



1 Technical note: Method effects on isotope- 2 based inference of apple tree water 3 sources

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12 Abstract

13 Stable hydrogen and oxygen isotopes are widely used to trace plant water sources, but extraction and
14 analytical choices can bias interpretation. Using an apple orchard on the Shandong Peninsula as a field
15 example, we compared cryogenic vacuum extraction (CVE) with centrifugation, laser spectroscopy with
16 isotope-ratio mass spectrometry (IRMS), and tested how apparent xylem $\delta^2\text{H}$ offsets affect MixSIAR
17 source apportionment. Across plant organs, water became progressively enriched from roots and branches
18 to leaves and fruit. In paired branch samples measured by IRMS, centrifugation yielded $\delta^2\text{H}$ values about
19 10‰ higher than CVE, whereas $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ differences were small ($\approx 1\text{--}2\%$). Laser spectroscopy produced
20 systematically higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ than IRMS for plant extracts (typically 1–3‰), while non-plant source waters
21 agreed closely between instruments. A $\delta^2\text{H}$ offset correction shifted inferred uptake from shallow to
22 deeper soil water. These results show that methodological choices can alter isotope-based inference of
23 plant water sources and should be explicitly evaluated and reported.

25 Keywords

26 stable isotopes; apple tree; xylem water; cryogenic vacuum extraction; centrifugation; laser spectroscopy;
27 IRMS; MixSIAR; deuterium offset



29 1. Introduction

30 Hydrogen and oxygen stable isotopes in water molecules are widely used to infer plant water uptake
31 patterns by comparing the isotopic composition of plant xylem water with that of potential source waters
32 such as precipitation, soil water, irrigation water, and groundwater (Dawson and Ehleringer, 1991, 1993;
33 Ehleringer and Dawson, 1992; Sprenger et al., 2016; Penna et al., 2020). Under the classical assumption
34 of no fractionation during root uptake, xylem water should represent a conservative mixture of source
35 waters (Zimmermann et al., 1967). Yet many studies report systematic offsets between bulk stem water
36 and candidate sources - most notably in $\delta^2\text{H}$ - across a range of climates and species (Ellsworth and
37 Williams, 2007; Brooks et al., 2010; Geris et al., 2015; Evaristo et al., 2017; Vargas et al., 2017; Barbeta
38 et al., 2019, 2020, 2022; Dubbert et al., 2019; De la Casa et al., 2022; Bowers and Williams, 2022;
39 Ceperley et al., 2024). Proposed explanations span biological and physical processes (e.g., membrane
40 transport effects and within-stem water heterogeneity) (Knighton et al., 2020; Barbeta et al., 2022) and
41 methodological artifacts arising from how water is extracted and analyzed (Orlowski et al., 2016b; Penna
42 et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2020; Allen and Kirchner, 2022; Younger et al., 2024).

43 Methodological uncertainty has two main components. First, the water extraction method can influence
44 which water pools are recovered (mobile sap vs. tissue/bound water), and may therefore shift measured
45 isotopic values (West et al., 2006; Koeniger et al., 2011; Orlowski et al., 2016a, 2016b; Millar et al.,
46 2018; Thielemann et al., 2019; Adams et al., 2020; Orlowski and Breuer, 2020; Wen et al., 2021, 2022).
47 Second, the analytical technique matters: laser spectroscopy can be affected by organic contaminants in
48 plant extracts, whereas isotope-ratio mass spectrometry (IRMS) is comparatively robust because water is
49 converted to gases before isotope measurement (West et al., 2011; Penna et al., 2012; Cui et al., 2021). In
50 practice, extraction and analysis biases can be comparable in magnitude to the ecohydrological signals
51 that mixing models are trying to interpret.

52 Apple orchards provide a useful model system because they are intensively managed yet often water-
53 limited, and root water uptake patterns vary with climate, irrigation, and soil depth (Ma and Song, 2016,
54 2019; Cao et al., 2018; Mahindawansa et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2018; Li et al., 2019;
55 Liu et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2023; Pang et al., 2025). Orchard studies that rely on stable isotopes can be
56 particularly sensitive to methodological biases because soil evaporation and irrigation both shape the
57 isotope depth profile.

58 The objective of this technical note is to show how extraction and analytical choices affect plant-water
59 isotope interpretation and source apportionment in an apple orchard system. Specifically, we (1) quantify
60 isotopic differences between cryogenic vacuum extraction (CVE) and centrifugal extraction for apple
61 branch xylem water; (2) evaluate laser spectroscopy and isotope-ratio mass spectrometry (IRMS) for
62 plant and source waters, identifying sample types most prone to analytical bias; and (3) test, using
63 MixSIAR, how plausible $\delta^2\text{H}$ offsets alter inferred water-source contributions.

