

1 **Research Paper**

2 **Plasticity of the xylem vulnerability to embolism in poplar relies on quantitative pit**  
3 **properties rather than on pit structure.**

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9 **Keywords**

10 Acclimation, anatomy, cavitation, hydraulic, *Populus tremula x alba*, shade, water stress, X-  
11 ray microCT.

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13 **Running head**

14 Structural determinants of plasticity of embolism resistance

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24 **Abstract**

25 Knowledge on variations of drought resistance traits are needed to predict the potential of  
26 trees to acclimate to coming severe drought events. Xylem vulnerability to embolism is a key  
27 parameter related to such droughts, and its phenotypic variability relies mainly on  
28 environmental plasticity. We investigated the structural determinants controlling the plasticity  
29 of vulnerability to embolism, focusing on the key elements involved in the air bubble entry in  
30 a vessel, especially the inter-vessel pits. Poplar saplings (*Populus tremula x alba*) grown in  
31 contrasted water availability or light exposure exhibited differences in vulnerability to  
32 embolism in a range of 0.76 MPa. We then characterized the structural changes related to  
33 qualitative and quantitative pit characteristics, from the pit structure to the organization of  
34 xylem vessels, using different microscopy techniques (TEM, SEM, light). X-ray  
35 microtomography analysis allowed observing the vessel vulnerability and testing some of the  
36 relationships between structural traits and vulnerability to embolism inside the xylem. The pit  
37 ultrastructure did not change, whereas the vessel dimensions increased with vulnerability to  
38 embolism and the grouping index and fraction of inter-vessel cell wall decreased with  
39 vulnerability to embolism. These findings holds when comparing trees or when comparing  
40 vessels inside the xylem. These results evidenced that plasticity of vulnerability to embolism  
41 occurs through changes in the quantitative pit properties such as pit area and vessel grouping  
42 rather than on the pit structure.

43 **Keywords**

44 Acclimation, anatomy, cavitation, hydraulic, *Populus tremula x alba*, shade, water stress, X-  
45 ray microCT.

46

## 47 **Introduction**

48 According to the cohesion-tension theory (Steudle 2001), the water columns in the xylem are  
49 under tension, a metastable state. When tension forces increase during droughts, the water  
50 columns are more prone to break, because of cavitation: vapour bubbles invade the impacted  
51 vessels and hence make them embolized as they are not functional anymore, leading to a loss  
52 of xylem conductance. When the loss of conductance reaches a high threshold limit, the above  
53 organs are not supplied with water anymore leading to death (Barigah et al. 2013). For woody  
54 species, drought-induced death is more likely due to xylem hydraulic failure (Anderegg et al.  
55 2015, 2016) caused by embolism in the xylem conduits, even if over process can also  
56 contribute to this death (Hammond et al. 2019) such as the carbon starvation (Hartmann et al.  
57 2015).

58 A global analysis pointed out the narrow hydraulic safety margin at which woody species  
59 usually operate (Choat et al. 2012); inferring that research is needed on the variability for  
60 vulnerability to embolism. Within-species variability for vulnerability to embolism has been  
61 shown for many tree species (e.g. Martínez-Vilalta et al. 2009; Herbette et al. 2010). The  
62 genetic variability for this trait is rather limited in both natural populations (Lamy et al. 2011,  
63 Wortemann et al. 2011) and cultivated species (Jinagool et al. 2015, 2018). This trait would  
64 be genetically canalized (Lamy et al. 2012) such that it varies mainly via plasticity due to  
65 environmental factors (Herbette et al. 2010). Plasticity of vulnerability to embolism was  
66 reported mainly under water stress, with wood formed under drier conditions that tends to be  
67 less vulnerable (Awad et al. 2010, Fichot et al. 2010, Plavcová and Hacke 2012). Other  
68 conditions such as shade or fertilization were associated to an increase in vulnerability to  
69 embolism (Cooke et al. 2005; Barigah et al. 2006; Plavcová and Hacke 2012). However,  
70 information is scarce on the determinants that control the plasticity of vulnerability to  
71 embolism. The structural determinants need to be deciphered first, before searching for their

72 genetic control, as it can be complex to decipher the role of candidate genes (Allario et al.  
73 2018).

74 In angiosperms, water flows in the xylem vessels through bordered pits. These pits are  
75 cavities in the secondary cell wall that allow the inter-vessel water flow while they prevent air  
76 seeding from air-filled vessels to water-filled ones. Inter-vessel pits have been identified as  
77 the key structures for vulnerability to embolism (Lens et al. 2013). Thus, we assume that the  
78 acclimation of vulnerability to embolism to environmental conditions implies changes in the  
79 pit properties. The quantitative and qualitative pit properties that relate to vulnerability to  
80 embolism have to be investigated at the xylem, vessel and pit levels (Lens et al. 2013). The  
81 key role of the pit ultrastructure in vulnerability to embolism has been evidenced in several  
82 studies (e.g. Lens et al. 2011, Tixier et al. 2014), especially the pit membrane thickness  
83 (Jansen et al. 2009). The vulnerability to embolism is also depending on the different  
84 quantitative pit parameters such as the pit area or the vessel connectivity (e.g. Lens et al.  
85 2011). Zimmermann and Jeje (1981) pointed out that the hydraulic vulnerability could be  
86 related to the vessel volume that varies depending on both their diameter (Tyree et al. 1994)  
87 and their length (Scholz et al. 2013a). The relationship between vulnerability to embolism and  
88 pit properties has been intensively studied at the inter-specific level, whereas the determinants  
89 of the plasticity of vulnerability to embolism remains poorly investigated or unclear at the  
90 intraspecific level. For example in poplar, shading caused an increase in vulnerability to  
91 embolism with a decrease in both pit membrane thickness and vessel diameter (Plavcová et al.  
92 2011) whereas a reduced watering caused a decrease in vulnerability to embolism linked with  
93 a decrease in vessel diameter (Awad et al. 2010).

94 In this work, we investigated the relationship between the plasticity of vulnerability to  
95 embolism and changes in the structure related to pit properties at different anatomical levels  
96 on young poplars (*Populus tremula x alba*). We grew sapling poplar clones under three

97 contrasted environmental conditions for two factors (water availability and light exposure)  
98 known to induce vulnerability to embolism plasticity. Then, their xylem anatomy was  
99 analysed in relation to the changes in vulnerability to embolism using different approaches.  
100 Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM) allowed investigations on the bordered pit  
101 ultrastructure. Parameters related to the pit-field were measured using Scanning Electron  
102 Microscopy (SEM). We also measured quantitative pit parameters related to vessel  
103 dimensions and vessel connectivity using light microscopy and silicon injections. Then, a  
104 local approach using direct observation of embolism spreading at the vessel level by X-ray  
105 microtomography allowed us to analyse some relationships between the hydraulic network  
106 structure and the vulnerability to embolism inside the xylem.

107

## 108 **Materials and Methods**

### 109 **Plant material and growth conditions**

110 *Plant Material.* Saplings of hybrid poplar (*Populus tremula x alba* clone INRA 717-1B4)  
111 were multiplied clonally in vitro on Murashige and Skoog medium on December 2016.  
112 Plantlets were grown in hydroponic solution on February 2017 in a controlled environment  
113 room: 16 h daylight at 21-22 °C, 40  $\mu\text{mol.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$  and 18-19 °C night, at 70  $\pm$  10 % relative  
114 humidity. On March 2017, plants were transferred in 1 Litre pots filled with potting soil  
115 (Humustar Terreaux, Champeix, France) with a composition of 25 % brown peat, 40 % blond  
116 peat and 35 % pine barkdust. The pots were placed in a greenhouse at the INRA research  
117 station of Clermont-Ferrand, France (site of Crouël; N 45°77', E 3°14'; 300 m *a.s.l.*). After 20  
118 days, plants were transferred in 10 L pots filled with potting soil. Pots were regularly watered  
119 at soil field capacity. Each pot weighted 6.4  $\pm$  0.4 kg. Ten days later, the specific experimental  
120 growth conditions were applied (see next). After one month of growth, stems were cut at 50

121 cm height. The growth of a new apical bud occurred in May 2017, and any additional bud was  
122 removed. Thus, a single stem completely grew under the new environmental conditions.

