

1 **Light, transpiration and water use efficiency: contrasts among seedlings of three *Eucalyptus***  
2 ***urophylla* × *Eucalyptus grandis* clones**

3

4 **Abstract**

5 Accurately measuring water absorption and consumption can help improve understanding of forest  
6 dynamics and water resource management, especially in areas with water restrictions. In this study, the  
7 objective was to evaluate hourly, daily and accumulated transpiration rates of young *Eucalyptus*  
8 *urophylla* × *Eucalyptus grandis* plants. A randomized block experiment was conducted with seedlings  
9 of clones I144, CO1407, and A211 transplanted into pots. At 120 days after transplanting, leaf area and  
10 root, shoot, and total dry mass were measured. Furthermore, water use efficiency, the relationship  
11 between transpiration and leaf area, and the relationship between daily transpiration and energy  
12 availability, provided by radiation balance and leaf area ratio, were determined. Leaf transpiration  
13 increased concomitantly with plant growth of all clones, reaching a maximum with the highest leaf area.  
14 The volume of water consumed at the end of 1689 accumulated degree-days was around 20% higher in  
15 clone I144, compared to clones CO1407 and A211. The clones showed differences in hourly  
16 transpiration throughout the growth stages. CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation varied between clones, with net  
17 photosynthesis being higher in clone A211, while clones I144 and CO1407 showed higher quantum  
18 yield. The increase in leaf area helped to increase the transpiration rate and improve the efficiency of  
19 using the energy balance for water loss from the plants. Dry mass production and partitioning were  
20 higher in clones I144 and A211. Conversely, regarding water use efficiency, clones A211 and CO1407  
21 had higher dry mass yield per gram of water transpired. Thus, we conclude that, among the most  
22 productive clones, clone I144 was preferably recommended for areas free from water restrictions, while  
23 clone A211, for areas with low water availability.

24

25 **Key-words:** water use efficiency, plant growth, leaf area, net photosynthesis, quantum yield, plant-  
26 water relationship

27

28

## 29 **Introduction**

30 *Eucalyptus* spp. is a very important forest species for the economy of many countries, and its  
31 plantations extend over 25 million hectares in several tropical and subtropical regions of the world (Silva  
32 et al., 2020; Martins et al., 2022). For instance, in Brazil, it is the most planted forest species (Bassaco  
33 et al., 2018), and its continuous expansion is supported by breeding programs and intensive silvicultural  
34 practices, which have contributed to increasing its productivity approximately four times in 50 years,  
35 currently reaching 38 m<sup>3</sup>. ha<sup>-1</sup>. year<sup>-1</sup> (Binkley et al., 2017; Fernández et al., 2018, Ibá, 2022). For greater  
36 productivity, an increasing requirement for natural resources is necessary, particularly the water supply  
37 (Hakamada et al., 2020). Nevertheless, *Eucalyptus* plantations have expanded to regions that even  
38 include areas with scarce and unstable rainfall (Binkley et al., 2017; Scolforo et al., 2019). Furthermore,  
39 in recent years, climate change has also caused unusual droughts in traditional *eucalyptus* plantation  
40 areas (Otto et al., 2015). Therefore, selecting species and genotypes that combine high biomass  
41 production and lower water use has been a challenge for *Eucalyptus* breeding programs aiming to adapt  
42 them to areas with limited water supply (Bouvet et al., 2020).

43 Water use by *Eucalyptus* plantations has been a controversial topic throughout the world over  
44 time, due to its effect on local water resources (Almeida et al., 2010). *Eucalyptus* stands are usually  
45 planted in a short-term rotation system, in which canopy closure occurs 2-3 years after planting, and  
46 around 4 years are required for biomass generation, and 6-7 years for cellulose production. Successive  
47 planting and harvesting over large areas in a short term are often associated with higher transpiration  
48 rates than slower growing species (Hubbard et al., 2010). Given that *Eucalyptus* plantations have  
49 expanded very quickly in Brazil, information is increasingly needed on how management intensity and  
50 forest productivity influence water use by these plantations.

51 Leaf transpiration naturally results mainly from stomatal opening to acquire atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> to be used  
52 in the photosynthetic process. Therefore, this water loss in the form of vapor is an inevitable  
53 consequence of photosynthetic carbon gain, making it the main water discharge route from forests  
54 (Muñoz-Villers et al., 2018; Han et al., 2019; He et al., 2020). Plants that have high CO<sub>2</sub> absorption rates  
55 often show high transpiration rates, which leads to high water requirements (Klar, 1984; Stape et al.,  
56 2004; Nguyen et al., 2023). Furthermore, the transpiration rate is strongly influenced by variation in the

57 microclimate, such as energy balance, soil moisture and by physiological and structural properties of  
58 the species, such as root system depth, hydraulic architecture, leaf area and tree height (Rossatto et al.  
59 al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2018; Nan et al., 2019).

60 Understanding how water use by fast-growing species varies over time, and how consumption  
61 can be analyzed at different scales, from individual trees to stands or landscapes, can be crucial for  
62 deciding on land management and, potentially, for selecting a clonal stock that brings together the best  
63 characteristics. An accurate measurement of transpiration can help forest managers plan strategies to  
64 make *Eucalyptus* plantations more sustainable. Furthermore, this knowledge will be useful for  
65 predicting forest dynamics and managing water resources, especially in areas with low water availability  
66 (Han et al., 2019). In this study, we aimed to measure the transpiration rate of three commercial  
67 *Eucalyptus* clones from crossing *Eucalyptus urophylla* × *Eucalyptus grandis*. Our main hypotheses  
68 were: (i) there are differences in relation to water use between these clones and (ii) external factors and  
69 plant characteristics drive the transpiration rate of clones.

70

## 71 **Material and methods**

72

### 73 **Site description and experimental design**

74 A pot experiment was conducted in a non-protected and open-air area of the Department of  
75 Forestry and Wood Sciences, at the Federal University of Espírito Santo, in Jerônimo Monteiro city,  
76 Espírito Santo state, Brazil (20°47'S, 41°23'W, 120 m asl), from May 16th to September 12th, 2021. The  
77 local climate is tropical *Cwa* type (dry winter and rainy summer), according to the Köppen-Geiger  
78 classification, with average annual precipitation of 1104 mm and average annual temperature of 24.1 °C  
79 (Alvares et al., 2013). During the experimental period, the average minimum and maximum  
80 temperatures were 16.6 °C and 31.3 °C, respectively, the average daily global radiation was 15.90 MJ  
81 m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> and the average vapor pressure deficit was 0.92 kPa (Figure 1).