64



65 2. Materials and methods

66 2.1 Study site and sampling

67 The field study was conducted in Qixia City (37°13'N, 120°38'E) on the Shandong Peninsula of China,
68 which has a temperate monsoon climate with hot, humid summers (Wang et al., 2023). Three orchard
69 plots with differing geology and soil conditions were selected, and in each plot one mature apple tree was
70 sampled together with surrounding soils and available water sources (precipitation, irrigation reservoir
71 water, and groundwater) (Pang et al., 2025).

72 Intensive sampling was conducted over five days (8–12 July 2021), twice daily (approximately 08:00 and
73 15:00 local time), except during storm conditions, yielding 283 samples for isotope analysis. Precipitation
74 collected throughout the 2021 growing season was used to define the local meteoric water line (LMWL).

75 Soil and root samples were collected using a hand auger at depth intervals of 0–20, 20–40, 40–60, 60–
76 100, and 100–140 cm (triplicate). Tree tissues (branches/twigs, leaves, and fruits) were sampled with
77 pruning shears. In this manuscript, “trunk” refers to outer trunk xylem tissue (sapwood beneath the
78 cambium, with bark and phloem removed) to avoid confusion with tree cores. Fresh samples were sealed
79 immediately and transported in coolers to minimize post-cut evaporation.

80 2.2 Water extraction

81 Cryogenic vacuum extraction (CVE) followed Koeniger et al. (2011). Samples were frozen and connected
82 to a vacuum line (~10 Pa). Soil samples were heated to 205 °C and plant tissues to 100 °C, and extracted
83 water was trapped in a collection vial immersed in liquid nitrogen (Wen et al., 2022). Extraction time was
84 approximately 1–2 h depending on sample type. Extraction efficiency was assessed gravimetrically, and
85 only samples meeting the recovery criterion (99–101 %) were retained.

86 Centrifugal extraction was applied to a subset of concurrently collected samples for comparison, using a
87 high-speed centrifuge (Cavitron-type setup) to expel sap water from branch xylem. Because the protocol
88 requires long branch segments (~27–28 cm), centrifugation was only feasible for branch xylem in our
89 sampling design. Branch segments were prepared by removing bark and phloem prior to extraction, and
90 extracted sap was immediately sealed to prevent evaporation. We use this method here as a branch-level
91 comparison with CVE rather than as a universal extraction approach for all sample types.

92 2.3 Isotope analysis and quality control

93 Hydrogen and oxygen isotope ratios are reported in delta notation ($\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, ‰) relative to
94 VSMOW. Laser spectroscopy measurements were performed using a Picarro L2140-i analyzer. Each
95 sample was injected five times and the last three injections were averaged to reduce memory effects.
96 Spectral screening software was used to flag potential organic interference. Laser analytical precision was
97 approximately $\pm 0.2\text{‰}$ for $\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\pm 0.05\text{‰}$ for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$.

98 To assess analytical bias for plant-derived waters, a subset of samples was additionally measured by
99 isotope-ratio mass spectrometry (IRMS) (Thermo Scientific 253 Plus). IRMS converts water to H₂ and
100 CO₂ for isotope analysis, reducing the influence of dissolved/volatile organics (West et al., 2011; Cui et
101 al., 2021). IRMS precision was approximately $\pm 0.1\text{‰}$ for $\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\pm 0.02\text{‰}$ for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$.



102 Root water was extracted by CVE and analyzed by laser spectroscopy, with a subset of plant waters also
103 analyzed by IRMS. Branch xylem water was extracted by both CVE and centrifugation, and the
104 extraction-method comparison (CVE vs. centrifugation) is based on branch samples analyzed by IRMS
105 for consistency. Soil and external source waters were primarily analyzed by laser spectroscopy, with
106 selected checks by IRMS for quality control.

107 **2.4 Data analysis and source apportionment**

108 Dual-isotope plots ($\delta^2\text{H}$ vs $\delta^{18}\text{O}$) were used to compare sources and plant waters. Line-conditioned excess
109 (LC-excess = $\delta^2\text{H} - a \cdot \delta^{18}\text{O} - b$, with a and b from the LMWL) quantified hydrogen offsets.

