflects these sources (e.g. Dawson, 1993). However, leaf-derived 92 biomarkers reflect the leaf water isotope composition, which is, unlike xylem water, prone to 93 evapotranspiration (e.g. Barbour and Farquhar, 2000; Helliker and Ehleringer, 2002; Cernusak et al., 94 2003; Barbour et al., 2004; Cernusak et al., 2005; Feakins and Sessions, 2010; Kahmen et al., 2011; 95 Sachse et al., 2012; Kahmen, Schefuß, et al., 2013; Tipple et al., 2013; Lehmann et al., 2017; Liu et al., 96 2017). During daytime, the leaf water is typically enriched in the heavy isotope compared to the source 97 water because of the evapotranspirative enrichment through the stomata. Thereby, lighter water 98 isotopes evaporate preferentially, which results in a deuterium-excess in the remaining water compared to the precipitation water (d = δ^2 H - 8 · δ^{18} O; according to Dansgaard, 1964). The degree of 99 100 evapotranspirative enrichment is mainly controlled by the relative air humidity in the direct surrounding of the plant leaves (e.g. Cernusak et al., 2016). Although the biomarkers reflect the 101 102 isotopic composition of leaf water, there is still a modification by the so-called biosynthetic 103 fractionation during the biosynthesis, leading to an offset between leaf water and biomarker isotope 104 composition. In case the biosynthetic fractionation is known and constant, there is a great potential 105 that relative humidity can be derived from coupling $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ and $\delta^{18} O_{sugar}$ values.

106 The overall aim of this study is to evaluate the $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane} - \delta^{18} O_{sugar}$ paleohygrometer approach by 107 applying it to plant leaf material from three different plants grown in a climate chamber experiment 108 under well controlled conditions. More specifically, we address the following questions:

109(i)which homologue and specific monosaccharide can be used to gain $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{sugar}$ 110results for the climate chamber plants leaf material, respectively,





- 111(ii)how precisely do $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ and $\delta^{18} O_{sugar}$ values allow reconstructing $\delta^2 H$ and $\delta^{18} O$ of leaf112water, respectively,
- (iii) how accurately does the leaf-water-isotope composition reflect the relative humidityconditions,
- 115(iv)and does the coupling of $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ and $\delta^{18} O_{sugar}$ enable a robust source water calculation116and how reliable are relative humidity reconstructions?
- 117

118 2 Material and Methods

119 2.1 Climate chamber experiment

120 A phytotron experiment was conducted at the Helmholtz Zentrum München in Neuherberg during winter 2000/2001 (Mayr, 2002). Three different dicotyledon plant species (Eucalyptus globulus, Vicia 121 faba var. minor and Brassica oleracea var. medullosa) were grown in eight chambers for 56 days under 122 123 seven distinct climatic conditions (same conditions in chambers 4 and 8). Air temperature (Tair) were 124 set to 14, 18, 24 and 30°C and and relative humidity (RH_{air}) to around 20, 30, 50, and 70% between 11 125 a.m. and 4 p.m. (Fig. 1B). During the rest of the day typical natural diurnal variations were aimed for 126 (details in Mayr, 2002). Furthermore, uniform irrigation conditions were guaranteed via an automatic 127 irrigation system, which was controlled by tensiometers installed in 9 cm substrate depth. The tank 128 water used for irrigation was sampled periodically (intervals of one to three days) over the whole 129 experiment and revealed only minor variability in its isotope composition ($\delta^{18}O_{tank-water} = -10.7 \pm 0.3\%$ 130 standard deviation (σ); $\delta^2 H_{tank-water} = -7 \pm 1\% \sigma$). Once a week, soil water (via ceramic cups in 13 cm soil depth) and atmospheric water vapor (via dry ice condensation traps) was sampled ($\delta^2 H_{\text{soil-water}}, \delta^{18}O_{\text{soil-}}$ 131 132 water and $\delta^2 H_{atmospheric-water-vapor}$, $\delta^{18} O_{atmospheric-water-vapor}$). Additionally, leaf temperatures (T_{leaf}) were derived from gas exchange measurements, at least once a week (Mayr, 2002). 133

134 In order to analyze stable hydrogen and oxygen isotopic composition of leaf ($\delta^2 H_{leaf-water}$, $\delta^{18}O_{leaf-water}$) 135 and stem water, the plants were harvested at the end of the experiment. The vacuum distillation 136 method was used for the extraction of the plant water. It should be noted that stem water is a mixture 137 between phloem and xylem water, while the latter should reflect the isotopic composition of the soil 138 water. For simplification, stem water is referred to as xylem water in the following ($\delta^2 H_{xylem-water}$, 139 $\delta^{18}O_{xylem-water}$).

For more details about the experiment, the reader is referred to the original publication (Mayr, 2002).

142 **2.2** Leaf biomarker extraction and compound-specific stable isotope analysis

143 A total of 24 leaf samples were prepared according to Schäfer et al. (2016) for compound specific $\delta^2 H$ 144 measurements of n-alkanes, at the Institute of Geography, Group of Biogeochemistry and Paleoclimate, University of Bern. Microwave extraction with 15 ml dichloromethane (DCM)/methanol 145 146 (MeOH) 9:1 (v:v) at 100°C for 1 h was conducted. The resulting total lipid extract was purified and separated using aminopropyl-silica-gel (Supelco, 45 µm) pipette columns. The hydrocarbon fraction 147 148 (containing n-alkanes) was eluted with n-hexane and cleaned via silver nitrate-coated silica gel pipettes 149 (Supelco, 60-200 mesh) and zeolite (Geokleen Ltd.) columns. The $\delta^2 H$ measurements of the highest 150 concentrated *n*-alkanes (n-C₂₉ and n-C₃₁) were performed on a GC-²H-pyrolysis-IRMS system, equipped with an Agilent 7890A gas chromatograph (GC) and IsoPrime 100 isotope-ratio-mass spectrometer 151 152 (IRMS) coupled with a GC5 pyrolysis/combustion interface operating in pyrolysis modus with a Cr (ChromeHD) reactor at 1000°C. The compound-specific δ^2 H values were calibrated against a standard 153 154 alkane mix (n-C27, n-C29, n-C33) with known isotope composition (A. Schimmelmann, University of 155 Indiana), measured twice every six sample injections. Standard deviation of the triplicate





156 measurements were typically \leq 5‰. The H³⁺ factor stayed constant during the course of the 157 measurements.

158

Additionally, the leaf samples were dried and finely ground in preparation for $\delta^{18}O$ analysis of 159 hemicellulose-derived sugars (modified from Zech and Glaser, 2009) at the Institute of Agronomy and 160 Nutritional Sciences, Soil Biogeochemistry, Martin-Luther-University Halle-Wittenberg. The 161 162 hemicellulose sugars were hydrolytically extracted for 4 h at 105°C using 4M trifluoroacetic acid 163 (Amelung et al., 1996) and purified via XAD-7 and Dowex 50WX8 columns. Prior to the methylboronic-164 acid (MBA) derivatization (4 mg of MBA in 400 μ l dry pyridine for 1 h at 60°C), the cleaned sugars were 165 frozen and freeze-dried overnight (Knapp, 1979). Compound-specific δ^{18} O measurements were performed on a Trace GC 2000 coupled to a Delta V Advantage IRMS via an ¹⁸O-pyrolysis reactor (GC 166 IsoLink) and a ConFlo IV interface (all devices from Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany). The 167 sample batches were measured along with embedded co-derivatized standard batches, which 168 contained arabinose, fucose, xylose, and rhamnose in different concentrations of known δ^{18} O value. 169 170 The δ^{18} O values of the standard sugars were determined via temperature conversion/elemental 171 analysis-IRMS coupling at the Institute of Plant Sciences, ETH Zurich, Switzerland (Zech and Glaser, 172 2009). This procedure allows corrections for possible amount dependencies (Zech and Glaser, 2009) and ensures the "Principle of Identical Treatment" (Werner and Brand, 2001). Standard deviations for 173 174 the triplicate measurements were 0.9‰ and 2.2‰ (average over all investigated samples) for 175 arabinose and xylose, respectively. We focus on arabinose and xylose in this study because they were 176 (i) the dominant peaks in all chromatograms, and (ii) previously found to strongly predominate over 177 fucose (and rhamnose) in terrestrial plants, soils (Hepp et al., 2016).

