

Revisiting ecohydrological separation

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Brief Communication

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1 Revisiting ecohydrological separation

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10

11 Abstract

12 **The ecohydrological separation (EHS) paradigm, frequently compared with the translatory**
13 **flow (HH), opens up a new understanding of terrestrial water cycles. Recent finding of**
14 **cryogenic vacuum extraction (CVE) bias and associated correction no longer supports the**
15 **EHS but goes back to HH. However, we found systematic similarities in plant and soil**
16 **water lines for a global database, whereby the CVE-bias correction may not shift the EHS**
17 **and/or HH.**

18

19 **Keywords:** cryogenic vacuum extraction; ecohydrological separation; translatory flow;
20 uncertainties

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22 There are two frequently discussed isotope-based paradigms: a) “ecohydrological separation (1;
23 henceforth EHS)”, which states vegetation and streams return different pools of water to the
24 hydrosphere, and b) “translatory flow” by Hewlett and Hibbert (2; henceforth HH), the process
25 through which soil water is rapidly displaced through piston-flow by new precipitation infiltration
26 and later contributes to streamflow. Differentiating EHS and HH paradigms is critically important
27 to understand the underlying processes of the terrestrial water cycles, e.g., by determining plant
28 water sources and elucidating soil water transport and mixing dynamics.

29

30 Both paradigms were derived from the isotope-based data (²H, ¹⁸O) that relied mainly on the
31 decade-old cryogenic vacuum extraction (CVE) for water extractions from soils and plants.
32 However, Chen and colleagues (3) found a large deuterium bias in tree water obtained from the
33 “gold-standard” CVE method (i.e., CVE-bias). They further proposed a $\delta^2\text{H}$ offset to correct the
34 CVE-bias inherited from a global meta-analysis by Evaristo et al. (4) (74% CVE-based dataset;
35 1,079 out of 1451 samples) that the EHS was generalized as a global phenomenon, following up
36 the findings of Brooks et al. (5). Ultimately, they found that the correction data no longer
37 supported the EHS but HH. Consequently, many water isotope-based studies have refocused on
38 reducing CVE-bias for (dis)proving EHS and/or HH (6-9).

39

40 Chen et al. (3) was highly appraised for critical “missing piece” finding of hydrogen exchange
41 during the extraction process (i.e., CVE-bias); however, the resulted paradigm-shifting from EHS
42 to HH is not reasonable. Their suggested correction factor may not be the same for different
43 plants and their stem water contents (6; which will be discussed later). Likewise, their direct
44 finding of CVE-bias may not be the only cause for $\delta^2\text{H}$ offsets between plant water and its source

45 waters. For instance, when only the sap water was sampled—which excluded the nonconductive
46 xylem water—the previous $\delta^2\text{H}$ offset had disappeared (7). Besides, the EHS and/or HH
47 paradigms may not be directly comparable (8). Neither HH nor EHS describes whether incoming
48 precipitation mixes thoroughly with pre-event soil water. The partial displacement of pre-event soil
49 water by incoming new precipitation (HH paradigm) is entirely consistent with the EHS:
50 Vegetation may access immobile soil water, which is not mixing and is isotopically different from
51 mobile soil water (8). Consequently, while the EHS may still withstand closer scrutiny, there is
52 cause to question whether, and if so, how to correct the “isotopic separation” patterns in the
53 original publication (4).

54
55 For clarity, we define the EHS as 1) mobile and immobile water are isotopically different from one
56 another (‘hydrological separation’ or subsurface water compartmentalization); and 2) plants
57 primarily take up immobile soil water (‘ecological separation’ or plant water selection). Based on
58 our conceptual diagram (Fig. 1), Types 2 and 4 water pools relate to ecological and hydrological
59 separation (i.e., plants primarily use immobile or mobile water). However, only type 2 fulfills the
60 definition of EHS as the Type 4 means plants primarily use mobile soil water (e.g., in the riparian
61 environment). Therefore, only type 2 must undergo data correction to evaluate whether
62 uncertainties are large enough to shift the plant water line (ratio between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}$) closer to
63 the mobile soil water line (i.e., affecting the EHS conclusion). The correction of types 1 and 3 are
64 not associated with the EHS. Note that any correction of plant water isotope does not influence
65 the HH since it fundamentally does not include plant water uptake (i.e., Type 1).