110 Source contributions were estimated with the MixSIAR Bayesian mixing model framework (Bowen et al.,
111 2018). Sources included soil water grouped by depth (shallow 0–40 cm, intermediate 40–80 cm, and deep
112 80–140 cm, representing the deepest sampled interval), plus precipitation, irrigation water, and
113 groundwater.

114 To demonstrate sensitivity to $\delta^2\text{H}$ offsets, we ran MixSIAR for (i) uncorrected xylem isotopes and (ii) a
115 $\delta^2\text{H}$ -corrected scenario. The correction was implemented as an empirical offset that removes the mean
116 deuterium deficit of branch xylem relative to the LMWL ($\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{corr}} = \delta^2\text{H} + \Delta$, where Δ is the mean
117 observed offset; approximately +8‰ in our dataset). This correction is used here as a sensitivity test
118 rather than as a definitive mechanistic adjustment (Bowen et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2020; Allen and
119 Kirchner, 2022).

120

121 **3. Results**

122 **3.1 Method comparisons**

123 Branch xylem water extracted by CVE and centrifugation showed systematic isotopic differences when
124 measured by IRMS. Centrifugation-extracted xylem water was enriched in $\delta^2\text{H}$ by roughly 10‰ relative
125 to CVE-extracted water from the same branches, whereas $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ differences were smaller (typically ~1–
126 2‰). Thus, CVE tended to yield more $\delta^2\text{H}$ -depleted branch water than centrifugation, while $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ was
127 comparatively less sensitive to extraction choice.

128 Across plant-derived waters, laser spectroscopy tended to report slightly enriched $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ relative to IRMS.
129 For trunk, branch, and leaf waters, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ measured by laser spectroscopy was commonly ~1–3‰ higher
130 than IRMS, while $\delta^2\text{H}$ differences were generally within ~1–2‰ (near combined analytical precision).
131 Soil water and non-plant source waters showed minimal differences between laser spectroscopy and
132 IRMS. This pattern is consistent with sample-dependent spectral interference in laser analyzers from
133 plant-derived organic compounds, affecting $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ more strongly than $\delta^2\text{H}$.

134 **3.2 Isotopic patterns across sources and plant organs**

135 Rainfall during the study period spanned approximately $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -9\text{‰}$ to -1‰ and $\delta^2\text{H} = -60\text{‰}$ to 0‰ ,
136 consistent with the LMWL. Soil water, groundwater, and irrigation water were isotopically more depleted
137 than plant waters. Within trees, water became progressively enriched from roots and branches to leaves
138 and fruits. Leaf water plotted well below the LMWL with strongly negative LC-excess, indicating strong



139 evaporative fractionation at the leaf surface. Fruit water was enriched but generally closer to the soil
140 evaporation trend.

141 A key observation was the apparent $\delta^2\text{H}$ depletion of root and branch xylem water relative to soil water
142 sampled in the same plots. Root xylem water was $\sim 5\text{--}10\text{‰}$ lower in $\delta^2\text{H}$ than expected from the soil water
143 line given its $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, whereas $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ differences were comparatively small. Because both soil and root waters
144 were extracted by CVE, this pattern is interpreted here as an apparent $\delta^2\text{H}$ offset that may reflect both
145 process signals and method effects (see Sect. 4.1).

146 **3.3 Source apportionment sensitivity to $\delta^2\text{H}$ offsets**

147 MixSIAR results with uncorrected isotope data suggested dominant use of shallow soil water (0–40 cm),
148 with smaller contributions from intermediate soil (40–80 cm) and minor contributions from deep soil (80–
149 140 cm). Groundwater, precipitation, and irrigation water each contributed only small fractions,
150 indicating that tree water originated mainly from soil moisture rather than direct uptake of groundwater or
151 recent rainfall.

152 When the $\delta^2\text{H}$ offset correction was applied ($\delta^2\text{H}$ increased by $\sim 8\text{‰}$ as a sensitivity test), modeled source
153 contributions shifted markedly toward deep soil water. This demonstrates that $\delta^2\text{H}$ offsets of only several
154 per mil—whether arising from fractionation, internal heterogeneity, or method bias—can significantly
155 change mixing-model inference of uptake depth.

