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Author

Elmendorf, Kayla Elizabeth Helena

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Effects of Elevated CO2 on Morphological and Physiological Leaf Traits in Cabernet Sauvignon and Riesling

By

KAYLA ELMENDORF **THESIS**

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Approved:

Elisabeth Forrestel, Chair

Andrew McElrone

Megan Bartlett

Committee in Charge

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Abstract

Atmospheric $CO₂$ has increased over the past several decades at a rate faster than all previous natural increases and is likely to increase by another 15% by 2050. Currently, impacts of elevated atmospheric $CO₂$ on growth, performance, and production in viticulture are not well understood and difficult to decouple from other climatic variations (e.g water availability and warming). This study was conducted in 2019 at the Free-Air Carbon dioxide Enrichment (FACE) at the University of Geisenheim established in 2012 to assess effects of elevated $CO₂ (eCO₂)$ (+20%) on physiological, structural, and morphological responses of *Vitis vinifera* cv. Cabernet Sauvignon and Riesling. The baseline ambient CO_2 (aCO₂) was 411 ppm in 2019 while the eCO₂ treatment was 480 ppm. To evaluate the physiological effects, $CO₂$ response curves, leaf gas exchange measurements, and isotopic data were collected from elevated and ambient blocks. To assess the morphological effects, the same leaves used for gas exchange from ambient and elevated blocks were collected and scanned using X-ray microcomputed tomography (micro-CT) at Swiss Light Source. There were few significant differences between treatments on the parameters tested suggesting that, over time, there may be an acclimation effect of some Vitis vinifera species to moderate $eCO₂$.

Introduction

Human influence has caused the highest concentrations of atmospheric $CO₂$ in the last 2 million years (Allen et al. 1997). Since 1750, there has been a 40% increase in atmospheric CO₂ and projections predict that concentrations will likely increase another 20% to 40% within the century (IPCC, 2014). $CO₂$ is a vital component in photosynthesis that can influence various aspects of grapevine physiology, including gas exchange rates, leaf morphology, water use efficiency, and nutrient uptake. Currently, most wine growing regions are at the optimal climatic conditions for the grape varieties that are cultivated there (Jones et al., 2005). Globally, this amounts to a significant economic impact. In 2021, global annual production of grapes was 60 million tons (OIV, 2021) and the grape industry in California alone amounted to \$5.33 billion (CDFA, 2021). Thus, a change in the morphophysiology of grapevines and subsequent effects on quality and yields of fruit would have tremendous implications. Cabernet Sauvignon and Riesling, specifically, are both popular wine grape varieties grown in many regions across the world that offer different anatomical origins to help describe different response tactics to environmental stressors such as $eCO₂$.

Some previous reports of elevated atmospheric $CO₂ (eCO₂)$ levels in C3 crops show higher rates of photosynthesis (Ainsworth et al., 2002, Ainsworth & Rogers, 2007), plant biomass (Poorter & Navas, 2003), and yields (Ainsworth & Long, 2021; Kimball, 1983; Poorter et al. 2022) based on treatment. This suggests a positive correlation between $eCO₂$ and these traits; however, there is insufficient research to determine all of the impacts $eCO₂$ will have on grapevines, specifically. The development of free-air carbon dioxide Enrichment (FACE) systems has permitted exposure of plants to $eCO₂$ in fields without the confines of chamber walls. Confined chamber experiments

include temperature growth chambers (GC), greenhouse (GH), temperature gradient greenhouses (TGG), and open top chambers (OTC). Compared to other confined chamber experiments, FACE systems do a better job of capturing realistic plant responses (Long et al. 2005, 2006, Leakey et al. 2006) and enhance yield by \sim 50% less than in confined chamber studies (Long et al. 2005, 2006; Ainsworth and Long, 2005; Morgan et al., 2005). Thus, FACE experiments for grapevines are important for understanding their morphophysiological impacts.

Grapevine OTC, GH, TGG, and FACE experiments have reported increased photosynthesis (Anet) (Moutinho-Pereira et al. 2009, Martínez-Lüscher et al. 2015, Arrizabalaga-Arriazu et al. 2020, Wohlfahrt et al. 2018) and light saturated assimilation (Asat) (Edwards et al. 2016, 2017) with $eCO₂$ treatment. These are in-line with other C3 crop reports that have seen an increase in photosynthetic carbon assimilation (Ainsworth & Rogers, 2007; Long et al., 2004, Ainsworth & Long, 2021). However, there is also evidence for a down regulation of net photosynthesis as vines acclimate to higher carbon environments (Salazar-Parra et al. 2015, Rangel da Silva et al. 2017). A possible explanation for this observed downregulation is a lowered capacity of the photochemical machinery due to reductions in nitrogen (N) concentrations in the leaf (Luo et al. 1994, Moutinho-Pereira et al. 2009), limiting the activity of the rubisco enzyme (Clemens et al. 2021). Species that are not N fixing, such as grapevines, are more likely to experience down regulation in $eCO₂$ environments because of limited rubisco content (Ainsworth et al. 2002). Studies of other C3 plants have shown that, in general, leaves grown at $eCO₂$ show a decrease in the mass of N per unit dry mass (Koerner & Miglietta, 1994; McGuire et al. 1995; Drake et al. 1997).

