

# Introduction to plant ecophysiology

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13.10.25  
Photo: Alex Tunas, PERL

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# What has been the single most impactful event on this planet?







# Oxygenic photosynthesis



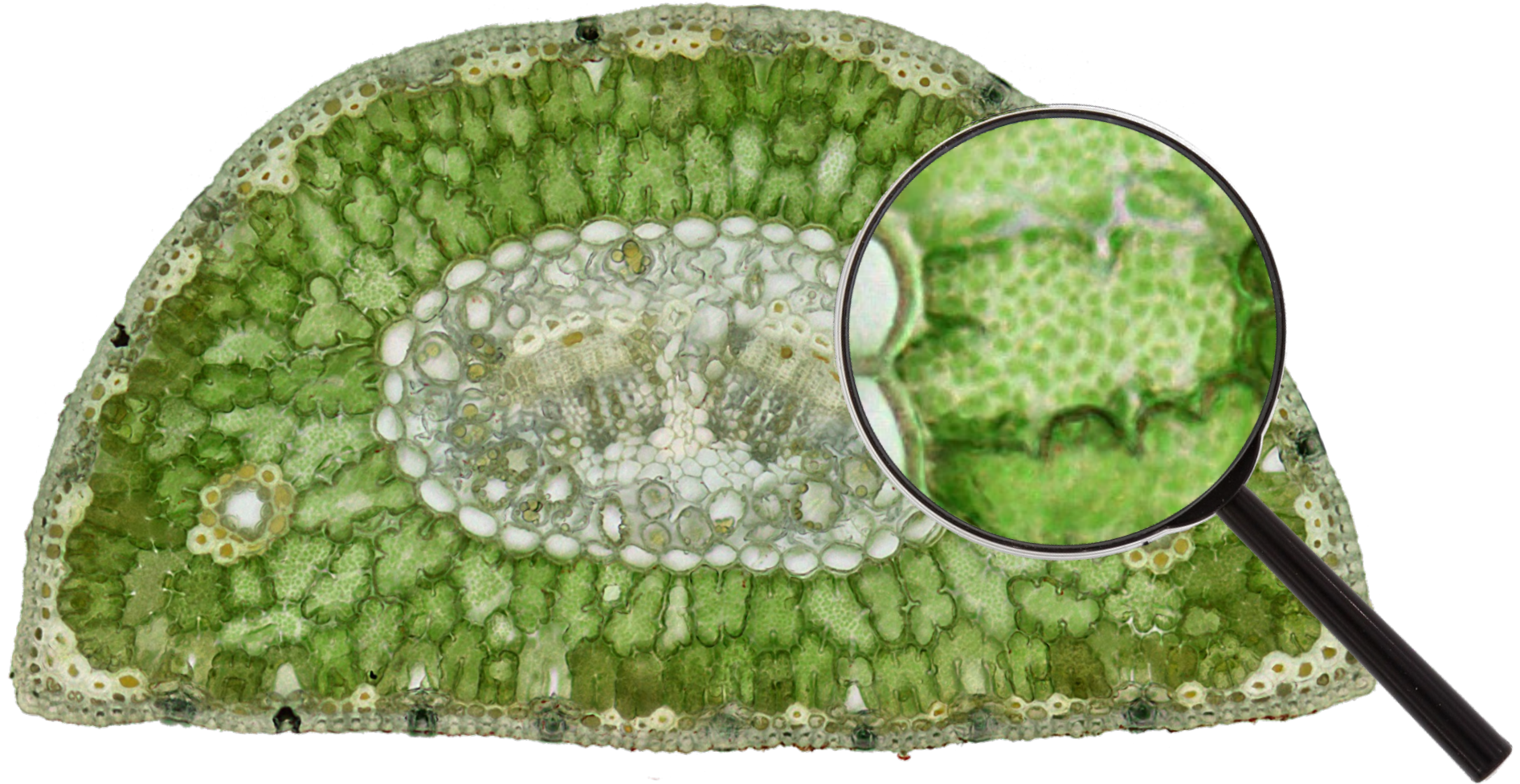
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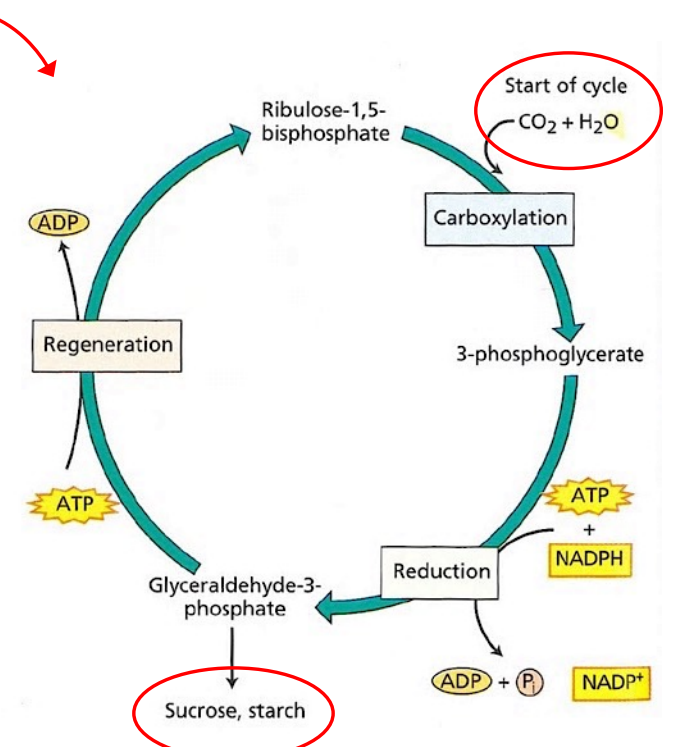
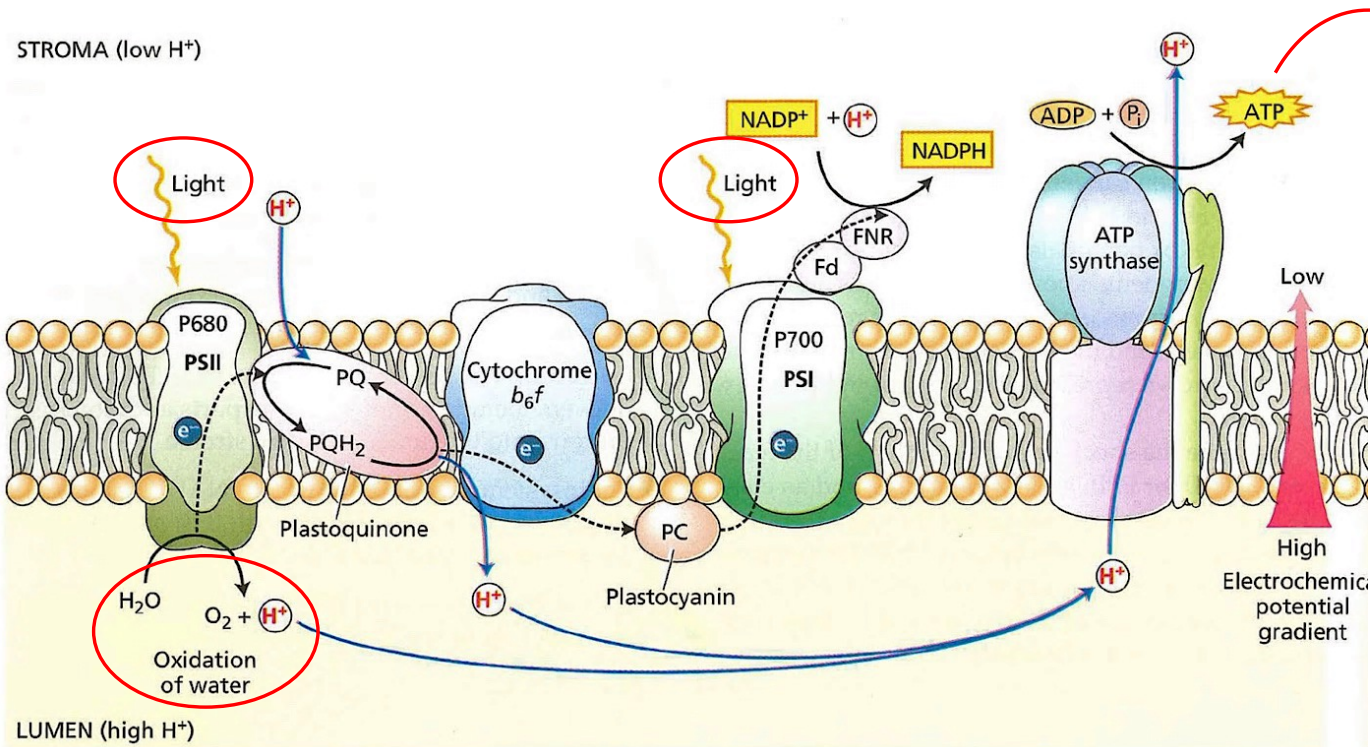
# Photosynthesis takes place in chloroplasts



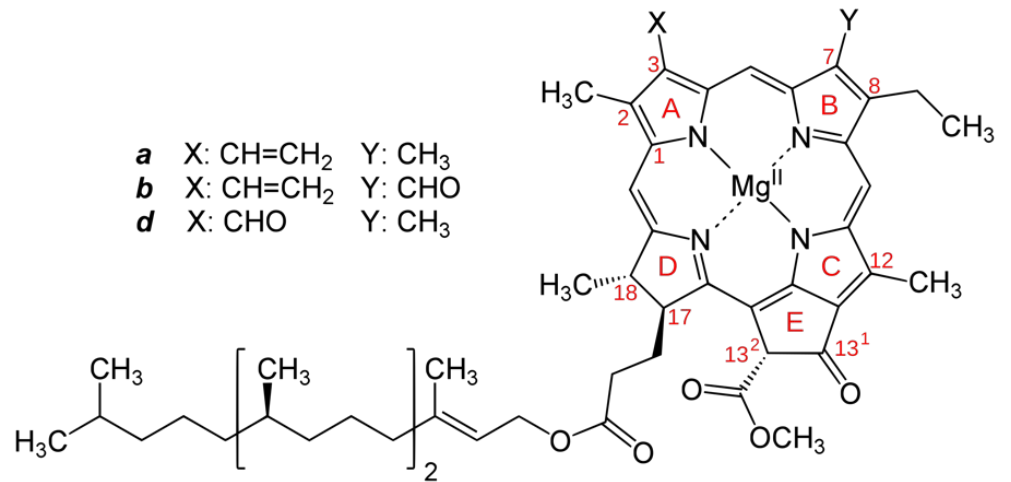
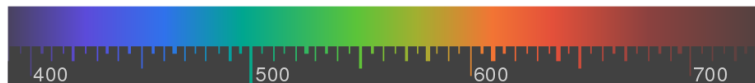
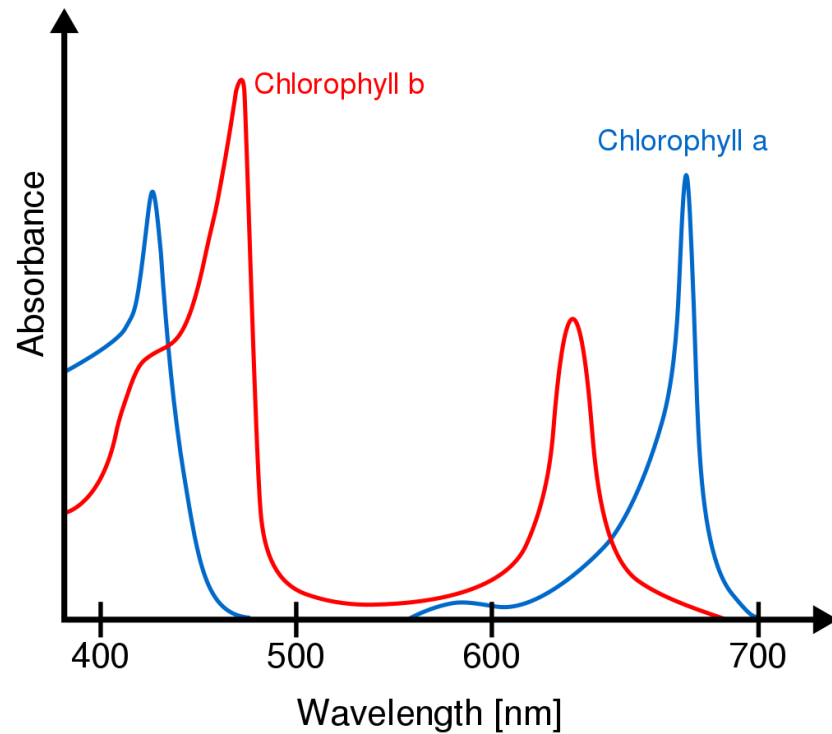
# Photosynthesis pathway

Light-dependent reaction:  
photon uptake by chlorophyll

Light-independent reaction:  
CO<sub>2</sub> fixation by RuBisCO

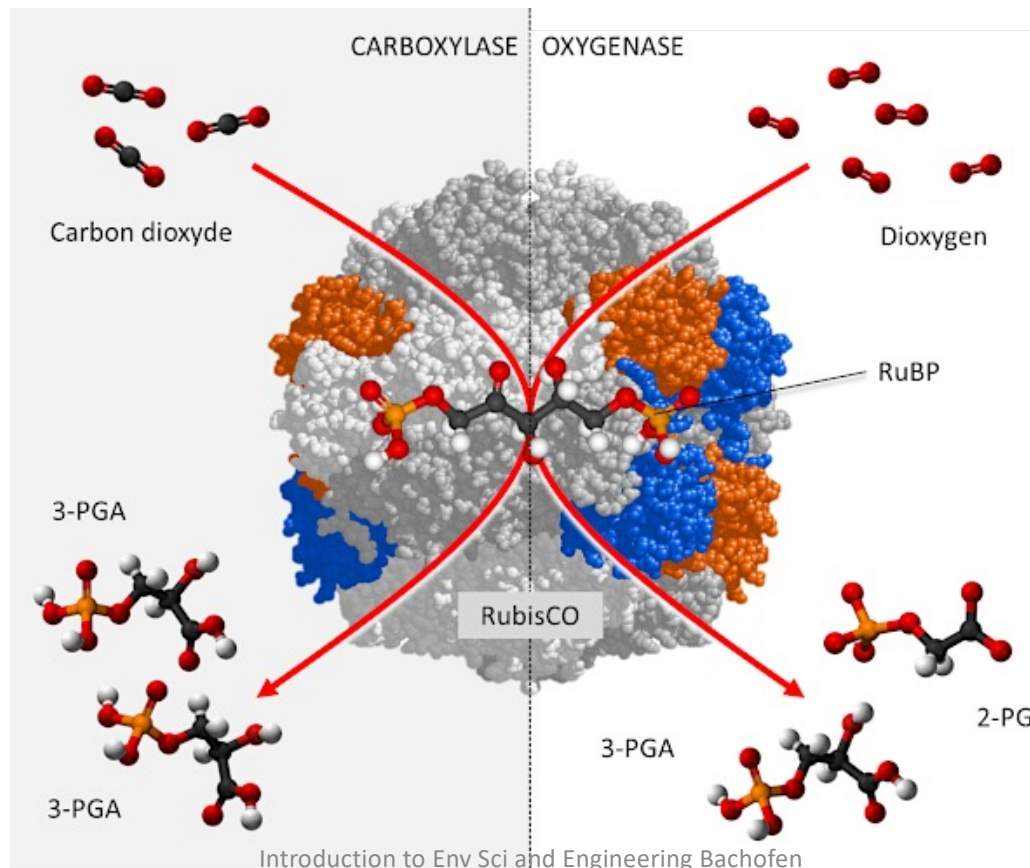


# Light-dependent reaction with chlorophyll



# Light-independent reaction with RuBisCO

RuBisCO is probably the most frequent protein on the planet



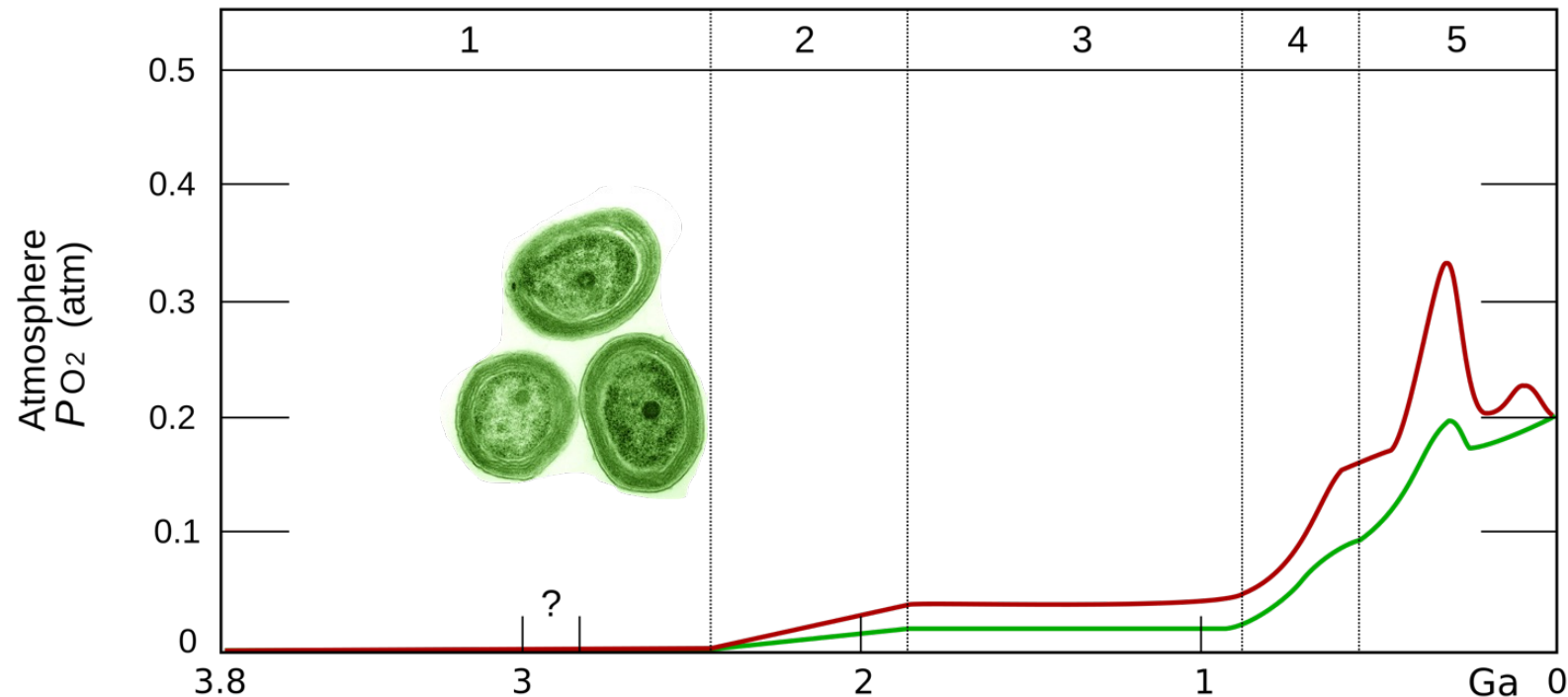
# The great oxygenation event



13/10/25 Introduction to Env. Sci and Engineering course  
Stromatolites at Shark Bay (Western Australia)

# The great oxygenation event

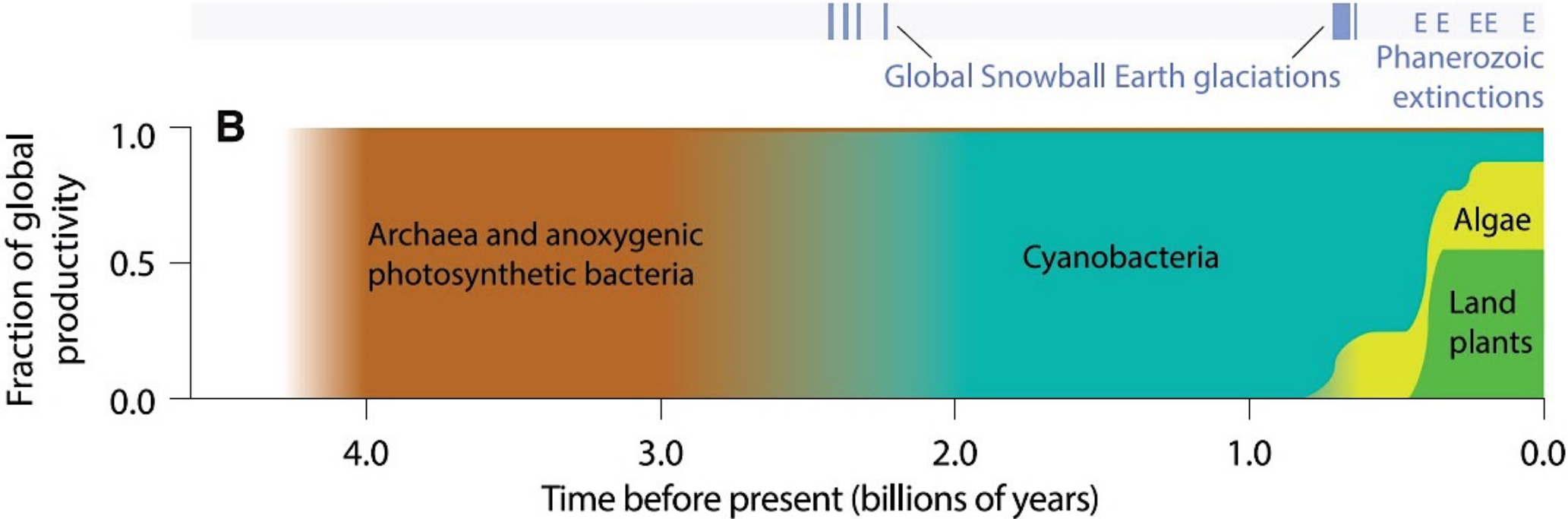
- ~ 2.4 billion years ago: O<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere increases
- Reducing atmosphere → oxidizing atmosphere
- ~ 80 % of biosphere is extinct (most anaerobic bacteria)



O<sub>2</sub> build-up in the atmosphere. Red and green lines represent the estimated range. Time is in billions of years (Ga).