123 *Experimental setup.* Plants were split in three groups submitted to different growth conditions:

124 (i) “Control” plants grew under full sunlight and watered at soil field capacity; (ii)  
125 ”Droughted” plants grew under full sunlight and watered at only 25-30 % of soil field  
126 capacity; (iii) ”Shaded” plants shaded by a shadehouse that intercepts 30 % of incident light  
127 and watered at soil field capacity. For the nine Droughted plants, an irrigation at 25-30 % of  
128 soil field capacity was kept constant in each pot individually using balances and valves for  
129 irrigation as described in Niez et al. (2019). We measured the light interception by the  
130 shadehouse by comparing for two months the light intensities recorded between two sensors  
131 (PAR/CBE 80, Solems, Palaiseau, France) placed inside the shadehouse and two sensors  
132 placed outside. The level of water stress was set to be the most restrictive while allowing  
133 growth to produce acclimatized xylem and enough material plant for further analyses. The  
134 stem diameter was continuously measured using a LVDT sensor (Linear Variable Differential  
135 Transformer) on 3 Droughted, 2 Control, 3 Shaded plants. Plant height was also measured  
136 regularly using a tape measure.

137 The day before sampling, predawn water potential ( $\Psi_{pd}$ ) were measured on all plants 1 hour  
138 before the sunrise using a pressure chamber (1505D, PMS Instrument, Albany, OR, USA,  
139 Scholender et al. 1965). The midday water potential ( $\Psi_{mid}$ ) was measured at the solar noon,  
140 between 12h00 and 14h00 the same day.

141 *Sampling protocol.* The sampling was performed on 28 August 2017. Plants were cut at 20 cm  
142 height. The plant shoot was immersed underwater and the 30 cm of the top were removed as  
143 they have few developed xylem. Then, the following stem segments were sampled, from basal  
144 to apical direction:

- 145 i) the 30 cm long basal part of the stem was removed because it was not fully grown under  
146 acclimating conditions;
- 147 ii) the first 50 cm long of the newly developed stem under the acclimation conditions was  
148 wrapped in wet paper in a plastic bag and stored at 4 °C before measurements of vulnerability  
149 to embolism and vessel length;
- 150 iii) the above segment of 6 cm long was devoted to microscopy analyses. It was split into  
151 three subsamples using a razor blade: two segments of 1 cm long were prepared for light  
152 microscopy and TEM, and a third segment of 4 cm long was prepared for SEM;
- 153 iv) when the stem was long enough, an additional segment of 50 cm long was wrapped in wet  
154 paper in a plastic bag, and stored at 4 °C for measurements of specific conductivity ( $K_S$ ) and  
155 for additional measurements of vulnerability to embolism;
- 156 v) the last 10 cm long was kept wrapped in humid paper for a native embolism measurement  
157 performed during the sampling day.

158 Leaves were sampled under water and the mean leaf area (LA) per plant was measured in the  
159 day using an area-meter (Li-3100c, Li-Cor Biosciences, Lincoln, NE, USA).

160 After the sampling, plants were kept in the greenhouse, during the winter 2017. On March  
161 2018, they started growing, still under the same environmental conditions as described above,  
162 and on July 2018 we performed a new sample collection: plants were cut at 25 cm height.  
163 Then the 30 cm long basal part of the stem were cut underwater. A 50 cm long sample was  
164 wrapped in wet paper and stored in a plastic bag at 4 °C for measurements of specific  
165 conductivity ( $K_S$ ).

#### 166 **Hydraulic traits:**

167 *Vulnerability to embolism.* The 50 cm long stem segment was cut underwater at 43 cm long  
168 using a razor blade. Then, the vulnerability to embolism was assessed using the Cavitron  
169 technique (Cochard 2002, Cochard et al. 2005). The centrifugal forces increase water tension

170 in branch segment and allows at the same time measurement of the loss of conductance using  
171 a reference ionic solution of 10 mM KCl and 1 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub> (Cochard et al. 2009). A  
172 vulnerability curve was built by plotting the percentage loss xylem conductance (PLC) vs.  
173 xylem water pressure ( $P$ ). A sigmoidal function was used to fit each curve using the equation  
174 1 (Pammenter and Willigen 1998).

$$175 \quad PLC = \frac{100}{1 + e^{\frac{S(P-P_{50})}{25}}} \quad (1)$$

176 Where  $P_{50}$  is the pressure causing 50 % loss of conductance, and  $S$  the slope of the curve at  
177 this point.

178 *Specific conductivity.* Stem segments of 50 cm long were cut underwater at a length ( $L_{stem}$ ) of  
179 40 cm long using a razor blade for Droughted ( $n = 8$ ), Control ( $n = 9$ ) and Shaded ( $n = 9$ )  
180 plants. The apical end of the sample was sealed to a tubing system (polytetrafluoroethylene  
181 film) and plugged to an embolism meter (Xyl'em, Bronkhorst, Montigny les Cormeilles,  
182 France). The initial conductance ( $K_i$ ) is then measured under low pressure (2 to 7 kPa) using a  
183 solution of 10 mM KCl and 1 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>. The xylem area  $A_x$  of the distal end of the sample  
184 was measured on a cross section using a scanner (V800, Epson, Nagano, Japan). The  
185 measurement of  $A_x$  was performed on the scanned image using the ImageJ software (version  
186 v.1.52c) (Schneider et al. 2012). The Specific Conductivity  $K_S$  was defined according to  
187 equation 2.

$$188 \quad K_S = \frac{K_i \times L_{stem}}{A_x} \quad (2)$$

189 *Native Embolism.* The native embolism of the stem segments of 10 cm long were measured  
190 the day of their harvest for Droughted ( $n = 9$ ), Control ( $n = 5$ ) and Shaded ( $n = 6$ ). Each  
191 sample was cut underwater using a razor blade to a length of 8 cm. Then, the initial  
192 conductance ( $K_i$ ) was measured under low pressure (2 to 7 kPa) with the same method and the  
193 same solution as specific conductivity. Then, the sample was flushed with the same solution  
194 two times for 5 min under high pressure (0.1 to 0.2 MPa) in order to remove embolism. A



195 new measurement of conductance without embolism gives the maximum conductance ( $K_{max}$ )  
196 of the sample. The native embolism was calculated according to the equation 3.

$$197 \quad \text{Native Embolism} = \left(1 - \frac{K_i}{K_{max}}\right) \times 100 \quad (3)$$

### 198 **Light microscopy**

199 Samples of 1 cm long were cut into 3 x 3 mm<sup>2</sup> blocks then they were immersed in  
200 Karnovsky's fixative solution under vacuum for 30 min, then stored at 4 °C in the fixative  
201 solution up to the next step. Then, they were dehydrated in an ethanol series (50, 70, 80, and  
202 95 %) and embedded in LR White medium. Transverse slices of 2 to 3 µm thick were cut  
203 using an ultramicrotome (Om U2, Reichert, Vienna, Austria). Sections were stained with 1 %  
204 (w/v) toluidine blue, washed 4 times with water and mounted in Eukitt (Sigma-Aldrich, St-  
205 Louis, MO, USA). Images were processed using a microscope (Zeiss Axio Observer Z1), a  
206 digital camera (AxioCam MRc) and Zen imaging software system (Zeiss, Jena, Germany).

207 Image analyses were performed using ImageJ software. The vessel diameter ( $D_v$ ) was  
208 estimated to be the diameter of the circle having the same area as the vessel lumen (for the  
209 symbols, see Table 1). The contact fraction ( $F_c$ ) was measured for each vessel as the ratio of  
210 wall length shared with other vessels over the vessel perimeter. The grouping index (GI) was  
211 measured as the mean number of vessels per group and the solitary index (SI) as the ratio of  
212 the number of solitary vessels to the total number of vessels. These parameters were measured  
213 for each individual slice containing a mean of 850 vessels, for Droughted (n = 9), Control (n =  
214 5) and Shaded (n = 6) plants.