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179 All δ values are expressed in per mil as isotope ratios (R = ${}^{18}O/{}^{16}O$ or ${}^{2}H/{}^{1}H$) relative to the Vienna 180 Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW) standard in the common delta notation 181 ($\delta = R_{sample} - R_{standard}/R_{standard}$; e.g. Coplen, 2011).

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183 **2.3 Framework for coupling** $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ with $\delta^{18} O_{sugar}$ results

184 2.3.1 Deuterium-excess of leaf water and relative humidity

185 The coupled approach is based on the observation that isotope composition of global precipitation plots typically close to the GMWL ($\delta^2 H_{\text{precpitation}} = 8 \cdot \delta^{18} O_{\text{precipitation}} + 10$; Dansgaard, 1964; Fig. 2). The 186 187 soil water and shallow groundwater, which acts as source water for plants, can often directly be related 188 to the local precipitation. However, especially during daytime leaf water is typically enriched compared 189 to the precipitation due to evapotranspiration through the stomata, therefore plotting right of the 190 GMWL (Fig. 2; e.g. Allison et al., 1985; Bariac et al., 1994; Walker and Brunel, 1990). The leaf water 191 reservoir at the evaporative sites is frequently assumed to be in isotope steady-state (Allison et al., 1985; Bariac et al., 1994; Gat et al., 2007; Walker and Brunel, 1990), meaning that the isotope 192 193 composition of the transpired water vapor is in isotopic equilibrium with the source water utilized by 194 the plants during the transpiration process. The Craig-Gordon model (e.g. Flanagan et al., 1991; Roden and Ehleringer, 1999) approximates the isotope processes in leaf water in δ terms (e.g. Barbour et al., 195 196 2004):

$$\delta_{e} \approx \delta_{s} + \varepsilon^{*} + \varepsilon_{k} + (\delta_{a} - \delta_{s} - \varepsilon_{k}) \frac{e_{a}}{e_{i}}, \qquad (Equation 1)$$

197 where δ_e , δ_s and δ_a are the hydrogen and oxygen isotopic compositions of leaf water at the evaporative 198 sites, source water and atmospheric water vapor, respectively. The equilibrium enrichment (ϵ^*) is 199 expressed as $(1-1/\alpha_{L/V}) \cdot 10^3$, where $\alpha_{L/V}$ is the equilibrium fractionation between liquid and vapor in





- 200 per mil. The kinetic fractionation parameter (ε_k) describes the water vapor diffusion from intracellular 201 air space through the stomata and the boundary layer into to the atmosphere, and e_a/e_i is the ratio of 202 the atmospheric to intracellular vapor pressure.
- 203

10 a δ^2 H- δ^{18} O diagram, the isotope composition of the leaf water as well as the source water can be described as deuterium-excess (d) values by using the equation of Dansgaard (1964), with d = δ^2 H - 8 · δ^{18} O. This allows rewriting the Eq. 1, in which hydrogen and oxygen isotopes have to be handled in separate equations, in one equation:

$$d_e \approx d_s + \left(\epsilon_2^* - 8 \cdot \epsilon_{18}^*\right) + \left(C_k^2 - 8 \cdot C_k^{18}\right) + \left[d_a - d_s - \left(C_k^2 - 8 \cdot C_k^{18}\right)\right] \cdot \frac{e_a}{e_i},$$
(Equation 2)

208 where d_e , d_s and d_a are the deuterium excess values of leaf water at the evaporative sites, source water 209 and atmospheric water vapor, respectively. The kinetic fractionation parameter (ε_k) is typically related 210 to stomatal and boundary layer resistances to water flux (Farquhar et al., 1989). We used the kinetic 211 enrichment factor (C_k) instead of ε_k to be close to paleo studies were direct measurements of such a 212 plant physiological parameter are not available. The kinetic enrichment factor is derived from a more 213 generalized form of the Craig-Gordon model for describing the kinetic isotope enrichment for ²H and 214 ¹⁸O (C_k² and C_k¹⁸, respectively) (Craig and Gordon, 1965; Gat and Bowser, 1991). If the plant source 215 water and the local atmospheric water vapor are in isotope equilibrium, the term δ_a - δ_s in Eq. 1 can 216 be approximated by $-\epsilon^*$. Thus, Eq. 2 can be reduced to:

$$d_{e} \approx d_{s} + \left(\epsilon_{2}^{*} - 8 \cdot \epsilon_{18}^{*} + C_{k}^{2} - 8 \cdot C_{k}^{18}\right) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{e_{a}}{e_{i}}\right).$$
(Equation 3)

The actual atmospheric vapor pressure (e_a) and the leaf vapor pressure (e_i) in kPa can be derived from
 Eqs. 4 and 5 by using T_{air} and T_{leaf}, respectively:

 $e_{a} = 0.61365 \cdot e^{[17.502 \cdot T_{air} / (T_{air} + 240.97)]} \cdot RH_{air}$ (Equation 4)

$$e_{i} = 0.61365 \cdot e^{\left[17.502 \cdot T_{air/leaf} / (T_{air/leaf} + 240.97)\right]}.$$
 (Equation 5)

where e_a/e_i is the relative humidity calculated with the saturation vapor pressure when the leaf 219 220 temperature is used in the denominator rather than the air temperature (Eq. 5), ranging between 0 221 and 1. In order to increase the comparability to RH_{air}, the e_a/e_i ratio calculated with T_{leaf} in Eq. 5 can be 222 converted into RH_{leaf} by multiplication with 100. When T_{air} is used in Eq. 5, e_a/e_i represents RH_{air} (also 223 ranging between 0 and 1, representing 0 to 100% relative humidity when multiplying with 100). It 224 should be noted that the differences between measured RH_{leaf} and T_{leaf} with the respective air 225 parameters (RH, T_{air}) are not very pronounced in most cases (Mayr, 2002; Kahmen et al., 2011b), 226 revealing rather the same trends and magnitude (Fig. 1B).

227 With Eqs. 2 and 3, two equations are given to derive relative humidity values by rearranging them, 228 resulting in RH_{air} and RH_{leaf}, respectively, by using either T_{air} or T_{leaf} for ϵ^* (Eqs. 6 and 7):

$$RH_{leaf/air} \approx \frac{d_{e} - d_{s} - (\epsilon_{2}^{2} - 8 \cdot \epsilon_{18}^{*}) - (C_{k}^{2} - 8 \cdot C_{k}^{18})}{d_{a} - d_{s} - (C_{k}^{2} - 8 \cdot C_{k}^{18})},$$

$$RH_{leaf/air} \approx 1 - \frac{d_{e} - d_{s}}{(\epsilon_{2}^{*} - 8 \cdot \epsilon_{18}^{*} + C_{k}^{2} - 8 \cdot C_{k}^{18})}.$$
(Equation 6)
(Equation 7)

Equilibrium fractionation parameters (ϵ_2^* and ϵ_{18}^*) are derived from empirical equations of Horita and Wesolowski (1994) by using either the climate chamber T_{air} or T_{leaf} values. The kinetic fractionation parameters (C_k^2 and C_k^{18}) for ²H and ¹⁸O, respectively, are set to 25.1 and 28.5‰ according to Merlivat (1978), who reported maximum values during the molecular diffusion process of water through a stagnant boundary layer. It should be noted that ϵ_k values of broadleaf trees and shrubs over broad