# The great oxygenation event

Today, primary productivity is dominated by (1) terrestrial plants, (2) marine algae, (3) cyanobacteria.





Plants regulate the environment

Plant ecophysiology

Plants respond to their environment

# The global CO<sub>2</sub> cycle

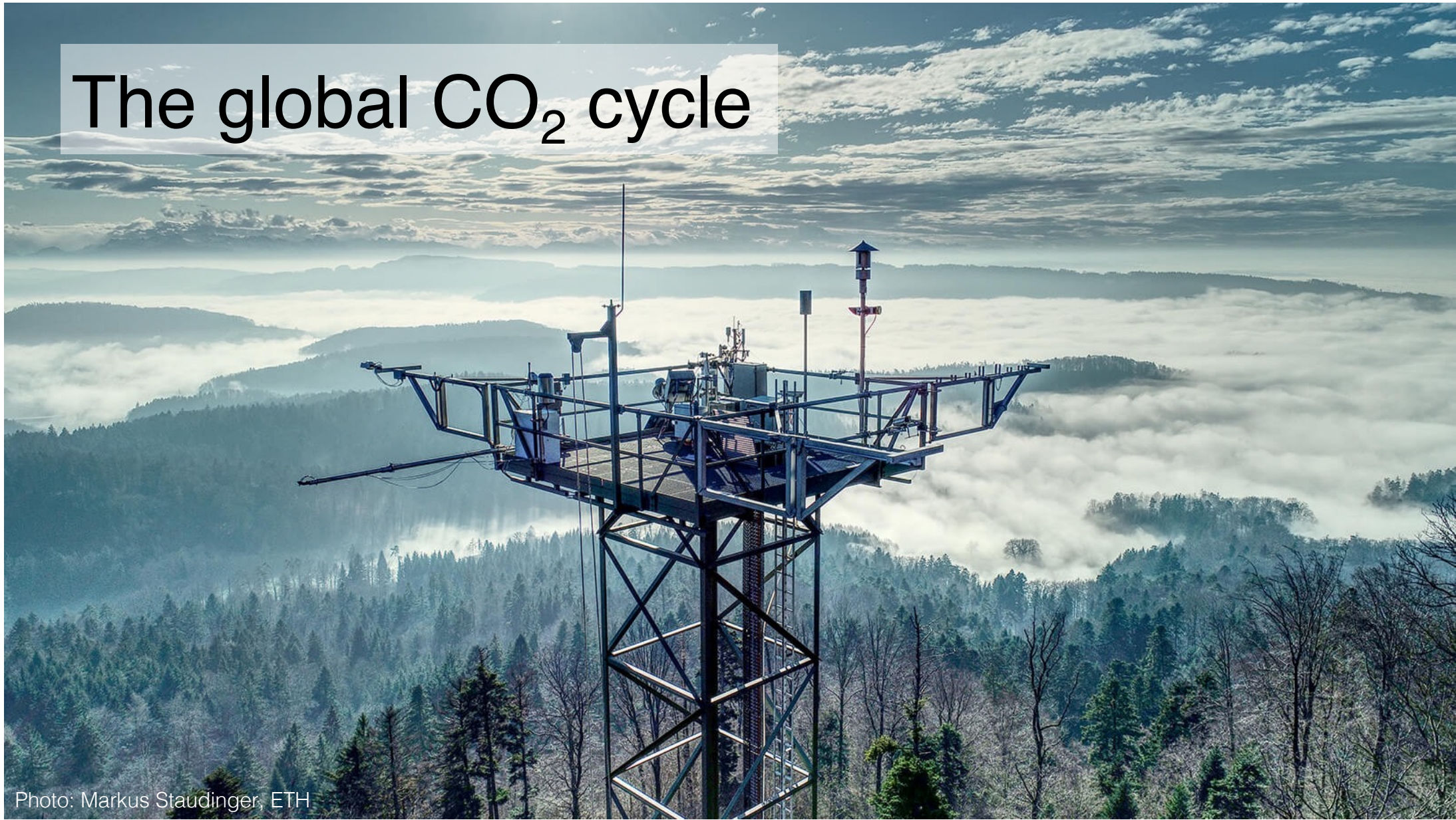
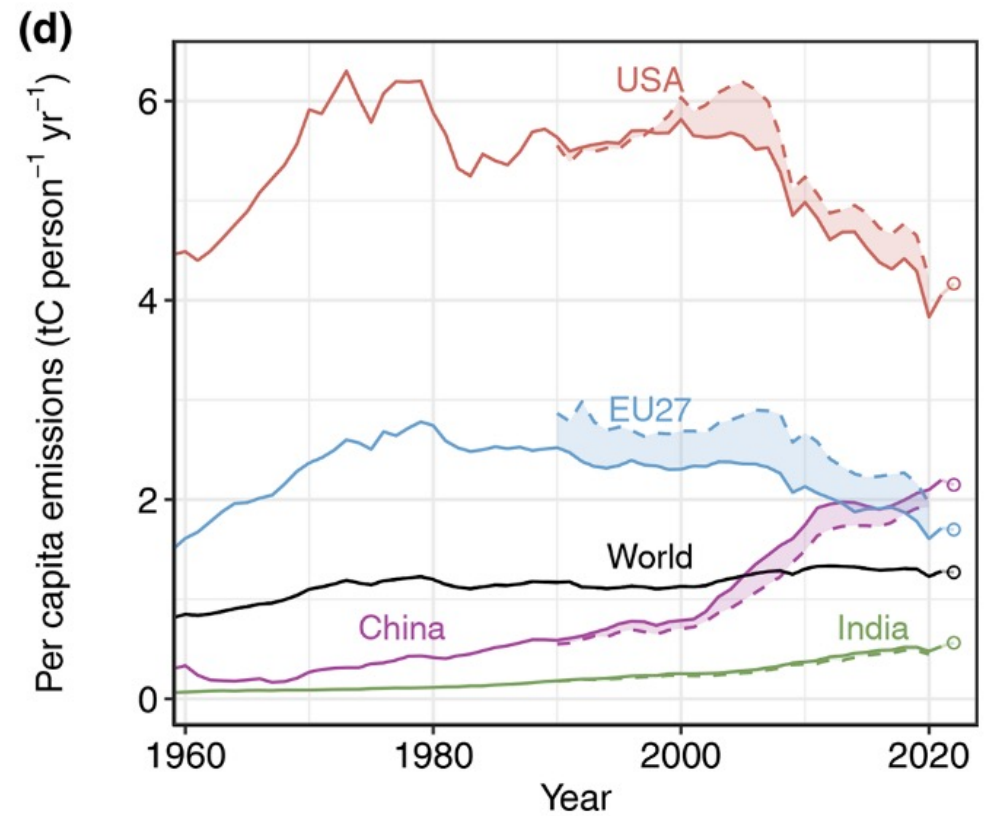
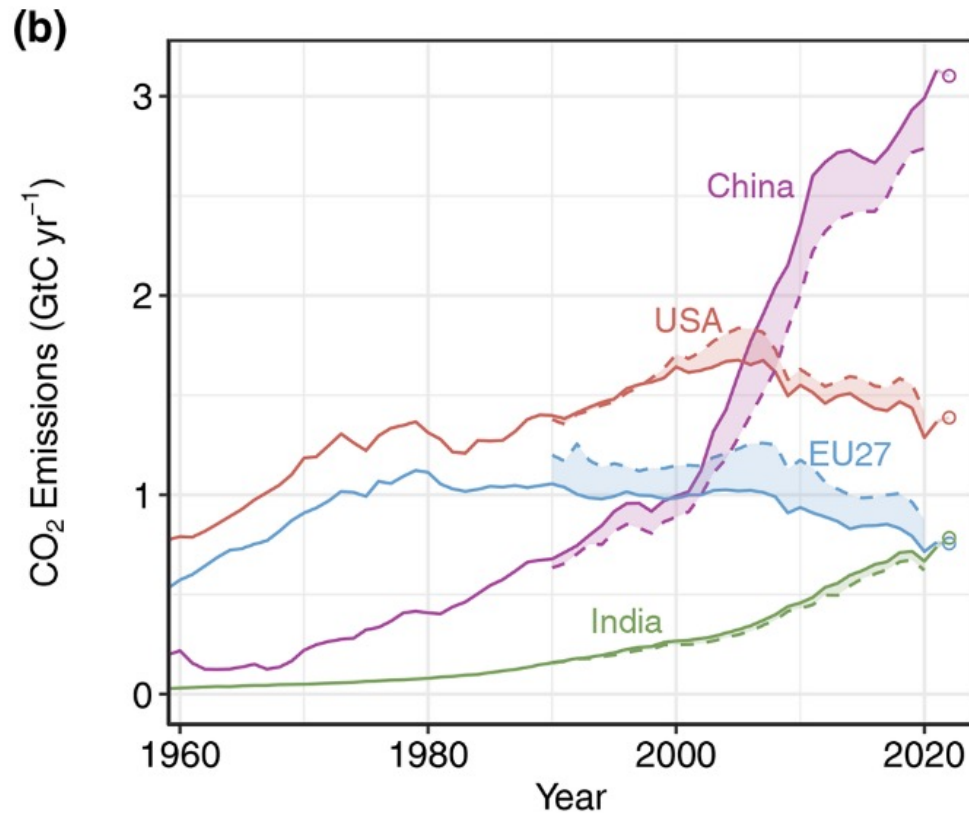
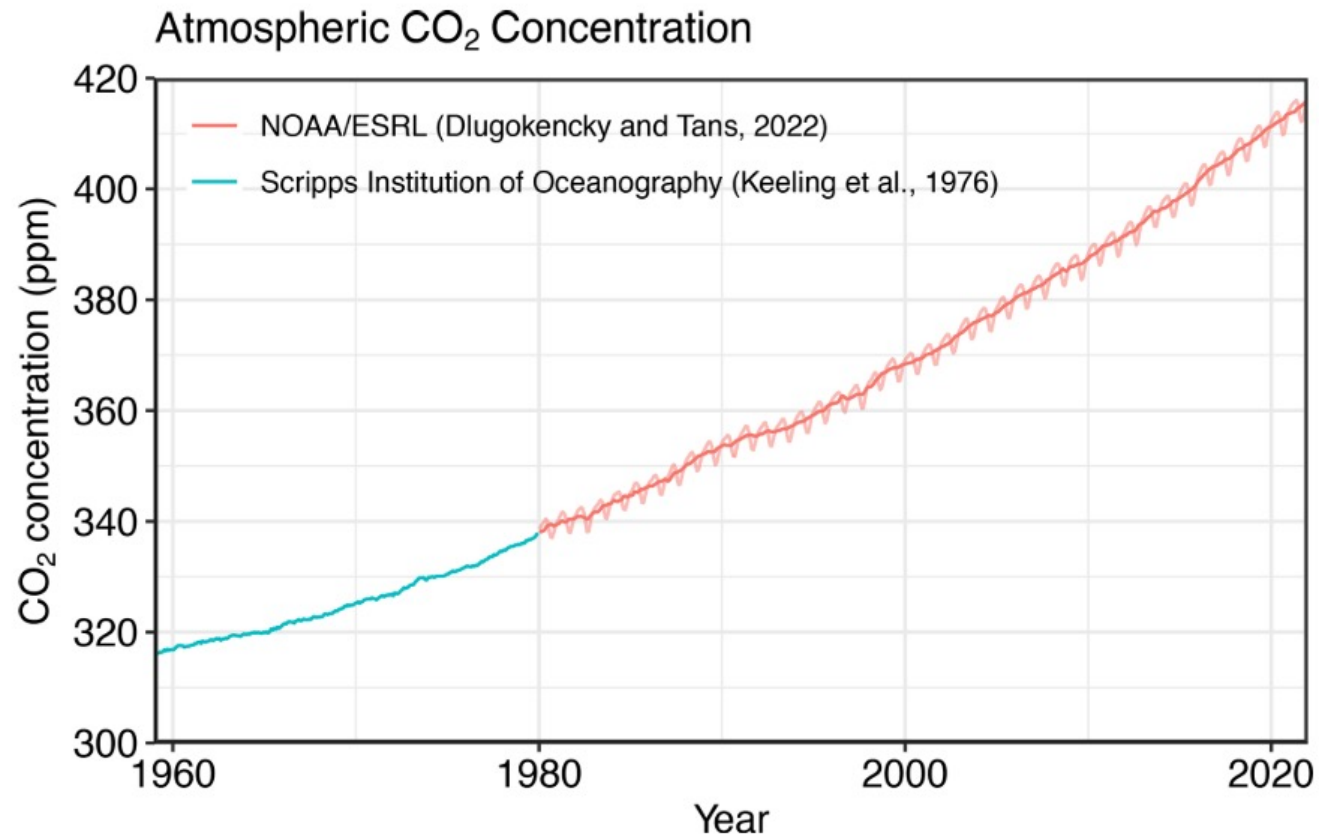


Photo: Markus Staudinger, ETH

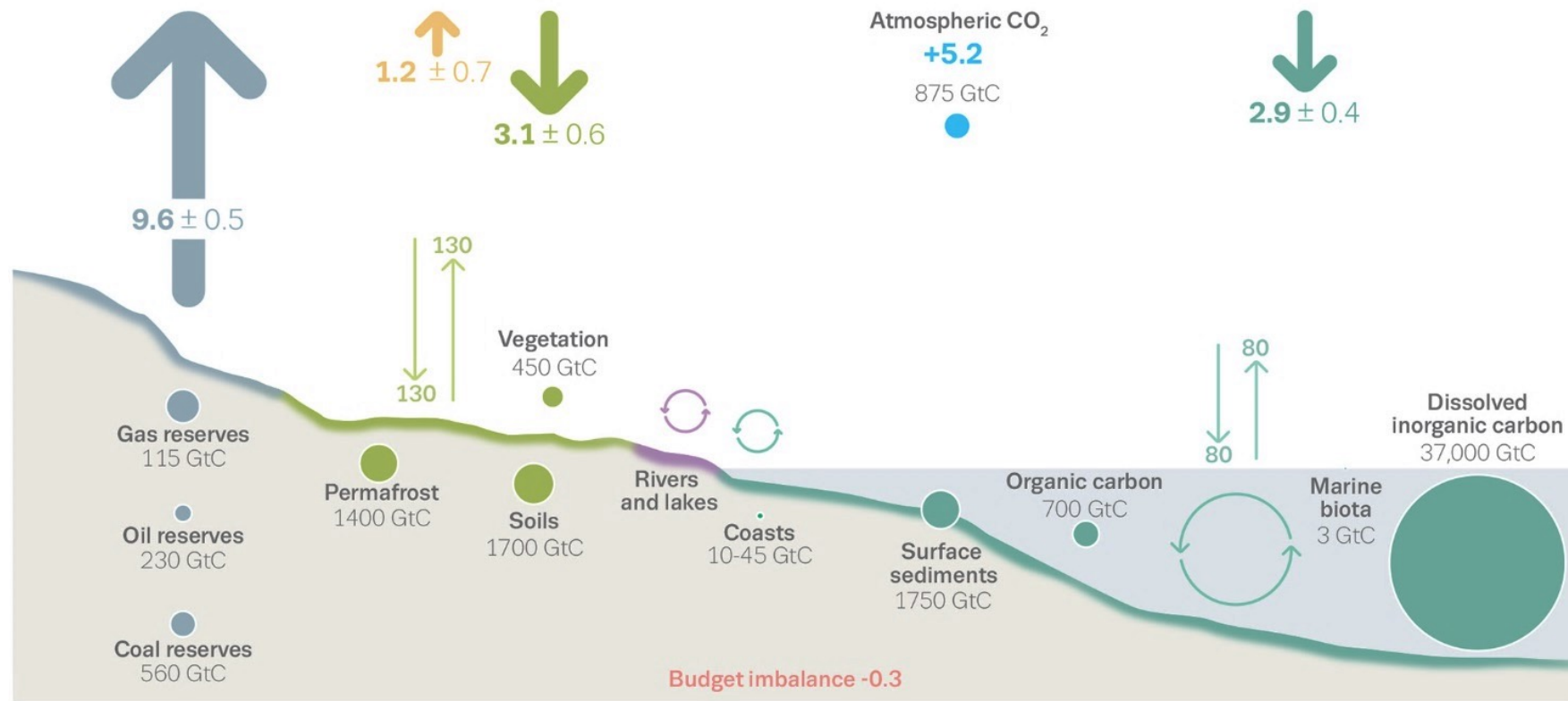
# CO<sub>2</sub> emissions



# CO<sub>2</sub> accumulation in the atmosphere



# Global CO<sub>2</sub> cycle



Anthropogenic fluxes 2012-2021 average GtC per year

- Fossil CO<sub>2</sub> E<sub>FOS</sub>
- Land-use change E<sub>LUC</sub>
- Carbon cycling GtC per year
- Atmospheric increase G<sub>ATM</sub>
- Land uptake S<sub>LAND</sub>
- Ocean uptake S<sub>OCEAN</sub>
- Stocks GtC
- Budget Imbalance B<sub>IM</sub>

# Global carbon pools

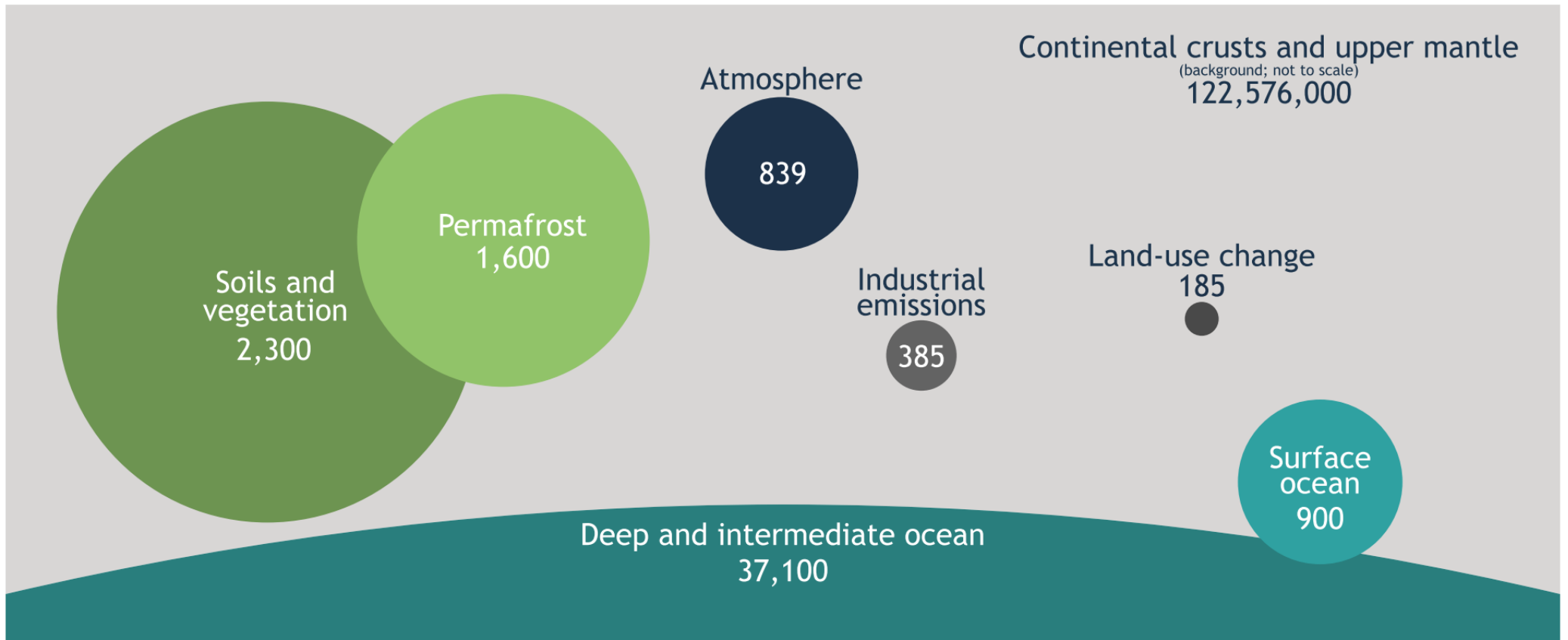


Figure 1. Global carbon stocks (carbon stored in pools), shown in gigatons.

