

Ð

Heterosis in poplar involves phenotypic stability: cottonwood hybrids outperform their parental species at suboptimal temperatures

Karen P. Zanewich¹, David W. Pearce¹ and Stewart B. Rood^{1,2}

¹Department of Biological Sciences, University of Lethbridge, 4401 University Drive W., Lethbridge AB, Canada T1K 3M4; ²Corresponding author (rood@uleth.ca)

Received July 17, 2017; accepted February 5, 2018; published online March 2, 2018; handling Editor Sean Thomas

Heterosis or hybrid vigor is common in hybrid poplars, and to investigate its occurrence and physiological basis we compared narrowleaf cottonwoods, *Populus angustifolia* James, prairie cottonwoods, *Populus deltoides* Bartr. ex Marsh, and their native intersectional hybrids, $P. \times$ acuminata Rydb., from Alberta, Canada. Clonal replicates from 10 separate trees from each taxon were raised in growth chambers at different temperatures (T). Growth was similarly vigorous across the taxa at 20 and 24 °C, and morphological and physiological traits of the hybrids were generally intermediate between the parental species, or similar to the larger parent, demonstrating additive inheritance or dominance, respectively. Growth declined at 18 and 15 °C particularly in the parental species, and consequently hybrid vigor was displayed for root and especially leaf growth. Stomatal distributions and chlorophyll indices were intermediate in the hybrids and unaffected by T. Foliar nitrogen (N), net assimilation (A_{sat}), stomatal conductance (g_s) and transpiration (E) per unit of leaf area were lower in the hybrids, but the hybrids generally had larger leaf areas. Water-use efficiencies (A_{sat}/g_s) were similar across the taxa and reduced with warming, while nitrogen-use efficiencies (A_{sat}/N) increased. $\delta^{13}C$ was correlated with leaf mass per area, which varied across the taxa. Photosynthesis (A_{sat}) was correlated with chlorophyll content index, N and/or g_s in *P. deltoides* and the hybrids, but not in *P. angustifolia*, indicating different physiological limitations. We conclude that heterosis in *P. × acuminata* results from the compound benefits from multiple dominant traits, and superior growth particularly at suboptimal conditions. This indicates phenotypic stability or environmental range.

Keywords: gas exchange, growth allocation, hybrid poplar, hybrid vigor, Populus deltoides, Populus angustifolia.

Introduction

Some interspecific poplar hybrids display heterosis or hybrid vigor, and thus outperform both of their parental species (Mather and Jinks 1971, Hinckley et al. 1989, Bradshaw et al. 2000). Heterosis is common in some other diploid plants and has contributed substantially to the yield increases of field crops and vegetables over the 20th century (Tollenaar et al. 2004). Despite the importance of heterosis in crops and trees, its physiological basis remains uncertain and this may reflect the involvement of multiple processes and correspondingly, multiple traits and genes (Birchler et al. 2003).

Poplars are deciduous and dioecious trees from the diverse genus *Populus*, which includes about 29 species around the

Northern Hemisphere and parts of Africa (Eckenwalder 1996). The poplars are grouped into sections, a taxonomic category between genus and species, with more continuous variation within sections, and greater morphological distance across sections (Eckenwalder 1996, Hamzeh and Dayanandan 2004). Some intersectional crosses are fertile and probably due to the greater genetic distance, some intersectional hybrids display substantial hybrid vigor (Hinckley et al. 1989, Li et al. 1998, Bradshaw et al. 2000).

Most intersectional hybrids that are commercially grown in plantations are the result of artificial crossing, and intersectional hybridization also occurs naturally in sympatric zones (Eckenwalder 1996, Gom and Rood 1999). Some natural hybrids may provide

© The Author(s) 2018. Published by Oxford University Press. All rights reserved. For Permissions, please email: journals.permissions@oup.com Downloaded from https://academic.oup.com/treephys/article-abstract/38/6/789/4917326 by University of Lethbridge Library user on 05 June 2018 opportunities for vigorous biomass production or display local adaptation suitable for reclamation or other plantings. Additionally, since these are native genotypes, they may be more acceptable for plantings on public lands than artificial hybrids, particularly with parental species that are not locally native. Natural hybrids may also provide insight into the physiological basis for hybrid vigor and contribute to analyses of poplar diversity, adaptation and evolution (Eckenwalder 1996, Whitham et al. 2008).

Southern Alberta, Canada, provides a global center of Populus biodiversity and hybridization, with five Populus species overlapping and four interbreeding (Brayshaw 1965, Gom and Rood 1999, Floate 2004, Cooke and Rood 2007). These include three section Tacamahaca species, including the narrowleaf cottonwood, Populus angustifolia James, the black cottonwood, Populus trichocarpa Torr. & Gray, and the closely related balsam poplar, Populus balsamifera L. Here, the section Aigeiros prairie cottonwood, Populus deltoides Bartr. ex Marsh, reaches its western and northern limit and interbreeds with the other species to produce natural intersectional hybrids. We have been studying these cottonwoods, or riparian poplars, in their native floodplain zones and in nursery and greenhouse environments (Rood et al. 2013, 2017, D.W. Pearce, S.G. Woodman, M.G. Letts and S.B. Rood, submitted) and in this study, we investigated their growth and physiology in growth chambers, which permitted investigation into their responses to temperature (T).

We compared a triplet of taxa, with P. angustifolia, P. deltoides and their natural intersectional hybrids of lanceleaf cottonwood, P. x acuminata Rydb. These taxa occur in an overlapping sequence along river valleys from P. angustifolia in the cooler foothills, $P. \times$ acuminata through the transition and P. deltoides in the warmer prairie ecoregion (Kalischuk et al. 2001, Floate 2004). We expected that the cottonwoods would differ in their T adaptation and to investigate this we included multiple, clonally replicate genotypes of each taxon and provided a sequence of T that would reflect spring warming with climate change (Beaubin and Freeland 2000). We expected growth rates to increase with warming from 15 °C at least to 20 °C (Domingo and Gordon 1974) providing an environmental (E) effect, and differences across the three taxa, providing a genetic (G) effect. Reflecting the trees' geographic distributions we expected a genotype \times environment (G \times E) interaction, with *P. angusti*folia demonstrating proportionally increased growth at cooler T, while P. deltoides would display more vigorous growth with the warmer T (Figure 1).

We predicted that the intersectional hybrids would typically display intermediate performance, thus displaying additive inheritance or for some traits, dominance, matching the superior parent (Mather and Jinks 1971, Lojewski et al. 2009). With a combination of dominant traits, the hybrids might display heterosis particularly at the favorable T with the view that the genotype defines the upper limit for growth rate, and heterosis

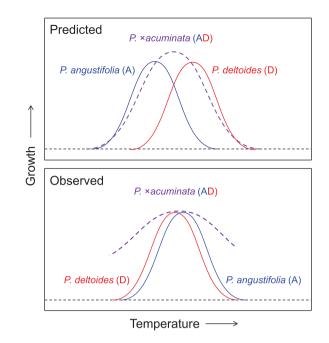


Figure 1. Schematics displaying the predicted (top) and observed (bottom) responses to temperature of two native *Populus* species and their intersectional hybrids.

would especially be expressed with favorable environmental conditions, providing another G \times E interaction (Rood et al. 1985, Blum et al. 1990). We investigated growth and foliar physiological characteristics that might provide an ecophysiological basis for the G, E and G \times E effects (Tschaplinski and Blake 1989, Gornall and Guy 2007, Kaluthota et al. 2015).

