

## STUDIES

# Stomatal anatomy coordinates leaf size with Rubisco kinetics in the Balearic *Limonium*

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## Abstract

Trait integration arises through both selection on functional coordination and shared developmental pathways. Different anatomical components must both work well and develop together to generate individuals with the appropriate physiology to survive and reproduce in their environment. In this study, we used a common garden experiment and Bayesian multilevel models to test whether stomatal anatomy coordinates leaf gas exchange, Rubisco kinetics and leaf size across 10 closely related species of *Limonium* from the Balearic Islands. The results indicate that the anatomical determinants of maximum stomatal conductance, stomatal density and size, were functionally coordinated with Rubisco kinetics—species whose stomatal anatomy was correlated with low stomatal conductance have evolved Rubisco enzymes better adapted to low operational chloroplastic CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Lower stomatal density was associated with greater leaf size, which can be explained by a greater proportion of pavement cells in large-leaved species. These results suggest that both selection for functional coordination (stomata and Rubisco kinetics) and shared development pathways (stomatal density and leaf area) likely shape patterns of trait integration between species.

**Keywords:** Drought; evolution; kinetics; leaf area; *Limonium*; Mediterranean; Rubisco; stomata; stomatal conductance.

## Introduction

Plants, like all biological entities, are integrated organisms in which all parts must work well together in order to maximize fitness of the whole in a given environment. Plant leaves display many varieties of integration. For instance, the many coordinated changes in leaf anatomy and biochemistry in response to sun and shade are a canonical example (Boardman 1977; Givnish 1988). However, leaves are complex, and many hypothesized types of trait coordination are not observed consistently in nature. For example, it has long been hypothesized that thicker leaves require stomata on both surfaces to supply CO<sub>2</sub> (Parkhurst 1978), but this pattern is not generally strong (Mott *et al.* 1982;

Muir 2015; Drake *et al.* 2019). Hence, deeper investigation into the relative role of selection on functional coordination and developmental integration are needed to understand the relative importance of each in shaping phenotypes.

As integrated organs, plant leaves must balance CO<sub>2</sub> supply and demand because it is costly to provision a leaf with high photosynthetic capacity (high CO<sub>2</sub> demand) especially if there is limited CO<sub>2</sub> supply. Stomatal anatomy, especially density and size, regulates gas exchange (CO<sub>2</sub> intake and H<sub>2</sub>O loss) and is a significant determinant of CO<sub>2</sub> supply to the leaf. Theoretically, stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ , either CO<sub>2</sub> or H<sub>2</sub>O) is determined by

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stomatal density, stomatal size and the allometry between stomatal pore area and stomatal size (Franks and Beerling 2009; Sack and Buckley 2016). Fossils of plants inhabiting high to low atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration show a decrease in stomatal size and an increase in density, leading to higher  $g_s$  to maximize carbon gain (Franks and Beerling 2009), which appears to be reversing due to recent CO<sub>2</sub> rise (Woodward 1987; Lammertsma et al. 2011; Doheny-Adams et al. 2012). The positive relationship between stomatal density and conductance occurs in different environmental conditions (Woodward et al. 2002; Galmés et al. 2007; Franks et al. 2009).

Maximum anatomical  $g_s$  ( $g_{s_{\max}}$ ) represents conductance for a given stomatal size and density in an ideal scenario assuming stomata are fully open (Franks and Farquhar 2001; Franks and Beerling 2009; Drake et al. 2013; Dow et al. 2014). Operational  $g_s$  differs from  $g_{s_{\max}}$  depending on the species and environment, but there is nevertheless a strong positive relationship between the two parameters under benign conditions (Franks et al. 2009; Dow et al. 2014). Greater stomatal density increases  $g_{s_{\max}}$ —and operational  $g_s$ —but the effect is mitigated by an inverse relationship between stomatal size and density (Hetherington and Woodward 2003; Franks and Beerling 2009; Franks et al. 2009). Furthermore, larger stomata have wider pores but also greater pore depth. Wider pores increase conductance compared to narrow pores for the same total pore area, but larger stomata are disadvantageous because greater pore depth lengthens the diffusion pathway of gas molecules, thereby decreasing  $g_{s_{\max}}$  (Franks and Farquhar 2007; Franks and Beerling 2009). Nevertheless, stomatal size sets the limits to  $g_{s_{\max}}$  (Franks and Beerling 2009) and pore area is adjusted by changes in pore width, since pore length is rather invariant during stomatal functioning (Lawson et al. 1998).

Environmental stresses such as drought induce lower stomatal conductance to conserve water, but results in lower CO<sub>2</sub> supply. Species adapted to photosynthesizing under chronic drought, as opposed to going dormant, are perpetually in a state of low operational CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the chloroplast ( $C_c$ ) (Meinzer 1993; Chaves et al. 2009; Galmés et al. 2011), which depresses photosynthesis and exacerbates wasteful photorespiration. Many species have responded to this challenge by evolving active carbon concentrating mechanisms ( $C_4$  and CAM) that increase the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration around sites of carboxylation (Sage et al. 2011; Edwards and Ogburn 2012). However, for  $C_3$  species that rely on passive CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion, there may be other mechanisms to deal with low CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Specifically, natural selection can favour Rubisco biochemistry that increases CO<sub>2</sub> specificity ( $S_{c/o}$ ), but this may come at a cost of reduced carboxylation rate ( $k_c^{cat}$ ) (Galmés et al. 2005b, 2014b).

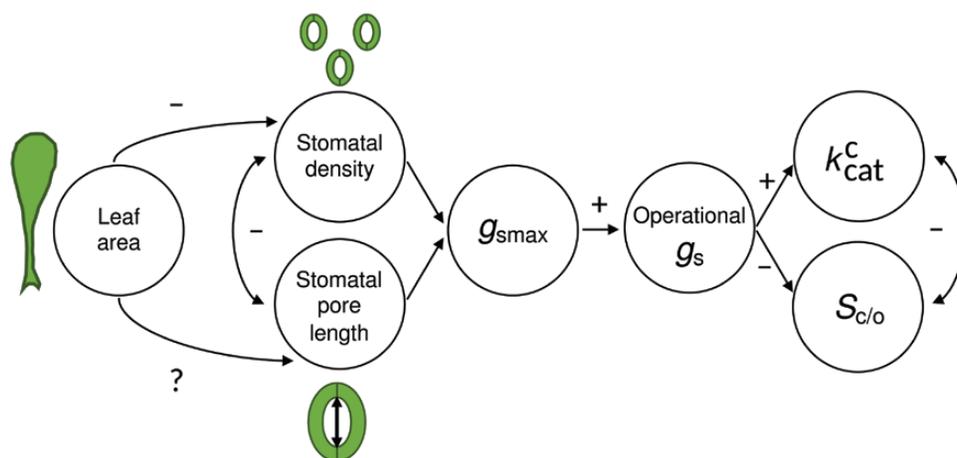
The resulting stomatal size and density of a fully expanded leaf do not develop in isolation, but in the context of whole leaf cell differentiation and expansion. Leaf development is initiated by cell division, followed by a phase of cell volume increase that leads to final leaf expansion (reviewed in González et al. 2012). Stomata and vein differentiation occur before the leaf reaches its final size (Schoch et al. 1980; Zwieniecki et al. 2004). Since leaf size is modulated by changing environment (e.g. Westoby et al. 2002; McDonald et al. 2003; Ramírez-Valiente et al. 2010; Yates et al. 2010; Carins Murphy et al. 2014), drought may induce correlations between leaf size with stomata and vein densities (e.g. Brodribb and Jordan 2011) or, otherwise, in a leaf size optimizing the vein to stomata ratio for a given environmental conditions (Carins Murphy et al. 2012). Hence, stomatal density might be ‘concentrated’ in smaller leaves (Gupta et al. 1961; Sack et al. 2003), whereas stomatal size appears to be much less