## Carbon pools in forests

Biome	Area (10 <sup>6</sup> km <sup>2</sup> )	Global Carbon Stocks (Gt C)			NPP (t C ha <sup>-1</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> )
		Vegetation	Soils	Total	
Tropical forests	17.6	212	216	428	11.0 (5.0-17.5)
Temperate forests	10.4	59	100	159	6.3 (2.0-12.5)
Boreal forests	13.7	88	471	559	4.0 (1.0-7.5)
Tropical savannas	22.5	66	264	330	4.5 (1.0-10.0)
Temperate grasslands	12.5	9	295	304	3.0 (1.0-7.5)
Deserts & semideserts	30.0	8	191	199	0.05 (0.0-0.1)
Tundra	9.5	6	121	127	0.1 (0.0-0.4)
Wetlands	3.5	15	225	240	0.9 (0.1-3.9)
Croplands	16.0	3	128	131	1.6 (0.2-3.9)
<b>Total</b>	<b>135.6</b>	<b>466</b>	<b>2011</b>	<b>2477</b>	

Global terrestrial organic carbon stock (soil + vegetation)	Forests	Rest of terrestrial biomes
	46%	54%

Global terrestrial NPP*	65%	35%
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\*net primary production

# Carbon pools in forests

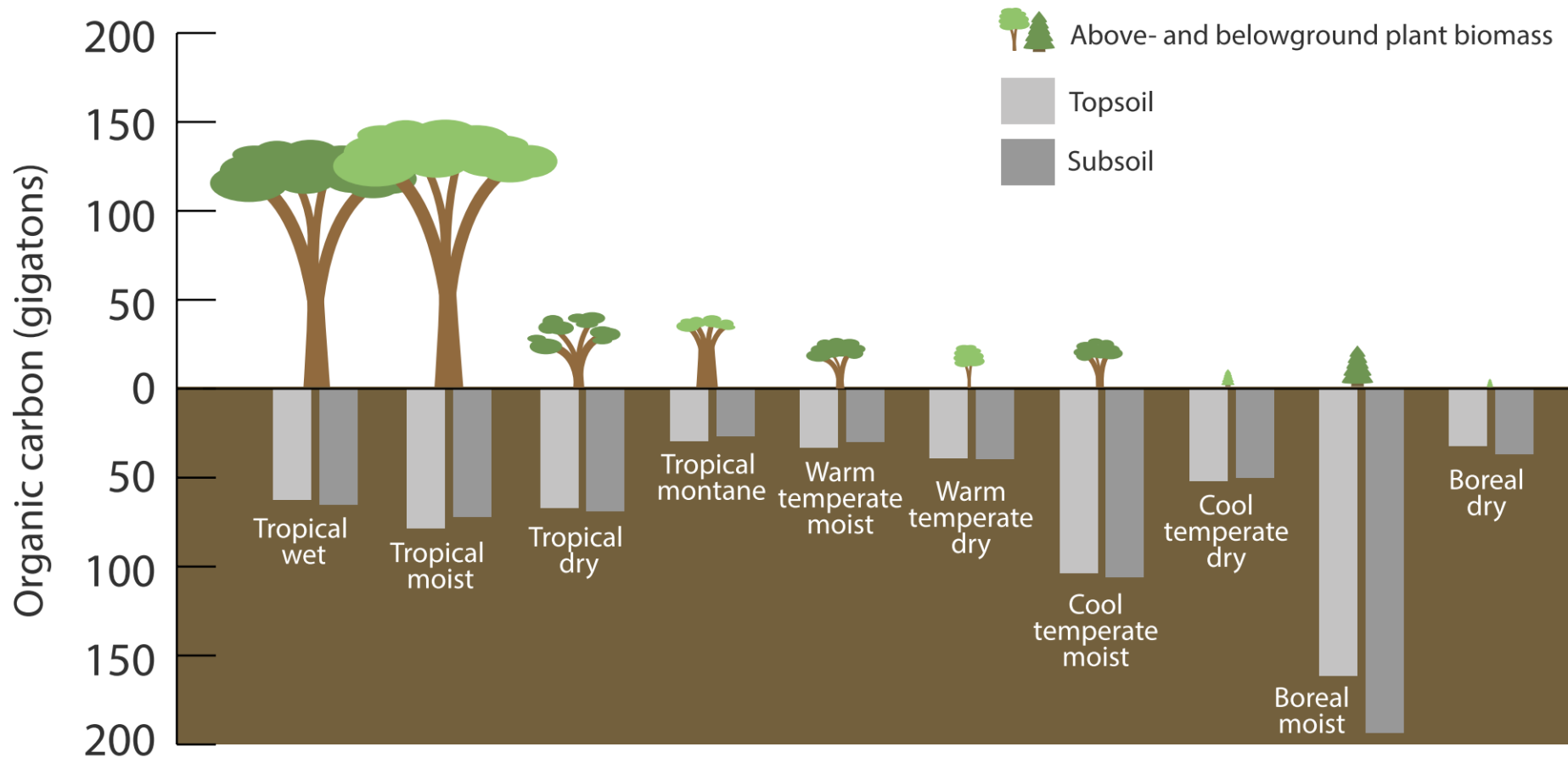


Figure 2. Carbon stored in ecosystems, shown in gigatons. Data from Scharlemann et al. (2014).

# Global carbon fluxes

- CO<sub>2</sub> moves from the atmosphere to land through photosynthesis.
- CO<sub>2</sub> moves from land back to the atmosphere through plant and soil respiration, litter decomposition, and fires.
- Fluxes are typically small compared to carbon stocks
- Small shifts in global fluxes have a profound effect on the global carbon cycle (e.g. climate change)

Land ecosystems are absorbing ca. 25–30% of the annual anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions

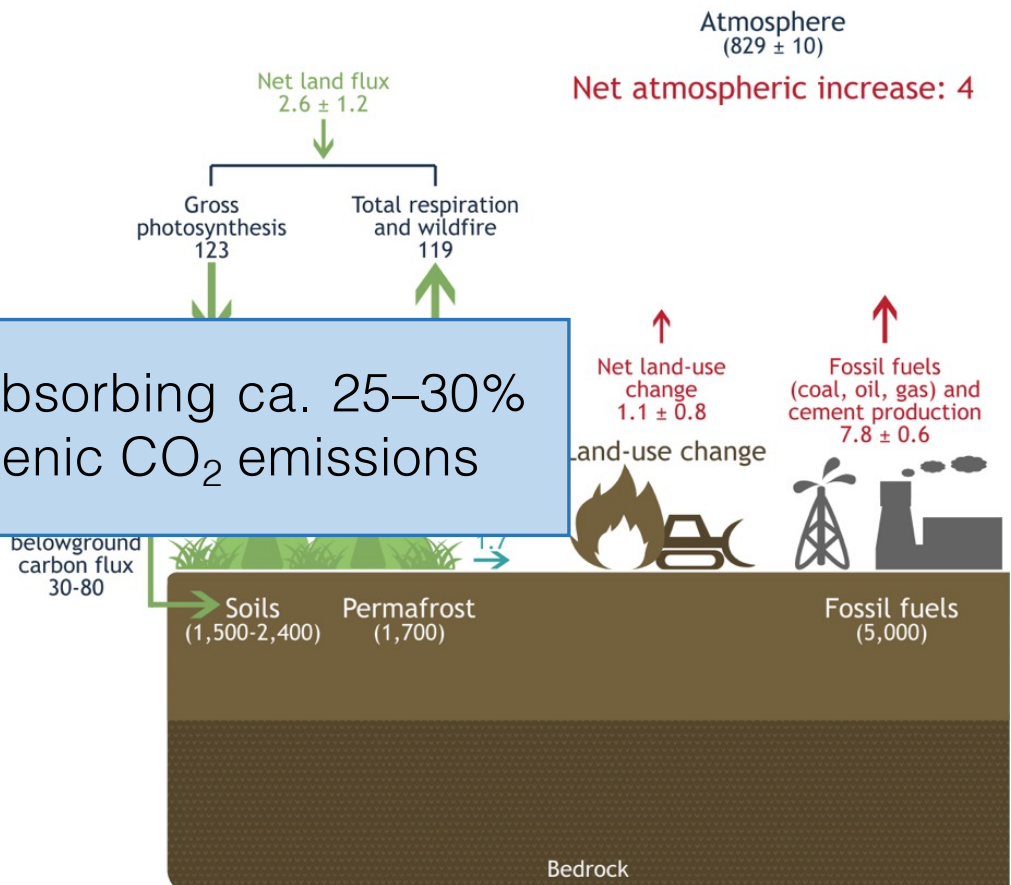


Figure 4. Global carbon cycle. Carbon (Gt C) stocks are denoted in parentheses and shown year) are associated with arrows and shown in gigatons per year.

# Forest CO<sub>2</sub> cycle

Carbon uptake (net ecosystem production) by forests varies by forest type:

- Tropical forests have high uptake: 6.6 Mt C per hectare per year
- Temperate forests 4.4 Mt C per hectare per year
- Boreal forests 2.8 Mt C per hectare per year

Difference in fluxes and stocks are due to:

- Temperature and moisture
- Soil nutrient availability
- Forest age: young forests have low net CO<sub>2</sub> uptake, middle- stage stands have the highest net CO<sub>2</sub> uptake

Forests are major contributors to the terrestrial C sink and account for ca. 90% of the terrestrial biomass and about half of terrestrial net ecosystem production

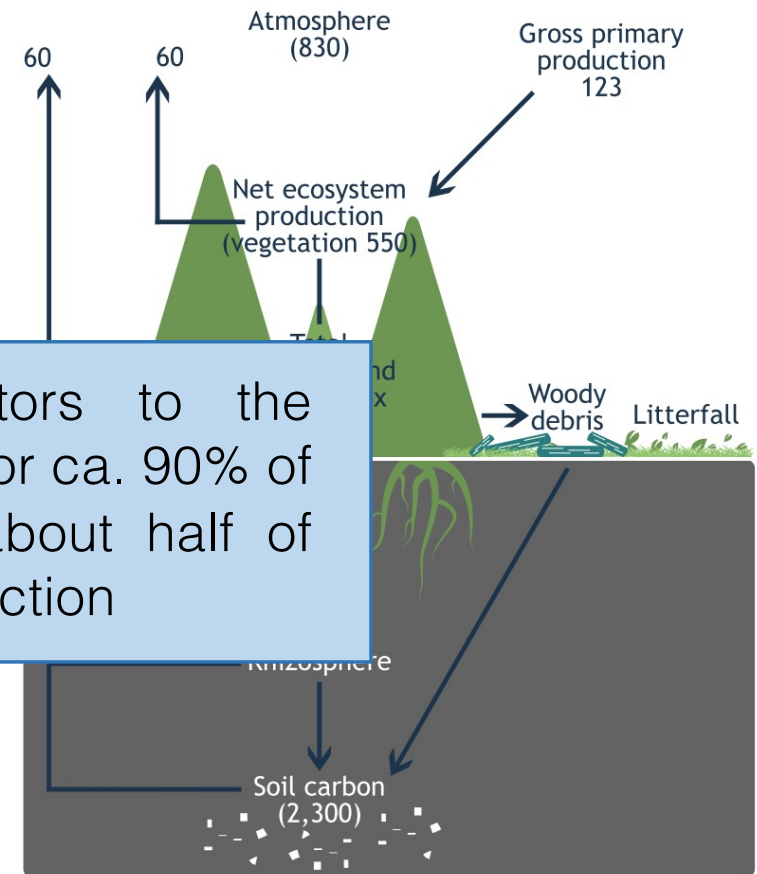
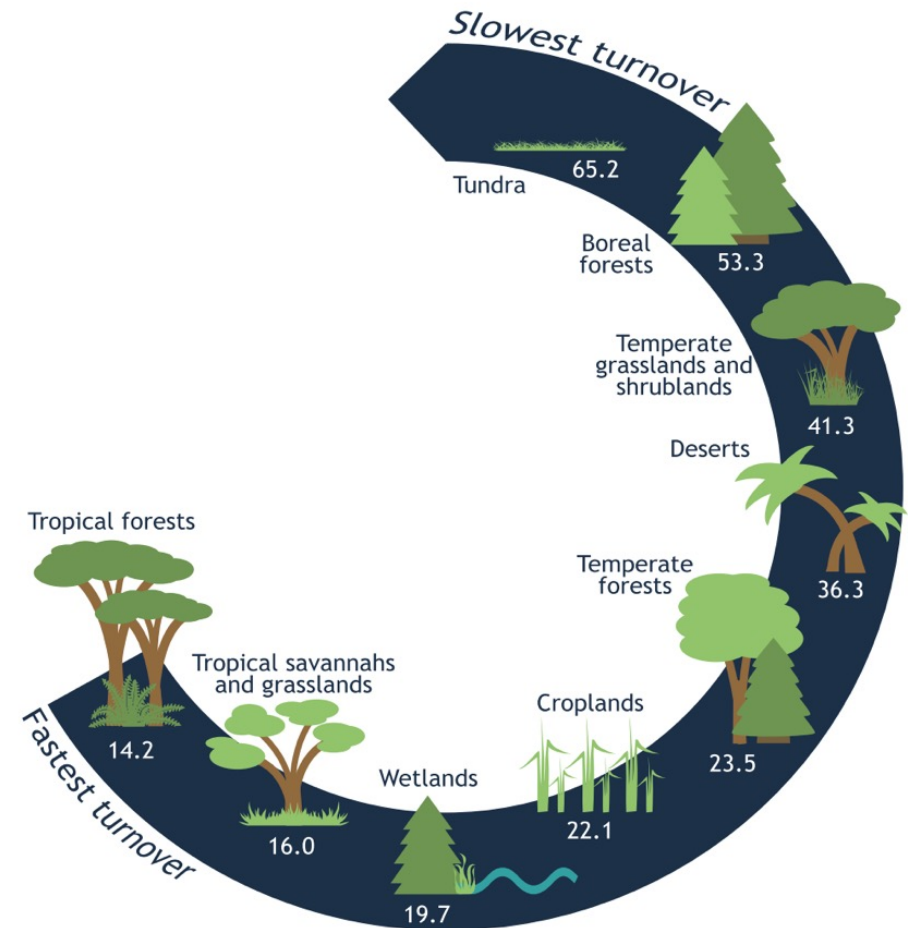


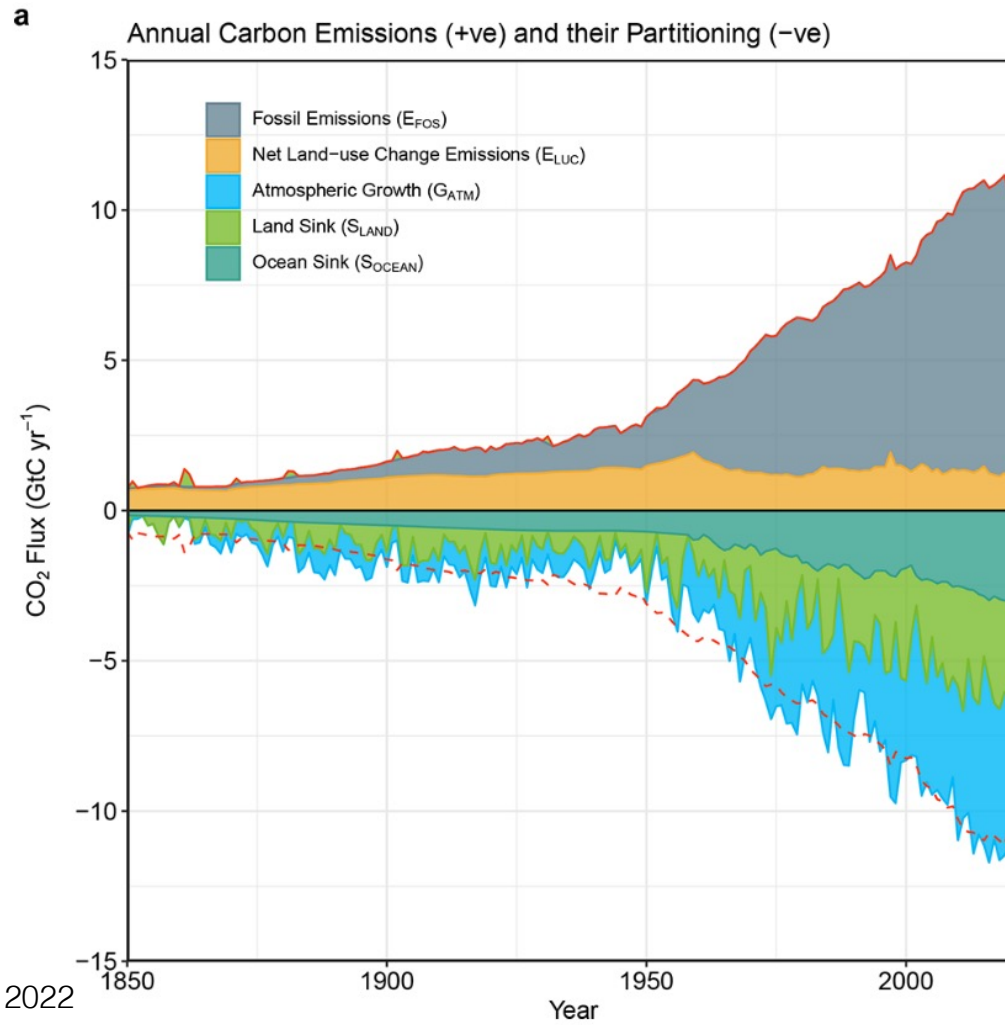
Figure 5. A depiction of the forest carbon cycle including both aboveground and belowground storage and flux terms. Carbon (Gt C) stocks are denoted in parentheses and shown in gigatons. Fluxes (Gt C per year) are associated with arrows and shown in gigatons per year.

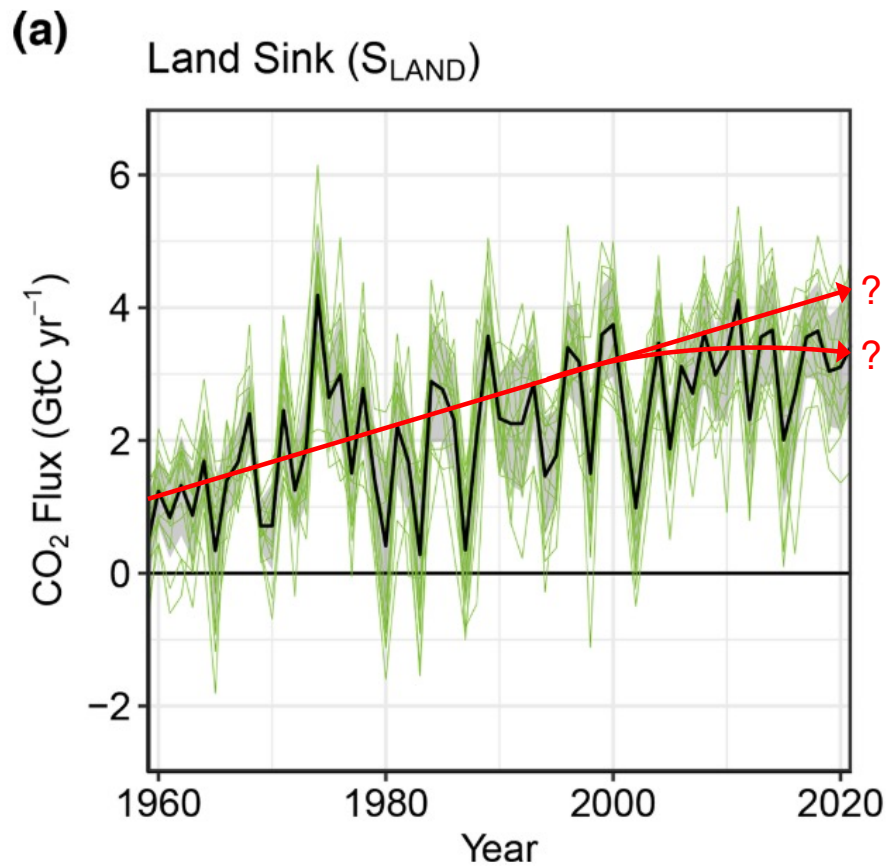
## Turnover rates of forest CO<sub>2</sub>

- **Flux** = Amount of carbon that enters or leaves a stock
- **Turnover** = Rate at which carbon flows through a stock
- C turnover depends on climate, soil, vegetation type
- C turnover gives an idea of where it might be most vulnerable to be released as CO<sub>2</sub> to the atmosphere
- Tropical forests contain a lot of aboveground carbon, but it does not stay in the forest very long (turnover: 14 years) due to high decomposition rates and low soil carbon storage
- The biomes with extreme climates or those that are very dry have the longest turnover times (e.g., 66 years on average in tundra ecosystems)



# Global carbon fluxes





- Fertilization of plants by CO<sub>2</sub> and N inputs
- Lengthening of the growing season
- Global burned area has declined over the past decades (with local exceptions)
- The increase in land carbon sink has remained broadly constant over the last 6 decades

# How do we measure CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes?

- Leaf gas exchange measurements:  
CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O fluxes under controlled conditions in a cuvette
- Ecosystem gas exchange measurements:  
"eddy covariance" measurements of CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O



