

RESEARCH PAPER

A meta-analysis of mesophyll conductance to CO₂ in relation to major abiotic stresses in poplar species

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Abstract

Mesophyll conductance (g_m) determines the diffusion of CO₂ from the substomatal cavities to the site of carboxylation in the chloroplasts and represents a critical component of the diffusive limitation of photosynthesis. In this study, we evaluated the average effect sizes of different environmental constraints on g_m in *Populus* spp., a forest tree model. We collected raw data of 815 A–C_i response curves from 26 datasets to estimate g_m , using a single curve-fitting method to alleviate method-related bias. We performed a meta-analysis to assess the effects of different abiotic stresses on g_m . We found a significant increase in g_m from the bottom to the top of the canopy that was concomitant with the increase of maximum rate of carboxylation and light-saturated photosynthetic rate (A_{max}). g_m was positively associated with increases in soil moisture and nutrient availability, but was insensitive to increasing soil copper concentration and did not vary with atmospheric CO₂ concentration. Our results showed that g_m was strongly related to A_{max} and to a lesser extent to stomatal conductance (g_s). Moreover, a negative exponential relationship was obtained between g_m and specific leaf area, which may be used to scale-up g_m within the canopy.

Keywords: Abiotic stress, A–C_i curve, mesophyll conductance, meta-analysis, photosynthesis, poplar.

Introduction

Carbon assimilation in plants is importantly determined by the diffusion efficiency of CO₂ from the atmosphere to the site of carboxylation. The rate of CO₂ diffusion is affected by two main diffusion limitations. The first limitation controls the CO₂ flux from the atmosphere to the sub-stomatal cavities through the stomata and is characterized by stomatal conductance (g_s). The second limitation determines the diffusion of CO₂ from the substomatal cavities to the sites of carboxylation in the chloroplasts and is characterized by mesophyll conductance (g_m). g_m is composed of gaseous and liquid phase resistances (Flexas *et al.*, 2008; Evans *et al.*, 2009; Niinemets *et al.*, 2009). CO₂ diffusion inside the leaves is complex, facing a series of structural barriers coupled with biochemical regulation. It has been shown that g_m is typically limited by liquid phase conductance both in species with soft mesophytic leaves and in species with tough xerophytic leaves (Tosens *et al.*, 2012a, b; Tomás *et al.*, 2013). The liquid phase is a multicomponent pathway that involves the mesophyll cell wall thickness and porosity, the plasmalemma, the chloroplast envelope, the chloroplast thickness, and the mesophyll surface area exposed to intercellular air spaces per unit of leaf area (Evans *et al.*, 2009; Tosens *et al.*, 2012b; Tomás *et al.*, 2013). After extensive study during the past two decades, g_m is now widely accepted as a critical limiting factor to photosynthesis, which has to be considered in characterizing plant carbon gain potentials and responses to future climate change (Evans *et al.*, 2009; Niinemets *et al.*, 2009, 2011; Flexas *et al.*, 2016).

Mesophyll conductance has been shown to respond to environmental stress and may govern functional plasticity of photosynthesis and plant fitness under limited resources (Galle *et al.*, 2009; Barbour *et al.*, 2010; Buckley and Warren, 2014; Thérroux Rancourt *et al.*, 2015; Flexas *et al.*, 2016; Shrestha *et al.*, 2018). However, recent findings on the response of g_m to abiotic stress are conflicting and inconclusive, demonstrating the complex nature of g_m variation (Flexas *et al.*, 2008; Niinemets *et al.*, 2009; Zhou *et al.*, 2014; Shrestha *et al.*, 2018). This suggests that the environmental and species-specific responses (and consequently the level of acclimation) of g_m to growth conditions should be considered in predicting plant performance in the field. Among the contrasting environmental responses, growth temperature may (Warren, 2008; Silim *et al.*, 2010) or may not (Dillaway and Kruger, 2010; Benomar *et al.*, 2018) affect g_m . Similarly, the increase in soil nitrogen may (Warren, 2004; Shrestha *et al.*, 2018; Xu *et al.*, 2020; Zhu *et al.*, 2020) or may not (Bown *et al.*, 2009) stimulate g_m . The magnitude of decrease in g_m under water stress and low light differed among studies (Warren *et al.*, 2003; Niinemets *et al.*, 2006; Montpied *et al.*, 2009; Bögelein *et al.*, 2012; Tosens *et al.*, 2012a; Zhou *et al.*, 2014; Peguero-Pina *et al.*, 2015; Thérroux Rancourt *et al.*, 2015). These discrepancies among studies result in part from (i) the absolute changes in structural and biochemical traits controlling g_m , as well as from changes in the relative

contribution of these traits (Marchi *et al.*, 2008; Tomás *et al.*, 2013), and (ii) the level of coordination between g_m , g_s , and leaf specific hydraulic conductivity (K_L) (Flexas *et al.*, 2013; Thérroux-Rancourt *et al.*, 2014; Xiong *et al.*, 2017). Given the complex interplay between different factors controlling g_m , it is important to examine its acclimation at the genus and species level to gain a general insight into the mechanistic basis of changes in g_m .

Five methods exist to estimate g_m : (i) chlorophyll fluorescence coupled to gas exchange (Harley *et al.*, 1992), (ii) carbon isotope discrimination coupled to gas exchange (initially developed by Evans *et al.*, 1986), (iii) oxygen isotope discrimination (Barbour *et al.*, 2016), (iv) $A-C_i$ curve fitting (Ethier and Livingston, 2004; Sharkey *et al.*, 2007), and (v) 1D modeling of g_m from leaf structural characteristics (Evans *et al.*, 2009; Tosens *et al.*, 2012b; Tomás *et al.*, 2013). All of these methods are based on specific assumptions and each one has its limitations (Flexas *et al.*, 2013; Tosens and Laanisto, 2018). The standard deviation of the estimate of g_m may vary from 10% to 40%, which may limit our understanding of g_m acclimation to growth conditions, particularly when the variation between treatments or studies is less than the error of estimates (Sun *et al.*, 2014a).

Populus spp., model crops in forestry characterized by high yield potential, have been the subject of numerous studies to understand the physiological response to environmental factors but research is still necessary to make assessment of effects sizes and to make generalizations (Larocque *et al.*, 2013). A general understanding of the CO₂ pathway through mesophyll and how it is affected by environmental factors would be beneficial in the effort to (i) accurately predict canopy photosynthesis under different environmental conditions, particularly under warmer and drier climate, and improve global carbon assimilation models, and (ii) effectively select more resilient and productive cultivars for wood and bioenergy. In poplar plantations, organic amendments like biosolids and pig slurry are used to increase growth rate at a low cost (Paniagua *et al.*, 2016). These amendments are rich in copper, the effect of which on photosynthetic activity, growth, and nutrient uptake has been well-documented in *Populus* spp. (Tognetti *et al.*, 2004; Borghi *et al.*, 2008; Pietrini *et al.*, 2017). In addition, poplar is a good candidate for environmental use in phytoremediation of contaminated water in agriculture lands, where copper is a major contaminant due to the large use of copper sulfate as a fungicide and in weed control (Fischerová *et al.*, 2006; Marmioli *et al.*, 2011).

Substantial data of $A-C_i$ response curves in the literature have been used to estimate photosynthetic parameters, not to estimate g_m , and such compiled dataset would provide a basis to make such assessments of the response of g_m to the environment. In this study, we compiled 815 $A-C_i$ response curves from 26 datasets of different poplar species and hybrids (Table 1). Published $A-C_i$ curve-fitting approaches differ broadly regarding the rectangularity of the hyperbola, segmentations of