82 Meteorological data were monitored by an automatic station, equipped with a datalogger (CR-  
83 1000 Campbell Scientific, Inc., Logan, UT, USA) powered by a 12 volt battery, connected to a solar  
84 panel programmed to measure global solar radiation (Pyranometer SP – LITE, Kipp & Zonen B.V.,

85 Delft, The Netherlands), photosynthetically active radiation (PAR LITE, Kipp and Zonen B.V., Delft,  
86 The Netherlands), air temperature and humidity (CS500 Campbell Scientific Inc., Logan, UT, USA),  
87 wind speed (03001, RM Young; Campbell Scientific, Inc., Logan, UT, USA), and precipitation (TB4,  
88 Campbell Scientific Inc., Logan, UT, USA). Readings were recorded every ten seconds, and average  
89 values were stored every five minutes. From the temperature and relative humidity data, the vapor  
90 pressure deficit (VPD) was calculated, based on the difference between the water vapor saturation  
91 pressure and the partial vapor pressure, following the method proposed by Pereira et al. (2002).

92 Thermal weather measurements were based on air temperature data provided by a  
93 meteorological station close to the experiment during the experimental period. Degree-day  
94 measurements ( $^{\circ}\text{C day}$ ) were based on minimum, maximum, and basal temperatures below  $10^{\circ}\text{C}$   
95 (Martins et al., 2007). The accumulated degree-days (ADD) corresponded to the sum of degree-days  
96 since the day of seedling transplanting (Arnold, 1960).

97 A randomized block design and three *Eucalyptus* clones were used as fixed effects, with four  
98 replications and one plant per pot, totaling 12 experimental units. The following clones of *Eucalyptus*  
99 *urophylla*  $\times$  *Eucalyptus grandis* were selected, with variable tolerance to water restriction — a tolerant  
100 clone (A211), a sensitive one (CO1407), and one more usually planted (I144) in the region where the  
101 experiment was conducted. Seedlings 90 day old, with average heights of  $38.67\text{ cm} \pm 2.31\text{ cm}$  (clone  
102 A211),  $23.67\text{ cm} \pm 1.18\text{ cm}$  (clone CO1407), and  $25.87\text{ cm} \pm 1.4\text{ cm}$  (clone I144), respectively, were  
103 transplanted into 60 L polyethylene pots (height 43.5 cm, upper diameter 46 cm, and lower diameter 38  
104 cm), containing 50 L of a commercial substrate based on ground pine bark, plus  $5.0\text{ g dm}^{-3}$  of a  
105 formulated 16-8-12 (+2) fertilizer gradually released. Pot surfaces were completely covered using a  
106 styrofoam disc in order to prevent water evaporation from the substrate.

107

## 108 **Growing conditions and parameter measurements**

109 After seedlings transplanting, the pots were placed on electronic weighing lysimeters (weighing  
110 scale model Prix 2098, Toledo do Brasil, São Bernardo do Campo, São Paulo, BR). Reading and storage  
111 pot weight data were performed using specific dataloggers for monitoring lysimeters connected to a

112 microcontroller (ESP8266, Espressif Systems), allowing communication with up to six lysimeters, via  
113 the RS-232 protocol. Storage of pot weight data in each lysimeter was updated every five minutes.

114 Irrigation was carried out following the gravimetric method, with water supply based on  
115 automatic monitoring of lysimeter dataloggers, given that the lysimeter reading on pot weight data at  
116 each update indicates water consumption in the period. Throughout the experiment, the plants were  
117 irrigated individually at the end of every day, to recover the substrate moisture to close to 90% of the  
118 maximum water retention capacity (MWRC). To determine MWRC, 1.0 L samples of substrate were  
119 previously dried in a forced air circulation oven and then their weights were quantified. Thereafter,  
120 samples were saturated, followed by complete gravitational water drainage. The MWRC corresponded  
121 to the difference between the dry and saturated weights in each liter of substrate.

122 Measurements on the amount of water lost through plant transpiration were carried out using a  
123 lysimetric system, consisting of electronic scales with an individual capacity of  $60 \text{ kg} \pm 10 \text{ g}$ .  
124 Measurements on the weight variation of each experimental unit, composed of a plastic pot, substrate,  
125 water, and one young *Eucalyptus* plant, were carried out throughout the day every five minutes. Daily  
126 transpiration was taken as the difference in pot weight measured between 6:00 am and 6:00 pm, given  
127 that water loss through plant transpiration was the mainly cause of weight variation during this period.  
128 The transpiration rate was expressed both per hour and accumulated throughout the experiment, as a  
129 result of the sum of daily transpiration.

130 Some biometric parameters were measured weekly. Plant height (H) was measured from the  
131 collar to the youngest leaf at the top of the shoot, using a graduated ruler. Stem diameter (D) was  
132 measured at the base of the stem, equivalent to the top level of the pot, using a digital pachimeter. Leaf  
133 number (LN) was determined by counting the number of fully expanded leaves. Leaf length (LL)  
134 measurement was based on the distance between the distal base of the petiole and the terminal end of  
135 the leaf. Leaf width (LW) measurement was based on the blade distance between the two largest adjacent  
136 leaflets. At 85 days after transplanting (DAT), the canopy diameter was measured, based on two  
137 perpendicular cross-shaped measurements in the shadow cast by the canopy, in which the canopy  
138 projection area was calculated, considering the canopy to have a cylindrical shape.

139 Measurements of photosynthesis-related traits were performed at 70 DAT, on healthy and  
140 completely expanded leaves from the upper middle third of the shoot, in four plants of each clone, using  
141 a portable infrared gas analyzer (IRGA, Li-Cor, model LI-6400), with a block temperature of 25°C,  
142 relative humidity of 50% to 60%, and external CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of 400 ppm. A photosynthesis  
143 response curve was obtained with a light decrease of 2500; 2000; 1500; 1200; 800; 500; 200; 100; 90;  
144 80; 70; 65; 60; 55; 50; 45; 40; 35; 30; 25; 20; 15; 10; 5; and 0  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  of photons, with minimum  
145 and maximum waiting times of 120 s and 200 s, respectively. Thereafter, the following photosynthetic  
146 parameters were measured: maximum net CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rate ( $A_{\text{max}}$ ,  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  of photons); dark  
147 respiration ( $R_d$ ,  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  of CO<sub>2</sub>); apparent quantum efficiency ( $\Phi$ ,  $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 / \mu\text{mol photons}$ ), light  
148 compensation point (LCP,  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  of photons), and light saturation point (LSP,  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  of  
149 photons).

