

1 Xylogenesis in black spruce subjected to a rain exclusion in the field

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9 **Abstract**

10 The climate models for Eastern Canada predict increases in temperature and
11 precipitation in the next 50 years, with the higher latitudes expected to experience the
12 greatest rates of warming. Despite the increase in precipitation, more extreme and
13 frequent drought periods will occur in spring and summer. An experiment was conducted
14 on black spruce [*Picea mariana* (Mill.) BSP] trees excluded from precipitation during June-
15 September by the installation of plastic under-canopy roofs in four sites of the boreal
16 forest of Quebec. Xylem growth and physiological traits of treated and control trees were
17 monitored at short-time resolution to study the effects of summer drought on plants
18 growing in their natural environment. The rain exclusion reduced cell area and increased
19 cell wall thickness of xylem, but no change was observed in timings or amount of cell
20 production. In the southern sites, treated trees showed lower stem radius variations than
21 the control. After removal of the under-canopy roofs, trees quickly recuperated their
22 normal water status. The results demonstrated the physical effects of reduction in water
23 availability on xylem and the resistance of black spruce to one summer of drought, most
24 likely due to the ability to collect water from sources other than the superficial soil
25 horizon.

26 Keywords: *Picea mariana*, Xylogenesis, Drought stress, Boreal forest

27

28 **Introduction**

29 The climatic models for Eastern Canada predict increases in temperature and
30 precipitation in the next 50 years (Plummer et al. 2006). The increase in precipitation will
31 occur mainly in winter in the form of snowfall, while extreme conditions with drought
32 events should be experienced in summer and spring, when the main growth processes of
33 plants take place (Burke et al. 2006; Zhang et al. 2000). Because of the low temperatures
34 characterizing the boreal forest, water evaporation is generally reduced and soils often
35 remain wet throughout the growing season. As a result, boreal species are adjusted to live
36 with high or close-to-optimal moisture conditions. However, increased evapotranspiration
37 due to climate warming as well as more frequent and longer drought events are expected
38 to produce potentially severe water stresses in these high latitudes ecosystems (Easterling
39 et al. 2000).

40 It is well-known that temperature plays an important role in cambium activity and
41 wood formation in trees of cold climates (Gruber et al. 2010; Rossi et al. 2008). However,
42 the influence of moisture conditions on radial growth has also been demonstrated, with
43 positive effects of precipitations on growth observed in several boreal conifers
44 (Deslauriers et al. 2003b; Duchesne and Houle 2011; Hofgaard et al. 1999). Several
45 metabolic processes, such as photosynthesis and cell differentiation, are a function of the
46 water status of plants (Taiz and Zeiger 2006). In trees, most water is stored in the thin
47 layer of living cells comprised between bark and cambium. Therefore, changes in water
48 status are necessarily reflected in xylem and phloem, and in the resulting radial growth of

49 the stem (Steppe et al. 2006). During the early stages of water deficit, water potential
50 decreases up to -1.9 MPa for Japanese cedar, and the reduced hydrostatic pressure
51 precludes the accomplishment of complete cell expansion (Abe et al. 2003). With stress of
52 higher intensity, or persisting longer, water potential falls below -2 MPa for white spruce,
53 and photosynthesis and cell divisions in cambium also begin to decline (Abe et al. 2003).
54 Thus, if occurring with low intensity, summer droughts are expected to induce only slight
55 modifications to wood anatomy, in particular the production of cells with smaller
56 diameters and thicker cell walls (Arend and Fromm 2007; Gruber et al. 2010).
57 Nevertheless, field drought experiments in Finland were able to markedly reduce
58 secondary growth in mature Norway spruce, which produced tree rings with less tracheids
59 (Jyske et al. 2010).

60 As growth and water status are both physically and physiologically related,
61 understanding of the effects of drought events on wood formation require that cambial
62 activity is coupled with the physiological traits of trees. Although several previous
63 investigations have explored the effect of drought on tree growth in natural and
64 controlled environments (Eilmann et al. 2009; Rossi et al. 2009a; Swidrak et al. 2011), the
65 impacts of a prolonged summer drought on both the secondary growth and physiology of
66 trees still remain largely unexamined. Despite the latest knowledge on the cellular,
67 molecular, and developmental processes underlying wood formation, the recent literature
68 still strongly recommends more experimental studies to assess how the secondary
69 meristem copes with extreme drought events (Hartmann 2010; Jentsch et al. 2007).

70 The aim of this paper was to study the effect of summer droughts on xylem
71 phenology and anatomy of mature trees growing in their natural environment.
72 Manipulative experiments of rain exclusion were applied on mature black spruce [*Picea*
73 *mariana* (Mill.) BSP] trees in four sites at different altitudes and latitudes in the boreal
74 forest of Quebec, Canada. Black spruce is one of the most common boreal tree species
75 (Krause and Morin 2005) and is endemic to Northeastern America. It is a slow growing
76 species that often establishes immediately after forest fires. The root system is shallow,
77 mostly to be found in the upper 20cm of the organic soil.

