

**Variability in flooding tolerance, growth and leaf traits in a *Populus deltoides*
intraspecific progeny**

María E. Rodríguez¹, Diana Lauff¹, Silvia Cortizo², Virginia M.C. Luquez¹³.

1 - Instituto de Fisiología Vegetal (INFIVE), UNLP - CONICET, FCAyF UNLP, CC 327, 1900, La
Plata, Argentina.

2 - INTA Delta, Río Paraná de Las Palmas y Canal Laurentino Comas, 2804, Campana, Argentina.

3: Author for correspondence: yluquez@agro.unlp.edu.ar. Tel: +54 221 423-3698.

Key Words: eastern cottonwood - F1 - carbon isotopic discrimination - leaf size - heritability -
genetic correlation

Running head: Flooding tolerance and growth in *Populus deltoides*

Abstract

Climate change will increase the risk of flooding in several areas of the world where *Populus deltoides* (eastern cottonwood) is planted, so it would be desirable for this species to select for flooding tolerance. The aims of this work were to explore the variability in growth, leaf traits and flooding tolerance in an F1 full-sib intraspecific progeny of *Populus deltoides*, to analyze the correlations of leaf and growth traits with flooding tolerance, and to assess their suitability for use in breeding programs.

Two-month-old parental clones and their progeny of 30 full-sib F1 genotypes were grown in pots and subjected to two treatments: 1) plants watered to field capacity (control); and 2) plants flooded up to 10 cm above soil level for 35 days. Growth (height, diameter and biomass partition) and leaf traits (leaf size and number, specific leaf area, leaf senescence, abscission, stomatal conductance, carbon isotope discrimination, stomatal index) were measured. Flooding tolerance for each genotype was estimated as the ratio of the biomass of stressed plants to the biomass of control plants. Results showed segregation in terms of flooding tolerance in the F1 progeny. A significant genotype effect was found for leaf size and number, carbon isotopic discrimination and stomatal conductance, but it did not correlate with flooding tolerance. Height, diameter and root-to-shoot ratio had a positive phenotypic correlation with flooding tolerance, and there was a positive genetic correlation of height and diameter with biomass on both treatments. The narrow sense heritability values for the traits analyzed ranged from 0 to 0.56.

We conclude that growth traits are more adequate than leaf traits for selection to increase flooding tolerance. A vigorous initial growth would increase flooding tolerance in young poplar plants.

48 Introduction

49 *Populus deltoides* Marshall (eastern cottonwood) is a native species to eastern North
 50 America, with a wide range of distribution from the Mexican Gulf coast in the south to the Great
 51 Lakes in the north (Richardson et al. 2014). From the ecological viewpoint, *P. deltoides* is a
 52 significant species in the floodplains of its native range (Rood et al. 2003). In addition to its
 53 importance in natural ecosystems, *P. deltoides* is widely planted around the world, either as a pure
 54 species or as an interspecific hybrid with other *Populus* species (Dickman and Kuzovkina 2014). In
 55 some countries, *P. deltoides* is planted in areas that may experience episodes of flooding (Du et al.
 56 2012, Luquez et al. 2012). The occurrence of flooding episodes will increase due to climate change
 57 in several regions of the world (Kreuswieser and Rennenberg 2014), including the areas where the
 58 eastern cottonwood is planted. Therefore, it is important to breed new clones with increased
 59 flooding tolerance to face these adverse conditions.

60 The occurrence of genotypic variability for flooding tolerance in *P. deltoides* and its hybrids
 61 with other species is well documented (Gong et al. 2007, Guo et al. 2011, Luquez et al. 2012).
 62 Furthermore, there is extensive literature regarding the relationship between different physio-
 63 morphological leaf traits and growth and productivity in poplars. For instance, total leaf area,
 64 individual leaf area, leaf number, leaf number increment rate, carbon isotopic discrimination and
 65 stomatal density have shown correlation with growth and productivity in different *Populus* species
 66 and hybrids (Rae et al. 2004, Monclus et al. 2005, Marron and Ceulemans 2006, Al Afas et al. 2006,
 67 Dillen et al. 2008). Traits such as leaf area, leaf number, specific leaf area and carbon isotopic
 68 discrimination have shown variability in natural populations of *P. nigra* L. (Chamaillard et al. 2011,
 69 Guet et al. 2015), *P. balsamifera* L. (Soolanayakanahally et al. 2009), *P. trichocarpa* Torrey & Gray
 70 (Gornall and Guy 2007), *P. tremuloides* Michaux (Kanaga et al. 2008), *P. davidiana* Dode (Zhang et
 71 al. 2004) and *P. deltoides* (Rowland 2001). Some of these leaf traits can be affected by flooding,
 72 causing a negative impact on growth (Gong et al. 2007, Guo et al. 2011, Luquez et al. 2012,
 73 Rodríguez et al. 2015). However, little is known about the relationship of these leaf traits with
 74 flooding tolerance, and if they may be useful for breeding more flood-tolerant genotypes.

Since the genus is dioecious and wind-pollinated, there is a high degree of gene flow within natural *Populus* populations (Slavov and Zhelev 2010). In consequence, it is not surprising that the eastern cottonwood shows a high genetic diversity and a low level of population differentiation at the nucleotide level (Fahrenkrog et al. 2017a). Taking these facts into account, we hypothesize that the materials included in breeding programs still preserve an important amount of the genetic variability occurring in natural populations. When subjected to controlled crosses, we may expect the segregation of different traits at F1 and/or F2 level, including flooding tolerance.

We analyzed the parental genotypes and 30 full-sib genotypes of an F1 eastern cottonwood intraspecific progeny. The aims of this work were to explore the extent of the variability in growth, leaf traits and flooding tolerance in an F1 of an intraspecific cross of *P. deltoides*; to analyze the correlations of growth and leaf traits with flooding tolerance; and to assess their suitability for use in breeding programs to increase the tolerance to this stress.

Materials and Methods

Plant material, growth conditions and stress treatment

The parental clones were two *P. deltoides* individuals: the female clone named Australiano 106-60 (abbreviated A106) and the male clone named Mississippi Slim, locally known as Stoneville 67 (abbreviated ST67). The parental genotypes of the cross were open pollinated progeny of two selected female clones. The female parent of A106 was collected near College Station, Texas, while ST67 was selected from seeds of a female tree from Issaquena County, Mississippi (Luquez et al. 2012). This family was selected for the study due to the response to flooding of the parental genotypes assessed in a previous work; both clones having an intermediate flooding tolerance compared with the other genotypes analyzed (Luquez et al. 2012). The cross was carried out in the year 2006, as part of the INTA's (Instituto Nacional de Tecnología Agropecuaria) poplar breeding program, resulting in an F1 of 190 full-sib individuals. From these F1, a subset of 30 genotypes

were selected, representing a range of growth from outstanding individuals to very poor performers. In this paper, these 30 full-sib genotypes were analyzed together with the parental clones.

One-year-old cuttings of 25 cm long were planted in 5 L pots with a 1:1 mixture of soil and sand (one cutting per pot). Before planting, the cuttings were soaked overnight in water and treated with fungicides to avoid diseases. The planting date was between the 1st and the 2nd of September, 2015. The plants were grown under natural irradiance and photoperiod in a greenhouse in La Plata (34° 59' 09" S; 57° 59' 42" W, elevation: 26 m above sea level). The pots were watered daily, keeping the substrate at field capacity. Before the beginning of the treatments, plants were pruned leaving only one shoot per cutting, and fertilized twice with 50 ml per pot of complete Hoagland solution (Legget and Frere 1971). The experiment was a completely randomized design, with 6 repetitions for each genotype and treatment (N = 384 plants). The trial was surrounded with a border of plants that were not used for measurements. The control (non-flooded) plants were watered daily, and the flooded plants were placed inside a 10 L pot sealed with a plastic bag and filled with water up to 10 cm above soil level. The stress treatment started on November 9, 2015 and lasted for 35 days. An outline of the experimental design is provided in Supplementary Fig. 1.

Plant Growth measurements

All measured variables with their abbreviations and units are listed in Table 1. Plant height (H) was measured every week with a graduated stick. For each plant, the height values were plotted vs. time, and a linear function was adjusted. The growth rate in height (GRH) was determined as the slope of the straight line. The basal diameter (D) was determined with a digital caliper in the basal part of the shoot at the beginning and at the end of the experiment. The growth rate in diameter (GRD) was determined as described for GRH. At the end of the experiment, the total dry weight (TDW) of leaves, stem and roots was determined after drying them to constant weight in an oven at 65°C. Root-to-Shoot Ratio (RSR) and Root-to-Leaf Ratio (RLR) were calculated with those data.

The Flooding Tolerance Index (FTI, Fichot et al. 2009) was determined using the Above Ground Dry Weight (AGDW) as follows:

$$FTI = (AGDW_{\text{stressed}} / AGDW_{\text{control}}) \times 100$$

The values of FTI calculated with TDW (including roots) had a strong correlation with the estimation carried out with AGDW ($r = 0.98$, $p < 0.0001$, $N = 32$). Consequently, we kept only the FTI determined with AGDW on this work.