- climatic conditions are well in the range with used C_k^2 and C_k^{18} values, revealing 23.9 ± 0.9 and 26.7‰
- 236 If $\delta^2 H_{\text{leaf-water}}$ and $\delta^{18} O_{\text{leaf-water}}$ can be reconstructed from the measured δ values of *n*-alkanes and sugars
- 237 biomarkers, this framework provides a powerful tool to establish relative humidity records from
- 238 sedimentary archives (Hepp et al., 2017; Zech et al., 2013a). To reconstruct the isotope composition of
- 239 leaf water it is assumed that fractionation factors of -160% for ²H of alkanes *n*-C₂₉ and *n*-C₃₁ (ϵ^2_{bio} ;
- 240 Sachse et al., 2012; Sessions et al., 1999), and +27‰ for ¹⁸O of the hemicellulose-derived sugars
- arabinose and xylose (ϵ^{18}_{bio} ; Cernusak et al., 2003; Schmidt et al., 2001; Sternberg et al., 1986; Yakir
- 242 and DeNiro, 1990) can be applied:

alkane-based $\delta^2 H_{\text{leaf-water}} = (\delta^2 H_{n-\text{alkane}} - \epsilon^2_{\text{bio}})/(1 + \epsilon^2_{\text{bio}}/1000)$	(Equation 8)

sugar-based $\delta^{18}O_{\text{leaf-water}} = (\delta^{18}O_{\text{sugar}} - \epsilon^{18}_{\text{bio}})/(1 + \epsilon^{18}_{\text{bio}}/1000).$ (Equation 9)

243

244 2.3.2 Isotope composition of plant source water

 $\begin{array}{ll} 245 & \text{In a } \delta^2 H - \delta^{18} O \text{ diagram, the hydrogen and oxygen isotope composition of the plant source water (} \delta^2 H_s \\ and \; \delta^{18} O_s, \text{ respectively) can be assessed via the slope of the individual leaf water evapotranspiration \\ lines (LEL's; Craig and Gordon, 1965; Gat and Bowser, 1991). Depending on the degree of \\ simplification, the LEL slope (S_{LEL}) can be derived from Eq. 10 (consistent to Eq. 2) and Eq. 11 (consistent \\ to Eq. 3): \\ \end{array}$

$$\begin{split} S_{LEL} &\approx \frac{\epsilon_2^* + C_k^2 + \left(\delta_a^{12} - \delta_s^2 - C_k^2\right) \cdot \frac{e_a}{e_i}}{\epsilon_{18}^* + C_k^{18} + \left(\delta_a^{18} - \delta_s^{18} - C_k^{18}\right) \cdot \frac{e_a}{e_i}}, \end{split} \tag{Equation 10} \\ S_{LEL} &\approx \frac{\epsilon_2^* + C_k^2 \cdot \left(1 - \frac{e_a}{e_i}\right)}{\epsilon_{18}^* + C_k^{18} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{e_a}{e_i}\right)} \approx \frac{\epsilon_2^* + C_k^2}{\epsilon_{18}^* + C_k^{18}}, \end{aligned}$$

 $250 \qquad \text{where all parameters are defined as in section 2.3.1. The δ^2H_s and $\delta^{18}O_s$ values can then be calculated $\delta^{18}O_s$ values can be calculated $\delta^{18}O_s$ values $\delta^{18}O_s$ values can be calculated $\delta^{18}O_s$ values can be calculated $\delta^{18}O_s$ values $\delta^{$

251 for each leaf water data point via the intersect between the individual LEL's with the GMWL. The model

results (from Eqs. 10 and 11) can be furthermore compared to the slope calculated by Eq. 12, using the

253 measured $\delta^2 H_{\text{leaf-water}}$, $\delta^{18} O_{\text{leaf-water}}$ and $\delta^2 H_{\text{tank-water}}$, $\delta^{18} O_{\text{tank-water}}$ values (Craig and Gordon, 1965; Gat and

254 Bowser, 1991).

$$S_{LEL} = \frac{\delta^2 H_{\text{leaf-water}} - \delta^2 H_{\text{tank-water}}}{\delta^{18} O_{\text{leaf-water}} - \delta^{18} O_{\text{tank-water}}}$$
(Equation 12)

255

256 2.4 Modeling and isotope fractionation calculations

257 Relative humidity (Eq. 6), deuterium-excess values of leaf water (de, Eq. 2) and SLEL values (Eq. 10) were modeled leading to less simplified results, because the measured δ_a values are used explicitly. 258 259 Equations 7, 3 and 11 were therefore used to obtain RH, de and SLEL results, representing a more 260 simplified model approach because $\delta_a - \delta_s$ are approximated by $-\epsilon^*$. This model procedure allows furthermore the comparison of scenarios based on air or leaf temperature (T_{air} or T_{leaf}). In Eqs. 6 and 261 262 7, the reconstructed (biomarker-based) deuterium-excessieaf-water was used as additional input, as 263 gained from Eqs. 8 and 9. The modeled LEL slopes (Eqs. 10 and 11) were used to derive source water isotope composition ($\delta^2 H_s$, $\delta^{18}O_s$). In all equations presented in section 2.3 to gain the model results 264 265 (Eqs. 2 to 8), $\delta^2 H_{atmospheric-water-voupor}$, $\delta^{18} O_{atmospheric-water-voupor}$ and $\delta^2 H_{tank-water}$, $\delta^{18} O_{tank-water}$ were used for δ_a 266 and δ_s (therefore also for d_a and d_s). All other input parameters were set as described in section 2.3. In 267 order to provide an 1 σ range bracketing the modeled results (d_e, RH_{air}, RH_{leaf}, S_{LEL}, δ^{2} H_s, δ^{18} O_s), the





- 268 calculations were also run with values generated by subtracting/adding the individual σ to the average. 269 This procedure was also used to derive measured deuterium-excess_{leaf-water} and S_{LEL} uncertainties. Model quality was overall assessed by calculating the coefficient of determination $[R^2 = 1 - 1]$ 270 \sum (modeled - measured)² / \sum (measured - measured mean)² and the root mean square error 271 $\left[\text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum (\text{modeled} - \text{measured})^2\right)} \right].$ The R² is not equal to the r², which provides here the 272
- fraction of variance explained by a linear regression between a dependent (y) and an explanatory 273 variable $[r^2 = 1 - \sum(y - \text{fitted } y)^2 / \sum(y - \text{mean } y)^2]$ (R Core Team, 2015). 274
- 275
- 276 The fractionation between the measured leaf biomarkers and leaf water can be described by the 277 following equations (Eq. 10 and 11; e.g. Coplen, 2011):

$\epsilon_{n\text{-}alkane/leaf-water} = (\delta^2 H_{n\text{-}alkane} - \delta^2 H_{leaf-water}) / (1 + \delta^2 H_{leaf-water} / 1000)$	(Equation 13)

$$\varepsilon_{\text{sugar/leaf-water}} = \left(\delta^{18}O_{\text{sugar}} + \delta^{18}O_{\text{leaf-water}}\right) / \left(1 + \delta^{18}O_{\text{leaf-water}}/1000\right).$$
(Equation 14)

278 For Eqs. 8 and 9 (biomarker-based leaf water reconstruction) as well as for Eqs. 13 and 14, the 1 σ

279 range were calculated by subtracting/adding the individual σ , analogous to the modeling results.

280

281 All calculations and statistical analysis were realized in R (version 3.2.2; R Core Team, 2015).

282

3 Results and Discussion 283

3.1 Compound-specific isotope results of leaf wax-derived n-alkanes and hemicellulose-284 285 derived sugars

286 All investigated leaf material showed a dominance of C_{29} *n*-alkanes. The dominance of *n*- C_{29} in *Brassica* 287 oleracea and Eucalyptus globulus was also reported by Ali et al. (2005) and Herbin and Robins (1968). 288 Vicia faba leaf samples additionally revealed a high abundance of C₃₁ n-alkanes. This agrees with results 289 from Maffei (1996) and enables a robust determination of compound-specific $\delta^2 H$ values for C₂₉ and 290 C_{31} . The $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ values of *Vicia faba* are therefore calculated as weighted mean.

