



## Research article

# Effects of soil rewating on mesophyll and stomatal conductance and the associated mechanisms involving leaf anatomy and some physiological activities in Manchurian ash and Mongolian oak in the Changbai Mountains



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## ABSTRACT

The recoveries of mesophyll ( $g_m$ ) and stomatal conductance to  $CO_2$  ( $g_{sc}$ ) after soil rewating have received considerable attention in recent years, but the recovery mechanisms involving leaf anatomy and physiological activities are poorly understood. Moreover, it is also unclear whether leaf gas-phase conductance ( $g_{ias}$ ) or liquid-phase conductance ( $g_{liq}$ ) is the main factor promoting  $g_m$  recovery. By simultaneously using gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence, we measured the recoveries of  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  in saplings of Manchurian ash (*Fraxinus mandshurica* Rupr.) and Mongolian oak (*Quercus mongolica* Fish. ex Ledeb) exposed to two initial water stress (medium water stress, MW, and severe water stress, SW) and following rewating. Furthermore, leaf anatomical characteristics and the activities of aquaporin (AQP) and carbonic anhydrase (CA) were measured to explain the mechanisms of  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  recoveries. The results showed that (i) both  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  were partly recovered after rewating, and the recoveries decreased with initial water stress in both species. (ii) The  $g_m$  recovery was much greater in Mongolian oak than in Manchurian ash, while the  $g_{sc}$  recovery was much greater in Manchurian ash. Consequently, the photosynthesis recovery in Manchurian ash was mostly affected by  $g_{sc}$  recovery, while that in Mongolian oak was mostly affected by  $g_m$  recovery. (iii) The  $g_m$  recovery mainly resulted from the great increase in leaf  $g_{liq}$  after rewating rather than that in  $g_{ias}$ , as  $g_{ias}$  had a negative effect on  $g_m$  recovery. The stomatal opening status improved after rewating, as the stomatal pore size (SS) increased, greatly promoting  $g_{sc}$  recovery. In addition, the activities of both AQP and CA increased after rewating, which improved  $CO_2$  transmembrane transports and greatly promoted  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  recoveries.

## 1. Introduction

Photosynthesis is the basis of various functions in plants, including carbon sequestration and wood production, and it is seriously restricted by water deficit (Quick et al., 1992; Epron et al., 1995; Lawlor and Cornic, 2002; Monclus et al., 2006; Chaves et al., 2009). With rapid changes in precipitation patterns, soil drought events have become more frequent, longer in duration and more intense during the past few decades (Luterbacher et al., 2004; Dore, 2005; Joos and Spahni, 2008; Allen et al., 2013) and have had strong effects on the photosynthesis. Soil drought inhibits photosynthesis physiologically by affecting gas exchange inside the leaf, mainly by decreasing stomatal conductance to  $CO_2$  ( $g_{sc}$ ) and mesophyll conductance ( $g_m$ ) in the  $CO_2$  diffusion pathway

(Grassi and Magnani, 2005; Flexas et al., 2008, 2009; Galle et al., 2009), since atmospheric  $CO_2$  participates in photosynthesis and must pass through stomata and mesophyll intercellular spaces (Flexas et al., 2008; Galle et al., 2007; Haldimann et al., 2008). Therefore, it is of great significance to explore the relationship between photosynthesis and drought-rewating events. Furthermore, the relationships between leaf  $CO_2$  diffusion conductance ( $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$ ) and soil water availability have received much attention.

Similar to the focus on  $g_{sc}$  in in-depth studies for several decades, the response of  $g_m$  to water stress has received considerable attention in recent years (Flexas et al., 2002, 2006; 2009; Rho et al., 2012), and a few studies have also reported the effects of soil rewating on both  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  (Warren, 2006; Galle et al., 2007; Blackman et al., 2009; Brien

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et al., 2014). For instance, leaf  $g_m$  in Richter-110 (*Vitis berlandieri* × *Vitis rupestris*) plants decreased by more than 90% during exposure to water stress, but it completely recovered 2 days after rewatering (Flexas et al., 2009). Cano et al. (2014) also found that the complete recovery of  $A_n$  after rewatering was characterized by a quicker recovery of  $g_m$  and a slower recovery of  $g_{sc}$  in two species of *Eucalyptus* plants. However, in *Nicotiana sylvestris* L. plants grown outdoors, a drought-induced decline in  $g_m$  did not completely recover after 7 days of rewatering in summer, while  $g_{sc}$  was fully recovered (Galle et al., 2009). The  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  of *Olea europaea* L. var. Manzanilla plants were not fully recovered even after 46 days of rewatering (Perez-Martin et al., 2011). Therefore, the recovery of  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  may be species dependent due to differences in physiological functions determined by morphological structures.

The reasons for declines in  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  during periods of soil drought had been studied extensively, but the  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  recovery mechanisms had rarely been reported. We believe that the recoveries of  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  are greatly affected by leaf anatomical characteristics, as there is evidence that soil drought affects both  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  by changing leaf anatomical characteristics in mesophyll cells and stomata (Chartzoulakis et al., 2002; Tholen et al., 2008; Tosens et al., 2012; Tomás et al., 2013; Xiong et al., 2015a, 2017; Han et al., 2018). First, the surface area of mesophyll cells exposed to intercellular space per unit leaf area ( $S_{mes}$ ) is thought to be more directly linked to  $g_m$  (Evans et al., 1994; Syvertsen et al., 1995; Tomás et al., 2013), as it changes the area of contact between  $CO_2$  and mesophyll cells. Second, the thicknesses of total leaf ( $T_{leaf}$ ) and mesophyll tissue between the two epidermises ( $T_{mes}$ ) are found to influence  $g_m$  by changing total leaf area ( $A_T$ ) and mesophyll surface area ( $A_{mes}$ ), which are the actual areas available for  $CO_2$  diffusion (Niinemets and Reichstein, 2003). Furthermore, the effects of  $T_{leaf}$  on  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  may also result from a change in leaf water supply capacity, as leaf hydraulic conductance ( $K_{leaf}$ ) had been found to be related to  $T_{leaf}$  (Xiong et al., 2015b) and declines in  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  triggered by leaf hydraulic vulnerability during drought were reported in the study of Wang et al. (2018). Furthermore, as  $g_m$  is separated into gas-phase conductance from substomatal cavities to the outer surface of cell walls ( $g_{ias}$ ) and liquid-phase conductance from the outer surface of cell walls to chloroplasts ( $g_{liq}$ ) (Evans et al., 1994), the effects of leaf anatomical characteristics on  $g_m$  recovery might indirectly result from direct effects on both  $g_{ias}$  and  $g_{liq}$  (Gillon and Yakir, 2000; Miyazawa et al., 2008a, b). Finally, the  $g_{sc}$  recovery is greatly affected by the adjustment of stomatal opening status, as it directly determined the size of the  $CO_2$  diffusion pathway from leaf surface to substomatal cavities (Brodrribb and Holbrook, 2004; Brodrribb and McAdam, 2011; Ocheltree et al., 2012; Guyot et al., 2012; McAdam and Brodrribb, 2013). Thus, adjustments in leaf anatomical characteristics will inevitably have large effects on  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  recoveries, but it is still unclear whether  $g_m$  recovery is mainly driven by leaf  $g_{ias}$  or  $g_{liq}$ .

In addition, changes in physiological activities might also largely influence the adjustments of leaf anatomical characteristics to a certain extent, as aquaporin (AQP) and carbonic anhydrase (CA) are two key molecules involved in  $CO_2$  and water transmembrane transport. These compounds strongly affect  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  recoveries by changing their activities (Flexas et al., 2006; Galmés et al., 2007; Mahdieh et al., 2008; Miyazawa et al., 2008a; Uehlein et al., 2008; Sade et al., 2014; Perez-Martin et al., 2014). Miyazawa et al. (2008a) revealed that a decline in AQP activity was a possible reason for a decrease in  $g_m$ , which was also supported by the study of Kaldenhoff et al. (2008), who suggested that AQP could regulate the photosynthesis by affecting  $CO_2$  transport from the atmosphere to the chloroplasts through the direct regulation of  $g_m$ . Furthermore, Perez-Martin et al. (2014) showed that a decrease in  $g_m$  in response to soil drought might be caused by decreased expression of AQP and CA genes and that a decrease in  $g_m$  under severe soil drought might be partly due to a decline in CA activity (Flexas et al., 2008, 2012). In addition, changes in AQP and CA activities influence leaf  $g_{liq}$ , as they are thought to be two key molecules involved in  $CO_2$  liquid-

phase transport (Gillon and Yakir, 2000; Guo et al., 2007; Miyazawa et al., 2008a, b). Thus, AQP and CA greatly adjusted their activities to affect  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  recoveries, but it was unclear whether these adjustments improved  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  recoveries in the two species analyzed in the study.

Manchurian ash (*Fraxinus mandshurica* Rupr.) and Mongolian oak (*Quercus mongolica* Fish. ex Ledeb) are two broad-leaved species with different drought tolerances that are well adapted to the typical temperate continental monsoon climate in the Changbai Mountains of Northeast China, which have a cold and long winter and rainy and short summer. However, the responses of  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  to soil rewatering in both species are poorly understood, and little is known about the recovery mechanisms involving leaf anatomy and physiological activities. To clarify these processes, a rewatering experiment with two initial water stresses (drought before rewatering) was conducted with saplings of both species. The  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  recoveries, leaf anatomical characteristics and AQP and CA activities were measured. This study aimed to (i) investigate the recoveries of  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  after different initial water stresses, (ii) explain the mechanisms of  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  recoveries involving leaf anatomy and physiological activities, and (iii) determine whether  $g_{ias}$  or  $g_{liq}$  is the main factor promoting  $g_m$  recovery.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Study site

The experiment was conducted at the Research Station of Changbai Mountain Forest Ecosystems of the Chinese Academy of Sciences, located in Jilin Province, Northeast China (128°06' E, 42°24' N), at an elevation of 736 m above sea level. The mean annual air temperature in this area is 3.6 °C, and the average annual precipitation is 695 mm. The soil was classified as a typical dark brown forest soil, with concentrations of carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) being  $57.24 \pm 6.26$  and  $4.36 \pm 0.75$  g kg<sup>-1</sup> and C/N ratio being  $13.16 \pm 0.96$ , maintaining a higher biological productivity. The main tree species were Manchurian ash (*Fraxinus mandshurica* Rupr.), Mongolian oak (*Quercus mongolica* Fisch. ex Ledeb.), Korean pine (*Pinus koraiensis* Sieb. et Zucc.), *Tilia amurensis* Rupr., *Acer mono* Maxim. and *Betula ermanii* Cham.