Table 1. List of dataset sources used in the meta-analysis

Author	<i>Populus</i> species or hybrid parents	Number of genotypes	Treatment	Provenance of plant material	Growth Environment	Number of curves
Attia <i>et al.</i> (2015)	<i>P. balsamifera</i> L. <i>P. simonii</i> Carrière <i>P. balsamifera</i> L. × <i>P. simonii</i> Carrière	3	N/A	Canada	Growth chamber	15
Benomar <i>et al.</i> (https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.9cnp5hqhp)	<i>P. maximowiczii</i> A. Henry × <i>P. balsamifera</i> L.	2	Water stress	Canada	Growth chamber	12
Benomar (2012)	<i>P. maximowiczii</i> A. Henry × <i>P. balsamifera</i> L. <i>P. balsamifera</i> L. × <i>P. trichocarpa</i> Torr. & A. Gray	2	Spacing and canopy level	Canada	Plantation	52
Benomar <i>et al.</i> (2019)	<i>P. maximowiczii</i> A. Henry × <i>P. balsamifera</i> L. <i>P. maximowiczii</i> A. Henry × <i>P. nigra</i> L.	2	Temperature and nitrogen	Canada	Growth chamber	23
Borghi <i>et al.</i> (2007)	<i>P. × euramericana</i> (<i>P. deltoides</i> W. Bartram × <i>P. nigra</i> L.) (clone Adda)	1	Copper	Italy	Growth chamber	21
Borghi <i>et al.</i> (2008)	<i>P. alba</i> L. <i>P. × Canadensis</i> (<i>P. nigra</i> L. × <i>P. deltoides</i> W. Bartram)	2	Copper	Italy	Growth chamber	18
Calfapietra <i>et al.</i> (2005)	<i>P. × euramericana</i> (<i>P. deltoides</i> W. Bartram × <i>P. nigra</i> L.)	1	Nitrogen and atmospheric CO ₂ and canopy level	Italy	Plantation	60
Castagna <i>et al.</i> (2015)	<i>P. × canadensis</i> (<i>P. nigra</i> L. × <i>P. deltoides</i> W. Bartram) <i>P. deltoides</i> W. Bartram × <i>P. maximowiczii</i> A. Henry	2	Ozone and cadmium soil contamination	Italy	Greenhouse	16
Di Baccio <i>et al.</i> (2009)	<i>P. × euramericana</i> (<i>P. deltoides</i> W. Bartram × <i>P. nigra</i> L.) (clone i-214)	1	Zinc soil contamination	Italy	Growth chamber	12
Elferjani <i>et al.</i> (2016)	<i>P. trichocarpa</i> Torr. & A. Gray × <i>P. balsamifera</i> L. (clone 747215) <i>P. balsamifera</i> L. × <i>P. maximowiczii</i> A. Henry (clones 915004 and 915005) <i>P. maximowiczii</i> A. Henry × <i>P. balsamifera</i> L. (clone 915319)	4	Latitudinal gradient	Canada	Plantation	24
Li <i>et al.</i> (2013)	<i>P. euphratica</i> Oliv.	1	Ground water availability	China	In field under shelter (lysimeter)	9
Merilo <i>et al.</i> (2010)	<i>P. nigra</i> L. <i>P. alba</i> L.	2	Atmospheric CO ₂ (FACE) and nitrogen and canopy level	Italy	Plantation	104
Niinemets <i>et al.</i> (1998)	<i>P. tremula</i> L.	1	Canopy level	Estonia	Natural forest stands	14
Ripullone <i>et al.</i> (2003)	<i>P. × euramericana</i> (<i>P. deltoides</i> W. Bartram × <i>P. nigra</i> L.) (clone i-214)	1	Nitrogen	Italy	Greenhouse	14
Ryan <i>et al.</i> (2009)	<i>P. deltoides</i> W. Bartram × <i>P. trichocarpa</i> Torr. & A. Gray	2	Ozone	United Kingdom	Greenhouse	118

Table 1. Continued

Author	<i>Populus</i> species or hybrid parents	Number of genotypes	Treatment	Provenance of plant material	Growth Environment	Number of curves
Silim et al. (2010)	<i>P. balsamifera</i> L.	1	Habitat and growth temperature	Canada	Greenhouse	30
Soolanayakanahally et al. (2009)	<i>P. balsamifera</i> L.	1	Latitudinal gradient	Canada	Greenhouse	72
Théroux-Rancourt et al. (https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.7sqv9s4s0)	<i>P. deltoides</i> W. Bartram × <i>P. nigra</i> L. (clone 3570) <i>P. maximowiczii</i> A. Henry × (<i>P. deltoides</i> W. Bartram × <i>P. trichocarpa</i> Torr. & A. Gray) (clones 505372 and 505508) <i>P. maximowiczii</i> A. Henry × <i>P. trichocarpa</i> Torr. & A. Gray (clone 750361) <i>P. maximowiczii</i> A. Henry × <i>P. balsamifera</i> L. (clones 915302, 915313, 915318) (<i>P. deltoides</i> W. Bartram × <i>P. nigra</i> L.) × <i>P. trichocarpa</i> Torr. & A. Gray (clone 915508)	8	Water stress	Canada	Greenhouse	38
Théroux-Rancourt et al. (2014)	Assiniboine: [(<i>P.</i> × 'Walker': <i>P. deltoides</i> W. Bartram × <i>P.</i> × <i>petrowskiana</i> R. I. Schrod. ex Regel) × male parent unknown] Okanese [(<i>P.</i> × 'Walker') × <i>P.</i> × <i>petrowskiana</i> R. I. Schrod. ex Regel]	2	N/A	Canada	Greenhouse and growth chamber	3
Théroux-Rancourt et al. (2015)	(<i>P. maximowiczii</i> A. Henry) × (<i>P. deltoides</i> W. Bartram × <i>P. trichocarpa</i> Torr. & A. Gray) <i>P. maximowiczii</i> A. Henry × <i>P. balsamifera</i> L. 'Walker' [<i>P. deltoides</i> W. Bartram × (<i>P. laurifolia</i> Ledeb. × <i>P. nigra</i> L.)] × <i>P. deltoides</i> W. Bartram 'Walker' × <i>P. petrowskyana</i> Schr. <i>P. balsamifera</i> L.	5	N/A	Canada	Greenhouse and growth chamber	12
Tissue and Lewis (2010)	<i>P. deltoides</i> W. Bartram	1	Phosphorous and atmospheric CO ₂	Australia	Growth chamber	76
Tognetti et al. (https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.w3r2280qq)	<i>P.</i> × <i>euramericana</i> (<i>P. nigra</i> L. × <i>P. deltoides</i> W. Bartram) (clone i-214)	1	Zinc soil contamination	Italy	Greenhouse	24
Tognetti et al. (2004)	<i>P. deltoides</i> W. Bartram × <i>P. maximowiczii</i> A. Henry <i>P.</i> × <i>euramericana</i> (<i>P. deltoides</i> W. Bartram × <i>P. nigra</i> L.) (clone i-214)	2	Heavy metals	Italy	Greenhouse	24
Tosens et al. (2012a)	<i>P. tremula</i> L.	1	Light and water stress	Estonia	Growth chamber	8
Velikova et al. (2011)	<i>P. nigra</i> L.	20	Nickel soil contamination	Italy	Growth chamber (climate chamber)	16
Xu et al. (2020)	<i>P.</i> × <i>euramericana</i> (<i>P. deltoides</i> W. Bartram × <i>P. nigra</i> L.) (cv. '74/76')	1	Nitrogen and ozone	China	Growth chamber	6

the model of photosynthesis, and determination of the transition value of CO_2 from carboxylation to electron transport (Harley *et al.*, 1992; Ethier and Livingston, 2004; Manter and Kerrigan, 2004; Dubois *et al.*, 2007; Sharkey *et al.*, 2007; Pons *et al.*, 2009; Gu *et al.*, 2010). These approaches led to different fitted values (Miao *et al.*, 2009; Sun *et al.*, 2014a). Although $A-C_i$ curve fitting is unreliable for species with large g_m , it can provide results similar to those obtained from direct measurements for species with medium to low g_m (Niinemets *et al.*, 2005, 2006; Warren, 2006; Qiu *et al.*, 2017; Xu *et al.*, 2020). Using the compiled $A-C_i$ response curves, we performed curve fitting using a single method (Ethier and Livingston, 2004) to alleviate the fitting method bias and to obtain uniformed estimates of g_m , maximum rate of carboxylation (V_{cmax}) and rate of electron transport (J). We further collected related variables like leaf nitrogen content, stomatal conductance, and specific leaf area (SLA) when data were available. Our main goal was to find trends in the response of mesophyll conductance to prevalent abiotic stressors and to examine the relationship between g_m and other leaf traits. We believe that a meta-analytical approach to analyse the accumulated data on the diffusion of CO_2 through the mesophyll diffusion pathway in relation to other photosynthesis-related traits provides key insights into the different controls on mesophyll conductance and into the environmental plasticity of mesophyll conductance. We aim to contribute to the efforts of improving poplar photosynthetic efficiency in poplar breeding programs, and to improve modelling of global carbon assimilation of biomass and bioenergy crops under climate change.

Materials and methods

Data collection

Data were collected by a web search in Web of Science, Scopus, and Google Scholar using the following key words: ('*Populus*' or 'poplar' or 'hybrid poplar' or 'aspen') and (' V_{cmax} ' or 'maximum rate of electron transport (J_{max})' or 'mesophyll conductance'). At this step, the abstract of every item was checked to confirm the paper is actually about g_m . Then, we looked at the 'Materials and methods' section of selected papers where $A-C_i$ response curves of *Populus* spp. were measured.

To get raw data of $A-C_i$ response curves, we contacted the corresponding authors or co-authors of the targeted studies by e-mail and via ResearchGate. We obtained 23 datasets from published studies and three datasets from Benhomar, Tognetti and Th  roux-Rancourt studies (Table 1; datasets available at Dryad Digital Repository). Collectively, they provided a total of 815 $A-C_i$ response curves.

The total data of 72 genotypes were collected from measurements on plants growing in plantations (five studies), or under controlled conditions (greenhouse or growth chamber set-ups; 21 studies) with optimal and stressful conditions (Table 1). After compiling all $A-C_i$ curves, the quality of the data was assessed based on the following criteria: (i) only curves with at least two points in the saturation region (J region) were retained; (ii) only fitted curves with P -value < 0.05 using the method of Ethier and Livingston (2004) were retained, and consequently 65 curves that did not meet these conditions were removed; and (iii) based on the literature, g_m values in *Populus* spp. using at least two methods simultaneously never exceeded $1 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Singsaas *et al.*, 2004; Flexas *et al.*, 2008; Velikova *et al.*, 2011; Tosens

et al., 2012a; Th  roux-Rancourt *et al.*, 2014; Momayyezi and Guy, 2017; Xu *et al.*, 2020). Then, g_m values $> 1 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ were considered as non-available data (94 entries), and V_{cmax} and J values were retained for further analyses.