150 At the end of the experiment, 120 days after transplanting, measurements of total leaf area (LA,  
151 m<sup>2</sup>) were performed using a leaf area integrator model LI-3100 (Li-Cor Inc, Lincoln, Nebraska, USA).  
152 Before that, throughout the experimental period, leaf area was estimated based on the equation  $LA =$   
153  $LN [f (LL \times LW)]$ , where: LN = total number of leaves (non-dimensional); f = shape factor (non-  
154 dimensional); LL = leaf length; and LW = leaf width — these last two measurements (cm) were obtained  
155 from an average of 100 leaves, with different sizes, extracted from different parts of the plant. The “f”  
156 factor was determined by a simple regression analysis between the area of each leaf and the product of  
157 their respective dimensions.

158 For dry mass determination, each plant was removed from the pot and sectioned into shoot  
159 (leaves and stem) and roots. Soil fragments were completely removed from the roots by washing with  
160 running water using a fine-mesh sieve to prevent loss of root material. The plant material was dried in a  
161 forced air circulation oven at 65 °C until its mass became constant, thus obtaining the dry mass of shoot  
162 (SDM, g plant<sup>-1</sup>) and root (RDM, g plant<sup>-1</sup>). Total dry mass (TDM, g plant<sup>-1</sup>) was obtained by summing  
163 SDM + RDM. The plant's water use efficiency (WUE) was determined based on the quotient between  
164 TDM (kg) and the volume of water (m<sup>3</sup>) consumed by the plant. Additionally, the relationship between  
165 transpiration and leaf area with global solar radiation, temperature and VPD were evaluated every hour,  
166 but only on four days with no precipitation and low cloudiness, at 20, 40, 60 and 120 DAT.

167

## 168 **Statistical analysis**

169           Measurements on plant height, stem diameter, leaf area, and leaf area/stem diameter ratio were  
170 used to establish a mathematical model to estimate seedling development during the experimental  
171 period, with degree-day accumulation as an independent variable. Therefore, a three-parameter  
172 sigmoidal model was used, given that it is widely used in plant growth models (Cunha and Volpe, 2011;  
173 Lin et al., 2014).

174           Data were subjected to tests to verify the assumption of normality (Shapiro Wilk) and  
175 homoscedasticity (Bartlett). They were then subjected to analysis of variance and, when there were  
176 significant differences using the F test, means were compared using the Tukey test ( $p < 0.05$ ). Data  
177 processing was performed using the R Core Team (2022) version 4.2.2 software.

178

## 179 **Results**

180           Leaf transpiration gradually increased as vegetative growth of *Eucalyptus* clones occurred,  
181 reaching values close to 10 L per day. Transpiration also increased on days when there was a greater  
182 atmospheric evaporative demand. After an accumulation of 1689 degree days, clone I144 had the highest  
183 volume of water transpired, reaching 425.82 L plant<sup>-1</sup>, which was 25.3% and 29.4% higher than those  
184 of clones CO1407 (339, 81 L plant<sup>-1</sup>) and A221 (329.11 L plant<sup>-1</sup>), respectively (Figure 2).

185           The concomitant measurements with hourly periodicity of global solar radiation (SR),  
186 temperature and VPD, as well as the transpiration for the three clones, under similar atmospheric  
187 evaporative demand (at 20, 40, 60 and 120 DAT), together with the leaf area of each clone, allow us to  
188 observe a close relationship of environmental variables with transpiration (Figure 3). At 20 DAT, in the  
189 three clones, transpiration remained stable below 0.1 L plant<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> throughout the day. At 40 DAT, an  
190 increase in transpiration up to 0.2 L plant<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>, followed by a decrease, was observed from 8 am to 6  
191 pm. At 80 DAT, a marked increase in transpiration followed by a decrease was observed throughout the  
192 day, showing a performance similar to that of global solar radiation. This increase in transpiration was  
193 more prominent in clone I144 than in clones CO1407 and A211, which were similar. In clones CO1407  
194 and A211, a decrease in transpiration was observed between 11-12 am, suggesting a more accurate

195 stomatal control over transpiration. Transpiration reached the highest levels at 120 DAT, with peaks  
196 around midday in clones I144 and CO1407, and between 8-10 am in clone A211. At 120 DAT, a  
197 significant difference between clones was observed for stomatal conductance, which was higher in clone  
198 I144 ( $0.51 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), followed by clones CO1407 ( $0.39 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) and A211 ( $0.29 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )  
199 (unpublished data).

200 Biometric parameters such as plant height, stem diameter, and leaf area showed sigmoidal  
201 behavior, i.e., an initial smooth increase that evolved into a marked increase with degree-day  
202 accumulation. As for the leaf area/stem diameter ratio, this increase became stable after 1122  
203 accumulated degree-days, with no significant differences between the genetic materials (Figure 4).  
204 These results suggest a close relationship between vegetative growth and transpiration.

205 Referring to plant height, a more prominent increase was observed from 1122 ADD, in clones  
206 I144 and CO1407, which had a maximum increase of 0.219 and 0.240 cm per degree-day, respectively,  
207 followed by clone A211, whose increase was 0.155 cm. A more prominent increase in stem diameter  
208 was observed in clone I144 (0.028 cm per degree-day), followed by clones CO1407 and A211 (0.024  
209 cm). As for leaf area, a more prominent increase occurred from 669 ADD, reaching a maximum of 100  
210  $\text{cm}^2$  per degree-day at the end of the evaluation period, however there was no difference between the  
211 *Eucalyptus* clones.

212 In terms of biomass accumulation at the end of the experiment (120 DAT), a significant increase  
213 ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) in dry mass of branches, roots and total was observed in all clones, and it was more prominent  
214 in clones I144 and A211. On the other hand, water use efficiency, based on the ratio of biomass produced  
215 / water consumed by transpiration, was significantly higher in clones A211 and CO1407, compared to  
216 I144 (Table 1).