78 A multidisciplinary approach including high resolution monitoring of xylogenesis,
79 tree physiology and stem radius variation was used to provide as complete information as
80 possible on the water status of the trees and thus quantify the level of stress that was
81 caused by the treatment. The lower water availability will reduce water potentials, which
82 are expected to produce physical and physiological effects in trees, identified by
83 modifications in (i) xylem cell size, (ii) activity of sources (i.e. photosynthesis), and (iii)
84 activity of sinks (cell production), according to increasing levels of stress.

85 **Material and Methods**

86 *Study area and experimental design*

87 The study was carried out in four permanent plots [Simoncouche (abbreviated as
88 SIM), Bernatchez (BER), Mistassibi (MIS) and Camp Daniel (DAN)] located along a
89 latitudinal and altitudinal gradient, in the boreal forest of the Saguenay-Lac-Saint-Jean
90 region, Quebec, Canada (Table 1).

91 The sites consisted of mature, even-aged black spruce stands characterized by a
92 typical boreal climate, with cold winters and cool summers (Table 1). The mean annual
93 temperature in the years preceding the experiment at the four sites was between -0.9 and
94 12.0 °C. May-September rainfall ranged between 402 and 532mm and increased with
95 latitude. The soils are podzolic with different depths among sites. The organic layer in SIM
96 ranged between 10 and 20 cm, with the maximum rooting depth limited by a shallow
97 bedrock. In the other sites, the organic layer was deeper and attained 20-40 cm

98 In each site, ten dominant or codominant trees with upright stems and similar
99 growth rates were chosen, five control and five treated trees. Trees with polycormic
100 stems, partially dead crowns, reaction wood or evident damage due to parasites were
101 avoided. The selection was based on the proximity among the treated trees to allow the
102 installation of the equipment for rain exclusion on the same cluster of individuals. In 2010,
103 plastic transparent under-canopy roofs were installed during late May-early June to
104 exclude the treated trees from precipitation. The majority of the root system of black

105 spruce is localized at a distance of 90-200 cm from the stem collar (Polomski and Kuhn
106 1998). Accordingly, the plastic roofs extended for at least 3 m from the stem of each tree
107 and drained the rain in sinking points of the soil to avoid water flowing back towards the
108 stem collar. The plastic roofs were removed in September to ensure the survival of trees.
109 The five control trees per site were left untreated as a control.

110 The volumetric water content (VWC) of the soil was measured weekly in four
111 points at a distance of 1 m from the stem of each tree and at a depth between 12-20 cm
112 with a time domain reflectometry soil moisture meter (TDR). All VWC measurements were
113 divided by the maximum observed value to standardize results and differences in VWC
114 between the treatments were calculated as the percentage difference between treated
115 and control plots. Rainfall data was recorded every 15 minutes on all sites and stored as
116 hourly sums by means of CR10X dataloggers (Campbell Scientific Corporation). Daily sums
117 of precipitation were later calculated with the time series obtained from the 24
118 measurements per day.

119 *Tree physiology*

120 The physiology of the selected trees was monitored weekly throughout the
121 growing season in SIM and BER, the two sites experiencing the most extreme growth
122 conditions (Rossi et al. 2011; Turcotte et al. 2011). Short canopy branches were collected
123 at 8-10 m on the tree using a telescopic branch pruner and photosynthetic rate was
124 measured using the LI-6400XT Portable Photosynthesis System (Li-Cor Biosciences,

125 Lincoln, Nebraska) with the 6400-22L Lighted Conifer Chamber. Because Li-Cor uses a
126 standard leaf area, the actual leaf area of each sample was adjusted using a regression
127 based on the dry sample weight (Flower-Ellis and Olsson 1993). Mid-day (Ψ_{md}) and pre-
128 dawn (Ψ_{pd}) water potentials were measured with a pressure chamber (Model 610
129 Pressure Chamber, PMS instruments). For logistical reasons, the pre-dawn water potential
130 was simulated in the morning by wrapping the sampled branches in aluminum foil for one
131 hour before taking measurements (Bucci et al. 2004).

132 *Xylem dynamics*

133 Cambium phenology was studied from May to October on control and treated
134 trees at weekly time resolution. Microcores were collected from the stem following a
135 spiral trajectory between 90 and 170 cm above ground using Trephor (Rossi et al. 2006a).
136 The wood samples were embedded in paraffin, cut into sections of 7 μm with a rotary
137 microtome, fixed on slides and stained with cresyl violet acetate (0.15% in water). The
138 phenology of xylem was followed under visible and polarized light at 400-500 \times by
139 counting the number of cells (i) in the cambium, (ii) in radial enlargement, (iii) in cell wall
140 thickening and lignification, and (iv) the number of mature cells along three radial files
141 (Deslauriers et al. 2003a; Rossi et al. 2006b). Rows with cells with large tangential sizes
142 were selected, to ensure that only cells cut at their middle longitudinal part were
143 considered. Cambial cells were characterized by thin cell walls and small radial diameters.
144 During cell enlargement, the primary cell walls were still thin, but the radial diameter was
145 at least twice that of a cambial cell. Observation under polarized light discriminated

146 between the phases of enlargement and cell wall thickening. Because of the arrangement
147 of cellulose microfibrills, the developing secondary walls glisten when observed under
148 polarized light, whereas no glistening is observed in enlargement zones, where the cells
149 are still composed of just primary wall (Abe et al. 1997). The progress of cell wall
150 lignification was detected with cresyl violet acetate reacting with the lignin (Rossi et al.
151 2006b). Lignification appeared as a color change from violet to blue. A homogeneous blue
152 cell wall revealed the end of lignification and the tracheid reaching maturity (Gricar et al.
153 2005). The number of cells in each developmental stage was averaged for each tree.