Data subsets

To examine the effect of a given abiotic factor on g_m , we estimated that a minimum of three studies is necessary to have reliable conclusions, regardless of the genotype used, except copper for which only two studies were examined because they had been conducted under the same experimental conditions. Then, we could come up with subsets of data that focused on the same variable and performed analyses on them separately (identified in the column 'Treatment' in Table 1). Our first goal was to examine the effect of variations in these factors on g_m , light-saturated photosynthetic rate (A_{max}), g_s , J , V_{cmax} , and in a second step, the relationships between g_m and other photosynthetic characteristics (A_{max} , g_s , J , V_{cmax}). The data subsets included the following environmental factors:

- Canopy level: four studies addressed the photosynthetic activity of leaves at the bottom, middle and top of trees (Niinemets *et al.*, 1998; Calfapietra *et al.*, 2005; Merilo *et al.*, 2010; Benomar, 2012).
- Atmospheric CO_2 : we examined the response of trees to elevated atmospheric CO_2 from the studies of Calfapietra *et al.* (2005), Merilo *et al.* (2010) and Tissue and Lewis (2010). We considered 370 ppm as the control treatment in the three studies, while the elevated CO_2 was 550 ppm of CO_2 for the studies of Calfapietra *et al.* (2005) and Merilo *et al.* (2010), and 700 ppm for the study of Tissue and Lewis (2010).
- Copper (Cu) stress: datasets from the studies of Borghi *et al.* (2007) and Borghi *et al.* (2008) were used to examine the response of poplar trees to contamination of the substrate with Cu. Treatments were assigned to three levels of Cu: 0 (0–0.4 μM), 20 (20–25 μM) and 75 (75–100 μM).
- Soil nitrogen (N) content: high *vs.* low soil N content treatments were reported in four studies: Ripullone *et al.* (2003), Calfapietra *et al.* (2005), Benomar *et al.* (2018) and Xu *et al.* (2020). In the study of Merilo *et al.* (2010), the authors showed that no effect of nitrogen fertilization was observed due to high background nutrient availability in the plantation site.
- Soil moisture: water status of trees was assessed and data from four studies were classified into two treatments: control (optimal watering) *vs.* water deficit (Li *et al.*, 2013; Tosens *et al.*, 2012a; Th  roux-Rancourt (data available at Dryad Digital Repository: <https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.7sqv9s4s0>); Benomar (data available at Dryad Digital Repository: <https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.9cnp5hqp>).

For Xu *et al.* (2020), we extracted data from the article (means and standard errors) and generated three replicates assuming a normal distribution using the SURVEYSELECT procedure of SAS (version 9.4; SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA). The reason is that the authors used the same curve fitting approach (Ethier and Livingston, 2004) the we used in this meta-analysis study (Table 1).

For studies with two or more investigated factors, we considered the different levels of the factor of interest and the control level of the rest of the factors to avoid between-factor interaction effects on the results. For example, in Calfapietra *et al.* (2005), trees were subject to different levels of N and CO_2 ; when we focused on the effect of N, we selected trees exposed to ambient CO_2 only (control).

Curve analysis

Mesophyll conductance and photosynthetic capacity variables, V_{cmax} and J , were estimated by fitting $A-C_i$ curve with the non-rectangular hyperbola version (Ethier and Livingston, 2004) of the biochemical model of

C_3 plants (Farquhar et al., 1980). This method was calibrated for low g_m species ($<0.3 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) and its accuracy is similar to estimates using the chlorophyll fluorescence method and online carbon ^{13}C isotope discrimination (Niinemets et al., 2005, 2006; Ethier et al., 2006; Tomás et al., 2013; Qiu et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2020). The model was fitted using non-linear regression techniques (Proc NLIN, SAS) following Dubois et al. (2007) and Sun et al. (2014a).

Briefly, the net assimilation rate (A_n) is given as:

$$A_n = \min \{A_c, A_j\} \quad (1)$$

with

$$A_c = V_{\text{cmax}} \frac{(C_c - \Gamma^*)}{C_c + K_c \left(1 + \frac{O}{K_o}\right)} - R_{\text{day}} \quad (2)$$

$$A_j = J \frac{C_c - \Gamma^*}{4(C_c + 2\Gamma^*)} - R_{\text{day}} \quad (3)$$

$$C_c = C_i - \frac{A_n}{g_m} \quad (4)$$

where A_c is the Rubisco-limited rate of CO_2 assimilation ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$), A_j is the RuBP-limited rate of CO_2 assimilation ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$), V_{cmax} is the maximum rate of carboxylation ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$), O is the partial atmospheric pressure of O_2 (mmol mol^{-1}), Γ^* is the CO_2 compensation point in the absence of mitochondrial respiration, R_{day} is mitochondrial respiration in the light ($\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$), C_c is the chloroplast CO_2 ($\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$), C_i is the intercellular air space concentration of CO_2 ($\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$), K_c ($\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) and K_o (mmol mol^{-1}) are the Michaelis-Menten constants of Rubisco for CO_2 and O_2 , respectively, and J is the rate of electron transport ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$). The values at 25°C used for K_c , K_o , and Γ^* were $272 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$, $166 \text{ mmol mol}^{-1}$ and $37.4 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$, respectively (Sharkey et al., 2007), and their temperature dependencies were as in Sharkey et al. (2007).

In four datasets, measurements were carried out under a temperature that was different from the reference (25°C). In this case, V_{cmax} and J were normalized to 25°C using the model of Kattge and Knorr (2007), which integrates the acclimation to growth temperature. However, the actual values of V_{cmax} and J were more often significant compared with normalized values, and this was true using both ANOVA and regression analyses.

Quantitative limitations analysis

The stomatal conductance (L_s), mesophyll conductance (L_m), and biochemical (L_b) relative limitations to photosynthesis were estimated following Grassi and Magnani (2005) as modified by Tomás et al. (2013):

$$L_s = \frac{(g_{\text{tot}}/g_{\text{sc}}) \partial A_c / \partial C_c}{g_{\text{tot}} + \partial A_c / \partial C_c} \quad (5)$$

$$L_m = \frac{(g_{\text{tot}}/g_m) \partial A_c / \partial C_c}{g_{\text{tot}} + \partial A_c / \partial C_c} \quad (6)$$

$$L_b = \frac{g_{\text{tot}}}{g_{\text{tot}} + \partial A_c / \partial C_c} \quad (7)$$

where g_{tot} is the total CO_2 conductance and g_{sc} is the stomatal conductance to CO_2 ($g_{\text{sc}} = g_{\text{sw}}/1.6$).

$$g_{\text{tot}} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{g_{\text{sc}}} + \frac{1}{g_m}} \quad (8)$$

$$\frac{\partial A_c}{\partial C_c} = \frac{V_{\text{cmax}} (\Gamma^* + k_c (1 + O/k_o))}{(C_c + k_c (1 + O/k_o))^2} \quad (9)$$

where $\frac{\partial A_c}{\partial C_c}$ is the first derivative of A_c with respect to C_c .

Factors for which A_{max} changed significantly (canopy level, soil nitrogen, and soil moisture), the absolute contribution of stomatal conductance limitation (L_s), mesophyll conductance (L_m), and biochemical photosynthetic capacity limitation (L_b) to observed change of A_{max} were estimated following Grassi and Magnani (2005):

$$\frac{dA_{\text{max}}}{A_{\text{max}}} = L_s + L_m + L_b = L_s \frac{dg_{\text{sc}}}{g_{\text{sc}}} + L_m \frac{dg_m}{g_m} + L_b \frac{dV_{\text{cmax}}}{V_{\text{cmax}}} \quad (10)$$

where $\frac{dA_{\text{max}}}{A_{\text{max}}}$ is the difference of A_{max} between the reference and the other treatments (within each factor) divided by A_{max} of the reference.

Statistical analyses

Data analysis assessing the effect of the environmental factors on g_m and the relationship between g_m and the other traits were carried out using SAS version 9.4.

For studies that focused on nitrogen, soil moisture, CO_2 , canopy level and copper, the effect of treatments on light-saturated photosynthetic rate (A_{max}), g_m , and g_{sw} was assessed separately for each response variable, using mixed model analyses of variance of the primary data (Riley et al., 2010; Mengersen et al., 2013). 'Treatment' was the fixed effect while 'study' and 'genotype' nested within study were the random effects. The number of replicates was not necessarily balanced across treatments. The assumptions of normality of the residuals and homogeneity of variance were verified, and a log-transformation was made when necessary.

Results

The number of studies on mesophyll conductance has rapidly increased since 2000, and more remarkably since 2013 (Fig. 1A), suggesting a growing interest among plant ecophysiologists in understanding the role of g_m in photosynthesis. This pattern was very similar to the increase of publication number on mesophyll conductance in *Populus* spp. (Fig. 1B).