Materials and methods

Plant materials and growth conditions

Visually healthy shoots were cut from naturally occurring cottonwood trees in the Helen Schuler Nature Reserve along the Oldman River in Lethbridge, AB, Canada (49°70′, 112°86′ W, 829 m above sea level, Rood et al. 2013, Flanagan et al. 2017) in late March and early April 2012. Long shoots containing only the previous year's growth were cut from five female and five male trees that were spaced more than 50 m apart to avoid clonal ramets, from each of three taxa: the narrowleaf cottonwood, *P. angustifolia* James (A), the prairie cottonwood, *P. deltoides* Bartr. ex Marsh. (D), and their naturally occurring intersectional hybrids of lanceleaf cottonwood, *P. × acuminata* Rydb. (AD).

The cuttings were stored at 5 °C for ~8 weeks, the terminal buds were excised, and the branches were cut into 10 cm lengths with the uppermost bud ~1 cm below the cut. Cuttings were soaked in tap water for 20 h at 22 °C and 20 uniform cuttings from each genotype were selected. Groups of five were randomly selected and vertically stuck in each of four 15 cm pots containing water-saturated Sun Gro Sunshine Mix 1, with *Sphagnum* peat moss, perlite and verticulite (Sun Gro Horticulture Canada Ltd,

Temperature and heterosis in cottonwoods 791

Seba Beach, AB, Canada). These were placed in Conviron (Winnipeg, MB, Canada) E15 CMP4030 reach-in growth chambers programmed for day/night (16 h/8 h) lighting and T of 16 °C, for establishment at the same T.

After 2 weeks, a few saplings that displayed poor growth were replaced and if a second stem had emerged it was pruned to ensure a single dominant stem. One pot for each genotype was then placed in each of four growth chambers with day/ night T of 15/14, 18/16, 20/18 or 24/20 °C; the average T in Lethbridge in May, during spring regrowth, is 18/4 °C. We refer to the treatments by the day T, since the night T would have limited influence (Frantz et al. 2004). The study design thus included 10 genotypes for each of three taxa, four T treatments, and five clonal replicates for each condition: $10 \times 3 \times 4 \times 5$ replicates = 600 study saplings.

The 16 h photoperiod included 1 h dusk and dawn periods with one-half illumination. Lighting was provided by incandescent and metal halide lamps that delivered 620 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ photosynthetically active radiation at the soil surface, and relative humidity averaged 90%. Cuttings were watered to saturation daily to avoid drought stress and fertilized biweekly with Miracle-Gro 24-8-16 water-soluble fertilizer (Scotts Canada, Ltd, Mississauga, ON, Canada), commencing 3 weeks after sticking.

Foliar physiology

Gas exchange was measured in a 5-day period after 8 weeks growth in the different T conditions and 2 weeks before harvest. Due to the time required for measurements, 8 of the 10 genotypes in each taxon were randomly selected, and for these one plant in each treatment was used and a fully expanded neoformed lower leaf was measured. We used a LI-6400XT portable photosynthesis system, fitted with a CO₂ mixer and a 6400-40 LCF light source (LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, NE, USA). Light was set to $1500 \,\mu\text{mol}\,\text{m}^{-1}\,\text{s}^{-1}$ photosynthetic photon flux density, reference CO_2 was 400 μ mol mol⁻¹, and the leaf-to-air vapor pressure deficit was maintained at 0.9 kPa (based on leaf T) through automatic control of air flow. The cuvette block T was set at 15 °C, 17.5 °C, 20 °C or 22.5 °C for the different treatments, resulting in mean leaf T of 16.4 °C, 18.8 °C, 20.9 °C and 23.7 °C, respectively. Light-saturated net CO₂ assimilation (A_{sat}), stomatal conductance of water vapor (g_s) and transpiration (E) were measured and internal CO2 is expressed relative to the regulated ambient CO_2 (c_i/c_a). Because the vapor pressure deficit was stabilized, g_s and *E* were tightly correlated. Instantaneous (intrinsic) water-use efficiency (WUE_i) was calculated as A_{sat}/g_s .

On the same leaf, the chlorophyll content index (CCI; calculated from absorbance at 653 and 931 nm) was measured with a CCM-200 chlorophyll content meter (Opti-Sciences, Hudson, NH, USA). We had earlier determined that in *P. angustifolia* CCI was strongly correlated with foliar chlorophylls (Kaluthota et al. 2015).

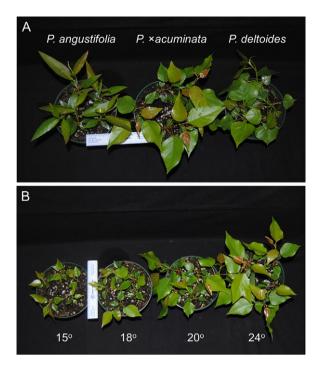


Figure 2. Photographs of the 5 week old *Populus* saplings from two parental taxa, *P. angustifolia* and *P. deltoides* and their *P. × acuminata* hybrids grown at 24 °C (A), and *P. × acuminata* grown at four temperatures (B). Each pot contains five replicate saplings of a single, vigorous genotype.

Growth

Observations, leaf counts and height measurements were made weekly, and after 10 weeks plants were harvested by removing the soil and root plug from each pot, placing this in water and gently separating the roots from the potting media. With rinsing, the roots were readily separated from the growth medium and while some fine roots would have been lost with harvesting, the values are probably proportionally representative. The saplings were then dissected into leaves, stems and roots, and leaf areas were measured with a LI-COR LI-3000 Area Meter with a transparent conveyer belt assembly (LI-COR Instruments, Lincoln, NE, USA). All organs were oven dried at 80 °C for 1 week and weighed to determine dry mass (biomass). The leaves that were used for leaf gas exchange and CCI measurements were harvested separately, digitally scanned and areas were determined with WinFOLIA Pro 2007 (Regent Instruments Inc., Québec, QC, Canada). Those leaves were air-dried and weighed, and values were added to complete leaf measures for each sapling.