Physio-morphological leaf traits

Before starting the treatment, the latest expanded leaf was tagged with a colored wire. The leaves above and below the mark were counted, and the total leaf number (LN) was determined as the sum of both. The leaf increase rate (LIR) was determined in the same way as the growth rate, using the number of leaves above the mark. The abscission rate (AR) was determined by the number of leaves below the mark, as in LIR.

The chlorophyll content of the tagged leaf was measured twice with a Minolta Chlorophyll Meter SPAD 502 (Osaka, Japan), and a linear function was adjusted for the growth rate as described above, the leaf senescence rate (SEN) being the value of the slope multiplied by -1. The latest leaf expanded during flooding was sampled for carbon isotopic discrimination (Δ) and stomatal index (SI). This sampling was carried out at the end of the experiment. To determine Δ , the leaf was dried at 35°C until constant weight, and grounded to powder with a mortar and a pestle. The determination of the carbon isotopic composition of the leaf ($\delta C_{13\text{leaf}}$) was carried out at the CATNAS laboratory -Centro de Aplicaciones de Tecnología Nuclear en Agricultura Sostenible- (Facultad de Agronomía, Universidad de la República, Montevideo, Uruguay). The carbon isotopic composition of the air ($\delta C_{13\text{air}}$) was assumed to be -8‰. Δ was calculated according to Farquhar et al. (1989):

$$\Delta = (\delta C_{13\text{air}} - \delta C_{13\text{leaf}}) / (1 + (\delta C_{13\text{leaf}} / 1000)) (\text{‰})$$

For stomata and cell counting, an imprint of the abaxial side of the leaf was made with transparent nail varnish and transparent tape. The imprints were mounted on slides, observed under the microscope at 400x and photographed with a digital camera (Olympus E-330). Ten fields for sample were counted with the software Image J (<https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/>, Schneider et al. 2012), and there were 3 replicates for the F1 and 4 replicates for each parental genotype. The field area was 0.0997 mm². The stomatal index (SI) was determined according to Masle et al. (2005).

The leaf below the one used for SI was selected to determine individual leaf area (ILA) and specific leaf area (SLA). The leaves were scanned, and the area was determined with the software Image J.

The leaf stomatal conductance (gs) was determined with a Decagon SC1 porometer on the abaxial side of the latest expanded leaf. The measurements were carried out between 10.30 and 13.30 h on cloudless days, with an average irradiance of 1500 $\mu\text{moles m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. At least 4 to 5 plants of each genotype and treatment were determined on each measurement date.

Statistical Analysis

The ANOVA and correlation analysis were carried out with R 3.5.0 (R Development Core Team 2017), using the package agricolae version 1.2-8 (de Mendiburu 2017). The aov function was used for ANOVA, with clone, treatment and their interaction as factors. The Pearson and Spearman coefficients were used to calculate phenotypic and genetic correlations. The genetic correlations among traits were determined by relating the Best Linear Unbiased Predictions (BLUPs) of the breeding values of each genotype (Luquez et al. 2008). The narrow sense heritability (h^2) and breeding values were estimated with the REML method using the breedR package (Muñoz and Sanchez 2018, script for R in Supplementary Table 2). The absence of spatial structure in the data was also checked using breedR.

The PCA (principal components analysis) was done with the software MVSP (Kovach Computing Services, UK, <https://www.kovcomp.co.uk/mvsp/>). The data were standardized and centered, using the clonal means of each treatment for the analysis. For the variables that were

measured several times, like height and stomatal conductance, only the last date was included in the PCA. At this point, the differences between the treatments were maximized.

Results

In Principal Components Analysis (PCA, Fig. 1), the first component (PC1) represents the variation related to the flooding treatment, separating control and flooded plants into two distinct groups, as shown by the color code of the treatments. Due to the clear separation caused by flooding, the correlations and heritability values were calculated separately for control and flooded plants. The second principal component (PC2) represents the genotypic variation. PC1 and PC2 together explained 43% of the total variability. Most traits either decreased or were not affected by flooding, except for SEN and AR, which increased with the stress treatment. As for g_s , it was reduced by flooding in both the parental genotypes and the progeny (Supplementary Fig. 2).

The PCA results were in accordance with those of ANOVA (Table 2). Most variables were significantly reduced by the flooding treatment except for D, GRD, LIR and Δ . The variables significantly affected by the genotype were final H, ILA, LN, g_s and Δ . The mean values and standard deviation of all traits for the parental genotypes and the F1 are shown in Supplementary Table 1.

The narrow sense heritability values (h^2) ranged from low to moderate for most traits (Table 2), and in some cases, they differed in control and flooded treatments. GRD and SEN showed h^2 values close to zero.

The phenotypic correlations (Table 3) differed for the control and flooded treatments on several traits. H correlated positively with D ($r = 0.50$ $p < 0.01$ for control and $r = 0.67$ $p < 0.001$ for flooded), GRH ($r = 0.65$ $p < 0.001$ for control and $r = 0.86$ $p < 0.001$ for flooded), LN ($r = 0.42$ $p < 0.05$ for control and $r = 0.60$ $p < 0.001$ for flooded), and LIR ($r = 0.40$ $p < 0.05$ for control and $r = 0.37$ $p < 0.05$ for flooded) in both control and flooded treatments, while it correlated negatively with RSR only in control plants ($r = 0.40$ $p < 0.05$). RSR and RLR showed a strong and significant

correlation between them on both treatments ($r = 0.98$ $p < 0.001$ for control and $r = 0.94$ $p < 0.001$ for flooded). D correlated with LN ($r = 0.54$ $p < 0.01$ for control and $r = 0.61$ $p < 0.001$ for flooded) and TDW ($r = 0.52$ $p < 0.01$ for control and $r = 0.49$ $p < 0.05$ for flooded) in both control and flooded plants. For the rest of the variables, there were significant correlations for only one treatment.

The genetic correlations among traits are depicted in Table 4. H showed a significant and positive genetic correlation on both treatments with D ($r = 0.51$ $p < 0.01$ for control and $r = 0.62$ $p < 0.001$ for flooded), LN ($r = 0.52$ $p < 0.01$ for control and $r = 0.56$ $p < 0.001$ for flooded), LIR ($r = 0.39$ $p < 0.05$ for control and $r = 0.39$ $p < 0.05$ for flooded) and TDW ($r = 0.52$ $p < 0.01$ for control and $r = 0.71$ $p < 0.001$ for flooded). D had a positive correlation on both treatments with LN ($r = 0.36$ $p < 0.05$ for control and $r = 0.65$ $p < 0.001$ for flooded) and TDW ($r = 0.75$ $p < 0.001$ for control and $r = 0.71$ $p < 0.001$ for flooded). D had a negative correlation with RLR ($r = -0.36$ $p < 0.05$) and RSR ($r = -0.36$ $p < 0.05$) in the control treatment, and a positive correlation for the same traits in flooded plants ($r = 0.40$ $p < 0.01$ for RSR and $r = 0.45$ $p < 0.01$ for RLR). GRH correlated positively on both treatments with GRD ($r = 0.41$ $p < 0.05$ for control and $r = 0.61$ $p < 0.001$ for flooded) and LIR ($r = 0.69$ $p < 0.001$ for control and $r = 0.39$ $p < 0.05$ for flooded). RSR and RLR had a strong correlation between them in both treatments, similar to the phenotypic correlations ($r = 0.91$ $p < 0.001$ for control and $r = 0.98$ $p < 0.001$ for flooded). The other correlations were only significant for one of the treatments (control or flooded). For instance, in the control treatment, Δ had a negative correlation with LN ($r = -0.40$ $p < 0.05$) and TDW ($r = -0.48$ $p < 0.01$) but a positive one with SLA ($r = 0.51$ $p < 0.01$). While in flooded plants, Δ had a positive correlation with g_s ($r = 0.36$ $p < 0.05$), RSR ($r = 0.37$ $p < 0.05$) and RLR ($r = 0.36$ $p < 0.05$), and a negative one with SEN ($r = -0.38$ $p < 0.05$).

The flooding tolerance index (FTI) is depicted in Fig. 2. A very interesting result was that most F1 genotypes had a higher flooding tolerance than both parents. For the control treatment (Fig. 3), FTI had a significant negative correlation with GRH ($r = -0.49$ $p < 0.01$) and LIR ($r = -0.68$ $p < 0.001$), and a positive one with TDW ($r = 0.51$ $p < 0.01$). In flooded plants, FTI had a positive correlation with H ($r = 0.42$ $p < 0.05$), D ($r = 0.50$ $p < 0.01$), RSR ($r = 0.39$ $p < 0.05$) and RLR ($r = 0.43$ $p < 0.05$).