### 2.2. Potted saplings and water control

For each treatment, in April 2015, 5 five-year-old Manchurian ash (*Fraxinus mandshurica* Rupr.) and Mongolian oak (*Quercus mongolica* Fish. ex Ledeb) saplings with similar sizes were planted into 29.28-L pots (30.0-cm height, 34.3-cm diameter) containing 27 l of forest surface soils collected from a broad-leaved Korean pine forest with a field capacity (FC) of  $0.426$  g cm<sup>-3</sup> (soil volumetric water content, SWC). The pot size was matched to the plant size to avoid unnecessary artifacts in the experiment (Kawaletz et al., 2014). The roots grew spirally around the pots, and pedestals were placed under the pots to prevent roots from protruding into outside soil and to prevent outside water from penetrating the pots. The experiments involved short-term drought followed by rewatering. The water stress intensities were divided into two treatments: medium drought (MW,  $40 \pm 5\%$  FC) and severe drought (SW,  $20 \pm 5\%$  FC), with well-watered ( $90 \pm 5\%$  FC) saplings used as the control.

All potted saplings were placed under a 10-m long, 5-m wide and 3.5-m high rain-shelter covered with a transparent plastic film (95% light transmittance), and the rain-shelter was well-ventilated with open sidewalls. The saplings were well irrigated three times per week from budbreak (20 May) to the beginning of the experimental period (20 June) in 2017 to maintain the same growth conditions and then allowed to dry naturally. All saplings were watered in accordance with the requirements of the experimental design beginning on 1 July 2017, and water-stressed saplings were first exposed to drought from the 1st to 20th of each month (named the 'water stress' period) and then

rewatered to the level of the controls from the 21st to 30th of the same month (named the ‘recovery’ period) alternately during July and August in 2017. The control saplings were well irrigated to the FC throughout the study. SWCs ( $\text{g cm}^{-3}$ ) at a 15-cm depth were monitored using a soil humidity real-time observation system (93640Hydra, Stevens, USA) during the water control period, and the data were recorded every half hour. In order to be expressed concisely, the SWC was converted to the relative water content (RWC,  $\text{RWC} = \text{SWC}/\text{FC} \times 100\%$ ).

### 2.3. Pre-dawn leaf water potential measurements

Pre-dawn leaf water potential ( $\Psi_{\text{pd}}$ , MPa) was measured with a pressure chamber (Model 1505D, PMS Instrument Company, USA) as an indicator of soil moisture stress. Three different leaves were sampled from five replications per treatment before sunrise (06:00), immediately sealed in plastic bags containing a moist towel and kept in a cooler until balancing pressures were completely determined within 1 h after sample collection.

### 2.4. Simultaneous gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence measurements

An open-flow gas exchange system (Li-6400XT; Li-Cor Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA) equipped with an integrated fluorescence leaf chamber (Li-6400-40; Li-Cor) was used to simultaneously measure leaf gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence in July and August. To minimize the effects of environments and leaf age, all measurements were conducted on the youngest fully expanded, sun-exposed leaves of five replications from 8:00 to 11:30 each day during measuring periods, with a saturated photosynthetic active photon flux density (PPFD) of  $1200 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  provided by the Li-6400 with a 10 : 90 blue:red light. In the leaf chamber, the leaf temperature was maintained at  $25^\circ\text{C}$ , the relative humidity was approximately 60%, the ambient  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration was adjusted to  $400 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ mol}^{-1}$  with a  $\text{CO}_2$  mixture, and the flow rate was controlled at  $300 \mu\text{mol s}^{-1}$ . The leaves were fully light adapted for 25–30 min before each measurement, and after reaching a steady state, leaf gas exchange parameters, steady-state fluorescence ( $F_s$ ) and maximum fluorescence ( $F_m'$ ) with a light-saturating pulse of  $7800 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  were recorded using the multiphase flash method (Loriaux et al., 2013). The actual photochemical efficiency of photosystem II ( $\Phi_{\text{PS II}}$ ) was calculated according to Genty et al. (1989) as follows:

$$\Phi_{\text{PSII}} = \frac{(F_m' - F_s)}{F_m'} \quad (1)$$

The electron transport rate ( $J_f$ ,  $\mu\text{mol e}^- \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) was then calculated from formula (2):

$$J_f = \Phi_{\text{PSII}} \cdot \text{PPFD} \cdot \alpha\beta \quad (2)$$

where  $\alpha$  is the total leaf absorptance and  $\beta$  is the partitioning of absorbed quanta between PS II and photosystem I (PS I). In this study, we estimated  $\alpha\beta$  from the slope of the relationship between  $\Phi_{\text{PS II}}$  and  $4\Phi_{\text{CO}_2}$  (the quantum efficiency of  $\text{CO}_2$  fixation), which were obtained from the light response curves ( $A_n/\text{PPFD}$  curve) for well-watered, water-stressed and rewatered saplings under a low  $\text{O}_2$  concentration (< 1%) achieved by injecting pure  $\text{N}_2$  (Valentini et al., 1995; Xiong et al., 2015a).

The chloroplast  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration ( $C_c$ ,  $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ mol}^{-1}$ ) and the  $g_m$  were calculated with the ‘variable  $J$  method’ described in Harley et al. (1992):

$$C_c = \frac{\Gamma^*(J_f + 8(A_n + R_d))}{J_f - 4(A_n + R_d)} \quad (3)$$

From Fick’s first law of diffusion,  $g_m$  was calculated as follows:

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

where  $A_n$  ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) is the net photosynthetic rate and  $C_i$  ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ mol}^{-1}$ ) is the intercellular  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration, which were directly obtained from gas exchange measurements;  $\Gamma^*$  ( $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ ) represents the  $\text{CO}_2$  compensation point in the absence of respiration; and  $R_d$  ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) represents leaf dark respiration in the light.

$\Gamma^*$  and  $R_d$  were determined using the Laisk method (Laisk, 1977). Namely, three  $\text{CO}_2$  response curves were obtained by varying  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations from 150 to  $40 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ mol}^{-1}$  under three PPFs (150, 100 and  $50 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ). The relationship between  $A_n$  and  $C_i$  under low light and low  $\text{CO}_2$  is linear, so these three curves intersected at a point. The intersection point was considered to  $\Gamma^*$  (x-axis) and  $R_d$  (y-axis) (Laisk, 1977; von Caemmerer et al., 1994; Pons et al., 2009). Further details of this method can be found in Sun et al. (2015). In this study,  $\Gamma^*$  and  $R_d$  were simultaneously measured with gas exchange for controlled, water-stressed and rewatered saplings, and the values were shown in Supplementary Table S1.

In addition, stomatal conductance to  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $g_{\text{sc}}$ ,  $\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) was calculated from formula (5):

$$g_{\text{sc}} = \frac{g_{\text{sw}}}{1.6} \quad (5)$$

where  $g_{\text{sw}}$  ( $\text{mol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) is stomatal conductance to water obtained directly from gas exchange measurements and 1.6 is the ratio of the diffusivities of  $\text{CO}_2$  and water in air (von Caemmerer and Farquhar, 1981).

### 2.5. Measurements of leaf anatomical characteristics

Fifteen small leaf samples ( $4.0 \text{ mm} \times 1.5 \text{ mm}$ ) were taken from five replications per treatment immediately after leaf gas exchange measurements in July and August and fixed in FAA (alcohol: formaldehyde: glacial acetic acid = 90: 5: 5). Samples were dehydrated in an alcohol series (30% alcohol for 1/2 h, 50% alcohol for 1/2 h, 70% alcohol for 1/2 h, 85% alcohol for 1/2 h, 95% alcohol for 1 h, 100% alcohol for 1 h and 100% alcohol for 1 h) followed by infiltration and finally embedded in Spurr’s resin. Semithin leaf cross-sections ( $8\text{-}\mu\text{m}$  thick) for light microscopy were stained with Saffron-fixing green and then observed at  $400\times$  magnification with a Leica DM2500 light microscope (Leica DM2500, Leica Microsystems GmbH, Wetzlar, Germany).

The thicknesses of leaf ( $T_{\text{leaf}}$ ,  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and mesophyll tissue ( $T_{\text{mes}}$ ,  $\mu\text{m}$ ) were measured using Image J software from over 27 horizons. Furthermore, the length of mesophyll cells exposed to intercellular space ( $L_{\text{mes}}$ ,  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and the cross-sectional width ( $W$ ,  $\mu\text{m}$ ) were also measured to calculate the surface area of mesophyll cells exposed to intercellular space per unit leaf area ( $S_{\text{mes}}$ ,  $\mu\text{m}^2 \mu\text{m}^{-2}$ ) according to the method in Evans et al. (1994) and Syvertsen et al. (1995):

$$S_{\text{mes}} = \frac{L_{\text{mes}}}{W} \cdot F \quad (6)$$

where  $F$  is the curvature correction factor, which was calculated according to Evans et al. (1994) and Thain (1983). In this study, the  $F$  values for controlled, water-stressed and rewatered saplings of both species were shown in Supplementary Table S2.

