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Outside-xylem vulnerability, not xylem embolism, controls leaf hydraulic decline during dehydration

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- 25 manuscript with contributions from all authors.
- 26 **One Sentence Summary:** Changes in leaf outside-xylem properties drive leaf and whole plant
- 27 hydraulic decline with dehydration, protecting plants from catastrophic embolism in xylem
- 28 conduits.
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31 Abstract

Leaf hydraulic supply is crucial to maintaining open stomata for CO₂ capture and plant growth. 32 During drought-induced dehydration, the leaf hydraulic conductance (K_{leaf}) declines, which 33 contributes to stomatal closure and eventually to leaf death. Previous studies have tended to 34 attribute the decline of K_{leaf} to embolism in the leaf vein xylem. We visualized at high resolution 35 and quantified experimentally the hydraulic vulnerability of xylem and outside-xylem pathways 36 37 and modelled their respective influences on plant water transport. Evidence from all approaches indicated that the decline of K_{leaf} during dehydration arose first and foremost due to the 38 vulnerability of outside-xylem tissues. In vivo x-ray micro-computed tomography of dehydrating 39 leaves of four diverse angiosperm species showed that at turgor loss point only small fractions of 40 41 leaf vein xylem conduits were embolized, and substantial xylem embolism arose only under severe dehydration. Experiments on an expanded set of eight angiosperm species showed that 42 outside-xylem hydraulic vulnerability explained 75 to 100% of K_{leaf} decline across the range of 43 dehydration from mild water stress to beyond turgor loss point. Spatially explicit modeling of 44 45 leaf water transport pointed to a role for reduced membrane conductivity consistent with published data for cells and tissues. Plant-scale modeling suggested that outside-xylem 46 47 hydraulic vulnerability can protect the xylem from tensions that would induce embolism and disruption of water transport under mild to moderate soil and atmospheric droughts. These 48 findings pinpoint outside-xylem tissues as a central locus for the control of leaf and plant water 49 transport during progressive drought. 50

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52 Key words: aquaporins, bundle sheath cells, cavitation, drought, plant modelling

53 Introduction

Leaves account for the bulk of photosynthetic productivity and transpirational water use, and 54 given the increasing incidence and severity of droughts in many regions (Vicente-Serrano et al., 55 2014; Diffenbaugh et al., 2015) if not globally (Sheffield et al., 2012), the mechanisms 56 underlying the drought responses of leaves are ever more critical to understand. Reduction of 57 photosynthesis and growth under mild dehydration and subsequent death under prolonged 58 drought are primarily related to failure of the water transport system (Tyree and Zimmermann, 59 2002; Sack et al., 2016a). Water moves under negative pressure through plant xylem, via the 60 "cohesion-tension" mechanism (Dixon and Joly, 1895), and a certain level of tension can cause 61 air to aspirate through a xylem conduit causing spontaneous vaporization, a process known as 62 63 "cavitation". The resulting embolization of the xylem conduits has been widely believed to be the main cause of hydraulic decline during drought (Milburn, 1966; Tyree and Zimmermann, 64 2002), which results in declines in gas exchange rates (Nardini and Salleo, 2000; Brodribb and 65 Holbrook, 2003; Hernandez-Santana et al., 2016), and can ultimately precipitate plant mortality 66 67 (Choat et al., 2012). While embolism is a major cause of failure of stem hydraulic function, its role in leaves has yet not been clarified. Understanding the role of embolism on leaf hydraulic 68 69 function is equally if not more important than in stems, as leaves represent a hydraulic bottleneck (Sack and Holbrook, 2006) that can determine plant hydraulic responses and the resulting 70 declines in stomatal conductance and photosynthesis during drought (Brodribb and Holbrook, 71 2003; Sack and Holbrook, 2006). Leaves are highly vulnerable to dehydration, with leaf 72 hydraulic conductance (K_{leaf}) often declining rapidly between full turgor and turgor loss point, 73 and even more strongly during extreme dehydration (e.g., Brodribb and Holbrook, 2006; Johnson 74 et al., 2009b; Scoffoni et al., 2012; Sack et al., 2016b). This response could arise in one or more 75 of several tissues, as water moves first through the vein xylem, then exits the xylem through 76 bundle sheath cells and flows through the mesophyll before evaporating into the intercellular air 77 space, and diffusing through stomata out of the leaf (Figure 1) (Tyree and Yianoulis, 1980; 78 Boyer, 1985; Rockwell et al., 2014). Thus, the decline of K_{leaf} with dehydration may be driven 79 80 not just by reduced vein xylem hydraulic conductance (K_x) , but also by reduced outside-xylem hydraulic conductance (K_{ox}) , which includes pathways through vascular parenchyma, bundle 81 82 sheath and the rest of the mesophyll tissues. Both K_x and K_{ox} determine K_{leaf} : $K_{\text{leaf}} = ((K_{\text{x}}^{-1} + K_{\text{ox}}^{-1})^{-1})^{-1}$ 83 Eqn 1

Indeed, recent studies have suggested that cell shrinkage with dehydration and/or deactivation of 84 membrane aquaporins outside the xylem could strongly reduce K_{leaf} (Kim and Steudle, 2007; 85 Shatil-Cohen et al., 2011; Pantin et al., 2013; Scoffoni et al., 2014; Moshelion et al., 2015; Sade 86 et al., 2015). Yet, the vulnerability of K_x and K_{ox} , and their influences on K_{leaf} decline with 87 dehydration have not been clearly disentangled. Though recent evidence has suggested that the 88 leaf xylem is resistant to embolism under moderate levels of dehydration (Scoffoni and Sack, 89 2015; Bouche et al., 2016; Brodribb et al., 2016b), whole leaf hydraulic decline with dehydration 90 has been most often primarily attributed to embolism, based on indirect evidence (e.g., Milburn 91 and Johnson, 1966; Crombie et al., 1985; Kikuta et al., 1997; Nardini and Salleo, 2000; Salleo et 92 al., 2000; Nardini et al., 2001; Salleo et al., 2001; Bucci et al., 2003; Lo Gullo et al., 2003; 93 Nardini and Salleo, 2003; Nardini et al., 2003; Stiller et al., 2003; Trifilo et al., 2003a; Brodribb 94 and Holbrook, 2005; Woodruff et al., 2007; Nardini et al., 2008; Johnson et al., 2009a; Blackman 95 et al., 2010; Johnson et al., 2012; Blackman et al., 2014). For instance, the earliest report of 96 xylem embolism was for leaf petioles, based on acoustic emissions thought to be caused by 97 cavitation events (Milburn, 1966), and subsequent studies reported that the number of acoustic 98 emissions a leaf generates correlated with leaf hydraulic decline (Tyree and Sperry, 1989; 99 Johnson et al., 2009a). However, it is now recognized that acoustic emissions from drying leaves 100 may arise from processes other than xylem conduit embolism, such as fractures in the tissues or 101 embolism within fibers or mesophyll cell walls (Sandford and Grace, 1985; Ritman and Milburn, 102 103 1988; Cochard et al., 2013). In severely dehydrated excised leaves embolisms can be observed in the leaf vein xylem using scanning electron microscopy of cryogenized sections, dye methods or 104 direct light transmission, and several studies reported that K_{leaf} decline corresponded to 105 accumulation of leaf vein embolism (Cochard et al., 2000; Nardini et al., 2003; Trifilo et al., 106 107 2003b; Woodruff et al., 2007; Johnson et al., 2009a; Brodribb et al., 2016a), and suggested this to be the main driver of K_{leaf} decline. However, there has been a lack of information of the 108 number of embolized xylem conduits within given vein orders across the range of leaf water 109 stress and their influence on K_{leaf} (Wylie, 1947; McKown et al., 2010; Sack and Scoffoni, 2013) 110 relative to the potentially strong role of vulnerability of the outside-xylem pathways. Recent 111 work has proposed that outside-xylem hydraulic decline may play a role in K_{leaf} decline (Sade et 112 al., 2014; Scoffoni et al., 2014; Hernandez-Santana et al., 2016; Trifilo et al., 2016). A recent 113 study that partitioned the vulnerability of K_{leaf} into that of K_x and K_{ox} (Trifilo et al., 2016) found 114

that both contributed, depending on species, but measurements were made under low irradiance, which would minimize the response of K_{ox} before turgor loss point (Guyot et al., 2012; Sack et al., 2016b). A strong test of the relative roles of K_x and K_{ox} depends on their determination for illuminated leaves coupled with direct observations of the formation of emboli in the xylem.