Canopy level

Light-saturated photosynthetic rate at an ambient CO_2 concentration ($380\text{--}400 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$), A_{max} , significantly increased from $7.19 \pm 0.44 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ on average at the bottom leaves to $13.15 \pm 0.45 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at the mid-canopy, to $16.29 \pm 0.53 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at the upper canopy (Fig. 2A; Supplementary Table S1). Similar to A_{max} , g_m had an ascending pattern, from the bottom ($0.12 \pm 0.01 \text{ mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) to the top of the canopy ($0.24 \pm 0.02 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) (Fig. 2C). Stomatal conductance (g_{sw}) was the lowest at the bottom canopy ($0.17 \pm 0.01 \text{ mol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) and then increased to $0.36 \pm 0.02 \text{ mol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at the mid and upper canopy (Fig. 2B). The g_m/g_{sc} ratio was significantly greater at the upper

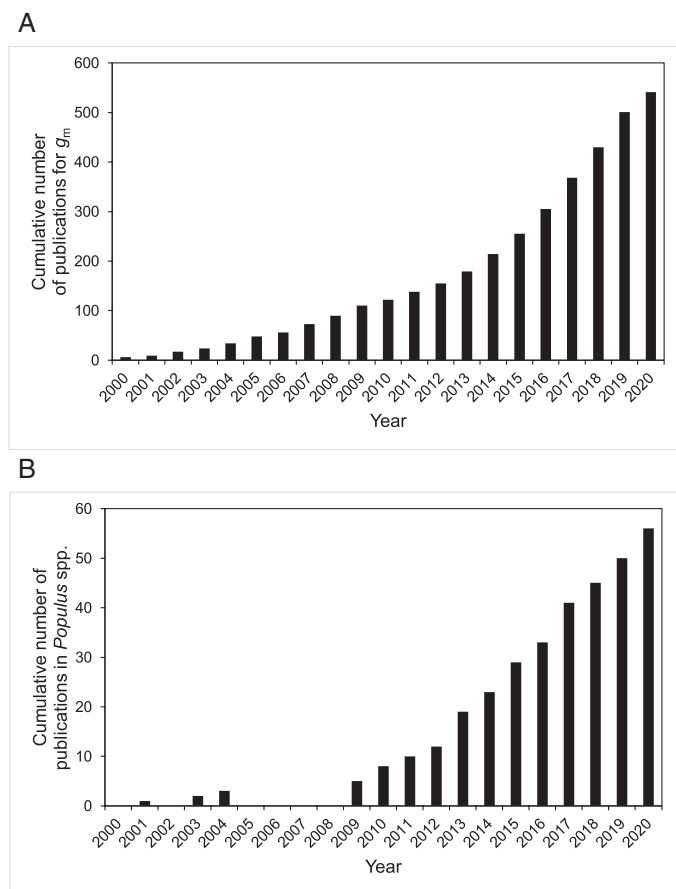


Fig. 1. Cumulative number of published studies for mesophyll conductance (g_m) between the years 2000 and 2020 (A), and cumulative number of published studies for mesophyll conductance (g_m) in *Populus* spp. between the years 2001 and 2020 (B). The number of publications was determined using keywords (e.g. g_m and *Populus*) through database search available at the Web of Science Core Collection (<https://clarivate.com/webofsciencegroup/solutions/web-of-science-core-collection/>).

canopy (1.17 ± 0.11), compared with the mid-canopy leaves (0.88 ± 0.09) and was not different everywhere else (Fig. 2D). V_{cmax} increased similarly to A_{max} and g_m from the bottom to the top of the canopy (Fig. 2E); however, SLA had an opposite trend (Fig. 2F).

Atmospheric CO₂

Increased atmospheric CO₂ had no effect on average A_{max} ($14.43 \pm 0.60 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), g_m ($0.21 \pm 0.02 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) and g_m/g_{sc} (1.09 ± 0.11) (Fig. 3A–C). However, average g_{sw} was higher ($0.40 \pm 0.03 \text{ mol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) under ‘Ambient’, compared with ‘Elevated’ CO₂ ($0.32 \pm 0.02 \text{ mol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) (Fig. 3B).

Copper stress

A_{max} was not affected when soil Cu concentration increased from 0 to 20 or 75 μM ($9.67 \pm 0.95 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) (Fig. 4A). It should be noted that at the highest Cu level (75 μM), A_{max}

ranged from 4 to 15 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. Average g_{sw} significantly decreased under medium (20 μM , $0.17 \pm 0.02 \text{ mol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) and high Cu treatment (75 μM , $0.18 \pm 0.03 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), compared with control treatment (Fig. 4B). Increasing Cu concentration in the soil did not affect g_m and the g_m/g_{sc} ratio (Fig. 4C, D).

Soil nitrogen

A_{max} was significantly greater ($16.07 \pm 0.61 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) under high soil nitrogen (HN, 250 kg N ha⁻¹ y⁻¹ in field study or 20 mM for pot study) compared with low nitrogen treatment (LN, $12.93 \pm 0.65 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) (Fig. 5A). A high supply of nitrogen increased g_{sw} (from 0.29 ± 0.03 in LN to $0.36 \pm 0.03 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ in HN) and g_m (from 0.19 ± 0.02 to $0.23 \pm 0.02 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), but had no effect on the g_m/g_{sc} ratio (1.38 ± 0.16 on average) (Fig. 5B–D).

Soil moisture

Average A_{max} decreased by drought (range of leaf predawn water potential under water deficit, $\Psi_{leaf} = -0.7$ to -0.8 , soil water content = 10%), dropping from $17.13 \pm 0.71 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ to $14.62 \pm 0.91 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ on average with the minimum value ($3.83 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) much lower than in watered trees ($8.90 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) (Fig. 6A). As expected, soil moisture deficit markedly altered g_{sw} , decreasing its average value from $0.33 \pm 0.02 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ in control trees to $0.20 \pm 0.03 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ under drought conditions (Fig. 6B). Drought had the same effect on g_m , but to a lesser extent than g_{sw} . g_m decreased from $0.27 \pm 0.02 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ to $0.19 \pm 0.02 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ under soil moisture deficit (Fig. 6C). In addition, the g_m/g_{sc} ratio increased by 37% when plants were subject to drought (Fig. 6D).

Quantitative limitations

In general, photosynthetic rate was mostly limited by CO₂ diffusion (up to 75%): stomatal limitation (L_s) and mesophyll limitation (L_m) (Table 2). Biochemical limitation (L_b) of photosynthesis rate was relatively low. Higher atmospheric CO₂ decreased biochemical limitation (16.62% to 14.73%) and increased mesophyll limitation (from 41.80% to 44.28%) while stomatal limitation remained unchanged. Within the canopy, stomatal and biochemical limitations were the greatest in the upper (47.79%) and the middle (16.05%) layers of the canopy, respectively (Table 2). The mesophyll conductance limitation was higher at the middle (50.47%) and the bottom (50.85%) than at the upper part of the canopy (40.51%). The decrease of A_{max} (58.04 %) from the top, as a reference, to the bottom of the canopy (calculated with Equation 10) was mostly caused by mesophyll (absolute limitation = 29.48%), followed by stomatal (19.16%) limitation and to a lesser extent by V_{cmax} (5.11%). At the middle of the canopy, the decrease of A_{max} (21.58%) was mostly due to g_m (13.15%) and to a lesser extent to V_{cmax}

