1 2	Mechanical characterisation of the developing cell wall layers of tension wood fibres by Atomic Force Microscopy				
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16 Highlight

New insights into the changes in mechanical properties within the cell wall of poplar tension woodfibres during maturation have been obtained using atomic force microscopy.

19

20 Abstract

21 Trees can generate large mechanical stresses at the stem periphery to control the orientation of their 22 axes. This key factor in the biomechanical design of trees, named "maturation stress", occurs in wood 23 fibres during cellular maturation when their secondary cell wall thickens. In this study, the spatial 24 and temporal stiffening kinetics of the different cell wall layers were recorded during fibre maturation 25 on a sample of poplar tension wood using atomic force microscopy. The thickening of the different 26 layers was also recorded. The stiffening of the CML, S₁ and S₂-layers was initially synchronous with 27 the thickening of the S₂ layer and continued a little after the S₂-layer reached its final thickness as the 28 G-layer begins to develop. In contrast, the global stiffness of the G-layer, which initially increased 29 with its thickening, was almost stable long before it reached its final maximum thickness. A limited 30 radial gradient of stiffness was observed in the G-layer, but it decreased sharply on the lumen side, 31 where the new sub-layers are deposited during cell wall thickening. Although very similar at the 32 ultrastructural and biochemical levels, the stiffening kinetics of the poplar G-layer appears to be very 33 different from that described in maturing bast fibres.

34

35 Keywords

36 Atomic Force Microscopy; Cell wall; G-layer; Indentation modulus; Maturation; Poplar; Stiffening;

- 37 Tension wood; Thickening.
- 38

39 Abbreviations

- 40 AFM: Atomic force microscopy
- 41 PF-QNM: Peak-force quantitative nano-mechanics
- 42 MFA: Microfibril angle
- 43

44 Introduction

45 Wood fibres have mechanical functions in the living tree. Mature wood fibres give the tree axis 46 sufficient stiffness and strength to withstand its own weight and additional loads such as wind or 47 fruits (Niklas, 1992). In addition to this "skeletal" function, wood fibres also have a "muscular" function to control the posture of the tree by actively generating forces that can bend the stem upwards 48 49 or compensate for the effect of gravity (Alméras and Fournier, 2009; Alméras et al., 2018; Fournier 50 et al., 2014; Moulia et al., 2006; Scurfield, 1973). During their maturation, wood fibre cell walls 51 undergo significant physico-chemical changes that would result in major deformation if they were 52 not prevented by the older, stiff tissue, surrounding them. In place of strain, this leads to the development of a high mechanical stress named "maturation stress". Maturation stress is particularly 53 54 high in reaction wood (Archer 1986), a specialised tissue produced by the tree in response to mechanical disturbance. In angiosperms, reaction wood is called tension wood because its maturation 55 56 stress tension is high, of the order of several tens of MPa. Tension wood acts like muscle by pulling 57 on one side of the stem, thereby enabling its reorientation (Okuyama et al., 1994; Yamamoto, 1998). 58 Mechanical stress is known to be generated in a specific cell wall layer of tension wood fibres, named 59 the G-laver (Côté et al., 1969; Dadswell and Wardrop, 1955; Fang et al., 2008; Ghislain and Clair, 60 2017; Onaka, 1949). However, the mechanisms responsible for the generation of high tensile stress during G-layer maturation are still the subject of debate. Several hypothetical models have been 61 62 proposed, which are reviewed in Alméras and Clair (2016). Gaining knowledge on the chemical, physical and mechanical states of the material and their changes during cell wall maturation have 63 proven particularly useful in distinguishing between these models. For example, it has been observed 64 that the G-layer contains mesopores of several nanometres (Chang et al., 2009; Clair et al., 2008), 65 66 and that these pores swell during maturation (Chang et al., 2015). It has also been shown that crystalline microfibrils are under tension during maturation (Clair et al., 2011). The synchronicity 67 between these two phenomena supports the hypothesis that pore swelling is related to the induction 68 69 of maturation stresses in the G-layer (Alméras and Clair, 2016).

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71 A crucial factor is the change in cell wall stiffness during maturation. Indeed, using mechanical modelling, it has been shown that the relative kinetics of stiffening and stress induction affect the 72 73 resulting state of stress in the tree (Alméras et al., 2005; Pot et al., 2014; Thibaut et al., 2001). As 74 reported by Thibaut et al. (2001), the tendency of the material to deform in response to physico-75 chemical changes can result in stress of high magnitude only if the cell wall is already sufficiently 76 stiff. To the best of our knowledge, information on the stiffening dynamics of (tension) wood cell 77 wall layers is currently lacking and the only measurements available are at the tissue scale (Grozdits 78 and Ifju, 1969; Pot et al., 2013a; 2013b).

79 One of the most promising and frequently used techniques today, nanoindentation, probes the 80 mechanical properties at the cell wall scale. It enables access to the mechanical properties within the 81 cell wall layers with modifications reduced to a minimum. This technique has already been used to 82 estimate the indentation modulus of mature native or thermo-mechanically modified cell walls of 83 wood fibres (Eder et al., 2013), lignifying spruce tracheid secondary cell walls (Gindl et al., 2002) 84 and (thick) fibre cell walls within a maturing vascular bundle of bamboo (Wang et al., 2012; Huang et al., 2016). However, as widely recognized in the case of metal materials, the radius of the 85 plastically affected volume around the indenter is about three times the residual indent size for an 86 87 isotropic material and even more for the elastically affected one (Johnson 1987; Sudharshan Phania 88 and Oliver, 2019). This technique therefore requires a layer thickness at least three times the size of 89 the indent, which are typically in the micrometre range, to avoid measurement artefacts (Jakes *et al.*, 90 2009). As the width of the cell wall layers in the developing and maturation stages vary from almost 91 zero (cambium, beginning of the layer deposition) to a few micrometres (mature S₂ and/or G-layer), 92 interpreting the measurements obtained by nanoindentation in the presence of a gradient of properties 93 or within a thin layer is not straightforward, nor possible close to the cambium, due to boundary 94 effects. In such cases, atomic force microscopy (AFM) appears to be the best way to perform 95 mechanical measurements within each cell wall layer (Arnould and Arinero, 2015; Casdorff et al., 96 2017; 2018; Clair et al., 2003, Coste et al., 2021; Nair et al., 2010; Normand et al., 2021). This 97 technique has already been used to investigate, for example, the development of bast fibres within a 98 flax stem (Goudenhooft et al., 2018) and of the primary cell walls in the inner tissues of growing 99 maize roots (Kozlova et al., 2019).