To test the relative roles of xylem embolism and changes in outside-xylem properties in 119 determining the decline in K_{leaf} during dehydration, we combined three approaches. We first 120 investigated whether embolism occurred in leaf veins as leaves dehydrated to turgor loss and 121 beyond using x-ray micro-computed tomography (microCT). We then quantified the 122 vulnerability of K_x and K_{ox} to dehydration, which allowed us to partition their influence on the 123 vulnerability of K_{leaf} at any point during dehydration under high irradiance. We investigated the 124 anatomical determinants of the decline in outside-xylem pathways using a spatially explicit 125 model of leaf water transport. Finally, we tested the implications of our findings, using model of 126 the whole plant hydraulic system to estimate the influence of the measured declines of K_x , K_{ox} 127 and K_{leaf} on whole plant hydraulic conductance under different drought scenarios. 128

129

130 **Results**

The main determinant of K_{leaf} decline in dehydrating leaves was hydraulic vulnerability of the 131 outside-xylem pathways rather than xylem embolism, for eight angiosperm species from eight 132 families (Table 1). The strong declines of K_{leaf} during progressive dehydration above and below 133 turgor loss point did not reflect patterns of xylem embolism observed in vivo (Figures 2-3). 134 MicroCT imaging of dehydrating leaves of four species revealed few gas-filled conduits even at 135 the turgor loss point, and at leaf water potentials at which K_{leaf} had already declined by over 60% 136 (Figures 2-3) where on average only 5 to 8.5% of midrib conduits were embolized across species 137 in the midrib and none in the minor veins (Table 2). Substantial levels of embolism (a maximum 138 of 44% across species) were observed in the midrib only under extreme dehydration beyond the 139 turgor loss point (Table 2), but emboli were non-existent or rare in the minor veins of these 140 141 species at those extreme water potentials (Scoffoni et al., 2016). Hydraulic measurements of K_x vulnerability across the four species used for microCT imaging and an additional four 142 ecologically diverse species (Table 1) corroborated the microCT evidence of low K_x 143 vulnerability on average across species compared to K_{leaf} . Thus, the water potential inducing 144

50% loss of hydraulic conductance for the leaf xylem ($P_{50,Kx}$ obtained from K_x vulnerability 145 curves shown in Figure S1) was on average 1.6 MPa more negative than that for the whole leaf 146 ($P_{50,Kleaf}$; Figure 3), representing a much lower sensitivity to water stress of K_x than of either K_{leaf} 147 or K_{ox} (*p*-values of 0.015 and 0.007 respectively; paired t-tests for each species; values for P_{50,Kx}, 148 P_{50,Kox} and P_{50,Kleaf} are shown in Table 1). By contrast, the water potential inducing 50% loss of 149 hydraulic conductance for the outside-xylem pathways (P_{50,Kox}) was on average 0.1 MPa less 150 negative than P_{50,Kleaf}, representing only a slightly greater sensitivity. Although the vulnerability 151 of K_x to dehydration was much smaller than that of K_{ox} for all species, their relative sensitivities 152 varied: the P_{50,Kx} ranged from only 0.08-0.8 MPa more negative than P_{50,Kox} in two soft-leaved 153 shrub species (Lantana camara and Salvia canariensis), to 2.9-3.2 MPa more negative in 154 sclerophyllous species of the California chaparral (Comarostaphylis diversifolia and Quercus 155 156 agrifolia). Partitioning the contributions of xylem and outside-xylem pathways to the decline of K_{leaf} (see *Methods*) showed that across species, the decline in K_{ox} explained 86 to 100% of the 157 decline in K_{leaf} at turgor loss point (96% on average across species), 95 to 100% of that at $P_{50,K\text{leaf}}$ 158 (98% on average) and 75 to 100% of that at water potentials inducing 88% loss of leaf hydraulic 159 conductance (P_{88,Kleaf}; 93% on average; Table 3). Further, while across species both P_{50,Kx} and 160 $P_{50,Kox}$ correlated positively with $P_{50,Kleaf}$ ($r^2 = 0.57$ and 0.99 respectively), when testing models 161 predicting P_{50,Kleaf} from P_{50,Kox} and/or P_{50,Kx}, the model with P_{50,Kox} alone was selected by 162 maximum likelihood as the better predictor (Table S1), explaining 81% of P_{50.Kleaf} variation 163 164 across species according to independent effects analysis.

Our model simulations of the plant hydraulic-stomatal system showed that on average 165 166 across species (Figure 4), and for 3 of 4 species individually (Figure S2; Table S2), decline of K_{ox} would be the main determinant of the decline of not only K_{leaf} but of whole plant hydraulic 167 168 conductance under a wide range of scenarios of atmospheric drought (i.e., high VPD) or soil drought (i.e., increasingly negative soil water potentials, Ψ_{soil}). Indeed, the trajectory of the 169 percent loss of conductivity of the whole plant hydraulic system to either type of drought showed 170 strong overlap with that of K_{ox} , while the bottleneck imposed by low K_{ox} shielded the leaf and 171 stem xylem hydraulic conductances from tensions that would result in significant declines in 172 these components under increasing VPD or increasingly negative Ψ_{soil} . Roots also have water 173 flowing through living tissues outside-xylem component, and root hydraulic conductance (K_{root}) 174 shows steep hydraulic vulnerability (Brodribb and Hill, 2000; Hacke et al., 2000; North et al., 175

176 2004), but K_{root} too is shielded from decline under increasing VPD by the bottleneck imposed by declining leaf K_{ox} . Notably, like the other compartments, K_{root} strongly declines under more 177 negative Ψ_{soil} . However, because Ψ_{soil} is less negative than leaf water potential during 178 transpiration, $K_{\rm root}$ does not decline as strongly as leaf $K_{\rm ox}$ on average across species. Even for 179 Lantana camara, which has relatively vulnerable xylem, under increasing VPD, the decline of 180 $K_{\rm ox}$ is steep and protects the other compartments of the plant from high tensions as for the other 181 species, though under soil drought, steep declines in hydraulic conductances would occur in all 182 organs (Figure S2). Across species, the vulnerability of the hydraulic pathways correlated with 183 the drought tolerance of the mesophyll cells. Thus, bulk leaf turgor loss point (Ψ_{TLP}) correlated 184 with $P_{50,Kox}$ and $P_{50,Kx}$ ($r^2 = 0.69$ and 0.91 respectively, $p \le 0.01$). 185

We applied models to refine hypotheses for the source of the decline of K_{ox} in 186 dehydrating leaves. We parameterized the MOFLO model for water transport outside the xylem 187 (Buckley et al., 2015) with shifts in leaf anatomy and physiology that can be directly observed or 188 that were experimentally determined or hypothesized in the literature to occur during 189 dehydration, including leaf and internal tissue shrinkage, cell wall shrinkage, reduction in cell 190 191 connectivity and decreases in membrane permeability (Sancho-Knapik et al., 2011; Shatil-Cohen et al., 2011; Pou et al., 2013; Scoffoni et al., 2014; Sade et al., 2015), and with or without 192 193 assuming an apoplastic barrier at the bundle sheath as has been reported for some species (Lersten, 1997; Taneda et al., 2016). Across all four species, a reduction of membrane 194 195 permeability in the context of an apoplastic barrier was the only factor that could directly account for decline of K_{ox} values during dehydration. Model simulations showed that an 80% 196 197 reduction in membrane permeability in the context of an apoplastic barrier resulted in 58 to 86% decline of K_{ox} values. However, without an apoplastic barrier, the decrease of K_{ox} due to 198 membrane permeability reduction would not be important enough to overcome the opposing 199 effect of tissue shrinkage. Notably, leaf and tissue shrinkage as measured from microCT images 200 (Figure 5) would, by itself, actually *increase* K_{ox} by 4 to 55 % across species, by shortening flow 201 pathways outside the xylem (Figure 6). Further, An 80% reduction in cell connectivity had little 202 impact, and in most cases (especially under the "no apoplastic barrier" scenario) its decrease was 203 not sufficient to overcome the increase in K_{ox} induced by cell shrinkage (Figure 6). Notably, an 204 80% reduction in cell wall thicknesses yielded reductions in K_{ox} regardless of simulating an 205

apoplastic barrier or not, with 11-72% declines in K_{ox} at turgor loss point across species and scenarios.