291 The top of Fig. 1A illustrates the $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ results along with isotopic data for leaf, xylem and soil water 292 (the latter were originally published in Mayr 2002). In addition the climate chamber conditions (RH_{air}, 293 RH_{leaf}, T_{air} and T_{leaf}) are displayed (all from Mayr, 2002; Fig. 1B). For more details about the (plant) water 294 isotope results, climate chamber conditions as well as not shown plant physiological properties the reader is referred to Mayr (2002). The $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ values range from -213 to -144‰ over all plant species. 295 296 As revealed by overlapping notches in the respective boxplots, no statistically significant differences in 297 the median values between the three plant species can be described (Fig. S1A; McGill et al., 1978). Fig. 1A moreover shows that $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ values range largest for *Eucalyptus globulus* compared to the other 298 299 two plants. However, the low number of samples per plant species prohibits a robust interpretation.

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- 302

(Fig. 1)

303 The investigated leaf samples yielded substantially higher amounts of arabinose and xylose compared to fucose and rhamnose. This is in agreement with sugar patterns reported for higher plants (D'Souza 304 305 et al., 2005; Hepp et al., 2016; Jia et al., 2008; Prietzel et al., 2013; Zech et al., 2012, 2014a) and 306 hampers a robust data evaluation of fucose and rhamnose. The $\delta^{18}O$ values of the investigated 307 pentoses arabinose and xylose range from 30 to 47‰ and 30 to 50‰, respectively, and are shown





308 along with isotopic data for leaf, xylem and soil water (Mayr 2002) in the bottom of Fig. 1A. No considerable difference in the δ^{18} O values of arabinose and xylose can be seen in the δ^{18} O pentose 309 data. This is in line with findings from Zech and Glaser (2009), Zech et al. (2012), Zech et al. (2013b) 310 and Zech et al. (2014b) but contradicting with slightly more positive $\delta^{18}O_{arabinose}$ values compared to 311 $\delta^{18}O_{xvlose}$ values reported by Zech et al. (2013a) and Tuthorn et al. (2014). Overall, the two sugars 312 313 display very similar results (Fig. 1; $r^2 = 0.7$, p < 0.001, n = 24). The δ^{18} O values of arabinose and xylose 314 can therefore be combined as a weighted mean (as $\delta^{18}O_{sugar}$ values) for further data interpretation. 315 The $\delta^{18}O_{sugar}$ values are not significantly different between the three investigated plant species. 316

The compound-specific isotope results of leaf hemicellulose-derived sugars and leaf wax-derived *n*alkanes can be compared with leaf, xylem, soil and tank water (compare Fig. 1A and Fig. 2). This comparison reveals that soil and xylem water plot close to the tank water, whereas leaf water shows a clear evapotranspirative enrichment. This enrichment strongly differs between the climate chambers, depending mainly on T and RH conditions. The biomarker results furthermore follow the leaf water with a certain offset (ε_{bio}).

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324
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(Fig. 2)

325 **3.2** Do *n*-alkane and sugar biomarkers reflect the isotope composition of leaf water?

The $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ dataset reveals a significant correlation with $\delta^2 H_{leaf-water}$ of 0.45 (r^2) using all plant species with p < 0.001 (Fig. 3A). A slope of 1.1 and an intercept of -152‰ furthermore characterize the relationship. It seems that each plant type shows a different $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ to $\delta^2 H_{leaf-water}$ relation, with the highest slope for *Vicia faba* and the lowest for *Brassica oleracea*. However, we argue that the number of replicates for each plant species is simply too low to interpret this finding robustly. A highly significant correlation is also observed for the correlation between $\delta^{18}O_{sugar}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{leaf-water}$ ($r^2 = 0.84$, p < 0.001; Fig. 3B). The regression reveals a slope of 0.74 and an intercept of 30.7‰.

333 334

335

(Fig. 3)

Since it is well known that measured leaf water is not always equal to the specific water pool in which 336 337 the *n*-alkanes are biosynthesized (e.g. Tipple et al., 2015), the correlation reveals a rather low r² (Fig. 338 3A). Furthermore, NADPH is acting also as hydrogen source during n-alkane biosynthesis, which is 339 clearly more negative than the biosynthetic water pool (Schmidt et al., 2003), further contributing to 340 a weakening of the $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ to $\delta^2 H_{leaf-water}$ relationship. The correlation between the deuterium 341 contents of leaf wax *n*-alkanes and leaf water presented here is still well in range with the literature. 342 Feakins and Sessions (2010) presented *n*-alkane (C_{29} and C_{31}) and leaf water $\delta^2 H$ data from typical plant species (excluding grasses) along a southern California aridity gradient, revealing that only δ^2 H of *n*-C₂₉ 343 344 is significantly correlated with leaf water ($r^2 = 0.24$, p < 0.1, n = 16; based on the associated supplementary data). Another field dataset from the temperate forest at Brown's Lake Bog, Ohio, USA 345 revealed significant correlations between $\delta^2 H$ of *n*-C₂₉ and *n*-C₃₁ with leaf water of the species Prunus 346 347 serotina, Acer saccharinum, Quercus rubra, Quercus alba, and Ulmus americana ($r^2 = 0.49$, p < 0.001, 348 n = 38; r^2 = 0.59, p < 0.001, n = 29; as derived form the supplement material of Freimuth et al., 2017). 349 Data from a controlled climate chamber experiment using two tree species show a highly significant 350 relationship between leaf wax *n*-alkanes δ^2 H and leaf water (with C₃₁ of Betula occidentalis and C₂₉ of Populus fremontii; $r^2 = 0.96$, p < 0.001, n = 24; derived from supplementary data of Tipple et al., 2015). 351 352 It is conformed that leaf wax n-alkanes of dicotyledonous plants largely incorporate the leaf water





353 isotope signal, while in monocotyledonous plants (e.g. grasses) the *n*-alkanes are more strongly 354 affected by the source water due to the leaf growth at the intercalary meristem (Kahmen et al., 2013). The observed slope of the $\delta^{18}O_{sugar}$ to $\delta^{18}O_{leaf-water}$ relationship (Fig. 3B) could serve as indicator for a 355 356 leaf water (enrichment) signal transfer damping of approximately 26%. The theory behind the signal 357 damping is adopted from the cellulose research (e.g. Barbour and Farquhar, 2000). Barbour and 358 Farguhar (2000) related the extent of the signal damping to the proportion of unenriched source 359 water, which contribute to the local synthesis water pool and to the proportion of exchangeable 360 oxygen during cellulose synthesis. Here calculated damping factor would be well in the range of values 361 reported for cellulose synthesis in Gossypium hirsutum leaves (between 35 and 38%; Barbour and 362 Farguhar, 2000), for Eucalyptus globulus leaf samples (38%; Cernusak et al., 2005) and for five C₃ and 363 C4 grasses (25%; Helliker and Ehleringer, 2002). Recently Cheesman and Cernusak (2017) provided damping factors for leaf cellulose synthesis based on plant data grown under same conditions at 364 Jerusalem Botanical Gardens published by Wang et al. (1998), ranging between 4 and 100% with a 365 mean of 49%, revealing large variations among and between ecological groups (namely conifers, 366 367 deciduous, evergreen and shrubs). A large range of damping factors associated with leaf cellulose was 368 also reported by Song et al. (2014) for Ricinus communis grown under controlled conditions. A common disadvantage of the above-mentioned studies is the absence of direct measurements of the proportion 369 370 of depleted source water contribution to the local synthesis water (as noticed by Liu et al., 2017), which 371 largely contribute to the extent of the damping factor (Barbour and Farguhar, 2000). However, when transferring cellulose results to pentoses, such as hemicellulose-derived arabinose and xylose, it should 372 373 be noted that they are biosynthesized via decarboxylation of the carbon at position six (C6) from 374 glucose (Altermatt and Neish, 1956; Burget et al., 2003; Harper and Bar-Peled, 2002). Waterhouse et 375 al. (2013) showed that the oxygen atoms at C6 position in glucose moieties, used for heterotrophic 376 cellulose synthesis, are strongly affected by the exchange with local water (up to 80%). Based on these findings, it can be suggested that the influence of the non-enriched source water during the synthesis 377 378 of leaf hemicelluloses is rather small.