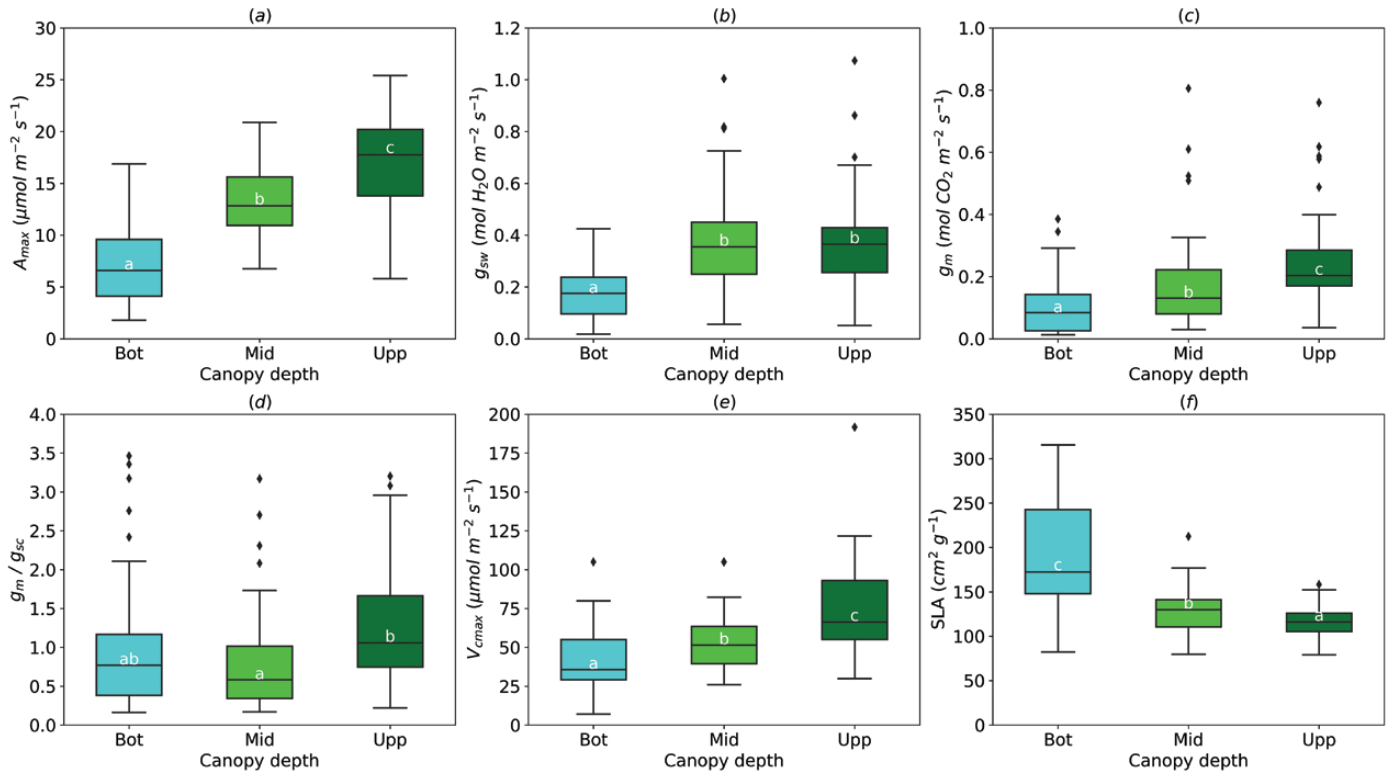


Fig. 2. Effect of the leaf position in the canopy (Bot, bottom; Mid, middle; Upp, upper) on light-saturated photosynthetic rate (A_{max} , A), stomatal conductance (g_{sw} , B), mesophyll conductance (g_m , C), g_m/g_{sc} ratio (D), maximum rate of carboxylation (V_{cmax} , E), and specific leaf area (SLA, F). For g_m/g_{sc} ratio, g_{sw} for water ($\text{mol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) was divided by 1.6 to obtain g_{sc} ($\text{mol CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$). The horizontal line inside the boxes marks the median for the observations, the box ends indicate the upper (third) to lower (first) quartiles of the value ranges, and the whiskers indicate the highest and lowest observations. Means having the same letters are not significantly different at $\alpha=0.05$ (number of studies=4, number of genotypes=6).

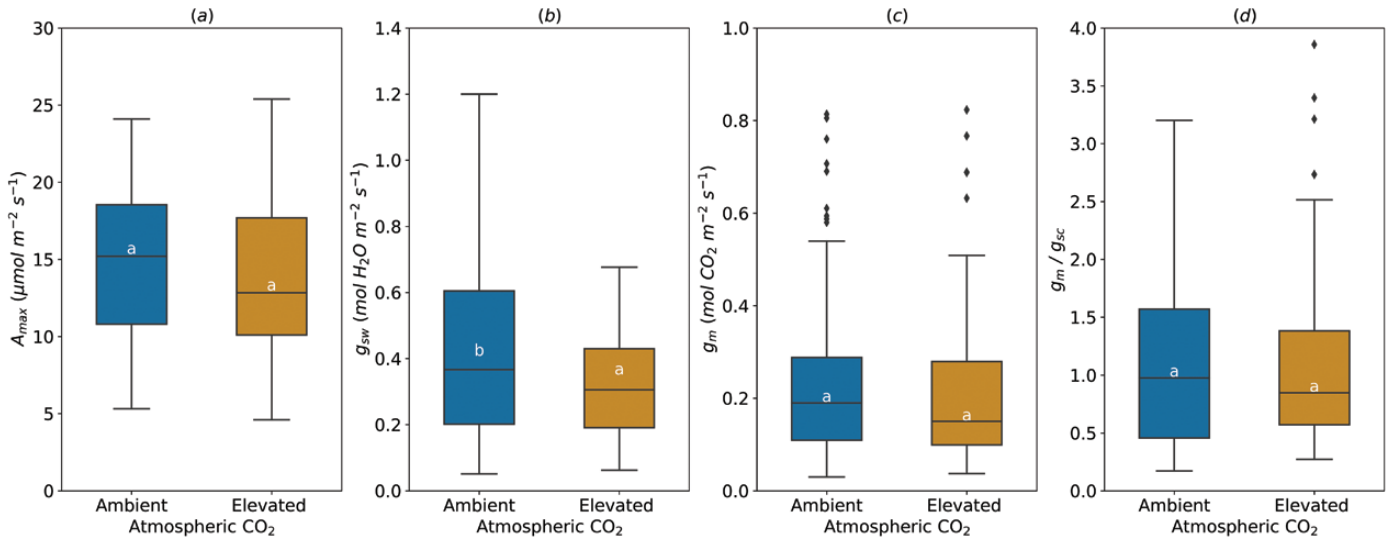


Fig. 3. Effect of the atmospheric CO_2 concentration on light-saturated photosynthetic rate (A_{max} , A), stomatal conductance (g_{sw} , B), mesophyll conductance (g_m , C), and g_m/g_{sc} ratio (D). For g_m/g_{sc} ratio, g_{sw} for water ($\text{mol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) was divided by 1.6 to obtain g_{sc} ($\text{mol CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$). The horizontal line inside the boxes marks the median for the observations, the box ends indicate the upper (third) to lower (first) quartiles of the value ranges, and the whiskers indicate the highest and lowest observations. Means having the same letters are not significantly different at $\alpha=0.05$ (number of studies=3, number of genotypes=4).

(4.74%) while the contribution of g_{sc} was marginal (2.76%). The copper stress resulted in an increase of the stomatal limitation and a decrease in mesophyll and biochemical limitations. Change in soil nitrogen did not affect the status of the

limitations. The decrease of A_{max} (20.11 %) under low soil nitrogen was mostly caused by g_{sc} (9.38%) and g_m (7.58%) and to a lesser extent by V_{cmax} (1.42%). Water stress increased stomatal limitation and decreased biochemical limitation but had

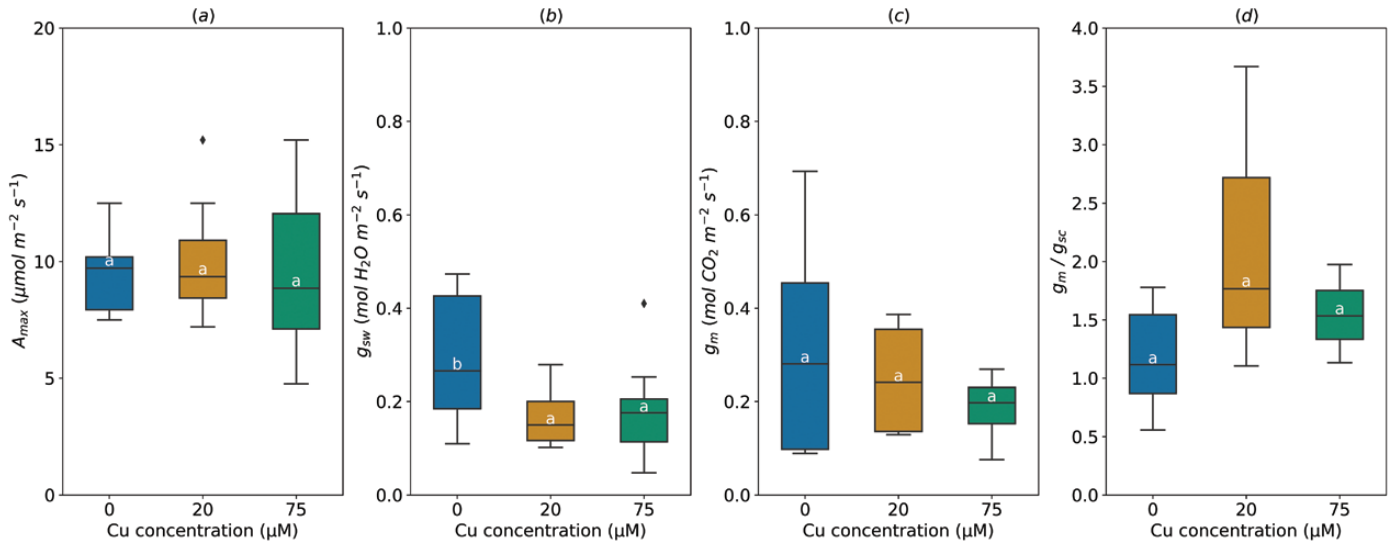


Fig. 4. Effect of the soil copper (Cu) concentration on light-saturated photosynthetic rate (A_{max} , A), stomatal conductance (g_{sw} , B), mesophyll conductance (g_m , C), and g_m/g_{sc} ratio (D). For g_m/g_{sc} ratio, g_s for water ($\text{mol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) was divided by 1.6 to obtain g_{sc} ($\text{mol CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$). The horizontal line inside the boxes marks the median for the observations, the box ends indicate the upper (third) to lower (first) quartiles of the value ranges, and the whiskers indicate the highest and lowest observations. Means having the same letters are not significantly different at $\alpha=0.05$ (number of studies=2, number of genotypes=3).