The measured leaf from each genotype and T treatment was finely ground and ~4.5 mg of the fine powder was sent for combustion and elemental analysis at the University of California, Davis, Stable Isotope Facility. Carbon and nitrogen (N) contents were determined along with the carbon isotope composition (δ^{13} C) with a PDZ Europa ANCA-GSL elemental analyzer interfaced to a PDZ Europa 20-20 isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Sercon, Ltd, Cheshire, UK) and values were calculated relative to international

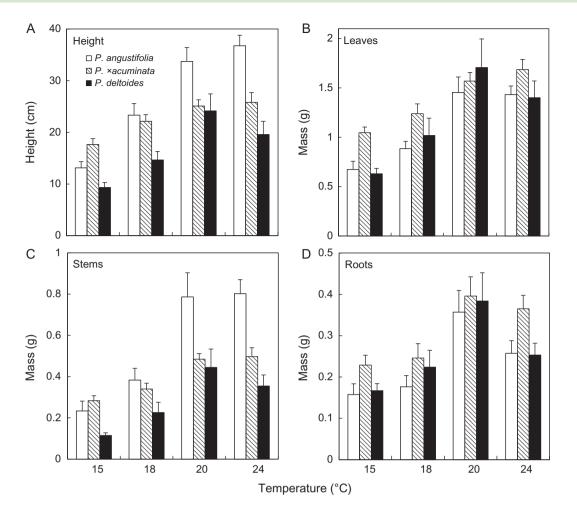


Figure 3. Growth characteristics of two *Populus* species and their hybrids at four temperatures (mean \pm SE).

standards of Vienna PeeDee Belemnite. Leaf N content was expressed as concentration and relative to leaf area (g m^{-2}).

Stomatal density

To assess stomatal density, a 0.38 cm² disk was hole-punched from the widest portion of the dried sample leaf from each genotype and treatment, avoiding the midrib and major veins. The disk was dissected and the halves were mounted on aluminum stubs with double-sided adhesive tape, with either adaxial or abaxial (lower) leaf surfaces exposed. Observations were made at 300x magnification using a Hitachi TM1000 Scanning Electron Microscope (Hitachi High Technologies America, Dallas, TX, USA). Digital images were compiled from three randomly selected fields of view for each leaf surface and uploaded into ImageJ (National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA) for stomatal counts. Stomatal densities were determined for each surface, and the ratio of adaxial to abaxial stomatal density was calculated.

Statistical analyses

For analyses of variance, the values for each characteristic were first averaged from the five or four clonal replicates for each genotype in each T treatment. This avoided pseudoreplication and there were subsequently 10 values to represent the 10 genotypes for each taxon in each treatment ($10 \times 3 \times 4 = 120$ values). Since the same genotypes were included across the T treatments our primary analyses were two-factor linear mixed model analyses of variance, with SPSS Statistics 19 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA). Genotypes were treated as 'subjects' in random intercept models, and T treatment and taxon were treated as factors with a factorial analysis to investigate three effects: taxon, T and the taxon \times T interaction.

Bivariate correlations were explored for all growth and foliar physiology characters, considering individual or combined taxa across the treatments. Subsequently, multiple linear regressions were undertaken to consider correspondences with two or more variables.

Inheritance and heterosis

Inheritance patterns were quantified by two methods that compared the performance of the hybrids with that of the parents (Mather and Jinks 1971, Solieman et al. 2013). The potence ratio (PR) represents the overall degree of dominance as:

$$PR = (hybrid - mp)/((P_2 - P_1)/2)$$

Table 1. Results from mixed model two-factor ANOVAs with probabilities for effects of taxon, temperature and the taxon × temperature interaction. Trends are italicized (P < 0.1), significant effects are in bold (P < 0.05) or bold italics (P < 0.01), and '0.001' generally indicates P < 0.001.

	Effect				
Characteristic	Taxon	Temperature	Taxon × Temp		
Morphology					
Root mass (RM)	0.185	0.001	0.742		
Stem mass (SM)	0.001	0.001	0.001		
Leaf mass (LM)	0.102	0.001	0.354		
Total mass (M)	0.238	0.001	0.305		
Shoot/root (SM \pm LM)/RM	0.021	0.005	0.066		
Leaf number (LN)	0.048	0.001	0.013		
Leaf area (LA)	0.022	0.001	0.143		
Sapling height	0.001	0.001	0.001		
Mortality	0.001	0. 016	0.378		
Foliar physiology					
Leaf area ratio (LA/RM)	0.146	0.001	0.005		
Leaf mass per area (LMA; LM/LA)	0.001	0.001	0.332		
Chlorophyll content index (CCI)	0.001	0.829	0.546		
N/area	0.001	0.001	0.210		
N concentration	0.001	0.001	0.609		
Stomatal density (SD)	0.001	0.001	0.380		
Stomatal conductance (q_s)	0.001	0.001	0.010		
Net assimilation (A_{sat})	0.009	0.557	0.080		
CO_2 internal/ambient (c_i/c_a)	0.492	0. 004	0.589		
Nitrogen-use efficiency (NUE; $A_{sat}/(N/area))^{1}$	0.109	0.001	0.533		
Water-use efficiency (WUE _i ; A_{sat}/g_s)	0.582	0.001	0.686		
δ ¹³ C	0.538	0.001	0.627		

¹Also referred to as photosynthetic NUE.

Table 2. Bivariate Pearson product–moment correlations for growth characteristics across all taxa and temperature combinations (n = 118). *P < 0.05 (bold); and **P < 0.01 (bold italics), red or blue indicate positive or negative associations, respectively.

	SM	LM	М	Sh/R	LN	LA	Height	Mortality
Root mass	0.663**	0.847**	0.869**	-0.328**	0.617**	0.734**	0.564**	-0.180
Stem mass (SM)		0.764**	0.872**	0.095	0.883**	0.624**	0.917**	-0.127
Leaf mass (LM)			0.977**	-0.060	0.756**	0.931**	0.743**	-0.221*
Total mass (M)				-0.061	0.832**	0.872**	0.826**	-0.195*
Shoot/root (Sh/R)					0.021	-0.039	0.211*	0.053
Leaf number (LN)						0.673**	0.824**	-0.163
Leaf area (LA)							0.633**	-0.420**
Height								-0.096

where mp = the midparent value, or parental mean, and P₁ and P₂ represent the lower and higher value parents. PR values around O indicate incomplete dominance with the hybrids being intermediate between the parents and PR values around -1 or 1 indicate dominance of the smaller or larger characteristic, respectively. Potence ratio values substantially below -1 indicate hybrid break-down, and values exceeding 1 indicate overdominance or hybrid vigor.

Midparent indices, which are also referred to as midparent heterosis values, represent the percent increase or decrease in hybrid performance relative to the midparent value:

Midparent index (%) = (((hybrid $-mp)/mp) \times 100)$

Results

Growth patterns and correlations

The study involved two experimental factors: (i) three naturally occurring cottonwood taxa including two species and their native hybrids, and (ii) four temperature (T) treatments. Both experimental factors, taxon and T, produced major effects relative to sapling growth. By 5 weeks there were apparent differences across the taxa, including differences in leaf shapes and sizes (Figure 2A). At that time, there were clear differences in growth characteristics across the T treatments, with progressively increasing size with warming T (Figure 2B). There was progressive growth over the study with consistent patterns across the taxa relative to heights, which were measured about weekly (see Figure S1 available as Supplementary Data at *Tree Physiology* Online). The heights displayed differences in the rankings of the taxa across the T treatments, with the hybrids being taller in the cool condition, while *P. angustifolia* was tallest with the warmer T (Figure 3A).