Reported stomatal conductance responses to $eCO₂$ in C3 crops show general reductions (Ainsworth & Rogers, 2007; Long et al., 2004, Ainsworth & Long, 2021) whereas grapevines have shown variable results. While a FACE and enclosure study show a correlation between eCO₂ and decreased stomatal conductance (Bindi et al. 2005, Arrizabalaga-Arriazu et al. 2020), increased stomatal conductance in a FACE experiment has also been observed (Wohlfahrt et al. 2018). Grapevines can regulate stomatal conductance by adjusting the openness, size, and/or density of their stomata. Stomatal pore index (SPI) encapsulates size and density to help determine the conductance of gasses through stomata. Multiple studies have documented the reduction in stomatal density in several varieties of grapevine in response to $eCO₂$ (Moutinho-Pereira et al. 2009, Rogiers et al. 2011, Rangel da Silva et al. 2017).

Leaf water potentials also vary between studies. While an $eCO₂$ FACE experiment did not see differences in leaf water potentials even with decreases in stomatal conductance in the $eCO₂$ treatment (Bindi et al. 2005; Tognetti et al. 2005), another observed increased predawn leaf water potentials and stomatal conductance with the $eCO₂$ treatment (Wohlfahrt et al. 2018). This may suggest a morphological change to the leaves of vines over time or an interaction with soil water availability and root system development.

In FACE experiments, there have not been observed significant differences in plant phenology (Bindi et al. 2005). TGG experiments have observed both cultivar-dependent advancement of phenology (Martínez-Lüscher et al. 2016a) and non-significant differences in phenology by $eCO₂$ (Arrizabalaga-Arriazu et al. 2020). Open top chamber experiment found anthesis and veraison advanced only in the third season (Edwards et al. 2016, 2017)

FACE and GH experiments suggest an increase in vineyard fresh biomass as lateral leaf area and fresh weight of summer pruning by $eCO₂$ treatment (Bindi et al. 2001, Wohlfahrt et al. 2018, Kizildeniz et al. 2018) as well as yield and bunch architecture without an increase in number of bunches (Bindi et al. 2001, Wohlfahrt et al. 2018). However, even with these observed increases, there have been no significant effects on grape or wine quality in FACE nor OTC experiments. (Bindi et al. 2001, Gonçalves et al. 2008, Wohlfart et al. 2020, 2021). A GC experiment found a decrease in chlorophyll content (Pugliese et al. 2010), a GH experiment found no significant change in photosynthetic pigments (Salazar-Parra et al. 2012), and another GH experiment found increased chlorophyll a and b contents (Martínez-Lüscher et al. 2015).

Theoretical predictions and experimental observations have found that both the physical properties of the mesophyll (e.g., palisade and spongy mesophyll volume, porosity) and the underlying physiology (i.e., chloroplast positioning, aquaporins, and carbonic anhydrase activity) strongly influence $CO₂$ diffusion within a leaf and its concentration at the sites of carboxylation (Flexas et al., 2012; Momayyezi & Guy, 2017a, 2017b, 2018; Muir et al., 2014; Théroux‐Rancourt & Gilbert, 2017; Tholen & Zhu, 2011; Momayyezi et al. 2022). The ratio of palisade to spongy mesophyll volume within the leaf mesophyll affects photosynthetic efficiency, light adaptation, leaf structure and function, and water use efficiency. A higher proportion of palisade mesophyll can maximize light capture and photosynthetic rates, while an increased proportion of spongy mesophyll can enhance gas exchange and promote efficient carbon dioxide uptake. Porosity or the intercellular air spaces found between mesophyll cells facilitate gaseous exchange. After reaching the substomatal cavity, $CO₂$ molecules are subject to a series of gas and liquid phase resistances along the diffusion pathway through the intercellular airspace, cell walls, membranes, cytosol, and other cellular components to reach carboxylation

sites inside chloroplasts. The inverse of the sum of these resistances is used to calculate mesophyll conductance (gm) which can give insight into the movement of gasses throughout the leaf (Flexas et al., 2008; Flexas et al., 2018; Tosens & Laanisto, 2018, Momayyezi et al. 2022).

Understanding how Cabernet Sauvignon and Riesling acclimate to changing atmospheric conditions can help growers and winemakers make informed decisions about varietal selection and vineyard management techniques. Overall, studying elevated atmospheric $CO₂$ in these varieties provides valuable insights into the potential impacts of climate change on viticulture and helps predict changes in wine quality.

Methods

Field Site

Data were collected in 2019 at the VineyardFACE experiment site at the Hochschule Geisenheim (latitude: 49° 59' N, longitude: 7° 57' E, elevation: 95 m) in the Rheingau winegrowing region of Germany. A detailed description of the field site has been described previously (Wohlfahrt et al. 2018). This site was 0.5 hectares planted in 2012 from one year old pot-grown vines of *Vitis vinifera* cv. Cabernet Sauvignon (CS) (clone 170) grafted on rootstock 161-49 Couderc and Riesling (R) (clone 198-30 Gm) grafted on rootstock SO4 (clone 47Gm). Rows were oriented north-south with a vine spacing of 0.9m within rows and 1.8m between rows. They were trained using a vertical shoot positioning system (VSP) with one year old canes pruned to 5 nodes per m² or approximately 8 nodes per vine. No other canopy manipulations took place. The vines were not irrigated; Geisenheim receives, on average, 446mm (17.56") of precipitation annually. Cover

crop consisted of Freudenberger WB 130 mulch mixture III, permanent vineyard greening I (Feldsaaten Freudenberger, Krefeld, Germany) in every second row. The cover crop mixture consisted of 5% perennial ryegrass, 30% creeping red fescue, 20% Kentucky bluegrass, 5% perennial ryegrass, 20% Chewing's fescue and 20% Kentucky bluegrass. The cover crop was mowed several times during the vegetation period.