379

380 **3.3 Fractionation factors between biomarkers and leaf water**

381 In order to explore possible species-specific effects on the fractionation between the biomarkers and 382 the leaf water, boxplots of the individual plant species of $\varepsilon_{n-alkane/leaf-water}$ and $\varepsilon_{sugar/leaf-water}$ values are 383 shown in Fig. 4. Median ε_{n-alkane/leaf-water} values are -155‰ for Brassica oleracea, -164‰ for Eucalyptus 384 globulus and -149‰ for Vicia faba (Fig. 4A), with an overall mean value of -156‰ (ranging from -133 385 to -192‰). Median $\varepsilon_{sugar/leaf-water}$ values of +27.0‰ for *Brassica oleracea*, +26.6‰ for *Eucalyptus* 386 globulus, +26.8‰ for Vicia faba are shown in Fig. 4B. The overall $\varepsilon_{sugar/heaf-water}$ average value of the 387 three investigated species is +27.3‰ (ranging from +23.0 to +32.3‰). In both plots, no difference 388 between the individual species seems to be observable.

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- 390 391

(Fig. 4)

The boxplots of $\varepsilon_{n-alkane/leaf-water}$ reveal that the median of the three investigated plant species can be statistically not distinguished, due to overlapping notches (Fig. 4A). It should be noted that due to the low sample number from each species, the 95% confidence interval is larger than the interquartile range in some cases. However, it seems that at least small species-specific differences cannot be ruled out. Our $\varepsilon_{n-alkane/leaf-water}$ values resemble well the data from a laboratory study (Kahmen et al., 2011), reporting a median value of -162‰ for $n-C_{25}$, $n-C_{27}$ and $n-C_{29}$ of *Populus trichocarpa*. Furthermore, they are well comparable to climate chamber data of *Betula occidentalis* ($n-C_{31}$) and *Populus fremontii* (n-





 C_{29}) from Tipple et al. (2015), reporting a median $\epsilon_{n-alkane/leaf-water}$ value of -155‰. In addition, field 399 400 experiments reveal similar median values of -151‰ (for n-C₂₉) and -142‰ (for n-C₃₁) from typical plant 401 species (excluding grasses) from southern California (Feakins and Sessions, 2010) and -144‰ (for n-402 C29, of the species Prunus serotina, Acer saccharinum, Quercus rubra, Quercus alba and Ulmus 403 americana) from the temperate forest at Brown's Lake Bog, Ohio, USA. The large range in Exviem-water/leaf-404 water values from our study (-192 to -133‰) is also obvious in the respective laboratory and field studies 405 (-198 to -115‰, derived from $n-C_{29}$ and $n-C_{31}$ data from Feakins and Sessions, 2010; Kahmen et al., 406 2011a; Tipple et al., 2015; Freimuth et al., 2017). This could point to a specific water pool being used 407 rather than bulk leaf water during biosynthesis (Sachse et al., 2012; Schmidt et al., 2003). In more 408 detail, alkane synthesis takes place by modifying/expanding fatty acids in the cytosol, while fatty acids 409 are synthesized in the chloroplasts (Schmidt et al., 2003). Thus, the cytosol as well as chloroplast water 410 is one hydrogen source. However hydrogen can additionally be added to the alkanes and fatty acids 411 by NADPH which originates from different sources (photosynthesis and pentose phosphate cycle, Schmidt et al., 2003). It is therefore challenging to measure directly the water pool in which the alkanes 412 413 are biosynthesized (Tipple et al., 2015). Moreover, biosynthetic and metabolic pathways in general 414 (Kahmen et al., 2013; Sessions et al., 1999; Zhang et al., 2009), the carbon and energy metabolism of 415 plants more specifically (Cormier et al., 2018) and the number of carbon atoms of the n-alkane chains 416 (Zhou et al., 2010) may have an influence on the fractionation. Our $\varepsilon_{n-\text{alkane/leaf-water}}$ values correlate with 417 T_{air} (Fig. S2A), whereas the correlation with RH_{air} (Fig. S2B) is not significant. This could point to a 418 relationship between $\epsilon_{xylem-water/leaf-water}$ and plant physiological processes (affecting various plants 419 differently).

420 The $\varepsilon_{sugar/leaf-water}$ values (Fig. 4B) do not correlate significantly with T_{air} , but significantly with RH_{air} (Fig. 421 S2C and D). A temperature dependence of the $\varepsilon_{sugar/leaf-water}$ is not supported by this experiment, in 422 contrast to results from Sternberg and Ellsworth (2011), where a temperature effect on oxygen 423 fractionation during heterotrophic cellulose biosynthesis is observed. The here observed fractionation 424 between hemicellulose-derived sugars and leaf water, with regard to $\epsilon_{\text{sugar/leaf-water}}$ values, is well in range with values reported for sucrose (exported from photosynthesizing leaves) and leaf water, which 425 426 was shown to be +27‰ (Cernusak et al., 2003). Also the cellulose biosynthesis is associated with an enrichment of around +27‰ compared to the synthesis water as shown in growth experiments 427 (Sternberg et al., 1986; Yakir and DeNiro, 1990). The relatively uniform fractionation is explained via 428 429 the isotope exchange between the carbonyl oxygens of the organic molecules and the surrounding 430 water (cf. Schmidt et al., 2001). This equilibrium fractionation effect was indeed described earlier by the reversible hydration reaction of acetone in water by Sternberg and DeNiro (1983) to be +28, +28 431 432 and +26‰ at 15, 25 and 35°C, respectively. However, the observed range of approximately 9‰ (Fig. 433 4B) could indicate that partially more than the oxygen equilibrium fractionation between organic 434 molecules and medium water have to be considered. Presumably, isotopic as well as sucrose synthesis 435 gradients within the leaf have to be taken into account when interpreting leaf sugar oxygen isotopic 436 compositions and their correlation to leaf water (Lehmann et al., 2017). Lehmann et al. (2017) reported 437 on a fractionation between sucrose and leaf water of +33.1‰. Based on this they proposed a 438 conceptual scheme how such gradients can lead to discrepancies between the isotopic composition of 439 the bulk leaf water and the synthesis water, while the latter is incorporated into the carbohydrates, 440 and thus fractionation determination based on bulk leaf water can exceed the common average of +27‰. Also Mayr et al. (2015) found a fractionation between aquatic cellulose δ^{18} O and lake water 441 442 larger than this value of around +29‰.

443

444 3.4 Strong control of relative humidity over deuterium-excess of leaf water





The correlations between leaf water-based and measured RH_{air} or RH_{leaf} as well as modeled d_e and measured deuterium-excess_{leaf-water} are illustrated in Fig. 5A, B, D and E. Furthermore, modeled LEL slopes are compared to measured LEL slopes in Fig. 5C and F. In red, the results of the less simplified models are displayed (Eqs. 6, 2 and 10), in black the results of the more simplified models are shown (Eqs. 7, 3 and 11).