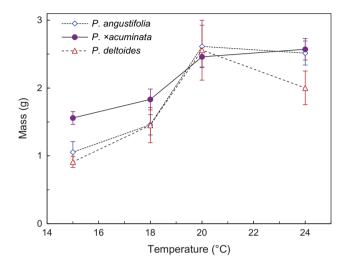


Figure 4. Whole plant dry masses (mean \pm SE) of two *Populus* species and their hybrids grown at four temperatures.

After 10 weeks, the harvest results confirmed major growth differences across the taxa, with the mixed model ANOVA revealing significant effects for six of the nine measures (Table 1). The T treatment was also very influential, with significant effects on all nine growth measures. There were also some significant taxon \times T (or G \times E) interactions, revealing that the different cottonwood types responded differently to the T relative to some growth measures (Table 1).

The growth patterns across taxa and T treatments displayed two primary patterns. Height, stem mass and leaf numbers were strongly correlated (Table 2) and displayed progressive increases with increasing T, particularly for *P. angustifolia*, which was taller and with larger stems (Figure 3A and C) and more leaves with the warm T (~12 leaves for all taxa at 15 °C, and 19 leaves for *P. angustifolia* at 20 and 24 °C vs 16 for the other taxa). For these traits, the hybrid *P. x acuminata* exceeded the parents at the lowest T and was then intermediate between the two parents at higher T (Figure 3).

The second, slightly different pattern, was displayed for the other primary growth traits including root mass and total leaf area and leaf mass. These traits were strongly correlated (Table 2) with slightly lower associations for the more variable hybrids (e.g., leaf mass vs root mass: $r^2 = 0.673$, 0.598 and 0.835 for A, AD and D, respectively). These traits displayed common patterns, with increase from 15 to 20 °C and then levelling off or decreasing at 24 °C (Figure 3B and D). Across the

Table 3. Bivariate Pearson product–moment correlations for foliar physiological characteristics across all temperature treatments for the three taxa (A = P. angustifolia, D = P. deltoides and AD = P. x acuminata, n = 32 to 38) with abbreviations as in Table 1. *P < 0.05 (bold) and **P < 0.01 (bold italics), red or blue indicate positive or negative associations, respectively.

	Taxon	N/area	LMA	SD	gs	A _{sat}	NUE	WUE _i	$\delta^{13}C$
CCI	А	-0.052	0.157	0.202	0.260	0.154	0.204	-0.192	-0.034
	AD	0.544**	0.371*	-0.151	-0.195	0.274	-0.334	0.443**	-0.206
	D	0.246	0.391*	0.203	0.409*	0.694**	0.302	-0.112	-0.073
N/area	А		0.542**	-0.305	-0.440*	0.341	-0.687**	0.569**	-0.109
	AD		0.547**	-0.134	-0.020	0.632**	- 0.480 **	0.545**	-0.210
	D		0.689**	-0.219	-0.050	0.455**	-0.660**	0.323	0.155
LMA	А			-0.301	-0.364*	0.223	-0.420*	0.422*	-0.521**
	AD			0.036	-0.035	0.515**	-0.320	0.488**	-0.188
	D			-0.037	-0.088	0.208	-0.580**	0.248	-0.273
SD	А				0.749**	-0.113	0.386*	-0.547**	0.351*
	AD				0.219	0.034	0.149	-0.112	0.468**
	D				0.506**	0.169	0.381*	-0.398*	0.004
g₅	А					0.002	0.393*	-0.830**	0.381*
-	AD					0.512**	0.583**	-0.634**	0.463**
	D					0.449**	0.455**	-0.852**	0.182
A _{sat}	А						0.397*	0.419*	0.402*
	AD						0.356*	0.294	0.221
	D						0.341	0.004	0.256
NUE	А							-0.213	0.504**
	AD							-0.317	0.452**
	D							-0.370*	0.058
WUEi	А								-0.156
	AD								-0.251
	D								-0.013

Temperature and heterosis in cottonwoods 795

taxa, the hybrids had increased root mass and leaf areas at the lower T while the three taxa were similar at 20 °C. At the warmest T (24 °C), the hybrids had increased root mass and apparently larger leaf areas.

The sum of leaf, stem and root masses provided the total plant mass (Figure 4). This was tightly correlated with the leaf mass (Table 2), which provided the largest contribution to the harvested samples. The overall plant growth pattern (Figure 4) consequently largely matched the patterns for leaf mass, with increasing plant sizes from 15 to 20 °C and similar sizes at 24 °C for the hybrids and for *P. angustifolia* due to stem mass contributions (Figure 3C).

Foliar physiology

The study revealed substantial differences in most of the foliar characteristics that included morphological traits, chemical composition, gas exchange rates and derived ratios (Table 1). The study outcomes for the foliar characteristics were fairly similar to that for the growth traits, with 7 of 12 foliar traits displaying significant effects across taxa, 9 of 12 demonstrating significant effects from the T treatments and 2 of the 12 traits indicating taxon x T treatment (G x E) interactions.

Foliar morphological traits varied across the conditions with significant differences in the leaf area ratio (leaf area/root mass) and leaf mass per area (LMA, Table 1), which would increase with increasing leaf thickness and/or density. Leaf mass per area was positively correlated with CCl for two taxa, and strongly correlated with foliar N in all taxa (Table 3). Stomatal density increased 35–41% with warming T, and varied consistently across taxa, being lowest in the hybrids and highest in *P. deltoides* (Figure 5B). Stomatal distribution between the leaf surfaces varied substantially across the taxa and was largely consistent across T, with *P. deltoides* having stomata equally distributed between surfaces (Figure 5A) while *P. angustifolia* and *P.* \times *acuminata* were more hypostomatous, with the adaxial: abaxial ratio intermediate in the hybrids.

For foliar chemistry, CCI was quite consistent across T and varied across the taxa (Table 1), being higher in *P. angustifolia*, lower in *P. deltoides* and intermediate in the hybrids (Figure 6A). Foliar N content per unit leaf area was positively correlated with CCI (Table 3), varied across taxa and progressively declined with warming T (Table 1, Figure 6B). Since LMA varied across taxa and T, the N content per area differed somewhat from the N concentration within the leaves. Both representations demonstrated highly significant effects (Table 1) and we emphasize the patterns and correlations with N/area since gas exchange was assessed relative to leaf area.