VineyardFACE

The VineyardFACE experiment was designed as a randomized replicated treatment of three paired plot rings (Figure 1). Three rings were under ambient CO_2 (a CO_2 , 411 ppm in 2019) and three moderately elevated CO_2 (eCO₂, +20% of the aCO₂ treatment). Each ring consisted of seven rows that alternated between CS and R. Nine vines per treatment for each variety was sampled (2 varieties x 2 treatments x 9 reps = 36 total vines). Each ring consists of 36 $CO₂$ towers 2.5m in height. Each tower contained a single blower (MP25/4T; CasaFan GmbH, Hasselroth, Germany) that created an airstream and one solenoid emitter that maintain carbon dioxide levels (Wohlfahrt et al., 2018). Wind direction and wind velocity were measured in real time by the transmitters (Thies GmbH, Goettingen, Germany) and were capable of immediately responding to environmental changes. At the center of each FACE-ring at $1.5m$ height, $CO₂$ was recorded using carbon dioxide transmitters (GMD20, Vaisala, Helsinki, Finland) to adjust $CO₂$ accumulation. $CO₂$ fumigation was maintained from sunrise to sunset 365 days a year since 2014, operated by an astronomical clock (Selektra 170 top2 Theben, Haigerloch, Germany). No CO₂ enrichment was carried out at wind velocity<0.1m s−1 or air temperatures<5°C. All measurements for this study were carried out on the same leaves for each plant per month of collection.

Field Measurements

Photosynthetic measurements

Net assimilation rate (An) , stomatal conductance (gs) and the intercellular airspace $CO₂$ concentration (Ci) were measured consistently for the youngest fully developed leaves, 6-8 leaves for Vitis spp. using the plastochron index. Photosynthetic measurements were taken using a LI-COR 6800 system fitted with 6800-01A fluorometer. All measurements were done under photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD) = 1500 (10% blue vs. 90% red) (μ mol m-2 s-1), chamber temperature at 30°C, flow rate at 500 (µmol air s-1), and vapor pressure deficit between 1.5-2.0 kPa between 8:30 am to 1:30 pm. All leaves were dark adapted for 20 minutes prior to all other measurements to obtain the maximum quantum yield of photosystem II. The quantum yield of photosystem II (ΦPSII) under actinic light was obtained by application of saturating multiphase flashes (15000 µmol m-2 s-1) as per Genty et al. (1989). Leaves were light-adapted at $PPFD = 1500 \mu \text{mol m-2 s-1}$ for 10-15 minutes prior to photosynthetic measurements.

A-Ci curves

Photosynthetic measurements were CO_2 response (A_n-C_i) curves for each cultivar at 1500 µmol m^2 s⁻¹ PPFD under the following sample CO₂ concentration: 400, 50, 80, 100, 150, 200, 250, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900, 1200, 1400, 1600 ppm for both ambient and elevated CO₂ blocks.

Mesophyll conductance (gm) calculation

Photosynthetic measurements concurrent with chlorophyll fluorescence were used to calculate mesophyll conductance (gm).

g^m - chlorophyll fluorescence method

The "constant J method" is commonly used to estimate g_m based on calculation of electron transport rate:

$$
J_{flu} = \Phi_{PSII} \times PPFD \times a \times \beta \tag{1}
$$

where β (0.5 for C₃ plants) is the fraction of absorbed quanta reaching photosystem II (Bernacchi *et al.,* 2002). The leaf absorbance, α , was measured to be 85.3% based on the average value (\pm 0.2 standard error) in all individuals using an ASD Fieldspec spectroradiometer (ViewSpec Pro, ASD Inc. Boulder, CO, USA). g_m was given by (Harley *et al.*, 1992):

$$
g_m = A_n / [Ci - (\frac{\Gamma^*(J_{flu} + 8(A_n + R_d))}{J_{flu} - 4(A_n + R_d)})]
$$
 (2)

where C_i is the intercellular airspace CO_2 concentration, R_d is the non-photorespiratory respiration rate in the light (unit: μ mol m⁻¹ s⁻¹), Γ^* is the chloroplast CO₂ photo compensation point (unit: μ mol mol⁻¹), and A_n is the net assimilation rate. Γ* was assumed to equal the intercellular CO₂ photo compensation point (C_i*) per Gilbert et al. (2012). Rd (0.77 \pm 0.05 µmol m-2 s-1) and C_i^* (48.34 \pm 0.30 µmol mol-1) were estimated using the Laisk method (Laisk, 1977 in Gilbert et al., 2012) as the point of intersection of the linear portion of averaged four sets of An-Ci curves obtained at two irradiances (125 and 500 μ mol m-2 s-1) and 13 CO₂ concentrations (35, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100, 110, 120, 140, 160, and 180 µmol mol-1). Data for the Laisk method was acquired from a previous study on Cabernet Sauvignon at University of California, Davis (Supporting Information Fig. S1, Momayyezi, unpublished data). Having obtained gm by the chlorophyll fluorescence method, the CO_2 concentration in the chloroplast (C_c) was estimated according to Harley et al., (1992):

$$
C_c = C_i - \frac{A_n}{g_m} \tag{3}
$$

MicroCT

For 164 leaves, we quantified from microCT images the volumes of spongy and palisade mesophyll cells as well as the intercellular airspace of the mesophyll cells.