Discussion

Variability in flooding tolerance in the F1 progeny of the eastern cottonwood

There is extensive literature on hybrid vigor and transgressive segregation for different traits in F1 and F2 crosses of *Populus* (Slavov and Zhelev 2010). We show a considerable transgressive segregation for flooding tolerance at the intraspecific level in *P. deltoides*. To quantify flooding tolerance, we used an index that measures the ability to limit growth losses under stress (Fichot et al. 2009). Both parental genotypes and some of the individuals of the F1 population experienced a reduction in biomass under flooding (FTI below 100), but most F1 genotypes had a higher flooding tolerance than the parental clones. Several individuals of the F1 population had a higher above ground biomass accumulation in flooded plants than in the non-flooded treatment; consequently, their FTI value was above 100. This increase in FTI is not a plain consequence of the reduction in the root-to-shoot ratio caused by flooding (Rodríguez et al. 2015), because there is an increase in the total biomass of the flooded plants on those genotypes (data not shown). The most interesting result is the possibility to obtain clones with a higher flooding tolerance than that of the parental genotypes included in breeding programs. These results are consistent with the data indicating a high genetic variability within natural populations in the southern range of the eastern cottonwood distribution (Fahrenkrog et al. 2017a and 2017b), from where the parental genotypes of the male and female clones were collected.

One important challenge to face is that flood tolerance changes with the age of the plants (Glenz et al. 2006) hence caution is needed when extrapolating results to older plants. For practical reasons, most of the evaluations for flooding tolerance are carried out in small plants growing in pots. In the case of a plantation from cuttings the usual practice in *P. deltoides*, the establishment phase is the point of highest vulnerability regarding the survival of the plant. In consequence, the evaluation of flooding tolerance at this early stage is meaningful for the development of poplar plantations, even when the results may vary for older plants.

263

264 *Flooding and genotypic effects on leaf traits and its correlation with growth in the eastern*
 265 *cottonwood*

266 There is extensive literature on leaf traits variation and its correlation with growth and yield in
 267 poplar crosses and natural populations. In this *P. deltoides* cross, we found genotypic variability on
 268 several leaf traits, such as g_s , ILA and LN. Similar results had been previously found for *P. deltoides*
 269 (Rowland 2001), *P. nigra* (Chamaillard et al. 2011, Guet et al. 2015), *P. tremuloides* (Kanaga et al.
 270 2008) and *P. balsamifera* (Soolanayakanahally et al. 2009). These traits were also significantly
 271 reduced by flooding, as previously reported for *P. deltoides* and other species (Gong et al. 2007, Du
 272 et al. 2008, Luquez et al. 2012). We did not find genotypic variability for stomatal density, probably
 273 because the parental genotypes had similar leaf morphologies, in contrast to the segregation
 274 reported for interspecific hybrid poplars with contrasting leaf traits (Al Afas et al. 2006, Dillen et al.
 275 2008).

276 Δ represents a proxy for the photosynthesis to the stomatal conductance ratio (instantaneous
 277 water use efficiency, Chamaillard et al. 2011), and it has shown genotypic variability among different
 278 *Populus* species (Guet et al. 2015, Soolanayakanahally et al. 2009, Gornall and Guy 2007, Kanaga
 279 et al. 2008, Zhang et al. 2004). We found a significant effect of the genotype but not of the treatment
 280 on Δ , in spite of the reduction in g_s in the flooded plants. In addition, we did not find a correlation in
 281 either treatment between Δ and g_s , as occurred with *P. nigra* (Guet et al. 2015). A possible
 282 explanation for this result is that flooded leaves rely on remobilized carbon to compensate for the
 283 photosynthetic reduction that occurs under flooding (Du et al. 2012, Rodriguez et al. 2015).
 284 Previous results regarding responses to stress of Δ showed disparity. Δ did not change in response
 285 to moderate drought in poplar (Monclus et al. 2009), but it was significantly affected in *P. davidiana*
 286 under a limited water supply (Zhang et al. 2004).

287 We did not find phenotypic correlations between Δ and total growth for neither control nor
 288 flooded plants, except for a moderate correlation with D in control plants. The results have been
 289 variable for other *Populus* species, e.g., there was no correlation between Δ and growth in natural

290 populations of *P. nigra* (Chamaillard et al. 2011) while there was correlation in *P. balsamifera*
 291 populations (Soolanayakanahally et al. 2009).

292

293 *Phenotyping and breeding for flooding tolerance*

294 Some of the most meaningful changes conveying adaptation/tolerance to flooding take place
 295 in roots, not an easy-to-phenotype organ, least of all in a breeding program in which a high number
 296 of genotypes are to be measured. Hence the need to identify non-destructive, easy-to-phenotype
 297 traits (i.e., avoiding phenotyping of roots, if possible) that correlate with flooding tolerance, and
 298 preferably without subjecting the plants to flooding. Leaf traits are obvious candidates, since they
 299 are relatively easy to measure, show genotypic variability in *Populus* and are affected by flooding.
 300 However, in the family analyzed, the morphological and physiological leaf traits did not show any
 301 correlation with flooding tolerance (measured with FTI), with the exception of LIR, and only in the
 302 non-flooded plants. Some growth traits showed correlation with flood tolerance. In particular, RSR,
 303 H and D had a statistically significant positive correlation with FTI in flooded plants. These results
 304 imply that a bigger size combined with a higher root biomass is a favorable combination of traits for
 305 flooding tolerance in young plants obtained from cuttings. Similar results were obtained from
 306 willows, in which young plants with a vigorous early growth were more able to cope successfully
 307 with flooding (Rodríguez et al. 2018).

308 For breeding, it is important to know the heritability of the traits -in particular, the narrow
 309 sense heritability-, which is a measure of the response to selection (Lynch and Walsh 1998). Our h^2
 310 estimations rated from very low to moderate, and they differed in some traits for control and flooded
 311 treatments. This is not surprising, since heritability values are highly influenced by factors such as
 312 environmental conditions and plant age (Lynch and Walsh 1998). Most of the values published for
 313 the traits measured in *Populus* are for broad sense heritability (H^2), therefore the comparisons are
 314 not straightforward. For instance, Fahrenkrog et al. (2017b) reported H^2 values of 0.71 for height
 315 and 0.51 for diameter for a collection of 391 unrelated genotypes of *P. deltoides* of a similar age to
 316 the plants of our experiment, but in this case, the genotypic variance included other components

(dominance, epistasis) in addition to the additive genetic variance. For leaf traits, our results are within the range of the H^2 values for other *Populus* species and hybrids (Marron and Ceulemans 2006, Kanaga et al. 2008, Monclus et al. 2009, Chamaillard et al. 2011).

Another important question for breeding is whether the traits under selection have genetic correlations with potentially undesirable traits. For instance, Δ had a negative correlation with TDW in control plants; this means that genotypes with higher water use efficiency will accumulate less biomass. A negative genetic correlation between Δ and growth traits has also been found for *Castanea sativa* (Lauteri et al 2004) and *Picea mariana* (Johnsen et al. 1999). On the other hand, H and D show a positive genetic correlation between them and with total biomass under both flooded and non-flooded conditions. Since H and D have a positive correlation with flooding tolerance, they are obvious candidates for selection. The use of these traits to screen for flooding tolerance have been already proposed for a set of hybrid poplar F1 populations (Du et al. 2008). A downside of this is that H and D had a negative genetic correlation with RSR in control plants, implying that the selection for an increased size in young plants will lead to a reduction of the root biomass. The reduction in RSR per se should not necessarily be a drawback for flooding tolerance, but it could be a disadvantage if the young plants face a drought episode, as it occurred with willows (Doffo et al. 2017). There are other examples in which genetic correlations place a constraint in adaptation mechanism to stress. For instance, in *C. sativa* seedlings, a high Δ and limited growth appears as a prerequisite for adaptation to dry environments (Lauteri et al. 2004).

Conclusions

As we hypothesized, there was transgressive segregation for flooding tolerance in an F1 full-sib family of eastern cottonwood. We found genotypic variability in several leaf traits, including Δ , that have never been assessed before for *Populus* under flooding stress. H, D and RSR correlated with flooding tolerance, while most morphological and physiological leaf traits did not. In consequence, growth traits will be more useful in screening for flooding tolerance than leaf traits. In particular, height stands out, since it has a reasonable heritability, with the advantage of being non-

destructive and eventually being automated to screen a high number of genotypes in a breeding program. A vigorous early growth is a trait to be selected for genotypes intended for areas with a high risk of flooding.

Acknowledgments

Thanks to M. Bartolozzi, G. Doffo, S. Martínez Alonso and J. Vera Bahima for the technical assistance. VMCL is a researcher from CONICET. MER held a fellowship from CONICET.

Funding

Ministry of Agro-industry, Argentina (PIA 14012 to VMCL).

Conflict of interest

None declared.

Authors' Contributions

MER carried out the experiment, collected, analyzed and interpreted data, and revised the manuscript. DL collected, analyzed and interpreted data, and revised the manuscript. SC participated in the experiment design and revised the manuscript. VL designed the experiment, analyzed and interpreted data and wrote the manuscript.