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209 Discussion

Vulnerable outside-xylem pathways protect the xylem from embolism throughout the plant 210 211 Our results from both microCT imaging and hydraulics experiments suggest the primary determinant of K_{leaf} decline in leaves from mild to extreme dehydration originated in 212 vulnerability of the outside-xylem pathways, and not hydraulic failure of the xylem. Across 213 species, the decline in K_{ox} caused >85% of the decline in K_{leaf} for water potentials by the turgor 214 loss point, and > 75% by $P_{88}K_{\text{leaf}}$. These results are consistent with the body of literature linking 215 changes in aquaporin expression to leaf hydration status and bundle sheath and mesophyll cell 216 turgor (see below; Johansson et al., 1998; Kim and Steudle, 2007; Miyazawa et al., 2008; Kim 217 and Steudle, 2009; Shatil-Cohen et al., 2011; Shatil-Cohen and Moshelion, 2012; Pou et al., 218 2013; Prado and Maurel, 2013; Laur and Hacke, 2014; Scoffoni et al., 2014; Sade et al., 2015). 219 Our results are also consistent with those of two recent studies using an optical transmission 220 approach, which found that long dehydrating times (up to 70h) and very negative water 221 potentials below turgor loss point were necessary before vein embolisms were observed in leaf 222 veins (Brodribb et al., 2016a; Brodribb et al., 2016b). One of those studies showed a correlation 223 between vein embolism and K_{leaf} decline in four species (Brodribb et al., 2016a), though this was 224 not necessarily causative as K_{leaf} appeared to decline by up to 50% before turgor loss point and 225 before any signal of embolism in leaf veins. Additionally, the sensitivity of K_{ox} and K_{leaf} may 226 have been stronger under high irradiance than assessed in that study in which leaves were 227 acclimated under low irradiance (<100 μ mol quanta m⁻² s⁻¹), as for many species, K_{leaf} in 228 hydrated leaves can be enhanced by many fold under high irradiance likely due to aquaporin 229 expression (e.g., Cochard et al., 2007; Scoffoni et al., 2008; Maurel et al., 2015) and such high-230 light acclimated leaves show stronger vulnerability before turgor loss point (Guyot et al., 2012; 231 Sack et al., 2016b). Similarly, a recent study partitioning the vulnerabilities of K_x and K_{ox} found 232 that K_{ox} was the strongest determinant of K_{leaf} decline in 2/4 species (Trifilo et al., 2016) and for 233 234 the other two species, both xylem and outside-xylem pathways appeared to be strong drivers of 235 K_{leaf} decline. However, hydraulics measurements were performed in that study under low light, 236 likely minimizing the response of K_{ox} before turgor loss point.

Indeed, our results for angiosperm leaves with their complex venation may be general for a yet greater diversity of plants, as two recent studies using microCT on needles of *Pinus pinaster* found few embolized conduits at needle water potentials that induced strong declines in K_{leaf} (Charra-Vaskou et al., 2012; Bouche et al., 2016).

These findings suggest that the leaf outside-xylem pathways, in addition to experiencing 241 the most negative water potentials in the plant, also have very strong hydraulic vulnerability. 242 Such results are consistent with the hypothesis that strong K_{ox} declines would act as a protective 243 bottleneck, shielding the leaf and stem xylem under many scenarios of atmospheric and soil 244 drought from tensions that would induce catastrophic embolisms (Scoffoni et al., 2014). Further 245 mechanisms for protection may operate additionally; a recent study found that minor vein 246 collapse in leaves of red oak occurred under very strong tensions (< -3MPa) below turgor loss 247 point and could thus act as a further buffer against embolism under prolonged drought (Zhang et 248 al., 2016). Notably, a similar protection occurs in roots, as cortical lacunae formation in fine 249 roots induced strong declines in hydraulic conductance protecting root xylem conduits from 250 embolism formation (Cuneo et al., 2016). Such a strong role of outside-xylem pathways in 251 hydraulic decline in both leaves and roots suggests a general advantage throughout the plant of 252 sensitive living tissues protecting the xylem from catastrophic embolism. Given that stem 253 254 embolism may be in many or most cases irreversible (Urli et al., 2013), such a protective effect would be most important for long-lived leaves and stems with high carbon investment, as 255 commonly found in many drought prone systems such as chaparral communities. This 256 hypothesis of the importance of K_{ox} response was supported by our model simulations showing 257 258 that whole plant hydraulic conductance would decline under increasing soil drought and/or atmospheric drought (i.e., high vapor pressure deficit, VPD) primarily as a consequence of the 259 strong declines in K_{ox} . Because the leaves experience the lowest water potentials, and declining 260 $K_{\rm ox}$ provides an increasing bottleneck in the system, the tensions developed in leaf and stem 261 xylem were in most modeled scenarios insufficient to cause catastrophic embolism. The declines 262 in K_{ox} and K_{leaf} may further protect the stem xylem from strong tensions and embolism if the 263 strongly declining water potentials in the mesophyll influence stomatal closure, which tends to 264 begin well above bulk leaf turgor loss point (Ψ_{TLP}) (Bartlett et al., 2016), K_{ox} could be playing an 265

important role in stomatal control. Another potential advantage of outside-xylem pathways being 266 more sensitive to dehydration is that they might recover more rapidly with water potential than 267 embolized conduits in the xylem. Thus, changes in outside-xylem pathways with dehydration 268 could be more reversible during drought and recovery cycles than xylem embolism. While xylem 269 embolism requires several hours under no tension to recover by capillarity (Hochberg et al., 270 2016; Knipfer et al., 2016), in some species K_{leaf} can partially recover after only 1h of 271 rehydration in some species (Scoffoni et al., 2012), which could be due to recovery of K_{ox} . 272 273 Future work should resolve the influence of K_x and K_{ox} decline on stomatal conductance and 274 their recovery.

These results provide strong evidence for the role of outside-xylem pathways in driving changes in K_{leaf} and whole plant conductance under the range of water potential plants experience through mild and moderate drought stress. In contrast, after stomatal closure and under conditions of prolonged drought, sustained dehydration will induce embolism in leaf veins and likely in the stem xylem, eventually contributing to hydraulic failure and plant death (Anderegg et al., 2015).

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282 Determinants of outside-xylem hydraulic conductance decline with dehydration

Given the key role of K_{ox} decline in dehydrating leaves, resolving the underlying causes is 283 crucial. Experimental investigation remains challenging not only because of the complexity of 284 liquid water movement through the living tissues outside the vein xylem, but also because vapor-285 phase pathways contribute to K_{ox} and thus K_{leaf} (Pieruschka et al., 2010; Rockwell et al., 2014; 286 287 Buckley et al., 2015). We implemented a spatially explicit model for the anatomical and biophysical determination of K_{ox} (MOFLO; Buckley et al., 2015), and parameterized the model 288 with our measurements of tissue structure in dehydrating leaves. These simulations showed that 289 shrinking cells and airspaces in dehydrating leaves would in fact act to increase K_{ox} due to the 290 291 effects of shorter pathlengths for water transport to the stomata both horizontally as effective 292 vein length per leaf area increases, and vertically from vein to stomata given the shrinkage of the leaf thickness. Simulations showed that declines in membrane permeability could be important 293 determinants of K_{ox} decline which would drive K_{leaf} decline overall, despite the effect of reduced 294 295 tissue dimensions. A decline in membrane permeability could result from reduced aquaporin