Young fully expanded leaf leaves were collected, put on ice in sealed bags, and brought to the TOMCAT tomographic beamline of the Swiss Light Source at the Paul Scherrer Institute (Villigen, Switzerland). MicroCT imaging follows the protocol in Theroux-Rancourt et al. 2022. Within 24 hours of leaf collection, a thin strip of \sim 1.5 mm width and 1.5 cm length) was cut between second-order veins at the facility. Within 24 hours of leaf collection, a short strip (0.4 x 1.5 cm) was cut between second-order veins at the facility. The base of the strip was immediately wrapped in polyimide tape and inserted into a styrofoam block fixed on a sample holder. Three strips were cut at different locations on the leaf surface to ensure within-leaf replications and to get better leaf-level averages. The strip was immediately scanned by imaging 1801 projections of 100 ms under a beam energy of 21 keV and a magnification of 40x, yielding a final voxel size of 0.1625 μ m (field of view: ~416x416x312 μ m). Scanned projections were reconstructed to a transverse view using both absorption (gridrec; Marone *et al.* 2012) and phase contrast enhancement (Paganin *et al.* 2002) reconstruction. Protocols for processing microCT scans use freely available and open source software ImageJ (Schneider et al., 2012) and the Python programming language for machine-learning segmentation and for image analysis. Sampling methods followed the protocol described in (Théroux-Rancourt, 2020). The Python code was developed by (Rippner, 2022) and uses machine learning for the quantification of 3D leaf anatomical traits of grapevine (*Vitis vinifera* subsp. *vinifera* L.) which reduces the time required to process scan data into detailed segmentations.

Segmentation and FCN model

Between 400 and 500 consecutive slices from each grid stack were selected for manual segmentation using ImageJ software (Schneider et al., 2012) and a Wacom tablet. The resulting image stack was segmented using the methods presented by Momayyezi et al. (2022). Eight slices were manually masked for various leaf tissues per scan (three leaf scans per vine; 24 scans total). The manually-segmented slices had individual labels for the adaxial epidermis, abaxial epidermis, palisade mesophyll cells, spongy mesophyll cells, intercellular airspace, bundle sheath extensions, veins, and background outside of the scanned leaf. 28 masks and associated images were pulled together to run a "big model" using a fully convolutional network (FCN) model. 216 and 48 masks and images combos were used for training and testing FCN, respectively.

To verify auto-segmentation, intercellular airspace (IAS) trait, palisade mesophyll, and spongy mesophyll volume estimation by random forest model, a PyTorch implementation of FCN model with a ResNet-101 backbone was used for the semantic segmentation of the leaf image data with cloud-based resources in Google Colab. For training, we used a binary cross-entropy loss function, an Adam optimizer for stochastic optimization with a learning rate of 0.001, a scaling factor of 1 to avoid small feature loss in the training images, and a batch size of one to accommodate the GPU limitations in Google Colab.

Mesophyll porosity, palisade mesophyll and spongy mesophyll volume

Mesophyll porosity $(\theta_{IAS}; m^3 m^{-3})$ was calculated as the intercellular airspace (IAS) volume as a fraction of the total mesophyll volume as described by Momayyezi et al. (2022). The IAS volume (V_{IAS}) to palisade mesophyll and spongy mesophyll cell volume (V_{palisade} and V_{spongy}) to whole mesophyll ratio (V_{mes}) were calculated as $V_{\text{palisade}}/V_{\text{mes}}$ (m³ m⁻³) and $V_{\text{spongy}}/V_{\text{mes}}$ (m³ m⁻³), respectively.

Stomatal Image Analysis

Stomatal pore area index (SPI), stomatal density, and stomatal length correlate to leaf gas exchange capacity. To measure leaf stomata, epidermal prints of the abaxial side were taken on the same leaves used for other parameters. First, the leaves were pressed and dried using a press plant. Dental putty was to take three imprints of three different sections of the leaves (n=213). Each section was about one inch from the center base of the leaf and spanned across, avoiding major veins. Under a fume hood, clear nail polish was used to take a second imprint of the putty resulting in a negative of a negative. Slides were made with the nail polish imprints. Images were taken of one field of view per leaf using a Leica DM 1000 compound microscope at 10x magnification with a scale bar attached to the image. Later, each image was analyzed using ImageJ to measure total stomatal counts and the lengths of 5 stomata. This was used to estimate stomatal density and average stomatal guard cell length. SPI was calculated as a product of stomatal density and the square of pore length and was calculated as $SPI =$ stomatal length²/ stomatal density.

