

**THÈSE**  
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Écologie évolutive, fonctionnelle et des communautés

**Résistance à la cavitation :**  
**Des mécanismes physiologiques à la génétique évolutive**

*De la bulle aux gènes...*

**Resistance to cavitation:**  
**Physiological mechanisms to evolutive genetic**

*From the bubble to genes...*

Soutenue le 13 mars 2012

Antoine KREMER (DR, INRA Bordeaux)	Président
Jean-Christophe DOMECK (Pr. Bordeaux Science Agro)	Rapporteur
Santiago C. GONZÁLEZ-MARTÍNEZ (CR, INIA Madrid )	Rapporteur
Thierry SIMMONNEAU (DR, INRA Montpellier)	Examinateur
Ophélie RONCE (CR, ISEM Montpellier)	Examinateuse
Sylvain DELZON (CR, INRA Bordeaux)	co-Directeur de thèse
Hervé COCHARD (DR, INRA Clermont-Ferrand)	co-Directeur de thèse
Christophe PLOMION (DR, INRA Bordeaux)	Directeur de thèse

Laboratoire BIOGECO Équipe Ecologie et génomique fonctionnelle Bâtiment B2, Avenue des Facultés  
33405 Talence



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Pour la suite, je dégoupille :

Mes ziziments :

Autant je me suis escrimé à essayer de pondre un truc chiadé, ficelé, statistiqué ! Autant là... C'est du à brûle-pourpoint ! Un bon pétard mammouth tenu en pleine main... Ne chercher pas... un fil conducteur ? Ben hey ! y en a pas... Ce poulet-là, je ne le relirais pas, y en aura des fautes, pour sûr cousin !... Le texte est généré par des processus markoviens... Salmigondis verbeux, allons y !

*La fin, on la tient, JP, on y est [presque] arrivé...*

« Une thèse, mes loufiats c'est dure et ça dure ! » qu'on nous avait dit...

- Héhé, je dirais qu'une thèse ça laboure, et profond, la cervelle, le corps, les sentiments... La vie dans son ensemble. Ca étrille l'échine comme un blizzard descendu du Vignemale, et ruine les gambettes comme les aoûts en autonome. Faut dire que je n'ai pas épargné ma sueur... Que surgira des ces sillons cérébraux abreuvés de musique classique, de soupe aux champignons du campus et à la водка ? La question est ouverte, la page de nouveau vierge...

Merci JP d'avoir été mon acolyte... d'avoir fait si souvent la boustifaille pour tout le monde à la colocation... d'avoir planter des fèves cet hiver... de ne pas râler plus de 10 secondes quand tu te rends compte que la cuistance s'approchait d'une porcherie... d'avoir rigolé quand on pété le canapé qui devait remplacer celui qu'on avait déjà pété... d'accepter de faire du canoë pendant les nuits d'hivers sur le lac de Lacanau. Merci à Pithivier et à Sir Aliaksandr Kolbas avec qui rien n'est triste ! Eux aussi étaient dans le coup du canapé ! Ils n'ont jamais été en reste, eux aussi ont été d'excellents alcooliques... L'ambiance me manquera c'est sûr.

N'oubliions pas les meubles : La table de Saint Michel et aux chaises survivantes qui ont bu au moins autant que nous. Merci aux deux générations de canapés (pas les mêmes que les précédents) qui ont hantés nos bureaux.

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إلى ليتيسيا، التي وضعتني على هذا الدرب.  
أنا مدين لها بهذا الشيء على الأقل.

A mes deux jeunes neveux et à ses parents... A mon frère aux cheveux longs, à ma sœur qui grandit et aux géniteurs de la tribu Lamy qui ont dû en baver. Finalement ce méchant monde capitaliste est presque bon... On écrira ensemble la prochaine eschatologie, en attendant, bonne apocalypse. Je fête la mienne !

# **Avant propos**

Cette thèse porte sur le mécanisme physiologique de la résistance à la cavitation et la variabilité intraspécifique de ce caractère. Elle a été réalisée en cotutelle entre les UMR BIOGECO et PIAF et a fait l'objet d'un co-financement entre la Région Auvergne et le département d'écologie des forêts, des prairies et des milieux aquatiques de l'INRA. J'ai également bénéficié de l'appui du projet Européen NOVELTREE pour réaliser le phénotypage des différentes populations étudiées, d'une bourse de mobilité de l'INRA, de l'EGIDE et d'un projet innovant INRA.

J'ai choisi de présenter les résultats et de les discuter dans une première partie rédigée en français<sup>1</sup> (voir Synthèse), suivie d'une seconde partie (Annexes) qui regroupe l'ensemble des articles ou manuscrits d'articles rédigés en anglais soumis à des revues internationales.

La synthèse peut être lu indépendamment des articles. Cependant, par soucis de concision, aucun détail méthodologique n'y est reporté. J'ai utilisé des figures issues de la littérature scientifique internationale dont je cite les références et dont les légendes ont été traduites en français afin de conserver l'homogénéité du texte. Les chapitres débutent sur des parties intitulées « rappels généraux », elles peuvent être sautés sans nuire à la compréhension globale de la synthèse.

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<sup>1</sup> Autant que faire ce peut, j'ai évité les anglicismes.

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# Synthèse

# 1- Introduction



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La sécheresse n'est peut être pas le danger le plus fréquent pour les plantations de Pins ! Observations personnelles au cours de la thèse... janvier 2009.

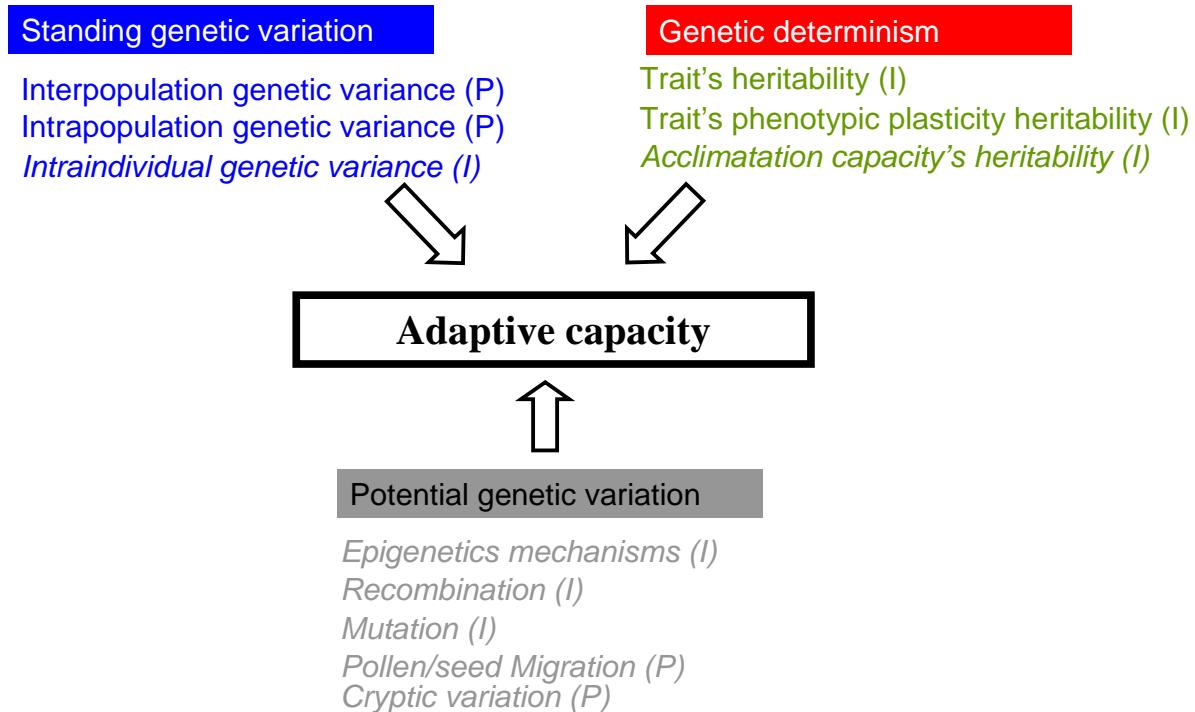
## **1.1 Capacité adaptative des arbres forestiers face à la sécheresse**

Les événements climatiques extrêmes, actuels comme passées, retiennent de plus en plus l'attention des climatologues et des modélisateurs de l'IPCC (Alexander et al., 2006; Beniston et al., 2007; Granier et al., 2007; Parey, 2008) en raison de l'impact qu'ils ont sur les activités humaines mais aussi sur l'évolution des écosystèmes<sup>2</sup> (Gould & Eldredge, 1977; Lewontin, 2008). Les climatologues ont établi que la moyenne des températures terrestres augmente, mais, plus dommageable, la variance associée aussi (Beniston et al., 2007; Della-Marta & Beniston, 2008). Les écosystèmes forestiers naturels et plantés subissent d'ores et déjà les effets directs et indirects de l'augmentation de sécheresses extrêmes (Breshears et al., 2005; Bréda, 2006; Bréda et al., 2006; Bréda & Badeau, 2008; Allen et al., 2010). La prévention et la gestion de ces risques naturels passent par l'évaluation précise de la capacité adaptative des espèces d'arbres (espèces clé de voûte) de ces écosystèmes afin de pérenniser la qualité et la quantité des services écologiques (Lindner et al., 2007, 2010). Plusieurs champs d'activités économiques sont intéressés par ces questions : Quel est le seuil de sécheresse pour lequel la plantation sera détruite (effets directs de la sécheresse ou indirects par les ravageurs) ? Quels caractères sont pertinents pour améliorer la survie des individus face à la sécheresse ? Comment créer et/ou sélectionner des génotypes adaptés aux conditions climatiques de demain ? Comment adapter les pratiques forestières pour acclimater les arbres ?

Evaluer la capacité adaptative d'une espèce d'arbre passe par : i/ l'identification et la compréhension des mécanismes clés impliqués dans la tolérance et/ou la résistance à la sécheresse, ii/ la quantification de la variation phénotypique de ces mécanismes et iii/ le déterminisme génétique de cette variation (Figure 1) (Lindner et al., 2010; Scotti, 2010).

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<sup>2</sup> La biologie a toujours été déchirée entre des visions continue et discontinue. En science de l'évolution, ce débat est illustré par la polémique entre Lamarck et Cuvier, le premier soutient une vision graduelle de l'évolution, le second pense qu'au contraire, l'évolution passe par des grandes révolutions des plans d'organisations. Ici, ayons une position intermédiaire, l'évolution graduelle est possible (microévolution) mais il existe des radiations brutale d'espèces après des extinctions massives (c.f. la crise crétacé tertiaire).



**Figure 1 : Définition opérationnelle de la notion de capacités adaptatives.** La capacité adaptative d'une espèce se conçoit face à un danger précis (la sécheresse, le froid) afin d'identifier les caractères limitant l'adaptation (réduire les dimensions du phénotype). Les lettres entre parenthèses précisent le niveau hiérarchique : « P » population, « I » individu impliqué dans l'adaptation. Dans cette thèse ne seront pas abordés les items en italique. Une capacité adaptative (*adaptive capacity*) dépend de la variation (non nécessairement génétique) du(des) caractère(s) ainsi que de la variation dite potentielle, qui peut apparaître *de novo* (mutation, recombinaison) ou être révélée (mécanismes épistatiques et/ou épigénétiques). Cette variation sera d'autant plus efficace si elle est héritée (heritability) ou si la capacité à exprimer de la variation est héritable (phenotypic plasticity and/or acclimatation capacity). Modifié d'après Le Rouzic & Carlborg, (2008), Lindner et al., (2010) et Scotti, (2010).

Notre objectif principal était d'identifier des variables physiologiques causales de la survie d'une espèce à la sécheresse. Ceci nous a amenés à choisir un caractère physiologique très corrélé à la fitness afin d'estimer au mieux la capacité adaptative de l'espèce face à la sécheresse. Lors d'une sécheresse, l'eau disponible pour les tissus vivants est limitée, ainsi l'ensemble des mécanismes de régulation situés sur le trajet de la sève brute est susceptible d'être impliqué dans la survie lors d'un tel stress.

## 1.2 Mourir de la sécheresse : Périr par la soif ou la faim ?

« *I would fain die a dry death* » W. Shakespeare *The Tempest* (I.I)

La mortalité des plantes due à la sécheresse est une variable difficile à mesurer, plusieurs mois d'observation sont nécessaires. Seules des études menées sur le long terme ou des sécheresses expérimentales proposent des hypothèses claires sur les processus menant à la mort d'une plante. Par conséquent ces hypothèses sont âprement débattues dans la littérature scientifique (Figure 2).

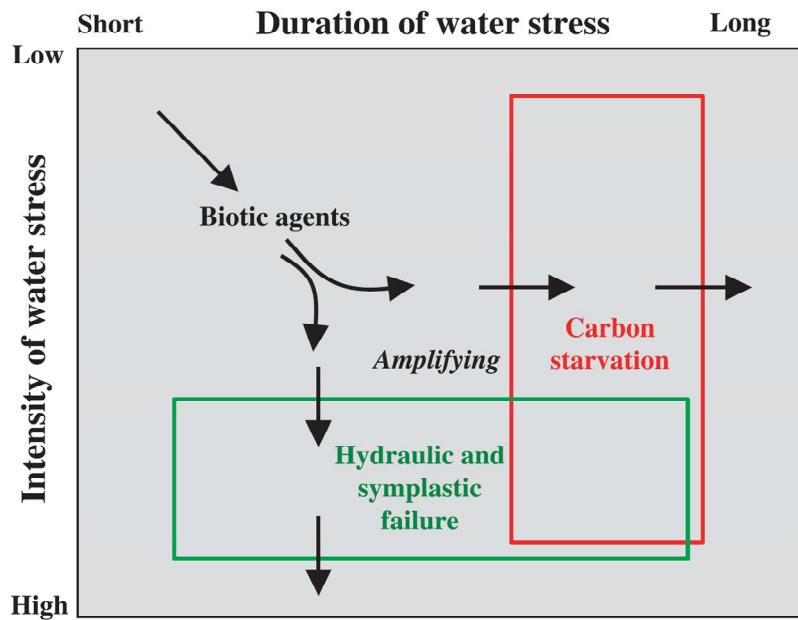


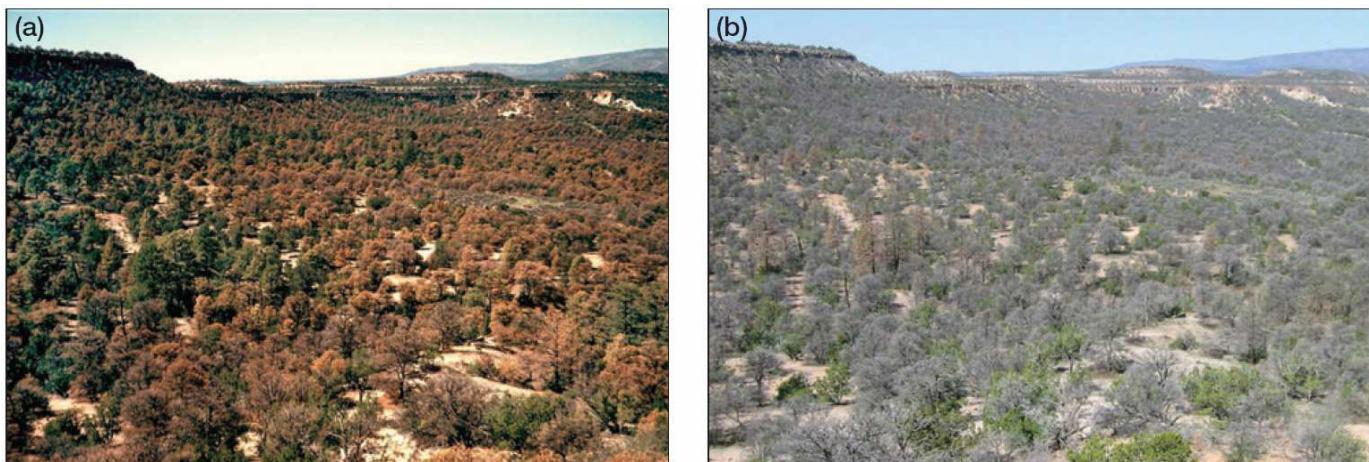
Figure 2 : Deux hypothèses sur les mécanismes menant à la mort pendant une sécheresse. La mort par la faim (*Carbon starvation*) et la mort par la soif (*Hydraulic and symplastic failure*) en fonction de l'intensité du stress (*Intensity of water stress*, en x) et la durée du stress hydrique (*Duration of water stress*, en y). Les agents biotiques (*Biotic agents*, flèches noires) amplifient les dégâts dus au stress hydrique. D'après McDowell et al., (2008).

La polémique est articulée autour de deux hypothèses (McDowell et al., 2008; McDowell, 2010): (i) Mort par la faim (« *Carbon starvation* »), les cambiums et méristèmes cessent de fonctionner par manque de ressources carbonées disponibles. La sécheresse va induire la fermeture stomatique, donc l'assimilation carbonée va chuter. Afin de maintenir ces cellules en vie (respiration de maintenance et défense), la plante épouse ses métabolites carbonés issus des réserves ou de l'autophagie. (ii) Mort par la soif (« *Hydraulic and symplastic failure* »), les cambiums et les méristèmes vont se dessécher à cause de l'évaporation trop élevée et/ou d'un apport en eau insuffisant. La déconnexion hydraulique entre le sol et le système racinaire et/ou l'embolie du xylème empêche d'acheminer l'eau du sol aux tissus vivants. Traditionnellement, la première hypothèse a toujours été en odeur de sainteté comparée à la seconde, mais de nombreuses expériences soutiennent la seconde (Brodribb & Cochard, 2009; Brodribb et al., 2010). Les processus liés au métabolisme du carbone sont imbriqués dans

ceux impliqués dans la circulation de l'eau. Ils sont couplés par des rétroactions réciproques (chargement et décharge du phloème, régulation de la température foliaire et homéostasie des photosystèmes, contrôle stomatique, la résorption de l'embolie). Aussi un consensus actuel se dégage ; la dégradation d'un processus entamerait inévitablement la dégradation de l'autre (McDowell, 2010, 2011). Lors d'une sécheresse, plusieurs études montrent l'importance des caractères hydrauliques dans la survie ou non des plantes.

### 1.3 Les caractères physiologiques clés pour survivre à la sécheresse

Breshears et al., (2005) et Adams et al., (2009) rapporte un dépérissement forestier important dans la région de Los Alamos (*Los Alamos National Laboratory, New Mexico, USA*). Dans les années 2000, les forêts de la région étaient composées d'un mélange de *Pinus edulis* et *Juniperus monosperma*. En 2004, après deux années d'un événement el niño de grande intensité, 99% de la population *Pinus edulis* disparaît, tandis que la population *Juniperus monosperma* a survécu (Figure 3).

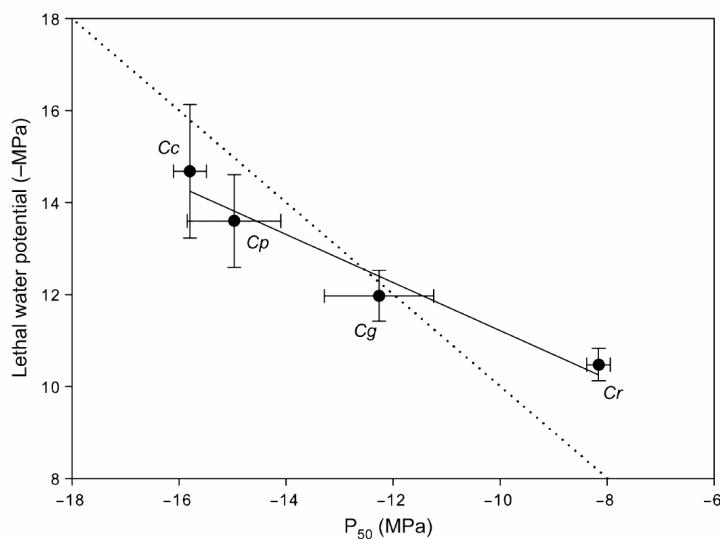


**Figure 3 : Transformation du paysage associé au dépérissement de *Pinus edulis* après un événement el niño. (a) en octobre 2002, les aiguilles des pins sont brunies (b) deux années plus tard (mai 2004), les pins ont perdu leurs aiguilles et les troncs sont gris, la mortalité est proche de 99%, les individus encore verts sont les *Juniperus monosperma*. D'après (Breshears et al., 2009).**

La mort des individus de *Pinus edulis* était précédée d'une période de 10 mois durant laquelle l'assimilation carbonée était nulle et le potentiel hydrique foliaire diminuait. Les deux espèces co-occidentes ont des différences marquées pour deux paramètres physiologiques essentiels : (i) la valeur de potentiel hydrique foliaire à laquelle les stomates sont complètement fermés ( $P_{100}^{stomata}$ ), l'assimilation carbonée est, alors, nulle ; (ii) la résistance à la cavitation ( $P_{50}$ ) qui est la valeur de potentiel hydrique pour laquelle le xylème a perdu 50% de sa conductivité initiale.

Cette perte de conductivité est due à l'embolie issue de la cavitation de la sève (formation de bulles d'air et de vapeur d'eau lors de forte transpiration). *Juniperus monosperma* possède un seuil de résistance à la cavitation ( $P_{50}$ ) plus bas que *Pinus edulis* (-8.9 versus -4.1 MPa). *Juniperus* est donc plus résistant à la cavitation que *Pinus*. Imagions le cas suivant, ces deux espèces ont le même potentiel hydrique foliaire est de -5.5 MPa. A cette valeur, le système conducteur de sève de *Juniperus* reste intact alors que celui de *Pinus* aura perdu 100% de sa conductivité initiale. De la même manière, *Juniperus* fermera complètement ses stomates ( $P_{100}^{\text{stomata}}$ ) pour une intensité (et/ou durée) de sécheresse beaucoup plus forte que *Pinus* (-4 MPa versus -2 MPa). Les caractéristiques hydrauliques sont déterminantes pour la survie à la sécheresse que l'espèce meurt de « faim » ou de « soif ».

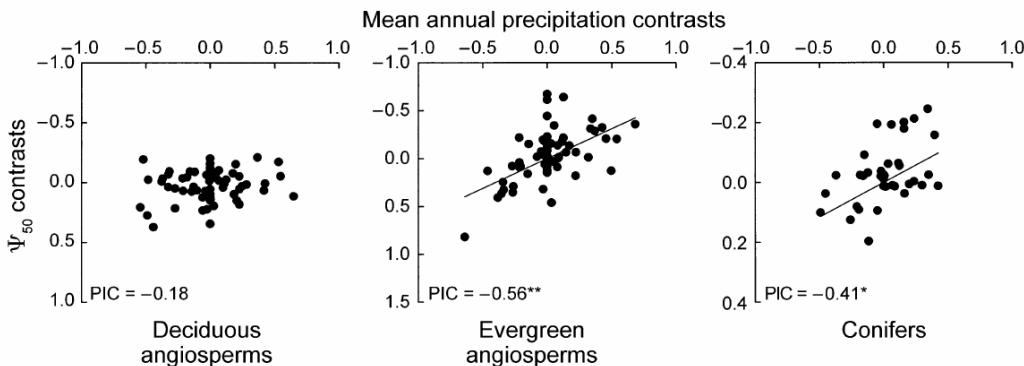
L'autre source d'information provient de sécheresses expérimentales suivies de périodes de réhydratation. Brodribb & Cochard, (2009) et Brodribb et al., (2010) mettent en évidence la bonne corrélation qui existe entre un potentiel hydrique létal (potentiel hydrique pour lequel la plante meurt) et la résistance à la cavitation ( $P_{50}$ ) sur 4 espèces du genre *Callitris* (Figure 4).



**Figure 4 : Le potentiel hydrique létal (lethal water potential, en y) et la résistance à la cavitation du xylème ( $P_{50}$  en x, MPa) du tronc sont fortement positivement corrélés ( $R^2 = 0.95$  ;  $P < 0.05$ ). Cc : *Callitris columellaris*, Cg : *Callitris gracilis*, Cp : *Callitris preissii*, Cr : *Callitris rhomboidea*. D'après (Brodribb et al., 2010).**

D'autres arguments renforcent l'idée que la résistance à la cavitation est un estimateur fiable de la survie à une sécheresse extrême. Dans une méta-analyse sur 167 espèces, Maherli et al., (2008) montre une bonne adéquation entre les précipitations annuelles moyennes et la résistance à la cavitation pour les conifères et les angiospermes sempervirents après une correction pour tenir compte de la phylogénie (voir la Figure 5). Cette corrélation est aussi

retrouvé entre des indices écologiques et la résistance à la cavitation (Brendel & Cochard, 2011). L'ensemble de ces études montre qu'en moyenne les conifères ont une meilleure résistance à la cavitation, qui serait due à l'anatomie du xylème (Brodrribb & Hill, 1999).



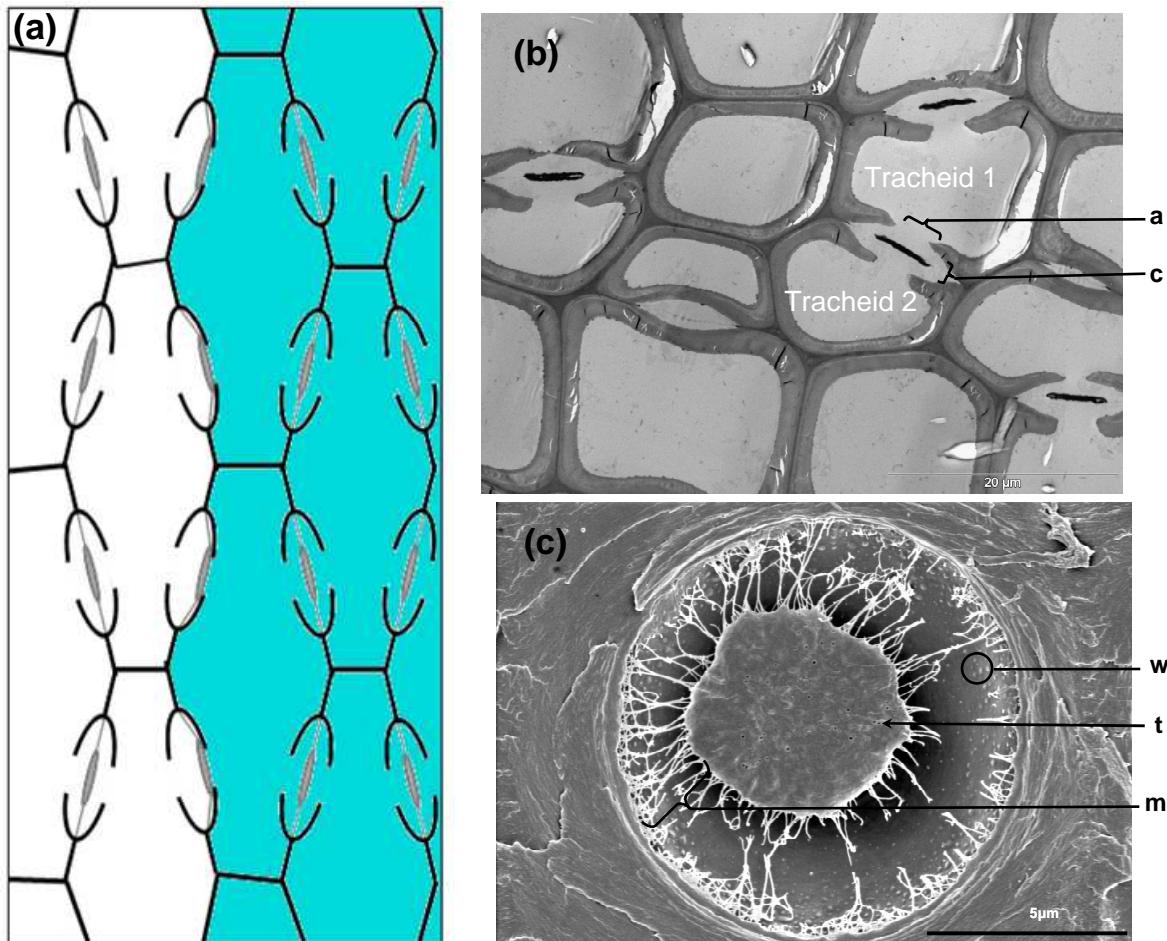
**Figure 5 : Corrélation entre la résistance à la cavitation ( $\psi_{50}$  contrasts en y) et les précipitations annuelles moyennes (mean annual precipitation contrasts, en x) pour différents groupes écologiques après correction pour tenir compte de la phylogénie. Les données résistance à la cavitation ont été logarithmées. D'après Maherli et al., (2004).**

D'un point de vue théorique et empirique, la résistance à la cavitation serait donc un estimateur fiable de la survie à une sécheresse extrême. La résistance à la cavitation est une mesure longue et fastidieuse, existe-t-il des caractères plus faciles à mesurer et bien corrélés à la résistance à la cavitation ?

#### 1.4 Relation entre résistance à la cavitation et anatomie du bois

Certains auteurs montrent que la densité du bois pourrait être un bon estimateur de la résistance à la cavitation (Hacke & Sperry, 2001) tant au niveau interspécifique qu'intraspécifique (Rosner et al., 2007; Dalla-Salda et al., 2009, 2011). En effet, Martinez-Meier et al., (2008) a mis en évidence que les survivants à la canicule de 2003 avaient un bois plus dense que les individus morts chez *Pseudotsuga menziesii*. Rosner et al., (2007) et Dalla-Salda et al., (2011) montre sur 6-7 clones de la même espèce une corrélation entre la densité du bois initiale et la résistance à la cavitation. Cependant, ces études sont rares et faiblement répétées, il convient de tester la robustesse de la relation entre résistance à la cavitation et la densité du bois sur un grand nombre d'individus non apparentés (fond génétique large). L'étude des corrélations entre les caractères ne saurait suffire, il est crucial de comprendre quelles variables anatomiques expliquent la variation de résistance à la cavitation.

Les conifères montrent en moyenne une résistance à la cavitation plus importante que les angiospermes ( $-4.78 \pm 0.44^3$  versus  $-2.65 \pm 0.18$  MPa, (Maherali et al., 2004)), cette différence peut être expliquée par d'anatomie du bois (Brodribb & R.S. Hill, 1999; Maherali et al., 2004).



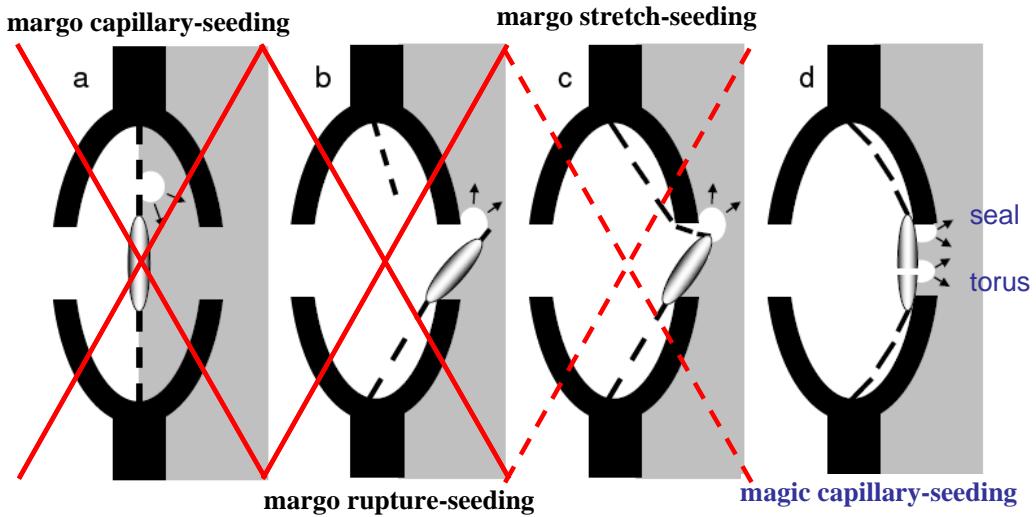
**Figure 6 : Réseau de trachéides et ponctuation aréolée des gymnospermes.** (a) Schéma d'un réseau de trachéides (vue longitudinale tangentielle). En blanc les trachéides embolisées (remplies d'air et de vapeur d'eau) et en bleu les trachéides fonctionnelles, entre les deux, les torus des ponctuations aréolées séparent l'air de la sève. Ils sont aspirés (coté sève, car la pression est décroissante du coté air vers le coté sève) et donc plaqués contre l'ouverture. (b) image de microscopie électronique à transmission montrant, en coupe transversale, un réseau de trachéides avec des ponctuations aréolées non aspirées. (c) image de microscopie électronique à balayage montrant une ponctuation aréolée non aspirée, une partie de la chambre a été enlevée pour permettre de voir le torus et les microfibrilles. Légendes : *a* ouverture de la ponctuation aréolée (*pit aperture*), *c* chambre de la ponctuation aréolée (*pit chamber*), *w* verrues sur les parois de la chambre (*warts*), *t* torus de la ponctuation aréolée (*torus*), *m* microfibrilles suspendant le torus (*pit margo*), pour désigner toutes les microfibrilles on utilisera de terme de treillis.

3 Erreur standard.

L'appareil vasculaire des gymnospermes est essentiellement constitué de trachéides (bois homoxylé). Une trachéide est le segment unitaire de l'appareil vasculaire des gymnospermes, elle provient d'une cellule cambiale qui ne s'abouchera pas à sa voisine comme c'est le cas chez les angiospermes (formation de vaisseaux). La sève brute passe d'une trachéide à l'autre via des interruptions dans la paroi cellulaire de la trachéide appelées ponctuations aréolées (*circular bordered pit*). Chacune des ces interruptions est constituée d'un volume (*pit chamber*) dans lequel le torus (épaississement issu de la paroi primaire) flotte suspendu par des microfibrilles. Lors de différences de tensions<sup>4</sup> (condition favorable à l'apparition de cavitation) entre deux trachéides, il joue le rôle de valve. Il vient se plaquer sur l'ouverture de la chambre pour éviter la propagation de l'embolie (Figure 6a). Les angiospermes n'ont pas ce système de valve (ponctuation simple). De plus, chez les gymnospermes la segmentation hydraulique est beaucoup plus élevée du fait de la faible dimension des trachéides en comparaison avec les longs vaisseaux des angiospermes. Malgré tout, ce système de valve est imparfait, car les gymnospermes subissent des phénomènes d'embolie due à la cavitation. Il existe quatre hypothèses pour expliquer la propagation de la cavitation dans l'appareil vasculaire des gymnospermes.

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<sup>4</sup> Nous utiliserons le terme de tension pour parler de pression négative. Aussi écrivais-je que la tension A est plus forte que la tension B si la valeur absolue de la pression négative de A = -5 MPa est plus forte que B=-2 MPa. De plus, le terme tension est plus proche de la force que les molécules subissent dans l'appareil vasculaire des arbres, il s'agit d'une tension au sens mécanique du terme.



**Figure 7 : Illustration des hypothèses expliquant la propagation de l'embolie chez les conifères.** (a) Pour des tensions induisant des phénomènes de cavitation, le torus n'est pas aspiré et le germe d'air apparaît sur les pores délimités par les microfibrilles du treillis. C'est l'hypothèse du germe d'air sur le treillis de microfibrilles ; (b) Les microfibrilles se brisent et le torus passe à travers l'ouverture de la ponctuation et laisse passer un germe d'air. C'est l'hypothèse du germe d'air par rupture des microfibrilles. (c) Les microfibrilles sont suffisamment élastiques pour que le torus passe à travers l'ouverture et laisse apparaître un pore du treillis. C'est l'hypothèse du germe d'air par étirement du treillis. (d) Le torus joue son rôle de valve mais le germe d'air passe quand même, à travers le torus ou sur les bords de l'ouverture. C'est l'hypothèse du germe d'air « magique ». Les traits rouges pleins indiquent si les hypothèses ont été invalidées par de la modélisation et/ou des études experimentales. Les traits rouges en tireté montrent que ces hypothèses sont peu probables mais elles ne sont pas complètement exclues.

La première hypothèse, celle de l'apparition d'un germe d'air sur le treillis de microfibrilles (*margo capillary-seeding*), a été repoussée par des arguments issus de la modélisation car la tension nécessaire à l'aspiration du torus contre l'ouverture est en deçà des mesures de  $P_{50}$  (Domec et al., 2006). De plus, la loi de Laplace-Young prédit une rupture d'un ménisque air-eau au niveau d'un pore du treillis à une tension bien plus faible que celle induisant de la cavitation (Delzon et al., 2010). Donc le torus joue son rôle de valve à des tensions plus faibles que celles qui provoquent la cavitation. La seconde hypothèse, celle du germe d'air par rupture des microfibrilles (*margo rupture-seeding*), a été écartée par des expériences. De l'eau a été injectée sous pression dans une branche afin d'induire, dans un premier temps, le plaquage des torus sur l'ouverture de la chambre ; et dans un second temps, la pression a été augmentée pour rompre les microfibrilles. La conductance de la branche n'a jamais augmenté, au contraire elle diminue tout le long de l'expérience (Cochard et al., 2009). Donc la rupture des microfibrilles ne paraît pas être une hypothèse probable pour expliquer la cavitation. La

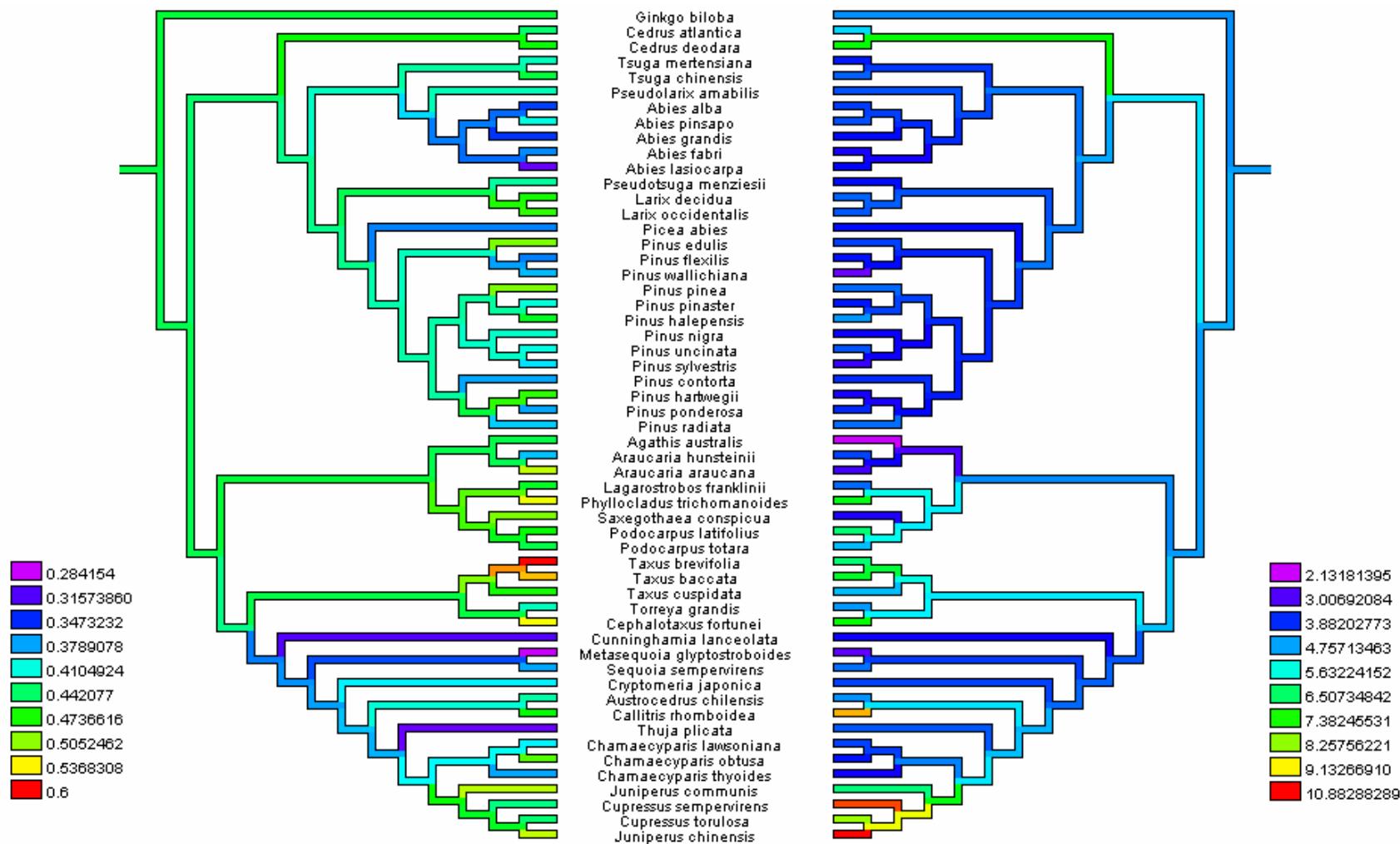
troisième hypothèse, celle de l'apparition d'un germe d'air par étirement du treillis, a été aussi infirmée par des mesures anatomiques de la flexibilité des microfibrilles, un estimateur de leur élasticité. Plus une espèce a des microfibrilles flexibles plus cette espèce est résistante à la cavitation ((Delzon et al., 2010) mais voir (Sperry & Tyree, 1990)). Reste à tester la dernière hypothèse qui prévoit une rupture capillaire et le passage d'une bulle d'air malgré la fermeture l'ouverture par le torus. Il s'agit d'observer la microanatomie du torus et de vérifier qu'il est bien imperméable à l'air comme supposé dans les trois modèles précédents. Ce point a fait l'objet d'une étude spécifique dans le cadre de cette thèse.

## **1.5 La variation de la résistance à la cavitation, le moteur de l'adaptation face à la sécheresse.**

Les événements climatiques extrêmes fonctionnent comme des filtres, ne passent au travers que les individus possédant une combinaison de valeurs de caractères (souvent des valeurs extrêmes) permettant leur survie et leur reproduction (fitness élevée). Ainsi plus une population a une variation importante, plus elle aura une capacité adaptative importante. La variation est donc le moteur de l'évolution. Dans un premier temps, nous nous intéresserons à la variation interspécifique de la résistance à la cavitation et au rôle de la sélection naturelle dans la genèse de celle-ci. Dans une seconde partie, nous ferons un état de l'art sur la variation intraspécifique de la résistance à la cavitation et les déterminismes connus de cette variation.

### *1.5.1 La variation interspécifique de la résistance à la cavitation a-t-elle été façonnée, en partie, par la sélection naturelle ?*

La variation de la résistance à la cavitation a surtout été caractérisée au niveau interspécifique (Maherali et al., 2004; Delzon et al., 2010) (Figure 8). Au sein des gymnospermes, ce caractère varie de -2.2 pour *Taxodium distichum* (espèces qui vit dans les marais à l'ouest des Etats-Unis d'Amérique) à -16 MPa pour *Callitris columellaris* (espèce du désert Australien).



**Figure 8 : Phylogramme illustrant la variation interspécifique de la densité du bois ( $D_{\text{mean}}$ , à gauche) de la résistance à la cavitation ( $P_{50}$ , à droite). Les couleurs chaudes indiquent une forte résistance à la cavitation et une densité du bois importante. La variation est importante au sein des gymnospermes pour la  $P_{50}$ , en revanche beaucoup plus limité au sein du genre *Pinus*. D'après (Larcher et al., 2011).**

Dans une méta-analyse, Maherli et al., (2004) montre que des espèces éloignées phylogénétiquement peuvent avoir une  $P_{50}$  similaire et cela dans une proportion plus importante que celle due simplement au hasard (simulée par un modèle brownien<sup>5</sup>). Des travaux préliminaires au laboratoire sur un large panel d'espèces de gymnospermes montrent les mêmes tendances (Figure 8). Cette convergence évolutive est interprétée comme une trace de l'action de la sélection naturelle (homoplasie). Cependant, dans une étude similaire limitée au seul genre botanique *Juniperus*, un conservatisme phylogénétique est détecté, c'est-à-dire que des espèces phylogénétiquement proches se ressemblent plus que sous l'attendu du modèle brownien (Willson et al., 2008).

### 1.5.2 *La variation intraspécifique et ses déterminismes, les grandes inconnues*

Dans cette thèse, nous n'aborderons pas la variation intra-individu, cette question a été abordée par les physiologistes et écophysiologistes (voir (Cochard et al., 1999; Domec & Gartner, 2001; Mayr & Cochard, 2003; Holste et al., 2006; Beikircher & Mayr, 2008)). A cause de la difficulté de l'estimation de la  $P_{50}$ , l'exploration de la variation intraspécifique a longtemps été limitée à quelques populations sur des effectifs faibles par population (Table 1). De plus la diversité des dispositifs et des espèces (ou sous-espèces) étudiées ne permet pas de tirer des conclusions générales.

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<sup>5</sup> Modèle simplifié d'une évolution neutre, ces modèles sont utilisé en physique pour simuler la diffusion de molécule dans un liquide. Ces modèles appartiennent aux modèles markoviens (de marche aléatoire), ils n'utilisent aucune des hypothèses de dérive génétique habituellement utilisées en génétique des populations.

**Table 1 : Etat de l'art des études intraspécifiques sur la résistance à la cavitation.** *Npop* : nombre de population, *Nind* : nombre d'individus par population utilisés pour mesurer la résistance à la cavitation. La table est divisée en deux parties, la première partie correspond aux études conduites en test de population (ou de provenances) et/ou de descendance, la seconde aux études « *in situ* ». *Differentiation* : si les auteurs ont conclu à de la différenciation entre populations ou pas. Lorsqu'il y a deux items dans la ligne, cela se rapporte aux différents organes étudiés. Il est important de noter que les méthodes statistiques ont toutes été très différentes pour inférer de la différenciation entre les populations.

Population trial	Npop	Nind	Traits	Organ	Differentiation	References
<i>Pseudotsuga menziesii</i>	4	10	P50	Stem/root	yes/yes	(Kavanagh et al., 1999)
<i>Quercus wislizenii</i>	3	6	P50	Stem	no	(Matzner et al., 2001)
<i>Pinus contorta var latifolia</i>	4	15	P50/Slope	Stem	yes	(Wang et al., 2003)
<i>Pinus pinaster</i>	4	5	P50 /Slope	Stem	no	unpublished
<i>Saccharum sp</i>	0	4	P10/P50/P88	Leaf	yes	(Neufeld et al., 1992)
<i>Olea europaea</i>	2	2	P50	Stem	yes	(Ennajeh et al., 2008)
<i>Populus trichocarpa</i>	4	5	P12/Slope	Stem	yes	(Sparks & A.R. Black, 1999)
<i>Ambrosia dumosa</i>	3	6	P50	Stem	yes	(Mencuccini & J. Comstock, 1997)
<i>Hymenoclea salsola</i>	3	6	P50	Stem	yes	(Kolb & Sperry, 1999a)
<i>Artemisia tridentata</i>	3	10	P50	Stem	yes	(Kolb & Sperry, 1999b)
<i>Fagus sylvatica</i>	17	15	P50	Branch	no	(Wortemann et al., 2011)
<i>Pinus pinaster</i>	6	11	P50	Branch	no	(Corcuera et al., 2011)
<b>In situ</b>						
<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>	12	6.8	P50	Branch	no	(Martinez-Vilalta et al., 2009)
<i>Acer grandidentatum</i>	2	9	P50	Stem/root	no/yes	(Alder et al., 1996)
<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>	2	10	P50/Slope	Branch	no	(Martinez-Vilalta & Pinol, 2002)
<i>Pinus ponderosa</i>	2	6	P50/Slope	Branch	no	(Maherali et al., 2002)
<i>Cordia alliodora</i>	3	3	P50	Branch	yes	(Choat et al., 2007)
<i>Artemisia tridentata</i>	3	10	P50	Stem	yes	(Kolb & Sperry, 1999a)
<i>Juniperus scopulorum</i>	2	12	P50/Slope	Stem/root	no/no	(Ogle et al., 2009)
<i>Fagus sylvatica</i>	5	25	P50	Branch	yes	(Herbette et al., 2010)

Dans l'étude la plus puissante sur le plan statistique, (Martinez-Vilalta et al., 2009) montre, pour 12 populations réparties dans l'ensemble de l'aire de distribution de *Pinus sylvestris*, que la variance phénotypique de la résistance à la cavitation est faible (coefficient de variation phénotypique,  $CV_P < 10\%$ ). Cependant, cette étude ne fait pas la part entre la variance génétique, la variance environnementale et les interactions éventuelles qui peuvent masquer ou augmenter les deux premières composantes. Très récemment, Wortemann et al., (2011); Corcuera et al., (2011) montrent qu'il y a une variation génétique et une plasticité phénotypique pour la résistance à la cavitation mais leur stratégie d'échantillonnage ne permet pas de dériver des paramètres génétiques. L'ensemble des travaux réalisés avant les trois auteurs précités (2009) ne permettait pas d'avoir une conclusion tranchée sur l'existence ou non de variation génétique pour la résistance à la cavitation. En conséquence, aucune

estimation de la variance additive de ce caractère n'a été publiée, et seule une étude a fait une détection QTL (infructueuse) pour ce caractère (Lauri et al., 2011). Ces étapes sont des préalables cruciaux pour l'exploration du déterminisme de la résistance à la cavitation et éventuellement son intégration dans un programme d'amélioration.

## **1.6 Objectif de la thèse : Mécanismes physiologiques impliqués dans la résistance à la cavitation et déterminisme de la variation phénotypique chez *Pinus pinaster*.**

Cette thèse s'inscrit dans la problématique de la réponse des populations d'arbres au réchauffement climatique, notamment face aux sécheresses intenses. Les espèces arborées sont les espèces clé de voûte ou espèces fondatrices pour les écosystèmes forestiers. Elles représentent la majeure partie de la biomasse des terres émergées, conditionnent la majorité des flux d'énergies et de matières (90% du stock de carbone des écosystèmes continentaux) et structurent fortement l'espace (Potter, 2008). Les réponses des écosystèmes forestiers sont majoritairement fonction de la réponse de ces espèces.

L'objectif de cette thèse est double :

- (i) il s'agit de mieux comprendre le mécanisme physiologique de la résistance à la cavitation grâce à une étude comparée de la résistance à la cavitation et de l'anatomie des ponctuations aréolées à l'échelle interspécifique chez les conifères,
- (ii) d'explorer l'étendue et la structuration de la variation phénotypique de la résistance à la cavitation et, grâce aux modèles de génétique quantitative, d'en comprendre les déterminismes.

Pour chacun de ces objectifs, nous avons dégagé les questions de recherche et les hypothèses associées suivantes :

### **I) Mécanismes de résistance à la cavitation chez les gymnospermes :**

- *Où se situe la rupture capillaire (le germe d'air) dans la ponctuation aréolée des gymnospermes ?*

Hypothèse : Le torus n'est pas aussi imperméable à l'air que les physiologistes le présupposent.

### **II) Variation intraspécifique et son déterminisme génétique :**

- *Quelle est l'étendue de la variation phénotypique de la résistance à la cavitation entre populations naturelles de climats contrastés ?*

Hypothèse : Etant donnée l'importance du caractère dans la physiologie hydrique de l'arbre, de la variation à l'échelle interspécifique et de la variation climatique des populations choisies,

on s'attend à observer des différences fortes entre populations en terme de résistance à la cavitation et donc en terme de résistance à la sécheresse.

- *Quelle est la part génétique de cette variation ?*

Hypothèse : Comme les autres caractères liés à la morphologie du bois (densité, composition chimique) ce caractère doit être fortement héritable.

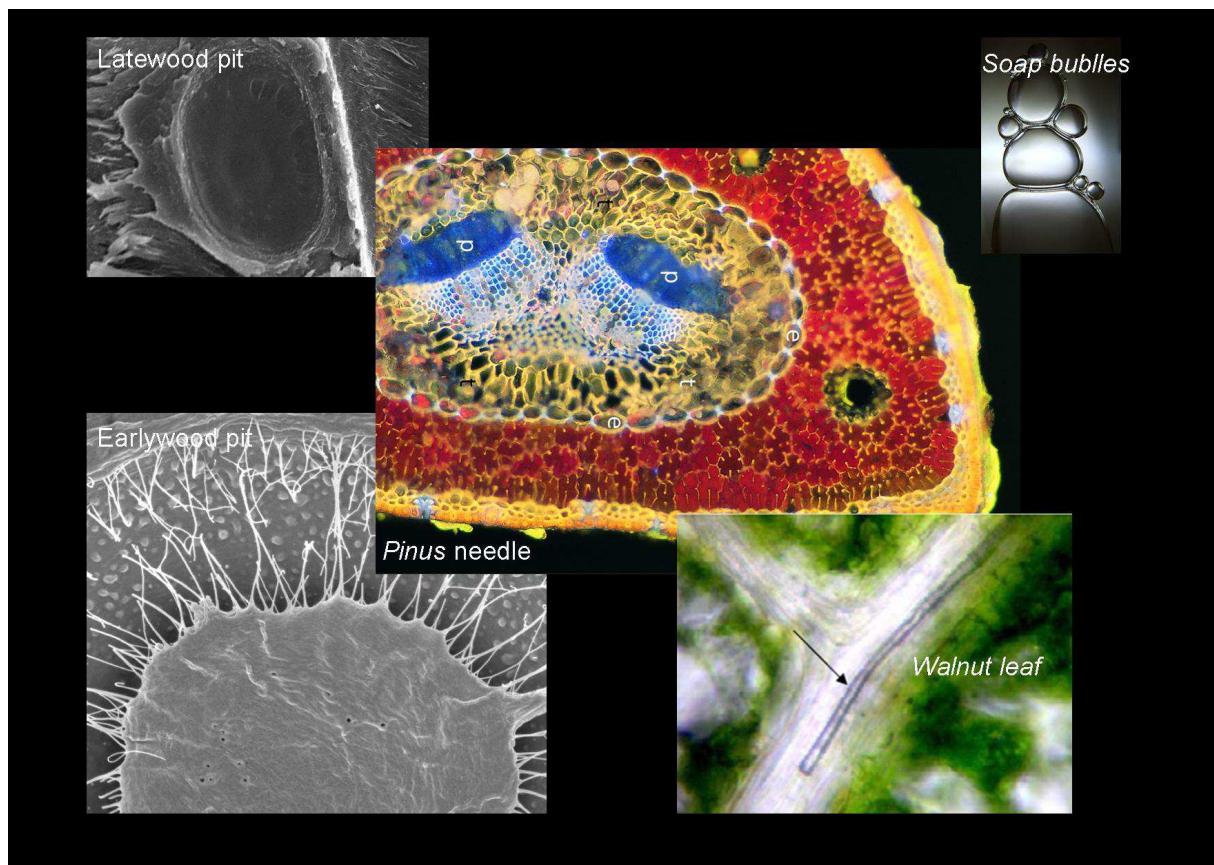
- *Quelle la part de la plasticité phénotypique dans cette variation ?*

Hypothèse : Pas d'hypothèse *a priori*. La littérature en discute beaucoup mais n'apporte pas de réelles estimations de cette plasticité phénotypique.

- *Quelle est l'architecture génétique de la résistance à la cavitation ?*

Hypothèse : Il est attendu que les QTL (*quantitative trait loci*) de la résistance à la cavitation colocalisent avec des QTL précédemment cartographiés pour la densité du bois. Vraisemblablement les gènes (ou groupe de gènes) impliqués dans la mise en place des parois cellulaires sont aussi impliqués dans la mise en place des ponctuations.

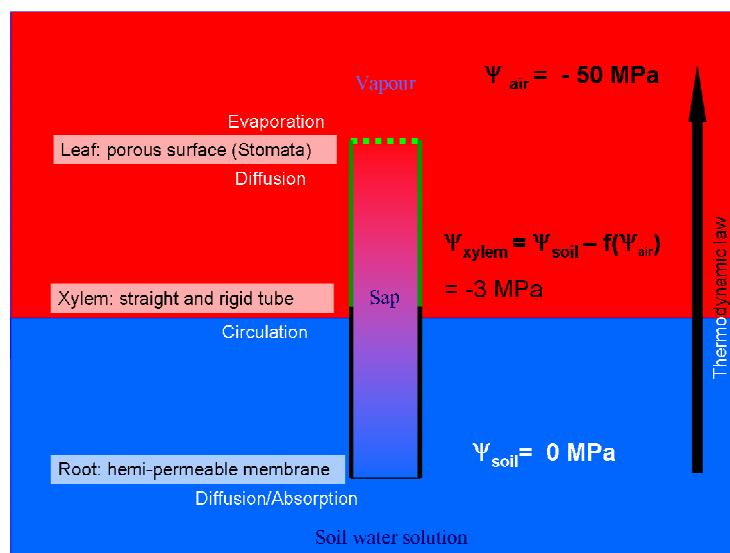
# 2- Fonctionnement hydraulique de l'arbre et mécanisme de résistance à la cavitation



Les objectifs de cette partie sont de replacer la problématique de la cavitation dans le fonctionnement hydraulique de l'arbre, faire un état de l'art des modèles expliquant la propagation de la cavitation chez les conifères et de vérifier l'une des hypothèses sous-jacentes des modèles précédents, c'est-à-dire que le torus est imperméable à l'air (l'hypothèse n°4 : germe d'air magique). Pour cela des mesures de microanatomie de la ponctuation aréolée et particulièrement du torus ont été effectuées.

## 2.1 Le continuum hydrique sol-plante-atmosphère, rappels généraux

Dans la majorité des espèces, la circulation de l'eau dans la plante est un phénomène physique passif. Il existe quelques exceptions comme les poussées racinaires ou de branches, ces processus dit actifs (nécessitant de l'énergie) co-existent avec un transport passif et ne prévalent qu'une partie de l'année souvent lors de la mise en place des feuilles. La théorie tension-cohéson (Cohesion-tension theory, voir (Sperry et al., 1996; Wei et al., 1999; Cochard, 2002a; Tyree & Zimmermann, 2002; Angeles et al., 2004)) est le paradigme actuel qui explique la circulation à longue distance de l'eau (sève brute) dans les plantes.