References

Al Afas N, Marron N, Ceulemans R (2006) Clonal variation in stomatal characteristics related to biomass production of 12 poplar (*Populus*) clones in a short rotation coppice culture. *Env Exp Bot* 58: 279 - 286. doi:10.1016/j.envexpbot.2005.09.003

- 370 Chamaillard S, Fichot R, Vincent-Barbaroux C, Bastien C, Depierreux C, Dreyer E, Villar M,
371 Brignolas F (2011) Variations in bulk leaf carbon isotope discrimination, growth and related leaf
372 traits among three *Populus nigra* L. populations. *Tree Phys* 31: 1076–1087.
373 doi:10.1093/treephys/tpr089
374
- 375 De Mendiburu F (2017) agricolae: Statistical Procedures for Agricultural Research. R package
376 version 1.2-8. <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=agricolae> (July 10 2019, date last accessed).
377
- 378 Dillen S, Marron N, Koch B, Ceulemans R (2008) Genetic Variation of Stomatal Traits and Carbon
379 Isotope Discrimination in Two Hybrid Poplar Families (*Populus deltoides* ‘S9-2’ 3 *P. nigra* ‘Ghoy’
380 and *P. deltoides* ‘S9-2’ 3 *P. trichocarpa* ‘V24’) *Annals of Botany* 102: 399-407.
381 doi:10.1093/aob/mcn107
382
- 383 Dickmann D, Kuzovkina J (2014) Poplars and willows of the world, with emphasis on silviculturally
384 important species. In: Isebrands J and Richardson J (eds) Poplars and willows. Trees for society
385 and the environment, FAO, Rome and CAB International, pp 8-83.
386 <http://www.fao.org/forestry/ipc/69946@158687/en/> (31 August 2017, last date accessed).
387
- 388 Doffo G, Monteoliva S, Rodríguez ME, Luquez VMC (2017) Physiological responses to alternative
389 flooding and drought stress episodes in two willow (*Salix* spp.) clones. *Can J Forest Res* 47: 174 –
390 182. doi 10.1139/cjfr-2016-0202
391
- 392 Du K, Shen B, Xu L, Tu B (2008) Estimation of genetic variances in flood tolerance of poplar and
393 selection of resistant F1 generations. *Agroforest Syst* 74: 243-257. doi 10.1007/s10457-008-9112-y.
394

- 395 Du K, Xu L, Wu H, Tu B, Zheng B (2012) Ecophysiological and morphological adaption to soil
 396 flooding of two poplar clones differing in flood tolerance. *Flora* 207: 96-106.
 397 doi:10.1016/j.flora.2011.11.002.
 398
- 399 Fahrenkrog AM, Neves LG, Resende MFR, Dervinis C, Davenport R, Barbazuk WB, Kirst M (2017a)
 400 Population genomics of the eastern cottonwood (*Populus deltoides*). *Ecol Evol* 7: 9426–9440. doi:
 401 10.1002/ece3.3466
 402
- 403 Fahrenkrog AM, Neves LG, Resende MFR, Vazquez AI, de los Campos G, Dervinis C, Sykes R,
 404 Davis M, Davenport R, Barbazuk WB, Kirst M (2017b) Genome-wide association study reveals
 405 putative regulators of bioenergy traits in *Populus deltoides*. *New Phytol* 213: 799–811. doi:
 406 10.1111/nph.14154
 407
- 408 Farquhar GD, Ehleringer JR, Hubick KT (1989) Carbon isotope discrimination and photosynthesis.
 409 *Annu Rev Plant Physiol Plant Mol. Biol.* 40:503-537.
 410
- 411 Fichot R, Laurans F, Monclus R, Moreau A, Pilate G, Brignolas F (2009) Xylem anatomy correlates
 412 with gas exchange, water-use efficiency and growth performance under contrasting water regimes:
 413 evidence from *Populus deltoides* x *Populus nigra* hybrids. *Tree Physiol* 29: 1537–1549.
 414 doi:10.1093/treephys/tp087
 415
- 416 Glenz C, Schlaepfer R, Iorgulescu I, Kienast F (2006) Flooding tolerance of Central European tree
 417 and shrub species. *For Ecol Manag* 235: 1-13. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2006.05.065>
 418
- 419 Gong JR, Zhang XS, Huang YM, Zhang CL (2007) The effects of flooding on several hybrid poplar
 420 clones in Northern China. *Agroforestry Syst* 69:77-88. DOI 10.1007/s10457-006-9019-4.
 421

- 422 Gornall JL, Guy RD (2007) Geographic variation in ecophysiological traits of black cottonwood
 423 (*Populus trichocarpa*). Can J Bot 85: 1202–1213. doi:10.1139/B07-079
 424
- 425 Guo XY, Huang ZY, Xu AC, Zhang XS (2011). A comparison of physiological, morphological and
 426 growth responses of 13 hybrid poplar clones to flooding. Forestry 84: 1-12.
 427 doi:10.1093/forestry/cpq037
 428
- 429 Guet J, Fabbrini F, Fichot R, Sabatti M, Bastien C, Brignolas F (2015) Genetic variation for leaf
 430 morphology, leaf structure and leaf carbon isotope discrimination in European populations of black
 431 poplar (*Populus nigra* L.). Tree Physiol 35: 850–863. doi:10.1093/treephys/tpv056
 432
- 433 Johnsen KH, Flanagan LB, Huber DA, Major JE (1999) Genetic variation in growth, carbon isotope
 434 discrimination, and foliar N concentration in *Picea mariana*: analyses from half-diallel mating design
 435 using field-grown trees. Can J Forest Res 29: 1727–1735. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1139/x99-144>
 436
- 437 Kanaga MK, Ryel RJ, Mock KE, Pfrender ME (2008) Quantitative-genetic variation in morphological
 438 and physiological traits within a quaking aspen (*Populus tremuloides*) population. Can J For Res 38:
 439 1690–1694. doi:10.1139/X08-012
 440
- 441 Kreuzwieser J, Rennenberg H (2014) Molecular and physiological responses of trees to
 442 waterlogging stress. Plant Cell Environ 37: 2245 – 2259. doi: 10.1111/pce.12310.
 443
- 444 Lauteri M, Pliura A, Monteverdi MC, Brugnoli E, Villani F, Erickson G (2004) Genetic variation in
 445 carbon isotope discrimination in six European populations of *Castanea sativa* Mill. originating from
 446 contrasting localities. J Evol Biol: 1286–1296. doi: 10.1111/j.1420-9101.2004.00765.x.
 447

- 448 Leggett JE, Frere M (1971) Growth and nutrient uptake by soybean plants in nutrient solutions of
449 graded concentrations. *Plant Physiol* 48:457-460. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.48.4.457>
450
- 451 Luquez V, Hall D, Albrechtsen BR, Karlsson J, Ingvarsson P, Jansson S (2008) Natural phenological
452 variation in aspen (*Populus tremula*): the SwAsp collection. *Tree Gen & Genomes* 4:279–292. doi
453 10.1007/s11295-007-0108-y
454
- 455 Luquez VMC, Achinelli F, Cortizo S (2012) Evaluation of flooding tolerance in cuttings of *Populus*
456 clones used for forestation at the Paraná River Delta, Argentina. *South Forest* 74: 61–70. doi
457 <http://dx.doi.org/10.2989/20702620.2012.686214>
458
- 459 Lynch M, Walsh B (1998) *Genetics and Analysis of Quantitative Traits*. Sinauer Associates Inc,
460 Sunderland, Massachussets, USA.
461
- 462 Marron N, Ceulemans R (2006) Genetic variation of leaf traits related to productivity in a *Populus*
463 *deltoides* × *Populus nigra* family. *Can J For Res* 36: 390-400. doi:10.1139/X05-245
464
- 465 Masle J, Gilmore SR, Farquhar GD (2005). The ERECTA gene regulates plant transpiration
466 efficiency in *Arabidopsis*. *Nature* 436: 866 – 870. doi: 10.1038/nature03835
467
- 468 Monclus R, Dreyer E, Delmotte FM, Villar M, Delay D, Boudoresque E, Petit JM, Marron N, Brechet
469 C, Brignolas F (2005) Productivity, leaf traits and carbon isotope discrimination in 29 *Populus*
470 *deltoides* × *P. nigra* clones. *New Phytol* 167: 53 - 62. doi: 10.1111/j.1469-8137.2005.01407.x
471
- 472 Monclus R, Villar M, Barbaroux C, Bastien C, Fichot R, Delmotte FM, Delay D, Petit JM, Brechet C,
473 Dreyer E, Brignolas F (2009) Productivity, water-use efficiency and tolerance to moderate water

474 deficit correlate in 33 poplar genotypes from a *Populus deltoides* x *Populus trichocarpa* F1 progeny.
 475 Tree Phys 29: 1329–1339. doi:10.1093/treephys/tpp075
 476

477 Muñoz F, Sanchez L (2018) breedR: Statistical methods for forest genetic resources analysts. R
 478 package version 0.12-2. <https://github.com/famuvie/breedR>.
 479

480 Rae AM, Robinson KM, Street NR, Taylor G (2004) Morphological and physiological traits
 481 influencing biomass productivity in short-rotation coppice poplar. Can J For Res 34: 1488-1498. doi:
 482 10.1139/X04-033
 483

484 R Core Team (2017). R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for
 485 Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. URL <https://www.R-project.org/> (10 July 2019, date last
 486 accessed).
 487

488 Richardson J, Isebrands JG, Ball JB (2014) Ecology and physiology of poplars and willows. In:
 489 Isebrands J and Richardson J (eds) Poplars and willows. Trees for society and the environment,
 490 FAO, Rome and CAB International, pp 92 - 115. <http://www.fao.org/forestry/ipc/69946@158687/en/>
 491 (31 August 2017, date last accessed).
 492