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101 The aim of the present work was to measure changes in the indentation modulus of each cell wall 102 layer during the maturation of poplar tension wood fibres using AFM. As it was not possible to 103 monitor the maturation of a single cell over time, as a proxy, we chose to perform measurements on 104 several cells in the same row, from cambium to mature wood, that were therefore at different stages 105 of development. Using the kinetics of cell wall thickening as a basis for comparison, the stiffening of 106 the different layers of the cell wall was compared to other known phenomena such as changes in 107 mesoporosity and in crystalline cellulose strain. In addition, thanks to the nanometric spatial 108 resolution of AFM measurements, we investigated G-layer stiffening during thickening, i.e., the 109 kinetics of stiffening within the G-layer, and fluctuations in the mechanical states of a new freshly 110 deposited sub-layer. Finally, the kinetics and stiffness gradient of the poplar G-layers were compared 111 with data available in the literature on bast (primary phloem) and xylem flax fibres, whose cells walls 112 contain both a thick immature G_n-layer and a mature G-layer (Goudenhooft et al., 2018; Petrova et al., 2021). 113

114 Materials and methods

115 Sample preparation

116 The experiments were conducted on a wood sample cut out of a young poplar tree tilted to induce the 117 production of tension wood. This hybrid poplar plant (*Populus tremula* × *Populus alba*, INRA clone 717-1-B4), was grown in controlled greenhouse conditions for two months (INRAE, Orléans, France) 118 119 before being tilted to trigger the formation of tension wood on the upper side of its stem. Twenty-two 120 days after tilting, a 5-cm long stem section (estimated diameter 1 cm) was collected at the base of the 121 stem, a few cm above the ground. Small wood sub-samples a few mm in size were cut out of the 122 tension wood side and fixed for 4 h in 2.5% formaldehyde and 0.1% glutaraldehyde in 0.1M 123 McIlvaine citrate-phosphate buffer, pH 6.8, followed by 3×10 min under moderate vacuum. After thorough rinsing in McIlvain buffer, the sample was partially dehydrated in increasing series (25%, 124 50%, 70%) of ethanol and progressively impregnated with LR-White medium grade resin (London 125 Resin Company Ltd, UK) in a series of resin and ethanol mixes containing a progressively increasing 126 127 percentage of resin (20% 2h, 40% 4h, 60% 4h, 80% 24h, 100% 2+8 days). During the last pre-128 embedding step, in pure resin, the sample was placed under moderate vacuum for 3×10 minutes. 129 Finally, the samples were embedded in gelatine capsules filled with pure resin and heated in an oven 130 at 56 °C for 24 h for polymerization. Semi-thin transverse sections (0.5 to 1 um) were cut with a 131 Histo diamond knife (Diatome Ltd, Nidau, Switzerland) installed on a Ultracut S microtome (Leica 132 Microsystems, Vienna, Austria) to trim the block. To avoid the deformation commonly observed in 133 G-layers as a result of swelling, detachment and collapse after stress release (Clair et al., 2005a; 2005b), at least the first 50 µm of the sample were trimmed and discarded. Finally, very thin sections 134 135 (about 50 nm thick in the last step) were made at a low cutting speed (≈ 1 mm/s) using an Ultra AFM 136 diamond knife (Diatome) to obtain a nearly perfect flat surface. AFM measurements were carried out 137 on the remaining block.

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139 Optical measurement of the cell wall layer thickness

140 After AFM experiments, semi-thin transverse sections (0.9 µm) were cut with a Histo diamond knife 141 (Diatome) installed on an Ultracut R microtome (Leica Microsystems). These sections were stained using Richardson's azur II and methylene blue (Richardson *et al.*, 1960) and mounted on slides using 142 143 Canada balsam. The slides were observed under a light microscope (DMLP, Leica Microsystems) 144 with immersion oil lenses (Fig. 1). Phase contrast microscopy is preferable to bright field microscopy 145 when observing the cell wall layer with high magnification ($\times 600$) as the specimen is thin, so the colour contrast is reduced (Abedini et al., 2015). Several images were acquired using a light 146 147 microscope with a digital camera (DFC320, Leica Microsystems) from the cambium to a distance of

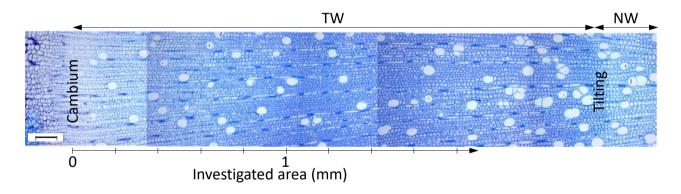
148about 2 mm from it on the xylem side (i.e., with fully matured fibres), with a sufficient overlap to149allow the image to be repositioned to accurately measure the distance of each cell from the cambium.150The mean thickness of the S_2 and G layers was measured all along two radial rows using Matlab151software (MathWorks Inc., Natick, Massachusetts, USA) according to the method of Yoshinaga *et*152*al.* (2012). External contours of the lumen, S_2 and G layers were plotted by hand from images and153their average thickness was calculated as (Abedini *et al.*, 2015):

154
$$Th_G = \frac{2A_G}{P_G + P_{lumen}},$$
 (2)

155
$$Th_{S2} = \frac{2A_{S2}}{P_{S2} + P_G},$$
(3)

where A_G and P_G are the area and the external perimeter of G-layer, respectively, A_{S2} and P_{S2} are the area and the external perimeter of the S₂ layer, respectively, and P_{lumen} is the lumen perimeter. The data presented in this article show the thickness of each layer normalized by the mean cell diameter, D, which was evaluated as $D = \frac{P_{S2}}{\pi}$. The advantage of working with relative thickness is that it allows the effect of the fibre ends on the cell wall thickness to be corrected (Okumura *et al.*, 1977; Abedini *et al.*, 2015).

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Fig. 1. Optical image of the transverse section of the wood sample (Richardson's staining) with the tension wood (TW) area between the cambium and the normal wood (NW) produced before the tree was tilted. The reference distance from the cambium was measured approximately in the middle of the cambial zone. Scale bar = 0.1 mm.

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169 AFM PF-QNM measurements

170 Mechanical characterisation was performed with a Multimode 8 AFM (Bruker Corporation, USA) in

171 PF-QNM imaging mode with a RTESPA-525-30 (Bruker) probe. The spring constant of the probe

172 was calibrated by Bruker using a laser Doppler vibrometer with a value of 158 N/m. The initial tip

173 radius, 33 nm (controlled by Bruker), was checked after adjusting the cantilever deflection sensitivity 174 on sapphire and corrected to 40 nm to obtain the right range of indentation modulus on the centre of DuPontTM K48 Kevlar[®] fibres (~20 GPa) embedded in Struers Epofix epoxy resin (~4 GPa), as 175 described in Arnould et al. (2017). The value of the tip radius was checked indirectly and, if 176 177 necessary, corrected using the above-mentioned calibration sample by ensuring that the indentation 178 modulus and the adhesion force in the embedding resin of the wood sample remained constant around 179 the wood sample and within the lumen in the cambial area. After all the measurements, the final tip radius was 120 nm. The applied maximum load was set at 200 nN for all the measurements, the 180 181 vertical motion for force-distance curves was set at a frequency of 2 kHz, and the fast scan rate was such that the scan speed was always equal to 8 μ m/s regardless of the size of the image (512 \times 512 182 pixels), with a scan axis angle of 90° . 183