### 215 **Vessel length**

216 The vessel length was measured by the silicon injection method (Sperry et al. 2005, Scholz et  
217 al. 2013b) on the samples used for Cavitron technique, after five months of drying at room  
218 temperature. A fluorescent optical brightener (CAS number: 7128-64-5, Sigma-Aldrich, St-  
219 Louis, MO, USA) was mixed in chloroform (1 % w/w) and added to a volume of silicon

220 (BLUESIL RTV-141 A, Bluestar Silicones, Lyon, France) with a proportion of one drop of  
221 solution per gram of silicon. A Silicone hardener (BLUESIL RTV-141 B, Bluestar Silicones)  
222 was added to the mixture in 1:10 proportion. The mixture was then injected under pressure  
223 (30 to 40 kPa) basipetally in the stem sample using a pressure chamber during at least 8 hours.  
224 After silicone hardening (3 days at room temperature), the samples were cut 5 mm far from  
225 the injection point; then every 20 mm. For each segment, one 25  $\mu\text{m}$  thick slice was cut using  
226 a rotary microtome (RM2165, Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany). Cross section slices  
227 were dyed with Astra Blue and mounted with a Lugol's iodine solution.

228 Images were obtained using a fluorescence microscope (Axio Observer Z1) equipped with a  
229 300 to 400 nm band pass excitation filter, a digital camera (AxioCam 506), Zen imaging  
230 software system (Zeiss, Jena, Germany) and analysed using the ImageJ software. Fluorescent  
231 vessels highlighted the open vessels, while white light allowed counting the total number of  
232 vessels. The decrease of the ratio of open vessels ( $N_x$ ) (*i.e.* fluorescent vessels) to the total  
233 number of vessels ( $N_0$ ) over the distance ( $x$ ) from the end of the sample followed a Weibull  
234 function (equation 4) where  $k$  is the best-fit extinction coefficient (Cohen et al. 2003).

$$235 \quad N_x = N_0 \times e^{-kx} \quad (4)$$

236 The fraction of conduits of length  $x$  ( $P(x)$ ) is obtained by multiplying  $x/N_0$  to the second  
237 derivative of equation 4 (Wheeler et al. 2005):

$$238 \quad P(x) = x \times k^2 \times e^{-kx} \quad (5)$$

239 The continuous cumulative function of vessel length ( $L_v$ ) probability is a function given in the  
240 equation 6.

$$241 \quad f(x) = \int_0^{L_v} x k^2 \cdot e^{-kx} dx \quad (6)$$

242 When this cumulative function is equal to 0.5, this gives the median value of vessel length  
243 ( $L_v$ ) (equation 7).

$$244 \quad f(L_v) = -(kL_v + 1) \cdot e^{-kL_v} + 1 = 0.5 \quad (7)$$

245 The solution of the equation 7 gives the median vessel length  $L_v = 1.678/k$ . This vessel  
246 length was estimated for 7 Droughted, 5 Control and 5 Shaded stem samples.

### 247 **Transmission Electron Microscopy**

248 Fresh samples of 1 cm long were cut into 2 to 4 mm<sup>3</sup> blocks, immersed in Karnovsky's  
249 fixative solution under vacuum for 30 min, then stored at 4 °C in the fixative solution for 3  
250 weeks. Blocks were recut into 1 to 2 mm<sup>3</sup> pieces, then they were secondary fixed for 4 hours  
251 at ambient temperature in a 0.1M phosphate-buffered osmium tetroxide solution (1 %), pH  
252 7.4. Then, they were dehydrated in an ethanol series (25, 50, 70, 100, and 100 %) and  
253 embedded in Epoxy resin using Epoxy medium kit (Sigma-Aldrich, St-Louis, MO, USA).  
254 Then, ultra-thin sections (60-90 nm) were cut using an ultramicrotome (PowerTome PC,  
255 RMC Boeckeler, Tucson, AZ, USA). The sections were placed on 200- and 300-mesh copper  
256 grids and stained with contrast solutions: UranylLess (Delta Microscopies, Mauressac, France)  
257 and lead citrate. Sections were observed using a transmission electron microscope (H-7650,  
258 Hitachi High-Technologies Corporation, Tokyo, Japan) at a voltage of 80 kV. Measurements  
259 of pit features were performed on images with pits showing two apertures. Pits were  
260 characterized for their diameter ( $D_p$ ), their aperture diameter ( $D_a$ ), their depth of pit chamber  
261 ( $L_p$ ) and their membrane thickness ( $T_m$ ). For each pit,  $D_a$  was the mean of two measurements  
262 while  $L_p$  and  $T_m$  were the mean of four measurements. Pit features were measured for five  
263 individual trees for each growth condition, with at least 10 pits measured per individual tree.

### 264 **Scanning Electron Microscopy**

265 Fresh samples were fixed in glutaraldehyde 3 % fixative solution and stored at 4 °C for at  
266 least 1 month. Samples of 4 cm long were cut in a longitudinal way and were dehydrated in an  
267 ethanol series (30, 50, 75, and 100 %). After dehydration, samples were immersed in a 1:1  
268 solution hexamethyldisilazane (HMDS) + ethanol 100 % for 30 min and immersed in pure  
269 HMDS for 30 min. After air drying overnight under a hood, the samples were mounted on

270 aluminium stubs with carbon double-sided adhesive disks, coated with gold/palladium in a  
271 sputter coater (SC7640, Quorum Technologies Ltd, Newhaven, U.K.), and finally observed  
272 using a scanning electron microscope (S-3400N, Hitachi High-Technologies Corporation,  
273 Tokyo, Japan) at a voltage of 5 kV. The portion of area covered by bordered pits in each inter-  
274 vessel pit-field ( $F_{pf}$ ) was measured using the ImageJ software. Five samples were measured  
275 per growth condition, and seven pit-fields were characterized per sample.

### 276 **Calculation of supplemental hydraulic and structural traits**

277 Theoretical conductivities ( $K_h$ ) of all samples characterized for light microscopy were  
278 calculated according to Scholz et al. (2013b) and converted into  $\text{mol.s}^{-1}.\text{MPa}^{-1}.\text{m}^{-1}$   
279 (equation 8).

$$280 \quad K_h = \frac{\sum \frac{\pi D_v^4}{128 \eta}}{A_x} \times \frac{\rho}{M_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}} \quad (8)$$

281 with  $\eta$  the viscosity index of water ( $1.002 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^4.\text{MPa}^{-1}.\text{s}^{-1}$  at 20 °C),  $\rho$  the density of water  
282 ( $9.982 \times 10^5 \text{ g.m}^{-3}$ ),  $M_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  the water molar mass ( $18.0 \text{ g.mol}^{-1}$ ) and  $A_x$  the xylem area.