156

157 **4. Discussion**

158 **4.1 Process signals versus methodological artifacts**

159 Many studies interpret $\delta^2\text{H}$ depletion of xylem water relative to source waters as evidence of fractionation
160 during uptake or within-plant redistribution (Ellsworth and Williams, 2007; Evaristo et al., 2017; Vargas
161 et al., 2017; Barbeta et al., 2019, 2020; Poca et al., 2019; De la Casa et al., 2022). At the same time,
162 methodological studies show that CVE can yield $\delta^2\text{H}$ -depleted extracts relative to sap-targeted methods,
163 potentially because CVE mobilizes additional tissue or bound water pools and/or promotes exchange
164 processes during heating (Orlowski et al., 2016b; Penna et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2020; Allen and
165 Kirchner, 2022; Younger et al., 2024). Our branch comparison indicates a $\sim 10\text{‰}$ $\delta^2\text{H}$ difference between
166 CVE and centrifugation, which is comparable to the magnitude of many reported stem-source offsets. We
167 therefore interpret the observed deuterium depletion conservatively as an apparent $\delta^2\text{H}$ offset rather than
168 attributing it exclusively to biological fractionation.

169 **4.2 Implications of extraction method choice**

170 CVE is widely used because it can be applied to many sample types and can achieve high recovery
171 (Koeniger et al., 2011; Wen et al., 2022). However, CVE may extract mixtures of mobile and immobile
172 water pools, which can shift measured isotope values depending on tissue composition and soil properties
173 (Orlowski et al., 2016a, 2016b; Thielemann et al., 2019; Adams et al., 2020). Centrifuge/Cavitron
174 approaches are designed to target mobile sap water and have been used to address stem-source offsets
175 (Barbeta et al., 2022; Duvert et al., 2024), but their applicability is constrained by sample size and the



176 requirement for long stem segments. In our dataset, this limitation is important: centrifugation could only
177 be applied to branch segments, whereas CVE could be used consistently across tissues and soils.

178 We do not conclude that CVE is inherently more reliable than centrifugation. Rather, CVE is more
179 broadly applicable across sample types, but may introduce $\delta^2\text{H}$ bias; centrifugation is more sap-targeted
180 but more constrained and may co-extract organics that complicate laser analysis. When direct method
181 matching across all sample types is not possible, authors should explicitly report extraction protocols,
182 intercompare methods where feasible, and propagate plausible method-driven isotope uncertainty into
183 source apportionment.

184 **4.3 Implications of analytical method choice**

185 Our data show a systematic enrichment of plant-water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ measured by laser spectroscopy relative to
186 IRMS by approximately 1-3‰, whereas $\delta^2\text{H}$ was comparatively stable between methods. This pattern is
187 consistent with previous evaluations showing that organic contaminants can bias laser spectra,
188 particularly for plant waters, and that post-processing alone may not fully remove the effect (West et al.,
189 2011; Penna et al., 2012; Cui et al., 2021). Because a $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ bias of this magnitude can affect inferred
190 evaporative enrichment and alter dual-isotope mixing spaces, at least a subset of extracted plant waters
191 should be cross-checked against IRMS when possible.

192 Laser spectroscopy is well suited for high-throughput characterization of source waters (precipitation,
193 groundwater, irrigation water, and many soil waters), but plant waters should ideally be cross-checked
194 against IRMS, or processed with robust contamination-mitigation routines, when $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ differences of a
195 few per mil are ecohydrologically meaningful.

196 **4.4 Consequences for mixing-model inference**

197 The MixSIAR sensitivity test illustrates that modest $\delta^2\text{H}$ offsets can substantially affect inferred uptake
198 depth, consistent with prior methodological analyses of source partitioning (Bowen et al., 2018; Allen and
199 Kirchner, 2022). We therefore recommend that isotope-based source-apportionment studies routinely
200 include offset sensitivity analyses (e.g., ± 5 –10‰ in $\delta^2\text{H}$), especially when they rely on CVE-extracted
201 xylem water or laser-measured plant waters. While $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ -only approaches can reduce $\delta^2\text{H}$ -specific
202 ambiguity, they may also reduce mixing discrimination where sources overlap in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. Using both
203 isotopes remains informative, but only when methodological and process-based uncertainties are made
204 explicit.

205

206 **5. Conclusions**

207 Overall, this technical note shows that methodological choices in both extraction and analysis can
208 introduce isotope shifts of the same order as commonly interpreted ecohydrological signals. The main
209 implications are:

- 210 1. Extraction matters: CVE produced branch xylem $\delta^2\text{H}$ values $\sim 10\%$ lower than centrifugation, while
211 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ differences were smaller (~ 1 –2‰).