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The force-distance curves obtained were automatically adjusted by a Derjaguin-Muller-Toporov 185 186 (DMT) contact model (Derjarguin et al., 1975) to obtain the indentation modulus using Nanoscope 187 Analysis software (Bruker), with an assumed spherical tip, a flat sample surface, and taking the 188 measured adhesion force into account. This model is one of the simplest and is suitable for vitreous 189 polymer resin and all wood cell wall layers, considering the relatively low values of their Tabor 190 parameter (Johnson and Greenwood, 1997; Xu et al., 2007). The discernible layers, i.e., layers that 191 are thick enough to avoid the measurement being influenced by edge or topography effects, are the cell corner middle lamella (CCML), S₁ with the primary wall (i.e., S₁-P, as in most cases, these two 192 193 layers are almost impossible to distinguish), S₂ and G layers. For each of these layers, the indentation 194 modulus distribution was obtained using Gwyddion freeware (http://gwyddion.net/). This distribution 195 can be adjusted with a Gaussian function that gives the value at the maximum of the distribution (i.e., 196 mode or most frequent value in the dataset) and the standard deviation of the indentation modulus. 197 Measurements were made on three different radial rows of developing cells in the wood sample, one after the other, always starting from the cambium and continuing up to a distance of about 1.7 mm 198 199 away, with two overlapping sets of measurements for the first row to check the stability and 200 repeatability of the measurements. Twenty-four different positions (and thus cells) were measured in 201 the two first radial rows and 12 positions in the last row. As soon as it was visible, the thickness of the S₂ and G layers was measured using the same protocol as for the optical images. To complete our 202 203 study and to have a reference, we measured the indentation modulus and the thickness of the cell wall 204 layers in three normal wood cells (one per radial row) that had differentiated before the tree was tilted 205 and were therefore devoid of a G-layer. All the data were assembled using Matlab software (The 206 MathWorks Inc., Natick, Massachusetts, USA).

207

- 208 Finally, the AFM values were checked by nanoindentation measurements on a few cells located
- 209 700 µm from the cambium using iNano KLA nanoindenter (Scientec, Les Ulis, France) in mapping
- 210 mode (NanoBlitz) on a 200 \times 200 μ m (20 \times 20 pixels) area, with a maximum force of 0.1 mN and a
- 211 loading frequency of 1 Hz.
- 212
- 213 **Results**

214 Mapping the indentation modulus of developing fibres

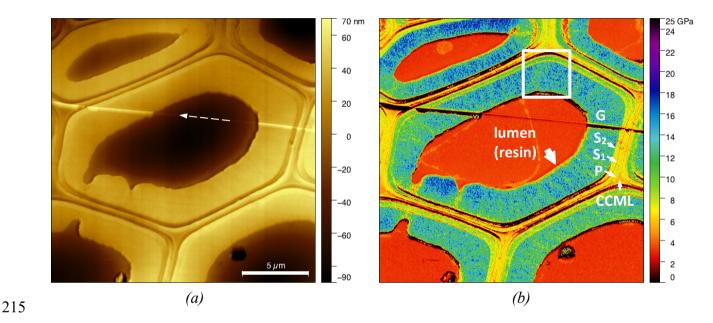


Fig. 2. PF-QNM mapping of (a) topography and (b) indentation modulus of the cross section of a tension wood fibre 740 µm from the cambium (first radial row). The different layers are identified: P stands for primary wall and CCML for cell corner middle lamella. The lumen of the cell was filled with LR-White resin. The white dashed arrow in (a) shows the microtome cutting direction (following a scratch line due to imperfections of the diamond knife), the thick white arrow in (b) points to a thin and softer sub-layer that corresponds to the white upper box in (b) and is discussed in more detail in Fig. 4.

223

The AFM measurements provided a map of the sample topography and a map of the indentation modulus. Examples of typical maps obtained for a cell are given in Fig. 2, at a distance of 740 μ m from the cambium (first radial row). The different layers of the cell wall (cell corner middle lamella CCML, primary cell wall P, secondary cell wall S₁, S₂ and G-layers) are clearly identifiable on the indentation modulus map due their different elastic mechanical properties. Note that part of the cell contents in the lumen are identifiable (Fig. 2b), while they are not visible in the topography (Fig. 2a). The different cell wall layers are also quite easy to distinguish on the topography map because of the

231 slight change in height between each layer. The height is almost uniform within the G-layer, middle 232 lamella and embedding resin in the lumen, whereas it varies around the circumference in the S₁-P and S_2 layers. These variations are the opposite in the S_1 -P and S_2 (S_1 -P is high when S_2 is low) and these 233 extreme values were obtained perpendicular to the cutting direction (white dashed arrow in Fig. 2a). 234 235 These observations are typical of a cutting effect as previously described in Arnould and Arinero 236 (2015). Moreover, we observed limited orthoradial variations in the indentation modulus of the S₂-237 layer around the cells. This proves that the wood fibres are rather well oriented perpendicular to the 238 cutting direction and that there will be little (or even no) bias in the interpretation of the measurements 239 due to sample misalignment (Arnould and Arinero, 2015).

240

241 Fig. 3 shows the mechanical maps of all the cells measured in the first radial row. Progressive thickening of the cell wall results in the appearance of the different layers of the secondary wall: the 242 243 first distinguishable S₂ appears around 50 µm from the cambium (map with the green border in Fig. 244 3) and first distinguishable G-layer around 230 µm from the cambium (map with the blue border in Fig. 3). A continuous increase in the indentation modulus of the embedding resin is visible in the 245 lumen from 2.7±0.1 GPa in the cambium to 3.4±0.2 GPa at 1.7 mm. This increase was not observed 246 in the embedding resin outside the wood sample where the indentation modulus remained equal to 247 around 2.7±0.1 GPa in all the measurements. Moreover, immediate measurement of the indentation 248 249 modulus of the embedding resin in the lumen of cells in the cambium taken just after the last measured 250 cell in a given row, showed a return the initial value of 2.7 ± 0.1 GPa.