66
67 To confirm whether the EHS is biased from the CVE-based extraction techniques, we reanalyzed
68 the “raw” data (4) by separating the whole dataset into two types of a) with and b) without CVE-
69 based measurements and found that the averaged precipitation offsets illustrated systematic
70 similarities in plant and soil water, regardless of the dataset (Fig. 2). Such proportionally isotopic
71 differences in compartmentalized water pools excluded the effect of individual extraction
72 techniques. Further comparisons of CVE and other extraction methods (e.g., azeotropic
73 distillation) confirmed that the extraction methods were not statistically different (4). As such,
74 except for a systemic bias identified throughout the dataset, it is puzzling why only the CVE-
75 based dataset needs a bias correction, but the others do not.

76
77 Moreover, the suggested correction factor (3) does not change the statistical significance of
78 compartmentalized water pools (i.e., the slope of the plant water line), except that the plant water
79 isotopes would plot closer to the local meteoric water line (i.e., the intercept of the plant water
80 line) (Fig. 3b). Therefore, this is not applicable for an unbiased assessment of the plant’s source
81 water used in Evaristo et al. (4). Similarly, another species-averaged correction factor (9) —
82 which covered more diversified plant species (i.e., $\sim 6.1\%$)— also did not change the statistical
83 significance (Fig. 3c). Only species/biome-differentiated correction factors (6) changed (Fig. 3d),
84 indicating the “local/site-specific” correction function is needed for a potentially effective
85 paradigm-shifting.

86
87 Indeed, a universal correction function might not exist. A typical argument of the EHS is its
88 derivation was based on the “raw” meta-data (4) that bear substantial measurement
89 uncertainties/bias under various locations, seasons, biomes and soils, and different water
90 extraction techniques. Ultimately, differences in the seasonal depth of plant water uptake, active
91 growing season, different rooting depth, and plant water storage types contribute to natural,
92 regional disparities in the plant xylem’s water isotopic composition. Besides, the CVE-based
93 results have been largely affected by the residual water content, soil texture, effective pore
94 pressure, temperature, wettability, tension, etc. (10). Such uncertainties call for a detailed soil

95 wetting-drying and plant hydration-dehydration experiment to deliver the underlying mechanisms
96 of CVE bias and ensure accurate correction.

97
98 A key to better coupled ecohydrological understanding would be elucidating the temporal
99 dynamics of draining and refilling of soil water by plants. It is essential to know the sampled water
100 status for soils, plants, or both in data correction or matching of water sources. Most of the
101 extracted soil water inherits some CVE-bias, controlled by water-retention characteristics (WRC;
102 11), which databases are easily accessible globally. This implies that by establishing isotope-
103 retention characteristics (12) as an analog to WRC, it might be possible to expand the CVE-bias
104 correction extensively. Consequently, this water potential-based approach may provide the dearth
105 of information needed to obtain accurate source/xylem water information.

106
107 Last but not least, Song et al. (13) showed the $\delta^2\text{H}$ in several water pools (ground, soil, and plant)
108 are significantly different (Supp. Table 1), implying that all water is disconnected, i.e., neither HH
109 nor EHS applies. Does not our statistical method rigorously work for those water sourcing
110 analyses, e.g., identifying the common characteristics while excluding the individual differences?
111 Otherwise, the mechanisms cannot be explicitly specified, provided that water mixes too
112 irregularly such that the discoverable implication underscores the nature of water inextricably
113 linking in an ecosystem.

114
115 Coincidentally, there are increasing reports that plant water isotope can not be ascribed to any
116 potential water sources in a dual-space analysis (14). Beyond the arguments of isotopic
117 fractionation during root water uptake, it was generally explained by mismatches such that partial
118 sap water that used to identify the plant's source water (7), the CVE-based soil water cannot be
119 distinguished between mobile and immobile fractions (10), and sampled pore spaces do not
120 reflect the actual tension applied by plants (15). However, it was not necessarily to be. Such
121 uncertainties may have prevented the plant water source analysis. Water isotopes have many
122 advantages for tracing water sources (i.e., snapshots; "what and where" questions), whereas they
123 are more complex and error-prone when reflecting spatio-temporal dynamic processes of water
124 movements (i.e., slow motion; "when and why" questions). Ultimately, the water-isotope-based
125 explanation, a more chemically-altered water source, has often been confounded by a more
126 physical-based water mixing and/or cycling process.