283 The pit fraction ( $F_p$ ) was defined as the product of the pit-field fraction ( $F_{pf}$ ) and contact  
284 fraction ( $F_c$ ) (equation 9).

$$285 \quad F_p = F_{pf} \times F_c \quad (9)$$

286 The pit fraction was measured on five individual trees for each growth condition.

287 The vessel area ( $A_v$ ) was calculated as the area of a cylinder according to the equation 10.

$$288 \quad A_v = D_v \times L_v \times \pi + 2\pi \left(\frac{D_v}{2}\right)^2 \quad (10)$$

289 It was measured for 7 Droughted, 5 Control and 5 Shaded individuals.

290 The pit area per vessel ( $A_p$ ) was calculated as the product of the two above-cited traits  
291 (equation 11).

$$292 \quad A_p = A_v \times F_p \quad (11)$$

293 It was measured for 4 Droughted, 5 Control and 4 Shaded individuals.

294 Xylem water potentials at the onset of xylem embolism ( $P_{12}$ ) and at full embolism ( $P_{88}$ ) were  
295 calculated using equation 12 and 13 respectively (Domec and Gartner 2001), with  $P_{50}$  and  $S$   
296 from equation 1.

$$297 \quad P_{12} = P_{50} + \frac{50}{S} \quad (12)$$

$$298 \quad P_{88} = P_{50} - \frac{50}{S} \quad (13)$$

299

### 300 **Measurement of individual vessel vulnerability to embolism using X-Ray** 301 **microtomography**

302 Four stem segments from Droughted and Control plants were sampled and prepared in the  
303 same condition as for vulnerability to embolism measurements. We used the techniques  
304 described in Cochard et al. (2015). Segments were cut underwater at 43 cm long using a razor  
305 blade, sealed in liquid paraffin wax in order to prevent dehydration during the  
306 microtomography scans. A first 21 min scan was acquired using a X-ray microtomography  
307 system (Phoenix nanotom, General Electric, Boston, MA, USA) at the centre of the segment  
308 as described below to reveal the native state of embolism in each shoot. The field-of view was  
309  $7.8 \times 7.8 \times 7.8 \text{ mm}^3$  and covered each full cross section of the samples. X-ray source settings  
310 were 60 kV and 240  $\mu\text{A}$ . 1000 images were recorded during the 360 ° rotation of the sample.  
311 Then, the paraffin was broken at the ends in order to allow the water flow and the sample was  
312 set in a Cavitron during 5 min at 0.08 MPa, immersed in paraffin and scanned again with the  
313 microtomograph at the same location than previously to observe the new embolism status.  
314 The same procedure was repeated for increasing pressure steps, until - 4 MPa (Fig. 1).  
315 Then, the stem sample was cut in the air at 5 mm above the scanned section in order to  
316 embolize 100 % of the functional vessels and a last microtomography scan was performed in  
317 order to visualize the complete vessel network.

318 The sample was then dried several days in room conditions and a 25  $\mu\text{m}$  thick cross section  
319 slice was cut with a rotary microtome (RM2165, Leica Microsystems). Sections were dyed  
320 with series of baths as following: bleach (about 15 sec), acetic acid, Astra blue (1 min), acetic  
321 acid, safranin (1 min), acetic acid with a water bath between each solution, then an ethanol  
322 series (50, 70, 100 and 100 %). The sections were mounted in Eukitt. Images were processed  
323 using a microscope (Zeiss Axio Observer Z1), a digital camera (AxioCam MRc) and Zen  
324 imaging software system (Zeiss, Jena, Germany). Image analyses were performed using Fiji  
325 software (under ImageJ version 2.0.0-rc-68/1.52h) (Schindelin et al. 2012, Schneider et al.  
326 2012). Diameter of each vessel ( $D_v^*$ ) was estimated as the diameter of the circle with the same  
327 area as the vessel lumen. For each vessel, the number of vessel in the group (Group Size; GS)  
328 and the fraction of membrane in contact with other vessels ( $F_c^*$ ) was also measured.

329 The microtomography scans were reconstructed in three-dimension (3D) using Phoenix  
330 datosx 2 software (General Electric, Boston, MA, USA) with spatial resolution of  
331  $6.8 \times 6.8 \times 6.8 \mu\text{m}^3$  per voxel. Then, for each 3D-reconstruction, a cross section was extracted  
332 at the exact same location as with the microscopy section. Using the series of x-ray scans, the  
333 embolism pressure in a vessel ( $P_e$ ) was defined as the pressure step from which the vessel  
334 appeared to be air-filled.

335 Images from microtomography observation (virtual cross sections built by 3D reconstruction)  
336 and microscopy observation (stem cross section observed by light microscopy) were aligned  
337 using the “Align image by line ROI” tool of Fiji software. A unique identification number  
338 was given to each vessel observed in images from both techniques, in order to link the  
339 embolism pressure with anatomical parameters (Fig. 1, E). A total of 2570 vessels were  
340 identified. Vessels were grouped per  $D_v^*$ , per  $F_c^*$  and per GS classes. Classes were sized to be  
341 as uniform as possible, counting from 183 up to 748 vessels. A total of 1100 solitary vessels

342 were grouped in the same class when required. Cumulative number of embolized vessels were  
343 plotted according to their  $P_e$  and, for each class, a Weibull function was fit (equation 1).

#### 344 **Statistical analysis**

345 The statistical analysis was performed using the RStudio software (version 1.1.456; running  
346 under R core version 3.5.1, R Development Core Team 2008). One way ANOVA were used  
347 for comparing the means between the three growth conditions. When we found a significant  
348 difference, we referred to Tukey's multiple range test at  $P < 0.05$  to compare the mean values  
349 between growth conditions. The correlation between the structural traits and the  $P_{50}$  and  $P_e$   
350 were calculated using linear regressions.

351

#### 352 **Results**

353 Continuous recordings of the radial growth showed a significant lower growth for the  
354 Droughted plants (Table 2). These plants also showed a lower height, lower leaf area, lower  
355  $\Psi_{pd}$  and lower  $\Psi_{mid}$ , demonstrating that these plants grown under a constrained water regime  
356 were affected for their development when compared to Control and Shaded plants. The higher  
357 leaf area for Shaded plants compared to Control plants is an evidence that the shading  
358 conditions affected the plant development.

359 Growing clone plants under different environmental conditions aimed to induce wide  
360 variations in xylem vulnerability to embolism. The three growth conditions spread the  
361 measured  $P_{50}$  in a range from - 2.00 to - 3.47 MPa. A significantly lower  $P_{50}$  was found on  
362 Droughted when compared to Control and Shaded plants ( $p$ -value  $< 0.001$ , Table 2), while  
363 the slopes of the vulnerability curves were not different depending on the growth conditions  
364 (Fig. 2, A). Despite a slightly higher native embolism measured on Droughted plants  
365 compared to Shaded plants,  $\Psi_{mid}$  was higher than the inflexion point of the vulnerability curve  
366 ( $P_{12}$ ) for each growth condition. This allows excluding any effect of these quite low native

367 embolism on measured  $P_{50}$ . There was no difference on mean  $K_S$  between the growth  
368 conditions (Fig. 2, B), suggesting no plasticity for this trait in our experimental conditions.  
369 When considering the vessel diameter measured by light microscopy, a reduced  $K_h$  was  
370 measured in the Droughted plants compared to Control and Shaded plants (Table 2).  
371 The analyses combining diverse observation methods (light microscopy, TEM, SEM),  
372 allowed measuring a large set of anatomical traits from tissue to pit level. The correlation  
373 between these traits and the  $P_{50}$  was assessed (Fig. 3, 4).  
374 The traits measured at tissue level (GI, SI and  $F_p$ ) showed a strong linear correlation with  $P_{50}$   
375 ( $R^2 > 0.70$ ;  $p$ -value  $< 0.001$ ; Fig. 3, 4), except  $F_c$  that exhibited a weaker correlation  
376 ( $R^2 = 0.377$ ;  $p$ -value = 0.0040). These results put in light a relationship between vessels  
377 connectivity and grouping and vulnerability to embolism (negative relationship for  $F_c$ , GI and  
378  $F_p$ ; positive relationship for SI). However, we also found no correlation between Pit-field  
379 fraction ( $F_{pt}$ ) and  $P_{50}$ , with no variation among the growth conditions (Table 3). We observe a  
380 strong positive relationship ( $p$ -value  $< 0.001$ ) between  $P_{50}$  and the vessel dimensions ( $L_v$ ,  $D_v$   
381 and  $A_v$ ) showing that larger vessels with larger pit area tend to be associated with an increase  
382 in vulnerability to embolism ( $R^2 > 0.75$ ;  $p$ -value  $< 0.001$ ). The positive correlation between  
383  $P_{50}$  and  $A_p$  ( $R^2 = 0.782$ ;  $p$ -value  $< 0.001$ , Fig. 4) enlightened the link between the area of  
384 vessel covered by bordered pits and the xylem vulnerability to embolism.  
385 No linear correlation appeared between the qualitative pit parameters ( $D_a$ ,  $D_p$ ,  $L_p$  and  $T_m$ ) and  
386 the  $P_{50}$ : we observed no variation for  $D_a$ ,  $D_p$  and  $T_m$  among growth conditions.  
387 The direct microtomographic visualization of embolism inside the xylem (Fig. 1) allowed  
388 evaluating the vulnerability to embolism of individual vessels classified depending on their  
389 structural parameters (Fig. 5). The correlation between  $D_v^*$  and  $P_e$  (Fig. 5, A) was clear: wider  
390 vessels appeared more vulnerable than the narrower ones.  $F_c^*$  showed a smaller influence on  
391  $P_e$  (Fig. 5, B): solitary vessels ( $F_c^* \leq 1$  %) and weakly connected vessels ( $1 < F_c^* \leq 20$  %) were