251

252 The indentation modulus obtained for the S₂-layer of normal wood cells 2 mm from the cambium, 253 was around 16.9±5.5 GPa and its relative thickness was around 0.055 (see NW in Fig.3). A more 254 pronounced variation of the indentation modulus was observed in the S₂-layer of this cell, which is 255 probably due to a slight misorientation of the fibre with respect surface as already described in 256 Arnould and Arinero (2015). The indentation moduli of the other layers were 7.5±1.2 for the CCML 257 and 8.2 ± 3.1 GPa for the S₁-layer, while the indentation modulus in the embedding resin in the lumen 258 was 2.99 ± 0.21 , a value close to that recorded in the cambium or outside the wood sample. The 259 indentation modulus was confirmed by nanoindentation in the embedding resin in the lumen and in 260 the G-layer of a few cells 700 μ m from the cambium with a value of 3.5±0.15 GPa and 13.5±1.3 GPa, respectively (see Fig. S3 and Table 1 for comparison). 261

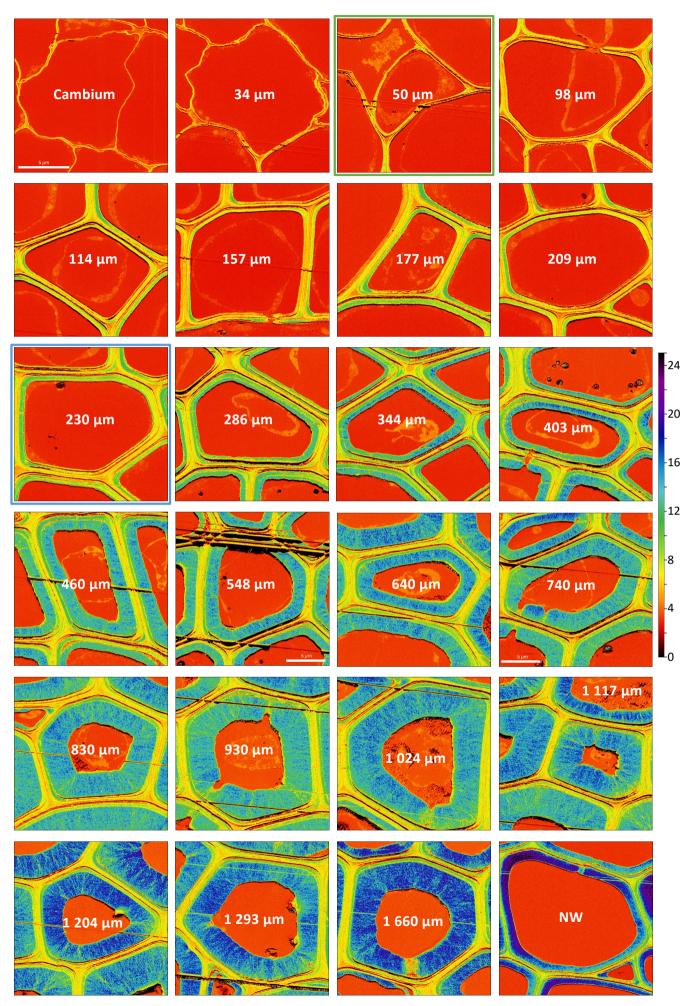
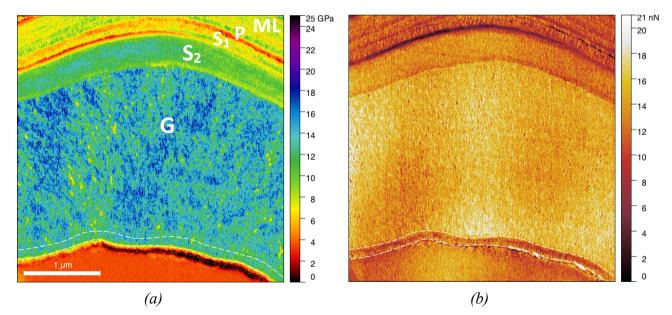


Fig. 3. Indentation modulus maps of the different cells measured in the first radial row. The white number in the lumen refers to the distance of the cell from the cambium, the cells are arranged in rows from left to right and from top to bottom, with the cambium always on the left. The last map on the bottom right shows a normal wood (NW) cell, here before tilting (Fig. 1). The map at 50 μ m (green border) is the first map with a distinguishable S₂-layer. The map at 230 μ m (blue border) is the first map with a distinguishable G-layer. Except for the maps at 548 and 740 μ m, the size of the maps is same in all the images. Scale bar = 5 μ m.

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271 Overall stiffening of the G-layer with increased distance from the cambium was clearly visible. A 272 radial pattern (radial lines in the cell wall) was also visible in the G-layer, as previously reported by 273 Sell and Zimmermann (1998). Some ring lamellae were also visible within the cell wall lavers (e.g., 274 at 548, 740, 830, 930, 1024 and 1660 µm from the cambium in Fig. 3 and in the enlargement of 275 Fig. 2b in Fig. S1). This last structural pattern is consistent with the radial layer-by-layer thickening 276 of the wall and has been already reported, for example, in the S2-layer of wood fibres (Fahlén and 277 Salmén, 2002; Casdorff et al., 2018), in the G-layer of most Salicaceae species excepted in the poplar 278 genera (Ghislain et al., 2016), in mature (Hock, 1942) and in developing G-layers of flax bast fibres 279 (Arnould et al., 2017; Goudenhooft et al., 2018) and in mature hemp fibres with a G-layer (Coste et 280 al., 2020).



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Fig. 4. a) Close-up of the indentation map of a cell taken at a distance of 740 μm from the cambium
corresponding to the white box in Fig. 2b with the associated adhesion map (b) highlighted sub-G-

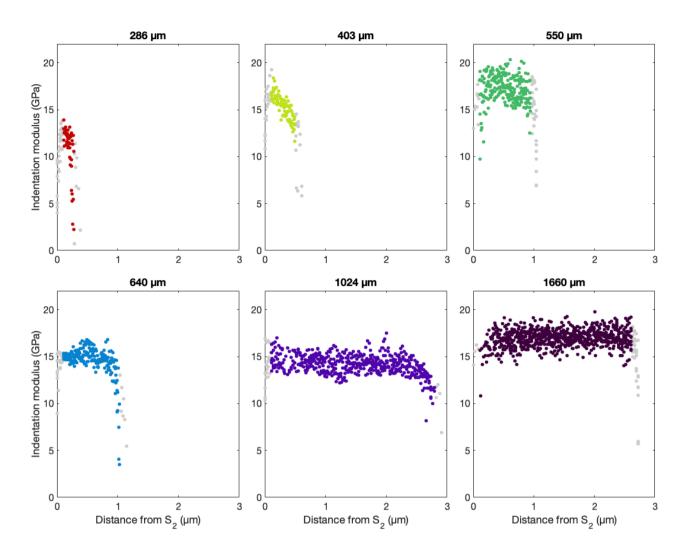
284 *layer with lower adhesion force close to the lumen.*

285

286 At a distance from the cambium equal to or greater than 440 µm, a thin and soft sub-layer was visible 287 on the lumen side at the border of the G-laver but only on the right side of the map (as shown in Fig. 2b). The fact that this sub-layer is only visible on the right side of all cells can be attributed to a 288 289 cutting effect when the sample surface was prepared with the diamond knife, as the cutting direction 290 is almost horizontal and proceeds from the right to the left (see Fig. 2a). As cutting effects are linked 291 to the mechanical behaviour of the cell wall, this sub-layer reveals a different behaviour than the rest 292 of the G-layer. The average indentation modulus of this sub-layer was around 8.2±2.6 GPa, close to 293 the value of the early G-layer, at a distance of 230-286 µm from the cambium, and its thickness was 294 around 100 nm in all cases. Fig. 4a gives a closer view of the G-layer at the top of the cell at 740 µm 295 from the cambium (white box in Fig. 2b) and Fig. 4b is the adhesion map. Although the sub-layer is 296 not visible on the indentation map in Fig. 4a, a sub-layer with a thickness of around 100 nm and a 297 lower adhesion force than the rest of the G-layer is also visible on the border of the lumen in Fig. 4b. 298 We can assume that it is the same sub-layer as that observed on the right side of the indentation 299 modulus maps. Moreover, its low adhesion force is close to that of the early G-layer (see Fig. S2).