### 2.6. Calculations of the gas-phase and liquid-phase conductance

The  $g_m$  was a composite conductance with gas-phase conductance from substomatal cavities to the outer surface of cell walls ( $g_{\text{ias}}$ ,  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) and liquid-phase conductance from the outer surface of cell walls to chloroplasts ( $g_{\text{liq}}$ ,  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) (Evans et al., 1994).  $g_{\text{ias}}$  was calculated according to the description in Niinemets and Reichstein (2003):

$$g_{\text{ias}} = \frac{D_a f_{\text{ias}}}{\Delta L_{\text{ias}} \zeta} \quad (7)$$

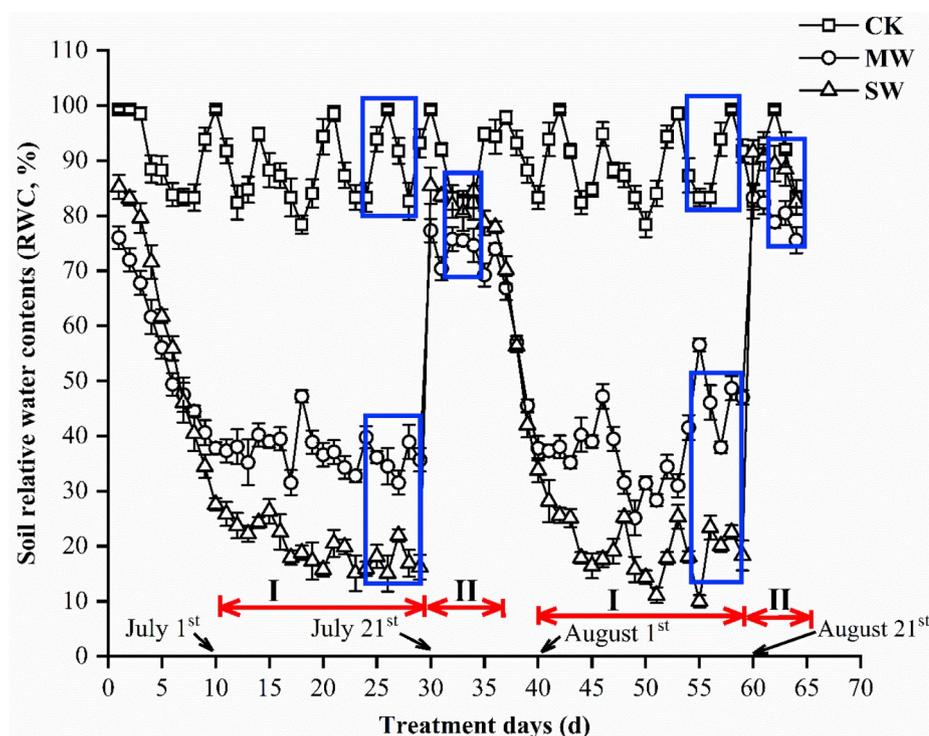


Fig. 1. Variations of daily soil relative water contents (RWC, %) during water stress (I) and re-watering (II) in July and August. All data were the averages of both species' pots with variations ( $n = 3$ ). CK, control; MW, medium water stress; SW, severe water stress. Gas exchange measuring and leaf sampling were performed in the days marked with blue box. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

where  $D_a$  ( $m^2 s^{-1}$ ) is the diffusion coefficient for  $CO_2$  in the gas phase ( $1.51 \times 10^{-5}$  at  $25^\circ C$ ) (Tomás et al., 2013).  $\Delta L_{ias}$  ( $\mu m$ ) was taken as half  $T_{mes}$  (Niinemets and Reichstein, 2003).  $\zeta$  is the diffusion path tortuosity ( $m m^{-1}$ ), which was valued at 1.57 (Syvertsen et al., 1995; Niinemets and Reichstein, 2003).  $f_{ias}$  (%) is the fraction of mesophyll volume occupied by the intercellular airspace, which was calculated according to the description in the study of Syvertsen et al. (1995).

The  $g_{liq}$  was provided by the sum of the inverses of serial conductance (Niinemets and Reichstein, 2003; Tosens et al., 2016):

$$\frac{1}{g_{liq}} = \left( \frac{1}{g_{cw}} + \frac{1}{g_{pl}} + \frac{1}{g_{ct}} + \frac{1}{g_{en}} + \frac{1}{g_{st}} \right) \frac{A_T}{A_{mes}} \quad (8)$$

where  $g_{cw}$ ,  $g_{pl}$ ,  $g_{ct}$ ,  $g_{en}$  and  $g_{st}$  are the partial conductance for the cell wall, plasmalemma, cytosol, chloroplast envelope and chloroplast stroma ( $m s^{-1}$ ), respectively.  $g_{cw}$ ,  $g_{ct}$  and  $g_{st}$  were calculated as described in Niinemets and Reichstein (2003), while  $g_{pl}$  and  $g_{en}$  were estimated to be  $0.0035 m s^{-1}$ , as suggested in previous studies (Evans et al., 1994; Tosens et al., 2012). Mesophyll surface area ( $A_{mes}$ ,  $\mu m^2$ ) and total leaf surface area ( $A_T$ ,  $\mu m^2$ ) corrected for the actual area available for  $CO_2$  diffusions were also measured using Image J software.

## 2.7. Measurements of stomatal opening status

Small leaf samples ( $4.0 mm \times 1.5 mm$ ) were fixed in 2.5% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH = 7.6) at  $4^\circ C$  and then stored at  $4^\circ C$  until further treatment. The saplings were flushed 2–3 times with phosphate buffer (pH = 7.6) and dehydrated with a gradient of 50%, 70%, 90% and 100% ethanol for 5–10 min at each concentration. Then, alcohol-tert-butyl alcohol solution (1:1, v/v) was used to exchange them for 20 min, and 100% tert-butyl alcohol was used to exchange them twice, for 20 min each time. Finally, leaf samples were freeze dried for 1–2 h with tert-butyl alcohol. Nine images of the abaxial and adaxial epidermal surfaces of each leaf were captured under a vacuum with an environmental scanning electron microscope (Quanta-250, FEI company, USA). Stomatal pore length (PL,  $\mu m$ ) and width (PW,  $\mu m$ ) at the center of the stoma were measured using Image J software to calculate the stomatal pore size (SS,  $\mu m^2$ ) (Xiong et al., 2017). In this

study, the SS was calculated based on the assumption that the stomatal pore is an ellipse with a major axis equal to PL and a minor axis equal to PW, following formula (9):

$$\text{Stomatal pore size (SS)} = \frac{\pi \cdot PL \cdot PW}{4} \quad (9)$$

## 2.8. Measurements of leaf AQP and CA activities

Fifteen fresh leaves per treatment were sampled to measure AQP and CA activities using the enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) according to Maeda et al. (1995). Purified plant AQP (or CA) antibody was used to coat microtiter plate wells and make solid-phase antibody; then, AQP (or CA) were added to wells. A combined antibody antigen-enzyme-antibody complex, and 3,3',5,5'-tetramethyl benzidine (TMB) substrate solution was then added for color after complete washing. Catalyzed by the HRP enzyme, the TMB substrate became blue, and the reaction was terminated by the addition of a sulfuric acid solution. The color change was measured spectrophotometrically at a wavelength of 450 nm. The activities of AQP and CA in the samples were determined by comparing the optical density (OD) values of the samples to the standard curves.

## 2.9. Statistical analysis

A one-way analysis of normality and homogeneity of variance between treatments in  $g_m$ ,  $g_{sc}$ ,  $A_n$ , leaf anatomical characteristics and both activities of AQP and CA was performed using SPSS 17.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Furthermore, the regression analyses between  $g_m$  and  $g_{ias}$  &  $g_{liq}$  were also performed. Mean values were compared using a least significant difference (LSD) multiple comparison test at the 0.05 probability level ( $P < 0.05$ ) with Tukey's honest significant difference (HSD) test. The data in two stages of pre-drought (initial drought) and rewatering were mixed analyzed to compare the differences between soil drought and rewatering to further highlight the effects of re-watering.

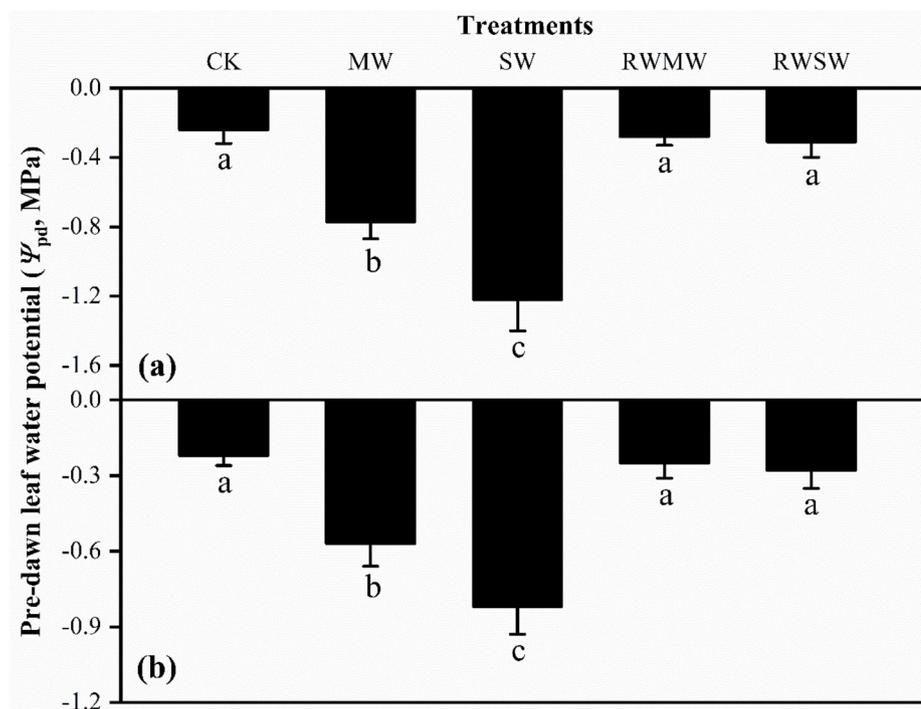


Fig. 2. Pre-dawn leaf water potential ( $\Psi_{pd}$ , MPa) responses to different treatments for Manchurian ash (a) and Mongolian oak (b) ( $n = 3$ ). The error bar represents standard error of all measurements in each individual tree species (The same in below.). Different letters indicate significant difference among each group treatments ( $P < 0.05$ ). CK, the control; MW, medium water stress; SW, severe water stress; RMMW, rewatering after initial medium water stress; RWSW, rewatering after initial severe water stress.