activity as cells dehydrate, a response previously demonstrated in studies using mutants of the 296 model species Arabidopsis thaliana and in cell probe studies of Zea mays (Johansson et al., 297 1998; Kim and Steudle, 2007; Maurel et al., 2015). Further, previous studies have found either 298 aquaporin mutants or leaves of species previously perfused with aquaporin inhibitors to exhibit 299 up to 75% decrease of K_{leaf} (Shatil-Cohen et al., 2011; Pou et al., 2013; Sade et al., 2015). Our 300 findings are in line with the hypothesis that reduced aquaporin activity, potentially triggered by 301 turgor decline and/or abscisic acid (ABA) production during dehydration, would drive K_{ox} 302 decline (Shatil-Cohen et al., 2011), and further suggest that such a response would scale up to 303 determining decline of K_{leaf} and whole plant hydraulic decline. We found that to model the 304 observed declines of K_{ox} due to reduction of membrane permeability, it was necessary to posit an 305 306 apoplastic barrier at the bundle sheath, analogous to the Casparian strip in root endodermis (Canny, 1986, 1988), to constrain all water to exit the veins via bundle sheath cell membranes 307 rather than via the apoplast. Such an apoplastic barrier has previously been supported by dye 308 309 experiments (Shatil-Cohen et al., 2011; Shatil-Cohen and Moshelion, 2012) and hydraulics measurements on other species (Sack et al., 2004; Sade et al., 2014), and visualized in 310 anatomical studies of some, but not all species tested (Canny, 1986; Lersten, 1997; Wu et al., 311 2005; Ribeiro et al., 2007; Taneda et al., 2016). The restriction of water movement needed to 312 explain declines in K_{ox} could occur at the site at which water exits vascular parenchyma to reach 313 bundle sheath cells or cell walls, or via a forced symplastic flow path through the vascular 314 parenchyma cells until it reaches the bundle sheath; any of these mechanisms would strongly 315 increase the resistance in water movement (Buckley, 2015). Elucidating whether such apoplastic 316 barriers or symplastic flows through vascular parenchyma are typical is an important topic for 317 future studies. Finally, modeling showed that changes in cell wall thickness during dehydration 318 could strongly influence K_{ox} (Figure 6), given the important contribution of apoplastic cell wall 319 pathways through the mesophyll in determining K_{ox} at full hydration (Buckley, 2015). However, 320 such putative changes in cell wall thickness with dehydration have never been documented to our 321 knowledge. Our results, along with the numerous aquaporin studies (see references above), most 322 323 strongly support changes in membrane permeability at the vascular parenchyma or bundle sheath 324 cell level as a mechanism for decline in K_{ox} with dehydration.

Across species, K_{ox} and K_x vulnerability during leaf dehydration correlated strongly with bulk leaf turgor loss point (Ψ_{TLP}). The Ψ_{TLP} is a good indicator of species drought tolerance

across ecosystems, with more negative values present in species occurring in drier habitats or 327 ecosystems (Bartlett et al., 2012). Recently, several studies have shown strong correlation of 328 $P_{50,Kleaf}$ with Ψ_{TLP} across diverse angiosperm species (e.g., Blackman et al., 2010; Scoffoni et al., 329 2012). These studies hypothesized that cells maintaining turgor at more negative water potentials 330 could preserve cell integrity and thus hydraulic pathways outside the xylem, and thus confer 331 resistance to hydraulic decline. However, given that our model simulations revealed that cell 332 shrinkage would not cause a decline in K_{ox} as previously hypothesized (Scoffoni et al., 2014), an 333 indirect mechanism must underlie this correlation; for instance, a more negative Ψ_{TLP} may 334 correspond to a greater ability to maintain cell membrane permeability especially in the vascular 335 336 parenchyma and/or bundle sheath (Kim and Steudle, 2007). The hypothesis that cell turgor loss 337 might trigger aquaporin deactivation and/or ABA production (Pierce and Raschke, 1980; Shatil-Cohen et al., 2011), which in turn would reduce membrane permeability, is consistent with 338 recent work on cells and tissues in a range of species (Wan et al., 2004; Ye et al., 2005; Kim and 339 340 Steudle, 2007; Shatil-Cohen et al., 2011; Brodribb and McAdam, 2013; Chaumont and Tyerman, 2014; McAdam and Brodribb, 2014; Vandeleur et al., 2014). Another source of the coordination 341 of Ψ_{TLP} with the hydraulic vulnerability of the leaf and its compartments is that all of these 342 physiologically important traits are co-selected in species with greater drought tolerance 343 (Blackman et al., 2010; Bartlett et al., 2012; Blackman et al., 2014; Bartlett et al., 2016). 344

345

346 Conclusion

Combining empirical, visual and modeling approaches, we found that in 8 diverse species the 347 observed decline in leaf hydraulic conductance during mild dehydration results primarily from 348 losses in hydraulic conductance outside the vascular system (>75% across leaf dehydration from 349 350 mild to extreme; 96% on average). These results indicate that outside-xylem processes are the main determinants of K_{leaf} vulnerability to dehydration. Leaves avoid catastrophic xylem failure 351 by regulating their outside-xylem hydraulic conductance. After stomatal closure and under 352 extreme drought, leaf vein and stem embolism might be unavoidable and induce catastrophic 353 hydraulic failure. These findings pinpoint the mesophyll tissues including bundle sheath as a 354 355 central locus for the control of leaf and plant water transport during progressive drought.

356

357 Material and Methods

358 Plant material

Measurements were obtained for eight species diverse in phylogeny, origin, drought tolerance 359 and life form (Table 1), growing in and around the campus of the University of California, Los 360 Angeles, and Will Rogers State Park. Measurements were conducted from November 2013 to 361 November 2014. The day before any of the measurements described below, shoots with a 362 minimum of three nodes of stem below the leaves to be studied were excised in air from at least 363 three individuals, and transported in dark plastic bags filled with wet paper towels, where the 364 shoot was re-cut underwater by a minimum of two nodes from the base and left to rehydrate 365 overnight. We note that though obtained in different years, both leaf and xylem hydraulic 366 367 vulnerability curves were obtained from the same individuals, and no differences were found in 368 K_{leaf} values across years (Scoffoni et al., 2011; Guyot et al., 2012).

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370 *X-ray microtomography*

371 To directly visualize embolism in the xylem and structural changes in all orders of veins and in the mesophyll tissues, we used high-energy, high resolution X-ray micro-computed tomography 372 (microCT) at the synchrotron at the Advanced Light Source (ALS) in Berkeley, California 373 (Beamline 8.3.2) in November of 2014. Stacks of images were obtained by scanning the center 374 (including the mid-vein) of living leaves on dehydrating shoots for four of our study species 375 (Comarostaphylis diversifolia, Hedera canariensis, Lantana camara and Magnolia grandiflora). 376 Species were chosen for microCT based on their wide range of drought tolerance. Detailed 377 description of sample preparation for microCT imaging is discussed in Supplementary Material 378 and Methods. Nine to twelve scans of the midrib and surrounding mesophyll at the center of leaf 379 were made per species of leaves spanning the whole range of leaf water potential obtained in the 380 $K_{\rm x}$ vulnerability curves (described below). 381

On three cross-sectional images randomly selected at the bottom, middle and top part along the main axis of of the microCT scan, conduit embolism in the midrib, along with mesophyll cell and tissue dimensions were quantified. For each image we measured the number of embolized conduits in the midrib and averaged for three areas of the leaf lamina measurements of the dimensions of tissues and cells (epidermis and cuticle, palisade mesophyll, spongy mesophyll, and palisade cell area, height and diameter) using ImageJ software (version 1.46r; National Institutes of Health). Bundle sheath thickness and cell dimensions could not be resolved in these images. Three-dimensional volume renderings of our scans were made using Avizo 8.1.1 software (VSG, Inc., Burlington, MA, USA), and used to determine the vein orders (identified by following the branching pattern from the secondary veins), and cross-sectional images at the start, middle and end of the scanned region were used to determine the number of embolized conduits.