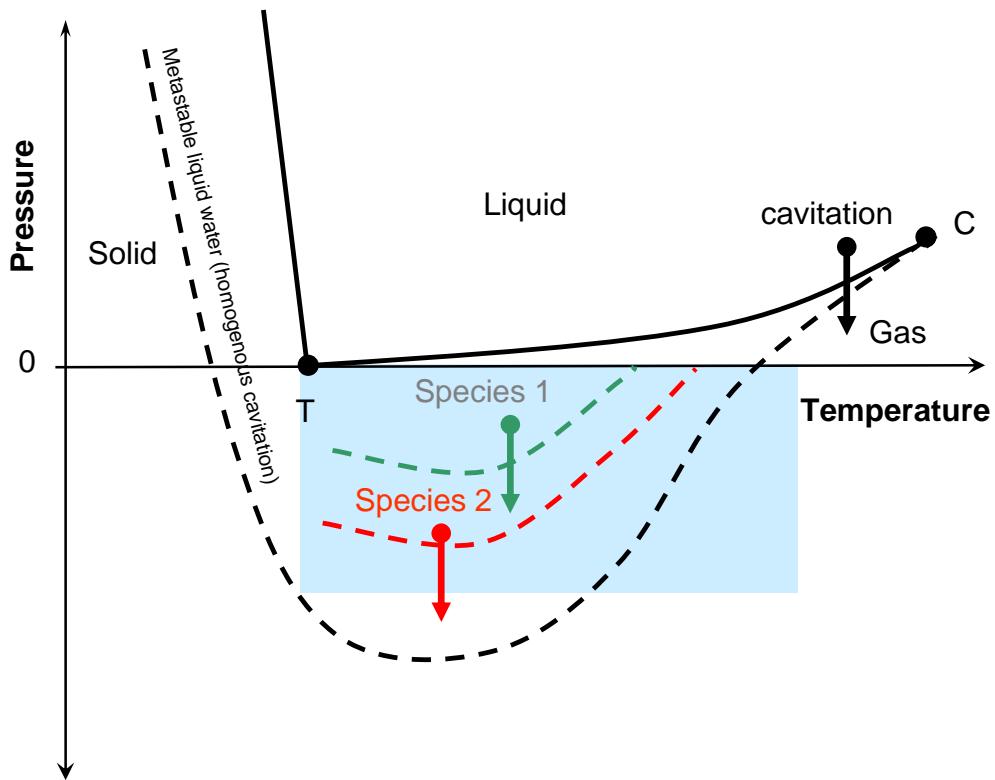


**Figure 9 : Illustration de la théorie adhésion-cohéson-tension.** La couleur bleue représente un sol saturé en eau avec un potentiel hydrique ( $\Psi_{soil}$ ) égal à zéro. La couleur rouge représente un air pauvre en vapeur d'eau avec un potentiel hydrique faible ( $\Psi_{air}$ ). La plante est représentée comme un tube ayant une extrémité fixée dans le sol, la sève est séparée de la solution du sol par une membrane hémipermeable (les racines). L'extrémité à l'air est une surface transpirante, l'eau s'évapore des pores appelés stomates.

La thermodynamique montre que l'eau circule des potentiels hydriques élevés vers les potentiels hydriques faibles. La plante fonctionne comme une pompe aspirante mue par l'énergie solaire. L'air ayant le potentiel hydrique le plus bas, les molécules d'eau s'évaporent au niveau de la chambre sous-stomatique et d'autres molécules d'eau vont les remplacer en entraînant leur voisines grâce aux liaisons hydrogènes. Grâce au continuum hydraulique que forme en phase liquide les molécules d'eau, la dépression créée par l'évaporation au niveau des feuilles va se propager jusqu'aux racines de proche en proche. Par cette force aspirante l'eau va être extraite du sol. La sève dans l'arbre est donc tirée par le haut, elle est sous tension (pression négative) et non poussée par le bas. D'autres forces soutiennent la colonne de sève : i/ les molécules d'eau adhèrent aux parois du xylème via les liaisons hydrogènes, ii/ les ménisques au niveau de la paroi cellulaires des cellules de la chambre sous-stomatique ont des rayons faibles, ils peuvent supporter des colonnes d'eau de plusieurs centaines de mètres (forces capillaires).

## 2.2 Quand les bulles s'en mêlent

La cavitation est un phénomène bien connu en physique, il s'agit d'apparition de cavités, issues de vaporisations locales, au sein d'un liquide. On peut imaginer des variations de pression très locales qui amènent un petit volume de liquide à franchir la limite liquide-gaz (chemin isotherme, flèche noire sur la figure 10). Dans le cas d'eau pure et dégazée, la vaporisation du liquide est due à la rupture spontanée des liaisons hydrogènes entre les molécules d'eau, la nucléation de la vapeur se fait au sein de la colonne d'eau, on qualifie cette nucléation d'homogène (cavitation homogène). La nucléation peut être activée (se dérouler à plus faibles tensions) par différents supports comme des bulles d'air préexistantes, sur une interface eau/air, sur une surface hydrophobe, et/ou une eau non pure. On parlera de cavitation hétérogène.



**Figure 10 :** Diagramme de phase de l'eau. Les lignes pleines délimitent les états de l'eau en fonction de la pression (Pressure, en y) et de la température (Temperature, en x). Les lignes en pointillés montrent l'extension possible du domaine liquide (lignes spinoïdales de Speedy). L'espace compris entre les lignes en pointillés et pleines est un domaine thermodynamiquement métastable ( $\psi_{\text{crit}}$ ). La flèche noire montre un chemin isotherme d'un volume d'eau liquide qui franchit la limite liquide-gaz amenant à la vaporisation locale de l'eau par cavitation dite homogène. La partie en couleur du graphique délimite schématiquement le domaine de pression et de température qui existe dans la sève. Les limites en pointillés et en couleurs correspondent à l'extension possible du domaine liquide de l'eau dans le xylème ( $\psi_{\text{crit}_1}$  et  $\psi_{\text{crit}_2}$ ) de l'espèce 1 (en vert) et 2 (en rouge). L'espèce 1 (en vert) est peu résistante à la cavitation, l'espèce 2 (en rouge) est très résistante à la cavitation. Les domaines d'extension de l'eau liquide chez les plantes sont réduits par rapport à l'eau pure car l'irrégularité des parois, la présence d'ions et de bulle d'air augmentent les probabilités de cavitation (cavitation hétérogènes). Modifié d'après Caupin & Herbert, (2006), Cochard, (2006) et Herbert & Balibar (2006).

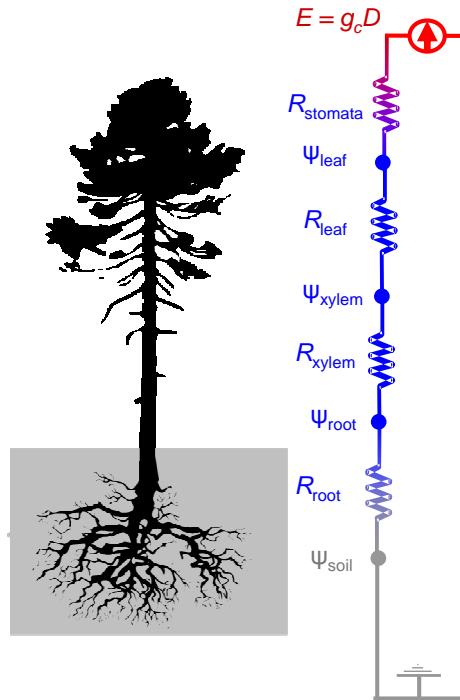
Comme vu précédemment, l'eau contenue dans la sève est généralement sous pression négative aussi appelée tension ( $\psi_{\text{xylem}} < 0$ ). Les molécules d'eau de sève sont étirées. Si l'on regarde un diagramme de phase de l'eau, pour des pressions négatives (tension) l'eau devrait être sous forme de gaz. Or l'eau n'est pas un liquide parfait, les liaisons hydrogènes étendent le domaine liquide. Aussi, l'eau de la sève est dans un état thermodynamiquement métastable lorsqu'elle est sous tension et encore liquide. En cas de tension forte (par exemple transpiration importante et peu d'eau dans le sol) ou de bulle d'air favorisant la nucléation

(décongélation de la sève), l'eau de la sève passera la limite de métastabilité ( $\psi_{\text{crit}}$ ) de l'eau liquide en tension (Figure 10) et elle se vaporisera ( $\psi_{\text{xylem}} < \psi_{\text{crit}}$ ) (Cochard, 2006). La limite de métastabilité de l'eau liquide en tension ( $\psi_{\text{crit}}$ ) est dépendante de l'anatomie du xylème, on estime  $\psi_{\text{crit}}$  par  $P_{50}$ . L'estimation de  $P_{50}$  et les mécanismes précis de cavitation dans les gymnospermes seront abordés plus tard.

Les conséquences de la cavitation dans l'appareil vasculaire des plantes pourraient être dramatique si les plantes ne régulaient pas leur transpiration grâce aux stomates. Une demande évaporatoire de l'air très forte ( $\psi_{\text{air}}$ ) va augmenter la tension sur le xylème, si jamais  $\psi_{\text{xylem}} < \psi_{\text{crit}}$  la cavitation dans la sève démarre. L'embolie, créée par cavitation, bloque la circulation de la sève,  $\psi_{\text{xylem}}$  chute, entraînant d'autant plus de cavitation, et ainsi de suite. Le seuil de tension déclenchant de la cavitation ( $\psi_{\text{crit}}$ ) est déterminé par l'anatomie du xylème. Ce seuil biophysique constraint la capacité de transpiration maximale. La régulation des flux hydriques est donc capitale pour les plantes afin d'éviter le cercle vicieux de l'embolie (*Runaway Embolism*).

### 2.3 La régulation des interfaces du continuum sol-plante-atmosphère

En cas de forte transpiration et/ou de faible teneur en eau du sol, la cavitation menace l'intégrité du système de transport à longue distance de la sève brute. En effet, les plantes exploitent les propriétés particulières de l'eau (liaisons hydrogènes) pour extraire l'eau du sol et l'apporter jusqu'en haut des cimes grâce à l'énergie solaire (d'après (Koch et al., 2004) la hauteur limite pour un arbre serait de 122m). Oui, les plantes sont des fainéantes ! Tout déséquilibre entre les entrées et les sorties d'eau va induire un surcroît de tension dans le xylème qui peut conduire à la cavitation. Aussi les plantes régulent strictement les flux d'eau entrants et surtout sortants.



**Figure 11 : Représentation du circuit hydraulique d'un arbre grâce à l'analogie d'un circuit électrique.** Ici, la plupart des résistances ont été représentées par un potentiomètre car la plante, à long terme, peut agir sur chacune d'elles. Le sol est représenté comme la masse et l'atmosphère (et l'énergie solaire incidente) comme un moteur. Modifié d'après Jones (1992).

Comme le montre la Figure 11, les physiologistes (et écophysiologistes) représentent le circuit hydraulique d'une plante comme un circuit électrique. Le long des potentiels décroissants, il existe plusieurs résistances que la plante contrôle (potentiomètre) ou subit. L'eau rencontre une première résistance au passage de la matrice du sol à la racine. L'eau entre ensuite dans la plante, traverse le cortex racinaire et l'endoderme qui entoure le xylème racinaire. La résistance de ce compartiment est, en partie, sous contrôle de la plante, qui peut l'augmenter (transpiration forte) ou la diminuer (face à des afflux de sel ou de polluants) via des aquaporines (Martínez-Ballesta et al., 2003; Ehlert et al., 2009). Ensuite vient la résistance du xylème, qui, chez les gymnospermes, est partagée à part égale entre le passage des ponctuations et le lumen des trachéides (Hacke et al., 2004; Pittermann et al., 2006, 2010). Puis vient la résistance mésophyllienne, plus complexe, dans laquelle intervient la perméabilité des plasmalemmes, des parois cellulaires, le collapse éventuelle du xylème des nervures, et encore les aquaporines. La régulation de cette résistance est multifactorielle (lumière, conductivité des nervures, phytohormones) et méconnue (Cochard et al., 2004, 2007). La plante contrôle les résistances en phase liquide et aussi une résistance en phase gazeuse qui va réguler les pertes d'eau vers l'atmosphère. La régulation stomatique du flux

hydrique de la plante est le Saint Graal des écophysiologistes, le mécanisme de contrôle est encore âprement débattu dans la littérature (Cochard et al., 2002; Cochard, 2002b; Buckley, 2005; Brodribb, 2009; Brodribb & S.A.M. McAdam, 2011; Brodribb & S. a M. McAdam, 2011). Des dizaines de modèles existent sans qu'aucun ne fasse l'unanimité (Damour et al., 2010).

Ainsi, on peut formaliser le fonctionnement hydrique d'une plante (Sperry et al., 1998) par l'équation :

$$(1) \quad \Psi_{leaf} = \Psi_{soil} - \Psi_{grav} - R_{tot} E_{tot}$$

Avec  $\Psi_{leaf}$  le potentiel hydrique foliaire,  $\Psi_{soil}$  le potentiel hydrique du sol,  $\Psi_{grav}$  le potentiel hydrique dû à la gravité (que l'on peut écrire  $hg\rho_{water}$ ).  $E_{tot}$  est la transpiration à travers la cuticule et surtout les stomates, il s'exprime comme étant le produit de la conductance stomatique moyenne de la canopée ( $g_c$ ), du déficit en vapeur d'eau de l'air ( $D$ ) et de la surface foliaire ( $A_L$ ).

$$(2) \quad \Psi_{leaf} = \Psi_{soil} - hg\rho_{water} - (R_{soil} + R_{root} + R_{xylem} + R_{leaf}) g_c D A_L$$

La grande difficulté pour établir un modèle hydrique fiable vient surtout de la méconnaissance du contrôle de plusieurs résistances ( $R_{root}$ ,  $R_{leaf}$  et  $g_c$ ). Pour combler ce manque de connaissance, les modélisateurs ont souvent recours à des relations plus ou moins empiriques entre la résistance et une variable environnementale. En revanche, pour la résistance xylémienne, il existe un modèle bien établi avec la tension de la sève.

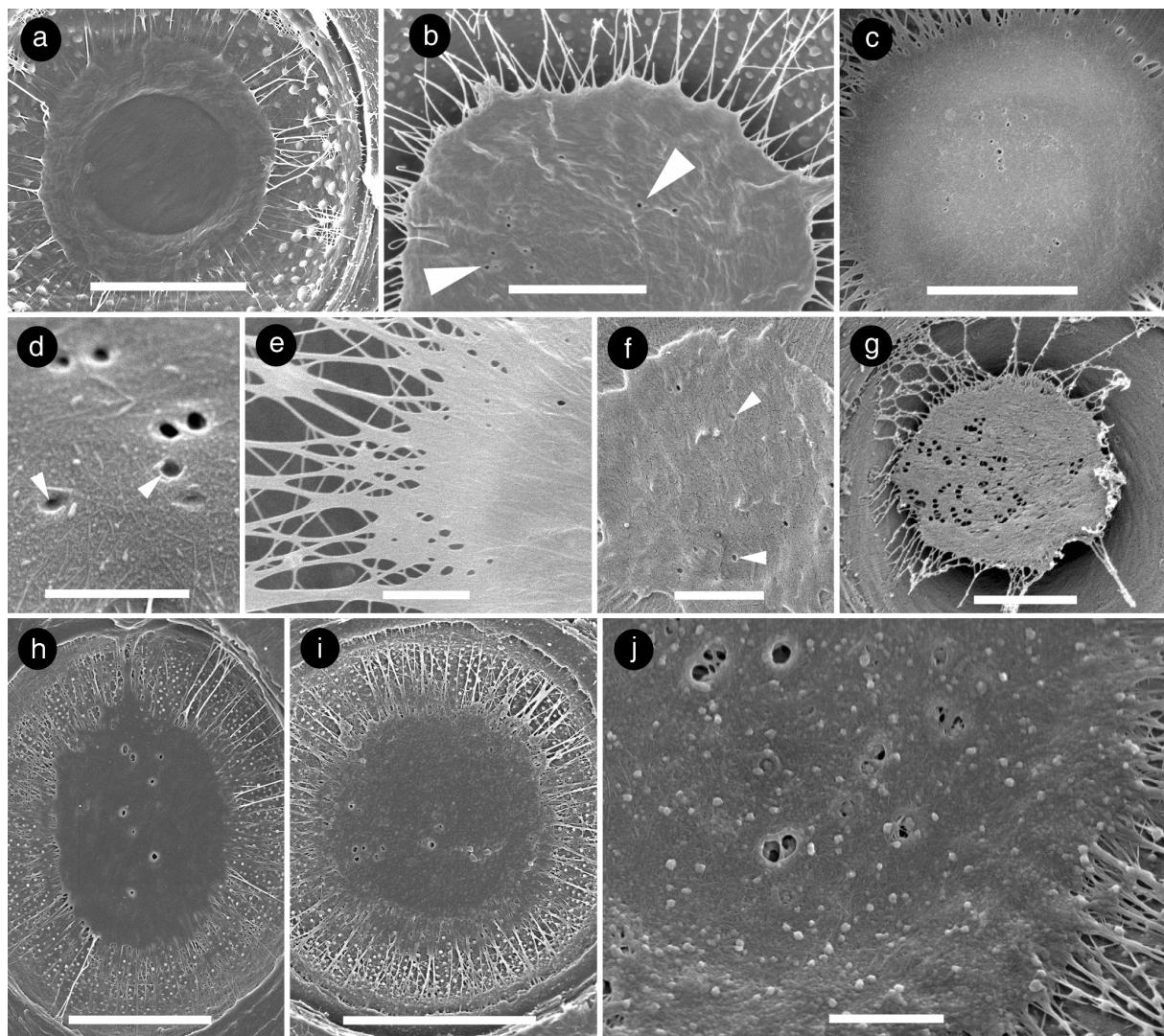
$$(3) \quad R_{xylem} = \frac{1}{K_{\max}} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{1 + e^{S_{50}/25(\Psi_{xylem} - P_{50})}} \right)^{-1}$$

Avec  $K_{\max}$  la conductivité de la branche sans embolie native. Le reste de la formule est une fonction sigmoïde qui modélise l'apparition et l'extension de l'embolie dans la branche en fonction du potentiel hydrique du xylème. Cette fonction dépend de deux paramètres  $P_{50}$  et  $S_{50}$  qui représentent respectivement la tension à laquelle le xylème a perdu 50% de sa conductivité initiale et la vitesse à laquelle le xylème perd sa conductivité par unité de tension.

## 2.4 La cavitation hétérogène, une histoire de passoire ?

La cavitation homogène est une vaporisation spontanée d'un liquide métastable par rupture des liaisons hydrogènes entre les molécules d'eau (Caupin & Herbert, 2006; Herbert & Balibar, 2006; Herbert et al., 2006). En théorie, il existe une tension limite à laquelle l'eau cavite avec une probabilité égale à 1. Seulement la valeur de cette tension limite diffère fortement selon le type de modèle : les modèles thermodynamiques montrent que l'eau cavite quand la tension  $\leq -22$  MPa, alors que les modèles de nucléation homogène ou de simulation moléculaire montrent que la tension limite serait  $\leq -140$  MPa (Wheeler & Stroock, 2009). Jusqu'à présent, les valeurs de résistance à la cavitation ( $P_{50}$ ) mesurées chez les plantes sont inférieures à ces tensions limites théoriques (le champion du monde actuel est un *Callitris columellaris*,  $P_{50} = -15.8$  MPa, vivant dans le désert australien). Par conséquent, ceci implique que le mécanisme de cavitation est hétérogène (Cochard, 2006). Ce n'est pas la rupture mécanique des liaisons hydrogènes qui doit être envisagée mais la présence d'un agent catalyseur (nucléus) qui va inciter la rupture des liaisons des hydrogènes (nucléation).

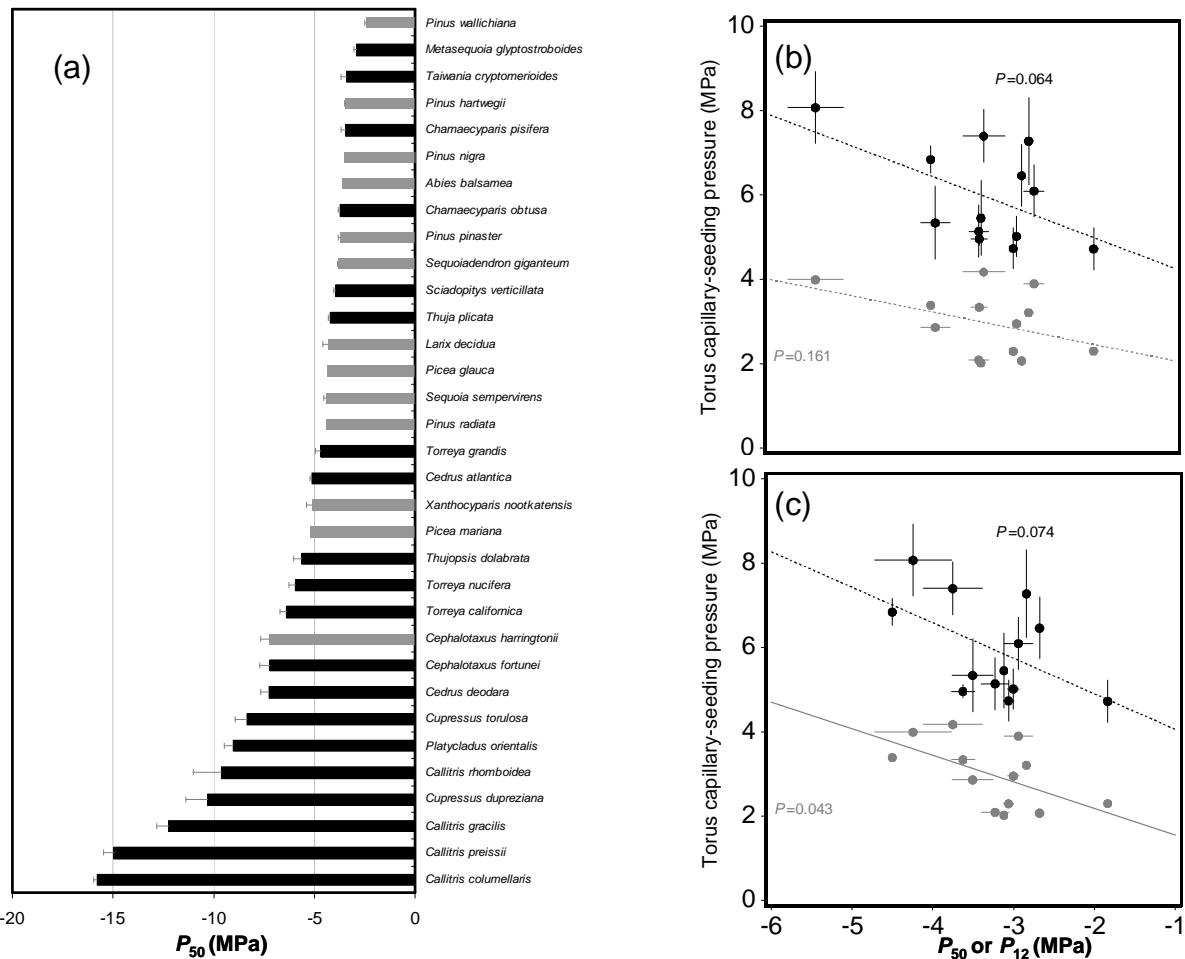
Plusieurs expériences laissent penser que les bulles d'air préexistantes (anciennes blessures, contact entre l'aubier fonctionnel et non fonctionnel) seraient les agents de nucléation majoritaires (Cochard et al., 1992) chez les plantes. De plus la cavitation chez les angiospermes est due à la rupture d'un ménisque air-sève au niveau d'un pore du treillis de la ponctuation (Sperry & Hacke, 2004). La ponctuation aréolée des gymnospermes évite la propagation de l'embolie en séparant ces trachéides fonctionnelles des trachéides embolisées grâce à l'effet valve du torus. L'examen de la microanatomie du torus révèle une grande diversité comme montré à la figure 12.



**Figure 12 : Images en microscopie électronique à balayage de la ponctuation aréolée des conifères montrant l'ultrastructure du torus.** (a) *Pinus radiata*, le torus est aspiré contre l'ouverture que l'on devine par transparence. L'ouverture de la ponctuation aréolée a un diamètre plus faible que le torus lui-même. Echelle = 5 µm. (b) *Pinus pinaster*, les ardillons montrent plusieurs nanopores à la surface du torus. Echelle = 2 µm. (c) *Cephalotaxus harringtonii*, détails sur les nanopores. Echelle = 2 µm. (d) *Picea mariana*, les ardillons montrent encore des nanopores. Echelle = 500 nm (e) *Torreya californica*, détail du torus et du treillis de microfibrilles, les pores à la jonction entre le torus et le treillis ne sont pas interprétés comme d'anciens plasmodesmes. Echelle = 500 nm (f) *Pinus wallichiana*, détail sur les nanopores, certains apparaissent remplis de matière (données TEM, non montrées) d'autres sont au contraire profonds. Echelle = 2 µm (g) *Pinus wallichiana*, cet échantillon est traité avec 100% éthanol ce qui agrandit artificiellement les nanopores. Echelle = 2.5 µm. (h) *Sequoia sempervirens*, le torus est ciblé et aspiré. Echelle = 5 µm. (i) *Sequoiadendron giganteum*, vue d'ensemble de torus ciblés. Echelle = 5 µm. (j) *Sequoiadendron giganteum*, détail des nanopores. Echelle = 1 µm.

Les torus ne sont pas tous lisses et imperméables. Sur les 33 espèces examinées appartenant à des familles botaniques éloignées (Cupressaceae, Pinaceae, Cephalotaxaceae, Taxaceae,

Sciadopityaceae) 12 espèces ont des petites perforations (*punctured torus*), que l'on dénommera nanopore (*pore in tori*) dans la suite du manuscrit. Ces nanopores apparaissent souvent groupés avec un diamètre moyen de  $61\text{ nm}\pm27$ , leur origine est attribuée à d'anciens plasmodesmes (canaux intercellulaires à moindre sélectivité). Ils ne sont pas systématiques présent sur tous les torus d'un échantillon et ne sont détectés que dans le bois initial.



**Figure 13 :** (a) Diagramme représentant la résistance à la cavitation des espèces étudiées en microanatomie. Les espèces en gris possèdent un torus criblé. (b) Corrélation entre la  $P_{50}^{\text{xylem}}$  et la tension nécessaire à la rupture d'un ménisque dans un nanopore (« torus capillary-seeding pressure »). En noir, tension calculée en prenant en compte le diamètre moyen des nanopores ; en gris tension calculée en prenant en compte le diamètre maximum des nanopores. (c) Corrélation entre la  $P_{12}^{\text{xylem}}$  et la tension nécessaire à la rupture d'un ménisque dans un nanopore (en noir, tension calculée en prenant en compte le diamètre moyen des nanopores ; en gris tension calculée en prenant en compte le diamètre maximum des nanopores). Les barres d'erreur correspondent aux erreurs standard (n=5 pour chaque espèce).

## 2.5 Diamètre des nanopores et $P_{50}$ .

Les nanopores ne semblent pas propres à un taxon précis, bien qu'au sein des espèces échantillonnées les *Pinaceae* présentent presque tous des ponctuations à nanopores excepté le genre *Cedrus* qui est aussi le genre le plus résistant à la cavitation. En moyenne, les espèces possédant des nanopores sont moins résistantes à la cavitation que les espèces sans nanopore (régression linéaire  $P$ -value = 0.02). A partir du diamètre (maximal ou moyen) des nanopores, il est possible de calculer quelle sera la tension nécessaire à la rupture d'un ménisque air-eau ( $T$ , MPa) (grâce à la loi de Laplace-Young). Ainsi, nous avons détecté une corrélation entre  $P_{12}$  et  $T$  calculé sur le diamètre maximum des nanopores. Cette corrélation n'est pas détectée avec  $P_{50}$  ou si  $T$  est calculé sur le diamètre moyen des nanopores. D'un point de vue physiologique, il est plus logique de calculer  $T$  sur le diamètre maximal car ces ménisques sont les plus fragiles et donc ceux qui provoqueront de la cavitation. De manière identique  $P_{12}$  est un estimateur de « début d'entrée de l'air » dans le xylème (*air entry*), donc la tension pour laquelle les ménisques les plus fragiles lâchent correspond aux premiers signes de cavitation détectable.

Traditionnellement, les dimensions du torus, de l'ouverture de la ponctuation et la morphologie des microfibrilles étaient utilisées pour expliquer la variation de la résistance à la cavitation au sein des conifères (Hacke et al., 2004; Choat et al., 2008; Delzon et al., 2010). L'hypothèse du germe d'air qui passerait à travers le torus via les nanopores pourrait être une hypothèse vraisemblable chez les conifères moins résistant à la cavitation.

# **3- La génétique quantitative évolutive et la variation intraspécifique de la résistance à la cavitation**



Cette partie poursuit plusieurs objectifs. Dans un premier temps, je présente les modèles d'analyses issues de la génétique quantitative et les méthodes utilisés dans la suite de l'exposé. Dans un second temps, nous quantifions (i) la variation phénotypique, génétique et la plasticité phénotypique de la résistance à la cavitation, (ii) nous étudions les corrélations avec d'autres caractères ainsi qu'avec des indices climatiques, et (iii) faisons des inférences sur les mécanismes évolutifs qui ont façonné cette variation phénotypique.

### **3.1 La variation phénotypique et ses déterminants : Acquis et Inné, rappels généraux.**

Un des principaux freins épistémologiques à la théorie de l'évolution, à l'époque de Charles Darwin, fut le manque d'un modèle solide qui explique comment la variation passe d'une génération à l'autre, autrement dit : un modèle génétique pour les caractères à variation continue (*quantitative traits*). Les lois de Mendel pourtant déjà découvertes à l'époque ne suffisaient pas car, outre le fait qu'elles étaient méconnues, elles ne modélisaient que la transmission de caractères dits discrets (couleur de fruit, aspect du fruit). La généralisation des lois mendéliennes aux caractères continus a été permise par les progrès des statistiques (formalisation des plans expériences et de l'analyse de variance) et de la génétique mendélienne. Cette théorie, essentielle en biologie moderne, qui fait la synthèse entre la variation phénotypique et la génétique des populations porte le nom abstrus, dissonant de génétique quantitative (*quantitative genetics*). Cette théorie infère l'architecture génétique d'un caractère à partir de la variation phénotypique à travers des modèles statistiques (estimateurs des modèles génétiques) associés à des plans expérimentaux adaptés. La génétique quantitative est une approche descendante (*top-down*).

Dans un premier temps, décomposons la variance phénotypique avec le modèle suivant :

$$(4) \quad P = G + E$$

$P$  est la valeur (variable continue) du caractère phénotypique, elle est fonction, d'une grandeur  $G$  qui est la part génétiquement déterminée (l'inné) et d'une autre grandeur  $E$ , non héréditaire car due à l'environnement (l'acquis). En génétique, c'est la variation qui nous intéresse, elle est mesurée en variance qui est la moyenne des écarts à la moyenne au carré. Dans la suite de ce travail, je parlerais aussi bien de variation<sup>6</sup> que de son l'estimateur la

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<sup>6</sup> La variabilité est la variation potentielle. C'est une propriété théorique.

variance. Si maintenant on passe à l'estimation statistique de ce modèle via une analyse de variance (Falconer & Mackay, 1996) :

$$(5) \quad \sigma_p^2 = \sigma_G^2 + \sigma_E^2 + 2\text{cov}_{GE}$$

Avec  $\sigma_p$  la variance phénotypique,  $\sigma_G^2$  la variance génétique,  $\sigma_E^2$  la variance environnementale, et pour des raisons mathématiques il faut ajouter deux fois la covariance entre la variance génétique et environnementale ( $2\text{cov}_{GE}$ ). La covariance est interprétée comme le fait que les génotypes<sup>7</sup> les plus performants se trouvent toujours dans les environnements plus favorables, ce qui est toujours le cas chez les animaux (ils se déplacent) et rarement le cas chez les plantes. De plus, le terme de covariance peut être supprimé en randomisant le dispositif expérimental, c'est-à-dire en allouant de manière aléatoire les génotypes dans les environnements (Falconer & Mackay, 1996).

Le terme  $\sigma_G^2$  se réfère à la valeur génotypique des individus. Or les individus ne transmettent pas leurs génotypes mais leurs allèles. Les génotypes se reforment à chaque génération par le biais de la méiose (brassage intra (recombinaison) et inter chromosomique (ségrégation chromosomique)) et de la fécondation (fusion des gamètes). Le terme  $\sigma_G^2$  peut se décomposer selon le modèle infinitésimal de Fisher (le fondement théorique peut être trouvé dans n'importe quel ouvrage de référence de génétique quantitative (Falconer & Mackay, 1996; Lynch & Walsh, 1998)). Selon ce modèle,  $\sigma_G^2$  est codé par un grand nombre de locus qui ont chacun un effet propre donc additif (A), un effet de dominance (D) et des effets d'interaction inter-locus (I) aussi appelé épistasie.

$$(6) \quad \sigma_G^2 = \sigma_A^2 + \sigma_D^2 + \sigma_I^2$$

L'estimation de ces termes repose sur l'observation que les membres d'une même famille se ressemblent plus que deux individus pris au hasard dans une population. Cette ressemblance est due au fait qu'ils partagent un certain nombre d'allèles en commun, en moyenne 50% pour des pleins frères (covariance entre apparentés). Selon les apparentements du plan d'expérience, on pourra estimer  $\sigma_A^2$ ,  $\sigma_D^2$  et  $\sigma_I^2$ . Par exemple,  $\sigma_A^2$ , aussi appelée variance additive (celle transmise à la descendance) est le coefficient directeur d'une droite de régression entre la moyenne des valeurs parentales pour un caractère donné et la moyenne des valeurs de la descendance pour le même caractère.

<sup>7</sup> Génotypes : Un génotype est l'association de deux allèles d'un même gène. Considérons un locus A, un individu  $i$  diploïde homozygote sera  $A_1A_1$  ou encore  $A_2A_2$  l'individu  $j$  hétérozygote sera  $A_1A_2$ , le chiffre en indice correspondant à l'allèle. On peut employer le terme génotype pour désigner l'ensemble des allèles sur l'ensemble des locus. Le concept de génotype inclut l'effet indépendant des allèles mais aussi l'effet que l'association entre les allèles peut avoir (voire l'effet de l'association des allèles entre les locus). En d'autres mots, le terme génotype se réfère à la présence d'allèles et aussi à l'association des allèles entre eux.

On quantifie ainsi la part de la variance du caractère qui passe dans la génération suivante grâce à un ratio qu'on appelle l'héritabilité au sens strict (*narrow sense heritability*) :

$$(7) \quad h_{ns}^2 = \frac{\sigma_A^2}{\sigma_P^2}$$

On utilise aussi des indices standardisés car la variance est exprimée dans l'unité du caractère, et comme toujours en biologie, il y a une corrélation entre la moyenne et la variance, on utilise des coefficients de variation :

$$(8) \quad CV_A = \frac{\sigma_A}{\bar{X}}$$

Le coefficient de variation additif  $CV_A$  est adimensionnel car il correspond au ratio entre l'écart-type additif et la moyenne du caractère. On peut dériver des coefficients de variation pour l'ensemble des variances estimées.

### **3.2 Le dispositif expérimental ultime en génétique quantitative évolutive : Test de population-descendance**

Pour commencer déminons la sémantique ! En effet le test de population-descendances est la version élaborée du *test de provenances* (jargon de généticien quantitatif) ou du *jardin commun* (jargon d'écologue). Ces dispositifs sont anciens en biologie, Henri Louis Duhamel du Monceau assembla des collections de *Pinus sylvestris* qu'il planta en différents sites et de la même façon Gaston Bonnier a utilisé ce dispositif expérimental sur les plantes alpines (Bonnier, 1890).

Le principe du test de provenance est simple : (i) On observe une population naturelle dans son milieu d'origine, par exemple en A, puis l'on fait de même avec une population naturelle en B. (ii) Si on observe que la population de B est plus grande que A, alors on peut faire l'hypothèse que B est constitutivement (innée) plus grande que A ; ou (iii) que l'environnement en B est plus favorable (acquis). Si l'on prend des graines sur les populations A et B que l'on plante dans un nouvel environnement alors on annule les effets de l'environnement ( $E=0$ , d'où  $P=G$ ). Et l'on pourra conclure sur l'origine des variances : génétique versus environnementale.

En foresterie, traditionnellement les entités comparées sont des provenances (tests de provenances) c'est-à-dire des individus provenant d'une région plus ou moins bien délimitée (critères climatiques, géomorphologiques, etc). Dans ce travail, nous utiliserons le terme de population plutôt que celui provenance car grâce aux marqueurs moléculaires, il est possible de regrouper les individus qui s'accouplent entre eux, c'est-à-dire de définir des populations.

En génétique quantitative, beaucoup de paramètres dérivent de l'analyse de covariance entre apparentés. En foresterie, toutes les graines issues du même cône, partagent la même mère et forment une famille. Si l'espèce est strictement allogame (comme c'est le cas de *Pinus pinaster*), en faisant l'hypothèse que tous les pères sont différents (nuage pollinique panmictique) alors les graines constituent une famille de demi-frères.

Dans cette étude, nous utiliserons un test de populations-descendances (TPD), c'est-à-dire qu'au sein des populations, nous connaissons les relations généalogiques entre individus. Cela permet d'estimer des paramètres génétiques à deux niveaux (les populations et les familles).

### **3.3 Dépasser la vision manichéenne (Acquis versus Innée) de la variation phénotypique : Les interactions génotypes × environnements et la plasticité phénotypique.**

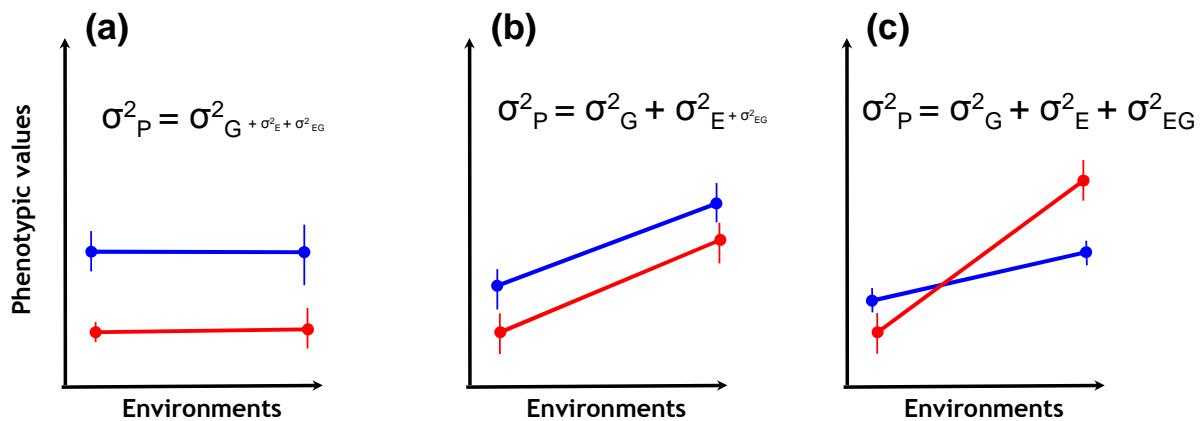
Nous pouvons écrire  $\sigma_P^2 = \sigma_G^2 + \sigma_E^2 + 2\text{cov}_{GE}$ . La majorité des plans d'expériences (avec les plantes surtout) peuvent se concevoir pour annuler  $2\text{cov}_{GE}$ . En revanche, il faut apporter une précision sur ce que l'on entend par environnement. L'environnement se divise en macroenvironnement et en microenvironnement. La distinction n'est pas facile, le macroenvironnement est choisi par l'expérimentateur. Par exemple, si  $n$  tests de populations sont sciemment placés, à intervalles réguliers, le long de gradients environnementaux (géographique ou climatique), alors l'effet du site quantifiera la variance dite macroenvironnementale ( $\sigma_E^2$ ). La variance microenvironnementale est au contraire la variance qui n'est pas contrôlée par l'expérimentateur, la variation du sol, le microclimat, l'histoire du développement de la plante. Elle est estimée par la variance résiduelle ( $\sigma_\epsilon^2$ ).

Malgré le fait que l'on ait alloué de manière aléatoire les génotypes aux environnements (c'est-à-dire que  $2\text{cov}_{GE} = 0$ ) il se peut que les génotypes n'aient pas les mêmes performances dans chaque milieux, dit de manière statistique, qu'il y ait une interaction

génotype\*environnement ( $\sigma_{GE}^2$ ). Aussi nous écrivons à nouveau, (Falconer & Mackay, 1996; Lynch & Walsh, 1998) :

$$(9) \quad \sigma_P^2 = \sigma_G^2 + \sigma_E^2 + \sigma_{GE}^2 + \sigma_\epsilon^2$$

Où  $\sigma_P^2$  est la variance phénotypique,  $\sigma_G^2$  est la variance génétique,  $\sigma_E^2$  est la variance macroenvironnementale,  $\sigma_{GE}^2$  signifie que les génotypes réagissent de manière différente aux environnements.  $\sigma_\epsilon^2$  est la variance résiduelle qui est aussi une mesure de la variance microenvironnementale. Cette formule est illustrée par la Figure 14.



**Figure 14 : Variance du caractère phénotypique en fonction de son déterminisme.** En bleu et rouge deux entités biologiques pouvant être une collection du même génotype (clones), d'apparentés (descendance d'une même famille), d'individus d'une même population (ancêtres communs) vivant dans deux milieux très différents (points). Ici estimons que les points représentent des moyennes de deux populations différentes (rouge et bleue). Nous faisons l'hypothèse que  $2\text{cov}_{GE} = 0$ . Au sein d'un même environnement, si les entités n'ont pas la même valeur de caractère alors il y a une variance génétique non nulle, de plus la variation au sein d'une entité biologique est due à de la variance microenvironnementale (voir les barres d'erreur sur les points). (a) Dans chacun des environnements les populations montrent des différences ( $\sigma_G^2 \neq 0$ ) mais pas de différence entre environnements. La variance phénotypique est seulement génétique et microenvironnementale. (b) En plus de la variance génétique et microenvironnementale, il y des différences de moyennes entre les environnements ( $\sigma_G^2 \neq 0$  et  $\sigma_E^2 \neq 0$ ). En revanche les populations ont la même valeur de pente (ou la même différence de moyenne entre les environnements). (c) ici les populations, dans les deux environnements, présentent des différences de pentes, il y a donc une interaction entre la population et l'environnement ( $\sigma_G^2 \neq 0$ ,  $\sigma_E^2 \neq 0$  et  $\sigma_{GE}^2 \neq 0$ ).

Classiquement la plasticité phénotypique ( $\sigma_{PP}^2$ ) est définie comme la somme de variance environnementale et de l'interaction génotype\*environnement :  $\sigma_{PP}^2 = \sigma_E^2 + \sigma_{GE}^2$  (Scheiner & Lyman, 1989; Scheiner, 1993). Il existe beaucoup d'estimateur de la plasticité phénotypique, par exemple en génétique quantitative ces estimateurs accordent plus d'importance à  $\sigma_{GE}^2$  qu'à  $\sigma_E^2$  car le premier est génétiquement héritable, pas le second<sup>8</sup> ; alors que les écologues ne distinguent pas forcément les deux termes. Dans cette thèse, nous utiliserons l'indice de Scheiner (adapté de (Scheiner & Lyman, 1989))  $S = (\sigma_E^2 + \sigma_{GE}^2) / (\sigma_{GE}^2 + \sigma_G^2 + \sigma_E^2 + \sigma_\epsilon^2)$ , cet indice est sensible aux deux termes de la plasticité. Les généticiens quantitatifs utilisent la corrélation génétique pour estimer l'interaction génotype\*environnement, ils considèrent qu'un caractère dans deux environnements peut être considéré comme deux caractères et ils calculent une corrélation génétique entre ces deux caractères. Si la corrélation génétique ( $r$ ) est égale à 1 alors il n'y a pas d'interaction génotype\*environnement. L'indice  $C$  est la corrélation génétique moins 1 ( $C = 1-r$ ), varie de manière intuitive : plus  $C$  est élevé plus le caractère est plastique. Le dernier indice utilisé, *RDPI* (c'est la différence entre individus du même génotype dans des environnements différents divisée par l'une des valeurs phénotypiques), est issu de l'écologie et est sensible à la fois à la variance environnementale et à l'interaction génotype\*environnement (Valladares et al., 2006).

### 3.4 Défi de la mesure de la plasticité phénotypique

La mesure de la plasticité phénotypique est avant tout un défi : (i) expérimentale, il faut disposer de tests de populations-descendances répartis sur l'ensemble de la variance de l'espèce afin d'avoir une bonne image de la plasticité phénotypique et classiquement on obtient une norme de réaction par génotype ou population en fonction (souvent quadratique) d'un paramètre climatique (Rehfeldt et al., 2002). Comme la taille des effectifs nécessaire à ce genre de dispositif est prohibitive, ils ne sont réalisables que pour des caractères faciles à mesurer (liés à la croissance et à la phénologie par exemple), (ii) le second problème est moins essentiel, il est statistique. Les analyses de variances (souvent utilisées dans les analyses de plasticité) reposent sur une hypothèse d'homogénéité des variances des

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<sup>8</sup> Il est possible que  $\sigma_E^2$  soit héritable mais non-génétiquement, si par exemple la dissémination est barochorique alors la descendance bénéficiera du même environnement que la mère. Pour une discussion plus avancée sur la notion d'héritabilité non-génétique voir (Danchin & W.H. Wagner, 2010)

différentes modalités au sein d'un facteur. Or, s'il y a plasticité cette hypothèse est systématiquement violée.

L'autre type de problématique que nous détectons dans l'analyse de la plasticité phénotypique (et plus généralement en biologie) est le fait qu'un chiffre ne signifie rien *per se*. Cela est d'autant plus vrai que la plasticité est souvent un terme d'interaction issue d'une analyse de variance plus ou moins obscure. Le terme d'interaction sera rapporté sous forme de probabilité de risque  $\alpha$  (*P-value*), en valeur du test de Fisher (*F-value*), ou dans le meilleur des cas en variance. Les statistiques ne sont pas aussi absolues que les gens<sup>9</sup> le croient. Elles ont, certes, des références internes (les modèles nuls) mais souvent éloignées des objets biologiques qui nous intéressent. Aussi, il est nécessaire d'introduire dans les plans d'expérience des caractères dont on connaît par avance le comportement (plastique ou non plastique) afin de faciliter l'interprétation par une approche comparative.

Dans cette thèse, nous étudierons une partie limitée de la variance totale de l'espèce car nous travaillerons avec au maximum deux tests de population-descendance dotés des mêmes populations et mêmes familles. On parlera de tests de population-descendance jumeaux (TPDJ).

### **3.5 Le saint Graal en génétique quantitative évolutive.**

Le saint Graal en génétique quantitative évolutive est bien sûr de pouvoir faire des inférences rétrospectives de l'action ou la non action de la sélection naturelle sur un caractère. A bien y réfléchir, la sélection naturelle reste une force évolutive assez élusive et peut-être moins courante qu'on ne le croit. En génétique évolutive, une bonne partie de l'effort de recherche est consacrée à la construction de modèles dit nuls, c'est-à-dire que tout y est mis (c'est-à-dire assez peu) sauf la sélection naturelle. Ensuite les données réelles et le modèle nul sont comparés, et si les données réelles sont suffisamment éloignées du modèle nul alors on conclus à l'effet de la sélection naturelle.

Le test classique utilisé pour inférer la sélection naturelle en génétique quantitative (sur espèces non modèles) est la comparaison des valeurs de  $Q_{ST}$  et de  $F_{ST}$ . Ces deux grandeurs sont des ratios de variances, la variance entre populations divisée par la variance totale (c'est-

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<sup>9</sup> les étudiants et moi

à-dire la variance intrapopulation plus la variance interpopulation). Le  $Q_{ST}$  est calculé sur les caractères phénotypiques (Spitze, 1993) :

$$(10) \quad Q_{ST} = \frac{\sigma_{bp}^2}{2\sigma_A^2 + \sigma_{bp}^2}$$

Avec  $\sigma_A^2$  la variance additive (le facteur 2 est pour les organismes diploïdes), et  $\sigma_{bp}^2$  la variance interpopulation. Le  $F_{ST}$  est calculé sur des caractères moléculaires que l'on suppose neutres (n'étant pas la cible directe de la sélection naturelle) par exemple les fréquences alléliques de microsatellites (Michalakis & Excoffier, 1996; Weir & Hill, 2002).

$$(11) \quad F_{ST} = \frac{\sigma_{ap}^2}{\sigma_{ip}^2 + \sigma_{ap}^2}$$

Avec  $\sigma_{ip}^2$  la variance intrapopulation,  $\sigma_{ap}^2$  la variance interpopulation<sup>10</sup>.

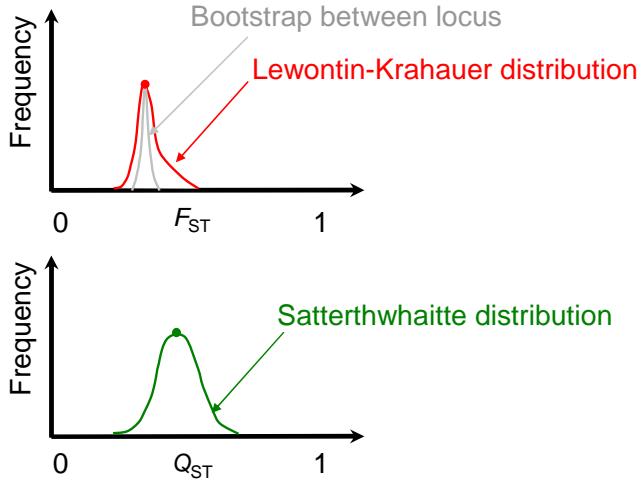
Si les gènes sous-jacents ont un déterminisme purement additif (Goudet & Buchi, 2006; Santure & J. Wang, 2009) et que le caractère phénotypique est sélectivement neutre alors  $Q_{ST} = F_{ST}$ . Le voilà notre modèle nul, c'est le  $F_{ST}$  calculé sur les marqueurs neutres. Il n'est pas simulé mais mesuré et donc il faut y associer un intervalle de confiance. La construction de cet intervalle de confiance n'est pas simple, car il y a une erreur due à l'échantillonnage (les populations choisies) et due à la stochastique (dérive génétique et démographie de l'espèce). Les méthodes choisies dans ce travail passent par un double reéchantillonnage (*bootstrap*) : un premier reéchantillonnage non-paramétrique entre les locus suivi d'un second paramétrique en utilisant une distribution de Lewontin-Krahauer (Lewontin & Krakauer, 1973; Whitlock, 2008). Cette distribution permet de modéliser la dérive génétique et les effets dus à la démographie des populations (Figure 15).

De l'autre côté,  $Q_{ST}$  est aussi une mesure, elle doit être assortie d'un intervalle de confiance. A la lumière des travaux de O'Hara & Merilä, (2005), nous avons opté pour un reéchantillonnage paramétrique en utilisant la distribution de Satterthwaite (Satterthwaite, 1946). La comparaison entre ces deux distributions  $Q_{ST}^*$  et  $F_{ST}^*$ , s'appuie alors, sur un test non paramétrique de comparaison des quantiles 2.5 et 97.5 (Kosorok, 1999), nous fournissons aussi l'intégration de la distribution de  $Q_{ST}^* - F_{ST}$  de part et d'autre de zéro (Figure 15).

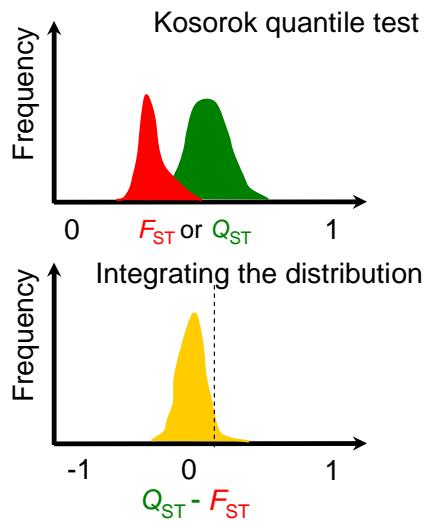
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<sup>10</sup> C'est intentionnellement que je n'ai pas utilisé des symboles identiques pour la variance inter et intra population car elle est calculé sur des objets différents : caractère phénotypique contre marqueurs moléculaires.

(a) Modelling distributions



(b) Statistical comparison



**Figure 15:** méthodologie de la construction d’intervalles de confiance et de la comparaison de  $Q_{ST}$  et  $F_{ST}$ .

(a) Construction des intervalles de confiance pour le  $F_{ST}$  en utilisant un double rééchantillonnage. En gris bootstrap non paramétrique entre locus, en rouge bootstrap paramétrique basé sur une distribution de Lewontin-Krahauer. Le point en rouge représente la valeur de  $F_{ST}$  mesurée sur les locus neutres utilisés. En vert est symbolisée la distribution construite par un bootstrap paramétrique en utilisant la distribution de Satterthwhaitte, le point en vert est la mesure de  $Q_{ST}$ . (b) Les deux distributions sont comparées à l’aide d’un test de Kosorok. Une autre statistique est fournie, il s’agit de l’intégration de la distribution en jaune de part et d’autre de zéro. Cette distribution est la différence entre la distribution du  $Q_{ST}^*$  et du  $F_{ST}^*$ .

La comparaison entre  $Q_{ST}^*$  et  $F_{ST}^*$  amène à trois cas, un premier cas où  $Q_{ST} = F_{ST}$ , c'est-à-dire que la variance entre les populations pour le caractère phénotypique étudié est du même ordre de grandeur que celle observée pour les marqueurs moléculaires neutres. Ensuite vient le cas où la variance entre les populations est plus grande que celle observée pour les marqueurs neutres (estimateur de l’effet de la dérive génétique). Classiquement quand  $Q_{ST} > F_{ST}$ , nous en déduisons que les populations sont sous sélection dite diversifiante, c'est-à-dire que les optimums de sélection sont différents dans chacune des populations. Cette inférence semble robuste même si les gènes sous-jacents ont un déterminisme génétique non additif. Enfin vient le cas où  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$ , en théorie, cette situation est possible lorsque la sélection est dite uniformisante, c'est-à-dire que les populations ont le même optimum de sélection.

La comparaison entre  $Q_{ST}$  et  $F_{ST}$  présente beaucoup de limitations : (i) limites expérimentales : estimer un  $Q_{ST}$  nécessite 20 populations au moins avec une dizaine de familles, comprenant elles-mêmes un minimum de 5 descendants (soit 1000 individus). La mesure du  $F_{ST}$  a des

exigences d'échantillonnage moins fortes (30 individus par population et une dizaine de locus polymorphes semblent suffire). En revanche, il semblerait que les microsatellites ne soient pas les marqueurs idéaux en raison de leurs taux de mutations probablement trop élevés par rapport aux taux de mutations des gènes sous-jacents aux caractères quantitatifs (Kronholm et al., 2010; Meirmans & Philip, 2011; Whitlock, 2011; Edelaar & Björklund, 2011; Edelaar et al., 2011). Ces auteurs recommandent donc de travailler avec des SNP (*single nucleotide polymorphism*). (ii) limites théoriques : il est certain qu'un  $Q_{ST}$  contient beaucoup plus d'informations qu'un  $F_{ST}$  calculé sur 10 locus. Il est avéré que l'architecture génétique (le nombre de gènes, le déséquilibre d'association entre les effets alléliques, présence d'épiastasie) a un impact décisif sur le  $Q_{ST}$ . Il existe des situations de découplage entre le  $Q_{ST}$  et le  $F_{ST}$  bien documentées par Le Corre & Kremer, (2003) et Kremer & Le Corre, (2011). Ces situations apparaissent quand la covariance (négative comme positive) entre effets alléliques est favorisée (combinaison favorable d'allèles) plutôt que le résultat du changement des fréquences alléliques.