affected by changes in leaf size and stomatal density (Sack and Frole 2006; Carins Murphy et al. 2012).

In parallel to adaptations to low CO<sub>2</sub> concentration seen from the fossil record, decreased stomatal size and increased density are also related to drought conditions, which may in turn shape correlations between drought and leaf size because of shared developmental pathways. Smaller stomata have faster and more finely tuned opening-closure regulation, allowing them to respond faster to microclimatic changes during drought, enhancing leaf water use efficiency (Aasamaa et al. 2001; Hetherington and Woodward 2003; Drake et al. 2013). Vapour pressure demand (VPD), which determines the flux of water lost through stomata, is usually high and associated with high irradiation in dry environments. Hence, small stomata that allow fast responses to changes in VPD and irradiation help prevent leaf dehydration. Stomatal density often increases with VPD (Salisbury 1928; Leuschner 2002; Lake and Woodward 2008; Hovendoven et al. 2012), though the opposite has also been described in several crops and cultivated plants (Bakker 1991; Torre et al. 2003).

We tested the hypothesis that trait integration arises because of both (i) functional coordination between stomatal and Rubisco kinetics and (ii) shared development between leaf size and stomatal density in closely related *Limonium* species from the Balearic Islands. The *Limonium* species inhabit harsh environments in the sea coast and are adapted to protracted drought (Galmés et al. 2005a, 2017). Under severe water-deficit (WD) conditions that would limit many plant species survivorship (Dane and Hopmans 2002), *Limonium* species show little difference in growth rate compared to a well-watered (WW) conditions, despite conserving water by decreasing stomatal conductance (Galmés et al. 2005a). They also vary greatly in leaf size and Rubisco kinetics. Leaf size is one of the most variable traits among *Limonium* species (Erben 1993). Further, three different Rubisco haplotypes have been described in *Limonium* (Galmés et al. 2014a), and most large-leaved species bear a Rubisco haplotype with the highest CO<sub>2</sub> specificity factor ( $S_{c/o}$ ) and the lowest carboxylation velocity ( $k_c^{cat}$ ) (Galmés et al. 2014a), which are characteristics expected to increase photosynthesis under low CO<sub>2</sub> availability conditions that occur under severe WD (Galmés et al. 2005b, 2014b). In fact, the different kinetics in *Limonium* have been linked to adaptations in the CO<sub>2</sub> delivery pathway enabling a coordination between CO<sub>2</sub> supply and demand, which in turn should be linked to adaptive variation in stomata (Galmés et al. 2017). In fact, stomatal limitations dominate over mesophyll diffusion and biochemical limitations under severe WD in *Limonium* (Galmés et al. 2017) and most angiosperms (Tomàs et al. 2013; Gago et al. 2014). Consequently, we hypothesize that stomatal anatomical traits constitute a key link between CO<sub>2</sub> supply and demand, resulting in a coordinated evolution of stomata and Rubisco in *Limonium*. Further, given its enormous variation among closely related species inhabiting the same environment, we hypothesize a key role for leaf size in explaining variation in stomatal anatomy, which could ultimately link stomatal size with Rubisco evolution in *Limonium*.

Because of their variation in stomatal anatomy, Rubisco kinetic properties and leaf size, and because the array of closely related species inhabiting the same environment, Balearic *Limonium* are ideally suited to testing the roles of selection and development in shaping trait integration. In this study, we used Bayesian multilevel models to quantify the relationships between stomatal anatomy, leaf size and Rubisco kinetics (Fig. 1) in 10 *Limonium* species, in order to deepen in understanding



**Figure 1.** Conceptual overview of hypotheses and predictions. Because leaf expansion spaces out stomata, larger leaves lead to lower stomatal density but the effect on stomatal pore length is unclear. Together, stomatal density and pore length determine the anatomical maximum stomatal conductance ( $g_{smax}$ ) which we predict is positively correlated with operational stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ ). Lower stomatal conductance reduces the  $CO_2$  concentration in chloroplasts, selecting for greater specificity (higher  $S_{c/o}$ ) but reduced carboxylation activity ( $k_{cat}^c$ ) due to a trade-off between specificity and rate.

the adaptive responses to severe water shortage in this fascinating group.

## Materials and Methods

### Species, water treatments and climatic conditions

Based on extensive sampling of *Limonium* species across the Balearic Islands, there are three distinct Rubisco large subunit gene (*rbcl*) amino acid sequences (namely haplotypes I, II and III) conferring different kinetics to the enzyme (Galmés et al. 2014a). In the present study, 10 species with contrasting leaf size (leaf area per leaf,  $LA_1$ ) and different *rbcl* haplotype were selected (Table 1).

Field collected seeds were germinated in nurseries, and 10 plantlets per species were transplanted individually to 3 L pots and grown outdoors in spring (31 May to 28 June 2010) at the University of the Balearic Islands, irrigated at field capacity. During the following months (29 June to 13 September), five plants per species were maintained at field capacity (WW treatment). In five other plants per species, irrigation was gradually reduced to reach 30 % field capacity and maintained below this level (severe WD treatment) to the end of the experiment. Irrigation was performed every 2–3 days controlling water loss gravimetrically in order to maintain a clear difference between both water treatments. Thus, variation in % field capacity ranged between 70 % (just before irrigation) and 100 % field capacity in the WW treatment, and between 9 % (just before irrigation) and 30 % field capacity in WD treatment [see Supporting Information—Fig. S1]. For more details on treatment application, see Galmés et al. (2017).

