

1 **Early rooting and flooding tolerance in cuttings from a *Populus deltoides* full-**
2 **sib family under greenhouse conditions**

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19 **Abstract**

20 *Populus deltoides* is an important forest tree, with elite genotypes propagated mainly as unrooted
21 dormant cuttings. Several areas where *P. deltoides* is planted periodically experience flooding episodes. The
22 aims of this work were to analyze the early rooting capability and flooding tolerance of a *P. deltoides* full-sib
23 family, and to identify growth, wood, and leaf traits correlating with flooding tolerance. We analyzed the early
24 rooting capability of the parental genotypes and 30 clones from their F_1 under greenhouse conditions. The
25 rooting percentage of the cuttings ranged from 50 to 100%. There was a positive genetic correlation between
26 shoot weight and root traits (number, biomass and total length). In a separate experiment, 2-month-old plants
27 growing in pots from the same genotypes were subjected to two treatments: watered (control) and flooded for
28 35 days. Most genotypes showed an intermediate flooding tolerance with respect to the parental clones.
29 Height, diameter, growth rate, biomass, plant leaf area, leaf number and leaf increase rate had a positive
30 phenotypic correlation with flooding tolerance, while wood density did not. Height and diameter are traits
31 recommended for selection because they correlate with flooding tolerance, are easy to measure, and have
32 moderate to high narrow sense heritability.

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34 **Key words:** eastern cottonwood - greenhouse cuttings - early rooting - narrow sense heritability - genetic
35 correlation

36

38 Introduction

39 *Populus deltoides* (eastern cottonwood) is widely cultivated in temperate regions worldwide because
40 of its fast growth, either as a pure species or as selected parents of interspecific hybrids (Dickman and
41 Kuzovkina 2014). Eastern cottonwood plantations are mainly established from unrooted stem dormant
42 cuttings (Zhao et al. 2014). Rooting ability is crucial for *Populus* asexual propagation, and it is influenced by
43 different factors such as pre-planting soaking, temperature, type of substrate, stock plant nutritional status,
44 original position in the stock plant, and length and diameter of cuttings (Zalesny and Zalesny 2009, Zhao et
45 al. 2014). The occurrence of clonal variation in terms of rooting capability in *P. deltoides* cuttings is extensively
46 documented (e.g., Desrochers and Thomas 2003, Zalesny et al. 2005, Zalesny and Zalesny 2009).

47 The earliest stages of rooting are crucial for the successful establishment of plantations, when cuttings
48 are developing their root system and leaf area (Zalesny and Zalesny 2009). The occurrence of a stress
49 episode during the early phase of growth may compromise the success and future growth of *Populus*
50 plantations. Drought altered the early rooting responses of hybrids poplars (Krabel et al. 2015), while an 18-
51 days waterlogging episode during initial rooting caused different responses in cuttings of 9 *Populus* genotypes
52 (McCarthy et al. 2018).

53 Flooding is likely to occur in areas where *P. deltoides* is planted, and the frequency and intensity of
54 flooding episodes will increase due to climate change (Kreuswieser and Rennenberg 2014). There are clonal
55 differences in flooding tolerance for eastern cottonwood and its hybrids (Gong et al. 2007, Guo et al. 2011,
56 Luquez et al. 2012). A higher flooding tolerance among *P. deltoides* genotypes during early establishment will
57 increase the success of plantations under climate change.

58 Traits like total leaf area, individual leaf area, leaf number and leaf number increment rate have shown
59 correlation with growth along a wide variety of *Populus* species and hybrids (Rae et al. 2004, Monclus et al.
60 2005, Marron and Ceulemans 2006). These leaf traits may be affected by flooding, eventually causing a
61 reduction in growth (Gong et al. 2007, Guo et al. 2011, Rodriguez et al. 2015). Wood density correlated with
62 xylem cavitation resistance across a broad range of species (Hacke et al. 2001), indicating a relation with
63 drought tolerance. But it is not known whether a similar relationship occurs between wood density and flooding
64 tolerance in *Populus*.

65 The studies of quantitative genetics of flooding tolerance in poplar are scarce. Du et al. (2011) analyzed
66 the 3 best F_1 individuals and the parents of 5 full-sib hybrid poplar families (a total of 20 genotypes). In some
67 families, the F_1 individuals were more flood tolerant than the parents (Du et al. 2011). In a *Populus deltoides*
68 F_1 full-sib family, most individuals of the offspring had a higher flooding tolerance than the parental genotypes
69 (Rodriguez et al. 2020). Even when these results are limited to a few pedigrees, they indicate that it is possible
70 to increase flooding tolerance through breeding in poplar. To this end, it is important to analyze more families
71 and to identify traits that are relatively easy to measure and correlate with flooding tolerance. It is crucial the
72 knowledge of the heritabilities and genetic correlations of the traits to be selected. In particular, the narrow
73 sense heritability is a measure of the response to selection (Lynch and Walsh 1998). The genetic correlations
74 are important because traits increasing stress tolerance might be correlated with detrimental traits. It would
75 be desirable that the selection for increased flooding tolerance do not cause a reduction in tree growth or
76 fitness in eastern cottonwood.

77 To our knowledge, this is the first quantitative genetic study of both early rooting and flooding tolerance
78 on the same *Populus* family. We gathered data of growth, wood density and several root and leaf traits from
79 two *P. deltoides* parental clones and 30 genotypes of their full-sib F_1 representing a range of individual growth.
80 The aims of this work were: (1) to analyze the early rooting capability and the flooding tolerance under
81 greenhouse conditions; (2) to determine which of the studied traits correlate with flooding tolerance and could
82 be selected to increase tolerance to this stress in young *P. deltoides* plants obtained from cuttings; (3) to
83 estimate genetic correlations and narrow sense heritabilities for both destructive labor intensive and non-
84 destructive traits, to determine which ones could be adequate to select for productivity and for flooding
85 tolerance in eastern cottonwood.

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88 **Materials and Methods**

89 *Plant Material for both experiments*

90 The parental genotypes were obtained as the open pollinated progeny of selected female clones. The
91 seeds were collected in the Mississippi Delta Area, introduced to Argentina between 1968 and 1979, and

92 subsequently selected for the poplar breeding program from the Instituto Nacional de Tecnología
93 Agropecuaria (INTA). The female clone was registered as Nandi INTA ([https://inta.gob.ar/documentos/nandi-](https://inta.gob.ar/documentos/nandi-inta-populus-deltoides)
94 [inta-populus-deltoides](https://inta.gob.ar/documentos/nandi-inta-populus-deltoides), abbreviated Nandi) and the male clone as Carabelas INTA
95 (<https://inta.gob.ar/variedades/carabelas-inta>, abbreviated CAR). The controlled cross was carried out in the
96 year 2011 as part of the INTA breeding program. A full-sib F_1 progeny was obtained, from which a subset
97 genotypes representing a range of growth (i.e., including genotypes with good and poor growth) was selected
98 for this work. The preliminary evaluation of growth of the F_1 progeny was done on plants growing on a stool
99 bed. Both parental clones and 30 genotypes of the progeny were used for the rooting experiment, and the
100 same genotypes minus one (31 in total) for the flooding experiment. This family was selected because the
101 flooding tolerance of the parents was analyzed in a previous work, Nandi being more sensitive to this stress
102 than CAR (Luquez et al. 2012).

104 *Rooting Experiment description*

105 One-year-old 20 cm dormant cuttings were collected from stool beds growing in the field at the INTA
106 Delta Research Station during July 2017, and kept at 4°C until the beginning of the experiment. Before
107 planting, the cuttings were soaked overnight in water and treated with fungicides to prevent diseases. The
108 cuttings were planted in rectangular plastic trays (dimensions: 50 cm long, 18 cm wide and 14 cm deep) filled
109 with vermiculite, which covered the lower half of the cutting. The planting took place on August 1st, 2017 and
110 the trays were placed in a greenhouse in the city of La Plata (34° 59' 09" S; 57° 59' 42" W), with natural light
111 (maximum irradiance 1500 $\mu\text{moles m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) and photoperiod. Five cuttings belonging to the same clone were
112 arranged on each tray, and the trays were placed on benches on two different sites of the greenhouse: next
113 to the walls and in the center, the latter receiving more time of maximum irradiance than the former. These
114 two areas were treated as blocks, and the position of each tray within each block (= genotype) was completely
115 randomized (see Fig. S1). Each tray was treated as a plot, and the measurements of all five cuttings pooled
116 together. There were two trays of each genotype per block (4 trays and 20 cuttings per genotype in total). The
117 trays were watered daily to keep the substrate moist and no fertilizer was added to the substrate, so the growth
118 relied initially on the cutting's own reserves, until leaves developed and photosynthesis started (Fig. S1B).