### 3.6 Phénomique et la plus grande essoreuse au monde

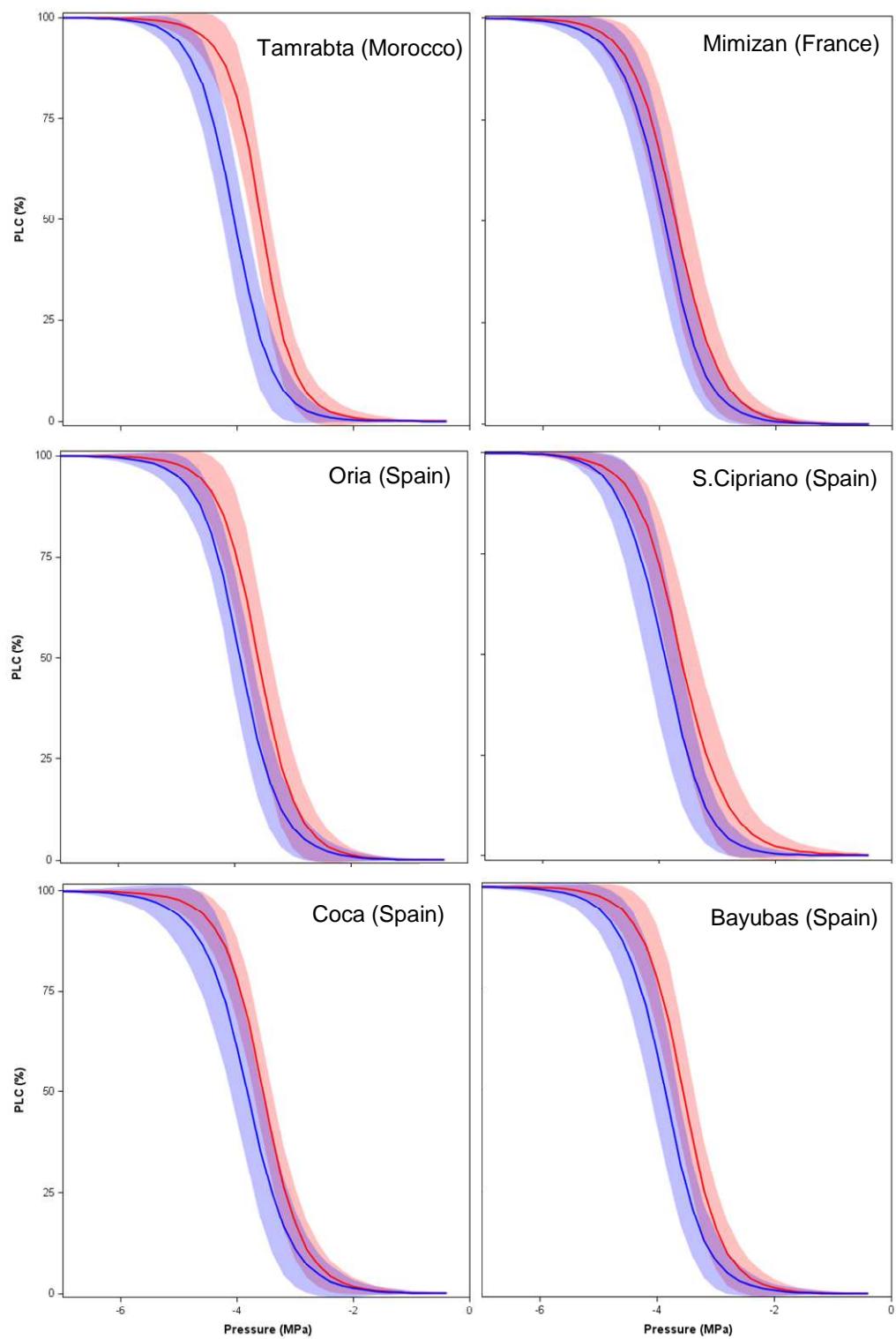
Le génotypage est de moins en moins un obstacle technique en génétique, à tel point que les scientifiques peinent à suivre la cadence. A titre d'exemple, chez une espèce non modèle comme *Pinus pinaster*, des puces de génotypage de plusieurs milliers de polymorphismes ont été mises au point et utilisées dans des programmes de recherche (Chancerel et al., 2011). Le phénotypage est désormais le principal frein à l'exploration des facteurs moléculaires sous-jacents à la variance phénotypique<sup>11</sup> (Houle, 2010; Houle et al., 2010). La mesure de la résistance à la cavitation n'échappe pas à cette règle. Aussi nous avons opté pour l'utilisation du Cavitron (Cochard, 2002a; Cochard et al., 2005). Utilisée rigoureusement (Beikircher et al 2010) c'est une méthode fiable pour la mesure de la vulnérabilité à la cavitation chez les conifères. Elle a permis d'augmenter le débit de phénotypage de façon considérable par rapport à d'autres méthodes traditionnelles (Sperry & Donnelly, 1988). Le Cavitron est constitué d'une centrifugeuse<sup>12</sup> modifiée avec un système hydraulique qui permet de mesurer une conductivité. Un segment de branche parfaitement hydraté est centré sur un plateau spécialement conçu au laboratoire (Precis 2000, Bordeaux, France). La vitesse de rotation

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<sup>11</sup> Je cite pour le plaisir, une revue intitulée « Dénombrer les cheveux des nos têtes : Défis et promesses de la phénomique »

<sup>12</sup> D'où le titre, la plus grande essoreuse au monde, car nous essorons littéralement les branches à plus de 10000 tours par minute.

engendre des forces centrifuges qui génèrent des tensions (pressions négatives) dans le



**Figure 16 :** Courbe de vulnérabilité moyenne pour chacune des 6 populations dans deux sites. En rouge, le site sec et en bleu le site humide ( $n = 33$  et  $40$  respectivement). Le trait plein représente la moyenne et la bande colorée représente l'écart-type par rapport à la moyenne.

segment, simulant ainsi l'effet d'une sécheresse sur le xylème. En parallèle, un circuit hydraulique permet la mesure de la conductivité hydraulique pendant la rotation du segment et de suivre l'évolution de cette conductivité lorsque la vitesse de rotation augmente (des tensions croissantes). La résistance à la cavitation est alors dérivée de la variation de perte de conductance hydraulique d'une branche soumise à une tension croissante (Figure 16). Cette relation est appelée la « courbe de vulnérabilité ». Chaque courbe de vulnérabilité nécessite plus de 30 mesures de conductances hydrauliques, sur lesquelles on ajuste le modèle suivant (Pammenter & Vander Willigen, 1998) :

$$PLC = \frac{100}{1 + e^{\frac{S_{xylem}}{25}(P - P_{50}^{xylem})}}$$

Où  $PLC$ , est la perte de conductance hydraulique de la branche mesurée (%) et  $P$  la tension qu'exerce le Cavitron (MPa) au centre du segment. L'attrait principal de ce modèle est que ces 2 paramètres ont des significations biologiques:  $P_{50}$ , l'abscisse du point d'inflexion de la courbe, correspondant à la valeur de tension pour laquelle la branche a perdu 50% de sa conductivité initiale ;  $S_{50}$  la pente d'une tangente au point d'inflexion ( $P_{50}$ ) mesure la vitesse à laquelle la cavitation progresse dans la branche (% MPa<sup>-1</sup>). Ainsi, en début thèse, j'ai participé à la mise en place du *Caviplace* qui fait partie du réseau de « Phénotypage haut débit en écophysiologie » (<http://sylvain-delzon.com/caviplace/cavit-place> et <http://herve.cochard.free.fr/Techniques.htm>)

### 3.7 Echantillonner la variance d'une espèce : *Pinus pinaster*

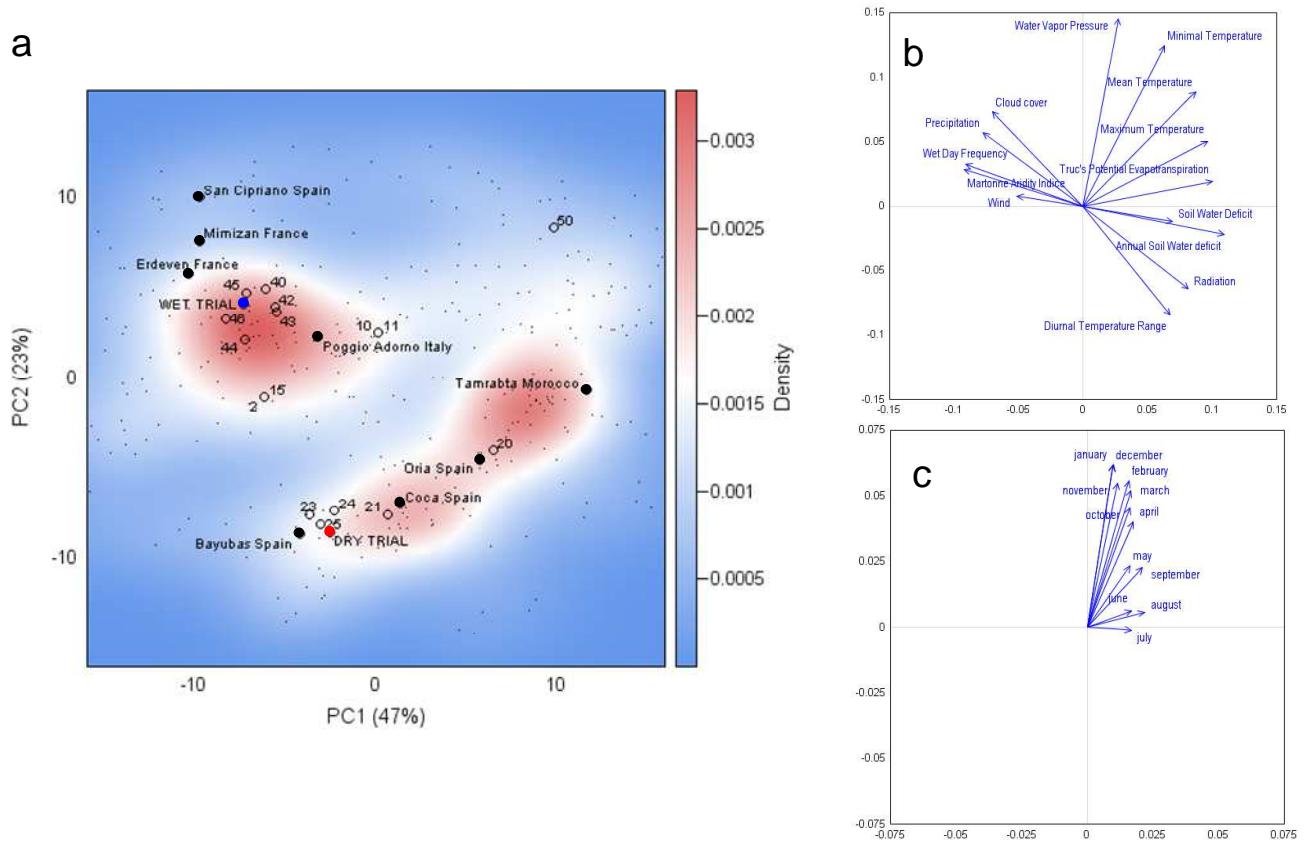
*Pinus pinaster* est l'espèce utilisée de cette thèse, elle a été choisie pour l'importance des ressources en terme de dispositifs expérimentaux (test de population-descendance (TPD), test de descendance), des données génétiques (marqueurs neutres, cartes génétiques), pour l'intérêt économique dans la sylviculture du bassin méditerranéen et à cause de l'extension future de son bioclimat en France (Badeau & Dupouey, 2004). Cette espèce a une aire de distribution discontinue (isolation génétique des populations élevées  $F_{ST} = 0.1$ ) qui s'étend du moyen atlas marocain jusqu'à la pointe de la Bretagne (Hamrick, 2004). Il pousse donc dans des endroits contrastés en terme climatique.

Pour les raisons évoquées auparavant le phénotypage de la résistance à la cavitation reste limité, nous avons choisi de maximiser la variation climatique et évolutive de l'espèce dans l'échantillonnage des populations. En croisant les données géographiques (exactions des

cordonnées spatiales de l'ensemble (769) des populations uniformément réparties sur l'aire de distribution) et les données climatiques associées, nous avons représenté l'enveloppe bioclimatique de *Pinus pinaster* grâce à une analyse en composante principale (ACP). Comme la Figure 17 l'indique, les deux premiers axes (PC1 : 47% et PC2 : 23%) expliquent 70% de la variance totale, le premier axe est corrélé avec le déficit hydrique et l'évapotranspiration, et anti-corréle avec le nombre de jours de pluie et le vent, il servira d'indice d'aridité. Le second axe est plutôt corrélé aux températures (maximum, minimum, moyenne) et au contenu en vapeur d'eau de l'air, et anti-corréle avec l'amplitude thermique journalière, c'est un axe décrivant la continentalité. Le gradient de couleur provient d'une analyse de densité non paramétrique (*kernel density analysis*). Cette analyse permet de savoir dans quelle partie de la niche bioclimatique (espace bidimensionnel décrit par l'ACP) les populations se trouvent en majorité. On repère deux groupes (tache rouge), l'une rassemblant des populations issues du Nord de l'aire de répartition recevant beaucoup de pluie (Espagne du Nord et la côte Française atlantique) et un autre groupe composé de populations plus continentales souvent plus arides (Centre et Sud de l'Espagne avec les populations du Moyen Atlas marocain). Nous avons sélectionné 6 populations présentes dans deux TPDs<sup>13</sup> et couvrant toute la variation de l'axe 1.

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<sup>13</sup> Je rappelle que TDP veut dire test de population-descendance.



**Figure 17 : Analyse en composantes principales (ACP) sur 769 populations x 168 variables climatiques mensuelles.** (a) Premier plan ( $PC_1$ ,  $PC_2$ ) avec en superposition un gradient de couleur indiquant la probabilité de trouver une population de *Pinus pinaster* (petit points noirs) dans l'enveloppe climatique (plan décrit par les deux axes). Le rouge et le bleu représentant la haute et faible probabilité de trouver une population de *Pinus pinaster* vivant dans le bioclimat décrit par la composante principale (CP en français) 1 et 2 de la ACP.  $CP_1$  et  $CP_2$  représentant 47% et 23% respectivement de la variance totale.  $CP_1$  peut être interprété comme un indice d'aridité et  $CP_2$  comme un indice de continentalité.

- Les cercles correspondent aux populations suivies pour la hauteur des arbres dans les tests de population-descendances jumeaux (TDPJ): #2: Restonica, Corse; #10: Aullène, Corse; #11: Pineta, Corse; #15: Pinia, Corse; #21: Arenas de San Pedro, Espagne; #23: Cuellar, Espagne; #24: Valdemarqued, Espagne; #25: San Leonardo de Yagüe, Espagne; #40: Petrock, France ; #42: Hourtin, France; #43: Le Verdon, France; #44: Olonne sur mer, France; #45: Saint Jean de Monts, France; #46: Pleucadec, France; #50, Tabarka, Tunisie.
- Les points noirs légendés en minuscule correspondent (i) aux populations suivies pour la résistance à la cavitation et la hauteurs dans les TDPJ et (ii) aux populations naturelles *in situ*.
- Les points de couleurs sont les TDPJ, rouge pour le test de population-descendance (TDP) « sec » (Calcena, Espagne) et bleu pour le TDP « humide » (Pierroton, France). Pour plus de renseignements sur les variables climatiques et leur source voir les annexes. A cause du nombre de variables important (168), nous proposons deux cercles de corrélations, (b) montre les vecteurs propres moyennés pour chaque variables climatiques et (c) illustre les vecteurs propres moyennés pour chaque mois.

### 3.8 Dispositif expérimental : Tests de populations-descendances jumeaux (TPDJ) et population naturelles *in situ*

Comme l'indique la Figure 17, les TPDJ sont situés dans des zones différentes du bioclimat de *Pinus pinaster*. Le TPD Espagnol (point rouge, Figure 17) a un indice d'aridité (coordonnées du premier axe, -7.3) plus élevé que le TPD Français (-2.5), cependant, il faut noter que la différence entre les deux TPD est plus importante sur le second axe de l'ACP (-8.5 versus 4.1 respectivement). En conséquence, la comparaison entre les deux TPDs n'explorera qu'une partie de la plasticité du caractère au sein de l'espèce. Chacune des populations sélectionnées pour la  $P_{50}$  sera, aussi, échantillonnée directement sur le terrain, en populations naturelles.

Au delà de la résistance à la cavitation ( $P_{50}$ ), plusieurs caractères ont été mesurés, notamment des caractères liés à la croissance, à la composition isotopique en carbone des aiguilles et à la densité du bois (Table 2). Les caractères liés à la croissance ont été très étudiés dans la littérature, et leurs patrons de variation sont bien connus. Ils serviront de référence pour les caractères moins connus comme  $P_{50}$ .

**Table 2 : Bilan des caractères disponibles et le nombre populations en fonction des TPD et de la campagne d'échantillonnage *in situ*.**

traits	unit	Wet trial	Dry trial	<i>in situ</i>	N. of pop
$h$	cm	yes	yes	yes	24-6 <sup>a</sup>
$P_{50}$	MPa	yes	yes	yes	6
$D_{\text{mean}}$	g cm <sup>-3</sup>	yes	no	no	6
$\phi_{2007}$	mm	yes	no	no	6
$B_{\text{tot}}$	g	yes	no	no	6
$A_{\text{Leaf}}$	m <sup>2</sup>	yes	no	no	6
$A_L/A_S$	m <sup>2</sup> cm <sup>-2</sup>	yes	no	no	6
$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	‰	yes	no	no	6
$\Delta_h$	cm	yes	no	no	6

<sup>a</sup>Le premier chiffre indique le nombre de populations phénotypée en TPD et le deuxième chiffre indique le nombre de populations phénotypé *in situ*.

### 3.9 Méthodologie pour quantifier les mécanismes impliqués dans la variance phénotypique.

Cette partie sera articulée autour de la formule suivante  $\sigma_P^2 = \sigma_G^2 + \sigma_E^2 + \sigma_{GE}^2 + \sigma_\epsilon^2$ . Cette formule lie la variance phénotypique à des variances causales :

- $\sigma_P^2$  est la variance phénotypique, estimée à partir des mesures de caractères (résistance à la cavitation et croissance en hauteur) en retranchant les effets dus à l'environnement expérimental (dispositif en bloc). Dans notre cas, il y aura, un  $\sigma_{P\_in\_situ}^2$  (associé à  $CV_P^{in-situ}$ ) calculé sur les populations *in situ*. C'est la somme des variances génétiques, des variances macroenvironnementales, microenvironnementales et des interactions résultantes. Il s'agit de l'estimateur le plus grossier de la variance intraspécifique. Il y aura également un  $\sigma_{P\_ppt}^2$  (associé à  $CV_P^{tpd}$ ) calculé sur les populations en TPD. C'est la somme des variances génétiques, microenvironnementales et des interactions respectives. C'est un estimateur plus fin de la variance intraspécifique, débarrassé des effets macroenvironnementaux qui sont souvent importants.
- $\sigma_G^2$  est la variance génétique estimée à partir des mesures de caractères réalisés dans les deux tests de populations-descendances (TDP), et comme ces tests sont hiérarchisés<sup>14</sup>, ils permettent de décomposer la variance génétique en deux composantes ( $\sigma_G^2 = \sigma_{bp}^2 + \sigma_{f(pop)}^2$ ) la variance génétique entre les populations ( $\sigma_{bp}^2$ , estimée à partir des performances des populations) et la variance génétique à l'intérieur des populations (ou entre les familles,  $\sigma_{f(pop)}^2$ , estimée à partir des performances des familles de chacune des populations). Dans le cas présent, nous disposons de deux tests de populations-descendances jumeaux (TDPJ) disposés dans deux sites différents, nous aurons donc deux estimations de  $\sigma_{bp}^2$  et  $\sigma_{f(pop)}^2$  indépendantes dans deux macroenvironnements différents.
- $\sigma_E^2$  est la variance macroenvironnementale, le seul moyen de l'estimer dans notre cas est de soustraire les moyennes pour un même caractère entre les deux TDP. Un test situé dans le Sud-Ouest de la France<sup>15</sup> (Cestas, Aquitaine) sera considéré comme le

<sup>14</sup> Un TDP est un test de population-descendance, cela signifie qu'il est composé de  $n$  population dans laquelle il y a, emboîtée,  $m$  familles. Les familles sont dites emboîtées dans les populations car la famille 1 de la population 1 n'existe pas dans la population 2. On écrira famille emboîtée dans la population :  $f(pop)$ .

<sup>15</sup> Le plus beau coin de France, *Lou pais de fetjat...* et pour se faire plaisir, un proverbe graveleux : *Tala testo, talas ancas*. Celui qui trouve la traduction, qu'il me l'envoie à [jblamy@free.fr](mailto:jblamy@free.fr) et la récompense est prévue (rien que pour le mérite d'avoir lu la thèse jusqu'ici et d'avoir fait l'effort de chercher la traduction). Relecteurs officiels exclus de fait de cette compétition.

test « humide », l'autre test situé dans le centre de l'Espagne (Calcena, Argon) sera par conséquent le test « sec » (voir Table 3 et Figure 18).

- $\sigma_{GE}^2$  est la comparaison entre les TDP des différences de performances entre les populations ou les familles. La somme des deux termes ( $\sigma_E^2 + \sigma_{GE}^2$ ) est définie comme la plasticité phénotypique ( $\sigma_{PP}^2$ ).
- $\sigma_\epsilon^2$  est la variance résiduelle que l'on peut interpréter comme une variance microenvironnementale lorsqu'elle est calculée sur un TPD.

L'ensemble de ces variances sera estimé statistiquement grâce à des modèles mixtes dont le détail est décrit dans les annexes.

### 3.10 Hypothèses de travail

Notre échantillonnage maximise la variance attendue et compte tenu des arguments développés en introduction sur l'importance du caractère en physiologie et sa variation interspécifique, nous prévoyons que : (i) la variance phénotypique pour la résistance à la cavitation sera importante (ii) et corrélée l'axe 1 de l'ACP (variation clinale, i.e. plus l'aridité augmente plus la résistance à la cavitation augmente), (iii) une part importante de la variance génétique sera due à la variance entre les populations, (iv) résultant d'une sélection diversifiante entre les populations.

**Table 3 : Coordonnées géographiques, variables climatiques (et pédologiques), altitude des populations de *Pinus pinaster*, ainsi que des tests de populations-descendances.**

Populations	Longitude (°)	Latitude (°)	n	Elevation (m)	P <sub>i</sub> (mm)	T <sub>m</sub> (°C)	VPD <sub>max</sub> (hPa)	ETP (mm)	Mito	Chloro
<b>Bayubas de Abajo</b> (Spain)	-2.87	41.52	37- 182	955	561	10.5	11.42	882.9	W	a
<b>Coca</b> (Spain)	-4.08	41.37	37- 122	788	452	11.9	14.23	718.7	W	a
<b>Mimizan</b> (France)	-1.30	44.13	38- 154.5	37	1176	13.2	7.26	751.59	W	a
<b>Oria</b> (Spain)	-2.62	37.87	32- 155.5	1232	451	13.4	14.29	922.59	W	j
<b>San Cipriano</b> (Spain)	-8.70	42.13	35- 114	310	1625	13.8	8.54	721.91	W	g
<b>Tamrabta</b> (Morocco)	-5.02	33.66	38- 113	1760	550	15.1	18.56	976.54	M	k

Trials	Longitude (°)	Latitude (°)	n	Elevation (m)	P <sub>i</sub> (mm)	T <sub>m</sub> (°C)	VPD <sub>max</sub> (hPa)	ETP (mm)	Soil
<b>Dry</b> , Calcena (Spain)	-1.72	41.62	196-1857	997	452	11.1	11.1	778.2	Shaly sandstone
<b>Wet</b> , Cestas (France)	-0.78	44.74	240-5569	61	800	12.7	6.70	743.8	Sandy podzol

N, nombre d'individus (moyenné sur les TPDs) échantillonnes pour la résistance à la cavitation et la croissance respectivement dans l'ensemble du dispositif; Pi , moyenne annuelle des précipitations; Tm, moyenne annuelle des températures atmosphériques ; VPDmax, maximum du déficit en vapeur d'eau de l'air (en Juillet pour toutes les populations); ETP, évapotranspiration potentielle annuelle cumulée. Mito : W pour mitotype caractérisant des populations de l'ouest européen, M pour mitotype caractérisant des populations africaines seulement ; Chloro, seules sont reportées les plus majoritaires, voir Burban & Petit, (2003).

### **3.11 Quantifier la variance phénotypique : populations naturelles *in situ***

Pour la résistance à la cavitation, les coefficients de variation phénotypiques pour les populations naturelles *in situ* ( $CV_P^{in-situ}$ ) sont de même ordre de grandeur que les coefficient de variation phénotypique en TPD ( $CV_P^{tpd}$ ), 6.97 versus 6.5 (moyennée sur les deux TPDs). La plasticité phénotypique est probablement faible pour ce caractère. En revanche, pour  $h$ , nous trouvons 47.2 versus 28, ce qui annonce que la croissance est probablement très plastique.

### **3.12 Quantifier la variance génotypique : Variance interpopulation, test de population**

La variance génétique  $\sigma_G^2$  peut être décomposée en variance génétique entre les populations ( $\sigma_{bp}^2$ ) et en variance génétique à l'intérieur des populations ( $\sigma_{f(pop)}^2$ ). Arrêtons-nous un instant sur la significativité biologique de  $\sigma_{bp}^2$ , la seule variance qui nous intéressera dans ce paragraphe. L'évolution est faite de phénomènes aléatoires (dérive génétique) ou déterministes (sélection naturelle) et les populations sont l'unité fondamentale d'une espèce<sup>16</sup>, donc on considère que chaque population est une expérience<sup>17</sup> indépendante de l'évolution de l'espèce. En d'autres termes, au cours de l'évolution, la moyenne pour un caractère donné, dans une population donnée va varier de manière plus ou moins aléatoire au cours du temps et indépendamment de ce qui se passe dans une population lointaine. C'est la variance entre les moyennes de plusieurs populations ( $\sigma_{bp}^2$ ) qui va renseigner sur l'importance des processus déterminismes versus stochastiques.

La contribution relative de  $\sigma_{bp}^2$  à la variance totale (Table 4) est supérieure pour  $h$  que pour la  $P_{50}$ , 8.07 versus 0.86 % respectivement. Ainsi il n'y a pas de différences entre les populations pour la  $P_{50}$ . Une autre manière de mesurer la différence entre les populations est d'utiliser le

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<sup>16</sup> C'est pour cela qu'on parle de génétique des populations plutôt que de génétique des individus.

<sup>17</sup> Je pourrais écrire réalisation, répétition au sens statistique du terme.

$Q_{ST}$  qui est un ratio de la variance entre les populations divisé par la variance génétique totale

$$\left( \frac{\sigma_{pop}^2}{\sigma_{pop}^2 + 2\sigma_A^2} \right) \text{ ainsi } h \text{ a un } Q_{ST} \text{ plus élevé que la } P_{50} (Q_{ST} \text{ moyen : } 0.23 \text{ vs. } 0.02).$$

Les caractères liés à la croissance ont des  $Q_{ST}$  élevés, diamètre au collet ( $\phi_{2007}$ ), la surface des feuilles ( $A_{leaf}$ ) et l'accroissement moyen en hauteur ( $\Delta_h$ ). La littérature fourmille de résultats identiques pour des caractères liés à la croissance (Yang et al., 1996; Navarro et al., 2005; Steane et al., 2006; Tripiana et al., 2007; Ramirez-Valiente et al., 2010). De manière opposée, il existe des caractères avec des  $Q_{ST}$  faible proches de ceux mesurés pour  $P_{50}$  tels que densité moyenne du bois, densité minimale, densité maximale ( $D_{mean}$ ,  $D_{min}$  et  $D_{max}$ ). Ce type de patron est rare dans littérature, d'ailleurs Leinonen et al., (2008) suspecte un biais de publication. Néanmoins, il existe quelques publications (Lee & Frost, 2002; Edmands & Harrison, 2003; E Chapuis et al., 2007; Elodie Chapuis et al., 2008; Yoshida et al., 2008; Chun et al., 2009; Scheepens et al., 2010) qui démontrent l'existence de caractères variant très peu. Les autres caractères ont un comportement intermédiaires entre ces deux extrêmes comme le ratio surface transpirante sur surface conductrice, la biomasse totale et la composition isotopique en carbone des aiguilles ( $A_L/A_S$ ,  $B_{tot}$  et  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ).

### **3.13 Quantifier la variance génotypique : Variance intrapopulation, test de population-descendance**

La variance à l'intérieur des populations résulte de la variance entre les familles ( $\sigma_{f(pop)}^2$ ) et de la variance résiduelle ( $\sigma_\epsilon^2$ ). Pour  $h$  et  $P_{50}$ , la contribution relative, en pourcentage, de  $\sigma_{f(pop)}^2$  à la variance totale est sensiblement identique, 10.47% versus 13.91% respectivement (Table 4). Mais ces indices de variances en % cachent une autre réalité biologique, la valeur absolue de la variance entre ces deux caractères est très différente. Raisonnons sur la quantité de variance dite additive ( $\sigma_A^2$ ), c'est-à-dire la quantité de variance qui est directement transmise à la descendance et qui est nécessaire à l'évolution par sélection naturelle ou artificielle. Comme la valeur absolue de la variance est exprimée dans l'unité du caractère (la variance est donc corrélée à l'unité), il convient de standardiser les mesures de variance par la moyenne du caractère, on obtient donc un coefficient de variation qui est sans dimension. Ainsi les  $CV_A$  de  $P_{50}$  montre une valeur bien inférieure au  $CV_A$  de  $h$ , (4.9 contre 13.6), aussi l'évolution de la  $P_{50}$  par sélection naturelle ou artificielle sera plus faible.

Les variances estimées permettent aussi de calculer une héritabilité, c'est-à-dire la proportion de variance présente dans une population qui passera dans la génération suivante. Ainsi les caractères liés à l'anatomie du bois ( $P_{50}$  et  $D_{\text{mean}}$ ) présentent des héritabilités supérieures aux caractères liés à la croissance ( $h$ ,  $\phi_{2007}$  et  $\Delta_h$ ) (cf Table 4). Nos estimations sont cohérentes avec les valeurs d'héritabilités mesurées dans la littérature (Louzada & Fonseca, 2002; Aguiar et al., 2003), malgré le nombre restreint de génotypes pour les caractères liés au bois (Lynch & Walsh, 1998).

**Table 4 : Composantes de la variance mesurée en TDP ( $\sigma_p^2$ ,  $\sigma_{bp}^2$ ,  $\sigma_A^2$ ,  $\sigma_\epsilon^2$ ), héritabilité ( $h^2_{ns}$ ±SE), coefficients de variation ( $CV_P$ ,  $CV_A$ ,  $CV_{BP}$ ,  $CV_R$ ) et différenciation des populations ( $Q_{ST}$ ).**

Site	Traits	$\sigma_p^2$	$\sigma_{bp}^2$	$\sigma_A^2$	$\sigma_\epsilon^2$	$h^2_{ns}$	$CV_P$	$CV_A$	$CV_{BP}$	$CV_R$	$Q_{ST}$
Sec	$h$	151.2	8.043	27.13	144.4	$0.17 \pm 0.07$	34.96	14.8	8.0	34.1	0.12
Sec	$P_{50}$	0.053	0.0004	0.034	0.045	$0.61 \pm 0.27$	6.43	5.06	0.4	5.9	0.005
Humide	$h$	570.8	204.1	190.0	523.3	$0.33 \pm 0.03$	21.7	12.5	13	20.8	0.34
Humide	$P_{50}$	0.067	0.0027	0.035	0.058	$0.51 \pm 0.23$	6.60	4.75	1	6.1	0.04
Humide	$D_{mean}$	0.001	$1.9 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$0.5 \cdot 10^{-3}$	0.001	$0.38 \pm 0.20$	10	7	1	10	0.02
Humide	$\phi_{2007}$	50.63	31.92	17.55*	46.24	$0.34 \pm 0.12$	37	22	29	36	0.47
Humide	$B_{tot}$	16124	3246	9207	13822	$0.57 \pm 0.08$	43	32	19	40	0.14
Humide	$A_{Leaf}$	0.427	0.104	0.1817	0.382	$0.425 \pm 0.14$	37	24	35	35	0.22
Humide	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	0.284	0.030	0.059	0.269	$0.213 \pm 0.10$	1.7 <sup>a</sup>	0.8 <sup>a</sup>	0.6 <sup>a</sup>	1.7 <sup>a</sup>	0.19
Humide	$\Delta_h$	112.7	55.0	40.96	102.5	$0.363 \pm 0.06$	26.9	16.2	18.8	25.7	0.18
Humide	$A_L/A_S$	0.01	0.0008	0.002	0.014	$0.38 \pm 0.11$	26.3	16.2	6.8	25.0	0.08
<hr/>											
%	$h$	42.04	8.07	10.47 <sup>e</sup>	39.40	na	na	na	na	na	na
%	$P_{50}$	25.52	0.86	13.91 <sup>e</sup>	59.69	na	na	na	na	na	na
<hr/>											
4											
<i>In situ</i>	$h$	2514	1789	na	724.9	na	47.2		39.8	25.3	na
<i>In situ</i>	$P_{50}$	0.064	0.010	na	0.053	na	6.97		2.83	9.64	na
<hr/>											

Les variances estimées proviennent d'un modèle mixte adapté à chaque TDP (modèle statistique voir en annexe).  $h^2_{ns}$  est l'héritabilité au sens strict (erreur standard).  $\sigma_p^2$  est la variance phénotypique,  $\sigma_{bp}^2$  est la variance génétique entre les populations,  $\sigma_A^2$  est la variance génétique additive ( $\sigma_A^2 = 4\sigma_{f(pop)}^2$ ),  $\sigma_\epsilon^2$  est la variance résiduelle.  $CV_P$  est le coefficient de variance phénotypique après avoir été ajusté aux effets des blocs,  $CV_{BP}$  est le coefficient de variation entre les populations,  $CV_A$  est le coefficient de variation additif,  $CV_R$  est le coefficient de variation résiduelle.  $Q_{ST}$  est l'indice de différenciation génétique des populations (Spitze, 1993). “<sup>a</sup>” indique les CVs de  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ne peuvent pas être comparés aux autres CVs des autres caractères car le standard utilisé pour le  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  n'est pas absolu mais relatif (Brendel et al., 2002, 2008). Le clair fond grisé indique la valeur standardisée des variances après les avoir moyennées entre les TDP et les avoir ramenées en %. “<sup>e</sup>” indique que la variance utilisée dans le calcul n'est pas directement la  $\sigma_A^2$  mais bien  $\sigma_{f(pop)}^2$ . Le fond grisé foncé indique les valeurs de variance *in situ* issues d'un modèle mixte n'ayant que l'effet population en aléatoire.

### 3.14 Quantifier la Plasticité phénotypique, tests de populations-descendances jumeaux.

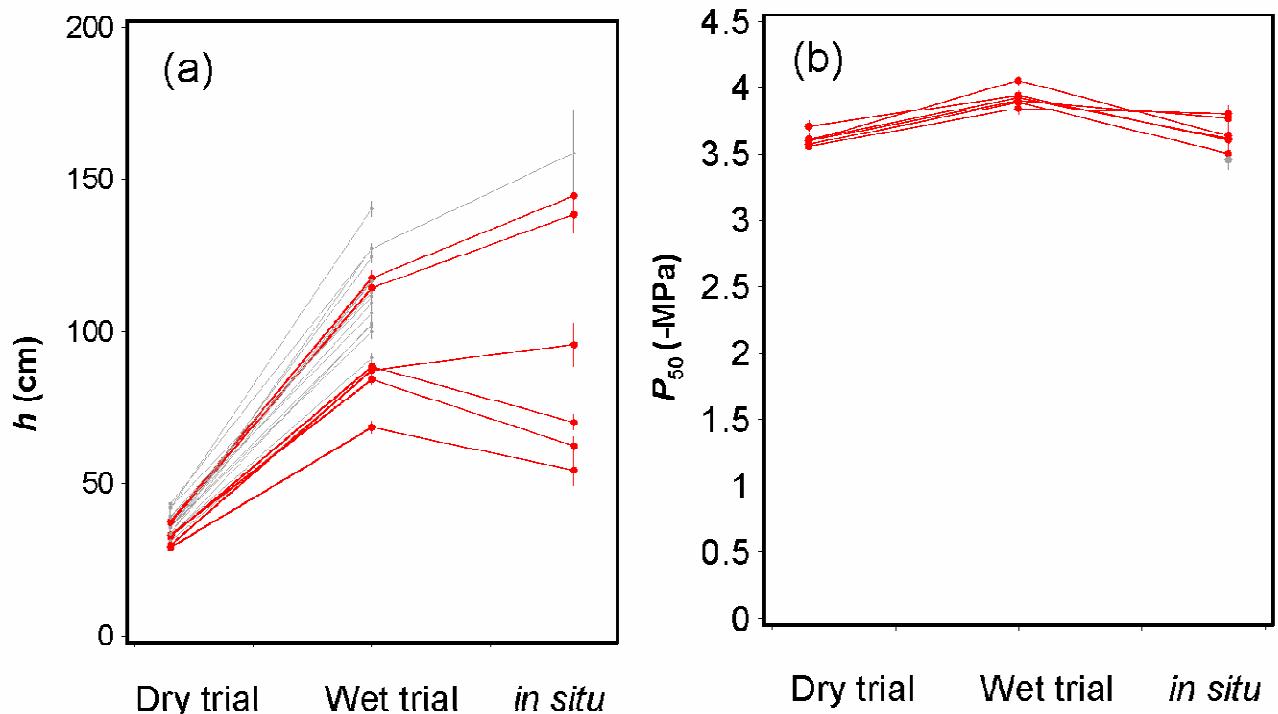


Figure 18 : Moyenne des populations pour (a) la croissance en hauteur à quatre ans (âge cambiale, pour chaque population  $n = 163 \pm 14$ ) (b) la résistance à la cavitation ( $n = 36 \pm 1$ ). Pour les mesures sur populations naturelles *in situ* ( $n = 11$ ). En rouge les populations sélectionnées, en gris populations supplémentaires présentent dans le jeu de données. Les barres d'erreurs sont les erreurs standard. *Dry trial* : test sec, *Wet trial* : test humide.

La plasticité phénotypique peut se comprendre de manière intuitive avec la Figure 18, par exemple *h* montre une pente importante entre les deux TDP, ce qui suggère une plasticité phénotypique importante. En revanche, la *P*<sub>50</sub> présente une pente faible entre les TDP. La plasticité phénotypique ne s'estime jamais graphiquement, mais statistiquement via des analyses de variance.

La plasticité phénotypique peut s'écrire  $\sigma_{PP}^2 = \sigma_E^2 + \sigma_{GE}^2$ , le second terme est génétiquement héritable et peut être la cible de la sélection naturelle alors que le premier non. Notre étude permet de décomposer  $\sigma_{GE}^2$  en deux niveaux, un niveau  $\sigma_{popE}^2$  dû à la population, et un niveau  $\sigma_{fE}^2$  dû à la famille. On utilisera trois indices de plasticité phénotypiques : *C*, *S* et *RDPI* (détail de calcul voir annexe). L'indice *C* est une estimation directe de  $\sigma_{GE}^2$  (Lynch & Walsh,

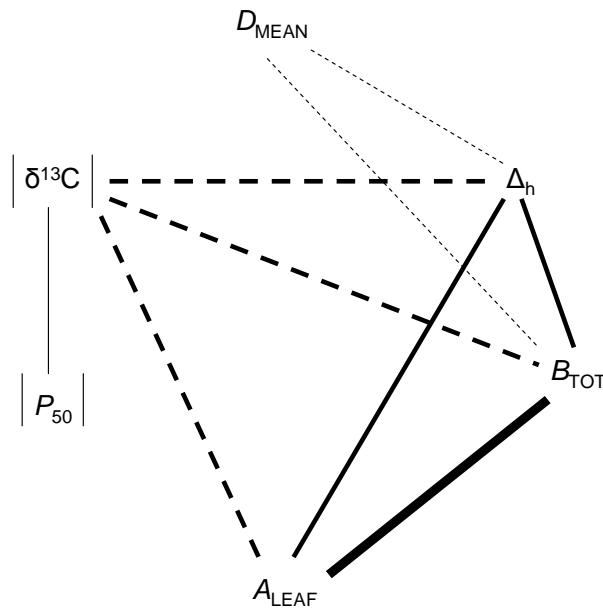
1998), en revanche  $S$  estime directement  $\sigma_{pp}^2$  (Scheiner & Lyman, 1989) et pour finir l'indice  $RDPI$  estime lui aussi  $\sigma_{pp}^2$  mais sans passer par une analyse de variances (Valladares et al., 2006), c'est l'indice le plus robuste qui intègre la plasticité au niveau de la famille et de la population. L'interprétation de ces indices est intuitive, plus un indice est élevé, plus le caractère est plastique.

Pour les deux caractères,  $h$  et  $P_{50}$  la contribution de la variance macroenvironnementale ( $\sigma_E^2$  exprimée en %) à la variance totale domine l'ensemble des autres variances (81% pour  $h$  et 54% pour  $P_{50}$ ). Pour  $h$ , la plasticité au niveau de la population est importante alors qu'elle est très faible pour  $P_{50}$ . Les deux caractères ont une interaction génotype\*environnement due à la famille ( $\sigma_{fE}^2$ ) du même ordre de grandeur (Table 4). Sur la base de  $RDPI$ , nous résumerons en disant que  $h$  est un caractère bien plus plastique que  $P_{50}$ .  $P_{50}$  a un  $RDPI$  parmi les plus faibles croisés dans la littérature, en revanche, la plasticité phénotypique de la croissance a été bien documentée pour *Pinus pinaster* et nos résultats sont cohérents avec ces études (Alia et al., 1995, 1997; Correia et al., 2008; Aranda et al., 2010).

**Table 4. Estimateurs de la plasticité phénotypique pour la résistance à la cavitation ( $P_{50}$ ) et la croissance en hauteur ( $h$ ).**

	Population		Famille		Total	
	$P_{50}^{xylem}$	$h$	$P_{50}^{xylem}$	$h$	$P_{50}^{xylem}$	$h$
<i>C</i>	0	0.15	0.88	0.78	na	na
<i>S</i>	0.51	0.90	0.90	0.98	na	na
<i>RDPI</i>	na	na	na	na	0.08	0.65

### 3.15 Corrélation entre les caractères



**Figure 19 : Structure des corrélations génétiques de Pearson entre caractères (moyennes familiales ajustées aux effets de l'environnement). Les segments en tiré indiquent une corrélation négative entre les caractères alors que les segments pleins indiquent une corrélation positive.  $P_{50}$  et  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ont été passées en valeur positive. De plus la largeur du segment renseigne sur la  $P$ -value : 0.05 > segment fin > 0.01, 0.01 > segment moyen > 0.001, 0.001 > segment large, pour chaque corrélation ( $n=48$ ).**

La valeur absolue de  $P_{50}$  est corrélée à la valeur absolue  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , en d'autres termes, plus un génotype est résistant à la cavitation moins il utilise l'eau de manière efficiente. Ladjal et al., (2007) met en évidence cette même relation chez *Cedrus*. On peut supposer que la sélection naturelle a retenu, en environnement sec, les génotypes allouant plus de carbone à la construction d'un bois plus résistant à la cavitation. Ces génotypes évitent le cercle vicieux de l'embolie en maintenant une conductivité stomatique élevée et une conductance hydraulique à faibles potentiels hydriques foliaires (activité photosynthétique), d'où une diminution de l'efficience d'utilisation de l'eau pour les génotypes issus de régions arides (Guehl et al., 1996; Picon et al., 1996). En revanche, il existe d'autres études où une relation inverse est mise en évidence ou pas de relation du tout (Fichot et al., 2009; Maherli et al., 2009; Martinez-Vilalta et al., 2009).

Ensuite la densité du bois ( $D_{\text{mean}}$ ) est faiblement et négativement corrélée à  $B_{\text{tot}}$  et à  $\Delta_h$ . Ainsi plus un génotype croît vite et met de la biomasse en place, moins son bois sera dense en moyenne. De la même façon, plus un génotype croît vite (en terme de hauteur, de biomasse

ou de surface de feuille) plus il sera efficient. Les caractères liés à la croissance sont fortement et positivement corrélés entre eux. La faible corrélation des caractères liés aux propriétés anatomiques du bois ( $P_{50}$  et  $D_{mean}$ ) avec les autres caractères est aussi due à leur faible variance.

### 3.16 Corrélation avec le climat

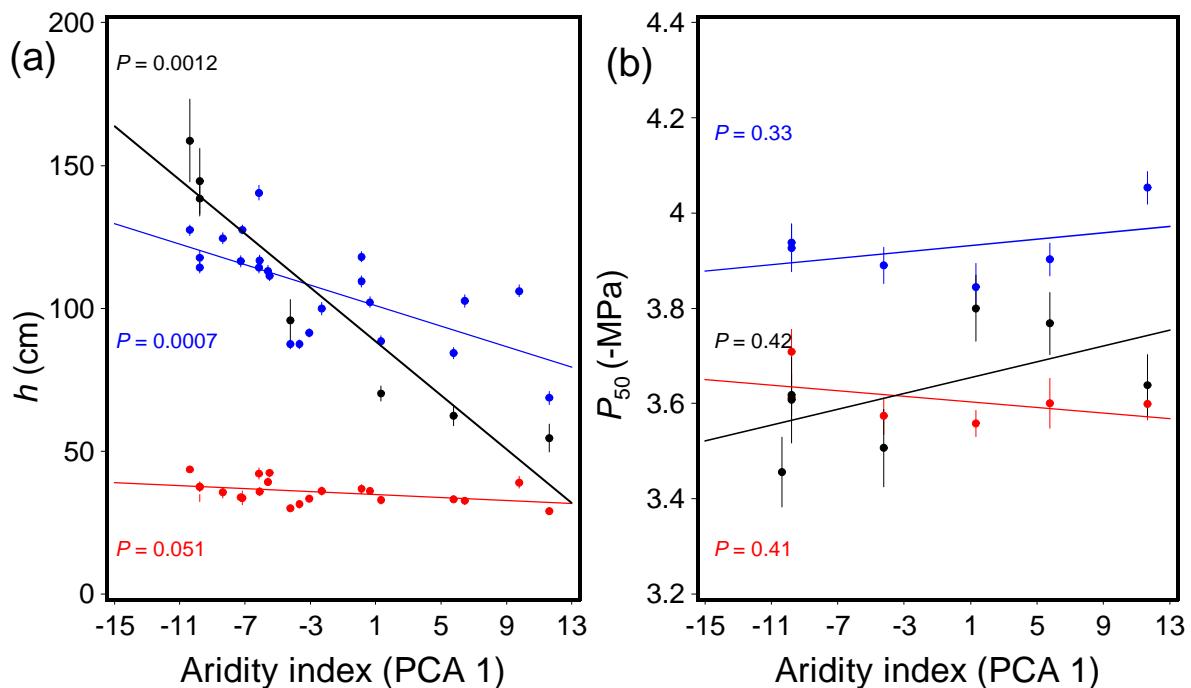


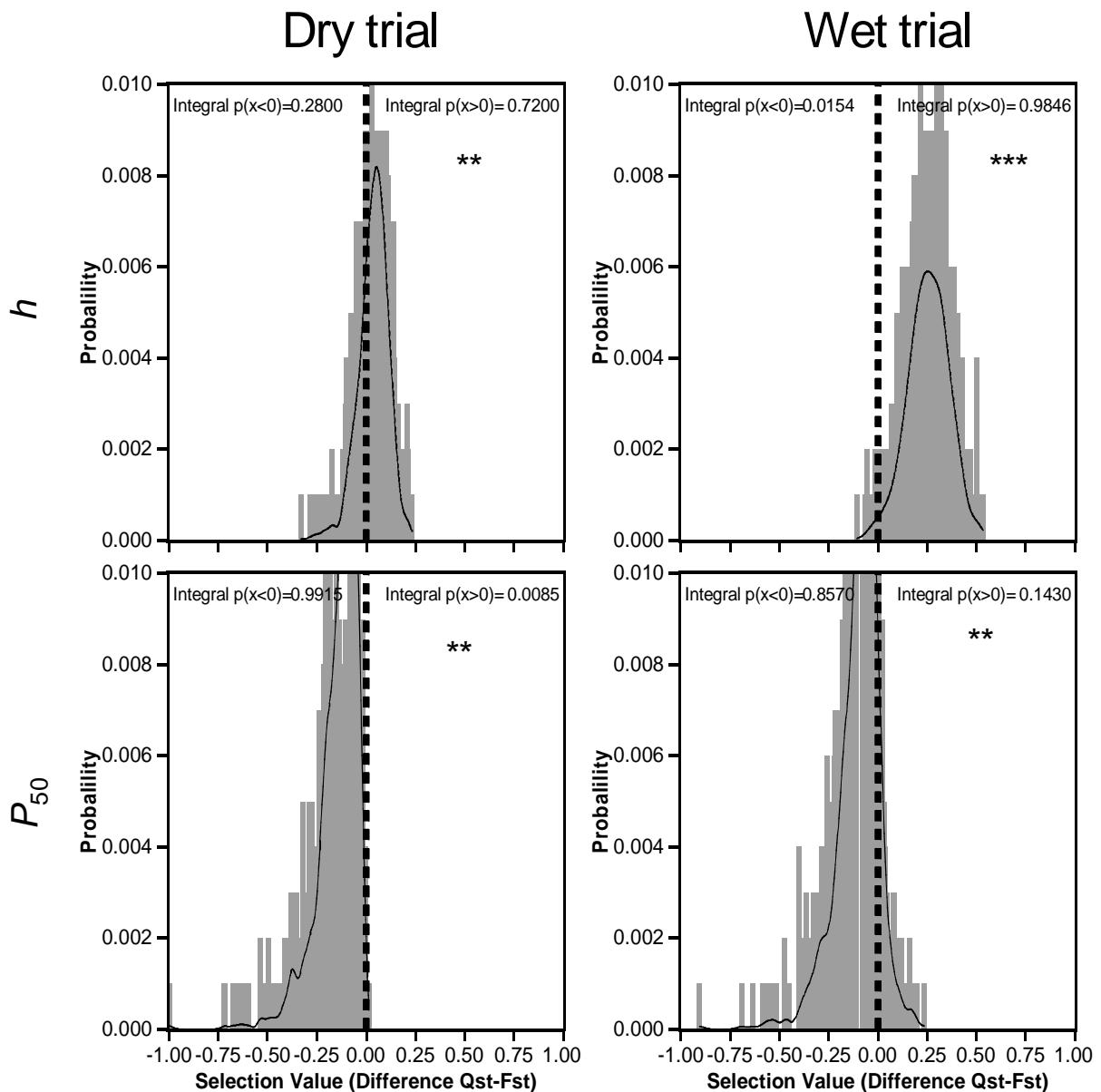
Figure 20 : La valeur moyenne des populations pour (a)  $h$  et (b)  $P_{50}$  en fonction l'indice d'aridité calculé sur les données climatiques de l'aire d'origine des populations. En Bleu valeur mesurée dans le test humide (Cestas, France) et en rouge dans le test sec (Calcena, Espagne) et en noir sur les populations naturelles *in situ*. La  $P$ -value associée est issue d'une régression linéaire. Les barres d'erreur représentent l'erreur standard.

La croissance en hauteur ( $h$ ) des populations varie de manière clinale avec l'aridité du climat d'origine dans les deux tests de populations-descendances (Figure 20). En revanche, la variation clinale est amoindrie dans le test sec ce qui signifie qu'il y a de la plasticité phénotypique. On ne détecte pas de variation significative clinale de la  $P_{50}$  au climat dans les deux TPDs. De plus suivant le test de population, la pente de la régression change. D'autres auteurs ont déjà observé des variations contre-clinale de la  $P_{50}$  par rapport au climat d'origine (Martinez-Vilalta et al., 2009; Herbette et al., 2010; Corcuera et al., 2011). Les auteurs des articles sus-cités invoquent une batterie d'hypothèses : (i) utilisation de variables climatiques liées à la sécheresse, or il existe de la cavitation liée à des gels hivernaux. Cette hypothèse

nous paraît peu crédible car *Pinus pinaster* vit dans des environnements peu soumis au gel et les conifères sont protégés du gel grâce au faible diamètre des trachéides (Hacke & Sperry, 2001; Pittermann & Sperry, 2003) (ii) Les variables climatiques utilisées caractérisent le compartiment atmosphérique et non le sol qui est déterminant lors d'une sécheresse. Cependant les variables climatiques utilisées sont moyennées sur 30 ans, nous ne pensons pas que la dynamique hydrique du sol a une inertie qui dépasse ces 30 ans. Pour nous, les relations complexes entre la  $P_{50}$  et le climat sont avant tout dues à la faible variance entre les populations.

### 3.17 Inférences évolutives

La variance entre les populations ( $Q_{ST}$ ) pour un caractère phénotypique a été comparée à la variance (entre les populations) des fréquences alléliques des marqueurs neutres ( $F_{ST}$ ). Pour  $h$ , dans les deux TPD, la variance observée entre les populations est toujours plus élevée que la variance attendue sous l'effet de la dérive ( $Q_{ST} > F_{ST}$ ). Ce signal est moins fort dans le TPD sec à cause de la forte plasticité phénotypique de ce caractère à l'échelle de la population. Ce patron de variation peut être interprété comme une trace de sélection diversifiante, c'est-à-dire que des populations ont des optimums de sélection différents et la variance de ces optimums est plus grande que la variance neutre.



**Figure 21 : Distribution de la différence  $Q_{ST}-F_{ST}$  pour  $h$  et  $P_{50}^{xylem}$  dans chacun des TPD. Une distribution centrée sur zéro montre que le  $Q_{ST}$  et le  $F_{ST}$  ne sont pas différents l'un de l'autre. Une distribution intégralement répartie entre 0 et 1 signifie que le  $Q_{ST}$  est plus grand que le  $F_{ST}$ , une distribution intégralement répartie entre -1 et 0 signifie que le  $Q_{ST}$  est plus petit que le  $F_{ST}$ . Les étoiles correspondent à la significativité du test de Kosorok sur les quantiles 2.5 et 97.5 (Kosorok, 1999). « ns »  $P\text{-value} > 0.05$ , « \* »  $0.05 > P\text{-value} > 0.01$ , « \*\* »  $0.01 > P\text{-value} > 0.001$ , « \*\*\* »  $0.0001 > P\text{-value}$ .**

Pour  $P_{50}$ , on observe aussi le même signal dans les TPD, à savoir que la variance observée entre les populations ( $Q_{ST}$ ) est moins importante que celle attendue sous le modèle nul ( $F_{ST}$ ). Classiquement ce patron de variation est interprété comme de la sélection uniformisante, c'est-à-dire que les populations ont le même optimum de sélection, bien qu'elles proviennent

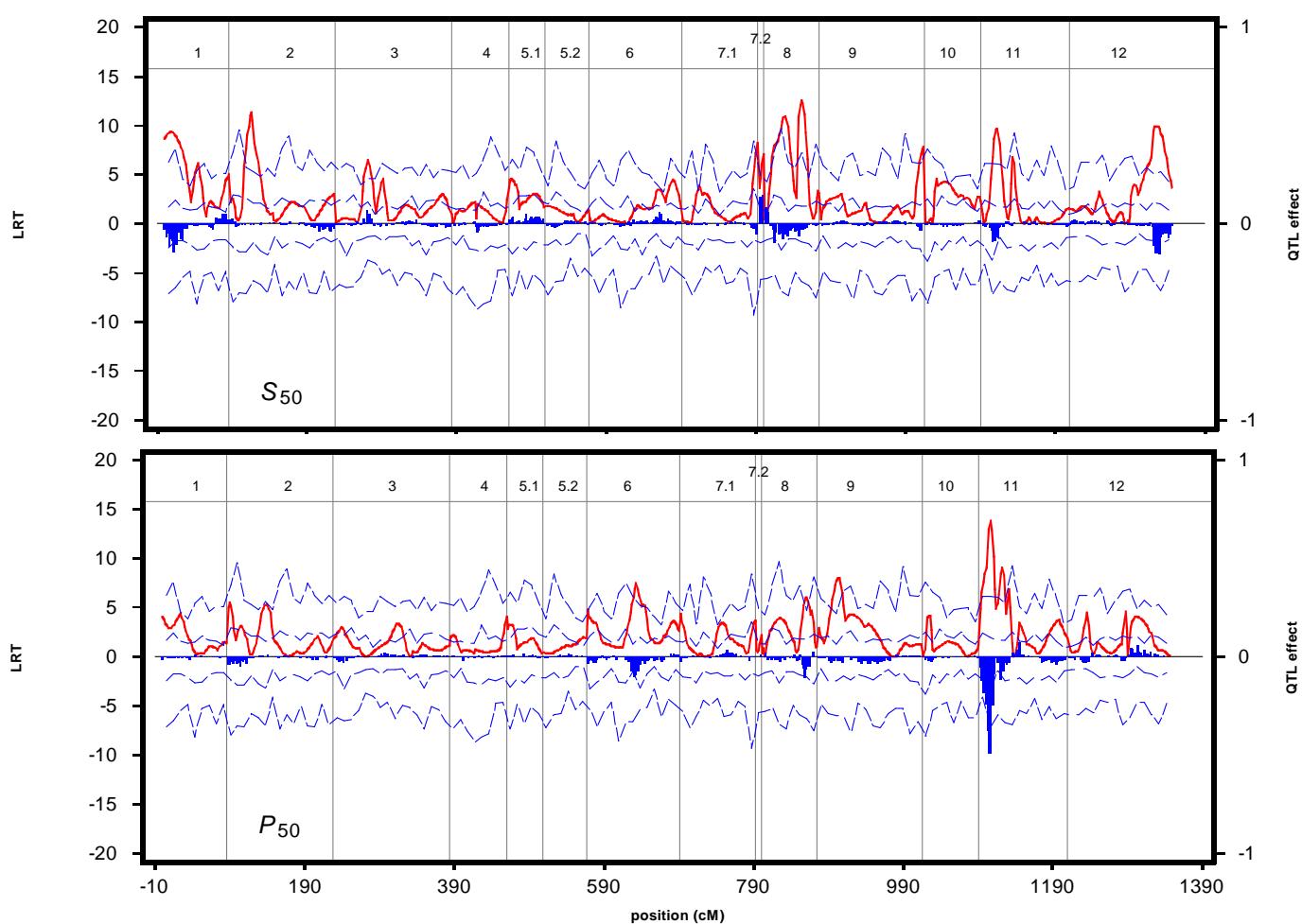
des zones climatiques contrastées, les populations ont convergées vers la même valeur de caractère (Figure 21). Cette inférence n'est pas aussi facile à démontrer que la précédente, et ce pour plusieurs raisons : (i) il existe des cas particuliers où l'isolation des populations associées à de faibles tailles effectives (d'un point de vue de la reproduction) induit une variance neutre importante qui sera supérieure à la variance des optimum de sélections pour les caractères phénotypiques. Il est donc possible d'avoir des cas, où  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  même si le caractère est sous (faible) sélection divergente (Le Corre & Kremer, 2003, 2012; Kremer & Le Corre, 2011). (ii) Dans ces comparaisons  $Q_{ST}$  et  $F_{ST}$ , il est supposé que les gènes codant pour un caractères phénotypique ont un comportement additif, c'est-à-dire qu'en faisant simplement la somme des effets des gènes (sur le caractère phénotypique), on obtient la valeur du caractère réellement mesuré. Or il est fortement probable que la plupart des gènes aient des comportements non additifs. Plusieurs auteurs ont modélisé (et dérivé analytiquement) les effets de relations de dominance entre deux allèles d'un même locus (Lopez-Fanjul et al., 2003; Goudet & Buchi, 2006; Goudet & G. Martin, 2007; Miller et al., 2008; Santure & J. Wang, 2009), et montrent qu'en moyenne  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  sauf pour certaines fréquences alléliques et selon certains modèles démographiques. De la même façon, les relations épistatiques (interaction des allèles à différents locus) montrent qu'en moyenne  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  (Whitlock, 1999; Lopez-Fanjul et al., 2003). L'architecture génétique aurait un rôle important dans les cas où  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$ , et elle pourrait mimer les effets de la sélection uniformisante. (iii) L'hypothèse de la sélection naturelle pour expliquer la variance entre populations ( $Q_{ST}>F_{ST}$ ) tout comme l'absence de variance ( $Q_{ST}<F_{ST}$ ) entre populations ressemble fort à « *l'adaptationiste* » dénoncé par Gould & Lewontin, (1979). A aucun moment les adaptationistes n'envisagent pas (ou peu) que la sélection puisse être limité dans son action et qu'une partie du phénotype est figé par une architecture génétique robuste (plan d'organisation) héritée de l'histoire évolutive (ne pouvant pas être modifié à vau-l'eau). D'un point de vue épistémologique, il est plus judicieux et parcimonieux de penser que  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  résultent d'une architecture génétique particulière (issue de l'histoire évolutive) qui réduit la variation d'un caractère (canalisation), plutôt que d'une sélection dont les optimums varient peu ou pas (sans hypothèse sur la faible variance des optimums sélectifs).

### 3.18 Architecture génétique du caractère

Nous avons aussi réalisé une détection QTL (*Quantitative traits loci*) pour  $P_{50}$  dans deux fonds génétiques différents. Cette analyse statistique consiste à rechercher des associations

robustes entre un marqueur génétique, positionné sur une carte génétique et la variation d'un caractère quantitatif (nécessité d'avoir des mesures phénotypiques sur une collection d'individus apparentés).

Le premier fond génétique exploré correspond à une descendance de plein frère (118 individus de 15 ans, 3<sup>ème</sup> générations d'amélioration) issu d'un croisement d'individus landais de vigueur contrastée (fond génétique étroit). La carte génétique a été établie à partir de AFLP (amplified fragment length polymorphism) par Chagné et al., (002). Aucun QTL n'a été détecté sur ce fond génétique. Un second fond génétique a été alors exploré, il s'agit d'une descendance F2 (103 individus de 10 ans) issue de l'autofécondation d'un hybride Corse\*Landais (fond génétique large, voir Figure 22). Un QTL a été détecté avec seulement l'algorithme bayesien (Hu & Xu, 2009, 2010; Che & Xu, 2010) sur le chromosome 11 pour  $P_{50}$ . Le faible effectif de la population de détection qui entraîne une surestimation du QTL à cause de l'effet Beavis, conjugué au fait que seul l'algorithme (le plus sensible), détecte ce QTL nous incite à être prudent. Ce QTL ne colocalise pas avec d'autres QTL connus pour des caractères liés au bois. En guise de vérification, il est prévu de mesurer la P50 sur 500 arbres que compte ce pedigree. Par ailleurs, d'autres détections QTL doivent être entreprises sur des fonds génétiques plus larges (par exemple hybrides interspécifiques) et avec des tailles d'effectifs plus importantes pour limiter les faux positifs (Xu, 2003).