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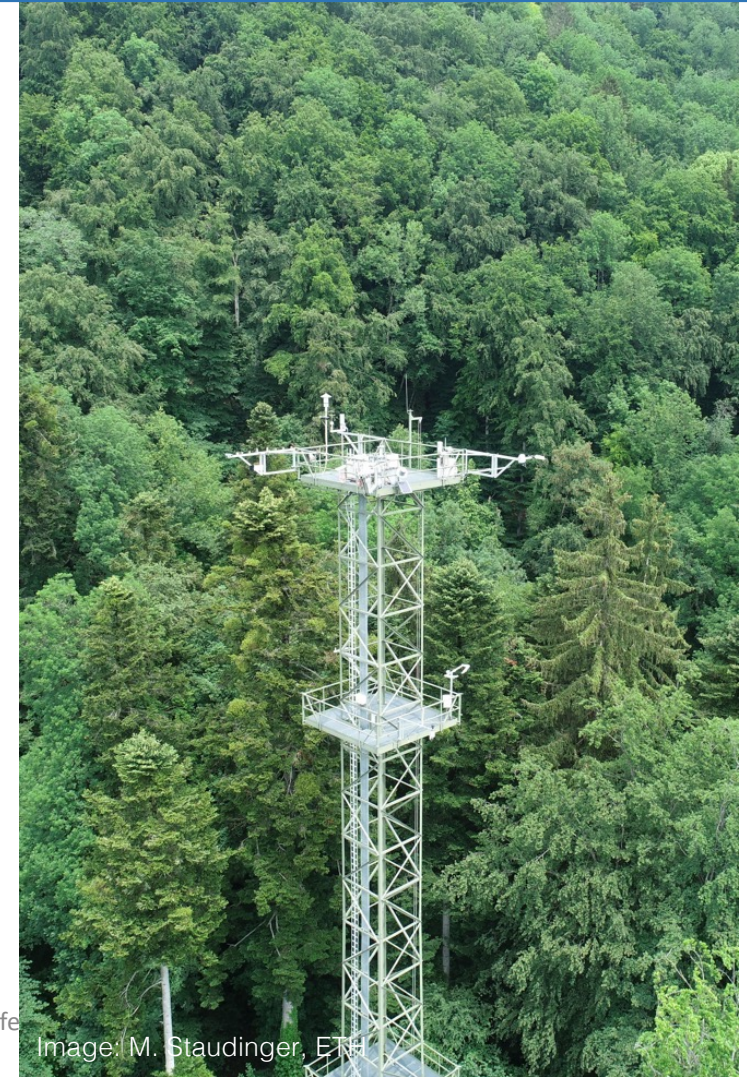
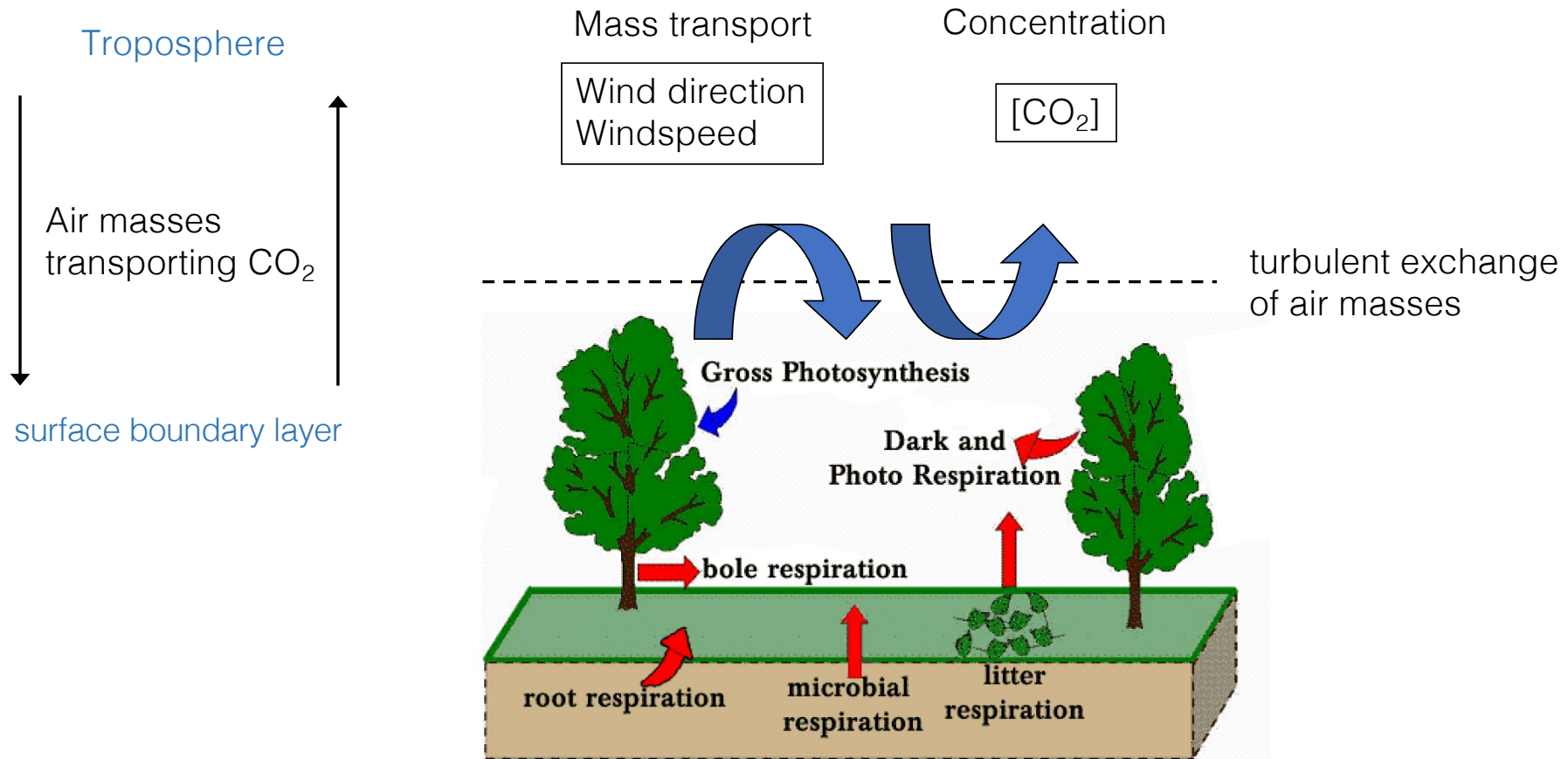


Image: M. Staudinger, EPFL

# Eddy covariance technique



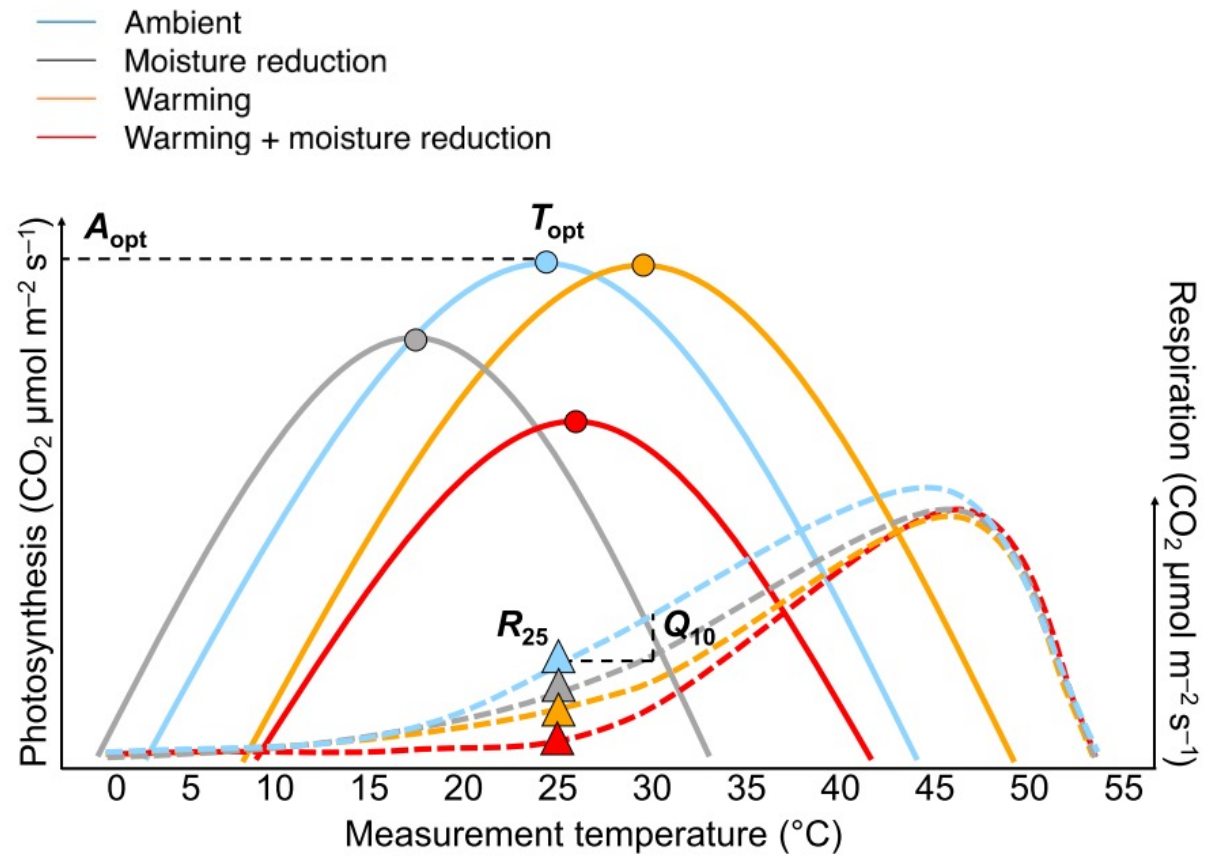
**Figure 6** Flows of Carbon dioxide in and out of an ecosystem

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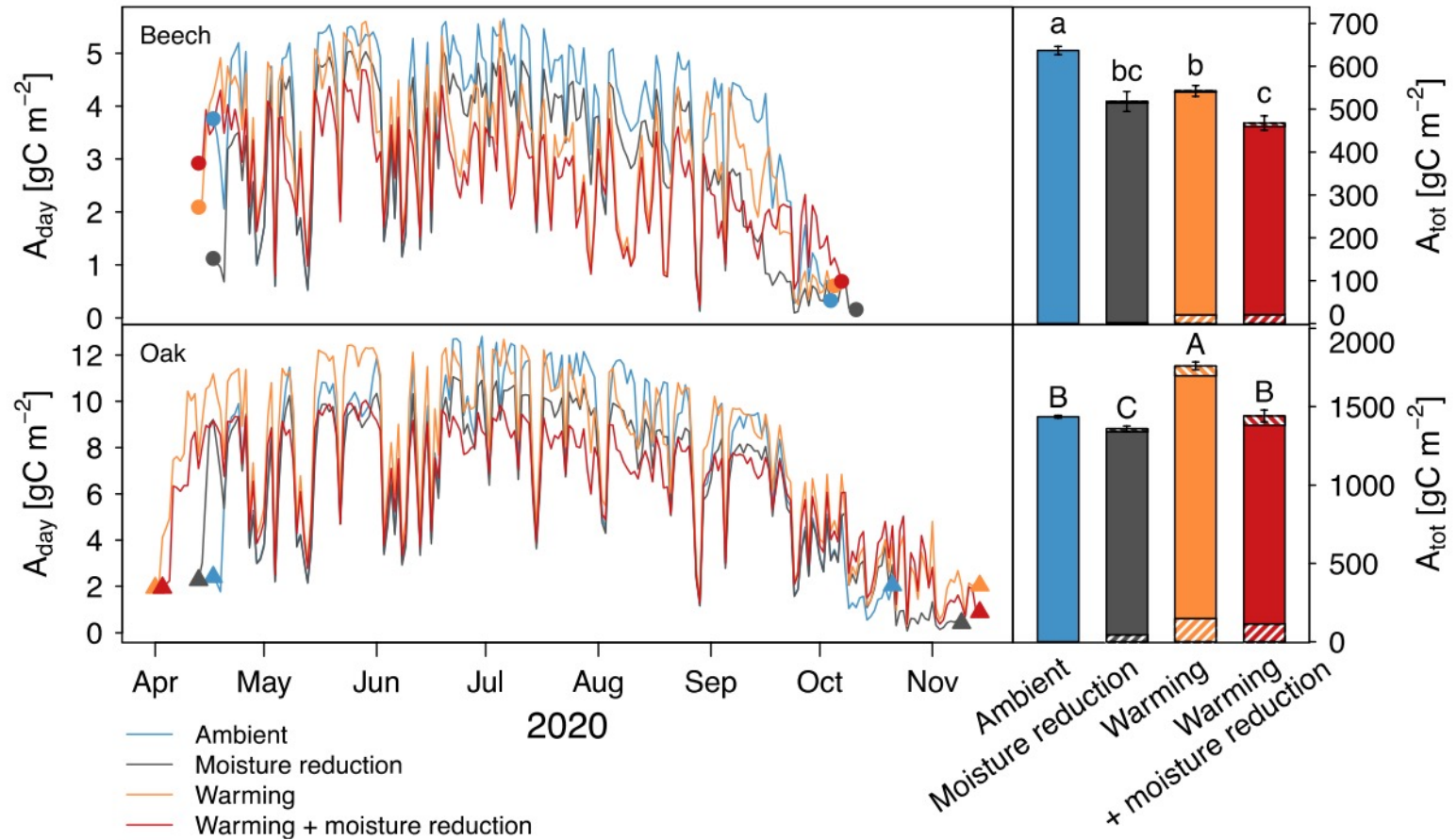
# Controlled greenhouse experiments



# Leaf gas exchange measurements



# Photosynthesis upscaling models

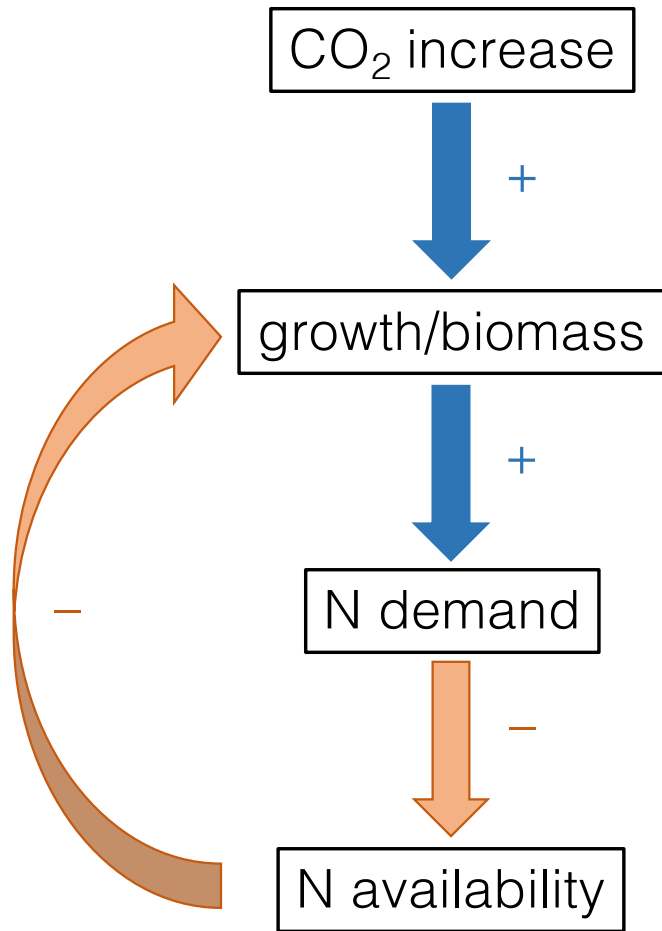


# CO<sub>2</sub> fertilisation: FACE experiment

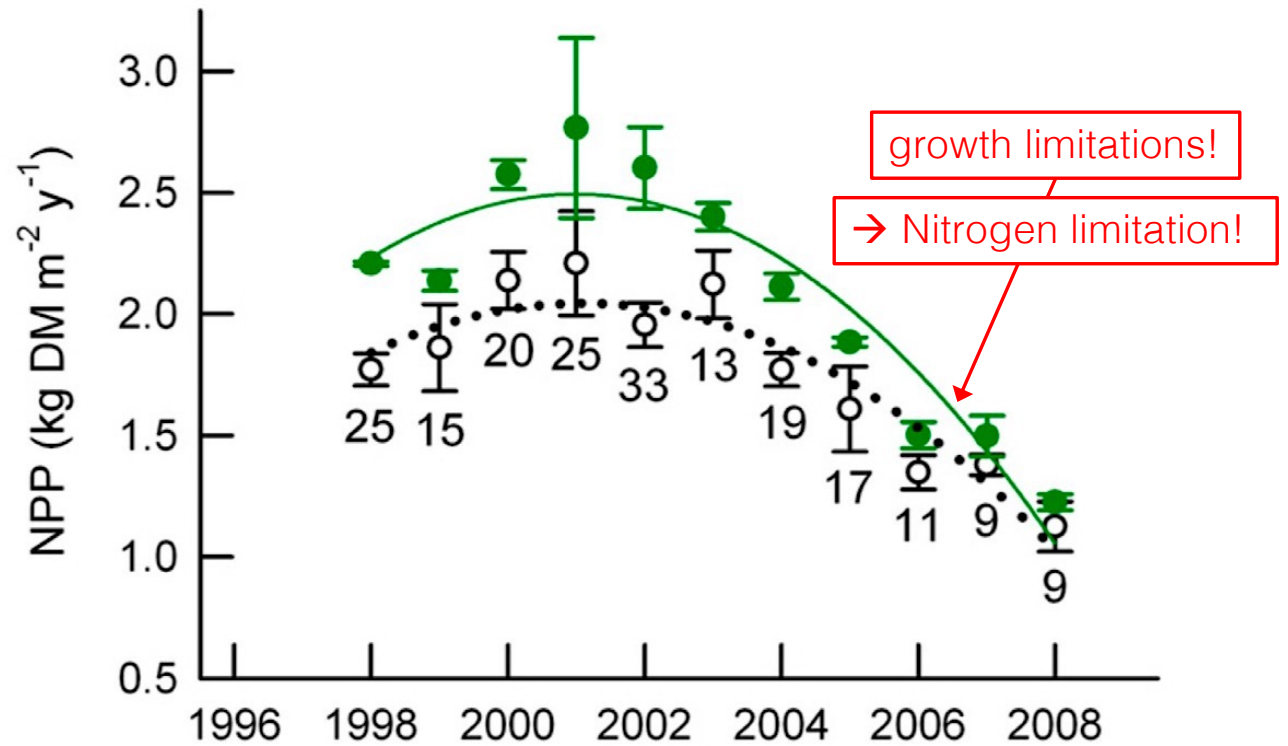
Free-Air CO<sub>2</sub> Enrichment (FACE): 550 ppm elevated CO<sub>2</sub>



# CO<sub>2</sub> fertilisation: FACE experiment



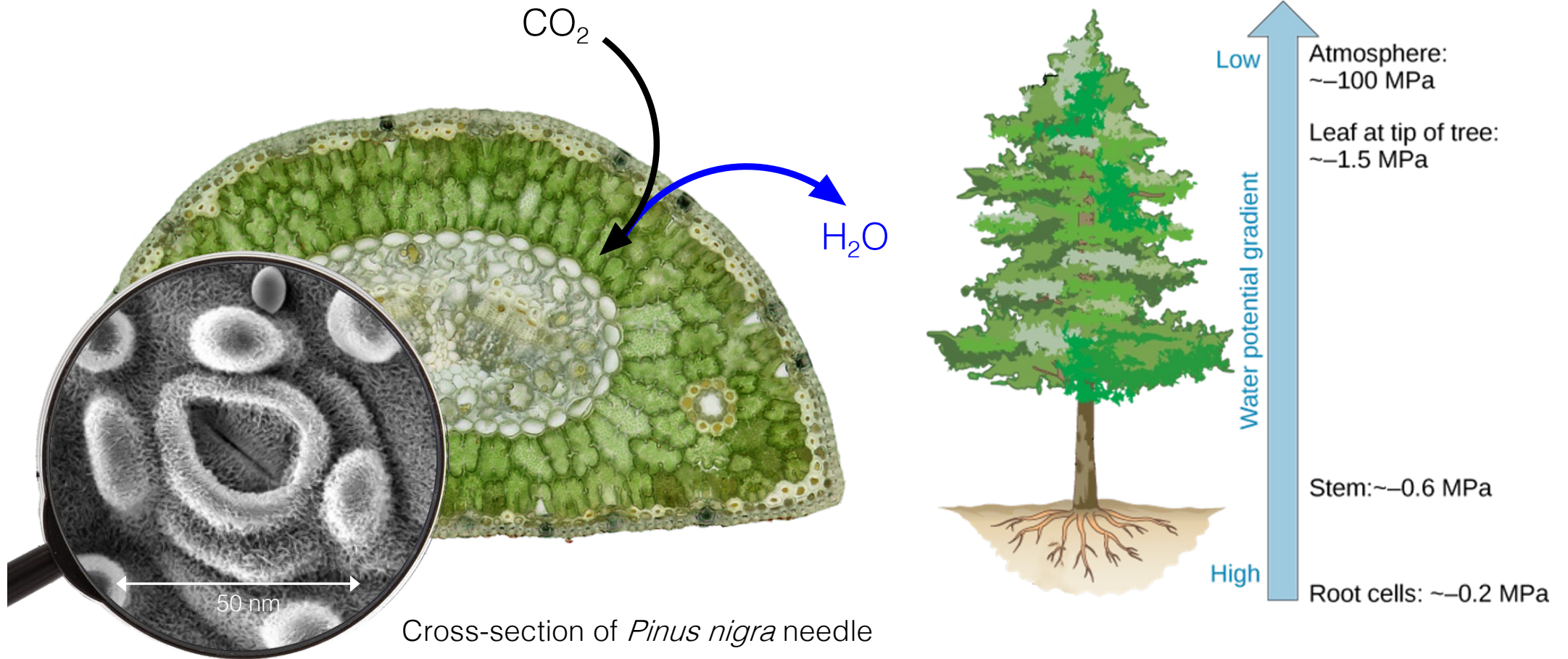
Free-Air CO<sub>2</sub> Enrichment (FACE): 550 ppm elevated CO<sub>2</sub>