493 Rodríguez ME, Achinelli FG, Luquez VMC (2015) Leaf traits related to productivity in *Populus*
 494 *deltoides* during the post-flooding period. Trees 29:953–960. doi10.1007/s00468-015-1189-0
 495

496 Rodríguez ME, Doffo GN, Cerrillo T, Luquez VMC (2018) Acclimation of cuttings of willow
 497 genotypes to flooding depth level. New Forests 49:415–427. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s11056-018-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11056-018-9627-7)
 498 9627-7
 499

- 500 Rood SB, Braatne JH, Hughes FMR (2003) Ecophysiology of riparian cottonwoods: stream flow
501 dependency, water relations and restoration. *Tree Physiol* 23: 113-1124. doi:
502 <https://doi.org/10.1093/treephys/23.16.1113>
503
- 504 Rowland DL (2001) Diversity in physiological and morphological characteristics of four cottonwood
505 (*Populus deltoides* var. *wislizenii*) populations in New Mexico: evidence for a genetic component of
506 variation. *Can J For Res* 31: 845-853. doi:10.1139/cjrr-31-5-845
507
- 508 Schneider CA, Rasband, WS, Eliceiri KW (2012) NIH image to Image J: 25 years of image analysis.
509 *Nature Methods* 9 (7) 671-67.
510
- 511 Slavov G, Zhelev P (2010) Salient Biological Features, Systematics, and Genetic Variation of
512 *Populus*. In: S. Jansson et al. (eds.), *Genetics and Genomics of Populus*, Plant Genetics and
513 Genomics: Crops and Models 8, Springer Media, LLC 2010. doi 10.1007/978-1-4419-1541-2_2.
514
- 515 Soolanayakanahally RY, Guy RD, Silim SN, Drewes EC, Schroeder WR (2009) Enhanced
516 assimilation rate and water use efficiency with latitude through increased photosynthetic capacity
517 and internal conductance in balsam poplar (*Populus balsamifera* L.). *Plant Cell Environ* 32: 1821–
518 1832. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-3040.2009.02042.x
519
- 520 Zhang X, Zang R, Li C (2004) Population differences in physiological and morphological adaptations
521 of *Populus davidiana* seedlings in response to progressive drought stress. *Plant Sci* 166 : 791–797.
522 doi:10.1016/j.plantsci.2003.11.016
523

524 Table 1. Traits, abbreviations and units of the measurements carried out on the parental genotypes
 525 and F1 full-sib progeny for the A106 x ST67 family.

526

Trait	Abbreviation	Units
Final Height	H	cm
Final Diameter	D	mm
Growth Rate in Height	GRH	cm day ⁻¹
Growth Rate in Diameter	GRD	mm day ⁻¹
Individual Leaf Area	ILA	cm ²
Final Leaf Number	LN	----
Leaf Number Increase Rate	LIR	Leaves day ⁻¹
Abscission Rate	AR	Leaves day ⁻¹
Leaf Senescence Rate	SEN	SPAD units day ⁻¹
Stomatal conductance	gs	mmol m ⁻² s ⁻¹
Specific Leaf Area	SLA	cm ² g ⁻¹
Total Dry Weight	TDW	g
Root-to-Shoot Ratio	RSR	----
Root-to-Leaves Ratio	RLR	----
Carbon Isotopic discrimination	Δ	‰
Stomatal Index	SI	----

527

528 Table 2. ANOVA results (with genotype and treatment as factors) and narrow sense heritability
 529 values (h^2) for the different traits measured in the A106 x ST67 family. ns non - significant, * $p <$
 530 0.05; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$. Between parentheses: standard error for heritability.

531

Trait	Genotype	Treatment	Interaction	h^2 control	h^2 flooded
H	*	*	ns	0.30 (0.11)	0.30 (0.12)
D	ns	ns	ns	0.18 (0.11)	0.15 (0.11)
GRH	ns	***	*	0.34 (0.11)	0.28 (0.12)
GRD	ns	ns	ns	0.09 (0.10)	0.03 (0.09)
ILA	**	***	ns	0.56 (0.11)	0.43 (0.12)
LN	*	**	ns	0.45 (0.12)	0.38 (0.12)
LIR	ns	ns	ns	0.48 (0.11)	0.24 (0.12)
AR	ns	***	ns	0.26 (0.13)	0.32 (0.13)
SEN	ns	**	ns	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)
gs	*	***	ns	0.11 (0.12)	0.29 (0.12)
SLA	ns	***	ns	0.14 (0.12)	0.31 (0.13)
TDW	ns	*	ns	0.21 (0.13)	0.31 (0.13)
RSR	ns	***	ns	0.11 (0.12)	0.37 (0.12)
RLR	ns	***	*	0.12 (0.12)	0.42 (0.12)
Δ	*	ns	*	0.14 (0.15)	0.49 (0.13)
SI	ns	**	*	0.27 (0.18)	0.44 (0.16)

Table 3. Phenotypic correlations (Pearson correlation coefficient) between different traits measured in the parental genotypes and the F1, for the A106 x ST67 family. N = 32. Correlations for control plants in the lower part of the table (in italics). Correlations for flooded plants in the upper part of the table. In bold: statistically significant correlations. *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$, ***: $p < 0.001$.

Trait	H	D	GRH	GRD	ILA	LN	LIR	AR	SEN	gs	SLA	TDW	RSR	RLR	Δ	SI
H	1	0.67***	0.86***	-0.08	0.20	0.60***	0.37*	-0.17	0.07	-0.36	0.13	0.32	0.05	0.09	0.14	-0.20
D	0.50**	1	0.49**	-0.09	0.13	0.61***	0.19	-0.28	0.20	-0.46**	-0.02	0.49*	-0.01	0.03	-0.09	-0.24
GRH	0.65***	<i>0.14</i>	1	0.12	0.06	0.56***	0.46**	-0.27	0.02	-0.17	0.04	0.18	-0.03	0.01	0.18	-0.17
GRD	-0.23	-0.30	<i>0.14</i>	1	-0.53*	-0.06	0.27	0.21	-0.18	0.32	-0.52	-0.18	-0.32	-0.27	0.37*	-0.22
ILA	<i>0.06</i>	0.52**	<i>0.15</i>	-0.34	1	0.31	-0.02	-0.19	-0.26	-0.34	0.97***	0.31	0.40	0.33	0.01	-0.18
LN	0.42*	0.54**	<i>0.27</i>	<i>0.04</i>	<i>0.16</i>	1	0.37*	-0.65***	0.37	-0.12	0.27	0.46*	-0.01	-0.02	0.06	-0.17
LIR	0.40*	<i>0.33</i>	0.69***	<i>0.22</i>	<i>0.14</i>	0.48**	1	0.01	-0.23	0.13	-0.04	0.24	-0.43*	-0.33	0.17	-0.25
AR	<i>0.07</i>	<i>0.04</i>	<i>0.01</i>	-0.26	<i>0.13</i>	-0.32	<i>0.05</i>	1	-0.23	0.09	-0.20	-0.48*	-0.16	-0.14	0.13	-0.06
SEN	-0.08	-0.22	-0.12	-0.15	-0.38*	<i>0.10</i>	<i>0.02</i>	-0.14	1	-0.13	-0.26	0.26	-0.03	0.01	-0.15	-0.15
gs	<i>0.15</i>	-0.16	<i>0.27</i>	<i>0.34</i>	-0.14	-0.06	<i>0.21</i>	-0.05	-0.06	1	-0.25	-0.49*	-0.14	-0.07	0.17	0.50**
SLA	-0.18	-0.50**	<i>0.35</i>	<i>0.28</i>	-0.03	-0.50**	<i>0.12</i>	<i>0.06</i>	-0.02	<i>0.15</i>	1	0.19	0.40*	0.32	0.10	-0.12
TDW	<i>0.23</i>	0.52**	-0.26	-0.34	<i>0.35</i>	<i>0.29</i>	-0.27	-0.07	-0.18	-0.19	-0.58***	1	-0.14	-0.18	-0.16	-0.37*
RSR	-0.40*	-0.01	-0.48**	<i>0.17</i>	-0.03	-0.08	-0.07	<i>0.04</i>	-0.20	-0.10	-0.24	0.32	1	0.94***	-0.10	0.20
RLR	-0.32	<i>0.00</i>	-0.44*	<i>0.15</i>	-0.06	-0.09	-0.07	<i>0.05</i>	-0.16	-0.06	-0.26	0.38	0.98***	1	-0.09	0.31
Δ	-0.06	-0.44*	<i>0.14</i>	<i>0.10</i>	-0.25	-0.49**	-0.08	<i>0.05</i>	-0.12	<i>0.10</i>	0.56***	-0.28	-0.04	-0.02	1	-0.26
SI	-0.14	-0.06	-0.11	<i>0.18</i>	-0.13	<i>0.03</i>	-0.13	-0.12	<i>0.29</i>	<i>0.03</i>	-0.16	-0.05	-0.19	-0.15	-0.05	1

Table 4. Genetic correlations (Spearman correlation coefficient) between the Best Linear Unbiased Predictions (BLUPs) of the breeding values for different traits measured in the parental genotypes and the F1, for the A106 x ST67 family. N = 32. Correlations for control plants in the lower part of the table (in italics). Correlations for flooded plants in the upper part of the table. In bold: statistically significant correlations. *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$, ***: $p < 0.001$.