From the gas exchange measurements, net assimilation (A_{sat}) was highest in *P. angustifolia* and generally similar in *P. × acuminata* and *P. deltoides* (Figure 6C). However, A_{sat} was particularly reduced in *P. deltoides* at low T, providing an apparent taxon × T interaction (Table 1, Figure 6C). Across the study conditions,

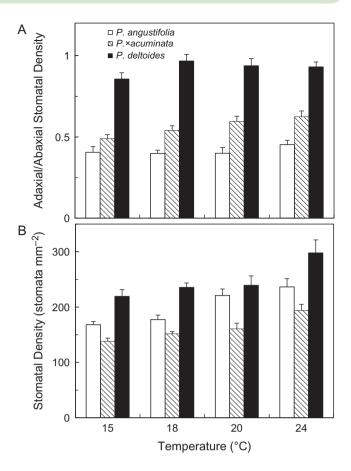


Figure 5. The (A) adaxial/abaxial stomatal density ratios (mean \pm SE), and (B) total stomatal densities of two *Populus* species and their hybrids at four temperatures.

 A_{sat} was correlated with CCl only in *P. deltoides* and with foliar N in *P. deltoides* and the hybrids (Table 3, Figure 7). Stomatal conductance (g_s) was correlated with A_{sat} in *P. deltoides* and the hybrids (Table 3).

Stomatal conductance was also correlated with stomatal density, with somewhat different relationships for the three taxa (Figure 8). As a ratio of A_{sat} and g_s , which is correlated with E, the instantaneous water-use efficiency (WUE_i) was correlated with those measures, especially g_s (Table 3). The primary influence on WUE_i was T condition (Table 1), with g_s increasing and WUE_i decreasing with warming T (Figure 6D and E).

Foliar δ^{13} C was not correlated with WUE_i (Table 3), very similar across the taxa and more negative at the coolest T (Figure 6F). Foliar δ^{13} C was most strongly correlated with LMA, with shifts in the associations across the taxa (Table 3). It was also correlated with stomatal density and with the gas exchange rates for A_{sat} and g_s (Table 3).

The correlations between foliar physiological characteristics and growth were of particular interest (Table 4). The strongest associations were with N and these negative correlations may be due to the dilution of N within larger plants, suggesting N limitation throughout the study. Some growth measures were

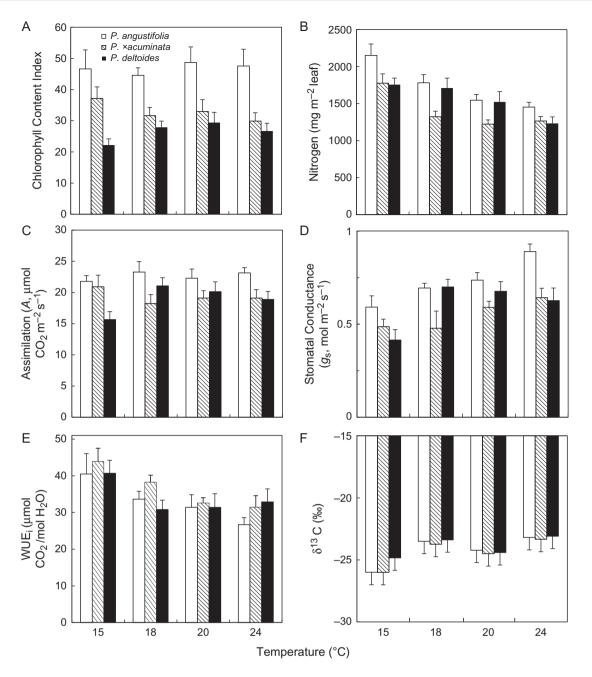


Figure 6. Foliar characteristics of two Populus species and their hybrids at four temperatures (mean ± SE).

positively correlated with g_s and subsequently WUE_i was negatively correlated with some growth measures (Table 4). Chlorophyll content index was correlated with height (Table 4) and stem mass (r = 0.354, P < 0.01) and largely reflected *P. angustifolia* being taller and with darker green leaves (Figures 4 and 6A). Notably, A_{sat} was not significantly correlated with the growth measures across the experimental conditions (Table 4). Foliar δ^{13} C was correlated with the shoot to root ratio (Table 4) and the leaf area ratio (r = 0.446, P < 0.01), measures that may relate to the balances of transpirational surface vs water uptake capacity.

Inheritance and heterosis

The extent of heterosis or hybrid vigor was similarly assessed with the potence ratios (PR, Table 5) and midparent indices (Figure 9). The hybrids displayed heterosis for the morphological characters except leaf number, especially at 15 °C. Heterosis was also displayed at 18 °C but with reduced PR and midparent indices. Dominance was displayed at 20 °C and overdominance returned for leaf area and mass at 24 °C.

In contrast, the physiological characteristics for these hybrids displayed negative PR and midparent indices (Table 5, Figure 9). Across the T, the hybrids showed reduced physiological

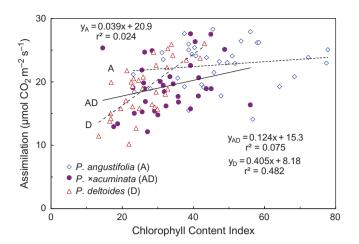


Figure 7. The relationships between assimilation vs chlorophyll content index for genotypes of two *Populus* species and their hybrid combination grown at four temperatures, with linear regressions plotted.

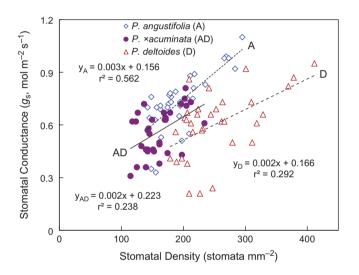


Figure 8. Stomatal conductance (g_s) vs stomatal density for genotypes of two *Populus* species and their hybrid combination, grown at four temperatures, with linear regressions plotted.

performance relative to the midparent values, with the exception of similar or slightly increased conductance and assimilation rates at $15 \,^{\circ}$ C (Figure 9). Thus, in this study, these hybrids displayed heterosis for growth at the cool T but not for the foliar ecophysiological characteristics that were assessed on a per unit leaf area basis.

Discussion

In assessing the patterns across this study, it should be recognized that each T treatment was provided by a separate growth chamber, introducing vulnerability from pseudoreplication (Hurlbert 1984). With this study design, unanticipated variation in a particular growth chamber could confound the effects from the T treatment. Conversely, the plants appeared similarly healthy in the different growth chambers and the common characteristics for

some traits, and progressive growth patterns for other traits, suggests uniformity. There could have been an artifact if, with limited air exchange, the warmer treatments might have partially depleted CO₂ due to the larger plants (Bernier et al. 1994). This could provide an indirect and artificial influence on foliar δ^{13} C, complicating the interpretation of slight differences among treatments (Edwards et al. 2009).