- 212 2. Analysis matters: laser spectroscopy produced a systematic enrichment of plant-water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (~1–3‰)
213 relative to IRMS, consistent with organic interference, whereas source waters showed minimal inter-
214 instrument differences.
- 215 3. Source attribution is sensitive: a plausible $\delta^2\text{H}$ offset correction (approximately +8‰) shifted
216 modeled uptake from shallow soil dominance to deeper soil dominance, illustrating strong sensitivity
217 of mixing-model inference to small $\delta^2\text{H}$ biases.
- 218 4. Best-practice guidance: (i) clearly state study objectives and define which water pools are extracted,
219 (ii) report extraction techniques and key parameters and validate recovery where possible, (iii) cross-
220 check plant waters with IRMS or robustly address organic interference in laser spectroscopy, and (iv)
221 conduct offset sensitivity analyses in mixing models.

222

223 **Data availability**

224 All isotope data and MixSIAR input files will be made available in a public repository upon acceptance.

225 **Author contributions**

226 YZ and TP designed the study; TP and HY conducted field sampling and laboratory work; MP and QH
227 contributed to conceptual framing and manuscript revision; TP and YZ performed data analysis; YZ led
228 writing with contributions from all authors.

229 **Competing interests**

230 The authors declare no competing interests.

231

232

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236

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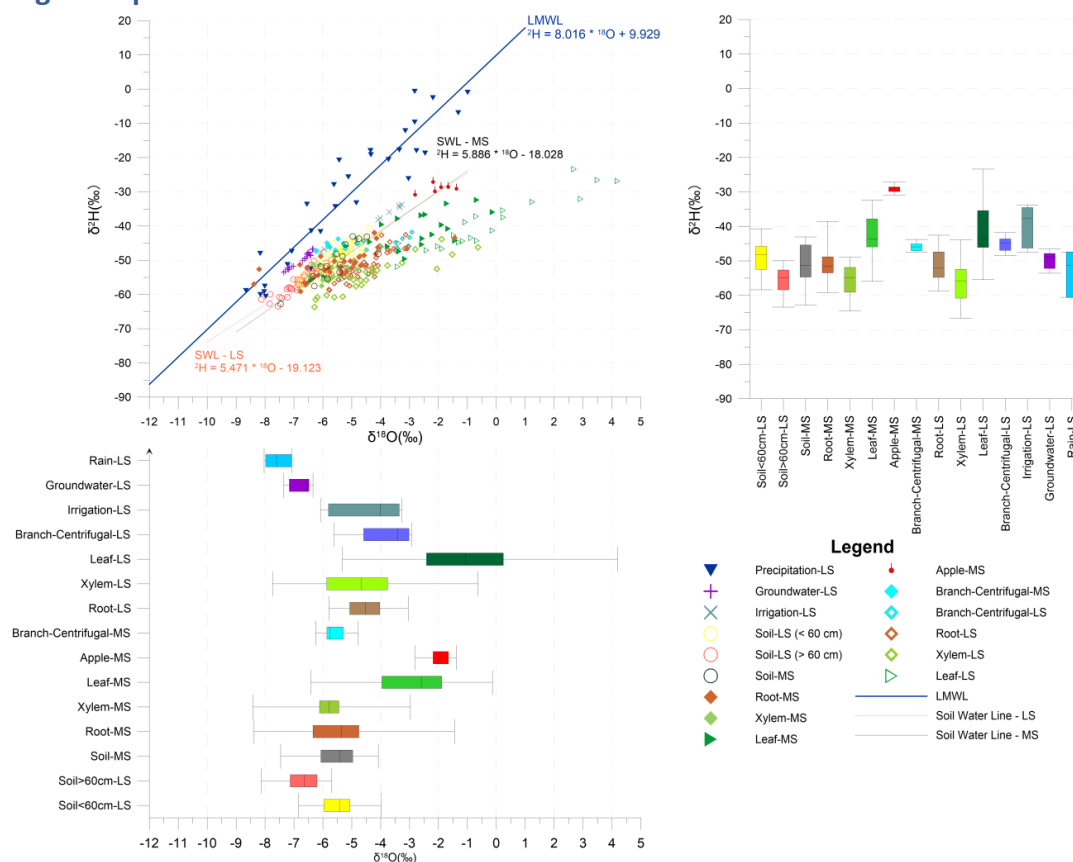
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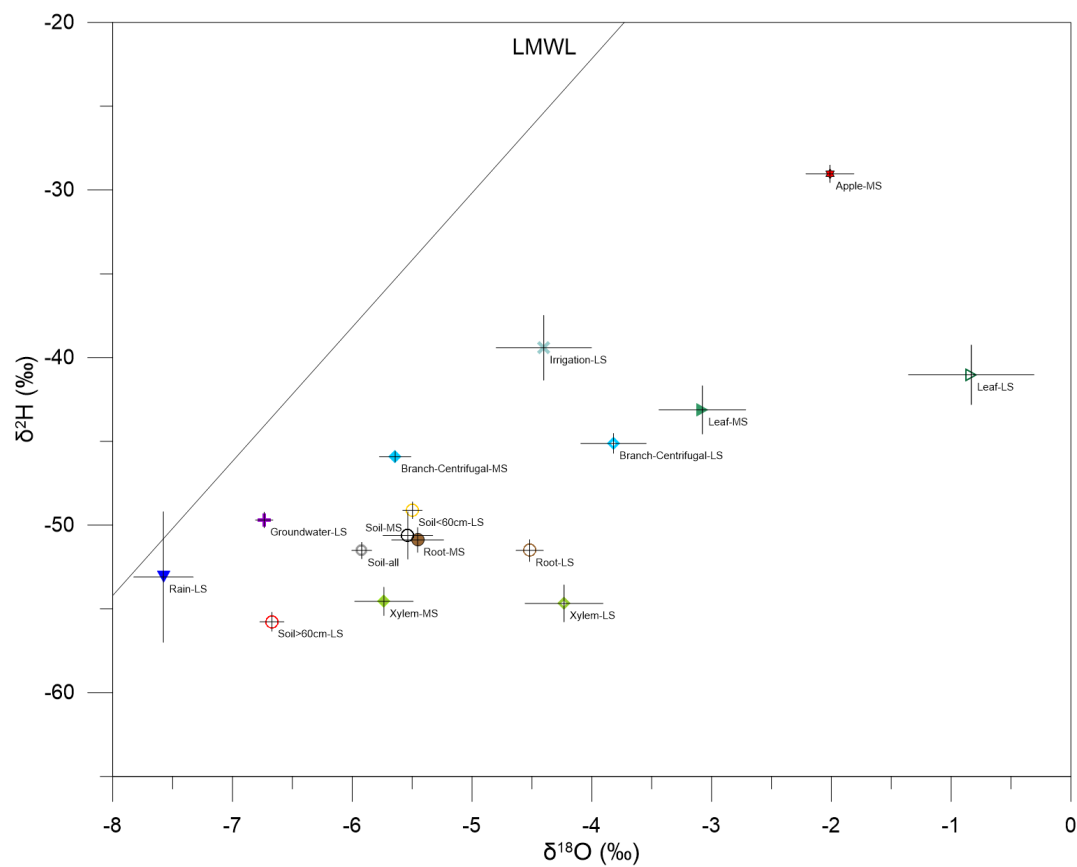
391 **Figure captions**