Trait	H	D	GRH	GRD	ILA	LN	LIR	AR	SEN	gs	SLA	TDW	RSR	RLR	Δ	SI
H	1	0.62***	0.16	-0.01	0.27	0.56***	0.39*	0.15	-0.02	-0.02	0.11	0.71***	0.26	0.37*	0.07	-0.10
D	0.51**	1	0.07	0.14	0.33	0.65***	0.35	0.32	-0.22	-0.11	-0.33	0.71***	0.40*	0.45**	-0.03	0.27
GRH	<i>0.16</i>	<i>-0.09</i>	1	0.61***	-0.08	0.11	0.39*	0.16	-0.05	0.33	0.33	-0.22	0.16	0.21	0.25	0.04
GRD	<i>0.13</i>	<i>0.10</i>	0.41*	1	-0.07	0.15	0.19	0.21	-0.04	0.37*	0.19	-0.36*	0.26	0.27	0.29	0.11
ILA	<i>0.17</i>	0.49**	<i>0.15</i>	<i>-0.10</i>	1	0.21	0.20	0.08	-0.07	-0.19	-0.19	0.49**	0.09	0.10	-0.12	-0.03
LN	0.52**	0.36*	<i>0.08</i>	<i>0.25</i>	<i>0.04</i>	1	0.49**	0.65***	-0.32	-0.08	0.02	0.49**	0.22	0.24	0.13	0.00
LIR	0.39*	<i>0.29</i>	0.69***	<i>0.23</i>	<i>0.24</i>	0.47**	1	0.10	0.07	0.21	-0.26	0.20	-0.05	0.04	0.10	0.12
AR	<i>0.07</i>	<i>-0.03</i>	<i>0.10</i>	<i>-0.15</i>	<i>-0.07</i>	0.35*	<i>0.04</i>	1	-0.20	0.15	0.22	0.12	0.04	-0.01	0.01	-0.09
SEN	<i>0.07</i>	<i>0.20</i>	<i>0.08</i>	<i>-0.24</i>	0.43*	<i>0.03</i>	<i>0.16</i>	<i>0.03</i>	1	-0.01	0.14	-0.20	-0.05	-0.01	-0.38*	0.09
gs	<i>-0.05</i>	<i>-0.29</i>	0.41*	0.42*	<i>-0.05</i>	<i>-0.08</i>	<i>0.34</i>	<i>0.12</i>	<i>0.01</i>	1	0.06	-0.30	-0.02	-0.01	0.36*	-0.09
SLA	<i>-0.09</i>	-0.32	0.47**	<i>0.33</i>	<i>0.11</i>	-0.47**	<i>0.14</i>	<i>-0.07</i>	<i>-0.03</i>	<i>0.18</i>	1	-0.20	0.34	0.33	0.29	-0.28
TDW	0.52**	0.75***	-0.22	-0.12	0.41*	0.67***	<i>0.24</i>	<i>0.08</i>	<i>0.17</i>	-0.49**	-0.54**	1	0.24	0.30	-0.05	0.05
RSR	-0.48**	-0.41*	-0.43*	-0.27	-0.38*	-0.28	-0.52**	<i>0.02</i>	<i>0.02</i>	<i>-0.22</i>	<i>-0.08</i>	<i>-0.17</i>	1	0.98***	0.37*	-0.04
RLR	-0.26	-0.36*	-0.46**	-0.10	-0.30	-0.25	-0.48**	<i>0.00</i>	<i>0.02</i>	<i>-0.22</i>	<i>-0.07</i>	<i>-0.09</i>	0.91***	1	0.36*	0.02
Δ	<i>0.01</i>	-0.42*	<i>0.09</i>	<i>0.19</i>	<i>-0.14</i>	-0.40*	<i>-0.14</i>	<i>-0.10</i>	<i>0.12</i>	<i>-0.05</i>	0.51**	-0.48**	<i>0.19</i>	<i>0.28</i>	1	-0.19
SI	<i>-0.14</i>	<i>-0.32</i>	<i>-0.16</i>	-0.35*	-0.48**	<i>-0.17</i>	<i>-0.24</i>	<i>0.04</i>	<i>-0.08</i>	<i>0.18</i>	<i>-0.13</i>	<i>-0.33</i>	<i>0.30</i>	0.43*	<i>0.17</i>	1

Legends to the figures

Fig. 1. Principal Components Analysis (PCA) of the parental clones and 30 full-sib genotypes of the F1 belonging to a *Populus deltoides* intraspecific cross. The complete variable names and units are listed in Table 1. The analysis was carried out using the average values for each genotype and treatment. A106: female. ST67: male.

Fig. 2. Flooding Tolerance Index (FTI) of the parental clones and 30 full-sib genotypes of the F1 belonging to a *Populus deltoides* intraspecific cross. FTI calculation was described in Material and Methods. A106: female. ST67: male.

Fig. 3. Pearson Correlation Coefficient between FTI and the different traits measured for the control treatment, for the parental clones and 30 full-sib genotypes of the F1 of a *Populus deltoides* intraspecific cross. N = 32. *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$, ***: $p < 0.001$. Open symbols: non-significant correlation with FTI. Closed symbols: significant correlation with FTI.

Fig. 4. Pearson Correlation Coefficient between FTI and the different traits measured for the flooded treatment, for the parental clones and 30 full-sib genotypes of the F1 of a *Populus deltoides* intraspecific cross. N = 32. *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$, ***: $p < 0.001$. Open symbols: non-significant correlation with FTI. Closed symbols: statistically significant correlations with FTI.