154 One sample per tree, collected in October, at the end of the growing season when
155 wood formation was finished, was stained with safranin to measure cell features. A
156 camera fixed on an optical microscope was used to record numerical images at a
157 magnification of 20x. Lumen area and cell wall thickness were measured in the tree rings
158 produced in 2009, the year before the treatment, and 2010 on three radial files per
159 section using Wincell™ (Deslauriers et al. 2003a) and were averaged for each tree and
160 year. The effect of the treatment on cell number and cell characteristics was tested
161 through General Linear Models (GLM) with repeated measurements using treatment and
162 site as model factors.

163 *Stem radius variations*

164 Ten automatic point dendrometers per site were installed on treated and control
165 trees at a height of 2 m on the stem to monitor radius variations during and after the

166 period of rain exclusion. Dendrometers were based on a precision linear variable
167 differential transducer (LVDT) enclosed in an aluminum housing and fixed to the tree with
168 stainless steel rods having a thermal linear expansion coefficient of $17 \mu\text{m m}^{-1} \text{C}^{-1}$. With
169 this equipment, the percentage of metal expansion was less than 1% of stem variation. A
170 sensing rod held against the surface of the bark measured the radius variations, which in
171 our monitoring represented the overall variation in size of xylem and phloem together.
172 The sensitivity of dendrometers to temperature and humidity was negligible due to the
173 use of dimensionally stable compounds in their manufacture and the dead bark was
174 partially removed to minimize error due to hygroscopic thickness variations. As the stem
175 changed in size, the core of the LVDT moved and translated the displacement in an
176 electrical signal. Measurements were taken every fifteen minutes and stored in CR-1000
177 dataloggers (Campbell Scientific Corporation) providing precise and high-resolution data
178 of radius variation during the growing season.

179 **Results**

180 *Soil water content and tree physiology*

181 In general, the two northern sites had higher VWC, and control plots showed more
182 fluctuations, mainly during the rainy periods (Fig. 1). When measurements started,
183 between DOY 173 and 179, VWC in treated plots was already slightly lower than that of
184 the control. During the period of treatment, VWC was substantially lower in the treated
185 plots, ranging from 46.8% of reduction in DAN, the northern site, to 64.4% in SIM, the
186 southern site. After removal of the under-canopy roofs, the difference in VWC was
187 maintained for one and three weeks in SIM and BER, respectively. During the last
188 measurements on DOY 285, DAN and MIS still showed a reduction of 25-39% in VWC
189 between treated and control plots (Fig. 1).

190 Lower Ψ_{pd} and Ψ_{md} were observed in the treated trees during the whole period
191 of rain exclusion in SIM, and from DOY 174 in BER (Fig. 2). During the treatment, the
192 difference in water potential between treated and control trees was larger in SIM than in
193 BER, and was 0.16-0.17 MPa for Ψ_{pd} and 0.26-0.33 MPa for Ψ_{md} . In both sites, the
194 difference in water potential decreased rapidly after the removal of the under-canopy
195 roofs. The photosynthetic rate of trees ranged between 1.6 and 6.2 $\mu\text{mol CO}_2\text{m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$, was
196 highly variable and showed the same fluctuations in treated and control trees throughout
197 the growing season. Higher values were regularly observed from the beginning of August
198 in treated trees in BER. In SIM, the photosynthetic rate in September diverged markedly

199 between treatments, but the difference disappeared with the ending of rain exclusion
200 (Fig. 2).

201 *Xylem dynamics*

202 The radial rows of cells had a clear pattern of variation in the number of tracheids
203 in the different developmental stages during the year, which resulted in a decreasing
204 curve of cambial cells, two delayed bell-shaped curves of radial enlarging and wall
205 thickening and lignifying cells, and a rising curve of mature cells (Fig. 3). All patterns of
206 variation are similar between treatments and among sites. However, the number of cells
207 in control trees in SIM was always markedly higher than that observed in treated trees
208 and in the other sites. Cell enlargement started before the application of the under-
209 canopy roofs, except for control trees in BER, where the first enlarging cells were detected
210 one week after the treatment began. During late summer, the number of enlarging cells
211 decreased to zero between DOY 207 and 243. The earliest and latest endings of cell
212 enlargement were observed in DAN and SIM, respectively (Fig. 3). The first cells in wall
213 thickening and lignification were detected between mid-May and the end of May, at the
214 beginning of rain exclusion. Mature cells were observed from DOY 151 in SIM and DOY
215 172 in MIS and DAN. In the northern sites, the ending of xylogenesis occurred between
216 DOY 242 and 270, on average 10 days earlier than in the southern sites, where a higher
217 number of cambium cells were produced (Fig. 3).