392 more vulnerable than the highly connected vessels ( $F_c^* > 20\%$ ). The link between GS and  $P_e$   
393 (Fig. 5, C) appeared to be the less clear: the most vulnerable vessels were the solitary ones  
394 whereas the grouped vessels ( $GS \geq 2$ ) were less vulnerable. Despite a significant correlation  
395 between  $P_e$  and  $D_v^*$ ,  $F_c^*$  and GS ( $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ; Fig. 5, D), the strength of the correlation  
396 was very poor ( $R^2 < 0.25$ ).

397

## 398 **Discussion**

399 The range for  $P_{50}$  plasticity induced by the growth conditions was large: 0.76 MPa between  
400 the mean  $P_{50}$  of Droughted and Shaded plants (Table 2; Fig. 2, A) and up to 1.47 MPa  
401 between two individuals. This is consistent with previous studies: Awad et al. (2010) got a  
402 difference of 0.63 MPa between droughted and well-watered plants; Plavcová and Hacke  
403 (2012) got a difference of 1.08 MPa between droughted and shaded *Populus trichocarpa* x  
404 *deltooides* plants. In this latter study, they reported a variation of  $P_{50}$  up to 1.56 MPa but their  
405 setup also included treatment in nutrient availability, and they recorded r-shaped curves that  
406 cannot be compared with our S-shaped curves. Therefore, the plasticity induced by our  
407 experimental setup was probably close to the maximum we could expect according to the  
408 literature.

409 The absence of difference in specific hydraulic conductivity ( $K_s$ ) between, Droughted and  
410 Control plants (Table 2; Fig. 2, B) not surprising since poor correlation between vulnerability  
411 to embolism and  $K_s$  has been reported in a meta-analysis (Gleason et al. 2016). Furthermore,  
412 the lack of trade-off between hydraulic efficiency and safety was observed within species  
413 (Awad et al. 2010, Plavcová and Hacke 2012, Schuldt et al. 2016). A significant decrease of  
414 the theoretical conductivities ( $K_h$ ) was found for Droughted plants compared to other plants  
415 (Table 2), relying on a decrease in vessel diameter ( $D_v$ ) (Table 3); whereas the pit structure  
416 was not modified (Table 3). The decrease in lumen conductance in Droughted plants may be

417 offset by other changes we did not investigate, such as vessel wall carving, pit biochemistry or  
418 pit membrane porosity.

419  $P_{50}$  was correlated with anatomical traits related to quantitative pit characteristics measured at  
420 the xylem and vessel levels (significant correlations with  $R^2 > 0.7$  for 7 out of the 9 traits; Fig.  
421 3, 4). By contrast, no correlation was found with the traits related to the qualitative pit  
422 characteristics we measured, i.e. the pit dimensions ( $D_a$ ,  $D_p$ ,  $L_p$  and  $T_m$ ; Fig. 3). Thus, the pit  
423 ultrastructure does not appear as a driver of the plasticity of vulnerability to embolism in  
424 *Populus tremula x alba*. The pit membrane pore sizes contribute to the differences in  
425 vulnerability to embolism (Jansen et al. 2009); but this parameter is difficult to measure  
426 accurately because pores include a series of various pore constrictions, and the most narrow  
427 constriction will be the main bottleneck. The role of the biochemical composition of the pit  
428 membrane in vulnerability to embolism plasticity cannot be excluded. Once again, pit  
429 biochemistry was investigated using immunolabelling (Kim et al. 2011, Herbette et al. 2015),  
430 but accurate techniques are needed to investigate within-species difference in  $P_{50}$ . Moreover,  
431 calcium in pit membrane was reported to be a major determinant of between-species  
432 differences in vulnerability to embolism, but it was not involved in the plasticity of  
433 vulnerability to embolism (Herbette and Cochard 2010).

434 Pit ultrastructure, especially the pit membrane thickness were identified as the major traits  
435 involved in variation in vulnerability to embolism between species (Jansen et al. 2009; Tixier  
436 et al. 2014). In addition, between species differences in vulnerability to embolism also depend  
437 on pit mechanical behaviour (Tixier et al. 2014). The probability for air seeding through large  
438 pores is expected to be higher when more pits are present (rare pit hypothesis proposed by  
439 Christman et al. 2009). The pit area can thus explain differences in vulnerability to embolism  
440 among some angiosperm groups but not others (Lens et al. 2013). This trait, which depends  
441 on the vessel dimensions and xylem organization, does not appear very relevant to explain

442 variability in vulnerability to embolism between species. Lens et al. (2011) tested the  
443 relationship between several qualitative and quantitative pit properties and vulnerability to  
444 embolism for 11 acer species. They found that vulnerability to embolism strongly correlated  
445 with depth of bordered pit chamber ( $L_p$ ) and pit membrane thickness ( $T_m$ ) whereas no  
446 relationship was found between vulnerability to embolism and vessel diameter ( $D_v$ ) and total  
447 pit area per vessel ( $A_p$ ). By contrast, our results suggest that the plasticity of vulnerability to  
448 embolism plasticity is controlled by the xylem organization and vessel dimensions, and not by  
449 changes in pit structure. Thus, the mechanisms controlling the inter-specific variability in  
450 vulnerability to embolism seem to be different from the drivers of the within species  
451 plasticity.

452 Vulnerability curves are commonly established by measuring the impact of embolism on the  
453 conductance, but not by measuring the embolism rates. Because an embolized vessel can  
454 induce different effects on the xylem conductance and thus the value of  $P_{50}$ , depending on  
455 vessel size and xylem organisation, “hydraulic vulnerability” would be a more suitable term  
456 when we compare xylems for  $P_{50}$  using methods based on hydraulic measurements. That is  
457 why we will use now this term in the following lines. X-ray microtomography investigations  
458 allow the visualisation of embolized vessels, and not the loss of hydraulic conductance. Thus,  
459 it really allows measuring the vulnerability to embolism and not the hydraulic vulnerability.