119 The diameter of the cuttings was measured with a digital caliper as the average of two perpendicular
120 measurements in the middle of each cutting. After 35 days, the rooting of the cuttings was evaluated. Rooting
121 percentage (RP) was determined as the number of rooted cuttings over the total number of cuttings on each
122 tray. The number of roots (RN), the average root length (ARL) and the total root length (TRL, the sum of the
123 lengths of every individual root) were determined for each cutting. The shoot dry weight (SDW) and root dry
124 weight (RDW) were determined after drying them at 65°C to constant weight. Some cuttings did not produce
125 roots but developed callus tissue at the base from which roots could later develop (Zalesny and Zalesny 2009,
126 Fig. S2A and Fig. S2B). In consequence, two rooting percentages were determined: actual rooting (cuttings
127 with roots/total number of cuttings) and potential rooting (cuttings with roots or callus/total number of cuttings).
128 The actual rooting percentage was used for further analyses, unless is stated otherwise. The abbreviations
129 and units of all these traits measured in this experiment are summarized in Table 1.

131 *Flooding Experiment description*

132 Cuttings of 20 cm long were planted in 5 L pots with garden soil (one cutting per pot), obtained and
133 treated as described for the rooting experiment. The plantation date was 9th and 10th August, 2016. The plants
134 were grown in a greenhouse under the natural irradiance and photoperiod of La Plata. The pots were watered
135 daily, keeping the substrate at field capacity. Before the beginning of the treatments, plants were pruned
136 leaving only one shoot per cutting and fertilized with 50 ml per pot of complete Hoagland solution. The flooding
137 treatment was applied 60 days after planting, by placing the plants in 7 L pots sealed with a plastic bag, and
138 filled with water up to 10 cm above soil level, as previously described (Luquez et al. 2012, Fig.S3). The flooding
139 treatment lasted for 35 days. There were six repetitions per genotype and treatment (31 genotypes x 2
140 treatments x 6 repetitions = 372 plants in total) in a completely randomized layout. The experiment was
141 surrounded with a border of plants that were not measured. An outline of the experiment is provided in Fig.
142 S3.

143 Plant height (H) was measured every week with a graduated stick. For each plant, the height values
144 were plotted vs. time and a linear function was adjusted. The growth rate in height (GRH) was determined as
145 the slope of the straight fitted line. The basal diameter (D) was determined with a digital caliper. At the end of

146 the experiment, the total above ground dry weight (leaves plus stem, TDW) was determined after drying them
147 to constant weight at 65°C. The basic wood density (BWD) was determined on a 10 cm subsample obtained
148 from the basal part of the stem by fluid displacement as described in Achinelli et al. (2018). Before the
149 beginning of the treatment, the latest expanded leaf was tagged with a colored wire. The leaves above and
150 below the mark were counted, and the total leaf number (LN) was determined as the sum of both. The leaf
151 increase rate (LIR) was determined using the number of leaves above the mark, fitting a linear function in the
152 same way as described for growth rate. The abscission rate (AR) was determined with the number of leaves
153 below the mark, in the same way as LIR. The chlorophyll content of the tagged leaf was measured twice with
154 a SPAD Minolta Chlorophyll Meter SPAD 502 (Osaka, Japan). A linear function was adjusted as described
155 for growth rate, the leaf senescence rate (SEN) being the absolute value of the slope of the fitted line. At the
156 end of the experiment, the total leaf area per plant (TLA) was determined with a LICOR LI3100 area meter
157 (Lincoln, Nebraska, US). The individual leaf area (ILA) and specific leaf area (SLA) were determined on leaves
158 expanded during the flooding episode. The leaf stomatal conductance (g_s) was determined with a porometer
159 Decagon SC1 on the abaxial side of the latest expanded leaf. The measurements were carried out on a
160 cloudless day (December 12th, 2016) between 10.30 and 13.30 h, with an average irradiance of 1688 μmoles
161 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$.

162 To quantify the flooding tolerance of the different genotypes, the Flooding Tolerance Index (FTI, Doffo
163 et al. 2018) was determined using the total average dry weight for the watered or control ($\text{TDW}_{\text{control}}$) and
164 flooded or stressed ($\text{TDW}_{\text{stressed}}$) treatments as follows: $\text{FTI} = (\text{TDW}_{\text{stressed}} / \text{TDW}_{\text{control}}) \times 100$.

165 166 *Statistical analysis of the rooting experiment*

167 The 30 F_1 full-sib genotypes subset was analyzed together with both parental clones. Prior to analyses,
168 the data were standardized to have zero mean and unit variance. The statistical analysis was carried on a
169 plot mean basis (i.e., the average of all five cutting from a given genotype within each block). Plot means were
170 considered appropriate for analyses because their use enabled improved normality of data for all traits
171 (Jansson and Danell 1993). To test the significance of the genotype effects for all the rooting variables an
172 analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) using a single-trait linear model that incorporated block and genotype as

173 fixed effects as well as the trait initial cutting diameter (D) as a covariate, was performed. The variable D was
174 included in the linear model as a covariate, given that the cuttings had the same length, but their differences
175 in diameter could have affected the amount of carbohydrates and other reserves that influence rooting. The
176 Pearson correlation coefficient was used to determine phenotypic correlations using the mean values of each
177 genotype and treatment. The ANCOVA and correlation (Pearson) analysis were carried out with R 3.5.0 (R
178 Development Core Team 2017) using, respectively, the function `lm` from the base stats package and the
179 function `correlation` from the *agricolae* package version 1.2-8 (de Mendiburu 2017).

180 The narrow sense heritability (h^2) for each rooting trait and genetic correlations between all pairs of
181 these traits were estimated using a multiple-trait mixed linear model with random block and genetic effects
182 and `diameter` as a covariate. The rooting percentage was not included in the multiple-trait mixed model
183 because the residuals were not normally distributed. All determinations were performed with the `breedR` R-
184 package (Muñoz and Sanchez 2018) using the function `remlf90`, which is based on the programs REMLF90
185 and AIREMLF90 of BLUPF90 library (Miszta 1999). The narrow sense heritability (h^2) was calculated as: h^2
186 = σ_a^2 / σ_p^2 , where σ_a^2 is the additive genetic variance and σ_p^2 is the phenotypic variance. The absence of
187 spatial patterns in the residuals was also checked with `breedR` R-package (e.g., Cappa et al. 2019) for each
188 rooting trait using a single-trait mixed linear model with random block and genotype effects and the trait D as
189 covariate (not shown).

190 The genetic correlations were determined with two methods, first, using the `cov2cor` function from the
191 base stats package, and second, calculating the Pearson correlation coefficient among the Best Linear
192 Unbiased Prediction (BLUPs) of the genotype breeding values from the multiple-trait mixed linear model. Both
193 predictions had a correlation above 0.99, in consequence the significances for the correlations of the second
194 method are shown in the results.

195 A principal component analysis (PCA) was carried out to analyze the effects of the treatment and
196 genotypes on the traits measured. The PCA was performed with the software MVSP (Kovach Computing
197 Services, UK, <https://www.kovcomp.co.uk/mvsp/>), using the clonal phenotypic means for each treatment and
198 genotype.

200 *Statistical analysis for the flooding assay*

201 The 29 F₁ full-sib genotypes subset was analyzed together with both parental clones. Prior to analyses,
202 the data were standardized to have zero mean and unit variance. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) using a
203 single-trait linear model with fixed effects of treatment (i.e., control and flooding), genotype, and the interaction
204 treatment × genotype, was performed for all the flooding variables to test the significance of these effects.
205 The ANOVA, phenotypic (Pearson) correlation and PCA analyses were carried out with the same statistical
206 programs as the previous experiment. The ANOVA showed significant statistical differences among the two
207 treatments and the PCA indicated that there were two distinct groups for control and flooded plants (see
208 results below), so genetic correlations and heritability values were calculated separately for each treatment
209 using a multiple-trait mixed linear model with a fixed trait mean and random genetic effects. To determine
210 whether a growth, wood, morphological or physiological leaf traits correlated with the flooding tolerance index
211 (FTI), these traits were correlated with FTI using the Pearson correlation coefficient. Bivariate plots of the FTI
212 against all these studied traits were plotted to further elucidate these correlations.

215 **Results**

216 *Rooting experiment*

217 There were significant genotypic differences for all the traits measured (Table 1). Most traits did not
218 differ among the parents, except for shoot dry weight (SDW), and they were higher on average in the F₁
219 (Fig.1). The same can be appreciated in the PCA on a clonal basis, where root number (RN), rooting
220 percentage (RP), root dry weight (RDW), total root length (TRL) and SDW were higher in most F₁ genotypes
221 than in both parental clones (Fig. S5). The actual rooting percentage (RP) was similar in both parental clones,
222 60% for CAR and 65% for Nandi, while in the F₁ progeny ranged from 51 to 100% (Fig. 1 and Fig. S4). The
223 potential rooting was 100% or very close for most genotypes (Fig. S4).