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- 451 452

(Fig. 5)

453 Evidence for the strong control of relative humidity on deuterium-excess of leaf water comes from 454 multivariate regression analysis between the measured deuterium-excessieaf-water values versus RHair, RH_{leaf} and T_{air}, T_{leaf}. The results reveal that the deuterium-excess_{leaf-water} significantly correlates with RH_{air} 455 of the climate chambers (p < 0.001), with an r^2 of 0.92. When RH_{leaf} and T_{leaf} values are used, the r^2 is 456 457 0.84 and deuterium-excess_{leaf-water} correlates significantly with RH_{leaf} (p < 0.001). The strong control of relative humidity on deuterium-excess of leaf water is furthermore supported by the significant 458 459 correlations between calculated versus measured RH_{air} values (Fig. 5A), regardless of whether the Eq. 460 6 or 7 were used (representing a lower and higher degree of simplification). This is in line with the strong correlation between modeled d_e based on T_{air} and measured deuterium-excess_{leaf-water} values 461 (Fig. 5B). When modeled RH_{leaf} values are compared to the measured ones, the correlation is less 462 463 strong compared to RH_{air} (Fig. 5D vs. 5A), represented by lower R² and higher RMSE values. Clearly 464 more data points are lying above the 1:1 line with regard to RH_{leaf}, compared to RH_{air}. On the same 465 basis, the T_{leaf}-based d_e shows a weaker correlation to the measured values than the T_{air}-based d_e (Fig. 466 5E vs. 5B). The generally better model performance when T_{air} is used (in contrast to T_{leaf}) could point to the fact that T_{leaf} does not well represent the actual conditions in the leaves. For the correlation 467 468 between modeled and measured RH_{leaf} this means that the measured RH_{leaf} values do not reflect the real conditions because measured RH_{leaf} is calculated via e_i/e_a *100 with T_{leaf} as input for the e_a equation 469 470 (see section 2.3). In fact, the RH model results do not differ from each other and can be well compared 471 to the measured RH_{air}, while the measured RH_{leaf} values reveal an average offset of approximately 9% 472 with regard to the median values (Figure S3A). This can be explained by the small difference in ε^* calculated either with T_{leaf} or T_{air} . Moreover, when T_{leaf} values are used to model d_e , the match to T_{air} . 473 474 based de and measured deuterium-excessleaf-water values is weaker (Fig. 5B vs. E; Fig. S3B). This offset is 475 caused by higher T_{leaf} values (compared to T_{air} ; Fig. 1), which are leading to more negative modeled d_e 476 values.

477 Overall, the modeled de values show a high agreement with measured deuterium-excess of leaf water 478 despite without being too positive, which can be expected from the literature. This is because bulk leaf 479 is less enriched than the leaf water at the evaporative sites, which is however, the output of the Craig-480 Gordon-based leaf water enrichment model (e.g. Allison et al., 1985; Barbour et al., 2004; Cernusak et 481 al., 2016; section 2.3). Especially under low relative humidity conditions, the discrepancy between 482 Craig-Gordon model results and the measured values is shown to be more pronounced, associated 483 with higher transpiration fluxes and higher isotope heterogeneity within the leaf water due to a non-484 uniform closure of the stomata (Flanagan et al., 1991; Santrucek et al., 2007). An overestimation of the 485 Craig-Gordon models can hardly be observed here (Fig. 5B and 5E). However, based on the accepted 486 leaf water enrichment theory (e.g. Cernusak et al., 2016), higher transpiration rates (e.g. under low 487 humidity conditions) should still lead to a larger discrepancy between Craig-Gordon modelled and 488 measured leaf water, because the back diffusion of enriched leaf water from the evaporative sites 489 should get lower the higher the transpiration flux is. Why there is no difference between modeled and





490 measured deuterium-excess of leaf water in here presented climate chamber experiment is not 491 comprehensible.

492 The simplified model variants show generally a better correspondence between calculated and measured deuterium-excess of leaf water, based on R² and RMSE, than the less simplified models. This 493 494 does not seem to be related to the slope of the LEL because it can only be linked to the measured 495 values based on the less simplified models (Fig. 5C and 5F). The simplified air and leaf temperature 496 based slopes average at 2.7 and 2.6, respectively, with a common range between 2.5 and 2.8. The 497 average is well in agreement with the mean measured SLEL of 2.9. In addition, a regression through the 498 tank water and all leaf water points reveals a slope of 2.7 (± 0.02, based on subtracting/adding the 499 individual σ ; r² = 0.98, n = 48, p < 0.001). This could be the reason why the more simplified models are 500 still more accurate, despite the less simplified models do not reflect well the range of the measured 501 SLEL, which vary between 2.4 and 3.8. Much better matches are found for the less simplified LEL slopes 502 (T_{air} based: 2.6 and 3.8, T_{leaf} based: 2.5 and 3.5; Fig. 5C and 5F). Indeed the measured as well as the calculated SLEL depend on the ea/ei ratio (hence RHleaf and RHair regarding Tleaf or Tair is used for 503 504 calculations, respectively) and on δ_a - δ_s , in line with the theory and literature (see section 2.3; e.g. 505 Allison et al., 1985). The higher accuracy of the simpler models would therefore imply that the SLEL 506 depend only on equilibrium and kinetic fractionation parameters for both isotopes, which would valid 507 for isotope equilibrium conditions between the tank water (the water source of the plants) and the 508 atmospheric water vapor, allowing the usage of the unambiguous approximation $\delta_a - \delta_s = -\epsilon^*$. Indeed, close-to equilibrium conditions between the tank water and the atmospheric water vapor are observed 509 510 for the climate chambers 4 to 6 and 8, while the others are characterized by a slight disequilibrium 511 conditions. However, the degree of uncertainty seems to be higher when using d_a values, by the probably inadequate representation of the measured $\delta^2 H_{atmospheric-water-vapor}$ and $\delta^{18} O_{atmospheric-water-vapor}$ 512 with the actual conditions influencing the plants in the climate chamber, leading to a generally better 513 performance of the more simplified model variants. 514

515

516 **3.5 Coupling \delta^2 H_{n-alkane} and \delta^{18}O_{sugar} – Potential and limitations**

517 One of the advantages of the proposed coupled $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane} - \delta^{18} O_{sugar}$ approach is a more robust reconstruction of the isotope composition of the source water, which can often be directly linked to 518 519 the local precipitation signal (Hepp et al., 2015, 2017; Tuthorn et al., 2015; Zech et al., 2013a). 520 Therefore, Fig. 6 shows boxplots for measured leaf water, biomarker-based (reconstructed) leaf water, measured source water (tank water; see section 2.1), biomarker-based source water (using 521 522 reconstructed leaf water as origin for the LEL's) and leaf-water-based source water values (using 523 measured leaf water as origin for the LEL's). Source water isotope compositions were calculated via 524 the slopes of the LEL's and the GMWL. The numbers (1-4) mark the available scenarios for source water 525 reconstruction (see section 2.4): 1) S_{LEL} calculated with the more simplified Eq. 11 with T_{air} , 2) as 1 but 526 with T_{Ieaf} , 3) S_{LEL} calculated with Eq. 10 with T_{air} , 4) as 3 but with T_{Ieaf} . Fig. 6 clearly shows that the *n*-527 alkane and sugar biomarkers reflect leaf water rather than tank water used for irrigation. For $\delta^2 H$, 528 neither the range nor the median of the $\delta^2 H_{\text{leaf-water}}$ are well captured by the alkane-based leaf water 529 values. However, the overlapping notches do not support a statistical difference in the median values 530 (Fig. 6A). The medians are still on average 13‰ more positive than the measured $\delta^2 H_{tank-water}$. A higher 531 agreement between measured and modeled values is observed from leaf water-based $\delta^2 H_s$ compared 532 to $\delta^2 H_{tank-water}$. The average offset is reduced to 2‰ and the range is reduced by approximately 70‰, compared to the biomarker-based reconstruction. Besides the more simplified leaf water-based $\delta^2 H_s$ 533 534 using T_{leaf} for calculating ϵ^* (scenario 2 in Fig. 6A), no statistical significant difference can be seen 535 between the leaf water-based $\delta^2 H_s$ and the $\delta^2 H_{tank-water}$, with regard to the overlapping notches.