Leaf Weight and Area

Each leaf was harvested for weighing and imaging at the University of Geisenheim. Fresh weights were taken the day of sampling. Images were taken using a scanner at 300 pixels per inch. Area was calculated using ImageJ. SLA was calculated from these parameters (Garneir et al. 2001).

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed with the statistical software RStudio, version 2022.12.0+353. Statistical analyses were done separately for June and August using two-way ANOVA tests examining the main effects of treatment and block. Statistically significant results of main factors on figures are indicated by $*$ and $**$ (p < 0.1, p < 0.01). The complete code is stored on Github (https://github.com/forrestellab/FACESummer2019).

Results

Physiological traits

This study did not find any significant differences in Vcmax, Amax, SLA, SPI, nor mesophyll conductance (gm) by treatment. Jmax was significantly lower by treatment in Riesling in June (Fig 3B, p= 0.0983, F= 3.213). CO_2 response curves for both Cabernet Sauvignon and Riesling in both June and August are shown in Figure 2. There is a slight deviation between $CO₂$ treatment in the August Riesling ACi curves.

Morphological traits

The fraction of palisade cell volume in total mesophyll volume was significantly higher by treatment in June for Cabernet Sauvignon (Fig 4A, $p=0.0968$, F=3.069) and lower by $eCO₂$ treatment in August for Riesling (Fig 4A, p=0.0071, F=8.274).

The fraction of spongy cell volume in total mesophyll volume was significantly lower by treatment in August for both Cabernet Sauvignon (Fig 4B, p= 0.0852, F= 3.169) and Riesling (Fig 4B, p= 0.0127, F=6.967).

Discussion

The rate that atmospheric $CO₂$ has risen in the last few decades has surpassed that of all previous natural increments, and it's anticipated that it could grow by an additional 15% from its current levels, reaching 480 ppm by 2050. Literature suggests that there is a fertilization effect with eCO² meaning that plants increase their photosynthetic abilities and shift physiological and morphological responses (Ueyama et al. 2020). However, as described by the model presented by Sage 1990, non-limiting processes of photosynthesis could be regulated in C3 plants to balance the capacity of limiting processes. For instance, when $CO₂$ levels are elevated, and the electron transport or phosphate regeneration may limit photosynthesis, the activity of rubisco is downregulated to balance the limitation in RuBP regeneration (Clemens et al. 2021). Elevated $CO₂$ levels can influence uptake, allocation, and efficiency, which can also potentially exacerbate nitrogen limitations. This phenomenon is supported by findings Luo et al. 1994, Moutinho-Pereira et al. 2009 and Rangel da Silva et al. 2017 which all report reductions in leaf nitrogen concentrations by $eCO₂$ treatment. This study, however, has found few significant differences in morphological and physiological measurements by treatment in both time points and thus does not find strong evidence for the downregulation of nitrogen levels. Nitrogen levels were not directly assessed in this study. Although research done in previous years on the same blocks did not find significant differences in leaf nitrogen content (Wohlfahrt et al. 2022),

nutrient status can change dramatically over time. The ability of plants to respond effectively to $eCO₂$ in the future will undoubtedly rely on physiological attributes such as their efficiency in utilizing nitrogen and water, their photosynthetic capabilities, their capacity to serve as sinks for resources, and their structural adaptations (Diaz 1995).

Maximum assimilation rate

Maximum assimilation rate (Amax) signifies a leaf's peak capacity to absorb $CO₂$ per area and time during photosynthesis. The prevailing hypothesis suggests that $eCO₂$ acts as a growth stimulant by providing a surplus of $CO₂$, the primary substrate for photosynthesis (Moutinho-Pereira et al. 2009, Martínez-Lüscher et al. 2015, Edwards et al. 2016, 2017, Wohlfahrt et al. 2017, 2018, Arrizabalaga-Arriazu et al. 2020). This surplus could lead to higher Amax, driving efficient carbon assimilation and potentially fostering increased plant growth and water use efficiency. This study, however, did not observe any significant differences in Amax by treatment (Table 2).

Jmax

Jmax refers to the maximal capacity of the photosynthetic electron transport chain, which is a critical process in photosynthesis. It's responsible for generating energy-rich molecules like ATP and NADPH that are essential for carbon fixation. The prediction that Jmax could decrease with $eCO₂$ is based on the idea that increased $CO₂$ concentrations leads to a reduction in the demand for electron transport, as $CO₂$ availability might become less limiting (Ainsworth and Rogers 2007). This study only observed a significant difference by treatment in Riesling in June. Otherwise, there are no significant differences (Table 2).

Vcmax

Vcmax represents the maximal rate at which the enzyme Rubisco can catalyze the carboxylation of ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate during photosynthesis. The assumption that Vcmax could decrease under eCO_2 comes from the idea that elevated CO_2 levels lead to an upregulation of the photosynthetic system, reducing the need for a higher Vcmax (Ainsworth and Rogers 2007). This study observed no significant differences by treatment (Table 2).