224 The narrow sense heritability (h^2 , Table 1) was high for SDW, RN and average root length (ARL), but
225 low to moderate for RDW and TRL.

226 RP had a high and statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) phenotypic Pearson correlation with the rest of the
227 traits, the relationship was negative for ARL and positive for the rest (Table 2, above the diagonal). ARL had
228 a negative and statistically significant Pearson correlation with RN and no statistically significant correlation
229 with other traits. SDW had a positive and statistically significant correlation with RDW, RN and TRL, and
230 negative but no statistically significant correlation with ARL.

231 SDW had a positive and statistically significant genetic correlation with RN, RDW and TRL, and a
232 negative one with ARL (Table 2, below the diagonal). RN had a strong negative correlation with ARL and a
233 strong and positive correlation with TRL.

235 *Flooding experiment*

236 Flooding had a statistically significant effect ($p < 0.05$) on all variables measured except diameter (D),
237 while genotype was statistically significant ($p < 0.001$) for all variables except leaf increase rate (LIR),
238 senescence rate (SEN) and stomatal conductance (g_s , Table 3). The interaction between genotype and
239 treatment was statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) for growth rate in height (GRH), total leaf area (TLA), individual
240 leaf area (ILA), specific leaf area (SLA) and g_s , meaning that genotypic effects will be different according to
241 treatment.

242 H, D, GRH and total dry weight (TDW) were reduced by flooding in Nandi as opposed to CAR, in
243 which they did not change or were less reduced (Fig. 2). Basic wood Density (BWD) was increased by flooding
244 in both the parental genotypes and the progeny (Fig. 2). TLA, ILA, LIR, leaf number (LN) and g_s (Fig.3) were
245 less affected by flooding in CAR than in Nandi. The F_1 progeny showed variability beyond the range of the
246 parental genotypes for all traits (Fig. 2 and 3). The effects of flooding are clearly shown in the PCA (Fig. S6).
247 The first component explains 39% of the variability, and mainly represents the effects of flooding, which
248 increased SEN, basic wood density (BWD) and AR compared to control plants, while reducing the other
249 variables. The second component reflects genotypic differences, because there were differences among
250 clones in some traits.

251 The narrow sense heritability (h^2 , Table 3) was higher for height (H) in both control and flooded
252 treatments. The variables with the lowest heritability were SEN and the abscission rate (AR). The other traits

253 had moderate to low heritability, and sometimes the values were quite different between the control and the
254 flooded treatment as for SLA.

255 According to the flooding tolerance index (FTI, Fig. 4), the parental clones had different responses to
256 flooding, with clone Nandi being more flood-sensitive than clone CAR. FTI in the F_1 showed intermediate
257 values between the parents in most genotypes, with the parental clones almost at the extremes of the scale.

258 For the control treatment, the flooding tolerance index (FTI) had a negative and statistically significant
259 phenotypic correlation only with ILA (Fig. 5). In flooded plants, FTI had a positive and statistically significant
260 correlation with H, D, GRH, TDW, LN, LIR and TLA (Fig. 6). The SEN, SLA, BWD and *gs* traits did not show
261 statistically significant correlations with FTI in any treatment (i.e., control and flooding).

262 The phenotypic Pearson correlations were higher and statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) among the
263 plant growth traits (H, D, GRH, TDW), and with some leaf traits known to be related to productivity (TLA, LN,
264 LIR, Table 4). These correlations were significant in both control and flooded plants, but other traits had
265 different correlations according to the treatment. For instance, BWD correlated with LN and LIR in the control
266 treatment but not in the flooded treatment. Other variables like *gs* had a negative statistically significant
267 correlation with H and LN in control plants but a positive statistically significant correlation in flooded plants.
268 SLA correlated with TLA, ILA and TDW in control plants but not in flooded plants, and AR did not correlate
269 with any other variable.

270 There was a statistically significant genetic correlation between growth traits (H, D, TDW) and LN for
271 both control and flooded treatments (Table 5). TLA showed correlation with D, ILA and TDW for both control
272 and flooded treatments. Other variables had different correlations according to the treatment, like *gs* with a
273 negative correlation with H, LN and TDW for control plants, and a positive correlation for the same traits in
274 flooded plants. BWD had a low but significant positive correlation with H in control plants but not in the flooded
275 treatment. BWD had a negative correlation with AR, SEN and SLA in both control and flooded plants.

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277

278 **Discussion**

279 Poplar plantations are propagated from unrooted cuttings, and this is a crucial point for the deployment
280 of new genotypes (Zhao et al. 2014). In early stages of establishment from dormant hardwood cuttings,
281 *Populus* plantations are highly vulnerable to the occurrence of stresses, in consequence it would be desirable
282 to select new genetic material with increased flooding tolerance at this stage. The analysis of heritability and
283 genetic correlations are highly relevant for breeders to select for traits increasing the success of the
284 establishment of eastern cottonwood plantations. In this work, we analyzed the rooting capability and flooding
285 responses in cuttings of a full-sib F_1 progeny of *P. deltoides*. We estimated the heritability and genetic
286 correlations of relevant traits by means of multiple-trait mixed linear models. In addition, we identified several
287 traits correlating with flooding tolerance.

288 289 *Early rooting of a full-sib family of P. deltoides.*

290 In this work, we aimed to determine clonal differences in early rooting capability between dormant
291 rootless cuttings under environmental conditions that favor this process, except for the addition of rooting
292 hormones (Desrochers and Thomas 2003, Zhao et al. 2014). The possibility of easily propagated elite clones
293 is a key feature to realize genetic gains in poplar. *P. deltoides* rooting capability has a high genetic variation,
294 with great differences at clone level, but strong environmental \times genotype ($G \times E$) effects are present (Zalesny
295 and Zalesny 2009). Poplar cuttings could develop lateral roots from latent root primordia, or basal roots from
296 callus tissue originating at the base of the cutting as a wounding response (Zalesny and Zalesny 2009). In our
297 material, most clones produced lateral roots and this was quantified, but some cuttings developed callus that
298 may originate basal roots afterwards. The rooting percentage measured only with lateral roots (i.e., actual
299 rooting) was high, but it reached 100% in most clones when cuttings with callus were included (potential
300 rooting) (Fig.1 and S4). Overall, this family has a good rooting capability, since *P. deltoides* is more difficult to
301 root from cuttings compared with other poplar species (Zalesny and Zalesny 2009). These percentages may
302 be lower under field conditions, since the cuttings may suffer stresses that reduce rooting (Krabel et al. 2015,
303 Mc Carthy et al. 2018).

304 We found a negative and statistically significant correlation between Average Root Length (ARL) and
305 Root Number (RN) at both phenotypic and genetic levels (Table 2). This is different from previous results,

306 where a high and positive phenotypic and genetic correlation between ARL and RN was found for *P. deltoides*
307 and some interspecific hybrids in a rooting field trial (Zalesny et al. 2005). The opposite result may be due to
308 the differences in the genotypes analyzed and the experimental design. Zalesny et al. (2005) found positive
309 genetic and phenotypic correlations between RDW, TRL and RN, as we did in our conditions (Table 2).

310 Our values for narrow-sense heritability (h^2) for RN (Table 1) were inferior to the estimations of H^2 for
311 the same trait for a hybrid family of *P. deltoides* x *P. euramericana*, ranging from 0.80 to 0.85 (Zhang et al.
312 2009). This is due to the fact that h^2 takes into account only the additive genetic variance, while H^2 includes
313 other genetic variance components as well (Lynch and Walsh 1998). We had higher h^2 values for RDW and
314 SDW than the broad-sense heritabilities (H^2) estimated by Zalesny et al. (2005), likely because the heritability
315 was estimated over different sites and years, increasing the environmental variance component.

316 Except for ARL, the rest of the traits had a positive genetic correlation with SDW (Table 2). This is an
317 interesting result, because these traits (RN, TRL, RDW) are laborious to measure, especially under field
318 conditions. The measurement of these traits by means of the shoot biomass is less time-consuming, and can
319 be used as a surrogate of those traits for selection. Heilman et al. (1994) found that above-ground weight
320 correlated positively with root weight in a set of 20 *P. deltoides*, 15 *P. trichocarpa* and 44 *P. deltoides* x *P.*
321 *trichocarpa* hybrids growing in the field. In order to use shoot biomass as a surrogate for roots traits, it will be
322 desirable to confirm whether this correlation holds for other *P. deltoides* pedigrees and under field conditions.