The climatic conditions during the water treatment application period were those typical of the Mediterranean summer, with average daily temperature range (minimum–maximum) of 23.6–30.6 °C in July, 21.6–27.2 °C in August and 17.6–23.4 °C in September; and average air relative humidity range of 36–65 % in July, 45–74 % in August and 48–83 % in September. Daily sum of photosynthetically active radiation ranged 6790–15 681  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{day}^{-1}$  in July, 6500–14 615  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{day}^{-1}$  in August and 3241–11 905  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{day}^{-1}$  in September.

**Table 1.** *Limonium* species studied, abbreviation and their *rbcl* haplotype group.

Species	Abbreviation	<i>rbcl</i> haplotype
<i>L. barceloi</i>	BAR	I
<i>L. companyonis</i>	COM	I
<i>L. ejulabilis</i>	EJU	II
<i>L. grosii</i>	GRO	II
<i>L. leonardi-llorensii</i>	LEO	II
<i>L. magallufianum</i>	MAG	II
<i>L. retusum</i>	RET	II
<i>L. antonii-llorensii</i>	ANT	III
<i>L. biflorum</i>	BIF	III
<i>L. gibertii</i>	GIB	III

### Measurements of stomatal conductance and leaf area per leaf

The stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ ) and the  $LA_1$  were measured in the last week of August, in fully expanded leaves completely developed after the water treatments were fully established.

We measured  $g_s$  in five plants per species and water treatment with a LI-6400-40 (LI-COR Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA) from 0900 to 1200 h. Gas flow was set at 250  $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ , and conditions in the leaf chamber consisted of a photosynthetic photon flux density of 1500  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ , a vapour pressure deficit of 1.2–2.5 kPa and a leaf temperature of 25 °C. The stomatal conductance was measured after steady state for at least 30 min at an ambient  $CO_2$  concentration of 400  $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ .

We measured  $LA_1$  on five well-developed leaves per plant, and four to five plants per species and treatment. Leaves were scanned with a table scanner and leaf area was obtained from images with ImageJ (1.49v, National Institute of Health, USA).

### Anatomical traits of stomata and maximum stomatal conductance

The stomatal density (SD), the stomatal index (SI) and the stomatal pore length (SP) were measured in four plants per species and treatment, in both the adaxial and abaxial surfaces of leaves used for leaf gas exchange and  $LA_1$ . Measurements were performed on scaled images taken with an Olympus BX60 (Tokyo, Japan) optical microscope with digital camera

incorporated. To do so, the leaf epidermis was flayed from the central-right part of the leaf blade, avoiding the midrib and main veins, and mounted on a microscope slide, keeping the sample hydrated.

For each leaf and leaf surface, an image from three different fields was taken at  $\times 100$  magnification to measure SD and SI. All epidermal cells and stomata were manually counted in each field. SD was expressed as number of stomata per  $\text{mm}^2$ , and SI was calculated as the proportion of stomata per 100 total cells. In all the fields considered for SD, several randomly located images were taken per field at  $\times 500$  magnification, in order to measure SP in at least five stomata per leaf side. To calculate total leaf SD and SP, we summed the abaxial and adaxial SD and averaged the abaxial and adaxial SP [see [Supporting Information—Methods, Fig. S2, Tables S1 and S2](#)]. Briefly, SD was similar on both surfaces, whereas SP was correlated but slightly smaller on the adaxial surface.

Maximum stomatal conductance to water vapour ( $g_{\text{smax}}$ ) was calculated assuming fully open stomata proportions according to [Franks and Beerling \(2009\)](#), as modified by [Sack and Buckley \(2016\)](#):

$$g_{\text{smax}} = bmds^{0.5}$$

The first term is a biophysical constant equal to  $b = \frac{d_w}{v}$ , where the diffusivity of water vapour in air ( $d_w$ ) equals  $2.49 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  and the molar volume of air ( $v$ ) equals  $2.24 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1}$  at  $25^\circ \text{C}$  ([Monteith and Unsworth 2013](#)). The morphological constant  $m = \frac{\pi c^2}{j^{0.5}(4hj + \pi c)}$ , where  $c = \frac{SP}{SL} = 0.5$ ,  $j = \frac{SW}{SL} = 0.5$  and  $h = \frac{l}{SW} = 0.5$  for kidney bean-shaped guard cells. SL is the stomatal length, SW is the stomatal width and  $l$  is the pore depth ([Sack and Buckley 2016](#)). Stomatal density (SD) is equal to  $d$  in their equation. We assumed stomatal size  $s = 0.5SL^2 = 0.5(2SP)^2$  ([Sack and Buckley 2016](#)). We calculated  $g_{\text{smax}}$  independently for each leaf surface. Since there was little differentiation between abaxial and adaxial stomatal traits among species [see [Supporting Information—Fig. S1, Tables S1 and S2](#)], we summed values from both leaf surfaces to obtain a global  $g_{\text{smax}}$  per unit leaf surface.

### Rubisco catalytic parameters

Data of Rubisco *in vitro* kinetic parameters in the 10 *Limonium* species studied were obtained from [Galmés et al. \(2014a\)](#), measured from leaves similar to the used for gas-exchange measurements.

### Statistical analyses

We used three separate Bayesian statistical models to estimate (i) species-level anatomical  $g_{\text{smax}}$  and its relationship to Rubisco kinetics, (ii) the individual plant-level relationship between  $g_{\text{smax}}$  and operational  $g_s$  and (iii) the individual plant-level relationship between leaf area and stomatal traits (SD, SP and SI). Models 1 and 2 test predictions on functional coordination; Model 3 tests predictions on shared developmental pathways. See below for details on model fitting and significance testing.

The first model is a path analytic model ([Fig. 1](#)), in which we estimate how species and treatment impact stomatal traits (SD and SP) underlying  $g_{\text{smax}}$ , estimate a species-level average  $g_{\text{smax}}$  from the model and estimate the correlation between species-level  $g_{\text{smax}}$  and species-level Rubisco kinetic parameters  $k_c^{\text{cat}}$  and  $S_{c/o}$ . This procedure was required because we did not have measurements of stomata and Rubisco kinetics from the same individual plants; hence, we could only compare among species. We treated WD as a fixed effect on SD and SP, whereas species was a random effect. Besides a main effect of WD, we tested for a species-by-treatment interaction effect by comparing models

with information criteria (see below for further detail). We also estimated within- and among-species correlations between SD and SP. We estimated species-level Rubisco kinetic parameters ( $k_c^{\text{cat}}$  and  $S_{c/o}$ ) from individual replicates by treating them as a multivariate normal response with species as a random effect.