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393 Fig. 1. Dual-isotope plot of all sample types analyzed using both extraction techniques and both analytical
 394 methods, with regression lines (upper panel), and box-and-whisker plots for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (lower panel) and $\delta^2\text{H}$
 395 (right panel). Samples measured by laser spectroscopy are marked as LS, and those measured by mass
 396 spectrometry as MS.

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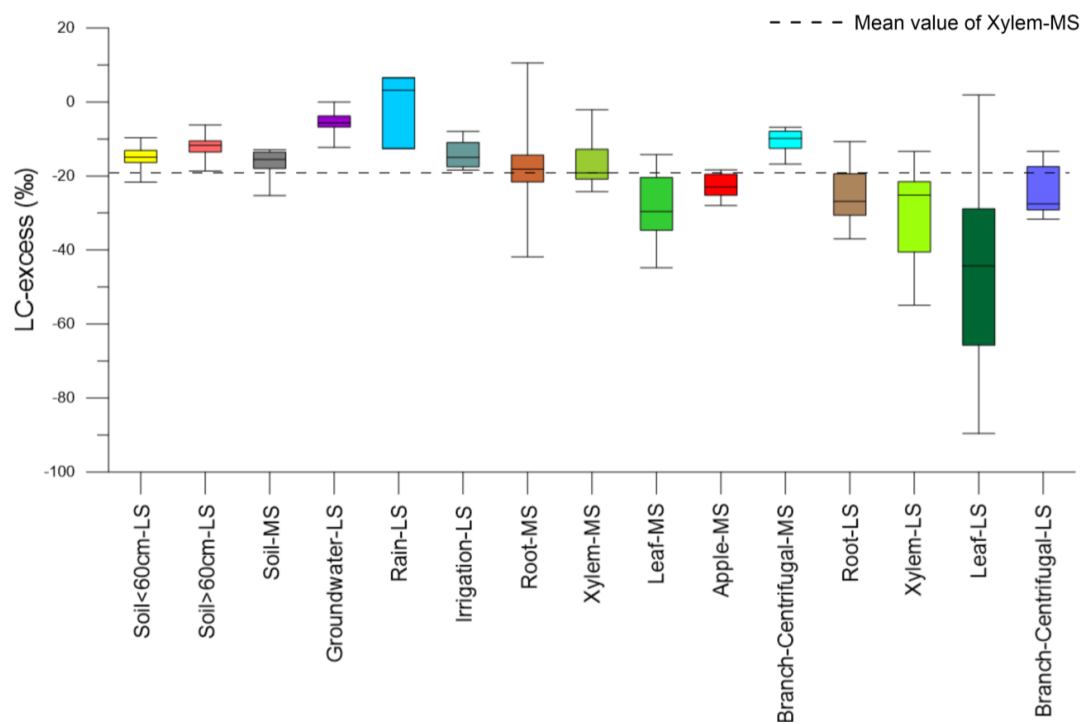
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399 Fig. 2. Means and standard errors of dual-isotope values for the main components of the apple orchard