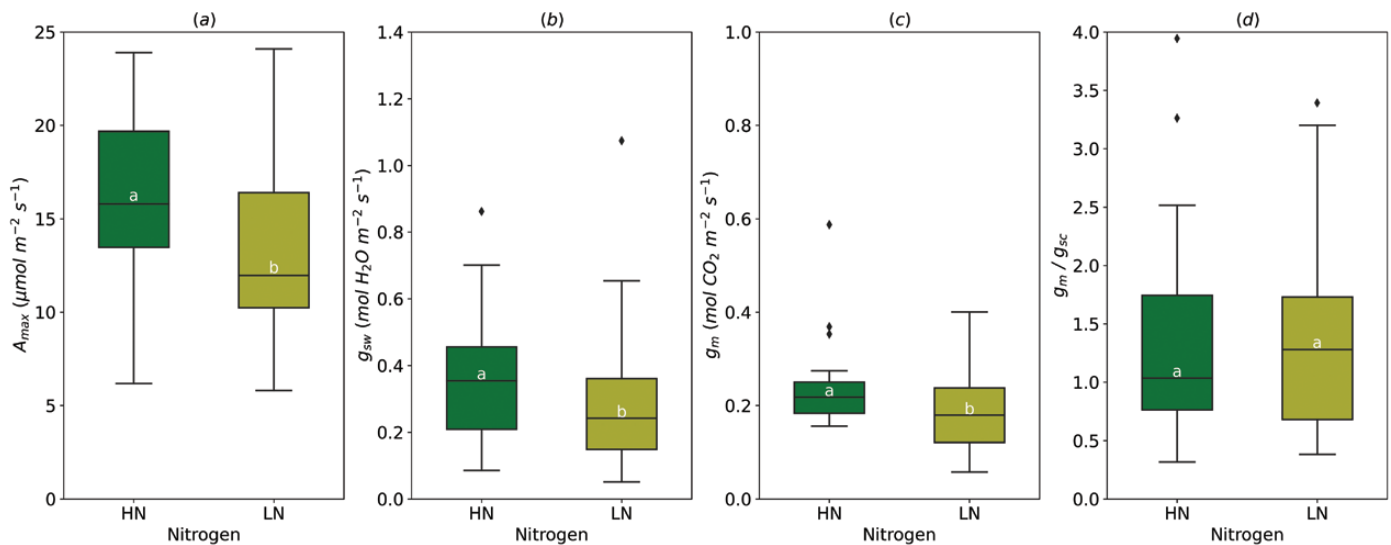


Fig. 5. Effect of the soil nitrogen content (HN, high nitrogen; LN, low nitrogen) on light-saturated photosynthetic rate (A_{max} , A), stomatal conductance (g_{sw} , B), mesophyll conductance (g_m , C), and g_m/g_{sc} ratio (D). For g_m/g_{sc} ratio, g_{sw} for water ($\text{mol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) was divided by 1.6 to obtain g_{sc} ($\text{mol CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$). The horizontal line inside the boxes marks the median for the observations, the box ends indicate the upper (third) to lower (first) quartiles of the value ranges, and the whiskers indicate the highest and lowest observations. Means having the same letters are not significantly different at $\alpha=0.05$ (number of studies=5, number of genotypes=7).

no effect on mesophyll limitation (Table 2). Therefore, the observed decrease in A_{max} (21.02%) under water deficit was mainly due to stomatal (15.22 %) and mesophyll limitation (7.64 %).

Relationship between CO_2 diffusion and photosynthetic activity

A_{max} was strongly correlated to both g_{sw} and g_m ($P=0.001$) and to V_{cmax} ($P=0.001$) over all the studies (Fig. 7A–C). Based

on the collected data, g_m was significantly correlated to g_{sw} ($P=0.04$). However, the relationship was not linear. g_m was the highest ($0.4\text{--}0.5 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) when g_{sw} values were intermediate ($0.2\text{--}0.4 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$), and lowest at high g_{sw} values (Fig. 7E).

We found a significant negative exponential relationship between SLA and g_m ($P=0.001$) (Fig. 7G) based on the collected data from studies that measured SLA ($n=12$). Leaf nitrogen content reported by three studies showed a significant correlation between g_m and N content per area (N_{area})

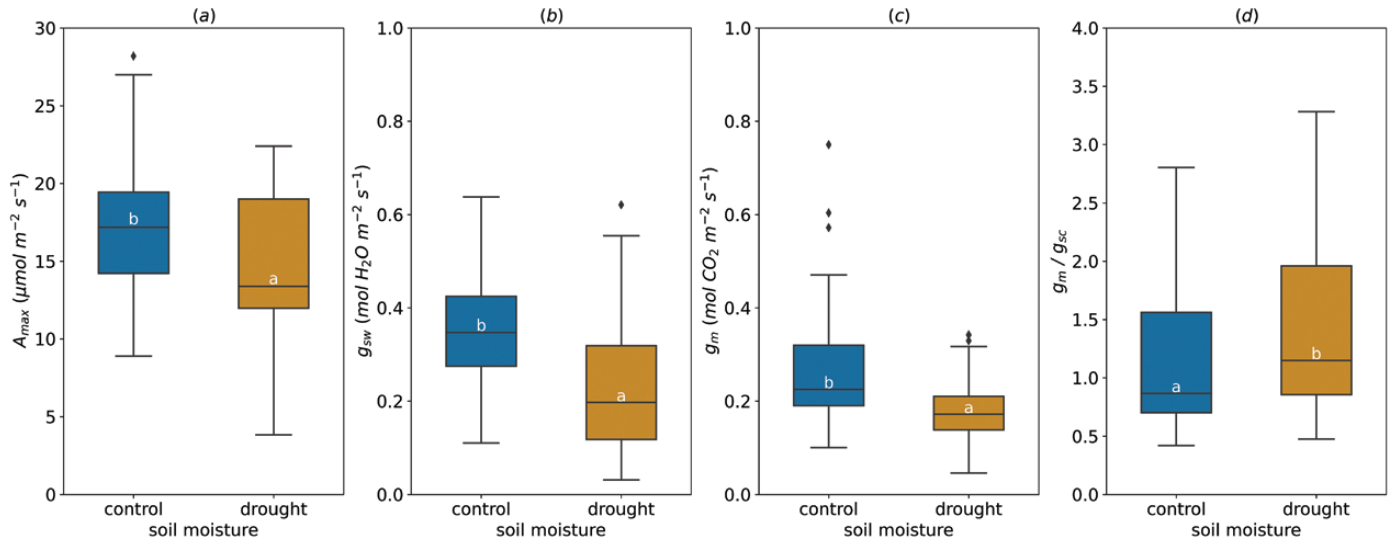


Fig. 6. Effect of the soil moisture on light-saturated photosynthetic rate (A_{max} , A), stomatal conductance (g_{sw} , B), mesophyll conductance (g_m , C), and g_m/g_{sc} ratio (D). For g_m/g_{sc} ratio, g_{sw} for water ($\text{mol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) was divided by 1.6 to obtain g_{sc} ($\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$). The horizontal line inside the boxes marks the median for the observations, the box ends indicate the upper (third) to lower (first) quartiles of the value ranges, and the whiskers indicate the highest and lowest observations. Means having the same letters are not significantly different at $\alpha=0.05$ (number of studies=4, number of genotypes=13).

Table 2. The relative limitation (%) of stomatal conductance, mesophyll conductance, and biochemistry to photosynthesis (for each treatment, the sum of relative limitations is 100%)

Factor	Treatment	Stomatal limitation (L_s)	Mesophyll limitation (L_m)	Biochemical limitation (L_b)
Canopy level	Bottom	37.71 (2.11)	50.86 (2.68)	11.43 (1.22)
	Middle	33.46 (1.99)	50.48 (2.4)	16.06 (1.34)
	Upper	45.97 (2.18)	40.52 (1.98)	13.69 (1.09)
Atmospheric CO ₂	Ambient	41.57 (2.3)	41.8 (2.27)	16.62 (1.43)
	Elevated	40.97 (1.87)	44.29 (2.04)	14.74 (1.21)
Copper stress	0 $\mu\text{M Cu}$	42.42 (6.78)	31.17 (7.38)	26.43 (7.1)
	20 $\mu\text{M Cu}$	57.88 (4.96)	25.16 (6.7)	16.96 (2.71)
	75 $\mu\text{M Cu}$	59.13 (7.58)	28.22 (6.92)	12.65 (1.29)
Soil nitrogen	High nitrogen	45.09 (2.49)	39.31 (2.07)	15.6 (1.46)
	Low nitrogen	46.02 (2.69)	39.27 (2.37)	14.71 (1.67)
Soil moisture	Control	42.47 (2.29)	38.04 (1.97)	19.49 (1.09)
	Drought	48.8 (2.78)	38.74 (2.11)	12.46 (1.25)

Data are expressed as means (SD).

(Fig. 7F). g_m increased with N_{area} until a saturation point ($\sim 0.25 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$).