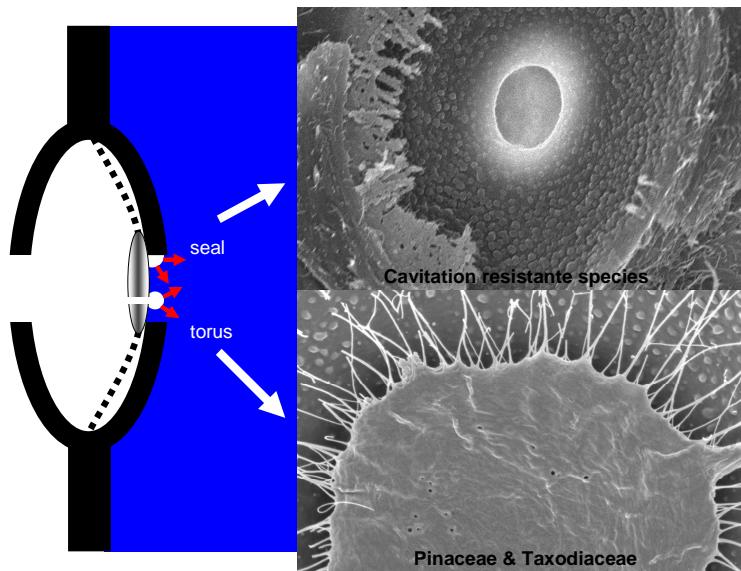


**Figure 22 : Detection de QTL pour  $P_{50}$  et  $S_{50}$  sur une descendance F2 (n=103).** Deux algorithmes de détection QTL ont été utilisés : En rouge, le profil du ratio du log de la vraisemblance (log-likelihood ratio test, i.e. LRT) obtenu grâce au *fisher scoring algorithm* et en gris le seuil critique ( $\alpha = 0.05$  au niveau génome) calculé grâce à la formule de Piepho (Piepho, 2001). L'histogramme en bleu correspond à l'effet de substitution allélique du QTL calculé grâce à l'algorithme Bayesien (*bayesian shrinkage algorithm*), les lignes discontinues en bleu correspondent au modèle nul,  $\alpha = 0.1$  (proche de l'axe des abscisses) et  $\alpha = 0.05$  (loin de l'axe des abscisses) au niveau génome. Les chiffres en entête de 1 à 12 correspondent aux groupes de liaisons de la carte génétique de l'hybride corse\*landais.

# **4 Conclusions et Perspectives**

#### **4.1 Le mécanisme de cavitation est-il universel chez les conifères ?**

Les nanopores trouvés dans les torus de l'ensemble des *Pinaceae* et les ex-*Taxodiaceae* examinés (maintenant incorporé dans les *Cupressaceae*), à l'exception du plus résistant d'entre eux *Cedrus*, et la compatibilité entre les ordres de grandeurs calculés entre les  $P_{50}$  et les seuils de rupture des ménisques montrent que l'hypothèse de la rupture capillaire au niveau du torus (*torus capillary-seeding*) est crédible. Les caractères fonctionnels anatomiques tels que la flexibilité du torus et le recouvrement (ou leur produit : l'effet valve, (Delzon et al., 2010)) n'expliquent pas plus de variation que le diamètre des nanopores pour les espèces à torus percés. Cela renforce la vraisemblance de cette hypothèse. En revanche, contrairement à ce qui était suggéré par la littérature, il n'y a pas forcément un mécanisme universel de propagation de la cavitation (Cochard et al., 2009; Delzon et al., 2010), il est certainement dépendant de l'anatomie du taxon étudié. Les nanopores expliqueraient la cavitation pour des espèces de conifères peu résistantes (*Pinaceae* ou ex-*Taxodiaceae*) mais pour les espèces résistantes, le joint torus-paroi pourrait être l'élément clé. La bulle d'air passerait entre la paroi et le torus car leurs bordures ne sont pas parfaitement planes, il existe des verrues (*wartz*) (Figure 24). Cependant certains auteurs montrent que ces verrues augmentent l'adhésion entre l'eau et les parois (Kohonen & Helland, 2009). On peut imaginer la formation de ménisques entre le torus, les verrues et plus les verrues sont en densité importantes plus les ménisques créés ont des rayons petits et donc résistant aux tensions. Cela nécessiterait de mesurer la hauteur des verrues (TEM), leur densités (SEM) et calculer la tension de rupture avec la loi de Laplace-Young.



**Figure 23 : Description des hypothèses probables de la propagation du germe d'air chez les conifères.** Chez les espèces peu résistantes (*Pinaceae* et ex-*Taxodiaceae*) le germe d'air passe à travers les nanopores. Pour les espèces résistantes, des études ciblées sur la zone de contact entre le torus et les arches de la chambre sont nécessaires. Cette zone de contact n'est pas lisse mais souvent recouverte de verrues (*warts*) ayant des propriétés biochimiques différentes du reste de la paroi.

#### 4.2 Espèces à nanopores : où est passée la rustine ?

Notre étude micro-anatomique conforte l'hypothèse que ces nanopores sont issus de plasmodesmes secondaires. Ils en partagent les caractéristiques morphologiques, diamètres proches (68 nm pour les nanopores et 40 nm pour les plasmodesmes dans des tissus encore vivants), apparaissent en agrégats de paires ou de tirades comme les plasmodesmes dit secondaires. Les plasmodesmes ont un rôle (information positionnelle) dans la transformation drastique des parois cellulaires au niveau des plaques criblées des vaisseaux du phloème. De même, il est suspecté que les motifs des performances scalariformes sont guidés en partie par la position des plasmodesmes (Bell & Oparka, 2011; Brecknock et al., 2011). Plus directement, Dute et al., (2008) montre que des plasmodesmes secondaires semblent avoir un rôle dans la signalisation positionnelle du centre du torus lors de la formation de la ponctuation chez *Abies sp.* et *Metasequoia sp.* Si les plasmodesmes jouent aussi un rôle dans la formation des ponctuations dans les espèces ne présentant pas de nanopore, il sera important de comprendre, chez ces espèces, quels sont les enzymes, et les gènes régulateurs qui permettent de boucher les nanopores pendant l'ontogénie de la ponctuation ; et si cette fonction nouvelle est apparue chez ces espèces ou une fonction perdue secondairement chez les espèces à nanopores (*Pinaceae* et ex-*Taxodiaceae*).

### 4.3 Patron de variation intraspécifique

Sur la base des variances, phénotypiques ( $\sigma_P^2$ ), intrapopulationnelles ( $\sigma_A^2$ ,  $\sigma_e^2$ ) et interpopulationnelles ( $\sigma_{bp}^2$ ), nous pouvons distinguer deux groupes de caractères.

#### 4.3.1 Caractères ne présentant pas de variance interpopulationnelle et non corrélés au climat

Les caractères liés aux propriétés anatomiques du bois ( $P_{50}$  et  $D_{mean}$ ). Ils ont généralement une variance phénotypique et additive faible ( $CV_P$  et  $CV_A \leq 10\%$ ) mais statistiquement significative. En revanche la variance interpopulationnelle est très faible ( $CV_{BP} < 1\%$ ) et non significative. Plusieurs études récentes ont estimé la variance intraspécifique de la résistance à la cavitation de *Pinus sylvestris*, *Fagus sylvatica* et *Pinus pinaster* (Table 5). Les  $CV_P$  estimés en tests de population ( $CV_P^{tpd}$ ) ou en populations *in situ* ( $CV_P^{in-situ}$ ) sont du même ordre de grandeur. Les  $CV_P^{in-situ}$  sont plus élevés que  $CV_P^{tpd}$  car la variance génétique et la plasticité phénotypique sont confondues. Il est à noter une plus grande variation de la résistance à la cavitation pour *Fagus sylvatica*, elle peut s'expliquer par une diversité cellulaire plus grande au sein du xylème à laquelle doit être associée une plus grande variation de la dimension des ponctuations. Malgré ce surcroît de variation, Wortemann et al., (2011) n'observe pas de variance significative entre les populations pour la résistance à la cavitation.

**Table 5 Synthèse des estimations de la variance phénotypique pour la résistance à la cavitation.**

Genre	Espèce	$CV_P(\%)^a$	design <sup>b</sup>	Auteurs <sup>c</sup>
<i>Fagus</i>	<i>sylvatica</i>	9.94	TP	(Wortemann, 2011)
<i>Fagus</i>	<i>sylvatica</i>	13.17	TP	(Wortemann, 2011)
<i>Fagus</i>	<i>sylvatica</i>	11.26	TP	(Wortemann, 2011)
<i>Fagus</i>	<i>sylvatica</i>	10.7	TP	(Wortemann, 2011)
<i>Pinus</i>	<i>pinaster</i>	4.87	TP	(Corcuera et al., 2011)
<i>Pinus</i>	<i>pinaster</i>	6.60	TPD	(Lamy et al., 2011)
<i>Pinus</i>	<i>pinaster</i>	6.43	TPD	Cette thèse
<i>Pinus</i>	<i>pinaster</i>	6.36	<i>In situ</i>	Cette thèse
<i>Pinus</i>	<i>sylvestris</i>	8.15	<i>In situ</i>	(Martinez-Vilalta et al., 2009)

<sup>a</sup> Les  $CV_P$  sont issus soit de la publication elle-même soit recalculé *a posteriori* grâce aux données de l'article.

<sup>b</sup> TP =test de populations, TPD = test de populations-descendances. <sup>c</sup> Nous avons reporté les  $CV_P$  pour chacun des tests de population retrouvé dans la littérature, ainsi il y a 5 chez *Fagus sylvatica*, 3 chez *Pinus pinaster*.

Nous ne trouvons pas de corrélation entre la moyenne de la résistance à la cavitation des populations et les variables climatiques du site d'origine comme des études précédentes (Martinez-Vilalta et al., 2009; Corcuera et al., 2011; Wortemann et al., 2011). Les populations *Pinus pinaster* ne présentent pas de variance génétique ou phénotypique clinale ou contre-clinale pour la résistance à la cavitation (Figure 20).

#### 4.3.2 Caractères variables entre les populations et corrélés au climat

Les caractères liés à la croissance ( $h$ ,  $\Delta_h$ ,  $A_{Leaf}$  et  $\phi_{2007}$ ) présentent des patrons bien différents, avec des variances phénotypiques et additives plus élevées ( $CV_P$  et  $CV_A > 12\%$ ) mais surtout une variance entre les populations beaucoup plus importante ( $CV_{BP} > 12\%$ ). La valeur moyenne des populations est négativement corrélée avec l'aridité du climat de la provenance. Les populations xériques poussent moins vite et allouent plus de carbone à leurs appareils racinaire que leurs homologues mésiques. Ces populations présentent des clines génétiques faible à important (suivant le TPD) avec le climat d'origine et des clines phénotypiques encore plus prononcé.

### 4.4 Plasticité phénotypique de la résistance à la cavitation

La plasticité phénotypique a été approchée de plusieurs manières dans cette thèse. La première est qualitative. Elle peut être vue comme la différence entre la variance phénotypique estimée sur des populations naturelles *in situ* ( $CV_P^{in-situ}$ ) qui est la somme de  $\sigma_G^2$ ,  $\sigma_E^2$  et  $I_{GE}$  et des populations ayant poussées en test de population  $CV_P^{tpd}$  qui est  $\sigma_G^2$ . Ainsi *Pinus pinaster* et *Fagus sylvatica* ont un  $CV_P^{in-situ}$  et  $CV_P^{tpd}$  sont sensiblement égaux pour la résistance à la cavitation, cela démontre que la plasticité phénotypique pour ce caractère est faible (Corcuera et al., 2011; Wortemann et al., 2011 et nos travaux, Table 5). La seconde est quantitative. Elle consiste à utiliser plusieurs tests de populations ayant des entités biologiques communes (des génotypes clonés, des individus appartenant à la même famille, des individus de mêmes populations) mais poussant dans des sites différents. Cette approche permet la quantification de la plasticité phénotypique, mais cette quantification doit être comparée à des caractères ayant une plasticité connue afin d'avoir un référentiel. Notre étude montre que la résistance à la cavitation a une plasticité faible et bien inférieure à celle de la croissance, mais pour les deux caractères cette variation est piloté par le macroenvironnement

$(\sigma_E^2)$  avant tout (Table 5). Une autre limite de l'étude de la plasticité phénotypique de la résistance à la cavitation est due à la nature même de la mesure du caractère. La résistance à la cavitation est une mesure de perte de conductance relativement à une mesure de conductance initiale supposée sans embolie. Aussi la résistance à la cavitation ne peut pas se mesurer dans des milieux très xériques, ou lors de sécheresses expérimentales (où les individus sont en stress hydrique permanent) car cette quantité d'embolie native est importante.

#### 4.5 Evolution des caractères liés aux propriétés du bois

La comparaison entre  $Q_{ST}$  et  $F_{ST}$  montre que la variance entre les populations pour les caractères liés aux bois ( $D_{mean}$  et  $P_{50}$ ) est plus faible que sous l'attendu de la dérive génétique ( $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$ ). En science de l'évolution, l'absence de variance pour un caractère entre populations est difficile à expliquer. En effet, un caractère sous sélection varie entre populations car les optimums de sélection sont rarement les mêmes (sélection diversifiante) et un caractère phénotypique neutre d'un point de vue évolutif (cas assez rare finalement) varie entre populations de manière aléatoire car la fréquence des gènes sous-jacents change par simple effet d'échantillonnage des allèles d'une génération à l'autre (dérive génétique). La construction du test  $Q_{ST}$  versus  $F_{ST}$  permet d'estimer la variance attendue sous l'effet de la dérive génétique (Le Corre & Kremer, 2003; Whitlock, 2008; Kremer & Le Corre, 2011). Classiquement, l'interprétation  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  repose sur une sélection dite uniformisante, c'est la somme des effets de  $n$  sélections stabilisatrices avec le même optimum de sélection dans chacune des  $n$  populations (provenant de milieux contrastés).

Cette interprétation n'a pas notre faveur pour plusieurs raisons : (i) il existe des arguments théoriques qui montrent que l'architecture génétique (nombre de gènes, relation de dominance entre allèles, pléiotropie, relation épistatique entre locus et la structure des covariances entre l'effet allélique au sein et entre les populations) peut conduire à  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  sans intervention de la sélection (Whitlock, 1999; Lopez-Fanjul et al., 2003; Goudet & Buchi, 2006; Goudet & Martin, 2007; Miller et al., 2008; Santure & Wang, 2009; Kremer & Le Corre, 2011). Sachant que la plupart des gènes ont des relations pléiotropiques et épistatique entre eux (Carlborg & Haley, 2004; Segrè et al., 2005; Boone et al., 2007; Le Rouzic et al., 2008), il est plus parcimonieux de qualifier le caractère de « canalisé », c'est-à-dire que l'architecture génétique contraint la variance du caractère contre des perturbations génétiques et/ou environnementales. La canalisation est certainement issue d'un épisode sélectif très ancien qui a façonné une architecture génétique robuste (contraintes génétiques) et qui pourrait se transmettre pendant

plusieurs milliers de générations (spéciation). La température du corps des mammifères, la forme des ailes chez le genre *Drosophila* en sont les exemples les plus probants (Hansen & Houle, 2004), (ii) Expliquer la non variation entre populations avec un modèle de sélection naturelle, n'est pas heuristique. Certes, le modèle de sélection uniformisante est très efficace pour reproduire  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$ , mais il ne fournit aucune hypothèse à tester. Aussi, il nous paraît plus fructueux et exact de faire l'hypothèse que le caractère est contraint génétiquement (iii) L'utilisation récurrente de la sélection pour expliquer la variation comme la non variation laisse croire que tout est optimisé dans un organisme. Or c'est faux, Gould & Lewontin, (1979) ont démontré qu'il y a des limites à l'adaptation. Quelques années plus tard (Bradshaw, 1991) propose de s'intéresser aux cas où l'évolution échoue, il nomme cela la *genostasis*. L'écologie évolutive devrait se saisir de ces concepts peu documentés car peu étudiés.

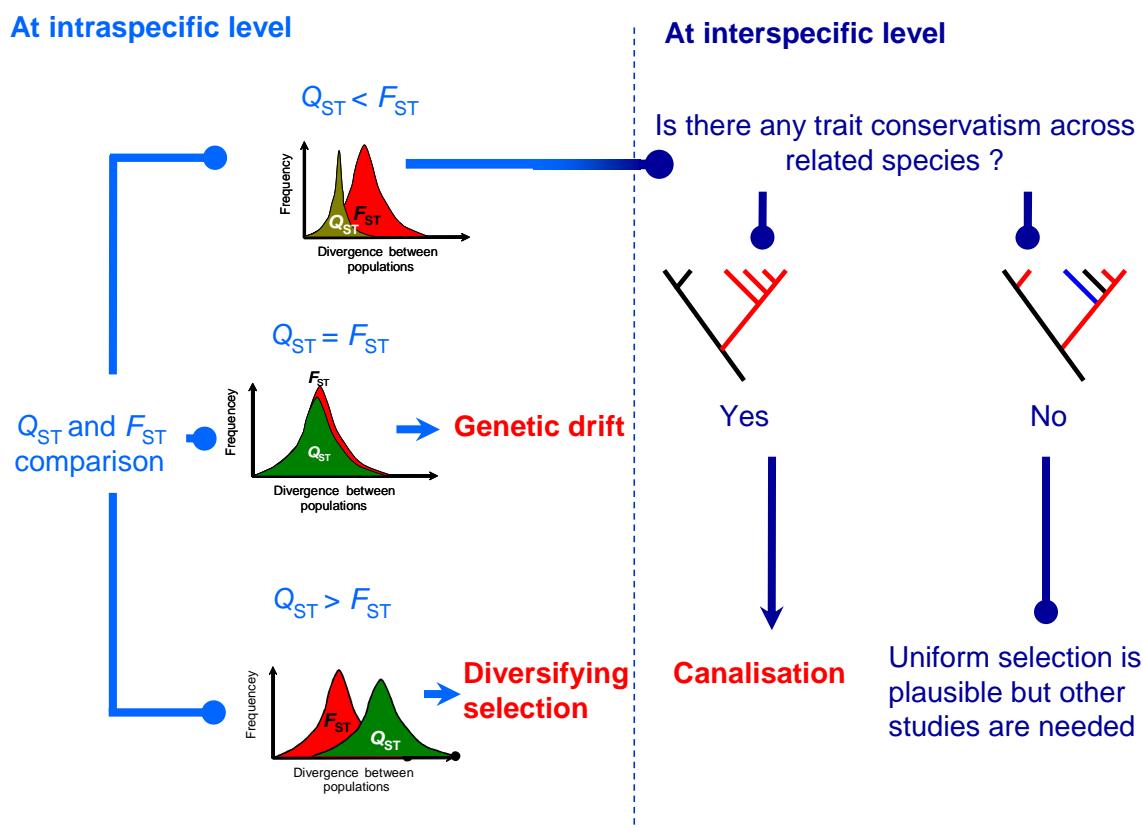


Figure 24 : Arbre de décision pour l'interprétation des comparaisons  $Q_{ST}$  et  $F_{ST}$ . La comparaison statistique des deux quantités  $Q_{ST}$  et  $F_{ST}$  mène à trois cas possibles, (i)  $Q_{ST} = F_{ST}$ , c'est-à-dire les événements de sélection sont probablement de même intensité que ceux de la dérive génétique. (ii) Le  $Q_{ST} > F_{ST}$ , les populations présentent plus de variance que sous l'attendu de la dérive génétique. (iii) Le dernier cas où  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  n'est pas facile à interpréter, il faut faire appel à d'autres informations comme les patrons de variations dans des espèces voisines. Si les espèces voisines présentent les mêmes patrons de variations alors on peut conclure que le caractère est probablement canalisé. Les cercles pleins indiquent

**que l'inférence n'est pas robuste et qu'elle nécessite de plus d'information. Une flèche indique que l'inférence est robuste.**

Aussi, sur la base des comparaisons entre  $Q_{ST}$  et  $F_{ST}$  et des arguments développés ci-dessus, nous avons fait l'hypothèse que ces caractères sont canalisés. Cette hypothèse de caractères canalisés est étayée par d'autres éléments (Figure 25). Chez les espèces voisines, *Pinus sylvestris* et *Pinus hartwegii* les valeurs de  $P_{50}$  sont proches de celle de *Pinus pinaster*, et les différences entre les populations sont faibles (données non publiées). Ces espèces partagent certainement les mêmes architectures génétiques pour ces caractères (d'où les mêmes patrons de variations) plutôt que les mêmes optimums sélectifs (i.e. sélection uniformisante) entre toutes les populations de toutes ces espèces. La canalisation peut être tester de plusieurs manières, (i) l'inactivation ciblé de gènes régulateurs (et codant pour des chaperonines par exemple) impliqués dans l'expression du caractère, et d'observer la variation des phénotypes, s'il y a une augmentation significative de la variation, cela veut dire qu'il y avait de la diversité génétique caché et que donc l'architecture génétique tamponnait la variance génétique (Queitsch et al., 2002; Sangster et al., 2007, 2008). (ii) L'autre stratégie est de comparer la diversité génétique du caractère canalisé (qui devrait être basse) et de la comparer la diversité génétique moyenne du génome (Fu et al., 2009).

## 4.6 Conséquences pour les programmes d'amélioration génétique

Le patron de variation des caractères liés au bois suggère que la sélection (par troncature par exemple) est possible (héritabilité moyenne des caractères liés au bois) mais le gain à chaque génération sera limité (variance additive faible). L'épuisement de la variance additive est théoriquement possible mais des expériences menées sur le long terme montrent qu'elle est renouvelée par la variance mutationnelle à chaque génération (Carlberg et al., 2006). Si la résistance à la cavitation comme la densité du bois sont des caractères réellement canalisés alors une partie de la diversité génétique est invisible (*cryptic genetic variation*) car tamponnée par l'architecture génétique (covariance négative entre les effets alléliques, épistasie directionnelle négative, pléiotropie) (Le Rouzic & Carlberg, 2008). *A priori*, une sélection par troncature<sup>18</sup> renforcerait la covariance négative entre effets alléliques (Bulmer, 1974; Mueller & James, 1983). En revanche, l'épistasie fournirait à chaque génération de la

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<sup>18</sup> Type de sélection la plus courante chez les améliorateurs. Il s'agit de faire se reproduire ensemble les individus au dessus d'un certain seuil (seuil de troncature).

variance en apparence additive (Hansen & G.P. Wagner, 2001; N.H. Barton & Turelli, 2004; Carlborg et al., 2006; Hansen, 2006; Hansen et al., 2006; Turelli & N.H. Barton, 2006). A la lueur des travaux empiriques et de récents modèles théoriques sus-cités, il est essentiel de modéliser l'évolution de caractères à déterminisme complexe (canalisés) sous sélection artificielle.

Pour conclure, autant l'amélioration classique de ces caractères à faible variance additive reste difficile, autant il sera facile de choisir parmi les arbres «élites»<sup>19</sup>, des arbres ayant une densité du bois et une résistance à la cavitation importante (ou l'inverse) car les deux caractères ne sont pas corrélés. Il faudra en revanche tenir compte des corrélations entre densité du bois et croissance.

#### **4.7 Conséquences pour la capacité adaptative de *Pinus pinaster* face à la sécheresse**

Quantifier la capacité adaptative de *Pinus pinaster* face à la sécheresse revient à faire le bilan de la variation disponible pour chacun des termes déterminant un modèle hydrique de l'arbre. Une partie de cette variation a été mesuré dans cette thèse, cependant il existe une variation cachée ou potentielle (cf Figure 1). Construisons donc un modèle hydrique faisant intervenir quelques uns des caractères mesurés dans cette thèse. Par souci de simplicité, nous négligeons le potentiel hydrique dû à la gravité et en combinant l'équation 2 et 3, on peut écrire :

$$(10) \quad \Psi_{leaf} = \Psi_{soil} - A_L \left( R_{soil} + R_{root} + \frac{1}{K_{\max} f(P_{50}, S_{50}, \Psi_{xylem})} + R_{leaf} \right) g_c D$$

Avec  $\Psi_{leaf}$  le potentiel hydrique foliaire,  $\Psi_{soil}$  le potentiel hydrique du sol,  $g_c$  la conductance stomatique moyenne de la canopée,  $D$  le déficit en pression de vapeur d'eau de l'air, avec  $R_x$  les résistances des différents organes et  $R_{xylem}$  exprimé avec la fonction sigmoïde faisant intervenir la  $P_{50}$ . En exprimant  $g_c$  sous la forme d'une conductivité ( $g_c$ ) et en divisant les résistances par les surfaces conductrices de l'arbre ( $A_s$ ), on peut écrire :

$$(11) \quad \Psi_{leaf} = \Psi_{soil} - \frac{A_L}{A_s} \left( R_{soil}^s + R_{root}^s + \frac{1}{K_{\max}^s f(P_{50}, S_{50}, \Psi_{xylem})} + R_{leaf}^s \right) g_c D$$

Les résistances (ou conductivités) sont en unité de  $A_s$  et il s'agit donc de résistances spécifiques symbolisées par  $R^s$ . Nous savons que  $R_{xylem}$  participe à moins de 30% de la

<sup>19</sup> Parents de la future génération d'amélioration qui présentent une croissance supérieure au seuil de troncature

résistance totale de l'arbre (Cruiziat et al., 2002) et que seul  $P_{50}$  est héritable,  $CV_A^{20}$  de ce caractère est <6 %, en comparaison, le  $CV_A$  du rapport  $A_L/A_S$  est plus élevé > 12 %. D'un point de vue théorique, *Pinus pinaster* a plus de variation disponible pour la sélection (naturelle et artificielle) sur  $A_L/A_S$  que sur  $P_{50}$ . De plus, les deux caractères,  $R_{xylem}$  et  $A_L/A_S$ , ont vraisemblablement une plasticité phénotypique différente, plus forte pour  $A_L/A_S$  que pour  $P_{50}$ . Donc si la tolérance à la sécheresse de *Pinus pinaster* doit être améliorée, il est plus stratégique de sélectionner des arbres mettant en place beaucoup de bois par rapport à une surface foliaire réduite ( $A_L/A_S$  élevé). En écophysiologie il est connu que les populations de Pin font de l'ajustement hydraulique, les populations poussant sur des sites secs mettent en place plus de surfaces conductrices que transpirantes par rapport aux populations vivant en milieu plus humide. Aussi le ratio  $A_L/A_S$  est négativement corrélé à l'aridité du climat (Addington et al., 2006; Martinez-Vilalta et al., 2009).

L'amélioration de la résistance à la sécheresse à court terme de *Pinus pinaster* passe certainement par la sélection d'individu ayant une stature adaptée à la sécheresse (rapport  $A_L/A_S$ ). Cependant cela irait contre les efforts de deux générations d'améliorations. L'amélioration de la sécheresse de *Pinus pinaster* passe par l'amélioration de caractères physiologiques plutôt que morphologiques comme cela été fait pour les plantes céréalières. En effet, *Pinus pinaster* a une marge de sécurité étroite, c'est-à-dire qu'il ferme ces stomates lorsque la cavitation démarre. Cette stratégie est efficace pour éviter les sécheresses intenses mais elle semble inefficace pour les sécheresses longues. Les Pins épuisent leurs réserves carbonées sans réussir à la reconstituer (assimilation carbonée nulle) et sont sujet à la mort par la faim (Breshears et al., 2009). La résistance à la cavitation constraint fortement le fonctionnement hydraulique des Pins. Une amélioration durable et profonde de sa résistance à la sécheresse passe par la sélection d'individus plus résistant à la cavitation.

La simulation pourrait aider à développer plusieurs ideotypes. Il faudra écrire un modèle semblable à 11, en utilisant comme paramètres d'entrée  $P_{50}$ ,  $A_L/A_S$  réellement mesurés, et simuler une sécheresse du sol. La performance de la population *in silico* pourrait être le temps qu'il faut pour que 50% des individus de la population meurent (un individu est théoriquement mort lorsque  $\Psi_{leaf} = P_{88}$ ). Il serait possible de simuler  $n$  individus ayant les valeurs mesurées pour  $P_{50}$  et  $A_L/A_S$  chez le *Pinus pinaster* (tirage aléatoire dans une

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<sup>20</sup> Coefficient de variation additive, c'est-à-dire la variance disponible pour la sélection naturelle ou artificielle normalisé par la moyenne du caractère.

distribution normale  $N\sim(\mu, \sigma_G^2)$ ). Deux scénarios pourraient être envisagés, un premier dans lequel  $A_L/A_S$  aura été amélioré de 1% et un second dans lequel  $P_{50}$  serait amélioré de 1% et de comparer les performances des populations *in silico*. Ainsi le choix d'amélioration de tel ou tel caractère serait fait sur la base du fonctionnement hydraulique de *Pinus pinaster*.

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# 6 - Annexes

## **Uniform Selection as a Primary Force Reducing Population Genetic Differentiation of Cavitation Resistance across a Species Range**

Jean-Baptiste Lamy, Laurent Bouffier, Régis Burlett, Christophe Plomion, Hervé Cochard, Sylvain Delzon

Published in *PLoS ONE*

## **Plasmodesmatal pores in the torus of bordered pit membranes affect cavitation 1 resistance of conifer xylem**

Steven Jansen and Jean-Baptiste Lamy, Régis Burlett, Hervé Cochard, Peter Gasson, Sylvain Delzon

Published in *Plant, Cell and Environment*

## **$Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$ as a signature of canalization**

Jean-Baptiste Lamy, Christophe Plomion, Antoine Kremer, Sylvain Delzon

Submitted in *Molecular Ecology*

## **Evolutionary stasis of wood density in a pine species**

Jean-Baptiste Lamy, Frédéric Lagane, Christophe Plomion, Hervé Cochard, Sylvain Delzon

Submitted to *Plant Ecology*

## **Genotypic and environmental variation in cavitation resistance in a pine species transplanted in wet and dry provenance tests**

Jean-Baptiste Lamy, Sylvain Delzon, Pauline Bouche, Ricardo Alia, Giovanni Giuseppe Vendramin, Christophe Plomion, Hervé Cochard.

Submitted to *New-Phytologist*

## **Quand les arbres pleurent ou quand la sève surfe sur les lois de la thermodynamique.**

Jean-Baptiste Lamy

Publié dans *Plume magazine* (vulgarisation scientifique)

# Plasmodesmatal pores in the torus of bordered pit membranes affect cavitation resistance of conifer xylem

S. JANSEN<sup>1\*</sup>, J.-B. LAMY<sup>2</sup>, R. BURLETT<sup>2</sup>, H. COCHARD<sup>3</sup>, P. GASSON<sup>1</sup> & S. DELZON<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Jodrell Laboratory, Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, Richmond, Surrey TW9 3DS, UK, <sup>2</sup>INRA, University of Bordeaux, UMR BIOGECO, Talence, France and <sup>3</sup>INRA, UMR 547 PIAF, F-63100 Clermont-Ferrand, France

## ABSTRACT

The pit membrane in bordered pits of conifer tracheids is characterized by a porous margo and central thickening (torus), which is traditionally considered to function as an impermeable safety valve against air-seeding. However, electron microscopy based on 33 conifer species, including five families and 19 genera, reveals that pores occur in the torus of 13 of the species studied. The pores have a plasmodesmatal origin with an average diameter of 51 nm and grouped arrangement. Evidence for embolism spreading via pores in tori is supported by the pore sizes, which correspond relatively well with the pressure inducing cavitation. Predictions based on earlier correlations between pit structure and cavitation resistance were only weakly supported for species with punctured tori. Moreover, species with punctured tori are significantly less resistant to cavitation than species with non-punctured tori. Nevertheless, absolute pore diameters must be treated with caution and correlations between theoretical and measured air-seeding pressures are weak. Because most pores appear not to traverse the torus but are limited to one torus pad, only complete pores would trigger air-seeding. Embolism spreading through a leaky torus is not universal across gymnosperms and unlikely to represent the only air-seeding mechanism.

**Key-words:** air-seeding; conifer wood; torus-margo; tracheid.

## INTRODUCTION

The study of bordered pits and their biological significance in xylem has fascinated plant anatomists for centuries (Choat, Cobb & Jansen 2008). Soon after understanding that a pit membrane represents the primary wall that runs between the bordered pit cavities of a pit pair (Schacht

1859), much attention has been paid to conifer pit membranes with a ‘torus’, which represents the central thickening of the pit membrane and is surrounded by a porous ‘margo’ (Von Nägeli 1864; Sanio 1873; Russow 1883; Strasburger 1891; Liese 1965; Bauch, Schultze & Liese 1972). Pit membranes are of special interest for understanding structure – function relationships of water transport because they determine hydraulic efficiency for water flow between neighbouring tracheary elements, and limit the passage of air bubbles and pathogens into the sap stream (Tyree & Zimmermann 2002; Choat *et al.* 2008; Jansen, Choat & Pletsers 2009). Interest in the function of pit membranes is also due to their role in the movement of liquids and gas within wood and their influence on the permeability, drying and pulping of timber (Flynn 1995; Singh *et al.* 1999; Bao, Lu & Zhao 2001; Usta & Hale 2006).

As the porosity of tracheid walls is highest where there are pits, drought-induced cavitation is thought to occur at the pit level by a process called ‘air-seeding’ (Sperry & Tyree 1988, 1990; Tyree & Zimmermann 2002). The functional explanation for the nature of torus-margo pit membranes in conifers is that tori behave as safety valves, which are able to block off the pit aperture where there is a pressure difference between adjacent tracheids (Bailey 1913, 1916; Hart & Thomas 1967; Cochard *et al.* 2009). When a torus is in its relaxed, un aspirated position, the thin and porous margo is shown to offer a pit-area resistance that is on average 59 times lower than an angiosperm pit membrane (Hacke, Sperry & Pittermann 2004; Pittermann *et al.* 2005, 2010; Pittermann 2010). Aspirated tori, however, prevent the spreading of air into neighbouring tracheids. This sealing mechanism seems to be valid up to a certain threshold and air-seeding will occur when the pressure drop difference between adjacent tracheids exceeds a certain limit (Cochard *et al.* 2009; Delzon *et al.* 2010). The exact location of the air-seeding mechanism, however, remains unclear and two likely hypotheses have been proposed: (1) seal capillary-seeding (i.e. the torus does not perfectly seal the outer pit aperture, allowing air bubbles to pass through micropores at the edge of the torus); and (2) torus capillary-seeding (i.e. air-seeding through pores in the torus) (Delzon *et al.* 2010). Recent studies also demonstrate that anatomical features correlated with air-seeding in conifer tracheids mainly include torus thickness and the ratio of the torus to pit aperture diameter, but do not vary systematically with

\*Correspondence: S. Jansen. Fax: +49 731 502 3320; e-mail: steven.jansen@uni-ulm.de

<sup>\*</sup>Present address: Institute of Systematic Botany and Ecology, Albert-Einstein-Allee 11, Ulm University, D-89081 Ulm, Germany. Contributors: S.J. and J.-B.L. contributed equally to this study and are both considered as first authors.

margo porosity (Cochard *et al.* 2009; Hacke & Jansen 2009; Delzon *et al.* 2010; Pittermann *et al.* 2010).

The traditional understanding of air-seeding in bordered pits of conifers is based on the assumption that tori are impermeable to water and air, and that the valve mechanism depends on the elastic properties of the margo (Liese & Johann 1954; Liese 1965; Liese & Bauch 1967; Comstock & Côté 1968; Bao *et al.* 2001; Hacke *et al.* 2004). Therefore, the thick and non-porous nature of the torus plays a crucial role in the safety valve hypothesis. However, earlier observations suggested the presence of minute pores in the torus of *Abies firma*, *Abies sachalinensis*, *Pinus koraiensis*, *Pinus palustris*, *Pinus serotina*, *Pinus taeda*, *Pinus wallichiana* and *Tsuga sieboldii* (Thomas 1969; Thomas & Nicholas 1969; Fujikawa & Ishida 1972; Panshin & De Zeeuw 1980; Sano, Kawakami & Ohtani 1999; Dute, Hagler & Black 2008; Roth-Nebelsick, Voigt & Gorb 2010). Thomas (1969) suggested that the openings in tori of *Pinus* represent plasmodesmata because of their circular depression and raised central position. More recent observations in *A. firma* showed that the pores in tori of mature pit membranes correspond to channels of secondary (i.e. post-cytokinetically formed) plasmodesmata (Dute *et al.* 2008). Furthermore, Sano *et al.* (1999) demonstrated that the frequency of tori with pores varied from 45 to 81% across the innermost and middle area of the last three growth rings in *A. sachalinensis*. While some earlier observations of micropores in the torus of conifer pit membranes were interpreted as preparation artefact (Jansen, Pletsers & Sano 2008), cryo-scanning electron microscopy (SEM) demonstrated that pores detected in *P. wallichiana* represent real features associated with the native state of pit membranes (Roth-Nebelsick *et al.* 2010).

Taxonomic implications and functional consequences for conifers with punctured tori remain unclear. Minute openings in tori have recently been suggested as a functional explanation for the air-seeding mechanism in gymnosperms (Cochard *et al.* 2009; Delzon *et al.* 2010). Therefore, we hypothesize that the occurrence and the size of pores associated with tori are correlated with vulnerability to xylem cavitation, which is known to vary extensively within conifers (Maherali, Pockman & Jackson 2004; Delzon *et al.* 2010; Pittermann *et al.* 2010). The two major aims of this study are: (1) to explore the distribution of tori with pores across gymnosperms; and (2) to test whether these pores could represent sites of air-seeding associated with drought-induced cavitation. Both goals will be addressed by sampling across a broad taxonomic range of gymnosperms and by exploring in detail what aspects of pit structure are related to the variation in cavitation resistance. In particular, earlier hypotheses regarding cavitation resistance and pit morphology will be evaluated for the species with punctured tori. Overall, this paper aims to better understand the structural basis of cavitation resistance, which is a major issue in identifying the genetic background of drought resistance in plants.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Plant material

A total of 33 conifer species was investigated, covering 5 families and 19 genera (Table 1). As we aimed to examine three to five specimens per species, criteria for species selection were: (1) the availability of three to five mature and healthy trees for each species; and (2) the taxonomic position, aiming to include species with a taxonomic range as broad as possible. For *Pinus nigra* and *P. wallichiana*, only one specimen was collected. Most trees sampled were growing at the Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew (UK) with an average daily temperature of 10.8 °C and 605 mm of annual rainfall.

Straight branches fully exposed to the sun were collected from each tree where they were most conveniently reached. The samples were longer than 40 cm and the xylem was 3–10 mm in diameter. Compression wood was avoided, and needles were removed as soon as possible in order to stop transpiration. The fresh stem segments were then immediately wrapped in wet paper towels and plastic bags, and brought to the laboratory.

### Scanning electron microscopy

SEM observations were conducted on air-dried samples that were used for measuring cavitation resistance. Although intraspecific variation of pit morphology can be significant (Domec *et al.* 2008; Jansen *et al.* 2009; Schoonmaker *et al.* 2010; Gortan *et al.* 2011), qualitative features such as the presence or absence of punctured tori were assumed to be consistently present or absent for a given species. Although this assumption was only tested on observations for two species (*Pinus hartwegii* and *Pinus pinaster*), our approach mainly aimed at studying the taxonomic variation of pores in tori across various conifer genera and families. Therefore, SEM observations were limited to one sample for most species. We selected the sample that was closest to the average  $P_{50}$  value for each species.

SEM preparation followed standard protocols, except that the samples were briefly treated in an alcohol series (50, 70, 90, 100% ethanol) for a total of 5 min in order to remove pit membrane encrustations that could make detection of pores difficult (Thomas 1969; Jansen *et al.* 2008, 2009). Based on a total of 30 different preparation techniques applied by Jansen *et al.* (2008), the effect of chemical solutions and timing of treatment on pore size was examined for *P. wallichiana* and *Pinus radiata*. All SEM specimens were mounted on aluminium stubs using conductive carbon cement (Neubauer chemikaliën, Münster, Germany). Once dry, the mounted specimens were coated with platinum using an Emitech K550 sputter coater (Emitech Ltd, Ashford, UK) for 2 min, resulting in a ca. 10-nm-thick coating layer. Observations were carried out with a Hitachi cold-field emission SEM S-4700 (Hitachi High Technologies Corp., Tokyo, Japan) under 2 kV.

**Table 1.** List of the species studied with reference to their taxonomic family and origin; specimens in bold show pores in the torus of bordered pit pairs observed by electron microscopy

Family	Species	Authority	Origin and accession number	$P_{50}$ (MPa) ± SE
Cephalotaxaceae	<i>Cephalotaxus fortunei</i>	Hook.	RBG Kew, 1969-16466	-7.21 ± 0.48
<b>Cephalotaxaceae</b>	<b><i>Cephalotaxus harringtonii</i></b>	<b>Knight ex J.Forbes</b>	<b>RBG Kew, 1969-16244</b>	<b>-7.21 ± 0.48</b>
Cupressaceae	<i>Callitris columellaris</i> <sup>a</sup>	F.Muell.	University of Tasmania, Hobart	-15.79 ± 0.18
Cupressaceae	<i>Callitris gracilis</i> <sup>a</sup>	R.T.Baker	University of Tasmania, Hobart	-12.26 ± 0.59
Cupressaceae	<i>Callitris preissii</i> <sup>a</sup>	Miq.	University of Tasmania, Hobart	-14.96 ± 0.50
Cupressaceae	<i>Callitris rhomboidea</i> <sup>a</sup>	R.Br.	University of Tasmania, Hobart	-9.60 ± 1.45
Cupressaceae	<i>Chamaecyparis obtusa</i>	Siebold & Zucc.	RBG Kew, 1969-10594	-3.70 ± 0.12
Cupressaceae	<i>Chamaecyparis pisifera</i>	(Siebold & Zucc.) Endl.	RBG Kew, 607-12-60702	-3.46 ± 0.21
Cupressaceae	<i>Cupressus dupreziana</i>	A.Camus	RBG Kew, 1970-6193	-10.29 ± 0.60
Cupressaceae	<i>Cupressus torulosa</i>	D.Don	RBG Kew, 1996-1799	-8.35 ± 0.60
Cupressaceae	<i>Metasequoia glyptostroboides</i> <sup>*</sup>	Hu & W.C.Cheng	RBG Kew, 1980-6256	-2.91 ± 0.13
Cupressaceae	<i>Platycladus orientalis</i>	(L.) Franco	RBG Kew, 1976-3574	-9.04 ± 0.45
<b>Cupressaceae</b>	<b><i>Sequoia sempervirens</i></b>	<b>Endl.</b>	<b>University of Bordeaux, Château du Haut-carré</b>	<b>-4.38 ± 0.17</b>
<b>Cupressaceae</b>	<b><i>Sequoiadendron giganteum</i></b>	<b>(Lindl.) J.Buchholz</b>	<b>University of Bordeaux, Château du Haut-carré</b>	<b>-3.79 ± 0.07</b>
Cupressaceae	<i>Taiwania cryptomerioides</i>	Hayata	RBG Kew, 1994-900	-3.38 ± 0.29
Cupressaceae	<i>Thuja plicata</i> <sup>*</sup>	Donn ex D.Don	RBG Kew, 1973-18600	-4.20 ± 0.13
Cupressaceae	<i>Thujopsis dolabrata</i>	Siebold & Zucc.	RBG Kew, 1969-16072	-5.63 ± 0.41
<b>Cupressaceae</b>	<b><i>Xanthocyparis nootkatensis</i></b>	<b>(D.Don) Farjon &amp; D.K.Harder</b>	<b>RBG Kew, 1969-13806</b>	<b>-5.14 ± 0.25</b>
Pinaceae	<i>Abies balsamea</i> <sup>*b</sup>	(L.) Mill.	University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada	-3.64 ± 0.34
Pinaceae	<i>Cedrus atlantica</i> <sup>*</sup>	(Endl.) G.Manetti ex Carrière	RBG Kew, 2000-4686	-5.13 ± 0.08
Pinaceae	<i>Cedrus deodara</i>	Loudon	Clermont-Ferrand, France	-7.25 ± 0.41
<b>Pinaceae</b>	<b><i>Larix decidua</i></b> <sup>*</sup>	<b>Mill.</b>	<b>RBG Kew, 1979-6300</b>	<b>-4.30 ± 0.37</b>
<b>Pinaceae</b>	<b><i>Picea glauca</i></b> <sup>*b</sup>	<b>(Moench) Voss</b>	<b>University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada</b>	<b>-4.35 ± 0.26</b>
Pinaceae	<i>Picea mariana</i> <sup>*b</sup>	(Mill.) BSP.	Edson, Canada	-5.21 ± 0.19
Pinaceae	<i>Pinus hartwegii</i> <sup>*</sup>	Lindl.	RBG Kew, 1996-1016	-3.43 ± 0.18
Pinaceae	<i>Pinus nigra</i> <sup>*</sup>	J.F.Arnold	RBG Kew, 1973-15503	-3.52
Pinaceae	<i>Pinus pinaster</i> <sup>*</sup>	Aiton	Bordeaux, 503, 361, 441, 463B	-3.73 ± 0.07
Pinaceae	<i>Pinus radiate</i>	D.Don	University of Tasmania, Hobart	-4.38 ± 0.14
Pinaceae	<i>Pinus wallichiana</i> <sup>*c</sup>	A.B.Jacks	RBG Kew, 1979-2373	-2.39
Sciadopityaceae	<i>Sciadopitys verticillata</i>	Siebold & Zucc.	RBG Kew, 1979-48	-3.94 ± 0.13
Taxaceae	<i>Torreya californica</i>	Torr.	RBG Kew, 1969-14196	-6.39 ± 0.30
Taxaceae	<i>Torreya grandis</i>	Fortune ex. Lindl.	RBG Kew, 1973-20815	-4.69 ± 0.25
Taxaceae	<i>Torreya nucifera</i>	Siebold & Zucc.	RBG Kew, 1969-15523	-5.94 ± 0.30

Air-dried material was used for scanning electron microscopy (SEM); transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was based on air-dried material for most species, but on fresh material for species followed by an asterisk (\*). Average  $P_{50}$  values are based on three to five specimens and correspond to the pressure inducing 50% loss of hydraulic conductance;  $n = 1$  specimen for *P. nigra* and *P. wallichiana*. <sup>a</sup>Material studied by Brodribb *et al.* (2010); <sup>b</sup>material studied by Hacke & Jansen (2009); <sup>c</sup>material studied by Jansen *et al.* (2008).

### Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)

TEM was based on one wood sample per species, selecting the same branch that was also used for SEM. Air-dried wood from the two most recent growth rings was cut into 1 mm<sup>3</sup> blocks and dehydrated through a graded ethanol series. The ethanol was gradually replaced with LR White resin (London Resin Co, Reading, UK) over several days. The resin was polymerized in a Gallenkamp vacuum oven at 60 °C and 1000 mbar for 24 h. Embedded samples were trimmed with a Leica EM specimen trimmer (Leica Microsystems, Vienna, Austria) and sectioned on an ultramicrotome (Ultracut, Reichert-Jung, Austria). Transverse, ultra-thin sections were cut between 60 and 90 nm using a diamond

knife, attached to Formvar (Agar Scientific, Stansted, UK) and 100 mesh copper grids, and stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate using a Leica EM Stain Ultrostainer (Leica Microsystems). Observations were carried out with a JEOL JEM-1210 TEM (Jeol, Tokyo, Japan) at 80 kV accelerating voltage, and digital images were taken using a MegaView III camera (Soft Imaging System, Münster, Germany).

For 11 species (Table 1), TEM was applied to fresh material, which was cut into 1 mm<sup>3</sup> blocks and fixed overnight in Karnovsky's fixative at room temperature. After washing in a 0.05 M phosphate buffer, the specimens were postfixed in 1% buffered osmium tetroxide for 4 h at room temperature, and washed again. Further preparation followed the method given above.

## Anatomical measurements

For each species a minimum of ca. 100 tori was observed using SEM, while the size of ultra-thin sections limited TEM observations to ca. 50 tori per species. SEM observations were mainly conducted on aspirated pit membranes at magnifications above 10 000. Both non-aspirated and aspirated pit membranes were seen with TEM, with higher frequencies of relaxed pit membranes in fresh material than air-dried wood.

Pit morphological features from earlywood tracheids were quantified for all 13 species with punctured tori. Pit membrane diameter ( $D_m$ ), torus diameter ( $D_t$ ) and pit aperture diameter ( $D_a$ ) were measured at the widest point and in horizontal direction using SEM images. Pits with torus extensions (i.e. margo straps) were excluded from torus diameter measurements. Because of significant scaling between  $D_m$ ,  $D_t$  and  $D_a$  (Hacke & Jansen 2009; Supporting Information Figure S2), a minimum of 15 aspirated pit membranes per species were measured, which allowed quantifying  $D_m$ ,  $D_t$  and  $D_a$  on the same pit. Torus overlap ( $O$ ) was defined following Delzon *et al.* (2010) as  $(D_t - D_a)/D_t$ , and as  $(D_t - D_a)/(D_m - D_a)$  according to Hacke *et al.* (2004). The margo flexibility index ( $F = (D_m - D_t)/D_t$ ) and valve effect ( $V_{ef} = F \times O$ ) were estimated according to Delzon *et al.* (2010). The size of the pores associated with tori was consistently measured for a minimum of 25 pores per species. For most species, however, we measured more than 40 pores from ca. 20 pit membranes. For the *P. wallichiana* samples prepared according to Jansen *et al.* (2008), only conditions similar to 5 min of alcohol treatment were used to measure pore size.

Based on TEM images, the maximum margo thickness ( $M_t$ ), the torus thickness ( $T_t$ ) in the centre of the torus and the pit chamber depth (i.e. the maximum distance between overarching pit borders of a pit pair,  $D_p$ ) were measured for all species with punctured tori except for *P. wallichiana* and *Sequoiadendron giganteum*. Average values for these TEM characteristics were determined based on a minimum of 10 measurements.

All anatomical measurements were conducted using ImageJ software (Rasband 1997–2011).

## Xylem vulnerability to cavitation

To investigate intraspecific variation, vulnerability to cavitation was measured for three to five specimens per species. Except for the three species studied by Hacke & Jansen (2009; Table 1), vulnerability curves were based on the cavitrone technique as described previously (Cochard 2002; Cochard *et al.* 2005; Delzon *et al.* 2010). Measurements were performed at the high-throughput phenotyping platform for hydraulic traits (CaviPlace, University of Bordeaux, Talence, France) using a custom-built honeycomb rotor (Precis 2000, Bordeaux, France) mounted on a Sorvall RC5 ultracentrifuge (Fisher Scientific, Schwerte, Germany). Samples were kept refrigerated and vulnerability to cavitation was determined within 2 weeks of collection. All

samples were debarked to avoid resin exudation, re-cut under water to a standard length of 27 cm, and both ends were trimmed with a fresh razor blade to obtain perfectly smooth surfaces with open tracheids. A solution of ultrapure and degassed water including 10 mM KCl and 1 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub> was used as reference solution for hydraulic measurements. After measuring the maximum hydraulic conductance under low (i.e. close to zero) xylem pressure ( $P$ ), the rotation speed of the centrifuge was gradually increased by 0.5 or 1 MPa to determine the percentage loss of hydraulic conductance ( $PLC$ ). The rotor velocity was monitored using an electronic tachymeter (A2108-LSR232; Compact Inst, Bolton, UK) with a 10 r.p.m. resolution, and the xylem pressure was adjusted to  $\pm 0.02$  MPa. We used Cavi\_soft software (version 1.5, University of Bordeaux) for conductance measurements and the computation of all vulnerability curves, which were adjusted according to Pammenter and Vander Willigen (1998). The  $P_{50}$  value was defined as the pressure corresponding to 50%  $PLC$  and averaged for each species. Similarly,  $P_{12}$  was defined as the pressure equivalent to 12%  $PLC$ , which corresponds to air entry in the xylem.  $S_{50}$  was defined as the slope of the vulnerability curve at the inflection point (Pammenter & Vander Willigen 1998), which corresponds to the speed of embolism in the xylem system per unit of pressure (% MPa<sup>-1</sup>).

The theoretical pressure gradient ( $\Delta P$ , in MPa) required to pull an air bubble through the pore of a pit membrane was calculated based on the Young–Laplace equation as  $\Delta P = 4(\tau \cos\theta/D)$ , where  $D$  (nm) represents the diameter of the pit membrane pore and  $\tau$  (N m<sup>-1</sup>) is the surface tension of water. The contact angle ( $\theta$ ) between the air-water-pit membrane interface was assumed to be 0°.

## Statistical analysis

Statistical differences between species with punctured tori ( $n = 13$ ) and non-punctured tori ( $n = 20$ ) were inferred using the following mixed model:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}\boldsymbol{\gamma} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$$

$\mathbf{y}$  is the observation vector (here  $P_{50}$  and  $S_{50}$ ).  $\mathbf{X}$  represents a design matrix linking the observation to fixed effects and  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  is a vector of the fixed effect (here, *torus anatomy* with two levels ‘punctured’ and ‘non-punctured tori’).  $\mathbf{Z}$  is a random effect matrix linking observations to random effects and  $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$  is a random effects vector (here, *family* with five levels and *genus* nested within *family* with one to five levels). At first, we ran the fixed part of this model to assess if there was an effect of torus anatomy on  $P_{50}$  and  $S_{50}$ . Afterwards, the full model was run to consider the putative phylogenetic autocorrelation between species (Chave *et al.* 2009). Differences were considered statistically significant at  $P \leq 0.05$ .

Classical linear regression analyses were used to determine the relationship between (1) torus capillary-seeding and resistance to cavitation; (2) pit dimensions ( $D_a$ ,  $D_t$ ,  $D_m$ ); (3) pore diameter in tori and torus thickness; and (4) pit functional traits ( $O$ ,  $F$ ,  $V_{ef}$ ).

Statistical analyses were performed using SAS software (SAS 9.2; SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA).

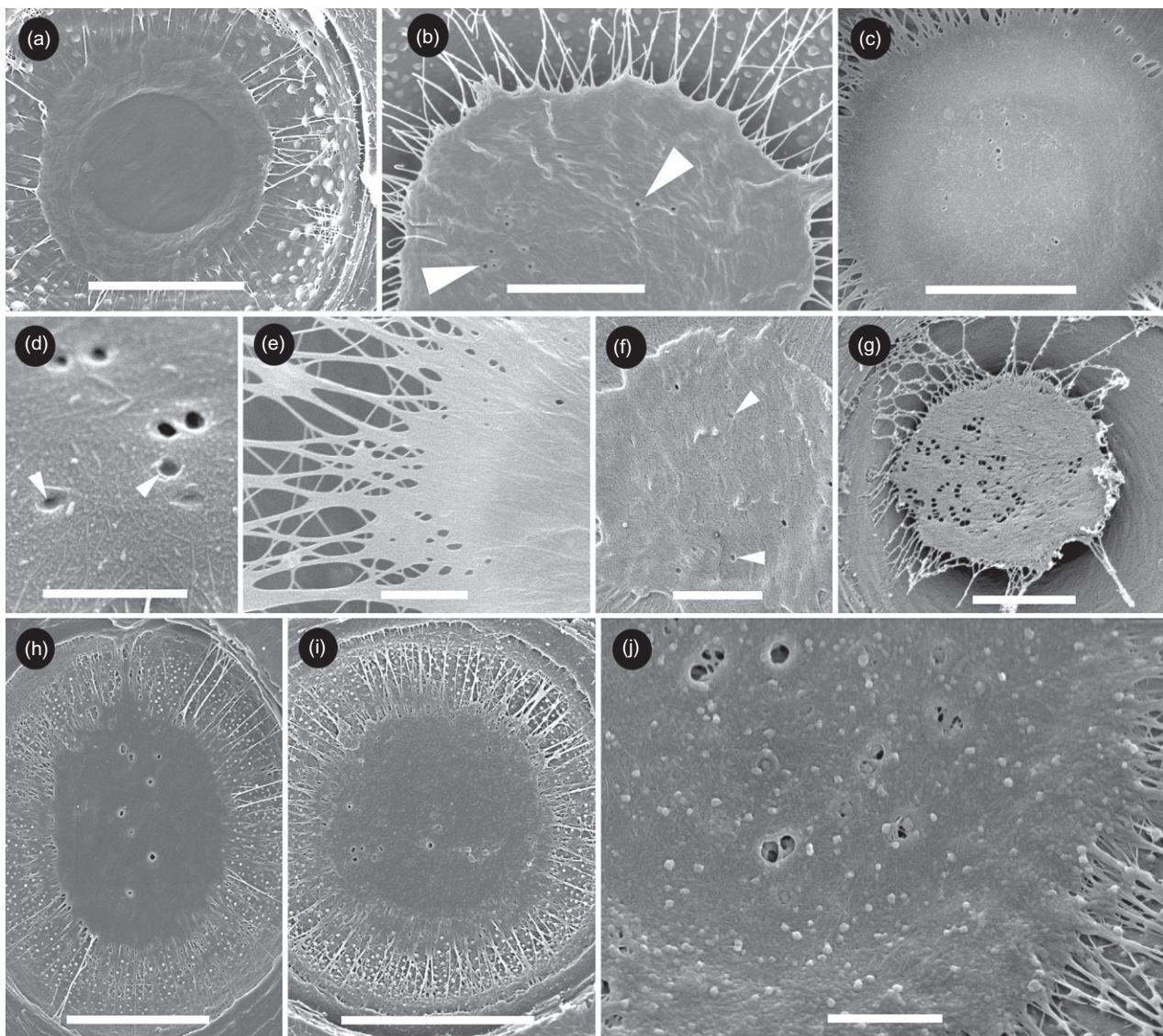
## RESULTS

### The anatomy of punctured tori

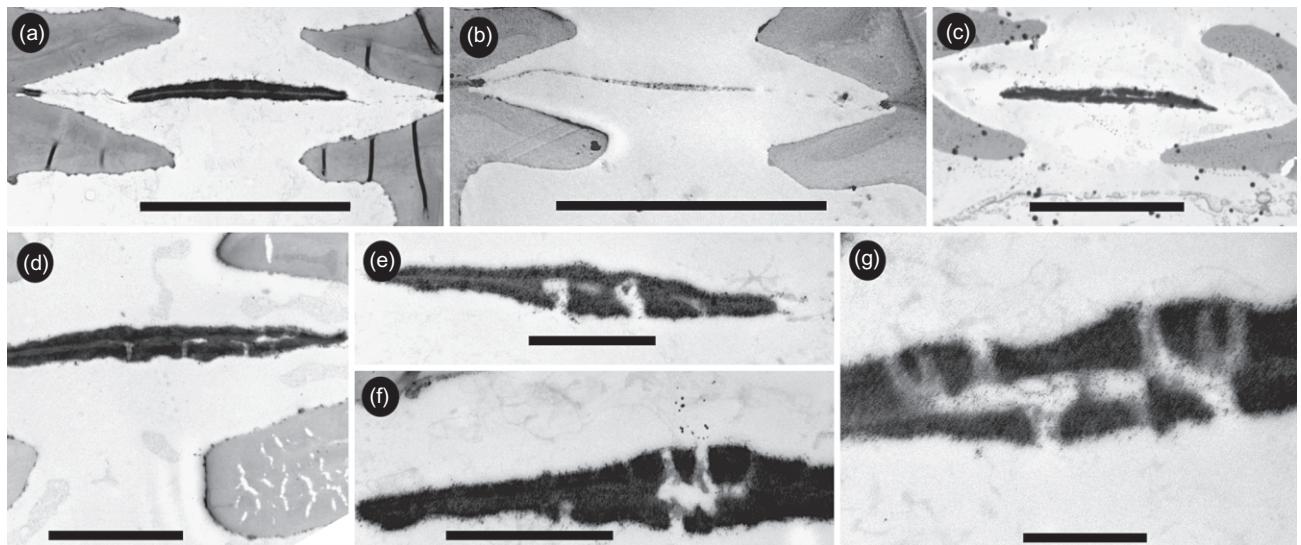
Torus-margo pit membranes were found in all species studied. The torus could be distinguished from the margo

due to its non-porosity and high electron density as seen with the SEM and TEM, respectively (Figs 1 & 2). Punctured tori were observed in 13 species using SEM (Table 1; Fig. 1b–j), while all other species studied showed tori without distinct pores (Fig. 1a). Punctured tori were consistently present in the two specimens of *P. hartwegii* and the four trees of *P. pinaster* studied.