218 *Xylem characteristics*

219 Fig. 4 shows the number of xylem cells and their size in control and treated trees
220 for 2009, the year before the treatment, and 2010, the year of the treatment. Cell
221 production along a radial row varied between 10 and 47, with significant differences
222 observed among sites ($F=7.74$, $p<0.001$, Table 3). No significant interaction
223 year \times treatment was found ($p>0.05$), indicating that the number of cells produced by the
224 cambium was not affected by the treatment. This was particularly clear in SIM, where
225 both control and treated trees reduced cell production in 2010, but with the same
226 intensity (Fig. 4). Lumen area ranged from $307 \mu\text{m}^2$ in DAN to $394 \mu\text{m}^2$ in BER and cell wall
227 thickness varied from $2.3 \mu\text{m}$ to $3.9 \mu\text{m}$. For both variables, significant differences were
228 observed between 2009 and 2010 ($p<0.05$ for lumen area and $p<0.001$ for wall thickness)
229 but variations differed between treatments, as shown by the significant interaction
230 year \times treatment ($p<0.05$ for lumen area and $p<0.01$ for wall thickness, Table 2). The GLM
231 demonstrated that rain exclusion reduced cell area and increased cell wall thickness of
232 xylem, but did not affect the number of cells produced by the cambium (Fig. 4).

233 *Stem radius variations*

234 Stem diameter varied according to the diurnal rhythms of water storage depletion
235 and replenishment and during precipitation events (Fig. 5). Greater variations were
236 observed at the beginning of the growing season, between mid-May and the end of June.
237 After that, stem increase was markedly reduced, finally attaining a plateau from the
238 beginning of August. The highest and lowest stem radius variations were observed in BER
239 and DAN, respectively. During and after the treatment, no difference in stem radius

240 variation between treated and control trees was observed in DAN, the northern site. In
241 the three other sites, stem radius variations of the control were lower than those of
242 treated trees. In BER and SIM, a difference between the treatments occurred soon after
243 the installation of the experiment, indicating that stem radius of treated trees increased
244 more slowly and to lesser extent than that of the control. The pattern of treated trees was
245 similar to that of the control, as shown by the low variations in the difference between
246 treatments. In MIS, the differences between control and treated trees occurred later, at
247 the beginning of July (DOY 185). The pattern of the treated trees differed from that of the
248 control, this is clear from the higher variations in the difference. After removal of the
249 under-canopy roofs, the difference between both treatments decreased, but treated and
250 control trees only attained similar final values of stem radius variation in BER.

251

252 **Discussion**

253 This paper presents a manipulative experiment of rain exclusion on mature black
254 spruce growing in four sites of the boreal forest of Quebec, Canada, with the aim of
255 studying the effects of summer drought on xylem phenology and anatomy in trees
256 growing in their natural environment. Drought was expected to cause a decrease in water
257 potential, with modifications of the activity of sources and sinks within the tree. The
258 results showed significant changes in the size of the xylem cells, but no substantial change
259 was observed in photosynthesis and cell production, thus only partly confirming the
260 expectations.

261 The treatment affected the turgor pressure in the trees by reducing the water
262 potential of xylem during cell development. Cell enlargement is physically sensitive to
263 changes in hydrostatic pressure during the early stages of a water deficit (Abe et al. 2003;
264 Steppe et al. 2006). Changes in the size of cells and cell walls are a well-known
265 physiological response to drought, which plants activate to prevent cavitation and to
266 increase the anatomical strength of their tissues (Hacke et al. 2001). Thicker cell walls and
267 smaller cells result in a higher wood density, rendering tree rings less vulnerable to future
268 drought events. These stronger cells may be important to maintain a minimal
269 conductivity. However, these anatomical modifications require larger supplies of cellulose
270 and lignin for cell wall production, and, in the long run, result in lower growth rates and
271 water storage capacities (Durante et al. 2011; Hacke and Sperry 2001). Cells with reduced
272 lumen area evidently imply that a more-than-proportionally smaller area is available for

273 water conductance from the roots to the canopy (Anfodillo et al. 2011). Thus, trees with a
274 less efficient network of water transport could be more sensitive to subsequent drought
275 events. Also, as tree rings in conifers remain active for several years, repeated drought
276 events could significantly reduce the overall conductivity of the stem, which could affect
277 water availability for all metabolic processes of the needles. In contrast with our findings,
278 Eilmann et al. (2009) found that as the environment gets drier, trees build more effective
279 water conducting systems, with larger tracheids and thinner cell walls. However, that
280 study was conducted on Scots pine, which is a species adapted to low water availabilities
281 and soil moisture, and no extreme drought conditions were applied.