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537 (Fig. 6) 538 For δ^{18} O, the sugar-based leaf water values are in agreement with the measured ones with regard to 539 the median values, as supported by the largely overlapping notches (Fig. 6B). The range of the 540 541 reconstructed leaf water is in the order of 6‰ smaller than for the measured $\delta^{18}O_{\text{leaf-water}}$ dataset. All reconstructed $\delta^{18}O_s$ values, regardless whether they are biomarker- or leaf water-based, are 542 comparable to the measured $\delta^{18}O_{tank-water}$. While the biomarker-based datasets depict an average 543 544 offset of 2‰, the leaf water-based values only differ by 0.3‰ from the tank water δ^{18} O values, 545 referring to the medians. As for δ^2 H, the same leaf water-based $\delta^{18}O_s$ scenario (more simplified leaf water-based model using T_{leaf} for calculating ϵ^* , scenario 2 in Fig. 6B) do not show overlapping notches 546 with $\delta^{18}O_{tank-water}$, while the other leaf water-based source water reconstructions do. In addition, the 547 range in the leaf water-based $\delta^{18}O_{source-water}$ values is considerable smaller than for the biomarker-based 548 once (9% reduction). The overall larger range in modeled $\delta^2 H_s$ and $\delta^{18} O_s$ compared to measured 549 550 $\delta^2 H_{tank-water}$ and $\delta^{18} O_{tank-water}$ can related to uncertainties in S_{LEL} modeling (see equations in section 551 2.3.2). Bariac et al. (1994) mentioned that they found no agreement between the intersect of modeled LEL's with the GMWL and the plant source water. Allison et al. (1985) explained such results with 552 553 changing environmental conditions, leading to various LEL's with a locus line not necessarily passing 554 the $\delta^2 H_s$ and $\delta^{18} O_s$ data point, in a system that approaches rapidly new steady-state conditions.

555

Finally, the alkane and sugar-based leaf water values were used to reconstruct RH_{air} and RH_{leaf}. While 556 557 the measured RH_{air} is well captured by the biomarker-based air relative humidity values ($R^2 = 0.54$ and 0.48 for the more and less simplified models, respectively, Fig. 7A), the correlations are weak between 558 the reconstructed leaf relative humidity values and the measured RH_{leaf} ($R^2 = 0.09$ and -0.04 for the 559 more and less simplified models, respectively, Fig. 7B). The measured RH_{air} is reconstructed most 560 accurate by the biomarker-based air relative humidity values (Fig. 7A). As for leaf water-based RH 561 reconstructions, a difference between biomarker-based RH_{air} and RH_{leaf} is observed (compare Fig. 7B 562 563 with 7A). This can be explained by the small difference between T_{leaf} and T_{air} , used for ϵ^* calculations in the respective equations. The better performance of the more simplified models compared to the 564 565 less simplified ones, in general, and the fact that Tair seems to be the better model input compared to T_{leaf}, more specifically, can be explained as for the leaf water-based application (see section 3.3). The 566 567 T_{leaf} as well as the measured $\delta^2 H_{\text{atmospheric-water-vapor}}$ and $\delta^{18} O_{\text{atmospheric-water-vapor}}$ values seem to be less representative for the conditions affecting the climate chamber plant leaves. 568

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- 571

(Fig. 7)

Overall, a lower coefficient of determination of the biomarker-based model results compared to the 572 573 leaf water-based reconstructions (compare Fig. 5A and D with Fig. 7A and B) is observed. This can be 574 attributed to the uncertainties in leaf water reconstructed using $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{sugar}$ datasets as discussed in section 3.2. The limitations regarding deuterium arose from the rather weak relationship 575 576 between the δ^2 H of the *n*-alkanes and the leaf water, probably linked with the large range in the fractionation between *n*-alkanes and leaf water ($\epsilon^{2}_{n-alkane/leaf-water}$). The applied equation to 577 578 reconstructed $\delta^2 H_{\text{leaf-water}}$ by using $\delta^2 H_{n-\text{alkane}}$ and a constant biosynthetic fractionation of -160‰ (Eq. 579 13) was considered to be suitable (Sachse et al., 2012; Sessions et al., 1999), but introduce also some 580 uncertainty for the final relative humidity reconstruction. With regard to oxygen, the relatively large 581 variations in $\epsilon_{sugar/leaf-water}$ of 9‰ have to be considered (Fig. 4B), because in the $\delta^{18}O_{leaf-water}$





582 reconstructions a fixed value of +27‰ is used (Eq. 14). Such a uniform biosynthetic fractionation is an 583 approximation which may not always be fulfilled, as shown in the literature (e.g. Sternberg and Ellsworth, 2011; Lehmann et al., 2017). Especially the underestimation of the biomarker-based RH_{air} 584 values under the 68% relative humidity conditions, as well as the large range in reconstructed RH_{air} 585 586 values for the 48, 49, 50% RHair chambers can be attributed to the leaf water reconstruction 587 uncertainties. It should be mentioned that using Eqs. 8 and 9 to calculate leaf water isotope 588 composition based on the biomarkers via a biosynthetic fractionation values implies that the 589 fractionation process in principle can be treated as single process with a unique source. While this 590 approximation can be questioned (see discussion in section 3.2), the overall approximation between 591 biomarker-based and measured RH_{air} highlights the potential of the approach (Hepp et al., 2017; Tuthorn et al., 2015; Zech et al., 2013a), also for future paleo-applications. 592

594 4 Conclusions

593

The climate chamber results and discussion suggest that leaf wax-derived *n*-alkane and hemicellulosederived sugar biomarkers are valuable $\delta^2 H_{\text{leaf-water}}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{\text{leaf-water}}$ recorders, respectively. The coupling of $\delta^2 H_{n-\text{alkane}}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{\text{sugar}}$ results allows moreover a robust RH_{air} reconstruction of the chambers in which the plants were grown, by using simplified Craig-Gordon equations. With regard to the research questions, we summarize as follows:

600 601 Alkanes with the chain-length $n-C_{29}$ were found to be suitable abundant for compound-(i) specific δ^2 H measurements in the leaf samples from all investigated species (*Eucalyptus* 602 globulus, Vicia faba var. minor and Brassica oleracea var. medullosa). For Vicia faba, 603 604 additionally $n-C_{31}$ could be evaluated robustly. $\delta^{18}O_{sugar}$ values could be obtained for the hemicellulose-derived monosaccharides arabinose and xylose. 605 606 (ii) Both the $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{sugar}$ values yielded highly significant correlations with $\delta^2 H_{leaf}$. 607 water and $\delta^{18}O_{\text{leaf-water}}(r^2 = 0.45 \text{ and } 0.85, \text{ respectively; } p < 0.001, n = 24)$. Mean fractionation factors between biomarkers and leaf water were found to be -156‰ (ranging from -133 608 609 to - 192‰) for $\varepsilon_{n-\text{alkane/leaf-water}}$ and +27.3‰ (ranging from +23.0 to +32.3‰) for $\varepsilon_{\text{sugar/leaf-water}}$. (iii) Using measured leaf water isotope composition ($\delta^2 H_{\text{leaf-water}}$ and $\delta^{18} O_{\text{leaf-water}}$) in a less (Eq. 610 6) and a more simplified rearranged Craig-Gordon model (Eq. 7), RH_{air} and RH_{leaf} can be 611 612 derived, by using either T_{air} or T_{leaf}. Most accurately, the RH_{air} values via Eq. 7 can be

reconstructed, with a calculated R^2 of 0.84 (p < 0.001) between measured and modeled

RH_{air} and a RMSE of 6%. RH_{leaf} reconstructions seemed less robust. 614 Reconstructed source water isotope composition ($\delta^2 H_s$, $\delta^{18} O_s$) are in range with the 615 (iv) measured tank water ($\delta^2 H_{tank-water}$, $\delta^{18} O_{tank-water}$). However, modeled $\delta^2 H_s$ and $\delta^{18} O_s$ show a 616 617 clear large range compared to $\delta^2 H_{tank-water}$ and $\delta^{18} O_{tank-water}$. The uncertainties for source water determination are thus considerably higher compared to the relative humidity 618 619 reconstructions. Still, the coupled $\delta^2 H - \delta^{18} O$ approach enables a back calculation of the 620 plant source water. Uncertainties, with regard to relative humidity reconstructions via biomarker-based leaf water isotope composition, arose from leaf water reconstructions 621 622 and model uncertainties, as shown in conclusions ii) and iii). Overall, the biomarker-based 623 and measured RH_{air} correlation with a R^2 of 0.54 (p < 0.001) and a RMSE of 10% highlights the great potential of the coupled $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane} - \delta^{18} O_{sugar}$ paleohygrometer approach for 624 reliable relative humidity reconstructions. 625

626





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641 642

643 Author contributions

J. Hepp and M. Zech wrote the paper; C. Mayr was responsible for the climate chamber experiment
together with W. Stichler and provided the leaf samples and the data; M. Zech and R. Zech were
responsible for compound-specific isotope analysis on the biomarkers; J. Hepp, M. Tuthorn and I. K.
Schäfer did laboratory work and data evaluation of the biomarker compound-specific isotope analysis;
B. Glaser, D. Juchelka, K. Rozanski and all co-authors contributed to the discussion and commented on
the manuscript.