The size of the pores varied from 12 to 144 nm, with a mean diameter of 49 ( $\pm 9$ ) nm ( $\pm$ SD) based on SEM



**Figure 1.** Scanning electron microscope images of bordered pit membranes in conifer tracheids showing the ultrastructure of the torus. (a) *Pinus radiata*, aspirated pit membrane, the outline of the inner pit aperture, which has a smaller diameter than the torus, can be seen through the torus, distinct warts occur on the surface of the pit border, scale bar = 5  $\mu$ m; (b) *Pinus pinaster*, arrowheads indicate several pores in the torus, scale bar = 2  $\mu$ m; (c) *Cephalotaxus harringtonii*, detail of torus with minute pores, scale bar = 2  $\mu$ m; (d) *Picea mariana*, detail of torus with shallow (arrowheads) and deep pores, scale bar = 500 nm; (e) *Torreya californica*, detail of torus and margo, the pores occurring on the torus-margo border are interpreted as margo pores and not as plasmodesmal pores, scale bar = 500 nm; (f) *Pinus wallichiana*, torus detail of oven dried (100 °C) sample, some of the pores appear superficial and partly filled with material (arrowheads), scale bar = 2  $\mu$ m; (g) *P. wallichiana*, sample after critical point drying and treatment with 100% ethanol, which resulted in an increased pore size and reduced microfibril network of the margo, scale bar = 2.5  $\mu$ m; (h) *Sequoia sempervirens*, aspirated pit membrane with punctured torus, scale bar = 5  $\mu$ m; (i) *Sequoiadendron giganteum*, overview of a punctured torus, scale bar = 5  $\mu$ m; (j) *S. giganteum*, detail of pores showing different levels of penetration into the torus, scale bar = 1  $\mu$ m.



**Figure 2.** Transmission electron microscope images of bordered pit membranes in conifer tracheids showing details of the central torus and plasmodesmatal channels. (a) *Pinus hartwegii*, pit membrane showing a non-punctured, electron dense torus, thin margo and electron dense pit membrane annulus near the pit border, scale bar = 5  $\mu\text{m}$ ; (b) *Metasequoia glyptostroboides*, thin pit membrane consisting of a margo and indistinct, thin torus, scale bar = 5  $\mu\text{m}$ ; (c) *Larix decidua*, torus with minute pores, scale bar = 5  $\mu\text{m}$ ; (d) *Pinus pinaster*, detail of torus with several plasmodesmatal channels, scale bar = 2  $\mu\text{m}$ ; (e) *P. hartwegii*, two distinct plasmodesmatal channels seemingly terminating at the middle lamella, a third, indistinct pore can be seen on the right, scale bar = 1  $\mu\text{m}$ ; (f) *P. hartwegii*, pores piercing the entire torus and sharing a single median cavity, scale bar = 1  $\mu\text{m}$ ; (g) *P. hartwegii*, various plasmodesmatal pores with a typically branched pattern share a single median cavity and give the torus a sieve-like, permeable appearance, scale bar = 500 nm.

(Supporting Information Table S1). Treatment with alcohol and other dissolving solutions had a clear effect on the size of the pores in *P. wallichiana* (Fig. 1f,g). The average pore size in this species ( $61 \text{ nm} \pm 27$ ) increased substantially after the following treatments: 85 ( $\pm 42$ ) nm (formalin-acetic-alcohol treatment), 135 ( $\pm 57$ ) nm (100% ethanol in combination with critical point drying; Fig. 1g), 116 ( $\pm 42$ ) nm (glacial acetic acid) and 100 ( $\pm 17$ ) nm (oven drying at 100 °C; Fig. 1f). However, no significant difference was found with respect to the pore size in *P. radiata* when comparing no alcohol treatment with 5 min of ethanol treatment. The only morphological difference was that pores in SEM material not treated with alcohol showed a circular depression with a slightly raised area in the centre, which was not seen after alcohol treatment (images not shown).

No difference was found in the occurrence of punctured tori between ray tracheid to longitudinal tracheid pit pairs and longitudinal tracheid bordered pit pairs. Overall, the frequency of the pores was low and rarely exceeded more than 10% of the pits. The highest frequencies were counted in *P. hartwegii*, in which tori with pores were found in 31% of the pits observed. The shape of the pores was usually round. Some pores appeared superficial and partly filled with material, while others penetrated more deeply into the torus (Fig. 1d,f,j). They were distributed across the entire torus, with similar frequency in the centre and peripheral areas of the torus. However, in most cases the pores were characteristically grouped in small pairs of two or more (Fig. 1b-j).

In some species, solitary pores near the edge of the torus as seen with SEM were not interpreted as plasmodesmatal

pores because of their similarity in size and morphology to margo pores (Fig. 1e). The largest margo pores varied from 330 to 1060 nm. Margo pores near the periphery of the torus were especially common in species with torus extensions (*Cupressus dupreziana*, *Cupressus torulosa*, *Sequoia sempervirens*), and in species with a relatively thin torus (*Metasequoia glyptostroboides*, *Thujopsis dolabrata* and *Torreya grandis*; Fig. 2b). Minute pores (generally  $< 50$  nm) could also be seen using SEM and TEM in the central part of the torus in the latter three species, which showed an average torus thickness around 100 nm as compared with a mean torus thickness of 503 nm for species with punctured tori (Fig. 5). Not only the size of the torus pores in *M. glyptostroboides*, *T. dolabrata* and *T. grandis*, but also their non-grouped distribution suggested that these pores did not represent plasmodesmatal pores, but were due to the thin torus nature.

TEM observations demonstrated the occurrence of punctured tori in six species, in which this feature was also seen with SEM (Fig. 2c-g). However, no pores could be detected with TEM in *Cephalotaxus harringtonia*, *Chamaecyparis nootkatensis*, *Picea glauca*, *P. wallichiana*, *P. radiata* and *S. sempervirens*, which showed pores based on SEM (Fig. 1c,f,g). TEM measurements of the pore size were larger than those based on SEM, but within the same order of magnitude. The average TEM pore size was  $64 (\pm 10)$  nm ( $\pm \text{SD}$ ), and the largest pore measured based on TEM was 150 nm in *Larix decidua*. Most pores could not be seen to extend through the complete torus, but were limited to one torus pad and gave the impression of terminating in a cavity near the middle lamella (Fig. 2c-e). However, pores were

occasionally seen to traverse the entire torus (Fig. 2f,g), and TEM confirmed that the channels were usually arranged in a branched pattern, with several pores connected laterally to each other via an extensive median cavity at the level of the middle lamella (Fig. 2f,g). The branched channels occasionally resulted in a sieve-like appearance of the torus (Fig. 2g).

### Xylem vulnerability to cavitation

$P_{50}$  values varied from  $-15.79$  to  $-2.39$  MPa among the species studied (Table 1). There was a significant difference ( $P = 0.01$ ) in vulnerability to cavitation ( $P_{50}$ ) between species with and without punctured tori: species with punctured tori were less cavitation resistant than species with no plasmodesmatal pores associated with their tori, with average  $P_{50}$  values of  $-4.3$  and  $-7.2$  MPa, respectively (Fig. 3). Similarly, we found that species with punctured tori have a greater  $S_{50}$  compared with species without punctured tori (Supporting Information Figure S1;  $P < 0.0001$ ), and that this trend remained significant with control for taxonomy ( $P = 0.024$ ). However, there was no statistical significance when considering the taxonomic influence on the difference in  $P_{50}$  between species with and without punctured tori ( $P = 0.21$ ).

The air-seeding pressures estimated using the largest margo pores varied from  $0.27$  to  $0.88$  MPa and were 10 times lower in absolute value than the measured air-seeding pressure ( $P_{50}$ ). By contrast, the air-seeding pressures based on the SEM size of plasmodesmatal pores in tori were of

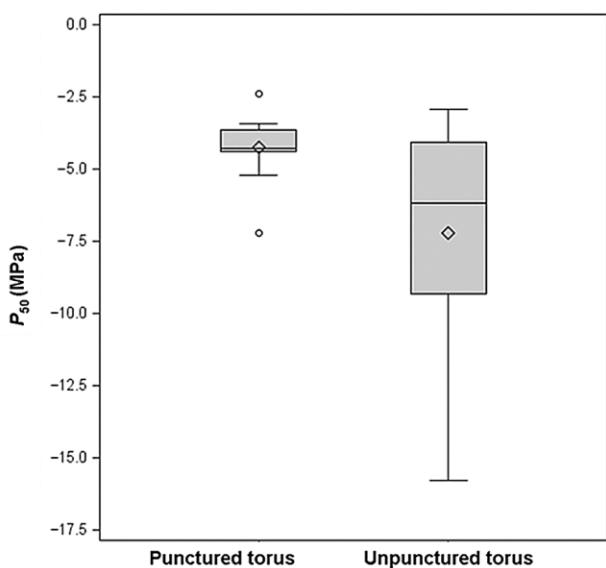
the same order of magnitude than the measured air-seeding pressures, varying from  $2.02$  to  $4.16$  MPa. However, there were weak correlations between  $P_{50}$  values derived from vulnerability curves and the theoretical air-seeding pressures based on the maximum and average SEM pore sizes, which corresponded to the torus capillary-seeding pressures (Fig. 4a). Torus capillary-seeding pressures as based on the average SEM pore sizes were lower in absolute value than the  $P_{50}$  values in all species. There was a significant correlation between the  $P_{12}$  values and the torus capillary-seeding pressure based on the maximum SEM pore size (Fig. 4b). Weak correlations were found when plotting  $P_{50}$  versus air-seeding based on average SEM pore size ( $P = 0.064$ ; Fig. 4a), and  $P_{12}$  values versus air-seeding pressures derived from average SEM pore sizes ( $P = 0.074$ ; Fig. 4b).

A strong allometry was found between  $D_m$ ,  $D_t$  and  $D_a$  for species with punctured tori (Supporting Information Figure S2) with high coefficients of determination (Pearson correlation coefficients  $R = 0.93$  for  $D_m$  versus  $D_t$ ;  $R = 0.88$  for  $D_m$  versus  $D_a$ ;  $R = 0.87$  for  $D_t$  versus  $D_a$ ) and high significance ( $P < 0.0001$ ). The slope of the regression lines was more or less similar for  $D_m$  versus  $D_t$  and  $D_t$  versus  $D_a$  (0.55 and 0.5, respectively), but lower for  $D_m$  versus  $D_a$  (0.30). Across the species with punctured tori,  $D_m$ ,  $D_t$  and  $D_a$  decreased with increasing resistance to cavitation. However, only  $D_t$  showed a significant correlation with  $P_{50}$  (Pearson correlation = 0.63,  $P = 0.02$ ).

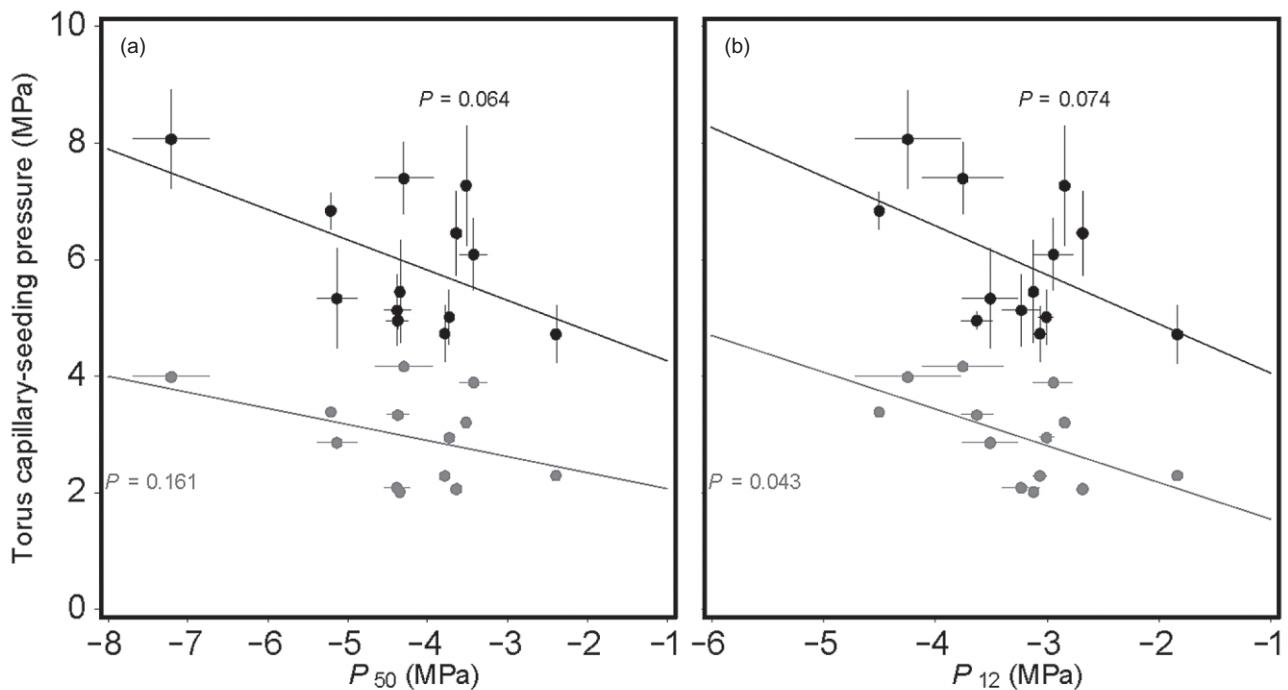
Pit chamber depth ( $D_p$ ), margo thickness ( $M_t$ ) and torus thickness ( $T_t$ ) showed no correlation with  $P_{50}$ . Interestingly, torus thickness ( $T_t$ ) was positively correlated with the maximum diameter of plasmodesmatal pores, but not with the average pore diameter based on SEM (Fig. 5).  $P_{50}$  values were not correlated with valve effect ( $V_{ef}$ ) and torus overlap ( $O$ ), but weakly correlated with margo flexibility ( $F$ ) (Fig. 6).

### DISCUSSION

Our results suggest that torus capillary-seeding is a likely hypothesis in some conifers. Indeed, the size of the torus pores corresponds to the pressure inducing cavitation event and particularly to the xylem air-entry point ( $P_{12}$ , Fig. 4b): the larger the pore diameter, the less cavitation resistant the species (Jarreau, Ewers & Davis 1995; Choat *et al.* 2008). Because air-seeding will always occur at the largest pore first, maximum pore sizes should in theory correlate more strongly with air-seeding thresholds than average values (Choat *et al.* 2003; Jansen *et al.* 2009). It is surprising that in our dataset no significant correlations are found between cavitation resistance with torus overlap, torus thickness, and the torus to aperture ratio, although measurements obtained for pit membrane diameter ( $D_m$ ), aperture diameter ( $D_a$ ) and especially torus diameter ( $D_t$ ) are consistent with previous hypotheses explaining cavitation resistance in conifers (Hacke & Jansen 2009; Delzon *et al.* 2010; Pittermann *et al.* 2010). This finding suggests that the pores associated with tori are likely to explain variation in cavitation



**Figure 3.** Box plot illustrating a significant difference ( $P = 0.01$ ) in vulnerability to xylem cavitation ( $P_{50}$ , i.e. the pressure required to induce 50% loss of hydraulic conductance) between species with punctured tori ( $n = 13$ ) and non-punctured tori ( $n = 20$ ). This trend is not significant ( $P = 0.21$ ) when including taxonomy based on a mixed model (see Materials and methods for details).



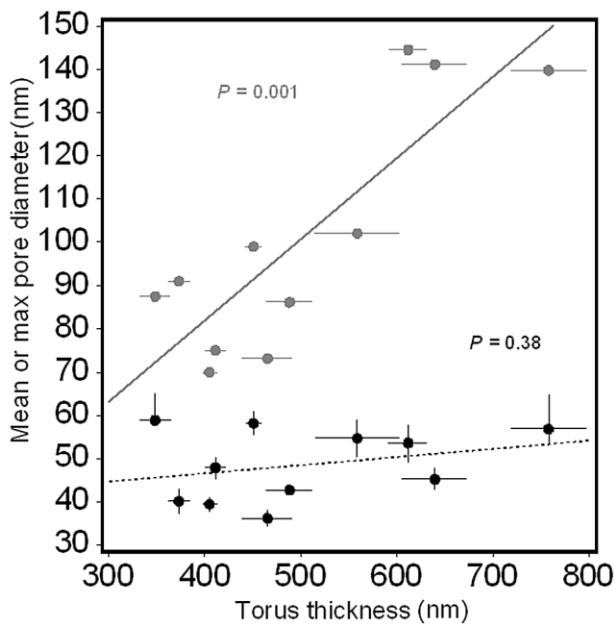
**Figure 4.** Xylem vulnerability to cavitation quantified as (a)  $P_{50}$  and (b)  $P_{12}$  (i.e. the pressure corresponding to 50 and 12% loss of hydraulic conductance, respectively) versus the torus capillary-seeding pressure (MPa). The latter was calculated based on the average (black circles) and maximum (grey circles) scanning electron microscopy (SEM) pore size ( $n \geq 25$ ) for 13 conifer species with punctured tori. Data represent average values per species  $\pm$  SE. A significant relationship was found between  $P_{12}$  values and the torus capillary-seeding pressures based on the maximum pore size, while non-significant correlations were found when analysing  $P_{50}$  values and torus capillary-seeding pressures based on the average and maximum pore size.

resistance equally as well as other pit morphological features.

Correlations between theoretical and measured air-seeding pressures among the 13 species with punctured tori are weak (Fig. 4) and absolute pore diameter measurements based on SEM should be interpreted with caution for various reasons. At first, only pores that traverse the torus are potential places for air-seeding. Although superficial pores can be distinguished from deeper ones in most cases (Fig. 1d,j), SEM does not allow the distinction between pores that completely pierce the torus from those that are limited to one torus pad. Our TEM observations illustrate that at least a few pores in each species with punctured tori completely traverse the torus (Fig. 2f,g). Careful TEM observation of serial sections would be most useful to quantify the number of pores running from one end of the torus to the other. Secondly, the diameter of the pore measured on the outermost surface of the torus may not correspond to the minimum diameter of the total channel, which determines at what pressure difference the air-water interface is pulled through the pore (Sperry & Tyree 1988; Sperry *et al.* 1996). Estimating the diameter of a pore at nanometer scale is not always free from bias, because the exact outline of the pore may not be clearly visible, even when using high magnifications and optimal contrast conditions with a cold-field emission SEM. Furthermore, the thickness of the coating layer (ca. 10 nm) could have an effect on the actual pore size

in pit membranes (Jansen *et al.* 2008). Finally, pore size measurements based on SEM have been shown to offer relative estimates of air-seeding thresholds (Jansen *et al.* 2009) and should be complemented with other techniques such as air injection or particle perfusion experiments (Choat *et al.* 2004, 2005).

The plasmodesmatal nature of the pores can be confirmed based on two arguments: (1) the average pore size corresponds with the ca. 50 nm diameter of plasmodesmata (Murmanis & Sachs 1969; Roberts 2005; Bell & Oparka 2011); and (2) their grouped distribution and branched pattern reflect the characteristically uneven and branched arrangement of secondary plasmodesmata (Rabaey *et al.* 2008). Variation in average pore size between SEM and TEM (51 and 64 nm, respectively) is likely due to differences in sample preparation and observation. While detailed surface views of pores are possible with a field-emission SEM, ultra-thin sections prepared for TEM may show pores in an oblique way with more indistinct contours than SEM. Therefore, we believe that pore size measurements based on SEM are more accurate than TEM. The increase in pore size in *P. wallichiana* after treatment with various chemicals corresponds with earlier observations by Fujikawa & Ishida (1972). As illustrated in Fig. 5, the maximum pore diameter correlates positively with the torus thickness, which is contradictory to earlier findings in angiosperms (Jansen *et al.* 2009): larger pores are more



**Figure 5.** The ratio torus thickness to plasmodesmatal pore showed a significant correlation for the maximum pore diameter, but not for the average pore diameter values for 11 species with punctured tori. Torus thickness was based on transmission electron microscopy (TEM) observations, while dimensions of pores in tori were measured using scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Data represent average values per species  $\pm$  SE.

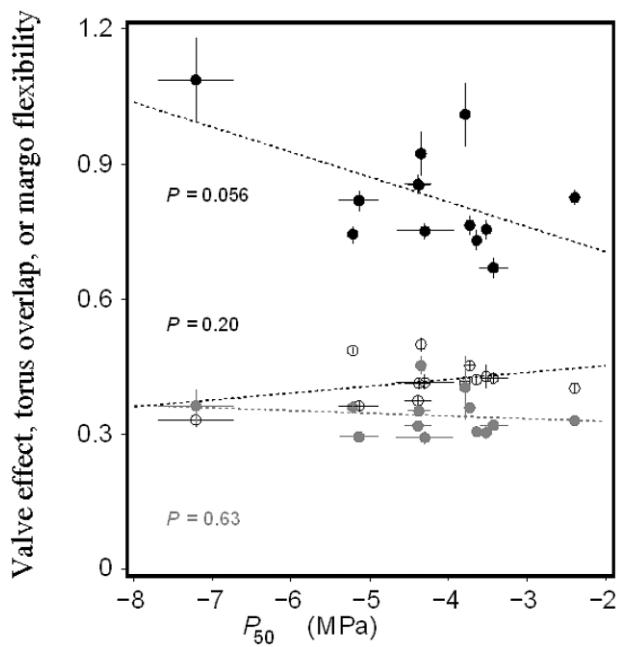
likely to occur in thin, flimsy pit membranes than in thick and solid pit membranes.

Given the plasmodesmatal origin of the pores associated with tori, it is not surprising that there is a relatively constant average pore size. Therefore, we believe that it is unlikely that plasmodesmatal pores with actual pore sizes below 30 nm (corresponding to air-seeding below 10 MPa) occur. Thus, rather limited variation in  $P_{50}$  values would be found among species with punctured tori, but more variation in cavitation resistance and more negative  $P_{50}$  values among species without punctured tori. This is supported by the finding that  $P_{50}$  values are more variable and higher in absolute value in species without punctured tori compared with species with punctured tori (Fig. 3). Likewise, the distribution of punctured tori may explain why a large and ecologically diverse genus such as *Pinus* shows relatively little variation with respect to  $P_{50}$  values, which generally ranges from -2.5 to -4.5 MPa, although more negative  $P_{50}$  values have been recorded in few species (Sperry & Tyree 1990; Piñol & Sala 2000; Hacke *et al.* 2004; Martínez-Vilalta, Sala & Piñol 2004; Martínez-Vilalta *et al.* 2009; Lamy *et al.* 2011). As there seems to be no true selective advantage of having punctured tori, one may also speculate that this phenomenon is tolerated in some conifer species with a particular life history. Incomplete plasmodesmatal sealing of the torus could be acceptable for instance in fast-growing conifers such as *Sequoia*, *Sequoiadendron* and various Pinaceae. Further research is clearly needed to consider

possible trade-offs between species with punctured tori and habitat, growth rate and cavitation resistance to drought.

The most likely explanation why pores could not be detected with TEM in five species in which punctured tori were seen with SEM, is that punctured tori are only occasionally present and SEM allows the observation of a higher number of tori than TEM. In addition, TEM sections represent only small fragments of the entire torus, and even if pores would be present, it is possible that they cannot be seen in the ultra-thin sections either because of their arrangement in small groups, or because the pores are narrower than the 60–90 nm thickness of TEM sections. The latter may also explain why most pores seen in TEM sections are not completely open and free from matrix material (Fig. 2e–g). Again, careful examination of serial sections might be required to detect plasmodesmatal pores with TEM.

Based on the limited number of 33 species studied, punctured tori appear to be relatively common across conifer taxa and are not limited to particular taxonomic families or genera. It is possible that the occasional retention of plasmodesmatal pores in some conifer taxa reflects differences in the chemical composition of conifer tori. As far as we know, however, gymnosperm tori show an overall similarity in chemical composition and mainly consist of pectins (Bauch & Berndt 1973; Imamura, Harada & Saiki 1974; Hafrén, Daniel & Westmark 2000; Putoczki *et al.* 2008; Kim *et al.* 2011). Alternatively, the



**Figure 6.** No significant relationship was found between  $P_{50}$  versus valve effect ( $V_{ef}$ , grey symbols) sensu Delzon *et al.* (2010), torus overlap ( $O$ , blank circles), and margo flexibility ( $F$ , black dots) for 13 species with punctured tori. Data represent average values per species  $\pm$  SE. Furthermore, no significant relationship was found between  $P_{50}$  and torus overlap sensu Hacke *et al.* (2004) ( $P = 0.12$ ; data not shown).

presence or absence of plasmodesmatal pores could be explained by differences in torus development among conifers. Plasmodesmata seem very common in developing pit membranes of conifer tracheids (Murmanis & Sachs 1969; Thomas 1969; Fengel 1972; Fujikawa & Ishida 1972; Dute 1994; Dute *et al.* 2008), although it is unclear whether their frequency in developing tori corresponds with similar frequencies of punctured tori in mature pit membranes. While secondary plasmodesmata associated with tori appear during the final stages of cell differentiation in *A. firma* (Pinaceae) and *M. glyptostroboides* (Cupressaceae), they are only retained in mature pit membranes of *A. firma*. In contrast, autolytic enzymes remove matrix from the torus in *M. glyptostroboides*, which results in a loss of the plasmodesmatal channels and rearrangement of microfibrils (Dute 1994; Dute *et al.* 2008). Whether or not plasmodesmatal openings remain present in the fully developed torus after autolysis may thus depend on the degree and conditions of the autolysis. Clearly, more developmental research will be needed to test this idea.

In conclusion, this study suggests that the torus in conifer pit membranes is not always as airtight as previously thought. While air-seeding through pores in the torus does not represent the only and universal mechanism for drought-induced cavitation in conifers, there is preliminary evidence indicating that plasmodesmatal pores could contribute to air-seeding, supporting the torus capillary-seeding hypothesis. In species without punctured tori, cavitation might occur between the torus and the outer pit chamber wall when the torus is not tightly sealed against the pit border (seal capillary-seeding). This finding will hopefully encourage further work on the structural basis behind cavitation resistance in woody plants, which will also be useful for untangling the genetic mechanisms of drought resistance in plants.

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## SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:

**Figure S1.** Box plot illustrating a significant difference ( $P < 0.0001$ ) in  $S_{50}$  between species with punctured tori ( $n = 13$ ) and non-punctured tori ( $n = 20$ ). This difference remained significant ( $P = 0.024$ ) when controlling for taxonomy based on a mixed model (see Material and methods for details).

**Figure S2.** Scaling of pit aperture diameter ( $D_a$ ) versus pit membrane diameter ( $D_m$ , grey dots), and  $D_a$  versus torus diameter ( $D_t$ , black dots) as based on average values ( $\pm SD$ ) for 13 species with punctured tori. All linear regressions were highly significant. These relationships remain significant ( $P < 0.0001$ ) when controlling for taxonomy.

**Table S1.** List of pit morphological dimensions for 13 conifer species with punctured tori. Average and maximum pore sizes per species were based on SEM ( $n \geq 25$ ) and TEM ( $n \geq 5$ ) measurements.  $D_m$ ,  $D_t$  and  $D_a$  were measured on a minimum of 15 aspirated pit membranes in order to obtain these parameters from the same pit. The TEM characters  $T_t$  and  $D_p$  were averaged for a minimum of 10 measurements. Av = average; Max = maximum;  $D_m$  = pit membrane diameter;  $D_t$  = torus diameter;  $D_a$  = aperture diameter;  $T_t$  = torus thickness;  $D_p$  = depth of the pit chamber; / = no pores were detected with TEM; X = species not studied with TEM.

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# Uniform Selection as a Primary Force Reducing Population Genetic Differentiation of Cavitation Resistance across a Species Range

Jean-Baptiste Lamy<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Laurent Bouffier<sup>1,4</sup>, Régis Burlett<sup>1,2</sup>, Christophe Plomion<sup>1,2</sup>, Hervé Cochard<sup>3</sup>, Sylvain Delzon<sup>1,2\*</sup>

**1** INRA, UMR 1202 BIOGECO, F-33610 Cestas, France, **2** Université de Bordeaux, UMR 1202 BIOGECO, F-33610 Cestas, France, **3** INRA, UMR 547 PIAF, University of Blaise Pascal, F-63100 Clermont-Ferrand, France, **4** FCBA, Station Sud-Ouest, Domaine de Sivaillan, F-33480 Moulis en Médoc, France

## Abstract

**Background:** Cavitation resistance to water stress-induced embolism determines plant survival during drought. This adaptive trait has been described as highly variable in a wide range of tree species, but little is known about the extent of genetic and phenotypic variability within species. This information is essential to our understanding of the evolutionary forces that have shaped this trait, and for evaluation of its inclusion in breeding programs.

**Methodology:** We assessed cavitation resistance ( $P_{50}$ ), growth and carbon isotope composition in six *Pinus pinaster* populations in a provenance and progeny trial. We estimated the heritability of cavitation resistance and compared the distribution of neutral markers ( $F_{ST}$ ) and quantitative genetic differentiation ( $Q_{ST}$ ), for retrospective identification of the evolutionary forces acting on these traits.

**Results/Discussion:** In contrast to growth and carbon isotope composition, no population differentiation was found for cavitation resistance. Heritability was higher than for the other traits, with a low additive genetic variance ( $h^2_{ns} = 0.43 \pm 0.18$ ,  $CV_A = 4.4\%$ ).  $Q_{ST}$  was significantly lower than  $F_{ST}$ , indicating uniform selection for  $P_{50}$ , rather than genetic drift. Putative mechanisms underlying  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  are discussed.

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\* E-mail: sylvain.delzon@u-bordeaux1.fr

## Introduction

The climatic niches of forest tree species are moving faster than the maximum rate of migration, measured by palynology or gene flow analysis, as a direct consequence of the current increase in temperatures due to global warming [1,2]. Forest tree populations are thus facing new selection pressures and are unable to track their bioclimatic envelope [3] over the time scale at which these changes are occurring. The local adaptation and survival of tree populations in a rapidly changing environment with warmer temperatures and more frequent water shortage is a major concern in efforts to ensure the sustainability of forest ecosystem services. In addition to this trend, climate experts are predicting more extreme climatic events, such as periods of severe drought [4], which will increase mortality rates [5,6,7]. These effects on tree mortality highlight the way in which the impact of climate change may depend on the changes associated with extreme events rather than trends [8]. In this context, there is a need to investigate relevant drought tolerance-related traits, to quantify both genetic variation and phenotypic plasticity, which together define the capacity of tree populations to adapt.

From a physiological point of view cavitation resistance is an important trait to estimate drought tolerance. Indeed, dysfunctions of the vascular system of the tree, such as xylem embolism due to cavitation events, is likely to be a key factor governing the mortality of these long-lived organisms [9]. When a cavity is formed in the xylem sap under tension (negative pressure), it may spread in the vascular system through intervessel or intertracheid pits, thus compromising the capacity of the plant to transport water [10].

A direct causal link between survival (fitness) and cavitation resistance during extreme drought has been highlighted, based on two lines of evidence suggesting that cavitation resistance is an important adaptive trait. Firstly, assessments of the correlation between cavitation resistance and lethal water potential [11,12] demonstrated a highly significant linear relationship ( $r^2 = 0.9$ ) between these two traits. Secondly, global surveys of cavitation resistance in woody species showed that xeric species are more resistant to embolism than hydric species [13,14,15]. These interspecific studies, with adaptive inferences concerning cavitation resistance being rendered robust by the incorporation of phylogenetic information [15,16,17], concluded that cavitation



resistance-related traits are under natural selection [15,18]. To validate this evolutionary pattern, a population-level perspective is appropriate, because variation observed across species cannot be assumed to reflect patterns within species.

At the intraspecific level, cavitation resistance can be analyzed by provenance or progeny trials. The few studies carried out to date (reviewed in Table S1) have included only small numbers of individuals (<9) and populations (<5), and it has therefore not been possible to estimate environmental and genetic effects on phenotypic variation accurately. We therefore still know little about the genetic determinism and micro-evolutionary pattern of this hydraulic trait, but such information is absolutely necessary if this trait is to be incorporated into breeding programs and for a more fundamental understanding of the evolutionary basis of tolerance to severe drought.

The aim of this study was to provide the first estimates of heritability, additive variance and population differentiation for cavitation resistance-related traits. We carried out a case study of maritime pine (*Pinus pinaster* Ait.), a species with a fragmented distribution in the western part of the Mediterranean region. The scattered distribution of this species may have prevented or limited gene flow between different groups of populations, promoting high levels of genetic divergence between ecotypes due to genetic drift [19] and/or natural selection (Quezel and Barbero 1998 in [20]). Here, we took advantage of a new technology (high-throughput phenotyping platform for cavitation resistance) to screen for the first time a large number of genotypes from six ecotypes to test the hypothesis that *Pinus pinaster* populations have been subjected to diversifying selection for cavitation resistance. More specifically, this experiment aimed to address the following questions: what is the level intraspecific variation and heritability for cavitation resistance? Can we separate the relative roles of drift and selection in population differentiation for this trait?

## Methods

### Provenance trial and climatic data

We carried out a provenance-progeny trial, in which young trees (six-year-old plants) were planted in December 2003 at the INRA forestry station in the Aquitaine Region (44°44'N, 00°46'W). The mean annual temperature at this site is 13.2°C and mean annual rainfall is 836 mm (1984–2006). The soil is a sandy podzol with a water table rising to about 0.5 m below the surface in winter and descending to a depth of 2 m in late summer. Seedlings were grown in the nursery from open-pollinated seeds collected from 24 natural populations (or ecotypes) in France, Spain, Morocco and Tunisia, to cover the fragmented distribution of *Pinus pinaster*. Each population was represented by 20 to 30 half-sib families. The trial was arranged in a randomized block design (15 blocks) with single-tree plots. Each block contained at least one tree from each half-sib family. There were 600 seedlings per block, giving 9,000 seedlings for the entire experiment.

### Choice of populations

The assessment of cavitation resistance is a intensively time-consuming process [21]. We therefore designed a procedure for the selection of a subset of populations representing all the variability of climatic envelope of maritime pine. For a total of 754 grid points covering the entire natural range of the species [22], we first extracted climatic data from the CRU CL 2.0 10' global dataset for the period 1961–1990 [23,24,25]. These data included monthly average precipitation, mean, minimum and maximum temperature, diurnal temperature range, water vapor

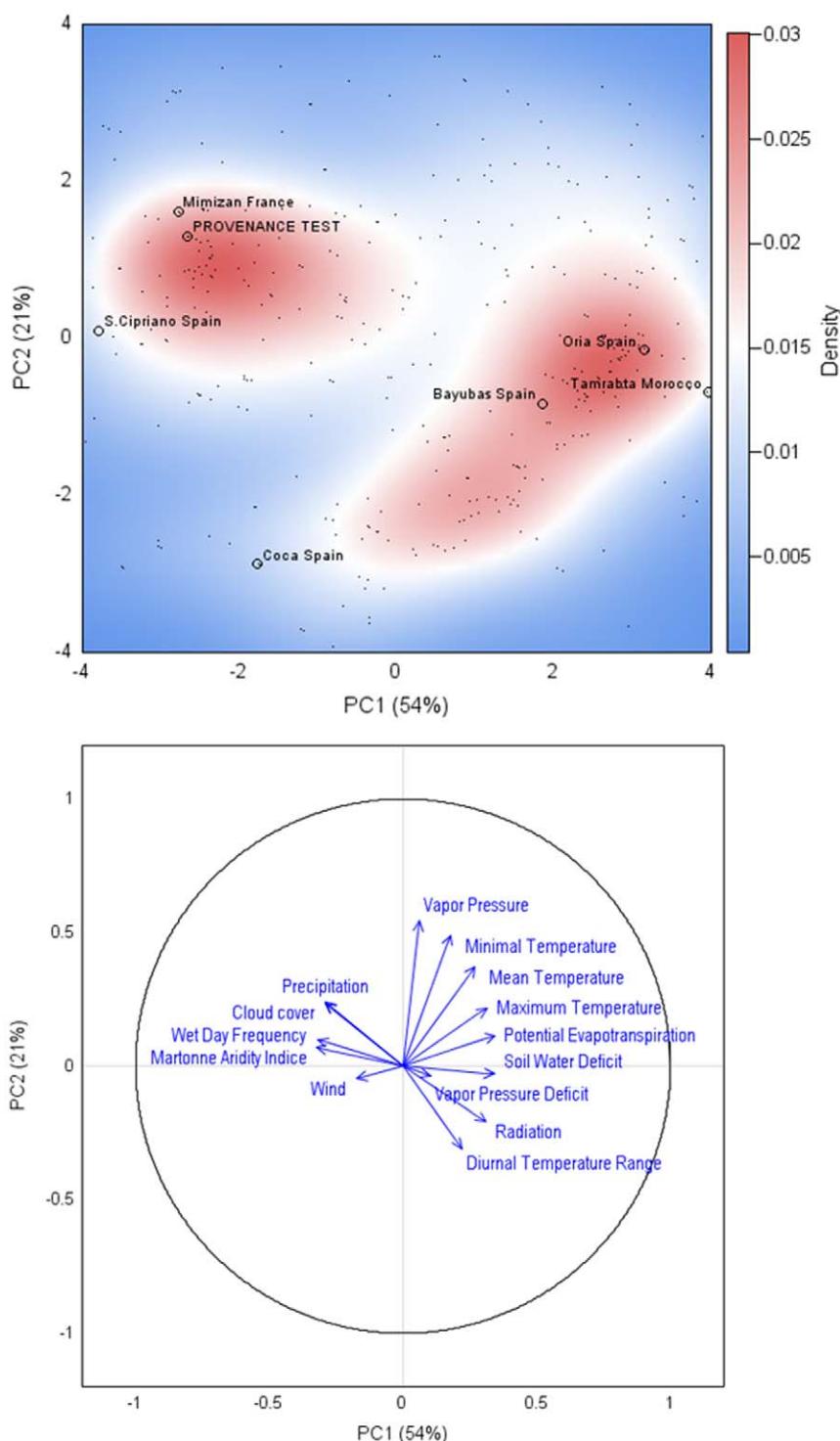
pressure, cloud cover, wet day frequency, ground frost frequency, radiation, wind, Martonne index, Turc's potential evapotranspiration and soil water deficit. We also derived the vapor pressure deficit from these parameters. Principal component analysis (PCA) was then used to reduce the number of dimensions for the whole set of climate variables (Figure 1). The data were centered and scaled before PCA. The 14 populations were finally placed on the main plane of the PCA (accounting for 76% of the variation, Table S2) and six of these populations (Table 1) were selected as a representative subset of the climatic envelope covered by *Pinus pinaster* species. In each population, eight families (5 half-sibs/family/block) were randomly selected for further analysis.

### Sample preparation for the assessment of cavitation resistance

We collected branches, according to the sampling procedure described below, during winter 2009, before 10 am, to avoid native embolism. Needle water potential was lower than -1 MPa, far from the minimum needle water potential in summer (-2 MPa) of *Pinus pinaster* [26]. The branch sample corresponded to the 2007 and 2008 growth units on the 2007 whorl when possible, in order to measure on the same number of rings in each sample. Sampled branches were fully exposed to the sun, longer than 40 cm and with a diameter of 0.3 to 1 cm (<4 years of age). The current needles were removed and the branches were wrapped in wet paper towels and bagged upon collection to prevent dehydration. In the lab, samples were cut under water just before measurement to obtain 0.28 m segments (*i.e.*, much longer than the longest tracheid). Bark was removed from all segments before measurements.

### Assessment of cavitation resistance

Cavitation resistance was measured on 240 genotypes (6 populations \* 8 families \* 5 offsprings), with the Cavitron technique [21,27,28]. Centrifugal force was used to establish negative pressure in the xylem and to provoke water stress-induced cavitation, using a custom-built honeycomb rotor (Precis 2000, Bordeaux, France) mounted on a high-speed centrifuge (HS18, MSE Scientific, London, UK). This technique enables measurement of the hydraulic conductance of a branch under negative pressure. Xylem pressure ( $P_x$ ) was first set to a reference pressure (-0.5 MPa) and maximal conductance ( $k_{max}$ ) was determined by measuring the flux of a reference ionic solution (10 mmol dm<sup>-3</sup> KCl and dm<sup>-3</sup> mmol dm<sup>-3</sup> CaCl<sub>2</sub> in deionized water) through the sample. The centrifugation speed was then set to a higher value for 3 min to expose the sample at a more negative pressure. Conductance ( $k_i$ ) were measured 4 times for each step, and the average was used to compute percent of loss of xylem of conductance (PLC in %) following PLC = 100 (1 -  $k_i/k_{max}$ ). The procedure was repeated for at least eight pressure step with a -0.5 MPa step increment until PLC reached at least 90%. The percent loss of xylem conductance as a function of xylem pressure (MPa) represents the sample's vulnerability curve (Figure 2). Rotor velocity was monitored with a 10 rpm resolution electronic tachymeter (A2108-LSR232, Compact Inst, Bolton, UK) and xylem pressure was adjusted to about ±0.02 MPa. We used Cavi\_soft software (version1.5, University of Bordeaux) for conductance measurements and computation of all vulnerability curves (VCs). The 10,800 measurements of conductance were performed at the new high-throughput phenotyping platform for hydraulic traits (CavitPlace, University of Bordeaux, Talence, France).



**Figure 1. Principal component analysis (PCA) on the [763 population locations x 14 climatic variables] data matrix.** Upper panel: The contour plot represents the presence's probability (kernel density estimate) of *Pinus pinaster* population (small black dot) within the bioclimatic envelope representing by PC1 and PC2 axes, accounted for 54% and 21% of the variance, respectively. The studied populations and provenance test are indicated by black circles. PCA was performed with the variables indicated in the methods section. See Table S2, for additional information about the relative contribution of climatic variables to the axes. Lower panel: projection of 14 climatic variables on the subspace spanned by the first two eigenvectors (correlation circle).

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Based on a sensitivity analysis (data not shown) and graphical checking (Figure 2), we retained the reparameterized sigmoid function fitted to the conductance data ( $k_i$ ) (see [29] and [30] for an

exhaustive review) rather than the Weibull model, for determination of the pressure at which the sample lost 50% of its conductance ( $P_{50}$ ) and the slope of the curve at  $P_{50}$  ( $S_{50}$ ).

**Table 1.** Climatic data, location and elevation of the studied maritime pine populations.

Sampling location	Longitude (°)	Latitude (°)	n	Elevation (m)	P <sub>i</sub> (mm)	T <sub>m</sub> (°C)	VPD <sub>max</sub> (hPa)	ETP (mm)
Bayubas de Abajo (Central Spain)	-2.87	41.52	39	955	561	10.5	11.42	882.9
Coca (Central Spain)	-4.08	41.37	40	788	452	11.9	14.23	718.7
Mimizan (South-western France)	-1.30	44.13	40	37	1176	13.2	7.26	751.59
Oria (South-eastern Spain)	-2.62	37.87	40	1232	451	13.4	14.29	922.59
San Cipriano (Northern Spain)	-8.70	42.13	40	310	1625	13.8	8.54	721.91
Tamrabta (Southern Morocco)	-5.02	33.66	40	1760	550	15.1	18.56	976.54

n, number of sampled individuals for hydraulic measurements; P<sub>i</sub>, mean annual precipitation; T<sub>m</sub>, mean annual air temperature; VPD<sub>max</sub>, maximal of water vapor pressure deficit (in July for all the provenance); ETP, annual sum of potential evapotranspiration.

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$$k_i = k_{\max} \times \left\{ 1 - \left( 1 + \left( \frac{100}{X} - 1 \right) \times \exp \left( \frac{100 \times S_X \times (\text{Pressure} - P_X)}{X \times (X - 100)} \right) \right)^{-1} \right\} \quad (1)$$

where  $k_{\max}$  is the highest conductance measured for each sample (equivalent to  $k_{\text{sat}}$  in the original Ogle's model),  $k_i$  is the mean conductance at a given pressure concerned,  $X$  is the percentage loss of conductance of interest (in %),  $P_X$  (in MPa) is the pressure inducing  $X\%$  loss of conductance and  $S_X$  (in MPa.%<sup>-1</sup>) is the slope of the tangent at the  $P_X$  abscissa point on the curve. Analysis has been performed for pressures and slopes corresponding to  $X=12, 50$  and  $88\%$  loss of conductivity ( $P_{12}, P_{50}, P_{88}, S_{12}, S_{50}$  and  $S_{88}$  respectively).

### Carbon isotope ratio and growth measurement

Carbon isotope ratio ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in ‰) was obtained as previously described [32,33]. Needles of the growth unit used for cavitation analysis were harvested and 20 needles were sampled at random. The needles were dried and ground to a powder and 3 mg sample was analyzed with an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (FISONS Isochrom, Manchester, UK) at INRA facility in Reims (France). Total height was measured at the ages of two (2004) and three (2005) years, on the same six populations and eight families, for all 15 blocks. The annual increase in height ( $\Delta_h$ ) was calculated as the difference between these two measurements (in 2004 and 2005).

### Quantitative genetic analysis

Genetic analysis was conducted with the following mixed model:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{Z}_1\mathbf{pop} + \mathbf{Z}_2\mathbf{f} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \quad (2)$$

where  $\mathbf{y}$  is the vector of observation for a trait,  $\mathbf{b}$  is the vector (number of block) of fixed block effects,  $\mathbf{pop}$  is the vector (number of populations) of random population effects,  $\mathbf{f}$  is the vector (number of mother trees) of the random genetic effects of mother tree within the population,  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$  is the vector (number of individuals) of residuals,  $\mathbf{X}$  is called the design matrix,  $\mathbf{Z}_1$  and  $\mathbf{Z}_2$  are the incidence matrices linking the observations to the effects. A variance was fitted for each random effect:  $\sigma_{\text{pop}}^2$  is the genetic variance between populations,  $\sigma_{f(\text{pop})}^2$  is the genetic variance between mother trees nested within a population and  $\sigma_{\varepsilon}^2$  is the residual variance.

Variance or covariance components were estimated by the restricted maximum likelihood (REML) method, assuming a normal distribution of the random effects. The significance of variance components were tested using log-likelihood ratio tests. We included population as a random effect to draw inference at species levels [34] and to obtain an unbiased estimate of heritability and genetic population differentiation [35]. The normality, identity and independency of residuals of each trait were graphically checked by plotting studentized marginal and conditional residuals (available on request), which confirmed that the data match with the assumption of mixed model. We estimated narrow-sense heritability as follows:

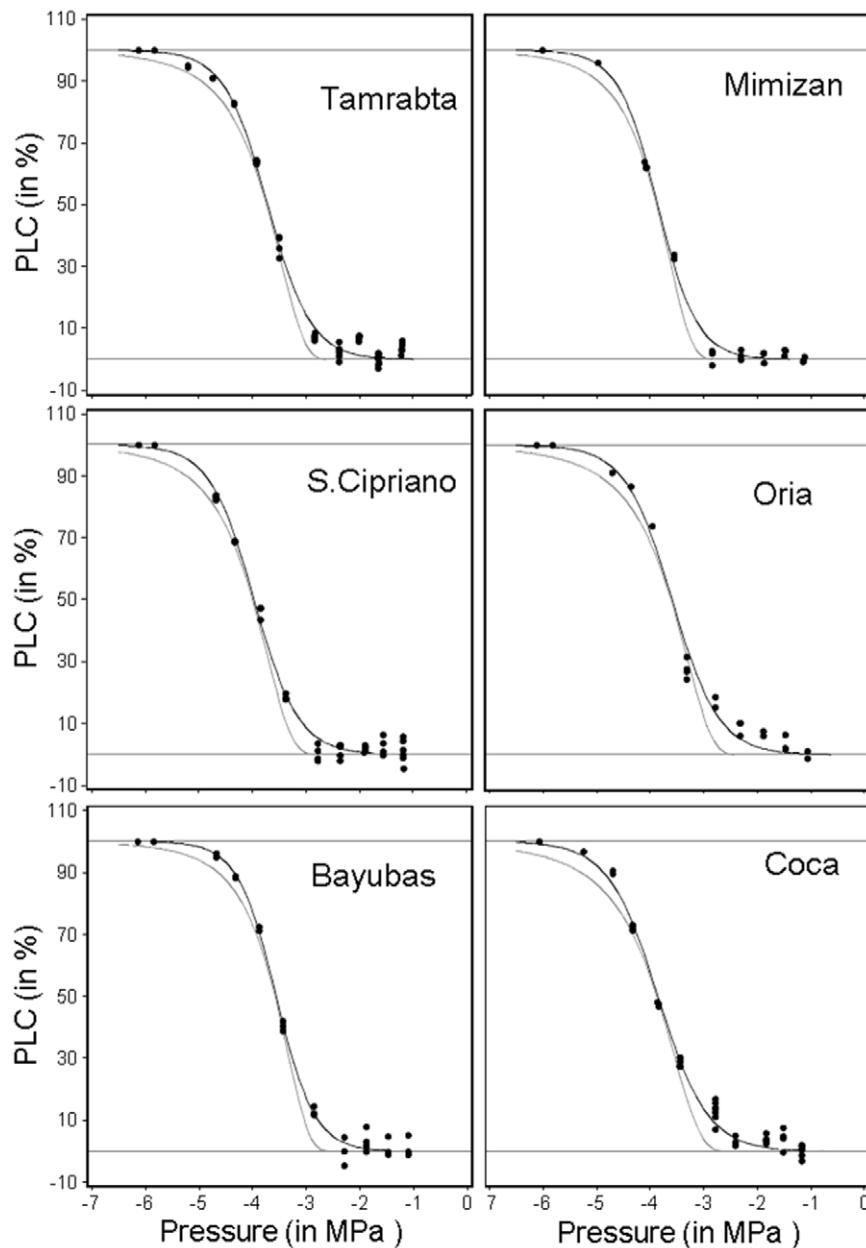
$$h_{ns}^2 = \frac{\left( 4\sigma_{f(\text{pop})}^2 \right)}{\left( \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2 + \sigma_{f(\text{pop})}^2 \right)} = \frac{\sigma_A^2}{\left( \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2 + \sigma_{f(\text{pop})}^2 \right)} \quad (3)$$

where  $\sigma_A^2$  is the within-population additive variance. In our study,  $\sigma_A^2$  was estimated by  $\sigma_A^2 = 4\sigma_{f(\text{pop})}^2$  as trees from the same family were presumed to be half-sibs (open-pollinated seeds). We did not include the population effect in the heritability calculation, because natural selection appeared to occur within each population [36]. The standard deviation of heritability was calculated with the equations of delta method (see Appendix in [37]).

Variance components were standardized by the trait mean [38] as follows,  $\text{CV}_X = 100\sqrt{(\text{Variance})/\text{Mean}_X}$  where X is the trait considered, and CV is the coefficient of variation. Each variance component is expressed with a CV ( $\text{CV}_A$ : additive coefficient of variation;  $\text{CV}_{BP}$  ( $\text{CV}_{BP} = \sigma_{f(\text{pop})}^2$ ): coefficient of variation between populations;  $\text{CV}_P$ : phenotypic coefficient of variation;  $\text{CV}_R$ : residual coefficient of variation). The variance of each component was extracted from the asymptotic covariance matrix. The significance of mean population difference was estimated using the same model (Eq. 2) with a proc GLM with a Student-Neuman-Keuls post hoc test.

### Correlation between traits

To facilitate interpretation of correlation, negative value of  $P_{50}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  were converted from negatives to positives. Genetic correlations between traits were evaluated by calculating Pearson's coefficient on the family Best Linear Unbiased Predictor estimation (BLUP, for additional information see [37] p745). BLUP estimation ensures that data are corrected for block effect. We will refer to these correlations as genetic correlations. For phenotypic correlation, all Pearson correlations were computed over the BLUP family plus BLUP population and the grand-mean.



**Figure 2. Vulnerability curves of one genotype for each studied population.** Black dot are the raw measure of percent of loss of conductance (PLC in %) along the negative pressure gradient (in MPa). The grey line is the Weibull reparameterized model and the black line is the sigmoid reparameterized Model.

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#### Estimation of population differentiation

The estimate of phenotypic differentiation between populations,  $Q_{ST}$  [39], was calculated as

$$Q_{ST} = \frac{\sigma_{pop}^2}{(\sigma_{pop}^2 + 2\sigma_A^2)} \quad (4)$$

Putatively neutral nuclear microsatellites (nuSSRs) were used to account for genetic differentiation ( $F_{ST}$ ) caused by demographic and other processes not related to selection (e.g., genetic drift resulting from geographic isolation or population expansion). Eight polymorphic nuSSRs were selected from those previously

developed by [40] (NZPR413, NZPR1078, ctg64), [41,42] (ctg275, FRPP91, FRPP94, ITPH4516) and [43] (A6F03). The markers were selected to be evenly distributed over the various linkage groups of the maritime pine genetic linkage map, with, at least, 4 alleles and multiplexing capacity. Genotyping was performed on genomic DNA isolated from the needles of 20 to 30 individuals from each of the six selected populations, as previously described [44,45]. We used  $F_{ST}$  (which is estimated from the allelic frequency) rather than  $R_{ST}$  (which also takes into account allele size) because genetic drift affects allele frequency but not mutation rate.  $F_{ST}$  values for each locus were estimated with Genepop [46] using the framework developed by [47] adapted for SSR data [48].

## $F_{ST}$ and $Q_{ST}$ comparison

For the comparison of  $Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$ , to disentangle the effects of genetic drift from those of selection, we develop a new test to avoid previously reported limitations [49,50,51,52] and allow to test  $Q_{ST} > F_{ST}$  and  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$ . We explicitly derive the  $F_{ST}$  and  $Q_{ST}$  distribution using in both case a parametric bootstrap as follows.

$$F_{ST}^* = F_{ST}^{boot} \times \frac{\chi^2_{loci-1}}{loci-1} \quad (5)$$

$F_{ST}^*$  is a parametric bootstrap replicate of  $F_{ST}$ . First, nuSSR loci were randomly resampled with replacement, to estimate the sampling variance of  $F_{ST}$ . Each of this  $F_{ST}$  replicate ( $F_{ST}^{boot}$ ) value was then multiplied by a random number drawn from the Lewontin-Krakauer distribution, a chi-squared distribution with a number of degree of freedom equal to the number of loci minus 1, divided by degree of freedom equal to the number of loci minus 1. This distribution has been shown to take into account most of the deviation from the neutral model due to demographic history [51,53]. We will refer to this distribution of  $F_{ST}^*$  as the “drift distribution”.

We estimated the sampling variance of  $Q_{ST}$  (Eq 4), by simulating the distribution of each variance component ( $\sigma_{pop}^2, \sigma_A^2$ ) with a parametric bootstrap [50], using the Satterthwaite approximation [54]. This distribution is highly conservative and takes into account the deviation from homogeneity of variance [54].

$$\sigma_i^* = \sigma_i \times \frac{\chi^2_{dfe_i}}{dfe_i} \quad (6)$$

$\sigma_i^*$  is a parametric bootstrap replicate of variance component of  $i$  factor. It is obtained by multiplying  $\sigma_i$  (observed variance component) by a chi-square distribution scaled with an “effective” degree of freedom ( $dfe_i$ ).

$$dfe_i = df_i - 1 \times \left[ 1 + \frac{2\sigma_i^2}{n\sigma_{i-1}^2} + \left( \frac{\sigma_i^2}{\sigma_{i-1}^2} \right)^2 \times \left( \frac{1}{n^2 + \frac{j-1}{n^3 j - n}} \right) \right]^{-1} \quad (7)$$

$dfe_i$  is the effective degree of freedom for the variance component of  $i$  factor.  $df_i$  is the observed degree of freedom.  $\sigma_i$  is observed variance component due to  $i$  factor.  $\sigma_{i-1}$  is observed variance component due to  $i-1$  factor (nested or residuals factor).  $n$  is the total size of the sample.  $j$  is the number of level of factor  $i$ . We calculate a  $Q_{ST}^*$  for each replicate from  $\sigma_{pop}^{2*}$  and  $\sigma_A^{2*}$  (Eq. 6). We will refer to this distribution of  $Q_{ST}^*$  as the “phenotypic distribution”, although  $Q_{ST}$  is a standardized measurement of additive genetic variance between populations.

Finally, we compared the  $F_{ST}^*$  and  $Q_{ST}^*$  distributions, using nonparametric and free distribution two-sample test for equality of the 2.5 and the 97.5 quantile (see [55] for theoretical proof) with a Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. We also applied a studentized bootstrap, which gave similar results but required more computation time [56,57,58]. All the analyses were performed with SAS version 9.2. Codes are available on request.

## Results

### 1. Between-population variation

For each population, vulnerability curves showed similar sigmoid shape with the air-entry ( $P_{12}$ ) around  $-3.25 \pm 0.006$  MPa (see

Figure 2). Linear curves were discarded from the analysis [59]. The between-population effect ( $V_{BP}$ ) was significant for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\Delta_h$  but not for  $P_{50}$  (Table 2). Similarly, no difference was found for the other cavitation resistance-related traits ( $S_{12}, S_{88}, S_{50}, P_{12}, P_{88}$ , data not shown). Cavitation resistance-related traits had much lower coefficients of variation than  $\Delta_h$  (Table 2). This was particularly true for the between-population coefficient of variation ( $CV_{BP} = 1\%$  and 18% for  $P_{50}$  and  $\Delta_h$ , respectively). It should be noted that CVs for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  are not comparable with those of other traits, because they are estimated relative to a standard [60] and are therefore independent of scale change but not of origin. The fixed block effect was significant for all the traits studied, indicating that some of the environmental variation was taken into account by the experimental design.

The populations from the wettest areas (Mimizan and San Cipriano) had the highest  $\Delta_h$  values (Figure 3a), whereas Tamraba population (from Morocco) presented the lowest value. Iberian populations from very different climatic areas (Coca, Bayubas, Oria) had intermediate values, with no detectable trend as a function of environmental aridity.

No significant difference between populations was detected for  $P_{50}$  (Figure 3b), although Tamraba surpassed the other populations and was the most cavitation-resistant population. Tamraba also presented the lowest  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  value (Figure 3c), demonstrating a significantly lower water-use efficiency than the other populations, all other populations presented similar  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values.

### 2. Within-population variation

Heritabilities and normalized measurements of trait dispersion (i.e. CVs) were estimated to evaluate the within-population additive variance, evolvability (through the analysis of  $CV_A$ ) and micro-environmental sensitivity (through the analysis of  $CV_R$ ) (Table 2). Narrow-sense heritability ( $h^2_{ns}$ ) for  $P_{50}$  was higher ( $0.44 \pm 0.18$ ) than those estimated for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ( $0.21 \pm 0.10$ ) and  $\Delta_h$  ( $0.35 \pm 0.06$ ), showing that cavitation resistance was genetically controlled, although the standard error was high, probably due to the small number of progenies per mother tree analyzed. The CVs of  $P_{50}$  and  $\Delta_h$  presented contrasting patterns, with a lower coefficient of additive variation for  $P_{50}$  ( $CV_A = 4.4\%$ ) than for  $\Delta_h$  ( $CV_A = 16.2\%$ ), suggesting limited evolvability of  $P_{50}$ .