127
128 It is still debatable whether a consistent and combined CVE-bias correction methodology exists,
129 and further studies exploring the underlying mechanisms of how plants regulate the EHS from the
130 subsurface to the atmosphere are needed. Clarifying the mechanisms of EHS requires detailed
131 soil physical knowledge and concurrent in-situ monitoring of water isotopes combined with
132 deuterium labeling approaches for process validation. Otherwise, plant water isotope studies
133 should be optimally designed so that their conclusions will not be overly sensitive to known or
134 suspected biases and uncertainties. We suggest the water potential-based approach (16) applied
135 for the CVE-bias correction to reduce uncertainties for (dis)proving EHS and/or HH.

136 137 138 **Materials and Methods**

139
140 Source data used for calculating globally-averaged xylem water offset from precipitation
141 (hereafter denoted by d_{xylem}) in Evaristo et al. (2015) were downloaded from
142 <https://www.nature.com/articles/nature14983#Sec11>. We reanalyzed those "raw" data by
143 separating the whole dataset into two types of 1) with and 2) without CVE-based water extraction
144 techniques.

145
146 In Evaristo et al. (2015), d_{xylem} was calculated as:

$$147 \quad d_{\text{xylem}} = [\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{xylem}} - a \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{xylem}} - b] / S \quad (1)$$

148 where a and b are the slope and intercept of LMWL respectively, and S denotes the
149 measurement uncertainty for both $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{xylem}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{xylem}}$, which according to Evaristo et al. (2015)
150 is 1.02.

151
152 Out of 1,451 compiled data entries, 1,079 (i.e., comprising ca. 74% of the entire dataset) are
153 involved in the use CVE method for determining xylem water isotope ratios. For each of these
154 1,079 CVE-based data, we corrected the d_{xylem} by taking assumed CVE-bias in $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{xylem}}$ into
155 consideration. The corrected d_{xylem} , hereafter denoted as d_{xylem_c} , can be described using the
156 following equation:

$$157 d_{\text{xylem}_c} = [(\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{xylem}} - \eta) - a \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{xylem}} - b] / S \quad (2)$$

158 where η denotes the deuterium offset.

159
160 η is uncertain as a function of stem relative water content data, which is currently unavailable to
161 determine each data point. Here we tested η with three types: a) the species-averaged wetness
162 correction by Chen et al. (3) (i.e., $\sim 8.1\text{‰}$); b) a new species-averaged correction factor by Allen
163 and Kirchner (9) which covered more diversified plant species (i.e., $\sim 6.1\text{‰}$); and c) biome-
164 differentiated correction factors by Zhao (6) (i.e., from 6.1‰ to 10.1‰).

165
166 After data correction, a global average of d_{xylem} for every three types was recalculated and
167 compared against groundwater, stream water, and soil water offset to re-evaluate whether EHS is
168 widespread. These CVE-based correction data were further tested with data without CVE-based
169 water extraction techniques to evaluate whether the CVE-bias is a systematic error. For better
170 visualization, the dual-isotope space for each dataset was figured out. We also explored the
171 relationship between water extraction techniques and found that the CVE and other extraction
172 methods (e.g., azeotropic distillation) are not statistically different.

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200

201 **Author contributions**

202

203 Y.Z. and N.O. conceived the study. Y.Z. carried out the analyses. Y.Z., N.O., Y.W and J.L.
204 contributed discussions. Y.Z. and N.O. wrote the article.