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Variations in daily soil RWCs and pre-dawn leaf water potential

Fig. 1 shows the variations in daily RWCs under three water control levels (well-watered, water-stressed and rewatered) together with the rewatering date and water control periods ('water stress' period and 'recovery' period). The RWC in well-watered pots (control, CK) fluctuated somewhat, varying from 78.4 to 99.3%, while the RWC in the water-stressed pots decreased significantly from approximate 80% at the beginning of the treatment to 37.8% (MW) and 27.6% (SW) after water stress began on 1 July. During the water stress periods (I), the RWC in the MW and SW treatments was maintained at an average of  $38.0 \pm 5.9\%$  and  $20.5 \pm 5.4\%$ , respectively. After rewatering on 1 July and 1 August (II), the RWC were fully recovered to the control level.

We also measured pre-dawn leaf water potential ( $\Psi_{pd}$ ) as an indicator of soil moisture stress (Fig. 2). The mean  $\Psi_{pd}$  in the CK treatment was  $-0.24 \pm 0.08$  MPa, which decreased to  $-0.77 \pm 0.10$  and  $-1.22 \pm 0.18$  MPa in the MW and SW treatments for Manchurian ash saplings, respectively, and to  $-0.57 \pm 0.09$  (MW) and  $-0.82 \pm 0.11$  MPa (SW) for Mongolian oak saplings. After rewatering, leaf  $\Psi_{pd}$  increased to  $-0.28 \pm 0.05$  (MW) and  $-0.31 \pm 0.09$  MPa (SW) for Manchurian ash saplings and to  $-0.25 \pm 0.06$  (MW) and  $-0.28 \pm 0.07$  MPa (SW) for Mongolian oak saplings.

#### 3.2. Changes in both $g_m$ and $g_{sc}$ during water stress

Fig. 3-I and II show the changes in  $g_m$ ,  $g_{sc}$  and  $A_n$  for both species during water stress in July and August. Both species (Manchurian ash and Mongolian oak) showed a decline in  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  as soil water availability decreased, and significant differences were detected in overall among the water stress treatments ( $P < 0.05$ ).  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  decreased by 31.2% and 22.6% (MW) and 52.4% and 32.2% (SW) in July and by 48.2% and 15.6% (MW) and 63.0% and 30.2% (SW) in August for Manchurian ash saplings and by 26.2% and 45.8% (MW) and 54.0% and 62.1% (SW) in July and 34.6% and 50.4% (MW) and 61.4% and 71.3% (SW) in August for Mongolian oak saplings, respectively,

compared with the controls.  $g_m$  decreased more than  $g_{sc}$  in Manchurian ash, while  $g_{sc}$  decreased much more in Mongolian oak saplings. Affected by the  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  declines,  $A_n$  decreased by 34.0% (MW) and 44.1% (SW) in July and 32.8% (MW) and 46.2% (SW) in August in Manchurian ash saplings and by 45.1% (MW) and 75.0% (SW) in July and 46.3% (MW) and 66.2% (SW) in August in Mongolian oak saplings.

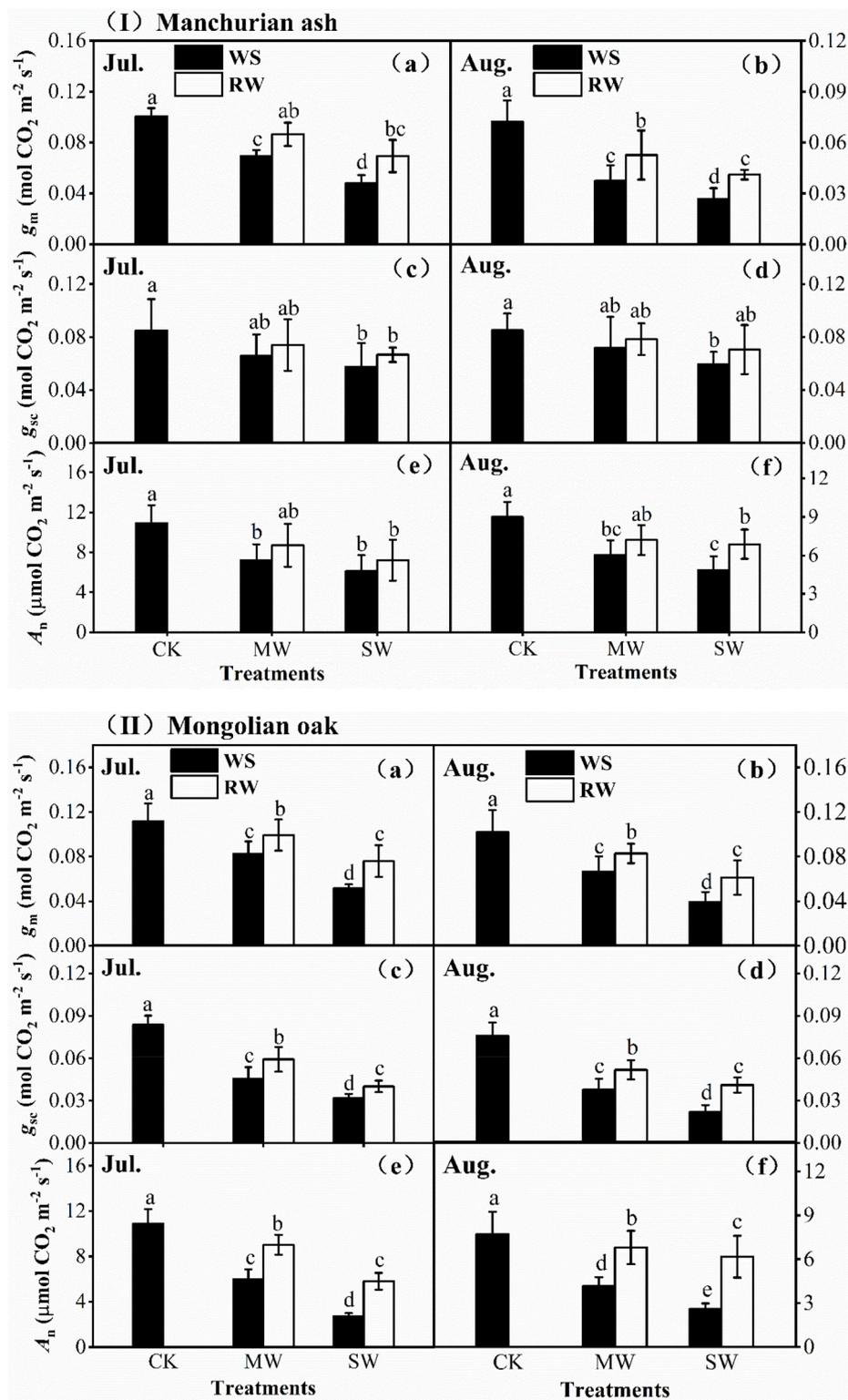
#### 3.3. Effects of rewatering on $g_m$ and $g_{sc}$

##### 3.3.1. Difference in $g_m$ and $g_{sc}$ recoveries between Manchurian ash and Mongolian oak

The changes in  $g_m$ ,  $g_{sc}$  and  $A_n$  after rewatering for both species are also shown in Fig. 3-I and II, which reveal that rewatering made a recovery effect on both  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  but that this effect differed between Manchurian ash and Mongolian oak. For Manchurian ash,  $g_m$  recovered to 85.9% (MW) and 68.9% (SW) of that in the controls in July and to 72.9% (MW) and 56.9% (SW) in August, while  $g_{sc}$  recovered to 87.2% (MW) and 78.5% (SW) in July and to 92.1% (MW) and 82.9% (SW) in August. For Mongolian oak,  $g_m$  recovered to 88.8% (MW) and 68.0% (SW) of that in the controls in July and to 81.2% (MW) and 60.0% (SW) in August, while  $g_{sc}$  recovered to 70.8% (MW) and 47.8% (SW) in July and to 68.3% (MW) and 54.1% (SW) in August. The  $g_m$  recovered much more in Mongolian oak, while Manchurian ash displayed a larger recovery in  $g_{sc}$ . Furthermore, the recoveries did not differ significantly between July and August. Promoted by the  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  recoveries,  $A_n$  recovered to approximately 82.7% (MW) and 68.9% (SW) of that in the controls for both species.

##### 3.3.2. Recoveries of $g_m$ and $g_{sc}$ after different initial water stresses

The recoveries of  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  also depended somewhat on the initial water control levels (Fig. 3-I and II). In the initial MW treatment,  $g_m$  recovered by an average of 49.2% (Manchurian ash) and 51.5% (Mongolian oak) more than that in the initial severe water stress (SW) treatment, while  $g_{sc}$  recovered by 46.2% (Manchurian ash) and 36.6% (Mongolian oak) more. Both  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  recovered much more in the initial MW treatment; in other words, the recoveries of  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  declined with initial water stress.



**Fig. 3.** Changes of  $g_m$ ,  $g_{sc}$  and  $A_n$  during water stress and rewatering for Manchurian ash (I) and Mongolian oak saplings (II). Values are means  $\pm$  SE ( $n = 5$ ), and different lowercase letters (a, b, c) indicate significant difference at  $P < 0.05$ . CK, control; MW, medium water stress; SW, severe water stress. WS, water stress treatment; RW, rewatering treatment.