217 Regarding the characterization of physiological parameters, a higher net photosynthesis rate was  
218 observed in clone A211, while a higher quantum yield was observed in clones I144 and CO1407.  
219 Regarding dark respiration, light compensation point, and light saturation point, there was no significant  
220 difference between the clones (Figure 5, Table 2). However, the compensation points were low and  
221 photosynthetic saturation was not reached until levels above natural solar radiation.

222 Increased water consumption was observed in all clones throughout the experiment, suggesting  
223 a close relationship between transpiration and the increase in leaf area. However, the increase in  
224 transpiration occurred at variable rates, showing quadratic regression in clone I144 and A211 and linear  
225 regression in CO1407 for the plants of this experiment (Figure 6). Considering the initial parts of the  
226 three fitted models in the graphs, up to a plant size of 4 m<sup>2</sup> leaf area, the daily transpired water per plant  
227 averaged 1.50 L m<sup>-2</sup> for I144, 1.37 L m<sup>-2</sup> for A211 and 0.85 L m<sup>-2</sup> for CO1407.

228 The influence of leaf area on transpiration can also be noted by observing the fraction of  
229 available energy, represented by the radiation balance that was used as latent heat of vaporization. With  
230 the increase in leaf area, energy was basically used for transpiration, especially in plants with high leaf  
231 area. It was also verified that all clones reached a stable level, characterized by non-linear regression,  
232 according to the Gompertz model (Figure 7).

233

## 234 **Discussion**

235

236 *Eucalyptus* is the most planted tree species worldwide, and soil water availability is one of the  
237 main drivers for its productivity. Climate change has often caused restrictions of water resources for  
238 agricultural production, which requires new strategies to improve water use efficiency. Therefore, an  
239 accurate understanding of the processes that regulate the water use requirement and efficiency is  
240 increasingly required, both to plan irrigation and land management, and to choose clones adaptable to  
241 areas with restrictions on water supply.

242 In this study, the increase in transpiration rate was closely related to the increase in leaf area,  
243 although with differences between clones in terms of daily transpiration performance. From  
244 approximately 60 (DAT), the leaf area began to expand rapidly, thus increasing the number of stomata  
245 and the evaporative leaf surface. As a result, there was an exponential increase in leaf transpiration,  
246 concomitant with an increase in the photosynthetic capacity of the canopy. However, as transpiration is  
247 also regulated by energy availability, it was observed that water consumption stabilized from  
248 approximately 90 DAT (> 7 m<sup>2</sup> leaf area in the plants of this study), and did not reach higher levels  
249 despite the fact that the leaf area of the plants continued to increase (Figure 2A). This is possibly due to

250 increase in competition among leaves as leaf area increases, as well as self-shading which reduces  
251 temperature, incidental solar radiation and evaporative demand. Atmospheric evaporative demand has  
252 been widely regarded as the majority evaporative driving force for water transport along the soil-plant-  
253 atmosphere continuum (Zhang et al., 2017; Li et al., 2019). Studies have reported the influence of  
254 canopy size on the transpiration rate in trees (Li et al., 2002; Keramatlou et al., 2015; Salazar et al.,  
255 2018; Farooq et al., 2019). As gas exchange occurs predominantly in leaves, the leaf area plays an  
256 important role in physiological events such as photosynthesis, respiration, and transpiration. The balance  
257 between CO<sub>2</sub> absorption and water consumption, influenced by leaf area, can be decisive for the rate of  
258 plant growth (Cemek et al., 2011; Valdez et al., 2015, Lv et al., 2024).

259 In this study, the transpiration rate varied widely among *Eucalyptus* clones, although their leaf  
260 areas were similar. We assumed that the higher transpiration rate observed in clone I144 may have been  
261 favored by its high stomatal conductance, thus allowing more water absorption and transport from roots  
262 to leaves. In this study, [the variable that most affected plant transpiration was solar radiation](#), but when  
263 plants are under saturating light and adequate water supply, stomatal conductance is mainly influenced  
264 by atmospheric vapor pressure deficit (VPD). During the morning, under low VPD, stomatal opening  
265 reaches a maximum, allowing a higher carbon assimilation rate (Qie et al., 2024). Conversely, stomatal  
266 performance tends to be optimized when stomatal kinetics respond quickly to environmental fluctuation  
267 (Drake et al., 2013; Meinzer et al., 2017). By the way, this stomatal behavior seems to be occurred in  
268 clone A211, as its transpiration rate decreased rapidly in response to the increasing VPD at 120 DAT.  
269 An induced low leaf hydraulic conductance can help reduce transpiration-related water consumption  
270 and prevent hydraulic failures when VPD increases too quickly (Martin-StPaul et al., 2017; Rodriguez-  
271 Dominguez; Brodribb, 2020). According to Zhang et al. (2017), the capacity for stomatal control of  
272 transpiration tends to vary in *Eucalyptus* clones. Stomata play a central role in the hydrological and  
273 carbon cycles, establishing a balance between CO<sub>2</sub> absorption and transpiration in leaves, which is  
274 increasingly important for the adaptive processes of species, especially in water-restricted environments  
275 (Sussmilch et al. al., 2019; Haworth et al., 2021).

276 Although a larger leaf area favors CO<sub>2</sub> absorption, this naturally leads to an increase in  
277 transpiration and water consumption (Cemek et al., 2011; Yi; Yano, 2023). Therefore, to improve the

278 plant's photoassimilation system, a greater hydraulic capacity of the xylem is required in order to meet  
279 the canopy's water demand. The relationship between xylem hydraulic capacity and transpiration  
280 demand can be assessed using the leaf area (LA) to stem diameter (D) ratio (i.e. LA/D). Biggest reason  
281 LA/D suggests greater total leaf hydraulic conductivity, since a greater number of leaves connected to  
282 the active xylem tends to favor water transport through the xylem to the canopy (Bond et al., 2008;  
283 Domec et al., 2012). In our study, *Eucalyptus* clones presented similar leaf area, but the accumulation  
284 of biomass in branches (BDM) and roots (RDM) was greater in clones I144 and A211. According to  
285 Mattos et al. (2020), variations in growth rates in *Eucalyptus* clones can be attributed to differences in  
286 acquisition and efficiency of use of resources for biomass production. Furthermore, as vegetative growth  
287 depends on a balance between carbon gains and losses from the processes of photosynthesis and  
288 respiration, carbon not consumed by respiration accumulates, increasing plant dry mass (Falquetto-  
289 Gomes et al., 2023).