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909 Figure captions

910 Fig. 1: A: Plant water (leaf water, xylem water and soil water) isotope compositions (in green, orange 911 and brown, respectively) and the isotope composition of the investigated leaf biomarkers (leaf wax n-912 alkanes $n-C_{29}$ and $n-C_{31}$ as open diamonds and triangles, respectively; hemicellulose-derived sugars: 913 arabinose and xylose as open squares and circles, respectively) for the three plants Eucalyptus 914 globulus, Vicia faba and Brassica oleracea grown in the climate chambers. B: Associated climate chamber conditions (leaf temperature and relative humidity in green and air temperature and relative 915 916 humidity in red). Error bars represent analytical standard deviation of the respective measurements 917 (see section 2.2 and Mayr, 2002).

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Fig. 2: δ^2 H- δ^{18} O diagram illustrating the isotope composition of the biomarkers, comprising δ^2 H values of the leaf wax *n*-alkanes (C₂₉ for *Eucalyptus globulus* and *Brassica oleracea*; weighted mean of C₂₉ and C₃₁ for *Vicia faba*) and δ^{18} O values of the hemicellulose-derived sugars arabinose and xylose (black crosses) and the measured isotope compositions of leaf water (green squares), xylem water (orange squares), soil water (brown squares), atmospheric water vapor (red squares) and the tank water used for irrigation (blue triangle), which plot very close to the global meteoric water line.

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Fig. 3: Scatterplots depicting the relationships between the compound-specific biomarker isotope composition and the respective leaf water values (A: $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ vs. $\delta^2 H_{leaf-water}$; B: $\delta^{18}O_{sugar}$ vs. $\delta^{18}O_{leaf-water}$). *Brassica oleracea, Eucalyptus globulus* and *Vicia faba* samples are shown in purple, orange and black, respectively. Error bars of the δ values represent standard deviation of repeated measurements (see section 2.2 and Mayr, 2002).

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Fig. 4: Boxplots comprising the plant-specific fractionation between the biomarkers and the leaf water (A: $\varepsilon_{n-alkane/leaf-water}$ according Eq. 8; B: $\varepsilon_{sugar/leaf-water}$ according to Eq. 9). *Brassica oleracera, Eucalyptus globulus* and *Vicia faba* samples are shown in purple, orange and black, respectively. Boxplots show median (thick black line), interquartile range (IQR) with upper (75%) and lower (25%) quartiles, lower and upper whiskers, which are restricted to $1.5 \cdot IQR$. Outside the $1.5 \cdot IQR$ space, the data points are marked with a dot. The notches are extend to $\pm 1.58 \cdot IQR/\sqrt{n}$, by convention and give a 95% confidence interval for the difference of two medians (McGill et al., 1978).

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940 Fig. 5: Scatterplots illustrating the correlation between leaf water-based and measured air/leaf relative humidity [modeled vs. measured RH_{air} (A) and RH_{leaf} (B)], modeled vs. measured leaf water deuterium-941 942 excess [Tair-based (B) and Tieaf-based (E) de vs. deuterium-excessieaf-water] and modeled vs. measured LEL 943 slopes [Tair-based (C) and Tieaf-based (F) vs. measured slopes]. In red, the results of the less simplified 944 models are displayed (Eq. 2 for de, Eq. 6 for RH and Eq. 10 for SLEL) and in black the results of the more 945 simplified models are shown (Eq. 3 and de, Eq. 7 for RH and Eq. 11 for SLEL). Black lines indicate the 1:1 946 relationship. R² and RMSE are calculated as described in section 2.4, while the RMSE values have the 947 dimensions of the respective variables. Error bars for the measured RH values represent analytical 948 standard deviations (see Mayr, 2002). For the uncertainties of the calculated and modeled variables see section 2.4. 949

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Fig. 6: Boxplots showing the measured leaf water in comparison to the biomarker-based leaf water
 (according Eqs. 8 and 9), tank water, source water calculated with biomarker-based leaf water values
 and source water based on measured leaf water. Source water isotope compositions were calculated
 via the slopes of the LEL's (either with biomarker-based or measured leaf water values) and the GMWL.





The numbers (1-4) mark the available scenarios for source water reconstruction (see section 2.4): 1 = S_{LEL} calculated according more simplified Eq. 11 with T_{air}, 2 = as 1 but with T_{leaf}, 3 = S_{LEL} calculated according less simplified Eq. 10 with T_{air}, 4 = as 3 but with T_{leaf}. Boxplots show median (thick black line), interquartile range (IQR) with upper (75%) and lower (25%) quartiles, lower and upper whiskers, which are restricted to 1.5 · IQR. Outside the 1.5 · IQR space, the data points are marked with a dot. The notches are extend to ± 1.58 · IQR/ \sqrt{n} , by convention and give a 95% confidence interval for the difference of two medians (McGill et al., 1978).

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Fig. 7: Scatterplots depicting the relationship between biomarker-based (modeled) and measured air/leaf relative humidity [RH_{air} (A) and RH_{leaf} (B)]. Black lines indicate the 1:1 relationship. R² and RMSE was calculated as described in section 2.4, while the RMSE values have the dimensions of the respective variables. Error bars for the measured values represent analytical standard deviations (see Mayr, 2002). For uncertainty calculation of the modeled properties, see section 2.4. In addition, the leaf water-based air/leaf relative humidity results (from Fig. 5A and D) are shown in light colors for comparison.

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Fig. S1: Boxplots comprising the plant-specific $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ (A) and $\delta^{18}O_{sugar}$ values (B). *Brassica oleracera, Eucalyptus globulus* and *Vicia faba* samples are shown in purple, orange and black, respectively. Boxplots show median (thick black line), interquartile range (IQR) with upper (75%) and lower (25%) quartiles, lower and upper whiskers, which are restricted to $1.5 \cdot IQR$. Outside the $1.5 \cdot IQR$ space, the data points are marked with a dot. The notches are extend to $\pm 1.58 \cdot IQR/\sqrt{n}$, by convention and give a 95% confidence interval for the difference of two medians (McGill et al., 1978).

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Fig. S2: Scatterplots of the fractionation between the biomarkers and leaf water vs. air temperature, air relative humidity (A and B: $\varepsilon_{n-alkane/leaf-water}$ according Eq. 13; C and D $\varepsilon_{sugar/leaf-water}$ according Eq. 14). *Brassica oleracera, Eucalyptus globulus* and *Vicia faba* samples are shown in purple, orange and black, respectively. Error bars for the measured values represent analytical standard deviations of repeated measurements (see section 2.2 and Mayr, 2002). For uncertainty calculation of the ε values, see section 2.4.

Fig. S3: Boxplots comprising measured and modeled RH (A) and deuterium-excess values (B). The numbers (1-2) mark the two available models for RH_{leaf/air} and d_e reconstruction (see section 2.4): 1 = more simplified models (Eq. 3 for d_e and Eq. 7 for RH), 2 = less simplified models (Eq. 2 for d_e and Eq. 6 for RH). Boxplots show median (thick black line), interquartile range (IQR) with upper (75%) and lower (25%) quartiles, lower and upper whiskers, which are restricted to 1.5 · IQR. Outside the 1.5 · IQR space, the data points are marked with a dot. The notches are extend to ± 1.58 · IQR/ \sqrt{n} , by convention and give a 95% confidence interval for the difference of two medians (McGill et al., 1978).





992 Fig. 1

A) water and biomarker $\delta^{2}\text{H}/\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values







994 Fig. 2



















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Fig. 6





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