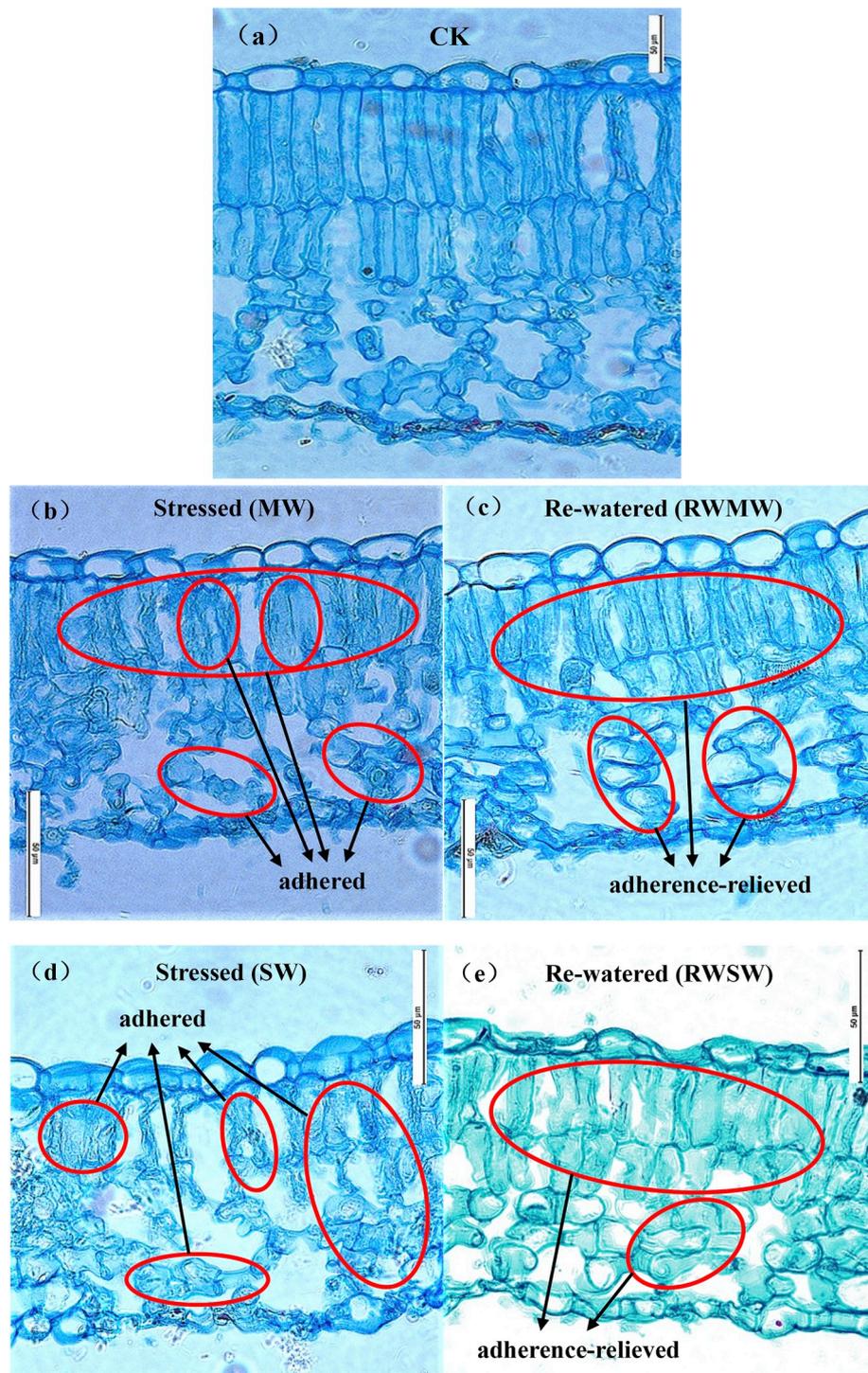
### 3.4. Adjustments in leaf anatomy

#### 3.4.1. Changes in mesophyll cell morphologies

Light micrographs of leaf transverse sections showed a significant difference before and after rewatering (Fig. 4). Compared with the control, water-stressed saplings showed a shriveled leaf anatomical

structure. Mesophyll cells adhered to form many clusters, and this clustering was aggravated by water stress (Fig. 4-b, d, g and i).

After rewatering, with the recovery of soil water contents, mesophyll cells gradually swelled and adherence-relieved, in turn reconnecting to each other (Fig. 4-c, e, h and j). Furthermore, both length and width of palisade and spongy tissues increased after rewatering,



**Fig. 4.** Light micrographs of transverse sections for controlled, water-stressed and re-watered leaves for Manchurian ash (a–e) and Mongolian oak saplings (f–j). Scale bar = 50  $\mu\text{m}$ . All leaf cross-sections were observed at 400  $\times$  magnification, but for better observation, some anatomical micrographs were enlarged. Red circles represent palisade and spongy tissues “adhered together (Stressed)” and “adherence-relieved to each other (Recovery)”. CK, the control; MW, medium water stress; SW, severe water stress; RMMW, rewatering after initial medium water stress; RWSW, rewatering after initial severe water stress. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

suggesting an enlarged surface area of mesophyll cells. All these changes in mesophyll cell morphologies would inevitably change the  $\text{CO}_2$  diffusion pathways.

#### 3.4.2. Changes in mesophyll anatomical characteristics

The changes in mesophyll cell morphologies led to different responses of leaf anatomical characteristics to soil water stress and

rewatering (Table 1). Both  $T_{\text{leaf}}$  and  $T_{\text{mes}}$  significantly decreased with water stress in both species ( $P < 0.05$ ). In addition, the adherences of palisade and spongy tissues during water stress directly decreased  $S_{\text{mes}}$  by 19.5% (MW) and 21.1% (SW) relative to the control values for Manchurian ash saplings and by 20.5% (MW) and 24.1% (SW) for Mongolian oak saplings, respectively, and no statistically significant difference was found between the MW and SW treatments ( $P < 0.05$ ).

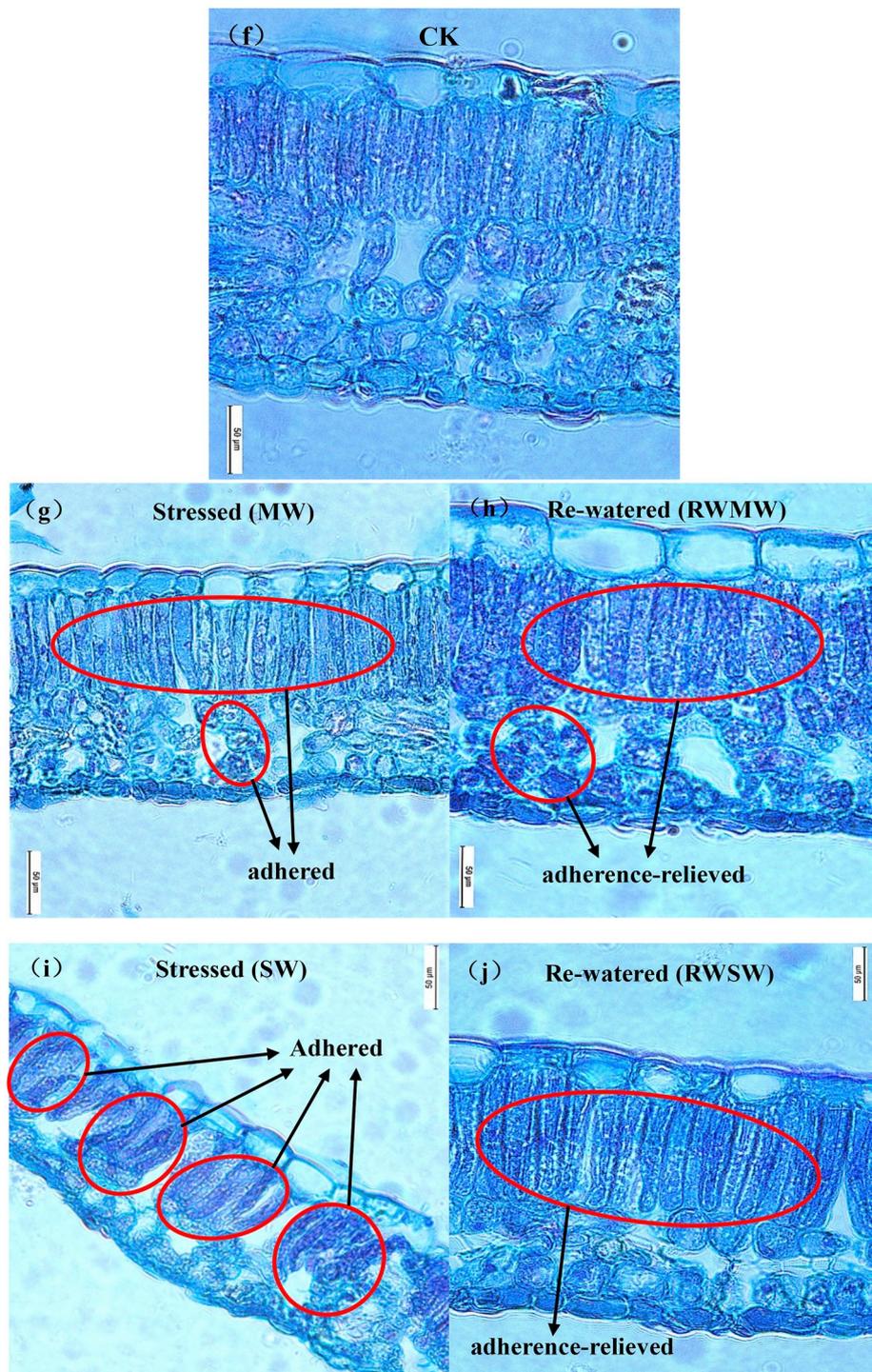


Fig. 4. (continued)

After rewatering, both  $T_{\text{leaf}}$  and  $T_{\text{mes}}$  increased significantly, but  $S_{\text{mes}}$  decreased by 0.6% (MW) and 23.1 (SW) in Manchurian ash saplings and by 2.9% (MW) and 10.3% (SW) in Mongolian oak saplings, respectively, on the basis of stressed values, even showing a significant difference before and after rewatering in the initial SW treatment ( $P < 0.05$ ).

#### 3.4.3. Changes in leaf $g_{\text{ias}}$ and $g_{\text{liq}}$

The changes in mesophyll anatomical characteristics caused different responses of  $g_{\text{ias}}$  and  $g_{\text{liq}}$  to water stress and rewatering (Table 1).  $g_{\text{ias}}$  increased with water stress and decreased after rewatering, showing a pattern in contrast to that of  $g_{\text{m}}$ , but no statistically significant

differences were detected in overall among the treatments ( $P < 0.05$ ). Changes in both  $T_{\text{leaf}}$  and  $T_{\text{mes}}$  led to an increase in the  $A_{\text{T}}/A_{\text{mes}}$  ratio during the period of soil drought and a decrease after rewatering, which directly caused the  $g_{\text{liq}}$  to decrease with water stress and markedly increase after rewatering. Furthermore,  $g_{\text{liq}}$  differed significantly before and after rewatering in both species ( $P < 0.05$ ).