300

301 To further investigate the kinetics of G-layer stiffening, from six fibres situated at different distances 302 from the cambium, we extracted six to ten radial profiles of the indentation modulus around the cell axis in the G-layer (Fig. 5). Each point in a radial profile is the average of the modulus over a width 303 304 of 10 pixels. To reduce possible bias in the interpretation of the data caused by an edge effect due to 305 cutting with the diamond knife or an effect of the area mechanically sensed by the tip (Sudharshan 306 Phani and Oliver, 2019), we removed the first and last 100 nm from each profile (data points in grey 307 in Fig. 5). In contrast to the indentation modulus map in Figs. 2b and 3, where no mechanical gradient 308 is visible in the developing G-layers, here a gradient was always visible on the last 500 nm or so on 309 the lumen side and became less pronounced with an increase in the distance from the cambium. The 310 gradient completely disappeared in the mature fibre (see Fig. 5 at 1 660 µm). It was not possible to 311 determine whether such a gradient existed in the S₂-layer because, even if it were present, it would 312 be hidden by the effect of the apparent microfibril angle due to the slight misalignment of the sample 313 (Arnould and Arinero, 2015).



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Fig. 5. Observation of the occurrence of a radial mechanical gradient during the maturation of the G-layer obtained by extracting radial profiles all around the cell axis in this layer and plotting them as a function of the distance from the S₂ layer for six different distances from the cambium (value given at the top of each graph). The first and last 100 nm were removed from each profile (data points in grey) to avoid any bias due to measurement edge effects.

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321 Dynamics of global cell-wall layer thickening and stiffening

All the observations made above were also made in the 2nd and 3rd radial rows. Changes in the mode of the indentation modulus distribution in each layer (e.g., see Fig. S3) are shown in Fig. 6, as a function of the distance from the cambium, together with the relative thickness of each layer. In fig. 6, one point corresponds to one cell, whatever the radial rows, the continuous line corresponds to the mean trend adjusted on these points by a polynomial fit and the coloured ribbon to this fit shifted vertically by plus or minus the mean standard deviation on each layer of the cell wall.

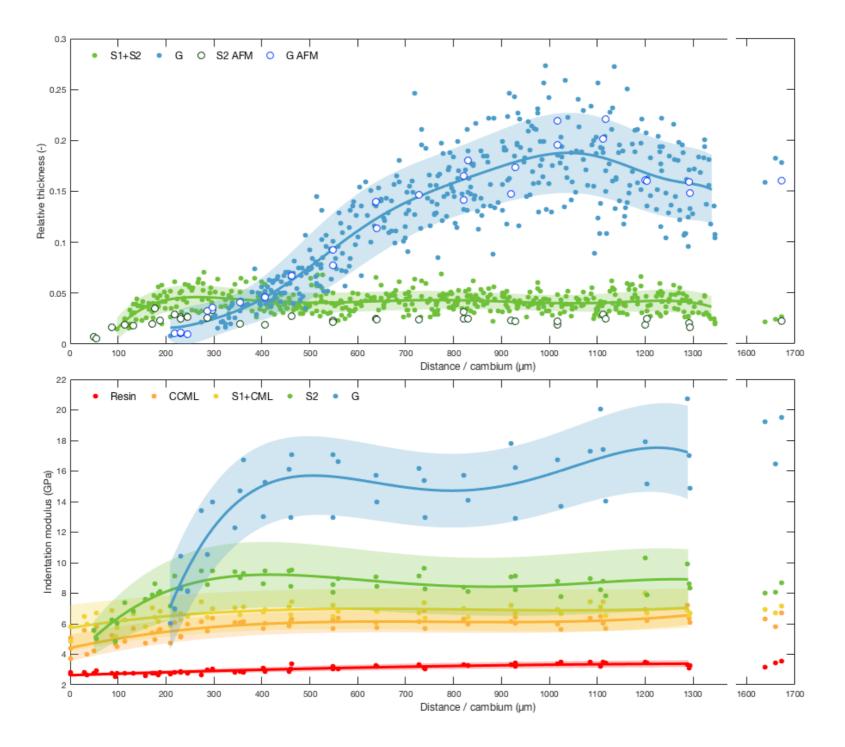


Fig. 6. Variations in the relative thickness of the cell wall layers measured by optical microscopy (coloured dots) and AFM (empty circles) (top) and mode of the indentation modulus distribution (bottom), as a function of the distance from the cambium. The solid lines and the shaded areas show the mean tendency and standard deviation adjusted on these points.

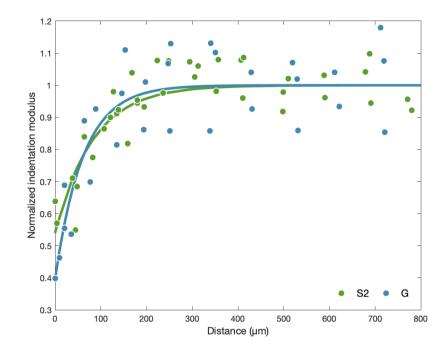
333 In the case of the optical measurements of the thickness of the layers, it was not possible to separate 334 the S₁ and S₂ layers, unlike for the AFM measurements. The measurements of relative thickness made 335 by optical microscopy and AFM are consistent, but AFM enables detection of the appearance of the 336 cell wall layer and its thickening earlier than optical microscopy. The thickness of the S₂ alone 337 obtained by AFM is thus logically smaller than S₁+S₂ obtained by light microscopy. The relative thickness of the S₂-layer increases until around 200 µm from the cambium then decreases a little 338 before reaching a stable value at a distance of around 500 µm from the cambium. The G-layers were 339 340 first detected close to 200 µm from the cambium. The relative thickness of the G-layer increased 341 linearly and stabilised near 1 000 µm. Thus, the relative thickness of S₂ was slightly higher before the 342 appearance of the G-layer.

343

344 A progressive increase in the indentation modulus of both the CCML (from 4.6 ± 0.7 to 6.1 ± 0.7 GPa) 345 and the S₁ layers (from 5.6 ± 1.5 to 6.8 ± 1.3 GPa) was observed until the end of the S₂ stiffening, at 346 around 350 µm from the cambium. The very first S₂-layers had indentation moduli of 5.1±1.4 GPa and their stiffening and their thickening were initially synchronous. Later, when the S2-layers reached 347 348 their final thickness, their indentation modulus continued to increase and finally reached a value of 349 8.7±2.0 GPa. All these layers continued to stiffen when the G layer began to thicken. In contrast, the 350 global stiffness of the G-layer was almost stable (at around 500 µm from the cambium) long before 351 it reached its final maximum thickness (at around 1 000 µm from the cambium).