290 In this study, water use efficiency (WUE) was based on the ratio of biomass accumulation and  
291 the amount of water transpired. The highest WUE observed in clone A211, the more drought tolerant  
292 clone, followed by CO1407, and I144 to a lesser extent, can be attributed to possible differences between  
293 these clones in terms of their ability to transpire less when producing the same amount of biomass. The  
294 differences between clones in terms of transpiration rate may have been influenced by variations in  
295 stomatal responses to environmental factors, such as solar radiation, vapor pressure deficit and air  
296 temperature. According to Zhang et al. (2017), the capacity for stomatal control of transpiration tends  
297 to vary in *Eucalyptus* clones. Stomata play a central role in the hydrological and carbon cycles,  
298 establishing a balance between CO<sub>2</sub> absorption and transpiration in leaves, which is increasingly  
299 important for the adaptive processes of species, especially in water-restricted environments (Sussmilch  
300 et al. al., 2019; Haworth et al., 2021). The high efficiency in biomass production, around 4 g/L, shown  
301 by the three clones in this study, is within the highest range of those shown by other tree forest species,  
302 which usually ranges between 1.4 and 4.2 g/L (Everson et al, 2011; Paris et al., 2018). This makes them  
303 suitable for use in commercial plantations, concentrating high biomass production in a small area and  
304 in short periods of time, covering the demand for woody biomass while preserving natural areas of  
305 native forests.

306 Furthermore, these variations in WUE may also be attributed to differences between clones in  
307 terms of their photosynthetic capacity. The light response curves (Figure 5) suggest an increase in net  
308 photosynthesis rate in response to increasing solar radiation. However, the yield of plant biomass  
309 depends both on the amount of radiation absorbed by the leaves and on the efficiency in converting and  
310 assimilating light energy through photosynthesis (Larcher, 2003; Kabir et al., 2023). The high  
311 photosynthetic rates (above  $25 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) of all clones, especially A211, is consistent with the  
312 high productivity usually observed in hybrid *Eucalyptus urograndis*, and this can be attributed to its  
313 ability to present high photosynthetic rates regardless of the light level. Conversely, the apparent  
314 quantum yield was higher in clones I144 and CO1407, compared to A211. These variations suggest that  
315 a hybrid may be efficient at capturing sunlight and converting it to chemical energy, but have a low  
316 quantum yield, resulting in a low biomass yield per unit of light captured.

317 In addition, it was observed that the largest fraction of the available energy, represented by the  
318 radiation balance, was dissipated in the form of latent heat of evaporation. With the increase in leaf area,  
319 energy was basically used for transpiration, especially when plants reached high leaf area. Plant  
320 transpiration largely depends on available energy and the interception of net radiation by the plant  
321 canopy (Chen et al., 2023). Therefore, it can be assumed that the larger the leaf area, the greater the  
322 efficiency of using the energy balance available in the process of water loss through the stomata. Stomata  
323 play an important role in controlling transpiration, regulating the balance between  $\text{CO}_2$  absorption and  
324 water loss (Urban et al., 2017; Ghimire et al., 2018; Muñoz-Villers et al., 2018; Haworth et al., 2021).  
325 In short, although clone I144 produced more biomass than the other clones, data on WUE suggest that  
326 its planting is preferably recommended for areas where there is no water restriction. Conversely, clone  
327 A211, despite showing intermediate biomass production, may perform better under restricted water  
328 availability, as it shows higher WUE.

329

### 330 **Conclusion**

331 Leaf transpiration of *Eucalyptus* clones is driven by the expansion of the leaf area and largely  
332 depends on the available energy and the efficiency of capturing the balance of radiation by the plant  
333 canopy. Variable growth rates result from differences between clones in their ability to acquire and use

334 resources to produce biomass. Each clone's ability to reduce water absorption improves water use  
335 efficiency. Clones have varying performances in terms of growth, photosynthetic efficiency and  
336 transpiration, which can be useful for selection and appropriate management in commercial plantations.  
337 Clone A211 shows potential for cultivation under water restriction.