### 3. Evolutionary forces driving population differentiation

$Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$  comparisons have three possible outcomes [39]: (i) if  $Q_{ST} > F_{ST}$ , the degree of differentiation for quantitative traits exceeds that attainable by genetic drift alone (ii) if  $Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$  are not significantly different, the observed degree of differentiation for quantitative traits could have been reached by genetic drift alone, and (iii) if  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  the observed degree of differentiation is lower than expected from genetic drift alone. Consistent with previous reports [50,61], we found that  $F_{ST}^*$  and  $Q_{ST}^*$  presented skewed distributions (Figure 4). Only  $\Delta_h$  and  $P_{50}$  had a  $Q_{ST}^*$  distribution different from the  $F_{ST}^*$  distribution ( $P=0.003$  and  $P<0.0001$  respectively). For,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , the difference between  $Q_{ST}^*$  and  $F_{ST}^*$  values was centered on 0 (see Figure 4c right panel), and it was therefore not possible to distinguish between drift and selection ( $P=0.88$ ). Conversely, differences between the  $Q_{ST}^*$  and  $F_{ST}^*$  distributions for  $P_{50}$  were centered on -0.18, suggesting that the studied populations were less differentiated than would be expected in the presence of drift alone (Figure 4b), which means that natural selection favored the same mean phenotype in different populations (consequence of uniform selection). For  $\Delta_h$ , the difference between  $Q_{ST}^*$  and  $F_{ST}^*$  distributions was centered around 0.27, suggesting that the studied populations displayed more differentiation than would be expected with drift alone

**Table 2.** Variance components ( $V_P$ ,  $V_{BP}$ ,  $V_A$ ,  $V_R$ ), narrow-sense heritability ( $h^2_{ns}$ ), coefficient of variation ( $CV_P$ ,  $CV_A$ ,  $CV_{BP}$ ,  $CV_R$ ) and population differentiation ( $Q_{ST}$ ) for all studied maritime pine populations.

Traits	$V_P$	$V_{BP}$	$V_A$	$V_R$	$h^2_{ns} \pm SE$	$CV_P$	$CV_A$	$CV_{BP}$	$CV_R$	$Q_{ST}$
$P_{50}$	0.067	0.002 ns	0.028*	0.058	0.438 ± 0.18	6.6	4.4	1	6.2	0.027
$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	0.284	0.030 **	0.059*	0.269	0.213 ± 0.10	1.7 <sup>a</sup>	0.8 <sup>a</sup>	0.6 <sup>a</sup>	1.7 <sup>a</sup>	0.197
$\Delta_h$	112.7	55.0 ***	40.96***	102.5	0.363 ± 0.06	26.9	16.2	18.8	25.7	0.188

$h^2_{ns}$  is the narrow-sense heritability and  $SE$  is the standard error of heritability.  $V_P$  is the phenotypic genetic variance,  $V_A$  is the additive genetic variance,  $V_{BP}$  is the between-population variance,  $V_R$  is the residual variance.  $CV_A$  is the variation coefficient of additive variance after adjustment for the block effect.  $CV_P$  is the variation coefficient of phenotypic variance after adjustment for the block effect.  $CV_R$  is the residual coefficient of variation.  $CV_{BP}$  is between-population coefficients of variation.  $Q_{ST}$  is the genetic quantitative variation between populations (Spitze, 1993). The significance of random effects is indicated after each variance estimator: ns  $P > 0.05$ , \*  $P < 0.05$ , \*\*  $P < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $P < 0.001$ . <sup>a</sup> CVs for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  are not comparable with other traits as they are estimated relative to a standard.

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(Figure 4c) which is interpreted as a consequence of diversifying selection.

#### 4. Correlation between traits

We found a significant positive phenotypic correlation between absolute value of  $P_{50}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  at the phenotypic level ( $r = 0.30$ ,  $P = 0.035$  see Figure S1), indicating that the more cavitation-resistant genotypes tended to be less water-use efficient. However, this relationship was not significant at the genetic level ( $r = 0.14$ ,  $P = 0.320$ ). No relationship between  $P_{50}$  and  $\Delta_h$  was found at either phenotypic or genetic level. A significant negative phenotypic correlation between  $\Delta_h$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  was detected ( $r = -0.68$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ). This correlation was barely significant at the genetic level ( $r = -0.29$ ,  $P = 0.053$ ).

### Discussion

We reliably estimated for the first time the genetic variability of cavitation resistance, a functional trait that allows plants to survive under severe drought. We also provided evidence of natural selection acting on this trait. These results were based on the greatest number of genotypes ever measured to date in an experimental design (Table S1 and supplementary references). Despite the high level of variation of cavitation resistance between species [15], we detected no significant differences between maritime pine populations from a wide range of environments. Moreover, the between-population variability of cavitation resistance was significantly lower than would be expected under a hypothesis of genetic drift alone ( $Q_{ST}$ - $F_{ST}$  comparison). We can therefore reject the hypothesis of diversifying selection. We suggest instead that uniform selection has shaped the phenotypic variability of this trait. Uniform selection could be seen as a stabilizing selection acting within each population with the same selection optimum in each population despite the steep climatic gradient [62,63]. Conversely, growth and water-use efficiency displayed different patterns and were found to be subject to strong diversifying selection and genetic drift, respectively. Quantitative genetics analysis also showed that cavitation resistance presented a significant heritability, higher than that estimated for growth and water-use efficiency. This is the first evidence of uniform selection in woody plants and the underlying mechanisms are discussed below from a micro-evolutionary point of view.

#### Intra- vs. interspecific variability of cavitation resistance

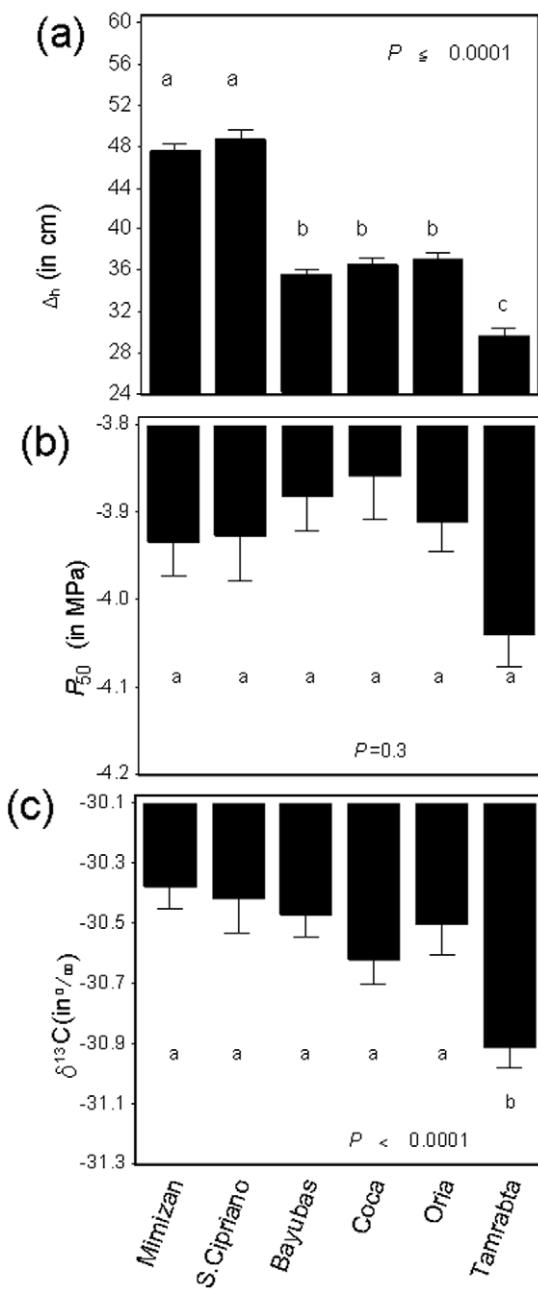
Despite the steepest climatic gradient (precipitation ranging from 400 to 1,600 mm in the sampled populations) and strong phylogeographic structure between the six studied populations [22,64]. Very low between-population variance for cavitation

resistance were found ( $CV_{BP} = 1\%$ ). The few studies published to date (reviewed in Table S1) tended to skim over the issue of intraspecific variation of cavitation resistance in provenance or progeny trials and reported little or no difference between populations [65,66]. As these studies were not designed to assess the genetic component of phenotypic variation, further investigations are required, to generalize our finding to other species. In addition, phenotypic variation for cavitation resistance was low ( $CV_P = 6.6\%$ ), but consistent with the range reported for wood properties of maritime pine, such as mean ring density, lignin content and fiber morphology ([67,68] Lamy, unpublished data). However, we are lacking information about the intraspecific variation of pit pair anatomical traits that are known to be implicated in cavitation resistance [69,16]. The low within-species variability for cavitation resistance is remarkable ( $P_{50} = -3.93 \pm 0.04$  MPa, estimated over the whole dataset), given that substantial variability has been described between species. For instance, Delzon et al (2010) showed that cavitation resistance ranged from -3 to -12 MPa in a sample of 40 coniferous species. This variability was interpreted as the effect of natural selection rather than phylogenetic legacy [15].

In contrast, the population differentiation observed for growth and water-use efficiency (WUE) was significant and consistent with previous results for this species [70]. The Moroccan population had the lowest WUE, consistent with previous findings based on both gas exchange measurements and carbon isotope discrimination [71,72,73,74]. In a provenance trial carried out in south-western France, this Moroccan population displayed lower stomatal sensitivity to water stress (delayed stomatal closure), leading to greater water loss throughout the summer period and a lower WUE (as reflected by carbon isotope composition). Genotype × environment interaction could potentially alter differences between populations [75,76]. Our results therefore require confirmation in provenance trials carried out in drier climates.

#### Relationships between traits

The weak but significant positive correlation found between absolute value of cavitation resistance and water-use efficiency (carbon isotope composition) suggested that drought-tolerant genotypes had lower water-use efficiency. In dry environments, genotypes that allocate more carbon to the construction of cavitation-resistant wood in order to avoid runaway embolism might be able to maintain higher stomatal conductance and hydraulic conductance at low leaf water potential, resulting in a decrease in water-use efficiency. Our results are consistent with previous findings [77] of a strong and positive relationship between these two traits in two cedar species. However, little or no correlation has generally been reported [78,79,80]. The



**Figure 3. Mean values of height increment ( $\Delta_h$ , (a)) (n = 297 per population).** Mean values of cavitation resistance ( $P_{50}$ , (b)) and carbon isotope composition ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , (c)) for each studied population (n = 40 per population). The error bars represents the standard errors. Different letters indicate significant differences between populations at  $\alpha = 0.05$ . doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0023476.g003

negative correlation between carbon isotope composition and growth has been reported in previous studies [77,81,82], assuming that growth is a function of carbon assimilation and carbon isotope composition is an index of retrospective gas exchanges.

#### Evidence of uniform selection for cavitation resistance

The phenotypic distribution of cavitation resistance was significantly lower than the expected distribution under the drift hypothesis. This may be interpreted as a consequence of uniform selection (also called homogenous, spatially homogenizing, con-

vergent selection, uniform stabilizing selection or stabilizing selection across population). This inference ( $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$ ) may result from an underestimation of  $Q_{ST}$  variance [52], leading to a false positive result. However, the  $F_{ST}$  estimate was more than five times greater than the  $Q_{ST}$  estimate. We thus believe that this difference is biologically meaningful and not due to a statistical artifact [52]. The robustness of this result is, also, supported by fourth lines of evidence: (i) the different patterns obtained for growth and WUE in the same experimental design. (ii) Selection procedure of population (see methods) increase the probability to find diversifying selection because we selected extreme populations in term of climatic origin and evolutionary history (different mitotypes and chlorotypes, see [64]), consequently uniform selection could not be interpreted as a sampling bias. (iii) Wood density (measured by X ray on the same data set) showed exactly the same pattern (Lamy, unpublished). (iv) Willson et al (2008) showed from interspecific data with narrow taxon sampling (limited to the *Juniperus* genus), that cavitation resistance gave strong phylogenetic conservatism, suggestive of uniform selection for the maintenance of ancestral traits.

For growth, diversifying selection was highlighted by  $Q_{ST}$  being greater than  $F_{ST}$  [83]. For WUE, we detected no signature of selection, as the phenotypic and drift distributions did not differ significantly, as previous reported by [84] for *Quercus suber* ( $P_{ST}/F_{ST}$  comparison). However, the distribution ( $Q_{ST}-F_{ST}$ ) of this trait was shifted to the right (integral probability above 0 > integral probability below 0, Figure 4c right panel), suggesting that diversifying selection was slightly more pronounced than drift.

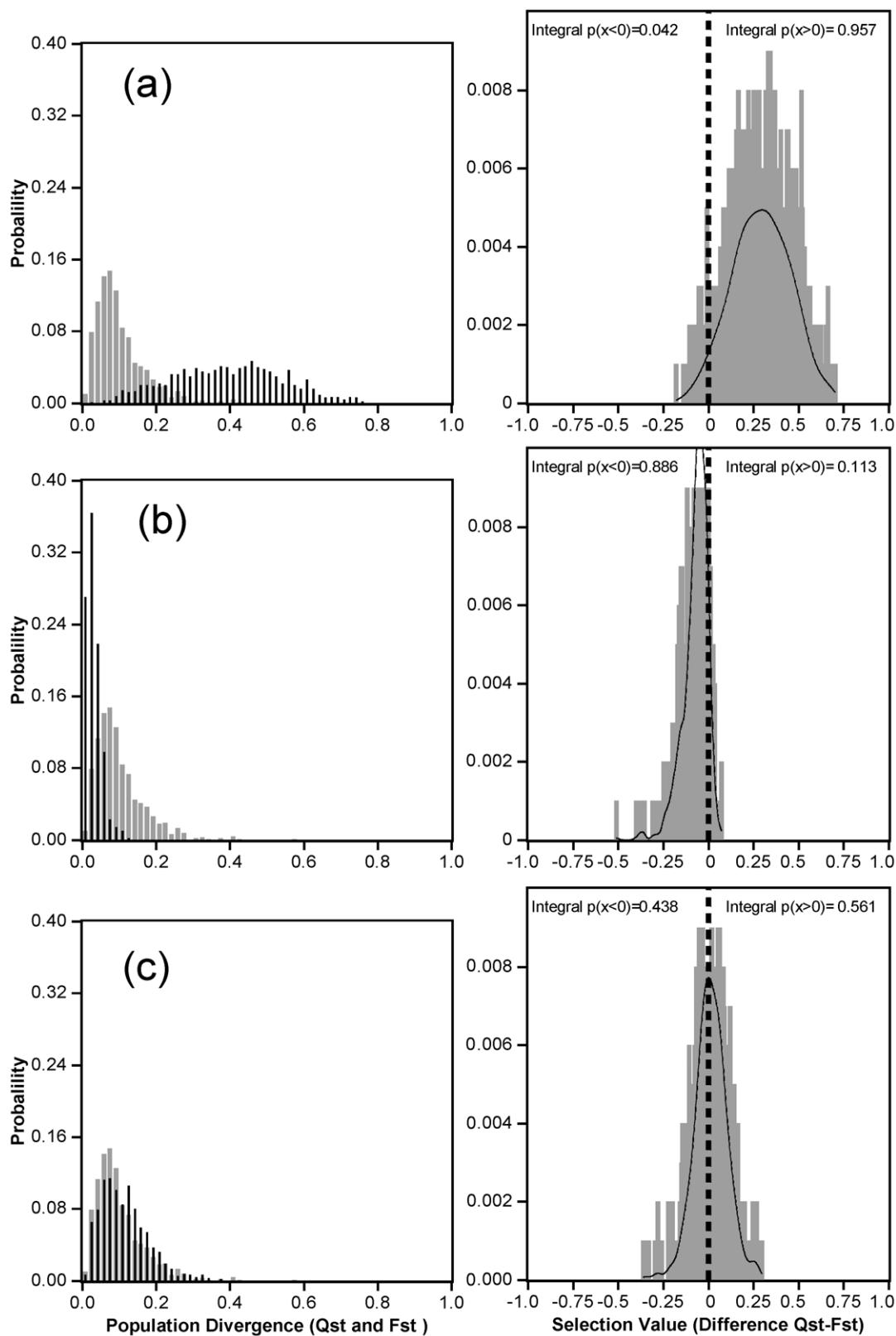
#### What are the mechanisms behind “uniform selection” for cavitation resistance?

The causal mechanisms underlying uniform selection or leading to evolutionary stasis are not well understood [63,85,86,87,88]. We discuss here only the processes most likely to account for the observed pattern ( $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$ ).

**Weak molecular variation.** Lethal or sublethal mutations may limit the variability of the genes they affect, thereby controlling trait variation. In conifers, cavitation resistance is known to be determined by xylem anatomy, including, in particular, the characteristics of intertracheid pits [16,69]. As knowledge about the nucleotide diversity of different functional categories of genes accumulates, it may become possible to test the hypothesis that genes involved in intertracheid pit formation (once these genes have been identified) display lower levels of diversity.

**Genetic constraints.** If selection acts on a trait that is negatively correlated with another trait (or traits) also under selection, than the decrease of rate of evolution for the first trait is proportional to the strength of the correlation [94]. A multi-trait approach could be used to explore this hypothesis indirectly [95], but could fail if the trait is canalized.

**Canalized trait.** This hypothesis suggest that cavitation resistance is canalized to buffer the variation of this key hydraulic trait against all kinds of disturbance, being of genetic (mutation, hybridization, recombination) and/or environmental nature [89,90,91]. Emergent properties of molecular networks could buffer molecular variability [92], to maintain phenotypic function, in accordance with the robustness theory [93]. In zoology, dipterian wings shape or centroid size (or mammalian body temperature) are the best known cases of canalized traits [90]. Indeed they reported a similar wing shape between species despite a great variability of climatic niche and a low additive genetic variance between populations for this trait. Except for leaf shape in *Arabidopsis thaliana*, there is no evidence of canalized trait in plants nowadays. For cavitation resistance, two arguments lead



**Figure 4. Comparison between  $F_{ST}$  (histogram in gray) and  $Q_{ST}$  (histogram in black) distributions for growth rate ( $\Delta_{hr}$ , (a)), cavitation resistance ( $P_{50}$ , (b)) and carbon isotope composition ( $\delta^{13}C$ , (c)) in the left panel.** The observed distribution (gray histogram) and the kernel density (black curves) of the  $Q_{ST}-F_{ST}$  difference are represented in the right panel for each trait. On the right panel, we also show the integral probability of the distribution (using the kernel density estimator) above (see “Integral  $p(x > 0)$ ” on the right panel) and below (see “Integral  $p(x < 0)$ ” on the right panel) zero (marked with the tick and dotted line).

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us to consider canalization as the most likely mechanism: (i) low additive genetic variance between populations ( $V_{BP}$ ) and (ii) the similarity of cavitation resistance values among all the *Pinus* species [69].

### Variance component analysis

Variance component analysis for cavitation resistance resulted in the first estimates of the heritability of this trait ( $h^2_{ns} = 0.4$ ) and its additive coefficient of variation ( $CV_A = 4.4\%$ ). These values suggest that this trait may respond to truncation selection frequently practiced in breeding. However, for a given selection intensity, genetic gain for cavitation resistance would be limited by the low additive variance, although long-term artificial selection experiments have shown that quantitative traits have a non negligible mutational variance [91,96,97], which could supply further additive variance at each generation. However, due to the small number of half-sib families and progenies within each family, which could inflate the value for heritability [37], this estimate should be interpreted with caution. Additional studies with a larger sample size are required for further exploration of the genetic determinism of this hydraulically important trait.

The much higher  $CV_A$  value (16.2%) for height increment is consistent with previous reports and accounts for the genetic gain achieved for this trait over successive generations in breeding programs [98,99,100]. For  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , a previous study [31] reported a slightly lower heritability ( $h^2_{ns} = 0.17$  vs. 0.21 here), but with estimation based on a diallel cross of limited size, with a narrow genetic background restricted to 12 elite trees from south-western France.

### Future directions

Phenotypic variation is a fundamental prerequisite for evolution because natural selection acts on phenotype. Adaptation and evolution via natural selection requires the presence of genetic variation among individuals in a population upon which natural selection can act. Intra-population genetic variability can thus be seen as the fuel for future adaptation. However, an environmentally induced shift in phenotype is also a major component of the variation we see in nature. Recent studies [80,101] showed a weak but significant phenotypic variability for cavitation resistance. Our results suggest that this between populations variability might be under environmental control rather than genetic determinism. These considerations call for more research (ongoing) aiming at quantifying the *in situ* phenotypic variability of cavitation resistance and the extent of phenotypic plasticity using provenance trials installed under different edapho-climatic environments. Further studies are also being pursued to dissect the genetic architecture of cavitation resistance to determine the number, map location and effects of Quantitative Trait Loci controlling part of the variation of this trait.

### Supporting Information

**Figure S1 Genetic (right panel) and phenotypic (left panel) correlation between traits.** For ease of interpretation,

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we have converted all the negative values to positive values ( $P_{50}$ ,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ). For the genetic correlation, all Pearson correlations ( $r$ ) were computed over the best linear unbiased prediction (BLUP) ( $n = 48$  for  $P_{50}$ ,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $n = 151$  for  $\Delta h$ ). For phenotypic correlation, all Pearson correlations were computed over the BLUP family plus BLUP population and the grand-mean, to ensure that the order of degree of freedom remained the same and the block effects are removed.  $P_{50}$ , pressure at 50 % loss of conductivity in MPa,  $\Delta h$  the annual increment between 2004 and 2005, in mm,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  is the isotope discrimination for carbon 13 in ‰. (TIF)

**Table S1 Review of intraspecific studies for cavitation resistance estimated using  $P_{50}$  or related parameters (as indicated in the table).** Npop: number of populations used, Nind: number of individuals per population used to assess cavitation resistance. The table is divided in two parts, the first part corresponds to provenance or progeny trials, and the second to “*in situ*” studies.

(DOC)

**Table S2 Result of the principal component (PC) analysis (PCA) for climatic data of *Pinus pinaster* populations (listed in the methods section, n = 763).** Contributions to the first, second, third and fourth axes are indicated for each variable (PC1, PC2, PC3, PC4). The eigenvalues of PC1 = 7.65, PC2 = 3.059, PC3 = 0.97, PC4 = 0.86.  $W$  is mean wet ground days (days).  $I$  is mean Martonne's index ( $P_i/(T_a+10)$ ).  $P_i$  is the mean precipitation (mm.days $^{-1}$ ).  $C$  is percent of cloud cover (%).  $S$  is the mean of wind speed (m.s $^{-1}$ ).  $V$  is the water vapor pressure in air (hPa).  $VPD$  is the water vapor pressure deficit of air (hPa).  $T_{min}$  is the minimum temperature (°C).  $\Delta_{DT}$  is the mean diurnal temperature range (°C).  $T_m$  is mean temperature (°C).  $R_G$  is mean global radiation (W.m $^{-2}$ ).  $T_{max}$  is the maximum temperature (°C).  $H$  is mean soil water deficit ( $P_i$ -ETP, in mm).  $ETP$  is mean Truc's potential evapotranspiration (mm).

(DOC)

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### Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: J-BL CP. Performed the experiments: J-BL RB SD. Analyzed the data: J-BL LB SD. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: J-BL LB SD RB. Wrote the paper: J-BL CP HC SD. Organized the funding of the study: CP HC SD.

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# $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$ as a signature of canalization

Jean-Baptiste Lamy<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Christophe Plomion<sup>1,2</sup>, Antoine Kremer<sup>1,2</sup>, Sylvain Delzon<sup>1,2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Univ. Bordeaux, BIOGECO, UMR 1202, F-33400 Talence, France.

<sup>2</sup> INRA, BIOGECO, UMR 1202, F-33610 Cestas, France.

<sup>3</sup> INRA, PIAF, UMR 547, F-63100 Clermont-Ferrand, France.

Author for correspondence

Sylvain Delzon ([sylvain.delzon@u-bordeaux1.fr](mailto:sylvain.delzon@u-bordeaux1.fr))

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## Abstract

A key aim of evolutionary biology — inferring the action of natural selection on wild species — can be achieved by comparing neutral genetic differentiation between populations ( $F_{ST}$ ) with quantitative genetic variation ( $Q_{ST}$ ). Each of the three possible outcomes of comparisons of  $Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$  ( $Q_{ST}>F_{ST}$ ,  $Q_{ST}=F_{ST}$ ,  $Q_{ST}<F_{ST}$ ) is associated with an inference (diversifying selection, genetic drift, uniform selection, respectively). However, published empirical and theoretical studies have focused exclusively on the  $Q_{ST}>F_{ST}$  outcome. We believe that this reflects the absence of a straightforward biological interpretation of the  $Q_{ST}<F_{ST}$  pattern. We here report recent evidence of this neglected evolutionary pattern, provide guidelines to its interpretation as a canalization phenomenon and discuss the significant importance this issue will have for the area of evolutionary biology.

Key words:  $Q_{ST}/F_{ST}$  comparison, uniform selection, stabilizing selection, diversifying selection, canalization, phylogeny signal, evolutionary stasis

## **Introduction: Comparison of $Q_{ST}$ and $F_{ST}$ and inferences**

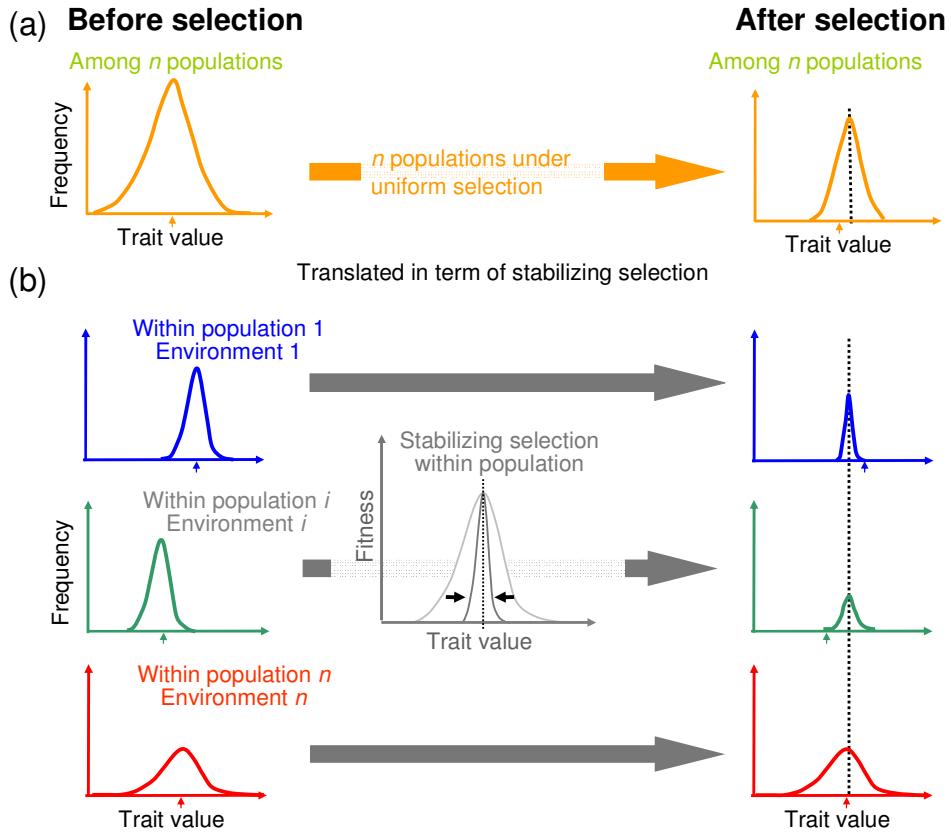
The relative contributions of genetic drift and natural selection to evolutionary change have long been debated in evolutionary biology (Galpern 2000; McKay & Latta 2002; Hansen & Houle 2004; Leinonen *et al.* 2008; Meirmans & Philip 2011). Comparisons of the differentiation of phenotypic traits (as measured by  $Q_{ST}$ ) with that of neutral molecular markers (as measured by  $F_{ST}$ ) provide one of the most accessible frameworks and universal tools for inferring the role of natural selection in population differentiation for quantitative traits (DeWoody *et al.* 2010).

### *Underlying assumptions for comparison of $Q_{ST}$ and $F_{ST}$*

Comparisons of  $Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$  are based on the rationale that, for loci subjected to the effects of genetic drift and migration only (assuming a negligible contribution of mutation),  $F_{ST}$  values at neutral markers provide the null expectation for the degree of population differentiation caused by genetic drift (Spitze 1993; Merilä & Crnokrak 2001). If the quantitative traits are exposed only to the same neutral evolutionary forces as neutral genetic markers and they are genetically controlled by purely additive genes, then their level of differentiation between populations would be expected to be equal to that for neutral loci (*i.e.*  $Q_{ST} = F_{ST}$ ). The comparison of these two quantities ( $Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$ ) can therefore be used to detect the effects of selection, including the effect of cumulative past selection events in the absence of current selection (Whitlock 2008).

### *Inferring the action of natural selection on wild species*

In comparisons of  $Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$ , three outcomes are possible, each corresponding to a particular inference. If the trait is neutral and additively determined, then  $Q_{ST}$  should be equal  $F_{ST}$ . By contrast,  $Q_{ST} > F_{ST}$  is predicted under conditions of diversifying (or divergent) selection for different local optima and  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  is predicted under conditions of uniform selection (also called homogeneous, spatially homogenising, convergent or stabilizing selection across populations). Hereafter, we refer to “uniform selection”, to distinguish this situation from that of stabilizing selection (see Glossary) within a population.



Stabilizing selection is acting in each population with the same selection optimum

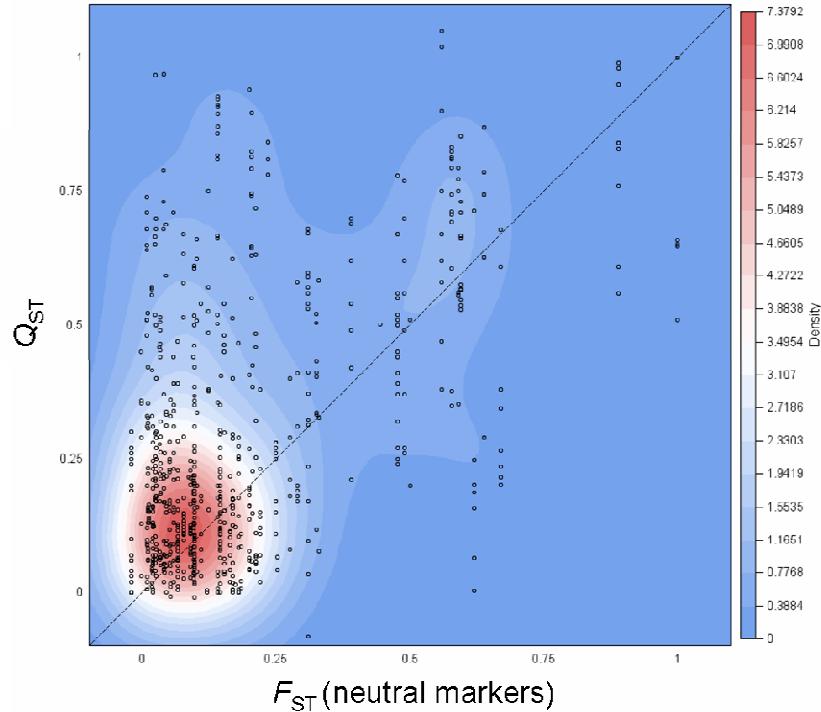
**Figure 1.** Conceptual relationship between uniform selection and stabilizing selection. (a) The upper panel shows how uniform selection decreases the between-population variance of a trait after selection events. (b) The lower panel dissects the underlying mechanism of uniform selection: it is the joint effects of  $n$  stabilizing selection events within  $n$  populations (living in  $n$  different environments). The stabilizing selection is a function with two parameters: selection intensity (black arrows) and selective optimum (black dashed lines). On each distribution, below abscissa axis, the small coloured arrow shows the most abundant phenotype of the population before selection event.

Uniform selection is conceptualised and modelled as  $n$  stabilizing selection events acting within  $n$  different populations with the same selection optimum for each population (Figure 1), despite partial genetic isolation (assessed by determining  $F_{ST}$ ) (Le Corre & Kremer 2003; Whitlock & Guillaume 2009). This process reproduces stasis (see Glossary), but, unfortunately, this model does not provide suggestions for the biological mechanisms constraining the local selective optima across populations or subspecies living in different environments. In evolutionary ecology, most of the literature is oriented toward the explanation of the variation between populations (or related species), but number of traits do not vary at all despite the great variability of environment. Up to now many authors have suggested that the most likely cause of changelessness is some sort of stabilizing selection, an argument prompted perhaps by a Victorian view of society in which everyone knows their place (Bradshaw 1991). It does not seem that the explanation for stasis can lie only in selection; constraints due genetic architecture are too readily dismissed (Bradshaw 1991; Brent Burt 2001; Merilä *et al.* 2001; Hansen & Houle 2004).

#### *Methodological limits of comparison of $Q_{ST}$ and $F_{ST}$*

The empirical estimation of  $Q_{ST}$  is labour-intensive ((O'Hara & Merila 2005; Goudet & Buchi 2006; Whitlock & Guillaume 2009) recommend  $> 20$  populations  $\times$  5 families  $\times$  5 progenies), and rigorous statistical comparisons between  $Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$  are not simple to perform. On the one hand, estimates of  $Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$  are subject to statistical and evolutionary stochasticity. The first leads to estimation error, while the second which is due to the randomness of evolutionary processes, has not always been dealt with appropriately, particularly in comparisons between  $Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$ . Approaches for comparing these two parameters taking both types of error into account have only recently been developed, for univariate (Whitlock & Guillaume 2009; Lamy *et al.* 2011) and multivariate (Martin *et al.* 2008; Ovaskainen *et al.* 2011) tests. On the other hand, the use of  $F_{ST}$  values estimated for neutral markers with rates of mutation higher than those for quantitative traits has been criticised, as it could potentially lead to spurious inferences of diversifying selection (Kronholm *et al.* 2010; Edeelar & Björklund 2011; Meirmans & Philip 2011; Whitlock 2011). Another extreme situation is presented by small populations with very low levels of gene flow, which are not suitable for comparisons of  $Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$ .  $Q_{ST}$  estimations are also subject to various sources of bias (reviewed by (Whitlock 2008)). For instance, Cano *et al.*, (2004) demonstrated experimentally that  $Q_{ST}$  could be influenced by genotype x environment interactions. Bearing

these methodological problems in mind, we aim here to provide guidelines for interpretation of the  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  pattern.



**Figure 2.** The relationship between  $Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$  estimates from empirical published studies (based on and updated from (Leinonen *et al.* 2008)). The thin dashed black line shows the 1:1 ratio. Small black circles represent  $Q_{ST}$  estimates of individual traits plotted against  $F_{ST}$  estimates for presumably neutral markers. For the sake of clarity,  $P_{ST}$  estimates were discarded because they do not control for the effect of the environment (Pujol *et al.* 2008; Brommer 2011); most were therefore located above the 1:1 line and close to zero on the  $F_{ST}$  axis. The contour plot highlights the non-uniform nature of the distribution of  $Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$  comparison results.

### $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$ : publication bias and cryptic published evidence

A recent review (Leinonen *et al.* 2008) showed that 70 % of  $Q_{ST}$  values exceed the associated  $F_{ST}$  values. The authors interpreted this pattern as resulting from two biases: (i) a sampling bias, due to the deliberate selection, by researchers, of populations from contrasting environments or based on prior knowledge of phenotypic divergence and (ii) a publication bias favouring studies reporting an outcome  $Q_{ST} > F_{ST}$  (Figure 1), possibly due to the difficulties involved in interpreting a  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  pattern. Indeed, selection is classically invoked to account for differences, rather than similarities, between populations and there is

no widely accepted consensus concerning the most probable evolutionary interpretation of the “ $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$ ” pattern.

Studies dealing with several traits tend to focus on traits with a  $Q_{ST} > F_{ST}$  pattern, and interpretation of traits for which  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  tends to be discreet or entirely absent. Nevertheless, some studies have provided well supported examples of the  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  pattern. Chapuis *et al.*, (2007, 2008) clearly demonstrated (with a randomisation procedure and a highly replicated design) that early traits of freshwater snails, such as morphological characters measured before maturity, were selected for the same optimum in all populations and habitats. Two studies (Lee & Frost 2002; Edmands & Harrison 2003) also found that copepod subspecies (*Eurytemora affinis* and *Tigriopus californicus*) displayed morphological stasis (see Glossary) for secondary sexual and life history traits. In plant sciences, Lamy *et al.*, (2011) showed that cavitation resistance, a physiological trait related to survival in conditions of extreme drought, displayed no differentiation between populations originating from contrasting climates. Other studies (Navarro *et al.* 2005; Yoshida *et al.* 2008; Chun *et al.* 2009; Scheepens *et al.* 2010) reported that  $Q_{ST}$  values were significantly lower than  $F_{ST}$  values, for various types of trait (floral morphology, vegetative morphology, growth, competitive ability). There is therefore enough evidence of trait conservatism in changing environments to now paid more attention on the evolutionary underpinnings of stasis.

### Theoretical expectation of $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$

From a theoretical standpoint, occurrences of  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  have been explored by simulations under different evolutionary scenarios, with various levels of uniform selection, divergent selection and gene flow (Le Corre & Kremer 2003; Miller *et al.* 2008). Under uniform selection, regardless of the level of gene flow and the strength of within-population selection,  $Q_{ST}$  is always lower than  $F_{ST}$ . Indeed, under uniform selection, negative covariance between genes effects (which may be seen as linkage disequilibrium, a non-random association of genes) builds up, decreasing the between-population variance to levels lower than those predicted on the basis of gene flow alone (Kremer & Le Corre 2011).

Other simulations and theoretical studies have tested departure from two implicit hypotheses underlying comparisons of  $Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$ : single traits and additive genetic determinism. Phenotypic traits are often correlated, due to pleiotropy (see Glossary), and the response of a single trait to selection is decreased by these correlation constraints (Kruuk *et al.* 2008). By

taking correlations between traits into account, the additive genetic variance-covariance matrix (**G**) (Kremer *et al.* 1997; Martin *et al.* 2008; Ovaskainen *et al.* 2011) allows to readily detect the  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  pattern.

The effect of genetic architecture (non-additive effects: dominance and epistasis, see Glossary) on  $Q_{ST}$  has also been investigated. It has been shown that dominance generally leads to the  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  outcome, in at least two evolutionary scenarios (the island model, (Goudet & Buchi 2006) and the pure drift model (Goudet & Martin 2007)). Moreover, epistasis generally decreases  $Q_{ST}$  relative to  $F_{ST}$  in the island model (Whitlock 1999) and in a pure drift model (Lopez-Fanjul *et al.* 2003). These analytical studies thus demonstrate that a non-additive genetic architecture can lead to  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  without the need for uniform selection.

### **$Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$ : underlying mechanisms**

The biological mechanisms resulting in the  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  pattern are generally skimmed over in scientific publications. We review here two evolutionary processes that might potentially account for this pattern and discuss the likelihood of each.

#### *True uniform selection: not fully documented and rather unlikely*

An inference of uniform selection requires a demonstration that stabilizing selection acts **independently within each population** with the **same selective optimum** (Figure 1). The demonstration of independent stabilizing selection would require specific experimental designs, such as local measurements of selection on each population from contrasting environments, as described by Lande and Arnold (1983). These experiments would be very time-consuming and expensive and studies of this type have therefore never been carried out. It must also be borne in mind that the explanation of stasis by uniform selection requires not only common stabilizing selection, but also the variation of selective optima within only **a narrow range** (Hansen & Houle 2004). In other words, it is important to explain why the selective optima are similar in different populations, and the actual explanation may not be the most parsimonious. A case in point is that of wing shape and size in dipterans (belonging to an order of insects consisting of thousands of species, differing considerably in body size and living in diverse environmental conditions (Galpern 2000; Hansen & Houle 2004)). Most dipterans species have similar wing shapes, but it is highly unlikely that there is only one global selective optimum applying to all the environments inhabited by dipterans. Thus, both theory and biological evidence suggest that the most parsimonious explanation for  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$

in this case is the constraint of trait variation by non-additive genetic architecture (Pigliucci 2008) rather than true uniform selection.

*Canalization: the most likely hypothesis*

Canalization (also called robustness, see Glossary) refers to any inheritable mechanism, structure or process, adaptive or otherwise, reducing the sensitivity of a phenotype to changes or disturbances to the underlying genetic (genetic canalization to buffer disturbance due to mutation and recombination) and non-genetic (environmental canalization to buffer disturbance due to environmental variation) factors determining its expression (see (Flatt 2005) for a complete review). In the original meaning, a trait becomes canalised because the insensitivity to perturbations were considered to increase fitness (Waddington 1942; Waddington 1953; Wagner *et al.* 1997; Debat & David 2001). Nowadays, canalization concept is widely used in developmental sciences (Felix & Wagner 2008) and in the expanding evo-devo field (Carroll 2008).

**Table 1. Comparison of a well known (wing traits in *Drosophila*) and a putative (cavitation resistance in *Pinus*) canalised trait**

<i>Species</i>	<i>Drosophila buzzatii</i>	<i>Pinus pinaster</i>
Trait	Wing traits	Cavitation resistance
Interspecific level	In the <i>Drosophila</i> genus <sup>a</sup>	In the <i>Pinus</i> genus <sup>c</sup>
CV <sub>P</sub>	8.1	14.0
Intraspecific level	Natural populations and hybrids (3 generations) <sup>b</sup>	Natural populations <sup>d</sup>
$Q_{ST}$	0.06	0.02
$F_{ST}$	0.25	0.11

CV<sub>P</sub> (%) is the coefficient of phenotypic variation for a given genus (*Drosophila* genus n= 21 and *Pinus* genus n=17).  $Q_{ST}$  is the additive quantitative genetic variation between populations (phenotyped individuals: *Drosophila buzzatii* n= 593, and *Pinus pinaster* n = 240).  $F_{ST}$  is the neutral genetic difference between populations (number of loci: for *Drosophila buzzatii* n= 10 and for *Pinus pinaster* n = 8). <sup>a</sup>(Galpern, PhD thesis, University of Toronto, 2000);<sup>b</sup> (Andersen *et al.* 2008);<sup>c</sup> (Delzon *et al.* 2010);<sup>d</sup> (Lamy *et al.* 2011).

### *Is it possible to infer canalization in the wild*

Canalization is a relative term that can be defined only in a comparative framework. It was first demonstrated in *Drosophila*, through comparisons of wild-type and modified inbred lines (based on artificial mutagenesis or abiotic stress (Waddington 1942; Stearns 1994). However, Felix and Wagner (2008) proposed a comparative approach for the inference of canalization, making use of the genetic variation naturally accumulating during evolution, based on a comparison of genetic variation between individuals or populations of the same species. These authors argued that the application of this approach “in the wild” might be more powerful, as it would allow the comparison of genotypes that had accumulated genetic change over long periods of evolution, whereas laboratory experiments are much more short-term. Here, we propose the use of  $Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$  for such comparisons. As  $Q_{ST}$  is a standardised measure of genetic variation between populations (even between closely related species), then a  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  signature is probably indicative of the presence of a genetically canalised trait.

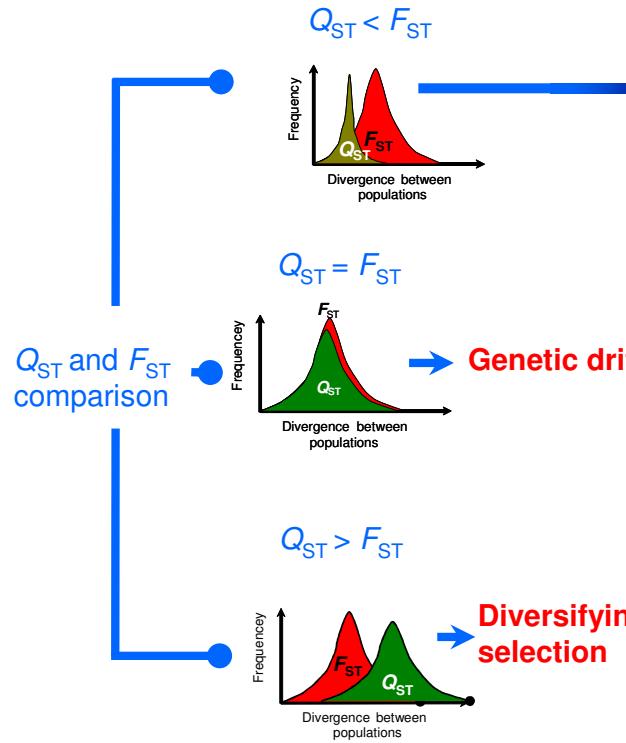
Wing size (which is also referred to as “wing centroid size”, because it is a multivariate mean based on a configuration of landmarks) in *Drosophila* is the most widely investigated and best understood canalised trait. The coefficient of variation for this trait between *Drosophila* species is low (CV<sub>P</sub> = 8.1%, n=21) despite the diverse ecological specialisation of these species (Table 1). The low level of variation for this trait persists within species, with populations from highland or lowland environments generally having a low  $Q_{ST}$ , which is

always lower than the  $F_{ST}$ . This pattern is conserved (over three generations) when populations are crossed, demonstrating the robustness of the underlying genetic architecture to recombination. Indeed, Andersen *et al.*, (2008) suspected that there might be co-adapted gene complexes for wing centroid size. This example of wing centroid size in *Drosophila* therefore provides evidence that  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  can be interpreted as evidence of canalization.

### *Is canalization adaptive?*

The extent to which canalization is “adaptive” remains a matter of debate (Pigliucci 2008; Draghi *et al.* 2010). There have been many theoretical studies concerning the conditions in which natural selection might lead to canalization. Recent theoretical studies leave us with a complex image of the construction of canalization during evolution. Three principal hypotheses concerning the evolution of canalization have been proposed (de Visser *et al.* 2003): (i) the adaptation hypothesis, according to which canalization emerges through selection acting on variability. Under this hypothesis, increases and decreases in canalization depend on the sign of **directional epistasis** (see Glossary) (Hansen & Wagner 2001b; Hermisson *et al.* 2003; Carter *et al.* 2005; Flatt 2005; Hansen *et al.* 2006); (ii) the intrinsic hypothesis, according to which canalization is an intrinsic feature of the organism. Under this hypothesis, many or most of the features of the **genetic architecture** (leading to trait canalization) are not primary adaptations related to variability. Therefore canalization occurs even when stabilizing selection is absent, resulted in indirect effects of selection for developmental stability (Wagner & Altenberg 1996; Siegal & Bergman 2002). To resume, canalization could be seen as an (very) ancient selection footprint on the genetic architecture but one doesn’t know how selection have built canalization, and how long canalization could be maintained without current selection. Canalization is an extreme form of genetic constraint for phenotypic evolution (Wagner 2011).

### At intraspecific level



### At interspecific level

Is there any trait conservatism across related species ?



Yes

Canalization

No

Uniform selection is plausible but other studies are needed

**Figure 3. Decision tree for the comparison of  $Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$ .** This decision tree combines two levels of information: i) information relating to populations, based on comparisons of  $Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$  (light blue, left panel); ii) information relating to species, based on Blomberg's  $K$  index (Blomberg *et al.* 2003), Pagel's  $\lambda$  index (Pagel 1999) or a proxy-like coefficient of variation (dark blue, right panel) which gives an idea about phylogenetic signal (or trait conservatism) displayed by the trait. As indicated by the arrows and the red text,  $Q_{ST} = F_{ST}$  and  $Q_{ST} > F_{ST}$  are straightforwardly interpreted as genetic drift and diversifying selection, respectively. In the case of  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$ , more information is required for a robust inference indicated by the final circle and the blue text. Low  $CV_p$  values or a strong phylogenetic signal between related species provides evidence of a canalised trait (*i.e.* the genetic architecture narrows trait variability). In cases of high levels of variability between related species, further experimentation is required before an inference of uniform selection can be made.  $Q_{ST}$  (in green) and  $F_{ST}$  (in red) are represented as distributions since these estimators are subjected to two types of errors (evolutionary and sampling errors).

## Concluding remarks

For non-model species, the use of classical methods (*i.e.* artificial mutagenesis or abiotic stress) for inferring canalization remains impracticable. This obstacle could be overcome by comparing the results of phylogenetic studies and  $Q_{ST}/F_{ST}$  comparison (see Figure 2.). For a given trait, if related species (from the same genus) has a low coefficient of variation (CV<sub>P</sub>) or a strong phylogenetic signal, and  $Q_{ST}$  is lower than  $F_{ST}$ , then canalization, rather than purely uniform selection, may account for the conservation of the trait (evolutionary stasis) over large periods of time or across different ecological niches. This inference may be crucial for the identification of dimensions in which phenotype variation is constrained, impeding the use of classical models for the prediction of past or future phenotypic evolution.

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## Glossary:

**Canalization:** A trait is canalised if the underlying genetic architecture buffers its variation against all kinds of disturbance, being of genetic (mutation, hybridization, recombination) and/or environmental nature (Hansen & Houle 2004).

**Directional epistasis:** Functional epistasis (see definition of Epistasis) is said to be directional if genes systematically modify each other (genes effects) in particular patterns or directions in the phenotypic space. (i) Positive epistasis, where genes tend to reinforce each other's effects along the direction of selection, will accelerate the response, (ii) while negative epistasis, where genes tend to diminish each others effects in the direction of selection, will reduce the response (Hansen & Wagner 2001a; Hansen & Wagner 2001b). Obviously, functional epistasis sign can lead to dramatic qualitative changes of evolutionary dynamics.

**Epistasis:** a phenomenon by which the effects of one gene are modified by one or several other genes. Despite this simple definition, there are several ways to conceptualize and quantify epistasis. A distinction should be made between statistical (Falconer & Mackay

1996; Lynch & Walsh 1998) and functional (or physiological) epistasis (Cheverud & Routman 1995; Hansen & Wagner 2001b). (i) Statistical epistasis refers to the standard quantitative genetic definition of epistasis as the third interaction terms in a regression of trait value on presence of alleles. It is a population property, and is a function of both allele frequencies and the biological interactions among genes. (ii) Functional epistasis refers to none additive interactions among loci in the mapping from specific genotypes to phenotype, and is not a population property (see (Hansen 2006) p126). In others words, functional epistasis means that gene or genotype effects depend on the genetic background, suggesting that these effects might change due to selection, drift, mutation, or any other mechanisms. Both statistical and functional epistasis definitions are partially overlapping but not univocal. Functional epistasis can contribute to additive and dominance genetic variance component whereas statistical epistasis is associated only with the third interaction genetic component. In the present article the use of epistasis alone means functional epistasis (epistatic effect of allele, gene or genotype).

**Genetic architecture:** the number of genes underlying the trait, their redundancy (gene duplication and alternate pathways) and/or the resulting network due to inter-allelic interaction (additive effect and dominance) and inter-loci interaction (epistasis).

**Pleiotropy:** Pleiotropy is due to two mechanisms: pleiotropic gene (gene affects more than one character) and linkage disequilibrium (the statistical associations between alleles at different loci). Pleiotropy is the underlying cause of genetic covariation between characters at the population level (Flatt 2005; Hansen 2006).

**Stasis:** Taxa, such as genera, species or populations, displayed the same value of trait despite significant genetic isolation and environmental distance between taxa. In evolutionary ecology field, stasis is, most of the time, assessed by a synchronic study though a comparative analysis.

**Stabilizing selection:** selection based-process on the fitness value of an individual as it has been defined by (Turelli 1984). In this model, the fitness is the function of selection intensity ( $\omega^2$ ), selection optimum ( $Z_{opt}$ ) and trait value ( $Z$ ). An individual has the higher fitness when its value of phenotypic trait equals to  $Z_{opt}$  which does not imply it is the most abundant phenotype ( $Z$ ).

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1           **Evolutionary stasis of wood density in a pine species**

2       Jean-Baptiste Lamy<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Frédéric Lagane<sup>1,2</sup>, Christophe Plomion<sup>1,2</sup>, Hervé Cochard<sup>3</sup>, Sylvain  
3       Delzon<sup>1,2</sup>

4       <sup>1</sup> INRA, UMR 1202 BIOGECO, F-33610 Cestas, France

5       <sup>2</sup> Université de Bordeaux, UMR 1202 BIOGECO, F-33610 Cestas, France

6       <sup>3</sup> INRA, UMR 547 PIAF, University of Blaise Pascal, F-63100 Clermont-Ferrand, France.

7

8       Corresponding author:

9       Sylvain Delzon

10      E-mail: [sylvain.delzon@u-bordeaux1.fr](mailto:sylvain.delzon@u-bordeaux1.fr)

11      Tel: +33 5 40 00 38 91 / Fax: +33 5 40 00 36 57

12      Present address: University of Sydney, Department of Agriculture, Food & Natural Resources,

13      1 Central Avenue, Australian Technology Park, Eveleigh NSW 2015

14

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21      Short title: Micro-evolutionary patterns of wood density

22 **Abstract**

23 Wood density is considered an adaptive trait, because it ensures the safe and efficient  
24 transport of water from the roots to the leaves, mechanical support for the body of the plant  
25 and the storage of biological chemicals. Its variability has been extensively described in  
26 narrow genetic backgrounds and in wide ranges of tree species, but little is known about the  
27 extent of natural genetic and phenotypic variability within species. This information is  
28 essential to our understanding of the evolutionary forces that have shaped this trait, and for  
29 the evaluation of its inclusion in breeding programs. We assessed wood density, stem  
30 diameter, leaf area and total dry biomass, in six *Pinus pinaster* populations of different  
31 geographic origins (France, Spain and Morocco) growing in a provenance-progeny trial. No  
32 genetic differentiation was found for wood density whereas all other traits significantly  
33 differed between populations. Heritability of this trait was moderate, with a low, additive  
34 genetic variance. For retrospective identification of the evolutionary forces acting on wood  
35 density, we compared the distribution of neutral markers ( $F_{ST}$ ) and quantitative genetic  
36 differentiation ( $Q_{ST}$ ), and found that  $Q_{ST}$  was significantly lower than  $F_{ST}$ . This demonstrates  
37 an evolutionary stasis for this trait. Furthermore, we did not detect any relationship between  
38 wood density and drought tolerance (resistance to cavitation), suggesting that this trait could  
39 not be used as a proxy for drought tolerance.

40 Key words: Canalization, heritability,  $Q_{ST}/F_{ST}$  comparison, pine, stabilizing selection, wood  
41 density.

42      **Introduction**

43

44      Recent ecological theories have included wood density (mass of wood per unit volume) as  
45      key dimension of the variation between woody plant strategies (Westoby et al. 2002; Westoby  
46      & Wright 2006; Chave et al. 2009; Zanne et al. 2010). Wood density describes the proportion  
47      of cell walls in a given woody tissue. This proportion reflects three functions: the safe and  
48      efficient transport of water from the roots to the leaves, mechanical support for the body of  
49      the plant and the storage of biological chemicals. Wood density is strongly constrained by a  
50      trade-off between these functions (Chave et al. 2009) that has influenced the evolution of  
51      woody plants over millions of years. It is possible to extrapolate some of the features of the  
52      tree, such as growth rate and hydraulic strategy, from the wood density of the species  
53      concerned (McCulloh et al. 2011). Species with high wood density would be expected to  
54      grow more slowly and to have a lower hydraulic efficiency and a higher resistance to  
55      embolism than species with a lower wood density (Poorter et al. 2010; Markesteijn et al.  
56      2011). Wood density is also thought to be a good proxy for drought tolerance (i.e. survival of  
57      extreme drought events) (Hacke and Sperry 2001; Brodribb and Cochard 2009). For example,  
58      after the 2003 heatwave in Europe, *Pseudotsuga menziesii* trees with denser wood and a  
59      higher proportion of late wood had higher survival rates than trees with a lower wood density  
60      (Martinez-Meier et al. 2008). In *Pseudotsuga menziesii* and *Picea abies* clones, (Rosner et al.  
61      2008; Dalla-Salda et al. 2011) found that wood density was negatively correlated with  
62      resistance to cavitation.

63

64      Chave et al. (2006) countered the widespread belief that wood density is determined  
65      principally by environmental conditions, by suggesting that there is a strong phylogenetic  
66      signal controlling interspecific wood density variation. In temperate region, wood density

67 may vary considerably in the environment of an individual plant (increasing from the early to  
68 the late wood in temperate regions), but its variation between individuals of a given species  
69 remains limited and, more importantly, the mean wood density for a given species is generally  
70 highly conserved. Many studies have investigated the intraspecific variability of wood density,  
71 dissecting the phenotypic variation of wood density into genetic and environmental  
72 components (and their interaction) for most commercial forest tree species (Aguiar et al.  
73 2003; Bouffier et al. 2008; Martinez-Meier et al. 2011; Apiolaza 2011). The phenotypic  
74 coefficient of variation for wood density is generally low, as is the genetic additive coefficient  
75 of variation (these conclusions do not apply to interspecific crosses, such as *Eucalyptus* sp.)  
76 (Apitolaza 2011). However, these quantitative estimators have often been measured in narrow  
77 genetic backgrounds (or hybrids), without reference to the natural variation of wood density  
78 within the species concerned. Even in studies in which wood density was measured in several  
79 populations, efforts were rarely made to determine whether the observed variation between  
80 populations was caused by genetic drift or past selective events, even though knowledge  
81 about the mechanisms shaping the variability of this trait would be useful if this trait were to  
82 be incorporated into breeding programs. Some traits are known to be robust to genetic  
83 alterations (e.g. wing shape in *Drosophila* sp., mammalian body temperature), such as  
84 mutation, drift or recombination events, and these traits generally have a low variability  
85 (phenotypic and/or genetic). In a breeding context, it is difficult to manipulate these traits:  
86 genetic gains at each generation are limited by the low additive genetic variance. However,  
87 such “canalized” traits provide a guarantee of a certain level of trait sustainability in diverse  
88 environmental conditions (Knap 2005; Mormede et al. 2011).

89

90 This study had two main objectives: i) to assess between- and within-population variation of  
91 wood density, with genetic material originating from contrasting climatic environments, ii) to

92 determine the main evolutionary forces responsible for shaping the genetic variability of  
93 wood density between populations (i.e. contributing to population differentiation), and iii) to  
94 assess the strength of the correlation between wood density and drought tolerance (resistance  
95 to cavitation). We carried out a case study of maritime pine (*Pinus pinaster* Ait.), a species  
96 with a fragmented distribution in the western part of the Mediterranean region. The scattered  
97 distribution of this species may have prevented or limited gene flow between different groups  
98 of populations, promoting high levels of genetic divergence between ecotypes, due to genetic  
99 drift (Ribeiro et al. 2002) and/or natural selection (Quezel and Barbero 1998 in Richardson,  
100 (1998)).