205

206 **Competing interests**

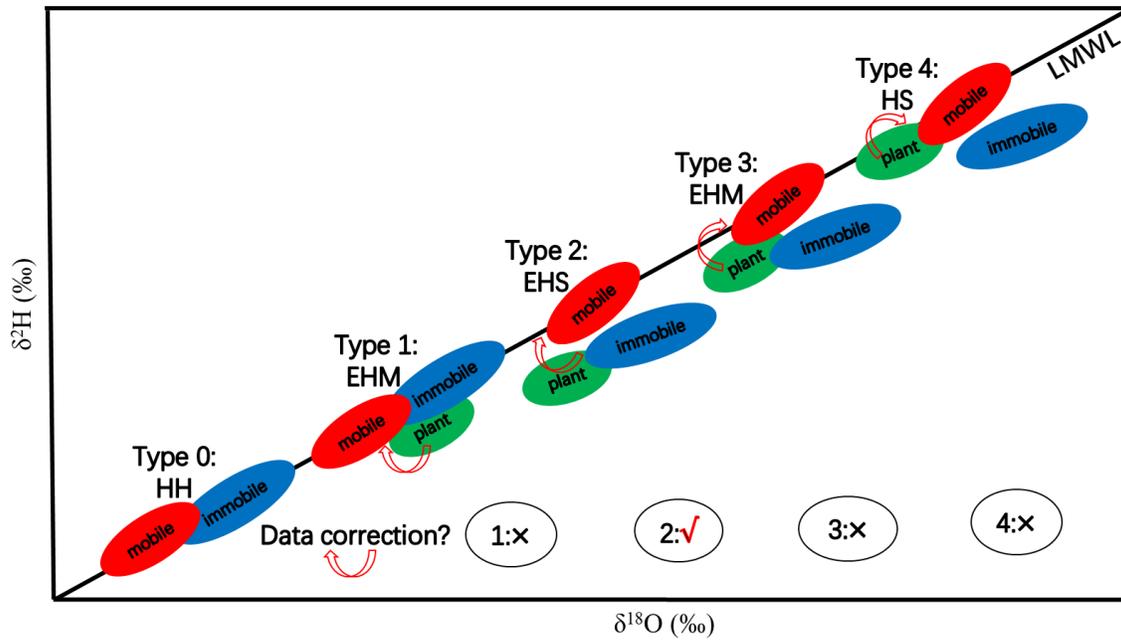
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208 The authors declare no competing interests.

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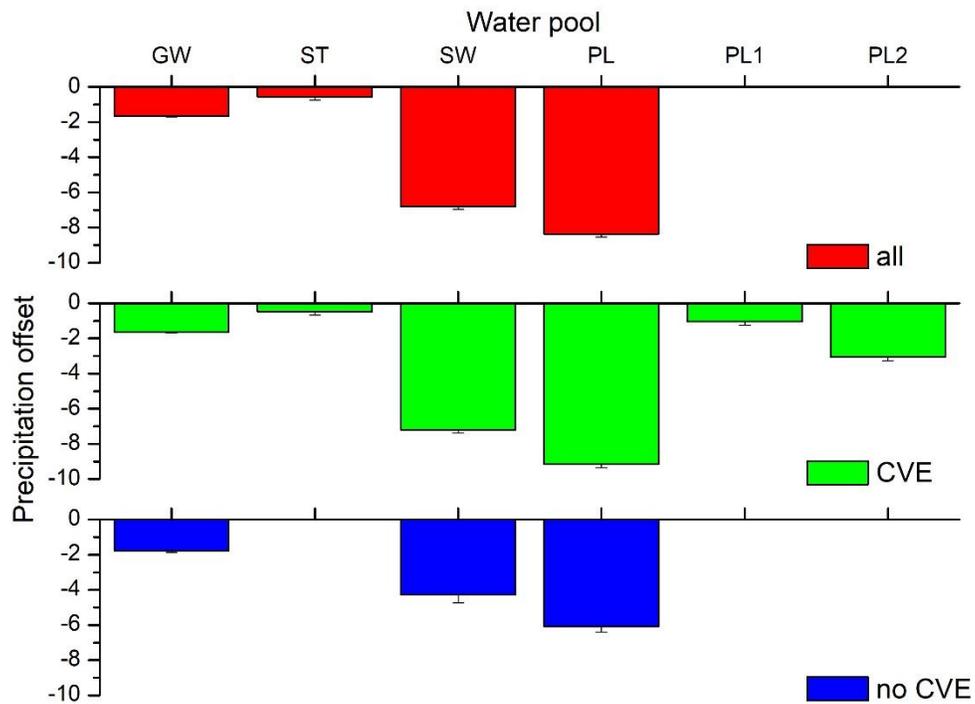
Figures