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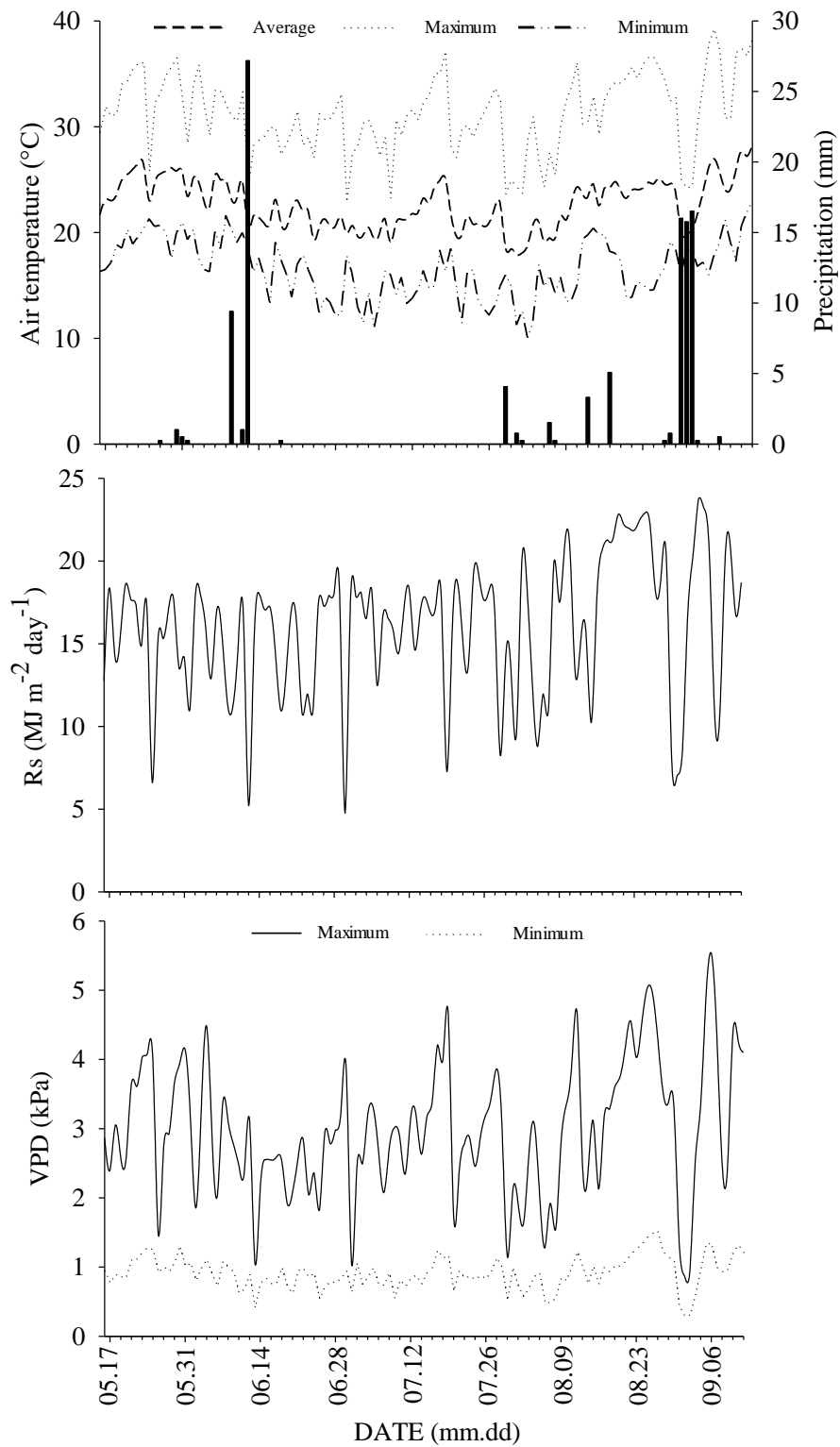
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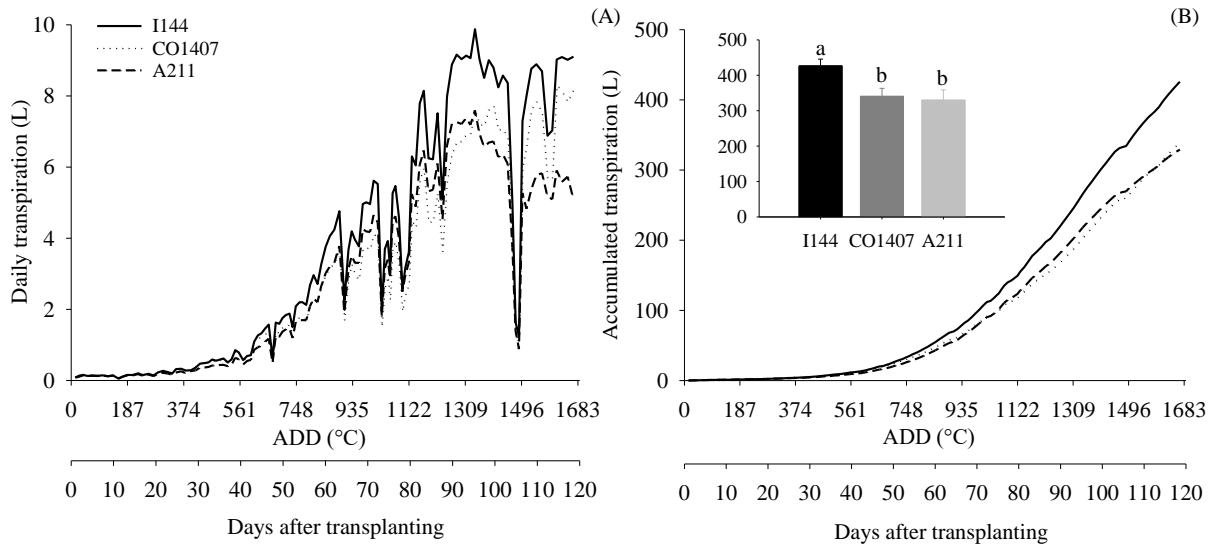
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606 **Figure 1.** Daily air temperature, precipitation, global radiation ( $R_s$ ) and vapor pressure deficit (VPD)  
 607 during the experimental period, between May 16th and September 12th, 2021, in Jerônimo Monteiro  
 608 city, Espírito Santo state, Brazil.

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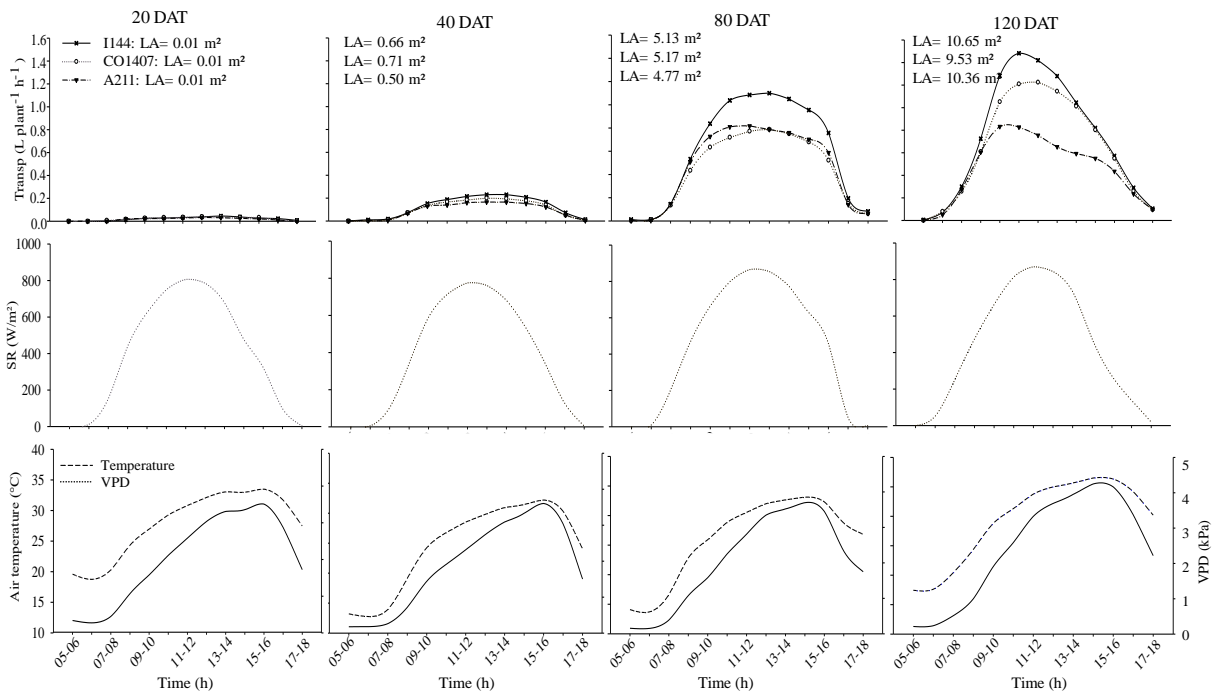