We calculated the percent number of embolized conduits in the midrib (%EMC) at given leaf 394 water potentials. Embolized conduits appear brightly in the images, but non-embolized conduits 395 cannot be distinguished from each other or counted. Thus, we estimated the total number of 396 midrib conduits in cross-sections of these leaves using data taken from cross-sections of three 397 leaves sampled from the same plants of each species and visualized by light microscopy (Figure 398 399 S3; see Light microscopy of cells and tissues within leaves section below for methods). Given that the number of midrib xylem conduits scales with the midrib vascular cross-sectional area for 400 well hydrated leaves of given species (Coomes et al., 2008; Taneda and Terashima, 2012), we 401 402 counted the total number of xylem conduits in the midrib cross-sections obtained from light microscopy for hydrated leaves and normalized by their midrib vascular area. These were 403 averaged for each species to determine conduit number per vascular area for hydrated leaves 404 (CNA_{hvdr}). Cross sections for both light microscopy and microCT scans were taken at the leaf 405 midrib center. To calculate the total number of midrib conduits in cross-sections of the scanned 406 dehydrated leaves (CNA_{dehydr}) we had to account for the shrinkage of the midrib vascular area 407 with water potential. For the scanned dehydrated leaves of each species, we plotted midrib 408 vascular area for the dehydrated leaves (A_{dehyr}) and for the three fully hydrated leaves measured 409 using light-microscopy against leaf water potential (Figure S4) and thus estimated the proportion 410 area shrinkage relative to the value extrapolated to 0 MPa for each leaf (AS_{dehvdr}) . Conduit 411 412 number for each individual scanned leaf was obtained as:

413
$$CN = CNA_{hydr} \times \frac{A_{dehydr}}{(1 - AS_{dehydr})} eqn 2,$$

- We counted the number of embolized conduits in each scanned leaf (*CN*_{emb}) and calculated %
 EMC as:
- 416 % $EMC = \frac{CN_{emb}}{CN} \times 100$ eqn 3

417 We note that the %EMC values differ slightly from those previously reported for the 418 same images (Scoffoni et al., 2016), as we improved the calculation by adding the areas of the three light-microscopy images of fully hydrated leaves to the regression against water potential to determine AS_{dehydr} . This improved calculation resulted in no major changes in the patterns observed.

We considered the potential concern that the x-ray beam might produce damage artifacts 422 that might have contributed uncertainty to the interpretation of the images. However, no damage 423 from the x-ray beam was observed in our samples. Only a few gas filled conduits were found at 424 high water potentials in two species, which was to be expected given our sampling design, i.e., 425 excising small shoots in air, as a small portion of conduits originating in the stem would extend 426 into the leaf (Scoffoni and Sack, 2015). Another indication that the microCT faithfully represents 427 mesophyll structure is that cell dimensions measured in the microCT scan images for hydrated 428 429 leaves were statistically similar to those made on fully hydrated leaves of the same species using light microscopy (repeated measures ANOVA were performed in Minitab 16; results in Table 430 S3). 431

432

433 Measuring leaf and leaf xylem hydraulic vulnerability curves

Leaf hydraulic vulnerability curves for seven of the eight study species were previously 434 published for the same individuals used in this study (Scoffoni et al., 2011; Scoffoni and Sack, 435 2015), and that for *Malosma laurina* was constructed for this study. Measurements of K_{leaf} 436 vulnerability were made using the evaporative flux method (EFM; see Supplementary Material 437 and Methods; Sack et al., 2002; Scoffoni et al., 2012), for which detailed protocols are available 438 (Sack and Scoffoni, 2012). All measurements were performed on leaves acclimated to high light 439 for over 30 min (>1000 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹). We constructed K_x vulnerability curves using the 440 vacuum pump method (see Supplementary Material and Methods) for the same individuals and 441 species than those from which K_{leaf} vulnerability curves were obtained. Data for four species 442 were previously published in a study of potential methodological artifacts in leaf hydraulic 443 measurements (i.e., Comarostaphylis diversifolia, Hedera canariensis, Quercus agrifolia and 444 Salvia canariensis; Scoffoni and Sack, 2015), and additional measurements were made here for 445 446 four other species (Cercocarpus betuloides, Lantana camara, Magnolia grandiflora and Malosma laurina). 447

448 To construct hydraulic vulnerability curves, we selected the maximum likelihood 449 function that best fitted data for each species using the *optim* function in R 3.1.0 (<u>http://www.r-</u> 450 <u>project.org</u>; Burnham and Anderson, 2004; Scoffoni et al., 2012). Five functions were tested 451 according to previous studies (Pammenter and Vander Willigen, 1998; Scoffoni et al., 2012): a 452 linear function ($K_z = a\Psi_z + b$), a two parameter sigmoidal function ($K_z = \frac{100}{1 + e^{(a(\Psi_z - b))}}$), a three 453 parameter sigmoidal function ($K_z = \frac{a}{1 + e^{-(\frac{\Psi_z}{b})}}$), a logistic function ($K_z = \frac{a}{1 + (\frac{\Psi_z}{x_0})^b}$), an 454 exponential function ($K_z = y_0 + ae^{-b\Psi_z}$). The K_z and Ψ_z in the above functions represent either 455 the K_{leaf} or K_x and water potentials. Functions were compared using the Akaike Information 456 Criterion (AIC), corrected for low *n*. The function with the lowest AIC value (differences of >2

- 457 considered) was chosen as the maximum likelihood function.
- 458

459 *Determination of leaf outside-xylem vulnerability curves*

Based on eqn 1 we constructed K_{ox} vulnerability curves from K_{leaf} and K_x values along the water potential range tested for given species, i.e., from maximum K_{leaf} until it had declined to a negligible level. Thus, for the different water potentials, each K_{ox} point was obtained as the reciprocal of the difference between K_{leaf}^{-1} and K_x^{-1} following eqn 1. Please see Supplementary Material and Methods for background and justification of this subtraction method.

465

466 Whole plant hydraulic model simulations

We modelled the influence of leaf hydraulic declines on the plant hydraulic system under 467 simulated soil and atmospheric drought using a previously described approach (Osborne and 468 Sack, 2012). The plant hydraulic stomatal model (PHS model) is based on Darcy's law, and 469 assumes steady state flow, and simultaneously resolves water potentials and hydraulic 470 conductance for each plant component, given inputs of soil water potential and vapor pressure 471 deficit (VPD) and parameters for the response of the hydraulic conductance of whole root, whole 472 stem, leaf xylem and outside xylem, and stomatal conductance (g_s) to water potential within the 473 respective organ. For the four species tested, we simulated the impact of declining soil water 474 potential or increasing VPD given the measured vulnerability curves for K_{ox} and K_x , obtained as 475 described above. We did not have data for the response of the stem, root or stomata to 476 dehydration for these species, so we used estimates based on current understanding in the 477 literature. Thus, we assumed the vulnerability curve of the whole-stem xylem to follow a 478 sigmoid pattern, with maximum hydraulic conductance representing half of the whole plant 479

resistance (Tyree and Zimmermann, 2002). To be conservative, we assigned to the stem a water 480 potential at 50% loss of hydraulic conductance equal to that of the leaf xylem, since xylem 481 conduits in the stem are expected to undergo air-seeding at similar or more negative water 482 potentials (Tyree and Ewers, 1991; Choat et al., 2005). Thus, the stem xylem was modelled as 483 potentially more sensitive as it might be in reality, making more robust our finding of its low 484 hydraulic decline when the whole plant is droughted, due to the role of leaf hydraulic decline in 485 minimizing tensions in the stem. We assumed the root vulnerability curve to be equal to that of 486 487 the whole leaf hydraulic vulnerability curve (obtained as described above) given that on average the root and leaf contribute approximately the same resistance throughout the whole plant (Tyree 488 489 and Zimmermann, 2002), and have both xylem and extra-xylem pathways for water movement 490 (Tyree and Zimmermann, 2002). We set the g_s decline with leaf water potential as similar to that of the vulnerability of the leaf outside-xylem pathways, using a maximum g_s value of 300 mmol 491 m⁻² s⁻¹ across species. A range of alternative parameterizations did not change the overall 492 493 findings (data not shown). We note that future work will enable more precise calibration of the model, e.g., with vulnerability functions for all organs. Simulations were run in Python 2.7.10 494 using the "future", "scipy" and "pandas" packages. Model code is available on request. 495

496

497 Modelling the outside-xylem flow pathways with dehydration

We used a spatially explicit model of outside-xylem flow pathways in the leaf (MOFLO; 498 Buckley et al., 2015) which can be parameterized with leaf anatomy to investigate potential 499 causes of the strong declines in K_{ox} observed with dehydration. We first simulated the impact of 500 anatomical changes alone, based on anatomical measurements at different water potentials, 501 including epidermal, spongy and palisade mesophyll cell shrinkage (obtained from micro-CT 502 503 images as described above; Figure 5), percent leaf area shrinkage (which influences vein length per leaf area) and percent intercellular airspace change (previously published for these same 504 species and individuals; Scoffoni et al., 2014). Since bundle sheath cell area could not be 505 determined in the micro-CT images, we assumed these cells shrank by the same percentage as 506 507 spongy mesophyll cells. We then simulated the impact on K_{ox} of decline in membrane permeability, cell connectivity and cell wall thickness at turgor loss point, using values for tissue 508 dimensions observed at turgor loss point. Given that we did not have measurements of 509 membrane permeability, cell connectivity and cell wall thickness at turgor loss point, we 510

estimated the reduction in these parameters required to cause the observed decline in K_{ox} at turgor loss point. We repeated all of these simulations under two scenarios: with and without an apoplastic barrier at the bundle sheath cells.