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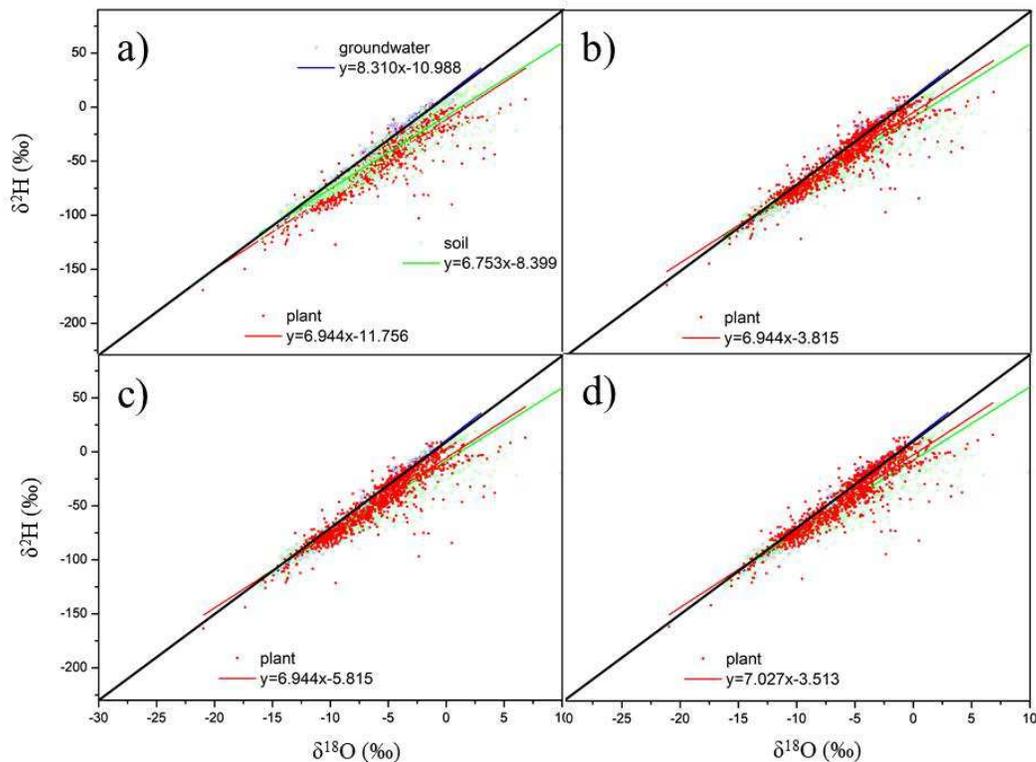
Fig. 1 | Conceptual diagram showing several positions of soil and plant water lines and the requirement of CVE-data correction. Red, blue, and green circles symbolize mobile and immobile soil water, and plant water, respectively; the global meteoric water line (GMWL) and a water line relate to ecological and hydrological separation. HH: translatory flow, EHM: not ecohydrological separation, EHS: ecohydrological separation, HS: hydrological separation. Whether a CVE-data correction is needed is indicated at the bottom of the plot.

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Fig. 2 | Globally averaged precipitation offsets of groundwater (GW as labeled in the figure), stream water (ST), soil water (SW), and xylem water (PL, original; PL1, Chen et al.'s (3); PL2, Allen & Kirchner's (9)) with and without considering cryogenic extraction-caused bias under three types of datasets (i.e., all, with and without the CVE-based measurements). The values presented were calculated from an extensive global compilation of data (4). Bars indicate the standard errors. Data is omitted for no CVE-based ST since only one data is in the statistics.



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Fig. 3 | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}$ values of groundwater, plant xylem water and soil water from the globally distributed sites (only where the CVE method was used) of Evaristo et al. (4) in comparison to the results before a bias-correction **a) and after **b)** data bias-correction following Chen et al. (3), **c)** incorporating a bias-correction suggested by Allen & Kirchner (9), and **d)** incorporating a bias-correction suggested by Zhao (6). Also shown are the GMWL and the linear regression lines of each water pool in the subplots, respectively.**

242 **Supplement file** (Referenced to Song et al., 2021 (13)):

Table 1. P values for a nonparametric test (Kruskal–Wallis multiple comparison test; $\alpha = 0.05$) for differences among precipitation offsets of different water types in the globally compiled dataset in ref. 1

	d_{stream}	d_{soil}	d_{xylem}	d_{xylem_c}
d_{gw}	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
d_{stream}		<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
d_{soil}			<0.001	<0.001
d_{xylem}				<0.001

Here d_{gw} , d_{stream} , d_{soil} , d_{xylem_c} and d_{xylem} refer to precipitation offsets of groundwater, stream water, soil water, and xylem water with and without taking cryogenic extraction caused bias into consideration, respectively. Whole-dataset averaged offset value for each water type can be found in figure 5 in ref. 3.

243