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613 **Figure 2.** Time course of daily transpiration (A) and accumulated transpiration (B) of young plants of  
 614 three *Eucalyptus* clones based on accumulated degree days (ADD) and days after transplanting.  
 615 Lowercase letters compare means of accumulated transpiration of *Eucalyptus* clones at the end of the  
 616 experiment, calculated by ADD, using Tukey's test ( $p < 0.05$ ).  
 617

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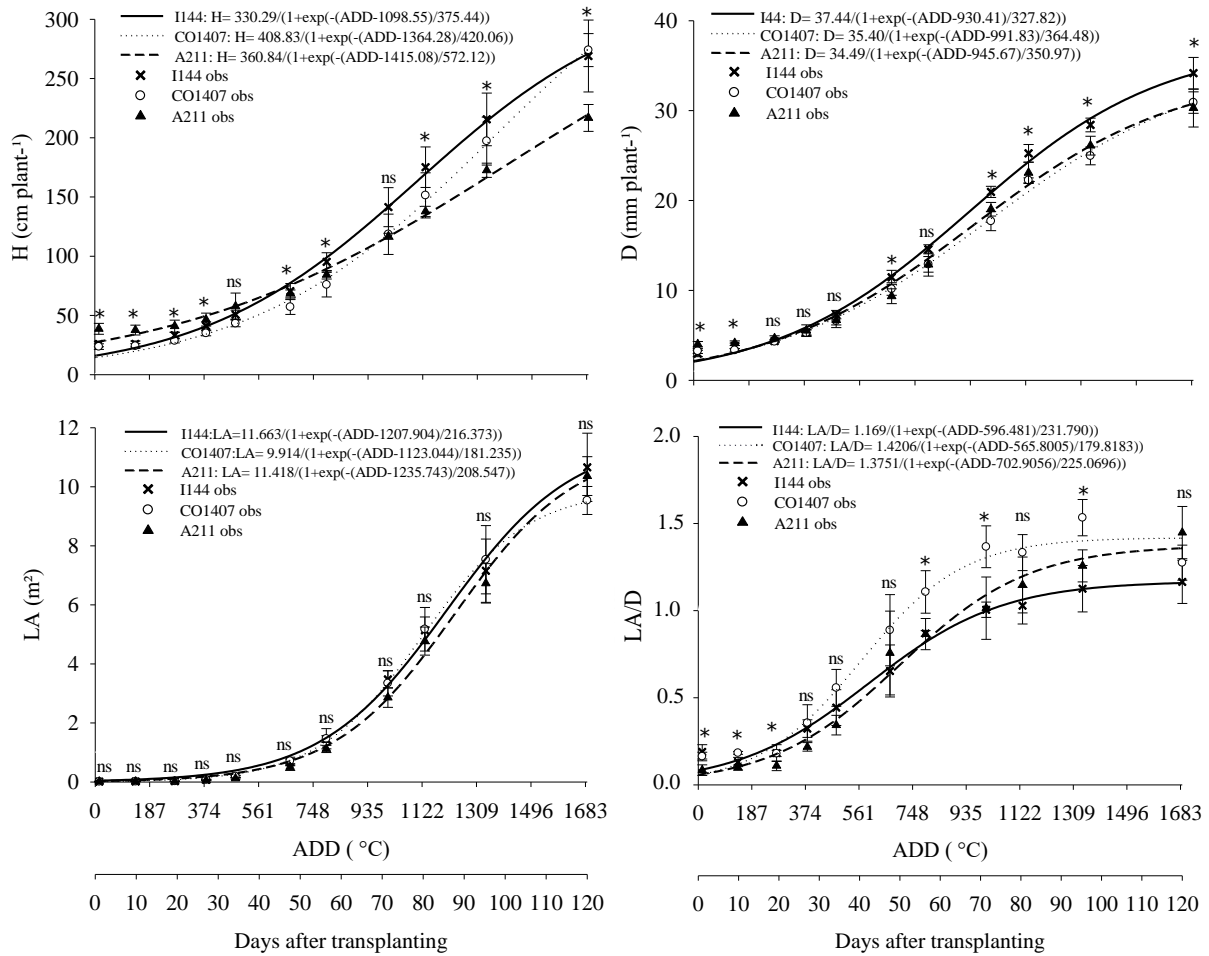


619

620 **Figure 3.** Hourly measurements on transpiration of young plants of *Eucalyptus* clones, global solar  
 621 radiation (SR), air temperature, and vapor pressure deficit (VPD) at 20, 40, 80 and 120 DAT. Leaf area  
 622 (LA) data of clones are attached to transpiration measurements.

623

624



625

626 **Figure 4.** Plant height (H), stem diameter (D), leaf area (LA), and leaf area/stem diameter ratio (LA/D)  
 627 in young plants of *Eucalyptus* clones, based on accumulated degree days (ADD) and days after  
 628 transplanting ( $0.97 \leq R^2 \leq 0.99$ ). (\*) significant and (ns) not significant, by F test ( $p < 0.05$ ). The bars  
 629 indicate the standard error of means.