The results may be considered relative to the two predicted G × E interactions. We expected P. deltoides to display a different T response than *P. angustifolia*, with a shift to reflect adaptation to warmer T (Figure 1), reflecting its occurrence in the warmer prairie region (Gom and Rood 1999, Kalischuk et al. 2001, Floate 2004). Opposing this prediction, the two species displayed very similar T responses, and there was even a slight contrary trend, with the P. angustifolia clones apparently demonstrating greater growth at the warmest T, 24 °C (Figure 4). As a likely contributing influence, the source trees all occurred in the same woodland and might thus be adapted to the same T regime. Within poplar species, there is substantial localized clinal variation (Bassman and Zwier 1991, Dunlap et al. 1993, Rood et al. 2007, Keller et al. 2011, Soolanayakanahally et al. 2015) and thus rather than indicating that these two species display common T responses, this study may indicate that cottonwood genotypes of different species that occur in a common location could be similarly adapted to the associated T regime.

While the two parental species displayed similar growth responses, there were differences in foliar physiological characteristics. There were differences in stomatal distributions and densities and these were somewhat correlated with stomatal conductance, which influences CO_2 availability and transpiration. Photosynthesis also requires the light harvesting complex that includes chlorophylls that are indicated with the CCI and the Calvin Cycle enzymes including RuBisCO, which could be correlated with foliar N. The observed correlations across the genotypes within the taxa suggest that these were limiting for *P. deltoides* and the hybrids but not in *P. angustifolia*. Thus, there are some common features but some important ecophysiological differences across these cottonwood species, consistent with D.W. Pearce, S.G. Woodman, M.G. Letts and S.B. Rood (submitted).

Our second prediction anticipated another $G \times E$ interaction, relating particularly to the intersectional hybrids. We expected the hybrids to display an intermediate T response and further anticipated that some hybrids might thrive particularly around the optimal T and thus demonstrate hybrid vigor (Figure 1). This followed from the view that heterozygosity could provide a higher growth rate capacity, but that this would be particularly expressed with favorable conditions since unfavorable environmental conditions could similarly limit the growth of hybrids and their parents (Rood et al. 1985, Blum et al. 1990, Betrán et al. 2003).

The study results opposed that prediction, and contrarily, demonstrated superior growth of the hybrids particularly under the less favorable, suboptimal T. With the cooler T, the hybrids

Downloaded from https://academic.oup.com/treephys/article-abstract/38/6/789/4917326 by University of Lethbridge Library user on 05 June 2018

Table 4. Bivariate Pearson product-moment correlations between growth characteristics and foliar physiological characteristics across temperature
treatments by taxon. Taxon and character abbreviations as in Tables 1 and 3, $n = 32-38$, * $P < 0.05$ (bold) and ** $P < 0.01$ (bold italics), red or blue
indicate positive or negative relationships, respectively.

	Taxon	CCI	N/area	g_{s}	A _{sat}	NUE	WUE _i	$\delta^{13}C$
Root mass	А	-0.037	-0.424**	0.006	-0.137	0.174	-0.079	-0.218
	AD	0.023	-0.299	0.149	-0.148	0.227	-0.270	0.076
	D	0.198	-0.373*	0.346*	0.025	0.436*	-0.381*	0.059
Stem mass	А	0.115	-0.557**	0.248	-0.093	0.353	-0.243	0.073
	AD	-0.102	-0.474**	0.210	-0.205	0.326	-0.399*	0.149
	D	0.177	-0.399*	0.291	0.107	0.535**	-0.287	0.150
Leaf mass	А	0.150	-0.601**	0.349*	-0.151	0.352	-0.367*	0.057
	AD	-0.117	-0.390*	0.237	-0.099	0.338	-0.322	0.232
	D	0.236	-0.414*	0.324	0.125	0.543**	-0.309	0.106
Total mass	А	0.143	-0.598**	0.298	-0.142	0.356*	-0.330	0.029
	AD	-0.119	-0.403**	0.246	-0.114	0.356*	-0.348*	0.213
	D	0.227	-0.412*	0.322	0.112	0.532**	-0.314	0.099
Leaf area	А	0.106	-0.580**	0.404*	-0.133	0.352	-0.397*	0.185
	AD	-0.266	-0.450**	0.296	-0.111	0.434*	-0.400*	0.366*
	D	0.224	-0.299	0.266	0.214	0.484**	-0.196	0.149
Leaf area ratio	А	0.055	0.084	0.560**	0.064	0.250	-0.419*	0.594**
	AD	-0.277	-0.104	0.033	0.012	0.094	-0.035	0.219
	D	-0.052	0.082	-0.108	0.355*	0.128	0.329	0.394*

Table 5. Potence ratios (PR), quantifying the inheritance pattern for growth and physiological characteristics across (day) temperatures. Recognizing variation, values between ~0.5 and 1.5 indicate dominance, with the hybrids similar to the larger (+ve, red) or smaller parent (–ve, blue, –1.5 to -0.5). Values >~1.5 or <-1.5 indicate overdominance, with the hybrids being larger or smaller than either parent (bold).

	Temperature (°C)						
Character	15	18	20	24			
Morphology							
Root mass	14.0	1.93	_1	53.5 ²			
Stem mass	1.85	_	-0.77	-			
Leaf mass	17.8	4.30	-	17.5 ²			
Total mass	8.06	115 ²	-	1.22			
Leaf number	-	_	-1.17	0.51			
Leaf area	3.29	0.86	-0.60	13.2			
Height	3.39	0.73	-	-			
Foliar physiology							
CCI	-	-0.56	-0.63	-0.70			
N/area	-0.90	-12.24 ²	-	_			
Stomatal density	-2.2	-1.9	-7.5	-1.2			
gs	-	_	-	-0.88			
A _{sat}	0.72	-	-	-			

¹No significant difference across taxa or PR between –0.5 and 0.5.

²Similar parental values inflate the PR.

produced larger leaf areas than the parental species and we conclude that these larger photosynthetic surfaces, rather than photosynthetic rates, were especially associated with hybrid vigor, consistent with findings by Guet et al. (2015). While contrary to our prediction, the finding of increasing heterosis at low T is consistent with prior studies with maize and rice (McWilliam and Griffing 1965, Kaw and Khush 1985).

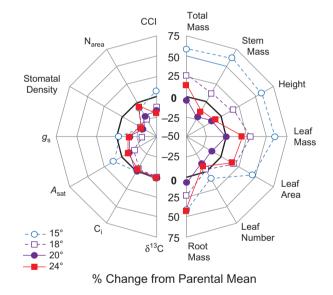


Figure 9. Midparent indices, or midparent heterosis values for morphological and physiological characters of *P*. \times *acuminata* hybrids relative to its parental species, grown at four temperatures. The values indicate the % change of the hybrids relative to the midparent value, the mean of the two parents. The '0' position with the darker ring indicates that the hybrid mean equaled the parental mean, while values outside or inside indicate higher or lower mean hybrid values, respectively.