Discussion

Canopy level

The scaling up of photosynthesis from leaves to the canopy and stands (using the model of Farquhar et al. (1980)) requires a deep understanding of within-canopy variations in leaf morpho-physiology and the main drivers of foliage acclimation to the dynamic gradient of environmental conditions (light, temperature, vapor pressure deficit (VPD) and soil moisture) (Niinemets et al., 2006; Buckley and Warren, 2014; Niinemets et al., 2015). Unfortunately, pieces of knowledge regarding the

variation of g_m within the canopy and its mechanistic basis are scarce, in particular for *Populus* spp. This situation may explain why most global carbon cycle models remain ‘ g_m -lacking’, with possible consequences, such as overestimation of the fertilization effect of CO₂ on global gross primary production and underestimation of water-use efficiency (WUE) and canopy gross photosynthesis under future climate (Sun et al., 2014b; Knauer et al., 2019).

The steep and parallel increase of g_m , A_{max} , and V_{cmax} from the bottom to the top of the canopy found here for *Populus* spp. is in agreement with the findings of Niinemets et al. (2006) for *Quercus ilex* L., Montpied et al. (2009) for *Fagus sylvatica* L., and Warren et al. (2003) for *Pseudotsuga menziesii* (Mirbel) Franco. A decrease of g_m from the bottom to the top of the canopy was also reported (Bögelein et al., 2012; Cano et al., 2013). We

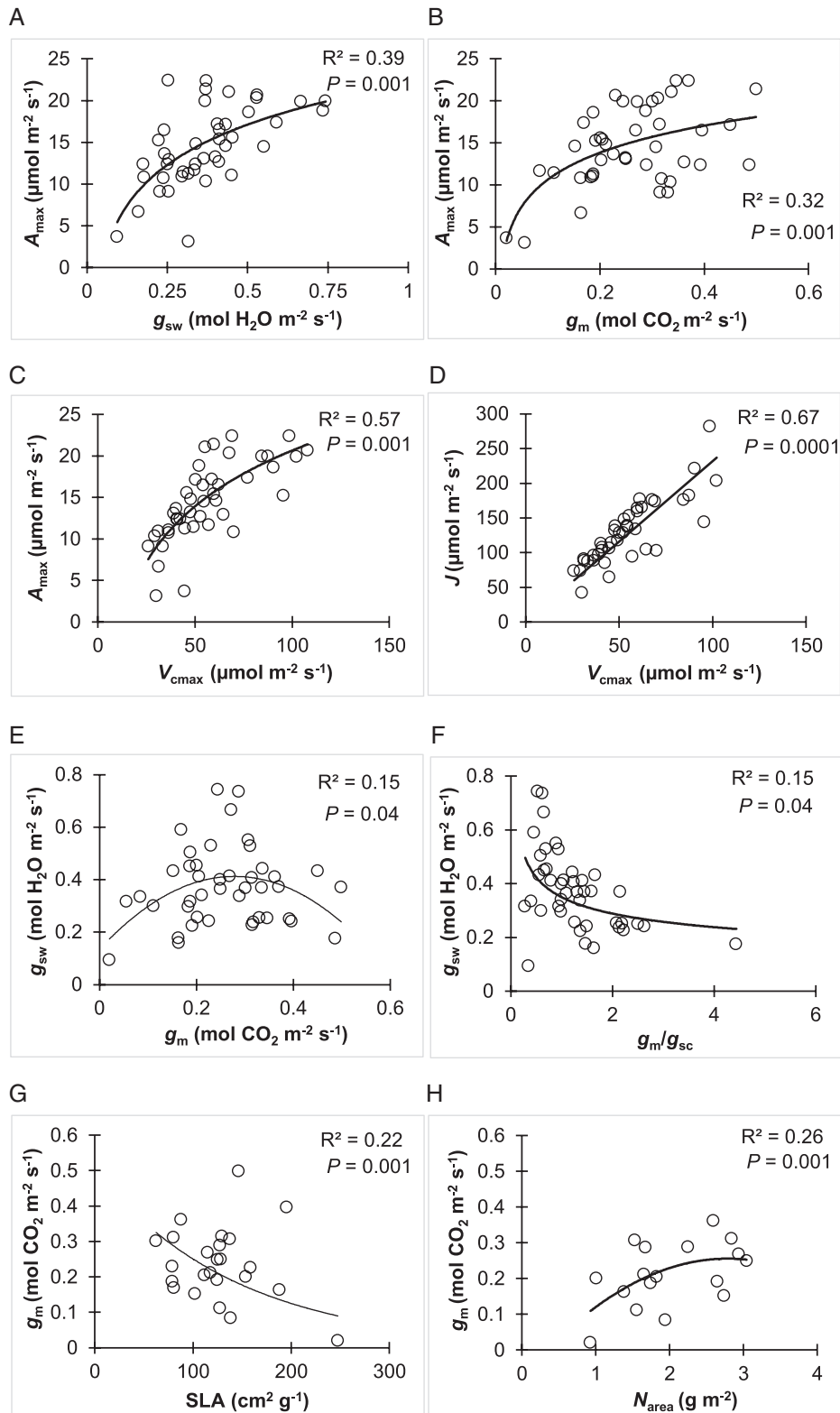


Fig. 7. Relationship between light-saturated photosynthetic rate (A_{\max}), stomatal conductance (g_{sw}), mesophyll conductance (g_m), maximum rate of carboxylation (V_{cmax}), electron transport rate (J), g_m/g_{sc} ratio, specific leaf area (SLA) and per area leaf nitrogen concentration (N_{area}). For g_m/g_{sc} ratio, g_{sw} for water ($\text{mol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) was divided by 1.6 to obtain g_{sc} ($\text{mol CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$).

observed a greater g_m limitation under shade conditions (mid and bottom of canopy), which may lead to an overestimation of canopy photosynthesis. Overall, our results highlight the need to incorporate the acclimation of g_m to light conditions along the canopy in process-based models.

We observed a significant inverse relationship between g_m and SLA, comparable to previous studies (Niinemets *et al.*, 2006; Montpied *et al.*, 2009; Tosens *et al.*, 2012b). This suggests that the increase in leaf thickness (lower SLA), e.g. in developing leaves and in leaves grown under higher light, may be associated with increased g_m (Tosens *et al.*, 2012b). Contrary to this, a positive relationship between g_m and SLA was demonstrated across *Solanum* species (Muir *et al.*, 2014), reflecting the effect of increased leaf density and mesophyll cell wall thickness on g_m . These lines of evidence collectively demonstrate the complex nature of the relationship between SLA and g_m , reflecting the circumstance that SLA is an inverse of the product of leaf thickness and density, which can respond differently to environmental drivers (Niinemets, 1999; Poorter *et al.*, 2009). The profile of g_m within the canopy observed here may be partially attributable to the morphological acclimation of *Populus* spp. foliage to light availability within the canopy. Moreover, this inverse relationship between SLA and g_m was used as an empirical model to estimate a maximum attainable g_m at different canopy layers for C_3 plants and was implemented in the Community Land Model (CLM.4.5) (Sun *et al.*, 2014b; Knauer *et al.*, 2019).

The change in morphological traits and their role in the acclimation of g_m to a vertical gradient of environmental conditions within the canopy need additional investigation. For instance, shade acclimation of leaf morphology is associated with a lower surface area of chloroplasts exposed to intercellular air spaces (S_c/S) and thicker chloroplasts (Hanba *et al.*, 2002; Niinemets *et al.*, 2006; Tosens *et al.*, 2012b; Peguero-Pina *et al.*, 2015). Species-specific leaf development patterns (i.e. evergreen sclerophyllous versus deciduous broadleaves) affect limitations to gas diffusion, thus determining the carbon balance of leaves (Marchi *et al.*, 2007). However, light acclimation may be species-specific and altered by water, soil nitrogen, and leaf ontogeny (Niinemets *et al.*, 2006; Tazoe *et al.*, 2009; Peguero-Pina *et al.*, 2015; Shrestha *et al.*, 2018). It is still unclear whether the g_m profile within the canopy is the result of the change in SLA.

Our results showing higher g_{sw} and g_m/g_{sc} at the top of the canopy are in disagreement with the findings of Montpied *et al.* (2009) and Bögelein *et al.* (2012), suggesting a species- and environment-specific gradient of g_m/g_s . Temperature and VPD responses of g_m and g_s are different (Cano *et al.*, 2013), resulting in different diurnal patterns of g_m and g_s . Then, the gradient of g_m/g_s ratio along the canopy may drive the WUE at the canopy level and the midday depression of photosynthetic rate regardless of the level of isohydry of clones (Cano *et al.*, 2013; Buckley and Warren, 2014; Stangl *et al.*, 2019).