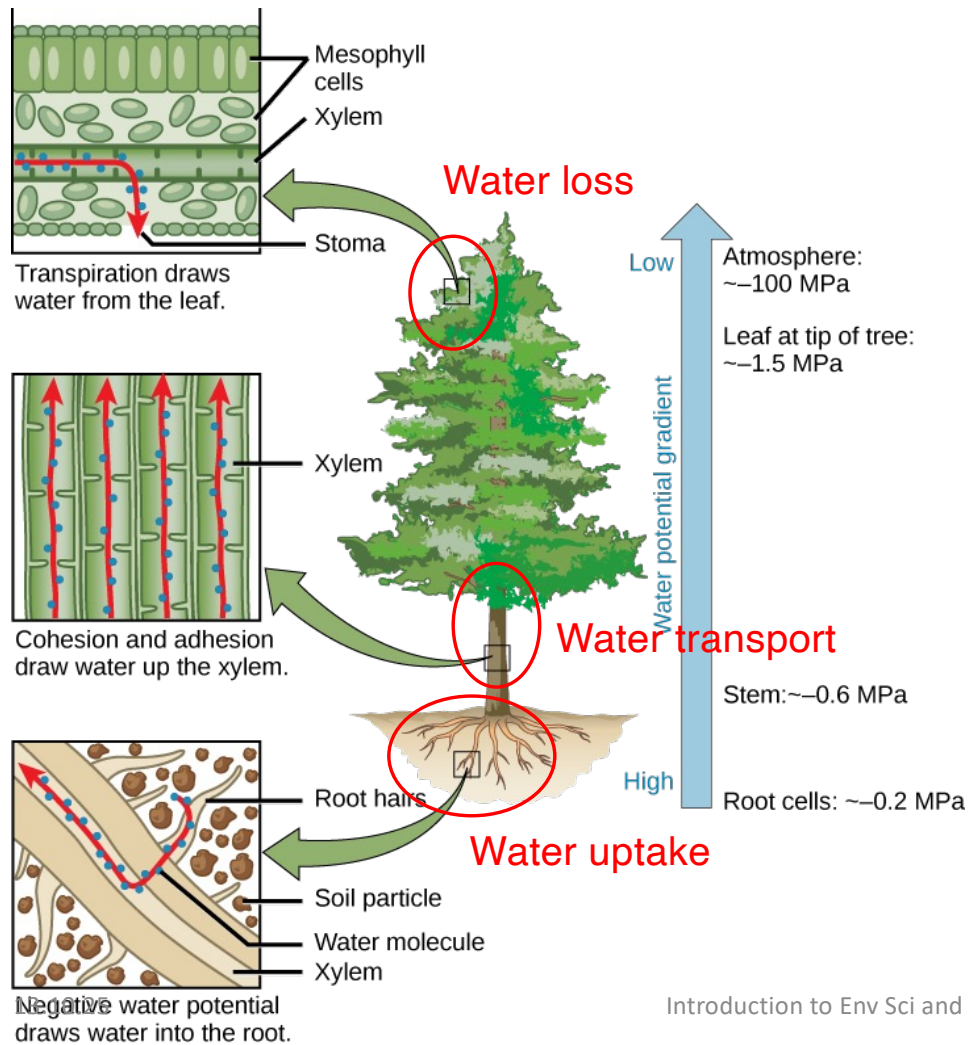
# Water use and transpiration



# Tree water use



# Soil – Plant – Atmosphere continuum



## Cohesion-tension theory of water flow:

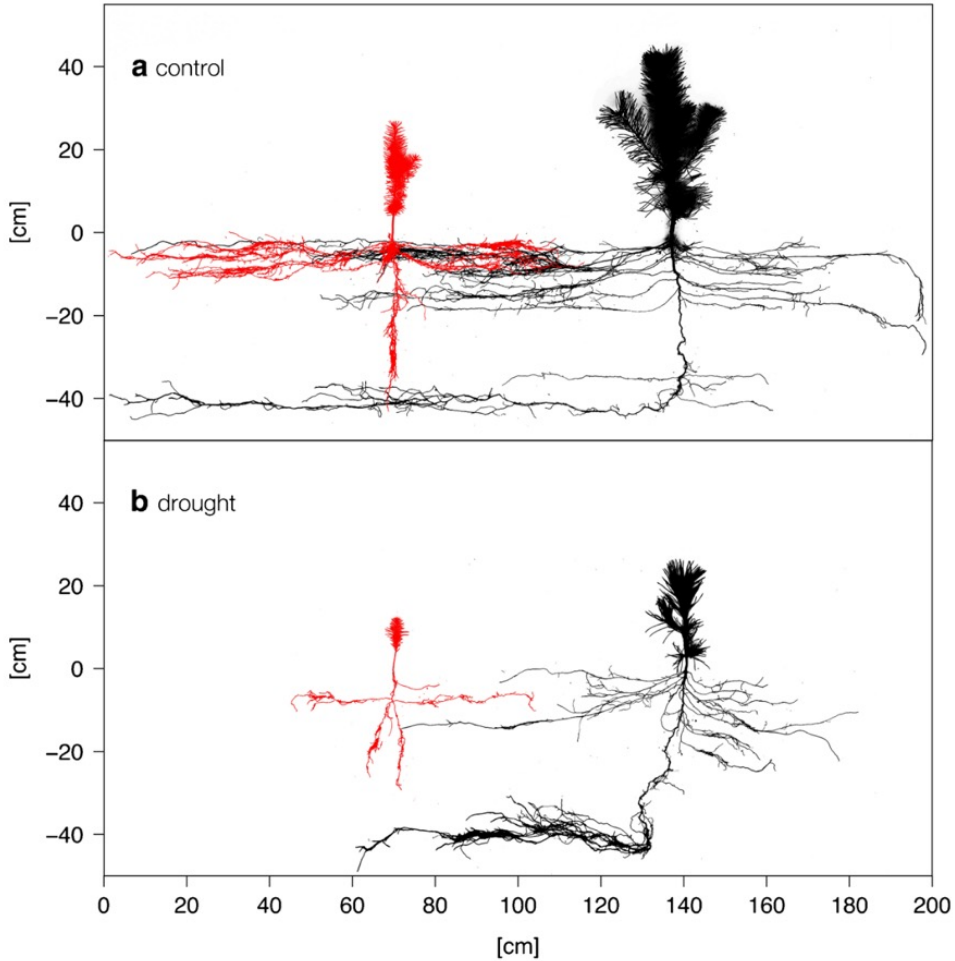
- Evaporation of water at the leaves creates a "negative pressure" (tension) in the plant's cells
- The tension propagates through the water conducting tissues (Xylem)
- At the roots the tension pulls the water out of the soil into the plant
- Dissolved nutrients in the soil (nitrate, ammonium, phosphates, etc.) are taken up with the water and transported to the cells that need them

# Root research is hard!

Dig out plants!

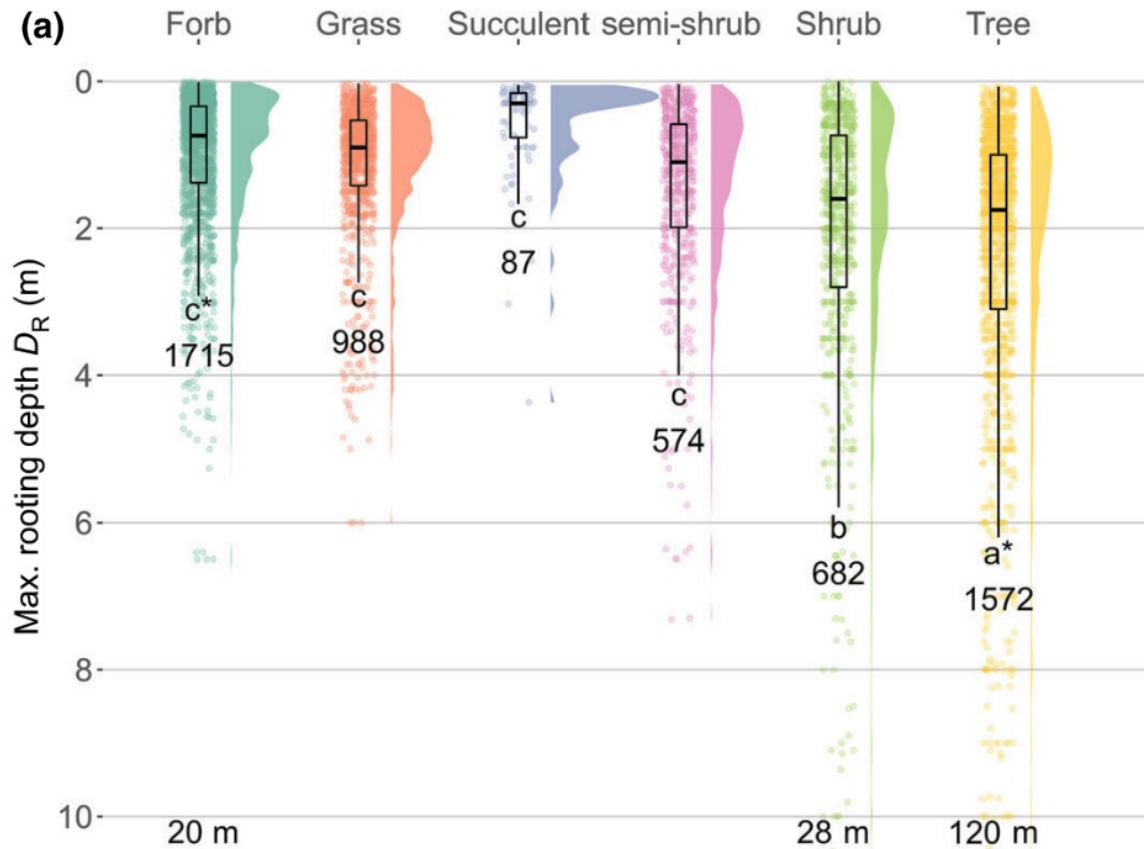


Bachofen et al. 2018



Moser et al. 2016

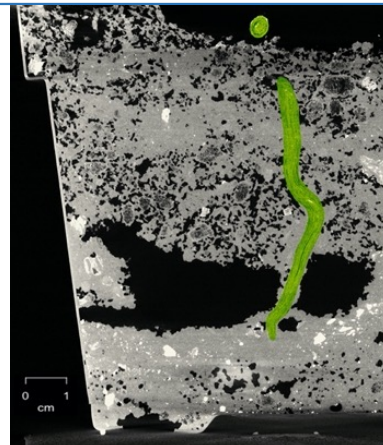
# Tree water uptake: rooting depth



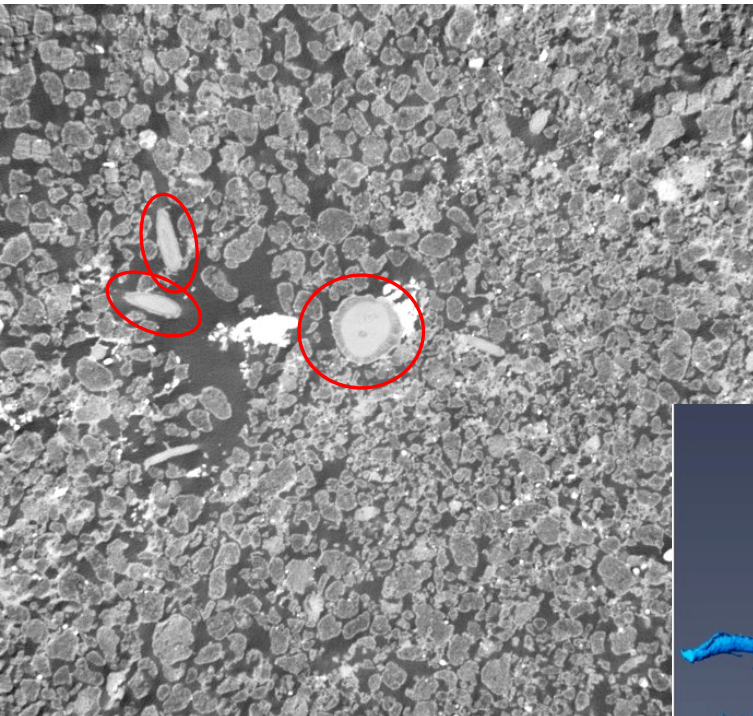
Root distribution is not tree water uptake, because:

- Not all roots found in the soil are physiologically active (take up water).
- Assigning roots to different species is almost impossible. Genetic analyses are very laborious and expensive.

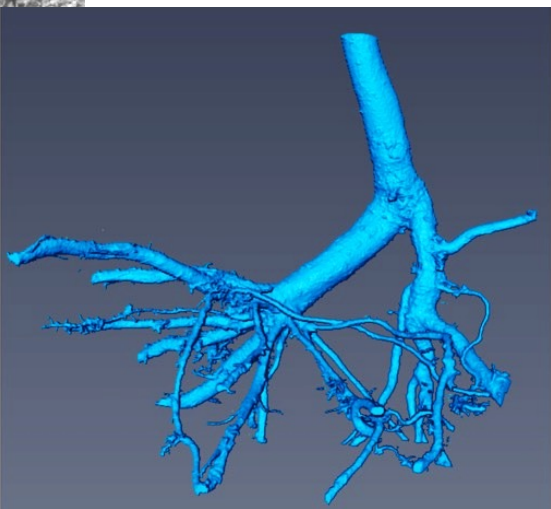
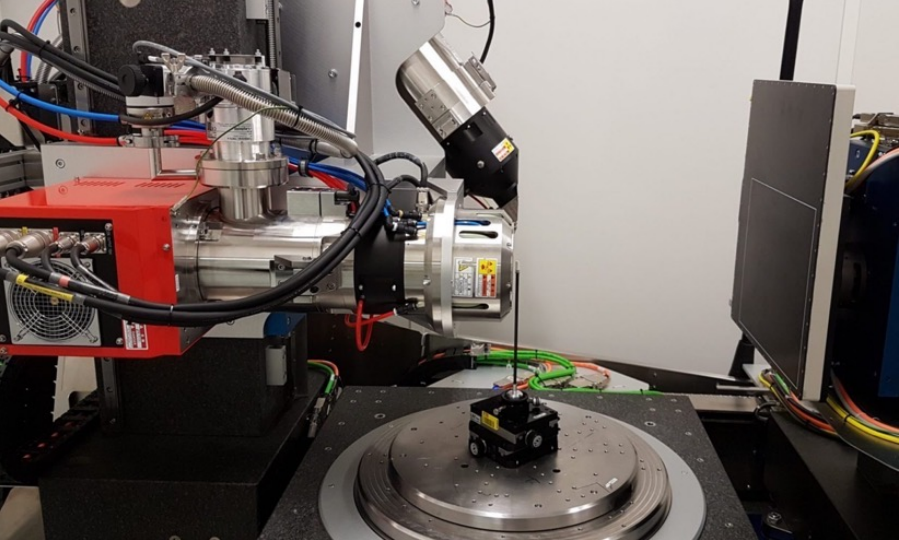
# Root research is hard!



Micro-CT scan (X rays) of a spruce growing in perlite substrate



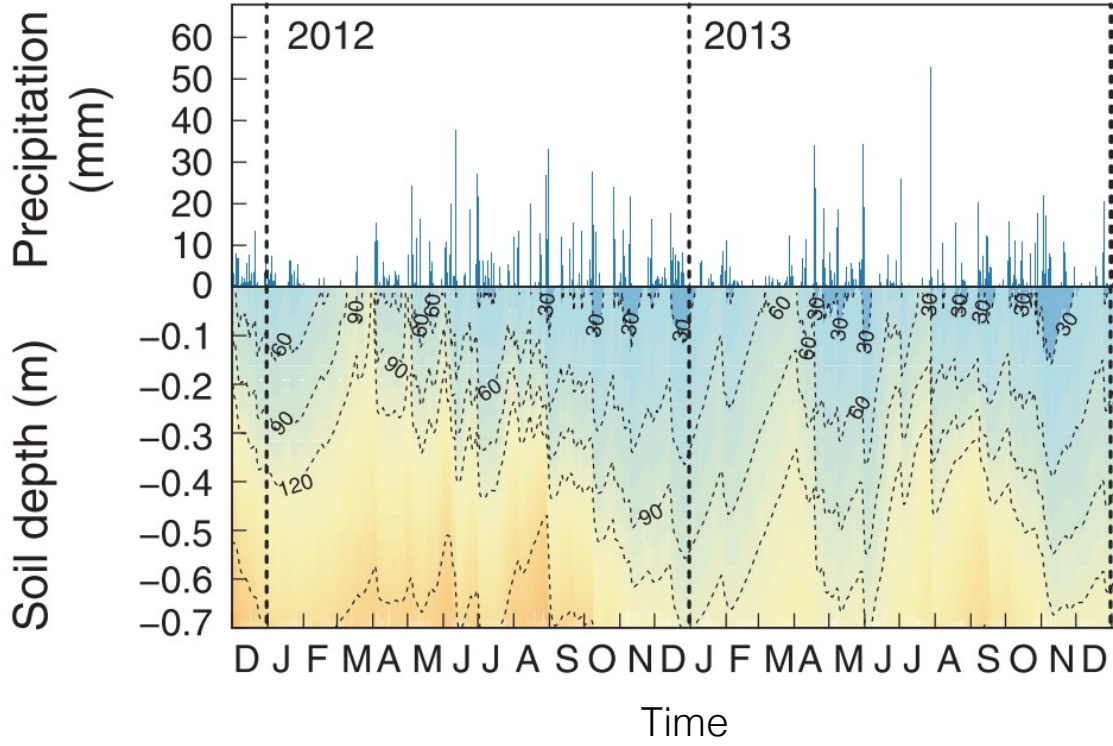
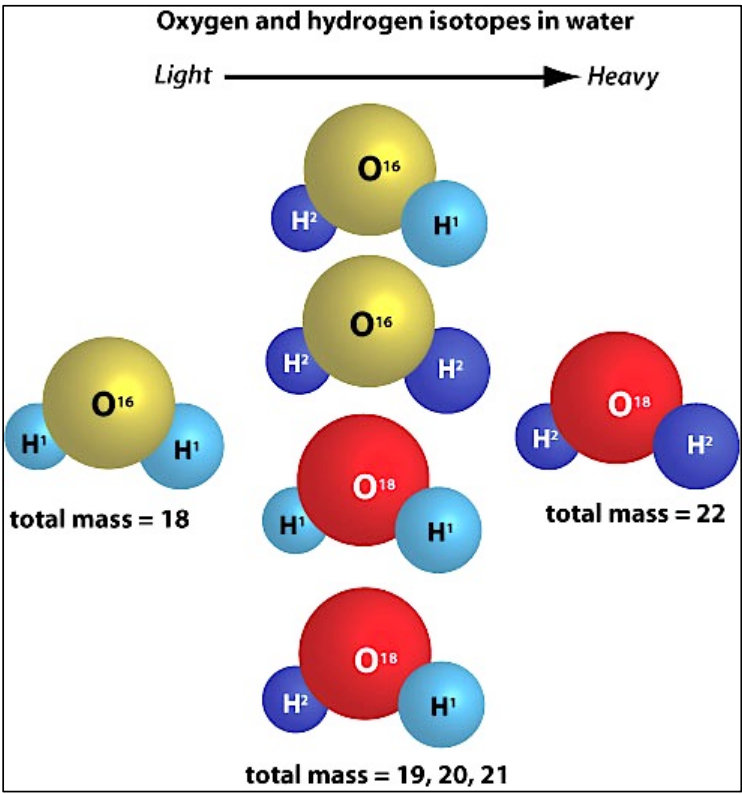
Van der Meer 2020