#### 3.4.4. Changes in SS

Table 2 shows the values of stomatal features for both species during water stress and rewatering. SS, including PL and PW at the center of the stoma, contrasted considerably during water stress and after rewatering. With a decreasing soil water contents, both PL and PW

**Table 1**  
Values of leaf anatomical characteristics for controlled, water-stressed and re-watered saplings during water stress and rewatering for both species.

	Manchurian ash										Mongolian oak									
	Tleaf (μm)	Tmes (μm)	Smes (μm <sup>2</sup> μm <sup>-2</sup> )	AT/Ames	gas (10 <sup>-2</sup> m s <sup>-1</sup> )	glik (10 <sup>-4</sup> m s <sup>-1</sup> )	Tleaf (μm)	Tmes (μm)	Smes (μm <sup>2</sup> μm <sup>-2</sup> )	AT/Ames	gas (10 <sup>-2</sup> m s <sup>-1</sup> )	glik (10 <sup>-4</sup> m s <sup>-1</sup> )	Tleaf (μm)	Tmes (μm)	Smes (μm <sup>2</sup> μm <sup>-2</sup> )	AT/Ames	gas (10 <sup>-2</sup> m s <sup>-1</sup> )	glik (10 <sup>-4</sup> m s <sup>-1</sup> )		
CK	130.1 ± 11.0 <sup>a</sup>	116.3 ± 5.1 <sup>a</sup>	12.1 ± 2.0 <sup>a</sup>	1.91 ± 0.08 <sup>b</sup>	4.47 ± 0.37 <sup>b</sup>	1.08 ± 0.06 <sup>b</sup>	206.8 ± 3.2 <sup>c</sup>	158.1 ± 6.7 <sup>c</sup>	12.9 ± 1.3 <sup>a</sup>	1.81 ± 0.11 <sup>c</sup>	5.41 ± 0.33 <sup>b</sup>	1.14 ± 0.06 <sup>a</sup>	180.1 ± 1.9 <sup>d</sup>	145.3 ± 5.0 <sup>d</sup>	10.3 ± 0.5 <sup>b</sup>	2.56 ± 0.34 <sup>b</sup>	5.93 ± 0.22 <sup>a</sup>	0.81 ± 0.02 <sup>c</sup>		
MW	112.3 ± 1.1 <sup>b</sup>	95.6 ± 1.8 <sup>c</sup>	9.7 ± 0.6 <sup>b</sup>	2.08 ± 0.13 <sup>ab</sup>	5.55 ± 0.53 <sup>b</sup>	0.99 ± 0.04 <sup>b</sup>	180.1 ± 1.9 <sup>d</sup>	145.3 ± 5.0 <sup>d</sup>	10.3 ± 0.5 <sup>b</sup>	2.56 ± 0.34 <sup>b</sup>	5.93 ± 0.22 <sup>a</sup>	0.81 ± 0.02 <sup>c</sup>	126.7 ± 8.5 <sup>e</sup>	95.0 ± 7.5 <sup>c</sup>	9.8 ± 0.2 <sup>b</sup>	3.90 ± 0.30 <sup>a</sup>	5.53 ± 0.24 <sup>ab</sup>	0.53 ± 0.01 <sup>d</sup>		
SW	101.2 ± 1.7 <sup>c</sup>	82.9 ± 1.7 <sup>c</sup>	9.5 ± 0.8 <sup>b</sup>	2.43 ± 0.47 <sup>a</sup>	10.19 ± 1.74 <sup>a</sup>	0.85 ± 0.06 <sup>c</sup>	235.4 ± 4.5 <sup>a</sup>	183.6 ± 2.4 <sup>b</sup>	10.0 ± 1.7 <sup>b</sup>	1.96 ± 0.09 <sup>c</sup>	5.51 ± 0.30 <sup>ab</sup>	1.06 ± 0.04 <sup>b</sup>	235.4 ± 4.5 <sup>a</sup>	183.6 ± 2.4 <sup>b</sup>	10.0 ± 1.7 <sup>b</sup>	1.96 ± 0.09 <sup>c</sup>	5.51 ± 0.30 <sup>ab</sup>	1.06 ± 0.04 <sup>b</sup>		
RWMW	124.6 ± 2.4 <sup>b</sup>	105.9 ± 1.2 <sup>b</sup>	9.7 ± 1.5 <sup>b</sup>	1.92 ± 0.04 <sup>b</sup>	5.26 ± 0.41 <sup>b</sup>	1.08 ± 0.05 <sup>b</sup>	226.3 ± 4.3 <sup>b</sup>	196.6 ± 6.6 <sup>a</sup>	8.8 ± 0.7 <sup>c</sup>	1.84 ± 0.06 <sup>c</sup>	4.90 ± 0.20 <sup>c</sup>	1.13 ± 0.05 <sup>ab</sup>	226.3 ± 4.3 <sup>b</sup>	196.6 ± 6.6 <sup>a</sup>	8.8 ± 0.7 <sup>c</sup>	1.84 ± 0.06 <sup>c</sup>	4.90 ± 0.20 <sup>c</sup>	1.13 ± 0.05 <sup>ab</sup>		
RWSW	110.9 ± 3.6 <sup>bc</sup>	89.2 ± 1.6 <sup>d</sup>	7.3 ± 1.0 <sup>c</sup>	1.70 ± 0.06 <sup>b</sup>	9.75 ± 0.33 <sup>a</sup>	1.22 ± 0.04 <sup>a</sup>	226.3 ± 4.3 <sup>b</sup>	196.6 ± 6.6 <sup>a</sup>	8.8 ± 0.7 <sup>c</sup>	1.84 ± 0.06 <sup>c</sup>	4.90 ± 0.20 <sup>c</sup>	1.13 ± 0.05 <sup>ab</sup>	226.3 ± 4.3 <sup>b</sup>	196.6 ± 6.6 <sup>a</sup>	8.8 ± 0.7 <sup>c</sup>	1.84 ± 0.06 <sup>c</sup>	4.90 ± 0.20 <sup>c</sup>	1.13 ± 0.05 <sup>ab</sup>		

All data were means ± SE (n = 5). Different lowercase letters (a, b, c) indicate significant differences at  $P < 0.05$ .  $T_{\text{leaf}}$ , total leaf thickness;  $T_{\text{mes}}$ , mesophyll tissue thickness between the two epidermises;  $S_{\text{mes}}$ , the surface area of mesophyll cells exposed to intercellular space per unit leaf area;  $A_{\text{T}}/A_{\text{mes}}$ , the ratio of mesophyll surface ( $A_{\text{T}}$ ) to total leaf surface area ( $A_{\text{mes}}$ );  $g_{\text{lik}}$ , CO<sub>2</sub> liquid-phase conductance from outer surface of cell walls to chloroplasts. CK, the control; MW, medium water stress; SW, severe water stress; RWMW, rewatering after initial medium water stress; RWSW, rewatering after initial severe water stress.

decreased and directly caused a significant decline in SS of approximately  $8 \mu\text{m}^2$  for Manchurian ash saplings and approximately  $2 \mu\text{m}^2$  for Mongolian oak saplings ( $P < 0.05$ ), which might have been caused by the shrinkage of guard cells. After rewatering, both PL and PW increased, which also caused a significant increase in SS of approximately  $4 \mu\text{m}^2$  for Manchurian ash saplings and approximately  $2 \mu\text{m}^2$  for Mongolian oak saplings compared with that before rewatering ( $P < 0.05$ ), and the more serious the initial water stress was, the higher the recovery. The recovery of SS increased the stomatal opening status and promoted the recovery of  $g_{\text{sc}}$ .

### 3.5. Changes in leaf AQP and CA activities

Table 3 shows the values of leaf AQP and CA activities for both species during water stress and rewatering. The AQP and CA activities for both species decreased with water stress but increased after rewatering. Overall, there was a significant difference between treatments ( $P < 0.05$ ). In addition, both activities of AQP and CA in the SW treatment were lower than those in the MW treatment, and this was not changed by soil rewatering. The decrease in AQP activity weakened the transmembrane transport of CO<sub>2</sub>, and the transmission of CO<sub>2</sub> to  $-\text{HCO}_3^-$  was also weakened with a decrease in CA activity. Soil rewatering increased the activities of AQP and CA, thereby strengthening the transmembrane transport of CO<sub>2</sub> and water and promoting the expression of AQP and CA genes, further increasing  $g_{\text{m}}$  and  $g_{\text{sc}}$ .

## 4. Discussion

### 4.1. Recoveries of $g_{\text{m}}$ and $g_{\text{sc}}$ after rewatering

Rewatering led to the recoveries of both  $g_{\text{m}}$  and  $g_{\text{sc}}$ , which had been reported by earlier studies (Galmés et al., 2007; Galle et al., 2009; Flexas et al., 2009; Cano et al., 2014; Cai et al., 2015). In this study, the recoveries of  $g_{\text{m}}$  and  $g_{\text{sc}}$  varied from 47.8% to 92.1% in July and August in both species, being a moderate level among relative researches in overall, which are slightly higher than those in the study of Perez-Martin et al. (2014) that the  $g_{\text{m}}$  of *Olea europaea* L. var. Manzanilla plants recovered by 35–53% and  $g_{\text{sc}}$  recovered by only 6–35% after 4 days of rewatering, but markedly lower than the studies of Galmés et al. (2007) and Galle et al. (2007) that both  $g_{\text{m}}$  and  $g_{\text{sc}}$  were completely recovered after 1–3 days of rewatering. Besides, our data showed that  $g_{\text{m}}$  and  $g_{\text{sc}}$  made different recoveries to soil rewatering, in which  $g_{\text{m}}$  recovered much more in Mongolian oak while  $g_{\text{sc}}$  recovered more in Manchurian ash. This was agreed with the studies of Flexas et al. (2009) on *Vitis berlandieri* × *Vitis rupestris* and Cai et al. (2015) on *Rhododendron delavayi* Franch., in which  $g_{\text{m}}$  was completely recovered but  $g_{\text{sc}}$  made no significant recovery in the former species or recovered to only 70–86% in the later species. Furthermore, Cai et al. (2015) found that with further recovery of  $g_{\text{sc}}$  after 3 days of rewatering,  $g_{\text{m}}$  was no longer restored and even slightly decreased.