Prior observations of hybrid superiority in unfavorable environments led to the proposal that this provides a general foundation for heterosis (Pedersen 1968). This theory was supported with subsequent studies with maize and *Arabidopsis* and persists as one primary theory for hybrid vigor (Griffing and Zsiros 1971, Groszmann et al. 2015), although the collective literature lacks consensus (Blum 2013). As a physiological foundation, it was proposed that the hybrid superiority across varying or stressful environments would reflect the enzymatic diversity that accompanies heterozygosity and this principle of enzymatic polymorphism has some conceptual and empirical support (Berger 1976, Brown 1979). However, while this may contribute, it is likely that multiple physiological processes combine to enable heterosis in hybrid poplars and other plants (Rood et al. 1988, Bradshaw et al. 2000, Birchler et al. 2003).

While the molecular basis is uncertain, superior hybrid performance under suboptimal environmental conditions has been repeatedly observed and has been described as phenotypic stability (Lewis 1954, Becker 1981, Fridman 2015). This probably applies to T and water status, but not nutrient availability, which apparently similarly limits growth in hybrids and parents (Pedersen 1968, Betrán et al. 2003), somewhat similar to our findings. Relative to the collective outcomes, while growth may be more vigorous in hybrids from genetically diverse parents, there can also be negative consequences of interspecific hybridization, which may be regarded as hybrid breakdown, and in poplars this commonly represents increased vulnerability to pests and disease (Whitham 1989, Kalischuk et al. 1997). We thus conclude that there may be physiological benefits vs ecological costs of intersectional hybridization in poplars.

Climate change

A final consideration relates to the prospective future woodland populations and the importance of natural interspecific Populus hybrids. These include intrasectional hybrids that display continuous variation and limited heterosis or hybrid break-down (Campbell et al. 1993), and the more distant intersectional hybrids that can provide fast-growing hybrid poplars (Bradshaw et al. 2000). If interspecific poplar hybrids commonly display broader ranges of environmental adaptation than parental species, they might be better able to withstand the progressive changes in T and water regime accompanying anthropogenic climate change (Stromberg et al. 2010, Perry et al. 2012, Rood et al. 2013). With phenotypic stability from heterozygosity, the native hybrids might thus be more tolerant of changing environments and this could broaden hybrid zones and increase introgression and gene flow across the poplar species (Keim et al. 1989, Whitham et al. 2008). This might benefit future adaptation and the migrations of poplar species and hybrids toward higher latitudes and altitudes in association with global warming (Landhäusser and Wein 1993, Grady et al. 2011, Kremer et al. 2012).

Supplementary Data

Supplementary Data for this article are available at *Tree Physiology* Online.

Acknowledgments

We extend thanks to Samuel Woodman, Evan Hillman and Soba Kaluthota for assistance with data collection, and to two anonymous reviewers for their thorough assessments.

Conflict of interest

None declared.

Funding

This study was supported through funding to S.B.R. from Alberta Innovates, Alberta Environment and Parks, and the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada.

References

- Bassman JH, Zwier JC (1991) Gas exchange characteristics of *Populus trichocarpa*, *Populus deltoides* and *Populus trichocarpa* × *P. deltoides* clones. Tree Physiol 8:145–159.
- Beaubin EG, Freeland HJ (2000) Spring phenology trends in Alberta, Canada: links to ocean temperature. Int J Biometerol 44:53–59.
- Becker HC (1981) Correlations among some statistical measures of phenotypic stability. Euphytica 30:835–840.
- Berger E (1976) Heterosis and the maintenance of enzyme polymorphism. Am Nat 110:823–839.
- Bernier PY, Stewart JD, Hogan GD (1994) Quantifying the uncontrolled CO₂ dynamics of growth chambers. J Exp Bot 45:1143–1146.
- Betrán FJ, Ribaut JM, Beck D, Gonzalez de León D (2003) Genetic diversity, specific combining ability, and heterosis in tropical maize under stress and nonstress environments. Crop Sci 43:797–806.
- Birchler JA, Auger DL, Riddle NC (2003) In search of the molecular basis of heterosis. Plant Cell 15:2236–2239.
- Blum A (2013) Heterosis, stress, and the environment: a possible road map towards the general improvement of crop yield. J Exp Bot 64: 4829–4837.
- Blum A, Ramaiah S, Kanemasu ET, Paulsen GM (1990) The physiology of heterosis in sorghum with respect to environmental stress. Ann Bot 65:149–158.
- Bradshaw HD, Ceulemans R, Davis J, Stettler R (2000) Emerging model systems in plant biology: Poplar (*Populus*) as a model forest tree. J Plant Growth Regul 19:306–313.
- Brayshaw TC (1965) Native poplars of southern Alberta and their hybrids. Department of Forests, Petawawa Forest Experiment Station, Ottawa, ON, Canada. (Publication 1109).
- Brown AHD (1979) Enzyme polymorphism in plant populations. Theor Pop Biol 15:1-42.
- Campbell JS, Mahoney JM, Rood SB (1993) A lack of heterosis in natural poplar hybrids from southern Alberta. Can J Bot 71:37–42.
- Cooke JEK, Rood SB (2007) Tree of the people: the growing science of poplars in Canada and worldwide. Can J Bot 85:1003–1110.
- Domingo IL, Gordon JC (1974) Physiological responses of an aspen-poplar hybrid to air temperature and soil moisture. Bot Gaz 135:184–192.
- Dunlap JM, Braatne JH, Hinckley TM, Stettler RF (1993) Intraspecific variation in photosynthetic traits of *Populus trichocarpa*. Can J Bot 71: 1304–1311.
- Eckenwalder JE (1996) Systematics and evolution of *Populus*. In: Stettler RF, Bradshaw HD Jr, Heilman PE, Hinckley TM (eds) Biology of *Populus* and its implications for management and conservation. NRC Research Press, National Research Council of Canada, Ottawa, ON, Canada, pp 7–32.
- Edwards CE, Haselhorst MSH, McKnite AM, Ewers BE, Williams DG, Weinig C (2009) Genotypes of *Brassica rapa* respond differently to plantinduced variation in air CO₂ concentration in growth chambers with standard and enhanced venting. Theor Appl Genet 119:991–1004.
- Flanagan LB, Orchard TE, Logie GS, Coburn CA, Rood SB (2017) Water use in a riparian cottonwood ecosystem: eddy covariance measurements and scaling along a river corridor. Agric For Meteorol 232:332–348.