323

324 *Flooding tolerance correlated with some growth and leaf traits*

325 Previous results with poplar showed that some individuals in F_1 offspring could have a higher flooding
326 tolerance than the parental genotypes (Du et al. 2011, Rodríguez et al. 2020). The results for the Nandi x
327 CAR family were completely different, the flooding tolerance of the progeny (measured as FTI) was
328 intermediate among the parental genotypes (i.e., Nandi and CAR, Fig. 4). This is a strong indication of
329 variability at clone level in *P. deltoides*, since different pedigrees had contrasting results for flooding tolerance.
330 These results are in line with the occurrence of high genetic variability in the southern range of distribution of
331 eastern cottonwood (Fahrenkrog et al. 2017), which is the region from where the female parents of clones
332 Nandi and CAR were originally collected (Luquez et al. 2012).

333 The Flooding Tolerance Index (FTI) had a significant positive correlation with H, D, GRH, TDW, LN,
334 LIR and TLA in flooded plants (Fig. 3). In another *P. deltoides* F₁ full-sib family (Rodríguez et al. 2020), H and
335 D correlated with FTI in flooded plants, while there was no correlation of leaf traits in either control nor flooded
336 plants. Du et al. (2011) found that height and diameter were the most reliable traits to select under flooding. It
337 seems that H and D are more reliable for selection for early flooding tolerance than leaf traits, but it would be
338 desirable to evaluate more families to confirm these results.

339 The use of H and D has other advantages, they had a strong and statistically significant positive
340 phenotypic and genetic correlation with TDW in *P. deltoides*, and could be used as surrogates for plant
341 biomass (Tables 4 and 5, Du et al. 2011, Rodríguez et al. 2020). Both measurements are non-destructive and
342 could eventually be automated to screen a high number of genotypes in a breeding program. In our
343 experiment, H and D had a similar or higher h^2 (Table 3) than the reported for another *P. deltoides* pedigree
344 (Rodríguez et al. 2020). Our results are similar to the broad sense heritability determined for H and D in a
345 collection of 391 unrelated eastern cottonwood genotypes (Fahrenkrog et al. 2017).

346 Wood density correlates with xylem cavitation tolerance across a range of woody species (Hacke et
347 al. 2001). We found that wood density increased in flooded plants, but it did not correlate with flooding
348 tolerance (Fig.2 and 6). BWD had a moderate positive genetic correlation with H and a negative one with D
349 in control but not in flooded plants (Table 5). In 10-year old poplar clones, wood density had a significant
350 negative genetic correlation with both height and diameter (Pliura et al. 2007). These differences could be
351 attributed to the different age of the trees, since wood density changes with age in poplar (Pliura et al. 2006).

352 Leaf traits have shown significant phenotypic correlations with growth in several *Populus* pedigrees
353 (Rae et al. 2004, Monclus et al. 2005, Marron and Ceulemans 2006) and natural populations of different
354 species like *P. nigra* (Guet et al. 2015), *P. balsamifera* (Soolanayakanahally et al. 2009), *P. trichocarpa*
355 (Gornall and Guy 2007) and *P. tremuloides* (Kanaga et al. 2008), among others. In addition to the phenotypic
356 correlations, we determined the genetic correlations between these traits that are more relevant for breeding.
357 Some leaf traits had significant positive phenotypic and genetic correlations with H in both control and flooded
358 treatment, like LN and LIR, but other like TLA were significant only for flooded plants (Table 4 and 5). The *gs*
359 had a positive correlation (genetic and phenotypic) with H in flooded plants but a negative one in control

360 plants. A possible explanation is that stomata close in flooded *Populus* plants, and the genotypes that keep a
361 higher g_s are able to keep the photosynthetic activity and growth under stress conditions (Rodriguez et al.
362 2015, Du et al. 2011).

363 As a whole, the leaf traits have lower h^2 than the growth traits (H, D and TDW). The comparison with
364 published heritability values for leaf traits is not straightforward, because most works determined broad sense
365 heritability, but our results are within the range of those published for other *Populus* species and hybrids
366 (Marron and Ceulemans 2006, Kanaga et al. 2008).

367 A good rooting capability increases early growth of poplar plantations, and it is possible that clones
368 with a superior rooting could also have an increased flooding tolerance. Willow genotypes with a vigorous
369 early growth were better able to endure flooding than those with a lower growth rate, and consequently smaller
370 size (Rodríguez et al. 2018). We compared the FTI scores of the flooding experiment with the rooting traits in
371 the other experiment, but there was no statistically significant correlation with any of these variables (data not
372 shown). The likely explanation for this lack of correlation is that the rooting of cuttings under waterlogged and
373 non-waterlogged conditions is different, with genotypes that produced abundant roots under non-stress
374 conditions rooted poorly under waterlogging (Mc Carthy et al. 2018). Eventually, the rooting of cuttings under
375 waterlogging could be a predictor of the flooding tolerance of eastern cottonwood genotypes, but this
376 hypothesis needs further confirmation.

377 Flood tolerance is highly dependent on the age of the plant, the length of the flooding period, the depth
378 of the floodwater, and if the water is stagnant or running (Kozłowski 1997). In consequence, our data are
379 relevant for field plantations of the same age, and with similar flooding conditions, and these results could not
380 be extrapolated for older field plantations. But increasing flooding tolerance in young plants is still relevant for
381 the establishment of poplar plantations. With more tolerant genotypes, a flooding episode at this early stage
382 will cause less damage and, in consequence, a reduction of the cost to replace the lost plants in the field.

383

384

385 **Conclusions**

386 We found genotypic variation in the early rooting capability of a full - sib F_1 of eastern cottonwood and
387 moderate to high narrow sense heritability values for the traits measured. The above ground biomass had a
388 strong phenotypic and genetic correlation with the root traits of the cuttings. We could identify several traits
389 that correlated with flooding tolerance in eastern cottonwood. Among these traits, H and D are more
390 convenient for selection because they have a moderate to high heritability, are easy to measure, non-
391 destructive and could be automated to screen a large number of trees. From the phenotypic and genetic
392 correlations, we could determine that flooding tolerance does not imply a reduction of growth in this family.
393 Additionally, we could identify some easy-to-measure traits that show a robust correlation with other more
394 labor-intensive traits, like SDW with roots traits (RN, TRL, RDW) and H and D with above ground biomass
395 (TDW). Further confirmation in field experimental trials should be a next step to conclusively correlate
396 greenhouse results as a powerful tool of convenience to the breeder in poplar selection.

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Table 1. Trait full name, abbreviations, units, statistical significances of block, and genotype effects and the covariable diameter, and narrow-sense heritability (h^2) estimation (and standard errors) for the different traits measured in the rooting experiment for the Nandi x CAR full-sib family.

Trait name	Abbreviation	Unit	Statistical significances ¹			h^2 (SE)
			Diameter	Block	Genotype	
Shoot Dry Weight	SDW	g	***	**	***	0.65 (0.10)
Root Number	RN	---	*	*	***	0.53 (0.10)
Root Dry Weight	RDW	mg	ns	*	***	0.22 (0.09)
Total Root Length	TRL	cm	ns	*	***	0.28 (0.10)
Average Root Length	ARL	cm	ns	ns	***	0.66 (0.09)
Rooting	RP	%	ns	ns	***	Not estimated

NOTE: ¹ Statistical significance: ns: non-significant, *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$; ***: $p < 0.001$.

Draft

551 **Table 2.** Phenotypic Pearson correlation coefficients (upper part of the table, in italics, N = 32) and genetic
 552 correlations (lower part of the table) between the traits measured in the rooting experiment for the full-sib
 553 family Nandi x CAR. Statistically significant correlations in bold.

Trait	SDW	RN	RDW	TRL	ARL	RP
SDW		<i>0.62***</i>	<i>0.58***</i>	<i>0.60***</i>	-0.25	<i>0.66***</i>
RN	<i>0.75***</i>		<i>0.73***</i>	<i>0.88***</i>	<i>-0.56***</i>	<i>0.84***</i>
RDW	<i>0.41*</i>	0.32		<i>0.84***</i>	-0.12	<i>0.72***</i>
TRL	<i>0.60***</i>	<i>0.81***</i>	0.35		-0.20	<i>0.83***</i>
ARL	<i>-0.51**</i>	<i>-0.80***</i>	-0.08	<i>-0.50**</i>		<i>-0.47**</i>

554 **NOTE:** Statistical significances: *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$; ***: $p < 0.001$.

Draft

Table 3. Trait full name, abbreviations, units, statistical significances of genotype, treatment (i.e., control and flooding), and the interaction treatment × genotype effects; and narrow-sense heritability (h^2) estimation (and standard errors) for the traits measured in the flooding experiment for the full-sib family Nandi x CAR.