We also explored the effects of different initial water stresses on  $g_{\text{m}}$  and  $g_{\text{sc}}$  recoveries in this study and found a larger recovery of  $g_{\text{m}}$  and  $g_{\text{sc}}$  after the initial medium water stress treatment. This might be because the saplings in the initial medium water stress treatment were less damaged than those in the initial severe water stress treatment and maintained a better recovery capacity (Kunz et al., 2016). Therefore, the recoveries of  $g_{\text{m}}$  and  $g_{\text{sc}}$  were also related to the initial water stress conditions.

The recoveries of  $g_{\text{m}}$  and  $g_{\text{sc}}$  greatly promoted  $A_{\text{n}}$  recovery, but this promotion was species dependent, as the  $g_{\text{m}}$  and  $g_{\text{sc}}$  recoveries showed some species dependence in this study. The recovery of  $A_{\text{n}}$  in Manchurian ash was mostly affected by  $g_{\text{sc}}$  recovery, as  $g_{\text{sc}}$  recovered much more after rewatering than  $g_{\text{m}}$ , while the recovery of  $A_{\text{n}}$  in Mongolian oak was strongly promoted by the greater recovery of  $g_{\text{m}}$ . This difference in the driver of  $A_{\text{n}}$  recovery might be related to the different drought tolerances of the species. Manchurian ash is a water-

**Table 2**

Values of stomatal pore size (SS), including stoma pore length (PL) and pore width (PW) at the center of the stoma for controlled (CK), water-stressed and re-watered leaves for both species.

	Manchurian ash			Mongolian oak		
	PL ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	PW ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	SS ( $\mu\text{m}^2$ )	PL ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	PW ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	SS ( $\mu\text{m}^2$ )
CK	7.01 $\pm$ 0.70 <sup>a</sup>	3.04 $\pm$ 0.97 <sup>a</sup>	17.57 $\pm$ 1.72 <sup>a</sup>	6.36 $\pm$ 0.52 <sup>a</sup>	2.47 $\pm$ 0.58 <sup>a</sup>	12.78 $\pm$ 1.15 <sup>a</sup>
MW	5.08 $\pm$ 0.36 <sup>bc</sup>	2.60 $\pm$ 0.90 <sup>a</sup>	10.98 $\pm$ 1.47 <sup>c</sup>	6.16 $\pm$ 0.47 <sup>a</sup>	2.28 $\pm$ 0.53 <sup>a</sup>	11.40 $\pm$ 1.19 <sup>ab</sup>
SW	4.05 $\pm$ 0.21 <sup>c</sup>	2.17 $\pm$ 0.32 <sup>a</sup>	6.95 $\pm$ 1.37 <sup>d</sup>	5.42 $\pm$ 0.80 <sup>a</sup>	2.14 $\pm$ 0.67 <sup>a</sup>	9.52 $\pm$ 1.90 <sup>b</sup>
RMMW	6.71 $\pm$ 0.17 <sup>a</sup>	2.77 $\pm$ 0.49 <sup>a</sup>	14.76 $\pm$ 2.63 <sup>ab</sup>	6.22 $\pm$ 0.76 <sup>a</sup>	2.59 $\pm$ 0.58 <sup>a</sup>	12.91 $\pm$ 1.56 <sup>a</sup>
RWSW	5.58 $\pm$ 0.98 <sup>b</sup>	2.33 $\pm$ 0.94 <sup>a</sup>	11.20 $\pm$ 2.64 <sup>bc</sup>	6.23 $\pm$ 0.80 <sup>a</sup>	2.60 $\pm$ 0.44 <sup>a</sup>	12.96 $\pm$ 1.74 <sup>a</sup>

All data were means  $\pm$  SE (n = 64). Different lowercase letters (a, b, c) indicate significant differences at  $P < 0.05$ . CK, the control; MW, medium water stress; SW, severe water stress; RMMW, rewatering after initial medium water stress; RWSW, rewatering after initial severe water stress.

**Table 3**

Values of leaf aquaporin (AQP) and carbonic anhydrase (CA) activities for controlled, water-stressed and re-watered saplings during water stress and re-watering for both species.

	Manchurian ash		Mongolian oak	
	AQP ( $\text{U g}^{-1}$ )	CA ( $\text{U g}^{-1}$ )	AQP ( $\text{U g}^{-1}$ )	CA ( $\text{U g}^{-1}$ )
CK	5.57 $\pm$ 0.29 <sup>a</sup>	1.54 $\pm$ 0.09 <sup>a</sup>	5.57 $\pm$ 0.15 <sup>a</sup>	1.42 $\pm$ 0.10 <sup>a</sup>
MW	4.90 $\pm$ 0.36 <sup>bc</sup>	1.07 $\pm$ 0.05 <sup>d</sup>	4.86 $\pm$ 0.09 <sup>bc</sup>	1.19 $\pm$ 0.07 <sup>b</sup>
SW	4.45 $\pm$ 0.13 <sup>d</sup>	0.79 $\pm$ 0.02 <sup>e</sup>	4.03 $\pm$ 0.08 <sup>d</sup>	1.01 $\pm$ 0.02 <sup>c</sup>
RMMW	5.01 $\pm$ 0.09 <sup>b</sup>	1.39 $\pm$ 0.21 <sup>b</sup>	4.98 $\pm$ 0.08 <sup>b</sup>	1.25 $\pm$ 0.09 <sup>b</sup>
RWSW	4.67 $\pm$ 0.29 <sup>cd</sup>	1.27 $\pm$ 0.05 <sup>c</sup>	4.70 $\pm$ 0.22 <sup>c</sup>	1.15 $\pm$ 0.06 <sup>b</sup>

All data were means  $\pm$  SE (n = 5). Different lowercase letters (a, b, c) indicate significant differences among treatments at  $P < 0.05$ . CK, the control; MW, medium water stress; SW, severe water stress; RMMW, rewatering after initial medium water stress; RWSW, rewatering after initial severe water stress.

loving species and is more sensitive to changes in soil moisture content, while Mongolian oak has a stronger drought tolerance and is slightly influenced by the alternation of drought and rewatering. However, our results partly differ from the results of Cai et al. (2015), who showed that  $g_m$  rather than  $g_{sc}$  or other biochemical factors had the most important effect on photosynthesis recovery, which was also suggested in the study of Galmés et al. (2007), in which  $g_m$  recovery was the driver of photosynthetic recovery of severely stressed plants after rewatering.

However, the present results might not completely reflect the mature trees' responses to soil drought and rewatering. Samuelson and Michael Kelly, 2001 suggested that variation in stomatal conductance to water vapor ( $g_{sw}$ ) might be different in saplings and mature trees responding to soil water availability. In addition, the variation in foliar N concentration between saplings and mature trees could also result in the differences in leaf gas-exchange rates (Samuelson and Michael Kelly, 2001), since photosynthetic capacity was often positively correlated with foliar nitrogen (N) concentration (Field and Mooney, 1986). Furthermore, Niinemets (2010) suggested that tree tolerance to many environmental stresses such as drought increases throughout the ontogeny as the result of accumulation of non-structural carbon pools. Hence, considering the mature trees had much stronger drought tolerance and higher foliar N concentrations in general (Fredericksen et al., 1995, 1996; Kolb et al., 1997; Cavender-Bares and Bazzaz, 2000; Fleischmann et al., 2005, 2009; Nunn et al., 2005; Tu et al., 2016), mature trees in Manchurian ash and Mongolian oak might maintain a slighter decline in  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  during soil drought, and might also have a larger even complete recovery in mesophyll and stomatal conductance after rewatering.

#### 4.2. Mechanisms of $g_m$ and $g_{sc}$ recoveries involving leaf anatomy

In this study, leaf cross-sections from stressed saplings revealed that both palisade and spongy tissues adhered together to form clusters during water stress, in turn increasing the chlorenchyma cell density

and increasing the difficulty of  $\text{CO}_2$  diffusion through mesophyll cells to the site of chloroplast carboxylation (Chartzoulakis et al., 2002), but this status was relieved by soil rewatering. After rewatering, the pre-dawn leaf water potential ( $\Psi_{pd}$ ) increased (Fig. 2), the adherence of palisade and spongy tissues was relieved, and mesophyll cells were reconnected to each other, which not only decreased  $\text{CO}_2$  diffusional difficulties but also improved the contact areas between palisade and spongy tissues, thus increasing  $g_m$ .

Compared with the qualitative descriptions of mesophyll cell morphologies, the quantitative changes in leaf anatomical characteristics provided a clearer mechanism of  $g_m$  recovery. First,  $S_{mes}$  decreased with water stress and after rewatering (Table 1), showing responses partially similar to those of  $g_m$ . Hence,  $S_{mes}$  had a negative effect on  $g_m$  recovery, both  $T_{leaf}$  and  $T_{mes}$  increased after rewatering in this study (Table 1); these increases not only enlarged total leaf and mesophyll surface areas for the actual areas available for  $\text{CO}_2$  diffusion (Niinemets and Reichstein, 2003), but also widened  $\text{CO}_2$  flow pathways, as thicker leaves have more parallel flow pathways outside the xylem (Xiong et al., 2015b). Thus, the negative effects of the  $S_{mes}$  decrease on  $g_m$  recovery might be largely compensated for by the large increases in  $T_{leaf}$  and  $T_{mes}$ . In addition, the  $g_m$  recovery might also be greatly promoted by an increase in the chloroplast surface facing the intercellular space per unit leaf area ( $S_c$ ) (Evans et al., 2009; Tosens et al., 2012, 2016; Tomás et al., 2013; Xiong et al., 2017), as  $S_c$  was suggested to be tightly related to mesophyll cells, the shapes of chloroplasts and the light-dependent arrangement of chloroplasts (Tholen et al., 2008) and might have a positive effect on  $g_m$  recovery, although  $S_c$  was not measured in this study.