Stomatal Pore Index

Stomatal Pore Index (SPI), or the stomatal pore area per leaf area, is a key physiological parameter reflecting the balance between water-saving strategies and efficient gas exchange, holding crucial implications for plant adaptation, water use efficiency, and response to changing environmental conditions. A possible consequence of an $eCO₂$ might be an increase in the length of the stomatal aperture (length between the junctions of the guard cells at each end of the stomata), which might contribute to counteract a reduced stomatal density in response to high $CO₂$ levels (Ogaya, 2011). As described in Pritchard et al. 1999, previous studies have observed increases, decreases, and also no changes of stomatal density in C3 plants in response to $eCO₂$. Experiments specifically studying grapevines, however, have generally observed a reduction in stomatal density to $eCO₂$ treatments (Moutinho-Pereira et al. 2009, Rangel da Silva et al. 2017). This study shows no significant differences in SPI by treatment (Table 2).

Mesophyll conductance

Mesophyll conductance (gm) gauges $CO₂$ diffusion efficiency from intercellular spaces to chloroplast stroma, involving cell layers (Mizokami et al. 2019). It's anticipated to decrease with $eCO₂$ (Mizokami et al. 2019). This stems from surplus $CO₂$ potentially prompting stomatal closure, diminishing the $CO₂$ pressure gradient. This study, however, shows no significant differences in gm by treatment (Table 2). These results align with the insignificant differences in SPI by treatment.

Specific Leaf Area

Specific Leaf Area (SLA) refers to the leaf area of a plant divided by its dry mass, and it's often used as an indicator of resource allocation strategies. SLA reflects how plants allocate resources between structural support (leaf mass) and light-interception surface area (leaf area). Higher SLA values prioritize light capture over leaf longevity, while lower SLA values invest more in structural support and leaf longevity. The prediction that SLA could increase under $eCO₂$ treatment is based on the idea that plants exposed to higher levels of atmospheric $CO₂$ might allocate more resources to light-interception surface area (Pritchard et al. 1999). The rationale behind this prediction is that $eCO₂$ is often associated with an increase in photosynthetic rates. As plants take in more $CO₂$, they might generate more energy, leading to greater allocation of resources to growth, including leaf expansion. Thinner leaves (higher SLA) are often observed in environments with ample resources, as they can optimize light capture for photosynthesis (Poorter et al., 2022, Arrizabalaga-Arriazu et al. 2020). This experiment, however, shows no significant differences in SLA by treatment in this experiment (Table 2).

Morphological Traits

Plant morphological adaptations to rising global $CO₂$ levels may prove to be critical due to the importance of plant form in the acquisition of resources, as a determinant of plant competitive interactions, and as a modifier of metabolic processes (Pritchard et al. 1999). There have been few papers assessing the effects of $eCO₂$ on the morphology of C3 plants with inconsistent findings in the papers that have been published. Pirchard et al. 1999 reports inconsistent findings in C3 plant's mesophyll cross-sectional areas of leaves with increased, decreased, and unchanged total measurements by eCO_2 treatment. They concluded that effects of eCO_2 vary depending on the stage of leaf development, genetic plasticity, nutrient availability, temperature, and phenology. Wohlfahrt et at. 2022 used histological analysis of leaf cross-sections and found a significant increase in palisade mesophyll under $eCO₂$ but insignificant changes in spongy mesophyll. Thus, we predict the fraction of palisade cell volume in total mesophyll volume to increase, the fraction of spongy cell volume in total mesophyll volume to remain unaffected, and the fraction of intercellular air space volume in total mesophyll volume (Porosity) to decrease with eCO₂ treatment (Pritchard et al. 1999, Théroux-Rancourt et al. 2021, Wohlfahrt et at. 2022). Spongy mesophyll cells are a type of plant leaf cell that is involved in gas exchange, particularly facilitating the movement of gasses within the leaf. Based on Wohlfahrt et at. 2022's findings, we did not expect to see any significant differences. We, however, saw significant decreases for both varieties in August (Table 2; Figure 4) meaning the vines were allocating more resources into cells to facilitate gas movement later in the season. Palisade mesophyll, on the other hand, is primarily responsible for capturing light and conducting photosynthesis. A structural alteration can either enhance or diminish light absorption and utilization, thereby influencing the capacity to capitalize on the additional CO2 available for photosynthesis, either amplifying or reducing it. In this study, we observed an increase in the fraction of palisade cell volume in total mesophyll

volume by treatment in Cabernet Sauvignon in June and a decrease in Riesling in August (Table 2; Figure 4). Changes to leaf morphology in a single growing season could be a stress response to other factors. Reasons for why there are differences between varieties should be studied further. Porosity or the intercellular air spaces found between mesophyll cells facilitate gaseous exchange through the leaf. With eCO2, it is anticipated that porosity may decrease since the greater availability of CO2 allows for easier diffusion without encountering spatial limitations. In this experiment, however, we observed an increase in Riesling in August (Table 2; Figure 4). This finding correlates with a decrease in both the fraction of spongy cell volume in total mesophyll volume and the fraction of palisade cell volume in total mesophyll volume and without any significant differences in any of the physiological responses measured.