460 Our results showing a strong relationship between  $P_{50}$  and some vessel and xylem parameters  
461 provide three non-exclusive explanations for the acclimation of hydraulic vulnerability. This  
462 latter relies on changes in vulnerability to embolism of the vessels or on changes in the effect  
463 of the embolism on conductance. First, our study shows that vulnerable individuals exhibited  
464 bigger vessels (both longer ( $L_v$ ) and wider ( $D_v$ ); Fig. 3). When a large vessel embolizes, it  
465 generates a greater impact on the hydraulic conductivity compared to a smaller vessel. Thus, a  
466 xylem having a high proportion of large vessels undergoes an important drop of conductivity

467 after each vessel embolism. Second, we found that vulnerable xylems had a greater SI and a  
468 lower GI and  $F_c$ . Redundancy in the xylem has already been linked with a lower hydraulic  
469 vulnerability using modelling (Ewers et al. 2007). High connectivity and grouping is an  
470 efficient way to maintain the hydraulic conductance despite embolized vessels in the xylem  
471 by providing alternative pathways to the water flow (Carlquist 1966, Schuldt et al. 2016).  
472 Third, larger vessels have a larger pit area per vessel ( $A_p$ ) and would thus be more prone to  
473 embolism, according to the pit area hypothesis (Christman et al. 2009). Direct observations  
474 using X-ray microtomography allowed monitoring the dynamics of xylem embolism and in  
475 particular to determine the embolism pressure for each vessel in a stem sample (Fig.1; Fig. 5).  
476 This approach supports the third explanation, since larger vessels ( $D_v^*$ ) had a higher  
477 vulnerability to embolism— as noticed by Cai and Tyree (2010) using a statistical and indirect  
478 and destructive technique. Nevertheless, the poor correlation (low  $R^2$  values) between the  
479 embolism pressure of each vessel ( $P_e$ ) and  $D_v^*$ ,  $F_c^*$  or GS give us clue that the rare pit  
480 hypothesis is far from being sufficient for explaining the hydraulic vulnerability inside a stem  
481 sample. Other additional mechanisms would be involved to explain the plasticity of hydraulic  
482 vulnerability observed among growth conditions: they would include the effect of redundancy  
483 and of vessel embolized volume on the loss of conductance. That is why we assume that the  
484 different mechanisms we described here act together to design the hydraulic vulnerability  
485 during acclimation.

486 In conclusion, we found that the acclimation of vulnerability to embolism to contrasted  
487 growth conditions occurs without any change in pit ultrastructure, contrary to what was  
488 reported when comparing species. Thus, within-species plasticity and between-species  
489 variability for vulnerability to embolism rely on different mechanisms. Instead, we showed  
490 that an increase in resistance to embolism in poplar is related to an increase in vessels  
491 connectivity and grouping and a decrease in vessel dimensions, leading to reduce the likely of

492 air seeding through a pit in a vessel and the effect of such embolism events on hydraulic  
493 conductance. This study will allow focusing on the relevant candidate genes controlling  
494 vulnerability to embolism such as those involved in vessels grouping and connectivity or  
495 vessel dimensions. These genes include the aquaporins involved in cell expansion during  
496 xylogenesis (Plavcová et al. 2013), the genes controlling the cell wall metabolism in xylem  
497 such as *VND6*, *VND7* and *MYB46*, which expression levels changed in response to an abiotic  
498 stress (Plavcová et al. 2013, Taylor-Teeples et al. 2016) or *CLE* genes (*CLE41* and *CLE44*)  
499 that repress the xylem differentiation (De Rybel et al. 2016).

500

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#### 510 **Authors' contributions**

511 C.L. and S.H. designed the study and wrote the manuscript with contributions from all  
512 authors. C.L., P.C. and J.C. performed field work and hydraulic measurements; C.L., N.B-M.,  
513 Y.Q., L.B. and J.S. performed electron microscopy; C.L., N.B-M., P.C. performed light  
514 microscopy; C.L., P.C., E.B. and J.C. performed X-ray microCT; C.L., P.C. and E.B.  
515 performed image analysis. All authors approved this manuscript.

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690 Figure 2: Xylem hydraulic traits in trees depending on the growth conditions. A: Xylem  
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698 Figure 3: Correlation between  $P_{50}$  and several xylem structural traits. Data are squares of the  
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704 Figure 4: Correlation between  $P_{50}$  and two xylem structural traits. A: Relationship between  
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708 dotted line is the regression line.

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710 Figure 5: Correlation between  $P_e$  and vessel traits inside a xylem. Data are all vessel  
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723 trait: "\*\*\*\*",  $p$ -value < 0.001.

724 Table 1: Meanings of the symbols.

<b>Symbol</b>	<b>Definition</b>	<b>Unit</b>
<b>LA</b>	Mean leaf area	cm <sup>2</sup>
<b>A<sub>p</sub></b>	Mean total pit area per vessel	mm <sup>2</sup>
<b>A<sub>v</sub></b>	Mean area per vessel	mm <sup>2</sup>
<b>D<sub>a</sub></b>	Mean pit aperture diameter	μm
<b>D<sub>p</sub></b>	Mean pit diameter	μm
<b>D<sub>v</sub></b>	Mean vessel diameter	μm
<b>D<sub>v</sub><sup>*</sup></b>	Vessel diameter	μm
<b>F<sub>c</sub></b>	Mean contact fraction: mean membrane length in contact with other vessels over total membrane length	%
<b>F<sub>c</sub><sup>*</sup></b>	Vessel contact fraction: for each vessel, fraction of membrane length in contact with other vessels	%
<b>F<sub>p</sub></b>	Mean pit fraction: mean total pit area in contact with other vessels over total vessel area	%
<b>F<sub>pf</sub></b>	Mean pit-field fraction: pit area over inter-vessel area	%
<b>GI</b>	Vessel grouping index	-
<b>GS</b>	Vessel group size	-
<b>L<sub>p</sub></b>	Mean pit chamber depth	μm
<b>L<sub>v</sub></b>	Median vessel length	μm
<b>P<sub>e</sub></b>	Pressure inducing embolism in a vessel	MPa
<b>SI</b>	Vessel solitary index	%
<b>T<sub>m</sub></b>	Mean pit membrane thickness	μm

725

726 Table 2: Physiological characterisation of sapling grown under the three different conditions.

<b>Factor</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Droughted</b>	<b>Control</b>	<b>Shaded</b>
$\Psi_{pd}$	Mpa	- 0.59 ± 0.44 <sup>a</sup>	- 0.14 ± 0.03 <sup>b</sup>	- 0.11 ± 0.02 <sup>b</sup>
$\Psi_{min}$	MPa	- 1.44 ± 0.33 <sup>a</sup>	- 0.98 ± 0.06 <sup>b</sup>	- 0.98 ± 0.11 <sup>b</sup>
<b>LA</b>	cm <sup>2</sup>	87.64 ± 18.41 <sup>a</sup>	137.61 ± 17.55 <sup>b</sup>	184.13 ± 40.34 <sup>c</sup>
<b>Height</b>	mm	1685 ± 187 <sup>a</sup>	2237 ± 263 <sup>b</sup>	2282 ± 76 <sup>b</sup>
<b>Diameter</b>	mm	9.47 ± 0.83 <sup>a</sup>	13.96 ± 0.49 <sup>b</sup>	10.94 ± 0.61 <sup>b</sup>
$K_h$	mmol.s <sup>-1</sup> .MPa <sup>-1</sup> .m <sup>-1</sup>	527.21 ± 186.63 <sup>a</sup>	766.92 ± 154.71 <sup>b</sup>	780.60 ± 110.01 <sup>b</sup>
$K_s$	mmol.s <sup>-1</sup> .MPa <sup>-1</sup> .m <sup>-1</sup>	585.65 ± 106.76 <sup>a</sup>	579.50 ± 167.38 <sup>a</sup>	529.88 ± 183.41 <sup>a</sup>
$P_{50}$	MPa	- 3.03 ± 0.23 <sup>a</sup>	- 2.49 ± 0.10 <sup>b</sup>	- 2.27 ± 0.18 <sup>b</sup>
$P_{12}$	MPa	- 2.55 ± 0.34 <sup>a</sup>	- 2.02 ± 0.11 <sup>b</sup>	- 1.87 ± 0.11 <sup>b</sup>
$P_{88}$	MPa	- 3.51 ± 0.24 <sup>a</sup>	- 2.95 ± 0.11 <sup>b</sup>	- 2.68 ± 0.11 <sup>b</sup>
<b>Native Embolism</b>	%	1.81 ± 10.47 <sup>a</sup>	- 7.48 ± 7.91 <sup>ab</sup>	- 10.81 ± 7.84 <sup>b</sup>