282 Cell division is a growth process occurring in the cambium, which is strictly related
283 to the source of energy, the process of photosynthesis and its products (Deslauriers et al.
284 2009; Taiz and Zeiger 2006). Bigras (2005) affirmed that different levels of stress have
285 different impacts on tree physiology. Photosynthesis of white spruce was not affected by
286 drought until a severe stress of -2.0 MPa was reached (Bigras 2005). In our experiment,
287 simulated Ψ_{pd} hardly fell below -1.5 MPa, and photosynthesis was only slightly inhibited,
288 which demonstrated that the water stress was not sufficient to cause a physiological
289 reaction of the trees. Consequently, cell production also remained unchanged. Moreover,
290 trees are most susceptible to environmental signals in the first period of cell division,
291 during cambium reactivation (Frankenstein et al. 2005). Accordingly, there is evidence
292 that the timings of the water stress are particularly important for producing a marked
293 effect on the secondary meristem. As shown in Fig. 3, cell division and even cell

294 enlargement had already started at the end of May, when snowmelt was just completed
295 and the sites were accessible to set up the experiment. We assume that the expected
296 increases in winter precipitation supplying abundant water during snowmelt (Easterling et
297 al. 2000), associated with an earlier cambium reactivation due to the warmer air
298 temperatures (Lupi et al. in press; Rossi et al. 2011), may still provide adequate conditions
299 for secondary growth in spring. Since the number of cambium cells is determining for the
300 total number of cells produced, the start under more favorable conditions at the
301 beginning of the growing season may compensate for the consequences of a severe
302 drought during summer. This is supported by the results, which showed that the applied
303 drought during summer had no influence on the total number of cells produced.

304 In SIM, the number of cambium and mature cells was markedly higher in control.
305 As shown in Fig 4, control trees also produced more cells than treated trees in 2009. This
306 indicated that there was an initial difference in growth between treatments before the
307 experiment, and that the lower cell production in treated trees was not due to drought.
308 Such a conclusion was confirmed by the lack in significant interaction year^xtreatment
309 found by GLM (Table 2).

310 The results clearly showed that the treated trees of southern sites (SIM and BER)
311 were less able to rehydrate at night and during rainfall events. Nevertheless, after
312 removing the plastic roofs from the stem, the treated trees, especially in BER, were able to
313 rehydrate within 23 days and finally showed no difference from the control. The trees in
314 MIS and SIM also showed a rehydration, although not complete. In DAN, there was no

315 difference between treated and control trees, which can be explained by the differences
316 in soil characteristics. In the northern sites, soils are deeper, with steady accumulations of
317 organic matter producing thicker organic layers (Rossi et al. 2009b), that need more time
318 to dry out or rehydrate.

319 Despite the lower variations in stem radius, there was evidence that treated trees
320 shrunk and swelled according to the circadian cycle (Downes et al. 1999). As was shown by
321 Giovannelli et al. (2007) in poplar, a higher stem shrinkage may take place during the early
322 stages of drought, when tree water potential begins to decrease. Our results showed that
323 the trees in SIM and BER were still able to rehydrate, because they follow the same
324 pattern as the control, but with lower amplitudes, being still influenced by rainfall and
325 nocturnal rehydration. This indicated that the sources of water were either still accessible
326 or not completely cut off by the under-canopy roofs. However, the treatment appeared
327 more effective and the treated trees were less able to rehydrate in MIS. These results
328 suggested that site characteristics can play an important role in the responses of trees to
329 drought.

330 Although root grafts between trees are known to have the capacity to transport
331 water and nutrients efficiently between individuals (Stone and Stone 1975), the
332 functionality of these structures in black spruce has never been demonstrated. Since the
333 under-canopy roofs were installed at a height of about 2 m, the canopy was still directly
334 exposed to rain. A hypothesis is proposed that this species has the capacity to absorb rain,
335 dew or fog water directly from needles, has already previously been shown in other

351 **Acknowledgments**

352 This work was funded by the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada
353 and the Consortium Ouranos. The authors thank F. Gionest, C. Soucy, S. Pednault, M.
354 Thibeault-Martel, I. Grenon, D. Laprise, M. Boulianne and J-G. Girard for their technical
355 support and A. Garside for checking the English text.

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Tables

Table 1: Location and climatic characteristics of the four study sites, listed in decreasing latitude. Altitude is reported in m above sea level (a.s.l.).

Site	Latitude	Longitude	Altitude (m a.s.l.)	Mean annual temperature	Maximum temperature (°C)	Minimum temperature (°C)	May-September precipitation (mm)
DAN	50° 41'N	72° 11'W	487	-0.9	34.2	-47.1	401.8
MIS	49° 43'N	71° 56'W	342	1.0	35.1	-42.4	425.4
BER	48° 51'N	70° 20'W	611	0.3	33.1	-39.8	500.2
SIM	48° 12'N	71° 14'W	338	2.0	35.7	-39.7	532.2

Table 2: F-Value resulting from GLM with repeated measurements using treatment and site as model factors, for cell number, cell area and cell wall thickness. One and two asterisks indicate differences at $p < 0.05$ and $p < 0.01$, respectively.

	Cell number	Lumen area	Cell wall thickness
Year	3.03	6.38*	7.87**
Treatment	0.60	1.64	4.32*
Site	7.74**	1.74	1.82
YearxTreatment	0.18	4.95*	8.39**
YearxSite	12.85**	0.89	1.68
YearxTreatmentxSite	0.84	0.34	0.73

Figure captions

Figure 1: Volumetric water content of the soil (VWC) in the treated (white dots) and control (black dots) plots during (grey background) and after the rain exclusion treatment. Vertical bars represent the standard deviation.

Figure 2: Ψ_{md} , Ψ_{pd} and photosynthetic rate of treated (white dots) and control (black dots) trees during (grey background) and after the rain exclusion treatment. Vertical bars represent the standard deviation.