514

515 Measurement of turgor loss point

Leaf turgor loss point for 7 of 8 species was obtained from pressure-volume curves of previously published studies (Scoffoni et al., 2012; Scoffoni et al., 2014) that were based on the same individuals of the study species. Pressure-volume curves were obtained for five leaves of three individuals of *Malosma laurina* in the fall of 2014 using a detailed published standard protocol (Sack and PrometheusWiki, 2010).

521

522 Light microscopy of cells and tissues within leaves

For measurements of leaf cross sectional anatomy, we used images from a previously published 523 524 study of different anatomical traits made on the same individuals of four study species (John et al., 2013). Briefly, from each leaf center, a 1×0.5 cm rectangle was cut and embedded gradually 525 in low-viscosity acrylic resin (L.R. White; London Resin Company, England) in ethanol, under 526 vacuum over the course of a week, then dried at 55°C overnight. Samples were then sectioned 527 using glass knives (cut using a LKB 7800 KnifeMaker; LKB Produkter; Bromma, Sweden), at 1 528 µm thickness in a rotary microtome (Leica Ultracut E, Reichter-Jung, Ca, USA). Sections were 529 stained in 0.01% toluidine blue in 1% sodium borate and imaged using a 5, 10, 20 and $40 \times$ 530 objective using a light microscope (Leica Lietz DMRB; Leica Microsystems) with camera 531 utilizing SPOT advanced imaging software (SPOT Imaging Solutions; Diagnostic Instruments 532 Inc.; Sterling Heights, MI) for a total image magnification of 287× to 2300×. Using ImageJ, we 533 measured the vascular bundle area in the midrib, and counted the total number of xylem 534 535 conduits.

536

537 Statistics

To test the causal influences of xylem and outside-xylem conductance decline on whole leaf hydraulic decline we used three analyses. First, we calculated causal effects within species by partitioning changes in leaf resistance ($R_{\text{leaf}} = 1/K_{\text{leaf}}$) into changes in xylem resistance ($R_x = 1/K_x$) and outside-xylem resistance ($R_x = 1/K_{\text{ox}}$); since $R_{\text{leaf}} = R_x + R_{\text{ox}}$, $\Delta R_{\text{leaf}} = \Delta R_x + \Delta R_{\text{ox}}$, where Δ

denotes a change between full turgor and either the turgor loss point or P_{50} . Thus, for example, 542 the percent of leaf hydraulic decline due to outside-xylem pathways was calculated as $\Delta R_{\rm ox}/\Delta R_{\rm leaf}$ 543 \times 100%. Then, we estimated the importance of K_x and K_{ox} decline in explaining species-544 differences in leaf hydraulic vulnerability, i.e., in the water potential at which the leaf lost 50% 545 of its hydraulic conductance ($P_{50,Kleaf}$). We tested whether $P_{50,Kleaf}$ was best predicted by the 546 water potential at 50% decline in xylem hydraulic conductance ($P_{50,Kx}$) or that of outside-xylem 547 hydraulic conductance $(P_{50,Kox})$, or their combined effect, according to the following models: 548 $P_{50,K_{\text{leaf}}} = a + bP_{50}K_x$, $P_{50,K_{\text{leaf}}} = a + bP_{50,K_{\text{ox}}}$, or $P_{50,K_{\text{leaf}}} = a + bP_{50,K_{\text{ox}}} + cP_{50,K_x}$. We used 549 maximum likelihood selection of the best model using the optim function in R 3.1.0 (Burnham 550 551 and Anderson, 2004; Scoffoni et al., 2012). The model with the lowest Akaike Information Criterion corrected for low n (AICc) by at least 2 was selected as the maximum likelihood 552 553 model. We also applied independent effects analysis, which is suited to robustly determine the contribution of correlated predictor variables to an output variable (Murray and Conner, 2009), 554 and thereby calculated the percent contribution of $P_{50,Kx}$ and $P_{50,Kox}$ to the variation across 555 species in $P_{50,Kleaf}$, using the *hier.part* function in R.3.1.0. 556

557

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849 Figure Captions

850 Figure 1. Leaf hydraulic conductance (K_{leaf}) characterizes the water transport capacity of the whole leaf, and is influenced by (A) water movement through the leaf xylem (K_x) , and (B) 851 through the mesophyll, or outside-xylem pathways (K_{ox}), which includes vascular parenchyma, 852 853 bundle sheath, and mesophyll cell pathways for liquid and/or vapor phase transport and diffusion 854 through airspaces (red dots) through stomata. As the leaf dehydrates, observed declines in K_{leaf} have typically been primarily attributed to reduction of K_x due to the formation of embolism in 855 xylem conduits, though recent studies suggested a possible role for changes in outside-xylem 856 pathways properties via reduced membrane permeability and cell shrinkage. Symbols: xylem 857 (X), bundle sheath cell (BS), spongy mesophyll cell (SM), palisade mesophyll cell (PM), upper 858 epidermal cell (UE), lower epidermal cell (LE), stomata (S). 859 Figure 2. Low vulnerability of the leaf xylem to embolism before turgor loss point as revealed 860

861 by *in vivo* imaging of leaves of four diverse angiosperm species subjected to progressive

dehydration (i.e., increasingly negative leaf water potential, Ψ_{leaf}) using X-ray micro-computed

tomography (microCT). (A-L) scans of leaf midribs at mild dehydration, turgor loss point and

864 extreme dehydration (an illustrative image for each range is shown from left to right), showing

865 very few embolized midrib conduits above turgor loss point. No emboli were observed in higher

order veins above turgor loss point, and few were observed even in extremely dehydrated leaves

867 (data not shown). Note that *Comarostaphylis diversifolia* contains embolized protoxylem

conduits, which are hydraulically non-functional, even for well hydrated leaves, and these

protoxylem conduits are included in the calculations of embolized conduits. Scale = $250 \ \mu m$.

Figure 3. The vulnerability of whole leaf hydraulic conductance (K_{leaf} , green) to dehydration is mainly determined by the vulnerability of the outside-xylem pathways (K_{ox} ; dashed-black), and not that of the xylem (K_x ; light grey) across the four species for which microCT was performed (left panels) and an additional expanded set of four diverse species (right panels). The maximum likelihood function is plotted for each vulnerability curve (*see Methods*). The turgor loss point for each species is represented by a dotted black line.