We used a Bayesian multilevel model to test for a positive relationship between anatomical  $g_{\text{smax}}$  and operational  $g_s$  ([Fig. 1](#)). We included data on individual plants, with species as a random effect. This allows us to tell whether the correlation exists among individual leaves once between-species variation is removed. Preliminary analysis found no effect of the WD treatment on the slope (results not shown), but we included a fixed effect of WD on operational  $g_s$ . We also tested for a species-by-treatment interaction effect by comparing models with information criteria (see below for further detail). To reduce skew in model residuals, we log-transformed  $g_s$  before analysis.

In the last model, we used a Bayesian multivariate multilevel model to test for the relationship between leaf area and SD and SP. We assumed the response variables (SD and SP) were multivariate Gaussian and treated  $LA_1$  as a fixed effect and species as a random effect. Preliminary analysis found that the WD treatment had no effect on the relationship between  $LA_1$  and stomatal anatomy (results not shown).

All three models were fit using Hamiltonian Monte Carlo in Stan version 2.18.0 ([Carpenter et al. 2017](#)), a language for probabilistic programming, using rstan version 2.18.2 ([Stan Development Team 2018](#)) and brms version 2.8.0 ([Bürkner 2017, 2018](#)) packages in R version 3.5.3 ([R Core Team 2019](#)). We ran all models on four chains and adjusted the number of iterations and thinning to reach convergence in all parameters (Gelman–Rubin  $\hat{R} = 1$ ) and estimated sample size  $>1000$ . We mean-centred response variables prior to fitting and used diffuse priors on fixed effects and weakly informative priors on variance parameters, following defaults and recommendations in Stan and brms documentation. To compare models with and without species-by-treatment interactions, we used leave-one-out cross-validation information criterion (LOOIC), a generalization of Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) that makes less stringent assumptions and is more appropriate for multilevel models ([Vehtari et al. 2017; McElreath 2018](#)). We implemented LOOIC comparisons using the `loo_compare` function in brms. Where appropriate, we calculated coefficients of determination ( $R^2$ ) using the `bayes_R2` function in brms or custom scripts based on it. We calculated P-values from the posterior to test if key parameters were significantly different than zero. Finally, we report 95 % highest posterior density intervals, which are similar to confidence intervals, for key parameters. All code is available on GitHub (<https://github.com/cdmuir/limonium-stomata>) and will be archived on Zenodo upon publication. We performed all analysis in R. Other R packages that contributed to this work include cowplot version 0.9.4 ([Wilke 2019](#)), glue version 1.3.1 ([Hester 2019](#)), tidybayes version 1.0.4 ([Kay 2019](#)), tidyverse version 1.2.1 ([Wickham 2017](#)) and units version 0.6-2 ([Pebesma et al. 2016](#)).

## Results

Stomatal and leaf trait data are summarized in [Supporting Information—Table S3](#) and Rubisco kinetic data are summarized in [Supporting Information—Table S4](#).

### Functional coordination between stomatal anatomy and Rubisco kinetics

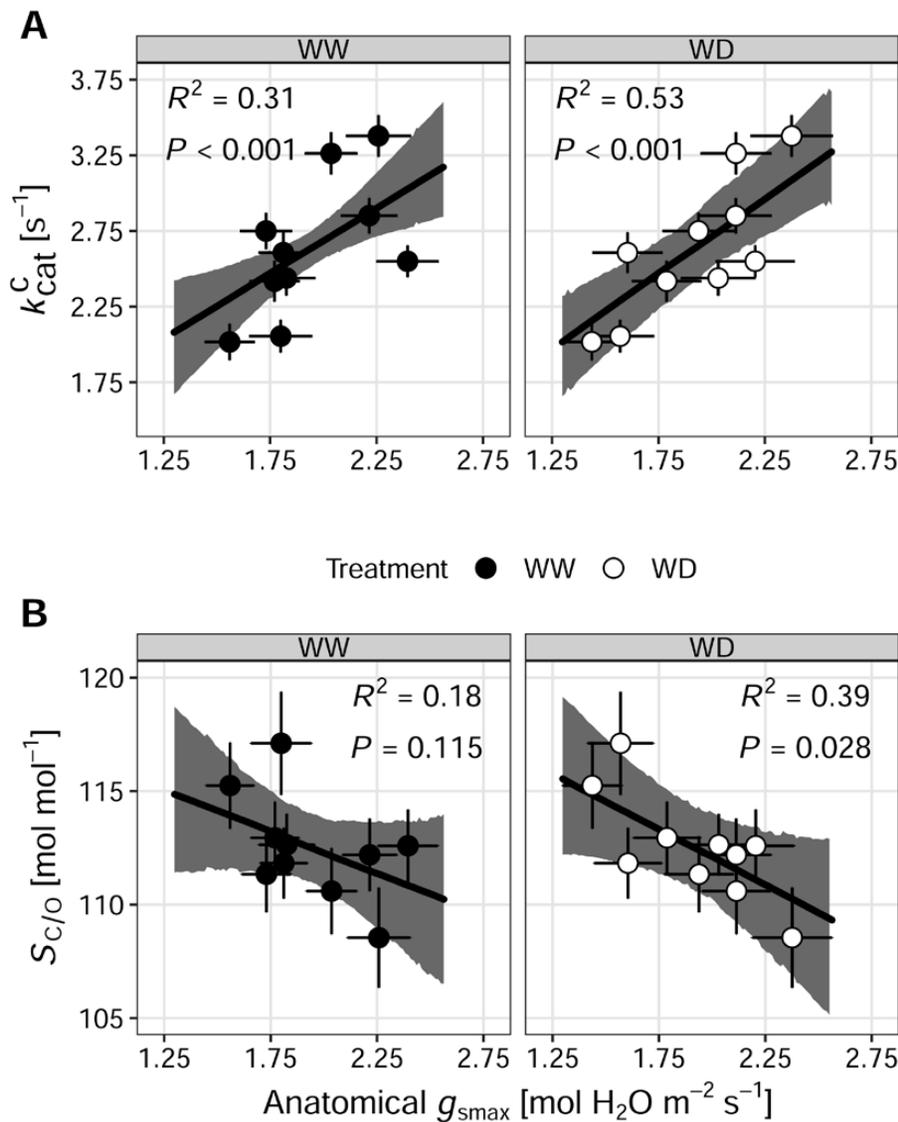
We used a multilevel Bayesian path analytic model to estimate the species-level  $g_{\text{smax}}$  from measurements of stomatal density