101

## 102 **Materials and Methods**

103

### 104 *Genetic material*

105 We used the same material described in a recent paper by Lamy et al. (2011). Briefly, a  
106 provenance-progeny trial was established in December 2003 at the INRA forestry station  
107 (Cestas, France, 44°44'N, 00°46'W), with one-year-old seedlings from open-pollinated seeds  
108 collected from 24 natural populations (or ecotypes) in France, Spain, Morocco and Tunisia, to  
109 cover the fragmented distribution of *Pinus pinaster* (Fig. S1). Each population was  
110 represented by 20 to 30 half-sib families. The trial was arranged in a randomized block design  
111 (15 blocks) with single-tree plots. Each block contained at least one tree from each half-sib  
112 family. A selective sampling of six-year-old saplings was carried out as described by Lamy et  
113 al. (2011), leading to the selection of six populations representative of the extremes of the  
114 maritime pine climatic envelope (Fig. S2). We also ensured that the selected populations  
115 included different mitotypes and chlorotypes, which act as a good proxy for contrasting  
116 evolutionary histories (Vendramin et al. 1998; Burban and Petit 2003). Climate and location

117 of the studied population are presented in Table 1. We sampled eight families with one half-  
118 sib in each block (6 populations/8 families/5 blocks=240 genotypes) at random for further  
119 analysis.

120

121 **Table 1.** Climatic data, location and elevation of the studied maritime pine populations  
122

Sampling location	Longitude (°)	Latitude (°)	n	Elevation (m)	P <sub>i</sub> (mm)	T <sub>m</sub> (°C)	VPD <sub>max</sub> (hPa)	ETP ( mm)
Bayubas de Abajo (Central Spain)	-2.87	41.52	39	955	561	10.5	11.42	882.9
Coca (Central Spain)	-4.08	41.37	40	788	452	11.9	14.23	718.7
Mimizan (South-western France)	-1.30	44.13	40	37	1176	13.2	7.26	751.59
Oria (South-eastern Spain)	-2.62	37.87	40	1232	451	13.4	14.29	922.59
San Cipriano (Northern Spain)	-8.70	42.13	40	310	1625	13.8	8.54	721.91
Tamrabta (Southern Morocco)	-5.02	33.66	40	1760	550	15.1	18.56	976.54

123  
124 *n*, number of sampled individuals for wood density measurements; P<sub>i</sub>, mean annual precipitation; T<sub>m</sub>, mean  
125 annual air temperature; VPD<sub>max</sub>, maximum water vapor pressure deficit (in July for all provenances); ETP,  
126 annual sum of potential evapotranspiration.

127

128 *Assessment of wood density*

129 Wood density ( $D$ , g cm<sup>-3</sup>) was measured on a section of dry branch. The samples  
130 corresponded to the 2007 and 2008 growth units on the 2007 whorl when possible. Sampled  
131 branches were fully exposed to the sun, more than 40 cm long and had a diameter of 0.3 to 1  
132 cm. The number of trees for which wood density data were available per cambial year was as  
133 follows: 10 for two years old, 151 for three years old, 76 for four years old and nine for five  
134 years old. Wood density was measured for 240 genotypes. For each sample, we used a

135 double-bladed saw to cut a transverse section with a constant thickness of 2 mm. Wood  
136 density was measured with an indirect-reading X-ray densitometer (Polge 1966). Two  
137 orthogonal (longest and shortest axes) radial density profiles were obtained by analyzing the  
138 scanned images with WinDENDRO software (Guay et al. 1992). Ring limits were determined  
139 automatically, checked manually and then corrected with this software. For each genotype, we  
140 derived three parameters from the distribution of wood density values (after removing the  
141 values corresponding to the pith), the mean value ( $D_{\text{mean}}$ ), the 10<sup>th</sup> percentile ( $D_{\text{min}}$ ) and the  
142 90<sup>th</sup> percentile ( $D_{\text{max}}$ ).  $D_{\text{min}}$  was strongly correlated with the mean density of earlywood  
143 whereas  $D_{\text{max}}$  was correlated with the mean density of latewood (data not shown,  $r > 0.8$ ). We  
144 carried out the analysis on both radial density profiles separately in order to check the impact  
145 of compression and normal wood on the variance estimation. Similar patterns were observed  
146 for both profiles (not in absolute values, but in terms of significance) because the sampled  
147 branches were orthotropic, so we pooled the data.

148

149 *Biomass, collar diameter, leaf area and cavitation resistance measurement*

150 At the age of three years, all the saplings in six blocks (1-6) were cut at the collar position.  
151 Total aerial biomass ( $W_a$ , g), including the main stem, branches and needles, was determined  
152 by weighing after the material had been dried in an oven at 55°C for 72 hours (Eveno 2008).  
153 Needle biomass ( $W_{\text{needle}}$ , g) was also determined separately. For this study we used a subset of  
154 data corresponding to the selected populations.

155 On other blocks (7-12), collar diameter ( $\phi$ , mm) was measured on the selected populations  
156 and families only at the age of six years, in 2007. Specific leaf area ( $SLA$ , in  $\text{m}^2 \text{kg}^{-1}$ ) was also  
157 determined for 20 needles per genotype and total leaf area ( $A_{\text{leaf}}$  in  $\text{m}^2$ ) was estimated  
158 retrospectively, by multiplying total  $W_{\text{needle}}$  by  $SLA$ . Resistance to cavitation was determined  
159 in a previous study (Lamy et al. 2011).

160

161 *Quantitative genetic analysis*

162 Genetic analysis was conducted with the following mixed model, which is robust enough to  
163 handle non normality and unbalanced data:

164 
$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{Z}_1\mathbf{pop} + \mathbf{Z}_2\mathbf{f} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \quad (1)$$

165 where  $\mathbf{y}$  is the vector of observation for a trait,  $\mathbf{b}$  is the vector (number of blocks) of fixed  
166 block effects,  $\mathbf{pop}$  is the vector (number of populations) of random population effects,  $\mathbf{f}$  is the  
167 vector (number of mother trees) of the random genetic effects of mother tree within the  
168 population,  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$  is the vector (number of individuals×1) of residuals,  $\mathbf{X}$  is called the design  
169 matrix,  $\mathbf{Z}_1$  and  $\mathbf{Z}_2$  are the incidence matrices linking the observations to the effects. A variance  
170 was fitted for each random effect:  $\sigma_{pop}^2$  is the genetic variance between populations,  $\sigma_{f(pop)}^2$  is  
171 the genetic variance between mother trees nested within a population and  $\sigma_e^2$  is the residual  
172 variance for repeated analyses. As the density record for each year constitutes a new  
173 measurement for the same tree (Littell et al. 2000; Apiolaza and Garrick 2001), there is an  
174 autocorrelation between measurements, which was taken into account by using a special  
175 variance-covariance  $\mathbf{R}$  matrix structure for repeated analysis. Several covariance structures  
176 were considered for specification of the  $\mathbf{R}$  matrix in the mixed model (autoregressive,  
177 heterogeneous autoregressive, first-order autoregressive moving-average, toeplitz, banded  
178 correlation). On the basis of Akaike's information criterion and Bayes' information criterion,  
179 a banded correlation structure for additive genetic effects was found to be the most  
180 appropriate (data not shown).

181

182 Variance and covariance components were estimated by the restricted maximum likelihood  
183 (REML) method, assuming a normal distribution of the random effects. The significance of  
184 variance components was assessed in log-likelihood ratio tests. We included population as a

185 random effect, for inference at the species level and to obtain an unbiased estimate of  
186 heritability and genetic population differentiation (Wilson 2008). The normality, identity and  
187 independence of the residuals of each trait were checked graphically by plotting studentized  
188 marginal and conditional residuals. These plots confirmed that the data conformed to the  
189 assumptions of the mixed model. We estimated narrow-sense heritability as follows:

190  $h_{ns}^2 = 4\sigma_{f(pop)}^2 / (\sigma_e^2 + \sigma_{f(pop)}^2)$ . In our study,  $\sigma_A^2$  was estimated as  $\sigma_A^2 = 4\sigma_{f(pop)}^2$  because trees  
191 from the same family were presumed to be half-sibs (open-pollinated seeds). We did not  
192 include the population effect in the heritability calculation, because natural selection appeared  
193 to occur within each population (Visscher et al. 2008). The standard deviation of heritability  
194 was calculated with the delta method (Lynch and Walsh 1998). Phenotypic differentiation  
195 between populations,  $Q_{ST}$  (Spitze 1993), was estimated as  $Q_{ST} = \sigma_{pop}^2 / (\sigma_{pop}^2 + 2\sigma_A^2)$ . Variance

196 components were standardized with the trait mean (Houle, 1992) as follows,  $CV = \frac{\sqrt{\sigma_{trait}^2}}{X_{trait}} \times 100$ ,

197 where CV is the coefficient of variation. Each variance component was expressed with a CV  
198 ( $CV_A$ : additive coefficient of variation;  $CV_{BP}$  ( $V_{BP} = \sigma_{pop}^2$ ): between-population coefficient of  
199 variation;  $CV_P$ : phenotypic coefficient of variation;  $CV_R$ : residual coefficient of variation).  
200 The variance of each component was extracted from the asymptotic covariance matrix. The  
201 significance of mean population differences was estimated with model (#1), with the GLM  
202 procedure and Student-Newman-Keuls *post hoc* tests.

203

204 *Correlation between traits*

205 Genetic correlations between traits were evaluated by calculating Pearson's coefficients for  
206 the family best linear unbiased predictor (BLUP) estimate. There correlations are referred to  
207 hereafter as genetic correlations. Phenotypic correlations were evaluated by calculating  
208 Pearson's coefficients for the family BLUP plus the population BLUP over all populations.

209 Data from a previous study (Lamy et al. 2011) were also included, to assess the correlation  
210 between density parameters and cavitation resistance (estimated from  $P_{50}$ , the xylem pressure  
211 at which a sample lost 50% of its conductance).

212

213  *$Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$  comparison*

214 We investigated the contribution of selection to the differentiation of phenotypic traits, as  
215 previously described (Lamy et al. 2011) by comparing the distribution of phenotypic  
216 differentiation ( $Q_{ST}$ ) with the distribution of genetic differentiation ( $F_{ST}$ ) assessed with  
217 molecular markers assumed to be neutral. Briefly, the  $F_{ST}$  distribution ( $F_{ST}^*$ ) was constructed  
218 from a dataset for eight neutral nuclear microsatellites previously genotyped in the  
219 populations studied (Eveno et al. 2008). Neutral expectations were simulated by randomly  
220 resampling  $10^3$  times with replacement between loci, to estimate the sampling variance of  $F_{ST}$ .  
221 Each  $F_{ST}$  replicate value was multiplied by a random number drawn from the (Lewontin and  
222 Krakauer 1973) distribution, which accounts for demographic deviations from the neutral  
223 model (Whitlock 2008; Whitlock and Guillaume 2009).  $Q_{ST}$  distributions ( $Q_{ST}^*$ ) were  
224 constructed by performing a parametric bootstrap resampling procedure  $10^3$  times (O'Hara  
225 and Merilä 2005), making it possible to estimate the distribution of each variance component  
226 ( $\sigma_A^2, \sigma_{pop}^2$ ) by Satterthwaite's approximation (Satterthwaite 1946). Finally, the two resulting  
227 distributions were compared in a non parametric test on the 2.5 and 97.5 quantiles (Kosorok  
228 1999). All analyses were performed with SAS software (version 9.2 SAS Institute, Cary, NC,  
229 USA). Codes are available on request.

230

231

232 **Table 2.** Variance components ( $V_P$ ,  $V_{BP}$ ,  $V_A$ ,  $V_R$ ), narrow-sense heritability ( $h^2_{ns} \pm SE$ ),  
 233 coefficient of variation ( $CV_P$ ,  $CV_A$ ,  $CV_{BP}$ ,  $CV_R$ ) and population differentiation ( $Q_{ST}$ )

234

Traits	$V_P$	$V_{BP}$	$V_A$	$V_R$	$h^2_{ns}$	$CV_P$	$CV_A$	$CV_{BP}$	$CV_R$	$Q_{ST}$
$D_{mean}$	0.001	$1.9 \cdot 10^{-5}$ ns	$0.5 \cdot 10^{-3}$ *	0.001	$0.38 \pm 0.20$	11	7	1	10	0.02
$D_{max}$	0.001	$1.7 \cdot 10^{-5}$ ns	$0.7 \cdot 10^{-3}$ *	0.001	$0.49 \pm 0.20$	10	7	1	9	0.01
$D_{min}$	0.001	$1.6 \cdot 10^{-5}$ ns	$0.2 \cdot 10^{-3}$ ns	0.001	$0.22 \pm 0.21$	12	5	1	11	0.03
$\phi_{2007}$	50.63	31.92 ***	17.55 *	46.24	$0.34 \pm 0.12$	37	22	29	36	0.47
$B_{tot}$	16124	3246 ***	9207 ***	13822	$0.57 \pm 0.08$	43	32	19	40	0.14
$A_{Leaf}$	0.427	0.104 ***	0.1817 **	0.382	$0.425 \pm 0.14$	37	24	35	35	0.22

235

236  $h^2_{ns}$  is the narrow-sense heritability and **SE** is the standard error of heritability,  $V_P$  is the phenotypic variance,  $V_A$   
 237 is the additive genetic variance,  $V_{BP}$  is the between-population variance,  $V_R$  is the residual variance.  $CV_A$  is the  
 238 additive variation coefficient after adjustment for the block effect.  $CV_P$  is the phenotypic variation coefficient  
 239 after adjustment for the block effect.  $CV_R$  is the residual coefficient of variation.  $CV_{BP}$  is the between-population  
 240 coefficient of variation.  $Q_{ST}$  is the quantitative genetic variation between populations (Spitze, 1993). The  
 241 significance of random effects is indicated after each variance estimator: ns  $P > 0.05$ , \*  $P < 0.05$ , \*\*  $P < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $P$   
 242  $< 0.001$ .

243

244 **Results**

245

246 **1. Between-population variation**

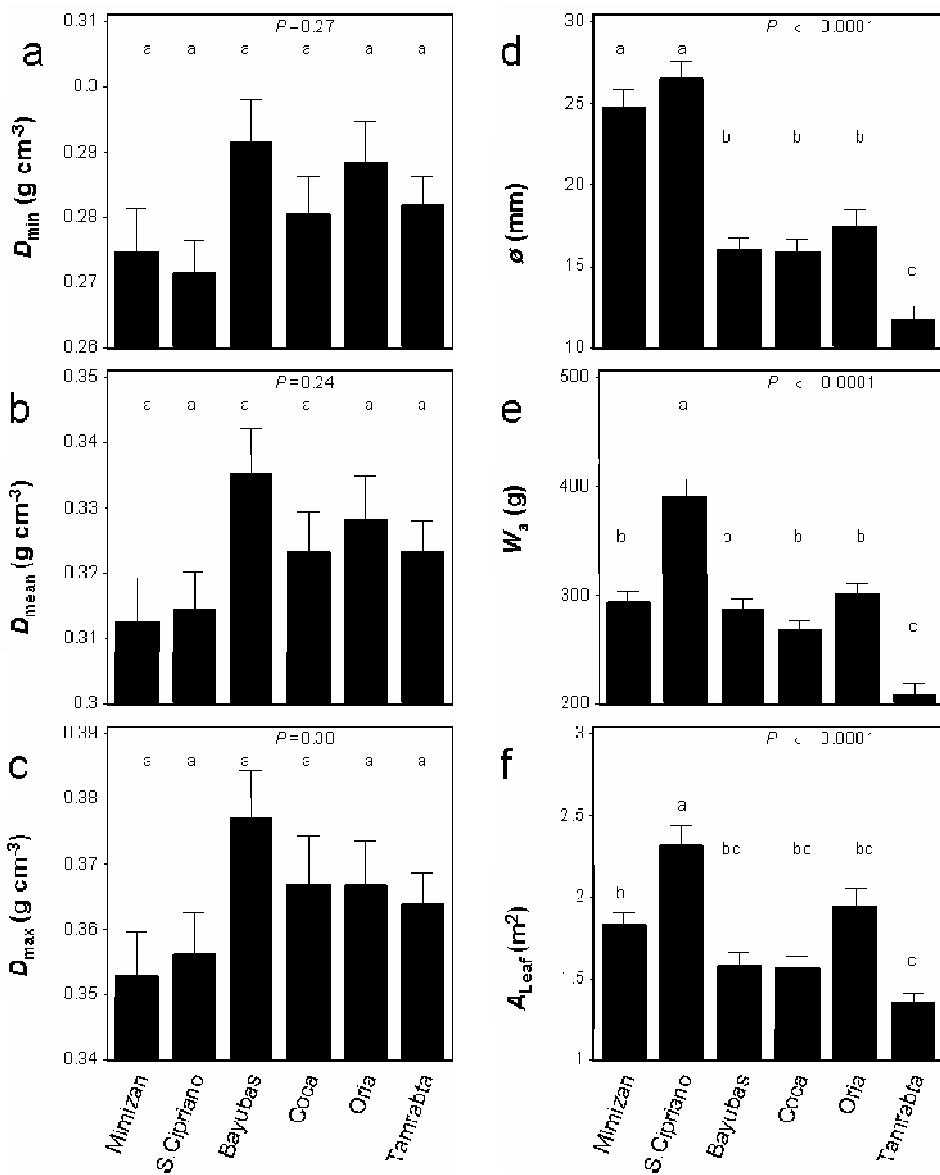
247 No significant difference between populations ( $V_{BP}$ ) was detected for wood density ( $D_{mean}$ ,  
248  $D_{min}$  and  $D_{max}$ ), whereas significant differences were found for  $W_a$ ,  $A_{Leaf}$  and  $\phi$  (Fig. 1 and  
249 Table 2). Wood density-related traits had much lower coefficients of variation than  $W_a$  (Table  
250 2), particularly at the between-population level ( $CV_{BP} = 1\%$  and  $19\%$  for  $D_{mean}$  and  $W_a$ ,  
251 respectively). The fixed block effect was significant for all the traits studied, indicating that  
252 the experimental design took environmental variation into account correctly.

253

254 The populations from the wettest areas (Mimizan and San Cipriano) had the highest  $A_{Leaf}$  and  
255  $\phi$  values (Fig. 1), whereas the Tamrabta population (from Morocco) had the lowest values.  
256 Iberian populations from the central and southern part of Spain (Coca, Bayubas, Oria) had  
257 intermediate values, with no detectable trend in terms of environmental aridity (represented  
258 by the ranking of the populations along the first PCA axis, Fig. S1).

259

260



261

262

263 **Fig. 1** Histogram showing, for each population, the 10<sup>th</sup> percentile of wood density  
 264 distribution ( $D_{\min}$ , (a)), mean values of mean wood density ( $D_{\text{mean}}$ , (b)), 90<sup>th</sup> percentile of  
 265 wood density distribution ( $D_{\max}$ , (c)), stem diameter in 2007 ( $\phi$ , (d)), total above-ground tree  
 266 dry biomass in 2005 ( $W_a$ , (e)), total tree leaf (needle) area ( $A_{\text{Leaf}}$ , (f)), for each studied  
 267 population (n = 40 per population). The error bars indicate the standard errors. The P-value is  
 268 that for the mixed model and indicates whether the population effect is significant. Different  
 269 letters indicate significant differences between populations at the  $\alpha = 0.05$  level (from a fixed  
 270 effect model).

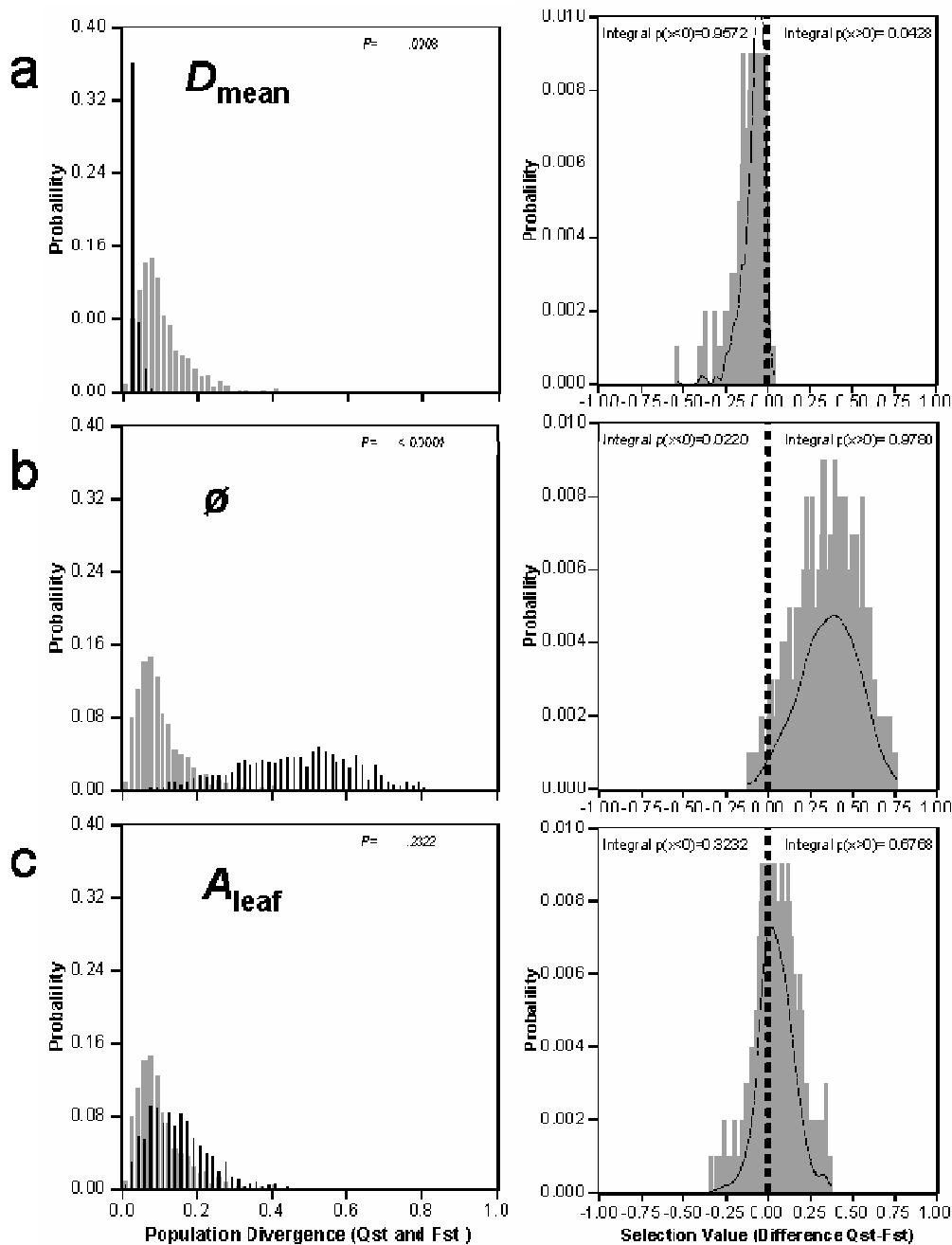
271

272           **2. Within-population variation**

273 Heritabilities and normalized measurements of trait dispersion (i.e. CVs) were estimated to  
274 evaluate within-population additive variance, evolvability (through the analysis of  $CV_A$ ) and  
275 micro-environmental sensitivity (through the analysis of  $CV_R$ ) (Table 2). The values of  
276 narrow-sense heritability ( $h^2_{ns}$ ) for  $D_{mean}$  ( $0.38 \pm 0.20$ ) and  $D_{max}$  ( $0.51 \pm 0.20$ ) indicated that  
277 wood density was moderately genetically determined, although the standard error was high,  
278 due to the small number of progenies per mother tree analyzed for this trait. The CVs of wood  
279 density and growth traits presented contrasting patterns, with a lower coefficient of additive  
280 variation ( $CV_A \leq 7\%$ ) for wood density than for other traits ( $CV_A > 20\%$ ), suggesting that  
281 evolvability is limited for wood density.

282

283



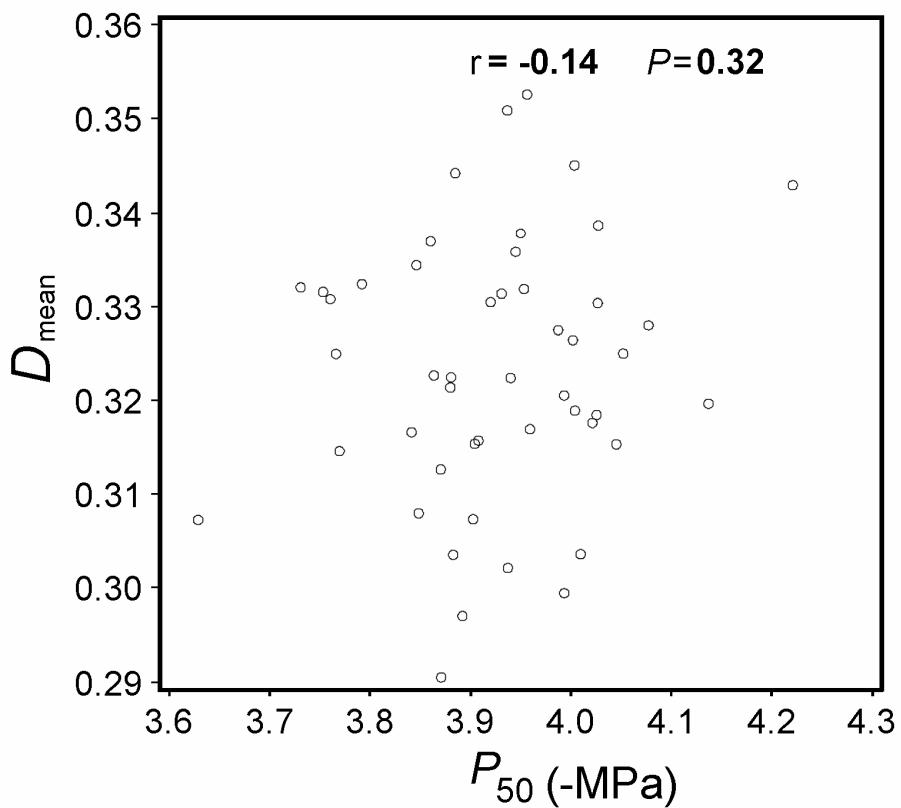
284

285 **Fig. 2** Comparison between  $F_{ST}$  (histogram in gray) and  $Q_{ST}$  (histogram in black) distributions  
286 for mean wood density ( $D_{mean}$ , (a)), stem diameter ( $\phi$ , (b)), total tree leaf (needle) area in 2006  
287 ( $A_{Leaf}$ , (c)), in the left panel. The observed distribution (gray histogram) and kernel density  
288 (black curves) of the  $Q_{ST}-F_{ST}$  difference are represented on the right panel for each trait. On  
289 the right panel, we also show the integral probability of the distribution (using the kernel  
290 density estimator) above (see “Integral  $p(x>0)$ ” on the right panel) and below (see “Integral  
291  $p(x<0)$ ” on the right panel) zero (marked with the dashed and dotted line).

292

293           **3. Evolutionary forces driving population differentiation**

294 Comparisons of  $Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$  may have three possible outcomes (Spitze, 1993): (i) if  $Q_{ST} > F_{ST}$ , the degree of differentiation for quantitative traits exceeds that attainable by genetic drift alone, (ii) if  $Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$  are not significantly different, the observed degree of differentiation for quantitative traits could have been reached by genetic drift alone, and (iii) if  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$ , the observed degree of differentiation is lower than expected from genetic drift alone. Consistent with previous reports (Waldmann et al. 2005; O'Hara and Merilä 2005), we found that  $F_{ST}^*$  and  $Q_{ST}^*$  had skewed distributions (Fig. 2). Only  $\phi$  and  $D_{mean}$  (together with  $D_{min}$ ,  $D_{max}$ , data not shown) had a  $Q_{ST}^*$  distribution that differed from the  $F_{ST}^*$  distribution ( $P < 0.0001$  and  $P = 0.0008$ , respectively). For,  $A_{Leaf}$  (and  $W_a$ , data not shown), the difference between  $Q_{ST}^*$  and  $F_{ST}^*$  values was centered on 0 (see Fig. 2c, right panel), and it was therefore not possible to distinguish between drift and selection ( $P=0.23$ ). Conversely, differences between the  $Q_{ST}^*$  and  $F_{ST}^*$  distributions for  $D_{mean}$  were centered on -0.13, suggesting that the studied populations were less differentiated than would be expected in the presence of drift alone (Fig. 2a). Thus, natural selection favors the same phenotypic mean in different populations. For  $\phi$ , the difference between  $Q_{ST}^*$  and  $F_{ST}^*$  distributions was centered on 0.34, suggesting that the studied populations displayed more differentiation than would be expected with drift alone (Fig. 2b).



311

312 **Fig. 3** Mean values of wood density ( $D_{\text{mean}}$ ) versus cavitation resistance ( $P_{50}$ , xylem pressure  
313 inducing 50% loss of hydraulic conductance). Dots correspond the family means (n=48).

314

#### 315        4. Correlation between traits

316 We found a significant negative phenotypic correlation between  $D_{\text{mean}}$  and  $\phi$  ( $r = -0.33$ ,  $P =$   
317 0.02), indicating that individuals with denser wood tended to have a smaller stem diameter.  
318 However, the genetic correlation was not significant ( $r = -0.20$ ,  $P = 0.16$ ). We observed no  
319 significant phenotypic correlation between  $D_{\text{mean}}$  (or  $D_{\text{max}}$  and  $D_{\text{min}}$ ) and cavitation resistance  
320 ( $P_{50}$ ) (Fig. 3). No significant correlations were found between  $D_{\text{mean}}$  and  $W_a$ ,  $A_{\text{Leaf}}$ .

321

#### 322        Discussion

323 Consistent with published results, we found that wood density ( $D_{\min}$ ,  $D_{\text{mean}}$ ,  $D_{\max}$ ) had a low  
324 additive variance and moderate heritability. Although the studied populations originated from  
325 contrasting climates and presented different evolutionary histories, no significant difference  
326 between populations was detected and the variability between populations was smaller than  
327 expected under genetic drift alone ( $Q_{\text{ST}} < F_{\text{ST}}$ ). In other words, these populations shared the  
328 same trait value, suggesting evolutionary stasis for this trait. It was therefore not  
329 straightforward to infer which evolutionary forces (i.e. genetic drift vs. natural selection) had  
330 driven trait variability (Whitlock 2008). Conversely, the collar diameter ( $\phi$ ) presented a higher  
331 additive genetic variance and differentiation between populations, consistent with the action  
332 of diversifying selection on the studied populations. For the other traits ( $W_a$ ,  $A_{\text{Leaf}}$ ), we were  
333 unable to disentangle the effects of genetic drift and natural selection. We discuss below the  
334 possible evolutionary mechanisms underlying the low degree of variability of wood density  
335 between populations.

336

### 337 *Study of wood density variability*

338 Wood density variability has been thoroughly dissected in previous studies (Gapare et al.  
339 2009), but generally in a narrow genetic backgrounds (elite trees, crossing between local  
340 populations) or interspecific hybrids. Conversely, few studies have considered the between-  
341 population variability of wood density because this information is usually not required for  
342 classical breeding programs. In some instance, evolutionary biologists have compared  
343 between-population variability and expectations under genetic drift for wood density. This is  
344 the case in *Picea glauca*, *Eucalyptus globulus* and *Pinus contorta* (Yang et al. 1996;  
345 Jaramillo-Correa et al. 2001; Steane et al. 2006). In some studies between-population  
346 variation was detected, but comparisons with ours remain difficult because: (i) these previous  
347 studies were not designed to assess the level and structure of variation across a wide range of

348 ecotypes. Population sampling was usually restricted to a subset of the distribution area. The  
349 results were therefore biased toward low  $F_{ST}$  values (<0.1). For instance, Jaramillo-Correa et  
350 al. (2001) obtained an  $F_{ST}$  of 0.02, much lower than that found by Tremblay and Simon,  
351 (1989) ( $F_{ST} = 0.11$ ) for broader sampling in the same species, (ii) the protocols for assessing  
352 wood density differ between studies: with the use of pilodyn (Steane et al. 2006) or the water  
353 displacement method to estimate wood specific gravity (Yang et al. 1996) (iii) the age at  
354 which wood density was measured also differed considerably between studies. Apiolaza  
355 (2011) showed that genetic variability in *Pinus radiata* increases with age for wood density,  
356 and mature wood and juvenile wood are known to be subject to different genetic controls  
357 (Plomion et al. 2001). Jaramillo-Correa et al. (2001) and Yang et al. (1996), worked on 22-  
358 year-old and 10-year-old trees, respectively. Our results were obtained with juvenile wood  
359 from branches. Further studies generating a large dataset are required to check that the  
360 asymptotic assumptions of the mixed model are satisfied and to obtain a robust estimate of the  
361 variance component.

362

### 363 *Evolutionary significance of stasis and underlying mechanisms*

364 In our study, variance between populations ( $Q_{ST}$ ) was lower than expected under a hypothesis  
365 of genetic drift ( $F_{ST}$ , from neutral markers). Such a pattern of variability was recently  
366 described for cavitation resistance related-trait in a study based on the same experimental  
367 design (Lamy et al. 2011). Explaining stasis, a situation in which evolution has failed, is one  
368 of the more challenging questions in evolutionary biology (Bradshaw 1991). Uniform  
369 selection is often proposed as a classical explanation of narrow between-population trait  
370 variation resulting in stasis. According to this model, independent stabilizing selection events  
371 act within each population, with the same selection optimum. However, this model provides  
372 no clues as to why the selection optimum should be the same. Selection-based scenarios are

373 unlikely to account for evolution failure, particularly for traits still displaying some degree of  
374 variability within populations (Gould and Lewontin 1979; Bradshaw 1991). However,  
375 simulations have also shown that the  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  pattern can be obtained for traits that are non  
376 additively genetically controlled (Goudet and Buchi 2006; Lopez-Fanjul et al. 2007). It is  
377 therefore more likely (and parsimonious) that the  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  pattern is due to a complex  
378 architecture of the underlying genes, which interact non additively, rather than that  
379 populations from contrasting climates share the same selection optimum. In conclusions, we  
380 firmly believe that the  $Q_{ST} < F_{ST}$  pattern observed here results from a robust genetic  
381 architecture that narrows trait variability (*i.e.* canalization) rather than true uniform selection.

382

383 *Wood density and other wood related-trait*

384 At the interspecific level, (Hacke and Sperry 2001) showed that cavitation resistance (drought  
385 tolerance) is correlated with wood density, species with higher wood density being more  
386 resistant to cavitation. In *Pseudotsuga menziesii* and *Picea abies* clones, a negative correlation  
387 was found between wood density and cavitation resistance (Rosner et al. 2008; Dalla-Salda et  
388 al. 2011). Even with considerable statistical power, we found no relationship between wood  
389 density and cavitation resistance within species (Fig. 3). In provenance tests, Corcuera et al.  
390 (2011) and Wortemann (2011) also found no relationship between wood density and  
391 cavitation resistance. In *Pinus sylvestris*, Martinez-Vilalta et al. (2009) did not detect any  
392 correlation between these traits *in situ* natural populations. We propose two hypotheses to  
393 account for these discrepancies: (i) despite the greater statistical power of our design, the  
394 relationship between cavitation resistance and wood density does not seem to be robust to  
395 environmental variation and genetic variation and (ii) from a physiological point of view, this  
396 lack of correlation is unsurprising, because there is no direct causal link between wood  
397 density and cavitation resistance (Delzon et al. 2010; Jansen et al. 2011) in *Pinus* genera. For

398 instance Delzon et al. (2010) showed that bordered pit dimensions are much more important  
399 for cavitation resistance than total tracheid lumen area. However, even if these two traits are  
400 not correlated, they have other features in common: they both have a low  $CV_A$  (<7%) and  
401 display extremely low levels of variation between populations ( $CV_{BP} \leq 1\%$ ), suggesting that  
402 this trend follows a general rule for wood anatomy-related traits. This findings indicate that  
403 additional, more detailed investigations of the naturally occurring variability of wood  
404 anatomy-related traits (e.g. cell wall thickness, aperture pit dimensions, torus diameter, margo  
405 pore diameter etc...) are required to gain greater insight into canalization. However, it should  
406 be pointed out that our study focused on juvenile wood, and trait values at the start of  
407 ontogeny are known to be canalized (Milton et al. 2003; Sangster et al. 2008). Further studies  
408 are required to confirm that stasis for wood density is also conserved in mature trees.

409

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417

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568    **Supplementary information**

569

570    *Procedure for population selection*

571    We therefore designed a procedure for the selection of six populations, representative of the  
572    extremes of the climatic envelope of maritime pine. For a total of 754 grid points covering the  
573    entire natural range of the species (see Fig. S1 and Bucci et al. (2007)), we first extracted  
574    climatic data from the CRU CL 2.0 10' global dataset for the period 1961-1990 (New et al.  
575    1999, 2000, 2002). These data included monthly precipitation, mean, minimum and maximum  
576    temperature, diurnal temperature range, water vapor pressure, cloud cover, wet day frequency,  
577    ground frost frequency, radiation, wind, Martonne index, Turc's potential evapotranspiration  
578    and soil water deficit. We also derived the vapor pressure deficit from these parameters.  
579    Principal component analysis (PCA) was then used to reduce the number of dimensions (14  
580    climatic variables \* 12 months) for the whole set of climate variables (Fig. S2). The data were  
581    centered and scaled before PCA. All the populations available in the provenance-progeny trial  
582    were finally placed on the main plane of the PCA (accounting for 70% of the variation) and  
583    six of these populations (Fig. S2) were selected as a representative subset of the climatic  
584    envelope covered by *Pinus pinaster* species. In addition, to the climatic criterion for selecting  
585    populations, we chose populations with different mitotypes and chloroplastic haplotypes,  
586    constituting a good proxy for contrasting evolutionary history (Vendramin et al. 1998; Burban  
587    and Petit 2003). In each population, eight families with one half-sib in each block (6  
588    populations/8 families/5 blocks) were randomly selected for further analysis.

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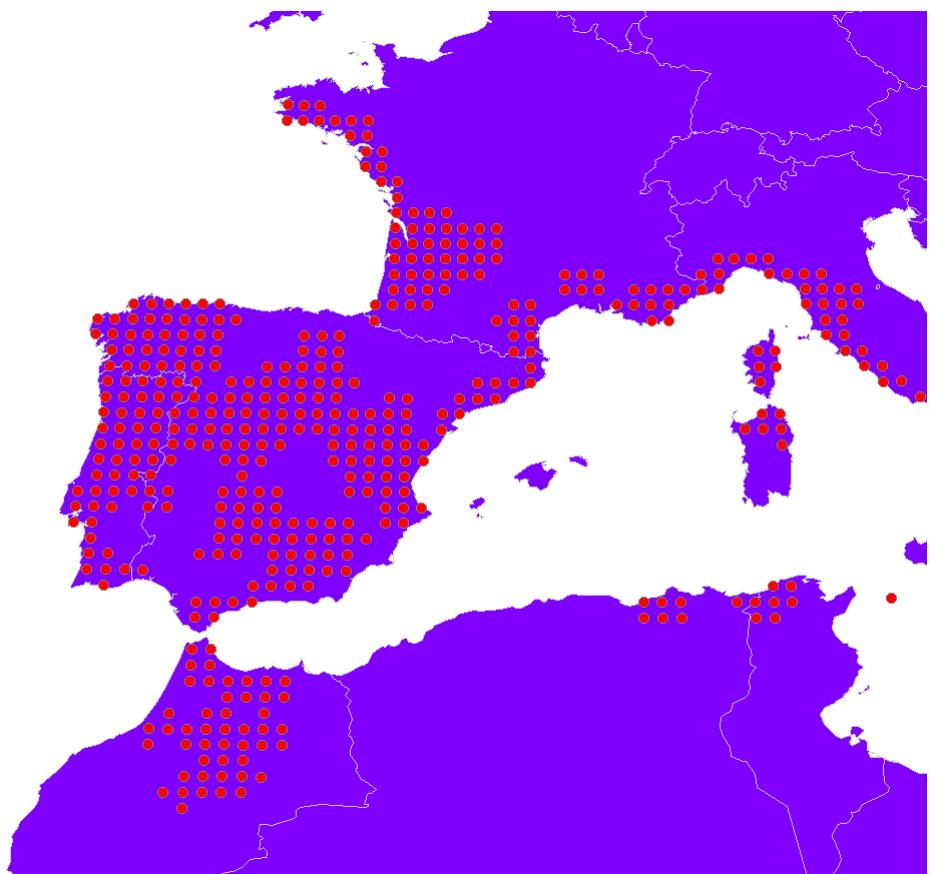
593   **Fig. S1** Map of *Pinus pinaster* range. Dots represent the 754 grid points overlying the current range (from Bucci  
594   et al. 2007) and used for population selection.

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596   **Fig. S2** Principal component analysis (PCA) on the [769 population locations x 168 climatic variables derived  
597   monthly] data matrix. (a) Main plane, with a contour plot representing the probability of presence (kernel density  
598   estimate) of *Pinus pinaster* populations (small black dot) within the bioclimatic envelope represented by PC1  
599   and PC2 axes, accounted for 41% and 23% of the variance, respectively. PC1 could be interpreted as an aridity  
600   index (highly correlated with Martonne aridity index) and PC2 could be interpreted as a continentality index.  
601   The studied populations and provenance and progeny tests are indicated by black circles. PCA was performed  
602   with the variables indicated in the methods section. Due to the large number of climatic variables (168), we  
603   provide two correlation circles, one (b) showing the eigenvectors averaged by climatic variable and the other (c)  
604   showing the eigenvectors averaged by month.

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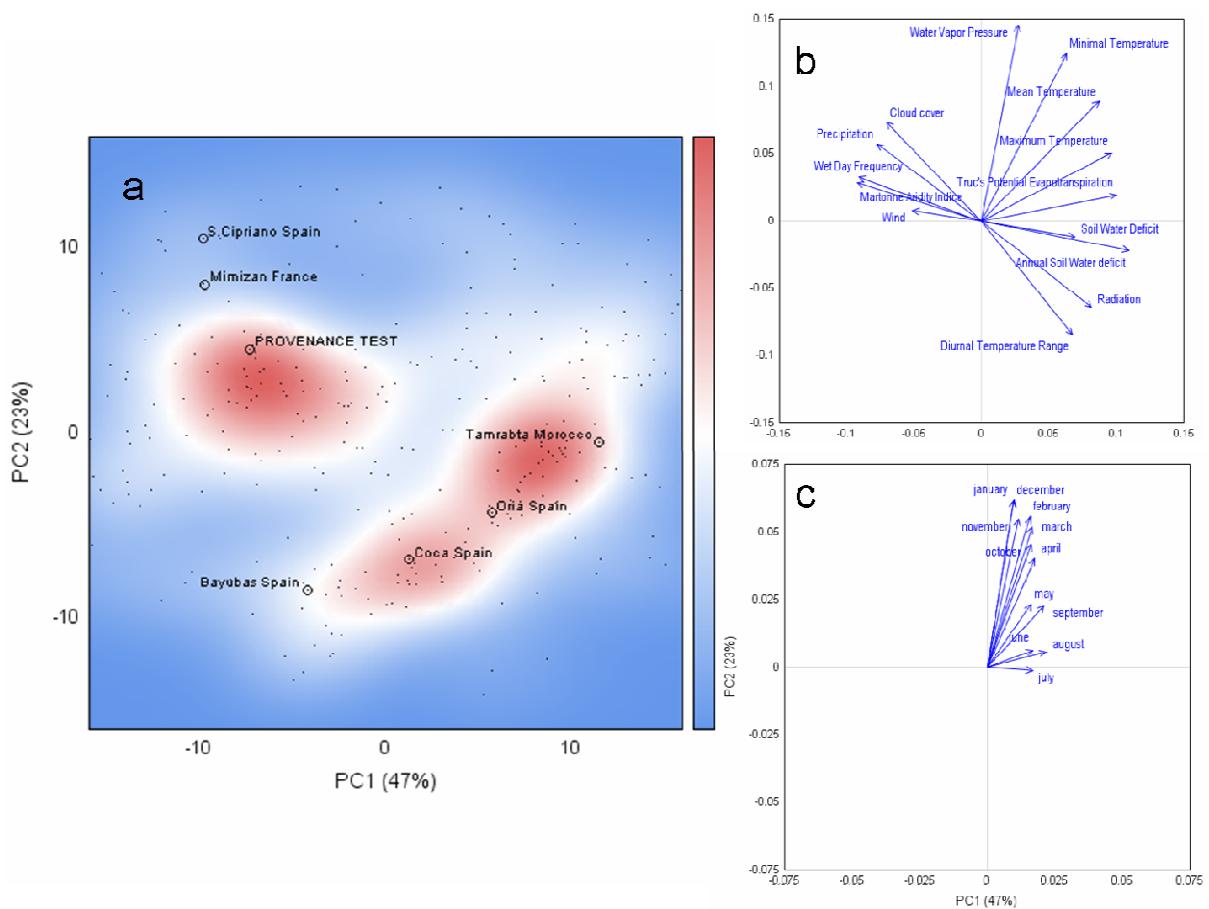


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**Fig S1**

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612 **Fig. S2**

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# Genotypic and environmental variation in cavitation resistance in a pine species transplanted in wet and dry provenance tests

Jean-Baptiste Lamy<sup>1,2,3,4</sup>, Sylvain Delzon<sup>1,2</sup>, Pauline Bouche, Ricardo Alia<sup>4</sup>, Giovanni Giuseppe Vendramin<sup>5</sup>, Christophe Plomion<sup>1,2</sup>, Hervé Cochard<sup>3,4</sup>.

<sup>1</sup> INRA, UMR 1202 BIOGECO, F-33610 Cestas, France

<sup>2</sup> Univ. Bordeaux, UMR 1202 BIOGECO, F-33400 Talence, France.

<sup>3</sup> INRA, UMR547 PIAF, F-63100 Clermont-Ferrand, France

<sup>4</sup> Clermont Université, Université Blaise Pascal, UMR547 PIAF, BP 10448, F-63000 Clermont-Ferrand, France

<sup>4</sup> Departamento de Sistemas y Recursos Forestales, CIFOR — INIA, Carretera de La Coruña km 7.5, 28040 Madrid, Spain

<sup>5</sup> Istituto di Genetica Vegetale, Sezione di Firenze, Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche, via Madonna del Piano 10, 50019 Sesto Fiorentino (FI), Italy

Author for correspondence: Hervé Cochard,  
Phone: + 033 (0)473624471  
Email: [cochard@clermont.inra.fr](mailto:cochard@clermont.inra.fr)

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## Abstract

- Cavitation resistance is one of the best proxy of tree survival to severe drought. The interspecific variation of this trait is well known, but data at intraspecific level remains scarce. Quantifying genetic variation and phenotypic plasticity is therefore critical to estimate the adaptive potential of these perennial organisms in the context of climate change .
- Combining for the first time the *in situ* characterization of natural populations with common garden experiments in xeric and mesic sites, we estimated variance components (genetic G, environmental E, and GxE) of resistance to cavitation based on 506 genotypes of *Pinus pinaster*.
- Surprisingly, resistance to cavitation displayed low phenotypic ( $CV_P < 7\%$ ) and genetic ( $CV_A = 4.9\%$ ) variances and limited phenotypic plasticity compared to height growth.
- This pattern of variation strongly suggests resistance to cavitation is buffered against environmental and genetic variations. The underlying evolutionary mechanisms are discussed.

Key words: Drought tolerance, cavitation resistance, provenance-progeny trial, *Pinus pinaster*, hydraulic physiology, phenotypic plasticity, genetic variation,  $Q_{ST}/F_{ST}$  comparison.

## **Introduction**

Terrestrial plants need to absorb water to replace the evaporation that occurs while atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> is diffusing into photosynthetic tissues. This constraint has shaped plant structure and functioning since they have colonised emerged lands and can explain the evolution of plant tissues to achieve efficient water transport (such as hydroids, tracheids, vessels) and to regulate water flow (stomata) (Sperry, 2003; Pittermann, 2010). The evolution of the hydraulic system from hydroids to vessels reflects a trade-off between hydraulic safety (resistance to cavitation) and hydraulic efficiency (maximum conductance). Plants have since been able to adapt to the natural climatic fluctuations and to colonize most of the arid places in the world. However, given the recent abnormal increase in world average temperature and the frequency of extreme climatic events (Beniston et al., 2007; Della-Marta & Beniston, 2008), the rate of natural adaptation may no longer follow the rate of climate change (Bréda, 2006; Riou-Nivert et al., 2008; Bréda & Badeau, 2008; Lindner et al., 2010). Indeed several authors noticed that recent forests die-back could be linked to a severe drought event (Allen & Breshears, 1998; Breshears et al., 2005; Bréda et al., 2006; Granier et al., 2007; Allen, 2009; Allen et al., 2010). In this context, an effort should be made to quantify and then improve drought tolerance of domesticated and natural plant species (Allen & Breshears, 1998) to ensure the maintenance of economic and ecological services.

Due to the complex nature of most quantitative traits and the cost of phenotyping, researchers should select crucial trait(s) for drought tolerance (Houle, 2009, 2010). This is particularly true for drought tolerance which encompasses multiple dimensions, with involves various morphological and physiological responses difficult to assess. Usually, to circumvent these obstacle agronomists use a series of morphological traits, such as the leaf rolling delay in *Zea*

*mays* (Dhanda et al., 2004; Blum, 2009a), or a more easy to measure and cost effective physiological trait such as carbon isotope composition to trace the ratio of carbon assimilation and transpiration (Brendel et al., 2002, 2008; Cumbie et al., 2011). However, these above-mentioned traits are related to growth maintenance during moderate drought rather than survival during and after extreme drought (Blum, 2009b). It is now time to pay attention on traits clearly related to drought survival.

The importance of cavitation resistance in plant physiology under drought is grounded by several lines of evidence: (i) Thank to experimental drought and recovery monitoring Brodribb & Cochard, (2009) and Brodribb et al., (2010) demonstrated a good correlation between the tree lethal water potential and its cavitation resistance (i.e. in conifers, 50% loss of conductance in the seedling stem lead to death by dehydration,  $r= 0.9$ ), more cavitation resistant species survived to stronger drought, (ii) In average, species from drier climates are more cavitation resistant compared to species from wetter climates (Maherali et al., 2004). (iii) Tyree et al., (1994) and Rood et al., (2000) related massive branch die-back in *Populus deltoides* and *P. fremontii* to extensive events of cavitation in tree's limb. Cavitation resistance is therefore the best proxy for tree drought tolerance, still no extensive dataset exist nowadays, even less at the intra-specific level.

Along the course of evolution, adaptation to the changing environment is possible through at least, two non-exclusives mechanisms: genetic diversity and phenotypic plasticity:

(i) Genetic diversity can be seen as a pool of variants among which natural selection keeps the fittest. Indeed genetic diversity is the necessary fuel for genetic adaptation. Such diversity appears naturally with time by the interplay of evolutionary forces (migration, genetic drift, natural selection, recombination and mutation). To cope with the rapid rate of current climate change, human actions can also enhance genetic adaptation through the increase of genetic

diversity (artificial mutation, transgenesis, assisted migration) (Scotti, 2010). An other condition is needed to be targeted by natural selection, the strong correlation between the studied trait and fitness. Based on the previous arguments, we assumed that cavitation resistance is the best available and fitness related-trait to trace survival during extreme droughts. The variation of cavitation resistance has been extensively studied between species (Maherali et al., 2004; Delzon et al., 2010), although estimates of the amount of genetic variation are still scarce. Three recent studies have assessed the genetic variation of cavitation resistance for *Pinus Pinaster* and *Fagus sylvatica* (Lamy et al., 2011; Corcuera et al., 2011; Wortemann et al., 2011). Overall, cavitation resistance has a low phenotypic variation, (coefficient of variation is less than 10%) and most part of the genetic variation resides within each population, the variation between populations being very low or null. Lamy et al (2011) have proposed that cavitation resistance is a canalized trait in *Pinus pinaster*. In other words, the average value of this trait is the same for populations from contrasted climates; in other words this trait seems to be robust to genetic and environmental perturbations.

(ii) Phenotypic plasticity is a second component of adaptation. A genotype expresses a given phenotypic value in a given environment. Phenotypic plasticity could be dissected in two parts, first, the reaction norms is the function (linear, quadratic or sigmoid) that links the phenotypic changes to the environmental changes; second it is the genetic variability of the reaction norm, also called genotype by environment interaction (Debat & David, 2001). Indeed, like any other trait, reaction norms can evolve in response to environmental pressures. The genotype by environment interaction is of major concern in the attempt to develop adapted crop plants to wide geographical ranges. It is also of considerable concern for undomesticated species because it provides clues to understand mechanisms that have shaped local adaptation. The term “phenotypic plasticity” can be found in most of the discussion section of papers dealing with ecological implication of cavitation resistance variation; but

they consider qualitative estimations (K.J. Kolb & Sperry, 1999; Maherli & DeLucia, 2000; Maherli et al., 2002; Jacobsen et al., 2007; Martinez-Vilalta et al., 2009; Beikircher & Mayr, 2009). These speculations are based on the discrepancy between phenotypic variation (cavitation resistance assessed *in situ*) and genetic variation (cavitation resistances assessed in provenance trials). Some authors stated that there is a lot of phenotypic plasticity for cavitation resistance while others stated the opposite. Clearly, a definitive conclusion could only be drawn out of a larger amount of studies regarding phenotypic plasticity but as far as we know there are only two quantitative estimation of phenotypic plasticity for cavitation resistance (Corcuera et al., 2011; Wortemann et al., 2011). Therefore a major concern is to quantify the relative amount of genetic variation and phenotypic plasticity in the variation of tree drought resistance.

We carried out a case study on maritime pine (*Pinus pinaster* Ait.), a tree species with a fragmented distribution in the western part of the Mediterranean region. The scattered distribution of this species may have prevented or limited gene flow between different groups of populations, promoting high levels of genetic divergence between ecotypes due to genetic drift (M. M. Ribeiro, LeProvost, et al., 2002; M. M. Ribeiro, Mariette, et al., 2002) and/or natural selection (Quezel and Barbero 1998 in (Richardson, 1998)). We screened 506 six-year-old trees from six populations from the most contrasted climatic provenances using two twin provenance-progeny trials, with contrasting water availability conditions and sampling in *in situ* natural populations. The aims of this study were: (i) to quantify the magnitude of the phenotypic variation of cavitation resistance traits in natural populations, (ii) to study the determinism of these traits by quantifying both the genetic variation and the phenotypic plasticity (iii) the correlation between cavitation resistance and climatic variable.

**Table 1.** Climatic data, location, elevation, soil and genetic information of each selected populations and eachprovenance-progeny trials

Populations	Longitude (°)	Latitude (°)	n	Elevation (m)	P <sub>i</sub> (mm)	T <sub>m</sub> (°C)	VPD <sub>max</sub> (hPa)	ETP ( mm)	Mito	Chloro
<b>Bayubas de Abajo</b> (Spain)	-2.87	41.52	37- 182	955	561	10.5	11.42	882.9	W	a
<b>Coca</b> (Spain)	-4.08	41.37	37- 122	788	452	11.9	14.23	718.7	W	a
<b>Mimizan</b> (France)	-1.30	44.13	38- 154.5	37	1176	13.2	7.26	751.59	W	a
<b>Oria</b> (Spain)	-2.62	37.87	32- 155.5	1232	451	13.4	14.29	922.59	W	j
<b>San Cipriano</b> (Spain)	-8.70	42.13	35- 114	310	1625	13.8	8.54	721.91	W	g
<b>Tamrabta</b> (Morocco)	-5.02	33.66	38- 113	1760	550	15.1	18.56	976.54	M	k

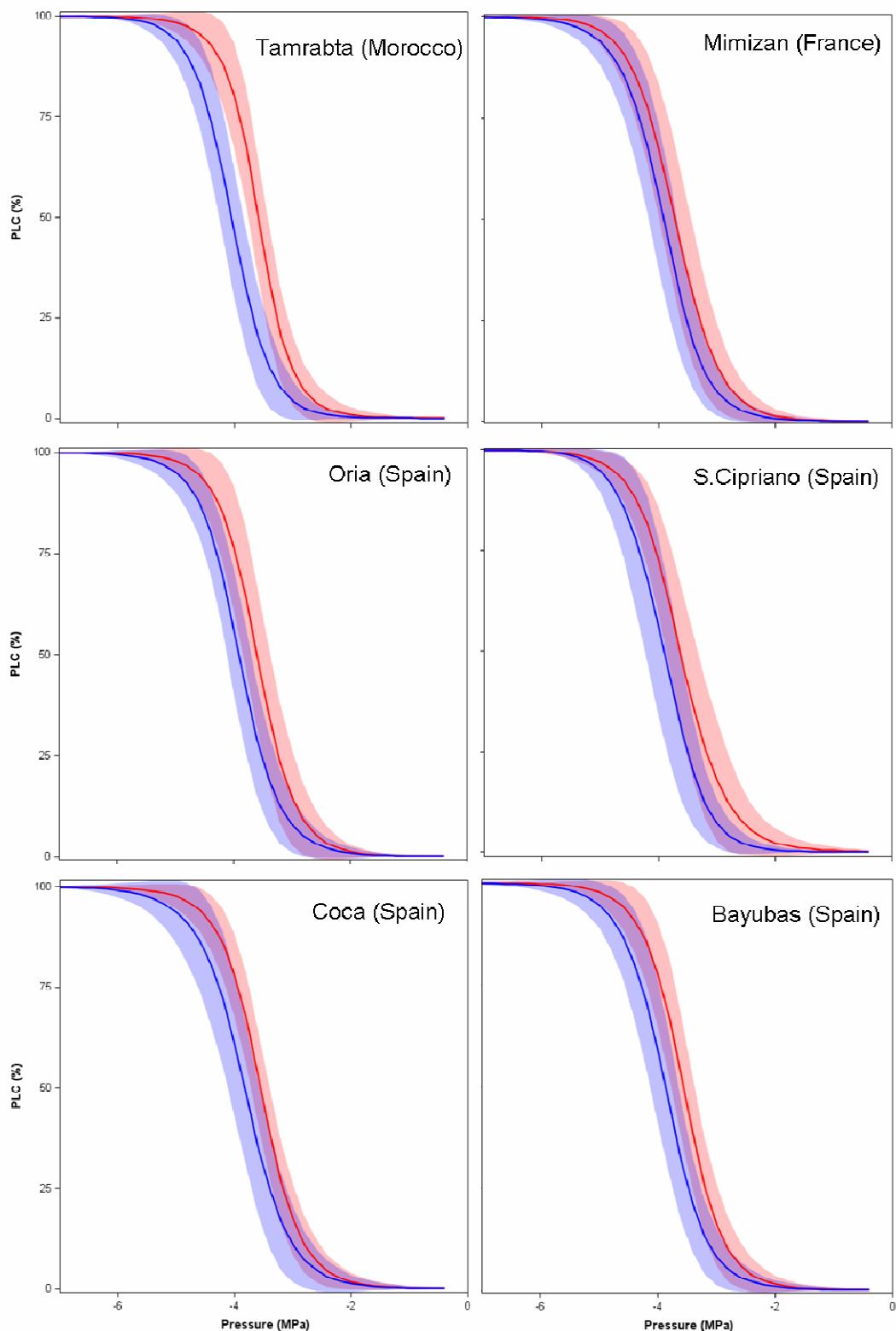
Trials	Longitude (°)	Latitude (°)	n	Elevation (m)	P <sub>i</sub> (mm)	T <sub>m</sub> (°C)	VPD <sub>max</sub> (hPa)	ETP ( mm)	Soil
<b>Dry</b> , Calcena (Spain)	-1.72	41.62	196-1857	997	452	11.1	11.1	778.2	Shaly sandstone
<b>Wet</b> , Cestas (France)	-0.78	44.74	240-5569	61	800	12.7	6.70	743.8	Sandy podzol

n, number of individuals for cavitation resistance and tree height traits, respectively; P<sub>i</sub>, mean annual precipitation; T<sub>m</sub>, mean annual air temperature; VPD<sub>max</sub>, maximal of water vapor pressure deficit (in July for all provenances); ETP, annual sum of potential evapotranspiration. Mito and chloro corresponds to the most frequent chloroplastic and mitochondrial haplotype bearing by the populations (Burban & Petit, 2003).