Previous VineyardFACE Research

Previous VineyardFACE studies conducted by Wohlfahrt et al. 2018, 2020, 2021 and 2022 found significant differences for various metrics in both cultivars and seasons. Wohlfahrt et al. 2018, 2020, and 2021 conducted research in 2014-2016 and Wohlfahrt et al. 2022 conducted research in 2015 and 2016. Wohlfahrt et al. 2018 found that both Riesling and Cabernet Sauvignon had higher photosynthetic rates as well as increased leaf and fruit biomass production. This effect was particularly evident in single berry weight, cluster weight and bunch architecture. Net assimilation increased, intrinsic water use efficiency improved, and transpiration rate and stomatal conductance were found to be higher under $eCO₂$ for both cultivars for all three years. Wohlfahrt et al. 2020 and 2021 found that $eCO₂$ altered some bunch and berry parameters without a negative impact on fruit quality nor the composition of must and young wines. Wohlfahrt et al. 2022's findings are the most in line with the parameters measured in this study.

They found that net assimilation rates were significantly stimulated under $eCO₂$ for both cultivars and seasons. Using leaf histological analysis of leaf cross-sections, they found a significant increase in palisade mesophyll and decreases in epidermal tissues in Cabernet Sauvignon. This compliments this study's findings of an increase in Cabernet Sauvignon the fraction of palisade cell volume in total mesophyll volume in June. Additionally, they found a significant increase in the ratio between palisade and spongy mesophyll in Cabernet Sauvignon under eCO_2 . Total leaf thickness and width of spongy mesophyll of Cabernet Sauvignon and Riesling remained less affected under $eCO₂$ conditions. There were no impacts found in chlorophyll content nor lead to changes in other leaf pigments or leaf nitrogen status. They suggest, however, that the two cultivars within the VineyardFACE may decrease in leaf nitrogen under $eCO₂$ in future as variations in nitrogen content are also depending on the initial nitrogen limitation status of the single plant. Thus, the disparity in results between Wohlfahrt et al. 2018, 2020, 2021 and 2022 and this study may be due to nitrogen levels acting as an underlying restraint for physiological capacities and morphological development. While both this study and those of Wohlfahrt yielded statistically significant results, they were generally of marginal significance. It is possible that the moderately elevated CO2 treatment or $+20\%$ may not have been sufficiently robust to generate significant outcomes. Alternatively, over time, the vines might have acclimated to the eCO2 conditions. While previous investigations by Wohlfahrt et al. were conducted on the vines in 2015 and 2016 (when they were 4 and 5 years old, with 3 and 4 years of treatment, respectively), out study took place in 2019 when the vines had reached 8 years of age, with 7 years of treatment. Our proposition is that these vines have undergone an acclimation effect, suggesting that, given time, they are able to adapt to eCO2 levels. Another potential explanation for the inconsistencies in results could be attributed to seasonal variations and the timing of sample

collection. Previously, Wohlfahrt 2018 and 2022 noted seasonal differences between measurements taken in 2015 and 2016. It is possible that the weather conditions in 2019 could have contributed to fewer significant differences. Data from weather stations at University of Geisenheim should be consulted for a more comprehensive analysis. This study found significant differences between sampling dates for almost every parameter measured. Leaf age can significantly affect photosynthesis due to the changing physiological and structural characteristics of leaves as they mature (Schultz 2003). Furthermore, it is important to underscore that each grapevine variety was planted on a distinct rootstock, potentially accounting for some of the variability observed in their responses to eCO2 treatment.

Possible Reporting Bias

In this experiment, we examined the effects of a 20% increase in CO2 levels, a scenario anticipated for the mid-century. In the broader context of literature, this increase is thought to have a $CO₂$ fertilization effect on C3 plants. However, the findings of Haworth et al. 2016 suggests that this effect might be magnified due to reporting bias. Consequently, this paper suggests there is a scarcity of published research depicting outcomes that are statistically insignificant in response to eCO2 treatment. This potential distortion raises questions about the accuracy of attributing the observed $CO₂$ fertilization effect as an accurate representation of plant responses.

For a comprehensive understanding of these physiological and morphological processes, it is also crucial to consider how other stressors like heat, drought, pests, and diseases will negatively affect grapevine growth in combination with $eCO₂$. The compounding impacts of these

multifaceted environmental factors are likely to have a more profound impact on grapevine function compared to their individual influences (Clemens et al. 2021). Additionally, the potential limitations of confined chamber experiments such as GC, GH, and TGG should continue to be studied.

Conclusion

Limited morphological and physiological differences were found by eCO₂ treatment in Vitis *vinifera* cv. Cabernet Sauvignon and Riesling in this study. These results may indicate an intrinsic ability of grapevines to acclimate to $eCO₂$ conditions, raise questions about whether the treatment magnitude was substantial enough to elicit noticeable effects, or highlight the possible influence of additional unexplored variables inherent to this experimental design. The diverse responses observed among grapevines to eCO2 underscore the necessity for further research, particularly focusing on mature grapevines. Moreover, future research endeavors should take into account plant nutrient levels and comprehensive weather data to gain a more comprehensive understanding of these complex interactions.