400 system, including samples analyzed by both extraction methods (CVE and centrifugation) and both

401 analytical methods (LS and MS).

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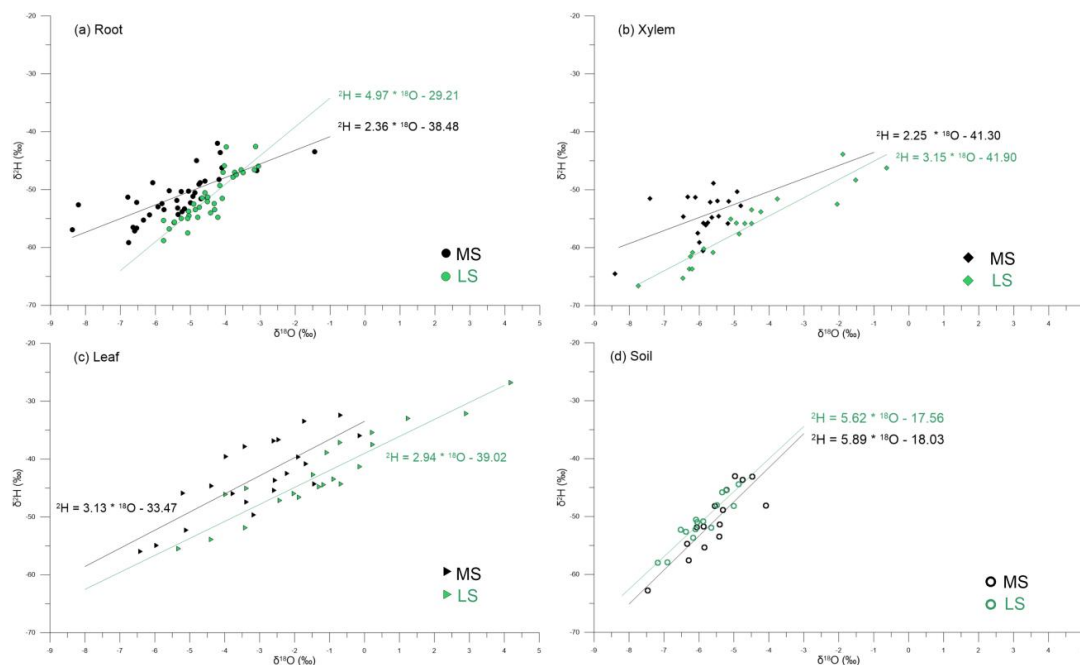
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Fig. 3. LC-excess (%) of the main sample types in the apple orchard system. Data from all plots are pooled. Boxes indicate the 25th and 75th percentiles, whiskers indicate the 10th and 90th percentiles, and horizontal lines indicate the medians.