## **Material and Methods**

### *Provenance trial*

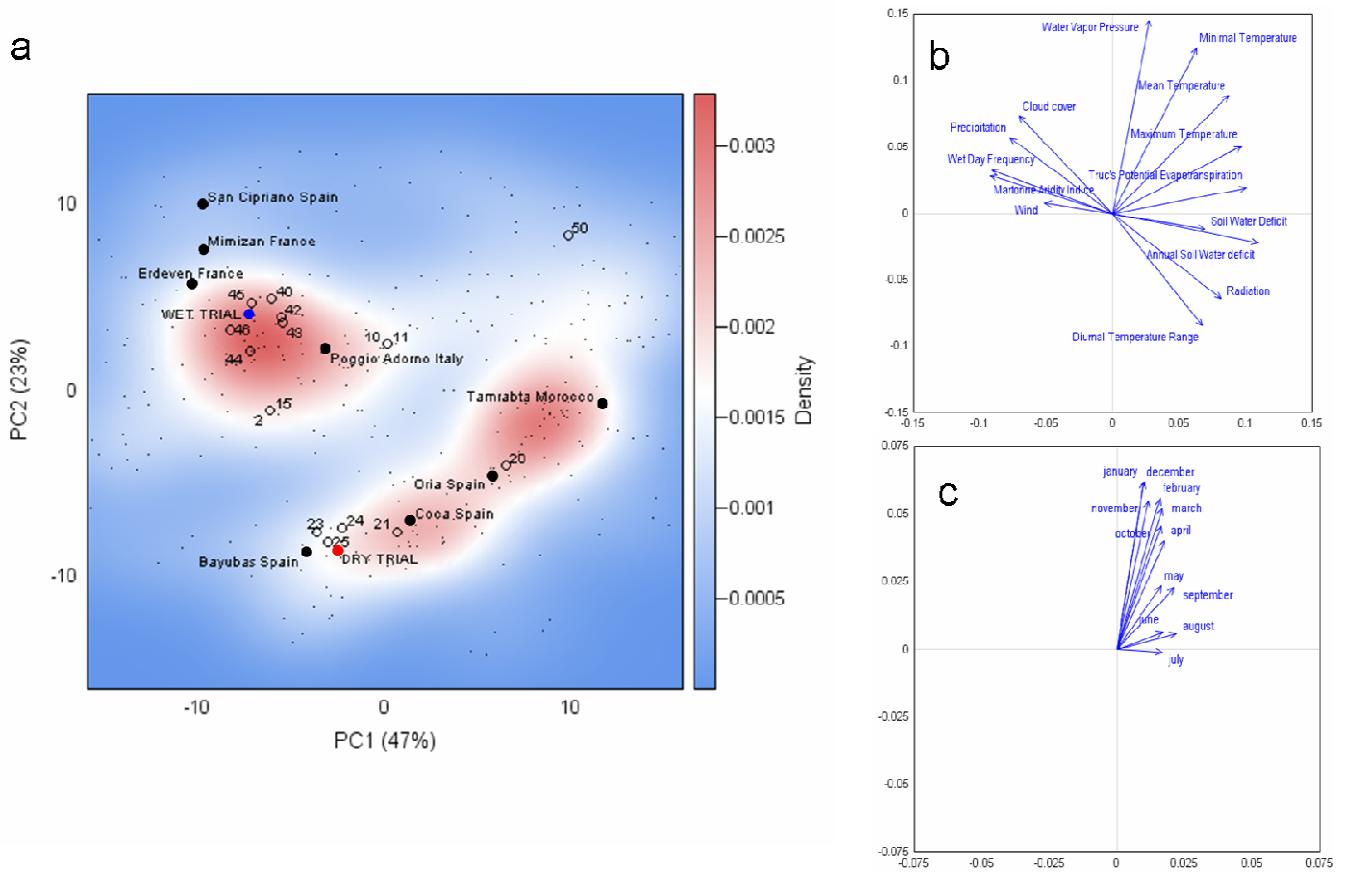
We established a replicated provenance-progeny trial (i.e. same families of the same populations, Figure 1): in Calcena (Spain, Aragon, 41° 3'N, 01°43'W) hereafter called the "dry" trial, and in Cestas (France, Aquitaine, 44°44'N, 00°46'W) called the "wet" trial (see Table 1 and Figure 2). Seedlings were grown in a nursery from open-pollinated seeds collected from 24 natural populations (or ecotypes) in France, Spain, Morocco, Italy and Tunisia, to cover the fragmented distribution of *Pinus pinaster*. Each population was represented by 20 to 30 half-sib families. Each trial was planted using an incomplete randomized block design (a multi-tree plot in the dry trial and a single tree plot in the wet trial). The wet trial was planted in winter 2003 and the dry trial in winter 2004 (Eveno, 2008), respectively. In both trials, trees were 6 old years at the time of cavitation resistance assessment (2009 and 2010 respectively).



**Fig. 1** Mean vulnerability curves for each of the 6 populations in each trial (wet and dry,  $n=36\pm 1$ ). The shaded band represents the standard deviation. In red, mean vulnerability curve for the dry trial. In blue, mean vulnerability curve for the wet trial.

### *Selection of populations*

We designed a procedure for selecting 6 populations representing the extreme range of the climatic envelope of maritime pine. For a total of 754 grid points covering the entire natural range of the species (Gabriele Bucci et al., 2007) we first extracted climatic data from the CRU CL 2.0 10' global dataset for the period 1961-1990 (New et al., 1999, 2000, 2002). These data included monthly precipitation, mean, minimum and maximum temperature, diurnal temperature range, water vapor pressure, cloud cover, wet day frequency, ground frost frequency, mean global radiation, mean wind speed, Martonne index, Turc's potential evapotranspiration and soil water deficit. We also derived the air vapor pressure deficit from these parameters (H.G. Jones, 1992). A principal component analysis (PCA) was then used to reduce the number of dimensions (14 climatic variables \* 12 months) for the whole set of climate variables (Figure 2). The data were centered and scaled prior to PCA. All the populations available in the provenance-progeny trials were finally placed on the main plane of the PCA (accounting for 70% of the variation) and six of these populations were selected to cover the climatic envelope covered by *Pinus pinaster* (Table 1). In addition, to their distribution over the whole climatic range, we selected populations bearing different mitochondrial and chloroplastic haplotypes, a good proxy of contrasted evolutionary history using genetic maps (Gabriele Bucci et al., 2007) and literature (Vendramin et al., 1998; Burban & Petit, 2003).



**Fig. 2** Principal component analysis (PCA) based on 769 population locations x 168 monthly derived climatic variables. (a) Main plain (PC1 and PC2) with a contour plot representing the presence's probability (kernel density estimate) of *Pinus pinaster* populations (small black dots) within the bioclimatic envelope. Red and blue colour means respectively high and low probability of presence of *Pinus pinaster* populations within the bioclimatic envelope. PC1 and PC2 account for 47% and 23% of the variance, respectively. PC1 can be interpreted as an aridity index and PC2 as a continentality index (see results section).

- Open circles ID correspond to the populations studied for growth traits in the twin provenance-progeny trial as follows: #2: Restonica, Corsica; #10: Aullène, Corsica; #11: Pineta, Corsica; #15: Pinia, Corsica; #21: Arenas de San Pedro, Spain; #23: Cuellar, Spain; #24: Valdemarqued, Spain; #25: San Leonardo de Yagüe, Spain; #40: Petrock, France; #42: Hourtin, France; #43: Le Verdon, France; #44: Olonne sur mer, France; #45: Saint Jean de Monts, France; #46: Pleucadec, France; #50, Tabarka, Tunisia (geographical coordinates as available in supplementary file).
- Closed black dots labelled with a lower case text correspond to i/ populations selected for cavitation resistance and growth traits analyses in the RPPT, as well as ii/ natural populations sampled *in situ*.
- Coloured dots are the RPPT, red for the "dry" provenance-progeny test (Calcena, Spain) and blue for "wet" provenance-progeny test (Cestas, France).

PCA was performed with the variables indicated in the material and methods section. Because of the high number of climatic variables (168), we provide two correlation circles (b) shows the averaged eigenvectors for each category of climatic variable, and (c) displays the eigenvectors averaged by month.

#### *Sampling in provenance-progeny trials and in situ natural populations*

In both provenance-progeny trials, we randomly sampled eight families per population with at least one half-sib on each block (6 populations/8 families/5-4 blocks) (see table 1). To assess phenotypic variation for *in situ* natural populations, we used a simplified sampling with 11 individuals per site (66 genotypes in total) spaced by at least 50m to avoid genetic autocorrelations due to relatedness between individuals (González-Martínez et al., 2003). On the same trees, we also measured collar diameter (electronic caliper, mm), total height (instrument, m), determine tree age (counting stem's whorl) and harvested two branches per individuals for cavitation resistance measurements on the two last growth units (see cavitation resistance and height growth trait section).

#### *Cavitation resistance and height growth*

To assess the variation of cavitation resistance, we established the whole vulnerability curve for each of the 506 genotypes (see figure 1). Vulnerability curves were based on the Cavitron technique as described previously in (Cochard, 2002; Cochard et al., 2005). Measurements were performed at the high-throughput phenotyping platform for hydraulic traits (CaviPlace, University of Bordeaux, Talence, France) using a custom-built honeycomb rotor (SamPrecis 2000, Bordeaux, France) mounted on a Sorvall RC5 ultra-centrifuge (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Munich, Germany). Samples were kept refrigerated and vulnerability to cavitation was determined within two weeks of collection. All samples were debarked to avoid resin exudation, re-cut under water to a standard length of 27 cm, and both ends were trimmed with a fresh razor blade to obtain perfectly smooth surfaces with open tracheids. A solution of

ultrapure and degassed water including 10 mM KCl and 1 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub> was used as reference solution for hydraulic measurements. After measuring the maximum hydraulic conductance under low (i.e., close to zero) xylem pressure ( $P$ ), the rotation speed of the centrifuge was gradually increased by 0.5 MPa to determine the percentage loss of hydraulic conductance (PLC). The rotor velocity was monitored with a 10 rpm resolution electronic tachymeter (A2108-LSR232, 202 Compact Inst, Bolton, UK) and the xylem pressure was adjusted to about  $\pm 0.02$  MPa. We used Cavi\_soft software (version 1.5, University of Bordeaux) for conductance measurements and the computation of all vulnerability curves, which were adjusted according to (Pammeter & Vander Willigen, 1998). The  $P_{50}$  (MPa) value was defined as the pressure corresponding to 50% PLC.  $S_{50}$  was defined as the slope (% MPa<sup>-1</sup>) of a tangent at the inflection point ( $P_{50}$ ) and corresponds to the speed of cavitation spread.

To compare growth performance between trials and *in situ* natural stands, we used tree height at four years old ( $h$  m) corresponding to years 2008 for the dry trial and 2007 for the wet trial. For *in situ* natural populations, we estimated the height at four by dividing the height by the actual age (we obtained an average annual increment) and then multiply by four.

### *Single site analysis*

We used the following mixed model which is robust enough to handle non normality and unbalanced data:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{Z}_0\mathbf{block} + \mathbf{Z}_1\mathbf{pop} + \mathbf{Z}_2\mathbf{f} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathbf{y}$  is the vector of observation for a trait,  $\mathbf{b}$  is the vector of fixed mean effects, **block** is the vector of random block effects, **pop** is the vector of random population effects, **f** is the vector of the random genetic effects of mother trees within the population,  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$  is the vector of residuals,  $\mathbf{X}$  is called the design matrix,  $\mathbf{Z}_0$ ,  $\mathbf{Z}_1$  and  $\mathbf{Z}_2$  are the incidence matrices linking the observations to the effects. A variance was fitted for each random effect:  $\sigma_{pop}^2$  is the genetic

variance between populations,  $\sigma_{f(pop)}^2$  is the genetic variance between mother trees nested within a population and  $\epsilon$  is the vector of residuals. Residuals were assumed to be independent ( $R = \sigma_e^2 I$ ). However, there are some spatial autocorrelations in field trial due to soil and microclimatic effects between individuals. To avoid a biased estimation of variance components, we used a covariance structure that assumes separable first-order autoregressive processes in rows and columns with spatially dependant and independent error variances (Dutkowski et al., 2002, 2006). Spatially explicit model were performed only for  $h$  because  $P_{50}$  data were spatially too sparse (see table 2).

Variance or covariance components were estimated by the restricted maximum likelihood method, assuming a normal distribution of the random effects. The significance of variance components were tested using log-likelihood ratio tests. We included population as a random effect to draw inference at the species level and to obtain an unbiased estimate of heritability and genetic population differentiation (Wilson, 2008). The normality, identity and independency of residuals of each trait were graphically checked by plotting studentized marginal and conditional residuals, which confirmed that the data match with the assumption of mixed model.

### *Multisite analysis*

We used the following mixed model to analyze the whole data set:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}_{site} + \mathbf{Z}_0 \mathbf{block} + \mathbf{Z}_1 \mathbf{pop} + \mathbf{Z}_2 \mathbf{site.pop} + \mathbf{Z}_3 \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{Z}_4 \mathbf{site.f} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \quad (2)$$

where  $\mathbf{y}$  is the vector of observation for a trait,  $site$  is the vector of fixed site effects,  $block$  is the vector of random block effects,  $pop$  is the vector of random population effects,  $site.pop$  the vector of random population by site effects,  $f$  is the vector of the random genetic effects of mother trees within the population,  $site.f$  is the vector of the random genetic effects of mother trees within the population by each site,  $\epsilon$  is the vector of residuals,  $\mathbf{X}$  is called the design

matrix,  $\mathbf{Z}_1$ ,  $\mathbf{Z}_2$ ,  $\mathbf{Z}_3$  and  $\mathbf{Z}_4$  are the incidence matrices linking the observations to the effects. A variance was fitted for each random effect:  $\sigma_{pop}^2$  is the genetic variance between populations,  $\sigma_{site.pop}^2$  is the variance of the interaction term between population and site,  $\sigma_{f(pop)}^2$  is the genetic variance between mother trees nested within population, and  $\sigma_e^2$  is the residual variance.

The full model (2) implies the homogeneity of error variance between sites. We also tested another formulation of the previous multisite model which allows different error variance terms for each site and estimated the correlation between sites at the population and family levels (i.e. custom  $\mathbf{G}$  and  $\mathbf{R}$  variance-covariance matrices: uniform correlation structure and heterogeneous diagonal structure, respectively) as follows:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}_{site} + \mathbf{Z}_0 block + \mathbf{Z}_1 site.pop + \mathbf{Z}_2 site.f + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \quad (3)$$

where  $\mathbf{y}$  is the vector of observation for a trait,  $site$  is the vector of fixed site effects,  $block$  is the vector of random block effects,  $site.pop$  is the vector of random site by population effects,  $site.f$  is the vector of random site by genetic effects of mother trees within the population,  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$  is the vector of residuals,  $\mathbf{X}$  is called the design matrix,  $\mathbf{Z}_0$ ,  $\mathbf{Z}_1$ , and  $\mathbf{Z}_2$  are the incidence matrices linking the observations to the effects. Two variance estimates (one for each site) plus a correlation term (between sites) were fitted for  $site.pop$  and  $site.f$  random effects ( $r_{site.pop}$  and  $r_{site.f}$ ). This alternative formulation did not change the result of the analysis (see supplementary file), thus it was decided to present the results from model (2). Mixed models were run with SAS (SAS, 2008) and ASReml (Gilmour et al., 2009).

Given the difference in terms of sample size between  $P_{50}$  and  $h$ , we also run all the analysis on a reduced dataset for  $h$ , with the same sample size to that of  $P_{50}$ . While the absolute values of variances were different as expected, orders of magnitude between analysis on reduced dataset and full dataset were similar, therefore it was decided to present the most accurate estimates using the whole dataset for  $h$ .

## Quantitative genetic parameters

For the single site analysis, we estimated narrow-sense heritability as follows:

$h_{ns}^2 = 4\sigma_{f(pop)}^2 / (\sigma_e^2 + \sigma_{f(pop)}^2)$ . In our study,  $\sigma_A^2$  was estimated by  $\sigma_A^2 = 4\sigma_{f(pop)}^2$  as trees from the same family were presumed to be half-sibs (open-pollinated seeds). We did not include the population effect in the heritability calculation, because natural selection appeared to occur within each population (Visscher et al., 2008). The standard deviation of heritability was calculated with the equations of delta method (Lynch & Walsh, 1998). Variance

components were standardized by the trait mean (Houle, 1992) as follows:  $CV = \frac{\sqrt{\sigma_{trait}^2}}{X_{trait}} \times 100$ ,

where CV is the coefficient of variation. Each variance component is expressed with a CV (CV<sub>A</sub>: additive coefficient of variation; CV<sub>BP</sub> ( $V_{BP} = \sigma_{pop}^2$ ): between population coefficient of variation; CV<sub>P</sub>: phenotypic coefficient of variation; CV<sub>R</sub>: residual coefficient of variation).

The estimate of phenotypic differentiation between populations,  $Q_{ST}$  (Spitze, 1993), was calculated as  $Q_{ST} = \sigma_{pop}^2 / (\sigma_{pop}^2 + 2\sigma_A^2)$ . For more detail about the methodology used for  $Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$  comparisons see Lamy et al (2011).

## *Assessment of phenotypic plasticity*

There are various ways to estimate phenotypic plasticity. Assuming that the total phenotypic variance of a population can be written as (Falconer & Mackay, 1996)

$$\sigma_P^2 = \sigma_G^2 + \sigma_E^2 + 2\text{cov}_{GE} + I_{GE} + \sigma_\epsilon^2$$

where  $\sigma_P^2$  is the population phenotypic variance,  $\sigma_G^2$  is the genetic variance of a population,  $\sigma_E^2$  is the general environmental effect (also called macro-environmental effect). The greatest conceptual difficulty is in the interpretation of  $2\text{cov}_{GE}$  and  $I_{GE}$ .  $2\text{cov}_{GE}$  corresponds to the

genotype-environment covariance which measures of the physical association of particular genotypes with particular environmental effects.  $I_{GE}$  is the genotype-environment interaction which is the variation in the phenotypic response of specific genotypes to specific environments. In other words, if individuals are randomly distributed with respect to macroenvironments (as it is the case in experimental designs) then  $2\text{cov}_{GE} = 0$  but  $I_{GE} \neq 0$  if genotypic values and environmental effects are non-randomly distributed. Assuming that  $2\text{cov}_{GE} = 0$  in our provenance-progeny trials, then the phenotypic plasticity ( $\sigma_{PP}^2$ ) can be written as:  $\sigma_{PP}^2 = \sigma_E^2 + I_{GE}$

The most intuitive and common way (in ecology and genetics) to estimate phenotypic plasticity is to use the interaction term from a mixed model analysis (see model #2), and calculate a Scheiner's phenotypic plasticity index:  $S = (\sigma_E^2 + I_{GE}) / (I_{GE} + \sigma_G^2 + \sigma_E^2 + \sigma_\epsilon^2)$  adapted from (Scheiner & Lyman, 1989). This index includes both terms of the phenotypic plasticity. Another way to estimate phenotypic plasticity is to consider that the same character measured in two environments can be treated as two different traits. Phenotypic plasticity can then be treated from the genetic correlation between the two traits. If genetic effects do not change across environments then the genetic correlation across environments is equal to one (see model #3). To facilitate the interpretation of such a genetic correlation (see explanation of model 3,  $r_x$ ), we report  $C = 1 - r_x$ , which means that a trait with a high  $C$  value is a trait with a high phenotypic plasticity. This  $C$  index mainly reflects the  $I_{GE}$  term. A third approach to estimate phenotypic plasticity is to use Relative Distances Plasticity Index (*RDPI*) from (Valladares et al., 2006), defined as the absolute phenotypic distances between individuals of the same genotype (here family) placed in different environments, divided by the highest of the two phenotypic values. This index relies less on the implicit assumption made on data distribution.

## Results

Table 2. Variance component estimates for the (a) multi-site and (b) single site models.

(a)	Overall				(b)	Dry trial, Calcena (Spain)				Wet trial, Cestas (France)			
	<i>h</i>	<i>P</i> <sub>50</sub>	<i>h</i>	<i>P</i> <sub>50</sub>		<i>h</i>	<i>P</i> <sub>50</sub>	<i>h</i>	<i>P</i> <sub>50</sub>	<i>h</i>	<i>P</i> <sub>50</sub>	<i>h</i>	<i>P</i> <sub>50</sub>
Effects	Variances	<i>P</i> value	Variances	<i>P</i> value	Effects	Varianc es	<i>P</i> value	Variances	<i>P</i> value	Variances	<i>P</i> value	Variances	<i>P</i> value
Site	3424	<0.001	0.054	<0.001	Block	1058	<0.001	12.87	<0.001	13830	<0.001	15.30	<0.001
Block(site)	37.00		0.001		Population	8.03	<0.001	0.0003	0.173	204.14	<0.001	0.0028	0.06
Population	438.7	<0.001	0.001	0.08	Family(Population)	6.79	<0.001	0.0083	0.009	47.51	<0.001	0.0088	0.003
Site*population	76.84	<0.001	0.002	0.23	Spatial residuals	102.14	<0.001	na	na	307.10	<0.001	na	na
Family(Population)	10.85	<0.001	7 10 <sup>-9</sup>	0.003	Non spatial Residual	42.25		0.0456		216.23		0.059	
Site*Family(Population)	28.27	<0.001	0.008	0.03	Spatial autocorrelation (row)	0.92	<0.001	na	na	0.87	<0.001	na	na
Residuals	374.7		0.052		Spatial autocorrelation (columns)	0.92	<0.001	na	na	0.91	<0.001	na	na

Variance estimators are from full mixed model. The Site effect (in grey) was not declared as random effect for statistical reasons (see Material and Methods section) but we calculated a variance from the values estimated for each sites (fixed effects) and the *P*-value is from the fixed model. This model assumes the same error variance for both sites. Results from a full model assuming two different error variances for each site are provided in Table S6. Variance estimators are from mixed model for single site analysis. Spatial residuals, spatial autocorrelation coefficients are given for growth trait only because data were too spatially sparse for cavitation resistance. “na” not available. In both models *P*-values are from a log-likelihood ratio test, this is why block effects do not have *P*-value.

## 1. Phenotypic plasticity

*From the full model analysis*

For both cavitation resistance and height growth traits, a site effect was significant but the relative contribution of environmental variance ( $\sigma_E^2$ ) to total variance was stronger for  $h$  compare to  $P_{50}$  (79% for  $h$  and 46% for  $P_{50}$ ). The interaction term at population levels ( $I_{GE}$  for population) was only significant for  $h$ , not for  $P_{50}$ . The interaction term at family level ( $I_{GE}$  for family) was significant for both traits. To summarize,  $P_{50}$  and especially  $h$  displayed phenotypic plasticity mainly driven by  $\sigma_E^2$ .

**Table 3. Phenotypic plasticity estimators for cavitation resistance ( $P_{50}$ ) and tree height ( $h$ ).**

	Population		Family		Overall	
	$P_{50}$	$h$	$P_{50}$	$h$	$P_{50}$	$h$
<i>C</i>	0	0.15	0.88	0.78	na	na
<i>S</i>	0.51	0.90	0.90	0.98	na	na
<i>RDPI</i>	na	na	na	na	0.08	0.65

*C* is one minus the correlation coefficient calculated from mixed model with custom G and R matrices (see material and methods section). *S* is the Scheiner's index for phenotypic plasticity using variance components from mixed model 2. RDPI is the Relative Distances Plasticity Index which is the absolute phenotypic distances between individuals of same genotype (here family) and different environments, divided by one of the two phenotypic values.

*From phenotypic index*

The previous results were drawn from model #2, which could be biased by the implicit assumption made on the same error variance in both site (scale effect). From model #3, which allows two error variances, we calculated *C* index (for explanation see material and methods) and compared the results to the *S* index calculated from model #2 (Table 3). Both index showed the same trend as (i) at the population level,  $h$  displayed much more phenotypic plasticity compare to  $P_{50}$ . (ii) At family

level, both traits displayed phenotypic plasticity but that of  $P_{50}$  is lower than  $h$ . The most robust estimator (*RDPI*) of phenotypic plasticity clearly shows that  $P_{50}$  is less plastic compare to  $h$ . It should be noticed that trend was not driven by the unbalanced data between  $h$  and  $P_{50}$  because the same trend was found on the reduced dataset.

## 2. Genetic variation

### *Within population*

The micro-environmental sensitivity (through the analysis of  $CV_R$ ) and the evolvability (through the analysis of  $CV_A$ ) were lower for  $P_{50}$  compare to  $h$ . In other words,  $P_{50}$  is less influenced by the micro-environmental variations and its amount of additive genetic variation is limited compare  $h$  (Table 4).

### *Between population variation and $Q_{ST}$ and $F_{ST}$ comparisons*

In both trials, the same pattern was found: (i) No significant population effect was detected for  $P_{50}$ , whereas significant population effect was found for  $h$  (Table 2). In average, across trials, the between-population coefficient of variation ( $CV_{BP}$ ) was 0.7% for  $P_{50}$ , much lower than the value measured for  $h$  (10.5%) (Table 4), (ii) For  $P_{50}$ ,  $Q_{ST}$  distribution was lower compare to  $F_{ST}$  distribution, i.e. the observed variation between populations was less than the expectation under genetic drift alone. It means that a mechanism (uniform selection and/or genetic constraints, see discussion) must be favoring the same phenotypic mean in the studied populations from contrasted climates,. For  $h$ , the opposite trend was detected;  $Q_{ST}$  distribution was higher compared to  $F_{ST}$  distribution, suggesting that the studied populations displayed more differentiation than would be expected with drift alone (Figure S5).

**Table 4. Variance components ( $V_P$ ,  $V_{BP}$ ,  $V_A$ ,  $V_R$ ), narrow-sense heritability ( $h^2_{ns}$ ), coefficient of variation ( $CV_P$ ,  $CV_A$ ,  $CV_{BP}$ ,  $CV_R$ ) and population differentiation ( $Q_{ST}$ ).**

Site	Traits	$V_P$	$V_{BP}$	$V_A$	$V_R$	$h^2_{ns}$	$CV_P$	$CV_A$	$CV_{BP}$	$CV_R$	$Q_{ST}$
Dry trial	$h$	151.2	8.043	27.13	144.4	$0.17 \pm 0.07$	34.96	14.8	8.0	34.1	0.12
Dry trial	$P_{50}$	0.053	0.0004	0.034	0.045	$0.61 \pm 0.27$	6.43	5.06	0.4	5.9	0.005
Wet trial	$h$	570.8	204.1	190.0	523.3	$0.33 \pm 0.03$	21.7	12.5	13	20.8	0.34
Wet trial	$P_{50}$	0.067	0.0027	0.035	0.058	$0.51 \pm 0.23$	6.60	4.75	1	6.1	0.04
In situ	$h$	2514	1789 <sup>a</sup>	na	724.9	na	47.2	na	39.8 <sup>a</sup>	25.3	na
In situ	$P_{50}$	0.064	0.010 <sup>a</sup>	na	0.053	na	6.97	na	2.83 <sup>a</sup>	9.64	na

Variance component are from single site mixed model analysis.  $h^2_{ns}$  is the narrow-sense heritability and  $SE$  is the standard error of heritability,  $V_P$  is the phenotypic genetic variance,  $V_A$  is the additive genetic variance,  $V_{BP}$  is the between-population variance,  $V_R$  is the residual variance.  $CV_A$  is the variation coefficient of additive variance after adjustment for the block effect.  $CV_P$  is the variation coefficient of phenotypic variance after adjustment for the block effect.  $CV_R$  is the residual coefficient of variation.  $CV_{BP}$  is between-population coefficients of variation.  $Q_{ST}$  is the genetic quantitative variation between populations (Spitze, 1993). *In situ* variance components are from a mixed model with one random parameter (population). <sup>a</sup>this variance component (or the associated coefficient of variation) is not fully equally to the same variance estimated in the provenance-progeny trial because it include variation from the family level.

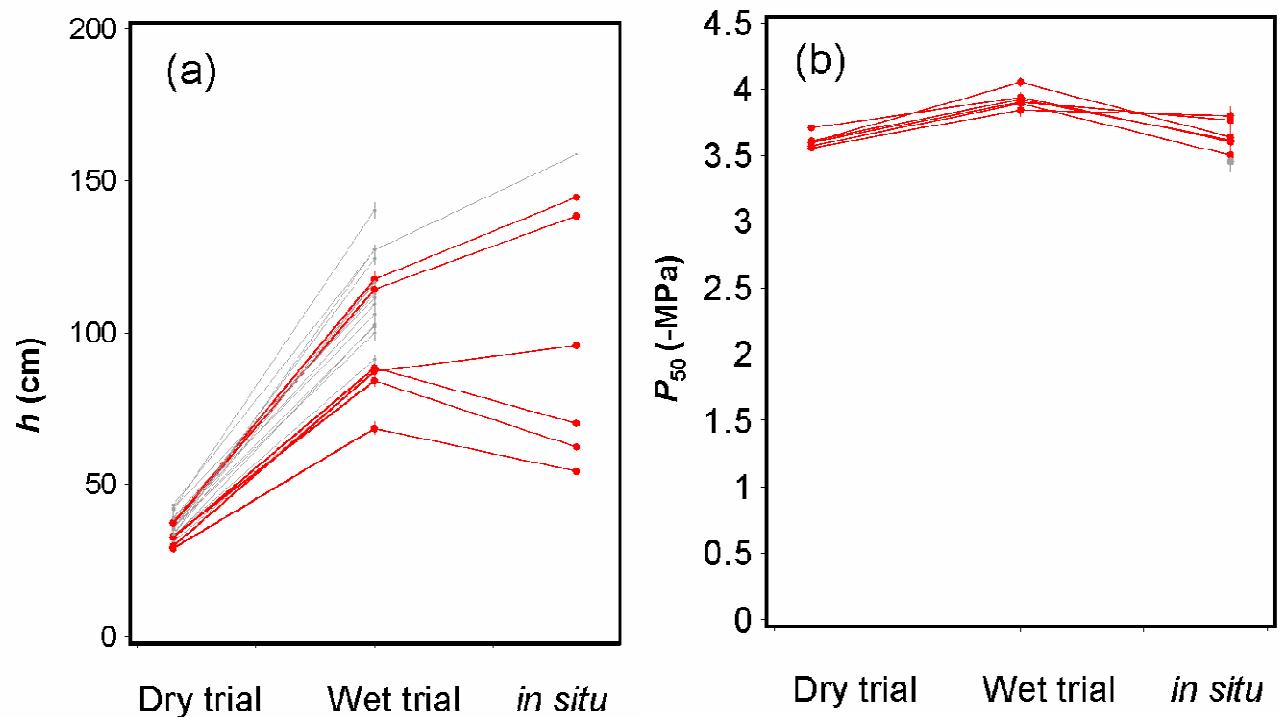
1

2 *Experimental effects and spatial analysis*

3 Block effects was significant for all the traits and models, which means that environmental  
 4 variation was captured by the experimental design. Spatial analysis for  $h$  showed a high  
 5 autocorrelation ( $> 0.85$ ) between closely spatially related individuals (Table 2). However,  
 6 changes in terms of variance estimation between a spatial analysis and a classical analysis  
 7 were low (around 2-5%, data not shown).

8

9



10

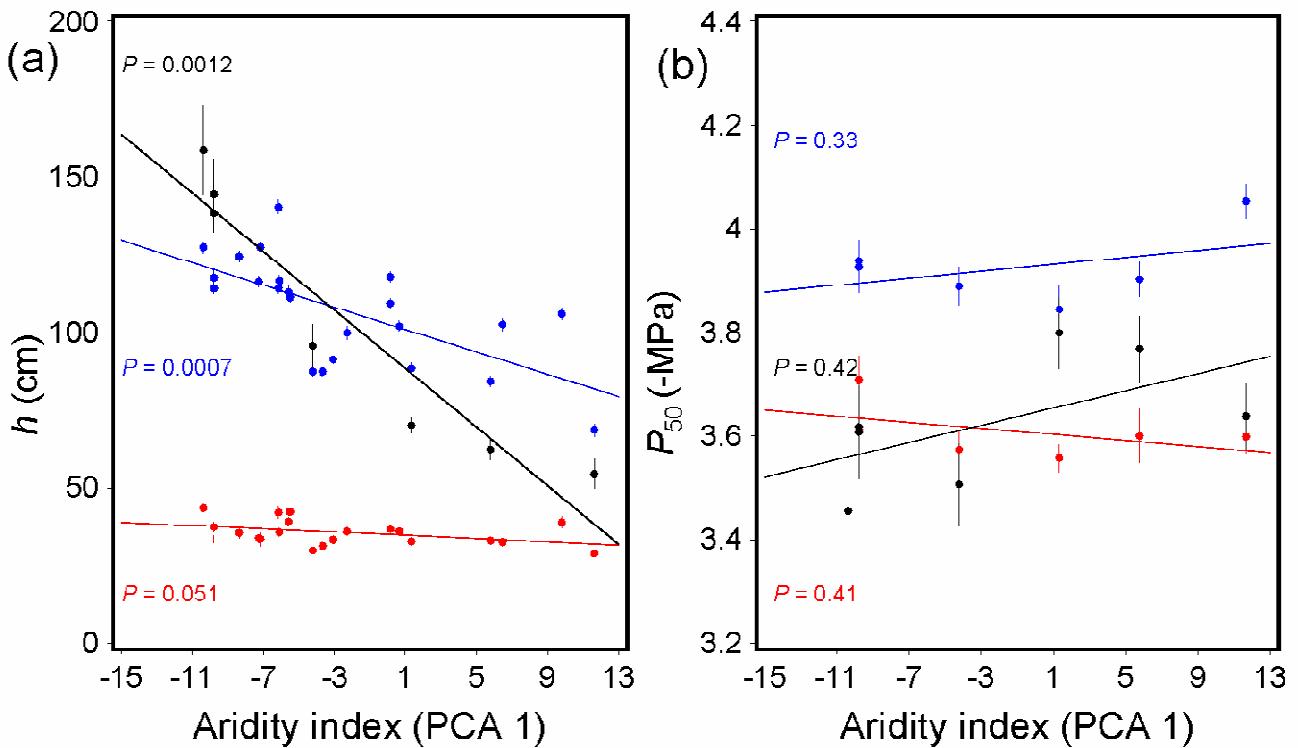
11 **Fig. 3** Chart showing population means in each provenance-progeny trial (dry and wet) connected by plain lines,  
 12 and means for natural population collected *in situ* : (a) For  $h$  assessed at four years old in both trials,  $n = 163 \pm$   
 13 14.56 individuals per populations, and for  $h$  estimated at 4-year old from 11-year old trees,  $n=11$  individuals per  
 14 natural population. (b) for  $P_{50}$   $n = 36 \pm 1$  individuals per populations of both trials, and  $n = 11$  individuals per  
 15 natural population. The error bars represent the standard errors. Red dots are used for the six selected  
 16 populations, while grey dots are used for the other populations present in the dataset.

17

18           **3. Phenotypic variability**

19   For cavitation resistance,  $CV_p$  *in situ* natural population ( $CV_p^{in-situ}$ ) and  $CV_p$  from  
20   provenance-progeny trial ( $CV_p^{ppt}$ ) were equal to 6.9 and 6.4 respectively (given the error done  
21   on the estimation of variance component for *in situ* population). It means that phenotypic  
22   variation of *in situ* natural population was close to what we found in the provenance-progeny  
23   trial.

24   The coefficient of variation between populations was higher *in situ* ( $CV_{bp}^{in-situ}$ ) than in the  
25   provenance-progeny trial ( $CV_{bp}^{ppt}$ ). From a statistical point of view, it is however more  
26   rigorous to compare  $CV_{bp}^{in-situ}$  to the sum  $CV_{bp}^{ppt}$  and the coefficient of variation due to family  
27    $CV_{f(pop)}^{ppt}$ . After this correction, the estimation of  $CV_p^{in-situ}$  was to the same order of magnitude  
28   as that estimated in the provenance-progeny test ( $CV_p^{in-situ} = 2.8$ ,  $\overline{CV_{bp}^{ppt}} + \overline{CV_{f(pop)}^{ppt}} = 1.92$   
29   (we average  $CV$  across trials)). The small difference between both estimators of variation  
30   between populations is likely due to phenotypic plasticity and/or microenvironmental  
31   heterogeneity.



**Fig. 4** The population mean for (a) tree height ( $h$ ) and (b) cavitation resistance ( $P_{50}$ ) according to aridity index. The aridity index corresponds the projection on the first principal component axis (PC1) of population position within the main plain space described by the PCA. Red, bleu and black colours correspond to regression in the dry, wet provenance-progeny trial and *in situ* natural stand respectively. The  $P$ -value was from a linear model and the error bars represent standard errors.

#### 4. Link between climate and traits

The first principal component (PC 1) axis was interpreted as an aridity index, since it was positively correlated with atmospheric water demand, soil water deficit and negatively correlated with number of wet day frequency (Figure 2b).

Mean population  $h$  values showed a negative correlation with the composite aridity index ( $P$ -value = 0.056, 0.007 and 0.0012 in dry, wet trials and *in situ* Figure 5a). Populations from mesic provenances had a better growth compared to population from xeric provenances in both trials and *in situ* natural stand. We have observed the same trend with the reduced

49 dataset ( $P$ -value = 0.051, 0.009 and 0.0012 in dry, wet trial and *in situ*, data not shown). For  
50  $P_{50}$ , we did not detect any relationship in both trials ( $P$ -value = 0.33, 0.41 and 0.42 in dry, wet  
51 trial and *in situ*, Figure 5b).

52

## 53 Discussion

54 We here carried out the first comprehensive study on the determinism of cavitation resistance  
55 variation, by simultaneously quantifying phenotypic variation, genetic variation and  
56 phenotypic plasticity in a pine species. Three major conclusions can be drawn: (i) the  
57 phenotypic variance for cavitation resistance ( $P_{50}$ ) was relatively low ( $CV_P^{in-situ} = 6.9\%$  and  
58  $CV_P^{ppt} = 6.4\%$ ); (ii) the additive genetic variance and the genetic variance between populations  
59 were also low for  $P_{50}$  compared with growth trait ( $h$ ); (iii) Cavitation resistance displayed  
60 phenotypic plasticity mainly driven by environmental variance as growth trait (no significant  
61 interaction between population and environment). However, plasticity of cavitation resistance  
62 was substantially lower than growth plasticity. All together, these results suggest that this  
63 drought tolerance key trait seems to be buffered against genetic perturbation and to a lesser  
64 extent against environmental variation.

65

### 66 Low phenotypic variation of cavitation resistance

67 Despite the recurrent demand of evolutionary ecology literature about natural variation of  
68 physiological traits (Leinonen et al., 2008), such studies were rarely performed (but see  
69 (Arntz & Delph, 2001)). Recently, Martinez-Vilalta et al., (2009), Corcuera et al., (2011) and  
70 Wortemann et al., (2011) provided a such work with enough statistical power to make robust  
71 inference about variability pattern at the species level for *Pinus sylvestris*, *Pinus pinaster* and  
72 *Fagus sylvatica*, respectively. In two provenance trials conducted on *Pinus pinaster*, Corcuera  
73 et al., (2011) measured a  $\overline{CV_P^{ppt}} \approx 5\%$  which agree with our estimate ( $\overline{CV_P^{ppt}} = 6.4\%$ .

74 Martinez-Vilalta et al., (2009) estimated for cavitation resistance in *Pinus sylvestris* rounded  
75  $CV_P^{in-situ} \approx 8\%$  was similar to our  $CV_P^{in-situ} = 6.9\%$  for *Pinus pinaster*. Therefore, our results  
76 matched well with previous experiments on *in situ* natural populations as well as populations  
77 grown in provenance trials for conifer species. On a broadleaved species, Wortemann et al.,  
78 (2011) reported higher  $\overline{CV_P^{ppt}} = 11.27$  value for *Fagus Sylvatica* (averaged on three  
79 provenance trials). The discrepancy between estimates gathered for conifers and those for  
80 *Fagus* could be due to the differences in wood anatomy (homoxyleous versus heteroxyleous  
81 woods).

82

### 83 *Cavitation resistance is not linked with an aridity index*

84 Like Martinez-Vilalta et al., (2009), Herbette et al., (2010) and Corcuera et al., (2011)  
85 together with this one, failed to detect a phenotypic or genetic clinal (or counter-clinal)  
86 variation of cavitation resistance with climatic variables. In this line, the following results  
87 were found in our study: (i) the mean values for cavitation resistance in the dry trial was lower  
88 compared to the one in the wet trial, which is opposite to what we could be expected.  
89 However, this result provides good evidence that  $P_{50}$  measurements in the dry trial were not  
90 be biased by native embolism (though  $K_{max}$  parameter), (ii) no correlation was found between  
91 genetic variation cavitation resistance (mean population in provenance-progeny test), either  
92 with phenotypic variation (mean population *in situ* natural stand) and the provenance climatic  
93 data (Figure 4). Several hypotheses could explain this unexpected result. First, we may not  
94 have targeted all the potential driving climatic variables for this trait since frost could also  
95 induce cavitation and the soil abiotic compartment was not directly considered. However,  
96 frost induced cavitation seems highly improbable low since, we did not detect significant  
97 trends between the second PCA axis (correlated with minimal annual temperature) and  
98 cavitation resistance ( $P$ -value= 0.09 and 0.47 in dry and wet trials), and since gymnosperms

99 are not prone to frost induced-cavitation (Pittermann & Sperry, 2003, 2006). Although we  
100 targeted only the atmospheric abiotic compartment, we may still consider that the edaphic  
101 characteristics were partly taken into account since we used 30 years averaged atmospheric  
102 variables, which form a good proxy for soil water dynamic over such long period. A second  
103 hypothesis lies on a hypothesis of hydraulics by Holtta et al., (2009), they showed thanks to  
104 an hydraulic model that cavitation events can release water during water stress that thus  
105 rehydrates living cells (capacitive effect). This mechanism could explain the fact that  
106 populations from dry provenance could benefit from being less cavitation resistant. Although  
107 theoretically plausible, it is hard to conceive the existence of such a mechanism at the  
108 intraspecific level and not across species (i.e. species less cavitation resistant are more  
109 drought tolerant). Finally, for us, the lack of correlation between cavitation resistance and  
110 climate of the provenance site should be simply due to the low genetic and phenotypic  
111 variation of cavitation resistance between populations.

112

#### 113 *Phenotypic plasticity of cavitation resistance is low compare to growth traits*

114 Phenotypic plasticity of cavitation resistance seems to be a common subject in literature  
115 despite the fact that there are only two quantitative estimations of phenotypic plasticity for  
116 this trait (Corcuera et al., 2011; Wortemann et al., 2011). Many authors from both the fields of  
117 eco-physiology and ecology working on natural populations have speculate upon this issue  
118 (K.J. Kolb & Sperry, 1999; Maherali & DeLucia, 2000; Maherali et al., 2002; Martinez-  
119 Vilalta & Pinol, 2002; Jacobsen et al., 2007). Here, like (Corcuera et al., 2011; Wortemann et  
120 al., 2011), we provide a sound estimation of phenotypic plasticity of cavitation resistance. Our  
121 study enables to draw robust conclusions on phenotypic plasticity for cavitation resistance  
122 related-trait for the following reasons: (i) we measured a great number of genotypes, (ii) the  
123 statistical framework allowed a broad inference (mixed model versus fixed model) and (iii)

124 we provided a reference trait (growth height) because absolute numbers have no meaning *per*  
125 *se*. Growth related-trait are known to exhibit a high phenotypic plasticity in *Pinus pinaster*  
126 (Alia et al., 1997; González-Martínez et al., 2005). A strict comparison between cavitation  
127 resistance and growth traits show that cavitation resistance is less plastic (see *RDPI* value).  
128 Indeed, cavitation resistance traits do not have considerable phenotypic plasticity as  
129 phenology (Vitasse et al., 2010) or growth related-trait (Alía et al., 1997). *RDPI* values for  
130 cavitation resistance *RDPI* value are close to lowest values found in the literature for  
131 photosynthetic traits (Traveset et al., 2007; Baquedano et al., 2008). The other strong  
132 argument to assert that cavitation resistance phenotypic plasticity is low it is the same amount  
133 of phenotypic variance in provenance-progeny trial ( $CV_P^{ppt}$ ) and in situ natural  
134 populations  $CV_P^{in-situ}$ .

135

### 136 *Concluding remarks on drought tolerance in Pinus species*

137 During drought episodes, *Pinus* species strongly regulate their stomatal conductance to reduce  
138 water loss by transpiration Delzon et al., (2004), and are also capable of adjusting the ratio of  
139 transpiring on conducting surfaces. This latter reaction is called hydraulic adjustment and it  
140 has been found in *Pinus ponderosa*, *Pinus palustris*, *Pinus sylvestris* and *Pinus halensis*  
141 (Maherali & DeLucia, 2000; Addington et al., 2006; Martinez-Vilalta et al., 2009). For  
142 instance, Martinez-Vilalta et al., (2009) showed a negative relationship between needle area  
143 ( $A_L$ ) on xylem area ( $A_S$ ) and the climate dryness for *in situ* populations. This relationship was  
144 closed to what we found here between  $h$  and aridity index for populations growing in  
145 provenance-progeny trial. If we make the reasonable assumption that  $h$  is positively and more  
146 correlated to  $A_L$  compare to  $A_S$  (Porté et al., 2000), then hydraulic adjustment has a mixed  
147 determinism, the major part being due to environmental variation (70%), the other part being  
148 due to population genetic variation (10%). In other words, for *Pinus* species adaptation to

149 drought is done (mediated by genetic adaptation and phenotypic plasticity) by the  
150 modification of the ratio between conducting and transpiring surface or related hydraulic  
151 variables (leaf specific hydraulic conductivity) rather than a modification of wood related-trait  
152 like cavitation resistance. Despite the hydraulic adjustment, *Pinus* species have not able to  
153 sustain long drought period, because they have a reduced safety margin (difference between  
154  $P_{50}$  and the leaf water potential at which 99% of the stomata are closed, (Martinez-Vilalta et  
155 al., 2004)) and they quickly closed their stomata to avoid runaway embolism. Consequently  
156 they are prone to carbon starvation (McDowell et al., 2006, 2008). Cavitation resistance is a  
157 major constraint on *Pinus* species physiology.

158

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170

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392

393 Supplementary files

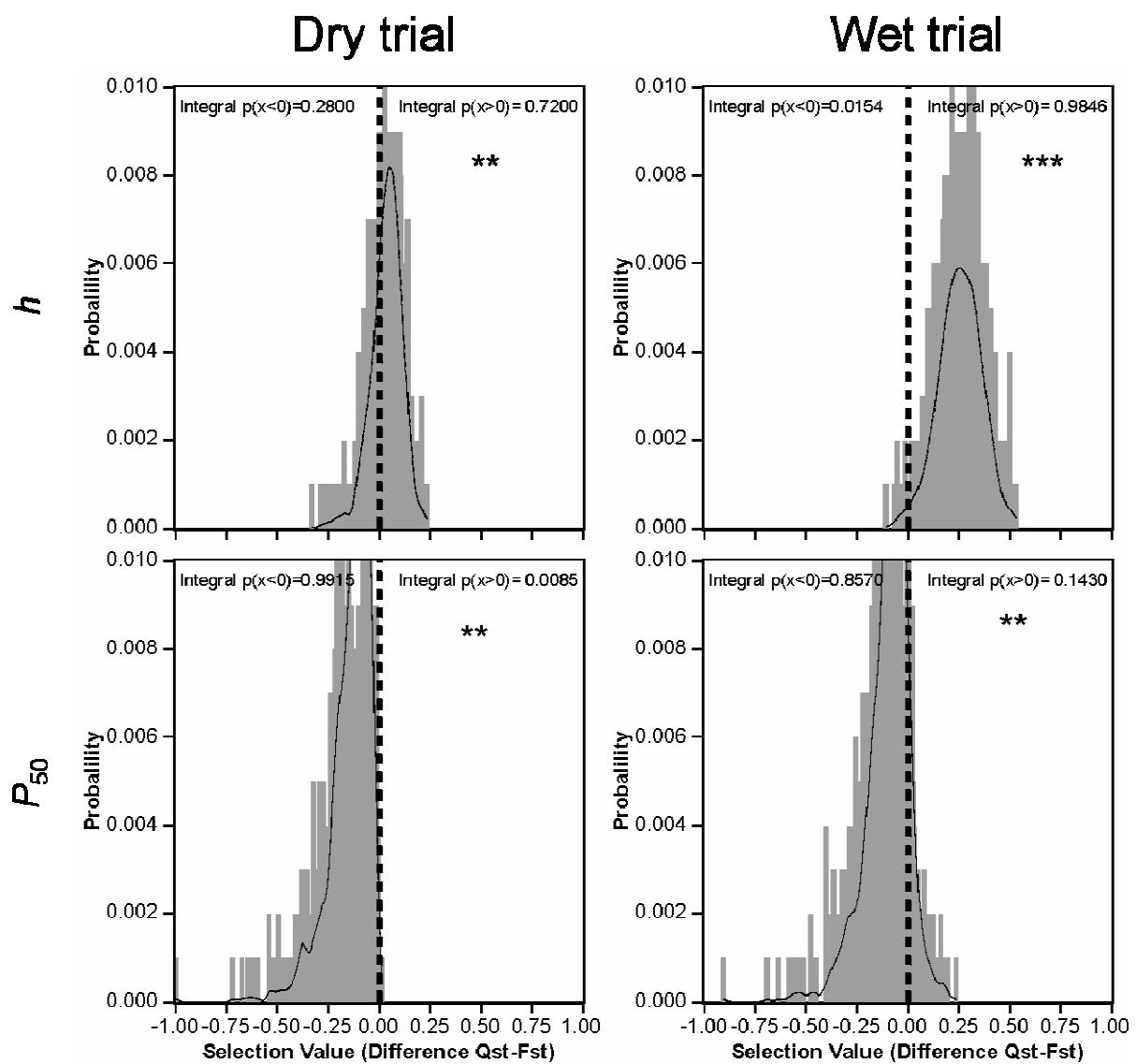
394

395 *Q<sub>ST</sub> and F<sub>ST</sub> comparison*

396

397 To assess whether differentiation of phenotypic traits were caused by either selection or drift,  
398 we compared the distribution of phenotypic differentiation ( $Q_{ST}^*$ ) with the distribution of  
399 genetic differentiation ( $F_{ST}^*$ ) obtained with molecular markers assumed to be neutral. The  
400  $F_{ST}^*$  distribution was constructed using a dataset of 8 neutral nuclear microsatellites  
401 previously genotyped on the same populations (Eveno et al., 2008; Alberto et al., 2011; Lamy  
402 et al., 2011). To simulate the neutral expectation, we randomly resampled  $10^3$  times with  
403 replacement between loci to estimate the sampling variance of  $F_{ST}$ . Each  $F_{ST}$  replicate value  
404 was multiplied by a random number drawn from the Lewontin-Krahauer distribution  
405 (Lewontin & Krakauer, 1973), which accounts for deviations from the neutral model because  
406 of demography (Whitlock, 2008; Whitlock & Guillaume, 2009). The  $Q_{ST}^*$  distributions were  
407 constructed by performing a parametric bootstrap resampling procedure  $10^3$  times (O'Hara &  
408 Merilä, 2005) allowing estimation of the distribution of each variance component ( $\sigma_A^2, \sigma_{pop}^2$ )  
409 using the Satterthwaite's approximation (Satterthwaite, 1946). Finally, the two resulting  
410 distributions were compared using a non parametric test on 2.5 and 97.5 quantiles. All the  
411 analyses were performed with SAS version 9.2 (SAS, 2008). Codes are available on request.

412



413

414

415 **Fig. S5** The observed distribution (gray histogram) and the kernel density (black curves) of the  $Q_{\text{ST}}-F_{\text{ST}}$   
 416 difference are represented for each trait in each trial. <sup>ns</sup>  $P > 0.05$ , \*  $P < 0.05$ , \*\*  $P < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $P < 0.001$ , P-values  
 417 are from non-parametric test on 2.5 and 97.5 quantile (Kosorok's test with a Bonferroni correction). On the top  
 418 of each panel, we also show the integral probability of the distribution (using the kernel density estimator) above  
 419 (see "Integral  $p(x>0)$ " on the left panel) and below (see "Integral  $p(x<0)$ " on the left panel) zero (marked with  
 420 the thick and dotted line).

421

422

423 **Table S6. Variance components estimation for the full model for both provenance-progeny trials.**

Effects	<i>h</i>		<i>P</i> <sub>50</sub>	
	Variances	<i>P</i> value	Variances	<i>P</i> value
Site*bloc (Dry trial)	17.61	na	0.0018	na
Site*bloc (Wet trial)	529.2	na	0.0014	na
Site*population (Dry trial)	8.819	<0.0001	0.00055	0.056
Site*population (Wet trial)	206.6	<0.0001	0.0028	0.056
<b>Between populations across sites correlation</b>	0.85	<0.0001	0.99	0.056
Site*Family(population) (Dry trial)	22.401	<0.0001	0.0084	0.0032
Site*Family(population) (Wet trial)	50.87	<0.0001	0.0089	0.0032
<b>Between family across site correlation</b>	0.22	<0.0001	-0.12	0.0032
Residuals (Dry trial)	126.2	na	0.045	na
Residuals (Wet trial)	450.4	na	0.058	na

424

425 Variance estimators are from full mixed model. This model assumes one variance for each site and each effect.

426 In this case, phenotypic plasticity (at the family or population level) is given by estimating a genetic correlation

427 between trait values in dry and wet trials. *P*-values are from a log-likelihood ratio test.

**Table S7. Geographical coordinates of populations growing in wet and dry trials sorted by code number.**

Populations	Code	Latitude (°)	Longitude (°)
Restonica	2.00	42.27	9.12
Aullène	10.00	41.67	9.05
Pineta	11.00	41.97	9.03
Pinia	15.00	42.02	9.48
Cenicientos	20.00	40.27	-3.52
Arenas de San Pedro	21.00	40.21	-4.91
Coca	22.00	41.23	-3.49
Cuellar	23.00	41.40	-3.68
Valdemaqueda	24.00	40.51	-3.70
Valdemaqueda	24.00	40.51	-3.70
San Leonardo de Yagüe	25.00	41.82	-2.93
Bayubas de Abajo	26.00	41.52	-1.13
San cipriano de Ribaterme	27.00	42.10	-7.59
Oria	29.00	37.53	-1.64
Tamrabta	30.00	34.00	-5.00
Punta cires	31.00	35.92	-5.47
Koudiat Erramla	32.00	35.47	-5.38
Tadiwine	36.00	34.93	-4.53
Tamjout	37.00	33.83	-3.98
Talaghine	38.00	32.45	-5.23
Sidi Meskour	39.00	31.47	-6.83
Petrock	40.00	44.05	-0.68
Mimizan	41.00	44.13	-0.70
Hourtin	42.00	45.17	-0.87
Le Verdon	43.00	45.57	-0.78

Olonne sur mer	44.00	46.57	-0.92
St Jean de Monts	45.00	46.77	-1.98
Pleucadec	46.00	47.78	-1.67
Erdeven	47.00	47.65	-2.87
Tabarka	50.00	37.08	7.10
Competa	60.00	36.84	-2.05
Boniches	61.00	39.99	-0.38
La Spezia	62.00	44.10	9.83
Montagna Grande	63.00	36.80	12.00
Monte Pino	64.00	40.92	9.42
Poggio Adorno/Pisa	65.00	43.75	10.73

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## Résumé

Force est de constater que les déprésissements forestiers augmentent. Ces observations vont de pairs avec l'accroissement des événements climatiques extrêmes. Aussi dans ce contexte, il est nécessaire d'identifier de nouveaux caractères de resistance à la sécheresse. La résistance à la cavitation est actuellement le meilleur marqueur de la survie d'une espèce à la sécheresse.

Cette thèse avait deux objectifs : (i) comprendre le mécanisme de propagation de la cavitation dans le xylème chez les gymnospermes. (ii) Quantifier la variation phénotypique *in situ* de ce caractère chez *Pinus pinaster* ainsi que (iii) quantifier la variation génétique, et sa plasticité phénotypique.

La démarche a été la suivante (i) une étude interspécifique de la résistance à la cavitation a été couplé à des mesures micro-anatomiques. (ii) Pour le volet intraspécifique, nous avons phénotypé 6 populations dans deux test de populations-descendances, ainsi qu'en population naturelles *in situ*.

La propagation de l'embolie chez les *Pinaceae* et les ex-*Taxodiaceae* pourrait être due au passage du germe d'air (rupture capillaire) à travers des nanopores dans le torus. En effet, la pression de rupture d'un ménisque air-sève est corrélée à l'entrée de l'air dans le xylème ( $P_{12}$ ). Alors que la variation interspécifique est grande, la résistance à la cavitation varie faiblement au sein d'une espèce. Ainsi les populations provenant de climat contrasté ne présentent pas ou peu de différence génétique (en test de provenance) ou en populations naturelles *in situ*. Ce caractère présente une plasticité phénotypique mais faible comparée à celle de la croissance en hauteur par exemple. La comparaison entre la variation génétique entre populations et la variation des marqueurs neutres entre ces mêmes populations montrent que la variation de ce caractère semble réduite par l'architecture génétique sous-jacente. La resistance à la cavitation est vraisemblablement un trait canalisé.

## Abstract

Several review reported global forest die-back that are caused, directly or indirectly, by extreme climatic events (like heat waves or prolonged drought). In this context, there is an urgent need to identify new traits to trace drought tolerance. Resistance to cavitation is one of the best proxy for survival during extreme drought.

The aim of this work was (i) to understand how spreads cavitation in the vascular pathway of gymnosperms (ii) to quantify the phenotypic variation of resistance to cavitation for *Pinus pinaster* species, (iii) to determine the amount of the genetic variation and phenotypic plasticity available for this trait.

A micro-anatomy study was coupled to measurement of resistance to cavitation for various species to found where air-seeding occurs in the bordered pit. To quantify the variability of resistance to cavitation, we phenotyped 506 genotypes using to replicated provenance-progeny trials and on natural *in situ* populations.

The spread of embolism for *Pinaceae* and ex-*Taxodiaceae* could be due to minute pore in tori, which are remains of secondary plasmodesmata. We found that the pressure needed to break a water/air meniscus in these minute pores is correlated with the xylem air entry ( $P_{12}$ ). Despite the great variability of resistance to cavitation between species, we found low variability within species. Most of the variability is within population, rather than between populations. The phenotypic plasticity of resistance to cavitation is low compare to growth traits. Comparison between  $Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$  shows that populations exhibit less variation compare to what it is expected under genetic drift. The variation of resistance to cavitation seems to be narrowed by the genetic architecture, which is the sign of canalisation.