Atmospheric CO₂

The response of photosynthetic capacity and diffusion of CO₂ to free-air CO₂ enrichment considerably differed between species and experimental set-ups. The decrease in A_{max} and g_{sw} in response to elevated CO₂ shown in our meta-analysis is in agreement with numerous studies on *Populus* spp. and other species (Ainsworth and Rogers, 2007; Medlyn *et al.*, 2013; DaMatta *et al.*, 2016), but is in disagreement with the findings of some other studies, e.g. Sigurdsson *et al.* (2001) and Uddling *et al.* (2009). For g_m , the effect of growth CO₂ changed among studies and some species having an intrinsic low g_m are more likely to respond to elevated CO₂ than species with high intrinsic g_m (Niinemets *et al.*, 2011). However, several studies have reported that g_m may decrease or be unresponsive to CO₂ enrichment (Singsaas *et al.*, 2004; Zhu *et al.*, 2012; Kitao *et al.*, 2015; Mizokami *et al.*, 2019). This suggests that the increase of A_{max} under elevated CO₂ cannot be attributed solely to g_m variation (Singsaas *et al.*, 2004). The absence of g_m response to elevated CO₂ complicates the research on mechanisms underlying this variation. Unlike g_m , researchers have proposed some hypotheses such as least-cost theory, nitrogen limitation, and resources investment to explain the decrease of A_{max} , V_{cmax} , and g_s under elevated CO₂ (Leakey *et al.*, 2009; Smith and Keenan, 2020).

Copper stress

Similar to our findings, g_m remained unchanged in the herbaceous plant *Silene paradoxa* L., exposed to high Cu concentration, although g_s decreased significantly (Bazihizina *et al.*, 2015). In other cases of exposure to other heavy metals, like nickel (Ni), Velikova *et al.* (2011) reported a significant decrease in chloroplast CO₂ content and mesophyll conductance in black poplar (*P. nigra* L.) exposed to 200 μ M Ni under a hydroponic set-up (compared with control of 30 μ M Ni). This reduction of g_m might be attributed to an alteration of leaf structure by toxic effects of high concentrations of heavy metals in mesophyll cells (Velikova *et al.*, 2011). Hermle *et al.* (2007), reported an acceleration of senescence and necrosis of mesophyll cells in *P. tremula* L. leaves exposed to Cu, Zn, Cd, and Pb at 640, 3000, 10, and 90 mg kg⁻¹ soil, respectively, and a decrease of chloroplast size from the early stages of exposure. The study of Hermle *et al.* (2007) also reported the thickening of cell walls and change of their chemical composition in damaged mesophyll cells, which might have affected permeability of cell walls and diffusion of CO₂ through them. Mercury (Hg; HgCl₂ form) altered CO₂ diffusion through aquaporins, a membrane channel of CO₂ diffusion, in faba bean (*Vicia faba* L.) (Terashima and Ono, 2002) and significantly reduced g_m in *P. trichocarpa* Torr. & Gray. HgCl₂ may also decrease g_m indirectly by disrupting carbonic anhydrase activity, as reported by Momayyezi and Guy (2018), who demonstrated that carbonic

anhydrase activity is strongly associated with g_m variation in *P. trichocarpa* Torr. & Gray (Momayyezi and Guy, 2017).

Soil nitrogen

The increase of A_{\max} by the enhancement of V_{cmax} in response to more available soil nitrogen has been established in the literature. However, the possible contribution of g_m to this augmentation remains unexplored for several species. Our results showed a concomitant increase of g_m with a higher supply of N. A positive correlation between the level of expression of aquaporin genes (plasma membrane intrinsic proteins and tonoplast intrinsic proteins) and g_m has been reported (Hanba *et al.*, 2004; Flexas *et al.*, 2006; Kaldenhoff *et al.*, 2008; Perez-Martin *et al.*, 2014), although it is still unclear whether this is a direct effect or a pleiotropic effect reflecting simultaneous increase in A_{\max} , g_m , and g_s (Flexas *et al.*, 2012). Recent studies have demonstrated that an increase in g_m has coincided with an increase in the amount of aquaporins after fertilization (Miyazawa *et al.*, 2008b; Zhu *et al.*, 2020). The biochemical limitation to photosynthesis was relatively low (16%) and the absolute contribution of this limitation to the decrease in A_{\max} under low nitrogen was much lower again (1.5%). This suggests that the limitations to photosynthesis resulting from low soil nitrogen are more attributable to CO_2 diffusion for *Populus* spp.

Soil moisture

Although many studies showed a decline of g_m in response to soil water deficit (Flexas *et al.*, 2009; Galle *et al.*, 2009; Tosens *et al.*, 2012a), it remains unclear if this limitation is happening within the mesophyll environment or occurs as a result of a stomatal limitation, which decreases intercellular CO_2 (C_i). Ma *et al.* (2021) reported that, across a broad range of species, g_m and g_s decline concomitantly, which has the effect of keeping the g_m/g_{sc} ratio constant for all species and between well-watered and water-stressed plants, but with variation between plant functional types. We report similar g_m/g_{sc} ratios within our soil moisture dataset. However, reports in poplar have shown that this concomitant decline is not present all the time or within the full range of g_m and g_s values observed. Th roux Rancourt *et al.* (2015) showed that, in hybrid poplar, g_m remained unchanged ($\sim 0.3 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) following soil drying until $\Psi_{\text{leaf}} \approx -1.2 \text{ MPa}$, after which g_m decreased significantly. Our results showed that although g_m/g_s increased under water deficit conditions, stomatal conductance was, in absolute term, the most important limitation to A_{\max} , as reported elsewhere (Cano *et al.*, 2013). In a trial on *Quercus robur* L. and *Fraxinus angustifolia* Vahl grown in the field, Grassi and Magnani (2005) reported a concomitant decrease of both g_s and g_m in a dry year ($\Psi_{\text{soil}} \approx -1.7 \text{ MPa}$), compared with a wetter year ($\Psi_{\text{soil}} \approx -0.2 \text{ MPa}$). In *P. tremula* L., g_m significantly declined when Ψ_{leaf} of saplings dropped from -0.3 to -0.7 MPa due to applied osmotic stress (Tosens *et al.*,

2012a). Simultaneously, drought stress induced a decrease in SLA accompanied with an increase in the cell wall thickness and a decrease in the chloroplast surface area exposed to the intercellular air space per unit leaf area (Tosens *et al.*, 2012a). Other studies have shown that biochemical changes induced by drought stress could decrease CO_2 diffusion to carboxylation sites in the chloroplast (Miyazawa *et al.*, 2008a).

Adaptation to the local environment might be a key driver of g_m variation among taxa, similarly to other morphophysiological traits. Interspecific and intraspecific differences in g_m from mesic versus xeric environments (*Quercus* spp. and *Eucalyptus* spp.) were reported by Zhou *et al.* (2014). Their study showed that g_m , as well as g_s , V_{cmax} , and J of species from drier regions was less sensitive to water deficit, which maintains transpiration and photosynthesis activity at higher rates under drought, compared with species from the mesic environment. Marchi *et al.* (2008) observed that structural protection of mesophyll cells had a priority over functional efficiency of photochemical mechanisms in *Olea europaea* L. (evergreen sclerophyllous) but not in *Prunus persica* L. (deciduous broad-leaf), depending on age-related variation in mesophyll anatomy.

Conclusion and future directions

The present review shows that g_m in *Populus* spp. varies predictably along light gradients and that it responds to changes in soil moisture and nutrient availability, but is not affected by metal concentration and increasing atmospheric CO_2 concentration. Although metabolic processes noticeably influence the response of g_m to environmental changes, physical constraints through leaf development and ageing need to be considered in scaling photosynthesis from leaf to canopy, and in breeding programs for high WUE. Because fast-growing *Populus* spp. trees are important players in combating climate change, mitigating carbon emissions to some extent, comparisons of genotypes with different adaptations to changing environments and breeding for novel genotype–climate associations are urgently needed. This study shows that the variability of g_m in different experimental conditions offers a potential indicator for improving *Populus* spp. productivity and resilience. However, more research is yet needed, also combined with anatomical studies, to better understand the sources of variation of CO_2 diffusion through the mesophyll and their consequences on carbon assimilation and growth.

Moreover, determination of the efficiency and optimal age for early selection of fast-growing poplar clones require an understanding of the genetic control and age-based genetic correlations for traits related to g_m and growth. For that, a detailed evaluation of the genotypic control of the variances and clonal heritability of g_m is needed. Finally, the identification of molecular bases of the regulation of g_m is necessary to further refine a multi-criteria early selection approach of poplar clones dedicated to the future forestry

capable of ensuring better productivity and increased resistance to environmental stresses (frost, drought, water logging, heavy metals, heat waves, etc.).

Supplementary data

The following supplementary data are available at [JXB online](#).

Table S1. Analysis of variance of the effect of different factors on photosynthesis-related traits.

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Author contributions

RE and LB conceived the study, developed methodology, carried out data curation, formal analysis, investigation, data visualization, wrote original draft, and reviewed and edited the manuscript. MM contributed to data curation and visualization, and to reviewing and editing the manuscript. RT and UN contributed to investigation, methodology, and to reviewing and editing the manuscript. MM carried out funding acquisition and contributed to reviewing and editing the manuscript. RYS, GTR, TT, FR, SBG, MSL, and CC contributed to reviewing and editing the manuscript.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

Data availability

Soil moisture data from Thérroux-Rancourt are available at Dryad Digital Repository (<https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.7sqv9s4s0>); Benomar data are available at Dryad Digital Repository (<https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.9cnp5hqhp>); Tognetti data are available at Dryad Digital Repository (<https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.w3r2280qq>). All other datasets generated for this study are available from the corresponding author upon request.

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