# Root research is hard!

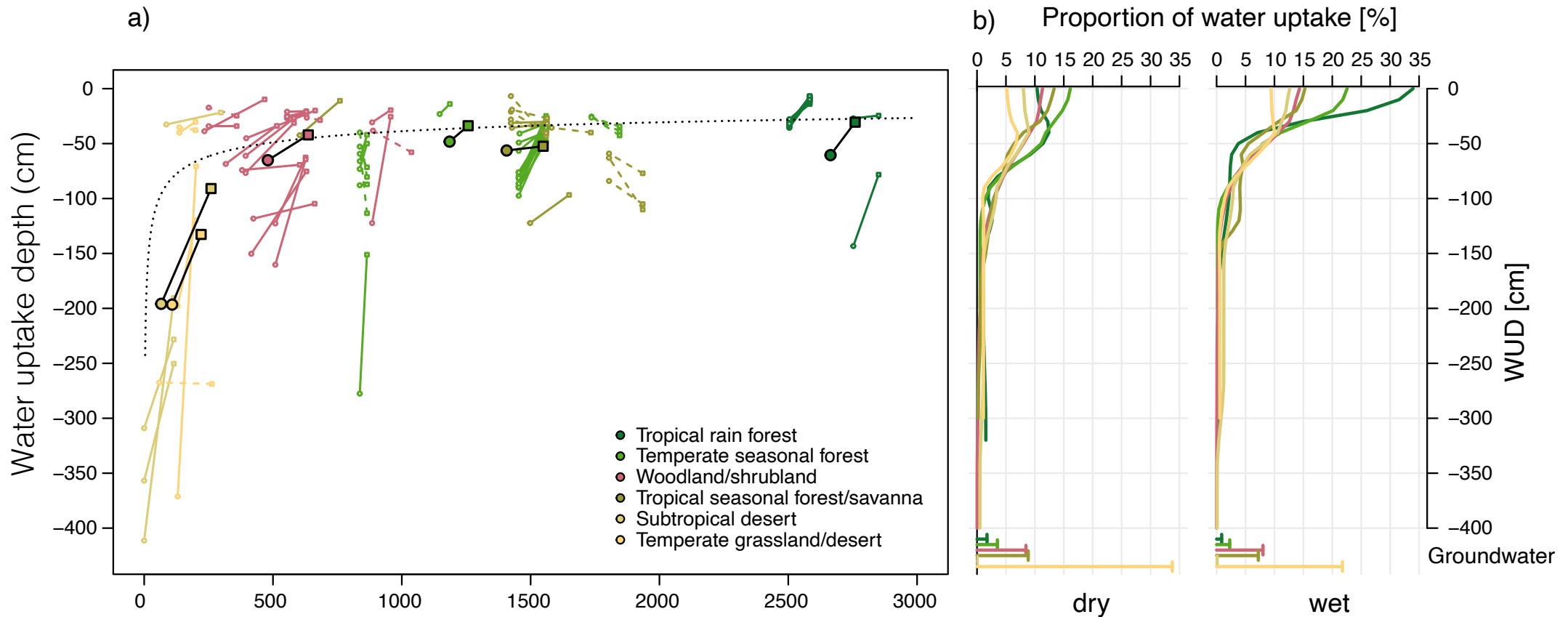


## Soil and plant water isotopic composition



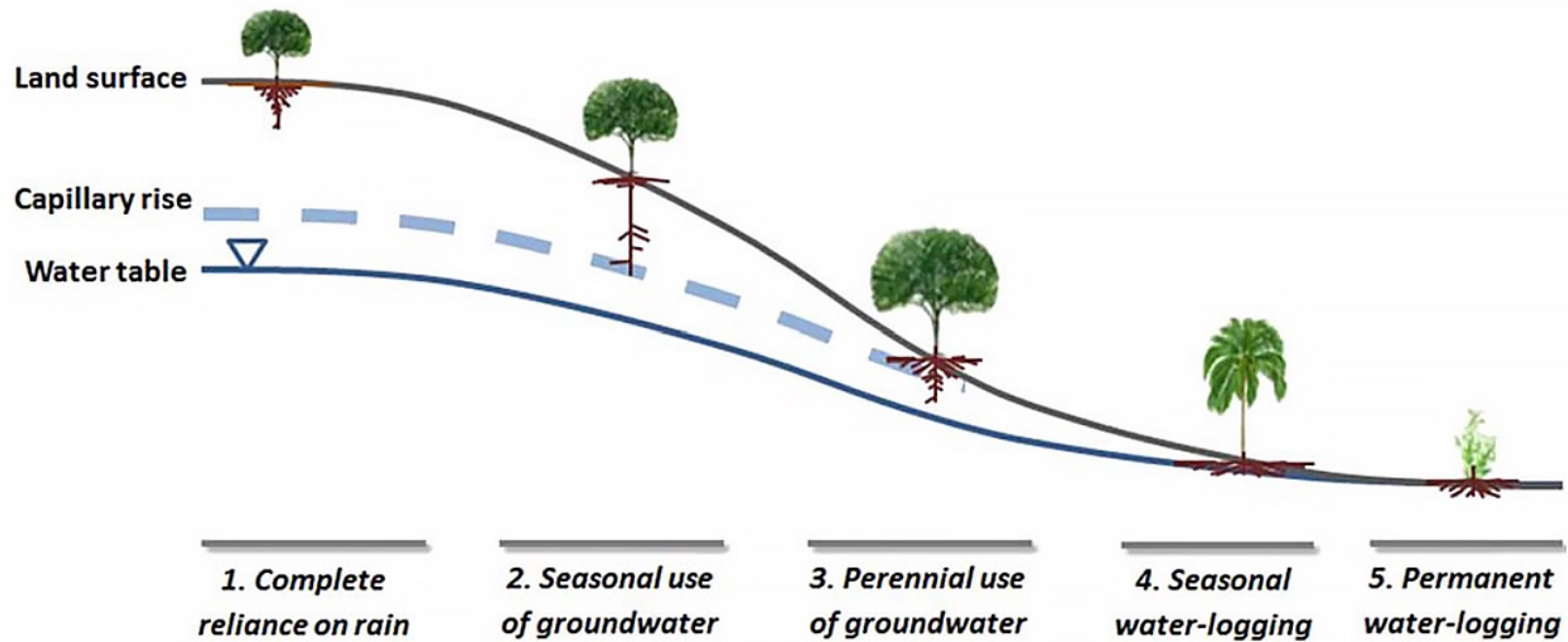
# Global water uptake depth

Trees can switch between shallow and deep-water sources depending on soil water availability



# Water table and rooting depth

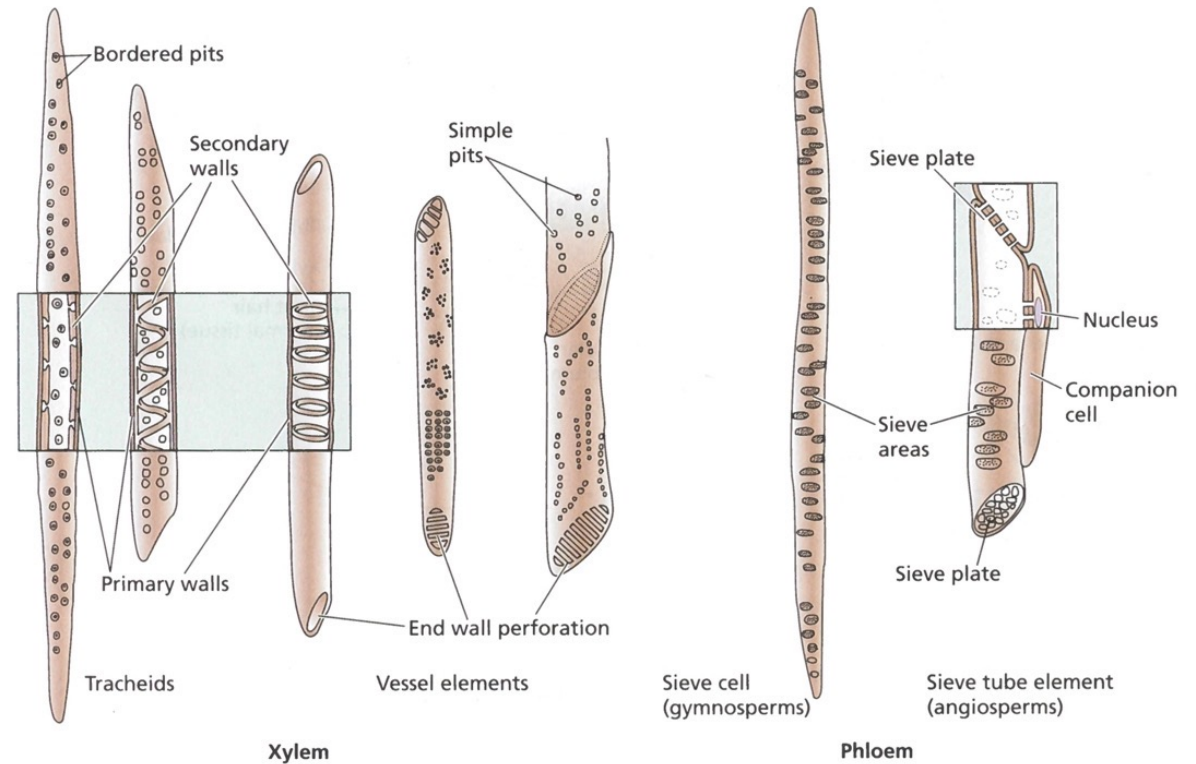
Maximum rooting depths follow the depth of the water table where/when the latter is accessible.



# Water transport in the xylem

- Water transport takes place through specialised cells: xylem
- Increasing tensions in the xylem can lead to formation of **air embolism**, breaking the continuity of water transport