Full name	Abbreviation	Units	Statistical significances ¹			h^2 Control	h^2 Flooded
			Genotype	Treatment	Interaction		
Final Height	H	cm	***	**	ns	0.58 (0.10)	0.80 (0.85)
Final Diameter	D	mm	***	ns	ns	0.36 (0.09)	0.52 (0.07)
Growth Rate in height	GRH	cm day ⁻¹	***	***	***	0.38 (0.10)	0.62 (0.12)
Total Dry Weight	TDW	g	***	*	ns	0.44 (0.10)	0.53 (0.09)
Basic Wood Density	BWD	g cm ⁻³	***	***	ns	0.45 (0.10)	0.48 (0.11)
Total Leaf Area	TLA	cm ²	***	***	**	0.28 (0.09)	0.24 (0.08)
Individual Leaf Area	ILA	cm ²	***	***	***	0.45 (0.10)	0.33 (0.07)
Final Leaf Number	LN	---	***	**	ns	0.32 (0.09)	0.49 (0.10)
Leaf Increase Rate	LIR	Leaf day ⁻¹	ns	***	ns	0.29 (0.09)	0.40 (0.08)
Abscission Rate	AR	Leaf day ⁻¹	***	***	ns	0.19 (0.07)	0.27 (0.08)
Leaf Senescence Rate	SEN	SPAD units day ⁻¹	ns	***	ns	0.18 (0.08)	0.17 (0.05)
Specific Leaf Area	SLA	cm ² g ⁻¹	***	***	**	0.43 (0.10)	0.15 (0.05)
Stomatal Conductance	gs	mmol m ⁻² s ⁻¹	ns	***	***	0.24 (0.08)	0.20 (0.08)

NOTE: ¹ Statistical significance: ns non - significant, * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 4. Phenotypic Pearson correlations coefficients for control (upper part of the table *-in italics-*) and flooded plants (lower part of the table) between different traits measured in the flooding experiment for the Nandi x CAR full-sib family. N = 31. Statistically significant correlations in bold. See Table 3 for traits full name and units.

	H	D	GRH	TLA	ILA	LN	LIR	AR	SEN	SLA	TDW	BWD	gs
H		<i>0.38*</i>	<i>0.61***</i>	0.21	-0.20	<i>0.51*</i>	<i>0.37*</i>	0.02	-0.24	-0.11	0.56**	0.16	-0.43*
D	0.73***		<i>0.41*</i>	0.63***	0.39*	0.42*	0.41*	0.27	-0.02	0.01	0.74***	-0.32	-0.26
GRH	0.92***	0.68***		0.31	0.19	0.19	0.51**	0.03	-0.14	0.34	0.24	-0.21	-0.06
TLA	0.54***	0.66***	0.45*		0.77***	0.41*	0.36	-0.08	-0.16	0.45*	<i>0.54**</i>	-0.27	-0.35
ILA	-0.06	0.04	-0.14	0.62***		-0.20	-0.08	-0.16	-0.06	0.49***	0.23	-0.12	-0.07
LN	0.72***	0.77***	0.69***	0.68***	-0.07		0.63***	-0.05	-0.16	-0.07	0.49**	-0.32*	-0.46**
LIR	0.74***	0.74***	0.76***	0.46**	-0.29	0.78***		0.34	-0.30	0.20	0.25	-0.44*	-0.16
AR	-0.23	-0.09	-0.17	-0.36	-0.27	-0.36	0.08		-0.07	0.07	-0.06	-0.11	0.01
SEN	0.09	0.12	0.09	0.27	0.35	-0.03	-0.09	-0.04		0.13	-0.20	-0.13	0.40*
SLA	0.14	-0.09	0.31	0.09	-0.08	0.14	0.10	-0.03	-0.02		-0.42*	-0.25	-0.06
TDW	0.76***	0.83***	0.58***	0.79***	0.29	0.72***	0.62***	-0.30	0.18	-0.31		0.01	-0.37*
BWD	0.15	-0.02	-0.01	-0.05	0.04	-0.05	-0.08	-0.19	-0.23	-0.32	0.15		-0.17
gs	0.52**	0.45*	0.60***	0.10	-0.29	0.46**	0.47**	-0.01	0.17	0.36*	0.19	-0.06	

NOTE: Statistical significances: *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$; ***: $p < 0.001$.

Table 5. Genetic correlations coefficients for control (upper part of the table *-in italics-*) and flooded plants (lower part of the table) between different traits measured in the flooding experiment for the Nandi x CAR full-sib family. Statistically significant correlations in bold. See Table 3 for traits full names and units.

	H	D	GRH	TLA	ILA	LN	LIR	AR	SEN	SLA	TDW	BWD	gs
H		<i>0.27</i>	0.61***	<i>0.10</i>	<i>-0.28</i>	0.46**	<i>0.31</i>	<i>-0.04</i>	-0.43*	<i>-0.14</i>	0.51**	0.38*	-0.55***
D	0.74***		0.44*	0.70***	0.48**	0.36*	0.46*	<i>0.34</i>	<i>0.09</i>	<i>0.02</i>	0.73***	-0.36*	<i>-0.26</i>
GRH	0.94***	0.72***		0.39*	<i>0.21</i>	<i>0.18</i>	0.50*	<i>-0.11</i>	<i>-0.14</i>	0.42*	<i>0.24</i>	<i>-0.24</i>	<i>-0.08</i>
TLA	0.76***	0.65***	0.51**		0.78***	0.37*	0.47*	<i>-0.03</i>	<i>0.01</i>	<i>0.34</i>	0.53**	<i>-0.33</i>	-0.42*
ILA	<i>-0.08</i>	<i>0.08</i>	<i>-0.18</i>	0.56**		-0.27	<i>-0.12</i>	<i>-0.23</i>	<i>-0.08</i>	<i>0.34</i>	<i>0.28</i>	<i>-0.22</i>	<i>-0.05</i>
LN	0.73***	0.78***	0.75***	0.67***	<i>-0.17</i>		0.74***	<i>0.18</i>	-0.50**	<i>-0.04</i>	0.38*	<i>-0.28</i>	-0.61***
LIR	0.76***	0.86***	0.81***	0.50**	-0.41*	0.83***		0.44*	<i>-0.31</i>	<i>0.27</i>	<i>0.21</i>	-0.52**	<i>-0.17</i>
AR	-0.45*	<i>-0.09</i>	<i>-0.34</i>	-0.46**	-0.39*	-0.40*	<i>0.01</i>		<i>-0.07</i>	<i>0.03</i>	<i>-0.05</i>	<i>-0.12</i>	<i>0.10</i>
SEN	<i>-0.06</i>	<i>0.11</i>	<i>-0.05</i>	<i>0.26</i>	0.48**	<i>-0.15</i>	<i>-0.11</i>	<i>0.27</i>		0.33	-0.50**	<i>-0.34</i>	0.58***
SLA	<i>0.21</i>	<i>-0.18</i>	0.45**	<i>-0.07</i>	-0.46**	<i>0.31</i>	<i>0.33</i>	<i>0.01</i>	<i>-0.09</i>		-0.51**	-0.35*	<i>-0.03</i>
TDW	0.80***	0.84***	0.64***	0.81***	<i>0.30</i>	0.68***	0.62***	-0.47**	<i>0.07</i>	<i>-0.30</i>		<i>0.11</i>	-0.43*
BWD	<i>0.20</i>	<i>-0.09</i>	<i>0.02</i>	<i>-0.07</i>	<i>0.14</i>	<i>-0.13</i>	<i>-0.21</i>	-0.36*	-0.40*	-0.36*	<i>0.17</i>		<i>-0.32</i>
gs	0.68***	0.63***	0.73***	<i>0.17</i>	-0.40*	0.65***	0.63***	<i>0.01</i>	<i>0.13</i>	0.39*	0.37*	<i>-0.02</i>	

NOTE: Statistical significance: *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$; ***: $p < 0.001$.

Legends to the figures

Fig. 1. Phenotypic variability in the rooting experiment. CAR: male parental clone. NAN: female parental clone. F₁: genotypes of the F₁ progeny.

Fig. 2. Phenotypic variability in the plant traits of the flooding experiment. CAR: male parental clone. NAN: female parental clone. F₁: genotypes of the F₁ progeny. C: control treatment. F: flooded treatment.