Figure 4. Model simulations of whole plant hydraulic response to (A) atmospheric drought
(increasing vapor pressure deficit, VPD). and (B) dehydrating soil. PLC values plotted in both

panels are averages of simulations obtained for the four species tested (see Methods). The 878 percent loss of hydraulic conductance (PLC) outside the xylem (ox; grey solid line) is the main 879 determinant of the decline of whole plant hydraulic conductance (p; black solid line) under both 880 scenarios. Neither leaf xylem hydraulic conductance (x; medium dash light blue line) nor stem 881 xylem hydraulic conductance (s; dotted dark blue line) experience strong declines with 882 increasing soil drought or VPD. The root hydraulic conductance (small dashed red line) declines 883 strongly under increasing soil drought, and to a smaller extent under increasing VPD. Because 884 the model simulates a transpiring plant, when the soil water potential is at zero on the x-axis, the 885 transpiring leaf water potential is still substantially negative, driving the decline of K_{leaf} from its 886 maximum value (though not of K_x ; please see Table S2 for water potentials of each 887 888 compartment). Under the soil drought scenario, VPD was maintained at 0.5 kPa. Under the atmospheric drought scenario, soil water potential was maintained at -0.1 MPa. 889

Figure 5. X-ray micro-computed tomography scans of leaf laminas at three dehydration levels for four species. Symbols: Leaf water potential (Ψ_{leaf}), vascular bundle (V), spongy mesophyll cell (S), palisade mesophyll cell (P), upper epidermal cell (UE), lower epidermal cell (LE). Scale = 250µm.

Figure 6. Testing hypotheses for the potential drivers of the decline in outside-xylem hydraulic 894 conductance in dehydrating leaves, using a spatially explicit model of leaf outside-xylem water 895 transport (see Methods). Parameterizing the model for four species, we estimated the outside-896 xylem hydraulic conductance (K_{0x}) based on the decline of observed cell size, porosity (airspace) 897 898 and leaf area at turgor loss point (light grey bars). Because in some cases these changes in tissue dimensions resulted in an *increase* in K_{ox} , we modelled K_{ox} decline according to three scenarios 899 (always including the observed changes in tissue dimension): an 80% decline at turgor loss point 900 in membrane permeability (blue bars), cell connectivity (red bars), and cell wall thickness (dark 901 grey bar). All simulations were run with or without including an apoplastic barrier at the bundle 902 sheath cells (filled vs. striped bars). The yellow star on the x-axis represents the observed $\% K_{ox}$ 903 decline at turgor loss point. Across all four species, only simulations of a strong decrease in 904 membrane permeability in leaves with an apoplastic barrier could explain the observed declines 905 906 in K_{ox} .

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907	SUPPLEMENTAL DATA
908	Figure S1. Decline of leaf xylem hydraulic conductance (K_x) with dehydration.
909 910	Figure S2. Model simulations of plant hydraulic response to dehydrating soil (top panels) and increasing vapor pressure deficit (VPD; bottom panels) for four diverse species.
911 912	Figure S3. Light-microscopy midrib cross-sections of the four study species used for x-ray micro-computed tomography.
913 914	Figure S4. Percent midrib vascular area of maximum at full hydration plotted against leaf water potential.
915 916	Table S1. Parameters for the three models tested to best predict the water potential at which leaf hydraulic conductance declined by 50% ($P_{50,Kleaf}$).
917 918	Table S2 (Excel spreadsheet). Inputs and results for the whole plant hydraulic model simulations.
919 920	Table S3. Mean \pm standard errors of cell dimensions measured from x-ray micro-computedtomography scans and light microscopy.
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923	Figure S1. Decline of leaf xylem hydraulic conductance (K_x) with dehydration. The maximum
924	likelihood function is plotted for each vulnerability curve (see Methods).
925	Figure S2. Model simulations of plant hydraulic response to dehydrating soil (top panels) and
926	increasing vapor pressure deficit (VPD; bottom panels) for four diverse species. The percent loss
927	of leaf hydraulic conductance (PLC) outside the xylem (grey solid line) is the main determinant
928	of the decline of whole plant hydraulic conductance (black solid line) in the drought tolerant
929	species under both scenarios. The leaf xylem (K_x ; dotted light blue line) and stem xylem (dotted
930	dark blue line) hydraulic conductance are protected from tensions that would result in strong
931	declines under increasing soil drought or VPD. The root hydraulic conductance also strongly
932	declines (red dotted lines) under increasing soil drought, though not as strongly as that of the leaf

933 outside-xylem pathways, and much less strongly under increasing VPD. In *Lantana camara*,

- steep declines in all hydraulic compartments were observed under soil drought simulations, but
- under increasing VPD, the decline of outside-xylem hydraulic conductance (K_{ox}) is much
- 936 stronger and protects the other compartments of the plant from high tensions, as for the other
- 937 species. Notably, because the model is simulating a transpiring plant, when the soil water
- 938 potential is at zero on the *x*-axis, the transpiring leaf water potential is still substantially negative,
- leading to decline of K_{leaf} (though not of K_x ; please see Table S2 for water potentials of each compartment).
- Figure S3. Light-microscopy midrib cross-sections of the four study species used for x-ray
 micro-computed tomography. Scale = 500µm
- Figure S4. Percent midrib vascular area of maximum at full hydration plotted against leaf water potential. The slope and intercept of each regression were used to estimate the proportion area shrinkage relative to the value extrapolated to 0 MPa (AS_{dehydr}).* p < 0.05, **p < 0.01 and ***p <0.001.
- **Table 1.** Study species, family, origin, plant and leaf habit, and mean values \pm standard errors for hydraulic vulnerability traits: water potential at which whole leaf, leaf xylem and leaf outsidexylem hydraulic conductance declined by 50% ($P_{50,Kleaf}$ $P_{50,Kx}$ and $P_{50,Kox}$ respectively), and the turgor loss point (Ψ_{TLP}).
- 951**Table 2.** Percent embolized midrib conduits (%EMC) obtained from microCT imaging, at three952water potential intervals. Mean \pm standard errors are given, with the number of sample indicated953in parenthesis.
- **Table 3.** Results from the Taylor series multiplicative approximation, testing the causality of K_x and K_{ox} decline on K_{leaf} decline at turgor loss point (TLP) and water potential at wich K_{leaf} declined by 50% (P_{50}).
- **Table S1.** Parameters for the three models tested to best predict the water potential at which leaf
- 958 hydraulic conductance declined by 50% ($P_{50,Kleaf}$), as a function of the water potential at which
- the hydraulic conductance of the xylem and outside xylem pathways declined by 50% ($P_{50,Kx}$ and
- 960 $P_{50,Kox}$ respectively), r^2 for observed $P_{50,Kleaf}$ values plotted against those predicted from the

- 961 model, and values for the Akaike Information Criterion corrected for low n (AICc). The 962 maximum-likelihood function appears in bold.
- Table S2 (Excel spreadsheet). Inputs and results for the whole plant hydraulic modelsimulations.
- 965 **Table S3.** Mean ± standard errors of cell dimensions measured from x-ray micro-computed
- tomography scans and light microscopy. Values from micro-CT scans were averaged across
- leaves of water potentials > -0.50 MPa (n = 2-5). Values from light microscopy are from fully
- 968 hydrated leaves reported by John et al., 2013. *P*-values shown are results from *t*-tests between
- 969 micro-CT and light microscopy cell dimensions values.

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- potential at which whole leaf (K_{leaf}), leaf xylem (K_x) and leaf outside-xylem hydraulic conductance (K_{ox}) declined by 50% (P_{50}) and
- 972 88% (P_{88}), and the turgor loss point (Ψ_{TLP}).

Species	Family	Origin	Plant habit	Leaf habit	P_{50} and $P_{88,Kleaf}$	P_{50} and $P_{88,Kox}$	P_{50} and	$\Psi_{\text{TLP}}(\text{MPa})$
					(MPa)	(MPa)	$P_{88,Kx}$ (MPa)	
Cercocarpus betuloides	Rosaceae	California, Mexico	Tree	Evergreen	-2.8, -6.5	-2.8, -6.2	-3.0, -6.6	$\textbf{-2.6}\pm0.04$
Comarostaphylis diversifolia	Ericaceae	California, Mexico	Tree	Evergreen	-2.8, -5.0	-2.7, -5.0	-5.6, -8.4	$\textbf{-3.4}\pm0.34$
Hedera canariensis	Araliaceae	Canary Islands	Shrub	Evergreen	-0.64, -1.5	-0.58, -1.3	-1.9, -2.8	$\textbf{-2.0}\pm0.07$
Lantana camara	Verbenaceae	Pantropical	Shrub	Deciduous	-0.80, -1.8	-0.79, -1.8	-0.87, -1.6	$\textbf{-}1.4\pm0.04$
Magnolia grandiflora	Magnoliaceae	Southern USA	Tree	Evergreen	-0.42, -4.1	-0.33, -2.6	-3.3, -4.6	$\textbf{-2.1}\pm0.02$
Malosma laurina	Anacardiaceae	California, Mexico	Shrub	Evergreen	-0.64, -1.4	-0.35, -0.95	-2.6, -5.2	$\textbf{-2.2}\pm0.06$
Quercus agrifolia	Fagaceae	California, Mexico	Tree	Evergreen	-2.4, -4.2	-2.2, -4.1	-5.4, -6.7	$\textbf{-3.0}\pm0.12$
Salvia canariensis	Lamiaceae	Canary Islands	Shrub	Evergreen	-0.26, -0.76	-0.09, -0.36	-0.89, -1.6	$\textbf{-1.2}\pm0.05$

Table 2. Percent embolized midrib conduits (%EMC) obtained from x-ray computed micro-tomography (microCT) imaging, at three

water potential intervals. Mean \pm standard errors are given, with the number of measured leaves indicated in parentheses.