(E) Vascular tissue: xylem and phloem



# Water transport in the xylem

More drought tolerant



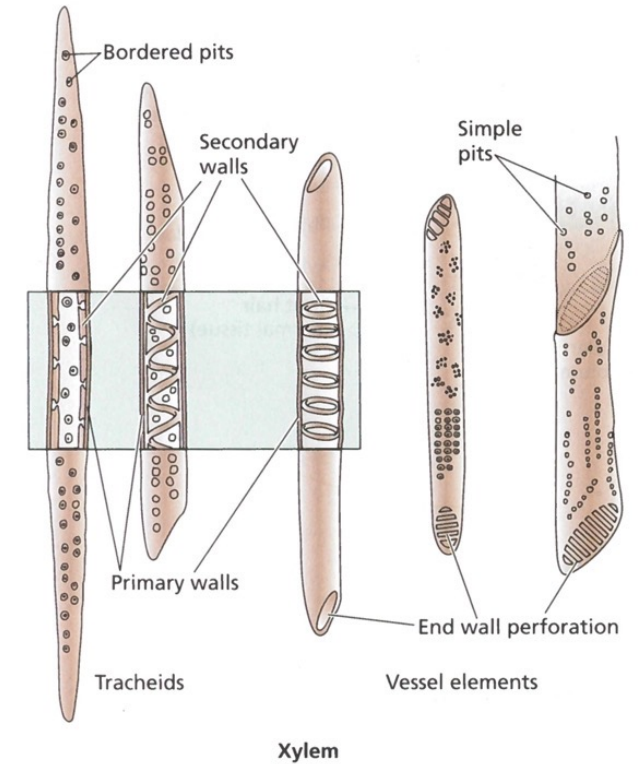
Downy oak

More drought sensitive

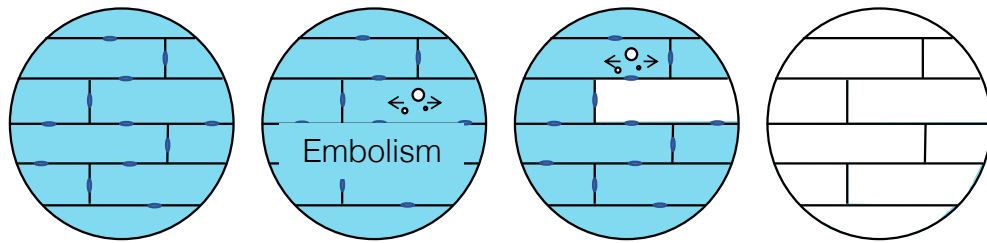


European beech

(E) Vascular tissue: xylem and phloem

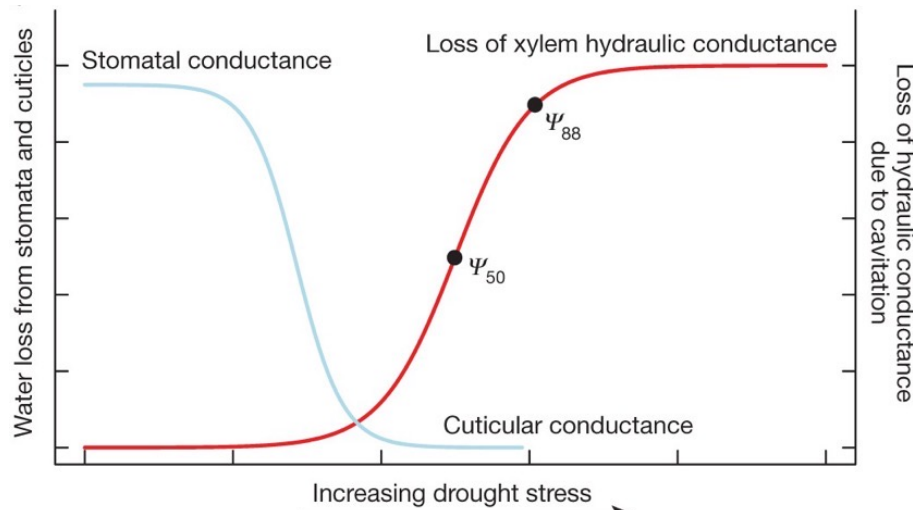


# Air embolism in the xylem



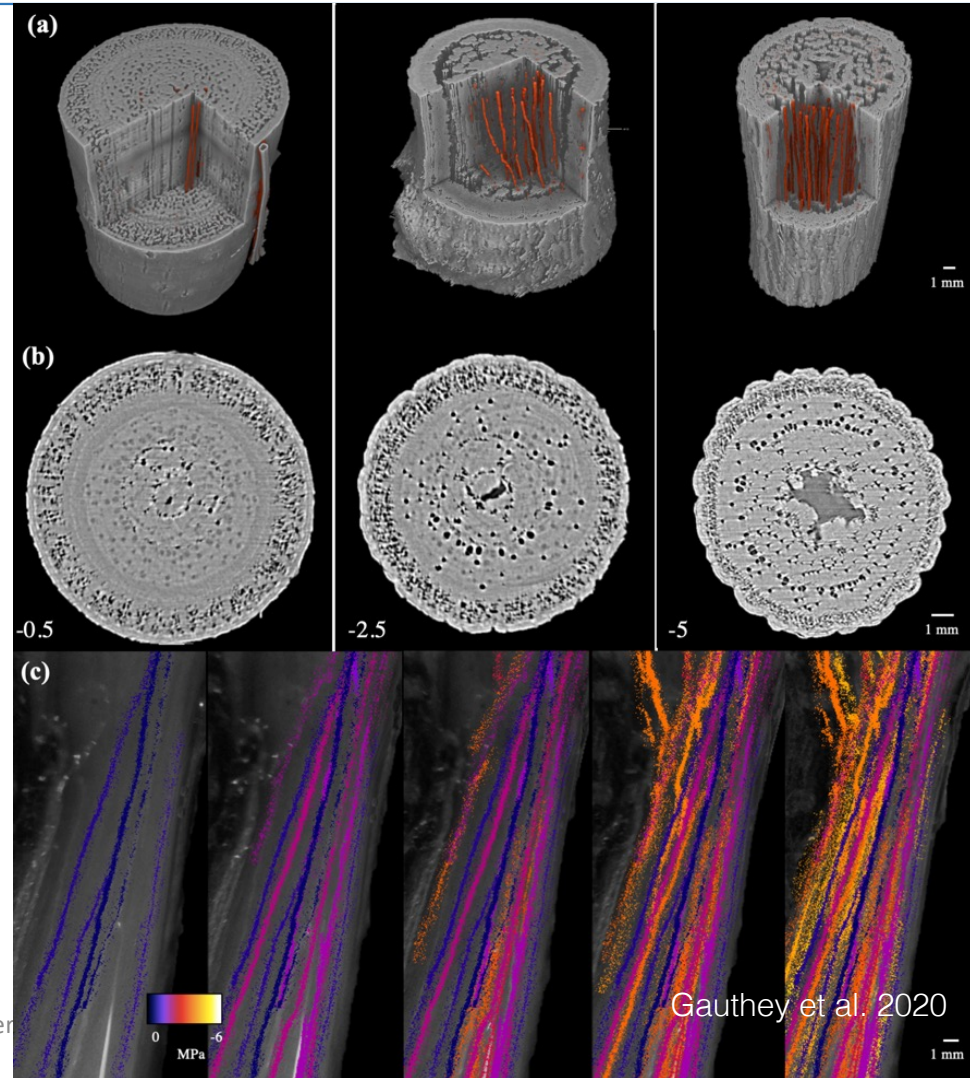
Well watered

Water stressed

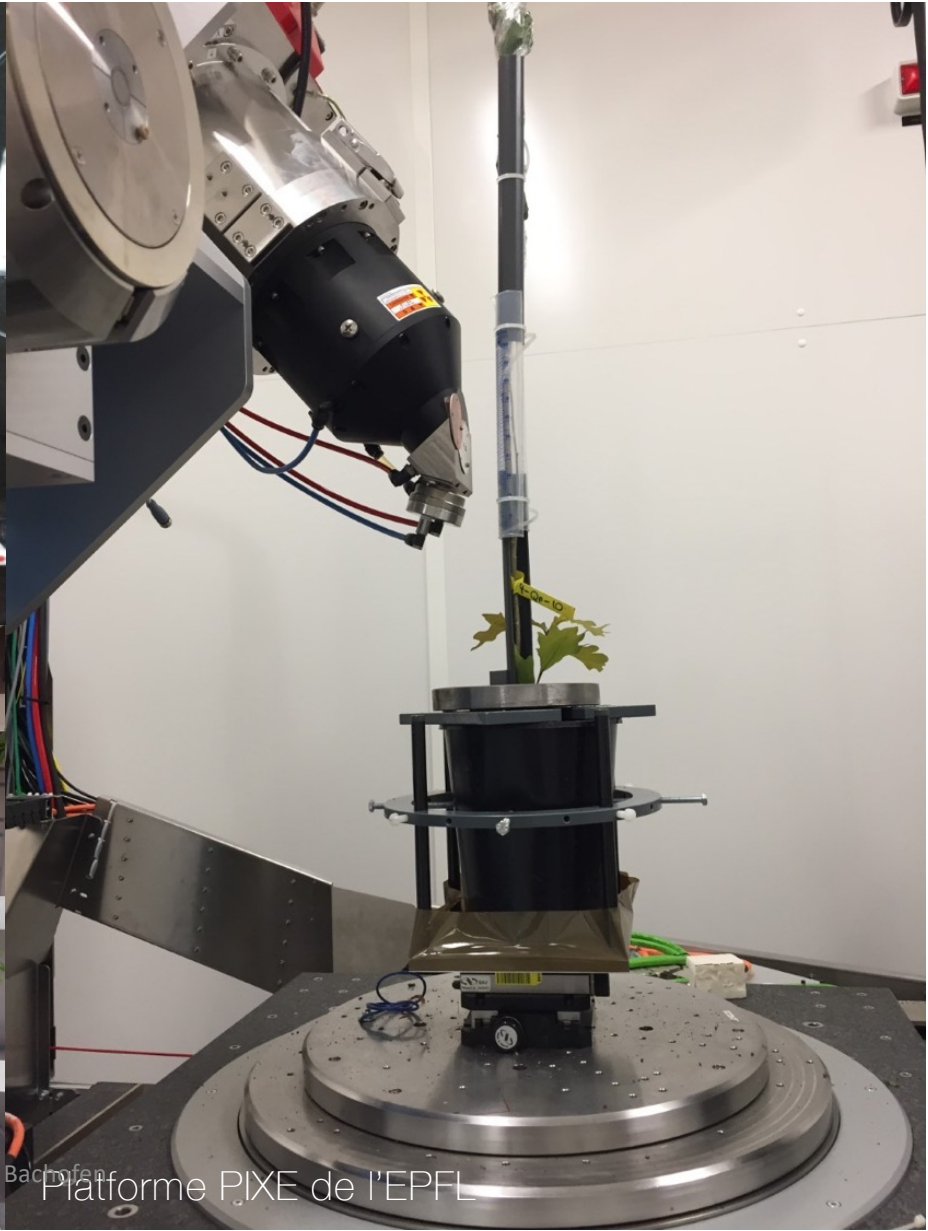


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Gauthey et al. 2020

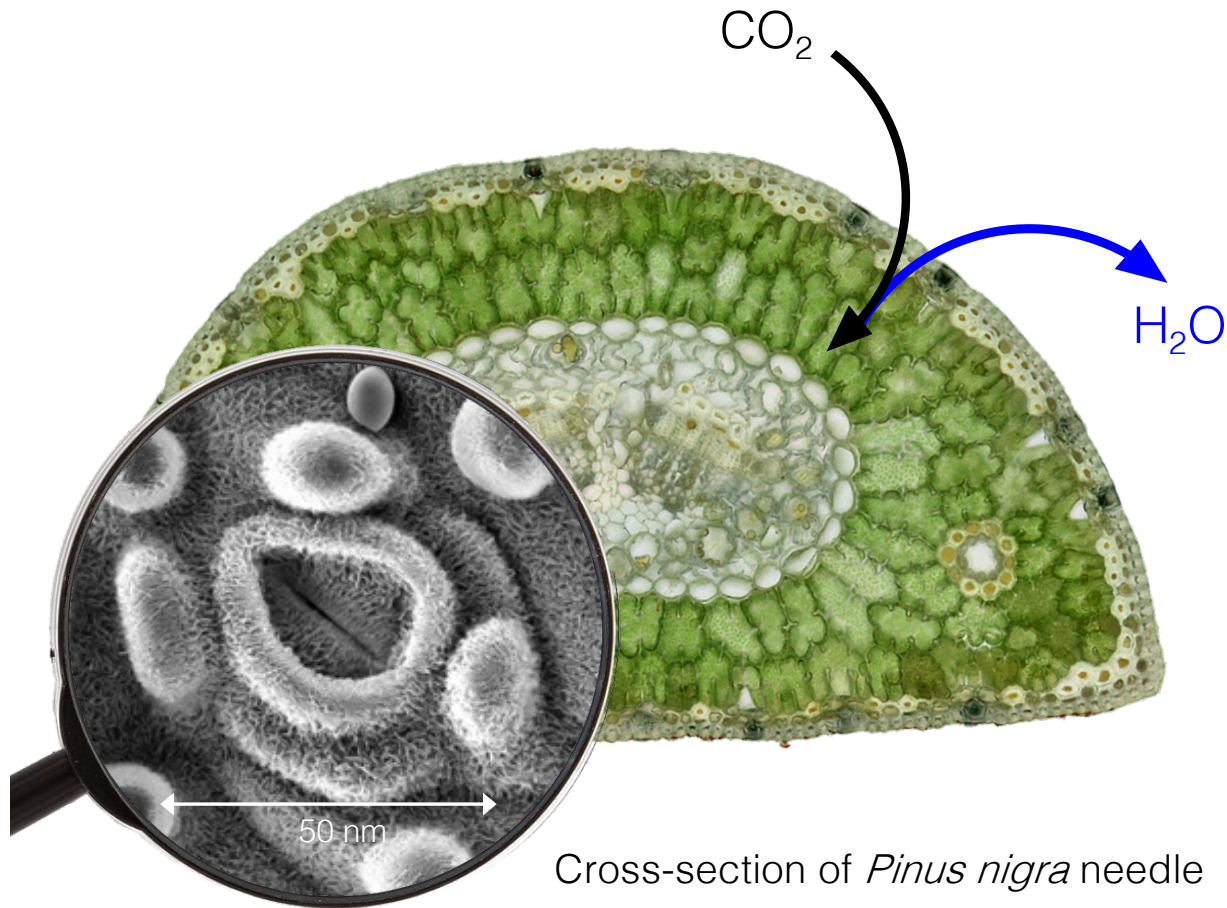


13.10.2

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Plateforme PIXE de l'EPFL

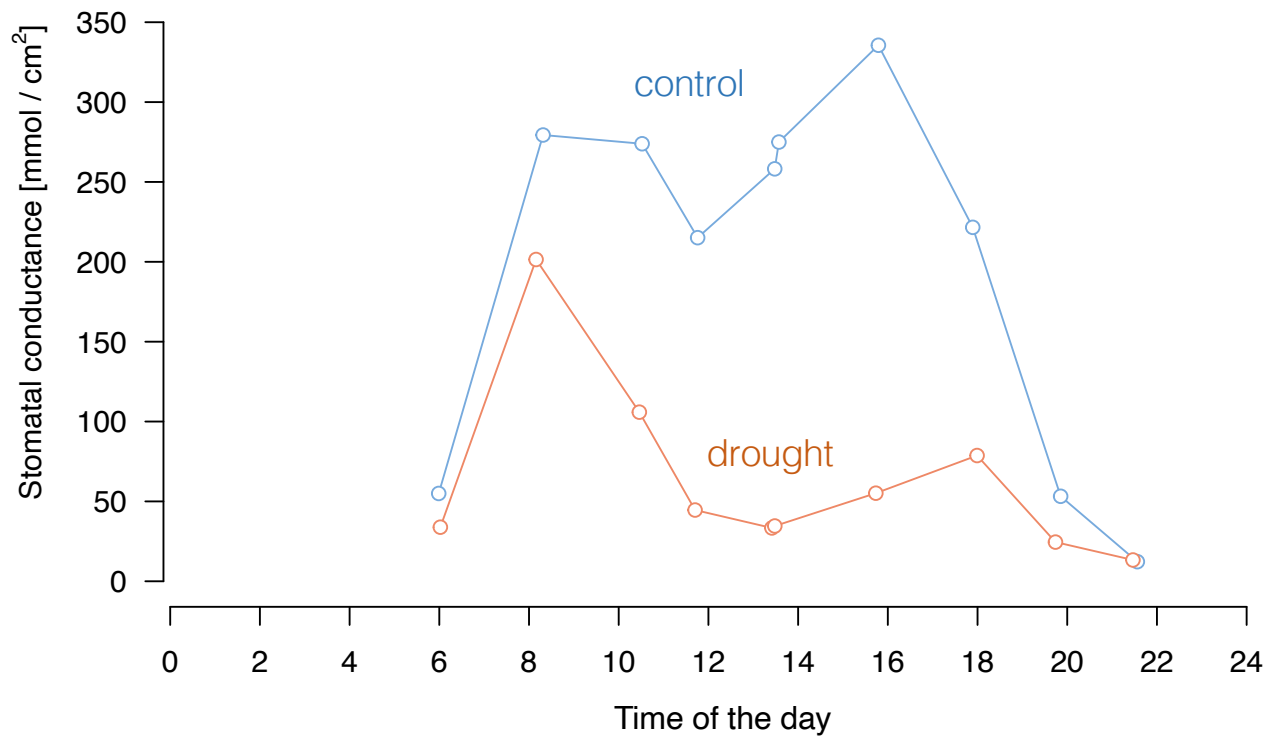
# Evapotranspiration at stomata



- $\text{CO}_2$  uptake through stomata (**stomatal conductance**)
- **Stomatal conductance** is regulated by environmental and biochemical factors (e.g. soil moisture, light availability, plant hormones, etc.)
- **Stomatal conductance** is driven by atmospheric water demand (atmospheric vapour pressure)

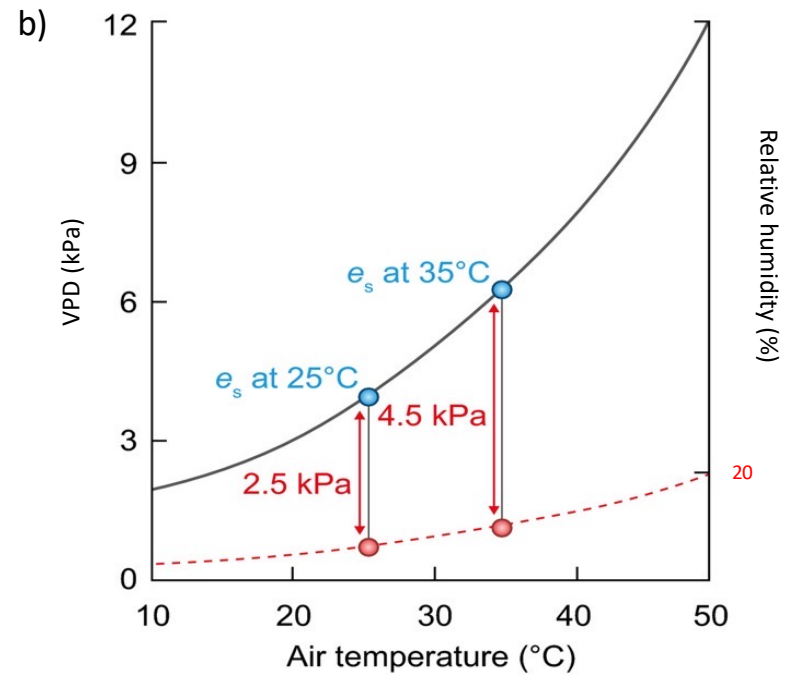
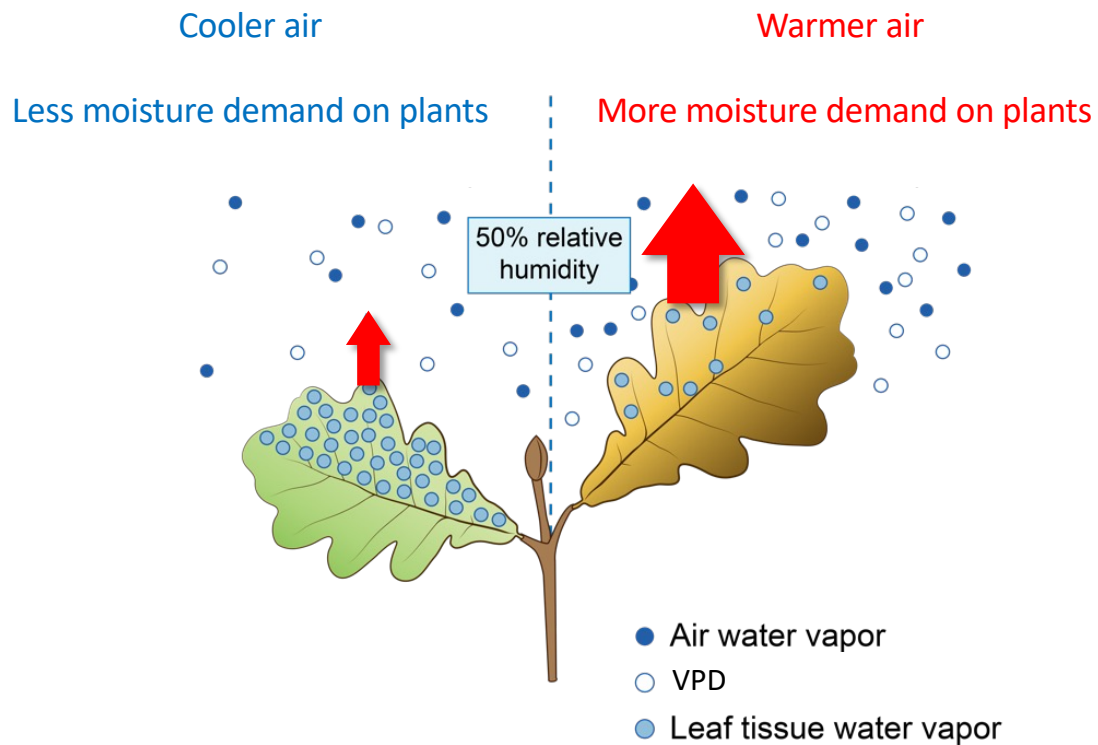
Cross-section of *Pinus nigra* needle

# Tree transpiration is sensitive to soil drought



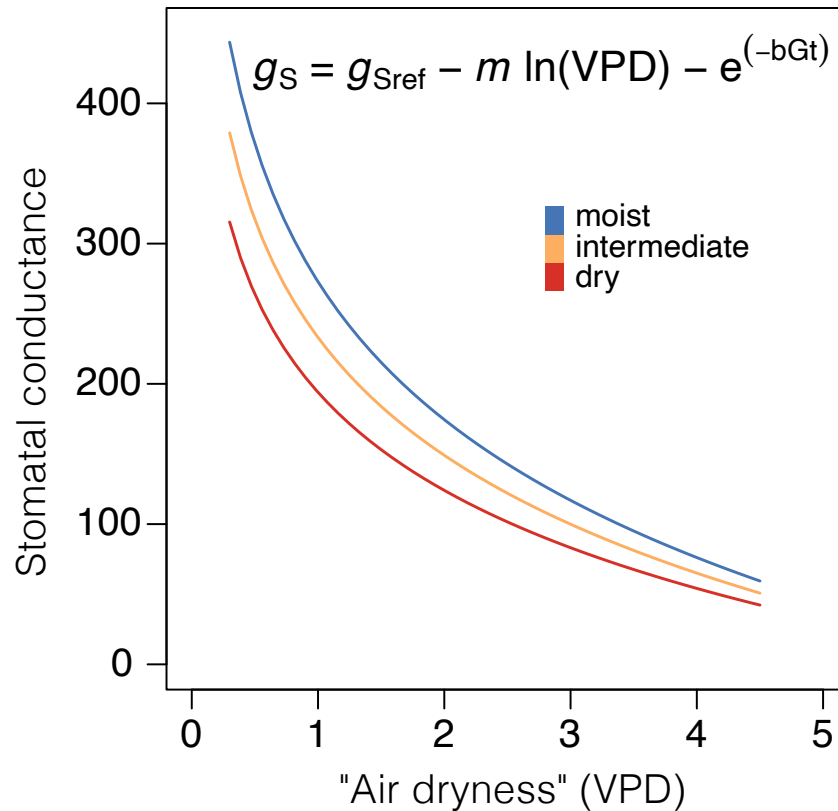
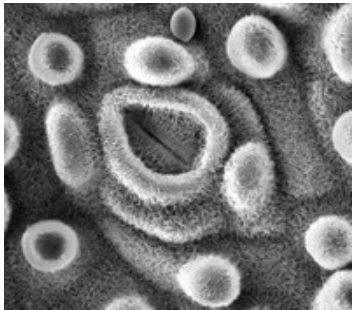
# Transpiration responses to VPD

$$VPD = e_s - e_a = (611 \exp(17.27 \times T / 237.3 + T)) - (RH \times e_s / 100)$$



Grossiord et al. (2020) New Phytologist

# Transpiration responses to VPD and soil water



- Dry air leads to water loss in the leaves
- To preserve water in the leaves, plants close their stomata
- Water loss to the air is lowered
- Soil drought increases these responses and leads to faster closure of stomata



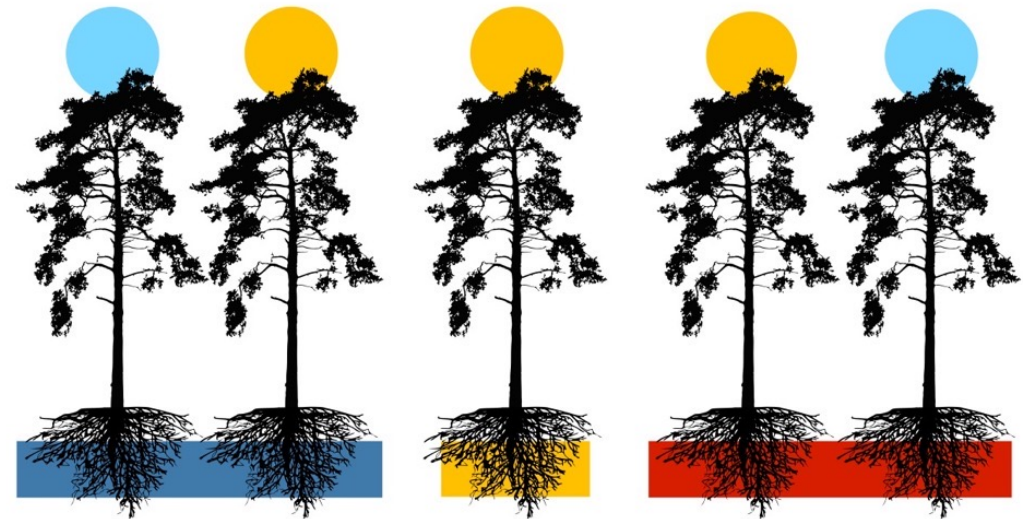


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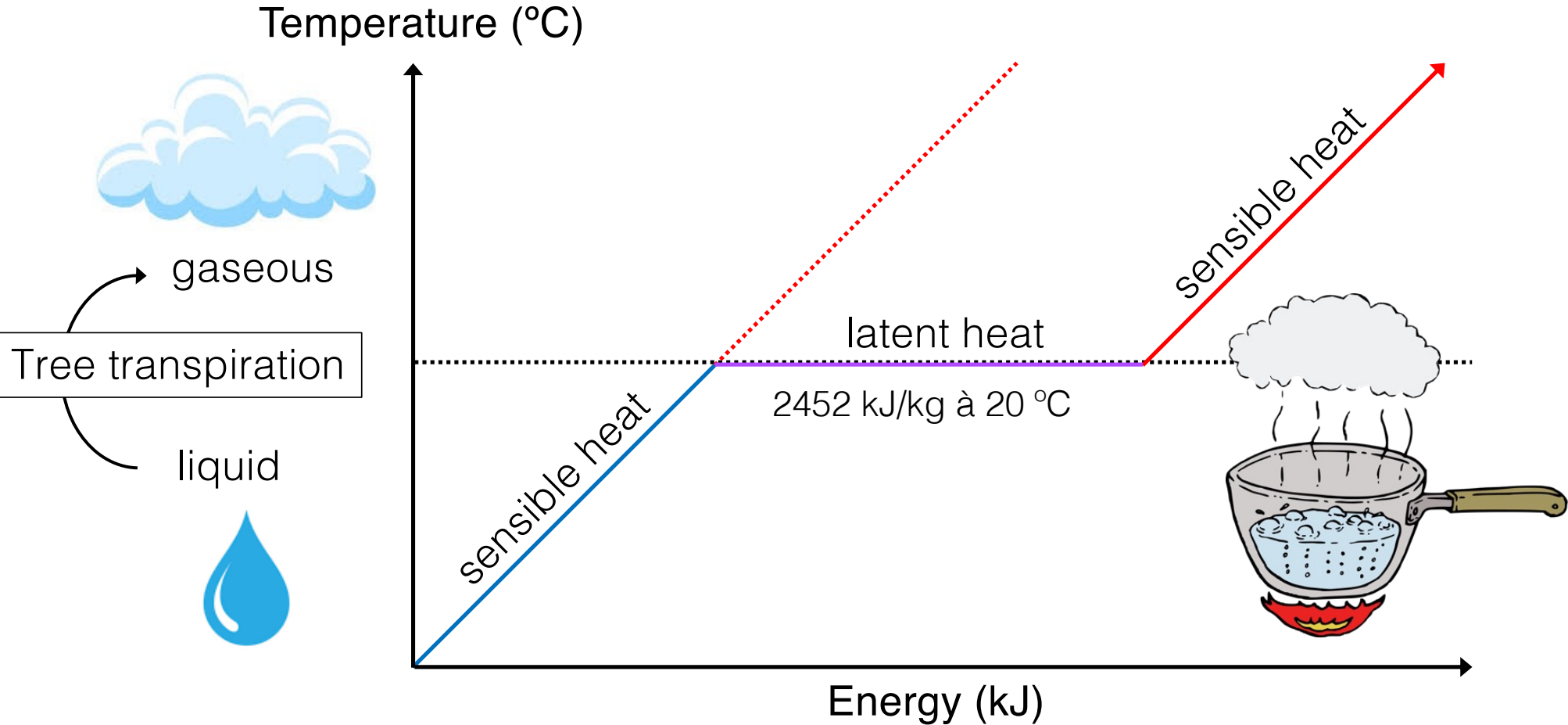


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|--|---|---|
| <b>Soil Treatments</b><br><span style="display: inline-block; width: 10px; height: 10px; background-color: yellow; border: 1px solid black; margin-right: 5px;"></span> Control (soil)<br><span style="display: inline-block; width: 10px; height: 10px; background-color: blue; border: 1px solid black; margin-right: 5px;"></span> Irrigation<br><span style="display: inline-block; width: 10px; height: 10px; background-color: red; border: 1px solid black; margin-right: 5px;"></span> Drought | <b>Atmospheric Treatments</b><br><span style="display: inline-block; width: 10px; height: 10px; background-color: yellow; border: 1px solid black; margin-right: 5px;"></span> Control (air)<br><span style="display: inline-block; width: 10px; height: 10px; background-color: blue; border: 1px solid black; margin-right: 5px;"></span> Reduced VPD | <b>Infrastructure</b><br><span style="display: inline-block; width: 10px; height: 10px; border: 1px solid black; margin-right: 5px;"></span> 18 measurement scaffolds<br><span style="display: inline-block; width: 10px; height: 10px; background-color: blue; border: 1px solid black; margin-right: 5px;"></span> 6 VPD manipulation scaffolds<br><span style="display: inline-block; width: 10px; height: 10px; background-color: red; border: 1px solid black; margin-right: 5px;"></span> 6 roofs |
|--|---|---|