(SD) and pore length (SP) and test whether it was associated with Rubisco kinetics. SD and SP were negatively correlated within species ( $r = -0.40 \pm 0.10$ ,  $P = 0.002$ ), but not between species ( $r = 0.50 \pm 0.34$ ,  $P = 0.17$ ; see [Supporting Information—Fig. S3A](#)). There was no main effect of the severe WD treatment on stomatal traits [see [Supporting Information—Fig. S3A–C, Table S5](#)], but there was a significant treatment-by-species interaction ( $\Delta\text{LOOIC} = 24.0 \pm 10.0$ ; see [Supporting Information—Fig. S3](#)). Therefore, we estimated average  $g_{\text{smax}}$  values per species in each treatment [see [Supporting Information—Table S6](#)] and correlated that with the Rubisco kinetic parameters from each species. Greater  $g_{\text{smax}}$  in both WD and WW treatments was associated with Rubisco enzymes that had greater carboxylase specific activity,  $k_{\text{cat}}$  (Fig. 2A), but lower specificity for  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $S_{\text{c/o}}$  (Fig. 2B). The correlations were similar in both treatments, but slightly stronger in WD (Fig. 2A and B). Moreover,  $g_{\text{smax}}$  differences

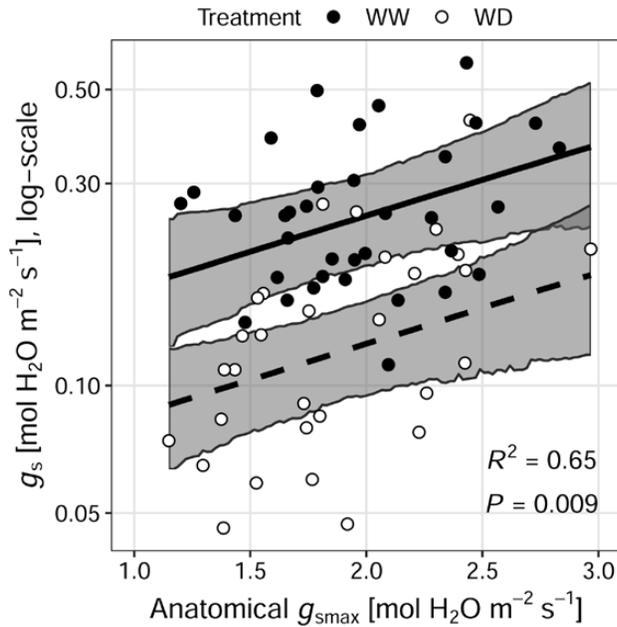
between WW and WD treatments were non-significant in all the species [see [Supporting Information—Fig. S4](#)].

### Stomatal anatomy predicts operational stomatal conductance

We estimated  $g_{\text{smax}}$  and measured  $g_s$  on 65 individual plants from all 10 *Limonium* species in both WD and WW treatments. This is fewer than the 80 total plants because we could not get both measurements from the same individual in all cases. Bayesian multilevel models revealed a positive correlation between anatomical  $g_{\text{smax}}$  and operational  $g_s$  in both treatments, but lower  $g_s$  in WD (Fig. 3; see [Supporting Information—Table S7](#)). Although all the species significantly reduced  $g_s$  in the WD treatment as compared to WW, there was no significant treatment-by-species interaction ( $\Delta\text{LOOIC} = -3.2 \pm 4.0$ ; see [Supporting Information—Fig. S5](#)).



**Figure 2.** Greater anatomical stomatal conductance ( $g_{\text{smax}}$ ) is associated with (A) greater Rubisco carboxylase activity ( $k_{\text{cat}}$ ) but (B) reduced  $\text{CO}_2$  specificity ( $S_{\text{c/o}}$ ). Because anatomical responses to water treatment varied among species (see Results), we compared the species-level relationship between  $g_{\text{smax}}$  and biochemical traits in WW (left facets, black circles) and WD (right facets, white circles) treatments. The relationships are similar, but stronger under WD than WW (higher  $R^2$  and lower  $P$ -values). Solid lines represent the median relationship between traits and grey polygons are the 95% highest posterior density (HPD) interval from the posterior distribution. Points represent the mean value per species and bars represent the standard errors.



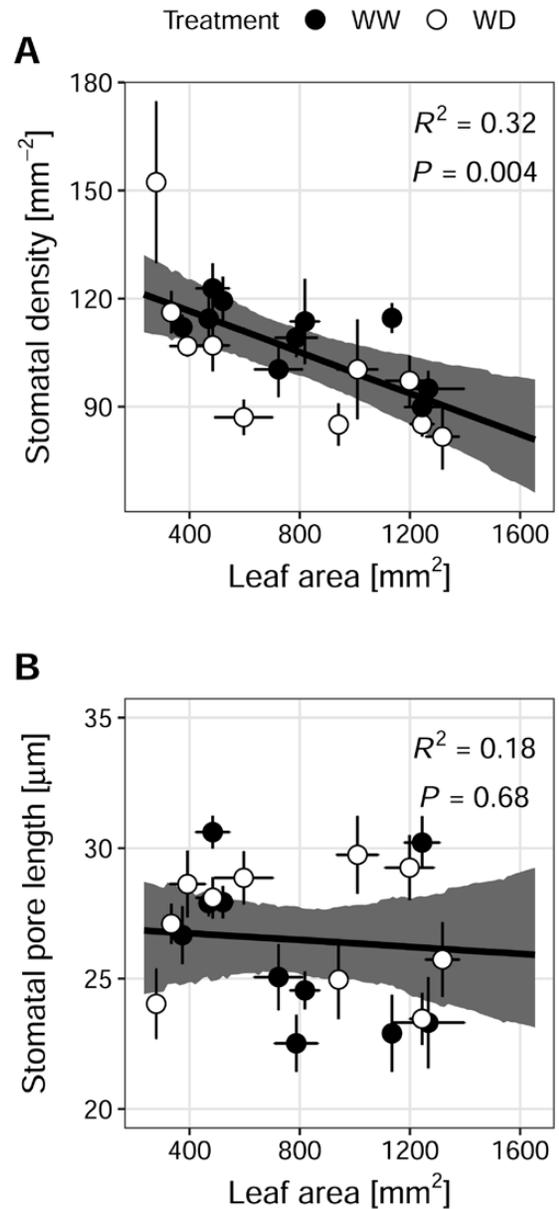
**Figure 3.** Anatomical maximum stomatal conductance ( $g_{smax}$ , x-axis) predicts operational stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ , y-axis, log-transformed) under both severe WD (white circles, dashed line) and WW (black circles, solid line) treatments. Anatomy determines the maximum conductance to  $\text{CO}_2$  and water vapour ( $g_{smax}$ ). As expected, species have lower stomatal conductance under WD, but the slope was not significantly different between treatments. Each point represents an individual plant from one of the 10 *Limonium* species. Grey polygons are the 95 % highest posterior density (HPD) interval from the posterior distribution.