352

As already mentioned, as these curves correspond to the mode of the indentation modulus distribution (i.e., value at the maximum of the distribution or most frequent value, see Fig. S3), they do not reflect the gradient observed at about 500 nm from the edge of the G-layer on the lumen side due to the progressive maturation of a potentially freshly deposited sub-G-layer (Fig. 5). Furthermore, as shown in Fig. 5, the thickness of the G-layer at 550 µm from the cambium is such that most of the G-layer has completely stiffened, leading to the stabilised value of the indentation modulus reported in Fig. 6 for this distance from the cambium.



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Fig. 7. Normalized indentation modulus of the S_2 and G-layers from Fig. 6 as a function of the distance from the cell where the layer concerned first appeared. The solid line corresponds to the mean value.

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To compare the dynamics of the stiffening of the S_2 and G-layers, Fig. 7 shows the normalized indentation modulus (i.e., the modulus from Fig. 6 divided by its mean maximum value) as a function of the distance from the cell where the layer concerned first appeared (i.e., 50 µm from the cambium for S_2 and 230 µm for G-layers, Fig. 3). This figure shows that the dynamics of the two layers are quite similar, i.e., it took a distance of around 250 µm to reach their mature modulus. However, it appears to be faster for the G-layer as the change in modulus from the first deposited layer to the final mature one is larger.

372

373 **Discussion**

Our main results revealed: i) initial synchronous stiffening of the CML, S_1 and S_2 -layers with the thickening of the S_2 -layer, which continues a little after the S_2 -layer has reached its final thickness while the G layer starts to develop; ii) initial global stiffening of the G-layer synchronous with its thicknening but stable global stiffness reached long before its final maximum thickness; iii) a stiffness gradient over about 500 nm on the lumen side in the developing G-layer with a softer sub-layer at the lumen edge about 100 nm in thickness.

380

381 *Potential effects of sample preparation on the measurements*

382 The different steps of sample preparation protocol made it impossible to keep the sample in its native 383 *in planta* green state: we thus cannot rule out the possibility that modifications of the different layers 384 of the cell wall during the ethanol exchange and resin embedding had some impacts on its mechanical 385 properties but, for the reasons detailed below, we believe that we achieved a good compromise. 386 Indeed, this preparation was necessary to ensure reliable mechanical measurements at small scale by 387 AFM. Since all the measurements had to be comparable, this treatment minimised artifacts caused by 388 roughness of the sample surface (Peaucelle, 2014). Indeed, mechanical measurements based on 389 indentation require samples with a surface that is as flat as possible, compared to the radius of the 390 AFM tip, to enable the use of reliable and simple contact mechanics models. These models are needed 391 to extract the indentation modulus from the contact stiffness (Arnould and Arinero, 2015) or from the 392 force-distance curves (Hermanowicz et al., 2014). In addition, the AFM tip is very brittle and surface 393 roughness has to be as low as possible to reduce the risk of tip wear or breakage: this is especially 394 important in the present study where we had to perform many measurements using the same probe to 395 limit measurement bias or drift. AFM measurements at such a small scale are only sensitive to the 396 very near sample surface. Damage during preparation of the sample surface should therefore be reduced to the strict minimum. In addition, as we expected to find evidence for the existence of a 397 398 mechanical gradient during the thickening of the cell wall layers, we had to begin taking 399 measurements as close as possible to the cambium, where the cell wall is very thin and soft. This is 400 only possible when the sample has been previously embedded to avoid, or at least reduce, deformation 401 and damage during cutting and measurements. In addition, cell wall thickening progresses from the 402 lumen side of the cell wall and, without embedding, measurements made close to the lumen would 403 be highly modified due to border effects (Jakes et al., 2008; Jakes et al., 2009) unless the lumen is 404 filled with a sufficiently stiff substance such as resin. Finally, these embedding steps reduce cell wall 405 layer deformation during the cutting process and avoid swelling, detachment and collapse of the G-406 layer commonly observed after stress release (Clair et al., 2005a; 2005b).

407

Other studies have shown that LR-White embedding resin has little impact on the mechanical properties of the cell wall due to very limited penetration into the cell wall of normal wood (Coste *et al.*, 2021) and *a priori* in the G-layers of tension wood (Arnould and Arinero, 2015) and of other similar fibre cell walls such as in flax (Arnould *et al*, 2017) and hemp (Coste *et al.*, 2020). What is more, the use of ethanol is expected to cause only slight deformation of the wall. For example, Chang *et al.* (2012) showed that ethanol dehydration produced longitudinal macroscopic shrinkage of only 0.2% and volumetric swelling of only 0.5%. It is possible to avoid ethanol dehydration by drying the 415 sample at moderate temperature just before embedding (Konnerth *et al.*, 2008). However, in the 416 present biomechanical context with the G-layer, such a drying step would lead to very significant 417 changes in the cell wall ultrastructure (such as mesoporosity collapse, Clair *et al.*, 2008).

418

419 The main impact of sample preparation on the mechanical properties of the cell wall is in fact its 420 potential effects on the moisture content of the different layers. Indeed, sample preparation probably 421 modified moisture content from a green state to close to an air-dry state. The effect of moisture 422 content on the mechanical properties of the different cell wall layers has already been measured by 423 nanoindentation in the cell corner middle lamella and the S₂ layer of different woody species using 424 samples that were embedded (Wagner et al., 2015) or not (Bertinetti et al., 2015; Meng et al., 2015). 425 These studies revealed a similar trend with a reduction of the indentation modulus from one third to 426 one half for the S₂ layer and at least one half for the cell corner middle lamella, between an air-dry 427 and saturated state. A more recent study (Coste et al., 2020), using AFM PF-QNM in similar 428 conditions to those used in our study, focused on the effect of the moisture content on the mechanical properties of hemp sclerenchyma fibres (containing a thick G-layer with similar characteristics to 429 430 those of the tension wood G-layer) and xylem fibres. In their study, AFM measurements of all the cell wall layers revealed no major differences between layers, with a reduction of the indentation 431 432 modulus of about one half when the relative humidity varied from 13% to 83%. If we extrapolate 433 these variations to our study, the indentation modulus values reported here are overestimated 434 compared to the values *in planta* but the relative differences observed between layers, or within a 435 layer (gradient), are most probably comparable to what happens in the tree.