Species	Mild del	hydration	Dehydration to	Dehydration to turgor loss point		ehydration
-	Water potential (MPa)	% EMC	Water potential (MPa)	% EMC	Water potential (MPa)	% EMC
Comarostaphylis diversifolia	-1.14 ± 0.56	4.84 ± 0.69 (5)	-3.37 ± 0.06	5.68 ± 0.60 (3)	-7.31 ± 0.53	5.27 ± 0.87 (4)
Hedera canariensis	$\textbf{-0.24} \pm 0.04$	$5.56 \pm 2.25(5)$	-1.61 ± 0.08	8.51 ± 2.25 (3)	-3.13 ± 0.36	19.6 ± 10.9 (4)
Lantana camara	-0.51 ± 0.22	6.30 ± 2.59 (4)	-1.07 ± 0.01	6.40 ± 0.13 (2)	$\textbf{-1.34} \pm 0.04$	36.8 ± 15.8 (3)
Magnolia grandiflora	$\textbf{-0.06} \pm 0.006$	0.88 ± 1.83 (3)	-1.35 ± 0.30	4.96 ± 2.18 (3)	-5.64 ± 0.85	$43.9 \pm 21.9(5)$

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Species	% Influence on K_{leaf} decline at TLP		% Influence on K_{leaf} decline at leaf P_{50}		% Influence on K_{leaf} decline at leaf P_{88}	
	K_{x}	$K_{ m ox}$	K_{x}	$K_{ m ox}$	K_{x}	Kox
Cercocarpus betuloides	9.4	90.6	5.1	94.9	8.2	91.8
Comarostaphylis diversifolia	1.1	98.9	1.1	98.9	0.7	99.3
Hedera canariensis	2.2	97.8	0.9	99.1	1.4	98.6
Lantana camara	14.3	85.7	2.9	97.1	24.8	75.2
Magnolia grandiflora	0.7	99.3	0.1	99.9	9.7	90.3
Malosma laurina	0.9	99.1	2.4	97.5	2.9	97.1
Quercus agrifolia	0	100	0	100	0.2	99.8
Salvia canariensis	4.7	95.3	0.7	99.2	8.0	92.0

Table 3. Percentages of increase in leaf hydraulic resistance $(1/K_{leaf})$ contributed by increases in xylem resistance $(1/K_x)$ and outside-

xylem resistance $(1/K_{ox})$, at turgor loss point (TLP) and at the water potential at which K_{leaf} declined by 50% (P_{50}) and by 88% (P_{88}).

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Figure 1

Figure 1. Leaf hydraulic conductance (K_{leaf}) characterizes the water transport capacity of the whole leaf, and is influenced by (A) water movement through the leaf xylem (K_x), and (B) through the mesophyll, or outside-xylem pathways (K_{ox}), which includes vascular parenchyma, bundle sheath, and mesophyll cell pathways for liquid and/or vapor phase transport and diffusion through airspaces (red dots) through stomata. As the leaf dehydrates, observed declines in K_{leaf} have typically been primarily attributed to reduction of K_x due to the formation of embolism in xylem conduits, though recent studies suggested a possible role for changes in outside-xylem pathways properties via reduced membrane permeability and cell shrinkage. Symbols: xylem

(X), bundle sheath cell (BS), spongy mesophyll cell (SM), palisade mesophyll cell (PM), upper epidermal cell (UE), lower epidermal cell (LE), stomata (S).





Figure 2. Low vulnerability of the leaf xylem to embolism before turgor loss point as revealed by *in vivo* imaging of leaves of four diverse angiosperm species subjected to progressive dehydration (i.e., increasingly negative leaf water potential, Ψ_{leaf}) using X-ray micro-computed tomography (microCT). (A-L) scans of leaf midribs at mild dehydration, turgor loss point and extreme dehydration (an illustrative image for each range is shown from left to right), showing very few embolized midrib conduits above turgor loss point. No emboli were observed in higher order veins above turgor loss point, and few were observed even in extremely dehydrated leaves (data not shown). Note that *Comarostaphylis diversifolia* contains embolized protoxylem conduits, which are hydraulically non-functional, even for well hydrated leaves, and these protoxylem conduits are included in the calculations of embolized conduits. Scale = 250 µm.





Figure 3. The vulnerability of whole leaf hydraulic conductance (K_{leaf} , green) to dehydration is mainly determined by the vulnerability of the outside-xylem pathways (K_{ox} ; dashed-black), and not that of the xylem (K_x ; light grey) across the four species for which microCT was performed (left panels) and an additional expanded set of four diverse species (right panels). The maximum likelihood function is plotted for each vulnerability curve (*see Methods*). The turgor loss point for each species is represented by a dotted black line.



Figure 4

Figure 4. Model simulations of whole plant hydraulic response to (A) atmospheric drought (increasing vapor pressure deficit, VPD). and (B) dehydrating soil. PLC values plotted in both panels are averages of simulations obtained for the four species tested (see *Methods*). The percent loss of hydraulic conductance (PLC) outside the xylem (ox; grey solid line) is the main determinant of the decline of whole plant hydraulic conductance (p; black solid line) under both scenarios. Neither leaf xylem hydraulic conductance (x; medium dash light blue line) nor stem xylem hydraulic conductance (s; dotted dark blue line) experience strong declines with increasing soil drought or VPD. The root hydraulic conductance (small dashed red line) declines strongly under increasing soil drought, and to a smaller extent under increasing VPD. Because the model simulates a transpiring plant, when the soil water potential is at zero on the *x*-axis, the transpiring leaf water potential is still substantially negative, driving the decline of *K*_{leaf} from its maximum value (though not of *K*_x; please see Table S2 for water potentials of each compartment). Under the soil drought scenario, VPD was maintained at 0.5 kPa. Under the atmospheric drought scenario, soil water potential was maintained at -0.1 MPa.



Figure 6

Figure 6. Testing hypotheses for the potential drivers of the decline in outside-xylem hydraulic conductance in dehydrating leaves, using a spatially explicit model of leaf outside-xylem water transport (*see Methods*). Parameterizing the model for four species, we estimated the outside-xylem hydraulic conductance (K_{ox}) based on the decline of observed cell size, porosity (airspace) and leaf area at turgor loss point (light grey bars). Because in some cases these changes in tissue dimensions resulted in an *increase* in K_{ox} , we modelled K_{ox} decline according to three scenarios (always including the observed changes in tissue dimension): an 80% decline at turgor loss point in membrane permeability (blue bars), cell connectivity (red bars), and cell wall thickness (dark grey bar). All simulations were run with or without including an apoplastic barrier at the bundle

sheath cells (filled vs. striped bars). The yellow star on the *x*-axis represents the observed % K_{ox} decline at turgor loss point. Across all four species, only simulations of a strong decrease in membrane permeability in leaves with an apoplastic barrier could explain the observed declines in K_{ox} .





Figure 5. X-ray micro-computed tomography scans of leaf laminas at three dehydration levels for four species. Symbols: Leaf water potential (Ψ_{leaf}), vascular bundle (V), spongy mesophyll cell (S), palisade mesophyll cell (P), upper epidermal cell (UE), lower epidermal cell (LE). Scale = 250 μ m.

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