### Leaf area is associated with stomatal density, but not size

We measured leaf area and stomatal anatomical traits on 73 individual plants in all 10 *Limonium* species and under both WD and WW treatments. Again, this is fewer than the 80 total plants because we could not get both measurements from the same individual in all cases. Bayesian multivariate multilevel models showed a negative relationship between leaf area and stomatal density across both treatments (see [Supporting Information—Table S8](#); [Fig. 4A](#)). In contrast, there was no significant relationship between leaf area and stomatal pore length in either treatment ([Fig. 4B](#); see [Supporting Information—Table S8](#)).

### Discussion

Each trait in an organism is integrated with other traits. Interspecific trait correlations can arise because of selection for functional coordination between traits and/or the developmental process affects multiple traits simultaneously. Selection will favour trait combinations that work well together and weed out trait combinations that do not. In addition, all traits arise in a developmental context, meaning they are inextricably linked with other traits through shared developmental pathways. In this study, we examined effects of both functional coordination between stomatal anatomy and Rubisco biochemistry, as well as developmental relationships between stomatal traits and leaf size. As predicted ([Fig. 1](#)), traits associated with reduced  $\text{CO}_2$  supply were associated with Rubisco enzymes that had greater affinity for  $\text{CO}_2$  but lower carboxylate activity ([Fig. 2](#)). Greater leaf size was associated with lower  $\text{CO}_2$  supply because of reduced stomatal density, consistent with increased expansion of



**Figure 4.** Larger leaves (greater leaf area) are (A) associated with greater stomatal density but (B) were not correlated with stomatal pore length in both severe WD (white points) and WW (black points) treatments. Solid lines represent the median relationship between traits and grey polygons represent the 95 % highest posterior density (HPD) interval from the posterior distribution. Points represent the mean value per species and bars represent the standard errors.

pavement cell fates driving both patterns ([Fig. 4](#)). Such findings agree with previous results in this closely related species group showing that Rubiscos operating at lower  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration in the chloroplast ( $C_c$ ) present lower carboxylation velocity and higher specificity for  $\text{CO}_2$  ([Galmés et al. 2017](#)). In those species, lower  $C_c$  was a consequence of lower total conductance for  $\text{CO}_2$ . A quantitative limitation analysis of photosynthetic  $\text{CO}_2$  assimilation showed much higher impact of stomatal than mesophyll limitations ([Galmés et al. 2017](#)), pointing to a key role of stomatal traits and function in the coordination between  $C_c$  and Rubisco kinetics. We conclude that both selection on functional coordination and developmental context strongly impact patterns of interspecific trait covariation.

## Functional coordination between $g_{smax}$ and Rubisco kinetics, especially under severe WD

Stomatal traits driving  $g_{smax}$  are coordinated with key biochemical traits in Rubisco kinetics across *Limonium* species (Fig. 2). Anatomical  $g_{smax}$  correlated positively with  $k_c^{cat}$  and negatively with  $S_{c/o}$  in *Limonium*, consistent with a trade-off between the latter two parameters (Galmés et al. 2014a). Species with faster Rubisco (high  $k_c^{cat}$  and low  $S_{c/o}$ ) have stomatal traits leading to high  $g_{smax}$ , while species with Rubisco highly specific for CO<sub>2</sub> have lower  $g_{smax}$ . The relationships between  $g_{smax}$  and Rubisco biochemistry were similar in both treatments (Fig. 2), reflecting that there was little plasticity in  $g_{smax}$ , with none of the species showing treatment differences in this parameter [see Supporting Information—Fig. S4]. Although, the  $g_{smax}$  to Rubisco biochemistry relationships were stronger under severe WD as compared to WW conditions (Fig. 2), suggesting that WD may be more relevant for understanding natural selection on Rubisco in these drought-tolerant species.

In fact, the positive correlation between  $g_{smax}$  and  $k_c^{cat}$  raises a question about why low transpiration capacity and low carboxylation velocity would be favoured by natural selection. Under severe harsh conditions, stomata closure to save water would lead to carbon starvation since low chances for CO<sub>2</sub> intake. Thus, species adapted to harsh conditions may have evolved towards stomatal traits reducing evaporative demand (i.e. lower density and smaller) and thus, reducing  $g_{smax}$ . However, this scenario would also lead to low CO<sub>2</sub> availability at the Rubisco fixation site in the chloroplast and thus, species may benefit from Rubiscos with higher efficiency in CO<sub>2</sub> fixation, i.e. higher  $S_{c/o}$  which, given the trade-off with  $k_c^{cat}$  (Galmés et al. 2014a), would result in selection favouring species with lower carboxylation velocity.

## Operational $g_s$ correlates with $g_{smax}$ in both water treatments, despite the impact of the severe WD on $g_s$

The similarity in the relationship of  $g_{smax}$  with kinetic traits (Fig. 2) could either indicate that WD was not severe, or that these species did not plastically adjust stomatal traits in response to severe WD. Nevertheless, *Limonium* stomatal anatomy may not be that plastic because they produce long-lived leaves that likely operate under both wet- and dry-season Mediterranean conditions. A phenotype should not be developmentally plastic if the temporal grain of the environment is finer than the organ's lifespan (Levins 1968).

Regarding the severity of WD [see Supporting Information—Fig. S1], the reduction in operational  $g_s$  was evident across *Limonium* (Fig. 3), with significant differences between treatments in all the species [see Supporting Information—Fig. S5], showing that WD had a strong enough impact on plant physiology. It is also worth indicating that traits other than  $g_s$  which typically denote the degree of stress, like leaf relative water content (RWC) and the quantum efficiency of PSII at predawn ( $F_v/F_m$ ) and mid-morning ( $\phi_{PSII}$ ), did not parallel  $g_s$  results, and showed differences between treatments only in a few species (see Supporting Information—Table S9; Galmés et al. 2017). On the one hand, contrary to short-term stress experiments, long-term experiments like this in *Limonium* involve leaf formation under the stressful conditions and thus, leaf anatomy and structure may be modified under harsh conditions to increase chances to overcome stress limitations. This could explain the lack of differences between treatments in parameters like RWC,  $F_v/F_m$  and  $\phi_{PSII}$  (see Supporting Information—Table S9; Galmés et al. 2017), despite of differences in growth (Galmés et al. 2014a; Conesa et al. 2019)

and in most photosynthetic traits (Galmés et al. 2017) including  $g_s$  [see Supporting Information—Fig. S5]. The lack of differences in RWC can also be explained by the isohydric behaviour already described in *Limonium* (Galmés et al. 2007). Nevertheless, the low impact of WD on those stress-indicator parameters cannot be explained from the traits we measured, i.e. leaf size, stomatal density, stomatal size, and stomatal changes in adaxial vs. abaxial size and distribution [see Supporting Information—Fig. S2], since the lack of differences between treatments across species in such traits. Further research on leaf traits involving venation density and architecture, aquaporins, osmoregulation and even hormone signalling affecting stomata, or on non-leaf traits like root characteristics, may help in fully understanding the mechanism of acclimation to severe water shortage in *Limonium*.