Furthermore, leaf anatomical characteristics may indirectly affect  $g_m$  recovery by directly affecting  $g_{ias}$  and  $g_{liq}$ , which compose  $g_m$  (Evans et al., 1994). In this study,  $g_{ias}$  increased with water stress and decreased after rewatering, while  $g_{liq}$  exhibited responses to water stress and rewatering identical to those of  $g_m$  (Table 1). Hence, the increases in leaf anatomical characteristics significantly promoted the  $\text{CO}_2$  liquid-phase transport process but suppressed gas-phase transport, and the  $g_m$  recovery might be mainly promoted by  $g_{liq}$  rather than by  $g_{ias}$ . This was also strongly supported by the contrary relationships of  $g_{ias}$  and  $g_{liq}$  with  $g_m$ , in which  $g_m$  was negatively correlated with  $g_{ias}$  but positively correlated with  $g_{liq}$  in both species (Fig. 5). Our result agreed with that in the study of Evans et al. (1994), who concluded that  $g_{ias}$  was not a major determinant of  $g_m$  in leaves. Furthermore, our result was also indirectly supported by the study of Miyazawa et al. (2008a), who attributed a significant reduction in  $g_m$  to a decrease in  $g_{liq}$ . Consequently, the  $g_m$  recovery in both species should mainly result from the great increase in  $g_{liq}$  after rewatering rather than that in  $g_{ias}$ .

Compared with the complex mechanisms of  $g_m$  recovery, those of  $g_{sc}$  recovery were relatively clear. Based on the suggestion of Xiong et al. (2017) that  $g_{sc}$  was determined by both stomatal size and opening status, the increase in SS after rewatering induced by increases in the stomatal PL and PW at the center of the stoma increases in this study greatly improved stomatal opening status (Table 2), which

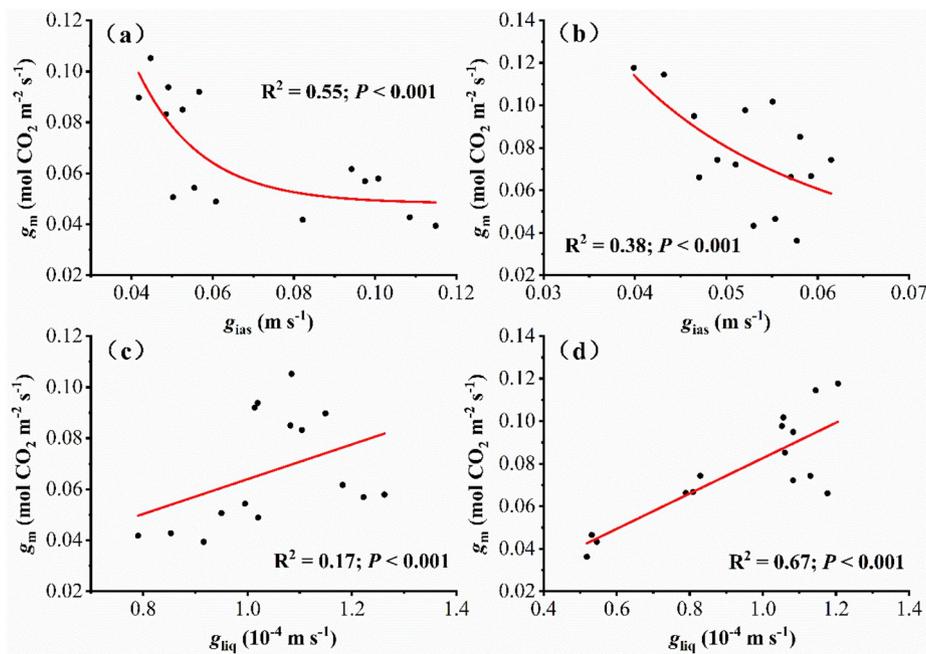


Fig. 5. The correlations between  $g_m$  and  $g_{ias}$  &  $g_{liq}$  for Manchurian ash (a, c) and Mongolian oak saplings (b, d) in this study.

strengthened CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion from leaf surface to substomatal cavities and then significantly promoted  $g_{sc}$  recovery, consistent with findings from the study of Ocheltree et al. (2012).

#### 4.3. Mechanisms of $g_m$ and $g_{sc}$ recoveries involving AQP and CA activities

As discussed above, the  $g_m$  recovery should be mainly due to the great increase in  $g_{liq}$  after rewatering, and  $g_{liq}$  has already been suggested to be related to AQP and CA activities (Gillon and Yakir, 2000; Guo et al., 2007; Miyazawa et al., 2008a, b). Hence, the increase in  $g_{liq}$  might be largely promoted by the increases in AQP and CA activities in both species, which was strongly supported by our result. In this study, the activities of both AQP and CA decreased with water stress, while they increased after rewatering (Table 3) and were positively correlated with  $g_m$ . Since  $g_{liq}$  is the capacity for CO<sub>2</sub> transmembrane transport among the cell wall, cytosol, chloroplast envelope and chloroplast stroma (Evans et al., 1994), the increases in AQP and CA activities significantly improved these capacities, as AQP has been found to be water and CO<sub>2</sub> channels in many plant species such as *Hordeum vulgare* L. (Mori et al., 2014), rice (Hanba et al., 2004) and *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Heckwolf et al., 2011), while CA has been suggested to regulate  $g_m$  by changing the dynamics of CO<sub>2</sub> and  $-HCO_3^-$  (Gillon and Yakir, 2000; Perez-Martin et al., 2014). The promotions of AQP and CA activities leading to increases in  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  recoveries might be explained by the following three aspects.

First, the increase in AQP activity might strongly promote the expression of genes in the plasma membrane intrinsic proteins (PIPs) aquaporin family, mediated by AQP, and then improve CO<sub>2</sub> and water membrane permeabilities via AQP in both species (Uehlein et al., 2003; Flexas et al., 2006; Perez-Martin et al., 2011). Such a process directly improves CO<sub>2</sub> transmembrane transport and consequently increases both  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  (Hanba et al., 2004; Flexas et al., 2006; Perez-Martin et al., 2014; Xiong et al., 2015a; Han et al., 2018). Second, the increase in CA activity would greatly strengthen the transmission of CO<sub>2</sub> to  $-HCO_3^-$  and then promote CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion, further increasing both  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$ . Third, the positive effects of AQP and CA activities on  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  recoveries might be largely promoted by leaf anatomical structure adjustments. The adherence between mesophyll tissues was relieved after rewatering, which reconnected mesophyll cells to each other and enlarged the areas of contact between cells (Fig. 4). CO<sub>2</sub> transmembrane

transport would be greatly strengthened, and  $g_{liq}$  would markedly increase.

In addition, the recoveries of  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  might also be greatly affected by leaf hydraulic conductivity ( $K_{leaf}$ ) (Resco et al., 2009), as  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  both showed correlations with leaf  $K_{leaf}$  in relevant studies (Flexas et al., 2013; Xiong et al., 2015b). Furthermore, Wang et al. (2018) revealed that leaf hydraulic vulnerability triggered declines in  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  during periods of drought. In this study, increases in leaf  $\Psi_{pd}$  and AQP activity after rewatering indicated an increase in leaf  $K_{leaf}$ , which not only greatly improved leaf water supply and transport capacities but also strengthened CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion, as leaf water supply capacity was strongly related to leaf  $K_{leaf}$  and there was much overlap between the processes of water transport from vessel to stomata and CO<sub>2</sub> transport from the atmosphere to chloroplasts (Flexas et al., 2013; Xiong et al., 2017, 2015b). The hormonal and hydraulic signals involved in stomatal closure might be activated, followed by an increase in the stomatal opening status (Sperry et al., 2002; Buckley, 2005; Dodd, 2005; Brodribb and Cochard, 2009; Rodriguez-Dominguez et al., 2016; McAdam and Brodribb, 2016). Furthermore, since changes in hormone levels (such as abscisic acid, ABA) and leaf structural properties may potentially affect  $g_m$  (Tombesi et al., 2015; Coupel-Ledru et al., 2017), soil rewatering might improve hormones and in turn promote  $g_m$  recovery. Thus, the  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  recoveries might also be indirectly promoted by an increase in leaf  $K_{leaf}$ .

A detailed understanding to the coordination of AQP and CA activities and leaf anatomical characteristics could clarify the mechanisms of  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  recoveries. Further studies are needed to understand the developmental basis for this coordination under dynamic environmental conditions.

## 5. Conclusion

Soil rewatering led to partial recoveries of  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$ , but the recoveries decreased with initial water stress in both species. In addition, the recoveries also varied between Manchurian ash and Mongolian oak saplings. The  $g_m$  recovery in Mongolian oak was much larger than that in Manchurian ash, while the  $g_{sc}$  obtained a larger recovery in Manchurian ash. The recovery of neither  $g_m$  nor  $g_{sc}$  was significant between July and August ( $P < 0.05$ ). Photosynthesis recovery in Manchurian ash saplings was mostly affected by  $g_{sc}$  recovery, while that

in Mongolian oak saplings was mostly affected by  $g_m$  recovery.

The  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  recoveries were well explained by changes in leaf anatomy and AQP and CA activities. Both  $S_{mes}$  and  $g_{ias}$  had negative effects on  $g_m$  recovery, but these effects were largely compensated for by great increases in  $T_{leaf}$ ,  $T_{mes}$  and  $g_{liq}$ . Consequently, the  $g_m$  recovery should mainly result from the great increase in  $g_{liq}$  after rewatering. In addition, the  $g_{sc}$  recovery was greatly triggered by an increase in SS (PL and PW at the center of the stoma). Furthermore, the activities of both AQP and CA increased after rewatering, which improved CO<sub>2</sub> transmembrane transport and greatly promoted  $g_m$  and  $g_{sc}$  recoveries.

#### Authors' contributions

The experiment was supervised by Dexin Guan. Kai Zhu, Fenghui Yuan, Anzhi Wang, Dexin Guan, Changjie Jin and Jiabing Wu designed the experiment. Kai Zhu, Hongxia Zhang and Hong Yang helped in performing the experiment. Kai Zhu analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript. Kai Zhu, Fenghui Yuan, Dexin Guan, Yushu Zhang and Jiabing Wu revised and corrected the draft manuscript.

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#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.plaphy.2019.09.025>.

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