436

437 Indentation modulus and its variations in the different layers of the cell wall

438 We observed an increase in the indentation modulus of the embedding resin in the lumen, with increased distance from the cambium, but it goes back to values measured in the cambial zone in the 439 440 normal wood (before tilting) cells lumen. The origin of this increase during fibre maturation is not 441 yet understood but is unlikely to be due to wear of the AFM tip as demonstrated by the repeatability 442 of the measurements in the cambial cells performed after measurements of each row, which were also 443 identical to those obtained at the end of all measurements in the lumen of the normal wood cells or 444 in the resin outside the sample. Stiffening thus appears to be associated with the change in the contents of the lumen with the maturation of the fibres (as shown in Fig. 3). In cambial cells, the plasma 445 446 membrane and cytoplasm are bound to the inner part of the cell wall. Cambial cells are highly 447 vacuolated, and the large vacuole pushes the cell organelles outwards. There is therefore little material 448 inside the lumen (vacuole contents), which may explain why the indentation modulus measured in the resin in the centre of cambial cells is close to that measured in normal wood cells that have lost all their cell contents. Finally, Table 1 shows that our LR-White indentation modulus values were the lowest, but were confirmed by nanoindentation. This is probably due to differences in the calibration procedure between laboratories or to the variability of the resin itself, as different grades (soft, medium, and hard) of this resin are available.

454

455 The values of the indentation modulus in the different layers and the embedding resin are consistent with the (rather scattered) AFM data or nanoindentation measurements of wood cell walls available 456 457 in the literature (Eder *et al.*, 2013), although in the low range compared literature data on the G-layer of poplar or tension wood (see Table 1). These low values can probably be partly explained by the 458 459 fact that the tree used in our study was young (less than 3-month old), and the juvenile wood it 460 produced had a high microfibril angle (MFA) in the S₂-layer and low cellulose content (Luo et al., 461 2021), and the fact that the cell used as an example in Fig. 2 was not fully mature. The values of the 462 indentation modulus in the G-layer of a mature cell increased to around 18.3±3.1 GPa on average 463 (see Fig. 6), a value similar to the literature data listed in Table 1.

464

465 Table 1. Comparison of the value of the indentation modulus (in GPa) in the different layers of mature
466 wood fibres in our study and in the literature.

	LR-White				
	resin	ML			
Reference	(lumen)	(CC)	S_1	S_2	G
This study, developing tension wood	3.10±0.29	5.4±1.0	6.5±1.4	8.3±2.2	13.0±3.1
(740 µm, Figs. 2 and S2)					
This study, mature tension wood	3.35±0.27	5.9±1.0	6.7±1.2	8.2±2.6	16.5±3.3
(1660 µm, Fig. 3)					
This study, mature normal wood	2.99±0.21	7.5±1.2	8.2±3.1	16.9±5.5	n.a.
(NW, Fig. 3)					
Normand et al. (2021) (poplar)	3.9±1.8	9.9±1.2	11.3±0.3	16.4±0.4	16.8±0.5
Clair et al. (2003) (oak, no embedding)	n.a.	5-7	8-9	9-10	10-12
Arnould and Arinero (2015) (chestnut)	3.5±1.5	6±0.5	n.a.	13±0.5	15±1.5
Liang et al. (2020) (poplar, no	n.a.	n.a.	6.89-	10.57-	11.13-
embedding)			10.48	14.61	18.5
Coste et al. (2021) (poplar)	4.5±0.9	10.7±2	16.0±3.8	18.2±3.5	n.a.

468 The low value obtained for the mature S₂-layer in the tension wood area compared to the value in 469 normal wood can be explained by a marked difference in MFA between the S₂-layers of normal wood 470 (with a low MFA and therefore a high indentation modulus) and the S₂-layers of tension wood (with 471 a high MFA and therefore a small indentation modulus, Eder et al., 2013; Jäger et al., 2011). To 472 explain this difference (equal to a factor of about 2) between the indentation moduli, we can roughly 473 estimate from published data that the MFA is around 5-10° in normal wood whereas it is 30-40° in 474 the S₂ of tension wood (Arnould and Arinero, 2015; Jäger *et al.*, 2011). This is also in agreement with 475 the value of MFA reported for the S₂-layer in tension wood for poplar by Goswami et al. (2008). 476 Likewise, the order of magnitude of the values of indentation modulus obtained for the different 477 layers of normal wood is in agreement with other literature data (Table 1).

478

479 Dynamics of global thickening and stiffening of the cell-wall layers

480 The CCML, S1 and S₂-layers continued to stiffen while G-layer was developing (Fig. 6). This is in 481 agreement with the fact that the lignification of S₁, S₂-layers and CCML occurs during the formation 482 of the G-layer (Yoshinaga et al., 2012). This lignification after the G-layer starts to thicken may be 483 explained by the presence of additional matrix material that has been transported through the existing 484 wall. Alternatively, some precursors may already be present and are used in biochemical reactions 485 that continue during the deposition of the G-layer. The effect of lignification on the mechanical 486 properties of the cell wall is not yet well understood, with different studies sometimes reporting conflicting results, but recent studies tend to confirm the hypothesis that lignification mainly affects 487 488 the shear modulus and the strength of the matrix (Özparpucu *et al.*, 2017; 2019), with higher content 489 leading to a higher modulus and greater strength. As the indentation modulus is not only sensitive to 490 the longitudinal modulus but also to the transverse and shear moduli (Jäger et al., 2011), which are 491 mainly influenced by the cell wall matrix, a change in the cell wall matrix properties due to 492 lignification causes a significative change in the indentation modulus, as already shown by 493 nanoindentation (Gindl et al., 2002). Finally, Fig. 7 shows that the stiffening dynamics appear similar 494 although faster in the G-layer than in the S_2 -layers suggesting that the physical and chemical changes 495 or reactions at work during cell wall maturation are faster in the G-layer (e.g., microfibrils aggregation 496 or gelatinous matrix swelling, Alméras and Clair, 2016) than in the S₂-layer (e.g., lignification).

497

The fact that the thickness of the S₂-layer decreases slightly when the G-layer is starting to develop has already been observed. For example, Abedini *et al.* (2015) reported that this is a common trend throughout the growing season in both normal and tension wood of poplar trees. Moreover, the changes and mature value of the relative thickness of the G and S₂ layers in Abedini *et al.* (2015), 502 Chang et al. (2015) and Clair et al. (2011) are similar to our measurements. We therefore assume that 503 we can use the relative thickening of the different wall layer as a common spatial reference to link different studies. If we combine our results with those of previous studies, the G-layer appears to 504 505 synchronously stabilise its thickness, whole indentation modulus (i.e., no more radial gradient), meso-506 pore size (Chang et al., 2015) and cellulose tensile strain (Clair et al., 2011) at the end of the 507 maturation. These observations suggest that the different changes involved in the maturation process 508 of the G-layer start, evolve and end at approximately the same fibre development stage. These 509 physico-chemical observations now need to be coupled with biochemical analyses to better 510 understand the mechanisms involved in G-layer maturation, and possibly to establish relations 511 between matrix stiffening, bridging between microfibrils and wall compaction (Alméras and Clair, 512 2016; Gorshkova et al., 2015; Mellerowicz and Gorshkova, 2012).