FIG.1

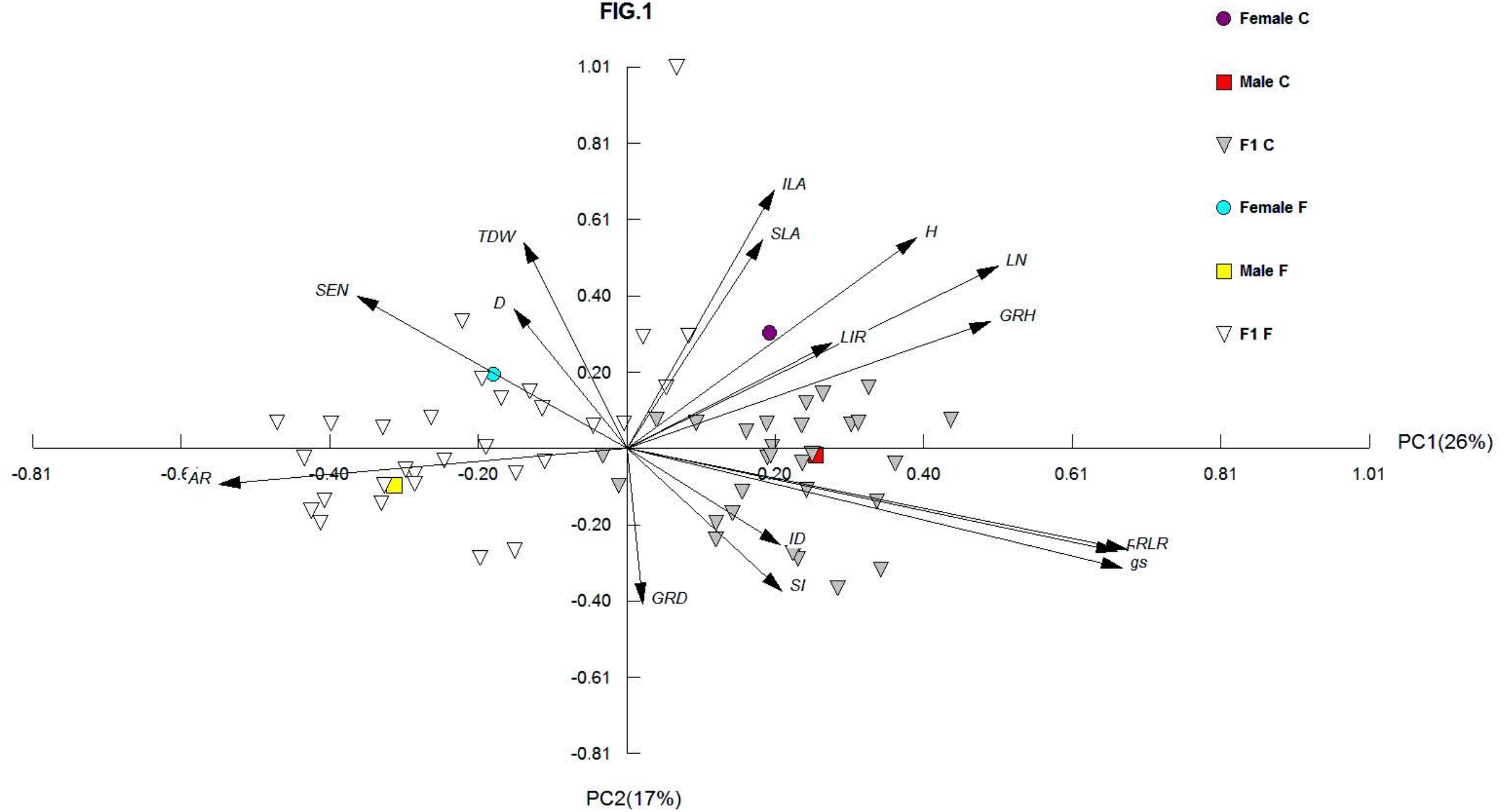


FIG.2

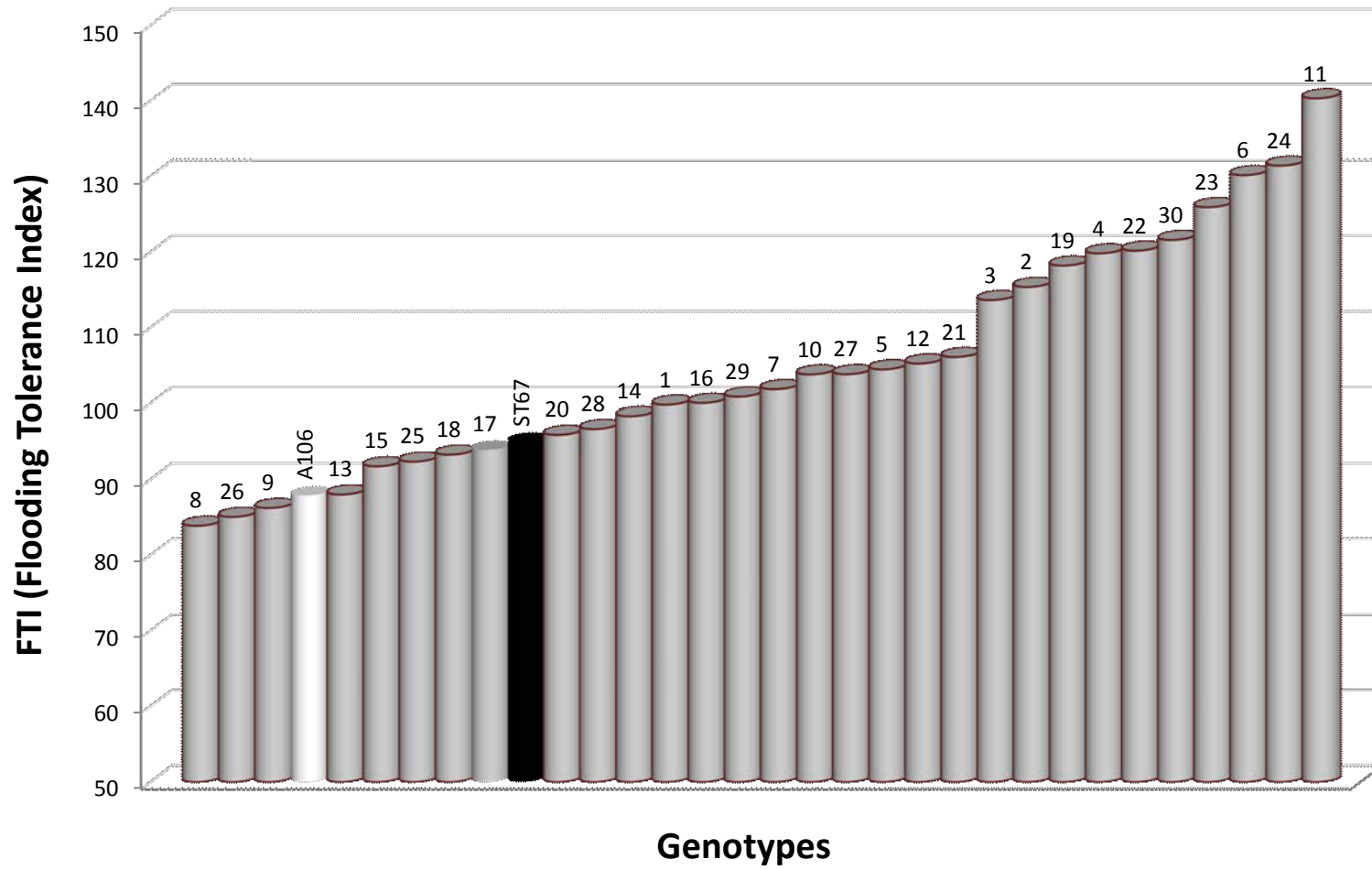


FIG.3

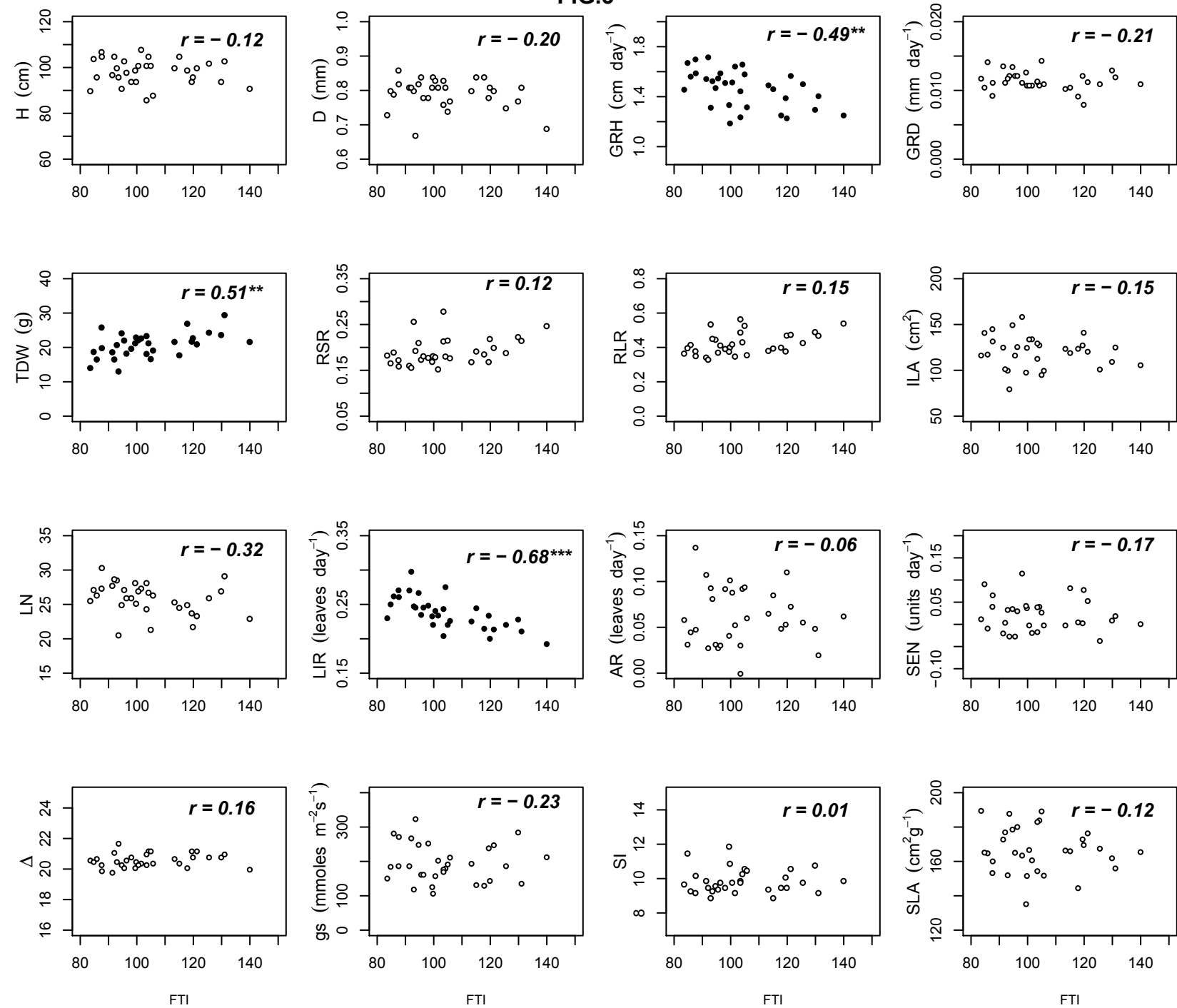
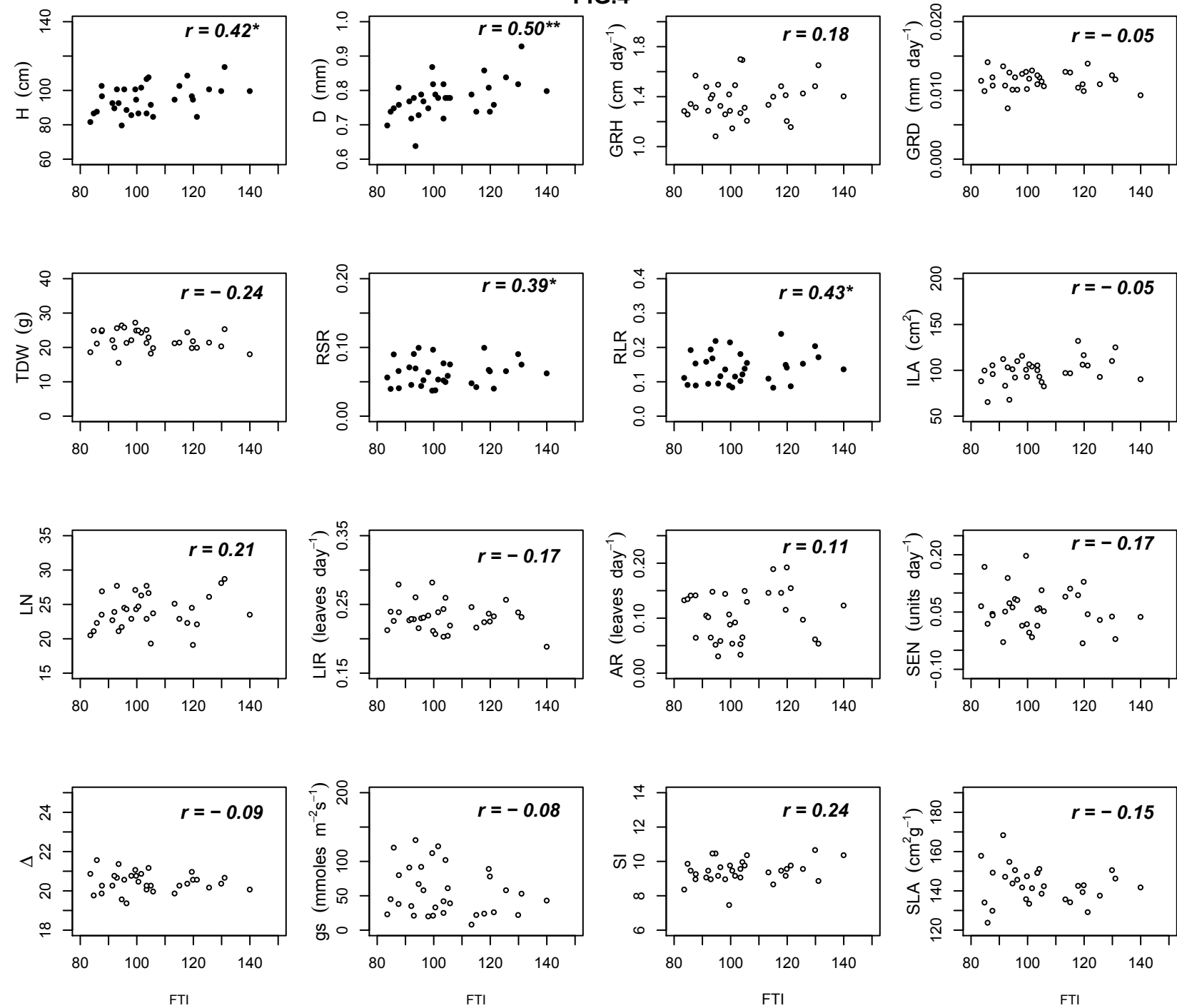