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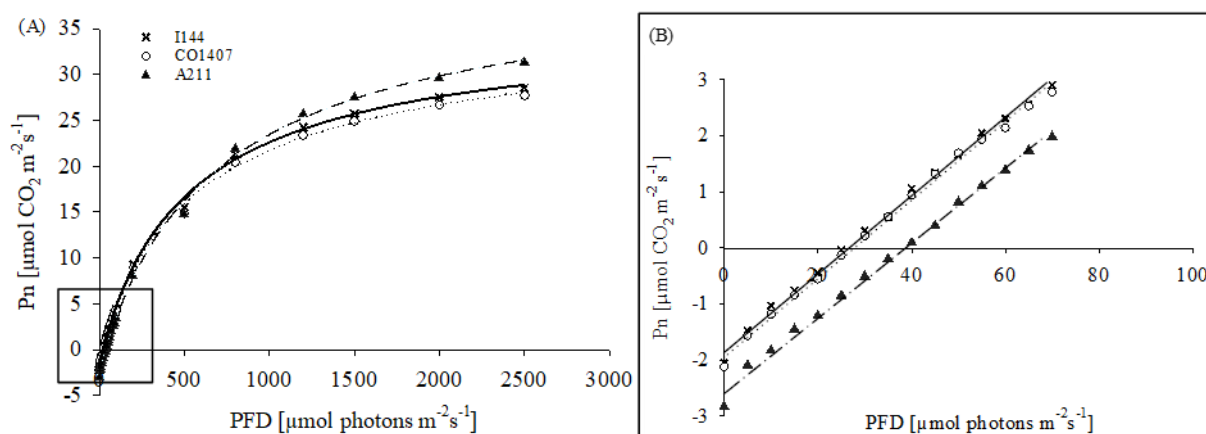
632 **Table 1.** Dry mass of leaves (LDM), branches (BDM), roots (RDM), and total (TDM) and water use  
 633 efficiency (WUE) of *Eucalyptus* clones at the end of the experimental period.

Clones	LDM (g)	BDM (g)	RDM (g)	TDM (g)	WUE (kg m <sup>-3</sup> )
I144	567.59 a	756.56 a	194.02 a	1518.18 a	3.90 b
CO1407	488.98 a	581.59 b	141.63 b	1212.21 b	3.95 ab
A211	504.22 a	641.41 ab	176.46 ab	1322.09 ab	4.31 a

634 \* Lowercase letters compare clones within each trait, using Tukey's test ( $p \leq 0.05$ ).

635

636



637

638 **Figure 5.** Photosynthesis response curve (A) and light compensation point zoom represented by the  
 639 square (B) in young plants of *Eucalyptus* clones. The solid and dashed black lines represent data fit  
 640 using the hyperbolic model. Pn = net photosynthesis rate; PPFD = photosynthetic photon flux density.  
 641

642

643 Table 2. Photosynthetic parameters derived from response curves to photosynthetically active radiation  
 644 in young plants of *Eucalyptus* clones: maximum net photosynthesis ( $A_{max}$ ); dark respiration ( $R_d$ );  
 645 apparent quantum yield ( $\Phi$ ); light compensation point (LCP), and light saturation point (LSP).

Photosynthetic parameters	Clones		
	I144	CO1407	A211
$A_{max}$ [ $\mu\text{mol (CO}_2\text{) m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ]	37.43 b	37.37 b	43.51 a
$R_d$ [ $\mu\text{mol (CO}_2\text{) m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ]	1.95 a	2.07 a	2.52 a
$\Phi$ [ $\text{mol (CO}_2\text{) mol}^{-1}$ (photons)]	0.08 a	0.08 a	0.07 b
LCP [ $\mu\text{mol (photons) m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ]	25.93 a	26.54 a	38.14 a
LSP [ $\mu\text{mol (photons) m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ]	1922.20 a	1922.75 a	1918.92 a

646 \* Lowercase letters compare clones within each photosynthetic parameter, using Tukey's test ( $p \leq 0.05$ ).

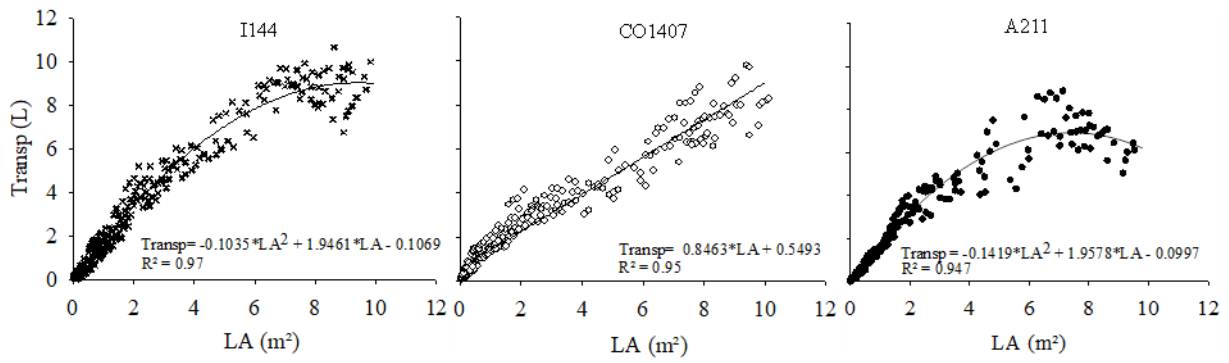
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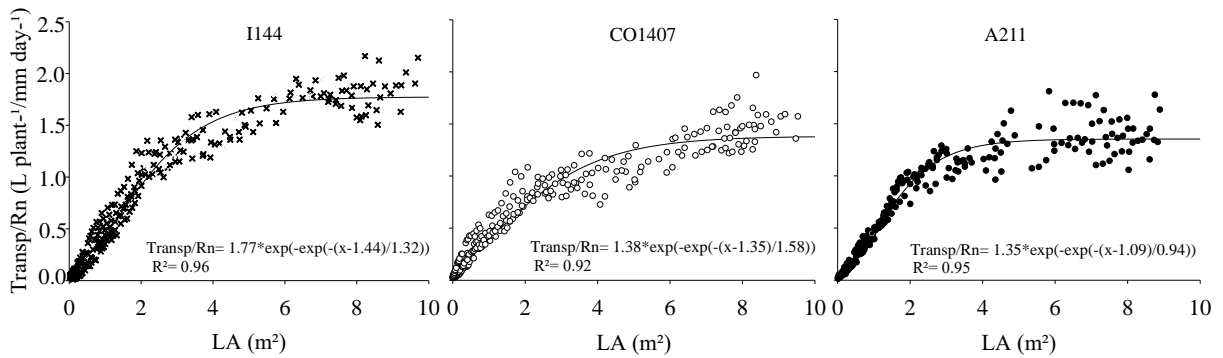


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653 **Figure 6.** Relationship between transpiration (Transp.) and leaf area (LA) in young plants of *Eucalyptus*  
 654 clones on days with no precipitation and low cloudiness during the experimental period.

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658 **Figure 7.** Daily transpiration (Transp) / available radiation (Rn) ratio based on leaf area (LA) of young  
 659 plants of *Eucalyptus* clones on days with no precipitation and low cloudiness during the experimental  
 660 period.

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