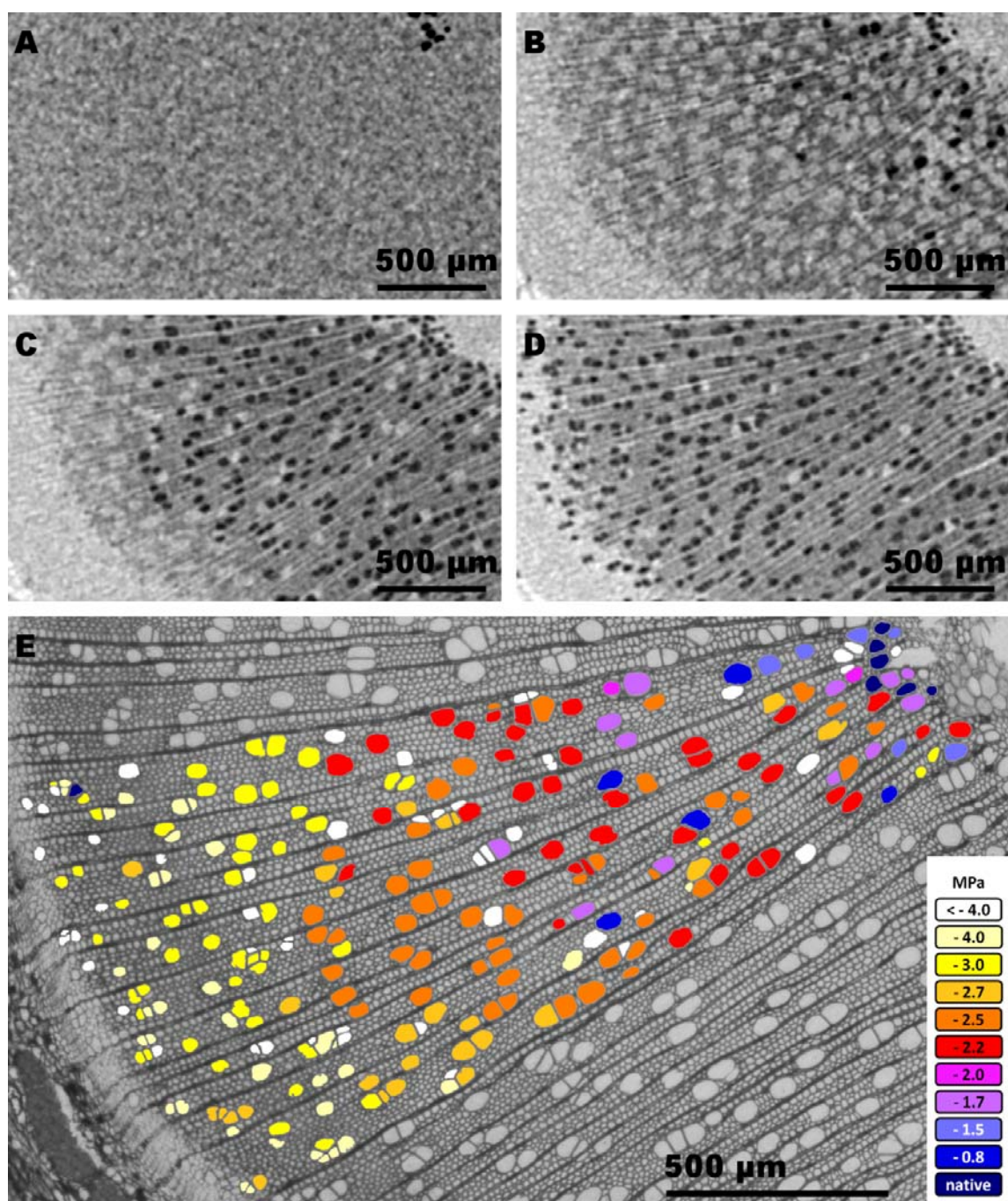
727

728 Data are mean values ± standard deviation for each growth condition. For each line, values  
 729 not followed by the same letter differ significantly at  $p < 0.05$  (one-way ANOVA).  $\Psi_{pd}$ ,  
 730 Predawn water potential;  $\Psi_{min}$ , Minimum water potential; LA, Leaf area;  $K_h$ , Theoretical  
 731 hydraulic conductivity;  $K_s$ , Specific hydraulic conductivity;  $P_{50}$ ;  $P_{12}$ ;  $P_{88}$ , pressure inducing  
 732 50; 12 and 88 percent loss of conductance.

733 Table 3: Xylem structural traits depending on the growth conditions.

<b>Trait</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Droughted</b>	<b>Control</b>	<b>Shaded</b>
$A_p$	mm <sup>2</sup>	1.20 ± 0.51 <sup>a</sup>	2.94 ± 0.65 <sup>b</sup>	3.78 ± 0.27 <sup>c</sup>
$A_v$	mm <sup>2</sup>	8.21 ± 3.93 <sup>a</sup>	20.63 ± 3.64 <sup>b</sup>	26.65 ± 8.22 <sup>b</sup>
$D_a$	μm	3.67 ± 0.34	3.37 ± 0.61	3.98 ± 0.81
$D_p$	μm	9.18 ± 0.69	8.64 ± 0.55	8.89 ± 0.72
$D_v$	μm	31.22 ± 6.14 <sup>a</sup>	40.07 ± 1.98 <sup>b</sup>	42.71 ± 2.28 <sup>b</sup>
$F_c$	%	20.35 ± 2.70 <sup>a</sup>	19.01 ± 1.13 <sup>b</sup>	17.04 ± 0.96 <sup>c</sup>
$F_p$	%	15.95 ± 1.13 <sup>a</sup>	14.15 ± 0.77 <sup>b</sup>	12.53 ± 0.56 <sup>c</sup>
$F_{pf}$	%	74.45 ± 1.33	74.46 ± 2.93	74.13 ± 2.75
<b>GI</b>	-	1.84 ± 0.20 <sup>a</sup>	1.63 ± 0.05 <sup>b</sup>	1.51 ± 0.05 <sup>c</sup>
$L_p$	μm	1.99 ± 0.06	2.08 ± 0.03	1.87 ± 0.11
$L_v$	mm	70.79 ± 25.1 <sup>a</sup>	137.0 ± 18.86 <sup>b</sup>	164.6 ± 48.4 <sup>c</sup>
<b>SI</b>	%	33.13 ± 5.43 <sup>a</sup>	38.46 ± 2.19 <sup>b</sup>	43.73 ± 3.11 <sup>c</sup>
$T_m$	μm	0.26 ± 0.04	0.23 ± 0.04	0.24 ± 0.02

734 The meaning of the symbols is given in Table 1. For each trait, the method for measurement  
735 and number of replication are indicated in the methods section. Data are mean values ±  
736 standard deviation. For each line, values not followed by the same letter differ significantly at  
737  $p < 0.05$  (one-way ANOVA).