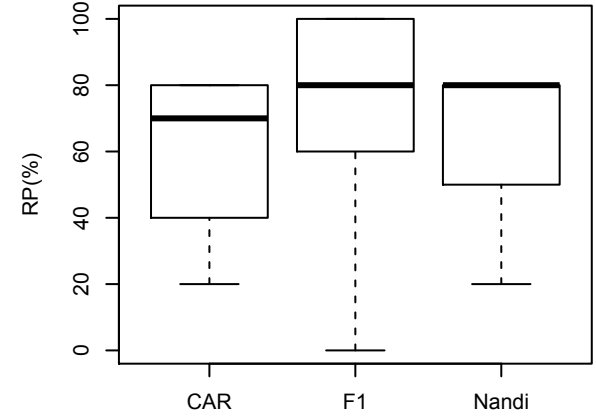
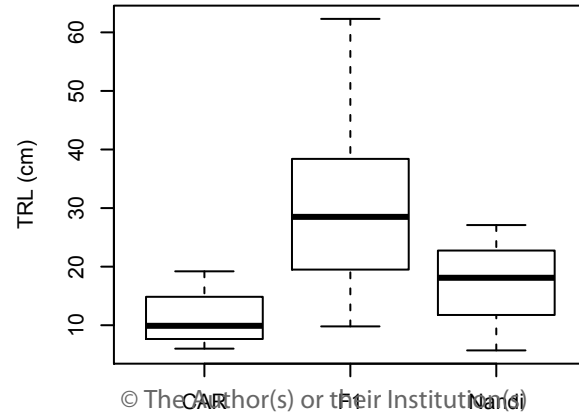
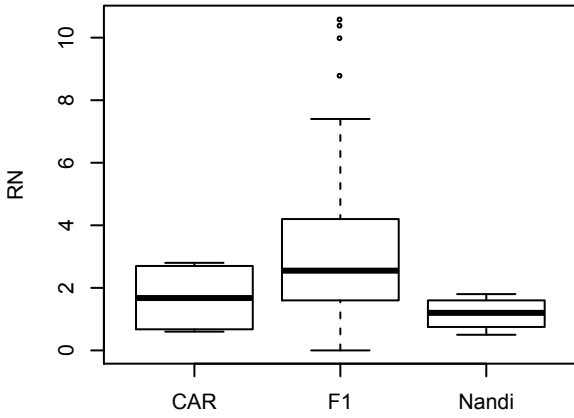
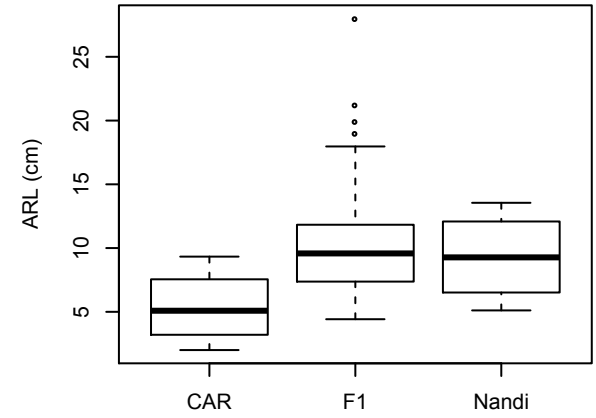
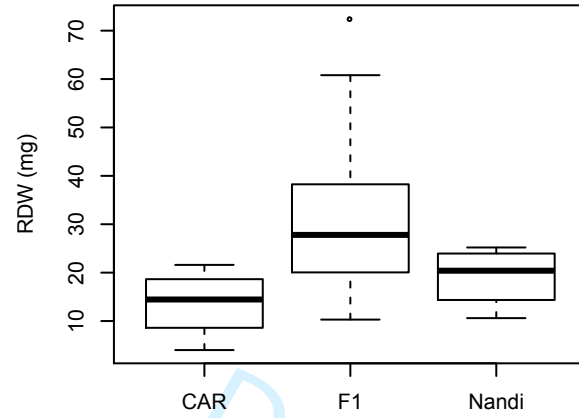
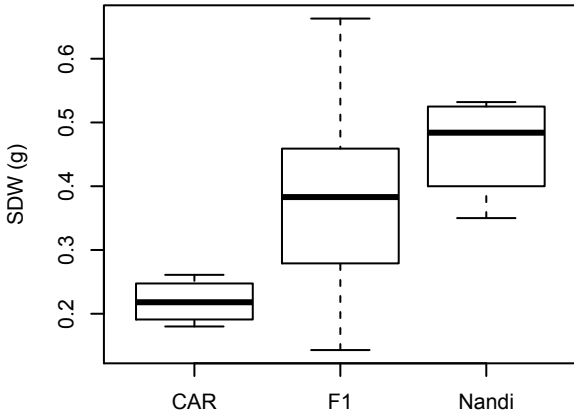
Fig. 3. Phenotypic variability in the leaf traits of the flooding experiment. CAR: male parental clone. NAN: female parental clone. F₁: genotypes of the F₁ progeny. C: control treatment. F: flooded treatment.

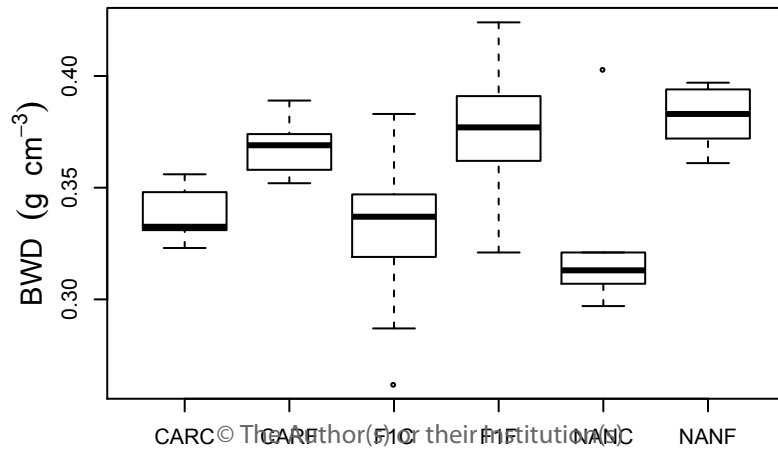
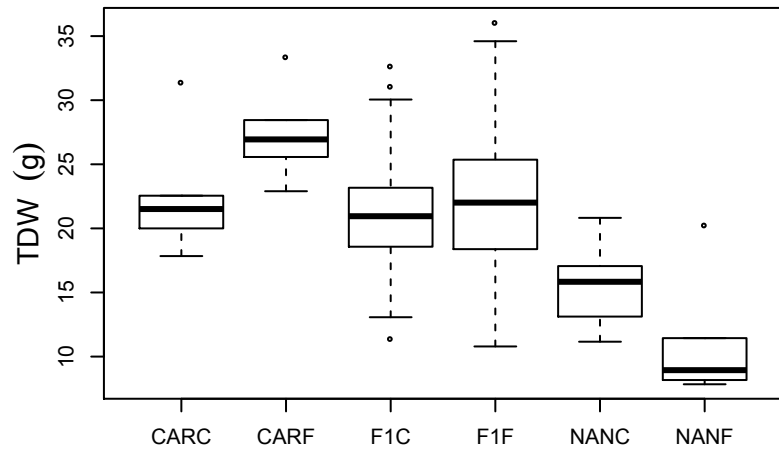
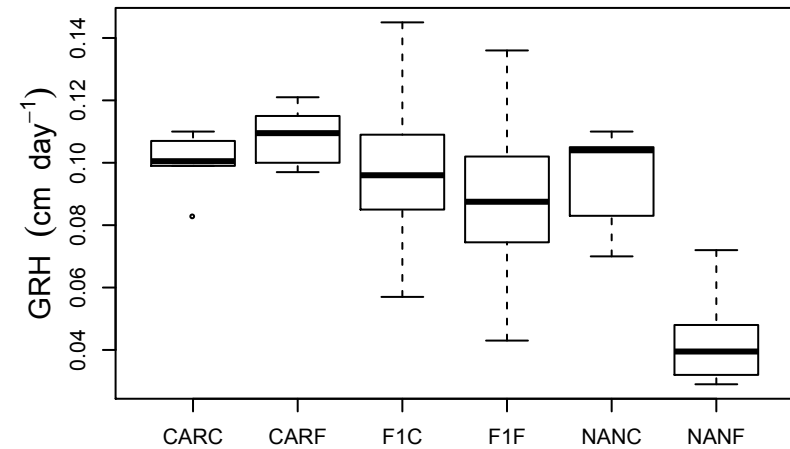
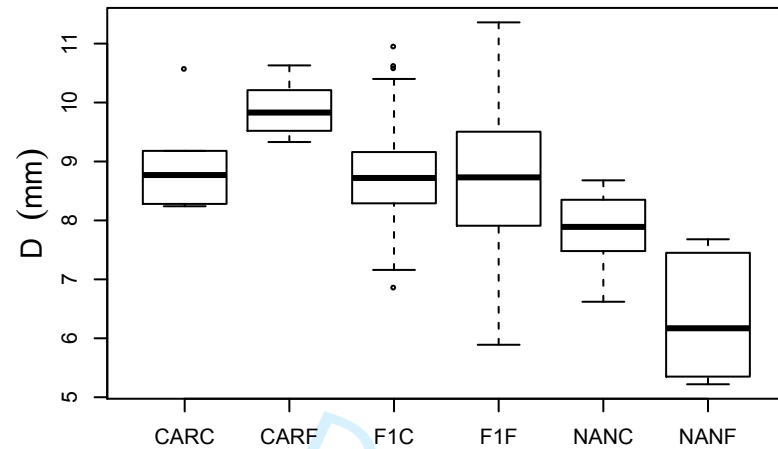
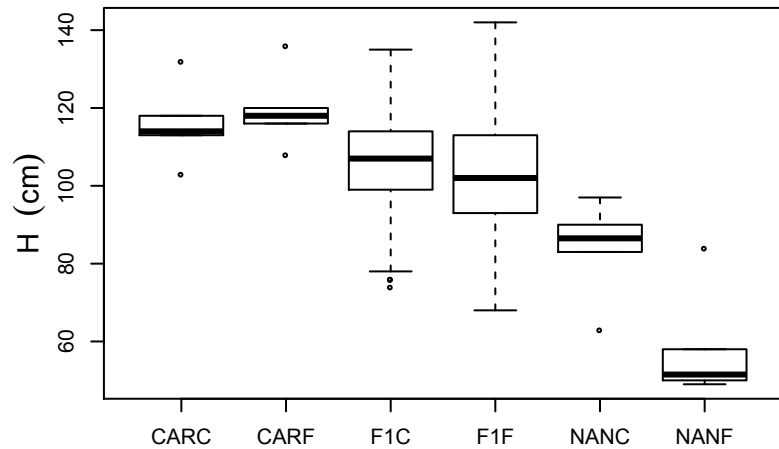
Fig. 4. Flooding Tolerance Index (FTI) of the parental clones and 29 genotypes of the F₁ from the full-sib family Nandi x CAR. FTI calculation was described in Material and Methods. Black: CAR (male parental clone). White: Nandi (female parental clone). Grey: genotypes of the F₁.