Tables

Table 1. Description and aboleviations of plant trans used											
tion	Abbrevia Variable Name Units		Explanation	Hypothesized effect by treatment	References						
Amax	Maximum Assimilation rate	umol $m-2s-1$	Amount of $CO2$ assimilated per leaf area and time		Predicted increase Moutinho-Pereira et al. 2009, Martínez-Lüscher						

Table 1. Description and abbreviations of plant traits used

Table 2. Two-way ANOVA tests by treatment $(CO_2$ Level), block, and vine (if applicable). $*, **$, ***, and **** indicate statistical significance ($p \le 0.1$, $p \le 0.05$, $p \le 0.01$, $p \le 0.001$)

SLA	June	Cabernet Sauvignon	$CO2$ Level	$\mathbf{1}$	6.78E-06	6.79E-06	1.207	0.293
			Block	$\overline{4}$	4.67E-05	1.17E-05	2.078	0.147
		Riesling	CO ₂ Level	1	8.80E-06	8.80E-06	1.041	0.328
			Block	$\overline{4}$	2.68E-05	6.71E-06	0.793	0.552
	August	Cabernet Sauvignon	CO ₂ Level	1	1.25E-05	1.25E-05	0.702	0.418
			Block	$\overline{4}$	2.70E-05	6.75E-06	0.379	0.819
		Riesling	CO ₂ Level	1	1.05E-05	1.05E-05	1.245	0.288
			Block	$\overline{4}$	2.68E-05	6.70E-06	0.795	0.553

Table 3. Mean and standard errors

Figures

Figure 1. VineyardFACE experimental site at Hochschule Geisenheim University with associated $CO₂$ tank. Three FACE-rings were assigned to the two $CO₂$ levels a $CO₂$ (A1, A2 and A3) and $eCO₂$ (E1, E2 and E3).

Fig. 2. Photosynthetic response curves (ACi curves) of *Vitis vinifera* cv. Cabernet Sauvignon and Riesling in June and August by CO_2 treatment effect. a CO_2 is ambient CO_2 (green) and e CO_2 represents elevated $CO₂$ (yellow).

Fig. 3. Maximum rubisco carboxylation rate (V_c max), maximum electron transport rate (Jmax), and maximum photosynthetic rate (Amax) of *Vitis vinifera* cv. Cabernet Sauvignon (Cab Sauv) and Riesling in June and August. $*$ indicates statistical significance ($p<0.1$) of main factor treatment.

Fig. 4. A (left), B (middle), C (right). The fraction of palisade cell volume in total mesophyll volume (Palisade Mesophyll), the fraction of spongy cell volume in total mesophyll volume (Spongy Mesophyll), and the intercellular airspace volume to total volume ratio (porosity) of

Vitis vinifera cv. Cabernet Sauvignon and Riesling in June and August. * and ** indicate statistical significance ($p \le 0.1$, $p \le 0.01$) of main factor treatment.

Fig. 5. Stomatal pore index (SPI) of *Vitis vinifera* cv. Cabernet Sauvignon (Cab Sauv) and Riesling in June and August. No significant differences of main factor treatment.

Fig. 6. Specific leaf area (SLA) of *Vitis vinifera* cv. Cabernet Sauvignon (Cab Sauv) and Riesling in June and August. No significant differences of main factor treatment.

Fig. 7. Mesophyll conductance (gm) of *Vitis vinifera* cv. Cabernet Sauvignon and Riesling in June

and August. No significant differences of main factor treatment.

Fig. 8. MicroCT reconstructions of *Vitis vinifera* cv. Cabernet Sauvignon. and Riesling in June (A-D left column) and August (E-H right column). A/E, B/F, C/G, and D/H represent the same vines at two time points in the season. A & E are from an aCO₂ Riesling vine, B & F are eCO₂ Riesling, C & G are aCO₂ Cabernet Sauvignon, and D & H are eCO₂ Cabernet Sauvignon.

Supplemental

Fig. 9. Leaf area of *Vitis vinifera* cv. Cabernet Sauvignon. and Riesling in June and August. No significant differences of main factor treatment.

Fig. 10. Leaf weight of *Vitis vinifera* cv. Cabernet Sauvignon. and Riesling in June and August. No significant differences of main factor treatment.

Fig. 11. Stomatal density of *Vitis vinifera* cv. Cabernet Sauvignon. and Riesling in June and August. No significant differences of main factor treatment.

Fig. 12. Stomatal length of *Vitis vinifera* cv. Cabernet Sauvignon. and Riesling in June and August. No significant differences of main factor treatment.

Stomatal Density

Fig. 13. Individual photosynthetic response curves (ACi curves) of *Vitis vinifera* cv. Cabernet Sauvignon and Riesling in June and August by CO_2 treatment effect. a CO_2 is ambient CO_2 and $eCO₂$ represents elevated $CO₂$.

Fig. 14. Intrinsic water use efficiency of *Vitis vinifera* cv. Cabernet Sauvignon. and Riesling in June. No significant differences of main factor treatment.

August Intrinsic Water Use Efficiency

Fig. 15. Intrinsic water use efficiency of *Vitis vinifera* cv. Cabernet Sauvignon. and Riesling in August. No significant differences of main factor treatment.

Fig. 16. Instantaneous water use efficiency of *Vitis vinifera* cv. Cabernet Sauvignon. and Riesling in June. No significant differences of main factor treatment.

August Instantaneous Water Use Efficiency

Fig. 17. Instantaneous water use efficiency of *Vitis vinifera* cv. Cabernet Sauvignon. and Riesling in August. No significant differences of main factor treatment.

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