FIG.4



Experimental Design: completely randomized

Plants growing in
pots

35 days

Final destructive
sampling



32 Genotypes: 2 parental clones + 30 genotypes of the F1



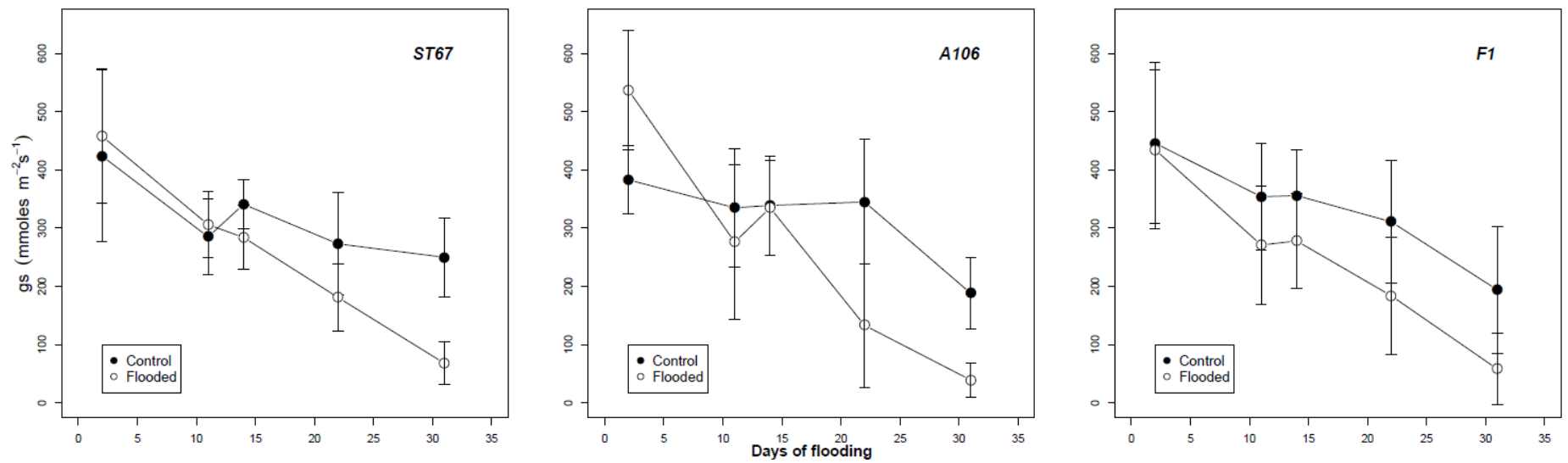
2 treatments: control (well drained) and flooded 10 cm above soil level (placed inside another pot with a plastic bag)



6 repetitions for each genotype and treatment:
384 plants

Supplementary Table 1. Average and one standard deviation (between parenthesis) of the traits measured for the parental clones and 30 full-sib genotypes of the F1 for the A106 X ST67 family. A106:female clone. ST67: male clone. C: control (watered to field capacity). F: flooded 10 cm above soil level. Complete name of the traits in Table 1 of the main text. * Data corresponding to the last date of measurement.

Trait	A106 C	A106 F	ST67 C	ST67 F	F1 C	F1 F
H*	105 (8)	103 (26)	99 (13)	101 (12)	98 (10)	95 (15)
D*	8.36 (0.88)	7.44 (1.41)	8.10 (1.03)	8.74 (0.91)	7.93 (7.81)	7.79 (1.10)
GRH	0.023 (0.004)	0.022 (0.002)	0.024 (0.003)	0.019 (0.001)	0.021 (0.004)	0.020 (0.003)
GRD	0.012 (0.003)	0.009 (0.006)	0.010 (0.002)	0.014 (0.002)	0.012 (0.003)	0.011 (0.003)
ILA	146 (21)	106 (12)	151 (30)	102 (21)	119 (23)	100 (22)
LN*	27 (4)	24 (6)	25 (1)	22 (1)	26 (3)	24 (4)
LIR	0.245 (0.045)	0.217 (0.029)	0.234 (0.023)	0.283 (0.036)	0.239 (0.035)	0.230 (0.034)
AR	0.086 (0.107)	0.190 (0.134)	0.041 (0.024)	0.108 (0.096)	0.061 (0.056)	0.103 (0.068)
SEN	0.047 (0.070)	0.047 (0.041)	0.036 (0.122)	0.064 (0.048)	0.022 (0.085)	0.059 (0.11)
gs*	188 (62)	39(29)	250 (68)	68 (37)	194 (110)	59 (62)
SLA	166.3 (25.8)	134.5 (27.8)	135.5 (4.8)	136.1 (1.1)	167.9 (24.8)	144.3 (18.1)
TDW	24.9 (6.5)	26.0 (8.8)	26.6 (4.8)	24.3 (5.4)	22.4 (5)	20.7 (5.6)
RSR	0.17 (0.04)	0.04 (0.02)	0.19 (0.06)	0.04 (0.01)	0.19 (0.06)	0.07 (0.03)
RLR	0.38 (0.11)	0.16 (0.08)	0.45 (0.18)	0.22 (0.05)	0.43 (0.12)	0.14 (0.07)
Δ	20.1 (0.5)	19.9 (0.5)	20.3 (0.9)	19.6 (0.8)	20.6 (0.8)	20.5 (0.7)
SI	9.01 (0.51)	9.18 (0.18)	10.47 (0.47)	9.64 (0.23)	9.44 (0.10)	9.94(1.13)



Supplementary Fig. 2. Stomatal conductance (gs) measured in the abaxial surface of the latest expanded leaf. For every genotype and treatment, 4-5 plants were measured in each date.

Table 2. Code for the determination of heritability and breeding values with breedR, with R 3.5.1.

```
library(breedR)

wl<-read.table("data.txt",header=TRUE)
names(wl)

wl$D<-as.numeric(wl$D)

#EXAMPLE DIAMETER

# INDIVIDUAL TREE MIXED MODEL with LMM - REML
model1.1<- remlf90(fixed = D ~ 1,
                  genetic = list(model = c('add_animal'),
                                pedigree = data[,1:3],
                                id = 'clon'),
                  data = wl)

summary(model1.1)

model1.1$fixed
model1.1$ranef

#spatial analysis

coordinates(model1.1) <-data[, c('row', 'col')]
plot(model1.1, 'resid')

breedR.setOption(col.seq = c('yellow', 'red'))
plot(model1.1, 'phenotype')

variogram(model1.1)
```