Fig. 5. Bivariate plots and phenotypic Pearson correlation coefficients (r) between FTI and the different traits measured for the control treatment, for the parental clones and 29 genotypes of the F₁ from the full-sib family Nandi x CAR. $N = 31$. *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$, ***: $p < 0.001$. Open symbols: non-significant correlation with FTI. Closed symbols: significant correlation with FTI. Full names of the traits are detailed in Table 3.

Fig. 6. Bivariate plots and phenotypic Pearson correlation coefficients (r) between FTI and the different traits measured for the flooded treatment, for the parental clones and 29 genotypes of the F₁ from the full-sib family Nandi x CAR. $N = 31$. *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$, ***: $p < 0.001$. Open symbols: non-significant correlation with FTI. Closed symbols: significant correlation with FTI. Full names of the traits are detailed in Table 3.

FIG 1





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FIG 3

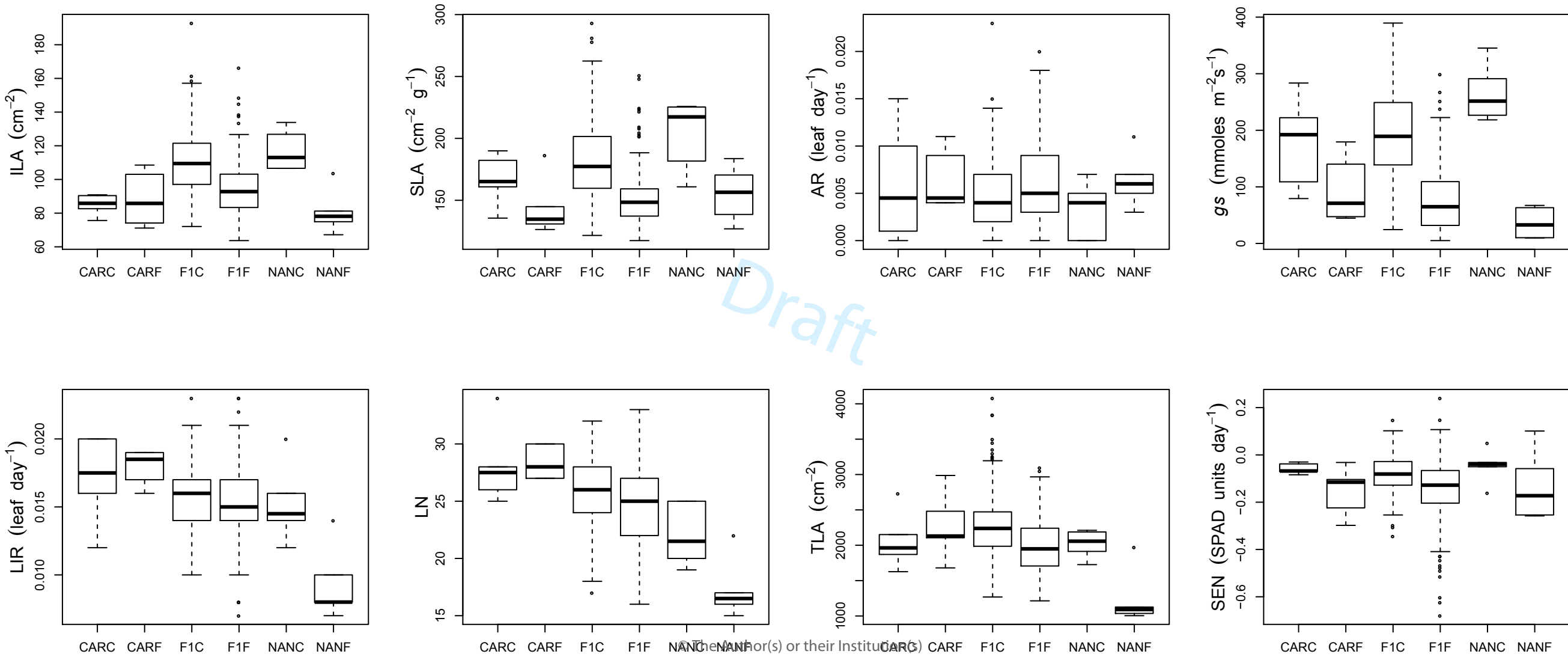
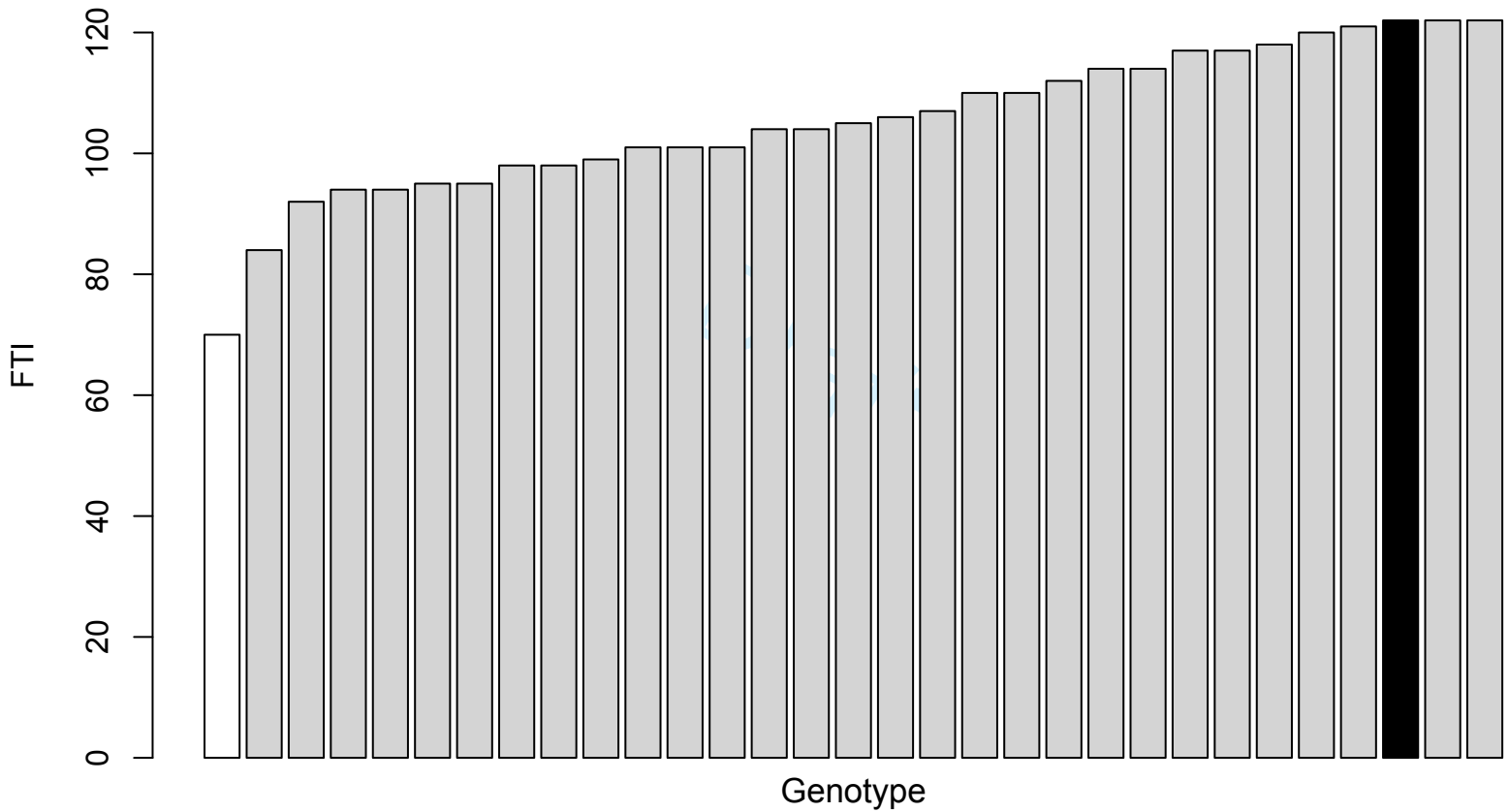