On the other hand, the existence of differences between treatments in  $g_s$  in all the species [see Supporting Information—Fig. S5], but not in other stress-indicator parameters (see Supporting Information—Table S9; Galmés et al. 2017), denote the suitability of  $g_s$  as a stress indicator in long-term stress experiments. Over other stress-indicator parameters, including soil and plant water potentials, differences in  $g_s$  between treatments are the ultimate result after anatomical and physiological modifications facilitating acclimation to the stressful conditions, which may be variable depending on the stress and on the plant group considered. Despite the overall  $g_s$  was lower in the WD treatment, anatomical  $g_{smax}$  was positively correlated with operational  $g_s$  under both WD and WW treatments (Fig. 3). The ratio of  $g_s/g_{smax}$  in *Limonium* was on average  $0.18 \pm 0.01$  under WW and  $0.09 \pm 0.01$  under WD. Although the difference between operational  $g_s$  and anatomical  $g_{smax}$  depends on the species, the environment and the measuring conditions, a tight correlation between the two parameters has been described under benign conditions (Franks et al. 2009). Models in *Arabidopsis* estimate a  $g_s/g_{smax}$  ratio of 0.2 under common atmospheric conditions (395 ppm CO<sub>2</sub> and 80 % relative humidity; Dow et al. 2014), which is close to the 0.25 described for *Solanum pennellii* introgression lines on tomato (Fanourakis et al. 2015). This low ratio has been related to an optimal status of guard cells allowing fastest response to changing conditions (Franks et al. 2012; Dow et al. 2014).

Models predict that a CO<sub>2</sub> rise to 700 ppm by the end of the century would reduce  $g_s$  by 50 % (i.e. ca. 10 % of  $g_{smax}$ ; Dow et al. 2014), which is close to the average for *Limonium* species under severe WD. Although it is physically possible for leaves with high anatomical  $g_{smax}$  to physiologically reduce operational  $g_s$  during drought,  $g_{smax}$  nevertheless predicts relative  $g_s$  under both benign and severe WD conditions. This could be because species with higher  $g_{smax}$  have greater hydraulic conductance, allowing them to keep stomata more open under drought (e.g. Sack et al. 2015), or have riskier stomatal behaviour, keeping stomata open for longer under drought to assimilate CO<sub>2</sub> but risking hydraulic failure (e.g. Scoffoni et al. 2017). Although the mechanism remains elusive from the present and past results in *Limonium*, the pattern suggests that  $g_{smax}$  is useful in predicting operational  $g_s$  under both water treatments.

## Larger leaves are associated with lower stomatal density

Because epidermal cell fate is determined early in development, we predicted that larger leaves (higher LA<sub>1</sub>) would be associated with lower SD, since a similar number of stomata would be spread over a larger area. There was a negative correlation between LA<sub>1</sub> with SD (Fig. 4A) but not SP (Fig. 4B) in both treatments. Consequently, large-leaved species 'diluted' stomatal density

by increasing the proportion of epidermal cells. Leaf size is mainly determined by cell number and not cell size at inter- and intraspecific level in plants grown in different environmental conditions (Dale 1992; Tardieu and Granier 2000). Thus, smaller leaf size is expected to result from smaller cells and to increase stomatal density due to a ‘concentration’ effect (Gupta 1961; Sack et al. 2003; Carins Murphy et al. 2012; Hovenden et al. 2012). Evidence suggests a predominant role of water availability on cell growth (Cosgrove 1986; Fricke 2002), and a limit to cell division—cell initiation—set by photosynthetic input (Pantin et al. 2012). In this regard, leaf size reduction has been described as a common effect of drought stress (e.g. Westoby et al. 2002; McDonald et al. 2003; Ramírez-Valiente et al. 2010; Yates et al. 2010; Carins-Murphy et al. 2014). Nevertheless, it is worth noting that the differences in  $LA_1$  in *Limonium* were not related to the water treatment, but rather constitutive differences between species, which could affect adaptation to water shortage. Ultimately, this could also be related to different operational conditions of Rubisco (Fig. 1), given that the species with largest leaf size (see Supporting Information—Table S3; e.g. EJU, LEO, MAG, RET, but not BIF) have Rubisco haplotype II (Table 1), although it remains unknown currently. Further work with larger number of *Limonium* species could shed light on this relationship. On the other hand,  $LA_1$  did not correlate with stomatal pore length (SP) across *Limonium* species and treatments (Fig. 4B), consistent with small effects of leaf size on stomatal size (Sack and Frole 2006; Carins Murphy et al. 2012).

### Concluding remarks

Stomatal anatomy integrates Rubisco kinetics and leaf size in *Limonium* species, consistent with selection on functional coordination and shared developmental pathways. Low  $g_{smax}$  was achieved through low SD [see Supporting Information—Fig. S1B], which we hypothesized selects for Rubisco enzymes with higher specificity for carbon but lower carboxylation rate. This finding suggests that variation in both stomatal traits and Rubisco kinetics is maintained by these trade-offs. Furthermore, low SD was achieved in part through larger leaf sizes (Fig. 4), implying that large-leaved *Limonium* species actually have greater water conservation (lower  $g_s$ ) under severe WD. While leaf size reduction is commonly observed under harsh conditions, leaf size differences in *Limonium* are not related to acclimation to severe WD but are intrinsic species traits and thus, may better correlate to constitutive species differences like Rubisco kinetics. Moreover, the counter-intuitive leaf size response to water shortage can be explained by functional and developmental integration of anatomical, biochemical and morphological traits. Hence, organisms must be studied as integrated wholes to understand patterns of trait covariation across species.

### Data

Data for this work may be found at <https://github.com/cdmuir/limonium-stomata> and archived at <http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3346025>.

### Supporting Information

The following additional information is available in the online version of this article—

### Supporting Methods

**Figure S1.** Average water available in the pot as percent of field across all the *Limonium* species in the well-watered (WW;

black) and severe water-deficit (WD; grey) treatments. Solid line is average for all the species, and dashed and dotted lines are maximum and minimum values among all the species, respectively. As an average for all the species, water content in 3 L pots ranged from ~70 % (just before irrigation, ~1570 g water in soil) to 100 % (just after irrigation, ~2251 g water in soil) in WW and from ~9 % (just before irrigation, ~210 g water in soil) to ~30 % (just after irrigation, ~638 g water in soil) in WD. The period shown corresponds to the days with water treatments completely established.