Figure 3: Radial number of cells, enlarging, wall thickening and mature cells in developing xylem of treated (white dots) and control trees (black dots) before, during (grey background) and after the rain exclusion treatment. Vertical bars represent the standard deviation.

Figure 4: Number of cells, cell area and cell wall thickness in the treated (white dots) and control (black dots) trees in 2009 (the year before treatment) and 2010 (the year of treatment, grey background). Vertical bars represent the standard deviation.

Figure 5: Mean daily stem radius variations (mm) in control (black line) and treated trees (grey line) before, during and after the rain exclusion treatment (grey window). The thicker black line shows the difference between treated and control trees.

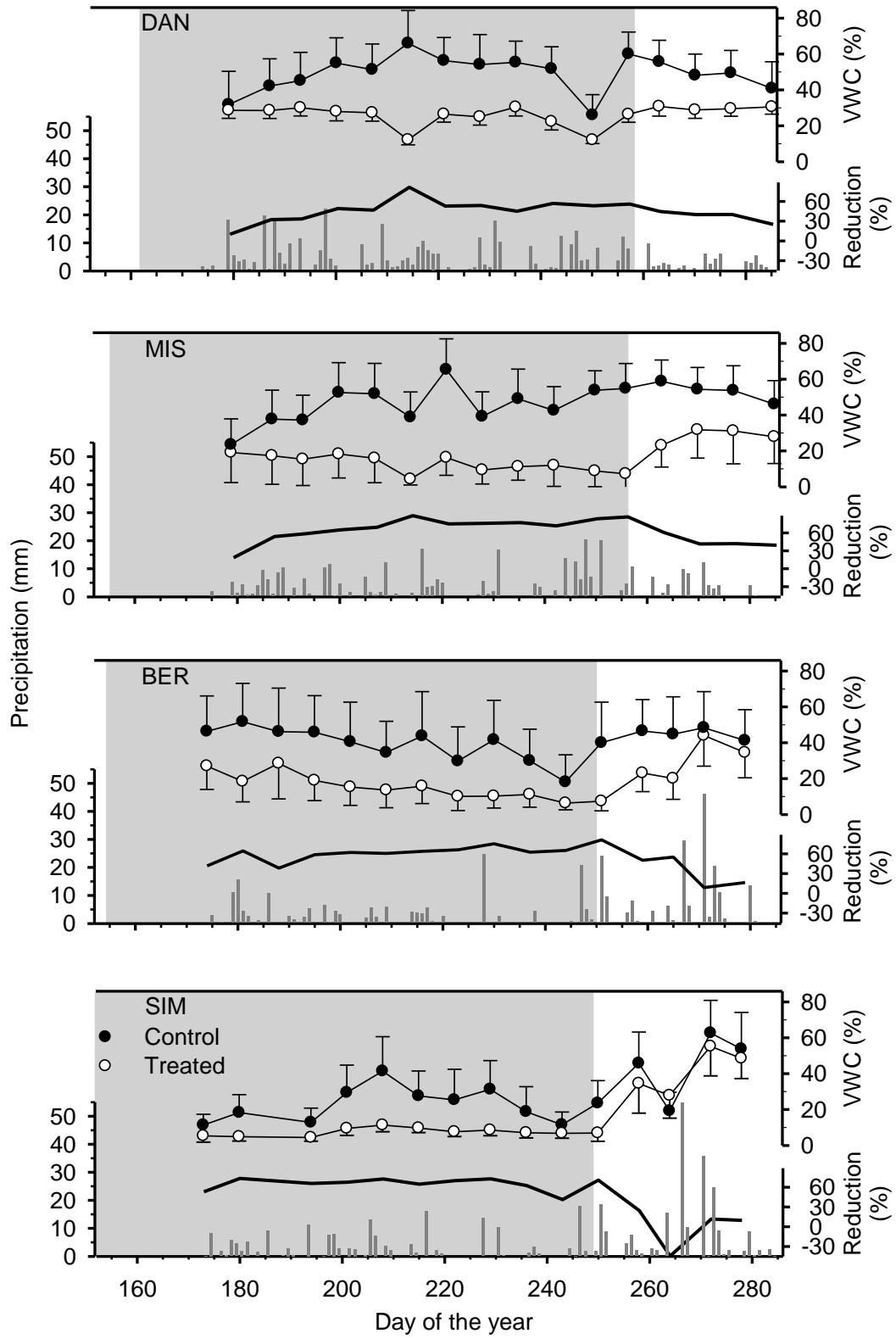


Figure 1

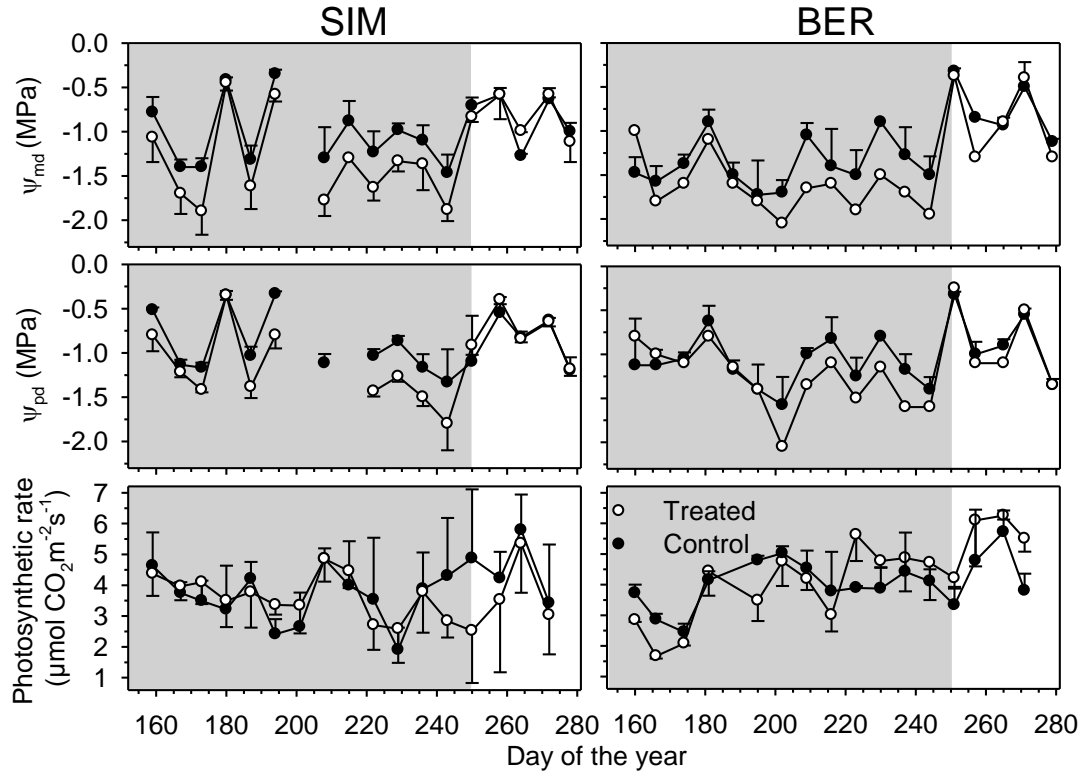


Figure 2

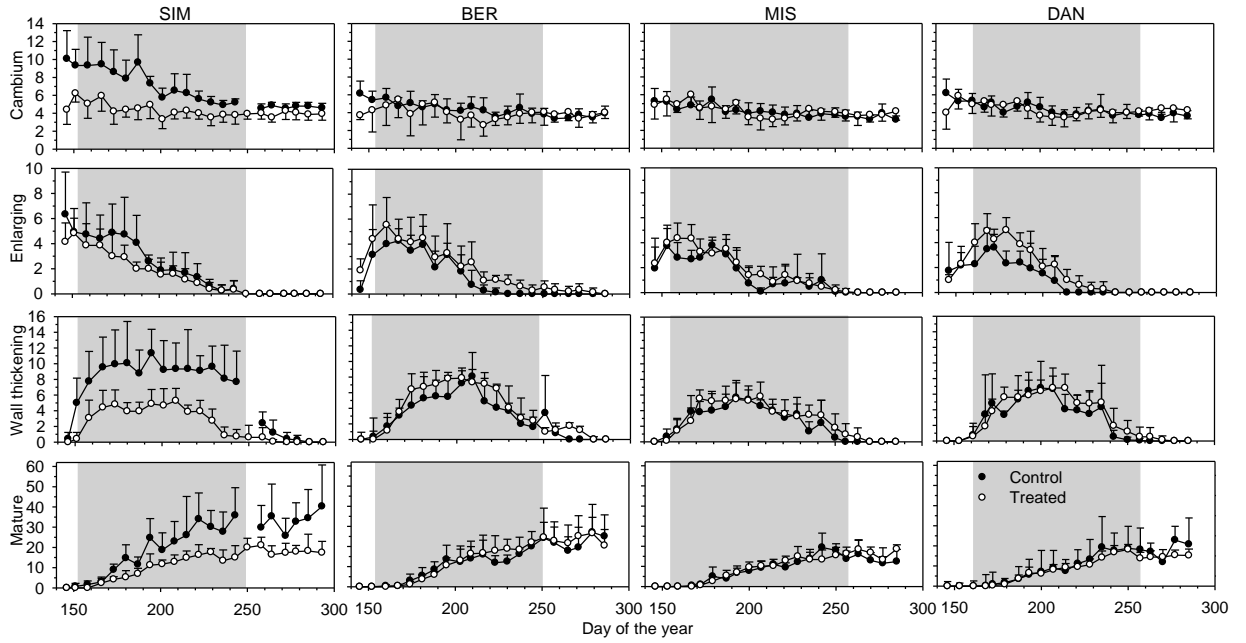


Figure 3

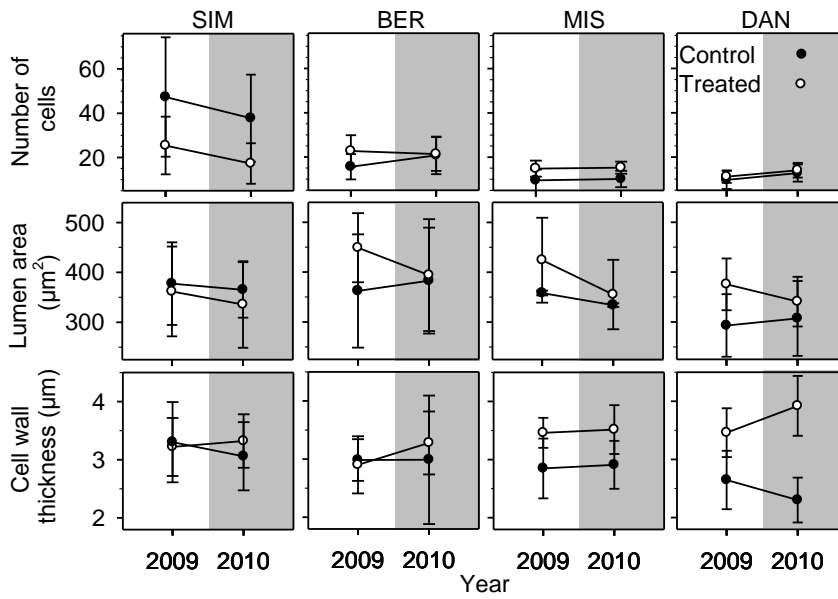


Figure 4

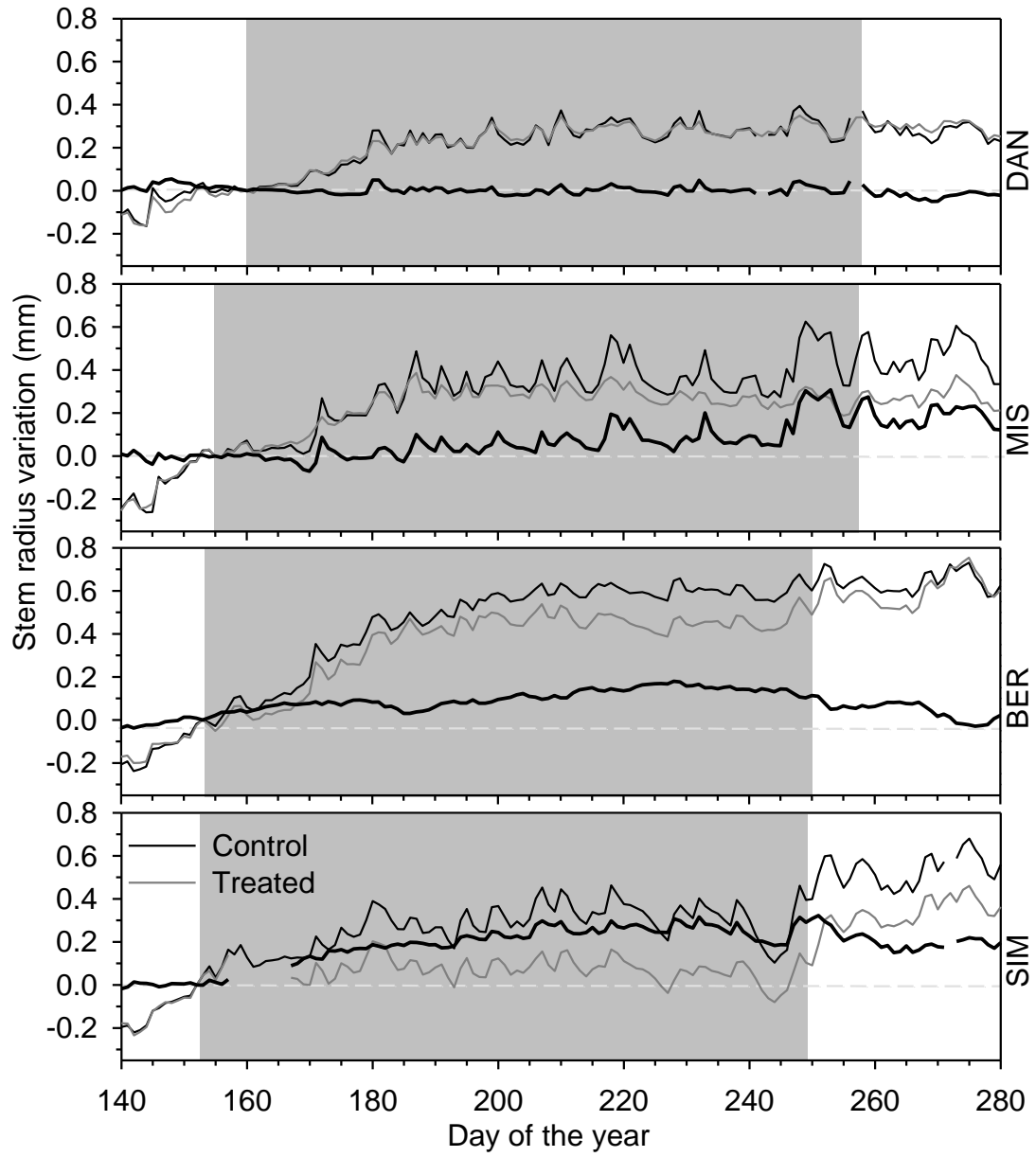


Figure 5