513

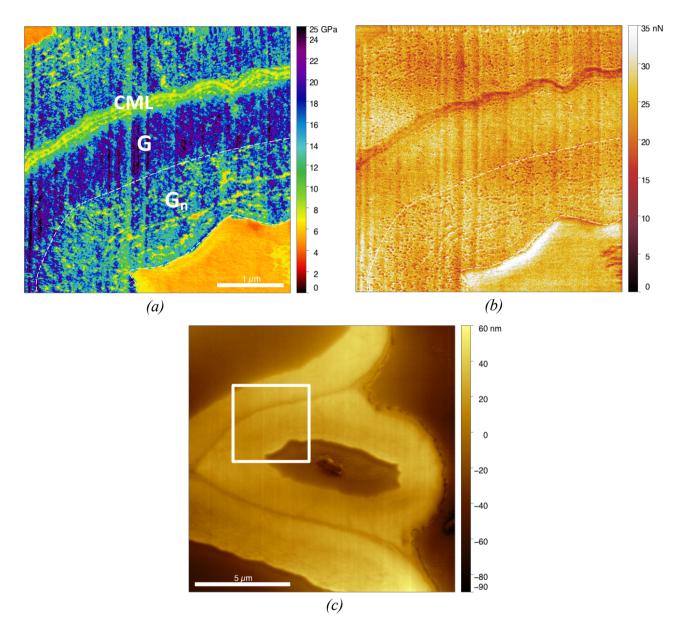
514 According to the radial profiles of the indentation modulus (Fig. 5), a smooth mechanical gradient 515 occurs in immature G-layer on less than 0.5 µm on the lumen side with a small sublayer of about 516 100 nm. This sublayer appears to be as dense as the mature part of the layer and could be either a freshly deposited immature G-layer or part of the periplasmic area still bound to the layer. Indeed, 517 periplasmic area, located between the inner part of the G-layer and the plasma membrane, is the scene 518 of intense biochemical processes, see Fig. 2 in Pilate et al. (2004), Fig. 5 in Guedes et al. (2017) or 519 520 Fig. 7 in Decou et al. (2020). In contrast, flax bast fibres exhibit a strong mechanical gradient with a 521 thick immature, loose and soft G-layer, called G_n (Gorshkova and Morvan, 2006; Gorshkova et al., 522 2010). Evidence for the presence of this thick G_n-layer has also been provided in flax xylem tension 523 wood fibres (Petrova et al., 2021). Interestingly, the indentation modulus of flax G-layers is similar 524 to or even a little bit higher than that of mature poplar G-layers and the average indentation modulus 525 of flax G_n-layers is comparable to that measured in immature poplar G-layers in fibres close to the 526 cambium and to the inner sub-layers observed in more developed G-fibres.

527

528 Comparison with flax G-layer

The indentation modulus and adhesion force maps in the case of a typical developing flax fibre with a sharp transition between G and G_n layers (Arnould *et al.*, 2017; Goudenhooft *et al.*, 2018) are shown in Fig. 8. Several sublayers are observed as lamellae in the G_n , which exhibit indentation modulus and adhesion force similar to those of the G-layer. These lamellae are separated by bands whose indentation modulus is close to that of the resin, but with a lower adhesion force. This lamellar arrangement is not observed in poplar, even though ring lamellae structure of this type is sometimes discernible in the mature part of the G-layer (e.g., see cells at a distance of 548, 740, 830, 930, 1 024

- and 1 660 µm µm from the cambium in Fig. 3 and Fig. S1). The most significant structure in the
- 537 poplar G-layer appears as radial bands (e.g., see tension wood cells at a distance of more than 740 μm
- 538 in Fig. 3). This pattern may reflect biological organisation, but we cannot exclude the possibility that
- 539 it is the consequence of (slight) shrinkage of the G-layer during dehydration with ethanol (Fang *et*
- 540 al., 2007).
- 541



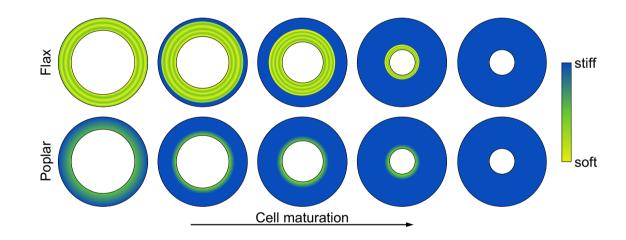
542

Fig. 8. Comparison of the G and G_n -layers in developing flax bast fibre (60 days, half height of the stem) adapted from Arnould et al. (2017): a) indentation modulus map and b) adhesion map corresponding to the white box in the topography image (c).

546

547 Note that it is impossible to compare the absolute value of adhesion forces obtained in the present 548 study (Fig. 4b) with the values obtained in Arnould *et al.* (2017) (in Fig. 8b) as this force depends to 549 a great extent on the on the shape of the tip and on the surface roughness of the material, which were 550 not the same (see for example the difference in adhesion forces of the embedding resin in the lumen in the two studies, even though the same resin was used). In conclusion, although the G-layer of 551 552 tension wood and the G-layer of flax are biochemically, ultrastructurally and mechanically similar 553 (Coste et al., 2020; Petrova et al., 2021), here it is clear that they differ in their development and 554 maturation, as summarised in Fig. 9, with a thick, loose, multilayer G_n layer in flax that stiffens and 555 densifies abruptly, whereas in poplar, there appears to be a thin, dense immature layer that stiffens 556 gradually. Thus, immunohistochemical and G-layer specific marker gene expression analyses (Decou 557 et al., 2020; Guedes et al., 2017), like those already performed on flax bast and xylem fibres (Petrova et al., 2021), should be performed on the same sample to clarify the origin of these differences and 558 559 to better understand the mechanisms underlying the maturation and development of poplar tension 560 wood growth stress. Finally, all these results should be used to distinguish between different models 561 of growth stress development in the case of tension wood (Alméras and Clair, 2016), to estimate the 562 internal stress distribution within the G-layer and its consequences for macroscopic growth stress at 563 the tree scale (Alméras et al., 2009).

564



565

Fig. 9. Comparative scheme of the maturation (thickening and stiffening) of the G-layer of flax andpoplar.

568

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574

575 Author contributions

- 576 OA participated in sample preparation, supervised and designed all the experiments and data analysis,
- 577 performed some of them, and contributed to writing the original draft of the paper. MC performed
- 578 some of the experiments and the data analysis, wrote the original draft of the paper. MR supervised
- 579 and performed all the experiments. FL prepared the sample and contributed fruitful discussions to the
- 580 data analysis. TA contributed to data analysis and to writing the original draft of the paper. GP
- 581 contributed to data analysis. BC contributed to data analysis, conceptualised and supervised the whole
- 582 project. All the authors reviewed and edited the paper and approved the final version.
- 583

584 Data availability statements

- 585 The datasets used and/or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding
- 586 author upon reasonable request.
- 587

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