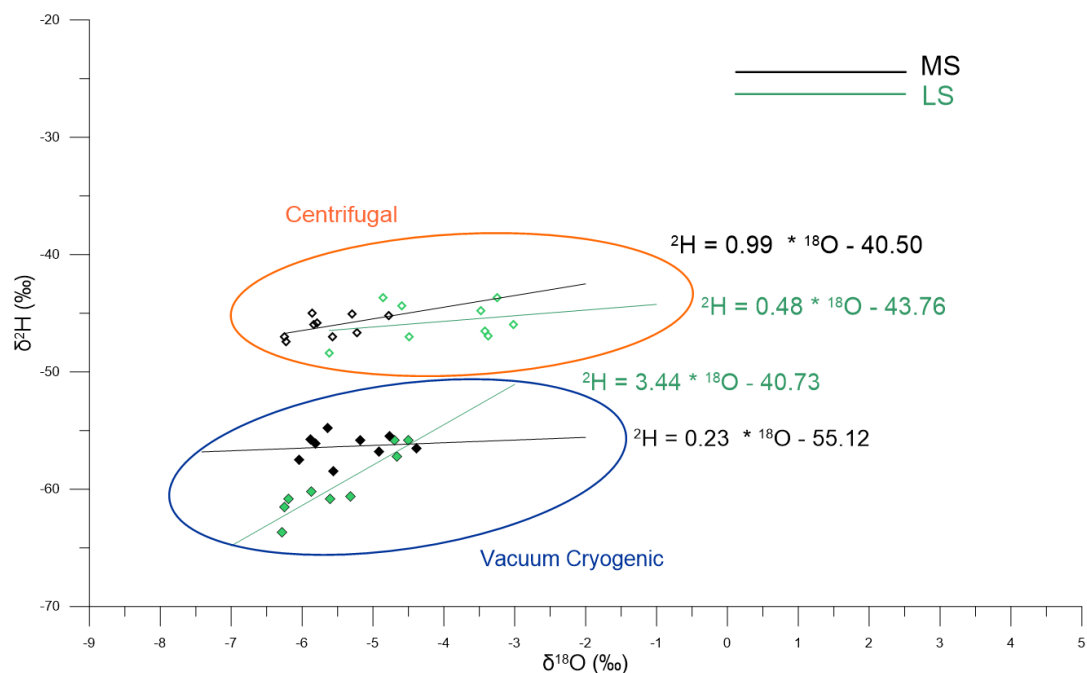
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Fig. 4. Comparison of MS and LS analytical methods for root (a), branch and trunk (b), leaf (c), and soil (d) samples, all extracted by CVE.

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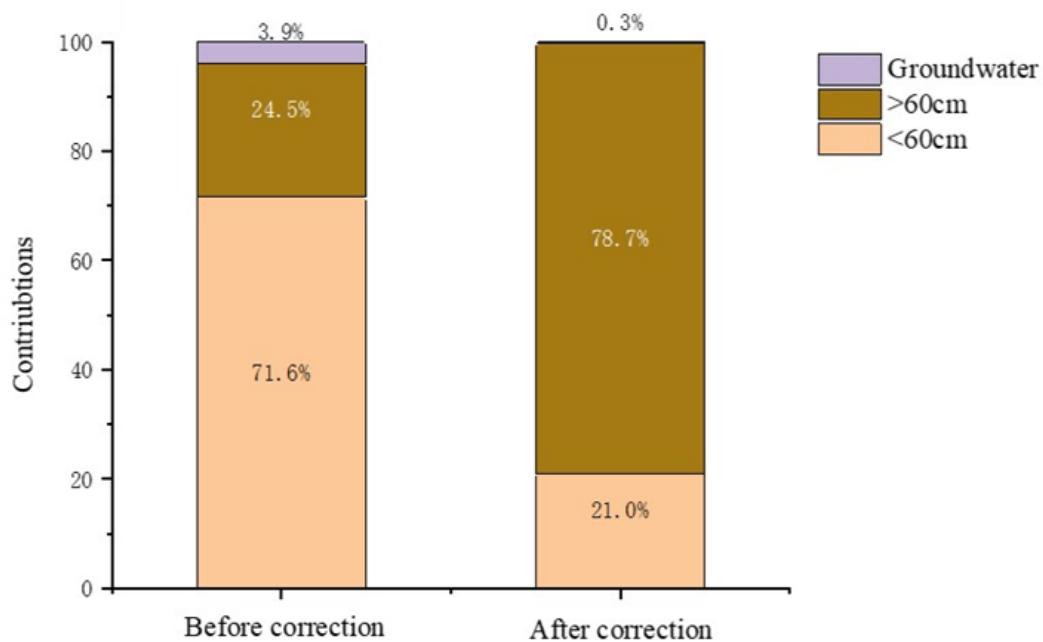


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413 Fig. 5. Comparison of two water extraction methods (centrifugation and CVE) and two analytical

414 determinations (LS and MS) for the same set of branch samples.

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416

417 Fig. 6. Comparison of corrected and uncorrected datasets for water-source contributions to plant water

418 uptake estimated with MixSIAR in the apple orchard system.

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