- Floate KD (2004) Extent and patterns of hybridization among the three species of *Populus* that constitute the riparian forest of southern Alberta, Canada. Can J Bot 82:253–264.
- Frantz JM, Cometti NN, Bugbee B (2004) Night temperature has a minimal effect on respiration and growth in rapidly growing plants. Ann Bot 94:155–166.
- Fridman E (2015) Consequences of hybridization and heterozygosity on plant vigor and phenotypic stability. Plant Science 232:35–40.
- Gom LA, Rood SB (1999) The discrimination of cottonwood clones in a mature grove along the Oldman River in southern Alberta. Can J Bot 77:1084–1094.
- Gornall JL, Guy RD (2007) Geographic variation in ecophysiological traits of black cottonwood (*Populus trichocarpa*). Botany 85:1202–1213.
- Grady KC, Ferrier SM, Kolb TE, Hart SC, Allan GJ, Whitham TG (2011) Genetic variation in productivity of foundation riparian species at the edge of their distribution: implications for restoration and assisted migration in a warming climate. Glob Chang Biol 17:3724–3725.
- Griffing B, Zsiros E (1971) Heterosis associated with genotypeenvironment interactions. Genetics 68:443–455.
- Groszmann M, Gonzalez-Bayon R, Lyons RL, Greaves IK, Kazan K, Peacock WJ, Dennis ES (2015) Hormone-regulated defense and stress response networks contribute to heterosis in *Arabidposis* F₁ hybrids. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 112:E6397–E6406.
- Guet J, Fabbrini F, Fichot R, Sabatti M, Bastien C, Brignolas F (2015) Genetic variation for leaf morphology, leaf structure and leaf carbon isotope discrimination in European populations of black poplar (*Populus nigra* L.). Tree Physiol 35:850–863.
- Hamzeh M, Dayanandan S (2004) Phylogeny of *Populus* (Salicaceace) based on nucleotide sequences of chloroplast trnT-trnF region and nuclear rDNA. Am J Bot 91:1398–1408.
- Hinckley TM, Ceulemans R, Dunlap JM et al. (1989) Physiological, morphological and anatomical components of hybrid vigor in *Populus*. In: Kreeb KH, Richter H, Hinckley TM (eds) Structural and functional responses to environmental stresses. SPB Academic Publishing, The Hague, The Netherlands, pp 199–217.
- Hurlbert SH (1984) Pseudoreplication and the design of ecological field experiments. Ecol Monographs 54:187–211.
- Kalischuk AR, Gom LA, Rood SB, Floate KD (1997) Intersectional cottonwood hybrids are particularly susceptible to the poplar bud gall mite. Can J Bot 75:1349–1355.
- Kalischuk AR, Rood SB, Mahoney JM (2001) Environmental influences on seedling growth of cottonwood species following a major flood. For Ecol Manage 144:75–89.
- Kaluthota S, Pearce DW, Evans LM, Letts MG, Whitham TG, Rood SB (2015) Higher photosynthetic capacity from higher latitude: foliar characteristics and gas exchange of southern, central and northern populations of *Populus angustifola*. Tree Physiol 35:936–948.
- Kaw RN, Khush GS (1985) Heterosis in traits related to low temperature tolerance in rice. Philipp J Crop Sci 10:93–105.
- Keim P, Paige KN, Whitham TG, Lark KG (1989) Genetic analysis of an interspecific hybrid swarm of *Populus*: occurrence of unidirectional introgression. Genetics 123:557–565.
- Keller SR, Soolanayakanahally RY, Guy RD, Silim SN, Olson MS, Tiffin P (2011) Climate-driven local adaptation of ecophysiology and phenology in balsam poplar, *Populus balsamifera* L. (Salicaceae). Am J Bot 98:99–108.
- Kremer A, Ronce O, Robledo-Arnuncio JJ et al. (2012) Long-distance gene flow and adaptation of forest trees to rapid climate change. Ecol Lett 15:378–392.

- Landhäusser SM, Wein RW (1993) Postfire vegetation recovery and tree establishment at the Arctic treeline: climate-change-vegetation-response hypotheses. J Ecol 81:665–672.
- Lewis D (1954) Gene-environment interaction: a relationship between dominance, heterosis, phenotypic stability and variability. Heredity 8: 333–356.
- Li B, Howe GT, Wu R (1998) Developmental factors responsible for heterosis in aspen hybrids (*Populus tremuloides* × *P. tremula*). Tree Physiol 18:29–36.
- Lojewski NR, Fischer DG, Bailey JK, Schweitzer JA, Whitham TG, Hart SC (2009) Genetic basis of aboveground productivity in two native *Populus* species and their hybrids. Tree Physiol 29:1133–1142.
- Mather K, Jinks JL (1971) Biometrical genetics, 2nd edn. Chapman and Hall, London.
- McWilliam JR, Griffing B (1965) Temperature-dependent heterosis in maize. Aust J Biol Sci 18:569–584.
- Pedersen DG (1968) Environmental stress, heterozygote advantage and genotype-environment interaction in *Arabidposis*. Heredity 23: 127–138.
- Perry LG, Andersen DC, Reynolds LV, Nelson SM, Shafroth PB (2012) Vulnerability of riparian ecosystems to elevated CO₂ and climate change in arid and semiarid western North America. Glob Chang Biol 18:821–842.
- Rood SB, Major DJ, Jones MD, Pharis RP (1985) Low temperature eliminates heterosis for growth and gibberellin content in maize. Crop Sci 25:1063–1068.
- Rood SB, Buzzell RI, Mander LN, Pearce D, Pharis RP (1988) Gibberellins: a phytohormonal basis for heterosis in maize. Science 241:1216–1218.
- Rood SB, Berg KJ, Pearce DW (2007) Localized temperature adaptation of cottonwoods from elevational ecoregions in the Rocky Mountains. Trees 21:171–180.
- Rood SB, Ball DJ, Gill KM, Kaluthota S, Letts MG, Pearce DW (2013) Hydrologic linkages between a climate oscillation, river flows, growth, and wood Δ^{13} C of male and female cottonwood trees. Plant Cell Environ 36:984–993.
- Rood SB, Goater LA, McCaffrey D, Montgomery JS, Hopkinson C, Pearce DW (2017) Growth of riparian cottonwoods: heterosis in some intersectional *Populus* hybrids and clonal expansion of females. Tree 31: 1069–1081.
- Solieman THI, El-Gabry MAH, Abido AI (2013) Heterosis, potence ratio and correlation of some important characters in tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.). Sci Hort 150:25–30.
- Soolanayakanahally RY, Guy RD, Street NR, Robinson KM, Silim SN, Albrectsen BR, Jansson S (2015) Comparative physiology of allopatric *Populus* species: geographic clines in photosynthesis, height growth, and carbon isotope discrimination in common gardens. Front Plant Sci 6:528.
- Stromberg JC, Lite SJ, Dixon MD (2010) Effects of stream flow patterns on riparian vegetation of a semiarid river: implications for a changing climate. River Res Appl 26:712–729.
- Tollenaar M, Ahmadzadeh A, Lee EA (2004) Physiological basis of heterosis for grain yield in maize. Crop Sci 44:2086–2094.
- Tschaplinski TJ, Blake TJ (1989) Water relations, photosynthetic capacity, and root/shoot partitioning of photosynthate as determinants of productivity in hybrid poplar. Can J Bot 67:1689–1697.
- Whitham TG (1989) Plant hybrid zones as sinks for pests. Science 244: 1490–1493.
- Whitham TG, DiFazio SP, Schweitzer JA, Shuster SM, Allan GJ, Bailey JK, Woolbright SA (2008) Extending genomics to natural communities and ecosystems. Science 320:492–495.