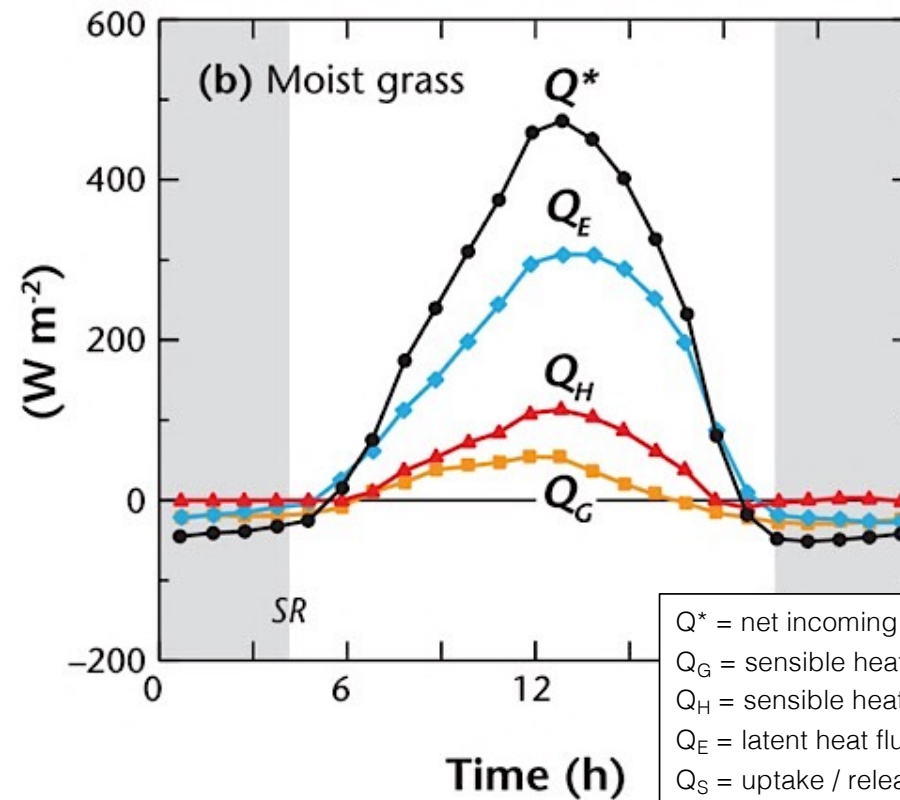
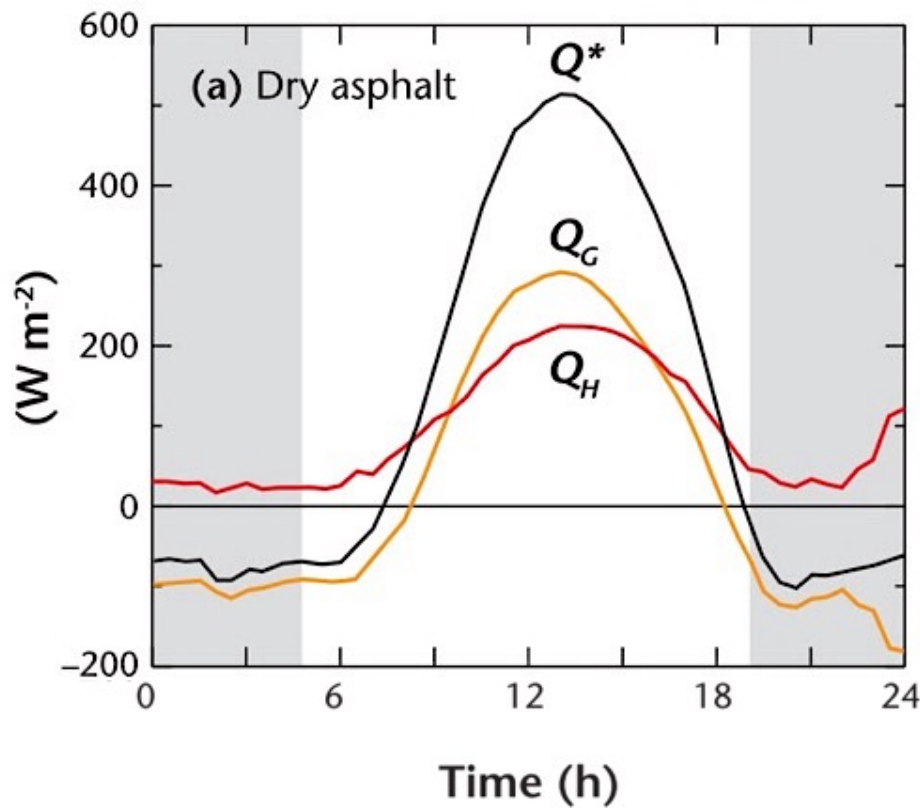
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| <b>Soil Treatments</b><br><span style="display: inline-block; width: 10px; height: 10px; background-color: yellow; border: 1px solid black; margin-right: 5px;"></span> Control (soil)<br><span style="display: inline-block; width: 10px; height: 10px; background-color: blue; border: 1px solid black; margin-right: 5px;"></span> Irrigation<br><span style="display: inline-block; width: 10px; height: 10px; background-color: red; border: 1px solid black; margin-right: 5px;"></span> Drought | <b>Atmospheric Treatments</b><br><span style="display: inline-block; width: 10px; height: 10px; background-color: yellow; border: 1px solid black; margin-right: 5px;"></span> Control (air)<br><span style="display: inline-block; width: 10px; height: 10px; background-color: blue; border: 1px solid black; margin-right: 5px;"></span> VPD manipulation |
|--|--|

# Cooling by transpiration: latent heat flux



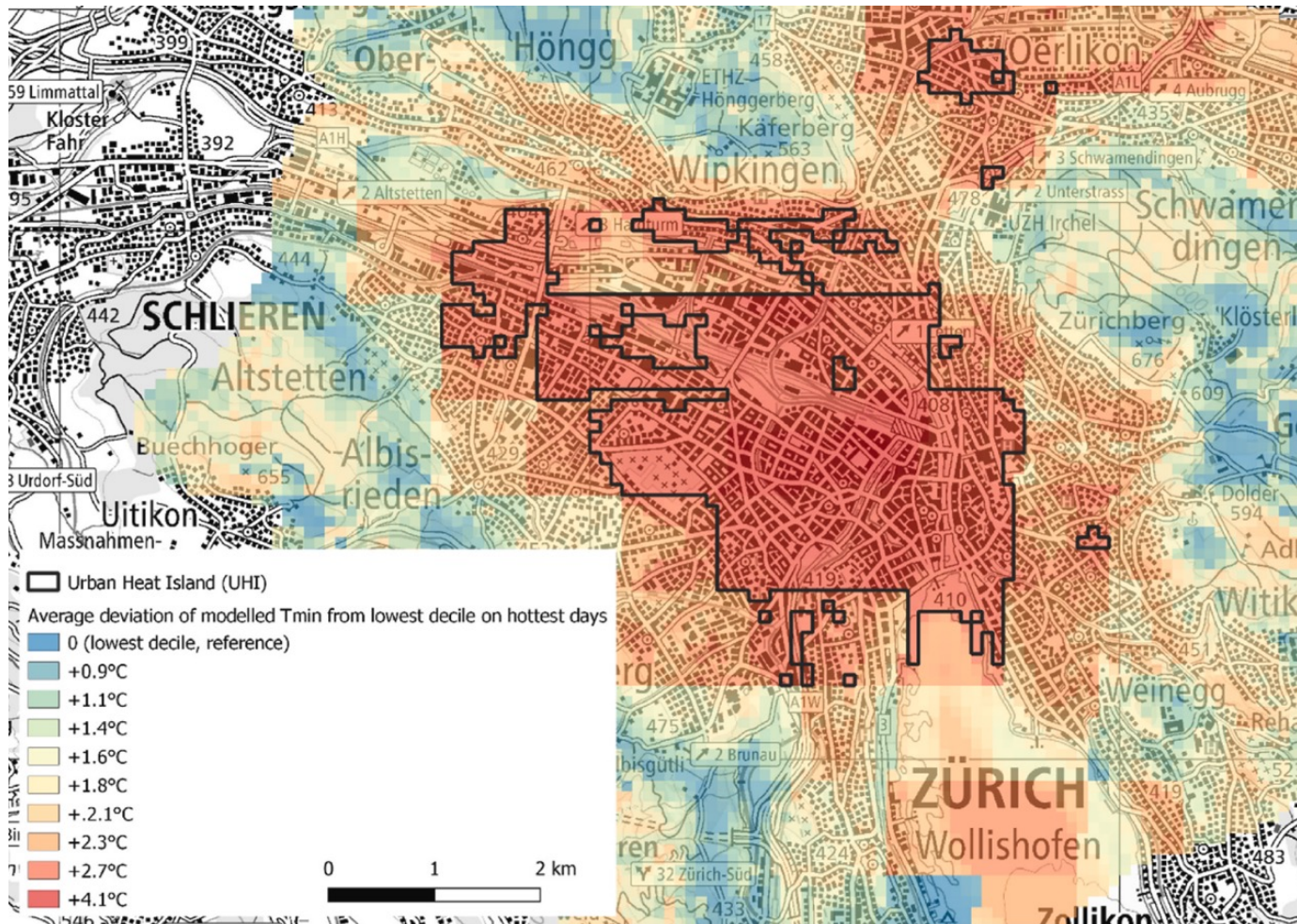
# Sensible vs. latent heat

Example SEBs of unobstructed urban facets: (a) dry asphalt road near Vienna, Austria. (b) slightly moist grassed site in an urban park in Vancouver, Canada. (Oke et al. 2017)



$Q^*$  = net incoming radiation  
 $Q_G$  = sensible heat conducted to the soil  
 $Q_H$  = sensible heat flux to the air  
 $Q_E$  = latent heat flux to the air  
 $Q_S$  = uptake / release of heat from urban fabric (capacity)  
 SR and SS = sunrise and sunset

# The urban heat island

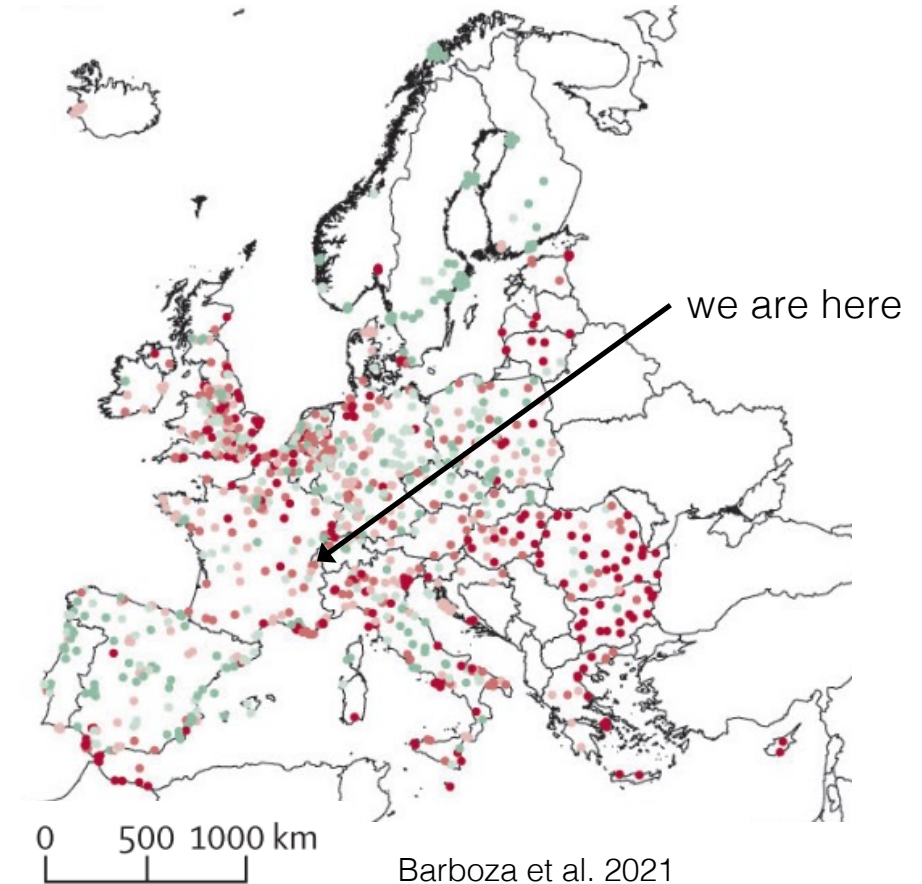
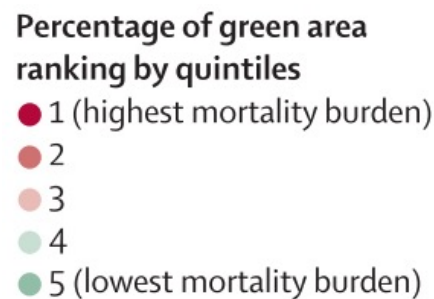


"In 2018, only 15 stations out of 576 were located in inner cities"

Wicki *et al.* 2024  
Flückiger *et al.* 2022

# Heat-induced deaths

- 2003 heat wave in Europe lead to more than 70'000 additional deaths
- Big cities were especially affected
- Access to green space could prevent 42'968 deaths annually
- Athens, Brussels, Budapest, Copenhagen, and Riga showed the highest mortality burdens due to the lack of green space



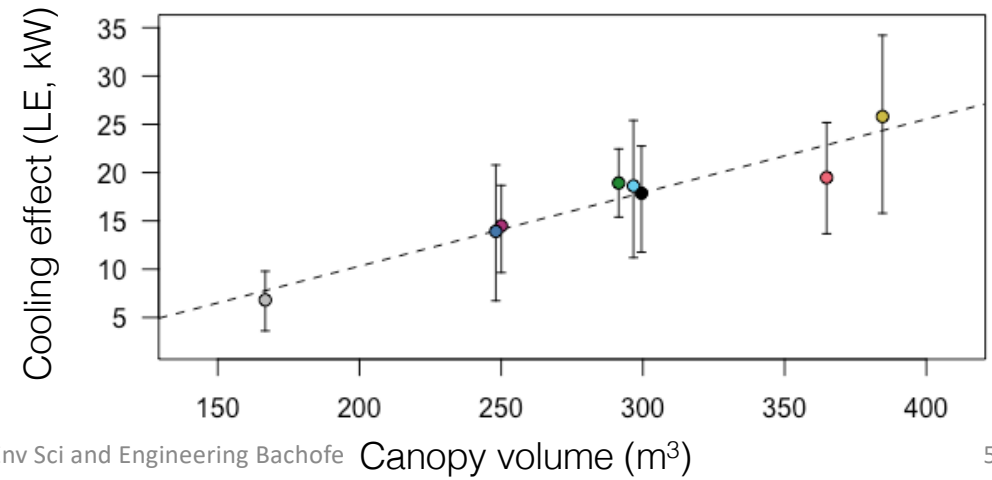
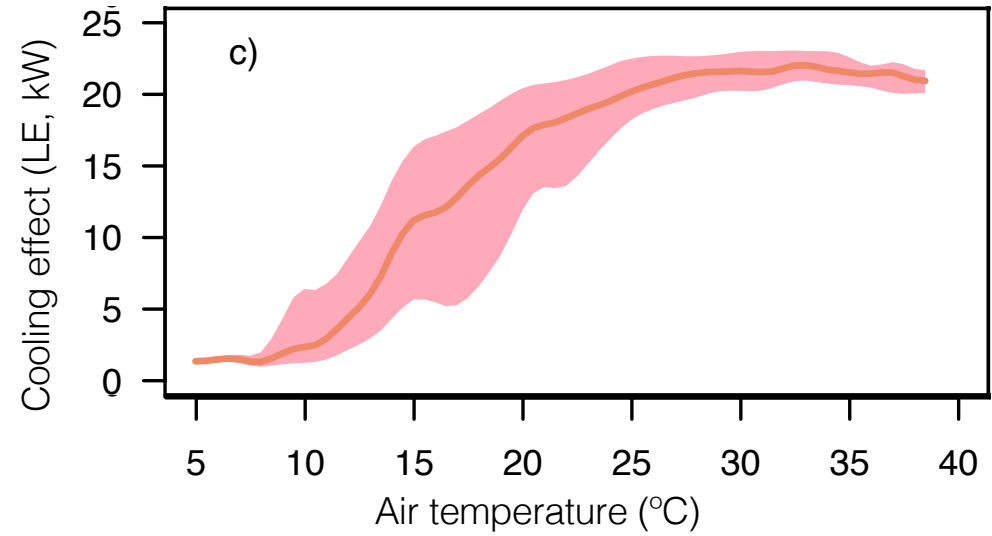
# Can trees mitigate the urban heat island?



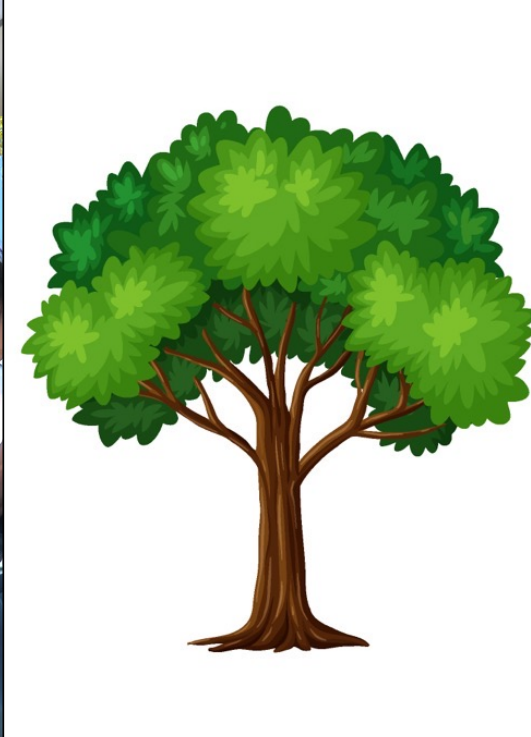
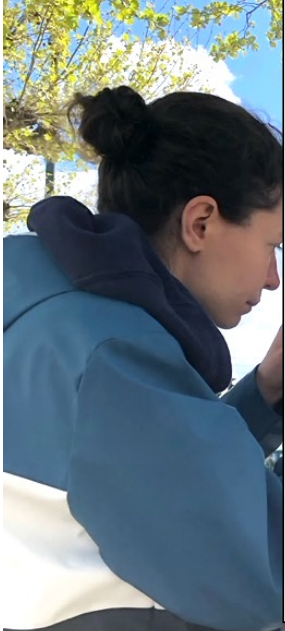
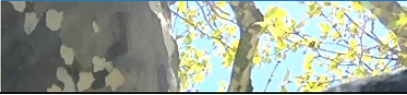
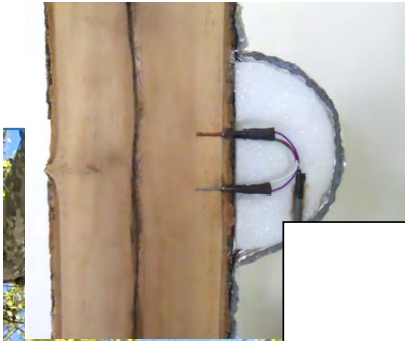
# Transpiration cooling of trees



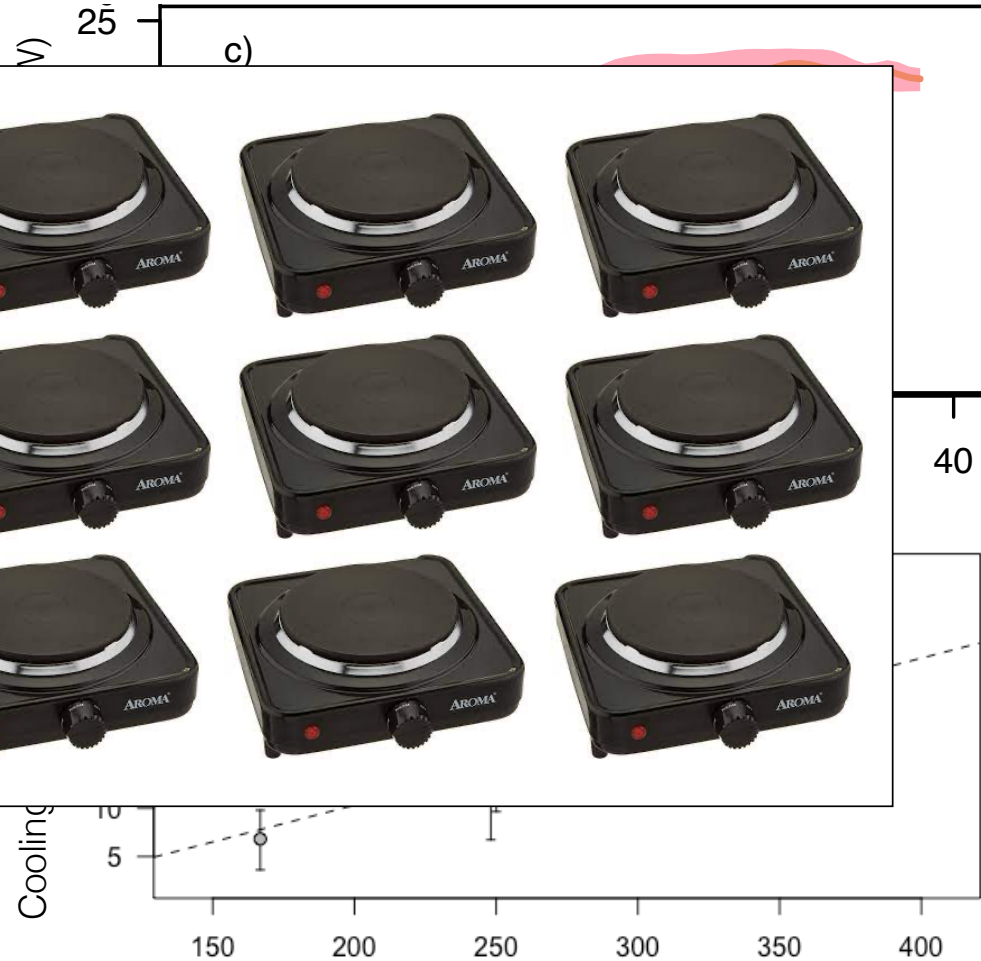
→ Up to 500 liters of water is transpired by the platanus trees per day



# Transpiration cooling of trees



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→ Up to 500 liters of water is transpired by the platanus trees per day

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- Land plants are a major component of the global CO<sub>2</sub> cycle through photosynthesis, growth and respiration.
  - Plant CO<sub>2</sub> uptake, water uptake, and transpiration respond to changes in environmental conditions, such as soil drought, VPD, temperature, and more.
  - To understand how plants regulate the environment, we need to understand their responses to environmental change (feedbacks).
  - This will allow to effectively manage forest ecosystems to alleviate antropogenic damages on the environment.