FIG.4



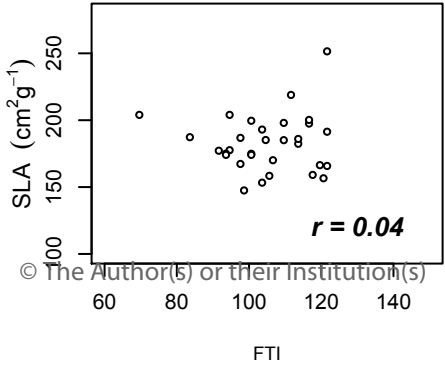
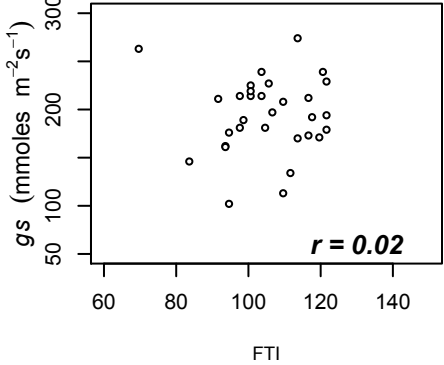
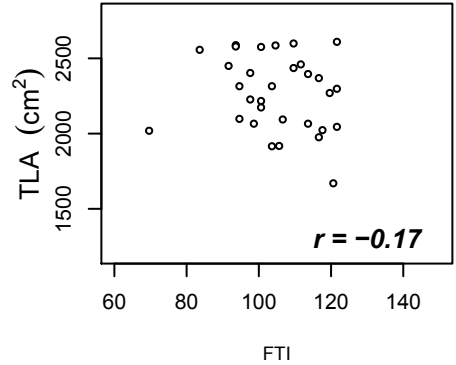
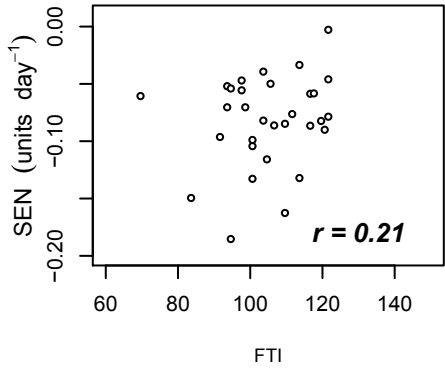
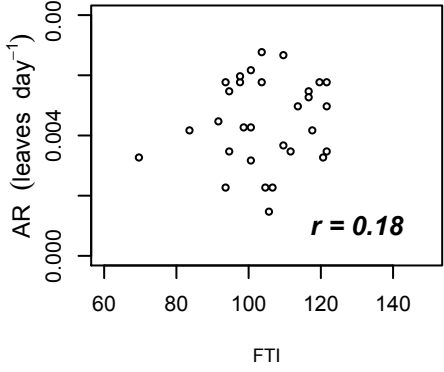
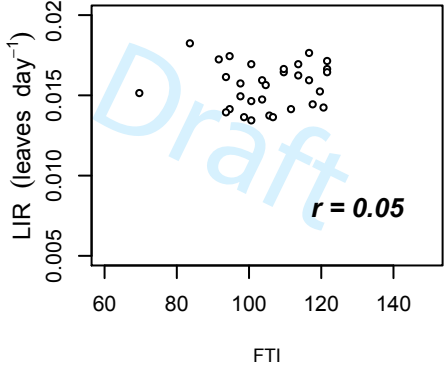
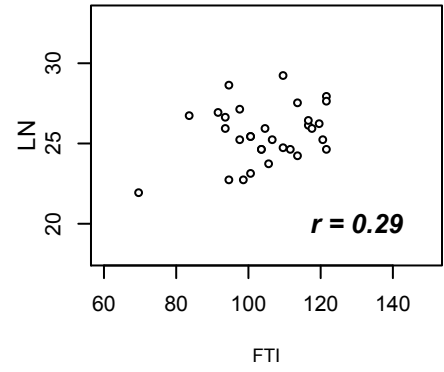
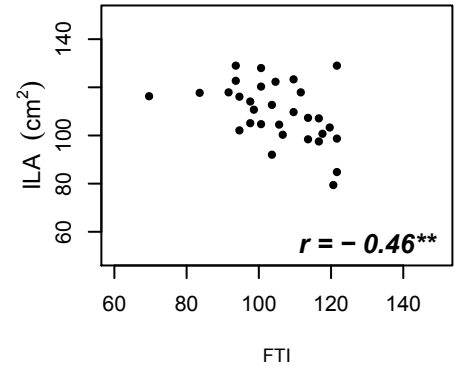
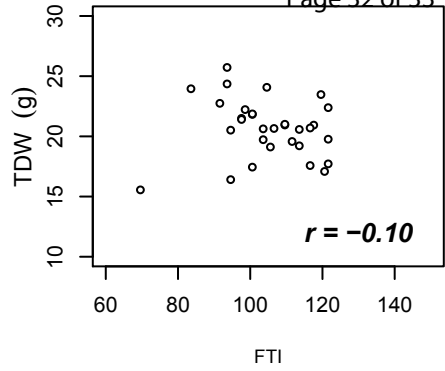
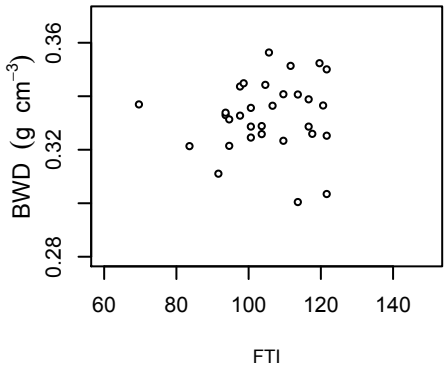
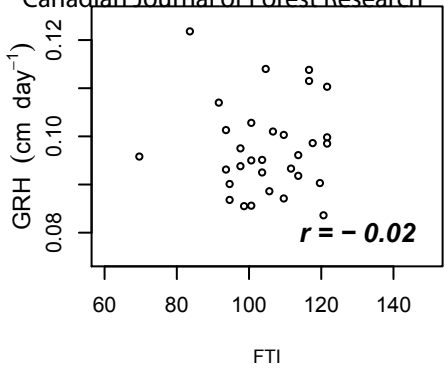
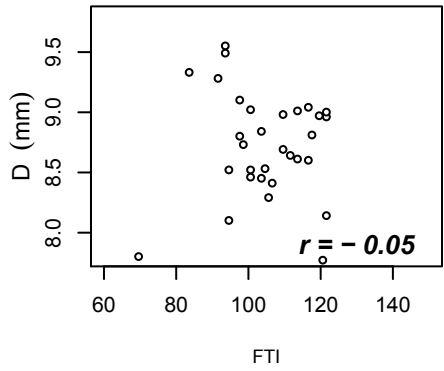
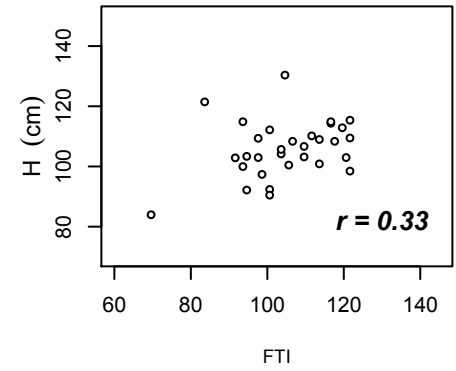


FIG. 6