**Figure S2.** Stomatal density (Panel A) pore length (Panel B) on abaxial (x-axes) and adaxial (y-axes) leaf surfaces across *Limonium* species. Each point is the model-estimated average trait value for each of 10 species in well-watered control (WW; black circles) and severe water-deficit (WD; white circles) treatments. Bars are  $\pm 1$  SE. The grey, dashed line is the 1:1 line for reference. Stomatal densities are similar on each surface (Panel A), but adaxial stomata are generally smaller than abaxial (Panel B). Regression lines are not plotted because we did not model these variables as a causal relationship, but rather as covarying within and between species. Correlation estimates and P-values are in Table S1.

**Figure S3.** Stomatal anatomy determines the maximum conductance to  $CO_2$  and water vapour ( $g_{smax}$ ). Both stomatal density (Panel B) and size (Panel C, calculated from pore length, SP, see Materials and Methods) strongly influence  $g_{smax}$  in both well-watered (WW; black circles) and severe water-deficit (WD; white circles) treatments. Because  $g_{smax}$  was calculated from stomatal density and size (see Materials and Methods), it is not German to include statistical tests of association (P-values and  $r$ ). There was no significant correlation between density and size among species in either treatment (Panel A). Points represent the mean value per species and bars represent the standard errors.

**Figure S4.** Anatomical responses to severe water-deficit (WD) treatment differed among *Limonium* species (see Results).  $\frac{g_{smax,WW}}{g_{smax,WD}}$  (y-axis) is the ratio of anatomical maximum conductances under well-watered (WW) and WD treatments. A value of 1 indicates no difference between treatments. Although model comparison indicated that species responded differently, no single species had a significant response (i.e. all 95 % highest posterior density [HPD] intervals overlap 1). Points represent the median value per species and bars represent the 95 % HPD interval. Species codes (x-axis) are given in Table 1.

**Figure S5.** Physiological responses to severe water-deficit (WD) treatment did not differ among *Limonium* species (see Results).  $\frac{g_{s,WW}}{g_{s,WD}}$  (y-axis) is the ratio of operational stomatal conductance under well-watered (WW) and WD treatments. A value of 1 indicates no difference between treatments. Although model comparison indicated that species responded similarly, all species had a significant response (i.e. all 95 % highest posterior density [HPD] intervals do not overlap 1). Points represent the median value per species and bars represent the 95 % HPD interval. Species codes (x-axis) are given in Table 1.

**Table S1.** Abaxial and adaxial stomatal densities (SD [ $mm^{-2}$ ]) are similar across *Limonium* species and not altered by severe water-deficit (WD) treatment. Fixed effects of the WD treatment on natural log-transformed SD were small and not statistically significant based on 95 % highest posterior density (HPD) intervals and P-values. There was no significant correlation between ab-adaxial SD among species, but there was within species. Other model parameters not shown.

**Table S2.** Stomatal pore length (SP [ $\mu m$ ]) is generally larger in the abaxial than the adaxial leaf surface across *Limonium* species, but not altered by severe water-deficit (WD) treatment.

Fixed effects of the WD treatment on natural log-transformed SP were small and not statistically significant based on 95 % highest posterior density (HPD) intervals and *P*-values. There was no significant correlation between ab-adaxial SP among species, but there was within species. Other model parameters not shown.

**Table S3.** Stomata anatomical traits (*SD* = stomatal density, *SP* = pore length), stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ ) and leaf size (leaf area per leaf,  $LA_l$ ) for all the species under the well-watered (WW) and severe water-deficit (WD) treatments. Parameters shown are the sum (*SD*) or average (*SP*) of both leaf surfaces. Stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ ) measured with gas-exchange analyzer under experimental conditions. Each entry gives the mean  $\pm$  SE (*n*) where SE is the standard error and *n* is the sample size. Note that treatment effects (e.g. see **Supporting Information—Figs S4 and S5**) were determined for all species simultaneously from the posterior distribution of multilevel Bayesian models, not single-species SE and *n* reported in this table (see Materials and Methods for further detail). This procedure accounts for multiple comparisons, main/interaction effects and residual trait correlations which would not be captured in a species-by-species analysis. See **Table 1** for species codes.

**Table S4.** Rubisco kinetic parameters for each species: Rubisco carboxylase specific activity ( $k_c^{cat}$ ) and specificity factor ( $S_{c/o}$ ). See **Table 1** for species codes. The left columns are calculated from the raw data; the right columns beginning with ‘Model’ are estimated from a Bayesian multilevel model treating Species as a random effect and Rubisco kinetic parameters as correlated multivariate Gaussian responses (see Materials and Methods for further detail). Model-based parameter estimates are used in figures and statistical analyses. Each entry gives the mean  $\pm$  SE (*n*) where SE is the standard error and *n* is the sample size.

**Table S5.** Severe water-deficit (WD) treatment had no significant effect on stomatal density (*SD*) or pore length (*SP*) in *Limonium*. Fixed effects of the WD treatment on both traits were small and not statistically significant based on 95 % highest posterior density (HPD) intervals and *P*-values. SE is the standard error. Other model parameters not shown.

**Table S6.** Average anatomical maximum stomatal conductance to water vapour ( $g_{smax}$  [mol H<sub>2</sub>O m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>]) in well-watered (WW) and severe water-deficit (WD) treatments based on Bayesian multilevel model estimates from stomatal density and size (see Materials and Methods). See **Table 1** for species codes. SE is the standard error; 95 % HPD interval is the 95 % highest posterior density interval.

**Table S7.** Severe water-deficit (WD) treatment lowered stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ ), but did not alter the effect of anatomical maximum stomatal conductance ( $g_{smax}$ ) on  $g_s$  in *Limonium* based on 95 % highest posterior density (HPD) intervals and *P*-values. SE is the standard error. Other model parameters not shown.

**Table S8.** Greater leaf size (leaf area per leaf,  $LA_l$ ) is associated lower stomatal density (*SD*) in *Limonium*, but has no effect on pore length (*SP*) based on 95 % highest posterior density (HPD) intervals and *P*-values. SE is the standard error. Other model parameters not shown.

**Table S9.** Indicative parameters of leaf physiological stress in the 10 species of *Limonium*, extracted from **Galmés et al. (2017)**. See **Table 1** for species codes. The leaf relative water content (RWC) and the quantum efficiency of PSII at predawn ( $F_v/F_m$ ) and mid-morning ( $\phi_{PSII}$ ) were measured under well-watered (WW) and severe water-deficit (WD) treatments. Values are means  $\pm$  SE (*n* = 3–5). Asterisks in WD indicate ANOVA significant differences between treatments within each species (*P* < 0.05).

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## Contributions by the Authors

M.C. and J.G. conceived and designed the study. M.C., A.M. and J.G. performed the experiment and collected the data. C.M. did relevant Bayesian statistical analyses. M.C. and C.M. drafted the manuscript, and all authors did significant contributions to the last version and approved it.

## Conflict of Interest

None declared.

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