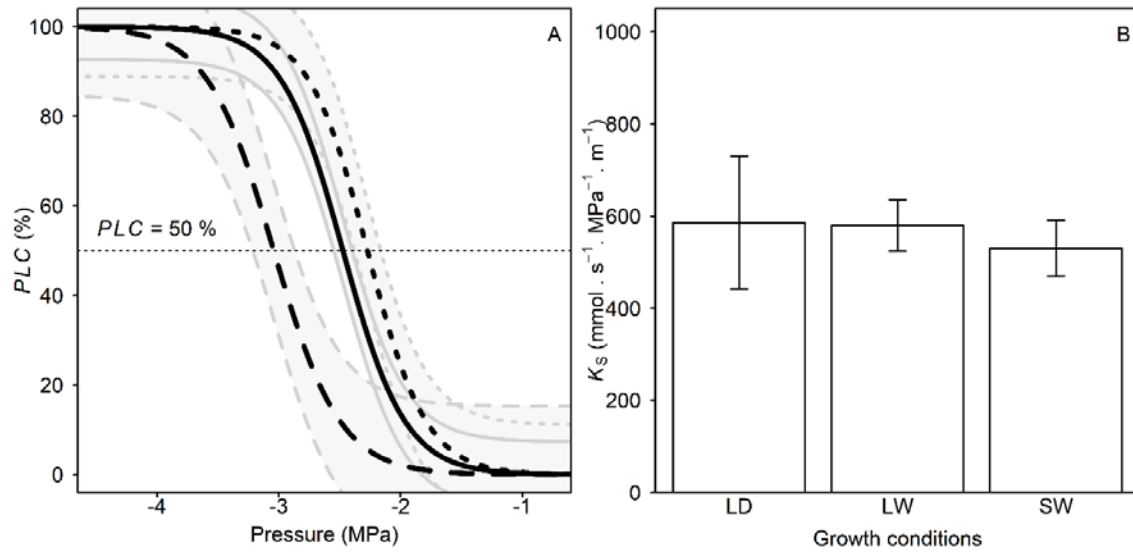


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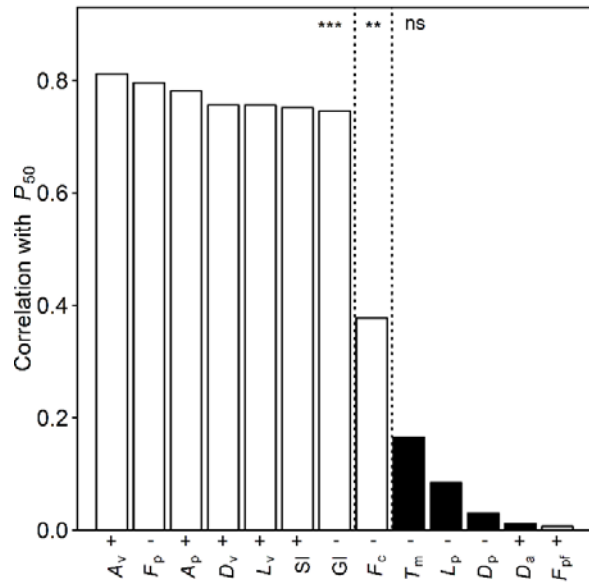


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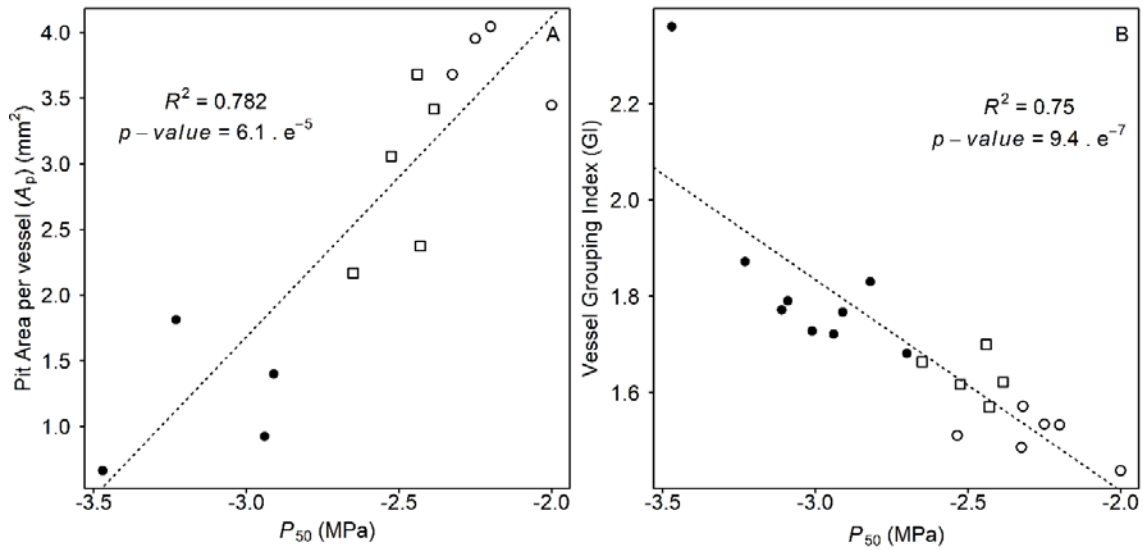
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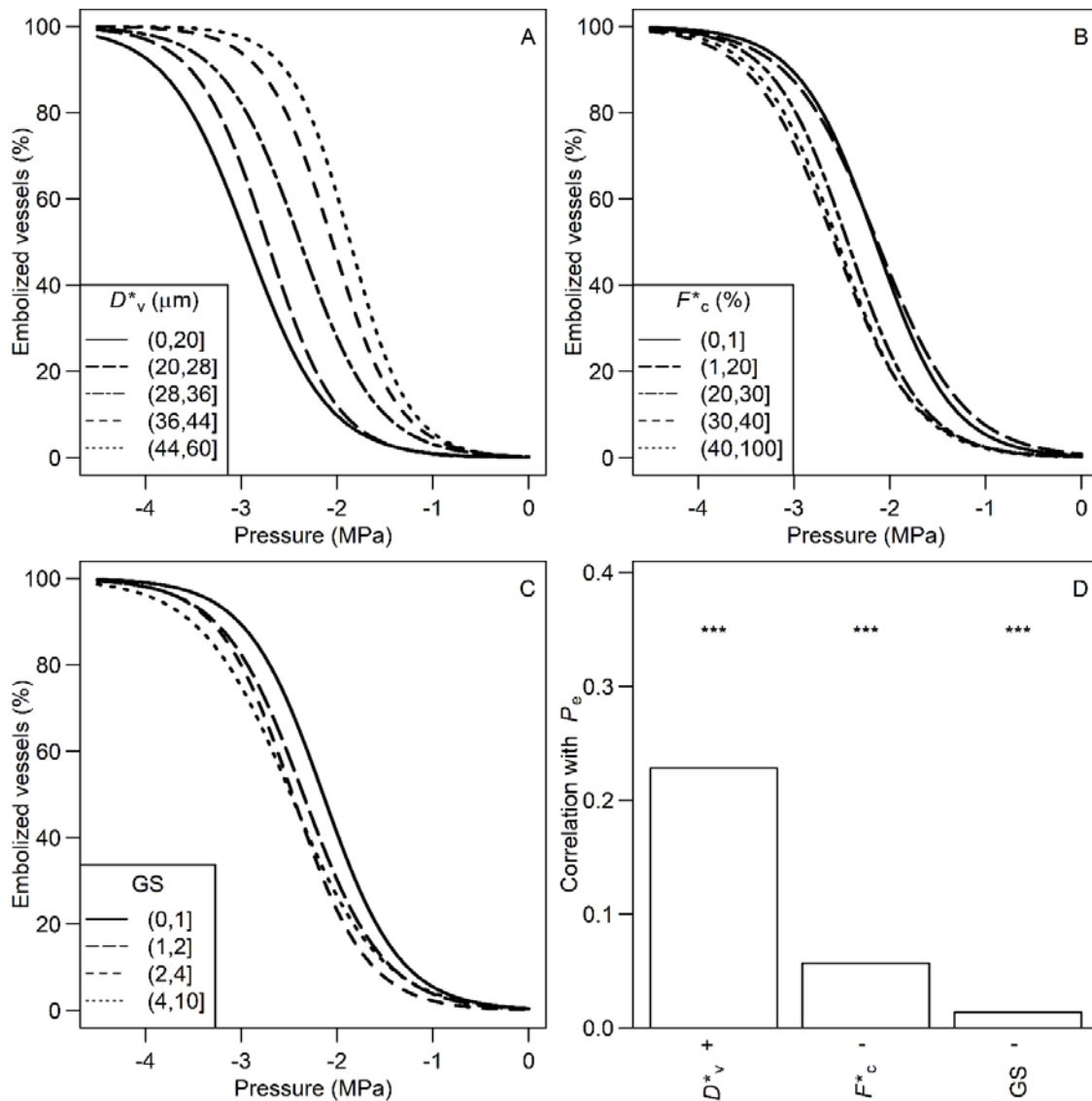
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